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Cambridge School Dictionary

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Introduction

The **Cambridge School Dictionary** is a brand new dictionary designed to meet the needs of students studying through the medium of English, reflecting the growing popularity of CLIL (Content Language Integrated Learning) throughout the world. Particularly aimed at those taking International GCSE exams, the Cambridge School Dictionary gives you over 2000 curriculum based entries, from geography and anatomy to finance and literature, carefully selected by specialist teachers and checked by curriculum experts.

As well as having each word defined in clear, simple language, the Cambridge School Dictionary contains hundreds of illustrations and diagrams for when processes such as the nitrogen cycle or the digestion of food can be better understood in visual form. It also contains a unique Extra Help section, giving you tips on such matters as working with numbers, charts and graphs, and how to prepare for exams.

Also in the Extra Help section are ten pages of exercises focusing on school subject-based vocabulary and collocation, giving you the language you need to write or talk fluently and confidently about school subject areas such as photosynthesis, computing and the solar system. This helps you to reinforce your learning and to improve your English through your practice of subject-specific vocabulary.

All of the words relating to curriculum areas have been labelled with 'school subject' labels such as language, geology, religious studies and physics (see the inside front cover for a full list of these). The labels enable you to identify quickly and easily the words you need for any particular subject area.

The Cambridge School Dictionary does, of course, give you all the features you would expect from a good corpus-based learner's dictionary: clear, accurate definitions, extensive coverage of grammar and collocation, and examples of typical usage, enabling you to see how the word is really used in its natural contexts. It contains hundreds of Common Learner Errors boxes, thoroughly researched using the *Cambridge Learner Corpus* (a 30m word corpus of students' writing) helping you avoid the mistakes most frequently made by learners. Guidewords lead you to the meaning you need when the word has more than two senses. In addition, the dictionary contains hundreds of new words, enabling you to keep up with changes to the English language and keeping your own English up-to-date.

But this is not all: the CD-ROM comes with some really exciting features, including the unique SMART thesaurus, giving you alternatives to over-used words and helping you to find the exact word you need. It has recordings of every word in the dictionary with both British and American pronunciations - you can even record your own voice and play it back, comparing your own pronunciation with the standard. In addition to the exercises in the book, the CD-ROM contains hundreds of interactive vocabulary practice exercises. It is also searchable, so if you want to call up all the vocabulary relating to one topic area you can do this in a couple of clicks. And for when you're working at your computer, there is the QUICKfind facility, a mini pop-up version of the dictionary that gives you instant definitions of words while you are studying or surfing the Web.

This is the perfect companion for learners studying other subjects through the medium of English up to IGCSE level. In it you will find everything you need to help you study, revise for and pass those all-important exams.

Stella O'Shea

September 2008

How to use this dictionary

Finding a word

Each entry begins with the base form of the word.

language /ˈlæŋgwɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** **LANGUAGE** [**U**] communication between people, usually using words *She has done research into how children acquire language.* **2** **LANGUAGE** [**C**] a type of communication used by the people of a particular country *How many **languages** do you speak?* **3** **LANGUAGE** [**U**] words of a particular type, especially the words used by people in a particular job *legal language* ○ *the language of business* **4** **COMPUTING** [**C, U**] a system of instructions that is used to write computer programs ➲See also: **body language, modern languages, second language, sign language**

Words which are made of two separate words (compounds) are found in alphabetical order. The stress marks (ˈ,ˌ) show you which part of the word to say strongly.

ˈlanguage laˌboratory *UK* (*US* **ˈlanguage ˌlaboratory**) *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** a room in a college or school where you can use equipment to help you practise listening to and speaking a foreign language

When a word can be spelled another way, or when there is another word for it, this is shown.

dialogue (*also US* **dialog**) /ˈdaɪəlɒg/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** TALKING the talking in a book, play, or film **2** DISCUSSION a formal discussion between countries or groups of people

interface[1] /ˈɪntəfeɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **COMPUTING** a connection between two pieces of electronic equipment, or between a person and a computer *a simple **user interface*** **2** a situation, way, or place where two things can come together and have an effect on each other *the **interface between** technology and tradition*

When two words have the same spelling but different parts of speech (e.g. a noun and an adjective), they have separate entries.

interface[2] /ˈɪntəˌfeɪs/ *verb* [**I, T**] **COMPUTING** to communicate with people or electronic equipment, or to make people or electronic equipment communicate *We use email to **interface with** our customers.*

School subject labels show you what curriculum area the word belongs to.

Some words which are formed from the main word are shown at the end of an entry. If a word is not formed with a regular pattern, or if its meaning is not easy to guess, it has its own explanation. See Word beginnings and endings on page 873.

fluent /ˈfluːənt/ *adjective* **1** LANGUAGE able to use a language naturally without stopping or making mistakes *She is fluent in six languages.* **2** STYLE produced or done in a smooth, natural style *Hendrik speaks fluent English.* ●**fluency** /ˈfluːənsi/ *noun* [U] ●**fluently** *adverb*

Understanding an entry

Where a word has more than one meaning, the most frequent meaning is shown first.

Words which have several meanings have GUIDEWORDS to help you find the meaning you are looking for. Guidewords appear in black type with a black box around them.

voice¹ /vɔɪs/ *noun* **1** SOUNDS [C] the sounds that you make when you speak or sing *I could hear voices in the next room.* ○ *Jessie has a beautiful singing voice.* ○ *Could you please* ***keep your voices down*** (= speak more quietly)*?* ○ *He* ***raised his voice*** (= spoke more loudly) *so that everyone could hear.* **2 lose your voice** HEALTH to become unable to speak, often because of an illness *She had a bad cold and was losing her voice.* **3** OPINION [C] someone's opinion about a particular subject *The programme gives people the opportunity to make their voices heard.* **4** PERSON [**no plural**] someone who expresses the opinions or wishes of a group of people *It's important that students have a voice on the committee.* ➲See also: **the passive voice**

Each word has a part of speech label (e.g. *noun, verb, adj*) For a list of the parts of speech, see inside the front cover.

Grammar labels tell you how a word is used. See the grammar labels on page xiii.

Example sentences, based on the *Cambridge International Corpus*, show how words are used in typical situations.

say¹ /seɪ/ *verb* [T] **says** *past* **said 1** WORDS to speak words *"I'd like to go home," she said.* ○ *I couldn't hear what they were saying.* ○ *How do you say this word?* **2** TELL to tell someone about a fact, thought, or opinion [+ **question word**] *Did she say where she was going?* [+ **(that)**] *The jury said that he was guilty.* **3** INFORMATION to give information in writing, numbers, or signs *My watch says one o'clock.* ○ *What do the papers say about the election?* **4 say sth to yourself** to think something but not speak *"I hope she likes me," he said to himself.* **5** SHOW to show what

This symbol shows very frequent words which are important to learn.

Pronunciations use the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). There is a list of these symbols inside the back cover of the dictionary. The most difficult symbols are also explained at the bottom of each page.There is an explanation of the pronunciation system on page xvi.

Irregular inflections of words are clearly shown. There is a list of irregular verb inflections on page 870 and an explanation of regular inflections on page 868.

speak /spiːk/ *verb past tense* **spoke**, *past participle* **spoken** **1** SAY WORDS [**I**] to say something using your voice *to speak loudly/quietly* ◇ *There was complete silence - nobody spoke.* **2 speak to sb** *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **speak with sb**) to talk to someone *Could I speak to Mr Davis, please?* ○ *Have you spoken with your new neighbors yet?* **3 speak about/of sth** to talk about something *He refused to speak about the matter in public.* **4 speak English/French/German, etc LANGUAGE** to be able to communicate in English/French/German, etc *Do you speak English?* **5** IN PUBLIC [**I**] to make a speech to a large group of people *She was invited to speak at a conference in Madrid.* **6 speak for/on behalf of sb** to express the feelings, opinions, etc of another person or of a group of people *I've been chosen to speak on behalf of the whole class.* **7 generally/personally, etc speaking** used

These labels show you when a word is used in British English or American English. See explanation of these labels on page xv.

These labels tell you how formal, informal, etc a word is. See explanation of all these labels on page xv.

chat[1] /tʃæt/ *verb* [**I**] **chatting** *past* **chatted** to talk with someone in a friendly and informal way *I wanted to* ***chat to*** *you* ***about*** *the party on Saturday.*
chat sb up *phrasal verb UK informal* to talk to someone in a way that shows them that you are sexually attracted to them

Learning more about a word

Cross references show you where you can find related information such as opposites, pictures, study pages, and idioms.

ask /ɑːsk/ *verb* **1** QUESTION [**I, T**] to say something to someone as a question which you want them to answer [**+ two objects**] *Can I* ***ask*** *you a few* ***questions?*** ○ *I* ***asked*** *him* ***about*** *his hobbies.* [**+ question word**] *I asked why the plane was so late.* ⇒ See Common Learner Error at **question** **2** WANT SOMETHING [**I, T**] to say something to someone because you want them to give you something *He's* ***asked for*** *a bike for his birthday.* **3** REQUEST [**I, T**] to say something to some-

Words which are often used together, called **collocations** or **Word Partners** are shown in dark type in examples.

communicate /kəˈmjuːnɪkeɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** INFORMATION to share information with others by speaking, writing, moving your body, or using other signals *We can now* ***communicate*** *instantly* ***with*** *people on the other side of the world.* **2** FEELINGS to talk about your thoughts and feelings, and help other people to understand them *He can't* ***communicate with*** *his parents.*

Some words are used as part of a phrase. This is shown clearly at the start of the definition.

Phrasal verbs come after the entry for the verb in alphabetical order.

spell[1] /spel/ *verb past* **spelled**, *also UK* **spelt** **1** LANGUAGE [**T**] to write down or tell someone the letters which are used to make a word *How do you spell that?* ○ *Her name's spelt S-I-A-N.* **2** LANGUAGE [**I**] If you can spell, you know how to write the words of a language correctly. *My grammar's all right, but I can't spell.* **3** **spell disaster/trouble, etc** If something spells disaster, trouble, etc, you think it will cause something bad to happen in the future. *The new regulations could spell disaster for small businesses.*

spell sth out *phrasal verb* to explain something in a very clear way with details *They sent me a letter,* ***spelling out the details*** *of the agreement.*

Some words are used as part of an idiom. These are shown in dark type at the end of the entry.

message[1] /ˈmesɪdʒ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a piece of written or spoken information which one person gives to another *Did you* ***get*** *my* ***message?*** ○ *I* ***left*** *her several* ***messages****, but she hasn't returned my call.* **2** the most important idea of a film, book, etc *The book conveys a complex message.* **3** **get the message** *informal* to understand what someone wants you to do by their actions *Don't return any of his calls - he'll soon get the message and leave you alone.*

All our definitions use very simple words. Where we have had to use a more difficult word than usual, that word is explained in brackets.

express[1] /ɪkˈspres/ *verb* [**T**] to show what you think or how you feel using words or actions *I'm simply expressing my opinion.* [**often reflexive**] *You're not expressing yourself* (= saying what you mean) *very clearly.*

The information in the boxes

These Word Partner boxes give you information on words that are often spoken or written together, called **collocations** or **Word Partners**. There are over 1000 of these boxes in this dictionary.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***text message***

get/send a text message • a text message **saying** sth • a text message **from/to** sb

These thesaurus boxes show you all the different words which have the same or a similar meaning. There are 80 of these boxes in this dictionary.

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***talk***

The most common alternatives are **speak** and **say**: *Could you **speak** more quietly, please?* • *I couldn't hear what they were **saying**.*

The verb **chat** or the expression **have a chat** are often used if a person is talking with someone in a friendly, informal way: *We were just **chatting** about the party on Saturday.* • *Give me a call and we'll **have a chat**.*

If people talk for a long time about things that are not important, verbs such as **chatter**, **natter** (*UK, informal*), and the expression **have a natter** (*UK, informal*) are sometimes used: *She spent the morning **chattering** away to her friends.* • *We **had a** long **natter** over coffee.*

Common Learner Error notes based on the *Cambridge Learner Corpus* give extra information about words which often cause problems for learners.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

mention

No preposition is normally needed after the verb **mention**.

He didn't mention the price.

~~*He didn't mention about the price.*~~

More information on using the dictionary

Grammar labels

When a word must *always* be used in a particular grammatical form, that form is shown at the beginning of the entry or the beginning of the meaning. Patterns which are common and typical, but are not *always* used, are given next to example sentences showing how they are used.

Nouns

C	countable noun	pencil, friend, house
U	uncountable noun, does not have a plural	water, advice, health
C, U	noun which can be countable or uncountable	ability, quantity, exercise ▶ *You should take some* ***exercise****.* ▶ *I do my* ***exercises*** *every morning.*
➡	see also Extra help page **Countable and uncountable nouns**, on page Centre 30	
group	noun which refers to a group of people or things and can be used with either a singular or a plural verb	government, class, team ▶ *The French* ***team are*** *European champions.* ▶ *His* ***team is*** *top of the league.*
plural	plural noun, used with a plural verb	trousers, scissors, pliers
no plural	noun which can be used with **a** and **an**, but does not have a plural	rush, vicious circle, wait ▶ *Sorry, I'm in* ***a rush****.*
usually plural	noun usually used in the plural form	statistics, resources, regulations
usually singular	noun usually used in the singular form	mess, range, world

Verbs

I	intransitive verb, does not have an object	sleep, glance, fall ▶ *Anna's* ***sleeping****.*
T	transitive verb, must have an object	cure, hit, catch ▶ *Fiona* ***hit*** *her* ***sister****.*
I, T	verb that can be intransitive or transitive	sing, explain, drive ▶ *I always* ***sing*** *in the bath.* ▶ *He* ***sang*** *a love* ***song****.*
+ two objects	ditransitive verb, that has two objects	give, send, lend ▶ *She* ***gave me*** *the* ***keys****.*

often passive	verb often used in the passive	allow ► *Smoking **is** not **allowed** in the restaurant.*
often reflexive	verb often used with a reflexive pronoun (myself, yourself, herself, etc)	defend ► *He can **defend** him**self**.*

If a verb or a meaning of a verb is ***always* passive** (e.g. inundate, demote, affiliate) or ***always* reflexive** (e.g. brace, ingratiate, steel), the whole grammar pattern is shown at the beginning of the entry.

Some verb or meanings of verbs are **always followed by an adverb or preposition** (e.g. creep, flick, trickle) . When this happens, common examples of adverbs and prepositions used are shown at the beginning of the entry or the meaning.

➡ see also Extra help page **Verb patterns**, on page Centre 25

Adjectives

always before noun	attributive adjective, always comes before the noun	major, basic, staunch ► *a **staunch** supporter*
never before noun	predicative adjective, used with verbs such as **be**, **seem**, **feel**	afraid, ready, done ► *She's **afraid** of water.*
always after noun	adjective always used directly after the noun	galore, personified, incarnate ► *the devil **incarnate***

Other grammar patterns

The following patterns can refer to nouns, adjectives, and verbs:

+ that	the word is followed by a **that clause**, and the word **that** must be included	boast, assertion, evident ► *It was **evident** from her voice **that** she was upset.*
+ (that)	the word is followed by a **that clause** but the word **that** does not have to be used	hope, amazed, doubt ► *I **hope that** the bus won't be late.* *I **hope** the bus won't be late.*
+ doing sth	the word is followed by a verb in the –ing form	enjoy, busy, difficulty ► *I **enjoy** go**ing** to the beach.*
+ to do sth	the word is followed by a verb in the infinitive	confidence, careful, decide ► *I didn't have the **confidence to speak up**.*
+ from/for/of, etc + doing sth	the word is followed by a preposition (e.g. from/for/of) then a verb in the –ing form	apologize, idea, guilty ► *He was **banned from** driving for two years.*
+ question word	the word is followed by a question word (e.g. who, what, how)	ask, certain, clue ► *I'm not **certain who** to ask.*
used in questions and negatives	the word is used in questions and negative sentences	mind, much, yet ► *Do you mind if I come in?* *I haven't seen him yet.*

Usage labels

informal	used when you are speaking, or communicating with people you know, but not usually in serious writing	brainy, freebie, cop
formal	used in serious writing or for communicating with people about things like law or business	examination, moreover, purchase
very informal	used when you are talking to people you know well, and not usually in writing. Some of these words may offend people, and this is explained in the entry.	dude, barf, innit
spoken	a way of writing a word which is used in conversation	yeah, hey, eh
humorous	used in order to be funny or to make a joke	couch potato, snail mail
literary	used in books and poems, not in ordinary conversation	beloved, slumber, weep
old-fashioned	not used in modern English – you might find these words in books, used by older people, or used in order to be funny	gramophone, spectacles, super
trademark	the name of a product that is made by one company. Sometimes a trademark is used as a general word.	Coke, iPod, Band-Aid

UK/US labels

The spelling used in definitions and examples in this dictionary is British English. However, American English is also explained, and where there is a difference between British and American English, this is shown.

UK	only used in British English	pavement, petrol station
US	only used in American English	sidewalk, gas station
mainly UK	mainly used in British English, but sometimes in American English	lecturer, rubbish, nightdress
mainly US	mainly used in American English, but sometimes in British English	movie, apartment, semester
also UK	another word that can also be used in British English	truck (*also UK* lorry) ■ **truck** is used in Britain and the US **lorry** is also used in Britain
also US	another word that can also be used in American English	railway (*also US* railroad) ■ **railway** is used in Britain and the US **railroad** is also used in the US

Pronunciation

All pronunciations use the International Phonetic Alphabet. There is a complete list of phonetic symbols inside the back cover.

Many phonetic symbols, e.g. /p/, /s/, /k/, sound exactly like the most common pronunciation of the letter they look like. Those that do not are explained at the bottom of every page of the dictionary.

Where more than one pronunciation is shown, the more common one is first, but both are often used.

British and American pronunciation

Most words are given only one pronunciation, which is acceptable in British and American English. There are some regular differences between British and American English which are not shown for every word.

The main ones are:

1 In American English, the **r** in words such as **hard** or **teacher** is pronounced, and in British English it is silent.

2 In American English, **t** and **tt** in words such as **later** and **butter**, are pronounced in a soft way, almost like a /d/ sound.

Where there is a big difference between British and American pronunciation, both forms are shown. The symbol (US) is shown before an American pronunciation, e.g. **schedule** /ˈʃedjuːl (US) ˈskedʒuːl/

Stress patterns

Stress patterns show you which parts of the word you should emphasize when you say them.

/ˈ/ shows the main emphasis on a word. For example, in the word **picture** /ˈpɪktʃəʳ/, you should emphasize the first part, and in the word **deny** /dɪˈnaɪ/ you should emphasize the second part.

/ˌ/ shows the second most important emphasis on the word. For example, in the word **submarine** /ˌsʌbmərˈiːn/, the main emphasis is on the last part of the word, but you should also emphasize the first part of the word slightly.

Compound words (words made of two or more separate words) have their stress patterns shown on them. For example in the word **de**ˌ**signer** ˈ**baby**, the main emphasis is on the first part of the second word, but you should also emphasize the first part of the first word slightly.

Strong forms and weak forms

Some common words (e.g. and, them, of) have strong forms and weak forms. The weak forms are more common.

For example, in the sentence '*I saw them leave.*', the weak form /ðəm/ would be used.

The strong form is used when you want to emphasize the word. For instance, in the sentence '*They said they saw me, but I didn't see them.*', the strong form /ðem/ would be used.

Regular inflections

All inflections (e.g. plurals, past tenses) that are not regular (= are not formed in the usual way) are shown at the entry for the word. The regular way of forming inflections is shown below.

Nouns

Most nouns form their plurals by adding **–s**
▶ *chair, chairs* ▶ *plate, plates*

Nouns which end in **–s**, **–ss**, **–ch**, **–x**, and **–z**, make their plurals by adding **–es**
▶ *mass, masses* ▶ *match, matches*

Nouns which end in a consonant (e.g. m, t, p) + **–y**, form their plurals by taking away the **–y** and adding **–ies**
▶ *baby, babies* ▶ *university, universities*

Adjectives

The comparative form of adjectives is used to show that someone or something has more of a particular quality than someone or something else. To make the regular comparative form, you either add **–er** to the end of the adjective, or use the word **more** before it.

The superlative form of adjectives is used to show that someone or something has more of a particular quality than anyone or anything else. To make the regular superlative form, you either add **–est** to the end of the adjective, or use the word **most** before it.

One-syllable adjectives usually form their comparative and superlative with **–er** and **–est**
▶ *small, smaller, smallest*

Two-syllable adjectives can all form their comparative and superlative with **more** and **most**.
▶ *complex, more complex, most complex*

Some two-syllable adjectives can use **–er** and **–est** too. The most common of these are:

- adjectives ending in **–y** and **–ow**,
  ▶ *happy, noisy, shallow*
- adjectives ending in **–le**,
  ▶ *able, noble, simple*
- some other common two-syllable adjectives,
  ▶ *common, stupid, pleasant, polite, quiet, wicked*

Three-syllable adjectives usually form their comparative and superlative with **more** and **most**
▶ *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful*

When you are using the **–er**, **–est** forms, if the adjective ends in **–e**, take away the **–e** before adding the ending
▶ *pale, paler, palest*

If the adjective ends in **–y**, change this to **–i** before adding the ending
▶ *happy, happier, happiest*

Verbs

Regular verbs add the following endings:

for the **3rd person singular** add **–s**, or **–es** to verbs that end in **–s**, **–ss**, **–ch**, **–x**, and **–z**

for the **present participle** add **–ing**

for the **past tense** and the **past participle** add **–ed**
▶ *pack, packs, packing, packed*

For verbs ending in **–e**, take away the **–e** before adding the present participle, past tense, and past participle endings.
▶ *hate, hates, hating, hated*

For verbs ending in **–y**, for the third person singular take away the **–y** and add **–ies**, and for the past tense and past participle take away the **–y** and add **–ied**.
▶ *cry, cries, crying, cried*

Aa

A, a /eɪ/ the first letter of the alphabet

O-key **a** (*also* **an**) *strong form* /eɪ/ *weak form* /ə/ *determiner* **1** BEFORE NOUN used before a noun to refer to a single thing or person but not a particular thing or person or not one that you have referred to before *I need a new car.* ○ *I saw a woman speaking to him.* **2** ONE one *a hundred dollars* ○ *a dozen eggs* **3** EVERY/EACH every or each *A child needs love.* ○ *Take one tablet three times a* (= each) *day.* **4** TYPE used to say what type of thing or person something or someone is *It's a guinea pig.* ○ *She's a doctor.* **5** AN ACTION used before some action nouns when referring to one example of the action *I'm just going to have a wash.* ○ *Take a look at this.* **6** TWO NOUNS used before the first of two nouns that are often used together *a cup and saucer* **7** AMOUNTS used before some phrases saying how much of something there is *a few days* ○ *a bit of sugar* **8** NAME used before a person's name when referring to someone you do not know *There's a Ms Leeming to see you.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

a or an?

Remember to use **an** in front of words which begin with a vowel sound. These are words which start with the letters a, e, i, o, u, or a sound like those letters.

***a** car,* ***an** orange,* ***an** hour*

a- /eɪ/ *prefix* not, without *atypical* ○ *amoral*

aback /əˈbæk/ *adverb* **be taken aback** to be very surprised or shocked *I was rather taken aback by her honesty.*

abacus /ˈæbəkəs/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a square object with small balls on wires, used for counting

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***abandon***

be **forced to** abandon sth ● abandon an **attempt/effort/idea/plan/search**

abandon /əˈbændən/ *verb* [T] **1** LEAVE to leave someone or something somewhere, sometimes not returning to get them *They were* ***forced to abandon*** *the car.* **2** STOP DOING to stop doing something before it is finished, or to stop following a plan, idea, etc *The match was abandoned because of rain.* ●**abandoned** *adjective* ●**abandonment** *noun* [U]

abate /əˈbeɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* to become less strong *By the weekend, the storms had abated.*

abattoir /ˈæbətwɑːr/ *UK* (*UK/US* **slaughterhouse**) *noun* [C] **FARMING** a place where animals are killed for meat

abbey /ˈæbi/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a group of buildings that is a home for monks or nuns (= religious men or women who live separately from other people)

abbreviate /əˈbriːvieɪt/ *verb* [T] **LANGUAGE** to make a word or phrase shorter *The word 'street' is often* ***abbreviated to*** *'St'.*

abbreviation /əˌbriːviˈeɪʃˀn/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a shorter form of a word or phrase, especially used in writing *A doctor is often called a 'GP', an* ***abbreviation for*** *'general practitioner'.*

abdicate /ˈæbdɪkeɪt/ *verb* **1** [I] If a king or queen abdicates, they choose to stop being king or queen. **2 abdicate responsibility** *formal* to decide not to be responsible for something any more ●**abdication** /ˌæbdɪˈkeɪʃˀn/ *noun* [C, U]

abdomen /ˈæbdəmən/ *noun* [C] *formal* **ANATOMY** the lower part of a person or animal's body, containing the stomach and other organs ●**abdominal** /æbˈdɒmɪnˀl/ *adjective* to do with the abdomen *abdominal pains*

abduct /əbˈdʌkt/ *verb* [T] to take someone away illegally *He was abducted by a terrorist group.* ●**abduction** /əbˈdʌkʃˀn/ *noun* [C, U]

aberration /ˌæbəˈreɪʃˀn/ *noun* [C] *formal* a temporary change from what usually happens

abet /əˈbet/ *verb* **abetting**, *past* **abetted** ➲See: **aid²** and abet (sb)

abhor /əbˈhɔːr/ *verb* [T] **abhorring**, *past* **abhorred** *formal* to hate something or someone very much ●**abhorrence** /əbˈhɒrˀns/ *noun* [U] *formal*

abhorrent /əbˈhɒrənt/ *adjective* *formal* morally very bad *an abhorrent crime*

abide /əˈbaɪd/ *verb* **can't abide sb/sth** to strongly dislike someone or something *I can't abide rudeness.*
abide by sth *phrasal verb* to obey a rule *Staff who refused to* ***abide by*** *the* ***rules*** *were fired.*

abiding /əˈbaɪdɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An abiding feeling or memory is one that you have for a long time. *My* ***abiding memory*** *is of him watering his plants in the garden.* ➲See also: **law-abiding**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ability***

have/lack/possess ability ● **innate/remarkable/uncanny** ability

O-key **ability** /əˈbɪləti/ *noun* [C, U] the physical or mental skill or qualities that you need to do something *athletic/academic ability* [+ **to do sth**] *He* ***had the ability*** *to explain things clearly.* ○ *The report questions the technical ability of the staff.* ➲Opposite **inability** ➲Compare **disability**

abject /ˈæbdʒekt/ *adjective* **1 abject misery/poverty/terror, etc** when someone is extremely unhappy, poor, afraid, etc **2** showing that you are very ashamed of what you have done *an* ***abject apology***

ablation /əˈbleɪʃˀn/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the loss of ice, snow or rock from melting or erosion (= being damaged and removed by wind, sea or rain)

ablaze /əˈbleɪz/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] burning strongly

O-key **able** /ˈeɪbl/ *adjective* **1 be able to do sth** to have the ability to do something or the possibility of doing something *He'll be able to help you.* ➲Opposite **be unable** to do sth **2** clever or good at doing something *She's a very* ***able student.***

A

●**ably** *adverb Robson,* ***ably assisted*** *by Anderson, has completely rebuilt the team.*

able-bodied /ˌeɪbl'bɒdɪd/ *adjective* HEALTH having all the physical abilities that most people have

abnormal /æb'nɔːmᵊl/ *adjective* different from what is normal or usual, in a way which is strange or dangerous *abnormal behaviour/weather* ○ *They found* ***abnormal levels*** *of lead in the water.* ●**abnormally** *adverb*

abnormality /ˌæbnɔː'mæləti/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH something abnormal, usually in the body *a* ***genetic abnormality***

aboard /ə'bɔːd/ *adverb, preposition* on or onto a plane, ship, bus, or train *Welcome aboard flight BA109 to Paris.*

abode /ə'bəʊd/ *noun* [C] *formal* a home

abolish /ə'bɒlɪʃ/ *verb* [T] LAW to officially end something, especially a law or system *National Service was abolished in Britain in 1962.* ●**abolition** /ˌæbə'lɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *the abolition of slavery*

abominable /ə'bɒmɪnəbl/ *adjective* extremely bad *a abominable behaviour* ●**abominably** *adverb*

Aboriginal /ˌæbə'rɪdʒᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* SOCIETY relating or belonging to the original race of people who lived in Australia ●**Aborigine** /ˌæbə'rɪdʒᵊni/ *noun* [C] an Aboriginal person

abort /ə'bɔːt/ *verb* [T] **1** to stop a process before it has finished *The take-off was aborted due to bad weather.* **2** HEALTH to end a pregnancy that is not wanted using a medical operation

abortion /ə'bɔːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a medical operation to end a pregnancy when the baby is still too small to live *She* ***had*** *an* ***abortion.***

abortive /ə'bɔːtɪv/ *adjective* [always before noun] An abortive attempt or plan fails before it is complete.

the ABO system /ˌeɪbiː'əʊsɪstəm/ *noun* BIOLOGY, HEALTH the system that divides human blood into four main groups called A, B, AB and O

abound /ə'baʊnd/ *verb* [I] *formal* to exist in large numbers ***Rumours abound*** *about a possible change of leadership.*

about¹ /ə'baʊt/ *preposition* **1** SUBJECT relating to a particular subject or person *a book about the Spanish Civil War* ○ *What was she talking about?* **2** DIRECTION *UK* (*US* **around**) to or in different parts of a place, often without purpose or order *We heard someone moving about outside.* **3 what/how about ...? a** SUGGESTION used to make a suggestion *How about France for a holiday?* **b** OPINION used to ask for someone's opinion on a particular subject *What about Ann - is she nice?*

about² /ə'baʊt/ *adverb* **1** APPROXIMATELY used before a number or amount to mean approximately *It happened about two months ago.* **2** DIRECTION *UK* (*US* **around**) to or in different parts of a place, often without purpose or order *She's always leaving her clothes lying about.* **3** NEAR *UK informal* (*US* **around**) If someone or something is about, they are near to the place where you are now. *Is Kate about?* **4 be about to do sth** to be going to do something very soon *I stopped her just as she was about to leave.*

above¹ /ə'bʌv/ *adverb, preposition* **1** HIGHER POSITION in or to a higher position than something else *There's a mirror above the washbasin.* ○ *I could hear music coming from the room above.* **2** MORE more than an amount or level *It says on the box it's for children aged three and above.* ○ *Rates of pay are above average.* **3** RANK in a more important or advanced position than someone else *Sally's a grade above me.* **4** TOO IMPORTANT too good or important for something *No one is above suspicion in this matter.* **5 above all** most importantly *Above all, I'd like to thank everyone.*

above² /ə'bʌv/ *adjective, adverb* higher on the same page *the above diagram* ○ *the address shown above*

aˌbove ˈboard *adjective* [never before noun] honest and legal *We hired a lawyer to make sure the agreement was all above board.*

aˌbove the line proˈmotion *noun* [U] ways of advertising products that involve people outside the business, such as newspapers or TV

abrasive /ə'breɪsɪv/ *adjective* **1** SUBSTANCE An abrasive substance is rough and can be used for rubbing surfaces, to make them clean or smooth. **2** PERSON speaking or behaving in a rude and unpleasant way *an abrasive manner*

abreast /ə'brest/ *adverb* **1 keep (sb) abreast of sth** to make sure you or someone else knows about the most recent changes in a subject or situation *I'll keep you abreast of any developments.* **2 two/three/four, etc abreast** If people who are moving are two/three, etc abreast, that number of people are next to each other, side by side. *They were cycling four abreast, completely blocking the road.*

abridged /ə'brɪdʒd/ *adjective* An abridged book or other piece of writing has been made shorter. ➲Opposite **unabridged** ●**abridge** /ə'brɪdʒ/ *verb* [T]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***abroad***

go/live/travel/work abroad ● a **holiday/trip** abroad

abroad /ə'brɔːd/ *adverb* in or to a foreign country *He* ***goes abroad*** *a lot with his job.*

abrupt /ə'brʌpt/ *adjective* **1** SUDDEN sudden and not expected *Our conversation came to an* ***abrupt end.*** **2** RUDE dealing with people in a quick way that is unfriendly or rude *She has a rather* ***abrupt manner.*** ●**abruptly** *adverb*

abscess /'æbses/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a painful, swollen area on the body which contains a yellow liquid

abscond /əb'skɒnd/ *verb* [I] *formal* to leave somewhere suddenly without permission because you want to escape, or because you have stolen something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***absence***

a **lengthy/long/prolonged** absence ● an absence **from** sth ● **during/in** sb's absence

absence /'æbsᵊns/ *noun* **1** NOT THERE [C, U] a time when you are not in a particular place *Lisa*

will be acting as manager ***in*** *Phil's* ***absence*** (= while Phil is not here). ○ *A large number of* ***absences from*** *work are caused by back problems.* **2** NOT EXIST [U] when something does not exist ***In the absence of*** *any proof, it is impossible to accuse her.*

absent /ˈæbsᵊnt/ *adjective* not in the place where you are expected to be, especially at school or work *He has been* ***absent from*** *school all week.*

absentee /ˌæbsᵊnˈtiː/ *noun* [C] someone who is not in a place where they should be ●**absenteeism** *noun* [U] when someone is often absent from work or school

absently /ˈæbsᵊntli/ *adverb* without thinking about what you are doing *He stared absently at the television screen.*

absent-minded /ˌæbsᵊntˈmaɪndɪd/ *adjective* often forgetting things ●**absent-mindedly** *adverb* ●**absent-mindedness** *noun* [U]

absolute /ˈæbsəluːt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** COMPLETE complete *absolute power/control* ○ *The party was an absolute disaster.* **2** DEFINITE definite *There was no* ***absolute proof*** *of fraud.*

absolutely /ˌæbsəˈluːtli/ *adverb* **1** completely *The food was absolutely delicious.* ○ *There's absolutely nothing* (= nothing at all) *left.* **2 Absolutely.** used to strongly agree with someone *"Do you think it helped his career?" "Absolutely."* **3 Absolutely not.** used to strongly disagree with someone or to agree with something negative *"Are you suggesting that we should just ignore the problem?" "No, absolutely not."*

absolute zero *noun* [U] **PHYSICS, MEASURES** the lowest temperature that scientists think is possible

absolve /əbˈzɒlv/ *verb* [T] *formal* to formally say that someone is not guilty of something, or to forgive someone

absorb /əbˈzɔːb/ *verb* [T] **1** LIQUID If a substance absorbs a liquid, it takes it in through its surface and holds it. *The fabric absorbs all the moisture, keeping your skin dry.* **2 be absorbed in sth** to give all your attention to something that you are doing *Simon was so absorbed in his computer game, he didn't notice me come in.* **3** REMEMBER to understand and remember facts that you read or hear *It's hard to* ***absorb*** *so much* ***information.*** **4** BECOME PART OF If something is absorbed into something else, it becomes part of it. *The drug is quickly* ***absorbed into*** *the bloodstream.* ●**absorption** /əbˈzɔːpʃən/ *noun* [U]

absorbent /əbˈzɔːbənt/ *adjective* An absorbent substance can take liquids in through its surface and hold them. ●**absorbency** /əbˈzɔːbəntsi/ *noun* [U]

absorbing /əbˈzɔːbɪŋ/ *adjective* very interesting *an absorbing book/game*

abstain /əbˈsteɪn/ *verb* [I] **1** NOT DO *formal* to not do something that you enjoy because it is bad or unhealthy *The doctor suggested that he* ***abstain from*** *alcohol.* **2** NOT VOTE to choose not to vote for or against something *63 members voted in favour, 39 opposed and 5 abstained.* ●**abstention** /əbˈstenʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

abstinence /ˈæbstɪnəns/ *noun* [U] *formal* when you do not do something that you enjoy because it is bad or unhealthy

abstract /ˈæbstrækt/ *adjective* **1** relating to ideas and not real things *an* ***abstract concept*** **2 ART** Abstract art involves shapes and colours and not images of real things or people.

absurd /əbˈzɜːd/ *adjective* very silly *an absurd situation/suggestion* ●**absurdity** *noun* [C, U] ●**absurdly** *adverb*

abundance /əˈbʌndəns/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] *formal* a lot of something *an abundance of flowers* ○ *There was food* ***in abundance*** (= a lot of food).

abundant /əˈbʌndənt/ *adjective* existing in large quantities *an* ***abundant supply*** *of food* ●**abundantly** *adverb*

abuse¹ /əˈbjuːs/ *noun* **1** WRONG USE [C, U] when something is used for the wrong purpose in a way that is harmful or morally wrong ***drug/alcohol abuse*** ○ *abuse of public money* **2** VIOLENCE [U] violent, cruel treatment of someone ***child abuse*** ○ ***sexual abuse*** **3** LANGUAGE [U] rude and offensive words said to another person *Rival fans shouted abuse at each other.*

abuse² /əˈbjuːz/ *verb* [T] **1** VIOLENCE to treat someone cruelly and violently *He was* ***physically abused*** *by his alcoholic father.* **2** WRONG USE to use something for the wrong purpose in a way that is harmful or morally wrong *to abuse alcohol* **3** LANGUAGE to say rude and offensive words to someone *The crowd started abusing him.* ●**abuser** *noun* [C]

abusive /əˈbjuːsɪv/ *adjective* saying rude and offensive words to someone *an abusive phone call*

abysmal /əˈbɪzmᵊl/ *adjective* very bad, especially of bad quality *the team's* ***abysmal performance*** *last season* ●**abysmally** *adverb*

abyss /əˈbɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** SITUATION a very bad situation which will not improve [**usually singular**] *The country is sinking into an* ***abyss of*** *violence and bloodshed.* **2** HOLE *literary* a very deep hole

abyssal /əˈbɪsᵊl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** found at the bottom of deep oceans (= big seas)

AC /ˌeɪˈsiː/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** *abbreviation for* alternating current: electrical current which regularly changes the direction in which it moves ➲Compare **DC**

.ac /dɒtˈæk/ **COMPUTING, INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* academic institution: used in some internet addresses for organizations such as universities

academia /ˌækəˈdiːmiə/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** the people and organizations, especially universities, involved in studying

academic¹ /ˌækəˈdemɪk/ *adjective* **1 EDUCATION** related to education, schools, universities, etc ***academic ability/standards*** ○ *It's the start of the* ***academic year.*** **2** SUBJECTS related to subjects which involve thinking and studying and not technical or practical skills ***academic subjects*** **3** CLEVER clever and good at studying **4** NOT REAL If what someone says is

A

academic, it has no purpose because it relates to a situation that does not exist. *The whole discussion is academic since management won't even listen to us.* ●**academically** *adverb*

academic² /ˌækəˈdemɪk/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION someone who teaches at a university or college, or is paid to study there

academy /əˈkædəmi/ *noun* [C] **1** EDUCATION a college which teaches people the skills needed for a particular job *a military academy* **2** an organization whose purpose is to encourage and develop an art, science, language, etc *the Royal Academy of Music*

accelerate /əkˈseləreɪt/ *verb* **1** DRIVE [I] to start to drive faster **2** HAPPEN [I, T] to start to happen more quickly, or to make something start to happen more quickly *Inflation is likely to accelerate this year.* ●**acceleration** /əkˌseləˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

accelerator /əkˈseləreɪtəʳ/ (*also US* **gas pedal**) *noun* [C] the part of a car which you push with your foot to make it go faster ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***accent***

have/speak with a [local/northern/strong, etc] accent ● **lose** your accent ● a **heavy/strong/thick** accent

accent /ˈæksˈnt/ *noun* [C] **1** LANGUAGE the way in which someone pronounces words, influenced by the country or area they come from, or their social class *an American accent* ○ *a French accent* **2** LANGUAGE a mark above a letter to show you how to pronounce it, for example (â) and (é) **3** LANGUAGE the word or part of a word that you emphasize when you are speaking *In the word 'impossible' the* ***accent*** *is* ***on*** *the second syllable.* **4 the accent on sth** particular importance or attention that you give to something *a wonderful menu with the accent on fresh fish*

accentuate /əkˈsentʃueɪt/ *verb* [T] to emphasize something so that people notice it *make-up to accentuate the eyes*

accept /əkˈsept/ *verb* **1** AGREE [I, T] to agree to take something that is offered to you *to* ***accept an invitation/offer*** ○ *He won't accept advice from anyone.* **2** ADMIT [T] to admit that something is true, often something unpleasant [+ **(that)**] *He refuses to accept that he's made a mistake.* **3** ALLOW TO JOIN [T] to allow someone to join an organization or become part of a group *She's been accepted by two universities.* **4 accept responsibility/blame** to admit that you caused something bad that happened *The company has now accepted responsibility for the accident.* **5** UNDERSTAND [T] to understand that you cannot change a very sad or unpleasant situation *The hardest part is* ***accepting the fact*** *that you'll never see that person again.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

accept or **agree?**

When you accept an invitation, job, or offer, you say yes to something which is offered. **Accept** is never followed by another verb.

They offered me the job and I've accepted it.

~~*They offered me the job and I've accepted to take it.*~~

When you **agree** to do something, you say that you will do something which someone asks you to do.

They offered me the job and I agreed to take it.

acceptable /əkˈseptəbl/ *adjective* **1** GOOD ENOUGH good enough *work of an* ***acceptable standard*** ○ *We still hope to find a solution which is* ***acceptable to*** *both sides.* **2** ALLOWED allowed or approved of *Smoking is less and less* ***socially acceptable.*** ➲Opposite **unacceptable** ●**acceptability** /əkˌseptəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***acceptance***

sb/sth **gains/wins** acceptance ● **general/growing/grudging/public** acceptance ● acceptance **of** sth

acceptance /əkˈseptəns/ *noun* [C, U] when you accept something *his acceptance of the award* ○ *There is a growing* ***public acceptance of*** *alternative medicine.*

accepted /əkˈseptɪd/ *adjective* agreed or approved by most people *an accepted spelling*

access¹ /ˈækses/ *noun* [U] **1** OPPORTUNITY when you have the right or opportunity to use or see something *I don't* ***have access to*** *that kind of information.* ○ *Do you have Internet access?* **2** ENTRANCE the way in which you can enter a place or get to a place *The only* ***access to*** *the village is by boat.*

access² /ˈækses/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to find or see information, especially using a computer *You can access the files over the Internet.*

accessible /əkˈsesəbl/ *adjective* **1** FIND easy to find or reach *Information such as this is freely* ***accessible to*** *the public.* ○ *The hotel is in a quiet but easily accessible part of the resort.* ➲Opposite **inaccessible 2** UNDERSTAND easy to understand *They are attempting to make opera* ***accessible to*** *a wider audience.* ●**accessibility** /əkˌsesəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

accessory /əkˈsesˈri/ *noun* [C] **1** something extra which is not necessary but is attractive or useful *bathroom accessories* ○ *computer accessories* **2** LAW *formal* someone who helps a criminal to commit a crime *an* ***accessory to*** *murder*

ˈaccess proˌvider *noun* [C] COMPUTING, INTERNET a company that makes you able to use the Internet, so that you can use email and see or show documents

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***accident***

have/be involved in an accident ● an accident **happens/occurs** ● a **fatal/serious/tragic** accident ● [killed, paralyzed, etc] **in** an accident ● a **car/traffic** accident

accident /ˈæksɪdˈnt/ *noun* [C] **1** something bad which happens that is not intended and which causes injury or damage *a* ***car/traffic accident*** ○ *She* ***had an accident*** *in the kitchen.* ○ *I didn't mean to spill his drink. It was an accident.* **2 by accident** without being intended *I deleted the wrong file by accident.*

accidental /ˌæksɪˈdentᵊl/ *adjective* not intended ***accidental damage*** ●**accidentally** *adverb She accidentally knocked over a glass of red wine.*

accident-prone /ˈæksɪdᵊntˌprəʊn/ *adjective* Someone who is accident-prone often has accidents.

acclaim /əˈkleɪm/ *noun* [U] praise from a lot of people ***international/critical acclaim***

acclaimed /əˈkleɪmd/ *adjective* praised by a lot of people *the acclaimed singer and songwriter*

acclimatize (*also UK* **-ise**) /əˈklaɪmətaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to start to feel happy with the weather, the way of life, etc in a new place, or to make someone do this ●**acclimatization** /əˌklaɪmətaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

accolade /ˈækəleɪd/ *noun* [C] *formal* a prize or praise given to someone because they are very good at something

accommodate /əˈkɒmədeɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** HAVE SPACE FOR to have enough space somewhere for a number of things or people *We need more roads to accommodate the increase in traffic.* **2** HELP to do what someone wants, often by providing them with something *He requires special equipment and, where possible, we've accommodated those needs.* **3** GIVE A HOME to provide someone with a place to live or stay *The athletes will be accommodated in a special Olympic village.*

accommodating /əˈkɒmədeɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* willing to change your plans in order to help people

accommodation /əˌkɒməˈdeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** (*also US* **accommodations** [**plural**]) a place where you live or stay ***rented accommodation*** ○ *The price includes travel and accommodation.* **2** **BIOLOGY** the way the lens in the eye changes depending on on whether the thing it is looking at is close or far away

accompaniment /əˈkʌmpᵊnɪmənt/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C] *formal* something that is nice to eat or drink with a particular food or drink *salmon with an accompaniment of green salad* **2** **MUSIC** [C, U] music that is played with the main instrument or with a singing voice *a song with piano accompaniment*

accompany /əˈkʌmpəni/ *verb* [T] **1** GO WITH *formal* to go somewhere with someone *We accompanied her back to her hotel.* **2** HAPPEN TOGETHER to happen or exist at the same time as something else *The teachers' book is accompanied by a video cassette.* **3** **MUSIC** to play a musical instrument with someone else who is playing or singing

accomplice /əˈkʌmplɪs/ *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who helps a criminal to commit a crime

accomplish /əˈkʌmplɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to succeed in doing something good *I feel as if I've accomplished nothing all day.*

accomplished /əˈkʌmplɪʃt/ *adjective* having a lot of skill in art, music, writing, etc *an accomplished musician/painter*

accomplishment /əˈkʌmplɪʃmənt/ *noun* **1** ACHIEVEMENT [U] when you succeed in doing something good *Finishing the course gave me a great sense of accomplishment.* **2** SKILL [C] *formal* a skill in art, music, writing, etc

accord¹ /əˈkɔːd/ *noun* **1 of your own accord** If you do something of your own accord, you choose to do it and no one else forces you. *Luckily, she left of her own accord.* **2** **POLITICS** [C] an official agreement, especially between countries *a peace/trade accord*

accord² /əˈkɔːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to treat someone specially, usually by showing respect *the respect accorded to doctors*

accordance /əˈkɔːdᵊns/ *noun formal* **in accordance with sth** agreeing with a rule, law, or wish *Both companies have insisted that they were acting in accordance with the law.*

accordingly /əˈkɔːdɪŋli/ *adverb* in a way that is suitable *We'll wait until we hear the decision and* ***act accordingly.***

O-key **according to** /əˈkɔːdɪŋtuː/ *preposition* **1** SAID BY as said by someone or shown by something *According to our records, she was absent last Friday.* **2** BASED ON based on a particular system or plan *Children are allocated to schools according to the area in which they live.*

accordion /əˈkɔːdiən/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument with a folding centre part and keyboards at both ends, which you play by pushing the two ends together

accost /əˈkɒst/ *verb* [T] If someone you do not know accosts you, they move towards you and start talking to you in an unfriendly way.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***account***

1 give an account of sth ● a **brief/detailed/full** account ● an **eye-witness/first-hand** account ● an account **of** sth
2 close/open an account ● **have** an account with [name of bank] ● a **joint/personal/savings** account ● an account **holder/number**

account¹ /əˈkaʊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a written or spoken description of something that has happened *They* ***gave*** *conflicting* ***accounts*** *of the events.* **2** **FINANCE** (*also* **bank account**) an arrangement with a bank to keep your money there and to let you take it out when you need to *I paid the money into my account.* **3** **FINANCE** an agreement with a shop or company that allows you to buy things and pay for them later **4 take sth into account; take account of sth** to consider something when judging a situation *You have to take into account the fact that he is less experienced when judging his performance.* **5 on account of sth** *formal* because of something *He doesn't drink alcohol on account of his health.* **6 by all accounts** as said by a lot of people *The party was, by all accounts, a great success.* **7 on my account** just for or because of me *Please don't change your plans on my account.* **8 on no account; not on any account** *UK* not for any reason or in any situation *On no account must these records be changed.* ➲See also: **checking account, current account, deposit account**

account² /əˈkaʊnt/ *verb*
account for sth *phrasal verb* **1** BE PART OF to be part of a total number of something *Oil accounts for 40% of Norway's exports.* **2** EXPLAIN to be the reason for something, or to explain the reason for something *She was asked to account for the missing money.*

A

accountable /əˈkaʊntəbl/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] having to be responsible for what you do and able to explain your actions *Hospitals must be held **accountable for** their mistakes.* ○ *Politicians should be **accountable to** the public that elects them.* ➲Opposite **unaccountable** ●**accountability** /əˌkaʊntəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

accountancy /əˈkaʊntənsi/ *UK* (*US* **accounting**) *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** the job of being an accountant

accountant /əˈkaʊntənt/ *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** someone whose job is to keep or examine the financial records of a company or organization

acˈcounting ˌratio *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** any of several kinds of calculation used to understand financial accounts, for instance comparing money received with money owed

accounts /əˈkaʊnts/ *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** an official record of all the money a company or organization has received or paid

accreditation /əˌkredɪˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**U**] official approval of an organization ●**accredited** /əˈkredɪtɪd/ *adjective* officially approved

accrual /əˈkruːəl/ *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** when something increases in number or amount over a period of time

accrue /əˈkruː/ *verb* [**I**] **FINANCE** to increase in number or amount over a period of time *Interest accrues at a rate of 6%.* ●**accrued** /əˈkruːd/ *adjective accrued interest*

accumulate /əˈkjuːmjəleɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] to increase in amount over a period of time, or to make something increase over a period of time *The chemicals accumulate in your body.* ●**accumulation** /əˌkjuːmjəˈleɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**U**]

acˌcumulated ˈfund *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** the amount of money owned by an organization such as a club that does not sell things

accuracy /ˈækjərəsi/ *noun* [**U**] how correct or exact something is *The new system should help to improve the accuracy of weather forecasts.*

accurate /ˈækjərət/ *adjective* correct or exact ***accurate information/measurements*** ○ *She was able to give police a fairly **accurate description** of the man.* ➲Opposite **inaccurate** ●**accurately** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***accusation***

make an accusation ● **deny/dismiss/face/reject** an accusation ● a **false/wild** accusation ● accusations **of** sth ● an accusation **against** sb ● an accusation **by/from** sb

accusation /ˌækjuˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C**] when you say that someone has done something bad *He **made** a number of **accusations against** his former colleagues.*

accusative /əˈkjuːzətɪv/ *noun* [**U**] **LANGUAGE** the form of a noun, pronoun or adjective which is used in some languages to show that the word is the direct object of a verb ●**accusative** *adjective*

accuse /əˈkjuːz/ *verb* [**T**] to say that someone has done something bad *He was falsely **accused of** murder.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *She accused Andrew of lying to her.* ●**accuser** *noun* [**C**]

the accused /əˈkjuːzd/ *noun formal* **LAW** the person or people who are accused of a crime in a court of law

accusing /əˈkjuːzɪŋ/ *adjective* showing that you think someone is responsible for something bad *Why are you giving me that **accusing look**?* ●**accusingly** *adverb She looked at me accusingly.*

accustom /əˈkʌstəm/ *verb* **accustom yourself to sth/doing sth** *phrasal verb* to experience something often enough for it to seem normal to you

accustomed /əˈkʌstəmd/ *adjective* **accustomed to sth/doing sth** If you are accustomed to something, you have experienced it often enough for it to seem normal to you. *I've worked nights for years now so I've **grown accustomed to** it.*

ace¹ /eɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a playing card with one symbol on it, that has the highest or lowest value in many games **2** **SPORT** when the first shot by a tennis player is too good for the other player to hit back

ace² /eɪs/ *adjective informal* very good

acetic acid /əˌsiːtɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a colourless acid with a strong smell which is contained in vinegar

acetone /ˈæsɪtəʊn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a strong-smelling colourless liquid which is used in the production of various chemicals and is sometimes added to paint to make it thinner

acetylene /əˈsetəliːn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a colourless gas which burns with a very hot bright flame, used in cutting and joining metal (formula C_2H_2)

ache¹ /eɪk/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a feeling of pain over an area of your body which continues for a long time *There's a **dull ache** in my right shoulder.* ➲See also: **stomach ache**

ache² /eɪk/ *verb* [**I**] **HEALTH** If a part of your body aches, it is painful. *My legs ache after all that exercise.*

achieve /əˈtʃiːv/ *verb* [**T**] to succeed in doing something good, usually by working hard *I've achieved my ambition* ○ *I've been working all day but I feel I've achieved nothing.* ●**achievable** *adjective* possible to achieve ***achievable goals*** ●**achiever** *noun* [**C**] *He's from a family of **high achievers*** (= very successful people).

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***achievement***

a **great/notable/outstanding/remarkable** achievement ● sb's **crowning** achievement ● a **sense of** achievement

achievement /əˈtʃiːvmənt/ *noun* **1** GOOD THING [**C**] something good that you achieve *This film is his **greatest achievement** to date.* **2** SUCCESS [**U**] when you succeed in doing something good, usually by working hard *You get such **a sense of achievement** when you finish the course.*

acid¹ /ˈæsɪd/ *noun* [**C, U**] **CHEMISTRY** one of several liquid substances with a pH of less than 7 which react with other substances, often burning or dissolving them *hydrochloric acid*

acid² /ˈæsɪd/ *adjective* **1** **CHEMISTRY** (*also* **acidic** /əˈsɪdɪk/) containing acid, or having similar

qualities to an acid *acid soil* ○ *an acid smell/taste* **2 acid remark/comment, etc** an unkind remark that criticizes someone

acidify /əˈsɪdɪfaɪ/ *verb* [**I, T**] **CHEMISTRY** to become an acid or to make something become an acid

acidity /əˈsɪdɪti/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** the amount of acid in a substance or in your stomach

ˌacid ˈrain *noun* [**U**] **ENVIRONMENT** rain that contains chemicals from pollution and damages plants, etc

ˈacid ˌsalt *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound that is formed when an acid has reacted with another substance to produce salt and water

ˈacid ˌtest *noun* [**C usually singular**] a sure test of whether something is true or of good quality

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***acknowledge***

be **generally/widely/universally** acknowledged ● acknowledge sb/sth **as/to be** sth

acknowledge /əkˈnɒlɪdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ACCEPT to accept that something is true or exists [**+ (that)**] *He acknowledged that there was a problem.* **2** LETTER to tell someone, usually in a letter, that you have received something they sent you *Send a letter acknowledging receipt of his application.* **3** SAY HELLO to let someone know that you have seen them, usually by saying hello *She didn't even acknowledge my presence.*

acknowledgement (*also* **acknowledgment**) /əkˈnɒlɪdʒmənt/ *noun* **1** ACCEPT [**C, U**] when you accept that something is true or exists *There was no acknowledgement of the extent of the problem.* **2** LETTER [**C**] a letter telling you that someone has received something that you sent them **3** BOOK [**C**] something written at the front of a book by the author to thank people who have helped them [**usually plural**] *His name appears in the acknowledgements.*

acne /ˈækni/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a skin problem that young people often have that causes spots on the face

acorn /ˈeɪkɔːn/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** an oval nut which grows on oak trees

acoustic /əˈkuːstɪk/ *adjective* **1 MUSIC** [**always before noun**] An acoustic musical instrument does not use electricity. *an* ***acoustic guitar*** **2 PHYSICS** relating to sound and hearing

acoustics /əˈkuːstɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] **PHYSICS** the way in which the shape of a room affects the quality of sound *The acoustics of the hall were terrible.*

acquaintance /əˈkweɪntᵊns/ *noun* [**C**] someone who you know but do not know well *He's just a* ***business acquaintance.***

acquainted /əˈkweɪntɪd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] *formal* **1** If you are acquainted with someone, you have met them but do not know them well. *We're already acquainted - we met at Elaine's party.* **2 be acquainted with sth** to know about something *I'm afraid I'm not yet acquainted with the system.*

acquiesce /ˌækwiˈes/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to agree to something, often when you do not want to ●**acquiescence** *noun* [**U**] *formal*

acquire /əˈkwaɪᵊ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** GET to get something *I managed to acquire a copy of the report.* **2** LEARN to learn something *to* ***acquire knowledge/skills***

acquisition /ˌækwɪˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** PROCESS [**U**] the process of learning or getting something *children's acquisition of language* **2** NEW THING [**C**] something that you get, usually by buying it *And the hat - is that a* ***recent acquisition?***

acquit /əˈkwɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **acquitting**, *past* **acquitted** **LAW** If someone is acquitted of a crime, a court of law decides that they are not guilty. [**often passive**] *Both men were* ***acquitted of*** *murder.*

acquittal /əˈkwɪtᵊl/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LAW** when a court of law decides that someone is not guilty of a crime

acre /ˈeɪkəᵊ/ *noun* [**C**] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring area, equal to 4047 square metres ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24

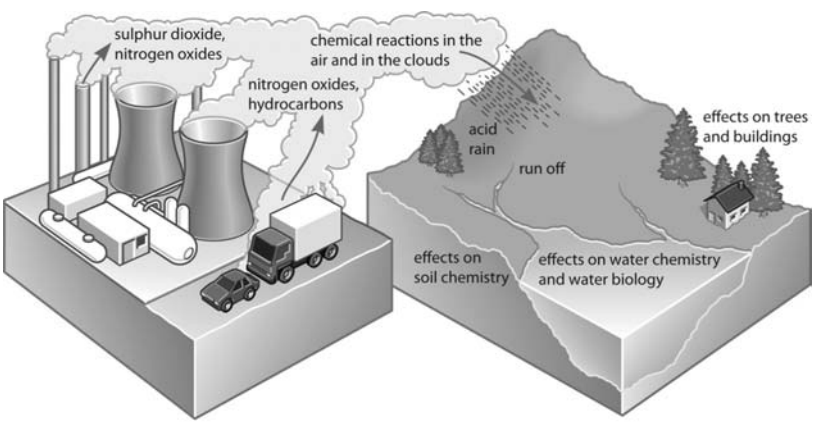

the formation of acid rain

A

acrid /ˈækrɪd/ *adjective* An acrid smell is unpleasant and causes a burning feeling in your throat.

acrimonious /ˌækrɪˈməʊniəs/ *adjective* involving a lot of anger, disagreement, and bad feelings *an **acrimonious divorce*** ●**acrimony** /ˈækrɪməni/ *noun* [U] angry, bad feelings between people

acrobat /ˈækrəbæt/ *noun* [C] someone who entertains people by performing difficult physical acts, such as walking on a wire high above the ground ●**acrobatic** /ˌækrəˈbætɪk/ *adjective* ●**acrobatics** /ˌækrəˈbætɪks/ *noun* [plural] the actions of an acrobat

acronym /ˈækrəʊnɪm/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word made from the first letters of other words *AIDS is the acronym for 'acquired immune deficiency syndrome'.*

across /əˈkrɒs/ *adverb, preposition* **1** SIDES from one side of something to the other *I was walking across the road.* ○ *They've built a new bridge across the river.* **2** OPPOSITE on the opposite side of *There's a library just across the street.* **3** MEASURE used after a measurement to show how wide something is *The window measures two metres across.*

acrylic /əˈkrɪlɪk/ *noun* **DT 1** [U] a type of cloth or plastic produced by chemical processes **2** [C usually singular] a type of paint ●**acrylic** *adjective* *acrylic paints*

act¹ /ækt/ *verb* **1** BEHAVE [I] to behave in a particular way *to act responsibly* ○ *Jeff's been acting strangely recently.* ○ *Stop **acting like** a child!* **2** DO SOMETHING [I] to do something, especially in order to solve a problem *We have to act now to stop the spread of this disease.* **3** PERFORM [I, T] to perform in a play or film *He's acted in a number of successful Hollywood films.*
act as sth *phrasal verb* **1** JOB to do a particular job, especially one you do not normally do *He was asked to act as an adviser on the project.* **2** EFFECT to have a particular effect *Caffeine acts as a stimulant.*
act sth out *phrasal verb* to perform the actions and words of a situation or story *The children acted out a verse from their favourite poem.*
act up *phrasal verb* If someone, especially a child, acts up, they behave badly.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***act***

an act **of** sth ● **commit** an act ● a **barbaric/cowardly** act ● a **criminal/terrorist** act

act² /ækt/ *noun* **1** DO [C] something that someone does *an **act of** terrorism/kindness* **2 LAW** [C] a law made by a government *an act of Congress/Parliament* **3 LITERATURE** [C] one of the parts a play is divided into *Her character doesn't appear until Act 2.* **4** PERFORMERS [C] one or several performers who perform for a short while in a show *a comedy **double act*** **5** FALSE BEHAVIOUR [no plural] behaviour which hides your real feelings or intentions *Was she really upset or was that just an act?* **6 in the act (of doing sth)** doing something wrong *I caught him in the act of opening one of my letters.* **7 get your act together** *informal* to organize your activities so that you can make progress **8 get in on the act** *informal* to become involved in something successful that someone else has started

acting¹ /ˈæktɪŋ/ *adjective* **acting chairman/director, etc** someone who does a job for a short time while the person who usually does it is not there

acting² /ˈæktɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the job of performing in plays and films *He's trying to get into acting.*

action /ˈækʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** DO [C, U] something that you do *She has to accept the consequences of her actions.* ○ *We must **take action*** (= do something) *before the problem gets worse.* ○ *So what do you think is the best **course of action*** (= way of dealing with the situation)? ○ *It was the first time I'd seen firemen **in action*** (= doing a particular activity). **2** ACTIVITY [U] things which are happening, especially exciting or important things *He likes films with a lot of action.* ➲Opposite **inaction 3 out of action** damaged or hurt and not able to operate or play sports *They've got three players out of action.* **4 legal action LAW** a legal process in a court *They are planning to **take legal action against** the company.* **5** FIGHTING [U] fighting in a war *He was killed **in action*** (= while fighting). **6** PROCESS [no plural] a movement or natural process *The rocks are smoothed by the action of water.* ➲See also: **industrial action,** be all **talk²** (and no action)

action-packed /ˈækʃᵊnˌpækt/ *adjective* An action-packed film or story has a lot of exciting events.

action replay *UK* (*US* **instant replay**) *noun* [C] when part of a film of a sporting event is shown again, often more slowly

activate /ˈæktɪveɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something start working *The alarm can be activated by a laser beam.*

active /ˈæktɪv/ *adjective* **1** INVOLVED very involved in an organization or planned activity *He played an **active role** in the campaign.* **2** BUSY doing a lot of things, or moving around a lot *Even at the age of 80 she's still very active.* **3 LANGUAGE** An active verb or sentence is one in which the subject of the verb is the person or thing doing the action. For example 'Andy drove the car.' is an active sentence. ➲Compare **passive 4 GEOLOGY** An active volcano could throw out rocks, fire, etc at any time.

active immunity *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when the body produces its own antibodies (= substances in the blood that fight disease)

actively /ˈæktɪvli/ *adverb* in a way that causes something to happen *He **actively encourages** me to spend money.*

active transport *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the process by which molecules can pass through a membrane (= thin layer of tissue) from an area where there are not many of them into an area where there are a lot of them

activist /ˈæktɪvɪst/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who tries to cause social or political change *a **political activist*** ●**activism** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***activity***

do/perform an activity ● **frantic/strenuous** activity ● **outdoor/leisure** activity ● a **flurry of** activity

O-✂**activity** /æk'tɪvəti/ *noun* **1** EVENT [C] something which you do for enjoyment, especially an organized event *The centre offers a range of activities, such as cycling, swimming, and tennis.* **2** WORK [C, U] the work of a group or organization to achieve an aim ***criminal/terrorist activities*** **3** MOVEMENT [U] when a lot of things are happening or people are moving around *There was a sudden **flurry of activity*** (= short period of activity) *at the back of the hall.* ➲Opposite **inactivity**

O-✂**actor** /'æktɚ/ *noun* [C] someone, especially a man, whose job is to perform in plays and films

O-✂**actress** /'æktrəs/ *noun* [C] a woman whose job is to perform in plays and films

O-✂**actual** /'æktʃuəl/ *adjective* **1** real, not guessed or imagined *We were expecting about fifty people, though the **actual number** was a lot higher.* **2 in actual fact** *UK* really *It was due to start at ten, but in actual fact, it didn't begin until nearly eleven.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

actual or current ?

Actual means 'real'. It does not mean 'happening now'.

His friends call him Jo-Jo, but his actual name is John.

Use **current** to talk about things which are happening or which exist now.

She started her current job two years ago.

O-✂**actually** /'æktʃuəli/ *adverb* **1** TRUTH used when you are saying what is the truth of a situation *He didn't actually say anything important.* **2** SURPRISE used when you are saying something surprising *She sounds English but she's actually Spanish.* ○ *Did you actually meet the President?* **3** MISTAKE *mainly UK* used when you are disagreeing with someone or saying no to a request *"You didn't tell me." "Actually, I did."* ○ *"Do you mind if I smoke?" "Actually, I'd rather you didn't."*

acumen /'ækjʊmən/ *noun* [U] the ability to make good judgments and decisions ***business/political acumen***

acupuncture /'ækjʊpʌŋktʃɚ/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a way of treating pain or illness by putting thin needles into different parts of the body

acute /ə'kjuːt/ *adjective* **1** An acute problem or negative feeling is extreme. *There's an **acute shortage** of medical staff.* ○ ***acute pain*** ○ *acute anxiety* **2** **MATHEMATICS** An acute angle is less than 90 degrees. **3** quick to notice or understand things *an acute mind* ○ *Dogs rely on their acute sense of smell.*

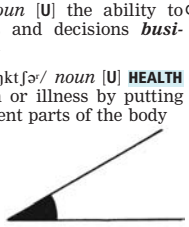

acute angle

a,cute 'accent *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a mark which is written above a letter in some languages, e.g. 'é', showing you how to pronounce the letter

acutely /ə'kjuːtli/ *adverb* very strongly *I was **acutely aware** of how Alex felt about the situation.*

AD /,eɪ'diː/ *abbreviation for* Anno Domini: used to show that a particular year came after the birth of Christ *1066 AD*

ad /æd/ *noun* [C] an advertisement ➲See also: **classified ad**

adagio /ə'dɑːdʒiəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of classical music (= serious music by a composer such as Mozart) that should be played slowly

adamant /'ædəmənt/ *adjective* very sure of what you think and not willing to change your opinion [+ **(that)**] *They are adamant that they have not broken any rules.* ●**adamantly** *adverb*

Adam's apple /,ædəmz'æpl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the lump in a man's throat that you can see moving up and down when he speaks or swallows

adapt /ə'dæpt/ *verb* **1** CHANGE BEHAVIOUR [I] to change your behaviour so that it is suitable for a new situation *It takes time to **adapt to** a new working environment.* **2** CHANGE SOMETHING [T] to change something so that it is suitable for a different use or situation *Courses have to be **adapted for** different markets.* **3** BOOK [T] to change a book or play so that it can be made into a film or television programme *Both novels have been **adapted for** television.*

adaptable /ə'dæptəbl/ *adjective* able to change to suit different situations or uses ●**adaptability** /ə,dæptə'bɪləti/ *noun* [U]

adaptation /,ædæp'teɪʃn/ *noun* **1** FILM [C] a film, television programme, or play which has been made from a book **2** CHANGE [C, U] the process or act of changing to suit a new situation *Evolution occurs as a result of **adaptation to** new environments.*

adapter (*also* **adaptor**) /ə'dæptɚ/ *noun* [C] something that is used for connecting two or more pieces of electrical equipment to an electrical supply

O-✂**add** /æd/ *verb* **1** PUT WITH [T] to put something with something else ***Add** the eggs **to** the cream.* **2** INCREASE [I, T] to increase an amount or level *Then there's the service charge which **adds** another ten percent **to** the bill.* **3** SAY MORE [T] to say another thing [+ **that**] *She said she liked him but added that he was difficult to work with.* **4** **MATHEMATICS** [T] to put two or more numbers or amounts together to get a total ➲See also: add **insult**[2] to injury

add (sth) up *phrasal verb* **MATHEMATICS** to put numbers together in order to reach a total *When you add up everything we've spent, it's cost well over £200.*

not add up *phrasal verb informal* If something does not add up, you cannot believe it is true. *She gave me an explanation but somehow it doesn't add up.*

adder /'ædɚ/ *noun* [C] a small, poisonous snake

addict /'ædɪkt/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** someone who cannot stop taking a drug *a heroin/**drug addict*** **2** *informal* someone who likes something very much and does it or has it very

A

often *a TV/computer game addict* ○ *She admits to being a crossword addict.*

addicted /əˈdɪktɪd/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH not able to stop taking a drug *He later became* ***addicted to*** *heroin.* **2** *informal* liking something very much and doing or having it too often *He's* ***addicted to*** *chocolate/football.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***addiction***

fight/have/suffer from an addiction ● **alcohol/drug/gambling** addiction ● addiction **to** sth

addiction /əˈdɪkʃ ən/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH when you cannot stop doing or taking something because you are addicted to it

addictive /əˈdɪktɪv/ *adjective* HEALTH If something is addictive, it makes you want more of it so that you become addicted. *Tobacco is* ***highly addictive.***

addition /əˈdɪʃ ən/ *noun* **1 in addition (to sth)** added to what already exists or happens, or more than you already do or have *In addition to teaching, she works as a nurse in the holidays.* **2** MATHEMATICS [U] the process of adding numbers or amounts together in order to get a total **3** [C] a new or extra thing which is added to something *Defender Matt Smith is the latest* ***addition to*** *the team.*

additional /əˈdɪʃ ən əl/ *adjective* extra to what already exists *We plan to take on an additional ten employees over the next year.* ●**additionally** *adverb*

adˈdition reˌaction *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical reaction where two whole molecules join together to form one larger molecule

additive /ˈædɪtɪv/ *noun* [C] FOOD a chemical which is added to food in order to make it taste or look better or to keep it fresh

add-on /ˈædɒn/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a piece of equipment that can be connected to a computer to give it an extra use

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***address***

give sb your address ● your **business/home/work** address ● a **change of** address

address¹ /əˈdres/ (US) /ˈædres/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDING DETAILS the details of where a building is, including the building number, road name, town, etc **2** INTERNET a series of letters, signs, or numbers used to send email to someone or to reach a page of information on the Internet *an* ***email/web address*** **3** SPEECH a formal speech to a group of people ➲See also: **forwarding address, public address system**

address² /əˈdres/ *verb* [T] **1** BUILDING DETAILS to write a name or address on an envelope or parcel *A parcel arrived* ***addressed to*** *Emma.* **2** DEAL WITH to deal with a problem *We have to* ***address the issue/problem*** *before it gets worse.* **3** SPEAK *formal* to speak to someone, or to give a speech to an audience *Today she will be addressing a major conference in London.* **4 address sb as sth** *formal* to give someone a particular name or title when you speak or write to them *Do you think I should address him as 'Mr Benson' or 'Albert'?*

aˈddress ˌbook (*US* **ˈaddress ˌbook**) *noun* [C] **1** COMPUTING a computer document that keeps a list of names and email addresses **2** a book in which you keep a list of names and addresses

adept /ˈædept/ *adjective* good at doing something difficult *She's very* ***adept at*** *dealing with the media.*

adequate /ˈædɪkwət/ *adjective* **1** ENOUGH enough *I didn't have* ***adequate time*** *to prepare.* **2** QUITE GOOD good enough, but not very good *The sound quality isn't exceptional but it's* ***adequate for*** *everyday use.* ➲Opposite **inadequate** ●**adequately** *adverb Make sure you are adequately equipped for the journey.*

adhere /ədˈhɪə r/ *verb* [I] *formal* to stick to a surface
adhere to sth *phrasal verb* to obey a rule or principle *We always adhere strictly to the guidelines.*

adherence /ədˈhɪər ə ns/ *noun* [U] *formal* when someone obeys a set of rules or principles ●**adherent** *noun* [C] *formal* someone who obeys a particular set of rules, principles, etc

adhesive /ədˈhiːsɪv/ *noun* [C] DT a substance used for sticking things together ●**adhesive** *adjective*

ad hoc /ˌædˈhɒk/ *adjective* not regular or planned, but happening only when necessary *We meet* ***on an ad hoc basis.***

adipose /ˈædɪpəʊs/ *adjective* [always before noun] BIOLOGY of animal fat *adipose tissue*

adjacent /əˈdʒeɪs ə nt/ *adjective formal* If two things are adjacent, they are next to each other. *The fire started in an adjacent building.* ○ *They live in a house* ***adjacent to*** *the railway.*

adˌjacent ˈangle *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS one of two angles that are formed when one angle is divided by a straight line

adjective /ˈædʒɪktɪv/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word that describes a noun or pronoun. The words 'big', 'boring', 'purple', and 'obvious' are all adjectives. ●**adjectival** /ˌædʒɪkˈtaɪv əl/ *adjective* containing or used like an adjective *an adjectival phrase*

adjoining /əˈdʒɔɪnɪŋ/ *adjective* next to and joined to something *an* ***adjoining room***

adjourn /əˈdʒɜːn/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to stop a meeting, especially a legal process, for a period of time or until a later date *The judge* ***adjourned the case*** *until March 31.* ●**adjournment** *noun* [C]

adjudicate /əˈdʒuːdɪkeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* LAW to make an official judgment or decision about a competition or disagreement *Occasionally, he has to* ***adjudicate on*** *a pensions matter.* ●**adjudication** /əˌdʒuːdɪˈkeɪʃ ən/ *noun* [U] ●**adjudicator** *noun* [C]

adjust /əˈdʒʌst/ *verb* **1** CHANGE [T] to change something slightly so that it works better, fits better, or is more suitable *You can adjust the heat using this switch here.* ○ *The figures need to be adjusted for inflation.* **2** BEHAVE [I] to change the way you behave or think in order to suit a new situation *They found it hard* ***adjusting to*** *life in a new country.*

adjustable /əˈdʒʌstəbl/ *adjective* able to be changed slightly in order to suit different people or situations *an adjustable seat*

adjustment /ə'dʒʌstmənt/ *noun* [C, U] a slight change that you make to something so that it works better, fits better, or is more suitable *We've **made** a few **adjustments to** the schedule.*

ad lib /ˌæd'lɪb/ *verb* [I, T] to speak in public without having planned what to say *I had no script so I had to ad lib.*

admin /'ædmɪn/ *noun* [U] *UK short for* administration

administer /əd'mɪnɪstəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** ORGANIZE to organize or arrange something *The fund is administered by the Economic Development Agency.* **2** **HEALTH** *formal* to give medicine or medical help to someone *to administer first aid*

administration /əd,mɪnɪ'streɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [U] the work of organizing and arranging the operation of something, such as a company *The job involves a lot of administration.* **2** **POLITICS** [C] *mainly US* the President and politicians who govern a country at a particular time, or a period of government *the Bush administration*

administrative /əd'mɪnɪstrətɪv/ *adjective* relating to the organization and management of something *The work is largely administrative.*

administrator /əd'mɪnɪstreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who helps to manage an organization

admirable /'ædmᵊrəbl/ *adjective* If something is admirable, you respect or approve of it. *He has many **admirable qualities**.* ●**admirably** *adverb*

admiral /'ædmᵊrəl/ *noun* [C] an officer of very high rank in the navy

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***admiration***

express/feel/have admiration ● **enormous/great/grudging/profound** admiration ● admiration **for** sb

admiration /ˌædmə'reɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you admire someone or something *My **admiration for** him grows daily.*

admire /əd'maɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** RESPECT to respect or approve of someone or something *You have to **admire** him **for** being so determined.* **2** LOOK AT to look at something or someone, thinking how attractive they are *We stood for a few minutes, admiring the view.* ●**admirer** *noun* [C]

admissible /əd'mɪsəbl/ *adjective formal* **LAW** allowed or acceptable, especially in a court of law *admissible evidence*

admission /əd'mɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MONEY [U] the money that you pay to enter a place *Art exhibition - admission free.* **2** TRUTH [C] when you agree that you did something bad, or that something bad is true *She is, **by her own admission**, lazy.* ○ *His departure was seen by many as an **admission of** guilt.* **3** PERMISSION [C, U] when someone is given permission to enter somewhere or to become a member of a club, university, etc *She's applied for **admission to** law school.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***admit***

If a person admits that something bad is true, the verbs **accept** and **acknowledge** may be used: *I **accept** that things should have been done differently.* ● *He refuses to **acknowledge** the problem.*

If a person admits that they have done something bad, the verb **confess** is often used: *Rawlinson finally **confessed** to the murder.*

The phrasal verbs **own up** and (*informal*) **fess up**, and the idiom **come clean** can also be used when a person admits that they have done something bad: *I decided to **come clean** about the broken vase.* ● *Come on, **own up** - who's eaten the last sandwich?*

admit /əd'mɪt/ *verb* **admitting,** *past* **admitted** **1** SOMETHING BAD [I, T] to agree that you did something bad, or that something bad is true [+ **doing sth**] *Both men admitted taking illegal drugs.* [+ **to + doing sth**] *She **admitted to** stealing the keys.* ○ *I was wrong - I admit it.* [+ **(that)**] *He finally admitted that he couldn't cope.* **2** ALLOW [T] to allow someone to enter somewhere, especially to take someone who is ill into hospital *UK to be **admitted to** hospital/ US to be **admitted to** the hospital* ○ *It says on the ticket 'admits 2'.*

admittance /əd'mɪtᵊns/ *noun* [U] permission to enter a place

admittedly /əd'mɪtɪdli/ *adverb* used when you are agreeing that something is true although you do not want to *Admittedly I was partly to blame but it wasn't all my fault.*

admonish /əd'mɒnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to gently tell someone that they have done something wrong

ado /ə'duː/ *noun* **without further/more ado** without waiting any more

adolescence /ˌædᵊl'esᵊns/ *noun* [U] the period of time in someone's life between being a child and an adult

adolescent /ˌædᵊl'esᵊnt/ *noun* [C] a young person who is between being a child and an adult ●**adolescent** *adjective*

adopt /ə'dɒpt/ *verb* **1** CHILD [I, T] to legally become the parents of someone else's child **2** START USING [T] to accept or start using something new *We've **adopted** a new **approach**.* ●**adopted** *adjective an adopted son* ●**adoption** /ə'dɒpʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

adorable /ə'dɔːrəbl/ *adjective* very attractive, often because of being small *an adorable little boy*

adore /ə'dɔːʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** LOVE to love someone and have a very good opinion of them *Sarah adored her father.* **2** LIKE to like something very much *I adore travelling.* ●**adoration** /ˌædə'reɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

adorn /ə'dɔːn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to decorate something *The room was **adorned with** flowers.* ●**adornment** *noun* [C, U]

adrenal gland /ə'driːnəl,glænd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of two body organs that produce adrenalin (= a substance the body produces when you are frightened)

A

adrenalin (*also* **adrenaline**) /ə'drenᵊlɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance that your body produces when you are angry, excited, or frightened which makes your heart beat faster

adrift /ə'drɪft/ *adjective* **1** [**never before noun**] If a boat is adrift, it floats around in the water and is not tied to anything. **2 come adrift** to become loose and not joined to anything *A few bricks in the garden wall had come adrift.*

adsorb /æd'zɔːb/ *verb* [T] **PHYSICS** to cause a substance, usually a gas, to form a very thin layer on the surface of another substance ●**adsorbent** /æd'zɔː.bᵊnt/ *adjective* ●**adsorption** /æd'zɔːpʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

adulation /ˌædjʊ'leɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] great praise and admiration for someone, often which they do not deserve

adult¹ /'ædʌlt, ə'dʌlt/ *noun* [C] a person or animal that has finished growing and is not now a child

adult² /'ædʌlt, ə'dʌlt/ *adjective* **1** NOT A CHILD having finished growing *an adult male rat* **2** RELATING TO ADULTS [**always before noun**] for or relating to adults ***adult education*** ○ *adult life* **3** SEXUAL Adult books, films, etc show naked people or sexual acts and are not for children.

adultery /ə'dʌltᵊri/ *noun* [U] sex between a married person and someone who is not their husband or wife ●**adulterous** *adjective*

adulthood /'ædʌlthʊd/ (US) /ə'dʌlthʊd/ *noun* [U] the part of your life when you are an adult

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***advance***

medical/scientific/technological advances ● a **major** advance ● advances **in** sth

advance¹ /əd'vɑːns/ *noun* **1 in advance** before a particular time *You need to book your ticket at least 14 days in advance.* **2** PROGRESS [**C, U**] new discoveries and inventions ***technological/scientific advances*** **3 FINANCE** [C] a payment given to someone before work has been completed, or before the usual time **4** FORWARD [C] a movement forward, especially by an army

advance² /əd'vɑːns/ *verb* **1** PROGRESS [**I, T**] to develop or progress, or to make something develop or progress *He moved to New York with hopes of* ***advancing*** *his* ***career***. **2** FORWARD [I] to move forward to a new position, especially while fighting *Rebel soldiers* ***advanced on*** *the capital.*

advance³ /əd'vɑːns/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening or ready before an event ***advance planning/warning*** ○ *an* ***advance booking***

advanced /əd'vɑːnst/ *adjective* **1** DEVELOPED having developed or progressed to a late stage ***advanced technology*** ○ *The disease was at an* ***advanced stage***. **2** HIGH LEVEL at a higher, more difficult level *an advanced English course*

advancement /əd'vɑːnsmənt/ *noun* [C, U] progress ***career advancement*** ○ ***technological advancements***

advances /əd'vɑːnsɪz/ *noun* **sb's advances** things that someone says and does to try to start a sexual relationship with someone

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***advantage***

a **big/enormous/main/major** advantage ● an **unfair** advantage ● **take** advantage **of** sth ● the advantage **of** sth

advantage /əd'vɑːntɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** USEFUL THING something good about a situation that helps you *One of the* ***advantages of*** *living in town is having the shops so near.* **2** SUCCESS something that will help you to succeed *These new routes will give the airline a considerable* ***advantage over*** *its competitors.* ○ *If we could start early it would be* ***to our advantage*** (= help us to succeed). ➲Opposite **disadvantage** **3 take advantage of sth** to use the good things in a situation *I thought I'd take advantage of the sports facilities while I'm here.* **4 take advantage of sb/sth** to treat someone badly in order to get what you want

advantageous /ˌædvənˈteɪdʒəs/ *adjective* helping to make you more successful

advent /'ædvent/ *noun* **1 the advent of sth** the start or arrival of something new *the advent of the Internet* **2 Advent RELIGION** the religious period before Christmas (= a Christian holiday) in the Christian year

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***adventure***

have an adventure ● **be looking for** adventure ● **a big/exciting** adventure ● an adventure **holiday/playground**

adventure /əd'ventʃᵊr/ *noun* [C, U] an exciting and sometimes dangerous experience *It's a film about the adventures of two friends travelling across Africa.* ●**adventurer** *noun* [C]

adventurous /əd'ventʃᵊrəs/ *adjective* **1** NEW THINGS willing to try new and often difficult things *I'm trying to be more adventurous with my cooking.* **2** EXCITING exciting and often dangerous *He led an adventurous life.*

adverb /'ædvɜːb/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word that describes or gives more information about a verb, adjective, phrase, or other adverb. In the sentences 'He ate quickly.' and 'It was extremely good.', 'quickly' and 'extremely' are both adverbs.

adversary /'ædvəsᵊri/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who you are fighting or competing against

adverse /'ædvɜːs/ *adjective formal* **1 adverse conditions/effects/impact** things that cause problems or danger *adverse weather conditions* ○ *Pollution levels like these will certainly have an adverse effect on health.* **2 adverse comment/publicity/reaction, etc** something negative that is said or written about someone or something ●**adversely** *adverb*

adversity /əd'vɜːsəti/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* an extremely difficult situation *She showed a great deal of courage* ***in adversity***.

advert /'ædvɜːt/ *noun* [C] *UK* an advertisement

advertise /'ædvətaɪz/ *verb* **1** TRY TO SELL [**I, T**] to tell people about a product or service, for example in newspapers or on television, in order to persuade them to buy it *Companies are not allowed to advertise cigarettes on television any more.* **2** ASK FOR [I] to put information in a newspaper or on the Internet, asking for someone or something that you need *The university is*

***advertising for** administrative staff.* ●**advertiser** *noun* [C] a company that advertises things

advertisement /ədˈvɜːtɪsmənt/ (US) /ˌædvərˈtaɪzmənt/ *noun* [C] a picture, short film, song, etc which tries to persuade people to buy a product or service *a newspaper/television advertisement*

O-key **advertising** /ˈædvətaɪzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the business of trying to persuade people to buy products or services *an **advertising agency***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***advice***

ask for/give/offer/provide/seek advice ● **take** sb's advice ● **bad/conflicting/expert/good** advice ● advice **on/about** sth ● a **piece** of advice

O-key **advice** /ədˈvaɪs/ *noun* [U] suggestions about what you think someone should do or how they should do something *She **asked** me **for advice** about writing a book.* ○ *There's a booklet **giving advice on** how to set up your own club.* ○ *I **took** your **advice*** (= did what you suggested) *and went home early.* ○ *Can I give you a **piece of advice**?*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

advice

Remember that this word is not countable.

I need some advice.

~~*I need an advice.*~~

To make **advice** singular, say **a piece of advice**.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

advice or **advise?**

Be careful not to confuse the noun **advice** with the verb **advise**.

I advise you to see a lawyer.

~~*I advice you to see a lawyer.*~~

advisable /ədˈvaɪzəbl/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] If something is advisable, it will avoid problems if you do it. *It is advisable to book seats at least a week in advance.*

O-key **advise** /ədˈvaɪz/ *verb* **1** SUGGEST [**I, T**] to make a suggestion about what you think someone should do or how they should do something [**+ to do sth**] *His doctor advised him to take time off work.* ○ *They **advise** the government **on** environmental matters.* ○ *The government is **advising against** travelling in the area.* [**+ that**] *They're advising that children be kept out of the sun altogether.* **2** GIVE INFORMATION [**T**] *formal* to give someone official information about something *They were **advised of** their rights.*

adviser (*also* **advisor**) /ədˈvaɪzə^{r}/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to give advice about a subject *a **financial adviser***

advisory¹ /ədˈvaɪzə^{r}ri/ *adjective* **advisory committee/panel/board, etc** a group of people whose purpose is to give advice

advisory² /ədˈvaɪzə^{r}ri/ *noun* [C] *US* an official announcement that contains advice, information, or a warning [**usually plural**] ***weather/travel advisories***

advocate¹ /ˈædvəkeɪt/ *verb* [T] to express support for a particular idea or way of doing things *I certainly wouldn't advocate the use of violence.* ●**advocacy** /ˈædvəkəsi/ *noun* [U] when someone advocates something

advocate² /ˈædvəkət/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who supports a particular idea or way of doing things *He has always been **an advocate of** stricter gun controls.* **2** LAW *UK* a lawyer who defends someone in court

A&E /ˌeɪənd ˈiː/ *UK* (*US* **emergency room**) *noun* [C, U] HEALTH *abbreviation for* Accident and Emergency: the part of a hospital where people go when they are injured or ill and need treatment quickly

aeolian *UK* (*US* **eolian**) /iːˈəʊliən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] GEOGRAPHY produced or carried by the wind

aerial¹ /ˈeəriəl/ *UK* (*US* **antenna**) *noun* [C] a piece of metal that is used for receiving television or radio signals ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

aerial² /ˈeəriəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] in or from the air, especially from an aircraft *an aerial photograph/view*

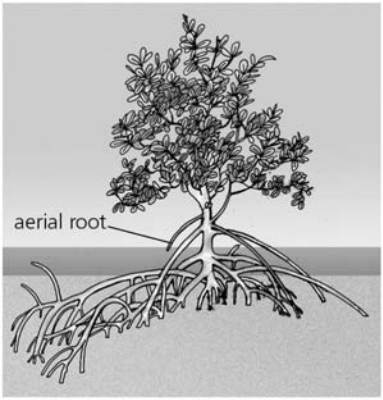

aerial root

ˌaerial ˈroot *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a plant root that grows down to the ground from above the ground

aerobic /eəˈrəʊbɪk/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH Aerobic exercise is intended to make your heart stronger. **2** BIOLOGY needing or using oxygen

aeˌrobic respiˈration *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a chemical process in which energy is produced in the body from food by using oxygen

aerobics /eəˈrəʊbɪks/ *noun* [U] SPORT physical exercises that you do to music, especially in a class *She goes to aerobics* (= to aerobics classes).

aerodynamic /ˌeərəʊdaɪˈnæmɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS having a shape that moves quickly through the air ●**aerodynamics** *noun* [U] the study of how objects move through the air

A

aeroplane /ˈeərəpleɪn/ *UK* (*US* **airplane**) *noun* [C] a vehicle that flies and has an engine and wings

aerosol /ˈeərəsɒl/ *noun* [C] a metal container that forces a liquid out in small drops when you press a button ➲See picture at **CFC**

aerospace /ˈeərəʊspeɪs/ *noun* [U] the design and production of aircraft

aesthetic (*also US* **esthetic**) /esˈθetɪk/ *adjective* relating to beauty and the way something looks *the **aesthetic appeal** of cats* ●**aesthetically** *adverb*

aesthetics (*also US* **esthetics**) /esˈθetɪks/ *noun* [U] **ART** the study of beauty, especially in art

aetiology *UK* (*US* **etiology**) /iːtiˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the study of the causes of a disease

AFAIK **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* as far as I know: used when you believe that something is true, but you are not completely certain

afar /əˈfɑːr/ *adverb literary* **from afar** from a long distance *He had admired her from afar.*

affable /ˈæfəbl/ *adjective* pleasant and friendly

affair /əˈfeər/ *noun* **1** EVENTS [C] a situation or set of related events, especially bad ones *The government's handling of the affair has been widely criticized.* **2** RELATIONSHIP [C] a sexual relationship between two people when one or both of them is married to someone else *He's been **having an affair** with a woman at work.* **3 be sb's affair** If something is your affair, it is private and you do not want anyone else to be involved or know about it. ➲See also: **love affair**

affairs /əˈfeəz/ *noun* [plural] situations or subjects that involve you *He refused to discuss his financial affairs.* ➲See also: **current affairs, state of affairs**

affect /əˈfekt/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE CHANGE to influence someone or something, or cause them to change *It's a disease which affects many older people.* **2** CAUSE EMOTION to cause a strong emotion, especially sadness [**often passive**] *I was deeply affected by the film.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **effect**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

affect someone or **something**

Remember that you do not need a preposition after the verb **affect**.

The problem affects everyone.

~~*The problem affects to everyone.*~~

affectation /ˌæfekˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] a way of speaking or behaving that is not natural to someone

affected /əˈfektɪd/ *adjective* behaving or speaking in a way that is not natural or sincere

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***affection***

show affection ● affection **for** sb ● a **display/show** of affection

affection /əˈfekʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] a feeling of liking or loving someone *Ann's **affection for** her grandfather was obvious.*

affectionate /əˈfekʃˈnət/ *adjective* showing that you like or love someone *an affectionate little girl* ○ *He's very affectionate.* ●**affectionately** *adverb*

affiliate /əˈfɪlieɪt/ *verb* **be affiliated to/with sth** to be officially connected to, or a member of, a larger organization *a college affiliated to the University of London* ●**affiliation** /əˌfɪliˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

affinity /əˈfɪnəti/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**no plural**] a feeling that you like and understand someone or something *She seems to have a natural **affinity for/with** water.* **2** SIMILARITY [C, U] a similarity *There are **affinities between** this poem and some of his earlier work.*

affirm /əˈfɜːm/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say that something is true *He gave a speech affirming the government's commitment to education.* ●**affirmation** /ˌæfəˈmeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

affirmative /əˈfɜːmətɪv/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** *formal* In language, an affirmative word or phrase expresses the meaning 'yes'. *an **affirmative answer***

affix /ˈæfɪks/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a group of letters that you add to the beginning or the end of a word to make another word. In the word 'non-alcoholic', 'non-' is an affix. ➲Compare **prefix, suffix**

afflict /əˈflɪkt/ *verb* [T] *formal* If an illness or problem afflicts you, it makes you suffer. [**often passive**] *a country afflicted by civil war* ●**affliction** /əˈflɪkʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] something that makes you suffer

affluent /ˈæfluənt/ *adjective* having a lot of money *affluent families/neighbourhoods* ●**affluence** /ˈæfluəns/ *noun* [U]

afford /əˈfɔːd/ *verb* [T] **1 can afford** to have enough money to buy something or enough time to do something *I can't afford a new computer.* [**+ to do sth**] Can we afford to go away? ○ I'd love to come out but I ***can't afford the time.*** **2 can afford to do sth** If you can afford to do something, it is possible for you to do it without causing problems. *We can't afford to take that risk.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

afford to do something

When **afford** is followed by a verb, it is always in the **to + infinitive** form.

We can't afford to go on holiday this year.

~~*We can't afford going on holiday this year.*~~

affordable /əˈfɔːdəbl/ *adjective* cheap enough for most people ***affordable housing/prices***

affront /əˈfrʌnt/ *noun* [C] something that is offensive or insulting to someone *He regarded the comments as an **affront to** his dignity.*

afield /əˈfiːld/ *adverb mainly UK* **far/further afield** away from the place where you are *We hired a car so we could travel further afield.*

afloat /əˈfləʊt/ *adjective* **1** floating on water **2 stay afloat** **FINANCE** to have enough money to continue a business *Many small business are struggling to stay afloat.*

afoot /ə'fʊt/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] being planned, or happening now *There are **plans afoot** to launch a new radio station.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***afraid***

Other ways of saying 'afraid' are **frightened** and **scared**: *He's **frightened** that the other children will laugh at him.* ● *Gerry has always been **scared** of heights.*

If someone is extremely afraid, then you can use adjectives such as **petrified**, **terrified**, **panic-stricken** or the informal phrase **scared to death**: *I'm **terrified** of flying.* ● *She was **panic-stricken** when her little boy disappeared.* ● *He's **scared to death** of having the operation.*

If someone is afraid because they are worrying about something, then you can use adjectives such as **anxious**, **concerned**, **nervous**, or **worried**: *I'm **worried** that something will go wrong.* ● *All this waiting is making me feel **anxious**.*

If someone is afraid of something that might happen in the future, you can use the adjectives **apprehensive** or **uneasy**: *He's a bit **apprehensive** about living away from home.*

afraid /ə'freɪd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1 I'm afraid** used to politely tell someone bad news or to politely disagree with someone *We haven't got any tickets left, I'm afraid.* [**+ (that)**] *I'm afraid that I've broken your vase.* **2** FRIGHTENED frightened *She's **afraid of** water.* **3** WORRIED worried that something bad might happen [**+ (that)**] *Many people are afraid that they might lose their jobs.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *He was **afraid of** upsetting Clare.*

afresh /ə'freʃ/ *adverb* If you do something afresh, you do it again in a different way. *Juan tore up the letter he was writing and **started afresh**.*

African /'æfrɪkən/ *adjective* relating or belonging to Africa *African art/music* ●**African** *noun* [**C**] someone from Africa

African-American /ˌæfrɪkənə'merɪkən/ (*also* **Afro-American** /ˌæfrəʊə'merɪkən/) *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to American people whose families came from Africa in the past *the African-American community* ●**African-American** (*also* **Afro-American**) *noun* [**C**] *a 25-year-old African-American*

Afro /'æfrəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] a way of arranging very curly hair, especially for black people, in a round shape

Afro-Caribbean /ˌæfrəʊkærɪ'biːən/ *adjective UK* **SOCIETY** relating to people from the Caribbean whose families originally came from Africa *Afro-Caribbean art/music*

after[1] /'ɑːftəʳ/ *preposition* **1** TIME/EVENT when a time or event has happened *We went swimming after lunch.* ○ *Let's get the shopping. **After that**, we can have coffee.* **2** LIST following in order *H comes after G in the alphabet.* **3** TIME *US* (*UK/US* **past**) used to say how many minutes past the hour it is *It's five after three.* **4** BECAUSE OF because of something that happened *I'll never trust her again after what she did to me.* **5** DESPITE despite *I can't believe he was so unpleasant after you gave him so much help.* **6** FOLLOW following someone or something *We ran after him, but he escaped.* **7 after 5 minutes/2 weeks, etc** when five minutes, two weeks, etc have passed **8 day after day/year after year, etc** continuing for a long time, or happening many times *I'm bored with going to school day after day.* **9** NAMED FOR used when giving someone or something the same name as another person or thing *It was called the Biko building, after the famous South African.* **10 after all a** NOT EXPECTED used to say that something happened or was true although you did not expect it to happen or be true *Helen couldn't come to the party after all.* **b** EMPHASIZE TRUTH used to add information that shows that what you have just said is true *You can't expect to be perfect - after all, it was only your first lesson.* **11 be after sth** *informal* to be trying to get something *What type of job are you after?* **12 be after sb** *informal* to be looking for someone *The police are after him.*

after[2] /'ɑːftəʳ/ *conjunction* at a later time than something else happens *We arrived after the game had started.* ○ *After further discussion, we decided to call the police.*

after[3] /'ɑːftəʳ/ *adverb* later than someone or something else *He had the operation on Monday and I saw him the day after.*

afterbirth /'ɑːftəbɜːθ/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the material, including the placenta (= organ that feeds a baby inside its mother) which is pushed out of a woman's or female animal's body soon after she has given birth

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***aftermath***

in the aftermath of sth ● the **immediate** aftermath

aftermath /'ɑːftəmaːθ/ *noun* [**no plural**] a situation that is the result of an accident, crime, or other violent event *There are calls for tighter airport security **in the aftermath of** last week's bombing.*

afternoon /ˌɑːftə'nuːn/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] the time between the middle of the day, and the evening *I played tennis on Saturday afternoon.* ○ *The train arrives at 3 o'clock in the afternoon.* ○ *What are you doing **this afternoon*** (= today in the afternoon)? **2 (Good) afternoon.** used to say hello to someone in the afternoon

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

afternoon

If you talk about what happens in the afternoon, use the preposition **in**.

In the afternoon I phoned my girlfriend.

~~*At the afternoon I phoned my girlfriend.*~~

If you say a day of the week before 'afternoon', use the preposition **on**.

I'm going to the dentist on Tuesday afternoon.

aftershave /'ɑːftəʃeɪv/ *noun* [**C, U**] a liquid with a pleasant smell that men put on their faces after shaving (= removing hair)

aftertaste /'ɑːftəteɪst/ *noun* [**C**] the taste that a food or drink leaves in your mouth when

A

you have swallowed it [**usually no plural**] *a bitter/sweet aftertaste*

afterthought /ˈɑːftəθɔːt/ *noun* [**C**] something that you say or do later [**usually no plural**] *She only asked me to the party* ***as an afterthought***.

afterwards /ˈɑːftəwədz/ (*also US* **afterward**) *adverb* at a later time, after something else has happened *I did my homework and went swimming afterwards.*

again /əˈgen/ *adverb* **1** REPEAT once more *I'll ask her again.* ○ *I'll see you again next week.* **2** AS BEFORE as before *Get some rest and you'll soon be well again.* **3 again and again** many times *He played the same song again and again.* **4 all over again** repeated from the beginning *We had to start all over again.* **5 then/there again** used when adding a fact to something you have just said *I failed my history test - but then again, I didn't do much studying for it.*

against /əˈgenst/ *preposition* **1** NOT AGREE disagreeing with a plan or activity *Andrew wants to change offices but I'm against it.* ○ *There were 70 votes for the new proposal and 30 against.* **2** COMPETE competing with or opposing someone or something *Liverpool is playing against AC Milan.* ○ *the fight against racism* **3** TOUCH touching something *Push the bed against the wall.* **4** PROTECT protecting you from something bad *Fresh fruit in the diet may protect against cancer.* **5** OPPOSITE DIRECTION in the opposite direction to the way something is moving *I was cycling against the wind.* **6 against the law/the rules** forbidden by a law or by rules *It's against the law to leave young children alone in the house.* **7 against sb's advice/wishes, etc** If you do something against someone's advice, wishes, etc, you do it although they have said you should not or must not. *He flew there against his doctor's advice.* **8 have sth against sb/sth** to have a reason not to like someone or something *I've got nothing against him personally, I just don't think he's the right man for the job.*

agar /ˈeɪgɑː/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a thick clear substance used by scientists for growing microorganisms (= living things too small to see) or for making liquids thicker *agar jelly*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***age***

reach the age of [18/60/75, etc] ● **at/from** the age of [8/12/60, etc] ● [8/25/70, etc] **years of** age ● **at** sb's age ● an age **limit**

age[1] /eɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** HOW OLD [**C, U**] the number of years that someone has lived, or that something has existed *The show appeals to people of all ages.* ○ *She left India* ***at the age of*** *12.* ○ *Children under 10* ***years of age*** *must be accompanied by an adult.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **year** **2** HISTORY [**C**] a period of history *the Ice Age* ○ *We're living in* ***the age of*** *electronic communication.* **3** OLD [**U**] when something is old *Some wines improve* ***with age***. **4 under age** too young to do something legally ➲See also: **the Middle Ages, old age**

age[2] /eɪdʒ/ *verb* [**I, T**] *UK* **ageing,** *US* **aging,** *past* **aged** to become older or to make someone seem older *Dad has aged a lot recently.*

aged[1] /eɪdʒd/ *adjective* having a particular age *They have one daughter, aged three.* ➲See also: **middle-aged**

aged[2] /ˈeɪdʒɪd/ *adjective* old *an aged dog* ○ *improved health care for the aged*

ˈage ˌgroup *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** people of a particular age *job training for people in the 16-24 age group*

ageing[1] *UK* (*US* **aging**) /ˈeɪdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* becoming older *an ageing population*

ageing[2] *UK* (*US* **aging**) /ˈeɪdʒɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] the process of becoming older *the ageing process*

ˈage ˌlimit *noun* [**C**] **LAW** the age at which a person is allowed or not allowed to do something *Eighteen is the legal age limit for buying alcohol.*

agency /ˈeɪdʒᵊnsi/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BUSINESS a business that provides a service *an advertising agency* **2** ORGANIZATION an international organization or government department *an international development agency* ➲See also: **travel agency**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***agenda***

set (= decide) the agenda ● be **off/on** the agenda ● be **at the top of/high on** the agenda ● the agenda **for** sth

agenda /əˈdʒendə/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MEETING a list of subjects that people will discuss at a meeting *There are several items* ***on the agenda***. **2** IMPORTANT SUBJECTS important subjects that have to be dealt with *The issue of rail safety is back* ***on the*** *political* ***agenda***.

agent /ˈeɪdʒᵊnt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BUSINESS someone whose job is to deal with business for someone else *a literary agent* **2** GOVERNMENT (*also* **secret agent**) someone who tries to find out secret information, especially about another country ➲See also: **estate agent** *UK*, **real estate agent** *US*, **travel agent**

ages /ˈeɪdʒɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* a very long time *I've been waiting here* ***for ages***. ○ *It* ***takes ages*** *to cook.*

aggravate /ˈægrəveɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** MAKE WORSE to make a situation or condition worse *His comments only* ***aggravated*** *the* ***problem***. **2** ANNOY to annoy someone *She's starting to really aggravate me.* ●**aggravating** *adjective* ●**aggravation** /ˌægrəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

aggregate /ˈægrɪgət/ *noun* [**C, U**] **MATHEMATICS** a total *UK Liverpool won 2-0* ***on aggregate*** (= in total).

aggression /əˈgreʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] angry or violent behaviour towards someone *an act of aggression*

aggressive /əˈgresɪv/ *adjective* **1** ANGRY behaving in an angry and violent way towards another person *aggressive behaviour* **2** DETERMINED using forceful methods and determined to succeed *an aggressive marketing campaign* ●**aggressively** *adverb*

aggressor /əˈgresəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who starts a fight or war with someone else

aggrieved /əˈgriːvd/ *adjective* upset or angry because someone has treated you unfairly

aghast /əˈgɑːst/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] very shocked *She looked at him aghast.*

agile /ˈædʒaɪl/ (US) /ˈædʒəl/ *adjective* **1** MOVE able to move your whole body easily and quickly **2** MIND able to think quickly in an intelligent way *an agile mind* ●**agility** /əˈdʒɪləti/ *noun* [U]

aging /ˈeɪdʒɪŋ/ *noun, adjective US spelling of* ageing

agitate /ˈædʒɪteɪt/ *verb* [I] POLITICS to argue strongly about something in order to achieve social or political changes *They continued to* ***agitate for*** *changes to the legal system.* ●**agitator** *noun* [C]

agitated /ˈædʒɪteɪtɪd/ *adjective* very anxious or upset *He seemed agitated, as if something was worrying him.* ●**agitation** /ˌædʒɪˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

agitprop /ˈædʒɪtprɒp/ *noun* [U] POLITICS the spreading of strongly political ideas or arguments expressed especially through plays, art, books, etc.

AGM /ˌeɪdʒiːˈem/ *UK* (*US* **annual meeting**) *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* Annual General Meeting: a meeting that happens once every year in which an organization discusses the past year's activities and chooses the people who will be in charge of the organization

agnostic /ægˈnɒstɪk/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who believes that we cannot know if God exists or not ●**agnostic** *adjective*

ago /əˈgəʊ/ *adverb* **ten minutes/six years/a long time ago** used to refer to a time in the past *They moved to London ten years ago.*

agonist /ˈægənɪst/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY a muscle that is pulled in the opposite direction by another muscle

agonize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈægənaɪz/ *verb* [I] to spend a lot of time worrying about a decision *Lee* ***agonized over*** *what to buy his girlfriend.*

agonizing (*also UK* **-ising**) /ˈægənaɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* causing you a lot of pain or worry *an agonizing choice*

agony /ˈægəni/ *noun* [C, U] extreme suffering, either physical or mental *She lay on the bed* ***in agony.***

ˈagony ˌaunt *noun* [C] *UK* someone who gives advice on personal problems, in a newspaper or magazine

agree /əˈgriː/ *verb* **agreeing,** *past* **agreed 1** SAME OPINION [I, T] to have the same opinion as someone *I* ***agree with*** *you.* ○ *"She's definitely the right person for the job." "I agree."* [+ **(that)**] *We all agreed that mistakes had been made.* ○ *We* ***agree about*** *most things.* **2** SAY YES [I] to say you will do something that someone asks you to do [+ **to do sth**] *She agreed to help him.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **accept 3** DECIDE [I, T] to decide something with someone *We couldn't* ***agree on*** *what to buy.* [+ **to do sth**] *They agreed to meet on Sunday.* [+ **(that)**] *We agreed that they would deliver the sofa in the morning.* **4** DESCRIPTION [I] If two descriptions agree, they are the same. ➲Opposite **disagree**
agree with sth *phrasal verb* to think that something is morally acceptable *I don't agree with hunting.*

agreeable /əˈgriːəbl/ *adjective formal* **1** pleasant or nice *an agreeable young man* ➲Opposite **disagreeable 2 be agreeable to sth** to be willing to do or accept something *If Harvey is agreeable to the proposal, we'll go ahead.* ●**agreeably** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***agreement***

reach/sign an agreement ● a **draft/written** agreement ● an agreement **between** sb

agreement /əˈgriːmənt/ *noun* **1** PROMISE [C] a promise or decision made between two or more people *an international agreement* ○ *It was difficult to* ***reach an agreement.*** **2** SAME OPINION [U] when people have the same opinion as each other *Not everyone was* ***in agreement.*** ➲Opposite **disagreement**

agriculture /ˈægrɪkʌltʃər/ *noun* [U] FARMING the work and methods of growing crops and looking after animals which are then used for food ●**agricultural** /ˌægrɪˈkʌltʃərəl/ *adjective*

agritourism /ˌægrɪˈtʊərɪzm/ *noun* [U] the business of providing holidays for people on farms or in the countryside

aground /əˈgraʊnd/ *adverb* **run aground** If a ship runs aground, it cannot move because the water is not deep enough.

ah /ɑː/ *exclamation* **1** SHOW FEELING used to show sympathy or to show pleasure at seeing a baby or attractive animal *Ah, you poor thing!* ○ *Ah, look at that little kitten!* **2** UNDERSTAND used to show that you have just understood something *Ah, now I see what you're saying!*

aha /əˈhɑː/ *exclamation* used when you suddenly understand or find something *Aha! That's where I left my keys!*

ahead /əˈhed/ *adjective, adverb* **1** IN FRONT in front *The road ahead is very busy.* ○ *Rick walked* ***ahead of*** *us.* **2** FUTURE in the future *She has a difficult time* ***ahead of*** *her.* **3** MORE POINTS having more points than someone else in a competition *Barcelona was ahead after ten minutes.* **4** MORE PROGRESS making more progress than someone or something else *Sue is* ***ahead of*** *everyone else in French.* **5 go ahead** *informal* used to allow someone to do something *"Can I use your phone?" "Sure, go ahead."* **6 ahead of time/schedule** before the time that was planned *We finished the project ahead of schedule.* ➲See also: be one **step**[1] ahead (of sb), be streets (**street**) ahead (of sb/sth), be ahead of your **time**[1]

-aholic /-əˈhɒlɪk/ *suffix* unable to stop doing or taking something *chocaholic* (= someone who cannot stop eating chocolate)

aid[1] /eɪd/ *noun* **1** HELP [U] money, food, or equipment that is given to help a country or group of people *Emergency aid was sent to the flood victims.* ○ *aid workers* **2 in aid of sb/sth** *UK* in order to collect money for a group of people who need it *a concert in aid of famine relief* **3 with the aid of sth** using something to help you *She can walk with the aid of a stick.* **4 come/go to sb's aid** to go to someone and help them *Luckily a policeman came to my aid.* **5** EQUIPMENT [C] a piece of equipment that helps you to do something *teaching aids such as books and videos* ➲See also: **Band-Aid, first aid, visual aid**

aid[2] /eɪd/ *verb formal* **1** [T] to help someone **2 aid and abet (sb)** in law, to help someone do something that is illegal

A

aide /eɪd/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone whose job is to help someone important, especially in the government *a former aide to the President*

AIDS, Aids /eɪdz/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* acquired immune deficiency syndrome: a serious disease that destroys the body's ability to fight infection ➲Compare **HIV**

ailing /ˈeɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* weak or ill *an ailing company/economy*

ailment /ˈeɪlmənt/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an illness *Treat **minor ailments** yourself.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***aim***

achieve your aim ● sb's/sth's **main/ultimate** aim ● the aim **of** sth ● **with** the aim of doing sth

aim¹ /eɪm/ *noun* **1** [C] the purpose of doing something, and what you hope to achieve *The **aim of** the film was to make people laugh.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *He went to Paris **with the aim** of improving his French.* **2 sb's aim** someone's ability to hit an object by throwing something or shooting at something **3 take aim** to point a weapon towards someone or something

aim² /eɪm/ *verb* **1 aim for/at sth; aim to do sth** to intend to achieve something *I aim to arrive at three o'clock.* ○ *We're aiming for a 10% increase in sales.* **2 be aimed at sb** to be intended to influence or affect a particular person or group *advertising aimed at students* **3 be aimed at doing sth** to be intended to achieve a particular thing *a plan aimed at reducing traffic* **4** [**I, T**] to point a weapon towards someone or something *He **aimed** the gun **at** the lion.*

aimless /ˈeɪmləs/ *adjective* with no purpose ●**aimlessly** *adverb*

ain't /eɪnt/ *informal short for* am not, is not, are not, have not, or has not. This word is not considered correct by most people.

air¹ /eər/ *noun* **1** GAS [U] the mixture of gases around the Earth which we breathe *air pollution* ○ *He went outside to get some **fresh air*** (= clean, cool air). **2 the air** the space above and around things *He fired his gun into the air.* **3** TRAVEL [U] travel in an aircraft *I like travelling **by air**.* ○ *air safety* **4** QUALITY [**no plural**] a particular appearance or quality *He has **an air of** authority.* **5 be on air** to be broadcasting on television or radio **6 clear the air** If an argument or discussion clears the air, people feel less angry or upset after it. **7 disappear/vanish into thin air** to suddenly disappear in a mysterious way **8 be up in the air** If something is up in the air, no decision has been made. *Our plans for the summer are still up in the air.* ➲See also: a **breath** of fresh air, **mid-air**

air² /eər/ *verb* **1** BROADCAST [T] to broadcast something on radio or television **2 air your opinions/views, etc** to say what your opinions are *The meeting will give everyone a chance to air their views.* **3** ROOM [T] to make a room smell better by opening a door or window **4** CLOTHES [**I, T**] If clothes air, or if you air them, you hang them up with a lot of air around them.

airbag /ˈeəbæg/ *noun* [C] a bag in the front of a car that protects people in an accident by filling with air *passenger/twin airbags*

airbase /ˈeəbeɪs/ *noun* [C] a military airport

ˈair ˌbladder *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a small bag of air or gas inside the body of a fish or inside a plant, that helps it to float or breathe

airborne /ˈeəbɔːn/ *adjective* moving in, or carried by the air *airborne troops* ○ *an airborne virus*

ˈair ˌcon *noun* [U] *UK abbreviation for* air conditioning

ˈair conˌditioner *noun* [C] a machine that keeps the air cool in a building or a car

ˈair conˌditioning *noun* [U] a system that keeps the air cool in a building or car ●**air-conditioned** /ˈeəkənˌdɪʃənd/ *adjective* having air conditioning *an air-conditioned office*

aircraft /ˈeəkrɑːft/ *noun* [C] *plural* **aircraft** a vehicle that can fly

ˈaircraft ˌcarrier *noun* [C] a ship on which aircraft can take off and land

airfare /ˈeəfeər/ *noun* [C] the cost of a ticket to fly somewhere

airfield /ˈeəfiːld/ *noun* [C] a place where small or military aircraft can take off and land

ˈair ˌforce *noun* [C] the part of a country's military organization that uses aircraft to fight wars

ˈair hoˌstess *UK* (*UK/US* **flight attendant**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is to serve passengers on an aircraft and to make sure that safety rules are obeyed

ˈairing ˌcupboard *noun* [C] *UK* a warm cupboard where you keep sheets, clean clothes, etc

airless /ˈeələs/ *adjective* An airless room does not have enough fresh air.

airlift /ˈeəlɪft/ *noun* [C] when people or things are moved by aircraft because it is too difficult or too slow to travel by road *an airlift of medical supplies* ●**airlift** *verb* [T] [**often passive**] *Three small children were airlifted to safety.*

airline /ˈeəlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a company that provides regular flights to places

airliner /ˈeəlaɪnər/ *noun* [C] a large plane for carrying people

airmail /ˈeəmeɪl/ *noun* [U] the sending of letters or parcels by plane *an airmail letter*

airman /ˈeəmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **airmen** a man who flies an aircraft in a country's air force

airplane /ˈeəpleɪn/ *US* (*UK* **aeroplane**) *noun* [C] a vehicle that flies and has an engine and wings

airport /ˈeəpɔːt/ *noun* [C] a place where planes take off and land, with buildings for passengers to wait in

ˈair ˌraid *noun* [C] an attack by military planes

ˈair ˌsac *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** a part of a bird or an insect used for breathing **2 ANATOMY** an alveolus (= small bag of air in the lung)

airship /ˈeəˌʃɪp/ *noun* [C] a large aircraft without wings and filled with a gas lighter than air, used especially in the past.

airspace /ˈeəspeɪs/ *noun* [U] the sky above a country that belongs to that country

airstrike /ˈeəstraɪk/ *noun* [C] an attack by military planes

airtight /ˈeətaɪt/ *adjective* An airtight container does not allow air in or out.

ˌair traffic conˈtroller *noun* [C] the person in an airport who tells pilots when to take off and land their aircraft

airway /ˈeəweɪ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the tube through the mouth and throat that carries air to the lungs

airy /ˈeəri/ *adjective* An airy room or building is pleasant because it has a lot of space and air.

aisle /aɪl/ *noun* [C] a passage between the lines of seats or goods in a plane, church, supermarket, etc

ajar /əˈdʒɑːr/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] If a door is ajar, it is slightly open.

aka /ˌeɪkeɪˈeɪ/ *adverb abbreviation for* also known as: used when giving the name that a person is generally known by, after giving their real name *Peter Parker, aka Spiderman*

akin /əˈkɪn/ *adjective formal* **be akin to sth** to be similar to something

à la carte /ˌæləˈkɑːt/ *adjective, adverb* **FOOD** choosing food as separate items from a menu (= list of food), not as a meal with a fixed price

alacrity /əˈlækrəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* If you do something with alacrity, you do it in a very quick and willing way.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***alarm***

an alarm **goes off/sounds** ● **set off/trigger** an alarm ● a **burglar/fire/smoke** alarm ● a **car** alarm ● an alarm **system**

alarm¹ /əˈlɑːm/ *noun* **1** WARNING [C] a loud noise that warns you of danger *a fire alarm* ○ ***to set off an alarm*** **2** CLOCK [C] (*also* **alarm clock**) a clock that makes a noise to wake you **3** WORRY [U] a sudden feeling of fear or worry that something bad might happen *There's no need for alarm - it is completely safe.* **4 raise the alarm** to warn someone of a dangerous situation *Her parents raised the alarm when she failed to return home.* ➲See also: **burglar alarm, false alarm**

alarm² /əˈlɑːm/ *verb* [T] to make someone worried or frightened *I don't want to alarm you but he really should be here by now.*

aˈlarm ˌclock *noun* [C] a clock that makes a noise to wake you *I've* ***set the alarm clock for*** *six.*

alarmed /əˈlɑːmd/ *adjective* worried or frightened by something *I was a bit* ***alarmed at*** *the number of people in the audience.*

alarming /əˈlɑːmɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel worried or frightened *alarming news*

alas /əˈlæs/ *exclamation literary* used to show sadness

albeit /ɔːlˈbiːɪt/ *conjunction formal* although *He tried, albeit without success.*

albino /ælˈbiːnəʊ/ US /ælˈbaɪnəʊ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a person or animal with white skin, white hair or fur, and pink eyes

album /ˈælbəm/ *noun* [C] **1 MUSIC** several songs or pieces of music on a CD, a record, etc **2** BOOK a book in which you keep photographs, stamps, etc

albumen /ˈælbjʊmən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** the clear part inside an egg which is white when cooked and which is used as food by the bird or animal growing in the egg

alcohol /ˈælkəhɒl/ *noun* [U] **1 FOOD** drinks such as wine and beer that can make you drunk **2 CHEMISTRY, FOOD** a liquid that has no colour and is in drinks that make you drunk

alcoholic¹ /ˌælkəˈhɒlɪk/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone who regularly drinks too much alcohol and cannot stop the habit

alcoholic² /ˌælkəˈhɒlɪk/ *adjective* **1 FOOD** containing alcohol *alcoholic drinks* **2 HEALTH** [**always before noun**] regularly drinking too much alcohol and unable to stop the habit *She lived with her alcoholic father.*

alcoholism /ˈælkəhɒlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the condition of being an alcoholic

alcove /ˈælkəʊv/ *noun* [C] a part of a wall in a room that is further back than the rest of the wall

ale /eɪl/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a type of beer

alert¹ /əˈlɜːt/ *adjective* quick to notice and react to things around you *A young dog should be alert and playful.* ○ *Teachers need to be* ***alert to*** *sudden changes in students' behaviour.* ●**alertness** *noun* [U]

alert² /əˈlɜːt/ *verb* [T] to warn someone of a possibly dangerous situation *Six hours later she still wasn't home so they alerted the police.*

alert³ /əˈlɜːt/ *noun* **1** [C] a warning about a possibly dangerous situation *a* ***bomb alert*** **2 be on full/red alert** to be expecting problems and ready to deal with them *Police in the region were on full alert against further attacks.*

ˈA ˌlevel *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** in England and Wales, an exam taken at the age of eighteen, or the qualification itself

algae /ˈældʒiː/ *noun* [U, **group**] **BIOLOGY** a plant with no stem or leaves that grows in or near water

algebra /ˈældʒɪbrə/ *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** a type of mathematics in which numbers and amounts are shown by letters and symbols

algorithm /ˈælgərɪðᵊm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a set of rules used to calculate an answer to a mathematical problem

alias¹ /ˈeɪliəs/ *noun* [C] a false name, especially one used by a criminal

alias² /ˈeɪliəs/ *preposition* used when giving the name that a person is generally known by, after giving their real name *Grace Kelly, alias Princess Grace of Monaco*

alibi /ˈælɪbaɪ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** proof that someone was not in the place where a crime happened and so cannot be guilty

alien¹ /ˈeɪliən/ *adjective* **1** STRANGE strange and not familiar *The custom was totally* ***alien to*** *her.* **2** ANOTHER PLANET [**always before noun**] relating to creatures from another planet *an alien spacecraft*

alien² /ˈeɪliən/ *noun* [C] **1** CREATURE a creature from another planet **2** FOREIGNER *formal* someone who does not legally belong to the country where they live or work

A

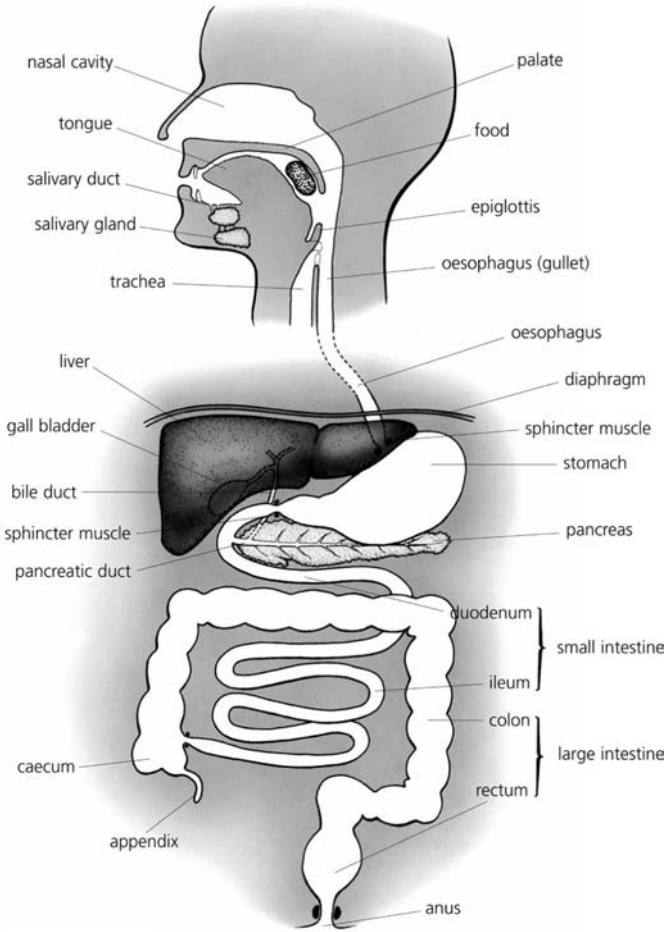

alimentary canal

alienate /ˈeɪliəneɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** LOSE SUPPORT to make someone stop supporting and liking you *The government's comments have alienated many teachers.* **2** NOT INCLUDE to make someone feel that they are different and do not belong to a group *Disagreements can **alienate** teenagers **from** their families.* ●**alienation** /ˌeɪliəˈneɪʃ°n/ *noun* [U]

alight¹ /əˈlaɪt/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] *mainly UK* burning *Vandals **set** the car **alight*** (= made it burn).

alight² /əˈlaɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* to get out of a bus, train, etc *He **alighted from** the taxi.*

align /əˈlaɪn/ *verb* **1** [T] to put things in an exact line or make them parallel **2 align yourself with sb; be aligned with sb** to support the opinions of a political group, country, etc *Many voters are not aligned with any party.* ●**alignment** *noun* [C, U]

alike¹ /əˈlaɪk/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] similar *The children look so alike.*

alike² /əˈlaɪk/ *adverb* **1** SAME WAY in a similar way *We think alike.* **2** BOTH used to say that two people or groups are included *It is a disease which affects men and women alike.*

alimentary canal /ˌælɪˌmentᵊrikəˈnæl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the parts of the body that food goes through as it is eaten and digested

alimony /ˈælɪməni/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** money that someone must pay regularly to their wife or husband after the marriage has ended

alive /ə'laɪv/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** NOT DEAD living, not dead *Are your grandparents **still alive?*** **2** PLACE full of activity and excitement *The bar was **alive with** the sound of laughter.* ○ *The city **comes alive** at night.* **3** CONTINUING continuing to exist *Local people are fighting to **keep** the language **alive**.* **4 be alive and kicking/well** to continue to be popular or successful *Despite rumours to the contrary, feminism is alive and kicking.*

alkali /'ælkəlaɪ/ *noun* [**U, C**] **CHEMISTRY** a substance which has the opposite effect or chemical behaviour to an acid and has a pH (= measure of how acid something is) of more than 7 ●**alkaline** /'ælkəlaɪn/ *adjective* ●**alkalinity** /ˌælkə'lɪnəti/ *noun* [**U**]

ˌalkali 'metal *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** any of a group of metallic elements such as lithium, sodium and potassium that react very easily and have a positive electric charge

alkaloid /'ælkələɪd/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** a poisonous chemical found in plants that is sometimes used in medicines

alkane /'ælkeɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** any gas in a group of gases that contain carbon and hydrogen atoms *Alkanes, such as butane and methane, are very flammable.*

alkene /'ælkiːn/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** any gas in a group that contains carbon and hydrogen atoms, with the carbon atoms joined together in a double bond (= connection)

all[1] /ɔːl/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** EVERY ONE every person or thing in a group *We were all dancing.* ○ *I've watched **all of** the programmes in the series.* **2** WHOLE AMOUNT the whole amount of something *Who's eaten all the cake?* ○ *He spends **all of** his money on clothes.* **3** WHOLE TIME the whole of a period of time *all week/month/year* ○ *He's been studying all day.* **4** ONLY THING the only thing *All I remember is waking up in hospital.* **5 at all** in any way *He hasn't changed at all.* ○ *UK Can I help at all?* **6 in all** in total *There were twenty people at the meeting in all.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

all + period of time

You do not say 'the' when you use **all** + a period of time.

all day/morning/week/year/summer

~~*all the day/morning/week/year/summer*~~

all[2] /ɔːl/ *adverb* **1** completely or very *You're all wet!* ○ *I'm all excited now.* **2 all over a** in every place *Lee has travelled all over the world.* **b** finished *It was all over very quickly.* **3 2/5/8, etc all SPORT** used to say that two players or teams have the same number of points in a game *It was 3 all at half time.* **4 all along** from the beginning of a period of time *I said all along that it was a mistake.* **5 all but** almost *The film was all but over by the time we arrived.* **6 all the better/easier/more exciting, etc** much better, easier, etc *The journey was all the more dangerous because of the bad weather.* **7 all in all** considering everything *All in all, I think she did well.*

Allah /'ælə/ *noun* **RELIGION** the name of God for Muslims

allay /ə'leɪ/ *verb formal* **allay sb's concerns/fears/suspicions, etc** to make someone feel less worried or frightened, etc *I tried to allay his fears about the interview.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *allegation*

make/deny/face/investigate an allegation ● a **serious** allegation ● an allegation **of** sth ● an allegation **against** sb

allegation /ˌælɪ'geɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] when you say that someone has done something wrong or illegal, without proof that this is true ***allegations of** corruption* [**+ that**] *He **denied allegations** that he had cheated.*

allege /ə'ledʒ/ *verb* [**T**] to say that someone has done something wrong or illegal, but not prove it [**often passive**] *The teacher is alleged to have hit a student.* [**+ (that)**] *He alleges that Bates attacked him.*

alleged /ə'ledʒd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] believed to be true, but not proved *an alleged attack* ●**allegedly** /ə'ledʒɪdli/ *adverb He was arrested for allegedly stealing a car.*

allegiance /ə'liːdʒᵊns/ *noun* [**U**] loyalty and support *To become a citizen, you have to **pledge/swear allegiance to*** (= say you will be loyal to) *the United States.*

allegory /'ælɪgəri/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LITERATURE** a story, poem, or painting that has a hidden meaning, especially a moral one ●**allegorical** /ˌælɪ'gɒrɪkəl/ *adjective*

allele /ə'liːl/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** one of two or more genes (= part of cell that controls characteristics) that is found in the same position in a chromosome (= part of a cell), and so produces a particular characteristic such as eye colour

allergen /'ælədʒən/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a substance that can make some people ill if they eat it, touch it or breathe it in

allergic /ə'lɜːdʒɪk/ *adjective* **1 HEALTH** [**never before noun**] having an allergy *I'm **allergic to** eggs.* **2 HEALTH** [**always before noun**] caused by an allergy *an **allergic reaction***

allergy /'ælədʒi/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a medical condition in which your body reacts badly to something that you eat, breathe, or touch *an **allergy to** dogs*

alleviate /ə'liːvieɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to make problems or suffering less extreme *She's been given some tablets to **alleviate** the **pain**.* ●**alleviation** /əˌliːvi'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

alley /'æli/ (*also* **alleyway** /'æliweɪ/) *noun* [**C**] **1** a narrow road between buildings **2 be right up sb's alley** *US informal* (*UK* **be right up sb's street**) to be exactly the type of thing that someone knows about or likes to do

WORD PARTNERS FOR *alliance*

form an alliance ● an alliance **between** sb and sb ● an alliance **with** sb ● **in** alliance with sb

alliance /ə'laɪəns/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** an agreement between countries or political parties to work together to achieve something *an **alliance between** France and Britain*

A

allied /ˈælaɪd/ *adjective* **1** POLITICS [always before noun] joined by a formal agreement *the allied powers* **2 be allied to/with sth** to be related to something *a group closely allied with the Green Party*

alligator /ˈælɪgeɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a big reptile with a long mouth and sharp teeth, that lives in lakes and rivers

alliteration /əˌlɪtəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE, LITERATURE the use of the same sound or sounds at the beginning of several words that are close together

all-night /ˈɔːlnaɪt/ *adjective* lasting all night *Tom was tired after his **all-night party**.*

allocate /ˈæləkeɪt/ *verb* [T] to give some time, money, space, etc to be used for a particular purpose *The government has promised to **allocate** extra money **for** health care.* ○ *More police time should be **allocated to** crime prevention.*

allocation /ˌæləˈkeɪʃʰn/ *noun* **1** SHARE [C] an amount of money, time, space, etc that is allocated **2** PROCESS [U] when money, time, space, etc is allocated *the allocation of money*

allot /əˈlɒt/ *verb* [T] **allotting,** *past* **allotted** to O-K give someone a particular amount of something [often passive] *They were allotted seats on the front row.*

allotment /əˈlɒtmənt/ *noun* **1** LAND [C] in Britain, a small area of land that people rent and grow vegetables and flowers on **2** SHARE [C, U] the process of sharing something, or the amount that you get

allotrope /ˈælətrəʊp/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY any of two or more forms of the same chemical substance

allotropy /æˈlɒtrəpiː/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY the existence of the same chemical substance in more than one form, each with different physical qualities ●**allotropic** /ˌæləˈtrɒpɪk/ *adjective* *Diamond and graphite are allotropic forms of carbon.*

all-out /ˈɔːlˌaʊt/ *adjective* [always before noun] complete and with as much effort as possible *an all-out battle/effort*

O-K **allow** /əˈlaʊ/ *verb* [T] **1** GIVE PERMISSION to give someone permission for something [often passive] *Smoking is not allowed in the restaurant.* [+ to do sth] *You are not allowed to use calculators in the exam.* [+ two objects] *Patients are not allowed visitors after nine o'clock.* **2** NOT PREVENT to not prevent something from happening [+ to do sth] *They have allowed the problem to get worse.* **3** MAKE POSSIBLE to make it possible for someone to do something [+ to do sth] *The extra money will allow me to upgrade my computer.* **4** TIME/MONEY to plan to use a particular amount of money, time, etc for something *Allow three hours for the whole journey.*
allow for sth *phrasal verb* to consider or include something when you are making plans *The journey should take two hours, allowing for delays.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

allow or **let?**

Allow and **let** have similar meanings. **Allow** is used in more formal or official situations, especially when talking about rules and laws. Verb patterns - **allow someone to do something / allow something to happen**.

The new legislation allows companies to charge for this service.

We can't allow this situation to continue.

Let is used in more informal and spoken situations. Verb patterns - **let someone do something /let something happen**.

Dad never lets anyone else drive his car.

She let her hair grow longer.

allowance /əˈlaʊəns/ *noun* [C] **1** MONEY money that you are given regularly, especially to pay for a particular thing *a clothing allowance* **2** AMOUNT an amount of something that you are allowed *The luggage allowance is 25 kilos.* **3 make allowances for sb/sth** to remember that someone has a disadvantage which is not their fault when you are judging their behaviour or work *They made allowances for the fact that he was ill.*

alloy /ˈælɔɪ/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a metal that is a mixture of two or more metals

O-K **ˌall ˈright¹** (*also* **alright**) *adjective* [never before noun], *adverb* **1** GOOD good enough, although not very good *The hotel wasn't brilliant but it was all right.* ○ *It's a cheap wine but it tastes all right.* **2** SAFE safe or well *I'm all right thanks. How are you?* ○ *Did you get home all right last night?* **3 that's all right a** THANKS used as an answer when someone thanks you *"Thanks for cleaning the kitchen." "That's all right."* **b** SORRY something you say when someone says sorry to show that you are not angry *"I'm sorry - I forgot all about it." "That's all right."*

ˌall ˈright² (*also* **alright**) *exclamation* used to agree to a suggestion or request *"How about going out for dinner?" "All right."*

all-time /ˌɔːlˈtaɪm/ *adjective* [always before noun] If something is at an all-time best/high/low, etc, it is the best/highest/lowest, etc it has ever been.

allude /əˈluːd/ *verb*
allude to sb/sth *phrasal verb formal* to refer to someone or something but not directly

allure /əˈljʊəʳ/ *noun* [U] an attractive or exciting quality *the allure of the city* ●**alluring** *adjective* attractive or exciting *an alluring image*

allusion /əˈluːʒʰn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* LANGUAGE when you refer to someone or something but not directly *a play full of **allusions to** Shakespeare*

alluvium /əˈluːviəm/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY earth and sand that has been left by rivers, floods, etc. ●**alluvial** /əˈluːviəl/ *adjective* *alluvial deposits*

ally¹ /ˈælaɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who supports you, especially when other people are against you **2** POLITICS a country that has agreed to help another country, especially in a war

ally² /əˈlaɪ/ *verb*
ally yourself to/with sb *phrasal verb* to join someone and support them

almighty /ɔːlˈmaɪti/ *adjective* **1** STRONG [always before noun] very strong or forceful *All of a*

sudden I heard an almighty bang in the kitchen. **2** POWERFUL having the power to do everything, like a god ***Almighty God***

almond /ˈɑːmənd/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a flat, oval nut, often used in cooking

O-K **almost** /ˈɔːlməʊst/ *adverb* **1** If something almost happens, it does not happen but it is very close to happening. *I almost missed the bus.* **2 almost always/everyone/half, etc** not always/everyone/half, etc but very close to it *He's almost always late.*

O-K **alone** /əˈləʊn/ *adjective, adverb* **1** NO OTHER PEOPLE [**never before noun**] without other people *She lives alone.* **2** ONLY ONE [**always after noun**] used to emphasize that only one person or thing is involved *Last year alone the company made a million dollars.* **3 leave sb alone** to stop talking to someone or annoying them *Leave him alone, he's tired.* **4 leave sth alone** to stop touching something *Leave your hair alone!* ➲See also: **let** alone

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

alone or **lonely?**

Alone means without other people. If you feel sad because you are alone, you are **lonely**.

Sometimes I like to be alone to think.

She has been very lonely since her husband died.

O-K **along**[1] /əˈlɒŋ/ *preposition* **1** DIRECTION from one part of a road, river, etc to another *a romantic walk along the beach* **2** NEXT TO in a line next to something long *a row of new houses along the river* **3** PARTICULAR PLACE at a particular place on a road, river, etc *Somewhere along this road there's a garage.*

O-K **along**[2] /əˈlɒŋ/ *adverb* **1** forward *We were just walking along, chatting.* **2 be/come along** to arrive somewhere *You wait ages for a bus and then three come along at once.* **3 bring/take sb along** to take someone with you to a place *She asked if she could bring some friends along to the party.* **4 along with sb/sth** in addition to someone or something else *California along with Florida is probably the most popular American holiday destination.*

alongside /əˌlɒŋˈsaɪd/ *adverb, preposition* **1** NEXT TO next to someone or something *A car pulled up alongside ours.* **2** WITH together with someone *She enjoyed* ***working alongside*** *such famous actors.*

aloof /əˈluːf/ *adjective* **1** NOT FRIENDLY not friendly, especially because you think you are better than other people *He seems arrogant and aloof.* **2** NOT INVOLVED not involved in something *He tried to remain* ***aloof from*** *family arguments.*

aloud /əˈlaʊd/ *adverb* in a way that other people can hear *to* ***laugh aloud*** ○ *The author* ***read aloud*** *from his new book.*

alphabet /ˈælfəbet/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a set of letters used for writing a language *The English alphabet starts at A and ends at Z.*

alphabetical /ˌælfəˈbetɪkəl/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** arranged in the same order as the letters of the alphabet *Put the names* ***in alphabetical order.*** ●**alphabetically** *adverb*

alphanumeric /ˌælfənjuːˈmerɪk/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** containing or using letters of the alphabet and also numbers

alpha particle /ˈælfəˌpɑːtɪkl/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** an extremely small piece of matter with a positive electrical charge, produced in a nuclear reaction

alphorn /ˈælp.hɔːn/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a large, long musical instrument shaped like a horn, played in places like Switzerland

alpine /ˈælpaɪn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **GEOGRAPHY** existing in, or relating to high mountains *an alpine village*

O-K **already** /ɔːlˈredi/ *adverb* **1** BEFORE before now, or before a particular time in the past *I've already told him.* ○ *By the time we arrived, he'd already left.* **2** EARLIER used to say that something has happened earlier than you expected *I'm already full and I've only eaten one course.*

O-K **alright** /ɔːlˈraɪt/ *adjective, adverb, exclamation* *another spelling of* all right

O-K **also** /ˈɔːlsəʊ/ *adverb* in addition *She speaks French and also a little Spanish.* ○ *The book also has a chapter on grammar.*

altar /ˌɔːltər/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a table used for religious ceremonies, especially in a Christian church

alter /ˌɔːltər/ *verb* [I, T] to change, or to make someone or something change *We've had to alter our plans.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *alteration*

make alterations (**to** sth) ● a **major/minor/slight** alteration ● an alteration **in/to** sth

alteration /ˌɔːltərˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U] a change, or the process of changing something *We've* ***made*** *a few* ***alterations to*** *the kitchen.*

alternate[1] /ɔːlˈtɜːnət/ *adjective* **1 alternate days/weeks/years, etc** one out of every two days, weeks, years, etc *I work alternate Saturdays.* **2** REPEATING with first one thing, then another thing, and then the first thing again, etc *a dessert with alternate layers of chocolate and cream* **3** DIFFERENT [**always before noun**] *US* An alternate plan, method, etc is one that you can use if you do not want to use another one. ●**alternately** *adverb*

alternate[2] /ˈɔːltəneɪt/ *verb* **1** [I] If two things alternate, one thing happens, then the other thing happens, then the first thing happens again, etc. *She* ***alternates between*** *cheerfulness and deep despair.* **2 alternate sth with sth** to use or do one thing then another thing and then the first thing again, etc *They alternate classical pieces with more modern works.* ●**alternating** *adjective alternating moods of anger and sadness*

alˌternate ˈangle *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** one of two angles on opposite sides of a line that crosses two usually parallel (= always the same distance apart) lines ➲Compare **corresponding angle**

ˈalternating ˌcurrent *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** electrical current (= movement of electricity)

A

which regularly changes the direction in which it moves ➲Compare **direct current**

alternative¹ /ɔːlˈtɜːnətɪv/ *noun* [C] one of two or more things that you can choose between *It's a low-fat **alternative to** butter.* ○ *After the public protests the government **had no alternative** but to change its policy.*

alternative² /ɔːlˈtɜːnətɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** INSTEAD (*also US* **alternate**) An alternative plan, method, etc is one that you can use if you do not want to use another one. *We can make **alternative arrangements** if necessary.* **2** UNUSUAL different to what is usual or traditional ***alternative comedy*** ○ *an alternative lifestyle*

alternatively /ɔːlˈtɜːnətɪvli/ *adverb* used to give a second possibility *We could go there by train or, alternatively, I could drive us.*

alˌternative ˈmedicine *noun* [U] **HEALTH** any way of trying to make an illness better that uses medicines or methods that are not normally used in Western medicine

although /ɔːlˈðəʊ/ *conjunction* **1** DESPITE despite the fact that *She walked home by herself, although she knew it was dangerous.* **2** BUT but *He's coming this evening, although I don't know exactly when.*

altitude /ˈæltɪtjuːd/ *noun* [C, U] **MEASURES** the height of something above sea level *flying at an altitude of 8000 metres*

Alt key /ˈæltkɪː/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **COMPUTING** a key on a computer keyboard that you press at the same time as another key to produce a particular result

alto /ˈæltəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a woman or boy with a low singing voice

altocumulus /ˌæltəʊˈkjuːmjələs/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** a type of tall, round, white cloud with a flat base found at medium height

altogether /ˌɔːltəˈgeðər/ *adverb* **1** COMPLETELY completely *The train slowed down and then stopped altogether.* ○ *I'm **not altogether** sure about the idea.* **2** TOTAL in total *There were twenty people there altogether.* **3** GENERALLY when you consider everything *Altogether, I'd say the party was a great success.*

altostratus /ˌæltəʊˈstrɑːtəs/ (US) /-ˈstreɪ-/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** a type of flat, grey cloud formed in thin layers and found at medium height ➲See picture at **cloud**

alum /ˈæləm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical substance used for several purposes, including dyeing (= changing the colour of something) and some medicines

aluminium /ˌæljəˈmɪniəm/ *UK* (*US* **aluminum** /əˈluːmɪnəm/) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a light, silver-coloured metal used for making containers, cooking equipment, and aircraft parts (symbol **Al**) *aluminium cans/foil*

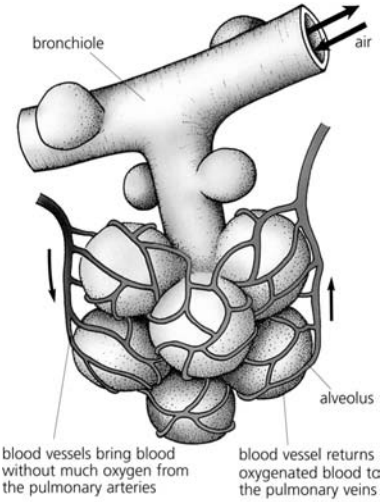

alveoli

alveolus /ˌælviˈəʊləs/ (US) /ˌæˈviːləs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **alveoli** **ANATOMY** one of the many very small air bags in the lungs, with thin walls that allow oxygen to enter the blood ➲See picture at **circulation** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***always***

If you are using **always** to mean 'again and again', then you could also use **constantly**, **continually**, **forever**, or the fixed expressions **time after time** or **all the time**: *He's **constantly/forever** losing his keys.* ● *I'm fed up with you making excuses **all the time**.*

The word **invariably** is sometimes used as a more formal way of saying **always**, especially when talking about something bad which happens: *The train is **invariably** late.*

The fixed expression **without fail** can be used to show that someone always does something, even when it is difficult: *He visited her every Sunday **without fail**.*

always /ˈɔːlweɪz/ *adverb* **1** EVERY TIME every time, or at all times *I always walk to work.* **2** UNTIL NOW at all times in the past *We've always lived here.* **3** FOREVER forever *I will always remember you.* **4** MANY TIMES again and again, usually in an annoying way [+ **doing sth**] *He's always losing his keys.* **5 can/could always do sth** used to suggest something *You can always stay with us if you miss your train.*

Alzheimer's (disease) /ˈæltshaɪməzdɪˌziːz/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a brain disease mainly of old people which makes a person forget things and stops them from thinking clearly

a.m. (*also* **am**) /ˌeɪˈem/ used to refer to a time between 12 o'clock in the night and 12 o'clock

in the day *We're open from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. daily.*

AM /ˌeɪˈem/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** *abbreviation for* amplitude modulation; a system of radio signals used for broadcasting programmes

am *strong form* /æm/ *weak forms* /əm, m/ *present simple I of* be

amalgam /əˈmælgəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a mixture of mercury (= a heavy, silver coloured metal) and another metal, especially one used by dentists to repair teeth

amalgamate /əˈmælgəmeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] If two or more organizations amalgamate, they join to become one, and if you amalgamate them, you make them do this. *a decision to **amalgamate with** another school* ●**amalgamation** /əˌmælgəˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

amass /əˈmæs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to get a lot of money or information over a period of time *He **amassed a fortune** in the diamond trade.*

amateur¹ /ˈæmətᵊr/ *adjective* doing something as a hobby and not as your job *an amateur photographer*

amateur² /ˈæmətᵊr/ *noun* [C] **1** HOBBY someone who does something as a hobby and not as their job **2** NO SKILL someone who is not good at what they do *I won't be giving them any more work - they're a bunch of amateurs.*

amateurish /ˈæmətᵊrɪʃ/ (US) /ˌæməˈtɜːrɪʃ/ *adjective* done without skill or attention

amaze /əˈmeɪz/ *verb* [T] to make someone very surprised *It amazes me how much energy that woman has.*

amazed /əˈmeɪzd/ *adjective* extremely surprised *I was **amazed at** the price.* [+ **(that)**] *I was amazed that Paul recognized me.*

amazement /əˈmeɪzmənt/ *noun* [U] extreme surprise *Jana looked at him **in amazement**.* ○ ***To his amazement** they offered him the job.*

amazing /əˈmeɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* very surprising [+ **question word**] *It's amazing how many people can't read.* ●**amazingly** *adverb*

ambassador /æmˈbæsədᵊr/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the main official sent by the government of a country to represent it in another country *the French ambassador to Britain*

amber /ˈæmbᵊr/ *noun* [U] **1** a colour between yellow and orange **2** **GEOLOGY** a hard, clear yellowish-brown substance, used for making jewellery ●**amber** *adjective an amber traffic light*

ambience (*also* **ambiance**) /ˈæmbiəns/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] the qualities of a place and the way it makes you feel *Lighting adds a lot to the ambience of a room.*

ambiguity /ˌæmbɪˈgjuːəti/ *noun* [C, U] when something has more than one possible meaning *Legal documents must be free of ambiguity.*

ambiguous /æmˈbɪgjuəs/ *adjective* having more than one possible meaning *an ambiguous statement* ●**ambiguously** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ambition***

have an ambition ● **achieve/fulfil/realize** an ambition ● a **burning/lifelong** ambition

O-key **ambition** /æmˈbɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** HOPE [C] something you want to achieve in your life *My ambition is to retire at forty.* **2** FEELING [U] a strong feeling that you want to be successful or powerful *My sister always had more ambition than me.*

ambitious /æmˈbɪʃəs/ *adjective* **1** PERSON wanting to be successful or powerful *an ambitious young lawyer* **2** PLAN An ambitious plan will need a lot of work and will be difficult to achieve. *This is our most ambitious project so far.*

ambivalent /æmˈbɪvələnt/ *adjective* having two different feelings about something *He was **ambivalent about** moving to London.* ●**ambivalence** /æmˈbɪvᵊləns/ *noun* [U]

amble /ˈæmbl/ *verb* **amble along/around/through, etc** to walk somewhere in a slow and relaxed way *We ambled home across the fields.*

ambulance /ˈæmbjələns/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a vehicle that takes people to hospital when they are ill or hurt

ambush /ˈæmbʊʃ/ *verb* [T] to attack a person or vehicle after hiding somewhere and waiting for them to arrive [**often passive**] *The bus was ambushed by a gang of youths.* ●**ambush** *noun* [C] *Two men died in a terrorist ambush.*

ameba /əˈmiːbə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** *US spelling of* amoeba

ameliorate /əˈmiːliᵊreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make a problem or bad situation better

amen /ˌɑːˈmen/ *exclamation* **RELIGION** something that Christians say at the end of a prayer

amenable /əˈmiːnəbl/ *adjective* willing to do or accept something *She may be more **amenable to** the idea now.*

amend /əˈmend/ *verb* [T] to slightly change the words of a document [**often passive**] *The contract has now been amended.*

amendment /əˈmendmənt/ *noun* [C, U] a change in the words of a document, or the process of doing this *to **make** an **amendment to** the human rights law*

amends /əˈmendz/ *noun* **make amends** to do something nice for someone to show that you are sorry for something that you have done *I want to **make amends for** the worry I've caused you.*

amenity /əˈmiːnəti/ (US) /əˈmenəti/ *noun* [C] a building, piece of equipment, or service that is provided for people's comfort or enjoyment [**usually plural**] *The campsite's amenities include a pool and three restaurants.*

American /əˈmerɪkən/ *adjective* **1** relating to the United States of America *an American accent* **2** **North/South American** relating to one or more of the countries of North/South America ●**American** *noun* [C] someone who comes from the United States of America ➲See also: **Native American**

Aˌmerican ˈfootball *UK* (*US* **football**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game for two teams of eleven players in which each team tries to kick, run with, or throw an oval ball across the opposing team's goal line ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

Aˌmerican ˈIndian *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to the original race of people who

A

lived in North America ●**American Indian** *noun* [C]

amiable /ˈeɪmiəbl/ *adjective* pleasant and friendly *an amiable young man* ●**amiably** *adverb*

amicable /ˈæmɪkəbl/ *adjective formal* done in a friendly way, without arguments *an amicable agreement/divorce* ●**amicably** *adverb*

amid /əˈmɪd/ (*also* **amidst** /əˈmɪdst/) *preposition formal* **1** WHILE while something else is happening *Security was increased **amid fears** of further terrorist attacks.* **2** AMONG among *a village set amid the hills*

amino acid /əˌmiːnəʊˈæsɪd/ *noun* **BIOLOGY** any of the chemical substances found in plants and animals that combine to make protein (= substance necessary for the body to grow)

amiss¹ /əˈmɪs/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] If something is amiss, there is something wrong. *I knew something was amiss when he didn't answer the door.*

amiss² /əˈmɪs/ *adverb* **1 would not go amiss** *UK* If something would not go amiss, it would be useful or nice in a particular situation. *A cup of coffee wouldn't go amiss.* **2 take it amiss** *UK* to feel upset by what someone says or does *I think she might take it amiss if I left early.*

ammeter /ˈæmiːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a device for measuring electric current

ammonia /əˈməʊniə/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a liquid or gas with a strong smell, used in substances for cleaning things (formula NH_3) ➲See picture at **nitrogen cycle**

ammonite /ˈæmənaɪt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, GEOLOGY** an extinct (= no longer existing) sea creature often found as a fossil (= animal or plant turned into rock)

ammonium hydroxide /əˌməʊniəmhaɪˈdrɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical mixture of water and ammonia used in cleaning materials and making some plastics (formula NH_4OH)

ammonium nitrate /əˌməʊniəmˈnaɪtreɪt/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound in the form of a white powder, often used as a fertilizer (= substance to make plants grow) and in explosives (formula NH_4 NO_4)

ammonium sulphate /əˌməʊniəmˈsʌlfeɪt/ *UK* (*US* **ammonium sulfate**) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound often used as a fertilizer (= substance to make plants grow) (formula NH_4 SO_4)

ammunition /ˌæmjəˈnɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **1** GUN a supply of bullets and bombs to be fired from guns **2** INFORMATION facts that you can use to criticize someone

amnesia /æmˈniːʒə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a medical condition that makes you forget things

amnesty /ˈæmnəsti/ *noun* **1 LAW** [C, U] a time when a government allows political prisoners to go free **2 LAW** [C] a time when people can give weapons or drugs to the police, or admit that they have done something illegal, without being punished

amnion /ˈæmniən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **amnions** or **amnia BIOLOGY** a bag made of thin skin which contains amniotic fluid and surrounds a baby growing inside its mother ➲See picture at **foetus**

amniotic fluid /ˌæmniɒtɪkˈfluːɪd/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the liquid that surrounds an embryo (= growing baby) inside its mother ➲See picture at **foetus**

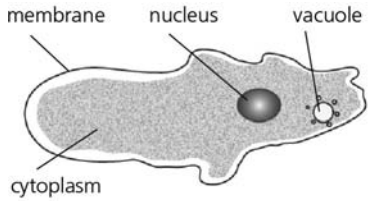

amoeba

amoeba /əˈmiːbə/ *UK* (*US* **ameba**) *noun* [C] *plural UK* **amoebas**, *US* **amebas**, *UK* **amoebae**, *US* **amebae BIOLOGY** a very small simple organism consisting of only one cell

among /əˈmʌŋ/ (*also* **amongst** /əˈmʌŋst/) *preposition* **1** IN THE MIDDLE in the middle of something *He disappeared among the crowd.* **2** IN A GROUP in a particular group *The decision will not be popular among students.* ○ *I'm going to give you a minute to talk **amongst yourselves*** (= talk to each other). **3** ONE OF A GROUP to be one of a small group *He is among the top five tennis players in the country.* **4** DIVIDE to each one in a group *She divided the cake among the children.*

amoral /ˌeɪˈmɒrəl/ *adjective* not caring if what you are doing is morally wrong *an amoral person/act*

amorous /ˈæmʳəs/ *adjective* full of love and sexual excitement *amorous adventures*

amortize (*UK* **-ise**) /əˈmɔːtaɪz/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to reduce a debt by paying small regular amounts ●**amortization** (*UK* **-isation**) /əˌmɔːtɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

amount¹ /əˈmaʊnt/ *noun* [C] how much there is of something *The project will take a huge **amount of** time and money.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

amount of or **number of?**

Amount of is used with uncountable nouns.

I should reduce the amount of coffee I drink.

Did you use the right amount of flour?

Number of is used with countable nouns.

We don't know the number of people involved yet.

They received a large number of complaints.

amount² /əˈmaʊnt/ *verb*

amount to sth *phrasal verb* **1** SAME to be the same as something, or to have the same effect as something *He gave what amounted to an apology on behalf of the company.* **2** TOTAL to have a particular total *goods amounting to $800*

amp /æmp/ (*also* **ampere** /ˈæmpeər/) *noun* [C] O-➡ **PHYSICS** a unit for measuring the strength of an electric current

amperage /ˈæmpərɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the strength of electrical current needed to make a piece of electric equipment work

ampersand /ˈæmpəsænd/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the sign (&) used for 'and'

amphibian /æmˈfɪbiən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal, such as a frog, which lives both on land and in water but must lay its eggs in water

amphibious /æmˈfɪbiəs/ *adjective* **1** **BIOLOGY** of or relating to a type of animal which lives both on land and in water *amphibious animals* **2** relating to vehicles which operate both on land or in water

amphoteric /ˌæmfəˈterɪk/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** able to act as a base (= substance with a pH of more than 7) or an acid

ample /ˈæmpl/ *adjective* **1** ENOUGH enough, or more than enough *She's had* ***ample time*** *to get the work done.* **2** LARGE large *her ample bosom* ●**amply** *adverb*

amplifier /ˈæmplɪfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of electronic equipment that makes sounds louder

amplify /ˈæmplɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** SOUND to make a sound louder using electronic equipment **2** OPINION *formal* to make a feeling or opinion stronger or clearer ●**amplification** /ˌæmplɪfɪˈkeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

amplitude /ˈæmplɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the greatest distance between the top or bottom of a curve, e.g. a sound wave, and its middle point

amputate /ˈæmpjətеɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **HEALTH** to cut off someone's leg, arm, finger, etc in a medical operation *His leg was amputated at the knee.* ●**amputation** /ˌæmpjəˈteɪʃʰn/ *noun* [C, U]

amuse /əˈmjuːz/ *verb* [T] **1** HAPPY to make someone smile or laugh *I took him an article that I thought might amuse him.* **2** NOT BORED to keep someone interested and help them to have an enjoyable time [**often reflexive**] *I bought a magazine to amuse myself while I was on the train.*

amused /əˈmjuːzd/ *adjective* **1** showing that you think something is funny *an amused smile* ○ *She was very* ***amused by/at*** *your comments.* **2 keep sb amused** to keep someone interested and help them to have an enjoyable time *How do you keep an eight-year-old boy amused?*

amusement /əˈmjuːzmənt/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] the feeling that you have when something makes you smile or laugh *I watched the performance* ***with*** *great* ***amusement.*** ○ ***To our amusement*** *the tent collapsed on top of them.* **2** ENJOYABLE [C, U] an enjoyable way of spending your time *I play the piano but just* ***for*** *my own* ***amusement.***

aˈmusement ˌpark *noun* [C] a large park where you can ride on exciting machines

amusing /əˈmjuːzɪŋ/ *adjective* making you laugh or smile *an amusing letter*

amylase /ˈæmɪleɪz/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** an enzyme (= substance that causes chemical change) that helps change starch into sugar

an *strong form* /æn/ *weak form* /ʰn/ *determiner* used instead of 'a' when the next word starts with a vowel sound *an apple* ○ *an hour* ➲See Common Learner Error at **a**

anabolic steroid /ˌænəbɒlɪkˈsterɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a hormone (= chemical substance produced by animals and plants) that causes muscle and bone growth. Anabolic steroids are sometimes used illegally by athletes competing in sports competitions

anaemia *UK* (*US* **anemia**) /əˈniːmiə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a medical condition in which your blood does not contain enough red cells ●**anaemic** *UK* (*US* **anemic**) /əˈniːmɪk/ *adjective*

anaerobic /ˌænəˈrəʊbɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** not needing, or without oxygen

ˌanaerobic respiˈration *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** producing energy without the use of oxygen

anaesthetic *UK* (*US* **anesthetic**) /ˌænəsˈθetɪk/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a drug that makes you unable to feel pain during an operation *The operation is done* ***under anaesthetic*** (= using anaesthetic). ➲See also: **general anaesthetic, local anaesthetic**

anaesthetist *UK* (*US* **anesthetist**) /əˈniːsθətɪst/ (US) /əˈnesθətɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor in a hospital who gives anaesthetics to people

anaesthetize /əˈniːsθətaɪz/ *UK* (*US* **anesthetize** /əˈnesθətaɪz/) *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to give someone drugs that make them unable to feel pain

anagram /ˈænəgræm/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or phrase made by putting the letters of another word or phrase in a different order *'Team' is an anagram of 'meat'.*

anal /ˈeɪnʰl/ *adjective* **ANATOMY** relating to the anus (= hole where solid waste comes out of the body)

analogous /əˈnæləgəs/ *adjective formal* **1** similar in some ways *It's often said that life is* ***analogous to*** *a journey.* **2** **BIOLOGY** Analogous organs or body parts have the same use but developed in different ways ➲Compare **homologous**

analogue *UK* (*US* **analog**) /ˈænəlɒg/ *adjective* **1** **PHYSICS** using signals that use continuously changing quantities of space, electrical current, etc to measure or store data *analogue data* **2 analogue clock/watch** a clock/watch which has hands (= narrow parts that point) that show what time it is

analogy /əˈnælədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] a comparison that shows how two things are similar *She* ***draws an analogy between*** *life's events and a game of chance.*

analyse *UK* (*US* **analyze**) /ˈænʰlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to examine the details of something carefully, in order to understand or explain it *to analyse information* ○ *Blood samples were analysed in the laboratory.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***analysis***

do an analysis ● a **detailed** analysis ● an analysis **of** sth ● send sth **for** analysis

analysis /əˈnæləsɪs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **analyses** /əˈnæləsiːz/ the process of analysing something *a* ***detailed analysis*** ○ *A sample of soil was sent* ***for analysis.***

A

analyst /ˈænᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to examine the details of a situation carefully, and give their opinion about it *a **financial/political analyst***

analytical /ˌænᵊˈlɪtɪkᵊl/ (*also* **analytic**) *adjective* examining the details of something carefully, in order to understand or explain it *analytical skills* ○ *an **analytical mind***

analyze /ˈænᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] *US spelling of* analyse

anapaest *UK* (*US* **anapest**) /ˈænəpest/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** in poetry, a unit of two short syllables and one long syllable

anarchist /ˈænəkɪst/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who thinks that society should not be controlled by a government and laws

anarchy /ˈænəki/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** when there is no law or government, or when people ignore them ●**anarchic** /ænˈɑːkɪk/ *adjective*

anatomical /ˌænəˈtɒmɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **ANATOMY** connected with anatomy

anatomy /əˈnætəmi/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [U] the scientific study of the body and how its parts are arranged **2** **ANATOMY** [C] the body of a person or living thing [**usually singular**] *the female anatomy* ●**anatomical** /ˌænəˈtɒmɪkəl/ *adjective*

ancestor /ˈænsestəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a relative who lived a long time ago *My ancestors came from Ireland.* ●**ancestral** /ænˈsestrᵊl/ *adjective*

ancestry /ˈænsestri/ *noun* [C, U] **SOCIETY** your relatives who lived a long time ago, or the origin of your family *Americans of Japanese ancestry*

anchor¹ /ˈæŋkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** BOAT a heavy, metal object that is dropped into water to stop a boat from moving **2** JOB *US* someone who reads the news and announcements on a television or radio programme

anchor² /ˈæŋkəʳ/ *verb* **1** BOAT [I, T] to stop a boat from moving by dropping a heavy metal object into the water **2** FASTEN [T] to make something or someone stay in one position by fastening them firmly *We anchored ourselves to the rocks with a rope.* **3** PROGRAMME [T] *US* to read the news or announcements on television or radio as your job

ancient /ˈeɪnʃᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** PAST [**always before noun**] from a long time ago *ancient Greece/Rome* ○ *an ancient building* **2** OLD *humorous* very old *This computer is ancient.*

and *strong form* /ænd/ *weak forms* /ənd, ən/ *conjunction* **1** JOIN used to join two words or two parts of a sentence *tea and coffee* ○ *We were tired and hungry.* **2** AFTER used to say that one thing happens after another thing *I got dressed and had my breakfast.* **3** SO so *The car wouldn't start and I had to get a taxi.* **4** AFTER VERB *mainly UK* used instead of 'to' after some verbs, such as 'try' and 'go' *Try and eat something.* **5** NUMBERS used when saying or adding numbers *It cost a hundred and twenty pounds. UK* ○ *Two and three equals five.* **6** EMPHASIZE used between two words that are the same to make their meaning stronger *The sound grew louder and louder.*

androgen /ˈændrədʒen/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a male hormone (= substance that influences growth and development)

androgynous /ænˈdrɒdʒɪnəs/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** having both male and female features ●**androgyny** /ænˈdrɒdʒəni/ *noun* [U]

anecdote /ˈænɪkdəʊt/ *noun* [C] a short story that you tell someone about something that happened to you or someone else *a speech full of anecdotes* ●**anecdotal** /ˌænɪkˈdəʊtᵊl/ *adjective* consisting of things that people have said, and not facts ***anecdotal evidence***

anemia /əˈniːmiə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* anaemia (= a medical condition in which your blood does not contain enough red cells)

anemic /əˈniːmɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** *US spelling of* anaemic (= having anemia)

anemometer /ˌænɪˈmɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a device that measures the speed and force of wind

anesthetic /ˌænəsˈθetɪk/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* anaesthetic (= a drug that makes you unable to feel pain during an operation)

anesthetist /əˈnesθətɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* anaesthetist (= a doctor who gives anaesthetics to people)

anew /əˈnjuː/ *adverb literary* If you do something anew, you do it again in a different way. *Moving to another city gave me the chance to **start anew**.*

angel /ˈeɪndʒᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** **RELIGION** a spiritual creature like a human with wings, who some people believe lives with God in heaven **2** a very good, kind person *Be an angel and get me a drink.* ●**angelic** /ænˈdʒelɪk/ *adjective* very beautiful or good *an angelic child*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***anger***

express/show anger ● **be trembling with** anger ● **in** anger ● **public** anger ● **mounting/growing** anger ● anger **at/over** sth

anger¹ /ˈæŋgəʳ/ *noun* [U] a strong feeling against someone who has behaved badly, making you want to shout at them or hurt them *public anger at the terrorist killings* ○ ***anger at/over** sth* ○ *He never once raised his voice **in anger**.*

anger² /ˈæŋgəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make someone angry [**often passive**] *Students were angered by the college's decision.*

angle¹ /ˈæŋgl/ *noun* [C] **1** **MATHEMATICS** a space between two lines or surfaces that meet at one point, which you measure in degrees *an angle of 90 degrees* **2** **at an angle** not horizontal or vertical, but sloping *He wore his hat at an angle.* **3** WAY OF THINKING the way you think about a situation *Try looking at the problem **from** my **angle**.* **4** DIRECTION the direction from which you look at something *This is the same building photographed **from** different **angles**.* ➲See also: **right angle**

angle² /ˈæŋgl/ *verb* [T] to aim or turn something in a direction that is not horizontal or vertical *She angled a shot into the corner of the court.* **be angling for sth** *phrasal verb* to try to get something without asking for it in a direct way *Is he angling for an invitation?*

angler /ˈæŋglər/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who catches fish as a hobby or sport

Anglican /ˈæŋglɪkən/ *adjective* **RELIGION** belonging or relating to the Church of England (= the official church in England) ●**Anglican** *noun* [C]

angling /ˈæŋglɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport or hobby of catching fish

Anglo- /æŋgləʊ-/ *prefix* of or connected with Britain or England *Anglo-Indian, Anglo-Saxon*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***angry***

If someone is angry about something that has happened, you can say that they are **annoyed** or **irritated**: *He was a bit **annoyed** with her for being late.* ● *I was **irritated** that he didn't thank me.*

If someone is extremely angry, you can use adjectives such as **furious**, **irate**, or **livid**: *My boss was **furious** with me.* ● *Hundreds of **irate** passengers have complained to the airline.*

If you are angry with a child, you might describe yourself as **cross**: *I'm **cross** with you for not telling me where you were going.*

The expression **up in arms** is sometimes used when people are angry about something they think is unfair: *Local people are **up in arms** over plans to close the local swimming pool.*

If someone suddenly becomes very angry, you can use the informal expressions **go crazy/mad**: *Dad **went crazy/mad** when he found out we'd broken the window.*

O-K **angry** /ˈæŋgri/ *adjective* having a strong feeling against someone who has behaved badly, making you want to shout at them or hurt them *He's really **angry at/with** me for upsetting Sophie.* ○ *I don't understand what he's **angry about**.* ●**angrily** *adverb*

angst /æŋst/ *noun* [U] a strong feeling of worry and unhappiness *teenage angst*

anguish /ˈæŋgwɪʃ/ *noun* [U] extreme suffering, especially mental suffering *It's the anguish of knowing that I can do nothing to help.* ●**anguished** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *anguished parents*

angular /ˈæŋgjʊlər/ *adjective* An angular shape or object has a lot of straight lines and sharp points. *an angular face*

anhydrous /ænˈhaɪdrəs/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** containing no water

O-K **animal¹** /ˈænɪməl/ *noun* [C] **1** LIVING THING something that lives and moves but is not a person, bird, fish, or insect *a wild animal* ○ *She's a real animal lover.* **2 BIOLOGY** anything that lives and moves, including people, birds, etc *Are humans the only animals to use language?* **3** CRUEL PERSON *informal* a very cruel and violent person

animal² /ˈænɪməl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Animal qualities and feelings relate to your basic physical needs. *animal passion*

animate /ˈænɪmət/ *adjective formal* alive ➲Opposite **inanimate**

animated /ˈænɪmeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** EXCITED showing a lot of interest and excitement *an animated conversation* **2** FILM An animated film is one in which drawings and models seem to move.

animation /ˌænɪˈmeɪʃən/ *noun* **1** EXCITEMENT [U] interest and excitement *She spoke with great animation.* **2** FILM [C, U] an animated film, or the process of making animated films ***computer animation***

animosity /ˌænɪˈmɒsəti/ *noun* [C, U] when someone hates or feels angry towards someone else *There is no **animosity between** the two teams.*

anion /ˈænaɪən/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** an ion (= type of atom) with a negative electrical charge ➲Compare **cation**

ankle /ˈæŋkl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part of your leg that is just above your foot ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

annelid /ˈænəlɪd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of worm whose body is divided into several parts

annex¹ /əˈneks/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** to start to rule or control an area or country next to your own ●**annexation** /ˌænekˈseɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U]

annex² (*also UK* **annexe**) /ˈæneks/ *noun* [C] a building that is joined to a larger one

annihilate /əˈnaɪɪleɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** DESTROY to destroy something completely *a city annihilated by an atomic bomb* **2** DEFEAT *informal* to defeat someone very easily ●**annihilation** /əˌnaɪɪˈleɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***anniversary***

the [10th/50th/500th, etc] anniversary **of** sth ● **commemorate/mark** an anniversary ● sb's **wedding** anniversary ● anniversary **celebrations**

anniversary /ˌænɪˈvɜːsəri/ *noun* [C] a date on which you remember or celebrate something that happened on that date one or more years ago *a **wedding anniversary*** ○ ***the** 40th **anniversary of** Kennedy's death* ➲See also: **silver wedding anniversary**

O-K **announce** /əˈnaʊns/ *verb* [T] to tell people about something officially or with force or confidence *The company has **announced plans** to open six new stores.* [**+ (that)**] *Halfway through dinner, he announced that he was going out.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

announce or **advertise?**

Announce means to tell people about something. If you want to talk about telling people about a product or service so that they will buy it, for example in newspapers or on the television, you should use **advertise**.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***announcement***

make an announcement ● a **formal/official/public** announcement ● an announcement **about/on** sth ● an announcement **by/from** sb

O-K **announcement** /əˈnaʊnsmənt/ *noun* **1** INFORMATION [C] something that someone says officially, giving information about something *The Prime Minister **made** an unexpected **announcement** this morning.* **2** TELL [**no plural**] when someone announces something

A

announcer /ə'naʊnsəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who introduces programmes on the radio or television

annoy /ə'nɔɪ/ *verb* [T] to make someone slightly angry *He's always late and it's starting to annoy me.*

annoyance /ə'nɔɪəns/ *noun* [U] the feeling of being annoyed *He kept losing his keys,* ***much to the annoyance of*** (= which annoyed) *his wife.*

annoyed /ə'nɔɪd/ *adjective* slightly angry *I was a bit* ***annoyed with/at*** *Kathy for not coming.*

annoying /ə'nɔɪɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel annoyed *an annoying habit/cough* ○ *It's very annoying to be kept waiting.*

annual¹ /'ænjuəl/ *adjective* **1** EVERY YEAR happening or produced once a year *an* ***annual meeting/report*** **2** FOR A YEAR measured over a period of one year *annual rainfall* ●**annually** *adverb*

annual² /'ænjuəl/ *noun* [C] **1** PLANT a plant which grows, produces seed, and dies within one year **2** BOOK a book produced every year containing new information about the same subject

annulment /ə'nʌlmənt/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* **LAW** when a court says officially that a marriage or agreement does not now exist and was never legal

anode /'ænəʊd/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** one of the electrodes (= object that electricity moves through) in a piece of electrical equipment; the negative electrode in a battery and the positive electrode in an electrolytic cell

anomaly /ə'nɒməli/ *noun* [C] *formal* something that is unusual or that does not seem right *There are some anomalies in the data.*

anonymity /ˌænə'nɪməti/ *noun* [U] when someone's name is not given or known *She agreed to speak to a journalist but* ***requested anonymity.***

anonymous /ə'nɒnɪməs/ *adjective* not giving a name *an anonymous phone call* ○ *The winner has asked to* ***remain anonymous.*** ●**anonymously** *adverb*

anorak /'ænᵊræk/ *noun* [C] *UK* **1** a jacket with a hood (= part that covers your head) that protects you from rain and cold **2** *humorous* a boring person who is too interested in the details of a hobby and who is not good in social situations

anorexia /ˌænᵊr'eksiə/ (*also* **anorexia nervosa** /ænərˌeksiənɜː'vəʊsə/) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a mental illness in which someone refuses to eat and becomes very thin

anorexic /ˌænᵊr'eksɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** having the illness anorexia ●**anorexic** *noun* [C]

another /ə'nʌðəʳ/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** ONE MORE one more person or thing, or an additional amount *Would you like another piece of cake?* ○ *We can fit another person in my car.* **2** DIFFERENT a different person or thing *I'm going to look for another job.* ○ *This one's slightly damaged - I'll get you another.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

another or other?

Another means 'one other' and is used with a singular noun. It is written as one word.

Would you like another cup of coffee?

~~*Would you like other cup of coffee?*~~

Other is used with a plural noun and means different things or people than the ones you are talking about.

She had other ambitions.

~~*She had another ambitions.*~~

answer¹ /'ɑːnsəʳ/ *verb* **1** WORDS [I, T] to speak or write back to someone who has asked you a question or spoken to you *I asked when she was leaving but she didn't answer.* ○ *I must answer his letter.* **2** DOOR [I, T] to open the door when someone has knocked on it or rung a bell *I knocked several times but no one answered.* **3** TELEPHONE [I, T] to pick up the telephone receiver (= part that you hold to your ear) when it rings *Could someone* ***answer the phone?*** **4** TEST [T] to write or say something as a reply to a question in a test or competition **answer (sb) back** *phrasal verb* If a child answers back, they reply rudely to an adult. **answer for sth** *phrasal verb* **1** to be responsible for something, or punished for something *Do you think parents should have to answer for their children's behaviour?* **2 have a lot to answer for** to be the main cause of something bad which has happened *When it comes to violence, TV has a lot to answer for.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *answer*

get/give/know/provide an answer ● a **correct/simple/wrong** answer ● the answer **to** sth

answer² /'ɑːnsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** WORDS what you say or write back to someone who has asked you a question or spoken to you *I asked him if he was going but I didn't hear his answer.* ○ *Please* ***give*** *me your* ***answer*** *by next week.* **2** DOOR/TELEPHONE when someone answers the telephone or the door [**usually singular**] *I rang the bell but there was no answer.* **3** SOLUTION a way of solving a problem *It's a difficult situation and I don't know what the answer is.* **4** TEST the correct number or information given as a reply to a question in a test or competition *Did you get the* ***answer to*** *Question 6 in the physics paper?*

answerphone /'ɑːnsəfəʊn/ *UK* (*UK/US* **answering machine**) *noun* [C] a machine that records your message if you telephone someone and they do not answer

ant /ænt/ *noun* [C] a small, black or red insect that lives in groups on the ground ➲See picture at **insect**

antacid /ˌæn'tæsɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a substance used to reduce or prevent acid collecting in the body, especially in the stomach

antagonism /æn'tægᵊnɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] feelings of strong disagreement or hate *There's a history of* ***antagonism between*** *the two teams.*

antagonist /æn'tægənɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** a muscle that is pulled in the opposite

direction by another muscle **2** **HEALTH** a drug that stops the effects of another drug

antagonistic /æn,tægᵊn'ɪstɪk/ *adjective* **1** strongly disagreeing with someone or something *He's **antagonistic towards** critics.* **2** **ANATOMY** antagonistic muscles pull against each other

antagonize (*also UK* **-ise**) /æn'tægᵊnaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make someone angry or unfriendly towards you *He's antagonized colleagues by making changes without discussing them.*

the Antarctic /æn'tɑ:ktɪk/ *noun* the very cold area around the South Pole ●**Antarctic** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *Antarctic wildlife*

antelope /'æntɪləʊp/ *noun* [C] an animal like a large deer with long horns

antenatal /,æntɪ'neɪtᵊl/ *UK* (*US* **prenatal**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] **HEALTH** relating to pregnant women before their babies are born *an **antenatal class***

antenna /æn'tenə/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** *plural* **antennae** one of two long, thin parts on the head of an insect or sea creature, used for feeling things **2** *plural* **antennae** or **antennas** *US* (*UK* **aerial**) a piece of metal that is used for receiving television or radio signals ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

anthem /'ænθəm/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a song chosen by a country or organization to be sung on special occasions ➲See also: **national anthem**

anther /'æntθᵊr/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the middle part of the stamen (= male part of plant) that produces pollen ➲See picture at **flower** ➲See picture at **pollen**

anthology /æn'θɒlədʒi/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a book which includes stories or poems written by different people

anthropology /,ænθrə'pɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the scientific study of human development and society or different societies ●**anthropologist** /,ænθrə'pɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] ●**anthropological** /,ænθrəpə'lɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective*

anti- /ænti/ (US) /æntaɪ/ *prefix* **1** AGAINST opposed to or against *anti-terrorist laws, anti-American protesters* **2** OPPOSITE opposite of or preventing *anti-clockwise movement, anti-lock brakes, anti-depressant drugs* ➲Compare **pro-**

antibiotic /,æntɪbaɪ'ɒtɪk/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medicine which cures infections by destroying harmful bacteria [**usually plural**] *He is **on antibiotics** for an ear infection.*

antibody /'æntɪ,bɒdi/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** a substance produced in your blood to fight disease

anticipate /æn'tɪsɪpeɪt/ *verb* [T] to expect something, or to prepare for something before it happens *to **anticipate a problem*** [+ **that**] *We anticipate that prices will fall next year.*

anticipation /æn,tɪsɪ'peɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** when you are waiting for something to happen, usually with excitement *The children were breathless **with anticipation.*** **2** **in anticipation (of)** in preparation for something happening *She's even decorated the spare room in anticipation of your visit.*

anticlimax /,æntɪ'klaɪmæks/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C, U] a disappointing experience, often one that you thought would be exciting before it happened or one that comes after a more exciting experience *After so much preparation, the party was a bit of an anticlimax.*

anticline /'æntɪklaɪn/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** an upward curved fold in the layers of rock in the Earth's surface ➲Compare **syncline**

anti-clockwise /,æntɪ'klɒkwaɪz/ *UK* (*US* **counterclockwise**) *adjective, adverb* in the opposite direction to the way the hands (= parts that point to the numbers) of a clock move *Turn the knob anti-clockwise.* ➲See picture at **clockwise**

anti-competitive /,æntikəm'petɪtɪv/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *adjective* designed to stop businesses from competing with one another, for example by fixing prices, in a way that is not legal in some countries

antics /'æntɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] unusual or bad behaviour that entertains or annoys people *He's well known for his antics on and off the tennis court.*

anticyclone /,ænti'saɪkləʊn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of high pressure in the air or atmosphere which causes calm weather

anti-depressant /,æntɪdɪ'presᵊnt/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medicine for people who are depressed (= severely unhappy)

antidote /'æntɪdəʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** **antidote to sth** an activity that stops something bad from harming you *Exercise is the **best antidote** to stress.* **2** **HEALTH** a substance that stops another substance from damaging your body *a deadly poison with no antidote*

antigen /'æntɪdʒən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** a harmful substance that causes the body to produce antibodies (= substances that fight disease)

antimatter /'æntɪmætᵊr/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** particles (= small parts of atoms) that are the opposite to real particles in the universe, and which would destroy them if they came together

anti-oxidant /,ænti'ɒksɪdənt/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C] **1** **CHEMISTRY** a substance that slows down the rate at which something decays because of oxidization (= combining with oxygen) **2** **FOOD** a substance, for example a vitamin in food, that protects your body from damage

antiparticle /,ænti'pɑ:tɪkl/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a particle that has the same mass as a normal particle, but the opposite electrical charge

antipathy /æn'tɪpəθi/ *noun* [U] *formal* a strong feeling of dislike for someone *He is a private man with a deep **antipathy to/towards** the press.*

antiperspirant /,æntɪ'pɜ:spᵊrənt/ (US) /,æntaɪ-/ *noun* [C, U] a substance that prevents you from becoming wet under your arms when you are hot

antiquated /'æntɪkweɪtɪd/ *adjective* very old and not modern enough *an antiquated system*

A

antique /æn'tiːk/ *noun* [C] an object that is old, and often rare or beautiful *His home is full of* ***valuable antiques****.* ○ *an* ***antique shop*** ●**antique** *adjective antique furniture/china*

antiquity /æn'tɪkwəti/ *noun* **1** TIME [U] *formal* the ancient past *the writers of antiquity* **2** OBJECT [C] an ancient object [**usually plural**] *priceless Egyptian antiquities*

anti-Semitism /ˌæntɪ'semɪtɪzᵊm/ US /ˌæntaɪ-/ *noun* [U] when someone hates Jewish people, or treats them in a cruel or unfair way ●**anti-Semitic** /ˌæntɪsɪ'mɪtɪk/ *adjective*

antiseptic /ˌæntɪ'septɪk/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a substance that you put on an injury to prevent infection ●**antiseptic** *adjective antiseptic cream*

anti-social /ˌæntɪ-/ US /ˌæntaɪ'səʊʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BEHAVIOUR Anti-social behaviour harms or upsets the people around you. *Increasingly, smoking is regarded as an anti-social habit.* **2** PERSON An anti-social person does not like being with other people.

anti-spam /ˌæntɪ'spæm/ US /ˌæntaɪ-/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] COMPUTING, INTERNET used to stop people sending or receiving emails that are not wanted, especially advertisements *anti-spam legislation*

anti-terrorist /ˌæntɪ'terᵊrɪst/ US /ˌæntaɪ-/ *adjective* intended to prevent or reduce terrorism (= the use of violence for political purposes) ***anti-terrorist laws/legislation***

antithesis /æn'tɪθəsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **antitheses** /æn'tɪθəsiːz/ *formal* the exact opposite [**usually no plural**] *She is slim and shy -* ***the antithesis of*** *her sister.*

antitoxin /ˌæntɪ'tɒksɪn/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a substance that stops or reduces the effect of a toxin (= poisonous substance) in your body

anti-virus /ˌænti'vaɪərəs/ US /ˌæntaɪ-/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] COMPUTING produced and used to protect the main memory of a computer against infection by a virus *anti-virus software/programs*

antler /'æntləʳ/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a horn that looks like branches on the head of a male deer

antonym /'æntənɪm/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word which means the opposite of another word

anus /'eɪnəs/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY a hole where solid waste comes out of the body ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***anxiety***

a **cause/source** of anxiety ● **feelings/levels** of anxiety ● anxiety **about/over** sth

anxiety /æŋ'zaɪəti/ *noun* [C, U] the feeling of being very worried *That explains his* ***anxiety about*** *her health.*

anxious /'æŋkʃəs/ *adjective* **1** WORRIED worried and nervous *She's very* ***anxious about*** *her exams.* **2** WANTING wanting to do something or wanting something to happen [+ **to do sth**] *He's anxious to get home.* [+ **that**] *I was anxious that no one else should know.* ●**anxiously** *adverb We* ***waited anxiously*** *by the phone.*

any¹ *strong form* /'eni/ *weak form* /əni/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** SOME used in questions and negatives to mean 'some' *Is there any of that lemon cake left?* ○ *I haven't seen any of his films.* ○ *I asked Andrew for some change but he hasn't got any.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **some** **2** NOT IMPORTANT WHICH one of or each of a particular kind of person or thing when it is not important which *Any advice that you can give me would be greatly appreciated.* ○ *Any of those shirts would be fine.*

any² *strong form* /'eni/ *weak form* /əni/ *adverb* used in questions and negatives to emphasize a comparative adjective or adverb *Do you feel any better?* ○ *I can't walk any faster.* ○ *She couldn't wait* ***any longer****.*

anybody /'eniˌbɒdi/ *pronoun another word for* anyone

anyhow /'enihaʊ/ (*also* **anyway**) *adverb* **1** MORE IMPORTANTLY used to give a more important reason for something that you are saying *I don't need a car and I can't afford one anyhow.* **2** DESPITE despite that *He hates carrots but he ate them anyhow.* **3** IN CONVERSATION used when you are returning to an earlier subject *Anyhow, as I said, I'll be away next week.* **4** CHANGING STATEMENT used when you want to slightly change something that you have just said *Boys aren't horrible - not all of them anyhow!*

ˌany ˈmore (*also* **anymore**) *adverb* If you do not do something or something does not happen any more, you have stopped doing it or it does not now happen. *This coat doesn't fit me any more.*

anyone /'eniwʌn/ (*also* **anybody**) *pronoun* **1** A PERSON used in questions and negatives to mean 'a person or people' *I didn't know anyone at the party.* ○ *Does* ***anyone else*** (= another person/other people) *want to come?* **2** ANY PERSON any person or any people *Anyone can go - you don't have to be invited.*

anyplace /'enipleɪs/ *adverb US* anywhere

anything /'eniθɪŋ/ *pronoun* **1** SOMETHING used in questions and negatives to mean 'something' *I haven't got anything to wear.* ○ *Was there* ***anything else*** (= another thing) *you wanted to say?* **2** ANY OBJECT/SITUATION any object, event, or situation *We can do anything you like.* ○ *Tom will eat anything.* **3** **anything like** used in questions and negatives to mean 'at all similar to' *Does he look anything like his brother?*

anyway /'eniweɪ/ (*also* **anyhow**) (*also US* **anyways** *spoken*) *adverb* **1** MORE IMPORTANTLY used to give a more important reason for something that you are saying *We can drive you to the station - we go that way anyway.* **2** DESPITE despite that *He hates carrots but he ate them anyway.* **3** IN CONVERSATION used when you are returning to an earlier subject *Anyway, as I said, I'll be away next week.* **4** CHANGING STATEMENT used when you want to slightly change something that you have just said *Boys aren't horrible - not all of them anyway!*

anywhere /ˌeniweəʳ/ (*also US* **anyplace**) *adverb* **1** IN ANY PLACE in or to any place *Just sit anywhere.* ○ *I couldn't find a post office anywhere.* **2** A PLACE used in questions and negatives to mean 'a place' *He doesn't have anywhere to stay.* ○ *Is there* ***anywhere else*** *you'd like to visit*

while you're here? **3 anywhere near sth** used in questions and negatives to mean 'close to being or doing something' *The house isn't anywhere near ready.* **4 not get anywhere** *informal* to not make any progress *I tried discussing the problem with her but I didn't get anywhere.*

aorta /eɪˈɔːtə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the main artery (= thick tube carrying blood from the heart) which takes blood to the other parts of the body ➲See picture at **heart**

apart /əˈpɑːt/ *adverb* **1** SEPARATED separated by a space or period of time *Stand with your feet wide apart.* ○ *Our kids were born just eighteen months apart.* **2** INTO PIECES into separate, smaller pieces *My jacket is* ***coming/falling apart.*** **3 apart from a** EXCEPT except for *Apart from Jodie, who hurt her leg, all the children were fine.* **b** IN ADDITION in addition to *He works a ten-hour day and that's apart from the work he does at the weekend.*

apartheid /əˈpɑːtaɪt/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** in the past in South Africa, a political system in which white people had power over black people and made them live separately

apartment /əˈpɑːtmənt/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a set of rooms for someone to live in on one level of a building or house

aˈpartment ˌbuilding *noun* [C] *US* a building which is divided into apartments

apathetic /ˌæpəˈθetɪk/ *adjective* not interested in anything or willing to change things *Young people today are so apathetic about politics.*

apathy /ˈæpəθi/ *noun* [U] when someone is not interested in anything or willing to change things

ape /eɪp/ *noun* [C] a hairy animal like a monkey but with no tail and long arms

aperitif /aˌperəˈtiːf/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small alcoholic drink before a meal

aperture /ˌæpətʃər/ *noun* [C] **ART** a small hole, especially one that allows light into a camera

apex /ˈeɪpeks/ *noun* [C] the highest part of a shape *the apex of a pyramid*

aphid /ˈeɪfɪd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** any of various small insects which suck the juices of plants for food

apiece /əˈpiːs/ *adverb* each *Dolls from this period sell for £300 apiece.*

the apocalypse /əˈpɒkəlɪps/ *noun* **RELIGION** in some religions, the final destruction of the world

apocalyptic /əˌpɒkəˈlɪptɪk/ *adjective* **RELIGION** showing or describing the destruction of the world *an apocalyptic vision of the future*

apologetic /əˌpɒləˈdʒetɪk/ *adjective* showing or saying that you are sorry about something *an apologetic smile* ○ *She was very* ***apologetic about*** *missing the meeting.*

apologize (*also UK* **-ise**) /əˈpɒlədʒaɪz/ *verb* [I] to tell someone that you are sorry about something you have done *The bank* ***apologized for*** *the error.* ○ *The pilot* ***apologized to*** *passengers for the delay.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***apology***

demand/make/owe sb/**receive** an apology ● **accept** sb's apology ● **make no** apology for (doing) sth ● a **formal/full/public** apology ● an apology **for** sth ● an apology **to** sb

apology /əˈpɒlədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] something you say or write to say that you are sorry about something you have done *I have an* ***apology to make*** *to you - I opened your letter by mistake.*

apostle /əˈpɒsl/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** one of the twelve men chosen by Jesus Christ to teach people about Christianity

apostrophe /əˈpɒstrəfi/ *noun* [C] **1 LANGUAGE** a mark (') used to show that letters or numbers are absent *I'm* (= I am) *hungry.* ○ *I graduated in '98* (= 1998). **2 LANGUAGE** a punctuation mark (') used before the letter 's' to show that something belongs to someone or something *I drove my brother's car.* ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

appal *UK* (*US* **appall**) /əˈpɔːl/ *verb* [T] **appalling,** *past* **appalled** to make someone extremely shocked or upset *The amount of violence on television appals me.* ○ *We were* ***appalled at/by*** *her behaviour.* ●**appalled** *adjective*

appalling /əˈpɔːlɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SHOCKING shocking and very unpleasant *Many live in appalling conditions.* ○ *appalling injuries* **2** BAD very bad *appalling behaviour/weather* ●**appallingly** *adverb*

apparatus /ˌæpərˈeɪtəs/ (US) /ˌæpəˈrætəs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **apparatus** or **apparatuses** a set of equipment or tools used for a particular purpose *The diver wore breathing apparatus.*

apparel /əˈpærᵊl/ *noun* [U] *mainly US* clothes *children's/women's apparel*

apparent /əˈpærᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** CLEAR obvious or easy to notice [+ **that**] *It soon became apparent that she had lost interest in the project.* ○ *Suddenly,* ***for no apparent reason*** (= without a reason) *he started screaming and shouting.* **2** SEEMS TRUE [**always before noun**] seeming to exist or be true *I was a little surprised by her apparent lack of interest.*

apparently /əˈpærəntli/ *adverb* **1** OTHERS SAY used to say that you have read or been told something although you are not certain it is true *Apparently it's going to rain today.* **2** SEEMING TRUE used to say that something seems to be true, although it is not certain *There were two apparently unrelated deaths.*

apparition /ˌæpᵊrˈɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *literary* a ghost

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***appeal***

issue/launch/make an appeal ● an appeal **for** sth

appeal¹ /əˈpiːl/ *noun* **1** REQUEST [C] when a lot of people are asked to give money, information, or help *The appeal raised over £2 million for AIDS research.* **2** QUALITY [U] the quality in someone or something that makes them attractive or enjoyable *I've never understood the appeal of skiing.* **3 LAW** [C] a request to a court of law to change a previous legal decision *He won his* ***appeal against*** *his jail sentence.*

appeal² /əˈpiːl/ *verb* [I] **1** REQUEST to strongly request something, often publicly *The police*

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have ***appealed for*** *more information.* ○ *They* ***appealed to*** *the commission to keep the hospital open.* **2** ATTRACT to attract or interest someone *Cycling has never* ***appealed to*** *me.* **3** **LAW** to formally ask someone to change an official or legal decision *He is* ***appealing against*** *a ten year prison sentence.*

appealing /ə'piːlɪŋ/ *adjective* attractive or interesting *The idea of living in Paris is very appealing.* ●**appealingly** *adverb*

appear /ə'pɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** SEEM to seem to be a particular thing or have a particular quality *He appeared calm and relaxed.* ○ *She* ***appeared to be*** *crying.* [+ **(that)**] ***It appears*** *that we were wrong about him.* **2** BE SEEN to start to be seen *He suddenly appeared in the doorway.* ○ *Then a bright light appeared in the sky.* ➲Opposite **disappear** **3** BECOME AVAILABLE to start to exist or become available *Laptop computers first appeared in the 1990s.* ○ *The story appeared in all the major newspapers.* **4** **appear in/at/on, etc** to perform in a film, play, etc, or be seen in public *She appears briefly in the new Bond film.*

appearance /ə'pɪərʳns/ *noun* **1** IN PUBLIC [C] an occasion when someone appears in public *a television/****public appearance*** ○ *He* ***made*** *two* ***appearances*** *during his brief visit.* **2** WAY YOU LOOK [**no plural**] the way a person or thing looks *She's very concerned with her appearance.* **3** ARRIVAL [**no plural**] when you arrive somewhere or can be seen somewhere *Her appearance at the party was a surprise.* ➲Opposite **disappearance** **4** BECOMING AVAILABLE [**no plural**] when something starts to exist or becomes available *The appearance of new products on the market has increased competition.*

appease /ə'piːz/ *verb* [T] to avoid more arguments by doing what someone wants ●**appeasement** *noun* [U]

appendicitis /ə,pendɪ'saɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness in which your appendix becomes larger than usual and painful

appendix /ə'pendɪks/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** *plural* **appendixes** a small tube-shaped part inside the body below the stomach, attached to the large intestine ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** **2** *plural* **appendices** a separate part at the end of a book, article, etc which contains extra information

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***appetite***

give sb **/have** an appetite ● **lose** your appetite ● a **good/healthy/huge** appetite ● **loss of** appetite

appetite /'æpɪtaɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the feeling that makes you want to eat *All that walking has* ***given*** *me an* ***appetite.*** **2** **an appetite for sth** when you want something very much *his appetite for adventure* **3** **whet sb's appetite** to make someone want more of something

appetizer /'æpɪtaɪzəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **starter**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** something that you eat as the first part of a meal

appetizing (*also UK* **-ising**) /'æpɪtaɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* If food is appetizing, it looks or smells as if it will taste good.

applaud /ə'plɔːd/ *verb* **1** CLAP [I, T] to clap your hands to show that you have enjoyed a performance, talk, etc *The audience applauded loudly.* **2** PRAISE [T] *formal* to approve of or admire something *Most people will surely applaud the decision.*

applause /ə'plɔːz/ *noun* [U] when people make a noise by clapping their hands to show they have enjoyed or approve of something *There was loud applause at the end of her speech.*

apple /'æpl/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a hard, round fruit with a green or red skin ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 ➲See also: **Adam's apple**

applet /'æplət/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small computer program that is automatically copied on to a computer when you look at a document that needs this program to make it work

appliance /ə'plaɪəns/ *noun* [C] a piece of electrical equipment with a particular purpose in the home *fridges, radios, and other* ***electrical appliances***

applicable /ə'plɪkəbl/ *adjective* affecting or relating to a person or situation *This law is only* ***applicable to*** *people living in Europe.*

applicant /'æplɪkənt/ *noun* [C] someone who asks for something officially, often by writing *There were over fifty* ***applicants for*** *the job.*

application /,æplɪ'keɪʃʰn/ *noun* **1** REQUEST [C] an official request for something, usually in writing *an* ***application for*** *a bank loan* **2** USE [C, U] a way in which something can be used for a particular purpose *This technology has many practical applications.* **3** **COMPUTING** [C] a computer program designed for a particular purpose

appli'cation ,form *noun* [C] a form that you use to officially ask for something, for example a job

appli'cation ,software *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** software that makes a computer do a process that the user wants ➲Compare **system software**

applied /ə'plaɪd/ *adjective* **EDUCATION** **applied mathematics/science, etc** mathematics, science, or another subject which is studied for a practical use

appliqué /ə'pliːkeɪ/ (US) /'æplɪkeɪ/ *noun* [U] **ART, DT** decorative work in which one piece of cloth is sewn or fixed onto another, or the activity of decorating cloth in this way

apply /ə'plaɪ/ *verb* **1** ASK [I] to ask officially for something, often by writing *I've* ***applied for*** *a job.* ○ *He has* ***applied to*** *several companies.* **2** AFFECT [I] to affect or relate to a particular person or situation *This law only* ***applies to*** *married people.* **3** USE [T] to use something in a particular situation *The same method can be* ***applied to*** *other situations.* **4** ON SURFACE [T] to spread a substance on a surface *Apply the cream daily until the symptoms disappear.* **5** **apply yourself** to work hard *If he doesn't apply himself, he'll never pass his exams.*

appoint /ə'pɔɪnt/ *verb* [T] to officially choose someone for a job *He was* ***appointed as*** *company director last year.*

appointed /ə'pɔɪntɪd/ *adjective* **appointed date/time/place, etc** the date, time, place, etc that has been chosen for something to happen

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***appointment***

have/make an appointment ● **cancel/keep/miss** an appointment ● an appointment **with** sb

O-key **appointment** /ə'pɔɪntmənt/ *noun* **1** TIME [C] a time you have arranged to meet someone or go somewhere *a doctor's/dental appointment* ○ *I **made** an **appointment** with my hairdresser for next Monday.* **2** JOB [C, U] when you officially choose someone for an important job, or the job itself *the appointment of three new teachers*

apportion /ə'pɔːʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** to choose how much of something a person or each person should have **2 apportion blame/responsibility** to say who was responsible for something bad that happened

appraisal /ə'preɪzᵊl/ *noun* [C, U] **1** when you examine someone or something and judge how good or successful they are *a critical appraisal* **2** a meeting where the manager of an employee talks to them about the quality of their work *an appraisal scheme*

appraise /ə'preɪz/ *verb* [T] to examine something and judge it *We need to stop and appraise the situation.*

appreciable /ə'priːʃəbl/ *adjective formal* large or important enough to be noticed *There's an **appreciable difference** in temperatures between the two regions.*

appreciate /ə'priːʃiːeɪt/ *verb* **1** VALUE [T] to understand how good something or someone is and be able to enjoy them *There's no point buying him expensive wines - he doesn't appreciate them.* **2** GRATEFUL [T] to feel grateful for something *I'd really appreciate your help.* **3** UNDERSTAND [T] to understand something about a situation, especially that it is complicated or difficult [+ **(that)**] *I appreciate that it is a difficult decision for you to make.* **4** FINANCE [I] *formal* to increase in value *Houses and antiques generally appreciate with time.*

appreciation /əˌpriːʃiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** VALUE when you understand how good something or someone is and are able to enjoy them *His **appreciation of** art increased as he grew older.* **2** FEEL GRATEFUL when you feel grateful for something *To show our appreciation, we've bought you a little gift.* **3** UNDERSTANDING when you understand something about a situation, especially that it is complicated or difficult *He has no **appreciation of** the size of the problem.* **4** FINANCE *formal* an increase in value

appreciative /ə'priːʃiətɪv/ *adjective* showing that you understand how good something is, or are grateful for something *an appreciative audience* ●**appreciatively** *adverb*

apprehend /ˌæprɪ'hend/ *verb* [T] *formal* If the police apprehend someone, they catch them and take them away to ask them about a crime which they might have committed.

apprehension /ˌæprɪ'henʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] an anxious feeling about something that you are going to do *It's normal to feel a little apprehension before starting a new job.*

apprehensive /ˌæprɪ'hensɪv/ *adjective* feeling anxious about something that you are going to do *He's a bit **apprehensive about** living away from home.*

apprentice /ə'prentɪs/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION a person who is learning a job by working for someone who already has skills and experience

apprenticeship /ə'prentɪʃɪp/ *noun* [C, U] EDUCATION when someone learns the skills needed to do a job by working for someone who already has skills and experience

O-key **approach¹** /ə'prəʊtʃ/ *noun* **1** METHOD [C] a way of doing something *Liam has a different **approach to** the problem.* ○ *We've decided to **adopt/take** a new **approach**.* **2** ASKING [C] when you speak or write to someone, often asking to buy something or offering them work **3** COMING CLOSER [U] when something or someone gets nearer, in distance or time *the approach of winter* **4** PATH [C] a path or route that leads to a place

O-key **approach²** /ə'prəʊtʃ/ *verb* **1** COME CLOSE [I, T] to come close in distance or time *The train now approaching platform 2 is the 5.35 to London, Kings Cross.* ○ *Christmas is fast approaching.* **2** DEAL WITH [T] to deal with something *I'm not sure how to approach the problem.* **3** SPEAK TO SOMEONE [T] to speak or write to someone, often asking to buy something or offering them work *She's been approached by a modelling agency.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

approach

The verb **approach** is not normally followed by a preposition.

He approached the door.

~~*He approached to the door.*~~

approachable /ə'prəʊtʃəbl/ *adjective* friendly and easy to talk to

O-key **appropriate¹** /ə'prəʊpriət/ *adjective* suitable or right for a particular situation or person *Is this film **appropriate for** young children?* ➲Opposite **inappropriate** ●**appropriately** *adverb appropriately dressed*

appropriate² /ə'prəʊprieɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to take or steal something ●**appropriation** /əˌprəʊpri'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

appropri'ation acˌcount *noun* [C] FINANCE a document that shows how the profit of a business is shared between the parters that own that business

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***approval***

gain/get/win/receive/seek approval ● **formal/full** approval ● approval **for** sth

approval /ə'pruːvᵊl/ *noun* [U] **1** GOOD OPINION when you think that something or someone is good or right *I don't need his approval.* ➲Opposite **disapproval** **2** PERMISSION official permission *The project has now **received approval** from the government.*

A

approve /ə'pruːv/ *verb* **1** [ALLOW] [T] to allow or officially agree to something *The council has **approved plans** for a new shopping centre.* **2** [GOOD OPINION] [I] to think that something is good or right *I don't **approve of** smoking.* ➲Opposite **disapprove**

approving /ə'pruːvɪŋ/ *adjective* showing that you think something is good or right *an approving smile* ➲Opposite **disapproving** ●**approvingly** *adverb*

approx *written abbreviation for* approximately

approximate¹ /ə'prɒksɪmət/ *adjective* not completely accurate but close *Do you have an approximate idea of when he's arriving?*

approximate² /ə'prɒksɪmeɪt/ (*also* **approximate to**) *verb* [T] *formal* to be almost the same as something ●**approximation** /əˌprɒksɪ'meɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

approximately /ə'prɒksɪmətli/ *adverb* close to a particular number or time although not exactly that number or time *The college has approximately 700 students.*

Apr *written abbreviation for* April

apricot /'eɪprɪkɒt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, soft, orange fruit

April /'eɪprᵊl/ (*written abbreviation* **Apr**) *noun* [C, U] the fourth month of the year

April Fool's Day *noun* 1 April, a day when people play tricks on people, then say 'April fool!'

apron /'eɪprən/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing you wear when cooking to keep your clothes clean

apt /æpt/ *adjective* **1** suitable for a particular situation *an **apt description*** **2 be apt to do sth** to often do something *He's apt to forget his keys.* ●**aptly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***aptitude***

have/show an aptitude for (doing) sth ● a **natural** aptitude ● an aptitude **test**

aptitude /'æptɪtjuːd/ *noun* [C, U] a natural skill or an ability to do something well *He has an **aptitude for** learning languages.* ○ *an **aptitude test***

aquarium /ə'kweəriəm/ *noun* [C] **1** [PLACE] a building where fish and other water animals are kept for people to visit **2** [CONTAINER] a glass container filled with water that fish are kept in

Aquarius /ə'kweəriəs/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 21 January - 19 February, or a person born during this period

aquatic /ə'kwætɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** living or growing in water, or related to water *aquatic animals*

aqueous /'eɪkwiəs/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** like or containing water *an aqueous solution*

aqueous humour *noun* [U] **ANATOMY** a clear liquid that fills the space inside your eye between the cornea (= outer covering) and the lens (= part you see through)

aquifer /'ækwɪfər/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a layer of rock, sand or earth that contains water or allows water to pass through it

Arab /'ærəb/ *adjective* relating or belonging to the people of the Middle East or North Africa whose families came from Arabia in the past *Arab countries* ●**Arab** *noun* [C] an Arab person

Arabic /'ærəbɪk/ *noun* the language used by Arab peoples ●**Arabic** *adjective*

arable /'ærəbl/ *adjective* **FARMING** suitable for or used for growing crops *arable land/farming*

arachnid /ə'ræknɪd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** any of a group of small animals, similar to insects but with four pairs of legs, for example spiders

arbiter /'ɑːbɪtᵊ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who judges what is right or helps to solve an argument **2 arbiter of fashion/style/taste, etc** someone who decides what is beautiful or stylish

arbitrary /'ɑːbɪtrᵊri/ *adjective* not based on a system or principles and often seeming unfair *an **arbitrary decision*** ●**arbitrarily** /ˌɑːbɪ'treᵊrᵊli/ *adverb*

arbitrate /'ɑːbɪtreɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to officially help to solve an argument between two people or groups ●**arbitrator** *noun* [C]

arbitration /ˌɑːbɪ'treɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] the process of solving an argument between people by helping them to agree to an acceptable solution

arc /ɑːk/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a curved line that looks like part of a circle

arcade /ɑː'keɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** [GAMES] a place where you can pay to play games on machines *an amusement arcade* **2** [PASSAGE] a passage, especially between shops, that is covered by a roof *a shopping arcade*

arch¹ /ɑːtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** a curved structure that usually supports something, for example a bridge or wall **2 ANATOMY** the curved, middle part of your foot that does not touch the ground

arch² /ɑːtʃ/ *verb* [I, T] to be a curved shape or make something become a curved shape *The bridge arched over the river.*

archaeologist (*also US* **archeologist**) /ˌɑːkɪ'ɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who studies archaeology

archaeology (*also US* **archeology**) /ˌɑːkɪ'ɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] the study of ancient cultures by looking for and examining their buildings, tools, and other objects ●**archaeological** (*also US* **archeological**) /ˌɑːkiə'lɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective*

archaic /ɑː'keɪɪk/ *adjective* very old and often not suitable for today *an archaic law*

archbishop /ˌɑːtʃ'bɪʃəp/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a priest of the highest rank in some Christian churches, responsible for a very large area *Archbishop Desmond Tutu*

archeologist /ˌɑːkɪ'ɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] *another US spelling of* archaeologist

archeology /ˌɑːkɪ'ɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] *another US spelling of* archaeology

archery /'ɑːtʃᵊri/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which you shoot arrows

architect /'ɑːkɪtekt/ *noun* [C] someone who designs buildings

architecture /ˈɑːkɪtektʃəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** STYLE the design and style of buildings ***modern architecture*** **2** BUILDINGS the skill of designing buildings ●**architectural** /ˌɑːkɪˈtektʃərəl/ *adjective*

archive¹ /ˈɑːkaɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** a collection of historical documents that provides information about the past, or a place where they are kept *the national archives* **2** **COMPUTING** a place on a computer used to store information or documents that you do not need to use often

archive² /ˈɑːkaɪv/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to store paper or electronic documents in an archive

the Arctic /ˈɑːktɪk/ *noun* the very cold area around the North Pole ●**Arctic** *adjective*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ardent***

an ardent **admirer/fan/supporter**

ardent /ˈɑːdᵊnt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] enthusiastic or showing strong feelings ***an ardent supporter*** *of Arsenal* ●**ardently** *adverb*

arduous /ˈɑːdjuəs/ *adjective* needing a lot of effort to do ***an arduous journey/task***

are *strong form* /ɑːʳ/ *weak form* /əʳ/ *present simple you/we/they of* be

O-key **area** /ˈeəriə/ *noun* **1** REGION [C] a region of a country or city *an industrial area* ○ *a mountainous area* ○ *the London area* **2** PART [C] a part of a building or piece of land used for a particular purpose ***a play/picnic area*** **3** SUBJECT [C] a part of a subject or activity *Software is not really my area of expertise.* **4** **MATHEMATICS** [C, U] the size of a flat surface calculated by multiplying its width by its length ➲See also: **catchment area, no-go area**

ˈ**area** ˌ**code** *noun* [C] a set of numbers used at the beginning of all the telephone numbers in a particular area

arena /əˈriːnə/ *noun* [C] **1** **SPORT** a flat area with seats around where you can watch sports and other entertainments *an Olympic/sports arena* **2 in the political/public, etc arena** involved in politics/the government, etc

aren't /ɑːnt/ **1** *short for* are not *We aren't going to the party.* **2 aren't I?** *short for* am I not? *I am invited, aren't I?*

arete /ærˈet/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a high, thin, pointed area that separates two valleys (= low land between mountains)

argon /ˈɑːgɒn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that does not react with any other substances, used in electric lights (symbol **Ar**)

arguable /ˈɑːgjuəbl/ *adjective* **1 It is arguable that** it is possibly true that *It is arguable that the government has failed in this respect.* **2** If something is arguable, it is not certain if it is true. ***It is arguable whether*** *this method would even have succeeded.*

arguably /ˈɑːgjuəbli/ *adverb* possibly *He's arguably the greatest footballer in the world.*

O-key **argue** /ˈɑːgjuː/ *verb* **arguing,** *past* **argued 1** DISAGREE [I] to speak angrily to someone, telling them that you disagree with them *My parents are always* ***arguing about*** *money.* ○ *Kids, will you stop* ***arguing with*** *each other?* **2** GIVE REASONS [I, T] to give reasons to support or oppose an idea, action, etc [+ **that**] *He argued that cuts in military spending were necessary.* ○ *She* ***argued for/against*** *tax cuts.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***argument***

have an argument ● an argument **about/over** sth ● a **heated/violent** argument

O-key **argument** /ˈɑːgjəmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** ANGRY DISCUSSION an angry discussion with someone in which you both disagree *They* ***had*** *an* ***argument*** *about who should do the cleaning.* **2** REASON a reason or reasons why you support or oppose an idea, action, etc *There are many* ***arguments for/against*** *nuclear energy.*

argumentative /ˌɑːgjəˈmentətɪv/ *adjective* often arguing or wanting to argue

aria /ˈɑːriə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a song that one person sings in an opera

arid /ˈærɪd/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** very dry and without enough rain for plants *an arid region/climate*

Aries /ˈeəriːz/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 21 March - 20 April, or a person born during this period

arise /əˈraɪz/ *verb* [I] *past tense* **arose,** *past participle* **arisen 1** START If a problem arises, it starts to happen. *The whole problem* ***arose from*** *a lack of communication.* **2** GET UP *literary* to get up, usually from a bed

aristocracy /ˌærɪˈstɒkrəsi/ *noun* [**group**] **SOCIETY** the highest social class, usually in countries which have or had a royal family

aristocrat /ˈærɪstəkræt/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a member of the highest social class ●**aristocratic** /ˌærɪstəˈkrætɪk/ *adjective an aristocratic family*

arithmetic /əˈrɪθmətɪk/ *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** when you calculate numbers, for example by multiplying or adding

O-key **arm¹** /ɑːm/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the long part at each side of the human body, ending in a hand *He put his arms around her.* ○ *She was standing with her arms folded* (= with one arm crossed over the other). ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 arm in arm** with your arm gently supporting or being supported by someone else's arm **3** CLOTHES the part of a piece of clothing that you put your arm in **4** CHAIR the part of a chair where your arm rests **5 twist sb's arm** *informal* to persuade someone to do something ➲See also: **arms**

arm² /ɑːm/ *verb* [T] to give weapons to someone *The terrorists had* ***armed*** *themselves* ***with*** *automatic rifles.* ➲Opposite **disarm**

armaments /ˈɑːməmənts/ *noun* [**plural**] military weapons and equipment *nuclear armaments*

armband /ˈɑːmbænd/ *noun* **1** [C] a strip of material worn around your upper arm *a black/reflective armband* **2 armbands** *UK* two plastic tubes that you fill with air and wear round the top of your arms when you are learning to swim

armchair /ˈɑːmˌtʃeəʳ/ *noun* [C] a comfortable chair with sides that support your arms ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

armed /ɑːmd/ *adjective* **1** carrying or using weapons ***armed guards/police*** ○ *an* ***armed robbery*** (= robbery where guns are used)

A

➲Opposite **unarmed 2 armed with sth** carrying or knowing something that will be useful *I like to go to a meeting armed with the relevant facts.*

the ˌarmed ˈforces (*also* **the ˌarmed ˈservices**) *noun* [**plural**] a country's military forces, for example the army and the navy

armful /ˈɑːmfʊl/ *noun* [**C**] the amount that you can carry in your arms *an armful of books*

armistice /ˈɑːmɪstɪs/ *noun* [**C**] an agreement to stop fighting that is made between two countries

armour *UK* (*US* **armor**) /ˈɑːmər/ *noun* [**U**] metal clothing which soldiers wore in the past to protect them when fighting *a suit of armour*

armoured *UK* (*US* **armored**) /ˈɑːmənd/ *adjective* covered with a protective layer of metal *an armoured vehicle*

armpit /ˈɑːmpɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** the part of your body under your arm, where your arm meets your shoulder ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

arms /ɑːmz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** weapons *the sale of arms* **2 be up in arms** to be very upset and angry about something *Local residents are up in arms over plans to close the swimming pool.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***army***

join the army ● be **in** the army

army /ˈɑːmi/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MILITARY GROUP a military force that fights wars on the ground *the British Army* **2** ORGANIZED GROUP a group of people that is organized to do the same job *an army of cleaners/helpers*

aroma /əˈrəʊmə/ *noun* [**C**] a nice smell that usually comes from food or drink *the aroma of freshly baked bread* ●**aromatic** /ˌærəʊˈmætɪk/ *adjective* having a nice smell ***aromatic herbs***

aromatherapy /əˌrəʊməˈθerəpi/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a way of making a person who is ill better by rubbing pleasant-smelling oils into the skin or allowing them to smell the oils

arose /əˈrəʊz/ *past tense of* arise

around /əˈraʊnd/ *adverb, preposition* **1** IN A CIRCLE (*also UK* **round**) on all sides of something *They sat around the table.* **2** DIRECTION (*also UK* **round**) to the opposite direction *He turned around and looked at her.* **3** CIRCULAR MOVEMENT (*also UK* **round**) in a circular movement *This lever turns the wheels around.* **4** ALONG OUTSIDE (*also UK* **round**) along the outside of something, not through it *You have to walk around the house to get to the garden.* **5** TO A PLACE (*also UK* **round**) to or in different parts of a place *I spent a year travelling around Australia.* **6** SEVERAL PLACES (*also UK* **round**) from one place or person to another *She passed a plate of biscuits around.* **7** HERE here, or near this place *Is Roger around?* **8** EXISTING present or available *Mobile phones have been around for years now.* **9** APPROXIMATELY used before a number or amount to mean 'approximately' *around four o'clock* ○ *around twenty thousand pounds* ➲See also: throw your **weight** around

arousal /əˈraʊzəl/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is sexually excited

arouse /əˈraʊz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** CAUSE REACTION to make someone have a particular feeling or reaction *It's a subject which has **aroused** a lot of **interest**.* **2** CAUSE SEXUAL FEELING to make someone sexually excited

arrange /əˈreɪndʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ORGANIZE to make the necessary plans and preparations for something to happen *to arrange a meeting* ○ *I'll **arrange for** a car to come and pick you up.* [**+ to do sth**] *We've arranged to visit the house on Saturday afternoon.* **2** POSITION to put objects in a particular order or position *The books are arranged alphabetically by author.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***arrangement***

have/make an arrangement ● arrangements **for** sth ● **alternative/necessary** arrangements

arrangement /əˈreɪndʒmənt/ *noun* **1** PLANS [**C**] plans for how something will happen [**usually plural**] *We're meeting tomorrow to discuss **arrangements for** the competition.* [**+ to do sth**] *I've **made arrangements** to go home this weekend.* **2** AGREEMENT [**C, U**] an agreement between two people or groups *We have an arrangement whereby we share the childcare.* ○ *Viewing is **by** prior **arrangement**.* **3** POSITION [**C**] a group of objects in a particular order or position *a flower arrangement*

array /əˈreɪ/ *noun* [**C**] a large number of different things [**usually singular**] *There is **a** vast **array of** books on the subject.*

arrears /əˈrɪəz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** money that is owed and should have been paid before *mortgage/rent arrears* ○ *He **is** already **in arrears** with the rent.*

arrest¹ /əˈrest/ *verb* [**T**] **LAW** If the police arrest someone, they take them away to ask them about a crime which they might have committed. *He was **arrested for** possession of illegal drugs.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***arrest***

make an arrest ● **resist** arrest ● be **under** arrest ● the arrest **of** sb ● an arrest **for** [murder/drugs offences, etc]

arrest² /əˈrest/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LAW** when the police take someone away to ask them about a crime which they might have committed *Police **made** 20 **arrests** at yesterday's demonstration.* ○ *He's **under arrest*** (= has been arrested). ➲See also: **house arrest**

arrival /əˈraɪvəl/ *noun* **1** ARRIVING [**U**] when someone or something arrives somewhere *He first met Panos soon after his arrival in Greece.* ○ *There was a car waiting for him **on arrival**.* **2** BECOME AVAILABLE [**U**] when something new is discovered or created or becomes available *The town grew rapidly with **the arrival of** the railway.* **3** NEW PERSON/THING [**C**] a new thing or person that has arrived *Two teachers were there to greet the **new arrivals**.*

arrive /əˈraɪv/ *verb* [**I**] **1** REACH to get to a place *When he first **arrived in** New York, he didn't speak a word of English.* ○ *We were the last to **arrive at** the station.* ○ *A letter arrived for you this morning.* **2 arrive at an answer/decision/conclusion, etc** to find an answer to a problem or make a decision after a lot of discussion *We didn't arrive at any firm conclusions.* **3** HAPPEN

to happen or start to exist *Summer had finally arrived.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

arrive somewhere

Be careful to choose the correct preposition after **arrive**. You **arrive at** a place such as a building.

We arrived at the hotel just after 12 o'clock.

You **arrive in** a town, city or country.

They arrived in Tokyo on Wednesday.

When did David arrive in Australia?

You **arrive** home, here, or there. You do not use a preposition when **arrive** is used before these words.

We arrived home yesterday.

I had a lot of problems when I first arrived here.

arrogant /ˈærəɡənt/ *adjective* believing that you are better or more important than other people *I found him arrogant and rude.* ●**arrogance** /ˈærəɡəns/ *noun* [U] ●**arrogantly** *adverb*

arrow /ˈærəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** SIGN a symbol used on signs to show a direction **2** WEAPON a long, thin stick with a sharp point at one end which is fired from a bow (= curved piece of wood with a tight string fixed at both ends)

arsenal /ˈɑːsᵊnᵊl/ *noun* [C] a large collection of weapons

arsenic /ˈɑːsᵊnɪk/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element that is a very strong poison (symbol **As**)

arson /ˈɑːsᵊn/ *noun* [U] **LAW** the crime of intentionally burning something, such as a building ●**arsonist** *noun* [C] someone who commits arson

art /ɑːt/ *noun* **1** **ART** [U] the making or study of paintings, drawings, etc or the objects created *fine/modern art* ○ *an* ***art exhibition/gallery*** **2** [C, U] a skill in a particular activity *the art of conversation* ➲See also: **martial art, work of art**

artefact *UK* (*US* **artifact**) /ˈɑːtɪfækt/ *noun* [C] an object, especially something very old of historical interest

arteriole /ɑːˈtɪəriəʊl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a thin tube carrying blood that comes out from an artery (= large tube that carries blood) ➲See picture at **capillary**

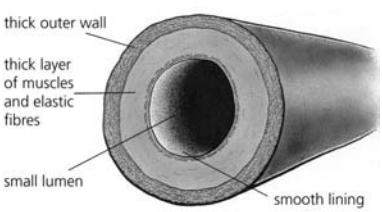

artery

artery /ˈɑːtᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the tubes in your body that carries blood from your heart **2** an important route for traffic ●**arterial** /ɑːˈtɪə.ri.əl/ *adjective*

artful /ˈɑːtfᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] showing skill *an artful use of colour* ●**artfully** *adverb*

arthritis /ɑːˈθraɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness which causes the parts of the body where bones meet to become painful and often big ●**arthritic** /ɑːˈθrɪtɪk/ *adjective an arthritic hip/knee*

arthropod /ˈɑːθrəpɒd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of animal with no spine (= backbone), a hard outer skin, legs with bones joined together, and a body divided into sections, for example a spider, crab or ant

artichoke /ˈɑːtɪtʃəʊk/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a round, green vegetable with thick, pointed leaves covering the outside

article /ˈɑːtɪkl/ *noun* [C] **1** WRITING a piece of writing in a magazine, newspaper, etc **2** OBJECT an object, especially one of many *an* ***article of clothing/furniture*** **3** **LANGUAGE** in grammar, used to mean the words 'the', 'a', or 'an' ➲See also: **definite article, indefinite article**

ˌArticles of Associˈation *noun* [plural] **LAW** a legal document that is written when a limited company is formed and that says things like who controls the company and how the profits will be shared

articulate¹ /ɑːˈtɪkjələt/ *adjective* able to express ideas and feelings clearly in words *She's an intelligent and highly articulate young woman.* ➲Opposite **inarticulate**

articulate² /ɑːˈtɪkjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to express ideas or feelings in words *He articulates the views and concerns of the local community.* ●**articulation** /ɑːˌtɪkjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

articulated /ɑːˈtɪkjəleɪtɪd/ *adjective* [always before noun] *mainly UK* An articulated vehicle is long and has two parts which are joined together to help it turn corners. *an* ***articulated lorry***

artifact /ˈɑːtɪfækt/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* artefact

artificial /ˌɑːtɪˈfɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT NATURAL not natural, but made by people *an artificial flower/lake* ○ *an artificial heart* **2** NOT SINCERE not sincere ●**artificially** *adverb*

artificial insemination /ɑːtɪˌfɪʃəlɪnsemɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the process of putting sperm (= cell that joins an egg to make a baby) into a female using methods which do not involve sexual activity

ˌartificial inˈtelligence *UK* (*US* **artiˌficial inˈtelligence**) *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the study and development of computer systems which do jobs that previously needed human intelligence

artillery /ɑːˈtɪlᵊri/ *noun* [U] large guns, especially those fixed on wheels used by an army

artisan /ˌɑːtɪˈzæn/ (US) /ˈɑːrtəzᵊn/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* someone who does skilled work with their hands

artist /ˈɑːtɪst/ *noun* [C] **ART** someone who creates art, especially paintings and drawings

artistic /ɑːˈtɪstɪk/ *adjective* **1** showing skill and imagination in creating things, especially in painting, drawing, etc *artistic talent* **2** -

A

ART relating to art *the artistic director of the theatre* ●**artistically** *adverb*

artistry /ˈɑːtɪstri/ *noun* [U] great skill in creating or performing something, such as in writing, music, sport, etc

arts /ɑːts/ *noun* **1** **EDUCATION** [plural] (*also US* **liberal arts**) subjects of study which are not science, such as history, languages, etc *an arts subject/degree* **2** **the arts** activities such as painting, music, film, dance, and literature *public interest in the arts* ➲See also: **the performing arts**

artwork /ˈɑːtwɜːk/ *noun* [U] **ART** the pictures or patterns in a book, magazine, CD cover, etc

arty /ˈɑːti/ (*also US* **artsy** /ˈɑːtsi/) *adjective* knowing a lot about art, or wanting to appear as if you do

as *strong form* /æz/ *weak form* /əz/ *preposition, conjunction* **1** **as .... as** used to compare two things, people, amounts, etc *He's not as tall as his brother.* ○ *She earns three times as much as I do.* **2** WHILE used to describe two things happening at the same time or something happening at a particular time *He was shot in the back as he tried to escape.* ○ *I think your opinions change as you get older.* **3** FOR THIS PURPOSE used to describe the purpose, job, or appearance of something or someone *She **works as** a waitress.* ○ *It could be **used as** evidence against him.* **4** LIKE in the same way *This year, as in previous years, tickets sold very quickly.* **5** IN THIS WAY used to describe the way in which people see or think of something or someone *Most people think of nursing as a female occupation.* **6** BECAUSE because *You can go first as you're the oldest.* **7** **as if/as though** used to describe how a situation seems to be *It looks as if it might rain.* **8** **as for** used to talk about how another person or thing is affected by something *I was pleased. As for Emily, well, who cares what she thinks.* **9** **as from/as of** *formal* starting from a particular time, date, etc *The new conditions are effective as of 15 May.* **10** **as to** *formal* about *There's no decision as to when the work might start.*

asap /ˌeɪseɪˈpiː/ *abbreviation for* as soon as possible

asbestos /æsˈbestɒs/ *noun* [U] a soft grey-white material which does not burn easily, once used in building

Asbo (**ASBO**) /ˈæzbəʊ/ **LAW** *UK abbreviation for* anti-social behaviour order: an official order that a person must stop doing something bad or they might go to prison

ascend /əˈsend/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to move up or to a higher position

ascendancy (*also* **ascendency**) /əˈsendənsi/ *noun* [U] *formal* a position of power, strength, or success ***in the ascendancy***

ascending /əˈsendɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] starting with the lowest or smallest and becoming greater or higher *They announced the results **in ascending order**.*

ascent /əˈsent/ *noun* **1** CLIMB [C] when someone climbs or moves up *his first ascent of the mountain* **2** BECOMING SUCCESSFUL [**no plural**] when someone starts to become successful *The book describes his rapid ascent from truck driver to film star.* **3** PATH UP [C] a path or road which goes up a hill or mountain *a steep ascent*

ascertain /ˌæsəˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to discover something [+ **question word**] *We are still trying to ascertain whether the fire was started deliberately.*

ASCII /ˈæski/ *noun* **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* American Standard Code for Information Interchange: a way of storing numbers, letters or symbols for exchanging information between computer systems

ascribe /əˈskraɪb/ *verb*
ascribe sth to sth *phrasal verb formal* to say that something is caused by something else *She ascribes her success to hard work.*

asexual reproduction /eɪˌseksjuəlriː.prəˈdʌk.ʃən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a method of producing new young plants or animals from a single individual and without separate male and female cells joining together

ash /æʃ/ *noun* **1** POWDER [U] the soft, grey powder which remains when something has burnt *cigarette ash* **2** TREE [C] a forest tree

ashamed /əˈʃeɪmd/ *adjective* **1** feeling guilty or embarrassed about something you have done *You've got nothing to be **ashamed of**.* [+ **to do sth**] *He was ashamed to admit his mistake.* **2** **be ashamed of sb** to be angry and disappointed with a family member or friend because they have behaved badly *He was so rude to Phil - I was ashamed of him.*

ashes /ˈæʃɪz/ *noun* **sb's ashes** the powder that remains when a dead person's body has been burnt ***scatter** her **ashes***

ashore /əˈʃɔː/ *adverb* onto land from the sea, a river, a lake, etc *We swam ashore.*

ashtray /ˈæʃˌtreɪ/ *noun* [C] a small, open container used to put cigarette ash and finished cigarettes in

Asian /ˈeɪʒən/ *adjective* relating or belonging to Asia *Asian culture* ●**Asian** *noun* [C] someone from Asia

aside¹ /əˈsaɪd/ *adverb* **1** MOVE TO SIDE in a direction to one side *I gave her a plate of food but she pushed it aside.* **2** LATER If you put or set something aside, you do not use it now, but keep it to use later. *We've put some money aside to pay for the children's education.* **3** **aside from** except for

aside² /əˈsaɪd/ *noun* [C] something which you say quietly so that not everyone can hear it, often something funny

ask /ɑːsk/ *verb* **1** QUESTION [I, T] to say something to someone as a question which you want them to answer [+ **two objects**] *Can I **ask** you a few **questions?*** ○ *I **asked** him **about** his hobbies.* [+ **question word**] *I asked why the plane was so late.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **question** **2** WANT SOMETHING [I, T] to say something to someone because you want them to give you something *He's **asked for** a bike for his birthday.* **3** REQUEST [I, T] to say something to someone because you want them to do something [+ **to do sth**] *They've asked me to look after their dog while they're away.* **4** INVITE [T] to invite someone to do something *She **asked** him **out***

to lunch the next day. **5** WANT PERMISSION [**I, T**] to say something to someone because you want to know if you can do something *Bruce asked if he could stay with us for a few days.* [**+ to do sth**] *She asked to leave early.* **6** PRICE [**T**] to want a particular amount of money for something which you sell *How much are you **asking for** it?* **7 ask yourself sth** to think about something carefully *You've got to ask yourself whether it's what you really want.* **8 ask for it/trouble** *informal* to behave in a way that is likely to make something unpleasant happen to you or to cause you problems *Drinking and driving is asking for trouble.* **9 don't ask me** *informal* used to tell someone that you do not know the answer to a question and that you are surprised they have asked you *Don't ask me why you left your last job!* **10 you may well ask** said to someone who has asked you a question that would be difficult or interesting to answer

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

ask for

When you use **ask** with the meaning of saying you want someone to give you something, remember to use the preposition **for** before the thing that is wanted.

I'm writing to ask for information about your products.

~~*I'm writing to ask information about your products.*~~

askew /ə'skjuː/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] not straight *The picture was slightly askew.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***asleep***

If someone starts to sleep, you can say that they **fall asleep**: ***I fell asleep** in front of the TV.*

If someone is completely asleep, you can say they are **fast asleep**: *You were **fast asleep** by the time I came to bed.*

The verbs **doze** and **snooze,** and the expression **have/take a nap** all mean 'to sleep, especially for a short time or during the day': *She's always **dozing** in front of the TV.* ● *Granddad was **snoozing** in his chair.* ● *Oliver is really tired so he's just **taking a nap**.*

The phrasal verbs **doze off** and (*informal*) **nod off** mean to start to sleep, especially during the day: *I must have **nodded off** after lunch.* ● *She **dozed off** during the lecture.*

O-key **asleep** /ə'sliːp/ *adjective* **1 be asleep** to be sleeping *The children are asleep.* ○ *I was **fast/sound asleep*** (= sleeping deeply). **2 fall asleep** to start sleeping *He fell asleep in front of the TV.*

asparagus /ə'spærəgəs/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a vegetable consisting of a long, green stem with a pointed end

aspect /'æspekt/ *noun* **1** [**C**] one part of a situation, problem, subject, etc *His illness affects almost every aspect of his life.* **2 LANGUAGE** [**U, C**] the form of a verb which shows how the meaning of a verb is considered in relation to time

Asperger's syndrome /'æspɜːdʒəz ˌsɪndrəʊm/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a mental illness in which someone does not develop normal social abilities, and they are often very interested in one particular subject

asphalt /'æsfælt/ *noun* [**U**] a hard, black substance used to make roads and paths

asphyxiate /əs'fɪksieɪt/ *verb* **be asphyxiated HEALTH** to die because you cannot breathe ●**asphyxiation** /əsˌfɪksi'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***aspiration***

have aspirations to do sth/of doing sth ● **high** aspirations ● **dreams/hopes and** aspirations ● aspirations **for** sth

aspiration /ˌæspᵊr'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] something you hope to achieve *The story is about the lives and aspirations of the Irish working classes.*

aspire /ə'spaɪəʳ/ *verb* **aspire to sth; aspire to do sth** to hope to achieve something *He has never aspired to a position of power.*

aspirin /'æspᵊrɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] *plural* **aspirin, aspirins HEALTH** a common drug used to reduce pain and fever

aspiring /ə'spaɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* **an aspiring actor/politician/writer, etc** someone who is trying to become a successful actor/politician/writer, etc

ass /æs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BOTTOM *US very informal* (*UK* **arse**) a person's bottom **2** PERSON *informal* a stupid person **3** ANIMAL *old-fashioned* a donkey (= animal like a small horse)

assailant /ə'seɪlənt/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* **LAW** a person who attacks someone

assassin /ə'sæsɪn/ *noun* [**C**] a person who kills someone important or famous, often for money

assassinate /ə'sæsɪneɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to kill someone important or famous ●**assassination** /əˌsæsɪ'neɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

assault /ə'sɔːlt/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LAW** an attack *an **assault on** a police officer* ○ ***sexual assault*** ●**assault** *verb* [**T**]

assemble /ə'sembl/ *verb* **1** GROUP [**I, T**] to join other people somewhere to make a group, or to bring people together into a group *They assembled in the meeting room after lunch.* **2** BUILD [**T**] to build something by joining parts together

assembler /ə'sembləʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING 1** a program that changes computer instructions into machine code (= a set of numbers that gives instructions to a computer) **2** assembly language (= the language used to write a computer program before it is turned into machine code)

assembly /ə'sembli/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [**C, U**] *UK* a regular meeting of all the students and teachers at a school *morning assembly* **2 POLITICS** [**C**] a group of people, such as a government, who meet to make decisions, laws, etc *the national assembly* **3** [**U**] when you build something by joining parts together

aˈssembly ˌlanguage *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** the language used to write a computer program before it is turned into machine code (= set of

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numbers that gives instructions to a computer)

assent /əˈsent/ *noun* [U] *formal* agreement or approval *Has she **given** her **assent**?* ●**assent** *verb* [I] *formal* to agree to something

assert /əˈsɜːt/ *verb* **1 assert yourself** to behave or speak in a strong, confident way *She has to learn to assert herself.* **2 assert your authority/control/independence, etc** to do something to show other people that you have power **3** [T] *formal* to say that something is certainly true [+ **that**] *He **asserts that** she stole money from him.*

assertion /əˈsɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when you say that something is certainly true [+ **that**] *I don't agree with his assertion that men are safer drivers than women.*

assertive /əˈsɜːtɪv/ *adjective* behaving or speaking in a strong, confident way *You need to be much more assertive.* ●**assertively** *adverb* ●**assertiveness** *noun* [U]

assess /əˈses/ *verb* [T] to make a judgment about the quality, size, value, etc of something *The tests are designed to assess a child's reading skills.* ●**assessment** *noun* [C, U]

asset /ˈæset/ *noun* [C] **1** a person, skill, or quality which is useful or helps you to succeed *He'll be a great **asset to** the team.* **2** FINANCE something which a person or company owns which has a value [**usually plural**] *The company has $70 billion in assets.*

assiduous /əˈsɪdjuəs/ *adjective formal* showing a lot of effort and determination ●**assiduously** *adverb*

assign /əˈsaɪn/ *verb* [T] to give someone a particular job or responsibility [+ **two objects**] *UN troops were assigned the task of rebuilding the hospital.* [**often passive**] *The case has been **assigned to** our most senior officer.*
assign sb to sth *phrasal verb* to give someone a particular job or place to work [**often passive**] *Which police officer has been assigned to this case?*

assignment /əˈsaɪnmənt/ *noun* [C, U] a piece of work or job that you are given to do *a written assignment* ○ *He's **on assignment** in Brazil.*

assimilate /əˈsɪmɪleɪt/ *verb formal* **1** [T] to understand and remember new information **2** SOCIETY [I, T] to become part of a group, society, etc, or to make someone or something become part of a group, society, etc *The refugees have now **assimilated into** the local community.* **3** BIOLOGY to absorb food into the tissue of a living organism ●**assimilation** /əˌsɪmɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

assist /əˈsɪst/ *verb* [I, T] to help *The army arrived to **assist in** the search.* ○ *He's **assisting** the police **with** their investigation.*

assistance /əˈsɪstᵊns/ *noun* [U] *formal* help *financial/medical assistance* ○ *Can I **be of** any **assistance**?* (= Can I help you?)

assistant /əˈsɪstᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** someone whose job is to help a person who has a more important job *an administrative assistant* ○ *assistant manager* **2 a sales/shop assistant** *mainly UK* someone who helps customers in a shop

associate¹ /əˈsəʊʃieɪt/ *verb* [T] to relate two things, people, etc in your mind *Most people **associate** this brand **with** good quality.*
associate with sb *phrasal verb formal* to spend time with someone
be associated with sth *phrasal verb* to be related to something or caused by something *There are many risks associated with smoking.*

associate² /əˈsəʊʃiət/ *noun* [C] someone who you know because of work or business *She's a business associate of mine.*

associate³ /əˈsəʊʃiət/ *adjective* **associate director/editor/producer, etc** someone in a slightly less important position than the main person

association /əˌsəʊʃiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ORGANIZATION [C] an organization of people with the same interests or with a particular purpose *the Football Association* **2** CONNECTION [C,U] a connection or relationship between two things or people **3 in association with** working together with *The event was organized in association with the Sports Council.* ➲See also: **savings and loan association**

assonance /ˈæsᵊnᵊnts/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE, LITERATURE using similar sounds several times close together

assorted /əˈsɔːtɪd/ *adjective* of different types *a box of assorted chocolates*

assortment /əˈsɔːtmənt/ *noun* [C] a group of different types of something *an assortment of vegetables*

assuage /əˈsweɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make unpleasant feelings less strong *The government tried to assuage the public's fears.*

assume /əˈsjuːm/ *verb* [T] **1** to think that something is likely to be true, although you have no proof [+ **(that)**] *Everything was quiet when I got home so I assumed that you had gone out.* **2 assume control/power/responsibility, etc** to take a position of control/power/responsibility, etc *He has assumed the role of spokesman for the group.* **3 assume an air/expression, etc** *formal* to pretend to have a feeling that you do not have **4 assume a false identity/name, etc** to pretend to be someone else *an assumed name*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***assumption***

make an assumption ● be **based on** an assumption ● a **basic/common/false/underlying** assumption ● do sth **under the** assumption that ● an assumption **about** sth

assumption /əˈsʌmpʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** something that you think is true without having any proof *People tend to **make assumptions about** you when you have a disability.* ○ *These calculations are based **on the assumption that** prices will continue to rise.* **2 the assumption of power/responsibility, etc** when someone takes a position of power, responsibility, etc

assurance /əˈʃʊərᵊns/ *noun* **1** PROMISE [C] a promise [+ **that**] *He **gave** us an **assurance** that it would not happen again.* **2** CONFIDENCE [U] confidence *He spoke with calm assurance.*

assure /əˈʃʊə/ *verb* [T] **1** PROMISE to tell someone that something is certainly true, especially so that they do not worry [+ **(that)**] *She assured them that she would be all right.* **2** MAKE CERTAIN

to make something certain to happen *This loan should assure the company's future.*

assured /ə'ʃʊəd/ *adjective* **1** showing skill and confidence *an assured performance* **2 be assured of sth** to be certain to get or achieve something in the future *They are now assured of a place in the final.* ➲See also: **self-assured**

asterisk /'æstᵊrɪsk/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a written symbol in the shape of a star (*), often used to mark a particular word, phrase, etc

asteroid /'æstᵊrɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** one of many large rocks that go around the sun

the asthenosphere /æs'θenəʊˌsfɪəʳ/ *noun* **GEOLOGY** the thin, almost liquid, layer under the hard rock that forms the outer layer of the Earth

asthma /'æsmə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness which makes it difficult to breathe *She had an asthma attack.* ●**asthmatic** /æs'mætɪk/ *adjective* *an asthmatic child*

astonish /ə'stɒnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to make someone very surprised *Her quick recovery has astonished doctors.*

astonished /ə'stɒnɪʃt/ *adjective* very surprised *He was* ***astonished at*** *her behaviour.*

astonishing /ə'stɒnɪʃɪŋ/ *adjective* very surprising *It's astonishing that so many people believed his story.* ●**astonishingly** *adverb*

astonishment /ə'stɒnɪʃmənt/ *noun* [U] extreme surprise *The others stared at him* ***in astonishment.*** ○ ***To my astonishment,*** *he started laughing.*

astound /ə'staʊnd/ *verb* [T] to make someone very surprised *The speed of her recovery has astounded doctors.*

astounded /ə'staʊndɪd/ *adjective* very surprised *I'm* ***astounded at/by*** *these prices.*

astounding /ə'staʊndɪŋ/ *adjective* very surprising *an astounding success* ●**astoundingly** *adverb*

astray /ə'streɪ/ *adverb* **1 go astray** to get lost or go in the wrong direction *One of my bags went astray at the airport.* **2 lead sb astray** to encourage someone to do bad things that they should not do *He was led astray by his friends.*

astride /ə'straɪd/ *adverb* If you sit or stand astride something, you have one foot on each side of it.

astro- /æstrəʊ-/ *prefix* **ASTRONOMY** relating to stars or outer space *astronomer* ○ *astrophysics*

astrology /ə'strɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] the study of the positions and movements of stars and planets to say how they might influence people's lives ●**astrologer** *noun* [C] someone who studies astrology ●**astrological** /ˌæstrə'lɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective*

astronaut /'æstrənɔːt/ *noun* [C] someone who travels into space

astronomical /ˌæstrə'nɒmɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** An astronomical amount is extremely large. ***astronomical prices*** **2** **ASTRONOMY** relating to astronomy ●**astronomically** *adverb*

astronomy /ə'strɒnəmi/ *noun* [U] **ASTRONOMY** the scientific study of stars and planets ●**astronomer** *noun* [C] a scientist who studies astronomy

astute /ə'stjuːt/ *adjective* good at judging situations and making decisions which give you an advantage *an astute businesswoman* ○ *politically astute* ●**astutely** *adverb*

asylum /ə'saɪləm/ *noun* **1** [U] when someone is allowed to stay somewhere because they are escaping danger in another country **2** **HEALTH** [C] *old-fashioned* a hospital for people with a mental illness ➲See also: **political asylum**

aˈsylum ˌseeker *noun* [C] someone who leaves their country to escape from danger, and tries to get permission to live in another country

asymmetrical /ˌeɪsɪ'metrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* not being exactly the same shape and size on both sides ●**asymmetry** /eɪ'sɪmɪtri/ *noun* [U]

O-➡ **at** *strong form* /æt/ *weak form* /ət/ *preposition* **1** PLACE used to show the place or position of something or someone *We met at the station.* ○ *She's at the library.* **2** TIME used to show the time something happens *The meeting starts at three.* **3** DIRECTION towards or in the direction of *She threw the ball at him.* ○ *He's always shouting at the children.* **4** ABILITY used after an adjective to show a person's ability to do something *He's good at making friends.* **5** CAUSE used to show the cause of something, especially a feeling *We were surprised at the news.* **6** AMOUNT used to show the price, speed, level, etc of something *He denied driving at 120 miles per hour.* **7** ACTIVITY used to show a state or activity *a country at war* **8** **INTERNET** the @ symbol, used in email addresses to separate the name of a person, department, etc from the name of the organization or company

ate /eɪt, et/ *past tense of* eat

atheist /'eɪθiɪst/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who believes that there is no god ●**atheism** *noun* [U]

atheroma /ˌæθ.ə'rəʊ.mə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** a substance containing a lot of fat that forms on the inside wall of an artery (= tube that carries blood) and causes it to harden or become blocked

atherosclerosis /ˌæθərəʊsklə'rəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a disease where the arteries (= large tubes that carry blood) are damaged or made too thin by fat collecting in them

athlete /'æθliːt/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who is very good at a sport and who competes with others in organized events

athletic /æθ'letɪk/ *adjective* **1** strong, healthy, and good at sports **2** **SPORT** [**always before noun**] relating to athletes or to the sport of athletics

athletics /æθ'letɪks/ *UK* (*US* **track and field**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sports which include running, jumping, and throwing ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

-athon /-əθɒn/ *suffix* an event or activity that lasts a long time, usually to collect money for charity *a walkathon* (= a long walk)

atlas /'ætləs/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a book of maps *a* ***road atlas*** ○ *a world atlas*

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ATM /ˌeɪtiːˈem/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* **FINANCE** *abbreviation for* automated teller machine: a machine that you get money from using a plastic card

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***atmosphere***

create an atmosphere • an atmosphere **of** [fear/trust, etc]

atmosphere /ˈætməsfɪə/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**no plural**] the feeling which exists in a place or situation *a **relaxed atmosphere*** **2** **GEOGRAPHY** **the atmosphere** the layer of gases around the Earth ➲See picture at **Earth** **3** AIR [**no plural**] the air inside a room or other place *a smoky atmosphere*

atmospheric /ˌætməsˈferɪk/ *adjective* **1** **GEOGRAPHY** [**always before noun**] relating to the air or to the atmosphere ***atmospheric conditions*** **2** FEELING creating a special feeling, such as mystery or romance ***atmospheric music/lighting***

ˌatmospheric ˈpressure *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the pressure of the atmosphere on the Earth's surface, which gets less the higher the ground is

atom /ˈætəm/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** the smallest unit that an element can be divided into

atomic /əˈtɒmɪk/ *adjective* **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** **1** [**always before noun**] relating to atoms *an atomic particle* **2** using the energy created when an atom is divided ***atomic power/weapons***

aˌtomic ˈbomb (*also* **ˈatom ˌbomb**) *noun* [C] a very powerful bomb which uses the energy created when an atom is divided

aˌtomic ˈenergy *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** energy which is produced by dividing atoms

aˌtomic ˈmass *noun* [U, C] **MEASURES** the mass of an atom of a particular chemical element

aˌtomic mass ˈunit *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit used for measuring atomic mass

aˌtomic ˈnumber *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** the number of protons found in the nucleus of an atom of a particular chemical, used as a way of listing the chemical elements in order in the periodic table

aˌtomic ˈweight *noun* [U] **MEASURES** atomic mass

atop /əˈtɒp/ *preposition US* on the top of

ATP /ˌeɪtiːˈpiː/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** *abbreviation for* adenosine triphosphate: an important chemical in the cells of living organisms that stores energy and releases it when it is needed

atrium /ˈeɪtriəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **atriums** or **atria** **1** a large, central room with a glass roof in an office building, restaurant, etc **2** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the two spaces in the top part of the heart which push blood around the body ➲See picture at **heart**

atrocious /əˈtrəʊʃəs/ *adjective* **1** BAD extremely bad *atrocious weather* **2** VIOLENT violent and shocking *an atrocious crime*

atrocity /əˈtrɒsəti/ *noun* [C, U] when someone does something extremely violent and shocking *Soldiers have been **committing atrocities against** civilians.*

attach /əˈtætʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** JOIN to join or fix one thing to another *She **attached** a photograph **to** her letter.* **2** **attach importance/value, etc to sb/sth** to think that someone or something has importance/value, etc *You attach too much importance to money.* **3** INCLUDE to include something as part of something else *There were too many conditions **attached to** the deal.* ➲See also: no strings (**string**[1]) (attached) **4** COMPUTER to add an attachment (= computer file) to an email message

attached /əˈtætʃt/ *adjective* **be attached to sb/sth** to like someone or something very much *I've become rather attached to my old car.*

attachment /əˈtætʃmənt/ *noun* **1** FEELING [C, U] a feeling of love or strong connection to someone or something *I wasn't aware of any **romantic attachments.*** **2** **COMPUTING** [C] a computer file which is sent together with an email message *I wasn't able to **open** that **attachment**.* **3** EQUIPMENT [C] an extra part which can be added to a piece of equipment *There's a special attachment for cleaning in the corners.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***attack***

1 launch/mount an attack • be **under** attack • a **bomb/terrorist** attack • an attack **on** sb/sth
2 launch/mount an attack • be/come **under** attack • a **personal/scathing** attack • an attack **on** sb/sth

attack[1] /əˈtæk/ *noun* **1** VIOLENCE [C, U] a violent act intended to hurt or damage someone or something *a terrorist **attack on** the capital* **2** CRITICISM [C, U] when you say something to strongly criticize someone or something *a scathing **attack on** the president* **3** **HEALTH** [C] a sudden, short illness *a nasty **attack of** flu* **4** **SPORT** [C, U] in games such as football, when the players in a team try to score points, goals, etc *I would have liked to see more attack in the second half.* ➲See also: **counter-attack**

attack[2] /əˈtæk/ *verb* **1** VIOLENCE [I, T] to use violence to hurt or damage someone or something *He was attacked and seriously injured by a gang of youths.* **2** CRITICIZE [T] to strongly criticize someone or something *She attacked the government's new education policy.* **3** DISEASE [T] If a disease, chemical, etc attacks someone or something, it damages them. *The virus attacks the central nervous system.* **4** **SPORT** [I, T] If players in a team attack, they move forward to try to score points, goals, etc. *Even at 3–0 up, they did not stop attacking.*

attacker /əˈtækə/ *noun* [C] a person who uses violence to hurt someone *The police think she must have known her attackers.*

attain /əˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] to achieve something, especially after a lot of work *She's attained a high level of fitness.* •**attainable** *adjective* possible to achieve •**attainment** *noun* [C, U] when you achieve something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***attempt***

make an attempt ● a **successful/unsuccessful** attempt ● an attempt **at** sth/doing sth ● **in an** attempt to do sth

attempt[1] /ə'tempt/ *noun* [C] **1** when you try to do something *This is his second **attempt at** the exam.* [+ **to do sth**] *They closed the road **in an attempt** to reduce traffic in the city.* ○ *She **made no attempt*** (= did not try) *to be sociable.* **2 an attempt on sb's life** when someone tries to kill someone

attempt[2] /ə'tempt/ *verb* [T] to try to do something, especially something difficult [+ **to do sth**] *He attempted to escape through a window.*

attempted /ə'temptɪd/ *adjective* LAW **attempted murder/robbery, etc** when someone tries to commit a crime but does not succeed

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***attend***

Instead of the verb 'attend', people usually say **come/go to:** *How many people **came to** the meeting?* ● *He **goes to** church regularly.*

The verb **make** is sometimes used when someone is talking about whether or not they are able to attend an event: *I'm afraid I can't **make** the meeting this afternoon (= I will not be able to attend).*

The expression **make it** is also used, meaning 'to get to a place, even when there are problems': *The traffic was so bad we only just **made it** in time for the start of the film.*

attend /ə'tend/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* **1** to go to an event *to attend a concert/meeting* **2 attend a church/school, etc** to go regularly to a particular church/school, etc
attend to sb/sth *phrasal verb formal* to deal with something or help someone

attendance /ə'tendᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] **1** NUMBER the number of people who go to an event, meeting, etc *falling attendance* **2** REGULARLY when you go somewhere such as a church, school, etc regularly *His attendance at school is very poor.* **3 in attendance** *formal* present at an event *They have doctors in attendance at every match.*

attendant /ə'tendᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to help the public in a particular place *a parking attendant* ➲See also: **flight attendant**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***attention***

pay attention (**to** sth/sb)/**give** sth attention ● **have/hold/keep** sb's attention ● **careful/full/special/undivided** attention

attention /ə'tenʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** INTEREST when you watch, listen to, or think about something carefully or with interest *Ladies and gentlemen, could I **have your attention**, please?* **2 pay attention (to sth)** to watch, listen to, or think about something carefully or with interest *You weren't paying attention to what I was saying.* **3 bring/draw (sb's) attention to sth/sb** to make someone notice something or someone *If I could just draw your attention to the second paragraph.* **4 attract/get (sb's) attention** to make someone notice you *I waved at him to get his attention.* **5** TREATMENT treatment to deal with a problem *medical attention* ○ *This old engine needs a lot of attention.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

attention

Attention is usually followed by the preposition **to**.

You should pay attention to what she tells you.

We want to draw people's attention to the risks involved.

attentive /ə'tentɪv/ *adjective* listening or watching carefully and showing that you are interested *an attentive student. The waiter was **attentive** all our needs.* ●**attentively** *adverb We listened attentively to her speech.*

attest /ə'test/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to show or prove that something is true *Several of her colleagues came forward to **attest** to her good character.*

attic /'ætɪk/ *noun* [C] a room at the top of a house under the roof

attire /ə'taɪəʳ/ *noun* [U] *old-fashioned* the clothes that you wear ●**attired** *adjective* dressed in a particular way *suitably attired*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***attitude***

have/take a [positive/responsible, etc] attitude ● a **casual/hostile/negative/positive** attitude ● (sb's) attitude **to/towards** sth/sb

attitude /'ætɪtjuːd/ *noun* [C, U] how you think or feel about something and how this makes you behave *a **positive attitude*** ○ *He has a very bad **attitude to/towards** work.*

attorney /ə'tɜːni/ *noun* [C] *US* LAW a lawyer *a defense attorney* ➲See Common Learner Error at **lawyer** ➲See also: **district attorney**

attract /ə'trækt/ *verb* [T] **1** ENCOURAGE INTEREST to make people come to a place or do a particular thing by being interesting, enjoyable, etc *The castle attracts more than 300,000 visitors a year.* ○ *We need to **attract** more science graduates **to** teaching.* **2 attract attention/interest, etc** to cause people to pay attention/be interested, etc **3 be attracted to sb** to like someone, especially sexually, because of the way they look or behave *I was attracted to him straight away.* **4** PHYSICS If something attracts a substance or object, it causes it to move towards it. *Magnets attract metal.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***attraction***

an **added**/a **big**/the **main**/a **major**/the **star** attraction ● a **tourist** attraction ● the attraction **of** sth ● an attraction **for** sb

attraction /ə'trækʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** GOOD THING [C] something that makes people come to a place or want to do a particular thing *a **tourist attraction*** ○ *The opportunity to travel is one of the main **attractions of** this job.* **2** FEELING [U] when you like someone, especially sexually, because of the way they look or behave *physical attraction* **3** PHYSICS when something causes an object or substance to move towards it

A

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***attractive***

The adjectives **beautiful** and **lovely** are often used instead of 'attractive', and are used to describe both people and things: *His wife is very **beautiful**.* ● *We drove through some really **beautiful/lovely** countryside.* ● *You look **lovely**!*

If a person is attractive, we can say that they are **good-looking**. The adjective **handsome** is also sometimes used for men, and **pretty** for women: *He's certainly very **good-looking**.* ● *Your daughter is very **pretty**.*

If someone is extremely attractive, you can say that they are **gorgeous** or **stunning**: *You look **gorgeous** in that dress!* ● *Her daughter is absolutely **stunning**.*

If something is extremely attractive, you can say that it is **breathtaking**, **exquisite**, **stunning**, or **gorgeous**: *The views from the window were **breathtaking**.* ● *These handmade decorations are **exquisite**.*

If a person or thing is attractive because of being small, you can say that they are **cute** or **sweet**: *He's got a really **cute** baby brother.* ● *Look at that kitten - isn't she **sweet**?*

Adjectives such as **stylish** and **chic** can be used to describe something that has been made to look attractive and fashionable: *He took me to a very **chic** restaurant.* ● *Their house is very **stylish**.*

attractive /ə'trækɪv/ *adjective* **1** BEAUTIFUL beautiful or pleasant to look at *an attractive woman* ○ *I **find** him very **attractive**.* **2** INTERESTING interesting or useful *We want to make the club **attractive to** a wider range of people.* ➲Opposite **unattractive** ●**attractively** *adverb* ●**attractiveness** *noun* [U]

attributable /ə'trɪbjətəbl/ *adjective* **attributable to sth** caused by something *A lot of crime is attributable to the use of drugs.*

attribute¹ /ə'trɪbjuːt/ *verb*
attribute sth to sth *phrasal verb* to say that something is caused by something else *He attributes his success to hard work.*
attribute sth to sb *phrasal verb* to say that someone wrote, said, or made something *This drawing has been attributed to Picasso.*

attribute² /'ætrɪbjuːt/ *noun* [C] a quality or characteristic that someone or something has *Her hair is her best attribute.*

attributive /ə'trɪbjətɪv/ *adjective* LANGUAGE An attributive adjective comes before the noun it describes. ➲Compare **predicative**

aubergine /'əʊbəʒiːn/ *UK* (*US* **eggplant**) *noun* [C, U] FOOD an oval, purple vegetable that is white inside ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

auburn /'ɔːbən/ *adjective* Auburn hair is red-brown.

auction /'ɔːkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] FINANCE a sale in which things are sold to the person who offers the most money ●**auction** (*also* **auction off**) *verb* [T] to sell something at an auction

auctioneer /ˌɔːkʃᵊn'ɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] the person who is in charge of an auction

audacity /ɔː'dæsəti/ *noun* [U] showing too much confidence in your behaviour in a way that other people find shocking or rude *And then he **had the audacity to** blame me for his mistake!* ●**audacious** /ɔː'deɪʃəs/ *adjective*

audible /'ɔːdəbl/ *adjective* If something is audible, you can hear it. *His voice was barely audible.* ➲Opposite **inaudible** ●**audibly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***audience***

1 be **in** the audience ● a **member of** the audience
2 **reach** an audience ● sth's **target** audience ● a **wide** audience

audience /'ɔːdiəns/ *noun* **1** GROUP [**group**] the people who sit and watch a performance at a theatre, cinema, etc *There were a lot of children **in the audience**.* **2** TYPE [**group**] the type of people who watch a particular TV show, read a particular book, etc *This magazine is aimed at a teenage audience.* **3** MEETING [C] *formal* a formal meeting with an important person *an **audience with** the Queen*

audio /'ɔːdiəʊ/ *adjective* relating to the recording or playing of sound *audio equipment*

audio- /ɔːdiəʊ-/ *prefix* relating to hearing or sound *audiotape*

audit /'ɔːdɪt/ *noun* [C] FINANCE when an independent person examines all the financial records of a company to produce a report ●**audit** *verb* [T] ●**auditor** *noun* [C]

audition /ɔː'dɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] when someone does a short performance to try to get a job as an actor, singer, etc ●**audition** *verb* [I]

auditorium /ˌɔːdɪ'tɔːriəm/ *noun* [C] the part of a theatre, hall, etc where people sit to watch a performance

auditory nerve /'ɔːdɪtᵊriˌnɜːv/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a nerve in the ear that carries electrical signals to the brain

Aug *written abbreviation for* August

augment /ɔːg'ment/ *verb* [T] *formal* to increase the size or value of something by adding something to it

August /'ɔːgəst/ (*written abbreviation* **Aug**) *noun* [C, U] the eighth month of the year

aunt /ɑːnt/ (*also* **auntie, aunty** /'ɑːnti/) *noun* [C] the sister of your mother or father, or the wife of your uncle ➲See also: **agony aunt**

au pair /ˌəʊ'peəʳ/ *noun* [C] a young person who goes to live with a family in another country and looks after their children, does work in their house, etc

aura /'ɔːrə/ *noun* [C] a feeling which a person or place seems to have *an aura of mystery*

aural /'ɔːrᵊl/ *adjective* BIOLOGY relating to hearing

auricle /'ɔː.rɪ.kəl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY *old-fashioned* one of the two spaces in the top part of the heart which push blood around the body

auspices /'ɔːspɪsɪz/ *noun* **under the auspices of sb/sth** *formal* with the help or support of a

person or organization *The conference was held under the auspices of the Red Cross.*

auspicious /ɔː'spɪʃəs/ *adjective* If an event or time is auspicious, it makes you believe that something will be successful in the future. *an auspicious start*

austere /ɒs'tɪər/ *adjective* **1** SIMPLE plain, simple, and without unnecessary decorations or luxuries *an austere room* **2** STRICT strict or severe *an austere woman* ●**austerity** /ɒs'terəti/ *noun* [U]

authentic /ɔː'θentɪk/ *adjective* If something is authentic, it is real, true, or what people say it is. *authentic Italian food* ●**authentically** *adverb* ●**authenticity** /ˌɔːθen'tɪsəti/ *noun* [U]

O-key **author** /'ɔːθər/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** someone who writes a book, article, etc *a popular author of children's fiction*

authoritarian /ˌɔːθɒrɪ'teəriən/ *adjective* very strict and not allowing people freedom to do what they want *an authoritarian leader/regime*

authoritative /ɔː'θɒrɪtətɪv/ *adjective* **1** INFORMATION An authoritative book, report, etc is respected and considered to be accurate. *an authoritative guide* **2** PERSON confident and seeming to be in control of a situation *an authoritative manner/voice*

O-key **authority** /ɔː'θɒrəti/ *noun* **1** POWER [U] the official power to make decisions or to control other people *a **position of authority*** [+ **to do sth**] *The investigators have the authority to examine all the company's records.* ○ *We need the support of someone **in authority**.* **2** **POLITICS** [C] an official group or government department with power to control particular public services *the local housing authority* **3** QUALITY [U] the quality of being confident and being able to control people *She has an **air of authority**.* **4 an authority on sth** someone who has a lot of knowledge about a particular subject *She is an authority on seventeenth-century English literature.* ➲See also: **local authority**

authorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /'ɔːθəraɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** to give official permission for something **2 be authorized to do sth** to be officially allowed to do something *Only managers are authorized to sign expense forms.* ●**authorization** /ˌɔːθəraɪ'zeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

autistic /ɔː'tɪstɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** Autistic children have a mental illness which causes problems with communicating and forming relationships. ●**autism** /'ɔːtɪzəm/ *noun* [U]

auto /'ɔːtəʊ/ *adjective US* relating to cars *the auto industry*

auto- /ɔːtəʊ-/ *prefix* **1** WITHOUT HUMANS operating without being controlled by humans *autopilot* (= a comptuer that directs an aircraft) **2** SELF self *an autobiography* (= a book that someone writes about their own life)

autobiography /ˌɔːtəʊbaɪ'ɒgrəfi/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a book written by someone about their own life ●**autobiographical** /ˌɔːtəʊbaɪəʊ'græfɪkəl/ *adjective*

autograph /'ɔːtəgrɑːf/ *noun* [C] a famous person's name, written by that person ●**autograph** *verb* [T] *an autographed photo*

automate /'ɔːtəmeɪt/ *verb* [T] to control something using machines and not people ●**automated** *adjective a fully automated system* ●**automation** /ˌɔːtə'meɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

automatic¹ /ˌɔːtə'mætɪk/ *adjective* **1** MACHINE An automatic machine works by itself or with little human control. *automatic doors* **2** CERTAIN certain to happen as part of the normal process or system *You get an automatic promotion after two years.* **3** REACTION done as a natural reaction without thinking *My automatic response was to pull my hand away.* ●**automatically** *adverb*

automatic² /ˌɔːtə'mætɪk/ *noun* [C] a car in which you do not have to change the gears (= parts that control how fast the wheels turn)

automobile /'ɔːtəməʊbiːl/ *noun* [C] *US* a car *the automobile industry*

automotive /ˌɔːtə'məʊtɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to cars and car production *the automotive industry*

autonomous /ɔː'tɒnəməs/ *adjective* independent and having the power to make your own decisions *an autonomous region/state*

autonomy /ɔː'tɒnəmi/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the right of a country or group of people to govern itself *Local councils need more autonomy.*

autopsy /'ɔːtɒpsi/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medical examination of a dead body to discover the exact cause of death

autotroph /'ɔːtɪəʊtrəʊf/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a living thing that can make its own food from simple chemical substances such as carbon dioxide ➲Compare ●**autotrophic** /ˌɔːtɪəʊ'trəʊfɪk/ *adjective autotrophic nutrition*

O-key **autumn** /'ɔːtəm/ (*also US* **fall**) *noun* [C, U] the season of the year between summer and winter, when leaves fall from the trees *I'm starting a new job **in the autumn**.* ○ *autumn leaves* ●**autumnal** /ɔː'tʌmnəl/ *adjective* typical of autumn

auxiliary /ɔːg'zɪliəri/ *adjective* providing extra help or support *an auxiliary nurse*

auˌxiliary ˈverb *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a verb which is used with another verb to form tenses, negatives, and questions. In English the auxiliary verbs are 'be', 'have', and 'do'.

auxin /'ɔːk.sɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a chemical substance that controls growth in plants

avail /ə'veɪl/ *noun* **to no avail** without success, especially after a lot of effort *She sent more than 50 letters, but to no avail.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***available***

be/become available ● **make** sth available ● **easily/freely/readily/widely** available ● be available **to** sb

O-key **available** /ə'veɪləbl/ *adjective* **1** READY TO USE If something is available, you can use it or get it. *This information is available free on the Internet.* ○ *The new drug is not yet **available to** the public.* **2** NOT BUSY If someone is available, they are not busy and so are able to do something. *No one from the company was available to comment on the accident.* ➲Opposite **unavailable** ●**availability** /əˌveɪlə'bɪləti/ *noun* [U]

A

avalanche /ˈæv^{ə}lɑːnʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** when a large amount of snow falls down the side of a mountain **2 an avalanche of sth** a sudden, large amount of something, usually more than you can deal with *an avalanche of mail*

avant-garde /ˌævɒŋˈgɑːd/ *adjective* If art, music, etc, is avant-garde, it is new and unusual in style.

avarice /ˈæv^{ə}rɪs/ *noun* [U] *formal* a strong feeling that you want a lot of money and possessions

avatar /ˈævətɑː/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** an electronic image of a person that represents the computer user, especially in games ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

Ave *written abbreviation for* avenue

avenge /əˈvendʒ/ *verb* [T] *literary* to punish someone for doing something bad to you, your family, etc *He swore he would avenge his brother's death.*

avenue /ˈævənjuː/ *noun* [C] **1** ROAD (*written abbreviation* **Ave**) a wide road in a town or city, often with trees along it **2** POSSIBILITY a possible way of doing or achieving something *We have exhausted all other avenues of treatment.*

average¹ /ˈæv^{ə}rɪdʒ/ *adjective* **1** USUAL usual and like the most common type *an average person* ○ *an average day* **2 MATHEMATICS** [always before noun] An average amount is calculated by adding some amounts together and then dividing by the number of amounts. *an average age/temperature* **3** NOT EXCELLENT not excellent, although not bad *The food was pretty average.*

average² /ˈæv^{ə}rɪdʒ/ *noun* **1 MATHEMATICS** [C] an amount calculated by adding some amounts together and then dividing by the number of amounts *They work an average of 30.5 hours per week.* **2** [C, U] the usual or typical amount *well above/below average* **3 on average** usually, or based on an average *Female workers earn, on average, a third less than men.*

average³ /ˈæv^{ə}rɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **MATHEMATICS** to reach a particular amount as an average *He averages about 20 points a game.*

averse /əˈvɜːs/ *adjective* **1 not be averse to sth** *UK humorous* to be happy or willing to do or have something *She's not averse to the occasional glass of champagne.* **2 be averse to sth** *formal* to strongly dislike something

aversion /əˈvɜːʒ^{ə}n/ *noun* **an aversion to sth** when you strongly dislike something

avert /əˈvɜːt/ *verb* **1 avert a crisis/disaster/war, etc** to prevent something bad from happening **2 avert your eyes/face/gaze** to turn your head away so that you do not see something

avian flu /ˌeɪviənˈfluː/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** bird flu: an illness that kills birds and can sometimes pass from birds to people

aviary /ˈeɪvi^{ə}ri/ *noun* [C] a large cage for birds

aviation /ˌeɪviˈeɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U] flying aircraft or producing aircraft *the aviation industry*

avid /ˈævɪd/ *adjective* very interested and enthusiastic *an avid reader* ●**avidly** *adverb*

avocado /ˌævəˈkɑːdəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a dark green, oval fruit which is pale green inside and is not sweet

avoid /əˈvɔɪd/ *verb* [T] **1** STAY AWAY to stay away from a person, place, situation, etc *Try to avoid the city centre.* **2** PREVENT to prevent something from happening *Book early to avoid disappointment.* **3 avoid doing sth** to intentionally not do something *She managed to avoid answering my question.* ●**avoidable** *adjective* possible to avoid ➲Opposite **unavoidable** ●**avoidance** *noun* [U] when you avoid something

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

avoid doing something

When **avoid** is followed by a verb, the verb is always in the **-ing** form.

I avoided seeing him for several days.

~~*I avoided to see him for several days.*~~

await /əˈweɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** WAIT FOR to wait for something *We are awaiting the results of the tests.* **2** IN FUTURE If something awaits you, you will experience it in the future. *A surprise awaits her when she gets home.*

awake¹ /əˈweɪk/ *adjective* **1 be/lie/stay, etc awake** to not be sleeping *Is Tom awake yet?* ○ *The noise from the party **kept** me **awake** all night.* **2 be wide awake** to be completely awake

awake² /əˈweɪk/ *verb* [I, T] *past tense* **awoke,** *past participle* **awoken** *literary* to wake up, or make someone wake up

awaken /əˈweɪk^{ə}n/ *verb* **1** FEELINGS [T] *formal* to cause an emotion, feeling, etc *The song awakened painful memories.* **2** WAKE [I, T] *literary* to wake up, or make someone wake up

awakening /əˈweɪkənɪŋ/ *noun* [no plural] **1** when you start to be aware of something or feel something **2 a rude awakening** If you have a rude awakening, you have a shock when you discover the truth about a situation.

WORD PARTNERS FOR *award*

present/receive/win an award ● an award **for** sth ● an awards **ceremony** ● an award **winner**

award¹ /əˈwɔːd/ *noun* [C] **1** a prize given to someone for something they have achieved *the **award for** best actress* ○ *to **receive/win** an **award*** **2 FINANCE** money given to someone because of a legal decision

award² /əˈwɔːd/ *verb* [T] to officially give someone something such as a prize or an amount of money [+ **two objects, often passive**] *He was awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics.*

aware /əˈweə^{r}/ *adjective* **1 be aware of/that** to know about something *Are you aware of the risks involved?* ○ *She was **well aware** that he was married.* ➲Opposite **unaware 2** interested in and knowing a lot about a particular subject ***politically**/socially **aware***

WORD PARTNERS FOR *awareness*

create/increase/raise awareness ● a **greater/growing/heightened/increased** awareness ● **public** awareness ● an awareness **about/of** sth ● an awareness **among** [parents/students, etc]

awareness /əˈweənəs/ *noun* [**U**] when you know about something *Environmental awareness is increasing all the time.*

awash /əˈwɒʃ/ *adjective* **be awash with sth** *UK* (*US* **be awash in sth**) to have a lot of something, often too much *The sport is awash with money.*

O-K **away¹** /əˈweɪ/ *adverb* **1** DIRECTION to or in a different place or situation *Go away and leave me alone.* ○ *We'd like to move* ***away from*** *the town centre.* **2** DISTANCE FROM at a particular distance from a place *The nearest town was ten miles away.* ○ *How far away is the station?* **3** NOT THERE not at the place where someone usually lives or works *Shirley's feeding the cat while we're away.* **4** SAFE PLACE into a usual or safe place *Can you put everything away when you've finished?* **5 two weeks/five hours, etc away** at a particular time in the future *My exam's only a week away now.* **6** CONTINUOUS ACTION used after a verb to mean 'continuously or repeatedly' *Chris was hammering away in the garden all day.* **7** GRADUALLY gradually disappearing until almost or completely gone *The snow has melted away.* **8 SPORT** *UK* If a sports team is playing away, the game is at the place where the other team usually plays. ➲See also: take your **breath** away, give the **game**ˈ away

away² /əˈweɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **SPORT** *UK* In sports, an away game is played at the place where the other team usually plays.

awe /ɔː/ *noun* [**U**] **1** a feeling of great respect and sometimes fear *I was filled with awe at the sheer size of the building.* **2 be in awe of sb** to feel great respect for someone *As children we were rather in awe of our grandfather.*

awe-inspiring /ˈɔːɪnspaɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* causing people to feel great respect or admiration

awesome /ˈɔːsəm/ *adjective* very great, large, or special and making you feel respect and sometimes fear *an awesome challenge/responsibility* ○ *The scenery was awesome.*

O-K **awful** /ˈɔːfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** very bad, of low quality, or unpleasant *an awful place* ○ *The film was absolutely awful.* **2 an awful lot (of sth)** *informal* a large amount *It cost an awful lot of money.*

awfully /ˈɔːfᵊli/ *adverb* very *awfully difficult/good*

awhile /əˈwaɪl/ *adverb US* for a short time *Let's* ***wait awhile*** *and see what happens.*

O-K **awkward** /ˈɔːkwəd/ *adjective* **1** DIFFICULT difficult or causing problems *an awkward customer* ○ *an awkward question* **2** EMBARRASSING embarrassing and not relaxed *an awkward pause/silence* ○ *I'm in an awkward situation.* **3** NOT ATTRACTIVE moving in a way that is not attractive *His movements were slow and awkward.* ●**awkwardly** *adverb* ●**awkwardness** *noun* [**U**]

awoke /əˈwəʊk/ *past tense of* awake

awoken /əˈwəʊkᵊn/ *past participle of* awake

awry /əˈraɪ/ *adverb* **go awry** to not happen in the correct way *Suddenly everything started to go awry.*

axe¹ (*also US* **ax**) /æks/ *noun* [**C**] a tool consisting of a wooden handle with a sharp piece of metal at one end, used for cutting trees or wood

axe² (*also US* **ax**) /æks/ *verb* [**T**] to get rid of something or someone suddenly *The company has announced plans to* ***axe*** *500* ***jobs****.*

axes /ˈæksiːz/ *plural of* axis

axil /ˈæksɪl/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** the angle between a branch or leaf stalk and the stem it is growing out from

axis /ˈæksɪs/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **axes** /ˈæksiːz/ **MATHEMATICS 1** an imaginary, central line around which an object turns **2** a line at the side or bottom of a graph (= picture showing measurements)

axle /ˈæksl/ *noun* [**C**] a long metal bar which connects two wheels on a vehicle

axon /ˈæksɒn/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a long thread that comes out of a nerve cell and carries signals from it

aye /aɪ/ *exclamation informal* yes, used especially in Scotland and the North of England

B Bb

B, b /biː/ the second letter of the alphabet

BA /biːˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Bachelor of Arts: a university or college qualification in an arts (= not science) subject which usually takes 3 or 4 years of study

baa /bɑː/ *noun* [C] the sound that a sheep makes

babble /ˈbæbl/ *verb* [I] **LANGUAGE** to talk quickly in a way which is confused, silly, or has no meaning ●**babble** *noun* [U] *the babble of voices*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***baby***

have/ be **expecting/give birth to** a baby ● a baby is **born** ● a **new/newborn** baby

baby /ˈbeɪbi/ *noun* [C] **1** CHILD a very young child *a baby girl/boy* ○ *baby clothes* ○ *Liz has* ***had a baby***. ○ *Maria's* ***expecting a baby*** (= she is pregnant). **2** ANIMAL a very young animal *a baby bird*

ˈbaby ˌboom *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a time when a lot of babies are born in a particular area *the postwar baby boom*

ˈbaby ˌcarriage *noun* [C] *US* a small vehicle with four wheels for carrying a baby

babyish /ˈbeɪbiɪʃ/ *adjective* Babyish behaviour is silly, like the behaviour of a young child.

babysit /ˈbeɪbɪsɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **babysitting,** *past* **babysat** to look after children while their parents are not at home ●**babysitter** *noun* [C] *We'd like to come, but we can't get a babysitter.* ●**babysitting** *noun* [U]

bachelor /ˈbætʃ^{l}ə^{r}/ *noun* [C] **1** a man who is not married **2 Bachelor of Arts/Science/Education, etc** **EDUCATION** a university or college qualification which usually takes 3 or 4 years of study, or a person who has this qualification

bacillus /bəˈsɪləs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bacilli** **BIOLOGY** a bacterium (= an extremely small organism) shaped like a very small rod (= thin, narrow pole), some types of which cause disease

back¹ /bæk/ *adverb* **1** RETURNING where someone or something was before *When do you go back to college?* ○ *I put it back in the cupboard.* **2** BEHIND in a direction behind you *Anna stepped back.* ○ *Flint leaned back in his chair.* **3** REPLY as a reply or reaction to something *UK to ring back/ US to call back* ○ *I signalled to her and she waved back.* **4** STATE to the state something or someone was in before *Hopefully things will* ***get back to normal*** *again now.* ○ *I'm sure we can* ***put*** *it* ***back together*** *again* (= repair it). ○ *Try to go back to sleep.* **5** EARLIER at or to an earlier time *We first met* ***back in*** *1973.* ○ *Looking back, I think we did the right thing.* **6** AWAY FROM in a direction away from something *He pulled back the curtain.* **7 back and forth** (*also UK* **backwards and forwards**) in one direction, then the opposite way, then in the original direction again many times *He has to travel back and forth between London and Paris every week.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

back to

Remember to use the preposition **to** when you are talking about returning to a place.

I haven't seen her since she went back to Korea.

~~*I haven't seen her since she went back Korea.*~~

back² /bæk/ *noun* [C] **1** NOT FRONT the part of something that is furthest from the front or in the opposite direction to the front *He wrote his number down on the back of an envelope.* ○ *I always keep a blanket in the back of the car.* **2** **ANATOMY** the part of your body from your shoulders to your bottom *back injuries/pain* ○ *He was lying on his back.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **3** SEAT the part of a seat that you lean against when you are sitting *the back of a chair* **4 back to front** *UK* with the back part of something where the front should be *You've got your trousers on back to front.* **5 in back of** *US* behind *They sat in back of us on the plane.* **6 at/in the back of your mind** If you have a thought or idea at the back of your mind, you are always thinking about it. **7 behind sb's back** If you do something behind someone's back, you do it without them knowing, often in an unfair way. *Have they been saying things about me behind my back?* **8 be glad/happy, etc to see the back of sb/sth** *UK* to be pleased when someone leaves or something ends because you did not like them **9 be on sb's back** to remind someone again and again to do something, or to criticize someone in an annoying way **10 turn your back on sb/sth** to decide to stop having contact with someone or something, or to refuse to help someone *She turned her back on Hollywood and went to live in Florida.* ➲See also: a **pat²** on the back, be (like) **water¹** off a duck's back

back³ /bæk/ *verb* **1** SUPPORT [T] to give support or help to a person, plan, or idea *He backed Mr Clark in the recent election.* **2** MONEY [T] to risk money by saying that you think a horse, team, etc will win a race, game, or competition in order to win more money if they do *Many people are backing Holyfield to win the fight.* **3 back (sth) away/into/out, etc** to move backwards or drive backwards *She saw he had a gun and backed away.*

back away *phrasal verb* to show that you do not support a plan or idea any more and do not want to be involved with it *The government has backed away from plans to increase taxes.*

back down *phrasal verb* to admit that you were wrong, or agree not to do something *The council* ***backed down over*** *rent increases.*

back off *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE to move away from someone, usually because you are afraid *I saw the knife and backed off.* **2** STOP SUPPORTING *mainly US* to stop supporting a plan *The president has* ***backed off from*** *a threat to expel U.N. soldiers.*

back out *phrasal verb* to decide not to do something you had planned or agreed to do *Nigel backed out at the last minute, so we had a spare*

ticket.
back sb up *phrasal verb* **1** SUPPORT to support or help someone *My family backed me up in my fight for compensation.* **2** SAY IS TRUE to say that someone is telling the truth *Honestly, that's exactly what happened - Claire'll back me up.*
back sth up *phrasal verb* **1** PROVE to prove that something is true [**often passive**] His claims are backed up by recent research. **2** **COMPUTING** to make an extra copy of computer information
back (sth) up *phrasal verb* to drive backwards

O-key **back**[4] /bæk/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] at or near the back of something *back door/garden/page* ○ *I put it in the back pocket of my jeans.* **2 back road/street** a very small road or street that goes behind or between buildings ➲See also: put sth on the back **burner**

backache /ˈbækeɪk/ *noun* [**C, U**] **HEALTH** a pain in your back

backbench /ˌbækˈbentʃ/ *adjective UK* **a backbench MP/politician, etc** **POLITICS** a member of the government who does not have an important position ●**backbencher** *noun* [**C**] a backbench politician

the backbenches /ˌbækˈbentʃɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* **POLITICS** the place where backbench politicians sit *He prefers to remain* ***on the backbenches.***

backboard /ˈbækbɔːd/ *noun* [**C**] **SPORT** in basketball (= a sport), a board behind the metal ring that you have to throw the ball through to score ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

backbone /ˈbækbəʊn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** the main or strongest part of something *The car industry remains* ***the backbone of*** *the area's economy.* **2** **ANATOMY** the line of bones down the centre of your back ➲See picture at **rib cage**

backdrop /ˈbækdrɒp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SITUATION the situation that an event happens in [**usually singular**] *The attack took place* ***against a backdrop of*** *rising tensions between the two communities.* **2** CLOTH the painted cloth at the back of a stage in a theatre

backer /ˈbækəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who supports a person or plan, especially by giving them money

backfire /ˌbækˈfaɪəʳ/ *verb* [**I**] If something that you do backfires, it has the opposite result of what you wanted.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***background***

come from a [poor/different, etc] background
● sb's **family** background

background /ˈbækgraʊnd/ *noun* **1** SOUND [**no plural**] Sounds in the background are not the main sounds you can hear. ***background music/noise*** ○ *I could hear a baby crying* ***in the background.*** **2** **SOCIETY** [**C**] a person's education, family, and experience of life *She came from a middle-class* ***background.*** **3** **ART** [**C, U**] the parts at the back of a picture, view, etc which are not the main things you look at *gold stars* ***on*** *a black* ***background*** **4** SITUATION [**C**] the situation that an event happens in, or things which have happened in the past which affect it [**usually singular**] *The talks are taking place* ***against a background of*** *economic uncertainty.* **5 in the background** If a person stays in the background, they try not to be noticed.

background radiation *noun* [**U**] **PHYSICS** radiation found naturally on Earth, that comes from some soil and rocks, etc. and from the atmosphere

backhand /ˈbækhænd/ *noun* [**C**] **SPORT** when you hit a ball with your arm across your body, in sports such as tennis

backing /ˈbækɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] support, especially money, for a person or plan *financial backing* ○ *The proposal has the full backing of the government.*

backlash /ˈbæklæʃ/ *noun* [**C**] when people react against an idea which was previously popular [**usually singular**] *a* ***backlash against*** *the royal family*

backlog /ˈbæklɒg/ *noun* [**C**] work that should have been done earlier

backpack /ˈbækpæk/ *noun* [**C**] a bag that you carry on your back ●**backpacking** *noun* [**U**] *to* ***go backpacking*** ●**backpacker** *noun* [**C**]

back scatter (*also* **back scattering**) *noun* [**U**] **PHYSICS** **1** when radiation is scattered (= moved in different directions) by the atoms of the substance it is moving through **2** radiation that has been scattered this way

backside /ˌbækˈsaɪd/ US /ˈbækˌsaɪd/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* the part of your body that you sit on

backslash /ˈbækslæʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** the symbol '\', used in computer programs ➲Compare **forward slash**

backspace /ˈbækspeɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** the key that you press on a computer keyboard to move the cursor (= symbol showing your place on the screen) backwards and delete (= get rid of) the character before it ●**backspace** *verb* [**I**] to use the backspace key

backstage /ˌbækˈsteɪdʒ/ *adverb* in the area behind the stage in a theatre where performers get ready

backstroke /ˈbækstrəʊk/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a style of swimming on your back

back-to-back /ˌbæktəˈbæk/ *adjective, adverb* **1** POSITION If two people or things are back-to-back, their backs are touching or facing each other. *They stood back-to-back.* **2** AFTER If two things happen back-to-back, one happens after the other without a pause. *back-to-back interviews*

backtrack /ˈbæktræk/ *verb* [**I**] to say that you did not mean something you said earlier *The government has* ***backtracked on*** *its promises.*

backup /ˈbækʌp/ *noun* **1** [**C,U**] extra help, support, or equipment which is available if you need it *Medical staff are on call to* ***provide backup*** *in case of an emergency.* **2** **COMPUTING** [**C**] an extra copy of computer information *to make a backup*

backward /ˈbækwəd/ *adjective* **1** DIRECTION [**always before noun**] in the direction behind you *a* ***backward glance*** **2** DEVELOPMENT less developed or slower to develop than normal *a backward country*

B

B

backwards /ˈbækwədz/ (*also* **backward**) *adverb* **1** DIRECTION towards the direction behind you *She took a couple of steps backwards.* **2** EARLIER towards an earlier time or an earlier stage of development *Let's start with your most recent job and* ***work backwards.*** **3** OPPOSITE ORDER in the opposite order to what is usual *"Erehwon" is "nowhere" spelled backwards.* **4** WRONG WAY (*also UK* **back to front**) with the part that is usually at the front at the back *You've got your skirt on backwards.* **5 backwards and forwards** *UK* (*UK/US* **back and forth**) in one direction then the opposite way and back again many times *I have to drive backwards and forwards between here and Ipswich every day.* **6 bend over backwards** to try extremely hard to help or to please someone [+ **to do sth**] *She bent over backwards to help him.*

backyard /ˌbækˈjɑːd/ *noun* [C] *US* the area behind a house

bacon /ˈbeɪkᵊn/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** meat from a pig cut into long thin slices

bacteria /bækˈtɪəriə/ *noun* [plural] **BIOLOGY** very small living things that sometimes cause disease ●**bacterial** *adjective* made from or caused by bacteria ***bacterial infections***

bacteriophage /bækˈtɪəriəʊfeɪdʒ/ (*also* **phage**) *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a virus (= organism that causes disease) that grows and divides inside a bacterium, destroying it

bacterium /bækˈtɪəriəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bacteria** **BIOLOGY** a very small organism that can sometimes cause disease

bad /bæd/ *adjective* **worse**, **worst** **1** NOT PLEASANT not pleasant ***bad weather*** ○ ***bad news*** ○ *My phone bill was even worse than I'd expected.* ○ *He's in a bad mood today.* **2** LOW QUALITY of low quality *bad behaviour* ○ *The service was really bad.* ○ *He's always been* ***bad at*** *maths.* **3** SEVERE very serious or severe *a bad injury* ○ *the worst flooding for years* **4** NOT LUCKY not lucky, not convenient, or not happening how you would like *It was just* ***bad luck*** *that she heard us.* ○ *Is this a bad time to ask?* **5 not bad** satisfactory *"There are about 10 people in a group." "Oh well, that's not bad."* ○ *That's* ***not bad for*** *such a small company.* **6 be bad for sb/sth** to be harmful for someone or something *Looking at a computer screen for too long can be bad for your eyes.* **7 feel bad about sth/doing sth** to feel guilty or sorry about something that has happened *I felt bad about letting her down.* **8 too bad a** SYMPATHY *mainly US informal* used to say that you are sorry about a situation *"He didn't get the job." "Oh, that's too bad."* **b** CANNOT CHANGE *informal* used to say that nothing can be done to change a situation *I know you don't want to go but it's too bad, we have to.* **9** EVIL evil *She's a really bad person.* **10 FOOD** Bad food is not fresh and cannot be eaten. **11** PAINFUL [**always before noun**] If you have a bad arm, leg, heart, etc, there is something wrong with it and it is painful. ➲See also: bad **blood**, be in sb's good/bad books (**book**[1])

ˌbad ˈdebt *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** a debt that is not likely to be paid

baddie /ˈbædi/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK informal* a bad person in a film, book, etc

bade /bæd/ *past tense of* bid[3]

badge /bædʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** NAME a piece of plastic, metal, etc which you wear on your clothes showing your name or the organization you work for **2** DECORATION *UK* (*US* **button**) a piece of plastic, metal, etc with words or pictures on it that you wear on your clothes for decoration

badger /ˈbædʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] a wild animal with thick black and white fur that lives under the ground and comes out at night

badly /ˈbædli/ *adverb* **worse**, **worst** **1** SERIOUSLY very seriously *badly damaged/injured* **2** UNPLEASANT in a way that is of low quality or in an unpleasant way *to behave badly* ○ *They played badly in the first half.*

badminton /ˈbædmɪntən/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport for two or four people in which you hit a shuttlecock (= a light object with feathers) over a net

bad-tempered /ˌbædˈtempəd/ *adjective* a bad-tempered person gets angry or annoyed easily *'Sam's been bad-tempered recently, is something worrying him?'*

baffle /ˈbæfl/ *verb* [T] If something baffles you, you cannot understand it at all. [**often passive**] *The police were baffled by his disappearance.*

bag[1] /bæg/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER a container made of paper, plastic, etc, used for carrying things *a paper/plastic bag* ○ *He* ***packed*** *his* ***bags*** *and left.* **2** FOR WOMAN (*also* **handbag**) *mainly UK* a bag with handles in which a woman carries her money, keys, etc **3** AMOUNT the amount a bag contains *It doesn't weigh more than a couple of bags of sugar.* **4 bags of sth** *mainly UK informal* a large amount of something *There's bags of room.* **5 bags** Bags under your eyes are areas of loose or dark skin. ➲See also: **carrier bag,** let the **cat** out of the bag, **shoulder bag, sleeping bag, tote bag**

bag[2] /bæg/ *verb* [T] **bagging,** *past* **bagged** *informal* to get something, especially before other people have a chance to take it *Bag us some decent seats.*

bagel /ˈbeɪgᵊl/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a type of bread made in the shape of a ring

baggage /ˈbægɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **1** BAGS all the cases and bags that you take with you when you travel *baggage reclaim* **2** FEELINGS feelings and experiences from the past that influence how you think and behave now *emotional baggage*

baggy /ˈbægi/ *adjective* Baggy clothes are big and loose.

bagpipes /ˈbægpaɪps/ *noun* [plural] **MUSIC** a Scottish musical instrument that is played by blowing air into a bag and forcing it through pipes

baguette /bægˈet/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a French-style loaf of bread that is long and thin and white *a ham and cheese baguette*

bail[1] /beɪl/ *noun* [U] **LAW** when money is paid to a court so that someone can be released from prison until their trial *He was* ***released on bail.*** ○ *She was* ***granted bail.***

bail[2] /beɪl/ *verb* **be bailed** **LAW** If someone is bailed until a particular time, they can leave prison until then if they pay money to the

court.
bail sb out *phrasal verb* **1** to help a person or organization by giving them money *Companies can't expect the government to keep bailing them out.* **2** LAW to pay money to a court so that someone can be released from prison until their trial

bailiff /ˈbeɪlɪf/ *noun* [C] **1** *UK* someone whose job is to take away things people own when they owe money **2** LAW *US* someone whose job is to guard prisoners in a court

bailout /ˈbeɪlaʊt/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* FINANCE when a company is given money to solve its financial problems

bait¹ /beɪt/ *noun* [U, no plural] **1** SPORT food that is used to try to attract fish or animals so that you can catch them **2** something that you use to persuade someone to do something

bait² /beɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** SPORT to put food in or on something to try to catch fish or animals *a mouse trap baited with cheese* **2** to try to make someone angry by laughing at them or criticizing them

bake /beɪk/ *verb* [I, T] FOOD to cook something such as bread or a cake with dry heat in an oven *a baked apple* ➲See picture at **cook**

ˌbaked ˈbeans *noun* [plural] FOOD beans cooked in a tomato (= soft, round, red fruit used like a vegetable) sauce and sold in tins (= metal containers)

ˌbaked poˈtato *noun* [C] FOOD a potato baked and served with the skin (= outer layer) still on

baker /ˈbeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who makes and sells bread, cakes, etc *Can you call at **the baker's** and get a loaf of bread?*

bakery /ˈbeɪkəʳri/ *noun* [C] a shop where you can buy bread, cakes, etc

baking /ˈbeɪkɪŋ/ *adjective informal* Baking weather is very hot.

balalaika /ˌbæləˈlaɪkə/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a type of musical instrument with three strings, played especially in Russia

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***balance***

1 keep/lose your balance ● **knock/throw** sb off balance ● sb's **sense of** balance
2 find/maintain/strike a balance ● **redress** the balance ● a **delicate** balance ● a balance **between** sth and sth

balance¹ /ˈbæləns/ *noun* **1** WEIGHT [U] when the weight of someone or something is spread in such a way that they do not fall over *I **lost my balance** and fell off the bike.* ○ *The force of the explosion threw him **off balance*** (= it was difficult for him to stay standing). **2** EQUAL [U, no plural] when the correct amount of importance is given to each thing so that a situation is successful *We hope to **strike a balance between** police powers and the protection of citizens.* ➲Opposite **imbalance** **3** FAIR [U] when you consider all the facts in a fair way *I felt his report lacked balance.* **4 on balance** used to give your opinion after you have considered all the facts about something *On balance, I'd prefer a woman dentist to a man.* **5** FINANCE [C] the amount of money that you still have to pay, or that you have left to use [usually singular] *I always pay off the balance on my credit card each month.* **6 be/hang in the balance** If something hangs in the balance, nobody knows if it will continue to exist in the future or what will happen to it. *After a bad year, Judd's career hung in the balance.*

balance² /ˈbæləns/ *verb* **1** NOT FALL [I, T] to be in a position where you will not fall to either side, or to put something in this position *She was trying to balance a book on her head.* **2** IMPORTANCE [T] to give the correct amount of importance to each thing so that a situation is successful *I struggle to balance work and family commitments.* **3 balance the books/budget** FINANCE to make sure that you do not spend more money than you get
balance sth against sth *phrasal verb* to compare the advantages and disadvantages of something *The ecological effects of the factory need to be balanced against the employment it provides.*

balanced /ˈbælənst/ *adjective* **1** considering all the facts in a fair way *a balanced discussion of his work* **2** FOOD **a balanced diet/meal** a healthy mixture of different kinds of food ➲See also: **well-balanced**

ˌbalanced eˈquation *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical equation that has the same number of each type of atom on the left and right sides

ˌbalance of ˈpayments *noun* [no plural] *mainly UK* ECONOMICS the difference between how much a country pays to other countries and how much it gets paid by other countries

ˌbalance of ˈpower *noun* [no plural] POLITICS the way in which power is divided between different people or groups *maintaining the balance of power in the European Union*

ˌbalance of ˈtrade *noun* [C usually singular] ECONOMICS the difference in value between exports (= goods sold abroad) and imports (= goods bought from abroad)

ˈbalance ˌsheet *noun* [C] FINANCE a document that shows what a company has earned and what it has spent

balcony /ˈbælkəni/ *noun* [C] **1** HOUSE a small area joined to the wall outside a room on a high level where you can stand or sit **2** THEATRE the seats in an upper area of a theatre

bald /bɔːld/ *adjective* **1** NO HAIR with little or no hair *John started to **go bald** at an early age.* ○ *I've got a **bald patch/spot**.* **2** INFORMATION [always before noun] Bald facts or ways of saying things are very clear and are not intended to comfort you. ●**baldness** *noun* [U]

balding /ˈbɔːldɪŋ/ *adjective* becoming bald

baldly /ˈbɔːldli/ *adverb* If you say something baldly, you say it in a very clear way which may upset the person you are speaking to. *"I don't love you any more," he said baldly.*

bale /beɪl/ *noun* [C] a large amount of something such as paper, cloth, or hay (= dried grass), that is tied together so that it can be stored or moved

baleful /ˈbeɪlfəl/ *adjective formal* evil or angry *a baleful look*

balk (*also UK* **baulk**) /bɔːlk/ (US) /bɔːk/ *verb* [I] to not want to do something that is unpleasant or difficult *Most people* ***balk at*** *paying these kind of prices for clothes.*

ball /bɔːl/ *noun* [C] **1** ROUND OBJECT a round object that you throw, kick, or hit in a game, or something with this shape *a tennis ball* ○ *a ball of string* **2** DANCE a large formal occasion where people dance **3 have a ball** *informal* to enjoy yourself very much **4 be on the ball** *informal* to be quick to understand and react to things **5 set/start the ball rolling** to begin an activity that involves a group of people *I've started the ball rolling by setting up a series of meetings.* ➲See also: **ball game, crystal ball**

ballad /ˈbæləd/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE, MUSIC** a song that tells a story, especially about love

ballerina /ˌbælᵊrˈiːnə/ *noun* [C] a female ballet dancer

ballet /ˈbæleɪ/ (US) /bælˈeɪ/ *noun* **1** DANCING [U] a type of dancing that is done in a theatre and tells a story, usually with music **2** PERFORMANCE [C] a particular story or performance of ballet dancing **3** DANCERS [C] a group of ballet dancers who work together *the Royal Ballet*

ˈball ˌgame *noun* [C] **1 SPORT** *US* a game of baseball (= where teams hit a ball and run round four fixed points), basketball (= where teams throw a ball through a high net), or American football **2 a whole new ball game** *informal* (*also* **a different ball game**) a completely different situation from how things were before *We'd been climbing in Scotland, but the Himalayas were a whole new ball game.*

ballistic /bəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* **go ballistic** *informal* to suddenly become very angry

balloon¹ /bəˈluːn/ *noun* [C] a small coloured rubber bag that you fill with air to play with or to use as a decoration *Could you help me to* ***blow up*** *some* ***balloons?*** ➲See also: **hot-air balloon**

balloon² /bəˈluːn/ *verb* [I] to suddenly become much larger *I ballooned to 14 stone when I had my second baby.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ballot***

hold a ballot ● a ballot **on** sth ● be **on** a ballot ● (*UK*) ballot **papers** ● a ballot **box**

ballot¹ /ˈbælət/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** a secret written vote *to* ***hold a ballot*** ○ *She was the only candidate* ***on the ballot*** (= available to vote for). ○ *UK* ***ballot papers*** ○ *a* ***ballot box*** (= box where votes are collected)

ballot² /ˈbælət/ *verb* [T] *mainly UK* **POLITICS** to ask people to vote in a ballot so that you can find out their opinion about something *In July he will* ***ballot*** *his members* ***on*** *how they want to proceed.*

ballpark /ˈbɔːlpɑːk/ *noun* **1 SPORT** [C] *US* a place where baseball (= game where teams hit a ball and run round four fixed points) is played and watched **2 ballpark estimate/figure** a number or amount that is not exact but should be near the correct number or amount *$3 million would be a ballpark figure for sales next year.*

ballpoint pen /ˌbɔːlpɔɪntˈpen/ *noun* [C] a pen with a very small ball in the end that rolls ink onto the paper

ballroom /ˈbɔːlruːm/ *noun* [C] a large room where dances are held

bamboo /bæmˈbuː/ *noun* [C, U] a tall plant with hard hollow stems, often used for making furniture

ban¹ /bæn/ *verb* [T] **banning,** *past* **banned** to officially say that someone must not do something *A lot of people think boxing should be banned.* [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *Ian's been banned from driving for 2 years.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ban***

impose/introduce/lift a ban ● a **blanket/complete/outright/total** ban ● a ban **on** (doing) sth

ban² /bæn/ *noun* [C] an official rule that people must not do or use something *There is a* ***ban on*** *developing land around the city.*

banal /bəˈnɑːl/ *adjective* ordinary and not exciting *banal pop songs*

banana /bəˈnɑːnə/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a long, curved fruit with a yellow skin ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

band¹ /bænd/ *noun* [C] **1 MUSIC** a group of musicians who play modern music together *a jazz band* **2** LINE a line of a different colour or design *The band of lighter coloured soil marks the position of the fort.* **3** CIRCLE a piece of material put around something *an* ***elastic band*** **4** PEOPLE a group of people who do something together *the Cathedral's band of regular worshippers* **5** PART *UK* one of the groups that something is divided into *the 20-25 age band* ➲See also: **elastic band, rubber band**

band² /bænd/ *verb*
band together *phrasal verb* to work with other people in order to achieve something *Companies banded together to keep prices high.* ➲Opposite **disband**

bandage¹ /ˈbændɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a long piece of soft cloth that you tie around an injured part of the body

bandage² /ˈbændɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to put a bandage around a wound or injury

Band-Aid /ˈbændeɪd/ *US trademark* (*UK* **plaster**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a small piece of cloth or plastic that sticks to your skin to cover and protect a small wound

bandit /ˈbændɪt/ *noun* [C] a thief who attacks people who are travelling in a wild place

bandwagon /ˈbænd,wægən/ *noun* **get/jump on the bandwagon** to become involved in an activity which is successful so that you can get the advantages of it yourself *Publishers are rushing to get on the CD-ROM bandwagon.*

bandwidth /ˈbændwɪtθ/ *noun* [usually no plural] **COMPUTING** the amount of information per second that can move between computers connected by a telephone wire

bang¹ /bæŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** NOISE a sudden loud noise *The door slammed with a deafening bang.* **2** HIT when you suddenly hit part of your body on something hard *a nasty bang on the head* **3 go out with a bang** *informal* If

someone or something goes out with a bang, they stop existing or doing something in an exciting way. **4 more bang for your buck(s)** *US informal* the best result for the smallest effort

bang² /bæŋ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** NOISE to make a loud noise, especially by hitting something against something hard *We heard the door bang.* ○ *Ben banged his fist on the desk.* **2** HIT to hit part of your body against something hard *Ted fell and banged his head.* ➲See also: be banging your **head**¹ against a brick wall

bang³ /bæŋ/ *adverb UK informal* exactly *The books were piled up **slap bang** in the middle of the kitchen table.* ○ *The curtain rose **bang on time**.*

banger /ˈbæŋəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* **1** an old car that is in a bad condition **2** FOOD a sausage (= tube of meat and spices)

bangle /ˈbæŋgl/ *noun* [C] a circle of stiff plastic, metal etc that people wear around the arm as jewellery

bangs /bæŋz/ *noun* [plural] *US* (*UK* **fringe** [C]) hair that is cut short and straight at the top of someone's face

banish /ˈbænɪʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** LAW to send someone away from a place, often as a punishment [often passive] *He was **banished to** a remote Alaskan island.* **2** to make yourself stop thinking about something or feeling a particular way *Banish winter blues with a holiday in the sun!*

banister /ˈbænɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a long piece of wood that you can hold as you go up or down stairs

banjo /ˈbændʒəʊ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a musical instrument like a guitar with a round body

O-key **bank¹** /bæŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** FINANCE an organization or place where you can borrow money, save money, etc *Most banks are reluctant to lend money to new businesses.* **2** RIVER the land along the side of a river *We found a shady spot on the river bank.* **3** STORE a place where a supply of something can be kept until it is needed *a blood bank* **4** PILE a large pile of snow, sand, or soil ➲See also: **bottle bank, merchant bank, piggy bank**

bank² /bæŋk/ *verb* **1** FINANCE [I, T] to put or keep money in a bank *to bank a cheque* ○ *Who do you **bank with**?* ○ *I **bank at** the First National Bank.* **2** [I] When a plane banks, it flies with one wing higher than the other when turning. **bank on sb/sth** *phrasal verb* to depend on someone doing something or something happening *Chrissie might arrive on time, but I wouldn't bank on it.*

ˈbank aˌccount *noun* [C] FINANCE an arrangement with a bank to keep your money there and take it out when you need to

ˈbank ˌbalance *noun* [C] FINANCE the amount of money in a bank account

ˈbank ˌcharges *noun* [usually plural] FINANCE sums of money paid by a customer for a bank's services

banker /ˈbæŋkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who has an important job in a bank

ˌbanker's ˈorder *noun* [C] FINANCE a standing order (= instruction to the bank to pay someone a regular amount of money)

ˌbank ˈholiday *noun* [C] *UK* an official holiday when all banks and most shops and offices are closed *Spring bank holiday*

banking /ˈbæŋkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS, FINANCE the business of operating a bank

banknote /ˈbæŋknəʊt/ *mainly UK* (*US* **bill**) *noun* [C] ECONOMICS a piece of paper money

ˈbank ˌrate *noun* [C] ECONOMICS the amount of interest that a bank charges when it lends money

ˈbank reconciliˌation *noun* [C, U] FINANCE the process of checking a business's accounts (= financial records) against a bank statement (= record from the bank of money paid and received)

bankrupt¹ /ˈbæŋkrʌpt/ *adjective* FINANCE unable to continue in business because you cannot pay your debts *He **went bankrupt** after only a year in business.*

bankrupt² /ˈbæŋkrʌpt/ *verb* [T] FINANCE to make someone bankrupt

bankruptcy /ˈbæŋkrəptsi/ *noun* [C, U] FINANCE when a person or organization becomes bankrupt *Factories that continue to make losses could soon face bankruptcy.*

ˈbank ˌstatement *noun* [C] FINANCE a piece of paper that shows how much money you have put into your bank account and how much you have taken out

ˈbank ˌstatement *noun* [C] FINANCE a printed record of the money put into and removed from a bank account

banner /ˈbænəʳ/ *noun* [C] a long piece of cloth, often stretched between poles, with words or a sign written on it

ˈbanner ˌad *noun* [C] INTERNET an advertisement that appears across the top of a page on the Internet

banquet /ˈbæŋkwɪt/ *noun* [C] FOOD a large formal dinner for a lot of people

banter /ˈbæntəʳ/ *noun* [U] conversation which is funny and not serious

baptism /ˈbæptɪzᵊm/ *noun* [C, U] RELIGION a Christian ceremony in which water is put on someone to show that they are a member of the Church

Baptist /ˈbæptɪst/ *adjective* RELIGION belonging or relating to a Christian group which only believes in baptism for people who are old enough to understand what it means *the Baptist Church* ●**Baptist** *noun* [C]

baptize (*also UK* **-ise**) /bæpˈtaɪz/ (US) /ˈbæptaɪz/ *verb* [T] RELIGION to perform a baptism ceremony for someone

O-key **bar¹** /bɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** DRINKING a place where alcoholic drinks are sold and drunk, or the area behind the person serving the drinks *I met him in a bar in Soho.* **2** BLOCK a small block of something solid *a chocolate bar* ○ *gold bars* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **3** LONG PIECE a long, thin piece of metal or wood *There were bars on the downstairs windows.* **4** PREVENTING SUCCESS *UK* something

that prevents you doing something or having something *Lack of money should not be* ***a bar to*** *a good education.* **5** MUSIC one of the short, equal groups of notes that a piece of music is divided into *The band played the first few bars.* **6** GEOGRAPHY a long area of sand, soil or stones in the sea but close to land or joining two pieces of land **7 the bar** LAW lawyers (= people whose job is to know about the law and deal with legal situations) thought of as a group *Haughey was* ***called to the bar*** (= became a lawyer) in 1949. **8 behind bars** in prison

bar² /bɑːʳ/ *verb* [T] **barring,** *past* **barred 1** LAW to officially prevent someone doing something or going somewhere, or to prevent something happening [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *The court barred him from contacting his former wife.* **2** KEEP OUT to stop someone going into a place *A line of policemen barred the entrance to the camp.* **3** CLOSE to close and lock a door or gate

bar³ /bɑːʳ/ *preposition* **1** except *I've read all her books,* ***bar one.*** **2 bar none** used to emphasize that someone or something is the best *the best suspense writer going, bar none*

barbarian /bɑːˈbeərɪən/ *noun* [C] someone who behaves in a way which shows they are not well educated and do not care about the feelings of others

barbaric /bɑːˈbærɪk/ *adjective* violent and cruel *a barbaric act of violence* ●**barbarically** *adverb*

barbecue¹ /ˈbɑːbɪkjuː/ *noun* [C] FOOD **1** a party at which you cook food over a fire outdoors **2** a metal frame for cooking food over a fire outdoors

barbecue² /ˈbɑːbɪkjuː/ *verb* [I, T] **barbecuing,** *past* **barbecued** FOOD to cook food on a barbecue *barbecued chicken wings*

barbed wire /ˌbɑːbdˈwaɪəʳ/ *noun* [U] strong wire with short, sharp points on it to keep people out of a place *a barbed wire fence*

barber /ˈbɑːbəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to cut men's hair *Dad goes to* ***the barber's*** (= the barber's shop) *once a month.*

ˈbar ˌchart (*also* **bar graph**) *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a graph (= mathematical picture showing measurements) in which different amounts are shown by thick lines of different heights or lengths ➲See Extra help page **Graphs and charts** on page Centre 21.

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bar code

ˈbar ˌcode *noun* [C] COMPUTING a row of black lines on something you buy, that a computer reads to find the price

bare¹ /beəʳ/ *adjective* **1** NO CLOTHES not covered by clothes *a bare chest* ○ *She ran out into the road* ***in her bare feet.*** **2** NOT COVERED not covered by anything *bare floorboards* **3** EMPTY empty *a bare room* ○ *The cupboard was bare.* **4** BASIC including only the smallest amount that you need of something *The report just gave us the barest facts about the accident.* ○ *Tony's salary only covers* ***the bare essentials*** *for the family.* ➲See also: with your bare hands (**hand¹**)

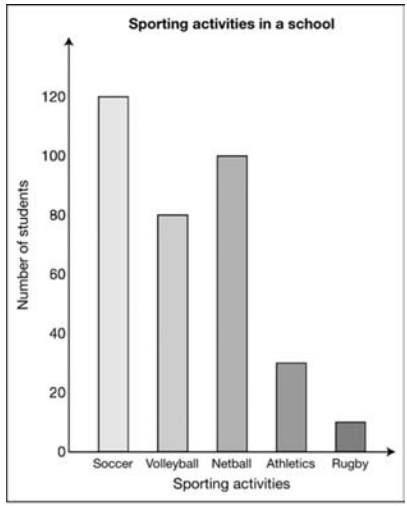

bar chart

bare² /beəʳ/ *verb* [T] to take away the thing that is covering something so that it can be seen *He bared his chest.* ○ *The dog bared its teeth.*

barefoot /beəˈfʊt/ *adjective, adverb* not wearing any shoes or socks *They ran barefoot along the wet beach.*

ˌbare inˈfinitive *noun* [C] LANGUAGE in grammar, the infinitive form of a verb without the word 'to'

barely /ˈbeəli/ *adverb* only just *He was barely alive when they found him.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bargain***

get/pick up/snap up a bargain ● a bargain **price** ● bargain **hunting**

bargain¹ /ˈbɑːgɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** FINANCE something that is sold for less than its usual price or its real value *At $8.95, it's a bargain.* **2** AGREEMENT when you agree to something someone else wants so that they will agree to something you want *They were prepared to* ***strike a bargain*** *to avoid more fighting.* **3 into the bargain** *mainly UK* as well as everything else *Caffeine has no good effects on health and is mildly addictive into the bargain.*

bargain² /ˈbɑːgɪn/ *verb* [I] to try to make someone agree to something better for you *Do not hesitate to* ***bargain over*** *the price.*
bargain for/on sth *phrasal verb* to expect or be prepared for something *We hadn't bargained on such a long wait.* ○ *The stormy weather proved to be* ***more than*** *anybody* ***bargained for.***

barge¹ /bɑːdʒ/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow boat with a flat bottom that is used to carry goods

barge² /bɑːdʒ/ *verb informal* **barge past/through/ahead, etc** to walk somewhere quickly, pushing people or things out of the way *Fred barged through the crowd.*
barge in/barge into sth *phrasal verb* to walk into a room quickly and without being invited

baritone /ˈbærɪtəʊn/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a man who sings in a voice that is quite low

barium /ˈbeəriəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a soft, silver-white metal element (symbol **Ba**)

bark¹ /bɑːk/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [U] the hard substance that covers the surface of a tree **2** [C] the sound that a dog makes

bark² /bɑːk/ *verb* **1** DOG [I] If a dog barks, it makes loud, short sounds. **2** SHOUT [I, T] to say something loudly and quickly *I'm sorry, I had no right to bark at you like that.*

barley /ˈbɑːli/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a type of grain used for making food and alcoholic drinks

barmaid /ˈbɑːmeɪd/ *UK* (*US* **bartender**) *noun* [C] a woman who serves drinks in a bar

barman /ˈbɑːmən/ *UK* (*US* **bartender**) *noun* [C] *plural* **barmen** a man who serves drinks in a bar

bar mitzvah /ˌbɑːˈmɪtsvə/ *noun* [**usually no plural**] **RELIGION** a religious ceremony for a Jewish boy when he reaches the age of 13

barmy /ˈbɑːmi/ *adjective UK informal* crazy or silly *What a barmy idea!*

barn /bɑːn/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a large building on a farm where crops or animals can be kept

barometer /bəˈrɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** OPINION a way of showing what people think or what the quality of something is *Car sales are viewed as* ***a barometer of*** *consumer confidence.* **2** WEATHER a piece of equipment that measures air pressure (= the force of the air) and shows when the weather will change

baron /ˈbærᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** **SOCIETY** a man of high social rank in the UK and other parts of Europe **2** a man who owns or controls a lot of a particular industry *a wealthy media baron*

baroness /ˈbærᵊnes/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a woman of the same rank as a baron or married to a baron, or a title given to a woman in the UK who has earned official respect *Baroness Thatcher*

baroque /bəˈrɒk/ *adjective* relating to the style of art, building, and music that was popular in Europe in the 17th and early 18th century, and which had a lot of decoration

barracks /ˈbærəks/ *noun* [C] *plural* **barracks** a group of buildings where soldiers live

barrage /ˈbæraːdʒ/ (US) /bəˈraːdʒ/ *noun* **1** **a barrage of sth** a lot of questions, complaints, or criticisms *He faced a barrage of questions about his decision to leave the show.* **2** [C] a continuous attack with several big guns

barrel /ˈbærᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** LIQUIDS a large, round container for storing liquids such as oil or wine **2** GUN the tube in a gun that the bullet shoots out of

barren /ˈbærᵊn/ *adjective* **1** **FARMING** Land that is barren does not produce crops. **2** *old-fashioned* A woman who is barren cannot have children. ●**barrenness** *noun* [U]

barricade¹ /ˌbærɪˈkeɪd/ *noun* [C] something that is quickly put across a road or entrance to prevent people from going past

barricade² /ˌbærɪˈkeɪd/ *verb* [T] to build a barricade somewhere [**often reflexive**] *They barricaded themselves in the building* (= built a barricade so that nobody could get to them).

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***barrier***

act as/be/create/serve as a barrier **to** sth ● **break through/overcome/remove** a barrier ● **the biggest/the main/a major** barrier ● [age/size, etc] is **no** barrier to sth ●

barrier /ˈbæriəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** FENCE a type of fence that prevents people from going into an area *Police erected barriers to hold back the crowd.* **2** LIMIT something that prevents people from doing what they want to do *Shyness is a big* ***barrier to*** *making friends.* ➲See also: **crash barrier**

barring /ˈbɑːrɪŋ/ *preposition* if something does not happen *We should arrive at about five o'clock, barring accidents.*

barrister /ˈbærɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** in the UK, a lawyer (= someone whose job is to know about the law and deal with legal situations) who can work in the highest courts ➲See Common Learner Error at **lawyer**

barrow /ˈbærəʊ/ *UK* (*UK/US* **wheelbarrow**) a big, open container with a wheel at the front and handles that is used to move things, especially around in a garden

bartender /ˈbɑːˌtendəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **barman/barmaid**) *noun* [C] someone who serves drinks in a bar

barter /ˈbɑːtəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to exchange goods or services for other goods or services, without using money

basalt /ˈbæsɒlt/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a type of black rock that comes from a volcano (= mountain that explodes with hot, melted rock)

base¹ /beɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** BOTTOM the bottom part of something, or the part something rests on *I felt a sharp pain at the base of my thumb.* **2** MAIN PART the most important part of something, from which other things can develop *a solid economic base* **3** PLACE the main place where a person lives or works, or from where they do things *Keswick is an excellent base for exploring the Lake District.* **4** ARMY a place where people in the army or navy live and work *an American Air Force base* **5** ORGANIZATION the place where the main work of an organization is done *The company's European base is in Frankfurt.* **6** SUBSTANCE the main substance in a mixture *paints with an oil base* **7** **SPORT** one of the four places in baseball that a player must run to in order to win a point **8** **CHEMISTRY** a chemical substance with a pH (= measure of how acid something is) of more than 7 **9** **MATHEMATICS** a number that is used as the most important unit in a system of counting *The binary system of counting uses*

B

base 2. **10 be off base** *US informal* to be wrong *In 1893, many of the forecasts about 1993 were way off base.* **11 touch/cover all the bases** *mainly US* to deal with every part of a situation or activity

base² /beɪs/ *verb* **be based at/in, etc** If you are based at/in, etc a particular place, that is the main place where you live or work. *The company is based in Geneva.*
base sth on/upon sth *phrasal verb* If you base something on facts or ideas, you use those facts or ideas to develop it. *Her latest TV serial is based on a true story.*

baseball /ˈbeɪsbɔːl/ *noun* **SPORT 1** [U] a game in which two teams try to win points by hitting a ball and running around four fixed points **2** [C] the ball used in this game ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

ˈ**baseball ˌcap** *noun* [C] a type of hat with a long flat piece at the front to protect the eyes from the sun ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

ˈ**base ˌcamp** *noun* [C] the place from which people go to climb mountains

basement /ˈbeɪsmənt/ *noun* [C] a room or set of rooms that is below ground level in a building

ˈ**base ˌmetal** *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a common metal such as lead or copper which is not a precious metal (= valuable metal like gold)

ˈ**base ˌrate** *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** a rate (= level of payment) decided by the Bank of England which banks use when deciding how much to charge for lending money

bases /ˈbeɪsiːz/ *plural of* basis

bash¹ /bæʃ/ *verb* [T] *informal* **1** to hit someone or something hard *I bashed my arm on the car door as I got out.* **2 immigrant-bashing/lawyer-bashing/union-bashing, etc** when particular groups are criticized strongly and unfairly

bash² /bæʃ/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** PARTY a party **2** HIT a hard hit on something *a bash on the nose* **3 have a bash (at sth)** *UK informal* to try to do something *I've never been water-skiing but I'd love to have a bash at it.*

bashful /ˈbæʃfᵊl/ *adjective* shy and easily embarrassed ●**bashfully** *adverb*

basic /ˈbeɪsɪk/ *adjective* **1** MAIN [**always before noun**] being the main or most important part of something *basic ideas/principles* **2** NECESSARY including or providing only the things that are most necessary *basic training/services/skills* **3** SIMPLE very simple, with nothing special added *My software is pretty basic.*

basically /ˈbeɪsɪkᵊli/ *adverb* **1** MOST IMPORTANTLY in the most important ways *Frazier's films are basically documentaries.* ○ *The two PCs are basically the same.* **2** SIMPLY used to introduce a short explanation about something *Basically, what he's saying is that we need more time.*

the basics /ˈbeɪsɪks/ *noun* the most important facts, skills, or needs *the basics of computer technology*

basil /ˈbæzᵊl/ (US) /ˈbeɪzᵊl/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a herb with a sweet smell

basin /ˈbeɪsᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** BOWL *mainly UK* a bowl for liquids or food *a basin of water* **2** BATHROOM *UK* (*UK/US* **sink**) the bowl that is fixed to the wall in a bathroom, where you can wash your hands and face **3 GEOGRAPHY** a low area of land from which water flows into a river

basis /ˈbeɪsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bases** /ˈbeɪsiːz/ **1 on a daily/monthly/regular, etc basis** how often something happens or is done *Meetings are held on a weekly basis.* **2 on a commercial/full-time/percentage, etc basis** the way something happens or is organized *We will consider claims for asylum on a case by case basis.* **3** REASON the reason for something *Marks are awarded* ***on the basis of*** *progress and performance.* ○ *There is no legal basis for his claim.* **4** DEVELOPMENT a situation, fact, or idea from which something can develop *Dani's essay can serve as* ***a basis for*** *our discussion.*

bask /bɑːsk/ *verb* [I] to sit or lie in a place that is warm *Seals basked on the rocks.*
bask in sth *phrasal verb* to enjoy the way other people admire you *They basked in the glory victory had brought them.*

basket /ˈbɑːskɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** a container with a handle made of thin pieces of wood, wire, plastic, etc *a shopping basket* **2 SPORT** when a player throws the ball through the net in basketball ➲See also: **wastepaper basket**

basketball /ˈbɑːskɪtbɔːl/ *noun* **SPORT 1** [U] a game in which two teams try to win points by throwing a ball through a high net **2** [C] the large ball used in the game of basketball ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

basmati (rice) /bəˌsmɑːtiˈraɪs/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a type of South Asian rice with long grains

bass /beɪs/ *noun* **MUSIC 1** [C] a man who sings with a very low voice **2** [U] the lower half of the set of musical notes **3** [C, U] (*also* **double bass**) a large, wooden musical instrument with four strings that you play while standing up or sitting on a high chair **4** [C, U] (*also* ˌ**bass guiˈtar**) an electric guitar that makes a low sound

bassoon /bəˈsuːn/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a long, wooden musical instrument that you blow through to make a low sound

bastard /ˈbɑːstəd/ *noun* [C] **1** MAN an offensive word for a man you do not like **2** CHILD *old-fashioned* an offensive word for a child whose parents are not married

bastion /ˈbæstiən/ *noun* [C] a place, organization, etc where particular ideas or ways of doing things are protected *the last bastion of male chauvinism*

bat¹ /bæt/ *noun* [C] **1 SPORT** a piece of wood used to hit the ball in some sports **2** a small animal like a mouse with wings that flies at night

bat² /bæt/ *verb* [I] **batting**, *past* **batted SPORT** to try to hit a ball with a bat *Rimmer batted well for Oxford.* ➲See also: not bat an **eyelid**

batch /bætʃ/ *noun* [C] a group of things or people that are dealt with at the same time or are similar in type *the university's first* ***batch of*** *students* ○ *Fry the aubergines in batches.*

ˈbatch ˌfile *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a group of commands for a computer that are kept together in one file

ˌbatch ˈprocessing *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** when a computer does several jobs one after the other

ˈbatch proˌduction *noun* [U] in business, the production of a group of products together

bated /ˈbeɪtɪd/ *adjective* ➲See: with bated **breath**

O-K **bath¹** /bɑːθ/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER *UK* (*US* **bathtub**) the container that you sit or lie in to wash your body ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **2** WASH when you wash your body in a bath, or the water in the bath [**usually singular**] *I'll just **have a** quick **bath**.* ○ *UK She **ran** herself **a bath*** (= filled a bath with water).

bath² /bɑːθ/ *verb* [I, T] *UK* to wash yourself or someone else in a bath *Emma usually baths the kids about seven o'clock.*

bathe /beɪð/ *verb* **1** WASH YOURSELF [I, T] to wash yourself or someone else in a bath *As a rule, I bathe every day.* **2** PART OF BODY [T] to wash part of someone's body, often because it is hurt *Bathe your eye with cool salty water.* **3** SWIM [I] *old-fashioned* to swim **4 be bathed in light** to look attractive in a beautiful light *The mountain was bathed in red-gold light from the setting sun.*

ˈbathing ˌsuit *noun* [C] a piece of clothing that you wear to swim in

bathrobe /ˈbɑːθrəʊb/ *noun* [C] a soft coat that you wear before or after a bath

O-K **bathroom** /ˈbɑːθruːm/ *noun* [C] **1** a room with a bath, sink (= bowl for washing), and often a toilet ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **2 go to the bathroom** *US* to use the toilet ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

bathtub /ˈbɑːθtʌb/ *US* (*UK* **bath**) *noun* [C] the container that you sit or lie in to wash your body ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

batik /bætˈiːk/ *noun* [U] **ART** a method of printing patterns on cloth, in which wax is put on the cloth before it has colour put on it

bat mitzvah /ˌbætˈmɪtsvə/ *noun* [**usually singular**] **RELIGION** a religious ceremony for a Jewish girl when she reaches the age of 12 or 13

baton /ˈbætᵊn/ (US) /bəˈtɑːn/ *noun* [C] **1 MUSIC** a thin stick used to control the rhythm of a group of musicians **2** a thick stick that a police officer uses as a weapon **3 SPORT** a stick that a runner passes to the next person in a race

batsman /ˈbætsmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **batsmen** *UK* **SPORT** the person who is trying to hit the ball in cricket ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

battalion /bəˈtæliən/ *noun* [C] a large group of soldiers made from several smaller groups

batter¹ /ˈbætəʳ/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [U] a mixture of flour, milk, and often eggs used to make cakes and pancakes (= thin fried cakes), and to cover fish, etc before it is fried **2 SPORT** [C] the person who is trying to hit the ball in baseball ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

batter² /ˈbætəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to hit someone or something repeatedly very hard *If you don't open up we'll **batter** the door **down**.* ○ *Waves **battered against** the rocks.*

battered /ˈbætəd/ *adjective* old and not in very good condition *a battered copy of her favourite novel*

battering /ˈbætərɪŋ/ *noun* [C] when someone or something is hit repeatedly, criticized strongly, or damaged badly [**usually singular**] *The prime minister has **taken** quite **a battering** this week.*

O-K **battery** /ˈbætᵊri/ *noun* **1** [C] an object that provides electricity for things such as radios, toys, or cars *My car has got **a flat battery*** (= one that has no electricity left). **2 LAW** [U] *formal* the crime of hitting someone *assault and battery*

battery

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***battle***

face/fight/lose/win a battle ● a **bitter/long-running/uphill** battle ● a **legal** battle ● a battle **for** sth ● a battle **with** sb **/between** sb and sb

battle¹ /ˈbætl/ *noun* **1** WAR [C, U] a fight between two armies in a war *the Battle of Waterloo* ○ *Her grandfather was killed **in battle*** (= while fighting). **2** POWER [C] when two people or groups compete against each other or have an argument about something *a **battle for** control in the boardroom* **3** PROBLEMS/ILLNESS [C] a fight against something that is hurting or destroying you *a long battle against cancer* **4 fight a losing battle** to try hard to do something when there is no chance that you will succeed *I try to control what my children watch on TV, but I think I'm fighting a losing battle.*

battle² /ˈbætl/ *verb* [I] to try very hard to do something that is difficult *Both teams **are battling for** a place in the Premier League.* ○ *Throughout the campaign Johnson was **battling against** severe health problems.*

baud /bɔːd/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit that measures how fast electronic data is sent

baulk /bɔːk, bɔːlk/ *UK* (*UK/US* **balk**) *verb* [I] to not want to do something that is unpleasant or difficult *Most people would **baulk at** paying these kind of prices for clothes.*

bauxite /ˈbɔːk.saɪt/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a type of rock from which aluminium is produced

bawl /bɔːl/ *verb* [I, T] *informal* to shout or cry loudly

bay /beɪ/ *noun* **1 GEOGRAPHY** [C] an area of coast where the land curves in *a sandy bay* **2** [C] a part of a building or place that is used for a particular purpose *a parking bay* **3 keep/hold sth at bay** to prevent something unpleasant from coming near you or from happening *Gunmen kept police at bay for almost four hours.*

bayonet /ˈbeɪənət/ *noun* [C] a knife that is fastened onto the end of a long gun

bazaar /bəˈzɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MARKET a market in Eastern countries **2** SALE a sale where goods

B

are sold to raise money for a school, church, etc

B&B /ˌbiːənˈbiː/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* bed and breakfast (= a small hotel or private house where you pay for a room to sleep in for the night and a meal in the morning)

BBC /ˌbiːbiːˈsiː/ *noun abbreviation for* British Broadcasting Corporation: one of the main television and radio companies in the United Kingdom *a cookery programme on BBC2*

BC /biːˈsiː/ *abbreviation for* Before Christ: used to show that a particular year came before the birth of Christ *331 BC*

B-cell /ˈbiːsel/ (*also* **B lymphocyte**) *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of blood cell that produces antibodies (= substances in the blood that fight disease)

be¹ *strong form* /biː/ *weak forms* /bi, bɪ/ *verb pres. participle* **being**, *past tense* **was**, *past participle* **been** **1** DESCRIBE used to describe or give information about someone or something *I'm sixteen.* ○ *I'm Andy.* ○ *Her mother is a teacher.* ○ *He's German.* ○ *They were very upset.* ○ *He was very ill last year.* ○ *I'm sorry I'm late.* ○ *They've been unlucky.* ○ *Be quiet!* **2 there is/there are/there was, etc** used to show that someone or something exists *There were about fifty people at the party.* ○ *Is there a bank near here?* **3** POSITION used to show the position of someone or something *It's been in the cupboard for months.* ○ *She's in the kitchen.* **4 it is/it was, etc** used to give a fact or your opinion about something *It's not surprising that she left him.* ○ *It's a good idea to keep a spare key somewhere safe.*

be² *strong form* /biː/ *weak forms* /bi, bɪ/ *auxiliary verb* **1** used with the present participle of other verbs to describe actions that are or were still continuing *Where are you going?* ○ *How long have you been sitting there?* ○ *He was standing by the window.* ○ *He's working at the moment.* **2** used with the present participle of other verbs, and sometimes after a modal verb, to describe actions that will happen in the future *I'm going to France next week.* ○ *I'll be coming back on Tuesday.* **3** used with the past participle of other verbs to form the passive *He was injured in a car crash.* ○ *The results will be announced next week.* **4** used in conditional sentences to say what might happen *If he were to offer me the job, I'd take it.* **5** used to say that someone must or should do something *You are not to see him again.* **6** *formal* used to show that something has been organized *They are to stay with us when they arrive.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***beach***

on the beach ● a **sandy** beach ● a beach **house**

beach /biːtʃ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of sand or rocks next to the sea

beacon /ˈbiːkən/ *noun* [C] a light on a hill or in a tower that warns people of something or is a signal or guide

bead /biːd/ *noun* [C] **1** JEWELLERY a small, round ball of glass, plastic, or wood that is used for making jewellery *a necklace of coloured glass beads* **2** LIQUID a small drop of liquid on a surface *beads of sweat*

beak /biːk/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the hard part of a bird's mouth

beaker /ˈbiːkər/ *noun* [C] *UK* a tall cup without a handle, usually made of plastic

beam¹ /biːm/ *noun* [C] **1** LIGHT a line of light shining from something *a laser beam* **2** WOOD a long, thick piece of wood, metal, or concrete that is used to support weight in a building or other structure **3** SMILE *UK* a big smile

beam² /biːm/ *verb* **1** SMILE [I] to smile very happily *The baby **beamed at** me.* **2** SEND [T] to send a television or radio signal [**often passive**] *The match was beamed live by satellite around the world.* **3** SHINE [I] If the sun or the moon beams, it shines brightly.

ˈbeam ˌbalance *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment used by scientists to measure the mass of an object by hanging it from one end of a balanced bar

beamer /ˈbiːmər/ *noun* [C] a data projector: a machine that allows you to show words or images on a screen or wall

bean /biːn/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** **1** a seed of some climbing plants, that is used as food *soya beans* **2** a seed case of some climbing plants that is eaten as a vegetable *green beans* **3** a plant seed used to make coffee and chocolate *coffee beans* ➲See also: **baked beans, runner bean**

bean curd /ˈbiːnkɜːd/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** tofu (= a soft, pale food made from the soya bean plant)

bear¹ /beər/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **bore**, *past participle* **borne** **1** ACCEPT to accept someone or something unpleasant *She **couldn't bear** the thought of him suffering.* ○ *I like her, but I **can't bear** her friends.* [+ **to do sth**] *How can you bear to watch?* ○ *The pain was too much to bear.* **2 bear a resemblance/relation, etc to sb/sth** to be similar to someone or something *He bears a striking resemblance to his father.* **3** CARRY *formal* to carry something *He came in, bearing a tray of drinks.* **4** WEIGHT to support the weight of something *I don't think that chair will bear his weight.* **5 bear the responsibility/cost, etc** to accept that you are responsible for something, you should pay for something, etc *He must bear some responsibility for the appalling conditions in the prison.* **6** FEELING to continue to have a bad feeling towards someone *They were rude to her in the past, but she's not the kind of woman who **bears grudges*** (= continues to be angry). **7** HAVE CHILD *formal* to give birth to a child *She has been told that she will never bear children.* **8** NAME to have or show a particular name, picture, or symbol *The shop bore his family name.* **9 bear left/right** to turn left or right *Bear right at the next set of traffic lights.* ➲See also: bear **fruit**, **grin** and bear it

bear sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to prove that someone is right or that something is true *The facts do not bear out his claims.*

bear with sb *phrasal verb* to be patient and wait while someone does something *If you'll bear with me a moment, I'll just find your details.*

bear² /beəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large, strong, wild animal with thick fur ➲See also: **polar bear, teddy bear**

bearable /ˈbeərəbl/ *adjective* If an unpleasant situation is bearable, you can accept or deal with it. *Having her there **made** life at home more **bearable** for me.* ➲Opposite **unbearable**

beard /bɪəd/ *noun* [C] the hair that grows on a man's chin (= the bottom of his face) ●**bearded** *adjective* with a beard

bearer /ˈbeərəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person who brings or carries something *I am sorry to be **the bearer of** bad news.*

bearing /ˈbeərɪŋ/ *noun* **have a bearing on sth** to have an influence on something or a relationship to something *What you decide now could have a considerable bearing on your future.*

bearings /ˈbeərɪŋz/ *noun* **1 get/find your bearings a** to find out where you are *She looked at the sun to find her bearings.* **b** to become confident in a new situation *When you start a new job, it can take some time to get your bearings.* **2 lose your bearings** to become confused about where you are

ˈbear ˌmarket *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a time when the price of shares (= parts of the value of a company that can be sold or bought) is falling and a lot of people are selling them

beast /biːst/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL *formal* an animal, especially a large or wild one **2** PERSON *old-fashioned* an annoying or cruel person

beastly /ˈbiːstli/ *adjective old-fashioned* unkind or unpleasant

O-K **beat¹** /biːt/ *verb past tense* **beat,** *past participle* **beaten**, *also US* **beat 1** DEFEAT [T] to defeat someone in a competition *Our team beat Germany 3-1.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **win 2** HIT [I, T] to hit a person or animal hard many times *She beat the dog with a stick.* ○ *She was beaten to death.* **3** SOUND [I, T] to hit against something hard, making a continuous or regular sound *soldiers beating drums* ○ *Rain beat against the windows.* **4** GET RID OF [T] to get rid of something bad *I'm determined to beat this illness.* **5 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [I] When your heart beats, it makes regular movements and sounds. *By the time the doctor arrived, his heart had stopped beating.* **6** BE BETTER [T] to be better than something [+ **doing sth**] *Being at the youth club beats sitting at home.* **7 you can't beat sth** used to emphasize that something is best *You can't beat Pedro's for a great pizza.* **8 take a lot of/some, etc beating** to be so good or enjoyable that it is hard to find anything better *This ice cream takes some beating.* **9 FOOD** [T] to mix food using hard, quick movements *Beat the egg whites until they are stiff.* **10 It beats me** *informal* something that you say when you do not understand a situation or someone's behaviour *It beats me why she goes out with him.* ➲See also: beat about the **bush**, beat/knock the (living) **daylights** out of sb, off the beaten **track¹**
beat down *phrasal verb* If the sun beats down, it is very hot and bright.
beat sb down *phrasal verb UK* to persuade someone to charge you less for something
beat sb/sth off *phrasal verb* to manage to defeat someone who is attacking you
beat sb to sth *phrasal verb* to do something before someone else does it *I was going to ask her to the party, but you beat me to it.*
beat sb up *phrasal verb* to attack someone by hitting or kicking them many times *He beat up one of the other prisoners.*

beat² /biːt/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** a regular sound that is made by your heart or by something hitting a surface *a heart beat* ○ *the beat of a drum* **2 MUSIC** the main rhythm of a piece of music *loud music with a repetitive beat* **3** the area of a town or city that a police officer walks around regularly *Having more police officers **on the beat*** (= walking around their beat) *should help to reduce crime.*

beating /ˈbiːtɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] when someone hits another person hard many times **2 take a beating** to be defeated, criticized, or damaged *Our team took a severe beating in the tournament.*

the Beaufort scale /ˈbəʊfət ˌskeɪl/ *noun* [**no plural**] **GEOGRAPHY** a set of numbers used for measuring and comparing wind speeds

beautician /bjuːˈtɪʃʰn/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to improve people's appearance by treatments to their hair, skin, etc

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***beautiful***

If a person (man or woman), is beautiful, we can say that they are **attractive** or **good-looking**. The adjective **handsome** is also sometimes used for men, and **pretty** for women: *Her husband is really **good-looking**.* ● *Your daughter is very **pretty**.*

If someone, especially a woman, is extremely beautiful, you can say that they are **gorgeous** or **stunning**: *You look **gorgeous** in that dress!* ● *I think she's **stunning**.*

The adjectives **breathtaking**, **lovely** and **gorgeous** are often used to describe scenery that is very beautiful. *The views from the window were **breathtaking.*** ● *We drove through some **gorgeous** countryside.*

The adjective **exquisite** is sometimes used to describe objects which are very beautiful and often delicate: *They do the most **exquisite** hand-made decorations.*

O-K **beautiful** /ˈbjuːtɪfʰl/ *adjective* **1** ATTRACTIVE very attractive *a beautiful woman* ○ *beautiful scenery* **2** PLEASANT very pleasant *beautiful music* ○ *It's a beautiful day* (= the sun is shining). ●**beautifully** *adverb a beautifully illustrated book* ○ *She sings beautifully.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***beauty***

great/sheer/stunning beauty ● **natural** beauty ● beauty **products**

O-K **beauty** /ˈbjuːti/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [U] the quality of being beautiful *The whole area is famous for its **natural beauty**.* ○ *a beauty contest* (= competition to find the most beautiful woman) **2 the beauty of sth** the quality that makes something especially good or attractive *The beauty of the plan is that it won't cost anything.* **3 a beauty product/treatment** a product or treatment to make you more beautiful **4** EXCELLENT THING [C] *informal* something that is an excellent example of its type *That last goal was a*

B

beauty. **5** WOMAN [C] *old-fashioned* a beautiful woman

ˈbeauty ˌsalon (*also US* **ˈbeauty ˌparlor**) *noun* [C] a place where you can have beauty treatments

ˈbeauty ˌspot *noun* [C] **1** PLACE *UK* a place in the countryside that is very beautiful **2** MARK a small dark mark on someone's face

beaver /ˈbiːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] an animal with brown fur, a long, flat tail, and sharp teeth, which builds dams (= walls made of pieces of wood) across rivers

became /bɪˈkeɪm/ *past tense of* become

because /bɪˈkɒz, bɪˈkəz/ *conjunction* used to give a reason for something *I phoned because I needed to talk to you.* ○ *I can't come out tonight because I've got too much homework.*

because of /bɪˈkɒzəv, bɪˈkəzəv/ *preposition* as a result of someone or something *We got into all this trouble because of you.*

beck /bek/ *noun* **be at sb's beck and call** to be always ready and willing to do what someone wants

beckon /ˈbekᵊn/ *verb* **1** WAVE [I, T] to move your hand, head, etc to show someone that you would like them to come nearer *She **beckoned to** the waiter.* **2** BE LIKELY [I] to seem very likely to happen *A career as a lead guitarist beckoned.* **3** BE ATTRACTIVE [I] If a place beckons, it is very attractive to you, and you want to go there. *The bright lights of London beckoned.*

become /bɪˈkʌm/ *verb, past tense* **became** *past participle* **become 1 become available/rich/a writer, etc** to begin to be something *They became great friends.* ○ *She wants to become a teacher when she leaves school.* ○ *This style of skirt is becoming fashionable.* **2 what/whatever became of sb/sth** something you say when you want to know what has happened to someone *Whatever became of your friend Harry?*

becquerel /ˌbekəˈrel/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit of measurement for radioactivity

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bed***

go to bed ● **be in /lie in/be tucked up in** bed ● **get into/get out of** bed ● **make** the bed ● be **on** the bed ● **share** a bed ● a **double/single** bed

bed¹ /bed/ *noun* **1** FURNITURE [C, U] a piece of furniture that you sleep on *a* **single/double bed** ○ *What time did you **go to bed** last night?* ○ *She was lying **in bed** when I arrived.* ○ *He had only just **got out of bed**.* ○ *Have you **made the bed** (= tidied the bed after you have slept in it)?* **2** GROUND [C] a piece of ground that is used for growing plants, especially flowers *a flower bed* **3** BOTTOM [C] the ground at the bottom of the sea, a river, etc *the sea bed* ➲See also: **bunk beds**

ˌbed and ˈbreakfast (*also* **B & B**) *noun* [C] a small hotel or private house where you pay for a room to sleep in for the night and a meal in the morning

bedclothes /ˈbedkləʊðz/ *noun* [plural] the sheets and other pieces of cloth that cover you and keep you warm in bed

bedding /ˈbedɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** the sheets and other pieces of cloth that cover you and keep you warm in bed **2** FARMING material such as hay (= dried grass) that animals sleep on

bedraggled /bɪˈdrægld/ *adjective* untidy, and often wet and dirty

bedrock /ˈbedrɒk/ *noun* [U] *formal* a situation, idea, or principle that provides a strong base for something *Family life is **the bedrock of** a stable society.*

bedroom /ˈbedruːm/ *noun* [C] a room used for sleeping in

bedside /ˈbedsaɪd/ *noun* [no plural] **1** the area at the side of a bed *He was **at** her **bedside** in the hospital.* ○ ***a bedside table/lamp*** **2 bedside manner** a doctor's ability to make the people they are treating feel comfortable *My surgeon has a wonderful bedside manner.*

bedsit /ˈbedsɪt/ *noun* [C] *UK* a rented room where you live, sleep, and cook your meals

bedspread /ˈbedspred/ *noun* [C] a cloth cover that is put over a bed

bedtime /ˈbedtaɪm/ *noun* [C, U] the time that you usually go to bed

bee /biː/ *noun* [C] a flying insect that has a yellow and black body and makes honey (= sweet, sticky food) *the queen bee*

beech /biːtʃ/ *noun* [C, U] a large tree with a smooth grey trunk (= main, vertical part) that produces small nuts

beef¹ /biːf/ *noun* [U] FOOD the meat of a cow *roast beef* ➲See also: **ground beef**

beef² /biːf/ *verb*
beef sth up *phrasal verb* to make something stronger or more important *The company wants to beef up its sales force by employing new graduates.*

beefburger /ˈbiːfˌbɜːgəʳ/ *UK* (*UK/US* **hamburger**) *noun* [C] FOOD very small pieces of meat that are pressed together into a round flat shape, cooked, and eaten between bread

beehive /ˈbiːhaɪv/ (*also* **hive**) *noun* [C] a special container where people keep bees

been /biːn, bɪn/ *verb* **have been to** to have gone to a place and come back *Have you ever been to Thailand?* ➲Inflection of **be**

beep /biːp/ *verb* **1** MACHINE [I] If a machine beeps, it makes a short, high noise. **2** CAR [I, T] If a car horn (= part you press to make a warning sound) beeps or if you beep it, it makes a loud noise. *Beep the horn to let me know that you're here.* ●**beep** *noun* [C]

beeper /ˈbiːpəʳ/ (*also UK* **bleeper**) *noun* [C] a small piece of electronic equipment that you carry which makes a short high sound when someone wants to talk to you

beer /bɪəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD an alcoholic drink made from grain, or a glass or container of this drink *a pint of beer*

beet /biːt/ *US* (*UK* **beetroot**) *noun* [C, U] FOOD a round, dark red vegetable, that is usually cooked and eaten cold

beetle /ˈbiːtl/ *noun* [C] an insect with a hard, usually black, shiny body

beetroot /ˈbiːtruːt/ *UK* (*US* **beet**) *noun* [C, U] FOOD a round, dark red vegetable, that is usually cooked and eaten cold

befall /bɪˈfɔːl/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **befell,** *past participle* **befallen** *formal* If something bad befalls you, it happens to you. *A dreadful misfortune has befallen the family.*

befit /bɪˈfɪt/ *verb* [T] **befitting,** *past* **befitted** *formal* to be suitable or right for someone or something *He was given a huge welcome,* ***as befits*** *such a hero.*

before¹ /bɪˈfɔːr/ *preposition* **1** EARLIER earlier than something or someone *a week before Christmas* ○ *She arrived before me.* [+ **doing sth**] *Think hard before accepting the offer.* **2** IN FRONT OF in a position in front of someone or something *I've never performed this before an audience.* ○ *He stood before her, shaking.* **3** PLACE at a place that you arrive at first when travelling towards another place *The hospital is just before the bridge.* **4** IN ORDER in front of someone or something in an order or a list *P comes before Q in the alphabet.* **5** IMPORTANCE treated as more important than someone or something *They always* ***put*** *the children's needs* ***before*** *their own.* **6** EXAMINATION being formally examined or considered by a group *He appeared before the court dressed in jeans.*

before² /bɪˈfɔːr/ *conjunction* **1** EARLIER earlier than the time when something happens *He was a teacher before he became famous.* ○ *Before I could warn him, he had fallen.* **2** TO AVOID STH in order to avoid something bad happening *Put that stick down before you hurt someone.* **3** UNTIL until *It took a few moments before I realized that he was lying.*

before³ /bɪˈfɔːr/ *adverb* at an earlier time, or on a previous occasion *I've never seen her before.* ○ *We had spoken on the phone a few days before.*

beforehand /bɪˈfɔːhænd/ *adverb* before a particular time or event *Did you know beforehand what they had planned to do?*

befriend /bɪˈfrend/ *verb* [T] *formal* to be friendly to someone, especially someone who needs support or help

beg /beɡ/ *verb* **begging,** *past* **begged** **1** FOOD/MONEY [I] to ask someone for food or money, because you do not have any *Young children were begging on the streets.* **2** STRONG REQUEST [I, T] to make a very strong and urgent request *She* ***begged*** *him* ***for*** *help.* [+ **to do sth**] *I begged her not to go.* ➲See also: I beg your **pardon²**.

began /bɪˈɡæn/ *past tense of* begin

beggar /ˈbeɡər/ *noun* [C] a poor person who lives by asking other people for money and food

begin /bɪˈɡɪn/ *verb* **beginning,** *past tense* **began,** *past participle* **begun** **1** START TO DO [I, T] to start to do something [+ **to do sth**] *The children began to cry.* [+ **doing sth**] *Have they begun building the wall yet?* ○ *She began her career as a journalist on a local newspaper.* **2** START TO HAPPEN [I] to start to happen *What time does the film begin?* **3 begin with sth** to have something at the start *Local phone numbers begin with 1223.* **4 to begin with a** AT THE START at the start of a situation *To begin with, the two girls got on well.* **b** GIVE REASON used to give the first important reason for something *To begin with, we can't leave the children alone.*

beginner /bɪˈɡɪnər/ *noun* [C] someone who is starting to do or learn something for the first time *I'm a* ***complete beginner*** *at yoga.*

beginning /bɪˈɡɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [C] the first part of something or the start of something [**usually singular**] *We met* ***at the beginning of*** *1998.* ○ *Things went well* ***in the beginning.***

begrudge /bɪˈɡrʌdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** WANT SOMETHING to feel upset because someone has something that you would like [+ **two objects**] *I don't begrudge him his success.* **2** NOT WANT TO DO to feel upset because you have to spend money on something or spend time doing something *They begrudge every penny that they have to spend on him.*

beguile /bɪˈɡaɪl/ *verb* [T] *formal* to attract someone very much, sometimes in order to deceive them [**often passive**] *I can see how people are beguiled by his charm.* ○ *a beguiling smile*

begun /bɪˈɡʌn/ *past participle of* begin

behalf /bɪˈhɑːf/ *noun* **on sb's behalf** If you do something on someone's behalf, you do it for them or instead of them. *We are campaigning on behalf of thousands of refugees.* ○ *Will you accept the prize on my behalf?*

behave /bɪˈheɪv/ *verb* [I] **1** DO/SAY to do or say things in a particular way *to behave badly/stupidly* ○ *They are behaving like children.* **2** POLITELY (*also* **behave yourself**) to be polite and not make a situation difficult *Try to behave.* ○ *The children can only come if they promise to behave themselves.* ➲Opposite **misbehave**

-behaved /bɪˈheɪvd/ *suffix* used after a word describing how someone behaves *a badly-behaved child* ➲See also: **well-behaved**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***behaviour***

anti-social/bad/disruptive/good/normal behaviour

behaviour *UK* (*US* **behavior**) /bɪˈheɪvjər/ *noun* [U] the way that you behave ***good/bad behaviour*** ○ *Did you notice anything odd about his behaviour?*

behavioural *UK* (*US* **behavioral**) /bɪˈheɪvjərəl/ *adjective* relating to behaviour *behavioural changes/problems*

behead /bɪˈhed/ *verb* [T] to cut someone's head off

beheld /bɪˈheld/ *past of* behold

behind¹ /bɪˈhaɪnd/ *preposition* **1** BACK at or to the back of someone or something *Close the door behind you.* ○ *The pub is behind the train station.* **2** LESS SUCCESSFUL slower or less successful than someone or something *Our team is 3 points behind the winners.* ○ *The building work is already* ***behind schedule*** (= late). **3** CAUSING causing something, or responsible for something *What was the reason behind her decision to leave?* **4** SUPPORTING giving your help or support to someone *The group is 100 percent behind her.* **5** NOT AFFECTING If a bad experience or your own bad behaviour is behind you, it does not exist or affect your life now. *He's* ***put*** *his criminal past* ***behind*** *him.*

behind² /bɪˈhaɪnd/ *adverb* **1** BACK at or to the back of someone or something *Somebody grabbed me from behind.* **2** SLOWER slower or

B

later than someone else, or than you should be *She's behind with the rent* (= is late to pay it). **3** PLACE in the place where someone or something was before *You go on ahead. I'll **stay behind** and tidy up.* ○ *When we got to the restaurant, I realized that I had **left** my purse **behind**.*

behind³ /bɪˈhaɪnd/ *noun* [C] *informal* the part of your body that you sit on

behold /bɪˈhəʊld/ *verb* [T] *past* **beheld** *literary* to see something

beige /beɪʒ/ *noun* [U] a pale brown colour ●**beige** *adjective* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

being¹ /ˈbiːɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] a living person or imaginary creature *human beings* **2 come into being** to start to exist *The new law comes into being next month.* ➲See also: **well-being**

being² /ˈbiːɪŋ/ *present participle of* be

belated /bɪˈleɪtɪd/ *adjective* coming late, or later than expected *a **belated attempt** to win votes* ●**belatedly** *adverb Supermarkets have belatedly realized the purchasing power of mothers.*

belch¹ /beltʃ/ *verb* **1** NOISE [I] to make a sudden noise as air from your stomach comes out through your mouth **2** SMOKE [T] (*also* **belch out**) to produce a lot of smoke, fire, gas, etc *tall chimneys belching smoke*

belch² /beltʃ/ *noun* [C] the noise you make when you belch

beleaguered /bɪˈliːgəd/ *adjective formal* having a lot of problems *the beleaguered farming industry*

belfry /ˈbelfri/ *noun* [C] the tower of a church where the bells are hung

belie /bɪˈlaɪ/ *verb* [T] **belying,** *past* **belied** *formal* to give a wrong idea about something *His shy manner belied his very sharp mind.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***belief***

a **firm / mistaken / sincere / strong / widespread/widely-held** belief ● **have/hold** a belief ● a belief **in** sth ● **in the** belief **that**

belief /bɪˈliːf/ *noun* **1** TRUE [**U no plural**] when you believe that something is true or real *It is a **widely-held belief** that smoking helps you lose weight.* ○ *She married him **in the belief that** he would change.* ➲Opposite **disbelief** **2** IDEA [**C, U**] an idea that you are certain is true ***religious/political beliefs*** **3** EFFECTIVE [**U, no plural**] the feeling that someone or something is effective or right *a **belief in** social justice* **4 beyond belief** too bad, good, difficult, etc to be real *The evil of this man is beyond belief.*

believable /bɪˈliːvəbl/ *adjective* If something is believable, you can believe that it could be true or real. ➲Opposite **unbelievable**

believe /bɪˈliːv/ *verb* **1** TRUE [T] to think that something is true, or that what someone says is true [+ **(that)**] *They believe that their health has suffered because of the chemicals.* ○ *Do you believe him?* ➲Opposite **disbelieve** **2** THINK [T] to think something, without being completely sure *The murderer is believed to be in his thirties.* **3** **RELIGION** [I] to have religious beliefs **4 not believe your eyes/ears** to be very surprised when you see someone or something, or when you hear what someone says *I couldn't believe my ears when Dan said they were getting married.* **5 believe it or not** used to say that something is true although it seems surprising *He even remembered my birthday, believe it or not.*

believe in sth *phrasal verb* to be certain that something exists *I believe in life after death.*

believe in sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to be confident that something is effective or right *He believes in saying what he thinks.*

believer /bɪˈliːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **RELIGION** a person who has a religious belief **2 a firm/great/strong, etc believer in sth/doing sth** someone who has confidence in a particular idea or way of doing things *She's a firm believer in freedom of speech.*

belittle /bɪˈlɪtl/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say that someone or something is not very important or not very good

bell /bel/ *noun* [C] **1** INSTRUMENT a hollow, metal object, shaped like a cup, that makes a ringing sound when you hit it *the sound of church bells ringing* **2** DOOR ETC an electrical object that makes a ringing sound when you press a switch *Please **ring the bell** for attention.* **3 give sb a bell** *UK informal* to telephone someone **4 ring a bell** If a word, especially a name, rings a bell, you think you have heard it before.

belligerent /bəˈlɪdʒʳənt/ *adjective* wanting to fight or argue

bellow /ˈbeləʊ/ *verb* [I, T] to shout something in a loud voice ●**bellow** *noun* [C]

belly /ˈbeli/ *noun* [C] *informal* your stomach (= organ where food is digested), or the front part of your body between your chest and your legs

ˈbelly ˌbutton *noun* [C] *informal* the small, round, and usually hollow place on your stomach, where you were connected to your mother before birth

belong /bɪˈlɒŋ/ *verb* **1 belong in/on/there, etc** to be in the right place *That chair belongs in the dining room.* **2** [I] to feel happy and comfortable in a place or with a group of people *I never felt that I belonged there.*

belong to sb *phrasal verb* If something belongs to you, you own it. *This necklace belonged to my grandmother.*

belong to sth *phrasal verb* to be a member of a group or organization *We belong to the same youth club.*

belongings /bɪˈlɒŋɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] the things that you own *I took a few **personal belongings** with me.*

beloved /bɪˈlʌvɪd/ *adjective literary* very much loved *in memory of our beloved son*

below /bɪˈləʊ/ *adverb, preposition* **1** POSITION in a lower position than someone or something else *Send your answers to the address below* (= lower on the page or on a later page). **2** LESS less than an amount or level *The temperature there rarely drops below 22°C.* ○ *His work is **below average**.* **3** RANK lower in rank *Monica is a grade below me.*

be|low the line pro|motion *noun* [U] ways of persuading people to buy a product that a business can do itself, for example by offering low prices

belt¹ /belt/ *noun* [C] **1** WAIST a long, thin piece of leather, cloth, or plastic that you wear around your waist ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 **2** GEOGRAPHY an area of a particular type of land, or an area where a particular group of people live *the **commuter belt** ○ a narrow belt of trees* **3** MACHINE part of a machine that moves in a circle to carry objects or to make a machine work *The car needs a new fan belt.* **4 have sth under your belt** to have already achieved, learnt, or done something important *At 18, she already has several victories under her belt.* **5 tighten your belt** to try to spend less money ➲See also: **conveyor belt, green belt, safety belt, seat belt**

belt² /belt/ *verb informal* **1 belt along/down/through, etc** *UK* to move very fast *He came belting down the street.* **2** [T] to hit someone or something very hard
belt sth out *phrasal verb* to sing something very loudly
belt up *phrasal verb UK informal* used to tell someone to stop talking or making a noise *Just belt up, would you? I'm trying to concentrate.*

belying /bɪ'laɪɪŋ/ *present participle of* belie

bemused /bɪ'mjuːzd/ *adjective* slightly confused *He seemed **bemused by** all the attention.*

bench /benʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** a long seat for two or more people, usually made of wood or metal *a park bench* **2 the bench a** SPORT in some sports, a place where players sit when they are not playing **b** LAW a judge in court, or judges as a group *Please address your comments to the bench.*

benchmark /'benʃmɑːk/ *noun* [C] a level of quality with which other things of the same type can be compared *Her performance set a new **benchmark for** ballet dancing.*

bend¹ /bend/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **bent 1** BODY to move your body or part of your body so that it is not straight *He was **bending over** to tie his shoelaces. ○ Bend your knees when lifting heavy objects.* **2** OBJECT to become curved, or to make something become curved *The trees were bending in the wind. ○ The road bent sharply to the left.* ➲See also: bend over **backwards**, bend/stretch the rules (**rule¹**)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bend***

a **sharp/tight** bend ● a bend **in** sth

bend² /bend/ *noun* [C] **1** a curved part of something *a bend in the road/river* **2 drive/send sb round the bend** *informal* to make someone very angry, especially by continuing to do something annoying ➲See also: **hairpin bend**

beneath¹ /bɪ'niːθ/ *adverb, preposition* **1** UNDER under something, or in a lower position than something *He hid the letter beneath a pile of papers. ○ She looked out of the window at the children playing beneath.* **2** NOT GOOD ENOUGH If someone or something is beneath you, you think they are not good enough for you. *He thinks housework is beneath him.*

benefactor /'benɪfæktəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who gives money to help an organization or person

beneficial /ˌbenɪ'fɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* helpful or useful *Exercise is **beneficial to** almost everyone.*

beneficiary /ˌbenɪ'fɪʃᵊri/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who receives money, help, etc from something or someone else *They were the **beneficiaries of** free education.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***benefit***

enjoy/have/offer/reap benefits ● [the drawbacks/risks, etc] **outweigh** the benefits ● **great/long-term/maximum/potential/tangible** benefit ● **of** benefit **to** sb

benefit¹ /'benɪfɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** something that helps you or gives you an advantage *I've **had the benefit of** a happy childhood.* **2** SOCIETY money that the government gives to people who are ill, poor, not working, etc *unemployment benefit* **3 for sb's benefit** in order to help someone *We bought the piano for the children's benefit.* **4 give sb the benefit of the doubt** to choose to believe what someone tells you even though it may be wrong or a lie ➲See also: **child benefit, fringe benefit**

benefit² /'benɪfɪt/ *verb* **benefiting,** *past* **benefited 1** BE HELPED [I] to be helped by something *The film **benefited from** the excellent acting by its stars.* **2** HELP [T] to help someone *The charity supports activities that directly benefit children.*

benevolent /bɪ'nevᵊlənt/ *adjective formal* kind, generous, and helpful ●**benevolence** /bɪ'nevᵊləns/ *noun* [U]

benign /bɪ'naɪn/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH not likely to kill you *a benign tumour* **2** kind, or not intending to harm anyone *a benign ruler*

bent¹ /bent/ *adjective* **1** CURVED curved and not now straight or flat *The metal bars were bent and twisted.* **2 bent on sth/doing sth** determined to do something or get something *Both parties are bent on destroying each other's chances of winning.* **3** NOT HONEST *UK informal* not honest *a bent policeman*

bent² /bent/ *past of* bend

benzene /'benziːn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a colourless liquid made from petroleum, from which plastics and many chemical products can be made (formula C_6H_6)

'benzene ˌring *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a connected ring of six carbon atoms, as found in a molecule of benzene

benzoic acid /benˌzəʊɪk'æsɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a colourless substance found in various plant resins (= sticky substances), used for example in food preservatives (= substances used to keep food fresh) or medical products (formula C_6H_5COOH)

bequeath /bɪ'kwiːð/ *verb* [+ **two objects**] *formal* to formally arrange to give someone something after you die *He **bequeathed** his art collection **to** the city of Glasgow.*

bequest /bɪ'kwest/ *noun* [C] *formal* LAW money or property that you have arranged for someone to get after you die

berate /bɪ'reɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to speak angrily to someone *She **berated** him **for** being late.*

B

bereaved /bɪ'riːvd/ *adjective* If you have been bereaved, someone you loved has died. *bereaved parents* ○ *The minister spoke quietly with* ***the bereaved***. ●**bereavement** *noun* [C, U] *formal*

bereft /bɪ'reft/ *adjective formal* **1 bereft of sth** completely without something *They were bereft of new ideas.* **2** [**never before noun**] alone and extremely sad *She was left bereft by his death.*

beret /'bereɪ/ (US) /bə'reɪ/ *noun* [C] a round, flat hat made of soft material

bergschrund /'bɜːgʃrʊnd/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a deep crack near or at the top of a glacier (= large mass of ice)

berimbau /be'rɪmbaʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument from Brazil, made from a long stick with a wire stretched between the ends

berry /'beri/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** a small, round fruit on some plants and trees

berserk /bə'zɜːk/ *adjective* **go berserk** *informal* to become extremely angry or violent

berth /bɜːθ/ *noun* [C] **1** [BED] a bed on a boat or train **2** [PORT] a place for a boat to stay in a port

beryllium /bə'rɪliəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a hard, light, silver-grey metallic element, used to make strong alloys (= mixture of metals) (symbol **Be**)

beset /bɪ'set/ *verb* [T] *formal* If problems beset you, they cause you continuing difficulties. [**often passive**] *The project has been* ***beset by problems*** *from the start.*

beside /bɪ'saɪd/ *preposition* **1** next to someone or something, or very near them *She knelt beside his bed.* **2 be beside yourself (with sth)** to experience a powerful emotion *He was beside himself with rage.*

besides¹ /bɪ'saɪdz/ *preposition* in addition to something or someone *Do you play any other sports besides football?*

besides² /bɪ'saɪdz/ *adverb* **1** [ANOTHER REASON] used to give another reason for something *She won't mind if you're late - besides, it's not your fault.* **2** [ALSO] in addition to *Besides looking after the children, she also runs a successful business.*

besiege /bɪ'siːdʒ/ *verb* **1 be besieged by/with sb** to have lots of people asking you questions or making demands *The president was besieged by reporters.* **2 be besieged by/with sth** to receive many demands or criticisms *The radio station was besieged with calls from angry listeners.* **3** [T] to surround a place with an army in order to attack it

best¹ /best/ *adjective* (*superlative of* good) better than any other *She's one of our best students.* ○ *Give her my* ***best wishes***. ○ *Susie's my* ***best friend*** (= the friend I like more than any other). ○ *What's the best way to get to Manchester from here?* ➲See also: **second best,** the best/greatest **thing** since sliced bread

best² /best/ *adverb* (*superlative of* well) **1** [DEGREE] most, or more than any other *Which of the songs did you like best?* **2** [WAY] in the most suitable or satisfactory way *I sleep best with the windows open.*

best³ /best/ *noun* **1 the best** someone or something that is better than any other *He's the best of the new players.* **2 at best** used to show that the most positive way of considering something is still not good *At best, only 50 per cent of babies born at 24 weeks will survive.* **3 at his/its, etc best** at the highest level of achievement or quality *The article is an example of journalism at its best.* **4 do/try your best** to make the greatest effort possible *I did my best to persuade him.* **5 bring out the best in sb** to cause someone's best qualities to show **6 make the best of sth** to try to be positive about a situation you do not like but cannot change *Our hotel room is rather small, but we'll just have to make the best of it.* **7 for the best** If something is for the best, it seems unpleasant now, but will improve a situation in the future. *Divorce is always painful, but it really was for the best.* **8 at the best of times** used to show that something is not good when it is the best it can be *He's not exactly patient at the best of times.* **9 have the best of both worlds** to have the advantages of two different situations *Living in the country and working in the city you have the best of both worlds.*

ˌbest ˈman *noun* [**no plural**] a man who stands next to the man who is getting married at the marriage ceremony and helps him

bestow /bɪ'stəʊ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to give someone an important present or a public reward for their achievements *He won the Nobel Peace Prize, an honour also* ***bestowed on*** *his colleague.*

bestseller /ˌbest'selə/ *noun* [C] a very popular book that many people have bought ●**best-selling** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *best-selling authors*

bet¹ /bet/ *verb* [I, T] **betting,** *past* **bet 1** to risk money on the result of a game, competition, etc *He lost all his money* ***betting on*** *horses.* [**+ two objects + (that)**] *I bet him a dollar that I was right.* **2 I bet** *informal* something that you say to show that you believe that something is true or will happen [**+ (that)**] I bet that he's forgotten my birthday again. **3 You bet!** *mainly US informal* used to say that you will do something with enthusiasm *"Are you going to Pam's party?" "You bet!"*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bet***

have/place a bet (**on**) sth ● **put** a bet **on** sth ● **lose/win** a bet

bet² /bet/ *noun* [C] **1** when you risk money on the result of a game, competition, etc *She* ***won*** *her* ***bet***. ○ *He* ***put*** *a* ***bet on*** *Manchester United winning on Saturday.* **2 a good bet** something that would be useful, clever, or enjoyable to do *Putting your savings in a high-interest account would be a good bet.* **3 your best bet** the best decision or choice *Your best bet in terms of value would be the Regent Hotel.* **4 hedge your bets** to avoid choosing one particular thing or action when it is not certain which is the right choice *Journalists are hedging their bets on the likely outcome of the election.* **5 a safe bet** something that you are certain will happen *Wheeler is a safe bet for a place on the team.*

ˈbeta deˌcay *noun* [U] PHYSICS the process in which a neutron (= part with no electrical charge inside an atom) breaks up into a proton (= part with a positive electrical charge) and an electron (= part with a negative electrical charge)

ˈbeta ˌparticle *noun* [C] PHYSICS an extremely small piece of matter with a negative or sometimes positive electric charge, produced when an atom is broken down

betray /bɪˈtreɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to behave in a dishonest or cruel way to someone who trusts you *When I heard what he had said about me, I felt betrayed.* **2** SECRETS If you betray your country or an organization, you give secret information to its enemies or to other organizations. **3** EMOTION to show an emotion that you were trying to hide *Her face was calm, but her hands betrayed her nervousness.*

betrayal /bɪˈtreɪəl/ *noun* [C, U] when you betray someone *a betrayal of trust*

O-K **better¹** /ˈbetəʳ/ *adjective* **1** QUALITY (*comparative of* good) of a higher quality, more effective, or more enjoyable than something or someone else *Jeff's been offered a better job in the States.* ○ *The sales figures were* ***better than*** *expected.* ○ *Her English has* ***got*** *a lot* ***better*** (= improved) *recently.* **2** ILLNESS healthy, or less ill than before *I feel much better.* ○ *I hope you* ***get better*** *soon.* **3 the bigger/brighter/hotter, etc the better** used to say that the bigger, brighter, hotter, etc something is, the more pleased you will be

O-K **better²** /ˈbetəʳ/ *adverb* **1** (*comparative of* well) to a greater degree, or in a more successful or effective way *I'd like to get to know you better.* ○ *Helen did much* ***better than*** *me in the exam.* **2 he/you, etc had better do sth** used in order to say what you think someone should do *You'd better hurry or you'll miss the train.* **3 know better** to have enough experience not to do something stupid or something that will not achieve anything *I thought she'd listen to me - I should have known better.*

better³ /ˈbetəʳ/ *noun* **1 for the better** If a situation changes for the better, it improves. *Their relationship has changed for the better.* **2 get the better of sb** If a feeling gets the better of you, it becomes too strong to control. *Curiosity finally got the better of her and she opened the letter.*

better⁴ /ˈbetəʳ/ *verb* [T] to do something better than it has been done before *He bettered his previous best time for a marathon.*

ˌbetter ˈoff *adjective* [never before noun] **1** RICHER richer *We're a lot better off now that Jane's started work again.* **2** BETTER SITUATION in a better situation *Simon's such an idiot - you'd be better off without him.* **3 you're better off doing sth** used to give advice *You're better off getting a taxi.*

O-K **between¹** /bɪˈtwiːn/ *preposition* **1** SPACE in the space that separates two places, people, or things *The town lies halfway between Florence and Rome.* ○ *A narrow path runs between the two houses.* **2** TIME in the period of time that separates two events or times *The shop is closed for lunch between 12.30 and 1.30.* **3** INVOLVE involving two or more groups of people *Tonight's game is between the New Orleans Saints and the Los Angeles Rams.* **4** AMOUNT used to show the largest and smallest amount or level of something *Between 50 and 100 people will lose their jobs.* **5** CONNECT connecting two or more places or things *There is a regular train service between Glasgow and Edinburgh.* **6** SEPARATE separating two or more things or people *the gap between rich and poor* ○ *What's the* ***difference between*** *these two cameras?* **7** SHARE shared by a particular number of people *We drank two bottles of wine between four of us.* **8** AMOUNT If something is between two amounts, it is larger than the first amount but smaller than the second. *The temperature will be between 20 and 25 degrees today.* **9** CHOOSE If you choose between two things, you choose one thing or the other.

between² /bɪˈtwiːn/ (*also* **in between**) *adverb* **1** SPACE in the space that separates two places, people, or things *The wood is in neat piles with newspaper placed between.* **2** TIME in the period of time that separates two events or times *There's a train at 6.15 and one at 10.30 but nothing in between.*

beverage /ˈbevʳɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] *formal* FOOD a drink

beware /bɪˈweəʳ/ *verb* [I] used in order to warn someone to be careful ***Beware of*** *the dog.* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *You should beware of spending too long in the sun.*

bewildered /bɪˈwɪldəd/ *adjective* very confused and not sure what to do *She looked bewildered.* ●**bewilderment** *noun* [U] *He stared at me* ***in bewilderment***.

bewildering /bɪˈwɪldʳrɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel confused *There was a bewildering range of subjects to choose from.*

bewitch /bɪˈwɪtʃ/ *verb* [T] If someone or something bewitches you, you find them extremely attractive and interesting. *a bewitching smile*

O-K **beyond¹** /biˈjɒnd/ *preposition* **1** DISTANCE on the other side of something *Our house is just beyond the bridge.* **2** TIME continuing after a particular time or date *A lot of people now live beyond the age of 80.* **3 beyond belief/repair/recognition, etc** impossible to believe/repair/recognize, etc *Steven had changed beyond all recognition.* **4** NOT UNDERSTAND *informal* If something is beyond you, you cannot understand it. *It's beyond me why anyone would want to buy that house.* **5** EXCEPT for *She said very little beyond the occasional 'yes' and 'no'.* **6** INVOLVING OTHERS involving or affecting other things or people than the ones you have talked about *You should try to develop interests beyond the family.*

beyond² /biˈjɒnd/ *adverb* **1** DISTANCE on the other side of something *From the top of the hill, we could see our house and the woods beyond.* **2** TIME continuing after a particular time or date *The strike looks set to continue into March and beyond.*

bhangra /ˈbæŋgrə/ *noun* [U] MUSIC a type of pop music based on traditional music from North India and Pakistan

B

bi- /baɪ-/ *prefix* two *bilingual* (= speaking two languages) ○ *bimonthly* (= happening twice in a month or once every two months)

biannual /baɪˈænjuəl/ *adjective* happening twice a year ➲Compare **biennial**

bias /ˈbaɪəs/ *noun* [C, U] when you support or oppose someone or something in an unfair way because you are influenced by your personal opinions *a* ***bias towards/against*** *private education* ○ *The news channel has been accused of* ***bias in favour of*** *the government.*

biased /ˈbaɪəst/ *adjective* showing unfair support for or opposition to someone or something because of your personal opinions *to be* ***biased against/towards*** *younger workers*

bib /bɪb/ *noun* [C] a piece of cloth or plastic that is worn by young children when they are eating in order to stop their clothes getting dirty

bible /ˈbaɪbl/ *noun* **1 the Bible** RELIGION the holy book of the Christian and Jewish religions **2** RELIGION [C] a copy of this book **3** [C] a book or magazine that gives important information and advice about a particular subject *'Vogue' was regarded as the fashion student's bible.*

biblical /ˈbɪblɪkᵊl/ *adjective* RELIGION relating to the Bible

bibliography /ˌbɪbliˈɒgrəfi/ *noun* [C] a list of books and articles on a particular subject

bicentenary /ˌbaɪsenˈtiːnᵊri/ (US) /baɪˈsentᵊneri/ *UK* (*US* **bicentennial** /ˌbaɪsenˈteniəl/) *noun* [C] the day or year that is 200 years after an important event *the bicentenary of Schubert's birth* ○ *bicentennial celebrations*

biceps /ˈbaɪseps/ *noun* [C] *plural* **biceps** ANATOMY the large muscle at the front of your upper arm

bicker /ˈbɪkəʳ/ *verb* [I] to argue about something that is not very important *They were* ***bickering over*** *which channel to watch.*

bicuspid valve /baɪˈkʌspɪdˌvælv/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a mitral valve

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bicycle***

ride a bicycle ● be **on** a bicycle ● a bicycle **helmet**

O-K **bicycle** /ˈbaɪsɪkl/ *noun* [C] a vehicle with two wheels that you sit on and move by turning the two pedals (= parts you press with your feet) ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bid***

launch/mount a bid ● **in** a (**desperate**) bid to do sth ● a bid **for** sth

bid¹ /bɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** ATTEMPT an attempt to achieve something *a successful* ***bid for*** *re-election* [+ **to do sth**] *The council has banned cars from the city centre* ***in a bid*** *to reduce pollution.* **2** BUY an offer to pay a particular amount of money for something *I made a* ***bid*** *of $150* ***for*** *the painting.* **3** WORK an offer to do work for someone for a particular amount of money *We put in a* ***bid for*** *the stadium contract.*

bid² /bɪd/ *verb* **bidding,** *past* **bid 1** FINANCE [I, T] to offer to pay an amount of money for something *They* ***bid*** *$500 million* ***for*** *the company.* **2 bid for sth; bid to do sth** to try to do or obtain something *Five firms have bid for the contract.*

bid³ /bɪd/ *verb* **bidding,** *past* **bid** or **bade,** *past participle* **bid** or **bidden bid sb farewell/goodbye/good night, etc** *literary* to say goodbye, good night, etc *She bade her guests good night.*

bidder /ˈbɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE someone who offers to pay a particular amount of money for something *The house will be sold to* ***the highest bidder*** (= the person who offers to pay the most).

bidding /ˈbɪdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** when people offer to pay a particular amount of money for something **2 do sb's bidding** *literary* to do what someone tells you to do

bide /baɪd/ *verb* ➲See: bide your **time¹**

bidet /ˈbiːdeɪ/ (US) /bɪˈdeɪ/ *noun* [C] a small low bath that a person uses to wash their bottom and sex organs

biennial /baɪˈeniəl/ *adjective* happening every two years ➲Compare **biannual**

O-K **big¹** /bɪg/ *adjective* **bigger, biggest 1** SIZE large in size or amount *I come from a big family.* ○ *We're looking for a bigger house.* **2** IMPORTANT important or serious *Tonight's big game is between Real Madrid and Manchester United.* ○ *Buying that car was a big mistake.* **3 your big brother/sister** *informal* your older brother/sister **4** SUCCESSFUL *informal* successful or popular *The programme's been* ***a big hit*** (= very popular) *with young children.* **5 make it big** *informal* to become very successful or famous

big² /bɪg/ *verb*
big sth/sb up *phrasal verb* [T] *informal* to praise someone or something a lot, sometimes more than they deserve

the ˌbig ˈbang *noun* PHYSICS, ASTRONOMY the large explosion that many scientists believe created the universe

ˌbig ˈbusiness *noun* [U] ECONOMIC **1** ACTIVITY an activity that makes a lot of money *Football has become big business.* **2** COMPANY large, powerful businesses

bigot /ˈbɪgət/ *noun* [C] a bigoted person

bigoted /ˈbɪgətɪd/ *adjective* A bigoted person has very strong, unfair opinions and refuses to consider different opinions. ●**bigotry** /ˈbɪgətri/ *noun* [U] when someone is bigoted

big-ticket /ˈbɪgˌtɪkɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *US* Big-ticket items are expensive things to buy, such as cars or furniture.

O-K **bike** /baɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** BICYCLE *informal short for* bicycle **2** MOTORCYCLE *informal short for* motorbike/motorcycle (= a vehicle with two wheels and an engine)

biker /ˈbaɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who rides a motorbike (= vehicle with two wheels and an engine)

bikini /bɪˈkiːni/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing with two parts that women wear for swimming ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

bilateral /baɪˈlætᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* POLITICS involving two groups or countries *bilateral talks/agreements/trade*

bile /baɪl/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a bitter liquid made and stored in the body that helps to digest fat

ˈbile ˌduct *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a tube from the liver and gall bladder through which

bile passes into the small intestine ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

bilingual /baɪˈlɪŋgwᵊl/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** using or able to speak two languages *a bilingual dictionary* ○ *She's bilingual.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bill***

pay/settle a bill ● a bill **comes to** [£100/$500, etc] ● a bill **for** sth ● an **electricity/gas/phone** bill

O-key **bill¹** /bɪl/ *noun* [C] **1 FINANCE** a piece of paper that tells you how much you must pay for something you have bought or for a service you have used *Have you **paid the** electricity **bill?*** **2 POLITICS** a written plan for a law *Parliament will vote today on whether to pass the reform bill.* **3 FINANCE** *US* (*UK* **note**) a piece of paper money *a five dollar bill* **4** *UK* what is on at a cinema or theatre **5 BIOLOGY** a bird's beak

bill² /bɪl/ *verb* **1 be billed as sth** to be advertised with a particular description *The film was billed as a romantic comedy.* **2 FINANCE** [T] to give or send someone a bill asking for money that they owe for a product or service *He **billed** us **for** the materials.*

billboard /ˈbɪlbɔːd/ (*also UK* **hoarding**) *noun* [C] a large board used for advertising, especially by the side of a road

billfold /ˈbɪlfəʊld/ *US* (*UK/US* **wallet**) *noun* [C] a small, flat container for carrying paper money and credit cards (= plastic cards used for paying with)

billiards /ˈbɪliədz/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game in which two people try to hit coloured balls into holes around the edge of a table using long, thin sticks

billing /ˈbɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1 FINANCE** when people are sent letters to ask for payments **2 star/top billing** when a particular performer is shown as the most important person in a performance

billion /ˈbɪliən/ the number 1,000,000,000

billow /ˈbɪləʊ/ *verb* [I] to be moved and spread out by a current of air *Smoke **billowed out** of the building.*

bimetallic strip /ˌbaɪmetælɪkˈstrɪp/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a strip, used in a thermostat (= device to control temperature), made from two different metals which grow by different amounts when heated, causing it to bend and switch the thermostat on or off

O-key **bin** /bɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** WASTE *UK* (*US* **trash can**) a container that is used to put waste in *a **rubbish/wastepaper bin*** ○ *I threw it in the bin.* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** STORING a container for storing things *a storage bin*

binary /ˈbaɪnᵊri/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** The binary system expresses numbers using only 1 and 0, and is especially used for computers.

ˌbinary ˈcode *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** a code made of zeros and ones that represent numbers and letters

ˌbinary ˈfission *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when organisms with only one cell create new organisms by dividing

bind¹ /baɪnd/ *verb* [T] *past* **bound 1** TIE to tie something together with string, rope, etc *His hands were bound behind his back.* **2** KEEP PROMISE to force someone to keep a promise *His contract **binds** him **to** working a six-day week.* **3** UNITE to unite people *Culture and language **bind** people **together**.* **4** BOOK to fasten together pages to make a book

bind² /baɪnd/ *noun* [**no plural**] *informal* **1** SITUATION a difficult or unpleasant situation *a financial bind* **2** JOB *UK* a job which uses a lot of your time *Cleaning the bathroom is a bind.*

binder /ˈbaɪndəʳ/ *noun* [C] a strong cover for holding together pieces of paper

binding /ˈbaɪndɪŋ/ *adjective* A binding agreement, promise, etc cannot be broken or changed. *It's a **legally binding** contract.*

ˈbinding ˌsite *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an area on an enzyme, DNA or RNA to which particular molecules or ions attach

binge¹ /bɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] when you eat or drink too much or spend too much money in shops

binge² /bɪndʒ/ *verb* [I] **bingeing** to eat too much food at one time *I've been **bingeing on** chocolate.*

ˈbinge ˌdrinking *noun* [U] when someone drinks too much alcohol on one occasion ●**ˈbinge ˌdrinker** *noun* [C]

bingo /ˈbɪŋgəʊ/ *noun* [U] a game in which people mark numbers on a card as they are called, and the person whose numbers are called first is the winner

binoculars /bɪˈnɒkjələz/ *noun* [**plural**] a piece of equipment for looking at things that are far away, made from two tubes with glass at the ends *a **pair of binoculars***

binomial /baɪˈnəʊmiəl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** an expression that has two groups of numbers or letters, for example 4x + 3y

binomial system /ˌbaɪˈnəʊmiəl,sɪstəm/ (*also* **binomial nomenclature**) *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the formal system for naming species (= groups of plants and animals that share characteristics)

bio- /baɪəʊ-/ *prefix* **BIOLOGY** relating to living things or human life *biodiversity* ○ *bioethics*

biochemical /ˌbaɪəʊˈkemɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** relating to the chemistry of living things

biochemistry /ˌbaɪəʊˈkemɪstri/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** the study of the chemistry of living things such as plants, animals, or people ●**biochemist** *noun* [C] a scientist who studies biochemistry

biodegradable /ˌbaɪəʊdɪˈgreɪdəbl/ *adjective* **ENVIRONMENT** Biodegradable substances decay naturally without damaging the environment.

biodiesel /ˈbaɪəʊˌdiːzl/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** fuel used in the engines of some vehicles that is made from vegetable oil or animal fat

biodiversity /ˌbaɪəʊdaɪˈvɜːsɪti/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** the number and types of plants and animals that exist in a particular area

bioethanol /ˌbaɪəʊˈeθənɒl/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** fuel used in the engines of some vehicles that is partly made from ethanol (= a chemical that comes from sugar)

B

biofuel /ˈbaɪəʊˌfjʊəl/ *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT fuel produced from plant material

biogas /ˈbaɪəʊˌgæs/ *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT a gas produced by dead plants and animals that can be burned as a fuel

biographer /baɪˈɒgrəfəʳ/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE someone who writes the story of a particular person's life

biography /baɪˈɒgrəfi/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE the story of a person's life written by another person ●**biographical** /ˌbaɪəʊˈgræfɪkəl/ *adjective* about someone's life *biographical information*

biological /ˌbaɪəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BIOLOGY relating to the study of living things such as plants and animals *biological sciences* **2** BIOLOGY using living things or poisons made from living things *biological weapons* ●**biologically** *adverb*

bioˌlogical conˈtrol *noun* ENVIRONMENT the use of one plant or animal to control another, especially to prevent disease or damage

biology /baɪˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the study of living things ●**biologist** *noun* [C] a scientist who studies biology

biomass /ˈbaɪəʊˌmæs/ *noun* [U] **1** ENVIRONMENT dead plant and animal material suitable for using as fuel **2** the total amount of living things in a particular area

biome /ˈbaɪəʊm/ *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT a region of the Earth's surface and the particular combination of climate, plants and animals that are found in it

biometric /ˌbaɪəʊˈmetrɪk/ *adjective* using a person's characteristics, e.g. their voice or the pattern of their eyes, to prove who they are

biopsy /ˈbaɪɒpsi/ *noun* [C] HEALTH when a small number of cells are taken from a part of the body and examined to see if there is a disease

biosphere /ˈbaɪəʊsfɪəʳ/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY the part of the Earth's environment where life exists

biotechnology /ˌbaɪəʊtekˈnɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY the use of living cells and bacteria in chemical processes, especially in the food and medical industries

bioterrorism /ˌbaɪəʊˈterərɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when people use living things, such as bacteria, to hurt other people for political reasons ●**bioterrorist** *noun* [C]

biotic /baɪˈɒtɪk/ *adjective* ENVIRONMENT involving, caused by, or relating to living things in the environment

biˌotic ˈindex *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT a way of measuring the pollution (= dirty substances) in water, e.g. a river, by counting the organisms in it

bipartisan /baɪˈpɑːtɪzæn/ *adjective* POLITICS involving two political parties *a bipartisan agreement*

birch /bɜːtʃ/ *noun* [C, U] a tree that has thin, smooth branches

bird /bɜːd/ *noun* [C] an animal that has wings and feathers and is usually able to fly

ˈbird ˌflu (*also* **avian flu**) *noun* [U] HEALTH an illness that kills birds and can sometimes pass from birds to people

birdie /ˈbɜːdi/ *US* (*UK* **shuttlecock**) *noun* [C] SPORT a small object with feathers that is used like a ball in badminton (= a sport like tennis)

ˌbird of ˈprey *noun* [C] *plural* **birds of prey** a large bird that kills smaller animals for food

bird-watching /ˈbɜːdˌwɒtʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the hobby of looking at birds

biro /ˈbaɪərəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *UK trademark* a type of pen that has a very small metal ball at its end and a thin tube of ink inside

birth /bɜːθ/ *noun* **1 give birth** When a woman or an animal gives birth, she produces a baby from her body. *She gave birth to twins.* **2** TIME [C, U] the time when a baby is born *a difficult birth* ○ *Write your* ***date of birth*** (= the date when you were born) *here.* **3** BEGINNING [U] *literary* the beginning of something ***the birth of*** *modern science* **4 American/Italian, etc by birth** born in a particular place or having parents with a particular nationality

ˈbirth caˌnal *noun* [C] ANATOMY the part of the female body which a baby travels through in order to be born

ˈbirth cerˌtificate *noun* [C] LAW an official document that records when and where a person was born

ˈbirth conˌtrol *noun* [U] HEALTH methods of limiting the number of children you have

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***birthday***

celebrate your birthday ● **on** sb's [1st/50th/100th, etc] birthday ● a birthday **cake/card/party/present**

birthday /ˈbɜːθdeɪ/ *noun* [C] the day on which someone was born, or the same date each year *She is* ***celebrating*** *her seventieth* ***birthday.*** ○ ***Happy Birthday!*** ○ *a* ***birthday cake/party***

birthmark /ˈbɜːθmɑːk/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a mark on someone's skin that has been there since they were born

birthplace /ˈbɜːθpleɪs/ *noun* [C] the place where someone was born

ˈbirth ˌrate *noun* [C] SOCIETY a measurement of the number of babies born in a particular period

biscuit /ˈbɪskɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD *UK* (*US* **cookie**) a thin, flat cake that is dry and usually sweet ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2** FOOD *US* a small, soft, round bread

bisect /baɪˈsekt/ *verb* [T] to divide something into two equal parts ●**bisection** /baɪˈsekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

bisector /baɪˈsektəʳ/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a straight line that divides an angle or line into two equal parts

bisexual /baɪˈsekʃʊəl/ *adjective* sexually attracted to both men and women

bishop /ˈbɪʃəp/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a priest of high rank in some Christian churches *the Bishop of Oxford*

bison /ˈbaɪsᵊn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bison** a large, wild animal similar to a cow with long hair

bistro /ˈbiːstrəʊ/ *noun* [C] an informal place to eat or drink, in a French style

O-K **bit¹** /bɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** SMALL AMOUNT a small amount or piece of something *I wrote it down on a bit of paper.* ○ *There's a little bit more pasta left.* ○ *My favourite bit of the film is right at the end.* ○ *The books are falling* ***to bits*** (= into separate parts). **2 a bit a** SLIGHTLY slightly *It's a bit cold in here.* ○ *It was a bit too expensive.* **b** SHORT TIME *informal* a short time *I'll see you* ***in a bit.*** ○ *She lived in Italy* ***for a bit.*** **3 a bit of a change/fool/problem, etc** a change, fool (= stupid person), problem, etc, but not an important or serious one *I am a bit of a romantic.* ○ *It was a bit of a shock.* **4 quite a bit** *informal* a lot *He does quite a bit of travelling.* ○ *She is quite a bit older than him.* **5 a bit much** *informal* more than is fair, or more than you can deal with *It's a bit much to expect me to tidy up their mess.* **6 bit by bit** gradually *She saved up the money, bit by bit.* **7 every bit as** used to emphasize that one thing is equally good, important, etc as something else *The gardens are every bit as impressive as the castle itself.* **8 bits and pieces** small things or jobs which are not connected or not very important *We've packed most of it up now, there are just a few bits and pieces left.* **9** COMPUTING a unit of information in a computer **10** SPORT a piece of metal which goes in the mouth of a horse to control it

bit² /bɪt/ *past tense of* bite

bitchy /ˈbɪtʃi/ *adjective* If someone is bitchy, they are unkind about other people. *a bitchy comment*

O-K **bite¹** /baɪt/ *verb past tense* **bit,** *past participle* **bitten 1** TEETH [I, T] to cut something using your teeth *She* ***bit into*** *an apple.* ○ *He bites his fingernails.* ○ *He was bitten by a dog.* **2** BAD EFFECT [I] to begin to have a bad effect *Higher mortgage rates are beginning to bite.* ➲See also: bite the **bullet**, bite the **dust**¹ **3 come back to bite you** If a problem will come back to bite you, it will causes more trouble for you in the future if you do not solve it now.

bite² /baɪt/ *noun* **1** PIECE OF FOOD [C] a piece taken from food when you bite it *She* ***took a bite*** *from her pizza.* **2** INJURY [C] an injury caused when an animal or insect bites you *mosquito bites* **3 a bite** a small meal *I just want to grab a bite to eat.*

biting /ˈbaɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* A biting wind or biting cold is extremely cold and hurts your skin.

bitmap /ˈbɪtmæp/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer image formed from many small points on the screen

bitten /ˈbɪtən/ *past participle of* bite

bitter¹ /ˈbɪtəʳ/ *adjective* **1** ANGRY angry and upset because of something bad which has happened that you cannot forget *I feel very* ***bitter about*** *my childhood.* **2** HATE full of hate or anger *a bitter argument/dispute* **3** FOOD having a strong, sour, usually unpleasant taste **4** COLD extremely cold *a bitter wind* **5 to/until the bitter end** until something is completely finished, usually something unpleasant *He was determined to stay right to the bitter end.* **6** DISAPPOINTED making you feel very disappointed *Losing the championship was a bitter disappointment.* ●**bitterness** *noun* [U]

bitter² /ˈbɪtəʳ/ *noun* [U] *UK* FOOD a type of beer with a bitter taste

bitterly /ˈbɪtəli/ *adverb* **1** UPSET in a way which shows strong negative emotion such as anger or disappointment *We were* ***bitterly disappointed*** *about the decision.* **2** WEATHER If it is bitterly cold, the weather is extremely and unpleasantly cold.

bitumen /ˈbɪtʃʊmən/ *noun* [U] a black sticky substance used for making roads and roofs

bivalve /ˈbaɪvælv/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of mollusc that has its body inside two connected shells

bizarre /bɪˈzɑːʳ/ *adjective* very strange and surprising *bizarre behaviour* ●**bizarrely** *adverb*

O-K **black¹** /blæk/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being the colour of coal or of the sky on a very dark night *a black jacket* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** PERSON Someone who is black has the dark skin typical of people from Africa. *black athletes/Americans* **3** OF BLACK PEOPLE relating to black people *the black community* **4** FOOD Black tea or coffee has no milk or cream added to it. **5** HUMOUR funny about unpleasant or frightening subjects *black comedy* **6** ANGRY angry *He gave her a black look.* **7** SITUATION If your situation or future is black, it is very bad. **8 black and blue** covered with bruises (= marks on your skin from being hit) **9 black and white** very clear or simple *The issue of nuclear weapons is not black and white.* ●**blackness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: **jet-black, pitch-black**

O-K **black²** /blæk/ *noun* **1** COLOUR [C, U] the colour of coal or of the sky on a very dark night *She always dresses* ***in black*** (= in black clothes). ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 6 **2** PERSON [C] a black person **3 in the black** If your bank account is in the black, it contains some money. **4 in black and white a** PRINT printed in a book, newspaper, or official document *Look at the contract - it's all there in black and white.* **b** NO COLOUR using or seeing no colours, but only black, white, and grey *I saw the original film in black and white.* ➲See also: **jet-black**

black³ /blæk/ *verb*
black out *phrasal verb* HEALTH *informal* to suddenly become unconscious

blackberry /ˈblækbᵊri/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small, soft, dark purple fruit with seeds

BlackBerry /ˈblækbᵊri/ *noun* [C] *trademark* COMPUTING a computer with no wires that fits in your hand and that you can use for documents, email and Internet access ●**BlackBerry** *verb* [I] to use a BlackBerry ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

blackbird /ˈblækbɜːd/ *noun* [C] a bird with black feathers and a yellow beak

blackboard /ˈblækbɔːd/ (*also US* **chalkboard**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a large board with a dark surface that teachers write on with chalk (= soft, white rock) ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ˌblack ˈbox *noun* [C] a small machine on an aircraft that people use to discover the reason for an aircraft accident

B

B

blackcurrant /ˌblækˈkʌrᵊnt/ *noun* [C] *UK* **FOOD** a very small, round, sour, dark purple fruit *blackcurrant juice/jelly*

ˌblack ˈdwarf *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a small, cool star formed from a very old white dwarf (= small star that is not very bright but contains a lot of matter)

blacken /ˈblækᵊn/ *verb* **1** DARK [I, T] to become black or to make something become black *Storm clouds blackened the sky.* **2** BAD [T] If you blacken someone's name, you say bad things about them.

ˌblack ˈeye *noun* [C] an eye that has a dark circle around it because it has been hit

ˌblack ˈhole *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** an area in outer space that sucks material and light into it from which it cannot escape

blacklist /ˈblæklɪst/ *verb* [T] to include someone on a list of people you think are bad or you will not deal with [**often passive**] *He was blacklisted by the banks and credit card companies.*

ˌblack ˈmagic *noun* [U] magic used for evil

blackmail /ˈblækmeɪl/ *noun* [U] when someone forces you to do something, or to pay them money, by saying they will tell another person something that you want to keep secret ●**blackmail** *verb* [T] [+ **into** + **doing sth**] *They used the photographs to blackmail her into spying for them.* ●**blackmailer** *noun* [C]

ˌblack ˈmarket *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS, LAW** illegal trading of goods that are not allowed to be bought and sold or that there are not enough of for everyone who wants them *the black market in heroin*

blackout /ˈblækaʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** when someone suddenly becomes unconscious **2** NO INFORMATION when information is kept from people [**usually singular**] *a **media/news blackout*** **3** NO ELECTRICITY a failure in the supply of electricity **4** NO LIGHTS a period during a war when no lights must show at night

blacksmith /ˈblæksmɪθ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to make things from metal, especially shoes for horses

bladder /ˈblædəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the organ where waste liquid is stored before it leaves your body ➲See also: **gall bladder**

blade /bleɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** the flat, sharp, metal part of a knife, tool, or weapon **2** **BIOLOGY** a long, narrow leaf of grass or a similar plant *a **blade of grass*** ➲See also: **razor blade, shoulder blade**

blame¹ /bleɪm/ *verb* [T] **1** to say or think that someone or something is responsible for something bad which has happened *Many people **blame** him **for** Tony's death.* ○ *Poor housing **is to blame** for many of their health problems.* ○ *They apologized for the delay and **blamed** it **on** technical problems.* **2** **I don't blame him/them/you, etc** used to say that you understand and accept the reason for what someone is doing *"I think I'll go home early." "I don't blame you - you look really tired."*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***blame***

apportion blame ● **get/shoulder/take** the blame **for** sth ● **lay/put** the blame **on** sth

blame² /bleɪm/ *noun* [U] when people say that someone or something is responsible for something bad *The manager should **take the blame for** the team's defeat.* ○ *They **put the blame on** faulty equipment.*

blameless /ˈbleɪmləs/ *adjective* not responsible for anything bad *They concluded that Lucy was entirely blameless.*

blanch /blɑːntʃ/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to put vegetables or similar foods into boiling water for a few minutes to make them white, remove the skins, get rid of strong flavours, or prepare them for freezing

bland /blænd/ *adjective* **1** not interesting or exciting *bland statements* **2** **FOOD** If food is bland, it does not have much taste.

blank¹ /blæŋk/ *adjective* **1** EMPTY with no writing, pictures, or sound *a **blank page*** ○ *a blank tape* ○ *The space for the date was **left blank**.* **2** **go blank** If your mind goes blank, you suddenly cannot remember or think of something. **3** NO FEELING showing no feeling or understanding *a **blank expression*** ➲See also: **point-blank**

blank² /blæŋk/ *noun* **1** [C] an empty space on a piece of paper or form where information can be given *Just **fill in the blanks**.* **2** **draw a blank** to be unable to get information, think of something, or achieve something *All their investigations have drawn a blank so far.*

ˌblank ˈcheque *UK* (*mainly US* **ˌblank ˈcheck**) *noun* [C] If you give someone a blank cheque, you allow them as much money as they want or need to do something.

blanket¹ /ˈblæŋkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** COVER a thick, warm cover that you sleep under **2** LAYER a thick layer of something *a blanket of cloud/snow*

blanket² /ˈblæŋkɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] including or affecting everything *a blanket ban*

blanket³ /ˈblæŋkɪt/ *verb* [T] to completely cover something *The ground was blanketed with snow.*

blankly /ˈblæŋkli/ *adverb* without showing any emotion or understanding *She just stared at me blankly.*

blare /bleəʳ/ (*also* **blare out**) *verb* [I] to make a very loud noise *There was **music blaring** from his room.*

blasphemy /ˈblæsfəmi/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** something which you say or do that shows you do not respect God or a religion ●**blasphemous** /ˈblæsfəməs/ *adjective* expressing blasphemy

blast² /blɑːst/ *verb* **1** NOISE [I, T] (*also* **blast out**) to make a very loud noise *rock music blasting from a stereo* **2** MOVE [I, T] to move through something or to hit something with force *Dixon blasted the ball past the goalkeeper.* **3** EXPLODE [T] to break through rock using explosives *They blasted a hole in the rock face.* **4** GUNS [T] to destroy a person or place with guns or bombs

blast off *phrasal verb* When a spacecraft blasts off, it leaves the ground to go into space.

blast³ /blɑːst/ *exclamation UK* used when you are annoyed at something *Blast! I forgot the keys.*

blast-off /ˈblɑːstɒf/ *noun* [U] when a spacecraft leaves the ground

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***blatant***

a blatant **attempt** to do sth ● a blatant **disregard for** sth ● a blatant **lie**

blatant /ˈbleɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* very obvious, with no attempt to be honest or behave well ***blatant lies***/*racism* ●**blatantly** *adverb*

blaze¹ /bleɪz/ *verb* [I] to burn or shine very brightly or strongly *The sun blazed down on the dry countryside.*

blaze² /bleɪz/ *noun* [C] **1** a large, strong fire *The blaze started in the hall.* **2 a blaze of colour/lights etc** very bright colour, lights, etc *The tulips provided a blaze of colour outside her window.* **3 a blaze of glory/publicity** a lot of public attention for a short time

blazer /ˈbleɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a type of jacket, often worn as part of a school uniform

blazing /ˈbleɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** HOT very hot *a blazing log fire* **2** ANGRY *UK* very angry *a* ***blazing row***

bleach¹ /bliːtʃ/ *noun* [U] a strong chemical used for cleaning things or removing colour from things

bleach² /bliːtʃ/ *verb* [T] to remove the colour from something or make it lighter using chemicals *She's bleached her hair.*

bleak /bliːk/ *adjective* **1** NO HOPE If a situation is bleak, there is little or no hope for the future. *The future is looking bleak for small clubs struggling with debts.* **2** NOT INTERESTING If a place is bleak, it is cold, empty and not attractive. *a bleak landscape* ●**bleakness** *noun* [U]

bleary /ˈblɪəri/ *adjective* If you have bleary eyes, you cannot see clearly because you are tired or have just woken up.

bleat /bliːt/ *verb* [I] **1** ANIMAL to make the noise of a sheep or goat **2** PERSON to speak or complain in a weak and annoying way *She keeps bleating about her lack of money.* ●**bleat** *noun* [C]

bled /bled/ *past of* bleed

bleed /bliːd/ *verb* [I] *past* **bled** to have blood coming from a cut in your body ●**bleeding** *noun* [U] *Try to stop the bleeding.*

bleep /bliːp/ *noun* [C] a short, high electronic noise ●**bleep** *verb* [I]

bleeper /ˈbliːpəʳ/ *UK* (*UK/US* **beeper**) *noun* [C] a small piece of electronic equipment which you carry that makes a sound when someone wants to speak to you

blemish /ˈblemɪʃ/ *noun* [C] a mark which spoils the appearance of someone or something

blend¹ /blend/ *verb* **1** MIX [T] to mix two or more things together completely *Blend the ingredients into a smooth paste.* **2** COMBINE [I, T] to combine two or more things *The team blends new, young players with more mature, experienced ones.*
blend in *phrasal verb* If something or someone blends in, they look or seem the same as the people or things around them and so are not easily noticed.

blend² /blend/ *noun* [C] a combination of two or more things *Their music is a blend of jazz and African rhythms.*

blender /ˈblendəʳ/ *noun* [C] an electric machine for making soft foods into a smooth liquid ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

bless /bles/ *verb* [T] **1** RELIGION to ask God to help or protect someone or something, or to make it holy *The priest blessed their marriage.* **2 be blessed with sth** to be lucky enough to have something good *He's blessed with a wonderful singing voice.* **3 Bless you!** something you say when someone sneezes **4 bless her/him/them, etc** *informal* used to show your affection for the person you are talking about *Peter, bless him, slept all the way through it.*

blessed /ˈblesɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** pleasant and wanted very much *The rain was a* ***blessed relief.*** **2** RELIGION holy *the Blessed Virgin Mary*

blessing /ˈblesɪŋ/ *noun* **1** LUCK [C] something which is lucky or makes you happy *It is a blessing that no one was hurt.* **2** APPROVAL [U] approval that someone gives to a plan or action *Mr Newton has* ***given*** *his* ***blessing*** *for the plan.* **3** RELIGION [C, U] protection or help from God, or a prayer to ask for this **4 a blessing in disguise** something that has a good effect, although at first it seemed that it would be bad **5 a mixed blessing** something which has both good and bad effects

blew /bluː/ *past tense of* blow

blight /blaɪt/ *noun* [**no plural**] something which has a very bad effect on something, often for a long time *the blight of poverty/unemployment* ○ *He became* ***a blight on*** *their lives.* ●**blight** *verb* [T] to cause damage to or have a bad effect on something *Injury has blighted his career.*

blind¹ /blaɪnd/ *adjective* **1** not able to see *She* ***went blind*** *after an accident.* ○ *This project provides guide dogs for* ***the blind.*** **2 be blind to sth** to not notice something, or not want to notice something *Drivers who speed are often blind to the risks they cause.* **3 blind panic/rage/trust, etc** an extremely strong feeling that makes you do things without thinking **4 a blind corner/bend** *UK* a bend or corner on a road that is dangerous because you cannot see cars coming around it ●**blindness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: **colour-blind,** turn a blind **eye**¹ (to sth)

blind² /blaɪnd/ *verb* **1** [T] to make someone blind, either for always or for a short time [**often passive**] *I was blinded by the car headlights.* **2 blind sb to sth** to make someone unable to understand the truth about someone or something *Love blinded her to all his faults.*

blind³ /blaɪnd/ *noun* [C] a cover that you pull down over a window ➲See also: **venetian blind**

ˌblind ˈdate *noun* [C] a romantic meeting between a man and a woman who have not met before

blindfold /ˈblaɪndfəʊld/ *noun* [C] a piece of cloth that you put over someone's eyes so they cannot see ●**blindfold** *verb* [T] to put a blindfold on someone

B

blinding /ˈblaɪndɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** A blinding light is extremely bright. **2** HEALTH A blinding headache (= pain in the head) is extremely painful.

blindly /ˈblaɪndli/ *adverb* **1** NOT SEEING not able to see or not noticing what is around you *Carly reached blindly for the light switch.* **2** NOT THINKING not thinking about what you are doing *They just blindly followed orders.*

ˈblind ˌspot *noun* [C] **1** DIFFICULTY a difficulty in accepting or understanding a particular thing *She has a complete blind spot where relations with the press are concerned.* **2** ROAD the part of the road just behind you, that you cannot see when you are driving

blink /blɪŋk/ *verb* **1** EYES [I, T] to open and close both of your eyes quickly **2** LIGHT [I] If a light blinks, it goes on and off quickly. ●**blink** *noun* [C]

blinkered /ˈblɪŋkəd/ *adjective* not willing to consider new or different ideas *a **blinkered attitude***

blip /blɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** CHANGE a small, temporary, and usually negative change from what usually happens *The rise in unemployment may just be a blip.* **2** SOUND/LIGHT a small spot of light on an electronic screen, sometimes with a short, high sound

bliss /blɪs/ *noun* [U] complete happiness *My idea of bliss is lying on a sunny beach.* ●**blissful** *adjective* making you feel very happy *a blissful childhood* ●**blissfully** *adverb She seemed **blissfully unaware** of the chaos she had caused.*

blister¹ /ˈblɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a painful, raised area of skin with liquid inside, that you get if your skin has been rubbed or burned, or a similar area on a painted surface

blister² /ˈblɪstəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] HEALTH to get or cause blisters

blistering /ˈblɪstᵊrɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** CRITICISM using very strong criticism *a **blistering attack*** **2** HEAT extremely hot *blistering sunshine* **3** SPEED extremely fast *The economy has grown at a blistering pace.*

blithely /ˈblaɪðli/ *adverb* without thinking about what might happen *People were **blithely ignoring** warnings not to swim in the river.*

blitz¹ /blɪts/ *noun* [C] **1** a lot of activity to achieve something in a short time *We had a cleaning blitz before my parents came home.* **2 the Blitz** bomb attacks on British cities during the Second World War

blitz² /blɪts/ *verb* [T] **1** DEFEAT to defeat someone or something completely **2** BOMB to drop bombs on something

blitzkrieg /ˈblɪtskriːg/ *noun* [C] a sudden, very strong attack in a war which is intended to defeat the enemy quickly

blizzard /ˈblɪzəd/ *noun* [C] a storm with strong winds and snow

bloated /ˈbləʊtɪd/ *adjective* **1** SWOLLEN swollen because of air or liquid inside **2** TOO MUCH FOOD feeling uncomfortable because you have eaten too much

blob /blɒb/ *noun* [C] a small amount of a thick liquid *a blob of cream/glue* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1

bloc /blɒk/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a group of countries with similar political ideas, who work together *the communist bloc*

block¹ /blɒk/ *noun* [C] **1** PIECE a solid piece of something, usually in the shape of a square or rectangle *a block of ice/stone/wood* **2** DISTANCE *US* the distance along a street from where one road crosses it to the place where the next road crosses it *They only live two blocks away from the school.* **3** BUILDING a large building containing many apartments or offices *UK a **block of flats*** **4** GROUP OF BUILDINGS a square group of buildings or houses with roads on each side *Omar took the dog for a walk **round the block.*** **5** CANNOT THINK If you have a block about something, you cannot understand it or remember it. *I had a complete **mental block** about his name.* **6** STOP PROGRESS something that makes it difficult to move or make progress **7** AMOUNT an amount or group of something that is considered together *This block of seats is reserved.* ➲See also: be a **chip¹** off the old block, **stumbling block, tower block**

block² /blɒk/ *verb* [T] **1** CANNOT PASS (*also* **block up**) to prevent anyone or anything from passing through a place *A fallen tree blocked the road.* ○ *The sink is blocked up.* ○ *a blocked drain* **2** STOP PROGRESS to stop something from happening or making progress *The council's blocked plans for a new supermarket.* **3** CANNOT SEE to be between someone and the thing they are looking at, so that they cannot see *A pillar was blocking my view.*
block sth off *phrasal verb* to close a road, path, or entrance so that people cannot use it *Police blocked off the road where the body was found.*
block sth out *phrasal verb* **1** NOT THINK to try to stop yourself thinking about something unpleasant *I've blocked out memories of the accident.* **2** LIGHT/NOISE to stop light or noise passing through something *Most sunscreens block out UVB radiation.*

blockade /blɒkˈeɪd/ *noun* [C] when a government or soldiers stop goods or people from entering or leaving a place *The government **imposed a blockade on** oil trading.* ●**blockade** *verb* [T]

blockage /ˈblɒkɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] something that stops something else passing through *His death was caused by a blockage in his arteries.*

blockbuster /ˈblɒkˌbʌstəʳ/ *noun* [C] *informal* a book, film, etc that is very popular and successful *a new blockbuster movie*

ˌblock ˈcapitals *noun* [plural] LANGUAGE letters in the form A, B, C, not a, b, c

ˈblock ˌgraph *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a graph (= mathematical picture showing measurements) in which different amounts are shown by rectangular blocks

blog /blɒg/ (also **weblog**) *noun* [C] INTERNET a record of your thoughts that you put on the Internet for other people to read ●**blog** *verb* [I] ●**blogger** /ˈblɒgəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person who writes or reads a blog ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

bloke /bləʊk/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a man *Jake's a nice bloke.*

blonde¹ (*also* **blond**) /blɒnd/ *adjective* **1** HAIR Blonde hair is pale yellow. **2** PERSON Someone who is blonde has pale yellow hair.

blonde² (*also* **blond**) /blɒnd/ *noun* [C] someone, especially a woman, who has pale yellow hair

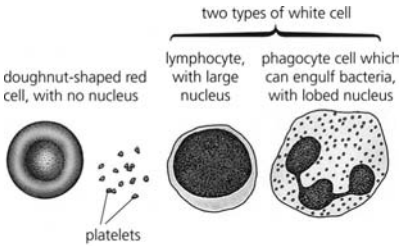

blood cells

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***blood***

donate/give blood (= allow blood to be taken from your body for someone else's body) ● a **drop/pool/trickle** of blood ● a blood **test**

blood /blʌd/ *noun* [U] **1** BIOLOGY the red liquid that flows around your body ***a blood test/sample*** **2** SOCIETY the family or place that you come from *I've got some Spanish blood in me.* **3 be in your blood** If something is in your blood, you and other people in your family are interested in it or good at it. *Sailing is in my blood.* **4 bad blood** feelings of hate between people because of things that have happened in the past **5 in cold blood** in a cruel way, without showing any emotion *He shot three policemen in cold blood.* **6 new blood** new people in an organization who will provide new ideas and energy
➲See also: your own **flesh** and blood

bloodbath /ˈblʌdbɑːθ/ *noun* [**no plural**] an extremely violent event in which many people are killed

blood-curdling /ˈblʌdˌkɜːdlɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely frightening ***a blood-curdling scream***

ˈblood ˌdonor *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who gives some of their blood for ill people who need it

ˈblood ˌgroup *UK* (*UK/US* **blood type**) *noun* [C] HEALTH, BIOLOGY one of the groups that human blood is divided into

bloodless /ˈblʌdləs/ *adjective* achieved without killing or violence ***a bloodless coup***

ˈblood ˌpressure *noun* [U] HEALTH the force with which blood flows around your body ***high/low blood pressure***

bloodshed /ˈblʌdʃed/ *noun* [U] when people are killed or injured in fighting *Peace talks have failed to end the bloodshed in the region.*

bloodshot /ˈblʌdʃɒt/ *adjective* HEALTH Bloodshot eyes are red in the part that should be white.

ˈblood ˌsport *noun* [C] SPORT a sport in which animals are killed

bloodstained /ˈblʌdsteɪnd/ *adjective* Something that is bloodstained has blood on it.

bloodstream /ˈblʌdstriːm/ *noun* [**no plural**] BIOLOGY the flow of blood around your body

bloodthirsty /ˈblʌdˌθɜːsti/ *adjective* enjoying using or watching violence

ˈblood transˌfusion *noun* [C] HEALTH when blood is put into someone's body

ˈblood ˌtype (*also UK* **blood group**) *noun* [C] HEALTH, BIOLOGY one of the groups that human blood is divided into

ˈblood ˌvessel *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY one of the small tubes that blood flows through in your body

bloody¹ /ˈblʌdi/ *adjective* **1** BLOOD covered in blood *bloody hands* **2** VIOLENT violent and involving a lot of blood and injuries *a bloody war*

bloody² /ˈblʌdi/ *adjective, adverb UK very informal* used to show anger or to emphasize what you are saying in a slightly rude way *I can't find my bloody keys.* ○ *We were bloody lucky to win.*

bloom¹ /bluːm/ *noun* **1** [C] a flower *beautiful, pink blooms* **2 in bloom** with flowers that are open *In June the roses are in bloom.*

bloom² /bluːm/ *verb* [I] **1** BIOLOGY If a plant blooms, its flowers open. **2** to develop and become successful, happy, or healthy *Their romance bloomed while they were in Paris.*

blossom¹ /ˈblɒsəm/ *noun* [C, U] BIOLOGY a small flower, or the small flowers on a tree or plant *cherry blossom*

blossom² /ˈblɒsəm/ *verb* [I] **1** BIOLOGY If a tree blossoms, it produces flowers. **2** to develop and become successful or beautiful *She has* ***blossomed into*** *a world champion.*

blot¹ /blɒt/ *verb* [T] **blotting,** *past* **blotted** to dry wet marks using soft paper or a cloth
blot sth out *phrasal verb* **1** NOT THINK to stop yourself from thinking about something unpleasant *I've tried to blot out memories of my relationship with Dieter.* **2** CANNOT SEE If smoke or cloud blots out the sun, it prevents it from being seen.

blot² /blɒt/ *noun* **1** [C] a mark on something, made by ink or paint falling on it **2 a blot on sth** something that spoils something else *The financial scandal was a blot on his reputation.*

blotch /blɒtʃ/ *noun* [C] a mark on something, especially your skin ●**blotchy** (*also* **blotched**) *adjective* having blotches

ˈblotting ˌpaper *noun* [U] thick paper used for drying wet ink

blouse /blaʊz/ (US) /blaʊs/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing like a shirt that women wear

blow¹ /bləʊ/ *verb, past tense* **blew,** *past participle* **blown 1** WIND [I] If the wind blows, it moves and makes currents of air. *A cool sea breeze was blowing.* **2** PERSON [I] to force air out through your mouth *She blew on her coffee before taking a sip.* **3 blow sth down/across/off, etc** If the wind blows something somewhere, it makes it move in that direction. *The storm blew trees across the road.* **4** MOVE [I] to move in the wind *branches blowing in the breeze* **5** INSTRUMENT [I, T] to make a sound by forcing air out of your mouth and through an instrument *Ann blew a few notes on the trumpet.* **6** ART [T] to make shapes out of something by blowing it *to blow bubbles* **7** SPEND [T] *informal*

B

to spend a lot of money quickly and without considering it seriously *Lou **blew** all her prize money **on** a diamond necklace.* **8 blow it/your chance(s)** *informal* If you blow it or blow your chance, you lose an opportunity to do something by doing or saying the wrong thing. *Tom blew his chances of getting the job by arriving late for the interview.* **9 blow your nose** to clear your nose by forcing air through it into a handkerchief (= piece of cloth or soft paper) **10** ELECTRICITY [**I, T**] If a piece of electrical equipment blows, it suddenly stops working because the electric current is too strong. ➲See also: blow your **mind**[1], blow/get sth out of **proportion**

blow sb away *phrasal verb mainly US informal* to surprise or please someone very much *a movie that will blow you away*

blow (sth) out *phrasal verb* If a flame blows out, or if you blow it out, it stops burning because you or the wind have blown it.

blow over *phrasal verb* If a storm or an argument blows over, it ends.

blow (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to destroy something or kill someone with a bomb, or to be destroyed by a bomb *Terrorists blew up an office building in the city.*

blow sth up *phrasal verb* to fill something with air *blow up a balloon*

blow up *phrasal verb* **1** START If a storm or an argument blows up, it starts suddenly. **2** BECOME ANGRY *informal* to suddenly become very angry

blow[2] /bləʊ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** DISAPPOINTMENT a shock or disappointment *Losing his job was a terrible **blow to** him.* **2** HIT a hard hit with a hand or heavy object *He suffered serious **blows to** the head during the attack.* **3** INSTRUMENT when you blow something or blow into an instrument or other object *a blow on the whistle* **4 come to blows** to fight or argue

blow-by-blow /ˌbləʊbaɪˈbləʊ/ *adjective* **a blow-by-blow account/description** a description of an event that gives all the details in the exact order that they happened

blow-dry /ˈbləʊdraɪ/ *verb* [**T**] to dry your hair in a particular style using a hairdryer (= electrical equipment for drying hair) ●**blow-dry** *noun* [**no plural**] *I had a cut and blow-dry.*

ˈblow ˌmoulding *noun* [**U**] **DT** a method of making bottles and containers where air is blown into melted plastic

blown /ˈbləʊn/ *past participle of* blow

blowout /ˈbləʊaʊt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** TYRE when a tyre suddenly explodes while a vehicle is still moving **2** MEAL/PARTY *informal* an expensive meal or a big party **3 SPORT** *US informal* when one team or player beats another easily in a sport

bludgeon /ˈblʌdʒən/ *verb* [**T**] to hit someone several times with a heavy object [**often passive**] *She was bludgeoned to death with a hammer.*

O-key **blue**[1] /bluː/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being the same colour as the sky when there are no clouds *a dark blue jacket* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** SAD *informal* sad **3** SEX about sex *a blue joke/movie* ➲See also: **black**[1] and blue, once in a blue **moon**

O-key **blue**[2] /bluː/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] the colour of the sky when there are no clouds ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 6 **2 out of the blue** If something happens out of the blue, you did not expect it. *One day, completely out of the blue, I had a letter from her.*

bluebell /ˈbluːbel/ *noun* [**C**] a plant with small, blue flowers shaped like bells

blueberry /ˈbluːbᵊri/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a small, sweet, dark blue fruit that grows on bushes

blue-chip /ˌbluːˈtʃɪp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **ECONOMICS** A blue-chip company or investment is considered certain to make a profit.

blue-collar /ˌbluːˈkɒləʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A blue-collar worker does physical work, especially in a factory.

blueprint /ˈbluːprɪnt/ *noun* [**C**] a plan that shows how someone will design, build, or achieve something *a blueprint for political reform*

blues /bluːz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1 MUSIC** a type of slow, sad music that was developed by African-Americans *jazz and blues* **2 have/get the blues** *informal* to feel or become sad

Bluetooth /ˈbluːtuːθ/ *noun* [**U**] *trademark* a technology that allows equipment such as computers and mobile phones to connect with no wires or cables *a Bluetooth headset*

bluff[1] /blʌf/ *verb* [**I, T**] to pretend you will do something or that you have knowledge, in order to force someone to do something *He won't really leave her - he's only bluffing.*

bluff[2] /blʌf/ *noun* **1** [**C**] an attempt to bluff **2 call sb's bluff** to tell someone to do the thing they say they will do, because you do not think they will do it

blunder[1] /ˈblʌndəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a serious and often stupid mistake *a series of financial blunders*

blunder[2] /ˈblʌndəʳ/ *verb* **1** [**I**] to make a serious mistake **2 blunder around/into, etc** to move somewhere in a heavy way, as if you cannot see well *He blundered around, looking for the light switch.*

blunt[1] /blʌnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT SHARP not sharp *a blunt knife* **2** RUDE saying exactly what you think without caring about people's feelings *a blunt letter* ●**bluntness** *noun* [**U**]

blunt[2] /blʌnt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** FEELING to make a feeling less strong *Mario's comments blunted everyone's enthusiasm.* **2** LESS SHARP to make something less sharp

bluntly /ˈblʌntli/ *adverb* saying exactly what you think without caring about people's feelings

blur[1] /blɜːʳ/ *verb* [**I, T**] **blurring,** *past* **blurred 1** LESS OBVIOUS to make the difference between two things less clear, or to make it difficult to see the exact truth about something *a book that blurs the distinction between reality and fiction* **2** DIFFICULT TO SEE to become difficult to see clearly, or to make something become difficult to see clearly *soft sunlight that blurred the edges of the mountains*

blur² /blɜːʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] something that you cannot see or remember clearly *The accident happened so quickly that it's all a blur.*

blurb /blɜːb/ *noun* [C] a short description to advertise a product, especially a book

blurred /blɜːd/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLEAR (*also* **blurry** /ˈblɜːri/) not clear *a blurred photograph* ○ *blurred memories* **2** POOR SIGHT If your sight is blurred, you cannot see clearly. *blurred vision*

blurt /blɜːt/ (*also* **blurt out**) *verb* [T] to say something suddenly and without thinking, especially because you are excited or nervous *"Will you marry me?" he blurted.*

blush /blʌʃ/ *verb* [I] If you blush, your face becomes red, especially because you are embarrassed. *He **blushed with** shame.* ●**blush** *noun* [C]

blusher /ˈblʌʃəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **blush**) *noun* [U] red powder or cream that women put on their faces in order to make them more attractive

bluster /ˈblʌstəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to speak in a loud and angry way, often with little effect ●**bluster** *noun* [U]

blustery /ˈblʌstᵊri/ *adjective* very windy *a cold, blustery day*

ˌB ˈlymphocyte (*also* **B-cell**) *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of blood cell that produces antibodies (= substances in the blood that fight disease)

boa constrictor /ˌbəʊəkənˈstrɪktəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large, strong snake, found in South and Central America, that kills animals and birds by wrapping itself around them and crushing them

boar /bɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** FARM ANIMAL a male pig **2** WILD ANIMAL (*also* **wild boar**) a wild pig

board¹ /bɔːd/ *noun* **1** WOOD [C] a long, thin, flat piece of wood *He nailed some boards across the broken window.* **2** SURFACE [C] a flat piece of wood, plastic, etc used for a particular purpose *an **ironing board*** ○ *a **chopping board*** **3** INFORMATION [C] a piece of wood, plastic, etc on a wall, where information can be put *Have you seen the poster on the board?* **4** EDUCATION [C] a surface on the wall of a school room that the teacher writes on *Copy down the sentences from the board.* **5** GAMES [C] a piece of wood, cardboard, etc for playing games on *a chess board* **6** ORGANIZATION [**group**] a group of people who officially control a company or organization, or a particular type of business activity *The board approved the sales plan.* ○ *the Gas/Tourist Board* **7 on board** on a boat, train, aircraft, etc **8** MEALS [U] meals that are provided when you stay in a hotel *bed and board* ○ *How much is a single room with **full board*** (= all meals)*?* **9 across the board** affecting everyone or every part of something *Jobs are likely to be lost across the board.* ➲See also: **bulletin board, diving board, drawing board, full board, half board, ironing board**

board² /bɔːd/ *verb* **1** GET ON A VEHICLE [I, T] to get on a bus, boat, aircraft, etc *He boarded the train to London.* **2** TRAIN/AIRCRAFT ETC [I] If an aircraft, train, etc is boarding, passengers are getting onto it.

board sth up *phrasal verb* to cover a door or window with wooden boards

boarder /ˈbɔːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** EDUCATION *UK* a student who lives at school **2** *US* (*UK* **lodger**) someone who pays for a place to sleep and meals in someone else's house **3** SPORT someone who goes snowboarding (= sport where you stand on a board to move over snow)

ˈboard ˌgame *noun* [C] a game such as chess that is played on a board

ˈboarding ˌhouse *noun* [C] a house where you pay for a room and meals

ˈboarding ˌpass (*also* **ˈboarding ˌcard**) *noun* [C] a piece of paper you must show to get on an aircraft

ˈboarding ˌschool *noun* [C] EDUCATION a school where students live and study

boardroom /ˈbɔːdruːm/ *noun* [C] a room where the people who control a company or organization have meetings

boast¹ /bəʊst/ *verb* **1** PRIDE [I, T] to talk with too much pride about what you have done or what you own *I wish she would stop **boasting about** her exam results.* [+ **that**] *Liam boasted that he owned two sports cars.* **2** HAVE [T] If a place boasts something good, it has it. *New York boasts some of the best museums in the world.*

boast² /bəʊst/ *noun* [C] something you are proud of and like to tell people about

boastful /ˈbəʊstfᵊl/ *adjective* talking with too much pride *boastful remarks*

O-K **boat** /bəʊt/ *noun* **1** [C] a vehicle for travelling on water *a fishing boat* **2 be in the same boat** to be in the same unpleasant situation as other people *She complains that she doesn't have enough money, but we're all in the same boat.* **3 miss the boat** to be too late to get what you want *I'm afraid you've missed the boat. All the tickets have been sold.* **4 push the boat out** *UK* to spend a lot of money, especially when you are celebrating **5 rock the boat** to do or say something that changes a situation in a way that causes problems ➲See also: **rowing boat**

bob /bɒb/ *verb* [I] **bobbing,** *past* **bobbed** to move up and down quickly and gently *boats bobbing in the harbour*

bobby /ˈbɒbi/ *noun* [C] *UK informal old-fashioned* a police officer

ˈbobby ˌpin *US* (*UK* **hairgrip**) *noun* [C] a small, thin piece of metal, used to fasten a woman's hair in position

bode /bəʊd/ *verb literary* **bode ill/well** to be a bad or good sign for the future *These religious differences do not bode well for their marriage.*

bodily¹ /ˈbɒdɪli/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] BIOLOGY relating to a person's body ***bodily strength***

bodily² /ˈbɒdɪli/ *adverb* If you move someone bodily, you lift or push them. *He carried her bodily out of the room.*

B

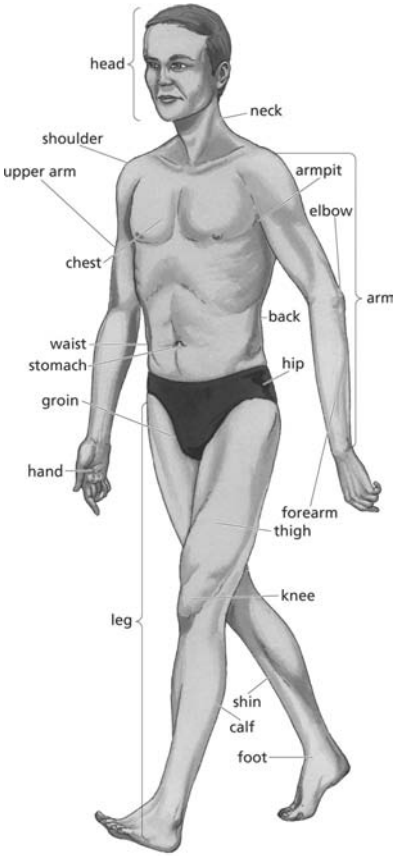

body

body /ˈbɒdi/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] the whole physical structure of a person or animal *the human body* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** DEAD [C] a dead person *Police found the body in a field.* **3** NOT ARMS/LEGS [C] the main part of a person or animal's body, not the head, arms, or legs *a dog with a thin body and short legs* **4** GROUP [**group**] an official group of people who work together *the sport's regulatory body* **5** MAIN PART [**no plural**] the main part of something *The body of the book is about his childhood.* **6** AMOUNT [**no plural**] a large amount of information *a body of research into AIDS* **7** VEHICLE [C] the main part of a vehicle *The body of the ship was not damaged.*

bodybuilding /ˈbɒdibɪldɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT doing exercises with heavy weights to make your muscles big ●**bodybuilder** *noun* [C]

bodyguard /ˈbɒdigɑːd/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to protect someone

ˈbody ˌlanguage *noun* [U] the way you move your body, that shows people what you are feeling

bog¹ /bɒg/ *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY an area of soft, wet ground

bog² /bɒg/ *verb* **bogging, *past* bogged**
be bogged down *phrasal verb* to become so involved in something that you cannot do anything else *Try not to get too bogged down in details.*

boggle /ˈbɒgl/ *verb* **the mind boggles** *UK informal* (*US* **it boggles the mind** *informal*) something you say if something is difficult for you to accept, imagine, or understand *The mind boggles at the stupidity of some people.* ➲See also: **mind-boggling**

bogus /ˈbəʊgəs/ *adjective* pretending to be real *a bogus doctor* ○ *bogus documents*

bohemian /bəʊˈhiːmiən/ *adjective* typical of artists, musicians, etc, who live in a more informal way than most people

boil¹ /bɔɪl/ *verb* [I, T] **1** PHYSICS If a liquid boils, or if you boil it, it reaches the temperature where bubbles rise up in it and it produces steam. *boiling water* **2** CONTAINER If a container of liquid boils, or if you boil it, the liquid inside it reaches the temperature where bubbles rise up in it and it produces steam. *I've boiled the kettle.* **3** FOOD to cook food in water that is boiling *Boil the pasta for 10 minutes.* ➲See picture at **cook**
boil down to sth *phrasal verb* If a situation or problem boils down to something, that is the main reason for it. *The problem boils down to one thing - lack of money.*
boil over *phrasal verb* **1** LIQUID If a liquid that is being heated boils over, it flows over the side of the pan. **2** SITUATION/FEELING If a difficult situation or bad emotion boils over, it cannot be controlled any more and people start to argue or fight.

boil² /bɔɪl/ *noun* **1 bring sth to the boil** FOOD to heat something until it starts to produce bubbles and steam *Bring the water to the boil, then add the rice.* **2** HEALTH [C] a red swollen area on the skin that is infected

boiler /ˈbɔɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that provides hot water for a house

boiling /ˈbɔɪlɪŋ/ (*also* **ˌboiling ˈhot**) *adjective informal* very hot *It's boiling in here!*

ˈboiling ˌpoint *noun* [C] MEASURES, PHYSICS the temperature that a liquid boils at

boisterous /ˈbɔɪstʳəs/ *adjective* noisy and full of energy *a boisterous child* ●**boisterously** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bold***

a bold **decision/move/plan/step**

bold¹ /bəʊld/ *adjective* **1** NOT FRIGHTENED not frightened of taking risks *It was a **bold decision** to go and live abroad.* **2** COLOUR/SHAPE strong in colour or shape ***bold colours*** ○ *a **bold design*** **3** LETTERS words that are printed in bold letters are darker and thicker than normal words ●**boldly** *adverb* ●**boldness** *noun* [U]

bold² /bəʊld/ *noun* [U] a style of printing in which the letters are darker and thicker than usual

bollard /ˈbɒlɑːd/ *noun* [C] *UK* a short thick post in a road, used to stop cars driving somewhere

Bolshevik /ˈbɒlʃəvɪk/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a supporter of the political system introduced by Lenin in Russia in 1917 ●**Bolshevik** *adjective* ●**Bolshevism** /ˈbɒlʃəvɪzm/ *noun* [U]

bolster /ˈbəʊlstəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make something stronger by supporting or encouraging it *Strong sales are bolstering the economy.*

bolt¹ /bəʊlt/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR LOCKING a metal bar that you push across a door or window to lock it **2** FOR FASTENING a small piece of metal that is used with a nut (= metal piece with a hole in the middle) to fasten pieces of wood or metal together ➲See also: the nuts (**nut**) and bolts

bolt² /bəʊlt/ *verb* [T] **1** FASTEN to fasten two things together with a bolt *The seats in the cinema were bolted to the floor.* **2** LOCK to lock a door or window with a bolt **3 bolt down/out/through, etc** to move suddenly and quickly *The cat bolted out of the door when it saw the dog.* **4** EAT (*also* **bolt down**) to eat something very quickly

ˌbolt ˈupright *adverb* sitting or standing with your back very straight

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bomb***

plant a bomb ● a bomb **explodes/goes off** ● a bomb **attack/blast** ● a bomb **scare/threat/warning**

O-➡**bomb¹** /bɒm/ *noun* [C] a weapon that explodes and causes damage *The bomb destroyed several office buildings in the city.* ➲See also: **atomic bomb**

bomb² /bɒm/ *verb* **1** [T] to attack a place using bombs *The factories were bombed during the war.* **2 bomb along/down/through, etc** *UK informal* to move very quickly *A car came bombing down the road.*

bombard /bɒmˈbɑːd/ *verb* [T] to continuously attack a place using guns and bombs ●**bombardment** *noun* [C, U] *an* ***aerial bombardment*** **bombard sb with sth** *phrasal verb* to give someone too much information, ask them too many questions, etc

bomber /ˈbɒməʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** AIRCRAFT an aircraft that drops bombs **2** PERSON someone who puts a bomb somewhere

bombshell /ˈbɒmʃel/ *noun* [C] *informal* a piece of usually bad news that surprises you very much *He* ***dropped a bombshell*** *by announcing that he was quitting the sport.*

bona fide /ˌbəʊnəˈfaɪdi/ *adjective* real and honest *Make sure you are dealing with a bona fide company.*

bonang /ˈbɒnæŋ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument from Indonesia, with several metal pots placed on strings over a wooden frame

bonanza /bəˈnænzə/ *noun* [C] a situation in which many people are successful and get a lot of money *The Internet is a bonanza for the computer industry.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bond***

create/forge/form/strengthen a bond ● a **close** bond ● a bond **with** sb **/between** sb and sb

bond¹ /bɒnd/ *noun* [C] **1** an interest, experience, or feeling that makes two people feel connected *A love of opera created a* ***bond between*** *them.* **2** **FINANCE** an official document from a government or company to show that you have given them money that they will pay back with a certain amount of extra money **3** (*also* **chemical bond**) **CHEMISTRY** the way two atoms are joined together in a chemical compound

bond² /bɒnd/ *verb* **1** JOIN [I, T] If two things bond, they stick together, or if you bond them, you make them stick together. *This glue bonds wood and metal in seconds.* **2** RELATIONSHIP [I] to develop a strong relationship with someone *Physical contact helps a mother* ***bond with*** *her baby.*

bondage /ˈbɒndɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] when someone is completely controlled by something or is a slave (= owned by the person they work for)

O-➡**bone¹** /bəʊn/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [C, U] one of the hard pieces that make the structure inside a person or animal *He broke a bone in his hand.* **2 a bone of contention** something that people argue about **3 have a bone to pick with sb** *informal* to want to talk to someone because you are annoyed about something they have done **4 make no bones about sth/doing sth** to say what you think or feel, without being embarrassed *She made no bones about her reluctance to work with me.*

bone² /bəʊn/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to remove the bones from meat or fish

ˈbone ˌmarrow *noun* [U] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the soft substance inside bones

bonfire /ˈbɒnfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large fire outside, often used for burning waste

bonkers /ˈbɒŋkəz/ *adjective informal* crazy

bonnet /ˈbɒnɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** CAR *UK* (*US* **hood**) the metal cover of a car's engine ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **2** HAT a hat that you tie under your face

bonus /ˈbəʊnəs/ *noun* [C] **1** **FINANCE** an extra amount of money that you are given, especially because you have worked hard *All employees received a bonus of £500.* **2** another pleasant thing in addition to something you were expecting *The sunny weather was an* ***added bonus****.*

bony /ˈbəʊni/ *adjective* very thin, so that you can see or feel bones *bony elbows*

boo /buː/ *verb* [I, T] **booing,** *past* **booed** to shout the word "boo" to show that you do not like a speech, performance, etc ●**boo** *noun* [C]

boob /buːb/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** BREAST a woman's breast **2** MISTAKE a silly mistake

booby prize /ˈbuːbiˌpraɪz/ *noun* [C] a prize that you get if you finish last in a competition

booby trap /ˈbuːbiˌtræp/ *noun* [C] something dangerous, especially a bomb, that is hidden somewhere that looks safe ●**booby-trap** *verb* [T] [**often passive**] His car was booby-trapped.

B

book¹ /bʊk/ *noun* **1** TEXT [C] a set of pages fastened together in a cover for people to read *a book about animals* **2 a book of stamps/tickets, etc** a set of stamps, tickets, etc that are fastened together inside a cover **3** FOR WRITING [C] a set of pages fastened together in a cover and used for writing on *an **address book*** **4 do sth by the book** to do something exactly as the rules tell you **5 be in sb's good/bad books** *UK informal* If you are in someone's good books, they are pleased with you, and if you are in their bad books, they are angry with you. ➲See also: **cookery book,** take a **leaf¹** out of sb's book, **phone book, reference book**

book² /bʊk/ *verb* **1** ARRANGE [I, T] to arrange to use or do something at a particular time in the future *to book a ticket/hotel room* ○ *We've booked a trip to Spain for next month.* ○ *Sorry, the hotel is **fully booked*** (= has no more rooms). **2** CRIME [T] to officially accuse someone of a crime *Detectives **booked** him **for** resisting arrest.* **3 SPORT** [T] *UK* If a sports official books you, they write an official record of something you have done wrong. *The referee **booked** two players **for** fighting during the game.*
book in/book into sth *phrasal verb UK* to say that you have arrived when you get to a hotel
book sb in/book sb into sth *phrasal verb mainly UK* to arrange for someone to stay at a hotel

bookcase /ˈbʊkkeɪs/ *noun* [C] a piece of furniture with shelves for putting books on ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

ˈbook ˌclub *noun* [C] a group of people who meet regularly to talk about books they have read

bookie /ˈbʊki/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone whose job is to take and pay out money that people risk trying to guess the result of horse races, sports events, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***booking***

accept/cancel/make/take a booking ● an **advance** booking ● a booking **for** sth ● a booking **fee/form**

booking /ˈbʊkɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] *mainly UK* an arrangement you make to have a hotel room, tickets, etc at a particular time in the future ***advance booking***

bookkeeping /ˈbʊkˌkiːpɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** recording the money that an organization or business spends and receives ●**bookkeeper** *noun* [C]

booklet /ˈbʊklət/ *noun* [C] a small, thin book that contains information *The tourist office has booklets about the area.*

bookmaker /ˈbʊkˌmeɪkər/ *noun* [C] a bookie

bookmark¹ /ˈbʊkmɑːk/ *noun* [C] **1** something you put in a book so you can findthe page you want **2 INTERNET** an address on the Internet that you record so that you can quickly find something again *Add this website to your bookmarks.*

bookmark² /ˈbʊkmɑːk/ *verb* [T] **INTERNET** to make a record of the address of an Internet document in your computer so that you canfind it again easily

ˌbook of prime ˈentry *noun* [C] **FINANCE** one of the books or computer files, for example the cash book, where a business's financial records are kept

books /bʊks/ *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** the written financial records of a business or organization

bookseller /ˈbʊkˌselər/ *noun* [C] a person or company that sells books

bookshelf /ˈbʊkʃelf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bookshelves** a shelf for holding books

bookshop /ˈbʊkʃɒp/ *UK* (*US* **bookstore** /ˈbʊkstɔːr/) *noun* [C] a shop that sells books

bookworm /ˈbʊkwɜːm/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who enjoys reading very much

Boolean /ˈbuːliən/ *adjective* **COMPUTING** in a database, a Boolean field can have the values 'true' or 'false' *Boolean data* ○ *a Boolean search*

boom¹ /buːm/ *noun* [C] **1 ECONOMICS** a period when there is a big increase in sales or profits *an **economic boom*** ○ *The 1990's saw a **boom in** computer sales.* **2** a loud, deep sound ➲See also: **baby boom**

boom² /buːm/ *verb* [I] **1** INCREASE If something is booming, it is increasing or becoming more successful or popular very quickly. *House prices are booming.* **2** SOUND to make a loud, deep sound, or to speak in a loud, deep voice

boomerang /ˈbuːməræŋ/ *noun* [C] a curved piece of wood that comes back to you when you throw it

boon /buːn/ *noun* [C] something helpful that improves your life [**usually singular**] *Microwaves are a boon for busy people.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***boost***

give sb/sth a boost ● **receive** a boost ● a **huge/major/massive/much-needed** boost ● a **confidence/morale** boost ● a boost **to** sth ● a boost **for** sb

boost¹ /buːst/ *noun* [C] something that makes you feel more confident and happy, or that helps something increase or improve *Increased tourism was a major **boost to** the local economy.*

boost² /buːst/ *verb* [T] to increase or improve something *Getting the job has **boosted** my **confidence**.*

booster /ˈbuːstər/ *noun* **1 a confidence/morale, etc booster** something that makes you feel happier or more confident **2** [C] an engine on a spacecraft that gives extra power for the first part of a flight

boot¹ /buːt/ *noun* [C] **1** SHOE a strong shoe that covers your foot and part of your leg *a **pair of boots*** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on pages Centre 8,9 **2** CAR *UK* (*US* **trunk**) a closed space at the back of a car for storing things in ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **3 get/be given the boot** *informal* to be told that you must leave your job **4 too big for your boots** *UK informal* (*US* **too big for your britches** *informal*) behaving as if you are more important or more clever than you really are ➲See also: **car boot sale**

boot² /buːt/ *verb* [T] *informal* to kick someone or something

boot sb out *phrasal verb informal* to make someone leave a place or job

bootcut /ˈbuːtkʌt/ *adjective* bootleg

booth /buːð/ *noun* [C] a small area that is separated from a larger public area, especially used for doing something privately *a telephone booth*

bootleg /ˈbuːtleg/ (*also* **bootcut**) *adjective* bootleg trousers are wider at the bottom than at the knee ●**bootlegs** *noun* [**plural**]

booty /ˈbuːti/ *noun* [U] valuable things stolen by thieves or by an army in a war

booze¹ /buːz/ *noun* [U] *informal* alcoholic drinks

booze² /buːz/ *verb* [I] *informal* to drink alcohol

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***border***

cross the border ● **across/on/over** the border ● the border **between** [France and Spain/Switzerland and Italy, etc] ● [Germany's/Syria's, etc] border **with** [France/Lebanon, etc] ● the [French/Mexican, etc] **side** of the border ● border **controls /guards**

O-ᴹ**border¹** /ˈbɔːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** DIVIDE the line that separates two countries or states *the **border between** France and Spain* ○ *We **crossed the border** from Canada into the US.* **2** EDGE a strip around the edge of something for decoration *white plates with a blue border*

border² /ˈbɔːdəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** EDGE to form a line around the edge of something [**often passive**] *The fields are bordered by tall trees.* **2** NEXT TO to have a border with another country [**often passive**] *Spain is bordered by France and Portugal.*
border on sth *phrasal verb* to almost be a more extreme thing *Her anger bordered on aggression.*

borderline¹ /ˈbɔːdᵊlaɪn/ *adjective* If something or someone is borderline, it is not clear if they are good enough or if they will succeed. ***Borderline cases** should take the exam again.*

borderline² /ˈbɔːdᵊlaɪn/ *noun* [**no plural**] the point where one feeling, quality, level, etc ends and another one begins *My work was **on the borderline between** two grades.*

bore¹ /bɔːʳ/ *verb* **1** MAKE BORED [T] to make someone feel bored *His war stories really bore me.* **2** MAKE A HOLE [I, T] to make a hole in something hard with a tool

bore² /bɔːʳ/ *noun* **1** PERSON [C] someone who talks too much about things that are not interesting **2** SITUATION [**no plural**] a situation or job that annoys you because it causes difficulties or is not interesting *It's a real bore not having a car.*

bore³ /bɔːʳ/ *past tense of* bear

O-ᴹ**bored** /bɔːd/ *adjective* feeling tired and unhappy because something is not interesting or because you have nothing to do *I'm **bored with** doing homework.* ○ *We were **bored stiff*** (= extremely bored) *in her lessons.* ●**boredom** /ˈbɔːdəm/ *noun* [U] when you are bored *I nearly died of boredom.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***boring***

We often use **bland** when describing food: *This sauce is really **bland**, it doesn't taste of anything.*

If a film, play, book, etc. or a person is boring, you can say that they are **dull**: *I find her writing a bit **dull**.*

Monotonous is often used about something that you listen to: *The teacher had a really **monotonous** voice and I almost fell asleep.*

When describing an activity, **tedious** is sometimes used: *You have to fill in various forms, which is a bit **tedious**.*

If speech or writing is boring because it is too long, we can describe it as **long-winded**: *He gave this really **long-winded** explanation about why he'd changed his mind.*

O-ᴹ**boring** /ˈbɔːrɪŋ/ *adjective* not interesting or exciting *a boring job* ○ *The film was so boring, I fell asleep.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

bored or **boring?**

Bored is used to describe how someone feels about something.

He didn't enjoy the lesson because he was bored.

~~*He didn't enjoy the lesson because he was boring.*~~

If something or someone is **boring**, they make you feel bored.

The book was long and boring.

O-ᴹ**born¹** /bɔːn/ *verb* **be born a** When a person or animal is born, they come out of their mother's body and start to exist. *She was born in London in 1973.* ○ *an American-born writer* (= born in America) **b** If an idea is born, it starts to exist.

born² /bɔːn/ *adjective* **a born actor/leader/teacher, etc** someone who has a natural ability to act, lead, teach, etc

born-again /ˌbɔːnəˈgen/ *adjective* **a born-again Christian** RELIGION someone who has become a very enthusiastic member of the Christian religion

borne /bɔːn/ *past participle of* bear

boron /ˈbɔː.rɒn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a hard, yellow-brown chemical element used in nuclear reactors and to make steel hard (symbol **B**)

borough /ˈbʌrə/ (US) /ˈbɜːrəʊ/ *noun* [C] a town or part of a city

O-ᴹ**borrow** /ˈbɒrəʊ/ *verb* **1** USE [T] to use something that belongs to someone else and give it back later *Can I borrow a pen please?* ○ *I **borrowed** the book **from** my sister.* **2** ECONOMICS, FINANCE [I, T] to take money from a bank or financial organization and pay it back over a period of time **3** IDEA [T] to take and use a word or idea *The English word 'rucksack' is **borrowed from** German.*

borrower /ˈbɒrəʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE someone who borrows money

B

bosom /ˈbʊzᵊm/ *noun* **1** [C] a woman's breasts **2 a bosom buddy/pal, etc** a very good friend

boss¹ /bɒs/ *noun* [C] someone who is responsible for employees and tells them what to do *I'll ask my boss if I can leave work early tomorrow.*

boss² /bɒs/ (*also* **boss about/around**) *verb* [T] to tell someone what they should do all the time *My older brother is always bossing me about.*

bossy /ˈbɒsi/ *adjective* always telling other people what to do ●**bossiness** *noun* [U]

botanist /ˈbɒtᵊnɪst/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** someone who studies plants

botany /ˈbɒtᵊni/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the scientific study of plants ●**botanical** /bəˈtænɪkəl/ (*also* **botanic** /bəˈtænɪk/) *adjective* relating to botany

botch /bɒtʃ/ (*also* **botch up**) *verb* [T] to spoil something by doing it badly *a botched robbery*

both /bəʊθ/ *pronoun, determiner, quantifier* **1** used to talk about two people or things *The children both have red hair.* ○ ***Both of*** *my sisters are teachers.* ○ *Would you like cream, ice cream, or both?* **2 both...and...** used to emphasize that you are talking about two people or things *Both Jack and his wife are keen chess players.* ➲See also: have the **best³** of both worlds

bother¹ /ˈbɒðᵊ/ *verb* **1** ANNOY [T] to annoy someone by trying to get their attention when they do not want to see you or talk to you *Sorry to bother you, but could you spare any change?* **2** WORRY [T] to make someone feel worried or upset *Living on my own doesn't bother me at all.* **3** DO [I, T] to make the effort to do something [+ **doing sth**] *Don't bother making the bed - I'll do it later.* [+ **to do sth**] *He didn't even bother to call.* **4 can't be bothered** *informal* If you can't be bothered to do something, you are too lazy or tired to do it. [+ **to do sth**] *I can't be bothered to iron my clothes.* **5 not bothered** *UK informal* If you are not bothered about something, it is not important to you and does not worry you. *"Do you want tea or coffee?" "Either, I'm not bothered."*

bother² /ˈbɒðᵊ/ *noun* [U] trouble or problems *"Are you sure you don't mind taking me?" "No, **it's no bother**, really!"*

bothered /ˈbɒðəd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] If you are bothered about something, it is important to you and you are worried about it. *He's very **bothered about** what other people think.*

Botox /ˈbəʊtɒks/ *noun* [U] *trademark* **HEALTH** Botulinum Toxin: a drug used in a person's face to make it look smooth and young ●**Botox** *verb* [T]

bottle¹ /ˈbɒtl/ *noun* [C] a container for liquids, usually made of glass or plastic, with a narrow top *an empty bottle* ○ *a bottle of wine* ➲See also: **hot-water bottle**

bottle² /ˈbɒtl/ *verb* [T] to put liquid into a bottle [**often passive**] *This wine was bottled in France.* ○ *bottled beer/water*
bottle sth up *phrasal verb* to not allow yourself to show or talk about your feelings

ˈbottle ˌbank *noun* [C] *UK* **ENVIRONMENT** a large container outside, where you can put empty bottles so that the glass can be used again

bottleneck /ˈbɒtlnek/ *noun* [C] **1** PROBLEM something that causes a process to happen more slowly than it should **2** ROAD a narrow part of a road where traffic moves slowly

bottom¹ /ˈbɒtəm/ *noun* **1** LOWEST PART [C] the lowest part of something [**usually singular**] *Click on the icon **at the bottom of** the page.* **2** FLAT SURFACE [C] the flat surface on the lowest side of something [**usually singular**] *There was a price tag on **the bottom of** the box.* **3** LOWEST POSITION [**no plural**] the lowest position in a group, organization, etc *He got bad exam marks and is **at the bottom of** the class.* **4** SEA/RIVER ETC [**no plural**] the ground under a river, lake, or sea *Divers found the wreck on **the bottom of** the ocean.* **5** FURTHEST PART [**no plural**] the part of a road or area of land that is furthest from where you are *Go to the bottom of the road and turn left.* **6 BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** [C] the part of your body that you sit on **7 be at the bottom of sth** to be the cause of a problem or situation **8 get to the bottom of sth** to discover the truth about a situation ➲See also: **rock bottom,** from **top¹** to bottom

bottom² /ˈbɒtəm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] in the lowest position *the bottom drawer*

bottomless /ˈbɒtəmləs/ *adjective* **a bottomless pit** a supply, especially of money, that has no limit

the ˌbottom ˈline *noun* the most important fact in a situation *The bottom line is that if you don't work, you'll fail the test.*

bough /baʊ/ *noun* [C] *literary* a large branch on a tree

bought /bɔːt/ *past of* buy

boulder /ˈbəʊldᵊ/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a very large rock

ˈboulder ˌclay *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a type of heavy, sticky soil full of large rocks that is formed in and between large areas of ice

boulevard /ˈbuːləvɑːd/ *noun* [C] a wide road in a city, usually with trees along it

bounce¹ /baʊns/ *verb* **1** BALL [I, T] to hit a surface and then move quickly away, or to make something do this *The ball bounced high into the air.* **2** JUMP [I] to jump up and down several times on a soft surface *The children loved bouncing on the bed.* **3 bounce along/around/into, etc** to move somewhere in a happy and energetic way *Sarah bounced into the room with a big smile on her face.* **4 FINANCE** [I, T] If a cheque (= piece of printed paper you write on to pay for things) bounces, or a bank bounces it, the bank will not pay it because there is not enough money in the account.
bounce back *phrasal verb* **1** to be successful or happy again after a failure, disappointment, etc *After a terrible start the team bounced back and won the game.* **2 INTERNET** If an email bounces back, it is returned to you because the address is not correct or there is a computer problem.

bounce² /baʊns/ *noun* [C, U] when something bounces, or the quality that makes something able to bounce

bouncer /ˈbaʊnsəᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to stand at the door of a bar, party, etc and keep out people who are not wanted

bouncy /ˈbaʊnsi/ *adjective* **1** HAPPY happy and full of energy *She's very bouncy and confident.* **2** BOUNCE able to bounce *bouncy balls*

bound¹ /baʊnd/ *adjective* **1 bound to do sth** certain to do something, or certain to happen *You're bound to feel nervous before your driving test.* **2 bound up with sth** closely connected with something *A country's culture is bound up with its language and history.* **3** FORCED [**never before noun**] having a moral or legal duty to do something *The witness was **bound by** an oath to tell the truth.* **4** DIRECTION [**never before noun**] travelling towards a particular place *He was on a train **bound for** Berlin.*

bound² /baʊnd/ *verb* **bound across/down/into, etc** to move quickly with large steps or jumps *Guy bounded across the room to answer the phone.*

bound³ /baʊnd/ *noun* [C] a big jump ➲See also: by/in leaps (**leap²**) and bounds

bound⁴ /baʊnd/ *past of* bind

boundary /ˈbaʊndəri/ *noun* [C] **1** LINE a line that divides two areas or forms an edge around an area *The mountains mark the **boundary between** the two countries.* **2** LIMIT a limit *Such violence is beyond the boundaries of civilized conduct.*

boundless /ˈbaʊndləs/ *adjective* having no limit *He has **boundless energy/enthusiasm**.*

bounds /baʊndz/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] legal or social limits *They have overstepped **the bounds of** good taste.* **2 out of bounds** If a place is out of bounds, you are not allowed to go there. *The staff room is out of bounds to students.*

bounty /ˈbaʊnti/ *noun* **1** LARGE AMOUNT [C, U] a large or generous amount of something **2** REWARD [C] an amount of money paid as a reward

bouquet /bʊˈkeɪ/ *noun* [C] flowers that are tied together in an attractive way

bourbon /ˈbɜːbən/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a type of American whisky (= strong alcoholic drink)

bourgeois /ˈbɔːʒwɑː/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** typical of middle class people who are too interested in money and correct social behaviour *bourgeois values* ●**the bourgeoisie** /ˌbɔːʒwɑːˈziː/ *noun* [**group**] the middle class, that owns most of society's money

bout /baʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** a short period of activity or illness *a bout of depression* **2 SPORT** a fight in boxing

boutique /buːˈtiːk/ *noun* [C] a small shop that sells fashionable clothes

bovine /ˈbəʊvaɪn/ *adjective* relating to cows

bow¹ /baʊ/ *verb* [I, T] to bend your head or body forward in order to show respect or to thank an audience *The actors all bowed after the performance.* ○ *We **bowed** our **heads** in prayer.*
bow out *phrasal verb* to leave a job or stop doing an activity, usually after a long time *He **bowed out of** politics at the age of 70.*
bow to sth/sb *phrasal verb* to do what someone else wants you to do *The government are refusing to **bow to** public **pressure**.*

bow² /baʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** BEND when you bow *The actors came back on stage and **took a bow**.* **2** SHIP the front part of a ship

bow³ /bəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** KNOT a knot with two curved parts and two loose ends, that is used to tie shoes or as decoration **2 MUSIC** a long, thin piece of wood with hair stretched between the ends, used to play some musical instruments **3** WEAPON a piece of curved wood with string fixed to both ends, used for shooting arrows

bowel /baʊəl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the long tube that carries solid waste from your stomach out of your body [**usually plural**] *He's got trouble with his bowels.*

O-key **bowl¹** /bəʊl/ *noun* [C] a round, deep dish used for holding soup and other food *a bowl of rice/soup*

bowl² /bəʊl/ *verb* [I, T] **SPORT 1** to roll a ball along a surface as part of a game **2** in cricket, to throw a ball to the person who has to hit it

bowler /ˈbəʊləʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** in cricket, the player who throws the ball so someone can hit it ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

ˌbowler ˈhat *UK* (*US* **derby**) *noun* [C] a round, hard, black hat worn by men, especially in the past

bowling /ˈbəʊlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game in which you roll a large ball along a wooden track in order to knock down bottle-shaped objects

bowls /bəʊlz/ *noun* [U] *UK* **SPORT** a game in which you roll large balls as close as possible to a smaller ball

ˌbow ˈtie *noun* [C] a piece of cloth around the neck in the shape of a bow that men sometimes wear, especially at formal events

O-key **box¹** /bɒks/ *noun* **1** CONTAINER [C] a square or rectangular container *a cardboard box* ○ *a box of chocolates/matches* **2** SQUARE SPACE [C] a small square on a page that gives you information or where you write information *Tick the box if you would like more details.* **3** SMALL PLACE [C] a small area of a theatre, court, etc that is separate from where other people are sitting **4 the box** *informal* the television *What's **on the box** tonight?* ➲See also: **phone box, post box, witness box**

box² /bɒks/ *verb* **1 SPORT** [I, T] to do the sport of boxing **2** [T] (*also* **box up**) to put something in a box *We boxed up the old books.*
box sb/sth in *phrasal verb* to move so close to someone or something that they cannot move [**often passive**] *When I returned I found that my car had been boxed in.*

boxer /ˈbɒksəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who does the sport of boxing

boxers /ˈbɒksəz/ (*also* **ˈboxer ˌshorts**) *noun* [**plural**] loose underwear worn by men ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

boxing /ˈbɒksɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which two people hit each other while wearing big, leather gloves (= pieces of clothing for your hands) ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

ˈBoxing ˌDay *noun* [C, U] 26 December, a public holiday in Britain and Canada

ˈbox ˌoffice *noun* [C] the place in a theatre, cinema, etc where you buy tickets

B

boy¹ /bɔɪ/ *noun* **1** [C] a male child or young man *We've got three children - a boy and two girls.* **2 the boys** *informal* a group of male friends *Steve's gone out with the boys.*

boy² /bɔɪ/ (*also* **oh boy**) *exclamation* used when you are excited or pleased *Boy, that was good!*

ˈboy ˌband *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a pop music group made up of young men who sing and dance

boycott /ˈbɔɪkɒt/ *noun* [C] when someone refuses to buy, use, or do something because they do not approve of it *Environmental groups have called for a* ***boycott of*** *the company's products.* ●**boycott** *verb* [T] *Several countries boycotted the international peace talks.*

boyfriend /ˈbɔɪfrend/ *noun* [C] a man or boy who someone is having a romantic relationship with

boyhood /ˈbɔɪhʊd/ *noun* [U] the part of a male's life when they are a boy

boyish /ˈbɔɪɪʃ/ *adjective* like a boy *boyish charm*

ˌBoy ˈScout *UK* (*US* **ˈBoy ˌScout**) *noun* [C] a boy who belongs to an organization that teaches boys practical skills

bra /brɑː/ *noun* [C] a piece of woman's underwear that supports the breasts ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 5

brace¹ /breɪs/ *verb* **brace yourself** to prepare for something difficult or unpleasant *I* ***braced myself for*** *bad news.*

brace² /breɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** something that supports or holds something in the correct position *He wore a neck brace for months after the accident.* **2 HEALTH** a wire object that some children wear to make their teeth straight

bracelet /ˈbreɪslət/ *noun* [C] a piece of jewellery that you wear around your wrist

braces /ˈbreɪsɪz/ *UK* (*US* **suspenders**) *noun* [**plural**] two straps fixed to a pair of trousers that go over your shoulders and stop the trousers from falling down

bracing /ˈbreɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* Bracing weather or a bracing activity makes you feel cold but healthy and full of energy. *bracing sea air* ○ *a bracing walk*

bracket¹ /ˈbrækɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP a group of people whose ages, taxes, etc are between two limits *Most heart attack victims are in the 45-65 age bracket.* **2** SUPPORT a piece of metal, wood, etc, that is fixed to a wall to support something, especially a shelf

bracket² /ˈbrækɪt/ *verb* [T] **1 LANGUAGE** to put curved lines ( ) around words, phrases, numbers, etc to make them separate **2** to consider two or more people or things to be similar [**often passive**] *Canadian accents are often* ***bracketed with*** *American accents.*

brackets /ˈbrækɪts/ (*also* **parentheses**) *noun* [**plural**] *UK* **LANGUAGE** two curved lines ( ) used around extra information or information that should be considered as separate from the main part ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

bract /brækt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of leaf that grows from the area just below a flower

brag /bræg/ *verb* [I] **bragging,** *past* **bragged** to talk with too much pride about what you have done or what you own *He's always* ***bragging about*** *how much money he earns.*

braid¹ /breɪd/ *noun* **1** HAIR [C] *US* (*UK* **plait**) a single piece of hair made by twisting three thinner pieces over and under each other **2** CLOTH [U] a thin piece of cloth or twisted threads used for decorating clothes

braid² /breɪd/ *US* (*UK* **plait**) *verb* [T] to twist three pieces of hair over and under each other

braille /breɪl/ *noun* [U] a system of printing for blind people, using raised patterns that they read by touching

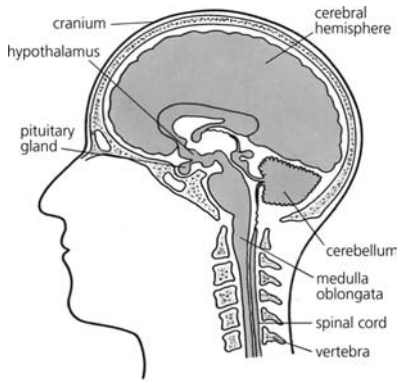

brain

brain /breɪn/ *noun* **1 ANATOMY** [C] the organ inside your head that controls your thoughts, feelings, and movements ***brain damage*** **2** [C] *informal* an extremely intelligent person [**usually plural**] *This university attracts some of the* ***best brains*** *in the country.* **3 brains** intelligence *He has brains and good looks.* **4 have sth on the brain** *informal* to think or talk about something all the time *You've got football on the brain!* **5 pick sb's brains** *informal* to ask someone for information *I want to pick your brains about keeping chickens.* **6 the brains behind sth** *informal* the person who has planned and organized something successful *Anthony is the brains behind the project.*

brainchild /ˈbreɪntʃaɪld/ *noun* **the brainchild of sb** someone's new and clever idea or invention *The project is the brainchild of a Japanese designer.*

brainstorm /ˈbreɪnstɔːm/ *US* (*UK* **brainwave**) *noun* [C] a sudden, clever idea

brainstorming /ˈbreɪnˌstɔːmɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when a group of people meet to develop new ideas *a* ***brainstorming session***

brainwash /ˈbreɪnwɒʃ/ *verb* [T] to make someone believe something by telling them that it is true many times [**+ into + doing sth**] *Advertising often brainwashes people into buying things they do not really need.* ●**brainwashing** *noun* [U]

brainwave /ˈbreɪnweɪv/ *UK* (*US* **brainstorm**) *noun* [C] a sudden, clever idea

brainy /ˈbreɪni/ *adjective informal* clever

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***brake***

apply/hit/slam on the brakes ● the brakes **fail**

brake¹ /breɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE the part of a vehicle that makes it stop or go more slowly **2** STOP PROGRESS something that stops or slows the progress of something *High inflation has **put the brakes on** economic growth.*

brake² /breɪk/ *verb* [I] to make a vehicle stop or move more slowly, using its brake

ˈbrake ˌpedal *noun* [C] the part of a car which you push with your foot to make it go more slowly ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

O-K **branch¹** /brɑːntʃ/ *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** one of the many parts of a tree that grows out from its trunk (= main, vertical part) **2** BUSINESS one of several shops, offices, etc that are part of a company or organization *a bank with branches all over the country* **3** SUBJECT a part of a subject *Neurology is a branch of medicine.*

branch² /brɑːntʃ/ (*also* **branch off**) *verb* [I] If a road, path, etc branches, it separates into two or more roads, paths, etc.
branch out *phrasal verb* to start to do something different from what you usually do, especially in your job *After working in publishing, she **branched out into** journalism.*

brand¹ /brænd/ *noun* [C] **1** PRODUCT a product that is made by a particular company *Which brand of toothpaste do you use?* **2** TYPE a particular type of something *a team that plays a distinctive brand of football*

brand² /brænd/ *verb* [T] **1** to describe someone or something in a way that makes them seem bad *The media branded him a liar.* **2 FARMING** to burn a mark on an animal to show who owns it

ˈbrand ˌequity *noun* [U] the value to a business of having products with a particular name or made by a particular company

ˈbrand exˌtension *noun* [U] in business, using a name for a new product that is already well known from other products

branding /ˈbrændɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the act of giving a company or a product a particular design or symbol in order to advertise it

brandish /ˈbrændɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to wave something in the air, especially a weapon *He came running into the room, brandishing a gun.*

ˈbrand ˌname *noun* [C] the special name that a company gives to a product

ˌbrand ˈnew *adjective* completely new

brandy /ˈbrændi/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a strong alcoholic drink made from wine

brash /bræʃ/ *adjective* too confident *a brash young businessman*

brass /brɑːs/ *noun* [U] **1** a shiny yellow metal *a door with a brass handle* **2 MUSIC** the group of musical instruments made from brass *a brass band*

brat /bræt/ *noun* [C] a child who behaves badly *a spoilt brat*

bravado /brəˈvɑːdəʊ/ *noun* [U] behaviour that is intended to make people admire you for your bravery and confidence

O-K **brave¹** /breɪv/ *adjective* showing no fear of dangerous or difficult situations *He died after a brave fight against cancer.* ●**bravely** *adverb*

brave² /breɪv/ *verb* [T] to deal with a dangerous or unpleasant situation in a brave way *Crowds braved the cold weather to watch the game.*

bravery /ˈbreɪvᵊri/ *noun* [U] when someone is brave

bravo /brɑːˈvəʊ/ *exclamation* something you shout to show that you approve of something, for example a performance

brawl /brɔːl/ *noun* [C] a noisy fight, usually in public *a drunken brawl in a bar* ●**brawl** *verb* [I]

brazen /ˈbreɪzᵊn/ *adjective* not feeling at all ashamed about your bad behaviour *a brazen cheat* ●**brazenly** *adverb*

BRB **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* be right back: used when you stop taking part in a discussion on the Internet

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***breach***

(a) breach **of** sth ● be **in** breach of sth ● a **flagrant** breach of sth

breach¹ /briːtʃ/ *noun* **1 LAW** [C, U] when someone breaks a rule, agreement, or law *a policy that is **in breach of** international law* ○ *He was sued for **breach of** contract.* **2** [C] *formal* a serious disagreement between two groups, countries, etc

breach² /briːtʃ/ *verb* [T] **LAW** to break a rule, law, or agreement

O-K **bread** /bred/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a basic food made by mixing and baking flour, water, and sometimes yeast (= substance that makes it rise) *a **slice of bread*** ○ *a **loaf of** white bread* ➲See also: the best/greatest **thing** since sliced bread

breadcrumbs /ˈbredkrʌmz/ *noun* [plural] **FOOD** very small pieces of dry bread, used in cooking

breadth /bretθ/ *noun* [U, no plural] **1** the distance from one side of something to the other side *a swimming pool with a breadth of 10 metres and a length of 50 metres* **2 sb's breadth of experience/knowledge/interest, etc** the great number of different things that someone has done, knows, is interested in, etc ➲See also: the **length** and breadth of sth

breadwinner /ˈbredˌwɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] the person who earns the money in a family

O-K **break¹** /breɪk/ *verb past tense* **broke,** *past participle* **broken 1** SEPARATE [I, T] to separate into two or more pieces, or to make something separate into two or more pieces *The vase fell on the floor and broke.* ○ *They had to break a window to get in.* **2 break your arm/leg, etc HEALTH** to damage a bone in your arm/leg, etc *Carolyn broke her leg in a skiing accident.* **3** NOT WORK [I, T] If you break a machine, object, etc, or if it breaks, it stops working because it is damaged. *Who broke the video?* **4 break an agreement/promise/rule, etc** to not do what you should do according to an agreement/promise/rule, etc *Police stopped him for breaking the speed limit.* **5 break the law LAW** to do

B

something illegal **6 break the news to sb** to tell someone about something unpleasant that has happened **7 break the silence** to make a noise, speak, etc and end a period of silence *The silence was broken by a sudden knock at the door.* **8 break a habit/routine, etc** to stop doing something that you usually do **9 break a record** to do something faster, better, etc than anyone else *He broke the world record for the 200m.* **10** REST [I, T] to stop the activity you are doing to have a short rest *Let's **break for** five minutes and have a drink.* **11** BECOME KNOWN [I, T] If news or a story breaks, or if someone breaks it, it becomes known by the public for the first time. **12** WEATHER [I] *UK* If the weather breaks, it changes suddenly, and usually becomes worse. **13** VOICE [I] When a boy's voice breaks, it becomes deeper and sounds like a man's voice. **14** WAVE [I] When a wave breaks, it reaches its highest point as it moves towards the land, and then becomes flat and white. **15** STORM [I] If a storm breaks, it starts suddenly. **16 break even** FINANCE to not make money but also not lose money **17 break free/loose** to suddenly escape or become separate from something **18 dawn/day breaks** When dawn (= early morning)/day breaks, the sky becomes lighter because the sun is rising. ➲See also: break new **ground**[1], break sb's **heart**, break the **ice**[1], break the **mould**[1], break ranks (**rank**[1])

break away *phrasal verb* **1** ESCAPE to suddenly leave or escape from someone who is holding you **2** LEAVE GROUP to stop being part of a group because you disagree with them *Some members broke away to form a new political party.*

break down *phrasal verb* **1** MACHINE If a machine or vehicle breaks down, it stops working. *My car broke down on the way to work.* **2** COMMUNICATION If a system, relationship, or discussion breaks down, it fails because there is a problem or disagreement. *Their marriage broke down after only two years.* **3** CRY to become very upset and start crying

break sth down *phrasal verb* to divide something into smaller, simpler parts

break in *phrasal verb* to get into a building or car using force, usually to steal something

break sth in *phrasal verb* to wear something new, usually shoes, for short periods of time to make them more comfortable

break into sth *phrasal verb* **1** USE FORCE to get into a building or car using force, usually to steal something **2** START to suddenly start doing something *The crowd broke into a cheer when he came on stage.*

break (sth) off *phrasal verb* to separate a part from a larger piece, or to become separate from something *He broke off a piece of chocolate.*

break off *phrasal verb* to suddenly stop speaking or doing something *She broke off in the middle of a sentence.*

break sth off *phrasal verb* to end a relationship *She **broke off the engagement** just two weeks before the wedding.*

break out *phrasal verb* **1** START If a fire, war, disease, etc breaks out, it starts suddenly. *A fight broke out among the crowd.* **2** ESCAPE to escape from prison *to break out of jail* **3 break out in a rash/sweat, etc** HEALTH to suddenly have spots or sweat (= salty liquid) appear on your skin

break through sth *phrasal verb* to force your way through something that is holding you back *Protesters broke through the barriers.*

break (sth) up *phrasal verb* to divide into many pieces, or to divide something into many pieces *The company has been broken up and sold.*

break up *phrasal verb* **1** PEOPLE If people break up, they stop having a relationship or stop working together. *He's just **broken up with** his girlfriend.* **2** EDUCATION *UK* When schools or colleges break up, the classes end and the holidays begin.

break[2] /breɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** STOP when you stop an activity for a short time, usually to rest or to eat *a **coffee/tea break*** ○ ***Take a break** and come back after lunch.* **2** HOLIDAY a holiday or period of time away from work, school, etc *the spring break* ○ *a **weekend break** to Paris* **3** OPPORTUNITY a lucky opportunity *His **big break** came when he was offered a part in a TV series.* ○ *Meeting Tom was my **lucky break**.* **4** DAMAGE where something has separated in an accident *a break in the bone* **5 a break with sth** when you end a relationship, connection, or way of doing something *a break with tradition*

breakable /ˈbreɪkəbl/ *adjective* able to break easily *a breakable vase*

breakage /ˈbreɪkɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] when something has been broken *The delivery company must pay for any breakages.*

breakaway /ˈbreɪkəweɪ/ *adjective* **a breakaway group/republic/region, etc** a group/region, etc that has separated itself from a larger group or region because of a disagreement

break-bulk /ˈbreɪkˌbʌlk/ *noun* [U] FINANCE in business, the practice of dividing large amounts of goods that have been bought into smaller amounts to sell again

breakdown /ˈbreɪkdaʊn/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH (*also* **nervous breakdown**) a short period of mental illness when people are too ill to continue with their normal lives *to **have a breakdown*** **2** FAILURE when something such as communication or a relationship fails or ends *a breakdown in the peace talks* **3** EXPLANATION a short explanation of the details of something *I need a breakdown of the costs involved.* **4** NOT WORKING when a vehicle or machine stops working for a period of time

ˈbreak-even ˌpoint *noun* [C usually singular] FINANCE in business, the point at which you have sold enough so that you have not lost money but have not made any profit

breakfast /ˈbrekfəst/ *noun* [C] FOOD the food you eat in the morning after you wake up *She had breakfast in bed this morning.* ●**breakfast** *verb* [I] ➲See also: **bed and breakfast, continental breakfast, English breakfast**

break-in /ˈbreɪkɪn/ *noun* [C] when someone forces their way into a building or car, usually to steal something *There has been another break-in at the office.*

ˈbreaking ˌpoint *noun* [U] when a situation has become so bad that it cannot continue *Things had become so bad at work they'd almost **reached breaking point**.*

breakneck /ˈbreɪknek/ *adjective* **breakneck speed/growth, etc** dangerously fast speed/growth, etc

breakout /ˈbreɪkaʊt/ *noun* [C] an escape, usually from prison

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***breakthrough***

make/provide a breakthrough ● a breakthrough **comes** ● a **big/crucial/major/real** breakthrough ● a **medical/scientific** breakthrough ● a breakthrough **in** sth

breakthrough /ˈbreɪkθruː/ *noun* [C] an important discovery or development that helps solve a problem *a **major breakthrough in** the fight against cancer*

break-up /ˈbreɪkʌp/ *noun* [C] **1** END when a close relationship ends *He moved away after the break-up of his marriage.* **2** SEPARATION when a country, group, etc separates into several smaller parts

breast /brest/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [C] one of the two soft, round parts on a woman's chest **2** [C, U] the front part of a bird's body, or the meat from this area *chicken breast*

breastbone /ˈbrestbəʊn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the long, flat vertical bone in the centre of your chest

breast-feed /ˈbrestfiːd/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **breast-fed** If a woman breast-feeds, she gives a baby milk from her breast. ●**breast-feeding** *noun* [U]

breaststroke /ˈbreststrəʊk/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a way of swimming in which you push your arms forward and then to the side, while you kick your legs backwards

breath /breθ/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [U] the air that comes out of your lungs *His breath smells of garlic.* **2** [C] when air goes into or out of your lungs *She **took a deep breath** before she started.* **3 be out of breath** to be breathing quickly because you have been running, walking fast, etc **4 catch your breath; get your breath back** to rest for a short time until you can breathe regularly again **5 under your breath** If you say something under your breath, you say it very quietly so that other people cannot hear it. **6 hold your breath** to keep air in your lungs and not let it out *How long can you hold your breath under water?* **7 don't hold your breath** *humorous* something that you say in order to tell someone that an event is not likely to happen *He said he'd phone, but don't hold your breath.* **8 a breath of fresh air** someone or something that is new, different, and exciting **9 take your breath away** If something takes your breath away, you feel surprise and admiration because it is so beautiful or exciting. *The view from the window took my breath away.* **10 with bated breath** in an excited or anxious way *I waited with bated breath as the results were read out.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

breath or **breathe?**

Be careful not to confuse the noun **breath** with the verb **breathe**.

I was so excited, I could hardly breathe.

breathalyser /ˈbreθəlaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* **LAW** a piece of equipment that tests your breath to measure how much alcohol you have had ●**breathalyse** *verb* [T] *UK* to measure the alcohol in someone's body using a breathalyser

O-key **breathe** /briːð/ *verb* [I, T] **BIOLOGY** to take air into and out of your lungs ***breathe in/out*** ○ ***breathe deeply*** ➲See also: be breathing down sb's **neck**, not breathe a **word**[1]

breather /ˈbriːðəʳ/ *noun* [C] *informal* a short rest *If you start to feel tired, **take a breather**.*

breathing /ˈbriːðɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when you take air into and out of your lungs *The doctor listened to my breathing.*

breathing space *noun* [U] an opportunity to stop, relax, or think about things

breathless /ˈbreθləs/ *adjective* not able to breathe enough ●**breathlessly** *adverb*

breathtaking /ˈbreθˌteɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* very beautiful or surprising ***breathtaking views*** ●**breathtakingly** *adverb*

bred /bred/ *past of* breed

breed[1] /briːd/ *noun* [C] **1** **FARMING** a type of dog, sheep, pig, etc *a rare breed of cattle* **2** a type of person or thing *a **new breed** of bank*

breed[2] /briːd/ *verb past* **bred** /bred/ **1** **BIOLOGY, FARMING** [I] If animals breed, they produce young animals. **2 breed chickens/horses/rabbits, etc** **FARMING** to keep animals in order to produce young animals **3 breed contempt/ignorance, etc** to cause something to develop, especially something bad

breeder /ˈbriːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** someone who keeps animals in order to produce young animals *a dog/horse breeder*

breeding /ˈbriːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** **1** when animals produce young animals *the **breeding season*** **2** when someone keeps animals in order to produce young animals *horse breeding*

breeding ground *noun* [C] **1** DEVELOP a place where something develops quickly, especially something bad *This estate is **a breeding ground for** crime.* **2** ANIMAL a place where animals breed

breeze[1] /briːz/ *noun* [C] a gentle wind *a cool breeze*

breeze[2] /briːz/ *verb informal* **breeze along/into/through, etc** to move somewhere quickly in a confident way and without worrying

breezy /ˈbriːzi/ *adjective* **1** WIND with a slight wind *a cool, breezy day* **2** HAPPY happy, confident, and enthusiastic *a cheerful, breezy style* ●**breezily** *adverb*

brethren /ˈbreðrən/ *noun* [plural] **RELIGION** members of an organized group, especially a religious group of men

brevity /ˈbrevəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* **1** WORDS when speech or writing is short and contains few words **2** TIME when something lasts for a short time

brew[1] /bruː/ *verb* **1** [T] to make beer **2** **FOOD** [I, T] If you brew tea or coffee, you make it by adding hot water, and if it brews, it gradually develops flavour in hot water. **3 be brewing** If

something bad is brewing, it is beginning to develop. *There is a row brewing over the plans.*

brew² /bruː/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** *informal* a drink made by brewing, such as beer or tea

brewer /ˈbruːər/ *noun* [C] a person or organization that makes beer

brewery /ˈbruːəri/ *noun* [C] a company that makes beer

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bribe***

accept /take a bribe • **offer** sb/**pay** a bribe • a **cash** bribe

bribe /braɪb/ *noun* [C] **LAW** money or a present given to someone so that they will do something for you, usually something dishonest *The politician was accused of* ***accepting bribes*** *from businessmen.* •**bribe** *verb* [T] [+ **to do sth**] *He was bribed to give false evidence at the trial.*

bribery /ˈbraɪbəri/ *noun* [U] **LAW** when someone is offered money or a present so that they will do something, usually something dishonest ***bribery and corruption***

bric-a-brac /ˈbrɪkəˌbræk/ *noun* [U] a collection of small, decorative objects that have little value

brick /brɪk/ *noun* [C] a small, hard, rectangular block used for building walls, houses, etc *a* ***brick wall*** ➲See also: be banging your **head**¹ against a brick wall

bricklayer /ˈbrɪkˌleɪər/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to build houses, walls, etc with bricks

bridal /ˈbraɪdəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to a woman who is getting married, or relating to a wedding *a bridal gown*

bride /braɪd/ *noun* [C] a woman who is getting married *the* ***bride and groom***

bridegroom /ˈbraɪdgruːm/ (*also* **groom**) *noun* [C] a man who is getting married

bridesmaid /ˈbraɪdzmeɪd/ *noun* [C] a woman or girl who helps the bride on her wedding day

bridge¹ /brɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** STRUCTURE [C] a structure that is built over a river, road, etc so that people or vehicles can go across it *to go across/over a bridge* ○ *Brooklyn Bridge* **2** CONNECTION [C] something that connects two groups, organizations, etc and improves the relationship between them *After the war they tried to* ***build bridges*** *with neighbouring countries.* **3 the bridge of your nose** **ANATOMY** the hard part of your nose between your eyes **4 the bridge** the raised area of a ship where the controls are **5** GAME [U] a card game for four players **6 I'll/We'll cross that bridge when I/we come to it.** something you say when you do not intend to worry about a possible problem now, but will deal with it if or when it happens

bridge² /brɪdʒ/ *verb* **bridge the gap/gulf, etc** to make the difference between two things smaller *This course is designed to* ***bridge the gap between*** *school and work.*

bridle /ˈbraɪdl/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a set of straps that you put on a horse's head to control it

brief¹ /briːf/ *adjective* **1** TIME lasting only for a short time *a brief visit* **2** WORDS using only a few words *a brief description/statement* **3 in brief** using only a few words *world news in brief* •**briefly** *adverb They discussed the matter briefly.*

brief² /briːf/ *verb* [T] to give someone instructions or information [**often passive**] *At the meeting reporters were* ***briefed on*** *the plans.*

brief³ /briːf/ *noun* [C] a set of instructions or information [+ **to do sth**] *My brief was to improve the image of the city.*

briefcase /ˈbriːfkeɪs/ *noun* [C] a flat, rectangular case with a handle for carrying documents, books, etc

briefing /ˈbriːfɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] a meeting when people are given instructions or information *a* ***press briefing***

briefs /briːfs/ *noun* [**plural**] underwear that you wear on your bottom *a pair of briefs* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

brigade /brɪˈgeɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** SOLDIER a large group of soldiers **2** GROUP *UK humorous* a group of people with a particular characteristic or interest *the anti-smoking brigade* ➲See also: **fire brigade**

brigadier /ˌbrɪgəˈdɪər/ *noun* [C] a British army officer of high rank

bright /braɪt/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR having a strong, light colour *bright yellow/blue* **2** LIGHT full of light or shining strongly *bright sunshine* **3** INTELLIGENT intelligent *He's a bright boy.* **4** HAPPY happy or full of hope *She's always so bright and cheerful.* •**brightly** *adverb* ***brightly coloured*** *flowers* •**brightness** *noun* [U]

brighten /ˈbraɪtən/ (*also* **brighten up**) *verb* [I, T] **1** LIGHT to become lighter or more colourful, or to make something become lighter or more colourful *A picture or two would brighten up the room.* **2** HAPPY to become happier, or to make someone become happier *She brightened up when she saw him.*

brilliant /ˈbrɪliənt/ *adjective* **1** GOOD *UK* very good *We saw a brilliant film.* **2** CLEVER extremely clever *a brilliant scholar* **3** LIGHT full of light or colour *The sky was a brilliant blue.* •**brilliantly** *adverb* •**brilliance** /ˈbrɪliəns/ *noun* [U]

brim¹ /brɪm/ *verb* **brimming,** *past* **brimmed be brimming with sth** to be full of something *Her eyes were brimming with tears.*

brim² /brɪm/ *noun* [C] **1** HAT the flat part around the bottom of a hat **2** TOP the top edge of a container *He* ***filled*** *my glass* ***to the brim.***

brine /braɪn/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** salty water, often used for keeping food from decaying *olives in brine*

bring /brɪŋ/ *verb* [T] *past* **brought 1** to take someone or something with you when you go somewhere *Did you bring an umbrella with you?* [+ **two objects**] *He brought me some flowers.* **2 bring happiness/peace/shame, etc** to cause happiness/peace/shame, etc *Money does not always bring happiness.* **3 can not bring yourself to do sth** to not be willing to do something because it is so unpleasant *He couldn't bring*

himself to talk to her. ➲See also: bring sb/sth to their knees (**knee**), bring sth to **light**[1]

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

bring or **take?**

Use **bring** to talk about moving something or someone towards the speaker or towards the place where you are now.

Did you bring any money?

I've brought you a present.

Use **take** to talk about moving something or someone away from the speaker or away from the place where you are now.

I can take you to the station.

Don't forget to take your umbrella.

bring sth about *phrasal verb* to make something happen *The Internet has **brought about** big **changes** in the way we work.*
bring sth back *phrasal verb* **1** FROM PLACE to return from somewhere with something [**+ two objects**] *Can you bring me back some milk from the shop, please?* **2** FROM PAST to make someone think about something from the past *The photos **brought back memories**.*
bring sb down *phrasal verb* to cause someone in a position of power to lose their job *This scandal could **bring down** the **government**.*
bring sth down *phrasal verb* to reduce the level of something *to **bring down prices***
bring sth forward *phrasal verb* to change the date or time of an event so that it happens earlier than planned *I've brought forward the meeting to this week.*
bring sth in *phrasal verb* **1** INTRODUCE to introduce something new, usually a product or a law *New safety regulations were brought in last year.* **2** EARN to earn or make money *The film has brought in millions of dollars.*
bring sb in *phrasal verb* to ask someone to do a particular job *We need to bring in an expert to sort out this problem.*
bring sth off *phrasal verb* to succeed in doing something difficult *How did he manage to bring that off?*
bring sth on *phrasal verb* to make something happen, usually something bad [**often passive**] *Headaches are often brought on by stress.*
bring sth out *phrasal verb* **1** PRODUCE to produce something to sell to the public *They have just brought out a new, smaller phone.* **2** MAKE NOTICEABLE to make a particular quality or detail noticeable *Salt can help to bring out the flavour of food.*
bring sb together *phrasal verb* to cause people to be friendly with each other *The disaster brought the community closer together.*
bring sb up *phrasal verb* to look after a child and teach them until they are old enough to look after themselves *She was brought up by her grandparents.*
bring sth up *phrasal verb* **1** TALK to start to talk about a particular subject *There are several points I'd like to bring up at tomorrow's meeting.* **2** VOMIT *UK* to vomit something

brink /brɪŋk/ *noun* **be on the brink of sth** to be in a situation where something bad is going to happen very soon *The two countries are on the brink of war.*

brisk /brɪsk/ *adjective* quick and energetic *a **brisk walk*** ●**briskly** *adverb*

bristle[1] /ˈbrɪsl/ *verb* [**I**] to show that you are annoyed about something *She **bristled at** the suggestion that it was her fault.*

bristle[2] /ˈbrɪsl/ *noun* [**C, U**] a short, stiff hair ●**bristly** *adjective*

Brit /brɪt/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* someone who comes from Great Britain

British /ˈbrɪtɪʃ/ *adjective* relating to Great Britain or the United Kingdom

the British /ˈbrɪtɪʃ/ *noun* [**plural**] the people of Great Britain or the United Kingdom

Briton /ˈbrɪtᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] someone who comes from Great Britain

brittle /ˈbrɪtl/ *adjective* hard but able to be broken easily *brittle bones*

broach /brəʊtʃ/ *verb* **broach an idea/subject/topic, etc** to begin to talk about something, usually something difficult or embarrassing *I don't know how to broach the subject of money with him.*

broad /brɔːd/ *adjective* **1** wide ***broad shoulders*** ○ *a broad smile* **2 a broad range/variety, etc** a group that includes many different things or people *a broad range of subjects* **3 a broad outline/picture, etc** a general description, without detail *This is just a broad outline of the proposal.* **4** **LANGUAGE** A broad accent (= way of speaking from a region) is very noticeable. **5 in broad daylight** during the day when it is light and people can see *He was attacked in broad daylight.*

broadband /ˈbrɔːdbænd/ *noun* [**U**] **COMPUTING** a system that allows large amounts of information to be sent very quickly between computers or other electronic equipment

broadcast[1] /ˈbrɔːdkɑːst/ *noun* [**C**] a television or radio programme *a news broadcast* ●**broadcast** *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to television or radio *broadcast news*

broadcast[2] /ˈbrɔːdkɑːst/ *verb* [**I, T**] *past* **broadcast**, *also US* **broadcasted** to send out a programme on television or radio [**often passive**] *The concert will be **broadcast live** next week.* ●**broadcaster** *noun* [**C**] someone who speaks on radio or television as a job ●**broadcasting** *noun* [**U**]

broaden /ˈbrɔːdᵊn/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** INCREASE to increase or make something increase and include more things or people *We need to broaden the range of services that we offer.* ○ *Travel **broadens your mind**.* **2** WIDER to become wider or make something become wider *Her smile broadened and she began to laugh.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *broadly*

broadly **in line with/similar** ● broadly **welcome** sth

broadly /ˈbrɔːdli/ *adverb* in a general way and not including everything or everyone *The plans have been broadly accepted.*

broadsheet /ˈbrɔːdʃiːt/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* a large newspaper, usually considered to be more serious than smaller newspapers

B

broccoli /ˈbrɒkəli/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a green vegetable with a thick stem

brochure /ˌbrəʊʃʊˑ/ US /brəʊˈʃʊr/ *noun* [C] a thin book with pictures and information, usually advertising something *a **holiday/travel brochure***

broil /brɔɪl/ *US* (*UK/US* **grill**) *verb* [T] **FOOD** to cook food using direct heat

broiler /ˈbrɔɪlɚ/ *US* (*UK/US* **grill**) *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used for cooking food under direct heat

broke¹ /brəʊk/ *adjective informal* **1 be broke** to not have any money **2 go broke** to lose all your money and have to end your business

broke² /brəʊk/ *past tense of* break

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***broken***

If a piece of equipment is broken (not working properly), you can use adjectives such as **dead**, **defunct**, or, informally, **bust** (*UK*): *You won't be able to watch the match, the telly's **bust**.* ● *The phone's **dead**, there must be a problem with the line.*

If a piece of equipment or machinery in a public place is broken, you can say that it is **out of order**: *The coffee machine was **out of order**.*

If a piece of equipment has broken, in informal situations you can use expressions like **have had it** and **give up the ghost**: *The kettle's **had it**, you'll have to boil a pan of water.* ● *I can't give you a lift - my car's **given up the ghost**.*

broken¹ /ˈbrəʊkən/ *adjective* **1** DAMAGED damaged and separated into pieces *broken glass* ➲Opposite **unbroken 2 a broken arm/leg, etc** **HEALTH** an arm/leg, etc with a damaged bone **3** NOT WORKING If a machine or piece of equipment is broken, it is not working. *The video's broken.* **4 a broken heart** when you are very sad because someone you love has ended a relationship with you **5 a broken home** a family in which the parents do not now live together **6 a broken promise** a promise that has not been kept **7 broken English/Spanish, etc** English/Spanish, etc that is spoken slowly and has a lot of mistakes in it

broken² /ˈbrəʊkən/ *past participle of* break

broken-down /ˌbrəʊkənˈdaʊn/ *adjective* not working or in bad condition *a broken-down vehicle*

broken-hearted /ˌbrəʊkənˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* very sad because someone you love has ended a relationship with you

broker¹ /ˈbrəʊkɚ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE 1** (*also* **stockbroker**) someone whose job is to buy and sell shares (= equal parts of a company's total value) **2 an insurance/mortgage, etc broker** someone who makes other people's financial arrangements for them

broker² /ˈbrəʊkɚ/ *verb* [T] to arrange an agreement *The peace deal was brokered by the US.*

brominate /ˈbrəʊmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T, I] **CHEMISTRY** to add bromine to something or to react with bromine ●**bromination** /ˌbrəʊmɪnˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

bromine /ˈbrəʊmiːn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element that is a strong-smelling, corrosive (= eats into other substances) dark red liquid that changes easily into a gas, used in photographic materials and other industries (symbol **Br**)

bronchiole /ˈbrɒŋkiəʊl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** in the lungs, one of the very small tubes that come out from the bronchi (= two main tubes) and connect to the alveoli (= little air bags) ➲See picture at **respiratory system** ➲See picture at **alveoli**

bronchitis /brɒŋˈkaɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness in your lungs which makes you cough and have problems breathing

bronchus /ˈbrɒŋkəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bronchi** **BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** one of the two tubes that come from the trachea (= tube from your throat to your lungs) and carry air into the lungs ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

bronze¹ /brɒnz/ *noun* **1** METAL [U] a shiny orange-brown metal **2** COLOUR [U] an orange-brown colour **3** PRIZE [C] a bronze medal (= a small, round disc given to someone for finishing third in a competition) *He won a bronze in the 200m.*

bronze² /brɒnz/ *adjective* **1** METAL made of bronze *a bronze statue* **2** COLOUR being the colour of bronze

ˌbronze ˈmedal *noun* [C] a small, round disc given to someone for finishing third in a race or competition

brooch /brəʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] a piece of jewellery for women which is fastened onto clothes with a pin *a diamond brooch*

brood¹ /bruːd/ *noun* [C] a family of young birds or animals, all born at the same time

brood² /bruːd/ *verb* [I] to think for a long time about things that make you sad or angry *I wish he'd stop **brooding about** the past.*

brook /brʊk/ *noun* [C] a small stream

broom /bruːm/ *noun* [C] a brush with a long handle used for cleaning the floor

broth /brɒθ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** soup, usually made with meat *chicken broth*

brothel /ˈbrɒθəl/ *noun* [C] a building where prostitutes (= people who have sex for money) work

brother /ˈbrʌðɚ/ *noun* [C] **1** a boy or man who has the same parents as you *an older/younger brother* ○ *my big/little brother* **2** a man who is a member of the same race, religious group, organization, etc **3** **RELIGION** (*also* **Brother**) a monk (= man who lives in a male religious group) *Brother Paul*

brotherhood /ˈbrʌðəhʊd/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [C] a group of men who have the same purpose or religious beliefs **2** [U] friendship and loyalty, like the relationship between brothers

brother-in-law /ˈbrʌðərɪnlɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **brothers-in-law** the man married to your sister, or the brother of your husband or wife

brotherly /ˈbrʌðəli/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to or typical of brothers *brotherly love*

brought /brɔːt/ *past of* bring

brow /braʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the front part of your head between your eyes and your hair *He wiped the sweat from his brow.* **2 brow of a hill/slope** *UK* the top part of a hill or slope

brown /braʊn/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being the same colour as chocolate or soil *a brown leather bag* ○ *dark brown hair/eyes* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** SKIN having darker skin because you have been in the sun ●**brown** *noun* [C, U] the colour brown

brownfield /ˈbraʊnfiːld/ *adjective UK* **ENVIRONMENT** describes land that was used for industry and where new buildings can be built *a brownfield site* ➲Compare **greenfield**

Brownian motion /ˌbraʊniənˈməʊʃᵊn/ (*also* **Brownian movement**) *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the movement of particles in a liquid or gas, caused by being hit by molecules of that liquid or gas

brownie /ˈbraʊni/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, square cake made with chocolate and nuts

browse /braʊz/ *verb* **1** **INTERNET** [I, T] to look at information on the Internet *to browse the Internet/Web* **2** READ [I] to read a book, magazine, etc in a relaxed way and not in detail *She **browsed through** some travel brochures looking for ideas.* **3** SHOP [I] to walk around a shop and look at things without buying anything *I love **browsing around** bookshops.*

browser /ˈbraʊzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **INTERNET** a computer program which allows you to look at pages on the Internet **2** someone who browses

bruise /bruːz/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a dark area on your skin where you have been hurt *He suffered **cuts and bruises** after falling off his bike.* ●**bruise** *verb* [T] to cause someone or something to have a bruise [**often passive**] He was badly bruised in the accident. ●**bruising** *noun* [U]

brunette /bruːˈnet/ *noun* [C] a white woman with dark brown hair

brunt /brʌnt/ *noun* **bear/feel/take the brunt of sth** to experience the worst part of something *He took the brunt of the criticism.*

brush¹ /brʌʃ/ *noun* **1** **ART** [C] an object made of short, thin pieces of plastic, wire, etc fixed to a handle and used to tidy hair, to clean, to paint, etc *a stiff wire brush* **2** [**no plural**] the action of using a brush *I need to **give** my hair a quick **brush**.* **3 the brush of sth** when something touches you lightly *She felt the brush of his lips against her cheek.* **4 a brush with sth** when you experience something, or almost experience something, especially something unpleasant *a brush with death*

brush² /brʌʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** to use a brush to clean or tidy something *to **brush your hair/teeth*** **2 brush sth away/off, etc** to move something somewhere using a brush or your hand *He brushed the snow off his coat.* **3 brush against/past sb/sth** to lightly touch someone or something as you move past *He brushed past me as he went up the stairs.*
brush sth aside/off *phrasal verb* to refuse to think about something seriously *He brushed aside her suggestion.*
brush up (on) sth *phrasal verb* to improve your skills in something *I'm trying to brush up on my French before I go to Paris.*

brush-off /ˈbrʌʃɒf/ *noun informal* **give sb the brush-off** to be unfriendly to someone by not talking to them

brusque /bruːsk/ (US) /brʌsk/ *adjective* dealing with people in a quick way that is unfriendly or rude *a **brusque manner*** ●**brusquely** *adverb*

brussel sprout /ˌbrʌsᵊlˈspraʊt/ (US) /ˈbrʌsᵊlˌspraʊt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, green vegetable which is round and made of leaves

brutal /ˈbruːtᵊl/ *adjective* very violent or cruel *a **brutal murder*** ●**brutally** *adverb brutally murdered* ○ ***brutally honest*** ●**brutality** /bruːˈtæləti/ *noun* [C, U]

brute¹ /bruːt/ *noun* [C] someone who behaves in a very violent and cruel way ●**brutish** /ˈbruːtɪʃ/ *adjective* like a brute

brute² /bruːt/ *adjective* **brute force/strength** great force or strength

BSc /ˌbiːesˈsiː/ *UK* (*US* **BS** /biːˈes/) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Bachelor of Science: a university or college qualification in a science subject which usually takes 3 or 4 years of study *He has a BSc in computer science.*

BSE /ˌbiːesˈiː/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* bovine spongiform encephalopathy: a disease that kills cows by destroying their brains

BTW **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* by the way: used when you write some extra information that may or may not be related to what is being discussed

bubble¹ /ˈbʌbl/ *noun* [C] a ball of air or gas with liquid around it *an air bubble*

bubble² /ˈbʌbl/ *verb* [I] **1** If a liquid bubbles, balls of air or gas rise to its surface. *The soup was bubbling on the stove.* **2 bubble (over) with confidence/enthusiasm, etc** to be full of a positive emotion or quality

ˈbubble ˌgum *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sweet that you chew and blow into a bubble

bubble-jet /ˈbʌbldʒet/ *adjective* **COMPUTING** A bubble-jet printer uses a very fast and quiet method of printing, in which ink is directed electronically onto the paper

bubbly /ˈbʌbli/ *adjective* **1** HAPPY happy and enthusiastic *a bubbly personality* **2** BUBBLES full of bubbles

Buchner funnel /ˈbuːxnəˌfʌnᵊl/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a piece of equipment used by scientists for filtering (= passing liquids through a layer of material to remove solid pieces) ➲See picture at **filtrate**

buck¹ /bʌk/ *noun* [C] **1** MONEY *US informal* a dollar (= US unit of money) *It cost me twenty bucks to get a new bike lock.* **2** ANIMAL a male rabbit or deer **3 pass the buck** to blame someone or to make them responsible for a problem that you should deal with yourself

buck² /bʌk/ *verb* [I] If a horse bucks, it kicks its back legs into the air.

bucket /ˈbʌkɪt/ *noun* [C] a round, open container with a handle used for carrying liquids *a bucket of water*

B

buckle¹ /ˈbʌkl/ *noun* [C] a metal object used to fasten the ends of a belt or strap *a silver buckle*

buckle² /ˈbʌkl/ *verb* **1** FASTEN [I, T] to fasten a belt or strap with a buckle **2** BEND [I, T] to bend, or to cause something to bend because of too much weight, heat, etc *His **legs buckled** as he reached the finishing line.* **3** SUFFER [I] to suffer and stop working effectively because of too many problems or too much work
buckle down *phrasal verb* to start working hard *I must **buckle down to** some work this afternoon.*

buckminsterfullerene /ˌbʌkmɪnstəˈfʊləriːn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a form of pure carbon found in soot (= black powder formed when coal is burned) (symbol C_{60})

bud /bʌd/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY a part of a plant that develops into a leaf or a flower *In spring the trees are covered in buds.* **2 nip sth in the bud** to stop a small problem from getting worse by stopping it soon after it starts ➲See also: **taste buds**

Buddha /ˈbʊdə/ (US) /ˈbuːdə/ *noun* RELIGION the Indian holy man on whose life and teachings Buddhism is based

Buddhism /ˈbʊdɪzᵊm/ (US) /ˈbuːdɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] RELIGION a religion based on the teachings of Buddha

Buddhist /ˈbʊdɪst/ (US) /ˈbuːdɪst/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who believes in Buddhism ●**Buddhist** *adjective a Buddhist temple*

budding /ˈbʌdɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] starting to develop well *a **budding romance***

buddy /ˈbʌdi/ *noun* [C] *informal* a friend *my best buddy*

budge /bʌdʒ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** MOVE If something will not budge, or you cannot budge it, it will not move. *I've tried to open the window, but it won't budge.* **2** CHANGE If someone will not budge, or you cannot budge them, they will not change their opinion.

budgerigar /ˈbʊdʒᵊrɪgɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a budgie

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***budget***

have a budget of [£30 000/$5000, etc] ● be **on** a tight budget (= not have much money) ● the budget **for** sth

budget¹ /ˈbʌdʒɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** FINANCE a plan that shows how much money you have and how you will spend it **2** FINANCE the amount of money you have for something *an **annual budget** of £30 million* **3 the Budget** ECONOMICS, POLITICS in the UK, when the government officially tells the public about its plans for taxes and spending ●**budgetary** *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to a budget

budget² /ˈbʌdʒɪt/ *verb* [I, T] FINANCE to plan how much money you will spend on something *An extra £20 million has been **budgeted for** schools this year.*

budget³ /ˈbʌdʒɪt/ *adjective* **a budget hotel/price, etc** a very cheap hotel, price, etc

budgie /ˈbʌdʒi/ *noun* [C] *UK* a small, brightly coloured bird often kept as a pet

buff¹ /bʌf/ *noun* [C] **a computer/film/wine, etc buff** someone who knows a lot about computers/films/wine, etc

buff² /bʌf/ *adjective informal* If someone's body is buff, it looks strong and attractive, as if they have had a lot of exercise

buffalo /ˈbʌfᵊləʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **buffaloes** or **buffalo** a large, wild animal, like a cow with horns *a herd of wild buffalo*

buffer /ˈbʌfəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** something that helps protect someone or something from harm *I have some money saved to act as **a buffer against** unexpected bills.* **2** COMPUTING an area in a computer memory where information can be stored for a short time

ˈbuffer ˌzone *noun* [C] an area created to separate two countries that are fighting

buffet¹ /ˈbʊfeɪ/ (US) /bəˈfeɪ/ *noun* [C] FOOD a meal in which dishes of food are arranged on a table and you serve yourself *a cold buffet ○ a buffet lunch*

buffet² /ˈbʌfɪt/ *verb* [T] If something is buffeted by the weather, sea, etc, it is hit repeatedly and with force. [**often passive**] *The little boat was buffeted by the waves.*

ˈbuffet ˌcar *noun* [C] *UK* the part of a train where you can buy something to eat or drink

buffoon /bəˈfuːn/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* someone who does silly things

bug¹ /bʌg/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH a bacteria or virus, or the illness that it causes *a flu/**stomach bug*** **2** COMPUTING a mistake in a computer program *This program is full of bugs.* **3** INSECT a small insect **4** EQUIPMENT a small, electronic piece of equipment used to secretly listen to people talking **5 be bitten by the bug/get the bug** *informal* to develop a strong interest or enthusiasm for a particular activity *He's been bitten by the tennis bug.*

bug² /bʌg/ *verb* [T] **bugging, *past* bugged 1** LISTEN to hide a piece of equipment somewhere in order to secretly listen to people talking [**often passive**] *Their hotel room had been bugged.* **2** ANNOY *informal* to annoy someone *He's been bugging me all morning.*

buggy /ˈbʌgi/ *noun* [C] **1** CHAIR *UK* (*US* **stroller**) a chair on wheels which is used to move small children **2** VEHICLE a vehicle with two wheels that is pulled by a horse, especially in the past

bugle /ˈbjuːgl/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a small, metal musical instrument that you play by blowing into it

build¹ /bɪld/ *verb past* **built 1** MAKE [I, T] to make something by putting materials and parts together *build a house/wall ○ The bridge **is built of** steel and aluminium.* **2** DEVELOP [T] to create and develop something over a long time *They have built a solid friendship over the years.*
build sth into sth *phrasal verb* to make something a part of something else *There are video screens built into the back of the seats.*
build on sth *phrasal verb* to use a success or achievement as a base from which to achieve more success
build (sth) up *phrasal verb* to increase or develop, or to make something increase or develop *Traffic usually builds up in the late afternoon.*

build² /bɪld/ *noun* [C, U] the size and shape of a person's body *He's of medium build with short brown hair.*

builder /ˈbɪldəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who makes or repairs buildings as a job

O-key **building** /ˈbɪldɪŋ/ *noun* **1** STRUCTURE [C] a structure with walls and a roof, such as a house, school, etc *an office building* **2** ACTIVITY [U] the activity of putting together materials and parts to make structures *building materials* ➲See also: **apartment building**

ˈbuilding soˌciety *UK* (*US* **savings and loan association**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an organization similar to a bank which lends you money to buy a house

build-up /ˈbɪldʌp/ *noun* [U] **1** when something slowly increases [**usually singular**] *the build-up of traffic* **2 the build-up to sth** *UK* the period of preparation before something happens *There was a lot of excitement in the build-up to the Olympics.*

built /bɪlt/ *past of* build

built-in /ˌbɪltˈɪn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] included as part of the main structure of something *a computer with a built-in modem*

built-up /ˌbɪltˈʌp/ *adjective* a built-up area has a lot of buildings

bulb /bʌlb/ *noun* [C] **1** (*also* **light bulb**) a glass object containing a wire which produces light from electricity *an electric light bulb* **2** **BIOLOGY** a round root that some plants grow from *daffodil bulbs*

bulbous /ˈbʌlbəs/ *adjective* large and round in an unattractive way *a* ***bulbous nose***

bulge¹ /bʌldʒ/ *verb* [I] to look larger and rounder or fuller than normal *Her bags were* ***bulging with*** *shopping.*

bulge² /bʌldʒ/ *noun* [C] a round, raised area on a surface

bulimia /buˈlɪmiə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a mental illness in which someone eats too much and then forces themselves to vomit ●**bulimic** *noun* [C], *adjective*

bulk /bʌlk/ *noun* **1 in bulk** in large amounts *to buy in bulk* **2 the bulk of sth** the largest part or most of something *He spends the bulk of his money on rent.* **3** [**no plural**] the large size of something or someone

bulky /ˈbʌlki/ *adjective* too big and taking up too much space

bull /bʊl/ *noun* [C] a male cow ➲See also: be like a red **rag** to a bull

bulldog /ˈbʊldɒg/ *noun* [C] a short, strong dog with a large head and neck

bulldozer /ˈbʊlˌdəʊzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a heavy vehicle used to destroy buildings and make the ground flat ●**bulldoze** *verb* [T]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bullet***

fire a bullet ● a bullet **flies/lodges** swh ● a **hail of** bullets ● a bullet **hole/wound**

bullet /ˈbʊlɪt/ *noun* **1** [C] a small, metal object that is fired from a gun *a* ***bullet wound*** **2 bite the bullet** to make yourself do something or accept something difficult or unpleasant

bulletin /ˈbʊlətɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** PROGRAMME a short news programme on television or radio *the evening* ***news bulletin*** **2** NEWSPAPER a regular newspaper or report containing news about an organization

ˈbulletin ˌboard *noun* [C] *US* (*UK* **noticeboard**) a board on a wall where you put advertisements and announcements ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ˈbullet ˌ(point) *noun* [C] a small black circle used in writing to show separate items on a list

bulletproof /ˈbʊlɪtpruːf/ *adjective* made of material that a bullet cannot go through ***bulletproof vests***

ˈbullet ˌtrain *noun* [C] a very fast Japanese train

bullion /ˈbʊliən/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** blocks of gold or silver

ˈbull ˌmarket *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a time when the prices of most shares (= parts of the value of a company that can be sold or bought) are rising

bullock /ˈbʊlək/ *noun* [C] a young bull (= male cow)

bully¹ /ˈbʊli/ *verb* [T] to intentionally frighten someone who is smaller or weaker than you *He was bullied at school by some older boys.* [**+ into + doing sth**] *She was bullied into leaving.* ●**bullying** *noun* [U] *Bullying is a problem in many schools.*

bully² /ˈbʊli/ *noun* [C] someone who intentionally frightens a person who is smaller or weaker than them

bum¹ /bʌm/ *noun* [C] **1** BODY PART *UK informal* your bottom **2** PERSON *US informal* someone who has no home and no money

bumbag /ˈbʌmbæg/ *UK* (*US* **fanny pack**) *noun* [C] a small bag fixed to a belt that you wear around your waist

bumblebee /ˈbʌmblbiː/ *noun* [C] a large, hairy bee (= flying insect)

bumbling /ˈbʌmblɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] confused and showing no skill *a* ***bumbling idiot***

bummer /ˈbʌməʳ/ *noun* **a bummer** *informal* something unpleasant or annoying *That last exam was a real bummer.*

bump¹ /bʌmp/ *verb* **1** [T] to hurt part of your body by hitting it against something hard *I bumped my head on the door.* **2 bump into/against sth** to hit your body, your car, etc against something by accident *He kept falling over and bumping into things.* **3 bump along/over sth** to move in a vehicle over a surface that is not smooth *The bus bumped along the country road.*
bump into sb *phrasal verb informal* to meet someone you know when you have not planned to meet them *I bumped into an old school friend in town today.*
bump sb off *phrasal verb informal* to murder someone

bump² /bʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** SURFACE a round, raised area on a surface *My bike hit a bump in the road.* **2** BODY a raised area on your body

where it has been hurt by hitting something hard *a nasty bump on the head* **3** MOVEMENT when something hits something hard *I heard a bump upstairs.*

bumper¹ /ˈbʌmpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a bar fixed along the front or back of a vehicle to protect it in an accident *a front/rear bumper*

bumper² /ˈbʌmpəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] bigger or better than usual *a **bumper year***

ˈbumper ˌsticker *noun* [C] a sign that you stick on a car, often with a funny message on it

bumpy /ˈbʌmpi/ *adjective* **1** SURFACE A bumpy road or surface is not smooth but has raised areas on it. **2** JOURNEY A bumpy journey is uncomfortable because the vehicle moves around a lot. **3** SITUATION full of problems or sudden changes *We had a **bumpy start**.*

bun /bʌn/ *noun* [C] **1 FOOD** *UK* a small, round cake *an iced bun* **2 FOOD** a small, round piece of bread *a hamburger/hot cross bun* **3** a hairstyle in which the hair is arranged in a small, round shape on the back of the head

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bunch***

a bunch of **bananas/flowers/grapes/keys**

bunch¹ /bʌnʃ/ *noun* **1** THINGS TOGETHER [C] a number of things of the same type which are joined or held together *He handed me a **bunch of flowers.*** ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2** PEOPLE [C] *informal* a group of people [**usually singular**] *His friends are a nice bunch.* **3 a bunch of sth** *US informal* a large amount or number of something *There's a whole bunch of places I'd like to visit.*

bunch² /bʌnʃ/ *verb*
bunch (sb/sth) together/up *phrasal verb* to move close together so that you make a tight group, or to make someone or something do this [**often passive**] *We were all bunched up at the back of the room.*
bunch (sth) up *phrasal verb* If material bunches up, or if someone bunches it up, it moves into tight folds. [**often passive**] *My shirt's all bunched up at the back.*

bunches /ˈbʌntʃɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* a hairstyle in which the hair is tied together in two parts, one on each side of the head

bundle¹ /ˈbʌndl/ *noun* **1** [C] a number of things that are tied together *a bundle of letters/clothes* **2 a bundle of energy/nerves** *informal* a very energetic or nervous person

bundle² /ˈbʌndl/ *verb* **1 bundle sb into/out of/through sth** to push or carry someone somewhere quickly and roughly *He was bundled into the back of a car and driven away.* **2** to include an extra computer program or other product with something you sell
bundle sth up *phrasal verb* to tie a number of things together
bundle (sb) up *phrasal verb* to put warm clothes on yourself or someone else

bung /bʌŋ/ *verb* **bung sth in/on, etc** *UK informal* to put something somewhere in a quick, careless way *Shall I bung a chicken in the oven for dinner?*
bung sth up *phrasal verb UK informal* to cause something to be blocked so that it does not work in the way it should [**often passive**] *The toilet was bunged up with paper.*

bungalow /ˈbʌŋgəˡləʊ/ *noun* [C] a house that has all its rooms on the ground floor

bungee jumping /ˈbʌndʒiˌdʒʌmpɪŋ/ (*also* **bungy jumping**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport of jumping from a very high place while tied to a long elastic rope, so that the rope pulls you back before you hit the ground

bungle /ˈbʌŋgl/ *verb* [T] to do something wrong in a very careless or stupid way *a bungled robbery* ●**bungling** *noun* [U]

bunk /bʌŋk/ *noun* [C] a narrow bed in a ship, train, etc

ˈbunk ˌbeds *noun* [**plural**] two beds fixed together with one on top of the other

bunker /ˈbʌŋkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** an underground room where people go to be protected, especially from bombs **2 SPORT** in golf, a hollow area filled with sand

bunny /ˈbʌni/ (*also* **ˈbunny ˌrabbit**) *noun* [C] a child's word for 'rabbit'

Bunsen burner /ˌbʌnsənˈbɜːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a small device that burns gas to produce a flame which is used to heat things in scientific work ➲See picture at **laboratory**

buoy¹ /bɔɪ/ *noun* [C] a floating object used in water to mark dangerous areas for boats

buoy² /bɔɪ/ *verb* **be buoyed (up) by sth** to feel happy or confident because of something *The team was buoyed up by their win last week.*

buoyant /ˈbɔɪənt/ *adjective* **1** CONFIDENT happy and confident *in a **buoyant mood*** **2 ECONOMICS** successful or making a profit *a **buoyant economy*** **3** FLOATING floating or able to float ●**buoyancy** /ˈbɔɪənsi/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***burden***

be/become a burden **on/to** sb ● **carry** the burden **of** sth ● **ease/lighten/share** the burden ● a **heavy** burden ● the burden **of** (doing) sth

burden /ˈbɜːdᵊn/ *noun* [C] something difficult or unpleasant that you have to deal with or worry about *the **burden of** responsibility* ○ *I'd hate to **be a burden to** you when I'm older.* ●**burden** *verb* [T] to give someone something difficult or unpleasant to deal with or worry about *Sorry to **burden** you **with** my problems.* ●**burdensome** *adjective*

bureau /ˈbjʊərəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **bureaux**, *US* **bureaus** **1** OFFICE a department or office **2** WRITING *UK* a piece of furniture with drawers and a sloping top used for writing **3** CLOTHES *US* (*UK* **chest of drawers**) a piece of furniture with drawers for keeping clothes in

bureaucracy /bjʊəˈrɒkrəsi/ *noun* **1** [U] complicated rules and processes used by an organization, especially when they do not seem necessary *government bureaucracy* **2 SOCIETY** [C, U] a government or organization in which there are a lot of officials in a lot of departments ●**bureaucrat** /ˈbjʊərəʊkræt/ *noun* [C] someone working in a bureaucracy ●**bureaucratic** /ˌbjʊərəʊˈkrætɪk/ *adjective*

burette /bjʊˈret/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a glass tube with measurements marked on it and

with a small tap at the bottom, used for adding small quantities of liquid to something ➲See picture at **laboratory**

burgeoning /ˈbɜːdʒᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* growing very quickly *a burgeoning population*

burger /ˈbɜːgəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a flat, round piece of food, usually made of meat, that is fried and served between pieces of bread *burger and fries* ○ *a veggie burger*

burglar /ˈbɜːgləʳ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who gets into buildings illegally and steals things

ˈburglar aˌlarm *noun* [C] something that makes a noise if someone tries to get into a building illegally

burglarize /ˈbɜːgləraɪz/ *verb US* **LAW** burgle

burglary /ˈbɜːglᵊri/ *noun* [C, U] **LAW** when someone gets into a building illegally and steals things

burgle /ˈbɜːgl/ *UK* (*US* **burglarize**) *verb* [T] **LAW** to get into a building illegally and steal things [**often passive**] *They've been burgled twice recently.*

burial /ˈberiəl/ *noun* [C, U] when a dead body is put into the ground

burly /ˈbɜːli/ *adjective* A burly man is large and strong.

O-K **burn¹** /bɜːn/ *verb past* **burnt**, **burned** **1** DESTROY [I, T] to destroy something with fire, or to be destroyed by fire *I burnt all his letters.* ○ *The factory burned to the ground.* ○ *He dropped his cigarette and* ***burnt a hole in*** *his jacket.* **2** FLAMES [I] to produce flames *The fire's burning well.* **3** COOK TOO LONG [I, T] If you burn something that you are cooking, you cook it too much and if something you are cooking burns, it cooks too much. *Check the pizza - I think it's burning!* **4 burn yourself/your fingers, etc** to be hurt by fire or heat *He burned his hand on the kettle.* **5** ENERGY [T] (*also* **burn up**) to use fuel to produce heat or energy *to burn calories/fuel* **6** COPY [T] to copy music, information or images onto a CD *He's* ***burnt*** *all his favourite records* ***onto*** *a CD.* **7** SKIN [I] to be very hot or sore *Her cheeks were burning.* **8 burn with anger/hatred, etc** to feel an emotion very strongly

burn (sth) down *phrasal verb* to destroy something, especially a building, by fire, or to be destroyed by fire *Their house burnt down while they were away on holiday.*

burn out *phrasal verb* If a fire burns out, it stops producing flames because nothing remains that can burn.

burn out *phrasal verb* to become ill or very tired from working too hard *If Olivia keeps working late every night, she will burn out.*

burn (sth) up *phrasal verb* to destroy something completely, or to be destroyed completely by fire or heat *The satellite will burn up when it enters the atmosphere.*

burn² /bɜːn/ *noun* [C] a place where fire or heat has damaged or hurt something *She has a nasty burn on her arm.*

burner /ˈbɜːnəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] a piece of equipment used to burn or heat something **2 put sth on the back burner** to not deal with something now, but intend to deal with it at a later time

burning /ˈbɜːnɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** very hot *the burning heat of the midday sun* **2 burning ambition/desire, etc** a very strong need to do something **3 a burning issue/question** a subject or question that must be dealt with or answered quickly

burnout /ˈbɜːnaʊt/ *noun* [U] *US* extreme tiredness, usually caused by working too much

burnt¹ /bɜːnt/ *adjective* destroyed or made black by fire or heat *burnt toast*

burnt² /bɜːnt/ *past of* burn

burnt-out /ˌbɜːntˈaʊt/ (*also* **burned-out** /bɜːndˈaʊt/) *adjective* **1** OBJECT A burnt-out car or building has been almost completely destroyed by fire. **2** **HEALTH** *informal* tired and without enthusiasm because you have worked too hard *a burnt-out teacher*

burp /bɜːp/ *verb* [I] to let air from your stomach come out of your mouth in a noisy way ●**burp** *noun* [C]

burrow¹ /ˈbʌrəʊ/ *verb* [I] When an animal burrows, it digs a hole or passage in the ground to live in. *There are rabbits burrowing under the building.*

burrow² /ˈbʌrəʊ/ *noun* [C] a hole or passage in the ground dug by an animal to live in

burst¹ /bɜːst/ *verb past* **burst** **1** [I, T] If a container bursts, or if you burst it, it breaks suddenly, so that what is inside it comes out. *A water* ***pipe burst*** *and flooded the cellar.* **2 burst in/out/through, etc** to move somewhere suddenly and forcefully *Three masked men burst into the shop.* **3 burst into flames** to suddenly start burning **4 burst into laughter/tears, etc** to suddenly start laughing/crying, etc *She burst into tears and ran away.* **5 burst open** to open suddenly and with force **6 be bursting with confidence/joy, etc** to be full of an emotion or quality *She was bursting with pride.* **7 be bursting to do sth** *informal* to want to do something very much *I was bursting to tell him about the party.*

burst out *phrasal verb* **1** to suddenly say something loudly *'Don't go!' he burst out.* **2 burst out laughing/crying** to suddenly start laughing/crying *I walked in and everyone burst out laughing.*

burst² /bɜːst/ *noun* **1 a burst of sth** a sudden large amount of noise, activity, etc *a burst of applause/laughter* **2** [C] when something breaks open and what is inside it comes out

bury /ˈberi/ *verb* [T] **1** BODY to put a dead body into the ground [**often passive**] *He was buried next to his wife.* **2** HIDE to hide something in the ground or under something *buried treasure* [**often passive**] *Two climbers were buried in the snow.* **3 bury your face/head in sth** to move your face/head somewhere where it is hidden *She buried her face in her hands.* **4 bury yourself in sth** to give all your attention to something *He buried himself in his work.* ➲See also: bury the **hatchet**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***bus***

catch a bus ● **miss** the bus ● **on** a bus ● **by** bus ● a bus **route**

O-K **bus** /bʌs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **buses** a large vehicle that carries passengers by road, usually along a fixed route *a school bus* ○ *I'll go home* ***by bus.***

●**bus** *verb* [T] *UK* **bussing,** *past* **bussed,** *US* **busing,** *past* **bused** to take a group of people somewhere in a bus

bush /bʊʃ/ *noun* **1** [C] a short, thick plant with a lot of branches *a rose bush* ○ *There was someone hiding in the bushes.* **2 the bush** GEOGRAPHY wild parts of Australia or Africa where very few people live **3 beat about the bush** to avoid talking about something difficult or embarrassing

bushy /ˈbʊʃi/ *adjective* If hair or a plant is bushy, it has grown very thick. ***bushy eyebrows***

busily /ˈbɪzɪli/ *adverb* in a busy, active way *He was busily writing notes.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***business***

be **in** business ● **do** business ● **go into** business ● **go out of** business

business /ˈbɪznɪs/ *noun* **1** TRADE [U] the buying and selling of goods or services *The shop closed last year, but now they're back* ***in business.*** ○ *We* ***do*** *a lot of* ***business with*** *China.* ○ *His company has* ***gone out of business*** (= failed). **2** ORGANIZATION [C] an organization that sells goods or services *My uncle* ***runs a*** *small decorating* ***business.*** **3** WORK [U] work that you do to earn money *She's in Vienna* ***on business*** (= working). **4 a nasty/strange, etc business** an unpleasant/strange, etc situation **5 be sb's (own) business** to be something private that other people do not need to know **6 be none of sb's business** If something is none of someone's business, they do not need to know about it, although they want to, because it does not affect them. **7 mind your own business** used to tell someone in a rude way that you do not want them to ask about something private ➲See also: **big business, show business**

ˈ**business** ˌ**class** *noun* [U] a more expensive way of travelling by aircraft in which you sit in a separate part of the aircraft and are given better service ●**business class** *adjective, adverb*

businesslike /ˈbɪznɪslaɪk/ *adjective* working in a serious and effective way *a businesslike manner*

businessman, businesswoman /ˈbɪznɪsmən, ˈbɪznɪsˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **businessmen, businesswomen** someone who works in business, usually in a high position in a company

ˈ**business** ˌ**plan** *noun* [C] a detailed plan describing the future plans of a business

busk /bʌsk/ *verb* [I] *UK* to perform music in a public place to get money from people walking past ●**busker** *noun* [C]

ˈ**bus** ˌ**station** (*also UK* **coach station**) *noun* [C] a building where a bus starts or ends its journey

ˈ**bus** ˌ**stop** *noun* [C] a place where buses stop to let passengers get on or off *I saw her waiting at the bus stop.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **station**

bust¹ /bʌst/ *verb* [T] *past* **bust**, *US* **busted** *informal* **1** BREAK to break or damage something *The cops had to bust the door down to get in.* **2** CATCH If the police bust someone, they catch them and accuse them of a crime. [**often passive**] *He was busted for selling drugs.*

bust² /bʌst/ *noun* [C] **1** a woman's breasts, or their size in relation to clothing *a 36-inch bust* **2** ART a model of someone's head and shoulders *a bronze bust of the Queen* **3 a drug bust** when the police catch people selling or using illegal drugs

bust³ /bʌst/ *adjective* **1 go bust** If a business goes bust, it stops trading because it does not have enough money. *His* ***company went bust,*** *leaving huge debts.* **2** *UK informal* (*US* **busted** /ˈbʌstɪd/) broken *My phone's bust - can I use yours?*

bustle¹ /ˈbʌsl/ *verb* **1 bustle about/around/in, etc** to move around and do things in a quick, busy way *There were lots of shoppers bustling about.* **2 bustle with sth** to be full of people or activity *The town centre was bustling with people.*

bustle² /ˈbʌsl/ *noun* [U] people and activity *We left the bustle of the city behind us.*

bustling /ˈbʌslɪŋ/ *adjective* full of people and activity *a bustling city/street*

bust-up /ˈbʌstʌp/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a serious disagreement *He left home after a big bust-up with his dad.*

busy¹ /ˈbɪzi/ *adjective* **1** PERSON If you are busy, you are working hard, or giving your attention to a particular activity. *Mum was busy in the kitchen.* [**+ doing sth**] *I was busy mowing the lawn.* ○ *I've got plenty of jobs to* ***keep*** *you* ***busy.*** ○ *He was* ***too busy*** *talking* ***to*** *notice us come in.* **2** PLACE A busy place is full of activity or people. *a busy restaurant/road* **3** TIME In a busy period you have a lot of things to do. *I've had a very busy week.* **4** TELEPHONE *US* (*UK* **engaged**) If a telephone line is busy, someone is using it.

busy² /ˈbɪzi/ *verb* **busy yourself** to spend time working or doing something *We busied ourselves in the kitchen preparing dinner.*

but¹ *strong form* /bʌt/ *weak form* /bət/ *conjunction* **1** OPPOSITE INFORMATION used to introduce something new that you say, especially something which is different or the opposite from what you have just said *I'd drive you there, but I haven't got my car.* ○ *The tickets were expensive, but the kids really enjoyed it.* **2** EXPLAINING WHY used before you say why something did not happen or is not true *I was going to go to his party, but I was ill.* **3** SHOWING SURPRISE used to show that you are surprised about what someone has just said *'Tim is leaving.' 'But why?'* **4** CONNECTING PHRASES used to connect 'excuse me' or 'I'm sorry' with what you say next *Excuse me, but would you mind shutting the door?*

but² *strong form* /bʌt/ *weak form* /bət/ *preposition* except *Everyone but Andrew knows.* ○ *Can you buy me a sandwich? Anything but ham.* ○ *This is the* ***last*** *programme* ***but one*** (= the programme before the last).

but³ *strong form* /bʌt/ *weak form* /bət/ *adverb formal* only *We can but try.*

butane /ˈbjuːˌteɪn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a gas obtained from petroleum used in its liquid form as a fuel (formula C_4H_{10})

butcher¹ /ˈbʊtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who prepares and sells meat

butcher² /ˈbʊtʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to kill someone in a very violent way **2** MEAT to cut an animal into pieces of meat

butcher's /ˈbʊtʃəz/ *UK* (*US* ˈ**butcher,shop**) *noun* [C] a shop that prepares and sells meat *I went to the butcher's to buy some sausages.*

butler /ˈbʌtləʳ/ *noun* [C] a man who opens the door, serves dinner, etc in a large house as a job

butt¹ /bʌt/ *noun* **1** BOTTOM [C] *US informal* your bottom *He just sits on his butt all day long.* **2** CIGARETTE [C] the end of a cigarette that is left after it is smoked *There were **cigarette butts** all over the floor.* **3** GUN [C] the end of the handle of a gun *the butt of a rifle* **4 a head butt** when you hit someone with the top, front part of your head **5 kick sb's butt** *US informal* to punish someone or defeat someone with a lot of force

butt² /bʌt/ *verb* [T] to hit something with the top, front part of your head *He butted me in the stomach.*
butt in *phrasal verb* to interrupt or join in a conversation or activity when the other people do not want you to *The interviewer kept butting in and wouldn't let me answer the question.*

butter¹ /ˈbʌtəʳ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [U] a soft, pale yellow food made from cream that you put on bread and use in cooking ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2 butter wouldn't melt in sb's mouth** used to say that someone looks as if they would never do anything wrong ➲See also: **peanut butter**

butter² /ˈbʌtəʳ/ *verb* [T] FOOD to put a layer of butter on something *hot buttered toast*
butter sb up *phrasal verb informal* to be very nice to someone so that they will do what you want them to do

buttercup /ˈbʌtəkʌp/ *noun* [C] a small, bright yellow flower

butterfly /ˈbʌtəflaɪ/ *noun* **1** [C] an insect with large, patterned wings ➲See picture at **insect** **2 have butterflies (in your stomach)** to feel very nervous about something that you are going to do

buttock /ˈbʌtək/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the two sides of your bottom

button¹ /ˈbʌtᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOTHING a small, round object that you push through a hole to fasten clothing *to **do up/undo** your **buttons*** **2** CONTROL a switch that you press to control a piece of equipment *Press the play button to listen to your recording.* ➲See also: **belly button**

button² /ˈbʌtᵊn/ (*also* **button up**) *verb* [T] to fasten a piece of clothing with buttons *Jack buttoned up his jacket.* ➲Opposite **unbutton**

buttonhole /ˈbʌtᵊnhəʊl/ *noun* [C] **1** HOLE a hole that you push a button through on a piece of clothing **2** FLOWER *UK* a flower worn on a jacket or coat for a special occasion

buxom /ˈbʌksəm/ *adjective* A buxom woman has large breasts.

buy¹ /baɪ/ *verb* [T] *past* **bought** FINANCE to get something by paying money for it *I went to the shop to buy some milk.* ○ *They **bought** their house **for** £14,000.* [+ **two objects**] *He bought me a camera for my birthday.*
buy into sth *phrasal verb* to believe in something *I don't buy into all that dieting nonsense.*
buy sb/sth out *phrasal verb* FINANCE to buy part of a company or building from someone else so that you own all of it
buy sth up *phrasal verb* to quickly buy a lot of something, often all that is available

buy² /baɪ/ *noun* **a good buy** when you buy something good for a cheap price *This coat was a really good buy.*

buyer /ˈbaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE someone who buys something

buyout /ˈbaɪaʊt/ *noun* [C] FINANCE when a group of people buy the company that they work for

buzz¹ /bʌz/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**no plural**] *informal* a feeling of excitement, energy, or pleasure *He **gets a** real **buzz from** going to the gym.* **2** SOUND [C] a continuous sound like a bee makes

buzz² /bʌz/ *verb* [I] **1** SOUND to make a continuous sound like a bee *I can hear something buzzing.* **2** ACTIVITY to be full of activity or excitement *The crowd was **buzzing with** excitement.* **3 buzz about/around, etc** to move around in a quick and busy way

buzzer /ˈbʌzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of electronic equipment that makes a long sound as a signal *to **press** the **buzzer***

buzzword /ˈbʌzwɜːd/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word or expression that has become fashionable, usually in a particular subject or group of people *a new political buzzword*

by¹ *strong form* /baɪ/ *weak forms* /bɪ, bə/ *preposition* **1** DO used to show the person or thing that does something *She was examined by a doctor.* ○ *a painting by Van Gogh* **2** HOW through doing or using something *Can I pay by cheque?* ○ *We'll get there by car.* [+ **doing sth**] *Open the file by clicking on the icon.* **3** HOLDING holding a particular part of someone or something *She grabbed me by the arm.* **4** NEAR near or next to something or someone *I'll meet you by the post office.* ○ *A small child stood by her side.* **5** NOT LATER not later than a particular time or date *Applications have to be in by the 31st.* **6** ACCORDING TO according to *By law you must be eighteen to purchase alcohol.* **7** PAST past *He sped by me on a motorcycle.* **8** AMOUNT used to show measurements or amounts *twelve by ten metres of floor space* ○ *Interest rates have been increased by 0.25%.* ○ *I'm paid by the hour.* **9 by accident/chance/mistake, etc** as a result of an accident, chance, mistake, etc *I went to the wrong room by mistake.* **10 by day/night** during the day/night **11 day by day/little by little/one by one, etc** used in particular phrases to mean 'gradually' or 'in units of' *Day by day he grew stronger.*

by² /baɪ/ *adverb* past *A motorcycle sped by.*

bye /baɪ/ (*also* **bye-bye**) *exclamation* goodbye *Bye, see you tomorrow.*

by-election /ˈbaɪɪˌlekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] POLITICS an election in the UK to choose a new member of parliament for an area because the old one has left or died

B

bygone /ˈbaɪɡɒn/ *adjective literary* **bygone age/days/era, etc** a time in the past

bygones /ˈbaɪɡɒnz/ *noun* **let bygones be bygones** something that you say to tell someone to forget about the unpleasant things in the past

bypass¹ /ˈbaɪpɑːs/ *noun* [C] **1** a road that goes around a town and not through it **2** HEALTH a medical operation to make blood flow along a different route and avoid a damaged part of the heart *a **coronary/heart bypass***

bypass² /ˈbaɪpɑːs/ *verb* [T] **1** GO AROUND to go around a place or thing and not through it *I was hoping to bypass the city centre.* **2** AVOID to avoid dealing with someone or something by dealing directly with someone or something else *They bypassed him and went straight to his manager.*

by-product /ˈbaɪˌprɒdʌkt/ *noun* [C] something that is produced when you are making or doing something else *Carbon monoxide is a by-product of burning.*

bystander /ˈbaɪˌstændər/ *noun* [C] someone who is near the place where an event happens, but not directly involved in it *The gunman began firing at **innocent bystanders**.*

byte /baɪt/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store, equal to 8 bits (= smallest unit of computer information)

Cc

C, c /siː/ the third letter of the alphabet

C MEASURES *written abbreviation for* Celsius or centigrade: measurements of temperature *30°C*

c *written abbreviation for* circa (= used before a number or date to show that it is not exact) *c. 1900*

cab /kæb/ *noun* [C] **1** CAR *informal* a taxi (= car that you pay to travel in) *We* ***took a cab*** *to the theatre.* ○ *a cab driver* **2** TRUCK the front part of a truck where the driver sits

cabaret /ˈkæbəreɪ/ *noun* [C, U] MUSIC when someone entertains people with songs, jokes, etc in a bar or restaurant *He's appearing* ***in cabaret*** *at the Cafe Royal.*

cabbage /ˈkæbɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a large, round vegetable that consists of a lot of thick leaves

cabbie /ˈkæbi/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who drives a taxi (= car that you pay to travel in)

cabin /ˈkæbɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** HOUSE a small, simple house made of wood *a log cabin* **2** SHIP a small room to sleep in on a ship **3** AIRCRAFT the area where passengers sit on an aircraft

ˈcabin ˌcrew *noun* [C] the people on an aircraft who take care of the passengers as their job

cabinet /ˈkæbɪnət/ *noun* **1 the Cabinet** POLITICS a group of people in a government who are chosen by and who advise the highest leader *a* ***Cabinet minister/member*** **2** [C] a cupboard with shelves or drawers to store or show things in *a* ***bathroom/medicine cabinet*** ➲See also: **filing cabinet**

cable¹ /ˈkeɪbl/ *noun* **1** WIRE [C, U] a wire covered by plastic that carries electricity, telephone signals, etc *overhead* ***power cables*** **2** ROPE [C, U] thick wire twisted into a rope **3** SYSTEM [U] the system of sending television programmes or telephone signals along wires under the ground ***cable TV*** ○ *This channel is only available* ***on cable.***

ˈcable ˌcar *noun* [C] a vehicle that hangs from thick cables and carries people up hills and mountains

ˌcable (TˈV) (*also* **ˌcable ˈtelevision**) *noun* [U] a system of sending television pictures and sound along wires buried under the ground

cacao /kəˈkaʊ/ *noun* [U] the seeds of a tropical tree, from which chocolate and cocoa are made

cache /kæʃ/ *noun* [C] a secret supply of something *a* ***cache of weapons***

ˌcache ˈmemory *noun* [C, U] COMPUTING an area or type of computer memory in which information that is often used can be stored temporarily and got to quickly

cachet /ˈkæʃeɪ/ (US) /kæʃˈeɪ/ *noun* [U] when something is admired or respected

cacophony /kəˈkɒfəni/ *noun* [no plural] a loud, unpleasant mixture of sounds

cactus /ˈkæktəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **cacti** /ˈkæktaɪ/, or **cactuses** a plant with thick leaves for storing water and often sharp points that grows in deserts

CAD /kæd/ *noun* [U] COMPUTING computer-aided design: the use of computers to design objects

caddie /ˈkædi/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who carries the equipment for someone playing golf ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 ●**caddie** *verb* [I] **caddying,** *past* **caddied** to be a caddie for someone

cadet /kəˈdet/ *noun* [C] a young person who is training to be in a military organization, the police, etc *an* ***army cadet***

cadmium /ˈkædmiəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a poisonous soft, blue-white metallic element used for example in batteries and electroplating (= the process of using electricity to cover a metal object with a thin layer of another metal) (symbol **Cd**)

caecum *UK* (*US* **cecum**) /ˈsiːkəm/ *noun* [C] *plural UK* **caeca**, *US* **ceca** ANATOMY, BIOLOGY the bag-shaped part at the beginning of the large intestine (= lower part of the bowels) ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

caesarean (*also US* **cesarean**) /sɪˈzeərɪən/ *noun* [C] HEALTH an operation in which a baby is taken out of a woman through a cut in the front of her body

caesium *UK* (*US* **cesium**) /ˈsiːziəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a soft silver-white metallic element that reacts strongly with other chemicals, used in photoelectric cells (symbol **Cs**)

O-key **cafe** (*also* **café**) /ˈkæfeɪ/ (US) /kæˈfeɪ/ *noun* [C] a small restaurant where you can buy drinks and small meals

cafeteria /ˌkæfəˈtɪəriə/ *noun* [C] a restaurant where you collect and pay for your food and drink before you eat it *a school cafeteria*

caffeine /ˈkæfiːn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY, FOOD a chemical in coffee, tea, etc that makes you feel more awake

cage /keɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a container made of wire or metal bars used for keeping birds or animals in *a bird cage* ➲See also: **rib cage**

cagey /ˈkeɪdʒi/ *adjective* If someone is cagey, they are not very willing to give information, and you may think they are not honest. *He's very* ***cagey about*** *his past.*

cajole /kəˈdʒəʊl/ *verb* [I, T] to persuade someone to do something by being friendly or by promising them something [+ **into + doing sth**] *She cajoled me into helping with the dinner.*

O-key **cake** /keɪk/ *noun* [C, U] **1** FOOD a sweet food made from flour, butter, sugar, and eggs mixed together and baked *a chocolate/fruit cake* ○ *a* ***piece/slice of cake*** ○ *to bake/make a cake* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2 have your cake and eat it** to have or do two things that it is usually impossible to have or do at the same time ➲See also: the **icing** on the cake, be a **piece¹** of cake

caked /keɪkt/ *adjective* **be caked in/with sth** to be covered with a thick, dry layer of something *His boots were caked in mud.*

CAL /kæl/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* computer-aided learning: the use of computers for teaching and learning

calamity /kəˈlæməti/ *noun* [C] a sudden, bad event that causes a lot of damage or unhappiness

calcium /ˈkælsiəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element in teeth, bones, and chalk (= a soft, white rock) (symbol **Ca**)

calcium carbonate /ˌkælsiəmˈkɑːbəneɪt/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a common, white chemical compound found in chalk, marble and other substances, and in bones and shells (formula $\mathbf{CaCO_3}$)

calcium hydroxide /ˌkælsiəmhaɪˈdrɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a white alkaline chemical compound used to make cement and plaster and to reduce the acid in soil (formula $\mathbf{Ca(OH)_2}$)

calcium sulphate *UK* (*US* **calcium sulfate**) /ˌkælsiəmˈsʌlfeɪt/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a white chemical substance used to make some building materials, e.g. cement, and to make other substances drier (formula $\mathbf{CaSO_4}$)

calculate /ˈkælkjəleɪt/ *verb* **1** **MATHEMATICS** [T] to discover an amount or number using mathematics *to calculate a cost/percentage* **2 be calculated to do sth** to be intended to have a particular effect *His comments were calculated to embarrass the prime minister.*

calculated /ˈkælkjəleɪtɪd/ *adjective* based on careful thought or planning, not on emotion ***a calculated risk/decision***

calculating /ˈkælkjəleɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* Calculating people try to get what they want by thinking carefully and without emotion, and not caring about other people. *a cold, calculating criminal*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***calculation***

do/perform a calculation • a **complex/precise/quick/rough** calculation

calculation /ˌkælkjəˈleɪʃn/ *noun* **1** **MATHEMATICS** [C, U] when you use mathematics to discover a number or amount *I **did** some quick **calculations** to see if I could afford to buy it.* **2** [U] when someone thinks very carefully about something without any emotion

calculator /ˈkælkjəleɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] an electronic device that you use to do mathematical calculations ***a pocket calculator***

calculus /ˈkælkjʊləs/ *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** an area of advanced mathematics in which continuously changing values are studied

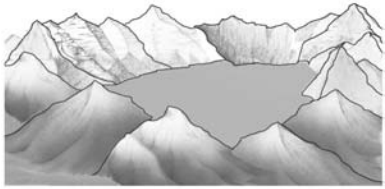

caldera

caldera /kælˈdeərə/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a very large circular hole, sometimes containing a lake, that is made when the central part of a volcano falls in after an explosion

calendar /ˈkæləndəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] something that shows all the days, weeks, and months of the year **2 the Christian/Jewish/Western, etc calendar** the system used to measure and arrange the days, weeks, months and special events of the year according to Christian/Jewish/Western, etc tradition **3 the political/school/sporting, etc calendar** the events that are arranged during the year for a particular activity or organization

calf /kɑːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **calves** /kɑːvz/ **1** a young cow **2** **ANATOMY** the back of your leg below your knee ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

calibre *UK* (*US* **caliber**) /ˈkælɪbəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** the quality or level of ability of someone or something *The calibre of applicants was very high.* **2** **MEASURES** the measurement across the inside of a gun, or across a bullet

CALL /kɔːl/ *abbreviation for* **COMPUTING, EDUCATION** computer aided language learning: a way of learning languages using computers

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***call***

make/get/take a call • **give** sb a call • a call **from/to** sb

call² /kɔːl/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE (*also* **phone call**) when you use the telephone ***Give me a call** at the weekend.* ○ *I **got a call** from Sue this morning.* **2 a call for sth** a demand for something to happen *a call for action/peace* **3** VISIT a short visit *I thought I'd **pay** Gary **a call**.* **4** SHOUT when someone shouts something **5** BIRD a sound made by a bird or other animal **6 sb's call** *informal* when someone can decide something *I don't mind what we do - it's your call.* **7 call for sth** when people want or need a particular thing *There's not much call for interior designers round here.* **8 be on call** to be ready to go to work if you are needed, as part of your job **9 a close call** when something you do not want to happen nearly happens ➲See also: be at sb's **beck** and call, **wake-up call**

call¹ /kɔːl/ *verb* **1 be called sth** to have a particular name *a man called John* ○ *What's your dog called?* ○ *Their latest record is called "Ecstasy".* **2** GIVE NAME [+ **two objects**] to give someone or something a particular name *I want to call the baby Alex.* **3** DESCRIBE [+ **two objects**] to describe someone or something in a particular way *She called him a liar.* **4** ASK TO COME [T] to ask someone to come somewhere *She called me into her office.* **5** SHOUT [I, T] (*also*

call out) to shout or say something in a loud voice *I thought I heard someone calling my name.* **6** TELEPHONE [I, T] to telephone someone *He called me every night while he was away.* ○ *Has anyone called the police?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **phone 7** VISIT [I] (*also* **call by/in/round**) *UK* to visit someone for a short time *John called round earlier.* **8 call an election/meeting, etc** to arrange for an election/meeting, etc to happen *The chairman has called an emergency meeting.* ➲See also: call sb's **bluff**², call it a **day**

call back *phrasal verb UK* to go back to a place in order to see someone or collect something *I'll call back later to pick up the books.*

call (sb) back *phrasal verb* to telephone someone again, or to telephone someone who telephoned you earlier *I can't talk now - I'll call you back in ten minutes.*

call for sth *phrasal verb* **1** SAY to demand that something happens *to call for a ban on guns* **2** NEED to need or deserve a particular action or quality *You passed your test? This calls for a celebration!*

call for sb *phrasal verb* to go to a place in order to collect someone *I'll call for you at eight.*

call sth off *phrasal verb* **1** NOT HAPPEN to decide that a planned event or activity will not happen because it is not possible, useful, or wanted now *The game has been called off because of the weather.* **2** STOP to decide to stop an activity *Police have called off the search.*

call on sb to do sth *phrasal verb* to ask someone in a formal way to do something *He called on the rebels to stop fighting.*

call (sb) up *phrasal verb mainly US* to telephone someone *My dad called me up to tell me the good news.*

call sth up *phrasal verb* **COMPUTING** to find and show information on a computer screen *I'll just call up your account details.*

be called up *phrasal verb* to be ordered to join a military organization or asked to join an official team *He was called up soon after the war started.*

ˈcall ˌcentre *noun* [C] *UK* a place where people use telephones to provide information to customers, or to sell goods or services

caller /ˈkɔːləʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE someone who makes a telephone call *an anonymous caller* **2** VISITOR *mainly UK* someone who visits for a short time

call-in /ˈkɔːlɪn/ *US* (*UK* **phone-in**) *noun* [C] a television or radio programme in which the public can ask questions or give opinions over the telephone

calling /ˈkɔːlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a strong feeling that you should do a particular type of work *She found her true calling in teaching.*

callous /ˈkæləs/ *adjective* cruel and not caring about other people *a callous remark* ●**callously** *adverb*

O-K **calm¹** /kɑːm/ *adjective* **1** PERSON relaxed and not worried, frightened, or excited *a calm voice/manner* ○ *Try to* ***stay calm*** *- the doctor will be here soon.* **2** SEA If the sea is calm, it is still and has no large waves. **3** WEATHER If the weather is calm, there are no storms or wind. ●**calmness** *noun* [U]

calm² /kɑːm/ *noun* [U] when people or conditions are calm

calm³ /kɑːm/ *verb* [T] to make someone stop feeling upset, angry, or excited *The police tried to calm the crowd.* ○ *a calming effect*

calm (sb) down *phrasal verb* to stop feeling upset, angry, or excited, or to make someone stop feeling this way *Calm down and tell me what's wrong.*

calmly /ˈkɑːmli/ *adverb* in a relaxed way *He spoke slowly and calmly.*

calorie /ˈkælᵊri/ *noun* [C] **FOOD, MEASURES** a unit for measuring the amount of energy food provides *I try to eat about 2000 calories a day.*

calorimeter /ˌkæləˈrɪmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY, PHYSICS** a piece of equipment for measuring the amount of heat produced in a chemical reaction

calves /kɑːvz/ *plural of* calf

calyx /ˈkeɪlɪks/ *noun* [C] *plural* **calyxes**, **calyces** **BIOLOGY** the outer part of a flower formed by the sepals (= separate outer parts), which covers and protects the flowers as they develop

CAM /kæm/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* computer-aided manufacture; the use of computers in producing goods

camaraderie /ˌkæməˈrɑːdᵊri/ *noun* [U] special friendship felt by people who work together or experience something together

cambium /ˈkæmbiəm/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **cambiums**, **cambia** **BIOLOGY** a layer of cells in the roots and stems of plants that produce new tissue to make them thicker ➲See picture at **stem**

Cambrian /ˈkæmbriən/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** from the period of time between about 543 and 490 million years ago, in which many different types of invertebrate (= without any back bone) animals first appeared

camcorder /ˈkæmˌkɔːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] a camera that you can hold in your hand and that takes moving pictures

came /keɪm/ *past tense of* come

camel /ˈkæmᵊl/ *noun* [C] a large animal that lives in the desert and has one or two humps (= raised parts on its back)

cameo /ˈkæmiəʊ/ *noun* [C] when someone famous appears for a short time in a film or play *a cameo role*

O-K **camera** /ˈkæmᵊrə/ *noun* [C] **ART** a piece of equipment used to take photographs or to make films *a digital camera* ○ *a television camera*

cameraman /ˈkæmᵊrəmæn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **cameramen** someone who operates a television camera or film camera as their job

camisole /ˈkæmɪsəʊl/ *noun* [C] a piece of women's underwear for the top half of the body, with thin straps that go over the shoulders *a lace camisole* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** at page Centre 9

camouflage /ˈkæməflɑːʒ/ *noun* [U] when the colour or pattern on something is similar to the area around it making it difficult to see *a camouflage jacket* ●**camouflage** *verb* [T]

camp¹ /kæmp/ *noun* **1** [C] an area where people stay in tents for a short time, usually for a

holiday **2 an army/prison/refugee, etc camp** an area containing temporary buildings or tents used for soldiers/prisoners/refugees (= people forced to leave their home), etc ➲See also: **base camp, concentration camp**

camp² /kæmp/ (*also* **camp out**) *verb* [I] to stay in a tent or temporary shelter *We camped on the beach for two nights.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***campaign***

launch/mount/run a campaign ● a campaign **against/for** sth ● an **advertising/election** campaign

campaign¹ /kæmˈpeɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** ACTIVITIES a series of organized activities or events intended to achieve a result *an **advertising/election campaign*** **2** WAR a series of military attacks *a bombing campaign*

campaign² /kæmˈpeɪn/ *verb* [I] to organize a series of activities to try to achieve something *to **campaign against/for** something* ●**campaigner** *noun* [C] *an animal rights campaigner*

camper /ˈkæmpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who stays in a tent on holiday **2** VEHICLE (*also* ˈ**camper ˌvan**) a vehicle containing a bed, kitchen equipment, etc that you can live in

camping /ˈkæmpɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when you stay in a tent for a holiday *We're **going camping** in France this summer.* ○ *a camping trip*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

camping or campsite?

Be careful not to use **camping**, the activity of staying in a tent, when you mean **campsite**, the area of ground where you do this.

campsite /ˈkæmpsaɪt/ (*also US* **campground** /ˈkæmpgraʊnd/) *noun* [C] an area where people can stay in tents for a holiday

campus /ˈkæmpəs/ *noun* [C, U] EDUCATION the land and buildings belonging to a college or university *I lived **on campus** in my first year.*

can¹ *strong form* /kæn/ *weak forms* /kən, kn/ *modal verb past* **could 1** ABILITY to be able to do something *We can't pay the rent.* ○ *Can you drive?* **2** PERMISSION to be allowed to do something *You can't park here.* ○ *Can I go now?* **3** ASK used to ask someone to do or provide something *Can you tell her to meet me outside?* ○ *Can I have a drink of water?* **4** OFFER used to politely offer to do something *Can I carry those bags for you?* **5** POSSIBLE used to talk about what is possible *You can buy stamps from the shop on the corner.* ○ *Smoking can cause cancer.* **6** TYPICAL used to talk about how someone often behaves or what something is often like *She can be really rude at times.* **7** SURPRISE used to show surprise or lack of belief *You can't possibly be hungry already!* ○ *Can you believe it?* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

can² /kæn/ *noun* [C] **1** a closed, metal container for food or liquids *a can of soup/beans* ○ *a can of paint* **2 a can of worms** a situation which causes a lot of trouble for you when you start to deal with it ➲See also: **trash can, watering can**

can³ /kæn/ *verb* [T] **canning,** *past* **canned** to put food or drink into metal containers in a factory *canned tomatoes*

Canadian /kəˈneɪdiən/ *adjective* relating to Canada ●**Canadian** *noun* [C] someone who comes from Canada

canal /kəˈnæl/ *noun* [C] an artificial river built for boats to travel along or to take water where it is needed

canary /kəˈneəri/ *noun* [C] a small, yellow bird that sings

cancel /ˈkænsᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **cancelling,** *past* **cancelled,** *US* **canceling,** *past* **canceled 1** EVENT to say that an organized event will not now happen [**often passive**] *The meeting has been cancelled.* **2** GOODS/SERVICES to stop an order for goods or services that you do not now want
cancel sth out *phrasal verb* If something cancels out another thing, it stops it from having any effect.

cancellation /ˌkænsᵊˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone decides that an event will not now happen or stops an order for something *a last-minute cancellation*

Cancer /ˈkænsəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 22 June - 22 July, or a person born during this period

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cancer***

get/have cancer ● **breast/lung/prostate/skin** cancer ● cancer **of the** [liver/stomach, etc] ● cancer **patients/sufferers** ● cancer **research/treatment**

cancer /ˈkænsəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a serious disease that is caused when cells in the body grow in a way that is uncontrolled and not normal ***breast/lung cancer*** ○ *His wife died of cancer.* ●**cancerous** *adjective a cancerous growth*

candid /ˈkændɪd/ *adjective* honest, especially about something that is unpleasant or embarrassing *She was very candid about her personal life in the interview.* ●**candidly** *adverb*

candidacy /ˈkændɪdəsi/ *noun* [U] POLITICS when someone is a candidate in an election

candidate /ˈkændɪdət/ *noun* [C] **1** POLITICS one of the people taking part in an election or trying to get a job *a presidential candidate* **2** EDUCATION *UK* someone who is taking an exam

candle /ˈkændl/ *noun* [C] a stick of wax with string going through it that you burn to produce light ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

candlelight /ˈkændllaɪt/ *noun* [U] light produced by a candle

candlestick /ˈkændlstɪk/ *noun* [C] an object that holds a candle

can-do /ˈkænˌduː/ *adjective informal* determined to deal with problems and achieve results *I really admire her **can-do attitude**.*

candour *UK* (*US* **candor**) /ˈkændəʳ/ *noun* [U] when you speak honestly, especially about something that is unpleasant or embarrassing

candy /ˈkændi/ *noun* [C, U] *US* FOOD a small piece of sweet food made from sugar, chocolate, etc *a box of candy* ○ *a candy bar*

cane¹ /keɪn/ *noun* **1** STEM [C, U] the long, hard, hollow stem of some plants, sometimes used to make furniture **2** WALK [C] a long stick used

by people to help them walk **3** PUNISH [C] *UK* a long stick used in the past to hit children at school

cane² /keɪn/ *verb* [T] *UK* to hit someone, especially a school student, with a stick as a punishment

canine¹ /ˈkeɪnaɪn/ *adjective* relating to dogs

canine² /ˈkeɪnaɪn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of four pointed teeth in a person's mouth ➲Compare **incisor, molar** ➲See picture at **skull**

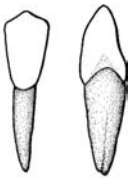

canine

canister /ˈkænɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a metal container for gases or dry things *a gas canister*

cannabis /ˈkænəbɪs/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **marijuana**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a drug that some people smoke for pleasure and that is illegal in many countries

canned /kænd/ (*also UK* **tinned**) *adjective* **FOOD** Canned food is sold in metal containers.

cannibal /ˈkænɪbᵊl/ *noun* [C] someone who eats human flesh ●**cannibalism** *noun* [U]

cannon /ˈkænən/ *noun* [C] a very large gun, in the past one that was on wheels

O-key **cannot** /ˈkænɒt/ *modal verb* the negative form of 'can' *I cannot predict what will happen.*

canny /ˈkæni/ *adjective* clever and able to think quickly, especially about money or business *a canny businessman*

canoe /kəˈnuː/ *noun* [C] a small, narrow boat with pointed ends that you move using a paddle (= stick with a wide, flat part) ●**canoeing** *noun* [U] the activity of travelling in a canoe

canon /ˈkænən/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a Christian priest who works in a cathedral (= large, important church) *the Canon of Westminster*

ˈcan ˌopener (*also UK* **tin opener**) *noun* [C] a piece of kitchen equipment for opening metal food containers ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

canopy /ˈkænəpi/ *noun* [C] a cover or type of roof for protection or decoration

can't /kɑːnt/ *modal verb* **1** CANNOT *short for* cannot *I can't find my keys.* **2** SUGGEST used to suggest that someone should do something *Can't you ask Jonathan to help?*

canteen /kænˈtiːn/ *noun* [C] a restaurant in an office, factory, or school

canter /ˈkæntəʳ/ *verb* [I] When a horse canters, it runs quite fast. ●**canter** *noun* [**no plural**]

canvas /ˈkænvəs/ *noun* **1** [U] strong cloth used for making sails, tents, etc **2** **ART** [C] a piece of canvas used for a painting

canvass /ˈkænvəs/ *verb* **1** **POLITICS** [I, T] to try to persuade people to vote for someone in an election *He's* ***canvassing for*** *the Labour party.* **2** [T] to ask people their opinion about something *The study* ***canvassed*** *the* ***views*** *of over 9000 people.*

canyon /ˈkænjən/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY** a deep valley with very steep sides

cap¹ /kæp/ *noun* [C] **1** HAT a hat with a flat, curved part at the front *a baseball cap* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 **2** LID a small lid that covers the top or end of something

cap² /kæp/ *verb* [T] **capping,** *past* **capped 1** END to be the last and the best or worst event in a series of events *The party capped a wonderful week.* **2** **ECONOMICS** to put a limit on an amount of money that can be borrowed, charged, etc [**often passive**] *The interest rate has been capped at 5%.* **3** COVER to cover the top of something [**often passive**] *The mountains were capped with snow.*

capability /ˌkeɪpəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [C, U] the ability or power to do something [**+ to do sth**] *Both players have the capability to win this match.*

capable /ˈkeɪpəbl/ *adjective* **1** able to do things effectively and achieve results *She's a very capable young woman.* **2** **capable of sth/doing sth** having the ability or qualities to be able to do something *She was capable of great cruelty.* ➲Opposite **incapable**

capacitance /kəˈpæsɪtᵊnts/ *noun* [U] **1** the ability of a system to store electrical charge **2** **MEASURES** a measurement of this characteristic

capacitor /kəˈpæsɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a device which collects and stores electricity, and is an important part of electronic equipment such as televisions and radios

capacity /kəˈpæsəti/ *noun* **1** CONTAIN [C, U] the largest amount or number that a container, building, etc can hold *The restaurant has* ***a capacity of*** *about 200.* ○ *The stadium was* ***filled to capacity*** (= completely full). **2** PRODUCE [U] the amount that a factory or machine can produce *The factory is operating* ***at full capacity*** (= producing as much as possible). **3** ABILITY [C] the ability to do, experience, or understand something *She has a great* ***capacity for*** *love.* **4** JOB [C] a position or job *He attended over 100 events last year* ***in his capacity as*** *mayor.*

cape /keɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** a loose coat without any sleeves that is fastened at the neck **2** **GEOGRAPHY** a large area of land that goes out into the sea

caper /ˈkeɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] something that is done as a joke, or intended to entertain people *His new movie is a* ***comic caper****.*

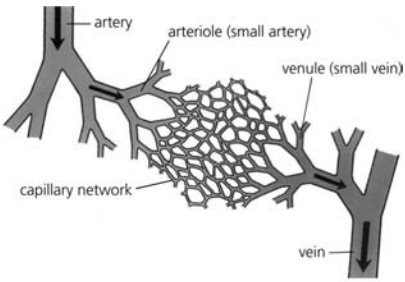

capillary

capillary /kəˈpɪlᵊri/ US /ˈkæpəleri/ *noun* [C]

ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a very thin tube that carries blood around the body, connecting arteries to veins

capital¹ /ˈkæpɪtᵊl/ *noun* **1** **GEOGRAPHY** [C] the most important city in a country or state, where the government is based *Paris is the capital of France.* **2** **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** [U] an amount of money that you can use to start a business or to make more money **3** **LANGUAGE** [C] (*also* ˌ**capital ˈletter**) a large letter of the alphabet used at the beginning of sentences and names ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18. ➲See also: **block capitals**

capital² /ˈkæpɪtᵊl/ *adjective* **a capital crime/offence** **LAW** a crime that can be punished by death

ˌcapital ˈassets *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** the buildings and machines owned by a business or other organization

ˌcapital ˈgains *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** profits made by selling property or an investment (= something bought hoping its value will increase) *They had to pay a lot of capital gains tax.*

ˌcapital inˈtensive *adjective* **FINANCE** A capital intensive business needs to spend a lot of money on buildings, equipment, etc before it can start.

ˌcapital inˈvestment *noun* [U] **FINANCE** money which is spent on buildings and equipment to make a business more effective

capitalism /ˈkæpɪtᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS, POLITICS, SOCIETY** a political and economic system in which industry is owned privately for profit and not by the state

capitalist /ˈkæpɪtᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS, SOCIETY** someone who supports capitalism ●**capitalist** *adjective a capitalist society*

capitalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈkæpɪtᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **LANGUAGE** to write something using capital letters, or starting with a capital letter
capitalize on sth *phrasal verb* to use a situation to achieve something good for yourself *He failed to capitalize on his earlier success.*

ˌcapital ˈpunishment *noun* [U] **LAW** when someone is killed by the state for committing a serious crime

ˌcapital reˈceipt *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money received when fixed assets (= land, equipment, buildings, etc) are sold by a business

capitulate /kəˈpɪtjʊleɪt/ *verb* [I] to stop disagreeing or fighting with someone and agree to what they want ●**capitulation** /kəˌpɪtjʊˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

cappuccino /ˌkæpʊˈtʃiːnəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** coffee made with milk that has been heated with steam to produce a lot of small bubbles

capricious /kəˈprɪʃəs/ *adjective* likely to suddenly change your ideas or behaviour

Capricorn /ˈkæprɪkɔːn/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 December - 20 January, or a person born during this period

capsize /kæpˈsaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] If a boat capsizes, or if it is capsized, it turns over in the water.

Caps lock (key) /ˈkæpslɒkˌkiː/ *noun* [C usually singular] **COMPUTING** a key on a computer keyboard that you press to make any letters you type appear as capital letters until you press it again

capsule /ˈkæpsjuːl/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** a small container with medicine inside that you swallow **2** the part of a spacecraft that people live in

captain¹ /ˈkæptɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** SHIP the person in control of a ship or aircraft **2** ARMY an officer of middle rank in the army, navy, or air force **3** SPORT the leader of a team

captain² /ˈkæptɪn/ *verb* [T] to be the captain of a team, ship, or aircraft *He has captained the England cricket team three times.*

captaincy /ˈkæptɪnsi/ *noun* [U] when someone is the captain of a team

caption /ˈkæpʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] words written under a picture to explain it

captivate /ˈkæptɪveɪt/ *verb* [T] to interest or attract someone very much *She captivated film audiences with her beauty and charm.* ●**captivating** *adjective a captivating performance*

captive¹ /ˈkæptɪv/ *adjective* **1** A captive person or animal is being kept somewhere and is not allowed to leave. **2** **a captive audience/market** a group of people who have to watch something or have to buy something because they do not have a choice **3** **hold/take sb captive** to keep someone as a prisoner, or make someone a prisoner

captive² /ˈkæptɪv/ *noun* [C] someone who is kept as a prisoner

captivity /kæpˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] when a person or animal is kept somewhere and is not allowed to leave *lion cubs born* ***in captivity***

capture¹ /ˈkæptʃᵊr/ *verb* [T] **1** PRISONER to catch someone and make them your prisoner *Two soldiers were captured by the enemy.* **2** CONTROL to get control of a place with force *Rebel troops have captured the city.* **3** GET to succeed in getting something when you are competing against other people *The Green Party has captured 12% of the vote.* **4** DESCRIBE to show or describe something successfully using words or pictures *His book really captures the spirit of the place.* **5** **capture sb/sth on camera/film, etc** to record someone or something on camera/film, etc **6** **capture sb's attention/imagination** to make someone very interested or excited *The campaign has really captured the public's imagination.* **7** **capture sb's heart** to make someone love you *She captured the hearts of the nation.*

capture² /ˈkæptʃᵊr/ *noun* [U] **1** PRISONER when someone is caught and made a prisoner *He shot himself to avoid capture.* **2** CONTROL when someone gets control of a place with force *the capture of the city by foreign troops*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***car***

drive/park/start a car ● a car **breaks down** ● **by** car ● a car **accident/crash** ● a car **driver**

car /kɑːr/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a vehicle with an engine, four wheels, and seats for a small number of passengers *She goes to work* ***by car***. ○ *Where did you* ***park*** *your* ***car***? ➲See colour picture **Car** at page Centre 7 **2** PART OF TRAIN *US* a

part of a train in which passengers sit, eat, sleep, etc *the dining car* ➲See also: **buffet car, cable car, estate car, sports car**

caramel /ˈkærəmᵊl/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD sugar that has been heated until it turns brown and that is used to add colour and flavour to food, or a sweet made from sugar, milk, and butter

carat (*also US* **karat**) /ˈkærət/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring how pure gold is, or how much jewels (= valuable stones) weigh *22 carat gold*

caravan /ˈkærəvæn/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE *UK* a vehicle which people can live in on holiday and which is pulled by a car ***a caravan site*** **2** GROUP a group of people with animals or vehicles who travel together across a desert

carbohydrase /ˌkɑːbəʊˈhaɪdreɪz/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY an enzyme (= substance that causes chemical reactions) which causes a chemical reaction that helps the body to digest carbohydrate

carbohydrate /ˌkɑːbəʊˈhaɪdreɪt/ *noun* [C, U] BIOLOGY, FOOD a substance in food such as sugar, potatoes, etc that gives your body energy

carbon /ˈkɑːbᵊn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical element present in all animals and plants and in coal and oil (symbol **C**)

carbonate /ˈkɑːbᵊneɪt/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a salt that contains carbon and oxygen and another chemical

carbonated /ˈkɑːbəneɪtɪd/ *adjective* FOOD Carbonated drinks contain a lot of small bubbles.

ˈcarbon ˌcapture *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT a way of catching the carbon produced by machines so that it is not released into the air

ˈcarbon ˌchain *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a line of connected carbon atoms

ˌcarbon ˈcopy *noun* [C] **1** WRITING a copy of a written document that is made using carbon paper (= thin paper covered in carbon) **2** PERSON an exact copy of something *He's a **carbon copy of** his father.*

ˈcarbon ˌcredits *noun* [plural] ENVIRONMENT a system that allows organizations the right to produce a certain amount of carbon, and allows them to buy or sell those rights

the ˈcarbon ˌcycle *noun* ENVIRONMENT the way carbon moves between living organisms and their environment, by being taken from the air by plants which are then eaten by animals, and being returned to the atmosphere by the respiration of plants and animals and by the burning of plant material

ˌcarbon ˈdating *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a method of calculating the age of extremely old objects by measuring the amount of a particular type of carbon in them

carbon dioxide /ˌkɑːbᵊndaɪˈɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a gas that is produced when people and animals breathe out, or when carbon is burned (formula CO_2)

ˈcarbon eˌmissions *noun* [plural] ENVIRONMENT carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide made by things such as factories or cars that burn carbon and cause pollution

carbonic /kɑːˈbɒnɪk/ *adjective* CHEMISTRY containing carbon

carbonic acid /kɑːˌbɒnɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a weak acid made of carbon dioxide dissolved in water (formula H_2CO_3)

carboniferous /ˌkɑːbəˈnɪfərəs/ *adjective* GEOLOGY containing or producing carbon *carboniferous rocks*

carbon monoxide /ˌkɑːbᵊnməˈnɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY, ENVIRONMENT a poisonous gas that is produced by burning some types of

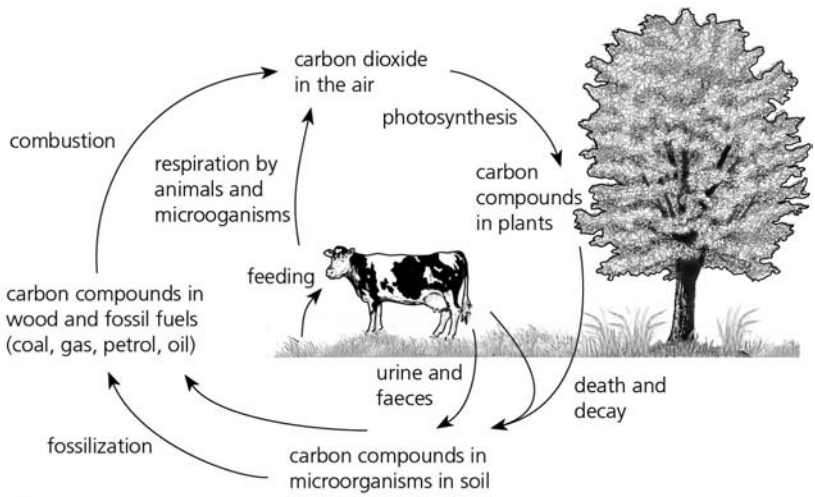

carbon cycle

fuel, especially petrol (= fuel for cars) (formula **CO**)

ˌcarbon ˈneutral *adjective* ENVIRONMENT not producing carbon emissions *a carbon-neutral fuel/home/lifestyle*

ˌcarbon offˈsetting *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT trying to stop the damage caused by activities that produce carbon by doing other things to reduce it, such as planting trees

ˈcarbon ˌpaper *noun* [U] thin paper that is covered on one side with carbon (= a black substance) and is used for making copies of written documents

ˌcarbon ˈtax *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT a tax on oil, coal and other things which produce greenhouse gases (= gases that harm the air around the Earth)

ˌcar ˈboot sale *noun* [C] *UK* an event where people sell things they no longer want from the backs of their cars

carburettor *UK* (*US* **carburetor**) /ˌkɑːbəˈretəʳ/ (US) /ˈkɑːbɚeɪtɚ/ *noun* [C] the part of an engine that mixes fuel and air which are then burned to provide power

carcass /ˈkɑːkəs/ *noun* [C] the body of a dead animal

carcinogen /kɑːˈsɪnədʒᵊn/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a substance that can cause cancer (= a disease when cells in your body grow in an uncontrolled way) ●**carcinogenic** /ˌkɑːsɪnəʊˈdʒenɪk/ *adjective carcinogenic chemicals*

card /kɑːd/ *noun* **1** MESSAGE [C] a folded piece of stiff paper with a picture on the front and a message inside that you send to someone on a special occasion *a **birthday card*** **2** INFORMATION [C] a piece of stiff paper or plastic that has information printed on it *a library card* **3** GAME [C] (*also* **playing card**) one of a set of 52 pieces of stiff paper with numbers and pictures used for playing games *UK a pack of cards/ US a deck of cards* ○ *We spent the evening **playing cards*** (= playing games using cards). **4** PAPER [U] *UK* thick, stiff paper **5** WITHOUT ENVELOPE [C] a postcard (= card with a picture on one side that you send without an envelope) **6** COMPUTING a part inside a computer which controls how the computer operates *a graphics/sound card* **7 be on the cards** *UK* (*US* **be in the cards**) to be likely to happen *Do you think marriage is on the cards?* **8 put/lay your cards on the table** to tell someone honestly what you think or plan to do ➲See also: **cash card, charge card, Christmas card, credit card, debit card, phone card, smart card, swipe card, trump card, wild card**

cardboard /ˈkɑːdbɔːd/ *noun* [U] thick, stiff paper that is used for making boxes

cardiac /ˈkɑːdiæk/ *adjective* [always before noun] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY, HEALTH relating to the heart *cardiac surgery* ○ ***cardiac arrest*** (= when the heart stops beating) ➲See picture at **heart**

cardigan /ˈkɑːdɪgən/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing, often made of wool, that covers the top part of your body and fastens at the front ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

cardinal¹ /ˈkɑːdɪnᵊl/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a priest with a high rank in the Catholic Church *Cardinal Basil Hume*

cardinal² /ˈkɑːdɪnᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] *formal* extremely important or serious *One of the **cardinal rules** of business is know what your customer wants.*

ˌcardinal ˈnumber (*also* **cardinal**) *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a number such as 1, 2, 3, etc that shows the quantity of something

carding /ˈkɑːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] DT using wire brushes to separate the threads of some materials such as wool before they can be used

care¹ /keəʳ/ *verb* **1** IMPORTANT [I, T] to think that something is important and to feel interested in it or worried about it *He **cares** deeply **about** the environment.* [+ **question word**] *I don't care how long it takes - just get the job done.* **2** LOVE [I] to love someone *Your parents are only doing this because they **care about** you.* ○ *I knew that Amy still **cared for** me.* **3 I/he, etc couldn't care less** *informal* used to emphasize that someone is not interested in or worried about something or someone [+ **question word**] *I couldn't care less what people think.* **4 Who cares?** *informal* used to emphasize that you do not think something is important *"Manchester United will be in the final if they win this match." "Who cares?"* **5 Would you care for sth/to do sth?** *formal* used to ask someone if they want something or want to do something *Would you care for a drink?* ○ *Would you care to join us for dinner?*

care for sb/sth *phrasal verb* to look after someone or something, especially someone who is young, old, or ill *The children are being cared for by a relative.*

not care for sth/sb *phrasal verb formal* to not like something or someone *I don't care for shellfish.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***care***

take care **of** sb ● **need/provide/receive** care ● **constant/long-term** care ● **in/under** sb's care

care² /keəʳ/ *noun* **1** PROTECTION [U] the process of looking after something or someone, especially someone who is young, old, or ill *skin/hair care* ○ *A small baby requires constant care.* **2** ATTENTION [U] If you do something with care, you give a lot of attention to it so that you do not make a mistake or damage anything. *She planned the trip with great care.* ○ *Fragile - please handle with care.* **3 take care** to give a lot of attention to what you are doing so that you do not have an accident or make a mistake *The roads are very icy so take care when you drive home.* **4 Take care!** *informal* used when saying goodbye to someone *See you soon, Bob - take care!* **5** WORRY [C] a feeling of worry *He was sixteen years old and **didn't have a care in the world*** (= had no worries). **6 in care** *UK* Children who are in care are looked after by government organizations because their parents cannot look after them. *She was **put/taken into care** at the age of twelve.* **7 take care of sb/sth** to look after someone or something *My parents are going to take care of the house while we're away.* **8 take care**

of sth/doing sth to be responsible for dealing with something *I did the cooking while Guy took care of the washing up.* ➲See also: **intensive care**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***career***

begin/embark on/launch a career ● **follow/pursue** a career ● a career **in** sth ● a career **change** ● career **opportunities/prospects**

career¹ /kəˈrɪərˑ/ *noun* [C] **1** JOB a job that you do for a long period of your life and that gives you the chance to move to a higher position and earn more money *a successful career in marketing* **2** TIME the time that you spend doing a particular job *She began her acting career in TV commercials.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **work**

career² /kəˈrɪərˑ/ *verb* **career down/into/off, etc** *UK* to move quickly and in an uncontrolled way *The train careered off a bridge and plunged into the river.*

carefree /ˈkeəfriː/ *adjective* without any worries or problems *a carefree childhood*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***careful***

If someone is careful to avoid risks or danger, you can describe them as **cautious**: *She's a very **cautious** driver.*

The expression **play (it) safe** also means 'to be careful to avoid risks': *I think I'll **play it safe** and get the earlier train.*

If someone does something in a very careful way, paying great attention to detail, you can use adjectives such as **meticulous**, **methodical**, and **painstaking:** *This book is the result of years of **meticulous/painstaking** research.*

O-key **careful** /ˈkeəfᵊl/ *adjective* giving a lot of attention to what you are doing so that you do not have an accident, make a mistake, or damage something *careful planning/consideration* ○ ***Be careful**, Michael - that knife's very sharp.* [+ **to do sth**] *We were careful to avoid the midday sun.* ●**carefully** *adverb a carefully prepared speech*

caregiver /ˈkeəˌɡɪvəˑ/ *US* (*UK* **carer**) *noun* [C] someone who looks after a person who is young, old, or ill

careless /ˈkeələs/ *adjective* not giving enough attention to what you are doing *It was very **careless of** you to forget your passport.* ○ *He was fined £250 for **careless driving**.* ●**carelessly** *adverb* ●**carelessness** *noun* [U]

carer /ˈkeərəˑ/ *UK* (*US* **caregiver**) *noun* [C] someone who looks after a person who is young, old, or ill

caress /kəˈres/ *verb* [T] to touch someone in a gentle way that shows that you love them ●**caress** *noun* [C]

caretaker /ˈkeəˌteɪkəˑ/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDING someone whose job is to look after a large building, such as a school **2** PERSON *US* someone who looks after a person who is young, old, or ill

cargo /ˈkɑːɡəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **cargoes** goods that are carried in a vehicle *a cargo of oil* ○ *a cargo ship/plane*

caricature /ˈkærɪkətʃʊəˑ/ *noun* [C] **ART** a funny drawing or description of someone, especially someone famous, which makes part of their appearance or character more noticeable than it really is ●**caricature** *verb* [T]

caring /ˈkeərɪŋ/ *adjective* kind and supporting other people *She's a very caring person.*

carnage /ˈkɑːnɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] *formal* when a lot of people are violently killed or injured

carnation /kɑːˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] a small flower with a sweet smell that is usually white, pink, or red

carnival /ˈkɑːnɪvᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** CELEBRATION a public celebration where people wear special clothes and dance and play music in the roads **2** ENTERTAINMENT *US* a place of outside entertainment where there are machines you can ride on and games that can be played for prizes

carnivore /ˈkɑːnɪvɔːˑ/ *noun* [C] an animal that eats meat ➲Compare **herbivore** ●**carnivorous** /kɑːˈnɪvᵊrəs/ *adjective* eating meat

carol /ˈkærᵊl/ (*also* **Christmas carol**) *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a song that people sing at Christmas

carotid artery /kəˌrɒtɪdˈɑːtəri/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the two large arteries (= large tubes that carry blood) in the neck that carry blood to the head

carousel /ˌkærəˈsel/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVING STRIP a moving strip where passengers collect their bags at an airport **2** ENTERTAINMENT *mainly US* a machine that goes round and round and has toy animals or cars for children to ride on

carp¹ /kɑːp/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **carp** **FOOD** a large fish that lives in lakes and rivers, or the meat of this fish

carp² /kɑːp/ *verb* [I] to complain continually about things that are not important *He's always **carping about** how badly organized the office is.*

car park *UK* (*US* **parking lot**) *noun* [C] a place where vehicles can be parked

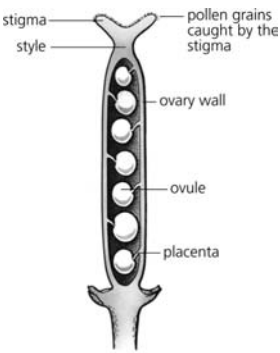

carpel

carpel /ˈkɑːpel/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the female reproductive (= producing young) part of a flower ➲See picture at **flower**

carpenter /ˈkɑːpᵊntəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person whose job is making and repairing wooden objects

carpentry /ˈkɑːpᵊntri/ *noun* [U] making and repairing wooden objects

C

carpet /ˈkɑːpɪt/ *noun* **1** [C, U] thick material for covering floors, often made of wool *a new living room carpet* ○ *UK fitted carpets* (= carpets that cover floors from wall to wall) **2 a carpet of sth** a thick layer of something that covers the ground *a carpet of snow* ●**carpet** *verb* [T] to put carpet on the floor of a room *The stairs were carpeted.* ➲See also: **the red carpet**

carriage /ˈkærɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** TRAIN [C] *UK* one of the separate parts of a train where the passengers sit *The front carriage of the train is for first-class passengers only.* **2** WITH HORSE [C] a vehicle with wheels that is pulled by a horse **3** GOODS [U] *UK* the cost of transporting goods ➲See also: **baby carriage**

ˌcarriage ˈinwards *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the cost for a business of having goods sent to it

ˌcarriage ˈoutwards *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the cost for a business of sending goods to its customers

carriageway /ˈkærɪdʒweɪ/ *noun* [C] *UK* one of the two sides of a motorway or main road *the southbound carriageway* ➲See also: **dual carriageway**

carrier /ˈkæriəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** TRANSPORT a person, vehicle, or machine that transports things from one place to another **2 HEALTH** a person who has a disease that they can give to other people without suffering from it themselves **3** COMPANY a company that operates aircraft ➲See also: **aircraft carrier, letter carrier**

ˈcarrier ˌbag *noun* [C] *UK* a large paper or plastic bag with handles that you are given in a shop to carry the things you have bought

carrot /ˈkærət/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C, U] an orange-coloured vegetable that is long and thin and grows in the ground ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 **2** [C] *informal* something that is offered to someone in order to encourage them to do something **3 carrot and stick** If you use a carrot-and-stick method, you offer someone rewards if they do something and say you will punish them if they do not.

carry /ˈkæri/ *verb* **1** HOLD [T] to hold something or someone with your hands, arms, or on your back and take them from one place to another *He was carrying my bags.* **2** TRANSPORT [T] to move someone or something from one place to another *The plane was carrying 30 passengers.* ○ *Strong currents carried them out to sea.* **3** HAVE WITH YOU [T] to have something with you in a pocket, bag, etc *She still carries his photo in her purse.* **4 HEALTH** [T] to have a disease that you might give to someone else *Mosquitoes carry malaria and other infectious diseases.* **5** PART [T] to have something as a part or a result of something *All cigarette advertising must carry a government health warning.* ○ *Murder still carries the death penalty there.* **6** SOUND [I] If a sound or someone's voice carries, it can be heard a long way away. **7** SUPPORT [T] to support the weight of something *Is the ice thick enough to* ***carry my weight?*** **8 MATHEMATICS** [T] to put a number into another column when adding numbers **9** DEVELOP [T] to develop something in a particular way *She carried her diet to extremes.* **10 be carried** to be formally accepted by people voting at a meeting *The* ***motion was carried*** *by 210 votes to 160.* ➲See also: carry **weight**

be carried away *phrasal verb* to be so excited about something that you do not control what you say or do *There's far too much food - I'm afraid I got a bit carried away.*

carry sth forward/over *phrasal verb* **1** (in accounting) to move an amount from one page or column (= line of text) to the next **2** (in accounting) to move an amount into a period of time in the future

carry sth off *phrasal verb* to succeed in doing or achieving something difficult *It's not an easy part to act but he carried it off brilliantly.*

carry on *phrasal verb* to continue doing something [+ **doing sth**] *The doctors have warned him but he just carries on drinking.* ○ ***Carry on with*** *your work while I'm gone.*

carry out sth *phrasal verb* to do or complete something, especially something that you have said you would do or that you have been told to do *I was only* ***carrying out orders.***

carryall /ˈkæriɔːl/ *US* (*UK* **holdall**) *noun* [C] a large bag for carrying clothes

cart¹ /kɑːt/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a vehicle with two or four wheels that is pulled by an animal and used for carrying goods **2** SHOP *US* (*UK* **trolley**) a metal structure on wheels that is used for carrying things ➲See also: **go-cart**

cart² /kɑːt/ *verb informal* **cart sb/sth around/away/off, etc** to take someone or something somewhere

carte blanche /ˌkɑːtˈblɑːnʃ/ *noun* [U] complete freedom to do what you want [+ **to do sth**] *She was* ***given carte blanche*** *to make whatever changes she wanted.*

cartel /kɑːˈtel/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a group of companies who join together to control prices and limit competition

cartilage /ˈkɑːtɪlɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a strong elastic substance found where two bones connect in the human body

carton /ˈkɑːtᵊn/ *noun* [C] a container for food and drink that is made from strong, stiff paper or plastic *a carton of milk/fruit juice*

cartoon /kɑːˈtuːn/ *noun* [C] **1** a film made using characters that are drawn and not real *Mickey Mouse and other famous* ***cartoon characters*** **2 ART** a funny drawing, especially in a newspaper or magazine ●**cartoonist** *noun* [C] someone whose job is to draw cartoons

cartridge /ˈkɑːtrɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER a small container that is used in a larger piece of equipment and can be easily replaced *an ink cartridge* **2** GUN a tube containing an explosive substance and a bullet for use in a gun

carve /kɑːv/ *verb* [I, T] **1 ART** to make an object, a shape, or a pattern by cutting wood, stone, etc *The statue was* ***carved out of*** *stone.* ○ *They had* ***carved*** *their initials* ***into*** *the tree.*

2 FOOD to cut a large piece of cooked meat into smaller pieces **3 carve (out) a niche/career/role, etc for yourself** to be successful in a particular job or activity
carve sth up *phrasal verb* to divide something into smaller parts, in a way that people do not approve of *The countryside has been carved up and sold to property developers.*

carving /ˈkɑːvɪŋ/ *noun* **1 ART** [C] an object or a pattern that has been carved **2 ART** [U] the activity of carving an object or pattern *wood carving*

cascade /kæsˈkeɪd/ *verb* [I] to fall quickly and in large amounts *Water cascaded from the rocks above.* ●**cascade** *noun* [C] *literary* a large amount of something, especially something falling or hanging *a cascade of golden hair*

O-key **case** /keɪs/ *noun* **1** SITUATION [C] a particular situation or example of something *People were imprisoned, and, **in some cases**, killed for their beliefs.* ○ *We usually ask for references, but in your case it will not be necessary.* ○ *The whole film is based on **a case of** mistaken identity.* **2 LAW** [C] something that is decided in a court of law *a libel/criminal/divorce case* ○ *He lost his case.* **3 LAW** [C] a crime that police are trying to solve *a murder case* ○ *Police in the town have investigated 50 **cases of** burglary in the past month.* **4** ILLNESS [C] an illness, or somebody with an illness *4,000 new **cases of** the disease are diagnosed every year.* **5 be the case** to be true *Bad diet can cause tiredness, but I don't think that's the case here.* **6** REASONS [C] facts or reasons that prove a particular opinion [**usually singular**] *There is **a** strong **case for/against** bringing in the new legislation.* ○ *mainly UK He **put the case for** more funding very convincingly.* **7** CONTAINER [C] a container for storing or protecting something *a pencil case* ○ *a cigarette case* **8** BAG [C] *UK another word for* suitcase (= a rectangular bag or container with a handle which you use for carrying clothes in when you are travelling) **9 (just) in case** because something might happen, or might have happened *I don't think that it's going to rain, but I'll bring a raincoat just in case.* **10 in any case** used to give another reason for something that you are saying, or that you have done *I don't want to go skiing and, in any case, I can't afford it.* **11 in that case/in which case** because that is the situation/if that is the situation *"Peter's coming tonight." "Oh, in that case, I'll stay in."* **12 be a case of doing sth** to be necessary to do something *We know that we're right. It's just a case of proving it.* **13 in case of sth** *formal* when something happens, or in preparation for when something happens *We keep a bucket of water backstage, in case of fire.* **14 LANGUAGE** [C] any of the various types to which a noun can belong, depending on what it is doing in the sentence, usually shown by a particular ending **15 a case in point** a good example of something *Supermarkets often charge too much for goods. Bananas are a case in point.* **16 be/get on sb's case** *informal* to criticize someone in an annoying way because of something that they have done *She's always on my case about something.* **17 be on the case** *UK informal* to be doing what needs to be done ➲See also: **lower case, upper case**

ˌcase ˈhistory *noun* [C] a record of what happens to a particular person *The study used case histories from 500 teenage boys.*

ˈcase ˌstudy *noun* [C] a report about a particular person or thing, to show an example of a general principle

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cash***

pay (in) cash ● [£50/$100, etc] **in** cash ● a cash **machine** ● cash **payments**

O-key **cash¹** /kæʃ/ *noun* [U] **1 FINANCE** money in the form of coins or notes (= paper money) *I'm taking £50 **in cash**.* ○ *Are you **paying** by cheque or **cash?*** **2** *informal* money in any form *She's a bit short of cash at the moment.* ○ *a cash prize*
➲See also: **e-cash, hard cash**

cash² /kæʃ/ *verb* **cash a cheque FINANCE** to exchange a cheque (= piece of paper printed by a bank and used to pay for things) for coins or paper money
cash in on sth *phrasal verb* to get money or another advantage from an event or a situation, often in an unfair way *Her family have been accused of cashing in on her death.*

cashback /ˈkæʃbæk/ *noun* [U] *UK* **FINANCE** money that you can take from your bank account when you pay in a shop with a bank card *£50 cashback*

ˈcash ˌbook *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business uses to record all money spent and received, either through the bank or as cash

ˈcash ˌcard *noun* [C] *UK* **FINANCE** a plastic card that you use to get money from a machine

ˈcash ˌcrop *noun* [C] **FARMING** a crop that is grown to be sold

ˈcash ˌdesk *noun* [C] *UK* the place in a shop where you pay for the things that you buy

cashew /ˈkæʃuː, kəˈʃuː/ (*also* **ˈcashew ˌnut**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a curved nut that you can eat

cashflow /ˈkæʃfləʊ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the movement of money in and out of a business or bank account

cashier /kæʃˈɪə/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to receive and pay out money in a shop, bank, etc

ˈcash maˌchine (*also UK* **cashpoint**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a machine, usually in a wall outside a bank, that you can get money from using a plastic card

cashmere /ˈkæʃmɪə/ (US) /ˈkæʒmɪr/ *noun* [U] a type of very soft, expensive wool

cashpoint /ˈkæʃpɔɪnt/ *UK* (*UK/US* **cash machine**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a machine, usually in a wall outside a bank, that you can get money from using a plastic card

ˈcash ˌregister *noun* [C] a machine that is used in shops for keeping money in, and for recording everything that is sold

casino /kəˈsiːnəʊ/ *noun* [C] a place where card games and other games of risk are played for money

cask /kɑːsk/ *noun* [C] a strong, round, wooden container that is used for storing alcoholic drinks

casket /ˈkɑːskɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR SMALL OBJECTS *UK* a small, decorated box that is used for keeping valuable objects **2** FOR DEAD BODY *US* (*UK/US* **coffin**) a box in which a dead body is buried

casserole /ˈkæsᵊrəʊl/ *noun* **FOOD** **1** [C, U] a mixture of meat or beans with liquid and vegetables cooked for a long time in the oven **2** [C] (*also* ˈ**casserole** ˌ**dish**) a large, heavy container with a lid, that is used for cooking casseroles

cassette /kəˈset/ *noun* [C] a flat, plastic case containing a long piece of magnetic material that is used to record and play sound or pictures *a video cassette*

caˈssette ˌplayer *noun* [C] a machine that plays cassettes of music or sound

caˈssette reˌcorder *noun* [C] a machine that is used for playing cassettes of music or sound and for recording music or sound onto cassettes

cast¹ /kɑːst/ *verb* [T] *past* **cast** **1** ACTOR to choose an actor for a particular part in a film or play [**often passive**] *Why am I always* ***cast as*** *the villain?* **2** THROW *literary* to throw something **3** LIGHT *literary* to send light or shadow (= dark shapes) in a particular direction *The moon cast a white light into the room.* **4 cast doubt/suspicion on sb/sth** to make people feel less sure about or have less trust in someone or something *A leading scientist has cast doubts on government claims that the drug is safe.* **5 cast a/your vote** to vote **6 cast a spell on sb a** ATTRACT to seem to use magic to attract someone *The city had cast a spell on me and I never wanted to leave.* **b** MAGIC to use magic to make something happen to someone **7** METAL to make an object by pouring hot metal into a container of a particular shape ➲See also: cast/run your/an **eye**¹ over sth, cast/shed **light**¹ on sth, cast a **pall**² over sth, cast a **shadow**¹ over sth

cast off *phrasal verb* If a boat casts off, it leaves.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cast***

[a play/film, etc] **features** a cast ● the cast **includes** sb ● the cast **of** sth ● a **member of** the cast

cast² /kɑːst/ *noun* **1** [**group**] all the actors in a film or play *The cast are in rehearsal at the moment.* **2 HEALTH** [C] a hard cover used to keep a broken bone in the correct position until it gets better

castaway /ˈkɑːstəweɪ/ *noun* [C] someone who is left on an island, or in a place where there are few or no other people, after their ship has sunk

caste /kɑːst/ *noun* [C, U] **SOCIETY** a system of dividing Hindu society into social groups, or one of these groups *the caste system*

castigate /ˈkæstɪɡeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to criticize someone severely

casting /ˈkɑːstɪŋ/ *noun* [U] making an object by pouring liquid metal or plastic into a mould (= hollow shape)

cast-iron /ˈkɑːstˌaɪən/ *adjective* **1** NO DOUBT [**always before noun**] able to be trusted completely, or impossible to doubt *I need a cast-iron guarantee that the work will be finished on time.* **2** METAL made of cast iron

ˌ**cast ˈiron** *noun* [U] a type of very hard iron

castle /ˈkɑːsl/ *noun* [C] a large, strong building with towers and high walls, that was built in the past to protect the people inside from being attacked

cast-off /ˈkɑːstɒf/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing or other item that you give to someone because you do not want it any more [**usually plural**] *This dress is another of my sister's cast-offs.*

castrate /kæsˈtreɪt/ US /ˈkæstreɪt/ *verb* [T] to remove the testicles (= organs that produce sperm) of a man or male animal ●**castration** /kæsˈtreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

casual /ˈkæʒjuəl/ *adjective* **1** NOT PLANNED [**always before noun**] not planned, or without particular meaning or importance *a casual remark/acquaintance/meeting* **2** RELAXED relaxed and not seeming very interested in someone or something *a casual manner/approach* ○ *She's much too casual about her work.* **3** CLOTHING Casual clothing is comfortable and not suitable for formal occasions. **4** WORK [**always before noun**] *mainly UK* Casual work is not regular or fixed. ***casual labour/workers***

casually /ˈkæʒjuəli/ *adverb* **1** RELAXED in a relaxed way, or not seeming to be interested in someone or something *I asked as casually as I could if she was going to be at the party.* **2** DRESS If you dress casually, you do not dress in a formal way.

casualty /ˈkæʒjuəlti/ *noun* **1** INJURED [C] someone who is injured or killed in an accident or war *Both sides in the conflict have promised to try to avoid civilian casualties.* **2** BADLY AFFECTED [C] someone or something that is badly affected by something that happens *The health service has been the biggest* ***casualty of*** *government cuts.* **3 HEALTH** [U] *UK* (*US* **emergency room**) the part of a hospital where people go when they have been injured or have urgent illnesses so that they can be treated immediately

cat /kæt/ *noun* [C] **1** PET a small animal with fur, four legs and a tail that is kept as a pet **2** WILD ANIMAL a large, wild animal that is related to the cat, such as the lion **3 let the cat out of the bag** to tell people secret information, often without intending to

cataclysmic /ˌkætəˈklɪzmɪk/ *adjective* sudden, shocking, and violent ***cataclysmic changes/events***

catalase /ˈkætəleɪz/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an enzyme found in living organisms that speeds up the breaking down of hydrogen peroxide into water and oxygen

catalogue¹ (*also US* **catalog**) /ˈkætᵊlɒɡ/ *noun* [C] **1** a book with a list of all the goods that you can buy from a shop, or of all the books, paintings, etc that you can find in a place *a clothing catalogue* **2 a catalogue of disasters/errors/failures, etc** a series of bad events

catalogue² (*also US* **catalog**) /ˈkætᵊlɒɡ/ *verb* [T] **cataloguing,** *past* **catalogued** to make a list of things, especially in order to put it in a catalogue

catalysis /kəˈtæləsɪs/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY the process of making a chemical reaction happen more quickly by using a catalyst ●**catalytic** /kætəˈlɪtɪk/ *adjective*

catalyst /ˈkætᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** someone or something that causes change *Recent riots and suicides have acted as* ***a catalyst for change*** *in the prison system.* **2** CHEMISTRY a substance that makes a chemical reaction happen more quickly

cataˌlytic conˈverter *noun* [C] a device on a car that reduces the amount of poisonous gas that it produces

catalyze (*also UK* **-yse**) /ˈkætəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] CHEMISTRY to make a chemical reaction happen faster

catapult¹ /ˈkætəpʌlt/ *verb* **1 catapult sb/sth into/out/through, etc** to make someone or something move through the air very quickly and with great force [**often passive**] *When the two cars collided, he was catapulted out of his seat.* **2 catapult sb to stardom/into the lead, etc** to make someone suddenly very famous, successful, etc

catapult² /ˈkætəpʌlt/ *UK* (*US* **slingshot**) *noun* [C] a Y-shaped object with a piece of elastic used by children to shoot small stones

cataract /ˈkætᵊrækt/ *noun* [C] HEALTH an area of someone's eye with a disease that gradually prevents them from seeing correctly

catarrh /kəˈtɑːʳ/ *noun* [U] *UK* HEALTH the thick substance that is produced in your nose and throat when you have a cold

catastrophe /kəˈtæstrəfi/ *noun* [C, U] an extremely bad event that causes a lot of suffering or destruction *After the drought, the country is facing environmental catastrophe.*

catastrophic /ˌkætəˈstrɒfɪk/ *adjective* causing a lot of suffering or destruction

catch¹ /kætʃ/ *verb past* **caught** **1** GET HOLD [T] to stop someone or something that is moving through the air by getting hold of it *Try to catch the ball.* ○ *She fell backwards but he caught her in his arms.* **2** STOP ESCAPING [T] to find and stop a person or animal who is trying to escape *He ran after his attacker but couldn't catch him.* ○ *Did you catch many fish today?* **3** CRIMINAL [T] If the police catch a criminal, they find them and take them away. *These terrorists must be caught.* **4** HEALTH [T] to get an illness or disease *I think I've caught a cold.* **5** TRANSPORT [T] to get on a bus, train, etc in order to travel somewhere *You can catch the bus from the top of the hill.* **6** DISCOVER [T] to discover someone who is doing something wrong or something secret [**+ doing sth**] *I caught her listening outside the door.* ○ *informal You* ***won't catch me*** *wearing* (= I never wear) *a tie.* **7** STICK [I, T] to stick somewhere, or to make something stick somewhere *My dress caught on the door handle as I was leaving.* **8** COLLECT [T] to collect something that is falling *I used a bucket to catch the drips.* **9** BE IN TIME [T] to manage to be in time to see or do something *I only caught the end of the programme.* **10** HEAR [T] to hear or understand something correctly *I'm sorry. I didn't catch your name.* **11 catch fire** to start burning **12 be/get caught** to be unable to avoid something unpleasant *I got caught in the rain.* **13 catch the sun** *UK* to burn your skin in the sun *You've caught the sun on your shoulders.* **14 catch sight of sth** to see something suddenly, often only for a short time *He caught sight of himself in the mirror.* **15** HIT [T] *UK* to hit something or someone *The ball flew across the garden, and caught me on the chin.* ➲See also: catch sb's **eye**¹, catch sb off **guard**¹

catch on *phrasal verb* **1** BECOME POPULAR to become popular *I wonder if the game will* ***catch on with*** *young people?* **2** UNDERSTAND *informal* to understand something, especially after a long time *It took him a while to* ***catch on to*** *what we meant.*

catch sb out *phrasal verb UK* to trick someone so that they make a mistake

catch (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* **1** REACH to reach someone or something that is in front of you, by going faster than them *We soon* ***caught up with*** *the car in front.* **2** QUALITY to reach the same level or quality as someone or something else *She's doing extra work to* ***catch up with*** *the rest of the class.*

catch up *phrasal verb* EDUCATION to learn or discuss the most recent news *Let's meet for a chat - I need to* ***catch up on*** *all the gossip.*

catch up on/with sth *phrasal verb* to do something that you did not have time to do earlier *After the exams, I need to catch up on some sleep.*

catch up with sb *phrasal verb* If something bad that you have done or that has been happening to you catches up with you, it begins to cause problems for you. *I can feel the stress of the last few weeks beginning to catch up with me.*

be/get caught up in sth *phrasal verb* to become involved in a situation, often without wanting to *How did the paper get caught up in a legal dispute?*

catch² /kætʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** WITH HANDS when someone catches something that is moving through the air *a brilliant catch* **2** FISH the amount of fish that someone has caught **3** PROBLEM a hidden problem or difficulty with something *He's offering us a free flight? There must be a catch.* **4** LOCK a part on something that fastens it and keeps it closed *a* ***safety catch***

Catch-22 /ˌkætʃtwentiˈtuː/ *noun* [C] an impossible situation: you cannot do one thing until you have done another thing, but you cannot do the other thing until you have done the first thing *a* ***Catch-22 situation***

catching /ˈkætʃɪŋ/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] HEALTH If an illness or a mood is catching, other people can get it from you.

catchment area /ˈkætʃmənt ˌeərɪə/ *noun* [C] *UK* EDUCATION the area around a school or a hospital, where most of the students or patients come from

catchphrase /ˈkætʃfreɪz/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a phrase which is often repeated by a particular organization or person, and becomes connected with them

catchy /ˈkætʃi/ *adjective* A catchy song, tune, or phrase is easy to remember.

categorical /ˌkætəˈɡɒrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* If someone is categorical about what they say, they

say it with force and are completely certain about it. *a **categorical assurance/denial*** ●**categorically** *adverb They have **denied categorically** that they were involved in the conspiracy.*

categorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈkætəɡᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to divide people or things into groups of similar types *The books are categorized according to subject.*

category /ˈkætəɡᵊri/ *noun* [C] a group of people or things of a similar type *Our customers **fall into** two main **categories**: retired people and housewives.*

cater /ˈkeɪtᵊr/ *verb* [I, T] to provide and often serve food and drinks for a particular event *How many are we **catering for** at the wedding reception?*
cater for sb/sth *phrasal verb mainly UK* to provide what is wanted or needed by a particular group of people *The club caters for children between the ages of 4 and 12.*
cater to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to give people exactly what they want, usually something that people think is wrong *This legislation simply caters to unacceptable racist opinions.*

caterer /ˈkeɪtᵊrᵊr/ *noun* [C] a person or company that provides food and drinks for particular events, or for an organization

catering /ˈkeɪtᵊrɪŋ/ *noun* [U] providing food and drinks for people *Who **did the catering** for the party?*

caterpillar /ˈkætᵊpɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] a small, long animal with many legs that eats leaves

cathartic /kəˈθɑːtɪk/ *adjective* A cathartic experience or event helps you to express and get rid of strong emotions.

cathedral /kəˈθiːdrᵊl/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** the largest and most important church in a particular area

cathode /ˈkæθəʊd/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** one of the electrodes (= object that electricity moves through) in a piece of electrical equipment; the positive electrode in a battery and the negative electrode in an electrolytic cell ➲Compare **anode**

ˌcathode ˈray tube *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a tube-shaped part in a television or computer screen, inside which a flow of electrons (= small piece of atom) is produced to create the images or text

Catholic /ˈkæθᵊlɪk/ (*also* **Roman Catholic**) *adjective* **RELIGION** belonging or relating to the part of the Christian religion that has the Pope (= a very important priest) as its leader *a Catholic priest/school* ●**Catholic** *noun* [C] *I think he's a Catholic.*

the ˌCatholic ˈChurch *noun* **RELIGION** the Catholic religion and all the people who believe in it

Catholicism /kəˈθɒlɪsɪzᵊm/ (*also* **ˌRoman Caˈtholicism**) *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the beliefs of the Catholic religion

cation /ˈkætaɪən/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** an ion (= type of atom) with a positive electric charge ➲Compare **anion**

catsup /ˈkætsəp/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** *another US spelling of* ketchup (= a thick, red sauce that is eaten cold with food)

cattle /ˈkætl/ *noun* [**plural**] male and female cows, kept on a farm for their milk and meat

catty /ˈkæti/ *adjective informal* intending to hurt someone by saying unkind things *catty remarks*

catwalk /ˈkætwɔːk/ *noun* [C] the narrow, raised path that people walk along in a fashion show

Caucasian /kɔːˈkeɪʒən/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** belonging to a race of people with white or pale skin ●**Caucasian** *noun* [C] a Caucasian person

caught /kɔːt/ *past of* catch

cauldron /ˈkɔːldrᵊn/ *noun* [C] *literary* a large, round metal pot that is used for cooking over a fire

cauliflower /ˈkɒlɪˌflaʊʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a large, round, white vegetable with thick, green leaves around the outside ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cause***

a **common/leading/probable/root** cause ● **discover/establish/identify** the cause **of** sth ● the **main** cause

cause¹ /kɔːz/ *noun* **1** MAKES HAPPEN [C] someone or something that makes something happen *The police are still trying to **establish the cause of** the fire.* ○ *She died of **natural causes**.* **2** REASON [U] a reason to feel something or to behave in a particular way *He's never given me any **cause for** concern.* **3** PRINCIPLE [C] a principle or aim that a group of people support or fight for *The money will all go to a **good cause**.*

cause² /kɔːz/ *verb* [T] to make something happen *The hurricane caused widespread damage.* ○ *Most heart attacks are **caused by** blood clots.* [+ **two objects**] *I hope the children haven't caused you too much trouble.* [+ **to do sth**] *What caused the washing machine to blow up?*

causeway /ˈkɔːzweɪ/ *noun* [C] a raised path or road over a wet area

caustic /ˈkɔːstɪk/ *adjective* **1** A caustic remark is extremely unkind and intended to upset or criticize someone. **2** **CHEMISTRY** Caustic chemicals can burn things.

ˌcaustic ˈsoda *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the chemical sodium hydroxide used in soap and paper production and in powerful cleaning substances

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***caution***

advise/exercise/urge caution ● **extreme/great** caution ● do sth **with** caution ● caution **in** doing sth

caution¹ /ˈkɔːʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [U] great care and attention not to take risks or get into danger *Travellers have been advised to **exercise** great **caution** when passing through the region.* ○ *I would **treat** anything he says **with** extreme **caution*** (= not be too quick to believe it). **2** **LAW** [C] *UK* when a police officer or other person in authority warns you that you will be punished if you do something bad again **3** **throw caution to the wind** to take a risk ➲See also: err on the **side¹** of caution

caution² /ˈkɔːʃᵊn/ *verb* **1** WARN [**I, T**] *formal* to warn someone of something [**often passive**] *They were **cautioned against** buying shares in the company.* **2** POLICE [**T**] *UK* If police caution people, they are given a spoken warning that they will be punished next time.

cautionary /ˈkɔːʃᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* intended to warn or advise someone *a **cautionary tale***

cautious /ˈkɔːʃəs/ *adjective* taking care to avoid risks or danger *She is cautious about lending money to anyone.* ●**cautiously** *adverb*

cavalier /ˌkævᵊlˈɪəʳ/ *adjective formal* without caring about other people or about a dangerous or serious situation *a **cavalier attitude***

the cavalry /ˈkævᵊlri/ *noun* [**U group**] soldiers who fight on horses

cave¹ /keɪv/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOLOGY** a large hole in the side of a cliff (= straight, high rock next to the sea), mountain, or under the ground

cave² /keɪv/ *verb*
cave in *phrasal verb* **1** FALL If a ceiling, roof, or other structure caves in, it breaks and falls into the space below. **2** AGREE to agree to something that you were against before, after someone has persuaded you or made you afraid *The company has finally **caved in to** the demands of the unions.*

caveat /ˈkæviæt/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* something you say which warns that there is a limit on a general announcement made earlier

cavern /ˈkævᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOLOGY** a large cave

caviar (*also* **caviare**) /ˈkæviɑːʳ/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** the eggs of a large fish, eaten as a food and usually very expensive

cavity /ˈkævəti/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HOLE a hole or a space inside something solid or between two surfaces **2** TOOTH a hole in a tooth

cavort /kəˈvɔːt/ *verb* [**I**] to jump, dance, or move about in an excited way

CBI /ˌsiːbiːˈaɪ/ *noun* **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* Confederation of British Industry; a large organisation that many British companies belong to

cc /ˌsiːˈsiː/ **1** *abbreviation for* carbon copy: used on a letter or email to show that you are sending a copy to other people **2** **MEASURES** *abbreviation for* cubic centimetre: a unit for measuring the volume of something *a 750cc motorcycle*

CCTV /ˌsiːsiːtiːˈviː/ *noun* [**U**] *abbreviation for* closed circuit television: a system of television cameras filming in shops and public places so that people can watch and protect those places *CCTV cameras*

CD /ˌsiːˈdiː/ *noun* [**C**] *abbreviation for* compact disc: a small disc on which music or information is recorded ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

ˌCˈD ˌburner *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a machine that can record information onto a CD

ˌCˈD ˌplayer *noun* [**C**] a machine that is used for playing music CDs

CD-R /ˌsiːdiːˈɑːʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* compact disc recordable: an empty compact disc for recording information only once using special computer equipment

CD-ROM /ˌsiːdiːˈrɒm/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* compact disc read-only memory: a CD that holds large amounts of information that can be read by a computer

CD-RW /ˌsiːdiːɑːˈdʌbljuː/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* compact disc rewritable: an empty compact disc for recording and changing information using special computer equipment

ˌCˈD ˌwriter *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a CD burner

cease /siːs/ *verb* [**I, T**] *formal* to stop [**+ doing sth**] *He ordered his men to cease firing.* [**+ to do sth**] *Her behaviour never ceases to amaze me.*

ceasefire /ˈsiːsfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] an agreement between two armies or groups to stop fighting

ceaseless /ˈsiːsləs/ *adjective formal* continuous *the ceaseless movement of the sea* ●**ceaselessly** *adverb*

cedar /ˈsiːdəʳ/ *noun* [**C, U**] a tall, evergreen (= with leaves that do not fall off in winter) tree, or the red wood of this tree

cede /siːd/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to give something such as land or power to another country or person, especially because you are forced to

ceiling /ˈsiːlɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** ROOM the surface of a room which you can see when you look above you **2** AMOUNT a limit on the amount that can be paid for something *They have set a **ceiling on** pay rises.*

celeb /sɪˈleb/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* a celebrity (= famous person)

celebrate /ˈseləbreɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] to do something enjoyable because it is a special day, or because something good has happened *Do you celebrate Christmas in your country?*

celebrated /ˈseləbreɪtɪd/ *adjective* famous for a special ability or quality *She is **celebrated for** her wit.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***celebration***

anniversary/birthday/New Year celebrations ● be a **cause for** celebration ● sth **calls for** a celebration ● a celebration **to mark/of** sth ● **in** celebration **of** sth

celebration /ˌseləˈbreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when you celebrate a special day or event *Let's buy some champagne **in celebration of** her safe arrival.* ○ *You've passed? This **calls for a celebration**.*

celebratory /ˌseləˈbreɪtᵊri/ (US) /ˈseləbrətɔːri/ *adjective* done to celebrate something or wanting to celebrate something *a celebratory dinner* ○ *in a **celebratory mood***

celebrity /səˈlebrəti/ *noun* [**C**] a famous person

celery /ˈselᵊri/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a vegetable with long, pale green stems, often eaten in salads ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

celestial /səˈlestiəl/ *adjective literary* relating to heaven or the sky

celibate /ˈseləbət/ *adjective* Someone who is celibate does not have sex. ●**celibacy** /ˈseləbəsi/ *noun* [**U**] when you do not have sex

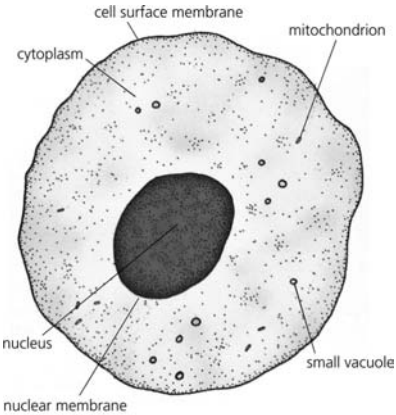

animal cell

cell /sel/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** the smallest living part of an animal or a plant *brain/cancer cells* **2** a small room in a prison or police station where a prisoner is kept

cellar /ˈselər/ *noun* [C] a room under the floor of a building ➲See also: **salt cellar**

cellist /ˈtʃelɪst/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays the cello

cello /ˈtʃeləʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a large, wooden musical instrument with four strings that you hold between your knees to play

Cellophane /ˈseləfeɪn/ *noun* [U] **DT** *trademark* thin, transparent material that is used for wrapping goods, especially flowers and food

cell phone /ˈselfəʊn/ (also **cellular phone**) *noun* [C] *US* a mobile phone

ˈ**cell** ˌ**sap** *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the liquid that is found in the vacuole (= place inside a cell) of plant cells

cellular /ˈseljələr/ *adjective* **1** **BIOLOGY** relating to animal or plant cells *cellular damage* **2** [**always before noun**] relating to cellular phones *cellular companies/communications*

ˈ**cellular** ˌ**phone** (*also* **cell phone** /ˈselfəʊn/) *noun* [C] a mobile phone

cellulite /ˈseljəlaɪt/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** fat that looks like small lumps below the skin, especially on the upper legs *I can't seem to get rid of my cellulite.*

celluloid /ˈseljʊloɪd/ *noun* [U] **1** *old-fashioned* films or the cinema generally **2** a type of plastic used to make many things, especially, in the past, photographic film

cellulose /ˈseljələʊs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance in plants that is used to make some paper and plastics

Celsius /ˈselsiəs/ (*written abbreviation* **C**) *noun* [U] **MEASURES** a measurement of temperature in which water freezes at 0° and boils at 100°

Celtic /ˈkeltɪk/ *adjective* relating to the people of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales *Celtic art/music*

cement[1] /sɪˈment/ *noun* [U] **1** a grey powder used in building which is mixed with water and sand or stones to make a hard substance **2** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the substance that covers the roots of teeth ➲See picture at **tooth**

cement[2] /sɪˈment/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE STRONGER to make something such as a relationship, a belief, or a position stronger *It was the holiday that really cemented our friendship.* **2** COVER (*also* **cement over**) to cover something with cement

cemetery /ˈsemətri/ *noun* [C] a place where dead people are buried

censor /ˈsensər/ *verb* [T] to examine books, documents, or films and remove parts of them that are offensive or not allowed by rules [**often passive**] *The book was heavily censored before publication.* ●**censor** *noun* [C]

censorship /ˈsensəʃɪp/ *noun* [U] when a book, film, newspaper, or other information is censored *political/state censorship*

censure /ˈsenʃər/ *verb* [T] *formal* to criticize someone formally for something that they have done ●**censure** *noun* [U] *formal*

census /ˈsensəs/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** when people in a country are officially counted and information is taken about them

cent /sent/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a coin or unit of money with a value of 1/100 of a dollar (= US unit of money); ¢ *The newspaper costs sixty-five cents.*

centenary /senˈtiːnəri/ US /ˈsentəneri/ (*also US* **centennial** /senˈteniəl/) *noun* [C] the day or year that is 100 years after an important event *This year, there will be many concerts to mark* ***the centenary of*** *the composer's death.*

center /ˈsentər/ *noun, verb US spelling of* centre

centerpiece /ˈsentəpiːs/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* centrepiece

centi-, cent- /senti-, sent-/ *prefix* hundred *a centimetre* ○ *a century*

centigrade /ˈsentɪgreɪd/ (*written abbreviation* **C**) *noun* [U] **MEASURES** a measurement of temperature in which water freezes at 0° and boils at 100°

centigram /ˈsentɪgræm/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit of weight equal to 0.01 of a gram

centilitre /ˈsentɪˌliːtər/ *UK* (*US* **centiliter**) (*written abbreviation* **cl**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 0.01 litres

centimetre *UK* (*US* **centimeter**) (*written abbreviation* **cm**) /ˈsentɪˌmiːtər/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring length, equal to 0.01 metres

central /ˈsentrəl/ *adjective* **1** POSITION in or near the centre of a place or object *central Africa/America* ○ *The roof is supported by a central column.* **2** ORGANIZATION [**always before noun**] controlled or organized in one main place *central authorities/government* ○ *the US central bank* **3** IMPORTANT main or most important *a central character/figure* ○ *Her role is* ***central to*** *the film.* **4** CITY in the main part of a town or city ●**centrally** *adverb*

ˌ**central** ˈ**heating** *noun* [U] a system of heating a building by warming air or water in one

place and carrying it to different rooms in pipes

centralize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsentrəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** If a country or organization is centralized, it is controlled from one place. [**often passive**] *centralized control/government* ●**centralization** /ˌsentrəlaɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

ˌcentral ˈnervous system *noun* **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the main system of nerve control in a living thing, consisting of the brain and the spinal cord

O-K **centre¹** *UK* (*US* **center**) /ˈsentər/ *noun* **1** MIDDLE [C] the middle point or part of something *She stood **in the centre** of the room.* ○ *Cars are not allowed in the **town centre**.* **2** PLACE [C] a place or a building used for a particular activity *a **health/advice centre*** ○ *a **centre for** the homeless* **3** BUSINESS [C] a place where a lot of a particular activity or business takes place *an industrial centre* **4 POLITICS** [**no plural**] (*also* **the centre**) a political position with opinions that are not extreme *His political views are left of centre.* **5 be the centre of attention** to receive more attention than anyone or anything else ➲See also: **community centre, garden centre, shopping centre**

centre² *UK* (*US* **center**) /ˈsentər/ *verb* [T] to put something in the middle of an area
centre around/on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to have someone or something as the main part of a discussion or activity *The dispute centres on racial issues.*

ˌcentre of ˈgravity *noun* [C] *plural* **centres of gravity** **PHYSICS** the point in an object where its weight is balanced

centrepiece *UK* (*US* **centerpiece**) /ˈsentəpiːs/ *noun* [C] **1** IMPORTANT PART the most important or attractive part of something *The employment programme is **the centrepiece of** the government's economic strategy.* **2** DECORATION a decoration that is put in the middle of a dinner table

centrifugal /ˌsentrɪˈfjuːgəl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** (of a turning object) moving away from the point around which it is turning *centrifugal force*

centrifuge /ˈsentrɪfjuːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a machine which turns a container round very quickly, causing the solids and liquids inside it to separate ●**centrifugation** /ˌsentrɪfjuːˈɡeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] when something is put in a centrifuge

centripetal /ˌsentrɪˈpiːtəl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** (of a turning object) moving towards the point around which it is turning *centripetal force*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***century***

in the [17th/21st, etc] century ● the **early/mid/late** [15th/19th, etc] century ● the **turn of the** century (= the time around the end of one century and the beginning of the next)

O-K **century** /ˈsenʃəri/ *noun* [C] a period of 100 years, especially used in giving dates *the twentieth century*

CEO /ˌsiːiːˈəʊ/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* chief executive officer: the person with the most important job in a company

cephalopod /ˈsefələʊpɒd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal such as an octopus or squid, that has tentacles (= long parts like arms) joining directly on to a large head

ceramics /səˈræmɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] **ART** objects that are made by shaping and heating clay ●**ceramic** *adjective* made by shaping and heating clay *a ceramic pot*

cereal /ˈsɪəriəl/ *noun* [C, U] **1 FARMING, FOOD** a plant that is grown to produce grain for food *cereal crops* **2 FOOD** a food that is made from grain and eaten with milk, especially in the morning ***breakfast cereals*** ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

cerebellum /ˌserəˈbeləm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **cerebellums** or **cerebella** **ANATOMY** a large part at the back of the brain that controls your muscles, movement and balance ➲See picture at **brain**

cerebral /ˈserəbrəl/ *adjective formal* **1** Cerebral films, books, etc need a lot of thought to understand them, and cerebral people think a lot. **2 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [**always before noun**] relating to the brain *cerebral arteries*

ˌcerebral ˈcortex *noun* [**usually singular**] **ANATOMY** the outer layer of the cerebrum (= front part of brain) responsible for language, thinking, creative skills, etc.

ˌcerebral ˈhemisphere *noun* [**usually singular**] **ANATOMY** one of the two halves of the cerebrum (= front part of brain), each of which controls the opposite side of the body ➲See picture at **brain**

cerebral palsy /ˌserəbrəlˈpɔːlzi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a medical condition caused by damage to the brain at birth

cerebrum /sɪˈriːbrəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **cerebrums** or **cerebra** **ANATOMY** the front part of the brain, which is involved with thought, decision, emotion and character

ceremonial /ˌserɪˈməʊniəl/ *adjective* relating to a ceremony ●**ceremonially** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ceremony***

attend/hold a ceremony ● **at** a ceremony ● an **award/marriage/wedding** ceremony

ceremony /ˈserɪməni/ *noun* **1** EVENT [C] a formal event that is performed on important social or religious occasions *a **wedding/marriage ceremony*** ○ *an **award ceremony*** **2** BEHAVIOUR [U] formal behaviour, words, and actions that are part of a ceremony

O-K **certain** /ˈsɜːtən/ *adjective* **1** NO DOUBT [**never before noun**] completely sure of something, or knowing without doubt that something is true [**+ (that)**] *I feel absolutely certain that you're doing the right thing.* [**+ question word**] *Nobody was certain how the accident had happened.* ○ *He was quite **certain about/of** the thief's identity.* ➲Opposite **uncertain** **2 know/say for certain** to know something without doubt *We don't know for certain whether she's coming.* **3** SURE TO HAPPEN sure to happen, to do something, or to be true [**+ (that)**] *It now looks certain that she will resign.* [**+ to do sth**] *She is certain to do well in the exams.* ○ *How can we **make certain that*** (= do something to be sure that) *she sees the note?* **4** PARTICULAR [**always before noun**] used to refer to a particular person

or thing without naming or describing them exactly *The museum is only open at certain times of the day.* **5 a certain** used before a noun to mean existing, but difficult to describe the exact quality or amount *He's got a certain charm.* **6 certain of** *formal* used to refer to some of a group of people or things *Certain of you already know the news.*

certainly /ˈsɜːtənli/ *adverb* **1** WITHOUT DOUBT used to emphasize something and show that there is no doubt about it *Their team certainly deserved to win.* ○ *"Are your parents paying for dinner?" "I certainly hope so."* ○ *"Do you regret what you said?" "**Certainly not**!"* **2** OF COURSE used to agree to a request *"Could you pass the salt, please?" "Certainly."*

certainty /ˈsɜːtᵊnti/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] when you are completely sure about something *I can't say **with** any **certainty** what time she left.* **2** SURE THING [C] something that is very likely to happen or cannot be doubted *There are no absolute certainties in life.*

certificate /səˈtɪfɪkət/ *noun* [C] an official document that gives details to show that something is true *a **death/marriage certificate*** ○ *an **exam certificate*** ➲See also: **birth certificate**

certify /ˈsɜːtɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** TRUTH *formal* to say in a formal or official way that something is true or correct [**+ (that)**] *I certify that the information I have given is true.* ○ *She was **certified dead** on arrival at the hospital.* **2 EDUCATION** to give someone a certificate to say that they have completed a course of study *a certified accountant* **3** HEALTH to say officially that someone has a mental illness

certitude /ˈsɜːtɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] *formal* when you feel certain about something

cervix /ˈsɜːvɪks/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the narrow entrance to a woman's womb ●**cervical** /səˈvaɪkᵊl, ˈsɜːvɪkᵊl/ *adjective cervical cancer*

cesarean /sɪˈzeəriən/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* caesarean

cessation /seseˈɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when something, especially violence, stops *the cessation of hostilities*

cetacean /sɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** any of various types of mammal, such as the whale, that live in the sea like fish

cf used in writing when you want the reader to make a comparison between the subject being discussed and something else

CFC /ˌsiːefˈsiː/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY, ENVIRONMENT** *abbreviation for* chlorofluorocarbon: a type of gas used in some fridges (= containers for keeping food cold) and aerosols (= containers for making liquids come out in small drops), which damages the layer of gases around the Earth

CGI /ˌsiːdʒiːˈaɪ/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* computer generated imagery: the process of using computers to create pictures or characters in film and television

chafe /tʃeɪf/ *verb* **1** FEEL ANGRY [I] to feel angry because of rules and limits *He **chafed against/at** the narrow academic approach of his school.* **2** RUB [I, T] to make part of the body painful by rubbing, or to become painful because of being rubbed

CFCs

chagrin /ˈʃægrɪn/ (US) /ʃəˈgrɪn/ *noun* [U] anger or disappointment caused by something that does not happen the way you wanted it ***To** his parents' **chagrin**, he had no intention of becoming a lawyer.*

chain¹ /tʃeɪn/ *noun* **1** METAL RINGS [C, U] a line of metal rings connected together *a bicycle chain* ○ *She wore a gold chain around her neck.* ○ *The hostages were kept **in chains**.* **2** BUSINESS [C] a number of similar shops, restaurants, etc owned by the same company *a chain of hotels/supermarkets* **3** EVENTS [C] a series of things that happen one after the other *His arrival set off a surprising **chain of events**.*

chain² /tʃeɪn/ (*also* **chain up**) *verb* [T] to fasten someone or something to someone or something else using a chain *I **chained** my bike **to** a lamppost.* ○ *You shouldn't keep a dog **chained up** like that.*

the ˌchain of comˈmand *noun* the way a business or organization organizes what decisions can be taken and how much control people have at each level

ˌchain of proˈduction *noun* [C] all the businesses that are involved in making goods or providing services, from producing the materials to selling the product

ˌchain reˈaction *noun* [C] a series of events where each one causes the next one to happen

chain-smoke /ˈtʃeɪnsməʊk/ *verb* [I, T] to smoke cigarettes one after another ●**chain smoker** *noun* [C]

ˈchain ˌstore *noun* [C] one of a group of similar shops owned by the same company

chair¹ /tʃeə/ *noun* [C] **1** FURNITURE a seat for one person, with a back, usually four legs, and sometimes two arms ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** MEETING someone who controls a meeting or organization [**usually singular**] *All questions should be addressed to the chair.* **3 EDUCATION** a very important position in a university department, or the person who has this position ➲See also: **the electric chair**

chair² /tʃeəʳ/ *verb* [T] to control a meeting or organization *I've been asked to chair the committee.*

chairman, chairwoman /ˈtʃeəmən, ˈtʃeəˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **chairmen, chairwomen** a man/woman who controls a meeting, company, or other organization

chairperson /ˈtʃeəˌpɜːsᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone who controls a meeting, company, or other organization

chalet /ˈʃæleɪ/ (US) /ʃælˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] a small wooden house, often in a mountain area, or for people who are on holiday

chalk¹ /tʃɔːk/ *noun* **1** GEOLOGY [U] a type of soft, white rock **2** [C, U] a small stick of chalk that is used for writing and drawing *a piece of chalk* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 **3 be like chalk and cheese** *UK* If two people are like chalk and cheese, they are completely different from each other.

chalk² /tʃɔːk/ *verb* [T] *UK* to write something with a piece of chalk
chalk sth up *phrasal verb* to achieve something *She's chalked up five goals this season.*

chalkboard /ˈtʃɔːkbɔːd/ *US* (*UK/US* **blackboard**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a large board with a dark surface that teachers write on with chalk

chalky /ˈtʃɔːki/ *adjective* made of chalk, or similar to chalk

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***challenge***

face/pose/present/relish a challenge ● a **big/formidable/serious/tough** challenge

challenge¹ /ˈtʃælɪndʒ/ *noun* **1** DIFFICULT [C, U] something that is difficult and that tests someone's ability or determination *Finding a decision that pleases everyone is the* ***challenge*** *which now* ***faces*** *the committee.* **2** INVITATION [C] an invitation to compete in a game or a fight *I'm sure Paul will race you. He never refuses a challenge.* **3** DISAGREEMENT [C] an expression of disagreement with ideas, rules, or someone's authority *a* ***challenge to*** *the authority of the President*

challenge² /ˈtʃælɪndʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** DISAGREE to express disagreement with ideas, rules, or someone's authority *The election results are being challenged.* **2** INVITE to invite someone to compete in a game or fight *He* ***challenged*** *Smith* ***to*** *a fight.*

challenger /ˈtʃælənʤəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who competes in a game, competition, or election, often to win a position that someone else has *There are five* ***challengers for*** *the title.*

challenging /ˈtʃælənʤɪŋ/ *adjective* difficult to do in a way that tests your ability or determination *This has been a challenging time for us all.*

chamber /ˈtʃeɪmbəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** ROOM a room used for an official or special purpose *a debating chamber* ○ *a burial chamber* **2 POLITICS** one of the groups that a parliament is divided into *the* ***upper/lower chamber*** **3** MACHINE/BODY a closed space in a machine or in your body *the left chamber of the heart* ➲See also: **gas chamber**

chambermaid /ˈtʃeɪmbəmeɪd/ *noun* [C] a woman whose job is to clean and tidy hotel bedrooms

ˈchamber ˌmusic *noun* [U] MUSIC music that is written for a small group of musicians

ˌchamber of ˈcommerce *noun* [C] *plural* **chambers of commerce** an organization of business people who work together to improve business in their local area

champ /tʃæmp/ *noun* [C] *informal short for* champion

champagne /ʃæmˈpeɪn/ *noun* [U] FOOD French white wine with lots of bubbles in it which people often drink to celebrate something

champion¹ /ˈtʃæmpiən/ *noun* [C] **1** WINNER a person, animal, or team that wins a competition *a boxing champion* ○ *the* ***world champions*** **2** SUPPORT someone who supports, defends, or fights for a person, belief, or principle *a* ***champion of*** *human rights* ➲See also: **reigning champion**

champion² /ˈtʃæmpiən/ *verb* [T] to support, defend, or fight for a person, belief, or principle *She* ***championed the cause*** *of free speech.*

championship /ˈtʃæmpiənʃɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT a competition to find the best team or player in a particular game or sport *The* ***world championship*** *will be held in this country next year.* **2** SPORT the position of being a champion *She is current holder of our tennis championship.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***chance***

a chance **of** sth ● a **fifty-fifty** chance ● a **fair/good/slim** chance

chance¹ /tʃɑːns/ *noun* **1** POSSIBILITY [C, U] the possibility that something will happen [+ **(that)**] *There's a chance that she'll still be there.* ○ *She has little* ***chance of*** *passing the exam.* ○ *Is there* ***any chance of*** *a drink?* **2** OPPORTUNITY [C] the opportunity to do something [+ **to do sth**] *I didn't* ***get a chance*** *to speak to you at the party.* ○ *I hope you've* ***had the chance*** *to look around the exhibition.* ○ ***Give*** *me* ***a chance*** *to prove that I can do the work.* ○ *Going on a world cruise is* ***the chance of a lifetime*** (= an opportunity which only comes once in your life). **3** LUCK [U] when something happens because of luck, or without being planned *I saw her* ***by chance*** *in the shop.* **4** RISK [C] a risk *I'm delivering my work by hand. I'm not* ***taking*** *any* ***chances.*** **5 by any chance** used to ask in a polite way whether something is possible or true *You're not Spanish by any chance, are you?* **6 stand a chance** to have a chance of success or of achieving something *He stands a good chance of winning the election.* **7 chances are** it is likely [+ **(that)**] *Chances are that he'll refuse.* **8 No chance!/ Not a chance!** used to emphasize that there is no possibility of something happening *"Do you think she'd go out with me?" "No chance!"* **9 fat chance** *informal* used to say that you do not think that something is likely to happen *"Do you think we'll win?" "Fat chance."* ➲See also: **off-chance, outside chance**

chance² /tʃɑːns/ *verb* [T] *informal* to take a risk by doing something

chance³ /tʃɑːns/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A chance event is not planned or expected. *a chance meeting*

chancellor /ˈtʃɑːnsᵊləʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** POLITICS the leader of the government in some countries *the German chancellor* **2** EDUCATION the person with the highest position in some universities **3** MONEY (*also* **ˌChancellor of the Exˈchequer**) *UK* the person in the British government who makes decisions about taxes and government spending

chandelier /ˌʃændəˈlɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large light that hangs from the ceiling that is made of many small lights or candles and small pieces of glass

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***change***

The verb **alter** is a common alternative to 'change': *We've had to **alter** our plans.*

If you often change something that you do, you can use the verb **vary**: *Try to **vary** the children's diet a little.*

If someone changes the purpose or appearance of something, you can use the verb **convert**, or the phrasal verb **turn into**: *We're going to **convert** the spare bedroom into an office.* ● *There are plans to **turn** his latest book **into** a film.*

If someone changes from doing or using one thing to doing or using another, the verb **switch** is sometimes used: *We've **switched** over to low fat milk.* ● *Jack has just **switched** jobs.*

change¹ /tʃeɪndʒ/ *verb* **1** DIFFERENT [I, T] to become different, or to make someone or something become different *I hadn't seen her for twenty years, but she hadn't changed a bit.* ○ *The course changed my life.* ○ *She's **changed from** being a happy, healthy child **to** being ill all the time.* **2** FROM ONE THING TO ANOTHER [I, T] to stop having or using one thing, and start having or using another *The doctor has recommended changing my diet.* ○ *I'll have to ask them if they can change the time of my interview.* **3** CLOTHES [I, T] to take off your clothes and put on different ones *He **changed out of** his school uniform **into** jeans and a T-shirt.* ○ *Is there somewhere I can **get changed**?* **4** JOURNEY [I, T] to get off a bus, plane, etc and catch another, in order to continue a journey *I have to change trains at Bristol.* **5** IN SHOP [T] *UK* to take something you have bought back to a shop and exchange it for something else *If the dress doesn't fit, can I **change** it **for** a smaller one?* **6** FINANCE [T] to get or give someone money in exchange for money of a different type *Where can I change my dollars?* ○ *Can you **change** a £20 note **for** two tens?* **7** BED [T] to take dirty sheets off a bed and put on clean ones *to change the bed/sheets* **8** BABY [T] to put a clean nappy (= thick cloth worn on a baby's bottom) on a baby ➲See also: **chop¹** and change, change hands (**hand¹**), change your **tune¹**

change sth around/round *phrasal verb* to move objects such as furniture into different positions

change over *phrasal verb UK* to stop using or having one thing and start using or having something else *We've just **changed over from** gas central heating **to** electric.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***change***

bring about/implement/make/undergo change ● change **occurs/takes place** ● a **big/dramatic/fundamental/major/radical/sweeping** change ● change **in/to** sth

change² /tʃeɪndʒ/ *noun* **1** DIFFERENCE [C, U] when something becomes different, or the result of something becoming different *We need to **make** a few **changes to** the design.* ○ *There is no **change in** the patient's condition* (= the illness has not got better or worse). ○ *How can we **bring about** social **change**?* **2** FROM ONE THING TO ANOTHER [C, U] when you stop having or using one thing and start having or using another *This country needs a **change of** government.* ○ *I've notified the school of our **change of address**.* **3** NEW EXPERIENCE [C] something that you enjoy because it is a new experience [**usually singular**] *Going abroad for our anniversary would **make a** lovely **change**.* ○ *It's nice to eat together as a family **for a change**.* **4** FINANCE [U] the money that you get back when you pay more for something than it costs *There's your receipt and £3 change.* **5** FINANCE [U] coins, not paper money *Have you got any change for the parking meter?* ○ *Have you got change for £5* (= can you give me £5 in coins in return for paper money)? **6 a change of clothes** a set of clean clothes that you can put on if you need to take off the ones you are wearing **7 a change of heart** If you have a change of heart, you change your opinion or feelings about something. ➲See also: **small change**

changeable /ˈtʃeɪndʒəbl/ *adjective* often changing, or likely to change

changeover /ˈtʃeɪndʒˌəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a change from one system or situation to another [**usually singular**] *the **changeover from** the old computer system to the new one*

ˈchanging ˌroom *noun* [C] *UK* a room in a shop where you can try clothes, or a room where you change into clothes to do sport

channel¹ /ˈtʃænᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEVISION a television or radio station (= broadcasting company) **2** PASSAGE a long, narrow passage for water or other liquids to flow along *an irrigation channel* **3** COMMUNICATION a way of communicating with people or getting something done *a **channel of communication*** **4 the Channel** (*also* **the ˌEnglish ˈChannel**) GEOGRAPHY the narrow area of water between England and France **5** GEOGRAPHY a part of a river or sea that is deep and wide enough for ships to travel along *a navigable channel*

channel² /ˈtʃænᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **channelling,** *past* **channelled,** *US* **channeling,** *past* **channeled 1** WATER to direct water along a particular route *The waste water is channelled through this pipe.* **2** MONEY/ENERGY to use money or energy for a particular purpose *We've **channelled** all our resources **into** this project.*

the ˌChannel ˈTunnel *noun* the three long passages under the English Channel between England and France

chant[1] /tʃɑːnt/ *verb* [I, T] MUSIC **1** to repeat or sing a word or phrase many times, often shouting *The demonstrators **chanted** anti-racist **slogans**.* **2** to sing a religious song or prayer using a very simple tune

chant[2] /tʃɑːnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a word or phrase that is repeated many times **2** MUSIC a religious song or prayer that is sung using a very simple tune

Chanukah /ˈhɑːnəkə/ *noun* [C, U] RELIGION Hanukkah

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***chaos***

cause chaos ● **descend into/be thrown into** chaos ● be **in** chaos ● **total/utter** chaos

chaos /ˈkeɪɒs/ *noun* [U] a situation where there is no order at all and everyone is confused *The country's at war and everything is **in chaos**.*

chaotic /keɪˈɒtɪk/ *adjective* in a state of chaos *a chaotic situation*

chap /tʃæp/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a man

chapel /ˈtʃæpᵊl/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a small church, or a room used as a church in a building

chaperone[1] (*also* **chaperon**) /ˈʃæpᵊrəʊn/ *noun* [C] an older person who goes somewhere with a younger person in order to make sure they behave well, especially a woman in the past who went with a younger woman who was not married

chaperone[2] (*also* **chaperon**) /ˈʃæpᵊrəʊn/ *verb* [T] to go somewhere with someone as their chaperone

chaplain /ˈtʃæplɪn/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a priest in the army, a school, a hospital, or a prison

chapter /ˈtʃæptəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** BOOK one of the parts that a book is divided into **2** PERIOD a period of time when something happens in history or in someone's life *an interesting **chapter in** Spanish history*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***character***

a **colourful/lovable/shady/strong/unsavoury** character ● a **real** character

character /ˈkærəktəʳ/ *noun* **1** QUALITIES [C, U] the combination of qualities and personality that makes one person or thing different from others *It's **not in her character** to be jealous* (= she would not usually be jealous). ○ *It would be very **out of character*** (= not typical) *of her to lie.* ○ *The character of the village has changed since the road was built.* **2** LITERATURE [C] a person in a book, film, etc *a cartoon character* **3** GOOD QUALITIES [U] qualities that are interesting or unusual *a hotel of character* **4** PERSON [C] *informal* a particular kind of person *an unpleasant character* **5** INTERESTING PERSON [C] an interesting or funny person whose behaviour is different from most people's *Your granny's a **real character**.* **6** LANGUAGE [C] a letter, sign, or number that you use when you are writing or printing *Chinese characters*

characteristic[1] /ˌkærəktəˈrɪstɪk/ *noun* [C] a typical or obvious quality that makes one person or thing different from others *a national characteristic* ○ *Does he have any distinguishing physical characteristics?*

characteristic[2] /ˌkærəktəˈrɪstɪk/ *adjective* typical of someone or something *Grey stone is **characteristic of** buildings in that area.* ➲Opposite **uncharacteristic** ●**characteristically** *adverb*

characterization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌkærəktᵊraɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] LITERATURE the way that people are described in a play, book, etc

characterize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈkærəktᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** TYPICAL to be typical of someone or something [**often passive**] *Her behaviour in class has been characterized by rudeness and laziness.* **2** DESCRIBE to describe or show someone or something in a particular way *Historians have **characterized** the age **as** a period of great change.*

charade /ʃəˈrɑːd/ (US) /ʃəˈreɪd/ *noun* [C] a situation which is clearly false, but where people behave as if it is true or serious *The interview was just a charade.*

charcoal /ˈtʃɑːkəʊl/ *noun* [U] ART a hard, black substance that is produced by burning wood without much air, and that is used as fuel or for drawing

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***charge***

make a charge ● **at no extra/free of/without** charge ● a charge **for** sth ● a charge **of** [£10/$12, etc] ● a **small** charge

charge[1] /tʃɑːdʒ/ *noun* **1** FINANCE [C, U] the amount of money that you have to pay for something, especially for an activity or a service *bank charges* ○ *There's no **charge for** children under 14.* ○ *He repaired the computer **free of charge*** (= it did not cost anything). **2 be in charge** to be the person who has control of or is responsible for someone or something *She's **in charge of** a team of 20 people.* ○ *Who's in charge of organizing the music for the party?* **3 take charge** to take control of or make yourself responsible for something *I was happy to let her take charge of paying all the bills.* **4** LAW [C] a formal police statement saying that someone is accused of a crime *to **bring/press charges*** ○ *She was **arrested on charges of** theft and forgery.* **5** ACCUSE [C] when you accuse someone of something *This is a **serious charge** to make against your colleagues.* **6** PHYSICS [C, U] the amount of electricity that an electrical device has in it or that a substance has in it **7** ATTACK [C] an attack in which people or animals run forward suddenly **8 reverse the charges** *UK* (*US* **call collect**) to make a telephone call that is paid for by the person who receives it ➲See also: **service charge**

charge[2] /tʃɑːdʒ/ *verb* **1** FINANCE [I, T] to ask someone to pay an amount of money for something, especially for an activity or a service [+ **two objects**] *They are going to charge motorists a tax to drive into the city centre.* ○ *How much do you **charge for** delivery?* **2** LAW [T] If the police charge someone, they accuse them officially of a crime. [**often passive**] *He was **charged with** assault.* **3** ATTACK [I, T] to attack someone or something by moving forward quickly *The bull looked as if it was about to charge.* **4 charge around/into/through, etc** to run from one place to another *The children*

charged around the house. **5** PHYSICS [I, T] to put electricity into something

ˈcharge ˌcard *noun* [C] FINANCE a small plastic card that allows you to buy something and pay for it at a particular date in the future

charged /tʃɑːdʒd/ *adjective* A situation or a subject that is charged causes strong feelings or arguments. *a highly* ***charged debate***

chariot /ˈtʃæriət/ *noun* [C] a vehicle with two wheels that was used in races and fights in ancient times and was pulled by a horse

charisma /kəˈrɪzmə/ *noun* [U] a natural power which some people have to influence or attract people ●**charismatic** /ˌkærɪzˈmætɪk/ *adjective*

charitable /ˈtʃærɪtəbl/ *adjective* **1** EVENT [always before noun] A charitable event, activity, or organization gives money, food, or help to people who need it. **2** KIND kind, and not judging other people in a severe way ●**charitably** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***charity***

donate/give sth to charity ● [money, etc] **goes to** charity ● do sth **for** charity ● a charity **for** [homeless people/sick children, etc] ● a charity **event** (= an event to raise money for a charity)

charity /ˈtʃærɪti/ *noun* **1** ORGANIZATION [C, U] an official organization that gives money, food, or help to people who need it *The raffle will raise money* ***for charity***. ○ *A percentage of the company's profits* ***go to charity***. **2** MONEY/HELP [U] money, food, or other help that is given to people *I won't* ***accept charity***. **3** KINDNESS [U] kindness towards other people *an act of charity*

ˈcharity ˌshop *UK* (*US* **thrift shop**) *noun* [C] a shop which sells goods given by the public, especially clothes, to make money for a particular charity

charlatan /ˈʃɑːlətᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone who pretends to have skills or knowledge that they do not have

charm¹ /tʃɑːm/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [C, U] a quality that makes you like someone or something *The building had a certain charm.* **2** LUCKY [C] an object that you keep or wear because you believe that it is lucky *a* ***lucky charm***

charm² /tʃɑːm/ *verb* [T] to attract someone or persuade someone to do something because of your charm [often passive] *We were charmed by his boyish manner.*

charmed /tʃɑːmd/ *adjective* very lucky, or managing to avoid danger *The young boy had led* ***a charmed life***.

charmer /ˈtʃɑːməʳ/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who knows how to be charming in order to attract people or persuade them to do things

charming /ˈtʃɑːmɪŋ/ *adjective* pleasant or attractive *a charming smile/place* ●**charmingly** *adverb*

charred /tʃɑːd/ *adjective* black from having been burned *charred wreckage*

chart¹ /tʃɑːt/ *noun* **1** INFORMATION [C] a drawing which shows information in a simple way, often using lines and curves to show amounts *a sales chart* **2 the charts** MUSIC an official list of the most popular songs each week **3** MAP [C] a map of the sea or the sky

chart² /tʃɑːt/ *verb* [T] **1** INFORMATION to watch and record information about something over a period of time *The documentary* ***charted*** *the* ***progress*** *of the war.* **2** MAP to make a map of an area of land, sea, or sky

charter¹ /ˈtʃɑːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a formal, written description of the principles, activities, and purpose of an organization

charter² /ˈtʃɑːtəʳ/ *verb* [T] to rent a vehicle, especially an aircraft *The holiday company chartered a plane to fly us all home.*

charter³ /ˈtʃɑːtəʳ/ *adjective* **a charter flight/company/plane, etc** using aircraft paid for by travel companies for their customers

chartered /ˈtʃɑːtəd/ *adjective* [always before noun] *UK* having the necessary qualifications to work in a particular profession *a* ***chartered accountant/surveyor***

chase¹ /tʃeɪs/ *verb* **1** CATCH [I, T] to run after someone or something in order to catch them *The dog was chasing a rabbit.* **2 chase sb/sth away/off/out, etc** to run after a person or animal to make them leave a place *I chased the cat away.* **3** TRY [T] *UK* to try very hard to get something *There are hundreds of graduates* ***chasing*** *very few* ***jobs***.

chase² /tʃeɪs/ *noun* **1** [C] when you go after someone or something quickly in order to catch them *a high speed* ***car chase*** **2 give chase** to go after someone or something quickly in order to catch them

chasm /ˈkæzᵊm/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY a long, deep, narrow hole in rock or ice **2** a very large difference between two opinions or two groups of people

chassis /ˈʃæsi/ *noun* [C] *plural* **chassis** /ˈʃæsiz/ the structure of a vehicle that the outer metal is fixed onto

chaste /tʃeɪst/ *adjective* not having had sex, or without sexual thoughts or intentions *a chaste relationship*

chasten /ˈtʃeɪsᵊn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make someone feel ashamed by making them understand that they have failed or done something wrong [often passive] *The team were chastened by their defeat.* ●**chastening** *adjective*

chastise /tʃæsˈtaɪz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to criticize or punish someone

chastity /ˈtʃæstəti/ *noun* [U] when someone does not have sex

chat¹ /tʃæt/ *verb* [I] **chatting** *past* **chatted** to talk with someone in a friendly and informal way *I wanted to* ***chat to*** *you* ***about*** *the party on Saturday.*
chat sb up *phrasal verb UK informal* to talk to someone in a way that shows them that you are sexually attracted to them

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***chat***

have a chat ● a chat **about** sth ● a **good/little/long/quick** chat ● a chat **with** sb

chat² /tʃæt/ *noun* [C, U] a friendly, informal conversation

chateau /ˈʃætəʊ/ (US) /ʃæˈtəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **chateaux** a large house or castle in France

ˈchat ˌroom *noun* [C] INTERNET a place on the Internet where you can have discussions with other people ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet on page Centre 37.**

ˈchat ˌshow *UK* (*US* **talk show**) *noun* [C] a television or radio programme where people are asked questions about themselves

chatter /ˈtʃætəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** TALK to talk for a long time about things that are not important **2** TEETH If your teeth chatter, they knock together because you are cold or frightened. ●**chatter** *noun* [U]

chatty /ˈtʃæti/ *adjective* **1** PERSON liking to talk **2** WRITING A piece of writing that is chatty has a friendly and informal style. *a chatty letter*

chauffeur /ˈʃəʊfəʳ/ (US) /ʃəʊˈfɜːr/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to drive a car for someone else ●**chauffeur** *verb* [T]

chauvinist /ˈʃəʊvənɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** MAN (*also* **male chauvinist**) a man who believes that men are better or more important than women **2** COUNTRY/RACE someone who believes that their country or race is better or more important than other countries or races ●**chauvinism** *noun* [U] the beliefs and behaviour of chauvinists

chav /tʃæv/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a young person who dresses in cheap clothes and jewellery that are intended to look expensive, and who does not look clever

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***cheap***

If something is cheap enough for most people to be able to buy, you can say that it is **affordable**, **inexpensive**, or **reasonable**: *There's very little **affordable** housing around here.* ● *They sell **inexpensive** children's clothes.* ● *I thought the food was very **reasonable**.*

The adjective **cut-price** is sometimes used to describe something that is cheaper than usual: *We managed to get **cut-price** tickets the day before the show.*

A piece of equipment that is cheap to use is often described as **economical**: *I need a car that's reliable and **economical**.*

O-K **cheap¹** /tʃiːp/ *adjective* **1** NOT EXPENSIVE not expensive, or costing less than usual *I got a cheap flight to Spain at the last minute.* ○ *It will be a lot cheaper to go by bus.* **2** PAY LESS where you have to pay less than usual or less than you expect *Are there any cheap restaurants around here?* **3** LOW QUALITY low in price and quality *cheap perfume* **4** PERSON *US* not willing to spend money

cheap² /tʃiːp/ *adverb informal* **1** for a low price *You'll **get** the table **cheap** if you buy the chairs too.* **2 be going cheap** *UK* to be offered for sale for less money than is usual **3 not come cheap** to be expensive *Good carpets don't come cheap.*

cheaply /ˈtʃiːpli/ *adverb* for a low price *You can buy some goods more cheaply in America.*

cheat¹ /tʃiːt/ *verb* [I, T] to behave in a way that is not honest or fair in order to win something or to get something *She was caught (UK) **cheating in** her French exam/ (US) **cheating on** her French exam.* ○ *He **cheats at** cards.*

cheat on sb *phrasal verb* to have a secret sexual relationship with someone who is not your usual sexual partner

cheat sb out of sth *phrasal verb* to get something that belongs to someone else by deceiving them

cheat² /tʃiːt/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who cheats **2** COMPUTING special instructions or information which someone can use to help them play a computer game more effectively

O-K **check¹** /tʃek/ *verb* **1** EXAMINE [I, T] to examine something in order to make sure that it is correct or the way it should be [+ **(that)**] *I went to check that I'd locked the door.* ○ *Have you **checked** your **facts**?* ○ *I knelt down beside the body and **checked for** a pulse.* **2** FIND OUT [I, T] to find out about something [+ **question word**] *I'll check whether Peter knows about the party.* **3** ASK [I] to ask someone for permission to do something *I'd like to stay overnight, but I need to **check with** my parents.* **4** STOP [T] to stop something bad from increasing or continuing *The government needs to find a way to check rising inflation.* **5** MARK [T] *US* (*UK* **tick**) to put a mark by an answer to show that it is correct, or by an item on a list to show that you have dealt with it **6** LEAVE [T] *US* to leave your coat, bags, or other possessions temporarily in someone's care ➲See also: **double-check**

check in *phrasal verb* **1** AIRPORT to go to the desk at an airport in order to say that you have arrived and to get the number of your seat *We have to check in three hours before the flight leaves.* **2** HOTEL to go to the desk at a hotel in order to say that you have arrived, and to get the key to your room

check sth off *phrasal verb US* (*UK* **tick sth off**) to put a mark next to a name or an item on a list to show that it is correct, or that it has been dealt with

check (up) on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to try to discover how something is progressing or whether someone is doing what they should be doing *My boss is always checking up on me.*

check out *phrasal verb* to leave a hotel after paying your bill

check sth out *phrasal verb* **1** INFORMATION *informal* to examine something or get more information about it in order to be certain that it is true, safe, or suitable *We'll need to check out his story.* **2** GO TO SEE *informal* to go to a place in order to see what it is like *Let's check out that new dance club.* **3** BOOKS *mainly US* to borrow books from a library

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***check***

do/make a check ● a **rigorous** check ● a **final/last-minute/random/routine** check ● **safety/security** checks ● a check **of/on** sth

check² /tʃek/ *noun* **1** EXAMINATION [C] an examination of something in order to make sure that it is correct or the way it should be *We **do safety checks on** all our equipment.* **2** FINANCE [C] *US spelling of* cheque (= a piece of paper printed by a bank that you use to pay for things) **3** [C] *US* (*UK* **bill**) a list that you are given in a restaurant showing how much your meal costs **4** MARK [C] *US* (*UK* **tick**) a mark (✓) that shows that an answer is correct, or that you have dealt with something on a list

5 PATTERN [C, U] a pattern of squares of different colours **6 hold/keep sth in check** to control something that could increase too quickly or become too large or powerful *We need to keep our spending in check.* ➲See also: **rain check**

C

checkbook /ˈtʃekbʊk/ *noun* [C] FINANCE *US spelling of* chequebook (= a book of papers printed by a bank that you use to pay for things)

checked /tʃekt/ *adjective* with a pattern of squares of different colours *a checked shirt/tablecloth*

checkers /ˈtʃekəz/ *US* (*UK* **draughts**) *noun* [U] a game that two people play by moving flat, round objects around on a board of black and white squares

check-in /ˈtʃekɪn/ *noun* [C] the place at an airport where you go to say that you have arrived for your flight, or the act of going to the check-in to say that you have arrived for your flight *a **check-in counter/desk***

ˈchecking acˌcount *US* (*UK* **current account**) *noun* [C] FINANCE a bank account which you can take money out of at any time

checklist /ˈtʃeklɪst/ *noun* [C] a list of things that you should think about, or that you must do

checkmate /ˈtʃekmeɪt/ *noun* [U] the final position in the game of chess when your king cannot escape and you have lost the game

checkout /ˈtʃekaʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** (*also US* **ˈcheckout ˌcounter**) the place in a large shop, especially a food shop, where you pay for your goods *a supermarket checkout* **2** COMPUTING, INTERNET the place on an Internet website where you order and pay for things *After you've chosen what you want, click here to go to checkout.*

checkpoint /ˈtʃekpɔɪnt/ *noun* [C] a place where people and vehicles are stopped and examined *a military/police checkpoint*

checksum /ˈtʃeksʌm/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a number that is found from all the numbers in a piece of electronic data, in order to check that the data is correct

check-up /ˈtʃekʌp/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a general medical examination to see if you are healthy *I'm going to the doctor for a check-up.*

cheddar /ˌtʃedər/ *noun* [U] FOOD a type of hard, yellow cheese

cheek /tʃiːk/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] the soft part of your face below your eye *Tears ran down his cheeks.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** [U, no plural] *mainly UK* rude behaviour that shows that you do not respect someone [+ **to do sth**] *She **had the cheek to** ask me to pay for her!*

cheekbone /ˈtʃiːkbəʊn/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the two bones below your eyes

cheeky /ˈtʃiːki/ *adjective UK* slightly rude or behaving without respect, but often in a funny way *He's got such a **cheeky grin**.* ●**cheekily** *adverb*

cheer¹ /tʃɪər/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to shout loudly in order to show your approval or to encourage someone *The crowd stood up and cheered at the end of the concert.* **2 be cheered by sth** to feel happier or encouraged because of something
cheer sb on *phrasal verb* to shout loudly in order to encourage someone in a competition
cheer (sb) up *phrasal verb* to stop feeling sad, or to make someone feel happier *Cheer up. It's not the end of the world.*
cheer sth up *phrasal verb* to make a place look brighter or more attractive

cheer² /tʃɪər/ *noun* [C] a shout of approval or encouragement

cheerful /ˈtʃɪəfəl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON happy *I'm not feeling very cheerful today.* **2** ROOM ETC bright and pleasant to look at *a bright and cheerful room* ●**cheerfully** *adverb* ●**cheerfulness** *noun* [U]

cheering¹ /ˈtʃɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] shouts of encouragement and approval

cheering² /ˈtʃɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* Something cheering encourages you and makes you feel happier. *We received some cheering news.*

cheerleader /ˈtʃɪəˌliːdər/ *noun* [C] a girl, especially in the United States, who leads the crowd in shouting encouragement to a team who are playing a sport

cheers /tʃɪər/ *exclamation* **1** DRINK something friendly that you say before you start to drink alcohol with someone **2** THANK YOU *UK informal* thank you

cheery /ˈtʃɪəri/ *adjective* bright and happy *a **cheery wave/smile*** ●**cheerily** *adverb*

cheese /tʃiːz/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C, U] a food that is made from milk, is usually white or yellow, and can be either hard or soft *a cheese sandwich* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2 Say cheese!** something that you say to make someone smile when you are taking their photograph ➲See also: be like **chalk¹** and cheese, **cottage cheese, cream cheese**

cheesecake /ˈtʃiːzkeɪk/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a sweet cake made with soft, white cheese on a biscuit base

cheesy /ˈtʃiːzi/ *adjective informal* **1** not fashionable and of low quality *cheesy music* **2 a cheesy grin** a wide smile that is not always sincere

cheetah /ˈtʃiːtə/ *noun* [C] a large, wild cat that has black spots and can run very fast

chef /ʃef/ *noun* [C] someone who is the main cook (= person who cooks) in a hotel or a restaurant

chemical¹ /ˈkemɪkəl/ *adjective* CHEMISTRY relating to chemistry or chemicals *a chemical reaction* ○ *chemical weapons* ●**chemically** *adverb*

chemical² /ˈkemɪkəl/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a basic substance that is used in chemistry or produced by chemistry

ˌchemical ˈbond *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY the way two atoms are joined together in a chemical compound

ˌchemical ˈelement *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a substance that cannot be broken down into any simpler chemical substances and is made of atoms all of the same type

ˌchemical eˈquation *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a statement containing chemical symbols, used to show the changes that happen during a particular chemical reaction

ˌchemical ˈformula *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** the representation of a substance using the symbols of its elements

chemist /ˈkemɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** *UK* (*US* **pharmacist**) someone whose job is to prepare and sell drugs in a shop **2** **CHEMISTRY** a scientist who does work involving chemistry

chemistry /ˈkemɪstri/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the scientific study of substances and how they change when they combine

chemist's /ˈkemɪsts/ *UK* (*US* **drugstore**) *noun* [C] a shop where you can buy drugs, soap, beauty products, etc

chemotherapy /ˌkiːməʊˈθerəpi/ (also **chemo**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the treatment of a disease using chemicals *Chemotherapy is often used to treat cancer.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cheque***

pay by cheque ● a cheque **bounces** ● **write** a cheque ● a cheque **for** [£50/£200, etc]

O-K **cheque** *UK* (*US* **check**) /tʃek/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a piece of paper printed by a bank that you use to pay for things *a **cheque for** £1500* ○ *Are you **paying by cheque**?* ➲See also: **blank cheque, traveller's cheque**

chequebook *UK* (*US* **checkbook**) /ˈtʃekbʊk/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a book of cheques

ˈcheque ˌcard *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a small plastic card from your bank which you show when you write a cheque

cherish /ˈtʃerɪʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** CARE FOR to love someone or something very much and take care of them **2** IMPORTANT If you cherish an idea, hope, memory, etc, it is very important to you.

cherry /ˈtʃeri/ *noun* **FOOD** [C] a small, round red or black fruit with a large seed inside

cherub /ˈtʃerəb/ *noun* [C] a small child with a beautiful, round face and wings who appears in religious paintings

chess /tʃes/ *noun* [U] a game that two people play by moving differently shaped pieces around a board of black and white squares *a **chess set***

chest /tʃest/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the front of your body between your neck and your waist *a hairy chest* ○ *chest pains* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** a strong, usually wooden, container with a lid, used for keeping things in *a treasure chest* **3 get sth off your chest** *informal* to tell someone about something that you have been worried or angry about for a long time

chestnut /ˈtʃesnʌt/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C] a nut that has a shiny, red-brown surface and is white inside, or the tree that produces these nuts *roasted chestnuts* **2** [C, U] a dark red-brown colour ➲See also: **horse chestnut**

ˌchest of ˈdrawers *UK* (*US* **bureau**) *noun* [C] a piece of furniture with drawers for keeping clothes in

chew /tʃuː/ *verb* [I, T] **1** EAT to crush food between your teeth before you swallow it **2** BITE to repeatedly bite something without swallowing it *to chew gum*
chew sth over *phrasal verb* to think carefully about something, or to discuss it

ˈchewing ˌgum *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sweet substance that you chew but do not swallow

chewy /ˈtʃuːi/ *adjective* Chewy food needs to be chewed a lot before you can swallow it.

chic /ʃiːk/ *adjective* fashionable and attractive *a chic restaurant*

chick /tʃɪk/ *noun* [C] a baby bird, especially a baby chicken

O-K **chicken¹** /ˈtʃɪkɪn/ *noun* **1** [C] **FARMING** a bird kept on a farm for its meat and eggs **2** **FOOD** [U] the meat of a chicken *a chicken sandwich*

chicken² /ˈtʃɪkɪn/ *verb*
chicken out *phrasal verb informal* to decide not to do something because you are too nervous

ˈchicken ˌpox *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a children's disease that causes a fever and red spots on the skin

ˈchick ˌflick *noun* [C] *humorous* a film about romantic relationships or other subjects that interest women

ˈchick ˌlit *noun* [C] *humorous* a book about romantic relationships or other subjects that interest women

chief¹ /tʃiːf/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** MAIN most important *The wonderful weather was our **chief reason** for coming here.* **2** HIGH RANK highest in rank *chief economic adviser to the government*

chief² /tʃiːf/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP LEADER the leader of a group of people *tribal chiefs* **2** ORGANIZATION a person who controls other people in an organization *police chiefs*

ˌchief exˈecutive (also **chief executive officer**) *noun* [C] the person with the most important job in a company

chiefly /ˈtʃiːfli/ *adverb* mainly *magazines intended chiefly for teenagers*

chieftain /ˈtʃiːftən/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** the leader of a tribe (= group of people with the same language and customs)

chiffon /ˈʃɪfɒn/ US /ʃɪˈfɑːn/ *noun* [U] a soft, thin cloth used for making women's clothes

O-K **child** /tʃaɪld/ *noun* [C] *plural* **children** **1** YOUNG PERSON a young person who is not yet an adult *an eight-year-old child* ○ *How many children are there in your class?* **2** SON/DAUGHTER someone's son or daughter, also when they are adults *Both our children have grown up and moved away.* ➲See also: **only child**

ˈchild aˌbuse *noun* [U] when adults treat children in a cruel or violent way

ˌchild ˈbenefit *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** money that the British government pays every week to families with children

childbirth /ˈtʃaɪldbɜːθ/ *noun* [U] the process during which a baby is born *His mother died **in childbirth**.*

childcare /ˈtʃaɪldkeəʳ/ *noun* [U] when someone looks after children while their parents are working

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***childhood***

spend your childhood swh/doing sth ● **early** childhood ● **in** (sb's) childhood ● a **happy/lonely/unhappy** childhood ● a childhood **friend/** sb's childhood **sweetheart** ● childhood **memories**

childhood /ˈtʃaɪldhʊd/ *noun* [C, U] the part of your life when you are a child

childish /ˈtʃaɪldɪʃ/ *adjective* **1** SILLY Childish behaviour is silly, like that of a small child. *Don't be so childish!* **2** OF CHILD typical of a child *childish handwriting* ●**childishly** *adverb* ●**childishness** *noun* [U]

childless /ˈtʃaɪldləs/ *adjective* A childless person has no children.

childlike /ˈtʃaɪldlaɪk/ *adjective* Childlike people are like children in some ways, such as trusting people or behaving in a natural way.

childminder /ˈtʃaɪldˌmaɪndəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone whose job is to look after children while their parents are working

children /ˈtʃɪldrən/ *plural of* child

ˈchild supˌport *noun* [U] **FINANCE** money that someone gives the mother or father of their children when they do not live with them

chili /ˈtʃɪli/ *noun* **FOOD** *US spelling of* chilli

chill¹ /tʃɪl/ *verb* [I, T] to become cold, or to make someone or something become cold *Chill the wine before serving.*
chill out *phrasal verb informal* to relax completely, or not allow things to upset you *Chill out, Dad - if we miss this train there's always another one.*

chill² /tʃɪl/ *noun* **1** COLD [**no plural**] a cold feeling *There is a definite chill in the air.* **2** FEAR [C] a sudden frightened feeling *The scream* ***sent a chill down my spine.*** **3** **HEALTH** [C] *UK* a cold (= common illness that makes you sneeze) that is not very bad

chilli *UK* (*US* **chili**) /ˈtʃɪli/ *noun plural* **chillies 1** **FOOD** [C, U] a small, thin, red or green vegetable that tastes very hot *chilli powder* **2** **FOOD** [U] a spicy dish of beans, meat, and chillies

chilling /ˈtʃɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* very frightening *a chilling tale*

chilly /ˈtʃɪli/ *adjective* **1** COLD unpleasantly cold *a chilly evening* **2** UNFRIENDLY unfriendly *He gave me a chilly look.*

chime /tʃaɪm/ *verb* [I, T] If a bell or clock chimes, it rings. ●**chime** *noun* [C]
chime in *phrasal verb* to suddenly say something in order to add your opinion to a conversation *"Quite right too!" Tony chimed in.*

chimney /ˈtʃɪmni/ *noun* [C] a wide pipe that allows smoke from a fire to go out through the roof

ˈchimney ˌsweep *noun* [C] someone whose job is to clean inside a chimney, using long brushes

chimpanzee /ˌtʃɪmpᵊnˈziː/ (*also* **chimp** /tʃɪmp/ *informal*) *noun* [C] an African animal like a large monkey

chin /tʃɪn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the bottom part of your face, below your mouth ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

china /ˈtʃaɪnə/ *noun* [U] **1** SUBSTANCE the hard substance that plates, cups, bowls, etc are made from *a china teapot* **2** PLATES cups, plates, bowls, etc that are made from china

chink /tʃɪŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** OPENING a small, narrow opening in something **2** SOUND a short ringing sound that is made when glass or metal objects touch each other

chip¹ /tʃɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** **FOOD** (*US* **french fry**) a long, thin piece of potato that is cooked in oil [**usually plural**] *fish and chips* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2** **FOOD** *US* (*UK* **crisp**) a very thin, dry, fried slice of potato [**usually plural**] *barbecue flavoured potato chips* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **3** **COMPUTING** a microchip (= very small part of a computer that stores information) **4** SMALL PIECE a small piece that has broken off something *wood chips* **5** HOLE a place where a small piece has broken off something *This cup has a chip in it.* **6 be a chip off the old block** *informal* to be very similar to your mother or father **7 have a chip on your shoulder** *informal* to blame other people for something bad that has happened to you and continue to feel angry about it *She's always had a real chip on her shoulder because she didn't go to university.*

chip² /tʃɪp/ *verb* [T] **chipping,** *past* **chipped** to break a small piece off something *Henman may have chipped a bone in his wrist.* ○ *a chipped plate*
chip in *phrasal verb informal* to interrupt a conversation in order to say something *I'll start and you can all* ***chip in with*** *your comments.*
chip in (sth) *phrasal verb* If several people chip in, they each give money to buy something together. *We all chipped in to buy our teacher a present.*

ˌchip and ˈPIN *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a way to pay for goods and services using a credit card (= a small plastic card that allows you to buy things) and a secret number

chiropodist /kɪˈrɒpədɪst/ *UK* (*US* **podiatrist**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone whose job is to treat problems with people's feet

chirp /tʃɜːp/ *verb* [I] If birds or insects chirp, they make short, high sounds. ●**chirp** *noun* [C]

chirpy /ˈtʃɜːpi/ *adjective UK informal* happy and active *Why's Ben so chirpy this morning?*

chisel /ˈtʃɪzᵊl/ *noun* [C] a tool with a sharp end that you use for cutting and shaping wood or stone

chitin /ˈkaɪtɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a tough substance in the outer protective covering of insects and animals such as lobsters, and in the cell walls of some fungi

chivalrous /ˈʃɪvᵊlrəs/ *adjective* A chivalrous man behaves very politely towards women. ●**chivalry** *noun* [U] polite behaviour towards women

chives /tʃaɪvz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** a plant with long, thin leaves used in cooking to give a flavour similar to onions

chloride /ˈklɔːraɪd/ *noun* [**C, U**] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound that is a mixture of chlorine and another substance

chlorine /ˈklɔːriːn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a gas with a strong smell, used to make water safe to drink and swim in (symbol **Cl**) ➲See picture at **sodium chloride**

chlorofluorocarbon /ˌklɔːrəʊˌflɔːrəʊˈkɑːbən/ *noun* [**C, U**] **CHEMISTRY** (a) CFC

chlorophyll /ˈklɒrəfɪl/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the green substance in plants, that allows them to use the energy from the sun for food ➲See picture at **photosynthesis**

chloroplast /ˈklɒrəplɑːst/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** one of the parts in a plant cell that contain chlorophyll (= the green part in plant cells) and where the energy from the sun is turned into food by photosynthesis ➲See picture at **leaf**

O-key **chocolate** /ˈtʃɒkᵊlət/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [**U**] a sweet, brown food that is usually sold in a block *a bar of chocolate* ○ *milk chocolate* ○ *a chocolate cake* **2 FOOD** [**C**] a small piece of sweet food covered in chocolate *a box of chocolates* **3 FOOD** [**C, U**] a sweet drink made with chocolate and hot milk

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***choice***

have/make a choice ● **give/offer** sb a choice ● a **good / informed / obvious / popular / stark/wide/wrong** choice ● a choice **between** sth ● **by** choice ● **have (no)** choice

O-key **choice¹** /tʃɔɪs/ *noun* **1** RIGHT [**U, no plural**] when you can choose between two or more things *If I **had** a **choice**, I'd give up work.* ○ *He **had no choice** but to accept their offer.* ○ *I'm single **by choice*** (= because I want to be). **2** DECISION [**C**] the decision to choose one thing or person and not someone or something else *In the past women had to **make a choice between** a career or marriage.* **3** THINGS TO CHOOSE FROM [**U, no plural**] the things or people you can choose from *The dress is available in a **choice of** colours.* ○ *The evening menu offers **a wide choice of** dishes.* **4** CHOSEN ONE [**C**] the person or thing that someone has chosen [**usually no plural**] *Harvard was not his **first choice**.* ○ *The winner got £1000 to give to the charity **of her choice**.* ➲See also: **multiple choice**

choice² /tʃɔɪs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] of very good quality *the choicest cuts of meat*

choir /kwaɪəʳ/ *noun* [**group**] **MUSIC** a group of people who sing together *a school/church choir*

choke¹ /tʃəʊk/ *verb* **1 HEALTH** [**I, T**] If you choke, or if something chokes you, you stop breathing because something is blocking your throat. *Children can **choke on** peanuts.* **2** [**T**] (*also* **choke up**) to fill something such as a road or pipe so that nothing can pass through [**often passive**] *The roads were choked with traffic.*
choke sth back *phrasal verb* to try not to show how angry or upset you are *She ran to the door, choking back the tears.*
choke (sb) up *phrasal verb* to become unable to speak because you are starting to cry *I can't watch that movie without choking up.*

choke² /tʃəʊk/ *noun* [**C**] a piece of equipment that controls the amount of air going into a car engine

cholera /ˈkɒlᵊrə/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a serious disease that affects the stomach and bowels, usually caused by dirty water or food

cholesterol /kəˈlestᵊrɒl/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** a type of fat in your body that can cause heart disease if you have too much

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***choose***

The verbs **pick** and **select** are often used when someone chooses someone or something after thinking carefully: *He's been **picked** for the school football team.* ● *We've **selected** three candidates.*

In more informal situations, the phrasal verbs **go for**, **opt for**, or **decide on** are sometimes used: *I've **decided on** blue walls for the bathroom.* ● *I think I'll **go for** the chocolate cake.* ● *Mike's **opted for** early retirement.*

The verbs **opt** and **decide** can also be used when someone chooses to do something: *Most people **opt** to have the operation.* ● *I've **decided** to take the job.*

O-key **choose** /tʃuːz/ *verb past tense* **chose,** *past participle* **chosen 1** [**I, T**] to decide which thing you want *I helped my sister choose a name for her baby.* ○ *They have to **choose between** earning a living or getting an education.* ○ *There were lots of books to **choose from**.* [**+ question word**] *How did you choose which school to go to?* ○ *Adam was **chosen as** team captain.* **2 choose to do sth** to decide to do something *Manuela chose to take a job in Paris.*

choosy /ˈtʃuːzi/ *adjective* difficult to please because of being very exact about what you like *a choosy customer*

chop¹ /tʃɒp/ *verb* **chopping,** *past* **chopped 1** [**T**] (*also* **chop up**) to cut something into small pieces *Chop an onion finely.* **2 chop and change** *UK informal* to keep changing your opinions, activities, or job
chop sth down *phrasal verb* to cut through something to make it fall down
chop sth off *phrasal verb* to cut off part of something with a sharp tool

chop² /tʃɒp/ *noun* [**C**] **1 FOOD** a flat piece of meat with a bone in it *a lamb chop* **2** a quick, hard hit with a sharp tool or with the side of your hand

chopper /ˈtʃɒpəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** AIRCRAFT *informal* a helicopter (= aircraft with turning parts on top) **2** TOOL a heavy tool with a sharp edge for cutting wood, meat, etc

choppy /ˈtʃɒpi/ *adjective* Choppy water has a lot of small waves.

chopsticks /ˈtʃɒpstɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** thin sticks used for eating food in East Asia

choral /ˈkɔːrᵊl/ *adjective* **MUSIC** Choral music is written for a choir (= group of people who sing).

chord /kɔːd/ *noun* **1 MUSIC** [**C**] two or more musical notes that are played at the same time **2 MATHEMATICS** a straight line connecting two points on a curve or a curved surface **3 strike**

a chord (with sb) If something strikes a chord with you, you like it or are interested in it because it is connected with your own life or opinions. ➲See also: **vocal cords**

chore /tʃɔːr/ *noun* [C] a boring job that you must do *I find cooking a real chore.*

choreograph /ˈkɒriəɡrɑːf/ *verb* [T] **1** EVENT to arrange an event or series of events carefully *a carefully choreographed publicity stunt* **2** DANCE to design the dances for a performance ●**choreographer** /ˌkɒriˈɒɡrəfər/ *noun* [C]

choreography /ˌkɒriˈɒɡrəfi/ *noun* [U] the process of designing dances for a performance

choroid /ˈkɔːrɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** in the eye, the layer containing blood vessels between the retina and the sclera

chorus¹ /ˈkɔːrəs/ *noun* **1 MUSIC** [C] the part of a song that is repeated several times **2 MUSIC** [**group**] a large group of people who sing together **3 MUSIC** [**group**] a group of dancers and singers in a show who do not have the main parts **4 a chorus of approval/demands/protest, etc** something that a lot of people say at the same time

chorus² /ˈkɔːrəs/ *verb* [T] *UK* If two or more people chorus something, they say it at the same time.

chose /tʃəʊz/ *past tense of* choose

chosen /ˈtʃəʊzən/ *past participle of* choose

Christ /kraɪst/ (*also* **Jesus Christ**) *noun* **RELIGION** the Jewish holy man believed by Christians to be the Son of God, and on whose life and teachings Christianity is based

christen /ˈkrɪsᵊn/ *verb* [T] **RELIGION** to give a baby a name at a Christian ceremony and make them a member of the Christian Church [**often passive**] *She's being christened in June.*

christening /ˈkrɪsᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a ceremony where someone is christened

Christian /ˈkrɪstʃən/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who believes in Christianity ●**Christian** *adjective*

Christianity /ˌkrɪstiˈænəti/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** a religion based on belief in God and the life and teachings of Jesus Christ, and on the Bible

ˈChristian ˌname *noun* [C] your first name, not your family name

O-K **Christmas** /ˈkrɪsməs/ *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** the Christian period of celebration around 25 December, when Christians celebrate the birth of Jesus Christ and people give each other presents, or the day itself *We're going to my mother's for Christmas.* ○ ***Merry Christmas!*** ○ *Christmas dinner* ➲See also: **Father Christmas**

ˈChristmas ˌcard *noun* [C] a decorated card that you send to someone at Christmas

ˌChristmas ˈcarol *UK* (*US* **ˈChristmas ˌcarol**) *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a song that people sing at Christmas

ˌChristmas ˈcracker *noun* [C] a coloured paper tube with a small toy inside, that people in the UK pull open at Christmas

ˌChristmas ˈDay *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** 25 December, the day on which Christians celebrate the birth of Jesus Christ

ˌChristmas ˈEve *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** the day before Christmas Day

ˈChristmas ˌtree *noun* [C] a real or artificial tree that people decorate inside their home for Christmas

chromatid /krəʊˈmætɪd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** either of the parts into which a chromosome divides during mitosis (= when one cell divides into two identical cells)

chromatography /ˌkrəʊməˈtɒɡrəfi/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a method of finding what separate substances are in a mixture by making it flow, as a liquid or gas, through a material such as paper which different substances pass through at different speeds

chrome /krəʊm/ *noun* [U] a hard, shiny metal that is used to cover objects *chrome bath taps*

chromosome /ˈkrəʊməsəʊm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a cell found in the nucleus, that controls what an animal or plant is like ●**chromosomal** /krəʊməˈsəʊməl/ *adjective*

chronic /ˈkrɒnɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** A chronic illness or problem continues for a long time. *a chronic shortage of nurses* ○ *chronic back pain* ●**chronically** *adverb*

chronicle¹ /ˈkrɒnɪkl/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a written record of things that happened in the past

chronicle² /ˈkrɒnɪkl/ *verb* [T] to make a record of something, or give details of something *The book chronicles his life as an actor.*

chronological /ˌkrɒnəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* arranged in the order in which events happened ●**chronologically** *adverb*

chrysalis /ˈkrɪsəlɪs/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an insect covered by a hard case at the stage of development before it becomes a moth or butterfly with wings, or the case itself

chubby /ˈtʃʌbi/ *adjective* pleasantly fat *the baby's chubby legs*

chuck /tʃʌk/ *verb* [T] *informal* to throw something *Don't just chuck your coat on the floor!*
chuck sth away/out *phrasal verb informal* to throw something away *I chucked out all my old clothes.*
chuck sth in *phrasal verb UK informal* to stop doing something because it is boring
chuck sb out *phrasal verb informal* to force someone to leave a place *Pierre was chucked out of school for starting a fight.*

chuckle /ˈtʃʌkl/ *verb* [I] to laugh quietly ●**chuckle** *noun* [C]

chug /tʃʌɡ/ *verb* **chugging,** *past* **chugged chug across/along/up, etc** If a vehicle chugs somewhere, it moves slowly, making a low, regular noise with its engine. *a boat chugging across the lake*

chum /tʃʌm/ *noun* [C] *informal* a friend ●**chummy** *adjective* friendly

chunk /tʃʌŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** PIECE a large piece of something *a chunk of cheese* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2** PART a large part of something *I spend a big* ***chunk of*** *my money on clothes.*

chunky /ˈtʃʌŋki/ *adjective* **1** PERSON A chunky person is short and heavy. **2** THING big, thick, and heavy *chunky shoes*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***church***

go to church • **in** church • a church **service**

O-key **church** /tʃɜːtʃ/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [**C, U**] a building where Christians go to worship God *We used to* ***go to church*** *every Sunday morning.* **2** **RELIGION** [**C**] (*also* **Church**) one of the different groups that make up the Christian religion *the Anglican Church* ➲See also: **the Catholic Church**

churchgoer /ˈtʃɜːtʃˌgəʊəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **RELIGION** someone who goes to church regularly

churchyard /ˈtʃɜːtʃjɑːd/ *noun* [**C**] the land around a church, often where people are buried

churn¹ /tʃɜːn/ *verb* **1** SURFACE [**T**] (*also* **churn up**) to mix something, especially liquids, with great force *The sea was churned up by heavy winds.* **2** STOMACH [**I**] If your stomach is churning, you feel sick, usually because you are nervous. **3** **FOOD** [**T**] to mix milk until it becomes butter
churn sth out *phrasal verb informal* to produce large quantities of something very quickly

churn² /tʃɜːn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **FARMING** a container that you fill with milk and mix to make butter **2** **FARMING** *UK* a tall metal container for storing and transporting milk

chute /ʃuːt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SLIDE a long thin structure that people or things can slide down *a water chute* **2** FOR FLOATING *informal short for* parachute

chutney /ˈtʃʌtni/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a mixture of fruit, vegetables, sugar, and vinegar that you eat with meat or cheese

chyme /kaɪm/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the thick, wet mass of partly digested food that leaves the stomach

the CIA /ˌsiːaɪˈeɪ/ *noun* **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* Central Intelligence Agency: the department of the US government that collects secret information about people and organizations

the CID /ˌsiːaɪˈdiː/ *noun* **LAW** *abbreviation for* Criminal Investigation Department: the part of the British police force that deals with serious crimes

cider /ˈsaɪdəʳ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** **FOOD** *UK* a drink made from apples that contains alcohol **2** **FOOD** *US* a drink made from apples that contains no alcohol

cigar /sɪˈgɑːʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a thick tube made from rolled tobacco leaves, that people smoke

O-key **cigarette** /ˌsɪgəˈret/ *noun* [**C**] a thin tube of paper filled with tobacco, that people smoke

cilantro /sɪˈlæntrəʊ/ *US* (*UK/US* **coriander**) *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a herb that is used in cooking

ciliary muscle /ˈsɪliəriˌmʌsl/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** one of the muscles around the lens of the eye which are used to change the shape of the lens so that you can see clearly

cilium /ˈsɪliəm/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **cilia** **BIOLOGY** one of the very small parts like hairs on the surface of a cell which move regularly and keep the surrounding liquid moving around it or help a organism with only one cell to move

CIM /ˌsiːaɪˈem/ *noun* [**U**] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* computer integrated manufacturing; a method of making goods that is controlled by computers

cinder /ˈsɪndəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a small piece of coal, wood, etc that has been burned

O-key **cinema** /ˈsɪnəmə/ *noun* **1** BUILDING [**C**] *UK* (*US* **movie theater**) a building where you go to watch films **2** ART [**U**] the art or business of making films *an article about French cinema*

cinnamon /ˈsɪnəmən/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a brown spice that is used in cooking

circa /ˈsɜːkə/ *formal* (*written abbreviation* **c**) *preposition* used before a date to show that something happened at about that time *Gainsborough's 'The Cottage Door' (circa 1780)*

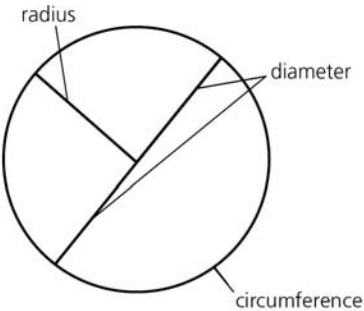

circle

O-key **circle¹** /ˈsɜːkl/ *noun* **1** SHAPE [**C**] a round, flat shape like the letter O, or a group of people or things arranged in this shape *We all sat on the floor* ***in a circle.*** ➲See picture at **shape** **2** GROUP [**C**] a group of people with family, work, or social connections *a close circle of friends* ○ *It's a technical term used in medical circles.* **3** **the circle** *UK* the seats in the upper area of a theatre ➲See also: **inner circle, traffic circle, vicious circle**

circle² /ˈsɜːkl/ *verb* **1** MOVE [**I, T**] to move in a circle, often around something *Birds circled above the trees.* **2** DRAW [**T**] to draw a circle around something *Circle the answer you think is correct.*

circuit /ˈsɜːkɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **SPORT** a path, route, or sports track that is shaped like a circle **2** **PHYSICS** a complete circle that an electric current travels around **3** EVENTS a regular series of places or events that people involved in a particular activity go to [**usually singular**] *the tennis circuit* ➲See also: **short-circuit**

circular¹ /ˈsɜːkjələʳ/ *adjective* **1** CIRCLE shaped like a circle *a circular rug* **2** JOURNEY A circular journey takes you around in a circle, back to the place where you started. *a circular walk*

circular² /ˈsɜːkjələʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a letter or advertisement that is sent to a lot of people at the same time

circulate /ˈsɜːkjəleɪt/ *verb* **1** INFORMATION [**I**] If information circulates, a lot of people hear about it. ***Rumours are circulating*** *that the mayor is going to resign.* **2** SEND INFORMATION [**T**]

to give or send information to a group of people *A copy of the report was circulated to each director.* **3** MOVE [**I, T**] to move around or through something, or to make something move around or through something *Hot water circulates through the pipes.*

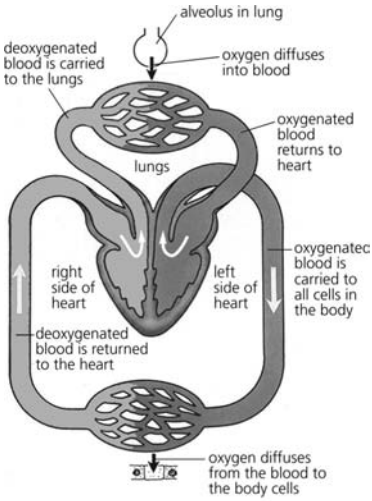

circulation

circulation /ˌsɜːkjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [**U**] the movement of blood around your body *Exercise improves your circulation.* **2** INFORMATION [**U**] when something such as information, money, or goods pass from one person to another *Police have warned there are a lot of fake £50 notes* ***in circulation.*** **3** NEWSPAPERS [**no plural**] the number of copies of a newspaper or magazine that are sold each day, week, etc

circuˈlatory ˌsystem /ˌsɜːkjəˈleɪtᵊri ˌsɪstəm (UK) ˈsɜːkjələtɔːri sɪstəm (US)/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the parts of the body that are involved in sending blood around it

circumcize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɜːkəmsaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to cut off the skin at the end of a boy's or man's penis, or cut off part of a girl's sex organs ●**circumcision** /ˌsɜːkəmˈsɪʒᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when someone is circumcised

circumference /səˈkʌmfᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [**C, U**] **MATHEMATICS** the distance around the edge of a circle or round object *The lake is 250km* ***in circumference.*** ➲See picture at **circle**

circumflex /ˈsɜːkəmfleks/ *noun* [**C**] **LANGUAGE** a sign (^) over a letter, especially a vowel, in some languages

circumspect /ˈsɜːkəmspekt/ *adjective formal* careful about things you do or say

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***circumstances***

in/under [any/certain/difficult/normal, etc] circumstances ● **in/under** the circumstances ● the circumstances **of/surrounding** sth ● **exceptional/normal/unforeseen** circumstances

circumstances /ˈsɜːkəmstænsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** facts or events that make a situation the way it is *I think they coped very well* ***under the circumstances.*** ○ *We oppose capital punishment* ***in/under*** *any* ***circumstances.*** **2 under no circumstances** used to say that something must never happen *Under no circumstances should you approach the man.*

circumstantial /ˌsɜːkəmˈstænʃᵊl/ *adjective* **circumstantial evidence** **LAW** information about a crime that makes you believe that something is true, but does not prove it

circumvent /ˌsɜːkəmˈvent/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to find a way of avoiding something, especially a law or rule

circus /ˈsɜːkəs/ *noun* [**C**] a show in which a group of people and animals perform in a large tent

cirrhosis /sɪˈrəʊsɪs/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a serious disease of the liver, often caused by drinking too much alcohol

cirrostratus /ˌsɪrəʊˈstrɑːtəs/ (US) /-ˈstreɪ-/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOGRAPHY** a type of flat white cloud formed in a very thin layer and seen high in the sky ➲See picture at **cloud**

cirrus /ˈsɪrəs/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOGRAPHY** a type of thin cloud that is very high up and is made of small pieces of ice ➲See picture at **cloud**

cistern /ˈsɪstən/ *noun* [**C**] a large container to store water, especially one that supplies water to a toilet ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

citadel /ˈsɪtədᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] a strong castle that was used in the past to protect people when their city was attacked

cite /saɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* **1** to mention something as an example or proof of something else *The doctor cited the case of a woman who had died after taking the drug.* **2** **LAW** *US* to order someone to go to court because they have done something wrong [**often passive**] *A local farmer was* ***cited for*** *breaking environmental standards.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***citizen***

a citizen **of** [Paris/Tokyo, etc] ● your **fellow** citizens ● **decent/law-abiding** citizens

citizen /ˈsɪtɪzᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** **1** someone who lives in a particular town or city *the* ***citizens of*** *Berlin* **2** someone who has a legal right to live in a particular country *My husband became a British citizen in 1984.* ➲See also: **senior citizen**

citizenship /ˈsɪtɪzᵊnʃɪp/ *noun* [**U**] the legal right to be a citizen of a particular country *British/French citizenship*

citrus fruit /ˈsɪtrəsˌfruːt/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** an orange, lemon, or similar fruit

city /ˈsɪti/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a large town *the city of Boston* ○ *the* ***city centre*** **2 the City** *UK* the part of London where the large financial organizations have their offices ➲See also: **inner city**

civic /ˈsɪvɪk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **POLITICS, SOCIETY** relating to a city or town and the people who live there ***civic leaders*** ○ *The opera house was a source of great* ***civic pride*** (= people in the city were proud of it).

civil /ˈsɪvᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SOCIETY [**always before noun**] relating to the ordinary people or things in a country and not to military or religious organizations *They married in a **civil ceremony**.* **2** LAW [**always before noun**] relating to private arguments between people and not criminal cases *a **civil court*** **3** polite in a formal way *He and his ex-wife can't even have a civil conversation.*

ˌcivil engiˈneering *noun* [**U**] the planning and building of roads, bridges, and public buildings

civilian /sɪˈvɪliən/ *noun* [**C**] SOCIETY someone who is not a member of a military organization or the police

civility /sɪˈvɪləti/ *noun* [**U**] polite behaviour

civilization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌsɪvᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [**C, U**] human society with its developed social organizations, or the culture and way of life of a society at a particular period of time *ancient civilizations* ○ *Nuclear war could mean the end of civilization.* **2** [**U**] when people have an advanced and comfortable way of life *modern civilization*

civilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɪvᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to educate a society so that it becomes more advanced and organized

civilized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈsɪvəlaɪzd/ *adjective* **1** SOCIETY A civilized society is advanced and has well-developed laws and customs. *A fair justice system is an important part of **civilized society**.* **2** POLITE polite and calm *Let's discuss this in a civilized manner.*

ˌcivil ˈliberties *noun* [**plural**] SOCIETY the freedom people have to do, think, and say what they want

ˌcivil ˈpartnership *noun* [**C, U**] in Britain, a legal relationship between two people of the same sex, which gives them the same rights as people who are married

ˌcivil ˈrights *noun* [**plural**] SOCIETY the rights that everyone in a country has

ˌcivil ˈservant *noun* [**C**] POLITICS someone who works in the Civil Service

the ˌCivil ˈService *noun* POLITICS the government departments and the people who work in them

ˌcivil ˈwar *noun* [**C, U**] a war between groups of people who live in the same country

cl MEASURES *written abbreviation for* centilitre (= a unit for measuring liquid) *a 75 cl bottle of wine*

clad /klæd/ *adjective literary* covered or dressed in something *He came to the door clad only in a towel.*

claim¹ /kleɪm/ *verb* **1** SAY [**T**] to say that something is true, although you have not proved it [**+ (that)**] *She claimed that the dog attacked her.* [**+ to do sth**] *He claims to have seen a ghost.* **2 claim credit/responsibility/success, etc** to say that you have done or achieved something *No one has claimed responsibility for yesterday's bomb attack.* ➲Opposite **disclaim** **3** DEMAND [**I, T**] to ask for something because it belongs to you or you have the right to have it *She claimed $2,500 in travel expenses.* ○ *If no one claims the watch, then you can keep it.* **4** KILL [**T**] If an accident, war, etc claims lives, people are killed because of it. *The floods claimed over 200 lives.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***claim***

make a claim • **deny/dismiss/reject** a claim • a **false** claim • a claim **by** sb

claim² /kleɪm/ *noun* [**C**] **1** ANNOUNCEMENT when someone says that something is true, although it has not been proved [**+ (that)**] *She **rejected claims** that she had lied.* **2** DEMAND an official demand for something you think you have a right to *a **claim for** compensation* **3** RIGHT a right to have something *You don't have any **claim to** the land.* **4 lay claim to sth** *formal* to say that something is yours or that you have done something **5 sb's/sth's claim to fame** a reason why someone or something is known *My main claim to fame is meeting the President.*

clam¹ /klæm/ *noun* [**C**] FOOD a small sea creature with a shell in two parts, that you can eat

clam² /klæm/ *verb* **clamming,** *past* **clammed**
clam up *phrasal verb informal* to suddenly stop talking, usually because you are embarrassed or nervous

clamber /ˈklæmbəʳ/ *verb* **clamber into/over/up, etc** to climb somewhere with difficulty, especially using your hands and feet *The children clambered into the boat.*

clammy /ˈklæmi/ *adjective* unpleasantly wet and sticky *clammy hands*

clamour¹ *UK* (*US* **clamor**) /ˈklæməʳ/ *verb* **clamour for sth; clamour to do sth** to ask for something continuously in a loud or angry way *Fans were clamouring for their autographs.*

clamour² *UK* (*US* **clamor**) /ˈklæməʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** DEMAND a demand for something, or a complaint about something that is made by a lot of people *the **public's clamour** for organic food* **2** NOISE a loud, continuous noise made by people talking or shouting *We heard the clamour of voices in the street outside.*

clamp¹ /klæmp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** DT a piece of equipment that is used for holding things together tightly **2** CAR *UK* a metal cover that is put on the wheel of a car so you cannot move it if you have parked in an illegal place

clamp² /klæmp/ *verb* **1 clamp sth around/over/to, etc** to put something in a particular position and hold it there tightly *He clamped his hand over her mouth.* **2 clamp sth onto/to/together, etc** to fasten two things together using a clamp **3** [**T**] *UK* to fasten a metal cover on the wheel of a car to stop it moving because it has been parked in an illegal place
clamp down *phrasal verb* to do something strict to try to stop or limit an activity *Local police have **clamped down on** teenage drinking.*

clampdown /ˈklæmpdaʊn/ *noun* [**C**] a strict attempt to stop or limit an activity [**usually singular**] *a **clampdown on** inner city pollution*

clan /klæn/ *noun* [**C**] SOCIETY a large group of families who are all related to each other, especially in Scotland

clandestine /klænˈdestɪn/ *adjective formal* secret and often illegal *a **clandestine meeting***

clang /klæŋ/ *verb* [I, T] If something metal clangs, it makes a loud ringing sound, or if you clang it, you make it do this. *The gate clanged shut behind me.* ●**clang** *noun* [C]

clank /klæŋk/ *verb* [I] If metal objects clank, they make a low noise when they hit each other. *The bracelets on her arm clanked as she moved.* ●**clank** *noun* [C]

C

clap¹ /klæp/ *verb* **clapping,** *past* **clapped 1** HANDS [I, T] to hit your hands together, often repeatedly, especially in order to show that you enjoyed a performance *The crowd clapped and cheered for more.* **2 clap sb on the back/shoulder** to hit someone on the back or shoulder in a friendly way **3** PUT [T] to put something somewhere suddenly *She clapped her hands over her ears and refused to listen.*

clap² /klæp/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when you hit your hands together, often repeatedly *Let's **give** our winning contestant **a big clap**.* **2 a clap of thunder** a sudden, loud sound that is made by thunder

claret /ˈklærət/ *noun* [U] *UK* **FOOD** red wine from the area of France around Bordeaux

clarify /ˈklærɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to make something easier to understand by explaining it *The law aims to clarify building regulations.* ●**clarification** /ˌklærɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

clarinet /ˌklærɪˈnet/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument like a long, black tube, that you play by blowing into it and pressing metal keys

clarity /ˈklærəti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being clear and easy to understand

clash¹ /klæʃ/ *verb* **1** FIGHT [I] to fight or argue *Government troops **clashed with** rebel soldiers.* ○ *Many young people **clash** with their parents **over** what time they must be home at night.* **2** COLOUR [I] If colours or styles clash, they do not look good together. *You can't wear pink lipstick - it **clashes with** your dress.* **3** EVENT [I] *UK* If two events clash, they happen at the same time so that you cannot go to them both. *Emma's party **clashes with** my brother's wedding.* **4** NOISE [I, T] to make a loud noise by hitting metal objects together

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***clash***

be **involved in** a clash ● **fierce/violent** clashes ● clashes **between** sb and sb ● a clash **with** sb ● a clash **over** sth

clash² /klæʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** FIGHT a fight or argument *There were violent **clashes between** the police and demonstrators.* **2** DIFFERENCE when ideas or qualities are very different, and this causes problems *a clash of personalities* **3** SOUND a loud sound that is made when metal objects hit each other *the clash of pans in the sink*

clasp¹ /klɑːsp/ *verb* [T] to hold something or someone tightly *He clasped his daughter in his arms.*

clasp² /klɑːsp/ *noun* **1** METAL OBJECT [C] a small metal object that is used to fasten a bag, belt, or piece of jewellery **2** HOLD [**no plural**] a tight hold

class¹ /klɑːs/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [C] a group of students who have lessons together *Katie and Sarah are in the same class at school.* **2 EDUCATION** [C, U] a period of time in which students are taught something *My first class starts at 8.30.* ○ *He was told off for talking **in class*** (= during the lesson). **3 SOCIETY** [C, U] one of the groups in a society with the same social and economic position, or the system of dividing people into these groups *She's from a working-class background.* **4** QUALITY [C] a group into which people or things are put according to their quality *When it comes to mathematics, he's in a different class to his peers.* ○ *second-class mail* **5** SIMILARITY [C] a group of similar or related things, especially plants and animals **6** STYLE [U] *informal* the quality of being stylish or fashionable *a player with real class* ➲See also: **middle class, upper class, working class**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

class or **classroom?**

A **class** is a group of students who have lessons together.

The whole class arrived late.

A **classroom** is a room where lessons happen.

There is a TV and video in every classroom.

class² /klɑːs/ *verb* **class sb/sth as sth** to put someone or something in a particular group according to their qualities *The tower is **classed as** a historic monument.*

classic¹ /ˈklæsɪk/ *adjective* **1** POPULAR A classic book, film, etc is one that has been popular for a long time and is considered to be of a high quality. *the classic film 'Gone with the Wind'* **2** TRADITIONAL having a traditional style that is always fashionable *a classic black jacket* **3** TYPICAL typical

classic² /ˈklæsɪk/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a classic book, film, etc

classical /ˈklæsɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1 classical music MUSIC** serious music by people like Mozart and Stravinsky *Do you prefer classical music or pop music?* **2** TRADITIONAL traditional in style *classical and modern dance* **3** GREECE/ROME relating to ancient Greece and Rome *classical literature*

classically /ˈklæsɪkᵊli/ *adverb* **1** TRADITIONAL in a traditional style *a **classically trained** actor* **2** TYPICAL in a typical style *a classically English tea room*

classics /ˈklæsɪks/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** the study of ancient Greece and Rome, especially the language, literature, and history

classification /ˌklæsɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] the process of putting people or things into groups by their type, size, etc, or one of these groups *the classification of plants*

classified /ˈklæsɪfaɪd/ *adjective* Classified information is officially kept secret by a government. ***classified documents/information***

ˌclassified ˈad *noun* [C] a small advertisement that you put in a newspaper if you want to buy or sell something

classify /ˈklæsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to put people or things into groups by their type, size, etc [**often passive**] *A third of the population has been **classified as** poor.* ○ *The books are **classified by** subject.*

classmate /ˈklɑːsmeɪt/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION someone who is in your class at school or college

O-key **classroom** /ˈklɑːsruːm/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION a room in a school where students have lessons ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

classy /ˈklɑːsi/ *adjective informal* stylish and fashionable

clatter /ˈklætəʳ/ *verb* **1** [I] If something clatters, it makes a lot of noise when it hits something hard. **2 clatter about/around/down, etc** to move somewhere in a very noisy way *I could hear Sue clattering about upstairs.* ●**clatter** *noun* [**no plural**] *He dropped his spoon **with a clatter**.*

clause /klɔːz/ *noun* [C] **1** LAW a part of a legal document *a clause in a contract* **2** LANGUAGE a group of words containing a subject and a verb, that is usually only part of a sentence ➲See also: **relative clause, subordinate clause**

claustrophobia /ˌklɒstrəˈfəʊbiə/ *noun* [U] HEALTH fear of being in a small or crowded place

claustrophobic /ˌklɒstrəˈfəʊbɪk/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH feeling very anxious when you are in a small or crowded place **2** PLACE A claustrophobic place makes you feel anxious because it is very small or crowded. *a claustrophobic room*

clavicle /ˈklævɪkəl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY a bone between the base of the neck and the shoulder; collarbone

claw¹ /klɔː/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY one of the sharp, curved nails on the feet of some animals and birds

claw² /klɔː/ *verb* [I, T] If a person or animal claws something, they try to get hold of it or damage it with their nails or claws. *He **clawed at** the rope, trying to free himself.*
claw sth back *phrasal verb mainly UK* to try to get back something that you had before *The party is desperately trying to claw back support.*

clay /kleɪ/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY a type of heavy soil that becomes hard when dry, used for making things such as bricks and containers *a clay pot*

O-key **clean¹** /kliːn/ *adjective* **1** NOT DIRTY not dirty *clean hands* ○ *clean clothes* **2** NO SEX not about sex *a clean joke* **3** NO CRIME showing that you have not done anything illegal *a **clean driving licence*** **4** FAIR fair and honest *a clean election/fight* **5 come clean** *informal* to tell the truth about something that you have been keeping secret

O-key **clean²** /kliːn/ *verb* [I, T] to remove the dirt from something *I spent the morning cleaning the house.* ➲See also: **dry clean, spring clean**
clean sth out *phrasal verb* **1** CLEAN to take everything out of a room, car, container, etc and clean the inside of it **2** STEAL *informal* to steal everything from a place
clean (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to make a person or place clean and tidy *We have to clean up before we leave.*

clean³ /kliːn/ *adverb informal* used to emphasize that something is done completely *The bullet went clean through his helmet.*

clean-cut /ˌkliːnˈkʌt/ *adjective* Someone who is clean-cut has a tidy appearance.

cleaner /ˈkliːnəʳ/ *noun* **1** PERSON [C] someone whose job is to clean houses, offices, public places, etc **2** SUBSTANCE [C, U] a substance used for cleaning things *carpet/oven cleaner* **3 the cleaner's** a shop where clothes are cleaned with chemicals ➲See also: **vacuum cleaner**

cleanliness /ˈklenlɪnəs/ *noun* [U] the state of being clean, or the practice of keeping things clean

cleanly /ˈkliːnli/ *adverb* in a quick and tidy way *The branch broke cleanly away from the tree.*

cleanse /klenz/ *verb* [T] to clean your face or an injured part of your body

cleanser /ˈklenzəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a substance for cleaning, especially your face

O-key **clear¹** /klɪəʳ/ *adjective* **1** UNDERSTAND easy to understand *clear instructions* **2** HEAR/SEE easy to hear, read, or see *These photos are very clear.* ○ *Can we make the sound any clearer?* **3** NO DOUBT not possible to doubt *The evidence against him was clear.* [**+ (that)**] *It was clear that Leif was angry.* ○ *Ella **made it clear that** she didn't like James.* **4** CERTAIN [**never before noun**] certain about something *Are you clear about how to get there?* [**+ question word**] *I'm not very clear why she phoned.* **5** NOT BLOCKED not covered or blocked by anything *a clear road* ○ *a clear desk* **6** WITHOUT CLOUDS A clear sky does not have any clouds. **7** TRANSPARENT easy to see through *clear water* ○ *clear glass* ➲See also: the **coast¹** is clear, **crystal clear**

clear² /klɪəʳ/ *verb* **1** EMPTY [T] to remove all the objects or people from a place *clear a room/shelf* ○ *Police cleared the building because of a bomb threat.* **2** WEATHER [I] If the sky or weather clears, the clouds and rain disappear. **3** NOT GUILTY [T] to prove that someone is not guilty of something that they were accused of *The jury **cleared** him **of** murder.* **4** FINANCE [I] If a cheque (= printed paper used to pay for things) clears, the money goes from one person's bank account to another person's bank account. **5** GO OVER [T] to jump over something without touching it *The horse easily cleared the fence.* **6** GIVE PERMISSION [T] to give or get permission to do something *You have to **clear it with** the headteacher if you want a day off school.* ➲See also: clear the **air¹**
clear sth away *phrasal verb* to make a place tidy by removing things from it, or putting them where they should be *The children are not very good at clearing away their toys.*
clear off *phrasal verb UK informal* used to tell someone to go away immediately
clear sth out *phrasal verb* to tidy a place by getting rid of things that you do not want
clear (sth) up *phrasal verb* **1** MAKE TIDY *mainly UK* to make a place tidy by removing things from it or putting them where they should be *Dad was clearing up in the kitchen.* **2** GET BETTER to make an illness better *Antibiotics*

will clear up the infection.
clear sth up *phrasal verb* to give an explanation for something, or to deal with a problem or argument *Before we sign the contract, there are a few points we should clear up.*
clear up *phrasal verb informal* If the weather clears up, the cloud and rain disappears.

C

clear³ /klɪəʳ/ *adverb* **1** away from something so that you are not touching it *Stand **clear of** the doors, please.* **2 steer clear of sb/sth** to avoid someone or something because they are unpleasant or dangerous

clear⁴ /klɪəʳ/ *noun* **in the clear a** not responsible for a mistake or crime **b** *UK* not in a difficult situation or having problems any more

clearance /ˈklɪərᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PERMISSION permission from someone in authority *The company needs to get government clearance for the deal.* **2** DISTANCE the distance that is needed for one thing to avoid touching another thing **3** REMOVING THINGS when waste or things you do not want are removed from a place

clear-cut /ˌklɪəˈkʌt/ *adjective* very certain or obvious *The issue is not very clear-cut.*

clearing /ˈklɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a small area in the middle of a forest, where there are no trees

clearly /ˈklɪəli/ *adverb* **1** EASY in a way that is easy to see, hear, read, or understand *He spoke very clearly.* **2** CERTAIN used to show that you think something is obvious or certain *Clearly he's very talented.* **3** NOT CONFUSED If you think clearly, you are not confused.

cleavage /ˈkliːvɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] the area between a woman's breasts

cleaver /ˈkliːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a heavy knife with a large, square blade *a **meat cleaver***

clef /klef/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a sign written at the beginning of a line of music, that shows how high or low the notes are

clemency /ˈklemənsi/ *noun* [U] *formal* **LAW** when a judge, king, etc decides not to punish someone severely although they have committed a crime

clench /klenʃ/ *verb* [T] to close your hands or teeth very tightly, or to hold something tightly *Dan **clenched his fists**.*

clergy /ˈklɜːdʒi/ *noun* [plural] **RELIGION** priests or religious leaders *a member of the clergy*

clergyman /ˈklɜːdʒɪmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **clergymen** **RELIGION** a man who is a member of the clergy

cleric /ˈklerɪk/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a member of the clergy

clerical /ˈklerɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** relating to work done in an office *a clerical assistant* **2 RELIGION** relating to priests or religious leaders

clerk /klɑːk/ US /klɜːrk/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFICE someone who works in an office or bank, keeping records and doing general office work *a bank clerk* **2** SHOP *US* someone who sells things in a shop *a store/sales clerk*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***clever***

The adjectives **intelligent** and **smart** are common alternatives to 'clever': *She's a highly **intelligent** woman.* ● *He's one of the **smartest** kids in the class.*

Young people who are clever are sometimes described as **bright**: *Jacob was a very **bright** boy.*

The adjective **brainy** is used in informal contexts, especially by young people when describing other young people: *Ask Louisa to help you - she's really **brainy**.*

Someone who is extremely clever is sometimes described as **brilliant** or **gifted**: *William was a **brilliant/gifted** scholar.*

clever /ˈklevəʳ/ *adjective* **1** INTELLIGENT able to learn and understand things quickly and easily *a clever student* **2** EFFECTIVE designed in an effective and intelligent way *a clever idea* ○ *a clever tool* ●**cleverly** *adverb a cleverly designed toy* ●**cleverness** *noun* [U]

cliché /ˈkliːʃeɪ/ US /kliːˈʃeɪ/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** something that people have said or done so much that it has become boring or has no real meaning

click¹ /klɪk/ *verb* **1** SOUND [I, T] to make a short, sharp sound, or to use something to make this sound *The door clicked shut behind him.* **2 COMPUTING** [I, T] to press on part of a computer mouse (= small computer control) to make the computer do something *To start the program, **click on** its icon.* **3** PEOPLE [I] *informal* If two people click, they like each other immediately. **4** IDEA [I] *informal* to suddenly understand something *Suddenly everything clicked and I realized where I'd met him.* ➲See also: **double-click,** snap your fingers (**finger¹**)

click² /klɪk/ *noun* [C] a short, sharp sound *the click of a switch*

client /klaɪənt/ *noun* [C] someone who pays someone else for services or advice

clientele /ˌkliːɒnˈtel/ *noun* [**group, no plural**] the regular customers of a business *The new bar aims to attract a younger clientele.*

client-server /ˌklaɪənt ˈsɜːvəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **COMPUTING** using or consisting of several computers which are connected to a server (= large central computer) from which they get information *client-server applications*

cliff /klɪf/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of high, steep rocks beside the sea

cliff

climactic /klaɪˈmæktɪk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *literary* A climactic event or time is one in which important or exciting things happen.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***climate***

create a climate of [fear/trust, etc] ● **in** a climate ● **in the current/in the present** climate ● the **political/social** climate

climate /ˈklaɪmət/ *noun* **1** [C, U] **GEOGRAPHY, ENVIRONMENT** the weather conditions that an area usually has *a hot, dry climate* **2** SITUATION [C] the situation, feelings, and opinions that exist at a particular time [**usually singular**] *the **political/social climate*** ○ *Terrorism **creates a climate of** fear.*

ˈ**climate** ˌ**change** *noun* [C, U] **ENVIRONMENT** the way the Earth's weather is changing

climatic /klaɪˈmætɪk/ *adjective formal* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to the weather conditions that an area usually has ***climatic change***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***climax***

build up to/come to/reach a climax ● a **dramatic/exciting/fitting/thrilling** climax ● the climax **of** sth

climax¹ /ˈklaɪmæks/ *noun* [C] the most exciting or important part of something [**usually singular**] *The **climax of** her career was winning a gold medal.* ➲Opposite **anticlimax**

climax² /ˈklaɪmæks/ *verb* [I, T] to reach the most important or exciting part *The festival **climaxed with/in** a huge fireworks display.*

O-key **climb** /klaɪm/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I, T] (*also* **climb up**) to go up something, or onto the top of something ***climb a ladder/tree/mountain*** ○ *He climbed up on a chair to change the light bulb.* **2 climb into/out of/through, etc** to move somewhere using your hands and legs *The child climbed into the back of the car.* **3** NUMBER [I] If a price, number, or amount climbs, it increases. *Profits climbed 11% last quarter.* **4** MOVE HIGHER [I] to move to a higher position *The road climbs quite steeply.* ●**climb** *noun* [C] *a long/steep/uphill climb*
climb down *phrasal verb UK informal* to change your opinion or admit that you are wrong *The government has been forced to **climb down over** the issue of increased taxes.*

climbdown /ˈklaɪmdaʊn/ *noun* [C] *UK* when someone admits that they were wrong about something or have changed their opinion *an embarrassing climbdown by the government*

climber /ˈklaɪməʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who climbs mountains, hills, or rocks as a sport

climbing /ˈklaɪmɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport of climbing mountains, hills, or rocks ***rock/mountain climbing*** ○ *climbing boots*

clinch /klɪnʃ/ *verb* [T] *informal* **1** to finally get or win something ***clinch a deal*** **2 clinch it** *informal* to make someone finally decide what to do *When he said the job was in Paris, that clinched it for me.*

cling /klɪŋ/ *verb* [I] *past* **clung 1** HOLD TIGHT to hold someone or something tightly, especially because you are frightened *She was found **clinging to** the ledge.* ○ *I **clung on to** his hand in the dark.* **2** STICK to stick to something *His damp hair **clung to** his forehead.*
cling (on) to sth *phrasal verb* to try very hard to keep something *He clung on to power for ten more years.*
cling to sth *phrasal verb* to refuse to stop believing or hoping for something *He **clung to the belief** that his family were alive.*

clingfilm /ˈklɪŋfɪlm/ *UK trademark* (*US* **plastic wrap**) *noun* [U] thin, transparent plastic used for wrapping or covering food

clingy /ˈklɪŋi/ *adjective mainly UK* always wanting to be with someone and not wanting to do things alone *a clingy child*

clinic /ˈklɪnɪk/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a place where people go for medical treatment or advice *an eye/skin clinic*

clinical /ˈklɪnɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1 HEALTH** [**always before noun**] relating to medical treatment and tests ***clinical trials/research*** **2** only considering facts and not influenced by feelings or emotions *a clinical approach/attitude* ●**clinically** *adverb*

clinician /klɪˈnɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who treats ill people and does not just study diseases

clink /klɪŋk/ *verb* [I, T] If pieces of glass or metal clink, they make a short ringing sound when they touch, and if you clink them, you make them do this. ●**clink** *noun* [C]

clip¹ /klɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** FASTEN a small metal or plastic object used for holding things together **2** FILM a short part of a film or television programme that is shown at a different time *They showed clips from Spielberg's new movie.* **3 a clip round the ear/earhole** *UK informal* a quick hit on the side of someone's head ➲See also: **paper clip**

clip² /klɪp/ *verb* **clipping,** *past* **clipped 1** FASTEN [I, T] to fasten things together with a clip, or to be fastened in this way ***Clip** the microphone **to** the collar of your jacket.* **2** CUT [T] to cut small pieces from something *Jamie was outside clipping the hedge.* **3** HIT [T] to hit something quickly and lightly *The plane clipped a telephone line and crashed.*

clipart /ˈklɪpɑːt/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** small pictures which are stored on a computer and can be easily added to a document

clipboard /ˈklɪpbɔːd/ *noun* [C] **1** a board with a clip at the top that holds paper in position for writing on **2 COMPUTING** an area for storing information in a computer when you are moving it from one document to another

clipped /klɪpt/ *adjective* If someone speaks in a clipped voice, their words sound quick, short, and not friendly.

clippers /ˈklɪpəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a tool used to cut small pieces off something *hedge clippers*

clipping /ˈklɪpɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** NEWSPAPER/MAGAZINE (*also UK* **cutting**) an article or picture that has been cut out of a newspaper or magazine *a collection of **newspaper clippings** about the princess* **2** SMALL PIECE a small piece that has been cut off something [**usually plural**] *grass clippings*

clique /kliːk/ *noun* [C] a small group of people who spend a lot of time together and are unfriendly to people who are not in the group

cloak /kləʊk/ *noun* **1** [C] a loose coat without sleeves that hangs down from your shoulders **2 a cloak of sth** *literary* something that is

intended to cover or hide the truth of something else *a cloak of secrecy/mystery*

cloakroom /ˈkləʊkruːm/ *noun* [C] **1** COATS a room where you leave your coat at a theatre, school, etc **2** TOILET *UK old-fashioned* a toilet in a public building

C

clobber /ˈklɒbəʳ/ *verb* [T] *informal* **1** HIT to hit someone **2** AFFECT to affect someone very badly *a policy that has clobbered people on low incomes*

clock¹ /klɒk/ *noun* [C] **1** TIME a piece of equipment that shows you what time it is, usually in a house or on a building *She could hear the hall clock ticking.* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** VEHICLE *UK* a piece of equipment in a vehicle for measuring how far it has travelled *a car with 63,000 kilometres **on the clock*** **3 around/round the clock** all day and all night *Rescue teams are **working round the clock** to search for survivors of the earthquake.* **4 race/work against the clock** to do something as fast as you can in order to finish before a particular time **5 turn/put the clock back** *UK* to make a situation the same as it was at an earlier time ➲See also: **alarm clock, grandfather clock**

clock² /klɒk/ *verb*
clock sth up *phrasal verb* to achieve a particular number or amount of something *Yuri has clocked up 5,500 flying hours.*

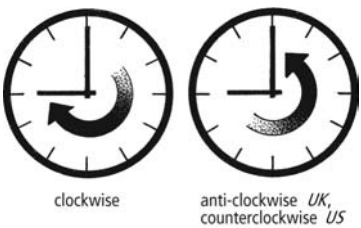

clockwise

clockwise /ˈklɒkwaɪz/ *adjective, adverb* in the same direction as the hands (= parts that point to the numbers) on a clock move ➲Opposite **anti-clockwise** *UK*, **counterclockwise** *US*

clockwork /ˈklɒkwɜːk/ *noun* **1** [U] a system of machinery that starts when you turn a handle or key *a **clockwork toy*** **2 (as) regular as clockwork** extremely regularly *The bell rang at 8 a.m., regular as clockwork.* **3 run/go like clockwork** to happen exactly as planned, with no problems

clog /klɒg/ (*also* **clog up**) *verb* [I, T] **clogging,** *past* **clogged** to fill something so that nothing can pass through it, or to be filled in this way [**often passive**] *The plughole was **clogged with** hair.*

clogs /klɒgz/ *noun* [**plural**] shoes made from wood, or shoes with a wooden sole (= bottom part)

cloister /ˈklɔɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a covered stone passage around the edges of a garden in a church or religious building

clone¹ /kləʊn/ *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** an exact copy of a plant or animal that scientists make by removing one of its cells **2** *informal* someone or something that is very similar to someone or something else

clone² /kləʊn/ *verb* [T] **BIOLOGY** to create a clone of a plant or animal *Scientists have already cloned a sheep.* ●**cloning** *noun* [U] *animal/human cloning*

close¹ /kləʊz/ *verb* [I, T] **1** DOOR/WINDOW ETC If something closes, it moves so that it is not open, and if you close something, you make it move so that it is not open. *Jane closed the window.* ○ *Lie down and close your eyes.* ○ *Suddenly the door closed.* **2** PUBLIC PLACE If a shop, restaurant, public place, etc closes, people cannot go in it. *The supermarket closes at 8 p.m.* **3** ORGANIZATION (*also* **close down**) If a business or organization closes, or if someone or something closes it, it stops operating. *Many factories have closed in the last ten years.* **4** END to end, or to end something *She closed the meeting with a short speech.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **open**
close (sth) down *phrasal verb* If a business or organization closes down, or if someone or something closes it down, it stops operating.
close in *phrasal verb* If people close in, they gradually get nearer to someone, usually in order to attack them or stop them escaping. *Police **closed in on** the demonstrators.*
close sth off *phrasal verb* to put something across the entrance to a place in order to stop people entering it *Police quickly closed off the area.*

close² /kləʊs/ *adjective* **1** DISTANCE near in distance *His house is **close to** the sea.* **2** TIME near in time *It was **close to** lunchtime when we arrived.* **3** FRIENDLY If people are close, they know each other very well and like each other a lot. *close friends* ○ *I'm very **close to** my brother.* **4** RELATIVE [**always before noun**] A close relative is someone who is directly related to you, for example your mother, father, or brother. **5** RELATIONSHIP seeing or talking with someone a lot *Our school has **close links** with a school in China.* ○ *I'm still in **close contact** with my school friends.* **6 be/come close to doing sth** to almost achieve or do something *We are close to reaching an agreement.* **7 be close to sth** If someone or something is close to a particular state, they are almost in that state. *She was **close to tears**.* **8** COMPETITION A close game, competition, etc is one in which people's scores are nearly the same. **9** CAREFUL [**always before noun**] looking at or listening to someone or something very carefully *On **close inspection**, you could see that the painting was a fake.* ○ ***Keep a close watch on** the children* (= watch them carefully). **10** WEATHER Close weather is too warm and there is not enough fresh air. ●**closeness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: a close **call²**, a close **shave²**

close³ /kləʊs/ *adverb* **1** DISTANCE near in distance *He stayed **close to** his mother.* ○ *Come a bit closer.* ○ *We walked close behind them.* ○ *There's a great beach **close by*** (= near). **2** TIME near in time *The time for change is coming closer.*

close⁴ /kləʊz/ *noun* END [**no plural**] the end of something *They finally reached an agreement*

at the close of *a week of negotiations.* ○ *The year was* ***drawing to a close.***

close⁵ /kləʊs/ *noun* [C] ROAD (*also* **Close**) used in the name of a road that cars can only enter from one end *They live at 7 Kingswear Close.*

O-K **closed** /kləʊzd/ *adjective* **1** BUSINESS/SHOP not open for business *We went to the library but it was closed.* **2** NOT OPEN not open *The door was closed.* ○ *Her eyes were closed.* **3** NOT ACCEPTING IDEAS not wanting to accept new ideas, people, customs, etc *a closed mind* ➲See Common Learner Error at **open**

ˌclosed-circuit ˈtelevision *noun* [C, U] a system of hidden cameras that take pictures of people in public places, used to help prevent crime

ˌclosed ˈshop *noun* [C usually singular] a place of work where you have to belong to a particular trade union (= organization of workers)

close-knit /ˌkləʊsˈnɪt/ *adjective* A close-knit group of people is one in which everyone helps and supports each other. *a* ***close-knit community***

closely /ˈkləʊsli/ *adverb* **1** CAREFULLY If you look at or listen to something closely, you look at it or listen to it very carefully. **2** CONNECTED If two things are closely connected, related, etc, they are very similar to each other or there is a relationship between them. *The two languages are* ***closely related.*** ○ *I saw a cat that closely resembles ours.* **3** VERY NEAR in a way that is very near in distance or time *Elke came into the room, closely followed by her children.* **4** WORK If you work closely with someone, you work together a lot. *Nurses* ***work closely*** *with other medical staff.*

closet¹ /ˈklɒzɪt/ *US* (*UK* **wardrobe**) *noun* [C] a large cupboard for keeping clothes in ➲See also: have a **skeleton** in the cupboard

closet² /ˈklɒzɪt/ *adjective* **a closet intellectual/liberal/socialist, etc** someone who hides their true opinions or way of life

close-up /ˈkləʊsʌp/ *noun* [C] a photograph of someone or something that is taken by standing very close to them

closing /ˈkləʊzɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] The closing part of an event or period of time is the final part of it. *Owen scored a goal in the closing minutes of the game.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***closure***

face/be threatened with closure ● **save** sth from closure ● the closure **of** sth

closure /ˈkləʊʒəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when a business, organization, etc stops operating *factory closures* ○ *The company announced the* ***closure of*** *its Paris office.* **2** [U] the feeling that a sad or unpleasant experience has now finished so that you can think about and do other things

clot¹ /klɒt/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH a lump that forms when a liquid, especially blood, becomes almost solid **2** *UK informal* a stupid person

clot² /klɒt/ *verb* [I, T] **clotting** *past* **clotted** BIOLOGY to form clots, or to make clots form

cloth /klɒθ/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [U] material made from cotton, wool, etc, and used, for example, to make clothes or curtains *a piece of cloth* **2** PIECE [C] a piece of cloth used for cleaning or drying things

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

cloth, clothes or clothing?

The most usual word for the things you wear is **clothes**. **Clothing** is slightly more formal, and often used for particular types of clothes. **Cloth** is the material that clothes are made from. Do not try to make a plural 'cloths' - it is an uncountable noun.

I put my clothes on.

~~*I put my cloth on.*~~

They gave us money for food and clothing.

~~*They gave us money for food and cloths.*~~

clothe /kləʊð/ *verb* [T] to supply clothes for someone

clothed /kləʊðd/ *adjective* wearing clothes ***fully clothed***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***clothes***

put on/take off/wear clothes ● **change** your clothes

O-K **clothes** /kləʊðz/ *noun* [plural] items such as shirts and trousers that you wear on your body *She was* ***wearing*** *her sister's* ***clothes.*** ○ *to* ***put on/take off*** *your* ***clothes*** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on pages Centre 8, 9

clothesline /ˈkləʊðzlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a rope for hanging wet clothes on until they dry

ˈclothes ˌpeg *UK* (*US* **clothespin** /ˈkləʊðzpɪn/) *noun* [C] a short piece of wood or plastic that is used to hold clothes on a rope while they dry

clothing /ˈkləʊðɪŋ/ *noun* [U] clothes, especially of a particular type *outdoor/protective clothing*

cloud¹ /klaʊd/ *noun* **1** GEOGRAPHY [C, U] a white or grey mass that floats in the sky, made of small water drops ➲See picture **cloud** on next page **2** DIRTY AIR [C] a mass of gas or very small pieces of something floating in the air *a cloud of dust/smoke* **3 be under a cloud** If someone is under a cloud, they are not trusted or not popular because people think they have done something bad. ●**cloudless** *adjective* without clouds

cloud² /klaʊd/ *verb* **1** NOT CLEAR [T] to make someone confused, or make something harder to understand *to* ***cloud*** *someone's* ***judgment/vision*** **2** NOT SEEING [I, T] If something transparent clouds, it becomes hard to see through, and if something clouds it, it makes it hard to see through.

cloud over *phrasal verb* to become covered with clouds

cloudy /ˈklaʊdi/ *adjective* **1** WEATHER When it is cloudy, there are clouds in the sky. **2** LIQUID A cloudy liquid is not transparent. *cloudy water*

clout /klaʊt/ *noun* **1** POWER [U] power and influence over other people *As mayor, he* ***has*** *political* ***clout.*** **2** BLOW [C] *UK informal* a heavy blow made with the hand

clove /kləʊv/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD a small, dark-brown, dried flower that is used as a spice **2** one separate part in a root of garlic (= plant with a strong taste used in cooking)

C

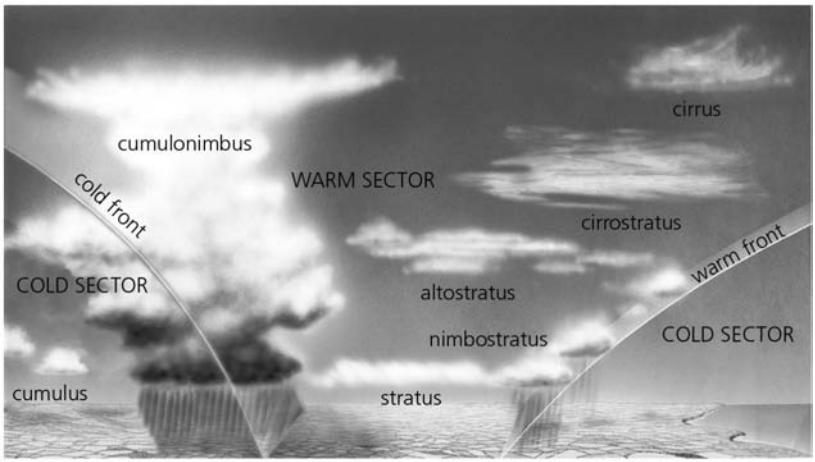

cloud

clover /ˈkləʊvəʳ/ *noun* [U] a small plant that has three round leaves and round flowers

clown¹ /klaʊn/ *noun* [C] **1** PERFORMER a performer who has special clothes and a painted face and makes people laugh **2** SILLY PERSON a silly person

clown² /klaʊn/ (*also* **clown around**) *verb* [I] to behave in a silly way in order to make people laugh

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***club***

belong to/join a club ● a **member of** a club

club¹ /klʌb/ *noun* [C] **1** ORGANIZATION an organization for people who want to take part in a sport or social activity together, or the building they use for this *a fitness/football club* **2** SPORT (*also* **golf club**) a long, thin stick used to hit the ball in golf ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **3** WEAPON a heavy stick used as a weapon **4** DANCE a place open late at night where people can dance **5 clubs** playing cards with black shapes like three leaves on them *the ten of clubs* ➲See also: **fan club**

club² /klʌb/ *verb* **clubbing,** *past* **clubbed 1** [T] to hit a person or animal with a heavy stick **2 go clubbing** *mainly UK* to go to clubs where there is music and dancing
club together *phrasal verb UK* If a group of people club together to buy something, they share the cost of it.

clubhouse /ˈklʌbhaʊs/ *noun* [C] a building that the members of a club use for social activities or for changing their clothes

cluck /klʌk/ *verb* [I] to make the sound that a chicken makes ●**cluck** *noun* [C]

clue /kluː/ *noun* [C] **1** a sign or a piece of information that helps you to solve a problem or answer a question *Police are searching the area for* ***clues to*** *the murder.* ○ *I can't remember who wrote it.* ***Give me a clue.*** **2 not have a clue** *informal* to be completely unable to guess, understand, or deal with something [+ **question word**] *I haven't a clue what you're talking about.*

ˌclued ˈup *adjective UK* knowing all the most important information about something *He's very* ***clued up on*** *the law.*

clueless /ˈkluːləs/ *adjective informal* A clueless person does not know anything about a particular subject.

clump /klʌmp/ *noun* [C] a group of plants growing closely together *a clump of grass*

clumsy /ˈklʌmzi/ *adjective* **1** PERSON Clumsy people move in a way that is not controlled or careful enough, and often knock or damage things. **2** BEHAVIOUR If you behave in a clumsy way, you upset people because you are not careful about their feelings. ***a clumsy attempt*** *to be friendly* **3** OBJECT Clumsy objects are large, not attractive, and often difficult to use. ●**clumsily** *adverb* ●**clumsiness** *noun* [U]

clung /klʌŋ/ *past of* cling

cluster¹ /ˈklʌstəʳ/ *noun* a group of similar things that are close together *a cluster of galaxies*

cluster² /ˈklʌstəʳ/ *verb* **cluster around/round/together, etc** to form a close group *Photographers clustered round the film star.*

clutch¹ /klʌtʃ/ *verb* [T] to hold something tightly *She clutched a coin.*
clutch at sth *phrasal verb* to try very hard to hold something *She clutched wildly at the branch.*

clutch² /klʌtʃ/ *noun* **1** ENGINE [C] the part of a car or truck that you press with your foot when you change gear (= part that controls how fast the wheels turn) ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **2** HOLD [C, U] when someone holds or tries to hold something tightly **3 sb's clutches** If you are in someone's clutches, they control you, often in an evil way.

clutter¹ /ˈklʌtəʳ/ (*also* **clutter up**) *verb* [T] to cover a surface, or to fill a place with things that are not tidy or well organized [**often passive**] *Every shelf is **cluttered with** ornaments.*

clutter² /ˈklʌtəʳ/ *noun* [U] a lot of objects that are not tidy or well organized *I've got too much clutter on my desk.*

cm MEASURES *written abbreviation for* centimetre (= a unit for measuring length)

CNS /ˌsiːenˈes/ *noun* [U] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY *abbreviation for* central nervous system

Co 1 COMPANY *written abbreviation for* Company (= name of business) *Williams & Co* **2** AREA OF COUNTRY *written abbreviation for* County (= area with own local government) *Co. Wexford*

co- /kəʊ-/ *prefix* with or together *a co-author* ○ *to coexist*

c/o *written abbreviation for* care of: used when you send a letter to someone who will give it to the person you are writing to

coach¹ /kəʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** BUS *UK* a comfortable bus used to take groups of people on long journeys *a **coach trip*** **2** EDUCATION, SPORT someone whose job is to teach people to improve at a sport, skill, or school subject *a football/tennis coach* **3** OLD VEHICLE a vehicle with wheels that is pulled by horses

coach² /kəʊtʃ/ *verb* [T] EDUCATION to teach someone so they improve at a sport, skill, or in a school subject ●**coaching** *noun* [U]

ˈcoach ˌstation *UK* (*UK/US* **bus station**) *noun* [C] a building where a bus starts or ends its journey

coal /kəʊl/ *noun* **1** GEOLOGY [U] a hard, black substance that is dug from under the ground and burnt as fuel *a lump of coal* **2 coals** pieces of coal, usually burning

coalition /kəʊəˈlɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] POLITICS two or more political parties that have joined together, usually to govern a country *to **form** a **coalition*** ○ *a **coalition government***

ˈcoal ˌmine *noun* [C] (*also UK* **colliery**) a place where people work digging coal from under the ground

coarse /kɔːs/ *adjective* **1** NOT SMOOTH rough and thick, or not in very small pieces *coarse cloth* ○ *coarse breadcrumbs* **2** RUDE not polite *coarse language* ●**coarsely** *adverb*

O-K **coast¹** /kəʊst/ *noun* [C, U] **1** GEOGRAPHY the land beside the sea *The island lies **off the** North African **coast*** (= in the sea near North Africa). ○ *They live **on the** east **coast** of Scotland.* **2 coast to coast** from one side of a country to the other **3 the coast is clear** If the coast is clear, you can do something or go somewhere because there is nobody who might see you.

coast² /kəʊst/ *verb* [I] **1** NO DIFFICULTY to progress or succeed without any effort or difficulty *Pakistan **coasted to** a four-wicket victory over Australia.* **2** VEHICLE to move forward in a vehicle without using the engine, usually down a hill

coastal /ˈkəʊstᵊl/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY situated on or relating to the coast *a coastal town/resort*

ˈcoastal deˌfence *noun* [U, C] ENVIRONMENT ways of protecting land from being flooded or worn away by the sea

coastguard /ˈkəʊstgɑːd/ *noun* [C] a person or the organization responsible for preventing accidents and illegal activities in the sea near a coast

coastline /ˈkəʊstlaɪn/ *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY the part of the land along the edge of the sea *a rocky coastline*

O-K **coat¹** /kəʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOTHES a piece of clothing with sleeves that you wear over your other clothes, especially when you go outside *a fur/winter coat* **2** FUR the fur that covers an animal's body **3** LAYER a layer of a substance such as paint *a coat of paint/varnish*

coat² /kəʊt/ *verb* [T] to cover something with a thin layer of something *Stir the rice until it is **coated with** butter.*

ˈcoat ˌhanger *noun* [C] a wire, wooden, or plastic object for hanging clothes on

coating /ˈkəʊtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a thin layer that covers the surface of something *a protective/non-stick coating*

coax /kəʊks/ *verb* [T] to persuade someone in a gentle way [**+ into + doing sth**] *She coaxed me into joining the group.*

cobble¹ /ˈkɒbl/ *verb*
cobble sth together *phrasal verb* to make something quickly and not very carefully

cobble² /ˈkɒbl/ *noun* [C] a rounded stone used on the surface of an old-fashioned road ●**cobbled** *adjective* made with cobbles ***cobbled streets***

cobbler /ˈkɒbləʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK old-fashioned* someone whose job is to make or repair shoes

cobblestone /ˈkɒblstəʊn/ *noun* [C] a rounded stone that is used on the surface of an old-fashioned road

cobra /ˈkəʊbrə/ *noun* [C] a poisonous snake that makes the skin of its neck wide and flat when it is going to attack

cobweb /ˈkɒbweb/ *noun* [C] a structure of fine threads made by a spider (= insect with eight legs) to catch insects

Coca Cola /ˌkəʊkəˈkəʊlə/ *noun* [U] *trademark* FOOD a sweet, dark-brown drink with lots of bubbles

cocaine /kəʊˈkeɪn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH an illegal drug, often used in the form of white powder

cock¹ /kɒk/ *noun* [C] an adult male chicken

cock² /kɒk/ *verb* [T] to move part of the body up or to the side *to cock an ear/eyebrow*
cock sth up *phrasal verb UK informal* to do something wrong or badly *I really cocked up my exams.*

cockerel /ˈkɒkᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [C] *UK* a young male chicken

cockney /ˈkɒkni/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [U] a type of English spoken in East London **2** [C] someone who speaks Cockney

cockpit /ˈkɒkpɪt/ *noun* [C] the part of an aircraft or racing car that contains the controls

cockroach /ˈkɒkrəʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] a large, brown or black insect that can live in houses and places where food is prepared

cocktail /ˈkɒkteɪl/ *noun* **1** [C] a mixture of powerful substances *a cocktail of drugs/chemicals* **2** FOOD [C] an alcoholic drink made from two or more kinds of drink mixed together *a cocktail bar/party* **3** FOOD [C, U] a cold dish containing small pieces of food mixed together *a prawn cocktail* ○ *fruit cocktail*

cocky /ˈkɒki/ *adjective* confident in an annoying way

cocoa /ˈkəʊkəʊ/ *noun* [U] **1** FOOD a dark-brown powder produced from a type of bean, used to make chocolate **2** FOOD a drink made by mixing cocoa powder with hot milk

coconut /ˈkəʊkənʌt/ *noun* [C] FOOD a very large nut with a hard, hairy shell, a white part that you eat, and liquid in the centre

cocoon /kəˈkuːn/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a cover that protects some insects as they develop into adults

cod /kɒd/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **cod** FOOD a large sea fish which can be eaten as food

code /kəʊd/ *noun* **1** SECRET MESSAGE [C, U] a set of letters, numbers, or signs that are used instead of ordinary words to keep a message secret *It was written* ***in code***. ○ *They were trying to* ***break*** (= understand) *the enemy's* ***code***. **2** TELEPHONE [C] *UK* (*UK/US* **area code**) a set of numbers used at the beginning of all the telephone numbers in a particular area **3** RULES [C] a set of rules on how to behave or how to do things *a code of conduct/practice* ○ *The club has a strict* ***dress code*** (= rules about what you wear). ➲See also: **bar code, zip code**

coded /ˈkəʊdɪd/ *adjective* written or sent in code *a* ***coded message/warning***

codeine /ˈkəʊdiːn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a medicine used to reduce pain

co-ed /ˌkəʊˈed/ (US) /ˈkəʊˌed/ *adjective* EDUCATION with both male and female students

coefficient /ˌkəʊɪˈfɪʃənt/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a value that multiplies another value, e.g. the number 2 in '2x'

coelenterate /sɪˈlentəreɪt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of sea animal that has a simple body with tentacles (= long arms) and a single opening at the centre, for example a jellyfish

coerce /kəʊˈɜːs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make someone do something that they do not want to do [+ **into** + **doing sth**] *Employees said they were coerced into signing the agreement.* ●**coercion** /kəʊˈɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

coexist /ˌkəʊɪgˈzɪst/ *verb* [I] If two things or groups coexist, they exist at the same time or together, although they may be very different. *Can science and religion coexist?* ●**coexistence** *noun* [U]

coffee /ˈkɒfi/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C, U] a hot drink made from dark beans which are made into a powder, or a cup of this drink **2** FOOD [U] the beans from which coffee is made, or the powder made from these beans *instant coffee*

ˈcoffee ˌtable *noun* [C] a low table in a room where people sit ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

coffers /ˈkɒfəz/ *noun* [plural] FINANCE a supply of money that a group or organization has and can spend *government/party coffers*

coffin /ˈkɒfɪn/ (*also US* **casket**) *noun* [C] a box in which a dead body is buried ➲See also: the final **nail**[1] in the coffin

cog /kɒg/ *noun* [C] a part shaped like a tooth on the edge of a wheel in a machine, that makes another wheel turn

cogent /ˈkəʊdʒᵊnt/ *adjective* A cogent argument, reason, or explanation is one which people will believe because it is clear and careful.

cognac /ˈkɒnjæk/ *noun* [U] FOOD good quality French brandy (= strong alcoholic drink)

cognitive /ˈkɒgnətɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* relating to how people think, understand, and learn

cohabit /kəʊˈhæbɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* If two people cohabit, they live together and are sexual partners but are not married. ●**cohabitation** /kəʊˌhæbɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

coherent /kəʊˈhɪərᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** CAREFUL THOUGHT A coherent argument, plan, etc is clear, and each part of it has been carefully considered. **2** UNDERSTAND If someone is coherent, you can understand what they say. ➲Opposite **incoherent** ●**coherence** /kəʊˈhɪərᵊns/ *noun* [U] ●**coherently** *adverb*

cohesion /kəʊˈhiːʒᵊn/ *noun* [U] when the members of a group or society are united *The country needs greater social cohesion.* ●**cohesive** /kəʊˈhiːsɪv/ *adjective* united and working together effectively *a cohesive unit/group*

cohort /ˈkəʊhɔːt/ *noun* [C] someone who supports someone else, especially a political leader *the prime minister's cohorts*

coil[1] /kɔɪl/ *noun* [C] a long piece of wire, rope, etc curled into several circles *a coil of rope*

coil[2] /kɔɪl/ (*also* **coil up**) *verb* [I, T] to twist something into circles, or to become twisted into circles *Her hair was coiled in a bun on top of her head.*

coin[1] /kɔɪn/ *noun* **1** FINANCE [C] a flat, usually round, piece of metal used as money *a pound coin* **2 toss a coin** to throw a coin into the air so that it turns over several times, and see which side it lands on, often in order to make a decision

coin[2] /kɔɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** to be the first person who uses a new word or phrase **2 to coin a phrase** something you say before using a common expression *Still, to coin a phrase, there is light at the end of the tunnel.*

coincide /ˌkəʊɪnˈsaɪd/ *verb* [I] **1** HAPPEN TOGETHER to happen at the same time as something else *The band's American tour* ***coincided with*** *the release of their second album.* **2** BE THE SAME When people's opinions or ideas coincide, they are the same.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***coincidence***

by coincidence ● an **amazing/happy/remarkable/strange/unfortunate** coincidence ● **mere/pure** coincidence ● **it's no** coincidence **that**

coincidence /kəʊˈɪnsɪdᵊns/ *noun* [**C, U**] when two very similar things happen at the same time but there is no reason for it *an **amazing/strange coincidence*** ○ *It was **pure coincidence** that we both married dentists.* ●**coincidental** /kəʊˌɪnsɪˈdentᵊl/ *adjective* happening by coincidence *The similarities are coincidental.* ●**coincidentally** /kəʊˌɪnsɪˈdentᵊli/ *adverb*

Coke /kəʊk/ *noun* [**C, U**] *trademark* **FOOD** *short for* Coca Cola (= a sweet, dark-brown drink with lots of bubbles)

Col *written abbreviation for* Colonel (= an officer of high rank in the army or air force)

cola /ˈkəʊlə/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a sweet, dark-brown drink with lots of bubbles ➲See also: **Coca Cola**

colander /ˈkɒləndəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a bowl with small holes in it used for washing food or separating water from food after cooking ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***cold***

If the weather outside or the temperature inside is very cold, you can use the adjectives **bitter** or **freezing**: *Wrap up warmly - it's **bitter** outside!* ● *It's absolutely **freezing** in here!*

If the weather, especially the wind, is so cold that it is unpleasant to be in, the adjectives **biting** and **icy** are sometimes used: *A **biting/icy** wind blew in her face as she opened the door.*

The adjective **chilly** is often used to describe weather or temperatures that feel slightly cold and unpleasant: *It's a bit **chilly** in here - can you turn the heater on?*

If the temperature feels cold but pleasant, you can say that it is **cool**: *That's a nice **cool** breeze.*

Cold weather in autumn or winter that is dry and pleasant is sometimes described as **crisp**: *We walked through the forest on a **crisp** autumn day.*

cold¹ /kəʊld/ *adjective* **1** TEMPERATURE having a low temperature *cold water/weather* ○ *This soup has **gone cold**.* ○ *My hands are **getting cold**.* **2** UNFRIENDLY unfriendly or showing no emotion *a cold stare/voice* ○ *She became quite cold and distant with me.* **3** FOOD served cold *cold roast beef* ●**coldness** *noun* [**U**] ➲See also: in cold **blood**, get cold feet (**foot¹**)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cold***

catch/have a cold ● a **bad/heavy/stinking** (= very bad) cold

cold² /kəʊld/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [**C**] a common illness which makes you sneeze and makes your nose produce liquid *I've got a cold.* ○ *He **caught a** bad **cold** at school.* **2 the cold** cold weather or temperatures **3 leave sb out in the cold** to not allow someone to be part of a group or activity

cold³ /kəʊld/ *adverb* **1 be out cold** *informal* to be unconscious *I hit my head and was out cold for two minutes.* **2** completely and immediately *I offered him £10 but he turned me down cold.*

cold-blooded /ˌkəʊldˈblʌdɪd/ *adjective* showing no emotion or sympathy *a cold-blooded killer*

cold-hearted /ˌkəʊldˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* feeling no kindness or sympathy towards other people

coldly /ˈkəʊldli/ *adverb* in a way that is not friendly or emotional *He looked at me coldly.*

colic /ˈkɒlɪk/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** When a baby has colic, it has a bad pain in the stomach.

collaborate /kəˈlæbᵊreɪt/ *verb* [**I**] **1** WORK TOGETHER When two or more people collaborate, they work together to create or achieve the same thing. *Didn't you **collaborate with** him **on** one of your books?* **2** HELP ENEMY to help people who are an enemy of your country or government *He was accused of **collaborating with** the enemy.* ●**collaborator** *noun* [**C**]

collaboration /kəˌlæbᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** WORK [**C, U**] when two or more people work together to create or achieve the same thing, or a product of this *The show was a result of **collaboration between** several museums.* **2** ENEMY [**U**] when someone helps an enemy country or government

collage /ˈkɒlɑːʒ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **ART** a picture made by sticking small pieces of paper or other materials onto a surface, or the process of making pictures like this

collagen /ˈkɒlədʒən/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** a protein found especially in the joints (= places where two bones are connected) of humans and animals

collapse¹ /kəˈlæps/ *verb* **1** FALL [**I**] When someone collapses, they fall down, usually because they are ill or weak. **2** OBJECT [**I, T**] to fall down or towards the inside, or to make a structure or object fall down or towards its inside *The roof collapsed under the weight of snow.* **3** FAIL [**I**] to fail to work or succeed *The peace talks have collapsed.*

collapse² /kəˈlæps/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** FAILURE the sudden failure of a system, organization, business, etc **2** FALL when a person or structure becomes too weak to stand and suddenly falls

collapsible /kəˈlæpsɪbl/ *adjective* able to be folded or made flat in order to be stored or carried *a collapsible table/boat*

collar¹ /ˈkɒləʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** CLOTHING the part of a shirt, coat, etc that is usually folded over and goes round your neck *a shirt collar* **2** ANIMAL a narrow piece of leather or plastic that you fasten round the neck of an animal

collar² /ˈkɒləʳ/ *verb* [**T**] *informal* to find someone and stop them going somewhere, often so that you can talk to them about something

collarbone /ˈkɒləbəʊn/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** a bone between the base of your neck and your shoulder

collateral /kəˈlætᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** things that you agree to give someone if you are not able pay back money you have borrowed from them *I used my car **as collateral** for a loan.*

colleague /ˈkɒliːɡ/ *noun* [C] someone that you work with

collect¹ /kəˈlekt/ *verb* **1** BRING TOGETHER [T] to get things from different places and bring them together *Police collected a good deal of information during the investigation.* ○ *Would you* ***collect up*** *the books please, Joanne?* **2** KEEP [T] to get and keep things of one type such as stamps or coins as a hobby *She collects dolls.* **3** GO TO GET [T] *UK* to go to a place and bring someone or something away from it *She* ***collects*** *Anna* ***from*** *school at three o'clock.* **4** MONEY [I, T] to ask people to give you money for something, for example a charity (= organization that helps people) *I'm collecting on behalf of Oxfam.* **5** RECEIVE [T] to receive money that you are owed *You can begin to collect a pension at age 62.* **6** COME TOGETHER [I] to come together in a single place *Journalists collected outside the palace.* **7 collect yourself/your thoughts** to get control over your feelings and thoughts

collect² /kɒlˈekt/ *adjective, adverb US* When you telephone collect or make a collect telephone call, the person you telephone pays for the call.

collected /kəˈlektɪd/ *adjective* **1** BOOK [**always before noun**] brought together in one book or series of books *His collected poems were published in 1928.* **2** CONTROL showing control over your feelings *Jane was very* ***calm and collected.***

collecting flask *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a wide glass container with a flat base, used by scientists for collecting liquids

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***collection***

amass/display/have a collection ● an **extensive/large/priceless/private** collection

collection /kəˈlekʃˈn/ *noun* **1** OBJECTS [C] a group of objects of the same type that have been collected by one person or in one place *a* ***private*** *art* ***collection*** **2** TAKING AWAY [U] when something is taken away from a place *rubbish collection* **3** MONEY [C] an amount of money collected from several people *We* ***had a collection for*** *Emily's gift.* **4** GROUP [C] a group of things or people *There's quite a* ***collection of*** *toothbrushes in the bathroom.*

collective¹ /kəˈlektɪv/ *adjective* involving, felt by, or owned by everyone in a group *collective responsibility*

collective² /kəˈlektɪv/ *noun* [C] a business that is owned and controlled by the people who work in it

collective bargaining *noun* [U] the system in which employees talk as a group with their employers to try to agree on matters such as pay and working conditions

collectively /kəˈlektɪvli/ *adverb* as a group *She has a staff of four who collectively earn almost $200,000.*

collector /kəˈlektəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** JOB someone whose job is to collect tickets or money from people *a tax collector* **2** HOBBY someone who collects objects because they are interesting or beautiful *a collector of modern art*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***college***

go to college ● be **at** college ● a college **course/lecturer/student**

college /ˈkɒlɪdʒ/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [C, U] *UK* a place where students are educated when they are between 16 and 18 years old, or after they have finished school *a sixth-form college* ○ *a teacher-training college* **2 EDUCATION** [C, U] *US* a university **3 EDUCATION** [C] a part of a university that has its own teachers and students *Cambridge/Oxford colleges* ➲See also: **community college, junior college**

collegiate /kəˈliːdʒiət/ *adjective* **EDUCATION** relating to or belonging to a college or its students *collegiate sports*

collide /kəˈlaɪd/ *verb* [I] When two objects collide, they hit each other with force, usually while moving. *The car* ***collided with*** *a van.*

colliery /ˈkɒljəri/ *UK* (*UK/US* **coal mine**) *noun* [C] a place where people work digging coal from under the ground

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***collision***

avoid/be involved in a collision ● [a car/train, etc] is **in a** collision with sth ● a **head-on** collision ● a collision **between** sth and sth

collision /kəˈlɪʒˈn/ *noun* **1** [C] an accident that happens when two vehicles hit each other with force **2 PHYSICS** when two or more objects or particles come together in a way that causes an exchange of energy and a change of direction **3 be on a collision course** If two people or groups are on a collision course, they are doing or saying things that are certain to cause a serious disagreement or fight between them.

collocation /ˌkɒləˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] **1 LANGUAGE** a word or phrase that sounds natural and correct when it is used with another word or phrase *In the phrase 'a hard frost', 'hard' is a collocation of 'frost', and 'strong' would not sound natural.* **2 LANGUAGE** the combination of words formed when two or more words are frequently used together in a way that sounds natural *The phrase 'a hard frost' is a collocation.*

colloid /ˈkɒlɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a mixture in which particles of one substance are held inside another substance

colloquial /kəˈləʊkwiəl/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** Colloquial words or expressions are informal. *colloquial speech* ●**colloquially** *adverb*

collude /kəˈluːd/ *verb* [I] *formal* to do something secretly with another person or group, in order to deceive or cheat others *The company* ***colluded with*** *competitors to fix prices.* ●**collusion** /kəˈluːʒˈn/ *noun* [U] *He was accused of being* ***in collusion with*** *the terrorists.*

colon /ˈkəʊlɒn/ *noun* [C] **1** a mark (:) used before a list, an example, an explanation, etc ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18. **2 ANATOMY** the large intestine (= lower part of a person's bowels) ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

colonel /ˈkɜːnˈl/ *noun* [C] an officer of high rank in the army or air force

colonial /kəˈləʊniəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **POLITICS** relating to colonialism or a

colony (= country controlled by another country) *colonial rule/government*

colonialism /kəˈləʊniəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the system in which powerful countries control other countries

colonize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈkɒlənaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** **POLITICS** to send people to live in and govern another country [**often passive**] *Burundi was first colonized by the Germans.* **2** to start growing or living in large numbers in a place *Weeds quickly colonize areas of cleared ground.* ●**colonist** /ˈkɒlənɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who goes to colonize a country ●**colonization** /ˌkɒlənaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

colony /ˈkɒləni/ *noun* [C] **1** **POLITICS** a country or area controlled in an official, political way by a more powerful country *a French/British colony* **2** **BIOLOGY** a group of the same type of animals, insects, or plants living together in a particular place *a colony of ants* **3** **SOCIETY** a group of people with the same interests or job who live together *an artists' colony*

O-K **color** /ˈkʌlə/ *noun, verb US spelling of* colour

colored /ˈkʌləd/ *adjective US spelling of* coloured

colorful /ˈkʌləfəl/ *adjective US spelling of* colourful

coloring /ˈkʌlərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] *US spelling of* colouring

colorless /ˈkʌlələs/ *adjective US spelling of* colourless

colossal /kəˈlɒsᵊl/ *adjective* extremely large *colossal amounts of money*

O-K **colour**[1] *UK* (*US* **color**) /ˈkʌləʳ/ *noun* **1** RED/BLUE ETC [C, U] red, blue, green, yellow, etc *Green is my favourite colour.* ○ *What colour shall I paint the kitchen?* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** FILM/TV ETC [U] using or showing all the colours, not only black and white *Why didn't he shoot the film* ***in colour?*** **3** SKIN [U] the colour of a person's skin, which shows their race **4** FACE [U] healthy pink skin on someone's face *The colour drained from her cheeks.* **5** INTEREST [U] interesting or exciting qualities or parts *We added your story for a bit of local colour.* **6 with flying colours** with a very high score or with great success *He passed the entrance exam with flying colours.* ➲See also: **primary colour**

colour[2] *UK* (*US* **color**) /ˈkʌləʳ/ *verb* **1** ADD COLOUR [I, T] to become a particular colour, or to make something a particular colour *He drew a heart and coloured it red.* ○ *Fry the onions until they start to colour.* **2** AFFECT [T] to affect what someone does, says, or feels [**often passive**] *Her views are coloured by her own bad experiences.*
colour sth in *phrasal verb* to fill an area with colour using paint, pens, etc

colour-blind *UK* (*US* **color-blind**) /ˈkʌləblaɪnd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** unable to see the difference between particular colours

coloured *UK* (*US* **colored**) /ˈkʌləd/ *adjective* **1** THING having or producing a colour or colours *coloured lights/cloth* **2** PERSON an old-fashioned way of describing someone from a race with dark skin that is now considered offensive

colourful *UK* (*US* **colorful**) /ˈkʌləfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BRIGHT having bright colours *a colourful painting* **2** INTERESTING interesting and unusual *a* ***colourful character***

colouring *UK* (*US* **coloring**) /ˈkʌlərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** COLOUR the colour of something, especially an animal or person's skin, hair, and eyes *The boys have their father's colouring.* **2** SUBSTANCE a substance that is used to colour something *food/artificial colouring*

colourless (*US* **colorless**) /ˈkʌlələs/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR without any colour *a colourless liquid* **2** INTEREST without the qualities that make someone or something interesting and unusual

[1]**colour separation** *UK* (*US* **color separation**) *noun* [U] **DT** a method used for printing, where a colour image is divided into 4 images of a single colour which, when put together, make the complete colour image

[1]**colour wheel** *UK* (*US* **color wheel**) *noun* [C] **DT** a diagram showing colours in a circle so that you can see the relationship between them

colt /kəʊlt/ *noun* [C] a young male horse

column /ˈkɒləm/ *noun* [C] **1** TALL POST a tall, solid, usually stone post which is used to support a roof or as decoration in a building *a stone/marble column* **2** NEWSPAPER a regular article in a newspaper or magazine on a particular subject or by the same writer **3** PRINT one of the blocks of print into which a page of a newspaper, magazine, or dictionary is divided **4** NUMBERS ETC any block of numbers or words written one under the other **5 a column of sth** something with a tall, narrow shape *A column of smoke rose from the chimney.* **6** PEOPLE MOVING a long line of moving people or vehicles *a column of refugees* ➲See also: **gossip column**

columnist /ˈkɒləmnɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who writes a regular article for a newspaper or magazine *a* ***sports/gossip columnist***

.com /dɒtˈkɒm/ **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* company: used in some Internet addresses which belong to companies or businesses *www.google.com*

coma /ˈkəʊmə/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** when someone is not conscious for a long time [**usually singular**] *She has been* ***in a coma*** *for over a week.*

comb[1] /kəʊm/ *noun* [C] a flat piece of metal or plastic with a row of long, narrow parts along one side, that you use to tidy your hair

comb[2] /kəʊm/ *verb* [T] **1** HAIR to tidy your hair using a comb **2** SEARCH to search a place very carefully *Investigators* ***combed through*** *the wreckage.*

combat[1] /ˈkɒmbæt/ *noun* [C, U] a fight, especially during a war *The aircraft was shot down* ***in combat.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***combat***

combat **crime/global warming/racism/terrorism** ● combat **the effects** of sth ● combat a **problem** ● combat **the threat of** sth ● combat **the rise in** [crime, etc]

combat² /ˈkɒmbæt/ *verb* [T] **combatting,** *past* **combatted** or **combating,** *past* **combated** to try to stop something unpleasant or harmful from happening or increasing *new measures to combat the rise in crime*

C

combatant /ˈkɒmbətənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who fights in a war

combative /ˈkɒmbətɪv/ *adjective formal* eager to fight or argue

combination /ˌkɒmbɪˈneɪʃən/ *noun* **1** MIXTURE [C, U] a mixture of different people or things *Strawberries and cream - a perfect combination!* ○ *We won through a* ***combination of*** *luck and skill.* ○ *This drug can be safely used* ***in combination with*** *other medicines.* **2** LOCK [C] a set of numbers or letters in a particular order which is needed to open some types of locks *a combination lock*

combine /kəmˈbaɪn/ *verb* **1** JOIN TOGETHER [I, T] to become mixed or joined, or to mix or join things together *My wages* ***combined with*** *your savings should just pay for it.* ○ *The band combines jazz rhythms and romantic lyrics.* **2** DO BOTH [T] to do two or more activities at the same time *I don't know how she* ***combines*** *working* ***with*** *studying.*

combined /kəmˈbaɪnd/ *adjective* [always before noun] joined together *the* ***combined effects*** *of poverty and disease*

combine harvester /ˌkɒmbaɪnˈhɑːvɪstər/ (*also* **combine**) *noun* [C] **FARMING** a large farm machine which cuts a crop and separates the grain from the stem

combustion /kəmˈbʌstʃən/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the process of burning ➲See picture at **carbon cycle**

come /kʌm/ *verb past tense* **came,** *past participle* **come** **1** MOVE TOWARDS [I] to move or travel towards a person who is speaking or towards the place that they are speaking about *Come and see what I've done.* ○ *Can you come to my party?* ○ *The rain came down heavily.* ○ ***Here comes*** *Adam* (= Adam is coming). **2** ARRIVE [I] to arrive somewhere or go to a place *I'll come and see you later.* [+ **to do sth**] *I've come to see Mr Curtis.* ○ *Dad will* ***come for*** *you at six.* ○ *We* ***came to*** *a crossroads.* **3** GO WITH SOMEONE [I] to go somewhere with the person who is speaking *Come for a walk with us.* ○ *We're going to the cinema. Do you want to come?* **4 come after/first/last, etc** to have or achieve a particular position in a race, competition, list, etc *Our team came third.* ○ *Sunday comes after Saturday.* **5 come past/to/up to, etc** to reach a particular length, height, or depth *The water came up to my waist.* **6 come apart/off, etc** to become separated or removed from something *The book* ***came apart*** *in my hands.* ○ *The handle* ***came off.*** ○ *My shoelaces have* ***come undone.*** ○ *The door came open.* **7 come easily/easy/naturally** to be very easy for someone *Singing came naturally to Louise.* **8** HAPPEN [I] to happen *Spring has come early.* ○ *The worst problems are still* ***to come.*** **9 how come** *informal* used to ask why or how something has happened *How come you didn't go to the party?* **10 come and go** to exist or happen somewhere for a short time and then go away *The feeling of nausea comes and goes.* **11** BE AVAILABLE [I] to be available in a particular size, colour, etc *The table* ***comes in*** *three different sizes.* ○ *Furniture like this doesn't* ***come cheap.*** **12 come to do sth** to start to do something *I have come to rely on acupuncture.* ○ *This place has come to be known as 'Pheasant Corner'.* **13 when it comes to sth/doing sth** used to introduce a new idea that you want to say something about *When it comes to baking cakes, she's an expert.* **14 come to think of it** used to say that you have just thought of something *Come to think of it, I've got two batteries that you can have upstairs.* ➲See also: come to blows (**blow²**), I'll/We'll cross that **bridge¹** when I/we come to it., come **clean¹**, if/when it comes to the **crunch¹**, come (back) down to **earth**, come under **fire¹**, deliver/come up with the **goods**, come to **grief**, come/get to grips (**grip¹**) with sth, come to **light¹**, come into your/its **own¹**, not be/come up to **scratch²**, come to your senses (**sense¹**), come/turn up trumps (**trump**)

come about *phrasal verb* to happen, or start to happen *How did the idea for an arts festival come about?*

come across sb/sth *phrasal verb* to meet someone or discover something by chance *I came across a lovely little restaurant in the village.*

come across *phrasal verb* **1** SEEM to seem to be a particular type of person *He* ***came across as*** *shy.* **2** CLEAR If an idea or emotion comes across, it is expressed clearly and people understand it. *His bitterness comes across in his poetry.*

come along *phrasal verb* **1** ARRIVE to arrive or appear at a place *A taxi never comes along when you need one.* **2** GO WITH SOMEONE to go somewhere with someone *We're going to the cinema. Do you want to come along?* **3** EXIST to start to exist *I gave up climbing when my first child came along.* **4 be coming along** to be developing or making progress

come around *phrasal verb* **1** VISIT to visit someone at their house **2** AGREE to change your opinion about something, or agree to an idea or a plan that you were against *I'm sure she'll* ***come around to*** *our view eventually.* **3** EVENT If an event that happens regularly comes around, it happens, or is going to happen soon. *Thanksgiving has come around again.* **4** **HEALTH** to become conscious again after an accident or medical operation

come back *phrasal verb* **1** RETURN to return to a place *I've just* ***come back from*** *the dentist's.* **2** BECOME POPULAR If a style or a fashion comes back, it becomes popular again. *Miniskirts are coming back into fashion.*

come back to sb *phrasal verb* If something comes back to you, you remember it. *Suddenly, the horror of the accident came back to me.*

come between sb *phrasal verb* to harm the relationship between two or more people *I won't let anything come between me and my children.*

come by sth *phrasal verb* to get something, especially something that is unusual or difficult to find *Cheap organic food is still* ***difficult to come by.***

come down *phrasal verb* **1** FALL to break and fall to the ground *A lot of trees came down in the storm.* **2** BECOME LOWER If a price or a level comes down, it becomes lower. *Prices always come down after Christmas.* **3** to decide that

you support a particular person or side in an argument, etc *The government has **come down on the side of** military action.*

come down on sb *phrasal verb* to punish or criticize someone *The police are **coming down hard on** people for not paying parking fines.*

come down to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* If a situation, problem, decision, etc comes down to something, then that is the thing that will influence it most.

come down with sth *phrasal verb informal* to get an illness *I came down with the flu at Christmas.*

come forward *phrasal verb* to offer to help someone or to give information *We need witnesses to **come forward with** information about the attack.*

O-key **come from sth** *phrasal verb* to be born, obtained from, or made somewhere *She comes from Poland.* ○ *Milk comes from cows.*

come from sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to be caused by something *"I feel awful." "That comes from eating too many sweets."*

O-key **come in** *phrasal verb* **1** ENTER to enter a room or building *Do you want to come in for a cup of tea?* **2** FASHION If a fashion or a product comes in, it becomes available or becomes popular. *Flared trousers came in during the seventies.* **3** BE RECEIVED If news, information, a report, etc comes in, it is received. *News is just coming in about the explosion.* **4 come in first/second, etc** to finish a race or a competition in first/second, etc position **5** SEA If the tide (= regular change in the level of the sea) comes in, the sea moves towards the beach or coast. **6** BE INVOLVED *informal* used to describe how someone is involved in a situation, story, or plan *We need people to help clean up, and that's where you come in.*

come in for sth *phrasal verb* If someone comes in for criticism, praise, etc, they are criticized, praised, etc.

come into sth *phrasal verb* **1** to get money from someone who has died *Just after I left university, I came into a bit of money.* **2 come into it** *UK informal* to influence a situation *Money doesn't come into it.*

come of sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to happen as a result of something *Did anything come of all those job applications?*

come off *phrasal verb* **1** to happen successfully *His attempt to impress us all didn't quite come off.* **2 come off badly/best/well, etc** to be in a bad or good position at the end of a fight, argument, etc *She usually comes off best in an argument.* **3 Come off it!** *informal* used to tell someone that you do not agree with them or do not believe them *Oh, come off it! I saw you take it!*

come on *phrasal verb* **1** START to start to happen or work *The heating comes on at six in the morning.* ○ *I've got a cold coming on.* **2** MAKE PROGRESS to make progress *How's your new novel coming on?* **3 Come on!** *informal* **4** ENCOURAGEMENT used to encourage someone to do something, to hurry, to try harder, etc *Come on! We're going to be late.* **5** DISAGREEMENT used to tell someone that you do not agree with them, do not believe them, etc *Come on Bob! You made the same excuse last week.*

come out *phrasal verb* **1** BECOME AVAILABLE If a book, record, film, etc comes out, it becomes available for people to buy or see. *When does their new album come out?* **2** SUN If the sun, the moon, or a star comes out, it appears in the sky. **3** BECOME KNOWN to become known *The truth about him will come out in the end.* **4** SOCIAL EVENT *UK* to go somewhere with someone for a social event *Would you like to come out for a drink?* **5** RESULT If you describe how something comes out at the end of a process or activity, you say what it is like. *How did your chocolate cake come out?* **6** INFORMATION If results or information come out, they are given to people. *The exam results come out in August.* **7** BE REMOVED If dirt or a mark comes out of something, it disappears when you clean it. *Will this red wine stain come out?* **8** PHOTOGRAPH If a photograph comes out, the picture can be seen clearly. *The photos didn't come out very well.* **9** BE SAID If something that you say comes out in a particular way, you say it in that way. *I wanted to tell her that I loved her, but it came out all wrong.* **10** TELL to tell people that you are homosexual (= sexually attracted to people of the same sex) **11 come out against/in favour of sth** to say publicly that you oppose or support something

come out in sth *phrasal verb* If you come out in a skin disease, it appears on your skin.

come out of sth *phrasal verb* If something comes out of a process or event, it is one of the results. *I hope something good can come out of this mess.*

come out with sth *phrasal verb* to say something suddenly that is not expected

come over *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE TOWARDS to come to a place, move from one place to another, or move towards someone *Are your family **coming over from** Greece for the wedding?* **2** SEEM to seem to be a particular type of person *Henry **came over as** a real enthusiast.*

come over sb *phrasal verb* If a feeling comes over you, you suddenly experience it. *I don't usually get so angry. I don't know what came over me.*

come round *phrasal verb UK* **1** VISIT to visit someone at their house *You must come round to the flat for dinner some time.* **2** AGREE to change your opinion about something, or agree to an idea or a plan that you were against **3** EVENT If an event that happens regularly comes round, it happens, or is going to happen soon. *I can't believe that winter has come round already.* **4** BECOME CONSCIOUS to become conscious again after an accident or medical operation

come through *phrasal verb* **1** RECEIVE If information or a result comes through, you receive it. *Have the results of the tests come through yet?* **2** NOTICE If an emotion comes through, other people can notice it. *His nervousness came through when he spoke.*

come through (sth) *phrasal verb* to manage to get to the end of a difficult or dangerous situation *We've had some hard times, but we've come through them.*

come to *phrasal verb* **HEALTH** to become conscious again after an accident or medical operation

come to sb *phrasal verb* If a thought or idea

comes to you, you suddenly remember it or start to think about it.
come to sth *phrasal verb* **1** TOTAL to be a particular total when numbers or amounts are added together *That comes to £50, please.* **2 come to a decision/conclusion/arrangement, etc** to make a decision or decide what to think about something **3** REACH to reach a particular state or situation, especially a bad one *You won't **come to** any **harm**.*
come under sth *phrasal verb* **1 come under attack/criticism/scrutiny, etc** to be attacked, criticized, examined, etc **2** CONTROL to be controlled or dealt with by a particular authority *Water rates come under local government control.* **3** LIST to be in a particular part of a book, list, etc *Hairdressers come under 'beauty salons' in the Yellow Pages.*
come up *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE TOWARDS to move towards someone *After the concert, he **came up to** me to ask for my autograph.* **2** BE DISCUSSED to be discussed or suggested *The issue of security came up at the meeting yesterday.* **3** OPPORTUNITY If a job or opportunity comes up, it becomes available. **4** PROBLEM If a problem or difficult situation comes up, it happens. **5 be coming up** to be happening soon *My exams are coming up next month.* **6** SUN OR MOON When the sun or the moon comes up, it rises. **7 COMPUTING** If information comes up on a computer screen, it appears there.
come up against sb/sth *phrasal verb* to have to deal with a problem or difficulty *She came up against a lot of sexism in her first engineering job.*
come up to sth *phrasal verb* to reach the usual or necessary standard *This essay doesn't **come up to** your usual **standards**.*
come up with sth *phrasal verb* to think of a plan, an idea, or a solution to a problem *We need to come up with a good scheme to make money.*

comeback /ˈkʌmbæk/ *noun* [C] a successful attempt to become powerful, important, or famous again *She's **made a comeback** with her first new album for twenty years.*

comedian /kəˈmiːdiən/ *noun* [C] someone who entertains people by telling jokes

comedown /ˈkʌmdaʊn/ *noun* [C] *informal* a situation that is not as good as one you were in before [**usually singular**] *Cleaning windows is a bit of a comedown after his last job.*

comedy /ˈkɒmədi/ *noun* [C, U] entertainment such as a film, play, etc which is funny *The film is a **romantic comedy**.*

comet /ˈkɒmɪt/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** an object in space that leaves a bright line behind it in the sky

comfort¹ /ˈkʌmfət/ *noun* **1** NO PAIN [U] a pleasant feeling of being relaxed and free from pain *Now you can watch the latest films **in the comfort of** your sitting room.* **2** FOR SADNESS [U] when you feel better after being worried or sad *What she said brought me great comfort.* **3** ENOUGH MONEY [U] when you have a pleasant life with enough money for everything that you need *He can afford to retire and live **in comfort** for the rest of his life.* **4 a comfort to sb** someone or something that helps you when you are anxious or sad *The children have been a great comfort to me since his death.* **5** PLEASANT THING [C] something that makes your life easy and pleasant [**usually plural**] *Good chocolate is one of life's little comforts.* ➲Opposite **discomfort**

comfort² /ˈkʌmfət/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel better when they are anxious or sad ●**comforting** *adjective He said a few comforting words.*

comfortable /ˈkʌmftəbl/ *adjective* **1** NOT CAUSING PAIN Comfortable furniture, clothes, rooms, etc make you feel relaxed and do not cause any pain. *comfortable shoes* ○ *We had a comfortable journey.* **2** PERSON If you are comfortable, you are relaxed and have no pain. ***Make yourself comfortable** while I fetch you a drink.* ➲Opposite **uncomfortable** **3** WITHOUT WORRIES If you are comfortable in a situation, you do not have any worries about it. *I don't feel comfortable about leaving the children here alone.* **4** MONEY having enough money for everything that you need *a comfortable retirement* **5** WIN If you win a game or competition by a comfortable amount, you win easily. *a comfortable lead/victory* ●**comfortably** *adverb*

comforter /ˈkʌmfətə/ *US* (*UK* **duvet**) *noun* [C] a cover filled with feathers or warm material, that you sleep under

ˈcomfort ˌzone *noun* [C] a situation that you know well and in which you are relaxed and confident *Owen thought about deep-sea diving but decided it was beyond his comfort zone.*

comfy /ˈkʌmfi/ *adjective informal* comfortable

comic¹ /ˈkɒmɪk/ *adjective* funny *a comic actor*

comic² /ˈkɒmɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** MAGAZINE (*also* **ˈcomic ˌbook**) a magazine with stories told in pictures **2** PERSON someone who entertains people by telling jokes

comical /ˈkɒmɪkᵊl/ *adjective* funny in a strange or silly way *He looked so comical in that hat.* ●**comically** *adverb*

ˈcomic ˌstrip *noun* [C] a set of pictures telling a story, usually in a newspaper

coming¹ /ˈkʌmɪŋ/ *noun* **1 the coming of sth** the arrival of something *the coming of spring* **2 comings and goings** people's movements to and from a particular place over a period of time

coming² /ˈkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] a coming time or event will come or happen soon *the coming elections* ➲See also: **up-and-coming**

Comintern (**Komintern**) /ˈkɒmɪntɜːn/ *noun* **POLITICS** a communist organisation founded by Lenin and used by Stalin for controlling people

comma /ˈkɒmə/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a mark (,) used to separate parts of a sentence, or to separate the items in a list ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18. ➲See also: **inverted commas**

command¹ /kəˈmɑːnd/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [U] control over someone or something and responsibility for them *The soldiers were **under the command of** a tough sergeant-major.* ○ *Jones was **in command*** (= the leader). **2** ORDER [C] an order to do something **3** KNOWLEDGE [**no plural**]

knowledge of a subject, especially a language *She **had** a good **command of** French.* **4 be at sb's command** to be ready to obey someone's orders **5** COMPUTING [C] an instruction to a computer

command² /kəˈmɑːnd/ *verb formal* **1** CONTROL [T] to control someone or something and tell them what to do *He commanded the armed forces.* **2** ORDER [I, T] to order someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *The officer commanded his men to shoot.* **3 command attention/loyalty/respect, etc** to deserve and get attention, loyalty, respect, etc from other people

commandeer /ˌkɒmənˈdɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to take something, especially for military use *The ships were commandeered as naval vessels.*

commander /kəˈmɑːndəʳ/ *noun* [C] an officer who is in charge of a military operation, or an officer of middle rank in the navy

commanding /kəˈmɑːndɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] in a very successful position and likely to win or succeed *He has a **commanding lead** in the championships.*

commandment /kəˈmɑːndmənt/ *noun* [C] RELIGION one of the ten important rules of behaviour given by God in the Bible

commando /kəˈmɑːndəʊ/ *noun* [C] a soldier who is part of a small group who make surprise attacks

commemorate /kəˈmeməreɪt/ *verb* [T] to do something to show you remember an important person or event in the past with respect *a ceremony to commemorate the battle* ●**commemoration** /kəˌmeməˈreɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U] *a march **in commemoration of** the war of independence*

commemorative /kəˈmemʰrətɪv/ *adjective* intended to commemorate a person or event *a commemorative coin*

commence /kəˈmens/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to begin something ●**commencement** *noun* [C, U] *formal* the beginning of something

commend /kəˈmend/ *verb* [T] *formal* to praise someone or something [**often passive**] *His courage was commended by the report.* ●**commendation** /ˌkɒmenˈdeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [C, U]

commendable /kəˈmendəbl/ *adjective* deserving praise *She showed commendable modesty.*

commensalism /kəˈmentsəlɪzʰm/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a relationship between two species (= group of animals of the same type) in which one gets an advantage from living closely with the other and the other is not affected by it

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***comment***

make a comment ● **make no** comment ● do sth **without** comment ● a comment **about/on** sth

O-K **comment¹** /ˈkɒment/ *noun* [C, U] **1** something that you say or write that shows what you think about something *He **made** negative **comments** to the press.* **2 No comment.** used to say that you do not want to answer someone's question

O-K **comment²** /ˈkɒment/ *verb* [I, T] to make a comment *My mum always **comments on** what I'm wearing.* [+ **that**] *He commented that the two essays were very similar.*

commentary /ˈkɒmənt ʰri/ *noun* **1** RADIO/TELEVISION [C, U] a spoken description of an event on the radio or television while the event is happening *the football commentary* **2** DISCUSSION [**U no plural**] a discussion or explanation of something *a **commentary on** American culture*

commentator /ˈkɒmənteɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who describes an event on the radio or television while it is happening *a **sports commentator***

commerce /ˈkɒmɜːs/ *noun* [U] the activities involved in buying and selling things ➲See also: **chamber of commerce, e-commerce**

commercial¹ /kəˈmɜːʃʰl/ *adjective* **1** BUY/SELL relating to buying and selling things **2** FOR PROFIT intended to make a profit *commercial television* ●**commercially** *adverb*

commercial² /kəˈmɜːʃʰl/ *noun* [C] an advertisement on the radio or television

commercialism /kəˈmɜːʃʰlɪzʰm/ *noun* [U] when making money is the most important aim of an activity

commercialized (*also UK* **-ised**) /kəˈmɜːʃəlaɪzd/ *adjective* organized to make profits *Christmas has become so commercialized.* ●**commercialization** /kəˌmɜːʃʰlaɪˈzeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

commiserate /kəˈmɪzʰreɪt/ *verb* [I] to express sympathy to someone who is sad or has had bad luck

commission¹ /kəˈmɪʃʰn/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [**group**] an official group of people who have been chosen to find out about something and say what they think should be done about it **2** PIECE OF WORK [C, U] when you arrange for someone to do a piece of work for you such as painting, writing, or making something **3** FINANCE [C, U] money given to someone when they sell something *The staff receive 5% **commission on** everything that they sell.* ○ *Many salesmen work **on commission**.*

commission² /kəˈmɪʃʰn/ *verb* [T] to arrange for someone to do a piece of work [+ **to do sth**] *I've been commissioned to write a song for their wedding.*

commissioner /kəˈmɪʃənəʳ/ *noun* [C] a member of a commission or someone with an important government job in a particular area

O-K **commit** /kəˈmɪt/ *verb* [T] **committing,** *past* **committed 1** CRIME to do something that is considered wrong, or that is illegal *He was sent to prison for a **crime** that he didn't **commit**.* ○ *to **commit suicide/adultery*** **2** DECISION to make a firm decision that you will do something *He **committed himself to** helping others.* **3 not commit yourself** to refuse to express an opinion about a particular subject **4** MONEY/TIME If you commit money, time, energy, etc to something, you use it to try to achieve something. *The government has **committed** thousands of pounds **to** the research.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***commitment***

make a commitment ● **fulfil/honour/meet** a commitment ● a commitment **to** sth

O-K **commitment** /kəˈmɪtmənt/ *noun* **1** PROMISE [C] a promise or firm decision to do something

Players must ***make a commitment to*** *daily training.* **2** LOYALTY [**U**] when you are willing to give your time and energy to something that you believe in *We are looking for someone with talent, enthusiasm, and commitment.* **3** ACTIVITY [**C**] something that you must do that takes your time *I've got too many commitments at the moment.*

C

committed /kəˈmɪtɪd/ *adjective* loyal and willing to give your time and energy to something that you believe in *a committed Christian* ○ *She's* ***committed to*** *the job.*

committee /kəˈmɪti/ *noun* [**group**] a group of people who have been chosen to represent a larger organization and make decisions for it

commodity /kəˈmɒdəti/ *noun* [**C**] **ECONOMICS** a product that you can buy or sell

common[1] /ˈkɒmən/ *adjective* **1** USUAL happening often or existing in large numbers *Injuries are common in sports such as hockey.* ➲Opposite **uncommon** **2** SHARED belonging to or shared by two or more people or things ***a common goal/interest*** ○ *English has some features* ***common to*** *many languages.* **3 common knowledge** something that a lot of people know [+ **that**] *It's common knowledge that he spent time in jail.* **4** ORDINARY [**always before noun**] not special in any way *The herbs all have* ***common names*** *and Latin names.* **5** LOW CLASS *UK* typical of a low social class *My mum thinks dyed blonde hair is really common.*

common[2] /ˈkɒmən/ *noun* **1 have sth in common** to share interests, experiences, or other characteristics with someone or something *Sue and I don't have much in common.* **2 in common with sb/sth** in the same way as someone or something *In common with many working mothers, she feels guilty towards her children.* **3** [**C**] a large area of grass in a town or village which everyone is allowed to use

common denominator *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a number that can be divided exactly by all the denominators (=numbers under the lines) of a group of fractions

common factor *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a number that two or more other numbers can be divided by exactly

common fraction *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a fraction written with one number above and one number below the line, not written as a number with a decimal point in it

common ground *noun* [**U**] shared interests, beliefs, or ideas *It's difficult for me to* ***find*** *any* ***common ground*** *with my dad.*

common-law /ˌkɒmənˈlɔː/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A common-law wife or husband is someone who is not married, but has lived with their partner for a long time as if they were married.

commonly /ˈkɒmənli/ *adverb* often or usually *These caterpillars are commonly found on nettles.*

common multiple *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a number that can be divided exactly by two or more different numbers

commonplace /ˈkɒmənpleɪs/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] happening often or existing in large numbers, and so not considered special or unusual

the Commons /ˈkɒmənz/ (*also* **the House of Commons**) *noun* **POLITICS** one of the two parts of the British parliament, with elected members who make laws

common salt *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** sodium chloride, a substance used especially to make food taste better

common sense *noun* [**U**] the natural ability to be practical and to make good decisions *The children shouldn't be in any danger as long as they use their common sense.*

the Commonwealth /ˈkɒmənwelθ/ *noun* **POLITICS** Britain and the group of countries that used to be in the British Empire (= ruled by Britain)

commotion /kəˈməʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U no plural**] a sudden period of noise and confused or excited movement *He looked up to see what all the commotion was about.*

communal /ˈkɒmjʊnᵊl/ US /kəˈmjuːnəl/ *adjective* belonging to or used by a group of people *a communal changing room*

commune /ˈkɒmjuːn/ *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** a group of people who live together, sharing the work and the things they own

communicate /kəˈmjuːnɪkeɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** INFORMATION to share information with others by speaking, writing, moving your body, or using other signals *We can now* ***communicate*** *instantly* ***with*** *people on the other side of the world.* **2** FEELINGS to talk about your thoughts and feelings, and help other people to understand them *He can't* ***communicate with*** *his parents.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***communication***

communication **between** sb and sb ● **in** communication with sb ● a **means of** communication ● a **breakdown in** communication ● communication **skills**

communication /kəˌmjuːnɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** COMMUNICATING [**U**] the act of communicating with other people *The school is improving* ***communication between*** *teachers and parents.* ○ *We are* ***in*** *direct* ***communication with*** *Moscow.* **2** MESSAGE [**C**] *formal* a message sent to someone by letter, email, telephone, etc

communications /kəˌmjuːnɪˈkeɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] the different ways of sending information between people and places, such as post, telephones, computers, and radio *the communications industry*

communicative /kəˈmjuːnɪkətɪv/ *adjective* willing to talk to people and give them information

communion /kəˈmjuːniən/ *noun* [**U**] **RELIGION** (*also* **Communion**) the Christian ceremony in which people eat bread and drink wine, as symbols of Christ's body and blood

communiqué /kəˈmjuːnɪkeɪ/ US /kəˌmjuːnɪˈkeɪ/ *noun* [**C**] an official announcement

communism, Communism /ˈkɒmjənɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] **POLITICS** a political system in which the government controls the production of all goods, and where everyone is treated equally

communist, Communist /ˈkɒmjənɪst/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who supports communism ●**communist** *adjective* *a communist country/leader*

community /kəˈmjuːnəti/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY** [C] the people living in a particular area *a rural/small community* **2 SOCIETY** [**group**] a group of people with the same interests, nationality, job, etc *the business/Chinese community* **3 BIOLOGY, ENVIRONMENT** a group of plants or animals living in the same area ➲See picture at **ecosystem**

comˈmunity ˌcentre *UK* (*US* **community center**) *noun* [C] a place where people who live in an area can meet together to play sport, go to classes, etc

comˌmunity ˈcollege *noun* [C, U] *US* **EDUCATION** a two-year college where students can learn a skill or prepare to enter a university

comˌmunity ˈservice *noun* [U] **LAW** work that someone who has committed a crime does to help other people instead of going to prison

commutative /kəˈmjuːtətɪv/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** a commutative calculation gives the same result whatever the order of the quantities in it

commutator /ˈkɒmjuteɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 PHYSICS** a device that changes the direction that electricity moves **2** a device for connecting a motor to an electricity supply

commute /kəˈmjuːt/ *verb* [I] to regularly travel between work and home ●**commuter** *noun* [C]

compact¹ /kəmˈpækt/ *adjective* small and including many things in a small space

compact² /kəmˈpækt/ *verb* [T] to press something together so that it becomes tight or solid

ˌcompact ˈdisc *noun* [C] a CD (= a disc for recorded music or information)

companion /kəmˈpænjən/ *noun* [C] someone who you spend a lot of time with or go somewhere with *a travelling companion*

companionship /kəmˈpænjənʃɪp/ *noun* [U] the feeling of having friends around you

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***company***

establish/found/set up/start up a company

company /ˈkʌmpəni/ *noun* **1** BUSINESS [C] an organization which sells goods or services *a software/telephone company* **2** PEOPLE [U] when you have a person or people with you *I enjoy his company.* ○ *I didn't realize that you* ***had company.*** **3 keep sb company** to stay with someone so that they are not alone **4 be good company** to be a pleasant or interesting person to spend time with **5** PERFORMERS [C] a group of performers such as actors or dancers *the Royal Shakespeare Company* ➲See also: **limited company**

ˌcompany ˈsecretary *noun* [C] *UK* a person in a business who has particular legal duties

comparable /ˈkɒmpᵊrəbl/ *adjective* similar in size, amount, or quality to something else *Our prices are* ***comparable to*** *those in other shops.*

comparative¹ /kəmˈpærətɪv/ *adjective* **1 comparative comfort/freedom/silence, etc** a situation which is comfortable/free/silent, etc when compared to another situation or to what is usual *I enjoyed the comparative calm of his flat after the busy office.* **2** comparing similar things *a comparative study of two poems*

comparative² /kəmˈpærətɪv/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the form of an adjective or adverb that is used to show that someone or something has more of a particular quality than someone or something else. For example 'better' is the comparative of 'good' and 'smaller' is the comparative of 'small'. ➲Compare **superlative**

comparatively /kəmˈpærətɪvli/ *adverb* **comparatively cheap/easy/little, etc** cheap/easy/little, etc when compared to something else or to what is usual

compare /kəmˈpeəʳ/ *verb* **1** EXAMINE [T] to examine the ways in which two people or things are different or similar *The teachers are always* ***comparing me with/to*** *my sister.* **2** AS GOOD [I] to be as good as something else *This product* ***compares*** *well* ***with*** *more expensive brands.* **3 compared to/with sb/sth** used when saying how one person or thing is different from another *This room is very tidy compared to mine.* ➲See also: compare notes (**note¹**)
compare sb/sth to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to say that someone or something is similar to someone or something else

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***comparison***

draw/make a comparison ● a comparison **between** sth and sth ● a comparison **of** sth (with sth) ● **by/in** comparison **(with** sth)

comparison /kəmˈpærɪsᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** when you compare two or more people or things *They published a* ***comparison of*** *schools in the area.* ○ *She's so tall that he looks tiny* ***by/in comparison.*** **2 There's no comparison.** used to say that someone or something is much better than someone or something else

compartment /kəmˈpɑːtmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE one of the separate areas inside a vehicle, especially a train *The first class compartment is at the front of the train.* **2** CONTAINER a separate part of a container, bag, etc *a fridge with a small freezer compartment*

compass /ˈkʌmpəs/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment which shows you which direction you are going in

compasses /ˈkʌmpəsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* (*US* **compass** [C]) a piece of equipment which is used for drawing circles

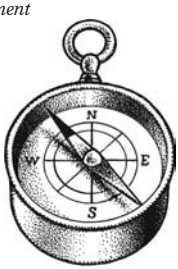

compass

compassion /kəmˈpæʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] a feeling of sympathy for people who are suffering

compassionate /kəmˈpæʃᵊnət/ *adjective* showing compassion

compatible /kəmˈpætɪbl/ *adjective* **1** EQUIPMENT compatible equipment can be used together *This keyboard is* ***compatible with*** *all of our computers.* **2** PEOPLE If people are compatible, they like each other and are happy to spend

time together. **3** IDEAS *formal* compatible ideas or situations can exist together *Such policies are not **compatible with** democratic government.* ●**compatibility** /kəmˌpætəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

compatriot /kəmˈpætriət/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** *formal* someone who comes from the same country

C

compel /kəmˈpel/ *verb* **compelling** *past* **compelled** *formal* **compel sb to do sth** to force someone to do something [**often passive**] *He felt compelled to resign from his job.*

compelling /kəmˈpelɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** EXCITING very exciting or interesting and making you want to watch, listen, etc *a compelling story* **2** TRUE If a reason, argument, etc is compelling, it makes you believe it or accept it because it is so strong. ***compelling evidence***

compensate /ˈkɒmpənseɪt/ *verb* **1** **FINANCE** [T] to pay someone money because you are responsible for injuring them or damaging something *Victims of the crash will be **compensated for** their injuries.* **2** [I, T] to reduce the bad effect of something, or make something bad become something good *Nothing will ever **compensate for** his lost childhood.*

compensation /ˌkɒmpənˈseɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [U] money that you pay to someone because you are responsible for injuring them or damaging something *Most of the workers have **won compensation for** losing their jobs.* **2** [C, U] something you get to make you feel better when you have suffered something bad *Free food was no **compensation for** a very boring evening.*

compete /kəmˈpiːt/ *verb* [I] **1** COMPETITION to take part in a race or competition *She's **competing for** a place in next year's Olympics.* **2** SUCCESS to try to be more successful than someone or something else *It's difficult for small shops to **compete with/against** the big supermarkets.*

competent /ˈkɒmpɪtˈnt/ *adjective* able to do something well *a competent swimmer/teacher* ●**competence** /ˈkɒmpɪtˈns/ *noun* [U] the ability to do something well ●**competently** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***competition***

1 enter/go in for/take part in a competition ● **hold** a competition ● **win** a competition
2 fierce/intense/stiff competition ● competition **between** sb and sb ● competition **for** sth

competition /ˌkɒmpəˈtɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** EVENT [C] an organized event in which people try to win a prize by being the best, fastest, etc *to **enter** a **competition*** **2** SITUATION [U] when someone is trying to win something or be more successful than someone else *There's a lot of **competition between** computer companies.* ○ *Applicants face stiff **competition for** university places this year.* **3 the competition** people you are competing against, especially in business

competitive /kəmˈpetɪtɪv/ *adjective* **1** SITUATION involving competition *competitive sports* ○ *a highly competitive industry* **2** PERSON wanting to win or to be more successful than other people *She's very competitive.* **3** **ECONOMICS** Competitive prices, services, etc are as good as or better than other prices, services, etc. ●**competitively** *adverb* ●**competitiveness** *noun* [U]

competitor /kəmˈpetɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person, team, or company that is competing with others

compilation /ˌkɒmpɪˈleɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] a recording, book, or film containing a collection of things from many different recordings, books, or films

compile /kəmˈpaɪl/ *verb* [T] to collect information and arrange it in a book, report, or list

compiler /kəmˈpaɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer program that changes instructions into machine language

complacent /kəmˈpleɪsˈnt/ *adjective* feeling so satisfied with your own abilities or situation that you do not feel that you need to try any harder *We can't afford to become too complacent about our work.* ●**complacency** *noun* [U] when someone is complacent ●**complacently** *adverb*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***complain***

The verbs **grumble**, **moan** and (*UK, informal*) **whinge** are sometimes used when someone is complaining about things which are not important: *She's always **grumbling** about something.* ● *He's forever **moaning** about his work.* ● *I hope you don't think I'm just **whingeing**.*

If someone, especially a child, complains in an annoying way, the verb **whine** is often used: *Stop **whining**, Tom - it's not that bad!*

The expression **kick up a fuss** is sometimes used in informal contexts, especially when someone is complaining that something has not happened in the way they wanted: *If the food doesn't come soon, I'm going to **kick up a fuss**.*

complain /kəmˈpleɪn/ *verb* [I] to say that something is wrong or that you are annoyed about something *Lots of people have **complained about** the noise.* [**+ that**] *He's always complaining that nobody listens to him.*
complain of sth *phrasal verb* to tell other people that something is making you feel ill *She's been complaining of a headache all day.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

complain about something

Be careful to choose the correct preposition after **complain**.

*I am writing to **complain about** the trip.*

~~*I am writing to complain for the trip.*~~

~~*I am writing to complain on the trip.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***complaint***

make/investigate/receive a complaint ● a complaint **about** sb/sth ● a complaint **against** sb ● a **formal/official/written** complaint ● a **letter of** complaint ● have **cause for/grounds for** complaint

complaint /kəmˈpleɪnt/ *noun* **1** NOT SATISFACTORY [C, U] when someone says that something is wrong or not satisfactory *a letter of complaint* ○ *I wish to **make a complaint**.*

2 ANNOYING THING [C] something that makes you complain *My only complaint was the lack of refreshments.* **3** ILLNESS [C] an illness *a stomach complaint*

complement¹ /ˈkɒmplɪmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** MAKE GOOD something that makes something else seem good, attractive, or complete *This wine is the perfect* ***complement to*** *the meal.* **2** TOTAL NUMBER the total amount or number of something that is needed to complete a group *Do we have* ***a full complement of*** *players for Saturday's match?* **3** **LANGUAGE** a word or phrase which comes after the verb and gives more information about the subject of the verb **4** **MATHEMATICS** the angle that, when it is added to another angle, makes a right angle (= angle of 90°)

complement² /ˈkɒmplɪment/ *verb* [T] to make something else seem good or attractive *The music complements her voice perfectly.*

complementary /ˌkɒmplɪˈmentᵊri/ *adjective* **1** Things which are complementary are good or attractive together. *complementary colours/flavours* **2** **complementary medicine/treatment, etc** **HEALTH** ways of treating medical problems which people use instead of or in addition to ordinary medicine *The clinic offers complementary therapies such as homeopathy.*

complˌementary ˈangle *noun* [C, **usually plural**] **MATHEMATICS** one of two angles which together add up to 90° ➲Compare **supplementary angle**

complete¹ /kəmˈpliːt/ *adjective* **1** WHOLE with all parts *the* ***complete works*** *of Oscar Wilde* ○ *The report comes* ***complete with*** (= including) *diagrams and colour photographs.* **2** TOTAL [**always before noun**] used to emphasize what you are saying *a complete waste of time* **3** FINISHED finished *Our report is almost complete.*

O-➡**complete²** /kəmˈpliːt/ *verb* [T] **1** FINISH to finish doing or making something *The palace took 15 years to complete.* **2** MAKE STH WHOLE to provide the last part needed to make something whole *Complete the sentence with one of the adjectives provided.* **3** WRITE to write all the details asked for on a form or other document

O-➡**completely** /kəmˈpliːtli/ *adverb* in every way or as much as possible *I completely forgot that you were coming.*

completion /kəmˈpliːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when something that you are doing or making is finished *The stadium is due for completion in 2008.* ○ *They will be paid* ***on completion of*** *the job.*

O-➡**complex¹** /ˈkɒmpleks, kəmˈpleks/ *adjective* involving a lot of different but connected parts in a way that is difficult to understand *complex details/issues* ○ *The situation is very complex.* ●**complexity** /kəmˈpleksəti/ *noun* [C, U] when something is complex *the complexities of life*

complex² /ˈkɒmpleks/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDINGS a group of buildings or rooms that are used for a particular purpose *a sports/housing complex* **2** MENTAL a mental problem which makes someone anxious or frightened about something *an* ***inferiority complex***

ˌcomplex carboˈhydrate *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** a type of carbohydrate such as starch or cellulose that is is formed of many monosaccharides (= carbohydrates formed of molecules that cannot be broken down into a simpler form)

complexion /kəmˈplekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SKIN the colour and appearance of the skin on someone's face *a clear complexion* **2** GENERAL CHARACTER the way something seems to be *This new information* ***puts a*** *completely different* ***complexion on*** *the situation.*

ˌcomplex ˈnumber *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that contains a real number and an imaginary number ➲Compare **imaginary number, real number**

compliance /kəmˈplaɪəns/ *noun* [U] *formal* when people obey an order, rule, or request *The work was done* ***in compliance with*** *planning regulations.*

compliant /kəmˈplaɪənt/ *adjective* Compliant people are willing to do what other people want them to.

complicate /ˈkɒmplɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something more difficult to deal with or understand *These new regulations just complicate matters further.*

O-➡**complicated** /ˈkɒmplɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* involving a lot of different parts, in a way that is difficult to understand *a complicated problem/process* ○ *The instructions were too complicated for me.*

complication /ˌkɒmplɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** something which makes a situation more difficult **2** **HEALTH** a new medical problem that develops when you are already ill *Eye problems can be a complication of diabetes.*

complicity /kəmˈplɪsəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* when someone is involved in doing something wrong

compliment¹ /ˈkɒmplɪmənt/ *noun* **1** [C] something that you say or do to show praise or admiration for someone *She was always* ***paying*** *him* ***compliments.*** **2** **with the compliments of sb** *formal* used by someone to express good wishes when they give you something free, for example in a restaurant *Please accept this champagne with the compliments of the manager.*

compliment² /ˈkɒmplɪment/ *verb* [T] to praise or express admiration for someone *He* ***complimented*** *me* ***on*** *my writing.*

complimentary /ˌkɒmplɪˈmentᵊri/ *adjective* **1** PRAISING praising or expressing admiration for someone *a complimentary report* **2** FREE given free, especially by a business *a complimentary glass of wine*

comply /kəmˈplaɪ/ *verb* [I] to obey an order, rule, or request *The pilot* ***complied with*** *instructions to descend.*

component /kəmˈpəʊnənt/ *noun* [C] one of the parts of something, especially a machine

compose /kəmˈpəʊz/ *verb* **1** [T] to be the parts that something consists of [**often passive**] *The committee* ***was composed of*** *elected leaders and citizens.* **2** **MUSIC** [I, T] to write a piece of music **3** **compose yourself** to make yourself calm again after being angry or upset **4** **LANGUAGE** [T] to write a speech, letter, etc,

thinking carefully about the words to use *Laura was composing a letter of sympathy.*

composed /kəmˈpəʊzd/ *adjective* calm and in control of your emotions

composer /kəmˈpəʊzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who writes music

composite /ˈkɒmpəzɪt/ *adjective* consisting of several different parts *a composite image of the killer*

composition /ˌkɒmpəˈzɪʃˢn/ *noun* **1** PARTS [U] the parts, substances, etc that something consists of *the composition of the atmosphere* **2** **MUSIC** [C] a piece of music that someone has written **3** **MUSIC** [U] the process or skill of writing music *He taught composition at Yale.* **4** **EDUCATION** [C, U] a short piece of writing about a particular subject, done by a student **5** **ART** [U] the way that people or things are arranged in a painting or photograph

compost /ˈkɒmpɒst/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** a mixture of decayed leaves and plants that is added to the soil to improve its quality *a **compost heap***

composure /kəmˈpəʊʒəʳ/ *noun* [U] when you feel or look calm and confident *to **keep/lose your composure***

compound¹ /ˈkɒmpaʊnd/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** a substance that is a combination of two or more elements *Water is a compound of hydrogen and oxygen.* **2** an area of land with a group of buildings surrounded by a fence or wall *a prison compound* **3** **LANGUAGE** (*also* **compound noun/verb/adjective**) a noun, verb, or adjective that is made by two or more words used together. For example, 'golf club' is a compound.

compound² /kəmˈpaʊnd/ *verb* [T] to make a problem or difficult situation worse *Severe drought has compounded food shortages in the region.*

ˌcompound ˈeye *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of eye that some insects have, made of many separate parts ➲Compare **simple eye**

ˈcompound ˌleaf *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of leaf which is formed from a number of smaller leaves all joined to one stem ➲Compare **simple leaf**

compère /ˈkɒmpeəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone whose job is to introduce performers on television, radio, or in a theatre

comprehend /ˌkɒmprɪˈhend/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to understand *I was too young to comprehend what was happening.*

comprehensible /ˌkɒmprɪˈhensəbl/ *adjective* easy to understand *Computer manuals should be easily comprehensible.*

comprehension /ˌkɒmprɪˈhenʃˢn/ *noun* **1** [U] the ability to understand something *It's **beyond my comprehension*** (= I can't understand) *how anyone could be so cruel.* **2** **EDUCATION** [C, U] *UK* a test to see how well students understand written or spoken language *a reading comprehension*

comprehensive¹ /ˌkɒmprɪˈhensɪv/ *adjective* including everything *a comprehensive study of the subject* ●**comprehensively** *adverb* completely *We were comprehensively beaten in the finals.*

comprehensive² /ˌkɒmprɪˈhensɪv/ (*also* **compreˈhensive ˌschool**) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a school in Britain for students aged 11 to 18 of all levels of ability

compress /kəmˈpres/ *verb* [T] **1** to make something smaller, especially by pressing it, so that it uses less space or time *compressed air* ○ *The course **compresses** two years' training **into** six months.* **2** **COMPUTING** to use a special program to make information on a computer use less space ●**compression** /kəmˈpreʃˢn/ *noun* [U]

comˈpression ˌmoulding *noun* [U] **DT** a method of making plastic shapes by pressing plastic between two shapes and heating it

comprise /kəmˈpraɪz/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** CONSIST to consist of particular parts or members *The orchestra **was comprised of** amateur and professional musicians.* **2** FORM to form part of something, especially a larger group *Women comprise 15% of the police force.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***compromise***

accept/come to/find/reach a compromise ● a compromise **between** sth and sth ● a compromise **on** sth ● a compromise **agreement/deal/solution**

compromise¹ /ˈkɒmprəmaɪz/ *noun* [C, U] when you agree to something which is not exactly what you want *We need to **reach a compromise** over this issue.* ○ *Decorating is usually a **compromise between** taste and cost.*

compromise² /ˈkɒmprəmaɪz/ *verb* **1** AGREE [I] to agree to something that is not exactly what you want *The president may be willing to compromise in order to pass the bill.* ○ *I never **compromise on** fresh ingredients.* **2** **compromise yourself** to do something dishonest or embarrassing that makes people stop admiring you **3** BELIEFS [T] to do something that does not agree with what you believe in *I refuse to compromise my principles.* **4** HARM [T] *formal* to have a harmful effect on something *The trial has been seriously compromised by sensational media coverage.*

compromising /ˈkɒmprəmaɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* A compromising situation, photograph, etc makes people think you have done something wrong. *The press printed compromising photographs of the princess and her bodyguard.*

compulsion /kəmˈpʌlʃˢn/ *noun* **1** WISH [C] a strong wish to do something, often something that you should not do **2** FORCING [U] when you are forced to do something *We were **under no compulsion** to attend.*

compulsive /kəmˈpʌlsɪv/ *adjective* **1** HABIT A compulsive habit is something that you do a lot because you want to so much that you cannot control yourself. *a compulsive eating disorder* **2** **a compulsive eater/gambler/liar, etc** someone who is unable to stop eating, lying, etc, despite knowing that they should stop **3** INTERESTING so interesting or exciting that you cannot stop reading, playing, or watching it *This documentary about life in prison makes **compulsive viewing**.* ●**compulsively** *adverb*

compulsory /kəmˈpʌlsᵊri/ *adjective* If something is compulsory, you must do it because of a rule or law.

computer

computer /kəmˈpjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** an electronic machine that can store and arrange large amounts of information *We've put all our records* ***on computer****.* ○ *computer software* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

comˌputer aided deˈsign ➲See: **CAD**

comˌputer-aided ˈlearning (*also* **computer-assisted learning**) *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** the use of computers for teaching and learning

comˌputer-aided manuˈfacture ➲See: **CAM**

computerize (*also UK* **-ise**) /kəmˈpjuːtᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to use a computer to do something that was done by people or other machines before *a computerized accounts system* ●**computerization** /kəmˌpjuːtᵊraɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

comˌputer ˈliterate *adjective* **COMPUTING** able to understand and use computer systems

comˌputer ˈscience *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the study of computers and how they can be used

computing /kəmˈpjuːtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the study or use of computers *a degree in computing*

comrade /ˈkɒmreɪd/ (US) /ˈkɑːmræd/ *noun* [C] **1** FRIEND *literary* a friend, especially someone who fights with you in a war **2** TITLE a word used by some members of trade unions (= organizations which represent people who do a particular job) or other Socialist organizations to talk to or about each other

comradeship /ˈkɒmreɪdʃɪp/ *noun* [U] the feeling of friendship between people who live or work together, especially in a difficult situation

con¹ /kɒn/ *verb* [T] **conning,** *past* **conned** *informal* to trick someone, especially in order to take money from them *Thieves* ***conned him out of*** *his life savings.* ○ *She felt she had been* ***conned into*** *buying the car.*

con² /kɒn/ *noun* [C] *informal* a trick to get someone's money, or make them do what you want

ˈconˌartist *noun* [C] someone who tricks people into giving them money or valuable things

concave /ˈkɒnkeɪv/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** A concave surface curves inwards. *a concave lens*

conceal /kənˈsiːl/ *verb* [T] to hide something *The listening device was concealed in a pen.* ○ *She could barely conceal her irritation.* ●**concealment** *noun* [U] when something is hidden

concede /kənˈsiːd/ *verb* **1** ADMIT [T] to admit that something is true, even though you do not want to [+ **(that)**] *Even the company chairman concedes that the results are disappointing.* **2** GIVE [I, T] to allow someone to have something, even though you do not want to *The government will not* ***concede to*** *rebel demands.* **3 concede defeat** to admit that you have lost a fight, argument, game, etc

conceit /kənˈsiːt/ *noun* [U] when you are too proud of yourself and your actions

conceited /kənˈsiːtɪd/ *adjective* too proud of yourself and your actions ●**conceitedly** *adverb*

conceivable /kənˈsiːvəbl/ *adjective* possible to imagine or to believe *every conceivable kind of fruit* [+ **(that)**] *It is just conceivable that the hospital made a mistake.* ●**conceivably** *adverb*

conceive /kənˈsiːv/ *verb* **1** **BIOLOGY** [I, T] to become pregnant **2** IMAGINE [I, T] to be able to imagine something *I cannot* ***conceive of*** *anything more horrible.* **3** IDEA [T] to think of an idea or plan *The original idea for the novel was conceived in Rome.*

concentrate¹ /ˈkɒnsᵊntreɪt/ *verb* **1** [I] to think very carefully about something you are doing and nothing else *Be quiet - I'm trying to concentrate.* ○ *I can't* ***concentrate on*** *my work. It's too noisy here.* **2 be concentrated around/in/on, etc** to be present in large numbers or amounts in a particular area *Most of the fighting was concentrated in the mountains.*
concentrate on sth *phrasal verb* to use most of your time and effort to do something *She gave up her job to concentrate on writing a novel.*

concentrate² /ˈkɒnsᵊntreɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a substance that is strong because it has had water or other substances taken out of it

concentrated /ˈkɒnsəntreɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** DETERMINED [**always before noun**] using a lot of effort to succeed at one particular thing *a* ***concentrated effort*** *to finish the work* **2** LIQUID A concentrated liquid has had most of the water removed. *concentrated tomato puree* ➲See picture at **diffusion**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***concentration***

sth **demands/needs/requires** concentration ● **lose** concentration ● a **lapse in/of** concentration ● your **powers of** concentration

concentration /ˌkɒnsᵊnˈtreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** THINKING CAREFULLY [U] the ability to think carefully about something you are doing and nothing else **2** LARGE AMOUNT [C, U] a large number or amount of something in the same place ***high concentrations*** *of minerals* **3** [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** the amount of a substance in a liquid or other substance

concen'tration ˌcamp *noun* [C] a prison where large numbers of people are kept in very bad conditions, especially for political reasons

concentric /kənˈsentrɪk/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** Concentric circles have the same centre but are different sizes.

C

concept /ˈkɒnsept/ *noun* [C] an idea or principle *the concept of free speech*

conception /kənˈsepʃˈn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] an idea about what something is like or a way of understanding something **2** **BIOLOGY** [U] when a woman or animal becomes pregnant

conceptual /kənˈseptʃuəl/ *adjective formal* based on ideas *a conceptual model*

concern¹ /kənˈsɜːn/ *verb* [T] **1** INVOLVE to involve someone or be important to them *Environmental issues concern us all.* **2** WORRY to worry or upset someone *What really concerns me is her lack of experience.* **3** BE ABOUT If a story, film, etc concerns a particular subject, it is about that subject. **4 concern yourself** to become involved with doing something *You needn't concern yourself with the travel arrangements.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***concern***

cause concern ● **express/raise/voice** concern ● **grave/serious** concern ● concerns **about/over** sth ● a **matter of** concern ● a **cause for** concern

concern² /kənˈsɜːn/ *noun* **1** WORRY [C, U] a feeling of worry about something, or the thing that is worrying you *I have **concerns about** his health.* **2** IMPORTANT THING [C, U] something that involves or affects you or is important to you *Our primary concern is safety.* **3** BUSINESS [C] a company or business *The perfume factory was a family concern.*

concerned /kənˈsɜːnd/ *adjective* **1** WORRIED worried [**+ that**] *I am very concerned that class sizes seem to be growing.* ○ *People are becoming more **concerned about** what they eat.* ➲Opposite **unconcerned** **2** AFFECTED [**never before noun**] involved in something or affected by it *A letter will be sent out to everyone concerned.* **3 as far as sb is concerned** used to show what someone thinks about something *As far as our customers are concerned, price is the main consideration.* **4 as far as sth is concerned** used to tell someone what you are talking about *As far as college is concerned, everything is fine.*

concerning /kənˈsɜːnɪŋ/ *preposition* about something *I've had a letter concerning my tax payments.*

concert /ˈkɒnsət/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a performance of music and singing *a pop concert*

concerted /kənˈsɜːrtɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] done with a lot of effort, often by a group of people working together *Iceland has made **a concerted effort** to boost tourism.*

concerto /kənˈtʃeətəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of music for one main instrument and an orchestra (= large group of musicians) *a piano concerto*

concession /kənˈseʃˈn/ *noun* **1** AGREEMENT [C, U] something that you agree to do or give to someone in order to end an argument *Both sides will have to **make concessions**.* **2** BUSINESS [C] a special right to use buildings or land or to sell a product in a particular area, or the place where that business takes place *a concession to develop oil fields in the north* **3 FINANCE** [C] *UK* a reduction in the price of a ticket for a particular group of people such as students, people without a job, or old people

conch /kɒntʃ/ *noun* [C] a large spiral (= with a curve turning round into the centre) shell, or the sea animal that lives in it

conciliation /kənˌsɪliˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] *formal* the process of trying to end an argument

conciliatory /kənˈsɪliətˈri/ *adjective formal* If people behave in a conciliatory manner, they try to make people stop being angry with them. *a conciliatory approach*

concise /kənˈsaɪs/ *adjective* **1** FEW WORDS giving a lot of information clearly in a few words **2** BOOK A concise book is small. *a concise history of France* ●**concisely** *adverb* ●**conciseness** *noun* [U]

conclude /kənˈkluːd/ *verb* **1** END [I, T] *formal* to end something such as a meeting, speech, or piece of writing by doing or saying one last thing *The concert **concluded with** a firework display.* ○ *I would like to **conclude by** thanking you all for attending.* **2** DECIDE [T] to decide something after studying all the information about it very carefully [**+ that**] *The report concluded that the drug was safe.* **3** COMPLETE [T] to complete something, especially an agreement or a business arrangement *talks aimed at concluding the peace treaty*

concluding /kənˈkluːdɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] last in a series of things *Don't miss tonight's **concluding episode**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***conclusion***

draw/reach a conclusion ● **come to** the conclusion that ● sth **leads** you **to** the conclusion **that**

conclusion /kənˈkluːʒˈn/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C] the opinion you have after considering all the information about something *I've **come to the conclusion that** we'll have to sell the car.* **2** END [C] the final part of something *the dramatic conclusion of the film* ○ *The case should finally **be brought to a conclusion*** (= end) *this week.* **3 in conclusion** used to introduce the last part of a speech or piece of writing *In conclusion, I would like to thank our guest speaker.* **4** ARRANGEMENT [U] when something is arranged or agreed formally *the conclusion of peace talks* **5 jump to conclusions** to guess the facts about a situation without having enough information ➲See also: **foregone conclusion**

conclusive /kənˈkluːsɪv/ *adjective* proving that something is true ***conclusive evidence/proof*** ●**conclusively** *adverb Tests have **proved conclusively** that the drugs are effective.*

concoct /kənˈkɒkt/ *verb* [T] **1** INVENT to invent a story or explanation in order to deceive someone *He had concocted a web of lies.* **2** MIX to make something unusual, especially food, by mixing things together ●**concoction** /kənˈkɒkʃˈn/ *noun* [C] *a concoction of meringue, ice cream, and fresh strawberries*

concourse /ˈkɒŋkɔːs/ *noun* [C] a large room or open area inside a building such as an airport or station

concrete¹ /ˈkɒŋkriːt/ *noun* [U] a hard substance that is used in building and is made by mixing sand, water, small stones, and cement (= grey powder that is mixed with water and becomes hard when it dries) *concrete blocks*

concrete² /ˈkɒŋkriːt/ *adjective* **1** CERTAIN certain or based on facts ***concrete evidence/proof*** **2** REAL existing in a real form that can be seen or felt *concrete achievements/actions* ○ *concrete objects*

concrete³ /ˈkɒŋkriːt/ *verb* [T] *UK* to cover something with concrete

concur /kənˈkɜːr/ *verb* [I] **concurring**, *past* **concurred** *formal* to agree *The new report* ***concurs with*** *previous findings.*

concurrent /kənˈkʌrᵊnt/ *adjective* happening or existing at the same time *three concurrent prison sentences* ●**concurrently** *adverb*

concussed /kənˈkʌst/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **HEALTH** If someone is concussed, they are suffering from concussion.

concussion /kənˈkʌʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a slight injury to the brain that is caused by being hit on the head and makes you feel tired or sick

condemn /kənˈdem/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT APPROVE to say very strongly that you think something is wrong or very bad *The Prime Minister was quick to condemn the terrorists.* **2** BUILDING to say that a building must be destroyed because it is not safe enough for people to use
condemn sb to sth *phrasal verb* **1** PUNISHMENT to say what the punishment of someone who is guilty of a serious crime will be *He was* ***condemned to death.*** **2** MAKE SUFFER to make someone suffer in a particular way *Poor education condemns many young people to low-paid jobs.*

condemnation /ˌkɒndemˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when you say very strongly that you think something is wrong or very bad *widespread condemnation of the war*

condensation /ˌkɒndenˈseɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** small drops of water that form when warm air touches a cold surface ➲See picture at **water cycle**

condense /kənˈdens/ *verb* **1** **PHYSICS** [I, T] If hot air or a gas condenses, it changes into a liquid as it becomes colder. **2** [T] to make something such as a speech or piece of writing shorter *You need to* ***condense*** *your conclusion* ***into*** *a single paragraph.* **3** [T] to make a liquid thicker by taking some of the water out of it *condensed milk*

condenser /kənˈdensəʳ/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY, PHYSICS** a piece of equipment that changes gases to their liquid or solid form ➲See picture at **distillation** ➲See picture at **laboratory**

condescend /ˌkɒndɪˈsend/ *verb* **condescend to do sth** *humorous* to agree to do something even though you think you are too important to do it
condescend to sb *phrasal verb* to treat someone as though you are better or more important than them

condescending /ˌkɒndɪˈsendɪŋ/ *adjective* showing that you think that you are better or more important than someone else *a condescending smile* ●**condescendingly** *adverb*

condescension /ˌkɒndɪˈsenʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you behave as though you are better or more important than someone else

O-K **condition¹** /kənˈdɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** STATE [**U, no plural**] the state that something or someone is in *My bike's a few years old but it's* ***in*** *really* ***good condition.*** ○ *He's* ***in no condition*** (= not well enough) *to travel.* **2** AGREEMENT [C] something that must happen or be agreed before something else can happen *One of the conditions of the contract is that we can't keep pets.* **3 on condition that** only if *Visitors are allowed in the gardens on condition that they don't touch the plants.* **4** **HEALTH** [C] an illness *a serious heart condition* **5 conditions** the physical situation that people are in ***working/living conditions*** ○ *severe* ***weather conditions***

condition² /kənˈdɪʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] **1** INFLUENCE to make a person or animal behave in a particular way by influencing the way they think [**often passive + to do sth**] *The boys were conditioned to be aggressive.* **2** HAIR to put a special liquid on your hair to make it soft and healthy

conditional /kənˈdɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** If an offer or agreement is conditional, it will only happen if something else is done first. *Their fee is* ***conditional on*** *the work being completed by January.* ➲Opposite **unconditional** **2** **LANGUAGE** A conditional sentence usually begins with 'if' and says that something must be true or happen before something else can be true or happen.

conditioner /kənˈdɪʃᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a liquid that you use when you wash your hair to make it soft

conditioning /kənˈdɪʃᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when a person or animal is made to behave in a particular way *social/physical conditioning* ➲See also: **air conditioning**

condo /ˈkɒndəʊ/ *noun* [C] *US informal short for* condominium

condolence /kənˈdəʊləns/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* sympathy for the family or friends of a person who has recently died *Please* ***offer my condolences*** *to your father.*

condom /ˈkɒndɒm/ (US) /ˈkɑːndəm/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a thin rubber covering that a man wears on his penis during sex to stop a woman becoming pregnant, or to protect against diseases

condominium /ˌkɒndəˈmɪniəm/ *noun* [C] *US* a building containing apartments which are owned by the people living in them, or one of these apartments

condone /kənˈdəʊn/ *verb* [T] to accept or allow behaviour that is wrong *His comments appeared to condone drug abuse.*

conducive /kənˈdjuːsɪv/ *adjective* making something possible or likely to happen *Such a noisy environment was not* ***conducive to*** *a good night's sleep.*

conduct¹ /ˈkɒndʌkt/ *noun* **1** [U] the way someone behaves *a code of conduct* (= rules about

how to behave) **2 conduct of sth** the way someone organizes or does something *He was criticized for his conduct of the inquiry.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***conduct***

conduct an **experiment**/ an **interview**/ an **inquiry**/ an **investigation/research**/ a **survey**

C

conduct² /kənˈdʌkt/ *verb* **1** DO [T] to organize or do something *They're **conducting a survey**.* **2** MUSIC [I, T] to stand in front of a group of musicians and control their performance **3** PHYSICS [T] If a substance conducts electricity or heat, it allows electricity or heat to go through it. **4 conduct yourself** to behave in a particular way *She conducted herself with great dignity.* **5** LEAD [T] *formal* to lead someone to a place *I was conducted to a side room.*

conduction /kənˈdʌkʃən/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the process by which heat or electricity goes through a substance

conductive /kənˈdʌktɪv/ *adjective* PHYSICS A conductive substance allows heat or electricity to go through it. ●**conductivity** /ˌkɒndʌkˈtɪvɪti/ *noun* [U] *a high level of conductivity*

conductor /kənˈdʌktəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MUSIC someone who stands in front of a group of musicians or singers and controls their performance **2** BUS *UK* someone whose job is to sell or check tickets on a bus, train, etc **3** TRAIN *US* (*UK* **guard**) someone whose job is to be responsible for a train and the people who work on it **4** PHYSICS a substance that allows electricity or heat to go through it

cone /kəʊn/ *noun* [C] **1** MATHEMATICS a solid shape with a round or oval base which narrows to a point, or an object which has this shape *a row of **traffic cones*** **2** FOOD a container for ice cream (= sweet, frozen food) that you can eat

confectionery /kənˈfekʃᵊnᵊri/ *noun* [U] *mainly UK* FOOD sweet food like sweets and chocolate

confederacy /kənˈfedᵊrəsi/ (*also* **confederation** /kənˌfedəˈreɪʃᵊn/) *noun* [C] POLITICS an organization of smaller groups who have joined together for business or political purposes

confer /kənˈfɜːʳ/ *verb* **conferring,** *past* **conferred** **1** DISCUSS [I] to discuss something with other people before making a decision *I'll need to **confer with** my lawyers.* **2** GIVE [T] *formal* to give someone something, especially an official title, an honour, or an advantage

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***conference***

attend/hold a conference ● a conference **on** sth ● **at** a conference ● a conference **centre** ● a **sales** conference

conference /ˈkɒnfᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [C] **1** LARGE MEETING a large, formal meeting, often lasting a few days, where people discuss their work, politics, subjects they are studying, etc *the annual **sales conference*** **2** SMALL MEETING a small, private meeting for discussion of a particular subject ➲See also: **press conference**

ˈconference ˌcall *noun* [C] a telephone call between three or more people in different places

confess /kənˈfes/ *verb* [I, T] **1** to admit that you have done something wrong or something that you feel guilty about [**+ to + doing sth**] *The man has confessed to stealing the painting.* ○ *Rawlinson finally **confessed to** the murder.* **2** RELIGION to tell a priest or God about all the wrong things that you have done

confession /kənˈfeʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** LAW when you admit that you have done something wrong or illegal *Sutcliffe has **made** a full **confession** to the police.* **2** RELIGION when someone tells a priest all the wrong things they have done *to go to confession*

confetti /kənˈfeti/ *noun* [U] small pieces of coloured paper that you throw when celebrating something such as a marriage

confidant, confidante /ˈkɒnfɪdænt/ *noun* [C] a person you can talk to about your feelings and secrets

confide /kənˈfaɪd/ *verb* [I, T] to tell a secret to someone who you trust not to tell anyone else [**+ that**] *Holly **confided to** me that she was ill.*
confide in sb *phrasal verb* to tell someone who you trust about things that are secret or personal

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***confidence***

1 grow in/lack/lose confidence ● sth **gives** you confidence ● do sth **with** confidence ● a **lack of** confidence
2 express/lose/restore confidence (in sth) ● **have (complete/every/little/no)** confidence in sb/sth ● **consumer/public** confidence ● confidence **in** sth

confidence /ˈkɒnfɪdᵊns/ *noun* **1** ABILITY [U] when you are certain of your ability to do things well *He's a good student, but he **lacks confidence**.* [**+ to do sth**] *His training has **given** him the **confidence** to deal with any problem that arises.* **2** TRUST [U] trusting someone's ability or believing that something will produce good results *Kate's new to the job, but I've got **every confidence in** her.* **3** SECRET [C] something secret that you tell someone *to exchange confidences* **4 in confidence** If you tell something to someone in confidence, you do not want them to tell anyone else.

confident /ˈkɒnfɪdᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** ABILITY certain about your ability to do things well *a confident grin* ○ *He feels **confident of** winning.* **2** CERTAIN being certain that something will happen [**+ (that)**] *Doctors are confident that she'll recover.* ●**confidently** *adverb* ➲See also: **self-confident**

confidential /ˌkɒnfɪˈdenʃᵊl/ *adjective* secret, especially in an official situation *These documents are **strictly confidential**.* ●**confidentially** *adverb* ●**confidentiality** /ˌkɒnfɪdenʃiˈæləti/ *noun* [U]

confine /kənˈfaɪn/ *verb* [T] to prevent someone from leaving a place or to prevent something from spreading [**often passive**] *He was **confined to** a prison cell for several days.*
be confined to sth/sb *phrasal verb* to only exist in a particular area or group of people *The flooding was confined to the basement.*
confine sb/sth to sth *phrasal verb* to limit an activity *Please confine your discussion to the topic.*

confined /kən'faɪnd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A confined space is very small.

confinement /kən'faɪnmənt/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is kept in a room or area, usually by force ➲See also: **solitary confinement**

confines /'kɒnfaɪnz/ *noun* [**plural**] the outer limits or edges of something

confirm /kən'fɜːm/ *verb* [**T**] **1** TRUE to say or show that something is true [**+ (that)**] *His wife confirmed that he'd left the house at 8.* **2** CERTAIN to make an arrangement certain *Flights should be confirmed 48 hours before departure.* **3 be confirmed** RELIGION to become a member of the Christian Church at a special ceremony

confirmation /ˌkɒnfəˈmeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** an announcement or proof that something is true or certain *You'll receive **written confirmation of** your reservation within five days.* **2** RELIGION a special ceremony in which someone becomes a full member of the Christian Church

confirmed /kən'fɜːmd/ *adjective* **a confirmed atheist/bachelor/pessimist, etc** someone who has behaved in a particular way for a long time and is not likely to change

confiscate /'kɒnfɪskeɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to take something away from someone, especially as a punishment ●**confiscation** /ˌkɒnfɪ'skeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***conflict***

resolve a conflict ● **be in/come into** conflict with sb ● a conflict **between** sb and sb ● a conflict **over** sth ● an **area of/source of** conflict

conflict¹ /'kɒnflɪkt/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** DISAGREEMENT serious disagreement *The Government was **in conflict with** the unions over pay.* ○ *The peasants often **came into conflict with** the landowners.* **2** FIGHTING fighting between groups or countries ***armed conflict*** **3** DIFFERENCE when two or more different things cannot easily exist together *the conflict between science and religion* **4 a conflict of interest** a situation where someone cannot make fair decisions because they are influenced by something

conflict² /kən'flɪkt/ *verb* [**I**] If things such as beliefs, needs, or facts conflict, they are very different and cannot easily exist together or both be true. *Her views on raising children **conflict with** mine.* ○ *There were **conflicting accounts** of how the fight started.*

conflicted /kən'flɪktɪd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] confused because you have two feelings or opinions about something that are opposite

confluence /'kɒnfluːəns/ *noun* [**C**] GEOGRAPHY the place where two rivers flow together and become one larger river

conform /kən'fɔːm/ *verb* [**I**] to behave in the way that most other people behave
conform to/with sth *phrasal verb* to obey a rule or to do things in a traditional way *All our toys conform with safety standards.*

conformity /kən'fɔːməti/ *noun* [**U**] **1** behaving in the way that most other people behave **2 conformity to/with sth** *formal* following rules or traditional ways of doing things

confound /kən'faʊnd/ *verb* [**T**] If something confounds someone, it makes them surprised and confused, because they cannot explain it. *The growth in the economy continues to confound the experts.*

confront /kən'frʌnt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ACCUSE to tell someone something, or show them something to try to make them admit they have done something wrong ***Confronted with** the evidence, she broke down and confessed.* **2 be confronted by/with sth** to be in a difficult situation, or to be shown something which may cause difficulties *We are confronted by the possibility of war.* **3** FRIGHTEN to stand in front of someone in a frightening way *He was confronted by two masked men.* **4** DEAL WITH to see that a problem exists and try to deal with it *First, they must confront their addiction.*

confrontation /ˌkɒnfrʌn'teɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C, U**] a fight or argument

confrontational /ˌkɒnfrʌn'teɪʃˈnəˈl/ *adjective* intentionally causing fighting or an argument *a confrontational style of management*

O-key **confuse** /kən'fjuːz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** NOT UNDERSTAND to make someone unable to think clearly or understand something *These advertisements simply confused the public.* **2** THINK SIMILAR to think that one person or thing is another person or thing *I don't see how anyone could **confuse** me **with** my mother!*

O-key **confused** /kən'fjuːzd/ *adjective* **1** UNCERTAIN unable to think clearly or to understand something *Sorry, I'm completely confused.* ○ *The politicians themselves are **confused about** what to do.* **2** NOT CLEAR not clear *The witnesses gave confused accounts of what happened.*

confusing /kən'fjuːzɪŋ/ *adjective* difficult to understand *I found the instructions very confusing.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***confusion***

sth **causes/creates/leads to** confusion ● confusion **surrounds** sth ● do sth **in** confusion ● **widespread** confusion ● confusion **about/over** sth

O-key **confusion** /kən'fjuːʒˈn/ *noun* **1** NOT UNDERSTAND [**C, U**] when people do not understand what is happening or what they should do *There was a lot of **confusion about** what was actually going on.* **2** THOUGHT [**U**] a feeling of not being able to think clearly *He could see the confusion on Marion's face.* **3** BETWEEN SIMILAR THINGS [**U**] when you think that one person or thing is another **4** SITUATION [**U**] a situation which is confusing because there is a lot of noise and activity *In the confusion, several prisoners tried to escape.*

congeal /kən'dʒiːl/ *verb* [**I**] If a liquid congeals, it becomes thick and almost solid. *congealed fat*

congenial /kən'dʒiːniəl/ *adjective formal* pleasant and friendly *congenial company*

congenital /kən'dʒenɪtˈl/ *adjective* HEALTH Congenital diseases or problems are ones that people have from when they are born. *congenital heart defects*

C

congested /kən'dʒestɪd/ *adjective* full or blocked, especially with traffic *The roads are very congested.*

congestion /kən'dʒestʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U] when something is full or blocked, especially with traffic *traffic congestion*

conglomerate /kən'glɒmᵊrət/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS a large company that is made up of several smaller companies

con,glomerate 'merger (*also* **diversifying merger**) *noun* [C] ECONOMICS when two companies that have completely different types of business join together

congratulate /kən'grætʃʊleɪt/ *verb* [T] to tell someone that you are happy because they have done something good or something good has happened to them *Did you **congratulate** Cathy **on** her engagement?*

congratulations /kən,grætʃʊ'leɪʃ^{ə}nz/ *exclamation* something that you say when you want to congratulate someone ***Congratulations on** doing an outstanding job.* ○ *I hear you're getting married. Congratulations!*

congregate /'kɒŋgrɪgeɪt/ *verb* [I] to come together in a group *Young people congregated on street corners.*

congregation /,kɒŋgrɪ'geɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [group] RELIGION a group of people meeting to worship in church

congress /'kɒŋgres/ *noun* **1** [C] a large meeting of the members of one or more organizations *an international congress on art history* **2 Congress** POLITICS the group of people who make laws in the United States. Congress consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives.

congressional /kən'greʃ^{ə}nᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] POLITICS relating to the United States Congress *a congressional committee*

congressman, congresswoman /'kɒŋgresmən, 'kɒŋgres,wʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **congressmen, congresswomen** POLITICS a man or woman who is a member of the United States Congress

congruent /'kɒŋgruənt/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS congruent shapes have the same size and shape as another shape ●**congruence** /'kɒŋgruənts/ *noun* [U]

conical /'kɒnɪkᵊl/ *adjective* Conical objects have a wide, round base, sloping sides and a pointed top.

,conical 'flask *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a glass container with a flat base, a wide rounded body and a long neck, used by scientists ➲See picture at **laboratory**

conifer /'kɒnɪfə^{r}/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a tree with cones (= hard, brown, oval objects) and thin green leaves that stay green all winter ●**coniferous** /kə'nɪfərəs/ *adjective a coniferous forest*

conjecture /kən'dʒektʃə^{r}/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* guessing about something without real evidence *Exactly what happened that night is still **a matter for conjecture**.* ●**conjecture** *verb* [I, T] *formal* [+ **(that)**] Some people conjectured that it was an attempt to save money.

conjugal /'kɒndʒʊgᵊl/ *adjective formal* relating to marriage

conjugate /'kɒndʒʊgeɪt/ *verb* [T] LANGUAGE to add different endings to a verb in order to produce all its different forms ●**conjugation** /,kɒndʒʊ'geɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [C, U]

conjunction /kən'dʒʌŋkʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [C] A word that is used to connect phrases or parts of a sentence. For example the words 'and', 'because', and 'although' are conjunctions. **2 in conjunction with sth/sb** working, used, or happening with something or someone else

conjunctiva /,kɒndʒʌŋk'taɪvə/ *noun* [C usually singular] ANATOMY the transparent layer of mucous membrane that covers the inside of the eyelid and the front surface of the eye

conjure /'kʌndʒə^{r}/ *verb*
conjure sth up *phrasal verb* **1** PICTURE to make a picture or idea appear in someone's mind *Familiar tunes can help us conjure up memories of the past.* **2** MAKE to make something in a quick and clever way, especially food

conjurer /'kʌndʒərə^{r}/ *noun* [C] *another spelling of* conjuror

conjuring /'kʌndʒərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] performing magic to entertain people *a **conjuring trick***

conjuror /'kʌndʒərə^{r}/ *noun* [C] a person who performs magic to entertain people

conker /'kɒŋkə^{r}/ *noun* [C] the shiny brown poisonous nut of a large tree, used by children for playing a game

conman /'kɒnmæn/ *noun* [C] a man who tricks people into giving him money or valuable things

O-key **connect** /kə'nekt/ *verb* **1** JOIN [I, T] to join two things or places together *Ferries **connect** the mainland **with** the islands.* ○ ***Connect up** the printer **to** your computer.* **2** INVOLVE [T] to see or show that two or more people or things are involved with each other *There is no evidence to **connect** him **with** the crime.* **3** TRAVEL [I] If buses, trains, aircraft, etc connect, they arrive at a particular time so that passengers can get off one and onto another. *Can you get me a **connecting flight**?* **4** TELEPHONE [T] to make it possible for two people to talk to each other on the telephone ➲Opposite **disconnect**

connected /kə'nektɪd/ *adjective* **1** RELATIONSHIP If people or things are connected, there is a relationship between them. *The hospital is **connected to** the University of Rochester.* ○ *He remained closely **connected with** the museum until his death.* ➲Opposite **unconnected** **2** JOINED If two things are connected, they are joined together. *The Red Sea is **connected to** the Mediterranean by the Suez Canal.* ➲Opposite **disconnected** ➲See also: **well-connected**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***connection***

have a/no connection with sb/sth ● a **close/direct** connection ● a connection **between** sth and sth ● a connection **with** sth

O-key **connection** /kə'nekʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** RELATIONSHIP [C, U] a relationship between people or things *The **connection between** smoking and heart disease is well known.* ○ *He denied having any **connection with** the terrorists.* **2** JOINING THINGS [C, U] something that joins things together *Many companies now offer free **connection to***

the Internet. **3** TRAVEL [**C**] a train, bus, or aircraft that leaves a short time after another arrives, so that people can continue their journey *The train was half an hour late and I* ***missed my connection.*** **4 in connection with** used to say what something is about *A man has been arrested in connection with the murder.*

connections /kəˈnekʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] important or powerful people who you know and who will help you *He has connections in Washington.*

connective tissue /kəˌnektɪvˈtɪʃuː/ *noun* [**U**] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY the strong material in the body that supports and connect the organs in the body and is also found in the joints (= places where two bones are connected)

connectivity /ˌkɒnekˈtɪvɪti/ *noun* [**U**] COMPUTING the ability of a computer, program, device or system to connect with one or more others

connive /kəˈnaɪv/ *verb* [**I**] to work secretly to do something wrong or illegal, or to allow something wrong or illegal to happen *They accused the government of* ***conniving in*** *drug smuggling.*

connoisseur /ˌkɒnəˈsɜːʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who knows a lot about and enjoys good food, wine, art, etc

connotation /ˌkɒnəˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] LANGUAGE the feelings or ideas that words give in addition to their meanings *The word 'second-hand' has connotations of poor quality.*

conquer /ˈkɒŋkəʳ/ *verb* **1** LAND/PEOPLE [**I, T**] to take control of a country or to defeat people by war *Peru was conquered by the Spanish in 1532.* **2** PROBLEM [**T**] to succeed in stopping or dealing with a bad feeling or a difficult problem *He has finally conquered his fear of spiders.*

conqueror /ˈkɒŋkᵊrəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who has conquered a country or its people

conquest /ˈkɒŋkwest/ *noun* [**C, U**] when someone takes control of a country, area, or situation *the Roman conquest of Britain*

conscience /ˈkɒnʃᵊns/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] the part of you that makes you feel guilty when you have behaved badly *a guilty conscience* ○ *My* ***conscience is clear*** (= I do not feel guilty) *because I've done nothing wrong.* **2 be on your conscience** If something is on your conscience, it is making you feel guilty.

conscientious /ˌkɒnʃiˈenʃəs/ *adjective* always doing your work with a lot of care *a conscientious student* ●**conscientiously** *adverb*

conscientious objector /kɒnʃiˌenʃəsəbˈdʒektəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who refuses to work in the armed forces because they think war is wrong

conscious /ˈkɒnʃəs/ *adjective* **1 be conscious of/that** to know that something is present or that something is happening *I'm very conscious that a lot of people disagree with me.* **2 a conscious decision/choice/effort, etc** a decision, choice, effort, etc that you make intentionally *Did you make a conscious decision to lose weight?* ➲Opposite **subconscious 3** awake and able to think and notice things *He's still conscious but he's very badly injured.* ➲Opposite **unconscious** ●**consciously** *adverb* ➲See also: **self-conscious**

-conscious /ˈkɒnʃəs/ *suffix* used at the end of words to mean 'thinking that something is important' *a safety-conscious mother* ○ *fashion-conscious teenagers*

consciousness /ˈkɒnʃəsnəs/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [**U**] when someone is awake and can think and notice things *He* ***lost consciousness*** (= stopped being conscious) *for several minutes.* ○ *I want to be here when she* ***regains consciousness*** (= becomes conscious again). **2** AWARE [**no plural**] when someone knows about something *There's a growing consciousness about environmental issues among young people.*

conscript¹ /ˈkɒnskrɪpt/ *noun* [**C**] someone who has been made to join the army

conscript² /kənˈskrɪpt/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone join the army [**often passive**] *During World War I, he was* ***conscripted into*** *the Russian army.*

conscription /kənˈskrɪpʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] a system in which people are made to join the army

consecrate /ˈkɒnsɪkreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] RELIGION to make a place or object holy in a religious ceremony ●**consecration** /ˌkɒnsɪˈkreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] *a consecration ceremony*

consecutive /kənˈsekjʊtɪv/ *adjective* Consecutive events, numbers, or periods of time come one after the other. *the third consecutive day of rain* ●**consecutively** *adverb*

consensus /kənˈsensəs/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] when all the people in a group agree about something *to* ***reach a consensus*** ○ *The* ***general consensus*** *is that we should wait and see what happens.*

consent¹ /kənˈsent/ *noun* [**U**] **1** permission for someone to do something *You can't come without your parents' consent.* **2 by common consent** *UK* used to say that everyone agrees about something *He is, by common consent, the most talented actor in Hollywood.*

consent² /kənˈsent/ *verb* [**I**] to agree to do something, or to allow someone to do something [**+ to do sth**] *They eventually consented to let us enter.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***consequence***

face/live with/suffer the consequences ● **as** a consequence (of sth) ● a **direct** consequence ● **devastating/dire/disastrous/serious** consequences ● the consequences **of** sth

O-K **consequence** /ˈkɒnsɪkwəns/ *noun* **1** [**C**] the result of an action or situation, especially a bad result *The ship capsized, with* ***disastrous consequences.*** ○ *If you make him angry, you'll have to* ***suffer the consequences.*** **2 of little/no consequence** *formal* not important *The money was of little consequence to Tony.*

consequent /ˈkɒnsɪkwənt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* happening as a result of something *the closure of the factory and the consequent loss of 400 jobs*

consequently /ˈkɒnsɪkwəntli/ *adverb* as a result *She was the child of two models and, consequently, she was very tall.*

conservation /ˌkɒnsəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** ENVIRONMENT the protection of nature *wildlife conservation* ○ *conservation groups* **2** ENVIRONMENT when you are careful not to waste energy, water, etc

conservationist /ˌkɒnsəˈveɪʃᵊnɪst/ *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT someone who believes that people should protect nature

conservatism /kənˈsɜːvətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] conservative actions and beliefs

conservative /kənˈsɜːvətɪv/ *adjective* **1** not trusting sudden changes or new ideas *Older people tend to be very conservative.* **2 a conservative estimate/guess** a guess about a number or amount that is probably lower than the true number or amount

Conservative /kənˈsɜːvətɪv/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who supports the Conservative Party in the UK *the Conservative candidate/MP*

the Conˈservative ˌParty *noun* [group] POLITICS one of the three main political parties in the UK

conservatory /kənˈsɜːvətri/ *noun* [C] a room attached to a house that has windows all around it and a glass roof

conserve /kənˈsɜːv/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT WASTE to use something in a way that does not waste it *Insulating the walls will help to conserve heat.* **2** NOT HARM to prevent harm or damage to animals or places

consider /kənˈsɪdəʳ/ *verb* **1** THINK [T] to think carefully about a decision or something you might do *Have you considered surgery?* [**+ doing sth**] *We're considering buying a new car.* **2** FACTS [T] to think about particular facts when you are making a decision about something *If you buy an old house, you have to consider the cost of repairs.* **3 consider sb/sth (to be) sth; consider that** to have a particular opinion about someone or something [**often reflexive**] *I don't consider myself to be a great athlete.*

considerable /kənˈsɪdᵊrəbl/ *adjective* large or important enough to have an effect *a considerable amount of money* ○ *The damage has been considerable.* ●**considerably** *adverb Rates of pay vary considerably.*

considerate /kənˈsɪdᵊrət/ *adjective* kind and helpful *a polite and considerate child* ➲Opposite **inconsiderate**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***consideration***

1 an **important/** the **main/** a **major** consideration ● **environmental/financial/political** considerations
2 **careful/serious** consideration ● be **under** consideration ● be **worthy of** consideration

consideration /kənˌsɪdᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** IMPORTANT FACT [C] something that you have to think about when you make decisions or plans *Safety is our **main consideration**.* **2** CAREFUL THOUGHT [U] when you think about something very carefully *After **careful consideration**, we have decided to offer you the job.* ○ *Several options are **under consideration*** (= being considered). **3** KINDNESS [U] when you are kind to people or think about their feelings *They always treated me with consideration.* **4 take sth into consideration** to think about something when you make a decision or plan

considered /kənˈsɪdəd/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] A considered opinion or decision is based on careful thought. *It is our considered opinion that he should resign.* **2 all things considered** used when you are giving your opinion about something after thinking carefully about all the facts *All things considered, I think we made the right choice.*

considering /kənˈsɪdərɪŋ/ *preposition, conjunction* used for saying that you have a particular opinion about something, because of a particular fact about it *She's fairly fit considering her age.* ○ *Considering she'd only been there once before, she did well to find the way.*

consign /kənˈsaɪn/ *verb*
consign sb/sth to sth *phrasal verb formal* to get rid of someone or something or to put them in an unpleasant place or situation *They were consigned to a life of poverty.*

consignment /kənˈsaɪnmənt/ *noun* [C] an amount of goods that is being sent somewhere *a ship carrying a small consignment of rice*

consist /kənˈsɪst/ *verb*
consist of sth *phrasal verb* to be formed or made from two or more things *a dessert consisting of fruit and cream*

consistency /kənˈsɪstənsi/ *noun* **1** NOT CHANGING [**+ (that)**] when someone always behaves or performs in a similar way or when something always happens in a similar way *The team has won a few matches but lacks consistency.* **2** LIQUID [**C, U**] how thick or smooth a liquid is *Beat the mixture to a smooth consistency.*

consistent /kənˈsɪstᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** always behaving or happening in a similar, usually positive, way *consistent effort/improvement* **2 consistent with sth** *formal* having the same principles as something else, or agreeing with other facts *His account of events is entirely consistent with the video evidence.* ●**consistently** *adverb The President has consistently denied the rumours.*

consolation /ˌkɒnsəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] something that makes you feel better about a bad situation *If it's any consolation, I failed my driving test too.*

console¹ /kənˈsəʊl/ *verb* [T] to make someone who is sad feel better *I tried to console her but she just kept crying.*

console² /ˈkɒnsəʊl/ *noun* [C] an object that contains the controls for a piece of equipment *a video game console*

consolidate /kənˈsɒlɪdeɪt/ *verb* **1** GET STRONGER [**I, T**] to make sure that you become more powerful, or that success and achievements continue strongly *It will take him some time to consolidate his position in the banking world.* **2** COMBINE [T] to combine several things, especially businesses, so that they become more effective, or to be combined in this way *He consolidated his businesses into one large company.* ●**consolidation** /kənˌsɒlɪˈdeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

consonant /ˈkɒnsᵊnənt/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a letter of the alphabet that is not a vowel

consort /kən'sɔːt/ *verb*
consort with sb *phrasal verb* to spend time with a bad person *They claimed he had been consorting with drug dealers.*

consortium /kən'sɔːtiəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **consortiums**, **consortia** an organization consisting of several businesses or banks *an international consortium of airlines*

conspicuous /kən'spɪkjuəs/ *adjective* very easy to notice *His army uniform made him very conspicuous.* ●**conspicuously** *adverb His wife was* ***conspicuously absent****.*

conspiracy /kən'spɪrəsi/ *noun* [C, U] when a group of people secretly plan to do something bad or illegal [+ **to do sth**] *a conspiracy to overthrow the government*

conspirator /kən'spɪrətəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who secretly plans with other people to do something bad or illegal

conspire /kən'spaɪəʳ/ *verb* **1** [I] to join with other people to secretly plan to do something bad or illegal [+ **to do sth**] *He was convicted of conspiring to blow up the World Trade Center.* ○ *The king accused his advisers of* ***conspiring against*** *him.* **2 conspire against sb; conspire to do sth** If events or a situation conspire against you, they cause problems for you. *Circumstances had conspired to ruin her plans.*

constable /'kɒnstəbl/ *noun* [C] a British police officer of the lowest rank

constant /'kɒnstənt/ *adjective* **1** FREQUENT happening a lot or all the time *machines that are in constant use* **2** SAME LEVEL staying at the same level *The temperature remained constant.* ●**constantly** *adverb He's constantly changing his mind.*

constellation /ˌkɒnstə'leɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a group of stars

consternation /ˌkɒnstə'neɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] a feeling of shock or worry

constipated /'kɒnstɪpeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** unable to empty your bowels as often as you should

constipation /ˌkɒnstɪ'peɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when you are constipated

constituency /kən'stɪtjuənsi/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** an area of a country which elects someone to represent it in the government, or the people who live there

constituent /kən'stɪtjuənt/ *noun* [C] **1** one of the parts or substances that something is made of *Methane is the main* ***constituent of*** *natural gas.* **2 POLITICS** someone who lives in a particular constituency

constitute /'kɒnstɪtjuːt/ *verb* [T] to be or form something *This defeat constitutes a real setback for their championship hopes.*

constitution /ˌkɒnstɪ'tjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1 POLITICS** the set of laws and principles that a country's government must obey *the US Constitution* **2** the state of someone's health ***a strong/weak constitution***

constitutional /ˌkɒnstɪ'tjuːʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **POLITICS** relating to the constitution of a country *a constitutional crisis*

constrain /kən'streɪn/ *verb* [T] to control something by limiting it *regulations that constrain industry* [**often passive**] *I'm constrained by decisions made in the past.*

constraint /kən'streɪnt/ *noun* [C] something that limits what you can do *budget constraints* ○ *There are* ***constraints on*** *the medicines doctors can prescribe.*

constrict /kən'strɪkt/ *verb* **1** LIMIT [T] to limit someone's freedom to do what they want to or be the way they want to *His creativity was constricted by the political regime he lived under.* **2** MAKE NARROWER [I, T] to become narrower or tighter, or to make something narrower or tighter *The blood vessels constricted.* ●**constriction** /kən'strɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

construct /kən'strʌkt/ *verb* [T] to build something from several parts *The building was constructed in 1930.*

construction /kən'strʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** BUILDING WORK [U] the work of building houses, offices, bridges, etc *railway construction* ○ *construction work* **2** LARGE BUILDING [C] something large that is built *a large steel construction* **3 LANGUAGE** [C] The construction of a sentence or phrase is the way the words are arranged.

constructive /kən'strʌktɪv/ *adjective* helpful or useful ***constructive advice/criticism*** ●**constructively** *adverb*

construe /kən'struː/ *verb* [T] **construing**, *past* **construed** to understand something in a particular way *Her comments could be* ***construed as*** *patronizing.*

consul /'kɒnsᵊl/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone whose job is to work in a foreign country taking care of the people from their own country who go or live there

consular /'kɒnsjʊləʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **POLITICS** relating to a consul or a consulate *consular officials*

consulate /'kɒnsjʊlət/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the offices where a consul works *the Cuban consulate in Mexico City*

consult /kən'sʌlt/ *verb* [T] **1** GET INFORMATION to go to a particular person or book to get information or advice *For more information, consult your travel agent.* **2** DISCUSS to discuss something with someone before you make a decision *Why didn't you consult me about this?*

consultancy /kən'sʌltᵊnsi/ *noun* **1** COMPANY [C] a company that gives advice on subjects it knows a lot about *a* ***management/recruitment consultancy*** **2** ADVICE [U] the activity of giving advice on a particular subject

consultant /kən'sʌltᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who advises people about a particular subject *a tax consultant* **2 HEALTH** *UK* a hospital doctor who is an expert in a particular area of medicine

consultation /ˌkɒnsᵊl'teɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MEETING [C] a meeting to discuss something or to get advice *a medical consultation* **2** DISCUSSING [U] when you discuss something with someone in order to get their advice or opinion about it *After* ***consultation with*** *his lawyers, he decided to abandon the case.*

consultative /kənˈsʌltətɪv/ *adjective* A consultative group or document gives advice about something.

consume /kənˈsjuːm/ *verb* [T] **1** USE to use something such as a product, energy, or fuel *These lights don't consume much electricity.* **2** EAT OR DRINK *formal* to eat or drink something **3 be consumed with/by sth** to have so much of a feeling that it affects everything you do *a dancer consumed by ambition* **4** FIRE If fire consumes something, it completely destroys it.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***consumer***

consumer **choice/confidence/demand/protection/spending**

consumer /kənˈsjuːməʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 ECONOMICS** someone who buys or uses goods or services *These price cuts are good news for consumers.* **2 BIOLOGY** a person or animal that eats another

consumerism /kənˈsjuːmərɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** buying and selling things, especially when this is an important part of a society's activities

con,sumer ˈprice ,index *noun* [C usually singular] *US* **ECONOMICS** retail price index

con,sumer ˈspending *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the amount that people spend on goods *Consumer spending has risen in the last six months.*

consummate¹ /ˈkɒnsəmeɪt/ *verb* [T] to make a marriage or relationship complete by having sex ●**consummation** /ˌkɒnsəˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

consummate² /kənˈsʌmət, ˈkɒnsəmət/ *adjective* [always before noun] *formal* having great skill ***a consummate professional*** ○ ***consummate ease/skill***

consumption /kənˈsʌmʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** AMOUNT the amount of something that someone uses, eats, or drinks *China's total **energy consumption*** **2** USING when someone uses, eats, or drinks something *products sold for **personal consumption***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***contact***

be in/get in/keep in/stay in contact (**with** sb) ● **lose/make** contact (with sb) ● **have no** contact **with** sb ● **close/regular** contact

contact¹ /ˈkɒntækt/ *noun* **1** COMMUNICATION [U] when you communicate with someone, especially by speaking to them *We **keep in** close **contact** with our grandparents.* ○ *Jo and I are determined not to **lose contact**.* **2** TOUCH [U] when two people or things are touching each other *She dislikes any kind of **physical contact**.* ○ *Wash your hands if they **come into contact with** chemicals.* **3** PERSON [C] someone you know who may be able to help you because of their job or position ***business contacts*** **4** EYE [C] (*also* **contact lens**) a small piece of plastic that you put on your eye to make you see more clearly ➲See also: **eye contact**

contact² /ˈkɒntækt/ *verb* [T] to telephone, email or write to someone *I've been trying to contact you for days.*

ˈcontact ,lens *UK* (*US* **ˈcontact lens**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a small piece of plastic that you put on your eye to make you see more clearly

contagious /kənˈteɪdʒəs/ *adjective* **1 HEALTH** A contagious disease is one that you can get if you touch someone who has it. **2** A contagious feeling spreads quickly amongst people. *Her excitement was contagious.*

contain /kənˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** INSIDE If one thing contains another, it has it inside it. *a box containing a diamond ring* **2** PART to have something as a part *Does this drink contain alcohol?* **3** CONTROL to control something by stopping it from spreading *The police were unable to contain the fighting.* **4** EMOTION to control your emotions *He could barely contain his anger.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

contain or **include?**

Use **contain** to talk about objects which have something else inside them.

This folder contains important letters.

This soup contains garlic and onions.

Use **include** to say that something or someone is a part of something else.

The team includes two new players.

The price of the ticket includes insurance and tax.

container /kənˈteɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] an object such as a box or a bottle that is used for holding something

contaminate /kənˈtæmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something dirty or poisonous *contaminated drinking water* ●**contamination** /kənˌtæmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

contemplate /ˈkɒntəmpleɪt/ *verb* [T] to think about something for a long time or in a serious way [+ **doing sth**] *I'm contemplating changing my name.* ○ *He even contemplated suicide.* ●**contemplation** /ˌkɒntəmˈpleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

contemporary¹ /kənˈtempᵊrᵊri, kənˈtempəri/ *adjective* **1** PRESENT of the present time *contemporary music* **2** SAME TIME [always before noun] existing or happening at the same time as something *Most **contemporary accounts** of the event have been destroyed.*

contemporary² /kənˈtempᵊrᵊri, kənˈtempəri/ *noun* [C] Someone's contemporaries are the people who live at the same time as them. *Shakespeare and his contemporaries*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***contempt***

treat sb/sth **with** contempt ● **deep/open/utter** contempt ● **have nothing but** contempt **for** sb/sth ● sb's contempt **for** sb/sth

contempt /kənˈtempt/ *noun* **1** [U] a strong feeling that you do not respect someone or something *He has utter **contempt for** anyone with power.* **2 contempt of court** behaviour that is illegal because it does not obey the rules of a law court

contemptible /kənˈtemptəbl/ *adjective* extremely bad, because of being dishonest or cruel

contemptuous /kən'tempt ʃuəs/ *adjective* showing contempt ●**contemptuously** *adverb*

contend /kən'tend/ *verb* **1** SAY [T] *formal* to say that something is true [+ **(that)**] *His lawyers contend that he is telling the truth.* **2** COMPETE [I] to compete with someone to try to win something *one of the groups* ***contending for*** *power* **contend with sth** *phrasal verb* to have to deal with a difficult or unpleasant situation *I have enough problems of my own to contend with.*

contender /kən'tendəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who competes with other people to try to win something *a leading* ***contender for*** *an Oscar*

content¹ /'kɒntent/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** MAIN IDEA the information or ideas that are talked about in a book, speech, film, etc *The* ***content of*** *the article was controversial.* **2** AMOUNT the amount of a particular substance that something contains *Most soft drinks have a high sugar content.*

content² /kən'tent/ *adjective* happy or satisfied *Not* ***content with*** *second place, Jeff played only to win.* [+ **to do sth**] *I was content to stay home and read.*

content³ /kən'tent/ *verb*
content yourself with sth *phrasal verb* to do something or have something although it is not exactly what you want *Since it rained we had to content ourselves with playing cards.*

contented /kən'tentɪd/ *adjective* satisfied, or making you feel satisfied ➲Opposite **discontented** ●**contentedly** *adverb*

contention /kən'tenʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C] *formal* a belief or opinion *There's a general* ***contention that*** *too much violence is shown on TV.* **2** COMPETITION [U] when people or groups compete for something *Johnson is back* ***in contention for*** *the championships.* **3** DISAGREEMENT [U] arguments and disagreements ➲See also: a **bone**¹ of contention

contentious /kən'tenʃəs/ *adjective* likely to make people argue *a contentious issue*

ˌcontent ˈmanagement ˌsystem *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** a computer system that allows you to organise large amounts of information, especially words and pictures to be shown on a website

contentment /kən'tentmənt/ *noun* [U] the feeling of being happy or satisfied

contents /'kɒntents/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** THINGS INSIDE all of the things that are contained inside something *Please empty out* ***the contents of*** *your pockets.* **2** INFORMATION the information or ideas that are written in a book, letter, document, etc ***the contents of*** *his will* **3** BOOK a list in a book that tells you what different parts the book contains *a table of contents*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***contest***

enter/be in a contest ● **win** a contest ● a **close** contest ● a contest **between** sb and sb ● a contest **for** sth

contest¹ /'kɒntest/ *noun* [C] a competition or election

contest² /kən'test/ *verb* [T] **1** SAY STH IS WRONG to say formally that something is wrong or unfair and try to have it changed *Mr Hughes went back to court to contest the verdict.* **2** COMPETE to compete for something

contestant /kən'testᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone who competes in a contest

context /'kɒntekst/ *noun* [C, U] **1** SITUATION all the facts, opinions, situations, etc relating to a particular thing or event *This small battle is important* ***in the context of*** *Scottish history.* **2** WORD other words that were said or written at the same time as the word or words you are talking about *Taken* ***out of context****, her remark sounded like an insult.*

O-key **continent** /'kɒntɪnənt/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** one of the seven main areas of land on the Earth, such as Asia, Africa, or Europe

the Continent /'kɒntɪnənt/ *noun UK* the main part of land in Europe, not including Britain

continental /ˌkɒntɪ'nentᵊl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to a continent *the continental US*

Continental /ˌkɒntɪ'nentᵊl/ *adjective mainly UK* relating to Europe, but not Britain

ˌcontinental ˈbreakfast *noun* [C] **FOOD** a breakfast (= morning meal) consisting of fruit juice, coffee, and bread

ˌcontinental ˈcrust *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** the part of the Earth's surface that includes the land and the rock underneath

ˌcontinental ˈplate *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** one of the large sections of the surface of the Earth that move separately

ˌcontinental ˈshelf *noun* [**C usually singular**] **GEOLOGY** the area of the bottom of the sea near the coast of a continent, where the sea is not very deep

contingency /kən'tɪndʒənsi/ *noun* [C] **1** an event or situation that might happen in the future, especially one which could cause problems *a* ***contingency fund/plan*** (= money or a plan that can be used if there are problems) **2 a contingency fee FINANCE** money that lawyers (= people who advise people about the law and deal with legal situations) charge, which is a share of what the person they represent has won

contingent¹ /kən'tɪndʒᵊnt/ *noun* [**group**] **1** SIMILAR PEOPLE a group of people from the same country, organization, etc who are part of a much larger group **2** MILITARY FORCES a group of soldiers who are part of a larger military group

contingent² /kən'tɪndʒᵊnt/ *adjective* **contingent on sth** depending on something else in order to happen *Buying the new house was contingent on selling the old one.*

continual /kən'tɪnjuəl/ *adjective* happening again and again over a long period of time *I can't work with these continual interruptions.* ●**continually** *adverb Dad continually complains about money.*

continuation /kənˌtɪnju'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** COME AFTER [C] something that comes after an event, situation, or thing to make it continue or go further *Today's meeting will be* ***a continuation of*** *yesterday's talks.* **2** STILL EXIST [U, **no plural**] when something continues to exist,

happen, or be used *the continuation of their partnership*

continue /kən'tɪnjuː/ *verb* **continuing,** *past* **continued 1** NEVER STOP [**I, T**] to keep happening, existing, or doing something [**+ to do sth**] *It continued to snow heavily for three days.* [**+ doing sth**] *Ann continued working part-time until June.* **2** BEGIN AGAIN [**T**] to start doing or saying something again, after stopping for a short period *We'll have to continue this discussion tomorrow.* **3 continue along/down/up, etc** to go further in a particular direction

continued /kən'tɪnjuːd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] still happening, existing, or done *his continued success*

continuity /ˌkɒntɪ'njuːəti/ *noun* [**U**] the state of continuing for a long period of time without being changed or stopped

continuous[1] /kən'tɪnjuəs/ *adjective* **1** happening or existing without stopping *continuous pain* ○ *ten years of continuous service in the army* **2 LANGUAGE** The continuous form of a verb is used to show that an action is continuing to happen. The sentence 'He was eating lunch.' is in the continuous form. ●**continuously** *adverb Their baby cried continuously all afternoon.*

the continuous /kən'tɪnjuəs/ *noun* **LANGUAGE** the continuous form of the verb

contort /kən'tɔːt/ *verb* [**I, T**] If your face or body contorts, or you contort it, you twist it into a different shape, often because you are experiencing a strong emotion. *His face was contorted with pain.*

contour /'kɒntʊə^{r}/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SHAPE the shape of the outer edge of something *the contours of her body* **2 GEOGRAPHY** (*also* '**contour ˌline**) a line on a map joining places that are at the same height

contra- /kɒntrə-/ *prefix* against or opposite *to contradict* (= say the opposite) ○ *contraception* (= something that is used to prevent pregnancy)

contraband /'kɒntrəbænd/ *noun* [**U**] goods that are brought into or taken out of a country illegally

contraception /ˌkɒntrə'sepʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** methods that prevent a woman from becoming pregnant

contraceptive /ˌkɒntrə'septɪv/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a drug or object that prevents a woman from becoming pregnant

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***contract***

enter into/negotiate/sign a contract ● **breach/break/end/terminate** a contract ● **in** a contract ● the **terms of** a contract ● a contract **between** sb and sb **/with** sb

contract[1] /'kɒntrækt/ *noun* [**C**] **LAW** a legal agreement between two people or organizations, especially one that involves doing work for a particular amount of money

contract[2] /kən'trækt/ *verb* **1** REDUCE [**I, T**] to become smaller or shorter, or to make something do this *The wood contracts in dry weather.* **2 HEALTH** [**T**] *formal* to get a serious disease *She contracted malaria while living abroad.* **3 LAW** [**I, T**] to make a legal agreement with someone to do work or to have work done for you [**+ to do sth**] *He's been contracted to perform in five shows.*
contract out sth *phrasal verb* to make a formal arrangement for other people to do work that you are responsible for *They've **contracted out** the cleaning **to** a private firm.*

contraction /kən'trækʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1 HEALTH** [**C**] a strong, painful movement of the muscles that a woman has when she is having a baby *She was **having contractions** every ten minutes.* **2 LANGUAGE** [**C**] a short form of a word or group of words *'Won't' is a contraction of 'will not'.* **3** [**U**] when something becomes smaller or shorter

contractor /kən'trækt^{ə}r/ *noun* [**C**] a person or company that supplies goods or does work for other people

contractual /kən'trækt^{ə}ʃu^{ə}l/ *adjective* **LAW** relating to or stated in a contract (= legal agreement) *a contractual dispute*

contradict /ˌkɒntrə'dɪkt/ *verb* **1** DIFFERENT [**T**] If two things that are said or written about something contradict each other, they are so different that they cannot both be true. *His account of the accident contradicts the official government report.* **2** DISAGREE [**I, T**] to say that what someone else has just said is wrong

contradiction /ˌkɒntrə'dɪkʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** DIFFERENCE [**C**] a big difference between two things that are said or written about the same subject, or between what someone says and what they do *There is a clear **contradiction between** what she says and what she does.* **2** WRONG [**U**] when you say that what someone has just said is wrong **3 a contradiction in terms** a phrase that is confusing because it contains words that seem to have opposite meanings *An honest politician - isn't that a contradiction in terms?*

contradictory /ˌkɒntrə'dɪkt^{ə}ri/ *adjective* If two statements about the same subject or two actions by the same person are contradictory, they are very different.

'contra ˌentry *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** an entry in a business's accounts where the letter 'c' is written to show that the other entry in the double entry bookkeeping system is on the other side of the same book

contraption /kən'træpʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [**C**] a machine or object that looks strange or complicated

contrary[1] /'kɒntr^{ə}ri/ *noun* **1 to the contrary** saying or showing the opposite *She claimed she hadn't been involved, despite evidence to the contrary.* **2 on the contrary** used to show that the opposite of what has just been said is true *"You're a vegetarian, aren't you?" "On the contrary, I love meat."*

contrary[2] /'kɒntr^{ə}ri/ *adjective* **1** opposite or very different *a contrary opinion/view* **2 contrary to sth a** opposite to what someone said or thought *Contrary to popular belief, bottled water is not always better than tap water.* **b** If something is contrary to a rule, it does not obey that rule.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***contrast***

1 a **complete/sharp/striking** contrast ● the contrast **between** sth and sth
2 in **direct/marked/sharp/stark** contrast / **(to** sth)

contrast¹ /ˈkɒntrɑːst/ *noun* [C, U] **1** an obvious difference between two people or things *The **contrast between** their lifestyles couldn't be greater.* ○ *The busy north coast of the island is **in** sharp **contrast to** the peaceful south.* **2 by/in contrast** used to show that someone or something is completely different from someone or something else *She's quite petite, in contrast with her tall sister.*

contrast² /kənˈtrɑːst/ *verb* **1** COMPARE [T] to compare two people or things in order to show the differences between them *If you **contrast** his early novels **with** his later work, you can see how his writing has developed.* **2** DIFFERENCE [I] If one thing contrasts with another, it is very different from it. *The sharpness of the lemons **contrasts with** the sweetness of the honey.*

contrasting /kənˈtrɑːstɪŋ/ *adjective* very different *contrasting colours/styles*

contravene /ˌkɒntrəˈviːn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to do something that is forbidden by a law or rule ●**contravention** /ˌkɒntrəˈvenʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *By accepting the money, she was **in contravention of** company rules.*

contribute /kənˈtrɪbjuːt, ˈkɒntrɪbjuːt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** MONEY to give something, especially money, in order to provide or achieve something together with other people *I **contributed** $20 **towards** Andrea's present.* **2** ARTICLE to write articles for a newspaper, magazine, or book *She **contributes to** several magazines.*
contribute to sth *phrasal verb* to be one of the causes of an event or a situation *Smoking contributed to his early death.*

contribution /ˌkɒntrɪˈbjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SUCCESS something that you do to help produce or develop something, or to help make something successful *She has **made** a major contribution **to** our work.* **2** MONEY an amount of money that is given to help pay for something *a generous contribution to charity*

contributor /kənˈtrɪbjʊtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** ARTICLE someone who writes articles for a newspaper, magazine, or book **2** MONEY someone who gives something, especially money, together with other people **3** CAUSE one of the causes of something *Speeding is a major contributor to road accidents.*

contributory /kənˈtrɪbjʊtᵊri/ *adjective* helping to cause something

contrive /kənˈtraɪv/ *verb* [T] *formal* to manage to do something difficult, or to make something happen, by using your intelligence or by tricking people [+ **to do sth**] *They contrived to meet in secret.*

contrived /kənˈtraɪvd/ *adjective* Something that is contrived seems false and not natural.

control¹ /kənˈtrəʊl/ *noun* **1** POWER [U] the power to make a person, organization, or object do what you want *The new teacher has no **control over** the class.* ○ *The police are **in control of** the situation.* ○ *He **lost control of** the vehicle.* **2** RULE [U] the power to rule or govern an area *Soldiers **took control of** the airport.* **3 under control** being dealt with successfully *Don't worry - everything's under control.* ○ *I couldn't **keep** my drinking **under control**.* **4 out of control** If something or someone is out of control, you cannot influence, limit, or direct them. **5** RULE [C, U] a rule or law that limits something *The government has introduced tighter immigration controls.* **6** CALM [U] the ability to be calm *It took a lot of control to stop myself hitting him.* **7** EQUIPMENT [C] a switch or piece of equipment that you use to operate a machine or vehicle *Where's the volume control on your stereo?* **8** OFFICIAL PLACE [C, U] a place where something official, usually a document, is checked ***passport/immigration control*** **9** IN EXPERIMENT a person or thing that is used to compare with someone or something that is having an experiment done on them ➲See also: **birth control, remote control, self-control**

control² /kənˈtrəʊl/ *verb* [T] **controlling,** *past* **controlled 1** MAKE SB DO STH to make a person, organization, or object do what you want *This switch controls the temperature.* ○ *Can't you control your dogs?* **2** LIMIT to limit the number, amount, or increase of something *Fire crews struggled to control the blaze.* **3** RULE to rule or govern an area *The whole area is controlled by rebel forces.* **4** EMOTION to stop yourself expressing strong emotions or behaving in a silly way *He can't control his temper.*

conˈtrol ˌfreak *noun* [C] *informal* someone who wants to control everything about a situation and does not want other people to be involved

conˈtrol ˌkey *noun* [C usually singular] **COMPUTING** the key on a computer keyboard thatis usually marked 'Ctrl' and is used together with other keys to do particular operations

controller /kənˈtrəʊləʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who directs the work of other people *a marketing controller*

controversial /ˌkɒntrəˈvɜːʃᵊl/ *adjective* causing a lot of disagreement or argument *a **controversial decision/issue***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***controversy***

sth **attracts /causes/provokes/sparks** controversy ● the controversy **surrounding** sth ● **bitter/continuing/furious** controversy ● controversy **about/over** sth ● be **at the centre of** a controversy

controversy /ˈkɒntrəvɜːsi/ *noun* [C, U] a lot of disagreement and argument about something *There is a lot of **controversy over** mobile phone towers.*

conundrum /kəˈnʌndrəm/ *noun* [C] a problem or question that is difficult to solve

conurbation /ˌkɒnəˈbeɪʃən/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a large city area formed by several towns growing and joining together

convalescence /ˌkɒnvəˈlesᵊns/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the period of time when you rest and get better after a serious illness ●**convalesce** *verb* [I]

convection /kənˈvekʃən/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the flow of heat through a gas or a liquid as the hotter part rises and the cooler part goes down ●**convectional** /kənˈvekʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective*

con,vectional ˈrainfall *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** heavy rain caused by the surface of the atmosphere becoming hotter and causing damp (= slightly wet) air to rise

convene /kənˈviːn/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to arrange a meeting, or to meet for a meeting *The committee convenes three times a year.*

convenience /kənˈviːniəns/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [U] when something is easy to use and suitable for what you want to do *the convenience of credit cards* **2** HELPFUL THING [C] something that makes life easier *Fortunately, the house has every **modern convenience**.*

conˈvenience ˌfood *noun* [C] **FOOD** food that can be prepared quickly and easily

conˈvenience ˌstore *noun* [C] *mainly US* a shop that sells food, drinks, etc, and is usually open late

convenient /kənˈviːniənt/ *adjective* **1** USEFUL easy to use or suiting your plans well *When would be a convenient time to meet?* **2** NEAR near or easy to get to *The new supermarket is very convenient for me.* ●**conveniently** *adverb*

convent /ˈkɒnvənt/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a building where nuns (= religious women) live and pray together

convention /kənˈvenʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MEETING [C] a large formal meeting of people with the same interest or work *the Democratic Party convention* **2** CUSTOM [C, U] a usual and accepted way of behaving or doing something *In many countries it is the convention to wear black at funerals.* **3** **POLITICS** [C] a formal agreement between countries *an international convention on human rights*

conventional /kənˈvenʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** TRADITIONAL Conventional people are traditional and not willing to try new ideas. **2** USUAL Conventional objects or ways of doing things are the usual ones which have been used for a long time. *conventional farming/medicine* **3 conventional arms/forces/warfare, etc** not involving the use of nuclear weapons **4 conventional wisdom** what most people believe ➲Opposite **unconventional**

conventionally /kənˈvenʃᵊnᵊli/ *adverb* in a traditional way *He dressed conventionally in a suit and tie.*

converge /kənˈvɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I] **1** COME TOGETHER If lines, roads, or rivers converge, they meet at a particular point. **2** FORM GROUP to move towards a particular point and form a group there *The protesters **converged on** the town square.* **3** BECOME SIMILAR If ideas, interests, or systems converge, they become more similar to one another. ●**convergence** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***conversation***

engage in/have/join in/strike up a conversation ● **make** conversation ● **a brief/casual/long/polite/private** conversation ● a conversation **about** sth ● a conversation **between** sb

conversation /ˌkɒnvəˈseɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a talk between two or more people, usually an informal one *a telephone conversation* ○ *We **had a conversation about** football.* ●**conversational** *adjective* relating to or like a conversation *a conversational style*

converse /kənˈvɜːs/ *verb* [I] *formal* to talk with someone

conversely /ˈkɒnvɜːsli/ *adverb* used to introduce something that is different to something you have just said *Dark lipsticks make your mouth look smaller. Conversely, light shades make it larger.*

conversion /kənˈvɜːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** when the appearance, form, or purpose of something is changed *the country's **conversion to** democracy* **2** **RELIGION** when someone changes to a new religion or belief *her **conversion to** Christianity*

convert¹ /kənˈvɜːt/ *verb* **1** CHANGE FORM [I, T] to change the appearance, form, or purpose of something *The old warehouse was **converted into** offices.* ○ *How do you convert miles into kilometres?* **2** **RELIGION** [I, T] to change to a new religion, belief, etc, or to make someone do this *When did he **convert to** Islam?*

convert² /ˈkɒnvɜːt/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who has been persuaded to change to a different religion or belief *a Catholic convert*

convertible¹ /kənˈvɜːtəbl/ *adjective* able to be converted

convertible² /kənˈvɜːtəbl/ *noun* [C] a car with a folding roof

convex /ˈkɒnveks/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** A convex surface curves out. *a convex mirror/lens*

convey /kənˈveɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** COMMUNICATE to communicate information, feelings, or images to someone *She always conveys a sense of enthusiasm for her work.* **2** TRANSPORT to transport something or someone to a particular place

conveyor belt /kənˈveɪəˌbelt/ *noun* [C] a continuous moving piece of rubber or metal used to transport objects from one place to another

convict¹ /kənˈvɪkt/ *verb* [T] **LAW** to decide officially in a court of law that someone is guilty of a particular crime [**often passive**] *He was **convicted of** murder.* ○ *a convicted criminal*

convict² /ˈkɒnvɪkt/ *noun* [C] someone who is in prison because they are guilty of a particular crime

conviction /kənˈvɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **LAW** [C] when someone is officially found to be guilty of a particular crime *He already had two convictions for burglary.* **2** [C, U] a strong opinion or belief *religious/moral convictions*

convince /kənˈvɪns/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE BELIEF to make someone believe that something is true [+ **that**] *He tried to convince me that I needed a new car.* ○ *She convinced the jury of her innocence.* **2** PERSUADE to persuade someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *I convinced her to go to the doctor's.*

convinced /kənˈvɪnst/ *adjective* completely certain about something [+ **(that)**] *I'm convinced that he's made a mistake.*

convincing /kənˈvɪnsɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** able to make you believe that something is true or right *a convincing argument* **2 a convincing win/victory** a win or victory where the person or team that wins is much better than the people they are competing against ●**convincingly** *adverb*

convoluted /ˈkɒnvəluːtɪd/ *adjective formal* extremely complicated and difficult to understand *a convoluted argument/story*

convoy /ˈkɒnvɔɪ/ *noun* [C] a group of vehicles or ships that travel together

convulsion /kənˈvʌlʃˈn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a sudden uncontrollable movement of muscles in your body, caused by illness or drugs

coo /kuː/ *verb* [I] **cooing,** *past* **cooed 1** MAKE SOUND to make a soft, low sound, like a pigeon (= large, grey bird) **2** SPEAK to speak in a soft, low voice

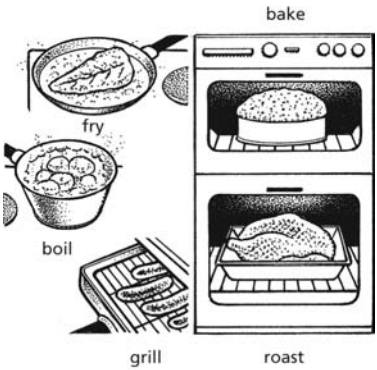

cook

cook¹ /kʊk/ *verb* **1** PREPARE [I, T] to prepare food and usually heat it *Who's cooking this evening? ○ She cooked the meat in oil and spices.* **2** HEAT [I] If food cooks, it is heated until it is ready to eat. *The rice is cooking.* ●**cooked** *adjective* not raw
cook sth up *phrasal verb informal* to invent a story, plan, etc, usually dishonestly

cook² /kʊk/ *noun* [C] someone who prepares and cooks food

cookbook /ˈkʊkbʊk/ (*also UK* **cookery book**) *noun* [C] a book containing instructions for preparing food

cooker /ˈkʊkəʳ/ *UK* (*UK/US* **stove**) *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to cook food *an electric cooker* ➲See also: **pressure cooker**

cookery /ˈkʊkᵊri/ *noun* [U] *UK* preparing or cooking food

ˈcookery ˌbook *UK* (*UK/US* **cookbook**) *noun* [C] a book containing instructions for preparing food

cookie /ˈkʊki/ *noun* [C] **1 FOOD** *US* (*also UK* **biscuit**) a thin, flat cake that is dry and usually sweet ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre11 **2 COMPUTING, INTERNET** a piece of information stored on your computer which contains information about Internet documents you have looked at

cooking /ˈkʊkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** ACTIVITY preparing or cooking food *I do most of the cooking.* **2 FOOD** a style of preparing food *vegetarian/French cooking* ●**cooking** *adjective* [**always before noun**] suitable to cook with *cooking oil/apples*

cool¹ /kuːl/ *adjective* **1** COLD slightly cold, but not too cold *a cool breeze/day ○ cool water* **2** GOOD *informal* good, stylish, or fashionable *He looks really cool in those sunglasses.* **3** CALM calm and not emotional *She seemed cool and confident.* **4** UNFRIENDLY unfriendly **5 be cool with sth** *informal* to be happy to accept a situation or suggestion *Yeah, we could leave later - I'm cool with that.* ●**coolness** *noun* [U]

cool² /kuːl/ *verb* [I, T] **1** LESS HOT to become less hot, or make something become less hot *Allow the bread to cool before slicing it.* **2** LESS STRONG If emotions or relationships cool, or if something cools them, they become less strong.
cool (sb/sth) down/off *phrasal verb* **1** LESS HOT to become less hot, or to make someone or something become less hot *We went for a swim to cool off.* **2** CALMER to become calmer, or to make someone become calmer

cool³ /kuːl/ *noun* **1 the cool** a cool temperature *the cool of the early morning* **2 keep your cool** to remain calm **3 lose your cool** to suddenly become very angry

cool⁴ /kuːl/ *exclamation informal* used when you like something or agree to something

coolly /ˈkuːlli/ *adverb* without showing emotion or interest *Her colleagues reacted coolly to the idea.*

coop¹ /kuːp/ *noun* [C] a cage for birds such as chickens

coop² /kuːp/ *verb*
coop sb up *phrasal verb* to keep a person or animal in a small area [**often passive**] We've been cooped up in a plane all day.

co-op /ˈkəʊɒp/ *noun* [C] *informal short for* co-operative²

cooperate (*also UK* **co-operate**) /kəʊˈɒpᵊreɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** WORK TOGETHER to work together with someone in order to achieve the same aim *Witnesses are* ***cooperating with*** *detectives. ○ Several countries are* ***cooperating in*** *the relief effort.* **2** HELP to help someone or do what they ask *We can get there early as long as the children will cooperate.*

cooperation (*also UK* **co-operation**) /kəʊˌɒpᵊˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] when you work together with someone or do what they ask you *international cooperation ○ The clubs work* ***in*** *close* ***cooperation with*** *the Football Association.*

cooperative¹ (*also UK* **co-operative**) /kəʊˈɒpᵊrᵊtɪv/ *adjective* **1** WILLING TO HELP willing to help or do what people ask *a cooperative and polite employee* **2** WORKING TOGETHER involving people working together to achieve the same aim *a cooperative relationship* ●**cooperatively** *adverb*

cooperative² (*also UK* **co-operative**) /kəʊˈɒpᵊrᵊtɪv/ *noun* [C] a business or organization owned and managed by the people who work in it

coordinate¹ (*also UK* **co-ordinate**) /kəʊˈɔːdɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to make different people or things work together effectively, or to organize all the different parts of an activity *My manager is coordinating the new project.*

C

coordinate² /kəʊˈɔːdɪnət/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS of a pair of numbers and/or letters that show the exact position of a point on a map or graph

coordination (*also UK* **co-ordination**) /kəʊˌɔːdɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **1** ORGANIZING when you organize the different parts of an activity or make people or things work together effectively *The President called for closer coordination between business and government.* **2** BODY the ability to make different parts of your body move together in a controlled way *Dancing helps develop balance and coordination.*

coordinator (*also UK* **co-ordinator**) /kəʊˈɔːdɪneɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who organizes the different parts of an activity or makes people or things work together effectively

cop /kɒp/ *noun* [C] *mainly US informal* a police officer

cope /kəʊp/ *verb* [I] to deal quite successfully with a difficult situation *How do you* ***cope with*** *stress?*

copier /ˈkɒpiəʳ/ *mainly US* (*UK/US* **photocopier**) *noun* [C] a machine which produces copies of documents by photographing them

copious /ˈkəʊpiəs/ *adjective* [always before noun] in large amounts *They drank* ***copious amounts*** *of wine.* ●**copiously** *adverb*

coplanar /ˌkəʊˈpɒlɪməʳ/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS on the same plane (= flat surface) *coplanar lines*

copolymer /ˌkəʊˈpɒlɪməʳ/ *noun* CHEMISTRY a chemical compound with a high molecular weight, formed by joining the molecules of two or more compounds

copolymerize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˌkəʊˈpɒlɪməraɪz/ *verb* [T, I] CHEMISTRY to form a copolymer or to make something form a copolymer ●**copolymerization** (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌkəʊpɒlɪməraɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

copper /ˈkɒpəʳ/ *noun* **1** CHEMISTRY [U] a soft, red-brown metal, used in electrical equipment and to make coins, etc. (symbol **Cu**) *copper wire* ➲See picture at **oxidation** **2** MONEY [C] *UK* a brown coin with a low value **3** POLICE [C] *UK informal* a police officer

O-key **copy¹** /ˈkɒpi/ *noun* [C] **1** SAME something that is made to look exactly like something else *Always* ***make copies of*** *important documents.* **2** PRODUCT a single book, newspaper, etc of which many have been produced *Four million copies of the book were sold in the first year.* ➲See also: **carbon copy**

O-key **copy²** /ˈkɒpi/ *verb* **1** PRODUCE [T] to produce something that is similar or exactly the same as something else *Copy the file onto disk.* ○ *The design was* ***copied from*** *the American model.* **2** BEHAVE [T] to behave like someone else *He likes to copy his older brother.* **3** CHEAT [I, T] to cheat by looking at and using someone else's work *She copied his answers.*
copy sth out *phrasal verb UK* If you copy out a piece of writing, you write it out again on a piece of paper.
copy sb in on sth *phrasal verb* If you copy somebody in on something, you give them a copy of something, usually an email, that you have written for somebody else. *Please copy me in on your email to Dr White.*

copyright /ˈkɒpiraɪt/ *noun* [C, U] LAW the legal right to control the use of an original piece of work such as a book, play, or song *The book is* ***protected by copyright****.*

coral /ˈkɒrəl/ *noun* [U] a hard, usually pink or white substance produced by a type of very small sea animal *a coral reef*

cord /kɔːd/ *noun* [C, U] **1** STRING thick string, or a piece of this **2** WIRE (*also UK* **flex**) a piece of wire covered in plastic, used to connect electrical equipment to a power supply *an electrical cord* ○ *a telephone cord* ➲See also: **umbilical cord**

cordial /ˈkɔːdiəl/ *adjective* polite and friendly *a cordial invitation* ●**cordially** *adverb*

cordless /ˈkɔːdləs/ *adjective* able to operate without an electrical cord *a cordless phone*

cordon¹ /ˈkɔːdˈn/ *noun* [C] a line of police, soldiers, vehicles, etc around an area, protecting it or keeping people out

cordon² /ˈkɔːdˈn/ *verb*
cordon sth off *phrasal verb* If the police, army, etc cordon off an area, they stop people from entering it.

cords /kɔːdz/ *noun* [plural] *informal* trousers made from corduroy

corduroy /ˈkɔːdərɔɪ/ *noun* [U] thick, cotton cloth with raised parallel lines on the outside *a corduroy jacket*

core /kɔːʳ/ *noun* **1** IMPORTANT PART [no plural] the most important part of a system or principle ***core values*** ○ *Better health care was* ***at the core of*** *the senator's campaign.* **2** BIOLOGY [C] the hard, central part of certain fruits, such as apples, which contains the seeds **3** PLANET [no plural] the centre of a planet *the Earth's core* ➲See picture at **Earth** ➲See also: **hard core**

coriander /ˌkɒriˈændəʳ/ (*also US* **cilantro**) *noun* [U] FOOD a herb that is used in cooking

cork /kɔːk/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [U] a light material obtained from the bark (= outer layer) of a particular type of tree **2** BOTTLE [C] a small cylindrical piece of this material put in the top of a bottle, especially a wine bottle, to close it

corkscrew /ˈkɔːkskruː/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used for pulling corks out of wine bottles

corn /kɔːn/ *noun* [U] **1** *mainly UK* a crop of grain, or the seed from this crop used to make flour or feed animals *fields of corn* **2** FOOD *US* (*UK* **sweetcorn**) a tall plant with yellow seeds that are cooked and eaten as a vegetable ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

cornea /kɔːˈniə/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the transparent outer part of the eye ➲See picture at **eye**

O-key **corner¹** /ˈkɔːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** POINT the point or area where two lines, walls, or roads meet *There was a television* ***in the corner*** *of the room.* ○ *The pub is* ***on/at the corner*** *of Ross Street and Mill Road.* **2** PLACE a part of a larger area, often somewhere quiet or far away *He lives in a beautiful corner of northern California.* **3** SPORT a kick or hit taken from the cor-

ner of the field in some games, especially football **4 from/out of the corner of your eye** If you see something out of the corner of your eye, you just see it, but do not look at it directly. **5 around/round the corner** going to happen soon **6 cut corners** to do something in the quickest or cheapest way, often harming the quality of your work

corner² /ˈkɔːnər/ *verb* **1** [T] to force a person or animal into a situation or place from which it is hard to escape *His attackers cornered him in a dark alley.* **2 corner the market** to become so successful at selling or making a particular product that almost no one else sells or makes it

cornerstone /ˈkɔːnəstəʊn/ *noun* [C] something very important that something else depends on *Freedom of speech is **the cornerstone of** democracy.*

cornflakes /ˈkɔːnfleɪks/ *noun* [plural] **FOOD** a food made from corn (= grain) and eaten with milk for breakfast (= morning meal)

corny /ˈkɔːni/ *adjective informal* repeated too often to be interesting or funny *a **corny joke***

corolla /kəˈrɒlə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** all of the petals of a flower

coronary¹ /ˈkɒrənəri/ *adjective* **ANATOMY, HEALTH** relating to the heart *coronary heart disease*

coronary² /ˈkɒrənəri/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a heart attack (= when the heart stops working normally)

coronation /ˌkɒrəˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [C] a ceremony at which someone is officially made king or queen

coroner /ˈkɒrənər/ *noun* [C] an official who examines the causes of someone's death, usually if it was violent or sudden

Corp *noun* [C] *written abbreviation for* corporation (=used after the name of a large company in the United States)

corporal /ˈkɔːpərəl/ *noun* [C] a soldier of low rank in the army or air force

ˌcorporal ˈpunishment *noun* [U] physical punishment, especially of children, usually by hitting with the hand or a stick

corporate /ˈkɔːpərət/ *adjective* [always before noun] relating to a large company or group *corporate finance*

corporation /ˌkɔːpəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [C] a large company or group of companies

corpoˈration ˌtax *noun* [U] **FINANCE** tax paid by businesses on their profits

corps /kɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **corps 1** GROUP a group of people involved in the same job *the press/diplomatic corps* **2** MILITARY a special part of a military force *the Air Corps*

corpse /kɔːps/ *noun* [C] a dead person's body

corpuscle /ˈkɔːpʌsl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** any of the red or white cells in the blood

corpus luteum /ˌkɔːpəsˈluːtiːəm/ *noun* [U] *plural* **corpus lutea ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a mass of yellow tissue that produces progesterone (= a hormone necessary for pregnancy) after a woman's egg is released

O-K **correct¹** /kəˈrekt/ *adjective* **1** NO MISTAKES accurate, or having no mistakes *Check that you have the correct information.* ○ *Was that the correct answer?* **2** SUITABLE suitable for a particular situation *correct behaviour* ○ *Have you got the correct number of players for the match?* ●**correctly** *adverb* ●**correctness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: **politically correct**

correct² /kəˈrekt/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE RIGHT to make a mistake or problem right or better *The new software finds and corrects any errors on the hard disk.* **2** IMPROVE to improve the quality of something *These contact lenses will help to correct your vision.* **3** SHOW MISTAKE to show someone the mistakes in something they have said or written *Our teacher normally corrects our pronunciation.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***correction***

make a correction ● a **minor/small** correction ● a correction **to** sth

O-K **correction** /kəˈrekʃən/ *noun* [C, U] a change to make something right or better, or when you make such a change *She **made** some **corrections** before handing in the essay.*

corrective /kəˈrektɪv/ *adjective formal* intended to improve or correct something *corrective surgery/lenses*

correlate /ˈkɒrəleɪt/ *verb* [I, T] If facts or pieces of information correlate, they are connected to each other and influence each other, and if you correlate them, you show their connections.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***correlation***

a **clear/close/direct/high/strong** correlation ● a correlation **between** sth and sth

correlation /ˌkɒrəˈleɪʃən/ *noun* [C] a connection between two or more things, usually where one causes or influences the other *The research showed a **close correlation between** smoking and lung cancer.*

correspond /ˌkɒrɪˈspɒnd/ *verb* [I] **1** BE SIMILAR to be the same or very similar *The newspaper story does not **correspond with/to** what really happened.* **2** WRITE to communicate with someone by writing letters

correspondence /ˌkɒrɪˈspɒndəns/ *noun* **1** LETTERS [U] letters or emails from one person to another, or the activity of writing and receiving letters or emails *business correspondence* **2** CONNECTION [C, U] when there is a connection or similarity between two or more things

correspondent /ˌkɒrɪˈspɒndənt/ *noun* [C] **1** NEWS someone who reports news for newspapers, television, or radio, usually from another country **2** LETTER WRITER someone who writes letters, usually regularly

corresponding /ˌkɒrɪˈspɒndɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] similar or related *Draw a line between the words with corresponding meanings.*

corresponding ˈangle *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** one of two equal angles on the same side of a line that crosses two parallel lines, and on the same side of each parallel line ➲Compare **alternate angle**

corridor /ˈkɒrɪdɔːr/ *noun* [C] a passage in a building or train with rooms on one or both sides

corrie /ˈkɒri/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a hollow round shape in the side of a mountain

corroborate /kəˈrɒbəˈreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say something or provide information that supports what someone says *A witness corroborated his account of the accident.* ●**corroboration** /kəˌrɒbəˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

corrode /kəˈrəʊd/ *verb* **1** **CHEMISTRY** [I, T] If metal corrodes, or rain or chemicals corrode it, it is slowly damaged by them. *Rain corroded the metal pipes.* **2** [T] to slowly damage someone or something *He was corroded by guilt.* ●**corrosion** /kəˈrəʊʒˈn/ *noun* [U] ●**corrosive** /kəˈrəʊsɪv/ *adjective Acid rain is* ***highly corrosive.***

corrugated /ˈkɒrəgeɪtɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Corrugated metal or cardboard has parallel rows of folds that look like waves. *a corrugated iron roof*

corrupt¹ /kəˈrʌpt/ *adjective* **1** dishonest or illegal *a corrupt government* **2** **COMPUTING** If information on a computer is corrupt, it has been damaged or spoiled. *corrupt files*

corrupt² /kəˈrʌpt/ *verb* [T] **1** to make someone or something become dishonest or immoral [**often passive**] *He became corrupted by power and money.* **2** **COMPUTING** to damage information on a computer

corruption /kəˈrʌpʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **1** BAD BEHAVIOUR dishonest or immoral behaviour, usually by people in positions of power *He was arrested for corruption and bribery.* **2** MAKE DISHONEST when you cause someone or something to become dishonest or immoral *the corruption of innocent young children*

corset /ˈkɔːsət/ *noun* [C] a tight piece of underwear worn by women to make themselves look thinner, especially in the past

cortex /ˈkɔːteks/ *noun plural* **cortices** **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the outer layer of an organ of the body, especially the brain **2** **BIOLOGY** a layer of tissue in the stems and roots of plants ➲See picture at **stem**

cosine /ˈkəʊsaɪn/ (*abbreviation* **cos**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** in a triangle that has one angle of 90°, the ratio of the length of the side next to an angle less than 90°, divided by the length of the hypotenuse (= the side opposite the 90° angle) ➲Compare **sine, tangent**

cosmetic /kɒzˈmetɪk/ *adjective* **1** APPEARANCE intended to improve your appearance **2** SMALL CHANGE involving only small changes or improvements that will not solve a problem *Critics claimed that the changes were only cosmetic.*

cosmetics /kɒzˈmetɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] substances that you put on your face or body to improve your appearance

cosˌmetic ˈsurgery *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a medical operation to make someone more attractive

cosmic /ˈkɒzmɪk/ *adjective* relating to the whole universe *cosmic rays*

cosmopolitan /ˌkɒzməˈpɒlɪtˈn/ *adjective* **1** PLACE consisting of people and things from many different countries *London is a very* ***cosmopolitan city.*** **2** EXPERIENCE having experience of many different countries or cultures *a dynamic, cosmopolitan businesswoman*

the cosmos /ˈkɒzmɒs/ *noun* the whole universe

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cost***

the cost **of** sth ● **at a cost of** [£500/$1000, etc] ● the **high/low** cost of sth ● **cover** the cost **of** (doing) sth ● **cut/reduce** costs ● **at no extra** cost ● the cost **of living**

cost¹ /kɒst/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [C, U] the amount of money that you need to buy or do something *The cruise ship was built* ***at a cost of*** *$400 million.* ○ *Software is included at* ***no extra cost.*** ○ *The* ***cost of living*** (= the cost of food, clothes, etc) *has increased.* **2** [**no plural**] something that you give or lose, in order to get or achieve something else *He rescued four people* ***at the cost of*** *his own life.* **3 at all costs** If something must be done at all costs, it is very important that it is done. *We have to succeed at all costs.* **4 to your cost** *UK* because of a bad experience you have had *An ankle injury can last a long time, as I know to my cost.*

cost² /kɒst/ *verb past* **cost** **1** **FINANCE** [T] If something costs a particular amount of money, you have to pay that in order to buy or do it. *How much do these shoes cost?* [+ **to do sth**] ***It costs*** *$5 to send the package by airmail.* [+ **two objects**] *It's going to cost me a lot of money to buy a new car.* **2** [+ **two objects**] to make someone lose something *His lazy attitude cost him his job.*

cost³ /kɒst/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to calculate the amount of money needed to do or make something *The building work has been costed at $30,000.*

co-star¹ /ˈkəʊstɑːr/ *noun* [C] one of two famous actors who both have important parts in a particular film

co-star² /kəʊˈstɑːr/ (US) /ˈkəʊstɑːr/ *verb* **co-starring,** *past* **co-starred** **1** FILM/PLAY [T] If a film, play, etc co-stars two or more famous actors, they are in it. **2** ACTOR [I] to be in a film, play, etc with another famous actor *Hugh Grant* ***co-stars with*** *Julia Roberts in 'Notting Hill'.*

cost-ˈbenefit aˌnalysis *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a method of deciding whether something is worth doing, especially by a government or a business, by comparing the cost with the benefits that will come from it

cost-cutting /ˈkɒstˌkʌtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** actions that reduce the amount of money spent on something ***cost-cutting measures/strategies***

cost-effective /ˌkɒstɪˈfektɪv/ *adjective* **FINANCE** If something is cost-effective, it achieves good results for little money.

costly /ˈkɒstli/ *adjective* **1** EXPENSIVE expensive [+ **to do sth**] *It would be too costly to build a swimming pool.* **2** CAUSING PROBLEMS causing a lot of problems, or causing you to lose something important *a costly mistake*

ˌcost of ˈborrowing *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the amount of money that a person or business has to pay in order to borrow a sum of money

ˌcost of ˈsales *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the amount that it costs a business to produce and sell something

cost-plus pricing /ˌkɒstplʌsˈpraɪsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a method of deciding the price for a product by adding a particular amount to the cost of producing it

ˌcost ˈprice *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** the price that it cost to make a product, without a profit being added

costume /ˈkɒstjuːm/ *noun* **1** PLAY [C, U] a set of clothes that someone wears to make them look like someone or something else, for example in a play *actors in costume* ○ *He arrived at the party dressed in a gorilla costume.* **2** TYPICAL CLOTHES [U] a set of clothes that are typical of a particular country or time in history *Japanese national costume* ➲See also: **swimming costume**

cosy *UK* (*US* **cozy**) /ˈkəʊzi/ *adjective* comfortable and warm

cot /kɒt/ *UK* (*US* **crib**) *noun* [C] a bed with high sides for a baby

ˈcot ˌdeath *UK* (*US* **SIDS**) *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** the sudden death of a sleeping baby for no obvious reason

cottage /ˈkɒtɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a small house, usually in the countryside

ˌcottage ˈcheese *noun* [U] **FOOD** a soft, white cheese with small lumps in it

cotton¹ /ˈkɒtᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** CLOTH cloth or thread that is produced from the cotton plant *a cotton shirt/dress* **2** PLANT a plant that produces a soft, white substance used for making thread and cloth **3** FOR CLEANING *US* (*UK* **cotton wool**) a soft mass of cotton, usually used for cleaning your skin ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** at page Centre 3

ˌcotton ˈwool *UK* (*US* **cotton**) *noun* [U] a soft mass of cotton, usually used for cleaning your skin ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

cotyledon /ˌkɒtɪˈliːdən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of leaf that is part of the developing plant inside a seed and either stores food or grows from the seed to produce food

couch¹ /kaʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] a long, comfortable piece of furniture that two or more people can sit on

couch² /kaʊtʃ/ *verb* **be couched in/as sth** to be expressed in a particular way *His explanation was* ***couched in*** *technical language.*

ˈcouch poˌtato *noun* [C] *UK humorous* a person who is not active and spends a lot of time watching television

O-K **cough¹** /kɒf/ *verb* [I] **HEALTH** to make air come out of your throat with a short sound
cough sth up *phrasal verb* to make something come out of your lungs or throat by coughing *Doctors were worried when she started* ***coughing up blood.***
cough (sth) up *phrasal verb informal* to give money to someone although you do not want to

cough² /kɒf/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** when you cough, or the sound this makes **2** **HEALTH** an illness that makes you cough a lot *Uwe* ***has*** *a nasty* ***cough.*** ➲See also: **whooping cough**

O-K **could** *strong form* /kʊd/ *weak form* /kəd/ *modal verb* **1** CAN used as the past form of 'can' to talk about what someone or something was able or allowed to do *I couldn't see what he was doing.* ○ *You said we could watch television when we'd finished our homework.* **2** POSSIBLE used to talk about what is possible or might happen *The baby could arrive any day now.* ○ *This kind of crime could easily be prevented.* ○ *She could have* (= might have) *been seriously injured.* **3** ASK used to ask someone politely to do or provide something *Could you lend me £5?* ○ *Could I have another drink?* **4** ASK PERMISSION used to ask politely for permission to do something *Could I speak to Mr Davis, please?* **5** SUGGEST used to make a suggestion *You could try painting it a different colour.* **6 I could (have)** used when you feel so happy, sad, angry, etc that you would like to do something *I was so grateful I could have kissed her!* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

O-K **couldn't** /ˈkʊdᵊnt/ *short for* could not *I couldn't understand what he was saying.*

O-K **could've** /ˈkʊdəv/ *short for* could have *It could've been much worse.*

coulomb /ˈkuːlɒm/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit of measurement for electric charge, representing the charge carried by one ampere (= unit of electric current) in one second

council, Council /ˈkaʊnsᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** **POLITICS** a group of people who are elected to control a town, city, or area *Edinburgh City Council* ○ *a council meeting* **2** a group of people who are elected or chosen to give advice or make decisions *the Medical Research Council* **3 a council house/flat** in the UK a house or flat that is owned by a city or town council and rented to people

ˈcouncil eˌstate *UK* (*US* **housing project**) *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a part of a city with council houses and flats (= homes owned by a council and rented to people) *a Birmingham council estate*

councillor *UK* (*US* **councilor**) /ˈkaʊnsᵊləʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a member of a town, city, or area council

counsel¹ /ˈkaʊnsᵊl/ *noun* **1** **LAW** [C] a lawyer (= someone who advises people about the law and deals with legal situations) who speaks for someone in court **2** [U] *literary* advice

counsel² /ˈkaʊnsᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **counselling,** *past* **counselled,** *US* **counseling,** *past* **counseled** **1** ADVISE *formal* to advise someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Lawyers had counselled him not to say anything.* **2** ABOUT PROBLEMS to give advice to someone who has problems

counselling *UK* (*US* **counseling**) /ˈkaʊnsəlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the job or process of listening to someone and giving them advice about their problems *a counselling service*

counsellor *UK* (*US* **counselor**) /ˈkaʊnsələʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to listen to people and give them advice about their problems

O-K **count¹** /kaʊnt/ *verb* **1** **MATHEMATICS** [T] to see how many people or things there are *I counted the money on the table.* **2** **MATHEMATICS** [I] to say numbers in their correct order *Can you count*

C

to twenty in French? **3** CONSIDER [T] to think of someone or something in a particular way *She **counted** Tim **as** her closest friend.* ○ *You should **count yourself lucky** you weren't hurt.* **4** IMPORTANT [I] to be important *I believe that health and happiness count more than money.* ○ *Doesn't my opinion **count for** anything?* **5** INCLUDE [T] to include something or someone in a calculation *There are 1500 people at my school, counting teachers.* **6** BE ACCEPTED [I] to be accepted or allowed as part of something *I've been to sixteen different countries, but I only spent half an hour in Luxembourg, so that doesn't really count.*

count against sb/sth *phrasal verb* to make someone or something more likely to fail *Her lack of experience will count against her.*

count sb in *phrasal verb* to include someone in an activity *If you're going for a pizza, you can count me in.*

count on sb *phrasal verb* to be confident that you can depend on someone *I can always count on my parents to help me.*

count on sth *phrasal verb* to expect something to happen and make plans based on it *I didn't count on so many people coming to the party.*

count sth out *phrasal verb* to count coins or pieces of paper money one by one as you put them down *She counted out five crisp $20 bills.*

count sb out *phrasal verb* to not include someone in an activity

count towards sth *phrasal verb* to be part of what is needed to complete something or achieve something *This essay counts towards my exam result.*

count up sb/sth *phrasal verb* to add together all the people or things in a group

count² /kaʊnt/ *noun* **1** NUMBER [C] when you count something, or the total number you get after counting [**usually singular**] *At the last count there were 410 club members.* **2 lose count** to forget how many of something there is *I've **lost count of** the number of times she's arrived late.* **3 on all/both/several, etc counts** in all, both, several, etc parts of a situation, argument, etc *I had been wrong **on both counts**.* **4** RANK [C] (*also* **Count**) a man of high social rank in some European countries **5** CRIME [C] one of the times that someone has been accused of a particular crime *He was charged with two counts of assault.* ➲See also: **pollen count**

countable noun /ˌkaʊntəbəˈlˈnaʊn/ (*also* **ˈcount ˌnoun**) *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a noun that has both plural and singular forms ➲See Extra help page **Countable and uncountable nouns** on page Centre 30.

countdown /ˈkaʊntdaʊn/ *noun* [C] the time just before an important event when people are counting the time until it happens [**usually singular**] *The **countdown to** the Olympics has begun.*

countenance¹ /ˈkaʊntənəns/ *noun* [C] *literary* the appearance or expression of someone's face

countenance² /ˈkaʊntənəns/ *verb* [T] *formal* to accept that something should happen *They will not countenance building a new airport.*

counter¹ /ˈkaʊntər/ *noun* [C] **1** IN A SHOP the place in a shop, bank, etc, where people are served *The woman **behind the counter** took his money.* **2** SURFACE *US* a flat surface in a kitchen on which food can be prepared **3** DISC a small disc used in some games that are played on a board

counter² /ˈkaʊntər/ *verb* [T] **1** PREVENT to prevent something or reduce the bad effect that it has *This skin cream claims to counter the effects of sun damage.* **2** REACT to say something to show that what someone has just said is not true *"Of course I love him," Clare countered.*

counter³ /ˈkaʊntər/ *adverb* **be/run counter to sth** to have the opposite effect to something else *The new road plans run counter to the government's aim of reducing pollution.*

counter- /kaʊntər-/ *prefix* opposing or as a reaction to *a counter-attack* (= an attack on someone who has attacked you)

counteract /ˌkaʊntərˈækt/ *verb* [T] to reduce the bad effect that something else has *drugs that counteract the side effects of sea sickness*

counter-attack /ˈkaʊntərəˌtæk/ *noun* [C] an attack that you make against someone who has attacked you in a sport, war, or argument ●**counter-attack** *verb* [I, T]

counterclockwise /ˌkaʊntəˈklɒkwaɪz/ *US* (*UK* **anti-clockwise**) *adjective, adverb* in the opposite direction to the way the hands (= parts that point to the numbers) of a clock move ➲See picture at **clockwise**

counterfeit /ˈkaʊntəfɪt/ *adjective* made to look like the real thing, in order to trick people *counterfeit money/jewellery*

counterpart /ˈkaʊntəpɑːt/ *noun* [C] someone or something that has the same job or position as someone or something in a different place or organization

counterproductive /ˌkaʊntəprəˈdʌktɪv/ *adjective* having the opposite effect from the one you want

countess /ˈkaʊntɪs/ *noun* [C] a woman who has a high social rank in some European countries, especially the wife of an earl or count (= man of high social rank) *the Countess of Abingdon*

countless /ˈkaʊntləs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] very many *The song has been played **countless times** on the radio.*

country¹ /ˈkʌntri/ *noun* **1** [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of land that has its own government, army, etc *European countries* **2 the country a GEOGRAPHY** the areas that are away from towns and cities **b SOCIETY** the people who live in a country *The country was shocked by the President's decision.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

country, land, nation, or state?

Country is the most general word which means 'an area of land'. It usually means an area of land with its own government and people.

China, Japan, and other countries in Asia

Nation is used to talk about a country, especially when you mean the people or the culture of that country.

The nation celebrated the 100th anniversary of independence.

State is used to talk about a country as a political or official area. Some countries are divided into political units that are also called **states**.

Belgium became an independent state in 1830.

America is divided into 50 states.

the State of Florida

Land means an area of ground, not an area with its own government.

We bought some land to build a house on.

country² /ˈkʌntri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **GEOGRAPHY** in or relating to the areas that are away from towns and cities *country roads/hotels*

countryman /ˈkʌntrɪmən/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **countrymen** someone from the same country as you

ˌcountry ˈmusic (*also* **ˌcountry and ˈwestern**) *noun* [**U**] **MUSIC** a style of popular music from the southern and western US

countryside /ˈkʌntrɪsaɪd/ *noun* [**U**] land that is not in towns or cities and has farms, fields, forests, etc ➲See Common Learner Error at **nature**

county /ˈkaʊnti/ *noun* [**C**] an area of Britain, Ireland, or the US that has its own local government

coup /kuː/ *noun* [**C**] **1 POLITICS** (*also* **coup d'état** /ˌkuːdeɪˈtɑː/) when a group of people suddenly takes control of a country using force ***a military coup*** **2** an important achievement, often one that was not expected *The award is a* ***major coup*** *for the university.*

O-K **couple¹** /ˈkʌpl/ *noun* **1** A FEW [**no plural**] two or a few *I went to New York with* ***a couple of*** *friends.* ○ *The weather has improved over the last* ***couple of*** *weeks.* **2** TWO PEOPLE [**C**] two people who are married or having a romantic relationship ***a married couple***

couple² /ˈkʌpl/ *verb* **coupled with sth** combined with something else *Concern about farming methods, coupled with health awareness, have led to a fall in meat consumption.*

coupon /ˈkuːpɒn/ *noun* [**C**] **1 FINANCE** a piece of printed paper that you can use to buy something at a cheaper price or to get something free *Collect 10 coupons to get a free meal.* **2** a printed form in a magazine or newspaper, that you use to send for information, enter a competition, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***courage***

have the courage to do sth ● **show** courage ● sth **takes** courage ● **great/immense/personal** courage

courage /ˈkʌrɪdʒ/ *noun* [**U**] **1** the ability to deal with dangerous or difficult situations without being frightened [**+ to do sth**] *She didn't* ***have the courage*** *to tell him the truth.* **2 pluck up the courage (to do sth)** to decide to do something that you were too frightened to do before

courageous /kəˈreɪdʒəs/ *adjective* brave ●**courageously** *adverb*

courgette /kɔːˈʒet/ *UK* (*US* **zucchini**) *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a long, green vegetable which is white inside

courier /ˈkʊriəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** DOCUMENTS someone whose job is to take and deliver documents and parcels **2** HOLIDAY *UK* someone whose job is to look after people who are on holiday

O-K **course** /kɔːs/ *noun* **1 of course a** YES used to say 'yes' and emphasize your answer *"Can you help me?" "Of course!"* **b** OBVIOUS used to show that what you are saying is obvious or already known *Of course, the Olympics are not just about money.* **2 of course not** used to say 'no' and emphasize your answer *"Do you mind if I borrow your pen?" "Of course not."* **3 EDUCATION** [**C**] a series of lessons about a particular subject *She did a ten-week course in computing.* **4 FOOD** [**C**] a part of a meal *a three-course dinner* **5 SPORT** [**C**] an area used for horse races or playing golf *a golf course* **6 HEALTH** [**C**] *mainly UK* a fixed number of regular medical treatments *a course of antibiotics* **7** ROUTE [**C, U**] the direction in which a ship, aircraft, etc is moving *During the storm, the boat was blown* ***off course*** (= in the wrong direction). **8** ACTION [**C**] (*also* **ˌcourse of ˈaction**) something that you can do in a particular situation *I think the best course of action would be to write to him.* **9 during/in/over the course of sth** during a particular time or activity *In the course of the interview she mentioned her previous experience.* **10 in due course** at a suitable time in the future *The results will be sent to you in due course.* **11** DEVELOPMENT [**no plural**] the way something develops, usually over a long time *Nuclear weapons have changed* ***the course of*** *modern history.* **12 in the course of time** *UK* gradually, or over a period of time **13 be on course for sth/to do sth** *UK* to be very likely to succeed at something **14 run its course** If something runs its course, it continues naturally until it has finished. ➲See also: be on a **collision** course, **crash course,** be **par** for the course

coursebook /ˈkɔːsbʊk/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* **EDUCATION** a book used by students when they do a particular course of study

coursework /ˈkɔːswɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] *UK* **EDUCATION** work done by students as part of their course of study

O-K **court¹** /kɔːt/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1 LAW** the place where a judge decides whether someone is guilty of a crime *The suspect appeared* ***in court*** *charged with robbery.* ○ *You can* ***take them to court*** (= make them be judged in court) *if they don't pay.* **2 the court LAW** the judge and group of people at a trial who decide whether someone is guilty of a crime **3 SPORT** an area for playing particular sports *a tennis/basketball court* **4** ROYAL HOUSE the official home of a king or queen and the people who live with them ➲See also: **High Court, the supreme court**

court² /kɔːt/ *verb* **1** PLEASE [**T**] to try to please someone because you want them to support you or join you *Adams is being courted by several football clubs.* **2** TRY TO GET [**T**] to try to get or achieve something *to court investment/publicity* **3** RELATIONSHIP [**I, T**] *old-fashioned* to have a romantic relationship with someone you hope to marry **4 court controversy/danger/disaster, etc** to behave in a way that risks bad results

courteous /ˈkɜːtiəs/ *adjective* polite and showing respect ●**courteously** *adverb*

courtesy /ˈkɜːtəsi/ *noun* **1** [U] behaviour that is polite and shows respect, or a polite action or remark *The hotel treats all guests with courtesy.* [+ **to do sth**] *He didn't even* ***have the courtesy*** *to thank me.* **2 (by) courtesy of sb/sth** If you have something courtesy of someone, they have allowed you to have it. *The photograph is courtesy of the Natural History Museum.*

courthouse /ˈkɔːthaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **courthouses** /ˈkɔːthaʊzɪz/ *mainly US* **LAW** a building with law courts inside it

courtier /ˈkɔːtiə/ *noun* [C] someone who spent a lot of time in the home of a king or queen in the past

court-martial¹ /ˌkɔːtˈmɑːʃəl/ *noun* [C] a military court, or a trial in a military court

court-martial² /ˌkɔːtˈmɑːʃəl/ *verb* [T] to judge someone in a military court

ˈcourt ˌorder *noun* [C] **LAW** an instruction from a law court that someone must do or not do something

courtroom /ˈkɔːtrʊm/ *noun* [C] the room where a judge and other people decide whether someone is guilty of a crime

courtship /ˈkɔːtʃɪp/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* the time when people have a romantic relationship with the intention of getting married

courtyard /ˈkɔːtjɑːd/ *noun* [C] an open area by a building with walls or buildings around it

cousin /ˈkʌzən/ *noun* [C] the child of your aunt or uncle

couture /kuːˈtjʊə/ *noun* [U] **DT** the design, making, and selling of expensive and fashionable clothes

covalent bond /kəʊˌveɪlənt ˈbɒnd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical bond in which two atoms share one or more pairs of electrons, which hold them together

cove /kəʊv/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a place on the coast where the land curves in

covenant /ˈkʌvənənt/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a formal written agreement

cover¹ /ˈkʌvə/ *verb* [T] **1** PUT to put something over something else, in order to protect or hide it *They covered him with a blanket.* ○ *He covered his face with his hands.* ➲Opposite **uncover** **2** LAYER to form a layer on the surface of something *Snow covered the trees.* ○ *My legs were* ***covered in/with*** *mud.* **3** DISTANCE to travel a particular distance *We covered 700 kilometres in four days.* **4** AREA to be a particular size or area *The town covers an area of 10 square miles.* **5** INCLUDE to include or deal with a subject or piece of information *The book covers European history from 1789-1914.* **6** REPORT to report on an event for a newspaper, television programme, etc *Dave was asked to cover the Olympics.* **7** MONEY to be enough money to pay for something *£100 should cover the cost of the repairs.* **8 FINANCE** to provide financial protection if something bad happens *travel insurance that covers accident and injury* ➲See also: touch/cover all the bases (**base¹**)
cover sth up *phrasal verb* to put something over something else, in order to protect or hide it
cover (sth) up *phrasal verb* to stop people from discovering the truth about something bad *She tried to cover up her mistakes.*

cover² /ˈkʌvə/ *noun* **1** BOOK [C] the outer part of a book, magazine, etc, that protects the pages *Her picture was* ***on the cover*** *of 'Vogue' magazine.* **2** PROTECTION [C] something you put over something else, usually to protect it *an ironing board cover* ○ *a lens cover* **3 FINANCE** [U] financial protection so that you get money if something bad happens *The policy provides £50,000 accidental damage cover.* **4** FROM WEATHER/ATTACK [U] protection from bad weather or an attack *They* ***took cover*** *under some trees until the rain stopped.* **5** FOR ILLEGAL ACTIVITY [C] something used to hide a secret or illegal activity *The club is used as a* ***cover for*** *a gang of car thieves.*

coverage /ˈkʌvərɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **1** the way a newspaper, television programme, etc reports an event or subject *There is* ***live coverage*** *of the game on cable TV.* **2 FINANCE** *mainly US* financial protection so that you get money if something bad happens

coveralls /ˈkʌvərɔːlz/ *US* (*UK* **overalls**) *noun* [**plural**] a piece of clothing that you wear over your clothes to keep them clean while you are working

covering /ˈkʌvərɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a layer that covers something *a thick covering of snow*

ˌcovering ˈletter *UK* (*US* **ˈcover ˌletter**) *noun* [C] a letter that you send with something to explain what it is or to give more information about it

covers /ˈkʌvəz/ *noun* [**plural**] the sheets and other layers of cloth on your bed that keep you warm

covert /ˈkəʊvɜːt/ *adjective* done in a secret way *covert police operations* ●**covertly** *adverb*

cover-up /ˈkʌvərʌp/ *noun* [C] an attempt to prevent people finding out the truth about a crime or a mistake *Police denied accusations of a cover-up.*

ˈcover ˌversion *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a recording of a song already recorded by someone else *a cover version of 'Let It Be'*

covet /ˈkʌvɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to want something very much, especially something that someone else has

cow /kaʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL a large farm animal kept for milk or meat **2** INSULT *UK informal* an offensive word for a woman

coward /kaʊəd/ *noun* [C] someone who is not brave and tries to avoid dangerous or difficult situations

cowardice /ˈkaʊədɪs/ *noun* [U] behaviour that shows that someone is not brave

cowardly /ˈkaʊədli/ *adjective* behaving in a way that shows you are not brave

cowboy /ˈkaʊbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL WORKER a man whose job is to look after cattle (= animals such as cows) in the US, and who usually rides a horse **2** BAD WORKER *UK informal* someone who does their job badly or who is dishonest in business *cowboy builders*

ˈcowboy ˌboots *noun* [C] a type of boots with pointed toes, first worn by cowboys ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

ˈcowboy ˌhat *noun* [C] a type of hat with a hight top and a wide lower edge, first worn by cowboys

cower /kaʊəʳ/ *verb* [I] to bend down or move back because you are frightened

co-worker /ˌkəʊˈwɜːkəʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* someone that you work with

coy /kɔɪ/ *adjective* **1** NO INFORMATION not wanting to give people information about something *Nigel's very coy about how much he earns.* **2** SHY pretending to be shy *a coy look* ●**coyly** *adverb*

coyote /kaɪˈəʊti/ *noun* [C] a wild animal similar to a dog, that lives in North America

cozy /ˈkəʊzi/ *adjective US spelling of* cosy

CPU /ˌsiːpiːˈjuː/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* central processing unit: the part of a computer that controls all the other parts

Cr. **FINANCE** *written abbeviation for* credit: money going into an account

crab /kræb/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a sea creature with ten legs and a round, flat body covered by a shell, or the meat from this animal

crack¹ /kræk/ *verb* **1** BREAK [I, T] to break something so that it does not separate, but very thin lines appear on its surface, or to become broken in this way *The concrete had started to crack.* ○ *cracked dishes* **2** EGG/NUT [T] to open an egg or nut by breaking its shell **3** HIT [T] to hit a part of your body against something hard, by accident *He cracked his head on the cupboard door.* **4** SOLVE [T] *informal* to solve a difficult problem *It took three months to crack the enemy's code.* **5 get cracking** *informal* to start doing something quickly **6** LOSE CONTROL [I] to lose control of your emotions and be unable to deal with a situation *He finally cracked after years of stress.* **7** NOISE [I, T] to make a sudden, short noise, or to cause something to make this noise **8 crack a joke** to tell a joke **9 not all it's cracked up to be** *informal* (*also* **not as good as it's cracked up to be** *informal*) not as good as people think or say *Being an actor isn't all it's cracked up to be.*
crack down *phrasal verb* to start dealing with bad or illegal behaviour in a more severe way *Police are* ***cracking down on*** *crime in the area.*
crack up *phrasal verb informal* to become mentally ill
crack (sb) up *phrasal verb informal* to suddenly laugh a lot, or to make someone suddenly laugh a lot

crack² /kræk/ *noun* **1** LINE [C] a line on the surface of something that is damaged *Several cups had cracks in them.* **2** NARROW SPACE [C] a narrow space between two parts of something or between two things *I could see sunlight through a crack in the curtains.* **3** **HEALTH** [U] an illegal drug that is very harmful **4** NOISE [C] a sudden, short noise *a* ***crack of thunder*** **5** JOKE [C] an unkind joke or remark *He was always* ***making cracks about*** *my weight.* **6 have/take a crack at sth** *informal* to try to do something *I've never put up shelves before, but I'll have a crack at it.* **7 the crack of dawn** very early in the morning *He gets up at the crack of dawn.*

crack³ /kræk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] of the highest quality *a crack regiment*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***crackdown***

announce/call for/launch/order a crackdown ● a crackdown **on** sth ● a **tough** crackdown ● a **government/police** crackdown

crackdown /ˈkrækdaʊn/ *noun* [C] when bad or illegal behaviour is dealt with in a very severe way, in order to stop it happening *The police are having* ***a crackdown on*** *speeding.*

cracker /ˈkrækəʳ/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C] a dry biscuit that you eat with cheese **2** CHRISTMAS [C] (*also* **Christmas cracker**) a coloured paper tube with a small toy inside, that people pull open at Christmas (= a Christian holiday) in the UK **3** GOOD [**no plural**] *UK informal* someone or something that is very good

cracking /ˈkrækɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a process in which complex molecules are broken down into more simple molecules

crackle /ˈkrækl/ *verb* [I] to make a lot of short, dry noises *A fire crackled in the hearth.* ●**crackle** *noun* [**no plural**]

cradle¹ /ˈkreɪdl/ *noun* **1** BED [C] a baby's bed, especially one that swings from side to side **2** TELEPHONE the part of a telephone that holds the receiver (= the part of a telephone that you hold in your hand and use to listen and speak) **3** MOBILE PHONE a small stand that holds a mobile phone **4 the cradle of sth** the place where something started *Massachusetts, the cradle of the American Revolution*

cradle² /ˈkreɪdl/ *verb* [T] to hold someone or something in a careful, gentle way *He* ***cradled her in*** *his arms.*

craft¹ /krɑːft/ *noun* **1** **ART, DT** [C, U] an activity in which you make something using a lot of skill, especially with your hands *traditional crafts such as weaving* **2** [C] *plural* **craft** a boat

craft² /krɑːft/ *verb* [T] to make something using a lot of skill [**often passive**] *a bowl that was beautifully crafted from wood*

craftsman /ˈkrɑːftsmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **craftsmen** someone who uses special skill to make things, especially with their hands ●**craftsmanship** *noun* [U] skill at making things

crafty /ˈkrɑːfti/ *adjective* clever at getting what you want, especially by deceiving people ●**craftily** *adverb*

crag /kræg/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a high, rough mass of rock that sticks up from the land around it

cram /kræm/ *verb* **cramming,** *past* **crammed** **1 cram sth between/in/into, etc** to force things into a small space *The refugees were crammed into the truck.* **2** **EDUCATION** [I] to study a lot before an exam

crammed /kræmd/ *adjective* completely full of people or things *crammed commuter trains* ○ *The room was* ***crammed with*** *boxes.*

cramp¹ /kræmp/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a sudden, strong pain in a muscle that makes it difficult to move *I've got cramp in my legs.*

cramp² /kræmp/ *verb* ➲See: cramp sb's **style¹**

cramped /kræmpt/ *adjective* A cramped room, building, etc is unpleasant because it is not big enough.

cranberry /ˈkrænbᵊri/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, red berry (= soft fruit) with a sour taste

crane¹ /kreɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** MACHINE a large machine used for lifting and moving heavy things **2** BIRD a bird with long legs and a long neck

crane² /kreɪn/ *verb* [I, T] to stretch your neck, in order to see or hear something

cranium /ˈkreɪniəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **craniums** or **crania** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the hard bone in animals and humans, which gives the head its shape and protects the brain ➲See picture at **brain** ➲See picture at **skull**

crank /kræŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON *informal* someone with strange ideas or behaviour **2** HANDLE a handle that you turn to make a machine work

cranny /ˈkræni/ *noun* ➲See: every **nook** and cranny

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***crash***

have/be involved in a crash ● be **injured in/killed in** a crash ● the **cause of** a crash ● a crash **victim** ● a **car/plane/train** crash

crash¹ /kræʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE an accident in which a vehicle hits something *a **car/plane crash*** **2** NOISE a sudden, loud noise made when something falls or breaks *I heard a crash and hurried into the kitchen.* **3** **COMPUTING** when a computer or computer system suddenly stops working **4** **ECONOMICS** when the value of a country's businesses suddenly falls by a large amount *He lost a lot of money in the stock market crash of 1929.*

crash² /kræʃ/ *verb* **1** VEHICLE [I, T] If a vehicle crashes, it hits something by accident, and if you crash a vehicle, you make it hit something by accident. *The van skidded and **crashed into** a tree.* ○ *Rick crashed his dad's car.* **2** **COMPUTING** [I] If a computer or computer system crashes, it suddenly stops working. **3 crash against/on/through, etc** to hit something and make a loud noise *The waves crashed against the rocks.* **4** LOUD NOISE [I] to make a sudden, loud noise *Thunder crashed overhead.* **5** **ECONOMICS** [I] If a financial market crashes, prices suddenly fall by a large amount.

ˈcrash ˌbarrier *noun* [C] *UK* a fence along the middle or edge of a road for preventing accidents

ˈcrash ˌcourse *UK* (*US* **ˌcrash ˈcourse**) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a course that teaches you a lot of basic facts in a very short time

ˈcrash ˌhelmet *noun* [C] a hard hat that protects your head when you ride a motorcycle

crass /kræs/ *adjective* showing that you do not understand or care about other people's feelings *a crass remark*

crate /kreɪt/ *noun* [C] a large box used for carrying or storing things

crater /ˈkreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **GEOLOGY** the round, open part at the top of a volcano ➲See picture at **volcano** **2** a big hole in the ground *The explosion left a crater in the road.*

ˈcrater ˌlake *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a round lake that has formed in the top of a volcano

crave /kreɪv/ *verb* [T] to want something very much *a child who craves affection* ●**craving** *noun* [C] a strong feeling that you want or need a particular thing *She **had a craving for** chocolate.*

crawl¹ /krɔːl/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I] to move on your hands and knees *I crawled under the desk to plug the lamp in.* **2** ANIMAL [I] If an insect crawls, it uses its legs to move. *There's an ant crawling up your leg.* **3** TRAFFIC [I] If traffic crawls, it moves extremely slowly. *We were **crawling along** at 10 miles per hour.* **4** TRY TO PLEASE [I] *UK informal* to try to please someone because you want them to like you or help you *My brother is always **crawling to** Mum.* **5 be crawling with sb/sth** to be full of insects or people in a way that is unpleasant *The kitchen's crawling with ants.*

crawl² /krɔːl/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] a very slow speed *Traffic slowed to a crawl.* **2** **SPORT** [U] a style of swimming in which you move your arms over your head and kick with straight legs

crayon /ˈkreɪɒn/ *noun* [C] **ART** a stick of coloured wax used for drawing

craze /kreɪz/ *noun* [C] something that is very popular for a short time

crazed /kreɪzd/ *adjective* behaving in a dangerous and uncontrolled way *a crazed gunman*

crazy /ˈkreɪzi/ *adjective* **1** STUPID stupid or strange *a crazy idea* ○ *I was crazy not to take that job.* **2** ANGRY annoyed or angry *The children are **driving me crazy*** (= making me annoyed). ○ *Dad **went crazy** when I told him what had happened.* **3 be crazy about sb/sth** to love someone very much, or to be very interested in something *Mia's crazy about baseball.* **4 go crazy** to become very excited about something *When he came on stage the audience went crazy.* **5 like crazy** *informal* If you do something like crazy, you do a lot of it, or do it very quickly. *We worked like crazy to get everything finished.* ●**crazily** *adverb* ●**craziness** *noun* [U]

creak /kriːk/ *verb* [I] If something such as a door or a piece of wood creaks, it makes a long noise when it moves. *creaking floorboards* ●**creak** *noun* [C] ●**creaky** *adjective* A creaky door, stair, etc creaks.

cream¹ /kriːm/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [U] a thick, yellowish-white liquid that is taken from milk *raspberries and cream* **2** FOR SKIN [C, U] a soft substance that you rub into your skin to make it softer or less painful *face/hand cream* **3** COLOUR [U] a yellowish-white colour **4 the cream of sth** the best people or things in a particular group *the cream of Milan's designers* ➲See also: **ice cream**

cream² /kriːm/ *adjective* being a yellowish-white colour

cream³ /kriːm/ *verb*
cream sth/sb off *phrasal verb UK* to take away the best part of something, or the best people in a group, and use them for your own advantage

ˌcream ˈcheese *noun* [U] **FOOD** smooth, soft, white cheese

creamy /ˈkriːmi/ *adjective* **FOOD** like cream or containing cream *creamy sauce/soup*

crease¹ /kriːs/ *noun* [C] a line on cloth or paper where it has been folded or crushed

crease² /kriːs/ *verb* [I, T] If cloth, paper, etc creases, or if you crease it, it gets a line in it where it has been folded or crushed. *Cotton creases very easily.*

O-key **create** /kriˈeɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something happen or exist *The project will create more than 500 jobs.* ○ *The snow created further problems.*

creation /kriˈeɪʃ°n/ *noun* **1** PROCESS [U] when someone makes something happen or exist *the creation of a new political party* **2** PRODUCT [C] something that someone has made *The museum contains some of his best creations.* **3 RELIGION** [U] (*also* **Creation**) in many religions, when God made the universe and everything in it

creative /kriˈeɪtɪv/ *adjective* good at thinking of new ideas or using imagination to create new and unusual things *Her book is full of creative ways to decorate your home.* ●**creatively** *adverb* ●**creativity** /ˌkriːeɪˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] the ability to produce new ideas or things using skill and imagination

creator /kriˈeɪtə˞/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who invents or makes something **2 the Creator RELIGION** God

creature /ˈkriːtʃə˞/ *noun* [C] anything that lives but is not a plant *Dolphins are intelligent creatures.*

creche /kreʃ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a place where babies and young children are looked after while their parents do something else

credence /ˈkriːd°ns/ *noun* **add/give/lend credence to sth** to make a story, theory, etc seem more likely to be true *The letters lend credence to the idea that he had an unhappy life.*

credentials /krɪˈdenʃ°lz/ *noun* [plural] **1** SKILLS skills and experience that show you are suitable for a particular job or activity *academic credentials* **2** PAPERS documents that prove who you are

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***credibility***

gain/lose credibility ● sth **damages/destroys/restores/undermines** sb's credibility ● sb **lacks** credibility

credibility /ˌkredəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] when someone can be believed and trusted *This decision has **damaged** the President's **credibility**.*

credible /ˈkredəbl/ *adjective* able to be trusted or believed *credible evidence*

credit¹ /ˈkredɪt/ *noun* **1 ECONOMICS, FINANCE** [U] a way of buying something in which you arrange to pay for it at a later time *We offer **interest-free credit** on all new cars.* ○ *He bought most of the furniture **on credit**.* **2** [U] praise that is given to someone for something they have done *I did most of the work but Dan **got** all **the credit!*** ○ *We should **give** her **credit for** her honesty.* ○ *I can't **take** full **credit for** this meal - Sam helped.* **3 be a credit to sb/sth** to do something that makes a person or organization proud of you *Giorgio is a credit to his family.* **4 to sb's credit** If something is to someone's credit, they deserve praise for it. *To his credit, Bill never blamed her for the incident.* **5 have sth to your credit** to have achieved something *By the age of 25, she had five novels to her credit.* **6 in credit FINANCE** having money in your bank account **7 FINANCE** [C] an amount of money that you put into your bank account ➲Opposite **debit 8 EDUCATION** [C] a unit that shows you have completed part of a college course

credit² /ˈkredɪt/ *verb* [T] **1 FINANCE** to add money to someone's bank account **2** to believe that something is true *Dean's getting married! Who would have credited it?*
credit sth to sb *phrasal verb* to say that someone is responsible for something good *an idea credited to Isaac Newton*
credit sb with sth *phrasal verb* to believe that someone has a particular quality *Credit me with some intelligence!*
credit sb with sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to say that someone is responsible for something good *She is credited with making the business a success.*

creditable /ˈkredɪtəbl/ *adjective* Something that is creditable deserves praise. *a creditable performance*

ˈcredit acˌcount *UK* (*US* **charge account**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a formal agreement between a shop or other business and a customer, in which the customer can take goods and pay the shop or business for them at a later time

ˈcredit ˌcard *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a small plastic card that allows you to buy something and pay for it later *He paid **by credit card**.*

ˈcredit conˌtrol *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a process or a group of people in a business that controls how much customers owe the business and how much they are allowed to owe it

ˈcredit ˌlimit *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the largest amount of money that a person can borrow with a credit card (= a small plastic card that allows you to buy something and pay for it later) *a £500 credit limit*

ˈcredit ˌnote *noun* [C] **1 FINANCE** a piece of paper that a shop gives a customer who has returned goods, that allows them to have other goods of the same value **2 FINANCE** a document that is sent by a business to a customer to reduce the amount the customer owes if there was a problem with the quality or amount of what they bought

creditor /ˈkredɪtə˞/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a person or organization that someone owes money to

ˈcreditors ˌledger *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of how much it owes to each business that has supplied goods or services to it

ˈcredit ˌrating *noun* [C usually singular] **FINANCE** a calculation of someone's ability to pay back money which they have borrowed

the credits /ˈkredɪts/ *noun* [plural] a list of people who made a film or television programme

ˈcredit ˌterms *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** the arrangements made for giving a customer credit

(= allowing them to pay later), e.g. the amount of money, when they must pay it, etc.

ˈcredit ˌtransfer *noun* [C] FINANCE an arrangement where a bank pays a amount of money from someone's bank account directly into the bank account of a business

creed /kriːd/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a set of beliefs, especially religious beliefs that influence your life

creek /kriːk/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY *UK* a narrow area of water that flows into the land from a sea or river **2** GEOGRAPHY *mainly US* a stream or narrow river

creep¹ /kriːp/ *verb past* **crept 1 creep along/in/out, etc** to move very quietly and carefully *I crept out of the room.* **2 creep across/in/into, etc** to gradually start to exist or appear *Problems were beginning to creep into their relationship.* **3 creep along/down/through, etc** to move somewhere very slowly *The convoy crept along in the darkness.*
creep up on sb *phrasal verb* **1** SURPRISE to surprise someone by moving closer to them from behind *Don't creep up on me like that!* **2** FEELING/STATE If a feeling or state creeps up on you, it happens gradually so that you do not notice it. *Old age just creeps up on you.*

creep² /kriːp/ *noun* [C] **1** NOT SINCERE *UK* someone who you do not like because they are nice to people in a way that is not sincere **2** UNPLEASANT someone who you think is unpleasant

creeps /kriːps/ *noun* **give sb the creeps** *informal* to make someone feel frightened or nervous *These old buildings give me the creeps.*

creepy /ˈkriːpi/ *adjective informal* strange and frightening *a creepy story/person*

cremate /krɪˈmeɪt/ *verb* [T] to burn a dead body ●**cremation** /krɪˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] the ceremony where someone is cremated

crematorium /ˌkreməˈtɔːriəm/ (*also US* **crematory** /ˈkriːmətɔːri/) *noun* [C] a place where people are cremated

crept /krept/ *past of* creep

crescendo /krɪˈʃendəʊ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC when a noise or piece of music gradually gets louder

crescent /ˈkresᵊnt/ *noun* **1** [C] a curved shape that is narrow at each end and wider in the middle *the pale crescent of the moon* **2 Crescent** used in the names of streets that have a curved shape *57 Park Crescent*

crest /krest/ *noun* [C] **1** TOP the highest part of a hill or wave **2** FEATHERS the feathers that point upwards on a bird's head **3** DESIGN a design used as the symbol of a school, important family, etc

crestfallen /ˈkrestˌfɔːlᵊn/ *adjective* disappointed or sad

Cretacious /krɪˈteɪʃəs/ *adjective* GEOLOGY from the period of time between around 144 and 65 million years ago, in which plants with flowers first appeared

crevasse /krɪˈvæs/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a deep, wide crack, especially in ice

crevice /ˈkrevɪs/ *noun* [C] GEOLOGY a small, narrow crack, especially in a rock

crew /kruː/ *noun* [group] **1** SHIP/AIRCRAFT the people who work together on a ship, aircraft, or train *a crew member* **2** TEAM a team of people with special skills who work together *Fire and ambulance crews were at the scene.*

crewman /ˈkruːmæn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **crewmen** a member of the crew of a ship or aircraft

crib /krɪb/ *US* (*UK* **cot**) *noun* [C] a bed with high sides for a baby

cricket /ˈkrɪkɪt/ *noun* **1** SPORT [U] a game in which two teams of eleven people try to score points by hitting a ball and running between two wickets (= sets of three wooden sticks) *a cricket ball/bat* ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **2** [C] an insect that jumps and makes a noise by rubbing its wings together

cricketer /ˈkrɪkɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who plays cricket, especially as their job

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***crime***

commit a crime ● **combat/reduce/fight** crime ● a **minor/petty/terrible/violent** crime

crime /kraɪm/ *noun* LAW **1** [U] illegal activities ***violent crime*** ○ *tough new measures to* ***fight crime*** **2** [C] something someone does that is illegal *He* ***committed*** *a serious* ***crime***. ➲See also: **war crime**

criminal¹ /ˈkrɪmɪnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** LAW [always before noun] relating to crime *criminal activity* ○ *He has a* ***criminal record*** (= the police have an official record of his crimes). **2** BAD *informal* very bad or morally wrong *It's criminal that people are having to wait so long for hospital treatment.* ●**criminally** *adverb*

criminal² /ˈkrɪmɪnᵊl/ *noun* [C] LAW someone who has committed a crime ***a dangerous/violent criminal***

criminologist /ˌkrɪmɪˈnɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] LAW someone who studies crime and criminals

crimson /ˈkrɪmzᵊn/ *noun* [U] a dark red colour ●**crimson** *adjective*

cringe /krɪndʒ/ *verb* [I] **1** EMBARRASSED to feel very embarrassed about something *Jan* ***cringed at*** *the sight of her father dancing.* **2** FRIGHTENED to move away from something because you are frightened

crinkle /ˈkrɪŋkl/ *verb* [I, T] to become covered in small lines or folds, or to make something become covered in small lines or folds ●**crinkly** *adjective* Something that is crinkly has crinkles in it.

cripple¹ /ˈkrɪpl/ *verb* [T] **1** BODY to injure someone so that they cannot use their arms or legs [**often passive**] *His son was crippled by a riding accident.* **2** DAMAGE to damage something very badly and make it weak or not effective [**often passive**] *a country crippled by war*

cripple² /ˈkrɪpl/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* an offensive word for someone who cannot use their legs or arms in a normal way

crippling /ˈkrɪplɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** ILLNESS [always before noun] A crippling illness makes someone unable to use their arms or legs in a normal way. **2** DAMAGE causing great damage

crisis /ˈkraɪsɪs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **crises** /ˈkraɪsiːz/ a situation or time that is extremely

dangerous or difficult *an economic/financial crisis* ○ *The country's leadership is* ***in crisis***. ➲See also: **mid-life crisis**

crisp¹ /krɪsp/ *adjective* **1** FOOD Crisp food is pleasantly hard. *a crisp apple* ○ *crisp pastry* **2** MATERIAL Crisp cloth or paper money is clean and looks new, with no folds. *a crisp linen shirt* **3** WEATHER Crisp weather is pleasantly cold and dry. *a crisp autumn day* **4** QUICK A crisp way of talking or behaving is quick and confident. **5** IMAGE A crisp image is very clear.

crisp² /krɪsp/ *UK* (*US* **chip**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a very thin slice of potato that has been cooked in oil and is eaten cold [**usually plural**] *a packet of crisps* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

crispy /ˈkrɪspi/ *adjective* Crispy food is pleasantly hard and easy to bite through. *crispy bacon*

criss-cross /ˈkrɪskrɒs/ *verb* [I, T] If something criss-crosses an area, it crosses it several times in different directions. [**often passive**] *The forest is criss-crossed with paths and tracks.*

criterion /kraɪˈtɪəriən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **criteria** a fact or level of quality that you use when making a choice or decision [**+ for + doing sth**] *We have strict criteria for deciding which students will receive a grant.*

critic /ˈkrɪtɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** NOT APPROVE someone who says that they do not approve of someone or something *an* ***outspoken critic*** *of the government* **2** JOB someone whose job is to give their opinion of a book, play, film, etc *a* ***theatre/film critic***

critical /ˈkrɪtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT PLEASED saying that someone or something is bad or wrong *a critical report* ○ *He is very* ***critical of*** *the way I work.* **2** IMPORTANT very important for the way things will happen in the future *a critical decision* **3** SERIOUS extremely serious or dangerous *The doctors said her condition was critical and she might not survive.* **4** OPINIONS giving judgments and opinions on books, plays, films, etc *a critical study of Tennyson's work* ●**critically** *adverb*

ˌcritical ˈmass *noun* [**no plural**] **PHYSICS** the smallest amount of a substance that is needed to produce a nuclear reaction

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***criticism***

sth/sb **attracts/draws/faces/sparks** criticism ● **deflect/dismiss** criticism ● **fierce/stinging/strong** criticism ● criticism **of** sb/sth ● criticism **from** sb

O-key **criticism** /ˈkrɪtɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* **1** BAD [C, U] when you say that something or someone is bad *Plans to close the hospital* ***attracted*** *strong public* ***criticism***. **2** OPINION [U] when someone gives their judgments and opinions on books, plays, films, etc *literary criticism*

criticize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈkrɪtɪsaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to say that something or someone is bad [**often passive + for + doing sth**] *The film was criticized for being too violent.*

critique /krɪˈtiːk/ *noun* [C] a report that says what is good and bad about something

croak /krəʊk/ *verb* **1** VOICE [I, T] to talk or say something in a low, rough voice [I] *"I don't feel well," he croaked.* **2** SOUND [I] If a bird or frog (= green jumping animal) croaks, it makes a deep, low sound.

crochet /ˈkrəʊʃeɪ/ (US) /krəʊˈʃeɪ/ *verb* [I, T] to make clothes and other items using wool and a special needle with a hook at one end

crockery /ˈkrɒkᵊri/ *noun* [U] plates, cups, and other dishes, especially those made from clay

crocodile /ˈkrɒkədaɪl/ *noun* [C] a big reptile with a long mouth and sharp teeth, that lives in lakes and rivers ➲See picture at **reptile**

crocus /ˈkrəʊkəs/ *noun* [C] a small yellow, purple, or white spring flower

croissant /ˈkwæsɒŋ/ (US) /kwɑːˈsɒŋ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a soft, curved piece of bread, eaten for breakfast

crony /ˈkrəʊni/ *noun* [C] *informal* one of a group of friends who help each other, especially in a way that is not fair [**usually plural**] *He gave his cronies all the best jobs.*

crook /krʊk/ *noun* **1** [C] *informal* a criminal or someone who cheats people **2 the crook of your arm** the inside part of your arm where it bends

crooked /ˈkrʊkɪd/ *adjective* **1** NOT STRAIGHT not straight *crooked teeth* **2** DISHONEST *informal* not honest *a crooked politician*

croon /kruːn/ *verb* [I, T] **MUSIC** to sing in a soft, low, romantic voice

crop¹ /krɒp/ *noun* **1 FARMING** [C] a plant such as a grain, fruit, or vegetable that is grown in large amounts by farmers **2 FARMING** [C] the amount of plants of a particular type that are produced at one time *We had a record crop of grapes this year.* **3 a crop of sth** a group of the same type of things or people that exist at the same time *He's one of the current crop of young Italian artists.* ➲See also: **cash crop**

crop² /krɒp/ *verb* **cropping,** *past* **cropped 1** [T] to cut something so that it is short **2 COMPUTING** to cut pieces from the sides of a computer image so that it is the size you want **3 FARMING** [I] *UK* If a plant crops, it produces fruit, flowers, etc.

crop up *phrasal verb* to happen or appear suddenly *The same old problems* ***kept cropping up***.

cropper /ˈkrɒpəʳ/ *noun* **come a cropper a** to fall over *The horse came a cropper at the first fence.* **b** to fail in an embarrassing way, or to make an embarrassing mistake

croquet /ˈkrəʊkeɪ/ (US) /krəʊˈkeɪ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game played on grass, in which you hit a ball with a wooden hammer through curved wires pushed into the ground

O-key **cross¹** /krɒs/ *verb* **1** FROM ONE SIDE TO ANOTHER [I, T] to go from one side of something to the other side *It's not a good place to* ***cross the road***. **2** LINE/BORDER [I, T] to travel over a border or line into a different area, country, etc *They* ***crossed*** *from Albania* ***into*** *Greece.* **3** MEET AND GO ACROSS [I, T] If two lines, roads, etc cross, they go over or across each other. **4 cross your arms/fingers/legs** to put one of your arms, fingers, or legs over the top of the other **5 cross yourself RELIGION** to touch your head, chest, and both shoulders as a sign to God **6 BIOLOGY, FARMING** [T] to mix two breeds of animal or

plant to produce a new breed **7** MAKE SOMEONE ANGRY [T] to make someone angry by refusing to do what they want you to do ➲See also: I'll/We'll cross that **bridge**[1] when I/we come to it., **criss-cross, double-cross,** keep your fingers (**finger**[1]) crossed, cross your **mind**[1]

cross sth off (sth) *phrasal verb* to remove a word from a list by drawing a line through it *Did you cross her name off the guest list?*

cross sth out *phrasal verb* to draw a line through something that you have written, usually because it is wrong *Cross out that last sentence.*

O-key **cross**[2] /krɒs/ *noun* **1** WOOD [C] two pieces of wood that cross each other, on which people were left to die as a punishment in the past **2** RELIGION [C] an object in the shape of a cross, used as a symbol of the Christian religion **3** MARK [C] a written mark (x), used for showing where something is, or that something that has been written is wrong **4 a cross between sth and sth** a mixture of two different things or people *The dog is a cross between a terrier and a rottweiler.* **5** SPORT [C] when someone kicks or hits the ball across the field in sport, especially football

cross[3] /krɒs/ *adjective* annoyed or angry *Don't be **cross with** me!*

cross- /krɒs-/ *prefix* **1** across *cross-border* **2** including different groups or subjects *a cross-party committee* (= one formed from many political parties) ○ *cross-cultural*

crossbar /ˈkrɒsbɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT the post at the top of a goal in games such as football **2** the metal tube that joins the front and back of a bicycle

cross-border /ˈkrɒsˌbɔːdəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] between different countries, or involving people from different countries *cross-border trade*

cross-Channel /ˌkrɒsˈtʃænᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] connecting or happening between England and France *a **cross-Channel ferry**/route*

cross-country /ˌkrɒsˈkʌntri/ *adjective* [always before noun], *adverb* **1** SPORT across fields and countryside *cross-country running/skiing* **2** from one side of a country to the other side

cross-examine /ˌkrɒsɪgˈzæmɪn/ *verb* [T] LAW to ask someone a lot of questions about something they have said, in order to discover if it is true, especially in a court of law ●**cross-examination** /ˌkrɒsɪgˌzæmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

cross-eyed /krɒsˈaɪd/ *adjective* A cross-eyed person has both eyes looking in towards their nose.

crossfire /ˈkrɒsfaɪəʳ/ *noun* **1** [U] bullets fired towards you from different directions *Civilians died when a bus was **caught in crossfire** between government and rebel troops.* **2 be caught in the crossfire** to be involved in a situation where people around you are arguing

crossing /ˈkrɒsɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** WHERE PEOPLE CROSS a place where people can go across a road, river, etc **2** SEA JOURNEY a journey across water **3** WHERE LINES CROSS a place where roads, railways, etc cross each other ➲See also: **grade crossing, level crossing, zebra crossing**

cross-legged /ˌkrɒsˈlegɪd/ *adverb* **sit cross-legged** to sit on the floor with your knees wide apart and one foot over the other foot

cross-pollination /ˌkrɒspɒlɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY when pollen is carried from one flower to another by wind, insects, etc

ˌcross ˈpurposes *noun* **at cross purposes** If two people are at cross purposes, they do not understand each other because they are talking about different things but do not know this.

ˌcross ˈreference *noun* [C] a note in a book that tells you to look somewhere else in the book for more information about something

crossroads /ˈkrɒsrəʊdz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **crossroads 1** ROAD a place where two roads cross each other **2** DECISION a time when you have to make an important decision that will affect your future life *I felt I was **at a crossroads** in my life.*

cross-section /ˈkrɒssekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP a small group of people or things that represents all the different types in a larger group *a **cross-section of society*** **2** VIEW something that has been cut in half so that you can see the inside, or a picture of this *a cross-section of a human heart*

crosswalk /ˈkrɒswɔːk/ *US* (*UK* **pedestrian crossing**) *noun* [C] a special place on a road where traffic must stop if people want to cross

crossword /ˈkrɒswɜːd/ (*also* **ˈcrossword ˌpuzzle**) *noun* [C] a game in which you write words which are the answers to questions in a pattern of black and white squares

crotch /krɒtʃ/ (*also UK* **crutch**) *noun* [C] ANATOMY the part of your body between the tops of your legs, or the part of a piece of clothing that covers this area

crouch /kraʊtʃ/ (*also* **crouch down**) *verb* [I] to move your body close to the ground by bending your knees *I crouched behind the chair to avoid being seen.*

crow[1] /krəʊ/ *noun* **1** [C] a large black bird that makes a loud noise **2 as the crow flies** when measured in a straight line *It's about 50 miles from London to Cambridge as the crow flies.*

crow[2] /krəʊ/ *verb* [I] **1** SPEAK to talk in a proud and annoying way about something you have done *Donald wouldn't stop **crowing about** his exam results.* **2** LOUD NOISE If a cock (= male chicken) crows, it makes a loud noise, usually in the early morning.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***crowd***

a crowd **gathers** ● a crowd **of** [people/tourists, etc] ● **in** a crowd

O-key **crowd**[1] /kraʊd/ *noun* **1** LARGE GROUP [C] a large group of people who are together in one place *A large **crowd** had **gathered** to wait for the princess.* ○ *Shop early and avoid the crowds.* **2** PARTICULAR GROUP [**no plural**] *informal* a group of friends or people with similar interests *the art/theatre crowd*

crowd[2] /kraʊd/ *verb* [T] **1** TOGETHER to stand together in large numbers *Protesters crowded the streets.* **2** TOO CLOSE to stand too close to someone *Don't crowd me!*

crowd around/round (sb/sth) *phrasal verb* If a

group of people crowd around or crowd around someone or something, they stand very close all around them. *Everyone crowded around my desk.*
crowd in/crowd (sb) into sth *phrasal verb* If a large group of people crowd into somewhere, they all go there and fill the place.
crowd sb out *phrasal verb* to prevent someone or something from succeeding or existing by being much more successful than them or by being present in much larger numbers *Large national companies often crowd out smaller local businesses.*

crowded /ˈkraʊdɪd/ *adjective* very full of people *a crowded room/train*

crown¹ /kraʊn/ *noun* **1** KING/QUEEN [C] a round object made of gold and jewels (= valuable stones) that a king or queen wears on their head **2** TOP [C] the top of a hat, head, or hill **3 POLITICS the Crown** used to refer to the power or government of a king or queen *All this land belongs to the Crown.* **4** TOOTH [C] an artificial top that is put on a damaged tooth **5 ANATOMY** the top part of a tooth ➲See picture at **tooth**

crown² /kraʊn/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE KING/QUEEN to put a crown on someone's head in an official ceremony that makes them a king or queen [**often passive**] *Queen Elizabeth II of England was crowned in 1952.* **2** ON TOP *literary* to be on top of something else *A large domed ceiling crowns the main hall.* **3** BEST PART to be the best or most successful part of something *a book that crowned his successful writing career*

crowning /ˈkraʊnɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] more important, beautiful, etc than anything else *It was the **crowning achievement** of his political career.*

CRT /ˌsiːɑːˈtiː/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** *abbreviation for* cathode ray tube

crucial /ˈkruːʃᵊl/ *adjective* extremely important or necessary *a crucial decision/question* ○ *Her work has been **crucial to** the project's success.* ●**crucially** *adverb*

crucifix /ˈkruːsɪfɪks/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a model of a cross with Jesus Christ on it

crucifixion /ˌkruːsəˈfɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] in the past, when someone was fastened to a cross and left to die *the crucifixion of Christ*

crucify /ˈkruːsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** KILL in the past, to fasten someone to a cross and leave them to die **2** CRITICIZE *informal* to criticize someone or something in a cruel and damaging way [**often passive**] *The film has been crucified by the media.*

crude /kruːd/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT SKILL made or done in a simple way and without much skill *a crude device/weapon* **2** RUDE rude and offensive *a crude comment/remark* ●**crudely** *adverb*

ˌcrude ˈoil (*also* **crude**) *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** oil in its natural state before it has been treated

O-key **cruel** /ˈkruːəl/ *adjective* **crueller**, **cruellest** or **cruel**er, **cruelest** extremely unkind, or causing people or animals to suffer *a cruel joke* ○ *Many people think hunting is **cruel to** animals.* ●**cruelly** *adverb*

cruelty /ˈkruːəlti/ *noun* [C, U] cruel behaviour or a cruel action *laws against **cruelty to** animals*

cruise¹ /kruːz/ *noun* [C] a holiday on a ship, sailing from place to place

cruise² /kruːz/ *verb* **1** MOVE [I] to move in a vehicle at a speed that does not change *The plane is cruising at 500 miles per hour.* **2** SAIL [I] to go on a cruise **3 cruise to success/victory, etc** *informal* to win a competition easily

ˌcruise ˈmissile *UK* (*US* **ˈcruise ˌmissile**) *noun* [C] a weapon that flies through the air, and which often carries nuclear weapons

cruiser /ˈkruːzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** WAR SHIP a large military ship used in wars **2** BOAT (*also* **ˈcabin ˌcruiser**) a motor boat with a room for people to sleep in

ˈcruise ˌship (*also* **ˈcruise ˌliner**) *noun* [C] a large ship like a hotel, which people travel on for pleasure

crumb /krʌm/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C] a very small piece of bread, cake, etc **2 a crumb of sth** a very small amount of something

crumble /ˈkrʌmbl/ *verb* **1** BREAK [I, T] to break into small pieces, or to make something break into small pieces *Buildings crumbled as the earthquake struck.* **2** FAIL [I] If a relationship, system, or feeling crumbles, it fails or ends. *His first marriage crumbled after only a year.*

crummy /ˈkrʌmi/ *adjective informal* unpleasant, or of bad quality *a crummy job* ○ *a crummy hotel*

crumple /ˈkrʌmpl/ *verb* **1** CRUSH [I, T] If something such as paper or cloth crumples, it becomes crushed, and if you crumple it, you crush it until it is full of folds. *a crumpled shirt* **2** LOOK SAD [I] If someone's face crumples, they suddenly look very sad or disappointed.
crumple sth up *phrasal verb* to crush a piece of paper until it is full of folds

crunch¹ /krʌnʃ/ *noun* **1** [C] the sound of something being crushed [**usually singular**] *the crunch of dried leaves under our feet* **2 if/when it comes to the crunch** if/when a situation becomes serious or you have to make an important decision

crunch² /krʌnʃ/ *verb* **1** FOOD [I, T] to make a noise by chewing hard food *She was **crunching on** an apple.* **2** CRUSH [I] to make a sound as if something is being crushed *The gravel crunched under our feet.*

crunchy /ˈkrʌntʃi/ *adjective* Crunchy food is hard and makes a noise when you eat it.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***crusade***

launch/mount a crusade ● be **on** a crusade ● a **moral/personal** crusade ● a crusade **against/for** sth

crusade /kruːˈseɪd/ *noun* [C] a determined attempt to change or achieve something that you believe in strongly ●**crusader** *noun* [C] someone who is involved in a crusade

crush¹ /krʌʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** PRESS to press something so hard that it is made flat or broken into pieces *Her car was crushed by a falling tree.* **2** DEFEAT to defeat someone or something

C

completely *government attempts to crush protests* ○ *a* ***crushing defeat***

crush² /krʌʃ/ *noun* **1** CROWD [**no plural**] a crowd of people forced to stand close together because there is not enough room *Many people fell over in the crush.* **2** LOVE [**C**] *informal* a strong temporary feeling of love for someone *Tim* ***has a crush on*** *Jennifer.*

crust /krʌst/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1 FOOD** the hard outer surface of bread or other baked foods **2** a hard, dry layer on the surface of something ➲See picture at **Earth**

crustacean /krʌsˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** any of various types of animal which live in water and have a hard outer shell

crusty /ˈkrʌsti/ *adjective* **1** unfriendly and becoming annoyed very easily **2 FOOD** Something that is crusty has a hard outer layer. ***crusty bread***

crutch /krʌtʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **1 HEALTH** a stick that you put under your arm to help you walk if you have injured your leg or foot [**usually plural**] *Charles was* ***on crutches*** (= walking with crutches) *for six weeks.* **2** *UK* (*UK/US* **crotch**) the part of your body between the tops of your legs, or the part of a piece of clothing that covers this area

crux /krʌks/ *noun* **the crux (of sth)** the main or most important part of a problem, argument, etc

O-K **cry¹** /kraɪ/ *verb* **1** TEARS [**I**] to produce tears from your eyes, usually because you are sad, angry, or hurt *My baby brother cries all the time.* **2** SHOUT [**I, T**] to speak or say something loudly *"Look at this!" cried Raj.* ➲See also: cry your eyes (**eye**¹) out, a **shoulder**¹ to cry on
be crying out for sth *phrasal verb informal* to need something very much *a school that's crying out for more money*
cry out (sth) *phrasal verb* to shout or make a loud noise because you are frightened, hurt, etc *She* ***cried out in*** *terror.*

cry² /kraɪ/ *noun* **1** SHOUT [**C**] a shout, especially one that shows that someone is frightened, hurt, etc *a cry of horror/joy/pain* ○ *I could hear the cries of children playing in the street.* **2** ANIMAL/BIRD [**C**] a sound that a particular animal or bird makes *an eagle's cry* **3 have a cry** to produce tears from your eyes, usually because you are sad, angry, or hurt **4 be a far cry from sth** to be very different from something *Her luxury mansion is a far cry from the house she grew up in.*

crying /ˈkraɪɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 a crying need for sth** *mainly UK* a need that is very urgent *There's a crying need for more nurses.* **2 it's a crying shame** used to say that you think a situation is very wrong

cryogenics /ˌkraɪəʊˈdʒenɪks/ *noun* [**U**] **PHYSICS** the scientific study of very low temperatures and how to produce them ●**cryogenic** /ˌkraɪəʊˈdʒenɪk/ *adjective*

cryolite /ˈkraɪəʊlaɪt/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOLOGY** a white or colourless mineral used in making aluminium, glass and other substances

crypt /krɪpt/ *noun* [**C**] a room under a church, especially one where people are buried

cryptic /ˈkrɪptɪk/ *adjective* mysterious and difficult to understand *a* ***cryptic comment/message*** ●**cryptically** *adverb*

crystal /ˈkrɪstᵊl/ *noun* **1 GEOLOGY** [**C, U**] a type of transparent rock **2** [**U**] a type of high quality glass *a crystal vase* **3 GEOLOGY** [**C**] a piece of a substance that has become solid, with a regular shape *ice crystals*

ˌ**crystal** ˈ**ball** *noun* [**C**] a large, glass ball that some people believe you can look into to see what will happen in the future

ˌ**crystal** ˈ**clear** *adjective* very obvious and easy to understand *She made her feelings crystal clear to me.*

crystallize (*mainly UK* **-ise**) /ˈkrɪstᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** If something crystallizes your thoughts or opinions, or if they crystallize, they become clear and fixed **2 CHEMISTRY** If a liquid crystallizes, it turns into crystals. ●**crystallization** (*mainly UK* **-isation**) /ˌkrɪstᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

Ctrl Key *noun* [**C usually singular**] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* control key (= on a computer keyboard)

CU **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* see you: used when saying goodbye at the end of an email or text message

cub /kʌb/ *noun* [**C**] a young bear, fox, lion, etc

cube¹ /kjuːb/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a solid object with six square sides of the same size *Cut the cheese into small cubes.* ➲See picture at **shape 2 the cube of sth MATHEMATICS** the number you get when you multiply a particular number by itself twice *The cube of 3 is 27.* ➲See also: **ice cube**

cube² /kjuːb/ *verb* [**T**] **1 MATHEMATICS** to multiply a particular number by itself twice *5 cubed is 125.* **2** to cut something into cubes

ˌ**cube** ˈ**root** *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** the cube root of a number is another number that, when multiplied by itself twice, makes the first number

cubic /ˈkjuːbɪk/ *adjective* **cubic centimetre/inch/metre, etc MEASURES** a unit of measurement that shows the volume (= length multiplied by width multiplied by height) of something *a reservoir that holds 22 million cubic metres of water*

cubicle /ˈkjuːbɪkl/ *noun* [**C**] a small space with walls around it, that is separate from the rest of a room *a shower cubicle*

cuboid¹ /ˈkjuːbɔɪd/ *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a solid object with six rectangular sides

cuboid² /ˈkjuːbɔɪd/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** in the shape of a cube or a cuboid

cuckoo /ˈkʊkuː/ *noun* [**C**] a small bird that makes a sound like its name and puts its eggs into other birds' nests

cucumber /ˈkjuːkʌmbəʳ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a long, green vegetable that you eat raw in salads ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

cuddle /ˈkʌdl/ *verb* [**I, T**] to put your arms around someone to show them that you love them *Her mother cuddled her until she stopped crying.* ●**cuddle** *noun* [**C**]
cuddle up *phrasal verb* to sit or lie very close

to someone *The children **cuddled up to** me to keep warm.*

cuddly /ˈkʌdli/ *adjective* soft and pleasant to hold close to you

cue /kjuː/ *noun* **1** ACTION/EVENT [C] an action or event that is a sign that something should happen *The final goal was the **cue for** celebration.* **2** SIGNAL [C] a signal that tells someone to start speaking or doing something when acting in a play, film, etc **3 on cue** If something happens on cue, it happens at exactly the right time. *Then, **right on cue**, Andrew appeared at the door.* **4 take your cue from sb/sth** to copy what someone else does *I took my cue from the others and left.* **5 SPORT** [C] a long, straight stick used to hit the balls in games like snooker (= a game played with small coloured balls on a table)

cuff /kʌf/ *noun* [C] **1** the bottom part of a sleeve that goes around your wrist **2 off the cuff** If you speak off the cuff, you do it without having planned what you will say.

cuisine /kwɪzˈiːn/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a style of cooking *French/international cuisine*

cul-de-sac /ˈkʌldəsæk/ *noun* [C] a short road with houses which is blocked at one end

culinary /ˈkʌlɪnᵊri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* **FOOD** related to food and cooking *culinary equipment*

cull /kʌl/ *verb* [T] to kill some of the animals in a group, especially the weakest ones, to limit their numbers ●**cull** *noun* [C]
cull sth from sth *phrasal verb* to collect ideas or information from several different places [**often passive**] *The book is culled from over 800 pages of his diaries.*

culminate /ˈkʌlmɪneɪt/ *verb formal* **1 culminate in/with sth** to finish with a particular event, or reach a final result after gradual development and often a lot of effort *His career culminated with the post of ambassador to NATO.* **2** [T] *US* to be the final thing in a series of events *The discovery of a body culminated two days of desperate searching.* ●**culmination** /ˌkʌlmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**no plural**] *This discovery is **the culmination of** years of research.*

culpable /ˈkʌlpəbl/ *adjective formal* deserving to be blamed for something bad ●**culpability** /ˌkʌlpəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

culprit /ˈkʌlprɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who has done something wrong **2** THING something that is responsible for a bad situation *In many of these illnesses, stress is the **main culprit**.*

cult /kʌlt/ *noun* [C] **1** someone or something which has become very popular with a particular group of people *a **cult figure/movie*** **2 RELIGION** a religious group whose ideas are considered strange by many people

cultivate /ˈkʌltɪveɪt/ *verb* [T] **1 FARMING** to prepare land and grow crops on it *This shrub is cultivated in Europe as a culinary herb.* **2** to try to develop or improve something *She has **cultivated an image** as a tough negotiator.* ●**cultivation** /ˌkʌltɪˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

cultivated /ˈkʌltɪveɪtɪd/ *adjective* A cultivated person has had a good education and knows a lot about art, books, music, etc.

cultural /ˈkʌltʃᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* **1 SOCIETY** relating to the habits, traditions and beliefs of a society *cultural diversity/identity* **2** ARTS relating to music, art, theatre, literature, etc *cultural events* ●**culturally** *adverb*

O-K **culture** /ˈkʌltʃᵊ/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY** [C, U] the habits, traditions, and beliefs of a country, society, or group of people *American/Japanese culture* ○ *It's a good opportunity for children to learn about other cultures.* **2** ARTS [U] music, art, theatre, literature, etc *popular culture* **3 BIOLOGY** [C, U] the process of growing things, especially bacteria (= very small living things that can cause disease), for scientific purposes, or the bacteria produced by this process

cultured /ˈkʌltʃəd/ *adjective* A cultured person knows a lot about music, art, theatre, etc.

¹culture ˌmedium *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a substance that scientists use to grow cells or microorganisms (= extremely small life forms)

¹culture ˌshock *noun* [U] the feeling of confusion someone has when they go to a new and very different place

-cum- /kʌm/ used between two nouns to describe something which combines the two things *a kitchen-cum-dining room* (= room which is used as a kitchen and a dining room)

cumbersome /ˈkʌmbəsəm/ *adjective* **1** LARGE large and difficult to move or use *cumbersome safety equipment* **2** NOT EFFECTIVE slow and not effective *cumbersome bureaucracy*

cumulative /ˈkjuːmjələtɪv/ *adjective* reached by gradually adding one thing after another *a cumulative score*

cumulonimbus /ˌkjuːmjələʊˈnɪmbəs/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** a large, tall type of cloud that is often dark and brings heavy rain

cumulus /ˈkjuːmjʊləs/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** a type of tall white cloud with a wide flat base and rounded shape ➲See picture at **cloud**

cunning /ˈkʌnɪŋ/ *adjective* clever at getting what you want, especially by tricking people *a **cunning plan/ploy*** ●**cunning** *noun* [U] ●**cunningly** *adverb*

O-K **cup¹** /kʌp/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER a small, round container with a handle on the side, used to drink from *a cup of tea/coffee* **2** SPORT a prize given to the winner of a competition, or the name of the competition *the World Cup* **3 MEASURES** *mainly US* a measurement of amounts of food used in cooking ➲See also: **egg cup**

cup² /kʌp/ *verb* [T] **cupping**, *past* **cupped** to make your hands into the shape of a cup, or to hold something with your hands in this shape

O-K **cupboard** /ˈkʌbəd/ *noun* [C] a piece of furniture with a door on the front and shelves inside, used for storing things ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 ➲See also: have a **skeleton** in the cupboard

curate /ˈkjʊərət/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a person who works for the Church of England and whose job is to help the vicar (= priest in a particular area)

curator /kjʊəˈreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person who is in charge of a museum (= a building where you can look at objects, such as art or old things)

curb¹ /kɜːb/ *verb* [T] to limit or control something *to curb crime/inflation*

curb² /kɜːb/ *noun* [C] **1** LIMIT something which limits or controls something *They are proposing a* ***curb on*** *tobacco advertising.* **2** ROAD *US spelling of* kerb (= the line of stones at the edge of a path next to the road)

curdle /ˈkɜːdl/ *verb* [I, T] **FOOD** If a liquid curdles, or if you curdle it, it gets thicker and develops lumps. *Heat the sauce slowly or it will curdle.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cure***

find/look for a cure • a cure **for** sth • **the search for** a cure

cure¹ /kjʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** something that makes someone with an illness healthy again *They are trying to* ***find a cure for*** *cancer.* **2** SOLUTION a solution to a problem

cure² /kjʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** **HEALTH** to make someone with an illness healthy again *Getting a better chair completely cured my back problems.* **2** PROBLEM to solve a problem *the fight to cure social inequality* **3** to treat food with smoke or salt so that you can keep it for longer *cured meat*

curfew /ˈkɜːfjuː/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a time, especially at night, when people are not allowed to leave their homes

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***curiosity***

arouse/satisfy sb's curiosity • (do sth) **out of** curiosity • **mild/natural** curiosity • curiosity **about** sth

curiosity /ˌkjʊəriˈɒsəti/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] the feeling of wanting to know or learn about something *My curiosity got the better of me and I opened the envelope.* ○ *Just* ***out of curiosity,*** *how did you get my address?* **2** STRANGE THING [C] something strange or unusual

curious /ˈkjʊəriəs/ *adjective* **1** INTERESTED wanting to know or learn about something *I was* ***curious about*** *his life in India.* ○ *I was* ***curious to know*** *what would happen next.* **2** STRANGE strange or unusual *The house was decorated in a curious style.* •**curiously** *adverb* *She looked at him curiously.*

curl¹ /kɜːl/ *noun* [C] something with a small, curved shape, especially a piece of hair *a child with blonde curls*

curl² /kɜːl/ *verb* [I, T] to make something into the shape of a curl, or to be this shape *The cat curled its tail around its body.*
curl up *phrasal verb* **1** SIT/LIE to sit or lie in a position with your arms and legs close to your body *She curled up and went to sleep.* **2** PAPER If something flat, such as a piece of paper, curls up, the edges start to curve up.

curly /ˈkɜːli/ *adjective* shaped like a curl, or with many curls *curly hair*

currant /ˈkʌrʳnt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, black dried fruit used in cooking, especially in cakes

currency /ˈkʌrʳnsi/ *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** [C, U] the units of money used in a particular country *foreign currency* **2** [U] when an idea is believed or accepted by many people *This view is* ***gaining currency*** *within the government.* ➲See also: **hard currency**

current¹ /ˈkʌrʳnt/ *adjective* happening or existing now *What is your current address?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **actual** •**currently** *adverb* *The factory currently employs 750 people.*

current² /ˈkʌrʳnt/ *noun* **1** AIR/WATER [C] the natural flow of air or water in one direction *a current of air* ○ *dangerous/strong currents* **2** **PHYSICS** [C, U] the flow of electricity through a wire *an electrical current*

ˌcurrent acˈcount *UK* (*US* **checking account**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a bank account which you can take money out of at any time

ˌcurrent afˈfairs *UK* (*US* **ˌcurrent eˈvents**) *noun* [plural] **POLITICS** important political or social events which are happening in the world at the present time

ˌcurrent ˈassets *noun* [plural] **ECONOMICS** everything of value that a business owns at a particular time

ˌcurrent liaˈbilities *noun* [plural] **ECONOMICS** everything that a business owes money for at a particular time

ˌcurrent ˈratio (*also* **working capital ratio**) *noun* [C usually singular] **ECONOMICS** a calculation that compares the assets (= things owned) of a business that will be changed into money within 12 months with the payments that have to be made in that time

curriculum /kəˈrɪkjələm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **curricula** or **curriculums** **EDUCATION** all the subjects taught in a school, college, etc or on an educational course *the school curriculum*

curry /ˈkʌri/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a type of food from India, made of vegetables or meat cooked with hot spices

curse¹ /kɜːs/ *noun* [C] **1** MAGIC magic words which are intended to bring bad luck to someone *to* ***put a curse on*** *someone* **2** RUDE WORDS a rude or offensive word or phrase **3** PROBLEM something that causes harm or unhappiness, often over a long period of time *Traffic is one of the curses of modern living.*

curse² /kɜːs/ *verb* **1** RUDE WORDS [I] to use rude or offensive words *He cursed angrily under his breath.* **2** SHOW ANGER [T] to express anger towards someone or something *He cursed himself for not telling David about it earlier.* **3 be cursed by/with sth** to have something which causes problems over a long period of time

cursor /ˈkɜːsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a symbol on a computer screen which shows the place where you are working

cursory /ˈkɜːsʳri/ *adjective* [always before noun] *formal* done quickly and without much care *a* ***cursory glance***

curt /kɜːt/ *adjective* If something you say or write is curt, it is short and not very polite. •**curtly** *adverb*

curtail /kɜːˈteɪl/ *verb* [T] *formal* to reduce, limit, or stop something *to curtail spending* ●**curtailment** *noun* [U]

curtain /ˈkɜːtᵊn/ *noun* [C] a piece of material which hangs down to cover a window, stage, etc *to* ***draw the curtains*** (= open or close them) ○ *The* ***curtain goes up*** (= the performance starts) *at 8 o'clock* . ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

curtsey (*also* **curtsy**) /ˈkɜːtsi/ *noun* [C] a movement where a girl or woman puts one foot behind the other and bends her knees, especially to show respect to a king or queen ●**curtsey** *verb* [I]

curve¹ /kɜːv/ *noun* [C] a line which bends round like part of a circle *a road with gentle curves*

curve² /kɜːv/ *verb* [I, T] to move in a curve, form a curve, or make something into the shape of a curve *The road curves to the left.* ○ *a chair with a curved back*

cushion¹ /ˈkʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SOFT THING a cloth bag filled with something soft which you sit on or lean against to make you comfortable ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** PROTECTION something which protects you from possible problems *Overseas savings provide* ***a cushion against*** *tax rises at home.*

cushion² /ˈkʊʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE BETTER to reduce the bad effects of something *attempts to cushion the impact of unemployment* **2** PROTECT to protect something, especially part of the body, with something soft *Soft grass cushioned his fall.*

cushy /ˈkʊʃi/ *adjective informal* very easy *a* ***cushy job***

custard /ˈkʌstəd/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [U] a sweet, yellow sauce made from milk and eggs, usually eaten hot with sweet food *apple pie and custard* **2** **FOOD** [C, U] a soft baked mixture made from milk, eggs, and sugar *a custard pie/tart*

custodial /kʌsˈtəʊdiəl/ *adjective* **LAW** If someone is given a custodial sentence (= punishment), they are sent to prison.

custodian /kʌsˈtəʊdiən/ *noun* [C] **1** VALUABLE THING *formal* a person who takes care of something valuable or important *He's the grandson of Oscar Wilde and custodian of his private papers.* **2** BUILDING *US* someone whose job is to look after a building, especially a school

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***custody***

be **awarded/given** custody (**of** sb) ● **have/win** custody (**of** sb)

custody /ˈkʌstədi/ *noun* [U] **1** **LAW** the legal right to look after a child, especially when parents separate *When they divorced, it was Nicola who* ***won custody of*** *their two children.* **2** **LAW** when someone is kept in prison, usually while they are waiting for a trial in court *He is being* ***held in custody*** *in Los Angeles charged with assault.* ○ *He was* ***taken into custody*** *by Mexican authorities.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***custom***

an **ancient/local/traditional** custom ● the custom **of** doing sth

custom /ˈkʌstəm/ *noun* **1** **SOCIETY** [C, U] a habit or tradition **2** [U] when people buy things from shops or businesses *Free gifts are a good way of* ***attracting custom.***

custom- /ˈkʌstəm/ *prefix* used before another word to mean 'specially designed for a particular person or purpose' *custom-built* ○ *custom-designed*

customary /ˈkʌstəmᵊri/ *adjective* normal or expected for a particular person, situation, or society [+ **to do sth**] *It is* ***customary for*** *the chairman to make the opening speech.* ●**customarily** /ˌkʌstəˈmerᵊli/ *adverb*

O-K **customer** /ˈkʌstəmᵊr/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a person or organization that buys goods or services from a shop or business *a* ***satisfied customer*** ○ *Mrs Wilson is one of our* ***regular customers.***

customise *UK* (*US* **customize**) /ˈkʌstəmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to change something to make it suitable for a particular person or purpose *Our language courses are customised to each student.*

customs /ˈkʌstəmz/ *noun* [U] the place where your bags are examined when you are going into a country, to make sure you are not carrying anything illegal ***customs officials*** ○ *to* ***go through customs***

O-K **cut¹** /kʌt/ *verb* **cutting,** *past* **cut** **1** KNIFE [I, T] to use a knife or other sharp tool to divide something, remove part of something, or make a hole in something ***Cut*** *the meat* ***into*** *small pieces.* ○ *He* ***cut*** *the piece of wood* ***in half.*** ○ *I had my hair cut last week.* ○ *She* ***cut off*** *all the diseased buds.* **2** REDUCE [T] to reduce the size or amount of something *Prices have been cut by 25%.* ○ *The company is cutting 50 jobs.* **3** INJURE [T] to injure yourself on a sharp object which makes you bleed *She cut her finger on a broken glass.* **4** REMOVE [T] to remove part of a film or piece of writing *The film was too long so they cut some scenes.* ➲See also: cut corners (**corner**¹), cut it/things **fine**², have your **work**² cut out

cut across sth *phrasal verb* **1** AREA to go from one side of an area to the other instead of going round it *If we cut across this field, it will save time.* **2** GROUP If a problem or subject cuts across different groups of people, all of those groups are affected by it or interested in it.

cut back (sth) *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** to reduce the amount of money being spent on something *We have had to* ***cut back on*** *training this year.*

cut sth down *phrasal verb* to make a tree or other plant fall to the ground by cutting it near the bottom

cut down (sth) *phrasal verb* to eat or drink less of something, or to reduce the amount or number of something *My doctor says I should cut down on cigarettes.*

cut sb off *phrasal verb* to stop someone speaking by interrupting them or putting the telephone down *She cut me off in the middle of our conversation.*

cut sb/sth off *phrasal verb* **1** PLACE to prevent people from reaching or leaving a place, or to separate them from other people [**often passive**] *The whole village was cut off by flooding.* ○ *She lives abroad and feels very* ***cut off from*** *her family.* **2** STOP SUPPLY to stop providing something such as electricity or food supplies [**often**

passive] *If we don't pay the gas bill, we'll be cut off.*
cut sth out *phrasal verb* **1** SHAPE to remove something or form a shape by cutting, usually something made of paper or cloth *She cut out his picture from the magazine.* **2** STOP EATING to stop eating or drinking something, usually to improve your health *I've cut out red meat from my diet.* **3 Cut it out!** *informal* something you say to tell someone to stop doing something annoying **4 not be cut out to be sth/not be cut out for sth** to not have the right qualities for something *I'm not really cut out to be a nurse.*
cut out *phrasal verb* In an engine, machine, or piece of equipment cuts out, it suddenly stops working.
cut sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to not let someone share something or be included in something
cut sth up *phrasal verb* **1** to cut something into pieces **2 be cut up** *UK informal* to be very upset about something *He was very cut up when his brother died.*

cut² /kʌt/ *noun* [C] **1** INJURY an injury made when the skin is cut with something sharp *He suffered cuts and bruises in the accident.* **2** OPENING an opening made with a sharp tool *She **made a cut** in the material.* **3** REDUCTION a reduction in the number or amount of something ***tax/job cuts*** ○ *The workers were angry about the **cut in** pay.* **4 FOOD** a piece of meat from a particular part of an animal *an expensive cut of beef* **5** SHARE a share of something, usually money *My family owns the company, so we get a **cut of** the profits.* **6 an electricity/power, etc cut** when the supply of something is stopped **7** HAIR (*also* **haircut**) the style in which your hair has been cut ➲See also: **shortcut**

ˌcut and ˈpaste *verb* [I, T] **cutting and pasting, *past* cut and pasted COMPUTING** to move words or pictures from one place to another in a computer document

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***cutback***

make cutbacks ● **drastic/severe/sharp** cutbacks ● cutbacks **in** sth

cutback /ˈkʌtbæk/ *noun* [C] a reduction of something, usually to save money *The company has **made cutbacks** and closed one of its factories.*

cute /kjuːt/ *adjective* **1** ATTRACTIVE attractive *a cute baby* **2** RUDE *US informal* clever in a way that is annoying or rude *He thinks it's cute to tell dirty jokes.*

cuticle /ˈkjuːtɪkl/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the thin skin at the bottom of the nails on the fingers and toes **2 BIOLOGY** the outer layer of a plant, that protects it ➲See picture at **leaf**

cutlery /ˈkʌtlᵊri/ *UK* (*US* **silverware**) *noun* [U] knives, forks, and spoons

cutlet /ˈkʌtlət/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small piece of meat still joined to the bone *a lamb cutlet*

cut-price /ˈkʌtˌpraɪs/ *mainly UK* (*US* **cut-rate**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] cheaper than usual *cut-price tickets*

cutters /ˈkʌtəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a tool for cutting something *wire cutters*

cut-throat *mainly UK* (*also US* **cutthroat**) /ˈkʌtθrəʊt/ *adjective* a cut-throat business or other situation is where people will do anything to succeed and do not care if they hurt others *the cut-throat world of journalism*

cutting¹ /ˈkʌtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** PLANT a piece cut from a plant and used to grow a new plant **2** NEWSPAPER *UK* (*UK/US* **clipping**) an article or picture that has been cut out of a newspaper or magazine

cutting² /ˈkʌtɪŋ/ *adjective* If something you say or write is cutting, it is unkind. *a **cutting remark***

cutting-edge /ˌkʌtɪŋˈedʒ/ *adjective* very modern and with all the newest developments ***cutting-edge design/technology***

CV /ˌsiːˈviː/ *UK* (*US* **résumé**) *noun* [C] a document which describes your qualifications and the jobs you have done, which you send to an employer that you want to work for

cwt **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* hundredweight (= a unit for measuring weight, equal to 50.8 kilograms in the UK and 45.36 kilograms in the US)

cyanide /ˈsaɪənaɪd/ *noun* [U] a very strong poison

cyber- /saɪbəʳ/ *prefix* **INTERNET** relating to electronic communications, especially the Internet *cyberspace*

cybercafe /ˈsaɪbəˌkæfeɪ/ *noun* [C] **INTERNET** a place where customers can buy food and drink and use computers to search for information on the Internet

cyberspace /ˈsaɪbəˌspeɪs/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** the Internet, considered as an imaginary area where you can communicate with people and find information

cycle¹ /ˈsaɪkl/ *noun* [C] **1** SERIES a series of events which happen in a particular order and are often repeated *the **life cycle** of a moth* **2** VEHICLE a bicycle ➲See also: **life cycle**

cycle² /ˈsaɪkl/ *verb* [I] to ride a bicycle ●**cycling** *noun* [U] ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 ●**cyclist** *noun* [C] someone who rides a bicycle

ˈcycle ˌhelmet *noun* [C] a hard hat that protects your head when you ride a bicycle ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

cyclical /ˈsɪklɪkᵊl/ *adjective* happening in a regular and repeated pattern *the cyclical nature of the country's history*

cyclone /ˈsaɪkləʊn/ *noun* [C] a violent storm with very strong winds which move in a circle

cylinder /ˈsɪlɪndəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SHAPE a shape with circular ends and long, straight sides, or a container or object shaped like this *an oxygen cylinder* ➲See picture at **shape 2** CAR PART a part in a car or machine's engine which is shaped like a tube, and where another part moves up and down

cylindrical /səˈlɪndrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* having the shape of a cylinder

cymbal /ˈsɪmbᵊl/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument like a metal plate which is played by being hit with a stick or another cymbal

cynic /ˈsɪnɪk/ *noun* [C] a cynical person

cynical /ˈsɪnɪkᵊl/ *adjective* believing that people are only interested in themselves and are not sincere *Many people have become cynical about politicians.* ●**cynically** *adverb* ●**cynicism** /ˈsɪnɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] cynical beliefs

cyst /sɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a small lump containing liquid that can grow under your skin

cystic fibrosis /ˌsɪstɪkfaɪˈbrəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease which causes the lungs and other organs to become blocked

cytoplasm /ˈsaɪtəʊplæzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the substance inside a cell which surrounds the cell's nucleus (= central part) ➲See picture at **cell** ➲See picture at **egg** ➲See picture at **leaf**

czar (*also UK* **tsar**) /zɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** RULER a male Russian ruler before 1917 **2** OFFICIAL *informal* a powerful official who makes important decisions for the government about a particular activity *a drugs czar*

C

Dd

D, d /diː/ the fourth letter of the alphabet

dab /dæb/ *verb* [I, T] **dabbing,** *past* **dabbed** to touch something with quick, light touches, or to put a substance on something with quick, light touches *She **dabbed at** her eyes with a tissue.* ●**dab** *noun* [C] a small amount of something *a **dab of** lipstick*

DAB /ˌdiːeɪˈbiː/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS *abbreviation for* digital audio broadcasting: an electronic system for sending radio or television information using signals in the form of numbers

dabble /ˈdæbl/ *verb* [I] to try something or take part in an activity in a way that is not serious *I only **dabble in** politics.* ○ *He **dabbled with** drugs at university.*

dactyl /ˈdæktɪl/ *noun* LITERATURE a unit of poetry with one long syllable followed by two short syllables ●**dactylic** /dækˈtɪlɪk/ *adjective*

dad /dæd/ *noun* [C] *informal* father *Can I go to the park, Dad?*

daddy /ˈdædi/ *noun* [C] a word for 'father', used especially by children

daffodil /ˈdæfədɪl/ *noun* [C] a yellow flower that usually grows in spring

daft /dɑːft/ *adjective UK informal* silly *That's a **daft idea**.*

dagger /ˈdægər/ *noun* [C] a short knife, used as a weapon

daily¹ /ˈdeɪli/ *adjective* [**always before noun**], *adverb* **1** EVERY DAY happening or produced every day or once a day *a **daily newspaper*** ○ *The shop is open daily from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m.* **2** ONE DAY relating to one single day *They are paid on a **daily basis**.* **3 daily life** the usual things that happen to you every day *Shootings are **part of daily life** in the region.*

daily² /ˈdeɪli/ *noun* [C] a newspaper that is published every day except Sunday

dainty /ˈdeɪnti/ *adjective* small, attractive, and delicate *dainty feet* ●**daintily** *adverb*

dairy¹ /ˈdeəri/ *noun* [C] **1** FARMING a place where milk is stored and cream and cheese are made **2** FARMING a company which sells milk and products made of milk

dairy² /ˈdeəri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] FOOD relating to milk or products made using milk ***dairy products*** ○ ***dairy cattle***

daisy /ˈdeɪzi/ *noun* [C] a small flower with white petals and a yellow centre that often grows in grass

dam /dæm/ *noun* [C] a strong wall built across a river to stop the water and make a lake ●**dam** *verb* [T] **damming,** *past* **dammed** to build a dam across a river ➲See picture at **hydroelectric power station**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***damage***

cause/inflict/repair/suffer damage ● **extensive/permanent/serious/slight** damage ● damage **to** sth

damage¹ /ˈdæmɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] harm or injury *He suffered **brain damage** in the car crash.* ○ *The strong wind caused serious **damage to** the roof.*

damage² /ˈdæmɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] to harm or break something *Many buildings were damaged in the storm.* ○ *Smoking can seriously damage your health.* ●**damaging** *adjective* harmful *the **damaging effects** of pollution*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***damages***

award/claim/pay/seek/win damages ● **substantial** damages ● [£400, $10,000, etc] **in** damages

damages /ˈdæmɪdʒɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] LAW money that a person or organization pays to someone because they have harmed them or something that belongs to them *She was **awarded** £400 **in damages**.*

dame /deɪm/ *noun* [C] **1** TITLE a title used in the UK before the name of a woman who has been officially respected *Dame Agatha Christie* **2** WOMAN *US informal old-fashioned* a woman

damn¹ /dæm/ (*also* **damned** /dæmd/) *adjective* [**always before noun**] *informal* used to express anger *He didn't listen to a damn thing I said.*

damn² /dæm/ (*also* **damn it**) *exclamation* used to express anger or disappointment *Damn! I've forgotten the tickets.*

damn³ /dæm/ (*also* **damned** /dæmd/) *adverb informal* very *He worked damn hard to pass that exam.*

damn⁴ /dæm/ *noun* **not give a damn** *informal* to not be interested in or worried about someone or something *I don't give a damn what people think.*

damn⁵ /dæm/ *verb* **1 damn him/it/you, etc** used to express anger about someone or something *Stop complaining, damn you!* **2** [T] to strongly criticize someone or something *He was damned by the media.*

damning /ˈdæmɪŋ/ *adjective* criticizing someone or something very strongly, or showing clearly that someone is guilty ***damning evidence*** ○ *a **damning report** on education standards*

damp /dæmp/ *adjective* slightly wet, usually in an unpleasant way *damp clothes/grass* ○ *It was cold and damp outside.* ●**damp** (*also* **dampness**) *noun* [U] when something is slightly wet

dampen /ˈdæmpən/ (*also* **damp**) *verb* [T] **1** REDUCE to make something less strong *Nothing you can say will **dampen** her **enthusiasm**.* **2** MAKE WET to make something slightly wet

damper /ˈdæmpər/ *noun* **put a damper on sth** to stop an occasion from being enjoyable *The accident put a damper on their holiday.*

dance¹ /dɑːns/ *verb* [I, T] to move your feet and body to the rhythm of music *She's dancing with Steven.* ○ *Can you dance the tango?* ●**dancer** *noun* [C] ●**dancing** *noun* [U]

dance² /dɑːns/ *noun* **1** MOVING [C] when you move your feet and body to music *I **had** a*

***dance** with my dad.* **2** STEPS [C] a particular set of steps or movements to music *My favourite dance is the tango.* **3** EVENT [C] a social event where people dance to music **4** ACTIVITY [U] the activity or skill of dancing *a dance school*

dandelion /ˈdændɪlaɪən/ *noun* [C] a yellow wild flower

dandruff /ˈdændrʌf/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** small pieces of dead skin in someone's hair or on their clothes

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***danger***

face danger ● **pose** a danger ● **great/serious** danger ● be **in** danger ● be **in** danger **of** sth

O-key **danger** /ˈdeɪndʒəʳ/ *noun* **1** POSSIBILITY [C, U] the possibility that someone or something will be harmed or killed, or that something bad will happen *the dangers of rock climbing* ○ *The soldiers were **in serious danger**.* ○ *We were **in danger of** missing our flight.* **2** HARMFUL PERSON/THING [C] something or someone that may harm you *Icy roads are a **danger to** drivers.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***dangerous***

If something is extremely dangerous, you can use the adjectives **hazardous**, **perilous** or **treacherous**: *Ice had made the roads **treacherous**.* ● *Heavy rain is causing **hazardous** driving conditions.* ● *A **perilous** journey through the mountains was their only escape route.*

Substances which are dangerous are often described as **harmful** or **hazardous**: *Please be aware that these chemicals are **harmful/hazardous** to human health.*

If something is dangerous because something bad might happen, you can say that it is **risky**: *Surgery at his age would be too **risky**.*

O-key **dangerous** /ˈdeɪndʒʳrəs/ *adjective* If someone or something is dangerous, they could harm you. *a dangerous chemical* ●**dangerously** *adverb dangerously close to the edge*

dangle /ˈdæŋgl/ *verb* **1** HANG [I, T] to hang loosely, or to hold something so that it hangs loosely *Electrical wires were **dangling from** the ceiling.* **2** OFFER [T] to offer someone something they want in order to persuade them to do something *They dangled the possibility of a job in Paris in front of him.*

dank /dæŋk/ *adjective* wet, cold, and unpleasant *a dark, dank basement*

dapper /ˈdæpəʳ/ *adjective* A dapper man looks stylish and tidy.

dare¹ /deəʳ/ *verb* **1 dare (to) do sth** to be brave enough to do something *I didn't dare tell Dad that I'd scratched his car.* **2 dare sb to do sth** to try to make someone do something dangerous *She dared her friend to climb onto the roof.* **3 Don't you dare** *informal* used to tell someone angrily not to do something *Don't you dare hit your sister!* **4 How dare she/you, etc** used to express anger about something someone has done *How dare you talk to me like that!* **5 I dare say** (*also* **I daresay**) used when you think that something is probably true or will probably happen *I dare say she'll change her mind.*

dare² /deəʳ/ *noun* [C] something that you do to prove that you are not afraid [**usually singular**] *She climbed down the cliff for a dare.*

daredevil /ˈdeəˌdevˡl/ *noun* [C] someone who enjoys doing dangerous things

daren't /deənt/ *UK short for* dare not *I daren't tell my wife how much it cost.*

daring /ˈdeərɪŋ/ *adjective* brave and taking risks *a daring escape* ●**daring** *noun* [U]

O-key **dark¹** /dɑːk/ *adjective* **1** NO LIGHT with no light or not much light *It's a bit dark in here.* ○ *It doesn't **get dark** until 9 o'clock in the evening.* **2** NOT PALE nearer to black than white in colour *dark blue/green* ○ *dark clouds* ○ *He's got dark hair and blue eyes.* **3** PERSON having black or brown hair or brown skin *A short, dark woman with glasses.* **4** BAD frightening or unpleasant *a dark period in human history*

O-key **dark²** /dɑːk/ *noun* **1 the dark** when there is no light somewhere *He's scared of the dark.* **2 before/after dark** before/after it becomes night *She doesn't let her children out after dark.* **3 be in the dark** to not know about something that other people know about *I'm completely in the dark about all this.* ➲See also: a **shot¹** in the dark

darken /ˈdɑːkʰn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** DARK to become dark or make something dark *the darkening sky* ○ *a darkened room* **2** MOOD If someone's mood darkens, or if something darkens it, they suddenly feel less happy.

darkly /ˈdɑːkli/ *adverb* in a frightening or mysterious way *"He might not be what he seems," she said darkly.*

darkness /ˈdɑːknəs/ *noun* [U] when there is little or no light *He stumbled around in the darkness looking for the light switch.* ○ *There was a power cut and the house was **in darkness**.*

darling¹ /ˈdɑːlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] used when you speak to someone you love *Would you like a drink, darling?*

darling² /ˈdɑːlɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] loved very much *my darling daughter*

darn¹ /dɑːn/ *US informal* (*also* **darned** /dɑːnd/) *adjective* [**always before noun**], *adverb* used to emphasize what you are saying, or to show that you are annoyed *I'm too darn tired to care.*

darn² /dɑːn/ *verb* [I, T] to repair a piece of clothing by sewing across a hole with thread *to darn socks*

dart¹ /dɑːt/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a small arrow used in the game of darts or as a weapon *a tranquilizer dart*

dart² /dɑːt/ *verb* **dart between/in/out, etc** to run or move somewhere quickly and suddenly *A cat darted across the street.*

darts /dɑːts/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game played by throwing small arrows at a round board

dash¹ /dæʃ/ *verb* **1** [I] to go somewhere quickly *She dashed downstairs when she heard the phone.* ○ *I must dash. I've got to be home by 7 p.m.* **2 dash sb's hopes** to destroy someone's hopes *Saturday's 2-0 defeat dashed their hopes of reaching the final.* **3 dash (sth) against/on, etc** *literary* to hit or throw something with great force, usually causing damage *Waves dashed against the cliffs.*

dash sth off *phrasal verb UK* to write something very quickly *She **dashed off a letter** to her solicitor.*

dash² /dæʃ/ *noun* **1** RUN [**no plural**] when you run somewhere very quickly *As the rain started, we **made a dash for** shelter.* **2** AMOUNT [C] a small amount of something, often food ***Add a dash** of milk to the sauce.* **3** MARK [C] a mark (–) used to separate parts of sentences ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

D

dashboard /ˈdæʃbɔːd/ *noun* [C] the part facing the driver at the front of a car with controls and equipment to show things such as speed and temperature ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

dashing /ˈdæʃɪŋ/ *adjective* A dashing man is attractive in a confident and exciting way.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***data***

analyse/collect data ● data **on** sth

data /ˈdeɪtə/ *noun* [U] **1** information or facts about something *financial data* **2** **COMPUTING** information in the form of text, numbers, or symbols that can be used by or stored in a computer

database /ˈdeɪtəbeɪs/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** information stored in a computer in an organized structure so that it can be searched in different ways *a national database of missing people*

database management system (*abbreviation* **DBMS**) *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a system for organising large amounts of computer information

data capture *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** collecting data, especially using computers *They designed a new data capture form.*

dataglove /ˈdeɪtəglʌv/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** an electronic glove (= hand covering) which sends information about the hand movements of the person wearing it to a computer

data processing *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the use of a computer to do calculations on data (= information kept on a computer)

data projector (*also* **beamer**) *noun* [C] a machine that allows you to show words or images on a screen or wall

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***date***

make/fix/set a date ● **at a future/at a later** date ● the date **of** sth ● sb's date **of birth**

date¹ /deɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** PARTICULAR DAY a particular day of the month or year *"What's the date today?" "It's the fifth."* ○ *Please give your name, address and **date of birth**.* **2** ARRANGED TIME a time when something has been arranged to happen *Let's **make a date** to have lunch.* ○ *We agreed to finish the report **at a later date**.* **3 to date** *formal* up to the present time *This novel is his best work to date.* **4** GOING OUT a romantic meeting when two people go out somewhere, such as to a restaurant or to see a film *He's asked her out **on a date**.* **5** PERSON someone who you are having a romantic meeting with *Who's your date for the prom?* **6** **FOOD** a sticky brown fruit with a long seed inside ➲See also: **blind date, sell-by date**

date² /deɪt/ *verb* **1** MEET [I, T] to regularly spend time with someone you have a romantic relationship with *We've been dating for six months.* **2** WRITE [T] to write the day's date on something *a letter dated March 13th* **3** TIME [T] to say how long something has existed or when it was made *Scientists have dated the bones to 10,000 BC.* **4** NOT MODERN [I, T] to stop seeming modern, or to make something not seem modern *Clothes like these date really quickly.*
date back *phrasal verb* to have existed a particular length of time or since a particular time *This house **dates back to** 1650.*
date from sth *phrasal verb* to have existed since a particular time *The castle dates from the 11th century.*

dated /ˈdeɪtɪd/ *adjective* not modern *This film seems a bit dated today.*

date rape *noun* [C] when someone is raped (= forced to have sex when they do not want to) by someone they know, or someone they have arranged to meet

daub /dɔːb/ *verb* [T] to put a lot of a substance like paint on a surface in a careless way, often to write words or draw pictures *The walls have been daubed with graffiti.*

daughter /ˈdɔːtə/ *noun* [C] your female child

daughter-in-law /ˈdɔːtərɪnlɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **daughters-in-law** your son's wife

daunt /dɔːnt/ *verb* [T] If someone is daunted by something, they are worried because it is difficult or frightening. [**often passive**] *I was a bit daunted by the idea of cooking for so many people.*

daunting /ˈdɔːntɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is daunting, it makes you worried because it is difficult or frightening. *a daunting challenge/task*

dawdle /ˈdɔːdl/ *verb* [I] to walk very slowly, or do something very slowly in a way that wastes time *Stop dawdling! You'll be late for school!*

dawn¹ /dɔːn/ *noun* [U] **1** the early morning when light first appears in the sky *We woke **at dawn**.* **2 the dawn of sth** *literary* the time when something began ***the dawn of civilization***
➲See also: the **crack²** of dawn

dawn² /dɔːn/ *verb* [I] If a day or a period of time dawns, it begins. *The day of her party dawned at last.*
dawn on sb *phrasal verb* If a fact dawns on you, you become aware of it after a period of not being aware of it. [**+ that**] *It suddenly dawned on them that Mary had been lying.*

day /deɪ/ *noun* **1** 24 HOURS [C] a period of 24 hours *the days of the week* ○ *January has 31 days.* ○ *I saw her the day before yesterday.* **2** LIGHT HOURS [C, U] the period during the day when there is light from the sun *a bright, sunny day* ○ *We've been travelling all day.* **3** WORK HOURS [C] the time that you usually spend at work or school *She's had a very busy day at the office.* **4 the other day** a few days ago *I saw Terry the other day.* **5 day after day** every day for a long period of time *Day after day they marched through the mountains.* **6 one day** used to talk about something that happened in the past *One day, I came home to find my*

windows smashed. **7 one day/some day/one of these days** used to talk about something you think will happen in the future *One of these days I'll tell her what really happened.* **8 days a** PERIOD used to talk about a particular period of time when something happened or existed ***in my younger days*** **b** LONG TIME a long time *I haven't seen Jack **for days**.* **9 these days** used to talk about the present time *I don't go out much these days.* **10 in those days** used to talk about a period in the past *In those days, boys used to wear short trousers.* **11 the old days** a period in the past **12 call it a day** *informal* to stop doing something, especially working *It's almost midnight - let's call it a day.* **13 it's early days** *UK* something that you say when it is too early to know what will happen *Both teams are at the bottom of the league, but it's early days yet.* **14 make sb's day** to make someone very happy *Go on, ask him to dance - it'll make his day!* **15 save the day** to do something that solves a serious problem ➲See also: **April Fool's Day, Boxing Day, Christmas Day,** at the **end**[1] of the day, **field day, Independence Day, Mother's Day, New Year's Day, open day, polling day, Valentine's Day**

daybreak /ˈdeɪbreɪk/ *noun* [U] the time in the morning when light first appears in the sky

daycare /ˈdeɪkeəʳ/ *noun* [U] care provided during the day for people who cannot look after themselves, especially young children or old people *a daycare centre*

daydream /ˈdeɪdriːm/ *verb* [I] to have pleasant thoughts about something you would like to happen ●**daydream** *noun* [C]

daylight /ˈdeɪlaɪt/ *noun* **1** [U] the natural light from the sun **2 in broad daylight** used to emphasize that something happens when it is light and people can see *He was attacked in broad daylight.*

daylights /ˈdeɪlaɪts/ *noun* **1 beat/knock the (living) daylights out of sb** *informal* to hit someone very hard many times **2 scare/frighten the (living) daylights out of sb** *informal* to frighten someone very much

ˌday reˈturn *noun* [C] *UK* a ticket for a bus or train when you go somewhere and come back on the same day *a day return to Norwich*

daytime /ˈdeɪtaɪm/ *noun* [U] the period of the day when there is light from the sun, or the period when most people are at work ***daytime television*** ○ *a **daytime telephone number***

day-to-day /ˌdeɪtəˈdeɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening every day as a regular part of your job or your life *day-to-day activities/problems*

daze /deɪz/ *noun* **in a daze** when you cannot think clearly because you are shocked or have hit your head *The survivors were walking around in a daze.*

dazed /deɪzd/ *adjective* not able to think clearly because you are shocked or have hit your head *a **dazed expression***

dazzle /ˈdæzl/ *verb* [T] **1** EXCITEMENT If you are dazzled by someone or something, you think they are extremely good and exciting. [**often passive**] *I was dazzled by his intelligence and good looks.* **2** LIGHT If light dazzles someone, it makes them unable to see for a short time.

dazzling /ˈdæzlɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** EXCITING extremely good and exciting *a **dazzling display/performance*** **2** BRIGHT A dazzling light is so bright that you cannot see for a short time after looking at it. *a dazzling white light*

DBMS /ˌdiːbiːemˈes/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* database management system; a system for organising large amounts of computer information

DC /diːˈsiː/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** *abbreviation for* direct current: electrical current that only moves in one direction ➲Compare **AC**

de- /di-/ *prefix* to take something away *deforestation* (= when the trees in an area are cut down)

deacon /ˈdiːkən/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** an official in some Christian churches

O-K **dead**[1] /ded/ *adjective* **1** NOT ALIVE not now alive *She's been dead for 20 years now.* ○ *He was **shot dead** by a masked intruder.* ○ *There were three children among **the dead**.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **die 2** EQUIPMENT If a piece of equipment is dead, it is not working. *a dead battery* ○ *The phone suddenly **went dead**.* **3** QUIET *informal* If a place is dead, it is too quiet and nothing interesting is happening there. **4** COMPLETE [**always before noun**] complete *We waited in dead silence as the votes were counted.* **5** BODY *mainly UK* If part of your body is dead, you cannot feel it. *My arm's **gone dead**.* **6 wouldn't be caught/seen dead** *informal* If someone wouldn't be caught dead in a place or doing something, they would never go there or do it, usually because it would be too embarrassing. [**+ doing sth**] *I wouldn't be caught dead wearing a bikini.* **7 drop dead** *informal* to die very suddenly

dead[2] /ded/ *adverb* **1** *informal* extremely or completely *UK The exam was dead easy.* ○ *US His advice was dead wrong.* **2 be dead set against sth/doing sth** to oppose something strongly *My parents were dead set against us getting married.* **3 stop dead** to suddenly stop moving or doing something

dead[3] /ded/ *noun* **the dead of night/winter** the middle of the night/winter

deadbeat /ˈdedbiːt/ *noun* [C] *US informal* someone who does not pay their debts *a deadbeat dad*

deaden /ˈdedᵊn/ *verb* [T] to make something less painful or less strong *She gave me an injection to **deaden** the **pain**.*

ˌdead ˈend *noun* [C] **1** ROAD a road which is closed at one end **2** SITUATION a situation in which it is impossible to make progress *The peace talks have **reached** a **dead end**.* ●**dead-end** /ˌdedˈend/ *adjective* *a **dead-end job/relationship*** ○ *a **dead-end street***

ˌdead ˈheat *noun* [C] **SPORT** when two people finish a race at exactly the same time

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***deadline***

set a deadline ● **meet/miss** a deadline ● a **tight** deadline ● the deadline **for** (doing) sth

deadline /ˈdedlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a time by which something must be done *to **meet/miss** a*

deadline ○ *The* ***deadline for*** *entering the competition is tomorrow.*

deadlock /ˈdedlɒk/ *noun* [U] a situation in which it is impossible to make progress or to reach a decision *The talks have* ***reached deadlock.*** ○ *There have been several attempts to* ***break the deadlock.*** ●**deadlocked** *adjective*

deadly¹ /ˈdedli/ *adjective* likely to cause death *a* ***deadly virus*** ○ *a* ***deadly weapon***

deadly² /ˈdedli/ *adverb* **deadly dull/serious, etc** extremely dull/serious, etc

deadpan /ˈdedpæn/ *adjective* looking or sounding serious when you are telling a joke *a deadpan expression*

deaf /def/ *adjective* **1** unable to hear *Many deaf people learn to lip read.* ○ *He goes to a school for* ***the deaf.*** **2 be deaf to sth** to refuse to listen to something ●**deafness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: fall on deaf ears (**ear**), **tone-deaf**

deafening /ˈdefᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely loud *a* ***deafening noise***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***deal***

agree/do/make/strike a deal ● **negotiate / sign** a deal ● a deal **between** [two people/companies, etc] ● a deal **with** sb

deal¹ /diːl/ *noun* **1** [C] an arrangement or an agreement, especially in business *a* ***business deal*** ○ *The police refused to* ***do/make/strike a deal*** *with the terrorists.* **2 FINANCE** [C] the price you pay for something, and what you get for your money *I* ***got*** *a really* ***good deal on*** *my new car.* **3 a good/great deal** a lot *A great deal of time and effort went into arranging this party.*

deal² /diːl/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **dealt** to give cards to players in a game *Whose turn is it to deal?*
deal in sth *phrasal verb* to buy and sell particular goods as a business *a shop dealing in rare books*
deal with sth *phrasal verb* **1** TAKE ACTION to take action in order to achieve something or to solve a problem *Can you deal with this gentleman's complaint?* **2** SUBJECT to be about a particular subject *The programme dealt with teenage pregnancy.*
deal with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to do business with a person or organization *I usually deal with the accounts department.*
deal with sb *phrasal verb* to meet or talk to someone, especially as part of your job *She's used to dealing with foreign customers.*

dealer /ˈdiːlᵊr/ *noun* [C] **1** BUY/SELL a person or company that buys and sells things for profit *a* ***car dealer*** ○ *a* ***drug dealer*** **2** CARDS a person who gives out cards to players in a game

dealership /ˈdiːləʃɪp/ *noun* [C] a business that sells cars, usually cars made by a particular company *a Ford/Toyota dealership*

dealings /ˈdiːlɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] activities involving other people, especially in business *Have you* ***had*** *any* ***dealings with*** *their London office?*

dealt /delt/ *past of* deal

deaminate /ˌdiːˈæmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] **CHEMISTRY** to remove one or more of the groups of atoms that contain nitrogen from a molecule ●**deamination** /diːˌæmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

dean /diːn/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** an official in a college or university **2 RELIGION** an official in charge of a large church or group of churches

dear¹ /dɪᵊr/ *adjective* **1** IN LETTERS used at the beginning of a letter, before the name of the person you are writing to *Dear Amy* ○ *Dear Mrs Simpson* ○ *Dear Sir/Madam* **2** LIKED [**always before noun**] A dear person is someone who you know and like very much. *my dear Peter* ○ *He's one of my dearest friends.* **3** EXPENSIVE *UK* expensive **4 dear to sb/sb's heart** If something is dear to someone or dear to their heart, it is very important to them. *The charity was very dear to his heart.*

dear² /dɪᵊr/ *exclamation* **oh dear** used to express surprise and disappointment *Oh dear! I forgot my keys!*

dear³ /dɪᵊr/ *noun* [C] used to address someone in a friendly way, especially a child or someone you love *Don't cry, my dear.* ○ *Yes, dear?*

dearly /ˈdɪəli/ *adverb* very much *I would* ***dearly love*** *to visit Rome again.*

dearth /dɜːθ/ *noun formal* **a dearth of sth** when there are not many or not enough of something available *a dearth of new homes*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***death***

bleed/choke/freeze/starve to death ● be **beaten/crushed/stabbed/trampled** to death ● sb's **premature/sudden/tragic/untimely** death ● death **from** sth

death /deθ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] the end of life *Do you believe in life after death?* ○ *We need to reduce the number of* ***deaths from*** *heart attacks.* ○ *a death threat* **2 to death** until you die *He was beaten to death by a gang of youths.* **3 put sb to death** to kill someone as a punishment [**often passive**] *She was put to death for her beliefs.* **4 frightened/bored, etc to death** *informal* extremely frightened/bored, etc *She's scared to death of dogs.*

deathbed /ˈdeθbed/ *noun* **on your deathbed** very ill and going to die soon

deathly /ˈdeθli/ *adjective, adverb* extreme in a way which is unpleasant *a* ***deathly silence*** ○ *Her face turned* ***deathly pale.***

ˈdeath ˌpenalty *noun* [C] **LAW** the legal punishment of death for a crime

ˌdeath ˈrow *noun* **LAW on death row** in prison and waiting to be killed as a punishment for a crime

ˈdeath ˌsentence *noun* [C] **LAW** a legal punishment of death for a crime

ˈdeath ˌtoll *noun* [C] the number of people who die because of an event such as a war or an accident *The death toll from the earthquake has risen to 1500.*

ˈdeath ˌtrap *noun* [C] something that is very dangerous and could cause death *That old factory across the road is a real death trap.*

debase /dɪˈbeɪs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to reduce the value or quality of something *They argue that money has debased football.*

debatable /dɪˈbeɪtəbl/ *adjective* If something is debatable, it is not certain if it is true or not. *It's **debatable whether** a university degree will help you in this job.*

debate¹ /dɪˈbeɪt/ *noun* [C, U] discussion or argument about a subject *a political debate* ○ *There has been a lot of public **debate on** the safety of food.*

debate² /dɪˈbeɪt/ *verb* **1** DISCUSS [I, T] to discuss a subject in a formal way *These issues need to be debated openly.* **2** DECIDE [T] to try to make a decision about something [+ **question word**] *I'm still debating whether to go out tonight or not.*

debenture /dɪˈbentʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an official document from a government or company to show that you have given them money that they will pay back with a certain amount of extra money

debilitating /dɪˈbɪlɪteɪtɪŋ/ *adjective formal* **HEALTH** A debilitating illness or problem makes you weak and unable to do what you want to do. *the debilitating effects of flu*

debit¹ /ˈdebɪt/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** money taken out of a bank account, or a record of this ➲Opposite **credit** ➲See also: **direct debit**

debit² /ˈdebɪt/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to take money out of a bank account as a payment for something *Twenty pounds has been debited from my account.*

ˈdebit ˌcard *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a plastic card used to pay for things directly from your bank account

ˈdebit ˌnote *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a document that is sent by a business to a company supplying goods to record any problems with the quality or amount of what the business has received

debris /ˈdebriː/ (US) /dəˈbriː/ *noun* [U] broken pieces of something *Debris from the aircraft was scattered over a wide area.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***debt***

be in/fall into/get into/run into debt ● **get out of** debt ● **clear/pay off/repay /settle** a debt

debt /det/ *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** [C] an amount of money that you owe someone *She's working in a bar to try to **pay off her debts**.* **2** **FINANCE** [U] when you owe money to someone *We don't want to **get into debt**.* ○ *He's heavily **in debt**.* **3** **be in sb's debt** to feel grateful to someone who has helped you or given you something

debtor /ˈdetəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** someone who owes money

ˈdebtors ˌledger (*also* **sales ledger**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of how much each customer owes

ˈdebt reˌlief *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** when a bank tells a person, a company or a government that they do not have to pay back the money they owe the bank

debug /ˌdiːˈbʌg/ *verb* [T] **debugging,** *past* **debugged** **COMPUTING** to remove mistakes from a computer program

debut /ˈdeɪbjuː/ (US) /deɪˈbjuː/ *noun* [C] when someone performs or presents something to the public for the first time *She **made her debut** as a pianist in 1975.* ○ *This is the band's **debut album**.*

Dec *written abbreviation for* December

decade /ˈdekeɪd/ *noun* [C] a period of ten years

decadence /ˈdekədᵊns/ *noun* [U] when you do or have things only for your own pleasure or behave in an immoral way ●**decadent** *adjective a decadent lifestyle*

decaf /ˈdiːkæf/ *noun* [C, U] *informal* **FOOD** *short for* decaffeinated coffee

decaffeinated /dɪˈkæfɪneɪtɪd/ *adjective* **FOOD** Decaffeinated tea or coffee is made by removing the caffeine (= chemical which makes you feel more awake).

decant /dɪˈkænt/ *verb* [T] to pour a liquid from one container into another ●**decantation** /ˌdɪkænˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

decathlon /dɪˈkæθlɒn/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a sports competition in which someone competes in ten events

decay /dɪˈkeɪ/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** to gradually become bad or weak or be destroyed, often because of natural causes like bacteria or age *decaying leaves* ○ *Sugar makes your teeth decay.* ●**decay** *noun* [U] when something decays ***tooth decay*** ○ *Many of the buildings had **fallen into decay**.*

deceased /dɪˈsiːst/ *adjective formal* **1** dead *the deceased man's belongings* **2** **the deceased** someone who has died *The police have not yet informed the family of the deceased.*

deceit /dɪˈsiːt/ *noun* [U] when someone tries to make someone believe something that is not true ●**deceitful** *adjective deceitful behaviour*

deceive /dɪˈsiːv/ *verb* [T] to make someone believe something that is not true *The company deceived customers by selling old computers as new ones.*

decelerate /ˌdiːˈselᵊreɪt/ *verb* [I] to move more slowly ●**deceleration** /ˌdiːselᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

December /dɪˈsembəʳ/ (*written abbreviation* **Dec**) *noun* [C, U] the twelfth month of the year

decency /ˈdiːsᵊnsi/ *noun* [U] behaviour that is good, moral, and acceptable in society *a sense of decency* ○ *She didn't even **have the decency to** tell me she wasn't coming.*

decent /ˈdiːsᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** SATISFACTORY of a satisfactory quality or level *He earns a decent salary.* ○ *I haven't had a decent cup of coffee since I've been here.* **2** HONEST honest and morally good *Decent people have had their lives ruined by his behaviour.* ○ *She should **do the decent thing** and apologize.* **3** CLOTHES [**never before noun**] wearing clothes *Can I come in? Are you decent?* ●**decently** *adverb*

decentralize (*also UK* **-ise**) /diːˈsentrəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to move the control of an organization or a government from a single place to several smaller places ●**decentralization** /diːˌsentrᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

deception /dɪˈsepʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone makes someone believe something that is not true *He was found guilty of obtaining money by deception.*

deceptive /dɪˈseptɪv/ *adjective* If something is deceptive, it makes you believe something

that is not true. *Appearances can be deceptive.* ●**deceptively** *adverb*

decibel /ˈdesɪbel/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, MEASUREMENTS** a unit for measuring how loud a sound is

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***decide***

If someone is deciding a time or an amount, especially an exact date or price, the verbs **fix** and **set** are often used: *The price has been **set/fixed** at $10.* ● *Have you **set/fixed** a date for the wedding?*

If someone makes a final and certain decision about a plan, date, etc., the verb **finalize** is sometimes used: *We've chosen a venue, but we haven't **finalized** the details yet.*

The verb **settle** and the phrasal verb **settle on/upon** are also often used when someone is making a final decision: *Have you **settled on** a place to live yet?* ● *Right then, we're going to Spain. That's **settled**.*

The fixed expression **make up your mind** is often used to mean 'to decide': *I like them both - I just can't **make up my mind** which one to pick.* ● *Have you **made up your mind** whether you're going?*

If someone is unable to decide between two choices, in informal situations you can use the expression **be torn between** something **and** something else: *I'm **torn between** the fish pie **and** the beef.*

decide /dɪˈsaɪd/ *verb* **1** CHOOSE [I, T] to choose something after thinking about several possibilities [+ **question word**] *I haven't decided whether or not to tell him.* [+ **to do sth**] *She's decided to take the job.* [+ **(that)**] *The teachers decided that the school would take part in the competition.* **2** RESULT [T] to be the reason or situation that makes a particular result happen *This match will decide the tournament.* **3 deciding factor** the thing that helps to make the final decision
decide on sth/sb *phrasal verb* to choose something or someone after thinking carefully *I've decided on blue walls for the bathroom.*

decided /dɪˈsaɪdɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] certain, obvious, or easy to notice *She had a decided advantage over her opponent.* ●**decidedly** *adverb That exam was decidedly more difficult than the last one.*

deciduous /dɪˈsɪdjuəs/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** A deciduous tree has leaves that drop off every autumn.

decimal¹ /ˈdesɪməl/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** involving counting in units of 10 *a decimal system*

decimal² /ˈdesɪməl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number less than one that is written as one or more numbers after a point *The decimal 0.5 is the same as the fraction* (= ½). ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 22.

ˌdecimal ˈfraction *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a fraction that is written using a decimal point

ˌdecimal ˈplace *UK* (*US* **ˈdecimal ˌplace**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the position of a number after a decimal point *The number is accurate to three decimal places.*

deciduous

ˌdecimal ˈpoint *UK* (*US* **ˈdecimal ˌpoint**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the point (.) that is used to separate a whole number and a decimal

decimate /ˈdesɪmeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to destroy large numbers of people or things *Populations of endangered animals have been decimated.*

decipher /dɪˈsaɪfər/ *verb* [T] to discover what something says or means *It's sometimes difficult to **decipher** his **handwriting**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***decision***

come to/make/reach a decision ● a **big/difficult/final/important/unanimous/wise** decision ● a decision **about/on** sth

decision /dɪˈsɪʒən/ *noun* [C] a choice that you make about something after thinking about several possibilities *She has had to **make** some very difficult **decisions**.* [+ **to do sth**] *It was his decision to leave.* ○ *The committee should **come to/reach a** final **decision** by next week.*

decisive /dɪˈsaɪsɪv/ *adjective* **1** AFFECTING strongly affecting how a situation will progress or end *a **decisive goal/victory*** **2** MAKE DECISIONS making decisions quickly and easily *You need to be more decisive.* ➲Opposite **indecisive** ●**decisively** *adverb* ●**decisiveness** *noun* [U]

deck¹ /dek/ *noun* [C] **1** SHIP/BUS/PLANE one of the floors of a ship, bus, or aircraft *The children like to sit on the top deck of the bus.* **2 on deck** on the top floor of a ship that is not covered **3** CARDS *US* (*UK* **pack**) a collection of cards that you use to play a game **4** MACHINE a machine that you use to play records or tapes (= plastic cases containing magnetic material used to record sounds) *a tape deck*

deck² /dek/ *verb*
be decked out *phrasal verb* to be decorated with something, or dressed in something special *The bar was decked out with red and yellow flags.*

deckchair /ˈdektʃeəʳ/ *noun* [C] a folding chair that you use outside

declaration /ˌdekləˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] an announcement, often one that is written and official *a declaration of independence*

declare /dɪˈkleəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** SAY PUBLICLY to announce something publicly or officially *to declare war* [+ **that**] *Scientists have declared that this meat is safe to eat.* **2** TAX to officially tell someone the value of goods you have bought, or the amount of money you have earned because you might have to pay tax *Have you got anything to declare?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***decline***

be **in** decline ● a **sharp/steady/steep** decline ● a decline **in** sth

decline¹ /dɪˈklaɪn/ *noun* [C, U] when something becomes less in amount, importance, quality, or strength *a steady **decline in** sales/standards*

decline² /dɪˈklaɪn/ *verb* **1** REFUSE [I, T] *formal* If you decline something, you refuse it politely. *She **declined** his **offer** of a lift.* [+ **to do sth**] *He **declined to comment**.* **2** BECOME LESS [I] to become less in amount, importance, quality, or strength *Sales of records have declined steadily.*

decode /ˌdiːˈkəʊd/ *verb* [T] to discover the meaning of a message that is in code (= secret system of communication)

decoder /diːˈkəʊdəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that allows you to receive particular television signals

decompose /ˌdiːkəmˈpəʊz/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** If a dead person, animal, or plant decomposes, it decays and is gradually destroyed. *a decomposing body* ●**decomposition** /ˌdiːkɒmpəˈzɪʃᵊn/

decomposer /ˌdiːkəmˈpəʊzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an organism such as a bacterium or fungus that makes dead plant and animal material decay

decor /ˈdeɪkɔːʳ/ (US) /deɪˈkɔːr/ *noun* [U **no plural**] the style of decoration and furniture in a room or building

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***decorate***

The verbs **refurbish**, **renovate** and **revamp** are common alternatives to 'decorate' when you are talking about improving the appearance of a room or building: *The University library is currently being **refurbished**.* ● *They were in the process of **renovating** an old barn.* ● *The restaurant has recently been **revamped**.*

Another alternative used in more informal situations is the phrasal verb **do up**: *He's bought an old cottage and is gradually **doing** it **up**.*

O-key **decorate** /ˈdekᵊreɪt/ *verb* **1** MAKE ATTRACTIVE [T] to make something look more attractive by putting things on it or around it *They decorated the room with balloons for her party.* **2** PAINT [I, T] to put paint or paper on the walls or other surfaces of a room or building *The whole house needs decorating.* **3 be decorated** to be given a medal (= small, metal disc) as official respect for military action *He was decorated for bravery.*

decoration /ˌdekᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ATTRACTIVE THING [C, U] when you make something look more attractive by putting things on it or around it, or something that you use to do this ***Christmas decorations*** ○ *She hung some pictures around the room for decoration.* **2** PAINT [U] when the walls or other surfaces of rooms or buildings are covered with paint or paper *This place is badly in need of decoration.* **3** OFFICIAL RESPECT [C] an official sign of respect such as a medal (= small, metal disc)

decorative /ˈdekᵊrətɪv/ *adjective* making something or someone look more attractive *decorative objects*

decorator /ˈdekᵊreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SOMEONE WHO PAINTS *UK* someone whose job is to put paint or paper on the walls and other surfaces of rooms or buildings **2** SOMEONE WHO DESIGNS *US* someone whose job is to design the appearance of rooms in houses and buildings

decorum /dɪˈkɔːrəm/ *noun* [U] *formal* behaviour which is considered to be polite and correct

decoy /ˈdiːkɔɪ/ *noun* [C] someone or something used to lead a person or animal to a place so that they can be caught

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***decrease***

The verbs **lessen**, **lower**, and **reduce**, and the phrasal verb **bring down** are often used when someone decreases an amount or level: *They've just **lowered** the age at which you can join.* ● *Exercise **reduces** the chance of heart disease.* ● *They are **bringing down** their prices.*

The verbs **drop** and **fall**, and the phrasal verbs **go down** and **come down** are often used when a level or amount decreases: *Unemployment has **dropped/fallen** from 8% to 6% in the last year.* ● *Prices always **come/go down** after Christmas.*

If a level or amount decreases very quickly, the verbs **plummet** and **plunge** are sometimes used: *Temperatures last night **plummeted/plunged** below zero.*

If the size of something decreases, the verb **shrink** is sometimes used. The verb **contract** is used in technical contexts: *Forests have **shrunk** to almost half the size they were 20 years ago.* ● *As the metal cools, it **contracts**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***decrease***

a **marked/significant/slight** decrease ● a decrease **in** sth ● a decrease **of** [5%/1000, etc]

decrease /dɪˈkriːs/ *verb* [I, T] to become less, or to make something become less *During the summer months, rainfall decreases.* ●**decrease** /ˈdiːkriːs/ *noun* [C, U] *There has been a **decrease in** the number of violent crimes.* ➲Opposite **increase**

decree /dɪˈkriː/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** an official order or decision from a government or leader *a presidential/royal decree* ●**decree** *verb* [T] **decreeing,** *past* **decreed**

decrepit /dɪˈkrepɪt/ *adjective* old and in very bad condition *a decrepit building*

decrypt /dɪˈkrɪpt/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to change electronic information from a secret system of letters, numbers, or symbols back into a form that people can understand

D

dedicate /ˈdedɪkeɪt/ *verb* **1 dedicate your life/yourself to sth** to give most of your energy and time to something *She has dedicated her life to helping others.* **2 dedicate sth to sb** to say that something you have made or done is to show your love or respect for someone [**often passive**] *This book is dedicated to my daughter.*

dedicated /ˈdedɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** GIVING TIME/ENERGY believing that something is very important and giving a lot of time and energy to it *a dedicated teacher* **2** FOR PURPOSE designed to be used for a particular purpose *a dedicated word processor*

dedication /ˌdedɪˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [U] when you are willing to give a lot of time and energy to something because you believe it is very important *She thanked the staff for their dedication and enthusiasm.* **2** RESPECT [C] when someone says that something has been made or done to show love and respect for someone else *a dedication to the poet's mother*

deduce /dɪˈdjuːs/ *verb* [T] to decide that something is true using the available information [**+ (that)**] *From the contents of his shopping basket, I deduced that he was single.*

deduct /dɪˈdʌkt/ *verb* [T] **MATHEMATICS** to take an amount or a part of something away from a total *The company will **deduct** tax **from** your earnings.* ○ *Marks are deducted for spelling mistakes.*

deduction /dɪˈdʌkʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] **1 MATHEMATICS** when an amount or a part of something is taken away from a total, or the amount that is taken *tax deductions* **2** when you decide that something is true using the available information

deed /diːd/ *noun* [C] **1** *formal* something that you do *good deeds* ○ *I judge a person by their deeds, not their words.* **2 LAW** a legal document recording an agreement, especially saying who owns something [**usually plural**] *Where do you keep the deeds to the house?*

deem /diːm/ *verb* [T] *formal* to judge or consider something in a particular way *The book was deemed to be unsuitable for children.*

deep¹ /diːp/ *adjective* **1** TOP TO BOTTOM having a long distance from the top to the bottom *The water is a lot deeper than it seems.* **2** FRONT TO BACK having a long distance from the front to the back *How deep are the shelves?* **3 one metre/6ft, etc deep** one metre/6 ft, etc from the top to the bottom, or from the front the back *This end of the pool is two metres deep.* **4** FEELING A deep feeling is very strong. *deep affection/regret* **5** SOUND A deep sound is low. *a deep voice* **6** SERIOUS serious and difficult for most people to understand *a **deep and meaningful** conversation* **7 a deep sleep** when someone is sleeping in a way that makes it difficult to wake them up **8** COLOUR A deep colour is strong and dark. *deep brown eyes* **9 take a deep breath** to fill your lungs with air *Take a deep breath and relax.* **10 deep in thought/conversation** giving all of your attention to what you are thinking or talking about, and not noticing anything else ➲See also: throw sb in at the deep **end**¹, be in deep **water**¹

deep² /diːp/ *adverb* **1** a long way into something from the top or outside *They travelled deep into the forest.* **2 deep down** If you know or feel something deep down, you are certain that it is true, or you feel it strongly although you do not admit it or show it. *Deep down, I knew that I was right.* **3 go/run deep** If a feeling or a problem goes deep, it is very strong or serious and has existed for a long time.

deepen /ˈdiːpˈn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** DEEPER to become deeper, or to make something become deeper *The sky deepened to a rich, dark blue.* **2** WORSE to become worse, or to make something become worse *a **deepening crisis***

ˌdeep ˈfreeze *UK* (*US* **ˈdeep ˌfreeze**) *noun* [C] *another word for* freezer (= a large container in which food can be frozen and stored)

deep-fried /ˌdiːpˈfraɪd/ *adjective* **FOOD** fried in a lot of oil

deeply /ˈdiːpli/ *adverb* **1** very much *I have fallen deeply in love with her.* **2 breathe deeply** to fill your lungs with air

deep-seated /ˌdiːpˈsiːtɪd/ (*also* **deep-rooted**) *adjective* strongly felt or believed and difficult to change ***deep-seated fears/problems***

deer /dɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **deer** a large, wild animal that is sometimes hunted for food and which has antlers (= long horns) if it is male

deface /dɪˈfeɪs/ *verb* [T] to spoil the appearance of something, especially by writing or painting on it *Several posters have been defaced with political slogans.*

default¹ /dɪˈfɔːlt/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] what exists or happens usually if no changes are made **2 by default** If something happens by default, it happens only because something else does not happen. *No one else stood in the election, so he won by default.* ●**default** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *The default font size is 10.*

default² /dɪˈfɔːlt/ *verb* [I] **FINANCE** to not do what you have made an agreement to do, especially paying back money you have borrowed *They have **defaulted on** their debt repayments.*

defeat¹ /dɪˈfiːt/ *verb* [T] **1** WIN to win against someone in a fight or competition *She was defeated by an Australian player in the first round of the tournament.* **2** MAKE FAIL to make someone or something fail *The bill was narrowly defeated in parliament.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***defeat***

admit/face/suffer defeat ● a **comprehensive/crushing/humiliating/narrow** defeat

defeat² /dɪˈfiːt/ *noun* **1** LOSE [C, U] when someone loses against someone else in a fight or competition *The Chicago Cubs have **suffered** their worst **defeat** of the season.* **2** FAIL [**no**

plural] when someone or something is made to fail *the defeat of apartheid*

defeatism /dɪˈfiːtɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] behaviour or thoughts that show that you do not expect to be successful

defeatist /dɪˈfiːtɪst/ *adjective* behaving in a way that shows that you do not expect to be successful *a **defeatist attitude*** ●**defeatist** *noun* [**C**]

defect¹ /ˈdiːfekt/ *noun* [**C**] a fault or problem with someone or something *a birth defect* ○ *A mechanical defect caused the plane to crash.* ●**defective** /dɪˈfektɪv/ *adjective* having a fault or problem ***defective goods***

defect² /dɪˈfekt/ *verb* [**I**] **POLITICS** to leave your country or organization and go to join an enemy country or competing organization *He **defected to** the West.* ●**defection** /dɪˈfekʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when someone defects ●**defector** *noun* [**C**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***defence***

mount/put up a defence ● an **effective/spirited/strong/vigorous** defence ● defence **against** sth ● [argue, etc] **in** defence **of** sth

defence *UK* (*US* **defense**) /dɪˈfens/ *noun* **1** MILITARY [**U**] the weapons and military forces that a country uses to protect itself against attack *Government spending on defence is increasing.* ○ *the defence minister/industry* **2** PROTECTION [**C, U**] protection, or something that provides protection against attack or criticism *the body's **defences against** infection* ○ *She argued strongly **in defence of** her actions.* **3 come to sb's defence** to support someone when they are being criticized **4 the defence LAW** [**group**] the lawyers in a court who work in support of the person who is accused of a crime *He was cross-examined by the defence.* ○ *a **defence lawyer*** **5 SPORT** [**C, U**] the part of a sports team which tries to prevent the other team from scoring points ➲See also: **self-defence**

defenceless *UK* (*US* **defenseless**) /dɪˈfensləs/ *adjective* weak and unable to protect yourself from attack *a small, defenceless child*

defend /dɪˈfend/ *verb* **1** PROTECT [**T**] to protect someone or something from being attacked, especially by fighting *The army was sent in to **defend** the country **against** enemy attack.* [**often reflexive**] *She tried to defend herself with a knife.* **2** SUPPORT [**T**] to support someone or something that is being criticized *The newspaper's editor **defended** his **decision** to publish the photos.* **3 LAW** [**T**] to try to show in a court that someone is not guilty of a crime *He has hired two lawyers to defend him in court.* **4 SPORT** [**I, T**] to try to stop the other sports team from scoring points **5 defend a championship/title, etc SPORT** to try to win a match or competition that you have won before ●**defender** *noun* [**C**]

defendant /dɪˈfendənt/ *noun* [**C**] **LAW** the person in a court who is accused of a crime

defense /dɪˈfens/ *noun* **LAW, SPORT** *US spelling of* defence

defenseless /dɪˈfensləs/ *adjective US spelling of* defenceless

defensive¹ /dɪˈfensɪv/ *adjective* **1** CRITICISM quick to protect yourself from being criticized *He's very **defensive about** his weight.* **2 SPORT** *mainly US* A defensive player in a sports team tries to stop the other team scoring points. **3** ATTACK done or used to protect someone or something from attack ●**defensively** *adverb*

defensive² /dɪˈfensɪv/ *noun* **on the defensive** ready to protect yourself because you are expecting to be criticized or attacked

defer /dɪˈfɜːʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **deferring,** *past* **deferred** to arrange for something to happen at a later time *The payments can be deferred for three months.*

deference /ˈdefᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [**U**] polite behaviour that shows that you respect someone or something ●**deferential** /ˌdefᵊˈrenʃᵊl/ *adjective*

defiance /dɪˈfaɪəns/ *noun* [**U**] when you refuse to obey someone or something *an **act of defiance***

defiant /dɪˈfaɪənt/ *adjective* refusing to obey someone or something *a defiant child* ●**defiantly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***deficiency***

a **glaring/major/serious/severe** deficiency ● a deficiency **in** sth

deficiency /dɪˈfɪʃᵊnsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** NOT ENOUGH when you do not have enough of something *a **vitamin deficiency*** **2** FAULT a mistake or fault in something so that it is not good enough *Parents are complaining of serious **deficiencies in** the education system.*

deˈficiency diˌsease *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a disease caused by not getting enough vitamins or other substances that are important for the body

deficient /dɪˈfɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT HAVING ENOUGH not having enough of something *If you have poor night vision you may be **deficient in** vitamin A.* **2** NOT GOOD ENOUGH not good enough *His theory is deficient in several respects.*

deficit /ˈdefɪsɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** the amount by which the money that you spend is more than the money that you receive *a **budget deficit***

defile /dɪˈfaɪl/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to spoil someone or something that is pure, holy, or beautiful

define /dɪˈfaɪn/ *verb* [**T**] **1** MEANING to say exactly what something means, or what someone or something is like *Your duties are clearly defined in the contract.* **2** SHAPE to show the outer edges or shape of something *It has sharply defined edges.*

definite /ˈdefɪnət/ *adjective* **1** CERTAIN certain, fixed, and not likely to change *We need a definite answer by tomorrow.* **2** CLEAR clear and obvious *There has been a definite improvement in her behaviour.*

ˌdefinite ˈarticle *noun* [**C**] **LANGUAGE** in grammar, used to mean the word 'the' ➲Compare **indefinite article**

definitely /ˈdefɪnətli/ *adverb* without any doubt *This book is definitely worth reading.* ○ *"Do you want to come?" "Yes, definitely."*

definition /ˌdefɪˈnɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [**C**] an explanation of the meaning of a word or phrase *a*

dictionary definition **2** **ART** [U] how clear an image of something is in a photograph or on a screen

definitive /dɪˈfɪnətɪv/ *adjective* **1** CERTAIN certain, clear, and not likely to change *a **definitive answer*** **2** BEST A definitive book or piece of work is the best of its type. *the definitive guide to London* ●**definitively** *adverb*

deflate /dɪˈfleɪt/ *verb* **1** LOSE AIR [I, T] to let all the air or gas out of something, or to become emptied of air or gas *to deflate a balloon/tyre* **2** CONFIDENCE [T] to make someone lose confidence or feel less important [**often passive**] *They were totally deflated by losing the match.* **3** **ECONOMICS** to reduce the supply of money in an economy

deflation /dɪˈfleɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** a reduction of the supply of money in an economy, and because of this a reduction of economic activity, which is often part of an intentional government plan to reduce prices ➲Compare **inflation**

deflationary /dɪˈfleɪʃˈnˈri/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS** causing deflation ➲Compare **inflationary**

deflect /dɪˈflekt/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to make something change direction by hitting or touching it, or to change direction after hitting something *The ball was deflected into the corner of the net.* **2** **deflect attention/blame/criticism, etc** to cause attention/blame/criticism, etc to be directed away from you ●**deflection** /dɪˈflekʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

deforestation /diːˌfɒrɪˈsteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** when all the trees in a large area are cut down

deformed /dɪˈfɔːmd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** with a shape that has not developed normally *deformed hands* ●**deform** /dɪˈfɔːm/ *verb* [T]

deformity /dɪˈfɔːməti/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** when a part of the body has not developed in the normal way, or with the normal shape

defraud /dɪˈfrɔːd/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to obtain money from someone illegally by being dishonest

defrost /ˌdiːˈfrɒst/ *verb* [I, T] **1** **FOOD** If food defrosts, it becomes warmer after being frozen, and if you defrost it, you make it become warmer after being frozen. *You need to defrost the fish before you can cook it.* **2** If you defrost a fridge or freezer (= machines that keep food cold), you make them warmer and remove the ice, and if they defrost, they become warmer and the ice melts.

deft /deft/ *adjective* quick and showing great skill *a **deft movement/touch*** ●**deftly** *adverb formal*

defunct /dɪˈfʌŋkt/ *adjective* not working or existing now

defuse /ˌdiːˈfjuːz/ *verb* [T] **1** SITUATION to make a difficult or dangerous situation calmer *He made a joke to **defuse** the **tension**.* **2** BOMB to prevent a bomb from exploding by removing the fuse (= part that starts the explosion)

defy /dɪˈfaɪ/ *verb* **1** [T] to refuse to obey someone or something *Some of these children openly defy their teachers.* **2** **defy belief/description/explanation, etc** to be impossible to believe, describe, explain, etc *His attitude defies belief.* **3** **defy sb to do sth** to tell someone to do something that you think will be impossible *I defy you to prove that I'm wrong.*

degenerate¹ /dɪˈdʒenˈreɪt/ *verb* [I] to become worse *The protest soon **degenerated into violence**.* ●**degeneration** /dɪˌdʒenəˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

degenerate² /dɪˈdʒenˈrət/ *adjective* having low moral principles

degrade /dɪˈgreɪd/ *verb* [T] **1** NO RESPECT to treat someone without respect and as if they have no value *They think the advert degrades women.* **2** DAMAGE to damage the quality or condition of something **3** **CHEMISTRY** to change into a more simple chemical substance ●**degradation** /ˌdegrəˈdeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

degrading /dɪˈgreɪdɪŋ/ *adjective* treating people without respect and as if they have no value *degrading work*

degree /dɪˈgriː/ *noun* **1** **MEASURES** [C] a unit for measuring temperature, shown by the symbol ° written after a number **2** **MATHEMATICS, MEASURES** [C] a unit for measuring angles, shown by the symbol ° written after a number **3** **EDUCATION** [C] a qualification given for completing a university course *She has a **degree in** physics.* **4** [C, U] an amount or level of something *I agree with you **to a degree*** (= in some ways but not completely). ➲See also: **Master's (degree)**

dehydrated /ˌdiːhaɪˈdreɪtɪd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** not having enough water in your body

dehydration /ˌdiːhaɪˈdreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **1** **HEALTH** when you do not have enough water in your body **2** the process of removing water from something

deign /deɪn/ *verb* **deign to do sth** to do something that you think you are too important to do

deindustrialization (*also UK* **-isation**) /diːɪnˌdʌstriˈlaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the process by which a country or area stops having so much industry

deity /ˈdeɪti/ (US) /ˈdiːəti/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** *formal* a god or goddess (= female god)

deja vu /ˌdeɪʒɑːˈvuː/ *noun* [U] a feeling that you have already experienced exactly what is happening now *She suddenly had a strong **sense of deja vu**.*

dejected /dɪˈdʒektɪd/ *adjective* unhappy and disappointed *He looked tired and dejected.* ●**dejection** /dɪˈdʒekʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

delay¹ /dɪˈleɪ/ *verb* **1** CHANGE TIME [I, T] to make something happen at a later time than originally planned or expected *Can you delay your departure until next week?* **2** MAKE LATE [T] to cause someone or something to be slow or late [**often passive**] *I was delayed by traffic.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***delay***

a **brief/short/slight** delay ● a **considerable/lengthy/long** delay ● **cause** delays ● **experience/face/suffer** delays

delay² /dɪˈleɪ/ *noun* [C, U] when you have to wait longer than expected for something to

happen, or the time that you have to wait *An accident **caused long delays** on the motorway.*

delayering /diːˈleɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when a company or organization reduces the number of its managers

delectable /dɪˈlektəbl/ *adjective formal* extremely nice, especially to eat

delegate¹ /ˈdelɪgət/ *noun* [C] someone who is sent somewhere to represent a group of people, especially at a meeting

delegate² /ˈdelɪgeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to give someone else part of your work or some of your responsibilities

delegation /ˌdelɪˈgeɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** GROUP [C] a group of people who have been chosen to represent a much larger group of people *a delegation of Chinese officials* **2** WORK [U] when you give someone else part of your work or some of your responsibilities

delete /dɪˈliːt/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to remove something, especially from a computer's memory *All names have been deleted from the report.* ●**deletion** /dɪˈliːʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

deli /ˈdeli/ *noun* [C] *short for* delicatessen

deliberate¹ /dɪˈlɪbᵊrət/ *adjective* **1** INTENTIONAL done intentionally, or planned *This was a **deliberate attempt** by them to deceive us.* **2** SLOW careful and without hurry *Her movements were calm and deliberate.*

deliberate² /dɪˈlɪbᵊreɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to consider something carefully before making a decision *They deliberated for ten hours before reaching a decision.*

O-key **deliberately** /dɪˈlɪbᵊrətli/ *adverb* intentionally, having planned to do something *He deliberately lied to the police.*

deliberation /dɪˌlɪbəˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] careful thought or talk about a subject before a decision is made *The jury began deliberations on Thursday.*

delicacy /ˈdelɪkəsi/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C] a special food, usually something rare or expensive **2** GENTLE QUALITY [U] the quality of being soft, light, or gentle **3** EASY TO DAMAGE [U] when something is easy to damage or break **4** NEEDING CARE [U] when something needs to be treated very carefully *You need to be very tactful because of the delicacy of the situation.* **5** ATTRACTIVE [U] when something has a thin, attractive shape

delicate /ˈdelɪkət/ *adjective* **1** GENTLE soft, light, or gentle *a delicate flavour* ○ *a delicate shade of pink* **2** EASY TO DAMAGE easy to damage or break *a delicate china cup* **3** NEEDING CARE needing to be dealt with very carefully *I need to discuss a very delicate matter with you.* **4** ATTRACTIVE having a thin, attractive shape *delicate hands* ●**delicately** *adverb*

delicatessen /ˌdelɪkəˈtesᵊn/ *noun* [C] a shop, or a part of a shop which sells cheeses, cooked meats, salads, etc

delicious /dɪˈlɪʃəs/ *adjective* If food or drink is delicious, it smells or tastes extremely good. *This soup is absolutely delicious.* ●**deliciously** *adverb*

delight¹ /dɪˈlaɪt/ *noun* **1** PLEASURE [U] happiness and excited pleasure *The children screamed with delight.* **2** PERSON/THING [C] someone or something that gives you pleasure

delight² /dɪˈlaɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel very pleased and happy *The new discovery has delighted scientists everywhere.*
delight in sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to get a lot of pleasure from something, especially something unpleasant *She seems to delight in making him look stupid.*

delighted /dɪˈlaɪtɪd/ *adjective* very pleased [**+ to do sth**] *I'd be delighted to accept your invitation.* ○ *They are **delighted with** their new car.*

delightful /dɪˈlaɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* very pleasant, attractive, or enjoyable *We had a delightful evening.* ●**delightfully** *adverb*

delinquency /dɪˈlɪŋkwənsi/ *noun* [U] **LAW** criminal or bad behaviour, especially by young people

delinquent /dɪˈlɪŋkwənt/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a young person who behaves badly, usually by committing crimes ●**delinquent** *adjective delinquent behaviour*

deliquesce /ˌdelɪˈkwes/ *verb* [I] **CHEMISTRY** to dissolve in water from the air around ●**deliquescence** /ˌdelɪˈkwesᵊnts/ *noun* [U]

delirious /dɪˈlɪriəs/ *adjective* **1 HEALTH** speaking or thinking in a confused way, often because of a fever or drugs **2** extremely happy *delirious fans* ●**deliriously** *adverb*

deliver /dɪˈlɪvəʳ/ *verb* **1** TAKE [I, T] to take things such as letters, parcels, or goods to a person or place *They can deliver the sofa on Wednesday.* **2** PROMISE [I, T] to achieve or do something that you have promised to do, or that people expect you to do *The company failed to deliver the high quality service that we expect.* **3 deliver a speech/talk, etc** to speak formally to a group of people *She delivered the speech on national TV.* **4 deliver a baby** to help take a baby out of its mother when it is being born ➲See also: deliver/come up with the **goods**

delivery /dɪˈlɪvᵊri/ *noun* [C, U] **1** LETTERS when someone takes things such as letters, parcels, or goods to a person or place *Is there a charge for delivery?* **2** BABY when a baby is born and comes out of its mother *Her husband was present at the delivery.*

delta /ˈdeltə/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a low, flat area of land where a river divides into smaller rivers and goes into the sea *the Nile delta*

delude /dɪˈluːd/ *verb* [T] to make someone believe something that is not real or true [**often reflexive + into + doing sth**] *She deluded herself into thinking she could win.* ●**deluded** *adjective* believing things that are not real or true

deluge¹ /ˈdeljuːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** LARGE AMOUNT a very large amount of something that suddenly arrives *They have received a deluge of complaints.* **2** RAIN a sudden, large amount of rain, or a flood

deluge² /ˈdeljuːdʒ/ *verb* **be deluged with/by sth** to receive very large amounts of something suddenly *Our switchboard was deluged with calls last night.*

delusion /dɪˈluːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone believes something that is not true [**+ (that)**]

*She is **under the delusion** that her debts will just go away.*

deluxe /dəˈlʌks/ *adjective* luxurious and of very high quality *a deluxe hotel*

delve /delv/ *verb* **delve in/into/inside, etc** to search in a container to try to find something *He delved in his pocket and pulled out a pen.* **delve into sth** *phrasal verb* to examine something carefully in order to discover more information about someone or something *I don't like to delve too deeply into his past.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***demand***

increase/meet/satisfy demand ● **great/growing/high/steady** demand ● be **in** demand ● demand **for** sth

demand¹ /dɪˈmɑːnd/ *noun* **1** ECONOMICS [**U, no plural**] a need for something to be sold or supplied *There's an increasing **demand for** cheap housing.* **2** [**C**] a strong request *They received a final **demand for** payment.* **3 in demand** wanted or needed in large numbers *Good teachers are always in demand.*

demand² /dɪˈmɑːnd/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ASK to ask for something in a way that shows that you do not expect to be refused *I demanded an explanation.* [**+ that**] *The survivors are demanding that the airline pays them compensation.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **ask 2** NEED to need something such as time or effort *This job demands a high level of concentration.*

demanding /dɪˈmɑːndɪŋ/ *adjective* needing a lot of your time, attention, or effort *a very demanding job*

demands /dɪˈmɑːndz/ *noun* [**plural**] the difficult things that you have to do *the demands of modern life* ○ *His new job **makes** a lot of **demands on** him* (= he has to work very hard).

demarcation dispute /ˌdiːmɑːˈkeɪʃən-ˌdɪspjuːt/ *noun* [**C**] a disagreement between trade unions (= organizations of workers) about what types of work should be done by the members of each of them

demeaning /dɪˈmiːnɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is demeaning, it makes you feel that you are not respected. *Some people consider beauty competitions **demeaning to** women.*

demeanour *UK* (*US* **demeanor**) /dɪˈmiːnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] the way that someone looks, seems, and behaves *a quiet, serious demeanour*

demented /dɪˈmentɪd/ *adjective* mentally ill, or behaving in a very strange way without any control

dementia /dɪˈmenʃə/ *noun* [**U**] HEALTH a mental illness suffered especially by old people

demi- /demi-/ *prefix* half, partly *demitasse* (= a small coffee cup) ○ *demigod* (= a creature that is part god and part human)

demise /dɪˈmaɪz/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when something ends, usually because it has stopped being popular or successful *the demise of apartheid* **2 sb's demise** someone's death

demo¹ /ˈdeməʊ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** EXAMPLE an example of a product, given or shown to someone to try to make them buy it *a software demo* **2** POLITICS *UK short for* demonstration (= political march) *a student demo*

demo² /ˈdeməʊ/ *verb* [**T**] to show something and explain how it works *We need someone to demo a new piece of software.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***democracy***

an **emerging/new** democracy ● **in** a democracy

democracy /dɪˈmɒkrəsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] POLITICS a system of government in which people elect their leaders, or a country with this system

democrat /ˈdeməkræt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** POLITICS someone who supports democracy **2 Democrat** POLITICS someone who supports the Democratic Party in the US *the Democrat candidate* ➲See also: **Liberal Democrat**

democratic /ˌdeməˈkrætɪk/ *adjective* **1** POLITICS following or supporting the political system of democracy *a democratic society/government* **2** POLITICS where everyone has equal rights and can help to make decisions *a democratic discussion/debate* ●**democratically** *adverb a democratically elected government*

the Democratic Party *noun* [**group**] POLITICS one of the two main political parties in the US

demographics /ˌdeməˈgræfɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] SOCIETY the quantity and characteristics of the people who live in a particular area, for example their age, how much money they have, etc.

demography /dɪˈmɒgrəfi/ *noun* [**U**] SOCIETY the study of the characteristics of people in a particular area ●**demographic** /ˌdeməˈgræfɪk/ *adjective*

demolish /dɪˈmɒlɪʃ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** DESTROY to destroy something such as a building *The factory is dangerous, and will have to be demolished.* **2** PROVE WRONG to show that an idea or argument is wrong *He completely demolished my argument.*

demolition /ˌdeməˈlɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something such as a building is destroyed *the demolition of dangerous buildings*

demon /ˈdiːmən/ *noun* [**C**] an evil spirit

demonic /dɪˈmɒnɪk/ *adjective* evil

demonstrable /dɪˈmɒnstrəbl/ *adjective* Something that is demonstrable can be shown to exist or be true. *a demonstrable fact* ●**demonstrably** *adverb*

demonstrate /ˈdemənstreɪt/ *verb* **1** PROVE [**T**] to show or prove that something exists or is true [**+ that**] *The survey clearly demonstrates that tourism can have positive benefits.* **2** SHOW HOW [**T**] to show someone how to do something, or how something works *She demonstrated how to use the new software.* **3** EXPRESS [**T**] to express or show that you have a feeling, quality, or ability *He has demonstrated a genuine interest in the project.* **4** MARCH [**I**] to march or stand with a group of people to show that you disagree with or support someone or something *Thousands of people gathered to **demonstrate against** the new proposals.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***demonstration***

hold/organize/stage a demonstration ● **go on/take part in** a demonstration ● a **mass** demonstration ● a demonstration **against** sth

demonstration /ˌdemənˈstreɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [C] when a group of people march or stand together to show that they disagree with or support someone or something *They're taking part in a **demonstration against** the causes of climate change.* **2** SHOWING HOW [C, U] showing how to do something, or how something works *We asked the sales assistant to **give** us a **demonstration**.* **3** PROOF [C, U] proof that something exists or is true *This disaster is a clear demonstration of the need for tighter controls.*

demonstrative /dɪˈmɒnstrətɪv/ *adjective* willing to show your feelings, especially your affection

demonstrator /ˈdemənstreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a person who marches or stands with a group of people to show that they disagree with or support someone or something

demoralized (*also UK* **-ised**) /dɪˈmɒrəlaɪzd/ *adjective* having lost your confidence, enthusiasm, and hope *After the match, the players were tired and demoralized.* ●**demoralizing** *adjective* making you lose your confidence, enthusiasm, and hope *a demoralizing defeat* ●**demoralize** /dɪˈmɒrəlaɪz/ *verb* [T]

demote /dɪˈməʊt/ *verb* **be demoted** to be moved to a less important job or position, especially as a punishment ●**demotion** /dɪˈməʊʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

demotivated /ˌdiːˈməʊtɪveɪtɪd/ *adjective* not having any enthusiasm for your work

demure /dɪˈmjʊəʳ/ *adjective* If a young woman is demure, she is quiet and shy. ●**demurely** *adverb*

den /den/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL'S HOME the home of some wild animals *a lions' den* **2** ILLEGAL ACTIVITY a place where secret and illegal activity happens *a gambling den* **3** ROOM *mainly US* a room in your home where you relax, read, watch television, etc

denature /diːˈneɪtʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] CHEMISTRY to change the characteristics of a substance, for example by the action of heat or acid

dendrite /ˈdendraɪt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY the short parts like threads at the edge of a nerve cell that carry messages to the cell

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***denial***

issue a denial ● a **categorical/emphatic/strenuous/vehement** denial ● denial **of** sth

denial /dɪˈnaɪəl/ *noun* **1** NOT TRUE [C, U] when you say that something is not true *a **denial of** his guilt* **2** NOT ALLOWING [U] not allowing someone to have or do something *the denial of medical treatment*

denigrate /ˈdenɪgreɪt/ *verb* [T] to criticize and not show much respect for someone or something

denim /ˈdenɪm/ *noun* [U] thick, strong, cotton cloth, usually blue, which is used to make clothes *a **denim jacket***

denitrify /diˈnaɪtrɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] CHEMISTRY to break up nitrates (= chemicals containing nitrogen and oxygen), for example in soil, and so release nitrogen into the air *denitrifying bacteria* ●**denitrification** /diˌnaɪtrɪ.fɪˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] ➲See picture at **nitrogen cycle**

denomination /dɪˌnɒmɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] **1** RELIGION a religious group which has slightly different beliefs from other groups which share the same religion **2** ECONOMICS, FINANCE the value of a particular coin, piece of paper money, or stamp

denominator /dɪˈnɒmɪneɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS the number below the line in a fraction ➲Compare **numerator**

denote /dɪˈnəʊt/ *verb* [T] to be a sign of something *The colour red is used to denote passion or danger.*

denounce /dɪˈnaʊns/ *verb* [T] to publicly criticize someone or something, or to publicly accuse someone of something *They've been **denounced as** terrorists.*

dense /dens/ *adjective* **1** CLOSE TOGETHER with a lot of people or things close together ***dense forest*** **2** THICK If cloud, smoke, etc is dense, it is thick and difficult to see through. ***dense fog*** **3** SUBSTANCE PHYSICS containing a lot of matter in a small space ●**densely** *adverb a **densely populated** area*

density /ˈdensɪti/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the number of people or things in a place when compared with the size of the place *The area has a high population density.* **2** MEASURES, PHYSICS the relationship between the weight of a substance and its size *bone density*

dent¹ /dent/ *noun* [C] **1** DAMAGE a hollow area in a hard surface where it has been hit *The car door had a dent in it.* **2** REDUCTION a reduction in something *The cost of repairs **made** a serious **dent in** my savings.*

dent² /dent/ *verb* [T] **1** DAMAGE to create a hollow area in the hard surface of something by hitting it *The side of the car was dented in the accident.* **2** REDUCE to reduce someone's confidence or positive feelings about something *The defeat did little to dent her enthusiasm.*

dental /ˈdentəl/ *adjective* ANATOMY, BIOLOGY relating to teeth ***dental treatment***

dental floss /ˈdentəlˌflɒs/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a thin thread which is used for cleaning between the teeth

dentine /ˈdentiːn/ *noun* [U] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a hard substance which forms the main part of a tooth and has enamel (= shiny white substance) covering it ➲See picture at **tooth**

dentist /ˈdentɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who examines and repairs teeth *I've got an appointment at the dentist's* (= where the dentist works) *tomorrow.* ●**dentistry** *noun* [U] the subject or job of examining and repairing teeth

dentition /denˈtɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY the number, type and arrangement of teeth in a person or animal

dentures /ˈdentʃəz/ *noun* [plural] HEALTH false teeth

denunciation /dɪˌnʌnsiˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] when you publicly criticize someone or something, or publicly accuse someone of something

O-key **deny** /dɪˈnaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT TRUE to say that something is not true, especially something

D

that you are accused of [+ **(that)**] *He never denied that he said those things.* [+ **doing sth**] *He denies murdering his father.* **2** NOT ALLOW to not allow someone to have or do something [**often passive**] *These children are being denied access to education.*

deodorant /diˈəʊdᵊrᵊnt/ *noun* [**C, U**] a substance that you put on your body to prevent or hide unpleasant smells

D

deoxygenate /diːˈɒksɪdʒəneɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY** to remove oxygen from a substance *deoxygenated blood* ●**deoxygenation** /diːˌɒksɪdʒəˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**] ➲See picture at **circulation**

depart /dɪˈpɑːt/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to leave a place, especially to start a journey to another place *The train to Lincoln will* ***depart from*** *platform 9.* ○ *He* ***departed for*** *Paris on Tuesday.*

department /dɪˈpɑːtmənt/ *noun* [**C**] a part of an organization such as a school, business, or government which deals with a particular area of work *the sales department* ○ *head of the English department* ➲See also: **police department**

departmental /ˌdiːpɑːtˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* relating to a department *the departmental budget*

deˈpartment ˌstore *noun* [**C**] a large shop divided into several different parts which sell different types of things

departure /dɪˈpɑːtʃᵊr/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** LEAVING when someone or something leaves a place, especially to start a journey to another place *the departure of flight BA117* ○ *This fare is valid for weekday* ***departures from*** *Manchester.* **2** CHANGE a change from what is expected, or from what has happened before *This film is a major* ***departure from*** *his previous work.*

depend /dɪˈpend/ *verb* **it/that depends** used to say that you are not certain about something because other things affect your answer [+ **question word**] *"Are you coming out tonight?" "It depends where you're going."*
depend on/upon sb/sth *phrasal verb* **1** NEED to need the help of someone or something in order to exist or continue as before *She depends on her son for everything.* ○ *The city's economy depends largely on the car industry.* **2** BE INFLUENCED BY If something depends on someone or something, it is influenced by them, or changes because of them. [+ **question word**] *The choice depends on what you're willing to spend.* **3** TRUST to be able to trust someone or something to help, or to do what you expect [+ **to do sth**] *You can always depend on Andy to keep his promises.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

depend on something

Be careful to choose the correct preposition after **depend**.

I might go on Friday, it depends on the weather.

~~*I might go on Friday, it depends of the weather.*~~

~~*I might go on Friday, it depends from the weather.*~~

dependable /dɪˈpendəbl/ *adjective* able to be trusted and very likely to do what you expect *the team's most dependable player*

dependant *UK* (*US* **dependent**) /dɪˈpendənt/ *noun* [**C**] someone, usually a child, who depends on you for financial support

dependence /dɪˈpendəns/ (*also* **dependency** /dɪˈpendəntsi/) *noun* [**U**] when you need someone or something all the time in order to exist or continue as before *Our society needs to reduce its* ***dependence on*** *the car.*

dependent¹ /dɪˈpendənt/ *adjective* **1** needing the help of someone or something in order to exist or continue as before *She's completely* ***dependent on*** *her parents for money.* **2 dependent on/upon sth** influenced by or decided by something *The amount of tax you pay is dependent on how much you earn.*

dependent² /dɪˈpendənt/ *noun* [**C**] *US spelling of* dependant

deˌpendent ˈvariable *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a number or amount whose value depends on the value of another element in the same mathematical statement ➲Compare **independent variable**

depict /dɪˈpɪkt/ *verb* [**T**] to represent someone or something in a picture or story *The cartoon* ***depicts*** *the president* ***as*** *a vampire.* ●**depiction** /dɪˈpɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

deplete /dɪˈpliːt/ *verb* [**T**] to reduce the amount of something, especially a natural supply *Alcohol depletes the body of B vitamins.* ●**depletion** /dɪˈpliːʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

deplorable /dɪˈplɔːrəbl/ *adjective* very bad or morally wrong

deplore /dɪˈplɔːʳ/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to feel or express strong disapproval of something *We deeply deplore the loss of life.*

deploy /dɪˈplɔɪ/ *verb* [**T**] to move soldiers or equipment to a place where they can be used when they are needed ●**deployment** *noun* [**U**] *the deployment of nuclear weapons*

deport /dɪˈpɔːt/ *verb* [**T**] to force a foreign person to leave a country *Thousands of illegal immigrants are* ***deported from*** *the US every year.* ●**deportation** /ˌdiːpɔːˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] *He now faces deportation back to his native country.*

depose /dɪˈpəʊz/ *verb* [**T**] **POLITICS** to remove a ruler or leader from their position of power ●**deposed** *adjective the deposed president*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***deposit***

pay/put down a deposit ● a deposit **of** [£500/$300, etc] ● a deposit **on** sth

deposit¹ /dɪˈpɒzɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a payment that you make immediately when you decide to buy something, as proof that you will really buy it *They've* ***put down*** *a* ***deposit on*** *a house.* **2 FINANCE** an amount of money that you pay into a bank *to* ***make*** *a* ***deposit*** **3 GEOLOGY** a layer of a substance that has developed from a natural or chemical process *deposits of iron ore* **4 FINANCE** an amount of money that you pay when you rent something, and that is given back to you when you return it without any damage

deposit² /dɪˈpɒzɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** PUT DOWN to put something down somewhere *He deposited his books on the table.* **2 FINANCE** to put money into a bank or valuable things into a safe place *She*

deposited $150,000 in a Swiss bank account. **3** SUBSTANCE to leave something lying on a surface, as a result of a natural or chemical process

de|posit ac|count *noun* [C] *UK* **FINANCE** a bank account that pays interest on the money you put into it and that you use for saving

deposition /ˌdepəˈzɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U, C] **GEOLOGY** when a layer of a substance such as soil or rock is formed, or the substance that forms the layer

depot /ˈdepəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLES a place where trains, trucks, or buses are kept **2** GOODS a building where supplies of goods are stored **3** STATION *US* a small bus or train station

depraved /dɪˈpreɪvd/ *adjective* morally bad ●**depravity** /dɪˈpræv̬ti/ *noun* [U]

depreciate /dɪˈpriːʃieɪt/ *verb* [I] **FINANCE** to lose value over a period of time *New computers depreciate in value very quickly.* ●**depreciation** /dɪˌpriːʃiˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

depress /dɪˈpres/ *verb* [T] **1** to make someone feel very unhappy, especially about the future *This place really depresses me.* **2** **FINANCE** to reduce the value or level of something, especially in business *Competition between stores has depressed prices.*

depressed /dɪˈprest/ *adjective* **1** very unhappy, often for a long time *She has been feeling very depressed since her marriage broke up.* **2** **ECONOMICS** A depressed country, area, or economy does not have enough jobs or business activity. *an economically depressed area*

depressing /dɪˈpresɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel unhappy and without any hope for the future *The news is very depressing.*

depression /dɪˈpreʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **HEALTH** when you feel very unhappy, or a mental illness that makes you feel very unhappy *Nearly three million people **suffer from depression** every year.* **2** **ECONOMICS** a time when there is not much business activity *The stock market crash marked the start of a severe depression.* **3** WEATHER an area where the air pressure is low

deprive /dɪˈpraɪv/ *verb*
deprive sb/sth of sth *phrasal verb* to take something important or necessary away from someone or something *They were deprived of food for long periods.* ●**deprivation** /ˌdeprɪˈveɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] ***sleep deprivation***

deprived /dɪˈpraɪvd/ *adjective* not having enough food, money, and the things that you need to have a normal life *children from **deprived backgrounds***

dept *written abbreviation for* department (= a part of an organization or government)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***depth***

a depth **of** [6 metres/8 inches, etc] ● [5cm/7 inches, etc] **in** depth ● **at/to** a depth of [5 metres/6 inches, etc]

depth /depθ/ *noun* **1** **MEASURES** [C, U] the distance from the top of something to the bottom *The lake reaches a maximum **depth of** 292 metres.* ○ *Dig a hole 10 cm **in depth**.* **2** **MEASURES** [C, U] the distance from the front to the back of something **3** [U] how much someone knows or feels about something *She was amazed at the depth of his knowledge.* **4 in depth** giving all the details *With access to the Internet, students can do their homework in greater depth.* **5 be out of your depth** to not have the knowledge, experience or skills to deal with a particular subject or situation

depths /depθs/ *noun* [plural] **1** FAR BELOW a position far below the surface or far into something ***the depths of** the forest* **2** WORST PART the worst period of something *the **depths of despair***

deputy /ˈdepjəti/ *noun* [C] someone who has the second most important job in an organization *the deputy Prime Minister*

derail /dɪˈreɪl/ *verb* **1** TRAIN [I, T] If a train derails, or is derailed, it comes off the railway tracks. **2** PREVENT [T] If you derail plans, you prevent them from happening. ●**derailment** *noun* [C, U]

deranged /dɪˈreɪndʒd/ *adjective* behaving in a way that is not normal, especially when suffering from a mental illness

derby /ˈdɑːbi/ US /ˈdɜːrbi/ *noun* [C] **1** **SPORT** *mainly UK* a type of sports competition *a fishing/motorcycle derby* **2** **Derby** **SPORT** a type of horse race **3** *US* (*UK* **bowler hat**) a round, hard, black hat worn by men, especially in the past

deregulate /ˌdiːˈregjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] to remove national or local government controls from a business *The government plans to deregulate the banking industry.* ●**deregulation** /ˌdiːregjəˈleɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

derelict /ˈderəlɪkt/ *adjective* A derelict building or piece of land is not used any more and is in a bad condition. *a **derelict house***

deride /dɪˈraɪd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to talk about someone or something as if they are ridiculous and do not deserve any respect *Her novel, once derided by critics, is now a classic.*

derision /dɪˈrɪʒˈn/ *noun* [U] when you talk about someone or something as if they are ridiculous and do not deserve respect *The novel was **greeted with derision**.*

derisive /dɪˈraɪsɪv/ *adjective* showing derision towards someone or something

derisory /dɪˈraɪsˈri/ *adjective* **1** SMALL so small that it seems ridiculous *a **derisory sum** of money* **2** CRUEL cruel and making someone feel stupid *derisory remarks*

derivation /ˌderɪˈveɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] **LANGUAGE** the origin of something, such as a word, from which another form has developed, or the new form itself

derivative /dɪˈrɪvə̬tɪv/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a form of something, such as a word, that has developed from another form

derive /dɪˈraɪv/ *verb*
derive (sth) from sth *phrasal verb* **1** to come from or be developed from something *The name derives from Latin.* **2 derive comfort/pleasure, etc from sth** to get a positive feeling or advantage from someone or something *I derive great pleasure from gardening.*

dermatitis /ˌdɜːmə'taɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a condition which makes your skin red and painful

dermis /'dɜːmɪs/ *noun* [U] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the thick layer of skin underneath the epidermis (thin outer layer)

derogatory /dɪ'rɒgətᵊri/ *adjective* showing strong disapproval and not showing any respect for someone *derogatory comments/remarks*

D

descale /ˌdiː'skeɪl/ *verb* [T] to remove scale (= hard white substance) from something, for example a water pipe ●**descaler** /ˌdiː'skeɪlᵊ/ a substance used for descaling things

descend /dɪ'send/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to move or go down *We descended four flights of stairs.* **be descended from sb/sth** *phrasal verb* to be related to a person or creature that lived a long time ago

descendant /dɪ'sendənt/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** someone who is related to someone who lived a long time ago *She is a **descendant of** Queen Victoria.*

descent /dɪ'sent/ *noun* [C, U] **1** a movement down *The plane **began** its **descent** into Heathrow.* **2 SOCIETY of Irish/French, etc descent** being related to people who lived in the past in Ireland/France, etc

describe /dɪ'skraɪb/ *verb* [T] to say what someone or something is like *Neighbours **described** her **as** a shy, quiet girl.* [+ **question word**] *I tried to describe what I had seen.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***description***

give a description ● an **accurate/detailed/short** description ● a description **of** sth/sb

description /dɪ'skrɪpʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that tells you what someone or something is like *I **gave** the police a **description of** the stolen jewellery.* **2 of any/every/some description** of any/every/some type *They sell plants of every description.*

descriptive /dɪ'skrɪptɪv/ *adjective* describing something, especially in a detailed, interesting way

desert¹ /'dezət/ *noun* [C, U] **GEOGRAPHY** a large, hot, dry area of land with very few plants *the Sahara Desert*

desert² /dɪ'zɜːt/ *verb* **1** PERSON [T] to leave someone and never come back *He deserted his family.* **2** PLACE [T] to leave a place, so that it is empty *People are deserting the countryside to work in towns.* **3** ARMY [I, T] to leave the army without permission ●**desertion** /dɪ'zɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

deserted /dɪ'zɜːtɪd/ *adjective* If a place is deserted, it has no people in it. *a deserted street*

deserter /dɪ'zɜːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who leaves the army without permission

desertification /dɪˌzɜːtɪfɪ'keɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** the process of land that could once grow food becoming so dry that it turns into a desert

ˌdesert 'island *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a tropical island where no one lives, far from any other places

deserve /dɪ'zɜːv/ *verb* [T] If you deserve something good or bad, it should happen to you because of the way you have behaved. *The school deserves praise for the way it has raised standards.* [+ **to do sth**] *He deserves to be locked up for life.* ●**deservedly** *adverb*

deserving /dɪ'zɜːvɪŋ/ *adjective* If something or someone is deserving, people should help or support them. *The children's charity is a **deserving cause**.*

design¹ /dɪ'zaɪn/ *noun* **DT 1** [U] the way in which something is planned and made *There was a fault in the design of the aircraft.* **2** [C] a drawing which shows how an object, machine, or building will be made *Engineers are working on the new designs.* **3** [C] a pattern or decoration **4** [U] the process of making drawings to show how something will be made *a course in art and design* ➲See also: **interior design**

design² /dɪ'zaɪn/ *verb* [T] **DT 1** to draw or plan something before making it *She designs furniture.* **2 be designed to do sth** to have been planned or done for a particular purpose *The new law is designed to protect children.*

designate /'dezɪgneɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to choose someone or something for a particular purpose or duty *The area has been **designated as** a nature reserve.* ●**designation** /ˌdezɪg'neɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

designer¹ /dɪ'zaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who draws and plans how something will be made *a **fashion designer***

designer² /dɪ'zaɪnəʳ/ *adjective* **designer jeans/sunglasses, etc** clothes or objects made by a fashionable designer

deˌsigner 'baby *noun* [C] a baby with some characteristics chosen by its parents and doctors using gene therapy (= the science of changing genes in order to stop or prevent a disease)

desirable /dɪ'zaɪərəbl/ *adjective* If something is desirable, it is very good or attractive and most people would want it. *A good education is highly desirable.* ➲Opposite **undesirable**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***desire***

express/have a desire to do sth ● a **burning/strong** desire ● a desire **for** sth

desire¹ /dɪ'zaɪəʳ/ *noun* **1** WISH [C, U] a strong feeling that you want something [+ **to do sth**] *I have no desire to have children.* ○ *There is a strong **desire for** peace among the people.* **2** SEX [U] when you are sexually attracted to someone

desire² /dɪ'zaɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to want something *You can have whatever you desire.*

desired /dɪ'zaɪəd/ *adjective* **the desired effect/result/shape, etc** the effect/result/shape, etc that is wanted *Her medicine seems to have had the desired effect.*

desk /desk/ *noun* [C] a table that you sit at to write or work, often with drawers ➲See also: **cash desk** ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

ˈdesk reˌsearch *noun* [U] market research (= finding out what customers want) that can be done from a desk, for example reading

reports or looking for information on the Internet

desktop /ˈdeskˌtɒp/ *noun* [C] **1** COMPUTING a computer screen that contains icons (= symbols that represent programs, information or equipment) and which is usually used as a place to start and finish computer work **2** COMPUTING (*also* **desktop computer**) a computer that is small enough to fit on a desk **3** the top of a desk

desktop publishing *noun* [U] COMPUTING producing finished designs for pages of books or documents using a small computer and printer (= machine for printing)

desolate /ˈdesᵊlət/ *adjective* **1** PLACE A desolate place is empty and makes you feel sad. *a desolate landscape* **2** PERSON lonely and unhappy *She felt desolate when he left.* ●**desolation** /ˌdesᵊlˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***despair***

abject/complete/utter despair ● **in** despair

despair¹ /dɪˈspeəʳ/ *noun* [U] a feeling of having no hope *She shook her head* ***in despair***.

despair² /dɪˈspeəʳ/ *verb* [I] to feel that you have no hope *Don't despair - things will improve.* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *He had begun to despair of ever finding a job.* ●**despairing** *adjective*

despatch¹ *UK* (*UK/US* **dispatch**) /dɪˈspætʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to send someone or something somewhere *They despatched a police car to arrest him.*

despatch² *UK* (*UK/US* **dispatch**) /dɪˈspætʃ/ *noun* **1** SENDING [U] when someone or something is sent somewhere *the despatch of troops* **2** REPORT [C] an official report that someone in a foreign country sends to their organization

desperate /ˈdespᵊrət/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT HOPE feeling that you have no hope and are ready to do anything to change the situation you are in *He was absolutely desperate and would have tried anything to get her back.* **2** NEEDING SOMETHING needing or wanting something very much *By two o'clock I was* ***desperate for*** *something to eat.* **3** BAD A desperate situation is very bad or serious. *The economy is in a really* ***desperate situation***. ●**desperately** *adverb* ●**desperation** /ˌdespᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

despicable /dɪˈspɪkəbl/ *adjective* very unpleasant or cruel *a despicable act/crime*

despise /dɪˈspaɪz/ *verb* [T] to hate someone or something and have no respect for them *The two groups despise each other.*

despite /dɪˈspaɪt/ *preposition* **1** used to say that something happened or is true, although something else makes this seem not probable *I'm still pleased with the house despite all the problems we've had.* [+ **doing sth**] *He managed to eat lunch despite having had an enormous breakfast.* **2 despite yourself** If you do something despite yourself, you do it although you did not intend to.

despondent /dɪˈspɒndənt/ *adjective* unhappy and having no enthusiasm ●**despondency** *noun* [U]

despot /ˈdespɒt/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a very powerful person, especially someone who treats people cruelly

dessert /dɪˈzɜːt/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD sweet food that is eaten after the main part of a meal *We had ice cream for dessert.*

dessertspoon /dɪˈzɜːtspuːn/ *noun* [C] *UK* a medium-sized spoon used for eating or measuring food, or the amount this spoon can hold

destabilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˌdiːˈsteɪbᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] POLITICS to cause change in a country or government so that it loses its power or control *a plot to destabilize the government*

destination /ˌdestɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] the place where someone or something is going *Spain is a very popular* ***holiday destination***.

destined /ˈdestɪnd/ *adjective* **be destined for sth; be destined to do sth** to be certain to be something or do something in the future *She was destined for a brilliant future.*

destiny /ˈdestɪni/ *noun* **1** EVENTS [C] the things that will happen to someone in the future *At last she feels in control of her own destiny.* **2** POWER [U] a power that some people believe controls what will happen in the future *Nick said it was destiny that we met.*

destitute /ˈdestɪtjuːt/ *adjective* so poor that you do not have the basic things you need to live, such as food, clothes, or money ●**destitution** /ˌdestɪˈtjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

destroy /dɪˈstrɔɪ/ *verb* [T] to damage something so badly that it does not exist or cannot be used *Many works of art were destroyed in the fire.*

destroyer /dɪˈstrɔɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small, fast ship that is used in a war

destruction /dɪˈstrʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when something is destroyed *We are all responsible for the* ***destruction of*** *the forest.* ●**destructive** /dɪˈstrʌktɪv/ *adjective* causing a lot of damage *the destructive power of nuclear weapons* ➲See also: **self-destructive**

detach /dɪˈtætʃ/ *verb* [T] to take a part of something off so that it is separate *Please complete and detach the form below and return it to the school.* ●**detachable** *adjective*

detached /dɪˈtætʃt/ *adjective* **1** BUILDING *UK* A detached building is not joined to another building. **2** FEELINGS If someone is detached, they do not feel involved with someone or emotional about something. ➲See also: **semi-detached**

detachment /dɪˈtætʃmənt/ *noun* **1** FEELINGS [U] when someone does not feel involved in a situation *He spoke with cool detachment.* **2** SOLDIERS [C] a small group of soldiers with a particular job to do

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***detail***

disclose/discuss/divulge/reveal details ● **exact/full/precise/relevant** details ● details **about/of/on** sth

detail¹ /ˈdiːteɪl/ (US) /dɪˈteɪl/ *noun* [C, U] **1** a fact or piece of information about something *Please send me* ***details of*** *your training courses.* ○ *She didn't know very much detail in her report.* **2 in detail** including every part

of something *He explained it all in great detail.* **3 go into detail** to include all the facts about something

detail² /ˈdiːteɪl/ (US) /dɪˈteɪl/ *verb* [T] to describe something completely, giving all the facts

detailed /ˈdiːteɪld/ *adjective* giving a lot of information ***a detailed account/description***

D

detain /dɪˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] to keep someone somewhere and not allow them to leave, especially in order to ask them about a crime *Three men were detained by police for questioning.*

detect /dɪˈtekt/ *verb* [T] to discover or notice something, especially something that is difficult to see, hear, smell, etc *This special camera can detect bodies by their heat.*

detection /dɪˈtekʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **1** NOTICING when someone notices or discovers something *the early detection of cancer* **2** LAW when the police discover information about a crime

detective /dɪˈtektɪv/ *noun* [C] LAW someone, especially a police officer, whose job is to discover information about a crime

detector /dɪˈtektəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to discover something, especially something that is difficult to see, hear, smell, etc ***a smoke detector***

detente /ˌdeɪˈtɒnt/ *noun* [U] *formal* POLITICS when countries become friendly with each other after a period of not being friendly

detention /dɪˈtenʃˈn/ *noun* **1** [U] LAW when someone is officially kept somewhere and not allowed to leave **2** EDUCATION [C, U] when a student is kept in school after the other students leave, as a punishment

deter /dɪˈtɜːʳ/ *verb* [T] **deterring,** *past* **deterred** to make someone less likely to do something, or to make something less likely to happen *We have introduced new security measures to deter shoplifters.* [+ **from + doing sth**] *Higher fuel costs could deter people from driving their cars.*

detergent /dɪˈtɜːdʒˈnt/ *noun* [C, U] a liquid or powder that is used to clean things

deteriorate /dɪˈtɪəriˈreɪt/ *verb* [I] to become worse *Her condition deteriorated rapidly.* ●**deterioration** /dɪˌtɪəriəˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***determination***

demonstrate/show determination ● **dogged/fierce/grim/steely** determination ● **courage/grit/guts** and determination

determination /dɪˌtɜːmɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] when someone continues trying to do something, although it is very difficult *Andy Murray will need great determination and skill to win this match.*

determine /dɪˈtɜːmɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** FIND to discover the facts or truth about something [+ **question word**] *The doctors are still unable to determine what is wrong.* **2** DECIDE to decide what will happen [+ **question word**] *Her exam results will determine which university she goes to.*

determined /dɪˈtɜːmɪnd/ *adjective* wanting to do something very much, and not letting anyone stop you [+ **to do sth**] *He's determined to win this match.*

determiner /dɪˈtɜːmɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word that is used before a noun or adjective to show which person or thing you are referring to. For example 'my' in 'my old car' and 'that' in 'that man' are determiners.

deterrent /dɪˈterˈnt/ *noun* [C] something that stops people doing something because they are afraid of what will happen if they do *They've installed a security camera as a* ***deterrent to*** *thieves.* ●**deterrent** *adjective a deterrent effect*

detest /dɪˈtest/ *verb* [T] to hate someone or something very much

detonate /ˈdetˈneɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to explode or make something explode *The* ***bomb*** *was* ***detonated*** *safely by army officers and no one was hurt.* ●**detonation** /ˌdetˈnˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

detonator /ˈdetˈneɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that makes a bomb explode

detour /ˈdiːtʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] a different, longer route to a place that is used to avoid something or to visit something *Several roads were closed, so we had to* ***take a detour****.*

detox /ˈdiːtɒks/ *noun* [U] HEALTH *informal* treatment to clean out your blood, stomach, etc and get rid of bad substances such as drugs

detract /dɪˈtrækt/ *verb*
detract from sth *phrasal verb* to make something seem less good than it really is, or than it was thought to be

detriment /ˈdetrɪmənt/ *noun* **to the detriment of sth** causing damage to something *He was working very long hours, to the detriment of his health.* ●**detrimental** /ˌdetrɪˈmentˈl/ *adjective a* ***detrimental effect***

deuterium /djuːˈtɪərɪəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a type of hydrogen that is twice as heavy as normal hydrogen (symbol **D**)

devaluation /ˌdiːvæljuˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] ECONOMICS when the value of something is reduced *the devaluation of the dollar*

devalue /ˌdiːˈvæljuː/ *verb* [T] **devaluing,** *past* **devalued** **1** ECONOMICS to make something less valuable, especially a country's money *to devalue the pound* **2** to make someone or something seem less important than they really are

devastate /ˈdevəsteɪt/ *verb* [T] to destroy or damage something very badly *A recent hurricane devastated the city.* ●**devastation** /ˌdevəˈsteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

devastated /ˈdevəsteɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** SHOCKED very shocked and upset *She was devastated when her husband died.* **2** DESTROYED completely destroyed

devastating /ˈdevəsteɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SHOCKING making someone very shocked and upset *Despite the devastating news, no one is giving up hope.* **2** DESTROYING causing a lot of damage or destruction *The fire has had a devastating effect on the local wildlife.*

devastatingly /ˈdevəsteɪtɪŋli/ *adverb* extremely *devastatingly funny/handsome*

develop /dɪˈveləp/ *verb* **1** CHANGE [I, T] to grow or change and become more advanced, or to make someone or something do this *The baby develops inside the mother for nine months.* ○ *He's* ***developing into*** *a very good tennis*

player. **2** MAKE [T] to make something new such as a product *Scientists are developing new drugs all the time.* **3** ILLNESS [T] to start to have something, such as an illness, problem, or feeling *Shortly after take-off the plane developed engine trouble.* **4** HAPPEN [I] to start to happen or exist *Further problems may develop if you do not deal with this now.* **5** FILM [T] to use special chemicals on a piece of film to make photographs appear *I need to get my holiday photos developed.* **6** BUILD [T] to build houses, factories, shops, etc on a piece of land

developed /dɪˈveləpt/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS a developed country/nation, etc** a country with an advanced level of technology, industry, etc ➲Opposite **undeveloped**

developer /dɪˈveləpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person or company that buys land and builds houses, factories, shops, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***development***

encourage/monitor/restrict development ● **dramatic/major/rapid** development ● **in/under** development

O-key **development** /dɪˈveləpmənt/ *noun* **1** CHANGE [C, U] when someone or something grows or changes and becomes more advanced *The nurse will do some tests to check on your child's development.* ○ *There have been some **major developments** in technology recently.* **2** MAKE [C, U] when something new is made *the development of new drugs* **3** START [U] when something starts to happen or exist *Smoking encourages the development of cancer.* **4** BUILD [U] when new houses, factories, shops, etc, are built on an area of land *land suitable for development* **5** BUILDINGS [C] an area of land with new houses, factories, shops, etc on it *a new housing development* **6** EVENT [C] something new that happens and changes a situation *Have there been any more developments since I left?* **7** PHOTOGRAPH [U] when someone makes photographs from a film

developmental /dɪˌveləpˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* connected with the development of someone or something *developmental problems*

deviant /ˈdiːviənt/ *adjective* different to what most people think is normal or acceptable, usually relating to sexual behaviour ●**deviant** *noun* [C]

deviate /ˈdiːvieɪt/ *verb* [I] to do something in a different way from what is usual or expected *The aircraft **deviated from** its original flight plan.*

deviation /ˌdiːviˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when something is different to what is usual, expected, or accepted by most people ***sexual deviation***

device /dɪˈvaɪs/ *noun* **1** [C] a piece of equipment that is used for a particular purpose *A pager is a small, electronic device for sending messages.* **2 leave someone to their own devices** to leave someone to do what they want to do *With both parents out at work, the kids were often left to their own devices.*

devil /ˈdevᵊl/ *noun* **1 the Devil** RELIGION the most powerful evil spirit, according to the Christian and Jewish religions **2** RELIGION [C] an evil spirit **3** PERSON [C] *informal* someone who behaves badly **4 lucky/poor, etc devil** *informal* used to describe a person **5 speak/talk of the devil** *informal* something that you say when someone you have been talking about suddenly appears

devilish /ˈdevᵊlɪʃ/ *adjective* evil or bad *a devilish smile* ●**devilishly** *adverb* very ***devilishly difficult***

devious /ˈdiːviəs/ *adjective* clever in a way that is bad and not honest *a devious mind*

devise /dɪˈvaɪz/ *verb* [T] to design or invent something such as a system, plan, or piece of equipment

devoid /dɪˈvɔɪd/ *adjective* **devoid of sth** *formal* completely without a quality *His voice was devoid of emotion.*

devolution /ˌdiːvəˈluːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] POLITICS when power moves from a central government to local governments

devolve /dɪˈvɒlv/ *verb*
devolve sth to sb/sth *phrasal verb formal* to give power or responsibility to a person or organization at a lower or more local level

devote /dɪˈvəʊt/ *verb*
devote sth to sb/sth *phrasal verb* **1** TIME to use time, energy, etc for a particular purpose *She devotes most of her free time to charity work.* **2** AREA to use a space or area for a particular purpose [**often passive**] *Most of the magazine was devoted to coverage of the royal wedding.*

devoted /dɪˈvəʊtɪd/ *adjective* loving or caring very much about someone or something *She's absolutely **devoted to** her grandchildren.* ●**devotedly** *adverb*

devotee /ˌdevəʊˈtiː/ *noun* [C] someone who likes something or someone very much *a **devotee of** classical music*

devotion /dɪˈvəʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** great love or loyalty for someone or something *She will always be remembered for her **devotion to** her family.* **2** RELIGION strong religious belief or behaviour

devour /dɪˈvaʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** FOOD to eat something quickly because you are very hungry **2** BOOK to read something quickly and enthusiastically

devout /dɪˈvaʊt/ *adjective* RELIGION extremely religious *a devout Catholic/Muslim* ●**devoutly** *adverb*

dew /djuː/ *noun* [U] drops of water that form on surfaces outside during the night

ˈdew ˌpoint *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY the point at which the air cannot hold any more water and dew (= drops of water) begins to form

dexterity /dekˈsterəti/ *noun* [U] skill at doing something, especially using your hands ***manual dexterity***

diabetes /ˌdaɪəˈbiːtiːz/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a serious medical condition in which your body cannot control the level of sugar in your blood ●**diabetic** /ˌdaɪəˈbetɪk/ *adjective* ●**diabetic** /ˌdaɪəˈbetɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who has diabetes

diabolical /ˌdaɪəˈbɒlɪkᵊl/ *adjective* extremely bad

diagnose /ˈdaɪəgnəʊz/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to say what is wrong with someone who is ill [**often passive**] *She was **diagnosed with/as having** cancer last year.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***diagnosis***

make a diagnosis • a diagnosis **of** [cancer, heart disease, etc]

D

diagnosis /ˌdaɪəgˈnəʊsɪs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **diagnoses** **HEALTH** when a doctor says what is wrong with someone who is ill

diagnostic /ˌdaɪəgˈnɒstɪk/ *adjective* **diagnostic methods/tests, etc** methods/tests, etc that help you discover what is wrong with someone or something

diagonal /daɪˈægᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SLOPING A diagonal line is straight and sloping and not horizontal or vertical. *a tie with diagonal stripes* **2** SQUARE going from the top corner of a square to the bottom corner on the other side •**diagonally** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***diagram***

draw a diagram • a diagram **of** sth • **in/on** a diagram

diagram /ˈdaɪəgræm/ *noun* [C] **ART, DT** a simple picture showing what something looks like or explaining how something works

dial¹ /daɪəl/ *noun* [C] **1** TIME/MEASUREMENT the round part of a clock, watch, or machine that shows you the time or other measurement **2** BUTTON a round part on a piece of equipment such as a television or radio that you turn to operate it, make it louder, etc **3** TELEPHONE the ring of holes with numbers that you turn on the front of an old telephone

dial² /daɪəl/ *verb* [I, T] *UK* **dialling,** *past* **dialled,** *US* **dialing,** *past* **dialed** to make a telephone call to a particular number *Dial 0 for the operator.*

dialect /ˈdaɪəlekt/ *noun* [C, U] **LANGUAGE** a form of a language that people speak in a particular part of a country

ˈdialog ˌbox *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a window (= a separate area on a computer screen) that appears and asks the person using the computer for information

dialogue (*also US* **dialog**) /ˈdaɪəlɒg/ *noun* [C, U] **1** TALKING the talking in a book, play, or film **2** **POLITICS** a formal discussion between countries or groups of people

dial-up /ˈdaɪəlʌp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **COMPUTING** Dial-up computer systems and equipment and Internet services use a telephone connection to reach them. ➲Compare **broadband**

dialysis /daɪˈæləsɪs/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a process for removing substances from liquid, especially for cleaning the blood of people whose kidneys do not work well

diameter /daɪˈæmɪtᵊ/ *noun* [C, U] **MATHEMATICS** a straight line that goes from one side of a circle to the other side and through the centre, or the length of this line *The cake was about 30 centimetres **in diameter**.* ➲See picture at **circle**

diamond /ˈdaɪəmənd/ *noun* **1** **GEOLOGY** [C, U] a very hard, transparent stone that is extremely valuable and is often used in jewellery *a diamond ring* **2** [C] a shape with four straight sides of equal length that join to form two large angles and two small angles **3** **SPORT** [C] the field where baseball is played **4** **diamonds** playing cards with red, diamond shapes on them *the queen of diamonds*

diaper /ˈdaɪəpᵊ/ *US* (*UK* **nappy**) *noun* [C] a thick piece of paper or cloth worn by a baby on its bottom

diaphragm /ˈdaɪəfræm/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the large muscle between your lungs and your stomach that moves up and down to move air in and out of the lungs ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

diarrhoea *UK* (*US* **diarrhea**) /ˌdaɪəˈrɪə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness in which your solid waste is more liquid than usual, and comes out of your body more often

diary /ˈdaɪəri/ *noun* [C] **1** a book containing spaces for all the days and months of the year, in which you write meetings and other things that you must remember **2** **LITERATURE** a book in which you write each day about your personal thoughts and experiences *She **kept a diary** of her trip to Egypt.*

diastole /daɪˈæstᵊli/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a heart's action where it fills with blood ➲Compare **systole** •**diastolic** /ˌdaɪəˈstɒlɪk/ *adjective*

diatomic /ˌdaɪəˈtɒmɪk/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** A diatomic molecule has two atoms of the same kind.

dice¹ /daɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **dice** a small object with six equal square sides, each with between one and six spots on it, used in games ***Roll the dice** to see who starts the game.*

dice² /daɪs/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to cut food into small, square pieces *diced onions*

dicey /ˈdaɪsi/ *adjective informal* possibly dangerous or involving a risk

dichotomy /daɪˈkɒtəmi/ *noun* [C] *formal* the difference between two completely opposite ideas or things *the **dichotomy between** good and evil*

dicotyledon /ˌdaɪkɒtɪˈliːdᵊn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a plant that produces flowers and has two cotyledons (= leaf parts inside the seed) •**dicotyledonous** /ˌdaɪkɒtɪˈliːdᵊnəs/ *adjective*

dictate /dɪkˈteɪt/ *verb* **1** SAY [I, T] to say or read something for someone to write down *Tony was busy **dictating** letters **to** his secretary.* **2** DECIDE [T] to decide or control what happens [+ **question word**] *The weather will dictate where we hold the party.*
dictate to sb *phrasal verb* to tell someone what to do, often in a way that annoys them *I'm 15 years old - you can't dictate to me any more.*

dictation /dɪkˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [U] when someone speaks or reads something for someone else to write down **2** **EDUCATION** [C, U] when a teacher says or reads something for students to write down as a test

dictator /dɪkˈteɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a leader who has complete power in a country and has not been elected by the people ●**dictatorial** /ˌdɪktəˈtɔːriəl/ *adjective*

dictatorship /dɪkˈteɪtəʃɪp/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** a country or system of government with a dictator as leader

dictionary /ˈdɪkʃᵊnᵊri/ *noun* [C] a book that contains a list of words in alphabetical order with their meanings explained or written in another language

did /dɪd/ *past tense of* do

didgeridoo /ˌdɪdʒəriˈduː/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a long wooden wind instrument played by Australian Aborigines to produce a deep sound

didn't /ˈdɪdᵊnt/ *short for* did not

die /daɪ/ *verb* **dying,** *past* **died 1** [I] to stop living *Many of the refugees **died of** hunger.* ○ *She **died from** brain injuries after a road accident.* **2 be dying for sth; be dying to do sth** *informal* to very much want to have, eat, drink, or do something *I'm dying for a drink.* **3 to die for** *informal* If something is to die for, it is extremely good. ➲See also: die **hard**²
die away *phrasal verb* If something, especially a sound, dies away, it gradually becomes less strong and then stops.
die down *phrasal verb* If something, especially noise or excitement, dies down, it gradually becomes less loud or strong until it stops.
die off *phrasal verb* If a group of plants, animals, or people dies off, all of that group dies over a period of time.
die out *phrasal verb* to become more and more rare and then disappear completely *Dinosaurs died out about 65 million years ago.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

died or **dead?**

Be careful not to confuse the verb and adjective forms of these words. **Died** is the past of the verb 'to die', which means 'to stop living'.

My cat died last week.

Dead is an adjective and is used to talk about people or things which are not alive.

My cat is dead.

die-cast /ˈdaɪkɑːst/ *verb* [T] **DT** to make something by pouring liquid metal, plastic, etc.into a mould (= hollow container) ●**die-cast** *adjective die-cast toys*

ˈdie ˌcutting *noun* [U] **DT** the process of cutting shapes from plastic by pressing with a sharp knife on one or more layers of plastic

diehard /ˈdaɪhɑːd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] supporting something in a very determined way and refusing to change *a **diehard fan***

diesel /ˈdiːzᵊl/ *noun* **1** FUEL [U] fuel used in the engines of some vehicles, especially buses and trucks **2** VEHICLE [C] a vehicle that uses diesel in its engine

WORD PARTNERS FOR *diet*

be on/go on a diet ● **follow/stick to** a diet ● a **special /strict** diet

diet¹ /daɪət/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C, U] the type of food that someone usually eats **2** [C] when someone eats less food, or only particular types of food, because they want to become thinner, or because they are ill *No cake for me, thanks - I'm **on a diet**.*

diet² /daɪət/ *verb* [I] to eat less food so that you become thinner

differ /ˈdɪfəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** DIFFERENT to be different *How does the book **differ from** the film?* ○ *These computers **differ** quite a lot **in** price.* **2** OPINION to have a different opinion *Economists **differ on** the cause of inflation.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *difference*

know/tell the difference ● a **big/fundamental/important/obvious** difference ● a difference **between** [sth and sth]

difference /ˈdɪfᵊrᵊns/ *noun* **1** WAY [C, U] the way in which two people or things are not the same *What's the **difference between** an ape and a monkey?* **2** QUALITY [U] when two people or things are not the same **3** AMOUNT [C, U] the amount by which one thing or person is different from another *There's a big **difference in** age between them.* **4** DISAGREEMENT [C] a disagreement or different opinion *They must try to resolve their differences peacefully.* **5 make a/any difference** to have an effect on a situation *Painting the walls white has made a big difference to this room.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

difference

When you want to talk about how something or someone has changed, use the preposition **in**.

The graph shows the difference in sales this year.

~~*The graph shows the difference of sales this year.*~~

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING *different*

If something is different from what people normally expect, you can say that it is **unusual**: *Carina - that's quite an **unusual** name.*

The adjective **alternative** is often used to describe something which is different to something else but can be used instead of it: *The hotel's being renovated, so we're looking for an **alternative** venue.*

If something is very different and separate from other things, you can describe it as **distinct** or **distinctive**: *She's got really **distinctive** handwriting.* ● *The word has three **distinct** meanings.*

The preposition **unlike** is often used to compare people or things that are very different from each other: *Dan's actually quite nice, **unlike** his father.* ● *The furniture was **unlike** anything she had ever seen.*

different /ˈdɪfᵊrᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT THE SAME not the same as someone or something else *Jo's very **different from** her sister, isn't she? UK* ○ *The house is **different to** how I expected it to be.* **2** SEPARATE [**always before noun**] used to talk

about separate things or people of the same type *I had to go to three different shops to find the book she wanted.* ●**differently** *adverb* ➲See also: a whole new **ball game**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

different

Different is usually followed by the preposition **from**. In British English people also use **to**.

Anne is very different to her younger sister.

In American English people also use **than**, but teachers prefer students to use **from**.

D

differential /ˌdɪfəˈrenʃəl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a difference between amounts of things ***differentials in*** *pay/wealth*

differential calculus *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** the branch of calculus in which rates of change and connected quantities are calculated

differentiate /ˌdɪfəˈrenʃieɪt/ *verb* **1** SEE DIFFERENCE [I, T] to understand or notice how two things or people are different from each other *He can't* ***differentiate between*** *blue and green.* **2** MAKE DIFFERENT [T] to make someone or something different *We need to* ***differentiate*** *ourselves* ***from*** *the competition.* ●**differentiation** /ˌdɪfəˈrenʃiˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING *difficult*

Hard is very often used instead of **difficult** and means exactly the same: *The exam was really* ***hard***. ● *It must be* ***hard*** *to study with all this noise.*

If something is difficult to understand or do because it has a lot of different parts or stages, you can say that it is **complicated**: *The instructions were so* ***complicated*** *I just couldn't follow them.*

Tricky describes something difficult that needs skill or needs you to be very careful: *It's quite* ***tricky*** *getting the bits to fit together.* ● *It's a* ***tricky*** *situation - I don't want to upset anyone.*

Fiddly (*UK*) describes something that you do with your hands which is difficult because the parts involved are so small: *Repairing a watch is very* ***fiddly***.

Awkward describes something or someone that is difficult to deal with and could cause problems: *Dealing with* ***awkward*** *customers is just part of the job.* ● *Luckily, she didn't ask any* ***awkward*** *questions.*

Demanding means 'needing a lot of your time, attention, or effort': *She has a very* ***demanding*** *job.* ● *Like most young children, he's very* ***demanding***.

A situation or piece of work that is **challenging** is difficult and needs all your skills and determination: *This has been a* ***challenging*** *time for us all.* ● *I found the course very* ***challenging***.

You say **easier said than done** about something that is impossible or very difficult to do: *I suppose I should stop smoking but it's* ***easier said than done***.

difficult /ˈdɪfɪkəlt/ *adjective* **1** NOT EASY not easy and needing skill or effort to do or understand *Japanese is a difficult language for Europeans to learn.* ○ *This game is too* ***difficult for*** *me.* [+ **to do sth**] *It's difficult to think with all that noise.* **2** PERSON not friendly or easy to deal with *a difficult teenager*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *difficulty*

create/experience/have difficulty ● **great/serious** difficulty ● **with/without** difficulty

difficulty /ˈdɪfɪkəlti/ *noun* **1** NOT EASY [U] when something is not easy to do or understand [+ **in + doing sth**] *He was* ***having difficulty*** *in breathing because of the smoke.* [+ **doing sth**] *I* ***had difficulty*** *finding somewhere to park.* ○ *She had twisted her ankle and was walking* ***with difficulty***. **2** PROBLEM [C] something that is not easy to deal with *The company is having some* ***financial difficulties*** *at the moment.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

have difficulty doing something

You can say you **have difficulty doing** something or **have difficulty in doing** something.

She has difficulty walking.

She has difficulty in walking.

~~*I have difficulty to walk.*~~

diffident /ˈdɪfɪdənt/ *adjective* shy and without any confidence *a diffident young man* ●**diffidence** /ˈdɪfɪdəns/ *noun* [U]

diffract /dɪˈfrækt/ *verb* [T] **PHYSICS** to break up light or sound waves by making them go through a narrow space or across an edge

diffraction /dɪˈfrækʃən/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** a change in the direction of light, water or sound waves or the pattern caused by this

diffuse /dɪˈfjuːz/ *verb* [I, T] **1** to spread, or to make something spread over a large area, or to a large number of people **2** **PHYSICS** to cause a gas or liquid to spread through or into a surrounding substance by mixing with it

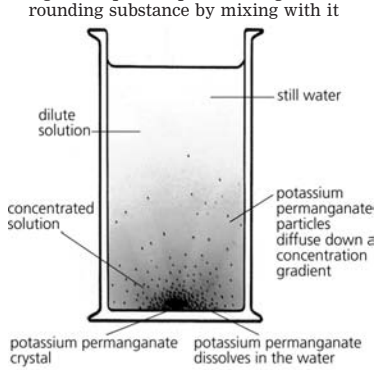

diffusion of potassium permanganate

diffusion /dɪˈfjuːʒən/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the process of gases and liquids spreading into a surrounding substance

dig[1] /dɪɡ/ *verb* **digging, *past* dug 1** [I, T] to break or move the ground with a tool, machine, etc *Digging the garden is good exercise.* **2 dig a hole/tunnel, etc** to make a hole in the ground by moving some of the ground or soil away *They've dug a huge hole in the road.* ➲See also: dig the/up **dirt**[1] on sb
dig in/dig into sth *phrasal verb informal* to start eating food *Dig in, there's plenty for everyone.*
dig (sth) into sb/sth *phrasal verb* to press or push hard into someone or something, or to press something hard into someone or something *A stone was digging into my heel.*
dig sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to get someone or something out of somewhere by digging
dig sth out *phrasal verb* to find something that you have not seen or used for a long time *Mum dug out some old family photographs to show me.*
dig sth up *phrasal verb* **1** TAKE OUT to take something out of the ground by digging *Could you dig up a few potatoes for dinner?* **2** BREAK GROUND to break the ground or make a hole in the ground with a tool, machine, etc *They're digging up the road outside my house.* **3** INFORMATION to discover information that is secret or forgotten by searching very carefully *See if you can dig up anything interesting about his past.*

dig[2] /dɪɡ/ *noun* **1** REMARK [C] something that you say to annoy or criticize someone *He was **having a dig at** me.* **2** PLACE [C] a place where people are digging in the ground looking for ancient things to study *an **archaeological dig*** **3** PUSH [**no plural**] *informal* a quick, hard push *a dig in the ribs*

digest /daɪˈdʒest/ *verb* [T] **1 BIOLOGY** to change food in your stomach into substances that your body can use **2** to read and understand new information *You need to give me time to digest this report.* ●**digestible** *adjective* easy to digest

digestion /daɪˈdʒestʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when your body changes food in your stomach into substances that it can use

digestive /daɪˈdʒestɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **BIOLOGY** relating to digestion *the **digestive system***

diˈgestive ˌsystem *noun* [C **usually singular**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the organs in your body that digest food

diˈgestive ˌtract *noun* [C **usually singular**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the tube that goes from your mouth through your body, along which food passes as it is being digested

digger /ˈdɪɡəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large machine that is used to lift and move soil, or a person who digs

Digibox /ˈdɪdʒɪbɒks/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a piece of electronic equipment that allows you to watch digital broadcasts (= television sounds and pictures sent as signals in the form of numbers) on an ordinary television

digit /ˈdɪdʒɪt/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** any of the numbers from 0 to 9, especially when they form part of a longer number *a seven digit telephone number*

digital /ˈdɪdʒɪtᵊl/ *adjective* **1 COMPUTING** using an electronic system that changes sounds or images into signals in the form of numbers before it stores them or sends them ***digital television*** **2** A digital clock or watch shows the time in the form of numbers.

ˌdigital ˈcamera *noun* [C] a type of camera that records images that you can use and store on a computer

ˌdigital ˈsignature *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a way of putting a person's name on an electronic document that proves who they are

digitize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈdɪdʒɪtaɪz/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to put information into the form of a series of the numbers 0 and 1, usually so that it can be processed by a computer ●**digitizer** /ˌdɪdʒɪtaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of software that digitizes information

dignified /ˈdɪɡnɪfaɪd/ *adjective* calm, serious and behaving in a way that makes people respect you *a quiet, dignified woman*

dignitary /ˈdɪɡnɪtᵊri/ *noun* [C] someone with an important, official position *a group of **visiting dignitaries***

dignity /ˈdɪɡnəti/ *noun* [U] calm and serious behaviour that makes people respect you *He behaved with great dignity and courage.*

digress /daɪˈɡres/ *verb* [I] to start talking about something that is not related to what you were talking about before ●**digression** /daɪˈɡreʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

digs /dɪɡz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK informal* a room in someone's house that you pay rent to live in

dike (*also* **dyke**) /daɪk/ *noun* **1** WALL a wall built to stop water from a sea or river going onto the land **2** PASSAGE *UK* a passage that has been dug to take water away from fields

diktat /ˈdɪktæt/ *noun* [C, U] an order which must be obeyed, or when you give such an order

dilapidated /dɪˈlæpɪdeɪtɪd/ *adjective* A dilapidated building or vehicle is old and in bad condition. ●**dilapidation** /dɪˌlæpɪˈdeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

dilate /daɪˈleɪt/ *verb* [I, T] If a part of your body dilates, or if you dilate it, it becomes wider or more open. *The drug causes your pupils to dilate.* ●**dilation** /daɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dilemma***

face/have/be in a dilemma ● sth **poses/presents** a dilemma ● a **moral** dilemma ● a dilemma **for** sb ● a dilemma **about/over** sth

dilemma /dɪˈlemə/ *noun* [C] when you have to make a difficult choice between two things you could do *She's still **in a dilemma about** whether she should go or not.*

diligence /ˈdɪlɪdʒᵊns/ *noun* [U] when you work hard with care and effort

diligent /ˈdɪlɪdʒᵊnt/ *adjective* working hard with care and effort *a diligent student* ●**diligently** *adverb*

dilute /daɪˈluːt/ *verb* [T] **CHEMISTRY** to make a liquid thinner or weaker by adding water or another liquid to it ●**dilute** *adjective dilute solution* ➲See picture at **diffusion**

dim¹ /dɪm/ *adjective* **dimmer**, **dimmest** **1** NOT BRIGHT not bright or clear *He could hardly see her in the dim light.* **2 a dim memory/recollection, etc** when you can remember something slightly, but not very well **3** STUPID *UK informal* stupid *He's nice, but a bit dim.* ●**dimly** *adverb a* ***dimly lit*** *room*

dim² /dɪm/ *verb* [**I, T**] **dimming,** *past* **dimmed** to become less bright, or to make something become less bright *He* ***dimmed*** *the* ***lights*** *and turned up the music.*

dime /daɪm/ *noun* [**C**] **1 ECONOMICS** a US or Canadian coin with a value of 10 cents **2 a dime a dozen** *mainly US informal* easy to find and very ordinary *Millionaires are now a dime a dozen.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dimension***

add/give a [new/extra, etc] dimension (**to** sth) ● an **added/extra/new** dimension

dimension /ˌdaɪˈmenʃˁn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PART a particular part of a situation, especially something that affects how you think or feel *Music has* ***added*** *a new* ***dimension to*** *my life.* **2** MEASUREMENT a measurement of the length, width, or height of something

dimensioning /daɪˈmentʃˁnɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] **1 DT** cutting or shaping something so that it is a particular size and shape **2 DT** marking particular measurements on something

diminish /dɪˈmɪnɪʃ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become less, or to make something become less *Your pain should diminish gradually after taking these tablets.*

diminutive /dɪˈmɪnjətɪv/ *adjective formal* extremely small *a diminutive figure*

dimple /ˈdɪmpl/ *noun* [**C**] a small hollow place on your skin, often one that appears on your face when you smile ●**dimpled** *adjective*

din /dɪn/ *noun* [**no plural**] a lot of loud, unpleasant noise

dine /daɪn/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to eat dinner *On Saturday we dined with friends.*
dine out *phrasal verb formal* to eat your evening meal in a restaurant

diner /ˈdaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PERSON someone who is eating in a restaurant **2** RESTAURANT *mainly US* a small, informal restaurant

dinghy /ˈdɪŋi/ *noun* [**C**] a small boat *an inflatable dinghy*

dingy /ˈdɪndʒi/ *adjective* dirty and not bright *a dingy basement*

ˈdining ˌroom *noun* [**C**] a room where you eat your meals in a house or hotel

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dinner***

eat/have dinner ● **have** sth for dinner

dinner /ˈdɪnəʳ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** the main meal of the day that people usually eat in the evening *What's for dinner tonight?*

ˈdinner ˌjacket *UK* (*US* **tuxedo**) *noun* [**C**] a black or white jacket that a man wears on a very formal occasion

dinosaur /ˈdaɪnəsɔːʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a very large animal that used to live millions of years ago

diocese /ˈdaɪəsɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **RELIGION** the area controlled by a bishop (= an important Christian official)

diode /ˈdaɪəʊd/ *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a device which controls an electric current so that it can only flow in one direction

dioxide /daɪˈɒksaɪd/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical substance consisting of two atoms of oxygen combined with one atom of another element

dioxin /daɪˈɒksɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **CHEMISTRY** a poisonous chemical of a type produced when substances used for killing plants are made

dip¹ /dɪp/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [**C, U**] a thick sauce that you can put pieces of food into before you eat them *a blue cheese dip* **2** SURFACE [**C**] a lower area on a surface *a sudden* ***dip in*** *the road* **3** AMOUNT [**C**] a sudden fall in the level or amount of something *a* ***dip in*** *profits* **4** SWIM [**C**] *informal* a short swim *Let's* ***have a*** *quick* ***dip*** *in the pool before breakfast.*

dip² /dɪp/ *verb* **dipping,** *past* **dipped** **1** PUT INTO [**T**] to put something into a liquid for a short time *She* ***dipped*** *the brush* ***into*** *the paint.* **2** LOWER [**I**] to become lower in level or amount *The number of students taking sciences has dipped sharply.*
dip into sth *phrasal verb* **1** READ *UK* to read small parts of a book or magazine *It's the sort of book you can dip into now and then.* **2** SPEND to spend part of a supply of money that you have been keeping *I had to dip into my savings to pay for the repairs.*

dipeptide /ˌdaɪˈpeptaɪd/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** a compound formed of two linked amino acids

diphtheria /dɪpˈθɪəriə/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a very serious disease of the throat

diphthong /ˈdɪfθɒŋ/ *noun* [**C**] **LANGUAGE** a sound made by two vowels which are said together

diploid /ˈdɪplɔɪd/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** a diploid cell has two sets of chromosomes, one from each parent ➲Compare **haploid**

diploma /dɪˈpləʊmə/ *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** a qualification from a school, college, or university, or an official document showing that someone has completed a course of study ***a diploma in*** *art and design*

diplomacy /dɪˈpləʊməsi/ *noun* [**U**] **1 POLITICS** dealing with the relationships between governments ***international diplomacy*** **2** skill in dealing with people well and not upsetting them *She showed great tact and diplomacy in the meeting.*

diplomat /ˈdɪpləmæt/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** someone whose job is to live in another country and to keep a good relationship between their government and that country's government

diplomatic /ˌdɪpləˈmætɪk/ *adjective* **1 POLITICS** [**always before noun**] relating to diplomacy or diplomats *diplomatic relations* **2** good at dealing with people without upsetting them *That's a very diplomatic answer.* ●**diplomatically** *adverb*

dire /daɪəʳ/ *adjective* very serious or bad *He's in* ***dire need*** *of help.*

direct¹ /dɪˈrekt, daɪˈrekt/ *adjective* **1** STRAIGHT going straight from one place to another without turning or stopping *We went by the most direct route.* **2** NOTHING BETWEEN with no other person or thing involved or between *There is a **direct link** between smoking and cancer.* **3** CLEAR saying clearly and honestly what you think *a direct answer* ➲Opposite **indirect**

direct² /dɪˈrekt, daɪˈrekt/ *adverb* going straight from one place to another without turning or stopping *Several airlines now **fly direct** to Vancouver.*

direct³ /dɪˈrekt, daɪˈrekt/ *verb* **1** FILM/PLAY [T] to tell the actors in a film or play what to do *a film directed by Alfred Hitchcock* **2 direct sth against/at/towards, etc sb/sth** to aim something at someone or something *The demonstrators' anger was directed at the police.* **3** ROUTE [T] to show or tell someone how to get to a place *Can you **direct** me **to** the manager's office please?* **4** ORGANIZE [T] to organize and control the way something is done *He directed the building of the new art gallery.* **5 direct sb to do sth** *formal* to officially order someone to do something *They directed us not to discuss the matter.*

direct action *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the use of action such as strikes (= refusing to work) or other forms of protest in order to try to make political or social changes in society

direct current *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** electrical current that only moves in one direction ➲Compare **alternating current**

direct debit *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** an arrangement that allows an organization to take money from your bank account at regular times to pay for goods or services *I pay my council tax by direct debit.*

direct deposit *noun* [U] *US* **FINANCE** an arrangement in which money is moved electronically into a bank account

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***direction***

change direction ● **in the opposite/other** direction ● **in the right/wrong** direction ● in the direction **of** sth ● **from all/in all** directions

direction /dɪˈrekʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** WAY [C] the way that someone or something is going or facing *The car sped away **in the direction of** the airport.* ○ *I think we're going in the **wrong direction**.* **2 in sb's direction** towards someone *She keeps looking in my direction.* **3** DEVELOPMENT [C] the way that someone or something changes or develops *Our careers have gone in very different directions.* **4** CONTROL [U] control or instructions ***Under his direction** the company has doubled its profits.* **5** PURPOSE [U] knowing what you want to do *According to his teachers, he **lacks direction**.*

directions /dɪˈrekʃᵊnz/ *noun* [plural] instructions that tell you how to get to a place, or how to do something *We stopped to **ask for directions**.* ○ *Just **follow** the **directions** on the label.*

directive /dɪˈrektɪv/ *noun* [C] *formal* an official instruction *The government has **issued** new **directives** on food hygiene.*

direct labour *UK* (*US* **direct labor**) *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the cost of paying people who are employed directly to make products

directly /dɪˈrektli/ *adverb* **1** NOTHING BETWEEN with no other person or thing involved or between *Why don't you **speak to** him **directly**?* **2 directly after/behind/opposite, etc** exactly or immediately after/behind/opposite, etc *She was sitting directly opposite me.* **3** CLEAR clearly and honestly *Let me answer that question directly.*

direct mail *noun* [U] when companies or organizations write to people to try to persuade them to buy their product or give money, etc.

directness /dɪˈrektnəs/ *noun* [U] when someone is clear and honest in their speech or behaviour *He liked her directness and simplicity.*

direct object *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the direct object of a transitive verb is the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. In the sentence 'I bought a new car yesterday.', 'a new car' is the direct object. ➲Compare **indirect object**

director /dɪˈrektəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MANAGER an important manager in an organization or company *Meet the new **sales director**.* **2** ACTORS someone who tells the actors in a film or play what to do *the famous film director, Alfred Hitchcock* ➲See also: **funeral director, managing director**

directorate /dɪˈrektᵊrət/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a part of a government or other organization with responsibility for a particular activity

directory /dɪˈrektᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** a book or list of names, numbers, or other facts ➲See also: **telephone directory 2 COMPUTING** (*also* **file directory**) a place on a computer for putting files and folders together

direct tax *noun* [C] **FINANCE** tax that people must pay to the government themselves, especially income tax ➲Compare **indirect tax**

dirt¹ /dɜːt/ *noun* [U] **1** NOT CLEAN an unpleasant substance that makes something not clean *You've got some dirt on your trousers.* **2** GROUND soil or rough ground *a dirt road/track* **3 dig the/up dirt on sb** *informal* to try to discover bad things about someone to stop other people admiring them

dirt² /dɜːt/ *adverb* **dirt cheap/poor** extremely cheap/poor

dirty¹ /ˈdɜːti/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLEAN not clean *dirty clothes* ○ *dirty dishes* **2** OFFENSIVE talking about sex in a way that some people find offensive *dirty books/jokes* **3** DISHONEST dishonest or unfair *a dirty business* ➲See also: do sb's dirty **work²**

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***dirty***

If something is extremely dirty, you can say it is **filthy**: *Wash your hands before supper - they're **filthy**!*

D

If someone or something looks dirty and untidy, you can say that they are **scruffy** or **messy**: *He's the typical **scruffy** student.* ● *Ben's bedroom is always really **messy**.*

If something is covered in dirt and needs washing, the adjectives **grimy** and **grubby** are often used: *Don't wipe your **grimy** hands on that clean towel!* ● *He was wearing an old pair of jeans and a **grubby** T-shirt.*

The adjective **soiled** is sometimes used to describe material that is dirty: ***Soiled** tablecloths should be soaked in detergent.*

If a place is extremely dirty and unpleasant, the adjective **squalid** is sometimes used: *The prisoners lived in **squalid** conditions.*

dirty² /ˈdɜːti/ *verb* [T] to make something dirty

dis- /dɪs-/ *prefix* not or the opposite of *dishonest* ○ *disbelief* ○ *to disagree*

disability /ˌdɪsəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** an illness, injury, or condition that makes it difficult for someone to do the things that other people do

disable /dɪˈseɪbl/ *verb* [T] **1** **HEALTH** If someone is disabled by an illness or injury, it makes it difficult for them to live in the way that most other people do. [**often passive**] *Some children were permanently disabled by the bomb.* **2** EQUIPMENT to stop a piece of equipment from working *The thieves must have disabled the alarm system.*

disabled /dɪˈseɪbld/ *adjective* **HEALTH** having an illness, injury, or condition that makes it difficult to do the things that other people do *They are demanding equal rights for **the disabled**.*

disaccharide /daɪˈsækəraɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a sugar that is formed of two simple sugar molecules

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***disadvantage***

have/face a disadvantage ● a **big** / the **main**/ a **major**/a **serious** disadvantage ● a disadvantage **of/to** (doing) sth ● a disadvantage **for** sb ● the **advantages** and disadvantages (**of** sth)

disadvantage /ˌdɪsədˈvɑːntɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** [C] something which makes a situation more difficult, or makes you less likely to succeed *One **disadvantage of** living in the country is the lack of public transport.* **2 at a disadvantage** having problems that other people do not have *Being shy puts him at a disadvantage.*

disadvantaged /ˌdɪsədˈvɑːntɪdʒd/ *adjective* Disadvantaged people are poor and do not have many opportunities. *disadvantaged children*

disaffected /ˌdɪsəˈfektɪd/ *adjective* disappointed with someone or something and not supporting them as you did before *disaffected voters* ●**disaffection** /ˌdɪsəˈfekʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

disagree /ˌdɪsəˈgriː/ *verb* [I] **disagreeing,** *past* **disagreed** to have a different opinion from someone else about something *I **disagree with** most of what he said.* ○ *Experts **disagree about/on** the causes of the disease.*

disagreeable /ˌdɪsəˈgriːəbl/ *adjective formal* unpleasant *a disagreeable old man*

disagreement /ˌdɪsəˈgriːmˈnt/ *noun* [C, U] when people have a different opinion about something or have an argument *They **had** a **disagreement about/over** money.* ○ *There is a lot of **disagreement among** doctors on this matter.*

disallow /ˌdɪsəˈlaʊ/ *verb* [T] to officially refuse to accept something because the rules have been broken *The goal was disallowed by the referee.*

disappear /ˌdɪsəˈpɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** NOT SEE to become impossible to see *She watched him **disappear into** the crowd.* **2** GO to suddenly go somewhere else and become impossible to find *Her husband disappeared in 1991.* **3** STOP EXISTING to stop existing *These flowers are disappearing from our countryside.* ●**disappearance** /ˌdɪsəˈpɪərˈns/ *noun* [C, U] *Police are investigating the girl's disappearance.* ➲See also: disappear/vanish into thin **air**¹

disappoint /ˌdɪsəˈpɔɪnt/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel unhappy because someone or something was not as good as they had expected *We don't want to disappoint the fans.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***disappointed***

If someone feels very disappointed about something that has happened, you can use the adjectives **disheartened** or, in informal situations, (*UK*) **gutted**: *He was very **disheartened** by the results of the test.* ● *Nick's absolutely **gutted** that he's been dropped from the team.*

If a person disappoints someone by not doing what they agreed to do, then the phrasal verb **let down** is sometimes used: *John had promised to go but he **let** me **down** at the last minute.*

A situation which makes someone feel disappointed is often described as a **letdown**: *After all that planning the party was a bit of a **letdown**.*

An **anti-climax** is a disappointing experience, often one that you thought would be exciting before it happened or one that comes after a more exciting experience: *After so much preparation, the party itself was a bit of an **anticlimax**.*

disappointed /ˌdɪsəˈpɔɪntɪd/ *adjective* unhappy because someone or something was not as good as you hoped or expected, or because something did not happen [+ **(that)**] *I was very disappointed that he didn't come.* ○ *I'm really **disappointed in** you.*

disappointing /ˌdɪsəˈpɔɪntɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel disappointed *a disappointing performance/result* ●**disappointingly** *adverb a disappointingly small audience*

disappointment /ˌdɪsəˈpɔɪntmənt/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] the feeling of being disappointed

She couldn't hide her disappointment when she lost. **2** PERSON/THING [C] someone or something that disappoints you *I'm sorry I'm such* ***a disappointment to*** *you.*

disapproval /ˌdɪsəˈpruːvᵊl/ *noun* [U] when you think that someone or something is bad or wrong

disapprove /ˌdɪsəˈpruːv/ *verb* [I] to think that someone or something is bad or wrong *Her family* ***disapproved of*** *the marriage.* ●**disapproving** *adjective* showing that you think someone or something is bad or wrong *a disapproving look*

disarm /dɪˈsɑːm/ *verb* **1** WEAPONS [I, T] to give up your weapons, or to take away someone else's weapons *Both sides have agreed to disarm.* **2** FEELINGS [T] to make someone feel less angry *His smile disarmed her.*

disarmament /dɪˈsɑːməmənt/ *noun* [U] when a country or group gets rid of some or all of its weapons ***nuclear disarmament***

disarming /dɪˈsɑːmɪŋ/ *adjective* behaving in a way that stops people feeling angry with you or criticizing you ***a disarming smile***

disarray /ˌdɪsᵊrˈeɪ/ *noun* [U] when something is untidy and not organized *The house was* ***in*** *complete* ***disarray.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***disaster***

bring/cause/prevent disaster ● disaster **happens/strikes** ● a **complete/major/terrible/unmitigated** disaster ● a **natural** disaster

disaster /dɪˈzɑːstəʳ/ *noun* **1** DAMAGE [C] something that causes a lot of harm or damage *floods and other* ***natural disasters*** **2** FAILURE [C] a failure or something that has a very bad result *His idea was a total disaster.* **3** BAD SITUATION [U] an extremely bad situation *The holiday ended in disaster.*

disastrous /dɪˈzɑːstrəs/ *adjective* extremely bad ***disastrous consequences*** ○ *a disastrous week*

disband /dɪsˈbænd/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to stop working together as a group, or to stop a group from working together

disbelief /ˌdɪsbɪˈliːf/ *noun* [U] when you do not believe that something is true or real *She shook her head* ***in disbelief.***

disbelieve /ˌdɪsbɪˈliːv/ *verb* [T] to not believe someone or something

disc (*also US* **disk**) /dɪsk/ *noun* [C] **1** SHAPE a flat, round shape or object **2** RECORDING a record or CD **3** **ANATOMY** a piece of cartilage (= strong material in the body) between the bones in your back ➲See also: **compact disc**

discard /dɪˈskɑːd/ *verb* [T] to throw something away *discarded food wrappers*

discern /dɪˈsɜːn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to see or recognize something ●**discernible** *adjective There was no* ***discernible difference*** *between them.*

discerning /dɪˈsɜːnɪŋ/ *adjective* having or showing good judgment, especially about style and quality *a discerning customer/reader*

discharge¹ /dɪsˈtʃɑːdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to allow someone to leave a hospital or prison, or to order or allow someone to leave an organization such as the army [**often passive**] *She was* ***discharged from*** *the army yesterday.* **2** SUBSTANCE If a liquid or gas is discharged from something, it comes out of it.

discharge² /ˈdɪstʃɑːdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** LEAVE when someone is officially allowed or ordered to leave somewhere such as a prison, hospital, or the army **2** COME OUT when a liquid or gas comes out of something *the discharge of carbon dioxide* **3** SUBSTANCE a liquid or gas that comes out of something

disciple /dɪˈsaɪpl/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who follows the ideas and teaching of someone, especially of a religious leader

disciplinarian /ˌdɪsəplɪˈneərɪən/ *noun* [C] someone who is very strict and gives punishments when people break rules

disciplinary /ˌdɪsəˈplɪnᵊri / (US) /ˈdɪsəplɪneri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to punishment for someone who has broken rules ***disciplinary action***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***discipline***

enforce/establish/restore discipline ● **firm/harsh/rigorous** discipline ● **lax/poor** discipline

discipline¹ /ˈdɪsəplɪn/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [U] when people's behaviour is controlled using rules and punishments *There should be better discipline in schools.* **2** SELF CONTROL [U] when you can control your own behaviour carefully *I don't have enough discipline to save money.* **3** **EDUCATION** [C] *formal* a particular subject of study *the scientific disciplines* ➲See also: **self-discipline**

discipline² /ˈdɪsəplɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** PUNISH to punish someone [**often passive**] *He was disciplined for missing a training session.* **2** CONTROL to teach someone to behave in a controlled way [**often reflexive**] *You have to learn to discipline yourself.*

disciplined /ˈdɪsəplɪnd/ *adjective* behaving in a very controlled way *the most disciplined army in the world*

ˈdisc ˌjockey (*also* **DJ**) *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays music on the radio or at discos

disclaim /dɪsˈkleɪm/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say that you know nothing about something, or are not responsible for something *The terrorists* ***disclaimed responsibility*** *for the bomb.*

disclaimer /dɪsˈkleɪməʳ/ *noun* [C] when someone officially says that they are not responsible for something

disclose /dɪsˈkləʊz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to give new or secret information to someone *He refused to* ***disclose details*** *of the report.*

disclosure /dɪsˈkləʊʒəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] when someone gives people new or secret information

disco /ˈdɪskəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a place or event where people dance to pop music

discoloured *UK* (*US* **discolored**) /dɪsˈkʌləd/ *adjective* If something is discoloured, it has become a less attractive colour than it was originally. ***discoloured teeth***

discomfort /dɪˈskʌmfət/ *noun* **1** PAIN [U] slight pain *You may feel some discomfort for a few days.* **2** MENTAL FEELING [U] when you feel slightly embarrassed or anxious **3 HEALTH** [C, U] a physically uncomfortable situation

disconcert /ˌdɪskənˈsɜːt/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel confused or anxious [**often passive**] *She was disconcerted by his questions.*

disconcerting /ˌdɪskənˈsɜːtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel confused or anxious *a disconcerting silence* ●**disconcertingly** *adverb*

disconnect /ˌdɪskəˈnekt/ *verb* [T] to separate two things that are joined or connected, especially a piece of equipment and a power supply *Switch off the machine before* ***disconnecting*** *it* ***from*** *the power supply.*

disconnected /ˌdɪskəˈnektɪd/ *adjective* not joined in any way *disconnected thoughts*

discontent /ˌdɪskənˈtent/ *noun* [U] unhappiness about a situation *There is growing* ***discontent with*** *this government.* ●**discontented** *adjective*

discontinue /ˌdɪskənˈtɪnjuː/ *verb* [T] **discontinuing,** *past* **discontinued** to stop producing or providing something such as a product or service [**often passive**] *I'm afraid this model has been discontinued.*

discord /ˈdɪskɔːd/ *noun* [U] disagreement between people

discount¹ /ˈdɪskaʊnt/ *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** a reduction in price *They offer a 10 percent* ***discount on*** *rail travel for students.*

discount² /dɪˈskaʊnt/ *verb* [T] **1** to ignore something because you do not believe that it is true or that it will happen *You shouldn't* ***discount*** *the* ***possibility*** *of him coming back.* **2 FINANCE** to reduce the price of something *discounted goods/rates*

ˌdiscount alˈlowed *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a discount (= lower price) given to customers who pay within a particular period of time

ˌdiscount reˈceived *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a discount (= lower price) a business receives when it pays for goods or services within a particular period of time

discourage /dɪˈskʌrɪdʒ/ *verb* **1 discourage sb from doing sth** to try to persuade someone not to do something *a campaign to discourage people from smoking* **2** PREVENT [T] to try to prevent something from happening *a campaign to discourage smoking* **3** LESS CONFIDENT [T] to make someone less confident or enthusiastic about something *I didn't mean to discourage her.* ●**discouragement** *noun* [U] ➲Opposite **encourage**

discouraged /dɪˈskʌrɪdʒd/ *adjective* having lost your confidence or enthusiasm for something

discouraging /dɪˈskʌrɪdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel less enthusiastic or confident about something *discouraging results*

discover /dɪˈskʌvər/ *verb* [T] **1** FIND to find something *The body was discovered in a ditch.* **2** FIRST to be the first person to find something important *Who discovered America?* **3** GET INFORMATION to get information about something for the first time [**+ (that)**] *She discovered that he had been married three times before.* [**+ question word**] *Have they discovered what was causing your headaches?*

discoverer /dɪˈskʌvərər/ *noun* [C] someone who is the first person to find something important

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***discovery***

make a discovery ● a **chance/new** discovery ● the discovery **of** sth

discovery /dɪˈskʌvəri/ *noun* **1** FINDING [C, U] when someone discovers something *the* ***discovery of*** *bones in the garden* ○ *Scientists have* ***made*** *some important* ***discoveries*** *about genetics recently.* **2** THING/PERSON [C] something or someone that is discovered

discredit /dɪˈskredɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone or something appear bad and lose the respect of other people *They're always looking for ways to discredit her.*

discreet /dɪˈskriːt/ *adjective* careful not to cause embarrassment or attract too much attention, especially by keeping something secret *Can I trust you to be discreet?* ➲Opposite **indiscreet** ●**discreetly** *adverb*

discrepancy /dɪˈskrepənsi/ *noun* [C, U] when two things that should be the same are different *There is a slight* ***discrepancy between*** *the two statements.*

discrete /dɪˈskriːt/ *adjective* separate and different *a word that has two discrete meanings*

discretion /dɪˈskreʃən/ *noun* [U] **1** CARE when someone is careful not to cause embarrassment or attract too much attention, especially by keeping something secret *You can rely on my discretion.* ➲Opposite **indiscretion 2** RIGHT the right to decide something *Students can be expelled* ***at the discretion of*** *the head teacher* (= if the head teacher decides it).

discretionary /dɪˈskreʃənəri/ *adjective* decided by officials and not fixed by rules *Judges have great* ***discretionary powers.***

discriminate /dɪˈskrɪmɪneɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** TREAT UNFAIRLY to treat someone unfairly because of their sex, race, religion, etc *The company was accused of* ***discriminating against*** *people on the basis of age.* **2** NOTICE to notice a difference between two things *Police dogs are very good at* ***discriminating between*** *different smells.*

discriminating /dɪˈskrɪmɪneɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* good at judging what is good quality *a discriminating shopper*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***discrimination***

face/suffer discrimination ● **age/racial/sex** discrimination ● discrimination **against** sb

discrimination /dɪˌskrɪmɪˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [U] when someone is treated unfairly because of their sex, race, religion, etc ***racial/sex discrimination*** ○ ***discrimination against*** *older workers*

discus /ˈdɪskəs/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a round, flat, heavy object that people throw as a sport

discuss /dɪˈskʌs/ *verb* [T] to talk about something with someone and tell each other your ideas or opinions *Have you discussed this matter with anyone else?*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

discuss

Discuss is not followed by a preposition.

We discussed the plans for the wedding.

~~*We discussed about the plans for the wedding.*~~

You can **discuss something with someone**.

Can I discuss this report with you?

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***discussion***

have/hold a discussion ● a **heated/lengthy** discussion ● a discussion **about** sth ● be **under** discussion

O-M **discussion** /dɪˈskʌʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when people talk about something and tell each other their ideas or opinions *They were **having a discussion about** football.* ○ *Several ideas are still **under discussion*** (= being discussed).

disˈ**cussion** ˌ**group** *noun* [**C**] **INTERNET** a group of people who use the Internet to discuss particular subjects ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

disdain /dɪsˈdeɪn/ *noun* [**U**] when you dislike someone or something and think that they do not deserve any respect *His **disdain for** politicians is obvious.* ●**disdainful** *adjective disdainful remarks* ●**disdainfully** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***disease***

be affected by/have/suffer from a disease ● **contract/develop** a disease ● **cure/detect/diagnose/treat** a disease ● a **chronic/deadly/hereditary/infectious** disease

O-M **disease** /dɪˈziːz/ *noun* [**C, U**] **HEALTH** an illness caused by an infection or by a failure of health and not by an accident ***heart disease*** ○ ***an infectious disease*** ●**diseased** *adjective* affected by a disease *a diseased lung*

disembark /ˌdɪsɪmˈbɑːk/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to leave a ship, boat, or aircraft *All passengers must disembark in Vancouver.* ●**disembarkation** /ˌdɪsɪmbɑːˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

disembodied /ˌdɪsɪmˈbɒdɪd/ *adjective* seeming not to have a body or not to be connected to a body *a disembodied voice*

disenchanted /ˌdɪsɪnˈtʃɑːntɪd/ *adjective* disappointed with something that you thought was good in the past *He became **disenchanted with** politics.* ●**disenchantment** *noun* [**U**]

disengage /ˌdɪsɪnˈgeɪdʒ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become separated from something, or to make two things become separate from each other *He gently disengaged his hand from hers.*

disentangle /ˌdɪsɪnˈtæŋgl/ *verb* [**T**] **1** SEPARATE to separate someone or something that is connected to something else in a complicated way *He **disentangled** himself **from** her arms.* **2** STRING/WIRE to separate things such as pieces of string, hair, or wire that have become twisted together

disfigure /dɪsˈfɪgəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] to spoil someone's or something's appearance [**often passive**] *Her face was disfigured by a huge scar.*

disgrace¹ /dɪsˈgreɪs/ *verb* [**T**] to make people stop respecting you or your family, team, etc by doing something very bad

disgrace² /dɪsˈgreɪs/ *noun* [**U**] **1** when someone does something very bad that makes people stop respecting them or their family, team, etc *They were sent home **in disgrace**.* **2 be a disgrace** to be very bad [**+ that**] *It's a disgrace that money is being wasted like this.* **3 be a disgrace to sb/sth** to be so bad or unacceptable that you make people stop respecting a particular group, activity, etc *You are a disgrace to your profession.*

disgraced /dɪsˈgreɪst/ *adjective* A disgraced person has lost other people's respect because they have done something very bad. *a disgraced politician*

disgraceful /dɪsˈgreɪsfᵊl/ *adjective* very bad *disgraceful behaviour* ●**disgracefully** *adverb*

disgruntled /dɪsˈgrʌntld/ *adjective* angry and upset *Disgruntled workers have decided to go on strike.*

disguise¹ /dɪsˈgaɪz/ *noun* [**C, U**] clothes and other things that you wear to change the way you look so that people cannot recognize you *She usually goes out **in disguise** to avoid being bothered by the public.* ➲See also: a **blessing** in disguise

disguise² /dɪsˈgaɪz/ *verb* **1 disguise yourself/your voice, etc** to change your appearance/voice, etc so that people cannot recognize you *He managed to escape by **disguising** himself **as** a woman.* **2 be disguised as sb/sth** to be wearing clothes and other things that make you look like someone or something else **3** [**T**] to hide something such as a feeling or opinion *She couldn't disguise her disappointment.*

disgust¹ /dɪsˈgʌst/ *noun* [**U**] a very strong feeling of dislike or disapproval *She walked out **in disgust**.*

disgust² /dɪsˈgʌst/ *verb* [**T**] If something disgusts you, it makes you feel extreme dislike or disapproval. *These pictures disgust me.*

disgusted /dɪsˈgʌstɪd/ *adjective* feeling extreme dislike or disapproval of something *I'm totally **disgusted with** your behaviour.*

disgusting /dɪsˈgʌstɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant *What's that disgusting smell?*

O-M **dish¹** /dɪʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** CONTAINER a curved container for eating or serving food from *a baking/serving dish* **2** FOOD food that is prepared in a particular way as part of a meal *a chicken/vegetarian dish* **3 the dishes** dirty plates, bowls, and other objects for cooking or eating food *Who's going to **wash the dishes**?*

dish² /dɪʃ/ *verb*
dish sth out *phrasal verb informal* to give or say things to people without thinking about them carefully

dishcloth /ˈdɪʃklɒθ/ *noun* [**C**] a cloth used for washing dirty dishes

disheartened /dɪsˈhɑːtᵊnd/ *adjective* disappointed or without hope *She was very disheartened by the results of the test.*

disheartening /dɪsˈhɑːtᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel disappointed or without hope *a disheartening experience*

dishevelled *UK* (*US* **disheveled**) /dɪˈʃevᵊld/ *adjective* very untidy *dishevelled hair*

dishonest /dɪˈsɒnɪst/ *adjective* not honest and likely to lie or do something illegal ●**dishonestly** *adverb* ●**dishonesty** *noun* [U] when someone is not honest

dishonour¹ *UK* (*US* **dishonor**) /dɪˈsɒnəʳ/ *noun* [U] when people stop respecting you because you have done something bad ●**dishonourable** *adjective* bad or not deserving respect *dishonourable conduct*

D

dishonour² *UK* (*US* **dishonor**) /dɪˈsɒnəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** to show no respect for someone or something by behaving badly *He felt that he had dishonoured his country.* **2** FINANCE to refuse to accept or pay a cheque or a bill (= amount charged)

ˈ**dish ˌsoap** *US* (*UK* **washing-up liquid**) *noun* [U] a thick liquid soap used to wash pans, plates, knives and forks etc.

dishtowel /ˈdɪʃtaʊəl/ *US* (*UK* **tea towel**) *noun* [C] a cloth that is used for drying plates, dishes, etc

dishwasher /ˈdɪʃˌwɒʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine that washes plates, glasses and other kitchen equipment *I'll load the dishwasher.* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

disillusion /ˌdɪsɪˈluːʒʰn/ *verb* [T] to cause someone to discover that something they believed is not true

disillusioned /ˌdɪsɪˈluːʒʰnd/ *adjective* feeling disappointed because something is not as good as you thought it was *She says she's* ***disillusioned with*** *the music business.*

disillusionment /ˌdɪsɪˈluːʒʰnmənt/ (*also* **disillusion**) *noun* [U] the disappointment someone feels when they discover something is not as good as they thought it was *There's growing* ***disillusionment with*** *the government.*

disinfect /ˌdɪsɪnˈfekt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to clean something with a chemical that destroys bacteria

disinfectant /ˌdɪsɪnˈfektənt/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a chemical substance that destroys bacteria

disintegrate /dɪˈsɪntɪɡreɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** BREAK to break into a lot of small pieces **2** GET WORSE to become much worse *The situation is* ***disintegrating into*** *total chaos.* ●**disintegration** /dɪˌsɪntɪˈɡreɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

disinterested /dɪˈsɪntrəstɪd/ *adjective* not involved in a situation and so able to judge it without supporting a particular side *a* ***disinterested observer***

disjointed /dɪsˈdʒɔɪntɪd/ *adjective* having words or ideas that are not in a clear order *a disjointed conversation*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***disk***

save/write sth **to** disk ● **on** a disk ● disk **space**

disk /dɪsk/ *noun* [C] **1** *another US spelling of* disc **2** COMPUTING a piece of computer equipment that records and stores information electronically *How much* ***disk space*** *is there ?* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 ➲See also: **floppy disk, hard disk**

ˈ**disk ˌdrive** *noun* [C] COMPUTING the part of a computer that allows the person using the computer to store and read information from a disk

diskette /dɪˈsket/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a small, flat, plastic object that you put in your computer to record and store information electronically

dislike¹ /dɪˈslaɪk/ *verb* [T] to not like someone or something *Why do you dislike her so much?* [+ **doing sth**] *I dislike ironing intensely.*

dislike² /dɪˈslaɪk/ *noun* [C, U] when you do not like someone or something *a dislike of cold weather* ○ *I* ***took*** *an instant* ***dislike to*** *her* (= disliked her immediately).

dislocate /ˈdɪsləʊkeɪt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH If you dislocate a part of your body, the bones move away from their correct position. *I think you've dislocated your shoulder.* ○ *a dislocated hip* ●**dislocation** /ˌdɪsləʊˈkeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

dislodge /dɪˈslɒdʒ/ *verb* [T] to move something away from a fixed position

disloyal /dɪˈslɔɪəl/ *adjective* not loyal or not supporting someone who you should support *I don't want to be* ***disloyal to*** *my friend.* ●**disloyalty** *noun* [U] *They accused her of disloyalty.*

dismal /ˈdɪzməl/ *adjective* very bad or unpleasant and making you feel unhappy *What* ***dismal weather.*** ○ *That was a* ***dismal performance.*** ●**dismally** *adverb I tried to cheer her up, but* ***failed dismally*** (= completely failed).

dismantle /dɪˈsmæntl/ *verb* [T] **1** TAKE APART to take something apart so that it is in several pieces *He's specially trained to dismantle bombs.* **2** GET RID OF to get rid of a system or organization

dismay /dɪˈsmeɪ/ *noun* [U] a feeling of unhappiness and disappointment ***To our dismay,*** *it started raining.*

dismayed /dɪˈsmeɪd/ *adjective* unhappy and disappointed [+ **to do sth**] *I was dismayed to discover that he'd lied to me.*

dismember /dɪˈsmembəʳ/ *verb* [T] to cut the arms and legs off the body of a person or animal *a* ***dismembered body***

dismiss /dɪˈsmɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT CONSIDER to refuse to consider an idea or opinion *The committee* ***dismissed*** *the idea* ***as*** *rubbish.* **2** MAKE LEAVE to officially make someone leave their job [**often passive**] *Anyone who breaks company rules will be dismissed.* **3** ALLOW TO LEAVE to give someone official permission to leave *The bell rang and the teacher dismissed the class.*

dismissal /dɪˈsmɪsʰl/ *noun* **1** IDEA [U] when someone refuses to consider an idea or opinion **2** JOB [C, U] when an employer officially makes someone leave their job

dismissive /dɪˈsmɪsɪv/ *adjective* treating something as if it is not important *He's so* ***dismissive of*** *all my suggestions.* ●**dismissively** *adverb*

dismount /dɪˈsmaʊnt/ *verb* [I] *formal* to get off a horse or bicycle

disobedience /ˌdɪsəʊˈbiːdiəns/ *noun* [U] when someone refuses to do what someone in authority tells them to do

disobedient /ˌdɪsəʊˈbiːdiənt/ *adjective* refusing to do what someone in authority tells you to do *a disobedient child*

disobey /ˌdɪsəʊˈbeɪ/ *verb* [T] to not do what you are told to do by someone in authority *How dare you disobey me!*

disorder /dɪˈsɔːdəʳ/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C] a disease or mental problem *a blood disorder* **2** BAD BEHAVIOUR [U] uncontrolled, bad behaviour, especially by large groups of people *crime and disorder* **3** NOT ORGANIZED [U] when things are untidy or confused and not organized *His financial affairs are **in** complete **disorder**.* ➲See also: **eating disorder**

disordered /dɪˈsɔːdəd/ *adjective* confused and not organized *a disordered mind*

disorderly /dɪˈsɔːdᵊli/ *adjective* **1** BADLY BEHAVED behaving badly by being noisy or violent *He was charged with being **drunk and disorderly**.* **2** UNTIDY untidy

disorganized (*also UK* **-ised**) /dɪˈsɔːgənaɪzd/ *adjective* **1** EVENT not planned or organized well *The competition was completely disorganized.* **2** PERSON not good at planning or organizing things

disorient /dɪˈsɔːriənt/ (*also UK* **disorientate** /dɪˈsɔːriəntɛɪt/) *verb* [T] to make someone not know where to go or what to do

disoriented /dɪˈsɔːriəntɪd/ (*also UK* **disorientated** /dɪˈsɔːriəntɛɪtɪd/) *adjective* confused and not knowing where to go or what to do *Whales become disoriented in shallow water.*

disown /dɪˈsəʊn/ *verb* [T] to say that you do not want to have any involvement or connection with someone *Even his parents have disowned him.*

disparage /dɪˈspærɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] to say that you think someone or something is not very good [**often passive**] *He is often disparaged by the critics.*

disparaging /dɪˈspærɪdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* criticizing someone or something ***disparaging remarks***

disparate /ˈdɪspᵊrət/ *adjective formal* completely different *people from disparate cultures*

disparity /dɪˈspærətɪ/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* difference, usually relating to the money people earn or their position

dispatch¹ (*also UK* **despatch**) /dɪˈspætʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to send someone or something somewhere *They dispatched a police car to arrest him.*

dispatch² (*also UK* **despatch**) /dɪˈspætʃ/ *noun* **1** SENDING [U] when someone or something is sent somewhere *the dispatch of troops* **2** REPORT [C] an official report that someone in a foreign country sends to their organization

dispel /dɪˈspel/ *verb* [T] **dispelling,** *past* **dispelled** to get rid of a feeling, thought, or belief *He appeared on TV to **dispel rumours** that he was dying.*

dispensary /dɪˈspensᵊri/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a place where medicines are given out

dispensation /ˌdɪspenˈseɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] LAW special permission to do something [**+ to do sth**] *The court would not **grant** him a **dispensation** to visit his children.*

dispense /dɪˈspens/ *verb* [T] to give something out *a machine that dispenses drinks and snacks*
dispense with sth/sb *phrasal verb* to stop using something or someone, or to get rid of something or someone, usually because you do not need them

dispenser /dɪˈspensəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine that you can get something from *a **cash/drink/soap dispenser***

disperse /dɪˈspɜːs/ *verb* [I, T] to separate and go in different directions, or to make something do this *We waited until the **crowds** had **dispersed**.* ●**dispersal** *noun* [U]

dispersion /dɪˈspɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the separation of light into different colours

dispirited /dɪˈspɪrɪtɪd/ *adjective* unhappy and without hope

displace /dɪˈspleɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** TAKE THE PLACE OF to take the place of someone or something *Many of these workers will be displaced by modern technology.* **2** MOVE to make someone or something leave their usual place or position *The earthquake displaced thousands of people.* ●**displacement** *noun* [U]

display¹ /dɪˈspleɪ/ *noun* **1** ARRANGEMENT [C] a collection of objects or pictures arranged for people to look at *a display of children's paintings* **2 on display** If something is on display, it is there for people to look at. *Many old aircraft are on display at the museum.* **3** SHOW [C] a performance or show for people to watch *a **firework display*** **4** COMPUTING [C, U] when something is shown electronically such as on a computer screen *The display problems might be due to a shortage of disk space.* **5 a display of affection/anger, etc** when someone behaves in a way that shows they have a particular feeling

display² /dɪˈspleɪ/ *verb* **1** ARRANGE [T] to arrange something somewhere so that people can see it *There were some family photographs displayed on his desk.* **2** COMPUTING [I, T] to show something electronically such as on a computer screen *The **text** can be **displayed** and edited on screen.* **3** FEELING [T] to show how you feel by your expression or behaviour *He never **displayed** any **interest** in girls.*

displease /dɪˈspliːz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make someone annoyed or unhappy ●**displeased** *adjective*

displeasure /dɪˈspleʒəʳ/ *noun* [U] *formal* when someone is annoyed or unhappy about something *She expressed great **displeasure at** his behaviour.*

disposable /dɪˈspəʊzəbl/ *adjective* intended to be used only once and then thrown away *a disposable camera/razor*

dis|posable ˈincome *UK noun* [C, U] FINANCE the amount of money that you have available to spend after tax, rent and other basic things that you must pay for

disposal /dɪˈspəʊzᵊl/ *noun* [U] **1** when you get rid of something, especially by throwing it away ***waste disposal*** ○ *the disposal of*

hazardous substances **2 at sb's disposal** available for someone to use *We will have a car at our disposal for the whole trip.*

dispose /dɪˈspəʊz/ *verb*
dispose of sth *phrasal verb* to get rid of something, especially by throwing it away

disposed /dɪˈspəʊzd/ *adjective formal* **1 be disposed to do sth** to be willing or likely to do something *I tried to tell her but she didn't seem disposed to listen.* **2 be favourably/well, etc disposed towards sth** to like or approve of something *She seems well disposed towards the idea.*

disposition /ˌdɪspəˈzɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] the type of character someone has *a **cheerful/nervous disposition***

disproportionate /ˌdɪsprəˈpɔːʃˈnət/ *adjective* too large or small in comparison to something else *There are a **disproportionate number** of girls in the class.* ●**disproportionately** *adverb*

disprove /dɪˈspruːv/ *verb* [T] to prove that something is not true

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dispute***

have/be involved in a dispute ● **resolve/settle** a dispute ● a **bitter/long-running** dispute ● a dispute **about/over** sth

dispute¹ /ˈdɪspjuːt/ *noun* [C, U] a disagreement, especially one that lasts a long time *A man stabbed his neighbour in a **dispute over** noise.*

dispute² /dɪˈspjuːt/ *verb* [T] to disagree with something someone says [+ **(that)**] *I'm not disputing that the drug has benefits.*

disqualify /dɪˈskwɒlɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to stop someone from being in a competition or doing some other activity because they have done something wrong [**often passive**] *She was **disqualified from** the race after a drugs test.* ●**disqualification** /dɪˌskwɒlɪfɪˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

disquiet /dɪˈskwaɪət/ *noun* [U] *formal* when people are anxious or worried about something *His health has been causing disquiet.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***disregard***

blatant/callous/flagrant/total disregard ● disregard **for/of** sb/sth

disregard¹ /ˌdɪsrɪˈgɑːd/ *noun* [U, no plural] when someone does not care about or show any interest in someone or something *His behaviour shows a total **disregard for** other people.*

disregard² /ˌdɪsrɪˈgɑːd/ *verb* [T] to ignore something *She chose to disregard my advice.*

disrepair /ˌdɪsrɪˈpeəʳ/ *noun* [U] when a building is in a bad condition because someone has not taken care of it *The house has **fallen into disrepair**.*

disreputable /dɪsˈrepjətəbl/ *adjective* not respected or trusted by people *a disreputable company*

disrepute /ˌdɪsrɪˈpjuːt/ *noun* **bring sb/sth into disrepute** *formal* to cause people not to respect or trust someone or something *Corrupt policemen are bringing the law into disrepute.*

disrespect /ˌdɪsrɪˈspekt/ *noun* [U] when someone does not show any respect or behave politely towards someone or something *a **disrespect for** authority*

disrespectful /ˌdɪsrɪˈspektfˈl/ *adjective* being rude and not showing any respect *Don't be **disrespectful to** your mother.* ●**disrespectfully** *adverb*

disrupt /dɪsˈrʌpt/ *verb* [T] to interrupt something and stop it continuing as it should *He disturbs other children and disrupts the class.* ●**disruption** /dɪsˈrʌpʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] *the disruption of services* ●**disruptive** *adjective disruptive behaviour*

dissatisfaction /dɪsˌsætɪsˈfækʃˈn/ *noun* [U] when you are not pleased or happy with something *He expressed his **dissatisfaction with** the legal system.*

dissatisfied /dɪsˈsætɪsfaɪd/ *adjective* not pleased or happy with something *a dissatisfied customer* ○ *Are you **dissatisfied with** our service?*

dissect /daɪˈsekt/ *verb* [T] to cut something into pieces for scientific study *We had to dissect a rat in biology.* ●**dissection** /daɪˈsekʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

disseminate /dɪˈsemɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to spread information or ideas *They are using their website to disseminate political propaganda.* ●**dissemination** /dɪˌsemɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

dissent /dɪˈsent/ *noun* [U] when someone does not agree with something *There is a lot of dissent within the Church about women priests.* ●**dissent** *verb* [I] to not agree with other people about something ●**dissenter** *noun* [C]

dissertation /ˌdɪsəˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION a very long piece of writing done as part of a course of study *She's writing a **dissertation on** American poetry.*

disservice /ˌdɪsˈsɜːvɪs/ *noun* [no plural] when something causes harm to someone or something *Bad teaching **does a** great **disservice to** children.*

dissident /ˈdɪsɪdˈnt/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who criticizes their government in a public way ***political dissidents***

dissimilar /ˌdɪsˈsɪmɪləʳ/ *adjective* different *Her hair is **not dissimilar to** yours* (= is similar to yours).

dissipate /ˈdɪsɪpeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to disappear, or to make something disappear *The heat gradually dissipates into the atmosphere.*

dissociate /dɪˈsəʊʃieɪt/ *verb* **dissociate yourself from sb/sth** to say that you do not have any connection or involvement with someone or something *He's trying to dissociate himself from his former friends.*

dissolution /ˌdɪsəˈluːʃˈn/ *noun* [U] when an organization or an official arrangement ends

dissolve /dɪˈzɒlv/ *verb* **1** CHEMISTRY [I, T] If a solid dissolves, it becomes part of a liquid, and if you dissolve it, you make it become part of a liquid. *These tablets dissolve in water.* ➲See picture at **diffusion 2** [T] to end an organization or official arrangement [**often passive**] *Their marriage was dissolved in 1996.* **3 dissolve into laughter/tears, etc** to suddenly start to laugh/cry, etc

dissuade /dɪˈsweɪd/ *verb* [T] to persuade someone not to do something [+ **from + doing sth**] *We tried to dissuade him from leaving.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***distance***

a **large/long/short/small/vast** distance ● a (short/long, etc) distance **from** [a place] ● the distance **between** sth **and** sth

distance[1] /ˈdɪstˀns/ *noun* **1** MEASURES [C, U] the length of the space between two places or things *We're only a short **distance from** my house.* ○ *He calculated the **distance between** the Earth and the Sun.* ○ *Are the shops **within walking distance?*** **2** [no plural] somewhere that is far away, but close enough for you to see or hear the things that are there *I could see Mary **in the distance**.* ○ ***From a distance**, it sounded like a bell ringing.*

distance[2] /ˈdɪstˀns/ *verb* **distance yourself from sb/sth** to say or show that you are not connected or involved with someone or something *She has tried to distance herself from the book.*

distant /ˈdɪstˀnt/ *adjective* **1** FAR AWAY far away in space or time *distant galaxies* ○ *the distant sound of traffic* ○ *We hope to see you in the **not too distant future**.* **2** RELATIVE A distant relative is not very closely related to you. *a distant cousin* **3** NOT FRIENDLY [never before noun] not friendly *She seemed cold and distant.* ●**distantly** *adverb* ***distantly related***

distaste /dɪˈsteɪst/ *noun* [U] when you dislike something and think it is unpleasant *I have developed a **distaste for** meat.*

distasteful /dɪˈsteɪstfˀl/ *adjective* unpleasant or offensive *I find this advertisement extremely distasteful.* ●**distastefully** *adverb*

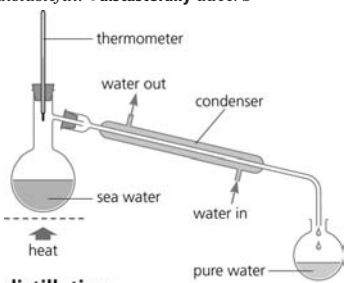

distillation

distil *UK* (*US* **distill**) /dɪˈstɪl/ *verb* [T] **distilling**, *past* **distilled** CHEMISTRY to make a liquid stronger or more pure by heating it until it changes into a gas and then changing it into a liquid again *distilled water* ●**distillation** /ˌdɪstɪˈleɪʃˀn/ *noun* [U] ●**distillery** /dɪˈstɪlˀri/ *noun* [C] a place where strong alcoholic drinks are produced

distillate /ˈdɪstɪlət/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a substance that is formed by distilling a liquid

dis,tilled ˈwater *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY water that has been made purer by being heated until it becomes a gas and then cooled until it becomes a liquid again

distinct /dɪˈstɪŋkt/ *adjective* **1** DIFFERENT different and separate *This word has three distinct meanings.* **2** HEAR/SEE easy to hear, see, or smell *The voices gradually became louder and more distinct.* ➲Opposite **indistinct** **3** CLEAR [always before noun] clear and certain *There's been a distinct improvement in your work.* ●**distinctly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***distinction***

draw/make a distinction ● a **clear** distinction ● a distinction **between** sth **and** sth

distinction /dɪˈstɪŋkʃˀn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** DIFFERENCE a difference between two similar things *the **distinction between** spoken and written language* **2** QUALITY a quality or fact that makes someone or something special or different *wines of distinction* ○ *He has **the distinction of** being the youngest player in the World Cup finals.*

distinctive /dɪˈstɪŋktɪv/ *adjective* Something that is distinctive is easy to recognize because it is different from other things. *a **distinctive style** of writing* ●**distinctively** *adverb*

distinguish /dɪˈstɪŋgwɪʃ/ *verb* **1** RECOGNIZE DIFFERENCES [I, T] to recognize the differences between two people, ideas, or things *Children must learn to **distinguish between** right and wrong.* ○ *People have difficulty **distinguishing** Tracy **from** her twin sister Mary.* **2** SHOW DIFFERENCES [T] to make one person or thing seem different from another *His great skill **distinguishes** him **from** the rest of the team.* **3** SEE/HEAR [T] to be able to see, hear, or understand something **4 distinguish yourself** to do something so well that people notice and admire you ●**distinguishable** *adjective*

distinguished /dɪˈstɪŋgwɪʃt/ *adjective* famous, praised, or admired *a distinguished writer*

distort /dɪˈstɔːt/ *verb* [T] **1** SHAPE/SOUND to change the shape, sound, or appearance of something so that it seems strange *It's a bad recording - the microphone distorted our voices.* **2** INFORMATION to change information so that it is not true or realistic *Newspapers **distorted the truth** about their marriage.* ●**distorted** *adjective* ●**distortion** /dɪˈstɔːʃˀn/ *noun* [C, U] *a gross distortion of the facts*

distract /dɪˈstrækt/ *verb* [T] to make someone stop giving their attention to something *Stop distracting me - I'm trying to finish my essay.*

distracted /dɪˈstræktɪd/ *adjective* anxious and unable to think carefully

distraction /dɪˈstrækʃˀn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that makes you stop giving your attention to something else *The phone calls were a **constant distraction**.* **2 drive sb to distraction** *UK* to make someone very annoyed

distraught /dɪˈstrɔːt/ *adjective* extremely upset and unhappy

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***distress***

deep/great distress ● **to** sb's distress ● be **in** distress

distress[1] /dɪˈstres/ *noun* [U] **1** UPSET the feeling of being extremely upset or worried *The newspaper reports caused her a great deal of distress.* **2** DANGER when someone or something is in danger and needs help *an aircraft **in distress***

distress[2] /dɪˈstres/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel very upset or worried ●**distressing** *adjective a distressing experience*

D

distribute /dɪˈstrɪbjuːt/ *verb* [T] **1** GIVE OUT to give something out to people or places *The books will be **distributed** free **to** local schools.* **2** SUPPLY to supply goods to shops and companies *The company manufactures and distributes computer equipment worldwide.*

distribution /ˌdɪstrɪˈbjuːʃˈn/ *noun* **1** SUPPLYING [U] when something is supplied or given out to people or places *the sale and distribution of videos* **2** SHARING [U, **no plural**] the way something is divided and shared in a group or area *the distribution of wealth*

distributor /dɪˈstrɪbjətəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person or organization that supplies goods to shops and companies

district /ˈdɪstrɪkt/ *noun* [C] a part of a city or country, either an official area or one that is known for having a particular characteristic or business *the fashion district of New York*

district attorney (*abbreviation* **DA**) *noun* [C] *US* **LAW** a lawyer who works for the government of a particular district

distrust /dɪˈstrʌst/ *noun* [U] when you do not trust someone or something ●**distrust** *verb* [T]

disturb /dɪˈstɜːb/ *verb* [T] **1** INTERRUPT to interrupt what someone is doing by making noise or annoying them *Don't disturb him, he needs to sleep.* **2** UPSET to make someone feel anxious or upset *Some scenes are violent and may disturb younger viewers.* **3** CHANGE to change something by touching it or moving it from its original position

disturbance /dɪˈstɜːbˈˈns/ *noun* **1** INTERRUPTION [C, U] something that interrupts what you are doing, especially something loud or annoying **2** FIGHTING [C] when people fight or shout

disturbed /dɪˈstɜːbd/ *adjective* not thinking or behaving normally because of mental or emotional problems

disturbing /dɪˈstɜːbɪŋ/ *adjective* unpleasant in a way that makes people feel anxious or upset *disturbing images* ●**disturbingly** *adverb*

disused /dɪˈsjuːzd/ *adjective* not used now *a disused warehouse* ●**disuse** /dɪˈsjuːs/ *noun* [U] when something is not used *to **fall into disuse***

ditch¹ /dɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow hole in the ground next to a road or field, which water can flow through

ditch² /dɪtʃ/ *verb* [T] *informal* to get rid of someone or something that you do not need or want now *He ditched his girlfriend when she got pregnant.*

dither /ˈdɪðəʳ/ *verb* [I] to spend too much time trying to make a decision *Stop dithering and tell me which one you want!*

ditto¹ /ˈdɪtəʊ/ *adverb* used to agree with something that has been said, or to avoid repeating something that has been said

ditto² /ˈdɪtəʊ/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a mark (") used instead of words to show that you are repeating what is written above it

ditty /ˈdɪti/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a short, simple song

diva /ˈdiːvə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a successful and famous female singer

Divali /dɪˈvɑːli/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** Diwali (= a Hindu festival)

dive¹ /daɪv/ *verb* [I] *past* **dived**, *also US* **dove**, *past participle* **dived 1** JUMP IN to jump into water with your head and arms going in first *He dived off the side of the boat into the sea.* **2** SWIM to swim under water, usually with breathing equipment **3 dive into/over/under, etc** to move somewhere quickly *He heard footsteps and dived under the table.* **4** FLY to fly down through the air very quickly *Suddenly the plane dived to the ground.* **5** VALUE If a value or price dives, it suddenly becomes less.

dive² /daɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** JUMP a jump into water with your arms and head going in first **2** MOVEMENT a quick movement somewhere **3** VALUE when the value or price of something suddenly becomes less *Share prices **took a dive** today.* **4** PLACE *informal* a place such as a bar which is considered to be dirty or of low quality

diver /ˈdaɪvəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who swims under water, usually with breathing equipment

diverge /daɪˈvɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I] **1** to be different, or to develop in a different way *Over the years our interests have diverged.* **2** to go in different directions *At that point, the paths diverged.* ●**divergence** *noun* [C, U]

diverse /daɪˈvɜːs/ *adjective* including many different types *a diverse collection of music*

diversify /daɪˈvɜːsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [I, T] If a business diversifies, it starts making new products or offering new services. *Many designers are **diversifying into** casual wear.* ●**diversification** /daɪˌvɜːsɪfɪˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

diversifying merger *noun* [C] when two companies that have completely different types of business join together

diversion /daɪˈvɜːʃˈn/ *noun* **1** CHANGE [C, U] when something is sent somewhere different from where it was originally intended to go *the diversion of money to other projects* **2** ROUTE [C] *UK* (*US* **detour**) a different route that is used because a road is closed **3** ATTENTION [C] something that takes your attention away from something else *John **created a diversion** while the rest of us escaped.* **4** ENTERTAINMENT [C] an activity you do for entertainment or pleasure *Reading is a pleasant diversion.*

diversity /daɪˈvɜːsəti/ *noun* [U] when many different types of things or people are included in something *ethnic diversity*

divert /daɪˈvɜːt/ *verb* **1** [T] to send someone or something somewhere different from where they were expecting to go *The plane was **diverted to** Stansted because of engine trouble.* **2 divert sb's attention/thoughts, etc** to take someone's attention away from something

divide /dɪˈvaɪd/ *verb* **1** SEPARATE [I, T] to separate into parts or groups, or to make something separate into parts or groups *We **divided up into** teams of six.* ○ *Each school year is divided into two semesters.* **2 divide sth (up) among/between sb** to separate something into parts and give a part to each person in a group *The prize money will be divided equally among the winners.* **3** PLACE [T] to separate a place into two areas *An ancient wall divides the city.* **4 MATHEMATICS** [I, T] to calculate how many times a number can go into another number *12*

divided by *6 equals 2.* **5** DISAGREE [T] to cause people to disagree about something [**often passive**] *Council members were* ***divided over*** *plans to build a new stadium.*

dividend /ˈdɪvɪdend/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money paid regularly to someone who owns shares in a company from the company's profits

dividers /dɪˈvaɪdəz/ *noun* [**plural**] **MATHEMATICS** a piece of equipment used in mathematics consisting of two parts which are joined at one end and have sharp points at the other and which are used for measuring lines and angles and for making marks to show positions along lines

divine /dɪˈvaɪn/ *adjective* **RELIGION** relating to or coming from God or a god

diving /ˈdaɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** the activity or sport of swimming under water, usually using special breathing equipment **2** **SPORT** the activity or sport of jumping into water with your arms and head going in first ➲See also: **scuba diving**

ˈdiving ˌboard *noun* [C] **SPORT** a raised board next to a swimming pool that you jump from into the water

divisible /dɪˈvɪzəbl/ *adjective* **divisible by 2/7/50, etc** **MATHEMATICS** able to be divided by 2/7/50, etc

division /dɪˈvɪʒˈn/ *noun* **1** SEPARATED [U] when something is separated into parts or groups, or the way that it is separated *the equal division of labour among workers* **2** ORGANIZATION [C] one of the groups in a business or organization *the sales division* **3** DISAGREEMENT [C, U] when people disagree about something *a division over the issue of free medical care* **4** **MATHEMATICS** [U] when you calculate how many times one number goes into another number

divisive /dɪˈvaɪsɪv/ *adjective* causing disagreements between people *a divisive issue*

divisor /dɪˈvaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number by which another number is divided in a calculation

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***divorce***

get a divorce ● a divorce **from** sb ● divorce **proceedings/rate/settlement**

divorce /dɪˈvɔːs/ *noun* [C, U] **SOCIETY** when two people officially stop being married *My parents are* ***getting a divorce.*** ●**divorce** *verb* [I, T] *She's divorcing her husband.*

divorced /dɪˈvɔːst/ *adjective* **1** **SOCIETY** married before but not married now **2 get divorced** **SOCIETY** to officially stop being married *My parents got divorced when I was seven.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **married**

divorcée /dɪˌvɔːˈsiː/ (US) /-seɪ/ *noun* [C] a person, usually a woman, who is divorced

divulge /daɪˈvʌldʒ/ *verb* [T] to give secret or private information to someone *He would not divulge how much the house cost.*

Diwali /dɪˈwɑːli/ (also **Divali**) *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** a Hindu holiday in October/November that celebrates light and the new year

DIY /ˌdiːaɪˈwaɪ/ *noun* [U] *UK abbreviation for* do it yourself: when you do building, decorating, or repairs in your own home

dizygotic /ˌdaɪzaɪˈgɒtɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** Dizygotic twins develop from two separate eggs. ➲Compare **monozygotic**

dizzy /ˈdɪzi/ *adjective* **HEALTH** feeling like everything is turning round, so that you feel ill or as if you might fall

DJ /ˈdiːˌdʒeɪ/ (*also* **disc jockey**) *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays music on the radio or at discos

DNA /ˌdiːenˈeɪ/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** *abbreviation for* deoxyribonucleic acid; a chemical in the cells of living things which contains genetic information ➲See picture at **helix**

O-➡ **do**[1] *strong form* /duː/ *weak form* /də/ *auxiliary verb* **1** QUESTIONS/NEGATIVES used with another verb to form questions and negative phrases *Do you need any help?* ○ *When does the next bus leave?* ○ *I don't know.* **2** MAKE QUESTION used in a phrase at the end of a sentence to make it into a question *Sarah lives near here, doesn't she?* ○ *That doesn't make any sense, does it?* **3** AVOID REPEATING used to avoid repeating a verb that has just been used *"I hate that song." "So do I."* ○ *My sister reads a lot more than I do.* **4** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the main verb *He does like you, he's just shy.* ○ *Do come and visit us soon.*

O-➡ **do**[2] /duː/ *verb past tense* **did,** *past participle* **done** **1** ACTION/JOB [T] to perform an action or job *Go upstairs and do your homework.* ○ *What are you doing this weekend?* ○ *What does she do?* (= What is her job?) **2** MAKE [T] to make or prepare something *Our printer only does black and white copies.* ○ *Max's Cafe does great sandwiches.* **3 do badly/well, etc** to be unsuccessful/successful, etc *Sam did very well in her exams.* **4 do biology/French/history, etc** *UK* to study biology/French/history, etc **5 do your hair/make-up, etc** to make your hair/make-up, etc look nice **6 do sb good** to have a good effect on someone *A holiday would do you good.* **7 do damage/harm, etc** to cause damage/harm, etc *Luckily the fire didn't do much damage.* **8 will do** will be satisfactory *You don't have to pay now, next week will do.* **9** SPEED [T] to travel at a particular speed *For most of the journey we were doing 70 miles an hour.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

do or make?

Do usually means to perform an activity or job.

I should do more exercise.

~~*I should make more exercise.*~~

Make usually means to create or produce something.

Did you make the dress yourself ?

~~*Did you do the dress yourself?*~~

do away with sth *phrasal verb* to get rid of something, or to stop using something *We may do away with the school uniform soon.*

do away with sb *phrasal verb informal* to kill someone

do sb in *phrasal verb informal* **1** MAKE TIRED to

make someone extremely tired *All that exercise has done me in.* **2** ATTACK to attack or kill someone

do sth over *phrasal verb US* to do something again because you did not do it well the first time

do sth up *phrasal verb* **1** FASTEN *mainly UK* to fasten something *Do your coat up. It's cold outside.* **2** REPAIR to repair or decorate a building so that it looks attractive

do with sth *phrasal verb* used to ask where someone put something *What did you do with my keys?*

do with sb/sth *phrasal verb* **1 could do with sb/sth** to need or want someone or something *I could do with a few days off work.* **2 be/have to do with sb/sth** to be about or connected with someone or something *My question has to do with yesterday's homework.*

do without (sb/sth) *phrasal verb* to manage without having someone or something *Jack's the kind of player we can't do without.*

do³ /duː/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a party *Are you going to the Christmas do?*

docile /ˈdəʊsaɪl/ US /ˈdɑːsᵊl/ *adjective* A docile person or animal is quiet and easily controlled.

dock¹ /dɒk/ *noun* **1** [C] the place where ships stop and goods are taken off or put on **2 the dock LAW** *UK* (*US* **the stand**) the place in a law court where the person who is accused of a crime sits

dock² /dɒk/ *verb* **1** [I, T] If a ship docks, it arrives at a dock. **2 dock sb's pay/wages** to take away part of the money you pay someone, usually as a punishment

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***doctor***

consult/see a doctor • **go to** the doctor's • a doctor's **appointment**

doctor¹ /ˈdɒktᵊr/ *noun* **1 HEALTH** [C] a person whose job is to treat people who have an illness or injury *I have to **go to the doctor's** for a check-up.* **2 Doctor of Philosophy/Divinity, etc EDUCATION** someone who has the most advanced type of qualification from a university ➲See also: **spin doctor**

doctor² /ˈdɒktᵊr/ *verb* [T] to change something, usually in a dishonest way *The photo in his passport had been doctored.*

doctorate /ˈdɒktᵊrət/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** the most advanced type of qualification from a university *He has a **doctorate in** physics from Cambridge.*

doctrine /ˈdɒktrɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS, RELIGION** a belief or set of beliefs taught by a religious or political group *Christian doctrine*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***document***

draw up/produce a document • **in** a document • a document **about/concerning/on** sth

document /ˈdɒkjəmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** PAPER a piece of paper with official information on it *Please sign and return the insurance documents enclosed.* **2 COMPUTING** a piece of text produced electronically on a computer *How do I create a new document?*

documentary /ˌdɒkjəˈmentᵊri/ *noun* [C] a film or television programme that gives facts about a real situation or real people *a TV documentary about the Russian Revolution*

documentation /ˌdɒkjəmenˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** OFFICIAL INFORMATION pieces of paper containing official information **2** INSTRUCTIONS the instructions written for a piece of computer software or equipment

docusoap /ˈdɒkjuːsəʊp/ *noun* [C] *UK* an entertaining television programme about the lives of real people who live in the same place or who do the same thing

doddle /ˈdɒdl/ *noun UK* **be a doddle** *informal* to be very easy *This computer's a doddle to use.*

dodecahedron /ˌdəʊdekəˈhiːdrən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **dodecahedrons, dodecahedra MATHEMATICS** a solid shape that has twelve flat surfaces of equal size with five sides

dodge¹ /dɒdʒ/ *verb* **1** MOVE [I, T] to move quickly to avoid someone or something *He managed to **dodge past** the security guard.* **2** NOT SAY/DO [T] to avoid talking about something or doing something you should do *The minister dodged questions about his relationship with the actress.*

dodge² /dɒdʒ/ *noun* [C] when you avoid something, usually in a dishonest way *a tax dodge*

dodgems /ˈdɒdʒəmz/ *noun* [**plural**] *trademark* a form of entertainment where people drive small electric cars on a special surface and try to hit each other

dodgy /ˈdɒdʒi/ *adjective UK informal* bad, or not able to be trusted *His friend's a bit dodgy.*

doe /dəʊ/ *noun* [C] a female deer

does *strong form* /dʌz/ *weak form* /dəz/ *present simple he/she/it of* do

doesn't /ˈdʌzᵊnt/ *short for* does not *Keith doesn't like mushrooms or garlic.*

dog¹ /dɒg/ *noun* [C] an animal with fur, four legs and a tail that is kept as a pet, or trained to guard buildings and guide blind people *Let's take the dog for a walk.* ➲See also: **guide dog, hot dog**

dog² /dɒg/ *verb* [T] **dogging,** *past* **dogged** to cause someone or something trouble for a long time [**often passive**] *His football career has been dogged by injury.*

dog-eared /ˈdɒgɪəd/ *adjective* If a piece of paper or a book is dog-eared, its corners are folded and torn from being touched a lot.

dogfight /ˈdɒgfaɪt/ *noun* [C] a fight between two military aircraft in which they fly very fast and very close to each other

dogged /ˈdɒgɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] continuing to do or believe in something, although it is difficult ***dogged determination*** •**doggedly** *adverb*

doghouse /ˈdɒghaʊs/ *noun* **1** [C] *US* (*UK* **kennel**) a small building for a dog to sleep in **2 be in the doghouse** If you are in the doghouse, you have done something to make people angry or annoyed with you.

dogma /ˈdɒgmə/ *noun* [C, U] a belief or set of beliefs that people are expected to accept as

the truth, without ever doubting them ***political dogma***

dogmatic /dɒɡˈmætɪk/ *adjective* not willing to accept other ideas or opinions because you think yours are right

dogsbody /ˈdɒɡzbɒdi/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone who has to do boring jobs for someone else

doing /ˈduːɪŋ/ *noun* **1 be sb's doing** to have been done or caused by someone *The problem is not all his doing.* **2 take some/a lot of doing** *informal* to be difficult to do ***It took some doing to convince him to come.***

doldrums /ˈdɒldrəmz/ *noun* **in the doldrums a** If a business or job is in the doldrums, it is not very successful and nothing new is happening in it. **b** *UK* sad and with no energy or enthusiasm

dole /dəʊl/ *verb*
dole sth out *phrasal verb* to give something, especially money, to several people or in large amounts

the dole /dəʊl/ *noun UK* money that the government gives someone when they are unemployed *He's been* ***on the dole*** *for years.*

doleful /ˈdəʊlfʲl/ *adjective* very sad *doleful eyes*

doll /dɒl/ *noun* [C] a child's toy that looks like a small person

O-key **dollar** /ˈdɒləʳ/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS the unit of money used in the US, Canada, and some other countries; $ *a hundred dollars/$100* ○ ***a dollar bill***

dollop /ˈdɒləp/ *noun* [C] a lump or mass of a soft substance, usually food ***a dollop of*** *cream*

dolphin /ˈdɒlfɪn/ *noun* [C] an intelligent animal that lives in the sea, breathes air, and looks like a large, smooth, grey fish

domain /dəʊˈmeɪn/ *noun* [C] AREA a particular area, activity, or subject that someone controls or deals with *The garden is his domain.* ○ *This information should be* ***in the public domain*** (= known by the public).

doˈmain ˌname *noun* [C] INTERNET the part of an email or website address that shows the name of the organization that the address belongs to

dome /dəʊm/ *noun* [C] a curved, round roof of a building ●**domed** *adjective a domed roof*

domestic /dəˈmestɪk/ *adjective* **1** SOCIETY relating to the home and family relationships ***domestic violence*** ○ *What are his* ***domestic arrangements?*** **2** COUNTRY inside one country and not international *a domestic flight* **3** ANIMAL A domestic animal is kept as a pet.

domesticated /dəˈmestɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** ANIMAL A domesticated animal is kept as a pet or lives on a farm. **2** PERSON A domesticated person is able or willing to do cleaning, cooking, and other jobs in the home.

domesticity /ˌdɒmesˈtɪsəti/ *noun* [U] life at home looking after a house and family

dominance /ˈdɒmɪnəns/ *noun* [U] power, influence, and control *the company's dominance in the software industry*

dominant /ˈdɒmɪnənt/ *adjective* **1** IMPORTANT main or most important *Her mother was the dominant influence in her life.* **2** STRONG strongest and wanting to take control *a dominant older brother* **3** BIOLOGY a dominant gene will cause a particular characteristic even if it is only passed on by one parent ➲Compare **recessive**

dominate /ˈdɒmɪneɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** CONTROL to control or have power over someone or something *The US continues to dominate the world politically.* **2** BE IMPORTANT to be the largest, most important, or most noticeable part of something *The cathedral dominates the skyline.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***domination***

global/world domination ● domination **of** sth ● domination **over** sb/sth

domination /ˌdɒmɪˈneɪʃʲn/ *noun* [U] great power and control over someone or something else ***world domination***

domineering /ˌdɒmɪˈnɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* trying to control people too much *a domineering mother*

dominion /dəˈmɪnjən/ *noun* [U] *formal* the power and right to control someone or something

domino /ˈdɒmɪnəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **dominoes** a small, rectangular object that has spots on it, used in a game ●**dominoes** *noun* [U] a game played using dominoes

don /dɒn/ *verb* [T] **donning,** *past* **donned** *formal* to put on a piece of clothing such as a coat or hat

donate /dəʊˈneɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** MONEY/GOODS to give money or goods to a person or organization that needs help *Four hundred new computers were* ***donated to*** *the college.* **2** BLOOD/ORGANS to allow some of your blood or part of your body to be used for medical purposes

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***donation***

make a donation ● a donation **of** [$50/food/clothing, etc] ● a donation **to** sb/sth

donation /dəʊˈneɪʃʲn/ *noun* [C, U] when money or goods are given to help a person or organization *Would you like to* ***make a donation?***

O-key **done¹** /dʌn/ *adjective* **1** finished or completed *Did you* ***get*** *your essay* ***done*** *in time?* **2** FOOD cooked enough *The potatoes aren't quite done yet.* ➲See also: easier (**easy²**) said than done, **well-done**

done² /dʌn/ *exclamation* something that you say to show that you accept someone's offer *"I'll give you 50 pounds for the whole lot." "Done!"*

done³ /dʌn/ *past participle of* do

donkey /ˈdɒŋki/ *noun* [C] **1** an animal that looks like a small horse with long ears **2 for donkey's years** *UK informal* for a long time

ˈdonkey ˌwork *noun* [U] *UK informal* the most boring or difficult parts of a job

donor /ˈdəʊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH someone who gives some of their blood or part of their body to be used for medical purposes **2** FINANCE someone who gives money or goods to a person or organization that needs help *Ten thousand dollars was given by an* ***anonymous donor.*** ➲See also: **blood donor**

don't /dəʊnt/ *short for* do not *Please don't talk during the exam.*

donut /ˈdəʊnʌt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** *another US spelling of* doughnut (= a small, round, fried cake)

doodle /ˈduːdl/ *verb* [I, T] to draw little pictures or patterns on something without thinking about it ●**doodle** *noun* [C]

doom /duːm/ *noun* [U] **1** death, destruction, and other unpleasant events that cannot be avoided *a horrible* ***sense of doom*** **2 doom and gloom** unhappiness and feeling no hope for the future *Life's* ***not all doom and gloom****, you know.*

doomed /duːmd/ *adjective* certain to fail, die, or have problems *Their marriage was doomed from the start.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***door***

close/open/shut/slam a door ● **knock on** a door ● be **at** the door

door /dɔːr/ *noun* [C] **1** THING YOU OPEN the part of a building, room, vehicle, or piece of furniture that you open or close to get inside it or out of it *Please* ***shut the door*** *behind you.* ○ *I can't* ***open the door****.* ○ *There's someone* ***at the door****.* **2** SPACE the space in a wall where you enter a building or room *He led us through the door to the rear of the building.* **3 behind closed doors** privately and not in public *Most of the deals were done behind closed doors.* **4 two/three, etc doors away** in a place that is two/three, etc houses away *We live just a few doors away from the Smiths.* ➲See also: **trap door**

doorbell /ˈdɔːbel/ *noun* [C] a button that you press next to a door that makes a noise to let someone know that you are there

doorknob /ˈdɔːnɒb/ *noun* [C] a round object on a door that you hold and turn to open or close it

doorman /ˈdɔːmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **doormen** a man who stands near the doors of a large building such as a hotel to watch and help the visitors

doormat /ˈdɔːmæt/ *noun* [C] **1** MATERIAL a piece of thick material on the floor by a door used to clean your shoes before entering a building **2** PERSON *informal* someone who allows other people to treat them very badly

doorstep /ˈdɔːstep/ *noun* [C] **1** a step in front of the door of a building **2 on your doorstep** very near to where you live *They have the Rocky Mountains on their doorstep.*

door-to-door /ˌdɔːtəˈdɔːr/ *adjective* [**always before noun**], *adverb* **1** JOURNEY going from one house or building to another *The hotel offers a* ***door-to-door service*** *to the airport.* **2** EVERY HOUSE going to every house in an area *a* ***door-to-door salesman***

doorway /ˈdɔːweɪ/ *noun* [C] an entrance to a building or room through a door *She waited* ***in the doorway*** *while I ran back inside.*

dope¹ /dəʊp/ *noun informal* **1** **HEALTH** [U] an illegal drug taken for pleasure, especially cannabis (= drug that you smoke) **2** [C] *US informal* a stupid or silly person

dope² /dəʊp/ *verb* **1** **HEALTH** [T] to give a drug to a person or animal, usually so that they become sleepy **2 be doped up** **HEALTH** to have a lot of a drug in your body affecting your behaviour

dork /dɔːk/ *noun* [C] *mainly US informal* a stupid or silly person

dormant /ˈdɔːmənt/ *adjective* not active or developing now, but possibly active in the future *a dormant volcano*

dormitory /ˈdɔːmɪtᵊri/ (*also* **dorm** *informal*) *noun* [C] **1** BEDROOM a large bedroom with a lot of beds, especially in a school **2** BUILDING *US* (*UK* **hall of residence**) a large building at a college or university where students live

DOS /dɒs/ *noun* [U] *trademark* **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* disk operating system: a type of operating system for computers

dosage /ˈdəʊsɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** how much medicine you should take and how often you should take it *the recommended daily dosage*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dose***

a **high/low** dose ● a **fatal/lethal** dose ● a dose **of** sth

dose /dəʊs/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** a measured amount of medicine that is taken at one time or during a period of time *What is the recommended dose?* ○ *a* ***lethal dose*** **2 a dose of sth** an amount of something, often something unpleasant *a dose of bad news* ●**dose** *verb* [T] to give someone a drug or medicine

dosh /dɒʃ/ *noun* [U] *UK informal* money

doss /dɒs/ (*also* **doss down**) *verb* [I] *UK informal* to sleep somewhere temporarily, such as on the floor *Can I doss at your house tonight?*
doss about/around *phrasal verb UK informal* to spend your time doing very little

dossier /ˈdɒsieɪ/ *noun* [C] a set of documents that contain information about a particular person or subject *The officers* ***compiled*** *a* ***dossier*** *on the case.*

dot¹ /dɒt/ *noun* **1** [C] a small, round mark or spot *a pattern of blue and green dots* **2** **INTERNET** [U] *spoken* the spoken form of '.' in an internet address *dot co dot uk* (= .co.uk) **3 on the dot** at that exact time *We have to leave at 7.30 on the dot.*

dot² /dɒt/ *verb* [T] **dotting,** *past* **dotted 1** PUT to put a dot or dots on something **2** SPREAD (*also* **dot around**) to be spread across an area *The company has 43 hotels dotted around the UK.*

dot.com /ˌdɒtˈkɒm/ (also **dotcom**) *noun* [C] **INTERNET** a company that does most of its business on the Internet *a dot.com company/millionaire*

dote /dəʊt/ *verb*
dote on sb *phrasal verb* to love someone completely and believe that they are perfect *She absolutely dotes on that little boy.*

doting /ˈdəʊtɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] extremely loving and caring *doting parents*

dot-matrix printer /ˌdɒtmeɪtrɪksˈprɪntər/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer printer that forms letters, numbers and other symbols from dots (= very small marks)

ˌdotted ˈline *noun* **1** [C] a line of printed dots on a piece of paper **2 sign on the dotted line** to

make an agreement official by writing your name on it

dotty /ˈdɒti/ *adjective UK* slightly crazy *a dotty old woman*

O-K **double¹** /ˈdʌbl/ *adjective* **1** TWO PARTS having two parts of the same type or size *double doors* ○ *My number is four, two, six, double two, five* (= 426225). **2** TWICE THE SIZE twice the amount, number, or size of something *a double vodka* ○ *a double hamburger* **3** FOR TWO made to be used by two people *a **double bed**/room*

double² /ˈdʌbl/ *verb* [I, T] to increase and become twice the original size or amount, or to make something do this *Our house has almost **doubled in** value.*
double (up) as sth *phrasal verb* If something doubles up as something else, it also has the purpose of that thing. *The school's gymnasium doubles up as a dining room.*
double back *phrasal verb* to turn and go back in the direction that you have come from
double (sb) over/up *phrasal verb* to suddenly bend your body forward, usually because of pain or laughter, or to make someone do this

double³ /ˈdʌbl/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that is twice the usual amount, number, or size **2 sb's double** someone who looks exactly the same as someone else

double⁴ /ˈdʌbl/ *determiner* twice as much or as many *Our new house is double the size of our old one.*

double-barrelled *UK* (*US* **double-barreled**) /ˌdʌblˈbærəld/ *adjective* **1** GUN A double-barrelled gun has two of the cylindrical parts that bullets come out of. **2** NAME *UK* A double-barrelled name is two names joined together.

ˌdouble ˈbass *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a wooden musical instrument with four strings, like a very large violin (= instrument you hold against your neck), that you play while standing up or sitting on a high chair

ˌdouble ˈbed *noun* [C] a bed big enough for two people to sleep in

ˌdouble ˈbond *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical bond in which two atoms share two pairs of electrons, which hold them together

double-breasted /ˌdʌblˈbrestɪd/ *adjective* A double-breasted jacket or coat has two sets of buttons to fasten at the front.

double-check /ˌdʌblˈtʃek/ *verb* [I, T] to examine something again so that you are certain it is safe or correct

double-click /ˌdʌblˈklɪk/ *verb* [I, T] **COMPUTING** to quickly press a button twice on a mouse (= small computer control) to make something happen on a computer screen ***Double-click on** the icon to start the program.*

double-cross /ˌdʌblˈkrɒs/ *verb* [T] to deceive someone who you should be helping

double-decker /ˌdʌblˈdekəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a tall bus with two levels *a **double-decker bus***

ˌdouble entry ˈbookkeeping *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a system that a business uses to record its financial situation, where each sum of money is shown as money received in one part and money spent in the other part

double-glazing /ˌdʌblˈgleɪzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] *UK* windows that have two layers of glass to keep a building warm or quiet

ˌdouble ˈhelix *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the structure of a DNA molecule that is made of two long thin pieces twisted together in a double spiral shape

doubles /ˈdʌblz/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game, especially tennis, in which two people play together against two other people

ˌdouble ˈstandard *noun* [C] when people are given different treatment in an unfair way [**usually plural**] *Critics accused the government of double standards in its policies.*

ˌdouble ˈtake *noun* [C] when you quickly look at someone or something a second time because you cannot believe you have seen something or heard something [**usually singular**] *He **did a double take** when he saw her.*

doubly /ˈdʌbli/ *adverb* twice as much, or very much more *It is doubly important to drink plenty of water when it's hot.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***doubt***

express/have/raise doubts ● a **nagging/serious** doubt ● doubts **about** sth

O-K **doubt¹** /daʊt/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when you are not certain about something, or do not trust someone or something *I have some **doubts about** his ability to do the job.* **2 have no doubt** to be certain [+ **(that)**] *I have no doubt that I made the right decision.* **3 there's no doubt** it is certain [+ **(that)**] *There is no doubt that he's a good player.* **4 be in doubt** to not be certain *The future of the project is in doubt.* **5 cast doubt on sth** to make something seem uncertain *Witnesses have cast doubt on the suspect's innocence.* **6 without (a) doubt** certainly *She is without doubt a great musician.* **7 no doubt** used to say that something is very likely *No doubt she'll spend the money on new clothes.*
➲See also: give sb the **benefit**¹ of the doubt, beyond/without a **shadow**¹ of a doubt

O-K **doubt²** /daʊt/ *verb* [T] **1** FEEL UNCERTAIN to feel uncertain about something or think that something is not probable [+ **(that)**] *I doubt that I'll get the job.* ○ *I **doubt if/whether** he'll win.* **2** NOT BELIEVE to not believe someone or something *Do you have any reason to doubt her?*

doubtful /ˈdaʊtfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT PROBABLE not probable *It's **doubtful if/whether** he'll be able to come.* [+ **(that)**] *It's doubtful that anyone survived the fire.* **2** NOT CERTAIN not feeling certain about something ●**doubtfully** *adverb*

ˌdoubtful ˈdebt *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a debt that is not likely to be paid

doubtless /ˈdaʊtləs/ *adverb* probably *He will doubtless be criticized by journalists.*

dough /dəʊ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a thick mixture of flour and liquid used to make foods such as bread or pastry

doughnut (*also US* **donut**) /ˈdəʊnʌt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, round, fried cake, sometimes with a hole in the middle

dour /dʊəʳ, daʊəʳ/ *adjective* unfriendly and serious *a dour expression*

douse /daʊs/ *verb* [T] **1** POUR to pour a lot of liquid over someone or something *The dessert was doused with brandy and set alight.* **2** STOP BURNING to stop a fire burning by putting a lot of water on it *to douse the flames/fire*

dove¹ /dʌv/ *noun* [C] a white bird, sometimes used as a symbol of peace

dove² /dəʊv/ *US past tense of* dive

D

dowdy /ˈdaʊdi/ *adjective* plain and not fashionable

the Dow Jones /ˌdaʊˈdʒəʊnz/ *noun* [no plural] ECONOMICS a list of the prices of shares in the 30 most important companies on the New York Stock Exchange

O-key **down¹** /daʊn/ *adverb, preposition* **1** LOWER PLACE towards or in a lower place *The kids ran down the hill to the gate.* ○ *I bent down to have a look.* **2** LEVEL/AMOUNT towards or at a lower level or amount *Can you turn the music down?* ○ *Slow down so they can see us.* **3** SURFACE moving from above and onto a surface *I sat down and turned on the TV.* ○ *Put that box down on the floor.* **4** DIRECTION in or towards a particular direction, usually south *Pete's moved down to London.* **5 down the road/river, etc** along or further along the road/river, etc *There's another pub further down the street.* **6 note/write, etc sth down** to write something on a piece of paper *Can I just take down your phone number?* **7** STOMACH inside your stomach *He's had food poisoning and can't keep anything down.* **8 be down to sb** *UK* to be someone's responsibility or decision *I've done all I can now, the rest is down to you.* **9 come/go down with sth** to become ill *The whole family came down with food poisoning.* **10 down under** *informal* Australia, or in Australia

down² /daʊn/ *adjective* [never before noun] **1** sad *What's the matter? You look a bit down today.* **2** COMPUTING If a computer or machine is down, it is temporarily not working. *The network was down all morning.*

down³ /daʊn/ *noun* [U] soft feathers, often used as a warm filling for bed covers ➲See also: **ups and downs**

down⁴ /daʊn/ *verb* [T] *informal* to drink something quickly

down-and-out /ˌdaʊnənˈaʊt/ *adjective* If someone is down-and-out, they have no money, possessions, or opportunities. ●**down-and-out** *noun* [C]

downcast /ˈdaʊnkɑːst/ *adjective* **1** SAD sad or disappointed **2** EYES If someone's eyes are downcast, they are looking down.

downgrade /ˌdaʊnˈgreɪd/ *verb* [T] to move someone or something to a less important position

downhearted /ˌdaʊnˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* sad or disappointed

downhill¹ /ˌdaʊnˈhɪl/ *adverb* **1** towards the bottom of a hill or slope *It's so much easier cycling downhill.* **2 go downhill** to gradually become worse *After his wife died, his health started to go downhill.*

downhill² /ˌdaʊnˈhɪl/ *adjective* **1** leading down towards the bottom of a hill or slope *downhill skiing* **2 be all downhill; be downhill all the way** to be much easier *From now on it will be all downhill.*

download¹ /ˌdaʊnˈləʊd/ US /ˈdaʊnˌləʊd/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to copy computer programs, music or other information electronically using the Internet *You can **download** this software-free **from** their website.* ●**downloadable** *adjective* able to be downloaded ***downloadable files/images*** ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

download² /ˈdaʊnləʊd/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer program, music or other information that has been or can be downloaded

downmarket /ˌdaʊnˈmɑːkɪt/ *adjective UK* cheap and low quality

ˌdown ˈpayment *noun* [C] FINANCE the first amount of money that you pay when you buy something expensive and pay over a period of time *a **down payment on** a house*

downplay /ˌdaʊnˈpleɪ/ *verb* [T] to make something seem less important or bad than it really is *The report downplays the risks of nuclear power.*

downpour /ˈdaʊnpɔːr/ *noun* [C] when it suddenly rains a lot

downright /ˈdaʊnraɪt/ *adverb* **downright dangerous/rude/ugly, etc** extremely dangerous/rude/ugly, etc

downside /ˈdaʊnsaɪd/ *noun* [no plural] the disadvantage of a situation *The **downside of** living in a city is all the pollution.*

downsize /ˈdaʊnˌsaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to make a company or organization smaller by reducing the number of people who work there ●**downsizing** *noun* [U]

Down's syndrome /ˈdaʊnzˌsɪndrəʊm/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a condition that some babies are born with which affects their physical and mental development

downstairs /ˌdaʊnˈsteəz/ *adverb* on or to a lower level of a building *She **went downstairs** to see who was at the door.* ●**downstairs** *adjective a downstairs bathroom*

downstream /ˌdaʊnˈstriːm/ *adverb* in the direction that the water in a river is moving in

down-to-earth /ˌdaʊntuˈɜːθ/ *adjective* practical and realistic

downtown /ˌdaʊnˈtaʊn/ *adjective* [always before noun], *adverb US* in or to the central part or main business area of a city *downtown Chicago*

downtrodden /ˈdaʊnˌtrɒdᵊn/ *adjective* treated badly and without respect from other people *downtrodden workers*

downturn /ˈdaʊntɜːn/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS when a business or economy becomes less successful *There has been a sharp **downturn in** sales.*

downwards (*also US* **downward**) /ˈdaʊnwədz/ *adverb* towards a lower place or level *The road slopes downwards to the river.* ●**downward** *adjective* ➲See also: a downward **spiral**

downwind /ˌdaʊnˈwɪnd/ *adjective, adverb* in the direction that the wind is blowing

dowry /ˈdaʊri/ *noun* [C] money that a woman's family gives to the man she is marrying in some cultures

doze /dəʊz/ *verb* [I] to sleep lightly *Grandma was dozing in front of the TV.*
doze off *phrasal verb* to gradually start sleeping, usually during the day *He dozed off during the film.*

dozen /ˈdʌzᵊn/ *noun, determiner* **1** twelve, or a group of twelve *There were about a dozen people at the party.* **2 dozens** *informal* a lot *She's got **dozens of** friends.* ➲See also: a **dime** a dozen

O-key **Dr** *written abbreviation for* doctor *Dr Paul Thomas*

Dr. FINANCE *written abbeviation for* debit: money taken out of an account

drab /dræb/ *adjective* without colour and boring to look at *drab, grey buildings*

draconian /drəˈkəʊniən/ *adjective* very severe *draconian laws*

draft¹ /drɑːft/ *noun* **1** WRITING [C] a piece of writing or a plan that is not yet in its finished form *He made several changes to the **first draft**.* **2 the draft** *US* when people are told that they must join the armed forces **3** COLD AIR [C] *US spelling of* draught (= a current of cold air in a room)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***draft***

draft **a constitution/legislation/a letter/a proposal**

draft² /drɑːft/ *verb* [T] **1** WRITE to produce a piece of writing or a plan that you intend to change later *to **draft** a **letter*** **2** MILITARY to order someone to join the armed forces
draft sb in/draft sb into sth *phrasal verb UK* to bring someone somewhere to do a particular job *Extra police were drafted in to stop the demonstration.*

draftsman *US* (*UK* **draughtsman**) /ˈdrɑːftsmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **draftsmen** ART someone who draws detailed drawings as plans for something

drafty /ˈdrɑːfti/ *adjective US spelling of* draughty

drag¹ /dræg/ *verb* **dragging,** *past* **dragged 1 drag sth/sb across/along/over, etc** to pull something or someone along the ground somewhere, usually with difficulty *The table was too heavy to lift, so we had to drag it across the room.* **2 drag sb along/out/to, etc** to make someone go somewhere they do not want to go *I have to drag myself out of bed every morning.* **3** COMPUTING [T] to move something somewhere on a computer screen using a mouse (= small computer control) **4** [I] (*also* **drag on**) to continue for too much time in a boring way ➲See also: drag your feet (**foot¹**)
drag sb down *phrasal verb UK* If an unpleasant situation drags someone down, it makes them feel unhappy or ill.
drag sb into sth *phrasal verb* to force someone to become involved in an unpleasant or difficult situation *I don't want to be dragged into this argument.*
drag sth out *phrasal verb* to make something continue for more time than is necessary

drag² /dræg/ *noun* **1 in drag** *informal* If a man is in drag, he is wearing women's clothes. **2 be a drag** *informal* to be boring and unpleasant *Cleaning the house is such a drag.* **3** [C] when you breathe in smoke from a cigarette *He **took** a **drag** on his cigarette.*

ˌdrag and ˈdrop *verb* [I, T] COMPUTING to move something on a computer screen using a mouse

dragon /ˈdrægᵊn/ *noun* [C] a big, imaginary creature which breathes out fire

dragonfly /ˈdrægᵊnflaɪ/ *noun* [C] an insect with long wings and a thin, colourful body, often seen flying near water ➲See picture at **insect**

drain¹ /dreɪn/ *verb* **1** REMOVE LIQUID [T] to remove the liquid from something, usually by pouring it away *Drain the pasta and add the tomatoes.* **2** FLOW AWAY [I] If something drains, liquid flows away or out of it. **3** MAKE TIRED [T] to make someone very tired *The long journey drained him.* **4** DRINK [T] If you drain a glass or cup, you drink all the liquid in it.

drain² /dreɪn/ *noun* **1** [C] a pipe or hole that takes away waste liquids or water *She poured the dirty water **down** the **drain**.* **2 a drain on sth** something that uses or wastes a lot of money or energy **3 down the drain** *informal* If money or work goes down the drain, it is wasted.

drainage /ˈdreɪnɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] the system of water or waste liquids flowing away from somewhere into the ground or down pipes

ˈdrainage ˌbasin *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY an area of land from which the rain flows into a particular river or lake, etc.

drained /dreɪnd/ *adjective* If someone is drained, they are extremely tired.

drainpipe /ˈdreɪnpaɪp/ *noun* [C] a pipe that carries waste water away from a building

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drama***

a drama **unfolds** • **high** drama • **human** drama

drama /ˈdrɑːmə/ *noun* **1** LITERATURE [C] a play in a theatre or on television or radio *a historical drama* **2** PLAYS/ACTING [U] plays and acting generally *modern drama* **3** EXCITEMENT [C, U] when something exciting happens *There was a lot of drama in the courtroom.*

ˈdrama ˌqueen *noun* [C] *informal* someone who gets far too upset or angry over small problems

dramatic /drəˈmætɪk/ *adjective* **1** SUDDEN very sudden or noticeable *a **dramatic change/improvement*** **2** EXCITING full of action and excitement *a dramatic rescue* **3** THEATRE [**always before noun**] relating to plays and acting **4** BEHAVIOUR showing your emotions in a very obvious way because you want other people to notice you *Stop being so dramatic!* •**dramatically** *adverb*

dramatist /ˈdræmətɪst/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE someone who writes plays

dramatize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈdræmətaɪz/ *verb* [T] LITERATURE **1** to make an event or situation seem more exciting than it really is *The media tends to dramatize things.* **2** to change a story

so that it can be performed as a play ●**dramatization** /ˌdræmətaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

drank /dræŋk/ *past tense of* drink

drape /dreɪp/ *verb* **1 drape sth across/on/over, etc** to put something such as cloth or a piece of clothing loosely over something *He draped his jacket over the chair and sat down to eat.* **2 be draped in/with sth** to be loosely covered with a cloth *The coffin was draped in a flag.*

D

drapes /dreɪps/ *noun* [**plural**] *mainly US* long, heavy curtains

drastic /ˈdræstɪk/ *adjective* Drastic action or change is sudden and extreme. *drastic reductions in price* ●**drastically** *adverb*

draught¹ *UK* (*US* **draft**) /drɑːft/ *noun* [**C**] a current of cold air in a room

draught² *UK* (*US* **draft**) /drɑːft/ *adjective* **draught beer/lager, etc** FOOD a drink that comes from a large container and not from a can or bottle

draughts /drɑːfts/ *UK* (*US* **checkers**) *noun* [**U**] a game that two people play by moving flat, round objects around on a board of black and white squares

draughtsman *UK* (*US* **draftsman**) /ˈdrɑːftsmən/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **draughtsmen** DT someone who draws detailed drawings as plans for something

draughty *UK* (*US* **drafty**) /ˈdrɑːfti/ *adjective* having currents of cold air blowing through *a draughty old building*

draw¹ /drɔː/ *verb past tense* **drew,** *past participle* **drawn 1** ART [**I, T**] to produce a picture by making lines or marks, usually with a pen or pencil *She drew a picture of a tree.* **2 draw sth/sb across/back/over, etc** to pull something or someone gently in a particular direction *He took her hand and drew her towards him.* **3 draw into/out/away, etc** to move somewhere, usually in a vehicle *The train drew into the station.* **4 draw the curtains** to pull curtains open or closed **5 draw (sb's) attention to sth/sb** to make someone notice someone or something *I don't want to draw too much attention to myself.* **6** ATTRACT [**T**] to attract someone to a place or person *Thousands of tourists are* ***drawn to*** *the city every year.* **7** SPORT [**I, T**] *UK* to finish a game or competition with each team or player having the same score *England drew 2-2 against Italy.* **8** TAKE OUT [**T**] to take something out of a container or your pocket, especially a weapon *He drew a knife and started threatening me.* **9 draw near/close** to become nearer in space or time *Her birthday's drawing nearer every day.* **10 draw (a) breath** to breathe in air *She drew a deep breath and started her speech.* **11** FINANCE [**T**] (*also* **draw out**) to take money from your bank account **12 draw to a close/end** to be almost finished **13 draw conclusions** to make judgments after considering an subject or situation **14 draw a comparison/distinction** to say that there is a similarity or difference between two things ➲See also: draw a **blank²**, draw the **line¹** at sth, draw a **veil** over sth

draw back *phrasal verb* to move away from someone or something, usually because you are surprised or frightened

draw sb/sth into sth *phrasal verb* to make someone or something become involved in a difficult or unpleasant situation *I'm not going to be drawn into this argument.*

draw on sth *phrasal verb* to use information or your knowledge or experience of something to help you do something *His novels draw heavily on his childhood.*

draw sth up *phrasal verb* to prepare something, usually a plan, list, or an official agreement, by writing it

draw² /drɔː/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SPORT *mainly UK* when a game or competition finishes with each player or team having the same score *The match ended in a draw.* **2** (*also US* **drawing**) a competition that is decided by choosing a particular ticket or number *the National Lottery draw* ➲See also: the **luck** of the draw

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drawback***

have drawbacks ● a **big/major** drawback ● the **main/only** drawback ● a drawback **of/to/with** sth

drawback /ˈdrɔːbæk/ *noun* [**C**] a problem or disadvantage *The only* ***drawback with*** *this camera is the price.*

drawer /drɔːr/ *noun* [**C**] a container like a box without a lid that is part of a piece of furniture and that slides in and out *She* ***opened*** *the* ***drawer*** *and took out a knife.* ➲See also: **chest of drawers**

drawing /ˈdrɔːɪŋ/ *noun* **1** ART [**C**] a picture made with a pencil or pen *There were some children's drawings pinned up on the wall.* **2** ART [**U**] the skill or activity of making pictures using a pencil or pen *Do you want to do some drawing?* **3** [**C**] *US* (*UK/US* **draw**) a competition that is decided by choosing a particular ticket or number

ˈdrawing ˌboard *noun* **back to the drawing board** If you go back to the drawing board, you have to start planning a piece of work again because the first plan failed.

ˈdrawing ˌpin *UK* (*US* **thumbtack**) *noun* [**C**] a pin with a wide, flat top, used for fastening pieces of paper to a wall

ˈdrawing ˌroom *noun* [**C**] *old-fashioned* a room in a large house used for sitting in and talking with guests

drawings /ˈdrɔːɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] FINANCE money that is taken out of a business, for example to pay the people who own the business

drawl /drɔːl/ *noun* [**no plural**] a lazy way of speaking that uses long vowel sounds ●**drawl** *verb* [**I**]

drawn¹ /drɔːn/ *adjective* looking very tired or ill *She looked pale and drawn after the operation.* ➲See also: **horse-drawn**

drawn² /drɔːn/ *past participle of* draw

drawn-out /ˌdrɔːnˈaʊt/ *adjective* continuing for longer than you think is necessary *long, drawn-out negotiations*

dread¹ /dred/ *verb* **1** [**T**] to feel worried or frightened about something that has not happened yet *I'm dreading the first day at my new school.* [**+ doing sth**] *I dread seeing him again.* **2 I dread to think** *UK* used to say that you do not want

to think about something because it is too worrying *I dread to think what could have happened if we hadn't been wearing seat belts.*

dread² /dred/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] a strong feeling of fear or worry [**+ of + doing sth**] *a dread of being lonely*

dreadful /ˈdredᵊl/ *adjective* extremely bad or unpleasant *a dreadful mistake* ○ *a dreadful man*

dreadfully /ˈdredfəli/ *adverb* **1** VERY *mainly UK formal* very *I'm dreadfully sorry.* **2** VERY BADLY very badly *The children behaved dreadfully.*

dreadlocks /ˈdredlɒks/ *noun* [**plural**] a hairstyle in which the hair is twisted together in lengths and is never brushed

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***dream***

have a dream ● **in** sb's dream ● a **bad** dream ● a **recurring** dream

O-K **dream¹** /driːm/ *noun* **1** SLEEP [**C**] a series of events and images that happen in your mind while you are sleeping *a **bad dream*** ○ *I **had** a very strange **dream** last night.* **2** HOPE [**C**] something that you want to happen although it is not very likely *It was his dream to become an actor.* **3 be in a dream** *UK* to not notice things that are around you because you are thinking about something else **4 beyond your wildest dreams** bigger or better than anything you could imagine or hope for **5 like a dream** If something or someone does something like a dream, they do it very well.

O-K **dream²** /driːm/ *verb past* **dreamed** or **dreamt** **1** SLEEP [**I, T**] to experience events and images in your mind while you are sleeping [**+ (that)**] *Last night I dreamed that I was flying.* **2** IMAGINE [**I, T**] to imagine something that you would like to happen [**+ of + doing sth**] *I dream of living on a desert island.* [**+ (that)**] *He **never dreamed** that one day he would become President.* **3 wouldn't dream of doing sth** used to say that you would not do something because you think it is wrong or silly
dream sth up *phrasal verb* to think of an idea or plan, usually using a lot of imagination *Who dreams up these new designs?*

dream³ /driːm/ *adjective* **dream house/job/car, etc** the perfect house/job/car, etc

dreamer /ˈdriːməʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is not practical and thinks about things that are not likely to happen

dreamy /ˈdriːmi/ *adjective* **1** DREAMING seeming to be in a dream and thinking about pleasant things instead of what is happening around you *She had a dreamy look in her eyes.* **2** PLEASANT very pleasant *a dreamy dessert* ●**dreamily** *adverb*

dreary /ˈdrɪəri/ *adjective* boring and making you feel unhappy *a rainy, dreary day* ○ *a dreary job*

dredge /dredʒ/ *verb* [**T**] to clean the bottom of a lake or river by removing dirt, plants, or rubbish
dredge sth up *phrasal verb* to talk about something bad or unpleasant that happened in the past

dregs /dregz/ *noun* **1** FOOD [**plural**] the part of a drink at the bottom of a glass or other container that usually contains small solid bits **2 the dregs of society/humanity** people who you think are extremely bad or unimportant

drench /drenʃ/ *verb* [**T**] to make something or someone completely wet [**often passive**] *He was completely drenched by the time he got home.*

O-K **dress¹** /dres/ *verb* **1** PUT ON CLOTHES [**I, T**] to put clothes on yourself or someone else *I usually **get dressed** before having breakfast.* ➲Opposite **undress** **2** STYLE [**I**] to wear a particular type, style, or colour of clothes *Ali always dresses smartly for work.* [**often passive**] *She was **dressed in** black.* **3 dress a burn/cut/wound, etc** HEALTH to clean an injury and put a covering over it to protect it
dress up *phrasal verb* **1** FORMAL to put on formal clothes for a special occasion **2** SPECIAL to wear special clothes in order to change your appearance, usually for a game or party *He **dressed up as** Superman for the party.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

be/get dressed

Be careful to use the correct preposition. You do not always need one.

I got dressed and went to school.

Are you dressed yet?

*He was **dressed in** a black suit.*

~~*He was dressed with a black suit.*~~

O-K **dress²** /dres/ *noun* **1** CLOTHING [**C**] a piece of clothing for women or girls which covers the top of the body and hangs down over the legs *She was wearing a short, black dress.* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 **2** STYLE [**U**] a particular style of clothes *casual/formal dress* ➲See also: **fancy dress**

dresser /ˈdresəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BEDROOM *mainly US* a piece of bedroom furniture with a mirror and drawers for keeping clothes in **2** KITCHEN *UK* a piece of furniture consisting of a cupboard with shelves above for keeping plates, cups, and other kitchen equipment

dressing /ˈdresɪŋ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [**C, U**] a sauce, especially a mixture of oil and vinegar for salad **2** HEALTH [**C**] a covering that protects an injury

ˈdressing ˌgown *UK* (*US* **robe**) *noun* [**C**] a piece of clothing, like a long coat, that you wear at home when you are not dressed

ˈdressing ˌroom *noun* [**C**] a room where actors or sports teams get dressed before a performance or game

ˈdressing ˌtable *noun* [**C**] *mainly UK* a piece of bedroom furniture like a table with a mirror and drawers

dressy /ˈdresi/ *adjective* Dressy clothes are suitable for a formal occasion.

drew /druː/ *past tense of* draw

dribble /ˈdrɪbl/ *verb* **1** MOUTH [**I**] If someone dribbles, a small amount of liquid comes out of their mouth and goes down their face. *Babies dribble a lot.* **2** LIQUID [**I, T**] If a liquid dribbles, it falls slowly in small amounts, and if

you dribble a liquid, you pour it so it falls slowly in small amounts. *Dribble some oil over the vegetables.* **3** SPORT [I, T] to move a ball along by using your hand to hit it against the ground or kicking it several times ●**dribble** *noun* [C, U]

dried /draɪd/ *past of* dry

drier /ˈdraɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] *another spelling of* dryer (= a machine for drying wet things)

D

drift¹ /drɪft/ *verb* **1 drift across/down/towards, etc** to be moved slowly somewhere by currents of wind or water *Smoke drifted across the rooftops.* **2 drift in/out/into, etc** to move somewhere slowly *Guests were drifting out onto the terrace.* **3** SITUATION [I] to get into a situation or job without having any particular plan *He **drifted into** acting after university.* **4** SNOW [I] If snow or leaves drift, they are blown into piles by the wind.
drift apart *phrasal verb* If two people drift apart, they gradually become less friendly and the relationship ends.
drift off *phrasal verb* to gradually start to sleep *I drifted off during the lecture.*

drift² /drɪft/ *noun* **1** MOVE [C] slow, gradual movement from one place to another *the drift of people into Western Europe* **2 catch/get sb's drift** to understand the general meaning of what someone is saying **3** PILE [C] a pile of snow or leaves that has been blown somewhere

drill¹ /drɪl/ *noun* **1** TOOL [C] a tool or machine for making holes in a hard substance *an electric drill* **2 EDUCATION** [C, U] a teaching method in which students repeat something several times to help them learn it *We do lots of drills to practise pronunciation.* **3 an emergency/fire, etc drill** when you practise what to do in an emergency/fire, etc **4** SOLDIERS [C, U] when soldiers do training for marching

drill² /drɪl/ *verb* **1** MAKE HOLE [I, T] to make a hole in a hard substance using a special tool *Billy drilled a hole in the wall.* ○ *The engineers were **drilling for** oil.* **2** PRACTISE [T] to make someone repeat something several times so that they learn it

drily /ˈdraɪli/ *adverb another spelling of* dryly (= in a serious voice but trying to be funny)

drink¹ /drɪŋk/ *verb past tense* **drank,** *past participle* **drunk 1** LIQUID [I, T] to put liquid into your mouth and swallow it *Would you like something to drink?* ○ *He was drinking a glass of milk.* **2** ALCOHOL [I] to drink alcohol, usually regularly *She doesn't smoke or drink.*
drink to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to hold your glass up before drinking from it, in order to wish someone or something good luck or success
drink (sth) up *phrasal verb* to finish your drink completely *Drink up! We've got to leave soon.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drink***

have a drink ● a drink **of** [water/milk, etc] ● a **hot/cold** drink

drink² /drɪŋk/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C] a liquid or an amount of liquid that you drink *a hot/cold drink* ○ *Can I **have a drink** of water please?* **2 FOOD** [C, U] alcohol, or an alcoholic drink *Do you fancy a drink tonight to celebrate?* ➲See also: **soft drink**

drink-driving /ˌdrɪŋkˈdraɪvɪŋ/ *UK* (*US* **drunk driving**) *noun* [U] **LAW** driving a vehicle after drinking too much alcohol *He was convicted of drink-driving.*

drinker /ˈdrɪŋkəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who regularly drinks alcohol *He's a **heavy drinker*** (= he drinks a lot of alcohol). **2 a coffee/tea/wine, etc drinker** someone who regularly drinks a particular drink

drinking /ˈdrɪŋkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone drinks alcohol

ˈdrinking ˌwater *noun* [U] water that is safe for people to drink

drip¹ /drɪp/ *verb* **dripping,** *past* **dripped 1** FALL [I, T] If a liquid drips, it falls in drops or you make it fall in drops. *There was water **dripping from** the ceiling.* **2** PRODUCE [I] to produce drops of liquid *The candle's dripping.*

drip² /drɪp/ *noun* **1** DROP [C] a drop of liquid that falls from something **2** SOUND [**no plural**] the sound or action of a liquid falling in drops **3 HEALTH** [C] *UK* (*US* **IV**) a piece of medical equipment used for putting liquids into your body *The doctor's put him **on a drip**.*

drive¹ /draɪv/ *verb past tense* **drove,** *past participle* **driven 1** CONTROL VEHICLE [I, T] to make a car, bus, or train move, and control what it does *She's learning to drive.* ○ *He drives a red sports car.* **2** TRAVEL [I, T] to travel somewhere in a car, or to take someone somewhere in a car *My friend drove me home last night.* **3 drive sb out/away/from, etc** to force someone to leave a place *The supermarket has driven many small shops out of the area.* **4 drive sb crazy/mad/wild, etc** to make someone feel crazy, annoyed, or excited *That noise is driving me mad.* **5 drive sb to sth; drive sb to do sth** to make someone have a bad feeling or do something bad *The arguments and violence drove her to leave home.* **6 drive sth into/through/towards, etc** to push something somewhere by hitting it hard *He drove the nail into the wall with a hammer.* **7** MAKE WORK [T] to provide the power or energy that makes someone or something work [**often passive**] *She was driven by greed and ambition.* ➲See also: drive/send sb round the **bend²**, drive sb up the **wall**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

drive or ride?

You **drive** a car, truck, or bus.

She drives an expensive sports car.

You **ride** a bicycle, motorcycle, or horse.

My brother is learning to ride a bicycle.

~~*My brother is learning to drive a bicycle.*~~

be driving at sth *phrasal verb* used to ask what someone really means *Just what are you driving at?*
drive off *phrasal verb* to leave in a car

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drive***

go for a drive

drive² /draɪv/ *noun* **1** JOURNEY [C] a journey in a car *The drive from Boston to New York took 4 hours.* **2** GROUND [C] the area of ground that you drive on to get from your house to the road

You can park on the drive. **3** COMPUTING [C] a part of a computer thatcan read or store information *a DVD drive* ○ *Save your work on the C: drive.* **4** EFFORT [C] when someone makes a great effort to achieve something [+ **to do sth**] *The government started a drive to improve standards in schools.* **5** ENERGY [U] energy and determination to achieve things *She has drive and ambition.*

drive-by /ˈdraɪvbaɪ/ *adjective* describes something that someone does when they are inside a vehicle that is moving *a drive-by shooting*

drive-in /ˈdraɪvɪn/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a cinema or restaurant that you can visit without getting out of your car

drivel /ˈdrɪvᵊl/ *noun* [U] nonsense *He was talking complete drivel.*

driven /ˈdrɪvᵊn/ *past participle of* drive

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***driver***

a **bus/taxi/train/truck** driver ● the driver **of** sth

driver /ˈdraɪvᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who drives a vehicle *a **bus/train driver*** ➲See also: **engine driver**

ˈdriver's ˌlicense *US* (*UK* **driving licence**) *noun* [C] an official document that allows you to drive a car

drive-through /ˈdraɪvθruː/ *noun* [C] a place where you can get a type of service by driving through, without needing to get out of your car *a drive-through restaurant*

driveway /ˈdraɪvweɪ/ *noun* [C] the area of ground that you drive on to get from your house to the road

driving¹ /ˈdraɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when you drive a car, or the way someone drives

driving² /ˈdraɪvɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 driving rain/snow** rain or snow that is falling very fast and being blown by the wind **2 the driving force** a person or thing that has a very strong effect and makes something happen *She was **the driving force behind** the project.*

ˈdriving ˌlicence *UK* (*US* **driver's license**) *noun* [C] an official document that allows you to drive a car

drizzle /ˈdrɪzl/ *noun* [U] light rain ●**drizzle** *verb* [I]

drone¹ /drəʊn/ *verb* [I] to make a continuous, low sound, like an engine *I could hear traffic droning in the distance.*
drone on *phrasal verb* to talk for a long time in a very boring way *I wish he'd stop **droning on about** school.*

drool /druːl/ *verb* [I] If a person or animal drools, liquid comes out of the side of their mouth.
drool over sb/sth *phrasal verb* to look at someone or something in a way that shows you think they are very attractive

droop /druːp/ *verb* [I] to hang down, often because of being weak, tired, or unhappy *He was tired and his eyelids were starting to droop.*

drop¹ /drɒp/ *verb* **dropping,** *past* **dropped 1** LET FALL [T] to let something you are carrying fall to the ground *She tripped and dropped the vase.* **2** FALL [I] to fall *The ball dropped to the ground.* **3** BECOME LESS [I] If a level or amount drops, it becomes less. *Unemployment has **dropped from** 8% to 6% in the last year.* **4** TAKE [T] (*also* **drop off**) to take someone or something to a place, usually by car as you travel somewhere else *I can drop you at the station on my way to work.* **5** STOP ACTIVITY [T] If you drop a plan, activity, or idea, you stop doing or planning it. *Plans for a new supermarket have been dropped.* ○ *When we heard the news, we **dropped everything*** (= stopped what we were doing) *and rushed to the hospital.* **6** STOP INCLUDING [T] to decide to stop including someone in a group or team *The coach **dropped** me **from** the team.* **7 drop it/the subject** to stop talking about something, especially because it is annoying or upsetting someone **8** VOICE [I, T] If your voice drops, or if you drop your voice, you talk more quietly. ➲See also: be dropping like flies (**fly²**)
drop by/in *phrasal verb* to visit someone for a short time, usually without arranging it before *I **dropped in on** George on my way home from school.*
drop sb/sth off *phrasal verb* to take someone or something to a place, usually by car as you travel somewhere else
drop off *phrasal verb* **1** SLEEP *informal* to start to sleep *She dropped off in front of the TV.* **2** BECOME LESS If the amount, number, or quality of something drops off, it becomes less. *The demand for mobile phones shows no signs of dropping off.*
drop out *phrasal verb* to stop doing something before you have completely finished *He **dropped out of** school at 14.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drop***

a **big/dramatic/sharp/steep** drop ● a drop **in** sth

drop² /drɒp/ *noun* **1** LIQUID [C] a small, round shaped amount of liquid *I felt a few drops of rain.* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2** REDUCTION [**no plural**] when the level or amount of something becomes less *There has been a **drop in** crime recently.* **3** SMALL AMOUNT [**no plural**] a small amount of a liquid you can drink *Would you like a drop more milk?* **4** MEASURES [**no plural**] a vertical distance down from somewhere to the ground *It's a drop of about 50 metres from the top of the cliff.*

ˈdrop-down ˌmenu *noun* [C] COMPUTING a pop-up menu: a list of choices on a computer screen which is hidden until you choose to look at it

droplet /ˈdrɒplət/ *noun* [C] a very small, round amount of liquid

dropout /ˈdrɒpaʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** STUDENT a student who leaves school or university before they have completely finished *a high-school dropout* **2** PERSON someone who does not want to have a job, possessions, etc because they do not want to be like everyone else

dropper /ˈdrɒpᵊ/ *noun* [C] a glass tube with a hollow rubber part on one end that you press to make small amounts of liquid come out

droppings /ˈdrɒpɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] solid waste from birds and some small animals *rabbit droppings*

drought /draʊt/ *noun* [**C, U**] a long period when there is no rain and people do not have enough water *A severe drought ruined the crops.*

drove /drəʊv/ *past tense of* drive

droves /drəʊvz/ *noun* **in droves** If people do something in droves, they do it in large numbers.

D

drown /draʊn/ *verb* **1** DIE [**I, T**] to die because you are under water and cannot breathe, or to kill someone in this way *Two people drowned in a boating accident yesterday.* **2** COVER [**T**] (*also* **drown out**) If a loud noise drowns the sound of something else, it prevents that sound from being heard. *His voice was drowned out by the traffic.*

drowning /ˈdraʊnɪŋ/ *noun* [**C, U**] when someone dies because they are under water and cannot breathe

drowsy /ˈdraʊzi/ *adjective* feeling tired and wanting to sleep *The sun was making me drowsy.* ●**drowsily** *adverb* ●**drowsiness** *noun* [**U**]

drudgery /ˈdrʌdʒᵊri/ *noun* [**U**] work that is very boring

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***drug***

be on/take/use drugs ● drug **abuse/addiction** ● a drug **addict/dealer/user**

drug¹ /drʌg/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HEALTH an illegal substance that people take to make them feel happy [**usually plural**] *He started **taking/using drugs** such as heroin and cocaine.* ○ *Greg is **on drugs*** (= he uses drugs regularly). ○ ***a drug dealer*** **2** HEALTH, CHEMISTRY a chemical substance used as a medicine *Scientists are developing a new drug to treat cancer.* ➲See also: **hard drugs**

drug² /drʌg/ *verb* [**T**] **drugging,** *past* **drugged** HEALTH to give someone a chemical substance that makes them sleep or stop feeling pain *He drugged his victims before robbing them.*

ˈdrug ˌaddict *noun* [**C**] HEALTH someone who cannot stop taking drugs

drugstore /ˈdrʌgstɔːr/ *US* (*UK* **chemist's**) *noun* [**C**] a shop that sells medicines and also things such as soap and beauty products

drum¹ /drʌm/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MUSIC a round, hollow, musical instrument that you hit with your hands or with sticks *Anna **plays the drums**.* **2** a large, round container for holding substances such as oil or chemicals

drum² /drʌm/ *verb* [**I, T**] **drumming,** *past* **drummed** to hit something several times and make a sound like a drum, or to make something do this *the sound of rain drumming on the roof* ○ *She drummed her fingers nervously on the desk.*
drum sth into sb *phrasal verb* to make someone remember or believe an idea or fact by repeating it to them many times [**often passive**] *The importance of good manners was drummed into me by my father.*
drum up sth *phrasal verb* to increase interest in something or support for something *He was trying to **drum up** some **enthusiasm** for his idea.*

drumlin /ˈdrʌmlɪn/ *noun* [**C**] GEOGRAPHY a small hill formed by a glacier (= mass of ice), usually with an oval shape and found in groups

drummer /ˈdrʌməʳ/ *noun* [**C**] MUSIC someone who plays a drum

drunk¹ /drʌŋk/ *adjective* unable to behave or speak normally because you have drunk too much alcohol *He usually **gets drunk** at parties.*

drunk² /drʌŋk/ *past participle of* drink

drunken /ˈdrʌŋkən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] drunk, or involving people who are drunk *a drunken man* ○ *drunken behaviour* ●**drunkenly** *adverb* ●**drunkenness** *noun* [**U**]

dry¹ /draɪ/ *adjective* **drier**, **driest** or **dryer**, **dryest** **1** NOT WET Something that is dry does not have water or liquid in it or on its surface. *dry paint* ○ *Is your hair dry yet?* **2** NO RAIN with no or not much rain *a dry summer* **3** HAIR/SKIN Dry skin or hair does not feel soft or smooth. *My lips feel really dry.* **4** FOOD Dry wine is not sweet. **5** BORING If a book, talk, or subject is dry, it is not interesting. **6** FUNNY saying something in a serious way but trying to be funny *a dry sense of humour* ●**dryness** /ˈdraɪnəs/ *noun* [**U**]

dry² /draɪ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become dry, or to make something become dry *He dried his hands on a towel.* ➲See also: **blow-dry**
dry (sb/sth) off *phrasal verb* to make someone or something dry, or to become dry, especially on the surface [**often reflexive**] *I dried myself off with a towel and got dressed.*
dry (sth) out *phrasal verb* to become dry, or to make something become dry
dry (sth) up *phrasal verb mainly UK* to make plates, cups, etc dry with a cloth after they have been washed
dry up *phrasal verb* **1** END If a supply of something dries up, it ends. *The work dried up and he went out of business.* **2** WATER If a river or lake dries up, the water in it disappears.

ˌdry ˈclean *verb* [**T**] to clean clothes using a special chemical and not with water ●**dry cleaner's** *noun* [**C**] a shop where you can have your clothes cleaned this way ●**dry cleaning** *noun* [**U**]

dryer (*also* **drier**) /ˈdraɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a machine for drying wet things, usually clothes or hair ➲See also: **tumble dryer**

dryly (*also* **drily**) /ˈdraɪli/ *adverb* If you say something dryly, you say it in a serious way but you are trying to be funny.

dual /ˈdjuːəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having two parts, or having two of something *dual nationality*

ˌdual ˈcarriageway *noun* [**C**] *UK* a road that consists of two parallel roads, so that traffic travelling in opposite directions is separated by a central strip of land

dub /dʌb/ *verb* [**T**] **dubbing,** *past* **dubbed** **1** NAME to give someone or something an unofficial or funny name [**often passive**] *He was dubbed 'Big Ears' by the media.* **2** LANGUAGE to change the language in a film or television programme into a different language [**often passive**] *The film was **dubbed into** English.*

dubious /ˈdjuːbiəs/ *adjective* **1** NOT TRUE thought not to be completely true, honest, or

legal *dubious evidence* ○ *a man with a dubious reputation* **2** DOUBTING not certain that something is good or true *He's* ***dubious about*** *the benefits of acupuncture.* ●**dubiously** *adverb*

duchess /ˈdʌtʃɪs/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a woman of very high social rank in some European countries *the Duchess of Windsor*

duck¹ /dʌk/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a bird with short legs that lives in or near water, or the meat from this bird ➲See also: be (like) **water**¹ off a duck's back

duck² /dʌk/ *verb* **1** MOVE [I, T] to move your head or body down quickly to avoid being hit or seen *Billy ducked behind a car when he saw his teacher.* **2** AVOID [T] *informal* to avoid something that is difficult or unpleasant *He managed to* ***duck*** *the* ***issue.***
duck out of sth *phrasal verb* to avoid doing something that other people are expecting you to do [+ **doing sth**] She was trying to duck out of doing her homework.

duct /dʌkt/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a tube in the body that a liquid substance can flow through *a* ***tear duct*** **2** a tube or passage for air or wires that is part of the structure of a building *a heating duct*

ductile /ˈdʌk.taɪl/ (US) /-tɪl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** Ductile metals bend easily. ●**ductility** /dʌkˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U]

dud /dʌd/ *noun* [C] something that does not work correctly ●**dud** *adjective*

O-K **due¹** /djuː/ *adjective* **1** EVENT [**never before noun**] expected or planned [+ **to do sth**] *He was due to fly back this morning.* ○ *Her book is* ***due out*** (= expected to be published) *next week.* ○ *When is the baby due* (= expected to be born)? **2 due to sth** because of something *The train was late due to snow.* **3 FINANCE** [**never before noun**] Money that is due is owed to someone and must be paid. *The rent is due today.* **4** DESERVE Something that is due to you is something that is owed to you or something you deserve. *He didn't get the praise and recognition that was* ***due to*** *him.* **5** BEHAVIOUR [**always before noun**] *formal* correct and suitable *He was fined for driving without due care and attention.* ➲Opposite **undue 6 be due for sth** If you are due for something, it should happen very soon. *I'm due for a check-up at the dentist's.*

due² /djuː/ *noun* **give sb their due** something that you say when you want to describe someone's good qualities after they have done something wrong or after you have criticized them *Joe's a bit slow but, to give him his due, he does work hard.*

due³ /djuː/ *adverb* **due east/north/south/west, etc** directly east/north/south/west, etc *sail/fly due south*

duel /ˈdjuːəl/ *noun* [C] **1** FIGHT a type of fight in the past between two people with weapons, used as a way of deciding an argument *He challenged him to a duel.* **2** ARGUMENT/COMPETITION an argument or competition between two people or groups

dues /djuːz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** money that you must pay to be a member of an organization *annual dues*

duet /djuˈet/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of music for two people to perform together

dug /dʌg/ *past of* dig

duke /djuːk/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a man of very high social rank in some parts of Europe *the Duke of Beaufort*

dull¹ /dʌl/ *adjective* **1** BORING not interesting *a dull place* ○ *a dull person* **2** NOT BRIGHT not bright *dull colours* ○ *dull weather* **3** SOUND A dull sound is not loud or clear. *a dull thud* **4** PAIN [**always before noun**] A dull pain is not strong. *a dull ache* ●**dullness** *noun* [U] ●**dully** *adverb*

dull² /dʌl/ *verb* [T] to make a feeling or quality become less strong *He's on morphine to dull the pain.*

duly /ˈdjuːli/ *adverb formal* at the correct time, in the correct way, or as you would expect *I ordered it over the Internet and within a few days, it duly arrived.* ○ *I was duly impressed.*

dumb /dʌm/ *adjective* **1** STUPID *mainly US informal* stupid *a dumb idea/question* ○ *He's too dumb to understand.* **2** UNABLE TO TALK physically unable to talk **3 be struck dumb** to be unable to speak because you are so shocked or angry ●**dumbly** *adverb*

dumbfounded /ˌdʌmˈfaʊndɪd/ *adjective* extremely surprised

ˌdumb ˈterminal *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer terminal that is used to enter or read information, but does not have many of the functions of a normal terminal and cannot work on its own

dummy¹ /ˈdʌmi/ *noun* [C] **1** BABY EQUIPMENT *UK* (*US* **pacifier**) a small, rubber object that a baby sucks to stop it crying **2** STUPID PERSON *mainly US informal* a stupid person *She's no dummy.* **3** MODEL a model of a person

dummy² /ˈdʌmi/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not real but made to look real *dummy weapons*

dump¹ /dʌmp/ *verb* **1** [T] to put something somewhere to get rid of it, especially in a place where you should not put it *The company was fined for illegally dumping toxic chemicals.* **2 dump sth on/in/down, etc** to put something somewhere quickly and carelessly *Henri dumped his bag on the table and went upstairs.*

dump² /dʌmp/ (*also UK* **tip**) *noun* [C] **1** WASTE a place where people take things that they do not want *We took our old mattress to the dump.* **2** UNTIDY PLACE *informal* a place that is dirty and untidy *His room is a dump.*

dumpling /ˈdʌmplɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a round mixture of fat and flour that has been cooked in boiling liquid *stew and dumplings*

dumps /dʌmps/ *noun* **be down in the dumps** *informal* to be unhappy *He looks a bit down in the dumps.*

Dumpster /ˈdʌmpstəʳ/ *US trademark* (*UK* **skip**) *noun* [C] a very large, metal container for big pieces of rubbish

dumpy /ˈdʌmpi/ *adjective informal* short and fat

dune /djuːn/ (*also* **sand dune**) *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a hill of sand in the desert or on the coast

dung /dʌŋ/ *noun* [U] FARMING solid waste from a large animal

dungarees /ˌdʌŋgəˈriːz/ *UK* (*US* **overalls**) *noun* [**plural**] trousers with a part that covers your chest and straps that go over your shoulders

dungeon /ˈdʌndʒᵊn/ *noun* [C] a dark, underground prison, used in the past

dunk /dʌŋk/ *verb* [T] to quickly put something into liquid and take it out again *He dunked the roll in his soup.*

dunno /dəˈnəʊ/ *informal* **I dunno** I do not know.

duo /ˈdjuːəʊ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC two people who perform together *a **comedy/pop duo***

duodecimal /ˌdjuːəʊˈdesɪməl/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS using a system of counting based on the number 12

duodenum /ˌdjuːəʊˈdiːnəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **duodenums** or **duodena** ANATOMY the first part of the small intestine (= upper part of the bowels) just below the stomach ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

dupe /djuːp/ *verb* [T] to trick someone [**often passive + into + doing sth**] *He was duped into paying $4000 for a fake painting.*

duplicate¹ /ˈdjuːplɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** COPY to make an exact copy of something *The document has been duplicated.* **2** DO THE SAME to do something that has already been done, in exactly the same way *Ajax hope to duplicate last year's success.* ●**duplication** /ˌdjuːplɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

duplicate² /ˈdjuːplɪkət/ *noun* **1** [C] something that is an exact copy of something else *I lost my passport and had to get a duplicate.* **2 in duplicate** If a document is in duplicate, there are two copies of it. ●**duplicate** *adjective a duplicate key*

duplicity /djuˈplɪsəti/ *noun* [U] when you dishonestly tell different people different things

durable /ˈdjʊərəbl/ *adjective* remaining in good condition for a long time *durable goods* ○ *a fabric that is comfortable and durable* ●**durability** /ˌdjʊərəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

Duralumin /djʊəˈræljʊmɪn/ *noun* [U] *trademark* a strong, light metal containing aluminium, used to make aircraft

duration /djʊəˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *formal* the amount of time that something lasts *The singer remained in the hotel **for the duration of** his stay in the UK.*

duress /djʊˈres/ *noun formal* **under duress** If you do something under duress, you do it because someone is forcing you to. *a confession made under duress*

during /ˈdjʊərɪŋ/ *preposition* **1** WHOLE TIME for the whole of a period of time *Emma's usually at home during the day.* **2** MOMENT IN TIME at a particular moment in a period of time *We'll arrange a meeting some time during the week.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

during or **for?**

Use **during** to talk about a period of time when something happens.

I'm at work during the day, so it's better to phone in the evening.

Please don't take photos during the performance.

Use **for** to say how long something happens or continues, for example 'for two hours', 'for three days'.

I've been in Cambridge for six months now.

We waited for an hour and then left.

~~*We waited during an hour and then left.*~~

dusk /dʌsk/ *noun* [U] the time in the evening when it starts to become dark *As **dusk fell**, we headed back to the hotel.*

dust¹ /dʌst/ *noun* [U] **1** a powder of dirt or soil that you see on a surface or in the air *He drove off in a cloud of dust.* **2 bite the dust** *informal* to die, fail, or stop existing **3 the dust settles** If the dust settles after an argument or big change, the situation becomes calmer. *Let the dust settle a bit before you make any decisions about the future.*

dust² /dʌst/ *verb* [I, T] to remove dust from something *I tidied and dusted the shelves.*

dustbin /ˈdʌstbɪn/ *UK* (*US* **garbage can**) *noun* [C] a large container for rubbish kept outside your house

duster /ˈdʌstəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a cloth used for removing dust (= powder of dirt) from furniture and other objects

dustman /ˈdʌstmən/ *UK* (*US* **garbage man**) *noun* [C] *plural UK* **dustmen** someone whose job is to remove rubbish from containers outside people's houses

dustpan /ˈdʌstpæn/ *noun* [C] a flat container with a handle, used with a brush for removing dirt from a floor *Get the **dustpan and brush** and I'll sweep this up.*

dusty /ˈdʌsti/ *adjective* covered with dust (= powder of dirt) *a dusty old chair* ○ *dusty streets*

dutiful /ˈdjuːtɪfᵊl/ *adjective* doing everything that you should do in your position or job *a dutiful son* ●**dutifully** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***duty***

have/neglect/perform a duty ● a duty **to/towards** sb

duty /ˈdjuːti/ *noun* [C, U] **1** RIGHT THING TO DO something you must do because it is morally or legally right *a **moral duty*** [**+ to do sth**] *Rail companies **have a duty** to provide safe transport.* **2** JOB something you do as part of your job or because of your position *professional/official duties* **3 on/off duty** If a doctor, police officer, etc is on duty, they are working, and if they are off duty, they are not working. **4** FINANCE tax that you pay on something you buy

duty-free /ˌdjuːtiˈfriː/ *adjective* FINANCE Duty-free goods are things that you can buy and bring into a country without paying tax.

duvet /ˈdjuːveɪ/ (US) /duːˈveɪ/ *UK* (*US* **comforter**) *noun* [C] a cover filled with feathers or warm material that you sleep under

DVD /ˌdiːviːˈdiː/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* digital versatile disc: a small disc for storing music, films and information *a **DVD player/drive*** ○ *Is this film available **on DVD**?*

dwarf¹ /dwɔːf/ *noun* [C] **1** CREATURE an imaginary creature like a little man, in children's stories *Snow White and the Seven Dwarves* **2** PERSON an offensive word for someone who is very short ●**dwarf** *adjective* A dwarf animal or plant is much smaller than the normal size.

dwarf² /dwɔːf/ *verb* [T] If something dwarfs other things, it is very big and makes them seem small. [**often passive**] *The hotel is dwarfed by skyscrapers.*

dwell /dwel/ *verb past* **dwelt** or **dwelled dwell in/among/with, etc** *literary* to live somewhere **dwell on/upon sth** *phrasal verb* to keep thinking or talking about something, especially something bad or unpleasant *I don't want to* ***dwell on the past.***

dweller /ˈdwelə^{r}/ *noun* **an apartment/city/country, etc dweller** someone who lives in an apartment/city/the country, etc

dwelling /ˈdwelɪŋ/ *noun* [C] *formal* a house or place to live in

dwindle /ˈdwɪndl/ *verb* [I] to become smaller or less *The number of students in the school has* ***dwindled to*** *200.* ○ *Our savings slowly* ***dwindled away.*** ○ ***dwindling supplies*** *of oil*

dye¹ /daɪ/ *noun* [C, U] **DT** a substance that is used to change the colour of something

dye² /daɪ/ *verb* [T] **DT dyeing,** *past* **dyed** to change the colour of something by using a dye *He dyed his hair pink last week.*

dying /ˈdaɪɪŋ/ *present participle of* die

dyke (*also* **dike**) /daɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** WALL a wall built to stop water from a sea or river going onto the land **2** PASSAGE *UK* a passage that has been dug to take water away from fields

dynamic /daɪˈnæmɪk/ *adjective* **1** ACTIVE full of ideas, energy, and enthusiasm *a dynamic, young teacher* ○ *dynamic leadership* **2** CHANGING continuously changing or moving *a dynamic economy* **3** PRODUCING MOVEMENT A dynamic force makes something move. ●**dynamically** *adverb*

dy,namic equiˈlibrium *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** when two opposite chemical reactions happen at the same speed

dynamics /daɪˈnæmɪks/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] the way that parts of a situation, group, or system affect each other *political dynamics* ○ *The* ***dynamics of*** *family life have changed greatly.* **2 PHYSICS** [U] the scientific study of the movement of objects

dynamism /ˈdaɪnəmɪz^{ə}m/ *noun* [U] the quality of being dynamic

dynamite /ˈdaɪnəmaɪt/ *noun* [U] **1** EXPLOSIVE a type of explosive *a stick of dynamite* **2** PERSON/THING *informal* someone or something that is very exciting, powerful, or dangerous *an issue that is political dynamite*

dynamo /ˈdaɪnəməʊ/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a device which changes energy of movement into electrical energy

dynasty /ˈdɪnəsti/ (US) /ˈdaɪnəsti/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a series of rulers who are all from the same family *the Ming dynasty*

dysentery /ˈdɪs^{ə}nt^{ə}ri/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an infectious disease which causes severe problems with the bowels, making solid waste become liquid

dysfunctional /dɪsˈfʌŋkʃ^{ə}n^{ə}l/ *adjective formal* not behaving, working, or happening in the way that most people think is normal *a* ***dysfunctional family/childhood***

dyslexia /dɪˈsleksiə/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** a condition affecting the brain that makes it difficult for someone to read and write ●**dyslexic** /dɪˈsleksɪk/ *adjective* having dyslexia

D

Ee

E, e /iː/ the fifth letter of the alphabet

e- /iː-/ *prefix* **INTERNET** electronic, usually relating to the Internet *an e-ticket* ○ *e-commerce*

each /iːtʃ/ *pronoun, determiner* every one in a group of two or more things or people when they are considered separately *A player from **each of** the teams volunteered to be captain.* ○ *The bill is £36 between the four of us, that's £9 each.*

ˌeach ˈother *pronoun* used to show that each person in a group of two or more people does something to the others *The kids are always arguing with each other.*

eager /ˈiːgəʳ/ *adjective* wanting to do or have something very much [+ **to do sth**] *Sam was eager to go home and play on his computer.* ●**eagerly** *adverb an **eagerly awaited** announcement* ●**eagerness** *noun* [U]

eagle /ˈiːgl/ *noun* [C] a large, wild bird with a big, curved beak, that hunts smaller animals

ear /ɪəʳ/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [C] one of the two organs on your head that you hear with *The child whispered something in her mother's ear.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** **BIOLOGY** [C] the top part of some crop plants, which produces grain *an ear of wheat/corn* **3 have an ear for sth** to be good at hearing, repeating, or understanding a particular type of sound *He has no ear for music.* **4 fall on deaf ears** If advice or a request falls on deaf ears, people ignore it. **5 play it by ear** to decide how to deal with a situation as it develops **6 play sth by ear** to play a piece of music by remembering the notes

earache /ˈɪəreɪk/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** pain in your ear *I've got (UK) earache/ (US) an earache.*

eardrum /ˈɪədrʌm/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a part inside your ear made of thin, tight skin that allows you to hear sounds

earl /ɜːl/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a man of high social rank in the UK *the Earl of Northumberland*

earlobe /ˈɪələʊb/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the soft part at the bottom of your ear

early /ˈɜːli/ *adjective, adverb* **earlier**, **earliest** **1** BEGINNING near the beginning of a period of time, process, etc *the early 1980s* ○ *It is too early to say whether he will recover completely.* **2** BEFORE before the usual time or the time that was arranged *early retirement* ○ *The plane arrived ten minutes early.* **3 at the earliest** used after a time or date to show that something will not happen before then *Building will not begin until July at the earliest.* **4 early on** in the first stage or part of something *I lost interest quite early on in the book.* ➲See also: it's early days (**day**)

earmark /ˈɪəmɑːk/ *verb* [T] to decide that something, especially money, will be used for a particular purpose [**often passive**] *More than $7 million has been **earmarked for** schools in the area.* ○ *The land is earmarked for development.*

earn /ɜːn/ *verb* **1** **FINANCE** [I, T] to get money for doing work *She earns more than £40,000 a year.* **2** **FINANCE** **earn a/your living** to work to get money for the things you need **3** **FINANCE** [T] to get something that you deserve because of your work, qualities, etc *As a teacher you have to earn the respect of your students.* **4** PROFIT [T] to make a profit *an account that earns a high rate of interest*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***earner***

high/low/top earners ● **wage** earners

earner /ˈɜːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who earns money *a **high earner*** **2** PRODUCT *UK informal* a product or service that earns you money *She has a **nice little earner** making curtains.*

earnest /ˈɜːnɪst/ *adjective* **1** very serious and sincere *an earnest young man* ○ *an earnest effort* **2 in earnest** If something begins to happen in earnest, it really starts to happen in a serious way. *The research will **begin in earnest** early next year.* **3 be in earnest** to be very serious about something and mean what you are saying ●**earnestly** *adverb* ●**earnestness** *noun* [U]

earnings /ˈɜːnɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** money that you get from working

earphones /ˈɪəfəʊnz/ *noun* [plural] a piece of electronic equipment that you put on your ears so that you can listen privately to radio, recorded music, etc

earring /ˈɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a piece of jewellery that you wear on or through your ear [**usually plural**] *diamond earrings*

earshot /ˈɪəʃɒt/ *noun* **be out of/within earshot** If you are out of earshot, you are too far away to hear something, and if you are within earshot, you are close enough to hear something.

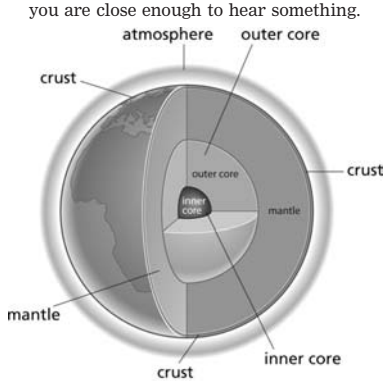

Earth

earth /ɜːθ/ *noun* **1** **ASTRONOMY, GEOGRAPHY** [**no plural**] (*also* **the Earth**) the planet that we live on ➲See picture at **solar system** **2** SUBSTANCE [U] soil or ground *a mound of earth* **3** **PHYSICS** [C] *UK* (*US* **ground**) a wire that makes electrical equipment safer **4 cost/charge, etc the earth** *UK informal* to cost/charge, etc an extremely large

amount of money **5 come (back) down to earth** to start dealing with life and problems again after you have had a very exciting time **6 how/what/why, etc on earth?** *informal* used when you are extremely surprised, confused, or angry about something *Why on earth didn't you tell me before?*

earthly /ˈɜːθli/ *adjective* **1 no earthly doubt/reason/use, etc** used to emphasize that there is not any doubt/reason/use, etc *There's no earthly reason why you should feel guilty.* **2** *literary* relating to this world and not any spiritual life *earthly powers*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***earthquake***

an earthquake **hits/strikes** [a place] ● a **devastating/major/massive/powerful** earthquake

earthquake /ˈɜːθkweɪk/ *noun* [C] GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY a sudden movement of the Earth's surface, often causing severe damage *A powerful **earthquake struck** eastern Turkey last night.*

earthy /ˈɜːθi/ *adjective* **1** DIRECT referring to sex and the human body in a direct way *earthy jokes* **2** LIKE SOIL similar to soil in colour, smell, or taste

earwig /ˈɪəwɪg/ *noun* [C] a small dark-brown insect with two curved parts on its tail

ease¹ /iːz/ *noun* **1** [U] If you do something with ease, it is very easy for you to do it. *Gary passed his exams **with ease**.* ○ *I'm amazed at **the ease with which** he learnt the language.* **2 at ease** feeling relaxed and comfortable *I felt completely at ease with him.* **3 ill at ease** feeling anxious

ease² /iːz/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to become less severe, or to make something become less severe *The new road should ease traffic problems in the village.* **2 ease sb/sth back/out/up, etc** to move someone or something gradually and gently to another position [**often reflexive**] *Tom eased himself back in his chair.*
ease off/up *phrasal verb* **1** STOP to gradually stop or become less *The storm is easing off.* **2** WORK LESS to start to work less or do things with less energy *As he got older, he started to ease up a little.* **3** TREAT LESS SEVERELY to start to treat someone less severely *I wish his supervisor would **ease up on** him a bit.*

easel /ˈiːzᵊl/ *noun* [C] ART something used to support a painting while you paint it

easily /ˈiːzɪli/ *adverb* **1** EASY with no difficulty *She makes friends easily.* **2** LIKELY used to emphasize that something is likely *A comment like that could easily be misunderstood.* **3 easily the best/worst/biggest, etc** certainly the best/worst/biggest, etc

east, East /iːst/ *noun* **1** [U] the direction that you face to see the sun rise *Which way's east?* **2 the east** the part of an area that is further towards the east than the rest **3 the East** the countries of Asia, especially Japan and China ●**east** *adjective New York is **east of** Chicago.* ●**east** *adverb* towards the east *They sailed east.*
➲See also: **the Middle East**

Easter /ˈiːstəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] RELIGION the Christian period of celebration around Easter Sunday (= the special Sunday in March or April on which Christians celebrate Jesus Christ's return to life) *the Easter holidays*

ˈEaster ˌegg *noun* [C] a chocolate egg that people give and receive at Easter

easterly /ˈiːstᵊli/ *adjective* **1** DIRECTION towards or in the east *The river flows in an easterly direction.* **2** WIND An easterly wind comes from the east. *a strong, easterly breeze*

eastern, Eastern /ˈiːstᵊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** AREA in or from the east part of an area *eastern Europe* **2** COUNTRIES in or from the countries of Asia *Eastern philosophy*

easterner, Easterner /ˈiːstᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* someone from the east part of a country or area

ˌEaster ˈSunday (*also* **ˌEaster ˈDay**) *noun* [C, U] RELIGION the special Sunday in March or April on which Christians celebrate Jesus Christ's return to life

eastward, eastwards /ˈiːstwəd, ˈiːstwədz/ *adverb* towards the east ●**eastward** *adjective an eastward direction*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***easy***

If something is easy to do or understand, we often use the adjectives **simple** or **straightforward**: *The recipe is so **simple**, you just mix all the ingredients together.* ● *It seems like a fairly **straightforward** task.*

If a machine or system is easy to use, we often describe it as **user-friendly**: *This latest version of the software is much more **user-friendly**.*

In informal situations there are also some fixed expressions you can use to say that something is very easy to do, for example: *(UK) This machine's **a doddle** to use.* ● *My last exam was **a piece of cake**.* ● *Once we reached the main road the journey was **plain sailing**.*

easy¹ /ˈiːzi/ *adjective* **1** NOT DIFFICULT not difficult *an easy choice* ○ *He thought the exam was very easy.* [**+ to do sth**] *It's easy to see why he's so popular.* **2** RELAXED relaxed and comfortable *She has a very easy manner.* **3 I'm easy** *informal* used to say that you do not mind which choice is made *"Would you like pizza or curry?" "I'm easy. You choose."*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

easy or **easily?**

Remember, **easy** is an adjective and usually describes a noun.

an easy question

The exam was easy.

Easily is an adverb and usually describes a verb.

You should pass the exam easily.

~~*You should pass the exam easy.*~~

easy² /ˈiːzi/ *adverb* **1 take it/things easy** to relax and not use too much energy *After his heart attack, he had to take things easy for a while.* **2 go easy on sb** *informal* to treat someone in a gentle way and not be so strict *Go easy on the boy - he's only young.* **3 go easy on sth** *informal*

to not eat or use too much of something *Go easy on the chips, there aren't many left.* **4 easier said than done** used to say that something seems like a good idea but it would be difficult to do

easy-going /ˌiːziˈgəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* relaxed and not easily upset or worried

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***eat***

A more formal alternative is the verb **consume**: *He **consumes** vast quantities of bread with every meal.*

If someone eats something quickly because they are very hungry, the verb **devour** is sometimes used: *The children **devoured** a whole packet of biscuits.*

The phrasal verbs **bolt down**, **gobble up**, and **wolf down** are also used to describe the action of eating something very quickly: *He **gobbled up** his food before anyone else had started.* ● *I gave her a plate of pasta and she **wolfed** it **down**.*

The verb **scoff** (**scarf** *US*) can be used in informal situations when someone eats a lot of something very quickly: *Who **scoffed/scarfed** all the cake?*

The verb **snack** means 'to eat a little food between main meals': *I've been **snacking** on biscuits and chocolate all afternoon.*

To **eat out** is to eat in a restaurant: *I thought we could **eat out** tonight.*

The phrasal verb **pick at** is sometimes used when someone eats only a little of something: *He didn't feel hungry, and sat at the table **picking at** his food.*

The phrasal verb **tuck into** means 'to start to eat something with enthusiasm': *I was just about to **tuck into** a huge bowl of ice cream.*

eat /iːt/ *verb past tense* **ate**, *past participle* **eaten** **1** SWALLOW [**I, T**] to put food into your mouth and then swallow it *Who ate all the cake?* ○ *I haven't eaten since breakfast.* ○ *Let's have **something to eat*** (= some food). **2** MEAL [**I**] to eat a meal *We usually eat in the kitchen.* ➲See also: have your **cake** and eat it
eat away at sb *phrasal verb* If a memory or bad feeling eats away at someone, it makes them feel more and more unhappy.
eat away at sth *phrasal verb* to gradually damage or destroy something
eat into sth *phrasal verb* to use or take away a large part of something valuable, such as money or time
eat out *phrasal verb* to eat at a restaurant
➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16
eat (sth) up *phrasal verb* to eat all the food you have been given *Be a good boy and eat up your spinach.*
eat up sth *phrasal verb* to use or take away a large part of something valuable, such as money or time *Cities are eating up more and more farmland.*

eater /ˈiːtəʳ/ *noun* **a big/fussy/meat, etc eater** someone who eats in a particular way or eats a particular food

eatery /ˈiːtəʳri/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* a restaurant

ˈeating diˌsorder *noun* [**C**] HEALTH a mental illness in which someone cannot eat normal amounts of food

eaves /iːvz/ *noun* [**plural**] the edges of a roof where it is wider than the walls

eavesdrop /ˈiːvzdrɒp/ *verb* [**I**] **eavesdropping,** *past* **eavesdropped** to secretly listen to a conversation *He stood outside the door **eavesdropping on** them.* ●**eavesdropper** *noun* [**C**]

eBay /ˈiːbeɪ/ *noun* [**U**] INTERNET *trademark* a website that allows users to buy and sell things online

ebb¹ /eb/ *noun* **1 the ebb (tide)** GEOGRAPHY when the sea flows away from the land **2 be at a low ebb** If someone's enthusiasm, confidence, etc is at a low ebb, it is much less than before. *Staff morale is at a low ebb.* **3 ebb and flow** the way in which the level of something regularly becomes higher or lower in a situation *the ebb and flow of the economy*

ebb² /eb/ *verb* [**I**] **1** (*also* **ebb away**) to gradually disappear *She watched her father's life slowly ebbing away.* **2** GEOGRAPHY When the tide ebbs, the sea flows away from the land.

ebony /ˈebᵊni/ *noun* [**U**] hard black wood

ebullient /ɪˈbʊliənt/ *adjective* energetic, enthusiastic, and excited *an ebullient personality*

e-business /ˈiːbɪznɪs/ *noun* [**C, U**] INTERNET, ECONOMICS the business of buying and selling goods and services on the Internet, or a company which does this

e-cash /ˈiːkæʃ/ *noun* [**U**] INTERNET, FINANCE money in an electronic form, used for buying goods and services on the Internet

eccentric¹ /ɪkˈsentrɪk/ *adjective* behaving in a strange and unusual way *an eccentric professor* ○ *eccentric behaviour* ●**eccentrically** *adverb* ●**eccentricity** /ˌeksenˈtrɪsəti/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is eccentric

eccentric² /ɪkˈsentrɪk/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is eccentric *a harmless eccentric*

ecclesiastical /ɪˌkliːziˈæstɪkᵊl/ *adjective* RELIGION relating to the Christian Church *ecclesiastical law/history*

echelon /ˈeʃəlɒn/ *noun formal* **the lower/upper echelons** SOCIETY the people at the lower/upper level of a large organization or society *the upper echelons of government/management*

echinacea /ˌekɪˈneɪʃə/ *noun* [**U**] HEALTH a plant that is used as a medicine, especially to help your body fight illness

echinoderm /ɪˈkaɪnəʊdɜːm/ *noun* [**C**] BIOLOGY a type of sea animal with a body which has five equal parts arranged around a centre *A starfish is an example of an echinoderm.*

echo¹ /ˈekəʊ/ *verb* **echoing,** *past* **echoed** **1** SOUND [**I**] If a sound echoes, or a place echoes with a sound, you hear the sound again because you are in a large, empty space. *Their **voices echoed** around the room.* **2** REPEAT [**T**] to repeat something that someone else has said because you agree with it *This report echoes some of the earlier research I've read.*

echo² /ˈekəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **echoes** **1** SOUND a sound that you hear more than once because you are in a big, empty space **2** EVENT/IDEA

something that is very much like something else and makes you think of it [usually plural] *There are* ***echoes of*** *Shakespeare's work in the play.*

eclectic /ekˈlektɪk/ *adjective* including many different styles and types *an* ***eclectic mix***

eclipse¹ /ɪˈklɪps/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** when the sun is covered by the moon, or the moon is covered by the Earth's shadow (= dark area) *a solar/lunar eclipse*

eclipse² /ɪˈklɪps/ *verb* [T] **1** to make another person or thing seem much less important, good, or famous [often passive] *Braque was somewhat eclipsed by Picasso.* **2** **ASTRONOMY** to make an eclipse of the moon or sun

eco- /iːkəʊ-/ *prefix* **ENVIRONMENT** relating to the environment *eco-friendly cleaning products*

eco-friendly /ˌiːkəʊˈfrendli/ *adjective* **ENVIRONMENT** describes a product that is designed so that it does not damage the environment *eco-friendly washing powder*

ecological /ˌiːkəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **ENVIRONMENT** relating to ecology or to the environment *an ecological disaster* ●**ecologically** *adverb*

ecoˌlogical ˈfootprint *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** the amount of the earth's energy that someone or something uses *You can reduce your ecological footprint by cycling more and driving less.*

ecology /iːˈkɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U, no plural] **ENVIRONMENT** the relationship between living things and the environment, or the scientific study of this ●**ecologist** *noun* [C] someone who studies ecology

e-commerce /ˈiːˌkɒmɜːs/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** the buying and selling of goods and services on the Internet

econometrics /ɪˌkɒnəˈmetrɪks/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the use of mathematical methods to describe economic systems

O-➡**economic** /ˌiːkəˈnɒmɪk, ˌekəˈnɒmɪk/ *adjective* **1** **ECONOMICS** [always before noun] relating to trade, industry, and money ***economic growth*** ○ ***economic policies*** **2** making a profit, or likely to make a profit *It's not economic to produce goods in small quantities.* ➲Opposite **uneconomic** ●**economically** *adverb The country would benefit economically.*

economical /ˌiːkəˈnɒmɪkᵊl, ˌekəˈnɒmɪkᵊl/ *adjective* not using a lot of money, fuel, etc *I need a car that's economical and reliable.* ●**economically** *adverb*

ˌ**economic ˈmigrant** *noun* [C] a person who leaves their home country to live in another country with better work or living conditions

economics /ˌiːkəˈnɒmɪks/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the study of the way in which trade, industry, and money are organized ●**economist** /ɪˈkɒnəmɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who studies economics ➲See also: **home economics**

eˌ**conomies of ˈscale** *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** saving money by buying large amounts of things, especially in a business

economize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ɪˈkɒnəmaɪz/ *verb* [I] **FINANCE** to use less of something because you want to save money

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***economy***

a **booming/stable/strong/weak** economy ● the **global/local/national economy** ● the economy **grows/improves/recovers/slows**

O-➡**economy** /ɪˈkɒnəmi/ *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS** [C] the system by which a country produces and uses goods and money *the German/US economy* ○ *a global economy* **2** [C, U] when someone or something does not use much money, fuel, etc *The car's design combines comfort with economy.* ○ *UK We'll need to* ***make*** *some* ***economies*** *when I stop work.*

eˈ**conomy ˌclass** *noun* [U] the cheapest and least comfortable seats on an aircraft ●eˈ**conomy ˌclass** *adjective, adverb*

ecosystem /ˈiːkəʊˌsɪstəm/ *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** all the living things in an area and the way they affect each other and the environment *Tourism is damaging the fragile ecosystem of the reef.* ➲See picture **ecosystem** on next page

ecotourism /ˈiːkəʊtʊərɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** the business of providing holidays for people so that they can help local people and not damage the environment

eco-warrior /ˈiːkəʊˌwɒriəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** someone who tries to stop activities which damage the environment

ecstasy /ˈekstəsi/ *noun* [U] a feeling of extreme happiness *She danced about* ***in ecstasy.***

ecstatic /ɪkˈstætɪk/ *adjective* extremely happy ●**ecstatically** *adverb*

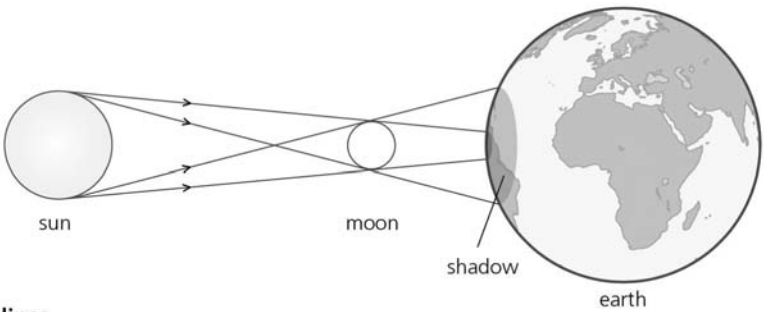

eclipse

The pond and its inhabitants is an **ecosystem**.

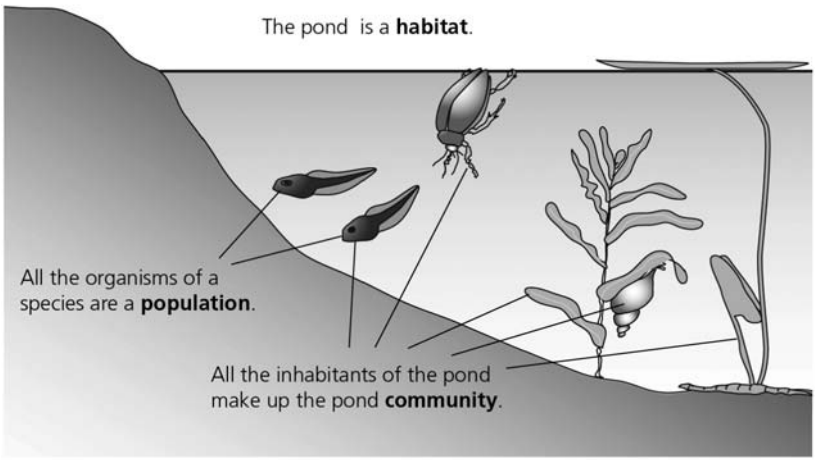

E

ecosystem

ectoplasm /ˈektəplæzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the outer layer of particular types of cell

ecumenical /ˌekjuˈmenɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **RELIGION** encouraging different types of Christian churches to unite *an ecumenical service*

eczema /ˈeksmə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a medical condition which makes areas of skin become red and dry

O-K **edge¹** /edʒ/ *noun* **1** OUTSIDE [C] the part around something that is furthest from the centre *Rick was sitting **on the edge of** the bed.* ○ *She ran down to the water's edge.* **2** SIDE [C] the part of a blade of a knife or tool that cuts *a sharp/cutting edge* **3 have the edge on/over sb/sth** to be slightly better than someone or something else **4 be on edge** to be nervous or worried *Sorry for shouting - I'm a bit on edge today.* **5 take the edge off sth** to make something unpleasant have less of an effect on someone *Have an apple. It'll **take the edge off** your **hunger**.*

edge² /edʒ/ *verb* **1 edge (sth) up/down/past, etc** to move somewhere gradually, or to make something move somewhere gradually *She edged her way through the crowd of reporters.* **2** [T] to put something around the edge of something else as a decoration *The cloth was edged with gold.*

edgeways /ˈedʒweɪz/ *UK* (*US* **edgewise** /ˈedʒwaɪz/) *adverb* with the narrowest part going first *We should be able to get the sofa through edgeways.* ➲See also: not get a **word**¹ in edgeways

edgy /ˈedʒi/ *adjective* nervous *David was starting to feel a bit edgy.*

EDI /ˌiːdiːˈaɪ/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** *abbreviation for* electronic data interchange: a system for organizing information sent by computers that is often used by companies buying and selling things on the Internet

edible /ˈedɪbl/ *adjective* safe to eat and not harmful *edible berries* ➲Compare **inedible**

edict /ˈiːdɪkt/ *noun* [C] *formal* **POLITICS** an official order from someone in authority

edifice /ˈedɪfɪs/ *noun* [C] *formal* a very large building

edit /ˈedɪt/ *verb* [T] to prepare text, film, etc by deciding what to include and making mistakes correct

edition /ɪˈdɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** BOOK a book, newspaper, etc that is one of several that are the same and were produced at the same time *a new edition* ○ *The paperback edition costs £7.95.* **2** PROGRAMME a radio or television programme that is one of a series

editor /ˈedɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** TEXT/FILM someone whose job is to prepare text, film, etc by deciding what to include and making mistakes correct **2** NEWSPAPER someone who is in charge of a newspaper or magazine

editorial¹ /ˌedɪˈtɔːriəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** EDITOR relating to editors or editing *editorial skills* **2** OPINION written by or expressing the opinions of a newspaper editor *editorial pages*

editorial² /ˌedɪˈtɔːriəl/ (*US* **op-ed**) *noun* [C] an article in a newspaper expressing the editor's opinion

educate /ˈedʒʊkeɪt/ *verb* [T] **1 EDUCATION** to teach someone at a school or college [**often passive**] *She was educated at the Perse School.* **2** to give people information about something so that they understand it better *This is part of a campaign to **educate** people **about** the dangers of smoking.*

educated /ˈedʒʊkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** Someone who is educated has learned a lot at school or university and has a good level of knowledge. **2 an educated guess** a guess that is probably correct because you have enough knowledge about something ➲See also: **well-educated**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***education***

continue/have/provide/receive education ● **compulsory/good** education

education /ˌedʒʊˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] **EDUCATION** the process of teaching and learning in a school or college, or the knowledge that you get from this *We expect a good standard of education for our children.* ●**educational** *adjective* providing education, or relating to education *the **educational system*** ●**educationally** *adverb* ➲See also: **further education, higher education**

educator /ˈedjʊkeɪtəʳ/ *mainly US noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** a person who teaches people

eel /iːl/ *noun* [**C**] a long fish that looks like a snake

eerie /ˈɪəri/ *adjective* unusual and slightly frightening *an **eerie silence*** ●**eerily** *adverb* ●**eeriness** *noun* [**U**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***effect***

have/produce an effect ● an **adverse/beneficial/devastating/harmful/profound** effect ● an effect **on** sb/sth ● the effects **of** sth

effect¹ /ɪˈfekt/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] a change, reaction, or result that is caused by something *The accident **had a** huge **effect on** her life.* ○ *We don't know the long-term **effects of** this drug.* **2 in effect** used to say what the real situation is *This means, in effect, that the plan has been scrapped.* **3 come/go into effect** to start being used *New food safety rules come into effect on Monday.* **4 take effect** to start to produce results or changes *The anaesthetic takes effect in about ten minutes.* **5 to that effect** used to say that you are giving the general meaning of something but not the exact words *He said he was bored with school or something to that effect.* **6 a sound/special/visual, etc effect** a sound, image, etc that is created artificially ➲See also: **side effect**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

affect or **effect?**

Be careful not to confuse these two words.
Affect is a verb which means to cause a change.

Pollution seriously affects the environment.

Use the noun **effect** to talk about the change, reaction, or result caused by something.

Global warming is one of the effects of pollution.

effect² /ɪˈfekt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to make something happen *The civil rights movement **effected** a huge **change** in America.*

effective /ɪˈfektɪv/ *adjective* **1** ACHIEVING RESULT successful or achieving the result that you want *effective management* ○ *What is the most effective way of teaching grammar?* **2 become/be effective** If changes, laws, etc become effective, they officially start. **3** REAL [**always before noun**] used to say what the real situation is although officially it is different *She has effective control of the company.* ➲Opposite **ineffective** ●**effectiveness** *noun* [**U**]

effectively /ɪˈfektɪvli/ *adverb* **1** WELL in a way that is successful and achieves what you want *Teachers need to be able to communicate ideas effectively.* **2** REALLY used when you describe what the real result of a situation is *His illness effectively ended his career.*

effector /ɪˈfektəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a body part or cell that changes or does something as a result of something that is outside the body *effector cells*

effects /ɪˈfekts/ *noun* [**plural**] *formal* possessions *my **personal effects***

effeminate /ɪˈfemɪnət/ *adjective* An effeminate man behaves or looks like a woman.

efficiency /ɪˈfɪʃᵊnsi/ *noun* [**U**] when someone or something uses time and energy well, without wasting any *fuel efficiency* ○ *We must improve the efficiency of the industry.*

efficient /ɪˈfɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* working well and not wasting time or energy *an efficient person/organization* ○ *Email is a quick and efficient way of contacting people.* ➲Opposite **inefficient** ●**efficiently** *adverb*

effigy /ˈefɪdʒi/ *noun* [**C**] a model of a person *Protesters burned effigies of the president.*

efflorescence /ˌef.lɔːˈresᵊnts/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** the powder that is left when a liquid has evaporated (= changed to a gas, epecially because of heating)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***effort***

make an effort ● **require/take** effort ● a **big/brave/concerted/frantic/valiant** effort ● **in** an effort to do sth

effort /ˈefət/ *noun* **1** ATTEMPT [**C, U**] an attempt to do something [**+ to do sth**] *We huddled together **in an effort** to keep warm.* ○ *He was **making an effort** to be sociable.* **2** ENERGY [**U**] the energy that you need to do something *I **put** a lot of **effort into** organizing the party.* [**+ to do sth**] *It would **take** too much **effort** to tidy my bedroom.* **3 PHYSICS** [**U**] the force that is used to make something move ➲See picture at **lever 4 to be an effort** to be difficult or painful *After his accident, walking was an effort.*

effortless /ˈefətləs/ *adjective* achieved without any special or obvious effort ***effortless grace/style*** ●**effortlessly** *adverb*

effusive /ɪˈfjuːsɪv/ *adjective* showing a lot of enthusiasm or approval for someone or something, often too much

EFL /ˌiːefˈel/ *noun* [**U**] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* English as a Foreign Language: the teaching of English to students whose first language is not English

EFTPOS /ˈeftpɒz/ *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** *abbreviation for* electronic funds transfer at point of sale; a method of paying money electronically

e.g. (*also* **eg**) /ˌiːˈdʒiː/ used to give an example of what you mean *crime writers, e.g. Agatha Christie and Ruth Rendell*

egalitarian /ɪˌgælɪˈteərɪən/ *adjective formal* believing that everyone should have the same freedom and opportunities

egestion /ɪˈdʒestʃ°n/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the process by which solid waste leaves the body through the bottom

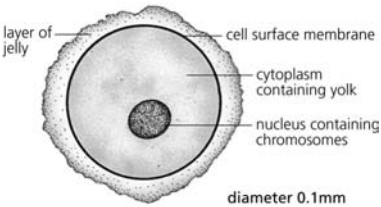

E

egg

egg¹ /eg/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C, U] an oval object produced by a female chicken, that you eat as food ***a boiled/fried egg*** ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2** **BIOLOGY** [C] an oval object with a hard shell that contains a baby bird, insect, or other creature *The bird **lays*** (= produces) *its **eggs** in a nest.* **3** **BIOLOGY** [C] a cell inside a female person or animal that can develop into a baby **4 have egg on your face** to seem stupid because of something you have done ➲See also: **Easter egg, scrambled eggs**

egg² /eg/ *verb*
egg sb on *phrasal verb* to encourage someone to do something, usually something that is wrong, stupid, or dangerous *Two girls were fighting outside the club, egged on by a group of friends.*

ˈegg ˌcup *noun* [C] a small container for holding a boiled egg while you eat it

eggplant /ˈegplɑːnt/ *US* (*UK* **aubergine**) *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** an oval, purple vegetable that is white inside ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

ego /ˈiːgəʊ, ˈegəʊ/ *noun* [C] your opinion of yourself *He has a huge ego.*

egocentric /ˌiːgəʊˈsentrɪk/ *adjective* interested only in yourself

egotism /ˈiːgəʊtɪzᵊm/ (*also* **egoism** /ˈiːgəʊɪzᵊm/) *noun* [U] when someone thinks that they are very important and is not interested in other people ●**egotist** *noun* [C] ●**egotistic** /ˌiːgəʊˈtɪstɪk/ (*also* **egotistical** /ˌiːgəʊˈtɪstɪkᵊl/) *adjective*

egregious /ɪˈgriːdʒəs/ *adjective formal* extremely bad or shocking in an obvious way *an egregious example of racism*

eh? /eɪ/ *exclamation UK informal spoken* **1** REPEAT used to ask someone to repeat something because you did not hear or understand it *"You're looking tired." "Eh?" "I said, you're looking tired."* **2** REACT used to show interest or surprise at something *Sue's had a baby girl, eh?*

Eid /iːd/ *noun* **RELIGION** the name of two Muslim festivals. The more important one celebrates the end of Ramadan.

eight /eɪt/ the number 8

eighteen /ˌeɪˈtiːn/ the number 18 ●**eighteenth** 18th written as a word

eighth¹ /eɪtθ/ 8th written as a word

eighth² /eɪtθ/ *noun* [C] one of eight equal parts of something; 1/8

eighty /ˈeɪti/ **1** the number 80 **2 the eighties** the years from 1980-1989 **3 be in your eighties** to be aged between 80 and 89 ●**eightieth** 80th written as a word

either¹ /ˈaɪðəʳ, ˈiːðəʳ/ *conjunction* **either... or** used when you are giving a choice of two or more things *Either call me tonight or I'll speak to you tomorrow.*

either² /ˈaɪðəʳ, ˈiːðəʳ/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** ONE OF TWO one of two people or things when it is not important which *"Would you like red or white wine?" - "Oh, either."* ○ *Ask Dom or Andrew, either of them will help you.* **2** BOTH both *People were smoking on either side* (= at both sides) *of me.* ○ *You can use the train or the bus, **either way** it'll take an hour.*

either³ /ˈaɪðəʳ, ˈiːðəʳ/ *adverb* used in negative sentences to mean that something else is also true *The menu is boring and it's not cheap either.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **not**

ejaculate /ɪˈdʒækjʊleɪt/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** If a man or male animal ejaculates, sperm (= many small cells, one of which joins an egg to make a baby) suddenly comes out from his penis. ●**ejaculation** /ɪˌdʒækjʊˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when a man or male animal ejaculates

eject /ɪˈdʒekt/ *verb* **1** LEAVE PLACE [T] *formal* to make someone leave a place, usually using force [**often passive**] *He was **ejected from** the courtroom for shouting.* **2** LEAVE MACHINE [I, T] to come out of a machine when a button is pressed, or to make something do this *How do you eject the tape?* **3** LEAVE AIRCRAFT [I] to leave an aircraft in an emergency by being pushed out while still in your seat

eke /iːk/ *verb*
eke sth out *phrasal verb* **1** to use something slowly or carefully because you only have a small amount of it **2 eke out a living/existence** to earn only just enough money to pay for things you need *He ekes out a living by cleaning windows.*

elaborate¹ /ɪˈlæbᵊrət/ *adjective* complicated, detailed, or made carefully from many parts *an elaborate system/scheme* ○ *an elaborate design* ●**elaborately** *adverb*

elaborate² /ɪˈlæbᵊreɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to explain something and give more details *He wouldn't **elaborate on** the details.* ●**elaboration** /ɪˌlæbᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

elapse /ɪˈlæps/ *verb* [I] *formal* If time elapses, it passes. *Two years have elapsed since the attack.*

elastic¹ /ɪˈlæstɪk/ *adjective* Something that is elastic can stretch and return to its original size. *Your skin is more elastic when you are young.* ●**elasticity** /ˌɪlæsˈtɪsəti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being elastic

elastic² /ɪˈlæstɪk/ *noun* [U] a type of rubber that returns to its original size and shape after you stretch it

eˌlastic ˈband *UK* (*UK/US* **rubber band**) *noun* [C] a thin circle of rubber used to hold things together

elated /ɪˈleɪtɪd/ *adjective* extremely happy and excited *We were **elated by/at** the news.* ●**elation** /ɪˈleɪʃ°n/ *noun* [U]

elbow¹ /ˈelbəʊ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part in the middle of your arm where it bends ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

elbow² /ˈelbəʊ/ *verb* [T] to push someone with your elbow, especially so you can move past them *He **elbowed his way through** the crowds of shoppers.*

ˈelbow ˌroom *noun* [U] space to move easily

elder¹ /ˈeldə˞/ *adjective* **elder brother/daughter/sister, etc** the older of two brothers/daughters/sisters, etc ➲See Common Learner Error at **old**

elder² /ˈeldə˞/ *noun* **1 the elder** the oldest of two people *He's the elder of two sons.* **2 your elders** people older than you *I was taught to respect my elders.* **3 SOCIETY** [C] an important, respected, older member of a group

elderly /ˈeldə˞li/ *adjective* a more polite word for 'old', used to describe people *an elderly man* ○ *Children should show respect for **the elderly**.*

eldest /ˈeldɪst/ *adjective* **eldest child/daughter/brother, etc** the oldest child/daughter/brother, etc *My eldest brother is a doctor.* ○ *Susan is **the eldest** of three sisters.*

e-learning /ˈiːlɜːnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET, EDUCATION** electronic learning: the business of providing courses online for students so that they can study and learn from home

elect /ɪˈlekt/ *verb* **1 POLITICS** [T] to choose someone for a particular job or position by voting [**often passive**] *She was **elected to** the US Senate in 2004.* ○ *He was elected president in 1997.* **2 elect to do sth** *formal* to choose to do something *The child elected to stay with his mother.* ➲See also: **re-elect**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***election***

hold an election ● **run for/stand for** election ● **lose/win** an election ● an election **campaign**

election /ɪˈlekʃ°n/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** a time when people vote in order to choose someone for a political or official job *a presidential election* ○ *Who do you think will **win** the **election**?* ○ *Will you **stand/run for election** again this year?* ➲See also: **by-election, general election, re-election**

eˈlection ˌday *US* (*UK* **polling day**) *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the day when people vote in an election

electoral /ɪˈlekt°rə˞l/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **POLITICS** relating to elections *the **electoral system*** ○ ***electoral reform***

electorate /ɪˈlekt°rət/ *noun* [**group**] **POLITICS** the people who are allowed to vote in an election *the British electorate*

electric /ɪˈlektrɪk/ *adjective* **1 PHYSICS** Electric lights, tools, etc work using electricity. *an electric light/heater* **2 PHYSICS** supplying electricity *an electric socket* ○ *electric current* **3** EXCITING full of excitement and emotion *The atmosphere backstage was electric.*

electrical /ɪˈlektrɪk°l/ *adjective* **1 PHYSICS** Electrical goods or equipment work using electricity. ***electrical appliances/goods*** **2** SUPPLY relating to the production and supply of electricity *an electrical engineer*

the eˌlectric ˈchair *noun* a chair used in parts of the US to kill a criminal using electricity

electrician /ɪˌlekˈtrɪʃ°n/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to put in, check, or repair electrical wires and equipment

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***electricity***

generate/produce electricity ● **be operated by/be powered by** electricity ● an electricity **supply**

electricity /ɪˌlekˈtrɪsəti/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** a type of energy that can produce light and heat, or make machines work *The electricity has been turned off.* ○ *an electricity bill*

eˌlectric ˈshock *noun* [C] a sudden, painful feeling that you get when electricity flows through your body

electrify /ɪˈlektrɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE EXCITED to make people who are watching something feel very excited *She electrified the crowd with her fantastic performance.* **2 PHYSICS** to supply something with electricity *an electrified railway*

electrocute /ɪˈlektrəkjuːt/ *verb* [T] to kill someone by causing electricity to flow through their body [**often passive**] *He was electrocuted while playing on a railway line.* ●**electrocution** /ɪˌlektrəˈkjuːʃ°n/ *noun* [U]

electrode /ɪˈlektrəʊd/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** the point where an electric current enters or leaves something such as a battery (= object which provides electricity)

electrolysis /ɪˌlekˈtrɒləsɪs/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the use of an electric current to cause chemical change in a liquid

electrolyte /ɪˈlektrəlaɪt/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a liquid which electricity can go through or which breaks into its parts when electricity goes through it ●**electrolytic** /ɪlektrəˈlɪtɪk/ *adjective*

electrolytic cell /ɪlektrəˌlɪtɪkˈsel/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a device which contains an electrolyte and through which an electrical current is passed in order to cause a reaction

electromagnet /ɪˌlektrəʊˈmægnət/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a magnet (= piece of iron that makes metal move towards it) in which there is wire around the iron, and which only becomes magnetic when a current is passed through the wire

electromagnetism /ɪˌlektrəʊˈmægnətɪz°m/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** magnetism (= the power that makes metal move towards iron) that is produced by an electrical current ●**electromagnetic** /ɪˌlektrəʊmægˈnetɪk/ *adjective* *the electromagnetic spectrum*

electron /ɪˈlektrɒn/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** an extremely small piece of an atom with a negative electrical charge

electronic /ɪˌlekˈtrɒnɪk/ *adjective* **1 PHYSICS** Electronic equipment consists of things such as computers, televisions, and radios. **2** MUSIC/

E

GAMES Electronic music, games, etc use electronic equipment. ●**electronically** *adverb*

ˌelectronic ˈbanking *noun* [U] INTERNET, FINANCE the use of the Internet to pay money into a bank account, take money out, etc. *electronic banking services*

electronics /ˌɪlekˈtrɒnɪks/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the science of making electronic equipment *the electronics industry*

eˌlectron ˈmicroscope *noun* [C] PHYSICS a very powerful microscope (= device used for looking at very small things) which produces pictures by sending electrons through objects

electroplate /ɪˈlektrəʊpleɪt/ *verb* [T] PHYSICS to cover the surface of a metal object with a thin layer of a different metal, often silver, using electrolysis (= a method that uses electrical current)

electrostatic /ɪˌlektrəʊˈstætɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS relating to electricity which does not move in a current but is attracted to the surface of some objects *an electrostatic charge*

electrovalent bond /ɪˌlektrəʊveɪlənt ˈbɒnd/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS the way two atoms are joined together when one atom loses an electron to form a positive ion and the other gains an electron to form a negative ion

elegance /ˈelɪgᵊns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is stylish or attractive in their appearance or behaviour

elegant /ˈelɪgᵊnt/ *adjective* stylish or attractive in appearance or behaviour *an elegant dining room* ○ *She's a very elegant woman.* ●**elegantly** *adverb*

element /ˈelɪmənt/ *noun* **1** PART [C] a part of something *This book has all the elements of a good detective story.* **2 an element of sth** a small amount of an emotion or quality *There's an element of truth in what she says.* **3** PEOPLE [C] a group of people of a particular type *The disruptive element on the committee voted against the proposal.* **4** CHEMISTRY [C] a simple substance which cannot be reduced to smaller chemical parts *Iron is one of the elements of the Earth's crust.* **5** PHYSICS [C] the part of a piece of electrical equipment which produces heat **6 be in your element** to be happy because you are doing what you like doing and what you are good at *I'm in my element at a children's party.*

elementary /ˌelɪˈmentᵊri/ *adjective* **1** basic *I only have an elementary knowledge of physics.* ○ *an elementary mistake* **2** EDUCATION relating to the early stages of studying a subject *students at elementary level*

ˌelementary ˈparticle *noun* [C] PHYSICS any of the smallest and simplest parts that all physical things are made from, such as an electron, a proton or a neutron

eleˈmentary ˌschool *US* (*UK* **primary school**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a school for children from the ages of five to eleven

elements /ˈelɪmənts/ *noun* **the elements** the weather, especially bad weather *Shall we brave the elements and go out for a walk?*

elephant /ˈelɪfənt/ *noun* [C] a very large, grey animal with big ears and a very long nose

elevate /ˈelɪveɪt/ *verb formal* **1 be elevated to sth** to be given a more important position *She has been elevated to deputy manager.* ○ *an elevated position* **2** [T] to move something to a higher level or height *High stress levels elevate blood pressure.* ○ *Try to keep your leg elevated.*

elevation /ˌelɪˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MEASURES [C] the height of a place above the level of the sea *The hotel is situated at an elevation of 1000m.* **2** [U] *formal* when someone or something is given a more important position *his sudden elevation to stardom*

elevator /ˈelɪveɪtəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **lift**) *noun* [C] a machine that carries people up and down in tall buildings

eleven /ɪˈlevᵊn/ the number 11 ●**eleventh** 11th written as a word

elf /elf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **elves** a small person with pointed ears who has magic powers in children's stories

elicit /ɪˈlɪsɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to get information or a reaction from someone *You have to ask the right questions to elicit the information you want.*

eligible /ˈelɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* **1** ABLE TO DO If you are eligible to do something, you can do it because you are in the right situation. [+ **to do sth**] *Only people over 18 are eligible to vote.* ○ *You might be eligible for a grant for your studies.* ➲Opposite **ineligible 2** MARRIAGE If someone who is not married is eligible, they would be a good husband or wife because they are rich, attractive, etc. *an eligible young bachelor* ●**eligibility** /ˌelɪdʒəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

eliminate /ɪˈlɪmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** REMOVE to remove something from something, or get rid of something *The doctor advised me to eliminate salt from my diet.* **2** DEFEAT to defeat someone so that they cannot go any further in a competition [**often passive**] *She was eliminated after the first round of the tournament.*

elimination /ɪˌlɪmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [U] when you eliminate someone or something **2 a process of elimination** when you remove all possible answers to something until only one remains

elimiˈnation reˌaction *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical reaction where a substance separates from a molecule

elite /ɪˈliːt/ *noun* [**group**] SOCIETY the richest, most powerful, or best educated group in a society *a member of the elite* ○ *an elite group*

elitism /ɪˈliːtɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when a small group of rich, powerful, or educated people are given an advantage in a situation ●**elitist** *adjective elitist attitudes*

elk /elk/ *UK* (*US* **moose**) *noun* [C] a large deer (= large, brown wild animal) which lives in northern US and Canada

elm /elm/ *noun* [C, U] a large tree which loses its leaves in winter

elocution /ˌeləˈkjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE the skill of speaking in a careful, clear way

elongated /ˈiːlɒŋgeɪtɪd/ US /iːˈlɒŋgeɪtɪd/ *adjective* longer and thinner than usual

elope /ɪˈləʊp/ *verb* [I] to leave home secretly with someone in order to get married

eloquent /ˈeləkwənt/ *adjective* expressing ideas clearly and in a way that influences people *the most eloquent speaker at the conference* ●**eloquence** /ˈeləkwəns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is eloquent ●**eloquently** *adverb*

else /els/ *adverb* **1** IN ADDITION in addition to someone or something *Would you like **anything else** to eat?* ○ ***What else** did he say?* **2** DIFFERENT different from someone or something *I don't like it here. Let's go **somewhere else**.* ○ *I didn't say that. It must have been **someone else**.* **3** OTHER other things or people *I forgot my toothbrush, but I remembered **everything else**.* **4 or else a** COMPARE used to compare two different things or situations *He talks to her all the time, or else he completely ignores her.* **b** IF NOT used to say what will happen if another thing does not happen *We must be there by six, or else we'll miss the beginning.* **5 if all else fails** if no other plan is successful *If all else fails, you're welcome to stay at our house.*

elsewhere /ˌelsˈweər/ *adverb* in or to another place *The report studies economic growth in Europe and elsewhere.* ○ *If we can't find it here, we'll have to **go elsewhere**.*

ELT /ˌiːelˈtiː/ *noun* [U] EDUCATION *abbreviation for* English Language Teaching: the teaching of English to students whose first language is not English

elucidate /ɪˈluːsɪdeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to explain something, or make it clear

elude /ɪˈluːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** NOT ACHIEVE If something that you want eludes you, you do not succeed in achieving it. *The gold medal continues to elude her.* **2** NOT BE CAUGHT to not be caught by someone *He eluded the police for years before he was arrested.* **3** NOT REMEMBER If a piece of information eludes you, you cannot remember it.

elusive /ɪˈluːsɪv/ *adjective* difficult to describe, find, achieve, or remember *The answers to these questions remain as elusive as ever.*

elves /elvz/ *plural of* elf

'em /əm/ *informal spoken short for* them

emaciated /ɪˈmeɪsieɪtɪd/ *adjective* HEALTH very thin and weak because of being ill or not eating enough food

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***email***

get/send an email ● **by** email ● **in** an email ● an email **address/attachment**

email (*also* **e-mail**) /ˈiːmeɪl/ *noun* **1** INTERNET [U] a system for sending messages electronically, especially from one computer to another using the Internet *You can contact me **by email**.* ○ *What's your **email address**?* **2** INTERNET [C, U] a message sent electronically *I got an email from Danielle yesterday.* ●**email** *verb* [T] to send a message using email

emanate /ˈeməneɪt/ *verb formal*
emanate from sth *phrasal verb* to come from something *Strange noises emanated from the room next door.*

emancipate /ɪˈmænsɪpeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* POLITICS to give people more freedom or rights by removing social, legal, or political controls that limit them *emancipated women* ●**emancipation** /ɪˌmænsɪˈpeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

embalm /ɪmˈbɑːm/ *verb* [T] to use oils and chemicals to prevent a dead body from decaying

embankment /ɪmˈbæŋkmənt/ *noun* [C] an artificial slope built from soil or stones to stop floods, or to support a road or railway *a **railway embankment***

embargo /ɪmˈbɑːgəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **embargoes** POLITICS an order by a government to stop trade with another country *an **arms/oil embargo*** ○ *We will not **lift*** (= stop) *the trade **embargo** until they end this war.*

embark /ɪmˈbɑːk/ *verb* [I] to get on a ship, boat, or aircraft to begin a journey ➲Opposite **disembark**
embark on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to start something new or important *You're never too old to embark on a new career.*

embarrass /ɪmˈbærəs/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel ashamed or shy *My dad's always embarrassing me in front of my friends.*

embarrassed /ɪmˈbærəst/ *adjective* feeling ashamed or shy *She felt **embarrassed about** undressing in front of the doctor.* [+ **to do sth**] *I was too embarrassed to admit that I was scared.*

embarrassing /ɪmˈbærəsɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel embarrassed *an embarrassing defeat* ○ *What has been your most embarrassing moment?* ●**embarrassingly** *adverb The play was embarrassingly bad.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***embarrassment***

acute/great/huge embarrassment ● a **source of** embarrassment ● the embarrassment **of** doing sth

embarrassment /ɪmˈbærəsmənt/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] when you feel embarrassed *He blushed with embarrassment.* ○ *Her behaviour has caused great embarrassment to her family.* **2** THING/PERSON [C] something or someone that makes you feel embarrassed *He is becoming an **embarrassment to** the government.*

embassy /ˈembəsi/ *noun* [C] POLITICS the official group of people who live in a foreign country and represent their government there, or the building where they work

embedded /ɪmˈbedɪd/ *adjective* **1** OBJECT fixed into the surface of something *A small piece of glass was **embedded in** his finger.* **2** ATTITUDE If an emotion, attitude, etc is embedded in someone or something, it is a very strong and important part of them. *A sense of guilt was deeply **embedded in** my conscience.*

emˌbedded ˈsystem *noun* [C] COMPUTING a system used in a computer to do a particular thing that a general computer cannot do

embellish /ɪmˈbelɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to make something more beautiful or interesting by adding something to it *He embellished the story with lots of dramatic detail.* ●**embellishment** *noun* [C, U]

embers /ˈembəz/ *noun* [plural] pieces of wood or coal that continue to burn after a fire has no more flames

embezzle /ɪmˈbezl/ *verb* [T] to steal money that belongs to the company or organization that you work for ●**embezzlement** *noun* [U]

embittered /ɪmˈbɪtəd/ *adjective* very angry about unfair things that have happened to you

emblazoned /ɪmˈbleɪzᵊnd/ *adjective* decorated in a very obvious way with something such as a name or a design *Her T-shirt was* ***emblazoned with*** *the company logo.*

emblem /ˈembləm/ *noun* [C] a picture, object, or symbol that is used to represent a person, group, or idea *The rose is the national emblem of England.*

E

embodiment /ɪmˈbɒdɪmənt/ *noun* **the embodiment of sth** If someone or something is the embodiment of a particular idea or quality, they express or represent it exactly. *The mother in the story is the embodiment of evil.*

embody /ɪmˈbɒdi/ *verb* [T] to represent an idea or quality exactly *He embodies the values of hard work and fair play.*

emboss /ɪmˈbɒs/ *verb* [T] to decorate an object, especially with letters, using special tools to make a mark on the surface of the object *The envelope was embossed with the company's logo.*

embrace¹ /ɪmˈbreɪs/ *verb* **1** HOLD [I, T] If you embrace someone, you put your arms around them, and if two people embrace, they put their arms around each other. **2** ACCEPT [T] to accept new ideas, beliefs, methods, etc in an enthusiastic way *We are always eager to embrace the latest technology.* **3** INCLUDE [T] *formal* to include a number of things *The report embraces a wide range of opinions.*

embrace² /ɪmˈbreɪs/ *noun* [C] when you put your arms around someone *a passionate embrace*

embroider /ɪmˈbrɔɪdəʳ/ *verb* **1** ART, DT [I, T] to decorate cloth by sewing small patterns or pictures onto it **2** [T] to add imaginary details to a story to make it more interesting *They accused him of embroidering the facts.*

embroidery /ɪmˈbrɔɪdᵊri/ *noun* [U] **1** ART the activity of sewing small patterns or pictures onto things **2** ART decoration on cloth made by sewing small patterns or pictures onto it

embroil /ɪmˈbrɔɪl/ *verb formal* **be embroiled in sth** to be involved in an argument or difficult situation *We don't want to become embroiled in a dispute over ownership.*

embryo /ˈembriəʊ/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a human or an animal that is starting to develop in its mother's uterus

embryonic /ˌembriˈɒnɪk/ *adjective* starting to develop *The project is still at an embryonic stage.*

emerald /ˈemᵊrᵊld/ *noun* **1** GEOLOGY [C] a bright green stone used in jewellery **2** [U] (*also* **ˌemerald ˈgreen**) a bright green colour ●**emerald** *adjective*

emerge /ɪˈmɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I] **1** COME OUT to appear from somewhere or come out of somewhere *A figure* ***emerged from*** *the shadows.* **2** BECOME KNOWN to become known ***It emerged that*** *she had lied to her employers.* **3** DIFFICULT SITUATION to reach the end of a difficult situation *They* ***emerged victorious from*** *the fight.* ●**emergence** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***emergency***

cope with/respond to an emergency ● a **major/real** emergency ● **in** an emergency

emergency /ɪˈmɜːdʒᵊnsi/ *noun* [C] a serious or dangerous situation that needs immediate action *You should only ring this number* ***in an emergency.*** ○ *an* ***emergency exit***

eˈmergency ˌbrake *US* (*UK* **handbrake**) *noun* [C] a stick inside a car that you can pull up to stop the car from moving ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

eˈmergency ˌroom *US* (*UK* **casualty**) *noun* [C] HEALTH the part of a hospital where people go when they have been injured or have urgent illnesses so that they can be treated immediately

eˌmergency ˈservices *noun* [**plural**] the organizations who deal with accidents and urgent problems such as fire, illness, or crime

emerging /ɪˈmɜːdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] starting to exist or develop ***emerging economies/markets***

emigrant /ˈemɪgrənt/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone who leaves their own country to go and live in another one

emigrate /ˈemɪgreɪt/ *verb* [I] SOCIETY to leave your own country to go and live in another one *We're thinking of* ***emigrating to*** *New Zealand.* ●**emigration** /ˌemɪˈgreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

eminent /ˈemɪnənt/ *adjective* famous, respected, or important *an eminent historian* ●**eminence** /ˈemɪnəns/ *noun* [U] ➲See also: **pre-eminent**

eminently /ˈemɪnəntli/ *adverb formal* very *He is eminently qualified for the job.*

emission /ɪˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] ENVIRONMENT when gas, heat, light, etc is sent out into the air, or an amount of gas, heat, light, etc that is sent out ***Carbon dioxide emissions*** *will be reduced by 20%.*

emit /ɪˈmɪt/ *verb* [T] **emitting,** *past* **emitted** to send out gas, heat, light, etc into the air *The machine emits a high-pitched sound when you press the button.*

emoticon /ɪˈməʊtɪkɒn/ *noun* [C] INTERNET an image such as :-) which looks like a face when you look at it from the side, made using keyboard symbols and used in emails to express emotions

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***emotion***

display/experience/feel/show emotion ● **deep/powerful/strong** emotion

emotion /ɪˈməʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a strong feeling such as love or anger, or strong feelings in general *He finds it hard to* ***express*** *his* ***emotions.*** ○ *She was overcome with emotion and burst into tears.*

emotional /ɪˈməʊʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** EMOTIONS relating to emotions *a child's emotional development* **2** STRONG FEELINGS showing strong feelings, or making people have strong feelings *an emotional speech* ○ *After the argument, I was feeling confused and emotional.* **3** PERSON

An emotional person shows their emotions very easily or very often. ●**emotionally** *adverb*

emotive /ɪˈməʊtɪv/ *adjective* making people feel strong emotions *Animal experimentation is a very* ***emotive issue****.*

empathy /ˈempəθi/ *noun* [U] the ability to imagine what it must be like to be in someone's situation ●**empathize** (*also UK* **-ise**) O-K /ˈempəθaɪz/ *verb* [I] to feel empathy with someone *I think people find it easy to* ***empathize with*** *the main character.*

emperor /ˈempᵊrəʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the male ruler of an empire (= group of countries ruled by one person or government) *Emperor Charlemagne*

emphasis /ˈemfəsɪs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **emphases** /ˈemfəsiːz/ **1** particular importance or attention that you give to something *Schools are starting to* ***place/put*** *greater* ***emphasis on*** *passing exams.* **2** **LANGUAGE** the extra force that you give to a word or part of a word when you are saying it *The* ***emphasis*** *is* ***on*** *the final syllable.*

emphasize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈemfəsaɪz/ *verb* [T] to show that something is especially important or needs special attention *The government is* ***emphasizing*** *the* ***importance*** *of voting in the election.* [+ **that**] *He emphasized that the driver was not to blame for the accident.*

emphatic /ɪmˈfætɪk/ *adjective* done or said in a strong way and without any doubt *an emphatic victory* ●**emphatically** *adverb*

empire /ˈempaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **POLITICS** a group of countries that is ruled by one person or government **2** a large group of businesses that is controlled by one person or company *a publishing empire*

empirical /ɪmˈpɪrɪkᵊl/ *adjective formal* based on experience or scientific experiments and not only on ideas ***empirical evidence*** ●**empirically** *adverb*

O-K **employ** /ɪmˈplɔɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** WORK If a person or company employs someone, they pay that person to work for them. *The company employs 2500 staff.* [+ **to do sth**] *They employ her to look after their children.* **2** USE *formal* to use something *Companies employ clever tactics to persuade us to buy their products.*

employee /ɪmˈplɔɪiː/ *noun* [C] someone who is paid to work for a person or company

O-K **employer** /ɪmˈplɔɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person or company that pays people to work for them

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***employment***

find/offer/provide/seek employment ● **gainful/paid/full-time/part-time/temporary** employment ● be **in** employment

O-K **employment** /ɪmˈplɔɪmənt/ *noun* [U] **1** **ECONOMICS** when someone is paid to work for a person or company ***full-time/part-time employment*** ○ *It is not easy to* ***find employment*** *in the countryside.* ○ *employment opportunities/rights* ➲ Compare **unemployment** **2** USE *formal* the use of something

empower /ɪmˈpaʊəʳ/ *verb* **1** [T] to give someone the confidence, skills, freedom, etc to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Education empowers people to take control of their lives.* **2** **be empowered to do sth** to have the legal or official right to do something

empress /ˈemprəs/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the female ruler, or the wife of a male ruler, of an empire (= group of countries ruled by one person or government) *Empress Josephine*

O-K **empty**[1] /ˈempti/ *adjective* **1** CONTAINING NOTHING If something is empty, it does not contain any things or people. *an empty house/street* ○ *empty bottles/glasses* ○ *The train was completely empty when it reached London.* **2** NO MEANING having no meaning or value *an* ***empty promise/threat*** ●**emptiness** *noun* [U]

empty[2] /ˈempti/ *verb* **1** CONTAINER [T] (*also* **empty out**) If you empty a container, or if you empty the things inside it, you remove everything from it. *He* ***emptied*** *the dirty water* ***into*** *the sink.* **2** PLACE [I] to become empty *The room emptied rapidly when the fire started.*

empty-handed /ˌempti ˈhændɪd/ *adjective* without bringing or taking anything *We can't go to the party empty-handed.*

ˌ**empty** ˈ**set** *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a set (= group of numbers) that contains no elements

the EMS /ðiːˌiːemˈes/ *noun* [**no plural**] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* the European Monetary System: a system which limits changes in the values of the different types of money used in countries in the European Union

EMU /ˌiːemˈjuː/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* Economic and Monetary Union; when several countries form a single market with one currency (= type of money)

emulate /ˈemjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to try to be like someone or something that you admire or that is successful *They hope to* ***emulate*** *the* ***success*** *of other software companies.*

emulsifier /ɪˈmʌlsɪfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a substance which is added to a mixture of food in order to stop the mixture from separating into different parts

emulsify /ɪˈmʌlsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [I, T] **CHEMISTRY** If two liquids emulsify or are emulsified, they combine and become a smooth mixture.

emulsion /ɪˈmʌlʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] paint used to cover walls, ceilings, etc

emulsion /ɪˈmʌlʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** a liquid in which two liquids have been mixed together but neither liquid has dissolved into the other liquid **2** (*also* **emulsion paint**) a water-based paint which is not shiny when dry

enable /ɪˈneɪbl/ *verb* [T] to make someone able to do something, or to make something possible [+ **to do sth**] *This money has enabled me to buy a new computer.*

-enabled /ɪˈneɪbᵊld/ *suffix* **1** **COMPUTING** having the necessary equipment or system to use something *Bluetooth-enabled mobile phones* **2** used or made possible by using a particular thing *voice-enabled software*

enact /ɪˈnækt/ *verb* [T] **1** **LAW** to make something into a law [**often passive**] *When was this legislation enacted?* **2** PERFORM *formal* to perform a story or play ●**enactment** *noun* [U]

enamel /ɪˈnæmᵊl/ *noun* [U] **1** DT a hard, shiny substance that is used to decorate or protect metal or clay **2** ANATOMY the hard, white substance that covers your teeth ➲See picture at **tooth**

enamoured /ɪˈnæməd/ *UK* (*US* **enamored**) *formal adjective* **be enamoured of/with sb/sth** to like someone or something very much

enc (*also* **encl**) *written abbreviation for* enclosed: used at the end of a business letter to show that there is something else in the envelope

E

encapsulate /ɪnˈkæpsjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] to express or show the most important facts about something *The film encapsulates the essence of that period.*

encase /ɪnˈkeɪs/ *verb formal* **be encased in sth** to be completely covered in something *The outside walls are encased in concrete.*

encephalitis /ˌenkefəˈlaɪtɪs/ US /enˌsefəˈ-/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a serious illness in which the brain swells (= becomes bigger), which is caused by an infection

enchanted /ɪnˈtʃɑːntɪd/ *adjective* **1** LIKE If you are enchanted by something, you like it very much. *She was enchanted by the Scottish landscape.* **2** MAGICAL affected by magic *an enchanted forest*

enchanting /ɪnˈtʃɑːntɪŋ/ *adjective* very nice *What an enchanting child!*

encircle /ɪnˈsɜːkl/ *verb* [T] *formal* to form a circle around something [**often passive**] *The house is encircled by a high fence.*

enclave /ˈenkleɪv/ *noun* [C] a place which is different from the area that is around it because its people have a different language or culture *an Italian enclave in Switzerland*

enclose /ɪnˈkləʊz/ *verb* [T] **1** SEND to send something in the same envelope or parcel as something else *I enclose a map of the area.* **2** BE ALL AROUND to be all around something and separate it from other things or places ●**enclosed** *adjective He doesn't like* ***enclosed spaces****.*

enclosure /ɪnˈkləʊʒᵊ/ *noun* [C] a small area of land that has a wall or fence around it

encompass /ɪnˈkʌmpəs/ *verb* [T] to include a lot of things, ideas, places, etc *Their albums* ***encompass*** *a wide* ***range*** *of music.*

encore /ˈɒŋkɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC an extra song or piece of music that is performed at the end of a show because the audience shout for it

encounter¹ /ɪnˈkaʊntəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** EXPERIENCE to experience something unpleasant *We* ***encountered*** *quite a few* ***problems*** *at the beginning.* **2** MEET *literary* to meet someone, especially when you do not expect it

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***encounter***

have an encounter ● a **chance** encounter ● an encounter **with** sb

encounter² /ɪnˈkaʊntəʳ/ *noun* [C] a meeting, especially one that happens by chance

encourage /ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE DO/HAPPEN to make someone more likely to do something, or make something more likely to happen [**+ to do sth**] *My parents encouraged me to try new things.* ○ *Cutting back plants will encourage growth.* **2** GIVE CONFIDENCE/HOPE to give someone confidence or hope *My parents encouraged me when things weren't going well at school.* ➲Opposite **discourage** ●**encouragement** *noun* [C, U] *Children need lots of encouragement from their parents.*

encouraged /ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒd/ *adjective* having more confidence or hope about something *We were very encouraged by his exam results.*

encouraging /ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel more hope and confidence *The team's performance was very encouraging.* ➲Opposite **discouraging** ●**encouragingly** *adverb*

encroach /ɪnˈkrəʊtʃ/ *verb*
encroach on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to gradually take away someone's rights, power, etc, or get control of something, often without being noticed *My job is starting to encroach on my family life.*

encrusted /ɪnˈkrʌstɪd/ *adjective* covered with something hard, for example dirt or stones *My trousers were* ***encrusted with*** *mud.*

encrypt /ɪnˈkrɪpt/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to change electronic information into a secret system of letters, numbers, or symbols ●**encryption** *noun* [U]

encyclopedia (*also UK* **encyclopaedia**) /ɪnˌsaɪkləˈpiːdiə/ *noun* [C] a book or a set of books containing facts about a lot of subjects

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***end***

at the end (**of** sth) ● **by the** end (**of** sth) ● the **very** end

end¹ /end/ *noun* **1** FINAL PART [**no plural**] the final part of something such as a period of time, activity, or story *I'll pay you* ***at the end*** *of next month.* ○ *I didn't meet him until the end of the course.* ○ *a film with a twist at the end* **2** FURTHEST PART [C] the furthest part or final part of a place or thing *They live* ***at the*** *other* ***end*** *of the street.* ○ *They were standing at* ***opposite ends*** *of the room.* **3** STOP [C] when something stops happening [**usually singular**] *They are calling for* ***an end to*** *the violence.* **4 in the end** finally, after something has been thought about or discussed a lot **5 come to an end** to finish **6 put an end to sth** to make something stop happening or existing *He's determined to put an end to these rumours.* **7 bring sth to an end** to make something finish *The stories in the newspaper brought her career to a sudden end.* **8 no end** *informal* a lot *I've had* ***no end of*** *trouble finding a hotel room.* **9 for hours/days, etc on end** for days, hours, etc without stopping *He waited by the telephone for hours on end.* **10** INTENTION [C] an intention or purpose *She only has one end in mind.* **11 be at a loose end** to have nothing to do *Come and visit us if you're at a loose end over the weekend.* **12 at the end of the day** *UK* something that you say before you give the most important fact of a situation *At the end of the day, what matters is that you're safe.* **13 at the end of your tether** (*also US* **at the end of your rope**) so tired, annoyed, or worried by something that you do not feel that you can deal with it **14 get (hold of) the wrong end of the stick** to not understand a situation correctly *My mum got the wrong end of the stick and thought that Jim was my boyfriend.* **15 make ends meet** to have

just enough money to pay for the things that you need *I've taken a second job in the evenings just to make ends meet.* **16 not be the end of the world** If something is not the end of the world, it will not cause very serious problems. *It won't be the end of the world if I don't get the job.* **17 be on/at the receiving end of sth** If you are on the receiving end of something, you suffer something unpleasant when you have done nothing to deserve it. *They are often on the receiving end of verbal abuse from angry customers.* **18 throw sb in at the deep end** to make someone start a new and difficult job or activity without helping them or preparing them for it ➲See also: **dead end, light**[1] at the end of the tunnel, **odds** and ends, the **tail**[1] end of sth, **the West End,** be at your **wits**' end

O-K **end**[2] /end/ *verb* [I, T] to finish or stop, or to make something finish or stop *What time does the concert end?* ○ *These talks do not look likely to end the war.*
end in/with sth *phrasal verb* to finish in a particular way *The evening ended in a big argument.*
end up *phrasal verb* to finally be in a particular place or situation *I never thought he'd end up in prison.* [+ **doing sth**] *He always ends up doing what Alan wants to do.* ○ *She'll end up unemployed.*

endanger /ɪnˈdeɪndʒəʳ/ *verb* [T] to put someone or something in a situation where they might be harmed or seriously damaged *He would never do anything to endanger the children's lives.*

endangered /ɪnˈdeɪndʒəd/ *adjective* **endangered birds/plants/species, etc** ENVIRONMENT animals or plants which may soon not exist because there are very few now alive

endear /ɪnˈdɪəʳ/ *verb*
endear sb to sb *phrasal verb* If a quality in someone's character, or their behaviour endears them to you, it makes you like them.

endearing /ɪnˈdɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* An endearing quality is one that makes people like you.

endeavour /ɪnˈdevəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **endeavor**) *formal verb* **endeavour to do sth** to try very hard to do something *I endeavoured to help her, but she wouldn't let me.* ●**endeavour** *noun* [C, U] *human/artistic endeavour*

endemic /enˈdemɪk/ *adjective formal* If something unpleasant is endemic in a place or among a group of people, there is a lot of it there. *Corruption is endemic in some parts of the police force.*

ending /ˈendɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** the last part of a story *I hope this film has a* ***happy ending.*** **2** LANGUAGE a part added to the end of a word *To make the plural of 'dog', you add the plural ending '-s'.*

endive /ˈendaɪv/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a plant with bitter green leaves that are eaten in salads

endless /ˈendləs/ *adjective* continuing for a long time and never finishing, or never seeming to finish *He seems to think that I have an* ***endless supply*** *of money.* ●**endlessly** *adverb*

endocrine gland /ˈendəkraɪnˌglænd/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY any of the organs of the body which make hormones (= chemicals which make the body grow and develop) and put the hormones into the blood

endorse /ɪnˈdɔːs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say publicly that you support a person or action [**often passive**] *The idea was endorsed by a majority of members.* ●**endorsement** *noun* [C, U]

endoscope /ˈendəskəʊp/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a very small camera on the end of a long, thin tube that can be pushed into the body so that doctors can see inside the body

endoscopy /enˈdɒskəpi/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a medical operation using an endoscope

endoskeleton /ˌendəʊˈskelɪtᵊn/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a set of bones inside a body, such as the bones that support the body of a vertebrate (= an animal with a back bone) ➲Compare **exoskeleton**

endosperm /ˈendəʊspɜːm/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the store of food inside a plant seed

endothermic reaction /endəʊˌθɜːmɪkriˈækʃən/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical reaction that needs heat in order to happen ➲Compare **exothermic reaction**

endow /ɪnˈdaʊ/ *verb formal* **1 be endowed with sth** to have a particular quality or characteristic *The country is richly endowed with natural resources.* **2** FINANCE [T] to give a large amount of money to a college, hospital, etc

end-product /ˈendˌprɒdʌkt/ *noun* [C] the thing that you get at the end of a process or activity

endurance /ɪnˈdjʊərᵊns/ *noun* [U] the ability to keep doing something difficult, unpleasant, or painful for a long time *a race to test athletes' endurance*

endure /ɪnˈdjʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to suffer something difficult, unpleasant, or painful *She's already had to endure three painful operations on her leg.*

enduring /ɪnˈdjʊərɪŋ/ *adjective* existing for a long time *the enduring popularity of cartoons*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***enemy***

have/make enemies ● **arch/bitter/deadly** enemies

O-K **enemy** /ˈenəmi/ *noun* **1** PERSON [C] a person who you dislike or oppose *I try not to* ***make*** *any* ***enemies.*** **2** ARMY [**group**] a country or army that your country or army is fighting against in a war *enemy forces/territory*

energetic /ˌenəˈdʒetɪk/ *adjective* having or involving a lot of energy *an energetic young woman* ○ *Aerobics is too energetic for me.* ●**energetically** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***energy***

expend/have/save/waste energy ● **boundless/high/restless/surplus** energy

O-K **energy** /ˈenədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the power and ability to be very active without becoming tired *Looking after children takes up a lot of time and energy.* [+ **to do sth**] *I didn't even have the energy to get out of bed.* **2** PHYSICS the power that comes from electricity, gas, etc *nuclear energy* ○ *energy conservation* ➲See also: **atomic energy**

enforce /ɪnˈfɔːs/ *verb* [T] **1** LAW to make people obey a rule or law *It is the duty of the police to*

enforce the law. **2** SITUATION to make a particular situation happen, or to make people accept it *The new teacher failed to enforce discipline.* ●**enforcement** *noun* [U] *law enforcement*

engage /ɪnˈgeɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** INTEREST to interest someone in something and keep them thinking about it *The debate about food safety has engaged the whole nation.* **2** EMPLOY to employ someone [+ **to do sth**] *I have engaged a secretary to deal with all my paperwork.*
engage in sth *phrasal verb* to take part in something
engage sb in sth *phrasal verb* If you engage someone in conversation, you start a conversation with them.

engaged /ɪnˈgeɪdʒd/ *adjective* **1** RELATIONSHIP If two people are engaged, they have formally agreed to marry each other. *When did they **get engaged?*** **2** TELEPHONE *UK* If a telephone line or a toilet is engaged, it is already being used.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***engagement***

announce/break off your engagement ● your engagement **to** sb ● an engagement **party/ring**

engagement /ɪnˈgeɪdʒmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** RELATIONSHIP an agreement to get married to someone *an **engagement ring*** **2** ARRANGEMENT an arrangement to meet someone or do something at a particular time

engaging /ɪnˈgeɪdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* pleasant, interesting, or attractive *She has a very engaging personality.*

engender /ɪnˈdʒendəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make people have a particular feeling or make a situation start to exist *We want to engender loyalty to our products.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***engine***

start/switch on/switch off/turn off the engine

engine /ˈendʒɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** MACHINE the part of a vehicle that uses energy from oil, electricity, or steam to make it move *a diesel/petrol engine* **2** TRAIN the part of a train that pulls it along ➲See also: **fire engine, search engine**

ˈengine ˌdriver *UK* (*US* **engineer**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is to drive a train

engineer¹ /ˌendʒɪˈnɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MACHINES/BRIDGES ETC someone whose job is to design, build, or repair machines, engines, roads, bridges, etc *a **mechanical/structural engineer*** ○ *a **software engineer*** **2** TRAIN *US* someone whose job is to drive a train

engineer² /ˌendʒɪˈnɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] to arrange for something to happen, especially in a clever and secret way [**often passive**] *She was convinced that the accident had been engineered by his enemies.*

engineering /ˌendʒɪˈnɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the work of an engineer, or the study of this work *mechanical engineering* ➲See also: **civil engineering, genetic engineering**

English¹ /ˈɪŋglɪʃ/ *noun* **1** [U] LANGUAGE the language that is spoken in the UK, the US, and in many other countries *American/British English* ○ *Do you speak English?* **2 the English** [**plural**] the people of England

English² /ˈɪŋglɪʃ/ *adjective* **1** LANGUAGE relating to the English language *an English teacher* **2** NATION relating to England *English law*

ˌEnglish ˈbreakfast *noun* [C] *UK* FOOD a dish including cooked meat and eggs, eaten as the first meal of the day

ˌEnglish ˈmuffin *US* (*UK* **muffin**) *noun* [C] FOOD a small, round, flat bread that is often eaten hot with butter

engrave /ɪnˈgreɪv/ *verb* [T] ART to cut words or pictures into the surface of metal, stone, etc *He gave her a silver pen engraved with her name.* ●**engraver** *noun* [C]

engraving /ɪnˈgreɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [C] ART a picture printed from an engraved piece of metal or wood

engrossed /ɪnˈgrəʊst/ *adjective* giving all your attention to something *He was so **engrossed in** what he was doing that he didn't hear the bell.*

engrossing /ɪnˈgrəʊsɪŋ/ *adjective* very interesting, and needing all your attention *an engrossing book*

engulf /ɪnˈgʌlf/ *verb* [T] **1** COVER to surround or cover someone or something completely [**often passive**] *The house **was** quickly **engulfed in** flames.* **2** AFFECT STRONGLY to affect a place or a group of people quickly and strongly *Panic is threatening to engulf the country.*

enhance /ɪnˈhɑːns/ *verb* [T] *formal* to improve something *Winning that award greatly enhanced her reputation.* ●**enhancement** *noun* [C, U] when something is improved

enigma /ɪˈnɪgmə/ *noun* [C] someone or something that is mysterious and difficult to understand *She is a complete enigma to me.*

enigmatic /ˌenɪgˈmætɪk/ *adjective* mysterious and impossible to understand completely

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***enjoy***

A more formal way of saying 'enjoy' is **relish**: *Jonathan always **relishes** a challenge.*

When someone enjoys a situation or activity very much, you can use the phrasal verbs **lap up** or **revel in**: *He **lapped up** all the attention they gave him.* ● *She **revelled in** her role as team manager.*

If someone enjoys doing something that other people think is unpleasant, the phrasal verb **delight in** is sometimes used: *She seems to **delight in** making other people look stupid.*

The verb **savour** (*UK*) (**savor** *US*) is sometimes used when someone enjoys something slowly so that they can appreciate it as much as possible: *It was the first chocolate he'd had for over a year, so he **savoured** every mouthful.*

When someone enjoys themselves very much, in informal situations you can use the expression **have a ball**: *We **had a ball** in Miami.*

enjoy /ɪnˈdʒɔɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** LIKE If you enjoy something, it gives you pleasure. *I hope you enjoy your meal.* [+ **doing sth**] *I really enjoyed being with him.* **2 enjoy yourself** to get pleasure from

something that you are doing *Everyone eventually relaxed and began to enjoy themselves.* **3** GOOD SITUATION *formal* to have or experience something good such as success *His play enjoyed great success on Broadway.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

enjoy doing something

When **enjoy** is followed by a verb, the verb must be in the **-ing** form.

My parents enjoy walking in the mountains.

~~*My parents enjoy to walk in the mountains.*~~

enjoyable /ɪnˈdʒɔɪəbl/ *adjective* An enjoyable event or experience gives you pleasure. *We had a very enjoyable evening.*

enjoyment /ɪnˈdʒɔɪmənt/ *noun* [**U**] when you enjoy something *She **gets** a lot of **enjoyment from** music.*

enlarge /ɪnˈlɑːdʒ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become bigger or to make something become bigger [**often passive**] *I want to get this photo enlarged.* ○ *an enlarged liver*
enlarge on/upon sth *phrasal verb formal* to give more details about something that you have said or written

enlargement /ɪnˈlɑːdʒmənt/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something is enlarged, or something that has been enlarged *I'm going to get an enlargement of this wedding photo.*

enlighten /ɪnˈlaɪtᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to give someone information about something, so that they understand a situation *He believes he has a duty to enlighten the public on these matters.*

enlightened /ɪnˈlaɪtᵊnd/ *adjective* having practical, modern ideas and ways of dealing with things *an **enlightened attitude***

enlightening /ɪnˈlaɪtᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* giving you more information and understanding about something *an enlightening book*

enlist /ɪnˈlɪst/ *verb* **1 enlist the help/support of sb** to ask for and get help or support from someone *They are hoping to enlist the support of local politicians.* **2** [**I**] to join the army, navy, etc

enliven /ɪnˈlaɪvᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] to make something more interesting *The children's arrival enlivened a boring evening.*

en masse /ɒnˈmæs/ *adverb* If a group of people do something en masse, they do it together as a group. *They surrendered en masse.*

enmity /ˈenməti/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* a strong feeling of hate

enormity /ɪˈnɔːməti/ *noun* **the enormity of sth** how big or important something is *He hadn't realized the enormity of the problem.*

O-K **enormous** /ɪˈnɔːməs/ *adjective* extremely large *This living room is enormous.*

enormously /ɪˈnɔːməsli/ *adverb* extremely *an enormously popular show*

O-K **enough**[1] /ɪˈnʌf/ *pronoun, quantifier* **1** NECESSARY as much as is necessary *They had enough fuel for one week.* [**+ to do sth**] *Have you had enough to eat?* **2** WANTED as much as or more than you want *I've got enough work at the moment, without being given any more.* **3 have had enough** to want something to stop because it is annoying you *I've **had enough of** your excuses.* **4 that's enough** used to tell someone to stop behaving badly

O-K **enough**[2] /ɪˈnʌf/ *adverb* **1** NECESSARY as much as is necessary [**+ to do sth**] *Are you old enough to vote?* ○ *You're not going fast enough.* **2** NOT VERY slightly, but not very *He's nice enough, but I don't really want to go out with him.* **3 funnily/oddly/strangely enough** although it may seem strange *I was dreading the party, but I really enjoyed it, funnily enough.*

enquire *UK* (*UK/US* **inquire**) /ɪnˈkwaɪəʳ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to ask someone for information about something *"Are you staying long?" she enquired.* ○ *I'm **enquiring about** dentists in the area.* ●**enquirer** *UK* (*UK/US* **inquirer**) *noun* [**C**]
enquire after sb *phrasal verb UK formal* to ask someone for information about someone else's health and what they are doing, in order to be polite
enquire into sth *phrasal verb formal* to try to discover the facts about something

enquiring *UK* (*UK/US* **inquiring**) /ɪnˈkwaɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** WANTING TO LEARN always wanting to learn new things *an **enquiring mind*** **2** EXPRESSION An enquiring expression on your face shows that you want to know something.

WORD PARTNERS FOR *enquiry*

make/receive an enquiry ● an enquiry **about** sth

enquiry *UK* (*UK/US* **inquiry**) /ɪnˈkwaɪəri/ *noun* **1** QUESTION [**C**] *formal* a question that you ask when you want more information *We receive a lot of **enquiries about** tax issues.* **2** OFFICIAL PROCESS [**C**] an official process to discover the facts about something bad that has happened *The hospital is holding an **enquiry into** the accident.* **3** ASKING QUESTIONS [**U**] *formal* the process of asking questions in order to get information

enrage /ɪnˈreɪdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone very angry [**often passive**] *Farmers are enraged by the government's refusal to help.*

enrich /ɪnˈrɪtʃ/ *verb* [**T**] to improve the quality of something by adding something to it [**often passive**] *Our culture has been enriched by the many immigrants who live here.* ●**enrichment** *noun* [**U**]

enrol *UK* (*US* **enroll**) /ɪnˈrəʊl/ *verb* [**I, T**] **enrolling**, *past* **enrolled** to become or make someone become an official member of a course, college, or group *I've (UK) **enrolled on**/ (US) **enrolled in** a creative writing course.* ●**enrolment** *UK* (*US* **enrollment**) *noun* [**C, U**]

en route /ˌɒnˈruːt/ *adverb* on the way to or from somewhere *We stopped in Monaco **en route to** Switzerland.*

ensemble /ɒnˈsɒmbᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a small group of musicians or actors who regularly play or perform together

enshrined /ɪnˈʃraɪnd/ *verb formal* **be enshrined in sth** If a political or social right is enshrined in something, it is protected by being included in it. *These fundamental human rights are enshrined in the constitution.*

enslave /ɪnˈsleɪv/ *verb* [T] *formal* to control someone and keep them in a bad situation [**often passive**] *These workers are enslaved by poverty.*

ensue /ɪnˈsjuː/ *verb* [I] **ensuing,** *past* **ensued** *formal* to happen after something, often as a result of it ●**ensuing** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *the ensuing hours/months*

en suite /ˌɒnˈswiːt/ *adjective UK* An en suite bathroom is directly connected to a bedroom.

E

ensure /ɪnˈʃɔː/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make certain that something is done or happens [+ **(that)**] *Please ensure that all examination papers have your name at the top.*

entail /ɪnˈteɪl/ *verb* [T] to involve something *What exactly does the job entail?*

entangled /ɪnˈtæŋgld/ *adjective* **1** INVOLVED involved with someone or something so that it is difficult to escape *I don't know how I ever got entangled in this relationship.* **2** CAUGHT caught in something such as a net or ropes *The dolphin had become entangled in the fishing net.*

entente cordiale /ˌɒntɒntˌkɔːdiˈɑːl/ *noun* [**C usually singular, U**] **POLITICS** a friendly agreement or relationship between two countries, especially that between the UK and France, agreed in 1904

enter /ˈentəʳ/ *verb* **1** PLACE [**I, T**] to come or go into a place *The police entered by the back door.* ○ *She is accused of entering the country illegally.* **2** **COMPUTING** [T] to put information into a computer, book, or document *You have to enter a password to access this information.* **3** COMPETITION [**I, T**] to take part in a competition, race, or exam, or to arrange for someone else to do this *Are you going to enter the photography competition?* **4** ORGANIZATION [T] to become a member of a particular organization, or start working in a particular type of job *She didn't enter the legal profession until she was 40.* **5** PERIOD OF TIME [T] to begin a period of time *The violence is now entering its third week.*
enter into sth *phrasal verb* to start to become involved in something, especially a discussion or agreement

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

enter a place

You do not need to use a preposition after **enter**.

I entered the classroom.

~~*I entered in the classroom.*~~

Be careful not to use **enter** with vehicles.

The children got on the bus.

~~*The children entered the bus.*~~

enterprise /ˈentəpraɪz/ *noun* **1** BUSINESS [**C**] a business or organization *a state-owned enterprise* **2** PLAN [**C**] a difficult and important plan *Putting on the concert will be a joint enterprise between the two schools.* **3** QUALITY [**U**] when someone is enthusiastic and willing to do something new and clever, although there are risks involved *The scheme shows imagination and enterprise.* ➲See also: **free enterprise**

enterprising /ˈentəpraɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* enthusiastic and willing to do something new, clever, and difficult *The film was made by an enterprising group of students.*

entertain /ˌentəˈteɪn/ *verb* **1** INTEREST [**T**] to keep someone interested and help them to have an enjoyable time *We hired a clown to entertain the children.* **2** GUEST [**I, T**] to invite someone to be your guest and give them food, drink, etc *We don't entertain as much as we used to.* **3** THINK ABOUT [**T**] *formal* to consider or be willing to accept an idea or suggestion *He had never even* ***entertained*** *the* ***idea*** *of her returning.*

entertainer /ˌentəˈteɪnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone whose job is to entertain people by singing, telling jokes, etc

entertaining /ˌentəˈteɪnɪŋ/ *adjective* interesting and helping someone to have an enjoyable time *an entertaining and informative book*

entertainment /ˌentəˈteɪnmənt/ *noun* [**C, U**] shows, films, television, or other performances or activities that entertain people ***popular entertainment*** ○ *There is* ***live entertainment*** *in the bar every night.*

enthral *UK* (*US* **enthrall**) /ɪnˈθrɔːl/ *verb* [T] **enthralling,** *past* **enthralled** to keep someone's interest and attention completely [**often passive**] *The children were enthralled by the circus.* ●**enthralling** *adjective* keeping someone's interest and attention completely

enthuse /ɪnˈθjuːz/ *verb* [I] to express excitement about something or great interest in it *She couldn't stop enthusing about the film.*

enthusiasm /ɪnˈθjuːziæzəm/ *noun* [**U**] when you feel very interested in something and would very much like to be involved in it *She has always had a lot of* ***enthusiasm for*** *her work.*

enthusiast /ɪnˈθjuːziæst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is very interested in and involved with a particular activity or subject *a sports enthusiast*

enthusiastic /ɪnˌθjuːziˈæstɪk/ *adjective* showing enthusiasm *The teacher was very* ***enthusiastic about*** *my project.* ●**enthusiastically** *adverb*

entice /ɪnˈtaɪs/ *verb* [T] to persuade someone to do something by offering them something pleasant [+ **to do sth**] *Supermarkets use all sorts of tricks to entice you to buy things.* ●**enticing** *adjective* Something which is enticing attracts you by offering you something pleasant.

entire /ɪnˈtaɪəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] whole or complete *She spent her entire life caring for other people.*

entirely /ɪnˈtaɪəli/ *adverb* completely *I'm not entirely convinced that it will work.*

entirety /ɪnˈtaɪərəti/ *noun* **in its entirety** with all parts included *This is the first time that the book has been published in its entirety.*

entitle /ɪnˈtaɪtl/ *verb* **1 entitle sb to (do) sth** to give someone the right to do or have something [**often passive**] I'm entitled to apply for citizenship. **2** [T] to give something a particular title *a lecture entitled "Language, Learning and Literacy"*

entitlement /ɪnˈtaɪtlmənt/ *noun* [C, U] when you have the right to do or have something

entity /ˈentɪti/ *noun* [C] something which exists apart from other things *They want the area recognized as a **separate** political **entity**.*

entourage /ˈɒntʊrɑːʒ/ (US) /ɑːntʊˈrɑːʒ/ *noun* [group] the group of people who travel with an important or famous person *She arrived with her usual entourage of dancers and musicians.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***entrance***

the **back/front/main** entrance ● **at** the entrance ● the entrance **to** sth

entrance /ˈentrəns/ *noun* **1** DOOR [C] a door or other opening which you use to enter a building or place *They must have used the back **entrance to** the building.* ○ *I'll meet you **at the** main **entrance**.* **2** COMING IN [C] when someone comes into or goes into a place, especially in a way that makes people notice them *The whole room went quiet when he **made his entrance**.* **3** RIGHT [U] the right to enter a place or to join an organization, college, etc *Entrance is free, but you have to pay for your drinks.*

entranced /ɪnˈtrɑːnst/ *adjective* If you are entranced by someone or something, you cannot stop watching them because they are very interesting or very beautiful. *The children were entranced by the puppet show.*

entrant /ˈentrənt/ *noun* [C] someone who enters a competition, organization, or examination

entreat /ɪnˈtriːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to try very hard to persuade someone to do something

entrenched /ɪnˈtrenʃt/ *adjective* Entrenched ideas are so fixed or have existed for so long that they cannot be changed. *These **attitudes** are firmly **entrenched** in our culture.*

entrepreneur /ˌɒntrəprəˈnɜːr/ *noun* [C] someone who starts their own business, especially when this involves risks ●**entrepreneurial** *adjective*

entrust /ɪnˈtrʌst/ *verb* [T] to make someone responsible for doing something or looking after something [**often passive**] *I was **entrusted with** the task of organizing the party.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***entry***

allow/gain/refuse entry ● entry **into/to** [a place]

entry /ˈentri/ *noun* **1** COMING IN [U] when you come into or go into a place *She was **refused entry** to the US.* ○ *Police **gained entry** by breaking a window.* **2** JOINING/TAKING PART [U] when you join an organization or take part in a competition *Are there lots of exams for **entry into** the legal profession?* ○ *an entry form* **3** COMPETITION WORK [C] a piece of work that you do to try to win a competition *The first ten correct entries will receive a prize.* **4** PIECE OF INFORMATION [C] one of the pieces of information or writing that is recorded in a book such as a dictionary, or in a computer system *a diary entry* **5** **COMPUTING** [U] when someone puts information into something such as a computer system ***data entry***

entwined /ɪnˈtwaɪnd/ *adjective* **1** TWISTED TOGETHER something twisted together or twisted around something *Their arms were entwined.* **2** CONNECTED unable to be separated *My fate is entwined with his.*

enumerate /ɪˈnjuːməreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to name each thing on a list

envelop /ɪnˈveləp/ *verb* [T] to completely cover something [**often passive**] *The farm was enveloped in fog.*

envelope /ˈenvələʊp/ *noun* [C] a flat paper container for a letter ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

enviable /ˈenviəbl/ *adjective* If someone is in an enviable situation, you wish that you were also in that situation. *She's in the **enviable position** of being able to choose who she works for.*

envious /ˈenviəs/ *adjective* wishing that you had what someone else has *She was **envious of** his successful career.* ●**enviously** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***environment***

damage/harm/pollute/protect the environment

environment /ɪnˈvaɪərənmənt/ *noun* **1 the environment** **ENVIRONMENT** the air, land, and water where people, animals, and plants live *The new road may cause damage to the environment.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **nature 2** [C] the situation that you live or work in, and how it influences how you feel *We are working in a very competitive environment.*

environmental /ɪnˌvaɪərənˈmentəl/ *adjective* **ENVIRONMENT** relating to the environment *environmental damage* ○ *an environmental disaster* ●**environmentally** *adverb environmentally damaging chemicals*

environmentalist /ɪnˌvaɪərənˈmentəlɪst/ *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** someone who tries to protect the natural environment from being damaged

enˌvironmentally ˈfriendly *adjective* **ENVIRONMENT** not damaging the environment *environmentally-friendly washing powder*

envisage /ɪnˈvɪzɪdʒ/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **envision** /ɪnˈvɪʒən/) *verb* [T] to imagine something happening, or think that something is likely to happen *The police don't envisage any trouble at the festival.*

envoy /ˈenvɔɪ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who is sent to represent their government in another country

envy[1] /ˈenvi/ *noun* **1** [U] the feeling that you wish you had something that someone else has *I watched with envy as he climbed into his brand new sports car.* **2 be the envy of sb** to be liked and wanted by someone *Her new office was the envy of the whole company.*

envy[2] /ˈenvi/ *verb* [T] to wish that you had something that someone else has *I envy her good looks.* [+ **two objects**] *I don't envy him that job.*

enzyme /ˈenzaɪm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a chemical substance produced by living cells which makes particular chemical reactions happen in animals and plants

eolian /iːˈəʊ.li.ən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **GEOGRAPHY** *US spelling of* aeolian (= produced or carried by the wind)

ephemeral /ɪˈfemᵊrᵊl/ *adjective formal* lasting for only a short time

epic /ˈepɪk/ *noun* [C] a story or film which is very long and contains a lot of action ●**epic** *adjective an epic journey*

epicentre *UK* (*US* **epicenter**) /ˈepɪsentᵊ/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** the point on the Earth's surface which is exactly above an earthquake (= a sudden, violent movement of the Earth's surface)

epidemic /ˌepɪˈdemɪk/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** when a large number of people get the same disease over the same period of time *the AIDS epidemic*

epidermis /ˌepɪˈdɜːmɪs/ *noun* [C, U] **1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the thin outer layer of the skin **2** the outer layer of cells in plants ➲See picture at **leaf** ➲See picture at **stem**

epiglottis /ˌepɪˈglɒtɪs/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a flat part at the back of the tongue which closes when you swallow to stop food from entering the tube that air goes down ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

epilepsy /ˈepɪlepsi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a brain disease which can make someone become unconscious and have fits (= when you shake in an uncontrolled way)

epileptic /ˌepɪˈleptɪk/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone who suffers from epilepsy ●**epileptic** *adjective*

epilogue /ˈepɪlɒg/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a speech or piece of writing that is added to the end of a play or book

epiphany /ɪˈpɪfᵊni/ *noun* [U] *literary* a moment when you suddenly understand or become aware of something

epiphyte /ˈepɪfaɪt / *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a plant that grows on another plant, especially one that does not feed from it

episode /ˈepɪsəʊd/ *noun* [C] **1** PROGRAMME one programme of a series shown on television *Did you see last week's episode of The X-Files?* **2** EVENT a single event or period of time *an important* ***episode in*** *British history*

epitaph /ˈepɪtɑːf/ *noun* [C] words that are written to remember a dead person, usually on the stone where they are buried

epithelium /ˌˌepˈɪθiːliəm/ *noun* [usually singular] **BIOLOGY** a layer of cells that are tightly pressed together which covers the outside and inside surfaces of the body

epitome /ɪˈpɪtəmi/ *noun* **be the epitome of sth** to be a perfect example of a quality or type of thing *The hotel was the epitome of luxury.*

epitomize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ɪˈpɪtəmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to be a perfect example of a quality or type of thing *She epitomizes elegance and good taste.*

epoch /ˈiːpɒk/ (US) /ˈepək/ *noun* [C] *plural* **epochs** a long period of time in history

eponymous /ɪˈpɒnɪməs/ *adjective* [always before noun] *literary* An eponymous character in a play, book, etc, has the same name as the title.

EPOS /ˈiːpɒz/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE, COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* electronic point of sale; any electronic system used at the place where customers pay for their goods

equal¹ /ˈiːkwəl/ *adjective* **1** the same in amount, number, or size *The sides are of equal length.* ○ *One metre is* ***equal to*** *39.37 inches.* **2 equal opportunities/rights, etc SOCIETY** opportunities/rights, etc that are the same for everyone without anyone having an unfair advantage ➲Opposite **unequal**

equal² /ˈiːkwəl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **equalling,** *past* **equalled,** *US* **equaling,** *past* **equaled 1** SAME to have the same value, size, etc as something else, often shown using a symbol (=) *Two plus two equals four.* **2** AS GOOD AS to be as good as someone or something else *She equalled her own world record in the race.*

equal³ /ˈiːkwəl/ *noun* [C] someone who has the same ability, opportunities, or rights as someone else *The teacher treats us all as equals.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***equality***

racial/sexual/social equality ● equality **between** sb and sb

equality /ɪˈkwɒləti/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** when everyone is equal and has the same opportunities, rights, etc ***racial/sexual equality*** ○ ***equality between*** *men and women* ➲Opposite **inequality**

equalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈiːkwᵊlaɪz/ *verb* **1 SPORT** [I] *UK* to get the point in a game or competition that makes your score the same as the other team or player **2** [T] to make things or people equal

equally /ˈiːkwəli/ *adverb* **1** SAME DEGREE to the same degree or level *an equally important question* ○ *She did* ***equally well*** *in the competition last year.* **2** SAME AMOUNTS into amounts or parts that are the same size *She shared the money equally between the four children.* **3** SAME WAY If you treat people equally, you treat everyone in the same way so that no one has an unfair advantage.

ˈequal ˌsign (*also* **ˈequals ˌsign**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the symbol =, used to show that two things are the same in value, size, meaning, etc

equanimity /ˌekwəˈnɪməti/ *noun* [U] *formal* the ability to react calmly, especially in difficult situations

equate /ɪˈkweɪt/ *verb* [T] to consider one thing to be the same as or equal to another thing *Many people* ***equate*** *wealth* ***with*** *happiness.*

equation /ɪˈkweɪʒᵊn/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** when you show that two amounts are equal using mathematical symbols

equator /ɪˈkweɪtᵊ/ *noun* [U] the imaginary line around the Earth that divides it into equal north and south parts ●**equatorial** /ˌekwəˈtɔːriəl/ *adjective* relating to the equator

equestrian /ɪˈkwestriən/ *adjective* **SPORT** relating to riding horses

equi- /ekwɪ-/ *prefix* equal, equally *equidistant* (= the same distance from two or more places)

equidistant /ˌekwɪˈdɪstᵊnt/ *adjective formal* equally far or close *London is roughly equidistant from Oxford and Cambridge.*

equilateral /ˌiːkwɪˈlætᵊrᵊl/ /ˌekwɪ-/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** describes a triangle whose sides

are all the same length *an equilateral triangle* ➲Compare **isosceles triangle, scalene triangle**

equilibrium /ˌiːkwɪˈlɪbriəm/ *noun* [U] **1** a state of balance between forces or influences **2** PHYSICS a state in which an object is not moving or is moving at the same speed all the time because there is a balance of forces acting on it

equip /ɪˈkwɪp/ *verb* **equipping,** *past* **equipped** **1 be equipped with sth** to include the things that are needed for a particular purpose *The new trains are equipped with all the latest technology.* **2** [T] to give someone the skills they need to do a particular thing [+ **to do sth**] *The course didn't really equip me to be a journalist.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***equipment***

install/operate/use equipment ● **modern/necessary/specialist** equipment ● equipment **for** sth

equipment /ɪˈkwɪpmənt/ *noun* **1** [U] the things that are used for a particular activity or purpose *kitchen/office equipment* ○ *electrical equipment* (= equipment that uses electricity) **2 a piece of equipment** a tool or object used for a particular activity or purpose

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

equipment

Remember you cannot make **equipment** plural. Do not say 'equipments'.

The computer room has all the equipment you need.

equitable /ˈekwɪtəbl/ *adjective formal* treating everyone in an equal way *a fair and equitable voting system* ●**equitably** *adverb*

equity /ˈekwɪti/ *noun* [U] *formal* **1** when everyone is treated fairly and equally *pay equity* ➲Compare **inequity** **2** FINANCE [C, U] the value of a company, which is divided into many equal parts owned by the shareholders, or one of the equal parts into which the value of a company is divided *He sold his equity in the company last year.*

equivalent¹ /ɪˈkwɪvᵊlənt/ *adjective* equal in amount, value, importance, or meaning *The UK's Brit Awards are roughly* ***equivalent to*** *the Oscars.*

equivalent² /ɪˈkwɪvᵊlənt/ *noun* [C] something that has the same value, importance, size, or meaning as something else *She won* ***the equivalent of*** *$5 million.*

er /ɜːʳ/ *exclamation UK spoken* (*US* **uh**) something that you say while you are thinking what to say next *Well, er, I'm not too sure about that.*

ER /ˌiːˈɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH *US abbreviation for* emergency room: the part of a hospital where people go when they have been injured or have urgent illnesses so that they can be treated immediately

era /ˈɪərə/ *noun* [C] a period of time in history that is special for a particular reason *the Victorian era* ○ *a new era of peace*

eradicate /ɪˈrædɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to destroy or completely get rid of something such as a social problem or a disease ●**eradication** /ɪˌrædɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

erase /ɪˈreɪz/ (US) /ɪˈreɪs/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to completely remove words, music, pictures, etc that are written or stored on a computer or other piece of equipment *I accidentally erased the tape she lent me.*

eraser /ɪˈreɪzəʳ/ (US) /ɪˈreɪsər/ *US* (*UK* **rubber**) *noun* [C] **1** PENCIL a small object which is used to remove pencil marks from paper **2** BOARD an object which is used to remove marks from a blackboard (= a large dark board that teachers write on) ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

erect¹ /ɪˈrekt/ *adjective* straight and standing up *She stood very erect, with her hands behind her back.*

erect² /ɪˈrekt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to build or put up a structure *When was this building erected?*

erection /ɪˈrekʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** BIOLOGY [C] when a penis becomes harder and bigger than usual **2** [C, U] *formal* when a structure is built or put up, or the building itself

erector muscle /ɪˈrektəˌmʌsl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a muscle that can pull something, such as the bone in a human's back, into an upright position

ergonomic /ˌɜːgəˈnɒmɪk/ *adjective* relating to the scientific study of people and their working conditions, especially the study of how well people work with their equipment, furniture, lighting, etc. *ergonomic design/features*

erode /ɪˈrəʊd/ *verb* **1** GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY [I, T] If soil, stone, etc erodes or is eroded, it is gradually damaged and removed by the sea, rain, or wind. [**often passive**] *The coastline is slowly being eroded by the sea.* **2** [T] *formal* to gradually destroy a good quality or situation *Reports of corruption have eroded people's confidence in the police.* ●**erosion** /ɪˈrəʊʒᵊn/ *noun* [U] *soil erosion*

erotic /ɪˈrɒtɪk/ *adjective* making you feel strong sexual feelings, or involving sexual love *an erotic film* ●**erotically** *adverb*

err /ɜːʳ/ *verb* [I] *formal* to make a mistake or do something that is wrong ➲See also: err on the **side**¹ of caution

errand /ˈerənd/ *noun* [C] a short journey in order to buy or do something for someone *I've got to* ***run*** *a few* ***errands*** *this morning before we go.*

errant /ˈerənt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An errant person has behaved badly. *an errant husband*

erratic /ɪˈrætɪk/ *adjective* often changing suddenly and not regular *His behaviour is becoming more and more erratic.* ●**erratically** *adverb*

erroneous /ɪˈrəʊniəs/ *adjective formal* not correct *an erroneous answer*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***error***

make/correct an error ● a **fundamental/glaring** error ● do sth **in** error ● **human** error

error /ˈerəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a mistake, especially one that can cause problems *a computer error/* ***human error*** ○ *to* ***make*** *an* ***error*** ○ *The*

documents were destroyed ***in error*** (= by mistake) *by the police.*

ˈerror ˌmessage *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a message that comes onto your computer screen when you have made a mistake

erupt /ɪˈrʌpt/ *verb* [I] **1** **GEOLOGY** If a volcano erupts, it suddenly throws out smoke, fire, and melted rocks. **2** HAPPEN to happen suddenly or violently ***Violence erupted*** *in the city on Friday night.* **3** PERSON to suddenly become very excited or angry, or start to shout *The whole stadium erupted when he scored the second goal.* ●**eruption** /ɪˈrʌpʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] *a* ***volcanic eruption***

erythrocyte /ɪˈrɪθrəsaɪt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a red blood cell

escalate /ˈeskəleɪt/ *verb* **1** GET WORSE [I, T] If a violent or bad situation escalates or is escalated, it quickly becomes worse or more serious. *The fight quickly* ***escalated into*** *a riot.* **2** INCREASE [I] to rise or increase quickly *Airline* ***prices escalate*** *during the holiday season.* ●**escalation** /ˌeskəˈleɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] *an* ***escalation in*** *violence*

escalator /ˈeskəleɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] moving stairs that take people from one level of a building to another *We* ***took*** *the* ***escalator*** *down to the basement.*

escapade /ˌeskəˈpeɪd/ *noun* [C] an exciting and sometimes dangerous experience

escape¹ /ɪˈskeɪp/ *verb* **1** GET AWAY [I] to succeed in getting away from a place where you do not want to be *The two killers* ***escaped from*** *prison last night.* **2** AVOID [I, T] to avoid a dangerous or unpleasant situation *to* ***escape capture/injury*** **3** FORGET [T] If something such as a name escapes you, you cannot remember it. *The* ***name*** *of her book* ***escapes*** *me at the moment.* **4** NOT NOTICE [T] If something escapes your notice or attention, you do not notice or see it. *Nothing that goes on in this office* ***escapes*** *her* ***attention.*** **5** GAS/LIQUID [I] If a gas or liquid escapes from a pipe or container, it comes out, especially when it should not. ●**escaped** *adjective an escaped prisoner*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***escape***

attempt/make/plan an escape ● a **lucky/remarkable** escape ● an escape **from** sth/sb

escape² /ɪˈskeɪp/ *noun* **1** GETTING OUT [C, U] when someone succeeds in getting out of a place or a dangerous or bad situation **2 a narrow escape** when someone almost dies or almost has a very bad experience **3** FROM TROUBLE [U, **no plural**] something that helps you to forget about your usual life or problems *I love old movies, they're such an* ***escape from*** *the real world.* ➲See also: **fire escape**

esˈcape ˌ(key) (*written abbreviation* **Esc**) *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** the key on a computer keyboard which allows you to leave a particular screen or program *If you press the escape key, you will return to the main menu.*

escapism /ɪˈskeɪpɪzˈm/ *noun* [U] entertainment or imagination that helps you to forget about your work and your problems ●**escapist** *adjective*

escort¹ /ˈeskɔːt/ *noun* **1** GUARD [C, U] a person or vehicle that goes somewhere with someone to protect or guard them *She was driven to court* ***under*** *police* ***escort.*** **2** SOCIAL [C] a person who goes with someone else to a social event, sometimes for payment

escort² /ɪˈskɔːt/ *verb* [T] to go somewhere with someone, often to protect or guard them *He offered to escort me home.*

Eskimo /ˈeskɪməʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **Eskimos** or **Eskimo** *old-fashioned another word for* Inuit (= a group of people who live in the cold, northern areas of North America, Russia, and Greenland, or a member of this group) *an Eskimo village*

ESL /ˌiːesˈel/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* English as a Second Language: the teaching of English to students whose first language is not English, but who live in a country where it is the main language

esophagus *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** *US spelling of* oesophagus

especially /ɪˈspeʃˈəli/ *adverb* **1** MORE more than other things or people, or much more than usual *He's always making comments about her appearance, especially her weight.* ○ *She's especially interested in American poetry.* **2** ONLY for one particular person, purpose, or reason *I cooked this meal* ***especially for*** *you.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **specially**

espionage /ˈespiənɑːʒ/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the activity of discovering secret information about a country or company that is fighting or competing against you ***industrial espionage***

espouse /ɪˈspaʊz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to support a belief or way of life

espresso /esˈpresəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** strong, black coffee

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***essay***

do/write an essay ● **in** an essay ● an essay **on** sth

essay /ˈeseɪ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a short piece of writing about a particular subject, especially one written by a student *He wrote an* ***essay on*** *modern Japanese literature.*

essence /ˈesˈns/ *noun* **1** BASIC QUALITY [**U, no plural**] the basic or most important idea or quality of something *The* ***essence of*** *his argument is that we should not eat meat.* **2** LIQUID [C, U] a strong liquid, usually made from a plant or flower, that is used to add a flavour or smell to something *vanilla essence*

essential /ɪˈsenʃˈəl/ *adjective* **1** NECESSARY very important and necessary *Computers are an* ***essential part*** *of our lives.* ○ *Fibre is* ***essential for*** *a healthy digestive system.* [**+ to do sth**] *It is essential to arrive early for the show.* [**+ (that)**] *It is absolutely essential that she gets this message.* **2** BASIC the most basic and important *There's one essential point I think you've forgotten.*

essentially /ɪˈsenʃəli/ *adverb* used when you are emphasizing the basic facts about something *What he is saying is essentially true.*

es,sential ˈoil *noun* [C, U] a strong oil made from a plant which contains its smell or other special qualities

essentials /ɪˈsenʃᵊlz/ *noun* [plural] the most important or necessary things

establish /ɪˈstæblɪʃ/ *verb* **1** START [T] to start a company or organization that will continue for a long time [often passive] *The brewery was established in 1822.* **2 establish sb/sth as sth** to put someone or something into a successful and lasting position [often reflexive] He quickly established himself as a talented actor. **3 establish communication/relations, etc** to start having a relationship or communicating with another company, country, or organization *The two countries have only recently established diplomatic relations.* **4** DECIDE [T] to decide something *Our first step must be to establish priorities for the weeks ahead.* **5** DISCOVER [T] to find out information or prove something [+ question word] *The police are trying to establish how he died.* ●**established** *adjective*

establishment /ɪˈstæblɪʃmənt/ *noun* **1** ORGANIZATION [C] an organization or business **2** STARTING [U] when an organization, school, business, etc is started *the establishment of a new national bank* **3 the Establishment** the people and organizations that have most power and influence in a country **4 the legal/medical, etc establishment** the group of people with most influence in a particular area of work or activity

estate /ɪˈsteɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** LAND a large area of land in the countryside that is owned by one person or organization *a country estate* **2** BUILDINGS *UK* an area with a lot of buildings of the same type *an **industrial estate*** **3** POSSESSIONS the possessions and money that someone owns when they die ➲See also: **housing estate, real estate**

esˈtate ˌagent *UK* (*US* **real estate agent**) *noun* [C] someone who sells buildings and land as their job

esˈtate ˌcar *UK* (*US* **station wagon**) *noun* [C] a big car with a large space for bags behind the back seat

esteem /ɪˈstiːm/ *noun* [U] *formal* respect and admiration for someone *My father was **held in high esteem** by everyone who knew him.* ➲See also: **self-esteem**

esteemed /ɪˈstiːmd/ *adjective formal* respected and admired *a **highly esteemed** professor*

ester /ˈestəʳ/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY any of several compounds produced by a reaction between an acid and an alcohol

esthetic /esˈθetɪk/ *adjective another US spelling of* aesthetic (= relating to beauty and the way something looks) ●**esthetically** *adverb*

esthetics /esˈθetɪks/ *noun* [U] *another US spelling of* aesthetics (= the study of beauty)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***estimate***

an **accurate/rough** estimate ● an estimate **of** sth ● **give** sb an estimate

estimate¹ /ˈestɪmət/ *noun* [C] **1** a guess of what a size, value, amount, etc might be *a **rough estimate*** **2** FINANCE a written document saying how much it will probably cost to do a job *Can you **give** me an **estimate** for the work?*

O-➡ **estimate²** /ˈestɪmeɪt/ *verb* [T] to guess the cost, size, value, etc of something [+ that] *They estimate that a hundred people were killed in the accident.* ○ *The number of dead **is estimated at** a hundred.* ●**estimated** *adjective an estimated cost*

estimation /ˌestɪˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] your opinion of someone or something *He is a total genius, **in my estimation**.*

estranged /ɪˈstreɪndʒd/ *adjective formal* **1** FRIEND not now communicating with a friend or a member of your family, because you have argued **2** HUSBAND/WIFE not now living with your husband or wife *his estranged wife* ●**estrangement** *noun* [C, U]

estrogen /ˈiːstrədʒᵊn/ (US) /ˈestrədʒᵊn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY *US spelling of* oestrogen (= a chemical substance in a woman's body)

estuary /ˈestjʊəri/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY the wide part of a river where it goes into the sea

O-➡ **etc** /etˈsetᵊrə/ *abbreviation for* et cetera: used at the end of a list to show that other things or people could also be added to it

etch /etʃ/ *verb* [I, T] ART, DT to cut lines on a hard surface to make a picture or words

eternal /ɪˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* continuing forever, or seeming to continue forever ***eternal youth*** ●**eternally** *adverb I will be **eternally grateful** to you.*

eternity /ɪˈtɜːnəti/ *noun* **1** [U] time that continues forever, especially after death **2 an eternity** *informal* a very long time *It **seemed like an eternity** until she came back.*

ethane /ˈiːθeɪn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a gas with no smell or colour, which burns easily and is found in natural gas and petroleum (= oil used as fuel) (formula C_2H_6)

ethanoic acid /eθəˌnəʊɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY (*also* **acetic acid**) a colourless acid with a strong smell that is contained in vinegar

ethanol /ˈeθənɒl/ (*also* **ethyl alcohol**) *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound which is the type of alcohol that is found in alcoholic drinks (formula CH_3CH_2OH)

ethereal /ɪˈθɪəriəl/ *adjective* very delicate and light and almost seeming not to be from this world ●**ethereally** *adverb*

ethic /ˈeθɪk/ *noun* [no plural] a belief or idea that influences the way you think or behave

ethical /ˈeθɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** RIGHT/WRONG relating to what is right or wrong *The book raises some serious ethical questions.* **2** GOOD morally correct and good *He dealt with this case in a completely professional and ethical manner.* ➲Opposite **unethical** ●**ethically** *adverb*

ethics /ˈeθɪks/ *noun* [plural] ideas and beliefs about what type of behaviour is morally right and wrong ***a code of ethics*** ○ *the ethics of genetic engineering*

ethnic /ˈeθnɪk/ *adjective* SOCIETY relating to a particular race of people ***ethnic minorities***

ethnic cleansing /ˌeθnɪkˈklenzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the use of violence to remove everyone of a particular race or religion from a country

ethos /ˈiːθɒs/ *noun* [**no plural**] the ideas and beliefs of a particular person or group

ethylene /ˈeθɪliːn/ (*also* **ethene**) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a colourless gas with a slightly sweet smell that burns easily and is often used in industry (formula C_2H_4)

e-ticket /ˈiːˌtɪkɪt/ *noun* [C] a ticket, usually for someone to travel on an aircraft, that is held on a computer and is not printed on paper

etiology /iːˌtiˈɒl.ə.dʒi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* aetiology (= the study of the causes of a disease)

etiquette /ˈetɪket/ *noun* [U] rules about what is polite and correct behaviour

etymology /ˌetɪˈmɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** the study of the history and origin of words and their meanings ●**etymological** /ˌetɪməˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* ●**etymologically** *adverb*

the EU /ˌiːˈjuː/ *noun* **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* the European Union: a European political and economic organization that encourages business and good relationships between the countries that are members

euphemism /ˈjuːfəmɪzᵊm/ *noun* [C, U] **LANGUAGE** a polite word or phrase that is used to avoid saying something embarrassing or offensive *'Passed away' is a* ***euphemism for*** *'died'.* ●**euphemistic** /ˌjuːfəˈmɪstɪk/ *adjective* ●**euphemistically** *adverb*

euphoria /juːˈfɔːriə/ *noun* [U] a feeling of extreme happiness and excitement ●**euphoric** /juːˈfɒrɪk/ *adjective*

euro /ˈjʊərəʊ/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a unit of money used in European countries that belong to the European Union (= a European political and economic organization); €

Euro- /jʊərəʊ-/ *prefix* **POLITICS** relating to Europe *Europop* (= pop music from Europe)

European /ˌjʊərəˈpiːən/ *adjective* relating or belonging to Europe *European countries/languages* ○ *the European Parliament* ●**European** *noun* [C] *Many Europeans speak English.*

the European Union (*also* **the EU**) *noun* **POLITICS** a European political and economic organization that encourages business and good relationships between the countries that are members

Eustachian tube /juːˈsteɪʃənˌtjuːb/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of two tubes that connect the ear and the back of the nose, which open to keep the pressure equal on both sides of the eardrum (= thin piece of skin inside the ear)

euthanasia /ˌjuːθəˈneɪziə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when someone who is very old or very ill is killed so that they do not suffer any more ***voluntary euthanasia***

eutrophication /ˌjuːtrəfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when too many plants grow on the surface of a river, lake, etc, often because of chemicals that have come from farms that are near

evacuate /ɪˈvækjueɪt/ *verb* [T] to move people from a dangerous place to somewhere safer *The police quickly evacuated the area after the bomb threat.* ●**evacuation** /ɪˌvækjuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *the evacuation of civilians from the war zone*

evacuee /ɪˌvækjuˈiː/ *noun* [C] someone who is evacuated from a place to somewhere safer

evade /ɪˈveɪd/ *verb* **1** [T] to avoid something or someone, especially in a dishonest way *to* ***evade capture*** ○ *to evade paying tax* **2 evade the issue/question, etc** to intentionally not talk about something or not answer something

evaluate /ɪˈvæljueɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to consider or study something carefully and decide how good or bad it is ●**evaluation** /ɪˌvæljuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

evangelical /ˌiːvænˈdʒelɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **RELIGION** Evangelical Christians believe that faith in Jesus Christ and studying the Bible are more important than religious ceremonies.

evaporation

evaporate /ɪˈvæpᵊreɪt/ *verb* **1 CHEMISTRY** [I, T] If a liquid evaporates or is evaporated, it changes into gas or vapour (= very small drops of water). **2** [I] If feelings evaporate, they disappear. ●**evaporation** /ɪˌvæpəˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] ➲See picture at **water cycle**

evaporating dish *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a small dish in which liquids are heated over fire so that they evaporate (= change to a gas), leaving a solid substance in the dish ➲See picture at **laboratory**

evasion /ɪˈveɪʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when you avoid something, especially in a dishonest way ***tax evasion***

evasive /ɪˈveɪsɪv/ *adjective* **1** trying to avoid talking about something *He was very evasive about his past.* ○ *an* ***evasive answer*** **2 take evasive action** to do something to avoid an accident or bad situation ●**evasively** *adverb* ●**evasiveness** *noun* [U]

eve /iːv/ *noun* **1 Christmas Eve/New Year's Eve** the day or night before Christmas Day/New Year's Day **2 the eve of sth** the time just before something important happens *They were married in Washington on the eve of the Second World War.*

even¹ /ˈiːvᵊn/ *adjective* **1** FLAT flat, level, or smooth *Find an* ***even surface*** *to work on.* ➲Opposite **uneven 2** NOT CHANGING An even temperature or rate is regular and does not change very much. **3 MATHEMATICS** An even number is a number which can be exactly divided by two, for example four, six, or eight. ➲Opposite

odd 4 MONEY *informal* not now owing someone money *If you pay for my cinema ticket, we'll be even.* **5** COMPETITION An even race or competition is one that both players, teams, or people involved have an equal chance of winning. **6 get even (with sb)** *informal* If you get even with someone who has done something bad to you, you do something bad to them.

even² /ˈiːvᵊn/ *adverb* **1** used to emphasize something that is surprising *Everyone danced, even Mick.* **2 even better/faster/smaller, etc** used when comparing things, to emphasize the difference *I think Alex is going to be even taller than his father.* **3 even if** used to emphasize that a particular situation would not change what you have just said *I would never eat meat, even if I was really hungry.* **4 even though** although *He still smokes, even though he's got asthma.* **5 even so** used to emphasize that something surprising is true despite what you have just said *Car prices have gone down a lot, but even so, we couldn't afford to buy one.*

even³ /ˈiːvᵊn/ *verb*
even (sth) out *phrasal verb* to become equal, or to make something equal *Sometimes I pay and sometimes Tom does - it usually evens out in the end.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***evening***

this/tomorrow/yesterday evening ● **in the** evening

evening /ˈiːvnɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] the part of the day between the afternoon and the night *Are you doing anything **this evening**?* ○ *I go to band practice on Monday evenings.* ○ *We usually eat our main meal **in the evening**.* **2 (Good) evening.** something that you say when you meet someone in the evening

evenly /ˈiːvənli/ *adverb* **1** into equal amounts, or in a regular way *They decided to divide the prize money evenly between them.* **2 evenly matched** Two people or teams who are evenly matched are equally good, or have an equal chance of winning.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***event***

an event **happens/occurs/takes place** ● **witness** an event ● a **dramatic/major/rare/tragic** event ● **recent** events

event /ɪˈvent/ *noun* [C] **1** HAPPENING something that happens, especially something important or unusual *Local people have been shocked by **recent events** in the town.* **2** RACE a race, party, competition, etc that has been organized for a particular time *a **social/sporting event*** **3 in the event** *UK* used to emphasize what did happen when it was not what you had expected *In the event, we didn't need the extra money.* **4 in the event of sth** *formal* if something happens *An airbag could save your life in the event of an accident.* **5 in any event** whatever happens *I'm not sure if I'm coming on Friday, but in any event, I'll see you next week.* ➲See also: **non-event**

eventful /ɪˈventfᵊl/ *adjective* full of interesting or important events *a very eventful day/journey*

eventual /ɪˈventʃuəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening or existing at the end of a process or period of time *the eventual winner of the competition*

eventually /ɪˈventʃuəli/ *adverb* in the end, especially after a long time *We all hope that an agreement can be reached eventually.*

ever /ˈevəʳ/ *adverb* **1** at any time *Have you ever been skiing?* ○ *No one ever calls me any more.* **2 better/faster/happier, etc than ever** better/faster/happier, etc than at any time before **3 hardly ever** almost never *We hardly ever go out these days.* **4 ever since** always since that time *We met at school and have been friends ever since.* **5 ever so/ever such a** *UK* very/a very *She's ever so pretty.* **6 for ever** *UK* (*UK/US* **forever**) always in the future *I'm not going to live here for ever.* **7 ever-changing/growing/increasing, etc** always changing/growing/increasing, etc

evergreen /ˈevəgriːn/ *adjective* BIOLOGY An evergreen plant has green leaves that do not fall off in winter. ●**evergreen** *noun* [C] a plant with leaves that do not fall off in winter

everlasting /ˌevəˈlɑːstɪŋ/ *adjective* continuing for a long time or always *everlasting love*

evermore /ˌevəˈmɔːʳ/ *adverb literary* always in the future

every /ˈevri/ *determiner* **1** EACH each one of a group of people or things *He knows the name of every child in the school.* ○ ***Every one** of the paintings was a fake.* **2** HOW OFTEN used to show that something is repeated regularly *He goes to Spain every summer.* **3** POSSIBLE as much as is possible *I'd like to wish you **every success** in your new job.* ○ ***Every effort** is being made to rectify the problem.* **4 every now and then/every so often** sometimes, but not often *We still meet up every now and then.* **5 one in every five/ten, etc** used to show how many people or things in a group are affected by or involved in something

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

every

When **every** is followed by **body**, **one**, **thing**, or **where**, you write the words together.

Everybody needs to bring something to eat.

Can everyone see that?

Have you got everything you need?

I've looked everywhere for it.

In other situations you use **every** as a separate word.

You have to take your membership card every time you go.

Do you go jogging every morning?

everybody /ˈevriˌbɒdi/ *pronoun another word for* everyone

everyday /ˈevrideɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] normal, usual, or happening every day *Computers are now part of **everyday life**.*

everyone /ˈevriwʌn/ (*also* **everybody**) *pronoun* **1** every person *Everyone agreed with the decision.* **2 everyone else** every other person *Everyone else was wearing jeans.*

everyplace /ˈevripleɪs/ *adverb US another word for* everywhere

everything /ˈevriθɪŋ/ *pronoun* **1** all things or each thing *They lost everything in the fire.* ○ *What's the matter Nick, is everything all right?* **2 everything else** all the other things *The meat tasted strange, but everything else was okay.* **3 be/mean everything** to be the most important part of someone's life *His children **mean everything to** him.* ○ *Money isn't everything.*

everywhere /ˈevriweəʳ/ *adverb* in or to every place *I've looked everywhere, but I still can't find that letter.*

E

evict /ɪˈvɪkt/ *verb* [T] to legally force someone to leave the house they are living in *They were evicted after complaints from their neighbours.* ●**eviction** /ɪˈvɪkʃˢn/ *noun* [C, U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***evidence***

compelling/conclusive/hard/scientific/strong evidence ● evidence **of** sth

evidence /ˈevɪdˢns/ *noun* [U] **1** FACTS something that makes you believe that something is true or exists ***evidence of** global warming* [+ **that**] *There is no **scientific evidence** that the drug is addictive.* **2 LAW** information that is given or objects that are shown in a court of law to help to prove if someone has committed a crime *He was arrested despite the lack of evidence against him.* **3 give evidence** *UK* to give information and answer questions in a court of law *She was called to give evidence at his trial.* **4 be in evidence** *formal* to be noticeable

evident /ˈevɪdˢnt/ *adjective formal* obvious to everyone and easy to see or understand [+ **that**] *It was evident from his voice that he was upset.* ➲See also: **self-evident**

evidently /ˈevɪdˢntli/ *adverb* **1** OBVIOUSLY used to say that something can easily be noticed *He evidently likes her.* **2** PROBABLY used to say that something seems probable from the information you have *The intruder evidently got in through an open window.*

evil¹ /ˈiːvˢl/ *adjective* very cruel, bad, or harmful *an evil monster*

evil² /ˈiːvˢl/ *noun* [C, U] something that is very bad and harmful *The theme of the play is the battle between **good and evil**.* ➲See also: the **lesser** of two evils

evocative /ɪˈvɒkətɪv/ *adjective* making you remember or imagine something that is pleasant *evocative music* ○ ***evocative of** the sea*

evoke /ɪˈvəʊk/ *verb* [T] to make someone remember something or feel an emotion *The story evoked memories of my childhood.*

evolution /ˌiːvəˈluːʃˢn/ *noun* [U] **1 BIOLOGY** the way in which living things gradually change and develop over millions of years *Darwin's theory of evolution* **2** a gradual process of change and development *the evolution of language* ●**evolutionary** *adjective*

evolve /ɪˈvɒlv/ *verb* **1 BIOLOGY** [I] to develop from other forms of life over millions of years **2** [I, T] to develop or make something develop, usually gradually *rapidly evolving technology*

ewe /juː/ *noun* [C] a female sheep

ex /eks/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who used to be your husband, wife, or partner *My ex and his new wife live abroad.*

ex- /eks-/ *prefix* from before *an ex-boyfriend* ○ *an ex-boss*

exacerbate /ɪgˈzæsəbeɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something worse *Sunny weather exacerbates the effects of pollution.*

exact¹ /ɪgˈzækt/ *adjective* completely correct in every detail *I'm afraid I can't give you the exact details of the show yet.* ○ *They've lived here a long time - 25 years **to be exact**.* ●**exactness** *noun* [U]

exact² /ɪgˈzækt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to demand and get something from someone

exacting /ɪgˈzæktɪŋ/ *adjective* needing a lot of effort and attention *an exacting training schedule*

exactly /ɪgˈzæktli/ *adverb* **1** COMPLETELY CORRECT used when you are giving or asking for information that is completely correct *What exactly seems to be the problem?* ○ *The train got in at exactly ten o'clock.* **2** EMPHASIS used to emphasize what you are saying *I found a dress that's exactly the same colour as my shoes.* **3** AGREEMENT something you say when you agree completely with someone *"Surely they should have told us about this problem sooner?" "Exactly."* **4 not exactly** used to say that something is not completely true *"Do you live here?" "Not exactly, I'm staying with friends."* **5 not exactly easy/new/clear, etc** *informal* used to say that a description is completely untrue *Let's face it, we're not exactly rich, are we?*

exaggerate /ɪgˈzædʒʳreɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to make something seem larger, better, worse, etc than it really is *Don't exaggerate - it didn't cost that much!*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***exaggeration***

a **gross/slight** exaggeration ● an exaggeration **of** sth

exaggeration /ɪgˌzædʒʳˈreɪʃˢn/ *noun* [C, U] when you describe something as larger, better, worse, etc than it really is ***a gross exaggeration** of the facts*

exalted /ɪgˈzɔːltɪd/ *adjective formal* very highly respected, or with a very high position

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***exam***

do/(*UK*) **sit/take** an exam ● **fail/pass** an exam ● exam **results**

exam /ɪgˈzæm/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** an official test of how much you know about something, or how well you can do something *a maths exam* ○ *to **fail/pass** an **exam** (UK)* ○ *to **sit**/(UK/US) to **take*** (= do) *an **exam*** **2** *US* a series of medical tests *an eye exam*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

take/sit an exam

To **take an exam** means to do an official test. 'Sit' is slightly more formal than 'take' in this phrase and is only used in the UK.

We have to take an exam at the end of the course.

~~*We have to write an exam at the end of the course.*~~

If you **pass an exam**, you are successful because you get a good mark. If you **fail an exam**, you are not successful because you get a bad mark.

examination /ɪg,zæmɪ'neɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when someone looks at something very carefully *a **medical examination*** ○ *a **close examination** of the facts* **2** EDUCATION [C] *formal* an exam *a written examination*

examine /ɪg'zæmɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** LOOK AT to look at someone or something very carefully, especially to try to discover something *She picked up the knife and examined it closely.* ○ *He was examined by a doctor as soon as he arrived.* **2** TEST *formal* to test someone to see how much they know or how well they can do something *You'll be examined in three main areas: speaking, listening, and reading comprehension.* **3** CONSIDER to consider a plan or an idea carefully *They have called a special meeting to examine the proposal.* ➲See also: **cross-examine**

examiner /ɪg'zæmɪnə^{r}/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION someone who tests how much you know about something, or how well you can do something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***example***

a **classic/good/prime** example ● an example **of** sth

example /ɪg'zɑːmpl/ *noun* **1** TYPICAL [C] something that is typical of the group of things that you are talking about *This is a good **example of** medieval Chinese architecture.* **2 for example** used to give an example of what you are talking about *Some people, students for example, can get cheaper tickets.* **3** VERY GOOD [C] someone or something that is very good and should be copied *He is a very good example to the rest of the class.* **4 set an example** to behave in a way that other people should copy

exasperate /ɪg'zæspə^{r}reɪt/ *verb* [T] to annoy someone a lot

exasperated /ɪg'zæspə^{r}eɪtɪd/ *adjective* extremely annoyed *He's become increasingly exasperated with the situation.*

exasperating /ɪg'zæspə^{r}eɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely annoying

exasperation /ɪg,zæspə'reɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U] when you feel extremely annoyed with someone or something

excavate /'ekskəveɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to dig in the ground, especially with a machine, or to look for objects from the past *These Roman coins were excavated from a site in Cambridge.* ●**excavation** /,ekskə'veɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [C, U]

exceed /ɪk'siːd/ *verb* **1** [T] to be more than a particular number or amount *Sales have exceeded $1 million so far this year.* **2 exceed the speed limit** to drive faster than you are allowed to according to the law

exceedingly /ɪk'siːdɪŋli/ *adverb formal* very *He was clever, attractive, and exceedingly rich.*

excel /ɪk'sel/ *verb* **excelling,** *past* **excelled** *formal* **1** [I] to be very good at something *Paula always **excelled in** languages at school.* **2 excel yourself** to do something better than you usually do

excellent /'eks^{ə}l^{ə}nt/ *adjective* very good, or of a very high quality *That was an excellent meal.* ●**excellently** *adverb* ●**excellence** /'eks^{ə}l^{ə}ns/ *noun* [U]

except /ɪk'sept/ *preposition, conjunction* not including a particular fact, thing, or person *The boat sails from Oban every day except Sunday.* ○ *Everyone passed the exam **except for** Rory.* [+ **(that)**] *So nothing changed, except that Anna saw her son less and less.*

excepted /ɪk'septɪd/ *adjective* [**always after noun**] *formal* not included *Everybody who was asked, myself excepted, said no.*

excepting /ɪk'septɪŋ/ *preposition* not including

exception /ɪk'sepʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** [C, U] someone or something that is not included in a rule, group, or list *There are **exceptions to** every rule.* ○ *I like all kinds of movies, **with the exception of** horror films.* ○ *All our pupils, **without exception**, have access to the Internet.* ○ *Her films are always popular and this one **is no exception**.* **2 make an exception** to not treat someone or something according to the usual rules *They don't usually take cheques, but they said they'd make an exception in my case.* **3 take exception to sth** *formal* to be annoyed or insulted by something

exceptional /ɪk'sepʃ^{ə}n^{ə}l/ *adjective* **1** GOOD extremely good *an exceptional student* **2** UNUSUAL very unusual and not likely to happen very often *Visitors are only allowed in exceptional circumstances.* ●**exceptionally** *adverb an exceptionally gifted pianist*

excerpt /'eksɜːpt/ *noun* [C] a short piece from a book, film, piece of music, etc

excess[1] /ɪk'ses/ *noun* **1** [U, **no plural**] more of something than is usual or needed ***An excess of** oil on the markets has caused prices to fall sharply.* **2 in excess of sth** more than a particular amount or level *He earns in excess of £60,000 a year.* **3 do sth to excess** to do something too much *He occasionally has a beer, but he never drinks to excess.*

excess[2] /ɪk'ses/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] more than is usual or allowed *We had to pay £100 for **excess baggage**.*

excesses /ɪk'sesɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] extreme, harmful, or immoral actions or behaviour

excessive /ɪk'sesɪv/ *adjective* more than is necessary or wanted *They accused the police of using **excessive force**.* ●**excessively** *adverb*

exchange[1] /ɪks'tʃeɪndʒ/ *noun* **1** GIVING [C, U] when you give something to someone and they give you something else *an **exchange of ideas/information*** ○ *They were given food and shelter **in exchange for** work.* **2** STUDENTS [C] an arrangement by which students and teachers from one country go to stay with students and teachers in another **3** CONVERSATION [C] a short conversation or argument *There were **angry exchanges** between the police and demonstrators.* ➲See also: **the stock exchange**

exchange[2] /ɪks'tʃeɪndʒ/ *verb* **1** GIVE [T] to give something to someone and receive something similar from them *It's traditional for the two*

teams to exchange shirts after the game. **2** SHOP [T] to take something back to the shop where you bought it and change it for something else *Could I **exchange** this shirt **for** a larger size?* **3 exchange looks/smiles/words, etc** If two people exchange looks, smiles, words, etc, they look at each other, smile at each other, talk to each other, etc.

exˈchange ˌrate *noun* [C] ECONOMICS the amount of another country's money that you can buy with a particular amount of your own country's money

E

excise /ˈeksaɪz/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS government taxes that must be paid on some things that are made or sold in a particular country

excitable /ɪkˈsaɪtəbl/ *adjective* easily becoming excited *a very excitable child/puppy*

excite /ɪkˈsaɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** EMOTION to make someone feel very happy and enthusiastic *Try not to excite the children too much.* **2** REACTION *formal* to cause a particular reaction in someone *This product has **excited** a great deal of **interest**.*

excited /ɪkˈsaɪtɪd/ *adjective* feeling very happy and enthusiastic *happy, excited faces* ○ *The children are getting really **excited about** the party.* ●**excitedly** *adverb*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

excited or **exciting**

Excited is used to describe how someone feels.

She was very excited about the visit.

~~*She was very exciting about the visit.*~~

Exciting is used to describe the thing that makes you excited.

I've had some exciting news!

WORD PARTNERS FOR *excitement*

cause/feel excitement ● excitement **mounts** ● **great/wild** excitement ● excitement **about/at/over** sth

excitement /ɪkˈsaɪtmənt/ *noun* [U] when people feel very happy and enthusiastic *The competition is causing a lot of excitement.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING *exciting*

If something is so exciting that it holds your attention completely, you can say that it is **gripping** or **riveting**: *The book was **gripping** - I couldn't put it down.* ● *I found the film absolutely **riveting**.*

Sports and outdoor activities which are exciting are often described as **exhilarating**: *I find skiing absolutely **exhilarating**.*

The adjective **action-packed** is often used to describe a story or period of time which is full of exciting events: *We had an **action-packed** weekend in Berlin.* ● *The film is described as 'an **action-packed** thriller'.*

An exciting atmosphere is sometimes described as **electric**: *The atmosphere backstage was **electric**.*

Vibrant is often used to describe places which are exciting: *This is one of Europe's most **vibrant** cities.*

exciting /ɪkˈsaɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel very happy and enthusiastic *an exciting football match* ○ *You won? How exciting!*

exclaim /ɪksˈkleɪm/ *verb* [I, T] to say something suddenly and loudly because you are surprised, annoyed, excited, etc *"How terrible!" she exclaimed.*

exclamation /ˌekskləˈmeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] something that you say loudly and suddenly because you are surprised, angry, excited, etc *an exclamation of delight*

exclaˈmation ˌmark (*also US* **exclaˈmation ˌpoint**) *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a mark (!) used at the end of a sentence that expresses surprise, excitement, or shock, or that is a greeting or an order ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

exclude /ɪksˈkluːd/ *verb* [T] **1** KEEP OUT to not allow someone or something to take part in an activity or enter a place [**often passive**] *Women are still **excluded from** the club.* **2** NOT INCLUDE to intentionally not include something *The insurance cover excludes particular medical conditions.* **3** POSSIBILITY to decide that something is certainly not true or possible *We can't **exclude** the **possibility** that he is dead.*

excluding /ɪksˈkluːdɪŋ/ *preposition* not including *That's $600 per person for seven days, excluding travel costs.*

exclusion /ɪksˈkluːʒˈn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when someone or something is not allowed to take part in an activity or to enter a place *the exclusion of disruptive pupils* ➲Opposite **inclusion** **2 to the exclusion of sth** If you do something to the exclusion of something else, you do it so much that you have no time to do anything else.

exclusive¹ /ɪksˈkluːsɪv/ *adjective* **1** EXPENSIVE expensive and only for people who are rich or of a high social class *an exclusive private club* **2 exclusive of sth** not including something *The price of the meal is exclusive of drinks.* ➲Opposite **inclusive** **3** NOT SHARED not shared with another person, organization, newspaper, etc *an **exclusive interview***

exclusive² /ɪksˈkluːsɪv/ *noun* [C] a news story that appears in only one newspaper or on one television programme

exclusively /ɪksˈkluːsɪvli/ *adverb* only *an exclusively female audience*

excrement /ˈekskrəmənt/ *noun* [U] *formal* solid waste that comes out of the bottom of a person or animal

excrete /ɪkˈskriːt/ *verb* [I, T] BIOLOGY to get rid of waste substances from the body ●**excretion** /ɪkˈskriːʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

excruciating /ɪkˈskruːʃieɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* very bad or painful *Her illness causes her **excruciating pain**.* ●**excruciatingly** *adverb an **excruciatingly embarrassing** situation*

excursion /ɪkˈskɜːʒˈn/ *noun* [C] a short journey made by a group of people for pleasure *We've booked to go on an **excursion to** Pompeii.*

excusable /ɪkˈskjuːzəbl/ *adjective* easy to forgive ➲Opposite **inexcusable**

excuse¹ /ɪkˈskjuːz/ *verb* [T] **1** FORGIVE to forgive someone for something that is not very

serious *Please excuse my appearance, I've been painting.* [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *She asked him to excuse her for being so rude.* **2** NOT DO to say that someone does not have to do something that they usually have to do *Could I be excused from football training today?* **3** EXPLAIN to be given as a reason for someone's bad behaviour, so that it does not seem so bad *Nothing can excuse what he did.* **4 excuse me a** ATTRACTING ATTENTION used to politely get someone's attention *Excuse me, does this bus go to Oxford Street?* **b** SAYING SORRY used to say sorry for something that you do without intending to *Oh, excuse me, did I take your seat?* ●**excusable** *adjective*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***excuse***

have/make/offer/think up an excuse ● a **feeble/good** excuse

excuse² /ɪkˈskjuːs/ *noun* [C] **1** REASON a reason that you give to explain why you did something wrong [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *I hope he's got a good excuse for being so late.* **2** FALSE REASON a false reason that you give to explain why you do something *Nick was just looking for an excuse to call her.*

execute /ˈeksɪkjuːt/ *verb* [T] **1** **LAW** to kill someone as a legal punishment *He was executed for murder.* **2** DO *formal* to do something, such as follow a plan or order *to **execute** a **deal/plan***

execution /ˌeksɪˈkjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **LAW** [C, U] when someone is killed as a legal punishment **2** DOING [U] when you do something, such as follow a plan or order *He was killed in **the execution of** his duties as a soldier.*

executioner /ˌeksɪˈkjuːʃᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to execute criminals

executive¹ /ɪgˈzekjətɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** OF MANAGEMENT relating to making decisions and managing businesses *an executive director* **2** FOR MANAGERS suitable for people who have important jobs in business *Peter always stays in the executive suite.*

executive² /ɪgˈzekjətɪv/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who has an important job in a business *a company executive* **2 the executive** *mainly UK* the people who have the power to make decisions in an organization

exemplary /ɪgˈzemplᵊri/ *adjective formal* very good and suitable to be copied by people *Sarah's behaviour is always exemplary.*

exemplify /ɪgˈzemplɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to be or give a typical example of something

exempt¹ /ɪgˈzempt/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] with special permission not to have to do something or pay something *The first £4,000 that you earn is **exempt from** tax.*

exempt² /ɪgˈzempt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to officially say that someone does not have to do something or pay for something [**often passive**] *Students are **exempted from** payment.* ●**exemption** /ɪgˈzempʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***exercise***

do/get/take exercise ● **daily/gentle/regular/strenuous** exercise ● a **form of** exercise

exercise¹ /ˈeksəsaɪz/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [C, U] physical activity that you do to make your body strong and healthy *Swimming is my favourite **form of exercise**.* ○ *Let's **do** some stretching **exercises** to start with.* **2** **EDUCATION** [C] a piece of written work that helps you learn something *For your homework, please **do exercise** 3 on page 24.* **3** ACTIVITY WITH PURPOSE [C] an activity which is intended to achieve a particular thing *The whole **point of the exercise** was to get people to share their ideas.* ○ *a team-building exercise.* **4** MILITARY [C] a set of actions that a group of soldiers do to practise their skills *The cadets are out on military exercises.* **5** USE [U] *formal* the use of something such as a power or right

exercise² /ˈeksəsaɪz/ *verb* **1** **HEALTH** [I, T] to do physical activities to make your body strong and healthy *I try to exercise every day.* **2** [T] *formal* to use a power, right, or ability *You should always **exercise** your **right** to vote.*

exert /ɪgˈzɜːt/ *verb* **1** [T] to use something such as authority, power, influence, etc in order to make something happen *My parents **exerted** a lot of pressure **on** me to do well at school.* **2 exert yourself** to use a lot of physical or mental energy to do something *She was too ill to exert herself much.*

exertion /ɪgˈzɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when you use a lot of physical or mental energy to do something *I get out of breath with any kind of **physical exertion**.*

exhale /eksˈheɪl/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* **BIOLOGY** to send air out of your lungs ➲Opposite **inhale**

exhaust¹ /ɪgˈzɔːst/ *verb* [T] **1** SUPPLY to finish all of the supply of something *How long will it be before the world's fuel **supplies** are **exhausted**?* **2** TIRED to make someone very tired **3** SUBJECT to say everything possible about a subject *We seem to have exhausted that topic of conversation.*

exhaust² /ɪgˈzɔːst/ *noun* **1** GAS [U] the waste gas from a vehicle's engine ***exhaust fumes*** **2** PIPE [C] (*also* **exhaust pipe**) *mainly UK* the pipe that waste gas from a vehicle's engine flows through ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

exhausted /ɪgˈzɔːstɪd/ *adjective* very tired

exhausting /ɪgˈzɔːstɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel very tired *What an exhausting day!*

exhaustion /ɪgˈzɔːstʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you are extremely tired *The tennis star was **suffering from exhaustion**.*

exhaustive /ɪgˈzɔːstɪv/ *adjective* complete and including everything *an exhaustive account of the incident*

exˈhaust ˌpipe *mainly UK* (*also US* **tailpipe**) *noun* [C] the pipe that waste gas from a vehicle's engine flows through

exhibit¹ /ɪgˈzɪbɪt/ *verb* **1** SHOW OBJECTS [I, T] to show objects such as paintings to the public *She's exhibiting her roses at the local flower show.* **2** SHOW FEELINGS [T] *formal* to show a feeling, quality, or ability *The crew exhibited great courage when the plane crashed.*

exhibit² /ɪgˈzɪbɪt/ *noun* [C] an object such as a painting that is shown to the public *a museum exhibit* ●**exhibitor** *noun* [C] someone who shows something that they own or have made to the public

exhibition /ˌeksɪˈbɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** OBJECTS [**C, U**] when objects such as paintings are shown to the public *There's a new* ***exhibition of*** *sculpture on at the city gallery.* ○ *an exhibition centre* **2** SKILLS/QUALITIES [**C**] when someone shows a particular skill or quality that they have to the public

exhibitionist /ˌeksɪˈbɪʃᵊnɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who tries to attract attention to themselves with their behaviour ●**exhibitionism** /ˌeksɪˈbɪʃᵊnɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] behaviour which tries to attract attention

E

exhilarated /ɪgˈzɪləreɪtɪd/ *adjective* very excited and happy

exhilarating /ɪgˈzɪləreɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel very excited and happy *There's nothing more exhilarating than water-skiing.*

exhilaration /ɪgˌzɪlᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] when you feel very excited and happy

exhort /ɪgˈzɔːt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to strongly encourage someone to do something ●**exhortation** /ˌegzɔːˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

exile /ˈeksaɪl, ˈegzaɪl/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [**U**] when someone has to leave their home and live in another country, often for political reasons *He spent the war years* ***in exile*** *in New York.* ○ *The King was forced* ***into exile.*** **2** PERSON [**C**] someone who is forced to live in another country *She lived the rest of her life as an exile in the UK.* ●**exile** *verb* [**T**] to force someone to leave their home and live in another country, often for political reasons ●**exiled** *adjective*

exist /ɪgˈzɪst/ *verb* [**I**] **1** BE REAL to be real or present *Poverty still exists in this country.* **2** LIVE to live in difficult conditions *You can't exist without water for more than a week.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***existence***

come into/go out of existence ● be **in** existence ● the existence **of** sth

existence /ɪgˈzɪstᵊns/ *noun* **1** EXISTING [**U**] when something or someone exists *She never doubted* ***the existence of*** *God.* ○ *The theatre company that we started is still* ***in existence*** *today.* ○ *When did the Football League* ***come into existence*** (= begin to exist)*?* **2** LIFE [**C**] a particular way of life *We could have a much more peaceful existence in the countryside.*

existing /ɪgˈzɪstɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] which exist or are used at the present time *Existing schools will have to be expanded to accommodate the extra students.* ➲See also: **pre-existing**

exit¹ /ˈeksɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** DOOR the door or gate which you use to leave a public building or place *a* ***fire exit*** ○ *an* ***emergency exit*** **2** LEAVING when someone leaves a place *Sue* ***made a quick exit*** *when she saw Mick come in.* **3** ROAD a road which you use to leave a motorway (= wide, fast road) or roundabout (= place where three or more main roads meet) ***Take*** *the third* ***exit*** *at the next roundabout.*

exit² /ˈeksɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** COMPUTING to stop using a program on a computer *Press escape to exit the game.* **2** *formal* to leave a place or a competition

ˈexit ˌstrategy *noun* [**C**] a plan that you use to get out of a difficult situation *A good politician will plan his exit strategy before announcing his retirement from office.*

exodus /ˈeksədəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] when a large number of people all leave a place together *There has been* ***a mass exodus*** *of workers from the villages to the towns.*

exonerate /ɪgˈzɒnᵊreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to say that someone is not guilty of doing something that they have been blamed for [**often passive**] *He was* ***exonerated of*** *all blame by the investigation.* ●**exoneration** /ɪgˌzɒnᵊˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

exorbitant /ɪgˈzɔːbɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* Exorbitant prices or costs are much too high.

exorcism /ˈeksɔːsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**C, U**] RELIGION when an evil spirit is exorcized

exorcize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈeksɔːsaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** RELIGION to make evil spirits leave a person or place by saying special prayers and having a special ceremony **2** to get rid of something such as a bad memory *She moved to Paris to try to exorcize the past.*

exoskeleton /ˈeksəʊskelɪtᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a hard outer layer that covers and protects the body of some animals, such as insects ➲Compare **endoskeleton**

exothermic reaction /eksəʊˌθɜːmɪkriˈækʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] CHEMISTRY a chemical reaction in which heat is produced ➲Compare **endothermic reaction**

exotic /ɪgˈzɒtɪk/ *adjective* unusual, interesting, and often foreign *exotic fruits*

expand /ɪkˈspænd/ *verb* [**I, T**] to increase in size or amount, or to make something increase *We are hoping to* ***expand*** *our* ***range*** *of products.* **expand on sth** *phrasal verb* to give more details about something that you have said or written *She mentioned a few ideas, but she didn't expand on them.*

exˌpanded polyˈstyrene *noun* [**U**] DT a type of polystyrene (= light white plastic substance) often used to protect goods when they are packed

expanse /ɪkˈspæns/ *noun* [**C**] a large, open area of land, sea, or sky *a vast expanse of water*

expansion /ɪkˈspænʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] when something increases in size or amount *the rapid expansion of the software industry*

expansive /ɪkˈspænsɪv/ *adjective formal* very happy to talk to people in a friendly way *He was in an* ***expansive mood*** *on the night of the party.*

expatriate /ɪkˈspætriət/ (*also UK* **expat** /ˌekˈspat/ *informal*) *noun* [**C**] someone who does not live in their own country ●**expatriate** *adjective*

expect /ɪkˈspekt/ *verb* **1** SITUATION [**T**] to think that something will happen [**+ to do sth**] *He didn't expect to see me.* [**+ (that)**] *I expect that she'll be very angry about this.* **2 be expecting sb/sth** to be waiting for someone or something to arrive *I'm expecting a letter from my sister.* **3** BEHAVIOUR [**T**] to think that someone should behave in a particular way or do a particular thing [**+ to do sth**] *You will be expected to work some weekends.* **4 I expect** *mainly UK informal*

used to show that you think that something is likely to be true *I expect Isabel's told you about me?* ○ *"Will you be coming to the party?" "**I expect so**."* **5 be expecting** to be going to have a baby *I'm expecting my first baby in May.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **wait**

expectancy /ɪkˈspektᵊnsi/ *noun* [U] when you think that something pleasant or exciting is going to happen *An air of expectancy filled the room.* ➲See also: **life expectancy**

expectant /ɪkˈspektᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** thinking that something pleasant or exciting is going to happen *the children's expectant faces* **2 an expectant mother/father, etc** someone who is going to have a baby soon ●**expectantly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***expectation***

have high/have low expectations ● **live up to/meet** (sb's) expectations ● expectations **of** sth

expectation /ˌekspekˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** EXPECTING SOMETHING GOOD [C] when you expect good things to happen in the future [**usually plural**] *The holiday **lived up to** all our **expectations*** (= was as good as we expected). ○ *My parents **had high expectations** for me* (= expected me to be successful). **2** EXPECTING SOMETHING [C, U] when you expect something to happen *He had gone away and there was no **expectation of** his return.*

expedient¹ /ɪkˈspiːdiənt/ *adjective formal* An expedient action achieves a useful purpose, although it may not be moral. *It might be expedient not to pay him until the work is finished.* ●**expediency** /ɪkˈspiːdiənsi/ *noun* [U] when something is expedient *an issue of political expediency*

expedient² /ɪkˈspiːdiənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* a useful or clever action

expedite /ˈekspɪdaɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make an action or process happen more quickly

expedition /ˌekspɪˈdɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] an organized journey, especially a long one for a particular purpose *Peary **led** the first **expedition** to the North Pole.* ○ *a **shopping expedition***

expel /ɪkˈspel/ *verb* [T] **expelling,** *past* **expelled** **1** MAKE SOMEONE LEAVE to make someone leave a school, organization, or country because of their behaviour [**often passive**] *He was **expelled from** school **for** hitting another student.* **2** FORCE SOMETHING OUT *formal* to force air, gas, or liquid out of something

expend /ɪkˈspend/ *verb* [T] *formal* to use effort, time, or money to do something [**+ doing sth**] *You **expend** far too much **energy** doing things for other people.* ○ *Governments **expend** a lot of resources **on** war.*

expendable /ɪkˈspendəbl/ *adjective* If someone or something is expendable, people can do something or deal with a situation without them. *He considers his staff as temporary and expendable.*

expenditure /ɪkˈspendɪtʃᵊʳ/ *noun* [U] *formal* **1** FINANCE the total amount of money that a government or person spends *The government's annual **expenditure on** arms has been reduced.* **2** when you use energy, time, or money

O-K **expense** /ɪkˈspens/ *noun* **1** FINANCE [C, U] the money that you spend on something *You have to **pay** your own medical **expenses**.* ○ *He eventually found her the car she wanted, **at great expense*** (= it cost him a lot of money). **2 at the expense of sth** If you do one thing at the expense of another, doing the first thing harms the second thing. *He spent a lot of time at work, at the expense of his marriage.* **3 at sb's expense** **a** If you do something at someone's expense, they pay for it. *We went on holiday at my father's expense.* **b** in order to make someone look stupid *Stop making jokes at my expense.*

expenses /ɪkˈspensɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] FINANCE money that you spend when you are doing your job, that your employer will pay back to you *travel expenses* ○ *They pay us two hundred pounds a week, plus expenses.*

O-K **expensive** /ɪkˈspensɪv/ *adjective* costing a lot of money *expensive jewellery* [**+ to do sth**] *It's too expensive to go out every night.* ➲Opposite **inexpensive** ●**expensively** *adverb expensively dressed*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***experience***

gain/have/lack experience ● **good/previous/useful/wide** experience ● experience **in/of** sth ● **from** experience ● **in my** experience

O-K **experience¹** /ɪkˈspɪəriəns/ *noun* **1** KNOWLEDGE [U] knowledge that you get from doing a job, or from doing, seeing, or feeling something *Do you have any **experience of** working with children?* ○ *He knows **from experience** not to play with fire.* ○ ***In my experience**, people smile back if you smile at them.* **2** SOMETHING THAT HAPPENS TO YOU [C] something that happens to you that affects how you feel *My trip to Australia was an experience I'll never forget.*

experience² /ɪkˈspɪəriəns/ *verb* [T] If you experience something, it happens to you, or you feel it. *It was the worst pain I had ever experienced.* ○ *We experienced a lot of difficulty in selling our house.*

experienced /ɪkˈspɪəriənst/ *adjective* having skill and knowledge because you have done something many times *Karsten's a very experienced ski instructor.* ➲Opposite **inexperienced**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***experiment***

conduct/do/perform an experiment ● an experiment **on** sth

O-K **experiment¹** /ɪkˈsperɪmənt/ *noun* [C] a test, especially a scientific one, that you do in order to learn something or discover if something is true *to **conduct/do/perform** an **experiment*** ○ *They're conducting **experiments on** hamster cells to test the effects of the drug.*

experiment² /ɪkˈsperɪment/ *verb* [I] **1** TRY SOMETHING to try something in order to discover what it is like *Did he ever **experiment with** drugs?* **2** DO TESTS to do an experiment ***Experimenting on** mice can give us an idea of the effect of the disease in humans.* ●**experimentation** /ɪkˌsperɪmenˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

experimental /ɪkˌsperɪmentᵊl/ *adjective* relating to tests, especially scientific ones ●**experimentally** *adverb*

expert¹ /ˈekspɜːt/ *noun* [C] someone who has a lot of skill in something or a lot of knowledge about something *He's **an expert on** Japanese literature.*

expert² /ˈekspɜːt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having a lot of skill in something or knowing a lot about something *I need some **expert advice** on investments.* ○ *What's your **expert opinion**?* ●**expertly** *adverb He carved the roast expertly.*

E

expertise /ˌekspɜːˈtiːz/ *noun* [U] skill *the technical expertise of the engineers*

ˈexpert ˌsystem *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer system which asks questions and gives answers that have been thought of by a person who knows a lot about a subject

expiration /ekspɪˈreɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U, C] BIOLOGY the act of breathing out air, or a breath going out

expire /ɪkˈspaɪəˁ/ *verb* [I] **1** LAW If a legal document or agreement expires, you can no longer use it. *Your contract expired six months ago.* **2** BIOLOGY to breathe out air

expiry /ɪkˈspaɪəri/ *noun* [U] *UK* the end of a period when something can be used *What's **the expiry date** on your passport?*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***explain***

If someone is explaining something in order to make it easier for someone else to understand, you can use the verb **clarify**: *Let me just **clarify** what I mean here.*

The verb **define** is sometimes used when explaining exactly what something means: *Your responsibilities are clearly **defined** in the contract.*

If something is being explained clearly in writing, the phrasal verb **set out** is sometimes used: *Your contract will **set out** the terms of your employment.*

If something is being explained in great detail, the phrasal verb **spell out** is often used: *They sent me a letter, **spelling out** the details of the agreement.*

explain /ɪkˈspleɪn/ *verb* [I, T] to make something clear or easy to understand by giving reasons for it or details about it [**+ question word**] *Can you explain why you did this?* ○ *Can you **explain to** me how this mobile phone works?* [**+ (that)**] *He explained that he was going to stay with his sister.* ●**explaining** *noun* [U] when you have to explain or give a good reason for your actions *You'll **have** a lot of **explaining to do** when dad finds out what happened.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

explain something

Explain is followed by the thing you are explaining.

I'll explain the situation.

Remember to use the preposition **to** before a person.

I'll explain the situation to my parents.

~~*I'll explain the situation my parents.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***explanation***

demand/give/have/offer an explanation ● a **clear/possible/satisfactory/simple** explanation ● an explanation **for** sth

explanation /ˌeksplaˈneɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] the details or reasons that someone gives to make something clear or easy to understand *What's your **explanation for** the team's poor performance?* ○ *Could you give me a quick **explanation of** how it works?*

explanatory /ɪkˈsplænətˁri/ *adjective* giving an explanation about something *There are **explanatory notes** with the diagram.* ➲See also: **self-explanatory**

expletive /ɪkˈspliːtɪv/ (US) /ˈeksplətɪv/ *noun* [C] *formal* a swear word (= word which people think is rude or offensive)

explicable /ɪkˈsplɪkəbl/ *adjective formal* Something that is explicable can be explained. ➲Opposite **inexplicable**

explicit /ɪkˈsplɪsɪt/ *adjective* **1** CLEAR clear and exact *She was very **explicit about** her plans.* ○ *He made no **explicit references** to Tess.* **2** SHOWING SEX showing or talking about sex or violence in a very detailed way *a **sexually explicit** film* ●**explicitly** *adverb She **explicitly stated** that she did not want her name to be revealed.*

explode /ɪkˈsploʊd/ *verb* **1** BOMB [I, T] If something such as a bomb explodes, it bursts (= breaks suddenly from inside) with noise and force, and if you explode it, you make it burst with noise and force. *One of the bombs did not explode.* **2** GET ANGRY [I] to suddenly start shouting because you are very angry

exploit¹ /ɪkˈsplɔɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** TREAT UNFAIRLY to not pay or reward someone enough for something [**often passive**] *I felt as though I was being exploited.* **2** USE to use or develop something for your advantage *We are not fully exploiting all the resources that we have.* ●**exploitation** /ˌeksplɔɪˈteɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U] *the exploitation of child workers*

exploit² /ˈeksplɔɪt/ *noun* [C] something unusual, brave, or interesting that someone has done [**usually plural**] *Have you heard about her amazing exploits travelling in Africa?*

exploratory /ɪkˈsplɒrətˁri/ *adjective* done in order to discover or learn about something *an exploratory expedition* ○ *an exploratory operation*

explore /ɪkˈsplɔːˁ/ *verb* **1** LOOK AROUND [I, T] to go around a place where you have never been in order to find out what is there *The children love exploring.* ○ *The best way to explore the countryside is on foot.* **2** THINK CAREFULLY [T] to think about something very carefully before you make a decision about it *We're **exploring** the **possibility** of buying a holiday home.* ●**exploration** /ˌeksplaˈreɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] *She's always loved travel and exploration.*

explorer /ɪkˈsplɔːrəˁ/ *noun* [C] someone who travels to places where no one has ever been in order to find out what is there

explosion /ɪkˈspləʊʒˁn/ *noun* [C] **1** BOMB when something such as a bomb explodes *Forty people were killed in the explosion.* **2** INCREASE

when something increases suddenly by a large amount *the recent* ***population explosion***

explosive¹ /ɪkˈspləʊsɪv/ *adjective* **1** EQUIPMENT An explosive substance or piece of equipment can cause explosions. *The* ***explosive device*** *was hidden in a suitcase.* **2** SITUATION An explosive situation or subject causes strong feelings, and may make people angry or violent. *a highly explosive political issue*

explosive² /ɪkˈspləʊsɪv/ *noun* [C] a substance or piece of equipment that can cause explosions

exponent /ɪkˈspəʊnənt/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who supports a particular idea or belief, or performs a particular activity *The early* ***exponents of*** *votes for women suffered greatly.* **2 MATHEMATICS** a number or sign which shows how many times another number is to be multiplied by itself

exponential /ˌekspəʊˈnenʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1 MATHEMATICS** *formal* increasing extremely quickly *There has been an exponential increase in the world population in the last hundred years.* **2 MATHEMATICS** containing an exponent (= number or sign which shows how many times you should multiply another number by itself)

export¹ /ˈekspɔːt/ *noun* **ECONOMICS 1** [C] a product that you sell in another country *Scottish beef exports to Japan* **2** [U] the business of sending goods to another country in order to sell them there *the export of industrial goods* ➲Opposite **import**

export² /ɪkˈspɔːt/ *verb* [I, T] **1 ECONOMICS** to send goods to another country in order to sell them there *Singapore exports large quantities of rubber.* ➲Opposite **import 2 COMPUTING** If you export information from a computer, you copy it to another place. ●**exporter** *noun* [C] *Brazil is the world's largest exporter of coffee.*

expose /ɪkˈspəʊz/ *verb* [T] **1** HIDDEN THING to remove what is covering something so that it can be seen *Our bodies need to be exposed to sunlight in order to make vitamin D.* **2** BAD THING to make public something bad or something that is not honest *The review exposed widespread corruption in the police force.* **3 be exposed to sth** to experience something or be affected by something because you are in a particular situation or place *It was the first time I'd been exposed to violence.* **4** PHOTOGRAPHY to allow light to reach a piece of camera film in order to produce a photograph

exposed /ɪkˈspəʊzd/ *adjective* having no protection from bad weather *an exposed cliff*

exposure /ɪkˈspəʊʒəʳ/ *noun* **1** EXPERIENCING [U] when someone experiences something or is affected by it because they are in a particular situation or place *There is a risk of* ***exposure to*** *radiation.* ○ *Many young children now have exposure to computers in the home.* **2** MAKING PUBLIC [C, U] when something bad that you have done is made public *She was threatened with exposure by a journalist.* **3 HEALTH** [U] a serious medical condition that is caused by being outside in very cold weather **4** PHOTOGRAPH [C] a single photograph on a piece of film *This film has 24 exposures.*

expound /ɪkˈspaʊnd/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to give a detailed explanation of something *He's always* ***expounding on*** *what's wrong with the world.* ○ *She uses her newspaper column to* ***expound*** *her* ***views*** *on environmental issues.*

O-K **express¹** /ɪkˈspres/ *verb* [T] to show what you think or how you feel using words or actions *I'm simply expressing my opinion.* [**often reflexive**] *You're not expressing yourself* (= saying what you mean) *very clearly.*

express² /ɪkˈspres/ *adjective* **1 an express service/train, etc** a service, train, etc that is much faster than usual *an express train* ○ *an express service* **2 an express aim/intention/purpose, etc** a clear and certain aim, intention, purpose, etc *You came here with the express purpose of causing trouble.*

express³ /ɪkˈspres/ (*also* **exˈpress ˌtrain**) *noun* [C] a fast train *I took the express to London.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***expression***

have a [pained, puzzled, etc] expression **on your face** ● an expression **changes** ● an **angry/dazed/pained/puzzled** expression ● **facial** expression

O-K **expression** /ɪkˈspreʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** LOOK [C] the look on someone's face showing what they feel or think *your* ***facial expression*** ○ *He had a sad expression on his face.* **2** PHRASE [C] a phrase that has a special meaning *'A can of worms' is an expression meaning a difficult situation.* **3** SHOWING THOUGHTS [C, U] when you say what you think or show how you feel using words or actions *As* ***an expression of*** *our disapproval, we will no longer use his shop.*

expressive /ɪkˈspresɪv/ *adjective* showing your feelings *a very expressive face*

expressly /ɪkˈspresli/ *adverb formal* **1** CLEARLY If you say something expressly, you say it in a clear way, so that your meaning cannot be doubted. *I* ***expressly stated*** *that I did not want any visitors.* **2** SPECIALLY If something is expressly for a particular reason or person, it is for that reason or person only. *The picture was painted expressly for me.*

expressway /ɪkˈspreseɪ/ *US* (*UK* **motorway**) *noun* [C] a long, wide road, usually used by traffic travelling fast over long distances

expulsion /ɪkˈspʌlʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is made to leave their school, organization, or country because of their behaviour *They threatened him with* ***expulsion from*** *school.*

exquisite /ɪkˈskwɪzɪt/ *adjective* very beautiful or perfect *a garden of exquisite flowers* ●**exquisitely** *adverb an exquisitely dressed woman*

extend /ɪkˈstend/ *verb* **1** MAKE BIGGER [T] to make something bigger or longer *We're going to extend our kitchen.* **2** MAKE LAST [T] to make an activity, agreement, etc last for a longer time *They have extended the deadline by one week.* **3 extend from/into/over, etc** to continue or stretch over a particular area of land or period of time *Will the building work extend into next week?* **4** STRETCH OUT [T] to stretch out a part of your body *She smiled and extended her hand.* **5 extend an invitation/thanks, etc to sb** *formal*

to give someone an invitation, thanks, etc *I'd like to extend a warm welcome to our guests.*

extension /ɪkˈstenʃˈn/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF A BUILDING a new room or rooms that are added to a building *You could build an extension onto the back of the house.* **2** EXTRA TIME extra time that you are given to do or use something *You might be able to get an extension on your visa.* **3** TELEPHONE a telephone that is connected to the main telephone in an office or other large building *Call me on extension 213.*

E

extensive /ɪkˈstensɪv/ *adjective* large in amount or size *an **extensive** art **collection** ○ The hurricane caused **extensive damage**.* ●**extensively** *adverb I have **travelled extensively** in Europe.*

extensor (muscle) /ɪkˈstensəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a muscle that allows you to make part of your body straight ➲Compare **flexor (muscle)**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***extent***

the **full/true** extent of sth ● **to such** an extent ● the extent **of** sth

extent /ɪkˈstent/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] the size or importance of something *They are just beginning to realize the **full extent** of the damage. ○ Her face was injured **to such an extent*** (= so much) *that he didn't recognize her.* **2 to some extent/to a certain extent** in some ways *I was, to some extent, responsible for the accident.*

exterior /ɪkˈstɪəriəʳ/ *noun* [C] the outside part of something or someone [**usually singular**] *The exterior of the house was painted white.* ●**exterior** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *an exterior wall* ➲Opposite **interior**

exterminate /ɪkˈstɜːmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to kill a large group of people or animals ●**extermination** /ɪkˌstɜːmɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

external /ɪkˈstɜːnˈl/ *adjective* **1** OUTSIDE relating to the outside part of something *the **external walls** of the house ○ The ointment is **for external use** only* (= it must not be put inside the body). **2** FROM ANOTHER PLACE coming from or relating to another country, group, or organization *All exams are marked by an **external examiner**.* ➲Opposite **internal** ●**externally** *adverb*

extinct /ɪkˈstɪŋkt/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** If a type of animal is extinct, it does not now exist.

extinction /ɪkˈstɪŋkʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when a type of animal no longer exists *Many species of animal are **threatened with extinction**.*

extinguish /ɪkˈstɪŋgwɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to stop something burning or giving out light *The fire took two hours to extinguish.*

extinguisher /ɪkˈstɪŋgwɪʃəʳ/ (*also* **fire extinguisher**) *noun* [C] a piece of equipment shaped like a tube, which is used to spread a substance onto a fire to stop it burning

extol /ɪkˈstəʊl/ *verb* [T] **extolling,** *past* **extolled** to say that you think that something is very good *He always **extols the virtues of*** (= praises) *French cooking.*

extort /ɪkˈstɔːt/ *verb* [T] to get money from someone by saying that you will harm them ●**extortion** /ɪkˈstɔːʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

extortionate /ɪkˈstɔːʃˈnət/ *adjective* Extortionate prices or costs are very high.

extra¹ /ˈekstrə/ *adjective* more, or more than usual *Can I invite a few extra people? ○ She's been babysitting to earn some extra cash.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***extra***

an **added/hidden/optional** extra

extra² /ˈekstrə/ *noun* [C] **1** MORE something that costs more when you buy goods or pay for a service *The hi-fi comes with **optional extras** such as headphones and remote control.* **2** ACTOR an actor in a film who does not have a main part and usually plays someone in a crowd

extra³ /ˈekstrə/ *adverb* more than usual *Do you get paid extra for working late?*

extra- /ekstrə-/ *prefix* outside of or in addition to *extracurricular activities* (= activities that are in addition to the usual school work)

extracellular /ˌekstrəˈseljələʳ/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** being or happening outside a cell

extract¹ /ɪkˈstrækt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** TAKE OUT to take something out, especially using force *He's going to the dentist's to have a tooth extracted.* **2** GET MONEY/INFORMATION to get the money, information, etc that you want from someone who does not want to give it to you *They were not able to extract a confession from her.*

extract² /ˈekstrækt/ *noun* [C] **1** WRITING a particular part of a book, poem, etc that is chosen so that it can be used in a discussion, article, etc *The teacher read out **an extract from** 'Brave New World'.* **2** SUBSTANCE a substance taken from a plant, flower, etc and used especially in food or medicine *pure vanilla extract*

extraction /ɪkˈstrækʃˈn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when something is taken out, especially using force **2 of Chinese/Italian, etc extraction** having a family whose origin is Chinese, Italian, etc

extradite /ˈekstrədaɪt/ *verb* [T] to send someone back to the country where they are accused of a crime, so that a court there can decide if they are guilty [**often passive**] *The suspects were **extradited to** the UK.* ●**extradition** /ˌekstrəˈdɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

extraneous /ɪkˈstreɪnɪəs/ *adjective* not directly connected to something *extraneous information/noise*

extranet /ˈekstrənet/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** a system of computers that makes it possible for organizations to communicate with each other and share information *The extranet will link the company with its customers and suppliers.*

extraordinary /ɪkˈstrɔːdˈnəʳi/ *adjective* very special, unusual, or strange *an extraordinary tale of courage ○ She was an extraordinary young woman.* ●**extraordinarily** *adverb Their last album was extraordinarily successful.*

extravagant /ɪkˈstrævəgənt/ *adjective* **1** WASTING MONEY costing too much or spending a lot more money than you need to *the **extravagant lifestyle** of a movie star* **2** NOT ACCEPTABLE too unusual and extreme to be believed or controlled *the **extravagant claims** made by*

cosmetics companies ●**extravagance** /ɪkˈstrævəgəns/ *noun* [**C**, **U**] when someone or something is extravagant ●**extravagantly** *adverb*

extravaganza /ɪkˌstrævəˈgænzə/ *noun* [**C**] a large, exciting, and expensive event or entertainment *a three-hour extravaganza of country music*

extreme¹ /ɪkˈstriːm/ *adjective* **1** SERIOUS the most unusual or most serious possible *extreme weather conditions* ○ ***In extreme cases**, the disease can lead to blindness.* **2** VERY LARGE very large in amount or degree *extreme pain* ○ *extreme wealth* **3** OPINIONS having such strong opinions or beliefs that most people cannot agree with you *extreme views* ○ *the extreme right* **4** FURTHEST [**always before noun**] at the furthest point of something *in the extreme south of the island*

extreme² /ɪkˈstriːm/ *noun* [**C**] the largest possible amount or degree of something *Anna's moods went **from one extreme to another*** (= first she was very happy, then she was very unhappy). ○ *Coach Wilson **took** our training **to extremes*** (= made us train extremely hard).

O-key **extremely** /ɪkˈstriːmli/ *adverb* very, or much more than usual *extremely beautiful*

exˌtreme ˈsports *noun* [**C**, **U**] **SPORT** a game or activity which people do that is dangerous *Extreme sports such as bungee jumping and snowboarding*

extremist /ɪkˈstriːmɪst/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** someone who has such strong opinions or beliefs that most people cannot agree with them ●**extremism** /ɪkˈstriːmɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] ●**extremist** *adjective*

extremities /ɪkˈstremətiz/ *noun* [**plural**] **BIOLOGY** the end parts of your body such as your hands and feet

extremity /ɪkˈstremətɪ/ *noun formal* **1** FAR AWAY [**C**] the part of something that is furthest from the centre *at the north-west extremity of Europe* **2** FEELING/SITUATION [**U**] when a feeling is very strong or a bad situation very serious

extricate /ˈekstrɪkeɪt/ *verb* **extricate yourself from sth** to get yourself out of a difficult situation or unpleasant place *I can't extricate myself from this embarrassing situation.*

extrovert /ˈekstrəvɜːt/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is very confident and likes being with other people ➲Opposite **introvert** ●**extrovert** *adjective an extrovert personality* ➲Opposite **introverted**

extrude /ɪkˈstruːd/ *noun* [**T**] **DT** to form something by forcing or pushing it out, especially through a small opening *extruded aluminium rods* ●**extrusion** /ɪkˈstruːʒən/ *noun* [**U**]

exuberant /ɪgˈzjuːbᵊrᵊnt/ *adjective* full of happiness, excitement, and energy *a warm and exuberant personality* ●**exuberance** /ɪgˈzjuːbᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [**U**]

exude /ɪgˈzjuːd/ *verb* [**T**] If you exude love, confidence, pain, etc, you show that you have a lot of that feeling.

exult /ɪgˈzʌlt/ *verb* [**I**] to show great pleasure, especially at someone else's defeat or failure *She seems to **exult in** her power.* ●**exultation** /ˌegzʌlˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

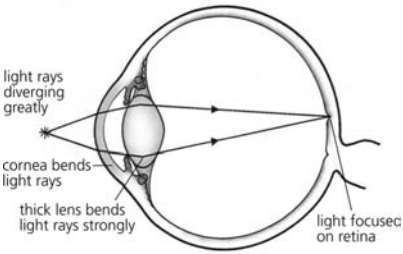

the eye: focusing on a nearby object

O-key **eye¹** /aɪ/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [**C**] one of the two organs in your face, which you use to see with *Sara has black hair and brown eyes.* ○ *She **closed** her **eyes** and fell off to sleep.* **2** NEEDLE [**C**] the small hole at the end of a needle, that you put the thread through **3 have an eye for sth** to be good at noticing a particular type of thing *Your son has a very good eye for detail.* **4 keep your/an eye on sb/sth** to watch or look after someone or something *Could you keep an eye on this pan of soup for a moment?* **5 have your eye on sth** *informal* to want something and intend to get it *Jane's got her eye on that new advertising job.* **6 can't keep/take your eyes off sb/sth** to be unable to stop looking at someone or something because they are so attractive or interesting *He couldn't take his eyes off her all night.* **7 lay/set eyes on sb/sth** to see someone or something for the first time *They fell in love the moment they laid eyes on each other.* **8 look sb in the eye/eyes** to look at someone in a direct way, without showing fear or shame *Look me in the eye and say that you didn't steal it.* **9 in sb's eyes** in someone's opinion *In my parents' eyes, I'll always be a child.* **10 cast/run your/an eye over sth** *UK* to look at something quickly, often in order to give your opinion about it *Would you cast an eye over our work so far?* **11 catch sb's eye a** GET SOMEONE'S ATTENTION to get someone's attention by looking at them *I tried to catch her eye, but she had already turned away.* **b** BE NOTICED to be attractive or different enough to be noticed by people *It was the colour of his jacket that caught my eye.* **12 cry your eyes out** If someone cries their eyes out, they cry a lot about a problem or situation. **13 keep your eyes open/peeled (for sb/sth)** to watch carefully for someone or something *Keep your eyes peeled, he should be here any minute.* **14 keep an eye out for sb/sth** to watch carefully for someone or something to appear *Keep an eye out for the delivery van.* **15 see eye to eye (with sb)** If two people see eye to eye, they agree with each other. **16 turn a blind eye (to sth)** to choose to ignore something that you know is wrong or illegal **17 with your eyes open** knowing about all of the problems that could happen if you do something *I went into this marriage with my eyes open.* ➲See also: **black eye**

eye² /aɪ/ *verb* [**T**] **eyeing**, *also US* **eying**, *past* **eyed** to look at someone or something with interest *The two women eyed each other suspiciously.*

eyeball /ˈaɪbɔːl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the whole of the eye, that has the shape of a small ball

eyebrow /ˈaɪbraʊ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the thin line of hair that is above each eye ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

eye-catching /ˈaɪˌkætʃɪŋ/ *adjective* attractive, interesting, or different enough to be noticed *an eye-catching poster*

ˈ**eye** ˌ**contact** *noun* [U] *UK* If two people make eye contact, they look at each other at the same time.

E

-eyed /aɪd/ *suffix* used at the end of a word describing a person's eyes *Both sisters are brown-eyed.* ➲See also: **cross-eyed, wide-eyed**

eyelash /ˈaɪlæʃ/ (*also* **lash**) *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the short hairs that grow from the edge of your eyelids [**usually plural**] *false eyelashes*

eyelid /ˈaɪlɪd/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** the piece of skin that covers your eye when you close it **2 not bat an eyelid** to not react to something unusual

eyeliner /ˈaɪˌlaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a coloured substance, usually contained in a pencil, which you put in a line above or below your eyes in order to make them more attractive

eye-opener /ˈaɪˌəʊpᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] something that surprises you and teaches you new facts about life, people, etc *Living in another country can be a* ***real eye-opener****.*

eyeshadow /ˈaɪʃædəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] a coloured cream or powder which you put above or around your eyes in order to make them more attractive

eyesight /ˈaɪsaɪt/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH, BIOLOGY** the ability to see *My eyesight is getting worse.*

eyesore /ˈaɪsɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] a building, area, etc that looks ugly compared to the things that are around it

eyewitness /ˌaɪˈwɪtnɪs/ (*also* **witness**) *noun* [C] someone who saw something such as a crime or an accident happen *Eyewitnesses saw two men running away from the bank.*

Ff

F, f /ef/ the sixth letter of the alphabet

F MEASURES *written abbreviation for* Fahrenheit (= a measurement of temperature) *a body temperature of 98.6 °F*

FA /ˌefˈeɪ/ *noun* SPORT *abbreviation for* Football Association: the national organization for football in England *the FA Cup*

fable /ˈfeɪbl/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE a short, traditional story, usually involving animals, which is intended to show people how to behave *Aesop's fables*

fabric /ˈfæbrɪk/ *noun* **1** [C, U] cloth *a light/woollen fabric* **2 the fabric of sth a** the basic way in which a society or other social group is organized *The family is part of* ***the fabric of society***. **b** *UK* the walls, floor, and roof of a building

fabricate /ˈfæbrɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] to invent facts, a story, etc in order to deceive someone *He claims that the police* ***fabricated evidence*** *against him.* ●**fabrication** /ˌfæbrɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U]

fabulous /ˈfæbjələs/ *adjective* extremely good *They've got a fabulous house.* ○ *We had an absolutely fabulous holiday.* ●**fabulously** *adverb* extremely *Her family is* ***fabulously wealthy***.

facade (*also* **façade**) /fəˈsɑːd/ *noun* [C] **1** APPEARANCE a false appearance ***Behind*** *that amiable* ***facade****, he's a deeply unpleasant man.* **2** BUILDING the front of a large building *the gallery's elegant 18th century facade*

O-key **face¹** /feɪs/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] the front part of the head where the eyes, nose, and mouth are, or the expression on this part *She's got a long, thin face.* ○ *I can't wait to see her face when she opens the present.* **2 make a face** (*also UK* **pull a face**) to show with your face that you do not like someone or something *The baby made a face every time I offered her some food.* **3 make faces** to make silly expressions with your face in order to try and make people laugh **4 sb's face falls/lights up** someone starts to look disappointed/happy *His face fell when I said that she wasn't coming.* **5 to sb's face** If you say something unpleasant to someone's face, you say it to them directly, when you are with them. *If you've got something to say, say it to my face.* **6** the front or surface of something *the north face of the cliff* ○ *a clock face* **7 in the face of sth** while having to deal with a difficult situation or problem *She refused to leave him, in the face of increasing pressure from friends and family.* **8 on the face of it** used when you are describing how a situation seems on the surface *On the face of it, it seems like a bargain, but I bet there are hidden costs.* **9 keep a straight face** to manage to stop yourself from smiling or laughing *I can never play jokes on people because I can't keep a straight face.* **10 lose/save face** to do something so that people stop respecting you/still respect you *He seemed more interested in saving face than telling the truth.* ➲See also: have **egg¹** on your face, a **slap²** in the face

O-key **face²** /feɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** DIRECTION to be or turn in a particular direction *The room faces south.* ○ *She turned to face him.* **2** PROBLEM If you face a problem, or a problem faces you, you have to deal with it. [**often passive**] *This is one of the many problems faced by working mothers.* **3 can't face sth/doing sth** to not want to do something or deal with something because it is so unpleasant *I had intended to go for a run, but now I just can't face it.* **4** ACCEPT to accept that something unpleasant is true and start to deal with the situation *She's going to have to* ***face the fact that*** *he's not coming back to her.* **5 let's face it** something that you say before you say something that is unpleasant but true *Let's face it, none of us are getting any younger.* **6** PUNISHMENT If you face something unpleasant, especially a punishment, then it might happen to you. *If found guilty, the pair face fines of up to $40,000.* **7** DEAL WITH to deal with someone when the situation between you is difficult *How can I face him now that he knows what I've done?* **8** COMPETITION to play against another player or team in a competition, sport, etc *We face Spain in the semifinal.* ➲See also: face the **music**

face up to sth *phrasal verb* to accept that a difficult situation exists

facelift /ˈfeɪslɪft/ *noun* [C] **1** SKIN medical treatment which makes the skin of your face tighter so that you look younger *She looks like she's* ***had a facelift***. **2** PLACE when you improve a place and make it look more attractive *The council is planning a £6 million facelift for the old harbour area.*

facet /ˈfæsɪt/ *noun* [C] one part of a subject, situation, etc that has many parts *She has many* ***facets to*** *her personality.*

facetious /fəˈsiːʃəs/ *adjective* trying to make a joke or a clever remark in a way that annoys people

face-to-face /ˌfeɪstəˈfeɪs/ *adjective, adverb* directly, meeting someone in the same place *We need to talk face-to-face.* ○ *She* ***came face-to-face with*** *the gunman as he strode into the playground.*

ˌface ˈvalue *noun* **take sth at face value** to accept the way that something first appears without thinking about what it really means *You can't just take everything you read in the papers at face value.*

facial /ˈfeɪʃəl/ *adjective* ANATOMY of or on the face ***facial expressions/hair***

facile /ˈfæsaɪl/ (US) /ˈfæsəl/ *adjective formal* A facile remark is too simple and has not been thought about enough.

facilitate /fəˈsɪlɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something possible or easier *I will do everything in my power to facilitate the process.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***facilities***

offer/provide facilities ● facilities **for** sb/(doing) sth ● **sports** facilities

facilities /fəˈsɪlətiz/ *noun* [**plural**] buildings, equipment, or services that are provided for a

particular purpose ***sports/washing facilities*** ○ *childcare facilities*

facility /fəˈsɪləti/ *noun* [C] **1** PART a part of a system or machine which makes it possible to do something *This phone has a memory facility.* **2** BUILDING a place where a particular activity happens *a new medical facility*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fact***

accept/face up to/establish/explain/ignore a fact ● the fact **remains** ● an **important/interesting/simple/undeniable** fact ● the facts **about** sth ● **know for a** fact

F

fact /fækt/ *noun* **1** TRUE THING [C] something that you know is true, exists, or has happened *I'm not angry that you drove my car, it's just* ***the fact that*** *you didn't ask me first.* ○ *No decision will be made until we know all the facts.* ○ *He* ***knew for a fact*** (= was certain) *that Natalie was lying.* **2** REAL THINGS [U] real events and experiences, not things that are imagined *It's hard to separate fact from fiction in what she says.* **3 in fact/in actual fact/as a matter of fact a** EMPHASIZING TRUTH used to emphasize what is really true *I was told there were some tickets left, but in actual fact they were sold out.* **b** MORE INFORMATION used when giving more information about something *"Is Isabel coming?" "Yes. As a matter of fact, she should be here soon."* **4 the fact (of the matter) is** used to tell someone that something is the truth *I wouldn't usually ask for your help, but the fact is I'm desperate.* **5 the facts of life** details about sexual activity and the way that babies are born

faction /ˈfækʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] a small group of people who are part of a larger group, and oppose the ideas of everyone else

factor /ˈfæktəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** one of the things that has an effect on a particular situation, decision, event, etc *Money was an important* ***factor in*** *their decision to move.* **2 MATHEMATICS** a number that another larger number can be divided by exactly *5 is a factor of 10.*

factoring /ˈfæktərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** when a company buys the debts of another business for less than they are worth so that they make a profit and the business selling the debts gets money more quickly

factorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈfæktᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] **MATHEMATICS** If you factorize a number, you divide it into factors (= numbers that a larger number can be divided into).

factory /ˈfæktᵊri/ *noun* [C] a building or group of buildings where large amounts of products are made or put together *a textile factory*

factual /ˈfæktʃʊəl/ *adjective* using or consisting of facts ●**factually** *adverb factually correct/incorrect*

faculty /ˈfækᵊlti/ *noun* **1** [C] a natural ability to hear, see, think, move, etc **2 the English/law/science, etc faculty EDUCATION** a particular department at a college or university, or the teachers in that department **3 the faculty EDUCATION** *US* all of the teachers at a school or college

fad /fæd/ *noun* [C] something that is fashionable to do, wear, say, etc for a short period of time *the latest* ***health fad***

fade /feɪd/ *verb* **1** BECOME LESS [I, T] If a colour or a sound fades, or if something fades it, it become less bright or strong. *The music began to fade.* ○ *The walls had been faded by the sun.* **2** SLOWLY DISAPPEAR [I] (*also* **fade away**) to slowly disappear, lose importance, or become weaker *With time, memories of that painful summer would fade away.*

faeces *UK* (*US* **feces**) /ˈfiːsiːz/ *noun* [plural] **BIOLOGY** *formal* solid waste that comes out of the bottom of a person or animal

fag /fæg/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a cigarette

Fahrenheit /ˈfærᵊnhaɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **F**) *noun* [U] **MEASURES** a measurement of temperature in which water freezes at 32° and boils at 212°

fail¹ /feɪl/ *verb* **1** NOT SUCCEED [I] to not be successful *Dad's business failed after just three years.* ○ *She keeps* ***failing in*** *her attempt to lose weight.* **2 fail to do sth** to not do what is necessary or expected *John failed to turn up for football practice yesterday.* **3** EXAM [I, T] to not pass a test or an exam, or to decide that someone has not passed *I'm worried about failing my driving test.* **4** STOP WORKING [I] to stop working normally, or to become weaker *Two of the plane's engines had failed.* **5** NOT HELPING [T] to stop being helpful or useful to someone when they need you *The government is failing the poor and unemployed.* **6 I fail to see/understand** used to show that you do not accept something [+ **question word**] *I fail to see why you cannot work on a Sunday.*

fail² /feɪl/ *noun* **without fail** If you do something without fail, you always do it, even when it is difficult. *I go to the gym every Monday and Thursday without fail.*

failing¹ /ˈfeɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a bad quality or fault that someone or something has *Despite one or two failings, he's basically a nice guy.*

failing² /ˈfeɪlɪŋ/ *preposition* **failing that** if something is not possible or does not happen *Our goal is to move out by January, or failing that, by March.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***failure***

admit/end in failure ● be **doomed to** failure ● an **abject/complete/humiliating/total** failure

failure /ˈfeɪljəʳ/ *noun* **1** NO SUCCESS [U] when someone or something does not succeed *Their attempt to climb Everest* ***ended in failure.*** **2** PERSON/ACTION [C] someone or something that does not succeed *All my life I've felt like a failure.* **3 failure to do sth** when you do not do something that you must do or are expected to do *Failure to pay within 14 days will result in prosecution.* **4** NOT WORKING [C, U] when something does not work, or stops working as well as it should ***heart failure*** ○ *All trains were delayed due to a* ***power failure.***

faint¹ /feɪnt/ *adjective* **1** slight and not easy to notice, smell, hear, etc *a faint smell of smoke* ○ *faint laughter coming from next door* **2 feel faint HEALTH** to feel very weak and as if you

might fall down *Seeing all the blood made me feel faint.* **3 faint hope/praise/chance, etc** very little hope, praise, chance, etc *a faint hope of winning the gold medal* **4 not have the faintest idea** used to emphasize that you do not know something [+ **question word**] I haven't the faintest idea what you're talking about.

faint² /feɪnt/ *verb* [I] HEALTH to suddenly become unconscious for a short time, usually falling down onto the floor *She fainted with exhaustion.*

faintly /ˈfeɪntli/ *adverb* slightly *faintly embarrassed*

fair¹ /feəʳ/ *adjective* **1** EQUAL treating everyone in the same way, so that no one has an advantage ***a fair trial*** ○ ***That's not fair.*** *You always go first!* **2** RIGHT acceptable or right *a fair deal* ○ *We'd like to move abroad, but it's just not* ***fair on*** *the children.* ➲Opposite **unfair 3** HAIR/SKIN having pale skin or a light colour of hair *a boy with fair hair and blue eyes* ➲Opposite **dark 4 a fair amount/distance/size, etc** quite a large amount, distance, size, etc *There's still a fair bit of work to be done on the house.* **5** WEATHER sunny and not raining *Tomorrow will be fair, with some early morning frost.* **6** AVERAGE not very good but not very bad *He has a* ***fair chance*** *of winning.* **7 fair enough** *UK informal* used to say that you agree, or think that something is acceptable *"He'll only work on Sunday if he gets paid extra." "Fair enough."* ➲See also: fair **play**², have your (fair) **share**² of sth

fair² /feəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** ENTERTAINMENT an event outside where you can ride large machines for pleasure and play games to win prizes **2** SHOW OF GOODS/SERVICES an event where people show and sell goods or services relating to a particular business or hobby *a* ***trade fair***

fair³ /feəʳ/ *adverb* **1 play fair** to do something in a fair and honest way **2 fair and square** in an honest way and without any doubt *We won the match fair and square.*

fairground /ˈfeəgraʊnd/ *noun* [C] an outside area that is used for fairs

fair-haired /ˌfeəˈheəd/ *adjective* having a light colour of hair *a fair-haired child*

fairly /ˈfeəli/ *adverb* **1** MORE THAN AVERAGE more than average, but less than very *a fairly big family* ○ *fairly quickly* **2** FAIR done in a fair way *treating people fairly*

fairness /ˈfeənəs/ *noun* [U] when you treat everyone in the same way, so that no one has an advantage

ˌfair ˈtrade *noun* [U] a way of buying and selling products that makes certain that the original producer receives a fair price *fair trade coffee/chocolate* ➲Compare **free trade** ●**fairly traded** *adverb*

fairy /ˈfeəri/ *noun* [C] a small, imaginary creature that looks like a person with wings, and has magic powers

fairytale /ˈfeəriteɪl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happy and beautiful, like something in a fairy tale *a* ***fairytale romance/wedding***

ˈfairy ˌtale *noun* [C] LITERATURE a story told to children which involves magic, imaginary creatures, and a happy ending

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***faith***

have/lose faith ● sb's faith **in** sb/sth

faith /feɪθ/ *noun* **1** [U] the belief that someone or something is good, right, and able to be trusted ***Have faith in*** *me. I won't let you down.* **2** RELIGION [U] strong belief in a god or gods *Throughout her illness, she never* ***lost*** *her* ***faith in*** *God.* **3** RELIGION [C] a religion *the Jewish and Christian faiths* **4 in good faith** If you act in good faith, you believe that what you are doing is good, honest, or legal.

faithful /ˈfeɪθfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** RELATIONSHIP If your husband, wife, or partner is faithful, they do not have a sexual relationship with anyone else. *a faithful husband* ○ *They remained* ***faithful to*** *each other throughout their long marriage.* **2** LOYAL always loyal *his trusted and faithful servant* **3** NOT CHANGED not changing any of the original details, facts, style, etc *Does the film adaptation stay* ***faithful to*** *the novel?* ➲Opposite **unfaithful** ●**faithfulness** *noun* [U]

faithfully /ˈfeɪθfᵊli/ *adverb* **1** in a faithful way **2 Yours faithfully** used to end a formal letter to someone whose name you do not know

fake¹ /feɪk/ *adjective* not real, but made to look or seem real ***fake fur*** ○ *a fake passport*

fake² /feɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** COPY a copy of something that is intended to look real or valuable and deceive people *Experts say that the painting is a fake.* **2** PERSON someone who pretends to have particular skills or qualities so that they can deceive people or get their admiration

fake³ /feɪk/ *verb* [T] **1** COPY to copy something in order to deceive people *faked documents* **2** PRETEND to pretend that you have a particular feeling or emotion *He said he was feeling sick, but he was just* ***faking it.***

falcon /ˈfɔːlkᵊn/ *noun* [C] a large bird that eats small animals and is often taught to hunt by people

fall¹ /fɔːl/ *verb* [I] *past tense* **fell,** *past participle* **fallen 1** MOVE DOWN to move down towards the ground *Huge drops of rain were* ***falling from*** *the sky.* ○ *By winter, all the leaves had* ***fallen off*** *the trees.* **2** STOP STANDING to suddenly go down and hit the ground without intending to *She* ***fell off*** *her bike and broke her arm.* **3** BECOME LESS to become less in number or amount *Housing prices have* ***fallen by*** *15% since last year.* ○ *Temperatures are expected to* ***fall from*** *15°C* ***to*** *9°C.* **4** BECOME WORSE to become worse, or start to be in a bad situation or condition *Education standards are continuing to fall.* ○ *Empty for 30 years, the building had* ***fallen into ruin*** (= become very damaged). **5 fall asleep/ill/still, etc** to start to sleep, become ill, become quiet, etc *I fell asleep on the sofa watching TV.* **6 darkness/night falls** *literary* used to say that it is becoming dark **7** LOSE POWER to lose power and start to be controlled by a different leader *In 1453 the city* ***fell to*** *the Turks.* **8** HANG DOWN to hang down *Her long blonde hair fell softly over her shoulders.* ➲See also: fall on deaf ears (**ear**), fall **flat**³, fall **foul**¹ of sb/sth, go/fall to pieces (**piece**¹), fall into **place**¹, fall **prey**¹ to sth, fall by the **wayside**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

fall and **feel**

Be careful not to confuse the past forms of the verbs **fall** and **feel**.

The past tense of **fall** is **fell**.

Chris fell off the ladder and broke his arm.

The past tense of **feel** is **felt**.

I felt really happy and relaxed.

fall apart *phrasal verb* **1** BREAK to break into pieces *My poor old boots are falling apart.* **2** HAVE PROBLEMS to start having problems that you cannot deal with *Their relationship fell apart after they moved to Detroit.*

fall back on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to use someone or something when other things have failed, or when there are no other choices *We've been saving up the past few years, to have something to fall back on.*

fall behind *phrasal verb* to not do something fast enough, or not do something by a particular time *Lucy's been falling behind in her homework again.*

fall for sb *phrasal verb* to suddenly have strong, romantic feelings about someone

fall for sth *phrasal verb* to be tricked into believing something that is not true *He told me he owned a mansion in Spain and I fell for it.*

fall in *phrasal verb* If a roof or ceiling falls in, it drops to the ground because it is damaged.

fall off *phrasal verb* If the amount, rate, or quality of something falls off, it becomes smaller or lower. *Demand for new cars is falling off.*

fall on sth *phrasal verb* to happen on a particular day or date *New Year's Day* ***falls on*** *a Tuesday this year.*

fall out *phrasal verb UK* to argue with someone and stop being friendly with them *Have you and Sam* ***fallen out with*** *each other again?*

fall over *phrasal verb* If someone or something falls over, they fall to the ground or onto their side. *The fence fell over in the wind.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

fall through *phrasal verb* If a plan or agreement falls through, it fails to happen.

WORD PARTNERS FOR *fall*

a **dramatic/sharp/steep** fall ● a fall **in** sth

fall[2] /fɔːl/ *noun* **1** AMOUNT [C] when the number or amount of something becomes smaller *There's been a sharp* ***fall in*** *prices.* **2** MOVEMENT [C] when someone or something moves down to the ground *a heavy fall of snow* **3** SEASON [C, U] *US* (*UK/US* **autumn**) the season of the year between summer and winter, when leaves fall from the trees *He started a new job* ***in the fall.*** **4** DEFEAT [**no plural**] when a city, government, leader, etc loses power or control *the fall of communism*

fallacy /ˈfæləsi/ *noun* [C, U] a belief that is not true or correct *It's a fallacy that problems will disappear if you ignore them.*

fallen /ˈfɔːlən/ *past participle of* fall

fallible /ˈfæləbl/ *adjective* able to make mistakes *We place our trust in doctors, but even they are fallible.* ➲Opposite **infallible** ●**fallibility** /ˌfæləˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

Fallopian tube /fəˌləʊpiənˈtjuːb/ *noun* [C usually plural] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the two tubes in a woman's or female animal's body along which eggs travel, from the ovaries (= parts in which eggs are made) to the womb (= part in which the baby grows)

fallout /ˈfɔːlaʊt/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** the radiation (= powerful and dangerous energy) from a nuclear explosion

fallow /ˈfæləʊ/ *adjective* **FARMING** If land is left fallow, it is not planted with crops, in order to improve the quality of the soil.

false /fɔːls/ *adjective* **1** NOT TRUE not true or correct *a false name* ○ *Many rumours about her life were later proved to be false.* **2** NOT REAL not real, but made to look or seem real ***false teeth*** ○ *false documents* **3** NOT SINCERE not sincere or expressing real emotions *false promises* ●**falsely** *adverb*

ˌfalse aˈlarm *noun* [C] an occasion when people believe that something dangerous is happening, but it is not *Fire engines rushed to the scene, but it was a false alarm.*

falsehood /ˈfɔːlshʊd/ *noun* [C] *formal* a lie

ˌfalse ˈstart *noun* [C] an occasion when you try to start an activity, event, or process, but fail and have to stop *The after-school club finally opened this term, after several false starts.*

falsify /ˈfɔːlsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to change important information, especially in documents, in order to deceive people

falter /ˈfɔːltəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** STOP BEING SUCCESSFUL to stop being confident, powerful, or successful *In the late 1980s his career began to falter.* **2** MAKE MISTAKES to pause, make mistakes, or seem weak when you are talking or moving *Her voice didn't falter once during the ceremony.* ○ *a few* ***faltering steps***

fame /feɪm/ *noun* [U] when you are known by many people because of your achievements, skills, etc *fame and fortune* ○ *She first* ***rose to fame*** *as a pop star at the age of 16.* ➲See also: sb's/sth's **claim**[2] to fame

famed /feɪmd/ *adjective* famous, especially for having particular qualities *It is a city* ***famed for*** *its ski slopes and casinos.*

familiar /fəˈmɪliəʳ/ *adjective* **1** EASY TO RECOGNIZE easy to recognize because of being seen, met, heard, etc before *It's nice to see a few* ***familiar faces*** (= people that I recognize) *around here.* ○ *This street doesn't look* ***familiar to*** *me.* **2 be familiar with sth** to know about something or have experienced it many times before *Anyone who's familiar with his poetry will find the course easy.* ➲Opposite **unfamiliar** **3** FRIENDLY friendly and very informal *He doesn't like to be too familiar with his staff.*

familiarity /fəˌmɪliˈærəti/ *noun* [U] **1** KNOWLEDGE a good knowledge of something, or experience of doing or using it *Her* ***familiarity with*** *computers is very impressive.* **2** FRIENDLY BEHAVIOUR friendly and informal behaviour

familiarize (*also UK* **-ise**) /fəˈmɪliəʳraɪz/ *verb* **familiarize sb/yourself with sth** to teach someone more about something new, or try to

understand more about it yourself *We spent a few minutes familiarizing ourselves with the day's schedule.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***family***

have/raise/start/support a family ● a **big/close/happy** family ● your **close/extended/immediate** family

family /ˈfæmᵊli/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [**group**] a group of people who are related to each other, such as a mother, a father, and their children *Her (UK) family are/ (US) family is originally from Ireland.* ○ *a family business* **2** [**C**] the children in a family [**usually singular**] *Single parents have to* ***raise a family*** *on their own.* ○ *Paul and Alison are hoping to* ***start a family*** *soon.* **3** BIOLOGY [**C**] a group of similar types of plants or animals that are related to each other

ˈfamily ˌname *noun* [**C**] the name that is used by all the members of a family

ˌfamily ˈplanning *noun* [**U**] HEALTH controlling how many children you have by using contraceptives (= pills or objects that prevent a woman from becoming pregnant)

ˌfamily ˈtree *noun* [**C**] SOCIETY a drawing that shows the relationships between the different members of a family, especially over a long period of time

famine /ˈfæmɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when people living in a particular area do not have enough food for a long time causing suffering and death

famous /ˈfeɪməs/ *adjective* known or recognized by many people *a famous actress* ○ *New York is a city* ***famous for*** *its shopping and nightlife.* ➲See also: **world-famous**

famously /ˈfeɪməsli/ *adverb* **1 get on famously (with sb)** to have a very friendly relationship with someone **2** in a way that is famous

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fan***

a **big/huge** fan ● a fan **of** sb/sth ● **football/soccer** fans

fan¹ /fæn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PERSON someone who admires and supports a famous person, sport, type of music, etc *More than 15,000 Liverpool fans attended Saturday's game.* ○ *He's a big* ***fan of*** *country music.* **2** OBJECT something that is used to move the air around so that it feels cooler, such as a machine or an object that you wave with your hand *an electric fan*

fan² /fæn/ *verb* [**T**] **fanning,** *past* **fanned** to move the air around with a fan or something used like a fan, to make it feel cooler [**often reflexive**] *The spectators sat in the bright sun, fanning themselves with newspapers.*
fan out *phrasal verb* If a group of people fan out, they move out in different directions from a single point.

fanatic /fəˈnætɪk/ *noun* [**C**] someone whose interest in something or enthusiasm for something is extreme ●**fanatical** *adjective* extremely enthusiastic about something *She's fanatical about football.* ●**fanaticism** /fəˈnætɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**]

fanciable /ˈfænsiəbl/ *adjective UK informal* sexually attractive

fanciful /ˈfænsɪfᵊl/ *adjective* Something that is fanciful comes from someone's imagination and so is probably not true or real. *a fanciful story*

ˈfan ˌclub *noun* [**C**] an organization for the people who support and admire a particular singer, actor, sports team, etc

fancy¹ /ˈfænsi/ *verb* [**T**] **1** WANT *UK* to want to have or do something *Do you fancy a drink?* [**+ doing sth**] *We fancy going to the Caribbean for our holiday.* **2** PERSON *UK informal* to feel sexually attracted to someone *I fancied him the first time I saw him.* **3 fancy (that)!** *UK informal* used to show that you are surprised or shocked by something [**+ doing sth**] Fancy seeing you here! **4** THINK *formal* to think that something is true [**+ (that)**] *I fancy that he was smiling, but I can't be sure.*

fancy² /ˈfænsi/ *adjective* **1** EXPENSIVE Fancy things and places are expensive and fashionable. *a fancy restaurant* **2** DECORATED with lots of decoration, or very complicated *fancy cakes*

fancy³ /ˈfænsi/ *noun* **1 take a fancy to sb/sth** to start to like someone or something a lot *Marina had taken a fancy to her.* **2 take sb's fancy** If something or someone takes your fancy, you find them interesting or attractive. *We can go anywhere that takes your fancy.*

ˌfancy ˈdress *noun* [**U**] *UK* special clothes that people wear for a party, which make them look like a different person ***a fancy dress party***

fanfare /ˈfænfeəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] MUSIC a short, loud tune played on a trumpet (= metal musical instrument) to announce an important person or event

fang /fæŋ/ *noun* [**C**] BIOLOGY a long, sharp tooth of an animal such as a dog or a snake

ˈfanny ˌpack *US* (*UK* **bumbag**) *noun* [**C**] a small bag fixed to a belt that you wear around your waist

fantasize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈfæntəsaɪz/ *verb* [**I, T**] to imagine something that you would like to happen, but is not likely to happen *We used to* ***fantasize about*** *becoming famous actresses.*

fantastic /fænˈtæstɪk/ *adjective* **1** GOOD *informal* very good *I've had a fantastic time.* **2** LARGE *informal* A fantastic amount or number of something is very large. *They're making fantastic amounts of money.* **3** STRANGE very strange and probably not true *fantastic stories about monsters and witches*

fantastically /fænˈtæstɪkᵊli/ *adverb* extremely *fantastically rich*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fantasy***

have fantasies **about /of** (doing) sth ● a fantasy **world**

fantasy /ˈfæntəsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] a situation or event that you imagine, which is not real or true

FAQ /ˌefeɪˈkjuː/ *noun* [**C**] COMPUTING, INTERNET *abbreviation for* frequently asked question: something that many people ask when they use the Internet or a computer program, or a file (= collection) of these questions with their answers

far[1] /fɑːr/ *adverb* **farther** or **farthest**, **further**, **furthest** **1** DISTANCE used to talk about how distant something is *It's the first time I've been so **far away** from home.* ○ ***How far** is it to the supermarket?* ○ *Bournemouth is **not far from** Poole.* ○ *In the summer the herds move farther north.* **2** TIME a long time *How far back can you remember?* ○ *We need to plan further ahead.* **3 far better/cheaper/more, etc** much better, cheaper, more, etc *Young people are far more independent these days.* **4 far too difficult/expensive/late, etc** much too difficult, expensive, late, etc *His trousers were far too tight.* **5 as far as I know** *informal* used to say what you think is true, although you do not know all the facts *As far as I know, they haven't reached a decision yet.* **6 as far as sb is concerned** used to say what someone's opinion is *It's all over as far as I'm concerned.* **7 as far as sth is concerned** used to say what you are talking about *As far as sport's concerned, I like tennis and football.* **8 by far** used to emphasize that something is the biggest, the best, etc *This is his best film by far.* **9 far from sth** certainly not something *The situation is far from clear.* **10 far from doing sth** certainly not doing something *Far from being pleased, he was embarrassed by the praise.* **11 far from it** *informal* used to tell someone that something is certainly not true *He's not handsome - far from it.* **12 as far as possible** as much as is possible *We try to buy organic food as far as possible.* **13 go so far as to do sth** to take the extreme action of doing something *He even went so far as to stop her using the telephone.* **14 go too far** to behave in a way that upsets or annoys other people **15 how far** used to talk about how true something is *How far do politicians represent the views of ordinary people?* **16 so far** until now *So far, we haven't made much progress.* **17 so far so good** *informal* used to say that something has gone well until now **18 not go (very) far** If something such as money does not go far, you cannot do very much with it. *£1 doesn't go very far these days.*

far[2] /fɑːr/ *adjective* **farther**, **farthest** or **further**, **furthest** **1** [always before noun] describes the part of something that is most distant from you or from the centre *His office is at the far end of the corridor.* ○ *They live in the far south of the country.* **2 the far left/right** POLITICS used to describe political groups whose opinions are very extreme ➲See also: be a far **cry**[2] from sth

farad /ˈfærəd/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring capacitance (= the ability of a system to store electrical charge)

the Faraday constant /ˌfærədeɪˈkɒnstənt/ *noun* PHYSICS the amount of electric charge in a particular amount of electrons

faraway /ˌfɑːrəˈweɪ/ *adjective* **1** [always before noun] *literary* a long distance away ***faraway places*** **2 a faraway look/expression** an expression on someone's face that shows that they are not thinking about what is happening around them *He had a faraway look in his eyes.*

farce /fɑːs/ *noun* **1** SITUATION [no plural] a serious event or situation that becomes ridiculous because it is so badly organized *The meeting was a complete farce.* **2** LITERATURE [C] a funny play in which a lot of silly things happen ●**farcical** /ˈfɑːsɪkᵊl/ *adjective* like a farce

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fare***

a **return/single** fare ● the fare **to** [Seattle/Moscow, etc]

fare[1] /feəʳ/ *noun* [C] the price that you pay to travel on an aircraft, train, bus, etc ***air/train fares***

fare[2] /feəʳ/ *verb formal* **fare well/badly/better, etc** used to say how well or badly someone or something does in a particular situation *All the children fared well in the exams.*

farewell /ˌfeəˈwel/ *exclamation old-fashioned* goodbye ●**farewell** *noun* [C] when someone says goodbye *a sad farewell* ○ *a farewell party*

far-fetched /ˌfɑːˈfetʃt/ *adjective* difficult to believe and not likely to be true *The idea is not as far-fetched as it might sound.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***farm***

on a farm ● farm **workers** ● farm **animals**

farm[1] /fɑːm/ *noun* [C] FARMING an area of land with fields and buildings that is used for growing crops and keeping animals as a business *a dairy farm* ○ *farm animals/buildings*

farm[2] /fɑːm/ *verb* [I, T] FARMING to grow crops or keep animals as a business *Only 2% of the country's farmland is farmed organically.*

farmer /ˈfɑːməʳ/ *noun* [C] FARMING someone who owns or looks after a farm

farmhouse /ˈfɑːmhaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **farmhouses** /ˈfɑːmhaʊzɪz/ the house on a farm where the farmer lives

farming /fɑːmɪŋ/ *noun* [U] FARMING working on a farm or organizing the work there

farmland /ˈfɑːmlænd/ *noun* [U] FARMING land which is used for or suitable for farming

farmyard /ˈfɑːmjɑːd/ *noun* [C] FARMING an area of ground with farm buildings around it

far-off /ˌfɑːˈɒf/ *adjective literary* a long distance away or a long time in the past or future *far-off lands*

far-reaching /ˌfɑːˈriːtʃɪŋ/ *adjective* Far-reaching acts, events, or ideas have very big effects. ***far-reaching changes** in the education system*

farsighted /ˈfɑːˌsaɪtɪd/ *US* (*UK* **long-sighted**) *adjective* HEALTH able to see objects which are far away, but not things which are near to you

farther /ˈfɑːðəʳ/ *adjective*, *adverb* (*comparative of* far) more distant *I couldn't walk any farther.*

farthest /ˈfɑːðɪst/ *adjective*, *adverb* (*superlative of* far) most distant *They walked to the farthest edge of the garden.*

fascinate /ˈfæsɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to interest someone a lot *Science has always fascinated me.*

fascinated /ˈfæsɪneɪtɪd/ *adjective* extremely interested *They were absolutely fascinated by the game.*

fascinating /ˈfæsɪneɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely interesting *I found the movie fascinating.*

fascination /ˌfæsɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U, no plural] when you find someone or something

fascinating *Her **fascination with** fashion started at an early age.*

fascism, Fascism /ˈfæʃɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** a political system in which the government is extremely powerful and controls people's lives

fascist /ˈfæʃɪst/ *noun* [C] **1 POLITICS** (*also* **Fascist**) someone who supports fascism **2** someone who you do not like because they try to control other people's behaviour ●**fascist** *adjective a **fascist dictator/regime***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fashion***

be **in** fashion ● **come into/go out of** fashion ● a fashion **for** sth

O-key **fashion¹** /ˈfæʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** STYLE [C, U] the most popular style of clothes, appearance, or behaviour at a particular time *Long hair is back **in fashion** for men.* ○ *Fur coats have gone **out of fashion**.* **2** BUSINESS [U] making and selling clothes *the **fashion industry*** **3** WAY [**no plural**] *formal* the way in which someone does something *He told the story **in a** very amusing **fashion**.*

fashion² /ˈfæʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something *jewellery **fashioned from** recycled metal*

fashionable /ˈfæʃᵊnəbl/ *adjective* popular at a particular time ***fashionable clothes*** [+ **to do sth**] *It's no longer fashionable to smoke.* ➲Opposite **unfashionable** ●**fashionably** *adverb fashionably dressed*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***fast***

If you want to use fast as an adjective, a very common alternative is **quick**: *I tried to catch him, but he was too **quick** for me.*

If something is done fast, without waiting, you can use the adjectives **prompt** or **speedy**: *A **prompt** reply would be very much appreciated.* ● *He made a **speedy** recovery.*

If something is done too fast, without thinking carefully, the adjectives **hasty** and **hurried** are often used: *I don't want to make a **hasty** decision.* ● *We left early after a **hurried** breakfast.*

A fast walk is often described as **brisk**: *We took a **brisk** walk through the park.*

The adjective **rapid** is often used to describe fast growth or change: *The 1990's were a period of **rapid** change/growth.*

If you want to use fast as an adverb, a very common alternative is **quickly**: *The problem needs to be sorted out as **quickly** as possible.*

If someone does something very fast, in informal situations you can use the expressions **in a flash** and **like a shot**: *I'll be back **in a flash**.* ● *There was an almighty crash and he got up **like a shot**.*

O-key **fast¹** /fɑːst/ *adjective* **1** QUICK moving, happening, or doing something quickly *fast cars* ○ *a fast swimmer* ○ *Computers are getting faster all the time.* **2** TIME [**never before noun**] If a clock or watch is fast, it shows a time that is later than the correct time. ➲See also: a fast **track**[1] (to sth)

O-key **fast²** /fɑːst/ *adverb* **1** QUICKLY moving or happening quickly *We ran as fast as we could.* ○ *You'll have to act fast.* **2 fast asleep** completely asleep (= sleeping) **3** FIRMLY in a firm or tight way *He tried to get away, but she **held him fast**.* ➲See also: **thick**[1] and fast

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

fast

Remember that there is no adverb 'fastly'. Use the adverbs **fast** or **quickly** instead.

The situation is changing fast.

Alice got dressed very quickly.

fast³ /fɑːst/ *verb* [I] to eat nothing, or much less than you usually eat for a period of time ●**fast** *noun* [C]

O-key **fasten** /ˈfɑːsᵊn/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to close or fix something together, or to become closed or fixed together *Fasten your seat belts.* ○ *This dress fastens at the side.* **2 fasten sth on/to/together, etc** to fix one thing to another *He fastened the rope to a tree.* ➲Opposite **unfasten**

fastener /ˈfɑːsᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] something that is used to close or fix things together

ˌfast ˈfood *noun* [U] **FOOD** hot food that can be served very quickly in a restaurant because it is already prepared ***fast food restaurants***

fast-forward /ˌfɑːstˈfɔːwəd/ *verb* [I, T] If you fast-forward a recording, or if it fast-forwards, you make it play at very high speed so that you get to the end more quickly. ●**fast-forward** *noun* [U]

fastidious /fæsˈtɪdiəs/ *adjective* Someone who is fastidious wants every detail of something to be correct and perfect.

O-key **fat¹** /fæt/ *adjective* **fatter**, **fattest 1** PERSON Someone who is fat weighs too much. *She eats all the time but never **gets fat**.* **2** THICK thick or large *a fat book* ➲See also: fat **chance**[1]

fat² /fæt/ *noun* **1 BIOLOGY** [U] the substance under the skin of people and animals that keeps them warm *body fat* **2 FOOD** [C, U] a solid or liquid substance like oil that is taken from plants or animals and used in cooking ***animal/vegetable fat*** ➲See also: **saturated fat**

fatal /ˈfeɪtᵊl/ *adjective* **1** CAUSING DEATH A fatal accident or illness causes death. *a fatal car crash* **2** CAUSING PROBLEMS Fatal actions have very bad effects. *a **fatal error*** ●**fatally** *adverb **fatally injured***

fatalism /ˈfeɪtᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] the belief that people cannot change events, and that bad events cannot be avoided ●**fatalistic** /ˌfeɪtᵊlˈɪstɪk/ *adjective*

fatality /fəˈtæləti/ *noun* [C] *formal* the death of a person caused by violence or an accident

ˈfat ˌcat *noun* [C] someone who has a lot of money, especially someone in charge of a company

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fate***

suffer a fate ● **decide/seal** sb's fate

fate /feɪt/ *noun* **1** THINGS THAT HAPPEN [C] what happens to someone, especially when it is something bad *His fate is now in the hands of the jury.* **2** POWER [U] a power that some people believe decides what will happen *I believe it*

was fate that caused us to meet again. ➲See also: **quirk** of fate

fated /ˈfeɪtɪd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] If something that happens or someone's actions are fated, they are decided by a power that controls events, and cannot be avoided. [**+ to do sth**] *I seem fated to meet him wherever I go.* ➲See also: **ill-fated**

fateful /ˈfeɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* A fateful event has an important and usually bad effect on the future. *a **fateful decision***

father¹ /ˈfɑːðəʳ/ *noun* **1** [**C**] your male parent **2 Father RELIGION** the title of some Christian priests *Father O'Brien* **3 the father of sth** the man who invented or started something *Descartes is known as the father of modern philosophy.*

father² /ˈfɑːðəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to become a male parent *He fathered three children.*

ˌFather ˈChristmas *noun* [**no plural**] *UK* a kind, fat, old man in red clothes who people say brings presents to children at Christmas

ˈfather ˌfigure *noun* [**C**] an older man who gives you advice and support like a father

fatherhood /ˈfɑːðəhʊd/ *noun* [**U**] being a father

father-in-law /ˈfɑːðərɪnlɔː/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **fathers-in-law** the father of your husband or wife

fathom¹ /ˈfæðəm/ (*also UK* **fathom out**) *verb* [**T**] to be able to understand something after thinking about it a lot [**+ question word**] *No one could fathom why she had left so early.*

fathom² /ˈfæðəm/ *noun* [**C**] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring the depth of water, equal to 1.8 metres

fatigue /fəˈtiːg/ *noun* [**U**] when you feel very tired ●**fatigued** *adjective*

fatigues /fəˈtiːgz/ *noun* [**plural**] special clothes that soldiers wear when they are fighting or working

fatten /ˈfætᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] **FARMING** to make animals fatter so that they can be eaten
fatten sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to give a thin person or animal lots of food so that they become fatter

fattening /ˈfætᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* Fattening food can make you fat. *I don't eat chips, they're too fattening.*

fatty /ˈfæti/ *adjective* **FOOD** Fatty foods contain a lot of fat.

ˌfatty ˈacid *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** any of a large group of acids, especially those found in fats and oils

fatuous /ˈfætjuəs/ *adjective* very stupid and not deserving your attention or respect *a **fatuous comment/remark***

faucet /ˈfɔːsɪt/ *US* (*UK/US* **tap**) *noun* [**C**] an object at the end of a pipe which you turn to control the flow of water ➲See picture at **tap**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fault***

all/entirely sb's fault ● it's sb's **own** fault

fault¹ /fɔːlt/ *noun* **1 sb's fault** If something bad that has happened is someone's fault, they are responsible for it. *She believes it was the doctor's fault that Peter died.* **2 at fault** responsible for something bad that has happened *I was at fault and I would like to apologize.* **3** [**C**] something that is wrong with something or with someone's character *The car has a serious **design fault**.* **4 find fault with sb/sth** to criticize someone or something, especially without good reasons **5 GEOLOGY** a place where the layers of rock under the surface of the Earth have broken and the pieces on either side can move

fault² /fɔːlt/ *verb* [**T**] to find a reason to criticize someone or something *I can't fault the way that they dealt with the complaint.*

faultless /ˈfɔːltləs/ *adjective* perfect, or without any mistakes *a **faultless performance***

faulty /ˈfɔːlti/ *adjective* not working correctly *faulty brakes/wiring*

fauna /ˈfɔːnə/ *noun* [**group**] **BIOLOGY** all the animals that live in a particular area *the **flora and fauna** of the area*

favour¹ *UK* (*US* **favor**) /ˈfeɪvəʳ/ *noun* **1** HELP [**C**] something that you do to help someone *Could you **do me a favour** please?* ○ *I wanted to **ask you a favour**.* **2 be in favour of sth** to agree with or approve of a plan or idea *Most people are in favour of reducing traffic in cities.* **3 in favour of sb/sth** If you refuse or get rid of someone or something in favour of someone or something else, you choose them instead. *They dropped him from the team in favour of a much younger player.* **4 in sb's favour a** ADVANTAGE If something is in your favour, it helps you to win or succeed. *Both sides have strong arguments in their favour.* **b** WINNING If a game, vote, or judgement is in someone's favour, they win. *The final score was 16-10 in England's favour.* **5** LIKE [**U**] *formal* when people like something or someone *Her work never **found favour** among the critics.* **6 be in favour/out of favour** to be popular/unpopular *He has fallen out of favour recently.*

favour² *UK* (*US* **favor**) /ˈfeɪvəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** CHOOSE to choose or prefer one possibility [**often passive**] *These are the running shoes favoured by marathon runners.* **2** UNFAIRLY PREFER to act unfairly by treating one person better than another *She always felt that her parents favoured her brother.*

favourable *UK* (*US* **favorable**) /ˈfeɪvᵊrəbl/ *adjective* **1** JUDGMENT showing that you like or approve of someone or something, or making you like or approve of them *She made a very **favourable impression** on us.* **2** CONDITIONS making something more likely to be successful ***favourable weather conditions*** ➲Opposite **unfavourable** ●**favourably** *UK* (*US* **favorably**) *adverb*

favourite¹ *UK* (*US* **favorite**) /ˈfeɪvᵊrət/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Your favourite person or thing is the one that you like best. *What's your favourite band?*

favourite² *UK* (*US* **favorite**) /ˈfeɪvᵊrət/ *noun* [**C**] **1** LIKE a person or thing that you like more than all others *These chocolates are my favourites.* **2** WIN the person or animal that is most likely to win a competition *The Dallas Cowboys are now favourites to win.*

favouritism *UK* (*US* **favoritism**) /ˈfeɪvᵊrətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] unfairly treating one person or group better than another

fawn¹ /fɔːn/ *noun* **1** ANIMAL [**C**] a young deer **2** COLOUR [**U**] a light brown colour

fawn² /fɔːn/ *verb*
fawn on/over sb *phrasal verb* to praise someone or be nice to someone in a way that is false in order to get something or to make them like you

fax¹ /fæks/ *noun* **1** DOCUMENT [**C**] a document that is sent or received using a special machine and a telephone line *I got a fax from them this morning.* **2** SYSTEM [**U**] the system of sending or receiving documents using a special machine and a telephone line *Some products can be ordered* ***by fax.*** **3** MACHINE [**C**] (*also* **ˈfax ˌmachine**) a machine that is used to send and receive faxes ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

fax² /fæks/ *verb* [**T**] to send documents using a fax machine [**+ two objects**] *Can you fax me a price list?*

the FBI /ˌefbiːˈaɪ/ *noun* **LAW** *abbreviation for* the Federal Bureau of Investigation: one of the national police forces in the US that is controlled by the central government *He is wanted by the FBI for fraud.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fear***

allay/calm/cause/heighten fear ● **hold** no fear **for** sb ● **great/morbid/widespread** fear ● fear **of** sth

O-K **fear¹** /fɪəʳ/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] a strong, unpleasant feeling that you get when you think that something bad, dangerous, or frightening might happen *She was trembling with fear.* ○ *Unlike the rest of us, Dave had no* ***fear of*** *snakes.* [**+ (that)**] *There are fears that the disease will spread to other countries.* **2 for fear of sth/doing sth** because you are worried about something/doing something *I didn't want to move for fear of waking her up.*

fear² /fɪəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** UNPLEASANT EVENT to be worried or frightened that something bad might happen or might have happened [**+ (that)**] *Police fear that the couple may have drowned.* **2** UNPLEASANT THING to be frightened of something or someone unpleasant *Most older employees fear unemployment.* **3 fear the worst** If you fear the worst, you are frightened that an unpleasant situation will become much worse. *When there was no sign of the children, rescuers feared the worst.*
fear for sth/sb *phrasal verb* to be worried about something, or to be worried that someone is in danger *Her parents* ***fear for*** *her* ***safety*** (= worry that she may not be safe).

fearful /ˈfɪəfᵊl/ *adjective formal* **1** FRIGHTENED frightened or worried [**+ of + doing sth**] *Many women are fearful of travelling alone.* **2** VERY BAD [**always before noun**] *UK* very bad *Nigel has a fearful temper.* ●**fearfully** *adverb*

fearless /ˈfɪələs/ *adjective* not frightened of anything *a fearless fighter* ●**fearlessly** *adverb*

fearsome /ˈfɪəsəm/ *adjective* very frightening *a fearsome opponent*

feasible /ˈfiːzəbl/ *adjective* possible to do *a feasible plan* [**+ to do sth**] *It may be feasible to clone human beings, but is it ethical?* ●**feasibility** /ˌfiːzəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

feast¹ /ˈfiːst/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a large meal, especially to celebrate something special *a wedding feast*

feast² /ˈfiːst/ *verb*
feast on sth *phrasal verb* to eat a lot of food and enjoy it very much *We feasted on fried chicken, ice cream, and chocolate cake.*

feat /ˈfiːt/ *noun* **1** [**C**] an act or achievement that shows great skill or strength *The Eiffel Tower is a remarkable* ***feat of*** *engineering.* **2 be no mean feat** used when you want to emphasize that an act or achievement is very difficult *Learning to ski at 60 is no mean feat!*

feather /ˈfeðəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** one of the soft, light things that grow from and cover a bird's skin ●**feathery** *adjective* like feathers *feathery leaves*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***feature***

a **distinguishing/important/notable** feature ● a **redeeming** feature ● a feature **of** sth ● a **new** feature

O-K **feature¹** /ˈfiːtʃəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PART a typical quality, or important part of something *This phone has several* ***new features.*** **2** FACE Someone's features are the parts of their face that you notice when you look at them. *His eyes are his* ***best feature.*** **3** NEWSPAPER a special article in a newspaper or magazine, or a special television programme *a double-page* ***feature on*** *global warming*

feature² /ˈfiːtʃəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] to include someone or something as an important part *a new movie featuring Bruce Willis*
feature in sth *phrasal verb* to be an important part of something

ˈfeature ˌfilm *noun* [**C**] a film that is usually 90 or more minutes long

O-K **February** /ˈfebruᵊri/ (*written abbreviation* **Feb**) *noun* [**C, U**] the second month of the year

feces /ˈfiːsiːz/ *noun* [**plural**] **BIOLOGY** *US spelling of* faeces

feckless /ˈfekləs/ *adjective* A feckless person is not willing to work or take responsibility for their actions.

fed /fed/ *past of* feed

federal /ˈfedᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1 POLITICS** relating to the central government, and not to the government of a region, of some countries such as the United States *the* ***federal government*** ○ *a federal agency/employee* **2 POLITICS** A federal system of government consists of a group of regions that is controlled by a central government.

ˌfederal ˈholiday *US* (*UK/US* **national holiday**) *noun* [**C**] a day when most people in a country do not have to work

federalism /ˈfedᵊrᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] **POLITICS** a political system in which separate states are organized under a central government ●**federalist** *noun* [**C**] someone who supports federalism

federation /ˌfedəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a group of organizations, countries, regions, etc that have joined together to form a larger organization or government *the International Tennis Federation*

ˌfed ˈup *adjective informal* [never before noun] annoyed or bored by something that you have experienced for too long *I'm **fed up with** my job.*

fee /fiː/ *noun* [C] FINANCE an amount of money that you pay to do something, to use something, or to get a service *an entrance fee* ○ *university fees*

F

feeble /ˈfiːbl/ *adjective* **1** WEAK extremely weak *She became too feeble to get out of bed.* **2** NOT GOOD not very good or effective ***a feeble argument/excuse*** ●**feebly** *adverb*

feed¹ /fiːd/ *verb past* **fed 1** GIVE FOOD [T] to give food to a person, group, or animal *I fed Simone's cat while she was away.* **2** EAT FOOD [I] If an animal or a baby feeds, it eats. *The caterpillars **feed on** cabbage leaves.* **3** SUPPLY [T] to supply something such as information to a person or a machine, especially in a regular or continuous way *We fed them false information about our plans.* ➲See also: **breast-feed**

feed² /fiːd/ *noun* **1** FARMING [U] food for animals that are not kept as pets *cattle/chicken feed* **2** [C] *UK* (*US* **feeding**) a meal for a baby or an animal *He has three feeds during the night.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***feedback***

get/give/provide feedback ● **negative/positive** feedback ● feedback **on** sth ● feedback **from** sb

feedback /ˈfiːdbæk/ *noun* [U] an opinion from someone about something that you have done or made ***positive/negative feedback*** ○ *We've had lots of **feedback on** these new products **from** our customers.*

feedstock /ˈfiːdstɒk/ *noun* [U] the main material used for making a product

feel¹ /fiːl/ *verb past* **felt 1** EXPERIENCE [I, T] to experience an emotion or a physical feeling *You shouldn't feel embarrassed about making a mistake.* ○ *I felt a sharp pain in my side when I stood up.* ○ *"Are you feeling better?" "Yes, thanks, I feel fine now."* **2 feel better/different/strange, etc; feel like/as if** If you describe the way a place, situation, or object feels, you say how it seems to you, or what your experience of it is like. *It felt strange to see him again after so long.* ○ *The house feels empty without the children.* ○ *This shirt feels tight under my arms.* ○ *I feel as if I've known you for ages.* **3 feel like sb/sth** to seem to be similar to a type of person, thing, or situation *My feet feel like blocks of ice.* ○ *I felt like a fool when I saw what everyone else was wearing.* **4** OPINION [I, T] to think something or have an opinion [+ **(that)**] *I feel that he's the best person for the job.* ○ *Do you feel strongly* (= have strong opinions) *about it?* **5** TOUCH [I, T] to touch something, especially with your hands, in order to examine it *He felt her ankle to see if it was broken.* **6 feel like sth/doing sth** to want something, or want to do something *I feel like some chocolate.* ○ *Jane felt like crying.* **7** BE AWARE [T] to be aware of something *You could feel the tension in the room.* ○ *I could feel them watching me.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **fall** ➲See also: feel **free**¹, feel the **pinch**², be/feel under the **weather**¹

feel for sb *phrasal verb* to feel sorry for someone because they are very unhappy, or in a difficult situation

feel² /fiːl/ *noun* **1** [no plural] the way that something seems, or feels when you touch it *I love the **feel of** silk against my skin.* ○ *His art has a very modern feel to it.* **2 a feel for sth** *informal* the ability to do something or use something well *Once you get a feel for it, using the mouse is easy.* ○ *Claire has a feel for this kind of work.*

feel-good /ˈfiːlgʊd/ *adjective* causing happy feelings about life *a feel-good story*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***feeling***

A very common alternative to the noun 'feeling' is **emotion**: *He finds it hard to express his **emotions**.*

The nouns **pang** or **stab** are sometimes used to describe a sudden, strong, bad feeling: *Amelia felt a sharp **pang** of jealousy when she saw her.* ● *He felt a **stab** of regret as he looked at his son.*

A small amount of a sad feeling is often described as a **tinge**: *It was with a **tinge** of sadness that she finally said goodbye.*

feeling /ˈfiːlɪŋ/ *noun* **1** EMOTION [C, U] emotion *guilty feelings* ○ *a feeling of joy/sadness* ○ *Her performance was completely lacking in feeling.* **2** PHYSICAL [C, U] when you feel something physical *I had a tingling feeling in my fingers.* ○ *Pablo lost all feeling* (= could not feel anything) *in his feet.* **3** OPINION [C] an opinion or belief *My feeling is that we should wait until they come back.* **4 have/get a feeling (that)...** to think that something is likely *I had a feeling he'd be there.* ○ *I get the feeling that he doesn't like me.* **5 bad/ill feeling** when people are upset or angry with each other

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***feelings***

express/hide/show your feelings ● **hurt** sb's feelings ● **mixed/strong** feelings

feelings /ˈfiːlɪŋz/ *noun* **1** [plural] Your feelings are your beliefs and emotions. *You can't **hide** your **feelings** from me.* **2 hurt sb's feelings** to make someone feel unhappy

feet /fiːt/ *plural of* foot

feign /feɪn/ *verb* [T] *formal* If you feign an emotion, illness, etc, you pretend to have it. *He feigned illness to avoid having to work.*

feisty /ˈfaɪsti/ *adjective* active, confident and determined *a feisty young woman*

feldspar /ˈfeldspɑr/ *noun* [C, U] GEOLOGY a very common type of mineral (= substance that is dug out from the ground)

feline /ˈfiːlaɪn/ *adjective* relating to cats, or like a cat

fell¹ /fel/ *verb* [T] **1** CUT to cut down a tree **2** KNOCK to knock someone down *He was felled with a single punch.*

fell² /fel/ *past tense of* fall

fella (*also* **feller**) /ˈfelə/ *noun* [C] *informal* a man

fellow¹ /ˈfeləʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** MAN *old-fashioned* a man *a big fellow with broad shoulders* **2** EDUCATION someone whose job is to teach or study a particular subject at some colleges or universities *She's a research fellow at St Peter's college.* **3** MEMBER a member of an official organization for a particular subject or job

fellow² /ˈfeləʊ/ *adjective* **fellow countrymen/students, etc** used to describe people who share your interests or situation *She's earned enormous respect from her fellow artists.*

fellowship /ˈfeləʊʃɪp/ *noun* **1** EDUCATION [C] a job teaching or studying a particular subject at some colleges or universities *a research fellowship at Harvard* **2** FEELING [U] a friendly feeling among people **3** GROUP [C] a group of people who share the same interests or beliefs

felon /ˈfelən/ *noun* [C] LAW someone who is guilty of a serious crime in the US *a convicted felon*

felony /ˈfeləni/ *noun* [C, U] LAW a serious crime in the US *to **commit a felony***

felt¹ /felt/ *noun* [U] a soft, thick cloth that is made from wool, hair, or fur that has been pressed together

felt² /felt/ *past of* feel

felt-tip pen *noun* [C] a pen with a point made of soft material, usually with brightly coloured ink for colouring pictures

female¹ /ˈfiːmeɪl/ *adjective* belonging to or relating to women, or to the sex that can produce eggs or have babies *a female athlete/employee* ○ *a female butterfly/elephant* ○ *Is it male or female?*

female² /ˈfiːmeɪl/ *noun* [C] a person or animal that belongs to the sex that can produce eggs or have babies *Our dog's just had puppies - three males and two females.*

feminine /ˈfemɪnɪn/ *adjective* **1** showing qualities that people generally think are typical of women *a feminine voice* ○ *feminine beauty* **2** LANGUAGE in some languages, belonging to a group of nouns or adjectives that have the same grammatical behaviour. The other groups are 'masculine' and 'neuter'.

femininity /ˌfemɪˈnɪnəti/ *noun* [U] when someone shows qualities that people generally think are typical of women

feminism /ˈfemɪnɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] POLITICS the belief that women should have the same economic, social, and political rights as men ●**feminist** *noun* [C] someone who supports feminism *a radical feminist* ●**feminist** *adjective* *feminist literature*

fence¹ /fens/ *noun* [C] **1** a wood, wire, or metal structure that divides or goes around an area *a garden/electric fence* **2 sit on the fence** to wait before you choose between two possibilities ➲See also: **picket fence**

fence² /fens/ *verb* [I] SPORT to take part in the sport of fencing
fence sth in *phrasal verb* to build a fence around an area
fence sth off *phrasal verb* to separate one area from another by building a fence

fencing /ˈfensɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** SPORT the sport of fighting with thin swords (= weapons like long knives) **2** fences, or the material that is used to make them

fend /fend/ *verb*
fend for yourself *phrasal verb* to take care of yourself without help
fend sb/sth off *phrasal verb* to defend yourself against someone or something that is attacking you or annoying you *They managed to fend off their attackers with rocks and sticks.*

fender /ˈfendəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** CAR *US* (*UK* **wing**) one of the parts at each corner of a car above the wheels **2** BICYCLE *US* (*UK* **mudguard**) a curved piece of metal or plastic fixed above a wheel of a bicycle or motorcycle to prevent water or dirt from hitting the legs of the person who is riding it **3** FIREPLACE *UK* a low, metal structure around an open fireplace which stops the coal or wood from falling out

feng shui /fʌŋˈʃweɪ/ *noun* [U] an ancient Chinese belief that the way your house is built and the way that you arrange objects affects your success, health, and happiness

fennel /ˈfenᵊl/ *noun* [U] FOOD a plant whose base can be eaten, and whose leaves and seeds are used as a spice in cooking

ferment¹ /fəˈment/ *verb* [I, T] CHEMISTRY If food or drink ferments, or if you ferment it, the sugar in it changes into alcohol because of a chemical process. *wine fermenting in barrels* ●**fermentation** /ˌfɜːmenˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

ferment² /ˈfɜːment/ *noun* [U] *formal* excitement or disagreement caused by change or a difficult situation

fermenter /fəˈmentəʳ/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a substance that causes fermentation

fern /fɜːn/ *noun* [C] a green plant with long stems, narrow leaves like feathers, and no flowers

fern

ferocious /fəˈrəʊʃəs/ *adjective* extremely angry, violent, or forceful *a ferocious dog* ○ *a ferocious attack* ●**ferociously** *adverb*

ferocity /fəˈrɒsəti/ *noun* [U] extreme violence or force *a storm of incredible ferocity*

ferret¹ /ˈferɪt/ *noun* [C] a small animal with a long, thin body that is sometimes used to hunt rabbits

ferret² /ˈferɪt/ *verb*
ferret sth out *phrasal verb* to find something after searching carefully for it

Ferris wheel /ˈferɪsˌwiːl/ *noun* [C] an entertainment consisting of a large wheel that turns slowly with seats for people to sit in

ferromagnetism /ˌferəʊˈmægnətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the type of magnetism (= force that makes metal move towards it) that iron has ●**ferromagnetic** /ˌferəʊmægˈnetɪk/ *adjective*

ferrous /ˈferəs / CHEMISTRY containing iron *ferrous metals/compounds*

ferry[1] /ˈferi/ *noun* [C] a boat that regularly carries passengers and vehicles across an area of water *a **car/passenger ferry***

ferry[2] /ˈferi/ *verb* [T] to regularly carry passengers or goods from one place to another in a vehicle

fertile /ˈfɜːtaɪl/ (US) /ˈfɜːrtəl/ *adjective* **1** FARMING Fertile land or soil produces a lot of healthy plants. **2** BIOLOGY If people or animals are fertile, they are able to have babies. **3 fertile ground (for sth)** a situation or place where an idea, activity, etc is likely to succeed **4 a fertile imagination** If someone has a fertile imagination, they have lots of interesting and unusual ideas. ●**fertility** /fəˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U]

fertilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈfɜːtɪlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** BIOLOGY to cause an egg to start to develop into a young animal or baby by combining it with a male cell *Once an egg is fertilized it becomes an embryo.* **2** FARMING to put a natural or chemical substance on land in order to make plants grow well ●**fertilization** /ˌfɜːtɪlaɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

fertilizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈfɜːtɪlaɪzər/ *noun* [C, U] FARMING a natural or chemical substance that you put on land in order to make plants grow well

fervent /ˈfɜːvənt/ *adjective* showing sincere and enthusiastic beliefs or feelings *a **fervent supporter** of animal rights* ●**fervently** *adverb*

fervour *UK* (*US* **fervor**) /ˈfɜːrvər/ *noun* [U] extremely strong beliefs or feelings ***religious/patriotic fervour***

fess /fes/ *verb*
fess up *phrasal verb informal* to admit that you have done something bad *He eventually **fessed up to** having spilt coffee on it.*

fest /fest/ *noun* **a beer/film/jazz, etc fest** a special event where people can enjoy a particular activity or thing

fester /ˈfestər/ *verb* [I] **1** FEELING If a bad feeling or situation festers, it becomes worse over a period of time. *Hatred between the two groups has festered for years.* **2** INJURY If an injury festers, it becomes infected. *a festering wound*

festival /ˈfestɪvəl/ *noun* [C] **1** a series of special events, performances, etc that often takes place over several days *a **dance/music festival*** ○ *the Berlin Film Festival* **2** SOCIETY a special day or period when people celebrate something, especially a religious event *the Jewish festival of Hanukkah*

festive /ˈfestɪv/ *adjective* happy and enjoyable because people are celebrating *a **festive mood/occasion*** ○ *What are you doing **for the festive season*** (= Christmas)*?* ●**festivity** /fesˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] when people are happy and celebrating

festivities /fesˈtɪvətiz/ *noun* [plural] events that people organize in order to celebrate something

festoon /fesˈtuːn/ *verb* [T] to cover something with objects, especially decorations [**often passive**] *The balcony was **festooned with** flags and ribbons.*

fetch /fetʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** GET to go to another place to get something or someone and bring them back *Can you fetch my glasses from the bedroom?* **2** SELL If something fetches a particular amount of money, it is sold for that amount. *The painting is expected to fetch $50,000 in the auction.*

fetching /ˈfetʃɪŋ/ *adjective* attractive *That scarf looks rather fetching on you.*

fête /feɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** ENTERTAINMENT *UK* an event that is held outside and includes competitions, games, and things for sale *a **village fête*** **2** CELEBRATION *US* a special event to celebrate someone or something ●**fête** *verb* [T] to publicly celebrate someone, often by having a special party [**often passive**] *She was fêted by audiences all over the world.*

fetish /ˈfetɪʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** SEXUAL INTEREST a strong sexual interest in something unusual *a rubber fetish* **2** EXTREME INTEREST something that someone spends too much time thinking about or doing *a fetish for cleanliness*

fetus /ˈfiːtəs/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY *US spelling of* foetus (= a young human or animal that is still developing inside its mother) ●**fetal** /ˈfiːtəl/ *adjective US spelling of* foetal

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***feud***

a **bitter/long-running** feud ● a **family** feud ● a feud **with** sb/**between** sb **and** sb

feud /fjuːd/ *noun* [C] a serious and sometimes violent argument between two people or groups that continues for a long period ●**feud** *verb* [I] *The families have been feuding for years.*

feudal /ˈfjuːdəl/ *adjective* POLITICS, SOCIETY relating to a social system in the past in which people worked and fought for a lord (= a man of high rank) in exchange for land and protection ●**feudalism** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fever***

develop/have/run a fever ● a **high** fever

fever /ˈfiːvər/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C, U] when someone's body temperature rises because they are ill *a **high**/slight **fever*** **2** [U] when people are very excited about something *Election fever has gripped the nation.* ➲See also: **glandular fever, hay fever**

feverish /ˈfiːvərɪʃ/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH having a fever *I feel a bit feverish.* **2** Feverish activity is done quickly, often because of excitement or fear. *The rescuers worked at a **feverish pace**.* ●**feverishly** *adverb They worked feverishly to put out the fire.*

ˈfever ˌpitch *noun* **reach fever pitch** If emotions reach fever pitch, they become so strong that they are difficult to control.

few /fjuː/ *quantifier* **1 a few** some, or a small number of *It'll be here in a few minutes.* ○ *I met **a few of** the other employees at my interview.* **2 quite a few/a good few** quite a large number of *Quite a few people have had the same problem.* **3** not many, or only a small number of *We get few complaints.* ○ ***Few of** the children can read or write yet.* ○ ***Very few** people can afford to pay those prices.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **less 4 few and far between** not happening or existing very often *Opportunities like this are few and far between.*

fiancé /fiˈɑːnseɪ/ *noun* [C] A woman's fiancé is the man that she has promised to marry.

fiancée /fiˈɑːnseɪ/ *noun* [C] A man's fiancée is the woman that he has promised to marry.

fiasco /fiˈæskəʊ/ *noun* [C] a complete failure, especially one that embarrasses people *My last dinner party was a complete fiasco.*

fib /fɪb/ *noun* [C] *informal* a small lie that is not very important *Don't **tell fibs**.* ●**fib** *verb* [I] **fibbing,** *past* **fibbed** to say something that is not true

fibre *UK* (*US* **fiber**) /ˈfaɪbəʳ/ *noun* **1** CLOTH [C, U] cloth made from thin threads twisted together *Man-made fibres like nylon are easy to wash.* **2** THIN THREAD [C] one of the thin threads that forms a substance such as cloth *The fibres are woven into fabric.* **3 FOOD** [U] the substance in plants which cannot be digested and helps food pass through your body *Broccoli is a good source of fibre.* **4 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [C] a structure like a thread in your body *muscle/nerve fibres*

fibreglass *UK* (*US* **fiberglass**) /ˈfaɪbəglɑːs/ *noun* [U] **DT** a strong, light material made by twisting together glass or plastic threads

ˌfibre ˈoptics (*US* **fiber optics**) *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the use of long, very thin pieces of glass or plastic to carry light signals, used in telephone, television and computer systems

fibrin /ˈfɪbrɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance that forms in the blood to stop the blood from flowing, for example when the body is injured

fibrinogen /fɪˈbrɪnəʊdʒʰn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance in the blood from which fibrin is produced

fibula /ˈfɪbjələ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the thin outer bone in a person's leg, between the knee and the foot

fickle /ˈfɪkl/ *adjective* Someone who is fickle often changes their opinion about things.

fiction /ˈfɪkʃʰn/ *noun* **1 LITERATURE** [U] literature and stories about imaginary people or events *What's the best-selling children's fiction title?* ➲Opposite **nonfiction** **2** NOT TRUE [U, no plural] something that is not true or real ➲See also: **science fiction**

fictional /ˈfɪkʃʰnʰl/ *adjective* existing only in fiction *a **fictional character***

fictitious /fɪkˈtɪʃəs/ *adjective* invented and not real or true *a **fictitious name***

fiddle¹ /ˈfɪdl/ *verb* [T] *UK informal* to change something dishonestly in order to get money *She was fired for fiddling her travel expenses.* **fiddle (about/around) with sth** *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE THINGS to touch or move things with your fingers because you are nervous or bored *Stop fiddling with your hair!* **2** MAKE CHANGES to make small changes to something to try to make it work *He fiddled with the wires to get the radio working again.*

fiddle² /ˈfɪdl/ *noun* [C] **1 MUSIC** *informal* a violin (= a wooden musical instrument with strings) **2** *UK* a dishonest way to get money *a tax fiddle*

fiddler /ˈfɪdləʳ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays the violin (= a wooden musical instrument with strings)

fiddly /ˈfɪdli/ *adjective UK* difficult to do because the parts involved are small *Repairing a watch is very fiddly.*

fidelity /fɪˈdeləti/ *noun* [U] loyalty, especially to a sexual partner ➲Opposite **infidelity**

fidget /ˈfɪdʒɪt/ *verb* [I] to keep making small movements with your hands or feet because you are nervous or bored *She fidgeted all the way through the interview.* ●**fidgety** *adjective*

field¹ /fiːld/ *noun* **1 FARMING** [C] an area of land used for growing crops or keeping animals *a wheat field* **2 SPORT** [C] an area of grass where you can play a sport *a footballfield* **3** [C] an area of study or activity *He's an expert **in the field of** biochemistry.* **4 SPORT** [no plural] the people who are competing in a race, activity, or business *We **lead the field** in genetic research.* **5 COMPUTING** [C] a part of a computer screen which is for a particular type of information, or a piece of information in a database *There's a field for you to enter your name and address.* **6 a gas/oil field** an area of land containing gas or oil **7 a gravitational/magnetic field PHYSICS** an area affected by a particular physical force ➲See also: **paddy field, playing field**

field² /fiːld/ *verb* **1 SPORT** [I, T] to try to catch or stop a ball after it has been hit in a game such as cricket or baseball *Are we fielding or batting?* **2 SPORT** [T] to send out a team or player to play in a game *Brazil fielded a strong team in the World Cup.* **3 field questions/telephone calls** to answer or deal with questions/telephone calls

ˈfield ˌday *noun* **have a field day** to have the opportunity to do a lot of something you want to do, especially to criticize someone *The press had a field day when they found out about the scandal.*

fielder /ˈfiːldəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a player who tries to catch or stop the ball in games such as cricket or baseball

ˈfield ˌhockey *US* (*UK* **hockey**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** a team game played on grass where you hit a small ball with a long, curved stick

ˌfield ˈmarshal *UK* (*US* **ˈfield ˌmarshal**) *noun* [C] an officer of the highest rank in the British army

fiend /fiːnd/ *noun* [C] **1** EVIL PERSON an evil or cruel person **2** ENTHUSIASTIC PERSON someone who is very interested in a particular thing

fiendish /ˈfiːndɪʃ/ *adjective* **1** EVIL evil or cruel *a fiendish attack* **2** DIFFICULT very difficult or complicated *a fiendish crossword* ●**fiendishly** *adverb mainly UK* extremely ***fiendishly clever/difficult***

fierce /fɪəs/ *adjective* **1** VIOLENT violent or angry *a **fierce attack*** ○ *a **fierce dog*** **2** POWERFUL very strong or powerful ***fierce winds/storms*** ○ *There is **fierce competition** between car manufacturers.* ●**fiercely** *adverb*

fiery /ˈfaɪəri/ *adjective* **1** EMOTION showing strong emotion, especially anger *a **fiery temper*** **2** LIKE FIRE bright or burning like a fire *a fiery sunset*

fifteen /ˌfɪfˈtiːn/ the number 15 ●**fifteenth** 15th written as a word

F

fifth[1] /fɪfθ/ 5th written as a word

fifth[2] /fɪfθ/ *noun* [C] one of five equal parts of something; 1/5

fifty /ˈfɪfti/ **1** the number 50 **2 the fifties** the years from 1950 to 1959 **3 be in your fifties** to be aged between 50 and 59 ●**fiftieth** 50th written as a word

fifty-fifty /ˌfɪftiˈfɪfti/ *adjective, adverb informal* **1** shared equally between two people *Let's divide the bill fifty-fifty.* **2 a fifty-fifty chance** If something has a fifty-fifty chance, it is equally likely to happen or not to happen. *We have a fifty-fifty chance of winning the match.*

F

fig /fɪg/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a dark, sweet fruit with lots of seeds, that is often eaten dried

fig. *written abbreviation for* figure (= a picture or drawing in a book or document, usually with a number) *See fig. 1.*

fight[1] /faɪt/ *verb past* **fought 1** USE FORCE [I, T] When people fight, they use physical force to try to defeat each other. *Two men were arrested for fighting outside a bar.* ○ *Sam's always **fighting with** his little brother.* **2** JOIN WAR [I, T] to take part in a war *Millions of young men fought in World War I.* **3** ARGUE [I] to argue *We've got to stop fighting in front of the children.* **4** TRY TO STOP [I, T] to try hard to stop something bad happening *He **fought against** racism.* ○ *New measures have been introduced to **fight crime**.* **5** TRY TO ACHIEVE [I] to try hard to achieve something you want or think is right *They are **fighting for** their freedom.* [+ **to do sth**] *He had to fight very hard to keep his job.* **6 be fighting for your life** to be trying very hard to stay alive when you are very ill or badly injured ➲See also: fight a losing **battle**[1]
fight back *phrasal verb* to defend yourself when someone or something attacks you or causes problems for you

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fight***

a fight **with** sb ● **have/get into/pick/start** a fight ● **lose/win** a fight

fight[2] /faɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** PHYSICAL FORCE when people use physical force to hurt or attack others *He's always **getting into fights**.* **2** EFFORT a determined effort to achieve or stop something *She was very active in the **fight against** drugs.* ○ *Join us in our **fight for** freedom!* [+ **to do sth**] *This year has brought some good news in the fight to save the whales.* **3** ARGUMENT an argument *I don't want to have a fight over this.* **4 SPORT** a boxing competition

fighter /ˈfaɪtər/ *noun* [C] **1** (*also* ˈ**fighter ˌplane**) a fast military aircraft that can attack other aircraft *a **fighter pilot*** **2 SPORT** someone who fights in a war or as a sport

fighting /ˈfaɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when people fight, usually in a war *Thousands of civilians were killed in the fighting.*

figment /ˈfɪgmənt/ *noun* **a figment of sb's imagination** something that someone believes is real but that only exists in their imagination

figurative /ˈfɪgjʳətɪv/ *adjective* **1 LANGUAGE** A figurative meaning of a word or phrase is a more imaginative meaning developed from the usual meaning. **2** Figurative art shows people, places, or things in a similar way to how they look in real life. ●**figuratively** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***figure***

a **key /leading/major/prominent** figure ● a **public** figure

figure[1] /ˈfɪgər/ *noun* [C] **1 MATHEMATICS** a symbol for a number *Write down the amount in words and figures.* ○ *He's now being paid a six-figure salary.* **2 single/double, etc figures** numbers from 0 to 9/numbers from 10 to 99, etc **3** AMOUNT a number that expresses an amount, especially in official documents ***Government figures** show a rise in unemployment.* **4** TYPE OF PERSON a particular type of person, often someone important or famous *a mysterious figure* ○ *Lincoln was a major figure in American politics.* **5** PERSON a person that you cannot see clearly *I could see two figures in the distance.* **6** BODY SHAPE the shape of someone's body, usually an attractive shape *She's got a good figure for her age.* **7** PICTURE (*written abbreviation* **fig.**) a picture or drawing in a book or document, usually with a number *Look at the graph shown in Figure 2.* ➲See also: **father figure**

figure[2] /ˈfɪgər/ *verb* **1** BE PART [I] to be a part of something, or to appear in something *Love **figures in** most pop songs.* **2** THINK [T] to decide something after thinking about it [+ **(that)**] *I figured that it was time to tell her the truth.* **3 that/it figures** *informal* something you say when you expected something to happen *"I've run out of money, Mum." "That figures."*
figure sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to finally understand something or someone after a lot of thought [+ **question word**] *I never could figure out what she saw in him.*

figurehead /ˈfɪgəhed/ *noun* [C] a leader who has no real power

ˌ**figure of** ˈ**speech** *noun* [C] *plural* **figures of speech LANGUAGE** words that are used together in an imaginative way to mean something different from their usual meaning

filament /ˈfɪləmənt/ *noun* [C] **1 PHYSICS** a thin wire, especially one which lights up inside an electric light bulb **2 BIOLOGY** the long, thin stem that carries the anther (= part that produces pollen) of a flower ➲See picture at **flower** ➲See picture at **pollen**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***file***

1 hold/keep a file on sb/sth
2 close/create/download/open/save a file

file[1] /faɪl/ *noun* **1** INFORMATION [C] a collection of information and documents about someone or something *The school **keeps files on** all its pupils.* **2 COMPUTING** [C] a piece of text, a picture, or a computer program stored on a computer *Do you want to **download** all these **files**?* **3** CONTAINER [C] a box or folded piece of thick paper used to put documents in *He keeps all his bank statements in a file.* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5, **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 **4 on file** If information is on file, it is recorded and stored somewhere. **5** TOOL [C] a small tool with a rough edge that is used to make a surface smooth *a **nail file*** **6 in single file** in a line with one person following the other ➲See also: the **rank**[1] and file

file² /faɪl/ *verb* **1** PAPER [T] (*also* **file away**) to put documents into an ordered system of boxes or files where you can easily find them again *She filed all her tax returns under T.* **2** LAW [T] (*also* **file for**) to officially state that you are going to take someone to court *The police **filed charges** against the suspect.* **3** RUB [T] to rub something with a rough tool in order to make it smooth **4 file along/into/through, etc** to walk somewhere in a line, one behind the other *The audience slowly filed back to their seats.*

ˈfile diˌrectory *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a place on a computer for putting files and folders together

ˈfile exˌtension *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a dot followed by three letters, such as .doc or .jpg, that forms the end of the name of a computer document and shows what sort of document it is

filename /ˈfaɪlneɪm/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a name given to a computer file

ˈfile ˌsharing *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the activity of putting a file onto a special place on your computer so that many other people can copy it, look at it, or use it by using the Internet ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36

filet /fɪˈleɪ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** *another US spelling of* fillet (= a piece of meat or fish with the bones taken out)

ˈfiling ˌcabinet (*also US* **ˈfile ˌcabinet**) *noun* [C] a piece of office furniture with deep drawers for storing documents ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

fill¹ /fɪl/ *verb* **1** MAKE FULL [I, T] (*also* **fill up**) to make a container or space full, or to become full *He filled the bucket with water.* ○ *I made a drink while the bath was filling.* **2** TAKE SPACE [T] If people or things fill a place, there are a lot of them in it. *The streets were **filled with** tourists.* ○ *Dark clouds filled the sky.* **3** BE NOTICEABLE [T] If light, sound, or a smell fills a place, you can easily notice it. *The smell of smoke filled the room.* **4 fill sb with anger/joy/pride, etc** to make someone feel very angry/happy/proud, etc *The thought of losing him filled her with fear.* **5 fill a post/position/vacancy** to take a new job *They still haven't found anyone to fill the vacancy.* **6 fill a need/gap/demand** to provide something that people need or want
fill sth in/out *phrasal verb* to write the necessary information on an official document *to **fill in a form/questionnaire***
fill (sth) up *phrasal verb* to become full, or to make something become full *The restaurant soon filled up with people.*

fill² /fɪl/ *noun* **your fill** as much of something as you want or need *I've **had my fill of** living in the city.*

fillet (*also US* **filet**) /ˈfɪlɪt/ (US) /fɪˈleɪ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a piece of meat or fish with the bones taken out

filling¹ /ˈfɪlɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] food that is put inside things such as cakes, pastry, pieces of bread, etc *What sort of filling do you want in your sandwich?* **2** **HEALTH** [C] a hard substance that fills a hole in a tooth

filling² /ˈfɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* Food that is filling makes your stomach feel full. *This soup is very filling.*

ˈfilling ˌstation *noun* [C] a petrol station (= place where you can buy fuel for your car)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***film***

make a film ● a film **about** sb/sth ● **in** a film ● a **horror** film ● a **classic** film ● the film **industry**

film¹ /fɪlm/ *noun* **1** PICTURES [C] (*also US* **movie**) a story shown in moving pictures, shown at the cinema or on television *'Titanic' was one of the most popular Hollywood **films** ever **made**.* **2** MATERIAL [C, U] special thin plastic used for making photographs or moving pictures, or a length of this *I need to buy another **roll of film**.* **3** LAYER [**no plural**] a thin layer of something on a surface *a thick film of dust.*

film² /fɪlm/ *verb* [I, T] to record moving pictures with a camera, usually to make a film for the cinema or television *Most of the scenes were filmed in a studio.* ●**filming** *noun* [U]

film-maker *UK* (*US* **filmmaker**) /ˈfɪlmmeɪkər/ *noun* [C] someone who makes films for the cinema or television

ˈfilm ˌstar *noun* [C] a famous cinema actor or actress

filter¹ /ˈfɪltər/ *verb* **1** [T] to pass a liquid or gas through a piece of equipment in order to remove solid pieces or other substances *The water was filtered to remove any impurities.* **2 filter down/in/through, etc** to gradually appear or become known *News is filtering in of an earthquake in Mexico.*
filter sth out *phrasal verb* to remove a particular substance from a liquid or gas

filter² /ˈfɪltər/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that you pass a liquid or gas through in order to remove particular substances *a coffee filter*

ˈfilter ˌpaper *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** thick paper used for filtering substances ➲See picture at **filtrate**

filth /fɪlθ/ *noun* [U] **1** DIRT thick and unpleasant dirt *His clothes were covered in filth and mud.* **2** OFFENSIVE offensive language or pictures, usually relating to sex

filthy /ˈfɪlθi/ *adjective* **1** DIRTY extremely dirty *Wash your hands, they're filthy!* **2** OFFENSIVE rude or offensive *filthy language/jokes* ○ *Smoking is a **filthy habit**.*

filtrate /ˈfɪltreɪt/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a liquid, gas or other substance that has passed through a filter (= piece of equipment that removes substances that are not wanted) ➲See picture **filtrate** on next page

filtration /fɪlˈtreɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, PHYSICS** the act of passing a liquid or gas through a filter (= piece of equipment that removes substances that are not wanted)

fin /fɪn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a thin, triangular part on a fish, which helps it to swim

final¹ /ˈfaɪnəl/ *adjective* **1** LAST [**always before noun**] last in a series or coming at the end of something *the final paragraph* ○ *They scored a goal in the final minute.* **2** NO MORE DISCUSSION If a decision, agreement, or answer is final, it will not be changed or discussed any more. *The committee's decision is final.* ➲See also: the final **nail¹** in the coffin, the final/last **straw**

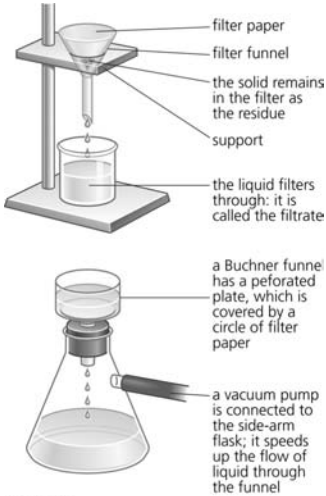

filtrate

final² /ˈfaɪnᵊl/ *noun* **1** [C] the last part of a competition to decide which person or team will be the winner *the European Cup Final* ○ *The finals will be shown on TV.* **2 finals** EDUCATION exams taken at the end of a university course

final accounts *noun* [plural] FINANCE the accounts produced by a business, usually at the end of each year, that show the financial situation of the business

finale /fɪˈnɑːli/ *noun* [C] the last part of a show, event, or piece of music

finalist /ˈfaɪnᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] a person or team in the last part of a competition

finalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈfaɪnᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make a final and certain decision about a plan, date, etc *to **finalize arrangements/details***

finally /ˈfaɪnᵊli/ *adverb* **1** AFTER A LONG TIME after a long time or some difficulty *After months of looking, he finally found a job.* **2** LAST POINT used to introduce the last point or idea *Finally, I'd like to thank everyone for coming this evening.* **3** CERTAINLY in a way that will not be changed *The date of the wedding hasn't been finally decided yet.*

finance¹ /ˈfaɪnæns/ *noun* **1** FINANCE, ECONOMICS [U] the control of how large amounts of money should be spent **2** FINANCE, ECONOMICS [U] the money that is needed to support a business *Who **put up** the **finance** for the project?* **3 sb's finances** FINANCE the money which a person, company, or country has *You must learn how to manage your own finances.*

finance² /ˈfaɪnæns/ *verb* [T] FINANCE to provide the money needed to do something *Who's financing the project?*

financial /faɪˈnænʃᵊl/ *adjective* FINANCE relating to money or how money is managed *a **financial adviser*** ○ *She's having some financial difficulties at the moment.* ●**financially** *adverb Many students are still financially dependent on their parents.*

financial year *noun* [C] FINANCE (*also UK* **tax year**) the period of twelve months when a person or company's finances and taxes are calculated

finch /fɪnʃ/ *noun* [C] a small singing bird with a short beak

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***find***

A very common alternative to 'find' is the verb **discover**: *The victim's wallet was **discovered** in a ditch.* ● *I finally **discovered** the letters in a drawer.*

If someone finds the exact position of someone or something, in formal situations the verb **locate** is sometimes used: *Police are still trying to **locate** the suspect.*

If someone finds something that has been secret or hidden, then the verbs **uncover** or **unearth** are sometimes used: *Reporters **uncovered/unearthed** evidence of corruption.*

The phrasal verbs **come across** and **stumble across/on** are used when someone finds something by chance: *I **stumbled on** these photographs when I was cleaning out my desk.* ● *We **came across** a lovely little restaurant in the village.*

If someone finds something or someone after looking carefully in different places, you can use the verb **trace** or the phrasal verb **track down**: *Police have so far failed to **trace/track down** the missing woman.*

find¹ /faɪnd/ *verb* [T] *past* **found 1** DISCOVER WHEN SEARCHING to discover something or someone that you have been searching for *I can't find my glasses and I've looked everywhere.* ○ *Police found the missing girl at a London railway station.* [+ **two objects**] *Has he found himself a place to live yet?* **2** DISCOVER BY CHANCE to discover something or someone by chance *The body was found by a man walking his dog.* **3** BECOME AWARE to become aware that something exists, or has happened *I came home to find that my cat had had kittens.* **4 find the energy/money/time, etc** to have or get enough energy/money/time, etc to do something *Where do you find the energy to do all these things?* **5 find sb/sth easy/boring/funny, etc** to think or feel a particular way about someone or something *I still find exams very stressful.* **6 find yourself somewhere/doing sth** to become aware that you have gone somewhere or done something without intending to *I suddenly found myself making everyone's lunch.* **7 be found** to exist or be present somewhere *Vitamin C is found in oranges and other citrus fruit.* **8 find sb guilty/not guilty** to judge that someone is guilty or not guilty in a law court [**often passive**] She was ***found guilty of** murder.*
find (sth) out *phrasal verb* to get information about something, or to learn a fact for the first time *I must find out the train times.* [+ **question word**] *Peter was shocked when he found out what we had done.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **know**

find² /faɪnd/ *noun* [C] something or someone valuable, interesting, or useful that you discover [**usually singular**] *This hotel was a real find.*

finding /ˈfaɪndɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a piece of information that has been discovered as a result of an official study [**usually plural**] *The findings of this research will be published next year.*

fine¹ /faɪn/ *adjective* **1** WELL well, healthy, or happy *"How are you?" "I'm **fine thanks.** And you?"* ○ *I had a cold last week, but I'm fine now.* **2** GOOD good or good enough *"Is the soup hot enough?" "Yes, it's fine."* **3** EXCELLENT excellent, or of very good quality *fine wines* ○ *He's a fine musician.* **4 (that's) fine** used to agree with a suggestion, idea, decision, etc *"Shall we meet at 8 o'clock?" "Yes, that's **fine by me.**"* **5** THIN thin or made of very small pieces *fine, brown hair* ○ *fine sand* **6** SUNNY *mainly UK* sunny and not raining *If it's fine, we could have a picnic.* **7 the finer details/points, etc of sth** the more detailed or more difficult parts of an argument, idea, etc

fine² /faɪn/ *adverb informal* **1** very well or without any problems *"How did your exam go?" "It went fine thanks."* **2 cut it/things fine** to leave yourself only just enough time to do something *Twenty minutes to get to the station? That's cutting it a bit fine!*

fine³ /faɪn/ *verb* [T] to make someone pay an amount of money as a punishment for breaking a law or rule [**often passive**] *He was **fined** £500 **for** dangerous driving.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fine***

face/get/receive a fine ● **pay** a fine ● a **heavy/hefty/stiff** fine ● a **parking** fine

fine⁴ /faɪn/ *noun* [C] an amount of money that you must pay for breaking a law or rule *a **parking fine*** ○ *The court gave her two weeks to **pay** the **fine**.*

finely /ˈfaɪnli/ *adverb* **1** SMALL PIECES into small pieces ***Finely chop** the garlic.* **2** EXACTLY very exactly *a finely tuned machine*

finger¹ /ˈfɪŋgər/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] one of the five, long, separate parts at the end of your hand, including your thumb ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 have green fingers** *UK* (*US* **have a green thumb**) to be good at gardening and making plants grow well **3 keep your fingers crossed** *informal* to hope that things will happen in the way that you want them to *Let's keep our fingers crossed that it doesn't rain.* **4 not lift a finger** *informal* to not help someone do something, usually because you are too lazy *He never lifts a finger to help with the housework.* **5 put your finger on sth** to understand exactly why a situation is the way it is *Something was wrong, but I couldn't put my finger on it.* **6 snap your fingers** (*also UK* **click your fingers**) to press your thumb and middle finger together until the finger hits your hand and makes a short sound ➲See also: **index finger**

finger² /ˈfɪŋgər/ *verb* [T] to touch or feel something with your fingers

fingernail /ˈfɪŋgərneɪl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the hard, thin part on the top of the end of your finger

fingerprint /ˈfɪŋgərprɪnt/ *noun* [C] the mark made on something by the pattern of curved lines on the end of someone's finger *The police found fingerprints all over the murder weapon.*

fingertip /ˈfɪŋgərtɪp/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] the end of your finger **2 at your fingertips** If you have something at your fingertips, you can get it and use it very easily. *He had all the information he needed at his fingertips.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***finish***

The verb **end** is a common alternative to 'finish' when it means 'stop': *What time does the concert **end**?*

When someone finishes doing or making something, the verb **complete** is sometimes used: *Have you **completed** all the questions?* ● *The project took 5 years to **complete**.*

If someone finishes something quickly and easily, especially food or a piece of work, in informal situations you can use the phrasal verb **polish off**: *He's just **polished off** two huge bowls of pasta.*

The phrasal verb **wind up** is sometimes used when an activity is gradually finishing: *It's time to **wind up** the game now.*

finish¹ /ˈfɪnɪʃ/ *verb* **1** COMPLETE [I, T] to complete something, or come to the end of an activity *When I finish my homework, can I watch TV?* [+ **doing sth**] *Have you finished reading that book yet?* **2** END [I] to end *The meeting should finish at five o'clock.* **3** USE COMPLETELY [T] (*also* **finish off**) to eat, drink, or use something completely *They finished their drinks and left the bar.* **4 finish first/second, etc** to be in the first/second, etc winning position at the end of a race or competition

finish sth off *phrasal verb* **1** COMPLETE to complete the last part of something that you are doing *I have to finish off this report by Friday.* **2** EAT/DRINK to eat, drink, or use the last part of something *Would you like to finish off the pizza?*

finish up *phrasal verb mainly UK* to finally be in a particular place, state, or situation, usually without having planned it *I only went for two days, but finished up staying for a week.*

finish with sth *phrasal verb* to stop using or needing something *Have you finished with the newspaper?*

finish with sb *phrasal verb UK* to stop having a romantic relationship with someone

finish² /ˈfɪnɪʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** END the end of a race, or the last part of something *a **close/exciting finish*** ○ *I enjoyed the film **from start to finish**.* **2** SURFACE the way the surface of something feels or looks *The table has a smooth, shiny finish.*

finished /ˈfɪnɪʃt/ *adjective* **1** completed *How much does the **finished product** cost?* ➲Opposite **unfinished 2 be finished** If you are finished, you have completed something. *I hope I'll be finished before 5 p.m.*

fir /fɜː^{r}/ (*also* ˈ**fir ˌtree**) *noun* [C] a tree with thin, straight leaves shaped like needles that do not fall in winter

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fire***

put out/start a fire ● a fire **breaks out/burns/rages** ● be **on** fire ● **catch** fire

fire¹ /faɪə^{r}/ *noun* **1** FLAME [U] heat, light, and flames that are produced when something burns **2 catch fire** to start burning *The car crashed and caught fire.* **3 on fire** burning *That house is on fire.* **4 set fire to sth; set sth on fire** to make something start burning, usually to cause damage *Enemy troops set fire to the village.* **5** EVENT [C] when something burns in a way that causes damage and cannot be controlled *Three people were killed in the fire.* ○ *It took the firefighters two hours to* ***put the fire out*** (= stop it burning). **6** NATURAL HEAT [C] a pile of wood, coal, etc that is burning to produce heat *We sat by the fire.* ○ *They put up the tents and* ***lit a fire.*** **7 an electric/gas fire** *UK* a piece of equipment that uses electricity/gas to heat a room **8** SHOOTING [U] the shooting of guns and other weapons *The soldiers* ***opened fire*** (= started shooting). **9 come under fire** to be criticized *The government has come under fire for closing the hospital.*

fire² /faɪə^{r}/ *verb* **1** GUN [I, T] to shoot a bullet from a gun *She* ***fired*** *three shots* ***at*** *him.* **2** JOB [T] *informal* to tell someone they must leave their job [**often passive**] *I was fired for being late.* **3 fire sb's imagination** to make someone very excited or interested in something **4 fire questions at sb** to ask someone questions quickly one after the other
fire sb up *phrasal verb* to make someone excited or angry

ˈ**fire aˌlarm** *noun* [C] a device such as a bell that warns the people in a building that the building is on fire *If you hear the fire alarm, you must leave the building immediately.*

firearm /ˈfaɪərɑːm/ *noun* [C] a gun that you can carry easily

ˈ**fire briˌgade** *UK* (*US* ˈ**fire deˌpartment**) *noun* [C] an organization of people whose job is to stop fires burning

ˈ**fire ˌengine** *noun* [C] a vehicle for carrying firefighters and equipment for stopping large fires

ˈ**fire esˌcape** *noun* [C] a set of metal stairs on the outside of a building which allows people to leave if there is an emergency

ˈ**fire exˌtinguisher** *noun* [C] a piece of equipment kept inside buildings which is used to stop small fires

firefighter /ˈfaɪəfaɪtə^{r}/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to stop fires burning

fireman /ˈfaɪəmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **firemen** a man whose job is to stop fires burning

fireplace /ˈfaɪəpleɪs/ *noun* [C] a space in the wall of a room where you can have a fire, or the structure around this space ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

fireside /ˈfaɪəsaɪd/ *noun* [U] the area next to a fireplace

ˈ**fire ˌstation** *noun* [C] the building where fire engines are kept, and firefighters wait for emergencies

firewall /ˈfaɪəwɔːl/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a system that controls what information can be sent from your computer using the Internet

firewood /ˈfaɪəwʊd/ *noun* [U] wood that is used for burning on a fire

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***firework***

let off/set off a firework ● a firework(s) **display**

firework /ˈfaɪəwɜːk/ *noun* [C] a small object that explodes to produce a loud noise and bright colours and is often used to celebrate special events *a* ***firework display***

ˈ**firing ˌsquad** *noun* [C] a group of soldiers who are ordered to shoot and kill a prisoner

firm¹ /fɜːm/ *adjective* **1** NOT SOFT not soft, but not completely hard *A firm bed is better for your back.* **2** FIXED [**always before noun**] certain or fixed and not likely to change *We don't have any* ***firm plans*** *for the weekend yet.* ○ *I'm a* ***firm believer*** *in equal rights.* **3** STRONG strong and tight *a* ***firm handshake/grip*** **4** STRICT strict and making certain that people do what you want *You've got to be firm with children.* ●**firmly** *adverb* ●**firmness** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***firm***

run/set up a firm ● a firm **of** [solicitors, accountants, etc]

firm² /fɜːm/ *noun* [C] a company that sells goods or services *a law firm*

first¹ /fɜːst/ *adjective* **1** BEFORE coming before all others *Who was the first person to arrive at the party?* ○ *He was nervous on his first day at school.* ○ *They went abroad last year* ***for the first time*** *since having children.* **2** NUMBER 1st written as a word **3** IMPORTANT most important *Sheila won first prize in the photo competition.* ➲See also: in the first **place**[1]

first² /fɜːst/ *adverb* **1** BEFORE before everything or everyone else *I can go to the cinema, but I've got to do my homework first.* ○ *Jason* ***came first*** *in the 400 metres* (= he won). **2** FIRST TIME for the first time *I first heard the song on the radio.* ○ *He first started playing the piano at school.* **3 at first** at the beginning of a situation or period of time *At first I thought she was unfriendly, but actually she is just shy.* **4 first; first of all a** BEGINNING SENTENCE used to introduce the first idea, reason, etc in a series *First, I think we have to change our marketing strategy.* **b** BEFORE EVERYTHING before doing anything else *First of all check you have all the correct ingredients.* **5 come first** to be the most important person or thing *Her career always comes first.* **6 put sb/sth first** to consider someone or something to be the most important thing *Most couples put their children first when sorting out their problems.* **7 First come, first served.** something you say when there is not enough of something for everyone and only the first people who ask for it will get it

first³ /fɜːst/ *noun, pronoun* **1 the first** the first person, people, thing, or things *Hillary and Norgay were the first to climb Everest.* **2 be a**

first to be something that has never happened before *Man walking on the moon was a first in space history.* **3** EDUCATION [C] the highest exam result that you can achieve at the end of a university course in the UK

ˌfirst ˈaid *noun* [U] HEALTH basic medical treatment that you give someone who is ill or injured in an emergency *The policeman* ***gave*** *him* ***first aid*** *before the ambulance arrived.*

first-class /ˌfɜːstˈklɑːs/ *adjective* **1** BEST relating to the best and most expensive available service, especially when travelling or sending something somewhere ***a first-class ticket*** ○ ***a first-class stamp*** **2** VERY GOOD of very good quality *It was a first-class restaurant.* ●**first class** *adverb How much is it to* ***send*** *this letter* ***first class?***

ˌfirst ˈfloor *noun* [**no plural**] **1** ABOVE GROUND *UK* the level of a building directly above the ground level **2** ON GROUND *US* (*UK* **ground floor**) the level of a building on the same level as the ground

firsthand /ˌfɜːstˈhænd/ *adjective, adverb* experienced, seen, or learnt directly *Police heard* ***firsthand accounts*** *of the accident from witnesses.* ○ ***firsthand experience***

ˈfirst ˌlanguage *noun* [C] LANGUAGE the language that someone learns to speak first *Madeleine's first language is French, but she also knows English and German.*

firstly /ˈfɜːstli/ *adverb* used to introduce the first idea, reason, etc in a series *The aim of this activity is firstly to have fun, and secondly to keep fit.*

ˈfirst ˌname *noun* [C] the name that people who know you call you and that comes before your family name

the ˌfirst ˈperson *noun* LANGUAGE the form of a verb or pronoun that is used when people are speaking or writing about themselves. For example, 'I' and 'we' are first person pronouns.

first-rate /ˌfɜːstˈreɪt/ *adjective* extremely good *a first-rate team/writer*

fiscal /ˈfɪskᵊl/ *adjective* ECONOMICS, FINANCE relating to government money, especially taxes

ˌfiscal ˈyear *noun* [C] ECONOMICS, FINANCE the period of twelve months when a person or company's finances and taxes are calculated

O-K **fish¹** /fɪʃ/ *noun plural* **fish** or **fishes** **1** [C] an animal that lives only in water and swims using its tail and fins (= thin, triangular parts) *Are there any fish in the pond?* **2** FOOD [U] fish eaten as food *fish and chips* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

fish or fishes?

Fish is the usual plural of **fish**.

I caught six fish in the river.

~~*I caught six fishes in the river.*~~

Fishes is sometimes used to talk about different types of fish.

fish² /fɪʃ/ *verb* [I] SPORT to try to catch fish *They're* ***fishing for*** *tuna.*

fish sth out *phrasal verb informal* to pull or take something out of a bag or pocket, especially after searching

fisherman /ˈfɪʃəmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **fishermen** SPORT someone who catches fish as a job or as a hobby

fishing /ˈfɪʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT the sport or job of catching fish *Dad loves to* ***go fishing.***

ˈfish ˌslice *noun* [C] *UK* a kitchen tool with a wide, flat end used for lifting and serving food ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

fishy /ˈfɪʃi/ *adjective* **1** FOOD smelling or tasting like fish **2** making you feel that someone is lying or something dishonest is happening *His story sounds a bit fishy to me.*

fission /ˈfɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** PHYSICS (**nuclear fission**) when the nucleus (= centre part) of an atom is divided, creating a very large amount of energy **2** BIOLOGY when cells divide to form new cells

fist /fɪst/ *noun* [C] a hand closed into a ball with the fingers and thumb curled tightly together *He banged his fist down angrily on the table.*

O-K **fit¹** /fɪt/ *verb* **fitting**, *past* **fitted** **1** RIGHT SHAPE [I, T] to be the right shape or size for someone or something *These trousers don't fit any more.* ○ *I can't find a lid to fit this jar.* **2 fit (sth) in/through/under, etc** If people or things fit somewhere, or if you can fit them somewhere, that place is big enough for them. *How many people can you fit in your car?* ○ *This radio is small enough to fit into my pocket.* **3** PUT [T] *mainly UK* to put or fix something somewhere *You ought to fit a smoke alarm in the kitchen.* **4** SAME [I, T] to be the same as or like something *She seems to fit the police description.* **5** SUITABLE [T] to be suitable for something *The punishment should fit the crime.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

fit or suit?

Remember that the verb **fit** means to be the right shape or size.

This jacket doesn't fit me. It's too tight.

Use the verb **suit** when you want to say that something is right for someone or makes them look more attractive.

That dress looks lovely. Red really suits you.

Life in the big city didn't suit him.

~~*Life in the big city didn't fit him.*~~

fit in *phrasal verb* to feel that you belong to a particular group and are accepted by them *He doesn't* ***fit in with*** *the other pupils in his class.*
fit sb/sth in *phrasal verb* to find the time to see someone or do something *The dentist can fit you in on Tuesday morning.*
fit in with sth *phrasal verb* If one activity or event fits in with another, they exist or happen together in a way that is convenient. *The party is in early June. How does that fit in with your holiday plans?*

fit² /fɪt/ *adjective* **fitter**, **fittest** **1** of a good enough quality or suitable type for a particular purpose [+ **to do sth**] *Is this water fit to drink?* ○ *She's not in a* ***fit state*** *to drive.* **2** HEALTH healthy, especially because you exercise regularly *He's very fit for his age.* ➲Opposite **unfit** **3 do sth as you see/think fit** to do

something that you feel is the right thing to do, although other people might disapprove *You must spend the money as you see fit.*

fit³ /fɪt/ *noun* **1 a good/loose/tight, etc fit** when something fits someone or somewhere well, loosely, tightly, etc *These shoes are a perfect fit.* **2** [C] a sudden, uncontrolled period of doing something or feeling something *a coughing fit* ○ *I hit him* ***in a fit of*** *anger.* **3** HEALTH [C] a short period of illness when someone cannot control their movements and becomes unconscious *to have an epileptic fit* **4 have a fit** *informal* to become extremely angry

fitful /ˈfɪtfəl/ *adjective* stopping and starting and not happening in a regular or continuous way ***fitful sleep*** ●**fitfully** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fitness***

improve your fitness ● sb's fitness **level(s)** ● a fitness **programme/regime/test** ● **physical** fitness

fitness /ˈfɪtnəs/ *noun* [U] **1** HEALTH the condition of being physically strong and healthy ***physical fitness*** **2** the quality of being suitable for a particular purpose, job, course of study, etc *The purpose of the exercise is to judge a soldier's* ***fitness for*** *combat.*

fitted /ˈfɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** FURNITURE *UK* made or cut to fill a particular space exactly ***fitted carpets/kitchens*** **2** CLOTHES Fitted clothes fit tightly to your body. *a fitted jacket*

fitting /ˈfɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* suitable or right for a particular situation *The promotion was a fitting reward for all his hard work.*

ˈfitting ˌroom *noun* [C] a room in a shop where you can put on clothes to check that they fit before you buy them

fittings /ˈfɪtɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] *mainly UK* **1** ON FURNITURE parts that are fixed to a piece of furniture or equipment *a circular bath with gold fittings* **2** IN HOUSE things that are fixed to the walls, floors, and ceilings inside a house but that can be moved

five /faɪv/ the number 5

fiver /ˈfaɪvəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a piece of paper money worth £5 *You owe me a fiver.*

five-star /faɪvˈstɑːʳ/ *adjective* describes a hotel or resort of very high quality

fix¹ /fɪks/ *verb* [T] **1** REPAIR to repair something *My watch is broken - can you fix it?* **2** DECIDE to decide a certain and exact date, price, plan, etc *Let's fix a day to have lunch together.* ○ *The price has been fixed at $10.* **3 fix sth onto/to/under, etc** to fasten something in a particular place *They fixed the bookcase to the wall.* **4** PREPARE to prepare a drink or meal [+ **two objects**] *I'll fix you a sandwich.* **5** CHEAT to do something dishonest to make certain that a competition, race, or election is won by a particular person [**often passive**]

fix sth up *phrasal verb* **1** ARRANGE *UK* to arrange a meeting, date, event, etc *Can we fix up a date for the next meeting?* **2** REPAIR to repair or change something in order to improve it *Nick loves fixing up old cars.*

fix sb up *phrasal verb* to provide someone with something that they need *My uncle has* ***fixed me up with*** *a summer job.*

fix² /fɪks/ *noun* **1 a quick fix** a way of solving a problem easily *There is no quick fix for unemployment.* **2 be in a fix** to be in a difficult situation *I'm in a fix and need your help.* **3** [C] *informal* an amount of an illegal drug or something that you want very much *Cath needs her* ***fix of*** *chocolate every day.*

fixation /fɪkˈseɪʃən/ *noun* [C] a very strong interest in a particular person or thing *She's got an unhealthy* ***fixation with*** *her weight.*

fixed /fɪkst/ *adjective* **1** NOT CHANGING decided already and not able to be changed *a* ***fixed price*** ○ *Is the date of the wedding fixed yet?* **2** FASTENED fastened somewhere and not able to be moved

ˌfixed ˈassets *noun* [plural] ECONOMICS the equipment, buildings and land that a business owns

ˌfixed ˈcosts *noun* [plural] FINANCE, ECONOMICS the things that a company must pay for in order to keep working, that do not depend on the amount of work the company gets ➲Compare **variable costs**

fixture /ˈfɪkstʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of furniture or equipment that is fixed inside a house or building and is usually sold with it [**usually plural**] *It comes with the usual* ***fixtures and fittings.*** **2** SPORT *UK* a sports event that is arranged for a particular day

fizz /fɪz/ *noun* [U] bubbles of gas in a liquid or the sound that they make ●**fizz** *verb* [I]

fizzle /ˈfɪzl/ *verb*

fizzle out *phrasal verb* to gradually end in a disappointing way *Their relationship soon fizzled out when they got back from holiday.*

fizzy /ˈfɪzi/ *adjective* FOOD A fizzy drink has lots of bubbles of gas in it.

flabbergasted /ˈflæbəgɑːstɪd/ *adjective informal* extremely surprised

flabby /ˈflæbi/ *adjective* having too much loose fat on your body *flabby arms/thighs*

flaccid /ˈflæsɪd/ *adjective formal* soft and not firm

flag¹ /flæg/ *noun* [C] a piece of cloth with a special design and colours, that is fixed to a pole as the symbol of a country or group *the French flag* ○ *There was a flag flying above the castle.*

flag² /flæg/ *verb* [I] **flagging**, *past* **flagged** to become tired or less interested in something *The players started to flag towards the end of the game.*

flag sth down *phrasal verb* to make a vehicle stop by waving at the driver

flagrant /ˈfleɪgrənt/ *adjective* shocking because of being so obviously wrong or bad *a flagrant disregard for the law* ●**flagrantly** *adverb*

flagship /ˈflægʃɪp/ *noun* [C] a product or service that is the best and most admired that a company has

flail /fleɪl/ (*also* **flail about/around**) *verb* [I, T] to wave or move your arms and legs about energetically and in an uncontrolled way *The wasp came towards us and Howard started flailing his arms around.*

flair /fleəʳ/ *noun* **1** ABILITY [**no plural**] a natural ability to do something well *She has a* ***flair***

for languages. **2** STYLE [U] when you do something in an exciting and interesting way *He played with great imagination and flair.*

flak /flæk/ *noun* [U] *informal* criticism *The government **took** a lot of **flak for** breaking its election promises.*

flake¹ /fleɪk/ *noun* [C] a small, flat, thin piece of something *flakes of paint/snow*

flake² /fleɪk/ *verb* [I] to come off in small, flat, thin pieces *The paint was **flaking off** the walls.* ●**flaky** *adjective* coming off easily in small, flat, thin pieces *dry, flaky skin*

flamboyant /flæmˈbɔɪənt/ *adjective* **1** PERSON A flamboyant person is loud, stylish, and confident. *a flamboyant pop star* **2** CLOTHES Flamboyant clothes or colours are very bright and noticeable. ●**flamboyance** /flæmˈbɔɪəns/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flame***

be in flames ● **burst into/go up in** flames ● flames **spread**

flame¹ /fleɪm/ *noun* [C, U] **1** hot, bright, burning gas produced by something on fire *Smoke and flames were pouring out of the burning factory.* ○ *The whole building was soon **in flames*** (= burning). ○ *The car crashed and **burst into flames*** (= suddenly started burning). **2** **COMPUTING, INTERNET** an angry email or message in a chat room, etc.

flame² /fleɪm/ *verb* [I, T] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** to send an angry email to someone

ˈflame ˌtest *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a method used by scientists to discover whether a substance contains metal ions

flaming /ˈfleɪmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** BURNING burning with a bright light *a flaming building* **2** BRIGHT very bright in colour or light *flaming red hair* **3** ANNOYED *UK informal* used to emphasize something when you are annoyed *What a flaming idiot!*

flamingo /fləˈmɪŋgəʊ/ *noun* [C] a large bird with long, thin legs and pink feathers that lives near water in some hot countries

flammable /ˈflæməbl/ (*also* **inflammable**) *adjective* Flammable liquids, gases, or materials burn very easily.

flan /flæn/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a round, open pastry base filled with something such as fruit, or cheese and vegetables *cheese and onion flan*

flank¹ /flæŋk/ *verb* **be flanked by sb/sth** to have someone or something at the side or at each side *The President was flanked by police officers.*

flank² /flæŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the side of the body of an animal or person from the chest to the hips **2** the side of an army when it is ready to fight

flannel /ˈflænəl/ *noun* **1** CLOTHES MATERIAL [U] soft, warm cloth for making clothes *flannel pyjamas* **2** WASHING CLOTH [C] *UK* (*US* **washcloth**) a small cloth that you use to wash your face and body ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

flap¹ /flæp/ *noun* **1** CLOTH [C] a piece of cloth or material fixed along one edge to cover or close an opening **2** EXCITEMENT [C, U] *US* when someone is worried or excited, or a situation that causes them to feel this way *The President's remarks caused a huge flap.* **3 be/get in a flap** *mainly UK informal* to be or become worried or excited

flap² /flæp/ *verb* **flapping**, *past* **flapped** **1** WINGS [T] If a bird flaps its wings, it moves them up and down. **2** MOVE [I] If something such as cloth or paper flaps, the side that is not fixed to something moves around, especially in the wind. *The curtains were flapping around in the breeze.* **3** WORRY [I] *UK informal* to become worried or excited about something *Don't flap! We've got plenty of time to get to the airport.*

flare¹ /fleəʳ/ (*also* **flare up**) *verb* [I] **1** START If something bad such as anger or pain flares or flares up, it suddenly starts or gets worse. *Violence flared up between football fans yesterday.* **2** BURN to suddenly burn brightly, usually for a short time *The rocket flared in the sky and disappeared into space.*

flare² /fleəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SAFETY EQUIPMENT a piece of safety equipment that produces a bright signal when you are lost or injured **2** LIGHT a sudden, bright light

flared /fleəd/ *adjective* wide at the bottom *flared trousers*

flash¹ /flæʃ/ *verb* **1** SHINE [I, T] to shine brightly and suddenly, or to make something shine in this way *The doctor flashed a light into my eye.* ○ *Lightning flashed across the sky.* **2** APPEAR [I, T] (*also* **flash up**) to appear for a short time, or to make something appear for a short time *An icon flashed up on the screen.* **3 flash by/past/through, etc** to move somewhere fast *The motorcycle flashed past us and around the corner.* **4 flash (sb) a look/smile, etc** to look, smile, etc at someone quickly *She flashed him a smile as he came in.*
flash back *phrasal verb* If your mind or thoughts flash back to something that happened in the past, you suddenly remember it.

flash² /flæʃ/ *noun* **1** BRIGHT LIGHT [C] a sudden bright light *The bomb exploded in a **flash of** yellow light.* **2** CAMERA [C, U] a piece of camera equipment that produces a bright light when you take a photograph in a dark place **3** SUDDEN EXPERIENCE [C] a sudden experience of something such as a feeling or idea *a flash of anger* ○ *I had a **flash of inspiration**.* **4 in a flash** immediately, or very quickly *I'll be back in a flash.* **5 a flash in the pan** a sudden success that does not continue

flashback /ˈflæʃbæk/ *noun* [C] **1** MEMORY when you suddenly remember something that happened in the past, usually something bad **2** STORY part of a film or book that goes back in time to something that happened before the main story began

flashlight /ˈflæʃlaɪt/ *US* (*UK* **torch**) *noun* [C] an electric light that you can hold in your hand

flash-mob /ˈflæʃmɒb/ *noun* [C] *informal* a group of people who agree to come together suddenly in a place and do something funny or silly and then move away

flashpoint /ˈflæʃpɔɪnt/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** The flashpoint of a liquid is the lowest temperature at which its vapour (= small drops of water in the air) will burn in the air.

flashy /ˈflæʃi/ *adjective* looking too bright, big, and expensive, in a way that is intended to get attention *flashy gold jewellery*

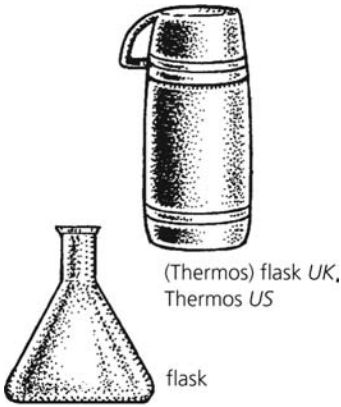

flask

flask /flɑːsk/ *noun* [C] **1** HOT DRINKS *UK* (*UK/US* **Thermos**) a special container that keeps drinks hot or cold *a flask of coffee* **2** ALCOHOL a flat bottle that is used to carry alcohol in your pocket **3** SCIENCE a glass container with a wide base and a narrow opening used in science ➲See picture at **filtrate**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flat***

in a flat • a **block of** flats • a **one-bedroom/two-bedroom** flat • a **basement** flat

flat¹ /flæt/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **apartment**) *noun* [C] a set of rooms to live in, with all the rooms on one level of a building *a large **block of flats***

flat² /flæt/ *adjective* **flatter**, **flattest** **1** SMOOTH smooth and level, with no curved, high, or hollow parts *a flat surface* ○ *The countryside around here is very flat.* **2** WITHOUT EMOTION without any energy, interest, or emotion *Her voice sounded very flat.* **3** WITHOUT AIR If a tyre is flat, it does not contain enough air. **4 FOOD** If a drink is flat, it does not contain enough bubbles of gas. **5** WITHOUT POWER *UK* If a battery (= object which provides electricity) is flat, it does not contain any more electrical power. **6 a flat price/rate, etc FINANCE** a price/rate, etc which is the same for everyone and does not change *He charges a flat rate of £15 an hour.* **7 B flat/E flat, etc MUSIC** the musical note that is between the note B/E, etc and the note below it **8 MUSIC** A flat musical note sounds unpleasant because it is slightly lower than it should be. **9** LOW Flat shoes do not raise your feet far from the ground.

flat³ /flæt/ *adverb* **flatter**, **flattest** **1** in a horizontal or level position on a surface *She spread the cloth flat across the kitchen table.* **2 flat out** using all your energy or effort *We've all been working flat out to finish the project on time.* **3 in 5 minutes/30 seconds, etc flat** in exactly and only 5 minutes, 30 seconds, etc *He showered and got dressed in 10 minutes flat.* **4 fall flat** If an event or joke falls flat, it fails to have the effect that you wanted, such as making people laugh.

flat-bed scanner /ˌflætbedˈskænəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a flat piece of computer equipment that turns words, pictures or objects into digital images

flatly /ˈflætli/ *adverb* **1 flatly deny/refuse, etc** to say something in a direct and certain way *He flatly refused to answer our questions.* **2** without showing any emotion or interest *"He's gone," she said flatly.*

flatmate /ˈflætmeɪt/ *mainly UK* (*US* **roommate**) *noun* [C] someone who you share a flat with

flatpack /ˈflætpæk/ *adjective* used to describe furniture that is sold in pieces inside a flat box, ready to be put together *a flatpack table*

flat-screen TV

ˈflat ˌscreen *noun* [C] a computer screen or a television that is thin and flat

ˌflat-screen TˈV *noun* [C] a type of television with a screen that is very thin and shows a very clear picture

flatten /ˈflætᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become flat or to make something become flat *Roll out the dough into balls and flatten them slightly.*

flatter /ˈflætəʳ/ *verb* **1** SAY NICE THINGS [T] to say nice things to someone in order to make them feel attractive or important, sometimes in a way that is not sincere *The interviewer flattered him about his recent work.* **2 be flattered** to feel very pleased and proud *She was flattered by his attention.* **3** LOOK ATTRACTIVE [T] to make someone look more attractive than usual *That new hairstyle really flatters you.* **4 flatter yourself** to believe something good about yourself, although it might not be true *He flatters himself that he's a good driver.*

flattering /ˈflætərɪŋ/ *adjective* making you look more attractive than usual *a flattering picture*

flattery /ˈflætᵊri/ *noun* [U] when you say nice things to someone, often because you want something from that person

flaunt /flɔːnt/ *verb* [T] to make your success, money, beauty, etc very obvious so that people notice it and admire you *Although he's a millionaire, he doesn't flaunt his wealth.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flavour***

have a [mild/spicy/strong, etc] flavour ● a **delicate/delicious** flavour

flavour¹ *UK* (*US* **flavor**) /ˈfleɪvəʳ/ *noun* **1** TASTE [**C, U**] the taste of a particular type of food or drink *We sell 50 different flavours of ice cream.* ○ *Add some salt to give the soup more flavour.* **2** QUALITY [**no plural**] a particular quality or style that something has *London has a very international flavour.*

flavour² *UK* (*US* **flavor**) /ˈfleɪvəʳ/ *verb* **1** [**T**] to give a particular taste to food or drink [**often passive**] *This sauce is flavoured with garlic and herbs.* **2 cheese/chocolate, etc -flavoured** tasting of cheese/chocolate, etc *lemon-flavoured sweets*

flavouring *UK* (*US* **flavoring**) /ˈfleɪvərɪŋ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** something that is added to food or drink to give it a particular taste

flaw /flɔː/ *noun* [**C**] a mistake or bad characteristic that stops someone or something from being perfect *There's a **flaw in** your reasoning.* ●**flawed** *adjective a **flawed argument***

flawless /ˈflɔːləs/ *adjective* with no mistakes or bad characteristics *a flawless complexion* ●**flawlessly** *adverb*

flea /fliː/ *noun* [**C**] a small, jumping insect that lives on animals or people and drinks their blood

ˈflea ˌmarket *noun* [**C**] a market where you can buy old or used things cheaply

fleck /flek/ *noun* [**C**] a mark, or a very small piece of something *His shirt was covered in **flecks of** paint.*

fledgling /ˈfledʒlɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A fledgling company, country, or organization is new and not yet developed. *a fledgling democracy*

flee /fliː/ *verb* [**I, T**] **fleeing**, *past* **fled** to leave a place quickly because you are in danger or are afraid *Police think the suspect has now fled the country.*

fleece /fliːs/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** CLOTHING a warm, soft, light jacket, or the material used to make it ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 **2** WOOL the thick covering of wool on a sheep

fleet /fliːt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SHIPS a group of ships, or all of the ships in a country's navy **2** VEHICLES a group of vehicles that are owned and controlled by one person or organization *a **fleet of** aircraft/cars*

flesh /fleʃ/ *noun* [**U**] **1 ANATOMY** the soft part of a person's or animal's body between the skin and bones **2 in the flesh** in real life and not on television or in a film *She looks much taller in the flesh.* **3 FOOD** the soft part of a fruit or vegetable which you can eat **4 your own flesh and blood** a member of your family ●**fleshy** *adjective* fat or thick, or with a lot of flesh

flew /fluː/ *past tense of* fly

flex¹ /fleks/ *verb* [**T**] to bend a part of your body so that the muscle becomes tight

flex² /fleks/ *UK* (*UK/US* **cord**) *noun* [**C, U**] a piece of wire covered in plastic, that is used to connect electrical equipment to a power supply

flexible /ˈfleksɪbl/ *adjective* **1** ABLE TO CHANGE able to change or be changed easily according to the situation *I'd like a job with more flexible working hours.* **2** ABLE TO BEND A flexible substance can bend easily without breaking. ●**flexibility** /ˌfleksɪˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

flexography /fleksˈɒgrəfi/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a method of printing using flexible (= able to bend) printing plates, often used for printing on plastic or foil (= very thin sheets of metal)

flexor (muscle) /ˈfleksəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a muscle that allows you to bend part of your body ➲Compare **extensor (muscle)**

flick¹ /flɪk/ *verb* **1 flick sth into/off/over, etc** to move something somewhere suddenly and quickly through the air, usually with your fingers *He quickly flicked the crumbs off the table.* **2 flick down/out/towards, etc** to make a sudden, quick movement somewhere *His eyes flicked between her and the door.* **3 flick a switch** to move a switch in order to make electrical equipment start or stop working
flick sth on/off *phrasal verb* to move a switch in order to make electrical equipment start/stop working
flick through sth *phrasal verb* to look quickly at the pages of a magazine, book, etc

flick² /flɪk/ *noun* [**C**] a sudden, quick movement *With **a flick of** her wrist, she threw the pebble into the water.*

flicker¹ /ˈflɪkəʳ/ *verb* [**I**] **1** SHINE to shine with a light that is sometimes bright and sometimes weak *a candle flickering in the window* **2** APPEAR to appear for a short time or make a sudden movement somewhere *A smile flickered across her face.*

flicker² /ˈflɪkəʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** LIGHT when a light is sometimes bright and sometimes weak *the soft flicker of candlelight* **2** EMOTION a slight, brief feeling or expression of an emotion *a **flicker of hope***

flier (*also* **flyer**) /ˈflaɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** ADVERTISEMENT a small piece of paper advertising a business, show, event, etc **2** PERSON someone who flies, especially a passenger on an aircraft

flies /flaɪz/ *UK* (*UK/US* **fly**) *noun* [**plural**] the part where trousers open and close at the front

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flight***

on a flight ● a flight **from/to** [Paris/Tokyo, etc] ● a **long-haul/short-haul** flight

O-key **flight** /flaɪt/ *noun* **1** JOURNEY [**C**] a journey in an aircraft *The **flight to** Chicago took 4 hours.* **2** AIRCRAFT [**C**] an aircraft that carries passengers from one place to another *Flight 102 is ready for boarding at Gate 3.* **3** MOVEMENT [**U**] when something flies or moves through the air *an eagle in flight* **4 a flight of stairs/steps** a set of stairs

ˈflight atˌtendant *noun* [**C**] someone whose job is to look after passengers on an aircraft

flimsy /flɪmzi/ *adjective* **1** THIN thin and not solid or strong *a flimsy cardboard box* **2** WEAK A flimsy argument, excuse, etc is weak and difficult to believe. *I'm sick of his **flimsy excuses** for being late.*

F

flinch /flɪnʃ/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVE BACKWARDS to make a sudden movement backwards because you are afraid or in pain *She didn't flinch when the nurse cleaned the wound.* **2** AVOID DOING to avoid doing something that is unpleasant *Nick never **flinches from** difficult decisions.*

fling¹ /flɪŋ/ *verb past* **flung fling sth around/across/down, etc** to throw or move something suddenly and with a lot of force *She flung her arms around his neck.*

fling² /flɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** RELATIONSHIP a sexual relationship that is short and not serious *She **had a fling with** someone last summer.* **2** ENJOYMENT a short period of time when you have a lot of enjoyment or pleasure *This is my last fling before the exams.*

F

flint /flɪnt/ *noun* [C, U] **GEOLOGY** a very hard, grey stone that can be used to produce a flame

flip /flɪp/ *verb* **flipping**, *past* **flipped 1** TURN OVER [I, T] to turn or make something turn onto a different side, or so that it is the wrong way up *to flip a coin/pancake* ○ *The boat **flipped right over**.* **2** LOSE CONTROL [I] *informal* to become uncontrollably angry, crazy, or excited *Dad completely flipped when he saw the car.*
flip through sth *phrasal verb* to look quickly at the pages of a magazine, book, etc

ˈflip ˌchart *noun* [C] large pieces of paper attached to a board on legs, which you write or draw on when you are talking to a group of people

flip-flop /ˈflɪpˌflɒp/ (US also **thong**) *noun* [**usually plural**] a type of shoe, often made of rubber, with a V-shaped strap in between the big toe and the toe next to it ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

flippant /ˈflɪpᵊnt/ *adjective* without respect or not serious *a **flippant remark*** ●**flippantly** *adverb* ●**flippancy** /ˈflɪpᵊnsi/ *noun* [U]

flipper /ˈflɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** a part like a wide, flat arm without fingers that some sea animals use for swimming **2 SPORT** a long, flat, rubber shoe that you use when swimming under water

flipping /ˈflɪpɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *UK informal* used to emphasize something, or to show slight anger *Where are my flipping keys?*

the ˈflip ˌside *noun* the opposite, less good, or less popular side of something

flirt¹ /flɜːt/ *verb* [I] to behave as if you are sexually attracted to someone, usually not in a very serious way *She was **flirting with** a guy at the bar.*
flirt with sth *phrasal verb* **1** to be interested in an idea, activity, etc but not seriously, or for only a short time *He **flirted with the idea** of becoming a priest.* **2 flirt with danger/disaster, etc** to risk experiencing something bad ●**flirtation** /flɜːˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

flirt² /flɜːt/ *noun* [C] someone who often flirts with people

flirtatious /flɜːˈteɪʃəs/ *adjective* behaving as if you are sexually attracted to someone, usually not in a very serious way

flit /flɪt/ *verb* **flitting**, *past* **flitted flit about/around/in and out, etc** to fly or move quickly from one place to another *Birds were flitting from tree to tree.*

float¹ /fləʊt/ *verb* **1 PHYSICS** [I, T] to stay on the surface of a liquid instead of sinking, or to make something do this *I like floating on my back in the pool.* **2** [I] to stay in the air, or move gently through the air *A balloon floated across the sky.* **3 FINANCE** [I, T] to start selling a company's shares to the public **4 float sb's boat** *informal* to interest someone *Georgia likes William, but he just doesn't float my boat.*

float² /fləʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** a large, decorated vehicle that is used in public celebrations **2 SPORT** an object that floats on water, used in fishing or when learning to swim **3 FINANCE** when you float a business **4 FINANCE** [C] *mainly UK* a small amount of money which you have before you sell things so that you can give people change (= money which you give to people if they give you more money than the price of something)

flock¹ /flɒk/ *noun* [**group**] **1** BIRD/SHEEP a group of birds or sheep *a flock of geese* **2** PEOPLE a group of people led by one person *a flock of children/visitors*

flock² /flɒk/ *verb* [I] to move or come together in large numbers *Tourists are **flocking to** the beaches.* [+ **to do sth**] *People flocked to hear him speak.*

flog /flɒg/ *verb* [T] **flogging**, *past* **flogged 1** PUNISH to hit someone repeatedly as a punishment with something such as a stick **2** SELL *UK informal* to sell something quickly or cheaply *I had to flog the car to pay my bills.* ●**flogging** *noun* [C, U]

flood¹ /flʌd/ *verb* [I, T] **1 GEOGRAPHY** If a place floods or is flooded, it becomes covered in water. [**often passive**] *The town was flooded when the river burst its banks.* ○ *I left the taps running and flooded the bathroom.* **2** to fill or enter a place in large numbers or amounts *Light flooded the room.* ○ *Shoppers **flooded into** the store.* ●**flooding** *noun* [U] *There is widespread flooding in the South.*
be flooded with sth *phrasal verb* to receive so many letters, telephone calls, etc that you cannot deal with them

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flood***

catastrophic/devastating floods ● flood **damage/victims/warnings**

flood² /flʌd/ *noun* **1 GEOGRAPHY** [C] when a lot of water covers an area that is usually dry, especially when a river becomes too full **2** [C] a large number or amount of things or people that arrive at the same time *a flood of letters/calls* **3 in floods of tears** *UK* crying a lot

floodgates /ˈflʌdgeɪts/ *noun* **open the floodgates** to make it possible for a lot of people to do something

floodlights /ˈflʌdlaɪts/ *noun* [**plural**] powerful lights used to light up sports fields or the outside of buildings at night ●**floodlit** /ˈflʌdlɪt/ *adjective* lit up by floodlights

ˈflood ˌplain *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of low, flat land near a river that often floods when the river becomes too full

O-key **floor** /flɔːr/ *noun* **1** SURFACE [C] a surface that you walk on inside a building *a wooden/tiled floor* ○ *I must sweep the kitchen floor.* **2** BUILDING [C] a particular level of a building *the second/third floor* **3** BOTTOM [**no plural**] the ground or surface at the bottom of something *the forest/sea floor* **4** AREA [C] an area where a particular activity happens *a dance floor* ➲See also: **first floor, ground floor, shop floor**

floorboard /ˈflɔːbɔːd/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow, flat board that forms part of a wooden floor in a building

flooring /flɔːrɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the material used to make or cover a floor *vinyl flooring*

flop¹ /flɒp/ *verb* [I] **flopping**, *past* **flopped 1 flop down/into/onto, etc** to fall or sit somewhere suddenly in a heavy or relaxed way *He flopped down on the sofa.* **2** HANG to hang loosely *Her hair kept flopping in her eyes.* **3** NOT SUCCESSFUL *informal* If a film, product, plan, etc flops, it is not successful.

flop² /flɒp/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** FAILURE something that is not a success *The party was a bit of a flop.* **2** MOVEMENT a movement towards the ground, or the noise someone or something makes as they fall down *She fell onto the bed with a flop.*

floppy /ˈflɒpi/ *adjective* soft and loose or hanging down loosely *floppy hair* ○ *a floppy hat*

ˌ**floppy** ˈ**disk** (*also* **floppy**) *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small disk inside a flat, square piece of plastic used in the past for storing information from a computer

flora /ˈflɔːrə/ *noun* [**U, group**] **BIOLOGY** the plants that grow naturally in a particular area *Scotland's* ***flora and fauna***

floral /ˈflɔːrəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] made from flowers or relating to flowers *a floral arrangement/pattern*

florist /ˈflɒrɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who sells and arranges flowers in a shop **2** SHOP (*also* **florist's**) a shop that sells flowers

flotation /fləʊˈteɪʃən/ *noun* **1 FINANCE** [C, U] when a company's shares are sold to the public for the first time **2** [U] when something or someone floats on or in liquid

flounder /ˈflaʊndər/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVEMENT to make wild movements with your arms or body, especially because you are trying not to sink **2** NOT KNOW to not know what to do or say *When he resigned, the team was left floundering.* **3** FAIL If a relationship, organization, or plan flounders, it fails or begins to experience problems. *By 1993 his marriage was floundering.*

flour /flaʊər/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a powder made from grain that is used to make bread, cakes, and other food

flourish¹ /ˈflʌrɪʃ/ *verb* **1** SUCCEED [I] to grow or develop well *a flourishing tourist industry* **2** HOLD [T] to wave something around in the air

flourish² /ˈflʌrɪʃ/ *noun* [**no plural**] when someone does something in a special and noticeable way *The waiter handed me the menu* ***with a flourish.***

flout /flaʊt/ *verb* [T] to intentionally not obey or accept something *to* ***flout*** *the* ***law/rules***

flow¹ /fləʊ/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVEMENT If something such as a liquid flows, it moves somewhere in a smooth, continuous way. *The river flows from the Andes to the ocean.* **2** TALK If words, ideas, or conversations flow, they continue in an easy and relaxed way without stopping. *At dinner, the* ***conversation flowed*** *freely.*

flow² /fləʊ/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when something such as a liquid moves somewhere in a smooth, continuous way *the flow of blood* ○ *the flow of information* **2 go with the flow** *informal* to do or accept what other people are doing because it is the easiest thing to do *Just relax and go with the flow!* ➲See also: **ebb¹** and flow

flowchart /ˈfləʊtʃɑːt/ (**flow diagram**) *noun* **MATHEMATICS** a diagram which shows the stages of a process

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***flower***

a **bouquet of /bunch of** flowers ● **wild** flowers ● **cut/fresh** flowers ● **wild** flowers

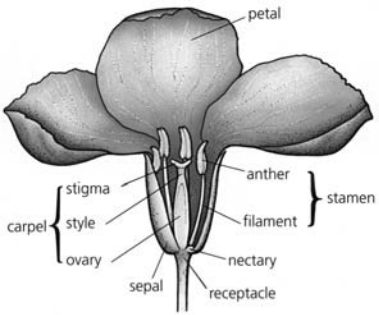

flower

O-key **flower¹** /flaʊər/ *noun* **1 BIOLOGY** [C] the attractive, coloured part of a plant where the seeds grow *a* ***bunch of flowers*** **2** [C] a type of plant that produces flowers *spring/wild flowers* **3 be in flower BIOLOGY** When plants are in flower, they have flowers on them. **4 the flower of sth** *literary* the best part of something *the flower of our nation's youth*

flower² /flaʊər/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** to produce flowers *These pansies flower all summer.*

ˈ**flower** ˌ**bed** *noun* [C] an area of soil in a garden that you grow flowers in

flowery /ˈflaʊəri/ *adjective* **1** PATTERN (*also* **flowered** /flaʊəd/) decorated with a pattern of flowers *a flowery dress* **2** WORDS Flowery language contains unnecessarily complicated and unusual words.

flowing /ˈfləʊɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** LONG AND LOOSE hanging down in a long, loose way *flowing robes/hair* **2** STYLE produced in a smooth, continuous, or relaxed style *flowing lines*

flown /fləʊn/ *past participle of* fly

ˈ**flow** **pro**ˌ**duction** *noun* [U] in business, the continuous production of a single product

fl oz **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* fluid ounce (= a unit for measuring liquid)

flu /fluː/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness like a very bad cold, that makes you feel hot and weak *I **had the flu** last week.*

fluctuate /ˈflʌktʃueɪt/ *verb* [I] to keep changing, especially in level or amount *Oil **prices** have **fluctuated** wildly in recent weeks.* ●**fluctuation** /ˌflʌktʃuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] ***fluctuations in** house prices*

fluent /ˈfluːənt/ *adjective* **1** ABILITY able to use a language naturally without stopping or making mistakes *She is **fluent in** six languages.* **2** STYLE produced or done in a smooth, natural style *Hendrik speaks fluent English.* ●**fluency** /ˈfluːənsi/ *noun* [U] ●**fluently** *adverb*

fluff¹ /flʌf/ *noun* [U] small, loose bits of wool or other soft material *There's a piece of fluff on your jacket.*

fluff² /flʌf/ *verb* [T] *informal* to fail to do something successfully *I had a great chance to score but I fluffed it.*
fluff sth out/up *phrasal verb* to make something appear bigger or fuller by hitting or shaking it so that it contains more air *I'll fluff up your pillows for you.*

fluffy /ˈflʌfi/ *adjective* made or covered with soft fur or cloth *a fluffy toy*

fluid¹ /ˈfluːɪd/ *noun* [C, U] a liquid *cleaning fluid* ○ *Drink plenty of fluids.*

fluid² /ˈfluːɪd/ *adjective* **1** **PHYSICS** able to flow easily like liquid **2** CHANGING likely or able to change *a fluid situation* **3** SMOOTH smooth and continuous *fluid movements*

ˌfluid ˈounce (*written abbreviation* **fl oz**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 0.0284 litres in the UK and 0.0296 litres in the US ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24.

fluke /fluːk/ *noun* [C, U] something good that happens only because of luck or chance *That first goal was just a fluke.*

flume /fluːm/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a large tube for people to slide down at a swimming pool

flung /flʌŋ/ *past of* fling

fluorescent /flɔːˈresᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** LIGHT Fluorescent lights are very bright, tube-shaped, electric lights, often used in offices. **2** COLOUR Fluorescent colours, clothes, etc are very bright and can be seen in the dark. *fluorescent pink* ○ *a fluorescent jacket*

fluoride /ˈflɔːraɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, HEALTH** a chemical that helps to prevent tooth decay

fluorocarbon /ˌfluərəˈkɑːbᵊn / *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** one of a group of chemical compounds which has many uses but which causes damage to the environment

flurry /ˈflʌri/ *noun* [C] **1** ACTIVITY a sudden, short period of activity, interest, or excitement *a flurry of phone calls* **2** SNOW a sudden, short period of snow and wind

flush¹ /flʌʃ/ *verb* **1** TOILET [I, T] If you flush a toilet, or if it flushes, its contents empty and it fills with water again. **2 flush sth away/down/out, etc** to get rid of something by pushing it somewhere with lots of water, such as down a toilet **3** FACE [I] If you flush, your face becomes red and hot, usually because you are embarrassed or angry.
flush sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to force a person or animal to come out from where they are hiding

flush² /flʌʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** when your face becomes hot and red *a **hot flush*** **2 a flush of excitement/pleasure, etc** a sudden feeling of excitement/pleasure, etc

flush³ /flʌʃ/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** LEVEL at the same level as another surface *I want the door **flush with** the wall.* **2** RICH *informal* rich *flush with cash*

flustered /ˈflʌstəd/ *adjective* upset and confused *She arrived very late, looking flustered.*

flute /fluːt/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument in the shape of a tube that is held out to the side and played by blowing across a hole near one end

flutter¹ /ˈflʌtəʳ/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to move quickly and gently up and down or from side to side in the air, or to make something move in this way *The flag was fluttering in the breeze.* **2 flutter about/around/down, etc** to move somewhere quickly and gently, usually without any particular purpose *There were several moths fluttering around the light.*

flutter² /ˈflʌtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a quick, gentle movement *the flutter of wings* **2** EMOTION a state of excitement or worry *a flutter of excitement* **3** RISK MONEY *UK informal* when you risk money on the result of a game, competition, etc

flux /flʌks/ *noun* [U] continuous change *The housing market is still **in a state of flux**.*

fly¹ /flaɪ/ *verb past tense* **flew**, *past participle* **flown** **1** MOVE THROUGH AIR [I] When a bird, insect, aircraft, etc flies, it moves through the air. *The robin flew up into a tree.* ○ *The plane was flying at 5000 feet.* **2** TRAVEL [I] to travel through the air in an aircraft *I'm flying to Delhi tomorrow.* **3** CONTROL AIRCRAFT [I, T] to control an aircraft *She learned to fly at the age of 18.* **4** TAKE/SEND [T] to take or send people or goods somewhere by aircraft [**often passive**] *She was flown to hospital by helicopter.* **5 fly along/down/past, etc** to move somewhere very quickly *He grabbed some clothes and flew down the stairs.* **6 send sb/sth flying** to cause someone or something to move through the air suddenly, usually in an accident **7** LEAVE [I] *UK* to leave suddenly *I must fly - I'm late for work.* **8 let fly (at sb/sth)** *mainly UK informal* to start shouting angrily or attacking someone **9** TIME [I] If time flies, it passes very quickly. **10** FLAG [I, T] If you fly a flag, or a flag is flying, it is fixed to a rope or pole and raised in the air. ●**flying** *noun* [U] *Ben's afraid of flying.* ➲See also: as the **crow**¹ flies, fly off the **handle**²
fly about/around *phrasal verb* If ideas or remarks are flying about, they are being passed quickly from one person to another and causing excitement. *All kinds of **rumours** are **flying around** about the school closing.*
fly into a rage/temper *phrasal verb* to suddenly become very angry

fly² /flaɪ/ *noun* **1** INSECT [C] a small insect with two wings *There was a fly buzzing around in the kitchen.* ➲See picture at **insect** **2** TROUSERS

[C] (*also UK* **flies** [**plural**]) the part where trousers open and close at the front *a **button/zip fly*** **3 fly on the wall** If you say that you would like to be a fly on the wall in a certain situation, you mean that you would like to be there secretly to see and hear what happens. **4 a fly-on-the-wall documentary/film** a television programme or film in which people do not act but are recorded in real situations, sometimes without knowing **5 be dropping like flies** to be dying or becoming ill in large numbers **6 wouldn't hurt a fly** If you say that someone wouldn't hurt a fly, you mean that they are very gentle and would never do anything to injure or upset anyone.

flyer (*also* **flier**) /ˈflaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** ADVERTISEMENT a small piece of paper advertising a business, show, event, etc *She's handing out flyers in the shopping centre.* **2** PERSON someone who flies, especially a passenger on an aircraft *a frequent flyer* ➲See also: **high-flyer**

flying /ˈflaɪɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** A flying creature or object moves or is able to move through the air. *flying ants* **2 a flying visit** *UK* a very brief visit ➲See also: with flying colours (**colour**[1])

ˌflying ˈsaucer *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* a UFO (= an object in the sky which some people think is a spacecraft from another planet)

flyover /ˈflaɪˌəʊvəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **overpass**) *noun* [C] a bridge that carries a road over another road

FM /ˌefˈem/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** *abbreviation for* frequency modulation; a system of radio signals used for broadcasting programmes

foal /fəʊl/ *noun* [C] a young horse

foam /fəʊm/ *noun* [U] **1** BUBBLES a mass of small, white bubbles on the surface of a liquid **2** PRODUCT a thick substance of small, white bubbles used as a cleaning or beauty product ***shaving foam*** **3** FILLING a soft substance used to fill furniture and other objects

foamboard /ˈfəʊmbɔːd/ *noun* [U] **DT** a type of very light board made of a plastic substance full of small bubbles between two sheets of paper or card, often used to attach documents to in order to display them

focal point /ˈfəʊkᵊlˌpɔɪnt/ *noun* [**no plural**] the thing that attracts most of your attention or interest in a place, picture, etc *The fireplace is the focal point of the room.*

focus[1] /ˈfəʊkəs/ *verb* **focusing**, *past* **focused 1** [T] If you focus a camera or something else that you look through, you make small changes to it until you can see something clearly. **2** **BIOLOGY** [I, T] If you focus your eyes, or your eyes focus, they change so that you can see clearly. *Give your eyes time to focus in the darkness.* ➲See picture at **eye**
focus (sth) on sth *phrasal verb* to give a lot of attention to one particular subject or thing *The research focused on men under thirty.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***focus***

be **the focus of** sth ● the focus is **on** (doing) sth

focus[2] /ˈfəʊkəs/ *noun* **1 the focus of sth** the person or thing that is getting most attention in a situation or activity *the focus of our attention* ○ *He is the focus of a police investigation.* **2** [U] when you give special attention to something *Their main **focus** must be **on** reducing crime.* **3 in focus** If an image is in focus, you are able to see it clearly. **4 out of focus** If an image is out of focus, you are not able to see it clearly.

ˈfocus ˌgroup *noun* [**group**] a group of people who are brought together to discuss what they think about something such as a new product

fodder /ˈfɒdəʳ/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** food such as dried grass for animals that are kept on farms *cattle fodder*

foe /fəʊ/ *noun* [C] *literary* an enemy

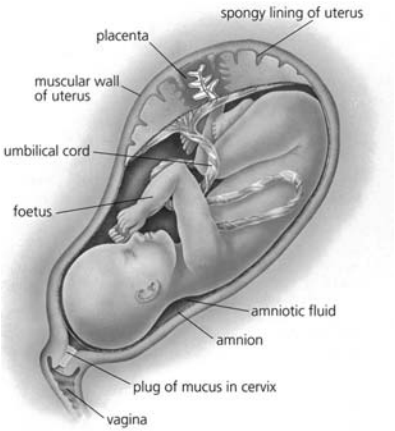

foetus

foetus *UK* (*US* **fetus**) /ˈfiːtəs/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a young human or animal that is still developing inside its mother ●**foetal** *UK* (*US* **fetal**) /ˈfiːtᵊl/ *adjective* ***foetal development***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fog***

fog **descends** ● fog **clears/lifts** ● **dense/heavy/thick** fog

fog /fɒg/ *noun* [U] thick cloud just above the ground or sea that makes it difficult to see

foggy /ˈfɒgi/ *adjective* **1** with fog *a foggy day* **2 not have the foggiest (idea)** *informal* to not know anything about something [+ **question word**] I haven't the foggiest idea what you're talking about.

foible /ˈfɔɪbl/ *noun* [C] a slightly unusual or annoying habit [**usually plural**] *Married couples must learn to accept each other's **little foibles**.*

foil[1] /fɔɪl/ *noun* **1** [U] metal made into very thin sheets like paper and used mainly for covering food *(UK) aluminium foil/ (US) aluminum foil* **2 a foil for sb/sth** a person or thing that shows or emphasizes how different someone or something else is

foil[2] /fɔɪl/ *verb* [T] to stop a crime, plan, etc from succeeding, or to stop someone doing what they want to do [**often passive**] *The plot was foiled by undercover police officers.*

fold¹ /fəʊld/ *verb* **1** MATERIAL [T] If you fold paper, cloth, etc, you bend it so that one part of it lies flat on top of another part. *He **folded** the letter **in half**.* **2** FURNITURE [I, T] (*also* **fold up**) to make something such as a chair or table smaller or flatter by closing it or bending it together *a folding chair* ➲Opposite **unfold** **3** BUSINESS [I] *informal* If a business folds, it fails and is unable to continue. *The magazine folded last year.* **4 fold your arms** to bend your arms across your chest, with one crossing over the other *He sat with his arms folded.*

fold² /fəʊld/ *noun* [C] **1** MARK a line or mark where paper, cloth, etc was or is folded *Make a fold across the centre of the card.* **2** THICK PART a thick part where something folds or hangs over itself [**usually plural**] *folds of skin/fabric*

folder /ˈfəʊldəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of plastic or thick paper folded down the middle and used to store loose papers ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** **COMPUTING** a place on a computer where particular files (= documents, pictures, etc) are kept

foliage /ˈfəʊlɪɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the leaves on a plant

folic acid /ˌfəʊlɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a B vitamin found in the leaves of plants and in liver, from which the body makes red blood cells

folk¹ /fəʊk/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] *UK informal* (*US* **folks**) people *country folk ○ old folk* **2 sb's folks** *informal* someone's parents *We always spend Christmas with my folks.* **3** **MUSIC** [U] folk music

folk² /fəʊk/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** **folk art/dancing, etc** the traditional style of art, dancing, etc among a particular group of people

ˈfolk ˌmusic *noun* [U] **MUSIC** music written and played in a traditional style

follicle /ˈfɒlɪkl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the many very small holes in the skin from which hairs grow

follow /ˈfɒləʊ/ *verb* **1** GO [I, T] to move behind someone or something and go where they go, sometimes secretly *She followed me into the kitchen.* **2** HAPPEN [I, T] to happen or come after something *There was a bang, **followed by** a cloud of smoke.* **3 follow a path/road, etc** to travel along a path, road, etc *Follow the main road down to the traffic lights.* **4 follow instructions/orders/rules, etc** to do what the instructions, orders, rules, etc say you should do *I followed your advice and stayed at home.* **5 follow sb's example/lead** to copy someone's behaviour or ideas **6** UNDERSTAND [I, T] to understand something *Could you say that again? I didn't quite follow.* **7** BE INTERESTED [T] to be interested in an event or activity *I followed the trial closely.* **8 as follows** used to introduce a list or description **9 it follows that** used to say that if one thing is true, another thing will also be true *He's big, but it doesn't follow that he's strong.* ➲See also: follow in sb's footsteps (**footstep**), follow **suit**¹

follow on *phrasal verb mainly UK* to happen or exist as the next part of something *This report **follows on from** my earlier study.*

follow sth through *phrasal verb* to do something as the next part of an activity or period of development, usually to make certain that it is completed or successful

follow sth up *phrasal verb* to discover more about a situation or take further action in connection with it

follower /ˈfɒləʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who believes in a particular person or set of ideas *a **follower of** Jesus*

following¹ /ˈfɒləʊɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 the following day/morning, etc** the next day, morning, etc **2 the following** what comes next, often used to introduce a list, report, etc *The following is an extract from her diary: Today I stayed in bed all day.*

following² /ˈfɒləʊɪŋ/ *noun* [**no plural**] a group of people who follow a leader, sport, etc, or admire a particular performer *He has a large and loyal following.*

following³ /ˈfɒləʊɪŋ/ *preposition* after or as a result of *He died on October 23rd, following several years of illness.*

follow-up /ˈfɒləʊʌp/ *noun* [C] something that is done to continue or complete something that was done before *a follow-up meeting*

fond /fɒnd/ *adjective* **1 be fond of sb/sth** to like someone or something *to be fond of animals/music* [+ **doing sth**] He's not very fond of dancing. **2** [**always before noun**] expressing or causing happy feelings *fond memories* **3 a fond hope/belief, etc** something that you wish were true, but probably is not ●**fondly** *adverb* ●**fondness** *noun* [C, U] *We both **have a fondness for** cricket.*

fondle /ˈfɒndl/ *verb* [T] to touch and rub part of someone's body, in a loving or sexual way

font /fɒnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a set of letters and symbols that are printed in a particular design and size *What size font are you using?* **2** **RELIGION** a container in a church which holds the water for a baptism (= Christian ceremony)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***food***

cold/hot/savoury/sweet food ● **baby/cat/dog** food ● **canned/frozen/organic/processed** food

food /fuːd/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** something that people and animals eat, or plants absorb, to keep them alive *baby/dog food ○ His favourite food is pizza.* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 ➲See also: **fast food, junk food**

ˈfood ˌchain *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a series of living things which are connected because each group of things eats the group below it in the series ➲See picture **food chain** on next page

foodie /ˈfuːdi/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who loves food and knows a lot about it

ˈfood ˌmile *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** a unit for measuring how far food travels from where it is made or grown to where it is eaten *People are becoming more concerned about how many food miles their produce has travelled.*

ˈfood ˌpoisoning *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness caused by eating food containing harmful bacteria

ˈfood ˌprocessor *noun* [C] a piece of electrical equipment with a sharp blade, for cutting and

food chain

mixing food ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

foodstuff /ˈfuːdstʌf/ *noun* [C] *formal* a substance used as food or to make food [**usually plural**] *They need **basic foodstuffs** like rice and corn*

ˈ**food tech,nology** *noun* [U] **FOOD** (the study of) using science in preparing and storing food

ˈ**food ,web** *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the relationship between all the animals and organisms in a particular area when thinking about how they eat each other

fool¹ /fuːl/ *noun* **1** [C] a stupid person *I was a fool to trust him.* **2 make a fool (out) of sb** to try to make someone look stupid intentionally *She was always trying to make a fool out of me in front of my friends.* **3 make a fool of yourself** to behave in a silly or embarrassing way *I got drunk and started singing and making a fool of myself.* **4 act/play the fool** *UK* to behave in a silly way, usually in order to make people laugh *Joe is always playing the fool in class.*

fool² /fuːl/ *verb* **1** [T] to trick someone *Don't be fooled by his appearance.* [+ **into** + **doing sth**] *He fooled the old man into giving him the money.* **2 you could have fooled me** *informal* something that you say when you do not believe what someone says about something that you saw or experienced yourself *"I wasn't cross." "Really? You could have fooled me."*
fool around/about *phrasal verb* to behave in a silly way or have a good time
fool with sb/sth *phrasal verb mainly US* to deal with someone or something that could be dangerous in a stupid or careless way

foolhardy /ˈfuːl,hɑːdi/ *adjective* taking or involving silly and unnecessary risks *a **foolhardy decision***

foolish /ˈfuːlɪʃ/ *adjective* silly and not wise [+ **to do sth**] *It would be foolish to ignore his advice.* ●**foolishly** *adverb* ●**foolishness** *noun* [U]

foolproof /ˈfuːlpruːf/ *adjective* A foolproof method, plan, or system is certain to succeed and not fail.

O-K **foot¹** /fʊt/ *noun* **1 ANATOMY** [C] *plural* **feet** one of the two flat parts on the ends of your legs that you stand on *bare feet* ○ *He stepped on my foot.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 MEASURES** [C] *plural* **foot** or **feet** (*written abbreviation* **ft**) a unit for measuring length, equal to 0.3048 metres or 12 inches *Alex is about 6 feet tall.* ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **3 LITERATURE** [C] *plural* **feet** a part of a line of poetry which contains one strong beat and one or two weaker ones **4 the foot of sth** the bottom of something such as stairs, a hill, a bed, or a page *Put the notes at the foot of the page.* **5 on foot** If you go somewhere on foot, you walk there. ➲See Common Learner Error at **walk 6 be on your feet** to be standing and not sitting *I'm exhausted, I've been on my feet all day.* **7 put your feet up** to relax, especially by sitting with your feet supported above the ground **8 set foot in/on sth** to go into a place or onto a piece of land *He told me never to set foot in his house again.* **9 get/rise to your feet** to stand up after you have been sitting *The audience rose to their feet.* **10 drag your feet** to deal with something slowly because you do not really want to do it **11 get cold feet** to suddenly become too frightened to do what you had planned to do, especially something important **12 get/start off on the wrong foot** to start a relationship or activity badly *He got off on the wrong foot with my parents by arriving late.* **13 not put a foot wrong** *UK* to not make any mistakes **14 put your foot down** to tell someone in a strong way that they must do something or must stop doing something **15 put your foot in it** *UK* (*US* **put your foot in your mouth**) to say something silly or embarrassing, without intending to **16 stand on your own two feet** to do things for yourself without wanting or needing anyone else to help you

foot² /fʊt/ *verb* **foot the bill** to pay for something *Why should taxpayers have to foot the bill?*

footage /ˈfʊtɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] film of an event *news/TV footage*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***football***

play football ● a football **club/match/player/team** ● a **game of** football

O-K **football** /ˈfʊtbɔːl/ *noun* **1 SPORT** [U] *UK* (*UK/US* **soccer**) a game in which two teams of players kick a round ball and try to score goals *a game of football* ○ ***a football match/team*** ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **2 SPORT** [U] *US* (*UK* **American football**) a game in which two teams of players try to kick, run with, or throw an oval ball across each other's goal line ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **3 SPORT** [C] a large ball for kicking, especially in football ●**footballer** *noun* [C] *UK* someone who plays football, especially as their job ●**footballing** *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to or playing football *his **footballing career***

footer /ˈfʊt.ər/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a word or words that appear at the bottom of every page in a book or document ➲Compare **header**

foothills /ˈfʊthɪlz/ *noun* [**plural**] **GEOGRAPHY** the lower hills next to a mountain or line of mountains

foothold /ˈfʊthəʊld/ *noun* [C] **1** CLIMBING a place where it is safe to put your foot when you are climbing **2** PROGRESS a safe position from which you can make more progress, for example in business *We are still trying to **gain a foothold** in the Japanese market.*

footing /ˈfʊtɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when you are standing on a surface firmly *I **lost my footing** and fell.* **2 be on an equal/firm, etc footing** to be in an equal/safe, etc position or situation

footnote /ˈfʊtnəʊt/ *noun* [C] extra information that is printed at the bottom of a page

footpath /ˈfʊtpɑːθ/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* a path or track for people to walk along, especially in the countryside *a **public footpath***

footprint /ˈfʊtprɪnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a mark made by a foot or shoe [**usually plural**] *The police found some footprints in the mud.* **2** COMPUTING the amount of space on a surface that something needs, especially a computer ➲Compare **ecological footprint**

footstep /ˈfʊtstep/ *noun* **1** [C] the sound of a foot hitting the ground when someone walks [**usually plural**] *I heard footsteps behind me and quickly turned round.* **2 follow in sb's footsteps** to do the same job or the same things in your life as someone else, especially a member of your family *He followed in his father's footsteps and became an actor.*

footwear /ˈfʊtweər/ *noun* [U] shoes, boots, and other things that you wear on your feet

for¹ *strong form* /fɔːr/ *weak form* /fər/ *preposition* **1** GIVEN/USED intended to be given to or used by someone or something *I've bought a few clothes for the new baby.* ○ *parking for residents only* **2** PURPOSE having a particular purpose *a cream for dry skin* ○ *What are those large scissors for?* **3** BECAUSE OF because of or as a result of something [**+ doing sth**] *I got fined for travelling without a ticket.* ○ *Scotland is famous for its spectacular countryside.* **4** TIME/DISTANCE used to show an amount of time or distance *We drove for miles before we found a phone box.* ○ *I've been living with my parents for a few months.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **during** **5** GET in order to get or achieve something *I've sent off for an application form.* ○ *We had to wait for a taxi.* **6** HELP in order to help someone *I'll carry those bags for you.* **7** OCCASION on the occasion of *We're having a party for Jim's 60th birthday.* **8** AT A TIME at a particular time *I've booked a table for 9 o'clock.* **9** IN EXCHANGE in exchange for something, especially an amount of money *How much did you pay for your computer?* ○ *I'd like to change it for a smaller one.* **10** SUPPORT supporting or agreeing with someone or something *Who did you vote for?* ○ *There were 16 people for the motion and 14 against.* **11** REPRESENT representing or working with a country, organization, etc *He plays football for Cambridge United.* ○ *She works for a charity.* **12** TOWARDS towards or in the direction of *Just follow the signs for the airport.* **13** COMPARE when compared to a particular fact *She's quite tall for her age.* **14** MEANING meaning or representing something *What's the German word for 'cucumber'?* **15** RESPONSIBILITY used to say whose responsibility something is *I can't tell you whether you should go or not - that's for you to decide.* **16 for all** despite *For all her qualifications, she's useless at the job.* **17 for all I care/know** used to say that a fact is not important to you *He could be married by now, for all I care.* **18 for now** used to say that something should happen or be done now but can be changed later *Just put everything on the table for now.* **19 be for it** *UK informal* (*UK/US* **be in for it**) to be in trouble *If Hilary finds out I'll be for it!*

forage /ˈfɒrɪdʒ/ *verb* [I] to move about searching for things you need, especially food *Chimpanzees spend most of the day **foraging for** fruit, leaves, and insects.*

foray /ˈfɒreɪ/ *noun* [C] when you try to do something that is not familiar to you, or go somewhere different, for a short time *In 2004, she **made** her first **foray into** politics.*

forbid /fəˈbɪd/ *verb* [T] **forbidding**, *past tense* **forbade**, *past participle* **forbidden** **1** to order someone not to do something, or to say that something must not happen [**+ to do sth**] *I forbid you to see that boy again.* [**often passive + from + doing sth**] *He is forbidden from leaving the country.* **2 God/Heaven forbid!** something you say when you hope that something will not happen [**+ (that)**] God forbid that he should die during the operation. ●**forbidden** *adjective* not allowed by an official rule *Smoking is **strictly forbidden** in this area.*

forbidding /fəˈbɪdɪŋ/ *adjective* looking unpleasant, unfriendly, or frightening *a cold and forbidding landscape*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***force***

exert/use force ● **brute/sheer** force ● do sth **by** force ● the force **of** sth

force¹ /fɔːs/ *noun* **1** POWER [U] physical power or strength *The force of the explosion shattered every window in the street.* ○ *The army has seized power **by force**.* **2** ORGANIZED GROUP [C] a group of people organized to work together for a particular purpose, for example in military service *the Royal Air Force* ○ *a skilled **work force*** **3** INFLUENCE [C, U] power and influence, or a person or thing that has it *the forces of good/evil* **4 in/into force** If a law, rule, etc is in force, it is being used, and if it comes into force, it starts to be used. *The new law came into force in April.* **5 be out in force** to be somewhere in large numbers *Photographers were out in force at the palace today.* **6 a force to be reckoned with** a very powerful person or organization **7 join forces** When two people or groups join forces, they act or work together. [**+ to do sth**] She ***joined forces with** her sister-in-law to set up a restaurant.* ➲See also: **air force, the armed forces, market forces, police force, task force**

force² /fɔːs/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to make someone do something that they do not want to do [**+ to do sth**] *The hijacker forced the pilot to fly to New York.* [**often passive**] *She was **forced out of** the race by a knee injury.* **2** OBJECT to make an object move or open by physical strength or effort *They had to force the lock.* ○ *She forced the window open.*

force-feed /ˈfɔːsfiːd/ *verb* [T] to make a person or animal eat, often by putting food in the

stomach through a pipe in the mouth *Eventually, the hunger strikers were force-fed.*

forceful /ˈfɔːsfᵊl/ *adjective* expressing opinions strongly and demanding attention or action *a forceful manner/personality* ●**forcefully** *adverb to* ***argue forcefully***

forcible /ˈfɔːsəbl/ *adjective* A forcible action is done using force. *forcible entry/arrest* ●**forcibly** *adverb Thousands of people were* ***forcibly removed*** *from their homes.*

fore /fɔːʳ/ *noun* **to the fore** in or to an important or popular position *The band first* ***came to the fore*** *in the late 1990s.*

forearm /ˈfɔːrɑːm/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the lower part of your arm between your hand and your elbow (= the place where it bends) ➲See picture at **body**

foreboding /fɔːˈbəʊdɪŋ/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] a feeling that something very bad is going to happen *a* ***sense of foreboding***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***forecast***

a forecast **of** sth ● an **economic** forecast ● a **gloomy** forecast

forecast¹ /ˈfɔːkɑːst/ *noun* [C] a report saying what is likely to happen in the future ***economic forecasts*** ➲See also: **weather forecast**

forecast² /ˈfɔːkɑːst/ *verb* [T] *past* **forecast**, **forecasted** to say what you expect to happen in the future *In 2001 a serious earthquake was forecast for the area.* ●**forecaster** *noun* [C] *a* ***weather forecaster***

forecourt /ˈfɔːkɔːt/ *noun* [C] *UK* a large area with a hard surface at the front of a building *a* ***garage forecourt***

forefather /ˈfɔːˌfɑːðəʳ/ *noun formal* **sb's forefathers** **SOCIETY** someone's relatives who lived a long time ago

forefinger /ˈfɔːˌfɪŋgəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the finger next to your thumb

forefront /ˈfɔːfrʌnt/ *noun* **be at/in the forefront of sth** to have an important position or job in an area of activity *The company is at the forefront of developing new technology.*

forego /fɔːˈgəʊ/ *verb* [T] **foregoing**, *past tense* **forewent**, *past participle* **foregone** *another spelling of* forgo (= to decide not to have or do something you want)

ˌforegone conˈclusion *noun* [**no plural**] a result that is obvious before it happens [**+ (that)**] *It was a foregone conclusion that he'd go into politics.*

the foreground /fɔːgraʊnd/ *noun* **1** **ART** the area of a view or picture which seems closest to you *There's a seated figure in the foreground of the painting.* **2** the subject or person that people give most attention to *Environmental issues have recently moved to the foreground.*

forehand /ˈfɔːhænd/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** when you hit the ball in sports such as tennis with your arm held out on the side that you hold the racket (= object to hit balls with) *a* ***forehand volley***

forehead /ˈfɔːhed/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part of your face between your eyes and your hair ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

O-key **foreign** /ˈfɒrɪn/ *adjective* **1** FROM ANOTHER COUNTRY belonging to or coming from another country, not your own *a foreign language/student* ○ *foreign cars/films* **2** OTHER COUNTRIES [**always before noun**] relating to or dealing with countries that are not your own ***foreign policy*** ○ *the* ***Foreign Minister*** **3 be foreign to sb** to be something you know nothing about or do not understand *The concept of loyalty is completely foreign to him.*

foreigner /ˈfɒrɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone from another country

foreman /ˈfɔːmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **foremen** someone who leads a group of workers *a factory foreman*

foremost /ˈfɔːməʊst/ *adjective, adverb formal* most important *He's one of the country's* ***foremost experts*** *on military law.*

forename /ˈfɔːneɪm/ *noun* [C] *UK formal* your first name, which comes before your family name

forensic /fəˈrensɪk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to scientific methods of solving crimes ***forensic evidence/medicine*** ○ *a* ***forensic scientist***

forerunner /ˈfɔːˌrʌnəʳ/ *noun* [C] an earlier, less developed example *the forerunner of the modern car*

foresee /fɔːˈsiː/ *verb* [T] **foreseeing**, *past tense* **foresaw**, *past participle* **foreseen** to expect a future situation or event *I don't* ***foresee*** *any* ***problems*** *in the future.*

foreseeable /fɔːˈsiːəbl/ *adjective* **for/in the foreseeable future** as far in the future as you can imagine *Prices will remain high for the foreseeable future.*

foreshadow /fɔːˈʃædəʊ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to show or warn that something bigger, worse, or more important is coming

foresight /ˈfɔːsaɪt/ *noun* [U] when you know or can judge what will happen or what you will need in the future *She* ***had the foresight to*** *book her flight early.*

foreskin /ˈfɔːskɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **ANATOMY** the loose skin that covers the end of a penis

O-key **forest** /ˈfɒrɪst/ *noun* [C, U] a large area of trees growing closely together *pine forest* ●**forested** *adjective* covered by forest *heavily forested areas*

forestall /fɔːˈstɔːl/ *verb* [T] to prevent something from happening by taking action before it does *to forestall an attack/crisis*

forestry /ˈfɒrɪstri/ *noun* [U] the work of looking after or making forests

foretell /fɔːˈtel/ *verb* [T] *past* **foretold** *formal* to say what is going to happen in the future

forever /fəˈrevəʳ/ *adverb* **1** IN FUTURE for all time in the future *I'll love you forever.* **2** A LONG TIME *informal* used to emphasize that something takes a long time *The journey home took forever.* **3** OFTEN used to emphasize that something happens often *She is forever helping people.*

F

foreword /ˈfɔːwɜːd/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE a short piece of writing at the front of a book that introduces the book or its writer

forfeit /ˈfɔːfɪt/ *verb* [T] to lose the right to do something or have something because you have done something wrong *They have **forfeited** the **right** to live in society.*

forgave /fəˈgeɪv/ *past tense of* forgive

forge¹ /fɔːdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** LAW to make an illegal copy of something in order to deceive people *a **forged passport*** **2** DEVELOP to develop a good relationship with someone or something *The group **forged friendships** that have lasted more than twenty years.*
forge ahead *phrasal verb* to suddenly make a lot of progress with something *The organizers are **forging ahead with** a programme of public events.*

forge² /fɔːdʒ/ *noun* [C] a place where metal objects are made by heating and shaping metal

forgery /ˈfɔːdʒᵊri/ *noun* LAW **1** [C] an illegal copy of a document, painting, etc **2** [U] the crime of making an illegal copy of something

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***forget***

The expression **slip someone's mind** is often used informally when someone forgets to do something: *I meant to tell you that he'd phoned, but it completely **slipped my mind**.*

If a word is **on the tip of your tongue**, you have forgotten it but think that you will very soon remember it: *Oh, what was that film called? - it's **on the tip of my tongue**.*

If something such as a name **escapes** you, you cannot remember it: *The name of her book **escapes** me at the moment.*

forget /fəˈget/ *verb* **forgetting**, *past tense* **forgot**, *past participle* **forgotten 1** NOT REMEMBER [I, T] to be unable to remember a fact, something that happened, or how to do something *I've forgotten his name.* [+ **(that)**] *Don't forget that Lucy and John are coming this weekend.* ○ *He'd completely **forgotten about** their quarrel.* [+ **question word**] *You never forget how to ride a bike.* **2** NOT DO [I, T] to not remember to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Dad's always forgetting to take his pills.* **3** NOT BRING [T] to not bring something with you because you did not remember it *Oh no, I've forgotten my passport.* **4** STOP THINKING [T] (*also* **forget about**) to stop thinking about someone or something *I'll never forget him for as long as I live.* **5 forget it** used to tell someone not to worry about something as it is not important **6 I forget** used instead of 'I have forgotten' *I forget when we last saw him.* **7 forget yourself** to do or say something that is not acceptable in a particular situation *She completely forgot herself and started screaming at him.*

forgetful /fəˈgetfᵊl/ *adjective* often forgetting things *She's 84 now and getting a bit forgetful.* ●**forgetfulness** *noun* [U]

forgive /fəˈgɪv/ *verb past tense* **forgave**, *past participle* **forgiven 1** [I, T] to decide not to be angry with someone or not to punish them for something they have done *I've apologized, but I don't think she'll ever forgive me.* [**often reflexive**] *Mike would never forgive himself if anything happened to the children.* [+ **for + doing sth**] *Jane never forgave her mother for lying to her.* **2 forgive me** used before you ask or say something that might seem rude *Forgive me for asking, but how much did you pay for your bag?* **3 sb could be forgiven for doing sth** used to say that you can understand if someone might think, believe, or do something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***forgiveness***

ask (for)/beg (for) forgiveness ● forgiveness **for** sth

forgiveness /fəˈgɪvnəs/ *noun* [U] when you forgive someone for something they have done

forgiving /fəˈgɪvɪŋ/ *adjective* ready to forgive someone for something they have done

forgo /fɔːˈgəʊ/ *verb* [T] **forgoing**, *past tense* **forwent**, *past participle* **forgone** *formal* to decide not to have or do something, although you want to have it or do it *She had to forgo her early ambition to be a writer.*

forgot /fəˈgɒt/ *past tense of* forget

forgotten /fəˈgɒtən/ *past participle of* forget

fork¹ /fɔːk/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD a small object with three or four points and a handle, that you use to pick up food and eat with *a **knife and fork*** **2** DIGGING a tool with a long handle and three or four points, used for digging and breaking soil into pieces *a garden fork* **3** ROAD a place where a road or river divides into two parts *Turn right when you reach a **fork in the road**.*

fork² /fɔːk/ *verb* [I] If a road or river forks, it divides into two parts.
fork sth out *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **fork sth over**) *informal* to pay or give money for something, especially when you do not want to

forlorn /fəˈlɔːn/ *adjective* lonely and unhappy *The captured soldiers looked forlorn and helpless.* ●**forlornly** *adverb*

form¹ /fɔːm/ *noun* **1** TYPE [C] a type of something or way of doing something *Swimming is the best **form of** exercise.* **2** PAPER [C] a printed document with spaces for you to write information *Please **fill in/out the form** using black ink.* **3 the form of sth** the particular way in which something exists *The novel is written **in the form of** a series of letters.* **4** SPORT [U] In sport, someone's form is how well or badly they are performing. *The team seems to have **lost its form** lately.* **5 be in/on/off form** *UK* If someone is in form or on form, they are feeling or performing well, and if they are off form they are not feeling or performing well. *Harry was **on good form** last night.* **6** EDUCATION [C] *UK* (*US* **grade**) a school class or group of classes for students of the same age or ability *He's in the third form.* **7** SHAPE [C] the body or shape of someone or something **8** LANGUAGE [C] a way of writing or saying a word that shows if it is singular or plural, past or present, etc *The plural form of 'sheep' is 'sheep'.* ➲See also: **application form, sixth form**

form² /fɔːm/ *verb* **1** BEGIN [I, T] to begin to exist, or to make something begin to exist [**often passive**] *We are learning more about how stars are*

formed. **2** SHAPE [**I, T**] to take or to make something take a particular shape ***Form** the dough **into** little balls.* **3** COMBINE [**T**] to make something by combining different parts *In English you form the present participle by adding -ing to the verb.* **4** START [**T**] to start an organization or business *Brown formed her own company eleven years ago.* **5** BE [**T**] to be the thing talked about or be part of it *The Alps form a natural barrier between Italy and Switzerland.* **6 form an opinion/impression, etc** to begin to have a particular opinion or idea about something because of the information you have

formal /ˈfɔːmᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SERIOUS used about clothes, language, and behaviour that are serious and not friendly or relaxed *a formal dinner party* **2** OFFICIAL [**always before noun**] public or official *a **formal announcement/apology*** **3** **EDUCATION** [**always before noun**] Formal education, training, etc happens in a school or college. *Tom had little **formal schooling**.*

formality /fɔːˈmæləti/ *noun* **1** OFFICIAL THING [**C**] something that the law or an official process says must be done *There are certain **legal formalities** to be completed.* **2** BEHAVIOUR [**U**] formal and polite behaviour *the formality of a royal funeral*

formally /ˈfɔːməli/ *adverb* **1** OFFICIALLY officially *The deal will be **formally announced** on Tuesday.* **2** POLITELY in a polite way *They shook hands formally.*

format[1] /ˈfɔːmæt/ *noun* [**C**] the way something is designed, arranged, or produced *This year's event will have a new format.*

format[2] /ˈfɔːmæt/ *verb* [**T**] **formatting**, *past* **formatted** **1** **COMPUTING** to prepare a computer disk so that information can be stored on it **2** to organize and design the words on a page or document

formation /fɔːˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** DEVELOPMENT [**U**] the development of something into a particular thing or shape *the formation of a crystal* **2** SHAPE [**C, U**] when something has a particular shape or things are arranged in a particular way *rock/cloud formations* ○ *The planes flew overhead **in formation*** (= in a pattern).

formative /ˈfɔːmətɪv/ *adjective* relating to the time when your character and opinions are developing *She spent **her formative years** in New York.*

former /ˈfɔːməʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening, existing, or true in the past but not now *the former Soviet Union* ○ *former President Bill Clinton*

the former /ˈfɔːməʳ/ *noun* the first of two people or things that have just been talked about

formerly /ˈfɔːməli/ *adverb* in the past *The European Union was formerly called the European Community.*

formidable /ˈfɔːmɪdəbl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON Someone who is formidable is strong and a bit frightening. *a formidable woman* **2** DIFFICULT difficult and needing a lot of effort or thought *a **formidable task***

formula /ˈfɔːmjələ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **formulas** or **formulae** **1** METHOD a plan or method that is used to achieve something *There's no magic **formula for** success.* **2** **MATHEMATICS** a set of letters, numbers, or symbols that are used to express a mathematical or scientific rule **3** LIST a list of the substances that something is made of

formulate /ˈfɔːmjəleɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** PLAN to develop all the details of a plan for doing something *They **formulated a plan** to save the company.* **2** SAY to say what you think or feel after thinking carefully *to **formulate** an **answer/reply*** ●**formulation** /ˌfɔːmjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

forsake /fəˈseɪk/ *verb* [**T**] *past tense* **forsook**, *past participle* **forsaken** *formal* **1** LEAVE to leave someone, especially when they need you *He felt he couldn't forsake her when she was so ill.* **2** STOP to stop doing or having something *He decided to forsake politics for journalism.*

fort /fɔːt/ *noun* [**C**] a strong building that soldiers use to defend a place

forth /fɔːθ/ *adverb literary* out of a place or away from it *The knights rode forth into battle.*

forthcoming /ˌfɔːθˈkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SOON [**always before noun**] *formal* going to happen soon *the forthcoming election/visit* **2** OFFERED [**never before noun**] If money or help is forthcoming, it is offered or given. *He insisted that no more money would be forthcoming.* **3** WILLING [**never before noun**] willing to give information *Elaine wasn't very forthcoming about her love life.*

forthright /ˈfɔːθraɪt/ *adjective* saying what you think honestly and clearly *They dealt with all our questions in a very **forthright manner**.*

forthwith /ˌfɔːθˈwɪθ/ *adverb formal* immediately *to cease forthwith*

fortifications /ˌfɔːtɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] strong walls, towers, etc that are built to protect a place

fortify /ˈfɔːtɪfaɪ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** PLACE to build strong walls, towers, etc around a place to protect it *a fortified city/town* **2** PERSON to make someone feel stronger physically or mentally *She had a sandwich to fortify herself before going on.* **3** **FOOD** to add something, especially vitamins, to food ●**fortification** /ˌfɔːtɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

fortitude /ˈfɔːtɪtjuːd/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* when you are brave and do not complain about pain or problems

fortnight /ˈfɔːtnaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* two weeks [**usually singular**] *a fortnight's holiday* ○ *We usually get together about once a fortnight.* ●**fortnightly** *adverb UK* happening every two weeks *a fortnightly meeting*

fortress /ˈfɔːtrəs/ *noun* [**C**] a castle or other strong building built to defend a place

fortunate /ˈfɔːtʃᵊnət/ *adjective* lucky [**+ to do sth**] *I'm very fortunate to be alive.* [**+ (that)**] *It was fortunate that someone was available to take over.* ➲Opposite **unfortunate**

fortunately /ˈfɔːtʃᵊnətli/ *adverb* happening because of good luck *Fortunately, no one was hurt in the accident.* ➲Opposite **unfortunately**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fortune***

cost/earn/make/spend a fortune ● a **personal** fortune ● **the family** fortune

fortune /ˈfɔːtʃuːn/ *noun* **1** MONEY [C] a lot of money *She **made a fortune** selling her story to the newspapers.* **2** LUCK [C, U] the good or bad things that happen to you [usually plural] *The family's fortunes changed almost overnight.* **3 tell sb's fortune** to say what is going to happen to someone in the future

ˈ**fortune** ˌ**cookie** *noun* [C] FOOD a biscuit containing a piece of paper with a message about your future written on it, eaten especially in Chinese restaurants

fortune-teller /ˈfɔːtʃuːnˌtelər/ *noun* [C] someone who tells you what will happen to you in the future

F

forty /ˈfɔːti/ the number 40 ●**fortieth** 40th written as a word

forum /ˈfɔːrəm/ *noun* [C] **1** a situation or meeting in which people can exchange ideas and discuss things *a forum for debate/discussion* **2** INTERNET an area of a website where people go to discuss things ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

forward[1] /ˈfɔːwəd/ (*also* **forwards**) *adverb* **1** DIRECTION towards the direction that is in front of you *She leaned forward to make sure I could hear her.* **2** FUTURE towards the future *I always **look forward**, not back.* **3** PROGRESS used to say that something is making good progress *This is a big **step forward** for democracy.*

forward[2] /ˈfɔːwəd/ *adjective* **1 forward motion/movement, etc** movement towards the direction that is in front of you **2 forward planning/thinking, etc** when you plan or think about something for the future **3** Someone who is forward is too confident or too friendly with people they do not know.

forward[3] /ˈfɔːwəd/ *verb* [T] to send a letter, email, etc that you have received to someone else *Could you forward my mail to me while I'm away?* ➲See also: **fast-forward**

forward[4] /ˈfɔːwəd/ *noun* [C] SPORT a player in a sport such as football who plays near the front and tries to score goals

ˌ**forwarding** aˈ**ddress** *noun* [C] a new address that letters and parcels should be sent to

forward-looking /ˈfɔːwədlʊkɪŋ/ *adjective* planning for the future and using new ideas or technology *a forward-looking plan/policy*

forwards /ˈfɔːwədz/ *adverb another word for* forward

ˈ**forward** ˌ**slash** (*also* **slash**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING the symbol '/', a symbol used in Internet addresses and used to show where on a computer files are kept ➲Compare **backslash**

forwent /fɔːˈwent/ *past tense of* forgo

fossil /ˈfɒsəl/ *noun* [C] GEOLOGY part of an animal or plant from thousands of years ago, preserved in rock

ˈ**fossil** ˌ**fuel** *noun* [C, U] GEOLOGY, ENVIRONMENT a fuel such as coal or oil that is obtained from under the ground ➲See picture at **greenhouse effect**

fossilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈfɒsɪlaɪz/ *verb* [I] GEOLOGY to become a fossil ●**fossilization** (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌfɒsɪlaɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

foster[1] /ˈfɒstər/ *verb* [T] **1** to encourage a particular feeling, situation, or idea to develop *The growth of the Internet could foster economic development worldwide.* **2** SOCIETY to look after a child as part of your family for a time, without becoming their legal parent

foster[2] /ˈfɒstər/ *adjective* **1 foster home/mother/parent, etc** SOCIETY the home where a child who is fostered lives, or the person or people who foster a child **2 foster child/daughter/son, etc** SOCIETY a child who is fostered

fought /fɔːt/ *past of* fight

foul[1] /faʊl/ *adjective* **1** DIRTY very dirty, or with an unpleasant smell *the foul smell of rotting fish* **2** BAD very bad or unpleasant *foul weather* ○ *She's in a foul mood.* **3 foul language/words** very rude and offensive words **4 fall foul of sb/sth** *UK* to do something which causes you to be in trouble

foul[2] /faʊl/ *verb* **1** [T] to make something very dirty *The beaches had been fouled by dogs.* **2** SPORT [I, T] to do something that is against the rules in a sport *He was fouled as he was about to shoot at goal.*
foul sth up *phrasal verb informal* to spoil something completely *The travel company completely fouled up our holiday.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***foul***

commit a foul ● a foul **against/on** sb

foul[3] /faʊl/ *noun* [C] SPORT something that someone does in a sport that is not allowed by the rules

ˌ**foul** ˈ**play** *noun* [U] LAW when someone's death is caused by a violent crime

found[1] /faʊnd/ *verb* [T] **1** START to start an organization, especially by providing money *The company was founded in 1861.* **2** BASE to base something on a set of ideas or beliefs [often passive] *a society **founded on** principles of equality*

found[2] /faʊnd/ *past of* find

foundation /faʊnˈdeɪʃən/ *noun* **1** IDEA [C] the idea or principle that something is based on *Jefferson's document **formed the foundation of** a new nation.* **2** STARTING [U] when an organization, state, or country is established *the foundation of a new state* **3** ORGANIZATION [C] an organization that gives money for a particular purpose *the Mental Health Foundation* **4 foundations** [plural] *UK* (*US* **foundation** [C]) the part of a building, road, bridge, etc that is under the ground and supports it *concrete foundations* **5** MAKE-UP [U] make-up that is worn all over the face to give it a smooth appearance **6 be without foundation; have no foundation** If something is without foundation, there is no proof that it is true. *The allegations are completely without foundation.* **7 lay the foundation(s) for/of sth** to provide the conditions that make it possible for something to happen *His reforms laid the foundation of future greatness.*

fouˈndation ˌ**course** *UK* (*US* **introductory course**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a college or university course on a subject that students take to prepare them for a more advanced course on that subject

founder /ˈfaʊndər/ *noun* [C] someone who establishes an organization

foundry /ˈfaʊndri/ *noun* [C] a place where metal or glass is melted and made into objects

fountain /ˈfaʊntɪn/ *noun* [C] a structure that forces water up into the air as a decoration

ˈ**fountain ˌpen** *noun* [C] a pen that you fill with ink

four /fɔːr/ the number 4

four-by-four /ˌfɔːbaɪˈfɔːr/ a four-wheel drive

fours /fɔːz/ *noun* **on all fours** with your hands and knees on the ground

foursome /ˈfɔːsəm/ *noun* [C] a group of four people *We could go out as a foursome.*

fourteen /ˌfɔːˈtiːn/ the number 14 ●**fourteenth** 14th written as a word

fourth¹ /fɔːθ/ 4th written as a word

fourth² /fɔːθ/ *US* (*UK/US* **quarter**) *noun* [C] one of four equal parts of something; 1/4

ˌ**Fourth of Juˈly** (*also* **Independence Day**) *noun* [U] 4 July, a national holiday in the US to celebrate the country's freedom from Great Britain in 1776

ˌ**four-wheel ˈdrive** (*written abbreviation* **4WD**) *noun* [C] a vehicle with an engine that supplies power to all four wheels so that it can drive easily over rough ground ●**four-wheel ˈdrive** *adjective a four-wheel drive car*

fovea /ˈfəʊviə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a small part at the back of the retina (= part of the eye that sends pictures to the brain) that is the area with the clearest sight

fowl /faʊl/ *noun* [C] *plural* **fowl** or **fowls** **FOOD** a bird that is kept for its eggs and meat, especially a chicken

fox /fɒks/ *noun* [C] a wild animal like a dog with red-brown fur, a pointed nose, and a long thick tail

foyer /ˈfɔɪeɪ/ US /ˈfɔɪər/ *noun* [C] a room at the entrance of a hotel, theatre, cinema, etc

fracas /ˈfrækɑː/ US /ˈfreɪkəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] a noisy fight or argument

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fraction***

a **minute/small/tiny** fraction of sth ● a fraction **of** sth

fraction /ˈfrækʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** **MATHEMATICS** a number less than 1, such as 1/2 or 3/4 ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 22. **2** a very small number or amount *a fraction of a second* ●**fractionally** *adverb* by a very small amount *Harry is fractionally taller than Ben.*

fractional distillation /ˌfrækʃᵊnᵊlˌdɪstɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the process of separating parts of a liquid by heating it gradually so that different parts become gas, rise up, then turn back into liquid that can be collected as they cool

fracture /ˈfræktʃər/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to break something hard such as a bone, or a piece of rock *She's fractured her ankle.* ●**fracture** *noun* [C]

fragile /ˈfrædʒaɪl/ US /ˈfrædʒᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BREAK easily broken, damaged, or destroyed *a fragile china cup* ○ *a fragile economy* **2** PERSON physically or emotionally weak *a fragile little girl* ●**fragility** /frəˈdʒɪlətɪ/ *noun* [U]

fragment¹ /ˈfrægmənt/ *noun* [C] a small piece of something *fragments of pottery*

fragment² /frægˈment/ *verb* [I, T] to break something into small parts, or to be broken in this way *The opposition has fragmented into a number of small groups.* ●**fragmented** *adjective a fragmented society*

fragrance /ˈfreɪgrəns/ *noun* [C, U] **1** SMELL a pleasant smell *the delicate fragrance of roses* **2** SUBSTANCE a substance which people put on their bodies to make themselves smell nice

fragrant /ˈfreɪgrənt/ *adjective* with a pleasant smell *fragrant flowers*

frail /freɪl/ *adjective* not strong or healthy *a frail old lady*

frailty /ˈfreɪlti/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is physically or morally weak

frame¹ /freɪm/ *noun* [C] **1** PICTURE a structure that goes around the edge of something such as a door, picture, window, or mirror *a picture frame* ○ *a window frame* **2** STRUCTURE the basic structure of a building, vehicle, or piece of furniture that other parts are added onto *a bicycle frame* **3** BODY the shape of someone's body *his large/small frame* **4 frame of mind** the way someone feels at a particular time *She was in a more positive frame of mind today.*

frame² /freɪm/ *verb* [T] **1** PICTURE to put something such as a picture into a frame *I'm going to frame this and put it on the wall.* **2** EDGE to form an edge to something in an attractive way *Dark hair framed her face.* **3** CRIME to intentionally make it seem as if someone is guilty of a crime [**often passive**] *He claimed he had been framed by the police.* **4** EXPRESS *formal* to express something choosing your words carefully *I tried to frame a suitable reply.*

frames /freɪmz/ *noun* [**plural**] the plastic or metal structure that holds together a pair of glasses

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***framework***

create/develop/establish/provide a framework ● a framework **for** (doing) sth

framework /ˈfreɪmwɜːk/ *noun* [C] **1** SYSTEM a system of rules, ideas, or beliefs that is used to plan or decide something *a legal framework for resolving disputes* **2** STRUCTURE the basic structure that supports something such as a vehicle or building and gives it its shape

franchise /ˈfrænʃaɪz/ *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS** [C] the right to sell a company's products or services in a particular area using the company's name *a fast food franchise* **2** **POLITICS** [U] the legal right to vote in elections

franchisee /ˌfræntʃaɪˈziː/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a person or company that has the right to sell a company's products or services in a particular area using the company's name

franchiser /ˈfræntʃaɪzər/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a business that sells the right to sell a company's products or services in a particular area using the company's name

frank /fræŋk/ *adjective* speaking honestly and saying what you really think *a full and frank*

discussion ○ ***To be frank***, *I don't really want to see him.* ●**frankness** *noun* [U]

frankfurter /ˈfræŋkfɜːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a long, thin sausage (= tube of meat and spices), often eaten with bread

frankly /ˈfræŋkli/ *adverb* in an honest and direct way ***Quite frankly***, *I think you're making a big mistake.*

frantic /ˈfræntɪk/ *adjective* **1** FAST done in a fast and excited way and not calm or organized *a frantic search* **2** WORRIED very worried or frightened *frantic calls for help* ○ *I got home to find Joe* ***frantic with*** *worry.* ●**frantically** *adverb Laura was searching frantically for her keys.*

fraternal /frəˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* like or relating to a brother

fraternity /frəˈtɜːnəti/ *noun* **1** [U] a feeling of friendship between people **2** **EDUCATION** [C] in the US, a social organization of male college students

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fraud***

commit fraud ● a fraud **case/charge/investigation**

fraud /frɔːd/ *noun* **1** **LAW** [U] when someone does something illegal in order to get money *credit card fraud* **2** [C] someone who deceives people by pretending to be someone or something that they are not

fraudulent /ˈfrɔːdjələnt/ *adjective formal* dishonest and illegal *fraudulent insurance claims* ●**fraudulently** *adverb*

fraught /frɔːt/ *adjective* **1 fraught with danger/difficulties, etc** full of danger/difficulties, etc *The present situation is fraught with danger.* **2** *mainly UK* causing worry, or feeling worried *a fraught silence*

fray¹ /freɪ/ *verb* **1** CLOTH [I, T] If material or clothing frays, or if it is frayed, the threads at the edge break and become loose. **2** ANNOYED [I] If your temper (= mood) frays or your nerves fray, you gradually become annoyed or upset. *After hours of waiting,* ***tempers*** *were beginning to* ***fray***.

fray² /freɪ/ *noun* **enter/join, etc the fray** to start taking part in an argument or fight *The time had come for the US to enter the fray.*

freak¹ /friːk/ *noun* [C] **1** INTEREST *informal* someone who is very interested in a particular subject or activity *My brother's a bit of a computer freak.* **2** STRANGE someone who looks strange or behaves in a strange way *They made me feel like a freak.*

freak² /friːk/ *adjective* **a freak accident/storm, etc** A freak event is one that is very unusual.

freak³ /friːk/ (*also* **freak out**) *verb* [I, T] *informal* to suddenly become very angry, frightened, or surprised, or to make someone do this *I hated that film, it totally freaked me out.*

freckle /ˈfrekl/ *noun* [C] a very small, brown spot on your skin from the sun ●**freckled** *adjective*

free¹ /friː/ *adjective* **1** NOT CONTROLLED able to live, happen, or exist without being controlled by anyone or anything *free trade* ○ *a free society* [+ **to do sth**] *People should be free to say what they think.* **2** NO COST not costing any money *a free sample of perfume* ○ *Entry is free for children under 12.* ○ *The unemployed get their prescriptions* ***free of charge***. **3** NOT A PRISONER not in prison or in a cage *He opened the cage and* ***set*** *the birds* ***free***. **4** NOT BUSY not busy doing anything *Are you free this evening?* ○ *I don't have much* ***free time***. **5** NOT USED not being used by anyone *Is this seat free?* **6** **CHEMISTRY** If an element is free, it is not combined with anything else or attached to anything else. **7 free from/of sth** not containing or having anything harmful or unpleasant *a life free from pain* **8 feel free** something that you say in order to tell someone that they are allowed to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Please feel free to ask questions.* ➲See also: **duty-free,** a free **hand¹**, free **rein**, **tax-free, toll-free**

free² /friː/ *adverb* **1** NO COST without cost or payment *Children under five travel free.* ○ *He offered to do it* ***for free***. **2** NOT CONTROLLED in a way that is not tied, limited, or controlled *She* ***broke free*** *from his grasp and ran away.*

free³ /friː/ *verb* [T] **freeing**, *past* **freed 1** ALLOW TO LEAVE to allow someone to leave a prison or place where they have been kept *The last hostages were finally freed yesterday.* **2** GET OUT to get someone out of a situation or place that they cannot escape from *Firefighters worked for two hours to* ***free*** *the driver* ***from*** *the wreckage.* **3** TAKE AWAY to help someone by taking something unpleasant away from them *The book's success* ***freed*** *her* ***from*** *her financial worries.* **4** MAKE AVAILABLE (*also* **free up**) to make something available for someone to use *I need to free up some space for these files.*

-free /friː/ *suffix* used at the end of words to mean 'without' or 'not containing' *sugarfree gum* ○ *an interest-free loan*

freebie /ˈfriːbi/ *noun* [C] *informal* something that you are given, usually by a company, and do not have to pay for

ˌfree collective ˈbargaining *noun* [U] when workers and their employers talk formally about pay, working hours, etc. in a way that is not limited by the law or government

Freecycle /ˈfriːsaɪkl/ *verb* [T, I] *trademark* to use a local Freecycle email group to give away things that you do not want now ●**freecycler** *noun* [C]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***freedom***

be given/have the freedom to do sth ● freedom **of choice/of expression/of movement/of speech**

freedom /ˈfriːdəm/ *noun* **1** RIGHT [C, U] the right to live in the way you want, say what you think, and make your own decisions without being controlled by anyone else *religious freedom* ○ ***freedom of choice/speech*** [+ **to do sth**] *You have the freedom to do what you want to do.* **2 freedom from sth** a situation in which you are not suffering because of something unpleasant or harmful *freedom from fear/poverty* **3** STATE [U] when someone is no longer a prisoner

ˌfree ˈenterprise *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** when trade and business is allowed to operate without much control from the government

freehand /ˈfriːhænd/ *adjective*, *adverb* **ART** describes a drawing which has been done only by hand, without using any special equipment

ˌfree ˈkick *noun* [C] **SPORT** a kick that a player in a football match is allowed to take after a player from the other team has broken the rules

freelance /ˈfriːlɑːns/ *adjective*, *adverb* working for several different organizations, and paid according to the hours you work *a freelance photographer* ○ *Most of our producers work freelance.* ●**freelance** *verb* [I] ●**freelancer** *noun* [C]

freely /ˈfriːli/ *adverb* **1** NOT CONTROLLED without being controlled or limited *For the first time in months she could move freely.* ○ *Exotic foods are* ***freely available*** *in supermarkets.* **2** WILLINGLY If you freely admit something, you are very willing to agree that it is true. *I* ***freely admit*** *that I was wrong about him.*

ˌfree ˈmarket *noun* [**no plural**] **ECONOMICS** when the government does not control prices and trade *a free-market economy*

freephone /ˈfriːfəʊn/ *UK* (*US* **toll-free**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] A freephone number is a telephone number that you can connect to without paying.

ˌfree ˈradical *noun* [**C usually plural**] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** an atom or molecule that is missing one electron (= small piece of atom with a negative electrical charge) and is therefore very quick to react with other atoms and molecules

free-range /ˌfriːˈreɪndʒ/ *adjective* **FOOD, FARMING** relating to or produced by farm animals that are allowed to move around outside and are not kept in cages ***free-range eggs***

freesheet /ˈfriːʃiːt/ *noun* [C] a free newspaper

ˌfree ˈspeech *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the right to express your opinions in public

ˌfree ˈtrade *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a way to buy and sell products between countries, without limits on the amount of goods that can be bought and sold, and without special taxes on the goods ➲Compare **fair trade**

freeware /ˈfriːweər/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** computer software that you do not have to pay for, for example from the Internet

freeway /ˈfriːweɪ/ *US* (*UK* **motorway**) *noun* [C] a long, wide road, usually used by traffic travelling fast over long distances

ˌfree ˈwill *noun* **1** [U] when people choose and decide what they want to do in their own lives **2 do sth of your own free will** to do something because you want to, not because someone forces you to *She had gone there of her own free will.*

O-key **freeze¹** /friːz/ *verb past tense* **froze**, *past participle* **frozen 1** ICE [I, T] If something freezes or is frozen, it becomes hard and solid because it is very cold. *The river had frozen overnight.* ○ *Water freezes at 0° Celsius.* **2 FOOD** [I, T] to make food last a long time by making it very cold and hard *You can freeze any cakes that you have left over.* **3** PERSON [I] to feel very cold *One of the climbers* ***froze to death*** *on the mountain.* **4** NOT MOVE [I] to suddenly stop moving, especially because you are frightened *She saw someone outside the window and froze.* **5 - ECONOMICS** [T] to fix the level of something such as a price or rate so that it does not increase

freeze² /friːz/ *noun* **1** LEVEL [C] when the level of something such as a price or rate is fixed so that it does not increase *a pay freeze* **2** PROCESS [C] when a process is stopped for a period of time *an immediate freeze on all new building in the city* **3** COLD [**no plural**] *informal* a period of extremely cold weather

freezer /ˈfriːzər/ *noun* [C] a large container operated by electricity in which food can be frozen and stored ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

freezing¹ /ˈfriːzɪŋ/ *adjective informal* very cold *It's absolutely freezing in here.*

freezing² /ˈfriːzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **MEASURES, PHYSICS** the temperature at which water freezes *It was five degrees* ***below/above freezing***.

ˈfreezing ˌpoint *noun* [C, U] **MEASURES, PHYSICS** the temperature at which a liquid freezes

freight /freɪt/ *noun* [U] goods that are carried by trains, trucks, ships, or aircraft

freighter /ˈfreɪtər/ *noun* [C] a large ship or aircraft that carries goods

ˈfrench ˌfries *US* (*UK* **chips**) *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** long, thin pieces of potato that have been cooked in hot oil ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

ˌFrench ˈknickers *noun* [**plural**] women's loose underwear that covers all the bottom ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

ˌFrench ˈwindows (*also* **ˌFrench ˈdoors**) *noun* [**plural**] a pair of glass doors that usually open into a garden

frenetic /frəˈnetɪk/ *adjective* fast and exciting in an uncontrolled way ***a frenetic pace*** ○ ***frenetic activity***

frenzied /ˈfrenzɪd/ *adjective* wild and uncontrolled *a frenzied dance*

frenzy /ˈfrenzi/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] when you are so excited, nervous, or anxious that you cannot control what you are doing *She hit him in a frenzy of rage.*

frequency /ˈfriːkwənsi/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the number of times something happens in a particular period, or the fact that something happens often or a large number of times *The* ***frequency of*** *attacks seems to have increased recently.* **2 PHYSICS** the rate at which a sound wave or radio wave is repeated *the very high frequencies of a television signal*

O-key **frequent¹** /ˈfriːkwənt/ *adjective* happening often *He is a frequent visitor to the US.*

frequent² /frɪˈkwent/ (US) /ˈfriːkwent/ *verb* [T] to go to a place often *a bar frequented by criminals*

O-key **frequently** /ˈfriːkwəntli/ *adverb formal* often *a frequently asked question*

O-key **fresh** /freʃ/ *adjective* **1** DIFFERENT new or different from what was there before *We're looking for fresh ideas.* ○ *They decided to move abroad and* ***make a fresh start***. **2 FOOD** Fresh food has been produced or collected recently and has not been frozen, dried, etc. *fresh fruit/vegetables* ○ *fresh bread* **3** CLEAN/COOL smelling

F

clean or feeling pleasantly cool *a fresh breeze* ○ *a fresh smell* **4 fresh air** air outside buildings that is clean and cool *Let's go outside and get some fresh air*. **5 fresh water** water from lakes, rivers, etc that has no salt in it **6** NOT TIRED having a lot of energy and not feeling tired *We got up the next day feeling fresh and relaxed*. **7** SKIN Fresh skin looks healthy. *a fresh complexion* **8** RECENT recently made or done and not yet changed by time *The memory of the accident is still very fresh in my mind*. **9 fresh from/out of sth** having just left a place *The new French teacher's fresh out of college*. ●**freshness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: a **breath** of fresh air

F

freshen /ˈfreʃᵊn/ *verb*
freshen up *phrasal verb* to quickly wash yourself so that you feel clean *Would you like to freshen up before dinner?*
freshen sth up *phrasal verb* to make something look cleaner and more attractive *A coat of paint would help to freshen this place up*.

fresher /ˈfreʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* EDUCATION a student in the first year of university

freshly /ˈfreʃli/ *adverb* recently ***freshly baked*** *bread*

freshman /ˈfreʃmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **freshmen** *US* EDUCATION a student in the first year of a course at a US college, university, or high school (= school for students aged 15 to 18)

freshwater /ˈfreʃwɔːtəʳ/ *adjective* relating to water that is not salty *freshwater fish*

fret /fret/ *verb* [I] **fretting**, *past* **fretted** to be anxious or worried *There's no point in* ***fretting about*** *what you cannot change*. ●**fretful** *adjective* anxious and unhappy

Fri *written abbreviation for* Friday

friar /fraɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a member of a religious group of men

friction /ˈfrɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** PHYSICS when a surface rubs against something, often making movement more difficult **2** when people argue or disagree, often over a long period of time *There's a lot of* ***friction between*** *my wife and my mother*.

Friday /ˈfraɪdeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Fri**) *noun* [C, U] the day of the week after Thursday and before Saturday ➲See also: **Good Friday**

fridge /frɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a large container that uses electricity to keep food cold ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 ➲See picture at **CFC**

fridge-freezer /ˌfrɪdʒˈfriːzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment for storing food that has two parts: a fridge (= a container that keeps food cold) and a freezer (= a container that keeps food frozen)

fried /fraɪd/ *adjective* FOOD cooked in hot oil or fat *a fried egg* ➲See also: **deep-fried**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***friend***

sb's **best** friend ● a **close/good** friend ● a **family** friend ● an **old** friend ● a friend **of mine**

friend /frend/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who you know well and like *Sarah's my* ***best friend*** (= the friend I like most). ○ *Gordon is a* ***friend of mine***. **2 an old friend** someone who you have known and liked for a long time **3 be friends (with sb)** to know and like someone *I have been friends with Jo for years*. **4 make friends (with sb)** to begin to know and like someone *He's shy and finds it difficult to make friends*. **5** INTERNET a person you write to on an Internet site

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***friend***

The words **chum**, **mate** (*UK*), and **pal** are all informal words for 'friend': *Pete was there with a couple of his* ***mates***.

An **old friend** is someone you have known and liked for many years: *Rachel is one of my* ***oldest friends***.

An **acquaintance** is someone you know, but do not know well: *He had a few business* ***acquaintances***.

A **confidant** is a friend whom you can talk to about your feelings and secrets: *Sarah was my* ***confidant*** *throughout this period and I told her everything*.

A group of friends with similar interests are sometimes described informally as a **crowd**: *"Who was there?" "Oh, you know, Dave, Fiona and all that* ***crowd***."

The informal word **crony** is sometimes used disapprovingly to describe one of a group of friends who help each other in an unfair way: *He always gives his* ***cronies*** *all the best jobs*.

friendly¹ /ˈfrendli/ *adjective* **1** behaving in a pleasant, kind way towards someone *a* ***friendly face/smile*** ○ *The other students have been very* ***friendly to*** *us*. ➲Opposite **unfriendly** **2 be friendly with sb** to know and like someone ●**friendliness** *noun* [U]

friendly² /ˈfrendli/ *noun* [C] *UK* SPORT a sports match that is not part of an official competition

-friendly /ˈfrendli/ *suffix* **1** NOT HARMFUL used at the end of words to mean 'not harmful' ***environmentally-friendly*** *detergent* **2** SUITABLE used at the end of words to mean 'suitable for particular people to use' *a family-friendly restaurant* ➲See also: **user-friendly**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***friendship***

strike up a friendship ● a **close** friendship ● sb's friendship **with** sb ● a friendship **between** sb **and** sb

friendship /ˈfrendʃɪp/ *noun* [C, U] when two people are friends *a close friendship*

fries /fraɪz/ *mainly US* (*also UK* **chips**) *noun* [**plural**] FOOD long, thin pieces of potato that have been cooked in hot oil

frieze /friːz/ *noun* [C] ART an area of decoration along a wall

frigate /ˈfrɪgət/ *noun* [C] a small, fast military ship

fright /fraɪt/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] a sudden feeling of shock and fear *That dog* ***gave me a*** *terrible* ***fright***. ○ *She screamed* ***in fright*** *when she saw him*.

frighten /ˈfraɪtᵊn/ *verb* [T] to make someone afraid or nervous *It frightens me when he drives so fast*. ➲See also: scare/frighten the (living) **daylights** out of sb, scare/frighten sb out of their **wits**

frighten sb away/off *phrasal verb* to make a person or animal afraid or nervous so that they go away

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***frightened***

The adjectives **afraid** and **scared** are common alternatives to 'frightened': *She's very **afraid** of dogs.* ● *Gerry has always been **scared** of heights.*

If someone is extremely frightened, then you can use adjectives like **petrified**, **terrified**, **panic-stricken**, or the informal phrase **scared to death**: *I'm **terrified** of flying.* ● *She was **panic-stricken** when her little boy disappeared.* ● *He's **scared to death** of having the operation.*

If someone is frightened because they are worrying about something, then you can use the adjectives **afraid** and **worried**: *I'm **afraid/worried** that something will go wrong.*

If someone is frightened about something that might happen in the future, you can use the adjectives **apprehensive** or **uneasy**: *He's a bit **apprehensive** about living away from home.*

frightened /ˈfraɪtᵊnd/ *adjective* afraid or nervous *I've always been **frightened of** going to the dentist.* [+ **(that)**] *Gerry was frightened that people would laugh at him.*

frightening /ˈfraɪtᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel afraid or nervous *a very frightening film* ●**frighteningly** *adverb*

frightful /ˈfraɪtfᵊl/ *adjective UK old-fashioned* very bad *The house was in a frightful mess.*

frightfully /ˈfraɪtfᵊli/ *adverb UK old-fashioned* very *They're frightfully rich, you know.*

frigid /ˈfrɪdʒɪd/ *adjective* **1** SEX not enjoying sexual activity, usually said about a woman **2** UNFRIENDLY *literary* not friendly or emotional

frill /frɪl/ *noun* **1** [C] a strip of material with a lot of folds which is used to decorate the edge of cloth **2 frills** extra things that are added to something to make it nicer or more attractive, but that are not really necessary *a cheap, **no frills** airline service*

frilly /ˈfrɪli/ *adjective* with a lot of frills *a frilly dress*

fringe¹ /frɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** HAIR *UK* (*US* **bangs** [**plural**]) hair that is cut short and straight at the top of someone's face **2** DECORATION loose threads that hang along the edge of cloth as a decoration **3** EDGE the outside edge of an area, group, or subject and not the main part

fringe² /frɪndʒ/ *verb* **be fringed with sth** If a place or object is fringed with something, that thing forms a border along the edge. *The river is fringed with wild flowers.*

fringe³ /frɪndʒ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not belonging to the main part of a group, activity, or subject ***fringe politics/theatre***

ˌfringe ˈbenefit *noun* [C] something extra that you get from your employer in addition to money [**usually plural**] *fringe benefits such as private health care*

Frisbee /ˈfrɪzbi/ *noun* [C] *trademark* SPORT a circular piece of plastic with a curved edge which people throw to each other as a game

frisk /frɪsk/ *verb* **1** TOUCH [T] to move your hands over someone's body to discover if they are hiding something such as a weapon *There were guards frisking people as they went into the building.* **2** MOVE [I] to run and jump happily like a young animal

frisky /ˈfrɪski/ *adjective* energetic and wanting to be active or play *a frisky puppy*

fritter /ˈfrɪtəʳ/ *verb*
fritter sth away *phrasal verb* to waste money or time on something that is not important

frivolity /frɪˈvɒləti/ *noun* [C, U] when people are being silly and not being serious

frivolous /ˈfrɪvᵊləs/ *adjective* silly and not serious ●**frivolously** *adverb*

frizzy /ˈfrɪzi/ *adjective* Frizzy hair has a lot of very small, tight curls.

fro /frəʊ/ *adverb* ➲See: **to³** and fro

frog /frɒg/ *noun* [C] a small, green animal with long back legs for jumping that lives in or near water

frogman /ˈfrɒgmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **frogmen** someone whose job is to swim under water wearing a rubber suit and using special breathing equipment ***Police frogmen** are searching the lake.*

from *strong form* /frɒm/ *weak form* /frəm/ *preposition* **1** STARTING PLACE used to show the place, time, or level that someone or something started at *Did you walk all the way from Bond Street?* ○ *The museum is open from 9.30 to 6.00, Tuesday to Sunday.* ○ *Prices start from £5,595.* **2** HOME used to say where someone was born, or where someone lives or works *His mother's originally from Poland.* ○ *Our speaker tonight is from the BBC.* **3** DISTANCE used to say how far away something is *Their holiday cottage is about 15 kilometres from the coast.* **4** GIVING used to say who gave or sent something to someone *Have you had a Christmas card from Faye yet?* **5** REMOVING If you take something from a person, place, or amount, you take it away. *Two from ten leaves eight.* ○ *We had to borrow some money from my father to pay the bill.* **6** PRODUCED used to say where something was produced or grown *These vegetables are fresh from the garden.* **7** MATERIAL used to say what something is made of *juice made from oranges* **8** AVOID used to show something that you want to avoid or prevent *There's a bar across the front to prevent you from falling out.* **9** POSITION used to show where you are when you look at something or how you see something *The view from the top was absolutely breathtaking.* **10** REASON used to say why you think or believe something *I guessed from her accent that she must be French.* ○ *From what I've heard, the new exam is going to be a lot more difficult.* **11** CAUSE used to say what causes something *Deaths from heart disease continue to rise every year.* ○ *He was rushed to hospital **suffering from** severe burns.* **12** COMPARE used when you are saying how similar or different two things, people, or places are *University is very different from school.* **13 a week/**

six months/ten years, etc from now a week/six months/ten years, etc after the time when you are speaking *Who knows what we'll all be doing five years from now?* **14 from now/then, etc on** starting now/then, etc and continuing into the future *They were good friends from that day on.*

front¹ /frʌnt/ *noun* **1 the front a** MOST IMPORTANT SIDE the side of something that is most important or most often seen because it faces forward *You need to write the address clearly **on the front of** the envelope.* ○ *There was blood on the front of his shirt.* **b** FORWARD PART the part of something that is furthest forward *We asked to sit **in the front of** the plane.* ○ *He was standing right **at the front**.* **2 in front a** FURTHER FORWARD further forward than someone or something else *She started a conversation with the man sitting **in front of** her.* **b** WINNING winning in a game or competition *By half time the Italians were well in front.* **3 in front of a** NEAR close to the front part of something *He parked the car in front of the house.* **b** SEEING/HEARING where someone can see or hear you *Please don't swear in front of the children.* **4** BEHAVIOUR [C] when someone behaves in a way that hides how they really feel [**usually singular**] Many parents decide to stay together, ***putting up** a **front** for the children's sake.* **5** ILLEGAL ACTIVITY [C] an organization or activity that is used to hide a different, illegal activity [**usually singular**] Police discovered the restaurant was just a front for a drugs operation. **6 the front** an area of land where soldiers fight during a war *Thousands of young men were sent to the front to fight.* **7 on the business/jobs/politics, etc front** in a particular area of activity *How are things on the work front at the moment?* **8** WEATHER [C] a line where warm air meets cold air affecting the weather *A cold front is moving across the Atlantic.*

front² /frʌnt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] in or at the front of something *the front door/garden* ○ *the front page of the newspaper*

frontal /ˈfrʌnt°l/ *adjective* **1** relating to the front of something **2 a frontal attack/assault** when you criticize or attack someone or something in a very strong and direct way

frontier /frʌnˈtɪə˞/ *noun* **1** [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a line or border between two countries **2 the frontiers of sth** the limits of what is known or what has been done before in an area of knowledge or activity *the frontiers of science and technology*

ˌfront ˈline *noun* **the front line a** the place where soldiers fight in a war **b** a position of direct and important influence *doctors working **in the front line** of medicine* ●**front-line** /ˈfrʌntlaɪn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *front-line troops*

front-page /ˈfrʌntˌpeɪdʒ/ *adjective* **front-page news/story, etc** news that is very important and suitable for the front page of a newspaper

front-runner /ˌfrʌntˈrʌnə˞/ (US) /ˈfrʌntˌrʌnə˞/ *noun* [C] the person or organization that will most probably win something

frost¹ /frɒst/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [U] a thin, white layer of ice that forms on surfaces, especially at night, when it is very cold **2** COLD [C] when the temperature is cold and water freezes *We're expecting a **hard frost** tonight.*

frost² /frɒst/ *US* (*UK/US* **ice**) *verb* [T] **FOOD** to cover a cake with frosting (= sweet mixture used to cover cakes)

frostbite /ˈfrɒstbaɪt/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when extreme cold injures your fingers and toes

frosted /ˈfrɒstɪd/ *adjective* Frosted glass has a special surface so that you cannot see through it.

frosting /ˈfrɒstɪŋ/ *US* (*UK/US* **icing**) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sweet mixture used to cover or fill cakes, made from sugar and water or sugar and butter

frosty /ˈfrɒsti/ *adjective* **1** COLD very cold, with a thin layer of white ice covering everything *a frosty morning* **2** NOT FRIENDLY not friendly *She gave me a very frosty look.*

froth /frɒθ/ *noun* [U] small, white bubbles such as on the surface of a liquid ●**froth** *verb* [I] ●**frothy** *adjective* ***frothy coffee***

frown¹ /fraʊn/ *verb* [I] to make your face show that you are annoyed or worried by moving your eyebrows (= lines of hair above your eyes) *She frowned when I mentioned his name.* **frown on/upon sth** *phrasal verb* to think that something is wrong and that you should not do it [**often passive**] *Smoking is frowned upon in many public places.*

frown² /fraʊn/ *noun* [C] the expression on your face when you frown *He looked at me with a puzzled frown.*

froze /frəʊz/ *past tense of* freeze

frozen¹ /ˈfrəʊz°n/ *adjective* **1 FOOD** Frozen food has been made so that it will last a long time by freezing. *frozen peas* **2** WATER turned into ice *The pond was frozen and people were skating on it.* **3** PERSON *informal* extremely cold *Is there any heating in here? I'm frozen!*

frozen² /ˈfrəʊz°n/ *past participle of* freeze

fructose /ˈfrʊktəʊs/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY** a type of sugar that you find in honey and many fruits

frugal /ˈfruːg°l/ *adjective* careful not to spend very much money

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fruit***

dried/fresh fruit ● a **piece of** fruit ● fruit **juice** ● **citrus/tropical** fruit

fruit /fruːt/ *noun* **1 BIOLOGY, FOOD** [C, U] something such as an apple or orange that grows on a tree or a bush, contains seeds, and can be eaten as food ***dried/fresh fruit*** ○ *fruit juice* ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 **2 the fruit(s) of sth** the good result of someone's work or actions *This book is the fruit of 15 years' research.* **3 bear fruit** If something that someone does bears fruit, it produces successful results. *Our decision is just beginning to bear fruit.* ➲See also: **citrus fruit**

fruitful /ˈfruːtf°l/ *adjective* producing good or useful results *We had a very fruitful discussion.*

fruition /fruˈɪʃ°n/ *noun* [U] *formal* when a plan or an idea really begins to happen, exist, or be

successful *The plan never really* ***came to fruition****.*

fruitless /ˈfruːtləs/ *adjective* not successful or achieving good results *a long and* ***fruitless search***

fruity /ˈfruːti/ *adjective* **FOOD** smelling or tasting of fruit *a fruity wine/taste*

frustrate /frʌsˈtreɪt/ (US) /ˈfrʌstreɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ANNOY to make someone feel annoyed because things are not happening in the way that they want, or in the way that they should *It really frustrates me when she arrives late for meetings.* **2** PREVENT to prevent someone from achieving something, or to prevent something from happening *They have frustrated all our attempts to find a solution to this problem.*

frustrated /frʌsˈtreɪtɪd/ (US) /ˈfrʌstreɪtɪd/ *adjective* annoyed because things are not happening in the way that you want, or in the way that they should *I'm very* ***frustrated at/with*** *my lack of progress.*

frustrating /frʌsˈtreɪtɪŋ/ (US) /ˈfrʌstreɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel frustrated *a frustrating situation*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***frustration***

sheer frustration • **in** frustration • frustration **at** (doing) sth

frustration /frʌsˈtreɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U] the feeling of being annoyed because things are not happening in the way that you want, or in the way that they should *I could sense his* ***frustration at*** *not being able to help.*

frustum /ˈfrʌstəm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the part of a solid shape such as a cone that is between the base of the shape and parallel plane (= layer) through the shape or between two parallel layers through the shape

fry /fraɪ/ *verb* [I, T] **FOOD** to cook something in hot oil or fat or to be cooked in hot oil or fat *Fry the onions in a little butter.* ➲See picture at **cook**

ˈfrying ˌpan *noun* [C] a flat, metal pan with a long handle that is used for frying food ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

ft **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* foot (= a unit for measuring length)

the FTSE 100 Index /ˌfʊtsiwʌnˌhʌndrədˈɪn.deks/ (*trademark, informal* **the Footsie**) *noun* [**no plural**] **ECONOMICS** a number which shows the value of the share prices of the hundred most important British companies, which is published by the Financial Times, a British newspaper *The FTSE 100 Index closed 31.6 points down at 2459.3 in today's trading.*

fudge¹ /fʌdʒ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a soft sweet food made from butter, sugar, and milk

fudge² /fʌdʒ/ *verb informal* **1** AVOID ANSWER [T] *UK* to avoid making a decision or giving a clear answer about something *The government continues to* ***fudge*** *the* ***issue****.* **2** SLIGHTLY CHEAT [I, T] *US* to slightly cheat, often by not telling the exact truth *He* ***fudged on*** *his income tax return.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fuel***

fuel **bills/consumption/prices/supplies** • fuel **efficiency**

O-K **fuel¹** /ˈfjuːəl/ *noun* [C, U] a substance that is burned to provide heat or power *The plane ran out of fuel and had to land at sea.*

fuel² /ˈfjuːəl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **fuelling**, *past* **fuelled**, *US* **fueling**, *past* **fueled** to make people's ideas or feelings stronger, or to make a situation worse *Newspaper reports are* ***fuelling fears*** *about GM foods.*

fugitive /ˈfjuːdʒətɪv/ *noun* [C] someone who is escaping or hiding from the police or from a dangerous situation

fulcrum /ˈfʊlkrəm/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **PHYSICS** the point at which a bar, or something that is balancing, is supported or turns ➲See picture at **lever**

fulfil *UK* (*US* **fulfill**) /fʊlˈfɪl/ *verb* **fulfilling**, *past* **fulfilled** **1 fulfil a duty/promise/responsibility, etc** to do something that you have promised to do or that you are expected to do *He has failed to fulfil his duties as a father.* **2 fulfil an ambition/dream/goal, etc** to do something that you really wanted to do **3 fulfil a function/need/role, etc** to do something that is necessary or useful *You seem to fulfil a very useful role in the organization.* **4 fulfil criteria/requirements/qualifications, etc** to have all the qualities that are wanted or needed for something *You have to fulfil certain requirements to qualify for the competition.*

fulfilled /fʊlˈfɪld/ *adjective* feeling happy that you are receiving everything that you want from your life ➲Opposite **unfulfilled**

fulfilling /fʊlˈfɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is fulfilling, it satisfies you and makes you happy. *a fulfilling job*

fulfilment *UK* (*US* **fulfillment**) /fʊlˈfɪlmənt/ *noun* [U] **1** PLEASURE a feeling of pleasure because you are receiving or achieving what you want *I hope that you'll find happiness and fulfilment in your life together.* **2** SOMETHING DONE when someone does something necessary or something that they have wanted or promised to do *Being here is the* ***fulfilment of*** *a lifelong ambition.*

O-K **full¹** /fʊl/ *adjective* **1** NO MORE POSSIBLE If a container or a space is full, it contains as many things or people as possible or as much of something as possible. *We couldn't get in, the cinema was full.* ○ *The shelves were* ***full of*** *books.* **2** A LOT containing a lot of things or people or a lot of something *The room was* ***full of*** *people.* ○ *His face was full of anger.* **3** COMPLETE [**always before noun**] complete and including every part *Please give your full name and address.* **4 full speed/strength/volume, etc** the greatest speed, strength, volume, etc possible *We were driving at full speed.* ○ *She got full marks in the test.* **5 be full of yourself** to think that you are very important **6 be full of sth** to be talking or thinking a lot about a particular thing *He's full of stories about his holiday.* **7** FOOD *informal* (*also UK* **full up**) having eaten enough food *No more for me, thanks, I'm full.* **8 a full face/figure** a face or body shape that is

large and round ➲See also: have your hands (**hand**[1]) full, be in full **swing**[2]

full[2] /fʊl/ *noun* **1 in full** completely and with nothing missing *The speech will be published in full in tomorrow's newspaper.* **2 to the full** *mainly UK* as much or as well as possible *She certainly **lived life to the full**.*

full-blown /ˈfʊlˌbləʊn/ *adjective* completely developed *a full-blown crisis* ○ *a full-blown disease*

ˌfull ˈboard *noun* [U] *UK* when all your meals are provided in a hotel

fullerene /ˈfʊləriːn/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** any of several carbon compounds with molecules arranged in a round, hollow shape

full-fledged /ˌfʊlˈfledʒd/ *US* (*UK* **fully-fledged**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] having finished developing, studying, or establishing yourself

full-grown /ˌfʊlˈgrəʊn/ *adjective* A full-grown person, animal, or plant has developed completely, and is not expected to grow more. *a full-grown man*

ˌfull ˈhouse *noun* [C] when all the seats in a place such as a theatre or cinema are full

full-length /ˌfʊlˈleŋθ/ *adjective* **1 a full-length book/film, etc** a book or film that is the usual length and not shorter *a full-length feature film* **2 a full-length mirror/photograph, etc** a mirror or image that shows a person's whole body from the head to the feet **3 a full-length coat/dress/skirt, etc** a long piece of clothing that reaches to your feet

ˌfull ˈmoon *noun* [**no plural**] **ASTRONOMY** the moon when it appears as a complete circle

full-on /fʊlˈɒn/ *adjective* **1** GREAT very great or to the greatest degree *full-on luxury* **2** ENTHUSIASTIC very serious and enthusiastic, often in a way which annoys other people

full-page /ˌfʊlˈpeɪdʒ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] filling a complete page in a newspaper or magazine *a **full-page ad***

full-scale /ˌfʊlˈskeɪl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** LARGE very large or serious and involving everything that is possible or expected *The violence has developed into a full-scale war.* **2** MODEL A full-scale model is the same size as the original thing that it is representing.

ˌfull ˈstop *UK* (*US* **period**) *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a mark (.) used at the end of a sentence, or to show that the letters before it are an abbreviation ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

full-time /ˌfʊlˈtaɪm/ *adjective* happening or working for the whole of the working week and not only part of it *a **full-time job/course*** ●**full-time** *adverb She **works full-time**.*

fully /ˈfʊli/ *adverb* completely *The restaurant was **fully booked**.* ○ *He is **fully aware** of the dangers involved.*

fully-fledged /ˌfʊliˈfledʒd/ *UK* (*US* **full-fledged**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] having finished developing, studying, or establishing yourself *I won't be a fully-fledged doctor until after the exams.*

fumble /ˈfʌmbl/ *verb* [I] to use your hands with difficulty to try to get hold of something or find something *She fumbled in her bag for her glasses.*

fume /fjuːm/ *verb* [I] to be extremely angry, especially in a quiet way *A week later, she was still fuming about his behaviour.*

fumes /fjuːmz/ *noun* [**plural**] strong, unpleasant, and often dangerous gas or smoke *car exhaust fumes*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***fun***

have fun ● **good/great** fun ● be **no** fun ● **for** fun

fun[1] /fʌn/ *noun* [U] **1** enjoyment or pleasure, or something that gives you enjoyment or pleasure *She's **great fun** to be with.* ○ ***Have fun!*** (= enjoy yourself) ○ *It's **no fun** having to work late every night.* **2 for fun/for the fun of it** for pleasure and not for any other reason **3 make fun of sb/sth** to make a joke about someone or something in an unkind way *The other children at school used to make fun of his hair.*

fun[2] /fʌn/ *adjective* enjoyable or entertaining *There are lots of fun things to do here.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***function***

a **basic/important/primary/vital** function ● **carry out/fulfil/provide/serve** a function

function[1] /ˈfʌŋkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** PURPOSE the purpose of something or someone *Each button has a different function.* **2** EVENT a large, formal party or ceremony *a charity function* **3 MATHEMATICS** a quantity whose value depends on another value and changes with that value

function[2] /ˈfʌŋkʃᵊn/ *verb* [I] to work or operate *The operation should help his lungs to function properly again.*
function as sth *phrasal verb* to have a particular purpose *The spare bedroom also functions as a study.*

functional /ˈfʌŋkʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** PRACTICAL designed to be practical or useful and not only attractive *functional clothing* **2** WORKING operating or working correctly *The system is not yet fully functional.*

ˈfunction ˌkey (*written abbreviation* **F**) *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** one of the keys on a computer keyboard which has the letter F and a number on it and that makes the computer do particular jobs *Press F4 to print.*

fund /fʌnd/ *noun* **1 FINANCE** [C] an amount of money collected, saved, or provided for a purpose *a **pension fund*** **2 funds FINANCE** [**plural**] money needed or available to spend on something *The charity closed down due to **lack of funds**.* ●**fund** *verb* [T] to provide money for an event, activity, or organization *Who is the project funded by?*

fundamental /ˌfʌndəˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* relating to the most important or main part of something *a fundamental change/difference* ○ *Training is **fundamental to** success.* ●**fundamentally** *adverb The world has changed fundamentally over the last century.*

fundamentalism /ˌfʌndəˈmentᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the belief that the traditions and rules of a religion should be followed exactly

fundamentalist /ˌfʌndəˈmentᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who believes that the rules of their religion should be followed exactly ●**fundamentalist** *adjective*

fundamentals /ˌfʌndəˈmentᵊlz/ *noun* [**plural**] the main principles, or most important parts of something

funding /ˈfʌndɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** money given by a government or organization for an event or activity *The company received state funding for the project.*

fundraiser /ˈfʌndˌreɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a person or an event that collects money for a particular purpose

fundraising /ˈfʌndˌreɪzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** when you collect money for a particular purpose *a **fundraising event***

O-K **funeral** /ˈfjuːnᵊrəl/ *noun* [C] a ceremony for burying or burning the body of a dead person

ˈfuneral ˌdirector *UK* (*US* **ˈfuneral director**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is to organize funerals and prepare dead bodies to be buried or burned

fungus /ˈfʌŋgəs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **fungi** or **funguses** **BIOLOGY** a type of plant without leaves and without green colouring which gets its food from other living or decaying things

funk /fʌŋk/ *noun* [U] **MUSIC** a style of popular music with a strong rhythm that is influenced by African and jazz music

funky /ˈfʌŋki/ *adjective informal* **1** fashionable in an unusual and noticeable way *She's got some very funky clothes.* **2** **MUSIC** Funky music has a strong rhythm, and is good to dance to.

funnel /ˈfʌnᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** LIQUID a tube with a wide part at the top that you use to pour liquid or powder into something that has a small opening ➲See picture at **filtrate 2** SMOKE a metal pipe on the top of a ship or train which smoke comes out of

funnel

funnily /ˈfʌnɪli/ *adverb* *UK* **funnily enough** although it seems strange and surprising *Funnily enough, I was just thinking about you when you called.*

O-K **funny** /ˈfʌni/ *adjective* **1** MAKING YOU LAUGH making you smile or laugh *a funny story* ○ *It's not funny. Don't laugh!* **2** STRANGE strange or unusual and not what you expect *This chicken tastes a bit funny.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

fun or **funny?**

Use **fun** to talk about something which you enjoy doing.

Going to the cinema is fun.

Use **funny** to describe something which makes you laugh.

The film was really funny.

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***funny***

The adjective **amusing** is a more formal alternative to 'funny': *I gave her an article that I thought she would find **amusing**.*

If something is extremely funny, you can use the adjectives **hilarious** or (*informal*) **hysterical**: *I've just read his autobiography - it's absolutely **hilarious/hysterical**.*

If someone talks in a way that is clever and funny, you can use the adjective **witty**: *He was a very **witty** man.*

The adjective **comical** is sometimes used if someone or something looks funny: *She looked so **comical** in that hat!*

If you want to describe a person as very funny, in informal situations you can use the expressions **be a good laugh** (*UK*) and **be a scream**. *You'd like Amanda - she's **a scream/good laugh**.*

O-K **fur** /fɜːʳ/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [U] the thick hair that covers the bodies of some animals like cats and rabbits **2** [C, U] the skin of an animal covered in thick hair and used for making clothes, or a piece of clothing made from this

furious /ˈfjʊəriəs/ *adjective* **1** ANGRY extremely angry *He's **furious at** the way he's been treated.* ○ *My boss was **furious with** me.* **2** ENERGETIC very energetic or fast *a furious attack* ●**furiously** *adverb*

furlong /ˈfɜːlɒŋ/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES, SPORT** a unit of length used in horse races equal to 201 metres

furnace /ˈfɜːnɪs/ *noun* [C] a container which is heated to a very high temperature and used to heat buildings, melt metal, or burn things

furnish /ˈfɜːnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to put furniture into a room or building *They have furnished the room very simply.*
furnish sb with sth *phrasal verb formal* to provide someone with something *Can you furnish me with any further information?*

furnished /ˈfɜːnɪʃt/ *adjective* If a room or building is furnished, there is furniture in it.

furnishings /ˈfɜːnɪʃɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] the furniture, curtains and other decorations in a room or building

WORD PARTNERS FOR *furniture*

a **piece of** furniture ● **garden/office** furniture ● **antique** furniture

O-K **furniture** /ˈfɜːnɪtʃəʳ/ *noun* [U] objects such as chairs, tables, and beds that you put into a room or building *antique furniture*

furore /fjʊəˈrɔːri/ *UK* (*US* **furor** /ˈfjʊrɔːr/) *noun* [**no plural**] a sudden, excited, or angry reaction to something by a lot of people *The book **caused a furore** when it was published.*

furrow[1] /ˈfʌrəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** **FARMING** a deep line cut into a field that seeds are planted in **2** FACE a deep line on someone's face, especially above their eyes

furrow[2] /ˈfʌrəʊ/ *verb* **furrow your brow** to make deep lines appear on your face above your eyes *He furrowed his brow as he struggled to think of a solution.*

furry /ˈfɜːri/ *adjective* covered with fur or with something that feels like fur

further¹ /ˈfɜːðəʳ/ *adverb* **1** MORE more *He refused to discuss the matter further.* ○ *Have you* ***got any further*** (= achieved any more) *with your research?* **2** PLACE/TIME (*comparative of* far) at or to a place or time that is a longer distance away *Let's walk a bit further down the road.*

further² /ˈfɜːðəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] more or extra *For further details about the offer, call this number.* ○ *We will let you know if there are any further developments.*

further³ /ˈfɜːðəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make something develop or become more successful *He'll do anything to* ***further*** *his* ***career***.

ˌfurther eduˈcation *noun* [U] *UK* EDUCATION education at a college for people who have left school but are not at a university

furthermore /ˌfɜːðəˈmɔːʳ/ (US) /ˈfɜːrðərmɔːr/ *adverb* in addition to what has just been said

furthest /ˈfɜːðɪst/ *adjective, adverb* (*superlative of* far) most distant

furtive /ˈfɜːtɪv/ *adjective* doing something secretly, or done secretly, so that people do not notice *He gave her a* ***furtive glance*** *as soon as his wife left the room.* ●**furtively** *adverb*

fury /ˈfjʊəri/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] extreme anger *He could hardly control his fury.*

fuse¹ /fjuːz/ *noun* [C] **1** PHYSICS a small object that stops electrical equipment working if there is too much electricity going through it *The* ***fuse*** *has* ***blown***. *You'll have to change it.* ○ *a* ***fuse box*** **2** BOMB the part of a bomb or other explosive object that starts the explosion ***Light*** *the* ***fuse***, *and then stand back.*

fuse² /fjuːz/ *verb* [I, T] **1** PHYSICS *UK* If a piece of electrical equipment fuses, or if you fuse it, it stops working because there is too much electricity going through it. *You've* ***fused*** *the* ***lights***. **2** to join or become combined *The bones of the skull are not properly fused at birth.*

fuselage /ˈfjuːzᵊlɑːʒ/ *noun* [C] the main body of an aircraft

fusion /ˈfjuːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PHYSICS when two or more things join or become combined *nuclear fusion* ○ *She describes her music as a fusion of folk and rock.* **2** PHYSICS the process of joining two nuclei (= central parts of atoms) to produce energy

fuss¹ /fʌs/ *noun* **1** [**U, no plural**] when people become excited, annoyed, or anxious about something, especially about something unimportant *What's all the fuss about?* ○ *They were* ***making*** *a big* ***fuss*** *over nothing.* **2 kick up/make a fuss** to complain about something *If they don't bring our food soon, I'll have to kick up a fuss.* **3 make a fuss of/over sb** to give someone a lot of attention and treat them well *My uncle always makes a big fuss of the children.*

fuss² /fʌs/ *verb* [I] to worry too much or get too excited, especially about unimportant things *Please don't fuss, Mum. Everything's under control.*

fuss over sb/sth *phrasal verb* to give someone or something too much attention because you want to show that you like them

fussy /ˈfʌsi/ *adjective* **1** NOT LIKING only liking particular things and very difficult to please *She's a very* ***fussy eater***. **2** CAREFUL too careful about unimportant details **3** TOO COMPLICATED If something is fussy, it is too complicated in design and has too many details.

futile /ˈfjuːtaɪl/ (US) /ˈfjuːtəl/ *adjective* certain not to have a successful effect or result *a futile attempt to escape* ●**futility** /fjuːˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U] when something is futile

futon /ˈfuːtɒn/ *noun* [C] a flat bed filled with soft material that can be used on the floor or on a wooden base, or folded into a seat

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***future***

the **distant/foreseeable/near** future ● **plan for/predict** the future ● **in the** future

future¹ /ˈfjuːtʃəʳ/ *noun* **1 the future a** TIME TO COME the time which is to come *He likes to* ***plan for the future***. ○ *They hope to get married* ***in the near future*** (= soon). **b** LANGUAGE In grammar, the future is the form of the verb used to talk about something that will happen. **2 in future** *UK* (*mainly US* **in the future**) beginning from now *In future, I'll be more careful about who I lend my bike to.* **3** WHAT WILL HAPPEN [C] what will happen to someone or something in the time which is to come *We need to discuss the future of the company.* **4** SUCCESS [**U, no plural**] the chance of continuing to exist or succeed *She's got a very promising future ahead of her.*

future² /ˈfjuːtʃəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** happening or existing in the time which is to come *future plans* ○ *in future years* ○ *What will we leave for future generations?* **2 future tense** LANGUAGE the form of the verb which is used to talk about something that will happen

the ˌfuture ˈperfect *noun* LANGUAGE the form of the verb which is used to show that an action will have been completed before a particular time in the future. The sentence 'I'll probably have left by then.' is in the future perfect.

futuristic /ˌfjuːtʃəˈrɪstɪk/ *adjective* very modern and strange and seeming to come from some imagined time in the future *a futuristic steel building*

fuzzy /ˈfʌzi/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLEAR confused and not clear *We could only get a fuzzy picture on the television.* **2** WITH HAIRS covered in soft, short hairs, or material like this *a fuzzy kitten* ○ *fuzzy slippers*

ˌfuzzy ˈlogic *noun* [U] a way of solving questions in which statements or opinions are formed from information which is not clear or definite

FYI *internet abbreviation for* for your information: used when you send someone a document or tell them something you think they should know about

Gg

G, g /dʒiː/ the seventh letter of the alphabet

g MEASURES *written abbreviation for* gram (= a unit for measuring weight)

gabble /ˈgæbl/ *verb* [I, T] *UK informal* to talk quickly or in a way that people cannot understand *He gabbled something in Italian.*

gable /ˈgeɪbl/ *noun* [C] the top end of a wall of a building where two sloping parts of a roof meet at a point

gadget /ˈgædʒɪt/ *noun* [C] a small piece of equipment that does a particular job, especially a new type *a **kitchen gadget***

Gaelic /ˈgeɪlɪk, ˈgælɪk/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE a language spoken in parts of Scotland and Ireland ●**Gaelic** *adjective* relating to Gaelic or to the Gaelic culture of Scotland and Ireland

gaffe /gæf/ *noun* [C] when someone says or does something embarrassing without intending to *The minister has **made** a series of embarrassing **gaffes**.*

gag¹ /gæg/ *verb* **gagging**, *past* **gagged** **1** COVER MOUTH [T] to fasten something over someone's mouth so that they cannot speak *The owners of the house were found **bound and gagged** in the cellar.* **2** STOP INFORMATION [T] to prevent someone from giving their opinion or giving information about something *The government is trying to gag the press over the issue.* **3** ALMOST VOMIT [I] to feel that you are going to vomit *The sight of the body made him gag.* **4 be gagging for sth** *UK informal* to want something or want to do something very much *I'm gagging for a coffee.*

gag² /gæg/ *noun* [C] **1** JOKE *informal* a joke or funny story **2** COVER something that is fastened over someone's mouth to stop them speaking

gaggle /ˈgægl/ *noun* [C] a group of people, especially when they are noisy *a gaggle of newspaper reporters*

gaiety /ˈgeɪəti/ *noun* [U] *old-fashioned* happiness or excitement

gaily /ˈgeɪli/ *adverb old-fashioned* in a happy way

O-K **gain¹** /geɪn/ *verb* **1** GET [T] to get something useful or positive *The country gained independence in 1948.* ○ *You'll gain a lot of experience working there.* **2 gain by/from sth** to get an advantage or something valuable from something *Who stands to gain from the will?* **3** INCREASE [T] to increase in something such as size, weight, or amount *He's gained a lot of weight in the last few months.* **4** CLOCK [I, T] If a clock or a watch gains, it works too quickly and shows a time that is later than the real time. ➲See also: gain/lose **ground¹**, get/gain the upper **hand¹**

gain on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to get nearer to someone or something that you are chasing *Quick! They're gaining on us.*

gain² /geɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** POSITIVE THING when you get something useful or positive ***financial gain*** **2** INCREASE an increase in something such as size, weight, or amount

gait /geɪt/ *noun* [C] someone's particular way of walking *I recognized his gait from a distance.*

gala /ˈɡɑːlə/ (US) /ˈgeɪlə/ *noun* [C] a special social event, performance, or sports competition *a gala concert*

galaxy /ˈgæləksi/ *noun* [C] ASTRONOMY a very large group of stars held together in the universe

gale /geɪl/ *noun* [C] a very strong wind

gall¹ /gɔːl/ *noun* **have the gall to do sth** to be rude enough to do something that is not considered acceptable *I can't believe he had the gall to complain.*

gall² /gɔːl/ *verb* [T] to annoy someone *What galls me is that he escaped without punishment.* ●**galling** *adjective* annoying *It's particularly galling for me that she gets paid more than I do.*

gallant /ˈgælənt/ *adjective literary* **1** BRAVE brave *a gallant attempt to rescue a drowning man* **2** POLITE polite and kind, especially to women ●**gallantly** *adverb* ●**gallantry** *noun* [U] when someone is gallant

ˈgall ˌbladder *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY an organ in the body that contains a substance that helps you to digest food ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

gallery /ˈgælᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** ART a room or building that is used for showing paintings and other art to the public *a museum and **art gallery*** **2** HIGH FLOOR a floor at a higher level that looks over a lower floor inside a large room or building *The courtroom has a **public gallery**.*

galley /ˈgæli/ *noun* [C] a kitchen in a ship or aircraft

gallon /ˈgælən/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 4.546 litres in the UK and 3.785 litres in the US ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24.

gallop /ˈgæləp/ *verb* [I] If a horse gallops, it runs very fast. ●**gallop** *noun* [no plural]

gallows /ˈgæləʊz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **gallows** a wooden structure used in the past to hang criminals from to kill them

galore /gəˈlɔːr/ *adjective* [always after noun] in large amounts or numbers *There are bargains galore at the new supermarket.*

galvanize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈgælvənaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** to make someone suddenly decide to do something *His words **galvanized** the team **into** action.* **2** to cover the metals iron or steel with a thin layer of zinc (= blue-white metal) in order to protect them ●**galvanization** (*also UK* **-isation**) *noun* [U]

galvanized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈgælvənaɪzd/ *adjective* describes metal, or something made of metal, that is covered with a thin layer of zinc (= blue-white metal)

gamble¹ /ˈgæmbl/ *verb* [I, T] to risk money on the result of a game, race, or competition *He gambled away all of our savings.* ●**gambler** *noun* [C] ●**gambling** *noun* [U]

gamble on sth *phrasal verb* to take a risk that something will happen

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gamble***

take a gamble ● a gamble **backfires/pays off** ● a gamble **on** sth

gamble² /ˈgæmbl/ *noun* [C] a risk that you take that something will succeed *Buying this place was a big **gamble**, but it seems to have **paid off**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***game***

play a game ● **lose/win** a game ● a game **of** [chess/football, etc] ● a **computer** game

G

game¹ /geɪm/ *noun* **1** ACTIVITY [C] an entertaining activity or sport that people play, usually needing some skill and played according to rules *a **computer game*** ○ *Do you want to **play** a different **game?*** **2** OCCASION [C] a particular competition, match, or occasion when people play a game *Would you like a game of chess?* ○ *Who won yesterday's game?* **3 games** *UK* organized sports that children do at school *I always hated games at school.* ○ *a games teacher* **4 the European/Commonwealth, etc Games** SPORT a special event where there are lots of competitions for different sports **5** SECRET PLAN [C] *UK informal* a secret plan *What's your game?* **6** FOOD [U] wild animals and birds that are hunted for food or sport **7 give the game away** *UK* to spoil a surprise or joke by letting someone know something that should have been kept secret **8 play games** to not deal with a situation seriously or honestly *Someone's life is in danger here - we're not playing games.* ➲See also: **ball game, board game, the Olympic Games, video game**

game² /geɪm/ *adjective* willing to do new things, or things that involve a risk *She's **game for** anything.*

Gameboy /ˈgeɪmbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] *trademark* COMPUTING a small machine that you play computer games on and that you can carry with you

gamekeeper /ˈgeɪmˌkiːpəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to look after wild animals and birds that are going to be hunted

gamepad /ˈgeɪmpæd/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a device that you hold in your hands and use to control a computer game or video game (= a game in which you make pictures move on a screen)

gamer /ˈgeɪməʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who plays games, especially computer games

ˈgame ˌshow *noun* [C] a programme on television in which people play games to try to win prizes

gamete /ˈgæmiːt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY in sexual reproduction, a male or female cell that combines with a cell of the opposite sex to produce a zygote (= the cell which will develop into a person or animal)

gamma globulin /ˌgæməˈglɒbjʊlɪn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a natural substance in the blood that protects the body against disease

ˌgamma radiˈation (**gamma rays**) *noun* [U] PHYSICS a type of radiation (= form of energy that can be dangerous) which goes through most solid objects

gammon /ˈgæmən/ *noun* [U] *UK* FOOD a type of meat from a pig, usually cut in thick slices

gamut /ˈgæmət/ *noun* [**no plural**] the whole group of things that can be included in something *The film explores **the whole gamut** of emotions from despair to joy.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gang***

in a gang ● a gang **of** sth ● a gang **leader/member**

gang¹ /gæŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** YOUNG PEOPLE a group of young people who spend time together, usually fighting with other groups and behaving badly *a **member** of a **gang*** ○ *gang violence* **2** CRIMINALS a group of criminals who work together *a **gang of** armed robbers* **3** FRIENDS *informal* a group of young friends

gang² /gæŋ/ *verb*
gang up against/on sb *phrasal verb* to form a group to attack or criticize someone, usually unfairly *Some older girls have been ganging up on her at school.*

gangly /ˈgæŋgli/ (*also* **gangling**) *adjective* tall and thin *a gangly youth*

gangrene /ˈgæŋgriːn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the death and decay of a part of the body because blood is not flowing through it

gangster /ˈgæŋstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a member of a group of violent criminals

gangway /ˈgæŋweɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPACE *UK* a space that people can walk down between two rows of seats in a vehicle or public place **2** SHIP a board or stairs for people to get on and off a ship

gaol /dʒeɪl/ *noun* [C, U] *another UK spelling of* jail (= a place where criminals are kept as a punishment)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gap***

bridge/close/narrow the gap ● the gap **between** sth **and** sth

gap /gæp/ *noun* [C] **1** SPACE an empty space or hole in the middle of something, or between two things *There's quite a big **gap between** the door and the floor.* ○ *The sun was shining through a **gap in** the curtains.* **2** DIFFERENCE a difference between two groups of people, two situations, etc *an **age gap*** ○ *This course **bridges the gap** between school and university.* **3** ABSENT THING something that is absent and stops something from being complete *There are huge gaps in my memory.* **4 a gap in the market** an opportunity for a product or service that does not already exist **5** TIME a period of time when nothing happens, or when you are doing something different from usual *I decided to go back to teaching after a gap of 10 years.* ➲See also: **the generation gap**

gape /geɪp/ *verb* [I] **1** LOOK to look at someone or something with your mouth open because you are so surprised *We stood there **gaping** in wonder **at** the beautiful landscape.* **2** OPEN to be wide open

gaping /ˈgeɪpɪŋ/ *adjective* **a gaping hole/wound, etc** a hole/wound, etc that is open very wide

ˈgap ˌyear *noun* [C] *UK* EDUCATION a year between leaving school and starting university which you usually spend travelling or working

O-K **garage** /ˈgærɑːʒ/ US /gəˈrɑːʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDING a small building, often built next to a house, that you can put a car in **2** BUSINESS a business that repairs or sells cars, and sometimes also sells fuel

garbage /ˈgɑːbɪdʒ/ *US* (*UK* **rubbish**) *noun* [U] **1** THINGS NOT WANTED things that you throw away because you do not want them **2** BAD THINGS something that you think is nonsense, wrong, or very bad quality *How can you listen to that garbage on the radio!*

ˈgarbage ˌcan *US* (*UK* **dustbin**) *noun* [C] a large container for waste kept outside your house

ˈgarbage colˌlector *US* (*UK* **dustman**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is to remove the waste from containers left outside houses

ˈgarbage ˌman *noun* [C] *US another word for* garbage collector

garbled /ˈgɑːbəld/ *adjective* Garbled words or messages are not clear and are very difficult to understand.

O-K **garden** /ˈgɑːdᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] *UK* (*US* **yard**) an area of ground belonging to a house, often containing grass, flowers, or trees *the **front/back garden*** ○ *Dad's outside **in the garden**.* **2 gardens** [plural] a park or large public area where plants and flowers are grown ●**garden** *verb* [I] to work in a garden, growing plants and making it look attractive

ˈgarden ˌcentre *noun* [C] *UK* a place that sells things for gardens such as plants and tools

gardener /ˈgɑːdᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who works in a garden, growing plants and making it look attractive

gardening /ˈgɑːdᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the job or activity of growing a garden and keeping it attractive

gargle /ˈgɑːgl/ *verb* [I] HEALTH to move liquid or medicine around in your throat without swallowing, especially to clean it or stop it feeling painful

garish /ˈgeərɪʃ/ *adjective* unpleasantly bright in colour, or decorated too much *a garish red jacket*

garlic /ˈgɑːlɪk/ *noun* [U] FOOD a vegetable like a small onion with a very strong taste and smell *a **clove of garlic*** ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

garment /ˈgɑːmənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* a piece of clothing

garnish /ˈgɑːnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] FOOD to decorate food with something such as herbs or pieces of fruit *salmon **garnished with** herbs and lemon* ●**garnish** *noun* [C]

garrison /ˈgærɪsᵊn/ *noun* [C] a group of soldiers living in a particular area or building to defend it

garter /ˈgɑːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of elastic that holds up a woman's stockings (= very thin pieces of clothing that cover a woman's foot and leg)

O-K **gas¹** /gæs/ *noun* **1** PHYSICS [C, U] a substance in a form like air and not solid or liquid *poisonous gases* **2** FUEL [U] a substance in a form like air used as a fuel for heating and cooking *(UK) a gas cooker/ (US) a gas stove* **3** CAR FUEL [U] *US* (*UK* **petrol**) a liquid fuel used in cars *half a tank of gas* **4** HEALTH [U] *US* (*UK* **wind**) gas or air in your stomach that makes you feel uncomfortable and sometimes makes noises **5 the gas** *US informal* the part of a car which you push with your foot to make it go faster *We'd better **step on the gas*** (= drive faster). ➲See also: **natural gas, tear gas**

gas² /gæs/ *verb* [T] **gassing**, *past* **gassed** to poison or kill someone with gas

ˈgas ˌchamber *noun* [C] a room that is filled with poisonous gas to kill people

gash /gæʃ/ *noun* [C] a long, deep wound or cut ●**gash** *verb* [T]

ˈgas ˌmask *noun* [C] a cover you wear over your face to protect you from breathing poisonous gas

gasohol /ˈgæsəhɒl/ *noun* [U] a fuel made of alcohol and petrol

gasoline /ˈgæsᵊliːn/ *US* (*UK* **petrol**) *noun* [U] *another word for* gas (= a liquid fuel used in cars)

gasp /gɑːsp/ *verb* [I] **1** MAKE NOISE to make a noise by suddenly breathing in because you are shocked or surprised *She gasped in horror as the car spun out of control.* **2** BREATHE WITH DIFFICULTY to breathe loudly and with difficulty trying to get more air *He clutched his heart, **gasping for breath**.* ●**gasp** *noun* [C] *a gasp of surprise*

ˈgas ˌpedal *US* (*UK/US* **accelerator**) *noun* [C] the part of a car which you push with your foot to make it go faster

ˈgas ˌstation *US* (*UK* **petrol station**) *noun* [C] a place where you can buy petrol (= fuel for cars)

gastric /ˈgæstrɪk/ *adjective* ANATOMY, BIOLOGY relating to the stomach

ˌgastric ˈjuice *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the acid in your stomach that helps to digest food

gastrointestinal /ˌgæstrəʊˌɪntesˈtaɪnᵊl/ *adjective* ANATOMY, BIOLOGY relating to the stomach and the intestines (= long tube that food passes through after the stomach)

gastronomic /ˌgæstrəˈnɒmɪk/ *adjective* FOOD relating to good food and cooking

gastropod /ˈgæstrəʊpɒd/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of animal with a soft, flat body, no legs and often a shell, for example a snail or a slug

O-K **gate** /geɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** DOOR the part of a fence or outside wall that opens and closes like a door *Please **shut** the **gate**.* **2** AIRPORT the part of an airport where passengers get on or off an aircraft *The flight to Dublin is now boarding at gate 8.*

gateau /ˈgætəʊ/ US /gæˈtəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **gateaux** *UK* FOOD a large cake, usually filled and decorated with cream

gatecrash /ˈgeɪtkræʃ/ *verb* [I, T] to go to a party or private event without an invitation ●**gatecrasher** *noun* [C] someone who gatecrashes

G

gateway /ˈgeɪtweɪ/ *noun* **1** [C] an opening in a fence or outside wall that is closed with a gate **2 the gateway to sth** the way to get into something or somewhere *the gateway to the North*

gather /ˈgæðər/ *verb* **1** MAKE A GROUP [I, T] to join other people somewhere to make a group, or to bring people together into a group *Crowds of fans gathered at the stadium for the big match.* **2** COLLECT [T] to collect several things together, often from different places or people *They interviewed 1000 people to gather data on TV viewing habits.* ○ *She **gathered** her things **together** and left.* **3** THINK [T] to think something is true because you have heard or seen information about it *From what I can gather, they haven't sold their house yet.* **4 gather speed/strength/support, etc** to increase in speed/strength/support, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gathering***

at a gathering ● a gathering **of** [teachers/world leaders, etc] ● a **family** gathering

gathering /ˈgæðərɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a party or a meeting when many people get together as a group *a **family gathering***

GATT /gæt/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade: an international agreement (1948-94) between over 100 countries to end rules that limit trade between them

gaudy /ˈgɔːdi/ *adjective* unpleasantly bright in colour or decoration *a gaudy pink sweatshirt with gold embroidery*

gauge¹ /geɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** JUDGMENT to make a judgment about a situation or about what someone thinks or feels [**+ question word**] *It's impossible to gauge what her reaction will be.* **2** MEASURE to measure a distance, size, or amount

gauge² /geɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** JUDGING a way of judging something such as a situation or what someone thinks or feels *Street interviews aren't an accurate **gauge of** public opinion.* **2** MEASURING a method or piece of equipment that you use to measure something *a **fuel gauge***

gaunt /gɔːnt/ *adjective* very thin, especially because of being ill or old *a pale, gaunt face*

gauntlet /ˈgɔːntlət/ *noun* **1** [C] a long, thick glove (= piece of clothing for your hand) **2 run the gauntlet** to have to deal with a lot of people who are criticizing or attacking you **3 throw down the gauntlet** to invite someone to argue, fight, or compete with you

gauze /gɔːz/ *noun* [U] **1** **HEALTH** thin, transparent cloth, especially used to cover injuries **2** **CHEMISTRY** a flat square made of wires, used by scientists to put under containers that are being heated by a flame

gave /geɪv/ *past tense of* give

gawp /gɔːp/ *UK* (*US* **gawk** /gɔːk/) *verb* [I] to look at someone or something with your mouth open because you are shocked or surprised *He just stood there **gawping at** me.*

gay¹ /geɪ/ *adjective* **1** HOMOSEXUAL homosexual *Have you told your parents you're gay yet?* ○ *a gay bar/club* **2** HAPPY *old-fashioned* very happy and enjoying yourself

gay² /geɪ/ *noun* [C] someone who is homosexual, especially a man *equal rights for gays and lesbians*

gaze /geɪz/ *verb* **gaze at/into, etc** to look for a long time at someone or something or in a particular direction *They gazed into each other's eyes.* ●**gaze** *noun* [**no plural**]

GB **COMPUTING** *written abbreviation for* gigabyte (= a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store) *a 4 GB hard drive*

GCSE /ˌdʒiːsiːesˈiː/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* General Certificate of Secondary Education: in the UK, an exam taken by students at the age of sixteen, or the qualification itself *Mary's got nine GCSEs.*

GDP /ˌdʒiːdiːˈpiː/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* Gross Domestic Product: the total value of goods and services that a country produces in a year ➲Compare **GNP**

gear¹ /gɪər/ *noun* **1** VEHICLE [C] a set of parts in a motor vehicle or bicycle that control how fast the wheels turn [**usually plural**] *a mountain bike with 21 gears* ○ *to **change gear*** **2 first/second/third, etc gear** a particular position of the gears in a motor vehicle or bicycle that controls how fast the wheels turn *The lights turned green, but I couldn't **get into** first **gear**.* **3** CLOTHES/EQUIPMENT [U] the clothes and equipment used for a particular purpose *sports/swimming gear*

gear² /gɪər/ *verb*
gear sth to/towards sb/sth *phrasal verb* to design or organize something so that it is suitable for a particular purpose, situation, or group of people [**often passive**] These advertisements are geared towards a younger audience.
gear (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to prepare for something that you have to do, or to prepare someone else for something [**often reflexive**] I'm trying to ***gear myself up for** the exams.*

gearbox /ˈgɪəbɒks/ *noun* [C] the set of gears in a motor vehicle and the metal box that contains them

gearing /ˈgɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the amount of a company's money that has been borrowed

ˈgear ˌlever *UK* (*US* **gearshift** /ˈgɪəʃɪft/) *noun* [C] a stick with a handle that you move to change gear in a vehicle ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

gearstick /ˈgɪərstɪk/ *noun* [C] *UK another word for* gear lever ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

GED /ˌdʒiːiːˈdiː/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* General Equivalency Diploma: an official document in the US that is given to someone who did not complete high school (= school for students aged 15 to 18) but who has passed a government exam instead

geek /giːk/ *noun* [C] *informal* a man who is boring and not fashionable ●**geeky** *adjective informal a geeky guy with a beard and glasses*

geese /giːs/ *plural of* goose

gel /dʒel/ *noun* [C, U] a thick, clear, liquid substance, especially a product used to style hair ***hair gel*** ○ ***shower gel***

gelatine /ˈdʒeləti:n/ *UK* (*US* **gelatin** /ˈdʒelətɪn/) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a clear substance made from animal bones, often used to make food thicker

gem /dʒem/ *noun* [C] **1** **GEOLOGY** a valuable stone, especially one that has been cut to be used in jewellery **2** *informal* someone or something that you like very much and think is very special

Gemini /ˈdʒemɪnaɪ/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 May - 21 June, or a person born during this period

gender /ˈdʒendəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **SOCIETY** the state of being male or female **2** **LANGUAGE** the division of nouns, pronouns and adjectives into masculine, feminine and neuter types

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gene***

carry/have a gene ● a gene **(responsible) for** sth ● gene **therapy**

gene /dʒi:n/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a part of a cell that is passed on from a parent to a child and that controls particular characteristics

O-M **general**[1] /ˈdʒenᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT DETAILED not detailed, but including the most basic or necessary information *These leaflets contain some general information about the school.* ○ *I've got a general idea of how it works.* **2** MOST PEOPLE [**always before noun**] relating to or involving all or most people, things, or places *There seems to be general agreement on this matter.* **3** NOT LIMITED [**always before noun**] including a lot of things or subjects and not limited to only one or a few *general knowledge* **4 in general a** CONSIDERING EVERYTHING considering the whole of someone or something, and not just a particular part of them *I still have a sore throat, but I feel much better in general.* **b** USUALLY usually, or in most situations *In general, the weather here stays sunny.*

general[2] /ˈdʒenᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [C] an officer of very high rank in the army or air force

ˌgeneral anaesˈthetic *UK* (*US* **general anesthetic**) *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a substance that is used to stop someone being conscious when they have an operation so that they do not feel any pain

ˌgeneral eˈlection *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a big election in which the people living in a country vote to decide who will represent them in the government

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***generalization***

make a generalization ● a **broad/gross/sweeping** generalization

generalization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌdʒenᵊrᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone says something very basic that is often true but not always true

generalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈdʒenᵊrᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [I] to say something very basic that is often true but not always true

ˌgeneral ˈledger (*also* **nominal ledger**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of its sales, things it has bought, things it owns, things it has to pay regular amounts for, etc.

O-M **generally** /ˈdʒenᵊrᵊli/ *adverb* **1** USUALLY usually, or in most situations *I generally wake up early.* **2** AS A WHOLE considering the whole of someone or something, and not just a particular part of them *The police said that the crowd was generally well-behaved.* **3** BY MOST PEOPLE by most people, or to most people *He is generally believed to be their best player.*

ˌgeneral pracˈtitioner (*also* **GP**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who sees people in the local area and treats illnesses that do not need a hospital visit

ˌgeneral ˈstrike *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a strike (= time when people stop working because they want more money, etc.) in which most people in a country take part

generate /ˈdʒenᵊreɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE to cause something to exist ***to generate income/profit*** ○ *This film has* ***generated*** *a lot of* ***interest***. **2** **PHYSICS** to produce energy *Many countries use nuclear fuels to generate electricity.*

generation /ˌdʒenəˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **SOCIETY** [C] all the people in a society or family who are approximately the same age *the* ***older/younger generation*** ○ *This is the story of three generations of women.* **2** TIME [C] a period of about 25 to 30 years, the time it takes for a child to become an adult and take the place of their parents in society *Our family has lived in this village* ***for generations***. **3** PRODUCT [C] a product when it is at a particular stage of development *a new generation of computers* **4** ENERGY [U] the production of energy *the generation of electricity*

the generˈation ˌgap *noun* **SOCIETY** when young people and old people do not understand each other because of their age difference

generator /ˈdʒenᵊreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine that produces electricity ➲See picture at **wind turbine**

generic /dʒəˈnerɪk/ *adjective* **1** TYPE relating to a whole group of things or type of thing **2** **ECONOMICS** A generic product such as a drug is not sold with the name of the company that produced it.

generosity /ˌdʒenᵊˈrɒsəti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being generous

O-M **generous** /ˈdʒenᵊrəs/ *adjective* **1** GIVING giving other people a lot of money, presents, or time in a kind way *a very generous man* **2** LARGE larger than usual or than expected *a generous discount for students* ○ *a generous portion* ●**generously** *adverb*

ˈgene ˌtherapy *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** the science of changing genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics) in order to stop or prevent a disease

genetic /dʒəˈnetɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** relating to genes *a rare* ***genetic disorder*** ○ ***genetic research*** ●**genetically** *adverb*

G

ge,netically ˈmodified *adjective* **BIOLOGY** Genetically modified plants or animals have had some of their genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics) changed.

ge,netic ˈcode *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the pattern of chemicals inside the genes (= cells which are passed from parent to child) which controls the characteristics and qualities of a living thing

ge,netic engiˈneering *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when scientists change the genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics) in the cells of plants or animals

ge,netic ˈfingerprint *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the pattern of someone's genes, which make each person different

G

ge,netic modifiˈcation *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when the genes (= cells which are passed from parent to child) of a living thing are changed in order to make it healthier or more useful to humans

genetics /dʒəˈnetɪks/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the scientific study of genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics)

genial /ˈdʒiːniəl/ *adjective* kind and friendly

genitals /ˈdʒenɪtᵊlz/ *noun* [plural] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the sexual organs

genius /ˈdʒiːniəs/ *noun* **1** PERSON [C] someone who is extremely intelligent or extremely good at doing something *Einstein was a genius.* **2** QUALITY [U] the quality of being extremely intelligent or extremely good at doing something *Einstein's genius*

genocide /ˈdʒenəsaɪd/ *noun* [U] the intentional killing of a large group of people who belong to a particular race or country

genotype /ˈdʒenəʊtaɪp/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the type and arrangement of genes (= cells which are passed from parent to child) that each living thing has

genre /ˈʒɒnrə/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE, MUSIC, ART** a type of art or writing with a particular style *a literary/musical genre*

gent /dʒent/ *noun* [C] *informal short for* gentleman

genteel /dʒenˈtiːl/ *adjective* very polite, especially in an artificial way ●**gentility** /ˌdʒenˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U]

gentle /ˈdʒentl/ *adjective* **1** KIND kind and careful not to hurt or upset anyone or anything *My mother was such a gentle, loving person.* **2** NOT STRONG not strong or severe *a mild soap that is gentle on your skin* ○ *a gentle breeze* **3** SLOPE A gentle slope or climb is not steep. ●**gently** *adverb* ●**gentleness** *noun* [U]

gentleman /ˈdʒentlmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **gentlemen** **1** POLITE MAN a man who behaves politely and treats people with respect *He was a perfect gentleman.* **2** MAN a polite word for 'man', used especially when talking to or about a man you do not know *There's a gentleman here to see you.*

the gents /ðədʒents/ *noun* [group] *UK informal* a toilet in a public place for men ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

genuine /ˈdʒenjuɪn/ *adjective* **1** SINCERE If a person or their feelings are genuine, they are sincere and honest. *He shows a genuine concern for the welfare of his students.* **2** REAL If something is genuine, it is really what it seems to be. *a genuine gold necklace* ●**genuinely** *adverb*

genus /ˈdʒiːnəs, ˈdʒenəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **genera** **BIOLOGY** a group of animals or plants that have the same characteristics

geo- /dʒiːəʊ-/ *prefix* relating to the earth *geothermal* (= of or connected with the heat inside the Earth)

geography /dʒiˈɒgrəfi/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the study of all the countries of the world, and of the surface of the Earth such as the mountains and seas ●**geographer** *noun* [C] someone who studies geography ●**geographical** /ˌdʒiːəʊˈgræfɪkəl/ (*also* **geographic** /dʒiːəʊˈgræfɪk/) *adjective* ●**geographically** *adverb*

geology /dʒiˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** the study of rocks and soil and the physical structure of the Earth ●**geological** /ˌdʒiːəʊˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* ●**geologist** *noun* [C] someone who studies geology

geomagnetism /ˌdʒiːəʊˈmægnɪtɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY, PHYSICS** (the study of) the magnetic characteristics of the Earth ●**geomagnetic** /ˌdʒiːəʊmægˈnetɪk/ *adjective*

geometric /ˌdʒiːəʊˈmetrɪk/ (*also* **geometrical**) *adjective* **1** **MATHEMATICS** having a regular shape such as a circle or triangle, or having a pattern made of regular shapes **2** **MATHEMATICS** relating to geometry

geometry /dʒiˈɒmɪtri/ *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** a type of mathematics that deals with points, lines, angles and shapes

geomorphic /ˌdʒiːəʊˈmɔːfɪk/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** like or relating to the Earth's surface

geothermal /ˌdʒiːəʊˈθɜːməl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to the heat that is produced inside the Earth *geothermal energy/power*

geotropism /ˌdʒiːəʊˈtrəʊpɪzm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the way plants or plant parts react to gravity (= the force that pulls objects towards planets)

geriatric /ˌdʒeriˈætrɪk/ *adjective* relating to very old people *geriatric patients* ○ *a geriatric hospital* ●**geriatrics** *noun* [U] care and medical treatment for very old people

germ /dʒɜːm/ *noun* **1** [C] a very small living thing that causes disease *Wash your hands before cooking so that you don't spread germs.* **2 the germ of sth** the beginning of something *the germ of a brilliant idea*

ˌGerman ˈmeasles (*also* **rubella**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a disease which causes red spots on your skin

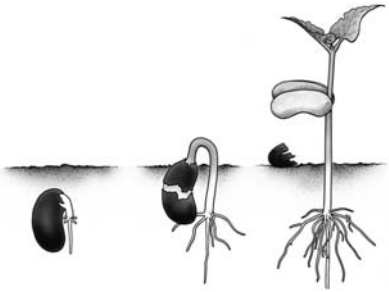

germination

germinate /ˈdʒɜːmɪneɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **BIOLOGY** If a seed germinates or is germinated, it begins to grow. ●**germination** /ˌdʒɜːmɪˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

gerund /ˈdʒerˈnd/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a noun made from the form of a verb that ends with -ing, for example 'fishing' in 'John loves fishing.'

gestation /dʒesˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the development of a baby child or animal inside its mother's body *Elephants have a long* ***gestation period****.*

gesticulate /dʒesˈtɪkjəleɪt/ *verb* [I] to move your hands and arms around to emphasize what you are saying or to express something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gesture***

a **grand/token** gesture ● a gesture **of** [friendship/goodwill, etc] ● a **nice** gesture

gesture¹ /ˈdʒestʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a movement you make with your hand, arm, or head to express what you are thinking or feeling *He* ***made*** *a rude* ***gesture*** *at the crowd.* **2** ACTION something you do to show people how you feel about a person or situation *It would be a* ***nice gesture*** *to invite her to dinner.*

gesture² /ˈdʒestʃəʳ/ *verb* [I] to point at something or express something using your hand, arm, or head *He* ***gestured towards*** *the window.*

O-key **get¹** /get/ *verb* **getting**, *past tense* **got**, *past participle* **got**, *US* **gotten** **1** OBTAIN [T] to obtain or buy something *I need to get some bread on the way home.* [+ **two objects**] *I'll try to get you a ticket.* **2** BRING [T] to go somewhere and bring back someone or something *Wait here while I get the car.* **3** RECEIVE [T] to receive something or be given something *Did you get anything nice for your birthday?* ○ *Guy still hasn't got my email yet.* **4** UNDERSTAND [T] to understand something *He never gets any of my jokes.* **5 get into/off/through, etc** to move somewhere *Get over here right now!* **6 get sth into/down/out, etc** to move something somewhere *Could you get that bowl down from the shelf for me?* **7 get here/there/to the bank, etc** to arrive somewhere *What time do you normally get home from work?* **8 get sb/sth to do sth** to make someone or something do something *Sorry, I couldn't get the window to shut properly.* **9 get to do sth** to have an opportunity to do something *I never get to sit in the front seat.* **10 get ill/rich/wet, etc** to become ill/rich/wet, etc *We should go. It's getting late.* **11 get caught/killed/married, etc** to have something done to you **12 get sth painted/repaired, etc** to arrange for someone to do something for you, usually for money *I need to get my hair cut.* **13 get cancer/flu/malaria, etc** to become ill or develop an illness *I feel like I'm getting a cold.* **14 get a bus/train, etc** to travel somewhere on a bus/train, etc *Maybe we should get a taxi home.* **15 get the phone/door** *informal* to answer someone calling on the telephone or waiting at the door *Can you get the phone?*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

got or **gotten?**

The past participle of the verb 'get' is **got** in British English and **gotten** in American English.

Have you got my email yet? (UK)

Have you gotten my email yet? (US)

get about *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **get around**) **1** TRAVEL to travel to a lot of places **2** MOVE to be able to go to different places without difficulty, especially if you are old or ill **3** INFORMATION If news or information gets about, a lot of people hear about it.

get sth across *phrasal verb* to successfully communicate information to other people *This is the message that we want to* ***get across to*** *the public.*

get ahead *phrasal verb* to be successful in the work that you do *It's tough for any woman who wants to* ***get ahead in*** *politics.*

get along *phrasal verb mainly US* (*mainly UK* **get on**) **1** BE FRIENDS If two or more people get along, they like each other and are friendly to each other. *I don't really* ***get along with*** *my sister's husband.* **2** DEAL WITH to deal with a situation, especially successfully *I wonder how Michael's getting along in his new job?*

get around sth *phrasal verb* (*also UK* **get round sth**) to find a way of dealing with or avoiding a problem *Our lawyer found a way of getting around the adoption laws.*

get around to sth *phrasal verb* (*also UK* **get round to sth**) to do something that you have intended to do for a long time *I finally got around to calling her yesterday.*

get at sb *phrasal verb UK informal* to criticize someone in an unkind way

be getting at sth *phrasal verb informal* If you ask someone what they are getting at, you are asking them what they really mean.

get at sth *phrasal verb* to be able to reach or get something

get away *phrasal verb* **1** LEAVE to leave or escape from a place or person, often when it is difficult to do this *We walked to the next beach to* ***get away from*** *the crowds.* **2** HOLIDAY to go somewhere to have a holiday, especially because you need to rest *We decided to go up to Scotland to* ***get away from it all*** (= have a relaxing holiday).

get away with sth *phrasal verb* to succeed in doing something bad or wrong without being punished or criticized *He shouldn't treat you like that. Don't let him get away with it.*

get back *phrasal verb* to return to a place after you have been somewhere else *By the time we*

got back to the hotel, Lydia had already left.
get sth back *phrasal verb* If you get something back, something that you had before is given to you again. *I wouldn't lend him anything, you'll never get it back.*
get sb back *phrasal verb informal* to do something unpleasant to someone because they have done something unpleasant to you
get back to sb *phrasal verb* to talk to someone, usually on the telephone, to give them some information they have asked for or because you were not able to speak to them before
get back to sth *phrasal verb* to start doing or talking about something again *Anyway, I'd better get back to work.*
get behind *phrasal verb* FINANCE If you get behind with work or payments, you have not done as much work or paid as much money as you should by a particular time.
get by *phrasal verb* to be able to live or deal with a situation with difficulty, usually by having just enough of something you need, such as money *I don't know how he* ***gets by on*** *so little money.*
get sb down *phrasal verb* to make someone feel unhappy *All this uncertainty is really getting me down.*
get sth down *phrasal verb* to write something, especially something that someone has said
get down to sth *phrasal verb* to start doing something seriously and with a lot of attention and effort *Before we get down to business, I'd like to thank you all for coming today.*
get in *phrasal verb* **1** ENTER to succeed in entering a place, especially a building *They must have got in through the bathroom window.* **2** PERSON ARRIVING to arrive at your home or the place where you work *What time did you get in last night?* **3** VEHICLE ARRIVING If a train or other vehicle gets in at a particular time, that is when it arrives. *Our flight's getting in later than expected.* **4** BE CHOSEN to succeed in being chosen or elected for a position in a school or other organization *He wanted to go to Oxford but he didn't get in.*
get into sth *phrasal verb* **1** BE CHOSEN to succeed in being chosen or elected for a position in a school or other organization **2** BE INTERESTED to become interested in an activity or subject, or start being involved in an activity *How did you get into journalism?*
get into sb *phrasal verb* If you do not know what has got into someone, you do not understand why they are behaving strangely.
get off (sth) *phrasal verb* **1** LEAVE BUS/TRAIN to leave a bus, train, aircraft, or boat *We should get off at the next stop.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **2** LEAVE WORK to leave the place where you work, usually at the end of the day *What time do you get off work?*
Get off! *phrasal verb UK informal* something that you say in order to tell someone to stop touching someone or something
get (sb) off (sth) *phrasal verb* to avoid being punished for something you have done wrong, or to help someone avoid getting punished for something they have done wrong *He got off with a £20 fine.*
get off on sth *phrasal verb informal* If you get off on something, it makes you feel very excited, especially in a sexual way.
get off with sb *phrasal verb UK informal* to begin a sexual relationship with someone
get on (sth) *phrasal verb* to go onto a bus, train, aircraft, or boat *I think we got on the wrong bus.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16
be getting on *phrasal verb informal* **1** OLD to be old **2** LATE *mainly UK* If time is getting on, it is becoming late.
get on *phrasal verb mainly UK* (*mainly US* **get along**) **1** If two or more people get on, they like each other and are friendly to each other. *I never knew that Karen didn't* ***get on with*** *Sue.* **2** to deal with a situation, especially successfully *How's Frank getting on in his new job?*
get on with sth *phrasal verb* to continue doing something, especially work *Get on with your homework.*
get onto sth *phrasal verb* to start talking about a subject after discussing something else *How did we get onto this subject?*
get out *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE OUT to move out of something, especially a vehicle *I'll get out when you stop at the traffic lights.* **2** DIFFERENT PLACES to go out to different places and meet people in order to enjoy yourself *She doesn't get out so much now that she's got the baby.* **3** NEWS If news or information gets out, people hear about it although someone is trying to keep it secret.
get (sb) out *phrasal verb* to escape from or leave a place, or to help someone do this *I left the door open and the cat got out.*
get out of sth *phrasal verb* to avoid doing something that you should do, often by giving an excuse *You're just trying to get out of doing the housework!*
get sth out of sb *phrasal verb* to persuade or force someone to tell or give you something *He was determined to get the truth out of her.*
get sth out of sth *phrasal verb* to enjoy something or think that something is useful *It was an interesting course but I'm not sure I got much out of it.*
get over sth *phrasal verb* **1** to begin to feel better after being unhappy or ill *It took her months to get over the shock of Richard leaving.* **2 can't/couldn't get over sth** *informal* to be very shocked or surprised about something *I can't get over how different you look with short hair.*
get sth over with *phrasal verb* to do and complete something difficult or unpleasant that must be done *I'll be glad to get these exams over with.*
get round *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **get around**) If news or information gets round, a lot of people hear about it.
get round sth *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **get around sth**) to find a way of dealing with or avoiding a problem
get round sb *phrasal verb UK* to persuade someone to do what you want by being kind to them
get through *phrasal verb* to manage to talk to someone on the telephone *I tried to ring earlier, but I couldn't get through.*
get through to sb *phrasal verb* to succeed in making someone understand or believe something *I just don't seem to be able to get through to him these days.*
get through sth *phrasal verb* **1** DEAL WITH to

deal with a difficult or unpleasant experience successfully, or to help someone do this *If I can just get through my exams I'll be so happy.* **2** FINISH *mainly UK* to finish doing or using something *We got through a whole jar of coffee last week.*
get to sb *phrasal verb informal* to make someone feel upset or angry *I know he's annoying, but you shouldn't let him get to you.*
get together *phrasal verb* **1** MEET to meet in order to do something or spend time together *Jan and I are getting together next week for lunch.* **2** RELATIONSHIP to begin a romantic relationship *She got together with Phil two years ago.*

O-key **get (sb) up** *phrasal verb* to wake up and get out of bed, or to make someone do this *I had to get up at five o'clock this morning.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16
get up *phrasal verb* to stand up *The whole audience got up and started clapping.*
get up to sth *phrasal verb UK* to do something, especially something that other people think is wrong *She's been getting up to all sorts of mischief lately.*

getaway /ˈgetəweɪ/ *noun* [C] when someone leaves a place quickly, especially after committing a crime *They had a car waiting outside so they could **make** a quick **getaway**.*

get-together /ˈgettəgeðə/ *noun* [C] an informal meeting or party *We have a big family get-together every year.*

geyser /ˈgiːzəʳ/ (US) /ˈgaɪzər/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a hole in the ground that hot water and steam come out of

ghastly /ˈgɑːstli/ *adjective* very bad or unpleasant *a ghastly mistake* ○ *a ghastly man*

ghetto /ˈgetəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **ghettos** or **ghettoes** **SOCIETY** an area of a city where people of a particular race or religion live, especially a poor area

ghost /gəʊst/ *noun* **1** [C] the spirit of a dead person which appears to people who are alive *Do you believe in ghosts?* ○ *a **ghost story*** **2 give up the ghost** *UK humorous* If a machine gives up the ghost, it stops working completely. ●**ghostly** *adverb a ghostly figure*

ˈghost ˌtown *noun* [C] a town where few or no people now live

ghoul /guːl/ *noun* [C] an evil spirit

GI /ˌdʒiːˈaɪ/ *noun* [C] a soldier in the US army

giant¹ /ˈdʒaɪənt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] extremely big, or much bigger than other similar things *a giant spider*

giant² /ˈdʒaɪənt/ *noun* [C] **1** IMAGINARY MAN an imaginary man who is much bigger and stronger than ordinary men **2** ORGANIZATION a very large and important company or organization *a media/software giant*

gibberish /ˈdʒɪbᵊrɪʃ/ *noun* [U] something that someone says that has no meaning or that cannot be understood

gibe /dʒaɪb/ *noun* [C] *another spelling of* jibe (= an insulting remark)

giddy /ˈgɪdi/ *adjective* **HEALTH** feeling as if you cannot balance and are going to fall

O-key **gift** /gɪft/ *noun* [C] **1** PRESENT something that you give to someone, usually for a particular occasion *a birthday/wedding gift* **2** ABILITY a natural ability or skill *She **has a gift for** design.*

gifted /ˈgɪftɪd/ *adjective* A gifted person has a natural ability or is extremely intelligent. *a gifted athlete* ○ *a school for gifted children*

ˈgift ˌtoken/ˌvoucher *UK* (*US* **gift certificate**) *noun* [C] a card with an amount of money printed on it which you exchange in a shop for goods that cost that amount of money *a £20 gift voucher*

gig /gɪg/ *noun* [C] *informal* a performance of pop or rock music

gigabyte /ˈgɪgəbaɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **GB**) *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store, equal to 1,000,000,000 bytes

gigantic /dʒaɪˈgæntɪk/ *adjective* extremely big *a gigantic teddy bear*

giggle /ˈgɪgl/ *verb* [I] to laugh in a nervous or silly way *She started giggling and couldn't stop.* ●**giggle** *noun* [C]

gilded /ˈgɪldɪd/ *adjective* covered with a thin layer of gold or gold paint *a gilded frame/mirror*

gill /gɪl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an organ on each side of a fish or other water creature which it uses to breathe

gilt /gɪlt/ *noun* [U] a thin covering of gold or gold paint ●**gilt** *adjective*

gimmick /ˈgɪmɪk/ *noun* [C] something that is used only to get people's attention, especially to make them buy something *a **marketing/publicity gimmick*** ●**gimmicky** *adjective*

gin /dʒɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a strong alcoholic drink which has no colour

ginger¹ /ˈdʒɪndʒəʳ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a pale brown root with a strong taste used as a spice in cooking *ginger cake*

ginger² /ˈdʒɪndʒəʳ/ *adjective UK* Ginger hair is an orange-brown colour. *She's got ginger hair and freckles.*

ginger³ /ˈgɪŋəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* an offensive word for a person with red hair

gingerly /ˈdʒɪndʒᵊli/ *adverb* slowly and carefully *He lowered himself gingerly into the water.*

gipsy /ˈdʒɪpsi/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** *another UK spelling of* gypsy (= a member of a race of people who travel from place to place, especially in Europe)

giraffe /dʒɪˈrɑːf/ *noun* [C] a large African animal with a very long neck and long, thin legs

girder /ˈgɜːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] a long, thick piece of metal that is used to support bridges or large buildings

O-key **girl** /gɜːl/ *noun* **1** [C] a female child or young woman *We have three children - a boy and two girls.* **2 the girls** a group of female friends *I'm going out with the girls tonight.*

O-key **girlfriend** /ˈgɜːlfrend/ *noun* [C] **1** RELATIONSHIP a woman or girl who someone is having a romantic relationship with *Have you met Steve's*

G

new girlfriend? **2** FRIEND a female friend, especially of a woman

girth /gɜːθ/ *noun* [C, U] the measurement around something round, such as someone's waist

gist /dʒɪst/ *noun* **the gist of sth** the main point or meaning of something without the details

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***give***

Very common alternatives to 'give' are verbs such as **offer**, **provide**, and **supply**: *This booklet **provides** useful information about local services.* ● *Your doctor should be able to **offer** advice.* ● *The lake **supplies** the whole town **with** water.*

The verb **donate** is often used when someone gives money or goods to an organisation that needs help: *Four hundred pounds has been **donated** to the school book fund.*

If one of many people gives something, especially money, in order to provide or achieve something, the verb **contribute** is used: *I **contributed** twenty dollars towards Jamie's present.*

If you put something from your hand into someone else's hand, you can use verbs such as **pass** and **hand**: *Could you **hand** me that book, please?* ● *He **passed** a note to her during the meeting.*

The phrasal verb **hand in** is sometimes used when you give something to someone in a position of authority: *Have you **handed in** your history essay yet?*

The phrasal verb **pass on** is often used when you ask someone to give something to someone else: *Could you **pass** this **on** to Laura when you've finished reading it?*

If something like a prize or an amount of money is given in an official way, you can use verbs like **award** or **present**: *She was **presented** with a bouquet of flowers and a cheque for £500.* ● *He was **awarded** the Nobel Prize for Physics.*

give[1] /gɪv/ *verb past tense* **gave**, *past participle* **given** **1** PROVIDE [+ **two objects**] to provide someone with something *Her parents gave her a car for her birthday.* ○ *Do you **give** money **to** charity?* ○ *Could you give me a lift to the station, please?* **2** PUT NEAR [+ **two objects**] to put something near someone or in their hand so that they can use it or look at it *Can you give me that pen?* ○ *He poured a cup of coffee and **gave** it **to** Isabel.* **3** ALLOW [+ **two objects**] to allow someone to have a right or an opportunity *We didn't really give him a chance to explain.* **4** TELL [T] to tell someone something *The woman refused to give her name.* [+ **two objects**] *Can you give Jo a message?* **5** CAUSE [+ **two objects**] to cause someone to have or feel something *I hope he hasn't given you any trouble.* ○ *This news will **give** hope **to** thousands of sufferers.* **6** ALLOW TIME [+ **two objects**] to allow someone or something a particular amount of time *I'm nearly ready - just give me a few minutes.* **7** PAY MONEY [+ **two objects**] to pay someone a particular amount of money for something *I gave him £20 for his old camera.* **8** DO [T] to perform an action *to give a cry/shout* [+ **two objects**] *He gave her a kiss on the cheek.* **9 give sb a call/ring** to telephone someone *Why don't you just give him a call?* **10 give a performance/speech, etc** to perform or speak in public *Tony gave a great speech.* **11 give a party** to have a party *Claire's giving a birthday party for Eric.* **12** MOVE [I] to bend, stretch, or break because of too much weight **13 give way** *UK* (*US* **yield**) to stop in order to allow other vehicles to go past before you drive onto a bigger road

give sth away *phrasal verb* **1** NO MONEY to give something to someone without asking for any money *They're giving away a CD with this magazine.* **2** SECRET to let someone know a secret, often without intending to *The party was meant to be a surprise, but Caroline gave it away.*

give sth back *phrasal verb* to return something to the person who gave it to you *Has she given you those books back yet?*

give in *phrasal verb* **1** AGREE to finally agree to what someone wants after a period when you refuse to agree *We will never **give in to** terrorists' demands.* **2** STOP to accept that you have been beaten and agree to stop competing or fighting

give sth in *phrasal verb UK* to give a piece of written work or a document to someone for them to read, judge, or deal with *I have to give my essay in on Monday.*

give off sth *phrasal verb* to produce heat, light, a smell, or a gas *The fire was giving off a lot of smoke.*

give sth out *phrasal verb* to give something to a large number of people *He gave out copies of the report at the end of the meeting.*

give out *phrasal verb* If a machine or part of your body gives out, it stops working correctly. *She read until her eyes gave out.*

give up (sth) *phrasal verb* **1** STOP HABIT If you give up a habit such as smoking, or give up something unhealthy such as alcohol, you stop doing it or having it. *I gave up smoking two years ago.* **2** TOO DIFFICULT to stop doing something before you have completed it, usually because it is too difficult [+ **doing sth**] *I've given up trying to help her.*

give up sth *phrasal verb* to stop doing a regular activity or job *Are you going to give up work when you have your baby?*

give up *phrasal verb* to stop trying to think of the answer to a joke or question *Do you give up?*

give it up for sb *phrasal verb* used to ask people to clap their hands to show that they like a performance *Ladies and gentlemen, give it up for the star of our show, Amy Jones!*

give yourself up *phrasal verb* to allow the police or an enemy to catch you

give up on sb *phrasal verb* to stop hoping that someone will do what you want them to do *The doctors have given up on him.*

give up on sth *phrasal verb* to stop hoping that something will achieve what you want it to achieve

give[2] /gɪv/ *noun* **1** [U] when something can bend or move from its normal shape to take extra weight or size **2 give and take** when people reach agreement by letting each person have part of what they want

giveaway /ˈgɪvəweɪ/ *noun* **1** FREE [C] something that is given to people free **2** EASY TO GUESS [**no plural**] something that makes it easy for people to guess something

given¹ /ˈgɪvᵊn/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] already arranged or agreed *They can only stay for a given amount of time.* **2 any given day/time/week, etc** any day/time/week, etc *About 4 million women are pregnant in the US at any given time.*

given² /ˈgɪvᵊn/ *preposition* when you consider *Given the force of the explosion, it's a miracle they survived.*

given³ /ˈgɪvᵊn/ *past participle of* give

glacial /ˈgleɪsiəl/ (US) /ˈgleɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to glaciers or ice *glacial lakes*

glaciation /ˌgleɪsiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY when land becomes covered with glaciers

glacier /ˈglæsiᵊr/ (US) /ˈgleɪʃər/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a large mass of ice that moves very slowly, usually down a slope or valley

O-key **glad** /glæd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** HAPPY happy about something [+ **(that)**] *She's very glad that she left.* [+ **to do sth**] *I'm so glad to see you.* **2** WILLING very willing to do something [+ **to do sth**] *She's always glad to help.* **3 be glad of sth** *formal* to be grateful for something *I was glad of a few days off before going back to work.*

gladly /ˈglædli/ *adverb* willingly or happily *I would gladly pay extra for better service.*

glamorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈglæmᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to make something seem glamorous

glamorous /ˈglæmᵊrəs/ *adjective* attractive in an exciting and special way *a glamorous woman* ○ *a glamorous lifestyle*

glamour (*also US* **glamor**) /ˈglæmᵊr/ *noun* [U] the quality of being attractive, exciting and special *the glamour of Hollywood*

glance¹ /glɑːns/ *verb* **1 glance at/around/towards, etc** to look somewhere for a short time *He glanced at his watch.* **2 glance at/over/through, etc** to read something quickly *She glanced through the newspaper.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***glance***

cast/give/have a glance [at/around, etc] sb/sth ● **exchange** glances ● a **cursory/quick** glance

glance² /glɑːns/ *noun* **1** [C] a quick look *She **had a quick glance** around the restaurant.* **2 at a glance** If you see something at a glance, you see it very quickly or immediately.

gland /glænd/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY an organ in the body that produces a particular chemical substance or liquid

glandular fever /ˌglændjʊləˈfiːvəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **mononucleosis**) *noun* [U] HEALTH an infectious disease that makes your glands swell and makes you feel tired

glare¹ /gleəʳ/ *noun* **1** LIGHT [U] strong, bright light that hurts your eyes *I get a lot of glare from my computer screen.* **2** LOOK [C] a long, angry look **3 the glare of publicity/the media, etc** when someone gets too much attention from newspapers and television

glare² /gleəʳ/ *verb* [I] to look at someone in an angry way

glaring /ˈgleərɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 a glaring error/mistake/omission, etc** a very noticeable mistake or problem **2 glaring light/sun, etc** light which is too strong and bright

glasnost /ˈglæsnɒst/ *noun* [U] POLITICS a government policy of greater political freedom and information, especially in the former Soviet Union

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***glass***

a **pane/sheet** of glass ● **broken** glass

O-key **glass** /glɑːs/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [U] a hard, transparent substance that objects such as windows and bottles are made of ***broken glass*** ○ *glass jars* **2** DRINKING CONTAINER [C] a container made of glass that is used for drinking *Would you like **a glass of** water?* ➲See also: **magnifying glass, stained glass**

glasses /ˈglɑːsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] HEALTH a piece of equipment with two transparent parts that you wear in front of your eyes to help you see better ***a pair of glasses*** ○ *She was **wearing glasses**.*

glassy /ˈglɑːsi/ *adjective* **1** SURFACE A glassy surface is smooth and shiny like glass. **2** EYES Glassy eyes show no expression and seem not to see anything.

glaze¹ /gleɪz/ *verb* **1** EYES [I] (*also* **glaze over**) If someone's eyes glaze or glaze over, they stop showing any interest or expression because they are bored or tired. **2** ART [T] to cover the surface of objects made of clay with a liquid that makes them hard and shiny when they are baked **3** FOOD [T] to put a liquid on food to make it shiny and more attractive **4** GLASS [T] to put glass in a window or door

glaze² /gleɪz/ *noun* [C, U] **1** ART a liquid that is put on objects made of clay to make them hard and shiny when they are baked **2** FOOD a liquid that is put on food to make it shiny and attractive

gleam¹ /gliːm/ *verb* [I] to shine in a pleasant, soft way *a gleaming new car*

gleam² /gliːm/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** LIGHT when something shines in a pleasant, soft way *the gleam of sunlight on the frozen lake* **2** EXPRESSION an expression in someone's eyes *She had a strange gleam in her eye.*

glean /gliːn/ *verb* [T] to discover information slowly or with difficulty [**often passive**] *Some useful information can be **gleaned from** this study.*

glee /gliː/ *noun* [U] a feeling of great happiness, usually because of your good luck or someone else's bad luck *Rosa began laughing with glee.* ●**gleeful** *adjective* ●**gleefully** *adverb*

glib /glɪb/ *adjective* using words in a way that is clever and confident, but not sincere

glide /glaɪd/ *verb* **glide along/into/over, etc** to move somewhere smoothly and quietly *The train slowly glided out of the station.*

glider /ˈglaɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] an aircraft that has no engine and flies on air currents ●**gliding** *noun*

G

[U] the activity of flying in a glider ➲See also: **hang glider, hang gliding**

glimmer¹ /ˈglɪmər/ *noun* **1 a glimmer of happiness/hope, etc** a small sign of something good **2** [C] when a light shines in a weak way

glimmer² /ˈglɪmər/ *verb* [I] to shine in a weak way

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***glimpse***

catch/get a glimpse • a **brief/fleeting** glimpse • a glimpse **of** sb/sth

glimpse /glɪmps/ *noun* [C] when you see something or someone for a very short time *He **caught/got a glimpse of** her as she got into the car.* •**glimpse** *verb* [T] to see something or someone for a very short time *She glimpsed him out of the corner of her eye.*

glint /glɪnt/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** EYE when your eyes shine with excitement or because you are going to do something bad *She had a wicked glint in her eye.* **2** LIGHT when something shines or reflects light for a short time •**glint** *verb* [I]

glisten /ˈglɪsᵊn/ *verb* [I] If something glistens, it shines, often because it is wet. *Their faces were **glistening with** sweat.*

glitch /glɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] *informal* a mistake or problem that stops something from working correctly ***technical glitches***

glitter¹ /ˈglɪtər/ *verb* [I] to shine with small flashes of light *Snow glittered on the mountains.*

glitter² /ˈglɪtər/ *noun* [U] **1** SUBSTANCE very small, shiny pieces of metal used for decoration **2** EXCITEMENT when something seems exciting and attractive

glittering /ˈglɪtᵊrɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SHINY shining with small flashes of light *glittering jewels* **2** EXCITING successful and exciting *a glittering party/career*

glitz /glɪts/ *noun* [U] when something is attractive, exciting and shows money in an obvious way •**glitzy** *adjective a glitzy nightclub*

gloat /gləʊt/ *verb* [I] to show pleasure at your success or at someone else's failure *His enemies were **gloating over** his defeat.*

global /ˈgləʊbᵊl/ *adjective* relating to the whole world *the global problem of nuclear waste* •**globally** *adverb*

globalization /ˌgləʊbᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** ECONOMICS the increase of business around the world, especially by big companies operating in many countries **2** when things all over the world become more similar *the globalization of fashion*

ˌglobal ˈwarming *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT when the air around the world becomes warmer because of pollution

globe /gləʊb/ *noun* **1 the globe** the world *This event is being watched by 200 million people around the globe.* **2** [C] a model of the world shaped like a ball with a map of all the countries on it

globule /ˈglɒbjuːl/ *noun* [C] a small, round mass or lump of a liquid substance *a globule of oil*

gloom /gluːm/ *noun* [U] **1** UNHAPPINESS a feeling of unhappiness and of not having any hope *an atmosphere of gloom* **2** DARK when it is dark, but not completely dark

gloomy /ˈgluːmi/ *adjective* **1** NEGATIVE very negative about a situation *a gloomy report* **2** DARK dark in an unpleasant way *a small, gloomy room* **3** UNHAPPY unhappy and without hope *a gloomy face* •**gloomily** *adverb*

glorify /ˈglɔːrɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE BETTER to describe or represent something in a way that makes it seem better or more important than it really is *films that glorify violence* **2** PRAISE to praise someone, especially God

glorious /ˈglɔːriəs/ *adjective* **1** BEAUTIFUL beautiful or wonderful *We had four days of glorious sunshine.* ○ *glorious colours* **2** DESERVING PRAISE deserving praise and respect *a glorious career* •**gloriously** *adverb*

glory¹ /ˈglɔːri/ *noun* [U] **1** PRAISE when people praise and respect you for achieving something important **2** GREAT BEAUTY great beauty *The castle has been restored to its **former glory**.*

glory² /ˈglɔːri/ *verb*
glory in sth *phrasal verb* to enjoy something and be very proud of it

gloss¹ /glɒs/ *noun* **1** PAINT [U] paint that creates a shiny surface **2** SHINE [U] shine on a surface **3** EXPLANATION [C] a short explanation of a word or phrase in a text

gloss² /glɒs/ *verb* [T] to give a short explanation of a word or phrase
gloss over sth *phrasal verb* to avoid discussing something, or to discuss something without any details in order to make it seem unimportant

glossary /ˈglɒsᵊri/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a list of difficult words with their meanings like a small dictionary, especially at the end of a book

glossy /ˈglɒsi/ *adjective* **1** SMOOTH smooth and shiny *glossy hair* **2** PAPER Glossy magazines and pictures are printed on shiny paper.

glottis /ˈglɒtɪs / *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the part of the throat that contains the vocal cords (= muscles that make the voice) and the opening between the vocal cords

glove /glʌv/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing which covers your fingers and hand *a pair of gloves*
➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

ˈglove comˌpartment (also **glove box**) *noun* [C] a small cupboard in the front of a car, used to hold small things

glow¹ /gləʊ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** LIGHT a soft, warm light *the warm glow of the moon* **2** HEALTH when your face feels or appears warm and healthy *Sam's face had lost its rosy glow.* **3 a glow of happiness/pride, etc** a strong feeling of being happy/proud, etc

glow² /gləʊ/ *verb* [I] **1** PRODUCE LIGHT to produce a soft, warm light *toys which glow in the dark* **2** LOOK HEALTHY to have a warm and healthy appearance *Her eyes were bright and her cheeks were glowing.* **3 glow with happiness/pride, etc** to feel very happy, proud, etc *Glowing with pride, she showed me her painting.*

glower /ˈglaʊəʳ/ *verb* [I] to look at someone in a very angry way *The woman glowered at her husband.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***glowing***

a glowing **reference/report/tribute** • **in** glowing terms

glowing /ˈgləʊɪŋ/ *adjective* praising someone a lot *She got a **glowing report** from her teacher.*

glucagon /ˈgluːkəgɒn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a hormone produced in the pancreas that helps glucose (= a type of sugar) to get into the blood

glucose /ˈgluːkəʊs/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY** a type of sugar

glue¹ /gluː/ *noun* [U] a substance used to stick things together *Put a bit of glue on both edges and hold them together.* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

glue² /gluː/ *verb* [T] **glueing** or **gluing**, *past* **glued** to stick something to something else with glue *Do you think you can **glue** this vase back **together**?*
be glued to sth *phrasal verb* to be watching something, especially television *The kids were glued to the TV all morning.*

glum /glʌm/ *adjective* unhappy *Why are you looking so glum today?* •**glumly** *adverb*

glut /glʌt/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** more of something than is needed [**usually singular**] *There is **a glut of** houses for sale in this area.*

gluten /ˈgluːtᵊn / *noun* [U] **FOOD** a substance which is found in wheat and some other food. Some people become ill if they eat it. *a gluten-free diet*

glutton /ˈglʌtᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who eats too much **2 be a glutton for punishment** to enjoy doing things that are unpleasant or difficult

gluttony /ˈglʌtᵊni/ *noun* [U] when someone eats too much

glycerol /ˈglɪsᵊrɒl/ (*also* **glycerine**) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a clear, thick liquid which is used in making many things, including explosives and medicines

glycogen /ˈglaɪkəʊdʒən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance that is found in the liver and the muscles, which stores carbohydrate (= substance which gives energy) and helps to control the level of sugar in the blood

gm **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* gram (= a unit for measuring weight)

GM /dʒiːˈem/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** *abbreviation for* genetically modified: genetically modified plants or animals have had some of their genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics) changed. ***GM foods***

GMO /ˌdʒiːemˈəʊ/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** *abbreviation for* genetically modified organism: a plant or animal in which scientists have changed the genes (= parts of cells which control particular characteristics)

GMT /ˌdʒiːemˈtiː/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* Greenwich Mean Time: the time at Greenwich in London, which is used as an international measurement for time

gnarled /nɑːld/ *adjective* rough and twisted, usually because of being old *a gnarled tree trunk*

gnat /næt/ *noun* [C] a small flying insect that can bite you

gnaw /nɔː/ *verb* [I, T] to bite something with a lot of small bites *He was gnawing on a bone.*
gnaw at sb *phrasal verb* to make someone feel more and more anxious or annoyed *Doubt kept gnawing at him.*

gneiss /naɪs/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a type of rock formed deep under the ground by high temperature and high pressure

gnome /nəʊm/ *noun* [C] an imaginary little man with a pointed hat *a garden gnome*

GNP /ˌdʒiːenˈpiː/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* gross national product: the total value of goods and services produced in a country in a year, including the profits made in foreign countries ➲Compare **GDP**

O-K go¹ /gəʊ/ *verb* [I] **going**, *past tense* **went**, *past participle* **gone** **1** MOVE to move or travel somewhere *I'd love to go to America.* ○ *We went into the house.* ○ *Are you **going by** train?* **2** DO SOMETHING to move or travel somewhere in order to do something *Let's **go for** a walk.* [**+ doing sth**] *We're going camping tomorrow.* **3** DISAPPEAR to disappear or no longer exist *When I turned round the man had gone.* **4 go badly/well, etc** to develop in a particular way *My exams went really badly.* **5** CONTINUE to continue to be in a particular state *We won't let anyone go hungry.* **6** WORKING to work correctly *Did you manage to get the car going?* **7** STOP WORKING to stop working correctly *Her hearing is going, so speak loudly.* **8** MATCH If two things go, they match each other. *That jumper doesn't **go with** those trousers.* **9** TIME If time goes, it passes. *The day went very quickly.* **10** SONG to have a particular tune or words *I can't remember how it goes.* **11** SOUND/MOVEMENT to make a particular sound or movement *My dog goes like this when he wants some food.* **12 not go there** to not think or talk about a subject that makes you feel bad *"Then there's the guilt I feel about leaving my child with another woman." "**Don't even go there**!"*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

go, gone, and **been**

Gone is the usual past participle of the verb **go**. Sometimes you use the past participle **been** when you want to say that you have gone somewhere and come back, or to say that you have visited somewhere.

Paul has gone to the hospital this morning (= he is still there).

Paul has been to the hospital this morning (= he went and has come back).

He has gone to New York (= he is still there).

Have you ever been to New York? (= Have you ever visited New York?)

go about sth *phrasal verb* to start to do something or deal with something *What's the best way to go about this?*

go after sb *phrasal verb* to chase or follow someone in order to catch them *He ran away, but the police went after him.*
go against sth *phrasal verb* If something goes against a rule or something you believe in, it does not obey it or agree with it. *It goes against my principles to lie.*
go against sb *phrasal verb* If a decision or vote goes against someone, they do not get the result that they needed. *The judge's decision went against us.*
go ahead *phrasal verb* **1** START to start to do something *We have permission to go ahead with the project.* **2** PERMISSION something that you say to someone to give them permission to do something *"Can I borrow your book?" "Yes, go ahead."* ●**go-ahead** *noun* ***get/give the go-ahead***
go along *phrasal verb* **1** GO SOMEWHERE *UK* to go to a place or event, usually without much planning *I might go along to the party after work.* **2** CONTINUE to continue doing something *I'll tell you the rules as we go along.*
go along with sth/sb *phrasal verb* to support an idea, or to agree with someone's opinion *She'll never go along with this idea.*
go around *phrasal verb* (*also UK* **go round**) **1** to be enough for everyone in a group *There aren't enough chairs to go around.* **2 go around doing sth** to spend your time behaving badly or doing something that is unpleasant for other people *She's been going around telling people I'm stupid.*
go at sth *phrasal verb UK informal* to start doing something with a lot of energy and enthusiasm *There were a lot of dishes to wash so we went at it straight away.*
go away *phrasal verb* **1** LEAVE to leave a place *Go away - I'm busy.* **2** HOLIDAY to leave your home in order to spend time in a different place, usually for a holiday *They're going away for a few weeks in the summer.* **3** DISAPPEAR to disappear *That smell seems to have gone away.*
go back *phrasal verb* to return to a place where you were or where you have been before *When are you going back to London?*
go back on sth *phrasal verb* to not do something that you promised you would do *I never go back on my word* (= not do what I said I would do).
go back to sb *phrasal verb* to start a relationship again with a person who you had a romantic relationship with in the past *Jim's gone back to his ex-wife.*
go back to sth *phrasal verb* to start doing something again that you were doing before *It's time to go back to work now.*
go by *phrasal verb* **1** TIME If time goes by, it passes. *The days went by really slowly.* **2** MOVE PAST to move past *A green sports car went by.*
go by sth *phrasal verb* to use information about something to help you make a decision about the best thing to do *You can't go by anything she says.*
go down *phrasal verb* **1** BECOME LESS to become lower in level *Interest rates are going down at the moment.* **2** SUN When the sun goes down, it moves down in the sky until it cannot be seen any more. **3 COMPUTING** If a computer goes down, it stops working. **4** REMEMBER to be considered or remembered in a particular way *This will* ***go down as*** *one of the most exciting soccer matches ever played.* ○ *UK I don't think my plan will go down well at all.*
go down with sth *phrasal verb UK informal* **HEALTH** to become ill, usually with an illness that is not very serious *Our whole class went down with the flu.*
go for sth *phrasal verb* **1** CHOOSE to choose something *What sort of printer are you going to go for?* **2** HAVE *informal* to try to have or achieve something *He'll be going for his third straight Olympic gold medal in the 200-meter dash.* ○ *If you want it, go for it* (= do what you need to do in order to have or achieve it). **3** GET to try to get something *He tripped as he was going for the ball.* **4** MONEY If something goes for a particular amount of money, it is sold for that amount.
go for sb *phrasal verb* to attack someone *He suddenly went for me with a knife.*
go in *phrasal verb* to enter a place *I looked through the window, but I didn't actually go in.*
go in for sth *phrasal verb* to like a particular activity *I don't really go in for sports.*
go into sth *phrasal verb* **1** START to start to do a particular type of work *What made you decide to go into politics?* **2** DESCRIBE to describe, discuss, or examine something in a detailed way *She didn't go into any detail about the job.* **3** BE USED If an amount of time, money, or effort goes into a product or activity, it is used or spent creating that product or doing that activity. *A lot of effort has gone into producing this play.*
go off *phrasal verb* **1** LEAVE to leave a place and go somewhere else *She's gone off to the pub with Tony.* **2** FOOD *UK informal* If food goes off, it is not good to eat any more because it is too old. **3** STOP If a light or machine goes off, it stops working. *The heating goes off at 10 o'clock.* **4** EXPLODE If a bomb or gun goes off, it explodes or fires. **5** MAKE NOISE If something that makes a noise goes off, it suddenly starts making a noise. *His car alarm goes off every time it rains.* **6 go off on one** *informal* to react angrily to something
go off sb/sth *phrasal verb UK* to stop liking someone or something *I've gone off fish recently.*
go on *phrasal verb* **1** LAST to last for a particular period of time *The film seemed to go on forever.* **2** CONTINUE to continue doing something [+ **doing sth**] *We can't go on living like this.* **3 go on to do sth** to do something else in the future *He went on to win the final.* **4** HAPPEN to happen *What's going on?* **5** TALK *UK* to talk in an annoying way about something for a long time *I wish she'd stop* ***going on about*** *her boyfriend.* **6** TALK AGAIN to start talking again after stopping for a short time *He paused and then went on with his story.* **7 Go on** *informal* something that you say to encourage someone to do something *Go on, what happened next?*
go on sth *phrasal verb* to use a piece of information to help you discover or understand something *Her first name was all we had to go on.*
go out *phrasal verb* **1** LEAVE to leave a place in order to go somewhere else *Are you going out tonight?* **2** LIGHT/FIRE If a light or something that

is burning goes out, it stops producing light or heat. *It took ages for the fire to go out.* **3** RELATIONSHIP If two people go out together, they have a romantic relationship with each other. *I've been **going out with** him for a year.*
go over *phrasal verb US* to be thought of in a particular way *I wonder how my speech will go over this afternoon.*
go over sth *phrasal verb* to talk or think about something in order to explain it or make certain that it is correct *Let's go over the plan one more time.*
go round *phrasal verb UK* (*UK/US* **go around**) **1** to be enough for everyone in a group *There aren't enough chairs to go round.* **2 go round doing sth** to spend your time behaving badly or doing something that is unpleasant for other people *She's been going round telling people I'm stupid.*
go through sth *phrasal verb* **1** EXPERIENCE to experience a difficult or unpleasant situation *She's going through a difficult time with her job.* **2** EXAMINE to carefully examine the contents of something or a collection of things in order to find something *A customs officer went through my suitcase.* **3** USE to use a lot of something *I've gone through two boxes of tissues this week.*
go through *phrasal verb* If a law, plan, or deal goes through, it is officially accepted or approved.
go through with sth *phrasal verb* to do something unpleasant or difficult that you have planned or promised to do *He was too scared to go through with the operation.*
go under *phrasal verb* If a company or business goes under, it fails financially.
go up *phrasal verb* **1** INCREASE to become higher in level *House **prices** keep **going up**.* **2** BE FIXED If a building or sign goes up, it is fixed into position. **3** EXPLODE to suddenly explode *There was a loud bang, and then the building **went up in flames**.*
go without (sth) *phrasal verb* to not have something that you usually have *They went without food for four days.*

go² /gəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **goes 1** TRY *UK* when someone tries to do something *I **had a go at** catching a fish.* ○ *If you think you might like skiing, why don't you **give it a go*** (= try to do it)? **2** TURN *mainly UK* someone's turn to do something *Throw the dice Jane, it's your go.* **3 have a go at sb** *UK* to criticize someone angrily *My mother's always having a go at me about my hair.* **4 make a go of sth** to try to make something succeed, usually by working hard

goad /gəʊd/ *verb* [T] to make someone angry or annoyed so that they react in the way that you want [+ **into** + **doing sth**] *They tried to goad us into attacking the police.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***goal***

1 score a goal ● the **winning** goal
3 set yourself a goal ● **achieve** a goal

O-key **goal** /gəʊl/ *noun* [C] **1 SPORT** a point scored in sports such as football when a player sends a ball or other object into a particular area, such as between two posts *He **scored** two **goals** in the second half.* **2 SPORT** in some sports, the area between two posts where players try to send the ball ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **3** something you want to do successfully in the future *Andy's goal is to run in the New York Marathon.*

goalie /ˈgəʊli/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** *informal short for* goalkeeper

goalkeeper /ˈgəʊlˌkiːpəʳ/ (*also US* **goaltender** /ˈgəʊlˌtendəʳ/) *noun* [C] **SPORT** the player in a sport such as football who tries to stop the ball going into the goal ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

goalpost /ˈgəʊlpəʊst/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** either of the two posts that are each side of the area where goals are scored in sports such as football ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

goat /gəʊt/ *noun* [C] an animal with horns which is kept for the milk it produces

gobble /ˈgɒbl/ (*also* **gobble up/down**) *verb* [T] *informal* to eat food very quickly

gobbledygook (*also* **gobbledegook**) /ˈgɒbldiˌguːk/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** *informal* nonsense or very complicated language that you cannot understand

go-between /ˈgəʊbɪˌtwiːn/ *noun* [C] someone who talks and gives messages to people who will not or cannot talk to each other

goblet cell /ˈgɒblətˌsel/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a simple cell that produces mucus (= thick liquid produced by the body)

goblin /ˈgɒblɪn/ *noun* [C] a short, ugly, imaginary creature who behaves badly

go-cart (*also UK* **go-kart**) /ˈgəʊkɑːt/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a small, low racing car with no roof or windows

O-key **god** /gɒd/ *noun* **1 God RELIGION** in Jewish, Christian, or Muslim belief, the spirit who created the universe and everything in it, and who rules over it **2 RELIGION** [C] a spirit, especially a male one, that people pray to and who has control over parts of the world or nature *the ancient Greek gods and goddesses* **3 (Oh) (my) God!** *informal* used to emphasize how surprised, angry, shocked, etc you are *Oh my God! The car has been stolen.* **4 thank God** *informal* something you say when you are happy because something bad did not happen

godchild /ˈgɒdtʃaɪld/ *noun* [C] *plural* **godchildren RELIGION** a child who has godparents (= people who take responsibility for the child's moral and religious development)

goddess /ˈgɒdes/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a female spirit that people pray to and who has control over parts of the world or nature

godfather /ˈgɒdfɑːðəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a man who is responsible for the moral and religious development of another person's child

godforsaken /ˈgɒdfəˌseɪkᵊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *informal* A godforsaken place is very unpleasant and usually far from other places.

godlike /ˈgɒdlaɪk/ *adjective* having qualities that make someone admired and respected as if they were a god or God

godmother /ˈgɒdˌmʌðəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a woman who is responsible for the moral and

G

religious development of another person's child

godparent /ˈɡɒdˌpeərᵊnt/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a person who is responsible for the moral and religious development of another person's child

godsend /ˈɡɒdsend/ *noun* [**no plural**] something good which happens unexpectedly, usually when you really need it *The lottery win was a godsend for her.*

goes /ɡəʊz/ *present simple he/she/it of* go

goggles /ˈɡɒɡlz/ *noun* [**plural**] special glasses which fit close to your face to protect your eyes *a* ***pair of goggles*** ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

G

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***going***

hard/heavy/slow/tough going

going[1] /ˈɡəʊɪŋ/ *noun* **1** DIFFICULTY [U] how easy or difficult something is *I found the exam quite* ***hard going.*** **2** GROUND [U] the condition of the ground for walking, riding, etc **3** LEAVING [**no plural**] when someone leaves somewhere *His going came as a big surprise.*

going[2] /ˈɡəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* **the going price/rate, etc** the usual amount of money you would expect to pay for something *What's the going rate for babysitting these days?* ➲See also: **easy-going**

going[3] /ˈɡəʊɪŋ/ *present participle of* go

ˌgoing conˈcern *noun* [C] a business that is able to continue successfully *He sold the business* ***as a going concern.***

goings-on /ˌɡəʊɪŋzˈɒn/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* unusual events or activities ***strange goings-on***

go-kart /ˈɡəʊkɑːt/ *noun* [C] SPORT *another UK spelling of* go-cart (= a small, low racing car with no roof or windows)

gold[1] /ɡəʊld/ *noun* **1** CHEMISTRY [U] a valuable, shiny, yellow metal used to make coins and jewellery (symbol **Au**) **2** [C, U] a gold medal (= a small, round disc given to someone for winning a race or competition)

gold[2] /ɡəʊld/ *adjective* **1** METAL made of gold *gold coins* **2** COLOUR being the colour of gold *gold paint*

golden /ˈɡəʊldᵊn/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being a bright yellow colour *bright golden hair* **2** METAL *literary* made of gold or like gold *a golden ring* **3 a golden opportunity** a very exciting and valuable opportunity

ˌgolden ˈwedding *noun* [C] the day when two people have been married for 50 years

goldfish /ˈɡəʊldfɪʃ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **goldfish** or **goldfishes** a small, orange fish that is often kept as a pet

ˌgold ˈmedal *noun* [C] a small, round disc given to someone for winning a race or competition *to win an Olympic gold medal*

ˈgold ˌmine *noun* [C] **1** GOLD a place where gold is taken from the ground **2** MONEY something that provides you with a lot of money

golf /ɡɒlf/ *noun* [U] SPORT a game on grass where players try to hit a small ball into a series of holes using a long, thin stick ●**golfer** *noun* [C] ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

ˈgolf ˌball *noun* [C] SPORT a small hard white ball used for playing golf

ˈgolf ˌclub *noun* [C] **1** SPORT a place where people can play golf **2** SPORT a long, thin stick used to play golf ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

ˈgolf ˌcourse *noun* [C] SPORT an area of land used for playing golf

gone /ɡɒn/ *past participle of* go

gong /ɡɒŋ/ *noun* [C] a metal disc which makes a loud sound when you hit it with a stick

gonna /ˈɡᵊnə/ *informal short for* going to

goo /ɡuː/ *noun* [U] a thick, sticky substance

good[1] /ɡʊd/ *adjective* **better**, **best 1** PLEASANT enjoyable, pleasant, or interesting *a good book* ○ *Did you have a* ***good time*** *at the party?* **2** HIGH QUALITY of a high quality or level *She speaks good French.* ○ *The food at this restaurant is very good.* **3** SUCCESSFUL successful, or able to do something well *Anne's a good cook.* ○ *She's very* ***good at*** *geography.* **4** KIND kind or helpful *a good friend* ○ *My granddaughter is very* ***good to*** *me.* **5** HEALTHY something that you say when a person asks how you are *'Hi, how are you?' 'I'm good, thanks.'* **6** POSITIVE having a positive or useful effect *Exercise is* ***good for*** *you.* **7** SUITABLE suitable or satisfactory *When would be a* ***good time*** *to phone?* **8** BEHAVIOUR A good child or animal behaves well. **9** MORALLY RIGHT morally right *a good person* ○ *He sets a* ***good example*** *to the rest of the class.* **10** COMPLETE complete and detailed *She got a good look at the robbers.* **11** LARGE used to emphasize the number, amount, quality, etc of something *There's a* ***good chance*** *he'll pass the exam.* **12** SATISFACTION something you say when you are satisfied or pleased about something or when you agree with something *Oh good, he's arrived at last.* **13 Good God/grief/heavens!, etc** used to express surprise or shock *Good heavens! It's already 11 p.m.* **14 a good 20 minutes/30 miles, etc** not less than 20 minutes/30 miles, etc and probably a bit more ➲See also: be in sb's good/bad books (**book**[1]), it's a good **job**, for good **measure**[2], stand sb in good **stead** **15 good to go** *informal* be ready to go *I'll get my coat and then I'm good to go.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

good or **well?**

Good is an adjective and is used to describe nouns.

She's a ***good*** *cook.*

Her children had a ***good*** *education.*

Well is an adverb and is used to describe verbs.

She cooks ***well.***

Her children were ***well*** *educated.*

good[2] /ɡʊd/ *noun* **1** ADVANTAGE [U] something that is an advantage or help to a person or situation *It's hard work, but it's for your own good.* **2 be no good/not any good** to not be useful, helpful, or valuable **3 do sb good** to be useful or helpful to someone *A holiday will do you good.* **4** MORALLY RIGHT [U] what people think is

morally right *Children don't always understand the difference between* ***good and bad.*** **5 for good** forever *When he was 20, he left home for good.* ➲See also: do sb a/the **world**[1] of good

ˌgood afterˈnoon *exclamation* something you say to greet someone when you meet them in the afternoon

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***goodbye***

kiss/say/wave goodbye ● a **final** goodbye

O-key **goodbye** /ɡʊdˈbaɪ/ *exclamation* something you say when you leave someone or when they leave you *Goodbye Vicki! See you next week.*

ˌgood ˈevening *exclamation* something you say to greet someone in the evening

ˌGood ˈFriday *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** the Friday before Easter (= a Christian holiday), a day when Christians remember the death of Jesus Christ

good-humoured *UK* (*US* **good-humored**) /ˌɡʊdˈhjuːməd/ *adjective* pleasant and friendly

goodies /ˈɡʊdiz/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* special or nice things that you will enjoy *She gave the children some sweets and other goodies.*

good-looking /ˌɡʊdˈlʊkɪŋ/ *adjective* If someone is good-looking, they have an attractive face. *a good-looking woman*

ˌgood ˈlooks *noun* [**plural**] an attractive face

O-key **ˌgood ˈmorning** *exclamation* something you say to greet someone when you meet them in the morning

good-natured /ˌɡʊdˈneɪtʃəd/ *adjective* pleasant and friendly *a good-natured smile/crowd*

goodness /ˈɡʊdnəs/ *noun* **1** [U] the quality of being good *She believes in the goodness of human nature.* **2 my goodness** *informal* something you say when you are surprised *My goodness, he's a big baby, isn't he?* **3 thank goodness** *informal* something you say when you are happy because something bad did not happen *Thank goodness that dog didn't bite you.* **4 for goodness sake** used when you are annoyed or when you want something to happen quickly *For goodness sake, come in out of the rain.*

O-key **ˌgood ˈnight** *exclamation* something you say when you leave someone or when they leave you in the evening or when someone is going to bed

O-key **goods** /ɡʊdz/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] items which are made to be sold *radios, stereos and other electrical goods* **2 deliver/come up with the goods** If you deliver the goods, you do what people hope you will do.

goodwill /ɡʊdˈwɪl/ *noun* [U] **1** kind, friendly, or helpful feelings towards other people *He gave them a thousand pounds as a* ***gesture of goodwill.*** **2** **FINANCE** the positive feelings of customers for a business, which has a money value if a business is sold

goody-goody /ˈɡʊdiˌɡʊdi/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who tries too hard to be good, usually to parents or teachers

gooey /ˈɡuːi/ *adjective* soft and sticky *a sweet, gooey sauce*

goof /ɡuːf/ (*also* **goof up**) *verb* [I] *US informal* to make a silly mistake
goof around *phrasal verb US* to spend your time doing silly or unimportant things
goof off *phrasal verb US* to avoid doing any work

goofy /ˈɡuːfi/ *adjective mainly US* silly *a goofy sense of humour*

Google[1] /ˈɡuːɡl/ *noun trademark* **INTERNET** a popular Internet search engine (= a computer program which finds things on the Internet by looking for words which you have typed in)

Google[2] /ˈɡuːɡl/ *verb* [T] to use the Google® search engine

goose /ɡuːs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **geese** a large water bird similar to a duck, or the meat from this bird

gooseberry /ˈɡʊzbᵊri/ (US) /ˈɡuːsberi/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, sour, green fruit with a hairy skin

ˈgoose ˌpimples (*also* **ˈgoose ˌbumps**) *noun* [**plural**] small, raised lumps that appear on your skin when you are cold or frightened

gore[1] /ɡɔːʳ/ *noun* [U] blood, usually from a violent injury

gore[2] /ɡɔːʳ/ *verb* [T] If an animal gores someone, it injures them with its horn.

gorge[1] /ɡɔːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a narrow and usually steep valley

gorge[2] /ɡɔːdʒ/ *verb* **gorge (yourself) on sth** to eat food until you cannot eat any more *She gorged herself on chocolate biscuits.*

gorgeous /ˈɡɔːdʒəs/ *adjective* very beautiful or pleasant *You look gorgeous in that dress.*

gorilla /ɡəˈrɪlə/ *noun* [C] a big, black, hairy animal, like a large monkey

gorse /ɡɔːs/ *noun* [U] a bush with yellow flowers and sharp, pointed leaves

gory /ˈɡɔːri/ *adjective* involving violence and blood *a gory murder*

gosh /ɡɒʃ/ *exclamation* used to express surprise or shock *Gosh! I didn't realize it was that late.*

gosling /ˈɡɒzlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a young goose (= large water bird)

gospel /ˈɡɒspᵊl/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [**no plural**] the teachings of Jesus Christ *to* ***preach the gospel*** **2** **RELIGION** [C] one of the four books in the Bible that tells the life of Jesus Christ **3 the gospel truth** something that is completely true **4** **MUSIC** [U] a style of Christian music, originally sung by black Americans

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gossip***

a **bit of/piece of** gossip ● **juicy** gossip

gossip[1] /ˈɡɒsɪp/ *noun* **1** CONVERSATION [U] conversation or reports about other people's private lives that might or might not be true *an interesting* ***piece of gossip*** **2** PERSON [C] someone who likes to talk about other people's private lives

gossip[2] /ˈɡɒsɪp/ *verb* [I] to talk about other people's private lives *They were* ***gossiping about*** *her boss.*

G

ˈgossip ˌcolumn *noun* [C] an article appearing regularly in a newspaper giving information about famous people's private lives

got /gɒt/ *past of* get

gotta /ˈgɒtə/ *informal short for* got to

gotten /ˈgɒtᵊn/ *US past participle of* get

gouge /gaʊdʒ/ *verb* [T] to make a hole or long cut in something
gouge sth out *phrasal verb* to remove something by digging or cutting it out of a surface, often violently

gourmet¹ /ˈgʊəmeɪ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** someone who enjoys good food and drink and knows a lot about it

gourmet² /ˈgʊəmeɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **FOOD** relating to good food and drink *a gourmet meal*

G

govern /ˈgʌvᵊn/ *verb* **1** **POLITICS** [I, T] to officially control a country *The country is now governed by the Labour Party.* ○ *a governing body* **2** [T] to influence or control the way something happens or is done *There are rules that govern how teachers treat children.*

governess /ˈgʌvᵊnəs/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a woman employed to teach the children in a family at home

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***government***

bring down/elect/form/overthrow a government ● a **democratic/elected** government ● be **in** government

government /ˈgʌvᵊnmənt/ *noun* **1** **POLITICS** [**group**] the group of people who officially control a country *The Government has cut taxes.* **2** **POLITICS** [U] the method or process of governing a country *a new style of government* ●**governmental** /ˌgʌvᵊnˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* relating to government

governor /ˈgʌvᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who is officially responsible for controlling a region, city, or organization *a prison/school governor* ○ *the Governor of Texas*

gown /gaʊn/ *noun* [C] **1** DRESS a woman's dress, usually worn on formal occasions *a silk gown* **2** LOOSE CLOTHING a loose piece of clothing like a coat worn for a particular purpose *a hospital gown* ➲See also: **dressing gown**

GP /ˌdʒiːˈpiː/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* general practitioner: a doctor who sees people in the local area and treats illnesses that do not need a hospital visit

GPS /ˌdʒiːpiːˈes/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* Global Positioning System: a system of computers and satellites (= equipment that is sent into space around the Earth to receive and send signals) that work together to tell a user where they are

grab¹ /græb/ *verb* [T] **grabbing**, *past* **grabbed** **1** TAKE SUDDENLY to take hold of something or someone suddenly *He grabbed my arm and pulled me away.* **2** DO QUICKLY *informal* to eat, do, or get something quickly because you do not have much time *I grabbed a sandwich on the way to the station.* **3 grab sb's attention** *informal* to attract someone's attention **4** TAKE OPPORTUNITY If someone grabs a chance or opportunity, they take it quickly and with enthusiasm.
grab at sb/sth *phrasal verb* to try to get hold of someone or something quickly, with your hand

grab² /græb/ *noun* **1 make a grab for sth/sb** to try to take hold of something or someone suddenly *He made a grab for the gun.* **2 up for grabs** *informal* If something is up for grabs, it is available to anyone who wants to try to get it. *Ten free concert tickets are up for grabs.*

grace¹ /greɪs/ *noun* [U] **1** MOVEMENT the quality of moving in a smooth, relaxed, and attractive way *She moved* ***with grace*** *and elegance.* **2** POLITENESS the quality of being pleasantly polite *He* ***had the grace to*** *apologize for his mistake the next day.* **3 with good grace** in a willing and happy way *He accepted the failure with good grace.* **4 a month's/week's, etc grace** an extra month/week, etc you are given before something must be paid or done **5** **RELIGION** a prayer of thanks said before or after a meal *to* ***say grace***

grace² /greɪs/ *verb* [T] When a person or object graces a place or thing, they make it more attractive. *Her face has graced the covers of magazines across the world.*

graceful /ˈgreɪsfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** MOVEMENT/SHAPE moving in a smooth, relaxed, and attractive way, or having a smooth, attractive shape *graceful movements* ○ *a graceful neck* **2** POLITE behaving in a polite and pleasant way ●**gracefully** *adverb*

gracious /ˈgreɪʃəs/ *adjective* **1** PLEASANT behaving in a pleasant, polite, calm way *He was gracious enough to thank me.* **2** COMFORTABLE comfortable and with a good appearance and quality *gracious homes/living* **3 Good/Goodness gracious!** used to express polite surprise ●**graciously** *adverb*

grade¹ /greɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** **EDUCATION** a number or letter that shows how good someone's work or performance is *Steve never studies, but he always* ***gets*** *good* ***grades****.* ○ *(UK) Carla got a grade A in German.* **2** a level of quality, size, importance, etc *I applied for a position a grade higher than my current job.* **3** **EDUCATION** *US* a school class or group of classes for students of the same age or ability *My son is in fifth grade.* **4 make the grade** to perform well enough to succeed *He wanted to get into the team but he didn't make the grade.*

grade² /greɪd/ *verb* [T] **1** LEVEL to separate people or things into different levels of quality, size, importance, etc *The fruit is washed and then* ***graded by*** *size.* **2** **EDUCATION** *US* (*UK* **mark**) to give a score to a student's piece of work *to grade work/papers*

ˈgrade ˌcrossing *US* (*UK* **level crossing**) *noun* [C] a place where a railway crosses a road

ˈgrade ˌschool *noun* [C, U] *US* **EDUCATION** a school for the first six to eight years of a child's education

gradient /ˈgreɪdiənt/ *noun* [C] how steep a slope is *a steep/gentle gradient*

gradual /ˈgrædʒuəl/ *adjective* happening slowly over a period of time *a gradual change/improvement*

O-K **gradually** /ˈgrædʒuəli/ *adverb* slowly over a period of time *Gradually he began to get better.*

graduate¹ /ˈgrædʒuət/ *noun* [C] **1** EDUCATION *UK* someone who has studied for and received a degree (= qualification) from a university *a science graduate* **2** EDUCATION *US* someone who has studied for and received a degree (= qualification) from a school, college, or university *a high-school graduate*

graduate² /ˈgrædjueɪt/ *verb* **1** EDUCATION [I] to complete your education successfully at a university, college, or, in the US, at school *He graduated from Cambridge University in 2006.* **2 graduate to sth** to move up to something more advanced or important

graduated /ˈgrædjueɪtɪd/ *adjective* divided into levels or stages *a graduated scale*

graduation /ˌgrædʒuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] EDUCATION when you receive your degree (= qualification) for completing your education or a course of study *a **graduation ceremony***

graffiti /grəˈfiːti/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE writing or pictures painted on walls and public places, usually illegally

graft¹ /grɑːft/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C] a piece of skin or bone taken from one part of a body and joined to another part *a **skin/bone graft*** **2** BIOLOGY [C] a piece cut from one plant and joined onto another plant **3** [U] *UK informal* work ***hard graft***

graft² /grɑːft/ *verb* **1** HEALTH [T] to join a piece of skin or bone taken from one part of the body to another part **2** BIOLOGY [T] to join a piece cut from one plant onto another plant **3** WORK [I] *UK informal* to work hard

grain /greɪn/ *noun* **1** FARMING, FOOD [C, U] a seed or seeds from types of grass which are eaten as food *grains of wheat/rice* **2** PIECE [C] a very small piece of something *a grain of sand/sugar* **3** QUALITY [**no plural**] a very small amount of a quality *There isn't **a grain of truth** in her story.* **4 the grain** the natural direction and pattern of lines which you can see in wood or material *to cut something along/against the grain* **5 go against the grain** If something goes against the grain, you would not normally do it because it would be unusual or morally wrong. ➲See also: take sth with a pinch of **salt¹**

gram (*also UK* **gramme**) (*written abbreviation* **g, gm**) /græm/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring weight, equal to 0.001 kilograms

grammage /ˈgræmɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] MEASURES, DT a measurement of paper weight

O-K **grammar** /ˈgræmᵊr/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [U] the way you combine words and change their form and position in a sentence, or the rules or study of this **2** [C] *mainly UK* a book of grammar rules

ˈgrammar ˌschool *noun* [C, U] **1** EDUCATION in the UK, a school which clever children over 11 years old can go to if they pass a special exam **2** EDUCATION *US another way of saying* elementary school (= a school for children from the ages of five to eleven in the US)

grammatical /grəˈmætɪkᵊl/ *adjective* LANGUAGE relating to grammar, or obeying the rules of grammar *grammatical rules* ○ *a grammatical sentence* ●**grammatically** *adverb*

gramme /græm/ *noun* [C] MEASURES *another UK spelling of* gram

gramophone /ˈgræməfəʊn/ *noun* [C] MUSIC *old-fashioned* a machine for playing music

gran /græn/ *noun* [C] *UK informal short for* grandmother

grand¹ /grænd/ *adjective* **1** LARGE very large and special *a grand hotel* ○ *the Grand Canal* **2** IMPORTANT rich and important, or behaving as if you are *a grand old lady* **3** GOOD *informal* very good or enjoyable

grand² /grænd/ *noun* [C] *plural* **grand** *informal* one thousand dollars or pounds *The holiday cost me two grand.*

grandad /ˈgrændæd/ *noun* [C] *another UK spelling of* granddad

grandchild /ˈgrændtʃaɪld/ *noun* [C] *plural* **grandchildren** the child of your son or daughter

granddad /ˈgrændæd/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK informal* grandfather

granddaughter /ˈgrænd,dɔːtᵊr/ *noun* [C] the daughter of your son or daughter

grandeur /ˈgrændjᵊr/ *noun* [U] the quality of being very large and special or beautiful *the grandeur of the hills*

O-K **grandfather** /ˈgrænd,fɑːðᵊr/ *noun* [C] the father of your mother or father

ˌgrandfather ˈclock *noun* [C] a clock in a very tall, wooden case

grandiose /ˈgrændiəʊs/ *adjective* large or detailed and made to appear important, often in an unnecessary and annoying way ***grandiose plans***

grandly /ˈgrændli/ *adverb* in a very important way, or as if you are very important

grandma /ˈgrændmɑː/ *noun* [C] *informal another word for* grandmother

O-K **grandmother** /ˈgrænd,mʌðᵊr/ *noun* [C] the mother of your mother or father

grandpa /ˈgrændpɑː/ *noun* [C] *informal another word for* grandfather

grandparent /ˈgrænd,peərᵊnt/ *noun* [C] the parent of your mother or father

ˌgrand piˈano *noun* [C] MUSIC a very large piano, usually used in public performances

grand prix /ˌgrɒnˈpriː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **grands prix** SPORT one of a series of important international races for very fast cars *the Italian Grand Prix*

ˌgrand ˈslam *noun* [C] SPORT when you win all the important competitions that are held in one year for a particular sport

grandson /ˈgrændsʌn/ *noun* [C] the son of your son or daughter

grandstand /ˈgrændstænd/ *noun* [C] SPORT a large, open structure containing rows of seats, used for watching sporting events

granite /ˈgrænɪt/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY a type of very hard, grey rock

granny /ˈgræni/ *noun* [C] *informal another word for* grandmother

G

grant¹ /grɑːnt/ *verb* **1** GIVE [T] *formal* to give or allow someone something, usually in an official way [+ **two objects**] *to grant someone a licence/visa* **2** ADMIT [T] *formal* to admit or agree that something is true *She's a good-looking woman, I grant you.* **3 take sb/sth for granted** to not show that you are grateful for someone or something, and forget that you are lucky to have them *Most of us take our freedom for granted.* **4 take it for granted** to believe that something is true without checking or thinking about it [+ **(that)**] *I took it for granted that we'd be invited.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***grant***

apply for/get/receive a grant ● a grant **for/towards** sth ● a **research** grant

grant² /grɑːnt/ *noun* [C] FINANCE an amount of money provided by a government or organization for a special purpose *They received a **research grant** for the project.*

granule /ˈgrænjuːl/ *noun* [C] a small, hard piece of a substance *coffee granules* ●**granulated** /ˈgrænjəleɪtɪd/ *adjective* ***granulated sugar***

grape /greɪp/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small, round, green, purple or red fruit that grows in large, close groups and is often used to make wine *a **bunch of grapes*** ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

grapefruit /ˈgreɪpfruːt/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **grapefruit** or **grapefruits** FOOD a large, round, yellow fruit with a sour taste

grapevine /ˈgreɪpvaɪn/ *noun* **hear sth on/through the grapevine** to hear news from someone who heard the news from someone else

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***graph***

draw a graph ● a graph **indicates/shows** sth ● a graph **of** sth

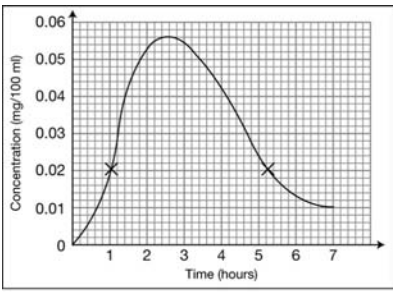

graph

graph /grɑːf/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a picture with measurements marked on it as lines or curves, used to compare different things or show the development of something ➲See Extra help page **Graphs and Charts** on page Centre 20.

graphic¹ /ˈgræfɪk/ *adjective* A graphic description or image is extremely clear and detailed. *The film contains **graphic violence**.* ●**graphically** *adverb*

graphic² /ˈgræfɪk/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING an image, especially on a computer or in a newspaper or book *I want to add a graphic here.*

ˌgraphical user ˈinterface *noun* [C] COMPUTING a way of arranging information on a computer screen that is easy to understand because it uses pictures and symbols as well as words

ˌgraphic deˈsign *noun* [U] ART, DT the art of designing pictures and text for books, magazines, advertisements, etc

graphics /ˈgræfɪks/ *noun* [plural] COMPUTING images shown on a computer screen

ˈgraphics ˌcard *noun* [C] COMPUTING the part inside a computer that allows it to receive and show pictures and video

ˈgraphics ˌtablet *noun* [C] COMPUTING a flat device that is connected to a computer, that you draw on with a stylus (= electronic pen) to make an image on the computer screen

graphite /ˈgræfaɪt/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY a soft, grey-black form of carbon used in pencils

ˈgraph ˌpaper *noun* [U] paper with small squares on it, used for drawing graphs

grapple /ˈgræpl/ *verb*
grapple with sth *phrasal verb* to try to deal with or understand something difficult
grapple with sb *phrasal verb* to hold onto someone and fight with them

grasp¹ /grɑːsp/ *verb* [T] **1** HOLD to take hold of something or someone firmly *He **grasped** my **hand** enthusiastically.* **2** UNDERSTAND to understand something *I find these mathematical problems difficult to grasp.*
grasp at sth *phrasal verb* to quickly try to get hold of something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***grasp***

have a [good/poor, etc] grasp **of** sth

grasp² /grɑːsp/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** UNDERSTAND when you understand something *He **has an** excellent **grasp** of English.* **2** HOLD when you hold onto someone or something *I tried to pull him out but he slipped from my grasp.* **3** ABILITY the ability to obtain or achieve something *Victory is **within** our **grasp**.*

grasping /ˈgrɑːspɪŋ/ *adjective* wanting much more of something than you need, especially money *a grasping, greedy man*

grass /grɑːs/ *noun* **1** PLANT [U] a common plant with narrow green leaves that grows close to the ground in gardens and fields *to **mow/cut** the **grass*** ○ *We lay on the grass in the sunshine.* **2** TYPE OF GRASS [C] a particular type of grass *ornamental grasses*

grasshopper /ˈgrɑːsˌhɒpə/ *noun* [C] a green insect which jumps about using its long back legs

ˌgrass ˈroots *noun* [plural] SOCIETY ordinary people in a society or political organization and not the leaders

grassy /ˈgrɑːsi/ *adjective* covered with grass

grate¹ /greɪt/ *verb* **1** FOOD [T] to break food such as cheese into small, thin pieces by rubbing it against a grater (= kitchen tool with holes) *grated cheese/carrot* **2** [I] to make an unpleasant noise when rubbing against something
grate on sb/sth *phrasal verb* If someone's

voice or behaviour grates on you, it annoys you.

grate² /greɪt/ *noun* [C] a metal structure for holding the wood or coal in a fireplace

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***grateful***

The adjective **appreciative** is sometimes used to show that someone is grateful, or you can use the verb **appreciate** to express the same idea: *I'm really **appreciative** of all the help you've given me.* ● *I really **appreciate** all the help you've given me.*

The expression **be glad of** is another alternative: *We **were** very **glad of** some extra help.*

The expression **be indebted to** is a more formal way of saying that someone is very grateful for something: *I'm **indebted to** my parents for all their love and support.*

The adjectives **thankful** or **relieved** are often used when a person is grateful that something bad did not happen: *I'm just **thankful/relieved** that she's safe and well.*

If a person is grateful that someone has done something kind, the adjective **touched** is sometimes used: *She was really **touched** that he remembered her birthday.*

O-K **grateful** /ˈgreɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* feeling or showing thanks *I'm really **grateful to** you **for** all your help.* ➲Opposite **ungrateful** ●**gratefully** *adverb All donations **gratefully received**.*

grater /ˈgreɪtᵊ/ *noun* [C] a kitchen tool with a surface full of holes with sharp edges, used to grate (= break into small pieces) foods such as cheese ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

gratify /ˈgrætɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to please someone or satisfy their wishes or needs *I was gratified by their decision.* ○ *a gratifying result* ●**gratification** /ˌgrætɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

grating /ˈgreɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a flat structure made of long, thin pieces of metal crossing each other over a hole in the ground or a window

gratitude /ˈgrætɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] the feeling or quality of being grateful *I would like to express my deep gratitude to all the hospital staff.*

gratuitous /grəˈtjuːɪtəs/ *adjective* unnecessary and done without a good reason ***gratuitous violence***

gratuity /grəˈtjuːəti/ *noun* [C] *formal* **FINANCE** an extra amount of money given to someone to thank them for providing a service

O-K **grave¹** /greɪv/ *noun* [C] a place in the ground where a dead body is buried

grave² /greɪv/ *adjective* very serious ***grave doubts*** ○ *a **grave mistake*** ●**gravely** *adverb*

gravel /ˈgrævᵊl/ *noun* [U] small pieces of stone used to make paths and road surfaces

gravestone /ˈgreɪvstəʊn/ *noun* [C] a stone that shows the name of a dead person who is buried under it

graveyard /ˈgreɪvjɑːd/ *noun* [C] an area of land where dead bodies are buried, usually next to a church

gravitate /ˈgrævɪteɪt/ *verb*
gravitate to/towards sth/sb *phrasal verb* to be attracted to something or someone, or to move in the direction of something or someone

gravitational /ˌgrævɪˈteɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** relating to gravity ***gravitational force***

gravity /ˈgrævəti/ *noun* [U] **1** **PHYSICS** the force that makes objects fall to the ground or that pulls objects towards a planet or other body *the laws of gravity* **2** SERIOUS PROBLEM *formal* when something is very serious *You don't seem to realize the gravity of the situation.* ➲See also: **centre of gravity**

gravure /grəˈvjʊᵊ/ *noun* [U] a method of printing using a surface with many small cuts in it *a gravure press*

gravy /ˈgreɪvi/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a warm, brown sauce made from the fat and liquid that comes from meat when it is being cooked

O-K **gray** /greɪ/ *noun*, [C, U] *adjective US spelling of* grey

graying /ˈgreɪɪŋ/ *adjective US spelling of* greying (= having hair that is becoming grey or white)

graze¹ /greɪz/ *verb* **1** **FARMING** [I] When cows or other animals graze, they eat grass. *Cattle grazed in the meadow.* **2** INJURE [T] *UK* (*UK/US* **skin**) to injure your skin by rubbing it against something rough *I fell and grazed my knee.* **3** TOUCH [T] to touch or move lightly along the surface or edge of something *A bullet grazed his cheek.*

graze² /greɪz/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* **HEALTH** an injury on the surface of your skin caused by rubbing against something *She has a nasty **graze on** her elbow.*

grease¹ /griːs/ *noun* [U] **1** **FOOD** a substance such as oil or fat **2** a substance like thick oil that is put on parts in an engine or machine to make them move more smoothly

grease² /griːs/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to put fat or oil on or in something

greasy /ˈgriːsi/ *adjective* containing or covered with fat or oil *greasy food/fingers*

O-K **great** /greɪt/ *adjective* **1** EXCELLENT very good *We had a great time.* ○ *I've had a great idea!* **2** IMPORTANT important or famous *a great statesman/novelist* **3** LARGE large in amount, size, or degree *a great crowd of people* **4** EXTREME extreme *great success/difficulty* **5 great big/long, etc** very big/long, etc *I gave her a great big hug.* **6 a great many** a large number ●**greatness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: go to great lengths (**length**) to do sth, set great **store**¹ by sth, the best/greatest **thing** since sliced bread

great- /greɪt/ *prefix* **1 great-grandfather/-grandmother** the father/mother of your grandfather or grandmother **2 great-aunt/-uncle** the aunt/uncle of your mother or father **3 great-grandchild/-granddaughter, etc** the child/daughter, etc of your grandson or granddaughter **4 great-niece/-nephew** the daughter/son of your niece or nephew

greatly /ˈgreɪtli/ *adverb* very much *I greatly admire your paintings.* ○ *We will miss her greatly.*

greed /griːd/ *noun* [U] when you want a lot more food, money, etc, than you need

greedy /ˈgriːdi/ *adjective* wanting a lot more food, money, etc, than you need *greedy, selfish people* ○ *They were* ***greedy for*** *money.* ●**greedily** *adverb* ●**greediness** *noun* [U]

Greek /griːk/ *adjective* relating to the culture, language, or people of Greece or ancient Greece

green¹ /griːn/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being the same colour as grass *The traffic lights turned green.* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** **ENVIRONMENT** [**always before noun**] relating to nature and protecting the environment *a green activist/campaigner* **3** GRASS covered with grass or other plants ***green spaces*** **4** NOT EXPERIENCED *informal* having little experience or understanding *I was very green when I joined the company.* **5 be green with envy** to wish very much that you had something that another person has ➲See also: have green fingers (**finger¹**), **green light**

green² /griːn/ *noun* **1** COLOUR [**C, U**] the colour of grass ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 6 **2** **SPORT** [**C**] a special area of very short, smooth grass on a golf course *the 18th green* **3** VILLAGE [**C**] an area of grass in the middle of a village

ˈgreen ˌbelt *noun* [**C**] an area of land around a city or town where no new building is allowed

ˌgreen ˈcard *noun* [**C**] **LAW** an official document allowing a foreigner to live and work in the US permanently

greenery /ˈgriːnᵊri/ *noun* [**U**] green leaves, plants, or branches

greenfield /ˈgriːfiːld/ *adjective UK* **ENVIRONMENT** describes land where there were no buildings before, or buildings on land that have never had buildings *a* ***greenfield site*** ➲Compare **brownfield**

greengrocer /ˈgriːnˌgrəʊsəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* **1 greengrocer's** a shop where you buy fruit and vegetables **2** someone who sells fruit and vegetables

greenhouse /ˈgriːnhaʊs/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **greenhouses** /ˈgriːnhaʊzɪz/ a building made of glass for growing plants in

the ˈgreenhouse eˌfect *noun* **ENVIRONMENT** the gradual warming of the Earth's surface caused by an increase in pollution and gases in the air

ˌgreenhouse ˈgas *noun* [**C**] **ENVIRONMENT** a gas which causes the greenhouse effect, especially carbon dioxide (= a gas produced when carbon is burned)

ˌgreen ˈlight *noun* [**no plural**] permission to do something [**+ to do sth**] *They've been* ***given the green light*** *to build two new supermarkets.*

the ˈGreen ˌParty *noun* [**group**] **POLITICS** a political party whose main aim is to protect the environment

greens /griːnz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** green leaves that are cooked and eaten as a vegetable

greet /griːt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** WELCOME to welcome someone *He greeted me at the door.* **2** REACT to react to something in a particular way [**often passive**] *His story was* ***greeted with*** *shrieks of laughter.*

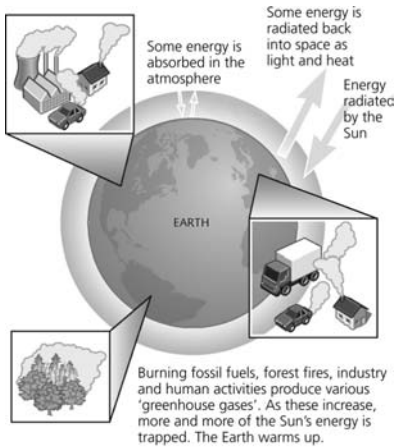

greenhouse effect

greeting /ˈgriːtɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* something friendly or polite that you say or do when you meet or welcome someone

gregarious /grɪˈgeərɪəs/ *adjective* If you are gregarious, you enjoy being with other people.

grenade /grəˈneɪd/ *noun* [**C**] a small bomb that is thrown or fired from a weapon

grew /gruː/ *past tense of* grow

grey¹ *UK* (*US* **gray**) /greɪ/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being a colour that is a mixture of black and white *grey clouds* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** HAIR having hair that has become grey or white *She* ***went grey*** *in her thirties.* **3** WEATHER cloudy and not bright *a cold, grey morning* **4** BORING not interesting or attractive *Life was grey and tedious.* **5 grey area** something which people are not certain about, usually because there are no clear rules for it

grey² *UK* (*US* **gray**) /greɪ/ *noun* [**C, U**] a colour that is a mixture of black and white ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

greyhound /ˈgreɪhaʊnd/ *noun* [**C**] a thin dog with short hair that runs very fast, sometimes in races

greying *UK* (*US* **graying**) /ˈgreɪɪŋ/ *adjective* having hair that is becoming grey or white

grid /grɪd/ *noun* **1** PATTERN [**C**] a pattern or structure made from horizontal and vertical lines crossing each other to form squares **2** POWER [**no plural**] a system of connected wires used to supply electrical power to a large area *the National Grid* **3** **GEOGRAPHY** [**C**] a pattern of squares with numbers or letters used to find places on a map

gridlock /ˈgrɪdlɒk/ *noun* [**U**] when the traffic cannot move in any direction because all of the roads are blocked with cars

grief /griːf/ *noun* **1** [**U**] great sadness, especially caused by someone's death **2 Good grief!**

informal something that you say when you are surprised or annoyed **3 come to grief** *informal* to suddenly fail or have an accident **4 cause/give sb grief** *informal* to annoy someone or cause trouble or problems for them

grievance /ˈgriːvᵊns/ *noun* [C] *formal* a complaint, especially about unfair behaviour

ˈgrievance proˌcedure *noun* [C] a set of rules that a company has to deal with a situation when an employee is upset or angry about something

grieve /griːv/ *verb* **1** FEEL SAD [I] to feel or express great sadness, especially when someone dies *He is still **grieving for** his wife.* **2** MAKE SAD [T] *formal* to make someone feel very sad

grievous /ˈgriːvəs/ *adjective formal* very serious ***grievous injuries*** ●**grievously** *adverb*

grill¹ /grɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** KITCHEN (*also US* **broiler**) a piece of equipment which cooks food using direct heat from above ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 **2** FIRE a flat, metal structure used to cook food over a fire

grill² /grɪl/ *verb* [T] **1 FOOD** (*also US* **broil**) to cook food using direct heat *Grill the fish for 2 to 3 minutes on each side.* ➲See picture at **cook 2** to ask someone questions continuously and for a long time *I was grilled by the police for two days.*

grille /grɪl/ *noun* [C] a metal structure of bars built across something to protect it

grim /grɪm/ *adjective* **grimmer**, **grimmest 1** BAD worrying and bad ***grim news*** ○ *The future looks grim.* **2** SERIOUS sad and serious *a grim expression* **3** UNPLEASANT A grim place is ugly and unpleasant. ●**grimly** *adverb*

grimace /ˈgrɪməs/ *verb* [I] to make your face show an expression of pain or unhappiness *He grimaced at the bitter taste.* ●**grimace** *noun* [C]

grime /graɪm/ *noun* [U] dirt that covers a surface *The walls were covered in grime.* ●**grimy** *adjective* covered in dirt *grimy hands*

grin /grɪn/ *verb* **grinning**, *past* **grinned 1** [I] to smile a big smile *He **grinned at** me from the doorway.* **2 grin and bear it** to accept an unpleasant or difficult situation because there is nothing you can do to improve it ●**grin** *noun* [C] *She had a big grin on her face.*

grind¹ /graɪnd/ *verb* [T] *past* **ground 1 FOOD** to keep rubbing something between two rough, hard surfaces until it becomes a powder *to grind coffee* **2** to rub a blade against a hard surface to make it sharp **3 grind your teeth** to rub your teeth together, making an unpleasant sound

grind sb down *phrasal verb* to gradually make someone lose hope, energy, or confidence

grind² /graɪnd/ *noun* [**no plural**] *informal* work or effort that is boring and unpleasant and makes you tired because it does not change *the **daily grind***

grinder /ˈgraɪndᵊ/ *noun* [C] a machine used to rub or press something until it becomes a powder *a **coffee grinder***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***grip***

loosen/release/tighten your grip ● sb's grip **on** sth

grip¹ /grɪp/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** HOLDING when you hold something tightly *She **tightened** her **grip on** my arm.* **2** CONTROL control over something or someone *He has a firm **grip on** the economy.* **3 come/get to grips with sth** to understand and deal with a problem or situation *It's a difficult subject to get to grips with.* **4 get a grip (on yourself)** to make an effort to control your emotions and behave more calmly

grip² /grɪp/ *verb* [T] **gripping**, *past* **gripped 1** HOLD to hold something tightly *She gripped his arm.* **2** INTEREST to keep someone's attention completely *This trial has gripped the whole nation.* **3** EMOTION When an emotion grips you, you feel it very strongly. [**often passive**] *He was gripped by fear.*

gripe /graɪp/ *verb* [I] *informal* to complain, often in an annoying way ●**gripe** *noun* [C]

gripping /ˈgrɪpɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is gripping, it is so interesting that it holds your attention completely. *a gripping story*

grisly /ˈgrɪzli/ *adjective* very unpleasant, especially because death or blood is involved *a grisly murder*

grit¹ /grɪt/ *noun* [U] **1** STONE very small pieces of stone or sand *I've got a bit of grit in my eye.* **2** CHARACTER the quality of being brave and determined

grit² /grɪt/ *verb* [T] **gritting**, *past* **gritted** to put grit onto a road surface when the road has ice on it ➲See also: grit your teeth (**teeth**)

gritty /ˈgrɪti/ *adjective* **1** UNPLEASANT showing unpleasant details about a situation in a way that seems very real ***a gritty drama*** ○ ***gritty realism*** **2** BRAVE brave and determined ***gritty determination***

groan /grəʊn/ *verb* [I] to make a long, low sound such as when expressing pain, unhappiness, etc *He collapsed, groaning with pain.* ●**groan** *noun* [C]

grocer /ˈgrəʊsəʳ/ *noun* **1 grocer's** *UK* a shop that sells food and other products used in the home **2** [C] someone who owns or works in a grocer's

groceries /ˈgrəʊsᵊriz/ *noun* [**plural**] goods bought to be used in the home such as food and cleaning products

grocery /ˈgrəʊsᵊri/ (*also US* **ˈgroceryˌstore**) *noun* [C] a shop that sells food and products used in the home

groggy /ˈgrɒgi/ *adjective informal* unable to think or act quickly because you have just woken up, been ill, etc *I felt a bit groggy after the operation.*

groin /grɔɪn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the area where the legs join the rest of the body near the sexual organs *He pulled a muscle in his groin.* ➲See picture at **body**

groom¹ /gruːm/ *verb* [T] **1** PREPARE to prepare someone carefully for a special position or job *He's being **groomed for** stardom.* **2** CLEAN to clean and brush an animal's fur

groom² /gruːm/ *noun* [C] **1** MARRIAGE (*also* **bridegroom**) a man who is getting married **2** HORSE someone who cleans and looks after horses

groove /gruːv/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow line that has been cut into a surface

G

groovy /ˈgruːvi/ *adjective old-fashioned informal* fashionable and stylish *groovy clothes*

grope /grəʊp/ *verb* **1** [**I, T**] to try to get hold of something with your hand, usually when you cannot see it *I **groped** in my bag **for** my keys.* **2 grope your way along/through, etc** to move somewhere with difficulty, feeling with your hands because you cannot see clearly *We groped our way through the smoke to the exit.* **grope for sth** *phrasal verb* to try to think of the right words or the right way to express something *He groped for the words to tell her.*

gross¹ /grəʊs/ *adjective* **1** FINANCE A gross amount of money has not had taxes or other costs taken from it. ***gross earnings/profit*** **2** SERIOUS [**always before noun**] *formal* very serious or unacceptable ***gross misconduct*** **3** UNPLEASANT *informal* very unpleasant *Oh, yuck. That's really gross.*

gross² /grəʊs/ *verb* [**T**] FINANCE to earn a particular amount of money as a total before tax or other costs are taken from it *The film grossed $250 million.*

grossly /ˈgrəʊsli/ *adverb* extremely ***grossly unfair/exaggerated***

grotesque /grəʊˈtesk/ *adjective* strange and unpleasant, especially in a ridiculous or slightly frightening way *a grotesque image* ●**grotesquely** *adverb*

grotto /ˈgrɒtəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] a small cave

O-key **ground¹** /graʊnd/ *noun* **1 the ground** GEOLOGY the surface of the Earth *I sat down on the ground.* **2** SOIL [**U**] the soil in an area *soft/stony ground* **3** SPORT [**C**] an area of land used for a particular purpose or activity *a football ground* **4** KNOWLEDGE [**U**] an area of knowledge, information, interest, or experience *He had to **go over the same ground** several times before I understood it.* **5 break new ground** to do something that is different to anything that has been done before **6 gain/lose ground** to become more/less popular and accepted *The idea is gradually gaining ground.* **7 get (sth) off the ground** If a plan or activity gets off the ground, or if you get it off the ground, it starts or succeeds. *He worked hard at getting the project off the ground.* **8 stand your ground** to refuse to change your opinion or move your position despite attempts to make you **9 suit sb down to the ground** *UK* to be exactly right or suitable for someone *That job would suit you down to the ground.* **10 be thin on the ground** *UK* to exist only in small numbers or amounts ➲See also: **breeding ground, common ground**

ground² /graʊnd/ *verb* **1 be grounded** If a vehicle that travels on water or in the air is grounded, it cannot or may not leave the ground. *The aircraft was **grounded by** fog.* **2 be grounded in sth** *formal* to be based firmly on something *Fiction should be grounded in reality.*

ground³ /graʊnd/ *past of* grind

ˌground ˈbeef *US* (*UK* **mince**) *noun* [**U**] FOOD beef (= meat from a cow) that has been cut into very small pieces by a machine

groundbreaking /ˈgraʊndˌbreɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* based on or containing completely new ideas ***groundbreaking research***

grounded /ˈgraʊndɪd/ *adjective* **1** Someone who is grounded does not say or do stupid things and generally behaves well and makes good decisions. *He seems remarkably grounded considering his background.* **2** describes an aircraft that is prevented from flying, or a ship that cannot move because it has hit solid ground

ˌground ˈfloor *UK* (*US* **first floor**) *noun* [**C**] the level of a building which is on the ground

grounding /ˈgraʊndɪŋ/ *noun* [**no plural**] knowledge of the basic facts and principles of a subject *The course gave me a good **grounding in** bookkeeping.*

groundless /ˈgraʊndləs/ *adjective* Groundless fears, worries, etc have no reason or facts to support them.

ˈground ˌrules *noun* [**plural**] the basic rules or principles for doing something

grounds /graʊndz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** REASON the reason for doing or believing something *He resigned **on** medical **grounds**.* ○ *I refused **on the grounds that*** (= because) *it was too risky.* **2** LAND the land around and belonging to a particular building or organization *We strolled around the hospital grounds.*

groundwork /ˈgraʊndwɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] work or events that prepare for something that will be done or produced in the future *The project is **laying the groundwork for** a new approach to research.*

ˌground ˈzero *noun* [**U**] **1** the exact place where a nuclear bomb explodes **2** the place in New York City where the World Trade Center stood before it was destroyed in an attack on September 11, 2001

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***group***

form/join a group ● **divide/split** sth into groups ● a **large/small** group ● a group **of** sth

O-key **group¹** /gruːp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a number of people or things that are together in one place or are connected *She went camping with a small **group of** friends.* **2** MUSIC a few musicians or singers who perform together, usually playing popular music *a **pop group*** **3** CHEMISTRY a set of chemical elements with similar characteristics, that are arranged under one another on the Periodic Table ➲See also: **age group, blood group, focus group, peer group, pressure group**

group² /gruːp/ *verb* [**I, T**] to form a group or put people or things into a group or groups *The children are grouped according to their ability.*

grouping /ˈgruːpɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] a group of people or things that have the same aims or qualities *regional groupings*

groupwork /ˈgruːpwɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] EDUCATION work in class done by groups of students together

grouse¹ /graʊs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** FOOD *plural* **grouse** a small, fat, brown bird that some people hunt for food **2** a small complaint about something

grouse² /graʊs/ *verb* [**I**] to complain about something

grove /ɡrəʊv/ *noun* [C] a small group of trees *an olive grove*

grovel /ˈɡrɒvᵊl/ *verb* [I] *UK* **grovelling**, *past* **grovelled**, *US* **groveling**, *past* **groveled** **1** TRY to try very hard to be nice to someone important so that they will be nice to you or forgive you *She grovelled to the producer to get that part.* **2** MOVE to move around on your hands and knees *He was grovelling around on the floor.*

grow /ɡrəʊ/ *verb past tense* **grew**, *past participle* **grown** **1** DEVELOP [I] to develop and become bigger or taller as time passes *Children grow very quickly.* **2** PLANT [I, T] If a plant grows, or you grow it, it develops from a seed to a full plant. *These shrubs grow well in sandy soil.* **3** INCREASE [I] to increase *The number of people living alone grows each year.* **4 grow tired/old/calm, etc** to gradually become tired/old/calm, etc *The music grew louder and louder.* **5** HAIR [I, T] If your hair or nails grow, or if you grow them, they get longer.
grow into sb/sth *phrasal verb* to develop into a particular type of person or thing
grow into sth *phrasal verb* If a child grows into clothes, they gradually become big enough to wear them.
grow on sb *phrasal verb* If someone or something grows on you, you start to like them. *I didn't like her at first but she's grown on me over the years.*
grow out of sth *phrasal verb* **1** CLOTHES If children grow out of clothes, they gradually become too big to wear them. *Adam's grown out of his shoes.* **2** STOP to stop doing something as you get older *He still bites his nails, but hopefully he'll grow out of it.*

grow up *phrasal verb* **1** BECOME ADULT to become older or an adult *She grew up in New York.* **2** DEVELOP to develop or become bigger or stronger *A close friendship had grown up between them.*

grower /ˈɡrəʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** someone who grows fruit or vegetables to sell to people

growing /ˈɡrəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* increasing *A growing number of people are choosing to live alone.*

growl /ɡraʊl/ *verb* [I] If a dog or similar animal growls, it makes a deep, angry noise in its throat. ●**growl** *noun* [C]

grown¹ /ɡrəʊn/ *adjective* **a grown man/woman** an adult, used especially when they are not behaving like an adult

grown² /ɡrəʊn/ *past participle of* grow

grown-up¹ /ˈɡrəʊnʌp/ *noun* [C] an adult, used especially when talking to children *Ask a grown-up to cut the shape out for you.*

grown-up² /ˌɡrəʊnˈʌp/ *adjective* with the physical and mental development of an adult *Jenny has a grown-up son of 24.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***growth***

encourage/slow/stimulate/stunt growth ● **healthy/long-term/low/rapid/slow/steady** growth ● a growth **in** sth

growth /ɡrəʊθ/ *noun* **1** [U, **no plural**] when something grows, increases, or develops *population growth* ○ *A balanced diet is essential for healthy growth.* **2** **HEALTH** [C] something that grows on your skin or inside your body, that should not be there

ˈgrowth ˌhormone *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a hormone (= chemical made by living cells) that helps an animal or plant to grow

grub /ɡrʌb/ *noun* **1** FOOD [U] *informal* food **2** CREATURE [C] a young, developing insect which has a fat, white tube shape

grubby /ˈɡrʌbi/ *adjective* quite dirty *a grubby little boy*

grudge¹ /ɡrʌdʒ/ *noun* [C] a feeling of dislike or anger towards someone because of something they have done in the past *He is not the type of person to* ***bear a grudge against*** *anyone.*

grudge² /ɡrʌdʒ/ *verb* [T] to not want to spend time or money or to give something to someone *He grudged the time he spent in meetings.*

grudging /ˈɡrʌdʒɪŋ/ *adjective* done against your will, in a way that shows you do not want to do it *He treated her with* ***grudging respect.*** ●**grudgingly** *adverb*

gruelling *UK* (*US* **grueling**) /ˈɡruːᵊlɪŋ/ *adjective* Gruelling activities are very difficult and make you very tired. *a gruelling bicycle race*

gruesome /ˈɡruːsəm/ *adjective* very unpleasant or violent, usually involving injury or death *a* ***gruesome murder***

gruff /ɡrʌf/ *adjective* sounding unfriendly *a* ***gruff voice*** ●**gruffly** *adverb*

grumble /ˈɡrʌmbl/ *verb* [I] to complain about something in a quiet but angry way *She's always* ***grumbling about*** *something.* ●**grumble** *noun* [C]

grumpy /ˈɡrʌmpi/ *adjective* easily annoyed and often complaining *a* ***grumpy old man*** ●**grumpily** *adverb* ●**grumpiness** *noun* [U]

grunt /ɡrʌnt/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I, T] to make a short, low sound instead of speaking, usually when you are angry or in pain **2** PIG [I] If a pig grunts, it makes short, low sounds. ●**grunt** *noun* [C]

guarantee¹ /ˌɡærᵊnˈtiː/ *verb* [T] **guaranteeing**, *past* **guaranteed** **1** PROMISE to promise that something is true or will happen *Every child is guaranteed a place at a local school.* [+ **(that)**] *We can't guarantee that it will arrive in time.* **2** PRODUCT If a company guarantees its products, it makes a written promise to repair them or give you a new one if they have a fault.

guarantee² /ˌɡærᵊnˈtiː/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **LAW** a written promise made by a company to repair one of its products or give you a new one if it has a fault *a three-year guarantee* ○ *I'm afraid this camera is no longer* ***under guarantee.*** **2** a promise that something will be done or will happen [+ **(that)**] *There's no guarantee that it actually works.*

guard¹ /ɡɑːd/ *noun* **1** PROTECT [C] someone whose job is to make certain someone does not escape or to protect a place or another person *a* ***security guard*** ○ ***prison guards*** **2** SOLDIERS [**no plural**] a group of soldiers or police officers who are protecting a person or place **3** TRAIN [C] (*also* **conductor**) someone who is in charge of a train **4** THING [C] something that covers or protects someone or something *a* ***fire guard***

5 be on guard; stand guard to be responsible for protecting a place or a person *Armed police stood guard outside the house.* **6 be under guard** to be kept in a place by a group of people who have weapons *The suspect is now under guard in the local hospital.* **7 catch sb off guard** to surprise someone by doing something when they are not ready to deal with it **8 be on (your) guard** to be ready to deal with something difficult that might happen *Companies were warned to be* ***on their guard for*** *suspicious packages.*

guard² /gɑːd/ *verb* [T] **1** PROTECT to protect someone or something from being attacked or stolen *Soldiers guarded the main doors of the embassy.* **2** PREVENT ESCAPE to watch someone and make certain that they do not escape from a place *Five prison officers guarded the prisoners.*
guard against sth *phrasal verb* to try to make certain that something does not happen by being very careful *Regular exercise helps guard against heart disease.*

ˈguard ˌcell *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** on a leaf, one of two cells that are around each stoma (= small hole in the surface) which open the hole to let out gases or close it to stop water from leaving ➲See picture at **leaf**

guarded /ˈgɑːdɪd/ *adjective* careful not to give too much information or show how you really feel *a guarded response* ●**guardedly** *adverb*

guardian /ˈgɑːdiən/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR CHILD someone who is legally responsible for someone else's child *The consent form must be signed by the child's parent or guardian.* **2** PROTECTING LAWS a person or organization that protects laws, principles, etc ●**guardianship** *noun* [U]

guerrilla /gəˈrɪlə/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a member of an unofficial group of soldiers fighting to achieve their political beliefs *guerrilla warfare*

guess¹ /ges/ *verb* **1** SAY WITHOUT KNOWING [I, T] to give an answer or opinion about something without having all the facts *Can you guess how old he is?* **2** SAY CORRECTLY WITHOUT KNOWING [I, T] to give a correct answer without having all the facts *"You've got a promotion!" "Yes, how did you guess?"* [+ **(that)**] *I'd never have guessed that you two were related.* **3 I guess** used when you think that something is probably true or likely *I've known her for about 12 years, I guess.* **4 I guess so/not** used when you agree/disagree but are not completely certain about something **5 Guess what?** something you say when you have some surprising news for someone *Guess what? I'm pregnant.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***guess***

have/hazard/make/take a guess ● a **rough** guess ● **at** a guess ● a guess **as to/at** sth

guess² /ges/ *noun* [C] **1** ATTEMPT an attempt to give the right answer when you are not certain what it is *How old do you think John is? Go on, (UK)* ***have*** *a* ***guess****/ (US)* ***take*** *a* ***guess****.* ○ ***At a guess****, I'd say there were about 70 people there.* **2** OPINION an opinion that you have formed by guessing *My guess is they'll announce their engagement soon.* **3 be anybody's guess** *informal* to be something that no one can be certain about *What happens after the election is anybody's guess.*

guesswork /ˈgeswɜːk/ *noun* [U] when you try to find an answer by guessing

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***guest***

entertain/invite/welcome guests ● a **frequent/honoured/special/uninvited** guest

guest /gest/ *noun* [C] **1** VISITOR someone who comes to visit you in your home, at a party, etc *We've got some guests coming this weekend.* **2** HOTEL someone who is staying in a hotel *The hotel has accommodation for 200 guests.* **3** TV a famous person who takes part in a television programme or other entertainment *Our special guest tonight is George Michael.* **4 Be my guest.** something you say when you give someone permission to use something or do something

guesthouse /ˈgesthaʊs/ *noun* [C] a small cheap hotel

GUI /ˈguːi/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** graphical user interface: a way of arranging information on a computer screen that is easy to understand because it uses pictures and symbols as well as words

guidance /ˈgaɪdᵊns/ *noun* [U] help or advice *Students make choices about their future, with the guidance of their teachers.*

guide¹ /gaɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone whose job is to show interesting places to visitors, or to help people get somewhere *a* ***tour guide*** **2** BOOK a book that gives information about something or tells you how to do something *a hotel/restaurant guide* ○ *a user's guide* **3** PLAN something that helps you plan or decide what to do [**usually singular**] *Parents use this report as a guide when choosing schools for their children.* **4 Guide** (*also* **ˌGirl ˈGuide**) a girl who belongs to an organization in the UK that teaches practical things like living outside, and how to work as part of a team **5 the Guides** an organization in the UK that teaches girls practical skills and how to work as part of a team

guide² /gaɪd/ *verb* [T] **1** GO to help someone or something go somewhere *He gently guided her back to her seat.* **2** ADVISE to tell someone what they should do *She had no one to guide her as a teenager.*

guidebook /ˈgaɪdbʊk/ *noun* [C] a book that gives visitors information about a particular place

ˈguide ˌdog (*also US* **seeing eye dog**) *noun* [C] a dog that is trained to help blind people

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***guidelines***

draw up/issue/lay down/produce guidelines ● guidelines **on** sth

guidelines /ˈgaɪdlaɪnz/ *noun* [**plural**] advice about how to do something *government* ***guidelines on*** *tobacco advertising*

guild /gɪld/ *noun* [C] an organization of people who have the same job or interests *the Designers' Guild*

guile /gaɪl/ *noun* [U] *formal* clever but sometimes dishonest behaviour that you use to deceive someone

guillotine /ˈgɪləti:n/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to cut off criminals' heads in the past ●**guillotine** *verb* [T]

guilt /gɪlt/ *noun* [U] **1** FEELING the strong feeling of shame that you feel when you have done something wrong *He was overcome with guilt over what he had done.* **2** ILLEGAL the fact that someone has done something illegal *The prosecution must convince the jury of his guilt.* **3** WRONG the responsibility for doing something bad

guilt-ridden /ˈgɪltrɪdᵊn/ *adjective* feeling very guilty

O-key **guilty** /ˈgɪlti/ *adjective* **1** ASHAMED ashamed because you have done something wrong [+ **about** + **doing sth**] *I feel so guilty about not going to see them.* **2** LAW having broken a law *The jury **found her guilty*** (= decided that she was guilty of a crime). ○ *They found him **guilty of** rape.* ●**guiltily** *adverb* ●**guiltiness** *noun* [U]

guinea pig /ˈgɪni,pɪg/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL a small animal with fur and no tail that people sometimes keep as a pet **2** PERSON *informal* someone who is used in a test for something such as a new medicine or product

guise /gaɪz/ *noun* [C] *formal* what something seems to be, although it is not *Banks are facing new competition **in the guise of** supermarkets.*

guitar /gɪˈtɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument with strings that you play by pulling the strings with your fingers or a piece of plastic *an **electric guitar***

guitarist /gɪˈtɑːrɪst/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays the guitar, especially as their job

gulf /gʌlf/ *noun* [C] **1 GEOGRAPHY** a large area of sea that has land almost all the way around it *the Arabian Gulf* **2** an important difference between the opinions or situations of two groups of people *There is a growing **gulf between** the rich and the poor.*

gull /gʌl/ (*also* **seagull**) *noun* [C] a white or grey bird that lives near the sea and has a loud cry

gullible /ˈgʌlɪbl/ *adjective* Someone who is gullible is easily tricked because they trust people too much. *How could you be so gullible?*

gully /ˈgʌli/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a narrow valley which is usually dry except after a lot of rain

gulp /gʌlp/ *verb* **1** DRINK/EAT [T] (*also* **gulp down**) to drink or eat something quickly *I just had time to gulp down a cup of coffee before I left.* **2** BREATHE [I, T] to breathe in large amounts of air **3** SWALLOW [I] to swallow suddenly, sometimes making a noise, because you are nervous or surprised ●**gulp** *noun* [C] *He took a large gulp of tea.*

gum¹ /gʌm/ *noun* **1 ANATOMY** [C] the hard, pink part inside your mouth that your teeth grow out of [**usually plural**] *Protect your teeth and gums by visiting your dentist regularly.* ○ ***gum disease*** ➲See picture at **tooth 2 FOOD** [U] (*also* **chewing gum**) a sweet substance that you chew (= bite repeatedly) but do not swallow *a stick of gum* **3** [U] a sticky substance like glue, used for sticking papers together ➲See also: **bubble gum**

gum² /gʌm/ *verb* [T] **gumming**, *past* **gummed** *UK* to stick things together using glue

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***gun***

point a gun **at** sb/sth ● **fire** a gun

O-key **gun¹** /gʌn/ *noun* **1** [C] a weapon that you fire bullets out of **2 jump the gun** to do something too soon, before you have thought about it carefully **3 stick to your guns** *informal* to refuse to change your ideas although other people try to make you ➲See also: **machine gun**

gun² /gʌn/ *verb* **gunning**, *past* **gunned**
gun sb down *phrasal verb* to shoot someone and kill them or injure them badly

gunboat /ˈgʌnbəʊt/ *noun* [C] a small ship used during a war

gunfire /ˈgʌnfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [U] when guns are fired, or the noise that this makes

gunman /ˈgʌnmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **gunmen** a criminal with a gun

gunner /ˈgʌnəʳ/ *noun* [C] a soldier or sailor whose job is to fire a large gun

gunpoint /ˈgʌnpɔɪnt/ *noun* **at gunpoint** with someone aiming a gun towards you *The hostages are being **held at gunpoint**.*

gunpowder /ˈgʌn,paʊdəʳ/ *noun* [U] an explosive powder

gunshot /ˈgʌnʃɒt/ *noun* [C] when a gun is fired *I heard a gunshot and rushed into the street.* ○ ***gunshot wounds** to the chest*

gurgle /ˈgɜːgl/ *verb* [I] to make a sound like bubbling liquid *The baby was gurgling happily.* ●**gurgle** *noun* [C]

guru /ˈguːruː/ *noun* [C] **1** someone whose opinion you respect because they know a lot about a particular thing **2 RELIGION** a teacher or leader in the Hindu religion

gush¹ /gʌʃ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** LIQUID If liquid gushes from an opening, it comes out quickly and in large amounts. *He ran down the street, blood gushing from a wound in his neck.* **2** PRAISE to praise someone so much that they do not believe you are sincere *"Darling! I'm so excited!" she gushed.*

gush² /gʌʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** LIQUID/GAS a large amount of liquid or gas that flows quickly **2** FEELING a sudden feeling of a particular emotion

gust /gʌst/ *verb* [I] If winds gust, they blow strongly. *Winds gusting to 50 mph brought down power cables.* ●**gust** *noun* [C] *a gust of air* ●**gusty** *adjective*

gusto /ˈgʌstəʊ/ *noun* **with gusto** with a lot of energy and enthusiasm *Everyone joined in the singing with great gusto.*

gut¹ /gʌt/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the tube in your body that takes food from your stomach to be passed out as waste

gut² /gʌt/ *adjective* **gut reaction/feeling/instinct** a reaction, feeling, etc that you feel certain is right, although you have no reason to think so *I had a gut feeling that he was going to come back.*

G

gut³ /gʌt/ *verb* [T] **gutting**, *past* **gutted** **1** **FOOD** to remove the organs from inside a fish or other animal **2** to completely destroy or remove the inside of a building *A fire gutted the bookshop last week.*

guts /gʌts/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* **1** the bravery and determination that is needed to do something difficult or unpleasant *It **took guts** to stand up and tell the boss how she felt.* **2** **ANATOMY** the organs inside a person or animal's body **3 hate sb's guts** *informal* to dislike someone very much

gutsy /ˈgʌtsi/ *adjective* brave and determined *a gutsy performance*

gutted /ˈgʌtɪd/ *adjective UK informal* very disappointed and upset [+ **(that)**] *Neil's absolutely gutted that he's been dropped from the team.*

G

gutter /ˈgʌtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PIPE a long, open pipe that is fixed to the edge of a roof to carry water away **2** ROAD the edge of a road where water flows away

guy /gaɪ/ *noun informal* **1** [C] a man *What a nice guy!* **2 guys** used when you are talking to or about two or more people *Come on, you guys, let's go home.*

guzzle /ˈgʌzl/ *verb* [I, T] *informal* to eat or drink a lot of something quickly *Who's guzzled all the beer?*

gym /dʒɪm/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] a building with equipment for doing exercises *Nick goes to the gym three times a week.* **2** **SPORT** [U] exercises done inside, especially as a school subject

gymnasium /dʒɪmˈneɪziəm/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a gym

gymnast /ˈdʒɪmnæst/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who does gymnastics *an Olympic gymnast*

gymnastics /dʒɪmˈnæstɪks/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which you do physical exercises on the floor and on different pieces of equipment, often in competitions

gynaecologist *UK* (*US* **gynecologist**) /gaɪnəˈkɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who treats medical conditions that only affect women

gynaecology *UK* (*US* **gynecology**) /gaɪnəˈkɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the study and treatment of diseases and medical conditions that only affect women ●**gynaecological** /ˌgaɪnəkəˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective*

gypsy (*also UK* **gipsy**) /ˈdʒɪpsi/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a member of a race of people who travel from place to place, especially in Europe *a gypsy caravan*

Hh

H, h /eɪtʃ/ the eighth letter of the alphabet

ha /hɑː/ *exclamation* something you say when you are surprised or pleased

the Haber process /ˈhɑːbɜːə,prəʊses/ *noun* **CHEMISTRY** a method used in industry for producing ammonia (= a strong-smelling substance used in cleaning materials)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***habit***

get into/get out of the habit of doing sth ● **have/kick** a habit ● an **annoying/bad/good** habit ● do sth **from/out of/through** habit

habit /ˈhæbɪt/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that you do regularly, almost without thinking about it *He's just eating* ***out of habit*** *- he's not really hungry.* **2 be in/get into the habit of doing sth** to be used/get used to doing something regularly *We don't want the children to get into the habit of watching a lot of TV.* **3** **HEALTH** [C, U] something that you often do that is bad for your health or is annoying *He has some really nasty habits.* ○ *We offer help to alcoholics who want to* ***kick the habit.*** **4** **RELIGION** [C] a long, loose piece of clothing worn by some religious groups *a monk's habit*

habitable /ˈhæbɪtəbl/ *adjective* A habitable building is in good enough condition to live in.

habitat /ˈhæbɪtæt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, ENVIRONMENT** the natural environment of an animal or plant ➲See picture at **ecosystem**

habitation /ˌhæbɪˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] when people live in a place *This place is not fit for* ***human habitation.***

habitual /həˈbɪtʃuəl/ *adjective* **1** USUAL usual or typical *an habitual expression/gesture* **2** PERSON doing something often because it is a habit *a habitual drug user* ●**habitually** *adverb*

hack¹ /hæk/ *verb* [I, T] **1** to cut something roughly into pieces *The victim had been* ***hacked to death.*** **2** **COMPUTING** to use a computer to illegally get into someone else's computer system and read the information that is kept there *Two British youths were caught* ***hacking into*** *government computers.*

hack² /hæk/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who produces low quality writing for books, newspapers, etc

hacker /ˈhækəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** someone who illegally gets into someone else's computer system

had *strong form* /hæd/ *weak forms* /həd, əd, d/ *verb* **1** *past of* have **2 be had** *informal* to be tricked or made to look silly *I think I've been had - this camera doesn't work.*

haddock /ˈhædək/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **haddock** **FOOD** a fish that lives in northern seas and is eaten as food

hadn't /ˈhædᵊnt/ *short for* had not *I hadn't seen Megan since college.*

haematite *UK* (*US* **hematite**) /ˈhiːmətaɪt/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a common dark red rock from which we get iron

haemoglobin *UK* (*US* **hemoglobin**) /ˌhiːməˈɡləʊbɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a red substance in the blood which carries oxygen (= gas that we need to live) around the body

haemophilia *UK* (*US* **hemophilia**) /ˌhiːməˈfɪliə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease in which the flow of blood from someone's body cannot be stopped when they are hurt ●**haemophiliac** *UK* (*US* **hemophiliac**) *noun* [C] someone who has haemophilia

haemorrhage *UK* (*US* **hemorrhage**) /ˈhemᵊrɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** when someone suddenly loses a lot of blood ***a brain haemorrhage***

haemorrhoids *UK* (*US* **hemorrhoids**) /ˈhemərɔɪdz/ *noun* [plural] **HEALTH** painful swollen tissue around the opening of a person's bottom

haggard /ˈhæɡəd/ *adjective* Someone who is haggard has a thin face with dark marks around their eyes because they are ill or tired.

haggle /ˈhæɡl/ *verb* [I] **FINANCE** to argue, especially about the price of something *I spent 20 minutes* ***haggling over*** *the price of a leather bag.*

ˌha ˈha *exclamation* used in writing to represent the sound someone makes when they laugh

haiku /ˈhaɪkuː/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a short Japanese poem which has only 17 syllables (= words or parts of word with one vowel sound)

hail¹ /heɪl/ *noun* **1** [U] small, hard pieces of frozen rain that fall from the sky **2 a hail of bullets/stones/bottles, etc** a lot of bullets/stones/bottles, etc that are fired or thrown at the same time

hail² /heɪl/ *verb* **1** [T] to call or wave to someone to get their attention *She stepped into the road and* ***hailed*** *a* ***taxi.*** **2 it hails** If it hails, small, hard pieces of frozen rain fall from the sky.
hail sb/sth as sth *phrasal verb* to say publicly and enthusiastically that someone or something is something very good
hail from *phrasal verb* to come from a particular place

hair /heəʳ/ *noun* **1** [U] the thin, thread-like parts that grow on your head *a girl with long, fair hair* **2** **BIOLOGY** [C] one of the thin thread-like parts that grow on a person's or animal's skin *My black skirt was covered in cat hairs.* **3 let your hair down** *informal* to relax and enjoy yourself **4 pull/tear your hair out** to be very anxious about something *When they still weren't home by midnight, I was pulling my hair out.* **5 split hairs** to argue about small details that are not important ➲See also: **pubic hair**

hairbrush /ˈheəbrʌʃ/ *noun* [C] a brush that you use to make your hair look tidy

haircut /ˈheəkʌt/ *noun* [C] **1** CUTTING when someone cuts your hair *I really need a haircut.* **2** STYLE the style in which your hair has been cut

hairdo /ˈheədu:/ *noun* [C] *informal* the style in which someone arranges their hair

hairdresser /ˈheəˌdresəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] someone whose job is to wash, cut, colour, etc people's hair **2 hairdresser's** the place where you go to have your hair washed, cut, coloured, etc

hairdryer /ˈheəˌdraɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of electrical equipment for drying your hair with hot air

-haired /-ˈheəd/ *suffix* used after a word describing someone's hair *a red-haired woman* ○ *a short-haired cat* ➲See also: **fair-haired**

hairgrip /ˈheəgrɪp/ *UK* (*US* **bobby pin**) *noun* [C] a small, thin piece of metal, used to fasten a woman's hair in position

hairline /ˈheəlaɪn/ *noun* **1** [C] the place at the top of your face where your hair starts growing **2 a hairline crack/fracture** HEALTH a very thin line where something hard such as a bone or cup is broken

hairpin /ˈheəpɪn/ *noun* [C] a piece of metal shaped like a U, used to fasten a woman's hair in position

ˌhairpin ˈbend *UK* (*US* **ˌhairpin ˈturn**) *noun* [C] a bend shaped like a U on a steep road

hair-raising /ˈheəˌreɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* frightening but in an enjoyable way *It was a rather **hair-raising journey** down the mountain road.*

hairstyle /ˈheəstaɪl/ *noun* [C] the style in which someone arranges their hair *Do you like my new hairstyle?*

hairy /ˈheəri/ *adjective* **1** WITH HAIR covered in hair *a **hairy chest*** ○ ***hairy legs*** **2** FRIGHTENING *informal* frightening or dangerous *There were some rather **hairy moments** during the race.* ●**hairiness** *noun* [U]

hajj (also **haj**) /hædʒ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **hajjes** or **hajes** RELIGION the religious journey to Mecca which all Muslims try to make at least once in their life

halal /hælˈæl/ *adjective* RELIGION, FOOD Halal meat is prepared according to Islamic law.

hale /heɪl/ *adjective* **hale and hearty** healthy and full of life

O-key **half¹** /hɑːf/ *noun, determiner plural* **halves 1** [C, U] one of two equal parts of something; 1/2 *Rice is eaten by **half of** the world's population.* ○ *Cut the lemons into halves.* ○ *It'll take **half an hour** to get there.* ○ *Jenny lived in Beijing for a year and a half.* **2 break/cut/split sth in half** to divide something into two equal parts *Divide the dough in half and roll it out into two circles.* **3 decrease/increase, etc sth by half** to make something smaller/larger, etc by half its size *The drug reduces the risk of stroke by half.* **4 half past one/two/three, etc** *mainly UK* 30 minutes past one o'clock/two o'clock/three o'clock, etc *We got back to our hotel at half past seven.* **5 half one/two/three, etc** *UK informal* 30 minutes past one o'clock/two o'clock/three o'clock, etc *"What time does it start?" "About half six."* **6 go halves with sb** *informal* to divide the cost of something with someone *Shall we go halves on a present for Laura?* **7 half the fun/time/pleasure, etc** *informal* a large part of the enjoyment/time, etc *Kids today - parents don't know where they are half the time.* **8 not half as good/bad/exciting, etc** *informal* to be much less good/bad/exciting, etc than something else *Her new book's not half as good as the last one.*

half² /hɑːf/ *adverb* partly, but not completely *half empty/full* ○ *Sophia is half Greek and half Spanish* (= she has one Greek parent and one Spanish parent). ○ *She was only half aware of what was happening.*

ˌhalf ˈboard *noun* [U] *mainly UK* the price for a room in a hotel, which includes breakfast and dinner

half-brother /ˈhɑːfˌbrʌðəʳ/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a brother who is the son of only one of your parents

half-hearted /ˌhɑːfˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* without much effort or interest *a **half-hearted attempt*** ●**half-heartedly** *adverb*

half-life /ˈhɑːflaɪf/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS the amount of time that is needed for the radioactivity (= harmful form of energy produced during a nuclear reaction) of a radioactive substance to be reduced by half

half-sister /ˈhɑːfˌsɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a sister who is the daughter of only one of your parents

half-term /hɑːfˈtɜːm/ *noun* [C, U] *UK* EDUCATION a short holiday in the middle of a school term (= one of the periods the school year is divided into)

half-time /ˌhɑːfˈtaɪm/ *noun* [U] SPORT a short period of rest between the two halves of a game

halfway /ˌhɑːfˈweɪ/ *adjective, adverb* at an equal distance between two places, or in the middle of a period of time *the **halfway point*** ○ *He was released **halfway through** his prison sentence.*

O-key **hall** /hɔːl/ *noun* [C] **1** ENTRANCE (*also* **hallway** /ˈhɔːlweɪ/) a room or passage in a building, which leads to other rooms **2** LARGE ROOM a large room or building where meetings, concerts, etc are held *The Albert Hall* ○ *The disco will be held in the school hall.* ➲See also: **town hall**

hallmark /ˈhɔːlmɑːk/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFICIAL an official mark that is put on something made of silver or gold to prove that it is real **2** TYPICAL a quality or method that is typical of a particular type of person or thing *Simplicity is a **hallmark of** his design.*

hallo *UK* (*UK/US* **hello**) /həˈləʊ/ *exclamation* **1** GREET used to greet someone *Hallo, Chris, how are things?* **2** TELEPHONE used to start a conversation on the telephone *Hallo, this is Alex.*

ˌhall of ˈresidence *UK* (*US* **dormitory**) *noun* [C] *plural* **halls of residence** EDUCATION a building where university or college students live

hallowed /ˈhæləʊd/ *adjective* **1** respected and considered important *a **hallowed tradition*** **2** RELIGION made holy by a priest *the **hallowed ground** of the churchyard*

Halloween /ˌhæləʊˈiːn/ *noun* [U] the night of 31 October when children dress in special clothes and people try to frighten each other

hallucinate /həˈluːsɪneɪt/ *verb* [I] HEALTH to see things that are not really there, because you are ill or have taken an illegal drug

hallucination /hə,luːsɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH when you see things that are not really there because you are ill or have taken an illegal drug

halo /ˈheɪləʊ/ *noun* [C] a gold circle of light that is shown around the head of a holy person in a painting

halogen /ˈhæləʤen/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY any of a group of five chemical elements which combine with hydrogen to make compounds from which salts can be made *Chlorine and iodine are halogens.* ○ *halogen lighting*

halothane /ˈhæləθeɪn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a chemical that is used as an anaesthetic (= drug to stop pain) that is breathed in

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***halt***

bring sth to/come to a halt ● an **abrupt/grinding/sudden** halt

halt¹ /hɒlt/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when something stops moving or happening *The car **came to a halt** just inches from the edge of the cliff.* ○ *News of the accident **brought** the party **to a halt**.* **2 call a halt to sth** to officially order something to stop *The government has called a halt to all new building in the area.*

halt² /hɒlt/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to stop or make something stop *The council ordered that work on the project should be halted immediately.*

halting /ˈhɒltɪŋ/ *adjective* stopping often while you are saying or doing something, especially because you are nervous *He spoke quietly, in halting English.*

halve /hɑːv/ *verb* **1** DIVIDE [T] to divide something into two equal parts *Peel and halve the potatoes.* **2** REDUCE [I, T] If you halve something, or if it halves, it is reduced to half the size it was before. *They have almost halved the price of flights to New York.*

ham /hæm/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD meat from a pig's back or upper leg *a ham sandwich*

hamburger /ˈhæm,bɜːgəʳ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C] a round, flat shape of meat which is cooked in hot oil and eaten between round pieces of bread *a hamburger and fries* **2** FOOD [U] *US* (*UK* **mince**) beef (= meat from a cow) that is cut into very small pieces

hamlet /ˈhæmlət/ *noun* [C] a very small village

hammer¹ /ˈhæməʳ/ *noun* [C] a tool with a heavy, metal part at the top that you use to hit nails into something

hammer² /ˈhæməʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to hit something with a hammer
hammer sth into sb *phrasal verb* to repeat something to someone a lot of times until they remember it
hammer on sth *phrasal verb* to hit something many times, making a lot of noise *They were woken up by someone **hammering on** the door.*
hammer sth out *phrasal verb* to finally agree on a plan, business agreement, etc after arguing about the details for a long time

hammering /ˈhæmᵊrɪŋ/ *noun* **1** NOISE [U] the noise made by hitting something with a hammer or hitting something hard with your hands **2** DEFEAT [**no plural**] *UK informal* a very bad defeat

hammock /ˈhæmək/ *noun* [C] a large piece of cloth or strong net that you hang between two trees or poles to sleep on

hamper¹ /ˈhæmpəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make it difficult for someone to do something *The police investigation was hampered by a lack of help from the community.*

hamper² /ˈhæmpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large basket (= container made of thin pieces of wood) with a lid *a **picnic hamper***

hamster /ˈhæmstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small animal with soft fur and no tail that is often kept as a pet

hamstring¹ /ˈhæmstrɪŋ/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY a tendon (= part that connects a muscle to a bone) at the back of the upper part of your leg *a hamstring injury*

hamstring² /ˈhæmstrɪŋ/ *verb* [T] *past* **hamstrung** to make it difficult for a person, team, or organization to do something

hand¹ /hænd/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] the part of your body on the end of your arm that has fingers and a thumb *Take your hands out of your pockets.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 take sb by the hand** to get hold of someone's hand *Bill took her by the hand and led her into the garden.* **3 hand in hand** holding each other's hand *The young couple walked hand in hand by the lake.* **4 hold hands** to hold each other's hand **5 at hand** near in time or space *Teachers are always close at hand to give help to any child who needs it.* **6 by hand** done or made by a person instead of a machine *This sweater has to be washed by hand.* **7 in hand** being worked on or dealt with now *Despite the pressures we are determined to get on with the job in hand.* **8 be in sb's hands** to be in someone's control or care *The matter is now in the hands of my solicitor.* **9 on hand** (*also UK* **to hand**) near to someone or something, and ready to help or be used when necessary *Extra supplies will be on hand, should they be needed.* **10 at the hands of sb** If you suffer at the hands of someone, they hurt you or treat you badly. **11** CLOCK [C] one of the long, thin pieces that point to the numbers on a clock or watch **12** CARDS [C] the set of playing cards that one player has been given in a game **13 a hand** some help, especially to do something practical *Could you **give me a hand with** these suitcases?* ○ *I think Matthew might **need a hand with** his homework.* **14 on the one hand ... on the other hand** used when you are comparing two different ideas or opinions *On the one hand, computer games develop many skills, but on the other, they mean kids don't get enough exercise.* **15 hands off** *informal* used to tell someone not to touch something *Hands off - that's mine!* **16 change hands** to be sold by someone and bought by someone else *The hotel has changed hands twice since 1982.* **17 a free hand** permission to make your own decisions about how you want to do something **18 get out of hand** to become difficult to control *It was the end of term and the children were getting a little out of hand.* **19 go hand in hand** If two things go hand in hand, they exist together and are connected with each other. **20 have your hands full** to be very busy

H

Shelley has her hands full with three kids under 5. **21 get/lay your hands on sth** to find something **22 get/gain the upper hand** to get into a stronger position than someone else so that you are controlling a situation *Government troops are gradually gaining the upper hand over the rebels.* **23 with your bare hands** without using a weapon or tool **24 wring your hands** to press your hands together because you are upset or worried about something

hand² /hænd/ *verb* **1** [+ **two objects**] to give something to someone *Could you hand me that book, please?* **2 you have to hand it to sb** *informal* used when you want to show that you admire someone *You have to hand it to Mick, he's done a good job on that kitchen.*
hand sth back *phrasal verb* to return something to the person who gave it to you
hand sth down *phrasal verb* **1** CHILDREN to give toys, clothes, books, etc to children who are younger than you in your family **2** TRADITIONS to pass traditions from older people to younger ones *a custom handed down through the generations*
hand sth in *phrasal verb* to give something to someone in a position of authority *Have you handed your history essay in yet?*
hand sth out *phrasal verb* to give something to all the people in a group *A girl was handing out leaflets at the station.*
hand sb/sth over *phrasal verb* to give someone or something to someone else *The hijacker was handed over to the French police.*

-hand /hænd/ ➲See: **left-hand, right-hand, second-hand**

handbag /ˈhændbæg/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **purse**) *noun* [**C**] a bag carried by a woman with her money, keys, etc inside

handball /ˈhændbɔːl/ *noun* **1** SPORT [**U**] in the US, a game in which players hit a small rubber ball against a wall with their hands **2** SPORT [**C, U**] in football, when a player breaks a rule by touching the ball with their hand or arm

handbook /ˈhændbʊk/ *noun* [**C**] a book that contains information and advice about a particular subject *a teacher's handbook*

handbrake /ˈhændbreɪk/ *UK* (*US* **emergency brake**) *noun* [**C**] a stick inside a car that you can pull up to stop the car from moving ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

handcuffs /ˈhændkʌfs/ *noun* [**plural**] two metal rings that are joined by a chain and are put on a prisoner's wrists (= lower arms)

-handed /ˈhændɪd/ *suffix* ➲See: **empty-handed, heavy-handed, left-handed, red-handed, right-handed, single-handed**

handful /ˈhændfʊl/ *noun* **1** [**C**] the amount of something that you can hold in one hand **2 a handful of sth** a small number of people or things *Only a handful of people came to the meeting.* **3 a handful** *informal* someone who is difficult to control, especially a child

handgun /ˈhændgʌn/ *noun* [**C**] a small gun that you can hold in one hand

hand-held /ˈhændheld/ *adjective* describes something that is designed to be held and used easily with one or two hands *a hand-held computer/device*

handicap /ˈhændɪkæp/ *noun* [**C**] *old-fashioned* **1** MIND/BODY something that is wrong with your mind or body permanently *a **mental/physical handicap*** **2** DISADVANTAGE something that makes it more difficult for you to do something *I found not having a car quite a handicap in the countryside.*

handicapped /ˈhændɪkæpt/ *adjective old-fashioned* not able to use part of your body or your mind because it has been damaged in some way ***mentally/physically handicapped***

handicraft /ˈhændɪkrɑːft/ *noun* ART, DT **1** [**C**] an activity that involves making things with your hands and that needs skill and artistic ability **2 handicrafts** things that people make with their hands *a sale of handicrafts*

handiwork /ˈhændɪwɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] something that someone makes or does *She put down the brush and stood back to **admire** her **handiwork**.*

handkerchief /ˈhæŋkətʃiːf/ *noun* [**C**] a small piece of cloth or soft paper that you use to dry your eyes or nose

handle¹ /ˈhændl/ *verb* [**T**] **1** DEAL WITH to deal with something *He handled the situation very well.* ○ *This office handles thousands of enquiries every day.* **2** TOUCH to touch, hold, or pick up something *You must wash your hands before handling food.* **3** BUY to buy and sell goods *He's been charged with **handling stolen goods**.*

handle² /ˈhændl/ *noun* **1** [**C**] the part of something that you use to hold it or open it *a **door handle*** ○ *the handle on a suitcase* **2 fly off the handle** *informal* to suddenly become very angry

handlebars /ˈhændlbɑːz/ *noun* [**plural**] the metal bars at the front of a bicycle or motorcycle that you hold onto to control direction

handler /ˈhændlər/ *noun* [**C**] someone whose job is to deal with or control a particular type of thing *a police dog handler*

ˈhand ˌluggage *noun* [**U**] small bags that you can carry onto an aircraft with you when you travel

handmade /ˌhændˈmeɪd/ *adjective* made by hand instead of by machine

handout /ˈhændaʊt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MONEY money or food that is given to people who are poor *Increasing numbers of people are dependent on government handouts.* **2** PAPER a copy of a document that is given to all the people in a class or meeting

handpicked /ˌhændˈpɪkt/ *adjective* carefully chosen for a particular purpose or job *a hand-picked audience*

handset /ˈhændset/ *noun* [**C**] **1** the outer part of a mobile phone **2** the part of a telephone that you hold in front of your mouth and against your ear

ˌhands ˈfree *adjective* describes a piece of equipment, especially a telephone, that you can use without needing to hold it in your hand

handshake /ˈhændʃeɪk/ *noun* [C] the action of taking someone's right hand and shaking it when you meet or leave each other

handshaking /ˈhændʃeɪkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] COMPUTING the processes that happen so that two pieces of computer equipment can send information to each other

handsome /ˈhændsəm/ *adjective* **1** A handsome man is attractive. *tall, dark and handsome* **2 a handsome profit/sum, etc** a large amount of money

hands-on /ˌhændzˈɒn/ *adjective* physically doing something and not only studying it or watching someone else do it ***hands-on experience***

handwriting /ˈhændˌraɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the way that someone forms the letters when they write with a pen or pencil

handwritten /ˌhændˈrɪtᵊn/ *adjective* written with a pen or pencil *a **handwritten letter***

handy /ˈhændi/ *adjective* **1** USEFUL useful or easy to use *a handy container/tool* **2 come in handy** *informal* to be useful at some time in the future *Don't throw those jars away - they might come in handy.* **3** NEAR *UK informal* near to a place *It's a nice house and it's **handy for** the station.* **4 be handy with sth** to be good at using something, usually a tool *He's very handy with a paintbrush.*

handyman /ˈhændimæn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **handymen** someone who is good at making things or repairing them

O-key **hang**[1] /hæŋ/ *verb* **hung 1** FASTEN [I, T] to fasten something so that the top part is fixed but the lower part is free to move, or to be fastened in this way *He **hung** his coat **on** the hook behind the door.* **2** *past also* **hanged** KILL [I, T] to kill someone by putting a rope around their neck and making them drop, or to die in this way **3** IN AIR [I] to stay in the air for a long time *Thick fog hung over the town.* ➲See also: be/hang in the **balance**[1], hang your **head**[1] (in shame)
hang around *phrasal verb informal* (*also UK* **hang about**) **1** to spend time somewhere, usually without doing very much *There's nowhere for teenagers to go, so they just **hang around on street corners**.* **2 hang around with sb** to spend time with someone
hang on *phrasal verb* **1** WAIT *informal* to wait for a short time *Hang on - I'm almost finished.* **2** HOLD to hold something tightly *Hang on, we're going over a big bump here.*
hang onto sth *phrasal verb informal* to keep something *You should hang onto that - it might be worth something.*
hang out *phrasal verb informal* to spend a lot of time in a particular place or with a particular group of people
hang up *phrasal verb* to finish a conversation on the telephone by putting the phone down
hang sth up *phrasal verb* to put something such as a coat somewhere where it can hang *You can hang up your jacket over there.*

hang[2] /hæŋ/ *noun* **get the hang of sth** *informal* to gradually learn how to do or use something

hangar /ˈhæŋgəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large building where aircraft are kept

hanger /ˈhæŋəʳ/ (*also* **coat hanger**) *noun* [C] a wire, wooden, or plastic object for hanging clothes on

ˈhang ˌglider *noun* [C] a structure covered in cloth that you hold onto and float through the air

ˈhang ˌgliding *noun* [U] SPORT the sport of flying using a structure covered in cloth that you hang from

ˌhanging ˈvalley *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a valley that ends suddenly where it meets the side of a larger, deeper valley

hangover /ˈhæŋəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH If you have a hangover, you feel ill because you drank too much alcohol the evening before.

hanker /ˈhæŋkəʳ/ *verb*
hanker after/for sth *phrasal verb* to want something very much, especially over a long period of time

hankie (*also* **hanky**) /ˈhæŋki/ *noun* [C] *informal short for* handkerchief

Hanukkah (*also* **Chanukah**) /ˈhɑːnəkə/ *noun* [C, U] RELIGION a Jewish religious holiday lasting for eight days in December

haphazard /ˌhæpˈhæzəd/ *adjective* not planned, organized, controlled, or done regularly *The whole examination process seemed completely haphazard.* ●**haphazardly** *adverb*

hapless /ˈhæpləs/ *adjective literary* having bad luck

haploid /ˈhæplɔɪd/ *adjective* BIOLOGY a haploid cell has only one set of chromosomes, from one parent ➲Compare **diploid**

O-key **happen** /ˈhæpᵊn/ *verb* [I] **1** EXIST If an event or situation happens, it exists or starts to be done, usually by chance. *Were you anywhere nearby when the accident happened?* ○ *We can't let a mistake like this happen again.* **2** RESULT to be the result of an action, situation, or event that someone or something experiences *Did you hear what **happened to** Jamie last night?* ○ *What happens if we can't get enough tickets?* **3 happen to do sth** to do something by chance *If you happen to see Peter, say "hi" for me.* ○ *You don't happen to know her phone number, do you?* **4 as it happens; it so happens** something that you say in order to introduce a surprising fact *As it happens, her birthday is the day after mine.*
happen on/upon sth/sb *phrasal verb* to find something or meet someone without planning to

happening /ˈhæpᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [C] something that happens, often a strange event that is difficult to explain

happily /ˈhæpɪli/ *adverb* **1** HAPPY in a happy way ***happily married*** **2** WILLING in a way that is very willing *I'd happily drive you to the airport.* **3** LUCKY having a good or lucky result *Happily, the operation was a complete success.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***happiness***

find happiness

happiness /ˈhæpɪnəs/ *noun* [U] the feeling of being happy

H

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***happy***

A person who seems happy may be described as **cheerful**: *She's always very* ***cheerful***.

If someone is happy because of something, they may be described as **pleased** or **glad**, and if they are extremely happy because of something, they may be described as **delighted**: *He was* ***pleased*** *that she had come back.* ● *I was so* ***glad*** *to see her.* ● *They are* ***delighted*** *with their new car.*

If someone is extremely happy and excited, they may be described as **ecstatic** or **elated**: *The new president was greeted by an* ***ecstatic*** *crowd.* ● *We were* ***elated*** *at the news.*

H

happy /ˈhæpi/ *adjective* **1** PLEASED pleased and in a good mood, especially because something good has happened *I'm glad you've finally found someone who* ***makes*** *you* ***happy***. ○ *Jean seems much happier now that she's moved out.* **2 happy to do sth** to be willing to do something *I'd be very happy to help, if you need a hand.* **3** SHOWING HAPPINESS making you feel happy, or expressing happiness *Did the book have a* ***happy ending?*** **4** SATISFIED satisfied and not worried *Are you* ***happy with*** *your exam results?* ○ *I'm not very* ***happy about*** *you travelling alone at night.* **5 Happy Birthday/New Year, etc** something friendly that you say to someone on a special day or holiday *Happy Christmas!* ➲Opposite **unhappy**

happy-go-lucky /ˌhæpigəʊˈlʌki/ *adjective* not worried and not having any responsibilities

ˈhappy ˌhour *noun* [**usually singular**] a period of time, usually in the early evening, when a bar (= a place where alcoholic drinks are sold and drunk) sells drinks more cheaply than usual

ˌhappy ˈslapping *noun* [**U**] when a group of young people attack someone and photograph their attack with mobile phones

harass /ˈhærəs, həˈræs/ *verb* [**T**] to continue to annoy or upset someone over a period of time

harassed /ˈhærəst/ *adjective* tired and feeling anxious *harassed passengers*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***harassment***

be subjected to/suffer harassment ● **racial/sexual** harassment ● harassment **of** sb

harassment /ˈhærəsmənt/ *noun* [**U**] behaviour that annoys or upsets someone ***sexual harassment***

harbour¹ *UK* (*US* **harbor**) /ˈhɑːbəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] an area of water near the coast where ships are kept and are safe from the sea

harbour² *UK* (*US* **harbor**) /ˈhɑːbəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** FEEL/THINK If you harbour doubts, hopes, thoughts, etc, you feel or think about them for a long time. *He harboured dreams of one day becoming a professional footballer.* **2** HIDE to hide someone or something bad *to* ***harbour*** *a* ***criminal***

hard¹ /hɑːd/ *adjective* **1** FIRM firm and stiff, and not easy to press or bend *a hard surface* ○ *The seats in the waiting room were hard and uncomfortable.* **2** DIFFICULT difficult to do or understand [**+ to do sth**] *It must be hard to study with all this noise.* ○ *Quitting my job was the hardest decision I ever had to make.* **3** WITH EFFORT using or done with a lot of effort *the long,* ***hard struggle*** ○ *With a bit of* ***hard work*** *and determination we might still finish on time.* **4** UNPLEASANT full of problems and difficult to deal with *My grandparents had a very* ***hard life***. **5** NOT KIND not gentle or kind *She had a cold, hard look in her eyes.* **6 be hard on sb a** CRITICIZE to criticize someone too much or treat them unfairly *You shouldn't be so hard on yourself.* **b** MAKE UNHAPPY to make someone unhappy by causing them problems *Our divorce has been particularly hard on the children.* **7 be hard on sth** to damage something or make it have problems *Stress can be hard on any relationship.* **8 do/learn sth the hard way** to do or learn something by experiencing a lot of problems or difficulty **9 give sb a hard time** *informal* to criticize someone or to treat them unfairly *He gave me a hard time about losing his keys.*

hard² /hɑːd/ *adverb* **1** WITH EFFORT with a lot of effort *She* ***tried*** *very* ***hard*** *but she wasn't quite fast enough.* ○ *You'll have to* ***work harder***, *if you want to pass this exam.* **2** WITH FORCE with a lot of force *It's been raining hard all day.* ○ *She kicked the ball as hard as she could.* **3 die hard** If a belief, custom, or habit dies hard, it is very difficult to change. *I'm afraid that* ***old habits die hard***. **4 hit sb hard** *UK* If a situation or experience hits you hard, it makes you so upset that you have difficulty dealing with it.

hardback /ˈhɑːdbæk/ *noun* [**C**] a book that has a thick, stiff cover

hard-boiled /ˌhɑːdˈbɔɪld/ *adjective* **FOOD** A hard-boiled egg has been boiled with its shell on, until the inside is solid.

ˌhard ˈcash *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** coins and paper money

ˌhard ˈcopy *UK* (*US* **ˈhardˌcopy**) *noun* [**C, U**] **COMPUTING** information from a computer that has been printed on paper

hardcore (*also* **hard-core**) /ˈhɑːdˌkɔː/ *adjective* **1** EXTREMELY LOYAL extremely loyal to someone or something, and not willing to change *a* ***hard-core following*** **2** SEXUAL Hardcore magazines, films, etc show very active or offensive sexual acts. ***hardcore pornography***

ˌhard ˈcore *noun* [**no plural**] a small group of people in society or an organization who are very active and determined not to change *a hard core of activists*

ˌhard ˈcurrency *noun* [**U**] **ECONOMICS** money that is valuable and can be exchanged easily because it comes from a powerful country

ˌhard ˈdisk *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a hard drive

ˈhard ˌdrive (also **hard disk**) *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** the part inside a computer that is not removed and stores very large amounts of information

ˌhard ˈdrugs *noun* [**plural**] **HEALTH** very strong, illegal drugs

harden /ˈhɑːdᵊn/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** BECOME HARD to become hard and stiff, or to make something become hard and stiff *This island is formed from volcanic lava that has hardened into rock.*

2 STOP FEELING EMOTIONS to stop feeling emotions about someone or something, so that you seem less kind, gentle, or weak ***hardened criminals***

hard-headed /ˌhɑːdˈhedɪd/ *adjective* very determined, and not willing to be influenced by your emotions *a hard-headed manager*

hard-hearted /ˌhɑːdˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* not caring how other people feel

hard-hitting /ˌhɑːdˈhɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* A hard-hitting speech, report, article, etc is very severe or criticizes someone or something a lot.

ˌhard ˈline *noun* [**no plural**] when someone is very strict and severe *Judge Tucker has a reputation for* ***taking a hard line on*** *criminals.* ●**hardline** /ˌhɑːdˈlaɪn/ *adjective a* ***hardline policy*** *on illegal immigrants*

hardly /ˈhɑːdli/ *adverb* **1** NOT MUCH almost not, or only a very small amount *I was so tired that I could hardly walk.* ○ *We've* ***hardly ever*** *spoken to each other.* ○ *There's* ***hardly any*** *food left in the fridge.* **2** NOT LIKELY used to emphasize that you think something is not likely, true, possible, etc *I hardly think she'll want to talk to me now that I have a new girlfriend.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

hardly or **hard**

When you mean 'with a lot of effort or force', you should use the adverb **hard**, not 'hardly'.

We worked very hard.

~~*We worked very hardly.*~~

hard-nosed /ˌhɑːdˈnəʊzd/ *adjective* very determined, and not willing to be influenced by your emotions *a hard-nosed lawyer*

ˌhard ˈpalate *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the hard bony part that forms the top of the mouth, behind the front teeth ➲Compare **soft palate** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

hard-pressed /ˌhɑːdˈprest/ *adjective* **1 be hard-pressed to do sth** to not be able to do something, or have difficulty doing something *You'd be hard-pressed to find a better worker than Jeff.* **2** having problems because you are poor *hard-pressed farmers*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hardship***

suffer hardship ● **economic/financial/physical** hardship

hardship /ˈhɑːdʃɪp/ *noun* [**C, U**] a problem or situation that makes you suffer a lot, especially because you are very poor *They have suffered years of* ***financial hardship****.*

ˌhard ˈshoulder *UK* (*US* **shoulder**) *noun* [C] the area on the edge of a main road where a car can stop in an emergency

ˌhard ˈup *adjective informal* not having enough money

hardware /ˈhɑːdweəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1 COMPUTING** the machines or equipment that your computer system is made from, not the programs **2** tools and strong equipment, such as those used in the home or garden

hard-wired /hɑːdˈwaɪəd/ *adjective* **COMPUTING** If something that a computer or electronic device does is hard-wired, it cannot be changed.

hardwood /ˈhɑːdwʊd/ *noun* [**C, U**] **DT** hard heavy wood from a tree with wide leaves *tropical hardwoods, such as mahogany and teak*

hard-working /ˌhɑːdˈwɜːkɪŋ/ *adjective* doing a job seriously and with a lot of effort

hardy /ˈhɑːdi/ *adjective* strong enough to deal with bad conditions or difficult situations

hare /heəʳ/ *noun* [C] an animal like a large rabbit that can run very fast and has long ears

harem /ˈhɑːriːm/ (US) /ˈherəm/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a group of women who live with or are married to one man in some Muslim societies, or the place where these women live

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***harm***

cause/do (sb/sth) harm ● not **come to any** harm ● **great/serious/untold** harm ● harm **to** sb

harm¹ /hɑːm/ *noun* **1** [U] hurt or damage *Smoking can* ***cause*** *serious* ***harm to*** *the lungs.* ○ *Alan would never* ***do*** *anyone any* ***harm****.* **2 not come to any harm** to not be hurt or damaged **3 not do any harm** to not be a bad thing to do and possibly be a good thing [**+ to do sth**] ***It wouldn't do any harm*** *to have another look.* **4 there's no harm in doing sth** used to say that something is not a bad thing to do and could possibly have a good effect *I suppose there's no harm in trying.* **5 not mean any harm** to not intend to hurt someone or damage something *I never meant him any harm, I just wanted him to leave me alone.* **6 out of harm's way** safe from a dangerous place or situation

harm² /hɑːm/ *verb* [T] to hurt someone or damage something *Thankfully no one was harmed in the accident.*

harmful /ˈhɑːmfʲl/ *adjective* causing or likely to cause harm *Doctors believe that smoking is* ***harmful to*** *your health.*

harmless /ˈhɑːmləs/ *adjective* **1** NOT CAUSING DAMAGE not able or not likely to cause any hurt or damage *Taken in small doses, this drug is completely harmless.* **2** NOT UPSETTING not likely to shock or upset people *Their jokes seemed harmless enough.* ●**harmlessly** *adverb*

harmonica /hɑːˈmɒnɪkə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a small musical instrument that you blow into as you move it across your mouth

harmonious /hɑːˈməʊniəs/ *adjective* **1** PEACEFUL friendly and peaceful *a harmonious business relationship* **2** SOUND having or making a pleasant sound

harmonize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈhɑːmənaɪz/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** to be suitable together, or to make different people, plans, situations, etc suitable for each other *The gardens had been designed to* ***harmonize with*** *the natural landscape.* **2 MUSIC** to sing or play music in harmony

harmony /ˈhɑːməni/ *noun* **1** [U] when people are peaceful and agree with each other, or when different things seem right or suitable together *living together* ***in*** *peace and* ***harmony*** **2 MUSIC** [**C, U**] a pleasant sound in music, made

by playing or singing a group of different notes together

harness¹ /ˈhɑːnɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR HORSES a set of straps fastened around a horse's body and connecting it to a vehicle that it will pull **2** FOR PEOPLE a set of strong, flat ropes that fasten equipment to your body or fasten you to a vehicle to prevent you from moving too much *All climbers must wear safety harnesses and helmets.*

harness² /ˈhɑːnɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** HORSES to put a harness on a horse, or to connect a horse to a vehicle using a harness **2** CONTROL to control something so that you can use its power or qualities for a particular purpose

harp¹ /hɑːp/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a large wooden musical instrument with many strings that you play with your fingers

harp² /hɑːp/ *verb*
harp on (about sb/sth) *phrasal verb* to talk about someone or something too much

harpoon /ˌhɑːˈpuːn/ *noun* [C] a weapon with a sharp point, used especially for hunting whales (= large sea animals)

harrowing /ˈhærəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel extremely frightened or upset *a harrowing experience*

harsh /hɑːʃ/ *adjective* **1** CRUEL cruel, unkind, or unpleasant in a way that seems unfair ***harsh criticism/punishment*** ○ *Taking him out of the game was bit harsh.* **2** DIFFICULT very cold, dangerous, or unpleasant and difficult to live in ***harsh conditions*** **3** STRONG too strong, bright, loud, etc ***harsh chemicals*** ○ ***harsh lighting*** ●**harshly** *adverb* ●**harshness** *noun* [U]

harvest¹ /ˈhɑːvɪst/ *noun* **1** **FARMING** [C, U] when crops are cut and collected from fields **2** **FARMING** [C] the quality or amount of crops that are collected

harvest² /ˈhɑːvɪst/ *verb* [I, T] **FARMING** to cut and collect crops when they are ready

has *strong form* /hæz/ *weak forms* /həz, əz, z/ *present simple he/she/it of* have

has-been /ˈhæzbiːn/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who was famous or important in the past but is now ignored

hash /hæʃ/ *noun* **make a hash of sth** *UK informal* to do something very badly

hashish /hæʃˈiːʃ/ (*also* **hash**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illegal drug that is usually smoked for pleasure

hasn't /ˈhæzᵊnt/ *short for* has not *It hasn't rained for three weeks.*

hassle¹ /ˈhæsl/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PROBLEM something that is annoying because it is difficult or unpleasant to do *I don't want to drive - it's such a hassle finding a place to park.* **2** ARGUMENT an argument or fight *They aren't giving you any hassle, are they?*

hassle² /ˈhæsl/ *verb* [T] to annoy someone, especially by asking them something again and again *He's always hassling me about money.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***haste***

indecent/undue haste ● **in** sb's haste ● do sth **in** haste

haste /heɪst/ *noun* [U] when you are in a hurry and do something more quickly than you should ***In*** *their* ***haste*** *to escape, they left behind all their belongings.*

hasten /ˈheɪsᵊn/ *verb* **1** [T] to make something happen faster than usual **2** **hasten to do sth** to hurry to do or say something *I was not, I hasten to add, the only male there.*

hasty /ˈheɪsti/ *adjective* done very quickly, usually too quickly and without thinking enough *a* ***hasty decision/remark*** ●**hastily** *adverb*

hat /hæt/ *noun* [C] something you wear to cover your head, for fashion or protection *a cowboy hat* ➲See also: **bowler hat, top hat**

hatch¹ /hætʃ/ *verb* **1** **BIOLOGY** [I, T] If an egg hatches or is hatched, it is broken open by a baby creature such as a bird, fish, or snake being born. **2** **hatch a plan/plot, etc** to plan something secretly, especially something bad *He hatched a plot to kill his wife.*

hatch² /hætʃ/ *noun* [C] a small door or opening, especially in a ship, aircraft, or spacecraft *an escape hatch*

hatchback /ˈhætʃbæk/ *noun* [C] a car that has a large door at the back, which you lift up to open

hatchet /ˈhætʃɪt/ *noun* **1** [C] a small axe (= tool for cutting wood) **2** **bury the hatchet** to forget about your arguments and become friends with someone again

hate¹ /heɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** DISLIKE to dislike someone or something very much *They've hated each other since they were kids.* [+ **doing sth**] *He hates going to the dentist's.* [+ **to do sth**] *I hate to see you look so upset.* **2** SORRY used to emphasize that you are sorry you have to do something *I hate to interrupt, John, but we need to leave.* ➲See also: hate sb's **guts**

hate² /heɪt/ *noun* [U] when you dislike someone or something very much ➲See also: **pet hate**

hateful /ˈheɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant or unkind *She called me the most hateful names.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hatred***

deep/intense hatred ● **racial** hatred ● hatred **of** sb/sth

hatred /ˈheɪtrɪd/ *noun* [U] when you dislike someone or something very much *He developed an* ***intense hatred*** *of all women.*

ˈhat ˌtrick *noun* [C] **SPORT** when a player or team has three successes, one after the other, especially three goals in a game

haughty /ˈhɔːti/ *adjective* showing that you think you are much better or more important than other people *a haughty young actress* ●**haughtily** *adverb*

haul¹ /hɔːl/ *verb* [T] to pull something somewhere slowly and with difficulty *They hauled the piano into the living room.*

haul² /hɔːl/ *noun* **1** [C] an amount of something that has been stolen or that is owned illegally *a haul of arms/drugs* **2** **be a long haul** to be difficult and take a long time

haulage /ˈhɔːlɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] *UK* the business of moving things by road or railway *a road haulage firm*

haunt¹ /hɔːnt/ *verb* [T] **1** GHOST If a ghost haunts a place, it appears there often. *a **haunted house*** **2** UNPLEASANT MEMORY If an unpleasant memory or feeling haunts you, you think about or feel it often. [**often passive**] *He was haunted by memories of the war.*

haunt² /hɔːnt/ *noun* [C] a place that someone visits often *Regents Park is one of my **favourite haunts** in London.*

haunting /ˈhɔːntɪŋ/ *adjective* beautiful, but in a sad way *the haunting beauty of Africa*

O-K **have¹** *strong form* /hæv/ *weak forms* /həv, əv, v/ *auxiliary verb* used with the past participle of another verb to form the present and past perfect tenses *Have you seen Roz?* ○ *I've passed my test.* ○ *He hasn't visited London before.* ○ *It would have been better to tell the truth.* ○ *He's been working in France for two years now.* ○ *I had met his wife before.*

O-K **have²** /hæv/ *modal verb* **1 have to do sth; have got to do sth** to need to do something or be forced to do something *I have to go to Manchester tomorrow.* ○ *Do we have to finish this today?* ○ *They've had to change their plans.* **2** used when you are telling someone how to do something *You've got to type in your name, then your password.* **3** used to say that you feel certain that something is true or will happen *Interest rates have to come down at some point.* ○ *There's* (= there has) *got to be a better way of doing this.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

O-K **have³** *strong form* /hæv/ *weak forms* /həv, əv, v/ *verb past* **had 1** OWN [T] (*also* **have got**) to own something *I have two horses.* ○ *Laura has got beautiful blue eyes.* **2** HOLD [T] used to say that someone is holding something, or that someone or something is with them *He had a pen in his hand.* ○ *She had a baby with her.* **3** BE ILL [T] (*also* **have got**) If you have a particular illness, you are suffering from it. *Have you ever had the measles?* **4** EAT/DRINK [T] to eat or drink something *We are having dinner at 7 o'clock.* ○ *Can I have a drink of water?* **5 have a bath/sleep/walk, etc** used with nouns to say that someone does something *Can I have a quick shower?* ○ *Let Mark have a try.* **6 have difficulty/fun/problems, etc** used with nouns to say that someone experiences something *We had a great time in Barcelona.* **7 have a baby** to give birth to a baby **8 have sth done** If you have something done, someone does it for you. *I'm having my hair cut tomorrow.* ○ *We had the carpets cleaned.* **9 have had it** to be broken or not working well *I think the car engine's had it.* **10 have it in for sb** to dislike someone and want to cause problems for them *She really has it in for me - I don't know what I've done to offend her.* **11 have it out (with sb)** to talk to someone about something they have done which made you angry, in order to try to solve the problem
have (got) sth on *phrasal verb* to be wearing something *She only had a bikini on.*
have sb on *phrasal verb UK* to make someone think that something is true, as a joke *He's not really angry - he's just having you on.*
have sth out *phrasal verb* to have something removed from your body *I'm having two teeth out next week.*

haven /ˈheɪvᵊn/ *noun* [C] a safe place *a haven for wildlife*

O-K **haven't** /ˈhævᵊnt/ *short for* have not *I haven't finished eating.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***havoc***

cause/create/wreak havoc • **play** havoc with sth

havoc /ˈhævək/ *noun* [U] a very confused and possibly dangerous situation *The snow has **caused havoc** on Scotland's roads today.*

hawk /hɔːk/ *noun* [C] a large hunting bird

hay /heɪ/ *noun* [U] FARMING dried grass for animals to eat

ˈhay ˌfever *noun* [U] HEALTH an illness caused by a bad reaction to plants that some people get in the summer, especially affecting the nose and eyes

haystack /ˈheɪstæk/ *noun* [C] FARMING a large pile of hay

hazard¹ /ˈhæzəd/ *noun* **1** [C] something that is dangerous *a **fire hazard*** ○ *a **health hazard*** **2 an occupational hazard** something unpleasant that sometimes happens to people who do a particular job

hazard² /ˈhæzəd/ *verb* **hazard a guess** to risk guessing something *I don't know where he is, but I'd be willing to hazard a guess.*

hazardous /ˈhæzədəs/ *adjective* dangerous ***hazardous chemicals***

haze /heɪz/ *noun* [U] when the air is not very clear because of something such as heat or smoke, making it difficult to see well

hazel /ˈheɪzᵊl/ *adjective* green-brown in colour *hazel eyes*

hazy /ˈheɪzi/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLEAR If the air is hazy, it is not very clear because of something such as heat or smoke, making it difficult to see well. *a hazy day* **2** CONFUSED not remembering things clearly *He has only a hazy recollection of what happened.*

HCF /ˌeɪtʃsiːˈef/ MATHEMATICS *abbreviation for* highest common factor: the highest number that a set of two or more different numbers can be divided by exactly

HCFC /ˌeɪtʃsiˈefsiː/ *noun* [U, C] CHEMISTRY *abbreviation for* hydrochlorofluorocarbon: a type of gas used especially in aerosols (= containers that force out liquids in very small drops)

HCI /ˌeɪtʃsiːˈaɪ/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING *abbreviation for* human-computer interface; the part of a computer system, for example what you see on the screen, that allows a person to use a computer

O-K **he** *strong form* /hiː/ *weak form* /hi/ *pronoun* used as the subject of the verb when referring to someone male who has already been talked about *"When is Paul coming?" "He'll be here in a minute."*

H

H

head

O-K head¹ /hed/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY the part of your body above your neck which contains your brain, eyes, ears, mouth, nose, etc and on which your hair grows *He fell and hit his head on the table.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** MIND your mind *All these thoughts were going round in my head.* **3** ORGANIZATION the person who is in charge of an organization *Her father is the head of an oil company.* **4** EDUCATION (*also* ˌ**head ˈteacher**) *UK* the person in charge of a school *You'll have to ask the head if you can have a day off school.* **5** FRONT/TOP the front or top part of something *Who is that **at the head of** the table?* **6 £10/$6, etc a head** costing £10/$6, etc for each person *The meal costs £20 a head.* **7 heads** the side of a coin that has a picture of someone's head on it *Heads or tails?* **8 be banging your head against a brick wall** to do, say, or ask for something repeatedly but to be unable to change a situation **9 come to a head** If a problem or disagreement comes to a head, it becomes so bad that you have to start dealing with it. **10 go over sb's head** to be too difficult for someone to understand *All this talk about philosophy went right over my head.* **11 go to your head** If something that you have achieved goes to your head, it makes you too proud. *Fame and fortune had gone to his head.* **12 hang your head (in shame)** to look ashamed or embarrassed **13 keep your head** to stay calm in a difficult situation **14 lose your head** to stop being calm in a difficult situation **15 raise/rear its ugly head** If a problem or something unpleasant raises its ugly head, it becomes a problem that people have to deal with. **16 laugh/shout/scream, etc your head off** to laugh/shout/scream, etc very much and very loudly ➲See also: hit the **nail¹** on the head, a **roof** over your head, off the **top¹** of your head

head² /hed/ *verb* **1 head back/down/towards, etc** to move in a particular direction *They headed back to the shore.* **2** LEAD [T] to lead an organization or group [**often passive**] *The company is headed by a young entrepreneur.* **3** FRONT/TOP [T] to be at the front or top of something *Jo headed a very short list of candidates.* **4** SPORT [T] to hit a ball with your head *Owen headed the ball straight into the back of the net.* **be heading for sth** *phrasal verb* to be likely to get or experience something soon *Those children are heading for trouble.*
head off *phrasal verb* to start a journey or leave a place

headache /ˈhedeɪk/ *noun* [C] HEALTH pain inside your head *I've got a bad headache.* ➲See also: **splitting headache**

header /ˈhedəʳ/ *noun* [C] a word or words that appear at the top of every page in a book or document ➲Compare **footer**

headhunt /ˈhedhʌnt/ *verb* [T] to persuade someone to leave their job for a job with a different company *She was headhunted by a rival firm.* ●**headhunter** *noun* [C]

heading /ˈhedɪŋ/ *noun* [C] words at the top of a piece of writing that tell you what it is about

headland /ˈhedlənd/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a piece of land that sticks out into the sea

headlight /ˈhedlaɪt/ *noun* [C] one of the two large lights on the front of a car

headline /ˈhedlaɪn/ *noun* **1** [C] the title of a newspaper story that is printed in large letters above it *a **front-page headline*** **2 the headlines** the main stories in newspapers, on television, etc *That story **made headlines** all over the world.*

headlong /ˈhedlɒŋ/ *adverb* quickly and directly *The plane **plunged headlong** into the sea.*

headmaster /ˌhedˈmɑːstəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **principal**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a man who is in charge of a school

headmistress /ˌhedˈmɪstrəs/ *UK* (*US* **principal**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a woman who is in charge of a school

ˌ**head ˈoffice** *noun* [**usually singular**] the most important office of a company, or the people who work there *Head office handles all complaints made against the company.*

ˌ**head ˈon** *adverb* **1** MOVING FORWARDS If two vehicles hit each other head on, the front parts hit each other as they are moving forward. **2** DIRECTLY If you deal with something head on, you deal with it directly, although it is difficult. ●**head-on** /ˌhedˈɒn/ *adjective a **head-on collision***

headphones /ˈhedfəʊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] a piece of equipment that you wear over your ears so that you can listen to music without anyone else hearing it *a pair of headphones*

headquarters /ˈhedˌkwɔːtəz/ *noun* [**group**] *plural* **headquarters** the place from where an organization is controlled *police headquarters*

headset /ˈhedset/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that you wear over your ears so that you can hear things, especially one with a microphone (= a piece of equipment that you speak into) attached to it *a mobile phone headset*

ˌ**head ˈstart** *noun* [C] an advantage that someone has over other people *Caroline's language skills should **give** her a **head start** over/on other people applying for the job.*

headstone /ˈhedstəʊn/ *noun* [C] a stone that shows the name of a dead person who is buried under it

headstrong /ˈhedstrɒŋ/ *adjective* extremely determined *a headstrong young girl*

heads-up /ˈhedzʌp/ *noun* [**usually singular**] *informal* a warning that something is going to happen, usually so that you can prepare for it

headteacher /ˌhedˈtiːtʃəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **principal**) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** the person in charge of a school

headway /ˈhedweɪ/ *noun* **make headway** to make progress in what you are doing *The builders aren't **making** much **headway** with our new house.*

heady /ˈhedi/ *adjective* having a powerful effect on the way you feel, for example by making you feel excited *a heady experience*

heal /hiːl/ (*also* **heal up**) *verb* [I, T] **HEALTH** If a wound or broken bone heals, it becomes healthy again, and if something heals it, it makes it healthy again. *The wound on his head had begun to heal.* ●**healer** *noun* [C] someone who makes ill people well again using something such as prayer or magic

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***health***

damage/improve sb's health ● **excellent/good/ill/poor** health ● be **in** [good/bad, etc] health

O-K health /helθ/ *noun* [U] **1** BODY the condition of your body *to be **in good/poor health*** ○ *Regular exercise is good for your health.* **2** SUCCESS how successful and strong something is *the financial health of the business* ➲See also: **the National Health Service**

ˌhealth and ˈsafety *noun* [U] making sure that people are safe and healthy, for instance at work or in public places *health and safety regulations*

health-care /ˈhelθˌkeəʳ/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the set of services provided by a country or an organization for treating people who are ill

ˈhealth ˌservice *noun* [C] *UK* **HEALTH** the National Health Service: the system providing free medical service in the UK

O-K healthy /ˈhelθi/ *adjective* **1** PHYSICALLY STRONG physically strong and well *Sue is a normal healthy child.* **2** GOOD good for your health *a **healthy diet*** **3** SUCCESSFUL successful and strong *a **healthy economy*** ➲Opposite **unhealthy**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

healthy or **health?**

Remember not to use 'healthy' as a noun. If you need a noun, use **health**.

She has some health problems.

~~*She has some healthy problems.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***heap***

a heap **of** sth ● **in** a heap

heap¹ /hiːp/ *noun* **1** [C] an untidy pile of things *a **heap of rubbish*** **2 heaps of sth** *informal* a lot of something *He's got heaps of money.*

heap² /hiːp/ *verb informal* **1** [T] to put things into an untidy pile *He heaped more food onto his plate.* **2 heap criticism/insults/praise, etc on sb** to criticize/insult/praise, etc someone a lot

O-K hear /hɪəʳ/ *verb past* **heard 1** SOUND [I, T] to be aware of a sound through your ears *I could hear his voice in the distance.* ○ *I can't hear - can you turn the sound up?* **2** INFORMATION [I, T] to be told some information *When did you first **hear about** this?* ○ *Have you heard the news? Jane's back.* [+ **(that)**] *I hear that you're leaving.* **3** LAW [T] If a judge hears a case, they listen to it in a law court, to decide if someone is guilty or not. **4 will not hear of sth** If someone will not hear of something, they will not allow it. *I wanted to pay for her meal but she wouldn't hear of it.*
hear from sb *phrasal verb* to receive a letter, telephone call, or other message from someone *Have you heard from Sue recently?*
have heard of sb/sth *phrasal verb* to know that someone or something exists *I've never heard of her.*

hearing /ˈhɪərɪŋ/ *noun* **1 BIOLOGY** [U] the ability to hear sounds *He lost his hearing when he was a child.* **2** [C] **LAW** a meeting in a law court when a judge hears the facts of a case *The preliminary hearing will take place next week.* **3 a fair hearing** If you get a fair hearing, someone listens to your opinion.

hearing-impaired /ˈhɪərɪŋɪmˌpeəd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** A person who is hearing-impaired cannot hear or cannot hear well. ➲Compare **deaf**

hearsay /ˈhɪəseɪ/ *noun* [U] things that people have told you and that may or may not be true

hearse /hɜːs/ *noun* [C] a large car that is used to take a dead body to a funeral

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***heart***

your heart **beats** ● heart **disease/failure** ● a heart **condition/problem**

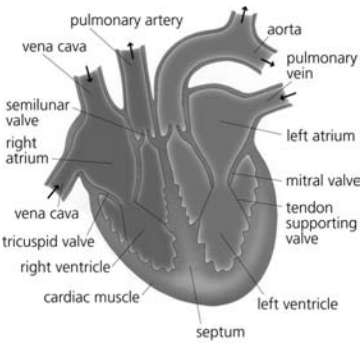

heart

O-K heart /hɑːt/ *noun* **1 ANATOMY** [C] the organ inside your chest that sends blood around your body *Isabel's **heart** was **beating** fast.* ○ ***heart disease/failure*** ➲See picture at **respiratory system** **2** CENTRE [**no plural**] the centre of something *Her office is **in the heart of** Tokyo.* **3 the heart of sth** the most important part of something *We need to get to the heart of the matter.* **4** FEELINGS [C, U] someone's deepest feelings and true character *She has a kind heart.* **5** SHAPE [C] a shape that is used to mean love ➲See picture at **shape 6 hearts** playing cards with red, heart

shapes on them **7 at heart** used to say what someone is really like *I'm just a kid at heart.* **8 in your heart** used to say what you really think *In his heart he felt they were wrong.* **9 with all your heart** used to say that you feel something very strongly *I thank you with all my heart.* **10 not have the heart to do sth** to decide not to do something that would make someone unhappy **11 learn/know, etc sth by heart** to be able to remember all of something **12 break sb's heart** to make someone very unhappy **13 heart and soul** used to say that you give all your attention and enthusiasm to something *She threw herself into teaching heart and soul.* ➲See also: a **change²** of heart

heartache /ˈhɑːteɪk/ *noun* [C, U] extreme sadness

ˈheart atˌtack *noun* [C] **HEALTH** when someone's heart suddenly stops working correctly, sometimes causing death *I think he's had a heart attack.*

heartbeat /ˈhɑːtbiːt/ *noun* [C, U] **BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** the regular movement of the heart as it moves blood around the body

heartbreaking /ˈhɑːtˌbreɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* causing extreme sadness *heartbreaking news*

heartbroken /ˈhɑːtˌbrəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* If you are heartbroken, you feel extremely sad about something that has happened.

-hearted /-ˈhɑːtɪd/ ➲See: **broken-hearted, cold-hearted, half-hearted, hard-hearted, light-hearted**

heartened /ˈhɑːtᵊnd/ *adjective* feeling happier because of something *We all felt heartened by the news.* ➲Opposite **disheartened**

heartening /ˈhɑːtᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel happier *heartening news* ➲Opposite **disheartening**

ˈheart ˌfailure *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when someone's heart stops working, often causing death

heartfelt /ˈhɑːtfelt/ *adjective* Heartfelt feelings and words are strong and sincere. ***heartfelt thanks/gratitude***

hearth /hɑːθ/ *noun* [C] the floor around a fireplace

heartily /ˈhɑːtɪli/ *adverb* **1** WITH ENTHUSIASM with a lot of enthusiasm *We all **laughed heartily** at the joke.* **2** COMPLETELY completely or very much *I am **heartily sick** of the situation.*

heartland /ˈhɑːtlænd/ *noun* [C] the place where an activity or belief is strongest *the **traditional heartland** of the motor industry*

heartless /ˈhɑːtləs/ *adjective* cruel and not caring about other people

heart-to-heart /ˌhɑːttəˈhɑːt/ *noun* [C] a serious conversation between two people in which they talk honestly about their feelings

hearty /ˈhɑːti/ *adjective* **1** ENERGY friendly and full of energy *a **hearty laugh/welcome*** **2** FOOD Hearty meals are large and satisfy you.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***heat***

generate/give out heat • **intense/searing** heat

heat¹ /hiːt/ *noun* **1** HOT [U] the quality of being hot or warm *the heat of summer* **2 the heat** when it is very hot *I don't really like the heat.* **3** TEMPERATURE [U **no plural**] the temperature of something *Cook on a low heat.* **4 the heat** *US* (*UK* **the heating**) the system that keeps a building warm *Could you turn the heat up a little.* **5 SPORT** [C] a competition, especially a race, which decides who will be in the final event **6 in the heat of the moment** If you do or say something in the heat of the moment, you do or say it without thinking because you are angry or excited. ➲See also: **dead heat**

heat² /hiːt/ (*also* **heat up**) *verb* [I, T] to make something become hot or warm, or to become hot or warm *I'll just heat up some soup.*

heated /ˈhiːtɪd/ *adjective* **1** made warm or hot **2 a heated argument/debate, etc** an angry or excited argument

heater /ˈhiːtᵊr/ *noun* [C] a machine that heats air or water

heath /hiːθ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an open area of land covered with wild plants and rough grass

heather /ˈheðᵊr/ *noun* [C, U] a small plant with purple or white flowers that grows on hills

heating /ˈhiːtɪŋ/ *UK* (*US* **heat**) *noun* [U] the system that keeps a building warm ➲See also: **central heating**

heatwave /ˈhiːtweɪv/ *noun* [C] a period of time, usually a few days or weeks, when the weather is much hotter than usual

heave /hiːv/ *verb* **1** SOMETHING HEAVY [I, T] to move something heavy using a lot of effort *He heaved the bag on to his shoulder.* **2** UP AND DOWN [I] to move up and down *Her chest heaved as she started to cry.* **3 heave a sigh of relief** to breathe out loudly because you are pleased that something bad has not happened •**heave** *noun* [C]

heaven /ˈhevᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1 RELIGION** according to some religions, the place where good people go when they die **2** *informal* something very nice that gives you great pleasure *This cake is absolute heaven.*

heavenly /ˈhevᵊnli/ *adjective* **1 RELIGION** [**always before noun**] relating to heaven *the heavenly kingdom* **2** *informal* very nice *a heavenly day*

heavens /ˈhevᵊnz/ *noun* **1 the heavens** *literary* the sky **2 (Good) Heavens!** used when you are surprised or annoyed *Heavens, what's the matter?*

heavily /ˈhevɪli/ *adverb* **1** A LOT a lot or to a great degree *She's heavily involved in politics.* **2 drink/smoke heavily** to drink/smoke a lot **3 rain/snow heavily** to rain/snow a lot **4** FORCE using a lot of force *to breathe heavily*

heavy /ˈhevi/ *adjective* **1** WEIGHING A LOT Heavy objects weigh a lot. *heavy bags* ○ *heavy machinery/equipment* **2** HOW MUCH used to say how much someone or something weighs *How heavy are you?* ○ *Oxygen is sixteen times heavier than hydrogen.* **3** A LOT large in amount or degree ***heavy traffic*** ○ *heavy costs* **4 a heavy drinker/smoker** someone who drinks/smokes a lot **5 heavy snow/rain** when a lot of snow/rain falls **6** FORCE using a lot of force *a heavy blow*

○ *heavy breathing* **7** SERIOUS *informal* serious *The discussion got a bit too heavy.* **8 heavy going** *mainly UK* too serious or difficult *I found the book very heavy going.*

heavy-handed /ˌheviˈhændɪd/ *adjective* using too much force in dealing with people

ˌheavy ˈmetal *noun* [U] MUSIC a type of very loud, modern music

heavyweight /ˈheviweɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT a fighter such as a boxer who is in the heaviest weight group *the **heavyweight champion** of the world* **2** someone who is powerful and important *a political heavyweight*

Hebrew /ˈhiːbruː/ *noun* [U] the language used in the Jewish religion and in Israel ●**Hebrew** *adjective*

hectare /ˈhekteəʳ/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring area, equal to 10,000 square metres

hectic /ˈhektɪk/ *adjective* extremely busy and full of activity *a hectic day/week*

he'd /hiːd/ **1** HE HAD *short for* he had *We knew he'd taken the money.* **2** HE WOULD *short for* he would *No one thought he'd get the job.*

hedge¹ /hedʒ/ *noun* [C] a row of bushes growing close together, often used to divide land into separate areas

hedge² /hedʒ/ *verb* [I, T] to avoid giving a direct answer ➲See also: hedge your bets (**bet²**)

hedgehog /ˈhedʒhɒg/ *noun* [C] a small animal whose body is covered with sharp points

hedgerow /ˈhedʒrəʊ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a row of bushes and small trees along the edge of a field or road

heed¹ /hiːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to pay attention to some advice or a warning *Officials failed to **heed** his **warning**.*

heed² /hiːd/ *noun formal* **take heed of sth** to pay attention to something, especially some advice or a warning

heel /hiːl/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOT the back part of your foot ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** SHOE the part of a shoe that is under your heel *high heels*

hefty /ˈhefti/ *adjective informal* very large *a **hefty bill/fine** ○ a hefty woman with dyed hair*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***height***

grow to/reach a height of sth ● be [3 metres, etc] **in** height

height /haɪt/ *noun* **1** HOW TALL [C, U] how tall or high something or someone is *a man of average height ○ The tower measures 27.28 metres **in height**.* **2** HOW FAR UP [C, U] how far above the ground something is *The aircraft was flying at a height of about 6000 metres.* **3** TALL [U] being tall *People always make comments about his height.* **4 the height of sth** the strongest or most important part of something *I met him when he was at the height of his fame.*

heighten /ˈhaɪtᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to increase or make something increase ***heightened awareness*** [**often passive**] *The book's success was heightened by the scandal.*

heights /haɪts/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] high places *I've always been afraid of heights.* **2 new heights** when something is better or more successful than ever before *Our athletes have reached new heights of sporting glory.*

heinous /ˈheɪnəs/ *adjective formal* very bad and shocking ***heinous crimes***

heir /eəʳ/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a person who will have the legal right to someone's money and possessions when they die *He is the **heir to** a huge fortune.*

heiress /ˈeəres/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a woman who will have the legal right to someone's money and possessions when they die

held /held/ *past of* hold

helicopter /ˈhelɪkɒptəʳ/ *noun* [C] an aircraft which flies using long, thin parts on top of it that turn round and round very fast

helium /ˈhiːliəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a gas that is lighter than air and that will not burn (formula **He**) *a **helium balloon***

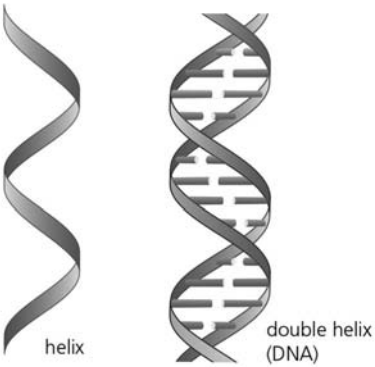

helix

helix /ˈhiːlɪks/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a line that goes around a central tube or cone shape in the form of a spiral

he'll /hiːl/ *short for* he will *He'll be home soon.*

hell /hel/ *noun* **1** RELIGION [U] according to some religions, the place where bad people go when they die **2** [U] *informal* an experience that is very unpleasant *It's been hell working with him.* **3 the hell** *informal* used to emphasize something in a rude or angry way *What the hell are you doing here?* **4 a/one hell of a** *informal* used to say that someone or something is very good, big, etc *a hell of a noise ○ He's one hell of a tennis player.* **5 from hell** *informal* used to say that someone or something is extremely bad *We had the holiday from hell.* **6 like hell** *informal* very much *It's raining like hell out there.*

hellish /ˈhelɪʃ/ *adjective informal* extremely bad or unpleasant *a hellish place/journey*

hello (*also UK* **hallo**) /helˈəʊ/ *exclamation* **1** GREET used to greet someone *Hello, Chris, how are things?* **2** TELEPHONE used to start a conversation on the telephone *Hello, this is Alex.*

helm /helm/ *noun* **1** [C] the part that you use to direct a boat or ship **2 at the helm** controlling

a group or organization *With Lewis at the helm we are certain of success.*

helmet /ˈhelmət/ *noun* [C] a hard hat that protects your head *a cycling helmet* ➲See also: **crash helmet** ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***help***

The verbs **aid** and **assist** are more formal alternatives to 'help': *The army arrived to **assist** in the search.* ● *The project is designed to **aid** poorer countries.*

If two or more people help each other in order to achieve the same thing, verbs such as **collaborate** or **cooperate** are sometimes used: *Several countries are **collaborating/cooperating** in the relief effort.*

The verb **benefit** is sometimes used when someone is helped by something: *The children have **benefited** greatly from the new facilities.*

If someone is asking for help, in informal situations the expression **give** someone **a hand** is sometimes used: *Do you think you could **give** me **a hand** with these heavy boxes?*

H

O-key **help¹** /help/ *verb* **1** GIVE HELP [**I, T**] to make it easier for someone to do something *Thank you for helping.* [**+ (to) do sth**] *Shall I help you to set the table?* ○ *Dad always **helps** me **with** my homework.* **2** MAKE EASIER [**I, T**] to make something easier or better [**+ to do sth**] *When you're nervous or frightened, it helps to breathe slowly and deeply.* **3 can't/couldn't help sth** to be unable to stop yourself doing something or to stop something happening [**+ doing sth**] *I couldn't help thinking about what had happened.* ○ *He couldn't help it, he slipped.* **4 help yourself (to sth)** to take something, especially food or drink, without asking *Please help yourself to some coffee.*
help (sb) out *phrasal verb* to help someone, especially by giving them money or working for them *Carol's been helping out in the shop this week.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***help***

ask for/need/offer/provide/refuse help ● a **big/great** help ● **extra/professional** help

O-key **help²** /help/ *noun* **1** ACTION [**U**] when someone helps another person *I was too embarrassed to **ask for help**.* ○ *Do you want any help?* **2** PERSON/THING [**no plural**] something or someone that helps *Dave has been a great help to me.* **3 with the help of sth** using something *We assembled the computer with the help of the manual.*

help³ /help/ *exclamation* something that you shout when you are in danger

ˈhelp ˌdesk *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a service which provides help to the people who use a computer network (= a group of computers that share information and programs)

helper /ˈhelpəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who helps another person to do something

helpful /ˈhelpfˢl/ *adjective* **1** USEFUL useful *helpful advice/comments* **2** PERSON willing to help *The staff here are very helpful.* ➲Opposite **un-helpful** ●**helpfully** *adverb* ●**helpfulness** *noun* [U]

helping /ˈhelpɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** an amount of food given to one person at one time *She gave me a very large helping of pasta.*

helpless /ˈhelpləs/ *adjective* not able to defend yourself or do things without help *a helpless animal/child* ●**helplessly** *adverb*

helpline /ˈhelplaɪn/ *noun* [C] *UK* a telephone number that you can ring for help or information *If you have any questions about any of our products, just **call** our **helpline**.*

hem /hem/ *noun* [C] the edge of a piece of clothing or cloth that has been folded under and sewn ●**hem** *verb* [T] **hemming**, *past* **hemmed** to sew a hem on a piece of clothing or cloth
hem sb in *phrasal verb* to prevent someone from moving, or from doing what they want to do

hemisphere /ˈhemɪsfɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** one half of the Earth *birds of the northern hemisphere*

hemophilia /ˌhiːməˈfɪliə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* haemophilia (= a serious disease in which the flow of blood from someone's body cannot be stopped when they are hurt)

hemophiliac /ˌhiːməˈfɪliæk/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* haemophiliac (= someone who has haemophilia)

hemorrhage /ˈhemᵊrɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* haemorrhage (= when someone suddenly loses a lot of blood)

hemorrhoids /ˈhemərɔɪdz/ *noun* [**plural**] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* haemorrhoids (= painful swollen tissue around the opening of a person's bottom)

hemp /hemp/ *noun* [U] a plant that is used for making rope, cloth, and the drug cannabis

hen /hen/ *noun* [C] a female bird, especially a chicken

hence /hens/ *adverb* **1** for this reason *He's got an interview today, hence the suit.* **2 three weeks/two months, etc hence** *formal* three weeks/two months, etc from this time

henceforth /ˌhensˈfɔːθ/ *adverb formal* from this time *Henceforth only English may be spoken in this classroom.*

henchman /ˈhenʃmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **henchmen** someone who does unpleasant jobs for a powerful person

ˈhen ˌnight (also **ˈhen ˌparty**) *noun* [C] a party for women only, usually one held for a woman before she gets married ➲Compare **stag night**

hepatic /hepˈætɪk/ *adjective* **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** relating to the liver (= organ in the body that cleans the blood)

hepˌatic ˈportal ˌvein (*also* **portal vein**) *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a vein which carries blood to the liver from the stomach and other organs

hepatitis /ˌhepəˈtaɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that affects your liver (= the organ that cleans your blood)

heptagon /ˈheptəgᵊn/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape which has seven straight sides

O-key **her¹** *strong form* /hɜːʳ/ *weak forms* /həʳ, əʳ/ *pronoun* **1** FEMALE used after a verb or preposition

to refer to someone female who has already been talked about *Where's Kath - have you seen her?* **2** COUNTRY/SHIP used to refer to a country or ship *God bless HMS Victoria and all who sail in her.*

her² *strong form* /hɜːʳ/ *weak form* /həʳ/ *determiner* belonging to or relating to someone female who has already been talked about *That's her house on the corner.* ○ *It's not her fault.*

herald¹ /ˈherəld/ *verb* [T] to be a sign that a particular event will happen soon *Thick black clouds heralded rain.*

herald² /ˈherəld/ *noun* [C] a sign that a particular event will happen soon *A fall in unemployment was the **herald of** economic recovery.*

herb /hɜːb/ (US) /ɜːrb/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a plant that is used in cooking to add flavour to food or used in medicines ●**herbal** /ˈhɜːbᵊl/ *adjective herbal medicine*

herbaceous /hɜːˈbeɪʃəs/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** describes plants which are soft and not woody *a herbaceous border*

herbivore /ˈhɜː.bɪ.vɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal that eats only plants *Cows and sheep are herbivores.* ➲Compare **carnivore**

herd¹ /hɜːd/ *noun* [C] a large group of animals such as cows that live and eat together *a herd of cattle/deer*

herd² /hɜːd/ *verb* [T] If people or animals are herded somewhere, they are moved there in a group. [**often passive**] *The passengers were quickly herded onto a bus.*

here /hɪəʳ/ *adverb* **1** IN THIS PLACE in the place where you are *Does Jane live near here?* ○ *Come here!* **2** GETTING ATTENTION used to bring someone's attention to someone or something *Look, here's our bus.* ○ *Here, put this on.* **3 here you are/ here he is, etc** used when you see someone or something you have been looking for or waiting for *Here she is at last.* ○ *Here we are, this is the place.* **4** GIVING used when you are giving someone something *Here's a present for you.* **5 Here you are.** used when you are giving someone something *"Have you got the paper?" "Here you are."* **6** AT THIS POINT at this point in a discussion *I don't have time here to go into all the arguments.* **7** ON THE TELEPHONE used when saying who you are on the telephone *Hello, it's Tim here.* **8 here and there** in several different places but without any pattern *Tall trees were growing here and there.*

hereafter /ˌhɪəˈɑːftəʳ/ *adverb formal* from now or after this time

hereby /ˌhɪəˈbaɪ/ *adverb formal* with these words or this action *I hereby declare you the winner.*

hereditary /hɪˈredɪtᵊri/ *adjective* **1 BIOLOGY** passed to a child from its parents before birth *Depression is often hereditary.* **2 SOCIETY** passed from parent to child as a right *a **hereditary title***

heredity /hɪˈredəti/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the way in which mental or physical qualities pass from parent to child

heresy /ˈherəsi/ *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** a belief which is against what a group or society generally believe to be right or good

heretic /ˈherətɪk/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone with a belief which is against what a group or society generally believe to be right or good ●**heretical** /həˈretɪkᵊl/ *adjective*

heritage /ˈherɪtɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the buildings, paintings, customs, etc which are important in a culture or society because they have existed for a long time *our architectural/cultural heritage*

hermaphrodite /hɜːˈmæfrədaɪt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a plant, animal or person with both male and female sex organs

hermit /ˈhɜːmɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who chooses to live alone and away from other people

hernia /ˈhɜːniə/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medical condition in which an organ pushes through the muscle which is around it

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hero***

a **local/national** hero ● an **unsung** hero

hero /ˈhɪərəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **heroes 1** someone who does something brave or good which people respect or admire them for *He became a **national hero** for his part in the revolution.* **2 LITERATURE** the main male character in a book or film who is usually good *the hero of her new novel*

heroic /hɪˈrəʊɪk/ *adjective* **1** BRAVE very brave *a **heroic figure*** ○ *a **heroic act/deed*** **2** TRYING HARD If someone makes a heroic effort to do something, they work very hard to try to do it. *In spite of England's **heroic efforts**, they lost the match.* ●**heroically** *adverb*

heroics /hɪˈrəʊɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] actions which seem brave but are stupid because they are dangerous

heroin /ˈherəʊɪn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a very strong drug which some people use illegally for pleasure *a **heroin addict***

heroine /ˈherəʊɪn/ *noun* [C] **1 LITERATURE** the main female character in a book or film, who is usually good *the heroine of the film 'Alien'* **2** a woman who does something brave or good which people respect or admire her for

heroism /ˈherəʊɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] very brave behaviour *an act of heroism*

herring /ˈherɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a small, silver-coloured fish which lives in the sea and is eaten as food ➲See also: **red herring**

hers /hɜːz/ *pronoun* the things that belong or relate to someone female who has already been talked about *That's Ann's coat over there - at least I think it's hers.* ○ *I borrowed it from a friend of hers.*

herself /həˈself/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'she' *She kept telling herself that nothing was wrong.* **2** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the pronoun 'she' or the particular female person you are referring to *She decorated the cake herself.* **3 (all) by herself** alone or without anyone else's help *She managed to put her shoes on all by herself.* **4 (all) to herself** for her use only *Mum's got the house to herself this weekend.*

hertz /hɜːts/ (*written abbreviation* **Hz**) *noun* [C] *plural* **hertz** **MEASURES** a unit for measuring the frequency (= how often the wave is repeated of) a sound wave

he's /hiːz/ **1** HE IS *short for* he is *He's my best friend.* **2** HE HAS *short for* he has *Sam must be tired - he's been dancing all night!*

hesitant /ˈhezɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* If you are hesitant, you do not do something immediately or quickly because you are nervous or not certain. *She was hesitant about returning to her home town.* ●**hesitantly** *adverb* ●**hesitancy** *noun* [U]

hesitate /ˈhezɪteɪt/ *verb* **1** [I] to pause before doing something, especially because you are nervous or not certain *Richard hesitated before answering.* **2 not hesitate to do sth** to be very willing to do something because you are certain it is right *They would not hesitate to call the police at the first sign of trouble.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hesitation***

without hesitation ● a **brief/momentary/moment's/slight** hesitation

hesitation /ˌhezɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when you pause before doing something, especially because you are nervous or not certain *After a **moment's hesitation**, he unlocked the door.* **2 have no hesitation in doing sth** when you are very willing to do something because you know it is the right thing to do *He had no hesitation in signing for the team.*

heterogeneous /ˌhetᵊrəʊˈdʒiːniəs/ *adjective* *formal* consisting of parts or things of different types *a heterogeneous sample of people*

heterosexual /ˌhetᵊrəʊˈsekʃuᵊl/ *adjective* sexually attracted to people of the opposite sex ●**heterosexual** *noun* [C]

heterotroph /ˈhetᵊrəʊtrəʊf/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a living thing that gets its food from other plants or animals ●**heterotrophic** /ˌhetᵊrəʊˈtrɒfɪk/ *adjective*

heterozygous /ˌhetᵊrəʊˈzaɪgəs/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** having two different forms of a gene (= part of a cell passed from a parent to a child) that controls one characteristic, and therefore able to pass either form to the young *a heterozygous cell* ➲Compare **homozygous**

het up /hetˈʌp/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] *UK informal* worried and upset *Why are you **getting** so **het up** about this?*

hexagon /ˈheksəgən/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape with six sides of the same length ●**hexagonal** /hekˈsægᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* shaped like a hexagon

hey /heɪ/ *exclamation spoken* used to get someone's attention or to show that you are interested, excited, angry, etc *Hey, Helen, look at this!* ○ *Hey, wait a minute!*

heyday /ˈheɪdeɪ/ *noun* [**no plural**] the time when something or someone was most successful or popular ***In its heyday**, the company employed over a thousand workers.*

HFC /ˌeɪtʃefˈsiː/ *noun* [U, C] **CHEMISTRY** *abbreviation for* hydrofluorocarbon: a type of gas used especially in aerosols (= containers that force out liquids in very small drops)

hi /haɪ/ *exclamation* hello *Hi! How's it going?*

hiatus /haɪˈeɪtəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] *formal* a short pause in which nothing happens or is said

hibernate /ˈhaɪbəneɪt/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** If an animal hibernates, it goes to sleep for the winter. ●**hibernation** /ˌhaɪbəˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *Bears **go into hibernation** in the autumn.*

hiccup (*also* **hiccough**) /ˈhɪkʌp/ *noun* [C] **1** NOISE a quick noise you make in your throat when a muscle in your chest moves suddenly [**usually plural**] *I **got hiccups** from drinking too quickly.* **2** PROBLEM a small, temporary problem *I'm afraid there's been a slight hiccup.*

hide¹ /haɪd/ *verb past tense* **hid**, *past participle* **hidden 1** THING [T] to put something in a place where it cannot be seen or found *I hid the money in a vase.* [**often passive**] *She kept the diary hidden in a drawer.* **2** PERSON [I] (*also* **hide yourself**) to go to a place where you cannot be seen or found *She ran off and hid behind a tree.* **3** FEELING/INFORMATION [T] to keep a feeling or information secret *He couldn't hide his embarrassment.* ○ *There's something about her past that she's trying to **hide from** me.*

hide² /haɪd/ *noun* [C, U] the skin of an animal which is used for making leather

hide-and-seek /ˌhaɪdənˈsiːk/ *noun* [U] a children's game in which one child hides and the others try to find them

hideaway /ˈhaɪdəweɪ/ *noun* [C] a place where you go to hide or to be alone

hideous /ˈhɪdiəs/ *adjective* very ugly *a hideous monster* ●**hideously** *adverb*

hideout /ˈhaɪdaʊt/ *noun* [C] a place where you go to hide, especially from the police or if you are in danger

hiding /ˈhaɪdɪŋ/ *noun* **be in hiding; go into hiding** to hide in a place, especially from the police or if you are in danger

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hierarchy***

in a hierarchy ● a hierarchy **of** sth

hierarchy /ˈhaɪərɑːki/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a system or organization in which people or things are arranged according to their importance ●**hierarchical** /ˌhaɪəˈrɑːkɪkəl/ *adjective* *a **hierarchical structure***

hieroglyphics /ˌhaɪərəʊˈglɪfɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] **LANGUAGE** a system of writing which uses pictures instead of words, especially used in ancient Egypt

hi-fi /ˈhaɪfaɪ/ *noun* [C] a set of electronic equipment for playing music, consisting of a CD player, radio, etc

high¹ /haɪ/ *adjective* **1** TALL having a large distance from the bottom to the top *a high building/mountain* **2** ABOVE GROUND a large distance above the ground or the level of the sea *a high shelf/window* ○ *The village was **high up** in the mountains.* **3** MEASUREMENT used to say how big the distance is from the top of something to the bottom, or how far above the ground something is *How high is it?* ○ *It's ten metres high.* **4** AMOUNT great in amount, size, or level *a high temperature* ○ *high prices/costs* ○ *The car sped away **at high speed**.* **5** VERY GOOD very good *high standards/quality* **6** IMPORTANT important,

powerful, or at the top level of something *a high rank* ○ *Safety is our highest priority.* **7** HEALTH If someone is high, they are behaving in an unusual way because they have taken an illegal drug. **8** MUSIC A high sound or note is near the top of the set of sounds that people can hear. **9 high in sth** If a food is high in something, it contains a lot of it.

O-➡**high²** /haɪ/ *adverb* **1** ABOVE GROUND at or to a large distance above the ground *We flew high above the city.* ○ *He threw the ball high into the air.* **2** AMOUNT/LEVEL at or to a large amount or level *Temperatures rose as high as 40 degrees.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***high***

hit/reach a high ● an **all-time/new/record** high

high³ /haɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** LARGE AMOUNT/LEVEL the top amount or level which something reaches *Computer ownership has **reached** an **all-time high*** (= more people own computers than ever before). **2** EXCITEMENT a feeling of excitement or happiness [**usually singular**] *The players are still **on a high** from their last match.*

highbrow /ˈhaɪbraʊ/ *adjective* A highbrow book, film, etc is serious and intended for very intelligent or well-educated people.

high-class /ˌhaɪˈklɑːs/ *adjective* of very good quality *a high-class hotel*

ˌHigh ˈCourt *noun* [C] LAW the most important law court in some countries *a High Court judge*

ˌhigher eduˈcation *noun* [U] EDUCATION education at a college or university

ˌhighest common ˈfactor (*abbreviation* **HCF**) *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS the highest number that a set of two or more different numbers can be divided by exactly

high-flyer (*also* **high-flier**) /ˌhaɪˈflaɪər/ *noun* [C] someone who is very successful or who is likely to be very successful, especially in business ●**high-flying** *adjective*

ˌhigh ˈheels (also **heels**) *noun* [**plural**] women's shoes with heels raised high off the ground ●**high-heeled** *adjective*

the ˈhigh ˌjump *noun* SPORT a sports event in which people try to jump over a bar which gets higher and higher during the competition ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

highlands /ˈhaɪləndz/ *noun* [**plural**] GEOGRAPHY an area with a lot of mountains *the Scottish highlands* ●**highland** /ˈhaɪlənd/ *adjective* in or relating to the highlands *a highland village*

high-level /ˌhaɪˈlevəl/ *adjective* involving important or powerful people ***high-level meetings/talks***

ˌhigh-level ˈlanguage *noun* [C] COMPUTING a language for writing computer programs which looks like a human language and is therefore easier to understand

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***highlight***

highlight a **danger/need/issue/problem** ● highlight **the need for** sth

highlight¹ /ˈhaɪlaɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** EMPHASIZE to emphasize something or make people notice something *to **highlight** a **problem/danger*** ○ *The report **highlights the need for** stricter regulations.* **2** COLOUR to make something a different colour so that it is more easily noticed, especially written words

highlight² /ˈhaɪlaɪt/ *noun* [C] the best or most important part of something *The boat trip was one of the **highlights of** the holiday.*

highlighter /ˈhaɪˌlaɪtər/ *noun* [C] a pen with bright, transparent ink which is used to emphasize words in a book, article, etc ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

O-➡**highly** /ˈhaɪli/ *adverb* **1** VERY very or to a large degree *a highly effective treatment* ○ *It is highly unlikely that they will succeed.* **2** HIGH LEVEL at a high level *a highly paid worker* **3 to speak/think highly of sb/sth** to have or express a very good opinion of someone or something

Highness /ˈhaɪnəs/ *noun* **Her/His/Your Highness** used when you are speaking to or about a royal person *Thank you, Your Highness.*

high-pitched /haɪˈpɪtʃt/ *adjective* **1** VOICE A voice that is high-pitched is higher than usual. **2** NOISE describes a noise that is high and sometimes also loud or unpleasant *a high-pitched whine*

high-powered /ˌhaɪˈpaʊəd/ *adjective* very important or responsible *a high-powered executive/job*

high-profile /ˌhaɪˈprəʊfaɪl/ *adjective* A high-profile person or event is known about by a lot of people and receives a lot of attention from television, newspapers, etc. *a **high-profile campaign/case***

high-rise /ˈhaɪˌraɪz/ *adjective* A high-rise building is very tall and has a lot of floors.

ˈhigh ˌschool *noun* [C, U] EDUCATION a school in the US which children go to between the ages of 14 and 18 *I played violin when I was **in high school.*** ○ *a high-school student/teacher*

ˈhigh ˌstreet *noun* [C] *UK* the main road in the centre of a town where there are a lot of shops

high-tech (*also UK* **hi-tech**) /ˌhaɪˈtek/ *adjective* using or involved with the most recent and advanced electronic machines, computers, etc *high-tech companies/industry* ➲Compare **low-tech**

highway /ˈhaɪweɪ/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a main road, especially between two towns or cities

hijack /ˈhaɪdʒæk/ *verb* [T] to take control of an aircraft during a journey, especially using violence [**often passive**] *The plane was hijacked by terrorists.* ●**hijacker** *noun* [C] ●**hijacking** *noun* [C, U]

hike¹ /haɪk/ *noun* [C] SPORT a long walk, usually in the countryside

hike² /haɪk/ *verb* [I] SPORT to go for a long walk in the countryside ●**hiker** *noun* [C] ●**hiking** *noun* [U] *to go hiking in the mountains*

hilarious /hɪˈleəriəs/ *adjective* extremely funny *They all thought the film was hilarious.* ●**hilariously** *adverb* ***hilariously funny***

hilarity /hɪˈlærəti/ *noun* [U] when people laugh very loudly and think something is very funny

O-➡**hill** /hɪl/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a raised area of land, smaller than a mountain *They climbed up the hill to get a better view.*

H

hillside /ˈhɪlsaɪd/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** the sloping side of a hill

hilly /ˈhɪli/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** having a lot of hills *hilly countryside*

hilt /hɪlt/ *noun* **to the hilt** very much or as much as is possible *Mark borrowed to the hilt to pay for his new car.*

hilum /ˈhaɪləm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the mark on the surface of a seed from where it was attached to its stalk

him *strong form* /hɪm/ *weak form* /ɪm/ *pronoun* used after a verb or preposition to refer to someone male who has already been talked about *Where's Serge - have you seen him?*

himself /hɪmˈself/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'he' *John always cuts himself when he's shaving.* **2** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the pronoun 'he' or the particular male person you are referring to *Do you want to speak to Dr Randall himself or his secretary?* ○ *He made the bookcase himself.* **3 (all) by himself** alone or without anyone else's help *Joe made that snowman all by himself.* **4 (all) to himself** for his use only *Tim wants a desk all to himself.*

hind /haɪnd/ *adjective* **a hind foot/leg** a foot/leg at the back of an animal

hinder /ˈhɪndəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make it difficult to do something or for something to develop [**often passive**] *His performance at the Olympics was hindered by a knee injury.*

hindrance /ˈhɪndrəns/ *noun* [C] something or someone that makes it difficult for you to do something *Large class sizes are a **hindrance to** teachers.*

hindsight /ˈhaɪndsaɪt/ *noun* [U] the ability to understand an event or situation only after it has happened ***With hindsight**, I should have taken the job.*

Hindu /ˈhɪnduː/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who believes in Hinduism ●**Hindu** *adjective a Hindu temple*

Hinduism /ˈhɪnduːɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the main religion of India, based on belief in many gods and the belief that when someone dies their spirit returns to life in another body

hinge¹ /ˈhɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] a metal fastening that joins the edge of a door, window, or lid to something else and allows you to open or close it

hinge² /ˈhɪndʒ/ *verb*
hinge on sth *phrasal verb* to depend completely on something *Her career hinges on the success of this project.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hint***

drop a hint ● a **broad/heavy/subtle** hint

hint¹ /hɪnt/ *noun* **1** SUGGESTION [C] when you say something that suggests what you think or want, but not in a direct way *He **dropped** (= made) several **hints** that he wanted a CD player for his birthday.* **2** ADVICE [C] a small piece of advice *The magazine gives lots of **useful hints** on how to save money.* **3 a hint of sth** a small amount of something *There was a hint of anger in her voice.*

hint² /hɪnt/ *verb* [I, T] to suggest something, but not in a direct way [**+ (that)**] *He hinted that he wants to retire next year.* ○ *She **hinted at** the possibility of moving to America.*

hip¹ /hɪp/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the two parts of your body above your leg and below your waist ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

hip² /hɪp/ *adjective informal* fashionable

hip-hop /ˈhɪphɒp/ *noun* [U] **MUSIC** a type of pop music with songs about problems in society and words that are spoken and not sung

hippie /ˈhɪpi/ (*also UK* **hippy**) *noun* [C] someone who believes in peace and love and has long hair, especially someone who was young in the 1960s

hippo /ˈhɪpəʊ/ *noun* [C] *short for* hippopotamus

hippopotamus /ˌhɪpəˈpɒtəməs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **hippopotamuses** or **hippopotami** a very large animal with a thick skin that lives near water in parts of Africa

hire¹ /haɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** PAY TO USE SOMETHING *UK* (*US* **rent**) to pay money in order to use something for a short time *They hired a car for a few weeks.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **rent**
2 EMPLOY to begin to employ someone *We hired a new secretary last week.*
hire sth out *phrasal verb UK* to allow someone to borrow something from you in exchange for money *The shop hires out electrical equipment.*

hire² /haɪəʳ/ *noun* [U] *UK* when you arrange to use something by paying for it *The price includes flights and **car hire**.* ○ *Do you have bikes **for hire**?*

ˌhire ˈpurchase *noun* [U] *UK* **FINANCE** a method of paying for something in which you pay part of the money owed immediately and then the rest in small regular amounts until the whole amount is paid

his¹ *strong form* /hɪz/ *weak form* /ɪz/ *determiner* belonging to or relating to someone male who has already been talked about *Alex is sitting over there with his daughter.* ○ *It's not his fault.*

his² /hɪz/ *pronoun* the things that belong or relate to someone male who has already been talked about *That's Frank's coat over there - at least I think it's his.* ○ *I borrowed them from a friend of his.*

Hispanic /hɪˈspænɪk/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to people whose families came from Spain or Latin America in the past ●**Hispanic** *noun* [C] a Hispanic person

hiss /hɪs/ *verb* **1** MAKE NOISE [I] to make a long noise like the letter 's' *The gas hissed through the pipes.* **2** SPEAK [T] to speak in an angry or urgent way *"Will you be quiet," she hissed.* ●**hiss** *noun* [C] a sound like the letter 's'

hissy (fit) /ˈhɪsiˌfɪt/ *noun* [C] *informal* a sudden strong feeling of anger that someone cannot control *David, of course, **threw a hissy fit** when he found out.*

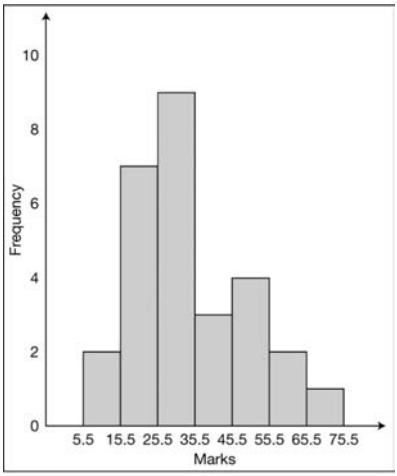

histogram

histogram /ˈhɪstəgræm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a graph (= mathematical picture showing measurements) in which different amounts are shown by thick lines of different heights, lengths or widths

historian /hɪˈstɔːriən/ *noun* [C] someone who studies or writes about history

historic /hɪˈstɒrɪk/ *adjective* important in history or likely to be important in history ***historic buildings*** ○ ***a historic day/moment***

historical /hɪˈstɒrɪkəl/ *adjective* relating to events or people in the past, or the study of history *a historical novel* ○ *historical documents* ●**historically** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***history***

in sth's history ● **recent** history

O-W **history** /ˈhɪstəri/ *noun* **1** PAST [U] the whole series of events in the past which relate to the development of a country, subject, or person *The Civil War was a terrible time in American history.* **2** SUBJECT [U] the study of events in the past *He's very interested in modern European history.* ○ *a history book* **3 a history of sth** If you have a history of a particular problem or illness, you have already suffered from it. *a man with a history of drug addiction* **4** DESCRIPTION [C] a description or record of events in the past relating to someone or something *The doctor read through his* ***medical history***. ➲See also: **case history, natural history**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

history or **story?**

History is events that happened in the past.

He's studying history at university.

A **story** is a description of real or imaginary events, often told to entertain people.

The story is about two friends travelling across India.

O-W **hit¹** /hɪt/ *verb* **hitting**, *past* **hit 1** HAND [T] to touch something quickly and with force using your hand or an object in your hand *She hit him on the head with her tennis racket.* **2** TOUCH [T] to touch someone or something quickly and with force, usually causing injury or damage *The car skidded and hit a wall.* ○ *As she fell, she hit her head on the pavement.* **3** AFFECT [I, T] to affect something badly [**often passive**] *The economy has been hit by high unemployment.* **4** REACH [T] to reach a place, position, or state *Our profits have already hit $1 million.* **5** THINK [T] *informal* If an idea or thought hits you, you suddenly think of it. *The idea for the book hit me in the middle of the night.* **6 hit it off** *informal* If people hit it off, they like each other and become friendly immediately. ➲See also: hit sb **hard²**, hit the **jackpot**, hit the **nail¹** on the head, hit the **roof**

hit back *phrasal verb* to criticize or attack someone who has criticized or attacked you *The President* ***hit back at*** *journalists who said he was a liar.*

hit on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to have a good idea, especially one which solves a problem *We* ***hit upon the idea*** *of writing to the mayor to ask for his help.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hit***

a **big/massive/smash** hit ● a hit **CD/single**

hit² /hɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** SONG/FILM a very successful song, film, book, etc *The film 'Titanic' was a* ***big hit***. **2** PERSON/THING a popular person or thing *The chocolate cake was a* ***big hit*** *with the children.* **3** TOUCH when you touch something or when something touches you quickly and with force **4 INTERNET** a request to see a document on the Internet that is then counted to calculate the number of people looking at the page

hit-and-miss /ˌhɪtənˈmɪs/ *UK* (*US* **hit or miss**) *adjective* not planned, but happening by chance

hit-and-run /ˌhɪtənˈrʌn/ *adjective* A hit-and-run accident is when the driver of a vehicle hits and injures someone, but then drives away without helping.

hitch¹ /hɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] a small problem *The ceremony* ***went without a hitch***.

hitch² /hɪtʃ/ *verb* **1 hitch a lift/ride** to get a free ride in someone's vehicle, by standing next to the road and waiting for someone to pick you up **2** [T] (*also US* **hitch up**) to fasten something to an object or vehicle *They hitched the caravan to the car.*

hitch sth up *phrasal verb* to pull up a piece of clothing

hitchhike /ˈhɪtʃhaɪk/ *verb* [I] to get free rides in people's vehicles by standing next to the road and waiting for someone to pick you up ●**hitchhiker** *noun* [C]

hi-tech *UK* (*UK/US* **high-tech**) /ˌhaɪˈtek/ *adjective* using or involved with the most recent and advanced electronic machines, computers, etc

hitherto /ˌhɪðəˈtuː/ *adverb formal* until now, or until a particular point in time

H

HIV /ˌeɪtʃaɪˈviː/ *noun* [U] HEALTH *abbreviation for* human immunodeficiency virus: a virus which causes AIDS (= a serious disease that destroys the body's ability to fight infection.)

hive /haɪv/ *noun* **1** [C] (*also* **beehive**) a special container where people keep bees **2 a hive of activity** a place where people are busy and working hard

HIV-positive /ˌeɪtʃaɪviːˈpɒzətɪv/ *adjective* HEALTH If a person is HIV-positive, they are infected with HIV although they might not have AIDS.

hiya /ˈhaɪjə/ *exclamation informal* a way to say hello to someone you know well *Hiya, Mike, how are you doing?*

hm (*also* **hmm**) /həm/ *spoken* something you say when you pause while talking or when you are uncertain *"Which one do you like best?" "Hmm. I'm not sure."*

H

hoard /hɔːd/ *verb* [T] to collect and store a large supply of something, often secretly *He hoarded antique books in the attic.* ●**hoard** *noun* [C] a large, secret supply or collection of something *Police found a hoard of stolen jewellery in the car.*

hoarding /ˈhɔːdɪŋ/ *UK* (*UK/US* **billboard**) *noun* [C] a large board used for advertising, especially by the side of a road

hoarse /hɔːs/ *adjective* If you are hoarse, your voice sounds rough when you speak, often because you are ill. *The teacher was hoarse from shouting.* ●**hoarsely** *adverb*

hoax /həʊks/ *noun* [C] when someone tries to make people believe something which is not true *The police said the bomb threat was a hoax.*

hob /hɒb/ *noun* [C] *UK* the flat part on top of an oven where you heat food in pans ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

hobble /ˈhɒbl/ *verb* [I] to walk with small, uncomfortable steps, especially because your feet hurt

hobby /ˈhɒbi/ *noun* [C] an activity that you enjoy and do regularly when you are not working *Do you have any hobbies?*

hockey /ˈhɒki/ *noun* [U] **1** SPORT *UK* (*US* **field hockey**) a team game played on grass where you hit a small ball with a long, curved stick **2** SPORT *US* (*UK/US* **ice hockey**) a team game played on ice where you hit a small, hard object with a long, curved stick ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

hoe /həʊ/ *noun* [C] FARMING a garden tool with a long handle used for removing weeds (= plants you do not want)

hog¹ /hɒg/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a large pig

hog² /hɒg/ *verb* [T] **hogging**, *past* **hogged** *informal* to use or keep all of something for yourself *Stop hogging the newspaper! I want to read it too.*

hoist /hɔɪst/ *verb* [T] to raise something, sometimes using a rope or machine *They slowly hoisted the flag.*

hold¹ /həʊld/ *verb past* **held 1** IN HAND [T] to have something in your hand or arms *He was holding a glass of wine.* ○ *They were* ***holding hands*** *and kissing.* **2** KEEP IN POSITION [T] to keep something in a particular position *Can you hold the door open please?* ○ *Hold your hand up if you know the answer.* ○ *The frame was held together with screws.* **3** ORGANIZE [T] to organize an event *to hold talks/an election* **4** CONTAIN [T] to contain something or to be able to contain a particular amount of something *The bucket holds about 10 litres.* **5** JOB OR QUALIFICATION [T] to have a particular job, position, or qualification *She held the post of treasurer.* **6** COMPETITION [T] to have a particular position in a competition *to hold the world record* ○ *to hold the lead* **7** STORE [T] to store documents, information, etc in a particular place *The documents are held in the local library.* **8** PRISONER [T] to keep someone as a prisoner *Police held the suspect overnight.* ○ *The hijackers are* ***holding*** *them* ***hostage/prisoner***. **9** ARMY [T] If soldiers hold a place, they control it. *Rebel troops held the village.* **10 hold an opinion/belief/view** to believe something *They held the view that corporal punishment was good for children.* **11 hold a conversation** to have a conversation **12 hold sb's attention/interest** to keep someone interested in something *The film held my attention from beginning to end.* **13** TELEPHONE [I, T] to wait on the telephone until someone can speak to you *Her line's busy. Would you like to hold?* ○ ***Hold the line****, please.* **14** NOT BREAK [I] to not break *The rope held.* **15 Hold it!** *informal* used to tell someone to wait or stop doing something *Hold it! I've forgotten my coat.* **16 hold shares** FINANCE to own shares (= small, equal parts of the value of a company) **17 hold your breath a** STOP BREATHING to intentionally stop breathing for a time **b** WAIT to wait for something to happen, often feeling anxious **18 hold your nose** to close your nose with your fingers to avoid smelling something unpleasant ➲See also: hold your **own**[1]

hold sth against sb *phrasal verb* to like someone less because they have done something wrong or behaved badly *It was his mistake, but I won't hold it against him.*

hold sb/sth back *phrasal verb* **1** PREVENT MOVEMENT to prevent someone or something from moving forward *The police held back the protesters.* **2** PREVENT PROGRESS to prevent someone or something from making progress *She felt that having children would hold her back.*

hold sth back *phrasal verb* **1** CONTROL EMOTION to stop yourself showing an emotion *She couldn't hold back the tears.* **2** NOT SAY to not give information to someone

hold sth/sb down *phrasal verb* **1** PREVENT ESCAPING to stop someone moving or escaping *It took three officers to hold down the suspect.* **2** KEEP LOW to keep the cost of something at a low level *to hold down prices/wages* **3 hold down a job** to keep a job *It's difficult for mothers to hold down a full-time job.*

hold off (sth/doing sth) *phrasal verb* to wait before doing something *They are holding off making a decision until next week.*

hold on *phrasal verb informal* **1** WAIT to wait *Hold on! I'll just check my diary.* **2** HOLD to hold something or someone firmly with your hands or arms *Hold on tight!*

hold onto sth/sb *phrasal verb* to hold

something or someone firmly with your hands or arms *Hold onto the rope and don't let go.*
hold onto/on to sth *phrasal verb* to keep something you have *It was a tough election, but they held onto their majority.*
hold sth out *phrasal verb* to move your hand or an object in your hand towards someone *She held out her glass for some more wine.*
hold out *phrasal verb* **1** BE ENOUGH If a supply of food or money holds out, you have enough for a particular period of time. **2** DEFEND to continue to defend yourself against an attack *The city is still **holding out against** rebel troops.*
hold out for sth *phrasal verb* to wait until you get what you want *I decided to hold out for a better offer.*
hold sth up *phrasal verb* to prevent something from falling down *The tent was held up by ropes.*
hold sth/sb up *phrasal verb* to make something or someone slow or late *Sorry I'm late. I got held up in traffic.*
hold up sth *phrasal verb* to try to steal money from a bank, shop, or vehicle using force

hold² /həʊld/ *noun* **1** WITH HANDS [C] when you hold something or someone, or the way you do this ***Keep** a tight **hold on** your tickets.* **2 catch/grab/take, etc hold of sth/sb** to start holding something or someone *He tried to escape, but I grabbed hold of his jacket.* **3 get hold of sth/sb** to obtain something, or to manage to speak to someone *I got hold of a copy at the local library.* ○ *I rang three times, but couldn't get hold of her.* **4 on hold a** DO IN FUTURE If a plan or activity is on hold, it will not be done until a later time. *The project is on hold until we get more money.* **b** TELEPHONE waiting to speak to someone on the telephone *His secretary **put** me **on hold**.* **5 keep hold of sth** to keep something *Keep hold of this. You might need it later.* **6 hold on/over sth/sb** power or control over something or someone *Their company has a strong hold on the computer market.* **7** SPACE [C] an area on a ship or aircraft for storing things *a cargo hold* ➲See also: get (hold of) the wrong **end¹** of the stick

holdall /ˈhəʊldɔːl/ *UK* (*US* **carryall**) *noun* [C] a large bag for carrying clothes

holder /ˈhəʊldəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who officially owns something *the world record holder* ○ *passport holders* ➲See also: **title-holder**

holding /ˈhəʊldɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** part of a company which someone owns

hold-up *UK* (*US* **holdup**) /ˈhəʊldʌp/ *noun* [C] **1** MAKES YOU LATE something that slows you down or makes you late *There were several hold-ups on the motorway.* **2** CRIME when someone steals money from a bank, shop, or vehicle using force

O-K **hole¹** /həʊl/ *noun* **1** [C] a hollow space in something, or an opening in a surface *a bullet hole* ○ *There's a **hole in** the roof.* ○ *We **dug a hole** to plant the tree.* **2 a rabbit/mouse, etc hole** a hollow space where a rabbit/mouse, etc lives **3 SPORT** a small, hollow space in the ground that you try to hit a ball into in a game of golf

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hole***

dig/fill/make a hole ● a hole **in** sth ● a **deep** hole

hole² /həʊl/ *verb*
hole up *phrasal verb informal* (*also* **be holed up**) to stay or hide somewhere

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***holiday***

book/go on/have a holiday ● a **summer** holiday ● be **on** holiday

O-K **holiday¹** /ˈhɒlədeɪ/ *noun* **1** NO WORK [C, U] *UK* (*US* **vacation**) a time when you do not have to go to work or school *My aunt looks after us during the **school holidays**.* **2** VISIT [C, U] *UK* (*US* **vacation**) a long visit to a place away from where you live, for pleasure *a skiing/walking holiday* ○ *Are you **going on holiday** this year?* **3** DAY [C] an official day when you do not have to go to school or work *a **public holiday*** ➲See also: **bank holiday, federal holiday, national holiday, package holiday, summer holiday**

holiday² /ˈhɒlədeɪ/ *UK* (*US* **vacation**) *verb* [I] to have your holiday somewhere *We usually holiday in Spain.*

holidaymaker /ˈhɒlədeɪˌmeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone who is away from home on holiday

holiness /ˈhəʊlɪnəs/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the quality of being holy

holistic /həʊˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* dealing with or treating the whole of something or someone and not just some parts

holler /ˈhɒləʳ/ *verb* [I] *US informal* to shout or call loudly ●**holler** *noun* [C]

hollow¹ /ˈhɒləʊ/ *adjective* **1** NOTHING INSIDE having a hole or empty space inside *a hollow shell/tube* **2** WITHOUT MEANING without meaning or real feeling *a **hollow victory*** ○ *a **hollow laugh*** **3 hollow cheeks/eyes** If someone has hollow cheeks/eyes, their face seems to curve in around these areas.

hollow² /ˈhɒləʊ/ *noun* [C] a hole or empty space in something, or a low area in a surface

hollow³ /ˈhɒləʊ/ *verb*
hollow sth out *phrasal verb* to make an empty space inside something

holly /ˈhɒli/ *noun* [U] a green bush with sharp, pointed leaves and small, red fruit

Hollywood /ˈhɒliwʊd/ *noun* the centre of the US film industry

holocaust /ˈhɒləkɔːst/ *noun* [C] when a very large number of people are killed and things destroyed, such as in a war or fire *a nuclear holocaust*

hologram /ˈhɒləgræm/ *noun* [C] **ART** a photograph or image which appears to be solid and have depth when light shines on it in a particular way

holster /ˈhəʊlstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a leather container for carrying a gun on your body

holy /ˈhəʊli/ *adjective* **1 RELIGION** relating to a religion or a god *the holy city of Jerusalem* **2 RELIGION** very religious or pure *a holy man*

H

homage /ˈhɒmɪdʒ/ *noun* **pay homage to sb** to show your respect for someone, especially by praising them in public *Fans paid homage to the actress who died yesterday.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***home***

go home ● be **at** home

home¹ /həʊm/ *noun* **1** LIVE [**C, U**] the place where you live or feel you belong *I tried to ring him, but he wasn't **at home**.* ○ *He **left home*** (= stopped living with his family) *when he was eighteen.* **2** CARE [**C**] a place where people who need special care live *a **children's home*** ○ *My grandmother lives in a home now.* **3 feel at home** to feel happy and confident in a place or situation *After a month she felt at home in her new job.* **4 make yourself at home** to behave in a relaxed way in a place, as if it was your own home *Take off your coat and make yourself at home.* **5 the home of sth/sb** the place where you usually find something or someone, or where they come from *France, the home of good food* ➲See also: **nursing home, stately home**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

home

When you use verbs of movement with **home**, for example 'go' or 'come', you do not need to use a preposition.

What time did you go home?

I'll call you as soon as I get home.

When you use the verbs **be** or **stay** with **home**, you can use the preposition **at**.

I was at home all afternoon.

I'll stay at home to look after the children.

Let's stay home and watch a movie. (mainly US)

home² /həʊm/ *adverb* **1** TO PLACE to the place where you live *He didn't **come home** until midnight.* ○ *I **went home** to visit my parents.* **2** AT/IN PLACE at or in the place someone lives *Will you be home tomorrow evening?*

home³ /həʊm/ *adjective* **1 sb's home address/phone number, etc** an address/telephone number, etc for the place where someone lives **2** FOR/FROM HOME made or used in the place where someone lives ***home cooking*** ○ *a home computer* **3** SPORT relating to the place where a sporting event happens *The home team won 2-0.* **4** COUNTRY relating to things in your own country *home affairs*

home⁴ /həʊm/ *verb*

home in on sth/sb *phrasal verb* to give a lot of attention to something or someone *The report only homes in on the negative points.*

homeboy /ˈhəʊmbɔɪ/ (*also* **homey**) *noun* [**C**] *mainly US informal* a boy or man who is a close friend or who is from your own town

homecoming /ˈhəʊmˌkʌmɪŋ/ *noun* [**U, C**] when someone returns home, usually after being away for a long time

ˌhome ecoˈnomics *noun* [**U**] EDUCATION a school subject in which you learn how to cook and sew

the ˌhome ˈfront *noun* [**no plural**] the people who stay in their own country when some of its people are fighting a war in another country

home-grown /ˌhəʊmˈgrəʊn/ *adjective* **1** FOOD from your own garden *home-grown vegetables* **2** If someone or something is home-grown, they belong to or were developed in your own country. *Our football team has many home-grown players.*

homeland /ˈhəʊmlænd/ *noun* [**C**] the country where you were born

homeless /ˈhəʊmləs/ *adjective* SOCIETY without a place to live *10,000 people were made homeless by the floods.* ○ *They're opening a new shelter for **the homeless**.* ●**homelessness** *noun* [**U**]

homely /ˈhəʊmli/ *adjective* **1** COMFORTABLE *UK* A homely place is simple, but comfortable and pleasant. *It's a small restaurant with a homely atmosphere.* **2** NOT ATTRACTIVE *US* Someone who is homely is not very attractive.

homemade (*also UK* **home-made**) /ˌhəʊmˈmeɪd/ *adjective* made at home and not bought from a shop *homemade bread/cookies*

homeopathy /ˌhəʊmiˈɒpəθi/ *noun* [**U**] HEALTH a way of treating illnesses using very small amounts of natural substances ●**homeopathic** /ˌhəʊmiəʊˈpæθɪk/ *adjective a **homeopathic remedy***

homeostasis /ˌhəʊmiəʊˈsteɪsɪs/ *noun* [**U**] BIOLOGY the process by which a living thing or a cell keeps the conditions inside it the same despite any changes in the conditions around it

homeothermic /ˌhəʊmiəʊˈθɜːmɪk/ *adjective* BIOLOGY able to keep a body temperature the same even when the temperature outside the body changes

homeowner /ˈhəʊmˌəʊnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who owns the house that they live in

ˈhome ˌpage *noun* [**C**] INTERNET the first page that you see when you look at a website on the Internet ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

ˌhome ˈshopping *noun* [**U**] when someone buys goods from a magazine, a television programme or a website

homesick /ˈhəʊmsɪk/ *adjective* feeling sad because you are away from your home ●**homesickness** *noun* [**U**]

homestead /ˈhəʊmsted/ *noun* [**C**] *mainly US* a house and area of land usually used as a farm

hometown *US* (*UK/US* **ˌhome ˈtown**) /ˌhəʊmˈtaʊn/ *noun* [**C**] the town or city that you come from

homeward /ˈhəʊmwəd/ *adjective, adverb* towards home *the **homeward journey***

homework /ˈhəʊmwɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] **1** EDUCATION work which teachers give students to do at home *Have you **done** your **homework** yet?* **2 do your homework** to prepare carefully for a situation *It was clear that she had done her homework before the meeting.*

homey¹ /ˈhəʊmi/ *US* (*UK* **homely**) *adjective* A homey place is simple, but comfortable and pleasant.

homey² /ˈhəʊmi/ (*also* **homeboy**) *noun* [**C**] *mainly US informal* a boy or man who is a close friend or who is from your own town

homicide /ˈhɒmɪsaɪd/ *noun* [C, U] *US* LAW the crime of killing someone *There were over 400 homicides in Chicago last year.* ●**homicidal** /ˌhɒmɪˈsaɪdəl/ *adjective* likely to murder someone *a **homicidal maniac***

homogeneous /ˌhɒməˈdʒiːniəs, ˌhəʊmə-ˈdʒiːniəs/ *adjective formal* **1** consisting of parts or members that are all the same *The village was a fairly homogeneous community.* **2** CHEMISTRY A homogeneous substance has the same characteristics, for example density, all the way through.

homologous /həˈmɒləɡəs/ *adjective* **1** If two things are homologous, they have a similar position or appearance **2** BIOLOGY Homologous body parts developed from the same thing but now have different uses. ➲Compare **analogous**

hoˌmologous ˈchromosomes *noun* [plural] BIOLOGY two chromosomes (= cells that control what an animal or plant is like), one from the father and one from the mother, that look exactly the same and join together

hoˌmologous ˈseries *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a series of organic compounds with similar characteristics

homophobia /ˌhəʊməˈfəʊbiə/ *noun* [U] hate of homosexual people ●**homophobic** *adjective* hating homosexual people

homosexual /ˌhəʊməˈsekʃʊəl/ *adjective* sexually attracted to people of the same sex ●**homosexual** *noun* [C] someone who is homosexual ●**homosexuality** /ˌhəʊməʊˌsekʃʊˈæləti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being homosexual

homozygous /ˌhɒməˈzaɪɡəs/ *adjective* BIOLOGY having two of the same form of gene (= part of a cell passed from a parent to a child) that controls one characteristic and therefore able to pass on one form only to the young ➲Compare **heterozygous**

hone /həʊn/ *verb* [T] to improve something and make it perfect *This is an opportunity for you to **hone** your **skills**.*

honest /ˈɒnɪst/ *adjective* **1** TRUTH sincere and telling the truth *If you want my **honest opinion**, I think your hair looks awful.* **2** NOT CHEAT not likely to lie, cheat, or steal *an honest man* ➲Opposite **dishonest** **3 to be honest** *informal* used to express your real opinion *To be honest, I didn't really enjoy the party.*

honestly /ˈɒnɪstli/ *adverb* **1** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize that you are telling the truth *Thanks, but I honestly couldn't eat another piece of cake.* **2** HONEST in an honest way **3** ANNOYED used to show that you are annoyed or do not approve of something *Honestly! He should have been here hours ago.*

honesty /ˈɒnɪsti/ *noun* **1** [U] the quality of being honest **2 in all honesty** used when you are saying what you really think or feel about something *In all honesty, I'd rather not go.* ➲Opposite **dishonesty**

honey /ˈhʌni/ *noun* **1** FOOD [U] a sweet, sticky food that is made by bees ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2** [C] *mainly US* a name that you call someone you love or like very much

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***honeymoon***

be **on** (your) honeymoon ● a honeymoon **couple**

honeymoon /ˈhʌnimuːn/ *noun* [C] a holiday taken by two people who have just got married *We went to Paris **on** our **honeymoon**.* ●**honeymooner** *noun* [C]

honk /hɒŋk/ *verb* [I, T] to make a short sound with your car's horn (= part you press to make a warning noise) *The lorry driver **honked** his **horn** at me.*

honor /ˈɒnər/ *noun, verb US spelling of* honour

honorable /ˈhɒnərəbl/ *adjective US spelling of* honourable

honorary /ˈɒnərəri/ *adjective* **1** GIVEN given as a reward to show respect *He was given an **honorary degree** from Cambridge University.* **2** NOT PAID If you have an honorary job, you are not paid for it. *the honorary chairman*

honour¹ *UK* (*US* **honor**) /ˈɒnər/ *noun* **1** RESPECT [U] when people respect you because you have done what you believe is honest and right, or the quality of doing this *a man of honour* ○ *The soldiers fought for the honour of their country.* ➲Opposite **dishonour** **2 in honour of sb/sth** in order to celebrate or show great respect for someone or something *a banquet in honour of the President* **3** PRIDE [**no plural**] something which makes you feel proud and pleased [**+ to do sth**] *It's an honour to be team captain.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *I had the great honour of meeting the King.* **4** REWARD [C] something that you give to someone in public to show respect for them and their achievements *She was granted the Order of Merit - one of the nation's highest honours.* **5 Her/His/Your Honour** used when you are speaking to or about a judge **6 honours** EDUCATION A qualification or university course with honours is of a very high level. *an honours degree*

honour² *UK* (*US* **honor**) /ˈɒnər/ *verb* **1** [T] to show great respect for someone or something, usually in public [**often passive**] *He was **honoured for** his bravery.* ○ *She was **honoured with** an Oscar.* **2 honour an agreement/contract/promise, etc** to do what you agreed or promised to do ➲Opposite **dishonour**

honourable /ˈɒnərəbl/ *adjective UK* **1** (*US* **honorable**) honest and fair, or deserving praise and respect *a decent, honourable man* ➲Opposite **dishonourable** **2 the Honourable a** a title used before the name of some important government officials **b** a title used in the UK before the name of certain people of high social rank ●**honourably** *adverb*

hood /hʊd/ *noun* [C] **1** HEAD a part of a coat or jacket that covers your head and neck *a waterproof jacket with a hood* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 **2** CAR *US* (*UK* **bonnet**) the metal part that covers a car engine ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

hooded /ˈhʊdɪd/ *adjective* having or wearing a hood *a hooded sweatshirt* ○ *hooded figures*

hoodie (also **hoody**) /ˈhʊdi/ *noun* [C] a sweatshirt (= a piece of clothing made of soft cotton which covers the top of your body) with a hood

(= part which covers your head) ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

hoof /huːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **hooves** or **hoofs** **BIOLOGY** the hard part on the foot of a horse and some other large animals

hook¹ /hʊk/ *noun* **1** [C] a curved piece of metal or plastic used for hanging something on, or a similar object used for catching fish *His coat was hanging from a hook on the door.* **2 off the hook** If a telephone is off the hook, the part you speak into is not in its correct position, so the telephone will not ring. **3 a left/right hook** **SPORT** when you hit someone hard with your left/right hand **4 get/let sb off the hook** *informal* to allow someone to escape from a difficult situation or to avoid doing something that they do not want to do

hook² /hʊk/ *verb* **1** [T] to fasten something with a hook, hang something on a hook, or catch something with a hook **2 be/get hooked on sth** **a** to like or start to like doing something very much and want to do it all the time *He's completely hooked on computer games.* **b** If you are hooked on a drug, you cannot stop taking it. ●**hooked** *adjective* shaped like a hook *a hooked nose*

hook sth/sb up *phrasal verb* to connect a machine to a power supply or to another machine, or to connect someone to a piece of medical equipment

hooligan /ˈhuːlɪgᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone who behaves badly or violently and causes damage in a public place ●**hooliganism** *noun* [U]

hoop /huːp/ *noun* [C] a ring made of metal, plastic, or wood

hooray (*also* **hurrah**) /hʊˈreɪ/ *exclamation* something that you shout when you are happy, excited, etc or when you approve of someone or something ***Hip, hip, hooray!***

hoot¹ /huːt/ *noun* **1** SOUND [C] a short sound made by an owl (= bird) or by a car horn (= warning equipment) **2 a hoot of laughter** when someone laughs loudly **3** FUNNY [**no plural**] *informal* something or someone that is very funny *The film was an absolute hoot.*

hoot² /huːt/ *verb* **1** CAR [I, T] *mainly UK* to make a short sound with your car's horn (= part you press to make a warning noise) *The van driver hooted his horn impatiently.* **2** BIRD [I] If an owl (= bird) hoots, it makes a low 'oo' sound. **3 hoot with laughter** to laugh a lot very loudly

Hoover /ˈhuːvəʳ/ *mainly UK trademark* (*UK/US* **vacuum cleaner**) *noun* [C] an electric machine which cleans floors by sucking up dirt ●**hoover** *verb* [I, T]

hooves /huːvz/ *plural of* hoof

hop¹ /hɒp/ *verb* [I] **hopping**, *past* **hopped 1** ONE FOOT to jump on one foot or to move about in this way **2** ANIMAL If a small animal, bird, or insect hops, it moves by jumping on all of its feet at the same time. *Rabbits were hopping across the field.* **3** MOVE QUICKLY *informal* to go somewhere quickly or get into or out of a vehicle quickly *to hop on a plane/train*

hop² /hɒp/ *noun* **1** [C] a short jump, especially on one leg **2 a short hop** *informal* a short journey or distance *London to Paris is only a short hop by plane.*

hope¹ /həʊp/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to want something to happen or be true [+ **(that)**] *I hope that the bus won't be late.* ○ *We had* ***hoped for*** *better weather than this.* ○ *"Do you think it's going to rain?" "**I hope not!**"* ○ *"Is he coming?" "**I hope so.**"* **2 hope to do sth** to intend to do something *Dad hopes to retire next year.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hope***

bring / **give** / **give up** / **hold out** / **lose** / **offer** hope ● **fresh/great/renewed/vain** hope ● hope **of** sth/doing sth

hope² /həʊp/ *noun* **1** [C, U] a positive feeling about the future, or something that you want to happen *a message full of hope* ○ *What are your* ***hopes*** *and dreams* ***for*** *the future?* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *Young people are growing up in our cities without any hope of getting a job.* **2 sb's best/last/only hope** the best/last/only person or thing that can help you and make you succeed *Doctors say his only hope is a transplant.* **3 in the hope of/that** because you want something good to happen [+ **doing sth**] *She went to Paris in the hope of improving her French.* **4 pin your hopes on sb/sth** to hope that someone or something will help you achieve what you want

hopeful /ˈhəʊpfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SOMEONE feeling positive about a future event or situation *Many teenagers do not feel* ***hopeful about*** *the future.* [+ **(that)**] *Police are still hopeful that they will find the missing family.* **2** SOMETHING If something is hopeful, it makes you feel that what you want to happen will happen. *There are* ***hopeful signs*** *that she will make a full recovery.* ●**hopefulness** *noun* [U] ●**hopeful** *noun* [C] someone who hopes to succeed, especially in the entertainment business *a* ***young hopeful***

hopefully /ˈhəʊpfᵊli/ *adverb* **1** EXPRESS WISH used, often at the start of a sentence, to express what you would like to happen *Hopefully it won't rain.* **2** HOPING in a hopeful way *"Are there any tickets left?" she asked hopefully.*

hopeless /ˈhəʊpləs/ *adjective* **1** VERY BAD very bad and not likely to succeed or improve *a* ***hopeless situation*** ○ *They searched for survivors, but it was hopeless.* **2** NOT ABLE very bad at a particular activity *Dad's a hopeless cook.* ○ *I'm* ***hopeless at*** *sports.* **3** NOT POSITIVE feeling no hope *She was depressed and felt totally hopeless about the future.* ●**hopelessness** *noun* [U]

hopelessly /ˈhəʊpləsli/ *adverb* extremely, or in a way that makes you lose hope *hopelessly lost* ○ *They met at university and fell* ***hopelessly in love.***

hops /hɒps/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** the flowers of a plant that are used to make beer

hopscotch /ˈhɒpskɒtʃ/ *noun* [U] a children's game in which the player throws a stone onto one of a set of squares drawn on the ground and then jumps and hops (= jumps on one leg) into each square in turn to pick up the stone

horde /hɔːd/ *noun* [C] a large group of people *There was a* ***horde of*** *tourists outside Buckingham Palace.*

horizon /həˈraɪzᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] the line in the distance where the sky seems to touch the land or sea **2 broaden/expand/widen your horizons** to increase the number of things that you know about, have experienced, or can do *Travelling certainly broadens your horizons.* **3 on the horizon** likely to happen soon *Economic recovery is on the horizon.*

horizontal /ˌhɒrɪˈzɒntᵊl/ *adjective* level and flat, or parallel to the ground or to the bottom of a page *a horizontal line/stripe* ●**horizontally** *adverb*

horiˌzontal ˈaxis *noun* [no plural] **MATHEMATICS** the line of figures or letters along the bottom of a graph or map; the x-axis ➲Compare **vertical axis** ➲See Extra help page **Graphs and charts** on page Centre 20.

horiˌzontal ˈmerger *noun* [C] **FINANCE, ECONOMICS** when two companies that have the same type of business join together

hormone /ˈhɔːməʊn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of several chemicals produced in your body that influence its growth and development ●**hormonal** /hɔːˈməʊnᵊl/ *adjective a* ***hormonal imbalance***

horn /hɔːn/ *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** one of the two hard, pointed growths on the heads of cows, goats, and some other animals **2** a piece of equipment used to make a loud sound as a warning or signal *a car horn* ○ *The taxi driver* ***hooted*** *his* ***horn.*** **3 MUSIC** a curved musical instrument that you blow into to make a sound *the French horn*

horoscope /ˈhɒrəskəʊp/ *noun* [C] a description of what someone is like and what might happen to them in the future, based on the position of the stars and planets when they were born

horrendous /hɒrˈendəs/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant or bad *She suffered horrendous injuries in the accident.* ●**horrendously** *adverb* extremely or extremely badly *horrendously expensive*

horrible /ˈhɒrəbl/ *adjective* very unpleasant or bad *What's that horrible smell?* ○ *That was a horrible thing to say to your sister.* ●**horribly** *adverb* extremely, or in a very bad or unpleasant way *His plan went horribly wrong.*

horrid /ˈhɒrɪd/ *adjective* very unpleasant or unkind

horrific /hɒrˈɪfɪk/ *adjective* very bad and shocking *a* ***horrific accident/crime*** ○ ***horrific injuries*** ●**horrifically** *adverb*

horrify /ˈhɒrɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel very shocked [**often passive**] *I was horrified to hear about your accident.* ●**horrifying** *adjective*

horror /ˈhɒrᵊ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] a strong feeling of shock or fear, or something that makes you feel shocked or afraid *She watched* ***in horror*** *as the car skidded across the road.* **2 a horror film/movie/story** a film or story that entertains people by shocking or frightening them

O-key **horse** /hɔːs/ *noun* [C] a large animal with four legs, which people ride or use to pull heavy things

horseback /ˈhɔːsbæk/ *noun* **1 on horseback** riding a horse *police on horseback* **2 horseback riding** **SPORT** *US* (*UK* **horse riding**) the sport or activity of riding a horse ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

ˌhorse ˈchestnut *noun* [C] a tree that produces shiny, brown nuts in thick green shells with sharp points, or one of these nuts

horse-drawn /ˈhɔːsdrɔːn/ *adjective* [always before noun] A horse-drawn vehicle is pulled by a horse.

horseman, horsewoman /ˈhɔːsmən, ˈhɔːsˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **horsemen, horsewomen** **SPORT** a man/woman who rides horses well

horsepower /ˈhɔːsˌpaʊᵊ/ (*written abbreviation* **hp**) *noun* [U] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring the power of an engine

ˈhorse ˌracing *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport where people race on horses, usually to win money

ˈhorse ˌriding *UK* (*US* **ˈhorseback ˌriding**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport or activity of riding a horse ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

horseshoe /ˈhɔːsʃuː/ *noun* [C] a U-shaped piece of metal that is nailed to a horse's foot

horticulture /ˈhɔːtɪkʌltʃᵊ/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** the study or activity of growing plants ●**horticultural** /ˌhɔːtɪˈkʌltʃᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* relating to gardening

hose /həʊz/ *noun* **1** PIPE [C] (*also UK* **hosepipe** /ˈhəʊzpaɪp/) a long pipe made of rubber or plastic and used for directing water somewhere, usually onto a garden or fire **2** CLOTHES [plural] (*also* **pantyhose**) *US* a piece of women's clothing made of very thin material that covers the legs and bottom

hospice /ˈhɒspɪs/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a place where people who are dying live and are cared for

hospitable /hɒsˈpɪtəbl/ *adjective* A hospitable person or place is friendly, pleasant, and welcomes visitors.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hospital***

be **admitted to/discharged from** hospital ● be (UK) **in**/(US) **in the** hospital

O-key **hospital** /ˈhɒspɪtᵊl/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a place where ill or injured people go to be treated by doctors and nurses *He was (UK)* ***in hospital****/(US)* ***in the hospital*** *for two weeks.*

hospitalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈhɒspɪtᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to take someone to hospital and keep them there for treatment [**often passive**] *My wife was often hospitalized for depression.*

host¹ /həʊst/ *noun* **1** PARTY [C] someone who organizes a party and invites the guests **2** TELEVISION [C] someone who introduces the guests on a radio or television programme *a* ***talk show host*** **3** PLACE [C] a country or city that provides the place and equipment for an organized event *Australia* ***played host to*** *the Olympics in 2000.* **4 INTERNET** a company that hosts websites on the Internet **5 a host of sth** a large number of people or things *I've got a whole host of questions to ask you.*

host² /həʊst/ *verb* [T] **1** to be the host of an event *to* ***host a party/dinner*** **2 INTERNET** to provide the computer equipment and programs that allow a website to operate on the Internet

hostage /ˈhɒstɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who is kept as a prisoner and may be hurt or killed

in order to force other people to do something **2 take/hold sb hostage** to catch or keep someone as a prisoner *Two tourists were held hostage by terrorists.*

hostel /ˈhɒstəl/ *noun* [C] a place like a cheap hotel, where you can live when you are away from home or have no home *a hostel for the homeless* ○ *a* ***student hostel*** ➲See also: **youth hostel**

hostess /ˈhəʊstɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** PARTY a woman who organizes a party and invites the guests **2** TELEVISION a woman who introduces the guests on a television programme ➲See also: **air hostess**

hostile /ˈhɒstaɪl/ *adjective* **1** UNFRIENDLY unfriendly and not liking or agreeing with something *Some politicians were very* ***hostile to*** *the idea.* **2** DIFFICULT unpleasant or not suitable for living or growing *a hostile climate*

H

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hostility***

arouse/provoke hostility ● **open** hostility ● hostility **to/towards** sb

hostility /hɒsˈtɪləti/ *noun* **1** UNFRIENDLY BEHAVIOUR [U] unfriendly, angry behaviour that shows that you dislike someone ***hostility towards*** *outsiders* **2** DISAGREEMENT [U] when you strongly disagree with something or someone *There is still open* ***hostility to*** *the idea.* **3 hostilities** [plural] *formal* fighting in a war

hot¹ /hɒt/ *adjective* **hotter**, **hottest 1** VERY WARM having a high temperature *a hot summer's day* ○ *a hot drink/meal* ○ *I'm too hot in this jacket.* **2 FOOD** Hot food contains strong spices which cause a burning feeling in your mouth. *Be careful. The chilli sauce is very hot.* **3** EXCITING *informal* exciting or interesting *Hollywood's hottest new actress* **4 a hot issue/topic** a subject which people discuss and have strong feelings about *The legalization of drugs is a hot topic.* ➲See also: **piping hot, red-hot**

hot² /hɒt/ *verb* **hotting**, *past* **hotted**
hot up *phrasal verb UK informal* If a situation or event hots up, it becomes more exciting and more things start to happen.

hot-ˈair balˌloon *noun* [C] a very large balloon filled with hot air, that has a container below it where people can travel

hotbed /ˈhɒtbed/ *noun* [C] a place where there is a lot of a particular activity, usually something bad *The government was* ***a hotbed of*** *corruption.*

ˌhot ˈchocolate *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a hot, sweet drink with a chocolate flavour

ˈhot ˌdog *noun* [C] **FOOD** a cooked sausage (= tube of meat and spices) that you usually eat inside bread

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hotel***

at/in a hotel ● a hotel **guest/room** ● a **luxury** hotel

hotel /həʊˈtel/ *noun* [C] a place where you pay to stay when you are away from home *We spent our honeymoon* ***in a*** *luxury* ***hotel.*** ○ *a* ***hotel room***

hotelier /həʊˈteliеɪ/ (US) /həʊˈteljər/ *noun* [C] someone who owns or is in charge of a hotel

ˈhot ˌkey *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a key that starts a particular computer program or causes a series of actions to be performed, sometimes used with other keys; a shortcut (key)

hotline /ˈhɒtlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a telephone number that you can ring for help or information *Ring our 24-hour hotline for advice.*

hotly /ˈhɒtli/ *adverb* **1** in an angry or excited way *He* ***hotly denied*** *the rumours.* **2 hotly contested** If a race, election or other competition is hotly contested, everyone is trying very hard to win it.

ˌhot-ˈwater bottle *noun* [C] a flat, rubber container that you fill with hot water to keep you warm

hound¹ /haʊnd/ *noun* [C] a dog that is used when people hunt animals

hound² /haʊnd/ *verb* [T] to follow someone and annoy them by asking questions or taking photographs [**often passive**] *She is always being hounded by photographers.*

hour /aʊər/ *noun* **1** 60 MINUTES [C] a period of time equal to 60 minutes *half an hour* ○ *It's a six-hour flight.* ○ *The job pays $5 an hour.* **2** PERIOD OF TIME [C] the period of time when a particular activity happens or when a shop or public building is open [**usually plural**] ***working hours*** ○ *Our* ***opening hours*** *are from 8 to 6.* ○ *I've got to go to the bank (UK)* in my ***lunch hour****/ (US)* on my lunch hour. **3 hours** *informal* a long time *I* ***spent hours*** *doing my homework.* **4 the hour** the point when a new hour begins *The train leaves at two minutes past the hour.* ○ *My watch beeps* ***on the hour.*** **5 all hours** very late at night, until early morning, or almost all the time *Our neighbours are up till all hours every night, playing loud music.* **6 the early/small hours** the hours between midnight and the time that the sun rises ➲See also: **rush hour**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

hour or **time?**

An **hour** is a period of 60 minutes.

The journey takes about three hours.

We went for a 2-hour walk.

Time is measured in hours and minutes. We use **time** to refer to a particular point during the day or night, or to say when something happens.

What time do you get up in the morning?

There's only one bus at that time of night.

Remember to use **time** not 'hour' when you are talking about what time it is.

"What time is it?" "2 o'clock".

~~*"What hour is it?" "2 o'clock".*~~

hourly /ˈaʊəli/ *adjective, adverb* **1** EVERY happening every hour *There is an hourly bus service.* **2** EACH for each hour *an hourly rate/wage*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***house***

build/buy/rent/sell a house ● a **detached/semi-detached/terraced** house

house¹ /haʊs/ *noun plural* **houses** /ˈhaʊzɪz/ **1** BUILDING [C] a building where people live, usually one family or group *a three-bedroomed house* ○ *We went to my aunt's house for dinner.*

2 PEOPLE [**no plural**] the people who live in a house *The baby's screaming woke the* ***whole house*** *up.* **3** PLACE FOR ACTIVITY [**C**] the place where a particular business or activity happens *an opera house* ○ *a publishing house* **4 the House** **POLITICS** a group of people which makes a country's laws, or the place where they meet *the House of Commons/Representatives* ○ *The House voted on the proposals.* **5** THEATRE [**C**] the people watching a performance or the area where they sit [**usually singular**] *The actors played to a* ***full house.*** **6 on the house** If food or drink is on the house in a bar or restaurant, it is free. ➲See also: **boarding house, full house, row house, terraced house, the White House**

house² /haʊz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** GIVE HOME to give a person or animal a place to live *This development will house over 100 families.* **2** PROVIDE SPACE to provide space for something *The museum houses a huge collection of paintings.*

ˌhouse arˈrest *noun* **LAW under house arrest** when you are kept as a prisoner in your own home

houseboat /ˈhaʊsbəʊt/ *noun* [**C**] a boat that people can live on

housebound /ˈhaʊsbaʊnd/ *adjective* unable to leave your home because you are too ill or old

household¹ /ˈhaʊshəʊld/ *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** a family or group of people who live together in a house *Many households own more than one television.*

household² /ˈhaʊshəʊld/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] connected with or belonging to a home ***household bills/expenses*** ○ ***household products/goods*** **2 a household name** someone or something that everyone knows *Her TV roles made her a household name in the UK.*

householder /ˈhaʊshəʊldəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* someone who owns or rents a house

ˈhouse ˌhusband *noun* [**C**] a man who takes care of the house and children while his wife or partner earns money for the family

housekeeper /ˈhaʊsˌkiːpəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is paid to clean and cook in someone else's house

housekeeping /ˈhaʊsˌkiːpɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] the cleaning and cooking that you do in your home

ˈhouse ˌ(music) *noun* [**U**] **MUSIC** a type of electronic pop music with a strong beat for dancing

ˌHouse of ˈCommons *noun* [**no plural**] **POLITICS** one of the two parts of the British parliament, with elected members who make laws

ˌHouse of ˈLords *noun* [**no plural**] **POLITICS** one of the two parts of the British parliament, with members who are chosen by the government

ˌHouse of Repreˈsentatives *noun* [**no plural**] **POLITICS** a group of politicians elected by people in the US to make laws

ˌHouses of ˈParliament *noun* [**plural**] **POLITICS** the House of Commons and the House of Lords, or the building in London where they meet

ˈhouse ˌwarming *noun* [**C**] a party to celebrate moving into a new house

housewife /ˈhaʊswaɪf/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **housewives** /ˈhaʊswaɪvz/ a woman who stays at home to cook, clean, and take care of her family

housework /ˈhaʊswɜːk/ *noun* [**U**] the work that you do to keep your house clean *I can't stand* ***doing housework.***

housing /ˈhaʊzɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] buildings for people to live in *a shortage of local housing*

ˈhousing eˌstate *UK* (*US* **ˈhousing deˌvelopment**) *noun* [**C**] an area with a large number of houses that were built at the same time

hover /ˈhɒvəʳ/ *verb* [**I**] **1** IN AIR to stay up in the air but without moving anywhere *A helicopter hovered overhead.* **2** WAIT If you hover, you stand and wait near someone or something. *A waiter hovered at the table ready to take our order.*

hovercraft /ˈhɒvəkrɑːft/ *noun* [**C**] a boat that moves across the surface of water or land supported by a large cushion (= soft container) of air

how¹ /haʊ/ *adverb* **1** WAY used to ask about the way something happens or is done *How did he die?* ○ *How does she manage to keep the house so tidy?* **2** QUANTITY used to ask about quantity, size, or age *How big is the house?* ○ *How old are they?* ○ *How much* (= what price) *was that dress?* **3** EMPHASIZE used before an adjective or adverb to emphasize it *I was amazed at how quickly she finished.* **4** HEALTH used to ask about someone's health *How are you feeling today?* **5** SITUATION used to ask about the success or progress of a situation *How's everything going?* ○ *How was the exam?* **6 How are you?** used to ask someone if they are well and happy *"How are you Jane?" - "Oh, not so bad thanks."* **7 How about..?** used to make a suggestion *How about a drink?* [**+ doing sth**] *How about going to the cinema?* **8 How come?** *informal* used to ask about the reason for something, especially when you feel surprised about it *"Kate's gone to the party on her own." "How come?"* **9 How strange/stupid/weird, etc. is that?** said to mean that something is strange/stupid, etc. ➲See also: **know-how**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

how or **what?**

In these expressions we use **what**. Be careful not to use 'how'.

what something is called

I don't know what it's called in English.

~~*I don't know how it's called in English.*~~

what something/someone looks like

I'd like to see what it looks like before I buy it.

What does your brother look like?

how² /haʊ/ *conjunction* used to talk about the way that something happens or is done [**+ to do sth**] *I don't know how to turn the video on.*

however¹ /haʊˈevəʳ/ *adverb* **1 however cold/difficult/slowly, etc** used to say that it does not make any difference how cold/difficult/slowly, etc *We're not going to get there in time, however fast we drive.* **2** COMPARING used when you are about to say something which is

surprising compared with what you have just said *He had always been a successful businessman. Recently, however, things have not been going well for him.* **3** ASKING *UK* used to ask about how something happened when the person asking feels surprised *However did you manage to persuade her?*

however² /haʊˈevəʳ/ *conjunction* in any way *However you look at it, it's still a mess.* ○ *You can do it however you like.*

howl /haʊl/ *verb* [I] **1** ANIMAL If a dog or wolf (= wild animal like a dog) howls, it makes a long, sad sound. **2** MAKE SOUND to make a loud sound, usually to express pain, sadness, or another strong emotion *He **howled in** pain.* ○ *The audience was **howling with** laughter.* **3** WIND If the wind howls, it blows hard and makes a lot of noise. ●**howl** *noun* [C]

hp **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* horsepower (= a unit for measuring the power of an engine)

HQ /ˌeɪtʃˈkjuː/ *noun* [C, U] *abbreviation for* headquarters (= the place from where an organization is controlled)

hr *written abbreviation for* hour

HRH /ˌeɪtʃɑːrˈeɪtʃ/ *abbreviation for* His/Her Royal Highness: used when speaking to or about a royal person

HTH **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* hope this helps: used when you send someone information you think is useful, especially when you answer a question

HTML /ˌeɪtʃtiːemˈel/ **COMPUTING, INTERNET** *abbreviation for* hypertext markup language: a way of marking text so that it can be seen on the Internet

http /ˌeɪtʃtiːtiːˈpiː/ **COMPUTING, INTERNET** *abbreviation for* hypertext transfer protocol: a set of instructions made by a computer program that allows your computer to connect to an Internet document

hub /hʌb/ *noun* [C] **1** OF ACTIVITY a place that is the centre of a particular activity [**usually singular**] *Silicon Valley has become the **hub of** the electronics industry.* **2** WHEEL the round part in the centre of a wheel

huddle¹ /ˈhʌdl/ (*also* **huddle together/up**) *verb* [I] to move closer to other people, or to hold your arms and legs close to your body, usually because you are cold or frightened *They huddled around the fire to keep warm.*

huddle² /ˈhʌdl/ *noun* [C] a group of people or things that are standing close together

hue /hjuː/ *noun* [C] *literary* a colour

huff¹ /hʌf/ *verb* **huff and puff** *informal* to breathe loudly, especially because you have been exercising

huff² /hʌf/ *noun* **in a huff** *informal* angry with someone *Mum's in a huff because I didn't call yesterday.*

hug¹ /hʌg/ *verb* **hugging**, *past* **hugged** **1** HOLD SOMEONE [I, T] to put your arms around someone and hold them tightly, usually because you love them *They hugged and kissed each other.* **2** BE CLOSE [T] to stay very close to the edge of something *The road hugs the coast for several miles.*

hug² /hʌg/ *noun* [C] when you put your arms around someone and hold them tightly *She **gave** me a big **hug** before she left.*

⚷ **huge** /hjuːdʒ/ *adjective* extremely large *a huge house*

hugely /ˈhjuːdʒli/ *adverb* extremely ***hugely popular/successful***

huh /hʌ/ *exclamation informal* used to ask a question, or to express surprise, anger, etc *So, you're leaving, huh?*

Hula Hoop /ˈhuːləhuːp/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a large plastic ring that you put around your waist and move your body so that it goes round and round

hull /hʌl/ *noun* [C] the main part of a ship that is mostly under water

hullo *UK* (*UK/US* **hello**) /həˈləʊ/ *exclamation* **1** GREET used to greet someone *Hullo, Chris, how are things?* **2** TELEPHONE used to start a conversation on the telephone *Hullo, this is Alex.*

hum¹ /hʌm/ *verb* **humming**, *past* **hummed** **1** MUSIC [I, T] to sing without opening your mouth *She hummed to herself as she walked to school.* **2** [I] to make a continuous, low sound *The computers were humming in the background.* **3 be humming** If a place is humming, it is busy and full of activity. ●**hum** *noun* [C] a low, continuous sound *the **hum of traffic***

⚷ **human¹** /ˈhjuːmən/ *adjective* **1** relating to people or their characteristics *the human body* ○ *human behaviour* ○ *The accident was caused by **human error*** (= a person's mistake). **2 be only human** to not be perfect *Of course Tom makes mistakes - he's only human.*

human² /ˈhjuːmən/ (*also* ˌ**human** ˈ**being**) *noun* [C] a man, woman, or child *The disease affects both humans and animals.*

humane /hjuːˈmeɪn/ *adjective* kind, especially towards people or animals that are suffering *They fought for more humane treatment of prisoners of war.* ➲Opposite **inhumane** ●**humanely** *adverb*

ˌ**human** ˈ**geography** *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the part of geography that studies the way in which human behaviour affects the Earth's surface, or the way in which the Earth affects human behaviour

humanism /ˈhjuːmənɪzəm/ *noun* [U] a belief system based on human needs and values and not on a god or religion ●**humanist** *noun* [C] ●**humanistic** /ˌhjuːməˈnɪstɪk/ *adjective*

humanitarian /hjuːˌmænɪˈteəriən/ *adjective* connected with improving people's lives and reducing suffering *The UN is sending **humanitarian aid** to the refugees.*

humanities /hjuːˈmænətiz/ *noun* [**plural**] **EDUCATION** subjects that you study which are not connected with science, such as literature and history

humanity /hjuːˈmænəti/ *noun* [U] **1** **SOCIETY** all people *The massacre was a **crime against humanity**.* **2** KINDNESS kindness and sympathy towards others ➲Opposite **inhumanity** **3** BEING HUMAN the condition of being human

humankind /ˌhjuːmənˈkaɪnd/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY all the people in the world

humanly /ˈhjuːmənli/ *adverb* **humanly possible** able to be done by people *Doctors did everything humanly possible to save her life.*

ˌhuman ˈnature *noun* [U] feelings, qualities, and behaviour that are typical of most people *It's human nature to want to be loved.*

the ˌhuman ˈrace *noun* [no plural] SOCIETY all the people in the world

ˌhuman reˈsources *UK* (*US* **ˌhuman ˈresources**) *noun* [U] the department of an organization that deals with finding new people to work there, keeping records about all the organization's employees, and helping them with any problems

ˌhuman ˈrights *noun* [plural] SOCIETY the basic rights that every person should have, such as justice and the freedom to say what you think *international laws protecting human rights*

humble¹ /ˈhʌmbl/ *adjective* **1** NOT PROUD not proud or not believing that you are important *He's very humble about his success.* **2** POOR poor or of a low social rank *She rose from **humble beginnings** to become Prime Minister.* ●**humbly** *adverb*

humble² /ˈhʌmbl/ *verb* [T] to make someone understand that they are not as important or special as they think they are *She was humbled by the unexpected defeat.* ●**humbling** *adjective a **humbling experience***

humdrum /ˈhʌmdrʌm/ *adjective* boring and ordinary *a **humdrum existence***

humerus /ˈhjuːmᵊrəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **humeri** ANATOMY the large bone at the top of the arm, between the shoulder and the elbow

humid /ˈhjuːmɪd/ *adjective* Humid air or weather is hot and slightly wet. *a hot and humid climate*

humidity /hjuːˈmɪdəti/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY a measurement of how much water there is in the air

humiliate /hjuːˈmɪlieɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel stupid or ashamed *How could you humiliate me in front of all my friends!* ●**humiliated** *adjective Sue felt completely humiliated.* ●**humiliation** /hjuːˌmɪliˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

humiliating /hjuːˈmɪlieɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel stupid or ashamed

humility /hjuːˈmɪləti/ *noun* [U] the quality of not being proud or not thinking that you are better than other people

hummingbird /ˈhʌmɪŋbɜːd/ *noun* [C] a very small brightly coloured bird with a long thin beak whose wings move very fast, making a continuous, low noise

humor /ˈhjuːmᵊr/ *noun, verb US spelling of* humour

humorless /ˈhjuːmələs/ *adjective US spelling of* humourless

humorous /ˈhjuːmᵊrəs/ *adjective* funny, or making you laugh *a humorous book* ●**humorously** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***humour***

a **sense of** humour ● a **dry/wry** humour

humour¹ *UK* (*US* **humor**) /ˈhjuːmᵊr/ *noun* [U] **1** ABILITY the ability to laugh and recognize that something is funny *He's got a great **sense of humour**.* **2** FUNNY QUALITY the quality of being funny, or things that are funny *His speech was full of humour.* **3** MOOD *formal* the way you are feeling, or your mood ***good humour***

humour² *UK* (*US* **humor**) /ˈhjuːmᵊr/ *verb* [T] to do what someone wants so that they do not become annoyed or upset *Carol applied for the job just to humour me.*

humourless *UK* (*US* **humorless**) /ˈhjuːmələs/ *adjective* unable to laugh and recognize when something is funny, or being without funny qualities

hump /hʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** ON SURFACE a round, raised area on a road or other surface **2** HARD PART a round, hard part on an animal's or person's back *a camel's hump*

humus /ˈhjuːməs/ *noun* [U] dark earth made of dead leaves and plants

hunch¹ /hʌnʃ/ *noun* [C] a feeling or guess that something might be true, when there is no proof *I **had a hunch** that he would get the job.*

hunch² /hʌnʃ/ *verb* [I] to stand or sit with your shoulders and back curved forward *Sitting **hunched over** a computer all day can cause back problems.*

hunchback /ˈhʌnʃbæk/ *noun* [C] someone with a large lump on their back, which makes them lean forward

O-K **hundred** /ˈhʌndrəd/ **1** the number 100 **2 hundreds** *informal* a lot ***Hundreds of** people wrote in to complain.*

hundredth¹ /ˈhʌndrədθ/ 100th written as a word

hundredth² /ˈhʌndrədθ/ *noun* [C] one of a hundred equal parts of something; $^{1}/_{100}$, .01 *a hundredth of a second*

hundredweight /ˈhʌndrədweɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **cwt**) *noun* [C] *plural* **hundredweight** MEASURES a unit for measuring weight, equal to 50.8 kilograms in the UK and 45.36 kilograms in the US ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24.

hung /hʌŋ/ *past of* hang

hunger /ˈhʌŋgᵊr/ *noun* **1** FEELING [U] the feeling you have when you need to eat *The children were almost crying with hunger by the time we got home.* **2** NOT ENOUGH FOOD [U] when you do not have enough food *Many of the refugees **died of hunger**.* **3** WISH [no plural] a strong wish for something *a **hunger for** success/knowledge*

ˈhunger ˌstrike *noun* [C, U] when someone refuses to eat in order to show that they strongly disagree with something *The prisoners **went on hunger strike**.*

hungover /ˌhʌŋˈəʊvᵊr/ *adjective* HEALTH feeling ill after drinking too much alcohol the day before

O-K **hungry** /ˈhʌŋgri/ *adjective* **1** wanting or needing food *I'm hungry. What's for supper?* **2 go hungry** to not have enough food to eat *In an ideal world, nobody should go hungry.* **3 be**

H

hungry for sth to have a strong wish for something *The journalists were hungry for more details of the accident.* ●**hungrily** *adverb*

hunk /hʌŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** MAN *informal* an attractive man who is often young and has a strong body **2** PIECE a piece of something, usually large and not flat or smooth *a hunk of bread* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1

hunt¹ /hʌnt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** SPORT to chase and kill wild animals *to hunt deer/rabbits* **2** to search for something *The children **hunted for** sea shells on the beach.* ●**hunter** *noun* [C] a person who hunts wild animals
hunt sb/sth down *phrasal verb* to search everywhere for someone or something until you find them

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hunt***

launch a hunt ● a hunt **for** sb/sth

hunt² /hʌnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a search for something or someone *a **job hunt*** ○ *The detective leading **the hunt for** the killer spoke at the news conference.* **2** SPORT when people chase and kill wild animals *a fox/deer hunt* ➲See also: **witch-hunt**

hunting /ˈhʌntɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT the sport of chasing and killing animals *fox-hunting*

hurdle¹ /ˈhɜːdl/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT a bar or fence that people or horses jump over in a race **2** a problem or difficulty that you have to deal with in order to be able to make progress *Getting a work permit was the **first hurdle** to overcome.*

hurdle² /ˈhɜːdl/ *verb* [I, T] SPORT to jump over something, such as a bar or a fence, when you are running ●**hurdler** *noun* [C]

hurl /hɜːl/ *verb* **1** [T] to throw something with a lot of force, usually in an angry or violent way *The demonstrators **hurled** stones **at** police.* **2 hurl abuse/insults, etc at sb** to shout something at someone in a rude or angry way

hurrah (*also* **hooray**) /həˈrɑː/ *exclamation* something that you shout when you are happy, excited, etc, or when you approve of someone or something *Hurrah! Ian's won!*

hurricane /ˈhʌrɪkən/ *noun* [C] a violent storm with very strong winds

hurried /ˈhʌrɪd/ *adjective* done more quickly than normal *a hurried explanation/meeting* ●**hurriedly** *adverb*

hurry¹ /ˈhʌri/ *verb* [I, T] to move or do things more quickly than normal or to make someone do this *to hurry away/home* ○ *Please hurry, the train is about to leave.* [+ **to do sth**] *We had to hurry to get there on time.*
hurry up *phrasal verb* to start moving or doing something more quickly *Hurry up! We're going to be late.*

hurry² /ˈhʌri/ *noun* **1 be in a hurry** If you are in a hurry, you want or need to do something quickly. *If you're in a hurry, it's better to take a taxi.* **2 be in no hurry; not be in any hurry** If you are in no hurry to do something, either you do not need to do it soon or you do not really want to do it . [+ **to do sth**] *They are in no hurry to sign a contract.*

hurt¹ /hɜːt/ *verb past* **hurt 1** CAUSE PAIN [T] to cause someone pain or to injure them *Simon hurt his knee playing football.* [**often reflexive**] *She hurt herself when she slipped on an icy step.* **2** BE PAINFUL [I] If a part of your body hurts, it is painful. *My eyes really hurt.* [+ **to do sth**] *It hurts to walk on it.* **3** UPSET [I, T] to cause emotional pain to someone *Her comments about my work really hurt.* **4** AFFECT [T] to have a harmful effect on something *His chances of re-election were hurt by allegations of corruption.* **5 it won't/wouldn't hurt (sb) to do sth** *informal* used to say that someone should do something *It wouldn't hurt to get there a bit earlier than usual.* ➲See also: wouldn't hurt a **fly²**

hurt² /hɜːt/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** INJURED injured or in pain *Several people were **seriously hurt** in the accident.* ○ *Put that knife away before someone **gets hurt**.* **2** UPSET upset or unhappy *She was deeply hurt by what he said.*

hurt³ /hɜːt/ *noun* [U] emotional pain *She has **caused** a lot of **hurt**.*

hurtful /ˈhɜːtfʲl/ *adjective* Hurtful behaviour or remarks make someone feel upset. ***hurtful comments/remarks***

hurtle /ˈhɜːtl/ *verb* [I] to move very quickly in a way which is not controlled and may be dangerous *The explosion sent pieces of glass and metal hurtling through the air.*

husband /ˈhʌzbənd/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY the man you are married to *Janet's husband is in the Navy.*

hush¹ /hʌʃ/ *exclamation* used to tell someone to be quiet, especially if they are crying *It's okay. Hush now and wipe your eyes.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hush***

a hush **descends/falls** ● a **deathly** hush

hush² /hʌʃ/ *noun* [**no plural**] a period of silence *A **hush fell** over the room.* ●**hushed** *adjective a hushed atmosphere/crowd*

hush³ /hʌʃ/ *verb* [T] to make someone be quiet
hush sth up *phrasal verb* to keep something secret, especially from the public, because it could cause embarrassment or trouble *The whole affair was hushed up by the management.*

hush-hush /ˌhʌʃˈhʌʃ/ *adjective informal* If something is hush-hush, it is kept secret. *The project's **all very hush-hush**.*

husky¹ /ˈhʌski/ *adjective* **1** VOICE A husky voice is low and rough but usually sounds attractive. **2** MAN *US* A husky man or boy is big and strong.

husky² /ˈhʌski/ *noun* [C] a large, strong dog that is used to pull heavy things across snow

hustle¹ /ˈhʌsl/ *verb* **1** PUSH [T] to make someone move somewhere, especially by pushing them quickly *The security men hustled him out of the back door.* **2** PERSUADE [I, T] *informal* to try to persuade someone, especially to buy something, often illegally *to hustle for business/customers*

hustle² /ˈhʌsl/ *noun* **hustle and bustle** busy movement and noise, especially where there

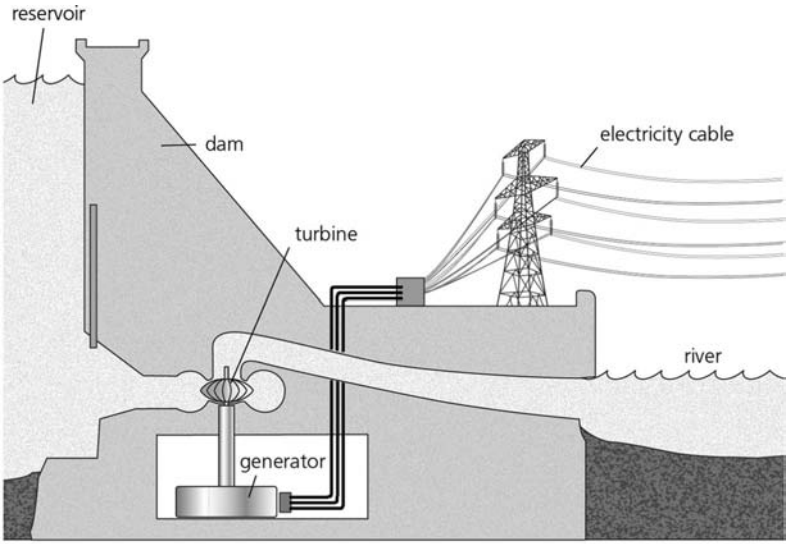

hydroelectric power station

are a lot of people *He wanted to escape the hustle and bustle of city life.*

hustler /ˈhʌslər/ *noun* [C] someone who tries to persuade people to give them what they want, especially in order to make money illegally

hut /hʌt/ *noun* [C] a small, simple building, often made of wood *a mountain hut*

hybrid /ˈhaɪbrɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY a plant or animal that is produced from two different types of plant or animal **2** THING something, for example a machine, which is made using ideas or parts from two different things **3** CAR (*also* **hybrid car**) a vehicle with an engine that uses both petrol (= a liquid fuel made from oil) and another type of energy, usually electricity ●**hybrid** *adjective*

hydrant /ˈhaɪdrənt/ *noun* [C] a pipe, especially at the side of the road, which is connected to the water system and is used to get water to stop fires *a fire hydrant*

hydrate¹ /haɪˈdreɪt/ *verb* [I] to make something absorb water ●**hydration** /haɪˈdreɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

hydrate² /ˈhaɪdreɪt/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound that contains water

hydraulic /haɪˈdrɔːlɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS operated using the force of water or another liquid

hydro- /haɪdrəʊ-/ *prefix* relating to water *hydroponic* (= a method of growing plants in water)

hydrocarbon /ˌhaɪdrəʊˈkɑːbən/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical combination of hydrogen (= a gas) and carbon (= element found in all animals and plants), found in oil and petrol *hydrocarbon emissions*

hydrochloric acid /ˌhaɪdrəklɒrɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY an acid containing hydrogen (= a gas) and chlorine (= gas with a strong smell) (formula **HCl**)

hydrochlorofluorocarbon /ˈhaɪdrəʊˌklɔːrəʊˌfluərəʊˌkɑːbən/ (*abbreviation* **HCFC**) *noun* [U, C] CHEMISTRY a type of gas used especially in aerosols (= containers that force out liquids in very small drops)

hydroelectric /ˌhaɪdrəʊɪˈlektrɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS using the force of water to create electricity ***hydroelectric power***

hydroelectricity /ˌhaɪdrəʊɪlekˈtrɪsɪti/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS electricity produced by the force of fast moving water such as rivers or waterfalls

hydrofluorocarbon /ˈhaɪdrəʊˌfluərəʊˌkɑːbən/ (*abbreviation* **HFC**) *noun* [U, C] CHEMISTRY a type of gas used especially in aerosols (= containers that force out liquids in very small drops)

hydrofoil /ˈhaɪdrəʊfɔɪl/ *noun* [C] a large boat which travels quickly above the surface of the water on structures which are the shape of wings

hydrogen /ˈhaɪdrədʒən/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a gas that combines with oxygen to form water (formula **H**)

hydrogenated /haɪˈdrɒdʒɪneɪtɪd/ *adjective* FOOD Hydrogenated substances, for example fats, have had hydrogen added to them. ●**hydrogenation** /haɪˌdrɒdʒɪˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

ˌhydrogen peˈroxide (*also* **peroxide**) *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a colourless liquid that is used to kill bacteria and to make hair very pale (formula H_2O_2)

hydrograph /ˈhaɪdrəʊgrɑːf/ *noun* [C] a graph (= mathematical picture showing measurements) showing the amount of water at different times, for example in a lake

hydrology /haɪˈdrɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the study of water on the Earth, for example where it is and how it is used

hydrolysis /haɪˈdrɒləsɪs/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical reaction in which one substance reacts with water to produce another

hydrolyze (*also UK* **-ise**) *verb* [T, I] **CHEMISTRY** to have or to make something have a chemical reaction with water to produce another substance

hydrometer /haɪˈdrɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment used for measuring the density (= the relationship between the weight of something and its size) of a liquid

hydrophilic /ˌhaɪdrəʊˈfɪlɪk/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** Hydrophilic substances can be mixed with or dissolved in water.

hydrophobia /ˌhaɪdrəʊˈfəʊbiə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when someone is very frightened of water, often because of having rabies (= a serious disease caused by being bitten by a wild animal)

hydrophobic /ˌhaɪdrəʊˈfəʊbɪk/ *adjective* **1 CHEMISTRY** Hydrophobic substances cannot be mixed with or dissolved in water. **2 HEALTH** suffering from hydrophobia

hydroponics /ˌhaɪdrəʊˈpɒnɪks/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** a way of growing plants in water with special chemicals added, and not in earth

hydrosphere /ˈhaɪdrəʊsfɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** all of the water on the Earth's surface, such as the seas, lakes and ice. This sometimes includes water above the Earth's surface, such as clouds.

hydroxide /haɪˈdrɒksaɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound that contains the hydroxyl ion, or a compound of an oxide with water

hydroxyl ion /haɪˌdrɒksɪlˈaɪən/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** an ion with a negative charge, which is made of an oxygen atom and a hydrogen atom

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***hygiene***

standards of hygiene • **dental/personal** hygiene

hygiene /ˈhaɪdʒiːn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the process of keeping things clean, especially to prevent disease ***dental/personal hygiene*** •**hygienic** /haɪˈdʒiːnɪk/ *adjective* very clean, so that bacteria cannot spread

hygrometer /haɪˈgrɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to measure how much water there is in the air

hymn /hɪm/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a song sung by Christians in church to praise God

hype¹ /haɪp/ *noun* [U] when people talk a lot about something, especially in newspapers, on television, etc, and make it seem more important or exciting than it really is ***media hype*** ○ *There's been a lot of* ***hype about/surrounding*** *his latest film.*

hype² /haɪp/ (*also* **hype up**) *verb* [T] to make something seem more important or exciting than it really is by talking about it a lot, especially in newspapers, on television, etc *It's being* ***hyped as*** *the musical event of the year.* •**hyped** *adjective*

hyper /ˈhaɪpəʳ/ *adjective informal* Someone who is hyper has more energy than is normal and is very excited.

hyper- /haɪpəʳ/ *prefix* having a lot of or too much of a quality *hyperactive* ○ *hypersensitive* (= more than normally sensitive)

hyperactive /ˌhaɪpərˈæktɪv/ *adjective* **HEALTH** Someone who is hyperactive has more energy than is normal, gets excited easily, and cannot stay still or think about their work. •**hyperactivity** /ˌhaɪpəʳrækˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U]

hyperbole /haɪˈpɜːbᵊli/ *noun* [U] *formal* **LANGUAGE** when you describe something as much better, more important, etc than it really is

hyperinflation /ˌhaɪpərɪnˈfleɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** when the price of everything increases very quickly and suddenly, in a way that is not controlled

hyperlink /ˈhaɪpəlɪŋk/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** text that you can click on that lets you move easily between two computer documents or two pages on the Internet

hypermarket /ˈhaɪpəˌmɑːkɪt/ *noun* [C] a very large shop, usually outside the centre of town

hypertext /ˈhaɪpətekst/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** a way of joining a word or image to another page, document, etc on the Internet or in another computer program so that you can move from one to the other easily

hypha /ˈhaɪfə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **hyphae** /ˈhaɪfiː/ **BIOLOGY** any of the parts like threads that form the body of a fungus (= plant such as a mushroom)

hyphen /ˈhaɪfᵊn/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a mark (-) used to join two words together, or to show that a word has been divided and continues on the next line ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19. •**hyphenated** *adjective* written with a hyphen

hypnosis /hɪpˈnəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] a mental state like sleep, in which a person's thoughts can be easily influenced by someone else *Police placed witnesses* ***under hypnosis*** *in an effort to gain additional information.* •**hypnotic** /hɪpˈnɒtɪk/ *adjective*

hypnotize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈhɪpnətaɪz/ *verb* [T] to place someone in a mental state like sleep, in which their thoughts can be easily influenced •**hypnotist** *noun* [C] someone who hypnotizes people •**hypnotism** /ˈhɪpnətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when someone is hypnotized

hypochondriac /ˌhaɪpəˈkɒndriæk/ *noun* [C] someone who worries about their health more than is normal, although they are not really ill •**hypochondria** /ˌhaɪpəʊˈkɒndriə/ *noun* [U]

hypocrisy /hɪˈpɒkrəsi/ *noun* [C, U] when someone pretends to believe something that they do not really believe or that is the opposite of what they do or say at another time

hypocrite /ˈhɪpəkrɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who pretends to believe something that they do not really believe or that is the opposite of what they do or say at another time •**hypocritical** /ˌhɪpəʊˈkrɪtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* •**hypocritically** *adverb*

hypotenuse /haɪˈpɒtᵊnjuːz/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the longest side of any triangle which has one angle of 90°

hypothalamus /ˌhaɪpəʊˈθæləməs/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a small part in the front of the brain that controls body temperature and tells your body if you are hungry or thirsty ➲See picture at **brain**

hypothermia /ˌhaɪpəʊˈθɜːmiə/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a serious illness caused by someone's body becoming too cold

hypothesis /haɪˈpɒθəsɪs/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **hypotheses** /haɪˈpɒθəsiːz/ a suggested explanation for something which has not yet been proved to be true

hypothetical /ˌhaɪpəˈθetɪkᵊl/ *adjective* A hypothetical situation or idea has been suggested but does not yet really exist or has not been proved to be true.

hysteria /hɪˈstɪəriə/ *noun* [**U**] extreme fear, excitement, anger, etc which cannot be controlled ***mass hysteria***

hysterical /hɪˈsterɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NO CONTROL If someone is hysterical, they cannot control their feelings or behaviour because they are extremely frightened, angry, excited, etc. ***hysterical laughter*** ○ *As soon as Wendy saw the blood, she became hysterical.* **2** FUNNY *informal* extremely funny ●**hysterically** *adverb* *They all thought it was* ***hysterically funny****.*

hysterics /hɪˈsterɪks/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] uncontrolled behaviour **2 in hysterics** *informal* laughing so much that you cannot stop

Hz **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* hertz (= a unit of measurement used in electronics)

H

Ii

I, i /aɪ/ the ninth letter of the alphabet

I /aɪ/ *pronoun* used when the person speaking or writing is the subject of the verb *I had lunch with Glen yesterday.* ○ *Chris and I have been married for twelve years.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **me**

iambus /aɪˈæmbəs/ (*also* **iamb** /ˈaɪæm/) *noun* [C] *plural* **iambuses** or **iambi** **LITERATURE** a rhythm in poetry with one short or weak syllable followed by one strong or long syllable ●**iambic** /aɪˈæmbɪk/ *adjective*

ice¹ /aɪs/ *noun* [U] **1** water that has frozen and become solid *Gerry slipped on the ice and broke his arm.* ○ *I've put a couple of bottles of champagne* ***on ice*** (= in a bucket of ice to get cold). **2 break the ice** to make people who have not met before feel relaxed with each other, often by starting a conversation

ice² /aɪs/ (*also US* **frost**) *verb* [T] **FOOD** to cover a cake with icing (= sweet mixture of mainly sugar) *an iced bun*

iceberg /ˈaɪsbɜːg/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a very large piece of ice that floats in the sea ➲See also: be the **tip¹** of the iceberg

ˈice ˌcap *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a thick layer of ice that permanently covers an area of land

ˌice ˈcream *UK* (*US* **ˈice ˌcream**) *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a sweet food made from frozen milk or cream and sugar *chocolate/vanilla ice cream*

ˈice ˌcube *noun* [C] a small block of ice that you put into drinks to make them cold

ˈice ˌhockey (*also US* **hockey**) *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game played on ice in which two teams try to hit a small hard object into a goal using long curved sticks ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

ˌice ˈlolly /aɪsˈlɒli/ *UK* (*US* **Popsicle** *trademark*) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a sweet, fruit-flavoured piece of ice on a small stick

ˈice ˌrink *noun* [C] **SPORT** an area of ice, usually inside a building, which is prepared for people to ice skate on

ˈice ˌsheet *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a thick layer of ice that covers a large area of land for a long time

ˈice ˌskate *noun* [C] **SPORT** a boot with a metal part on the bottom, used for moving across ice ●**ice skate** *verb* [I] to move across ice using ice skates ●**ice skating** *noun* [U] the activity or sport of moving across ice using ice skates ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

icicle /ˈaɪsɪkl/ *noun* [C] a long, thin piece of ice that hangs down from something

icing /ˈaɪsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** **FOOD** (*also US* **frosting**) a sweet mixture used to cover or fill cakes, made from sugar and water or sugar and butter *chocolate butter icing* **2 the icing on the cake** something that makes a good situation better *He was delighted to get the article published and the £100 payment was the icing on the cake.*

icon /ˈaɪkɒn/ *noun* [C] **1** **COMPUTING** a small picture on a computer screen that you choose in order to make the computer do something ***Click on*** *the print* ***icon.*** **2** a person or thing that is famous because it represents a particular idea or way of life ***a cultural/fashion/national icon***

ICT /ˌaɪsiːˈti/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* information and communication technology: the use of computers and other electronic equipment to store and send information

icy /ˈaɪsi/ *adjective* **1** WITH ICE covered in ice ***icy conditions/roads*** **2** COLD extremely cold *an icy wind* ○ *icy water* **3** WITHOUT EMOTION without showing any emotion *an* ***icy look****/stare* ●**icily** *adverb*

I'd /aɪd/ **1** I HAD *short for* I had *Everyone thought I'd gone.* **2** I WOULD *short for* I would *I'd like to buy some stamps, please.*

ID /ˌaɪˈdiː/ *noun* [C, U] **LAW** *abbreviation for* identification: an official document that shows or proves who you are *You'll need to show some form of ID, such as a passport or driving licence.*

I.ˈD. ˌcard *noun* [C] **LAW** an identity card

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***idea***

An idea about how to do something is often described as a **plan**, **thought** or **suggestion**: *The* ***plan*** *is to hire a car when we get there.* ● *Have you got any* ***suggestions*** *for improvements?* ● *Have you had any* ***thoughts*** *on presents for your mother?*

A sudden, clever idea is sometimes described as a **brainwave** in the UK and a **brainstorm** in the US: *I wasn't sure what to do and then I had a* ***brainwave*** *- I could ask Anna for help.*

The noun **theory** is sometimes used to describe a set of ideas intended to explain something: *He was giving a lecture on Darwin's* ***theory*** *of evolution.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***idea***

come up with/have an idea ● a **bad/bright/brilliant/good/stupid** idea

idea /aɪˈdɪə/ *noun* **1** SUGGESTION [C] a suggestion or plan *"Why don't we ask George?" "That's* ***a good idea.****"* [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *Stevens explained his ideas for improving production.* [+ **to do sth**] *It was Kate's idea to hire a car.* **2** THOUGHT [U, **no plural**] an understanding, thought, or picture in your mind [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *Clive soon got used to the idea of having children around the house again.* [+ **(that)**] *I don't want them to* ***get*** *the* ***idea*** *that we're not interested.* **3 have no idea** to not know *Beth had no idea where he'd gone.* **4** OPINION [C] an opinion or belief *My husband and I have very different* ***ideas about*** *school discipline.* **5** AIM [**no plural**] the aim or purpose of something *The idea is to give local people a chance to voice their opinions.* ➲See also: not have the foggiest (**foggy**) (idea)

ideal¹ /aɪˈdɪəl/ *adjective* perfect, or the best possible *an ideal candidate/solution* ○ *The book is* ***ideal for*** *children aged 4 to 6.* ○ ***In an ideal***

***world**, you wouldn't need to use a keyboard at all.*

ideal² /aɪˈdɪəl/ *noun* **1** BELIEF [C] a belief about the way you think something should be *democratic ideals* ○ *They are committed to the ideal of equality.* **2** PERFECT [**no plural**] a perfect thing or situation *The ideal would be to have a house in the country and a flat in the city too.*

idealism /aɪˈdɪəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] the belief that your ideals can be achieved, often when this does not seem likely to others ●**idealist** *noun* [C] a person who believes that it is possible to achieve your ideals ●**idealistic** /aɪˌdɪəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective*

ideally /aɪˈdɪəli/ *adverb* **1** PERFECT SITUATION used to describe how something would be in a perfect situation *Ideally, I'd like to work at home.* **2** PERFECTLY in a perfect way *She seemed **ideally suited** for the job.*

identical /aɪˈdentɪkᵊl/ *adjective* exactly the same *The two rooms were almost/virtually identical.* ○ *She found a dress **identical to** the one in the picture.* ●**identically** *adverb*

iˌdentical ˈtwin *noun* [C] one of two babies who are born at the same time from the same egg, and look exactly the same

identifiable /aɪˌdentɪˈfaɪəbl/ *adjective* If someone or something is identifiable, you can recognize them and say or prove who or what they are. *clearly/readily identifiable*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***identification***

a form/a means/proof of identification

identification /aɪˌdentɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** when you recognize and can name someone or something *Most of the bodies were badly burned, making identification almost impossible.* **2** LAW an official document that shows or proves who you are *an identification card/number*

O-K **identify** /aɪˈdentɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** RECOGNIZE to recognize someone or something and say or prove who or what they are *The gunman in Wednesday's attack has been identified as Lee Giggs, an unemployed truck driver.* **2** NAME to tell people who someone is *My informant asked not to be identified.* **3** DISCOVER to find a particular thing or all the things of a particular group *You need to identify your priorities.*
identify sb/sth with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to connect one person or thing with another *As a politician he was identified with liberal causes.*
identify with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to feel that you are similar to someone, and can understand them or their situation because of this

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***identity***

cultural/national/personal identity ● a **sense of** identity

identity /aɪˈdentəti/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PERSON who someone is *Police are trying to **establish** the **identity** of a woman seen walking away from the accident.* **2** DIFFERENT FROM the things that make one person or group of people different from others ***cultural/national identity***

iˈdentity ˌcard *noun* [C] LAW a piece of paper or a card that shows your name, photograph and information to prove who you are

ideological /ˌaɪdiəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* based on or relating to a particular set of ideas or beliefs *ideological conflicts/disagreements* ●**ideologically** *adverb*

ideology /ˌaɪdiˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] a set of ideas or beliefs, especially about politics *socialist ideology*

idiom /ˈɪdiəm/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a group of words used together with a meaning that you cannot guess from the meanings of the separate words ●**idiomatic** /ˌɪdiəʊˈmætɪk/ *adjective idiomatic language*

idiosyncratic /ˌɪdiəʊsɪŋˈkrætɪk/ *adjective* An idiosyncratic quality or way of behaving is typical of only one person and is often strange or unusual. ●**idiosyncrasy** /ˌɪdiəʊˈsɪŋkrəsi/ *noun* [C] an idiosyncratic habit or way of behaving

idiot /ˈɪdiət/ *noun* [C] a stupid person or someone who is behaving in a stupid way *Like an idiot, I believed him.* ●**idiocy** /ˈɪdiəsi/ *noun* [C, U] stupid behaviour ●**idiotic** /ˌɪdiˈɒtɪk/ *adjective* stupid *an idiotic grin/idea* ●**idiotically** *adverb*

idle¹ /ˈaɪdl/ *adjective* **1** NOT WORKING not working or being used *The factory has **stood idle** for over a year.* **2** NOT SERIOUS [**always before noun**] not serious or having no real purpose ***idle gossip*** ○ *This is no **idle threat**.* **3** LAZY lazy and not willing to work *He knows what has to be done, he's just **bone idle*** (= extremely lazy). ●**idleness** *noun* [U] ●**idly** *adverb We cannot **stand idly by*** (= not do anything) *and let this plan go ahead.*

idle² /ˈaɪdl/ *verb* **1** ENGINE [I] If an engine or machine idles, it runs slowly but does not move or do any work. **2** STOP WORKING [T] *US* to stop someone or something working or being used, often because there is not enough work to do *The closure of the plant idled about 300 workers.* **3** TIME [I] to spend time doing nothing *We saw her idling in the school grounds.*
idle sth away *phrasal verb* to waste time doing nothing *I idled away a few hours watching TV.*

idol /ˈaɪdᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** someone that you admire and respect very much *a **pop/sporting idol*** **2** RELIGION a picture or object that people pray to as part of their religion ●**idolize** (*also UK* **-ise**) *verb* [T] to admire and respect someone very much

idyllic /ɪˈdɪlɪk/ *adjective* An idyllic place or experience is extremely pleasant, beautiful, or peaceful. *an **idyllic childhood*** ○ *an **idyllic existence***

i.e. (*also* **ie**) /ˌaɪˈiː/ used to explain exactly what you are referring to or what you mean *The price must be more realistic, i.e. lower.*

O-K **if¹** /ɪf/ *conjunction* **1** DEPEND used to say that something will happen only after something else happens or is true *We'll have the party in the garden if the weather's good.* ○ *If you eat up all your dinner you can have some chocolate.* **2** MIGHT used to talk about something that might happen or be true *What will we do if this doesn't work?* **3** WHETHER whether *I wonder if he'll get the job.* **4** ALWAYS used to mean always or every time *If you mention his mother, he always cries.*

if² /ɪf/ *noun* [C] *informal* something which is not certain or not yet decided *There are still a lot*

of ifs. ○ *There are* ***no ifs and buts*** (= no doubts or excuses) *about it - we'll have to start again.*

iffy /ˈɪfi/ *adjective informal* **1** NOT SUITABLE not completely good, honest, or suitable *The milk smells a bit iffy.* **2** NOT CERTAIN not certain or decided *Simon's still kind of iffy about going to Colombia.*

igloo /ˈɪɡluː/ *noun* [C] a house made of blocks of hard snow

igneous /ˈɪɡniəs/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** Igenous rocks are made from magma (= liquid rock that has cooled.) ➲Compare **metamorphic, sedimentary**

ignite /ɪɡˈnaɪt/ *verb formal* **1** BURN [I, T] to start to burn or make something start to burn *A spark ignited the fumes.* **2** FIGHT [T] to start an argument or fight

ignition /ɪɡˈnɪʃˀn/ *noun* **1** CAR [**no plural**] the part of a car that starts the engine *He turned the key in the ignition.* ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **2** BURN [U] *formal* when something makes something start to burn

ignominious /ˌɪɡnəʊˈmɪniəs/ *adjective formal* making you feel embarrassed or ashamed *an* ***ignominious defeat*** ●**ignominiously** *adverb*

ignorance /ˈɪɡnˀrˀns/ *noun* [U] when someone does not have enough knowledge, understanding, or information about something *There is still widespread* ***ignorance about*** *the disease.* ○ *I was shocked by her total* ***ignorance of*** *world history.*

ignorant /ˈɪɡnˀrˀnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT HAVING KNOWLEDGE not having enough knowledge, understanding, or information about something *He was a newcomer to Formula One and* ***ignorant of*** *many of the circuits.* **2** NOT POLITE *UK* not polite or showing respect *an ignorant lout*

ignore /ɪɡˈnɔːˀ/ *verb* [T] to pay no attention to something or someone *They just ignored him and carried on with the game.* ○ *We cannot afford to ignore the fact that the world's population is increasing rapidly.*

IIRC **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* if I remember correctly

il- /ɪl-/ *prefix* not *illegal* ○ *illegible*

ileum /ˈɪliəm/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the last and narrowest part of the small intestine (= upper part of the bowels), where substances from food are absorbed ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***ill***

A common alternative is the adjective **sick**: *He was off work* ***sick*** *last week.*

In informal situations in the UK, you can also use the adjectives **poorly** and **rough**: *What's the matter, Sophie - are you feeling* ***poorly?*** ● *I felt really* ***rough*** *after eating that curry.*

A more formal adjective meaning 'ill' is **unwell**: *I've felt a little* ***unwell*** *all week.*

If you want to say that someone feels slightly ill, in informal situations you can also use the expressions **be/feel under the weather** and **be/feel below par**: *I don't think I'll be coming to the party - I'm a bit* ***under the weather****.*

ill¹ /ɪl/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** not feeling well, or suffering from a disease *critically/seriously ill* ○ *Mark had been* ***feeling ill*** *for a couple of days.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **sick 2** [**always before noun**] *formal* bad ***ill health*** ○ *He suffered no* ***ill effects*** *from his fall.* ➲See also: ill at **ease**¹

ill² /ɪl/ *noun* [C] *formal* a problem [**usually plural**] *social and economic ills*

ill³ /ɪl/ *adverb formal* **1** badly *Many of the nurses were* ***ill prepared*** *to deal with such badly burned patients.* **2 can ill afford (to do) sth** If you can ill afford to do something, it is likely to make things difficult for you if you do it. *This is a match United can ill afford to lose.* **3 speak ill of sb** *formal* to say bad things about someone

I'll /aɪl/ *short for* I shall/I will *I'll be there at 6:00.*

ill- /ɪl-/ *prefix* in a way which is bad or not suitable *ill-prepared* ○ *an ill-judged remark*

ill-advised /ˌɪləd'vaɪzd/ *adjective* not wise, and likely to cause problems in the future

ill-conceived /ˌɪlkən'siːvd/ *adjective* badly planned or not wise

illegal /ɪˈliːɡˀl/ *adjective* **LAW** not allowed by law ***illegal drugs/weapons*** [+ **to do sth**] *It is illegal to sell cigarettes to anyone under 16.* ●**illegally** *adverb an illegally parked car*

ilˌlegal ˈimmigrant (*also US* **illegal ˈalien**) *noun* [C] someone who goes to live or work in another country when they do not have the legal right to

illegible /ɪˈledʒəbl/ *adjective* Illegible writing is difficult or impossible to read.

illegitimate /ˌɪlɪˈdʒɪtəmət/ *adjective* **1** CHILD An illegitimate child is born to parents who are not married to each other. **2** NOT LEGAL not legal, honest, or fair *an illegitimate use of council funds* ●**illegitimacy** /ˌɪlɪˈdʒɪtəməsi/ *noun* [U]

ill-equipped /ˌɪlɪˈkwɪpt/ *adjective* **1** EQUIPMENT not having the necessary equipment **2** ABILITY not having the necessary ability or qualities to do something [+ **to do sth**] *These teachers were ill-equipped to deal with rowdy students.*

ill-fated /ˌɪlˈfeɪtɪd/ *adjective* unlucky and often unsuccessful *an ill-fated expedition to the South Pole*

ill-fitting /ˌɪlˈfɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* Ill-fitting clothes do not fit well.

ill-gotten /ˌɪlˈɡɒtˀn/ *adjective literary* obtained in a dishonest or illegal way *He deposited his* ***ill-gotten gains*** *in foreign bank accounts.*

illicit /ɪˈlɪsɪt/ *adjective* not legal or not approved of by society *an illicit love affair*

ill-informed /ˌɪlɪnˈfɔːmd/ *adjective* without enough knowledge or information *an ill-informed decision*

illiterate /ɪˈlɪtᵊrət/ *adjective* not able to read or write

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***illness***

cause/develop/have/recover from/treat an illness ● a **critical/minor/rare/serious/terminal** illness

illness /ˈɪlnəs/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C] a disease of the body or mind *a **serious/terminal illness*** ○ *He died at the age of 83 after a long illness.* **2** HEALTH [U] when you are ill

illogical /ɪˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* not based on careful thought *It would be illogical for them to stop at this stage.*

illuminate /ɪˈluːmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** LIGHT to shine lights on something *The paintings and sculptures are illuminated by spotlights.* **2** EXPLAIN to explain something clearly or make it easier to understand ●**illumination** /ɪˌluːmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal*

illuminating /ɪˈluːmɪneɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* giving you new information about something or making it easier to understand *a most illuminating discussion*

illusion /ɪˈluːʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** FALSE IDEA [C, U] an idea or belief that is not true *He **had no illusions about** his talents as a singer.* ○ *We are not **under any illusion** - we know the work is dangerous.* **2** DIFFERENT [C] something that is not really what it seems to be *There is a large mirror at one end to **create the illusion of** more space.* ➲See also: **optical illusion**

illustrate /ˈɪləstreɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** to give more information or examples to explain or prove something *to illustrate a point/problem* [+ **question word**] *This new discovery illustrates how little we know about early human history.* **2** ART to draw pictures for a book, magazine, etc *an illustrated children's book*

illustration /ˌɪləˈstreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ART [C] a picture in a book, magazine, etc *a full-page colour illustration* **2** [C, U] an example that explains or proves something *This is another **illustration of** the power of the media.*

illustrator /ˈɪləstreɪtᵊ/ *noun* [C] ART a person whose job is to draw or paint pictures for books

illustrious /ɪˈlʌstriəs/ *adjective formal* famous and well respected *an **illustrious career***

ˌill ˈwill *noun* [U] bad feelings between people because of things that happened in the past

I'm /aɪm/ *short for* I am

im- /ɪm-/ *prefix* not *impossible* ○ *immortal*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***image***

create/project an image ● sb's/sth's **public** image ● an **image** of sth

image /ˈɪmɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** PUBLIC [C, U] the way that other people think someone or something is *The aim is to improve the **public image of** the police.* **2** PICTURE [C] a picture, especially on film or television or in a mirror ***television images** of starving children* **3** IDEA [C] a picture in your mind or an idea of how someone or something is *I have an image in my mind of the way I want the garden to look.*

imagery /ˈɪmɪdʒᵊri/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE, LITERATURE the use of words or pictures in books, films, paintings, etc to describe ideas or situations

imaginable /ɪˈmædʒɪnəbl/ *adjective* possible to think of *ice cream of every imaginable flavour* ➲Opposite **unimaginable**

imaginary /ɪˈmædʒɪnᵊri/ *adjective* not real but imagined in your mind *The story takes place in an imaginary world.*

iˌmaginary ˈnumber *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a number that is the square root (= number you multiply by itself to get a particular number) of a negative number (= number less than zero), especially the square root of -1 ➲Compare **complex number, real number**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***imagination***

have/lack/show imagination ● **use** your imagination ● **capture** sb's imagination ● a **fertile/vivid** imagination

imagination /ɪˌmædʒɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MIND [C] the part of your mind that creates ideas or pictures of things that are not real or that you have not seen [**usually singular**] *There's nothing out here - it's just your imagination.* **2** ABILITY [U] the ability to create ideas or pictures in your mind *The job needs someone with creativity and imagination.* ➲See also: not by any **stretch**[2] of the imagination

imaginative /ɪˈmædʒɪnətɪv/ *adjective* **1** THING Something which is imaginative is new or clever and often unusual. *an imaginative use of colour* **2** PERSON Someone who is imaginative is able to create new and interesting ideas or things. *a highly imaginative poet* ●**imaginatively** *adverb*

imagine /ɪˈmædʒɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** CREATE to create an idea or picture of something in your mind [+ **doing sth**] *Imagine being able to do all your shopping from your armchair.* [+ **question word**] *You can imagine how pleased I was when the letter arrived.* **2** BELIEVE to believe that something is probably true *I imagine he must be under a lot of pressure at the moment.* **3** NOT REAL to think that you hear or see something which does not really exist *I can't hear anything - you must be imagining it.*

imaging /ˈɪmɪdʒɪŋ/ *noun* [U] COMPUTING the process of producing an exact picture of something, especially on a computer screen ***computer/digital imaging***

imbalance /ˌɪmˈbæləns/ *noun* [C] when two things which should be equal or are normally equal are not *There is a huge economic **imbalance between** the two countries.*

imbue /ɪmˈbjuː/ *verb* **imbuing**, *past* **imbued**
imbue sb/sth with sth *phrasal verb formal* to fill someone or something with a particular feeling, quality, or idea *His poetry is imbued with deep religious feeling.*

the IMF /ðiˌaɪemˈef/ *noun* [**no plural**] ECONOMICS *abbreviation for* the International Monetary Fund: a part of the United Nations which encourages international trade and gives money to poor countries

IMHO INTERNET *internet abbreviation for* in my humble opinion: used when you tell someone your opinion

imitate /ˈɪmɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] to copy the way someone or something looks, sounds, or behaves *She tried to imitate the way the models walked.* ●**imitator** *noun* [C]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***imitation***

a **cheap/convincing/good/pale** imitation ● an imitation **of** sb/sth

imitation /ˌɪmɪˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** COPY [C] a copy of something that is made to look like the real thing *It wasn't a genuine Gucci handbag, just* ***a cheap imitation.*** ○ ***imitation leather/fur*** **2** BEHAVIOUR [C, U] when someone copies the way another person speaks or behaves *He does a very good* ***imitation of*** *the Prime Minister.*

immaculate /ɪˈmækjələt/ *adjective* **1** CLEAN perfectly clean and tidy or in perfect condition *an immaculate garden/room* **2** NO MISTAKES perfect and without any mistakes *an* ***immaculate performance*** ●**immaculately** *adverb*

immaterial /ˌɪməˈtɪəriəl/ *adjective* If something is immaterial, it is not important because it does not affect a situation.

immature /ˌɪməˈtjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** BEHAVIOUR not behaving in a way which is as wise and calm as people expect from someone your age *Some of the boys are quite immature for their age.* **2** NOT DEVELOPED not completely developed *immature cells* ●**immaturity** *noun* [U]

immeasurable /ɪˈmeʒʳəbl/ *adjective* very large or extreme and so impossible to measure *the immeasurable pain of losing a child* ●**immeasurably** *adverb His confidence has grown immeasurably since he got the job.*

O-key **immediate** /ɪˈmiːdiət/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT WAITING happening or done without waiting or very soon after something else *The government has promised to take* ***immediate action.*** ○ *The drugs will have an* ***immediate effect.*** **2** IMPORTANT NOW important now and needing attention *Our* ***immediate concern*** *is getting food and water to the refugees.* **3** CLOSEST [always before noun] closest to something or someone *Police cleared people from the* ***immediate area*** *following the bomb warning.* **4 the immediate future** the period of time that is coming next **5 sb's immediate family** someone's closest relatives, such as their parents, children, husband, or wife

O-key **immediately**[1] /ɪˈmiːdiətli/ *adverb* **1** NOW now or without waiting or thinking about something *The cause of the problem wasn't* ***immediately obvious.*** **2** NEXT next to something, or close to something in time *There are fields immediately behind the house.* ○ *Cole scored again* ***immediately after*** *half-time.*

immediately[2] /ɪˈmiːdiətli/ *conjunction UK* as soon as *Immediately I saw her I knew something terrible had happened.*

immense /ɪˈmens/ *adjective* extremely big *immense pressure/value* ○ *Health care costs the country* ***an immense amount of*** *money.*

immensely /ɪˈmensli/ *adverb* extremely ***immensely powerful/popular***

immerse /ɪˈmɜːs/ *verb* **1 be immersed in sth; immerse yourself in sth** to be or become completely involved in something, so that you do not notice anything else **2** [T] to put something in a liquid so that it is completely covered ●**immersion** /ɪˈmɜːʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

immigrant /ˈɪmɪgrənt/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone who comes to live in a different country ➲See also: **illegal immigrant**

immigration /ˌɪmɪˈgreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY **1** when someone comes to live in a different country ***immigration policy*** **2** the place where people's official documents are checked when they enter a country at an airport, port, border, etc ***immigration control*** ●**immigrate** /ˈɪmɪgreɪt/ *verb* [I] to come to live in a different country

imminent /ˈɪmɪnənt/ *adjective* coming or happening very soon ***imminent danger***

immiscible /ɪˈmɪsəbˈl/ *adjective* CHEMISTRY An immiscible liquid cannot be mixed with another liquid without separating from it. ➲Opposite **miscible**

immobile /ɪˈməʊbaɪl/ (US) /ɪˈməʊbˈl/ *adjective* not moving or not able to move ●**immobility** /ˌɪməʊˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

immoral /ɪˈmɒrˈl/ *adjective* morally wrong *immoral behaviour* ●**immorality** /ˌɪməˈrælətɪ/ *noun* [U]

immortal /ɪˈmɔːtˈl/ *adjective* **1** LIFE living or lasting forever *an immortal soul/God* **2** MEMORY famous or remembered for a very long time *Then he uttered the* ***immortal line*** *- "My name is Bond".* ●**immortality** /ˌɪmɔːˈtæləti/ *noun* [U]

immortalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ɪˈmɔːtˈlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make someone or something famous for a long time

immune /ɪˈmjuːn/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH [never before noun] If you are immune to a disease, you will not get it. *Once you've had the virus, you are* ***immune to*** *it.* **2** HEALTH [always before noun] relating to the way your body fights disease *an* ***immune deficiency/response*** **3** NOT AFFECTED [never before noun] not affected by a particular type of behaviour or emotion *He is* ***immune to*** *flattery.* **4** NOT PUNISHED [never before noun] not able to be punished or damaged by something *His diplomatic passport makes him* ***immune from*** *prosecution.*

immune ˌsystem *noun* [C] HEALTH the cells and tissues in your body that fight against infection [usually singular] *Vitamins help* ***boost*** (= make stronger) *your* ***immune system.***

immunity /ɪˈmjuːnəti/ *noun* [U] HEALTH when you are immune, especially to disease or from legal action ***diplomatic immunity*** ○ *The vaccine gives you lifelong* ***immunity to*** *the virus.*

immunize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈɪmjənaɪz/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to make a person or animal immune by giving them special medicine *He was* ***immunized against*** *measles as a child.* ●**immunization** /ˌɪmjənaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] *a programme of mass immunization*

immunosuppression /ˌɪmjənəʊsəˈpreʃˈn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH when the body's immune system (= system that fights disease) is

intentionally stopped from working, or is made less effective, usually by drugs, especially in order to help the body accept an organ which has been taken from another person's body ●**immunosuppressant** /ˌɪmjənəʊsəˈpresənt/ *noun* [C] a drug that stops the body's immune system from working

IMO INTERNET *internet abbreviation for* in my opinion: used when you want to give an opinion

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***impact***

have/make an impact ● a **major/negative/significant** impact ● an impact **on** sth

impact¹ /ˈɪmpækt/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] the effect that a person, event, or situation has on someone or something *Latino singers **have had a major impact on** pop music this year.* **2** PHYSICS [U] the force or action of one object hitting another *The missile explodes **on impact*** (= when it hits another object).

impact² /ɪmˈpækt/ (*also* **impact on/upon**) *verb* [T] *mainly US* to affect something or someone *Rising interest rates are sure to **impact on** the housing market.*

impair /ɪmˈpeəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to harm something and make it less good [**often passive**] *When you're tired your **judgment** is **impaired**.* ●**impairment** *noun* [C, U] when something is impaired ***mental/physical impairment***

impaired /ɪmˈpeəd/ *adjective* **visually/hearing impaired** unable to see or hear as well as most people

impale /ɪmˈpeɪl/ *verb* [T] to push a sharp object through something or someone

impart /ɪmˈpɑːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** COMMUNICATE to communicate information or knowledge to someone *I have disappointing **news** to **impart**.* **2** GIVE to give something a particular feeling, quality, or taste *Preservatives can impart colour and flavour to a product.*

impartial /ɪmˈpɑːʃʳl/ *adjective* not supporting or preferring any person, group, plan, etc more than others ***impartial advice*** ○ *A trial must be fair and impartial.* ●**impartiality** /ɪmˌpɑːʃiˈæləti/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is impartial

impassable /ɪmˈpɑːsəbl/ *adjective* If roads or paths are impassable, vehicles cannot move along them.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***impasse***

break/reach an impasse ● an impasse **in** sth

impasse /ˈæmpæs/ (US) /ˈɪmpæs/ *noun* [U] a situation in which it is impossible to make any progress *He is determined to **break*** (= end) ***the impasse** in the peace process.*

impassioned /ɪmˈpæʃʳnd/ *adjective* showing and expressing strong emotion *an **impassioned plea/speech***

impassive /ɪmˈpæsɪv/ *adjective* An impassive person or face shows no emotion. ●**impassively** *adverb*

impatience /ɪmˈpeɪʃʳns/ *noun* [U] when someone is impatient

impatient /ɪmˈpeɪʃʳnt/ *adjective* **1** EASILY ANNOYED easily annoyed by someone's mistakes or because you have to wait *I do get **impatient with** the children when they won't do their homework.* **2** WANTING ACTION [**never before noun**] wanting something to happen as soon as possible *People are increasingly **impatient for** change in this country.* ●**impatiently** *adverb We waited impatiently for the show to begin.*

impeccable /ɪmˈpekəbl/ *adjective* perfect and with no mistakes *She speaks impeccable English.* ●**impeccably** *adverb **impeccably dressed***

impede /ɪmˈpiːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make it difficult or impossible for someone or something to move or make progress *A broken-down car is impeding the flow of traffic.*

impediment /ɪmˈpedɪmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** NO PROGRESS *formal* something that makes it difficult or impossible for someone or something to move or make progress *Cramped classrooms are an **impediment to** learning.* **2** SPEECH/HEARING a problem that makes speaking, hearing, or moving difficult ***a speech impediment***

impel /ɪmˈpel/ *verb* [T] **impelling**, *past* **impelled** *formal* to make you feel that you must do something [+ **to do sth**] *Harry felt impelled to tell the truth.*

impending /ɪmˈpendɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An impending event will happen soon and is usually bad or unpleasant. ***impending disaster/doom*** ○ *I've just heard about the **impending departure** of our chairman.*

impenetrable /ɪmˈpenɪtrəbl/ *adjective* **1** CANNOT UNDERSTAND impossible to understand *impenetrable jargon* **2** CANNOT SEE/GO THROUGH impossible to see through or go through *impenetrable fog*

imperative¹ /ɪmˈperətɪv/ *adjective* **1** *formal* When an action or process is imperative, it is extremely important that it happens or is done. [+ **(that)**] *It is imperative that I speak with him at once.* **2** LANGUAGE An imperative form of a verb is used to express an order. In the sentence 'Stop the machine!', the verb 'stop' is an imperative verb.

imperative² /ɪmˈperətɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** something that must happen, exist, or be done *a moral/political imperative* **2** LANGUAGE the imperative form of a verb

imperceptible /ˌɪmpəˈseptəbl/ *adjective* not able to be noticed or felt *She heard a faint, almost imperceptible cry.* ●**imperceptibly** *adverb*

imperfect /ɪmˈpɜːfɪkt/ *adjective* not perfect and with some mistakes *an imperfect solution* ●**imperfectly** *adverb*

the imperfect /ɪmˈpɜːfɪkt/ (*also* **the imperfect tense**) *noun* LANGUAGE the form of the verb that is used to show an action in the past which has not been completed. In the sentence 'We were crossing the road', 'were crossing' is in the imperfect.

imperfection /ˌɪmpəˈfekʃʳn/ *noun* [C, U] when something or someone is not perfect *Make-up can hide small skin imperfections.*

imperial /ɪmˈpɪəriəl/ *adjective* **1** POLITICS [**always before noun**] relating or belonging to an empire (= group of countries ruled by one person or government) or the person who rules it *imperial rule* ○ *the imperial family* **2** MEASURES The

imperial system of measurement uses units based on measurements such as inches, pints, and ounces.

imperialism /ɪmˈpɪəriəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **1** POLITICS when one government or person rules a group of other countries *the age of imperialism* **2** POLITICS when one country has a lot of power or influence over others ***cultural/economic imperialism*** ●**imperialist** *adjective* relating to imperialism

imperil /ɪmˈperᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **imperilling**, *past* **imperilled**, *US* **imperiling**, *past* **imperiled** *formal* to put someone or something in a dangerous situation

imperious /ɪmˈpɪəriəs/ *adjective formal* showing that you think that you are important and expect others to obey you *an* ***imperious manner***

impermeable /ɪmˈpɜːsᵊmiəbl/ *adjective* PHYSICS, BIOLOGY, GEOLOGY If a substance is impermeable, it does not allow liquids or gases to go through it. ➲Opposite **permeable**

impersonal /ɪmˈpɜːsᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* not being friendly towards people or showing any interest in them *a cold and impersonal letter*

impersonate /ɪmˈpɜːsᵊneɪt/ *verb* [T] to copy the way someone looks and behaves in order to pretend to be them or to make people laugh *Impersonating a police officer is a serious offence.* ●**impersonation** /ɪmˌpɜːsᵊnˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *He* ***did*** *an* ***impersonation*** *of Bill Clinton.* ●**impersonator** *noun* [C] *an Elvis impersonator*

impertinent /ɪmˈpɜːtɪnənt/ *adjective formal* rude or not showing respect *an* ***impertinent remark***

impervious /ɪmˈpɜːviəs/ *adjective* **1** EFFECT not affected by something *She was* ***impervious to*** *the pain.* **2** LIQUID *formal* Impervious material does not let liquid into or through it. *impervious rock*

impetuous /ɪmˈpetʃuəs/ *adjective* done or acting quickly and without thinking carefully *an impetuous outburst*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***impetus***

give/provide [new, fresh, added, etc] impetus **to** sth ● the impetus **behind/for** sth

impetus /ˈɪmpɪtəs/ *noun* [U] **1** something that makes an activity or process happen or continue with more speed and energy *His visit* ***gave*** *new* ***impetus to*** *the peace process.* **2** PHYSICS a physical force that makes an object start or continue to move

impinge /ɪmˈpɪndʒ/ *verb formal*
impinge on/upon sb/sth *phrasal verb* to affect or limit someone or something *How does your religious commitment impinge upon your professional life?*

implacable /ɪmˈplækəbl/ *adjective formal* determined not to change the strong feelings you have against someone or something ***implacable opposition/hostility***

implant¹ /ˈɪmplɑːnt/ *noun* [C] HEALTH an object placed inside part of your body in an operation, to improve your appearance or treat a medical condition ***breast implants***

implant² /ɪmˈplɑːnt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to place something into someone's body in a medical operation *Two embryos were implanted in her womb.*

implausible /ɪmˈplɔːzəbl/ *adjective* difficult to believe or imagine *an implausible explanation*

implement¹ /ˈɪmplɪment/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make a law, system, plan, etc start to happen or operate *Our new computerized system will soon be fully implemented.* ●**implementation** /ˌɪmplɪmenˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

implement² /ˈɪmplɪmənt/ *noun* [C] a tool *a garden/farm implement*

implicate /ˈɪmplɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] to show that someone or something is involved in something bad, especially a crime [**often passive**] *Two senior officers are* ***implicated in*** *the latest drugs* ***scandal.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***implication***

have implications **for** sth ● **far-reaching/profound/serious** implications ● the implications **of** sth

implication /ˌɪmplɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** EFFECT [C] a result or effect that seems likely in the future [**usually plural**] *financial/health implications* ○ *This scheme* ***has*** *serious* ***implications for*** *the local economy.* **2** SUGGESTION [C, U] when you seem to suggest something without saying it directly *The* ***implication*** *was* ***that*** *the school had to do much better or it would be closed.* **3** INVOLVEMENT [U] when something or someone is implicated in something bad

implicit /ɪmˈplɪsɪt/ *adjective* **1** SUGGESTED suggested but not stated directly *an implicit threat* ○ *We interpreted his silence as implicit agreement.* **2** COMPLETE complete ***implicit faith/trust*** ●**implicitly** *adverb I* ***trust*** *him* ***implicitly.***

implore /ɪmˈplɔːˑ/ *verb* [T] *literary* to ask for something in a serious and emotional way [**+ to do sth**] *I implored him to let the child go.*

imply /ɪmˈplaɪ/ *verb* [T] to suggest or show something, without saying it directly [**+ (that)**] *Are you implying that I'm fat?* ○ *an* ***implied criticism***

impolite /ˌɪmpᵊlˈaɪt/ *adjective formal* not polite

import¹ /ˈɪmpɔːt/ *verb* [T] **1** ECONOMICS to bring something into your country from another country for people to buy *We import about 20 percent of our food.* **2** COMPUTING to copy information from one computer or computer program to another *to* ***import data*** ○ *imported files* ➲Opposite **export** ●**importation** /ˌɪmpɔːˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] ●**importer** *noun* [C]

import² /ˈɪmpɔːt/ *noun* ECONOMICS **1** [C] a product which is imported from another country [**usually plural**] *Japanese/American imports* **2** [U] when you import goods *a ban on the import of beef* ➲Opposite **export**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***importance***

central/great/major/paramount/the utmost/vital importance ● **emphasize/stress** the importance **of** sth ● **attach** (great) importance **to** sth ● the importance **of** sth

importance /ɪmˈpɔːtᵊns/ *noun* [U] how important someone or something is *He emphasized*

the importance of *following safety procedures.* ○ *She* ***attaches*** *a lot of* ***importance to*** *personal possessions* (= she thinks they are important).

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***important***

Adjectives such as **big**, **major** and **significant** are often used to mean 'important' in this sense: *This is a* ***big*** *game tonight - if Manchester lose, they're out of the championship.* ● *This is a* ***major*** *decision so we'd better get it right.* ● *Did he make any* ***significant*** *changes to my suggestions?*

Someone or something **of note** is important or famous: *Did she say anything* ***of note*** *at the meeting?*

A person who is important and famous is sometimes described as **eminent**, **prominent**, or **great**: *Her father was an* ***eminent*** *historian.*

important /ɪmˈpɔːtᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** VALUABLE valuable, useful, or necessary *My family is very* ***important to*** *me.* [+ **to do sth**] *Listen, Donna has something important to say.* **2** POWERFUL having a lot of power, influence, or effect *an important person/decision* ➲Opposite **unimportant** ●**importantly** *adverb They provided hot showers and, more importantly, clean clothes.*

impose /ɪmˈpəʊz/ *verb* [T] **1** ORDER OFFICIALLY to officially order that a rule, tax, punishment, etc will happen *to* ***impose a ban/tax*** ○ *The judge* ***imposed*** *the death penalty* ***on*** *both men.* **2** FORCE TO ACCEPT to force someone to accept a belief or way of living *I don't want them to* ***impose*** *their religious beliefs* ***on*** *my children.*
impose on sb *phrasal verb* to ask or expect someone to do something that may give them extra work or trouble *I hate to impose on you, but could I stay the night?*

imposing /ɪmˈpəʊzɪŋ/ *adjective* looking big and important in a way that people admire *He was an* ***imposing figure*** *- tall and broad-chested.*

imposition /ˌɪmpəˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ORDER OFFICIALLY [U] when you impose something *the imposition of a fine* **2** WORK/TROUBLE [C] the cause of extra work or trouble for someone else *It's a bit of an imposition, but could you take me to the airport?*

impossible[1] /ɪmˈpɒsəbl/ *adjective* **1** CANNOT HAPPEN If an action or event is impossible, it cannot happen or be done. *an impossible task* ○ *He finds walking almost impossible.* [+ **to do sth**] *It was impossible to sleep because of the noise.* **2** DIFFICULT very difficult to deal with *You're putting me in an impossible position.* ●**impossibility** /ɪmˌpɒsəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [C, U] when something is impossible [**usually singular**] I can't do it - it's a ***physical impossibility***.

the impossible /ɪmˈpɒsəbl/ *noun* something that it is not possible to have or achieve

impossibly /ɪmˈpɒsəbli/ *adverb* extremely, in a way that is very difficult to achieve or deal with *a picture of an impossibly pretty woman*

impostor (*also* **imposter**) /ɪmˈpɒstəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who pretends to be someone else in order to deceive people

impotent /ˈɪmpətənt/ *adjective* **1** SEX An impotent man is unable to have sex because his penis does not become or stay hard. **2** POWER not having the power or strength to do anything to change a situation *When your child is ill, you feel so impotent.* ●**impotence** /ˈɪmpətəns/ *noun* [U]

impound /ɪmˈpaʊnd/ *verb* [T] If the police or someone in authority impounds something that belongs to you, for example your car, they take it away because you have broken the law.

impoverished /ɪmˈpɒvᵊrɪʃt/ *adjective formal* **1** POOR poor or made poor *an impoverished country/family* **2** WEAK made worse or weaker *culturally/emotionally impoverished*

impractical /ɪmˈpræktɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** METHOD/IDEA Impractical ideas, methods, etc cannot be used or done easily. **2** PERSON Impractical people are not good at making, repairing, or planning things. **3** MATERIAL/CLOTHING not suitable for using in normal situations *I love high heels but they're rather impractical.*

imprecise /ˌɪmprɪˈsaɪs/ *adjective* not accurate or exact *an imprecise description*

impress /ɪmˈpres/ *verb* [T] to make someone admire or respect you *I was impressed by her professionalism.* ○ *Sarah was hoping to* ***impress*** *him* ***with*** *her cooking.*
impress sth on sb *phrasal verb* to make someone understand the importance of something *He tried to impress the importance of hygiene on them.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***impression***

convey/create/give/make an impression ● **get** an impression ● be **under** an impression ● a **distinct** / **false** / **favourable** / **indelible** / **lasting/misleading** impression

impression /ɪmˈpreʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** OPINION [**no plural**] an idea, feeling, or opinion about something or someone [+ **(that)**] *I* ***got/had the impression*** *that he was bored.* ○ *Monica* ***gives the impression*** *of being shy.* ○ *Remember that it* ***makes a*** *bad* ***impression*** *if you're late.* ○ *I think Mick* ***was under the impression that*** (= thought that) *we were married.* **2** COPY [C, U] when you copy the way a particular person or animal speaks or behaves, often to make people laugh *He* ***does a*** *brilliant* ***impression of*** *the president.* **3** MARK [C] a mark left when an object is pressed into something soft

impressionable /ɪmˈpreʃᵊnəbl/ *adjective* easy to influence *impressionable young people*

impressive /ɪmˈpresɪv/ *adjective* Someone or something that is impressive makes you admire and respect them. *an impressive performance/view* ●**impressively** *adverb*

imprest /ˈɪmprest/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money used by part of a business to pay for small things

imprest system /ˈɪmprestˌsɪstəm/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **FINANCE** a method of keeping an amount of cash (= money in the form of coins and notes) in a business for paying small amounts, where a certain amount of money is kept and replaced to the same level at the beginning of each new period

imprint /ˈɪmprɪnt/ *noun* **1** MARK [C] a mark left when an object is pressed into something soft *The steps showed the imprint of his boots in the*

snow. **2** EFFECT [**no plural**] the effect that something leaves behind *Much of the house still **bears the imprint of** her personality*.

imprison /ɪmˈprɪzᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] to put someone in prison or keep them as a prisoner [**often passive**] *Taylor was imprisoned in 1969 for burglary*. ●**imprisonment** *noun* [**U**]

improbable /ɪmˈprɒbəbl/ *adjective* **1** NOT LIKELY not likely to be true or to happen **2** SURPRISING surprising *Shirley seemed an improbable choice for a supermodel*. ●**improbably** *adverb*

impromptu /ɪmˈprɒmptjuː/ *adjective*, *adverb* not planned or prepared *an impromptu performance/party*

improper /ɪmˈprɒpəʳ/ *adjective formal* not correct, suitable, honest, or acceptable *improper conduct* ●**improperly** *adverb* *The court ruled that he had **acted improperly***.

imˌproper ˈfraction *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a fraction where the number above the line is bigger than the number below the line ➲Compare **proper fraction**

impropriety /ˌɪmprəˈpraɪəti/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* behaviour that is not correct, suitable, or honest *The enquiry found no evidence of financial impropriety*.

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***improve***

If something improves after a period of doing badly, you can use the verbs **rally** and **recover**: *The team played badly in the first half but **rallied** in the second.* ● *We are still waiting for the economy to **recover**.*

The phrasal verbs **look up** and **pick up** can be used informally to say that a situation is improving: *Our financial situation is **looking up**.* ● *Business is really beginning to **pick up**.*

The phrasal verb **work on** means 'to try to improve something': *You need to **work on** your technique.*

The verb **refine** can be used when someone improves something by making small changes: *A team of experts spent several months **refining** the software.*

improve /ɪmˈpruːv/ *verb* [**I, T**] to get better or to make something better *Scott's behaviour has improved a lot lately.* ○ *Every year thousands of students come to London to improve their English.* ○ *improved earnings/productivity* **improve on sth** *phrasal verb* to do something in a better way or with better results than before *I hope our team can improve on last Saturday's performance.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***improvement***

a **continuous/dramatic/gradual/significant/slight** improvement ● **bring about/notice/produce** an improvement ● an improvement **in/to** sth

improvement /ɪmˈpruːvmənt/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something gets better or when you make it better ***home improvements*** ○ *There's been a noticeable **improvement in** her work this term.* ○ *He's a definite **improvement on** her last boyfriend.* ○ *Sadly, her health has **shown** no **improvement**.*

improvise /ˈɪmprəvaɪz/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** to make or do something without any preparation, using only the things that are available *For a football, we improvised with some rolled-up socks.* **2 MUSIC** to play music or say words that you are inventing, not reading or remembering ●**improvisation** /ˌɪmprəvaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***impulse***

resist an impulse ● sb's **first** impulse

impulse /ˈɪmpʌls/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**C**] a sudden feeling that you must do something, without thinking about the results [**usually singular**] *Her **first impulse** was to run away.* **2 on impulse** suddenly and without thinking first *I tend to act on impulse.* **3** SIGNAL [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a short signal that carries information through a system, for example an electrical system or the nerves in your body

impulsive /ɪmˈpʌlsɪv/ *adjective* Impulsive people do things suddenly, without planning or thinking carefully, but because they want to. ●**impulsively** *adverb*

impunity /ɪmˈpjuːnəti/ *noun formal* **with impunity** without being punished *Criminal gangs are terrorizing the city with apparent impunity.*

impure /ɪmˈpjʊəʳ/ *adjective* not pure, but mixed with other substances ●**impurity** *noun* [**C, U**] when something is impure or a substance that is impure

in¹ /ɪn/ *preposition* **1** POSITION inside or towards the inside of a container, place, or area *There's milk in the fridge.* ○ *a shop in South London* ○ *He put his hand in his pocket.* **2** DURING during part or all of a period of time *We're going to Italy in April.* ○ *I started working here in 1993.* **3** USING TIME needing or using no more than a particular amount of time *I'll be ready in a few minutes.* **4** PART OF part of something *Who's the woman in the painting?* ○ *There's a few spelling mistakes in your essay.* **5** JOB involved in a particular kind of job *a career in publishing/politics* **6** SUBJECT connected with a particular subject *a degree in philosophy* ○ *advances in medical science* **7** WEARING wearing *Do you know that man in the grey suit?* **8** EXPRESSED expressed or written in a particular way *Complete the form in black ink.* ○ *She spoke to him in Russian.* **9** ARRANGED arranged in a particular way *We sat down in a circle.* ○ *Is this list in alphabetical order?* **10** EXPERIENCE experiencing an emotion or condition *She's in a bad mood this morning.* ○ *The kitchen's in a terrible state.* **11 in all** used to show the total amount of something *Some of the children came, so there were 15 of us in all.*

in² /ɪn/ *adverb* **1** INTO A SPACE into an area or space from the outside of it *He rushed in halfway through the meeting.* ○ *Annie opened the car door and threw her luggage in.* **2** AT A PLACE at the place where a person usually lives or works *I phoned, but she wasn't in.* ○ *Could you ask him to ring me when he **gets in**?* **3** TRAIN/PLANE If a train, plane, etc is in, it has arrived at the place it was going to. *My train gets in at 17.54.* **4** SENT given or sent to someone official in order to be read *Applications must be in by 28th February.* **5** TOWARDS LAND used when the sea or a ship moves close to land *Let's go*

- *the tide is* ***coming in***. **6 be in for sth** *informal* If someone is in for a surprise, treat, shock, etc, it will happen to them soon. *If he thinks looking after a baby is easy, he's in for a shock.* **7 be in on sth** *informal* If you are in on something, you know about it or are involved in it. *Were you in on the surprise?* ○ *Please* ***let me in on*** (= tell me) *the secret.* **8** SPORT *UK* In cricket and similar sports, if a person or team is in, they are taking a turn to play. **9 be in for it** (*also UK* **be for it**) to be in trouble

in³ /ɪn/ *adjective informal* fashionable or popular *Pink is in this season.*

in⁴ /ɪn/ *noun* **the ins and outs of sth** the details of a particular subject *the ins and outs of the legal system*

in⁵ (*also* **in.**) MEASURES *written abbreviation for* inch (= a unit for measuring length)

in- /ɪn-/ *prefix* not *inaccurate* ○ *insensitive*

inability /ˌɪnəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**no plural**] when you are unable to do something

inaccessible /ˌɪnəkˈsesəbl/ *adjective* impossible or extremely difficult to get to *The plane crashed in a mountain area that was totally* ***inaccessible to*** *vehicles.*

inaccurate /ɪnˈækjərət/ *adjective* not correct or exact *inaccurate information/figures* ●**inaccuracy** /ɪnˈækjərəsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something is not correct or exact *His book contains historical inaccuracies.*

inaction /ɪnˈækʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] when people do not take any action, especially about a problem *This announcement follows months of inaction and delay.*

inactive /ɪnˈæktɪv/ *adjective* not active or working *Beetle grubs stay inactive underground until spring.* ●**inactivity** /ˌɪnækˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [**U**] when something or someone is not active or working *a* ***period of inactivity***

inadequacy /ɪˈnædɪkwəsi/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [**C, U**] when something or someone is not good enough or not of a high enough quality *feelings of inadequacy* ○ *He pointed out several* ***inadequacies in*** *the present system.* **2** AMOUNT [**U**] when there is not enough of something *The basic problem is the inadequacy of our school budget.*

inadequate /ɪˈnædɪkwət/ *adjective* **1** QUALITY not good enough or too low in quality *inadequate facilities/training* ○ *Our equipment is totally* ***inadequate for*** *a job like this.* **2** AMOUNT not enough *inadequate funds* ●**inadequately** *adverb*

inadvertent /ˌɪnədˈvɜːtᵊnt/ *adjective* not done intentionally *an inadvertent error* ●**inadvertently** *adverb I had inadvertently picked up the wrong keys.*

inadvisable /ˌɪnədˈvaɪzəbl/ *adjective* likely to cause problems *It is inadvisable for women to travel alone in this region.*

inane /ɪˈneɪn/ *adjective* very silly and annoying *an inane question*

inanimate /ɪˈnænɪmət/ *adjective* not alive *an* ***inanimate object***

inappropriate /ˌɪnəˈprəʊpriət/ *adjective* not suitable *inappropriate behaviour* ○ *It would* ***be inappropriate for*** *me to comment, without knowing the facts.* ●**inappropriately** *adverb*

inarticulate /ˌɪnɑːˈtɪkjələt/ *adjective* unable to express clearly what you feel or mean in words

inasmuch as /ɪnəzˈmʌtʃˌəz/ *conjunction formal* used to introduce a phrase which explains the degree to which something you have just said is true *They were strict about our appearance inasmuch as we weren't allowed to wear jewellery or make-up.*

inattentive /ˌɪnəˈtentɪv/ *adjective* not giving attention to someone or something

inaudible /ɪˈnɔːdəbl/ *adjective* impossible to hear *His voice was almost inaudible.*

inaugural /ɪˈnɔːgjərᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An inaugural speech, meeting, etc is the first one of a new organization or leader. *the President's inaugural address*

inaugurate /ɪˈnɔːgjəreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** CEREMONY to have a ceremony to celebrate an important person starting a new job, a new building opening, etc *Ronald Reagan was inaugurated in 1981.* **2** START *formal* to start a new system or organization *He inaugurated a programme to fight tuberculosis.* ●**inauguration** /ɪˌnɔːgjəˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] *the inauguration of the Lord Mayor*

in-box (*also* **inbox**) /ˈɪnbɒks/ *noun* [**C**] **1** INTERNET the place on a computer where email messages are sent **2** *US* (*UK* **in-tray**) a container where you keep letters and documents that need to be dealt with

Inc. *written abbreviation for* incorporated (= used after the name of some companies) *Macmillan Inc.*

incalculable /ɪnˈkælkjələbl/ *adjective* too big to measure *The cost in human terms is incalculable.*

incapable /ɪnˈkeɪpəbl/ *adjective* **incapable of sth/doing sth** not able to do something or to feel a particular emotion *He's incapable of controlling his temper.*

incapacitate /ˌɪnkəˈpæsɪteɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to make someone too ill or weak to work or do things normally [**often passive**] *He was incapacitated by illness.* ●**incapacity** /ˌɪnkəˈpæsəti/ *noun* [**U**] when you cannot do something because you do not have the ability or you are too weak

incarcerate /ɪnˈkɑːsᵊreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to put and keep someone in prison [**often passive**] *Marks was incarcerated for robbery.* ●**incarceration** /ɪnˌkɑːsᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

incarnate /ɪnˈkɑːnət/ *adjective* [**always after noun**] in human form *He was acting like* ***the devil incarnate.***

incarnation /ˌɪnkɑːˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** FORM [**C**] a particular form of something or someone that is changing or developing *In their new incarnation, the band have acquired a female singer.* **2 the incarnation of sth** the physical form of a god or quality *the incarnation of evil/freedom* **3** LIFE [**C**] a particular life, in religions which believe we have many lives

incendiary /ɪnˈsendiəri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] designed to cause a fire *an **incendiary bomb/device***

incense /ˈɪnsens/ *noun* [**U**] a substance which burns with a strong, sweet smell, often used in religious ceremonies

incensed /ɪnˈsenst/ *adjective* extremely angry

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***incentive***

have/provide an incentive ● an **added/powerful/strong** incentive ● an incentive **for** sb

incentive /ɪnˈsentɪv/ *noun* [**C, U**] something that encourages you to act in a particular way [**+ to do sth**] *People had little incentive to save.* ○ *The government should **provide incentives for** young people to stay in school.*

inception /ɪnˈsepʃən/ *noun* [**no plural**] *formal* the time when an organization or official activity began *He has directed the project since its inception.*

incessant /ɪnˈsesənt/ *adjective* continuous, especially in a way that is annoying or unpleasant *incessant rain/noise* ●**incessantly** *adverb*

incest /ˈɪnsest/ *noun* [**U**] sex that is illegal because it is between closely related people, for example a father and daughter

incestuous /ɪnˈsestjuəs/ *adjective* **1** SEX involving sex between people who are closely related **2** GROUP involving a group of people who are not interested in people or things outside the group *Universities can be very incestuous places.*

inch¹ /ɪnʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MEASURES (*written abbreviation* **in.**) a unit for measuring length, equal to 2.54 centimetres ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **2 not budge/give an inch** *informal* to refuse to change your opinions **3 to be every inch sth** to be a particular kind of person in every way *He is every inch a gentleman.*

inch² /ɪnʃ/ *verb* **inch closer/forward/up, etc** to move somewhere slowly or by very small amounts

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***incidence***

a **high/increased/low** incidence ● the incidence **of** sth

incidence /ˈɪnsɪdəns/ *noun* [**C**] how often something happens, especially something bad [**usually singular**] *There's a high **incidence of** crime in the area.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***incident***

an incident **happens/occurs** ● an **isolated** incident

incident /ˈɪnsɪdənt/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* an event, especially one that is bad or unusual *Police are investigating the incident.*

incidental /ˌɪnsɪˈdentəl/ *adjective* less important than the thing something is connected with or part of *The lyrics here are **incidental to** the music.*

incidentally /ɪnsɪˈdentəli/ *adverb* used when you say something that is not as important as the main subject of conversation but is connected to it *Incidentally, talking of Stephen, have you met his girlfriend?*

ˈincident ˌray *noun* [**C**] PHYSICS a ray of light which hits a surface ➲Compare **reflected ray**

incinerate /ɪnˈsɪnəreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to burn something completely ●**incineration** /ɪnˌsɪnərˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**]

incinerator /ɪnˈsɪnəreɪtər/ *noun* [**C**] a machine that is used to burn waste, especially harmful materials

incipient /ɪnˈsɪpiənt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* just beginning *incipient wrinkles*

incision /ɪnˈsɪʒən/ *noun* [**C**] HEALTH *formal* an opening that is made in something with a sharp tool, especially in someone's body during an operation

incisive /ɪnˈsaɪsɪv/ *adjective* showing an ability to think quickly and clearly and deal with situations effectively *incisive questions*

incisor /ɪnˈsaɪzər/ *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY one of the sharp teeth at the front of the mouth which cut food when you bite into it ➲Compare **canine, molar** ➲See picture at **skull**

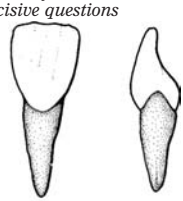

incisor

incite /ɪnˈsaɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to do or say something that encourages people to behave violently or illegally *They denied **inciting** the crowd **to** violence.* ●**incitement** *noun* [**C, U**] when someone does or says something that incites people

incl *written abbreviation for* including or inclusive

inclination /ˌɪnklɪˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [**C, U**] a feeling that you want to do something [**+ to do sth**] *She **showed** little **inclination** to leave.*

incline¹ /ɪnˈklaɪn/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* If you incline your head, you bend your neck so that your face bends down.
incline to/towards sth *phrasal verb formal* to think that a belief or opinion is probably correct *I incline to the view that peace can be achieved.*

incline² /ˈɪnklaɪn/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* a slope *a steep/gentle incline*

inclined /ɪnˈklaɪnd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1 be inclined to think/believe/agree, etc** to have an opinion, but not a strong opinion *I'm inclined to agree with you.* **2 inclined to do sth a** often behaving in a particular way *Tom is inclined to be forgetful.* **b** wanting to do something *No one seemed inclined to help.* **3 artistically/technically, etc inclined** having natural artistic/technical, etc ability *She's very bright, but not academically inclined.*

include /ɪnˈkluːd/ *verb* [**T**] **1** BE PART OF to have something or someone as part of something larger or more general, such as a group, price, or process *His books include the best-selling novel 'The Foundling'.* ○ *The price includes flights and three nights' accommodation.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **contain 2** ALLOW to allow someone to take part in an activity [**often passive**] *Local residents were **included in** the initial planning discussions.* ➲Opposite **exclude**

O-key **including** /ɪn'kluːdɪŋ/ *preposition* used to show that someone or something is part of a larger group, amount, or process *Fourteen people, including a prison warden, were killed.* ○ *It's £24.99, including postage and packing.*

inclusion /ɪn'kluːʒᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] when you include someone or something, especially in a group, amount, or event *Her self-portrait was chosen for inclusion in the exhibition.* ➲Opposite **exclusion**

inclusive /ɪn'kluːsɪv/ *adjective* **1** COST An inclusive price or amount includes everything. *Prices are **inclusive of** flights and accommodation.* **2** NUMBERS [**always after noun**] including the first and last date or number stated *The course will run from October 19 to November 13, inclusive.* **3** PEOPLE Inclusive groups try to include many different types of people. *Our aim is to create a fairer, more inclusive society.* ➲Opposite **exclusive**

incoherent /ˌɪnkəʊ'hɪərᵊnt/ *adjective* not using clear words or ideas, and difficult to understand *His statement to the police was rambling and incoherent.* ●**incoherence** /ˌɪnkəʊ'hɪərᵊns/ *noun* [**U**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***income***

an **average/good/high/low/steady** income ● **earn/have/provide** an income ● be **on** a (high/low, etc) income

O-key **income** /'ɪŋkʌm/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FINANCE** money that you earn by working, investing, or producing goods *families on **low incomes*** ○ *Tourism accounts for 25% of the country's national income.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **pay**

ˈincome supˌport *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE, SOCIETY** in the UK, money that is paid by the government to people who have very little or no income

ˈincome ˌtax *noun* [**C, U**] **FINANCE** tax that you have to pay on your income

incoming /'ɪnˌkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] coming into a place or starting a job ***incoming phone calls/mail*** ○ *the incoming government*

incomparable /ɪn'kɒmpᵊrəbl/ *adjective* too good to be compared with anything or anyone else *incomparable beauty*

incompatible /ˌɪnkəm'pætəbl/ *adjective* **1** DIFFERENT too different to exist or live together *He regarded being a soldier as **incompatible with** his Christian faith.* **2** EQUIPMENT If equipment or software is incompatible with other equipment or software, it will not work with it. ●**incompatibility** /ˌɪnkəmˌpætəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**] when two people or things are incompatible

incompetent /ɪn'kɒmpɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* not able to do your job, or things that you are expected to do, successfully *incompetent managers* ●**incompetence** /ɪn'kɒmpɪtᵊns/ *noun* [**U**]

incomplete /ˌɪnkəm'pliːt/ *adjective* not finished, or having one or more parts missing *Decisions were made on the basis of incomplete information.* ●**incompleteness** *noun* [**U**]

incomprehensible /ɪnˌkɒmprɪ'hensəbl/ *adjective* impossible to understand *The instructions are almost incomprehensible.* ○ *His behaviour is quite **incomprehensible to** me.*

incomprehension /ɪnˌkɒmprɪ'henʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* when you do not understand something *She looked at him in total incomprehension.*

inconceivable /ˌɪnkən'siːvəbl/ *adjective* impossible to imagine [**+ that**] *I find it inconceivable that she could be a killer.*

inconclusive /ˌɪnkən'kluːsɪv/ *adjective* not leading to a definite decision or result ***inconclusive evidence/results*** ○ *The battle was inconclusive.*

incongruous /ɪn'kɒŋgruəs/ *adjective formal* strange or not suitable for a particular situation *Bill was an incongruous sight, standing on the beach in his suit.*

inconsequential /ɪnˌkɒnsɪ'kwenʃᵊl/ *adjective formal* not important *inconsequential remarks*

inconsiderate /ˌɪnkən'sɪdᵊrət/ *adjective* not caring about other people's situations or the way they feel *It was very **inconsiderate of** you to keep us all waiting.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inconsistency***

(an) **apparent/glaring** inconsistency ● (an) inconsistency **in** sth

inconsistency /ˌɪnkən'sɪstᵊnsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something is inconsistent *The report was full of errors and inconsistencies.*

inconsistent /ˌɪnkən'sɪstənt/ *adjective* **1** CHANGING not staying the same in quality or behaviour *His homework is very inconsistent.* **2** NOT AGREEING not having the same principles as something else, or not agreeing with other facts *The story Robert told his mother is totally **inconsistent with** what he told me.*

inconspicuous /ˌɪnkən'spɪkjuəs/ *adjective* not noticeable or attracting attention *Emma tried to make herself as inconspicuous as possible.*

incontinent /ɪn'kɒntɪnənt/ *adjective* **HEALTH** not able to control when urine or faeces come out of your body

incontrovertible /ˌɪnˌkɒntrə'vɜːtəbl/ *adjective formal* certainly true ***incontrovertible evidence/proof***

inconvenience /ˌɪnkən'viːniəns/ *noun* [**C, U**] when something is inconvenient, or something that is inconvenient *The Director apologized for any **inconvenience caused**.* [**usually singular**] *Having to wait for ten minutes was a minor inconvenience.* ●**inconvenience** *verb* [**T**] *There were complaints from travellers inconvenienced by delays and cancellations.*

inconvenient /ˌɪnkən'viːniənt/ *adjective* involving or causing difficulty, such as unexpected changes or effort *I'm sorry, I seem to have called at an **inconvenient time**.*

incorporate /ɪn'kɔːpᵊreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to include something as part of another thing *He began to **incorporate** dance and mime **into** his plays.* ●**incorporation** /ɪnˌkɔːpᵊr'eɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

Incorporated /ɪn'kɔːpᵊreɪtɪd/ (*written abbreviation* **Inc.**) *adjective* used after the name of companies which have been organized in a particular legal way *They formed their own company, Broadcast Music Incorporated.*

I

incorrect /ˌɪnkəˈrekt/ *adjective* not correct *His answers were incorrect.* ●**incorrectly** *adverb My name is spelled incorrectly on your list.*

incorrigible /ɪnˈkɒrɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* having particular faults and impossible to change

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***increase***

The verbs **grow** and **rise** are common alternatives to 'increase': *The number of people living alone **grows** each year.* ● *Prices **rose** by ten percent.*

The phrasal verb **go up** is often used when prices increase: *House prices keep **going up**.* ● *The price of fuel has **gone up** by 5p a litre.*

If something suddenly increases by a large amount, you can use verbs such as **escalate**, **rocket**, or **soar**: *Crime in the city has **escalated** in recent weeks.* ● *Building costs have **rocketed** by seventy percent.* ● *House prices have **soared** this year.*

If someone makes something increase in size or amount, you can use verbs like **expand** or **extend**: *We're hoping to **expand/extend** our range of products.*

The verb **maximize** is sometimes used when someone tries to increase something as much as possible: *We need to **maximize** profits.*

O-key **increase¹** /ɪnˈkriːs/ *verb* [**I, T**] to get bigger or to make something bigger in size or amount *Eating fatty food increases the risk of heart disease.* ○ *Exports of computers have **increased by** 15% since January.* ○ *increased demand/competition* ➲Opposite **decrease**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***increase***

a **dramatic/sharp/significant/slight/substantial** increase ● an increase **in** sth

O-key **increase²** /ˈɪnkriːs/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] when the number, size, or amount of something gets bigger *a price/tax increase* ○ *We are seeing **an increase in** standards of living.* **2 on the increase** If something is on the increase, it is happening more often. *Violent crime is on the increase.* ➲Opposite **decrease**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

increase in or **increase of?**

Use **increase in** before the thing which is increasing.

an increase in profits/sales

an increase in the number of AIDS cases

Use **increase of** before the size of the increase.

an increase of 30%

increasingly /ɪnˈkriːsɪŋli/ *adverb* more and more *increasingly important* ○ *Increasingly, education is seen as a right, not a privilege.*

O-key **incredible** /ɪnˈkredɪbl/ *adjective* **1** GOOD OR LARGE *informal* very good, exciting, or large *We had an incredible time that summer.* ○ *an incredible noise* **2** STRANGE too strange to be believed *an incredible story*

incredibly /ɪnˈkredɪbli/ *adverb* **1** EXTREMELY *informal* extremely *The team played incredibly well.* **2** DIFFICULT TO BELIEVE in a way that is difficult to believe *Incredibly, no one was hurt.*

incredulous /ɪnˈkredjələs/ *adjective* not able to believe something *He looked incredulous when I told him the results.* ●**incredulity** /ˌɪnkrəˈdjuːləti/ *noun* [**U**] ●**incredulously** *adverb*

increment /ˈɪnkrəmənt/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* one of a series of increases ***pay increments***

incremental /ˌɪnkrəˈmentəl/ *adjective formal* increasing by small amounts ***incremental changes***

incriminate /ɪnˈkrɪmɪneɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone seem guilty of a crime or to show that they are guilty [**often reflexive**] *He refused to answer questions on the grounds that he might incriminate himself.*

incriminating /ɪnˈkrɪmɪneɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* Something that is incriminating makes someone seem guilty of a crime. ***incriminating evidence/remarks***

incubate /ˈɪŋkjʊbeɪt/ *verb* [**T, I**] **1** BIOLOGY If eggs are incubating, or being incubated, they are being kept warm until the baby birds come out **2** HEALTH If a disease is incubating, or you are incubating a disease, the germs are inside you although you do not seem ill yet. ●**incubation** /ˌɪŋkjʊˈbeɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**] *a long incubation period*

incubator /ˈɪŋkjʊbeɪtəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] HEALTH, FARMING a heated container that provides the right conditions for a baby born too early, or for very young birds, animals, or eggs

incumbent¹ /ɪnˈkʌmbənt/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* someone who has an official job, especially a political one *the previous incumbent*

incumbent² /ɪnˈkʌmbənt/ *adjective* **1 be incumbent on/upon sb to do sth** *formal* to be someone's duty or responsibility to do something **2** [**always before noun**] holding an official job, especially a political one *the incumbent president*

incur /ɪnˈkɜːʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **incurring**, *past* **incurred** *formal* to experience something unpleasant as a result of something you have done *to **incur debts*** ○ *I am sorry to have incurred his anger.*

incurable /ɪnˈkjʊərəbl/ *adjective* HEALTH impossible to cure *an **incurable disease***

incursion /ɪnˈkɜːʃən/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* a sudden attack or entry into an area that belongs to other people ***incursions into** enemy territory*

incus /ˈɪŋkəs/ *noun* [**C, usually singular**] *plural* **incudes** ANATOMY one of three very small bones that carry sound into the inner ear ➲Compare **malleus, stapes**

indebted /ɪnˈdetɪd/ *adjective* **1 be indebted to sb** to be very grateful to someone *I'm indebted to my parents for all their support.* **2** FINANCE having a debt to pay *indebted countries* ●**indebtedness** *noun* [**U**]

indecent /ɪnˈdiːsənt/ *adjective* showing or consisting of sexual behaviour, language, etc which is unacceptable to most people *indecent photographs* ●**indecency** /ɪnˈdiːsənsi/ *noun* [**U**] indecent behaviour, or when something is indecent ●**indecently** *adverb*

indecision /ˌɪndɪˈsɪʒˁn/ *noun* [U] when you cannot make a decision *a moment of indecision*

indecisive /ˌɪndɪˈsaɪsɪv/ *adjective* not good at making decisions, or not producing a decision *She was weak and indecisive.*

indeed /ɪnˈdiːd/ *adverb* **1** EMPHASIS used to add emphasis after 'very' followed by an adjective or adverb *For a four-year-old, her vocabulary is very good indeed.* ○ *Thank you very much indeed.* **2** REACTION used when someone has said something that surprises, interests, or annoys you *"She asked if you were married." "Did she, indeed?"* **3** TRUE used to emphasize that something is true or that you agree with it *"He sounds a very interesting man." "He is indeed."* **4** MORE *formal* used when you say more to support or develop what has already been said *For such creatures speed is not important, indeed it is counterproductive.*

indefatigable /ˌɪndɪˈfætɪgəbl/ *adjective formal* never becoming tired *She was indefatigable in promoting her cause.*

indefensible /ˌɪndɪˈfensəbl/ *adjective* completely wrong, and so impossible to defend or support *Racism is* ***morally indefensible.***

indefinable /ˌɪndɪˈfaɪnəbl/ *adjective* difficult to describe or explain *an indefinable atmosphere of tension*

indefinite /ɪnˈdefɪnət/ *adjective* with no fixed time, size, end, or limit *an* ***indefinite period***

inˌdefinite ˈarticle *noun* [C] LANGUAGE in grammar, a phrase used to mean the words 'a' or 'an' ➲Compare **definite article**

indefinitely /ɪnˈdefɪnətli/ *adverb* for a period of time for which no end has been fixed *His visit has been* ***postponed indefinitely.***

indelible /ɪnˈdeləbl/ *adjective* **1** MEMORY impossible to forget *an indelible impression/image* **2** MARK impossible to wash away or remove ***indelible ink***

indemnity /ɪnˈdemnəti/ *noun formal* **1** LAW [U] protection against possible damage or punishment **2** FINANCE [C, U] money paid or promised to you if something valuable to you is lost or damaged *indemnity insurance*

indentation /ˌɪndenˈteɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C] a mark, cut, or hole in the surface of something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***independence***

achieve/gain independence ● independence **from** sth

independence /ˌɪndɪˈpendəns/ *noun* [U] **1** when someone looks after themselves and does not need money, help, or permission from other people *My parents gave me a lot of independence.* ○ *Many old people are afraid of* ***losing*** *their* ***independence.*** **2** POLITICS when a country has its own government and is not ruled by another country *Mexico* ***gained*** *its* ***independence from*** *Spain in 1821.*

Indeˈpendence ˌDay (*also* **Fourth of July**) *noun* 4 July, a national holiday in the US to celebrate the country's freedom from Great Britain in 1776

independent¹ /ˌɪndɪˈpendənt/ *adjective* **1** RULE not controlled or ruled by anyone else *an independent state/company* ○ *The group is* ***independent of*** *any political party.* **2** NEED not wanting or needing anyone else to help you or do things for you *She's a proud, independent woman.* **3** INFLUENCE not influenced by anyone or anything else *an independent expert/study* ●**independently** *adverb to operate independently*

independent² /ˌɪndɪˈpendənt/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a politician who does not belong to a political party

ˌindependent ˈvariable *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS a number or amount in a mathematical statement that can change and which decides the value of the dependent variable

in-depth /ˈɪnˌdepθ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] involving or considering all the details of something ***in-depth knowledge***

indescribable /ˌɪndɪˈskraɪbəbl/ *adjective* so good, bad, large, etc that it is impossible to describe *an indescribable feeling* ○ *indescribable agony*

indestructible /ˌɪndɪˈstrʌktəbl/ *adjective* impossible to destroy or break

indeterminate /ˌɪndɪˈtɜːmɪnət/ *adjective* impossible to know *a large woman of* ***indeterminate age***

index¹ /ˈɪndeks/ *noun* [C] **1** *plural* **indexes** an alphabetical list of subjects or names at the end of a book, showing on what page they are found in the text *Look up 'heart disease'* ***in the index.*** **2** COMPUTING *plural* **indexes** a collection of information stored on a computer or on cards in alphabetical order **3** FINANCE, ECONOMICS *plural* **indices** or **indexes** a system for comparing different values and recording changes, especially in financial markets *the retail price index*

index² /ˈɪndeks/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to make an index for text or information, or arrange it in an index

ˈindex ˌfinger *noun* [C] ANATOMY the finger next to your thumb

ˈindex ˌform *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS a way of writing a very large number with one number before the decimal point, multiplied by a power of 10. For example, 280,000 is 2.8×10^5

Indian /ˈɪndiən/ *noun* [C] **1** someone from India **2** an American Indian (= one of the original race of people who lived in North America) ➲See also: **West Indian**

indicate /ˈɪndɪkeɪt/ *verb* **1** SHOW [T] to show that something exists or is likely to be true [**+ (that)**] *Recent evidence indicates that the skeleton is about 3 million years old.* **2** SAY [T] to say something or give a signal to show what you mean or what you intend to do *He has indicated his intention to resign.* **3** POINT [T] to point to someone or something *He indicated a man in a dark coat.* **4** SIGNAL [I, T] *UK* to show that you intend to turn left or right when you are driving *The driver turned right without indicating.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***indication***

a **clear/good/strong** indication ● an indication **of** sth

indication /ˌɪndɪˈkeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** EXIST a sign showing that something exists or is likely to be true [**+ (that)**] *There are* ***strong***

indications *that the case will be referred to the Court of Appeal.* **2** INTENTION a sign showing what someone means or what they intend to do *Helen's face* ***gave*** *no* ***indication of*** *what she was thinking.*

indicative¹ /ɪn'dɪkətɪv/ *adjective formal* **1 be indicative of sth** to be a sign that something exists, is true, or is likely to happen *These statistics are indicative of a widespread problem.* **2 LANGUAGE** An indicative form of a verb is used to express a fact or action.

indicative² /ɪn'dɪkətɪv/ *noun* [**no plural**] **LANGUAGE** the indicative form of a verb

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***indicator***

a **good/reliable/useful** indicator ● an indicator **of** sth

indicator /'ɪndɪkeɪtər/ *noun* [**C**] **1** FACT a fact, measurement, or condition that shows what something is like or how it is changing *With some goods, cost is the most reliable* ***indicator of*** *quality.* **2** LIGHT *UK* (*US* **turn signal**) a light that flashes on a vehicle to show that the driver intends to turn right or left ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **3 CHEMISTRY** a substance that shows if another substance is acid or alkaline

indict /ɪn'daɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* **LAW** to accuse someone officially of a crime [**often passive**] *Pound was* ***indicted for*** *treason.*

indictment /ɪn'daɪtmənt/ *noun* **1** [**C**] something which shows the bad things which a person or system is responsible for *The novel is a scathing* ***indictment of*** *the slave trade.* **2 LAW** [**C, U**] when someone is legally indicted, or the official document or process for doing this

indie /'ɪndi/ *noun* [**C, U**] *informal* **MUSIC** a small independent music company or film producer ***indie music/bands***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***indifference***

callous/casual/cold indifference ● indifference **to/towards** sth

indifference /ɪn'dɪfərəns/ *noun* [**U**] when you do not care about something or have any particular opinions about it *an air of indifference*

indifferent /ɪn'dɪfərənt/ *adjective* **1** NOT CARING not caring about or interested in someone or something *They are* ***indifferent to*** *the plight of the unemployed.* **2** NOT GOOD neither good nor bad *an indifferent performance*

indigenous /ɪn'dɪdʒɪnəs/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** having always lived or existed in a place ***indigenous peoples*** ○ *The kangaroo is* ***indigenous to*** *Australia.*

indigestion /ˌɪndɪ'dʒestʃən/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** pain which you feel when your stomach is unable to digest food correctly

indignant /ɪn'dɪgnənt/ *adjective* angry because you have been treated badly or unfairly *Consumers are* ***indignant at/about*** *the high prices charged by car dealers.* ●**indignantly** *adverb*

indignation /ˌɪndɪg'neɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is indignant *His voice was trembling with indignation.*

indignity /ɪn'dɪgnəti/ *noun* [**C, U**] a situation which makes you lose respect or look silly, or the feeling of shame and embarrassment it gives you [**+ of + doing sth**] *They* ***suffered*** *the* ***indignity*** *of being searched like common criminals.*

indigo /'ɪndɪgəʊ/ *noun* [**U**] a blue-purple colour ●**indigo** *adjective*

indirect /ˌɪndɪ'rekt/ *adjective* **1** NOT CONNECTED not directly caused by or connected with something ***Indirect effects*** *of the fighting include disease and food shortages.* **2** NOT OBVIOUS hidden, or not taken or given in a way that is obvious ***indirect taxes/costs*** ○ *an indirect criticism* **3** NOT STRAIGHT not going straight from one place or person to another *an indirect route* ●**indirectly** *adverb*

ˌindirect ˈobject *noun* [**C**] **LANGUAGE** The indirect object of a verb with two objects is the person or thing that is affected by the result of the action of the verb. In the sentence 'Give Val some cake.', 'Val' is the indirect object. ➲Compare **direct object**

ˌindirect ˈtax *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** a tax charged on goods and services rather than on the money that people earn ➲Compare **direct tax**

indiscreet /ˌɪndɪ'skriːt/ *adjective* saying or doing things which let people know things that should be secret ***indiscreet remarks*** ●**indiscretion** /ˌɪndɪ'skreʃən/ *noun* [**C, U**]

indiscriminate /ˌɪndɪ'skrɪmɪnət/ *adjective* not planned or controlled in a responsible or careful way *the indiscriminate use of pesticides* ●**indiscriminately** *adverb The gunman* ***fired indiscriminately*** *into the crowd.*

indispensable /ˌɪndɪ'spensəbl/ *adjective* completely necessary *an* ***indispensable tool/guide*** ○ *She quickly became* ***indispensable to*** *him.*

indisputable /ˌɪndɪ'spjuːtəbl/ *adjective* obviously and certainly true *an* ***indisputable fact***

indistinct /ˌɪndɪ'stɪŋkt/ *adjective* not clear *His words became indistinct.*

indistinguishable /ˌɪndɪ'stɪŋgwɪʃəbl/ *adjective* impossible to see or hear as different or separate *Many toy pistols are* ***indistinguishable from*** *real guns.*

individual¹ /ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒuəl/ *adjective* **1** SEPARATE [**always before noun**] considered separately from other things in a group *Read out the individual letters of each word.* **2** FOR ONE given to or relating to one particular person or thing *We deal with each case on an* ***individual basis.***

individual² /ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒuəl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SEPARATE a person, especially when considered separately and not as part of a group *We try to treat our students as individuals.* **2** SPECIAL *informal* a person with a special characteristic, usually one you dislike *a ruthless individual*

individualism /ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒuəlɪzəm/ *noun* [**U**] the quality of being different from other people

individualist /ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒuəlɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who likes to behave or do things differently from other people ●**individualistic** /ˌɪndɪˌvɪdʒuə'lɪstɪk/ *adjective* behaving or doing things differently from other people

individuality /ˌɪndɪˌvɪdʒuˈæləti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being different from others *The houses had no character and no individuality.*

individually /ˌɪndɪˈvɪdʒuəli/ *adverb* separately and not as a group *He apologized to each person individually.*

Indo-China /ˌɪndəʊˈtʃaɪnə/ *noun* [U] the area of land between India and China that includes countries like Vietnam

indoctrinate /ɪnˈdɒktrɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone accept your ideas and beliefs by repeating them so often that they do not consider any others *They try to indoctrinate young people with their religious beliefs.* ●**indoctrination** /ɪnˌdɒktrɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] ***political indoctrination***

indoor /ˌɪnˈdɔːʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening, used, or existing in a building *an indoor swimming pool*

indoors /ˌɪnˈdɔːz/ *adverb* into or inside a building *If you're feeling cold, we can go indoors.*

induce /ɪnˈdjuːs/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSUADE *formal* to persuade someone do something [**+ to do sth**] *Nothing would induce me to marry that man!* **2** CAUSE *formal* to cause a particular condition *High doses of the drug may induce depression.* **3 HEALTH** to give a woman a drug to make her have a baby earlier than she would naturally

inducement /ɪnˈdjuːsmənt/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* something that someone offers you to try to persuade you to do something *They offered me more money as an inducement to stay.*

induct /ɪnˈdʌkt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to accept someone officially as a member of an organization *He was **inducted into** the army in 1943.*

induction /ɪnˈdʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** when someone is officially accepted into a new job or an organization *a two-week **induction course*** **2 PHYSICS** the process by which electrical or magnetic forces are passed from one object to another without them touching

indulge /ɪnˈdʌldʒ/ *verb* **1** YOURSELF [I, T] to let yourself do or have something that you enjoy but which may be bad for you *They **indulged in** a bit of gossip.* [**often reflexive**] *Go on, indulge yourself! Have another chocolate.* **2** SOMEONE ELSE [T] to let someone do or have anything they want *Their children are dreadfully indulged.*

indulgence /ɪnˈdʌldʒəns/ *noun* **1** STATE [U] when you eat or drink too much or do anything you want **2** THING [C] something that you do or have because you want to, not because you need it *Silk sheets are one of my indulgences.*

indulgent /ɪnˈdʌldʒənt/ *adjective* If you are indulgent to someone, you give them anything they want and do not mind if they behave badly. *an indulgent father* ●**indulgently** *adverb* *She **smiled indulgently** at her son.* ➲See also: **self-indulgent**

O-key **industrial** /ɪnˈdʌstriəl/ *adjective* **1 ECONOMICS** connected with industry *the **industrial revolution*** **2 GEOGRAPHY** with a lot of factories *an industrial city such as Sheffield*

inˌdustrial ˈaction *noun* [U] **POLITICS** *UK* when workers stop working or do less work because they want better pay or conditions

inˌdustrial esˈtate *UK* (*US* **industrial park**) *noun* [C] an area where there are a lot of factories and businesses

industrialist /ɪnˈdʌstriəlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who owns or has an important position in a large industrial company

industrialization /ɪnˌdʌstriəlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the process of developing industries in a country

industrialized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ɪnˈdʌstriəlaɪzd/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS, GEOGRAPHY** Industrialized countries have a lot of industry. *the **industrialized nations***

inˈdustrial ˌpark *US* (*UK* **industrial estate**) *noun* [C] an area where there are a lot of factories and businesses

inˌdustrial triˈbunal *noun* [C] **LAW** in the UK, a type of law court that decides on disagreements between companies and their workers

industrious /ɪnˈdʌstriəs/ *adjective formal* Industrious people work hard. ●**industriously** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***industry***

an **important/major/thriving** industry ● an industry **booms/grows**

O-key **industry** /ˈɪndəstri/ *noun* **ECONOMICS 1** [U] the production of goods in factories *heavy industry* **2** [C] all the companies involved in a particular type of business *the entertainment industry*

inedible /ɪˈnedɪbl/ *adjective* not suitable for eating *The meat was inedible.*

ineffective /ˌɪnɪˈfektɪv/ *adjective* If something is ineffective, it does not work well. ●**ineffectively** *adverb* ●**ineffectiveness** *noun* [U]

ineffectual /ˌɪnɪˈfektʃuᵊl/ *adjective* Ineffectual people or actions do not achieve much. *a weak and ineffectual president* ●**ineffectually** *adverb*

inefficient /ˌɪnɪˈfɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* Inefficient people or things waste time, money, or effort, and do not achieve as much as they should. *an inefficient heating system* ●**inefficiently** *adverb* ●**inefficiency** /ˌɪnɪˈfɪʃᵊnsi/ *noun* [C, U]

ineligible /ɪˈnelɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* not allowed to do something or have something [**+ to do sth**] *Foreign residents are ineligible to vote.* ○ *Nongraduates are **ineligible for** this position.* ●**ineligibility** /ɪˌnelɪdʒəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

inept /ɪˈnept/ *adjective* unable to do something well *socially inept* ○ *She was totally **inept at** telling jokes.* ●**ineptly** *adverb* ●**ineptitude** /ɪˈneptɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inequality***

gender/racial/social inequality ● inequality **between** sb **and** sb

inequality /ˌɪnɪˈkwɒləti/ *noun* [C, U] **SOCIETY** when some groups in a society have more advantages than others ***inequality between** the sexes*

inequity /ɪˈnekwəti/ *noun* [C, U] when something is unfair, or something that is unfair *inequities in the health care system*

inert /ɪˈnɜːt/ *adjective formal* **1** CHEMISTRY Inert substances do not produce a chemical reaction when another substance is added. *inert gases* **2** not moving *Vanessa **lay inert** on the sofa.* ●**inertly** *adverb*

inertia /ɪˈnɜːʃə/ *noun* [U] **1** NO CHANGE when a situation remains the same or changes very slowly *the inertia of larger organizations* **2** LAZY when you are too lazy to do anything *International inertia could lead to a major disaster in the war zone.* **3** PHYSICS the physical force that keeps something in the same position or moving in the same direction

inescapable /ˌɪnɪˈskeɪpəbl/ *adjective* An inescapable fact cannot be ignored. *Racial discrimination is an **inescapable fact** of life for some people.* ●**inescapably** *adverb*

inevitable /ɪˈnevɪtəbl/ *adjective* **1** If something is inevitable, you cannot avoid or prevent it. [+ **(that)**] *It was inevitable that his crime would be discovered.* **2 the inevitable** something that cannot be prevented *Eventually the inevitable happened and he had a heart attack.* ●**inevitably** *adverb Inevitably, there was a certain amount of fighting between the groups.* ●**inevitability** /ɪˌnevɪtəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

inexcusable /ˌɪnɪkˈskjuːzəbl/ *adjective* Inexcusable behaviour is too bad to be forgiven. *His rudeness was inexcusable.* ●**inexcusably** *adverb*

inexhaustible /ˌɪnɪgˈzɔːstəbl/ *adjective* existing in very large amounts that will never be finished *The Internet is an **inexhaustible source** of information.*

inexorable /ɪˈneksᵊrəbl/ *adjective formal* continuing without any possibility of being stopped *the inexorable progress of civilization* ●**inexorably** *adverb These events **led inexorably** to war.*

inexpensive /ˌɪnɪkˈspensɪv/ *adjective* cheap but of good quality *inexpensive children's clothes*

inexperience /ˌɪnɪkˈspɪəriəns/ *noun* [U] when you do not know how to do something because you have not done it or experienced it much before *The accident was probably caused by the driver's inexperience.*

inexperienced /ˌɪnɪkˈspɪəriənst/ *adjective* without much experience or knowledge of something *Kennedy was young and inexperienced.*

inexplicable /ˌɪnɪkˈsplɪkəbl/ *adjective* so strange or unusual that you cannot understand or explain it *To me his behaviour was quite inexplicable.* ●**inexplicably** *adverb*

inextricably /ˌɪnɪkˈstrɪkəbli/ *adverb* If things are inextricably connected, they are so closely connected that you cannot separate them. *His story is **inextricably linked** with that of his brother.*

infallible /ɪnˈfæləbl/ *adjective* always right, true, or correct *infallible evidence of guilt* ○ *They're experts, but they're not infallible.* ●**infallibility** /ɪnˌfæləˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

infamous /ˈɪnfəməs/ *adjective* famous for being bad *The area became infamous for its slums.*

infancy /ˈɪnfənsi/ *noun* **1** [U] when you are a baby or a very young child *Their fourth child died **in infancy**.* **2 in its infancy** Something that is in its infancy has only just begun to develop. *In the 1950s, space travel was in its infancy.*

infant /ˈɪnfənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* a baby or very young child

infantile /ˈɪnfəntaɪl/ *adjective* behaving like a young child in a way that seems silly *Don't be so infantile.*

infantry /ˈɪnfəntri/ *noun* [U, **group**] soldiers who fight on foot

infatuated /ɪnˈfætjueɪtɪd/ *adjective* If you are infatuated with someone, you feel extremely strongly attracted to them. *As the weeks passed he became totally **infatuated with** her.* ●**infatuation** /ɪnˌfætjuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

infect /ɪnˈfekt/ *verb* [T] **1** HEALTH to give someone a disease [**often passive**] *Thousands of people were **infected with** the virus.* **2** HEALTH If a place, wound, or substance is infected, it contains bacteria or other things that can cause disease. [**often passive**] *The wound became infected.* ○ *infected water/meat* ➲Compare **disinfect** **3** to make other people feel the same way as you do [**often passive**] *They became infected by the general excitement.*

infection /ɪnˈfekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a disease in a part of your body that is caused by bacteria or a virus *an ear/throat infection*

infectious /ɪnˈfekʃəs/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH An infectious disease can be passed from one person to another. **2** Infectious laughter or feelings quickly spread from one person to another. ***infectious enthusiasm***

infer /ɪnˈfɜːʳ/ *verb* [T] **inferring**, *past* **inferred** *formal* to guess that something is true because of the information that you have [+ **(that)**] *I **inferred from** the number of cups that he was expecting visitors.*

inference /ˈɪnfᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [C] *formal* a fact that you decide is true because of the information that you have *What **inferences** can we **draw** from this?*

inferior¹ /ɪnˈfɪəriəʳ/ *adjective* not good, or not so good as someone or something else *I've never felt **inferior to** anyone.* ○ *They're selling inferior products at inflated prices.* ●**inferiority** /ɪnˌfɪəriˈɒrəti/ *noun* [U] when something is not as good as another thing, or when someone feels they are not as good as other people

inferior² /ɪnˈfɪəriəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who is considered to be less important than other people

inferno /ɪnˈfɜːnəʊ/ *noun* [C] *literary* a very large hot fire

infertile /ɪnˈfɜːtaɪl/ (US) /ɪnˈfɜːrtᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BIOLOGY An infertile person or animal cannot have babies. **2** FARMING Infertile land is not good enough for plants to grow well there. ●**infertility** /ˌɪnfəˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U] when a person or piece of land is infertile

infest /ɪnˈfest/ *verb* [T] If insects, animals, weeds (= plants you do not want), etc infest a place, they cause problems by being there in large numbers. [**often passive**] *The hotel was **infested with** cockroaches.*

infidelity /ˌɪnfɪˈdeləti/ *noun* [C, U] when someone who is married or in a relationship has sex with someone who is not their wife, husband, or regular partner

infighting /ˈɪnˌfaɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] arguments between the members of a group ***political infighting***

infiltrate /ˈɪnfɪltreɪt/ *verb* [T] to secretly join a group or organization so that you can learn more about them *A journalist managed to infiltrate the gang of drug dealers.* ●**infiltration** /ˌɪnfɪlˈtreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] ●**infiltrator** *noun* [C]

infinite /ˈɪnfɪnət/ *adjective* **1** GREAT extremely large or great *She took infinite care with the painting.* **2** NO END without limits or without an end *God's power is infinite.*

infinitely /ˈɪnfɪnətli/ *adverb* very or very much *Travel is infinitely more comfortable now than it used to be.*

infinitive /ɪnˈfɪnətɪv/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the basic form of a verb that usually follows 'to'. In the sentence 'She decided to leave.', 'to leave' is an infinitive.

infinity /ɪnˈfɪnəti/ *noun* [U] **1** time or space that has no end **2** **MATHEMATICS** a number that is larger than all other numbers

infirm /ɪnˈfɜːm/ *adjective formal* weak or ill, especially because of being old

infirmary /ɪnˈfɜːmᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** *UK formal* used in the name of some hospitals *Leicester Royal Infirmary* **2** **HEALTH** *mainly US* a room in a school, prison, etc where people go when they are ill

infirmity /ɪnˈfɜːməti/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* **HEALTH** when someone is weak and unhealthy, or the illness they have

inflame /ɪnˈfleɪm/ *verb* [T] to cause or increase strong emotions *These brutal attacks have **inflamed passions** in a peaceful country.*

inflamed /ɪnˈfleɪmd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** If part of your body is inflamed, it is red and often painful and swollen.

inflammable /ɪnˈflæməbl/ *adjective* Inflammable liquids, gases, or materials burn very easily.

inflammation /ˌɪfləˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a red, painful, and often swollen area in or on a part of your body

inflammatory /ɪnˈflæmətᵊri/ *adjective* intended or likely to cause anger or hate ***inflammatory statements/speeches***

inflatable /ɪnˈfleɪtəbl/ *adjective* An inflatable object has to be filled with air before you can use it. *an inflatable boat*

inflate /ɪnˈfleɪt/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to fill something with air or gas, or to become filled with air or gas **2** **ECONOMICS** [T] to make something such as a number, price, etc larger

inflated /ɪnˈfleɪtɪd/ *adjective* Inflated prices, costs, numbers, etc are higher than they should be.

O-K **inflation** /ɪnˈfleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the rate at which prices increase, or a continuing increase in prices *low/rising inflation*

inflationary /ɪnˈfleɪʃᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS** likely to make prices rise

inflection /ɪnˈflekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **LANGUAGE** the way the end of a word changes to show tense, plural forms, etc **2** **LANGUAGE** the way that your voice goes up and down when you speak, for example to show that you are asking a question

inflexible /ɪnˈfleksəbl/ *adjective* **1** NOT CHANGING Inflexible rules, opinions, beliefs, etc do not change easily. *a cold and inflexible man* **2** STIFF Inflexible materials do not bend easily. ●**inflexibility** /ɪnˌfleksəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

inflict /ɪnˈflɪkt/ *verb* [T] to make someone suffer by doing something unpleasant to them *I would never have **inflicted** such suffering **on** you.*

in-flight /ˈɪnˌflaɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening or available during a flight ***in-flight entertainment***

inflorescence /ˌɪflɔːˈresᵊnts/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [C] in a plant, a flower or group of flowers on the stem, or the way they are arranged **2** **BIOLOGY** [U] the formation of buds and flowers on a plant

inflow /ˈɪfləʊ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money coming into a business

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***influence***

exert/have/wield influence ● **bad/considerable** / **disruptive** / **good** / **powerful** influence ● influence **on/over** sb/sth ● be **under** the influence **of** sb/sth

O-K **influence**[1] /ˈɪnfluəns/ *noun* **1** POWER [C, U] the power to affect how someone thinks or behaves, or how something develops *The drug companies have a lot of **influence on** doctors.* **2** PERSON/THING [C] someone or something that has an effect on another person or thing *His grandfather was a strong **influence on** him.*

O-K **influence**[2] /ˈɪnfluəns/ *verb* [T] to affect or change how someone or something develops, behaves, or thinks *Many factors influence a film's success.* [**often passive**] *Were you influenced by anybody when you were starting your career?*

influential /ˌɪnfluˈenʃᵊl/ *adjective* having a lot of influence *an **influential figure** in modern jazz*

influenza /ˌɪnfluˈenzə/ *noun* [U] *formal* **HEALTH** flu (= an illness like a very bad cold, that makes you feel hot and weak)

influx /ˈɪnflʌks/ *noun* [C] the arrival of a lot of people or things at the same time [**usually no plural**] *The 1990s saw an **influx of** foreign players into British football.*

info /ˈɪnfəʊ/ *noun* [U] *informal short for* information

inform /ɪnˈfɔːm/ *verb* [T] **1** TELL to tell someone about something *If he calls me again, I shall inform the police.* [**+ (that)**] *He informed us that we would have to leave.* **2** GIVE INFORMATION to give someone information about something [**often passive**] *Patients should be **informed about** the risks.* ○ *He keeps his parents **informed of** his whereabouts.*
inform against/on sb *phrasal verb* to tell the

police about something illegal that someone has done

informal /ɪnˈfɔːmᵊl/ *adjective* **1** FRIENDLY relaxed and friendly *an **informal discussion/meeting*** **2** ORDINARY suitable for normal situations *informal clothes* ●**informality** /ˌɪnfɔːˈmæləti/ *noun* [U] ●**informally** *adverb*

informant /ɪnˈfɔːmənt/ *noun* [C] someone who gives information to another person *Our survey is based on over 200 informants.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***information***

The plural noun **details** is often used to describe facts or pieces of information grouped together: *Please send me **details** of your training courses.*

The plural nouns **directions** and **instructions** are often used to talk about information which describes how to do something: *Just follow the **directions/instructions** on the label.*

The plural noun **directions** is also used to mean 'information about how to get to a place': *We had to stop and ask for **directions**.*

The noun **data** is sometimes used to describe information in the form of facts and numbers: *Our consultants have been collecting financial **data**.*

Written information about a subject is sometimes described as **literature**: *Some **literature** on our current policy is enclosed.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***information***

accurate/confidential/detailed/further/useful information ● **access/exchange/gather/give/need/provide** information ● information **about/on** sth

information /ˌɪnfəˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] facts about a situation, person, event, etc *a vital **piece of information*** ○ *Police are urging anyone with **information about** the crime to contact them.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

information

Remember you cannot make **information** plural. Do not say 'informations'.

Could you send me some information about your courses?

For more information contact our office.

That's the only piece of information we've been able to find out.

infor,mation techˈnology *noun* [U] COMPUTING (*abbreviation* **IT**) the use of computers and other electronic equipment to store and send information

informative /ɪnˈfɔːmətɪv/ *adjective* containing a lot of useful facts *a very informative lecture*

informed /ɪnˈfɔːmd/ *adjective* having a lot of information or knowledge about something *an **informed choice/decision*** ➲See also: **well-informed**

informer /ɪnˈfɔːməʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who secretly gives information to the police about a crime

infraction /ɪnˈfrækʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* **LAW** when someone breaks a rule or the law

infrared /ˌɪnfrəˈred/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** Infrared light feels warm but cannot be seen.

infrastructure /ˈɪnfrəˌstrʌktʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** the basic systems, such as transport and communication, that a country or organization uses in order to work effectively [**usually singular**] *The country's infrastructure is in ruins.*

infrequent /ɪnˈfriːkwənt/ *adjective* not happening very often ●**infrequently** *adverb*

infringe /ɪnˈfrɪndʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** BREAK LAW *formal* to break a law or rule *They infringed building regulations.* **2** LIMIT (*also* **infringe on**) to limit someone's rights or freedom *This law infringes on a citizen's right to bear arms.* ●**infringement** *noun* [C, U] *an infringement of copyright*

infuriate /ɪnˈfjʊərieɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone very angry *What really infuriated me was the fact that he'd lied.* ●**infuriating** *adjective* extremely annoying

infuse /ɪnˈfjuːz/ *verb* **1** [T] *formal* to fill someone or something with a lot of a particular emotion or quality [**often passive**] *His work is **infused with** a love for tradition.* **2** **FOOD** [I, T] to put something into a liquid so that its taste goes into the liquid

infusion /ɪnˈfjuːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when one thing is added to another thing to make it stronger or better *an infusion of cash*

ingenious /ɪnˈdʒiːniəs/ *adjective* very clever and involving new ideas, equipment, or methods *an **ingenious idea/scheme/solution*** ●**ingeniously** *adverb*

ingenuity /ˌɪndʒɪˈnjuːəti/ *noun* [U] skill at inventing things or finding new ways to solve problems

ingest /ɪnˈdʒest/ *verb* [T] *formal* to eat or drink something ●**ingestion** *noun* [U]

ingrained /ɪnˈgreɪnd/ *adjective* **1** BELIEFS Ingrained beliefs, behaviour, problems, etc have existed for a long time and are difficult to change. *For most of us, watching television is a deeply **ingrained habit**.* **2** DIRT Ingrained dirt has got under the surface of something and is difficult to remove.

ingratiate /ɪnˈgreɪʃieɪt/ *verb* **ingratiate yourself (with sb)** to try to make people like you by doing things to please them ●**ingratiating** *adjective* Ingratiating behaviour is done to try to make people like you. *an **ingratiating smile/manner***

ingratitude /ɪnˈgrætɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] when someone is not grateful for something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ingredient***

a **basic/essential/vital** ingredient ● an ingredient **in/of** sth

ingredient /ɪnˈgriːdiənt/ *noun* [C] **1** **FOOD** one of the different foods that a particular type of food is made from **2** one of the parts of something successful *Trust is an **essential ingredient** in a successful marriage.*

inhabit /ɪnˈhæbɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to live in a place [**often passive**] *an area inhabited by artists and writers*

inhabitant /ɪnˈhæbɪtᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone who lives in a particular place *a city with 10 million inhabitants*

inhabited /ɪnˈhæbɪtɪd/ *adjective* An inhabited place or building has people living in it. *Is the island inhabited?*

inhale /ɪnˈheɪl/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* **1** BIOLOGY to breathe air, smoke, or gas into your lungs **2** *US informal* to eat something very quickly *Slow down, you're inhaling that pizza!*

inherent /ɪnˈherᵊnt/ *adjective* existing as a natural and basic part of something *The desire for freedom is **inherent in** all people.* ●**inherently** *adverb There's nothing inherently wrong with his ideas.*

inherit /ɪnˈherɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** FROM DEAD PERSON to receive possessions or money from someone who has died *In 1842 he inherited a small estate near Liverpool.* **2** BIOLOGY to have the same physical or mental characteristics as one of your parents or grandparents *Miranda has inherited her father's red hair.* **3** PROBLEM If you inherit a problem, situation, or belief, it is passed on to you by someone who had it before. *The mayor will inherit a city hopelessly in debt.*

inheritance /ɪnˈherɪtᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] money or possessions that someone gives you when they die *Nick has sold off much of his inheritance.*

inhibit /ɪnˈhɪbɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** SLOW GROWTH to make the progress or growth of something slower *a product which inhibits the growth of harmful bacteria* **2** PERSON to make it more difficult for someone to do something *Their threats **inhibited** witnesses **from** giving evidence.*

inhibited /ɪnˈhɪbɪtɪd/ *adjective* not confident enough to say or do what you want

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inhibition***

have no inhibitions about doing sth ● **lose** your inhibitions

inhibition /ˌɪnhɪˈbɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a feeling of embarrassment or worry that prevents you from saying or doing what you want *The whole point about dancing is to **lose** all **your inhibitions**.*

inhospitable /ˌɪnhɒsˈpɪtəbl/ *adjective* **1** PLACE An inhospitable place is not pleasant or easy to live in because it is too hot, cold, etc. *the world's most inhospitable deserts* **2** PERSON not friendly towards people who are visiting you

in-house /ˌɪnˈhaʊs/ *adjective, adverb* done in the offices of a company or organization by employees of that company *in-house training of staff*

inhuman /ɪnˈhjuːmən/ *adjective* extremely cruel *the inhuman treatment of prisoners*

inhumane /ˌɪnhjuːˈmeɪn/ *adjective* treating people or animals in a cruel way *inhumane experiments on monkeys* ●**inhumanely** *adverb*

inhumanity /ˌɪnhjuːˈmænəti/ *noun* [U] extremely cruel behaviour *the inhumanity of war*

initial¹ /ɪˈnɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] first, or happening at the beginning *My initial reaction was one of anger.*

initial² /ɪˈnɪʃᵊl/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE the first letter of a name [**usually plural**] *His initials are S.G.M.*

initial³ /ɪˈnɪʃᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **initialling**, *past* **initialled**, *US* **initialing**, *past* **initialed** to write your initials on something

initialize /ɪˈnɪʃᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to make a computer program ready to use

initially /ɪˈnɪʃᵊli/ *adverb* at the beginning *The situation was worse than they initially thought.*

initiate /ɪˈnɪʃieɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** START to make something begin [**often passive**] *The reforms were initiated by Gorbachev.* **2** JOIN to make someone a member of a group or organization in a special ceremony, or to show someone how to do an activity *At the age of 50, he was **initiated into** the priesthood.* ●**initiation** /ɪˌnɪʃiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

initiative /ɪˈnɪʃətɪv/ *noun* **1** ACTION [C] a plan or activity that is done to solve a problem or improve a situation *a **new** government **initiative** to reduce crime* **2** ABILITY [U] the ability to make decisions and do things without needing to be told what to do *We need someone who can work **on their own initiative*** (= without anyone telling them what to do). **3 take the initiative** to be the first person to do something that solves a problem or improves a situation *Jackson had taken the initiative and prepared a report.*

inject /ɪnˈdʒekt/ *verb* [T] **1** HEALTH to put a drug into someone's body using a needle *Phil's diabetic and has to **inject** himself **with** insulin every day.* **2** IMPROVE to add a good quality to something *The new teacher has **injected** a bit of enthusiasm **into** the school.* **3** MONEY to provide a large amount of money for a plan, service, organization, etc *The government plans to **inject** £100 million **into** schools.*

injection /ɪnˈdʒekʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C, U] when someone puts a drug into your body using a needle *an injection of insulin* **2** [C] when a large amount of money is provided for a plan, service, organization, etc *The university has welcomed the $5 million **cash injection**.*

inˈjection ˌmoulding *UK* (*US* **injection molding**) *noun* [U] DT a process used for making plastic objects, in which melted plastic is forced into metal shapes and left until it is hard

injunction /ɪnˈdʒʌŋkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] LAW an official order from a court that prevents someone from doing something *The courts have **issued an injunction** to prevent the book from being published.*

injure /ˈɪndʒəʳ/ *verb* [T] to hurt a person, animal, or part of your body *She injured her ankle when she fell.*

injured /ˈɪndʒəd/ *adjective* hurt *Fortunately, no one was **seriously injured** in the accident.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***injury***

a **fatal/major/minor/serious** injury ● **cause/prevent/receive/recover from/suffer** an injury ● an injury **to** sth

injury /ˈɪndʒᵊri/ *noun* [C, U] damage to someone's body in an accident or attack *head injuries* ○ *The passenger in the car escaped with* ***minor injuries***. ➲See also: add **insult**² to injury

injustice /ɪnˈdʒʌstɪs/ *noun* [C, U] a situation or action in which people are treated unfairly *the fight against racial injustice*

ink /ɪŋk/ *noun* [C, U] a coloured liquid that you use for writing, printing, or drawing

ink-jet printer

ink-jet printer /ˈɪŋkdʒetˌprɪntᵊ/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING an electronic printer which blows ink onto paper using very small jets (= small openings which push out liquid)

inkling /ˈɪŋklɪŋ/ *noun* **have an inkling** to think that something might be true or might happen *She* ***had*** *absolutely no* ***inkling*** *that we were planning the party.*

inland¹ /ˈɪnlənd/ *adjective* [always before noun] GEOGRAPHY Inland areas, lakes, towns, etc are a long way from the coast.

inland² /ˈɪnlænd/ *adverb* GEOGRAPHY towards the middle of a country and away from the coast

in-laws /ˈɪnlɔːz/ *noun* [plural] *informal* the parents of your husband or wife, or other people in their family

inlet /ˈɪnlet/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a narrow part of a sea, river, or lake where it flows into a curve in the land

ˌin-line ˈskate *noun* [C] SPORT (*also* **rollerblades** [plural]) a boot with a single line of wheels on the bottom, used for moving across the ground ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

inmate /ˈɪnmeɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who lives in a prison or in a hospital for people with mental illnesses

inn /ɪn/ *noun* [C] a small hotel in the countryside

innate /ɪˈneɪt/ *adjective* An innate quality or ability is one that you were born with, not one you have learned. *He has an innate desire to win.* ●**innately** *adverb*

inner /ˈɪnᵊ/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** INSIDE on the inside, or near the middle of something *The monastery is built around an inner courtyard.* ➲Opposite **outer 2** PRIVATE Inner feelings, thoughts, etc are ones that you do not show or tell other people. *a profound sense of inner peace*

ˌinner ˈcircle *noun* [C] the small group of people who control an organization, political party, etc *The statement was made by a member of the President's inner circle.*

ˌinner ˈcity *noun* [C] SOCIETY the part of a city that is closest to the centre, often where buildings are in a bad condition and there are social problems *a plan to tackle rising crime in inner cities* ●**inner-city** /ˈɪnəˌsɪti/ *adjective* [always before noun] *inner-city schools*

innermost /ˈɪnəməʊst/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** FEELINGS Your innermost feelings, thoughts, etc are the most private ones that you do not want other people to know about. **2** INSIDE *formal* closest to the middle of something

inning /ˈɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [C] SPORT one of the nine playing periods in a baseball game

innings /ˈɪnɪŋz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **innings** SPORT the period of time in a game of cricket when one player or one team hits the ball

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***innocence***

proclaim/protest/prove sb's innocence

innocence /ˈɪnəsᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** NOT GUILTY when someone is not guilty of a crime *She fought to* ***prove*** *her son's* ***innocence***. **2** NOT EXPERIENCED when someone does not have much experience of life and does not know about the bad things that happen *the innocence of childhood*

innocent /ˈɪnəsᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT GUILTY not guilty of committing a crime *He claims to be* ***innocent of*** *the crime.* **2** NO EXPERIENCE not having much experience of life and not knowing about the bad things that happen *an innocent young woman* **3** NOT DESERVED used to emphasize that someone who was hurt had done nothing wrong *Several innocent civilians were killed in the bombing.* **4** NOT INTENDED TO HARM not intended to harm or upset anyone *It was an innocent mistake.* ●**innocently** *adverb*

innocuous /ɪˈnɒkjuəs/ *adjective* not likely to upset or harm anyone *The parcel looked innocuous enough.* ●**innocuously** *adverb*

innovation /ˌɪnəʊˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a new idea or method that is being tried for the first time, or the use of such ideas or methods *the latest innovations in education*

innovative /ˈɪnəvətɪv/ (US) /ˈɪnəveɪtɪv/ *adjective* using new methods or ideas *an* ***innovative approach*** *to programme making*

innovator /ˈɪnəveɪtᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who uses or designs new methods or products

innuendo /ˌɪnjuˈendəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **innuendoes** or **innuendos** a remark that intentionally suggests something about sex, or something unpleasant about someone, without saying it directly *The advertisement was criticized for its* ***sexual innuendo***.

innumerable /ɪˈnjuːmᵊrəbl/ *adjective* very many, or too many to count *innumerable problems*

inoffensive /ˌɪnəˈfensɪv/ *adjective* not likely to upset anyone or make them angry *an inoffensive colour*

inordinate /ɪˈnɔːdɪnət/ *adjective formal* much more than is usual or suitable *James seems to spend an* ***inordinate amount*** *of time on his computer.* ●**inordinately** *adverb*

inorganic /ˌɪnɔːˈgænɪk/ *adjective* CHEMISTRY not being or consisting of living things *inorganic waste*

ˌinorganic ˈchemistry *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the scientific study of chemical substances which do not contain carbon

in-patient /ˈɪnˌpeɪʃᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone who stays in hospital for one or more nights while they are receiving treatment

input¹ /ˈɪnpʊt/ *noun* **1** IDEAS [C, U] ideas, money, effort, etc that you put into an activity or process in order to help it succeed *Input from students is used to develop new and exciting courses.* **2** ELECTRICAL [C, U] electrical energy that is put into a machine to make it work **3** **COMPUTING** [U] information that is put into a computer

input² /ˈɪnpʊt/ *verb* [T] **inputting**, *past* **inputted** or **input** **COMPUTING** to put information into a computer

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inquest***

hold an inquest ● an inquest **into** sth

inquest /ˈɪŋkwest/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a legal process to discover the cause of an unexpected death *There will be an **inquest into** the deaths of the three men.*

inquire *formal* (*also UK* **enquire**) /ɪnˈkwaɪəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to ask someone for information about something *If you like languages, why don't you **inquire about** French classes in your area?* [+ **question word**] *Vronsky inquired whether the picture was for sale.* ●**inquirer** (*also UK* **enquirer**) *noun* [C]
inquire after sb *phrasal verb UK formal* to ask someone for information about someone else's health and what they are doing, in order to be polite *Jane inquired after your mother.*
inquire into sth *phrasal verb formal* to try to discover the facts about something *a report inquiring into the causes of the region's housing problem*

inquiring (*also UK* **enquiring**) /ɪnˈkwaɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** INTERESTED always wanting to learn new things *an **inquiring mind*** **2** EXPRESSION An inquiring expression on your face shows that you want to know something. ●**inquiringly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inquiry***

make/receive an inquiry ● an inquiry **about** sth

inquiry (*also UK* **enquiry**) /ɪnˈkwaɪəri/ *noun* **1** QUESTION [C] *formal* a question that you ask when you want more information *The company has received a lot of **inquiries about** its new Internet service.* **2** **POLITICS** [C] an official process to discover the facts about something bad that has happened *There will be an official **inquiry into** the train crash.* **3** ASKING QUESTIONS [U] *formal* the process of asking questions in order to get information

inquisitive /ɪnˈkwɪzətɪv/ *adjective* wanting to discover as much as you can about things *an inquisitive child* ●**inquisitively** *adverb* ●**inquisitiveness** *noun* [U]

inroads /ˈɪnrəʊdz/ *noun* **make inroads (into/on sth)** to start to become successful by getting sales, power, votes, etc that someone else had before *Women have made great inroads into the male-dominated legal profession.*

the ˌins and ˈouts *noun* all the details and facts about something *Tolya is someone who knows **the ins and outs of** the music industry.*

insane /ɪnˈseɪn/ *adjective* **1** ILL seriously mentally ill *a hospital for the **criminally insane*** **2** STUPID very silly or stupid *an insane decision* ●**insanely** *adverb*

insanity /ɪnˈsænəti/ *noun* [U] **1** **HEALTH** when someone is seriously mentally ill **2** STUPID when something is extremely stupid *It would be insanity to expand the business at the moment.*

insatiable /ɪnˈseɪʃəbl/ *adjective* always wanting more of something *There was an **insatiable demand** for pictures of Princess Diana.* ●**insatiably** *adverb*

inscribe /ɪnˈskraɪb/ *verb* [T] *formal* to write words in a book or cut them on an object [**often passive**] *The child's bracelet was inscribed with the name 'Amy'.*

inscription /ɪnˈskrɪpʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] words that are written or cut in something *The inscription on the gravestone was almost illegible.*

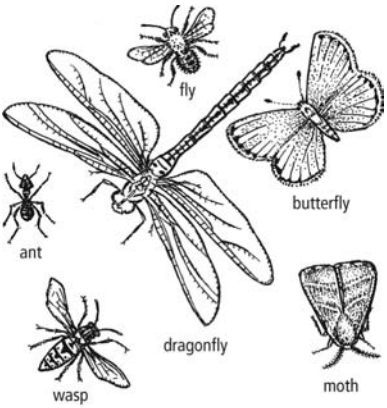

insects

O-K **insect** /ˈɪnsekt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a small creature with six legs, for example a bee or a fly

insecticide /ɪnˈsektɪsaɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **FARMING** a chemical that is used for killing insects

insecure /ˌɪnsɪˈkjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** WORRIED having no confidence in yourself and what you can do *a shy, insecure teenager* **2** NOT SAFE not safe or protected *Many of our staff are worried because their jobs are insecure.* ●**insecurely** *adverb* ●**insecurity** /ˌɪnsɪˈkjʊərəti/ *noun* [U]

insensitive /ɪnˈsensətɪv/ *adjective* **1** PEOPLE not noticing or not caring about other people's feelings *an **insensitive remark*** ○ *He was completely **insensitive to** Maria's feelings.* **2** PAIN not able to feel something, or not affected by it *She was **insensitive to** the pain.* ●**insensitively** *adverb* ●**insensitivity** /ɪnˌsensəˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U]

inseparable /ɪnˈsepᵊrəbl/ *adjective* **1** THINGS *formal* Two things that are inseparable are so closely connected that you cannot consider

them separately. *Rossetti's work was **inseparable from** his life.* **2** FRIENDS People who are inseparable are always together because they are such good friends. ●**inseparably** *adverb*

insert¹ /ɪnˈsɜːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** PUT INTO to put something into something else *Insert the coin in the slot.* **2** ADD TO WRITING to add something to the middle of a document or piece of writing *He inserted a new paragraph.* ●**insertion** /ɪnˈsɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

insert² /ˈɪnsɜːt/ *noun* [C] something that is made to go inside or into something else *The leaflet is designed as an insert for a magazine.*

inshore /ˌɪnˈʃɔːʳ/ *adjective, adverb* GEOGRAPHY near or towards the coast *inshore waters*

inside¹ /ˌɪnˈsaɪd/ *noun* **1 the inside** the part of something that is under its surface *I cleaned the inside of the oven.* **2 inside out** If a piece of clothing is inside out, the part that is usually outside is on the inside. *Harry, you've got your sweater on inside out again.* **3 know sth inside out** to know everything about something

inside² /ˌɪnˈsaɪd/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] in or on the part of something under its surface *Put your wallet in the inside pocket of your jacket.* **2 inside information/knowledge, etc** information that is only known by people who are part of an organization, group, etc

inside³ /ˌɪnˈsaɪd/ *preposition* **1** CONTAINER in or into a room, building, container, etc *There were some keys inside the box.* ○ *Luckily, no one was inside the house when the fire started.* **2** TIME in less than a particular length of time *The doctor's promised to be here inside an hour.* **3** ORGANIZATION in an organization, group, etc and not known or happening outside it *rumours of disputes inside the company*

inside⁴ /ˌɪnˈsaɪd/ *adverb* **1** CONTAINER in or into a room, building, container, etc *I'm freezing, let's go back inside.* **2** FEELING If you have a feeling inside, people do not know about it if you do not tell them. *She looked calm but was feeling nervous inside.* **3** PRISON *informal* in prison

insider /ɪnˈsaɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who knows about a business or organization because they are part of it *Industry insiders say they are surprised by the company's success.* ➲Compare **outsider**

insides /ˌɪnˈsaɪdz/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* your stomach

insidious /ɪnˈsɪdiəs/ *adjective* having harmful effects that happen gradually so you do not notice them for a long time *the **insidious effects** of pollution* ●**insidiously** *adverb* ●**insidiousness** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***insight***

gain/give/provide an insight **into** sth ● a **fascinating/rare/unique/valuable** insight

insight /ˈɪnsaɪt/ *noun* [C, U] the ability to understand what something is really like, or an example of this *The book **provides** a fascinating **insight into** the world of art.*

insignia /ɪnˈsɪgniə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **insignia** a piece of cloth or a symbol that shows someone's military rank or official position

insignificant /ˌɪnsɪgˈnɪfɪkᵊnt/ *adjective* not important or large enough to consider or worry about *insignificant differences* ●**insignificance** /ˌɪnsɪgˈnɪfɪkᵊns/ *noun* [U] ●**insignificantly** *adverb*

insincere /ˌɪnsɪnˈsɪəʳ/ *adjective* pretending to feel something that you do not really feel, or not meaning what you say *an insincere apology* ●**insincerely** *adverb* ●**insincerity** /ˌɪnsɪnˈserəti/ *noun* [U]

insinuate /ɪnˈsɪnjueɪt/ *verb* [T] to suggest that something bad is true without saying it directly [+ **that**] *She insinuated that Perez had lied.* ●**insinuation** /ɪnˌsɪnjuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

insipid /ɪnˈsɪpɪd/ *adjective* not interesting, exciting, or colourful *a dull, insipid man* ○ *The soup was rather insipid.* ●**insipidly** *adverb*

insist /ɪnˈsɪst/ *verb* [I, T] **1** SAY to say firmly that something is true, especially when other people do not believe you [+ **(that)**] *Mia insisted that she and Carlo were just friends.* **2** DEMAND to demand that something must be done or that you must have a particular thing *The school **insists on** good behaviour from its students.* [+ **on + doing sth**] *Frank insisted on doing all the work himself.* [+ **(that)**] *Gerlinde insisted that I stay for dinner.*

insistence /ɪnˈsɪstᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** DEMAND when you demand that something must be done or that you must have a particular thing [+ **that**] *his insistence that his children should have a good education* ○ *Clare's **insistence on** a vegetarian diet caused arguments with her mother.* **2** SAYING SOMETHING IS TRUE when you say firmly that something is true, especially when other people do not believe you [+ **that**] *Jane was in trouble despite her insistence that she had done nothing wrong.*

insistent /ɪnˈsɪstᵊnt/ *adjective* firmly saying that something is true or must be done [+ **that**] *Pedro is absolutely insistent that Sinda should be invited too.* ●**insistently** *adverb*

insofar as /ɪnsəʊˈfɑːrˌəz/ *conjunction formal* to the degree that *The story is based insofar as possible on notes made by Scott himself.*

insolation /ˌɪnsəʊˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY, ASTRONOMY the amount of sun falling on an object or a planet

insolent /ˈɪnsᵊlənt/ *adjective formal* rude and not showing respect *an insolent reply* ●**insolence** /ˈɪnsᵊlᵊns/ *noun* [U] ●**insolently** *adverb*

insoluble /ɪnˈsɒljəbl/ *adjective* **1** An insoluble problem, mystery, etc is impossible to solve. **2** CHEMISTRY An insoluble substance does not dissolve when you put it in liquid.

insomnia /ɪnˈsɒmniə/ *noun* [U] HEALTH when you find it difficult to sleep ●**insomniac** /ɪnˈsɒmniæk/ *noun* [C] someone who often finds it difficult to sleep

inspect /ɪnˈspekt/ *verb* [T] **1** OFFICIALLY VISIT to officially visit a building or organization, in order to check that everything is correct and legal *Schools will be inspected regularly to maintain standards.* **2** LOOK AT to look at something very carefully *Clara inspected her make-up in the mirror.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***inspection***

carry out an inspection ● an inspection **of** sth

inspection /ɪnˈspekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** OFFICIAL an official visit to a building or organization to check that everything is correct and legal *Fire officers **carried out an inspection** of the building.* **2** EXAMINATION when you look at something carefully ***On closer inspection*** (= when looked at more carefully), *the painting was discovered to be a fake.*

inspector /ɪnˈspektəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFICIAL someone whose job is to check that things are being done correctly *a factory inspector* **2** **LAW** a police officer of middle rank

inspiration /ˌɪnspᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** GIVES IDEAS [C, U] someone or something that gives you ideas for doing something *Africa has long been a source of **inspiration for** his painting.* **2** GOOD IDEA [C] a sudden good idea about what you should do **3 be an inspiration to sb** to be so good that someone else admires you and is encouraged by your behaviour *The way she has dealt with her illness is an inspiration to us all.* **4** [U] **BIOLOGY** the act of breathing in

inspire /ɪnˈspaɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** ENCOURAGE to make someone feel that they want to do something and can do it [+ **to do sth**] *A drama teacher at school had inspired Sam to become an actor.* **2** FEELING to make someone have a particular feeling or reaction *Robson's first task will be to **inspire** his team **with** some confidence.* ○ *He **inspires** great loyalty **in** his staff.* **3** PROVIDE IDEA to give someone an idea for a book, play, painting, etc [**often passive**] *a television drama that was inspired by a true story* ●**inspiring** *adjective* giving you new ideas and making you feel you want to do something *an inspiring teacher* ○ *an inspiring book*

inspired /ɪnˈspaɪəd/ *adjective* showing a lot of skill and good ideas *an inspired performance*

instability /ˌɪnstəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] when a situation or someone's behaviour changes a lot and you do not know what will happen next

install (*also UK* **instal**) /ɪnˈstɔːl/ *verb* **1** [T] EQUIPMENT to put a piece of equipment somewhere and make it ready to use *The school has installed a burglar alarm.* **2** [T] PERSON to give someone an important and powerful job *She will be **installed as** Managing Director in May.* **3** **COMPUTING** [T, I] to put software onto a computer ●**installation** /ˌɪnstəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

instalment *UK* (*US* **installment**) /ɪnˈstɔːlmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** **FINANCE** a regular payment that you make, for example each month, in order to pay for something *You can pay for your computer **in** six monthly **instalments**.* **2** one of the parts of a story that you can see every day or week in a magazine or on television *Don't miss next week's exciting instalment.*

instance /ˈɪnstəns/ *noun* **1 for instance** for example *Many teenagers earn money, for instance by babysitting or cleaning cars.* **2** [C] an example of a particular type of event, situation, or behaviour *There have been several **instances of** violence in the school.*

O-➡**instant¹** /ˈɪnstənt/ *adjective* **1** happening immediately *The book was an **instant success** in the US.* **2** **FOOD** Instant food or drink is dried, usually in the form of a powder, and can be made quickly by adding hot water. ***instant coffee*** ➲See also: **instant replay**

instant² /ˈɪnstənt/ *noun* [C] a moment *Take a seat, I'll be with you in an instant.*

instantaneous /ˌɪnstənˈteɪniəs/ *adjective* happening immediately *The Internet offers almost instantaneous access to vast amounts of information.* ●**instantaneously** *adverb*

instantly /ˈɪnstəntli/ *adverb* immediately *A car hit them, killing them both instantly.*

instant messaging /ˌɪnstənt ˈmesɪdʒɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** a system on the Internet which makes it possible to send messages quickly between two people using the system

ˌinstant ˈreplay *US* (*UK* **action replay**) *noun* [C] when part of a film of a sporting event is shown again, often more slowly

O-➡**instead** /ɪnˈsted/ *adverb* in the place of someone or something else *If you don't want pizza, we can have pasta instead.* ○ *I'm going swimming on Monday **instead of** Friday now.* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *Why don't you help instead of just complaining?*

instigate /ˈɪnstɪgeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something start to happen *Carolyn had instigated divorce proceedings.* ●**instigation** /ˌɪnstɪˈgeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] ●**instigator** *noun* [C]

instil *UK* (*US* **instill**) /ɪnˈstɪl/ *verb* [T] **instilling**, *past* **instilled** to make someone have a particular feeling or idea *He's a manager with great skill at **instilling** confidence **in/into** his players.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***instinct***

follow/trust your instincts ● instinct **tells** sb sth ● sb's **first/gut** instinct

instinct /ˈɪnstɪŋkt/ *noun* [C, U] the way someone naturally reacts or behaves, without having to think or learn about it [+ **to do sth**] *a mother's instinct to protect her children*

instinctive /ɪnˈstɪŋktɪv/ *adjective* behaving or reacting naturally and without thinking *Her **instinctive response** was to fight back.* ●**instinctively** *adverb*

institute¹ /ˈɪnstɪtjuːt/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** an organization where people do a particular kind of scientific, educational, or social work *the Massachusetts Institute of Technology*

institute² /ˈɪnstɪtjuːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to start a plan, law, system, etc *Major reforms were instituted in the company's finance department.*

institution /ˌɪnstɪˈtjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** ORGANIZATION a large and important organization, such as a university or bank *one of the country's top medical institutions* **2** PLACE a building where people are sent so they can be looked after, for example a prison or hospital **3** TRADITION a custom that has existed for a long time *the institution of marriage* ●**institutional** *adjective* relating to an institution

instruct /ɪnˈstrʌkt/ *verb* [T] **1** ORDER to officially tell someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Staff are instructed not to use the telephones for personal calls.* **2** TEACH *formal* to teach someone

about something *She is there to **instruct** people **in** the safe use of the gym equipment.*

instruction /ɪnˈstrʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ORDER/DEMAND [C] something that you have been told to do [+ **to do sth**] *I had **strict instructions** to call them as soon as I arrived home.* **2** TEACHING [U] *formal* the activity of teaching or training someone, or the information you are being taught *religious instruction*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***instructions***

follow the instructions ● **give** instructions ● **detailed/full** instructions ● instructions **on** sth

instructions /ɪnˈstrʌkʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] information that explains how to do or use something *Are there any **instructions on** how to load the software?* ○ *I just **followed the instructions**.*

ˈinstruction ˌset *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a list of all the instructions that a computer processor (= part that controls all the other parts) can do

instructive /ɪnˈstrʌktɪv/ *adjective* providing useful information *an instructive discussion* ●**instructively** *adverb*

instructor /ɪnˈstrʌktəʳ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** someone who teaches a particular sport or activity *a **driving instructor***

instrument /ˈɪnstrəmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** TOOL a tool that is used for doing something *scientific instruments* **2** **MUSIC** an object that is used for playing music, for example a piano or drum **3** EQUIPMENT a piece of equipment that is used for measuring speed, light, fuel level, etc **4** FOR ACHIEVING SOMETHING someone or something that is used for achieving something *The Internet is a very powerful instrument of communication.* ➲See also: **wind instrument**

instrumental /ˌɪnstrəˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* **1 be instrumental in sth/doing sth** to be one of the main people or things that make something happen *Mikan was instrumental in establishing professional basketball in the US.* **2** **MUSIC** involving only musical instruments, and no singing

insubordinate /ˌɪnsəˈbɔːdᵊnət/ *adjective* not willing to obey rules or people in authority ●**insubordination** /ˌɪnsəˌbɔːdɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

insubstantial /ˌɪnsəbˈstænʃᵊl/ *adjective* not very large, strong, or good *The meal was rather insubstantial.*

insufferable /ɪnˈsʌfᵊrəbl/ *adjective* extremely annoying or unpleasant *insufferable arrogance* ●**insufferably** *adverb*

insufficient /ˌɪnsəˈfɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* not enough *insufficient information* [+ **to do sth**] *Her income is insufficient to support a family.* ●**insufficiently** *adverb*

insular /ˈɪnsjələʳ/ *adjective* only interested in your own country, life, etc and not willing to accept new ideas or people ●**insularity** /ˌɪnsjəˈlærəti/ *noun* [U]

insulate /ˈɪnsjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** COVER to cover something with a special material so that heat, electricity, or sound cannot escape through it **2** PROTECT to protect someone from unpleasant experiences or bad influences *parents who want to insulate their children from real life*

insulation /ˌɪnsjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** MATERIAL a special material used for insulating something such as a wall, roof, or building **2** PROCESS/CONDITION when you insulate something, or when something is insulated

insulator /ˈɪnsjəleɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] material or a device that stops heat, electricity or sound coming through

insulin /ˈɪnsjəlɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance produced by the body that controls the amount of sugar in your blood

insult¹ /ɪnˈsʌlt/ *verb* [T] to say or do something to someone that is rude and offensive *How dare you insult me in front of my friends!* ●**insulting** *adjective* rude and offensive *an insulting remark*

insult² /ˈɪnsʌlt/ *noun* [C] **1** a rude and offensive remark or action *They were shouting insults at each other.* ○ *His comments are **an insult to** the victims of the war.* **2 add insult to injury** to make someone's bad situation worse by doing something else to upset them

insupportable /ˌɪnsəˈpɔːtəbl/ *adjective formal* too bad or unpleasant to deal with or accept

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***insurance***

take out insurance ● insurance **against** [sickness/fire, etc] ● an insurance **company/policy/premium** ● **car/travel** insurance

insurance /ɪnˈʃʊərᵊns/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** an agreement in which you pay a company money and they pay your costs if you have an accident, injury, etc ***car/travel insurance*** ○ *an **insurance policy***

insure /ɪnˈʃʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to buy insurance from a company, or to provide insurance for someone *I need to **get** my car **insured**.* ○ *The policy **insures** you **against** damage and theft.*

insurmountable /ˌɪnsəˈmaʊntəbl/ *adjective formal* impossible to deal with *an **insurmountable problem/task***

insurrection /ˌɪnsᵊrˈekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** when a group of people use force to try to get control of a government

intact /ɪnˈtækt/ *adjective* not damaged or destroyed *Many of the old buildings are **still intact**.*

intaglio printing /ɪnˈtɑːliəʊˌprɪntɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **DT** a method of printing using a surface with lines cut into it

intake /ˈɪnteɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD/AIR the amount of food or drink that you take into your body [**usually singular**] ***Reducing** your salt **intake** can help to lower blood pressure.* **2** PEOPLE *UK* the group of people who start working or studying somewhere at the same time *a **new intake** of students*

intangible /ɪnˈtændʒəbl/ *adjective* An intangible feeling or quality exists but you cannot describe or prove it.

integer /ˈɪntɪdʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a whole number

integral /ˈɪntɪgrəl/ *adjective* necessary and important as part of something *The Internet has become an* ***integral part of*** *modern life.*

integrate /ˈɪntɪgreɪt/ *verb* **1** PEOPLE [I, T] to become part of a group or society, or to help someone do this *After a few weeks of training he was fully* ***integrated into*** *the team.* **2** THINGS/IDEAS [T] to combine two or more things to make something more effective *plans to integrate the two schools* ●**integration** /ˌɪntɪˈgreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

ˌintegrated ˈcircuit *noun* [C] COMPUTING a lot of small electronic parts on one microchip, used for doing jobs where separate parts would take much more space

integrity /ɪnˈtegrəti/ *noun* [U] **1** honesty and the ability to do or know what is morally right *a woman of great integrity* **2** COMPUTING The integrity of computer data is the state of being correct and well organized.

intellect /ˈɪntᵊlekt/ *noun* [C, U] the ability to learn and understand something, and to form ideas, judgments, and opinions about what you have learned *His energy and intellect are respected by many people.*

intellectual¹ /ˌɪntᵊlˈektjuəl/ *adjective* **1** THINKING using or relating to your ability to think and understand things *intellectual work* ○ *intellectual and physical development* **2** INTERESTED IN IDEAS interested in learning and in thinking about complicated ideas *She's very intellectual.* ●**intellectually** *adverb*

intellectual² /ˌɪntᵊlˈektjuəl/ *noun* [C] someone who enjoys studying and thinking about complicated ideas

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***intelligence***

average/great/high/low intelligence
● **have/show/use** intelligence

O-K **intelligence** /ɪnˈtelɪdʒᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** the ability to learn, understand, and think about things *a child of* ***low intelligence*** **2** POLITICS secret information about the governments of other countries, or the group of people who get this information *military intelligence* ➲See also: **artificial intelligence**

O-K **intelligent** /ɪnˈtelɪdʒᵊnt/ *adjective* able to learn and understand things easily *a highly intelligent young woman* ●**intelligently** *adverb*

intelligible /ɪnˈtelɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* able to be understood ➲Opposite **unintelligible**

O-K **intend** /ɪnˈtend/ *verb* **1** [T] to want and plan to do something [+ **to do sth**] *How long are you intending to stay in Paris?* [+ **doing sth**] *I don't intend seeing him again.* **2 be intended for sb; be intended as sth** to be made, designed, or provided for a particular person or purpose *The book is intended for anyone who wants to learn more about the Internet.*

intense /ɪnˈtens/ *adjective* **1** EXTREME extreme or very strong *intense heat/pain* **2** SERIOUS Intense people are very serious, and usually have strong emotions or opinions. ●**intensely** *adverb* *Clare disliked him intensely.* ●**intensity** *noun* [U]

intensify /ɪnˈtensɪfaɪ/ *verb* [I, T] to become greater, more serious, or more extreme, or to make something do this *The fighting has intensified in the past week.*

intensive /ɪnˈtensɪv/ *adjective* involving a lot of work in a short period of time *ten weeks of* ***intensive training*** ●**intensively** *adverb*

inˌtensive ˈcare *noun* [U] HEALTH the part of a hospital used for treating people who are seriously ill or very badly injured

intent¹ /ɪnˈtent/ *noun* [U, no plural] *formal* **1** when you want and plan to do something [+ **to do sth**] *It had not been his intent to hurt anyone.* **2 to/for all intents (and purposes)** in all the most important ways *To all intents and purposes, the project was a disaster.*

intent² /ɪnˈtent/ *adjective* **1 be intent on sth/doing sth** to be determined to do or achieve something *She seems intent on winning this year's tennis tournament.* **2** giving a lot of attention to something *She had an intent look on her face.* ●**intently** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***intention***

announce/declare/signal your intention ●
have no intention of doing sth

O-K **intention** /ɪnˈtenʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] something that you want and plan to do [+ **to do sth**] *She announced her intention to resign.* [+ **of + doing sth**] *I* ***have no intention*** *of seeing him again.*

intentional /ɪnˈtenʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* planned or intended *I'm sorry if I said something that offended you. It really wasn't intentional.* ●**intentionally** *adverb*

inter- /ɪntəʳ-/ *prefix* between or among *international* ○ *an interdepartmental meeting*

interact /ˌɪntərˈækt/ *verb* [I] **1** TALK/BEHAVE to talk and do things with other people *At school, teachers say he* ***interacted*** *well* ***with*** *other students.* **2** HAVE AN EFFECT If two things interact, they have an effect on each other. *We are looking at how these chemicals interact.*

interaction /ˌɪntərˈækʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PEOPLE the activity of talking and doing things with other people, or the way you do this *Our work involves a lot of* ***interaction with*** *the customers.* **2** THINGS when two or more things combine and have an effect on each other

interactive /ˌɪntərˈæktɪv/ *adjective* **1** COMPUTING Interactive computer programs, games, etc involve the person using them by reacting to the way they use them. **2** involving communication between people

intercept /ˌɪntəˈsept/ *verb* [T] to stop someone or something before they are able to reach a particular place *Johnson intercepted the pass and went on to score the third goal.* ●**interception** /ˌɪntəˈsepʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

interchangeable /ˌɪntəˈtʃeɪndʒəbl/ *adjective* If things are interchangeable, you can exchange them because they can be used in the same way. *interchangeable words* ●**interchangeably** *adverb*

intercom /ˈɪntəkɒm/ *noun* [C] an electronic system used for communicating with people in different parts of a building, aircraft, ship, etc *A stewardess asked* ***over the intercom*** *if there was a doctor on board.*

intercontinental /ˌɪntəˌkɒntɪˈnentᵊl/ *adjective* in or between two continents *an intercontinental flight*

intercostal /ˌɪntəˈkɒstᵊl/ *adjective* **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** between the ribs (= bones around the chest) *intercostal muscles* ➲See picture at **rib cage** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

intercourse /ˈɪntəkɔːs/ (*also* **sexual intercourse**) *noun* [U] *formal* when a man puts his penis into a woman's vagina

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***interest***

develop/generate/have/show/take an interest ● a **genuine/keen/passionate/strong** interest ● an interest **in** sth ● be **of** interest

interest¹ /ˈɪntrəst/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**U, no plural**] the feeling of wanting to give attention to something or discover more about it *Mark **had an interest in** the media and wanted to become a journalist.* ○ *After a while he simply **lost interest in*** (= stopped being interested) *his studies.* ○ *Bindi felt that her father didn't **take** much of **an interest in** her* (= he was not very interested). **2** ACTIVITY/SUBJECT [**C**] something you enjoy doing, studying, or experiencing *We **share** a lot of the same **interests**, particularly music and football.* **3 FINANCE** [**U**] the extra money that you must pay to a bank, company, etc which has lent you money *low **interest rates*** **4 FINANCE** [**U**] the money you earn from keeping your money in a bank account **5** QUALITY [**U**] a quality that makes you think something is interesting *Would this book **be of** any **interest to** you?* **6** ADVANTAGE [**C, U**] something that gives someone or something an advantage *A union looks after the interests of its members.* **7 be in sb's interest(s)** to help someone and give them an advantage *It may not be in your interests to change jobs so soon.* **8 in the interest(s) of sth** in order to achieve a particular situation or quality *In the interest of safety, passengers are advised to wear their seat belts at all times.* **9** LEGAL RIGHT [**C**] *formal* the legal right to own or receive part of a building, company, profits, etc ➲See also: **self-interest, vested interest**

interest² /ˈɪntrəst/ *verb* [**T**] If someone or something interests you, you want to give them your attention and discover more about them. *History doesn't really interest me.*

interested /ˈɪntrəstɪd/ *adjective* **1** GIVING ATTENTION [**never before noun**] wanting to give your attention to something and discover more about it *Sarah's only **interested in** boys, CDs, and clothes.* [**+ to do sth**] *I'd be interested to find out more about the course.* ➲Opposite **uninterested** **2** WANTING SOMETHING [**never before noun**] wanting to do, get, or achieve something [**+ in + doing sth**] *Mark said he's interested in buying your bike.* **3 interested parties/groups** people who will be affected by a situation ➲Opposite **disinterested**

interesting /ˈɪntrəstɪŋ/ *adjective* Someone or something that is interesting keeps your attention because they are unusual, exciting, or have lots of ideas. *an interesting person* ○ *The museum was really interesting.* [**+ to do sth**] *It'll be interesting to see what Mum thinks of John's new girlfriend.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***interesting***

You can use **absorbing** or **gripping** to describe a game, book, film, etc. which is so interesting that it keeps your attention completely: *I found the book absolutely **gripping** - I couldn't put it down.* ● *It was a very **absorbing** film.*

A game, book, TV programme, etc. which is so interesting that you cannot stop playing, reading, or watching it, may be described as **compulsive**: *I found the whole series **compulsive** viewing.*

Fascinating is often used to describe someone or something you have seen or heard that you have found extremely interesting: *The history of the place was absolutely **fascinating**.* ● *He's **fascinating** on the subject.*

If something or someone is interesting because they seem mysterious and make you want to know more about them, you can say that they are **intriguing**: *It's a very **intriguing** situation.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

interesting or interested?

Interested is used to describe how someone feels about a person or thing.

I'm interested in theatre.

~~*I'm interesting in theatre.*~~

If a person or thing is **interesting**, they make you feel interested.

It was an interesting film.

ˈinterest ˌrate *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** the per cent of an amount of money which is charged by a bank or other financial company

interface¹ /ˈɪntəfeɪs/ *noun* [C] **1 COMPUTING** a connection between two pieces of electronic equipment, or between a person and a computer *a simple **user interface*** **2** a situation, way, or place where two things can come together and have an effect on each other *the **interface between** technology and tradition*

interface² /ˈɪntəˌfeɪs/ *verb* [I, T] **COMPUTING** to communicate with people or electronic equipment, or to make people or electronic equipment communicate *We use email to **interface with** our customers.*

interfere /ˌɪntəˈfɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] to try to control or become involved in a situation, in a way that is annoying *I know he's worried about us, but I wish he wouldn't interfere.* ○ *You shouldn't **interfere in** other people's business.*
interfere with sth *phrasal verb* **1** CAUSE PROBLEMS to prevent something from working effectively or from developing successfully *I try not to let my dancing classes interfere with my schoolwork.* **2** RADIO SIGNALS If something interferes with radio or television signals, it stops you from getting good pictures or sound.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***interference***

interference **in** sth ● interference **from** sb

interference /ˌɪntəˈfɪərᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** SITUATION when someone tries to interfere in a situation

There have been claims of too much political ***interference in*** *education.* **2** ELECTRONIC SIGNAL noise or other electronic signals that stop you from getting good pictures or sound on a television or radio

interferon /ˌɪntəˈfɪərɒn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance produced in the body to fight against viruses (= organisms that cause disease)

interglacial /ˌɪntəˈgleɪsiəl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** happening between two periods where glaciers (= large masses of ice) covered the land

interim¹ /ˈɪntᵊrɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] temporary and intended to be used or accepted until something permanent exists *an interim solution* ○ *an* ***interim government***

interim² /ˈɪntᵊrɪm/ *noun* **in the interim** in the time between two particular periods or events

interior /ɪnˈtɪəriəʳ/ *noun* [C] the inside part of something *the grand interior of the hotel* ➲Opposite **exterior**

inˌterior deˈsign *noun* [U] the job of choosing colours, designs, etc for the inside of a house or room ●**interior designer** *noun* [C] someone whose job is to do interior design

interjection /ˌɪntəˈdʒekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** an exclamation or sudden expression of your feelings. For example 'Hey' in 'Hey you!' is an interjection.

interlude /ˈɪntəluːd/ *noun* [C] a period of time between two events, activities, etc *a* ***brief interlude*** *of peace*

intermediary /ˌɪntəˈmiːdiəri/ *noun* [C] someone who works with two people or groups to help them agree on something important

intermediate /ˌɪntəˈmiːdiət/ *adjective* **1** **EDUCATION** between the highest and lowest levels of knowledge or skill *intermediate students* **2** between two different stages in a process ***intermediate steps*** *towards achieving our goal*

interminable /ɪnˈtɜːmɪnəbl/ *adjective* lasting a very long time, in a way that is boring *an interminable train journey* ●**interminably** *adverb*

intermission /ˌɪntəˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] a short period between the parts of a play, performance, etc

intermittent /ˌɪntəˈmɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* stopping and starting again for short periods of time *intermittent rain* ●**intermittently** *adverb*

inter-molecular /ˌɪntəməˈlekjələʳ/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** happening among or between molecules

intern¹ /ˈɪntɜːn/ *noun* [C] *US* **1** **HEALTH** a young doctor who works in a hospital to finish their medical education **2** a student who learns about a particular job by doing it for a short period of time ●**internship** *noun* [C] the time when someone is an intern

intern² /ɪnˈtɜːn/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** to put someone in prison for political reasons, especially during a war ●**internment** *noun* [U] when someone is interned

internal /ɪnˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** INSIDE A PLACE happening or coming from inside a particular country, group, or organization *an internal report* ○ *internal disputes* **2** BODY inside your body *internal injuries* **3** PLACE inside a country, building, area, etc *an internal flight* ○ *internal walls* ➲Opposite **external** ●**internally** *adverb*

O-key **international¹** /ˌɪntəˈnæʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* relating to or involving two or more countries *international politics* ○ *an international team of scientists* ●**internationally** *adverb*

international² /ˌɪntəˈnæʃᵊnᵊl/ *noun* [C] *UK* **SPORT** a game of sport involving two or more countries, or a player in one of these games *a one-day international in South Africa*

the interˌnational comˈmunity *noun* **POLITICS** countries of the world considered or acting together as a group *The international community expressed shock at the attacks.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***the Internet***

browse/surf the Internet ● **on** the Internet ● **download** sth **from** the Internet ● Internet **access** ● an Internet **provider/service provider**

O-key **the Internet** /ˈɪntənet/ *noun* **INTERNET** (*also* **the Net**) the system that connects computers all over the world and allows people who use computers to look at websites (= electronic documents) *She found a lot of information* ***on the Internet.*** ○ *a company that provides cheap* ***Internet access*** ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

ˈinternet ˌcafe *noun* [C] a place where customers can buy food and drink and use computers to search for information on the Internet

ˈInternet ˌdating *noun* [U] **INTERNET** a way to meet people for possible romantic relationships, in which you look at descriptions of people on a website and arrange to meet them if you like them

interpersonal /ˌɪntəˈpɜːsᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** connected with relationships between people

interplay /ˈɪntəpleɪ/ *noun* [U] the effect that two or more things have on each other *I'm interested in the* ***interplay between*** *Latin and English.*

interpret /ɪnˈtɜːprɪt/ *verb* **1** [T] to explain or decide what you think a particular phrase, performance, action, etc means *His comments were* ***interpreted as*** *an attack on the government.* **2** **LANGUAGE** [I, T] to change what someone has said into another language *We had to ask the guide to interpret for us.*

interpretation /ɪnˌtɜːprɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** EXPLANATION [C, U] an explanation or opinion of what something means *traditional interpretations of the Bible* **2** STORY/MUSIC [C] the way someone performs a particular play, piece of music, etc *a beautiful interpretation of Swan Lake*

interpreter /ɪnˈtɜːprɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **LANGUAGE** someone whose job is to change what someone else is saying into another language **2** **COMPUTING** a computer program that changes the instructions in another program into a form that can be easily understood by a computer

interquartile range /ɪntəˌkwɔːtaɪl ˈreɪndʒ/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **MATHEMATICS** in statistics, the numbers that are above the lowest 25% and below the top 25%

interrogate /ɪnˈterəɡeɪt/ *verb* [T] to ask someone a lot of questions, often with great force *Police have arrested and interrogated the two suspects.* ●**interrogation** /ɪnˌterəˈɡeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] *twelve hours of brutal interrogation* ●**interrogator** *noun* [C]

interrogative /ˌɪntəˈrɒɡətɪv/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or sentence used when asking a question. For example 'Who' and 'Why' are interrogatives. ●**interrogative** *adjective*

interrupt /ˌɪntəˈrʌpt/ *verb* **1** STOP SOMEONE [I, T] to stop someone while they are talking or doing something, by saying or doing something yourself *I was trying to work but the children were interrupting me.* **2** STOP FOR PERIOD [T] to stop an action or activity, usually for a short period of time *In 1998, a leg injury interrupted his sporting career.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***interruption***

a **brief/short** interruption ● **without** interruption ● an interruption **in/of** sth

interruption /ˌɪntəˈrʌpʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] when an action or activity is interrupted, or something that interrupts someone or something

intersect /ˌɪntəˈsekt/ *verb* [I, T] If two things such as lines or roads intersect, they go across each other at a particular point.

intersection /ˌɪntəˈsekʃˁn/ *noun* [C] **1** *US* (*UK* **junction**) the place where two roads meet or cross each other **2** **MATHEMATICS** the place where two lines cross each other **3** **MATHEMATICS** the group of items that belong to two different sets

interspersed /ˌɪntəˈspɜːst/ *adjective* **interspersed with sth** having something in several places among something else *farmland interspersed with forests and lakes*

interstate /ˈɪntəˌsteɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to, or involving two or more US states *interstate commerce/travel* ○ *an interstate highway*

interval /ˈɪntəvˁl/ *noun* **1** TIME [C] a period of time between two actions, activities, or events *After an interval of three days the peace talks resumed.* **2 at intervals** repeated after a particular period of time or particular distance *Patients were injected with the drug at four-hour intervals* (= every four hours). **3** PERFORMANCE [C] *UK* (*UK/US* **intermission**) a short period of time between the parts of a play, performance, etc

intervene /ˌɪntəˈviːn/ *verb* [I] **1** BECOME INVOLVED to become involved in a situation in order to try to stop a fight, argument, problem, etc *Government officials refused to* ***intervene in*** *the recent disputes.* [+ **to do sth**] *Harris intervened to stop the attack.* **2** INTERRUPT to interrupt someone who is talking *"Mr Lawrence," the judge intervened, "please be silent".* **3** PREVENT If something intervenes, it stops something or prevents it from happening. *She was going to marry Barratt but tragedy intervened.*

intervening /ˌɪntəˈviːnɪŋ/ *adjective* **the intervening months/period/years, etc** the time between two events *In the intervening years, his illness had become a lot worse.*

intervention /ˌɪntəˈvenʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone intervenes, especially to prevent something from happening *Without* ***medical intervention****, the child would have died.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***interview***

an **exclusive/frank/in-depth** interview ● **conduct/do/give/have** an interview ● an interview **with** sb

interview¹ /ˈɪntəvjuː/ *noun* [C] **1** JOB/COURSE a meeting in which someone asks you questions to see if you are suitable for a job or course *I* ***had an interview*** *last week for a job in London.* **2** NEWS a meeting in which someone is asked questions for a newspaper article, television show, etc *an* ***exclusive interview*** *with Madonna* **3** **LAW** a meeting in which the police ask someone questions to see if they have committed a crime

interview² /ˈɪntəvjuː/ *verb* [T] to ask someone questions in an interview *Police are interviewing a 43-year-old man in connection with the murder.* ○ *So far we've* ***interviewed*** *five applicants* ***for*** *the Managing Director's job.* ●**interviewer** *noun* [C]

interviewee /ˌɪntəvjuˈiː/ *noun* [C] someone who is being interviewed

intestine /ɪnˈtestɪn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a long tube that carries food from your stomach ●**intestinal** /ˌɪntesˈtaɪnəl, ɪnˈtestɪnəl/ *adjective* relating to your intestine

intimacy /ˈɪntɪməsi/ *noun* [U] when you have a very special friendship or sexual relationship with someone

intimate¹ /ˈɪntɪmət/ *adjective* **1** PRIVATE private and personal ***intimate details*** *of her family life* ○ *intimate conversations* **2** RELATIONSHIP having a special relationship with someone who you like or love very much *an intimate friend* **3** SMALL If a place or event is intimate, it is small in a way that feels comfortable or private. *an intimate hotel* **4 an intimate knowledge/understanding of sth** when you know all of the facts about something or about how it works ●**intimately** *adverb*

intimate² /ˈɪntɪmeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to suggest that something is true without saying it directly

intimidate /ɪnˈtɪmɪdeɪt/ *verb* [T] to intentionally frighten someone, especially so that they will do what you want ●**intimidation** /ɪnˌtɪmɪˈdeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U]

intimidated /ɪnˈtɪmɪdeɪtɪd/ *adjective* frightened or nervous because you are not confident in a situation *Older people can feel very intimidated by computers.* ●**intimidating** *adjective* making you feel intimidated *I find speaking in front of a crowd very intimidating.*

into /ˈɪntə, ˈɪntu/ *preposition* **1** IN towards the inside or middle of something *Stop running around and get into bed!* ○ *He's gone into a shop across the road.* **2** CHANGE used to show when a person or thing changes from one form or condition to another *We're planning to* ***turn*** *the smallest bedroom* ***into*** *an office.* ○ *Her last novel was translated into nineteen languages.* **3** ABOUT involving or about something *an investigation into the cause of the fire* **4** TOWARDS

in the direction of something or someone *She was looking straight into his eyes.* **5** HIT moving towards something or someone and hitting them *I backed the car into the garden wall.* **6 be into sth** *informal* to be very interested in something *Kate's really into classical music.* **7** DIVIDE used when dividing one number by another *What's 5 into 125?*

intolerable /ɪnˈtɒlᵊrəbl/ *adjective* too bad or unpleasant to deal with or accept *an intolerable situation* ●**intolerably** *adverb*

intolerance /ɪnˈtɒlᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [U] when someone is intolerant ***religious intolerance***

intolerant /ɪnˈtɒlᵊrᵊnt/ *adjective* refusing to accept any opinions, beliefs, customs, etc that are different from your own

intonation /ˌɪntəʊˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] LANGUAGE the way your voice goes up and down when you speak

intoxicated /ɪnˈtɒksɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** DRUNK *formal* drunk **2** VERY EXCITED *literary* very excited or enthusiastic about someone or something ●**intoxicating** *adjective* making you intoxicated ●**intoxication** /ɪnˌtɒksɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

intra- /ɪntrə-/ *prefix* within *an intranet*

intra-molecular /ˌɪntrəməˈlekjələʳ/ *adjective* PHYSICS happening inside a molecule or molecules

intranet /ˈɪntrənet/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a system that connects the computers in a company or organization so that people can share information and send messages

intransitive /ɪnˈtrænsətɪv/ *adjective* LANGUAGE An intransitive verb does not have an object. In the sentence 'John arrived first.', 'arrived' is an intransitive verb. ➲See Extra help page **Verb patterns** on page Centre 25. ➲Compare **transitive**

intravenous /ˌɪntrəˈviːnəs/ *adjective* HEALTH, BIOLOGY Intravenous medicines or drugs are put directly into your veins (= tubes that carry your blood). ●**intravenously** *adverb*

in-tray /ˈɪntreɪ/ *UK* (*US* **in-box**) *noun* [C] a container where you keep letters and documents that need to be dealt with ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

intrepid /ɪnˈtrepɪd/ *adjective* brave and willing to do dangerous things *intrepid travellers*

intricacy /ˈɪntrɪkəsi/ *noun* **1 the intricacies of sth** the complicated details of something *a booklet explaining the intricacies of the game's rules* **2** [U] the quality of being intricate *the intricacy of the stone carvings*

intricate /ˈɪntrɪkət/ *adjective* having many small or complicated parts and details *an intricate pattern* ●**intricately** *adverb*

intrigue¹ /ɪnˈtriːg/ *verb* [T] **intriguing**, *past* **intrigued** If someone or something intrigues you, they interest you very much. *Ancient Egyptian art has always intrigued me.*

intrigue² /ˈɪntriːg/ *noun* [C, U] a secret, clever plan to deceive someone or do something bad *a tale of romance, intrigue, and betrayal*

intriguing /ɪnˈtriːgɪŋ/ *adjective* very interesting *an intriguing story*

intrinsic /ɪnˈtrɪnsɪk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An intrinsic quality or thing forms part of the basic character of something or someone. *Drama is an* ***intrinsic part*** *of the school's curriculum.* ●**intrinsically** *adverb*

O-K **introduce** /ˌɪntrəˈdjuːs/ *verb* [T] **1** SOMETHING NEW to make something exist, happen, or be used for the first time *CD players were first introduced in 1983.* ○ *We have introduced a new training schedule for employees.* **2** MEETING PEOPLE to tell someone another person's name the first time that they meet *He took me round the room and* ***introduced*** *me* ***to*** *everyone.* [**often reflexive**] *Emma introduced herself and they shook hands.* **3** TO AN AUDIENCE to tell an audience who is going to speak to them or perform for them *I'd like to introduce Rachel Elliott who is our speaker this evening.*
introduce sb to sth *phrasal verb* to help someone experience something for the first time *His father introduced him to the pleasures of good food.*

O-K **introduction** /ˌɪntrəˈdʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** SOMETHING NEW [U] when you make something exist, happen, or be used for the first time *the introduction of a minimum wage* **2** BOOK [C] the first part of a book or speech **3** BASIC KNOWLEDGE [C] a book or course which provides basic knowledge about a subject *an introduction to psychology* **4** FIRST EXPERIENCE [**no plural**] the first time someone experiences something *It was our first* ***introduction to*** *great poetry.* **5** FIRST MEETING [C] when you tell someone another person's name the first time that they meet [**usually plural**] *Can you do the introductions?* **6** TO AN AUDIENCE [C, U] when you tell an audience who is going to speak to them or perform for them *My next guest* ***needs no introduction.***

introductory /ˌɪntrəˈdʌktᵊri/ *adjective* **1 an introductory chapter/essay/message, etc** a part that comes at the beginning of a piece of writing or a speech and explains what will come later **2 an introductory book/course/lesson, etc** something that provides basic information about a subject *an introductory course in economics* **3 an introductory discount/fare/offer, etc** something that you get when you start buying something or using a service

introspective /ˌɪntrəʊˈspektɪv/ *adjective* thinking a lot about your own thoughts and feelings, in a way that is not always good for you ●**introspection** /ˌɪntrəʊˈspekʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

introvert /ˈɪntrəʊvɜːt/ *noun* [C] someone who is quiet and shy and prefers to be alone ●**introverted** *adjective an introverted child* ➲Opposite **extrovert**

intrude /ɪnˈtruːd/ *verb* [I] to become involved in a situation which people want to be private *They should not have* ***intruded on*** *the family's grief.*

intruder /ɪnˈtruːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who enters a place where they are not allowed to be, often to commit a crime

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***intrusion***

an **unwarranted/unwelcome** intrusion ● an intrusion **into/on** sth

intrusion /ɪnˈtruːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone becomes involved in a situation which people want to be private *She could not bear the* ***intrusion into*** *her private life.*

intrusive /ɪnˈtruːsɪv/ *adjective* If something or someone is intrusive, they become involved in things which should be private. *The magazine published intrusive pictures of the princess's family.*

intuition /ˌɪntjuˈɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] the feeling that you know something without being able to explain why *Her approach to childcare is based on intuition.*

intuitive /ɪnˈtjuːɪtɪv/ *adjective* using intuition *He has an intuitive understanding of animals.* ●**intuitively** *adverb*

Inuit /ˈɪnuɪt/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **Inuit** or **Inuits** SOCIETY a group of people who live in the cold, northern areas of North America, Russia, and Greenland, or a member of this group

inundate /ˈɪnʌndeɪt/ *verb* **be inundated with/by sth** to receive so much of something that you cannot deal with it *Laura was inundated with flowers, cards, and other gifts.*

invade /ɪnˈveɪd/ *verb* **1** COUNTRY [I, T] to enter a country by force in order to take control of it *Portugal was invaded by the French in 1807.* **2** PLACE [T] to enter a place in large numbers *Every summer the town is invaded by tourists.* **3 invade sb's privacy** to become involved in someone's private life when they do not want you to

invader /ɪnˈveɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who enters a country by force in order to take control of it

invalid¹ /ˈɪnvəlɪd/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who is so ill that they have to be looked after by other people

invalid² /ɪnˈvælɪd/ *adjective* **1** LAW An invalid document, ticket, law, etc is not legally or officially acceptable. **2** An invalid argument is not correct.

invaluable /ɪnˈvæljuəbl/ *adjective* extremely useful *Her contacts in government* ***proved invaluable*** *to the company.*

invariably /ɪnˈveərɪəbli/ *adverb* always *The train is invariably packed.*

invasion /ɪnˈveɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when an army enters a country by force in order to take control of it **2 an invasion of privacy** becoming involved in someone's private life when they do not want you to

O-K **invent** /ɪnˈvent/ *verb* [T] **1** NEW to design or create something that has never existed before *We've invented a new game.* **2** DECEIVE to think of a story or explanation in order to deceive someone *She invented an excuse to leave.*

O-K **invention** /ɪnˈvenʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** NEW THING [C] something that has been designed or created for the first time **2** MAKING NEW THINGS [U] when someone designs or creates something new *the invention of printing*

inventive /ɪnˈventɪv/ *adjective* full of clever and interesting ideas *inventive designs* ●**inventively** *adverb* ●**inventiveness** *noun* [U]

inventor /ɪnˈventəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who designs and makes new things

inventory /ˈɪnvᵊntri, ɪnˈventᵊri/ *noun* [C] a list of all the things that are in a place

inverse /ɪnˈvɜːs/ *adjective* [never before noun] opposite in relation to something else *Their standard of living was in inverse proportion to the number of children they had.*

ˌinverse ˈfunction *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a function (= quantity that depends on another value) that does the opposite of a particular function

ˌinverse proˈportion *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS when the proportion of different amounts changes so that when one gets bigger, the other gets smaller

invert /ɪnˈvɜːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to turn something upside-down, or put something in the opposite order from how it usually is

invertase /ɪnˈvɜːteɪz/ (*also* **sucrase**) *noun* [U] BIOLOGY an enzyme (= substance in the body that makes chemical reactions happen) found in the intestines that breaks down sucrose to fructose and glucose

invertebrate /ɪnˈvɜːtɪbrət/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY an animal with no spine (= bones in the back) ➲Compare **vertebrates** ●**invertebrate** *adjective*

inverted commas /ɪnˌvɜːtɪdˈkɒmməz/ *noun* [plural] *UK* LANGUAGE a pair of marks (" ") or (' ') used before and after a group of words to show that they are spoken or that someone else originally wrote them ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

invest /ɪnˈvest/ *verb* **1** FINANCE [I, T] to give money to a bank, business, etc, or buy something, because you hope to get a profit *He's* ***invested*** *over a million pounds* ***in*** *the city's waterfront restoration project.* **2** [T] to use a lot of time, effort, or emotions because you want to succeed *I think she* ***invests*** *too much time and energy* ***in*** *her career.*
invest in sth *phrasal verb* FINANCE to buy something because you think it will be useful *Dad's decided to invest in a computer.*

investigate /ɪnˈvestɪgeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to try to discover all the facts about something, especially a crime or accident *He was questioned by detectives investigating the murder.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***investigation***

carry out/conduct/launch an investigation ● a **detailed/full/thorough** investigation ● an investigation **into** sth ● be **under** investigation

investigation /ɪnˌvestɪˈgeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when officials try to discover all the facts about something, especially a crime or an accident *Police have begun an* ***investigation into*** *his death.* ○ *The cause of the fire is still* ***under investigation*** (= being investigated).

investigative /ɪnˈvestɪgətɪv/ (US) /ɪnˈvestɪgeɪtɪv/ *adjective* trying to discover all the facts about something ***investigative journalists***

investigator /ɪnˈvestɪgeɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who tries to discover all the facts about something, especially as their job

investment /ɪnˈvestmənt/ *noun* **1** ECONOMICS, FINANCE [C, U] the money that you put in a bank, business, etc in order to make a profit, or the act of doing this *Businesses need to increase their* ***investment in*** *new technology.*

2 [C] something that you do or have, in order to have more in the future *Going to college is an **investment in** the future.*

investor /ɪnˈvestəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE someone who puts money in a bank, business, etc in order to make a profit

inveterate /ɪnˈvetʳərət/ *adjective* **an inveterate liar/gambler/reader, etc** someone who does something very often

invigorating /ɪnˈvɪgəreɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel very healthy and energetic *a long, invigorating walk* ●**invigorate** *verb* [T] to make you feel very healthy and energetic

invincible /ɪnˈvɪnsəbl/ *adjective* If someone or something is invincible, it is impossible to defeat or destroy them. *The French army seemed invincible.*

invisible /ɪnˈvɪzəbl/ *adjective* Someone or something that is invisible cannot be seen. *invisible particles called electrons* ○ *The house was invisible from the road.* ●**invisibility** /ɪnˌvɪzəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***invitation***

accept/decline/turn down an invitation ● an invitation **to** sth

invitation /ˌɪnvɪˈteɪʃʳn/ *noun* **1** INVITING SOMEONE [C, U] when someone invites you to do something or go somewhere *an **invitation to** dinner* [+ **to do sth**] *He has **accepted** their **invitation** to visit China.* **2** PIECE OF PAPER [C] a piece of paper or card that invites someone to an event **3** CAUSE RESULT [**no plural**] something that is likely to cause a particular result, especially a bad one *It is **an invitation to** violence.*

invite¹ /ɪnˈvaɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** SOCIAL EVENT to ask someone to come to a social event *They've **invited** us **to** the wedding.* **2** ASK OFFICIALLY to officially ask someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *I was invited to appear on television.* **3** REACTION to do something that is likely to cause a particular reaction or result, especially a bad one *Unconventional ideas often invite attack.*
invite sb in *phrasal verb* to ask someone to come into your house *The neighbours **invited** us **in for** coffee.*
invite sb over *phrasal verb* (*also UK* **invite sb round**) to invite someone to come to your house

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

invite someone **to** something

If you are talking about a social event, use the preposition **to**.

She invited me to the party.

~~*She invited me for the party.*~~

~~*She invited me at the party.*~~

If you are talking about a meal, you can use **to** or **for**.

He invited me for dinner/to dinner.

If you are talking about a particular type of food, or inviting someone for a particular activity, use **for**.

I was invited for an interview.

They invited her for a pizza.

invite² /ˈɪnvaɪt/ *noun* [C] *informal* an invitation

inviting /ɪnˈvaɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* pleasant and attractive *an inviting smile* ○ *The room looked cosy and inviting.* ●**invitingly** *adverb*

in vitro fertilization /ɪnˌviːtrəʊfɜːtɪlaɪˈzeɪʃʳn/ (*also* **IVF**) *noun* [U] HEALTH a treatment where a woman's egg is fertilized outside her body and put back in her body for the baby to grow

invoice¹ /ˈɪnvɔɪs/ *noun* [C] FINANCE a list that shows you how much you owe someone for work they have done or for goods they have supplied

invoice² /ˈɪnvɔɪs/ *verb* [T] FINANCE to send someone an invoice

invoke /ɪnˈvəʊk/ *verb* [T] *formal* to use a law, rule, etc to support what you are saying or doing *The President may **invoke** federal **law** to stop the strike.*

involuntary /ɪnˈvɒlənt*ʳ*ri/ *adjective* An involuntary movement or action is something you do but cannot control. *an involuntary shudder* ●**involuntarily** *adverb*

involve /ɪnˈvɒlv/ *verb* [T] **1** NECESSARY PART If a situation or activity involves something, that thing is a necessary part of it. *The trips often involve a lot of walking.* ○ *There are a lot of risks involved.* **2** AFFECT/INCLUDE to affect or include someone or something in an activity *an event involving hundreds of people* **3** TAKE PART to make someone be part of an activity or process *I prefer teaching methods that actively **involve** students **in** learning.*

involved /ɪnˈvɒlvd/ *adjective* **1 be/get involved (in/with sth)** to do things and be part of an activity or event *How did you get involved in acting?* **2 be/get involved with sb** to have a sexual or romantic relationship with someone *She got involved with a boy from college.* **3** complicated *a long and involved story*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***involvement***

close/direct/personal involvement ● involvement **in** sth

involvement /ɪnˈvɒlvmənt/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is involved in an activity or event *He denies any **involvement in** the attack.*

inward¹ /ˈɪnwəd/ *adjective* **1** MOVEMENT [**always before noun**] towards the centre or the inside of something **2 inward investment** ECONOMICS, FINANCE *UK* money from foreign companies that is put into businesses in your own country **3** INSIDE YOURSELF [**always before noun**] inside your mind and not shown to other people *inward feelings* ➲Opposite **outward**

inward² /ˈɪnwəd/ (*also UK* **inwards**) *adverb* towards the inside or the centre *The door slowly opened inward.*

inwardly /ˈɪnwədli/ *adverb* in your mind without anyone else seeing or knowing *She smiled inwardly.* ➲Opposite **outwardly**

in-your-face (*also* **in-yer-face**) /ˌɪnjəˈfeɪs/ *adjective informal* describes something that is done in a forceful way that intends to shock people *in-your-face television advertising*

iodide /ˈaɪəʊdaɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical compound of iodine with another element

iodine /ˈaɪədiːn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element found in sea water, and used in some medicines (symbol **I**)

ion /ˈaɪɒn/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** an atom or small group of atoms which has an electrical charge because it has added or lost one or more electrons ●**ionic** /aɪˈɒnɪk/ *adjective*

iˌonic ˈbond *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical bond in which two ions are joined together because one has a positive charge and the other a negative charge

ionize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈaɪənaɪz/ *verb* [T, I] **CHEMISTRY** to form an ion or to make something form an ion

the ionosphere /ˌaɪˈɒnəˌsfɪːr/ *noun* **GEOGRAPHY** part of the Earth's atmosphere, from about 60 kilometres to about 1000 kilometres above the surface, in which there are many ions

IOU /ˌaɪəʊˈjuː/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** *abbreviation for* I owe you: a piece of paper saying that you will pay back money you owe

IOW **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* in other words: used when you want to express something in a different way in order to explain it clearly

IPA /ˌaɪpiːˈeɪ/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** *abbreviation for* International Phonetic Alphabet: a system of symbols for showing how words are spoken

iPod /ˈaɪpɒd/ *noun* [C] *trademark* one of a group of small electronic devices for storing and playing music

IQ /ˌaɪˈkjuː/ *noun* [C, U] *abbreviation for* intelligence quotient: a person's intelligence when measured by a special test *a high/low IQ*

ir- /ɪr-/ *prefix* not *irregular*

irate /aɪˈreɪt/ *adjective* extremely angry *Hundreds of irate passengers have complained to the airline.*

iridium /ɪˈrɪdiəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a hard, yellow-white metal (formula **Ir**)

iris /ˈaɪərɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** a tall plant with purple, yellow, or white flowers **2** **ANATOMY** the coloured part of your eye

Irish¹ /ˈaɪərɪʃ/ *adjective* relating to Ireland *Irish music/culture* ○ *Irish whisky*

Irish² /ˈaɪərɪʃ/ *noun* **1** [U] the language that is spoken in some parts of Ireland **2 the Irish** [**plural**] the people of Ireland

iron¹ /aɪən/ *noun* **1** **CHEMISTRY** [U] a dark grey metal used to make steel (= very strong metal) and found in small amounts in blood and food (formula **Fe**) *an iron bar/gate* **2** [C] a piece of electrical equipment that you use for making clothes flat and smooth ➲See also: **cast iron, wrought iron**

iron² /aɪən/ *verb* [I, T] to make clothes flat and smooth using an iron *I need to iron a shirt to wear tomorrow.*
iron sth out *phrasal verb* to solve a problem or difficulty *We're still trying to* ***iron out*** *a few* ***problems*** *with the computer system.*

iron³ /aɪən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] extremely strong and determined *a man of* ***iron will*** ➲See also: **cast-iron**

ironic /aɪəˈrɒnɪk/ *adjective* **1** HUMOUR saying something that you do not mean, as a joke *ironic comments* **2** SITUATION An ironic situation is strange because it is the opposite of what you expected. [**+ that**] *It's ironic that she was hurt by the very person she's trying to help.* ●**ironically** *adverb*

ironing /ˈaɪənɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** ACTIVITY the activity of making clothes flat and smooth using an iron (= a piece of electrical equipment) *John was* ***doing the ironing.*** **2** CLOTHES the clothes that are waiting to be ironed, or those that have just been ironed *a basket full of ironing*

ˈironing ˌboard *noun* [C] a narrow table that you use for ironing

irony /ˈaɪərᵊni/ *noun* **1** SITUATION [C, U] a situation that is strange because it is the opposite of what you expected *The irony is that now he's retired, he's busier than ever.* **2** HUMOUR [U] a type of humour in which people say something they do not mean

irradiate /ɪˈreɪdieɪt/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to treat with radiation, especially food to keep it fresh ●**irradiation** *noun* [U]

irrational /ɪˈræʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* Irrational feelings and actions are based on your emotions and not on good reasons. ***irrational behaviour*** ○ *an* ***irrational fear*** *of flying* ●**irrationality** /ɪˌræʃᵊnˈælətɪ/ *noun* [U] ●**irrationally** *adverb*

iˌrrational ˈnumber *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that cannot be expressed as the ratio (= relationship expressed in numbers showing how much bigger one thing is than the other) of two whole numbers

irreconcilable /ˌɪrekᵊnˈsaɪləbl/ *adjective formal* Irreconcilable beliefs, opinions, etc are so different that no agreement is possible. ***Irreconcilable differences*** *led to their divorce.*

irregular /ɪˈregjələʳ/ *adjective* **1** TIME Irregular actions or events happen with a different amount of time between each one. *an irregular heartbeat* ○ *They met at irregular intervals.* **2** SHAPE not smooth or straight, or having parts that are different sizes *an irregular coastline* **3** **LANGUAGE** not following the general rules in grammar *irregular verbs/plurals* **4** BEHAVIOUR *UK formal* slightly illegal, or not done in the usual and acceptable way *He led a very irregular life.* ●**irregularity** /ɪˌregjəˈlærətɪ/ *noun* [C, U] ●**irregularly** *adverb*

irrelevant /ɪˈreləvᵊnt/ *adjective* not important in a particular situation *The car had faults but these were* ***irrelevant to*** *the crash.* ●**irrelevance** /ɪˈreləvᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] something that is irrelevant, or the quality of being irrelevant ●**irrelevantly** *adverb*

irreparable /ɪˈrepᵊrəbl/ *adjective* Irreparable damage, harm, injury, etc is so bad that it can never be repaired. ●**irreparably** *adverb*

irreplaceable /ˌɪrɪˈpleɪsəbl/ *adjective* Someone or something that is irreplaceable is so valuable or special that you could not get another one like them.

irrepressible /ˌɪrɪˈpresəbl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON always happy and energetic **2** FEELINGS An irrepressible feeling is impossible to control. *an irrepressible urge to travel* ●**irrepressibly** *adverb*

irresistible /ˌɪrɪˈzɪstəbl/ *adjective* **1** ATTRACTIVE extremely attractive and impossible not to like or want *an irresistible smile* **2** STRONG too powerful to control or ignore *irresistible pressure* ○ *an irresistible desire to run away* ●**irresistibly** *adverb*

irrespective /ˌɪrɪˈspektɪv/ *adverb* **irrespective of sth** used to say that something does not affect a situation *Everyone should be treated equally, irrespective of skin colour.*

irresponsible /ˌɪrɪˈspɒnsəbl/ *adjective* not thinking about the possible bad results of what you are doing *an irresponsible attitude* ●**irresponsibility** /ˌɪrɪˌspɒnsəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] ●**irresponsibly** *adverb*

irreverent /ɪˈrevʳʳənt/ *adjective* not showing any respect for people or traditions that are usually respected ***irreverent humour*** ●**irreverence** /ɪˈrevʳʳəns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is irreverent ●**irreverently** *adverb*

irreversible /ˌɪrɪˈvɜːsəbl/ *adjective* Something that is irreversible cannot be changed back to how it was before. *Smoking has caused* ***irreversible damage*** *to his lungs.* ●**irreversibly** *adverb*

irrevocable /ɪˈrevəkəbl/ *adjective formal* impossible to change or stop ***irrevocable decisions*** ●**irrevocably** *adverb*

irrigate /ˈɪrɪgeɪt/ *verb* [T] **FARMING** to provide water for an area of land so that crops can be grown ●**irrigation** /ˌɪrɪˈgeɪʃʳn/ *noun* [U]

irritable /ˈɪrɪtəbl/ *adjective* becoming annoyed very easily *Jack's been irritable all day.* ●**irritability** /ˌɪrɪtəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] ●**irritably** *adverb*

irritant /ˈɪrɪtʳnt/ *noun* [C] **1** ANNOYING someone or something that makes you feel annoyed **2** **HEALTH** a substance that makes part of your body hurt

irritate /ˈɪrɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ANNOY to annoy someone *His comments really irritated me.* **2** **HEALTH** to make a part of your body hurt *The smoke irritated her eyes.* ●**irritation** /ˌɪrɪˈteɪʃʳn/ *noun* [C, U]

irritated /ˈɪrɪteɪtɪd/ *adjective* annoyed *Ben began to get increasingly* ***irritated by/at*** *her questions.* [+ **that**] *I was irritated that he didn't thank me.*

irritating /ˈɪrɪteɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel annoyed *an irritating habit* ●**irritatingly** *adverb*

is *strong form* /ɪz/ *weak form* /z/ *present simple he/she/it of* be

Islam /ˈɪzlɑːm/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** a religion based on belief in Allah, on the Koran, and on the teachings of Mohammed *The followers of Islam are called Muslims.*

Islamic /ɪzˈlæmɪk/ *adjective* **RELIGION** related to Islam *Islamic art* ○ *an Islamic country*

island /ˈaɪlənd/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of land that has water around it *the Caribbean island of Grenada* ○ *the Hawaiian Islands* ●**islander** *noun* [C] someone who lives on an island ➲See also: **desert island**

isle /aɪl/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an island, often used in the name of a particular island *the British Isles*

islets of Langerhans /ˌaɪlɪtsəvˈlæŋgəhænz/ *noun* [plural] **ANATOMY** a group of cells in the pancreas that produce the hormones insulin and glucagon

isn't /ˈɪzʳnt/ *short for* is not *Mike isn't coming with us.*

isobar /ˈaɪsəʊbɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a line drawn on a weather map joining all the places which have the same air pressure

isohyet /ˌaɪsəʊˈhaɪɪt/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a line on a map that connects places that have the same amount of rain

isolate /ˈaɪsəleɪt/ *verb* [T] to separate someone or something from other people or things *Scientists have been able to isolate the gene responsible for causing the illness.* ○ *He had been* ***isolated from*** *other prisoners.*

isolated /ˈaɪsəleɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** FAR AWAY a long way from other places *an isolated village in the mountains* **2** ALONE alone and not having help or support from other people *Kazuo felt very isolated at his new school.* **3** **an isolated case/example/incident, etc** an event, action, etc that happens only once

isolation /ˌaɪsʳlˈeɪʃʳn/ *noun* **1** SEPARATE [U] the state of being separate from other people, places, or things *the country's economic isolation from the rest of the world* **2** **in isolation** alone, or separately from other people, places, or things *These poems cannot be considered in isolation.* **3** LONELY [U] a feeling of being lonely *I had this awful sense of isolation.*

isomer /ˈaɪsəməʳ/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** any one of a group of chemical substances which all have the same number and type of atoms but in which the arrangement of the atoms is slightly different between each substance

isomerism /ˈaɪsəmərɪzm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** when two or more compounds have the same type of molecule but a different arrangement of atoms in the molecule

isometric /ˌaɪsəʊˈmetrɪk/ *adjective* **ART, DT** isometric drawing uses a method of drawing a shape with three dimensions using two dimensions *isometric projection*

isosceles triangle /aɪˌsɒsəliːzˈtraɪæŋgl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a triangle with two sides of equal length ➲Compare **equilateral, scalene triangle**

isotope /ˈaɪ.sə.təʊp/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a form of an atom which has a different atomic weight from other forms of the same atom but the same chemical structure ●**isotopic** /aɪsəˈtɒpɪk/ *adjective*

ISP /ˌaɪesˈpiː/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** *abbreviation for* Internet service provider: a company that connects your computer to the Internet, and lets you use email and other services

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***issue (noun)***

a **contentious** / **important** / **key** / **major** / **thorny** issue ● **address/discuss/raise/resolve** an issue ● the issue **of** sth

issue¹ /ˈɪʃuː/ *noun* **1** PROBLEM [C] an important subject or problem that people are discussing *the issues of race and social class* ○ *political issues* ○ *Chris has* ***raised*** *a very important* ***issue***. **2** NEWSPAPER OR MAGAZINE [C] the newspaper, magazine, etc that is produced on a particular day *Have you seen the latest issue of Computer World?* **3 at issue** most important in what is being discussed *The point at issue is what is best for the child.* **4 take issue (with sb/sth)** to disagree with what someone says or writes *I would take issue with you on that.* **5 have issues with sth** to often be sad, anxious or angry because of something *A very high proportion of women diet frequently and have issues with their bodies.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***issue (verb)***

issue an **order/statement/warning** ● issue **guidelines/instructions**

issue² /ˈɪʃuː/ *verb* [T] **issuing**, *past* **issued 1** SAY PUBLICLY to say something officially *The Prime Minister will* ***issue a statement*** *tomorrow.* ○ *Police* ***issued a warning*** *about the dangers of playing near water.* **2** GIVE OFFICIALLY to officially give something to someone *to* ***issue a passport/ticket/invitation*** ○ *All members will be* ***issued with*** *a membership card.*

IT /ˌaɪˈtiː/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* information technology: the use of computers and other electronic equipment to store and send information

it /ɪt/ *pronoun* **1** THING used to refer to the thing, situation, or idea that has already been talked about *"Have you seen my bag?" "It's in the hall."* **2** DESCRIPTION used before certain adjectives, nouns, or verbs to introduce an opinion or description of a situation *It's unlikely that she'll arrive on time.* **3** SUBJECT/OBJECT used with certain verbs that need a subject or object but do not refer to a particular noun *It costs less if you travel at the weekend.* ○ *I liked it in Scotland.* **4** TIME/WEATHER used with the verb 'be' in sentences giving the time, date, weather or distances *It rained all day.* ○ *What time is it?* **5** SEEM used as the subject of verbs such as 'seem', 'appear' and 'look' *It seemed unfair to leave her at home.* **6** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize one part of a sentence *It's the children I'm concerned about, not me.* **7 it's sb/sth** used to say the name of a person or thing when the person you are speaking to does not know *It's your Dad on the phone.*

italics /ɪˈtælɪks/ *noun* [plural] **LANGUAGE** a style of writing or printing in which the letters slope to the right ● **italic** *adjective* written in italics

itch¹ /ɪtʃ/ *verb* **1** **HEALTH** [I] If a part of your body itches, it feels uncomfortable and you want to rub it with your nails. *Woollen sweaters make my arms itch.* **2 be itching to do sth** *informal* to want to do something very much *You could tell that they were itching to leave.*

itch² /ɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an uncomfortable feeling on your skin that makes you want to rub it with your nails *I've* ***got an itch*** *in the middle of my back.*

itching /ˈɪtʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when a part of your body itches *a lotion to stop itching*

itchy /ˈɪtʃi/ *adjective* **HEALTH** If a part of your body is itchy, it feels uncomfortable and you want to rub it with your nails. *an itchy nose* ● **itchiness** *noun* [U]

it'd /ˈɪtəd/ **1** IT WOULD *short for* it would *It'd be great if we could meet next week.* **2** IT HAD *short for* it had *It'd taken us an hour to find Bruce's house.*

item /ˈaɪtəm/ *noun* [C] **1** SINGLE THING a single thing in a set or on a list *the last item on the list* ○ *Various stolen items were found.* **2** PIECE OF NEWS a piece of news on television or radio, or in a newspaper *a small item on the back page of the local newspaper*

itemize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈaɪtəmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to list things separately, often including details about each thing *an* ***itemized*** *phone* ***bill***

iteration /ˌɪtᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a new version of a piece of software

itinerant /aɪˈtɪnᵊrᵊnt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* travelling from one place to another *an itinerant preacher*

itinerary /aɪˈtɪnᵊrᵊri/ *noun* [C] a list of places that you plan to visit on a journey *The President's itinerary includes visits to Boston and New York.*

it'll /ˈɪtᵊl/ *short for* it will *It'll take about twenty minutes to get there.*

it's /ɪts/ **1** IT IS *short for* it is *"What time is it?" "It's one o'clock."* **2** IT HAS *short for* it has *It's been a long day and I'm tired.*

its /ɪts/ *determiner* belonging to or relating to the thing that has already been talked about *The house has its own swimming pool.*

itself /ɪtˈself/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'it' *The cat licked itself clean.* **2** EMPHASIS used to emphasize the particular thing you are referring to *The garden is enormous but the house itself is very small.* **3 (all) by itself a** ALONE alone *The dog was in the house by itself for several days.* **b** AUTOMATIC automatically *The heating comes on by itself.* **4 in itself** as the only thing being talked about and nothing else *You've managed to complete the course - that in itself is an achievement.*

ITV /ˌaɪtiːˈviː/ *noun abbreviation for* Independent Television: one of the main television companies in the United Kingdom *There's a good film on ITV tonight.*

IV /ˌaɪˈviː/ *US* (*UK* **drip**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a piece of medical equipment used for putting liquids into your body

I've /aɪv/ *short for* I have *I've decided not to go.*

IVF /ˌaɪviːˈef/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* in vitro fertilization: a treatment where a woman's egg is fertilized outside her body and put back in her body for the baby to grow

ivory /ˈaɪvᵊri/ *noun* [U] a hard, white substance from the tusks (= long teeth) of some animals, such as elephants (= large, grey animals)

ivy /ˈaɪvi/ *noun* [U] a dark green plant that often grows up walls

Jj

J, j /dʒeɪ/ the tenth letter of the alphabet

jab¹ /dʒæb/ *verb* [I, T] **jabbing**, *past* **jabbed** to push something quickly and hard into or towards another thing *He **jabbed** a finger **into** her back.*

jab² /dʒæb/ *noun* [C] **1** a quick, hard push into or towards something **2** **HEALTH** *UK informal* an injection (= when a drug is put in your body with a needle) *a flu jab*

jack¹ /dʒæk/ *noun* [C] **1** EQUIPMENT a piece of equipment for lifting a heavy object such as a car **2** PLAYING CARD a playing card that comes between a ten and a queen *the jack of diamonds*

jack² /dʒæk/ *verb*
jack sth in *phrasal verb UK informal* to stop doing something, especially a job *She's **jacked in** her **job**.*
jack sth up *phrasal verb informal* to increase a price or rate suddenly and by a large amount

jackal /ˈdʒækᵊl/ *noun* [C] a wild dog that hunts in groups

O-K **jacket** /ˈdʒækɪt/ *noun* [C] a short coat *a leather jacket* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 ➲See also: **dinner jacket, life jacket, strait-jacket**

ˌjacket poˈtato *noun* [C] *plural* **jacket potatoes** *UK* **FOOD** a potato that has been baked in the oven with its skin on

jack-knife¹ /ˈdʒæknaɪf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **jack-knives** a knife with a blade that can be folded away into the handle

jack-knife² /ˈdʒækˌnaɪf/ *verb* [I] If a large truck jack-knifes, the front part turns round to face the back in a way that is not controlled.

jackpot /ˈdʒækpɒt/ *noun* **1** [C] an amount of money that is the largest prize anyone can win in a competition **2 hit the jackpot** to be very successful, especially by winning or earning a lot of money

Jacuzzi /dʒəˈkuːzi/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a bath or pool that produces bubbles in the water

jade /dʒeɪd/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a green stone used in making jewellery

jaded /ˈdʒeɪdɪd/ *adjective* tired or bored with something, especially because you have done it too much

jagged /ˈdʒægɪd/ *adjective* very rough and sharp ***jagged rocks***

jaguar /ˈdʒægjuəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large, wild cat that lives in Central and South America

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***jail***

be released from/be sent to jail • **in** jail • a jail **sentence**

jail¹ (*also UK* **gaol**) /dʒeɪl/ *noun* [C, U] a place where criminals are kept as a punishment *He ended up **in jail**.*

jail² /dʒeɪl/ *verb* [T] to put someone in a jail [**often passive**] *He was jailed for two years.*

jailer /ˈdʒeɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who guards prisoners in a jail

jam¹ /dʒæm/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C, U] (*also US* **jelly**) a sweet food made from fruit that you spread on bread *a jar of strawberry jam* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11 **2** [C] (*also* **traffic jam**) a line of cars, trucks, etc that are moving slowly or not moving *We were stuck **in a jam** for hours.*

jam² /dʒæm/ *verb* **jamming**, *past* **jammed** **1** **jam sth in/into/on, etc** to push something somewhere firmly and tightly *She jammed her hands into her pockets.* **2** STUCK [I, T] to get stuck or make something get stuck *The machine keeps jamming.* **3** FILL [T] to fill a place completely [**often passive**] *The streets were **jammed with** cars.* **4** STOP RADIO [T] to send a signal that stops a radio being able to broadcast

jamboree /ˌdʒæmbᵊrˈiː/ *noun* [C] a big celebration or party

Jan *written abbreviation for* January

jangle /ˈdʒæŋgl/ *verb* [I, T] If small metal objects jangle, they hit together making a ringing noise, and if you jangle them, you make them make this noise. *He was jangling his keys.* •**jangle** *noun* [C]

janitor /ˈdʒænɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US* someone whose job is to look after a building *the school janitor*

O-K **January** /ˈdʒænjuᵊri/ (*written abbreviation* **Jan**) *noun* [C, U] the first month of the year

jar¹ /dʒɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] a glass container used for storing food *a jar of jam*

jar² /dʒɑːʳ/ *verb* **jarring**, *past* **jarred** HIT [I, T] to move suddenly, hitting something and causing pain or damage *The movement jarred his injured leg.*
jar on sb *phrasal verb UK* to annoy someone *Her voice jars on me.*

jargon /ˈdʒɑːgən/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** words and phrases used by particular groups of people that are difficult for other people to understand *legal jargon*

jaundice /ˈdʒɔːndɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a disease that makes your eyes and skin yellow

jaundiced /ˈdʒɔːndɪst/ *adjective* having a negative opinion of something because of bad things that have happened to you ***a jaundiced view** of marriage*

jaunt /dʒɔːnt/ *noun* [C] a short, enjoyable journey

jaunty /ˈdʒɔːnti/ *adjective* happy and confident ***a jaunty walk***

javelin /ˈdʒævᵊlɪn/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] a long, pointed stick that you throw as a sport **2 the javelin** **SPORT** a sport in which you throw a javelin as far as you can ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

jaw /dʒɔː/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** either of the two bones in your mouth that contain your teeth ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 ➲See picture at **skull 2 sb's jaw drops** If someone's jaw drops, their mouth opens because they are very surprised.

jazz /dʒæz/ *noun* [U] **MUSIC** music with a strong beat that is often played without written music *a **jazz band***

J

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***jealous***

make sb jealous ● **insanely/madly** jealous ● jealous **of** sb/sth

jealous /ˈdʒeləs/ *adjective* **1** WANTING SOMETHING unhappy and angry because you want something that someone else has *His new bike was **making** his friends **jealous**.* ○ *Steve has always been **jealous of** his brother's good looks.* **2** LOVE upset and angry because someone you love seems too interested in another person *a jealous husband* ●**jealously** *adverb*

jealousy /ˈdʒeləsi/ *noun* [U] jealous feelings

jeans /dʒiːnz/ *noun* [plural] trousers made from denim (= a strong, usually blue, material) *a **pair of jeans*** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

Jeep /dʒiːp/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a strongly built vehicle with big wheels that is used for driving over rough ground

jeer /dʒɪər/ *verb* [I, T] to laugh and shout insults at someone *The crowd outside his house jeered as he left.* ●**jeer** *noun* [C]

Jell-O /ˈdʒeləʊ/ *noun* [U] *US trademark* FOOD jelly

jelly /ˈdʒeli/ *noun* [C, U] **1** FOOD *UK* (*US* **Jell-O**) a soft but solid sweet food that shakes when you move it *jelly and ice cream* **2** FOOD *US* (*UK/US* **jam**) a sweet food made from fruit that you spread on bread **3** any substance that looks or feels like jelly *The egg is surrounded by a layer of jelly.*

jellyfish /ˈdʒelifɪʃ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **jellyfish** a sea creature with a clear body that may sting you (= put poison into your skin)

jelutong /ˈdʒeljətɒŋ/ *noun* [U] DT a type of soft wood often used to make models

jeopardize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈdʒepədaɪz/ *verb* [T] to put something in a situation where there is a risk of failing or being harmed *Bad weather could jeopardize all our plans.*

jeopardy /ˈdʒepədi/ *noun* **in jeopardy** in danger of failing or being harmed *If the factory closes, local jobs will be in jeopardy.*

jerk¹ /dʒɜːk/ *verb* [I, T] to move very quickly and suddenly, or to make something move like this *The truck jerked forward.*

jerk² /dʒɜːk/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a quick, sudden movement *a sudden jerk of the head* **2** STUPID PERSON *mainly US informal* a stupid or annoying person

jerky /ˈdʒɜːki/ *adjective* Jerky movements are quick and sudden. ●**jerkily** *adverb*

jersey /ˈdʒɜːzi/ *noun* **1** PIECE OF CLOTHING [C] a piece of clothing which covers the top of your body and is pulled on over your head **2** CLOTH [U] soft wool or cotton cloth used for making clothes

jest /dʒest/ *noun* **in jest** said as a joke

Jesus Christ /ˌdʒiːzəsˈkraɪst/ *noun* RELIGION the Jewish holy man believed by Christians to be the Son of God, and on whose life and teachings Christianity is based

jet¹ /dʒet/ *noun* [C] **1** AIRCRAFT an aircraft that flies very fast ➲See also: **jumbo jet** **2** WATER OR GAS water or gas that is forced out of something in a thin, strong line

jet² /dʒet/ *verb* [I] **jetting**, *past* **jetted jet in/off, etc** to fly somewhere in an aircraft *She jetted off to Athens for a week.*

jet-black /ˌdʒetˈblæk/ *noun* [U] a very dark black colour ●**jet-black** *adjective jet-black hair*

ˈjet ˌengine *noun* [C] an engine that makes an aircraft fly very fast

ˈjet ˌlag *noun* [U] when you feel tired because you have just travelled a long distance on an aircraft

jettison /ˈdʒetɪsᵊn/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT WANT/NEED to get rid of something you do not want or need *The station has jettisoned educational broadcasts.* **2** MAKE LIGHTER If an aircraft or a ship jettisons something, it throws it off to make itself lighter.

jetty /ˈdʒeti/ *noun* [C] a wooden structure at the edge of the sea or a lake where people can get on and off boats

Jew /dʒuː/ *noun* [C] RELIGION, SOCIETY someone whose religion is Judaism, or who is related to the ancient people of Israel

jewel /ˈdʒuːəl/ *noun* [C] a valuable stone that is used to make jewellery

jeweller *UK* (*US* **jeweler**) /ˈdʒuːələ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to sell or make jewellery

jewellery *UK* (*US* **jewelry**) /ˈdʒuːəlri/ *noun* [U] objects made from gold, silver, and valuable stones that you wear for decoration

Jewish /ˈdʒuːɪʃ/ *adjective* RELIGION, SOCIETY relating or belonging to the Jews *Jewish history/law*

jibe (*also* **gibe**) /dʒaɪb/ *noun* [C] an insulting remark *He kept making **jibes at** me about my weight.*

jig /dʒɪg/ *noun* [C] **1** MUSIC a traditional, quick dance, or the music it is danced to **2** DT a piece of equipment that guides a tool for cutting and holds the object being cut

jiggle /ˈdʒɪgl/ *verb* [I, T] to make quick, short movements from side to side or to make something else move like this

jigsaw /ˈdʒɪgsɔː/ (*also* **ˈjigsaw ˌpuzzle**) *noun* [C] a picture in many small pieces that you put together as a game

jingle¹ /ˈdʒɪŋgl/ *noun* [C] **1** MUSIC a short song that is used to advertise a product on the radio or television **2** a sound made when small metal objects hit against each other

jingle² /ˈdʒɪŋgl/ *verb* [I, T] to make the sound of small metal objects hitting against each other *a pocket full of jingling coins*

jinx /dʒɪŋks/ *noun* [C] someone or something that brings bad luck *There seems to be **a jinx on** the school.* ●**jinx** *verb* [T]

JIT /ˌdʒeɪaɪˈtiː/ *adjective* [always before noun] *abbreviation for* just-in-time

jitters /ˈdʒɪtəz/ *noun* [plural] a nervous feeling *Hospitals give me **the jitters**.*

jittery /ˈdʒɪtᵊri/ *adjective* nervous *She gets quite **jittery about** exams.*

Jnr *UK* (*UK/US* **Jr**) *written abbreviation for* junior (= the younger of two men in a family with the same name)

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***job***

A more formal alternative is the noun **occupation**: *Please fill in your name, age and* ***occupation***.

The nouns **post** and **position** are often used to talk about a particular job within an organisation: *She's applied for a part-time teaching* ***post/position***.

The noun **career** is sometimes used to describe a job that a person does for a long period in their life: *She's had a very successful* ***career*** *in marketing*.

A **placement** (*UK*) (**internship** *US*) is a job that someone does for a short time in order to learn more about a particular kind of work: *He's got a year's* ***placement*** *in the medical labs*.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***job***

a **dead-end/full-time/good/part-time/temporary** job ● **apply for/create/do/find/get/lose** a job ● a job **as** sth

job /dʒɒb/ *noun* [C] **1** PAID EMPLOYMENT the regular work that you do in order to earn money *She* ***got a job*** *in publishing.* ○ *Hundreds of workers could* ***lose*** *their* ***jobs***. ○ *Why don't you* ***apply for a*** *part-time* ***job?*** ➲See Common Learner Error at **work 2** PIECE OF WORK a piece of work that you have to do *cooking, cleaning and other household jobs* **3** RESPONSIBILITY something that is your responsibility *It's my job to water the plants.* **4 make a bad/good, etc job of sth** *UK* to do sth badly/well, etc **5 do a good/excellent, etc job** to do something well/very well, etc *She did a great job of organizing the event.* **6 out of a job** without a job *How long have you been out of a job?* **7 do the job** If something does the job, it is suitable for a particular purpose. *Here, this knife should do the job.* **8 it's a good job** *UK informal* If it is a good job that something happened, it is lucky that it happened. [+ **(that)**] *It's a good job that Jo was there to help you.* **9 just the job** *UK* If something is just the job, it is exactly what you want or need.

job description *noun* [C] a list of the things you must do in your work

jobless /ˈdʒɒbləs/ *adjective* SOCIETY without a job *young jobless people*

job production *noun* [U] in business, the production of single products for different customers

job satisfaction *noun* [U] the amount of pleasure and achievement your job makes you feel

job security *noun* [U] If you have job security, your job is likely to be permanent.

jobshare /ˈdʒɒbʃeər/ *verb* [I] *UK* If two people jobshare, they do one job between them, working at different times. ●**jobshare** *noun UK*

jockey /ˈdʒɒki/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who rides horses in races ➲See also: **disc jockey**

jog /dʒɒg/ *verb* **jogging**, *past* **jogged 1** SPORT [I] to run slowly for exercise *I jog through the park every morning.* **2** [T] to hit something gently by mistake *He jogged her arm.* **3 jog sb's memory** to cause someone to remember something *They hoped the photographs would jog his memory.* ●**jog** *noun* [**no plural**] *Let's go for a jog.* ●**jogging** *noun* [U]

jogger /ˈdʒɒgər/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who runs for exercise

join[1] /dʒɔɪn/ *verb* **1** BECOME MEMBER [T] to become a member of a group or organization *He joined the army when he was eighteen.* **2** DO WITH OTHERS [T] to do something or go somewhere with someone *Would you like to join us for dinner?* **3** FASTEN [T] to fasten or connect things together ***Join*** *the ends* ***together*** *with strong glue.* **4** MEET [I, T] to meet at a particular point *The Mississippi River and the Missouri join near St Louis.* **5 join a line** (*also UK* **join a queue**) to go and stand at the end of a row of people waiting for something ➲See also: join forces (**force**[1])

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

join

Join is not followed by a preposition when it is used in expressions such as 'join a company'.

He joined the team in 1998.

~~*He joined to the team in 1998.*~~

join in (sth) *phrasal verb* to become involved in an activity with other people *We're playing cards. Would you like to join in?*

join up *phrasal verb* to become a member of the army or other military group

join[2] /dʒɔɪn/ *noun* [C] *UK* the place where two or more things are fastened together

joined-up /ˌdʒɔɪnˈdʌp/ *adjective UK* **1 joined-up writing** a style of writing where each letter in a word is connected to the next one **2 joined-up thinking** thinking about a complicated problem in an intelligent and original way, and considering everything that is connected with it

joint

joint[1] /dʒɔɪnt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] belonging to or done by two or more people *a* ***joint statement*** ○ *The project was a* ***joint effort*** *by all the children in the class.* ●**jointly** *adverb*

joint[2] /dʒɔɪnt/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY a place in your body where two bones meet *the knee joint* **2** FOOD *UK* a large piece of meat, usually cooked in the oven *a joint of beef* **3** CONNECTION a place where parts of a structure or machine are connected **4** PLACE *informal* a place where

something is sold, especially a restaurant or bar *a pizza joint*

joint-stock company /ˌdʒɔɪntstɒkˈkʌmpəni/ *noun* [C] a business which is owned by the group of people who have shares (= parts of a business) in the company

ˌjoint ˈventure *noun* [C] a business activity that is done by two separate companies working together

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***joke***

crack/make/tell a joke ● a **dirty/sick** joke ● a joke **about** sth

joke¹ /dʒəʊk/ *noun* **1** [C] something which someone says to make people laugh, usually a short story with a funny ending *to **tell/make a joke*** **2 be a joke** *informal* to not be serious or not deserve respect *The investigation was a joke.* **3 be no joke** to be serious or difficult *It's no joke driving on icy roads.* **4 take a joke** to understand and accept a trick without becoming angry or upset ➲See also: **practical joke**

joke² /dʒəʊk/ *verb* **1** [I] to say funny things, or not be serious *She always **jokes about** her husband's cooking.* **2 You must be joking!/You're joking!** *informal* something you say to show that you are surprised by what someone has said, or do not believe it is true ●**jokingly** *adverb*

joker /ˈdʒəʊkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who likes saying or doing funny things **2** CARD one of a set of playing cards which can be used instead of another card in some games

jolly¹ /ˈdʒɒli/ *adjective* happy or enjoyable *We had a jolly evening.*

jolly² /ˈdʒɒli/ *adverb old-fashioned* very *a jolly good idea*

jolt¹ /dʒəʊlt/ *noun* [C] **1** SUDDEN MOVEMENT a sudden, violent movement *With a **sudden jolt** the train started moving again.* **2** SHOCK an unpleasant shock or surprise *The reminder that he was dead **gave** her a **jolt**.*

jolt² /dʒəʊlt/ *verb* [I, T] to move suddenly and forcefully, or to make someone or something do this *The bus stopped suddenly and the passengers were jolted forward.*

jostle /ˈdʒɒsl/ *verb* [I, T] to push other people in order to get somewhere in a crowd
jostle for sth *phrasal verb* to try hard to get something *Thousands of companies are jostling for business on the Internet.*

jot /dʒɒt/ *verb* [T] **jotting**, *past* **jotted** to write something quickly *She **jotted a note** to Sue.*
jot sth down *phrasal verb* to write something quickly on a piece of paper so that you remember it *I **jotted down** some **notes** during his speech.*

joule /dʒuːl/ (*abbreviation* **J**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES, PHYSICS** a unit of energy or work done

journal /ˈdʒɜːnəl/ *noun* [C] **1** MAGAZINE a magazine containing articles about a particular subject *a medical journal* **2** BOOK a book in which you regularly write about what has happened to you **3 FINANCE** a book in which financial records of different types are kept

journalism /ˈdʒɜːnəlɪzəm/ *noun* [U] the work of writing articles for newspapers, magazines, television, or radio

journalist /ˈdʒɜːnəlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is journalism

journalistic /ˌdʒɜːnəlˈɪstɪk/ *adjective* relating to journalism or typical of journalism

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***journey***

an **arduous/long/perilous/short** journey ● **begin/complete/embark on/go on/make** a journey

journey /ˈdʒɜːni/ *noun* [C] when you travel from one place to another *a car/train journey* ○ *We take games for the children when we **go on** long **journeys**.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **travel**

jovial /ˈdʒəʊviəl/ *adjective* happy and friendly *a jovial man*

joy /dʒɔɪ/ *noun* **1** HAPPINESS [U] a feeling of great happiness *the joy of winning* **2** PLEASURE [C] something or someone that makes you feel very happy *She's a joy to work with.* **3** SUCCESS [U] *UK informal* success *I tried ringing for a plumber, but had **no joy**.*

joyful /ˈdʒɔɪfəl/ *adjective* very happy, or making people feel very happy *joyful news* ●**joyfully** *adverb*

joyous /ˈdʒɔɪəs/ *adjective literary* extremely happy, or making people extremely happy ●**joyously** *adverb*

joypad /ˈdʒɔɪpæd/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a gamepad

joyriding /ˈdʒɔɪˌraɪdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] stealing cars and driving them fast and dangerously ●**joyride** /ˈdʒɔɪraɪd/ *noun* [C] *They took the car for a joyride.* ●**joyrider** *noun* [C]

joystick /ˈdʒɔɪstɪk/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a vertical handle you move to control a computer game, machine, or aircraft

JP /ˌdʒeɪˈpiː/ *noun* [C] **LAW** *abbreviation for* Justice of the Peace: a judge in a small or local court of law

JPEG /ˈdʒeɪpeg/ *noun* **1 COMPUTING** [U] *abbreviation for* joint photographics experts group: a system for making electronic pictures use less space **2 COMPUTING** [C] a type of computer file (= collection of information) that contains pictures or photographs

Jr (*also UK* **Jnr**) *written abbreviation for* junior (= the younger of two men in a family with the same name) *John F. Kennedy, Jr.*

jubilant /ˈdʒuːbɪlənt/ *adjective* feeling or showing great happiness, usually because of a success *jubilant United supporters* ●**jubilation** /ˌdʒuːbɪˈleɪʃən/ *noun* [U] a feeling of great happiness and success

jubilee /ˈdʒuːbɪliː/ *noun* [C] a celebration of an important event in the past, usually one which happened 25 or 50 years ago *a **golden jubilee*** (= 50 years) ○ *a **silver jubilee*** (= 25 years)

Judaism /ˈdʒuːdeɪɪzəm/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the religion of the Jewish people, based on belief in one God and on the laws contained in the Torah

judge¹ /dʒʌdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** **LAW** someone who controls a trial in court, decides how criminals should be punished, and makes decisions about legal things *Judge Moylan* ○ *The judge ruled that they had acted correctly.* **2** someone who decides which person or thing wins a competition *the Olympic judges* **3 a bad/good, etc judge of sth** someone who is usually wrong, usually right, etc when they judge something *a good judge of character*

O-➡ **judge²** /dʒʌdʒ/ *verb* **1** DEVELOP OPINION [I, T] to have or develop an opinion about something or someone, usually after thinking carefully [+ **question word**] *I can't judge whether he's telling the truth or not.* ○ *You shouldn't* ***judge*** *people* ***on*** *their appearances.* ○ *He was judged guilty/insane.* **2 judging by/from** used to express the reasons why you have a particular opinion *She must be popular judging by the number of letters that she receives.* **3** COMPETITION [I, T] to decide the winner or results of a competition *I've been asked to judge the art contest.* **4** BAD OPINION [I, T] to have a bad opinion of someone's behaviour, often because you think you are better than them *What gives you the right to judge people?* **5** GUESS [T] to try to guess something, especially a measurement *I find it difficult to judge distances.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***judgment***

make/pass/reserve judgment ● **poor/good** judgment ● a **harsh/subjective** judgment ● an **error/lapse** of judgment

O-➡ **judgment** (*also* **judgement**) /ˈdʒʌdʒmənt/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C, U] an opinion about someone or something that you decide on after thinking carefully *The inspector needs to* ***make*** *a* ***judgment*** *about how the school is performing.* **2** ABILITY [U] the ability to make good decisions or to be right in your opinions *to have good/bad judgment* **3** LEGAL DECISION [C, U] an official legal decision, usually made by a judge

judgmental (*also UK* **judgemental**) /dʒʌdʒˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* quick to criticize people

judicial /dʒuːˈdɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* **LAW** relating to a court of law or the legal system *a* ***judicial inquiry***

the judiciary /dʒuːˈdɪʃᵊri/ *noun* **LAW** all the judges in a country

judicious /dʒuːˈdɪʃəs/ *adjective* done or decided carefully and with good judgment

judo /ˈdʒuːdəʊ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport from Japan in which two people try to throw each other to the ground

jug /dʒʌg/ *noun* [C] a container with a handle used for pouring out liquids *a jug of water*

juggle /ˈdʒʌgl/ *verb* **1** MANAGE MANY THINGS [T] to try to do several things at once, when it is difficult to have enough time *Many women have to juggle work and family.* **2** THROW AND CATCH [I, T] to keep two or more objects such as balls in the air by throwing them repeatedly, usually in order to entertain people

juggler /ˈdʒʌglᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who juggles objects to entertain people

O-➡ **juice** /dʒuːs/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** the liquid that comes from fruit or vegetables ➲See also: **orange juice**

juices /ˈdʒuːsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** the liquid that comes from cooked meat

juicy /ˈdʒuːsi/ *adjective* **1** **FOOD** full of juice *juicy apples* **2** interesting because of shocking or personal information ***juicy gossip***

jukebox /ˈdʒuːkbɒks/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a machine, usually in a bar, which plays a song when you put money into it

O-➡ **July** /dʒʊˈlaɪ/ *noun* [C, U] the seventh month of the year ➲See also: **Fourth of July**

jumble¹ /ˈdʒʌmbl/ *noun* [**no plural**] a confused mixture or group of things *Her handbag is* ***a jumble of*** *pens, make-up, and keys.*

jumble² /ˈdʒʌmbl/ (*also* **jumble up**) *verb* [T] to mix things together in an untidy way [**often passive**] *Her clothes were all jumbled up in the suitcase.*

ˈjumble ˌsale *UK* (*US* **rummage sale**) *noun* [C] a sale of old items, especially clothes, usually to make money for an organization

jumbo /ˈdʒʌmbəʊ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] extra large *a jumbo bag of sweets*

ˌjumbo ˈjet *noun* [C] a very large aircraft for carrying passengers

O-➡ **jump¹** /dʒʌmp/ *verb* **1** INTO AIR [I] to push your body up and away from the ground using your feet and legs *The children were* ***jumping up and down*** *with excitement.* ○ *I jumped over the log.* ○ *They jumped into the water.* **2 jump into/up, etc** to move somewhere suddenly and quickly *She jumped into a taxi and rushed to the station.* **3** GO OVER [T] to move over something by moving up into the air *The horse jumped the last fence.* **4** INCREASE [I, T] to suddenly increase by a large amount *House prices have jumped by 20%.* **5** FEAR [I] to make a sudden movement because you are frightened or surprised *Her scream* ***made me jump.*** ➲See also: get/jump on the **bandwagon**, jump to conclusions (**conclusion**), jump the **gun**¹, jump the **queue**

jump at sth *phrasal verb* to take an opportunity to have or do something in a very willing and excited way *He jumped at the chance to join the band.*

jump² /dʒʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT when you push your body up into the air using your feet and legs *He won with a jump of 8.5 metres.* **2** INCREASE a sudden increase in the amount of something *a jump in profits* ➲See also: **the high jump, the long jump**

jumper /ˈdʒʌmpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** WARM CLOTHING *UK* (*UK/US* **sweater**) a warm piece of clothing which covers the top of your body and is pulled on over your head ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 5 **2** DRESS *US* (*UK* **pinafore**) a loose dress with no sleeves that is worn over other clothes such as a shirt

ˈjump ˌrope *US* (*UK* **skipping rope**) *noun* [C] **SPORT** a rope that you move over your head and then jump over as you move it under your feet

jumpy /ˈdʒʌmpi/ *adjective* nervous or anxious

J

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***junction***

the junction **of** sth **and** sth ● a **railway/road-**junction ● a **busy** junction

junction /ˈdʒʌŋkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *UK* the place where two roads or railway lines meet or cross each other *The accident happened at a busy road junction.* ➲See also: **T-junction**

juncture /ˈdʒʌŋktʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] *formal* a particular point in an event or period of time

June /dʒuːn/ *noun* [C, U] the sixth month of the year

jungle /ˈdʒʌŋgl/ *noun* [C, U] an area of land, usually in tropical countries, where trees and plants grow close together

junior¹ /ˈdʒuːniəʳ/ *adjective* **1** LOW RANK low or lower in rank *a junior minister/senator* **2** YOUNG PEOPLE for or relating to young people *a junior tennis tournament* **3** NAME *mainly US* (*written abbreviation* **Jr**) used at the end of a man's name to show that he is the younger of two men in the same family who have the same name *Hello, I'd like to speak to Mr Anderson Junior, please.*

junior² /ˈdʒuːniəʳ/ *noun* **1 be 10/20, etc years sb's junior** to be 10, 20, etc years younger than someone *My wife is 8 years my junior.* **2 EDUCATION** [C] a student in their third year of study at an American college or high school (= school for 15-18 year olds) **3 EDUCATION** [C] *UK* a child who goes to a junior school

ˈjunior ˌcollege *noun* [C, U] **EDUCATION** a two-year college in the US where students can learn a skill or prepare to enter a university

ˌjunior ˈhigh school (*also* **ˌjunior ˈhigh**) *noun* [C, U] **EDUCATION** a school in the US or Canada for children who are 12 to 15 years old

ˈjunior ˌschool *noun* [C, U] **EDUCATION** a school in the UK for children who are 7 to 11 years old

junk /dʒʌŋk/ *noun* [U] *informal* old things which have little value

ˈjunk ˌfood *noun* [U] **FOOD** food which is unhealthy but is quick and easy to eat

junkie /ˈdʒʌŋki/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** DRUGS someone who cannot stop taking illegal drugs **2** WANTING SOMETHING someone who wants something or wants to do something very much *a publicity junkie*

ˈjunk ˌmail *noun* [U] letters sent by companies to advertise their goods and services

junta /ˈdʒʌntə/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a military government that has taken power in a country by force

Jupiter /ˈdʒuːpɪtəʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **ASTRONOMY** the planet that is fifth from the Sun, after Mars and before Saturn ➲See picture at **solar system**

Jurassic /dʒʊəˈræsɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY, GEOLOGY** from a period of time between around 208 and 146 million years ago, in which the first birds appeared and the single piece of land broke up into separate continents

jurisdiction /ˌdʒʊərɪsˈdɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **LAW** the legal power to make decisions and judgments *The school is* ***under the jurisdiction of*** *the local council.*

juror /ˈdʒʊərəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a member of a jury

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***jury***

be **on** a jury

jury /ˈdʒʊəri/ *noun* [**group**] **1 LAW** a group of people in a court of law who decide if someone is guilty or not **2** a group of people who decide the winner of a competition

just¹ *strong form* /dʒʌst/ *weak form* /dʒəst/ *adverb* **1** ONLY only *I'll just have a small piece.* ○ *He just wants to win.* ○ *The film is not just about love.* **2** RECENTLY a very short time ago *I've just been on a trip to France.* ○ *We've only just begun.* **3** EMPHASIS used to emphasize something you say *I just can't bear it!* **4** ALMOST NOT *UK* almost not *This dress* ***only just*** *fits.* **5** EXACTLY exactly *Tim looks* ***just like*** *his father.* ○ *This carpet would be* ***just right*** *for my bedroom.* **6** ALMOST NOW now or very soon *I'm just coming!* **7 just before/over/under, etc** a little before/over/under, etc something else *It costs just over $10.* ○ *She left just before Michael.* **8 just about** almost *I think I've remembered just about everything.* **9 be just about to do sth** to be going to do something very soon *I was just about to phone you.* **10 just as bad/good/tall, etc (as sb/sth)** equally bad/good/tall, etc *He's just as talented as his brother.* **11 I/you/we, etc will just have to do sth** used to say that there is nothing else someone can do *You'll just have to wait.* **12 just as** at the same time as *She woke up just as we got there.* **13 it's just as well** used to say that it is lucky that something happened *It's just as well we brought an umbrella.* ➲See also: just the **job**

just² /dʒʌst/ *adjective* fair or morally right *a just society* ➲Opposite **unjust** ●**justly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***justice***

fight for/seek justice ● justice **for** sb

justice /ˈdʒʌstɪs/ *noun* **1** FAIR BEHAVIOUR [U] behaviour or treatment that is fair and morally correct *She tried to bring about fairness and* ***justice for*** *all.* ➲Opposite **injustice 2 LAW** [U] the system of laws which judges or punishes people *the* ***criminal justice system*** **3 LAW** [C] *US* someone who judges in a court of law **4 LAW bring sb to justice** to catch a criminal and decide if they are guilty or not **5 do sb/sth justice; do justice to sb/sth** to show the best or real qualities of something or someone *This postcard doesn't do justice to the wonderful scenery.*

ˌJustice of the ˈPeace *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who acts as a judge in a small or local court of law

justifiable /ˈdʒʌstɪfaɪəbl/ *adjective* having a good reason *justifiable anger* ●**justifiably** *adverb*

justification /ˌdʒʌstɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a reason for something *There's no* ***justification for*** *treating her so badly.*

justified /ˈdʒʌstɪfaɪd/ *adjective* fair or having a good reason *justified criticism* ○ *He's perfectly* ***justified in*** *asking for a larger salary.* ➲Opposite **unjustified**

justify /ˈdʒʌstɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE ACCEPTABLE to give a good enough reason to make something seem acceptable *I don't know how they can justify those ticket prices.* **2** PRINTING in printing, to arrange the spaces between words so that lines are the correct length, usually to form a straight line at the edges

just-in-time /ˌdʒʌstɪnˈtaɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A just-in-time system of manufacturing (= producing goods) is based on preventing waste by producing only the amount of goods needed at a particular time, and not paying to produce and store more goods than are needed.

jut /dʒʌt/ *verb* **jutting**, *past* **jutted jut into/out, etc** If something juts out, it comes out further than the edge or surface around it. *The rocks jutted out into the sea.*

juvenile¹ /ˈdʒuːvᵊnaɪl/ *adjective* **1** YOUNG [**always before noun**] by, for, or relating to young people ***juvenile crime*** **2** SILLY behaving in a silly way as if you were a young child

juvenile² /ˈdʒuːvᵊnaɪl/ *noun* [C] **LAW** especially in law, a young person

juvenile delinquent *noun* [C] **LAW** a young criminal

juxtapose /ˌdʒʌkstəˈpəʊz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to place very different things or people close to each other *The exhibition **juxtaposes** paintings **with** black and white photographs.* ●**juxtaposition** /ˌdʒʌkstəpəˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

J

Kk

K, k /keɪ/ the eleventh letter of the alphabet

K /keɪ/ COMPUTING *abbreviation for* kilobyte: a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store

kaizen /ˈkaɪzen/ *noun* [U] a Japanese way of running a company by always trying to improve the way people work and what they do

kaleidoscope /kəˈlaɪdəskəʊp/ *noun* **1** TOY [C] a tube-shaped toy you look through which contains mirrors and pieces of coloured glass that make patterns **2** MIXTURE [**no plural**] a mixture of different things *The fashion show was a kaleidoscope of colours.*

kangaroo /ˌkæŋgəˈruː/ *noun* [C] a large Australian animal that moves by jumping on its back legs ➲See picture at **marsupials**

karat /ˈkærət/ *noun* [C] MEASURES *another US spelling of* carat (= a unit for measuring how pure gold is, or how much valuable stones weigh)

karate /kəˈrɑːti/ *noun* [U] SPORT a sport from Japan in which people fight using fast, hard hits with the hands or feet

karma /ˈkɑːmə/ *noun* [U] RELIGION in some religions, the actions of a person in this life or earlier lives, which influence their future

kayak /ˈkaɪæk/ *noun* [C] SPORT a light, narrow boat, usually for one person, which you move using a paddle (= stick with a wide, flat part) ●**kayaking** *noun* [U] the activity of travelling in a kayak

kebab /kɪˈbæb/ (*also* **shish kebab**) *noun* [C] FOOD small pieces of meat or vegetables cooked on a long, thin stick

keel¹ /kiːl/ *noun* [C] a long piece of wood or metal at the bottom of a boat that helps it to balance

keel² /kiːl/ *verb*
keel over *phrasal verb* to fall over suddenly

keen /kiːn/ *adjective* **1** INTERESTED very interested or enthusiastic *a keen golfer/photographer* ○ *He's very* ***keen on*** *travelling.* **2** WANTING TO DO wanting to do something very much [**+ to do sth**] *The shop is keen to attract new customers.* **3** VERY GOOD very good or well developed *a keen sense of smell* ●**keenness** *noun* [U] ●**keenly** *adverb*

keep¹ /kiːp/ *verb past* **kept 1** HAVE [T] to have something permanently or for the whole of a period of time *You can keep that dress if you like it.* ○ *He borrowed my bike and kept it all week.* **2 keep sth in/on, etc** to regularly store something in a particular place *I think he keeps his keys in the desk drawer.* ○ *We'll keep your application on file.* **3 keep doing sth** to continue to do something, or to do something repeatedly *I keep telling her not to leave her clothes on the floor.* ○ *He keeps hitting me.* **4 keep (sb/sth) awake/clean/safe, etc** to remain in a particular state or make someone or something remain in a particular state *He goes jogging twice a week to keep fit.* ○ *He keeps his car spotlessly clean.* **5 keep sb/sth in/inside, etc** to make someone or something stay in the same place *They will keep her at home for a few more days.* **6** MAKE DO STH [T] to make someone do something that stops them doing something else [**+ doing sth**] *She kept me talking for ages.* ○ *Sorry to* ***keep you waiting.*** ○ *Don't let me* ***keep*** *you* ***from*** *your work.* **7 keep a secret** to not tell anyone a secret **8 keep a promise/your word, etc** to do what you have promised to do **9 keep an appointment** to meet someone when you have arranged to meet them **10** MAKE LATE [T] to make someone arrive later than they planned *I was expecting you at six - what kept you?* **11** WRITE [T] to write down something in order to remember it *to keep records/notes* **12** FOOD [I] If food or drink keeps, it remains fresh. **13** PROVIDE MONEY [T] to provide enough money for someone to live *I can't keep a family on that salary.* **14** ANIMALS [T] to have and look after animals *Our neighbours keep pigs.* **15 keep sb going** to provide what someone needs for a short period of time *Dinner is at eight, but I had an apple to keep me going.* ➲See also: keep your **cool**³, keep a straight **face**¹, keep your fingers (**finger**¹) crossed, put/keep sb in the **picture**¹, keep a low **profile**¹, keep a tight **rein** on sb/sth, keep tabs (**tab**) on sb/sth, keep sb on their toes (**toe**¹)

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***keep***

If someone keeps something somewhere until they need it, the verb **store** is sometimes used: *I've* ***stored*** *all Helen's books in the attic.*

The verb **stash** (*informal*) and the phrasal verb **stash away** (*informal*) are sometimes used if someone keeps a lot of something in a secret place: *His money was* ***stashed (away)*** *in a cupboard.*

The verb **save** is often used when someone keeps something to use in the future: *I have some really good chocolates that I've been* ***saving*** *for a special occasion.*

The phrasal verbs **hang onto** and **hold onto** are also often used when someone keeps something that they might need in the future: *You should* ***hang/hold onto*** *that picture - it might be worth something.*

keep at sth *phrasal verb* to continue working hard at something difficult *Learning a language is hard but you've just got to keep at it.*
keep (sb/sth) away *phrasal verb* to not go somewhere or near something, or to prevent someone from going somewhere or near something *I told them to keep away from the edge of the cliff.*
keep (sb/sth) back *phrasal verb* to not go near something, or to prevent someone or something from going past a particular place *Barriers were built to keep back the flood water.*
keep sth back *phrasal verb* to not tell someone everything you know about a situation or an event *I was sure she was keeping something back.*
keep sth down *phrasal verb* **1** NO INCREASE to

stop the number, level, or size of something from increasing *I have to exercise to keep my weight down.* **2** **HEALTH** to be able to eat or drink without vomiting

keep sb/sth from doing sth *phrasal verb* to prevent someone or something from doing something

keep sth from sb *phrasal verb* to not tell someone about something *Is there something you're keeping from me?*

keep sb in *phrasal verb* to make a child stay inside as a punishment, or to make someone stay in hospital

keep (sb/sth) off sth *phrasal verb* to not go onto an area, or to stop someone or something going onto an area *Keep off the grass.*

keep sth off (sb/sth) *phrasal verb* to stop something touching or harming someone or something *He put a cloth over the salad to keep the flies off.*

keep on doing sth *phrasal verb* to continue to do something, or to do something again and again *She kept on asking me questions the whole time.*

keep on *phrasal verb UK* to continue to talk in an annoying way about something *I wish he wouldn't* ***keep on about*** *how much he earns.*

keep (sb/sth) out *phrasal verb* to not go into a place, or to stop someone or something from going into a place *He locked the room and put up a sign asking people to keep out.*

keep to sth *phrasal verb* **1** STAY SOMEWHERE to stay in one particular area *We kept to main roads all the way.* **2** NOT CHANGE PLANS to do what you have promised or planned to do *I think we should keep to our original plan.*

keep sth to sth *phrasal verb* If you keep something to a particular number or amount, you make sure it does not become larger than that. *I'm trying to keep costs to a minimum.*

keep sth to yourself *phrasal verb* to keep something secret and not tell anyone else about it

keep up *phrasal verb* **1** SAME SPEED to move at the same speed as someone or something that is moving forward so that you stay level with them *She was walking so fast I couldn't* ***keep up with*** *her.* **2** MAKE PROGRESS to increase or make progress at the same speed as something or someone else so that you stay at the same level as them *Prices have been rising very fast and wages haven't kept up.* **3** UNDERSTAND to be able to understand or deal with something that is happening or changing very fast *I feel it's important to* ***keep up with*** *current events.*

keep sth up *phrasal verb* to not allow something that is at a high level to fall to a lower level *Make sure you eat properly - you've got to keep your strength up.*

keep (sth) up *phrasal verb* to continue without stopping or changing or to continue something without allowing it to stop or change *People are having difficulties keeping up the repayments on their loans.*

keep² /kiːp/ *noun* [**no plural**] the money needed to pay for someone to eat and live in a place *He* ***earns*** *his* ***keep*** *working in a garage.*

keeper /ˈkiːpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who looks after a place and the things, people, or animals there *a park keeper* **2** **SPORT** *informal short for* goalkeeper (= the player in a sport such as football who tries to stop the ball going into the goal)

keeping /ˈkiːpɪŋ/ *noun* **1 for safe keeping** in order to keep something safe *She put the money into a bank for safe keeping.* **2 in keeping with sth** suitable or right for a situation, style, or tradition *The antique desk was in keeping with the rest of the furniture in the room.*

keg /keɡ/ *noun* [C] a large, round container used for storing beer

keks /keks/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* men's shorts (= short trousers) or pants (= underwear)

kelvin /ˈkelvɪn/ (*abbreviation* **K**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a standard unit of temperature

kennel /ˈkenᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** STRUCTURE a small building for a dog to sleep in **2** PLACE *US* (*UK* **kennels**) a place where dogs are cared for while their owners are away

kept /kept/ *past of* keep

keratin /ˈkerətɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the main substance that forms hair, nails, hooves, horns, feathers, etc

kerb *UK* (*US* **curb**) /kɜːb/ *noun* [C] the line of stones at the edge of a pavement (= raised path that people walk on) next to the road

kernel /ˈkɜːnᵊl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a nut or seed inside the hard shell which you can usually eat

kerning /ˈkɜːnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **DT** in printing, the amount of space between letters and lines of words

kerosene /ˈkerəsiːn/ *US* (*UK* **paraffin**) *noun* [U] oil used for heating and in lamps (= equipment that produces light)

ketchup /ˈketʃʌp/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a thick sauce made from tomatoes (= round, red fruit) that is eaten cold with food

kettle /ˈketl/ *noun* [C] a metal or plastic container with a lid, used for boiling water *Charlotte* ***put the kettle on*** *to make some tea.* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***key***

a **bunch of/set of** keys • the key **for/to** sth • a **car** key

key¹ /kiː/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR LOCKS a piece of metal cut into a particular shape and used for locking things such as doors, or for starting an engine *I've lost my car keys.* **2** METHOD a way of explaining or achieving something *Hard work is* ***the key to*** *success.* **3** **MUSIC** one of the parts you press with your fingers on a keyboard or musical instrument to produce letters, numbers, or to make a sound **4** **MUSIC** a set of musical notes based on one particular note *the key of D major* **5** SYMBOLS a list which explains the symbols on a map or picture **6** ANSWERS a list of answers to an exercise or game ➲See also: under **lock²** and key

key² /kiː/ *adjective* very important in influencing or achieving something *a* ***key factor***

key³ /kiː/ *verb*

key sth in *phrasal verb* **COMPUTING** to put information into a computer or machine using a keyboard

keyboard /ˈkiːbɔːd/ *noun* [C] **1** COMPUTING a set of keys on a computer, which you press to make it work, or the rows of keys on a piano ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** MUSIC an electrical musical instrument similar to a piano

ˈkey ˌfield *noun* [C] COMPUTING a field (= area for a particular kind of information) or fields in a computer database that identifies a particular record (= collection of pieces of information treated as one unit)

keyhole /ˈkiːhəʊl/ *noun* [C] a hole in a lock where you put a key

keynote /ˈkiːnəʊt/ *noun* [C] the most important part of an event, idea, or speech, or something that is emphasized strongly *the **keynote speech/speaker***

keypad /ˈkiːpæd/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a set of buttons with numbers on them used to operate a television, telephone, etc

ˈkey ˌring *noun* [C] a metal ring used for keeping keys together

kg MEASURES *written abbreviation for* kilogram (= a unit for measuring weight)

khaki /ˈkɑːki/ *noun* [U] a pale green-brown colour, often worn by soldiers ●**khaki** *adjective* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

kibbutz /kɪˈbʊts/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY *plural* **kibbutzim** a place in Israel where people live and work together, often a farm or a factory

kick¹ /kɪk/ *verb* **1** HIT [I, T] to hit or move something or someone with your foot *The boys were **kicking a ball** back and forth.* ○ *They tried to kick the door down.* **2** MOVE LEGS [I] to move your feet and legs forwards or backwards quickly and with force *I kicked at them and screamed for help.* **3 kick yourself** *informal* to be very annoyed with yourself for doing something stupid or wrong *I could have kicked myself for saying that.* ➲See also: be **alive** and kicking/well
be kicking about/around *phrasal verb informal* If something is kicking about, it is in a particular place, but nobody is using it or paying attention to it. *We've probably got a copy of the document kicking around the office.*
kick in *phrasal verb informal* to start to be effective or to happen *The new tax rate kicks in next month.*
kick off *phrasal verb* **1** SPORT When a football match or other event kicks off, it starts. **2** *informal* to start to get angry or complain
kick (sth) off *phrasal verb informal* When you kick off a discussion or activity, you start it.
kick sb out *phrasal verb informal* to force someone to leave a place or organization *His wife kicked him out.*

kick² /kɪk/ *noun* **1** HIT [C] when you kick something with your foot *He **gave** her a **kick** in the ribs.* **2** FEELING [C] *informal* a special feeling of excitement and energy *She **gets a kick out of** performing live.* **3 a kick in the teeth** used when someone treats you badly or unfairly, especially when you need or expect support *This latest pay award amounts to a kick in the teeth.* ➲See also: **free kick**

kickback /ˈkɪkbæk/ *noun* [C] *US* money given to someone, especially illegally, for providing help, a job, or a piece of business

kickboxing /ˈkɪkˌbɒksɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT a sport in which two people fight by hitting each other with their hands and kicking each other with their feet

kick-off /ˈkɪkɒf/ *noun* [C, U] SPORT the time when a football match begins

kid¹ /kɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** CHILD *informal* a child or young person *school kids* **2** GOAT a young goat

kid² /kɪd/ *verb* [I, T] **kidding**, *past* **kidded 1** JOKE to make a joke, or to trick someone with a joke **2** DECEIVE to deceive or trick someone into believing something [**often reflexive**] *You've got to stop kidding yourself. She's not coming back.*

kiddie /ˈkɪdi/ *noun* [C] *informal* a child

kidnap /ˈkɪdnæp/ *verb* [T] **kidnapping**, *past* **kidnapped** to take someone away using force, usually to obtain money in exchange for releasing them ●**kidnap** *noun* [C] *a kidnap victim/attempt* ●**kidnapper** *noun* [C]

kidnapping /ˈkɪdnæpɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is kidnapped

kidney /ˈkɪdni/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the two organs in your body which remove waste from the blood and produce urine

kill¹ /kɪl/ *verb* **1** DEATH [I, T] to cause someone or something to die *Sunday's bomb killed 19 people.* ○ *Their son was killed in a road accident.* **2 sb will kill sb** *informal* used to say that someone will be very angry with someone else *Dad will kill me for being late.* **3** END [T] to stop an activity or experience completely *His remark killed the conversation.* **4** CAUSE PAIN [T] *informal* to cause you a lot of pain or effort *My feet are killing me.* ○ *It wouldn't kill you to tidy up occasionally.* ➲See also: kill **time**¹
kill sth/sb off *phrasal verb* to stop something or someone from existing any more *Lack of funding is killing off local theatres.*

kill² /kɪl/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when an animal is killed **2 go/move in for the kill** to prepare to defeat someone completely or to kill them

killer /ˈkɪlə/ *noun* [C] someone who kills, or a disease, substance, or animal that kills *Cancer and heart disease are the UK's biggest killers.* ➲See also: **serial killer**

killing /ˈkɪlɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] a murder, or when someone or something is killed *the killing of civilians* **2 make a killing** *informal* to make a lot of money very quickly

kiln /kɪln/ *noun* [C] ART a large oven for baking bricks and other clay objects until they are hard

kilo /ˈkiːləʊ/ *noun* [C] MEASURES *short for* kilogram

kilo- /kɪlə-/ *prefix* MEASURES a thousand *a kilometre* ○ *a kilogram*

kilobyte /ˈkɪləʊbaɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **K**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING, MEASURES a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store, equal to 1024 bytes

kilogram (*also UK* **kilogramme**) (*written abbreviation* **kg**) /ˈkɪləʊgræm/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring weight, equal to 1000 grams

kilohertz /ˈkɪləhɜːts/ (*written abbreviation* **kHz**) *noun* [C] *plural* **kilohertz** MEASURES a unit of

measurement of sound waves which is equal to 1000 hertz

kilometre *UK* (*US* **kilometer**) (*written abbreviation* **km**) /kɪˈlɒmɪtəʳ, ˈkɪləˌmiːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring distance, equal to 1000 metres

kilowatt /ˈkɪləʊwɒt/ (*written abbreviation* **kW**) *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring electrical power, equal to 1000 watts

kilt /kɪlt/ *noun* [C] a traditional Scottish skirt for men, made of heavy material with close vertical folds at the back

kin /kɪn/ *noun* [plural] *formal* SOCIETY the members of your family ➲See also: **next of kin**

kind¹ /kaɪnd/ *noun* **1** [C] a type of thing or person *What **kind of** music do you like?* ○ ***All kinds of** people come to our church.* ○ *Older kids like board games and that **kind of thing**.* ○ *Her travel company was the first **of its kind*** (= the first one like it). **2 some kind of** used to talk about something when you are not sure of its exact type *She has some kind of disability.* **3 kind of** *informal* used when you are trying to explain or describe something, but you cannot be exact *It's kind of unusual.* **4 of a kind** used to describe something that exists but is not very good *The school had a swimming pool of a kind, but it was too small for most classes to use.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***kind***

The adjectives **nice** and **sweet** are common alternatives to 'kind': *It was really **nice** of you to come.* ● *Wasn't it **sweet** of Heidi to call?*

If someone is **good to** you, they do things to help you: *Jay's mother has been very **good to** us.*

If someone is very willing to help, you can describe them as **helpful**: *The staff here are very **helpful**.*

Someone who is **caring** is kind to other people and tries to make them happy and well: *I've always thought of Mary as a very **caring** person.*

The expression **mean well** is sometimes used to describe a person who tries to be kind and help but who does not improve a situation: *I know my parents **mean well**, but I do wish they wouldn't interfere.*

kind² /kaɪnd/ *adjective* Kind people do things to help others and show that they care about them. *Your mother was very **kind to** us.* ○ *It was very **kind of** you to come and see me.* ➲Opposite **unkind**

kinda /ˈkaɪndə/ *mainly US informal short for* kind of *I'm kinda busy right now.*

kindergarten /ˈkɪndəˌɡɑːtˀn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** EDUCATION in the UK, a school for children under five **2** EDUCATION in the US, a class in school for children aged five

kind-hearted /ˌkaɪndˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* having a kind character *a kind-hearted family man*

kindly¹ /ˈkaɪndli/ *adverb* **1** KIND WAY in a kind or generous way *She **kindly offered** to cook me lunch.* **2** PLEASE *formal* used in instructions to mean 'please', usually when you are annoyed *Would you kindly get out of my car?* **3 not take kindly to sth** to not like something that someone says or does *He doesn't take kindly to criticism.*

kindly² /ˈkaɪndli/ *adjective old-fashioned* kind *a kindly old gentleman*

kindness /ˈkaɪndnəs/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is kind *Thanks for all your kindness this morning.*

kinetic /kɪˈnetɪk/ *adjective* [always before noun] PHYSICS involving or producing movement *kinetic energy*

king /kɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** RULER a male ruler in some countries *King Richard II* ○ *the kings and queens of England* **2** BEST PERSON the best or most important person in a particular activity *He's the new king of pop music.* **3** PLAYING CARD a playing card with a picture of a king on it *the king of spades*

kingdom /ˈkɪŋdəm/ *noun* **1** [C] POLITICS a country with a king or queen *the Kingdom of Belgium* **2 the animal/plant kingdom** all animals or plants considered together

kingfisher /ˈkɪŋˌfɪʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small, brightly coloured bird which catches fish from rivers and lakes

king-size (*also* **king-sized**) /ˈkɪŋsaɪz/ *adjective* very big *a **king-size bed***

kink /kɪŋk/ *noun* [C] a bend in something long and thin *There was a kink in the cassette tape.*

kinky /ˈkɪŋki/ *adjective informal* involving strange or unusual sexual behaviour

kiosk /ˈkiːɒsk/ *noun* [C] a small building with a window where things like tickets or newspapers are sold

kip /kɪp/ *noun* [C, U] *UK informal* a short period of sleep ●**kip** *verb* [I] **kipping**, *past* **kipped**

kipper /ˈkɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* FOOD a type of fish that has been cut open and dried over smoke

kiss¹ /kɪs/ *verb* [I, T] to press your lips against another person's lips or skin to show love or affection *He kissed her cheek.* ○ *Len **kissed** Samantha **goodbye** at the front gate.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***kiss***

give sb a kiss ● **plant** a kiss **on** sb's [lips/cheek, etc] ● a **lingering/passionate** kiss

kiss² /kɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** an act of kissing someone *She ran up and **gave** me **a** big **kiss**.* **2 give sb the kiss of life** *UK* HEALTH to help to keep someone who has stopped breathing alive by blowing into their mouth

kit /kɪt/ *noun* **1** COLLECTION [C] a collection of things kept in a container ready for a particular use *a **first-aid/tool kit*** **2** CLOTHES [C, U] *UK* a set of clothes worn for sport or military service *a football kit* **3** PARTS [C] a set of parts which you put together to make something *He's making a model car from a kit.*

kitchen /ˈkɪtʃɪn/ *noun* [C] a room used to prepare and cook food in ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

kite /kaɪt/ *noun* [C] a toy made of paper or cloth which flies in the air on the end of a long string

K

kitsch /kɪtʃ/ *noun* [U] decorative objects or pieces of art that are ugly, silly, or have little value

kitten /ˈkɪtᵊn/ *noun* [C] a young cat

kitty /ˈkɪti/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money consisting of a share from everyone in a group, used for a special purpose [**usually singular**] *We all put money into a kitty to pay for drinks.*

kiva /ˈkiːvə/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a large room built under the ground in a Native American village for religious ceremonies

kiwi /ˈkiːwiː/ (*also* ˈ**kiwi ˌfruit**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, green fruit with black seeds and brown, hairy skin

km **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* kilometre (= a unit for measuring distance)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***knack***

have/lose the knack **of** doing sth ● an **uncanny** knack ● a knack **for** doing sth

knack /næk/ *noun* [**no plural**] a special skill, or the ability to use or do something easily *a **knack for** remembering faces* ○ *She **has** the **knack** of making people feel comfortable.*

knackered /ˈnækəd/ *adjective UK informal* extremely tired

knead /niːd/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to press and shape the mixture for making bread firmly and repeatedly with your hands

knee /niː/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the middle part of your leg where it bends *a knee injury* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** the part of a pair of trousers that covers the knee **3 bring sb/sth to their knees** to destroy or defeat someone or something *The war brought the country to its knees.*

kneecap /ˈniːkæp/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the round bone at the front of your knee

knee-deep /ˌniːˈdiːp/ *adjective* **1** reaching as high as someone's knees *knee-deep in cold water* **2 be knee-deep in sth** to have a lot of something to deal with *I'm knee-deep in paperwork.*

knee-jerk /ˈniːdʒɜːk/ *adjective* **a knee-jerk reaction/response, etc** an immediate reaction that does not allow you time to consider something carefully

kneel /niːl/ *verb* [I] *past* **knelt**, **kneeled** to go down into or stay in a position where one or both of your knees are on the ground *She **knelt down** beside the child.*

knew /njuː/ *past tense of* know

knickers /ˈnɪkəz/ *UK* (*US* **panties**) *noun* [**plural**] women's underwear that covers the bottom ➲See Common Learner Error at **underwear** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

knife¹ /naɪf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **knives** a sharp tool or weapon for cutting, usually with a metal blade and a handle *a **knife and fork***

knife² /naɪf/ *verb* [T] to attack someone using a knife ➲See also: **jack-knife**

knight¹ /naɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** a man of high social rank who fought as a soldier on a horse in the past **2** **SOCIETY** a man who has been given the title 'Sir' by the King or Queen in the UK

knight² /naɪt/ *verb* **be knighted** **SOCIETY** to be given a knighthood

knighthood /ˈnaɪthʊd/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** the title of 'Sir' given to someone by the King or Queen in the UK

knit /nɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **knitting**, *past tense* **knitted**, *past participle* **knit** to make clothes using wool and two long needles to join the wool into rows *She was knitting him a jumper.*

knitting /ˈnɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when something is being knitted or the thing that is being knitted *She put down her knitting.*

knitwear /ˈnɪtweᵊ/ *noun* [U] knitted clothes

knob /nɒb/ *noun* **1** [C] a round handle, or a round button on a machine *a door knob* ○ ***Turn** the black **knob** to switch on the radio.* **2 a knob of butter** *UK* a small lump of butter

knock¹ /nɒk/ *verb* **1** MAKE NOISE [I] to make a noise by hitting something, especially a door, with your closed hand in order to attract someone's attention *There's someone **knocking at/on** the door.* ○ *Please knock before entering.* **2** HIT [T] to hit something or someone and make them move or fall down *He accidentally knocked the vase off the table.* ○ *I **knocked over** the mug.* **3** CRITICIZE [T] *informal* to criticize someone or something, often unfairly *She knocks every suggestion I make.* **4 Knock it off!** *informal* something you say when you want someone to stop doing something that is annoying you ➲See also: beat/knock the (living) **daylights** out of sb

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

knock

Be careful to use the correct prepositions. You do not always need one.

*The policeman **knocked on/knocked at** the door.*

~~*Listen! There is someone knocking to the door.*~~

Knock before you come in.

knock sth back *phrasal verb UK informal* to drink alcohol very quickly

knock sb down *phrasal verb UK* to hit someone with a vehicle and injure or kill them [**often passive**] *She was knocked down by a bus.*

knock sb/sth down *phrasal verb US* to cause someone or something to fall to the ground by hitting them

knock sth down *phrasal verb* to destroy a building or part of a building

knock off *phrasal verb informal* to stop working, usually at the end of a day *I don't knock off until six.*

knock sth off (sth) *phrasal verb* to take a particular amount away from something, usually a price *The manager knocked $5 off because it was damaged.*

knock sb out *phrasal verb* **1** **HEALTH** to make someone become unconscious, usually by hitting them on the head *He was knocked out halfway through the fight.* **2** DEFEAT to defeat a person or team in a competition so they cannot take part any more [**often passive**] *The French team were knocked out in the semifinal.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***knock***

a **sharp** knock ● a knock **at/on** [the door/window, etc.]

knock² /nɒk/ *noun* [C] **1** NOISE a sudden short noise made when something or someone hits a surface *a **knock at/on** the door* **2** HIT when someone or something is hit, sometimes causing damage or injury *a knock on the head*

knocker /ˈnɒkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a metal object fixed to the outside of a door which visitors use to knock

knock-on /ˌnɒkˈɒn/ *adjective UK* **a knock-on effect** When an event or situation has a knock-on effect, it causes another event or situation. *Cutting schools' budgets will have a knock-on effect on teachers' jobs.*

knockout /ˈnɒkaʊt/ *noun* SPORT [C] in boxing, when one person hits the other hard and they become unconscious

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***knot***

tie a knot (**in** sth) ● **undo/untie** a knot

knot¹ /nɒt/ *noun* **1** [C] a place where pieces of string, rope, etc have been tied together **2** MEASURES [C] a unit for measuring the speed of the wind, ships, or aircraft **3 tie the knot** *informal* to get married

knot² /nɒt/ *verb* [T] **knotting**, *past* **knotted** to tie knots in pieces of string, rope, etc

O-K **know¹** /nəʊ/ *verb past tense* **knew**, *past participle* **known 1** HAVE INFORMATION [I, T] to have knowledge or information about something in your mind *"How old is she?" "I don't know."* ○ *Andrew **knows** a lot **about** computers.* [+ **question word**] *Do you know where the station is?* [+ **(that)**] *He knew that she was lying.* **2** BE FAMILIAR WITH [T] to be familiar with a person, place, or thing because you have met them, been there, used it, etc before *I've known Tim since primary school.* ○ *I grew up in Brussels so I know it well.* ○ *Since moving to London, I've **got to know*** (= become familiar with) *some nice people.* **3** BE ABLE [T] to be able to do something [+ **question word**] *Do you know how to ski?* ○ *I only know* (= understand and speak) *a little Spanish.* **4 let sb know** to tell someone something *Let me know if you're going to the party.* **5** GUESS CORRECTLY [T] to guess something correctly *I knew she'd arrive late.* ○ *I **should have known** he wouldn't come.* **6** UNDERSTAND [I, T] to understand and agree with someone *I know what you mean about Pete - I wouldn't trust him at all.* **7 be known as sth** to be called something *California is also known as the Sunshine State.* **8 have known sth** to have had experience of something *I've never known the weather be so hot.* **9 know better (than to do sth)** to have the intelligence or judgment not to do something *She should have known better than to eat so much. No wonder she feels sick now.* **10 I know a** AGREEING used when you agree with something someone has just said *"It's a lovely day, isn't it?" "I know - let's hope it lasts."* **b** NEW IDEA used when you have an idea *I know - let's go to Helen's house.* **11 you know a** used to emphasize that someone does know what you are referring to *You know, he's the one with curly hair.* **b** something that you say while you are thinking what to say next *It's, you know, supposed to be a surprise.* **c** used to emphasize what you are saying *I'm not an idiot, you know.* **12 as far as I know** used to say that you think something is true, but cannot be sure *As far as I know, he's never been in prison.* **13 you never know** used to say that something could be possible although it does not seem likely *You never know - you might win the lottery.* **14 before you know it** very soon *We'll be there before you know it.* ➲See also: know sth **inside**¹ out, learn/know the ropes (**rope**¹), know your **stuff**¹

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

meet, get to know and **know**

When you **meet someone**, you see or speak to them for the first time. When you **get to know someone**, you learn more about them and after this you can say that you **know** them.

I met Nick on holiday.

~~*I know Nick on holiday.*~~

We got to know each other and became good friends.

~~*We knew each other and became friends.*~~

How long have you known Nick?

~~*How long have you got to know Nick?*~~

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

know or **find out?**

To **know** something means to already have information about something.

Kelly knows what time the train leaves.

His parents already know about the problem.

To **find out** something means to learn new information for the first time.

Can you find out what time the train leaves?

His parents were angry when they found out about the problem.

know of sth/sb *phrasal verb* to have heard of something or someone and have a little information about them *I know of a good restaurant near the station.*

know² /nəʊ/ *noun* **be in the know** to have knowledge about something which not everyone knows *People in the know were sure the film would win an Oscar.*

know-how /ˈnəʊhaʊ/ *noun* [U] practical skill and knowledge ***technical know-how***

knowing /ˈnəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* A knowing smile, look, etc shows that you know what another person is really thinking. *He gave me a knowing wink.*

knowingly /ˈnəʊɪŋli/ *adverb* **1** INTENTIONALLY If you knowingly do something, you mean to do it although it is wrong. **2** SHOWING KNOWLEDGE showing that you know what another person is really thinking *He smiled knowingly.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***knowledge***

common/detailed/firsthand/poor/thorough knowledge ● knowledge **about/of** sth ● **have/gain/impart** knowledge

K

knowledge /ˈnɒlɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** [**U, no plural**] information and understanding that you have in your mind *He has **a** detailed **knowledge of** naval history.* ○ *He took the car **without my knowledge*** (= I did not know). **2 to (the best of) sb's knowledge** used to say that someone thinks that something is true, but cannot be sure *To the best of my knowledge, she's never worked abroad.*

knowledgeable /ˈnɒlɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* knowing a lot *He's very **knowledgeable about** art.*

known¹ /nəʊn/ *adjective* recognized or known about by most people *He's a member of a known terrorist organization.* ➲Opposite **unknown** ➲See also: **well-known**

known² /nəʊn/ *past participle of* know

knuckle¹ /ˈnʌkl/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** one of the parts of your finger where it bends ➲See also: a **rap**¹ on/across/over the knuckles

knuckle² /ˈnʌkl/ *verb*
knuckle down *phrasal verb* to start to work or study hard

koala /kəʊˈɑːlə/ (*also* **koˈala ˌbear**) *noun* [**C**] an Australian animal like a small bear with grey fur which lives in trees and eats leaves ➲See picture at **marsupials**

the Koran /kɒrˈɑːn/ (US) /kɔˈræn/ *noun* **RELIGION** the holy book of Islam

kosher /ˈkəʊʃər/ *adjective* **FOOD, RELIGION** Kosher food is prepared according to Jewish law.

kph **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* kilometres per hour: a unit for measuring speed *a car travelling at 100 kph*

krypton /ˈkrɪptɒn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a gas which is used in particular types of lights and lasers (formula **Kr**)

kudos /ˈkjuːdɒs/ *noun* [**U**] praise and respect for what you have done

kung fu /kʌŋˈfuː/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a sport from China in which people fight using their hands and feet

Kurdish /ˈkɜːdɪʃ/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** belonging or relating to a Muslim people living in parts of Turkey, Iran, Iraq, etc ●**Kurd** /kɜːd/ *noun* [**C**] a Kurdish person

kW (*also* **kw**) **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* kilowatt (= a unit for measuring electrical power)

kwashiorkor /ˌkwæʃiˈɔːkɔːr/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a serious disease caused by eating too little protein

K

L l

L, l /el/ the twelfth letter of the alphabet

l MEASURES *written abbreviation for* litre (= a unit for measuring liquid)

lab /læb/ *noun* [C] *short for* laboratory (= a room used for scientific work)

label¹ /ˈleɪbᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** INFORMATION a small piece of paper or other material which gives information about the thing it is fixed to *There should be washing instructions on the label.* **2** WORD a word or phrase that is used to describe the qualities of someone or something, usually in a way that is not fair *He seems to be stuck with the label of 'troublemaker'.* **3** MUSIC (*also* **record label**) a company that records and sells music *They've just signed a deal with a major record label.*

label² /ˈleɪbᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **labelling**, *past* **labelled**, *US* **labeling**, *past* **labeled** **1** INFORMATION to fix a small piece of paper or other material to something which gives information about it *All food has to be labelled with 'best before' or 'use by' dates.* **2** DESCRIBE to describe the qualities of someone or something using a word or phrase, usually in a way that is not fair [**often passive**] *They've been unfairly* ***labelled as*** *criminals.*

labor /ˈleɪbᵊr/ *noun, verb US spelling of* labour

laboratory /ləˈbɒrᵊtᵊri/ US /ˈlæbrᵊtɔːri/ *noun* [C] a room used for scientific work *research laboratories* ○ *a computer laboratory* ➲See also: **language laboratory**

laborer /ˈleɪbᵊrᵊr/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* labourer

laborious /ləˈbɔːriəs/ *adjective* Laborious work is very difficult and needs a lot of effort. *a* ***laborious task***

labors /ˈleɪbəz/ *noun* [plural] *US spelling of* labours

ˈlabor ˌunion *US* (*UK/US* **trade union**) *noun* [C] an organization that represents people who do a particular job

labour¹ *UK* (*US* **labor**) /ˈleɪbᵊr/ *noun* **1** WORK [U] work, especially the type of work that needs a lot of physical effort ***manual labour*** **2** ECONOMICS [U] people who work ***cheap/skilled labour*** **3** HEALTH [C, U] the stage of pregnancy when a woman has pain in the lower part of her body because the baby is coming out *to be* ***in labour/go into labour*** ○ ***labour pains*** **4 Labour** POLITICS [group] *short for* the Labour Party *I voted Labour* (= for the Labour party) *at the last election.* ○ *a Labour MP* **5 a labour of love** work that you do because you like it, not because you are paid for it

labour² *UK formal* (*US* **labor**) /ˈleɪbᵊr/ *verb* [I] to work hard *He laboured night and day to get the house finished on time.*

labourer *UK* (*US* **laborer**) /ˈleɪbᵊrᵊr/ *noun* [C] a worker who uses a lot of physical effort in their job *a farm labourer*

the ˈLabour ˌParty *noun* [group] POLITICS one of the three main political parties in the UK

labours (*US* **labors**) /ˈleɪbəz/ *noun* [plural] **sb's labours** work done with a lot of effort *He earned a mere $15 for his labours.*

lace¹ /leɪs/ *noun* **1** CLOTH [U] a delicate cloth with patterns of holes *a lace curtain* **2** STRING [C] a string used to tie shoes *to tie/untie your laces*

lace² /leɪs/ *verb*
lace sth up *phrasal verb* to fasten something with laces *He laced up his boots.*
be laced with sth *phrasal verb* FOOD If food or drink is laced with alcohol or a drug, a small amount has been added to it. *coffee laced with brandy*

lacerate /ˈlæsᵊreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make deep cuts in someone's skin *a lacerated arm* ●**laceration** /ˌlæsᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *formal* a cut

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lack***

a **complete/distinct/marked/total** lack **of** sth ● an **apparent** lack **of** sth

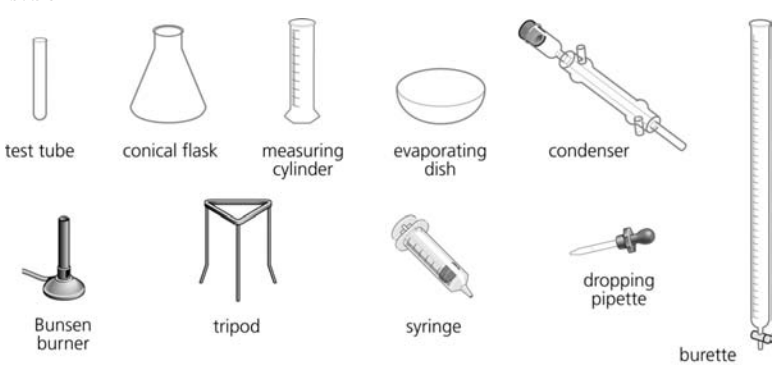

laboratory

lack¹ /læk/ *noun* **lack of sth** not having something, or not having enough of something *a lack of food/money*

lack² /læk/ *verb* **1** [T] to not have something, or not have enough of something *She really lacks confidence.* **2 be lacking** If something that you need is lacking, you do not have enough of it. *Enthusiasm has been sadly lacking these past few months at work.* **3 be lacking in sth** to not have a quality *He's totally lacking in charm of any sort.*

lacklustre *UK* (*US* **lackluster**) /ˈlækˌlʌstəʳ/ *adjective* without energy or excitement *a **lacklustre performance***

laconic /ləˈkɒnɪk/ *adjective formal* using very few words to express yourself *laconic humour/wit*

lacquer /ˈlækəʳ/ *noun* [U] **DT** a clear, hard substance which is painted on wood or metal to protect it

lactate /lækˈteɪt/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** (of a woman or female mammal) to produce milk ●**lactation** /lækˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

lacteal /ˈlæktiəl/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** like or connected to milk

lactic /ˈlæktɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** relating to milk

ˌlactic ˈacid *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an acid that exists in old milk and is produced in muscles after a lot of exercise

lactose /ˈlæktəʊs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a type of sugar which is found in milk

lad /læd/ *noun* [C] *UK* a boy or young man *a nice young lad informal* ○ *He's having a night out with **the lads*** (= his male friends).

ladder /ˈlædəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment which is used to reach high places, consisting of short steps fixed between two long sides ➲See also: the first/highest/next, etc **rung**¹ of the ladder

laddish /ˈlædɪʃ/ *adjective UK* rude, noisy and typical of the way that young men behave in groups

laden /ˈleɪdᵊn/ *adjective* **be laden with sth** to be holding a lot of something *She staggered home, laden with shopping.*

ˈladies' ˌroom *noun* [C] *US* a room in a public place where there are women's toilets ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

the ladies /ˈleɪdiz/ *noun* [**group**] *UK* a toilet in a public place for women *Where's the ladies?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

ladle /ˈleɪdl/ *noun* [C] a large, deep spoon, used to serve soup ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

lady /ˈleɪdi/ *noun* **1** [C] a polite way of saying 'woman' *There's a young lady here to see you.* ○ ***Ladies and gentlemen**, can I have your attention please?* **2 Lady** a title used before the name of some women of high social rank in the UK *Lady Alison Weir*

ladybird /ˈleɪdibɜːd/ *UK* (*US* **ladybug** /ˈleɪdibʌg/) *noun* [C] a small flying insect which is usually red with black spots

lag¹ /læg/ (*also* **time lag**) *noun* [C] a period of time between two things happening *You have to allow for a time **lag between** order and delivery.* ➲See also: **jet lag**

lag² /læg/ *verb* **lagging**, *past* **lagged** **lag behind (sb/sth)** *phrasal verb* **1** MOVE SLOWLY to move more slowly than someone or something else so that you are behind them **2** ACHIEVE LESS to achieve less than someone or something else *Britain is lagging far behind the rest of Europe on this issue.*

lager /ˈlɑːgəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a pale yellow beer *A pint of lager, please.*

lagoon /ləˈguːn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a lake that contains sea water

lahar /ləˈhɑː/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a large stream of mud, rocks and water from a volcano that becomes hard when it stops moving

laid /leɪd/ *past of* lay

laid-back /ˌleɪdˈbæk/ *adjective informal* very relaxed and not seeming worried about anything *a laid-back style of teaching* ○ *He's very laid-back.*

lain /leɪn/ *past participle of* lie¹

laissez-faire /ˌleɪseɪˈfeəʳ/ *adjective* allowing things to happen and not trying to control them *a laissez-faire attitude*

lake /leɪk/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a large area of water which has land all around it *Lake Windermere*

lamb /læm/ *noun* **1** [C] a young sheep *a newborn lamb* ○ *a lamb's-wool sweater* **2 FOOD** [U] meat from a young sheep *grilled lamb chops* ○ *roast leg of lamb* ➲See also: **mutton** dressed as lamb

lame /leɪm/ *adjective* **1** A lame excuse or explanation is one that you cannot believe. *He said he didn't go because it was raining, which is a pretty **lame excuse** if you ask me.* **2 HEALTH** A lame animal or person cannot walk because they have an injured foot or leg. *a lame horse*

lament /ləˈment/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to say that you are disappointed about a situation *He was lamenting the fact that so few people read fiction nowadays.*

lamentable /ˈlæməntəbl/ *adjective formal* extremely bad *a lamentable performance*

lamina /ˈlæmɪnə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the flat part of a leaf or petal

laminate /ˈlæmɪnət/ *noun* [C, U] **DT** any material which is made by sticking several layers of the same material together *a laminate finish*

laminated /ˈlæmɪneɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** covered with a thin layer of plastic for protection *They gave us sheets of laminated cardboard.* **2** Laminated wood, plastic, glass, etc. is made of several thin layers stuck together.

lamp /læmp/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that produces light *a table lamp* ○ *an oil lamp* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

lamppost /ˈlæmppəʊst/ *noun* [C] a tall post with a light at the top, which you see on roads where there are houses

lampshade /ˈlæmpʃeɪd/ *noun* [C] a decorative cover for an electric light ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

LAN /læn, ˌeleɪˈen/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* local area network: a system that

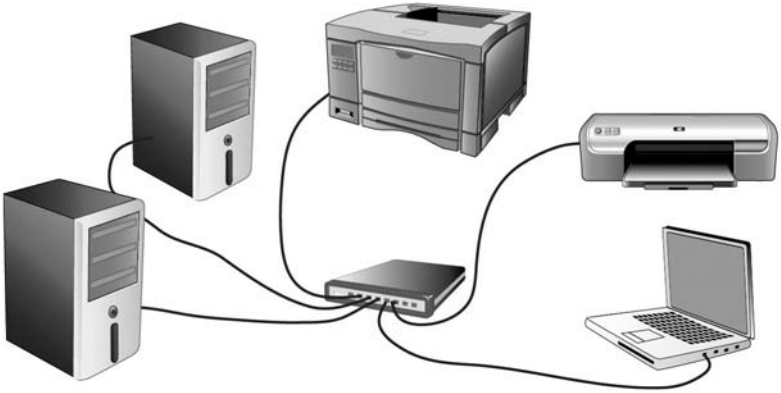

LAN

connects the computers of people who work in the same building ➲Compare **WAN**

land[1] /lænd/ *noun* **1** AREA [U] an area of ground *agricultural land* ○ *undeveloped land* ➲See Common Learner Error at **country 2** GEOGRAPHY [U] the surface of the Earth that is not sea *to travel over land and sea* **3** COUNTRY [C] *literary* a country *a land of ice and snow* ➲See also: **no-man's land**

land[2] /lænd/ *verb* **1** ARRIVE [I, T] If an aircraft lands, it arrives on the ground after a journey, and if you land it, you make it arrive on the ground. *We should* ***land in*** *Madrid at 7 a.m.* ○ *He managed to* ***land*** *the helicopter* ***on*** *the cliff.* **2 land in/on, etc** If an object or person lands somewhere, they fall to the ground there. *She landed flat on her back.* **3** ACHIEVE [T] to get something, usually something good *He's just landed a new job at an agency in London.*
land sb in sth *phrasal verb* to cause someone to be in a difficult situation *His remarks have landed him in a lot of trouble with the association.*
land sb with sth *phrasal verb* If something lands you with problems, it causes problems for you. *The project's failure has landed him with debts of over £50,000.*

landfill /ˈlændfɪl/ *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT a place where waste is buried in the ground *a* ***landfill site***

landform /ˈlændfɔːm/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a natural shape on the Earth's surface, such as a mountain or a valley

landing /ˈlændɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** ARRIVAL an arrival on the ground, usually of an aircraft or boat *They had to make an* ***emergency landing*** *in Chicago.* **2** FLOOR the area of floor at the top of a set of stairs

landlady /ˈlænd,leɪdi/ *noun* [C] a woman who you rent a room or house from

landline /ˈlændlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a telephone that is not a mobile phone

landlord /ˈlændlɔːd/ *noun* [C] a man who you rent a room or house from

landmark /ˈlændmɑːk/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDING a building that you can easily recognize, especially one that helps you to know where you are *a historic landmark* **2** EVENT an event which is famous or important in the history of something *His speech was a* ***landmark in*** *the history of civil rights.*

landmine /ˈlændmaɪn/ *noun* [C] a bomb which is hidden in the ground

landowner /ˈlændəʊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who owns a lot of land *a wealthy landowner*

landscape /ˈlændskeɪp/ *noun* [C] the appearance of an area of land, especially in the countryside *The cathedral dominates the landscape for miles around.*

landslide /ˈlændslaɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY when rocks and soil slide down a mountain or hill **2** POLITICS an easy victory in an election *a* ***landslide defeat/victory***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lane***

in the [inside/fast, etc] lane ● the **fast/slow** lane

lane /leɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT part of a road or track that is separated from the other parts, usually by a painted line *the inside/middle/outside lane* ○ *the* ***fast/slow lane*** **2** ROAD a narrow road, usually in the countryside *We drove down a winding country lane.* **3** BOATS/AIRCRAFT a route that is regularly used by boats or aircraft *It's one of the world's busiest shipping lanes.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***language***

learn/speak a language ● **foreign** languages ● **foul/native/official/strong** language

language /ˈlæŋgwɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [U] communication between people, usually using words *She has done research into how children acquire language.* **2** LANGUAGE [C] a type of communication used by the people of a particular country *How many* ***languages*** *do you* ***speak?*** **3** LANGUAGE [U] words of a particular type, especially the words used by people in a particular job *legal language* ○ *the language of*

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business **4** COMPUTING [C, U] a system of instructions that is used to write computer programs ➲See also: **body language, modern languages, second language, sign language**

ˈlanguage laˌboratory *UK* (*US* **ˈlanguage ˌlaboratory**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a room in a college or school where you can use equipment to help you practise listening to and speaking a foreign language

languid /ˈlæŋgwɪd/ *adjective literary* moving or speaking slowly and with little energy, often in an attractive way *a languid manner/voice*

languish /ˈlæŋgwɪʃ/ *verb* [I] *formal* **languish at/in, etc sth** to stay in an unpleasant or difficult situation for a long time *to languish in jail*

lanky /ˈlæŋki/ *adjective informal* A lanky person is very tall and thin.

lantern /ˈlæntən/ *noun* [C] a light that can be carried, usually with a candle inside it *a paper lantern*

lanthanide /ˈlæntθənaɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY any chemical element in the group that have the atomic numbers 57 to 71 in the periodic table

lap¹ /læp/ *noun* [C] **1** Your lap is the top part of your legs when you are sitting down. *Sit on my lap and I'll read you a story.* **2** SPORT one journey around a circular race track *He's two laps behind the leaders.*

lap² /læp/ *verb* **lapping**, *past* **lapped lap against/on, etc sth** If water laps against something, it touches it gently in waves.
lap sth up *phrasal verb informal* to enjoy something very much *He loved all the attention - he was lapping it up!*

lapel /ləˈpel/ *noun* [C] the part of a collar that is folded against the front of a shirt or jacket *wide lapels* ➲See picture at **jacket**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lapse***

a **momentary** lapse ● a lapse **in/of** sth

lapse¹ /læps/ *noun* [C] **1** FAILURE a period of time when something fails to happen as it should *a memory lapse* ○ *It is thought that the accident was caused by a* ***lapse of*** *concentration.* **2** TIME a period of time passing between two things happening *a* ***time lapse****/a* ***lapse of time*** ○ *He turned up again after a lapse of two years.*

lapse² /læps/ *verb* [I] If an arrangement lapses, it stops existing because of the amount of time that has passed. *I've allowed my membership to lapse.*
lapse into sth *phrasal verb* If you lapse into something, you change to a different, and usually bad, condition. *to lapse into silence*

laptop /ˈlæptɒp/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer that is small enough to be carried around and used where you are sitting

larch /lɑːtʃ/ *noun* [C] a tall tree which grows in cold northern countries and has leaves that are shaped like needles

large /lɑːdʒ/ *adjective* **1** big in size or amount *a large number of people* ○ *a large amount of money* ○ *She comes from quite a large family.* ○ *The shirt was a bit too large.* ➲Opposite **small** **2 be at large** If someone dangerous is at large, they are not in prison. **3 sb/sth at large** people or things in general *This group is not representative of the population at large.* **4 by and large** in most situations *By and large, people have welcomed the changes.*

ˌlarge inˈtestine *noun* [C, usually singular] ANATOMY the lower part of the bowels in which water is removed from digested food before it is passed out of the body as solid waste ➲Compare **small intestine** ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

largely /ˈlɑːdʒli/ *adverb* mainly *Their complaints have been largely ignored.*

large-scale /ˈlɑːdʒˌskeɪl/ *adjective* involving a lot of people or happening in big numbers *a large-scale development* ○ *large-scale redundancies*

lark /lɑːk/ *noun* [C] a small brown bird that is known for its beautiful singing

larva /ˈlɑːvə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **larvae** /ˈlɑːviː/ BIOLOGY the form of some creatures, for example insects, before they develop into a different form *insect larvae*

larynx /ˈlærɪŋks/ *noun* [C] *plural* **larynxes** or **larynges** ANATOMY (*informal* **voice box**) an organ between the nose and the lungs which contains the muscles that move very quickly to create the human voice and many animal sounds ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

lasagne *UK* (*US* **lasagna**) /ləˈzænjə/ (US) /ləˈzɑːnjə/ *noun* [U] FOOD a type of Italian food consisting of flat pieces of pasta with layers of meat and sauce in between

laser /ˈleɪzər/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a strong beam of light that has medical and technical uses *a* ***laser beam*** ○ ***laser surgery***

ˈlaser ˌprinter *noun* [C] COMPUTING a printer (= a machine which is connected to a computer and which produces writing or pictures) which uses a laser (= a strong beam of light) to produce very clear writing or pictures

lash¹ /læʃ/ *verb* **1** [I, T] If wind or rain lashes against something, the wind or rain is very strong and hits or blows hard against it. ***Rain lashed*** *against the window.* **2 lash sth down/together, etc** to tie something firmly to something else
lash out *phrasal verb* **1** HIT to suddenly hit someone *He lashed out and caught her on the side of the face.* **2** CRITICIZE to criticize someone angrily *He* ***lashed out at*** *the government for refusing to take action.*

lash² /læʃ/ *noun* [C] a hit with a whip (= long, thin piece of leather) *He was given forty lashes.*

lashes /ˈlæʃɪz/ *noun* [plural] ANATOMY the small hairs on the edges of your eye

lass /læs/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a girl or a young woman *a young lass*

last¹ /lɑːst/ *adjective, determiner* **1** MOST RECENT [always before noun] the most recent *What was the last film you saw?* ○ *It's rained for the last three days.* **2** ONE BEFORE PRESENT [always before noun] The last book, house, job, etc is the one before the present one. *I liked his last book but I'm not so keen on this latest one.* **3** FINAL happening or coming at the end *It's the last room on the left.* ○ *That's the last programme of the series.* ○ *I was the last one to arrive.* ○ *"How did she get on in her race?" "She was last."*

4 REMAINING [**always before noun**] only remaining *Who wants the last piece of cake?* **5 the last person/thing, etc** the least expected or wanted person or thing *Three extra people to feed - that's the last thing I need!* ○ *He's the last person you'd expect to see at an aerobics class.* ➲Opposite **first** ➲See also: be on its last legs (**leg**), the final/last **straw**, have the last **word**[1]

O-key **last**[2] /lɑːst/ *adverb* **1** AFTER ALL OTHERS after everything or everyone else *I wasn't expecting to win the race but I didn't think I'd come last!* ○ *We've still got to check the figures but we'll do that last.* **2** MOST RECENT used to talk about the most recent time you did something *When did you last see her?* **3 last but not least** something that you say to introduce the last person or thing on a list *This is Jeremy, this is Cath and, last but not least, this is Eva.* ➲Opposite **first**

O-key **last**[3] /lɑːst/ *noun, pronoun* **1 the last** a person or thing that comes after all the others [**+ to do sth**] We were the last to get there. **2 the last of sth** the only part of something that remains *We've just finished the last of the wine.* **3 the day/week/year before last** the day, week, or year before the one that has just finished **4 at (long) last** finally *At last, I've found a pair of jeans that actually fit.* **5 the last I heard** used before saying a piece of information about someone that you previously heard *The last I heard, they were selling their house.*

O-key **last**[4] /lɑːst/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** CONTINUE to continue to happen, exist, or be useful *How long will the meeting last?* ○ *We don't get much sun - **enjoy it while it lasts!*** ○ *The batteries only last about five hours.* **2** BE ENOUGH to be enough for a period of time *I've only got £30 to last me till the end of the month.* ○ *We've got enough food to last another week.*

last-ditch /ˌlɑːstˈdɪtʃ/ *adjective* **a last-ditch attempt/effort** a final attempt to solve a problem that you have failed to solve several times before *a last-ditch effort to prevent war*

lasting /ˈlɑːstɪŋ/ *adjective* continuing to exist for a long time ***lasting damage*** ○ *a lasting friendship*

lastly /ˈlɑːstli/ *adverb* finally *And lastly, I'd like to thank everyone who took part in the event.*

last-minute /ˌlɑːstˈmɪnɪt/ *adjective* done at the last possible time *I was just doing some **last-minute preparations**.*

ˈlast ˌname *noun* [**C**] the name that you and other members of your family all have

latch[1] /lætʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BAR a small piece of metal on a door that you move down so that the door will stay closed **2** LOCK a type of lock for a door that you need a key to open from the outside

latch[2] /lætʃ/ *verb*
latch on *phrasal verb informal* to begin to understand something *It took me ages to **latch on to** what she was saying.*

O-key **late** /leɪt/ *adjective, adverb* **1** AFTER THE USUAL TIME after the usual time or the time that was arranged *I was late for work this morning.* ○ *We got there too late and all the tickets had been sold.* ○ *We had a late lunch.* **2** NEAR END OF PERIOD near the end of a period of time *It was built in the late nineteenth century.* ○ *It was late at night.* ○ *Marsha is in her late twenties.* **3 it's late** something that you say when it is near the end of a day *It's late - I really should be going.* ○ *It's **getting late** and I'm a bit tired.* **4** DEAD [**always before noun**] not now alive *the late Mrs Walker* **5 of late** *formal* recently *We've scarcely seen him of late.*

lately /ˈleɪtli/ *adverb* recently *I haven't been feeling so well lately.* ○ *Lately, I've been walking to work.*

latent /ˈleɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* A feeling or quality that is latent exists now but is hidden or not yet developed. *latent hostility/racism*

ˌlatent ˈheat *noun* [**U**] **PHYSICS** the heat that is absorbed or released by a substance when it changes state, for example from a liquid to a gas, while the temperature of the substance remains unchanged

later /ˈleɪtəʳ/ *adjective* **1** AFTER SOME TIME after some time *I might arrange it for a later date.* **2** MORE RECENT more recent *I'm not so familiar with his later work.*

lateral /ˈlætᵊrᵊl/ *adjective formal* relating to the sides of an object or to sideways movement *Trim the lateral shoots of the plant.*

ˌlateral ˈmerger *noun* [**C**] **ECONOMICS** when two companies that produce similar goods but who do not compete with each other join together

laterite /ˈlætᵊraɪt/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOLOGY** a type of red clay soil containing iron and aluminium, often found in hot areas

later (on) *adverb* after some time *I'm off now - see you later.* ○ *If you're busy now we could do it later on.*

latest[1] /ˈleɪtɪst/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] most recent *the latest fashions/news/technology*

latest[2] /ˈleɪtɪst/ *noun* **1 the latest in sth** the most recent of its type *This is the latest in a series of terrorist attacks in the region.* **2 at the latest** If you tell someone to do something by a particular time at the latest, you mean they must do it before that time. *She said to be there by 8 o'clock at the latest.*

lathe /leɪð/ *noun* [**C**] **DT** a machine for changing the shape of a piece of wood, metal, etc. which works by turning the material while a sharp tool is pressed against it

lather /ˈlɑːðəʳ/ *noun* **1** [**U**] small white bubbles that are produced when soap is used with water **2 get into a lather** *informal* to become anxious or upset about something

Latin /ˈlætɪn/ *noun* [**U**] the language used by ancient Romans ●**Latin** *adjective*

ˌLatin Aˈmerican *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to the countries of South and Central America, and Mexico ●**Latin American** *noun* [**C**] a Latin American person

Latino /ləˈtiːnəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *US* **SOCIETY** someone who lives in the US whose family came from Latin America

latitude /ˈlætɪtjuːd/ *noun* **1** DISTANCE [**C, U**] **GEOGRAPHY** the distance of a place north or south of the Equator (= imaginary line around the Earth's middle), measured in degrees *The latitude of Helsinki is approximately 60 degrees*

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north. **2** FREEDOM [U] *formal* freedom to do what you want *She should be allowed the latitude to choose the people she wants.*

latte /ˈlæteɪ/ (US) /ˈlɑːteɪ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a drink of coffee made from espresso (= strong coffee) and milk

latter /ˈlætər/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* near the end of a period *the **latter half** of the twentieth century* ○ *She had moved to California in the **latter part** of the year.* ○ *She is now in the **latter stages** of the disease.*

latterly /ˈlætəli/ *adverb UK formal* recently *She started her career in radio, but latterly she has been working in television.*

the latter /ˈlætər/ *noun* the second of two people or things that have just been talked about *She offered me more money or a car, and I chose the latter.*

laudable /ˈlɔːdəbl/ *adjective formal* A laudable idea or action deserves admiration, even if it is not successful. *a **laudable aim/ambition/goal***

laugh¹ /lɑːf/ *verb* [I] to smile while making sounds with your voice that show you are happy or think something is funny *You never **laugh at** my jokes.* ○ *She really **makes** me **laugh**.* ○ *It's very rare that a book is so good you **laugh out loud**.* ○ *It was so funny, we **burst out laughing*** (= laughed suddenly and loudly). ➲See also: be no laughing **matter**¹
laugh at sb/sth *phrasal verb* to show that you think someone or something is stupid *I can't go into work looking like this - everyone will laugh at me.*
laugh sth off *phrasal verb* to laugh about something unpleasant so that it seems less important *He was upset by the criticism though he tried to laugh it off at the time.*

laugh² /lɑːf/ *noun* [C] **1** the act or sound of laughing *a loud/nervous laugh* ○ *At the time, I was embarrassed, but I **had a good laugh*** (= laughed a lot) *about it later.* **2 be a (good) laugh** *UK informal* to be funny *You'd like David - he's a good laugh.* **3 for a laugh** *informal* If you do something for a laugh, you do it because you think it will be funny. *Just for a laugh, I pretended that I'd forgotten it was his birthday.*

laughable /ˈlɑːfəbl/ *adjective* If something is laughable, it is stupid and you cannot believe it or respect it. *Most people thought his suggestions were laughable.*

ˈlaughing ˌstock *noun* [**no plural**] someone who does something very stupid which makes other people laugh at them *If I wear this hat, I'll be the laughing stock of the party!*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***laughter***

burst into laughter ● **roar** with laughter ● be **in fits of** laughter

laughter /ˈlɑːftər/ *noun* [U] the sound or act of laughing *I heard the sound of laughter in the room next door.* ○ *The crowd **roared with laughter*** (= laughed very loudly).

launch¹ /lɔːntʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** SEND to send a spacecraft or bomb into the sky, or a ship into the water *to **launch a rocket/satellite*** ○ *to **launch a boat/fleet*** **2** BEGIN to begin an important activity *to **launch an attack/inquiry/investigation*** **3** NEW PRODUCT If a company launches a product or service, it makes it available for the first time. *The book was launched last February.* ○ *The airline will launch its new transatlantic service next month.*
launch into sth *phrasal verb* to start saying or criticizing something with a lot of anger or energy *Then he launched into a verbal attack on her management of the situation.*

launch² /lɔːntʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** SENDING the launching of a spacecraft, ship, or weapon *Poor weather delayed the space shuttle's launch.* **2** BEGINNING the beginning of an activity *The campaign's launch was a well-publicized event.* **3** NEW PRODUCT the time when a new product or service becomes available *The film's launch attracted a lot of Hollywood stars.* **4** BOAT a large boat with a motor *a police launch*

launder /ˈlɔːndər/ *verb* [T] to hide the fact that an amount of money has been made illegally by putting the money into legal bank accounts or businesses *to **launder** drug **money*** ●**laundering** *noun* [U] ***money laundering***

launderette /ˌlɔːndərˈet/ *UK* (*US* **laundromat** /ˈlɔːndrəmæt/ *trademark*) *noun* [C] a place where you pay to use machines that wash and dry your clothes

laundry /ˈlɔːndri/ *noun* [U] clothes, sheets, etc that need to be washed *to **do the laundry*** ○ *a **laundry basket***

ˈlaundry deˌtergent *noun* [C, U] *US* washing powder

laurels /ˈlɒrəlz/ *noun* [**plural**] **rest on your laurels** to be so satisfied with what you have achieved that you make no effort to improve *Just because you've passed your exams, that's no reason to rest on your laurels.*

lava /ˈlɑːvə/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** hot melted rock that comes out of a volcano ➲See picture at **volcano**

lavatory /ˈlævətəri/ *noun* [C] *formal mainly UK* a toilet *to go to the lavatory* ○ *public lavatories* ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

lavender /ˈlævəndər/ *noun* [U] a plant with purple flowers and a strong, pleasant smell *lavender oil*

lavish¹ /ˈlævɪʃ/ *adjective* showing that a lot of money has been spent *a lavish meal/party* ●**lavishly** *adverb a lavishly illustrated book*

lavish² /ˈlævɪʃ/ *verb*
lavish sth on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to give a large amount of money, presents, attention, etc to someone or something *They have lavished more than £6 million on the new stadium.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***law***

break/enforce/obey/pass a law ● the law **forbids/prohibits/requires** sth ● a law **against** sth ● be **against the** law

law /lɔː/ *noun* **1** **LAW the law** the system of official rules in a country *You're **breaking the***

law. ○ *It's* ***against the law*** (= illegal) not to wear seat belts. ○ It's their job to ***enforce the law***. **2** LAW **by law** If you have to do something by law, it is illegal not to do it. *They have to provide a contract by law*. **3** LAW [C] an official rule in a country *There are* ***laws against*** *drinking in the street*. ○ *They led the fight to impose* ***laws on*** *smoking*. **4** LAW **law and order** the obeying of laws in society *a breakdown in law and order* **5** EDUCATION [U] the subject or job of understanding and dealing with the official laws of a country *to study/practise law* ○ *a law school/firm* ○ *a specialist in civil/criminal law* **6** ALWAYS TRUE [C] something that is always true in science, mathematics, etc. *the* ***laws of*** *nature/physics* ○ *the law of averages/gravity* **7 lay down the law** to repeatedly tell people what they should do, without caring about how they feel *People are fed up with him laying down the law the whole time*. ➲See also: **brother-in-law, common-law, daughter-in-law, father-in-law, in-laws, martial law, mother-in-law, sister-in-law, son-in-law**

law-abiding /ˈlɔːəˌbaɪdɪŋ/ *adjective* A law-abiding person always obeys the law. *a* ***law-abiding citizen***

lawful /ˈlɔːfʲl/ *adjective* LAW allowed by the law *He was going about his lawful business as a press photographer*.

lawmaker /ˈlɔːˌmeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US* LAW someone who makes laws *state lawmakers*

lawn /lɔːn/ *noun* [C] an area of grass that is cut *to mow the lawn*

ˈ**lawn ˌmower** *noun* [C] a machine that you use to cut grass

lawsuit /ˈlɔːsuːt/ *noun* [C] LAW a legal complaint against someone that does not usually involve the police *The tenants have* ***filed a lawsuit against*** *their landlord*.

O-K **lawyer** /ˈlɔɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] LAW someone whose job is to understand the law and deal with legal situations *I want to see my lawyer before I say anything else*.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

lawyer, solicitor, barrister, attorney

In Britain, **lawyers** are divided into two types, **solicitors** and **barristers**. **Solicitors** give advice on legal subjects and work in the lower courts of law. **Barristers** can represent people in the higher courts of law. In America, there is only one type of lawyer, who is sometimes called an **attorney**.

lax /læks/ *adjective* not careful enough or not well controlled *They seem to have a very lax attitude towards security*.

O-K **lay¹** /leɪ/ *verb past* **laid 1 lay sth down/in/on, etc** to put something down somewhere carefully *She laid the baby on the bed*. ○ *He laid the tray down on the table*. **2** [T] to put something into its correct position *to lay a carpet* ○ *to lay bricks* **3 lay eggs** If an animal lays eggs, it produces them out of its body. **4 lay the blame on sb** to blame someone, usually when this is not fair *You always lay the blame on me!* **5 lay the table** *UK* to put plates, knives, forks, etc on the table to prepare for a meal ➲See also: put/lay your cards (**card**) on the table, lay the **foundation**(s) for/of sth, get/lay your hands (**hand**¹) on sth, lay down the **law**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

lay and lie

Be careful not to confuse these verbs.

Lay means 'put down carefully' or 'put down flat'. This verb is always followed by an object. **Laying** is the present participle. **Laid** is the past simple and the past participle.

She laid the papers on the desk.

Lie means 'be in a horizontal position' or 'be in a particular place'. This verb is irregular and is never followed by an object. **Lying** is the present participle. **Lay** is the past simple and **lain** is the past participle.

The papers were lying on the desk.

~~*The papers were laying on the desk.*~~

I lay down and went to sleep.

~~*I laid down and went to sleep.*~~

The regular verb **lie** means 'not say the truth'.

He lied to me about his age.

lay sth down *phrasal verb* **1** MAKE RULES to officially make new rules, or to officially say how something must be done *The committee has* ***laid down guidelines*** *for future cases*. **2** STOP FIGHTING If someone lays down their weapons, they stop fighting. *It is hoped the two sides will lay down their arms and return to peace*.
lay into sb *phrasal verb informal* to attack or criticize someone *They started laying into me for no reason*.
lay sb off *phrasal verb* to stop employing someone, usually because there is no more work for them [**often passive**] *Thirty more people were laid off last week*.
lay sth on *phrasal verb* to provide something for a group of people *They're laying on free buses to and from the concert*.
lay sth out *phrasal verb* **1** ARRANGE to arrange something on a surface *He'd laid his tools out all over the kitchen floor*. **2** EXPLAIN to explain something clearly, usually in writing *I've just laid out some proposals*.

lay² /leɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** RELIGION involved in religious activities, but not trained as a priest *a* ***lay preacher*** **2** not having special or detailed knowledge of a subject *a lay person/audience*

lay³ /leɪ/ *past tense of* lie¹

lay-by /ˈleɪbaɪ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a small area where cars can stop at the side of a road

WORD PARTNERS FOR *layer*

a layer **of** sth ● an **outer/top** layer ● a **thick** layer of sth

O-K **layer** /leɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] an amount of a substance covering a surface, or one of several amounts of substance, each on top of the other *the* ***outer/top layer*** ○ *Place alternate* ***layers of*** *pasta and meat sauce in a shallow dish*. ○ *The shelf was covered in a thick layer of dust*. ●**layer** *verb* [T] [**often passive**] The potatoes are ***layered with*** *onion*. ➲See also: **the ozone layer**

layman /ˈleɪmən/ (*also* **layperson**) *noun* [C] *plural* **laymen** someone who does not have special knowledge of a subject *Could you please explain that* ***in layman's terms*** (= in a simple way) *?*

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layoff /ˈleɪɒf/ *noun* [C] the ending of someone's job by an employer, usually because there is no more work [**usually plural**] *Several hundred more layoffs are planned next month.*

layout /ˈleɪaʊt/ *noun* [C] the way that something is arranged *Do you like the* ***layout of*** *the kitchen?*

lazy /ˈleɪzi/ *adjective* **1** WORK Someone who is lazy does not like working or using any effort. *You lazy thing!* ○ *He's too lazy to make his bed in the morning.* **2** RELAXED slow and relaxed *a lazy morning/weekend* ●**lazily** *adverb* ●**laziness** *noun* [U]

lb **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* pound (= a unit for measuring weight)

LCD /ˌelsiːˈdiː/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* liquid crystal display: a screen for showing words or pictures which uses a liquid and an electric current *LCD TV*

LCM /ˌelsiːˈem/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** *abbreviation for* lowest common multiple: the lowest number that can be divided exactly by a particular group of numbers

leach /liːtʃ/ *verb* [T, I] **GEOGRAPHY** (of a substance) to come out of or to be removed from another substance, especially soil, by passing water through it

lead¹ /liːd/ *verb past* **led** /led/ **1** TAKE SOMEONE [I, T] to show someone where to go, usually by taking them to a place or by going in front of them *She led them down the hall.* ○ *We followed a path that led us up the mountain.* ○ *You lead and we'll follow.* ○ *I'll* ***lead the way*** (= go first to show the route). **2 lead into/to/towards, etc** If a path or road leads somewhere, it goes there. *That path leads to the beach.* **3** BE WINNING [I, T] to be winning a game *They were* ***leading by*** *11 points at half-time.* ○ *The Lions lead the Hawks 28-9.* **4** BE THE BEST [T] to be better than anyone else *I still believe that we lead the world in acting talent.* **5** CONTROL [T] to be in control of a group, country, or situation *to lead a discussion* ○ *Is this man really capable of leading the country?* ○ *Shearer* ***led*** *his team* ***to*** *victory.* **6 lead sb to do sth** to cause someone to do or think something *What led you to think that?* ○ *I was* ***led to believe*** *that breakfast was included.* **7 lead a busy/normal/quiet, etc life** to live in a particular way *He was able to lead a normal life despite his illness.* **8 lead sb to a conclusion** to cause you to think that something is probably true *So you thought I was leaving, did you? What led you to that conclusion?*

lead to sth *phrasal verb* to cause something to happen or exist *A poor diet can lead to health problems in later life.*

lead up to sth *phrasal verb* to happen before an event *The shops are always busy in the weeks leading up to Christmas.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lead (noun)***

take the lead ● **increase/stretch** your lead ● be **in** the lead

lead² /liːd/ *noun* **1** WINNING [**no plural**] a winning position during a race or other situation where people are competing *She's* ***in the lead*** (= winning). ○ *France has just* ***taken the lead*** (= started to win). ○ *a three-goal lead* **2** FILM/PLAY [C] the main person in a film or play *She* ***plays the lead*** *in both films.* **3** DOG [C] *UK* (*US* **leash**) a chain or piece of leather fixed to a dog's collar so that it can be controlled *Dogs must be kept* ***on a lead*** *at all times.* **4** ELECTRICITY [C] *UK* (*US* **cord**) the wire that connects a piece of electrical equipment to the electricity supply **5** INFORMATION [C] information about a crime that police are trying to solve *Police are chasing up a new lead.*

lead³ /liːd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] The lead performer or lead part in a performance is the main performer or part. *the* ***lead singer*** ○ *Who played the* ***lead role****?*

lead⁴ /led/ *noun* **1** **CHEMISTRY** [U] a soft, heavy, grey, poisonous metal used for roofs, pipes, etc (formula **Pb**) *a lead pipe* ○ *lead-free petrol/gasoline* **2** [C, U] the black part inside a pencil

leader /ˈliːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON IN CONTROL a person in control of a group, country, or situation *a religious leader* ○ *Who's the* ***leader of*** *the Democratic Party in the Senate?* **2** WINNER someone or something that is winning during a race or other situation where people are competing *He's fallen two laps behind the leaders.* ○ *Microsoft is a world leader in software design.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***leadership***

leadership **of** sth ● **under** sb's leadership ● leadership **skills/qualities** ● a leadership **contest**

leadership /ˈliːdəʃɪp/ *noun* **1** JOB [U] the job of being in control of a group, country, or situation *the* ***leadership of*** *the Conservative party* ○ ***leadership skills/qualities*** ○ ***a leadership contest*** **2** PEOPLE [**group**] the people in control of a group, country, or situation *There is growing discontent with the leadership.*

leading /ˈliːdɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] very important or most important *He's a leading Hollywood producer.*

leaf¹ /liːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **leaves** /liːvz/ **1** **BIOLOGY** a flat, green part of a plant that grows from a stem or branch *an oak leaf* ○ *a lettuce leaf* ○ *the falling leaves* ➲See picture on **next page** **2 take a leaf out of sb's book** *mainly UK* to copy something good that someone else does **3 turn over a new leaf** to start to behave in a better way

leaf² /liːf/ *verb*

leaf through sth *phrasal verb* to turn the pages of a book or magazine and look at them quickly *She lay on the sofa, leafing through glossy magazines.*

leaflet /ˈliːflət/ *noun* [C] a piece of folded paper or a small book which contains information *I picked up a useful* ***leaflet on*** *how to fill in tax forms.*

leafy /ˈliːfi/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A leafy place is pleasant and quiet with a lot of trees. *a* ***leafy lane/suburb***

league /liːg/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] a group of teams which compete against each other in a sport *top/bottom of the league* ○ ***major/minor league baseball*** ○ *Who won the league championship this year?* **2 be in league with sb** to be secretly working or planning something with

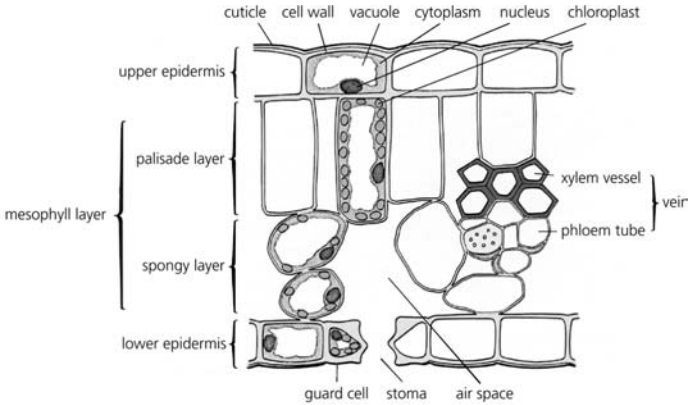

transverse section through part of leaf

someone, usually to do something bad **3 not be in the same league as sb/sth** *informal* to not be as good as someone or something *It's a nice enough restaurant but it's not in the same league as Rossi's.*

the ˌLeague of ˈNations *noun* POLITICS an organization of several countries formed to try to keep world peace, that existed from 1920 to 1946

leak¹ /liːk/ *verb* **1** LIQUID/GAS [**I, T**] If a liquid or gas leaks, it comes out of a hole by accident, and if a container leaks, it allows liquid or gas to come out when it should not. *Water had leaked all over the floor.* ○ *The bottle must have leaked because the bag's all wet.* **2** SECRETS [**T**] If someone leaks secret information, they intentionally tell people about it. *Details of the report had been **leaked to** the press.*
leak out *phrasal verb* If secret information leaks out, people find out about it.

leak² /liːk/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HOLE a hole in something that a liquid or gas comes out of, or the liquid or gas that comes out *I think we may have a leak in the roof.* ○ *a **gas leak*** **2** SECRET the act of intentionally telling people a secret

leakage /ˈliːkɪdʒ/ *noun* [**U**] the problem of a liquid or gas coming out of something when it should not

leaky /ˈliːki/ *adjective informal* Something that is leaky has a hole in it and liquid or gas can get through. *a leaky boat/roof*

O-key **lean¹** /liːn/ *verb past* **leaned**, *(also UK)* **leant** /lent/ **lean (sth) back/forward/out, etc** to move the top part of your body in a particular direction *She leaned forward and whispered in my ear.* ○ *Lean your head back a bit.*
lean (sth) against/on sth *phrasal verb* to sit or stand with part of your body touching something as a support *He leaned against the wall.* ○ *She leaned her head on his shoulder.*
lean sth against/on sth *phrasal verb* to put something against a wall or other surface so that it is supported *Lean the ladder against the wall.*
lean on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to use someone or something to help you, especially in a difficult situation *Her mother had always leaned on her for support.*

lean² /liːn/ *adjective* **1** thin and healthy *lean and fit* **2** FOOD Lean meat has very little fat on it.

leaning /ˈliːnɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] a belief or idea [**usually plural**] *I don't know what his **political leanings** are.*

leap¹ /liːp/ *verb past* **leapt** /lept/ or **leaped 1 leap into/out of/up, etc** to suddenly move somewhere *He leapt out of his car and ran towards the house.* ○ *I leapt up to answer the phone.* **2 leap off/over/into, etc** to jump somewhere *She leapt over the wall and disappeared down the alley.*
leap at sth *phrasal verb* to accept the chance to have or do something with enthusiasm *I'd **leap at** the **opportunity** to work in Japan.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***leap***

a leap **in** sth ● a leap **of** [75%/5 million, etc] ● a leap **forward**

leap² /liːp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** CHANGE a sudden improvement or increase *There was a big **leap in** profits last year.* ○ *This represents a great **leap forward** in technology.* **2** JUMP a big jump *He finished third in the long jump with a leap of 26 feet.* **3 by/in leaps and bounds** If progress or growth happens in leaps and bounds, it happens very quickly. ➲See also: **quantum leap**

ˈleap ˌyear *noun* [**C**] a year that happens every four years, in which February has 29 days instead of 28

O-key **learn** /lɜːn/ *verb past* **learned**, *(also UK)* **learnt** /lɜːnt/ **1** EDUCATION [**I, T**] to get knowledge or skill in a new subject or activity *I learned Russian at school.* ○ *"Can you drive?" "I'm learning."* ○ *She's **learned** a lot **about** computers in the last three months.* [**+ to do sth**] *I'm learning to play the piano.* **2** EDUCATION [**T**] to make yourself remember a piece of writing by reading or repeating it many times *I don't know how*

actors learn all those lines. **3** [I, T] to start to understand that you must change the way you behave [+ **(that)**] *She'll have to learn that she can't have everything she wants.* ○ *The good thing is, he's not afraid to* ***learn from his mistakes.*** ➲See also: learn your **lesson**, learn/know the ropes (**rope**[1])

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

learn, teach, or study?

To **learn** is to get new knowledge or skills.

I want to learn how to drive.

When you **teach** someone, you give them new knowledge or skills.

My dad taught me how to drive.

~~*My dad learnt me how to drive.*~~

When you study, you go to classes, read books, etc to try to understand new ideas and facts.

He is studying biology at university.

learn about/of sth *phrasal verb* to hear facts or information that you did not know *We only learned about the accident later.*

learned /ˈlɜːnɪd/ *adjective formal* Someone who is learned has a lot of knowledge from reading and studying. *He was a very learned man.*

learner /ˈlɜːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who is getting knowledge or a new skill *learners of English*

learning /ˈlɜːnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the process of getting knowledge or a new skill *language learning*

ˈlearning ˌcurve *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** how quickly or slowly someone learns a new skill *I've been on a* ***steep learning curve*** *since I started my new job.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lease***

renew/sign/take a lease ● a lease **of/on** sth

lease[1] /liːs/ *noun* [C] **1** **LAW** a legal agreement in which you pay money in order to use a building or a piece of land for a period of time *We* ***signed*** *a three-year* ***lease*** *when we moved into the house.* **2 give sb/sth a new lease of life** *UK* (*also US* **give sb/sth a new lease on life**) **a** HAPPY/HEALTHY AGAIN to make someone feel happy or healthy after a period of illness or sadness *The operation has given her a new lease of life.* **b** IMPROVE to improve something that was old so that it works much better

lease[2] /liːs/ *verb* [T] **LAW** to use a building or piece of land, or to allow someone to use a building or piece of land, in exchange for money *We want to lease some office space in the centre of town.* ○ *The council eventually* ***leased*** *the land* ***to*** *a local company.*

leash /liːʃ/ (*also UK* **lead**) *noun* [C] a chain or piece of leather fixed to a dog's collar so that it can be controlled

least[1] /liːst/ *adverb* **1** less than anyone or anything else *Which car costs least?* ○ *I chose the least expensive dish on the menu.* ○ *No one,* ***least of all*** (= especially not) *James, is going to be angry with you.* **2 at least a** as much as, or more than, a number or amount *You'll have to wait at least an hour.* **b** something that you say when you are telling someone about an advantage in a bad situation *It's a small house but at least there's a garden.* **c** used to say that someone should give a small amount of help although they do not intend to give a lot *Even if you didn't want to send a present, you could at least have sent a card.* **d** something that you say in order to correct something you said that was wrong *I've seen that film. At least, I saw the beginning then I fell asleep.* **3 not least** *formal* especially *The whole trip was fascinating, not least because of the people I met.* **4 not in the least** not at all *I don't mind staying at home, not in the least.* ➲See also: **last**[2] but not least

least[2] /liːst/ *quantifier* **1** the smallest amount *She earns the least money of all of us.* ○ *Jake had more experience than anyone else and I probably had the least.* **2 to say the least** used to emphasize that you could have said something in a much stronger way *We were surprised, to say the least.*

leather /ˈleðəʳ/ *noun* [U] the skin of animals that is used to make things such as shoes and bags *a leather jacket*

leave[1] /liːv/ *verb past* **left** /left/ **1** GO AWAY [I, T] to go away from a place or a situation, either permanently or for a temporary period *I'm leaving work early this afternoon.* ○ *What time does the bus leave?* ○ *They* ***left for*** *Paris last night.* ○ *"Does Trevor still work there?" "No, he left."* (= he does not work there now). ○ *She left school at 16.* **2** END RELATIONSHIP [I, T] to end a relationship with a husband, wife, or partner and stop living with them *I'll never leave you.* ○ *She* ***left*** *him* ***for*** *a younger man.* **3** NOT TAKE [T] to not take something with you when you go away from a place, either intentionally or by accident *Why don't you leave your jacket in the car?* ○ *She'd left a note for him in the kitchen.* ○ *That's the second umbrella I've left on the train!* **4** NOT USE ALL [T] to not use all of something *They'd drunk all the wine but they'd left some food.* ○ *Are there any biscuits left?* **5** REMAIN [T] to make a permanent mark *The operation may leave a scar.* **6 leave sth open/on/off, etc** to cause something to stay in a particular condition *Who left the window open?* **7** DO LATER [T] to do something later that you could do immediately *Don't leave your packing till the night before you go.* **8** GIVE [T] to arrange for someone to receive something after you die *His aunt left him a lot of money.* ○ *He* ***left*** *the house* ***to*** *Julia.* **9 leave sb alone** to stop speaking to or annoying someone *Leave me alone! I'm trying to work.* **10 leave sth alone** to stop touching something *Leave your hair alone!* ➲See also: leave someone to their own devices (**device**), leave/make your **mark**[1]

leave sb/sth behind *phrasal verb* to leave a place without taking something or someone with you *We were in a hurry and I think I must have left my keys behind.*

leave behind sth; leave sth behind (sb) *phrasal verb* to cause a situation to exist after you have left a place *The army left a trail of destruction behind them.*

leave sth for/to sb *phrasal verb* to give someone the responsibility for dealing with something *I've left the paperwork for you.*

leave sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to not include someone or something *I've made a list of*

names - I hope I haven't left anyone out.
be left out *phrasal verb* If someone feels left out, they are unhappy because they have not been included in an activity. *The older children had gone upstairs to play and she felt left out.*
be left over *phrasal verb* If an amount of money or food is left over, it remains when the rest has been used or eaten. *There was a lot of food left over from the party.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***leave***

annual/maternity/paternity/sick leave ● **on** leave ● leave **from** [work/your job, etc]

leave² /liːv/ *noun* [U] a period of time when you do not go to work *She's **on** maternity/sick **leave**.*

leaves /liːvz/ *plural of* leaf

lecherous /ˈletʃᵊrəs/ *adjective* A lecherous man shows too much interest in sex, in a way that is unpleasant.

lecithin /ˈlesɪθɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance found in plant and animal tissue which is often used in food products to help the different parts mix together well

lecture¹ /ˈlektʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** a formal talk given to a group of people in order to teach them about a subject *We went to a **lecture on** Italian art.* ○ *Do you know who's **giving the lecture** this afternoon?* **2** an angry or serious talk given to someone in order to criticize their behaviour *My dad **gave** me **a lecture on** smoking last night.*

lecture² /ˈlektʃəʳ/ *verb* **1 EDUCATION** [I] to give a formal talk to a group of people, often at a university *She travelled widely throughout North America **lecturing on** women's rights.* ○ *For ten years she **lectured in** law.* **2** [T] to talk angrily to someone in order to criticize their behaviour *Stop lecturing me!* ○ *His parents used to **lecture** him **on** his table manners.*

lecturer /ˈlektʃᵊrəʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* **EDUCATION** someone who teaches at a university or college *a **lecturer in** psychology* ○ *a senior lecturer*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

lecturer or **teacher?**
In American English, **lecturer** is formal, and **teacher** or **professor** is usually used instead.

led /led/ *past of* lead

ledge /ledʒ/ *noun* [C] a long, flat surface that comes out under a window or from the side of a mountain *The birds landed on a ledge about halfway up the cliff.*

ledger /ˈledʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a book in which things are regularly recorded, especially business activities and money received or paid

leech /liːtʃ/ *noun* [C] a type of fat worm that drinks the blood of people and animals

leek /liːk/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a long white and green vegetable that smells and tastes similar to an onion

leer /lɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] to look at someone in an unpleasant and sexually interested way *He was always **leering at** female members of staff.* ●**leer** *noun* [C]

leery /ˈlɪəri/ *adjective US* worried and not able to trust someone *I've gotten more **leery of** the media.*

leeway /ˈliːweɪ/ *noun* [U] freedom to do what you want *My current boss **gives** me much more **leeway**.*

left¹ /left/ *adjective, adverb* on or towards the side of your body that is to the west when you are facing north [**always before noun**] *Step forward on your left leg.* ○ *She had a diamond earring in her left ear.* ○ ***Turn left** at the end of the corridor.* ➲Opposite **right**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***left (noun)***

on the left ● the left **of** sth ● be **to** sb's left

left² /left/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] the left side *Ned's the man sitting **on** my **left** in that photo.* ○ *Jean's house is last **on the left**.* **2 the Left/left** **POLITICS** political groups which believe that power and money should be shared more equally among people *The proposals were sharply criticized by the Left.* ➲Opposite **right**

left³ /left/ *past of* leave

ˌleft ˈclick *verb* [I] **COMPUTING** to press the button on the left of a computer mouse (= a small piece of equipment that you move with your hand to control what the computer does)

ˌleft ˈfield *noun US informal* **in/from/out of left field** strange and not expected *His question came out of left field, and I didn't know what to say.*

left-hand /ˌleftˈhænd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] on the left *a left-hand drive car* (= car which you drive sitting on the left-hand side) ○ *The swimming pool is on **the left-hand side** of the road.*

left-handed /ˌleftˈhændɪd/ *adjective* Someone who is left-handed uses their left hand to do most things. *Are you left-handed?*

leftist /ˈleftɪst/ *adjective* **POLITICS** supporting the ideas of parties on the political left *leftist politics/ideas*

leftover /ˈleftˌəʊvəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Leftover food remains after a meal. *If there's any leftover food we can take it home with us.* ●**leftovers** *noun* [**plural**] food which remains after a meal *We've been eating up the leftovers from the party all week.*

left-wing /ˌleftˈwɪŋ/ *adjective* **POLITICS** supporting the ideas of parties on the political left *a left-wing newspaper* ●**left-winger** *noun* [C]

leg /leg/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** one of the parts of the body of a human or animal that is used for standing and walking *He broke his leg in the accident.* ○ *There were cuts on her arms and legs.* ○ *She had bare legs and wore only a light summer dress.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 FOOD** the meat of an animal's leg eaten as food *a chicken leg* **3** FURNITURE one of the vertical parts of a chair, table, etc that is on the floor *a **chair/table leg*** **4** CLOTHES the part of a pair of trousers that covers one of your legs *He rolled up his **trouser legs** and*

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waded into the water. **5** PART OF JOURNEY one part of a journey or competition *the first/second/third leg of the journey* **6 not have a leg to stand on** to have no chance of proving that something is true *If you don't have a witness, you don't have a leg to stand on.* **7 be on its last legs** *informal* If a machine is on its last legs, it will stop working soon because it is so old. *We've had the same oven for twenty years now and it really is on its last legs.* **8 stretch your legs** *informal* to go for a walk

legacy /ˈlegəsi/ *noun* [C] **1** SITUATION a situation that was caused by something from an earlier time *The war has left a **legacy of** hatred.* **2** MONEY money or buildings, etc that you receive after someone dies

legal /ˈliːgᵊl/ *adjective* **1** LAW relating to the law *legal action/advice* ○ *the legal profession/system* **2** LAW allowed by law *Is it legal to carry a handgun?* ➲Opposite **illegal** ●**legally** *adverb Children under sixteen are not legally allowed to buy cigarettes.*

ˌlegal ˈaid *noun* [U] LAW a system that provides free advice about the law to people who are too poor to pay for it

legality /liːˈgæləti/ *noun* [U] LAW the legal quality of a situation or action *Some board members have questioned the legality of the proposal.*

legalize /ˈliːgᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] LAW to make something legal *How many Americans want to legalize drugs?* ●**legalization** /ˌliːgᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *the legalization of abortion*

legend /ˈledʒənd/ *noun* **1** LITERATURE [C, U] an old story or set of stories from ancient times *the legends of King Arthur* ○ *She's writing a book on Greek legend.* **2** FAMOUS PERSON [C] a famous person *a living legend* ○ *Jazz legend, Ella Fitzgerald, once sang in this bar.*

legendary /ˈledʒəndᵊri/ *adjective* **1** OLD from a legend (= old story) *a legendary Greek hero* **2** FAMOUS very famous *He became editor of the legendary Irish journal, 'The Bell'.*

leggings /ˈlegɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] tight trousers which are made of soft material that stretches and are worn mainly by women *a pair of leggings*

legible /ˈledʒəbl/ *adjective* If writing is legible, you can read it easily. ➲Opposite **illegible**

legion /ˈliːdʒən/ *noun* [C] a large group of soldiers that forms part of an army

legions /ˈliːdʒənz/ *noun* [plural] **legions of sb** large numbers of people *He failed to turn up for the concert, disappointing the legions of fans waiting outside.*

legislate /ˈledʒɪsleɪt/ *verb* [I] POLITICS, LAW If a government legislates, it makes a new law. *We believe it is possible to **legislate against** racism.* ○ *It's hard to **legislate for*** (= make a law that will protect) *the ownership of an idea.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***legislation***

introduce/pass legislation ● a **piece of** legislation ● legislation **on** sth

legislation /ˌledʒɪˈsleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] POLITICS, LAW a law or a set of laws *Most people want tougher environmental legislation but large corporations continue to oppose it.* ○ *They're relaxing the legislation.*

legit /ləˈdʒɪt/ *adjective informal short for* legitimate

legitimate /lɪˈdʒɪtəmət/ *adjective* **1** LAW allowed by law *Sales of illegal CDs now exceed those of legitimate recordings.* ➲Opposite **illegitimate** **2** CAN BE UNDERSTOOD A legitimate complaint or fear can be understood or believed. *People have expressed **legitimate fears** about the spread of the disease.* ○ *It's a legitimate criticism.* ●**legitimately** *adverb*

leisure /ˈleʒəʳ/ (US) /ˈliːʒər/ *noun* [U] **1** the time when you are not working ***leisure activities*** ○ *Try to spend your **leisure time** doing activities you really enjoy.* **2 at your leisure** If you do something at your leisure, you do it when you have the time. *Take it home and read it at your leisure.*

ˈleisure ˌcentre *noun* [C] *UK* SPORT a building with a swimming pool and places where you can play sports *She goes to aerobic classes at the local leisure centre.*

leisurely /ˈleʒəli/ (US) /ˈliːʒərli/ *adjective* in a relaxed way without hurrying *a **leisurely stroll***

lemon /ˈlemən/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD an oval, yellow fruit that has sour juice *a **slice of lemon*** ○ ***lemon juice*** ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

lemonade /ˌleməˈneɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **1** FOOD *UK* a cold drink with a lemon flavour that is sweet and has bubbles **2** FOOD *mainly US* a cold drink that is made from lemon juice, water, and sugar

lend /lend/ *verb past* **lent** /lent/ **1** [+ **two objects**] to give something to someone for a period of time, expecting that they will then give it back to you *She lent me her car for the weekend.* ○ *I do have a bike but I've **lent** it **to** Sara.* ○ *I've lent my copy of the book to Celia.* **2** ECONOMICS, FINANCE [I, T] If a bank lends money, it gives money to someone who then pays the money back in small amounts over a period. *The bank refused to lend us money for another mortgage.*
lend itself to sth *phrasal verb formal* to be suitable for a particular purpose *The old system doesn't lend itself to mass production.*
lend sth to sb/sth *phrasal verb formal* to add a quality to something or someone *We will continue to lend support to our allies.*

lender /ˈlendəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE a person or organization that lends money to people *mortgage lenders*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***length***

the length **of** sth ● [20m/3cm, etc] **in** length

length /leŋθ/ *noun* **1** MEASURES [C, U] the measurement or distance of something from one end to the other *The carpet is over three metres **in length**.* ○ *The length of the bay is roughly 200 miles.* ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **2** TIME [C, U] the amount of time something takes *the length of*

a film/play/speech ○ *Sitting still for any length of time is quite hard for most children.* **3** WRITING [**C, U**] the amount of writing in a book or document *He's written books of various lengths on the subject.* **4 at length** If you talk about something at length, you talk for a long time. *We discussed both topics at length.* **5** PIECE [**C**] a long piece of something *a length of cloth/cord/rope* **6 go to great lengths to do sth** to try very hard to achieve something *He'll go to great lengths to get what he wants.* **7 the length and breadth of sth** in every part of a place *They travelled the length and breadth of Scotland together.*

lengthen /ˈleŋθən/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become longer or to make something longer *lengthening waiting lists*

lengthy /ˈleŋθi/ *adjective* continuing for a long time *a* ***lengthy discussion/process***

lenient /ˈliːniənt/ *adjective* A lenient punishment is not severe. *He asked the judge to pass a lenient sentence.*

lens /lenz/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PHYSICS a curved piece of glass in cameras, glasses, and scientific equipment used for looking at things ➲See also: **contact lens, zoom lens 2** ANATOMY the part of the eye behind the pupil (= dark hole) that helps you see well ➲See picture at **eye**

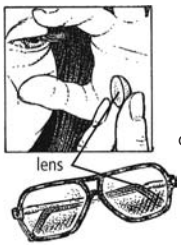

lens

lent /lent/ *past of* lend

Lent /lent/ *noun* [**U**] RELIGION the religious period before Easter (= a Christian holiday), in which some Christians do not allow themselves something that they usually enjoy *She's given up chocolate for Lent.*

lentil /ˈlentᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] FOOD a very small dried bean which is cooked and eaten *lentil soup*

Leo /ˈliːəʊ/ *noun* [**C, U**] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 July - 22 August, or a person born during this period

leopard /ˈlepəd/ *noun* [**C**] a large, wild animal of the cat family, with yellow fur and dark spots

leper /ˈlepəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] HEALTH a person who has leprosy

leprosy /ˈleprəsi/ *noun* [**U**] HEALTH a serious skin disease which can destroy parts of the body

lesbian /ˈlezbiən/ *noun* [**C**] a woman who is sexually attracted to other women *a lesbian affair*

O-key **less¹** /les/ *adverb* **1** not as much *I'm trying to exercise more and eat less.* ○ *Plastic bottles are less expensive to produce.* **2 less and less** If something happens less and less, it gradually becomes smaller in amount or not so frequent. *I find I'm eating less and less red meat.*

O-key **less²** /les/ *quantifier* a smaller amount *She gets about £50 a week or less.* ○ *I was driving at* ***less than*** *20 miles per hour.* ○ *Tuberculosis is* ***less of*** *a threat these days.* ○ *I prefer my coffee with a little less sugar.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

less or fewer?

Less is used before uncountable nouns.

I should eat less fat.

Fewer is used before countable nouns.

I should smoke fewer cigarettes.

-less /-ləs/ *suffix* changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'without' *homeless people* ○ *a meaningless statement* ○ *a hopeless situation*

lessen /ˈlesᵊn/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become less or to make something less *Exercise and a healthy diet lessen the chance of heart disease.*

lesser /ˈlesəʳ/ *adjective* **1** not as large, important, or of such good quality *The price increase was due to labour shortages and,* ***to a lesser extent****, the recent earthquake.* ○ *He faces the lesser charge of assault.* **2 the lesser of two evils** the less bad of two bad things *I suppose I regard the Democratic candidate as the lesser of two evils.*

lesser-known /ˌlesəˈnəʊn/ *adjective* not as popular or famous as something else *We stayed on one of the lesser-known Greek islands.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lesson***

have/take lessons ● **give** sb a lesson

O-key **lesson** /ˈlesᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** EDUCATION a period of time when a teacher teaches people *The best way to improve your game is to* ***take lessons****.* ○ *She* ***gives*** *French* ***lessons****.* ○ *Lessons start at 9 a.m.* **2** an experience which teaches you how to behave better in a similar situation in the future *My parents made me pay back all the money, and it was a lesson I never forgot.* **3 learn your lesson** to decide not to do something again because it has caused you problems in the past *I'm not going out without my umbrella again - I've learnt my lesson!* **4 teach sb a lesson** to punish someone so that they will not behave badly again *The next time she's late, go without her. That should teach her a lesson.*

O-key **let** /let/ *verb* [**T**] **letting**, *past* **let 1** ALLOW to allow someone to do something, or to allow something to happen *Let them play outside.* ○ *Don't let the camera get wet.* ○ *We let a whole year go by before we tried again.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **allow 2 let sb/sth in/past/through, etc** to allow someone or something to move to a particular place *They won't let us past the gate.* ○ *I won't let him near my children.* ○ *The roof lets in a lot of rain.* **3 let's** something that you say when you are making a suggestion *Let's eat out tonight.* **4 let me/us** something that you say when you are offering to help someone *Let me carry your cases.* **5** BUILDING If you let a building or part of a building, you allow someone to live there and they give you money. *I* ***let*** *the top floor of my house* ***to*** *a student.* **6 Let's see/Let me see** something that you say when you are trying to remember something or calculate something *Let's see - there are five people and only three beds.* ○ *It must have been - let me see - three years ago.* **7 Let's say** something that you say when you are suggesting a possible situation or action *Let's say we'll meet back here in an hour.* **8 let sb know (sth)** to tell

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someone something [+ **question word**] *I'll let you know when we've fixed a date for the meeting.* **9 let (sth) go** to stop holding something *I **let go of** the rope.* **10 let yourself go a** LESS ATTRACTIVE to allow yourself to become less attractive or healthy **b** RELAX to relax completely and enjoy yourself *It's a party - let yourself go!* **11 let's face it** something that you say when the truth is unpleasant but must be accepted *Let's face it, we're not getting any younger.* **12 let alone** used to emphasize that something is more impossible than another thing *You couldn't trust her to look after your dog, let alone your child.* ➲See also: let the **cat** out of the bag, let your **hair** down, get/let sb off the **hook**[1], let off **steam**[1]

let sb down *phrasal verb* to disappoint someone by failing to do what you agreed to do *I promised to go to the party with Jane and I can't let her down.*

let sb in *phrasal verb* to allow someone to enter a room or building, often by opening the door *Could you go down and let Darren in?*

let yourself in for sth *phrasal verb* to become involved in an unpleasant situation without intending to *Do you realize how much work you're letting yourself in for?*

let sb off *phrasal verb* to not punish someone who has done something wrong, or to not punish them severely *I'll let you off this time, but don't ever lie to me again.* ○ *The judge **let** her **off with*** (= only punished her with) a fine.

let on *phrasal verb* to tell someone about something secret *She **let on to** a friend that she'd lied in court.*

let sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to allow a person or animal to leave somewhere, especially by opening a locked or closed door

let up *phrasal verb* If bad weather or an unpleasant situation lets up, it stops or improves. *I hope the rain lets up for the weekend.*

letdown /ˈletdaʊn/ *noun* [**no plural**] *informal* a disappointment *After all I'd heard about the film it was a bit of a letdown when I finally saw it.*

lethal /ˈliːθəl/ *adjective* able to cause death

lethargic /ləˈθɑːdʒɪk/ *adjective* When you feel lethargic, you have no energy and you do not want to do anything. ●**lethargy** /ˈleθədʒi/ *noun* [**U**] the feeling of being tired and having no energy

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***letter***

get/receive/send/write a letter ● **in** a letter ● a letter **from/to** sb

letter /ˈletər/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a written message that you send to someone, usually by post *I **got** a **letter** from Paul this morning.* **2 LANGUAGE** a symbol that is used in written language and that represents a sound in that language *the letter K* ➲See also: **covering letter**

letterbox /ˈletəbɒks/ *noun* [**C**] **UK 1** IN DOOR a small hole in a door that letters are put through **2** IN PUBLIC PLACE (*US* **mailbox**) a large, metal container in a public place where you can post letters

ˈletter ˌcarrier *US* (*UK* **postman**) *noun* [**C**] someone who takes and brings letters and parcels as a job

letterpress /ˈletəpres/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a method of printing in which raised surfaces covered with ink are pressed onto paper

lettuce /ˈletɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a plant with green leaves, which is eaten in salads ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

leucocyte /ˈljuːkəʊsaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a white blood cell

leukaemia *UK* (*US* **leukemia**) /luːˈkiːmiə/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a serious disease in which a person's body produces too many white blood cells

levee /ˈlevi/ *noun* [**C**] a wall made of land or other materials that is built next to a river to stop the river from flooding (= covering everywhere in water)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***level***

the level **of** sth ● **at** a (high/low, etc) level

level[1] /ˈlevəl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HEIGHT the height of something *the water level* **2** AMOUNT the amount or number of something *Chess requires a high level of concentration.* **3** ABILITY someone's ability compared to other people *Students at this level need a lot of help.* **4** FLOOR a floor in a building *The store had three levels.* ➲See also: **A level,** a level **playing field**, **sea level**

level[2] /ˈlevəl/ *adjective* **1** HEIGHT [**never before noun**] at the same height *I got down till my face was **level with** his.* **2** FLAT flat or horizontal *Make sure the camera is level before you take the picture.*

level[3] /ˈlevəl/ *verb* [**T**] *UK* **levelling**, *past* **levelled**, *US* **leveling**, *past* **leveled 1** MAKE FLAT to make something flat *He levelled the wet cement before it set.* **2** DESTROY to completely destroy a building *Artillery fire levelled the town.*

level sth against/at sb *phrasal verb* to say that someone has done something wrong [**often passive**] *Charges of corruption have been levelled against him.*

level sth at sb *phrasal verb* to aim a gun at someone or something *He levelled the gun at my head.*

level off/out *phrasal verb* to stop rising or falling and stay at the same level *Road deaths have levelled off since the speed limit was lowered.*

ˌlevel ˈcrossing *UK* (*US* **grade crossing**) *noun* [**C**] a place where a railway crosses a road

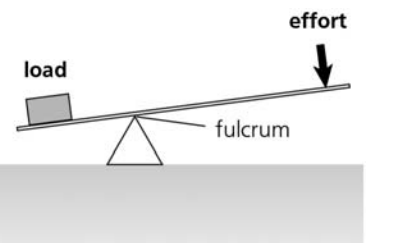

lever

lever /ˈliːvər/ US /ˈlevər/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HANDLE a handle that you push or pull to make a

machine work **2** LIFTING a long bar that you use to lift or move something by pressing one end

leverage /ˈliːvᵊrɪdʒ/ (US) /ˈlevərɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] the power to influence people in order to get what you want

levy /ˈlevi/ *verb* **levy a charge/fine/tax, etc** FINANCE to officially demand money [**often passive**] *A new tax was **levied on** consumers of luxury goods.*

lewd /luːd/ *adjective* sexual in a way that is unpleasant *lewd comments/gestures*

liability /ˌlaɪəˈbɪləti/ *noun* **1** RESPONSIBILITY [U] when you are legally responsible for something *They have **admitted liability for** the damage caused.* **2** TROUBLE [**no plural**] someone or something that is likely to cause you a lot of trouble *Wherever we go she upsets someone - she's a real liability.* **3** FINANCE [**usually plural**] a debt of a business

liable /ˈlaɪəbl/ *adjective* **1 be liable to do sth** to be likely to do something *He's liable to make a fuss if you wake him.* **2** legally responsible *Corporate officials are **liable for** the safety of their employees.*

liaise /liˈeɪz/ *verb* [I] to speak to other people at work in order to exchange information with them *Our head office will **liaise with** the suppliers to ensure delivery.*

liaison /liˈeɪzᵊn/ *noun* **1** COMMUNICATION [U] communication between people or groups that work with each other **2** PERSON [C] *US* someone who helps groups to communicate effectively with each another *She served as an informal liaison between employees and management.* **3** RELATIONSHIP [C] a short sexual relationship between people who are not married

liana /liˈɑːnə/ *noun* [C] a woody plant that grows in tropical (= in very hot parts of the world) forests

liar /ˈlaɪᵊr/ *noun* [C] someone who tells lies

Lib Dem /lɪbˈdem/ *noun* [C] POLITICS *short for* Liberal Democrat

libel /ˈlaɪbᵊl/ *noun* [U] writing which contains bad information about someone which is not true *Tabloid magazines are often sued for libel.*

liberal /ˈlɪbᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* **1** accepting beliefs and behaviour that are new or different from your own *a **liberal attitude*** **2** POLITICS Liberal political ideas emphasize the need to make new laws as society changes and the need for government to provide social services. ●**liberal** *noun* [C] someone who is liberal

ˌliberal ˈarts *US* (*UK/US* **arts**) *noun* [**plural**] EDUCATION subjects of study which are not science, such as history, languages, etc

ˌLiberal ˈDemocrat *noun* [C] **1 the Liberal Democrats** POLITICS one of the three main political parties in the UK *He's the leader of the Liberal Democrats.* **2** POLITICS someone who supports the Liberal Democrats

liberally /ˈlɪbᵊrᵊli/ *adverb* in large amounts *fruit liberally sprinkled with sugar*

liberate /ˈlɪbᵊreɪt/ *verb* [T] to help someone or something to be free *Troops liberated the city.* ●**liberation** /ˌlɪbᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *the invasion and liberation of France*

liberated /ˈlɪbᵊreɪtɪd/ *adjective* not following traditional ways of behaving or old ideas *a liberated woman*

liberating /ˈlɪbᵊreɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel that you can behave in exactly the way that you want to *Taking all your clothes off can be a very **liberating experience**.*

liberty /ˈlɪbᵊti/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the freedom to live, work, and travel as you want to *Many would willingly fight to preserve their liberty.* **2 be at liberty to do sth** *formal* to be allowed to do something *I'm not at liberty to discuss the matter at present.* **3 take the liberty of doing sth** *formal* to do something that will have an effect on someone else, without asking their permission *I took the liberty of booking theatre seats for us.* ➲See also: **civil liberties**

Libra /ˈliːbrə/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 September - 22 October, or a person born during this period

librarian /laɪˈbreᵊriᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone who works in a library

O-key **library** /ˈlaɪbrᵊri/ *noun* [C] a room or building that contains a collection of books and other written material that you can read or borrow

lice /laɪs/ *plural of* louse

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***licence***

apply for/hold/issue a licence ● a licence **for** sth

licence *UK* (*US* **license**) /ˈlaɪsᵊns/ *noun* [C] LAW an official document that allows you to do or have something *a hunting licence* ○ *a marriage licence* ➲See also: **driving licence, off-licence**

license /ˈlaɪsᵊns/ *verb* [T] LAW to give someone official permission to do or have something [**often passive + to do sth**] *Undercover agents are licensed to carry guns.*

licensed /ˈlaɪsᵊnst/ *adjective* **1** APPROVED *mainly US* officially approved *a licensed physician* **2** ALCOHOL A licensed bar or restaurant is officially allowed to serve alcoholic drinks.

ˈlicense ˌplate *US* (*UK* **number plate**) *noun* [C] an official metal sign with numbers and letters on the front and back of a car ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

lick¹ /lɪk/ *verb* [T] to move your tongue across the surface of something *to **lick** your **lips*** ○ *We licked the chocolate off our fingers.*

lick² /lɪk/ *noun* **1** [C] when you lick something [**usually singular**] *Here, have a lick of my ice cream.* **2 a lick of paint** *UK informal* If you give a wall or other surface a lick of paint, you paint it.

lid /lɪd/ *noun* [C] the top part of a container that can be removed in order to put something in or take something out

O-key **lie¹** /laɪ/ *verb* [I] **lying**, *past tense* **lay**, *past participle* **lain 1 lie in/on, etc** to be in a horizontal or flat position on a surface *to lie in bed* ○ *to lie on a beach* ○ *to lie on your side* ○ *The pen lay on the desk.* ○ *She had lain where she fell until morning.* **2 lie below/in/on/to, etc** to be in a particular place *The river lies 30 km to the south of the city.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **lay**

lie around *phrasal verb* **1** REST *informal* to

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spend time lying down and doing very little *We spent a week by the sea, lying around on the beach.* **2** UNTIDY If things are lying around, they are left in an untidy way in places where they should not be. *He's always leaving money lying around.*
lie back *phrasal verb* to lower the top half of your body from a sitting position to a lying position *Lie back and relax.*
lie down *phrasal verb* to move into a position in which your body is flat, usually in order to sleep or rest *I'm not feeling well - I'm going to lie down.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16
lie in *phrasal verb UK* to stay in bed in the morning later than usual *I lay in till eleven o'clock this morning.*
lie in sth *phrasal verb* to exist or be found in something *Her strength lies in her faith.*
lie with sb *phrasal verb* If the responsibility or blame for something lies with someone, it is their responsibility. *The final decision lies with me.*

lie² /laɪ/ *verb* [I] **lying**, *past* **lied** to say or write something that is not true in order to deceive someone *Are you **lying to** me?* ○ *He **lied about** his qualifications for the job.*

lie³ /laɪ/ *noun* [C] something that you say or write which you know is not true *I **told a lie** when I said I liked her haircut.* ➲See also: **white lie**

lie-in /ˈlaɪˌɪn/ *noun* [**no plural**] *UK* when you stay in bed in the morning longer than usual *I **had a** long **lie-in** this morning.*

lieu /luː/ *noun* **in lieu of sth** *formal* instead of something *She took the money in lieu of the prize.*

lieutenant /lefˈtenənt/ (US) /luːˈtenənt/ *noun* [C] an officer of middle rank in the army, navy, or air force *first/second lieutenant*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***life***

have/lead/live a [charmed/normal, etc] life ● **spend** your life (doing sth) ● an **aspect/part** of sb's life

life /laɪf/ *noun plural* **lives** /laɪvz/ **1** ANIMALS/PLANTS [U] living things and their activities *human/marine life* ○ *Is there life in outer space?* **2** PERSON'S EXISTENCE [C] the existence of a person *How many lives will be lost to AIDS?* **3** TIME [C, U] the time between a person's birth and their death *I'm not sure I want to **spend** the rest of my **life** with him.* ○ ***Life's too short** to worry about stuff like that.* ○ *Unfortunately, accidents are **part of life**.* ○ *He **had** a happy **life**.* **4** WAY OF LIVING [C, U] a way of living *You **lead** an exciting **life**.* **5 family/private/sex, etc life** one part of someone's existence *My private life is nobody's business but mine.* **6** ACTIVITY [U] energy and activity *She was always bubbly and **full of life**.* ○ *I looked through the window but couldn't see any **signs of life*** (= people moving). **7** ACTIVE PERIOD [**no plural**] the amount of time that a machine, system, etc exists or can be used *Careful use will prolong the life of your machine.* **8 bring sth to life/come to life** to make something more real or exciting, or to become more real or exciting **9 That's life.** something you say which means bad things happen and you cannot prevent them *You don't get everything you want but that's life, isn't it?* **10 Get a life!** *informal* something you say to a boring person when you want them to do more exciting things *Surely you're not cleaning the house on Saturday night? Get a life!* ➲See Common Learner Error at **live** ➲See also: the facts (**fact**) of life, give sb the **kiss**² of life, give sb/sth a new **lease**¹ of life, **shelf life, walk**² of life

lifeboat /ˈlaɪfbəʊt/ *noun* [C] a small boat that is used to help people who are in danger at sea

ˈlife ˌcoach *noun* [C] someone whose job is to teach people how to solve problems and make decisions in their daily life

ˈlife ˌcycle *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the changes that happen in the life of an animal or plant

ˈlife exˌpectancy *noun* [C, U] the number of years that someone is likely to live

lifeguard /ˈlaɪfɡɑːd/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone at a swimming pool or beach whose job is to help people who are in danger in the water

ˈlife inˌsurance (*also UK* **ˈlife əˌssurance**) *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a system of payments to an insurance company (= a company that will pay money) that will pay money to your family when you die

ˈlife ˌjacket *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that you wear on the upper part of your body to help you float if you fall into water

lifeless /ˈlaɪfləs/ *adjective* **1** DEAD without life *his lifeless body* **2** WITHOUT ENERGY without energy or feeling *a lifeless performance*

lifelike /ˈlaɪflaɪk/ *adjective* If something is lifelike, it looks real. *a lifelike portrait/sculpture*

lifeline /ˈlaɪflaɪn/ *noun* [C] something that helps you when you are in a difficult or dangerous situation *For a lot of old people who live on their own, the telephone is a lifeline.*

lifelong /ˌlaɪfˈlɒŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] for all of your life *a **lifelong friend/interest***

ˌlife ˈpeer *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who has been officially respected in the UK by being given an important title, for example 'Lord', 'Lady' or 'Baroness'

ˈlife ˌsentence (*informal* **life**) *noun* [C] **LAW** the punishment of spending a very long time, or the rest of your life, in prison

lifespan /ˈlaɪfspæn/ *noun* [C] the amount of time that a person lives or a thing exists

lifestyle /ˈlaɪfstaɪl/ *noun* [C] the way that you live *a **healthy lifestyle***

life-threatening /ˈlaɪfθretᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* likely to cause death ***life-threatening conditions/diseases***

lifetime /ˈlaɪftaɪm/ *noun* [C] the period of time that someone is alive [**usually singular**] *We'll see such huge changes **in** our **lifetime**.*

lift¹ /lɪft/ *verb* **1** UP [T] to put something or someone in a higher position *Could you help me lift this table, please?* ○ *She **lifted** the baby **up** and put him in his chair.* **2** WEATHER [I] If fog lifts, it disappears. *By noon the fog had lifted and the day turned hot.* **3** RULES [T] to stop a rule *The government had already **lifted** the **ban** on beef imports.* **4** STEAL [T] *informal* to steal or copy something *Entire paragraphs of his thesis*

were lifted from other sources. ➲See also: not lift a **finger**[1]

lift[2] /lɪft/ *noun* [C] **1** MACHINE *UK* (*US* **elevator**) a machine that carries people up and down in tall buildings *Shall we use the stairs or **take the lift?*** **2** RIDE a free ride somewhere, usually in a car [**usually singular**] *Can you **give** me **a lift** to the airport?* **3** MOVE when you move someone or something up to a higher position

lift-off /ˈlɪftɒf/ *noun* [C] the moment when a spacecraft leaves the ground

ligament /ˈlɪgəmənt/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a piece of strong tissue in the body that holds bones together *ankle/knee ligaments* ○ *torn ligaments*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***light***

light **shines** ● a **beam/ray/shaft** of light ● **bright** light

light[1] /laɪt/ *noun* **1** BRIGHTNESS [U] the brightness that shines from the sun, from fire, or from electrical equipment, allowing you to see things ***bright/dim light*** ○ *fluorescent/ultraviolet light* ○ ***a beam/ray** of light* ○ *Light was streaming in through the open door.* **2** DEVICE [C] a device which produces light *car lights* ○ *to switch/turn the light on* ○ *They must be in bed - I can't see any **lights on** anywhere.* **3 a light** a flame from a match, etc used to make a cigarette start burning *Have you got a light, please?* **4 set light to sth** *UK* to make something start burning **5 in the light of sth** (*also US* **in light of sth**) If something is done or happens in the light of facts, it is done or happens because of those facts. *The drug has been withdrawn in the light of new research.* **6 bring sth to light** If information about something bad is brought to light, it is discovered. *The trial brought to light numerous contradictions in his story.* **7 cast/shed light on sth** to help people understand a situation *We were hoping you might be able to shed some light on the matter.* **8 come to light** If information about something bad comes to light, it is discovered. **9 light at the end of the tunnel** something which makes you believe that an unpleasant situation will soon end ➲See also: **green light, street light, tail light, traffic light**

light[2] /laɪt/ *adjective* **1** NOT HEAVY not heavy *light clothing/machinery* ○ *I can carry both bags - they're quite light.* **2** NOT MUCH small in amount *light rain/snow* ○ *I only had a light lunch.* **3** NOT STRONG not strong or not forceful *a light breeze* ○ *a light embrace* **4** PALE Light colours are pale. *light brown/green* ○ *a light blue cardigan* **5** NOT SERIOUS easy to understand and not serious ***light entertainment*** ○ *I'm taking some **light reading** on holiday.* **6 make light of sth** to talk or behave as if you do not think a problem is serious **7 it is light** bright from the sun *Let's go now while it's still light.* ●**lightness** *noun* [U]

light[3] /laɪt/ *verb past* **lit** or **lighted** **1** BURN [I, T] to start to burn, or to make something start to burn *to **light** a **candle/cigarette/fire*** ○ *The wood was damp and wouldn't light.* **2** BRIGHT [T] to produce light somewhere so that you can see things [**often passive**] *The room was lit by a single light bulb.* ○ *Burning buildings **lit up** the sky.*
light up *phrasal verb* If your face or your eyes light up, you suddenly look happy or excited. *His **eyes lit up** when you mentioned her name.* **light (sth) up** *phrasal verb* to make a cigarette, etc start burning *He made himself a coffee and **lit up** a **cigarette**.*

ˈlight ˌbulb *noun* [C] a glass object containing a wire which produces light from electricity

light bulb

lighten /ˈlaɪtᵊn/ *verb* **1** LESS SERIOUS [I, T] If a serious situation lightens, it becomes less serious, and if something or someone lightens it, they make it less serious. *Her **mood lightened** a bit when I asked about her holiday.* ○ *He tried to **lighten** the **atmosphere** by telling a joke.* **2 lighten the burden/load** to reduce the amount of work or trouble someone has to deal with **3** LESS DARK [I, T] to become less dark, or to make something less dark *The sun had lightened her hair.*
lighten up *phrasal verb informal* to become more relaxed and less serious *I wish she'd lighten up a bit.*

lighter /ˈlaɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small object that produces a flame and is used to make cigarettes start burning

light-hearted /ˌlaɪtˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* not serious *a light-hearted remark*

lighthouse /ˈlaɪthaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **lighthouses** /ˈlaɪthaʊzɪz/ a tall building on the coast containing a large light which warns ships that there are rocks

lighting /ˈlaɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the light created by electrical equipment, candles, etc *soft lighting*

lightly /ˈlaɪtli/ *adverb* **1** GENTLY gently *He kissed her lightly on the cheek.* **2** NOT MUCH not much ***lightly cooked** vegetables* **3 not do sth lightly** to think carefully about something before you do it, knowing that it is serious *It's not a decision that I take lightly.* **4 get off lightly** (*also UK* **escape lightly**) to have less trouble or punishment than you expected

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lightning***

be **struck by** lightning ● a **bolt/flash** of lightning ● **thunder and** lightning

lightning /ˈlaɪtnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a sudden flash of light in the sky during a storm ***thunder and lightning*** ○ *He was **struck by lightning** and killed.* ➲See picture at **nitrogen cycle**

ˈlight ˌpen *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a device like a pen that is used for reading bar codes (= thin lines on products that tell their price)

lights /laɪts/ (*also* **ˈtraffic ˌlights**) *noun* [**plural**] a set of red, green, and yellow lights that is used to stop and start traffic

lightweight /ˈlaɪtweɪt/ *adjective* not weighing much *a lightweight jacket for the summer* ●**lightweight** *noun* [C] a sportsman such as a boxer who is not in the heaviest weight group

lignified /ˈlɪgnɪfaɪd/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** hard and like wood, because of containing lignin

L

lignin /ˈlɪgnɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a substance found in the edges of some plant cells that makes the plant hard like wood

like¹ /laɪk/ *preposition* **1** SIMILAR similar to or in the same way as someone or something *They were acting like children.* ○ *He looks like his father.* ○ *It sounded like Harry.* **2 What is sb/sth like?** something you say when you want someone to describe someone or something *I haven't met him - what's he like?* ○ *So what's your new dress like?* **3 What are you like?** *UK* used when someone has said or done something silly *You've bought another jacket? What are you like?* **4** TYPICAL If behaviour is like someone, it is typical of the way that they behave. *It's **just like** Anita to miss her train.* ○ *It's not like Tim to be late.* **5** FOR EXAMPLE for example *She looks best in bright colours, like red and pink.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***like***

If a person likes someone or something very much, you can use the verbs **love** and **adore**: *I **adore/love** seafood.* ● *Oliver **loves** animals.* ● *Kate **adored** her grandfather.*

The expressions **think the world of** someone and **have a soft spot for** someone can also be used when a person likes someone very much: *I've always **had a soft spot for** Rebecca ever since she was tiny.* ● *Annabel's like a daughter to him, he **thinks the world of** her.*

The expression **be fond of** is sometimes used to talk about someone or something that someone likes: *She's very **fond of** Chinese food.* ● *I think she's very **fond of** you.*

The phrasal verbs **grow on** and **take to/warm to** can be used when someone starts to like someone or something: *I wasn't sure about the colour at first, but it's **growing on** me.* ● *For some reason, I just didn't **take/warm to** him.*

The expressions **take a shine to** or **take a liking to** are sometimes used when someone immediately likes a person: *I think he's **taken a** bit of a **shine to** you.*

like² /laɪk/ *verb* [T] **1** to enjoy something or feel that someone or something is pleasant [+ **doing sth**] *I just like playing with my computer.* [+ **to do sth**] *I like to paint in my spare time.* ○ *He really likes her.* ○ *What do you **like about** him?* ➲Opposite **dislike 2 not like to do sth/not like doing sth** to not usually do something because you think it is wrong *I don't like to criticize her too much.* **3 would like sth** to want something [+ **to do sth**] *I'd like to think about it.* ○ *I'd like some chips with that, please.* **4 Would you like...?** used to offer someone something *Would you like a drink?* [+ **to do sth**] Would you like to eat now? **5 if you like a** used to say 'yes' when someone suggests a plan *"Shall I come?" "If you like."* **b** used when you offer someone something *If you like I could drive you there.* **6 How do you like sb/sth?** used to ask someone for their opinion *How do you like my new shoes?*

like³ /laɪk/ *conjunction* **1** SAME WAY *informal* in the same way as *Do it exactly like I told you to.* **2** AS IF *US informal* as if *He acted like he didn't hear me.*

like⁴ /laɪk/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] *formal* someone or something that is similar to someone or something else *Economists are predicting a depression, **the like of which** the world has never seen.* **2 and the like** *informal* and similar things *There's a gym that they use for dance and aerobics and the like.* **3 sb's likes and dislikes** the things that someone thinks are pleasant and not pleasant

-like /-laɪk/ *suffix* changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'typical of or similar to' *childlike trust* ○ *a cabbage-like vegetable*

likeable /ˈlaɪkəbl/ *adjective* If you are likeable, you are pleasant and easy to like. *a likeable character*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***likelihood***

increase/reduce the likelihood **of** sth ● a **real/strong** likelihood ● the likelihood **of** (doing) sth

likelihood /ˈlaɪklihʊd/ *noun* [U] the chance that something will happen *There's not much **likelihood of** that happening.*

likely¹ /ˈlaɪkli/ *adjective* **1** EXPECTED expected [+ **to do sth**] *Do remind me because I'm likely to forget.* [+ **(that)**] *It's likely that he'll say no.* **2** TRUE probably true *the most likely explanation* ➲Opposite **unlikely**

likely² /ˈlaɪkli/ *adverb* **1** probably *She'll most likely come without him.* **2 Not likely!** *UK informal* used to say that you will certainly not do something *"So are you coming running with me?" "Not likely!"*

liken /ˈlaɪkən/ *verb*
liken sth/sb to sth/sb *phrasal verb formal* to say that two people are similar or two things are similar *She's been likened to a young Elizabeth Taylor.*

likeness /ˈlaɪknəs/ *noun* [C, U] being similar in appearance *There's a definite **family likeness** around the eyes.*

likewise /ˈlaɪkwaɪz/ *adverb formal* in the same way *Water these plants twice a week and likewise the ones in the bedroom.* ○ *Watch what she does and then **do likewise**.*

liking /ˈlaɪkɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] a feeling that you like someone or something *He has **a liking for** young women.* **2 take a liking to sb** to like someone immediately *He obviously took a liking to her.* **3 be too bright/sweet, etc for your liking** to be brighter/sweeter, etc than you like **4 be to sb's liking** *formal* to be the way that someone prefers something *Is the wine to your liking, sir?*

lilac /ˈlaɪlək/ *noun* [C, U] a small tree that has sweet-smelling purple, pink, or white flowers

lily /ˈlɪli/ *noun* [C] a plant with large, bell-shaped flowers that are often white

limb /lɪm/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** a leg or an arm of a person **2** a large branch of a tree

lime /laɪm/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C, U] a small, green fruit that is sour like a lemon **2** TREE [C] (*also* **ˈlime ˌtree**) a large tree that has pale green leaves and yellow flowers **3 FARMING** [U] a white substance that is found in water and soil

and is used to improve the quality of soil **4** COLOUR [U] (*also* **lime green**) a bright colour that is a mixture of yellow and green ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 ●**lime** (*also* **lime-green**) *adjective*

the limelight /ˈlaɪmlaɪt/ *noun* attention from the public *She's been* ***in the limelight*** *for most of her career.*

limerick /ˈlɪmᵊrɪk/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE a funny poem with five lines

limescale /ˈlaɪmskeɪl/ *noun* [U] a hard white layer that forms on the sides of pipes or containers that heat water

limestone /ˈlaɪmstəʊn/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY a white or light grey rock formed from the bones of sea animals, often used in building materials

limewater /ˈlaɪmwɔːtə/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a liquid containing calcium hydroxide that is used by scientists to test whether substances contain carbon dioxide

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***limit***

an **age/height/speed/time** limit ● a **legal/maximum/strict/upper** limit ● **exceed/impose** a limit ● a limit **on/to** sth

O-K **limit¹** /ˈlɪmɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** the largest amount of something that is possible or allowed *a time limit* ○ *Is there a* ***limit on*** *the amount of money you can claim?* ○ *There's a* ***limit to*** *how much time we can spend on this.* **2 be over the limit** *UK* to have more alcohol in your blood than is legally allowed while driving **3 within limits** avoiding behaviour that is extreme or silly *You can wear what you want, within limits.* **4 off limits** If an area is off limits, you are not allowed to enter it. ➲See also: **speed limit**

O-K **limit²** /ˈlɪmɪt/ *verb* [T] to control something so that it is less than a particular amount or number *We'll have to limit the number of guests.*
be limited to sth *phrasal verb* to only exist in a particular area *Racial problems are certainly not limited to the south.*
limit sb to sth *phrasal verb* to only allow someone a particular amount or number of something [**often passive**] *We're limited to two pieces of luggage each.* [**often reflexive**] *I try to limit myself to two cups of coffee a day.*

limitation /ˌlɪmɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when something is controlled so that it is less than a particular amount or number *the limitation of free speech* ○ *You can't write everything you want to because of space limitations.*

limitations /ˌlɪmɪˈteɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] things that someone is not good at doing *Both films show her limitations as an actress.*

limited /ˈlɪmɪtɪd/ *adjective* small in amount or number *a* ***limited choice*** ○ *limited resources* ➲Opposite **unlimited**

ˌlimited ˈcompany *noun* [C] a company, especially one in the UK, whose owners only have to pay part of the money they owe if the company fails financially

ˌlimited liaˈbility *noun* [U] A business with limited liability only has to pay part of its debts if the business fails.

limousine /ˌlɪməˈziːn/ (*also* **limo** /ˈlɪməʊ/) *noun* [C] a large, expensive car, usually for rich or important people *a chauffeur-driven limousine*

limp¹ /lɪmp/ *adjective* soft and weak *a* ***limp handshake*** ○ *a limp lettuce*

limp² /lɪmp/ *verb* [I] to walk with difficulty because one of your legs or feet is hurt ●**limp** *noun* [**no plural**] *She walks with a limp.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***line***

draw a line ● a **diagonal/horizontal/straight/vertical** line

O-K **line¹** /laɪn/ *noun* **1** MARK [C] a long, thin mark *a horizontal/straight/vertical line* ○ *Sign your name on the dotted line.* ○ ***Draw a line*** *around your hand.* **2** ROW [C] a row of people or things *a line of trees* ○ *We formed two lines, men on one side and women on the other.* **3** ROPE ETC [C] a piece of rope or wire with a particular purpose *a clothes/fishing line* **4** TELEPHONE [C] the connection between two telephones *I've got Neil* ***on the line*** *for you* (= waiting to speak to you). ○ *I'll be with you in a moment - could you* ***hold the line*** (= wait), *please?* **5** WAITING [C, U] *US* (*UK* **queue**) a row of people waiting for something, one behind the other *We were* ***standing in line*** *for hours to get tickets.* **6** SONG/POEM [C] a row of words on a page, for example in a song or poem *The same line is repeated throughout the poem.* **7 lines** the words spoken by an actor in a performance *I don't know how actors remember all their lines.* **8** OPINION [C] the official opinion of an organization [**usually singular**] *the government's* ***line on*** *immigration* **9 along the lines of sth** based on and similar to something *He gave a talk along the lines of the one he gave in Oxford.* **10 sb's line of reasoning/thinking, etc** your reasons for

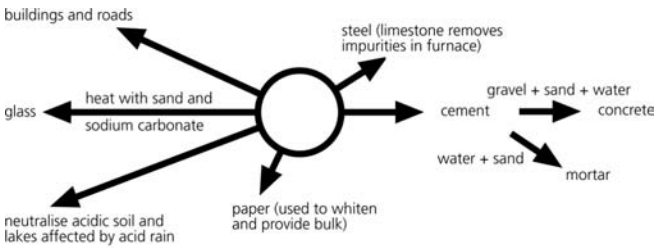

uses of limestone

believing that something is true or right **11** PRODUCT [C] a type of product that a company sells *They're advertising a new* ***line in*** *garden furniture.* **12** DIRECTION [C] the direction that something moves in *He can't kick the ball in a* ***straight line.*** **13 lines** the marks that older people have on their faces, when the skin is loose **14** BORDER [C] *US* a border between two areas *the New York state line* **15 be on the line** If someone's job is on the line, they may lose it. **16 be in line for sth** to be likely to get something good, especially a job **17 be in line with sth** to be similar to and suitable for something *a pay increase in line with inflation* **18 draw the line at sth** to never do something because you think it is wrong *I swear a lot but even I draw the line at certain words.* **19 toe the (party) line** to do what someone in authority tells you to do although you may not agree with it ➲See also: **the bottom line, dotted line, front line, hard line**

line² /laɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** to form a row along the side of something *Trees and cafes lined the street.* **2 be lined with sth** If a piece of clothing is lined with a material, its inside is covered with it. *a jacket lined with fur*
line (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to stand in a row, or to arrange people or things in a row *Books were neatly lined up on the shelves.*
line sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to plan for something to happen *What future projects have you lined up?*

L

linear /ˈlɪniəʳ/ *adjective* **1** to do with lines **2** MEASURES relating to length, not volume *linear measurement*

ˌlinear eˈquation *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS an equation which makes a straight line if it is drawn on a graph

ˈline ˌmanager *noun* [C] *mainly UK* the person who manages another person in a company or business

linen /ˈlɪnɪn/ *noun* [U] **1** CLOTH an expensive cloth that is like rough cotton *a linen jacket* **2** SHEETS ETC pieces of cloth that you use to cover tables and beds *bed linen*

liner /ˈlaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large ship like a hotel, which people travel on for pleasure *a cruise/ocean liner*

linesman /ˈlaɪnzmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **linesmen** SPORT in a sport, someone who watches to see if a ball goes into areas where it is not allowed

linger /ˈlɪŋgəʳ/ *verb* [I] to stay somewhere for a long time *The smell from the fire still lingered hours later.*

lingerie /ˈlɒnʒəʳri/ (US) /ˌlɑːnʒəˈreɪ/ *noun* [U] women's underwear

lingering /ˈlɪŋgəʳrɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] lasting a long time ***lingering doubts***

linguist /ˈlɪŋgwɪst/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE someone who is good at learning foreign languages, or someone who studies or teaches linguistics

linguistic /lɪŋˈgwɪstɪk/ *adjective* [always before noun] LANGUAGE relating to language or linguistics

linguistics /lɪŋˈgwɪstɪks/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE the scientific study of languages

lining /ˈlaɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] a material or substance that covers the inside of something *a coat/jacket lining* ○ *the lining of the stomach*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***link***

discover/establish/find a link ● a **close/direct/strong** link ● a link **between** sth **and** sth ● a link **with** sth

link¹ /lɪŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** CONNECTION a connection between two people, things, or ideas *There's a direct* ***link between*** *diet and heart disease.* ○ *Their* ***links with*** *Britain are still strong.* **2** CHAIN one ring of a chain **3** COMPUTING, INTERNET (*also* **hyperlink**) a connection between documents or areas on the Internet *Click on this link to visit our online bookstore.* ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

link² /lɪŋk/ *verb* [T] to make a connection between two or more people, things, or ideas [often passive] *Both men have been* ***linked with*** *the robberies.* ○ *The drug has been* ***linked to*** *the deaths of several athletes.*
link (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* If two or more things or people link up, or if you link them up, they form a connection so that they can operate or work together. *Each house will be linked up with the communications network.*

lion /laɪən/ *noun* [C] a large, wild animal of the cat family, with light brown fur ➲See also: **sea lion**

lip /lɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY, BIOLOGY one of the two soft, red edges of the mouth *He licked his lips.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** the edge of a container that liquid is poured from

lipase /ˈlaɪpeɪz/ (US) /ˈlɪpeɪs/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY an enzyme that is produced mainly in the pancreas and helps the body to digest lipids (= fats and oils)

lipid /ˈlɪpɪd/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a substance that is an important part of living cells, mainly in the form of fat or oil

liposome /ˈlɪpəʊsəʊm/ *noun* [C] HEALTH, BIOLOGY an extremely small artificial sac (= bag) made of a type of fat, used in medicine to carry a drug or other substance to particular cells in the body

lip-read /ˈlɪpriːd/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **lip-read** to understand what someone is saying by looking at the way their mouth moves ●**lip-reading** *noun* [U]

lip-service /ˈlɪpsɜːvɪs/ *noun* [no plural] **give/pay lip-service to sth** *informal* to say that you support an idea or plan, but not do anything to help it succeed

lipstick /ˈlɪpstɪk/ *noun* [C, U] a coloured substance that women put on their lips

liqueur /liˈkjʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] FOOD a strong, sweet alcoholic drink which people usually drink a little of at the end of a meal

liquid¹ /ˈlɪkwɪd/ *noun* [C, U] PHYSICS a substance, for example water, that is not solid and that can be poured easily

liquid² /ˈlɪkwɪd/ *adjective* **1** PHYSICS in a form that is not solid and can be poured easily **2** FINANCE in the form of money, or able to be changed into money easily *liquid assets*

liquidate /ˈlɪkwɪdeɪt/ *verb* [T] to close a business because it has no money left ●**liquidation** /ˌlɪkwɪˈdeɪʃ°n/ *noun* [C, U] *The store* ***went into liquidation.***

liquid-crystal display /ˌlɪkwɪdˌkrɪst°ldɪˈspleɪ/ *noun* [C] LCD

liquidity /lɪˈkwɪdɪti/ *noun* [U] FINANCE (of a business) owning enough money or things that can be sold to be able to pay its debts

liquor /ˈlɪkə˞/ *noun* [U] *US* FOOD a strong alcoholic drink

ˈ**liquor** ˌ**store** *US* (*UK* **off-licence**) *noun* [C] a shop that sells alcoholic drink

lisp /lɪsp/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a way of speaking where 's' and 'z' sound like 'th' ●**lisp** *verb* [I]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***list***

compile/draw up/make/write a list ● a list **of** sth ● **on** a list ● a **shopping** list

list¹ /lɪst/ *noun* [C] a series of names, numbers, or items that are written one below the other *a* ***shopping list*** ○ *Is your name* ***on the list?*** ○ ***Make a list*** *of everything you need.* ➲See also: **mailing list, waiting list**

list² /lɪst/ *verb* [T] to make a list, or to include something in a list *All participants' names are listed alphabetically.*

listen /ˈlɪs°n/ *verb* [I] **1** HEAR to give attention to someone or something in order to hear them *What kind of music do you* ***listen to?*** ○ *She does all the talking - I just sit and listen.* ○ *You haven't listened to a word I've said.* ○ *Listen, if you need money, I'm happy to lend you some.* **2** TAKE ADVICE to accept someone's advice *I told you she wouldn't like it but you wouldn't listen to me!*
listen (out) for sth *phrasal verb* to try to hear something *Could you listen out for the phone while I'm upstairs?*
listen in *phrasal verb* to secretly listen to a conversation, especially a telephone conversation
Listen up! *phrasal verb mainly US* something you say to tell people to listen to you *Okay, everyone, listen up! I have an announcement to make.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

listen, listen to, or **hear?**

Use **hear** when you want to say that sounds, music, etc come to your ears. You can **hear** something without wanting to.

I could hear his music through the wall.

Use **listen** to say that you pay attention to sounds or try to hear something.

The audience listened carefully.

Ssh! I'm listening!

Use **listen to** when you want to say what it is that you are trying to hear.

The audience listened to the speaker.

Ssh! I'm listening to the radio!

listener /ˈlɪs°nə˞/ *noun* [C] someone who listens *The new radio station already has twelve million listeners.* ○ *She's a* ***good listener*** (= she gives you all her attention when you speak).

lit /lɪt/ *past of* light

liter /ˈliːtə˞/ *noun* [C] MEASURES *US spelling of* litre

literacy /ˈlɪt°rəsi/ *noun* [U] the ability to read and write

literal /ˈlɪt°r°l/ *adjective* The literal meaning of a word or phrase is its real or original meaning. *the* ***literal meaning/sense***

literally /ˈlɪt°r°li/ *adverb* **1** ORIGINAL MEANING having the real or original meaning of a word or phrase *They were responsible for literally millions of deaths.* **2** EMPHASIZING *informal* used to emphasize what you are saying *He missed that kick literally by miles!*

literary /ˈlɪt°r°ri/ *adjective* LITERATURE relating to literature, or typical of the type of language that is used in literature ***literary criticism***

literate /ˈlɪt°rət/ *adjective* able to read and write ➲Opposite **illiterate**

literature /ˈlɪtrətʃə˞/ *noun* [U] **1** LITERATURE books, poems, etc that are considered to be art *classical/modern literature* **2** written information about a subject *There is very little literature on the disease.*

lithium /ˈlɪθiəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a soft, silver metal that is lighter than other metals (formula **Li**)

the lithosphere /ˈlɪθəʊˌsfɪə˞/ *noun* GEOLOGY the rock that forms the outer layer of the Earth

litmus /ˈlɪtməs/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a powder which is turned red by acid and blue by alkali

ˈ**litmus** ˌ**paper** *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a type of paper that is used for testing whether a substance is acid or alkali

ˈ**litmus** ˌ**test** *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a test of a chemical substance using litmus paper

litre *UK* (*US* **liter**) (*written abbreviation* **l**) /ˈliːtə˞/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring liquid

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***litter***

drop litter ● a **piece of** litter ● a litter **bin**

litter¹ /ˈlɪtə˞/ *noun* **1** WASTE [U] pieces of paper and other waste that are left in public places **2** ANIMALS [C] a group of baby animals that are from the same mother and born at the same time *a litter of kittens/puppies*

litter² /ˈlɪtə˞/ *verb* [T] If things litter an area, they cover parts of it in an untidy way. *Clothes littered the floor.*
be littered with sth *phrasal verb* to contain a lot of something *The whole book is littered with errors.*

little¹ /ˈlɪtl/ *adjective* **1** SMALL small in size or amount *a little bag/box/town* ○ *She's so little.* ○ *It costs* ***as little as*** *one dollar.* ○ *I might have* ***a little bit of*** *cake.* **2** SHORT [**always before noun**] short in time or distance *Sit down* ***for a little while.*** ○ *Let's have a little break.* **3** NOT IMPORTANT [**always before noun**] not important *It's only a little problem.* ○ *I'm having a little trouble with my back.* **4** YOUNG [**always before noun**] young and small *She was my little sister and I looked after her.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **small**

little² /ˈlɪtl/ *quantifier* **1** not much or not enough *He has little chance of winning.*

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○ *There's so little choice.* **2 a little sth** a small amount of something *It just needs a little effort.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

little

When **little** is used as a quantifier, it can only be used with uncountable nouns.

little³ /ˈlɪtl/ *pronoun* **1** not much, or not enough *We did **very little** on Sunday.* **2 a little** a small amount *I only know a little about my grandparents.* ○ *"More dessert?" "Just a little, please."*

little⁴ /ˈlɪtl/ *adverb* not much or not enough *She ate very little at dinner.* ○ *a little-known fact*

live¹ /lɪv/ *verb* **1** [ALIVE] [I] to be alive *She only lived a few days after the accident.* ○ *I hope I live to see my grandchildren.* **2 live at/in/near, etc** to have your home somewhere *They live in New York.* ○ *We live near each other.* ○ *Where do you live?* **3** [WAY OF LIVING] [I, T] to spend your life in a particular way *Many people are living in poverty.* **4 I'll never live it down!** *humorous* something you say about an embarrassing experience that other people will not forget

live for sth/sb *phrasal verb* to have something or someone as the most important thing in your life *I love dancing - I just live for it.*

live on *phrasal verb* to continue to live *She lived on well into her nineties.*

live on sth *phrasal verb* **1** [MONEY] Money that you live on is the money you use to buy the things that you need. *We lived on very little when we were students.* **2** [FOOD] to only eat a particular type of food *All summer we live on hamburgers and hot dogs.*

live together *phrasal verb* If two people live together, they live in the same home and have a sexual relationship, but are not married.

live up to sth *phrasal verb* to be as good as someone hopes *Did the trip **live up to** your **expectations**?*

live with sb *phrasal verb* to live in the same home as someone and have a sexual relationship with them although you are not married

live with sth *phrasal verb* to accept a difficult or unpleasant situation *It's a problem she's going to have to live with.*

live² /laɪv/ *adjective* **1** [LIFE] having life *Millions of live animals are shipped around the world each year.* **2** [ELECTRICITY] A live wire has electricity in it. **3** [BROADCAST] A live radio or television programme is seen or heard as it happens. *live coverage* ○ *a live broadcast* **4** [AUDIENCE] A live performance or recording of a performance is done with an audience. *a live concert* **5** [BOMB] A live bomb has not yet exploded.

live³ /laɪv/ *adverb* broadcast at the same time that something happens *We'll be bringing the match to you live on Wednesday.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

live or **life**

Live cannot be used as a noun. The correct noun to use is **life**.

It was the best day of my life.

livelihood /ˈlaɪvlihʊd/ *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** the way that you earn the money you need for living *The farm is his livelihood.*

lively /ˈlaɪvli/ *adjective* full of energy and interest *a lively conversation/debate* ○ *a lively child* ●**liveliness** *noun* [U]

liver /ˈlɪvəʳ/ *noun* **1 ANATOMY** [C] a large organ in your body that cleans your blood **2 FOOD** [U] the liver of an animal that is eaten by people ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

lives /lɪvz/ *plural of* life

livestock /ˈlaɪvstɒk/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** animals that are kept on a farm

livid /ˈlɪvɪd/ *adjective* very angry

living¹ /ˈlɪvɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] the money that you earn from your job [**usually singular**] *to **earn/make** a **living*** ○ *What does he **do for a living*** (= how does he earn money)? **2 country/healthy, etc living** the way in which you live your life ➲See also: **standard of living**

living² /ˈlɪvɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** [ALIVE NOW] alive now *He's probably the best known living photographer.* **2** [ALIVE] alive *living organisms* ○ ***living things*** ➲See also: beat/knock the (living) **daylights** out of sb, scare/frighten the (living) **daylights** out of sb

ˈliving ˌroom (*also UK* **sitting room**) *noun* [C] the room in a house where people sit to relax and, for example, watch television ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

lizard /ˈlɪzəd/ *noun* [C] a small animal with thick skin, a long tail, and four short legs ➲See picture at **reptile**

load¹ /ləʊd/ *noun* **1** [C] something that is carried, often by a vehicle *We were behind a truck carrying a load of coal.* ➲See picture at **lever 2 a load/loads** *informal* a lot of something *There were loads of people there.* ○ *Have some more food - there's loads.* **3 a load of rubbish/nonsense, etc** *UK informal* nonsense

load² /ləʊd/ *verb* **1** [VEHICLE/MACHINE] [I, T] (*also* **load up**) to put a lot of things into a vehicle or machine *Bring the car up to the door and I'll start loading up.* ○ *to load the dishwasher/washing machine* ➲Opposite **unload 2** [CAMERA/GUN] [T] to put film in a camera or bullets in a gun

be loaded down with sth *phrasal verb* to have too much to carry, or too much work to do *I was loaded down with shopping.*

be loaded with sth *phrasal verb* to contain a lot of something *Most fast foods are loaded with fat.*

-load /ləʊd/ *suffix* used at the end of a word to describe an amount of something that is being carried *a truckload of soldiers*

loaded /ˈləʊdɪd/ *adjective* **1** [WEAPON] A loaded gun, or similar weapon, has a bullet in it. **2** [RICH] [**never before noun**] *informal* very rich

ˌloaded ˈquestion *noun* [C] a question which makes you answer in a particular way

loaf /ləʊf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **loaves** /ləʊvz/ **FOOD** bread that has been baked in one large piece so that it can be cut into smaller pieces ***a loaf of bread***

WORD PARTNERS FOR *loan*

apply for/repay/take out a loan ● a **bank** loan

loan¹ /ləʊn/ *noun* **1** ECONOMICS, FINANCE [C] money that someone has borrowed *a **bank loan*** ○ *He **repaid the loan** within two years.* **2 be on loan** FINANCE If something is on loan, someone is borrowing it. *Both paintings are on loan from the city museum.*

loan² /ləʊn/ *verb* [+ **two objects**] ECONOMICS to lend something to someone *I was glad to **loan** my old books **to** her.* ○ *My dad loaned me the money.*

loath /ləʊθ/ *adjective* **be loath to do sth** *formal* to not want to do something because it will cause problems *I'm loath to spend it all.*

loathe /ləʊð/ *verb* [T] to hate someone or something ●**loathing** *noun* [U] a feeling of hating someone or something

loaves /ləʊvz/ *plural of* loaf

lobby¹ /ˈlɒbi/ *noun* [C] **1** a room at the main entrance of a building, often with doors and stairs that lead to other parts of the building *a hotel lobby* **2** POLITICS a group of people who try to persuade the government to do something *the anti-smoking lobby*

lobby² /ˈlɒbi/ *verb* [I, T] POLITICS to try to persuade the government to do something *They're **lobbying for** changes to the law.*

lobster /ˈlɒbstəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a sea creature that has two claws (= sharp, curved parts) and eight legs, or the meat of this animal

local¹ /ˈləʊkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to an area near you *the **local school/newspaper**/radio station* ●**locally** *adverb locally grown vegetables*

local² /ˈləʊkᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who lives in the area you are talking about **2 sb's local** *UK informal* a bar that is near someone's home

ˌlocal anaesˈthetic *UK* (*US* **local anesthetic**) *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a substance that is put into a part of your body so that you do not feel pain there *The procedure is carried out **under local anaesthetic**.*

ˌlocal auˈthority *noun* [**group**] POLITICS the group of people who govern a small area of a country *Local authorities are looking for new ways to promote investment.*

ˈlocal ˌtime *noun* [U] the official time in an area or country *We will shortly be landing in London, where the local time is 3.15.*

locate /ləʊˈkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** to find the exact position of someone or something *Police are still trying to locate the suspect.* **2 be located in/near/on, etc** to be in a particular place *Both schools are located in the town.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***location***

at/in a [remote/secret, etc] location ● the location **of** sth

location /ləʊˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] a place or position *They haven't yet decided on **the location** of the new store.* **2 on location** If a film or television programme is made on location, it is made at a place suitable to the story.

loch /lɒk, lɒx/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a lake in Scotland *Loch Lomond*

lock¹ /lɒk/ *verb* **1** FASTEN [I, T] to fasten something with a key, or to be fastened with a key *Did you lock the door?* ○ *If you shut the door it will lock automatically.* ➲Opposite **unlock 2 lock sth/sb away/in, etc** to put something or someone in a place or container that is fastened with a key *She locked herself in her bedroom.* ○ *Most of my jewellery is locked away in a safe.* **3** FIXED [I] to become fixed in one position *I tried to move forward but the wheels had locked.*
lock sb in/out *phrasal verb* to prevent someone from entering/leaving a room or building by locking the door
lock (sth) up *phrasal verb* to lock all the doors and windows of a building when you leave it
lock sb up *phrasal verb* to put someone in prison or a hospital for people who are mentally ill

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lock (noun)***

fit a lock ● a lock **on** sth ● a **safety** lock

lock² /lɒk/ *noun* [C] **1** IN DOOR the thing that is used to close a door, window, etc, and that needs a key to open it *I heard someone turn a key in the lock.* ○ ***safety locks*** **2** WATER a place on a river with gates to allow boats to move to a different water level **3 under lock and key** kept safely in a room or container that is locked *I tend to keep medicines under lock and key because of the kids.*

locker /ˈlɒkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small cupboard in a public area where your personal possessions can be kept *a gym/luggage/school locker*

ˈlocker ˌroom *noun* [C] a room where you change your clothes and leave those and other personal possessions in a locker

locomotive /ˌləʊkəˈməʊtɪv/ *noun* [C] the part of a train that makes it move *a steam locomotive*

locus /ˈləʊkəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **loci** MATHEMATICS a set of points or lines whose position is decided by a particular rule or statement *The locus of points equidistant from a given point is a circle.*

lodge¹ /lɒdʒ/ *noun* [C] a small house in the country that is used especially by people on holiday *a hunting/mountain/ski lodge*

lodge² /lɒdʒ/ *verb* **1 lodge in/on, etc** to become stuck somewhere *The bullet had lodged near his heart.* ➲Compare **dislodge 2 lodge at/with, etc** to live in someone's home and give them money for it **3 lodge a claim/complaint/protest, etc** to officially complain about something *He lodged an official complaint against the officers responsible.*

lodger /ˈlɒdʒəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **boarder**) *noun* [C] someone who pays for a place to sleep and meals in someone else's house

lodgings /ˈlɒdʒɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] *mainly UK* a room in someone's home that you pay money to live in *temporary lodgings*

loess /ˈləʊes/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY small pieces of light-brown or grey soil which is blown and left behind by the wind

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loft /lɒft/ *noun* [C] **1** HOUSE the space under the roof of a house or other building **2** FACTORY *US* space where someone lives or works in a building that used to be a factory

log¹ /lɒg/ *noun* [C] **1** WOOD a thick piece of wood that has been cut from a tree **2** WRITTEN RECORD a written record of events, often on a ship or aircraft

log² /lɒg/ *verb* [T] **logging**, *past* **logged** to make a written record of events, often on a ship or aircraft
login/on *phrasal verb* **COMPUTING** to connect a computer to a system of computers by typing your name and often a password, usually so that you can start working
log off/out *phrasal verb* **COMPUTING** to stop a computer being connected to a computer system, usually when you want to stop working

logarithm /ˈlɒgərɪðəm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the number which shows how many times a number, called the base, has to be multiplied by itself to produce another number

loggerheads /ˈlɒgəhedz/ *noun* **be at loggerheads (with sb)** If two people or groups are at loggerheads, they disagree strongly about something. *He is at loggerheads with the Prime Minister over public spending.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***logic***
the logic **behind/in/of** sth

logic /ˈlɒdʒɪk/ *noun* [U] the use of reason, or the science of using reason *It was difficult to understand the* ***logic behind*** *his argument.*

logical /ˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* using reason *a logical choice/conclusion* ➲Opposite **illogical** ●**logically** *adverb*

ˈlogic ˌgate *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** an electronic switch used in computers, that reacts in one of two ways to information given to it

login /ˈlɒgɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **COMPUTING** a box that appears on your computer screen when you start to use a computer which is connected to a computer system

logistics /ləˈdʒɪstɪks/ *noun* **the logistics of sth/doing sth** the practical arrangements for something *We could all use the one car but I'm not sure about the logistics of it.*

logo /ˈləʊgəʊ/ *noun* [C] a design or symbol used by a company to advertise its products *a* ***corporate logo***

loiter /ˈlɔɪtə/ *verb* [I] to stand in a place or walk slowly around without any purpose *A gang of youths were loitering outside the cinema.*

LOL **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* laughing out loud: used when you think something is very funny

lollipop /ˈlɒlipɒp/ (*also UK* **lolly** /ˈlɒli/) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a large, hard sweet on a stick

lone /ləʊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] alone *lone parents* ○ *the lone survivor*

lonely /ˈləʊnli/ *adjective* **1** PERSON unhappy because you are not with other people *She gets lonely now that the kids have all left home.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **alone** **2** PLACE A lonely place is a long way from where people live. ●**loneliness** *noun* [U]

loner /ˈləʊnə/ *noun* [C] someone who likes to be alone *He was always a bit of a loner at school.*

lonesome /ˈləʊnsəm/ *adjective US* lonely

long¹ /lɒŋ/ *adjective* **1** DISTANCE having a large distance from one end to the other *long, brown hair* ○ *a long dress* ○ *It's a long way to travel to work.* **2** TIME continuing for a large amount of time *a long film/meeting* ○ *Have you been waiting a long time?* **3** HOW LONG used when asking for or giving information about the distance or time of something *It's about three metres long.* ○ *Most of the concerts are over three hours long.* ○ *Do you know how long the film is?* **4** BOOK A long book or other piece of writing has a lot of pages or words. *a long article/letter* ➲See also: in the long/short **run**²

long² /lɒŋ/ *adverb* **1** for a long time *We didn't have to* ***wait long*** *for the train.* ○ *The band played long into the night.* **2 as long as** used when you are talking about something that must happen before something else can happen *You can play football as long as you do your homework first.* **3 before long** soon *He'll be home before long.* **4 long ago** If something happened long ago, it happened a great amount of time ago. **5 no longer/not any longer** not now *He no longer works here.*

long³ /lɒŋ/ *noun* [U] a large amount of time *She won't be away for long.*

long⁴ /lɒŋ/ *verb formal* **long for sth; long to do sth** to want something very much *She longed to see him again.*

longboat /ˈlɒŋbəʊt/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow, open boat, moved with oars (= long poles with flat ends)

long-distance /ˌlɒŋˈdɪstəns/ *adjective* travelling or communicating between two places that are a long way apart *a long-distance race* ○ *a long-distance phone call*

ˌlong diˈvision *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** when you divide one large number by another large number

long-haul /ˈlɒŋˌhɔːl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] travelling a long distance *a* ***long-haul flight***

longhouse /ˈlɒŋhaʊs/ *noun* [C] a long house where many families live together

longing /ˈlɒŋɪŋ/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] a feeling of wanting something or someone very much *He gazed at her, his eyes full of longing.* ○ *a* ***longing for*** *his homeland* ●**longingly** *adverb She looked longingly at the silk dresses.*

longitude /ˈlɒndʒɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the distance of a place east or west of an imaginary line from the top to the bottom of the Earth, measured in degrees

longitudinal /ˌlɒndʒɪˈtjuːdɪnəl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to longitude

longiˌtudinal ˈwave *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** in physics, a wave moving in the same direction as the vibrations (= fast movements backwards and forwards) of the particles of the substance through which it is moving ➲Compare **transverse wave**

the ˈlong ˌjump *noun* **SPORT** a sports event where people try to jump as far as possible

long-life /ˌlɒŋˈlaɪf/ *adjective UK* FOOD Long-life drink or food has been treated so that it will last a long time. *long-life milk*

long-lost /ˈlɒŋˌlɒst/ *adjective* **long-lost friend/cousin, etc** a friend or relative that you have not seen for a long time

long-range /ˌlɒŋˈreɪndʒ/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** TIME relating to a time in the future *a **long-range** weather **forecast*** **2** DISTANCE able to be sent long distances *a **long-range** bomber/**missile***

longshore drift /ˌlɒŋʃɔːˈdrɪft/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY the movement of sand and small stones, etc. along the coast caused by waves travelling parallel or at an angle to the coast

ˈ**long ˌshot** *noun* [C] *informal* something that is not likely to succeed *It's a long shot, but you could try phoning him at home.*

long-sighted /ˌlɒŋˈsaɪtɪd/ *UK* (*US* **farsighted**) *adjective* HEALTH able to see objects which are far away but not things which are near to you

long-standing /ˌlɒŋˈstændɪŋ/ *adjective* having existed for a long time *a **long-standing relationship***

long-suffering /ˌlɒŋˈsʌfᵊrɪŋ/ *adjective* A long-suffering person has been very patient for a long time about all the trouble that someone has caused them. *Bill and his long-suffering wife*

long-term /ˌlɒŋˈtɜːm/ *adjective* continuing a long time into the future *long-term unemployment*

ˌ**long-term liaˈbility** *noun* [C] FINANCE an amount owed by a business that does not have to be paid in the next 12 months

long-winded /ˌlɒŋˈwɪndɪd/ *adjective* If what someone says or writes is long-winded, it is boring because it is too long. *a **long-winded explanation***

loo /luː/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* toilet *I'll just go to the loo.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

look¹ /lʊk/ *verb* **1** SEE [I] to turn your eyes in the direction of something or someone so that you can see them ***Look at** the picture on page two.* ○ *He was looking out of the window.* ○ *I looked around and there she was.* **2** SEARCH [I] to try to find someone or something *I'm **looking for** my keys.* ○ *I've looked everywhere but I can't find my bag.* **3 look nice/strange, etc; look like/as if** used to describe the appearance of a person or thing *That food looks nice.* ○ *You look tired, my love.* ○ *Do I look silly in this hat?* ○ *He looked like a drug addict.* **4 it looks like; it looks as if** used to say that something is likely to happen *It looks like there'll be three of us.* ○ *It looks as if he isn't coming.* **5 be looking to do sth** to plan to do something *I'm looking to start my own business.* **6 Look!** something you say when you are annoyed and you want people to know that what you are saying is important *Look, I've had enough of your complaints.* ➲See also: look the **part**¹

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

look, see, or watch?

See means to notice people and things with your eyes.

She saw a big spider and screamed.

Did you see anyone you knew at the party?

Look (at) is used when you are trying to see something or someone. **Look** cannot be followed by an object.

I've looked everywhere, but can't find my keys.

He looked at the map to find the road.

~~*He looked the photographs.*~~

Watch means to look at something for a period of time, usually something which moves or changes.

He watched television all evening.

I watched them playing football.

look after sb/sth *phrasal verb* to take care of someone or something by keeping them healthy or in a good condition *Could you look after the children while I'm out?*

look ahead *phrasal verb* to think about something that will happen in the future and plan for it

look at sth *phrasal verb* **1** THINK to think about a subject carefully so that you can make a decision about it *Management is looking at ways of cutting costs.* **2** READ to read something *Can you look at my essay sometime?* **3** EXPERT If an expert looks at something, they examine it. *Did you get the doctor to look at your knee?* **4** OPINION to consider something in a particular way *If I'd been a mother I might have looked at things differently.*

look back *phrasal verb* to remember something in the past *He **looked back on** his childhood with affection.*

look down on sb *phrasal verb* to think that someone is less important than you

look forward to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to feel happy and excited about something that is going to happen *I'm really looking forward to seeing him.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

look forward to

Remember always to use the preposition **to** when you use this verb.

We are looking forward to your visit.

~~*We are looking forward your visit.*~~

look into sth *phrasal verb* to examine the facts about a situation *They are looking into the causes of the accident.*

look on *phrasal verb* to watch something happen but not become involved in it

look on sb/sth *phrasal verb* to think about someone or something in a particular way *We look on him almost as our own son.*

Look out! *phrasal verb* something you say when someone is in danger *Look out - there's a car coming!*

look out for sb/sth *phrasal verb* to try to notice someone or something *Look out for Anna while you're there.*

look over sth *phrasal verb* to examine something quickly *I'm just looking over what you've written.*

look through sth *phrasal verb* to read something quickly *I've looked through a few catalogues.*

look up *phrasal verb* to become better *Our financial situation is looking up.*

look sth up *phrasal verb* to look at a book or

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computer in order to find information *I looked it up in the dictionary.*
look up to sb *phrasal verb* to respect and admire someone

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***look (noun)***

have/take a look ● a **close/good** look ● a look **at** sb/sth

look² /lʊk/ *noun* **1** SEE [C] when you look at someone or something [**usually singular**] ***Take a look*** *at these pictures.* ○ *You've got your photos back - can I* ***have a look?*** **2 have/take a look** when you try to find something *I've had a look in the drawer but I can't find your passport.* **3** FACE [C] an expression on someone's face *She had a worried look about her.* ○ *She* ***gave*** *me* ***a*** *questioning* ***look.*** **4** FASHION [**no plural**] a style or fashion *the* ***new look*** *for the summer* **5 the look of sb/sth** the appearance of someone or something *I like the look of that new music programme they're advertising.* **6 sb's looks** a person's appearance, especially how attractive they are ➲See also: **good looks**

lookalike /ˈlʊkəlaɪk/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who looks very similar to a famous person *an Elvis lookalike*

look-in /ˈlʊkɪn/ *noun UK informal* **not get a look-in** to get no chance to achieve what you want or to succeed in something *He played so well, nobody else got a look-in.*

lookout /ˈlʊkaʊt/ *noun* **1** [C] a person who watches for danger and warns other people **2 be on the lookout** to be continuing to search for something or someone *I'm always on the lookout for interesting new recipes.*

loom¹ /luːm/ *verb* [I] **1** APPEAR to appear as a large, sometimes frightening shape *Dark storm clouds loomed on the horizon.* **2** WORRY If an unpleasant event looms, it is likely to happen soon. *The threat of closure* ***looms over*** *the workforce.*

loom² /luːm/ *noun* [C] **DT** a machine for making cloth by weaving together (= crossing over) threads

loony /ˈluːni/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who behaves in a crazy way *The man's a complete loony.* ●**loony** *adjective informal* crazy *loony ideas*

loop¹ /luːp/ *noun* [C] a circle of something long and thin, such as a piece of string or wire

loop² /luːp/ *verb* **loop sth around/over, etc sth** to make something into the shape of a loop *Loop the rope around your waist.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***loophole***

a loophole **in** sth ● a **legal** loophole

loophole /ˈluːphəʊl/ *noun* [C] a mistake in an agreement or law which gives someone the chance to avoid having to do something

loose /luːs/ *adjective* **1** NOT FIXED not firmly fixed *There were some loose wires hanging out of the wall.* ○ *One of my buttons is loose.* **2** CLOTHES large and not fitting tightly *a loose dress/sweater* **3** FREE An animal that is loose is free to move around. *Two lions escaped and are still loose.* **4** NOT EXACT not exact *It's only a loose translation of the poem.* ●**loosely** *adverb The film is* ***based*** *very* ***loosely*** (= not exactly) on the novel. ➲See also: be at a loose **end¹**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

loose or **lose?**

Be careful, these two words look and sound similar but have completely different meanings.
Loose is an adjective, meaning not fixed or not tight.

These trousers are a bit loose.

Be careful not to use **loose** when you really mean the verb **lose**.

I hope he doesn't lose his job.

~~*I hope he doesn't loose his job.*~~

loosen /ˈluːsᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become loose or make something loose *He loosened his tie.*
loosen up *phrasal verb* to become more relaxed with other people *After a while he loosened up.*

loot¹ /luːt/ *verb* [I, T] to steal from shops and houses during a war or period of fighting *Rioters looted the capital.*

loot² /luːt/ *noun* [U] goods which have been stolen

lop /lɒp/ *verb* **lopping**, *past* **lopped**
lop sth off *phrasal verb* to cut off something in one quick movement *I lopped off the biggest branches.*

lopsided /ˌlɒpˈsaɪdɪd/ US /ˈlɒpsaɪdɪd/ *adjective* with one side lower than the other *a lopsided grin*

loquacious /ləʊˈkweɪʃəs/ *adjective formal* talking a lot

lord /lɔːd/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [C, U] (*also* **Lord**) a man of high social rank, or a title given to a man who has earned official respect, in the UK *Lord Lichfield* **2 the Lord** RELIGION God or Christ **3 Good Lord!** *informal* something you say when you are surprised or angry *Good Lord! Is that the time?* ➲See also: **House of Lords**

the Lords /lɔːdz/ (*also* **House of Lords**) *noun* [**group**] POLITICS one of the two parts of the British parliament, with members who are chosen by the government

lorry /ˈlɒri/ *UK* (*UK/US* **truck**) *noun* [C] a large road vehicle for carrying goods from place to place

lose /luːz/ *verb past* **lost 1** NOT FIND [T] to not be able to find someone or something *I've lost my passport.* ○ *She's always losing her car keys.* **2** NOT HAVE [T] to stop having someone or something that you had before *She lost a leg in a car accident.* ○ *I hope he doesn't lose his job.* ○ *He lost his mother* (= his mother died) *last year.* **3** HAVE LESS [T] to have less of something than you had before *She's lost a lot of weight.* ○ *He's losing his hair.* ○ *to lose your memory* **4** NOT WIN [I, T] If you lose a game, the team or person that you are playing against wins. *Chelsea lost by a goal.* ○ *They're losing 3-1.* ○ *They hadn't lost an election in 15 years.* **5 lose faith/interest/patience, etc** to stop feeling something good *I'm rapidly losing interest in the whole subject.* ○ *He kept on crying and I lost my patience.* **6** TIME [T] If you lose a number of hours or days, you cannot work during this time. *Four million hours were lost last year*

through stress-related illnesses. **7** CLOCK [T] If a clock loses time, it goes slower than it should. **8** CONFUSE [T] *informal* to confuse someone so that they do not understand something *No, you've lost me there - can you explain that again?* **9** GET RID OF *informal* to take something away, usually because it looks bad. *Lose the belt, Andrea, it looks ridiculous with that dress.* **10 lose your balance** to fall because you are leaning too much to one side **11 lose count of sth** to forget the exact number *I've lost count of how many times I've called her.* **12 lose your life** to die *Millions of young men lost their lives in the war.* **13 be losing it** *informal* to start to become crazy *I can't even remember my own telephone number - I think I must be losing it.* **14 lose it** *informal* to stop being able to control your emotions and suddenly start to laugh, shout or cry *I was trying so hard to stay calm but in the end I just lost it.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **loose** ➲See also: fight a losing **battle**[1], lose your **cool**[3], lose/save **face**[1], gain/lose **ground**[1], lose **sight**[1] of sth, lose **sleep**[2] over sth

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

lose or **miss?**

Usually you **miss** something which happens, such as an event, a train leaving, or an opportunity.

I do not want to miss my class.

~~*I do not want to lose my class.*~~

Usually you **lose** a thing.

I've lost my umbrella.

lose out *phrasal verb* to not have an advantage that someone else has

loser /ˈluːzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** NOT WINNING someone who does not win a game or competition *The losers of both games will play each other for third place.* **2** NOT SUCCESSFUL *informal* someone who is not successful in anything they do

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***loss***

make/suffer a loss ● a loss **of** [$50,000/£3 million, etc]

loss /lɒs/ *noun* **1** NOT HAVING [C, U] when you do not have someone or something that you had before, or when you have less of something than before *loss of income/memory* ○ *blood/hair/weight loss* ○ *job losses* **2 FINANCE** [C, U] when a company spends more money than it earns *Both companies **suffered losses** this year.* **3** DISADVANTAGE [**no plural**] a disadvantage caused by someone leaving an organization *It would be a great **loss to** the department if you left.* **4 be at a loss** to not know what to do or say [+ **to do sth**] *I'm at a loss to explain his disappearance.* **5 a sense of loss** sadness because someone has died or left **6** DEATH [C, U] the death of a person *They never got over the loss of their son.*

lost[1] /lɒst/ *adjective* **1** PERSON not knowing where you are or where you should go *I **got lost** on the way.* **2** OBJECT If something is lost, no one knows where it is. *Things tend to **get lost** when you move house.* ○ *Lost: black cat with white paws.* **3** NEW SITUATION not knowing what to do in a new situation *It was his first day in the office and he seemed a bit lost.* **4 be lost without sb/sth** *informal* to be unable to live or work without someone or something *She's lost without her computer.* **5 be lost on sb** If a joke or remark is lost on someone, they do not understand it. *I wouldn't bother telling your joke to Sean – it will be lost on him.* **6 Get lost!** *informal* an impolite way of telling someone to go away ➲See also: **long-lost**

lost[2] /lɒst/ *past of* lose

lost property *noun* [U] *UK* things that people have left in public places which are kept somewhere until the owners can collect them *Have you had a look in lost property?*

lot /lɒt/ *noun* **1 a lot; lots** a large number or amount of people or things *There were **a lot of** people outside the building.* ○ *He earns **lots of** money.* ○ *I've got a lot to do this morning.* ○ *He has lots of friends* ○ *She has caused an awful lot of trouble.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **many** **2 a lot better/older/quicker, etc** much better/older/quicker, etc *It's a lot better than the old system.* ○ *It's a lot quicker by train.* ○ *She looks a lot older now.* **3 the lot** *UK informal* all of an amount or number *I made enough curry for three people and he ate the lot.* **4** GROUP [C] *UK* a group of people or things that you deal with together *I've already done one lot of washing.* **5** AREA [C] *US* an area of land *a parking lot* ○ *an empty lot* **6** SALE [C] something being sold at an auction (= sale where things are sold to the people who pay the most) *Lot 3: a Victorian chest.* **7 sb's lot** the quality of someone's life and the type of experiences they have *They've done much to improve the lot of working people.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

a lot of sth

Remember to use the preposition **of** before the thing that there is a large number of.

A lot of people enjoy travelling to other countries.

~~*A lot people enjoy travelling to other countries.*~~

lotion /ˈləʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a liquid that you put on your skin to make it soft or healthy *suntan lotion* ○ *body lotion*

lottery /ˈlɒtᵊri/ *noun* [C] a way of making money by selling numbered tickets to people who then have a chance of winning a prize if their number is chosen *the national lottery* ○ *What would you do if you **won** the **lottery**?*

loud[1] /laʊd/ *adjective* **1** NOISE making a lot of noise *a loud noise* ○ *a **loud voice*** ○ *a loud explosion* **2** CLOTHES Loud clothes are too bright or have too many colours. ●**loudly** *adverb* *She was speaking very loudly.*

loud[2] /laʊd/ *adverb* **1** loudly *Can you speak a bit louder?* **2 out loud** If you say or read something out loud, you say or read it so that other people can hear you.

loudspeaker /ˌlaʊdˈspiːkəʳ/ (US) /ˈlaʊdˌspiːkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used for making voices or sounds louder

lounge[1] /laʊndʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** HOME *UK* the room in a home where you sit and relax **2** HOTEL *US*

L

a room in a hotel, theatre, airport, etc where people can relax or wait

lounge² /laʊndʒ/ *verb*
lounge about/around (sth) *phrasal verb* to spend your time in a relaxed way, doing very little *Most days were spent lounging around the pool.*

louse /laʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **lice** /laɪs/ a very small insect that lives on the bodies or in the hair of people or animals

lousy /ˈlaʊzi/ *adjective informal* very bad *lousy food/service* ○ *I* ***felt lousy*** *when I woke up this morning.*

lout /laʊt/ *noun* [C] a man who behaves in a rude or violent way

lovable (*also* **loveable**) /ˈlʌvəbl/ *adjective* A person or animal that is lovable has qualities which make them easy to love.

love¹ /lʌv/ *verb* [T] **1** ROMANCE/SEX to like someone very much and have romantic or sexual feelings for them *Last night he told me he loved me.* ○ *I've only ever loved one woman.* **2** FRIENDS/FAMILY to like a friend or a person in your family very much *I'm sure he loves his kids.* **3** ENJOY to enjoy something very much or have a strong interest in something *He loves his music.* ○ *She loves animals.* [+ **doing sth**] *I love eating out.* **4 I'd love to** used to say that you would very much like to do something that someone is offering *"I wondered if you'd like to meet up sometime?" "I'd love to."*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***love***

in love **with** sb ● **fall** in love ● **madly** in love ● **brotherly/unconditional** love

love² /lʌv/ *noun* **1** ROMANCE/SEX [U] when you like someone very much and have romantic or sexual feelings for them *He's madly* ***in love with*** (= he loves) *her.* ○ *I was 20 when I first* ***fell in love*** (= started to love someone). ○ *a love song/story* **2 make love** to have sex **3** PERSON [C] someone who you like very much and have a romantic or sexual relationship with *He was my first love.* **4** FRIENDS/FAMILY [U] when you like a friend or person in your family very much *Nothing is as strong as the love you have for your kids.* **5** INTEREST [C, U] something that interests you a lot *his love of books* **6 Love from; All my love** something you write at the end of a letter to a friend or someone in your family *Love from Mum.* ○ *All my love, Louise.* **7** SPEAKING TO SOMEONE *mainly UK* You call someone 'love' to show affection or to be friendly. *"Margot?" "Yes, love."* ○ *Two portions of chips please, love.* **8 SPORT** [U] in games such as tennis, a score of zero *She's leading by two sets to love.* ➲See also: a **labour**¹ of love

ˈlove af,fair *noun* [C] a romantic or sexual relationship

loveless /ˈlʌvləs/ *adjective* without love *She was trapped in a* ***loveless marriage.***

ˈlove ,life *noun* [C] the romantic relationships in a person's life *How's your love life these days?*

lovely /ˈlʌvli/ *adjective* **1** ENJOYABLE pleasant or enjoyable *We had a lovely day together.* ○ *What lovely weather.* **2** ATTRACTIVE very attractive *a lovely dress/house/village* ○ *You look lovely!*

lover /ˈlʌvəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] If two people are lovers, they have a sexual relationship but they are not married. *She had a string of lovers before her marriage finally broke up.* **2 a book/cat/dog, etc lover** someone who is very interested in books/cats/dogs, etc *She's a real cat lover.*

loving /ˈlʌvɪŋ/ *adjective* showing a lot of affection and kindness towards someone *a loving relationship* ○ *a loving father* ●**lovingly** *adverb*

low¹ /ləʊ/ *adjective* **1** NOT HIGH near the ground, not high *low aircraft* ○ *a low fence* **2** LEVEL below the usual level *a low income* ○ *low temperatures/prices* ○ *a low number* ○ *Fish is very* ***low in*** (= has little) *fat.* **3** SOUND deep or quiet *a low voice* ○ *a low note* **4** LIGHTS If lights are low, they are not bright. *We have very low lighting in the main room.* **5** UNHAPPY unhappy and without energy *Illness of any sort can leave you feeling low.* ➲See also: be at a low **ebb**¹, keep a low **profile**¹

low² /ləʊ/ *adverb* **1** in or to a low position or level *low-paid workers* ○ *Turn the oven on low.* **2 MUSIC** with deep notes *You can sing lower than me.*

low³ /ləʊ/ *noun* **a new/record/all-time, etc low** the lowest level *Temperatures in the region hit a record low yesterday.*

low-alcohol /ˌləʊˈælkəhɒl/ *adjective* **FOOD** A low-alcohol drink has less alcohol in it than the normal type. *low-alcohol beer*

low-calorie /ˌləʊˈkælᵊri/ (*abbreviation* **low-cal, lo-cal**) *adjective* **FOOD** A low-calorie food or drink will not make you fat because it has fewer calories (= units for measuring the amount of energy a food provides) than normal food or drink.

low-cut /ˌləʊˈkʌt/ *adjective* describes a piece of clothing that does not cover the top part of a woman's chest *a low-cut dress*

the lowdown /ˈləʊdaʊn/ *noun informal* the most important information about something *Jenny will* ***give*** *you* ***the lowdown on*** *what happened at yesterday's meeting.*

lower¹ /ˈləʊəʳ/ *adjective* being the bottom part of something *I've got a pain in my lower back.* ○ *She bit her lower lip.*

lower² /ˈləʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** MOVE to move something to a low position *They lowered the coffin into the grave.* **2** REDUCE to reduce the amount of something *I'll join if they lower the entrance fee.*

ˌlower ˈcase *noun* [U] letters of the alphabet which are not written as capital letters, for example a, b, c

ˌlowest common deˈnominator *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the smallest number that can be exactly divided by all the bottom numbers in a group of fractions

ˌlowest common ˈmultiple (*abbreviation* **LCM**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the lowest number that can be divided exactly by a particular group of numbers

low-fat /ˌləʊˈfæt/ *adjective* **FOOD** Low-fat foods do not contain much fat. *low-fat cheese* ○ *a low-fat diet*

low-key /ˌləʊˈkiː/ *adjective* not attracting attention *The reception itself was surprisingly low-key.*

lowland /ˈləʊlənd/ *noun* [**C, usually singular**] **GEOGRAPHY** flat land that is at the same level as the sea

ˌlow-level ˈlanguage *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a language for writing computer programs which is similar to machine code (= a set of numbers that gives instructions to a computer)

lowly /ˈləʊli/ *adjective* not important or respected *He took a lowly job in an insurance firm.*

low-rise /ˈləʊˌraɪz/ *adjective* describes trousers in which the top part of the trousers ends below the person's waist

low-tech /ˌləʊˈtek/ *adjective* Something that is low-tech does not use the most recent technology. ➲Compare **high-tech**

loyal /ˈlɔɪəl/ *adjective* always liking and supporting someone or something, sometimes when other people do not *a **loyal supporter*** ○ *She's very **loyal to** her friends.* ➲Opposite **disloyal** ●**loyally** *adverb*

loyalties /ˈlɔɪəltiz/ *noun* [**plural**] a feeling of support for someone *My loyalties to my family come before work.*

loyalty /ˈlɔɪəlti/ *noun* [**U**] the quality of being loyal *Your **loyalty to** the company is impressive.* ➲Opposite **disloyalty**

lozenge /ˈlɒzɪndʒ/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD, HEALTH** a sweet which you suck to make your throat feel better

LP /ˌelˈpiː/ *noun* [**C**] a record that has about 25 minutes of music on each side

LPG /ˌelpiːˈdʒiː/ *noun* [**U**] *abbreviation for* liquid petroleum gas: a type of fuel used for heating, cooking and in some vehicles

L-plate /ˈelpleɪt/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* a red and white 'L' symbol on the car of someone learning to drive

Ltd *written abbreviation for* limited company (= used after the name of some companies) *Pinewood Supplies Ltd*

lubricant /ˈluːbrɪkənt/ *noun* [**C, U**] a liquid, such as oil, which is used to make the parts of an engine move smoothly together

lubricate /ˈluːbrɪkeɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to put a lubricant on something ●**lubrication** /ˌluːbrɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**]

lucid /ˈluːsɪd/ *adjective* **1** CLEAR clear and easy to understand *a lucid account* **2** MIND able to think and speak clearly *In a lucid moment, she spoke about her son.* ●**lucidly** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***luck***

bad/beginner's/good/rotten luck ● **bring/wish** sb luck ● **curse** your luck ● a **stroke** of luck

O-K **luck** /lʌk/ *noun* [**U**] **1** BY CHANCE good and bad things caused by chance and not by your own actions *It was just luck that I asked for a job at the right time.* ○ *Then I met this gorgeous woman and I **couldn't believe my luck**.* ○ *He seems to have had a lot of **bad luck** in his life.* **2** SUCCESS success *Have you **had** any **luck*** (= succeeded in) *finding your bag?* ○ *He's been trying to find work but with no luck so far.* **3 be in luck** *informal* to be able to have or do what you want *"Do you have any tuna sandwiches?" "You're in luck - there's one left."* **4 Good luck!** something you say to someone when you hope that they will be successful *Good luck with your exam!* **5 Bad/Hard luck!** used to show sympathy when someone is unsuccessful or unlucky *"They've run out of tickets." "Oh, bad luck!"* **6 the luck of the draw** If something is the luck of the draw, it is the result of chance and you have no control over it. ➲See also: a **stroke**[1] of luck

O-K **lucky** /ˈlʌki/ *adjective* **1** HAVING GOOD LUCK having good things happen to you *"I'm going on holiday." "Lucky you!"* ○ *The **lucky winner** will be able to choose from three different holidays.* [**+ to do sth**] *You're lucky to have such a nice office to work in.* **2** GIVING LUCK If an object is lucky, some people believe that it gives you luck. *I chose six - it's my lucky number.* ➲Opposite **unlucky** ●**luckily** *adverb Luckily I had some money with me.* ➲See also: **happy-go-lucky**

lucrative /ˈluːkrətɪv/ *adjective* If something is lucrative, it makes a lot of money. *a lucrative contract/job/offer*

ludicrous /ˈluːdɪkrəs/ *adjective* stupid *a ludicrous idea/suggestion* ●**ludicrously** *adverb*

lug /lʌg/ *verb* [**T**] **lugging**, *past* **lugged** *informal* to carry or pull a heavy object *You don't want to lug your suitcase across London.*

luggage /ˈlʌgɪdʒ/ *noun* [**U**] bags and cases that you carry with you when you are travelling ➲See also: **hand luggage**

lukewarm /ˌluːkˈwɔːm/ *adjective* **1** LIQUID A liquid which is lukewarm is only slightly warm. *Dissolve yeast and one tablespoon of sugar in lukewarm water.* **2** LITTLE INTEREST showing little interest or enthusiasm *She seemed rather lukewarm about the idea.*

lull[1] /lʌl/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone feel calm and make them want to sleep *Soft music **lulled** him **to sleep**.*
lull sb into sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to make someone feel safe so that you can then trick them

lull[2] /lʌl/ *noun* [**C**] a short period of calm in which little happens *a **lull in** the conversation/traffic*

lullaby /ˈlʌləbaɪ/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a song which you sing to children to make them sleep

lumber[1] /ˈlʌmbəʳ/ *verb* **lumber along/around/off, etc** to move slowly with heavy steps *The bear lumbered off into the forest.*
be lumbered with sth/sb *phrasal verb mainly UK* to have to deal with something or someone that you do not want to *I've been lumbered with my neighbours' cat while they're away.*

lumber[2] /ˈlʌmbəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **timber**) *noun* [**U**] wood that is used for building

lumberjack /ˈlʌmbədʒæk/ *noun* [**C**] a person whose job is to cut down trees in a forest

lumen /ˈluːmɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **MEASURES** (*abbreviation* **lm**) a unit for measuring the flow of light **2** **BIOLOGY** a small space inside a plant

L

cell **3** BIOLOGY a hollow area inside a body part, for example inside an artery (= tube that carries blood) ➲See picture at **artery** ➲See picture at **vein**

luminary /ˈluːmɪnᵊri/ *noun* [C] *formal* a famous person who is respected for their skills or knowledge

luminous /ˈluːmɪnəs/ *adjective* Something that is luminous shines in the dark.

lump¹ /lʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of a solid substance with no particular shape *a lump of coal* ○ *You don't want lumps in the sauce.* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2** HEALTH a hard piece of tissue under the skin caused by injury or illness *She found a lump in her breast.*

lump² /lʌmp/ *verb*
lump sth/sb together *phrasal verb* to put different groups together and think about them or deal with them in the same way *American and Canadian authors tend to be lumped together.*

ˌlump ˈsum *noun* [C] FINANCE a large amount of money given as a single payment *She received a tax-free lump sum on leaving the company.*

lumpy /ˈlʌmpi/ *adjective* covered with or containing lumps (= bits of solid substance) *a lumpy sauce*

lunacy /ˈluːnəsi/ *noun* [U] stupid behaviour that will have bad results *It was lunacy spending all that money.*

lunar /ˈluːnəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] ASTRONOMY relating to the moon

lunatic /ˈluːnətɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who behaves in a crazy way *He drives like a lunatic.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***lunch***

eat/have lunch ● **have** sth **for** lunch ● a **light** lunch

O-K **lunch¹** /lʌnʃ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a meal that you eat in the middle of the day ➲See also: **packed lunch**

lunch² /lʌnʃ/ *verb* [I] to eat lunch

luncheon /ˈlʌnʃən/ *noun* [C] *formal* lunch

lunchtime /ˈlʌnʃtaɪm/ *noun* [C, U] the time when lunch is eaten

lung /lʌŋ/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the two organs inside your chest that are used for breathing *lung cancer* ➲See picture at **circulation** ➲See picture at **respiratory system** ➲See picture at **rib cage**

lurch /lɜːtʃ/ *verb* **lurch forward/towards, etc** to suddenly move in a way that is not controlled *The car lurched forward before hitting the tree.*

lure¹ /lʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] to persuade someone to go somewhere or do something by offering them something exciting *It seems that he was* ***lured into*** *a trap.* ○ *They had been* ***lured to*** *the big city by the promise of high wages.*

lure² /lʊəʳ/ *noun* [U] the power to attract people *the lure of fame/power/money*

lurid /ˈlʊərɪd/ *adjective* **1** SHOCKING shocking in a way that involves sex or violence *lurid details/stories* **2** COLOUR too brightly coloured *a lurid green miniskirt*

lurk /lɜːk/ *verb* [I] **1** to wait somewhere secretly, especially before doing something bad *Someone was lurking in the shadows.* **2** INTERNET to enter a place on the Internet and read what other people have written without them knowing you are there ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37. ●**lurker** *noun* [C]

lush /lʌʃ/ *adjective* A lush area has a lot of healthy grass, plants, or trees.

lust¹ /lʌst/ *noun* [U] **1** SEX a strong feeling of sexual attraction to someone **2** WANTING SOMETHING when you want something very much *a lust for power*

lust² /lʌst/ *verb*
lust after sb *phrasal verb* to feel strong sexual attraction for someone
lust after sth *phrasal verb* to want something very much *to lust after fame/power*

Lutheran /ˈluːθᵊrᵊn/ *adjective* RELIGION belonging or relating to a Christian group based on the teachings of Martin Luther ●**Lutheran** *noun* [C]

luxurious /lʌgˈʒʊəriəs/ *adjective* very comfortable and expensive *a luxurious hotel* ○ *luxurious fabrics*

luxury /ˈlʌkʃᵊri/ *noun* **1** COMFORT/PLEASURE [U] great comfort or pleasure from expensive or beautiful things *to live in luxury* ○ *a luxury apartment/car* **2** NOT NECESSARY [C] something expensive that you enjoy but do not need *It's nice to buy people the little luxuries that they wouldn't buy themselves.* **3** RARE PLEASURE [U, no plural] something which gives you a lot of pleasure but which you cannot often do *A day off work is such a luxury.*

lying /ˈlaɪɪŋ/ *present participle of* lie[1,2]

lymph /lɪmpf/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a colourless liquid which takes waste matter away from body tissue in order to prevent infection ●**lymphatic** *adjective lymphatic system*

ˈlymph ˌgland (*also* **lymph node**) *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY one of many small organs in the body which produce the white blood cells needed for the body to fight infection

lymphocyte /ˈlɪmpfəʊsaɪt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of blood cell that fights disease in the body ➲See picture at **blood cells**

ˈlymph ˌvessel *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY any of the thin tubes in the body through which lymph flows

lyrical /ˈlɪrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* LITERATURE expressing the writer's emotions in a beautiful way *lyrical poetry/verse*

lyrics /ˈlɪrɪks/ *noun* [plural] MUSIC the words of a song

Mm

M, m /em/ the thirteenth letter of the alphabet

m MEASURES *written abbreviation for* metre (= a unit of length)

MA /ˌemˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION *abbreviation for* Master of Arts: a higher university qualification in an arts (= not science) subject

ma'am /mæm, mɑːm/ *US short for* madam *Can I help you, Ma'am?*

mac /mæk/ *noun* [C] *UK* a coat that you wear in the rain ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

macabre /məˈkɑːbrə/ *adjective* strange and frightening, and often connected with death *a macabre story*

macaroni /ˌmækərˈəʊni/ *noun* [U] FOOD pasta that is shaped like small tubes

machete /məˈʃeti/ *noun* [C] a large knife with a wide blade

machinations /ˌmæʃɪˈneɪʃənz/ *noun* [plural] complicated and secret plans and activities *political machinations*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***machine***

operate/use a machine ● **turn off/turn on** a machine ● do sth **by** machine ● a machine **for** doing sth

O-key **machine** /məˈʃiːn/ *noun* [C] **1** EQUIPMENT a piece of equipment with moving parts that uses power to do a particular job *a fax machine* ○ *a coffee machine* ○ *Clothes are generally sewn **by machine** these days.* **2** GROUP a group of people all working together to achieve the same result *a political/war machine* **3** COMPUTING a computer ➲See also: **answering machine, cash machine, sewing machine, slot machine, vending machine, washing machine**

maˈchine ˌcarding *noun* [U] DT using machines with wire brushes to separate the threads of some materials such as wool before they can be used

maˈchine ˌcode *noun* [U] COMPUTING a set of numbers that gives instructions to a computer

maˈchine ˌgun *noun* [C] a gun that fires a lot of bullets very quickly

machine-readable /məˌʃiːnˈriːdəbl/ *adjective* COMPUTING able to be understood by a computer *a machine-readable dictionary*

machinery /məˈʃiːnəri/ *noun* [U] **1** EQUIPMENT machines, often large machines *industrial/farm machinery* **2** SYSTEM the system that a group of people uses to achieve something *the machinery of government*

maˈchine ˌtool *noun* [C] DT a tool that uses power for cutting and shaping wood, metal, etc

macho /ˈmætʃəʊ/ US /ˈmɑːtʃəʊ/ *adjective informal* Men who are macho emphasize their traditional male qualities, such as physical strength, and do not show emotion.

mackerel /ˈmækrəl/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **mackerel** or **mackerels** FOOD a type of sea fish, or the meat from this fish

mackintosh /ˈmækɪntɒʃ/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* a mac

macramé /məˈkrɑːmeɪ/ US /ˈmæk.re.meɪ/ *noun* [U] DT the art of twisting pieces of string together in knots to form a decorative pattern

macro /ˈmækrəʊ/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a single instruction given to a computer which produces a set of instructions for the computer to perform a particular piece of work

macro- /mækrəʊ-/ *prefix* large or on a large scale *macroeconomics* (= the study of financial systems at a national level)

macromolecule /ˈmækrəʊˌmɒlɪkjuːl/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY a large molecule, for example a protein

O-key **mad** /mæd/ *adjective* **1** CRAZY *informal* stupid or crazy [+ **to do sth**] *You're mad to walk home alone at night.* **2** ANGRY *mainly US* angry *Were your parents **mad at** you when you came home late?* **3 go mad a** ANGRY to become very angry *Dad'll go mad when he finds out you took the car.* **b** EXCITED to suddenly become very excited *When the band arrived on stage, the crowd went mad.* **4 be mad about sb/sth** *informal* to love something or someone *Jo's mad about skiing.* **5** ILL mentally ill **6** NOT CONTROLLED not controlled *We made a **mad dash** for the exit.* **7 like mad a** QUICKLY If you run, work, etc like mad, you do it very quickly and with a lot of energy. **b** PAIN If something hurts like mad, it hurts a lot.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

mad or **mentally ill?**

If someone has mental health problems, it is not polite to say that they are **mad**, use **mentally ill** instead.

madam /ˈmædəm/ *noun formal* **1** (*also* **Madam**) You call a woman 'madam' when you are speaking to her politely. *This way, madam.* **2 Madam** You write 'Madam' at the beginning of a formal letter to a woman when you do not know her name. *Dear Madam, I am writing to...*

made /meɪd/ *past of* make

-made /meɪd/ *suffix* ➲See: **man-made, ready-made, self-made, tailor-made**

madhouse /ˈmædhaʊs/ *noun* [C] *informal* a place where there is a lot of uncontrolled noise and activity

madly /ˈmædli/ *adverb* **1** with a lot of energy and enthusiasm *We cheered madly as the team came out onto the field.* **2 be madly in love** to love someone very much

madman, madwoman /ˈmædmən, ˈmædˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **madmen, madwomen** a crazy person *He was running around **like a madman**.*

madness /ˈmædnəs/ *noun* [U] **1** DANGER stupid or dangerous behaviour *It would be madness to give up your job when you've just bought a house.* **2** ILLNESS mental illness

M

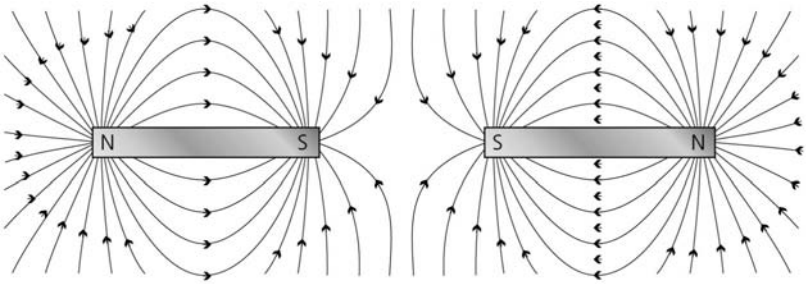

repulsion

magnet

maestro /ˈmaɪstrəʊ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC someone who is very good at something, especially playing music

the mafia /ˈmæfiə/ (US) /ˈmɑːfiə/ *noun* a large group of organized criminals *Drug-smuggling activities have been linked to the Mafia.*

O-K **magazine** /ˌmægəˈziːn/ *noun* [C] a thin book published every week or month, that has shiny, colourful pages with articles and pictures *a fashion/news magazine*

maggot /ˈmægət/ *noun* [C] a small insect with a soft body and no legs that often lives in decaying food

M

O-K **magic**[1] /ˈmædʒɪk/ *noun* [U] **1** SPECIAL POWERS special powers that can make things happen that seem impossible *Do you believe in magic?* **2** ENTERTAINMENT clever actions intended to entertain people, often making objects appear and disappear **3** SPECIAL QUALITY a quality that makes something or someone seem special or exciting *No one could fail to be charmed by **the magic of** this beautiful city.* **4 as if by magic** in a way that is surprising and impossible to explain *Food would appear on the table every day, as if by magic.* ➲See also: **black magic**

magic[2] /ˈmædʒɪk/ *adjective* **1** SPECIAL POWERS with special powers *a **magic spell/wand*** **2** ENTERTAINMENT relating to magic *a **magic trick*** **3 magic moments** special and exciting experiences

magical /ˈmædʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SPECIAL POWERS with special powers *Diamonds were once thought to have **magical powers**.* **2** EXCITING special or exciting *It was a magical night.* ●**magically** *adverb I knew my problems would not just magically disappear.*

magician /məˈdʒɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** ENTERTAINMENT someone who entertains people by performing magic tricks **2** PERSON a character in old stories who has magic powers

magistrate /ˈmædʒɪstreɪt/ *noun* [C] a type of judge (= person who decides what punishments should be given) who deals with less serious crimes

maglev train /ˈmæglevˌtreɪn/ *noun* [C] a fast train that uses magnetic force to hold it just above the ground

magma /ˈmægmə/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY hot liquid rock found just below the surface of the Earth ➲See picture at **volcano**

magnate /ˈmægneɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who is rich and successful in business *a media magnate*

magnesium /mægˈniːziəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a metallic element that burns very brightly, used to make fireworks (= explosives used to entertain people) (symbol **Mg**)

magnet /ˈmægnət/ *noun* **1** PHYSICS [C] an iron object that makes pieces of iron or steel (= metal made with iron) move towards it **2 be a magnet for sb** If a place or event is a magnet for people, a lot of people go there. *Airports are a magnet for thieves.*

magnetic /mægˈnetɪk/ *adjective* **1** PHYSICS with the power of a magnet *a **magnetic field*** **2 magnetic tape/disk/storage, etc** COMPUTING equipment used in the past for storing information from a computer **3** having a character that attracts people to you

magˌnetic ˈfield *noun* [C] PHYSICS the area around a magnet that is affected by its force

magnetism /ˈmægnətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the force produced by some metals that pulls objects towards each other or pushes them away from each other

magnificent /mægˈnɪfɪsᵊnt/ *adjective* very good or very beautiful *a magnificent view* ●**magnificently** *adverb*

magnify /ˈmægnɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** PHYSICS to make an object look larger than it is by looking through special equipment *The cells are first magnified under a microscope.* **2** to make a bad situation worse *All your problems are magnified when you're ill.*

ˈmagnifying ˌglass *noun* [C] a piece of curved glass which makes objects look larger than they are

magnitude /ˈmægnɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] *formal* the large size or importance of something *People were still unaware of **the magnitude of** the problem.*

mahogany /məˈhɒgᵊni/ *noun* [U] a dark, red-brown wood used to make furniture

maid /meɪd/ *noun* [C] a woman who works as a servant in a hotel or in someone's home

maiden¹ /ˈmeɪdᵊn/ *noun* [C] *literary old-fashioned* a young woman who is not married

maiden² /ˈmeɪdᵊn/ *adjective* **a maiden flight/voyage** the first journey of a new aircraft or ship

ˈmaiden ˌname *noun* [C] the family name that a woman has before she gets married

mail¹ /meɪl/ *noun* [U] **1** LETTERS letters and parcels that are brought by post **2** SYSTEM *mainly US* the system by which letters and parcels are taken and brought *Send it **by mail**.* ○ *The letter is **in the mail**.* ➲See also: **email, junk mail, snail mail, surface mail, voice mail**

mail² /meɪl/ *verb* [T] *mainly US* to send a letter or parcel or email something *Could you **mail** it **to** me?*

mailbox /ˈmeɪlbɒks/ *noun* [C] *US* **1** AT HOME a small box outside your home where letters are delivered **2** IN PUBLIC PLACE (*UK* **letterbox, post box**) a large, metal container in a public place where you can post letters

ˈmailing ˌlist *noun* [C] a list of names and addresses that an organization uses in order to send information to people

mailman /ˈmeɪlmæn/ *US* (*UK* **postman**) *noun* [C] *plural* **mailmen** a man who takes and brings letters and parcels as a job

ˈmail ˌmerge *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** using a computer to produce many copies of a letter with each copy with a different name and address stored on file, or a computer program that does this

ˈmail ˌorder *noun* [U] a way of buying goods by ordering them from a catalogue (= book) and receiving them by post

maim /meɪm/ *verb* [T] to injure someone permanently *Thousands of innocent people have been killed or maimed by landmines.*

main¹ /meɪn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** most important or largest *the main problem/reason* ○ *The main airport is 15 miles from the capital.* **2 the main thing** the most important fact in a situation *You're happy and that's the main thing.*

main² /meɪn/ *noun* [C] **1 gas/water main** a pipe that carries gas or water to a building **2 in the main** generally or mostly *Her friends are teachers in the main.*

ˈmain ˌcourse *noun* [C] **FOOD** the largest or most important part of a meal

mainframe /ˈmeɪnfreɪm/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a large, powerful computer which many people can use at the same time

mainland /ˈmeɪnlənd/ *noun* **the mainland** **GEOGRAPHY** the main part of a country, not including the islands around it *A daily ferry links the islands to the mainland.* ●**mainland** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *mainland Britain*

mainly /ˈmeɪnli/ *adverb* mostly or to a large degree *The waitresses are mainly French.*

ˌmain ˈroad *noun* [C] a large road which leads from one town to another *Stay on the main road for about three miles and you'll be there.*

mainstay /ˈmeɪnsteɪ/ *noun* **a/the mainstay of sth** the most important thing or activity *Cattle farming is the mainstay of the country's economy.*

the mains /meɪnz/ *noun* [**group**] *UK* **1** PIPES the system of pipes or wires that carries gas, water, or electricity to a building *The house isn't connected to the mains yet.* **2** ELECTRICITY the place inside a building where you can connect a machine to a supply of electricity *Is the cooker turned off **at the mains**?*

mainstream /ˈmeɪnstriːm/ *noun* **the mainstream** **SOCIETY** the beliefs or way of living accepted by most people *The party is now **in the mainstream of** politics.* ●**mainstream** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *mainstream culture/politics*

maintain /meɪnˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT CHANGE to make a situation or activity continue in the same way *The army has been brought in to maintain order in the region.* **2** CONDITION to keep a building or area in good condition *A large house is very expensive to maintain.* **3** SPEAK TRUTH *formal* to say that you are certain something is true [+ **(that)**] *He has always maintained that he is innocent.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***maintenance***

carry out maintenance ● **high/low** maintenance ● maintenance **of** sth

maintenance /ˈmeɪntᵊnəns/ *noun* [U] **1** WORK the work that is done to keep something in good condition *car maintenance* ○ *I want a garden that's very **low maintenance*** (= easy to look after). **2** **FINANCE** *UK* regular amounts of money that someone must pay after they have left their family so that the family still has money to live ***child maintenance***

maize /meɪz/ *UK* (*US* **corn**) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a tall plant with yellow seeds that are eaten as food

majestic /məˈdʒestɪk/ *adjective* very beautiful or powerful in a way that people admire *majestic scenery*

majesty /ˈmædʒəsti/ *noun* **1** [U] the quality of being majestic *the majesty of the pyramids* **2 His/Her/Your Majesty** used when you are speaking to or about a king or queen *His Majesty King Edward VII*

major¹ /ˈmeɪdʒəʳ/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] more important or more serious than other things or people of a similar type *a **major problem/issue*** ○ *a major city* ○ *America has played a major role in the peace process.* **2** **MUSIC** in music, belonging to a key (= set of musical notes) which often produces a happy sound ➲Opposite **minor**

major² /ˈmeɪdʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **EDUCATION** *US* the most important subject that a college or university student studies, or the student who is studying *What's your major?* ○ *Diane's an English major.* **2** an officer of middle rank in the army or air force

major³ /ˈmeɪdʒəʳ/ *verb*
major in sth *phrasal verb* **EDUCATION** If you major in a subject, it is the most important part of your course at a college or university.

majority /məˈdʒɒrəti/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] more than half of a group of people or things ***The majority of** people in this country own their houses.* ○ *The **vast majority** of smokers claim they would like to give up.* **2 be in a/the majority** to be larger than other similar groups *Women*

M

are in the majority in the publishing world. **3 POLITICS** [C] in an election, the difference between the number of votes for the winner, and the votes for the party that came second *Labour has a **strong majority**.* ➲Opposite **minority**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***majority***

a **narrow/outright/overwhelming/tiny/vast** majority ● the majority **of** sth ● **in** the majority

make¹ /meɪk/ *verb* [T] *past* **made 1** CREATE to produce or create something *Shall I make some coffee?* ○ *They've made a film about her life.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **do 2 make a promise/remark/mistake, etc** to promise something, to say something, to do something wrong, etc *We have to make a decision today.* ○ *You're making a big mistake.* ○ *She made some useful suggestions.* **3 make sb do sth** to force someone to do something *You can't make me go.* **4 make sb/sth happy/sad/difficult, etc** to cause someone or something to become happy, sad, difficult, etc *You've made me very happy.* ○ *This is the song that made her a star.* **5** GO TO to be able to go to an event *I'm afraid I can't make the meeting this afternoon.* **6** EARN MONEY If you make an amount of money, you earn it. *He makes £20,000 a year.* **7** NUMBERS If two or more numbers make a particular amount, that is the amount when they are added together. *That makes $40 altogether.* **8** PERSONAL QUALITIES [T] to have the right qualities to become a father or mother or to do a particular job *Andy would make a good teacher.* **9** GIVE A JOB [+ **two objects**] to give someone a particular job *They made her a director of the company.* **10 make an appointment** to arrange to do something at a particular time *I've made an appointment with the doctor.* **11 make the bed** to make the sheets and covers on a bed tidy **12 make time** to leave enough time to do something although you are busy [+ **to do sth**] *You must make time to do your homework.* **13 make do (with)** to accept that something is less good than you would like *If we can't get a bigger room we'll have to make do with this.* **14 make it a** ARRIVE to manage to arrive at a place *Will we make it in time for the film?* **b** SUCCEED to be successful *Very few actors actually make it.*

make for sth *phrasal verb* to move towards a place *He got up and made for the exit.*

make sth into sth *phrasal verb* to change something into something else *We're going to make the spare room into an office.*

make of sb/sth *phrasal verb* If you ask someone what they make of someone or something, you want to know their opinion about that person or thing. *What do you make of this letter?*

make off with sth *phrasal verb informal* to steal something

make sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to be able to see, hear, or understand something or someone *We could just make out a building through the trees.*

make out sth *phrasal verb* to say something that is not true [+ **(that)**] *He made out that he'd been living in Boston all year.*

make out *phrasal verb US informal* **1** BE SUCCESSFUL to deal with a situation, usually in a successful way *How is Jake **making out in** his new school?* **2** KISS to kiss and touch someone in a sexual way

make it up to sb *phrasal verb* to do something good for someone because you have done something bad to them in the past *I'm sorry I missed your birthday. I'll make it up to you, I promise.*

make sth up *phrasal verb* to say or write something that is not true *I made up some story about having to go and see my sick mother.*

make up sth *phrasal verb* to form the whole of an amount *Women make up nearly 50% of medical school entrants.*

make up *phrasal verb* to become friendly with someone again after you have argued with them *Have you **made up with** Daryl yet?*

make up for sth *phrasal verb* to reduce the bad effect of something, or make something bad become something good *I hope this money will make up for the inconvenience.*

make² /meɪk/ *noun* [C] the name of a company that makes a particular product *I like your stereo. What make is it?*

make-believe /ˈmeɪkbɪˌliːv/ *noun* [U] when you pretend that something is real *Disneyland creates a world of make-believe.*

makeover /ˈmeɪkˌəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [C] when you suddenly improve your appearance by wearing better clothes, cutting your hair, etc *to **have a makeover***

maker /ˈmeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] the person or company that makes a product *makers of top quality electrical products*

makeshift /ˈmeɪkʃɪft/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] temporary and low quality *makeshift shelters*

make-up, makeup /ˈmeɪkʌp/ *noun* [U] coloured substances that a woman puts on her face in order to make herself more attractive *to **put on/take off make-up*** ○ *She doesn't **wear** much **make-up**.*

making /ˈmeɪkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** the process of making or producing something *There's an article on **the making of** a television series.* ○ *the art of film making* **2 be a sth/sb in the making** to be likely to develop into a particular thing or type of person *What we're seeing is a disaster in the making.* **3 have the makings of sth** to seem likely to develop into something *She has the makings of a great violinist.*

malaria /məˈleəriə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that you can get in hot countries if a mosquito (= small insect) bites you

male¹ /meɪl/ *adjective* belonging to or relating to the sex that cannot have babies *a male colleague* ➲Opposite **female**

male² /meɪl/ *noun* [C] a male person or animal *In 1987, 27 percent of adult males smoked.*

male chauvinist *noun* [C] a man who believes that men are better or more important than women

malice /ˈmælɪs/ *noun* [U] when you want to harm or upset someone *There was no malice in her comments.*

malicious /məˈlɪʃəs/ *adjective* intended to harm or upset someone *malicious gossip*

malignant /mə'lɪgnənt/ *adjective* **HEALTH** A malignant tumour (= group of diseased cells) is one that could cause death.

mall /mɔːl/ (*also* **shopping mall**) *noun* [C] a large, covered shopping area

malleable /'mæliəbl/ *adjective* **1** SOFT easy to bend or make into a different shape **2** INFLUENCE *formal* easily influenced and controlled ●**malleability** /ˌmæliə'bɪlɪti/ *noun* [U]

mallet /'mælɪt/ *noun* [C] a tool like a hammer with a large, flat end made of wood or rubber

malleus /'mæliəs/ *noun* [C usually singular] *plural* **mallei** **ANATOMY** one of three very small bones that carry sound into the inner ear ➲Compare **incus, stapes**

malnutrition /ˌmælnjuː'trɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious illness caused by too little food

malpractice /ˌmæl'præktɪs/ *noun* [U] when a doctor, lawyer, etc does not do one of their duties or makes a mistake at work *medical malpractice*

malt /mɔːlt/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a substance made from grain that is used to make drinks, for example beer and whisky (= strong alcoholic drink)

maltase /'mɒlteɪz/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an enzyme (= substance that causes chemical change) that helps maltose change to glucose

maltose /'mɔːltəʊz/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a type of sugar made in the body from starch by enzymes (= substances that cause chemical change)

mama /mə'mɑː/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a child's word for 'mother'

mammal /'mæmᵊl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal that feeds its babies on milk from its body

mammoth /'mæməθ/ *adjective* very large *a mammoth task/project*

O-K **man**[1] /mæn/ *noun plural* **men** **1** MALE [C] an adult male human *a young/tall man* ○ *men and women* **2** PEOPLE [U] used to refer to both men and women *Man is still more intelligent than the cleverest robot.* ➲See also: **best man, garbage man, no-man's land,** the man/person, etc in the **street**

man[2] /mæn/ *verb* [T] **manning**, *past* **manned** to be present somewhere, especially in order to operate a machine *The emergency room is manned 24 hours a day.*

O-K **manage** /'mænɪdʒ/ *verb* **1** DO SUCCESSFULLY [I, T] to do something or deal with something successfully *Will you be able to manage on your own?* [+ **to do sth**] *Anyway, we managed to get there on time.* **2** CONTROL [T] to be in control of an office, shop, team, etc *He used to manage the bookshop on King Street.* **3** USE TIME/MONEY [T] to use or organize your time or money *He's no good at managing his money.* **4** HAVE ENOUGH MONEY [I] to have enough money to live *How can anyone **manage on** such a low income?*

manageable /'mænɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* easy to control *Are they going to reduce classes to a more **manageable size**?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***management***

management **of** sth ● management **skills** ● **middle/senior** management

O-K **management** /'mænɪdʒmənt/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [U] being in control of an office, shop, team, etc *management skills/training* **2** PEOPLE [**group**] the people who are in control of an office, shop, team, etc ***middle/senior management***

O-K **manager** /'mænɪdʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone in control of an office, shop, team, etc *a sales manager* ○ *She's the manager of the local sports club.*

managerial /ˌmænə'dʒɪəriəl/ *adjective* relating to a manager or management ***managerial skills***

ˌmanaging diˈrector *noun* [C] *mainly UK* the main person in control of a company

mandate /'mændeɪt/ *noun* [C] *formal* **POLITICS** support for action given to someone by the people voting for them *The electorate have **given** them a clear **mandate** for social reform.*

mandatory /'mændətᵊri/ *adjective formal* If something is mandatory, it must be done.

mandible /'mændɪbᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** in a person or animal, the lower jaw bone **2** **BIOLOGY** in insects, one of the two parts of the mouth used for biting and cutting food

mane /meɪn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the long, thick hair that grows on the necks of animals such as horses or lions

maneuver[1] *US* (*UK* **manoeuvre**) /mə'nuːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a movement that needs care or skill **2** ACTION a clever action, usually done to trick someone *a **political/tactical maneuver***

maneuver[2] *US* (*UK* **manoeuvre**) /mə'nuːvəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to move with care or skill *I find big cars difficult to maneuver.*

mangled /'mæŋgld/ *adjective* badly crushed and damaged *a mangled body*

mango /'mæŋgəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **mangoes** or **mangos** **FOOD** a tropical fruit that has a green skin and is orange inside

manhood /'mænhʊd/ *noun* [U] the qualities related to being a man and not a boy

mania /'meɪniə/ *noun* [U] extreme enthusiasm or interest *football mania*

maniac /'meɪniæk/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who behaves in an extreme or uncontrolled way *a **sex maniac*** ○ *He drives like a maniac.*

manic /'mænɪk/ *adjective* behaving in an excited and uncontrolled way

manicure /'mænɪkjʊəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] when someone makes your hands look attractive by cleaning and cutting your nails, etc

manifest[1] /'mænɪfest/ *verb* [T] *formal* to show a quality or condition [**often reflexive**] *Grief manifests itself in a number of different ways.*

manifest[2] /'mænɪfest/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* obvious *her manifest lack of interest*

manifestation /ˌmænɪfes'teɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* something which shows that a quality

M

or condition exists *one of the manifestations of the disease*

manifesto /ˌmænɪˈfestəʊ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** when a political group says publicly what it intends to do

manipulate /məˈnɪpjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] to control someone or something in a clever way so that they do what you want them to do *She knows how to manipulate the press.* ●**manipulation** /məˌnɪpjəˈleɪʃˢn/ *noun* [U]

manipulative /məˈnɪpjələtɪv/ *adjective* A manipulative person controls people in a clever and unpleasant way. *a devious, manipulative little boy*

mankind /mænˈkaɪnd/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** all people, considered as a group *the history of mankind*

manly /ˈmænli/ *adjective* having the qualities and appearance that people think a man should have *a deep, manly voice*

man-made /ˌmænˈmeɪd/ *adjective* not natural, but made by people *man-made fibres* ○ *a man-made lake*

manned /mænd/ *adjective* A place or vehicle that is manned has people working in it. *a manned space flight*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***manner***

in a [similar/traditional/professional, etc] manner ● the manner **of** sth

M

manner /ˈmænəʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** PERSONALITY the way in which a person talks and behaves with other people *an aggressive/friendly manner* **2** WAY the way something happens or something is done *They dealt with the problem **in a** very efficient **manner**.*

mannerism /ˈmænˢrɪzˢm/ *noun* [C] something strange that someone often does with their face, hands, or voice, and that is part of their personality

manners /ˈmænəz/ *noun* [**plural**] **SOCIETY** polite ways of behaving with other people ***bad/good manners*** ○ ***table manners***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***manoeuvre (noun)***

carry out/perform a manoeuvre

manoeuvre¹ *UK* (*US* **maneuver**) /məˈnuːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a movement that needs care or skill **2** ACTION a clever action, usually done to trick someone *a **political/tactical manoeuvre***

manoeuvre² *UK* (*US* **maneuver**) /məˈnuːvəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to move with care or skill *I find big cars difficult to manoeuvre.*

manpower /ˈmænˌpaʊəʳ/ *noun* [U] the people needed or available to do a job *a manpower shortage*

mansion /ˈmænʃˢn/ *noun* [C] a very large house

manslaughter /ˈmænˌslɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [U] **LAW** the crime of killing someone without intending to kill them

mantelpiece /ˈmæntˢlpiːs/ (*also US* **mantel**) *noun* [C] the shelf above a fireplace (= place in a room where wood, etc is burned) *There was an old family photo **on the mantelpiece**.* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

mantle /ˈmæntl/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** the part of the Earth that surrounds the part in the centre ➲See picture at **Earth**

mantra /ˈmæntrə/ *noun* [C] an idea or belief that people often say but do not think about *the mantra of 'democratic reform'*

manual¹ /ˈmænjuəl/ *adjective* using your hands *manual labour/work* ○ *a manual control/gearbox* ●**manually** *adverb*

manual² /ˈmænjuəl/ *noun* [C] a book that tells you how to use something or do something

manufacture /ˌmænjəˈfæktʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] to produce something, usually in large numbers in a factory *Local industries manufacture plastic products, boats, and clothing.* ●**manufacture** *noun* [U] *the manufacture of computers/margarine*

manufacturer /ˌmænjəˈfæktʃˢrəʳ/ *noun* [C] a company that manufactures something *a shoe manufacturer*

manufacturing /ˌmænjəˈfæktʃˢrɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the production of something, usually in large numbers in a factory *car/food manufacturing*

manure /məˈnjʊəʳ/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** solid waste from animals that is used to make plants grow well *cow/horse manure*

manuscript /ˈmænjəskrɪpt/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of writing or music that has been written, but not published

many /ˈmeni/ *pronoun, quantifier* **1** used mainly in negative sentences and questions to mean 'a large number of' *I don't have many clothes.* ○ *Were there many cars on the road?* ○ *I've got **so many** things to do this morning.* ○ *You've given me **too many** potatoes* (= more than I want). ○ *There aren't **as many** people here **as** last year.* **2 how many** used in questions to ask about the number of something *How many hours a week do you work?* ○ *How many do you want?* **3 as many as** used before a number or amount to show that the number or amount is large *As many as 6000 people may have been infected with the disease.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

many, much, or a lot of?

Many is used with countable nouns in negative sentences and questions. **Much** is used with uncountable nouns in negative sentences and questions.

Do you have many friends?

I don't earn much money.

A lot of can be used to mean **much** or **many**. In positive sentences it sounds formal to use **much** or **many**. You can use **a lot of** instead.

~~*There was much enthusiasm for the project.*~~

There was a lot of enthusiasm for the project.

Maori /ˈmaʊəri/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to the original group of people who lived in New Zealand *Maori culture* ●**Maori** *noun* [C] a Maori person

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***map***

read a map ● a **detailed** map ● a map **of** sth ● be **(marked) on** a map ● a **road** map

map /mæp/ *noun* [C] a picture that shows where countries, towns, roads, rivers, etc are *a **road map*** ○ *a large-scale **map of** Europe*

maple /ˈmeɪpl/ *noun* [C, U] a tree that has colourful leaves in the autumn and that produces a substance like sugar *a **maple leaf*** ○ ***maple syrup***

Mar *written abbreviation for* March

mar /mɑːʳ/ *verb* [T] **marring**, *past* **marred** *formal* to spoil something [**often passive**] *The evening was marred by Meg's appalling behaviour.*

marathon /ˈmærəθᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT a race in which people run for about 26 miles/42 km *the London marathon* ○ *a marathon runner* **2** a very long event *a dance marathon*

marble /ˈmɑːbl/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY hard, smooth stone which is often used for decoration *green/pink marble* ○ *a marble statue*

marbling /ˈmɑːblɪŋ/ *noun* [U] DT decorating something such as paper or wood with a pattern that looks like marble

march¹ /mɑːtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** SHOWING DISAGREEMENT an organized walk by a group to show that they disagree with something *to **go on** a **march*** **2** SOLDIERS' WALK the special type of walking that soldiers do

march² /mɑːtʃ/ *verb* [I] **1** SHOW DISAGREEMENT to walk somewhere as a group to show that you disagree with something *They marched to London to protest against health cuts.* **2** SOLDIERS' WALK When soldiers march, they walk together with regular steps. **3 march off/up/down, etc** to walk somewhere fast, often because you are angry

March /mɑːtʃ/ (*written abbreviation* **Mar**) *noun* [C, U] the third month of the year

mare /meəʳ/ *noun* [C] a female horse

margarine /ˌmɑːdʒəˈriːn/ (US /ˈmɑːrdʒərɪn/ *noun* [U] FOOD a yellow substance made from vegetable oil which you put on bread and use in cooking

margin /ˈmɑːdʒɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** the difference between two amounts of time, money, etc, usually between people in a competition *to win by a **narrow/wide margin*** ○ *He took third place **by a margin of** seven minutes.* **2** an empty space down the side of a page of writing *You can make notes **in the margin**.* **3 a margin of error** MATHEMATICS the amount by which a calculation can be wrong but still produce a good result *a margin of error of 5 percent* **4** FINANCE the amount of profit that is made by a business after costs have been taken off

marginal /ˈmɑːdʒɪnᵊl/ *adjective* small and not important *a marginal effect/improvement*

ˌmarginal ˈcost *noun* [U] FINANCE the amount by which the total cost of producing a group of goods increases if a business makes one more of that thing

marginalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmɑːdʒɪnᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to treat someone or something as if they are not important [**often passive**] *The poorest countries are increasingly marginalized from the world economy.*

marginally /ˈmɑːdʒɪnᵊli/ *adverb* by a small amount *marginally more expensive*

marijuana /ˌmærɪˈwɑːnə/ *mainly US* (*mainly UK* **cannabis**) *noun* [U] HEALTH a drug that some people smoke for pleasure and that is illegal in many countries

marina /məˈriːnə/ *noun* [C] an area of water where people keep their boats

marinate /ˈmærɪneɪt/ (*also* **marinade** /ˌmærɪˈneɪd/) *verb* [T] FOOD to add a mixture of oil, wine, herbs, etc to food before cooking it ●**marinade** /ˌmærɪˈneɪd/ *noun* [C, U]

marine¹ /məˈriːn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] found in the sea, or relating to the sea *marine creatures/life* ○ *marine biology*

marine² /məˈriːn/ *noun* [C] a soldier who has been trained to fight at sea and on land *the Marine Corps*

marital /ˈmærɪtᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] SOCIETY relating to marriage *marital problems*

ˈmarital ˌstatus *noun* [U] SOCIETY whether or not someone is married *The form asks for personal information such as name, date of birth and marital status.*

maritime /ˈmærɪtaɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to ships and sea travel *a maritime museum*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mark***

leave/make a mark ● a mark **on** sth ● **dirty** marks

mark¹ /mɑːk/ *noun* **1** AREA [C] an area of dirt, damage, etc that is left on something *You've got a black mark on your nose.* ○ *He's **left** dirty **marks** all over the carpet.* **2** EDUCATION [C] a number or letter that is written on a piece of work, saying how good the work is *She always gets good marks in English.* **3** LEVEL [**no plural**] a particular level, degree, distance, etc *They've just passed **the** 5000m **mark**.* ○ *Interest rates are somewhere around the seven percent mark.* **4 a mark of sth** a sign or proof that something exists *a mark of genius* ○ *There was a minute's silence everywhere **as a mark of respect**.* **5 leave/make your mark** to do something that makes you successful or makes people notice you **6 On your marks. Get set. Go!** something that you say to start a running race **7 be wide of the mark** to not be correct or accurate ➲See also: **punctuation mark, quotation marks**

mark² /mɑːk/ *verb* **1** HAPPEN [T] If an event marks the beginning, end, etc of something, it causes it, or happens at the same time as it. *His death marks the end of an era in television.* **2** CELEBRATE [T] If you mark an occasion, you do something to celebrate it. *They've declared Tuesday a national holiday to mark the 10th anniversary of Independence.* **3** SHOW A PLACE [T] to show where something is by drawing or putting something somewhere *I've marked my street on the map for you.* **4** EDUCATION [I, T] to check a piece of work or an exam, showing mistakes and giving a letter or number to say how good it is *to **mark essays*** **5** DIRTY [T] to leave an area of dirt on something
mark sth out *phrasal verb* to show the shape or position of something by drawing a line around it

marked /mɑːkt/ *adjective* very noticeable *There has been a* ***marked improvement*** *since last year.* ●**markedly** *adverb*

marker /ˈmɑːkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PEN (*also* **ˈmarker ˌpen**) a thick pen used especially for writing on boards *a black felt marker* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 **2** SIGN a sign that shows where something is

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***market***

the market **is booming/is growing** ● a market **collapses** ● the market **in** sth

market¹ /ˈmɑːkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** SELLING PLACE a place where people go to buy or sell things, often outside *a cattle/fish/flower market* ○ *a market stall* **2** SHOP *US* a supermarket (= large shop that sells food) **3 ECONOMICS** the buying and selling of something *the insurance/personal computer market* **4 ECONOMICS** all the people who want to buy a particular product, or the area where they live *South America is our largest market.* ○ *Is there* ***a market for*** (= will people buy) *second-hand jewellery?* **5 on the market** available to buy *His house has been on the market for over a year.* ➲See also: **black market, flea market, free market, niche market, the stock market**

market² /ˈmɑːkɪt/ *verb* [T] to try to sell products using advertising or other ways of making people want to buy them *Their products are very cleverly marketed.*

marketable /ˈmɑːkɪtəbl/ *adjective* Marketable products or skills are easy to sell because people want them.

ˌmarket ˈforces *noun* [plural] **ECONOMICS** the way that prices and wages are influenced by how many people want to buy a particular product and how much is available

marketing /ˈmɑːkɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the work of encouraging people to buy a product or service *a career in marketing/****sales and marketing***

ˈmarketing ˌmix *noun* [C] all the things connected with selling a product, such as what the product is like, how it is advertised, and how much it costs

market-led /ˌmɑːkɪtˈled/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS** Market-led businesses find out what customers want and offer it to them.

ˌmarket peneˈtration *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** getting customers, for example by having low prices or attracting customers away from other businesses

marketplace /ˈmɑːkɪtpleɪs/ *noun* **1 the marketplace ECONOMICS** in business, the buying and selling of products *We have to learn to compete* ***in the*** *international* ***marketplace.*** **2** [C] an area in a town where there is a market

ˌmarket reˈsearch *noun* [U] the activity of finding out what people like about products and what new things they want to buy *a market research company*

ˌmarket ˈsegment *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** a group of customers or possible customers that have a particular characteristic *Our largest regional market segment is in Spain.*

ˈmarket ˌshare *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** the number of things that a company sells compared with the number of things of the same type that other companies sell

marking ˈout ˌtool *noun* [C] **DT** a tool used for putting a design onto a piece of wood or metal before cutting or shaping it

markings /ˈmɑːkɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] the shapes and colours on an animal or bird

mark-up /ˈmɑːkʌp/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the amount by which the price of something is increased before it is sold again *The usual mark-up on clothes is around 20%.*

marmalade /ˈmɑːməˡleɪd/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sweet, soft food made with oranges or lemons and often eaten on toast (= cooked bread)

maroon¹ /məˈruːn/ *noun* [U] a dark red-purple colour ●**maroon** *adjective* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

maroon² /məˈruːn/ *verb* **be marooned** to be left somewhere where you cannot get away

marquee /mɑːˈkiː/ *noun* [C] *UK* **1** TENT a large tent used for parties, shows, etc **2** SIGN *US* a large sign over a cinema or theatre that says what films or shows are playing

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***marriage***

sb's marriage **breaks up/fails** ● sb's marriage **to** sb ● a **happy** marriage

marriage /ˈmærɪdʒ/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY** [C, U] the legal relationship of a man and a woman being a husband and a wife *a* ***happy marriage*** **2 SOCIETY** [C] the ceremony where people become a husband and a wife *a marriage ceremony/certificate*

married /ˈmærɪd/ *adjective* **1 SOCIETY** A married man or woman has a wife or husband. *a* ***married couple*** ○ *She's been* ***married to*** *David for nearly ten years.* ○ *As far as I know, they're very* ***happily married.*** ➲Opposite **unmarried 2 get married SOCIETY** to begin a legal relationship with someone as their husband or wife *We got married last year.*

marrow /ˈmærəʊ/ *noun UK* **1 FOOD** [C, U] a large vegetable which has dark green skin and is white on the inside **2 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [U] (*also* **bone marrow**) the soft substance inside bones

marry /ˈmæri/ *verb* **1 SOCIETY** [I, T] to begin a legal relationship with someone as their husband or wife ***Will you marry me?*** ○ *He never married.* **2 SOCIETY** [T] to officially make people become a husband and a wife in a ceremony *We were married by our local vicar.*

Mars /mɑːz/ *noun* [no plural] **ASTRONOMY** the planet that is fourth from the Sun, after the Earth and before Jupiter ➲See picture at **solar system**

marsh /mɑːʃ/ *noun* [C, U] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of soft, wet land

marshal /ˈmɑːʃˡl/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON ORGANIZING someone who helps to organize or control a large public event *race marshals* **2** POLICE/FIRE OFFICER an important officer in police or fire departments in the US ➲See also: **field marshal**

marshmallow /ˌmɑːʃˈmæləʊ/ (US) /ˈmɑːrʃˌmæləʊ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a soft, white food made from sugar

marsupial /mɑːˈsuːpiəl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of mammal from Australasia or South or Central America which is not completely developed when it is born and is carried around in a pocket on the mother's body

martial art /ˌmɑːʃᵊlˈɑːt/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** traditional Japanese or Chinese skills of fighting, done as sports in western countries

martial law /ˌmɑːʃᵊlˈlɔː/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the control of a country by its army instead of by its usual leaders *to declare martial law*

Martian /ˈmɑːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] in stories, someone from the planet Mars

martyr /ˈmɑːtᵊr/ *noun* [C] someone who dies for their beliefs *a Catholic martyr* ●**martyrdom** *noun* [U]

marvel¹ /ˈmɑːvᵊl/ *noun* [C] something really surprising, exciting, or good *a marvel of modern technology*

marvel² /ˈmɑːvᵊl/ *verb* [I] *UK* **marvelling**, *past* **marvelled**, *US* **marveling**, *past* **marveled** to admire something very much *I'm just **marvelling at** your skills.*

marvellous *UK* (*US* **marvelous**) /ˈmɑːvᵊləs/ *adjective* extremely good *What a marvellous idea!* ●**marvellously** *UK* (*US* **marvelously**) *adverb*

Marxism /ˈmɑːksɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the political and economic ideas of Karl Marx

Marxist /ˈmɑːksɪst/ *adjective* **POLITICS** relating to Marxism *Marxist ideology* ●**Marxist** *noun* [C] someone who supports Marxism

mascara /mæsˈkɑːrə/ *noun* [U] a dark substance that you put on your eyelashes (= hairs that grow above and below your eyes) to make them look longer and thicker

mascot /ˈmæskɒt/ *noun* [C] a toy or a child that a person or a team takes with them to bring them luck *He's our **lucky mascot**.*

masculine /ˈmæskjəlɪn/ *adjective* **1** having qualities that are typical of men *a masculine appearance/voice* **2** **LANGUAGE** in some languages, belonging to a group of nouns or adjectives that have the same grammatical behaviour. The other groups are 'feminine' and 'neuter'.

masculinity /ˌmæskjəˈlɪnəti/ *noun* [U] the qualities that are typical of men

mash /mæʃ/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to crush food until it is soft *(UK) mashed potato/ (US) mashed potatoes*

mask¹ /mɑːsk/ *noun* [C] a covering for the face that protects, hides, or decorates the person wearing it ➲See also: **gas mask**

mask² /mɑːsk/ *verb* [T] to prevent something from being noticed *I've had to put some flowers in there to **mask** the **smell**.*

masked /mɑːskt/ *adjective* wearing a mask *a **masked gunman***

masochism /ˈmæsəkɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when people get pleasure from being hurt ●**masochist** *noun* [C] someone who gets pleasure from being hurt

masochistic /ˌmæsəˈkɪstɪk/ *adjective* getting pleasure from being hurt *masochistic behaviour*

masonry /ˈmeɪsᵊnri/ *noun* [U] the parts of a building that are made of bricks or stone

masquerade /ˌmæskᵊrˈeɪd/ *verb* **masquerade as sb/sth** *phrasal verb* to pretend to be someone or something *She's just a teacher masquerading as an academic.*

mass¹ /mæs/ *noun* **1** [C] a solid lump with no clear shape *The sauce was now a sticky mass in the bottom of the pan.* **2 a mass of sth** a large amount or number of something *She had a mass of blond curls.* **3** **MEASURES** [U] in physics, the amount of substance that something contains *One litre of water has a mass of one*

M

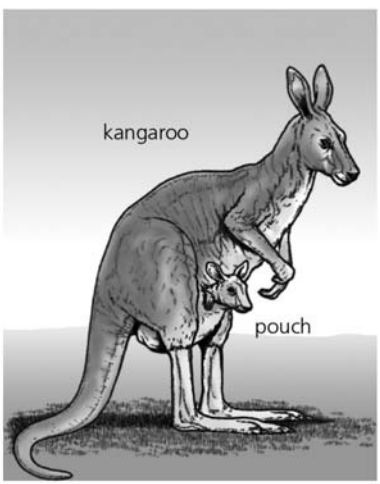

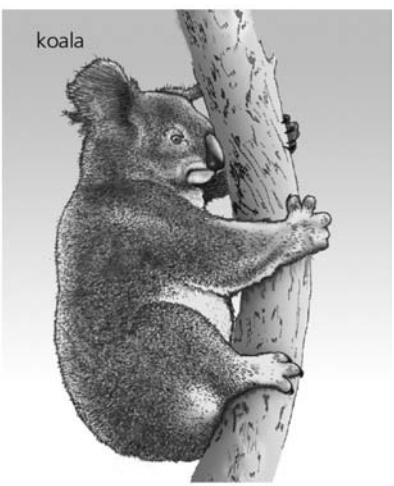

marsupials

kilogram. **4 masses** *informal* a large amount or number of something *I've got **masses of** work to do.* **5 the masses** the ordinary people who form the largest part of society *He failed to win the support of the masses.*

mass² /mæs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] involving a lot of people ***mass destruction/unemployment*** ○ *a **mass murderer***

mass³ /mæs/ *verb* [**I, T**] *formal* to come together somewhere in large numbers, or make people or things do this *Over 20,000 demonstrators massed in the town's main square.*

Mass, mass /mæs/ *noun* [**C, U**] **RELIGION** a religious ceremony in some Christian churches in which people eat bread and drink wine *to go to Mass*

massacre /ˈmæsəkəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] the killing of a lot of people *He ordered the massacre of over 2,000 women and children.* ●**massacre** *verb* [**T**] *Hundreds of civilians were massacred in the raid.*

massage /ˈmæsɑːdʒ/ (US) /məˈsɑːdʒ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **HEALTH** the activity of rubbing or pressing parts of someone's body in order to make them relax or to stop their muscles hurting *to **have** a **massage*** ○ *She **gave** me a foot **massage**.* ●**massage** *verb* [**T**] *Would you massage my shoulders?*

massive /ˈmæsɪv/ *adjective* very big *a massive building* ○ *massive debts*

mass-market /ˌmæsˈmɑːkɪt/ *adjective* describes something that is made to be sold to as many people as possible ●ˈ**mass ˌmarket** *noun* [**C**]

the ˌmass ˈmedia *noun* [**group**] newspapers, television, and radio

ˈ**mass ˌnumber** *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** the total number of protons and neutrons in an atom

mass-produce /ˌmæs.prəˈdjuːs/ *verb* [**T**] to produce a lot of goods cheaply using machines in a factory ●ˌ**mass proˈduction** *noun* [**U**]

mass spectrometer /ˌmæsspekˈtrɒmɪtəʳ/ (*also* **spectroscope**) *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment used by scientists to separate ions into groups to measure and compare their mass and charge (= amount of electricity)

mass spectrometry /ˌmæsspekˈtrɒmətri/ *noun* [**U**] **PHYSICS** a method used by scientists to measure and compare the mass and the charge (= amount of electricity) of ions

mast /mɑːst/ *noun* [**C**] **1** BOAT a tall pole on a boat that supports its sails **2** SIGNALS a tall metal pole that sends out television, radio or mobile phone signals

master¹ /ˈmɑːstəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** IN CHARGE In the past, a servant's master was the man that they worked for. **2 EDUCATION** *old-fashioned* a male teacher *the Latin master* **3** SKILL someone who does something very well *He was a **master of** disguise.* **4** FOR COPYING a document or recording from which copies can be made **5 Master of Arts/Science, etc EDUCATION** a higher university qualification which usually takes 1 or 2 more years of study after your first qualification, or a person who has this qualification **6 Master's (degree) EDUCATION** a higher university qualification *to study for a Master's degree* **7 Master** *formal* a title for a boy, used before his family name or full name *Master Thomas Mills*

master² /ˈmɑːstəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] to learn how to do something well ***to master a technique*** ○ *He lived for several years in Italy but never quite **mastered** the **language**.*

master³ /ˈmɑːstəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having the skills for a particular job ***a master chef/craftsman***

masterful /ˈmɑːstəfᵊl/ *adjective* done with great skill ***a masterful display** of golf*

mastermind /ˈmɑːstəmaɪnd/ *verb* [**T**] to plan every detail of a complicated event or activity and make sure that it happens *He allegedly masterminded both bomb attacks in the region.* ●**mastermind** *noun* [**C**] *It is thought he was the **mastermind behind*** (= the person who planned) last year's bombing campaign.

masterpiece /ˈmɑːstəpiːs/ *noun* [**C**] a painting, book, or film that is generally considered to be of excellent quality *'Mona Lisa' is widely regarded as Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece.*

mastery /ˈmɑːstᵊri/ *noun* **1 mastery of sth** great skill or understanding of something *his mastery of the Japanese language* **2 mastery of/over sth** control over something *The two countries battled for mastery over the region.*

masturbate /ˈmæstəbeɪt/ *verb* [**I**] to make yourself feel sexually excited by touching your sexual organs ●**masturbation** /ˌmæstəˈbeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**]

mat /mæt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** FLOOR a piece of thick material that you put on the floor, often in order to protect it *There's a mat by the door for you to wipe your feet on.* **2** TABLE a small piece of plastic or other material that you put on a table so that hot plates and liquid will not damage it

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***match***

play/lose/win a match ● a match **against** sb ● **in** a match

match¹ /mætʃ/ *noun* **1 SPORT** [**C**] a sports competition in which two people or teams compete against each other *a football/tennis match* **2** FIRE [**C**] a thin, wooden stick which produces a flame when you rub one end of it against a rough surface *a box of matches* **3** ATTRACTIVE [**no plural**] If something is a good match for something else, it looks attractive next to it, usually because it is the right colour. *The curtains look nice - they're a perfect **match for** the sofa.* **4** RELATIONSHIP [**no plural**] If two people who are having a relationship are a good match, they are very suitable for each other. **5 be no match for sb/sth** to not be as good as someone or something else *Gibson ran well but was no match for the young Italian.*

match² /mætʃ/ *verb* **1** BE THE SAME [**I, T**] If two things match, they are the same colour or type. *I can't find anything to match my green shirt.* ○ *Your socks don't match.* ○ *Traces of blood found on Walker's clothing matched the victim's blood type.* **2** CHOOSE [**T**] to choose someone or something that is suitable for a particular person, activity, or purpose *In the first exercise, you have to **match** the famous person*

to their country of origin. **3** BE AS GOOD AS [**T**] to be as good as someone or something else *It would be difficult to match the service this airline gives to its customers.*
match up *phrasal verb* If two pieces of information match up, they are the same. *Their accounts of what happened that evening didn't match up.*
match sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to choose someone or something that is suitable for a particular person, activity, or purpose *They look at your interests and try to* ***match*** *you* ***up with*** *someone suitable.*
match up to sth *phrasal verb* to be as good as something else *Nothing that he wrote after this point ever matched up to his early work.*

matchbox /ˈmætʃbɒks/ *noun* [**C**] a small box containing matches

matching /ˈmætʃɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having the same colour or pattern as something else *She wore purple shorts and a matching T-shirt.*

ˈmatching (ˌconcept) *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** a method used in a business's accounts where the money it receives in a certain period is compared with its costs for the same period

mate¹ /meɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** FRIEND *UK informal* a friend *She's my* ***best mate.*** ○ *Pete was there with a couple of mates.* **2** TALKING TO A MAN *UK informal* You call a man 'mate' when you are speaking to him informally. *Thanks, mate.* **3 BIOLOGY** an animal's sexual partner

mate² /meɪt/ *verb* [**I**] **BIOLOGY** When animals mate, they have sex in order to produce babies.

material¹ /məˈtɪəriəl/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [**C, U**] a solid substance from which things can be made *building materials* ○ *Crude oil is used as the* ***raw material*** *for making plastics.* **2** CLOTH [**C, U**] cloth for making clothes, curtains, etc *Her dress was made of a soft, silky material.* **3** INFORMATION [**U**] the facts or ideas in a piece of writing *I'm collecting material for an article that I'm writing.*

material² /məˈtɪəriəl/ *adjective* relating to money and possessions and not emotions or thoughts *the* ***material world***

materialism /məˈtɪəriəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] the belief that having money and possessions is the most important thing in life ●**materialistic** /məˌtɪəriəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* believing in materialism

materialize (*also UK* **-ise**) /məˈtɪəriəlaɪz/ *verb* [**I**] If something does not materialize, it does not happen. *She was promised a promotion but it never materialized.*

materials /məˈtɪəriəlz/ *noun* [**plural**] the equipment that you need for a particular activity *teaching/writing materials*

maternal /məˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** like a mother *I've never had much of a* ***maternal instinct*** (= wish to have children). **2 SOCIETY** [**always before noun**] A maternal relation is part of your mother's family. *He's my maternal grandfather.*

maternity /məˈtɜːnəti/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **HEALTH** related to pregnancy and birth ***maternity clothes***

maternity leave /məˈtɜːnəti ˌliːv/ *noun* [**U**] a period of weeks or months that a mother spends away from her usual job so that she can look after a new baby

math /mæθ/ *noun* [**U**] **MATHEMATICS** *US short for* mathematics

mathematical /ˌmæθᵊmˈætɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** relating to mathematics *a mathematical formula/equation* ●**mathematically** *adverb*

mathematician /ˌmæθᵊməˈtɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** someone who studies mathematics

mathematics /mæθᵊmˈætɪks/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* **MATHEMATICS** the study or science of numbers and shapes

maths /mæθs/ *noun* [**U**] **MATHEMATICS** *UK short for* mathematics

matinée /ˈmætɪneɪ/ (US) /mætəˈneɪ/ *noun* [**C**] an afternoon performance of a play or film

matrimony /ˈmætrɪməni/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* **SOCIETY** the state of being married

matrix /ˈmeɪtrɪks/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **matrixes** or **matrices** **MATHEMATICS** a group of numbers or other symbols arranged in a rectangle which can be used together to solve particular mathematical problems

matron /ˈmeɪtrᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] **1 HEALTH** *UK old-fashioned* a female nurse in a school, or a female nurse who is in charge of other nurses in a hospital **2** WOMAN *US* a married woman, especially one who is old or a widow (= woman whose husband has died) **3** PRISON/SCHOOL *US* a woman who is a manager at some hospitals, schools, prisons, etc

matt *UK* (*US* **matte**) /mæt/ *adjective* not shiny *a matt photograph* ○ *matt paint*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***matter***

consider/discuss/pursue/raise/resolve a matter ● **on** the matter (of sth)

matter¹ /ˈmætəʳ/ *noun* **1** SUBJECT [**C**] a subject or situation that you need to think about, discuss, or deal with *I've been thinking about this matter for a long time.* ○ *He denied any knowledge of the matter.* ○ ***To make matters worse,*** *our car broke down!* **2 PHYSICS** [**U**] the physical substances that exist in the universe **3** TYPE OF THING [**U**] a particular type of substance or thing *vegetable matter* ○ *printed matter* **4 what's the matter** used to ask or talk about the reason for a problem *What's the matter with your leg?* **5 there's something/nothing the matter** used to say that there is/is not a problem ***There's something the matter with*** *the washing machine.* **6 a matter of days/weeks/feet, etc** used in expressions describing how small an amount or period of time is *The aircraft missed each other by a matter of feet.* **7 a matter of confidence/luck/waiting, etc** If something is a matter of confidence/luck/waiting, etc, that is what you need for it to happen. *Learning languages is just a matter of hard work.* **8 no matter how/what/when, etc** used to emphasize that something cannot be changed

I never manage to lose any weight, no matter how hard I try. **9 as a matter of fact** used to emphasize that something is true, especially when it is surprising *As a matter of fact, I used to live next door to him.* **10 a matter of course** If something happens as a matter of course, it always happens as part of the normal process or system. *Babies were tested for the disease as a matter of course.* **11 a matter of life and/or death** a serious situation where people could die *Getting water to these people is a matter of life and death.* **12 it's only a matter of time** If you say that it is only a matter of time before something happens, you are sure it will happen but you do not know when. **13 be no laughing matter** If a subject is no laughing matter, it is serious and not something that people should joke about. ➲See also: **subject matter**

matter² /ˈmætəʳ/ *verb* [I] to be important, or to affect what happens *It doesn't* ***matter to*** *me whether he comes or not.* ○ *"I've forgotten to bring your book back." "It doesn't matter - there's no hurry."*

matter-of-fact /ˌmætərəvˈfækt/ *adjective* not showing emotion when you talk about something *a* ***matter-of-fact tone/manner*** ●**matter-of-factly** *adverb*

matting /ˈmætɪŋ/ *noun* [U] strong, rough material for covering floors

mattress /ˈmætrəs/ *noun* [C] the soft, comfortable part of a bed that you lie on

mature¹ /məˈtjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** AGE completely grown or developed *sexually mature* ○ *mature trees* **2** BEHAVIOUR Mature people behave like adults in a way which shows they are well developed emotionally. *She seems very mature for thirteen.* ➲Opposite **immature**

mature² /məˈtjʊəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** AGE to become completely grown or developed **2** BEHAVIOUR to start to behave in a more mature way *Girls mature sooner than boys.* **3 FINANCE** If an investment (= money you have given to a bank or a company in order to make a profit) matures, you receive the money you have made from it.

maˌture ˈstudent *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a college or university student who is older than the usual age

maturity /məˈtjʊərəti/ *noun* [U] **1** BEHAVIOUR the quality of behaving like an adult, in a way which shows that you are well developed emotionally *She shows remarkable maturity for a child of 13.* **2** AGE when someone or something is completely grown or developed *Penguins* ***reach maturity*** *in late summer.*

maul /mɔːl/ *verb* [T] **1** INJURE If you are mauled by an animal, you are injured by its teeth or claws (= the sharp parts of its feet). [**often passive**] *He was mauled by a lion.* **2** CRITICIZE to criticize someone or something very badly [**often passive**] *His film was mauled by critics.*

mausoleum /ˌmɔːsəˈliːəm/ *noun* [C] a building where dead people are buried

mauve /məʊv/ *noun* [U] a pale purple colour ●**mauve** *adjective*

maverick /ˈmævʳɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who thinks and behaves in an unusual way *a maverick cop/politician*

max¹ /mæks/ *adjective* **1** AMOUNT *informal* maximum (= the largest amount allowed or possible), often used after numbers *The trip should take 30 minutes max.* **2 to the max** *informal* as much as possible *He lived life to the max.*

max² *verb*
max out *phrasal verb informal* to use all that is available of something, especially money *We maxed out our credit cards when we bought all that new furniture.*

maxim /ˈmæksɪm/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a phrase which gives advice *Our company works on the maxim that small is beautiful.*

maximize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmæksɪmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to increase something as much as you can *to maximize profits*

maximum¹ /ˈmæksɪməm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] The maximum amount of something is the largest amount that is allowed or possible. *the maximum temperature/speed* ➲Opposite **minimum**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***maximum***

reach a maximum ● a maximum **of** [10/50%, etc] ● **up to** a maximum [of 10/50%, etc]

maximum² /ˈmæksɪməm/ *noun* [**no plural**] the largest amount that is allowed or possible *The school has* ***a maximum of*** *30 students per class.*

may /meɪ/ *modal verb* **1** POSSIBLE used to talk about what is possibly true or will possibly happen *There may be other problems that we don't know about.* ○ *I think I may have a cold.* **2** PERMISSION *formal* used to ask or give permission *May I be excused, please?* ○ *You may begin.* **3 may (well) ... but** used to show that the first thing you say is not important when compared to another fact *It may be cheap but it's not very good.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

may be or maybe?

May be is written as two separate words when **be** is used as a verb. Here **may** is being used as a modal verb.

I may be late this evening.

~~*I maybe late this evening.*~~

Maybe is an adverb, and is written as one word.

Maybe we should do it tomorrow.

~~*May be we should do it tomorrow.*~~

May /meɪ/ *noun* [C, U] the fifth month of the year

maybe /ˈmeɪbi/ *adverb* **1** POSSIBLY possibly *Maybe we're too early.* ○ *It could take a month, or maybe more, to complete.* **2** SUGGEST used to suggest something *Maybe Ted would like to go.*

mayhem /ˈmeɪhem/ *noun* [U] a situation in which there is no order or control *With five kids running around, it was complete mayhem.*

mayonnaise /ˌmeɪəˈneɪz/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a thick, cold, white sauce that is made from eggs and oil

mayor /meər/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the person who is elected to be the leader of the group that governs a town or city

maze /meɪz/ *noun* [C] a complicated system of paths where you can easily become lost

MB **COMPUTING** *written abbreviation for* megabyte (= a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store) *This program needs 8 MB of hard-disk space.*

MBA /ˌembiːˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Master of Business Administration: an advanced degree in business, or a person who has this degree *a Harvard MBA*

McCoy /məˈkɔɪ/ *noun* **the real McCoy** *informal* the real thing, and not a copy or something similar *Cheap sparkling wines cannot be labelled 'champagne' - it has to be the real McCoy.*

MD /ˌemˈdi/ **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Doctor of Medicine

me /miː/ *pronoun* used after a verb or preposition to refer to the person who is speaking or writing *She gave me some money.* ○ *She never gave it to me.* ○ *Lydia is three years younger than me.* ○ *It wasn't me!*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

me or I?

Me is used after 'than', 'as', or 'be'. It would sound very formal if you used **I**.

She's taller than me.

David is not as tall as me.

"Who's there?" "It's me."

~~*"Who's there?" "It's I."*~~

Sometimes **me** is used with another noun as the subject of a sentence, especially in informal English.

Jane and me went to the cinema yesterday. (informal)

Jane and I went to the cinema yesterday.

meadow /ˈmedəʊ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a field of grass, often with flowers

meagre *UK* (*US* **meager**) /ˈmiːgər/ *adjective* not enough in amount *a meagre ration/salary*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***meal***

cook/eat/have/prepare a meal ● a [two/three, etc.] **course** meal

meal /miːl/ *noun* [C] **1** when you eat, or the food that you eat at that time *a three-course meal* **2 make a meal of sth** *UK* to spend more time and energy doing something than is necessary *A simple apology will do. There's no need to make a meal of it!* ➲See also: a **square²** meal

mealtime /ˈmiːltaɪm/ *noun* [C] when you eat *These days I only see him at mealtimes.*

mean¹ /miːn/ *verb* [T] *past* **meant** /ment/ **1** MEANING to have a particular meaning *What does 'perpendicular' mean?* ○ *The red light means stop.* **2** EXPRESS to intend to express a fact or opinion *I didn't* ***mean*** *that* ***as*** *a criticism.* ○ *What exactly do you* ***mean by*** *'old-fashioned'?* **3 mean to do sth** to intend to do something *I didn't mean to hurt her.* **4** RESULT to have a particular result *These changes will mean better health care for everyone.* [+ **(that)**] *It doesn't mean that you can stop working.* **5** SERIOUS to be serious about something that you have said *I'll take that sandwich away if you don't eat it properly - I* ***mean it!*** **6** IMPORTANT to have an important emotional effect on someone *You don't know what it* ***means to*** *me to get this letter.* ○ *Their support has* ***meant a lot*** *to us.* **7 have been meaning to do sth** to have been wanting and planning to do something *I've been meaning to call you for weeks.* **8 be meant to do sth** If you are meant to do something, that is what you should do in order to behave correctly. *You're meant to shake the bottle first.* **9 mean well** to intend to behave in a kind way *I know my parents mean well, but I wish they wouldn't interfere.* **10 I mean a** CONTINUING SENTENCE something that people often say before they continue their sentence *I mean, I don't dislike her.* **b** CORRECTING YOURSELF something that you say in order to correct yourself *We went there in May - I mean June.*

mean² /miːn/ *adjective* **1** UNKIND unkind and unpleasant *I thought my sister was being* ***mean to*** *me.* **2** NOT GENEROUS *mainly UK* A mean person does not like spending money, especially on other people. *He's too mean to buy her a ring.* **3** VIOLENT *mainly US* A mean person or animal is strong and violent, and makes people frightened. *He's a big, mean guy.* **4** GOOD [**always before noun**] *informal* very good *I make a mean spaghetti.* **5 MATHEMATICS** [**always before noun**] In maths, a mean number is an average number. *Their mean age at death was 84.6.* **6 no mean** used to describe something very difficult *Setting up a business in two days was* ***no mean feat*** (= was a difficult thing to do).

mean³ /miːn/ *noun* [**no plural**] *formal* **MATHEMATICS** the average

meander /miˈændər/ *verb* **1 meander along/around/through, etc** If a river, a road, or a line of something meanders, it has many curves. *The coast road meanders along the beach for miles.* ➲See picture at **oxbow lake 2 meander around/from/off, etc** to move around with no clear purpose *We meandered around town for a couple of hours.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***meaning***

different/hidden/precise/real/true meaning ● **convey/explain/grasp/understand** the meaning of sth

meaning /ˈmiːnɪŋ/ *noun* **1** EXPRESS [**C, U**] The meaning of words, signs, or actions is what they express or represent. *The word 'squash' has several meanings.* ○ *The meaning of her gesture was clear.* **2** PURPOSE [**U, no plural**] purpose or emotional importance *She felt that her life had no meaning.*

meaningful /ˈmiːnɪŋfʳl/ *adjective* **1** USEFUL useful, serious, or important *a meaningful discussion* **2** WITH MEANING having a clear meaning which people can understand *a meaningful comparison/conclusion* **3** LOOK intended to show a meaning, often secretly *a* ***meaningful look*** ●**meaningfully** *adverb*

meaningless /ˈmiːnɪŋləs/ *adjective* without any meaning or purpose *He produced yet another set of meaningless statistics.*

M

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***means***

(as) a means of (doing) sth ● the means **by which** sth happens/sb does sth

means /miːnz/ *noun* **1** METHOD [C] *plural* **means** a way of doing something *We had no **means of** communication.* ○ *It was a means of making money.* **2** MONEY [**plural**] money *We don't have the means to buy the house.* **3 by no means; not by any means** not at all *I'm not an expert by any means.* **4 by all means** something that you say when you are agreeing to let someone do something *I have a copy of the report on my desk. By all means have a look at it.*

means-tested /ˈmiːnztestɪd/ *adjective mainly UK* If an amount of money or an activity such as education is means-tested, it is only given to people who are poor enough. *means-tested benefits*

meant /ment/ *past of* mean

meantime /ˈmiːn,taɪm/ *noun* **in the meantime** in the time between two things happening, or while something else is happening *Your computer won't be arriving till Friday. In the meantime, you can use Julie's.*

meanwhile /ˈmiːn,waɪl/ *adverb* in the time between two things happening, or while something else is happening *The mother is ill. The child, meanwhile, is living with foster parents.*

measles /ˈmiːzlz/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an infectious disease which covers your skin in small, red spots ➲See also: **German measles**

measurable /ˈmeʒʳrəbl/ *adjective* If something is measurable, it is big enough to be measured. *Extra training has led to measurable improvements in performance.* ➲Opposite **immeasurable**

measure¹ /ˈmeʒəʳ/ *verb* **1** JUDGE [T] to judge the quality, effect, importance, or value of something *We will soon be able to measure the results of these policy changes.* ○ *They measured the performance of three different engines.* **2** FIND SIZE [T] to find the size, weight, amount, or speed of something *I've measured all the windows.* ○ *The distances were **measured in** kilometres.* **3** BE SIZE [I] to be a certain size *a whale measuring around 60 feet in length*
measure sth out *phrasal verb* to weigh or measure a small amount of something and remove it from a larger amount *Use a hot spoon to measure out honey into a bowl.*
measure up *phrasal verb* to be good enough, or as good as something or someone else *He did not **measure up to** the requirements of the job.*

measure² /ˈmeʒəʳ/ *noun* **1** METHOD [C] a way of achieving something or dealing with a situation *This arrangement is only a **temporary measure**.* ○ *We must **take** preventative **measures** to stop the spread of the disease.* ○ ***security measures*** **2 a measure of sth** a good way of judging something *Ticket sales are not necessarily a measure of the show's popularity.* **3 a/some measure of sth** *formal* an amount of something *Bulletproof vests give some measure of protection.* **4** SIZE [U] a way of measuring something *The basic units of measure we use are distance, time, and mass.* **5 for good measure** as well as something you have already done or given to someone *They stole his passport and wallet, and for good measure beat him unconscious.* ➲See also: **tape measure**

measurement /ˈmeʒəmənt/ *noun* **1** PROCESS [U] the process of measuring something **2** SIZE [C] the size and shape of something *I've **taken measurements** of all the rooms.* **3** WAY OF MEASURING [U] a way of measuring something *SI units are the standard **units of measurement** used all over the world.*

meat /miːt/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** muscles and other soft parts of animals, used as food *I don't eat meat.* ○ ***red/white meat*** ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

mecca /ˈmekə/ *noun* [**no plural**] a place where particular groups of people like to go because they feel happy there *His Indiana bookstore became **a mecca for** writers and artists.*

mechanic /mɪˈkænɪk/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to repair machines *a car mechanic*

mechanical /mɪˈkænɪkʰl/ *adjective* **1** MACHINE relating to or operated by machines *a mechanical engineer* ○ *a mechanical device* **2** BEHAVIOUR If you do something in a mechanical way, you do it without emotion or without thinking about it. *a mechanical performance* ●**mechanically** *adverb*

me,chanical di'gestion *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the parts of the process of digestion where food is broken up by being bitten and chewed

mechanics /mɪˈkænɪks/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the study of physical forces on objects and their movement

mechanism /ˈmekənɪzʰm/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF EQUIPMENT a part of a piece of equipment that does a particular job *The clock's winding mechanism had broken.* **2** SYSTEM a system for achieving something, or the way that a system works *We need a **mechanism for** resolving this sort of dispute.*

mechanized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈmekənaɪzd/ *adjective* A mechanized organization or activity uses machines. *mechanized farming/production*

medal /ˈmedʰl/ *noun* [C] a metal disc given as a prize in a competition or given to someone who has been very brave *a bronze medal* ○ *an **Olympic medal*** ➲See also: **gold medal, silver medal**

medallist *UK* (*US* **medalist**) /ˈmedʰlɪst/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who has received a medal in a sports event *an **Olympic medallist***

meddle /ˈmedl/ *verb* [I] to try to influence people or change things that are not your responsibility *He's always **meddling in** other people's business.*

the media /ˈmiːdiə/ *noun* [**group**] television, newspapers, magazines, and radio considered as a group ***media coverage/attention*** ○ *The issue has been much discussed **in the media**.* ➲See also: **the mass media**

mediaeval /medɪˈiːvʰl/ *adjective another spelling of* medieval (= relating to the period in Europe between about AD 500 and AD 1500)

median /ˈmiːdiən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **MATHEMATICS** relating to the middle number or amount in a series *the median age/income*

mediate /ˈmiːdieɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to try to find a solution between two or more people who disagree about something *Negotiators were called in to **mediate between** the two sides.* ●**mediation** /ˌmiːdiˈeɪʃ°n/ *noun* [U]

mediator /ˈmiːdieɪtə°/ *noun* [C] someone who mediates between people who disagree about something

medic /ˈmedɪk/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** HEALTH a medical student or doctor **2** HEALTH *US* someone who does medical work in a military organization

medical¹ /ˈmedɪk°l/ *adjective* HEALTH relating to medicine and different ways of curing illness ***medical treatment*** ○ ***a medical student*** ○ *She has a **medical condition** that makes it hard for her to work.* ●**medically** *adverb*

medical² /ˈmedɪk°l/ *UK* (*US* **physical**) *noun* [C] HEALTH an examination of your body by a doctor to find out if you are healthy

medicated /ˈmedɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* HEALTH A medicated substance contains medicine. *medicated soap*

medication /ˌmedɪˈkeɪʃ°n/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH medicine that is used to treat an illness *He's **on medication** to control his depression.*

medicinal /məˈdɪsɪn°l/ *adjective* HEALTH Medicinal substances are used to cure illnesses. *I keep some brandy for **medicinal purposes**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***medicine***

take medicine ● a medicine **for** sth

medicine /ˈmedɪs°n/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C, U] a substance used to cure an illness or injury *cough medicine* ○ *Have you **taken** your **medicine** today?* **2** HEALTH [U] the science of curing and preventing illness and injury *to study medicine* ○ *western/Chinese medicine*

medieval (*also* **mediaeval**) /ˌmediˈiːv°l/ *adjective* relating to the period in Europe between about AD 500 and AD 1500 *medieval literature/art*

mediocre /ˌmiːdiˈəʊkə°/ *adjective* not good in quality *The acting was mediocre.* ●**mediocrity** /ˌmiːdiˈɒkrəti/ *noun* [U]

meditate /ˈmedɪteɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** RELAX to think calm thoughts for a long period in order to relax or as a religious activity *I meditate twice a day.* **2** THINK *formal* to think seriously about something *He **meditated on** the consequences of his decision.* ●**meditation** /ˌmedɪˈteɪʃ°n/ *noun* [U] *Let's spend a few moments **in** quiet **meditation**.*

the Mediterranean /ˌmedɪt°rˈeɪniən/ *noun* the sea that has southern Europe, northern Africa, and the Middle East around it, or the countries around this sea ●**Mediterranean** *adjective a Mediterranean climate/island*

medium¹ /ˈmiːdiəm/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS in the middle of a group of different amounts or sizes *people of medium weight* ○ *She bought a **medium-sized** car.* ○ *The shirt comes in small, medium, and large.*

medium² /ˈmiːdiəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **media** or **mediums** a way of communicating or expressing something *the medium of television/radio* ○ *The Internet has become yet another **medium for** marketing.*

medium-term /ˈmiːdiəmˌtɜːm/ *adjective* continuing into the future for a time that is neither short nor long *The medium-term outlook remains favourable.*

medley /ˈmedli/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a mixture of different items, especially songs *She sang **a medley of** show tunes.*

medulla oblongata /meˌdʌləbɒŋˈgɑːtə/ *noun* [C usually singular] *plural* **medulla oblongatas** or **medullae oblongatae** ANATOMY the lowest part of the brain, that controls the way the heart works, breathing, etc. ➲See picture at **brain**

meek /miːk/ *adjective* Someone who is meek is quiet and does not argue with others. ●**meekly** *adverb*

meet¹ /miːt/ *verb past* **met** /met/ **1** COME TOGETHER [I, T] to come to the same place as someone else by arrangement or by chance *We met for coffee last Sunday.* ○ *I met my old English teacher while trekking in the Alps.* ○ *Each student **meets with** an adviser at the start of the school year.* **2** INTRODUCE [I, T] to see and speak to someone for the first time *I've always wanted to meet a movie star.* ○ *"This is Helen." "Pleased to meet you."* ➲See Common Learner Error at **know** **3** GROUP [I] If a group of people meet, they come to a place in order to do something. *The shareholders meet once a year to discuss profits.* **4** PLACE [T] to wait at a place for someone or something to arrive *They met me at the airport.* **5** ENOUGH [T] to be a big enough amount or of a good enough quality for something *This old building will never meet the new fire regulations.* ○ *Can your product **meet** the **needs** of a wide range of consumers?* **6** ACHIEVE [T] to be able to achieve something *He **met** every **goal** he set for himself.* ○ *to **meet** a **deadline*** **7** JOIN [I, T] to join something *There's a large crack where the ceiling meets the wall.* ➲See also: make ends (**end**¹) meet

meet up *phrasal verb* **1** MEET SOMEONE to meet another person in order to do something together *I **met up with** a few friends yesterday.* **2** ROADS/PATHS JOIN If roads or paths meet up, they join at a particular place. *This path **meets up with** the main road.*

meet with sth *phrasal verb* to cause a particular reaction or result *Both proposals have met with fierce opposition.* ○ *formal* I trust the arrangements ***meet with your approval*** (= I hope that you like them).

meet² /miːt/ *noun* [C] SPORT *US* a sports competition *a swim/track meet* ○ *His final jump set a new **meet record**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***meeting***

arrange/attend/chair/convene/have/hold a meeting ● an **emergency/private/recent/urgent** meeting ● a meeting **between** sb ● be **in** a meeting

meeting /ˈmiːtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** an event where people come together for a reason, usually to discuss something *We're **having a meeting** on Thursday to discuss the problem.* ○ *He's **in a meeting** - I'll ask him to call you back later.* **2** SPORT *UK* a sporting competition *an international meeting*

M

mega- /ˈmegə-/ *prefix* **1** *informal* extremely *megarich* (= extremely rich) **2** **MEASURES** one million *40 megabytes*

megabyte /ˈmegəbaɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **MB**) *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store, equal to 1,000,000 bytes

megahertz /ˈmegəhɜːts/ (*written abbreviation* **MHz**) *noun* [**C**] *plural* **megahertz** **MEASURES** a unit of measurement of sound waves which is equal to a million hertz

megaphone /ˈmegəfəʊn/ *noun* [**C**] a thing that you hold in your hand and speak into to make your voice louder

megapixel /ˈmegəˌpɪksᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** one million pixels (= small points that form part of the image on a computer screen), used to describe the amount of detail in images made by a digital camera, computer screen, etc

megawatt /ˈmegəwɒt/ *noun* [**C**] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring electrical power, equal to 1,000,000 watts

meiosis /maɪˈəʊsɪs/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the type of cell division in which one cell divides into four gametes (= male or female cells that join to form an organism), each with a different mixture of chromosomes and half the number contained in the original cell ➲Compare **mitosis**

melancholy /ˈmelənkɒli/ *adjective formal* sad *a melancholy expression* ●**melancholy** *noun* [**U**] *formal* a feeling of sadness

melanin /ˈmelənɪn/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** a substance in the skin and hair that makes the skin go darker in the sun

melanoma /ˌmeləˈnəʊmə/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a type of skin cancer (= a serious disease) that appears as a coloured mark on the skin

melatonin /meləˈtəʊnɪn/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** a hormone (= chemical that controls the body's growth and development) in the body which produces changes in skin colour

melee /ˈmeleɪ/ *noun* [**C**] a situation where many people are behaving in a noisy, confused, and sometimes violent way ***In the melee*** *his jaw was broken.*

mellow¹ /ˈmeləʊ/ *adjective* **1** PLEASANT pleasant and soft *a mellow voice* ○ *a mellow flavour/wine* **2** CALM calm and relaxed *After a few drinks, he became very mellow.*

mellow² /ˈmeləʊ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become more relaxed and gentle, or to make someone become more relaxed and gentle *Age has mellowed him.*

melodic /məˈlɒdɪk/ *adjective* **MUSIC** Melodic music has a pleasant tune, and melodic sounds are pleasant and like music.

melodrama /ˈmeləʊˌdrɑːmə/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LITERATURE** a story in which the characters show much stronger emotions than in real life

melodramatic /ˌmeləʊdrəˈmætɪk/ *adjective* showing much stronger emotions than are necessary for a situation *Don't be so melodramatic! It's only a scratch.*

melody /ˈmelədi/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a song or tune

melon /ˈmelən/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a large, round, sweet fruit with a thick, green or yellow skin and a lot of seeds ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

melt /melt/ *verb* **1** **PHYSICS** [**I, T**] If something melts, it changes from a solid into a liquid because of heat and if you melt something, you heat it until it becomes liquid. *The sun soon melted the ice on the pond.* ○ *The chocolate had melted in my pocket.* ○ *melted cheese* **2** [**I**] to start to feel love or sympathy, especially after feeling angry *When he smiles at me, I just melt.* ➲See also: **butter¹** wouldn't melt in sb's mouth
melt away *phrasal verb* to disappear *Then I saw her and all my fears just melted away.*
melt sth down *phrasal verb* If you melt something down, especially a metal object, you heat it until it changes to liquid.

meltdown /ˈmeltdaʊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** FAILURE *informal* a situation of complete failure and no control ***economic meltdown*** **2** NUCLEAR POWER a serious accident in which nuclear fuel melts through its container and escapes into the environment

ˈmelting ˌpoint *noun* [**C usually singular**] **MEASURES** the temperature at which a substance melts

ˈmelting ˌpot *noun* [**C**] a place where people of many different races and from different countries live together

meltwater /ˈmeltwɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOGRAPHY** water made from melted snow or ice

member /ˈmembəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a person who belongs to a group or an organization ***family/staff members*** ○ *He was a member of the university rowing club.*

ˌMember of ˈParliament *noun* [**C**] *plural* **Members of Parliament** **POLITICS** a person who has been elected to represent people in their country's parliament

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***membership***

apply for membership ● membership **of/in** sth ● a membership **card/fee**

membership /ˈmembəʃɪp/ *noun* **1** BELONGING [**C, U**] the state of belonging to a group or an organization *I've **applied for membership** of the union.* ○ *a **membership card/fee*** **2** PEOPLE [**group**] the people who belong to a group or an organization *Union membership is now over three million and rising.*

membrane /ˈmembreɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a thin sheet of tissue that covers some parts inside the body in order to protect, connect or separate them ➲See picture at **cell** ➲See picture at **egg**

memento /mɪˈmentəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **mementos** or **mementoes** an object that you keep to remember a person, place, or event

memo /ˈmeməʊ/ *noun* [**C**] a written message sent from one member of an organization to another

memoirs /ˈmemwɑːz/ *noun* [**plural**] a written story of a person's own life and experiences

memorabilia /ˌmemᵊrəˈbɪliə/ *noun* [**plural**] objects relating to famous people or events that people collect *an auction of pop memorabilia*

memorable /ˈmemᵊrəbl/ *adjective* If an occasion is memorable, you will remember it for a long time because it is so good. *a memorable performance* ●**memorably** *adverb*

memorandum /ˌmemᵊrˈændəm/ *noun plural* **memoranda** *formal* a memo

memorial /məˈmɔːriəl/ *noun* [C] an object, often made of stone, that is built to help people remember an important person or event *a **war memorial*** ○ *a **memorial service***

memorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmemᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to learn something so that you remember it exactly *I've memorized all my friends' birthdays.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***memory***

have a **bad /good** memory ● **have** a [good, amazing, etc] memory **for** sth ● a **photographic** memory

O-W **memory** /ˈmemᵊri/ *noun* **1** ABILITY [C, U] your ability to remember *John has an amazing **memory for** historical facts.* ○ *She had a **photographic memory*** (= was able to remember every detail). **2** THOUGHT [C] something that you remember [**usually plural**] *I have fond **memories of** my childhood.* **3** MIND [C, U] the part of your mind that stores what you remember *He recited the poem **from memory**.* **4 in memory of sb** If you do something in memory of a dead person, you do it to show your respect or love for them. *They built a statue in memory of those who died in the fire.* **5 COMPUTING** [C, U] the part of a computer where information and instructions are stored, or the amount of information that can be stored there *You need 32 megabytes of memory to run this software.*

ˈ**memory ˌcard** *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a device for storing information in computers or digital cameras

ˈ**Memory ˌStick** *noun* [C] *trademark* **COMPUTING** a small electronic device designed to store information that can be put into a computer, mobile phone, etc

men /men/ *plural of* man

menace¹ /ˈmenɪs/ *noun* **1** DANGER [C] something that is likely to cause harm [**usually singular**] *Drunk drivers are **a menace to** everyone.* **2** QUALITY [U] a dangerous quality that makes you think someone is going to do something bad *His eyes were cold and filled with menace.*

menace² /ˈmenɪs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to cause harm to someone or something, or be likely to cause harm *Hurricane Bonnie continues to menace the east coast.*

menacing /ˈmenɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* making you think that someone is going to do something bad *a menacing gesture/voice*

mend¹ /mend/ *verb* [T] to repair something that is broken, torn, or not working correctly *I've mended that hole in your skirt for you.*

mend² /mend/ *noun* **be on the mend** **HEALTH** *informal* If you are on the mend, your health is improving after an illness.

mendacious /menˈdeɪʃəs/ *adjective formal* not telling the truth

menial /ˈmiːniəl/ *adjective* Menial work is boring, and not well paid or respected. *a **menial job/task***

meninges /məˈnɪndʒiːz/ *noun* [**plural**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the three membranes (= thin layers) that surround the brain and the spinal cord (= nerves inside the spine that connect to the brain)

meningitis /ˌmenɪnˈdʒaɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious infectious disease that affects a person's brain and spinal cord (= the nerves in your back)

meniscus /məˈnɪskəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **menisci** or **menisci 1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a curved piece of cartilage (= strong elastic substance) inside a place where two bones are connected in the body such as the knee **2** on a liquid, a surface that curves either out or in as a result of surface tension (= the way the surface is held tight) ➲See picture at **potometer**

menopause /ˈmenəʊpɔːz/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the time, usually between the ages of 45 and 55, when a woman gradually stops having periods (= monthly blood from the uterus)

Menshevik /ˈmenʃəvɪk/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a supporter of a political group formed in Russia in 1903 when it broke away from Lenin and the Bolsheviks ●**Menshevik** *adjective*

ˈ**men's ˌroom** *noun* [C] *US* a room in a public place where there are men's toilets ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

menstrual /ˈmenstruəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* **BIOLOGY** relating to menstruating *a **menstrual cycle***

menstruate /ˈmenstrueɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* **BIOLOGY** to have a monthly flow of blood from the uterus ●**menstruation** /ˌmenstruˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

mensuration /ˌmenʃᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *formal* **MEASURES** the act or process of measuring

O-W **mental** /ˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the mind, or involving the process of thinking ***mental health/illness*** ●**mentally** *adverb a **mentally ill** person*

mentality /menˈtæləti/ *noun* [C] a person's opinions or way of thinking *I can't understand the mentality of people who hunt animals for fun.*

O-W **mention¹** /ˈmenʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] **1** to briefly speak or write about something or someone *I'll mention your ideas to Caroline.* ○ *She didn't mention her daughter.* [**+ (that)**] *He mentioned that he liked skydiving.* **2 not to mention** used to emphasize the importance of something that you are adding to a list *The resort has great hotels and restaurants, not to mention some of the best skiing in the region.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

mention

No preposition is normally needed after the verb **mention**.

He didn't mention the price.

~~*He didn't mention about the price.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mention (noun)***

deserve/get/be worth a mention ● **make no** mention **of** sth ● a **brief/passing/special** mention ● mention **of** sth

M

mention² /ˈmenʃ°n/ *noun* [C] a brief remark *The report* ***made no mention of*** *the problem.*

mentor /ˈmentɔːr/ *noun* [C] *formal* an experienced person who gives help and advice to someone with less experience

menu /ˈmenjuː/ *noun* [C] **1** a list of food and drinks that you can order in a restaurant *a lunch/dinner menu* ○ *I ordered the most expensive thing* ***on the menu*** (= available in the restaurant). **2** COMPUTING a list that appears on a computer screen of the choices available in a computer program *a* ***pop-up menu***

ˈmenu ˌbar *noun* [C] COMPUTING a long, narrow area, usually at the top of a computer screen, that contains computer menus

ˈmenu ˌoption *noun* [C] COMPUTING one of the choices on a computer menu

meow /miːˈaʊ/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* miaow (= the sound that a cat makes)

MEP /ˌemiːˈpiː/ *noun* [C] POLITICS *abbreviation for* Member of European Parliament: a person who represents an area of a European country in the European Parliament *the MEP for Glasgow*

mercenary¹ /ˈmɜːs°n°ri/ *noun* [C] a soldier who fights for any country or organization who pays them

mercenary² /ˈmɜːs°n°ri/ *adjective* interested only in getting money or an advantage from a situation

merchandise /ˈmɜːtʃ°ndaɪz/ *noun* [U] *formal* goods that are traded, or sold in shops *We stock a broad range of merchandise.*

merchandising /ˈmɜːtʃ°ndaɪzɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the selling of products relating to films, television programmes, and famous people

merchant¹ /ˈmɜːtʃ°nt/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone whose job is buying and selling goods, usually in large amounts *a wine/grain merchant*

merchant² /ˈmɜːtʃ°nt/ *adjective* [always before noun] relating to trading of large amounts of goods *a merchant ship/seaman*

ˌmerchant ˈbank *noun* [C] ECONOMICS a bank that organizes investments in companies or lends money to them ●**merchant banker** *noun* [C]

mercifully /ˈmɜːsɪf°li/ *adverb informal* used to show that you are pleased that something unpleasant has been avoided *Her illness was mercifully short.*

merciless /ˈmɜːsɪləs/ *adjective* cruel, or showing no kindness *a merciless attack* ○ *She was merciless in her criticism of his work.* ●**mercilessly** *adverb*

Mercury /ˈmɜːkj°ri/ *noun* [no plural] ASTRONOMY the planet that is closest to the Sun, before Venus ➲See picture at **solar system**

mercury /ˈmɜːkj°ri/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a heavy, silver-coloured metal that is liquid at ordinary temperatures (formula **Hg**)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mercy***

ask for/beg for/plead for mercy ● **show (no)** mercy

mercy /ˈmɜːsi/ *noun* [U] **1** kindness that makes you forgive someone, usually someone that you have authority over *The judge* ***showed no mercy.*** **2 be at the mercy of sth/sb** to not be able to protect yourself from something or someone that you cannot control *Farmers are often at the mercy of the weather.*

mere /mɪə/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** used to emphasize that something is not large or important *It costs a mere twenty dollars.* ○ *The* ***mere thought of*** (= Just thinking about) *eating octopus makes me feel sick.* **2 the merest** used to emphasize that something is small, often when it has an important effect *She's upset by* ***the merest hint of*** *criticism.*

merely /ˈmɪəli/ *adverb* **1** WHAT YOU SAY used to emphasize that you mean exactly what you are saying and nothing more *I'm not arguing with you - I'm merely explaining the problem.* **2** NOT LARGE used to emphasize that something is not large, important, or effective when compared to something else *The medicine doesn't make you better, it merely stops the pain.*

merge /mɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I, T] If two or more things merge, they combine or join, and if you merge two or more things, you combine or join them. *The two companies merged, forming the largest brewery in Canada.* ○ *The city's smaller libraries will be* ***merged into*** *a large, central one.*

merger /ˈmɜːdʒə/ *noun* [C, U] when two or more companies or organizations join together

meringue /məˈræŋ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a light, sweet food that is made by baking the white part of an egg mixed with sugar

meristem /ˈmeristem/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a tissue (= substance plants and animals are made of) with cells that divide, found in the parts of plants where growth happens

merit¹ /ˈmerɪt/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* good qualities which deserve praise *His ideas* ***have merit.*** ○ *We debated* ***the merits of*** *using television in the classroom.* ○ *Every application has to be judged* ***on its own merits*** (= judged by considering the qualities of each).

merit² /ˈmerɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to be important enough to receive attention or punishment *Her crimes were serious enough to merit a prison sentence.*

mermaid /ˈmɜːmeɪd/ *noun* [C] an imaginary creature that lives in the sea and has the upper body of a woman and the tail of a fish

merry /ˈmeri/ *adjective* showing enjoyment and happiness *a merry laugh* ○ ***Merry Christmas!*** ●**merrily** *adverb*

mesh¹ /meʃ/ *noun* [C, U] material that is like a net and is made of wire, plastic, or thread *a wire mesh fence*

mesh² /meʃ/ *verb* [I] If two or more things mesh, they are suitable for each other. *Her ideas* ***mesh*** *well* ***with*** *our plans for the future.*

mesophyll /ˈmesəʊfɪl/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the part of a leaf between the two thin surface layers, containing the cells responsible for photosynthesis (= making food from the sun)

the mesosphere /ˈmesəʊsfɪər/ *noun* [**no plural**] **GEOGRAPHY** the layer of gases surrounding the Earth at a height of between 50 and 100 kilometres, above the stratosphere and below the thermosphere

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mess***

make a mess ● **clean up/clear up** a mess ● be **in** a mess

O-K **mess**[1] /mes/ *noun* [**C**] **1** UNTIDY Someone or something that is a mess, or is in a mess, is dirty or untidy. [**usually singular**] *My hair's such a mess!* ○ *The house is **in a mess**.* ○ *Don't **make a mess** in the kitchen!* **2** DIFFICULT a confused or difficult situation [**usually singular**] *She told me that her life was a mess.* ○ *If he hadn't lied, he wouldn't be **in** this **mess** now.* **3 make a mess of sth** to damage or spoil something *He made a mess of his first marriage.* **4** MILITARY a place where members of the armed forces eat [**usually singular**] *the officers' mess*

mess[2] /mes/ *verb*
mess about/around *phrasal verb informal* **1** WASTE TIME to waste time, often by doing things that are not important *Stop messing around and do your homework!* **2** PLAY to spend time playing and doing things with no particular purpose *I can spend hours **messing around with** my computer.*
mess sb about/around *phrasal verb UK informal* to treat someone badly, often by not doing something that you have promised
mess about/around with sth *phrasal verb informal* to use or treat something in a careless or harmful way *Who's been messing around with my computer?*
mess sth up *phrasal verb* **1** MAKE UNTIDY to make something untidy or dirty *I hate wearing hats - they always mess up my hair.* **2** SPOIL to spoil something, or to do something badly *Don't try to cook lunch by yourself - you'll only mess it up.*
mess with sb/sth *phrasal verb informal* to become involved with someone or something dangerous *If you mess with drugs, you're asking for trouble.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***message***

get/leave/send/take a message ● a message **for/from** sb

O-K **message**[1] /ˈmesɪdʒ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** INFORMATION a piece of written or spoken information which one person gives to another *Did you **get** my **message**?* ○ ***I left** her several **messages**, but she hasn't returned my call.* **2** IDEA the most important idea of a film, book, etc *The book conveys a complex message.* **3 get the message** *informal* to understand what someone wants you to do by their actions *Don't return any of his calls - he'll soon get the message and leave you alone.*

message[2] /ˈmesɪdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** to send someone an email or text message (= a written message sent from one mobile phone to another)

ˈmessage ˌboard *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** a place on a website where you can leave messages for other people to read

messenger /ˈmesɪndʒər/ *noun* [**C**] someone who takes a message between two people

the Messiah /məˈsaɪə/ *noun* **1 RELIGION** Jesus Christ **2 RELIGION** the leader that Jews believe God will send them

Messrs /ˈmesəz/ *noun formal* a title used before the names of two or more men *Messrs Davis and Dixon led the discussion on tax reform.*

messy /ˈmesi/ *adjective* **1** UNTIDY untidy or dirty *messy hair* ○ *a messy house/car* ○ *My son's bedroom is always messy.* **2** UNPLEASANT unpleasant and complicated *Ian's just gone through a **messy divorce**.*

met /met/ *past of* meet

metabolism /məˈtæbəlɪzəm/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** all the chemical processes in your body, especially the ones that use food

O-K **metal** /ˈmetəl/ *noun* [**C, U**] **PHYSICS** a usually hard, shiny material such as iron, gold, or silver which heat and electricity can travel through *scrap metal* ○ *Metals are used for making machinery and tools.* ○ *a metal sheet/bar* ●**metallic** /məˈtælɪk/ *adjective* having a quality that is similar to metal *a metallic paint/taste* ➲See also: **heavy metal**

metalloid /ˈmetəlɔɪd/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element with some of the properties of a metal and some of a non-metal, for example silicon and arsenic

metamorphic /ˌmetəˈmɔːfɪk/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** (of rock) changed into a new form and structure by very great heat and pressure ➲Compare **igneous, sedimentary**

metamorphosis /ˌmetəˈmɔːfəsɪs/ *noun plural* **metamorphoses** /metəˈmɔːfəsiːz/ **1** [**C**] a gradual change into something very different *The past year has seen a complete metamorphosis of the country's economy.* **2 BIOLOGY** [**U**] in biology, the process by which the young forms of some animals, such as insects, develop into very different adult forms *Caterpillars changing into butterflies is an example of metamorphosis.*

metaphor /ˈmetəfər/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LANGUAGE, LITERATURE** a way of describing something by comparing it with something else which has some of the same qualities *She used a computer metaphor to explain how the human brain works.* ●**metaphorical** /ˌmetəˈfɒrɪkəl/ *adjective* using a metaphor

mete /miːt/ *verb* **meting**, *past* **meted**
mete sth out *phrasal verb formal* to punish someone [**often passive**] *Long jail sentences are **meted out to** drug smugglers.*

meteor /ˌmiːtiər/ *noun* [**C**] **ASTRONOMY** a rock from outer space which becomes very hot and burns brightly in the sky at night as it enters Earth's atmosphere (= air surrounding Earth)

meteoric /ˌmiːtiˈɒrɪk/ *adjective* If the development of something is meteoric, it happens very quickly or causes great success. *a meteoric career* ○ *The band's rise to fame was meteoric.*

meteorite /ˈmiːtiəraɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **ASTRONOMY** a piece of rock from outer space which has fallen on Earth's surface

M

meteorological /ˌmiːtiᵊrəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] **GEOGRAPHY** relating to the scientific study of weather

meteorologist /ˌmiːtiᵊrˈɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** someone who studies weather, especially to say how it will be in the near future ●**meteorology** *noun* [U] the scientific study of weather

meter /ˈmiːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of equipment for measuring the amount of something such as electricity, time, or light *a gas/water meter* ○ *a parking/taxi meter* **2** **MEASURES** *US spelling of* metre

methadone /ˈmeθədəʊn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a drug for treating people who want to stop using heroin (= an illegal drug)

methane /ˈmiːθeɪn/ (US) /ˈmeθeɪn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that has no colour or smell, used for cooking and heating (formula CH_4)

methanol /ˈmeθənɒl/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a poisonous chemical substance which is the simplest type of alcohol (formula CH_3OH)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***method***

an **alternative/new/reliable/simple/traditional** method ● **develop/devise/use** a method

method /ˈmeθəd/ *noun* [C] a way of doing something, often one that involves a system or plan *What's the best **method of/for** solving this problem?* ○ *traditional teaching methods*

methodical /məˈθɒdɪkᵊl/ *adjective* careful and well organized, using a plan or system *a methodical researcher* ●**methodically** *adverb*

Methodist /ˈmeθədɪst/ *adjective* **RELIGION** belonging or relating to a Christian group that was started by John Wesley ●**Methodist** *noun* [C]

methodological /ˌmeθədᵊlˈɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to a methodology *methodological problems*

methodology /ˌmeθəˈdɒlədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] the system of methods used for doing, teaching, or studying something

methyl orange /ˌmeθᵊlˈɒrɪndʒ/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a substance used by scientists to show the amount of acid in a substance

meticulous /məˈtɪkjələs/ *adjective* very careful, and giving great attention to detail *This book is the result of meticulous research.* ●**meticulously** *adverb*

me time /ˈmiːtaɪm/ *noun* [U] *informal* time when you can do exactly what you want

metre *UK* (*US* **meter**) /ˈmiːtəʳ/ *noun* **1** **MEASURES** [C] (*written abbreviation* **m**) a unit for measuring length, equal to 100 centimetres *Our bedroom is five metres wide.* ○ *She finished third in the women's 400 metres* (= running race). **2** **LITERATURE** [C, U] a pattern of rhythm in poetry

metric /ˈmetrɪk/ *adjective* **MEASURES** The metric system of measurement uses units based on the gram, metre, and litre.

ˌmetric ˈton *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring weight, equal to 1000 kilograms

metro¹ /ˈmetrəʊ/ *noun* [C] an underground railway system in a large city *the Paris metro*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

metro, subway, or **underground?**

All these words mean an underground railway system in a large city. **Metro** is the most general word. The usual word in British English is **underground**. In American English it is **subway**.

the Paris metro

the London underground

the New York subway

metro² /ˈmetrəʊ/ *adjective* [always before noun] *US informal* relating to a large city and the towns around it *the New York metro area*

metropolis /məˈtrɒpəlɪs/ *noun* [C] a very large city, often the capital of a country or region

metropolitan /ˌmetrəˈpɒlɪtᵊn/ *adjective* [always before noun] relating to a large city *a metropolitan area/council*

mew /mjuː/ *verb* [I] to make the sound that a cat makes

mg **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* milligram (= a unit for measuring weight)

miaow *UK* (*US* **meow**) /ˌmiːˈaʊ/ *noun* [C] the sound that a cat makes

mice /maɪs/ *plural of* mouse

mickey /ˈmɪki/ **take the mickey (out of sb)** *UK informal* to laugh at someone and make them seem silly

micro- /maɪkrəʊ-/ *prefix* very small *a microchip* ○ *microscopic* (= very small)

microbe /ˈmaɪkrəʊb/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a very small organism, often a bacterium that causes disease

microchip /ˈmaɪkrəʊtʃɪp/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a very small part of a computer or machine which does calculations or stores information

microclimate /ˈmaɪkrəʊklaɪmɪt/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area in which the weather is usually different from the areas around it

microcomputer /ˈmaɪkrəʊkəmˌpjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small computer or personal computer containing a microprocessor (= part which controls operations)

microcosm /ˈmaɪkrəʊˌkɒzᵊm/ *noun* [C] *formal* a place, group of people, or situation that has the same characteristics as a larger one *The town is a microcosm of French culture.*

microfibre *UK* (*US* **microfiber**) /ˈmaɪkrəʊˌfaɪbəʳ/ *noun* [C] **DT** a soft, light material made from very thin artificial threads

microorganism /ˌmaɪkrəʊˈɔːgᵊnɪzᵊm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a living thing which on its own is too small to be seen without a microscope

microphone /ˈmaɪkrəfəʊn/ *noun* [C] a piece of electrical equipment for recording or broadcasting sounds, or for making sounds louder ➲See picture at **computer**

microprocessor /ˌmaɪkrəʊˈprəʊsesəʳ/ (US) /ˈmaɪkrəʊˌprɑːsesəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** the part of a computer that controls all the other parts

micropyle /ˈmaɪkrəʊpaɪl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a very small opening in the cover of a plant's ovule (= part that contains the female sex cell)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***microscope***

under a microscope ● **through** a microscope

microscope /ˈmaɪkrəskəʊp/ *noun* [C] a piece of scientific equipment which uses lenses (= pieces of curved glass) to make very small objects look bigger

microscopic /ˌmaɪkrəˈskɒpɪk/ *adjective* extremely small and needing a microscope to be seen, or using a microscope to see something *microscopic organisms/particles*

microscope

microwave¹ /ˈmaɪkrəʊweɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** OVEN (*also* **microwave ˈoven**) an electric oven that uses waves of energy to cook or heat food ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 **2** PHYSICS a very short wave similar to a radio wave that is used for sending information and cooking

microwave² /ˈmaɪkrəʊweɪv/ *verb* [T] to cook or heat food using a microwave oven

mid- /mɪd-/ *prefix* among or in the middle of *mid-March* ○ *mid-afternoon*

mid-air /ˌmɪdˈeəʳ/ *noun* **in mid-air** in the air or sky *She jumped up and caught the ball in mid-air.* ●**mid-air** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *a mid-air collision*

midday /ˌmɪdˈdeɪ/ *noun* [U] 12 o'clock in the middle of the day, or the period around this time *the heat of the midday sun*

O-key **middle¹** /ˈmɪdl/ *noun* **1 the middle** the central part, position, or point in time *We used to live just outside Boston but now we live right* (= exactly) ***in the middle***. ○ *The letter should arrive by the middle of next week.* **2 be in the middle of doing sth** to be busy *I can't talk now - I'm in the middle of cooking a meal.* **3 your middle** *informal* your waist, or your waist and stomach *He wrapped the towel round his middle.* **4 in the middle of nowhere** a long way from places where people live *His car broke down in the middle of nowhere.*

O-key **middle²** /ˈmɪdl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** CENTRAL in a central position *The middle layer is made of plastic.* ○ *Our company rents the middle warehouse.* **2** NEITHER HIGH NOR LOW neither high nor low in importance or amount *middle managers*

middle-aged /ˌmɪdlˈeɪdʒd/ *adjective* in the middle of your life before you are old *a middle-aged couple/man/woman*

the ˌMiddle ˈAges *noun* the period in European history between the end of the Roman Empire and the start of the Renaissance

ˌmiddle ˈclass *noun* [**group**] SOCIETY a social group that consists of well-educated people, such as doctors, lawyers, and teachers, who have good jobs and are neither very rich nor very poor ●**middle-class** /ˌmɪdlˈklɑːs/ *adjective* belonging or relating to the middle class *a middle-class suburb*

the ˌMiddle ˈEast *noun* a group of countries in the area where Africa, Asia, and Europe meet ●**Middle Eastern** *adjective* relating to the Middle East *Middle Eastern cuisine*

middleman /ˈmɪdlmæn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **middlemen** someone who buys goods from one person and sells them to someone else for a higher price *Selling direct from the factory* ***cuts out the middleman***.

ˈmiddle ˌname *noun* [C] an extra name between someone's first and family names

ˈmiddle ˌschool *noun* [C] EDUCATION a school in the US for children usually between the ages of 11 and 14

midget /ˈmɪdʒɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who is very small

MIDI /ˈmɪdi/ *noun* COMPUTING, MUSIC *abbreviation for* Musical Instrument Digital Interface: a system for allowing electronic musical instruments to communicate with each other

the Midlands /ˈmɪdləndz/ *noun* the central area of England which includes several large industrial cities

ˌmid-life ˈcrisis *noun* [C] *plural* **mid-life crises** a period in the middle of your life when you lose confidence in your abilities and worry about the future

midnight /ˈmɪdnaɪt/ *noun* [U] 12 o'clock at night *He died shortly after midnight.*

midriff /ˈmɪdrɪf/ *noun* [C] the front of your body between your chest and waist

midst /mɪdst/ *noun* **1 in the midst of sth** in the middle of something, usually an event or activity [**+ of + doing sth**] *Can I phone you back? I'm in the midst of cooking dinner.* **2 in your midst** among the group of people that you belong to *Residents are protesting about a convicted murderer living in their midst.*

midsummer /ˌmɪdˈsʌməʳ/ *noun* [U] the longest day of the year, or the period around this

midway /ˌmɪdˈweɪ/ *adverb* **1 midway between sth and sth** at the middle point between two places or things *Leeds is midway between London and Edinburgh.* **2 midway through sth** at the middle point of an activity or a period of time *He scored the third goal midway through the second half.*

midweek /ˌmɪdˈwiːk/ *noun* [U] the middle of the week, usually from Tuesday to Thursday ●**midweek** *adjective, adverb* [**always before noun**] in the middle of the week *a midweek game/match* ○ *Flights are cheaper if you travel midweek.*

the Midwest /ˌmɪdˈwest/ *noun* the northern central area of the United States ●**Midwestern** *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the Midwest

midwife /ˈmɪdwaɪf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **midwives** /ˈmɪdwaɪvz/ HEALTH a nurse who has had special training to help women give birth

midwifery /mɪdˈwɪfəʳri/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the work of a midwife

midwinter /ˌmɪdˈwɪntəʳ/ *noun* [U] the shortest day of the year, or the period around this

M

might¹ /maɪt/ *modal verb* **1** HAPPEN used to talk about what will possibly happen *She might not come.* **2** TRUE used to talk about what is possibly true *I think Isabel might be pregnant.* ○ *The rain might have stopped by now.* **3 you might like/want to** *UK formal* used to politely suggest something *You might want to try a different approach next time.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

might² /maɪt/ *noun* [U] *formal* great strength or power ***economic/military might*** ○ *She pushed the door* ***with all her might*** (= with as much force as possible).

mightn't /ˈmaɪtᵊnt/ *mainly UK formal short for* might not *It mightn't be true.*

might've /ˈmaɪtəv/ *short for* might have *The children might've seen her in the park.*

mighty¹ /ˈmaɪti/ *adjective* very powerful or successful *In their next game they're playing the mighty Redskins.*

mighty² /ˈmaɪti/ *adverb mainly US informal* very *It's mighty tempting to stay in bed on a rainy morning.*

migraine /ˈmaɪgreɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a very bad pain in the head, often one that makes you vomit

migrant /ˈmaɪgrᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** someone who goes to live in a different place in order to find work *migrant labour/workers*

migrate /maɪˈgreɪt/ (US) /ˈmaɪgreɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** ANIMALS When birds, fish, or animals migrate, they travel from one place to another at the same time each year. *Many birds migrate from Europe to African forests for the winter.* **2 SOCIETY** When people migrate, they move to another place, often a different country, in order to find work and a better life. *Between 1900 and 1914, 3.1 million people* ***migrated to*** *the US from central Europe.* ●**migration** /maɪˈgreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

migratory /ˈmaɪgreɪtᵊri/ (US) /ˈmaɪgrətɔːri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **BIOLOGY** relating to birds, fish, or animals that migrate

mike /maɪk/ *noun* [C] *informal short for* microphone

mild /maɪld/ *adjective* **1** WEATHER When weather is mild, it is less cold than you would expect. *a* ***mild winter*** **2 HEALTH** When an illness is mild, it is not as serious as it could be. *a mild form of pneumonia* **3** WEAK not having a strong effect *a mild taste* ○ *a mild detergent* **4** KIND calm and gentle *He has a very mild manner.*

mildly /ˈmaɪldli/ *adverb* **1** slightly *I find his films mildly amusing.* **2 to put it mildly** something you say when an opinion is not expressed as strongly as it should be *The building is unsafe, to put it mildly.*

mile /maɪl/ *noun* [C] **1 MEASURES** a unit for measuring distance, equal to 1609 metres or 1760 yards *The nearest station is two miles from here.* ○ *It's a five-mile walk to the next village.* ○ *The latest high-speed trains can travel at 140* ***miles per hour***. ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **2 miles** a very long distance *We drove* ***for miles*** *along dusty roads.* ○ *Her cottage is* ***miles from*** *the nearest village.*

mileage /ˈmaɪlɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** DISTANCE [C, U] the number of miles that a vehicle has travelled since it was new ***low mileage*** **2** FUEL [C, U] the number of miles a vehicle can travel using a particular amount of fuel **3** ADVANTAGE [U] *informal* an advantage got from something *There's no* ***mileage in*** *taking your employer to court.*

milestone /ˈmaɪlstəʊn/ *noun* [C] an important event in the history or development of something or someone *Passing my driving test was an important milestone for me.*

militant¹ /ˈmɪlɪtᵊnt/ *adjective* expressing strong support for a political or social idea, and willing to use extreme or violent methods to achieve it *a* ***militant group/organization*** ●**militancy** /ˈmɪlɪtᵊnsi/ *noun* [U] when someone is militant

militant² /ˈmɪlɪtᵊnt/ *noun* [C] a militant person

military¹ /ˈmɪlɪtri/ *adjective* relating to the army, navy, or air force ***military action/service***

the military² /ˈmɪlɪtri/ *noun* a country's army, navy, and air force

militia /mɪˈlɪʃə/ *noun* [C] a group of people who have been trained as soldiers but are not part of a country's official army ●**militiaman** *noun* [C] *plural* **militiamen** a member of a militia

milk¹ /mɪlk/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** a white liquid produced by women and other female animals, such as cows, for feeding their babies *a carton of milk* ○ *breast milk* ➲See also: **skimmed milk**

milk² /mɪlk/ *verb* [T] **1** to get as much money or as many advantages as possible from a person or situation *She* ***milked*** *her grandfather* ***for*** *all his savings.* **2 FARMING** to take milk from a cow using your hands or a machine

milkman /ˈmɪlkmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **milkmen** a man whose job is bringing milk to people's homes early in the morning

milkshake /ˈmɪlkʃeɪk/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a sweet drink made of milk and chocolate or fruit *a banana milkshake*

milky /ˈmɪlki/ *adjective* **1** CONTAINING MILK containing milk, often a lot of it *milky coffee/tea* **2** LIKE MILK similar to milk *a milky liquid*

the Milky Way /ˌmɪlkiˈweɪ/ *noun* **ASTRONOMY** the group of very many stars which includes the sun

mill¹ /mɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** FLOUR a machine for crushing grain into flour, or a building with this machine *a flour mill* **2** POWDER a small machine used in the kitchen for crushing things such as coffee beans into a powder *a coffee/pepper mill* **3** MATERIAL a factory where one material or substance is made *a cotton/woollen mill* ○ *a paper/steel mill*

mill² /mɪl/ *verb* [T] to use a machine to crush something into a powder *freshly milled black pepper*

mill about/around (sth) *phrasal verb* When people mill around, they come together in a place, usually to wait for someone or something.

millennium /mɪˈleniəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **millennia 1** a period of 1000 years, often calculated from the date when Christ is thought to have been born **2 the Millennium** the change from the year 1999 to 2000 in the Western calendar *Where did you celebrate the Millennium?*

milli- /mɪli-/ *prefix* MEASURES a thousandth *a millisecond*

milligram /ˈmɪlɪgræm/ (*written abbreviation* **mg**) *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring weight, equal to 0.001 grams

millilitre *UK* (*US* **milliliter**) (*written abbreviation* **ml**) /ˈmɪlɪˌliːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 0.001 litres

millimetre *UK* (*US* **millimeter**) (*written abbreviation* **mm**) /ˈmɪlɪˌmiːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a unit for measuring length, equal to 0.001 metres

O-W **million** /ˈmɪljən/ **1** the number 1,000,000 **2 millions** *informal* a lot *I've seen that film millions of times.*

millionaire /ˌmɪljəˈneəʳ/ *noun* [C] a very rich person who has money and possessions to the value of at least one million pounds or dollars

millionth¹ /ˈmɪljənθ/ 1,000,000th written as a word

millionth² /ˈmɪljənθ/ *noun* [C] one of a million equal parts of something; $^{1}/_{1,000,000}$; .000001

mime /maɪm/ *verb* [I, T] to act or tell a story without speaking, using movements of your hands and body, and expressions on your face *Pop stars often mime* (= pretend to sing while their song is played) *on TV.* ●**mime** *noun* [C, U] ***a mime artist***

mimic¹ /ˈmɪmɪk/ *verb* [T] **mimicking**, *past* **mimicked 1** COPY to copy the way someone talks and behaves, usually to make people laugh *He's always getting into trouble for mimicking his teachers.* **2** BE THE SAME to have the same behaviour or qualities as something else *The drug **mimics the effects** of a natural hormone.*

mimic² /ˈmɪmɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who is good at mimicking other people

mince¹ /mɪns/ *UK* (*US* **ground beef**) *noun* [U] FOOD meat, usually from a cow, which has been cut into very small pieces by a machine

mince² /mɪns/ *verb* [T] FOOD to cut food into small pieces in a machine *minced beef/onions*

mincemeat /ˈmɪnsmiːt/ *noun* [U] **1** FOOD a spicy, sweet mixture of apples, dried fruit, and nuts, which have been cut into small pieces **2 make mincemeat of sb** *informal* to defeat someone very easily

ˌmince ˈpie *noun* [C] *UK/US* FOOD a small pastry filled with mincemeat that is eaten mainly at Christmas

O-W **mind¹** /maɪnd/ *noun* [C] **1** someone's memory or their ability to think, feel emotions, and be aware of things *For some reason her words **stuck in** my **mind**.* ○ *She has a very logical mind.* **2 have sth on your mind** to think or worry about something *Jim has a lot on his mind at the moment.* **3 bear/keep sb/sth in mind** to remember someone or something that may be useful in the future *I'll keep you in mind if another job comes up.* [+ **(that)**] *Bear in mind that there's a bank holiday next week.* **4 make your mind up** to make a decision [+ **question word**] *I haven't made up my mind whether to go yet.* **5 change your mind** to change a decision or opinion *We've changed our minds about selling the house.* **6 come/spring to mind** If an idea comes to mind, it is the first thing you think of. *I was thinking about who might be suitable for this job, and your name came to mind.* **7 put your mind to sth** to give your full attention to something *You could win if you put your mind to it.* **8 be out of your mind** *informal* to be crazy or very stupid **9 be out of your mind with worry/grief, etc** to be very worried or upset **10 blow your mind** *informal* If something blows your mind, you are very excited or surprised by it. *There was one scene in the film that really blew my mind.* **11 cross your mind** If an idea crosses your mind, you think about it for a short time. [+ **(that)**] *It never crossed my mind* (= I never thought) *that she might be married.* **12 be in two minds** *UK* (*US* **be of two minds**) to have difficulty making a decision *I'm in two minds about accepting his offer.* **13 put/set sb's mind at rest** to say something to someone to stop them worrying *I was really worried about the tests, but talking to the doctor put my mind at rest.* **14 read sb's mind** to know what someone is thinking **15 slip your mind** If something slips your mind, you forget it. **16 speak your mind** to say exactly what you think without worrying if it will upset anyone *She has very strong opinions and she's not afraid to speak her mind.* **17 take your mind off sth** to stop you thinking about something unpleasant *Talking to him took my mind off the pain.* ➲See also: at/in the **back²** of your mind, **frame¹** of mind, give sb a **piece¹** of your mind, a **weight** off your mind

O-W **mind²** /maɪnd/ *verb* **1** BE ANNOYED [I, T] to be annoyed or worried by something *Do you think he'd mind if I borrowed his book?* [+ **doing sth**] *Tim won't mind lending you his car.* ○ *He doesn't seem to mind doing all the driving.* ○ *I don't mind taking her* (= I am willing to take her) *if you're too busy.* **2** LOOK AFTER [T] to look after someone or something *Who's minding the baby?* **3 do you mind/would you mind** something you say when politely asking someone to do something *Do you mind not smoking in here, please?* ○ *Would you mind if I borrowed your phone?* **4** BE CAREFUL [T] something you say when telling someone to be careful with something dangerous *Mind the iron - it's still very hot!* **5 never mind a** DO NOT WORRY something that you say to tell someone that something is not important *"I forgot to bring any money." "Never mind, you can pay me next week."* **b** IMPOSSIBLE something you say to emphasize that something is impossible *I can't afford to buy a bike, never mind a car!* **6 mind you** something you say before saying the opposite of what you have just said *We had a lovely holiday in France. Mind you, the weather was appalling.*

Mind out! *phrasal verb UK* something you say to warn someone about a danger or to tell them to move *Mind out - this plate's very hot!*

mind-boggling /ˈmaɪndˌbɒglɪŋ/ *adjective informal* difficult to accept, imagine, or understand

M

-minded /ˈmaɪndɪd/ ➲See: **absent-minded, narrow-minded, open-minded, single-minded**

minder /ˈmaɪndəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone who physically protects a famous, important, or very rich person

mindless /ˈmaɪndləs/ *adjective* stupid and done without a good reason ***mindless violence***

mine¹ /maɪn/ *pronoun* the things that belong or relate to the person who is speaking or writing *I borrowed them from a friend of mine.* ○ *"Whose book is this?" "It's mine."* ○ *Can I use your pen? Mine's not working.*

mine² /maɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** UNDERGROUND an underground system of holes and passages where people dig out coal or other minerals **2** BOMB a bomb hidden in the ground or water which explodes when it is touched ➲See also: **gold mine**

mine³ /maɪn/ *verb* **1** DIG [I, T] to dig out of the ground minerals such as coal, metals, and valuable stones *Tin was mined in this area for hundreds of years.* ○ *He made his fortune* ***mining for*** *gold and diamonds.* **2** BOMB [T] to put mines (= bombs) in the ground or water *The southern coast was heavily mined during the war.*

minefield /ˈma phon ˌ ˌɑfild/ *noun* [C] **1** PROBLEMS a situation with many complicated problems *a* ***legal minefield*** **2** BOMBS an area of land or sea where bombs have been hidden

miner /ˈmaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who works in a mine *a coal miner*

mineral /ˈmɪnᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOLOGY a valuable or useful substance that is dug out of the ground *The region's rich mineral deposits include oil, gold, and aluminium.* **2** FOOD a chemical that your body needs to stay healthy

ˈmineral ˌwater *noun* [C, U] water which is taken from the ground and contains chemicals that are good for your health

mingle /ˈmɪŋgl/ *verb* **1** MIX [I, T] to mix, or be mixed *The smell of fresh coffee* ***mingled with*** *cigarette smoke.* **2** TALK [I] to meet and talk to a lot of people at a party or similar event *The party will be a good opportunity to* ***mingle with*** *the other students.*

mini- /mɪni-/ *prefix* small *a miniskirt* (= very short skirt) ○ *a minibus*

miniature¹ /ˈmɪnətʃəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] extremely small *a miniature camera*

miniature² /ˈmɪnətʃəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] a very small copy of an object *You can buy miniatures of the statue in the museum shop.* **2 in miniature** If something is in miniature, it is a very small copy of something else.

mini-break /ˈmɪnibreɪk/ *noun* [C] a very short holiday

minibus /ˈmɪnɪbʌs/ *noun* [C] a small bus with seats for about ten people

minicomputer /ˈmɪnikəmˌpjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer that is smaller than a mainframe (= large, powerful computer that many people can use) but larger and faster than a microcomputer

MiniDisk /ˈmɪnɪdɪsk/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a very small plastic disc on which high-quality sound, especially music, is recorded

minimal /ˈmɪnɪmᵊl/ *adjective* very small in amount *Damage to the building was minimal.* ●**minimally** *adverb*

minimize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmɪnɪmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make the amount of something that is unpleasant or not wanted as small as possible *Airport staff are trying to minimize the inconvenience caused to passengers.*

minimum¹ /ˈmɪnɪməm/ *adjective* [always before noun] The minimum amount of something is the smallest amount that is allowed, needed, or possible. *How much is the* ***minimum wage?*** ○ *There is a* ***minimum charge*** *of $5 for postage.* ➲Opposite **maximum**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***minimum***

a minimum **of** [5/2%, etc] ● **keep** sth **to** a minimum ● an **absolute/bare** minimum ● **with the** minimum **of** sth

minimum² /ˈmɪnɪməm/ *noun* [no plural] the smallest amount that is allowed, needed, or possible *The judge sentenced him to a minimum of five years in prison.* ○ *Please* ***keep*** *noise* ***to*** *an absolute* ***minimum.***

mining /ˈmaɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the industrial process of digging coal or other minerals out of the ground

miniscule /ˈmɪnɪskjuːl/ *adjective* a common spelling of 'minuscule' that is not correct

miniskirt /ˈmɪnɪˌskɜːt/ *noun* [C] a very short skirt ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

minister /ˈmɪnɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** POLITICS a politician who is responsible for a government department or has an important position in it *a finance/health minister* **2** RELIGION a priest in some Christian churches *a Baptist/Methodist minister* ➲See also: **prime minister**

ministerial /ˌmɪnɪˈstɪəriəl/ *adjective* POLITICS relating to a government minister *a* ***ministerial job/post***

ministry /ˈmɪnɪstri/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [C] a government department which is responsible for a particular subject *the Ministry of Defence* ○ *a Foreign Ministry spokesman* **2 the ministry** RELIGION the job of being a priest

minivan /ˈmɪnivæn/ *noun* [C] *US* a people carrier (= large, high car for many people)

mink /mɪŋk/ *noun* [C, U] a small animal with valuable fur which is used to make expensive coats, or the fur from this animal *a mink coat*

minor¹ /ˈmaɪnəʳ/ *adjective* **1** not important or serious *a minor offence* ○ *Most of the passengers suffered only minor injuries.* **2** MUSIC [always before noun] in music, belonging to a key (= set of musical notes) that often produces a sad sound ➲Opposite **major**

minor² /ˈmaɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] *formal* LAW someone who is too young to have the legal responsibilities of an adult

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***minority***

be **in** a minority ● a **sizeable/small/substantial/tiny** minority ● a minority **of** sth

O-K **minority** /maɪˈnɒrəti/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] a part of a group which is less than half of the whole group, often much less *The violence was caused by a **small minority** of football supporters.* ○ *I voted to accept the proposal, but I was **in the minority**.* ➲Opposite **majority** **2** SOCIETY [C] a group of people whose race is different from the race of most of the people where they live [**usually plural**] ***ethnic minorities***

mint¹ /mɪnt/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C] a sweet with a fresh, strong taste **2** FOOD [U] a plant whose leaves are used to add flavour to food and drinks **3** [C] a factory which produces coins for the government

mint² /mɪnt/ *verb* [T] to produce a coin for the government

minus¹ /ˈmaɪnəs/ *preposition* **1** MATHEMATICS used when the second of two numbers should be taken away from the first *Five minus three is two.* **2** *informal* without something that should be there *She arrived at the meeting minus her briefcase.*

minus² /ˈmaɪnəs/ *adjective* **1** MATHEMATICS [**always before noun**] A minus number is less than zero. *The temperature last night was minus ten.* **2 A minus/B minus, etc** EDUCATION used with scores given to written work meaning 'slightly lower than' *I got an A minus for my last essay.*

minus³ /ˈmaɪnəs/ *noun* [C] **1** MATHEMATICS (*also* **ˈminus ˌsign**) the sign which shows that the second of two numbers should be taken away from the first, or that a number is less than zero, shown by the symbol '–' **2** a problem or difficulty *It isn't easy having a child but the pluses outweigh the minuses.*

minuscule /ˈmɪnəskjuːl/ *adjective* extremely small *The cost of vaccination is minuscule compared to the cost of treating the disease.*

O-K **minute¹** /ˈmɪnɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** 60 SECONDS a period of time equal to 60 seconds *She was ten minutes late for her interview.* ○ *"Did you have a good holiday?" "Yes, thanks. I enjoyed every minute of it."* ○ *a thirty-minute journey* **2** SHORT TIME a very short period of time *It'll only **take a minute** to call him.* ○ *I'll be with you **in a minute**.* ○ *She died **within minutes of*** (= very soon after) *the attack.* **3 (at) any minute** very soon *Her train should be arriving any minute.* **4 the last minute** the latest time possible *The concert was cancelled at the last minute.* **5 the minute (that)** as soon as *I'll tell you the minute we hear any news.* **6 Wait/Just a minute; Hold on a minute. a** WAIT used when asking someone to wait for a short time *Just a minute - I've left my coat in the restaurant.* **b** DISAGREEING used when you disagree with something that someone has said or done *Hold on a minute, Pete! I never said you could borrow my car.*

minute² /maɪˈnjuːt/ *adjective* **1** SMALL extremely small *a minute amount/quantity* **2** EXACT [**always before noun**] done in great detail *He explained everything **in minute detail**.*

the minutes /ˈmɪnɪts/ *noun* [**plural**] an official record of what is said and decided during a meeting *Michael has kindly agreed to **take the minutes*** (= write them down).

miracle /ˈmɪrəkl/ *noun* [C] **1** SURPRISING something that is very surprising or difficult to believe *an economic miracle* [**+ (that)**] *It's a miracle that he's still alive.* ○ *a **miracle cure*** **2** IMPOSSIBLE an event which should be impossible and cannot be explained by science

miraculous /mɪˈrækjələs/ *adjective* very surprising or difficult to believe *John's made a **miraculous recovery** from his illness.* ●**miraculously** *adverb*

mirage /ˈmɪrɑːʒ/ (US) /mɪˈrɑːʒ/ *noun* [C] when hot air produces an image of water in a desert or on a road

O-K **mirror¹** /ˈmɪrəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of glass with a shiny metallic material on one side which produces an image of anything that is in front of it *a bathroom mirror* ○ *He looked at his reflection **in the mirror**.* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 ➲See also: **rear-view mirror, wing mirror**

mirror² /ˈmɪrəʳ/ *verb* [T] to be similar to or represent something *Our newspaper mirrors the opinions of ordinary people.*

mirth /mɜːθ/ *noun* [U] *formal* laughter or happiness

mis- /mɪs-/ *prefix* not or badly *mistrust* ○ *to misbehave*

misadventure /ˌmɪsədˈventʃəʳ/ *noun* **1** LAW [U] *UK formal* when someone is killed by accident and no one is legally responsible for the death *The coroner recorded a verdict of **death by misadventure**.* **2** [C] an unlucky event

misanthrope /ˈmɪsᵊnθrəʊp/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who hates people in general and avoids being with them

misapprehension /ˌmɪsæprɪˈhenʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *formal* a idea or opinion about someone or something that is wrong [**+ that**] *He was **labouring under the misapprehension*** (= wrongly believed) *that she loved him.*

misbehave /ˌmɪsbɪˈheɪv/ *verb* [I] to behave badly ●**misbehaviour** *UK* (*US* **misbehavior**) *noun* [U] bad behaviour

misc *written abbreviation for* miscellaneous

miscalculate /mɪsˈkælkjəleɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** CALCULATE BADLY to make a mistake when calculating something *I think I've miscalculated how much wine we'll need for the party.* **2** DECIDE BADLY to make a bad decision because you do not completely understand a situation *If she thinks Mike will support her plan, then she's seriously miscalculated.* ●**miscalculation** /ˌmɪskælkjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

miscarriage /ˈmɪsˌkærɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** HEALTH when a baby is born too early and dies because it has not developed enough *She **had a miscarriage** after her car accident.* **2 miscarriage of justice** when a court makes a wrong or unfair decision

miscarry /mɪˈskæri/ *verb* [I, T] HEALTH to give birth to a baby too early so that it dies

miscellaneous /ˌmɪsᵊlˈeɪniəs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] consisting of a mixture of several different things *The plumber tried to charge me fifty pounds for miscellaneous items.*

M

mischief /ˈmɪstʃɪf/ *noun* [U] behaviour, usually of a child, which is slightly bad but not serious

mischievous /ˈmɪstʃɪvəs/ *adjective* behaving in a way that is slightly bad but not serious *a **mischievous grin*** ○ *a mischievous five-year-old* ●**mischievously** *adverb*

miscible /ˈmɪsɪbəl/ *adjective* CHEMISTRY A miscible liquid can be mixed with another liquid without separating from it. ➲Opposite **immiscible**

misconceived /ˌmɪskənˈsiːvd/ *adjective* If a plan is misconceived, it is not suitable or has not been thought about carefully.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***misconception***

be **based on** a misconception ● a **common/popular** misconception ● a misconception **about** sth

misconception /ˌmɪskənˈsepʃˈn/ *noun* [C] when your understanding of something is wrong [+ **that**] *It's a **common misconception** that older workers cannot learn to use new technology.*

misconduct /mɪˈskɒndʌkt/ *noun* [U] *formal* when someone in a position of responsibility behaves in a way that is morally wrong or breaks rules while doing their job ***professional misconduct***

misdemeanour *UK* (*US* **misdemeanor**) /ˌmɪsdɪˈmiːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** BAD BEHAVIOUR behaviour that is bad or not moral *political/sexual misdemeanours* **2** CRIME *US* a crime which is not serious

misdirect /ˌmɪsdɪˈrekt/ *verb* [T] to use money or people's skills in a way that is not suitable [**often passive**] *Large quantities of money and expertise have been misdirected.*

miserable /ˈmɪzʳəbəl/ *adjective* **1** SAD unhappy *I just woke up feeling miserable.* **2** NOT PLEASANT very unpleasant or bad, and causing someone to feel unhappy *Some families are living in miserable conditions.* **3** NOT ENOUGH *informal* A miserable amount is too small to be acceptable. *She offered me a miserable £50 for my old computer.*

miserably /ˈmɪzʳəbli/ *adverb* **1** DISAPPOINTING in a way that causes disappointment or suffering *miserably low wages* ○ *Every job application that I've made has **failed miserably*** (= has been extremely unsuccessful). **2** SAD in a very unhappy way *"I feel so ill," said Rachel miserably.*

misery /ˈmɪzʳri/ *noun* [C, U] **1** great suffering or unhappiness *The war brought misery to millions of people.* ○ *Her husband's drinking is **making her life a misery**.* **2 put sb out of their misery** to stop someone worrying by telling them what they want to know

misfire /mɪsˈfaɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] When something that you do misfires, it does not have the result that you intended. *His joke misfired badly, and he was forced to make a public apology.*

misfit /ˈmɪsfɪt/ *noun* [C] someone with strange or unusual behaviour who is not accepted by other people *a **social misfit***

misfortune /mɪsˈfɔːtʃuːn/ *noun* [C, U] bad luck, or an unlucky event [+ **to do sth**] *He **had the misfortune** to fall in love with a married woman.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***misgiving***

express/have misgivings ● **grave/serious/strong** misgivings ● misgivings **about** sth

misgiving /mɪsˈgɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a feeling of doubt or worry about a future event [**usually plural**] *She **has** serious **misgivings about** giving birth at home.*

misguided /mɪsˈgaɪdɪd/ *adjective* not likely to succeed because of a bad judgment or understanding of a situation *The government's policy seems to me completely misguided.*

mishandle /mɪsˈhændl/ *verb* [T] to deal with a problem or situation badly *The murder investigation was mishandled from the beginning.*

mishap /ˈmɪshæp/ *noun* [C, U] an accident or unlucky event which usually is not serious *They suffered a series of mishaps during the trip.*

misinform /ˌmɪsɪnˈfɔːm/ *verb* [T] to give someone false information [**often passive**] *I'm afraid you've been misinformed about your exam results.*

misinterpret /ˌmɪsɪnˈtɜːprɪt/ *verb* [T] to understand something in the wrong way [**often passive**] *He claims his speech was deliberately misinterpreted by journalists.*

misjudge /mɪsˈdʒʌdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** OPINION to form a wrong opinion about a person or situation *We believe that the government has seriously misjudged the public mood.* **2** GUESS to guess an amount or distance wrongly

misjudgment (*also UK* **misjudgement**) /mɪsˈdʒʌdʒmənt/ *noun* [C, U] when you form a wrong opinion or make a wrong guess *Her outspoken criticism of her boss was a serious misjudgment.*

mislay /mɪˈsleɪ/ *verb* [T] *past* **mislaid** /mɪˈsleɪd/ *formal* to lose something for a short time by forgetting where you put it *I seem to have mislaid my car keys.*

mislead /mɪˈsliːd/ *verb* [T] *past* **misled** /mɪˈsled/ to make someone believe something that is untrue by giving them information that is wrong or not complete [**often passive**] *She claims the public was misled by the government.*

misleading /mɪˈsliːdɪŋ/ *adjective* making someone believe something that is untrue *misleading information/statements*

mismanage /ˌmɪsˈmænɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] to control or organize something badly *He accused the government of mismanaging the crisis.* ●**mismanagement** *noun* [U] when something is badly organized or controlled

misnomer /mɪˈsnəʊməʳ/ *noun* [C] a name which is not suitable for the person or thing that it refers to [**usually singular**] *It's a misnomer to call young car thieves 'joyriders'.*

misogynist /mɪˈsɒdʒʳnɪst/ *noun* [C] a man who dislikes women very much ●**misogynistic** /mɪˌsɒdʒʳnˈɪstɪk/ (*also* **misogynist**) *adjective* expressing a great dislike of women *a misogynistic attitude/writer*

misogyny /mɪˈsɒdʒɪni/ *noun* [U] a great dislike of women

misplaced /mɪˈspleɪst/ *adjective* If you have a misplaced feeling or belief, it is wrong because you have not understood the situation correctly. ***misplaced loyalty/trust***

misprint /ˈmɪsprɪnt/ *noun* [C] a mistake made in the printing of a newspaper or book *The article is full of misprints.*

misread /mɪsˈriːd/ *verb* [T] *past* **misread** /mɪsˈred/ **1** READING to make a mistake when you are reading something *He misread the cooking instructions on the packet.* **2** UNDERSTANDING to not understand something correctly *She completely **misread** the **situation**.*

misrepresent /ˌmɪsrepɪˈzent/ *verb* [T] to say things that are not true about someone or something *He claims that the article misrepresented his views.* ●**misrepresentation** /ˌmɪsrepɪzenˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

O-K **miss¹** /mɪs/ *verb* **1** FEEL SAD [T] to feel sad about someone that you do not see now or something that you do not have or do now *I'll miss you when you go.* [+ **doing sth**] *He misses having a room of his own.* **2** NOT GO TO [T] to not go to something *I missed my class this morning.* **3** NOT SEE/HEAR [T] to not see or hear something or someone *Sorry, I missed that, could you repeat it please?* ○ *We missed the first five minutes of the film.* **4** NOT HIT [I, T] to not hit or catch something as you intended *It should have been such an easy goal and he missed.* **5** TOO LATE [T] to arrive too late to get on a bus, train, or aircraft *If I don't leave now, I'll miss my train.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **lose 6** NOT NOTICE [T] to not notice someone or something *It's the big house on the corner - you can't miss it.* **7 miss a chance/opportunity** to not use an opportunity to do something *You can't afford to miss a chance like this.* **8 miss the point** to not understand something correctly ➲See also: miss the **boat**
miss sb/sth out *phrasal verb UK* to not include someone or something
miss out *phrasal verb* to not do or have something that you would enjoy or something that other people do or have *I got there late and **missed out on** all the fun.*

miss² /mɪs/ *noun* **1** [C] when you do not hit or catch something as you intended **2 give sth a miss** *UK informal* to not do an activity *I think I'll give aerobics a miss this evening.* **3 a near miss** something bad which does not happen but almost happens

O-K **Miss** /mɪs/ *noun* a title for a girl or woman who is not married, used before her family name or full name *Miss Olivia Allenby* ○ *Tell Miss Russell I'm here.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **Mr**

misshapen /mɪsˈʃeɪpᵊn/ *adjective* not the correct or normal shape

missile /ˈmɪsaɪl/ (US) /ˈmɪsəl/ *noun* [C] **1** WEAPON an explosive weapon which can travel long distances through the air *nuclear missiles* ○ *a missile attack* **2** OBJECT an object which is thrown through the air to hit someone or something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***missing***

go missing ● **report** sb missing ● missing **from** sth

O-K **missing** /ˈmɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** LOST If someone or something is missing, you cannot find them because they are not in their usual place. *Have you found those missing documents?* ○ *Her daughter **went missing** a week ago.* **2** NOT INCLUDED not included in something *There are a couple of things **missing from** the list.*

mission /ˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** JOB an important job, usually travelling somewhere *I'll be going **on a** fact-finding **mission** to Paris next week.* **2** GROUP an official group of people who are sent somewhere, usually to discover information about something *a trade mission* **3** JOURNEY an important journey which a spacecraft or military aircraft goes on **4** PURPOSE someone's duty or purpose in life *Her **mission in life** was to help the poor.*

missionary /ˈmɪʃᵊnᵊri/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who travels to another country to teach people about the Christian religion

ˈ**mission ˌstatement** *noun* [C] a short written description of the aims of a business or other organization

missive /ˈmɪsɪv/ *noun* [C] *literary* a letter or message

misspell /mɪsˈspel/ *verb* [T] *past* **misspelled** or *UK* **misspelt** **LANGUAGE** to spell something wrongly

mist¹ /mɪst/ *noun* [C, U] small drops of water in the air which make it difficult to see objects which are not near *Gradually the mist cleared and the sun began to shine.*

mist² /mɪst/ *verb*
mist over/up *phrasal verb* If a glass surface mists over, it becomes covered with very small drops of water so that you cannot see through it easily.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mistake***

correct/make/repeat a mistake ● a **big/costly/fatal/serious/terrible** mistake ● **by** mistake

O-K **mistake¹** /mɪˈsteɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** something that you do or think which is wrong *a spelling mistake* ○ *He **made** a lot of **mistakes** in his written test.* [+ **to do sth**] *It would be a **big mistake** to leave school.* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *She **made the mistake of** giving him her phone number.* **2 by mistake** If you do something by mistake, you do it without intending to. *I picked up someone else's book by mistake.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

mistake

Remember to use the correct verb with this word.

*I always **make mistakes** in my essays.*

~~*I always do mistakes in my essays.*~~

mistake² /mɪˈsteɪk/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **mistook**, *past participle* **mistaken** to not understand something correctly *I think you mistook my meaning.*
mistake sb/sth for sb/sth *phrasal verb* to confuse someone or something with someone or

M

something else *People sometimes mistake him for a girl.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***mistake***

A common alternative is the noun **error**: *He admitted that he'd made an **error**.* ● *The letter contained a number of typing **errors**.*

A stupid mistake is sometimes described as a **blunder**: *The company was struggling after a series of financial **blunders**.*

A mistake which causes confusion is often described as a **mix-up**: *There was a **mix-up** with the bags at the airport.*

An embarrassing mistake that someone makes when they are talking is sometimes described as a **gaffe**: *I made a real **gaffe** by calling her 'Emma' which is the name of his previous girlfriend.*

The noun **oversight** is sometimes used to describe a mistake which someone makes by forgetting to do something: *The payment was delayed because of an **oversight** in the accounts department.*

mistaken /mɪˈsteɪkᵊn/ *adjective* If you are mistaken, or you have a mistaken belief, you are wrong about something. *If you think you can behave like that, you are mistaken.* ●**mistakenly** *adverb I **mistakenly*** (= wrongly) ***thought** he had left.*

Mister /ˈmɪstəʳ/ *noun* [U] *US informal* used when calling or talking to a man that you do not know *Hey Mister, you forgot your suitcase!*

mistletoe /ˈmɪslˌtəʊ/ *noun* [U] a plant with white berries (= small, round fruit) which is often used as a decoration at Christmas

mistook /mɪˈstʊk/ *past tense of* mistake

mistreat /mɪsˈtriːt/ *verb* [T] to treat a person or animal in a bad or cruel way *A local farmer has been accused of mistreating horses.* ●**mistreatment** *noun* [U] when people or animals are badly or cruelly treated

mistress /ˈmɪstrəs/ *noun* [C] a woman who has a sexual relationship with a man who is married to someone else

mistrust /mɪˈstrʌst/ *noun* [U] when you do not believe or have confidence in someone or something *They have a deep mistrust of strangers.* ●**mistrust** *verb* [T]

misty /ˈmɪsti/ *adjective* If the weather is misty, there is a cloud of small drops of water in the air, which makes it difficult to see objects which are not near. *a cold and misty morning*

misunderstand /ˌmɪsʌndəˈstænd/ *verb* [T] *past* **misunderstood 1** to not understand someone or something correctly *He misunderstood the question completely.* **2 be misunderstood** If someone is misunderstood, other people do not understand that they have good qualities.

misunderstanding /ˌmɪsʌndəˈstændɪŋ/ *noun* **1** NOT UNDERSTAND [C, U] when someone does not understand something correctly *There must have been a misunderstanding.* **2** DISAGREE [C] a slight disagreement

misuse /ˌmɪsˈjuːz/ *verb* [T] to use something in the wrong way or for the wrong purpose *He misused his position to obtain money dishonestly.* ●**misuse** /ˌmɪsˈjuːs/ *noun* [C, U] *the misuse of drugs/power*

mite /maɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** INSECT an extremely small insect with eight legs *dust mites* **2** CHILD *informal* a small child *You're so cold, you poor little mite!* **3 a mite** *mainly UK informal* slightly *He seemed a mite embarrassed.*

mitigate /ˈmɪtɪɡeɪt/ *verb* [T] to reduce the harmful effects of something ●**mitigation** /ˌmɪtɪˈɡeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

mitigating /ˈmɪtɪɡeɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* **mitigating circumstances/factors** facts that make something bad that someone has done seem less bad or less serious

mitochondrion /ˌmaɪtəʊˈkɒndriən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **mitochondria** BIOLOGY in a cell, a long or round piece found in the cytoplasm (= substance surrounding the nucleus) that produces energy for the cell by breaking down food ➲See picture at **cell**

mitosis /maɪˈtəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the type of cell division in which one cell divides into two identical cells, each with the same number of chromosomes as the original cell ➲Compare **meiosis**

mitral valve /ˈmaɪtrəlˌvælv/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the valve (= part that opens and closes) in the heart which stops blood from returning into the atrium (= upper space) ➲See picture at **heart**

mitt /mɪt/ *noun* [C] SPORT a thick leather glove (= cover for the hand) used for catching a baseball ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

mix¹ /mɪks/ *verb* **1** COMBINE SUBSTANCES [I, T] If two or more substances mix, they combine to make one substance, and if you mix two or more substances, you combine them to make one substance. ***Mix** the powder **with** water to form a paste.* ○ *Put the chocolate, butter, and egg in a bowl and **mix** them all **together**.* ○ *Oil and water don't mix.* **2** COMBINE QUALITIES ETC [I, T] to have or do two or more qualities, styles, activities, etc at the same time *a feeling of anger mixed with sadness* **3** MEET [I] to meet and talk to people *She enjoys going to parties and **mixing with** people.*

mix sth/sb up *phrasal verb* to confuse two people or things by thinking that one person or thing is the other person or thing *People often mix them up because they look so similar.*

mix sth up *phrasal verb* to cause a group of things to be untidy or badly organized *The books were all mixed up in a box.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mix***

a mix **of** sth ● an **ethnic/racial/social** mix

mix² /mɪks/ *noun* **1** COMBINATION [C] a combination of things or people, often in a group [**usually singular**] *There's a good **mix of** nationalities in the class.* **2** POWDER [C, U] a powder to which you add liquid in order to make something *cake mix*

mixed /mɪkst/ *adjective* **1** made of a combination of different people or things *a racially mixed area* ○ *a mixed salad* **2 mixed feelings** If you have mixed feelings about something, you are pleased and not pleased at the same time. ➲See also: a mixed **blessing**

ˌmixed eˈconomy *noun* [C] ECONOMICS an economic system in which some industries are controlled privately and some by the government

ˌmixed ˈfraction *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a combination of a whole number and a fraction

mixed-race /mɪkstˈreɪs/ *adjective* describes a person whose parents are of different races (= the groups that people are divided into according to their physical characteristics)

ˌmixed ˈup *adjective informal* **1** confused *I got a bit mixed up and thought we were supposed to be there at eight.* **2 be mixed up in sth** to be involved in an activity that is bad or illegal **3 be mixed up with sb** to be involved with someone who has a bad influence on you *Her son got mixed up with the wrong people.*

mixer /ˈmɪksəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine that mixes things *an electric mixer*

O-K **mixture** /ˈmɪkstʃəʳ/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [C, U] a substance made of other substances that have been combined *Add milk to the mixture and stir until smooth.* **2** STYLES/IDEAS [**no plural**] when there is a combination of two or more ideas, qualities, styles, etc *Their house is decorated in a mixture of styles.*

mix-up /ˈmɪksʌp/ *noun* [C] *informal* when there is a mistake because things are confused [**usually singular**] *There was a mix-up with the bags at the airport.*

ml MEASURES *written abbreviation for* millilitre (= a unit for measuring liquid)

mm MEASURES *written abbreviation for* millimetre (= a unit for measuring length)

moan /məʊn/ *verb* [I] **1** COMPLAIN to complain or speak in a way that shows you are unhappy *She's always* ***moaning about*** *something.* **2** SOUND to make a low sound, especially because you are in pain *He lay on the floor moaning.* ●**moan** *noun* [C]

mob¹ /mɒb/ *noun* [C] a large group of people that is often violent or not organized *an angry mob*

mob² /mɒb/ *verb* [T] **mobbing**, *past* **mobbed** If a group of people mob someone, they get close to them, often to get their photograph or signature. [**often passive**] *She was mobbed by photographers.*

mobile¹ /ˈməʊbaɪl/ (US) /ˈməʊbəl/ *adjective* able to move or be moved easily *a mobile home* ➲Opposite **immobile**

O-K **mobile²** /ˈməʊbaɪl/ (US) /ˈməʊbiːl/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE a mobile phone **2** DECORATION a decoration made of objects on threads that hang down and move in the air

O-K **ˌmobile ˈphone** *noun* [C] a telephone that you can carry everywhere with you

mobilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈməʊbɪlaɪz/ *verb* **1** POLITICS [T] to organize a group of people so that they support or oppose something or someone *He's trying to* ***mobilize support*** *for the strike.* **2** WAR [I, T] *formal* to prepare for a war *The forces were fully mobilized for action.* ●**mobilization** /ˌməʊbɪlaɪˈzeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

mock¹ /mɒk/ *verb* [I, T] to laugh at someone or something in an unkind way *The older kids mocked him whenever he made a mistake.*

mock² /mɒk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not real but appearing or pretending to be exactly like something *a* ***mock exam*** ○ *mock leather*

mockery /ˈmɒkʰri/ *noun* [U] **1** when someone laughs at someone or something in an unkind way **2 make a mockery of sth** to make something seem stupid *The latest outbreak of fighting makes a mockery of the peace process.*

modal verb /ˈməʊdəlˌvɜːb/ (*also* **modal**) *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a verb, for example 'can', 'might', or 'must', that is used before another verb to show that something is possible, necessary, etc ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

mode /məʊd/ *noun* [C] *formal* **1** a way of doing something *a mode of transport* **2** MATHEMATICS the number or value which appears most often in a particular set

O-K **model¹** /ˈmɒdʰl/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone whose job is to wear fashionable clothes, be in photographs, etc in order to advertise things *a fashion model* **2** COPY a smaller copy of a real object, often used to show how something works or what it looks like **3** EXAMPLE someone or something that is an example for others to copy *a model of good behaviour* **4** DESIGN a design of machine or car that is made by a particular company *I think her car is a slightly older model.* ➲See also: **role model**

model² /ˈmɒdʰl/ *verb* [I, T] *UK* **modelling**, *past* **modelled**, *US* **modeling**, *past* **modeled** to wear clothes in fashion shows, magazines, etc as a model

be modelled on sth *phrasal verb* to be based on the design of something else *The house is modelled on a 16th century castle.*

model yourself on sb *phrasal verb* to try to make yourself very similar to someone else

modelling /ˈmɒdʰlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** the job of being a fashion model **2** making models of objects, for example when designing them

modem /ˈməʊdem/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a piece of equipment that is used to send information from a computer through a telephone line, cable or other link ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

moderate¹ /ˈmɒdʰrət/ *adjective* **1** average in size or amount and not too much *Eating a moderate amount of fat is healthy.* **2** POLITICS not extreme, especially relating to political opinions *a moderate political group* ●**moderately** *adverb*

moderate² /ˈmɒdʰrət/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who does not have extreme political opinions

moderate³ /ˈmɒdʰreɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something less extreme *He's trying to moderate his drinking.*

moderation /ˌmɒdʰrˈeɪʃʰn/ *noun* **1 in moderation** If you do something in moderation, you do not do it too much. *I only drink alcohol in moderation now.* **2** [U] when you control your feelings or actions and stop them from becoming extreme

M

modern /ˈmɒdᵊn/ *adjective* **1** NOW relating to the present time and not to the past *modern society* ○ *the stresses of* ***modern life*** **2** NEW using the newest ideas, design, technology, etc and not traditional *modern art/architecture* ○ *modern medicine* ●**modernity** /mɒdˈɜːnəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* when something is modern

modern-day /ˈmɒdᵊndeɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the present time and not to the past *a modern-day version of Shakespeare*

modernize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmɒdᵊnaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to make something more modern or to become more modern *We really need to modernize our image.* ●**modernization** /ˌmɒdᵊnaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

ˌmodern ˈlanguages *noun* [**plural**] LANGUAGE languages that are spoken now such as Spanish or German

modest /ˈmɒdɪst/ *adjective* **1** NOT LARGE not large in size or amount, or not expensive *a modest amount of money* ○ *Their house is quite modest in size.* **2** NOT PROUD If you are modest, you do not talk in a proud way about your skills or successes. *He's very modest about his achievements.* ●**modestly** *adverb*

modesty /ˈmɒdɪsti/ *noun* [U] when you do not talk in a proud way about your skills or successes

modicum /ˈmɒdɪkəm/ *noun formal* **a modicum of sth** a small amount of something *a modicum of success*

modification /ˌmɒdɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a small change to something *We've* ***made*** *a few* ***modifications to*** *the system.*

modifier /ˈmɒdɪfaɪᵊ/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE in grammar, a word that describes or limits the meaning of another word

modify /ˈmɒdɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** to change something in order to improve it [**often passive**] *The plans will have to be modified to reduce costs.* ○ *genetically modified food* **2** LANGUAGE In grammar, a word that modifies another word describes or limits the meaning of that word. *Adjectives modify nouns.*

module /ˈmɒdjuːl/ *noun* [C] **1** EDUCATION *UK* a part of a university or college course **2** a part of an object that can operate alone, especially a part of a spacecraft

mogul /ˈməʊᵍl/ *noun* [C] an important, powerful person ***media/movie moguls***

Mohammed /məˈhæmɪd/ *noun* RELIGION the Arab holy man on whose life and teachings Islam is based

moist /mɔɪst/ *adjective* slightly wet *Keep the soil moist but not wet.* ●**moisten** /ˈmɔɪsᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to make something slightly wet, or to become slightly wet

moisture /ˈmɔɪstʃəᵊ/ *noun* [U] very small drops of water in the air or on a surface

moisturizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈmɔɪstʃəraɪzəᵊ/ *noun* [C, U] a substance which you put on your skin to make it less dry ●**moisturize** (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈmɔɪstʃᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to put moisturizer on your skin

molar¹ /ˈməʊləᵊ/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the large teeth at the back of the mouth used for crushing food ➲Compare **incisor, canine** ➲See picture at **skull**

molar² /ˈməʊləᵊ/ *adjective* MEASURES contained in one mole (= unit of measurement of the amount of a substance) *molar mass/volume*

molar

molasses /məʊˈlæsɪz/ (*also UK* **treacle**) *noun* [U] FOOD a sweet, thick, dark liquid used in sweet dishes

mold /məʊld/ *noun, verb US spelling of* mould

moldy /ˈməʊldi/ *adjective US spelling of* mouldy

mole /məʊl/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH a small, dark mark on the skin **2** ANIMAL a small animal with black fur that digs holes in the soil and lives under the ground **3** PERSON *informal* someone who gives other organizations or governments secret information about the organization where they work **4** MEASURES a unit of measurement of the amount of a substance

molecular /məˈlekjʊləᵊ/ *adjective* PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY made from or relating to molecules

moˌlecular ˈweight *noun* [U] PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY the weight of a molecule, found by adding together the atomic masses of all the atoms it contains

molecule /ˈmɒlɪkjuːl/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY the smallest unit of a substance, consisting of one or more atoms

molehill /ˈməʊlhɪl/ *noun* [C] ➲See: make a **mountain** out of a molehill

molest /məʊˈlest/ *verb* [T] to hurt or attack someone in a sexual way *He was accused of molesting children.* ●**molestation** /ˌməʊlesˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

mom /mɒm/ *US* (*UK* **mum**) *noun* [C] *informal* mother *My mom phoned last night.* ○ *Can we go now, Mom?*

moment /ˈməʊmənt/ *noun* **1** SHORT TIME [C] a very short period of time *I'll be back* ***in a moment.*** ○ ***For a moment*** *I thought it was Anna.* ○ *Could you* ***wait a moment?*** **2** POINT IN TIME [C] a point in time *Just* ***at that moment****, the phone rang.* **3 at the moment** now *I'm afraid she's not here at the moment.* **4 for the moment** If you do something for the moment, you are doing it now but might do something different in the future. **5 the moment (that)** as soon as *I'll call you the moment I hear anything.* **6 have a senior, blond etc moment** *informal* to behave, for a short time, in a way which shows you are old, silly, etc *I've just had a senior moment - I couldn't remember why I'd gone into the kitchen.* ➲See also: on the **spur²** of the moment

momentarily /ˈməʊmənᵊrᵊli/ *adverb* for a very short time *I momentarily forgot his name.*

momentary /ˈməʊmənᵊri/ *adjective* lasting for a very short time ***a momentary lapse*** *of memory*

momentous /məʊˈmentəs/ *adjective* A momentous decision, event, etc is very important because it has a big effect on the future.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***momentum***

gain/gather/lose momentum ● **keep up/maintain** the momentum ● the momentum **for/of** sth

momentum /məʊˈmentəm/ *noun* [U] **1** when something continues to move, increase, or develop *to **gain/gather momentum*** ○ *The players seemed to **lose momentum** halfway through the game.* **2** PHYSICS in science, the force that makes something continue to move

momma /ˈmɒmə/ *noun* [C] *US another word for* mommy

mommy /ˈmɒmi/ *US* (*UK* **mummy**) *noun* [C] *informal* a word for 'mother', used especially by children *I want my mommy!* ○ *Can I have some candy, Mommy?*

Mon *written abbreviation for* Monday

monarch /ˈmɒnək/ *noun* [C] a king or queen

monarchy /ˈmɒnəki/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [U, no plural] when a country is ruled by a king or queen **2** POLITICS [C] a country that is ruled by a king or queen

monastery /ˈmɒnəstᵊri/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a building where men live as a religious group

monastic /məˈnæstɪk/ *adjective* RELIGION relating to a monk (= religious man) or a monastery

Monday /ˈmʌndeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Mon**) *noun* [C, U] the day of the week after Sunday and before Tuesday

monetary /ˈmʌnɪtᵊri/ *adjective* ECONOMICS relating to money

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***money***

borrow/earn/lend/pay/raise/save/spend money

money /ˈmʌni/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS, FINANCE the coins or banknotes (= pieces of paper with values) that are used to buy things *How much money have you got?* ○ *He **spends** all his **money** on clothes and CDs.* ○ *The company's not **making*** (= earning) *any money at the moment.* ➲See also: **pocket money**

ˈmoney ˌorder *US* (*UK* **postal order**) *noun* [C] FINANCE an official piece of paper bought at a post office that you can send instead of money

ˈmoney supˌply *noun* [C usually singular] ECONOMICS all the money which is in use in a country

mongrel /ˈmʌŋgrᵊl/ *noun* [C] a dog that is a mix of different breeds

monies /ˈmʌniz/ *noun* [plural] *formal* FINANCE amounts of money

monitor¹ /ˈmɒnɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** COMPUTING a screen that shows information or pictures, usually connected to a computer *a colour monitor* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** MACHINE a machine, often in a hospital, that measures something such as the rate that your heart beats *a **heart monitor*** **3** PERSON someone who watches something to make certain that it is done correctly or fairly *a human rights monitor*

monitor² /ˈmɒnɪtəʳ/ *verb* [T] to watch something carefully and record your results *to monitor progress*

monk /mʌŋk/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a member of a group of religious men living apart from other people

monkey /ˈmʌŋki/ *noun* [C] a hairy animal with a long tail that lives in hot countries and climbs trees

mono- /mɒnəʊ-/ *prefix* one or single *monolingual* ○ *a monologue*

monochrome /ˈmɒnəkrəʊm/ *adjective* A monochrome image is only in black, white, and grey and not in colour.

monocotyledon /ˌmɒnəʊˌkɒtɪˈliːdən/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a plant that produces flowers and has only one cotyledon (= leaf part inside the seed) ●**monocotyledonous** /ˌmɒnəʊˌkɒtɪˈliːdənəs/ *adjective*

monogamy /məˈnɒgəmi/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY when someone has a sexual relationship with only one person ●**monogamous** *adjective* relating to monogamy *a **monogamous relationship***

monolingual /ˌmɒnəʊˈlɪŋgwᵊl/ *adjective* LANGUAGE using only one language *monolingual dictionaries*

monolithic /ˌmɒnəʊˈlɪθɪk/ *adjective* large and powerful

monologue (*also US* **monolog**) /ˈmɒnᵊlɒg/ *noun* [C] a long speech by one person, often in a performance

monomer /ˈmɒnəʊməʳ/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound whose simple molecules can join together to form polymers

mononucleosis /ˌmɒnəʊˌnjuːkliˈəʊsɪs/ *US* (*UK* **glandular fever**) *noun* [U] HEALTH an infectious disease that makes your glands (= small organs in your body) swell and makes you feel tired

monopolize (*also UK* **-ise**) /məˈnɒpᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to control a situation by being the only person or organization involved in it

monopoly /məˈnɒpᵊli/ *noun* [C] **1** SYSTEM when a company or organization is the only one in an area of business or activity and has complete control of it *They **have a monopoly on** the postal service.* **2** COMPANY a company or other organization that has a monopoly in a particular industry

monosaccharide /ˌmɒnəʊˈsækᵊraɪd/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a simple type of carbohydrate, such as glucose and fructose, formed of molecules that cannot be broken down into any simpler form ➲Compare **polysaccharide**

monosyllabic /ˌmɒnəʊsɪˈlæbɪk/ *adjective* using only short words such as 'yes' or 'no', usually because you do not want to talk

monotonous /məˈnɒtᵊnəs/ *adjective* If something is monotonous, it is boring because it stays the same. *a **monotonous voice*** ○ ***monotonous work*** ●**monotonously** *adverb*

monozygotic /ˌmɒnəʊzaɪˈgɒtɪk/ *adjective* BIOLOGY Monozygotic twins develop from the same egg and are often called identical twins. ➲Compare **dizygotic**

M

monsoon /mɒnˈsuːn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** the season when there is heavy rain in Southern Asia

monster /ˈmɒnstəʳ/ *noun* [C] an imaginary creature that is large, ugly, and frightening

monstrous /ˈmɒnstrəs/ *adjective* **1** BAD very bad or cruel *a **monstrous crime*** **2** MONSTER like a monster

month /mʌnθ/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF YEAR one of the twelve periods of time that a year is divided into *last/next month ○ Your birthday's this month, isn't it?* **2** FOUR WEEKS a period of approximately four weeks *I saw him about three months ago.*

monthly /ˈmʌnθli/ *adjective, adverb* happening or produced once a month *a monthly meeting ○ a monthly magazine*

monument /ˈmɒnjəmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** REMEMBER a building or other structure that is built to make people remember an event in history or a famous person *a national monument ○ They built the statue as **a monument to** all the soldiers who died.* **2** OLD PLACE an old building or place that is important in history *an ancient monument*

monumental /ˌmɒnjəˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* very large *a **monumental task***

moo /muː/ *noun* [C] the sound that a cow makes ●**moo** *verb* [I] **mooing**, *past* **mooed**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mood***

be **in** a [bad/confident/foul/good, etc] mood ● mood **changes/swings** ● a **bad/foul/good** mood

mood /muːd/ *noun* **1** [C, U] the way someone feels at a particular time *to be in a **good/bad mood** ○ The **public mood** changed dramatically after the bombing.* **2 be in a mood** to not be friendly to other people because you are feeling angry **3 be in the mood for sth/to do sth** to want to do or have something *I'm not really in the mood for shopping at the moment.* **4 be in no mood for sth/to do sth** to not want to do something with someone else, often because you are angry with them **5 LANGUAGE** [C] in grammar, one of the different ways a sentence is being used, for example to give an order, express a fact, etc *the indicative/imperative mood*

moody /ˈmuːdi/ *adjective* If someone is moody, they are often unfriendly because they feel angry or unhappy. ●**moodily** *adverb* ●**moodiness** *noun* [U]

moon /muːn/ *noun* **1 the moon ASTRONOMY** the round object that shines in the sky at night and moves around the Earth **2 crescent/full/new moon ASTRONOMY** the shape made by the amount of the moon that you can see at a particular time **3 ASTRONOMY** [C] a round object like the moon that moves around another planet **4 once in a blue moon** rarely *We only go out once in a blue moon.* **5 be over the moon** *UK* to be very pleased about something *"I bet she was pleased with her results." "She was over the moon."*

ˈ**moon** ˌ**buggy** *noun* [C] a vehicle used for driving on the moon

moonlight /ˈmuːnlaɪt/ *noun* [U] light that comes from the moon *In the moonlight she looked even more beautiful.* ●**moonlit** *adjective* [**always before noun**] with light from the moon

moor /mɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an open area in the countryside that is covered with rough grass and bushes [**usually plural**] *the Yorkshire Moors*

moose /muːs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **moose** a large deer that comes from North America

moot point /ˌmuːtˈpɔɪnt/ *noun* [C] a subject that people cannot agree about

mop¹ /mɒp/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used for cleaning floors that has a long handle and thick strings at one end

mop² /mɒp/ *verb* [T] **mopping**, *past* **mopped** to use a mop *to **mop** the **floor***
mop sth up *phrasal verb* to use a cloth or mop to remove liquid from a surface

moraine /mɒrˈeɪn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a large mass of rocks and soil that is carried along with a glacier (= large mass of ice) and remains when the glacier melts

moral¹ /ˈmɒrᵊl/ *adjective* **1** RIGHT AND WRONG [**always before noun**] relating to beliefs about what is right or wrong ***moral standards/values*** *○ a **moral issue*** **2** GOOD CHARACTER behaving in a way that most people think is correct and honest *He's a very moral person.* ➲Opposite **immoral** ➲Compare **amoral** ●**morally** *adverb morally wrong*

moral² /ˈmɒrᵊl/ *noun* [C] something you learn from a story or event about how to behave *The **moral of the story** is never lie.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***morale***

boost/damage/improve/raise/undermine morale ● **high/low** morale

morale /məˈrɑːl/ *noun* [U] the amount of confidence or hope for the future that people feel *The pay increase should help to **improve** staff **morale**.*

morality /məˈræləti/ *noun* [U] ideas and beliefs about what is right or wrong

morals /ˈmɒrəlz/ *noun* [**plural**] principles of good behaviour *He doesn't care what he does, he has no morals at all.*

ˌ**moral suˈpport** *noun* [U] help and encouragement *Roz has said she'll come with me for moral support.*

morbid /ˈmɔːbɪd/ *adjective* showing too much interest in unpleasant things such as death *a **morbid fascination** with death*

more¹ /mɔːʳ/ *quantifier* **1** IN ADDITION something in addition to what you already have *Would anyone like some more food? ○ I need a bit more money.* **2** GREATER AMOUNT a greater number or amount of people or things *There are a lot more people here today than yesterday. ○ He knows more about computers than I do.* **3 more and more** an increasing number *More and more people are choosing not to get married.* ➲See also: **any more**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

more

The opposite of **more** is **fewer** for countable nouns and **less** for uncountable nouns.

He takes more exercise now.

He takes less exercise now.

He smokes fewer cigarettes.

more² /mɔːʳ/ *adverb* **1 more beautiful/difficult/interesting, etc** used to show that someone or something has a greater amount of a quality than someone or something else *It's **more** expensive **than** the others.* ○ *She's far more intelligent than her sister.* **2** used to show that something happens a greater number of times than before *We eat out a lot **more than** we used to.* **3 more or less** almost *We've more or less finished work on the house.* **4 more and more** more as time passes *It's becoming more and more difficult to pass the exam.* ➲See also: **any more**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

more

More is used to form the comparative of many adjectives and adverbs that have two or more syllables.

a more expensive hotel

Could you drive more slowly please?

~~*an expensiver hotel*~~

The opposite of adverb **more** is **less**.

a less expensive hotel

moreover /mɔːrˈəʊvəʳ/ *adverb formal* also *It is a cheap and, moreover, effective way of dealing with the problem.*

morgue /mɔːg/ *noun* [C] a building or room where dead bodies are prepared and kept before a funeral

Mormon /ˈmɔːmən/ *adjective* RELIGION belonging or relating to a Christian group that was started in the US by Joseph Smith ●**Mormon** *noun* [C]

morning /ˈmɔːnɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the first half of the day, from the time when the sun rises or you wake up until the middle of the day *Friday morning* ○ ***tomorrow morning*** ○ *I got up late **this morning**.* **2 in the morning a** during the early part of the day *I listen to the radio in the morning.* **b** tomorrow morning *I'll pack my bags in the morning.* **3 3/4/, etc o'clock in the morning** 3/4, etc o'clock in the night *My car alarm went off at 3 o'clock in the morning.* **4 (Good) morning.** used to say hello to someone in the morning

moron /ˈmɔːrɒn/ *noun* [C] *informal* a very stupid person ●**moronic** /mɔːˈrɒnɪk/ *adjective informal* stupid

morose /məˈrəʊs/ *adjective* If someone is morose, they are not friendly or happy and they talk very little.

morphine /ˈmɔːfiːn/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a powerful drug that is used to reduce pain

morsel /ˈmɔːsᵊl/ *noun* [C] a small piece of something *a morsel of food*

mortal¹ /ˈmɔːtᵊl/ *adjective* **1** not living forever ➲Opposite **immortal 2 mortal danger/fear/terror, etc** extreme danger/fear/terror, etc, because you could die ●**mortally** *adverb* ***mortally wounded***

mortal² /ˈmɔːtᵊl/ *noun* [C] *literary* a human being

mortality /mɔːˈtæləti/ *noun* [U] **1** NUMBER the number of deaths at a particular time or in a particular place ***infant mortality*** ○ *the **mortality rate*** **2** NOT LIVING FOREVER the way that people do not live forever *Her death made him more aware of his own mortality.*

mortar /ˈmɔːtəʳ/ *noun* **1** WEAPON [C] a heavy gun that fires explosives high into the air *a **mortar attack/bomb*** **2** MIXTURE [U] a mixture of substances, for example sand and water, that is used between bricks or stones to keep them together

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mortgage***

get/have/pay off/take out a mortgage ● a mortgage **payment**

mortgage /ˈmɔːgɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE money that you borrow to buy a home *a monthly mortgage payment*

mortified /ˈmɔːtɪfaɪd/ *adjective* very embarrassed

mortify /ˈmɔːtɪfaɪ/ *verb* **be mortified** to feel very embarrassed or upset about something *I told her she'd upset John and she was mortified.*

mortuary /ˈmɔːtʃuᵊri/ *noun* [C] a building or room where dead bodies are prepared and kept before a funeral

mosaic /məʊˈzeɪɪk/ *noun* [C, U] ART a picture or pattern that is made with small pieces of coloured stone, glass, etc

Moslem /ˈmɒzləm/ *noun* [C] RELIGION *another spelling of* Muslim (= someone who believes in Islam) ●**Moslem** *adjective*

mosque /mɒsk/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a building where Muslims say their prayers

mosquito /mɒˈskiːtəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **mosquitoes** a small flying insect that sucks your blood, sometimes causing malaria (= a serious disease) ***mosquito bites***

moss /mɒs/ *noun* [C, U] a very small, green plant that grows on the surface of rocks, trees, etc

most¹ /məʊst/ *adverb* **1 the most attractive/important/popular, etc** used to show that someone or something has the greatest amount of a quality *She's the most beautiful girl I've ever seen.* ○ *There are various reasons but this is the most important.* **2** more than anyone or anything else *Which subject do you like most?* ○ *Sam enjoyed the swings **most of all**.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

most

The adverb **most** is used to form the superlative of many adjectives and adverbs.

the most beautiful actress in the world

most² /məʊst/ *quantifier* **1** ALMOST ALL almost all of a group of people or things *Most people think he's guilty.* ○ ***Most of** our students walk to school.* **2** MORE THAN a larger amount than anyone or anything else *This one costs the most.* ○ *Which of you earns most?* **3 the most**

M

the largest number or amount possible *That's the most I can pay you.* **4 make the most of sth** to take full advantage of something because it may not last long *We should make the most of this good weather.* **5 at (the) most** not more than a particular amount or number *The journey will take an hour at the most.*

mostly /ˈməʊstli/ *adverb* mainly or most of the time *She reads mostly romantic novels.*

motel /məʊˈtel/ *noun* [C] a hotel for people who are travelling by car

moth /mɒθ/ *noun* [C] an insect with large wings that often flies at night and is attracted to light ➲See picture at **insect**

mother /ˈmʌðəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** your female parent *a single mother* ○ *My mother and father are divorced.* **2 Mother** RELIGION the title of an important nun (= woman who lives in a female religious group) *Mother Teresa* ➲See also: **surrogate mother**

motherhood /ˈmʌðəhʊd/ *noun* [U] when someone is a mother

mother-in-law /ˈmʌðəʳɪnˌlɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **mothers-in-law** the mother of your husband or wife

motherly /ˈmʌðəʳli/ *adjective* A motherly woman is like a mother, usually because she is kind and looks after people.

ˈMother's ˌDay *noun* [C, U] a Sunday in the spring when people give their mothers presents to show their love

ˈmother ˌtongue *noun* [C] LANGUAGE the first language that you learn when you are a child

motif /məʊˈtiːf/ *noun* [C] a small design used as a decoration on something *a floral motif*

motion¹ /ˈməʊʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** MOVEMENT [U] when or how something moves *The motion of the boat made him feel sick.* **2** ACTION [C] a single action or movement *She made a motion with her hand.* **3** SUGGESTION [C] a suggestion that you make in a formal meeting or court of law *to **propose/oppose a motion*** **4 set sth in motion** to make something start to happen **5 go through the motions** to do something that you have to do without enthusiasm ➲See also: **slow motion**

motion² /ˈməʊʃᵊn/ *verb* **motion (for/to) sb to do sth** to make a movement as a sign for someone to do something *She motioned him to sit down.*

motionless /ˈməʊʃənləs/ *adjective* not moving *He stood motionless in the middle of the road.*

motivate /ˈməʊtɪveɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ENTHUSIASTIC to make someone enthusiastic about doing something [+ **to do sth**] *Teaching is all about motivating people to learn.* **2** CAUSE to cause someone to behave in a particular way [**often passive**] *Some people are motivated by greed.* ●**motivated** *adjective a racially motivated crime* ○ *a very motivated student* (= one who works hard and wants to succeed)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***motivation***

sb's **main/primary** motivation ● the motivation **behind/for** sth

motivation /ˌməʊtɪˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ENTHUSIASM [U] enthusiasm for doing something *There is a lack of motivation among the staff.* **2** REASON [C] the need or reason for doing something *What was the **motivation for** the attack?*

motivational /ˌməʊtɪˈveɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] giving you encouragement to do something *a **motivational speaker***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***motive***

have a motive ● an **ulterior/underlying** motive ● the motive **behind/for** sth

motive /ˈməʊtɪv/ *noun* [C] a reason for doing something *The police don't yet know the **motive for** the killing.*

motor¹ /ˈməʊtəʳ/ *noun* [C] the part of a machine or vehicle that changes electricity or fuel into movement and makes it work *an electric motor*

motor² /ˈməʊtəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to cars *motor racing*

motorbike /ˈməʊtəbaɪk/ *noun* [C] a vehicle with two wheels and an engine

motorcycle /ˈməʊtəˌsaɪkl/ *noun* [C] a motorbike

motoring /ˈməʊtərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *UK* relating to driving *a motoring offence*

motorist /ˈməʊtᵊrɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who drives a car

ˌmotor ˈneuron *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a nerve cell that sends messages to muscles or glands (= organs that produce chemical substances in the body)

ˈmotor ˌracing *noun* [U] SPORT the sport of driving extremely fast and powerful cars around a track

motorway /ˈməʊtəweɪ/ *UK* (*US* **freeway, expressway, interstate**) *noun* [C] a long, wide road, usually used by traffic travelling fast over long distances

mottled /ˈmɒtld/ *adjective* A mottled pattern has a mixture of dark and light areas. *mottled skin*

motto /ˈmɒtəʊ/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a short phrase that expresses someone's purpose or beliefs *Her motto is, "Work hard, play hard".*

mould¹ *UK* (*US* **mold**) /məʊld/ *noun* **1** BIOLOGY [U] a green or black substance that grows in wet places or on old food **2** [C] a container that is used to make something in a particular shape *a chocolate mould* **3 break the mould** to do something differently after it has been done in the same way for a long time

mould² *UK* (*US* **mold**) /məʊld/ *verb* [T] to make a soft substance a particular shape *moulded plastic*

moulding /ˈməʊldɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a piece of wood, plastic, stone, etc. which has been made into a particular shape to decorate the top or bottom of a wall, or a door, window or piece of furniture

mouldy *UK* (*US* **moldy**) /ˈməʊldi/ *adjective* covered with mould *mouldy cheese*

mound /maʊnd/ *noun* [C] **1** PILE a large pile of something *a mound of clothes waiting to be ironed* **2** HILL a higher area of soil, like a small hill *an ancient burial mound*

Mount /maʊnt/ *noun* [C] used in the names of mountains *Mount Everest*

mount /maʊnt/ *verb* **1 mount a campaign/challenge/protest, etc** to arrange a series of organized activities that will achieve a particular result **2** INCREASE [I] to increase in amount or level *Tension in the room was mounting.* **3 mount sth on/to, etc** to fix an object onto something *They've mounted a camera on the wall by the door.* **4** GO UP [T] to go up something *to mount the stairs* **5** RIDE [T] to get on a horse or bicycle ➲Opposite **dismount**
mount up *phrasal verb* to gradually become a large amount *My homework is really mounting up this week.*

O-key **mountain** /ˈmaʊntɪn/ *noun* [C] **1 GEOGRAPHY** a very high hill *to **climb** a **mountain** ○ **a mountain range*** **2** *informal* a large pile of something *There's a **mountain of papers** on my desk.* **3 make a mountain out of a molehill** to deal with a small problem as if it were a big problem

ˈmountain ˌbike *noun* [C] **SPORT** a bicycle with thick tyres, originally made for people to ride on hills and rough ground

mountainous /ˈmaʊntɪnəs/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** A mountainous area has a lot of mountains.

mourn /mɔːn/ *verb* [I, T] to feel very sad because someone has died *He **mourned for** his dead son every day.*

mourner /ˈmɔːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone at a funeral

mournful /ˈmɔːnfᵊl/ *adjective* very sad *a **mournful voice*** ●**mournfully** *adverb*

mourning /ˈmɔːnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone mourns the death of someone else *a **period of mourning*** ○ *She's **in mourning** for her husband.*

mouse /maʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **mice 1 COMPUTING** a small piece of equipment connected to a computer that you move with your hand to control what the computer does ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** a small animal with fur and a long, thin tail

ˈmouse ˌmat *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a flat piece of material on which you move the mouse of your computer

mousse /muːs/ *noun* [C, U] **1 FOOD** a soft, cold food that is often sweet and usually has eggs or cream in it ***chocolate mousse*** **2** a substance that you put in your hair so that it stays in a particular shape

moustache (*also US* **mustache**) /məˈstɑːʃ/ (US) /ˈmʌstæʃ/ *noun* [C] a line of hair that some men grow above their mouths

mousy (*also* **mousey**) /ˈmaʊsi/ *adjective* **1** HAIR Mousy hair is light brown. **2** PERSON A mousy person is shy and not very interesting.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mouth***

close/open your mouth ● **in** your mouth

O-key **mouth** /maʊθ/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** the part of the face that is used for eating and speaking ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 mouth of a cave/tunnel, etc** the opening or entrance of a cave/tunnel, etc **3 mouth of a river GEOGRAPHY** where a river goes into the sea ➲See also: **butter**[1] wouldn't melt in sb's mouth

mouthful /ˈmaʊθfʊl/ *noun* [C] the amount of food or drink that you can put into your mouth at one time

mouthpiece /ˈmaʊθpiːs/ *noun* [C] a person, newspaper, etc that expresses the opinions of the government or a political group

mouthwash /ˈmaʊθwɒʃ/ *noun* [U] a liquid used to make your mouth clean and fresh

movable /ˈmuːvəbl/ *adjective* able to be moved

O-key **move**[1] /muːv/ *verb* **1** CHANGE PLACE [I] If a person or an organization moves, they go to a different place to live or work. *Eventually, he **moved to** Germany.* ○ *She's **moving into** a new apartment.* ○ *Our children have all **moved away**.* **2** POSITION [I, T] to change place or position, or to make something change place or position *We **moved** the chairs **to** another room.* ○ *Someone was **moving around** upstairs.* **3 move ahead/along/forward, etc** to make progress with something that you have planned to do *The department is moving ahead with changes to its teaching programme.* **4** ACTION [I] to take action [+ **to do sth**] *The company moved swiftly to find new products.* **5** TIME [T] to change the time or order of something *We need to move the meeting back a few days.* **6** FEELING [T] to make someone have strong feelings of sadness or sympathy [**often passive**] *I was deeply moved by his speech.* ○ *Many people were **moved to tears*** (= were so sad they cried). ➲Compare **unmoved** **7 move house** *UK* to leave your home in order to live in a new one **8 get moving** *informal* to hurry

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

move or travel?

Move means to change position or put something in a different position.

*Could you **move** back a bit, please?*

*Why don't you **move** the table over there?*

Travel means to go from one place to another, usually in a vehicle.

*Most people **travel** to work by car.*

move in *phrasal verb* to begin living in a new home *She's just **moved in with** her boyfriend.* ○ *They want to **move in together** before they get married.*
move out *phrasal verb* to stop living in a particular home
move on *phrasal verb* **1** NEW PLACE to leave the place where you are staying and go somewhere else *After three days in Madrid we thought we'd move on.* **2** NEW ACTIVITY to start doing a new activity *I'd done the same job for ten years and felt it was time to move on.* **3** NEW SUBJECT to change from one subject to another when you are talking or writing *Let's **move on to** the next topic.*
move over *phrasal verb* to change the place where you are sitting or standing so that there is space for someone else to sit or stand

move[2] /muːv/ *noun* [C] **1** ACTION something that you do in order to achieve something or to make progress in a situation *"I've told her she's got to find somewhere else to live." "**Good move!**"* ○ *The latest policies are clearly **a move towards** democracy.* ○ *a good **career move***

M

2 NEW HOME/OFFICE when you go to live or work in a different place *The move will cost us a lot of money.* **3 make a move a** MOVE to change from one place or position to another *He made a move as if to leave.* **b** LEAVE *UK informal* to leave somewhere *I'd better make a move or I'll be late.* **4 get a move on** *informal* to hurry *Come on, get a move on!*

movement /ˈmuːvmənt/ *noun* **1** GROUP [C] a group of people with the same beliefs who work together to achieve something *the women's movement* ○ *the labour movement* **2** CHANGE [C] a change or development in the way people think or behave *a movement towards democracy* **3** POSITION [C, U] a change of position or place *His movements were rather clumsy.* **4** MUSIC [C] a part of a piece of music *The symphony opens with a slow movement.* **5 sb's movements** what someone is doing during a particular period of time *I don't know his movements this week.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***movie***

make/see/watch a movie ● **in** a movie

movie /ˈmuːvi/ *noun* [C] *US* **1** a film **2 the movies** *US* (*UK* **the cinema**) a cinema, or group of cinemas *What's playing at the movies?* ○ *Why don't we* ***go to the movies*** *tonight?*

ˈmovie ˌstar *noun* [C] a famous movie actor or actress

ˈmovie ˌtheater *US* (*UK* **cinema**) *noun* [C] a building where you go to watch films

moving /ˈmuːvɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** FEELING causing strong feelings of sadness or sympathy *a* ***moving tribute*** **2** NOT STILL [**always before noun**] A moving object is one that moves. *a moving target*

mow /məʊ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **mowed**, *past participle* **mown** or **mowed** to cut grass using a machine *to* ***mow the lawn***

mower /ˈməʊəʳ/ (*also* **lawn mower**) *noun* [C] a machine that you use to cut grass

MP /ˌemˈpiː/ *noun* [C] POLITICS *abbreviation for* Member of Parliament: someone who has been elected to the government of the United Kingdom

MP3 /empiːˈθriː/ *noun* [C, U] COMPUTING a computer file (= collection of information) which stores good-quality sound in a small amount of space, or the technology that makes this possible

MPˈ3 ˌplayer *noun* [C] COMPUTING a piece of electronic equipment or a computer program for playing music that has been stored as MP3 files (= collections of information)

mph MEASURES *written abbreviation for* miles per hour: a unit for measuring speed *a 30 mph speed limit*

MPV /ˌempiːˈviː/ *UK* (*US* **minivan**) *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* multi-purpose vehicle: a large, high car which can carry more people than a normal car

Mr /ˈmɪstəʳ/ *noun* a title for a man, used before his family name or full name *Good morning, Mr Smith.* ○ *This package is addressed to Mr Gordon Harper.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

Mr, Mrs, Ms, Miss

All these titles are used before someone's name.

Mr is used for men. **Mrs** is used for women who are married. **Miss** is used for girls or for women who are not married. **Ms** is used for women and does not show if a woman is married. Many women prefer to use this title to **Miss** or **Mrs**.

We do not use these titles on their own as a way of speaking to someone. Usually, we use no name.

Can I help you?

~~*Can I help you, Mrs?*~~

MRI /ˌemɑːrˈaɪ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH *abbreviation for* magnetic resonance imaging: a system that produces electronic pictures of the organs inside a person's body

Mrs /ˈmɪsɪz/ *noun* a title for a married woman, used before her family name or full name *Hello, Mrs. Jones.* ○ *Please send your application to the finance director, Mrs Laura Fox.*

MRSA /ˌemɑːresˈeɪ/ *noun* HEALTH *abbreviation for* Methicillin Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus: a type of bacteria (= very small living things that causes disease) that is often found in hospitals and can make people very ill

Ms /mɪz/ *noun* a title for a woman, used before her family name or full name *Ms Holly Fox*

MS /ˌemˈes/ *noun* [U] HEALTH *abbreviation for* multiple sclerosis (= a serious disease that gradually makes it difficult for a person to see, speak, or move)

MSc *UK* (*US* **MS**) /ˌemesˈsiː/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION *abbreviation for* Master of Science: a higher university qualification in a science subject

MTV® /ˌemtiːˈviː/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* Music Television: an organization that broadcasts pop music around the world

much¹ /mʌtʃ/ *quantifier* **1** QUESTION In questions, 'much' is used to ask about the amount of something. *Was there much food there?* ○ ***How much*** *money will I need for the taxi?* **2** NEGATIVE In negative sentences, 'much' is used to say that there is not a large amount of something. *She doesn't earn much money.* ○ *Pete didn't say much at dinner.* ○ *"Is there any coffee left?" "Not much."* **3 too much/so much** a large amount of something, often more than you want *I'd love to come, but I've got too much work.* ○ *We were having so much fun, I didn't want to go home.* **4** A LOT OF *formal* a lot of *Much work remains to be done.* ○ *Much of his evidence was unreliable.* **5 not much of a sth** used when you want to say that a person or thing is a bad example of something *I'm not much of a cook.* **6 not be up to much** *UK informal* to be of bad quality *Her latest novel isn't up to much.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **many**

much² /mʌtʃ/ *adverb* **more**, **most 1** A LOT often or a lot *Do you go to London much?* ○ *I don't like curry very much.* **2** WITH ADJECTIVES used before comparative adjectives (= adjectives like 'better' and 'smaller', that are used to compare things) to mean 'a lot' *Their old house was much bigger.* ○ *That's a much more sensible idea.* ○ *"Is her new car faster than her old one?" "Oh yes, much."*

muck¹ /mʌk/ *noun* [U] *informal* dirt *You've got muck on your shoes.*

muck² /mʌk/ *verb*
muck about/around *phrasal verb mainly UK informal* to behave stupidly and waste time *Stop mucking around, will you!*
muck sth up *phrasal verb informal* to do something badly, or to spoil something *I mucked up the interview.*

mucous membrane /ˌmjuːkəsˈmembreɪn/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a thin layer of skin that produces mucus, for example inside the nose

mucus /ˈmjuːkəs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a thick liquid produced inside the nose and other parts of the body

mud /mʌd/ *noun* [U] a thick liquid mixture of soil and water, or this mixture after it has dried *He'd been playing football and was covered in mud.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***muddle***

be/get **in** a muddle ● a muddle **over/with** sth

muddle¹ /ˈmʌdl/ *noun* [C, U] a situation of confusion or bad organization *There was a big muddle over who was buying the tickets.* ○ *I'm **in** such **a muddle** with these bills.*

muddle² /ˈmʌdl/ *verb* **get sb/sth muddled up** to think that a person or thing is someone or something else *I often get Jonathan and his brother muddled up.*
muddle through (sth) *phrasal verb* to manage to do something although you do not know how to do it well *None of us has any formal training but somehow we muddle through.*
muddle sth up *phrasal verb* to arrange things in the wrong order *Please don't muddle up those books - I've just sorted them out.*

muddled /ˈmʌdld/ *adjective* **1** CONFUSED A person who is muddled is confused. *He became increasingly muddled as he grew older.* **2** NOT ORGANIZED Things that are muddled are badly organized. *He left his clothes in a muddled pile in the corner.*

muddy /ˈmʌdi/ *adjective* covered by or containing mud (= mixture of soil and water) *a muddy stream* ○ *muddy boots*

mudguard /ˈmʌdgɑːd/ *UK* (*US* **fender**) *noun* [C] a curved piece of metal or plastic fixed above a wheel of a bicycle or motorcycle to prevent water or dirt from hitting the person's legs

muesli /ˈmjuːzli/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a mixture of grains, dried fruit and nuts that people eat with milk as part of the first meal of the day

muffin /ˈmʌfɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** **FOOD** a small, sweet cake *a blueberry muffin* **2** **FOOD** *UK* (*US* **English muffin**) a small, round, flat bread that is often eaten hot with butter *toasted muffins*

muffle /ˈmʌfl/ *verb* [T] to make a noise quieter and less clear *The pillow muffled her screams.* ●**muffled** *adjective* Muffled sounds cannot be heard clearly. *a **muffled sound/voice*** ○ *a **muffled scream/cry***

muffler /ˈmʌflər/ *US* (*UK* **silencer**) *noun* [C] a part of a vehicle that reduces noise

mug¹ /mʌg/ *noun* [C] **1** CUP a large cup with straight sides usually used for hot drinks *a coffee mug* ○ *a steaming mug of tea* **2** PERSON *informal* someone who is stupid and easily deceived *I was such a mug to think he'd pay me back.*

mug² /mʌg/ *verb* [T] **mugging**, *past* **mugged** to attack and rob someone in a public place [**often passive**] *He was mugged as he walked across the park.* ●**mugger** *noun* [C] someone who mugs people

mugging /ˈmʌgɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is attacked in a public place and money, etc stolen from them

muggy /ˈmʌgi/ *adjective* When the weather is muggy, it is unpleasantly warm and the air contains a lot of water. *a muggy afternoon*

Muhammad /məˈhæmɪd/ *noun* **RELIGION** *another spelling of* Mohammed (= the Arab holy man on whose life and teachings Islam is based)

mule /mjuːl/ *noun* [C] an animal whose mother is a horse and whose father is a donkey (= animal like a small horse)

mules /mjuːlz/ *noun* [**plural**] women's shoes that have no back ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

mull /mʌl/ *verb*
mull sth over *phrasal verb* to think carefully about something for a long time, often before you make a decision

mullah /ˈmʌlə/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a Muslim religious teacher or leader

multi- /mʌlti-/ *prefix* many *a multi-millionaire* ○ *a multi-storey car park*

multicellular /ˌmʌltiˈseljələr/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** made of many cells

multicultural /ˌmʌltiˈkʌltʃərəl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** including people of different races and religions *a **multiculltural society***

multilingual /ˌmʌltiˈlɪŋgwəl/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** using or speaking more than two languages

multimedia /ˌmʌltiˈmiːdiə/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **COMPUTING** Multimedia computers and programs use sound, pictures, film, and text. *multimedia software/technology*

multinational¹ /ˌmʌltiˈnæʃənəl/ *adjective* active in several countries, or involving people from several countries *a **multinational company/corporation***

multinational² /ˌmʌltiˈnæʃənəl/ *noun* [C] a large company that produces and sells goods in many different countries

multiple¹ /ˈmʌltɪpl/ *adjective* with several parts ***multiple injuries***

multiple² /ˈmʌltɪpl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that can be divided by another number an exact number of times *Nine is **a multiple of** three.*

multiple choice *adjective* **EDUCATION** A multiple choice exam or question gives you different answers and you choose the correct one.

multiple sclerosis /ˌmʌltɪplsklɪˈrəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that gradually makes it difficult for a person to see, speak, or move

multiplex /ˈmʌltipleks/ *noun* [C] a cinema which has separate screens and shows different films at the same time

multiplication /ˌmʌltɪplɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** the process of multiplying a number with other numbers

multiply /ˈmʌltɪplaɪ/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to increase by a large number, or to cause something to increase by a large number *In warm weather, germs multiply rapidly.* **2** **MATHEMATICS** [T] to add one number to itself a particular number of times *Three **multiplied by** six equals eighteen.*

multi-purpose /ˌmʌlti ˈpɜːpəs/ *adjective* describes something that can be used in many different ways

multiracial /ˌmʌltiˈreɪʃəl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** involving people from different races *a **multiracial society***

multi-storey /ˌmʌltiˈstɔːri/ *UK* (*US* **multistory**) *adjective* describes a building with many floors *(UK) a multi-storey car park/(US) a multistory office building*

multitasking /ˌmʌltiˈtɑːskɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** the ability of a person to do more than one thing at a time *Women are often very good at multitasking.* **2** **COMPUTING** when a computer does several processes at the same time

multitude /ˈmʌltɪtjuːd/ *noun* [C] *formal* a large number of people or things *a multitude of problems/questions*

mum /mʌm/ *UK* (*US* **mom**) *noun* [C] *informal* mother *I asked my mum but she said no.* ○ *Can we go now, Mum?*

mumble /ˈmʌmbl/ *verb* [I, T] to speak too quietly and not clearly enough for someone to understand you *He **mumbled something about** it being a waste of time.*

mummy /ˈmʌmi/ *noun* [C] **1** MOTHER *UK informal* (*US* **mommy**) a word for 'mother', used especially by children *Come here, Mummy!* ○ *My mummy and daddy came too.* **2** DEAD BODY a dead body covered in cloth, especially from ancient Egypt

mumps /mʌmps/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness that children get which makes the throat and neck swell *to have mumps*

munch /mʌnʃ/ *verb* [I, T] to eat something in a noisy way *She was sitting on the lawn munching an apple.*

mundane /mʌnˈdeɪn/ *adjective* ordinary, or not interesting *a mundane task/life*

municipal /mjuːˈnɪsɪpəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **POLITICS** relating to the government of a town or city *a municipal council/election*

munitions /mjuːˈnɪʃənz/ *noun* [**plural**] bombs, guns, and other military equipment *a **munitions factory***

mural /ˈmjʊərəl/ *noun* [C] **ART** a picture that is painted on a wall

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***murder***

commit (a) murder ● the murder **of** sb ● a murder **charge** / **investigation** / **victim** / **weapon**

murder¹ /ˈmɜːdər/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the crime of intentionally killing someone *to **commit murder*** ○ *She was charged with **attempted murder**.* ○ *a murder charge/trial* **2** **be murder** *informal* to be unpleasant or cause difficulty *Driving in Chicago at rush hour is murder.*

murder² /ˈmɜːdər/ *verb* [T] to kill someone intentionally and illegally [**often passive**] *He was murdered by a former employee.*

murderer /ˈmɜːdərər/ *noun* [C] someone who has committed murder *a convicted murderer*

murderous /ˈmɜːdərəs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] likely to kill someone, or wanting to kill them *a murderous dictator/regime*

murky /ˈmɜːki/ *adjective* **1** SECRET secret, and involving dishonest or illegal activities *He has a **murky past** as an arms dealer.* ○ *the **murky world** of drug dealing* **2** DIRTY dirty and dark *murky water*

murmur¹ /ˈmɜːmər/ *verb* [I, T] to speak quietly so that you can only be heard by someone near you *"Go to sleep now," she murmured.* ○ *He murmured a few words of sympathy.*

murmur² /ˈmɜːmər/ *noun* [C] the sound of something being said quietly *I could hear the low **murmur of voices** from behind the door.*

muscle¹ /ˈmʌsl/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [C, U] one of many pieces of tissue in the body that are connected to bones and which produce movement by becoming longer or shorter *aching joints and muscles* ○ *stomach/thigh muscles* ○ *I think I may have **pulled*** (= injured) ***a muscle.*** **2** [U] the ability to control or influence people *political/military muscle*

muscle² /ˈmʌsl/ *verb*
muscle in *phrasal verb* to force yourself into an activity in which other people do not want you to be involved *How can we stop him **muscling in on** this project?*

muscular /ˈmʌskjələr/ *adjective* **1** having firm, strong muscles *muscular legs/arms* **2** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** relating to muscles *muscular aches/pains*

muse /mjuːz/ *verb* [I] *formal* to think carefully about something for a long time *I was just **musing about** relationships.*

museum /mjuːˈziːəm/ *noun* [C] a building where you can look at important objects connected with art, history, or science *a museum of modern art*

mush /mʌʃ/ *noun* [U] *informal* food that is unpleasantly soft and wet, usually because it has been cooked for too long

mushroom¹ /ˈmʌʃruːm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** a type of fungus (= organism like a plant) with a short stem and a round top, some types of which can be eaten *pasta with wild mushrooms*

mushroom² /ˈmʌʃruːm/ *verb* [I] to increase or develop very quickly *mushrooming costs*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***music***

compose/listen to/play music ● a **piece of** music ● **dance/pop/classical** music ● **put on some** music

music /ˈmjuːzɪk/ *noun* [U] **1** **MUSIC** a pattern of sounds that is made by playing instruments or

singing, or a recording of this ***pop/dance music*** ○ ***classical music*** ○ *He likes* ***listening to music***. ○ *Could you* ***put on*** *some* ***music?*** ○ *a music festival* ○ *a music lesson/teacher* **2** MUSIC written signs which represent sounds that can be sung or played with instruments *I never learnt to* ***read music*** (= understand written music). **3 face the music** to accept punishment or criticism for something bad that you have done ➲See also: **chamber music, country music, folk music**

musical¹ /ˈmjuːzɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** MUSIC [**always before noun**] relating to music *a* ***musical instrument*** **2** MUSIC good at playing music *She comes from a very musical family.* ●**musically** *adverb*

musical² /ˈmjuːzɪkᵊl/ *noun* [C] a play or film in which singing and dancing tell part of the story *a Broadway/Hollywood musical*

musician /mjuːˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] MUSIC someone who plays a musical instrument, often as a job *a talented jazz/classical musician*

Muslim (*also* **Moslem**) /ˈmʊzlɪm/ (US) /ˈmʌzləm/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who believes in Islam ●**Muslim** *adjective a Muslim family*

muslin /ˈmʌzlɪn/ *noun* [U] a very thin cotton cloth

mussel /ˈmʌsᵊl/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small sea creature that has a black shell in two parts and that can be eaten

must¹ *strong form* /mʌst/ *weak forms* /məst, məs/ *modal verb* **1** NECESSARY used to say that it is necessary that something happens or is done *The meat must be cooked thoroughly.* ○ *You mustn't show this letter to anyone else.* ○ *I must get some sleep.* **2** LIKELY used to show that you think something is very likely or certain to be true *You must be exhausted.* ○ *She must be very wealthy.* **3** SUGGEST used to show that you think it is a good idea for someone to do something *You must come and stay with us some time.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

must² /mʌst/ *noun* **be a must** *informal* If something is a must, it is very important to have or do it. *The restaurant has become so popular that reservations are a must.*

mustache /məˈstɑːʃ/ (US) /ˈmʌstæʃ/ *noun* [C] *another US spelling of* moustache (= a line of hair above the mouth)

mustard /ˈmʌstəd/ *noun* [U] FOOD a thick, spicy, yellow or brown sauce often eaten in small amounts with meat *a teaspoon of mustard*

muster /ˈmʌstəʳ/ (*also* **muster up**) *verb* [T] to get enough support, bravery, or energy to do something difficult *I hope she* ***musters the courage*** *to invite him for dinner.*

mustn't /ˈmʌsᵊnt/ *short for* must not *You mustn't let her know I'm coming.*

musty /ˈmʌsti/ *adjective* smelling old and slightly wet in an unpleasant way *a musty room* ○ *the* ***musty smell*** *of old books*

mutant /ˈmjuːtᵊnt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY an organism or cell that is different from others of the same type because of a change in its genes *a mutant virus*

mutation /mjuːˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] BIOLOGY a permanent change in the genes of an organism, or an organism with such a change *The disease is caused by a mutation in a single gene.*

mute /mjuːt/ *adjective* **1** THOUGHT expressed in thoughts but not in speech or writing *The president has* ***remained mute*** *about whether he will resign.* ○ *I gazed at her in* ***mute admiration***. **2** NOT SPEAKING unable to speak for physical or mental reasons *a school for deaf and mute children*

muted /ˈmjuːtɪd/ *adjective* **1** FEELING not strongly expressed *a* ***muted response/reaction*** ○ ***muted criticism*** **2** SOUND A muted sound is quieter than usual. ***muted voices*** **3** COLOUR [**always before noun**] A muted colour is not bright or easily noticed.

mutilate /ˈmjuːtɪleɪt/ *verb* [T] to damage someone's body violently and severely, often by cutting off a part of it *a* ***mutilated body/corpse*** ●**mutilation** /ˌmjuːtɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

mutiny /ˈmjuːtɪnɪ/ *noun* [C, U] when a group of people, usually soldiers or sailors, refuse to obey orders, often because they want to be in control themselves ●**mutiny** *verb* [I] to take part in a mutiny

mutt /mʌt/ *noun* [C] *informal* a dog that is a mixture of different breeds (= types)

mutter /ˈmʌtəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to speak quietly so that your voice is difficult to hear, often when complaining about something *She walked past me,* ***muttering to herself***. ○ *He muttered* ***something about*** *the restaurant being too expensive.* ●**mutter** *noun* [C]

mutton /ˈmʌtᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** FOOD meat from an adult sheep *a leg/shoulder of mutton* **2 mutton dressed as lamb** *UK informal* an older woman who wears clothes that would be more suitable for a young woman

mutual /ˈmjuːtʃuəl/ *adjective* **1** OPINION When two or more people have a mutual feeling, they have the same opinion about each other. ***mutual admiration/respect*** ○ *He doesn't like her, and I suspect* ***the feeling's mutual***. **2** FRIEND/INTEREST When two or more people have a mutual friend or interest, they have the same one. *Andrew and Jean were introduced to each other by a* ***mutual friend***.

mutualism /ˈmjuːtʃuəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY when two organisms live together and get advantages from each other

mutually /ˈmjuːtʃuəli/ *adverb* You use mutually before an adjective when the adjective describes all sides of a situation. *a* ***mutually dependent*** *relationship* ○ *Being attractive and intelligent are not* ***mutually exclusive*** (= someone can be attractive and intelligent).

muzak /ˈmjuːzæk/ *noun* [U] *trademark* MUSIC recorded music that is played quietly and continuously in public places such as airports, hotels and shops

muzzle¹ /ˈmʌzl/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY the mouth and nose of a dog, or a covering put over these to prevent the dog biting **2** the open end of the long cylindrical part of a gun

M

muzzle² /ˈmʌzl/ *verb* [T] **1** PREVENT BITE to put a muzzle on a dog **2** PREVENT OPINION to prevent someone expressing their own opinions

my /maɪ/ *determiner* belonging to or relating to the person who is speaking or writing *Tom's my older son.* ○ *It's not my fault.* ○ *My house is near the station.*

mycelium /maɪˈsiːliəm/ *noun* [U] *plural* **mycelia** BIOLOGY the main part of a fungus (= plant such as a mushroom)

myelin /ˈmaɪəlɪn/ *noun* [U] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a substance containing a lot of fat that covers nerves to protect them, and helps them to send signals ●**myelination** /maɪəlɪnˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C]

MYOB *informal* INTERNET *internet abbreviation for* mind your own business: used in emails and text messages to say rudely that you do not want to talk about something

myriad /ˈmɪriəd/ *adjective literary* very many ***myriad problems*** ●**myriad** *noun* [C] *literary Digital technology resulted in* ***a myriad of*** (= many) new TV channels.

myself /maɪˈself/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronouns 'me' or 'I' *I've bought myself a new coat.* ○ *I looked at myself in the mirror.* **2** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the pronoun 'I', especially when the speaker wants to talk about their actions and not someone else's *I'll tell her myself.* ○ *Jack always drinks red wine but I prefer white myself.* **3 (all) by myself** alone or without anyone else's help *I live by myself in a small flat.* ○ *Mummy, I got dressed all by myself.* **4 (all) to myself** for my use only *I'll have the flat all to myself this weekend.*

mysterious /mɪˈstɪəriəs/ *adjective* **1** NOT KNOWN strange or unknown, and not explained or understood *a mysterious stranger* ○ *the mysterious death of her son* **2** NOT TALKING refusing to talk about something and behaving in a secretive way *Nick is being very* ***mysterious about*** *where he's going on holiday.* ●**mysteriously** *adverb to* ***disappear/vanish mysteriously***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***mystery***

explain/solve/unravel a mystery ● the mystery **surrounding** sth ● an **unexplained/unsolved** mystery ● the mystery **of** sth ● be a mystery **to** sb

mystery¹ /ˈmɪstᵊri/ *noun* **1** STRANGE EVENT [C, U] something strange or unknown that cannot be explained or understood *an* ***unsolved mystery*** ○ *He never gave up hope that he would* ***solve the mystery of*** *his son's disappearance.* ○ *He's out of work, so how he pays his rent is* ***a mystery to*** *me* (= I cannot explain it). **2** LITERATURE [C] a story, often about a crime, in which the strange events that happen are explained at the end *a* ***murder mystery***

mystery² /ˈmɪstᵊri/ *adjective* [always before noun] A mystery person or thing is one who is unknown. *I saw her with a* ***mystery man*** *in a restaurant last night.*

mystic /ˈmɪstɪk/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who attempts to be united with God through prayer

mystical /ˈmɪstɪkᵊl/ (*also* **mystic**) *adjective* **1** RELIGION relating to the religious beliefs and activities of mystics **2** involving magical or spiritual powers that are not understood

mysticism /ˈmɪstɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] RELIGION the religious beliefs and activities of mystics

mystify /ˈmɪstɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] If something mystifies someone, they cannot understand or explain it because it is confusing or complicated. [often passive] *I was mystified by the decision.*

mystique /mɪˈstiːk/ *noun* [U] a mysterious quality that makes a person or thing seem interesting or special *the mystique of the princess*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***myth***

debunk/dispel/explode a myth (= show that an idea is not true) ● a **common/popular** myth ● the myth **of** sth

myth /mɪθ/ *noun* [C] **1** LITERATURE an ancient story about gods and brave people, often one that explains an event in history or the natural world *a Greek myth* **2** IDEA an idea that is not true but is believed by many people *It's a myth that men are better drivers than women.*

mythical /ˈmɪθɪkᵊl/ (*also* **mythic**) *adjective* **1** FROM ANCIENT STORY existing in a myth *a mythical character* **2** FALSE imaginary or not true

mythology /mɪˈθɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] myths, often those relating to a single religion or culture ***classical mythology*** ○ *the mythology of the ancient Greeks* ●**mythological** /ˌmɪθᵊlˈɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective*

M

Nn

N, n /en/ the fourteenth letter of the alphabet

N/A (*also US* **NA**) *written abbreviation for* not applicable: used on official forms to show that you do not need to answer a question

naff /næf/ *adjective UK informal* silly and not fashionable *naff lyrics*

NAFTA /ˈnæftə/ *noun* **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* North American Free Trade Agreement: an agreement between the US, Canada and Mexico about how they do business between them

nag /næg/ *verb* [**I, T**] **nagging**, *past* **nagged** to keep criticizing or giving advice to someone in an annoying way *They keep nagging me about going to university.*
nag (away) at sb *phrasal verb* If doubts or worries nag at you, you think about them all the time. *The same thought has been nagging away at me since last week.*

nagging /ˈnægɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Nagging doubts or worries make you worried and you cannot forget them. *a* ***nagging doubt***

O-K **nail**[1] /neɪl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a thin piece of metal with a sharp end, used to join pieces of wood together *a hammer and nails* ➲See picture at **tools** **2** **ANATOMY** the hard surface at the end of your fingers and toes *fingernails/toenails* ○ *to* ***cut*** *your* ***nails*** ○ ***nail clippers/scissors*** ○ *Stop* ***biting*** *your* ***nails.*** **3 hit the nail on the head** to describe exactly what is causing a situation or problem **4 the final nail in the coffin** an event which causes the failure of something that had already started to fail *This latest evidence could be the final nail in the coffin for Jackson's case.*

nail[2] /neɪl/ *verb* **1 nail sth down/on/to, etc** to fasten something with nails *There was a 'private property' sign nailed to the tree.* **2** [**T**] *mainly US informal* to catch someone who has committed a crime *They eventually* ***nailed*** *him* ***for*** *handling stolen goods.*
nail sb down *phrasal verb* to make someone give you exact details or a decision about something
nail sth down *phrasal verb US* to understand something completely, or to describe something correctly *We haven't been able to nail down the cause of the fire yet.*

ˈ**nail** ˌ**brush** *noun* [**C**] a small brush, used for cleaning your nails ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

ˈ**nail** ˌ**polish** (*also UK* ˈ**nail** ˌ**varnish**) *noun* [**U**] paint that you put on your nails

naive /naɪˈiːv/ *adjective* If someone is naive, they believe things too easily and do not have enough experience of the world. *I was much younger then, and very naive.* ●**naively** *adverb* *I naively believed that we would be treated as equals.* ●**naivety** /naɪˈiːvəti/ *noun* [**U**] the quality of being naive

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***naked***

(US) **buck** /(UK/US) **stark** naked ● **half** naked

O-K **naked** /ˈneɪkɪd/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT CLOTHES not wearing clothes or not covered by anything *a naked thigh/shoulder* ○ *He was* ***stark naked*** (= completely naked). **2** NOT HIDDEN [**always before noun**] A naked feeling or quality is not hidden, although it is bad. ***naked aggression*** **3 the naked eye** If something can be seen by the naked eye, it is big enough to be seen without special equipment.

O-K **name**[1] /neɪm/ *noun* **1** [**C**] the word or group of words that is used to refer to a person, thing, or place *What's your name?* ○ *My name's Alexis.* ○ *I can't remember the name of the street he lives on.* ○ *He didn't mention her* ***by name*** (= he did not say her name). **2 in the name of sth** If bad things are done in the name of something, they are done in order to help that thing succeed. *So much blood has been spilt in the name of religion.* **3 a bad/good name** If things or people have a bad/good name, people have a bad/good opinion of them. *Their behaviour gives us all a bad name.* **4 call sb names** to use impolite or unpleasant words to describe someone **5 make a name for yourself** to become famous or respected by a lot of people **6 the name of the game** the main purpose or most important part of an activity *Popularity is the name of the game in television.* ➲See also: **brand name, Christian name, family name, first name, last name, maiden name, middle name**

O-K **name**[2] /neɪm/ *verb* [**T**] **1** GIVE A NAME to give someone or something a name [**+ two objects**] *We named our first son Mike.* ○ *A young boy named Peter answered the phone.* **2** SAY NAME to say what the name of someone or something is [**often passive**] *The dead man has been* ***named as*** *John Kramer.* ○ *She cannot be named for legal reasons.* **3** ANNOUNCE to announce who has got a new job or won a prize [**+ two objects**] *She has been named manager of the new Edinburgh branch.* **4 you name it** something that you say which means anything you say or choose *I've never seen such a wide selection. You name it, they've got it.* **5 name and shame** *UK* to publicly say that a person or business has done something wrong
name sb after sb *phrasal verb* to give someone the same name as someone else *We named him after my wife's brother.*

ˈ**name** ˌ**day** *noun* [**C**] **RELIGION** the day that is celebrated by some Christians with the same name as a saint who is also celebrated on that day

nameless /ˈneɪmləs/ *adjective* If someone or something is nameless, they have no name or their name is not known. *a nameless soldier* ➲Compare **unnamed**

namely /ˈneɪmli/ *adverb* a word used when you are going to give more detail about something you have just said *She learned an important lesson from failing that exam, namely that nothing is ever certain.*

namesake /ˈneɪmseɪk/ *noun* [**C**] **your namesake** someone who has the same name as you

nan /næn/ *noun* [**C**] *UK informal* grandmother

N

nanny /ˈnæni/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to look after a family's children

nano- /nænəʊ-/ *prefix* **1** extremely small *nanotechnology* **2** MEASURES one billionth (= a thousand millionth) *a nanosecond*

nap /næp/ *noun* [C] a short sleep *He likes to* ***have/take a nap*** *after lunch.* ●**nap** *verb* [I] **napping**, *past* **napped**

nape /neɪp/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the back of your neck

napkin /ˈnæpkɪn/ (*also UK* **serviette**) *noun* [C] a piece of cloth or paper used when you eat to keep your clothes clean and to clean your mouth and hands *a paper napkin*

nappy /ˈnæpi/ *UK* (*US* **diaper**) *noun* [C] a thick piece of paper or cloth worn by a baby on its bottom ***disposable nappies*** ○ *to* ***change a nappy***

narcissism /ˈnɑːsɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] *formal* great interest in and pleasure at your own appearance and qualities ●**narcissistic** /ˌnɑːsɪˈsɪstɪk/ *adjective* If people or their actions are narcissistic, they show narcissism.

narcotic /nɑːˈkɒtɪk/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a drug that stops you feeling pain or makes you sleep, and that is addictive (= difficult to stop using)

narrate /nəˈreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* LITERATURE to tell the story in a book, film, play, etc *'Peter and the Wolf,' narrated by actress Glenn Close* ●**narration** /nəˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *formal*

narrative /ˈnærətɪv/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE *formal* a story or description of a series of events

narrator /nəˈreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE the person who tells the story in a book, film, play, etc

narrow¹ /ˈnærəʊ/ *adjective* **1** NOT WIDE Narrow things measure a small distance from one side to the other. *a narrow lane/street* ○ *a narrow tie* **2** FEW including only a small number *He has very narrow interests.* **3 a narrow defeat/victory** If you have a narrow defeat/victory, you only just lose/win. **4 a narrow escape** If you have a narrow escape, you only just avoid danger.

narrow² /ˈnærəʊ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** MAKE SMALLER to become less wide or to make something less wide *The road has been narrowed to one lane.* **2** BECOME LESS to become less or to make something become less
narrow sth down *phrasal verb* to make something, for example a list or a choice, smaller and clearer by removing the things that are less important *We've managed to narrow the list down to four.*

narrowly /ˈnærəʊli/ *adverb* only by a small amount *A tile fell off the roof,* ***narrowly missing*** *my head.*

narrow-minded /ˌnærəʊˈmaɪndɪd/ *adjective* not willing to accept new ideas or opinions different from your own

nasal /ˈneɪzᵊl/ *adjective* ANATOMY, BIOLOGY relating to the nose *the* ***nasal passages***

nascent /ˈnæsᵊnt, ˈneɪsᵊnt/ *adjective formal* starting to develop *a nascent democracy*

nasty /ˈnɑːsti/ *adjective* **1** BAD very bad *a nasty shock/surprise* ○ *a nasty smell/taste* ○ *a nasty cut/burn* **2** UNKIND unkind *She's always being* ***nasty to*** *her little brother.* **3** ANGRY very angry or violent *When I asked for the money, he turned really nasty.* ●**nastiness** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nation***

a **civilized/industrialized/poor/powerful** nation ● **govern/lead** a nation ● **across** the nation ● a nation **of** sth

nation /ˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] a country or the people living in a country *Asian nations* ○ *industrial nations* ○ *The entire nation mourned her death.* ○ *a nation of dog lovers.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **country** ➲See also: **the United Nations**

national¹ /ˈnæʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** WHOLE COUNTRY relating to the whole of a country *to threaten* ***national security*** ○ *a sense of national identity* ○ *a national newspaper* ○ ***national elections*** ○ *His income is way above the* ***national average.*** ○ *Gambling is a* ***national pastime*** (= many people do it) *here.* **2** TRADITION [always before noun] connected with the traditions of a particular nation *national dress/customs* ●**nationally** *adverb*

national² /ˈnæʃᵊnᵊl/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who officially belongs to a particular country *a British/Chinese national*

ˌnational ˈanthem *noun* [C] MUSIC the official song of a country, played at public events

the ˌNational ˈHealth Service *noun* HEALTH the system providing free medical services in the UK

ˌnational ˈholiday (*also US* **federal holiday**) *noun* [C] a day when most people in a country do not have to work

ˌNational Inˈsurance *noun* [U] ECONOMICS the system in the UK in which people regularly pay money to the government in order to help people who are ill or have no work

nationalism /ˈnæʃᵊnᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] POLITICS **1** a feeling of pride in your own country **2** the belief that a particular area should have its own government *Welsh nationalism*

nationalist /ˈnæʃᵊnᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who wants a particular area to have its own government

nationalistic /ˌnæʃᵊnᵊlˈɪstɪk/ *adjective* POLITICS having a lot of pride, often too much pride, in your own country *nationalistic fervour*

nationality /ˌnæʃᵊnˈælətɪ/ *noun* [C, U] SOCIETY If you have American/British/Swiss, etc nationality, you are legally a member of that country. *What nationality is she?* ○ *She has* ***dual nationality*** (= nationality of two countries).

nationalize /ˈnæʃᵊnᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] POLITICS, ECONOMICS If private companies are nationalized, the government takes control of them. ●**nationalization** /ˌnæʃᵊnᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

ˌnational ˈpark *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT a large area of park for use by the public, usually an area of special beauty

ˌnational ˈservice *noun* [U] the period of time young people in some countries have to spend in the army

nationwide /ˌneɪʃˈnˈwaɪd/ *adjective, adverb* including all parts of a country *a **nationwide campaign*** ○ *Surveys have been carried out nationwide.*

native¹ /ˈneɪtɪv/ *adjective* **1** BORN IN [**always before noun**] Your native town or country is the place where you were born. *It was a custom in his native Algeria.* ○ *She is a **native-born** Texan.* **2** **LANGUAGE** [**always before noun**] Your native language is the first language you learn. **3** **SOCIETY** [**always before noun**] relating to the people who lived in a country first, before other people took control of it *the **native inhabitants/population*** **4** ANIMALS AND PLANTS Native animals or plants live or grow naturally in a place, and have not been brought from somewhere else. *a large bird **native to** Europe*

native² /ˈneɪtɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** BORN someone who was born in a particular place *He's **a native of** Texas.* **2** ORIGINAL PEOPLE an old-fashioned and often offensive word for a person who lived in a country, for example an African country, before Europeans went there

ˌNative Aˈmerican *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating or belonging to the original group of people who lived in North America ●**Native American** *noun* [C]

ˌnative ˈspeaker *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** someone who speaks a language as their first language

NATO (*also UK* **Nato**) /ˈneɪtəʊ/ *noun* **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* North Atlantic Treaty Organization: an international military organization formed in 1949 to improve the defence of Western Europe

natter /ˈnætəʳ/ *verb* [I] *mainly UK informal* to talk about things that are not important ●**natter** *noun* [**no plural**] *UK* to ***have** a **natter***

O-key **natural** /ˈnætʃʳrᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NATURE Something that is natural exists or happens because of nature, not because it was made or done by people. ***natural gas/resources*** ○ ***natural beauty*** ○ *to die of **natural causes*** (= because you are ill or old) ○ *This product contains only **natural ingredients.*** **2** NORMAL normal or expected *a **natural impulse/instinct*** ○ *It's perfectly natural to feel nervous.* ➲Opposite **unnatural** **3** FROM BIRTH If you have a natural characteristic, it is something you have been born with. *a natural talent* ○ *She's a natural athlete/blonde.* ●**naturalness** *noun* [U]

ˌnatural ˈgas *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, GEOLOGY** a gas that is found under the ground and is used for cooking and heating

ˌnatural ˈhistory *noun* [U] the study of animals and plants

naturalist /ˈnætʃʳrᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who studies animals and plants

naturalistic /ˌnætʃʳrᵊlˈɪstɪk/ *adjective* Naturalistic art, writing, or acting tries to show things as they really are.

naturalize /ˈnætʃʳrᵊlaɪz/ *verb* **POLITICS** **be naturalized** to officially become a member of another country *a naturalized US citizen* ●**naturalization** /ˌnætʃʳrᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

naturally /ˈnætʃʳrᵊli/ *adverb* **1** AS EXPECTED as you would expect *Naturally, he was very disappointed.* **2** NORMALLY in a normal way *Relax and try to behave naturally.* **3** FROM BIRTH having been born with a characteristic *naturally aggressive/funny/slim* **4** NATURE Something that exists or happens naturally is part of nature and not made or done by people. *Organic tomatoes are grown naturally without chemical fertilizers.*

ˌnatural ˈsciences *noun* [**plural**] **EDUCATION** sciences that relate to the physical world such as biology, chemistry, and physics

ˌnatural seˈlection *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the way that plants and animals die when they are weak or not suitable for the place where they live, while stronger ones continue to exist

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nature***

2 in sb's nature ● [happy/optimistic, etc.] **by** nature

O-key **nature** /ˈneɪtʃəʳ/ *noun* **1** PLANTS AND ANIMALS [U] all the plants, creatures, substances, and forces that exist in the universe, which are not made by people *the laws of nature* ○ *I like to get out and enjoy nature.* ○ *a nature trail* **2** CHARACTER [**no plural**] someone's character *I didn't think it was **in his nature** to behave like that.* **3** TYPE [**no plural**] *formal* type *What exactly is **the nature of** your business?* ○ *I don't like hunting and things **of that nature**.* ➲See also: **human nature, second nature**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

nature, the environment and **countryside**

Nature means all the things in the world which exist naturally and were not created by people.

He's interested in wildlife and anything to do with nature.

The environment means the land, water, and air that animals and plants live in. It is usually used when talking about the way people use or damage the natural world.

The government has introduced new policies to protect the environment.

Countryside means land where there are no towns or cities.

I love walking in the countryside.

ˈnature reˌserve *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** a place where animals and plants live and are protected

naught *old-fashioned* (*also UK* **nought**) /nɔːt/ *noun* [U] nothing

naughty /ˈnɔːti/ *adjective* **1** BEHAVIOUR If a child is naughty, they behave badly. *a **naughty** little **boy/girl*** **2** SEXUAL a word used humorously to describe things that are sexual *naughty films/magazines*

nausea /ˈnɔːziə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the unpleasant feeling of wanting to vomit *She was hit by a sudden **wave of nausea**.*

nauseating /ˈnɔːsieɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* **HEALTH** If something is nauseating, it makes you want to vomit. *a nauseating smell*

N

nauseous /ˈnɔːsiəs/ *adjective* HEALTH If you feel nauseous, you feel like you might vomit, and if something is nauseous, it makes you want to vomit.

nautical /ˈnɔːtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to boats or sailing *a **nautical mile***

naval /ˈneɪvᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the navy *a **naval base/officer***

navel /ˈneɪvᵊl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the small, round, and usually hollow place on your stomach, where you were connected to your mother before birth

navigable /ˈnævɪgəbl/ *adjective* If an area of water is navigable, it is wide, deep, and safe enough to sail a boat on.

navigate /ˈnævɪgeɪt/ *verb* **1** WITH MAP [**I, T**] to find the right direction to travel by using maps or other equipment *He navigated the ship back to Plymouth.* ○ *We navigated using a map and compass.* ○ *I drive and he navigates.* **2** BOAT [**T**] to successfully sail along an area of water **3** DIFFICULT JOURNEY [**T**] to find your way through a difficult place *We had to navigate several flights of stairs.* **4** SYSTEM [**T**] to successfully use a complicated system *to navigate a website* ●**navigation** /ˌnævɪˈgeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] ●**navigator** *noun* [**C**] a person who navigates

navy /ˈneɪvi/ *noun* **1 the Navy** ships and soldiers used for fighting wars at sea *to be **in the navy*** **2** [**U**] (*also* ˌ**navy** ˈ**blue**) a very dark blue colour ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

Nazi /ˈnɑːtsi/ *noun* [**C**] POLITICS someone who supported the ideas of Hitler in Germany in the 1930s and 1940s *Nazi propaganda*

nb, NB /ˌenˈbiː/ used to tell the reader that a particular piece of information is very important

née /neɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] a word used to introduce the family name that a woman had before she got married *Margaret Hughes, née Johnson*

near¹ /nɪəʳ/ *adverb, preposition* **1** DISTANCE not far away in distance *Could you come a bit nearer, please?* ○ *I stood near the window.* ○ *Are you going anywhere near the post office?* **2 be/come near to doing sth** to almost achieve or do something *This is the nearest I've ever got to winning anything.* ○ *He came near to punching him.* **3** STATE If something or someone is near a particular state, they are almost in that state. *She looked near exhaustion.* ○ *She was **near to tears*** (= almost crying) *when I told her.* **4** TIME not far away in time *She shouldn't be partying so near her exams.* ○ *We can decide **nearer the time.*** **5** SIMILAR similar *The feelings I had were near hysteria.* ○ *He is Russia's **nearest thing to** a rock legend.* **6 nowhere near** not close in distance, amount, time, or quality *It wasn't me - I was nowhere near him.* ○ *That's nowhere near enough for six people.* ○ *It was nowhere near as difficult as I thought it would be.* **7 near enough** almost *The books were ordered near enough alphabetically.*

near² /nɪəʳ/ *adjective* **1** not far away in distance or time *The school's very near.* ○ *The nearest garage is 10 miles away.* ○ *The baby's due date was getting nearer.* **2 in the near future** at a time that is not far away *Space travel may become very common in the near future.* ➲See also: a near **miss²**

near³ /nɪəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] to get close to something in distance or time *The building work is **nearing completion** at last.*

nearby /ˌnɪəˈbaɪ/ *adjective, adverb* not far away *a nearby town/village*

nearly /ˈnɪəli/ *adverb* **1** almost *It's nearly three weeks since I last saw her.* ○ *Nearly all the food had gone when I arrived.* ○ *She nearly drowned when she was eight.* ○ *I'll be with you in a minute - I've nearly finished.* **2 not nearly (as/so)** a lot less *It's not nearly as expensive as I thought.*

nearsighted /ˌnɪəˈsaɪtɪd/ *US* (*UK* **short-sighted**) *adjective* HEALTH If you are nearsighted, you cannot see things very well if they are too far away.

neat /niːt/ *adjective* **1** TIDY tidy and clean *He always looks very **neat and tidy.*** **2** GOOD *US informal* good *That's really neat.* ○ *What a neat idea.* **3** ALCOHOL A neat alcoholic drink is drunk on its own, and not mixed with any other liquid.

neatly /ˈniːtli/ *adverb* in a tidy way *neatly dressed* ○ *a neatly folded pile of clothes*

necessarily /nesəˈserᵊli/ *adverb* **not necessarily** not for certain *That's not necessarily true.* ○ *I know she doesn't say much, but it doesn't necessarily mean she's not interested.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***necessary***

The verbs **need** and **require** and the modal verb **must** are very commonly used to show that something is necessary: *The meat **must** be cooked thoroughly.* ● *Does she have the skills **needed/required** for work of that sort?*

If something is very important and necessary, you can use adjectives such as **essential**, **fundamental**, and **indispensable**: *Some understanding of grammar is **essential/fundamental** to learning a language.* ● *This book is an **indispensable** resource for teachers.*

The expression **be a must** is sometimes used in informal situations to describe things that are necessary to have or do: *If you live in the country a car **is a must**.*

necessary /ˈnesəsᵊri/ *adjective* needed in order to achieve something [**+ to do sth**] *Is it really necessary to give so much detail?* ○ *Does he have the necessary skills and experience?* ○ *The police are prepared to use force, **if necessary**.* ➲Opposite **unnecessary**

necessitate /nəˈsesɪteɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to make something necessary

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***necessity***

out of necessity ● the necessity **for/of** sth ● **financial** necessity

necessity /nəˈsesəti/ *noun* **1** NEED [**U**] the need for something *There's no **financial necessity** for her to work.* ○ *Sewing is something I do **out of necessity**, not for pleasure.* **2** SOMETHING NEEDED [**C**] something you need *Most people seem to consider a car a necessity, not a luxury.*

O-K **neck** /nek/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY the part of the body between your head and your shoulders *He was wearing a gold chain **around** his **neck**.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** the part of a piece of clothing that goes around your neck *a polo-neck/V-neck jumper* **3 be breathing down sb's neck** to watch what someone does all the time in a way that annoys them *The last thing I want is a boss breathing down my neck.* **4 neck and neck** If two people who are competing are neck and neck, they are very close and either of them could win. **5 be up to your neck (in sth)** to be very busy ➲See also: **polo neck,** by the **scruff** of the/your neck

necklace /ˈnekləs/ *noun* [C] a piece of jewellery that you wear around your neck *a pearl necklace*

neckline /ˈneklaɪn/ *noun* [C] the shape made by the edge of a dress or shirt at the front of the neck *a low neckline*

nectar /ˈnektɚ/ *noun* [U] a sweet liquid produced by plants and collected by bees

nectarine /ˈnektɚriːn/ *noun* [C] FOOD a soft, round fruit which is sweet and juicy and has a smooth red and yellow skin

nectary /ˈnektɚri/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY the part of a flower that produces nectar ➲See picture at **flower**

O-K **need¹** /niːd/ *verb* [T] **1** NECESSARY If you need something, you must have it, and if you need to do something, you must do it. *I need some new shoes.* ○ *The country still desperately needs help.* [+ **to do sth**] *If there's anything else you need to know, just give me a call.* ○ *We need you to look after the children for us.* **2 don't need to do sth/ needn't do sth** used in order to say that someone does not have to do something or should not do something *You didn't need to come all this way.* ○ *You don't need to be frightened.* ○ *She needn't have taken him to the hospital.* **3** NECESSARY ACTION If something needs something to be done to it, that thing should be done in order to improve it. *Do the clothes on this chair need washing?* ○ *The car needs to be serviced.* **4 There needs to be sth** used to say that something is necessary *There needs to be more funding for education in this country.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

needed or **necessary?**

It is not usual to use 'needed' as an adjective. We usually say **necessary** instead.

He gave us the necessary information.

~~*He gave us the needed information.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***need*** *(noun)*

identify a need ● **meet** a need (= provide what is needed) ● a need **for** sth

O-K **need²** /niːd/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] something that is necessary to have or do *There's an urgent **need for** more medical supplies.* [+ **to do sth**] *Is there any need to change the current system?* ○ *There's really **no need for** that sort of behaviour.* **2 be in need of sth** to need something *My car's in desperate need of repair.*

needle /ˈniːdl/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH the thin, sharp, metal part of a piece of medical equipment used to take blood out of the body, or to put medicine or drugs in **2** SEWING a thin, pointed metal object with a small hole at one end for thread, used in sewing *a needle and thread* **3** MEASURING a thin, pointed piece of metal or plastic that moves to point to numbers on equipment used for measuring things ➲See also: **pins and needles**

needless /ˈniːdləs/ *adjective* not necessary *a **needless expense*** ○ ***Needless to say*** (= as you would expect), *it rained the whole time we were there.* ●**needlessly** *adverb*

O-K **needn't** /ˈniːdnt/ *short for* need not *You needn't have come.*

needs /niːdz/ *noun* [**plural**] the things you need in order to have a good life *her emotional needs* ○ *The city is struggling to **meet the needs of** its homeless people.*

needy /ˈniːdi/ *adjective* Needy people do not have enough money. *The mayor wants to establish permanent housing for **the needy**.*

negate /nɪˈgeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something lose its effect or value ●**negation** /nɪˈgeɪʃn/ *noun* [U] *formal*

O-K **negative¹** /ˈnegətɪv/ *adjective* **1** NO ENTHUSIASM not having enthusiasm or positive opinions about something ***negative feelings*** ○ *Many people have a **negative attitude** towards ageing.* **2** BAD A negative effect is bad and causes damage to something. *Terrorist threats have had a very **negative impact** on tourism.* **3** HEALTH If the result of a test to prove if someone is pregnant or ill is negative, that person is not pregnant or ill. **4** MATHEMATICS A negative number is less than zero. **5** LANGUAGE In language, a negative word or phrase expresses the meaning 'no' or 'not'. **6** PHYSICS of the type of electrical charge which is carried by electrons

negative² /ˈnegətɪv/ *noun* [C] **1** PHOTOGRAPH a piece of film from which a photograph can be produced, where dark areas look light and light areas look dark **2** GRAMMAR a word or phrase which expresses the meaning 'no' or 'not'

negatively /ˈnegətɪvli/ *adverb* **1** WITHOUT ENTHUSIASM without enthusiasm or positive opinions *to **react/respond negatively*** **2** WITH A BAD EFFECT with a bad effect ***negatively affected***

negativity /ˌnegəˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] when you do not feel enthusiastic or positive about things

neglect¹ /nɪˈglekt/ *verb* [T] **1** to not give enough care or attention to something or someone *to neglect your appearance/the garden* [**often passive**] *Some of these kids have been badly neglected in the past.* ○ *neglected children* **2 neglect to do sth** to not do something, often intentionally *He neglected to mention the fact that we could lose money on the deal.*

neglect² /nɪˈglekt/ *noun* [U] when you do not give enough care or attention to something or someone *to suffer years of neglect*

negligence /ˈneglɪdʒəns/ *noun* [U] when you are not careful enough in something you do, especially in a job where your actions affect

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other people *Her parents plan to sue the surgeon for medical negligence.*

negligent /ˈneglɪdʒənt/ *adjective* not giving enough care or attention to a job or activity, especially where your actions affect someone else *The report found him negligent in his duties.*

negligible /ˈneglɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* small and not important *a **negligible effect/result***

negotiable /nɪˈgəʊʃiəbl/ *adjective* If something is negotiable, it is not completely fixed, and can be changed after discussion. *The January deadline is not negotiable.*

negotiate /nɪˈgəʊʃieɪt/ *verb* **1** DISCUSS [**I, T**] to try to make or change an agreement by discussion *to negotiate with employers about working conditions* **2** MOVE THROUGH [**T**] to successfully move around, through, or past something *to negotiate your way around/through a city* ●**negotiator** *noun* [**C**] *a peace negotiator*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***negotiation***

enter into/be in negotiations ● negotiations **break down/fail** ● negotiations **about/on/over** sth ● negotiations **with** sb ● negotiations **between** sb **and** sb

negotiation /nɪˌgəʊʃiˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**C**] when people try to make or change an agreement by discussion ***Peace negotiations** are due to start.*

Negro /ˈniːgrəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **Negroes** *old-fashioned* a word that means a black person, which some people think is offensive

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O-K **neighbour** *UK* (*US* **neighbor**) /ˈneɪbəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** LIVING NEAR someone who lives very near you, especially in the next house *Our **next-door neighbours** are always arguing.* **2** POSITION someone or something that is near or next to someone or something else *The French make more films than their European neighbours.*

neighbourhood *UK* (*US* **neighborhood**) /ˈneɪbəhʊd/ *noun* [**C**] an area of a town or city that people live in *I grew up in a very poor neighbourhood.* ○ *Are there any good restaurants **in the neighbourhood*** (= in this area)*?*

neighbouring *UK* (*US* **neighboring**) /ˈneɪbʳrɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] near or next to somewhere *neighbouring countries/villages*

O-K **neither¹** /ˈnaɪðəʳ, ˈniːðəʳ/ *adverb* used to say that a negative fact is also true of someone or something else *Jerry doesn't like it, and neither do I.* ○ *Her family wouldn't help her and neither would anyone else.* ○ *She's not very tall and neither is her husband.*

O-K **neither²** /ˈnaɪðəʳ, ˈniːðəʳ/ *pronoun, determiner* not either of two people or things *Luckily, neither child was hurt in the accident.* ○ ***Neither of** us had ever been to London before.* ○ *They gave us two keys, but neither worked.*

O-K **neither³** /ˈnaɪðəʳ, ˈniːðəʳ/ *conjunction* **neither … nor** used when a negative fact is true of two people or things or when someone or something does not have either of two qualities *Neither he nor his mother would talk to the police.* ○ *Their performance was neither entertaining nor educational.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

Neither…nor

This expression can be used with a singular or plural verb.

Neither Jack nor Philip likes/like football.

nematode /ˈnemətəʊd/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a thin worm that is not divided into sections

neo- /niːəʊ-/ *prefix* new *neo-facists*

neologism /niˈɒlədʒɪzˈm/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* **LANGUAGE** a new word or phrase, or a new meaning for a word that already exists

neon /ˈniːɒn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that produces bright, colourful light when electricity passes through it, often used in signs (formula **Ne**) ***neon lights/signs***

nephew /ˈnefjuː/ *noun* [**C**] the son of your brother or sister, or the son of your husband's or wife's brother or sister

nephron /ˈnefrɒn/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the very small tubes that form the kidney and which produce urine

Neptune /ˈneptjuːn/ *noun* [**no plural**] **ASTRONOMY** the planet that is eighth from the Sun, after Uranus and before Pluto ➲See picture at **solar system**

nerd /nɜːd/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* someone, especially a man, who is not fashionable and who is interested in boring things ●**nerdy** *adjective informal* boring and not fashionable

nerve /nɜːv/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [**C**] one of the threads in your body which carry messages between your brain and other parts of the body *the optic nerve* ○ ***nerve cells/endings*** **2** BEING BRAVE [**no plural**] the quality of being brave [**+ to do sth**] *I **haven't got the nerve** to tell him I'm leaving.* ○ *He **lost his nerve** and couldn't go through with it.* **3** RUDENESS [**no plural**] the rudeness necessary to do something you know will upset someone *You've **got a nerve**, coming here!* [**+ to do sth**] *I can't believe she **had the nerve** to talk to me after what happened.* **4 hit/touch a (raw) nerve** to upset someone by talking about a particular subject

ˈnerve ˌcell *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a neuron (= cell that carries information between the brain and other parts of the body)

nerve-racking /ˈnɜːvˌrækɪŋ/ *adjective* If an experience is nerve-racking, it makes you very nervous. *a nerve-racking experience*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nerves***

suffer from nerves ● **calm/settle/steady** your nerves

nerves /nɜːvz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** the state of being nervous *I need something to **calm my nerves**.* ○ *I always **suffer from nerves** before a match.* **2 steady/strong nerves** the ability to be calm in difficult situations *You need a cool head and steady nerves for this job.* **3 get on sb's nerves** to annoy someone, especially by doing something again and again *If we spend too much time together we end up getting on each other's nerves.*

O-K **nervous** /ˈnɜːvəs/ *adjective* **1** worried and anxious *a **nervous cough/laugh*** ○ *She's very **nervous about** her driving test.* **2** **ANATOMY,**

BIOLOGY [**always before noun**] relating to the nerves in the body *a nervous disorder*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

nervous, agitated or irritable?

Nervous means 'worried or frightened'. It does not mean 'angry' or 'upset'.

I get very nervous if I have to speak in public.

If you want to describe someone who cannot control their voice and movements because they are anxious and upset, use **agitated**.

He was very agitated and aggressive.

If you want to describe someone who becomes annoyed easily, use **irritable** or **bad-tempered**.

She was tired and irritable.

ˌnervous ˈbreakdown *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a short period of mental illness when people are too ill to continue with their normal lives

nervously /ˈnɜːvəsli/ *adverb* in a worried and anxious way *to **giggle/laugh nervously*** ●**nervousness** *noun* [**U**]

ˈnervous ˌsystem *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** your brain and all the nerves in your body which control your feelings and actions *a disease of the central nervous system*

nest¹ /nest/ *noun* [**C**] a home built by birds for their eggs and by some other creatures to live in *a **birds'/wasps' nest***

nest² /nest/ *verb* [**I**] to live in a nest or build a nest

nestle /ˈnesl/ *verb* **1 nestle (sth) against/in/on, etc** to rest yourself or part of your body in a comfortable, protected position *The cat was nestling in her lap.* **2 nestle beneath/between/in, etc** If a building, town, or object nestles somewhere, it is in a protected position, with bigger things around it. *a village nestled in the Carpathian mountains*

net¹ /net/ *noun* **1** [**U**] material made of crossed threads with holes between them **2 SPORT** [**C**] something made with a piece of net, for example for catching fish or insects, or for sports *a fishing net* ○ *a tennis/basketball net* **3 the Net INTERNET** *short for* the Internet ➲See also: **safety net**

net² (*also UK* **nett**) /net/ *adjective* **FINANCE** A net amount of money has had costs such as tax taken away from it. *a **net income/profit** of £10,000*

net³ /net/ *verb* [**T**] **netting**, *past* **netted 1 FINANCE** to get an amount of money as profit *One trader netted a bonus of £1 million.* **2 SPORT** to hit, throw, or kick a ball into a net *He netted a great penalty.*

netball /ˈnetbɔːl/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a game usually played by teams of women, where a ball is thrown from player to player and goals are scored by throwing the ball through a high net

ˌnet ˈprofit *noun* [**C, U**] **FINANCE** the money that a business makes after it has paid all the money it owes

netting /ˈnetɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] material made of crossed threads or wires with holes between them *wire netting*

nettle /ˈnetl/ *noun* [**C**] a wild plant whose leaves hurt you if you touch them

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***network***

build/create/establish/form a network ● a network **of** sth ● a **rail/road** network

network¹ /ˈnetwɜːk/ *noun* [**C**] **1 COMPUTING** a system or group of connected parts *a **rail/road network*** ○ *a **network of** cables/tunnels* **2 SOCIETY** a group of people who know each other or who work together *a large network of friends* **3** [COMPANY] a large television or radio company that broadcasts programmes in many areas

network² /ˈnetwɜːk/ *verb* **1** [**I**] to use social events to meet people who might be useful for your business **2 COMPUTING** [**T**] to connect computers together so that they can share information and programs

networking /ˈnetwɜːkɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] **1** when you use social events to meet people who might be useful for your business **2 COMPUTING** when you connect computers together so that they can share programs and information

neural /ˈnjʊərəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** relating to the nerves in your body *neural activity*

neurology /njʊəˈrɒlədʒi/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the study of the system of nerves in people's bodies ●**neurological** /ˌnjʊərəˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* Neurological illnesses affect the nerves in people's bodies. ●**neurologist** /njʊəˈrɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [**C**] a doctor who deals with neurological illnesses

neuron /ˈnjʊərɒn/ (*also* **neurone**) *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a nerve cell which carries messages between your brain and other parts of your body

neurosis /njʊəˈrəʊsɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** *plural* **neuroses** /njʊəˈrəʊsiːz/ a mental illness, often causing you to worry too much about something

neurotic /njʊəˈrɒtɪk/ *adjective* If you are neurotic, you worry about things too much.

neuter /ˈnjuːtər/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** in some languages, belonging to a group of nouns or adjectives that have the same grammatical behaviour. The other groups are 'masculine' and 'feminine'.

neutral¹ /ˈnjuːtrəl/ *adjective* **1** [INDEPENDENT] independent and not supporting any side in an argument, fight, or competition ***neutral ground/territory*** ○ *He decided to remain neutral on the issue.* **2** [COLOUR] Neutral colours are not strong or bright. **3 CHEMISTRY** neither acid nor alkaline

neutral² /ˈnjuːtrəl/ *noun* [**U**] In driving, neutral is the position of the gears (= parts of a vehicle that control how fast the wheels turn) when they are not connected. *to be **in neutral***

neutrality /njuːˈtrælətɪ/ *noun* [**U**] the state of being independent and not supporting any side in an argument, war, etc

neutralize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈnjuːtrəlaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to stop something from having an effect *This spray will help to neutralize unpleasant odours.* **2 CHEMISTRY** to make something

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neutral (= neither an acid nor an alkali) ●**neutralization** /ˌnjuːtrəlaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

neutron /ˈnjuːtrɒn/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** a part of an atom which has no electrical charge (= the electricity something stores or carries)

never /ˈnevəʳ/ *adverb* **1** NOT EVER not ever, not one time *"Have you ever been to Australia?" "No, never."* ○ *I've never even thought about that before.* ○ *She'll never be able to have children.* ○ *He just walked out of the door one day and never came back.* **2** NOT used to emphasize something negative *I never knew you lived around here.*

never-ending /ˌnevəʳˈendɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is never-ending, it continues for ever. *The housework in this place is just never-ending.*

nevertheless /ˌnevəðəˈles/ *adverb* despite that *I knew a lot about the subject already, but her talk was interesting nevertheless.*

new /nju:/ *adjective* **1** DIFFERENT different from before *I need some new shoes.* ○ *Have you met Fiona's new boyfriend?* ○ *He's starting his new job on Monday.* ○ *We're always looking for new ways to improve our services.* **2** RECENTLY MADE recently made *Their house is quite new - it's about five years old.* ○ *The factory will provide hundreds of new jobs for the area.* **3** NOT KNOWN BEFORE not known before *to discover a new gene/star* **4 be new to sb** If a situation or activity is new to you, you have not had experience of it before. **5 be new to sth** If you are new to a situation or activity, you have only recently started experiencing it. *I'm new to the job.* ➲See also: a whole new **ball game**, new **blood**, **brand new,** break new **ground**[1], new **heights**, turn over a new **leaf**[1], give sb/sth a new **lease**[1] of life

newborn /ˌnjuːˈbɔːn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A newborn baby has just been born. ●**newborn** *noun* [C] a newborn baby

newcomer /ˈnjuːˌkʌməʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who has only recently arrived or started doing something *He's a relative* ***newcomer to*** *the area.*

new-found /ˈnjuːˌfaʊnd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A new-found quality or ability has started recently. *This success is a reflection of their new-found confidence.*

newly /ˈnjuːli/ *adverb* recently *a* ***newly married*** *couple* ○ *newly-built houses*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***news***

the latest news ● **hear/listen to/see/watch** the news ● **in/on** the news

news /nju:z/ *noun* [U] **1 the news** the announcement of important events on television, radio, and in newspapers *the* ***local/national news*** ○ *to* ***watch*** *the 6 o'clock* ***news*** ○ *Did you see that report about child labour* ***on the news*** *last night?* ○ *a* ***news bulletin/report*** **2** new information *Have you* ***had*** *any* ***news*** *about your job yet?* ○ *I've got some* ***good news*** *for you.* ○ *Any news from John?* **3 be news to sb** *informal* to be a surprise to someone *He's leaving? Well that's certainly news to me.* **4 be bad/good news for sb** to affect someone badly/well *This weather is bad news for farmers.*

newsagent /ˈnjuːzˌeɪdʒˈənt/ *noun* [C] *UK* **1 newsagent's** a shop that sells newspapers, magazines, and things like sweets and cigarettes **2** someone who owns or works in a newsagent's

newscast /ˈnjuːzkɑːst/ *noun* [C] *US* a television or radio broadcast of the news *the evening newscast*

newscaster /ˈnjuːzkɑːstəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who reads the news on the radio or television

newsgroup /ˈnjuːzgruːp/ *noun* [**group**] **INTERNET** a collection of messages on the Internet that people write about a particular subject *a political newsgroup*

newsletter /ˈnjuːzˌletəʳ/ *noun* [C] a regular report with information for people who belong to an organization or who are interested in a particular subject *a monthly newsletter about business and the environment*

newspaper /ˈnjuːsˌpeɪpəʳ/ US /ˈnuːzˌpeɪpəʳ/ *noun* **1** NEWS [C] large, folded sheets of paper which are printed with the news and sold every day or every week *a* ***local/national newspaper*** ○ *I read about his death* ***in the newspaper.*** ○ *a* ***newspaper article/headline*** **2** PAPER [U] paper from newspapers *The cups were wrapped in newspaper.*

newsprint /ˈnjuːzprɪnt/ *noun* [U] cheap, low quality paper used to print newspapers

newsreader /ˈnjuːzˌriːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone who reads the news on the radio or television

newsstand /ˈnjuːzstænd/ *noun* [C] *US* a small shop in a public area of a building or station, or part of a bigger shop, where newspapers and magazines are sold

newsworthy /ˈnjuːzˌwɜːði/ *adjective* interesting or important enough to be included in the news

the ˌNew ˈTestament *noun* **RELIGION** the part of the Bible (= holy book) written after the birth of Jesus Christ

newton /ˈnjuːtˈən/ (*abbreviation* **N**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit used to measure force. One newton is equal to the force which moves a mass of one kilogram one metre in one second

ˈnew ˌtown *noun* [C] a British town which was planned by the government and built after 1946 *Milton Keynes is a new town which was founded in 1967.*

ˌnew ˈwave *noun* [C] people who are doing activities in a new and different way *the new wave of wine producers*

ˌnew ˈyear (*also* **New Year**) *noun* [C] the period in January when another year begins ***Happy New Year!*** ○ *We're going away* ***in the new year.***

ˌNew ˌYear's ˈDay *noun* [C, U] 1 January, the first day of the year and a public holiday in many countries

ˌNew ˌYear's ˈEve *noun* [C, U] 31 December, the last day of the year

next[1] /nekst/ *adjective* **1 next week/year/Monday, etc** the week/year/Monday, etc that follows the present one *I'm planning to visit California next year.* ○ *Are you doing anything next*

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Wednesday? ○ *Next time, ask my permission before you borrow the car.* **2** AFTER The next time, event, person, or thing is the one nearest to now or the one that follows the present one. *What time's the next train to London?* ○ *We're going to be very busy for the next few months.* **3** NEAR The next place is the one nearest to the present one. *She only lives in the next village.* ○ *Turn left at the next roundabout.* **4 the next best thing** the thing that is best, if you cannot have or do the thing you really want *Coaching football is the next best thing to playing.* **5 the next thing I knew** used to talk about part of a story that happens in a sudden and surprising way *A car came speeding round the corner, and the next thing I knew I was lying on the ground.*

next² /nekst/ *adverb* **1** AFTER immediately after *You'll never guess what happened next.* ○ *Where shall we go next?* **2** AGAIN The time when you next do something is the first time you do it again. *Could you get some coffee when you next go to the supermarket?*

next³ /nekst/ *preposition* **next to sth/sb** very close to something or someone, with nothing in between *Come and sit next to me.* ○ *The factory is right next to a residential area.*

next⁴ /nekst/ *pronoun* **1** the person or thing that follows the present person or thing *Who's next to see the nurse?* ○ *Blue roses? **Whatever next?*** (= What other strange things might happen?) **2 the weekend/week/Thursday, etc after next** the weekend/week/Thursday, etc that follows the next one

ˌnext ˈdoor *adjective, adverb* in the next room, house, or building *What are your **next-door neighbours** like?* ○ *That's the old man who lives **next door to** Paul.*

ˌnext of ˈkin *noun* [C] *plural* **next of kin** *formal* **SOCIETY** the person you are most closely related to *The names of the dead cannot be released until their next of kin have been notified.*

the NHS /ˌenɪtʃˈes/ *noun* **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* the National Health Service: the system providing free medical services in the UK *Did she get it done privately or **on the NHS**?*

niacin /ˈnaɪəsɪn/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a B vitamin which you find in foods such as wheat, meat and milk, which is important for making energy from food

nib /nɪb/ *noun* [C] the pointed end of a pen, where the ink comes out

nibble /ˈnɪbl/ *verb* [I, T] to eat something by taking very small bites or to bite something gently *He was nibbling a biscuit.* ○ *She **nibbled** playfully **at** his ear.*

nice /naɪs/ *adjective* **1** PLEASANT pleasant *They live in a nice old house on Market Street.* ○ *We could go to the coast tomorrow, if the weather's nice.* [+ **to do sth**] *It was very nice to meet you.* [+ **doing sth**] *Nice talking to you.* **2** KIND kind and friendly *He seems like a really nice guy.* ○ *She's always been very **nice to** me.* **3 nice and sth** *informal* used to emphasize a positive quality *nice and clean* ○ *This chair's nice and comfy.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***nice***

If a person is nice because they are kind to other people, you can say that they are **kind** or **sweet**: *She's a very **kind** person.* ● *Thank you so much for the card - it was very **sweet** of you!*

If something that you do is nice, you can describe it as **fun**, **enjoyable**, or **lovely**: *We had a really **lovely** day at the beach.* ● *You'd have liked the party - it was **fun**.*

If something is nice to look at, then adjectives such as **attractive**, **beautiful**, **pleasant**, **lovely**, and **pretty** are often used: *There's some **beautiful** countryside in Yorkshire.* ● *That's a **pretty** dress you're wearing.*

If food tastes nice, then we can say that it is **delicious** or **tasty**: *This chicken soup is absolutely **delicious**.*

nicely /ˈnaɪsli/ *adverb* **1** WELL well *That table would fit nicely in the bedroom.* ○ *His business is **doing** very **nicely**.* **2** PLEASANTLY in a pleasant way *nicely dressed*

niche /niːʃ/ (US) /nɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** ACTIVITY a job or activity that is very suitable for someone *After years of job dissatisfaction, he's at last **found his niche in** financial services.* **2** HOLE a hollow space cut into a wall

ˈniche ˌmarket *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a small number of people who buy a particular product or service, especially an unusual or expensive one *They make luxury cars for a small but significant niche market.*

nick¹ /nɪk/ *verb* [T] **1** STEAL *UK informal* to steal something *She got caught nicking CDs from Woolworth's.* **2** CATCH *UK informal* If the police nick someone, they catch that person because they have committed a crime. [**often passive**] *He got nicked for handling stolen goods.* **3** CUT to make a small cut in something without intending to *He nicked himself shaving.*

nick² /nɪk/ *noun* **1** PRISON [C] *mainly UK informal* a prison or police station *They spent the night **in the nick**.* **2** CUT [C] a small cut *He has a little nick on his cheek.* **3 in bad/good nick** *UK informal* in bad/good condition **4 in the nick of time** just before it was too late *The ambulance arrived in the nick of time.*

nickel /ˈnɪkl/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [C] a US or Canadian coin with a value of 5 cents **2** **CHEMISTRY** [U] a silver-white metal that is often mixed with other metals (formula **Ni**)

nickname /ˈnɪkneɪm/ *noun* [C] a name used informally instead of your real name *His behaviour has earned him the nickname 'Mad Dog'.* ●**nickname** *verb* [+ **two objects**] *They nicknamed her 'The Iron Lady'.*

nicotine /ˈnɪkətiːn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY, HEALTH** a poisonous chemical substance in tobacco

niece /niːs/ *noun* [C] the daughter of your brother or sister, or the daughter of your husband's or wife's brother or sister

nifty /ˈnɪfti/ *adjective informal* well-designed and effective *a nifty piece of software*

nigger /ˈnɪgəʳ/ *noun* [C] a very offensive word for a black person

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niggle /ˈnɪgl/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to worry or annoy someone slightly for a long time *a **niggling injury*** **2 niggle about/over, etc** *UK* to complain about things which are not very important *She kept niggling about the extra work.* ●**niggle** *noun* [C]

nigh /naɪ/ *adverb* **1** *literary* near *The end of the world is nigh.* **2 well nigh/nigh on** *old-fashioned* almost *Our family has lived here well nigh two hundred years.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***night***

spend the night ● **at** night ● **in** the night ● the **middle of** the night ● **last** night

night /naɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** DARK the time in every 24 hours when it is dark and people usually sleep *I didn't get any sleep **last night**.* ○ *It's warm during the day, but it can get quite cold **at night**.* ○ *The phone rang in the **middle of the night**.* ○ *We stayed up almost all night talking.* ○ *Tim's working nights this week.* **2** EVENING the period from the evening to the time when you go to sleep *Did you have a good time **last night**?* ○ *Are you doing anything **on** Friday **night**?* **3** SAYING THE TIME used to describe the hours from the evening until just after 12 midnight *They're open from 7 in the morning until 10 o'clock at night.* **4 have an early/a late night** to go to bed early/late **5 a night out** an evening spent away from home doing something enjoyable *a night out at the theatre* **6 Good night.** You say 'Good night' to someone who is going to bed. *Good night, sleep well.* ➲See also: the **dead**[3] of night/winter

nightclub /ˈnaɪtklʌb/ *noun* [C] a place where you can dance and drink at night

nightdress /ˈnaɪtdres/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* a loose dress that women wear in bed

nightfall /ˈnaɪtfɔːl/ *noun* [U] the time in the evening when it gets dark

nightgown /ˈnaɪtgaʊn/ *noun* [C] a loose dress that women wear in bed

nightie /ˈnaɪti/ *noun* [C] a loose dress that women wear in bed

nightingale /ˈnaɪtɪŋgeɪl/ *noun* [C] a small brown bird which sings very well

nightlife /ˈnaɪtlaɪf/ *noun* [U] entertainment for the night such as bars, restaurants, and theatres *What's the nightlife like around here?*

nightly /ˈnaɪtli/ *adjective* [**always before noun**], *adverb* happening every night *the nightly news* ○ *The show, lasting ninety minutes, will be broadcast nightly from Monday to Friday.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nightmare***

an **absolute/complete/living/total** nightmare ● be sb's **worst** nightmare ● the nightmare **of** (doing) sth ● a nightmare **for** sb

nightmare /ˈnaɪtmeər/ *noun* [C] **1** EXPERIENCE a very unpleasant experience *The traffic can be a real nightmare after 4.30.* **2** DREAM a frightening dream

ˈnight ˌschool *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** classes for adults that are taught in the evening

nightstick /ˈnaɪtstɪk/ *US* (*UK* **truncheon**) *noun* [C] a short stick that police officers carry to use as a weapon

night-time /ˈnaɪttaɪm/ *noun* [U] the period of time when it is dark at night

nil /nɪl/ *noun* [U] **1 SPORT** *UK* In sports results, nil means 'zero'. *Germany beat England three nil* (= 3-0). **2** NOT EXISTING not existing *The chances of that happening are virtually nil.*

nimble /ˈnɪmbl/ *adjective* able to move quickly and easily ***nimble fingers***

nimbostratus /nɪmbəʊˈstrɑːtəs/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** a thick grey cloud which forms at a low level, from which rain or snow often falls ➲See picture at **cloud**

nine /naɪn/ the number 9

nineteen /ˌnaɪnˈtiːn/ the number 19 ●**nineteenth** 19th written as a word

nine-to-five /ˌnaɪntəˈfaɪv/ *adj, adv* describes work that begins at nine o'clock in the morning and ends at five o'clock, which are the hours that people work in many offices from Monday to Friday *She's tired of working nine-to-five.* ●**nine-to-five** *noun* [C]

ninety /ˈnaɪnti/ **1** the number 90 **2 the nineties** the years from 1990 to 1999 **3 be in your nineties** to be aged between 90 and 99 ●**ninetieth** 90th written as a word

ninth[1] /naɪnθ/ 9th written as a word

ninth[2] /naɪnθ/ *noun* [C] one of nine equal parts of something; $^1/_9$

nip /nɪp/ *verb* **nipping**, *past* **nipped 1 nip down/out/up, etc** *UK informal* to go somewhere quickly and for a short time *I'm just nipping down the road to get a paper.* **2** [T] If something nips you, it gives you a small, sharp bite. *His parrot nipped him on the nose.* ➲See also: nip sth in the **bud**

nipple /ˈnɪpl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the small, circular area of slightly darker, harder skin in the centre of each breast in women, or on each side of the chest in men

nirvana /nɪəˈvɑːnə/ *noun* [U] a state of perfection

nitrate /ˈnaɪtreɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical containing nitrogen and oxygen that is used on crops to make them grow better ➲See picture at **nitrogen cycle**

nitric acid /ˌnaɪtrɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a clear, colourless liquid which is used in making many chemicals, especially explosives and fertilizers (= substances that help plants to grow) (formula HNO_3)

nitrify /ˈnaɪtrɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **CHEMISTRY** to add nitrogen or a nitrogen compound (= two or more substances combined) to something ●**nitrification** /ˌnaɪtrɪfɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] the process by which bacteria in the soil use oxygen to change dead plants into nitrates. The nitrates can then be used by plants as food.

ˌnitrifying bacˈteria *noun* [**plural**] **BIOLOGY** bacteria in the soil that change the nitrogen in dead plants into a form that is good for the soil and which growing plants can use for food

nitrogen /ˈnaɪtrədʒən/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that has no colour or smell and is the main part of air (symbol **N**)

the ˈnitrogen ˌcycle *noun* [**no plural**] **PHYSICS, BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** the way that nitrogen is

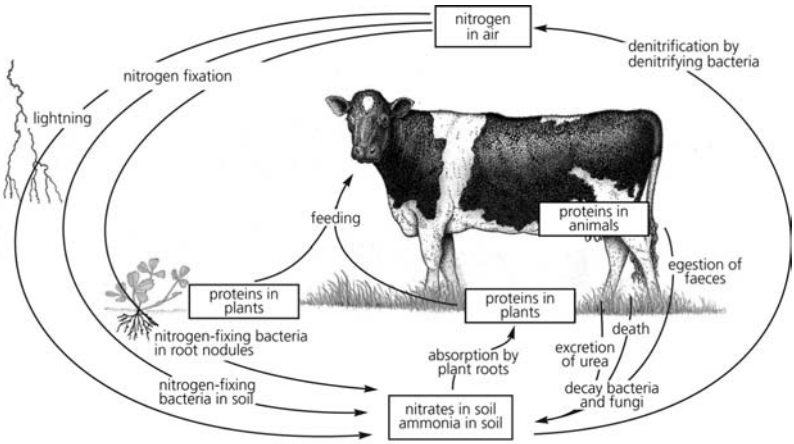

nitrogen cycle

exchanged between different living organisms on Earth and between living organisms and the environment, for instance when plants take it from the air and animals eat the plants

ˌnitrogen diˈoxide *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a poisonous brown gas, formed when some metals dissolve in nitric acid (formula NO^2)

ˈnitrogen fixˌation *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the process by which nitrogen from the atmosphere is changed either naturally or in industry into compounds that are used in several processes ➲See picture **nitrogen cycle**

nitrogenous /naɪˈtrɒdʒɪnəs/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** containing nitrogen

nitroglycerine (*also US* **nitroglycerin**) /ˌnaɪtrəʊˈglɪsᵊriːn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a very powerful liquid explosive

nitrous oxide /ˌnaɪtrəsˈɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a type of gas with a sweet smell which is used as a weak anaesthetic (= substance which stops pain) (formula N_2O)

the nitty-gritty /ˌnɪtiˈgrɪti/ *noun* the important details of a subject or activity *English teachers should concentrate on* ***the nitty-gritty of*** *teaching grammar.*

no¹ /nəʊ/ *exclamation* **1** DISAGREE something that you say in order to disagree, give a negative answer, or say that something is not true *"Have you seen Louise?" "No, I haven't."* ○ *"Have you ever been to Ireland?" "No."* ○ *"Can I have some more cake?" "No, you'll be sick."* ○ *"He's really ugly." "No he isn't!"* **2** AGREE something that you say to agree with something that is negative *"He's not very bright, is he?" "No, I'm afraid not."* **3 Oh no!** something that you say when you are shocked and upset *Oh no! It's gone all over the carpet!*

no² /nəʊ/ *determiner* **1** NOT ANY not any *There were no signposts anywhere.* ○ *I had no difficulty getting work.* ○ *There was no mention of money.* **2** FORBID a word used to say that something is forbidden *No smoking.* ○ *There was no talking in her classes.* **3 There's no doing sth** something that you say when an action is impossible *There's no pleasing some people* (= nothing that you do will make them happy).

no³ /nəʊ/ *adverb* **no ... than** not any *The work should be done no later than Friday.* ○ *There were no more than ten people there.*

no. *written abbreviation for* number

nobility /nəʊˈbɪləti/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY the nobility** [**group**] the people from the highest social group in a society **2** [U] the quality of being noble

noble¹ /ˈnəʊbl/ *adjective* **1** honest, brave, and kind *a noble gesture* **2 SOCIETY** belonging to the highest social group of a society

noble² /ˈnəʊbl/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a person of the highest social group in some countries

ˌnoble ˈgas *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** any of a group of gases, such as helium, that do not react with other chemicals

nobleman, noblewoman /ˈnəʊblmən, ˈnəʊblˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **noblemen** or **noblewomen SOCIETY** someone belonging to the highest social group in some countries

nobly /ˈnəʊbli/ *adverb* in a brave or generous way *She nobly offered to sell her jewellery.*

nobody /ˈnəʊbədi/ *pronoun* no person *There was nobody I could talk to.* ○ *Nobody's listening.* ○ *Sally helped me, but* ***nobody else*** *bothered.*

no-brainer /ˌnəʊˈbreɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] *informal* something that is very simple to do or to understand, or a decision that is very easy to take

nocturnal /nɒkˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** ANIMALS Nocturnal animals and birds are active at night. **2** ACTIVITIES happening at night *nocturnal activities/habits*

nod /nɒd/ *verb* [I, T] **nodding**, *past* **nodded** to move your head up and down as a way of agreeing, to give someone a sign, or to point to something *They nodded enthusiastically at the proposal.* ○ *Barbara nodded in approval.*

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●**nod** *noun* [C] *He **gave** a **nod** of approval.*
nod off *phrasal verb informal* to start sleeping

nodule /ˈnɒdjuːl/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH, BIOLOGY** a small lump, especially on a plant or someone's body

no-fault /ˈnəʊfɔːlt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *US* **LAW** No-fault laws or systems are ones where it is not important who is responsible for what has happened. *no-fault insurance*

ˌno-go ˈarea *noun* [C] *mainly UK* an area, usually in a city, where it is too dangerous to go because there is a lot of violent crime there

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***noise***

background noise ● a **deafening/faint/loud/strange** noise ● **hear/make** a noise

noise /nɔɪz/ *noun* [C, U] a sound, often a loud, unpleasant sound *a deafening/loud noise* ○ *Stop **making** so much **noise**!* ○ *The engine's making funny noises.* ○ *There is some **background noise** on the recording.* ○ *I had to shout above the noise of the party.*

ˈnoise pollˌution *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** noise, often from traffic, which upsets people where they live or work

noisy /ˈnɔɪzi/ *adjective* Noisy people or things make a lot of noise. *A crowd of noisy protesters gathered in the square.* ○ *We've had problems with noisy neighbours.* ●**noisily** *adverb*

nomad /ˈnəʊmæd/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a member of a group of people who move from one place to another instead of living in the same place all the time ●**nomadic** /nəʊˈmædɪk/ *adjective* Nomadic people move from place to place.

ˈno-man's ˌland *noun* [U, **no plural**] an area of land which no one owns or controls, especially in a war

nomenclature /nəˈmeŋklətʃəʳ/ *noun* [U] *formal* a system of naming things, especially in science

nominal /ˈnɒmɪnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT REAL existing officially, but not in reality *a nominal leader* **2** MONEY A nominal sum of money is a small amount of money. *a **nominal charge/fee***

ˌnominal ˈledger (*also* **general ledger**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the main financial record of a company that uses double entry bookkeeping (= a system where each amount is shown as money spent in one part and money received in the other part)

nominally /ˈnɒmɪnᵊli/ *adverb* officially but not in reality *nominally Catholic areas*

nominate /ˈnɒmɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** SUGGEST to officially suggest a person for a job or a position in an organization, or to suggest a person or their work for a prize [**often passive**] *Judges are nominated by the governor.* ○ *The film was **nominated for** an Academy Award.* ○ *He was **nominated as** best actor.* **2** CHOOSE to choose someone for a job or to do something *He has **nominated** his brother **as** his heir.* [**+ to do sth**] *Two colleagues were nominated to attend the conference.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nomination***

make/receive/seek/win a nomination ● a nomination **as/for** sth

nomination /ˌnɒmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** SUGGESTION the act of officially suggesting a person for a job or their work for a prize *to **seek/win** a **nomination*** ○ *He won the Democratic **nomination for** mayor of Chicago.* ○ *She has just **received** her fourth Oscar **nomination**.* **2** CHOICE the choice of someone for a job or to do something *They did everything they could to defeat his nomination to be surgeon general.*

nominee /ˌnɒmɪˈniː/ *noun* [C] a person or a piece of work which has been nominated

non- /nɒn-/ *prefix* not or the opposite of *non-alcoholic drinks* ○ *non-smokers*

non-alcoholic /ˌnɒnælkəˈhɒlɪk/ *adjective* **FOOD** describes a drink that does not contain alcohol

nonchalant /ˈnɒnʃᵊlənt/ (US) /ˌnɑːnʃəˈlɑːnt/ *adjective* calm and not worried *a nonchalant shrug* ●**nonchalantly** *adverb*

noncommittal /ˌnɒnkəˈmɪtᵊl/ *adjective* not showing your opinion about something *a noncommittal expression/response*

nondescript /ˈnɒndɪskrɪpt/ *adjective* not interesting *a nondescript building/man*

none /nʌn/ *quantifier* **1** not any ***None of** them smoke.* ○ *In 1992, the company had 2,700 part-time workers. Today it has none.* ○ *There were only three births here in March and **none at all** in April.* ○ *He asked if there was any hope. I told him frankly that there was none.* **2 none too clean/clever/pleased, etc** not at all clean/clever/pleased, etc *His handkerchief was none too clean.* **3 none the happier/poorer/wiser, etc** not any happier/poorer/wiser, etc than before *She must have explained the theory three times, but I'm still none the wiser.*

nonetheless /ˌnʌnðəˈles/ *adverb* despite what has just been said *He was extremely rude in meetings. Nonetheless, his arguments found some support.*

non-event /ˌnɒnɪˈvent/ *noun* [**no plural**] *informal* an event that was not as exciting or interesting as you expected it to be *Her party was a bit of a non-event.*

non-existent /ˌnɒnɪgˈzɪstᵊnt/ *adjective* not existing *We knew our chances of success were non-existent.*

nonfiction /ˌnɒnˈfɪkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **LITERATURE** writing about things which are true *nonfiction books/titles*

non-metal /ˌnɒnˈmetᵊl/ *noun* **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element that is not a metal

no-no /ˈnəʊnəʊ/ *noun* [C] *informal* something that is forbidden or not socially acceptable *Cardigans are a fashion no-no this season.*

no-nonsense /ˌnəʊˈnɒnsᵊns/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not having or allowing others to have any silly ideas or behaviour *a **no-nonsense approach** to child rearing*

nonplussed /ˌnɒnˈplʌst/ *adjective* extremely surprised

non-profit-making /ˌnɒnˈprɒfɪtˌmeɪkɪŋ/ *UK* (*US* **nonprofit**) *adjective* **FINANCE** A non-profit-

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making organization does not make money from its activities.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***nonsense***

talk nonsense ● **absolute/complete/utter** nonsense ● a **load of** nonsense

nonsense /ˈnɒnsᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** SPEECH AND WRITING If something someone has said or written is nonsense, it is silly and not true. *She talks such nonsense sometimes.* ○ *That's* ***a load of nonsense.*** ○ *It's nonsense to suggest they could have cheated.* **2** BEHAVIOUR silly behaviour *Will you stop this childish nonsense!* **3 make a nonsense of sth** *UK* to spoil something or make it seem stupid *Cuts to the text made a nonsense of the play.*

non-smoker /ˌnɒnˈsməʊkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person who does not smoke

non-smoking /ˌnɒnˈsməʊkɪŋ/ *adjective* A non-smoking area is one where people are not allowed to smoke.

non-starter /ˌnɒnˈstɑːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] *informal* something that will not be successful *The amount of money needed makes his project a non-starter.*

non-stop /ˌnɒnˈstɒp/ *adjective, adverb* without stopping or resting ***non-stop flights*** *from Britain to the West Indies* ○ *We've been* ***talking non-stop*** *the whole way.*

non-violent /ˌnɒnˈvaɪələnt/ *adjective* not using violent methods *non-violent action/protests* ○ *non-violent crimes/offenders*

noodles /ˈnuːdlz/ *noun* [plural] FOOD thin pieces of pasta (= food made from flour, eggs, and water)

nook /nʊk/ *noun* **every nook and cranny** every part of a place *I know every nook and cranny of this place.*

noon /nuːn/ *noun* [U] 12 o'clock in the middle of the day *He has until noon to act.* ○ *The service will be held at 12 noon.*

ˈno ˌone *pronoun* no person *No one bothered to read the report.* ○ *No one knows where he is now.* ○ *There was no one there.* ○ ***No one else*** *makes puddings like my Mum.*

noose /nuːs/ *noun* [C] a piece of rope tied in a circle, used to catch animals or to hang (= kill) people

nor /nɔːʳ/ *adverb, conjunction* **1 neither...nor...** used after 'neither' to introduce the second thing in a negative sentence *Strangely, neither James nor Emma saw what happened.* ○ *He neither spoke nor moved.* **2 nor can I/nor do you, etc** *mainly UK* used after something negative to say that the same thing is true for someone or something else *"I don't like cats." "Nor do I."* ○ *"I won't get to see him tomorrow." "Nor will Tom."* ○ *She couldn't speak a word of Italian and nor could I.*

Nordic /ˈnɔːdɪk/ *adjective* SOCIETY from or relating to the North European countries of Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Finland, and Iceland

norm /nɔːm/ *noun* **1 the norm** the usual way that something happens *Short-term job contracts are the norm nowadays.* **2** [C] SOCIETY an accepted way of behaving in a particular society [usually plural] ***cultural/social norms***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***normal***

be back to/return to normal ● **perfectly** normal

normal /ˈnɔːmᵊl/ *adjective* usual, ordinary, and expected *to lead a* ***normal life*** ○ *It's perfectly normal to feel some degree of stress at work.* ○ *It's normal for couples to argue now and then.* ○ *Now that trains are running again things are* ***back to normal.***

normality /nɔːˈmæləti/ (*also US* **normalcy** /ˈnɔːmᵊlsi/) *noun* [U] a situation in which everything is happening normally *a* ***return to normality***

normally /ˈnɔːməli/ *adverb* **1** USUALLY usually *Normally, I start work around nine o'clock.* **2** ORDINARY in the ordinary way that you would expect *Both lungs are now functioning normally.*

north, North /nɔːθ/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction that is on your left when you face towards the rising sun *The stadium is to the north of the city.* **2 the north** the part of an area that is further towards the north than the rest *She's from the north of England.* ●**north** *adjective a north wind* ●**north** *adverb* towards the north *I live north of the river.* ○ *We're going to visit Paul's family* ***up north.***

northbound /ˈnɔːθbaʊnd/ *adjective* going or leading towards the north

northeast, Northeast /ˌnɔːθˈiːst/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction between north and east **2 the northeast** the northeast part of a country ●**northeast, Northeast** *adjective, adverb*

northeastern, Northeastern /ˌnɔːθˈiːstən/ *adjective* in or from the northeast

northerly /ˈnɔːðᵊli/ *adjective* **1** DIRECTION towards or in the north *Canada's most* ***northerly point*** **2** WIND A northerly wind comes from the north.

northern, Northern /ˈnɔːðᵊn/ *adjective* in or from the north part of an area *Northern England* ○ *a northern accent*

northerner, Northerner /ˈnɔːðᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone from the north part of a country

northernmost /ˈnɔːðənməʊst/ *adjective* The northernmost part of an area is the part furthest to the north.

north-facing /ˈnɔːθˌfeɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] positioned towards the north *a north-facing slope*

the ˌNorth ˈPole *noun* GEOGRAPHY the point on the Earth's surface which is furthest north

northward, northwards /ˈnɔːθwəd, ˈnɔːθwədz/ *adverb* towards the north ●**northward** *adjective a northward direction*

northwest, Northwest /ˌnɔːθˈwest/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction between north and west **2 the northwest** the northwest part of a country ●**northwest, Northwest** *adjective, adverb*

northwestern, Northwestern /ˌnɔːθˈwestən/ *adjective* in or from the northwest

nose[1] /nəʊz/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY the part of your face through which you breathe and smell *a big/broken nose* ○ *She paused to* ***blow her nose*** (= breathe out hard to empty it into

N

a piece of cloth). ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 get up sb's nose** *UK informal* to annoy someone **3 poke/stick your nose into sth** *informal* to show too much interest in a situation that does not involve you *You shouldn't go sticking your nose into other people's business!* **4 thumb your nose at sth/sb** to show that you do not respect rules, laws, or powerful people **5 turn your nose up at sth** *informal* to not accept something because you do not think it is good enough for you *He turned his nose up at my offer of soup, saying he wanted a proper meal.* **6 under your nose** If something bad happens under your nose, it happens close to you but you do not notice it.

nose² /nəʊz/ *verb*
nose about/around (sth) *phrasal verb informal* to look around a place, often in order to find something *I caught him nosing around in my office.*

nosebleed /ˈnəʊzbliːd/ *noun* [C] **have a nosebleed** HEALTH to have blood coming from your nose

nosedive /ˈnəʊzdaɪv/ *verb* [I] to fall very quickly in value *The economy nosedived after the war.* ●**nosedive** *noun* [C]

nosey /ˈnəʊzi/ *another spelling of* nosy

nostalgia /nɒsˈtældʒə/ *noun* [U] a feeling of happiness mixed with sadness when you think about things that happened in the past *his nostalgia for his college days*

nostalgic /nɒsˈtældʒɪk/ *adjective* feeling both happy and sad when you think about things that happened in the past *Talking about those holidays has made me feel quite nostalgic.*

nostril /ˈnɒstrəl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the two holes at the end of your nose ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

nosy /ˈnəʊzi/ *adjective* always trying to find out private things about other people ***nosy neighbours*** ○ *Don't be so nosy!*

not /nɒt/ *adverb* **1** used to form a negative phrase after verbs like 'be', 'can', 'have', 'will', 'must', etc, usually used in the short form 'n't' in speech *I won't tell her.* ○ *I can't go.* ○ *He hasn't eaten yet.* ○ *Don't you like her?* ○ *It isn't difficult* (= It is easy). ○ *The service isn't very good* (= it is bad). ○ *You're coming, aren't you?* ○ *I will not tolerate laziness.* **2** used to give the next word or group of words a negative meaning *I told you not to do that.* ○ *I like most vegetables but not cabbage.* ○ *"Come and play football, Dad." "Not now, Jamie."* ○ *"Whose are these?" "Not mine."* **3** used after verbs like 'be afraid', 'hope', 'suspect', etc in short, negative replies *"Do you think it's going to rain?" "I hope not."* ○ *"Have you finished?" "I'm afraid not."* **4 certainly/hopefully not** used after an adverb in short, negative replies *"She's not exactly poor, is she?" "Certainly not."* ○ *"We won't need much money, will we?" "Hopefully not."* **5 not at all** used instead of 'no' or 'not' to emphasize what you are saying *"I hope this won't cause you any trouble." "No, not at all."* ○ *I'm not at all happy about it.* **6 Not at all.** used as a polite reply after someone has thanked you *"Thanks for all your help." "Not at all."* **7 if not** used to say what the situation will be if something does not happen *I hope to see you there but, if not, I'll call you.* **8 or not** used to express the possibility that something might not happen *Are you coming or not?* **9 not a/one** used to emphasize that there is nothing of what you are talking about *Not one person came to hear him talk.* ○ *"You haven't heard from Nick, have you?" "Not a word."*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

not ... either

The words **not ... either** are used to add another piece of negative information.

I'd forgotten my credit card and I didn't have any cash either.

~~*I'd forgotten my credit card and I didn't have any cash neither.*~~

Helen didn't enjoy it either.

~~*Helen didn't enjoy it too.*~~

notable /ˈnəʊtəbl/ *adjective* If someone or something is notable, they are important or interesting.

notably /ˈnəʊtəbli/ *adverb* used to emphasize an important example of something *Florida is well known for many of its fruits, notably oranges and avocados.*

notation /nəʊˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS, MUSIC a system of written symbols used especially in mathematics or to represent musical notes

notch¹ /nɒtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** LEVEL a level of quality or amount *Interest rates have moved up another notch.* **2** CUT a cut in the shape of the letter V on the edge or surface of something

notch² /nɒtʃ/ *verb*
notch up sth *phrasal verb* to achieve something *He has notched up a total of 34 goals this season.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *note (noun)*

leave/scribble/send/write a note ● a note **for/from** sb ● **get** sb's note

note¹ /nəʊt/ *noun* **1** LETTER [C] a short letter *He left a **note** on her desk.* ○ *Did you **get** my **note**?* **2** INFORMATION [C] words that you write down to help you remember something *She studied her notes before the exam.* ○ *Let me **make a note of*** (= write) *your phone number.* ○ *The doctor **took notes*** (= wrote information) *while I described my symptoms.* **3** EXPLANATION [C] a short explanation or an extra piece of information that is given at the bottom of a page or at the back of a book *See note 3, page 37.* **4** FEELING [**no plural**] a particular feeling or mood *a **sad/serious/positive note*** ○ *His speech had just the **right note** of sympathy.* **5** MUSIC [C] a single musical sound or the symbol that represents it **6** FINANCE [C] *UK* (*US* **bill**) a piece of paper money *a ten-pound note* **7 take note (of sth)** to pay careful attention to something *Make sure you take note of what she says.* **8 sb/sth of note** *formal* someone or something famous or important *A medieval church is the only monument of note in the town.* **9 compare notes** If two people compare notes, they tell each other what they think about something that they

have both done. *We compared notes about our experiences in China.*

note² /nəʊt/ *verb* [T] **1** NOTICE to notice something *She noted a distinct chill in the air.* [+ **(that)**] *We noted that their idea had never been tried.* **2** SAY OR WRITE to say or write something *In the article, she notes several cases of medical incompetence.*
note down sth *phrasal verb* to write something so that you do not forget it *I noted down the telephone number for the police.*

notebook /ˈnəʊtbʊk/ *noun* [C] **1** a book with empty pages that you can write in **2** COMPUTING a small computer that can be carried around and used anywhere

noted /ˈnəʊtɪd/ *adjective* important or famous *a noted artist* ○ *He was* ***noted for*** *his modern approach to architecture.*

ˈnotepad (comˌputer) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a very small computer which you can carry easily

notepaper /ˈnəʊtˌpeɪpəʳ/ *noun* [U] paper that you write letters on

noteworthy /ˈnəʊtˌwɜːði/ *adjective* If someone or something is noteworthy, they are important or interesting. *a* ***noteworthy example***

O-key **nothing** /ˈnʌθɪŋ/ *pronoun* **1** NOT ANYTHING not anything *I've had nothing to eat since breakfast.* ○ *He claimed that he did nothing wrong.* ○ *He had nothing in his pockets.* ○ *There was* ***nothing else*** (= no other thing) *I could do to help.* ○ *She did* ***nothing but*** *criticize* (= criticized a lot). **2** NOT IMPORTANT not something important or of value *He's a dangerous person - human life means nothing to him.* ○ *A thousand pounds is nothing to a woman of her wealth.* **3 for nothing** without a successful result *I've come all this way for nothing.* **4 be nothing to do with sb** If something is or has nothing to do with you, you have no good reason to know about it or be involved with it. *I wish he wouldn't offer advice on my marriage - it's nothing to do with him.* **5 have nothing to do with sb/sth** to have no connection or influence with someone or something *He made his own decision - I had nothing to do with it.* **6 to say nothing of sth** used to emphasize other problems you have not talked about *Most wild otters have disappeared from populated areas, to say nothing of wilderness areas.* **7 nothing of the sort** used to emphasize that something is not true *He said that he was a legitimate businessman - in fact, he was nothing of the sort.* **8 It was nothing.** a polite reply to someone who has thanked you for doing something **9 be nothing if not sth** used to emphasize a quality *The senator was nothing if not honest* (= he was very honest). **10 stop at nothing** to be willing to do anything in order to achieve something *He will stop at nothing to get what he wants.*

nothingness /ˈnʌθɪŋnəs/ *noun* [U] a state where nothing exists

O-key **notice¹** /ˈnəʊtɪs/ *verb* [I, T] to see something and be aware of it *If the sign's too small, no one will notice it.* [+ **(that)**] *I noticed that he walked with a limp.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***notice (noun)***

display/put up a notice ● a notice **says** sth ● a notice **about** sth ● **on** a notice

notice² /ˈnəʊtɪs/ *noun* **1** SIGN [C] a sign giving information about something *The notice said that the pool was closed for repairs.* ○ *Have you seen any* ***notices about*** *the new sports club?* **2** WARNING [U] a warning that something will happen *I had to give my landlord a month's notice before moving.* **3 at short notice** *UK* (*US* **on short notice**) only a short time before something happens **4** ATTENTION [U] attention *I didn't* ***take*** *any* ***notice of*** (= give attention to) *his advice.* ○ *It has* ***come to*** *our* ***notice*** (= we became aware) *that you are being overcharged for your insurance.* **5 hand/give in your notice** to tell your employer that you are going to stop working for them *I handed in my notice yesterday.*

noticeable /ˈnəʊtɪsəbl/ *adjective* easy to see or be aware of *There was a noticeable difference in his behaviour after the injury.* ●**noticeably** *adverb*

noticeboard /ˈnəʊtɪsbɔːd/ *UK* (*US* **bulletin board**) *noun* [C] a board on a wall where you put advertisements and announcements *I saw the ad on the noticeboard.* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

notify /ˈnəʊtɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to officially tell someone about something *You should notify the police if you are involved in a road accident.* [+ **(that)**] *The court notified her that her trial date had been postponed.* ●**notification** /ˌnəʊtɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

notion /ˈnəʊʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] an idea or belief *The notion of sharing is unknown to most two-year-olds.*

notoriety /ˌnəʊtᵊrˈaɪəti/ *noun* [U] when someone is famous for something bad *He* ***gained notoriety*** *for his racist speeches.*

notorious /nəʊˈtɔːriəs/ *adjective* famous for something bad *a notorious criminal* ○ *She was* ***notorious for*** *her bad temper.* ●**notoriously** *adverb* *Mount Everest is a notoriously difficult mountain to climb.*

notwithstanding /ˌnɒtwɪθˈstændɪŋ/ *adverb*, *preposition formal* despite *Injuries notwithstanding, he won the semi-final match.*

nought /nɔːt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** NUMBER *UK* the number 0 **2** NOTHING *old-fashioned* (*mainly US* **naught**) nothing

O-key **noun** /naʊn/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word that refers to a person, place, object, event, substance, idea, feeling, or quality. For example the words 'teacher', 'book', 'development', and 'beauty' are nouns. ➲See also: **countable noun, proper noun, uncountable noun**

nourish /ˈnʌrɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* FOOD, HEALTH to provide living things with food in order to make them grow or stay healthy *Mammals provide milk to nourish their young.*

nourishing /ˈnʌrɪʃɪŋ/ *adjective* FOOD, HEALTH Nourishing food makes you healthy.

nourishment /ˈnʌrɪʃmənt/ *noun* [U] *formal* FOOD the food that you need to stay alive and healthy

N

Nov *written abbreviation for* November

nova /ˈnəʊvə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **novas** or **novae** **ASTRONOMY** a type of star that shines much more brightly for a few months as a result of a nuclear explosion

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***novel***

read/write a novel ● a novel **by** sb ● a novel **about** sth ● **in** a novel

novel¹ /ˈnɒvᵊl/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a book that tells a story about imaginary people and events *Have you **read** any good **novels** lately?* ●**novelist** *noun* [C] someone who writes novels

novel² /ˈnɒvᵊl/ *adjective* new or different from anything else

novelty /ˈnɒvᵊlti/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [U] the quality of being new or unusual *The fashion industry relies on novelty, and photographers are always looking for new faces.* **2** NEW THING [C] an object, event, or experience that is new or unusual *Tourists are still a novelty on this remote island.* **3** CHEAP TOY [C] a cheap toy or unusual object, often given as a present

November /nəʊˈvembəʳ/ (*written abbreviation* **Nov**) *noun* [C, U] the eleventh month of the year

novice /ˈnɒvɪs/ *noun* [C] someone who is beginning to learn how to do something *I've never used a computer before - I'm a complete novice.*

now¹ /naʊ/ *adverb* **1** AT PRESENT at the present time *She's finished her degree and now she teaches English.* ○ *Do you know where Eva is **right now*** (= at this moment)? **2** IMMEDIATELY immediately *Come on, Andreas, we're going home now.* ○ *I don't want to wait - I want it now!* **3** LENGTH OF TIME used to show the length of time that something has been happening, from the time it began until the present *I've lived in Cambridge for two years now.* **4** IN SPEECH used when you start to tell someone something *Now, I have been to Glasgow many times before.* ○ ***Now then**, would anyone else like to ask a question?* **5 just now** a very short time ago *When I came in just now, everyone was laughing.* ○ *Who was that woman who was speaking just now?* **6 (every) now and then/again** If something happens now and then, it happens sometimes but not very often. *I love chocolate, but I only eat it now and then.* **7 any day/minute/time, etc now** used to say that something will happen very soon *We're expecting our second child any day now.*

now² /naʊ/ (*also* **now that**) *conjunction* as a result of a new situation *Now that I've got a car I can visit her more often.* ○ *You should help in the house more, now you're older.*

now³ /naʊ/ *pronoun* the present time or moment *Now isn't a good time to speak to him.* ○ *She'd kept calm until now.* ○ *I'll be more careful **from now on*** (= from this moment and always in the future).

nowadays /ˈnaʊədeɪz/ *adverb* at the present time, especially when compared to the past *Everything seems more expensive nowadays.*

nowhere /ˈnəʊweəʳ/ *adverb* **1** not anywhere *The room was very crowded - there was nowhere to sit.* ○ *We had **nowhere else** to go.* **2 out of nowhere** If someone or something appears out of nowhere, it appears suddenly or unexpectedly. *The car came out of nowhere and we had to swerve to miss it.* **3 get/go nowhere** *informal* to fail to make any progress or achieve anything *They're getting nowhere on this project.* **4 get you nowhere** If something gets you nowhere, it does not help you to succeed. *Bad manners will get you nowhere.*

noxious /ˈnɒkʃəs/ *adjective* [always before noun] *formal* poisonous or harmful *noxious fumes/gases*

nozzle /ˈnɒzl/ *noun* [C] a narrow, hollow object which is fixed to a tube and which helps you to control the liquid or air that comes out

n't /ənt/ *short for* not *She isn't* (= is not) *going.* ○ *I can't* (= cannot) *hear you.* ○ *They didn't* (= did not) *believe me.*

nuance /ˈnjuːɑːns/ *noun* [C] a very slight difference in meaning, appearance, sound, etc *a **subtle nuance*** ○ *Linguists explore the nuances of language.*

nuclear /ˈnjuːkliəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] **PHYSICS** **1** relating to the energy that is released when the nucleus (= central part) of an atom is divided ***nuclear weapons/waste*** ○ *a **nuclear power** plant* **2** relating to the nucleus (= central part) of an atom ***nuclear physics***

ˌnuclear ˈfission *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** when the nucleus (= centre part) of an atom is divided, creating a very large amount of energy

ˌnuclear ˈfusion *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the process of joining two nuclei (= central parts of atoms) to produce energy

ˌnuclear reˈactor *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a large machine which uses nuclear fuel to produce power

nucleic acid /njuːˌkleɪɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a type of acid that is found in all living cells

nucleotide /ˈnjuːkliəʊtaɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** one of a group of chemical compounds found in living cells in nucleic acids such as DNA and RNA

nucleus /ˈnjuːkliəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **nuclei** /ˈnjuːkliaɪ/ **1** **BIOLOGY, PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** the central part of an atom or cell ➲See picture at **cell** ➲See picture at **leaf 2** the central or most important part of a group or idea *Senior coaches handpicked the nucleus of the team.*

nude¹ /njuːd/ *adjective* not wearing any clothes *Our children were running around the garden **in the nude*** (= not wearing any clothes).

nude² /njuːd/ *noun* [C] **ART** a painting or other piece of art that shows a nude person

nudge /nʌdʒ/ *verb* [T] to gently push someone or something *She nudged me towards the door.* ●**nudge** *noun* [C] *I gave him a nudge.*

nudism /ˈnjuːdɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when someone wears no clothes when they are outside with other people, etc ●**nudist** *noun* [C] someone who practices nudism

nudity /ˈnjuːdəti/ *noun* [U] when you are wearing no clothes *Some people are offended by nudity.*

nugget /ˈnʌgɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** GOOD THING a small amount of something good ***nuggets of wisdom***

N

2 PIECE a small, round piece of a solid substance ***gold nuggets***

nuisance /ˈnjuːsᵊns/ *noun* [C] **1** a person, thing, or situation that annoys you or causes problems for you *Not being able to use my computer is a real nuisance.* **2 make a nuisance of yourself** to annoy someone or cause problems for them

nullify /ˈnʌlɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** to make something lose its effect *Advances in medicine have nullified the disease's effect.* **2** LAW to say officially that something has no legal power *The judge could nullify the entire trial.*

numb /nʌm/ *adjective* **1** BODY PART If a part of your body is numb, you cannot feel it. *My fingers and toes were* ***numb with cold.*** **2** EMOTION If you are numb with a bad emotion, you are so shocked that you are not able to think clearly. *I was* ***numb with*** *grief after his death.*

O-K **number¹** /ˈnʌmbəʳ/ *noun* **1** MATHEMATICS [C] a symbol or word used in a counting system or used to show the position or order of something *Think of a number smaller than 100.* ○ *The Prime Minister lives at number 10, Downing Street.* ○ *Look at item number three on your agenda.* **2** GROUP OF NUMBERS [C] a group of numbers that represents something *What's your* ***phone number?*** ○ *Each person receives a membership number when they join.* **3** AMOUNT [C] an amount *a* ***small number*** *of* (= a few) ○ *a* ***large number*** *of* (= many) ○ *There were* ***a number of*** (= several) *soldiers present at the rally.* ○ *Scientists have noticed a drop in the number of song birds in Britain.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **amount** ➲See also: **cardinal number, ordinal number, phone number, telephone number**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

number

We use the adjectives **large** and **small** with the word **number**, not 'big' and 'little'.

A large number of people attended the concert.

~~*A big number of people attended the concert.*~~

number² /ˈnʌmbəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** GIVE A NUMBER to give something a number [**often passive**] *Each volume was numbered and indexed.* **2** BE AN AMOUNT If people or things number a particular amount, there are that many of them. *Our company's sales force numbered over 5,000.*

ˈnumber ˌplate *UK* (*US* **license plate**) *noun* [C] an official metal sign with numbers and letters on the front and back of a car ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

numeral /ˈnjuːmᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a symbol used to represent a number ➲See also: **Roman numeral**

numerator /ˈnjuːmərəɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS the number above the line in a fraction ➲Compare **denominator**

numerical /nju:ˈmerɪkl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] MATHEMATICS relating to or expressed by numbers *The exams were filed in numerical order.*

numerous /ˈnjuːmᵊrəs/ *adjective formal* many *He is the author of numerous articles.*

nun /nʌn/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a member of a group of religious women living apart from other people

O-K **nurse¹** /nɜːs/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone whose job is to care for ill and injured people

nurse² /nɜːs/ *verb* [T] **1** HEALTH to care for a person or animal that is ill *We nursed the injured sparrow back to health.* **2** FOOD *US* to feed a baby milk from its mother's breast *She nursed her son until he was a year old.* **3** HEALTH to try to cure an illness or injury by resting *He was nursing a broken nose.* **4** EMOTION to think about an idea or an emotion for a long time *She nursed a great hatred towards her older sister.*

nursery /ˈnɜːsᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** CHILDREN a place where babies and young children are looked after without their parents **2** FARMING a place where plants are grown and sold

ˈnursery ˌrhyme *noun* [C] LITERATURE a short poem or song for young children

ˈnursery ˌschool *noun* [C] EDUCATION a school for very young children

nursing /ˈnɜːsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the job of being a nurse

ˈnursing ˌhome *noun* [C] HEALTH a place where old people live to receive medical care

nurture /ˈnɜːtʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** ENCOURAGE to encourage or support the development of someone or something *He was an inspiring leader who* ***nurtured*** *the* ***talents*** *of his colleagues.* **2** LOOK AFTER to look after, feed, and protect young children, animals, or plants *The rains nurtured the newly planted crops.*

O-K **nut** /nʌt/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY, FOOD the dry fruit of some trees which grows in a hard shell, and can often be eaten *a brazil/cashew nut* **2** METAL a piece of metal with a hole in it through which you put a bolt (= metal pin) to hold pieces of wood or metal together **3** KEEN *informal* a person who is keen on a particular subject or hobby *She's a real sports nut.* **4 the nuts and bolts** the basic parts of a job or an activity *Law school can teach you theory, but it can't teach you the nuts and bolts of the profession.*

nutrient /ˈnjuːtriənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* BIOLOGY any substance that animals need to eat and plants need from the soil in order to live and grow *A healthy diet should provide all your* ***essential nutrients.***

nutrition /nju:ˈtrɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the food that you eat and the way that it affects your health *Good nutrition is essential for growing children.* ●**nutritional** *adjective* relating to nutrition *Some snacks have little* ***nutritional value.***

nutritionist /nju:ˈtrɪʃᵊnɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who gives advice on the subject of nutrition

nutritious /nju:ˈtrɪʃəs/ *adjective* FOOD Nutritious food contains substances that your body needs to stay healthy. *a nutritious meal*

nuts /nʌts/ *adjective informal* **1** crazy *They thought I was nuts to go parachuting.* **2 go nuts** to become very excited, angry, or upset *If I don't have a holiday soon, I'll go nuts.*

N

nutshell /ˈnʌtʃel/ *noun* **in a nutshell** something that you say when you are describing something using as few words as possible *The answer, in a nutshell, is yes.*

nutty /ˈnʌti/ *adjective* **1** *informal* crazy *nutty ideas* **2** **FOOD** Something nutty tastes of nuts.

nylon /ˈnaɪlɒn/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a strong, artificial material used to make clothes, ropes, etc *nylon stockings* ○ *a nylon shirt/bag*

nymph /nɪmf/ *noun* [**C**] in Greek and Roman stories, a spirit in the form of a young girl who lives in trees, rivers, mountains, etc

N

Oo

O, o /əʊ/ the fifteenth letter of the alphabet

oak /əʊk/ *noun* [**C, U**] a large tree found in northern countries, or the wood of this tree

OAP /ˌəʊeɪˈpiː/ *noun* [**C**] *UK abbreviation for* old-age pensioner: a person who regularly receives money from the state because they are too old to work

oar /ɔːr/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a long pole with a wide, flat end that you use to move a boat through water **2 stick/put your oar in** *UK informal* to involve yourself in a discussion or situation when other people do not want you to

oasis /əʊˈeɪsɪs/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **oases** /əʊˈeɪsiːz/ **1** GEOGRAPHY a place in the desert where there is water and where plants grow **2** a place that is much calmer and more pleasant than what is around it *The cafe was an oasis in the busy, noisy city.*

oath /əʊθ/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a formal promise *an oath of allegiance* ○ *They refused to* ***take an oath*** *of* (= to promise) *loyalty to the king.* **2 under oath** LAW If someone is under oath, they have promised to tell the truth in a law court. *He denied under oath that he was involved in the crime.*

oats /əʊts/ *noun* [**plural**] FOOD, FARMING grain which people eat or feed to animals

obedience /əʊˈbiːdiəns/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is willing to do what they are told to do *He demanded complete obedience from his soldiers.* ➲Opposite **disobedience** ●**obedient** /əʊˈbiːdiənt/ *adjective* willing to do what you are told to do *an obedient child/dog* ➲Opposite **disobedient**

obese /əʊˈbiːs/ *adjective* HEALTH extremely fat ●**obesity** *noun* [**U**] when someone is obese

O-key **obey** /əʊˈbeɪ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to do what you are told to do by a person, rule, or instruction *He gave the command, and we obeyed.* ➲Opposite **disobey**

obfuscate /ˈɒbfʌskeɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to make something harder to understand or less clear

obituary /əʊˈbɪtʃʊəri/ *noun* [**C**] a report in a newspaper that gives details about a person who has recently died

O-key **object¹** /ˈɒbdʒɪkt/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a thing that you can see or touch but that is usually not alive *a bright, shiny object* **2 the object of sth** the purpose of something *The object of the game is to score more points than the opposing team.* **3 the object of sb's affection/desire, etc** the cause of someone's feelings *He's the object of my affection.* **4** LANGUAGE in grammar, the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb ➲See also: **direct object, indirect object**

object² /əbˈdʒekt/ *verb* [**I**] to feel or say that you do not like or do not approve of something or someone *We* ***objected to*** *his unreasonable demands.* ○ *Would anyone object if I were to leave early?* ➲See also: **conscientious objector**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***objection***

lodge/make/raise/voice an objection ● **have no** objections ● a **serious/strong** objection ● an objection **to** sth

objection /əbˈdʒekʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [**C, U**] when someone says that they do not like or approve of something or someone *Our main* ***objection to*** *the new factory is that it's noisy.* ○ ***I have*** *no* ***objections****, if you want to stay an extra day.*

objectionable /əbˈdʒekʃ^{ə}nəbl/ *adjective formal* very unpleasant

objective¹ /əbˈdʒektɪv/ *noun* [**C**] something that you are trying to achieve *His main objective was to increase profits.*

objective² /əbˈdʒektɪv/ *adjective* only influenced by facts and not by feelings *I try to be objective when I criticize someone's work.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***obligation***

feel/have an obligation to do sth ● **carry out/fulfil/meet** an obligation ● be **under** an obligation

obligation /ˌɒblɪˈgeɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [**C, U**] something that you do because it is your duty or because you feel you have to *a* ***moral/legal obligation*** ○ *to* ***fulfil an obligation*** ○ *He was* ***under no obligation*** *to answer any questions.* [**+ to do sth**] *Parents have an obligation to make sure their children receive a proper education.*

obligatory /əˈblɪgət^{ə}ri/ *adjective* If something is obligatory, you must do it because of a rule, or because everyone else does it. *obligatory military service*

oblige /əˈblaɪdʒ/ *verb* **1 be obliged to do sth** to be forced to do something *Sellers are not legally obliged to accept the highest offer.* **2** [**I, T**] *formal* to be helpful *The manager was only too happy to oblige.*

obliged /əˈblaɪdʒd/ *adjective* **1 feel obliged to do sth** to think that you must do something *They helped us when we moved so I feel obliged to do the same.* **2** *formal old-fashioned* grateful or pleased *Thank you, I'm much obliged to you.*

oblique /əʊˈbliːk/ *adjective formal* **1** not expressed in a direct way *an oblique comment* **2** MATHEMATICS describes an angle which is either more or less than 90° but not 90° ●**obliquely** *adverb formal*

obliterate /əˈblɪt^{ə}reɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to destroy something completely [**often passive**] *The town was obliterated by bombs.*

oblivion /əˈblɪviən/ *noun* [**U**] **1** NOT REMEMBERED when someone or something is not remembered *to disappear into oblivion* **2** NOT AWARE when you are not aware of what is happening around you *He drank himself* ***into oblivion****.*

oblivious /əˈblɪviəs/ *adjective* not aware of something *She seemed completely* ***oblivious to*** *what was happening around her.*

obnoxious /əbˈnɒkʃəs/ *adjective* very unpleasant or rude *He was loud and obnoxious.*

obscene /əbˈsiːn/ *adjective* **1** SEX relating to sex in a way that is unpleasant or shocking *an* ***obscene gesture*** ○ ***obscene language*** **2** MORALLY WRONG An obscene amount of something is

O

morally wrong because it is too large. ***obscene profits***

obscenity /əbˈsenəti/ *noun* **1** SEX [U] when something is sexually shocking *obscenity laws/trials* **2** SPEECH [C] a sexually shocking word or expression [**usually plural**] *He was shouting obscenities at people walking by.*

obscure¹ /əbˈskjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** NOT KNOWN not known by many people *an obscure figure/writer* **2** NOT CLEAR difficult to understand *His answers were obscure and confusing.*

obscure² /əbˈskjʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT SEE to prevent something from being seen or heard [**often passive**] *The moon was partially obscured by clouds.* **2** NOT UNDERSTAND to make something difficult to understand *He deliberately obscured details of his career in the army.*

obscurity /əbˈskjʊərəti/ *noun* [U] when something or someone is not known by many people *to fade into obscurity* ○ *He rose from relative obscurity to worldwide recognition.*

obsequious /əbˈsiːkwiəs/ *adjective formal* too willing to praise or obey someone

observance /əbˈzɜːvᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when someone obeys a law or follows a religious custom *strict observance of the law* ○ ***religious observances***

observant /əbˈzɜːvᵊnt/ *adjective* good or quick at noticing things *He's very observant.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***observation***

careful/close observation ● observation **of** sth ● **under** observation ● **powers of** observation

observation /ˌɒbzəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** WATCHING [U] when someone watches someone or something carefully *The doctor wants to keep him **under observation** for a week.* ○ *to have good **powers of observation*** (= to be good at noticing things) **2** REMARK [C] a remark about something that you have noticed *He **made an** interesting **observation**.*

observatory /əbˈzɜːvətri/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a building that is used by scientists to look at stars and planets

observe /əbˈzɜːv/ *verb* [T] **1** WATCH to watch someone or something carefully *Children learn by observing adults.* **2** NOTICE *formal* to notice something **3** SAY *formal* to make a remark about something you have noticed *"It's still raining," he observed.* **4** OBEY to obey a law, rule, or religious custom *to observe the law*

observer /əbˈzɜːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** JOB someone who watches people and events as a job *a UN observer* ○ *a political observer* **2** SEE someone who sees something *a **casual observer***

obsess /əbˈses/ *verb* [I, T] If something or someone obsesses you, or if you obsess about something or someone, you think about them all the time. *She used to obsess about her weight.*

obsessed /əbˈsest/ *adjective* **be obsessed by/with sb/sth** to think about someone or something all the time *to be obsessed with money/sex*

obsession /əbˈseʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] someone or something that you think about all the time *an **unhealthy obsession** with death* ○ *a lifelong/national obsession*

obsessive /əbˈsesɪv/ *adjective* thinking too much about something, or doing something too much ***obsessive behaviour*** ○ *He's obsessive about his health.* ●**obsessively** *adverb*

obsolete /ˈɒbsᵊliːt/ *adjective* not used now *obsolete equipment* ○ *Will books become obsolete because of computers?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***obstacle***

face/overcome an obstacle ● **the biggest/the main/a major** obstacle ● an obstacle **to** sth

obstacle /ˈɒbstəkl/ *noun* [C] something that makes it difficult for you to go somewhere or to succeed at something *to **overcome** an **obstacle*** ○ *His refusal to talk is the main **obstacle to** peace.*

obstetrician /ˌɒbstəˈtrɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who looks after pregnant women and helps in the birth of children

obstinate /ˈɒbstɪnət/ *adjective* not willing to change your ideas or behaviour although you are wrong *He's a very rude and obstinate man.*

obstruct /əbˈstrʌkt/ *verb* [T] **1** STOP MOVING/SEEING to be in a place that stops someone or something from moving or stops someone from seeing something *to **obstruct** the **traffic*** ○ *There was a pillar **obstructing** our **view**.* **2** STOP HAPPENING to try to stop something from happening or developing *to obstruct a police investigation* ●**obstruction** /əbˈstrʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *Your car's **causing an obstruction**.* ○ *the obstruction of justice*

obtain /əbˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to get something *to obtain permission* ○ *He obtained a law degree from the University of California.* ●**obtainable** *adjective* If something is obtainable, you can get it. *This information is easily obtainable on the Internet.*

obtuse /əbˈtjuːs/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** describes an angle which is more than 90° and less than 180°

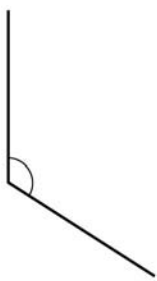

obtuse angle

obvious /ˈɒbviəs/ *adjective* easy to understand or see *an obvious choice/answer* [+ **(that)**] ***It's obvious** that he doesn't really care about her.*

obviously /ˈɒbviəsli/ *adverb* in a way that is easy to understand or see *They're obviously in love.* ○ *Obviously we want to start as soon as possible.*

occasion /əˈkeɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** TIME [C] a time when something happens *a previous/separate occasion* ○ *We met **on** several **occasions** to discuss the issue.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **possibility** **2** EVENT [C] an important event or ceremony *a **special occasion*** ○ *She bought a new dress for the occasion.* **3 on occasion(s)** sometimes, but not often *I only drink alcohol on occasion.*

occasional /əˈkeɪʒᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* not happening often *He still plays the occasional game of football.* ●**occasionally** *adverb They only meet occasionally.*

occlusion /əˈkluːʒᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** HEALTH (in medicine), when a tube or opening in the body is blocked by something or is closed **2** GEOGRAPHY a situation in the weather when two masses of air meet, especially when a mass of cold air reaches warm air and pushes the warm air up off the Earth's surface

the occult /ˈɒkʌlt/ *noun* the study of magic or mysterious powers

occupant /ˈɒkjəpənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who lives or works in a room or building *the occupant of No. 46*

occupation /ˌɒkjəˈpeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** JOB [C] *formal* your job *You have to give your name, age, and occupation on the application form.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **work** **2** CONTROL [U] when an army moves into a place and takes control of it ***a military occupation*** **3** HOBBY [C] *formal* something that you do in your free time

occupational /ˌɒkjəˈpeɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* relating to your job ***an occupational hazard***

occupied /ˈɒkjəpaɪd/ *adjective* **1** USED being used by someone *All of these seats are occupied.* ➲Opposite **unoccupied** **2** BUSY busy doing something or thinking about something *There was enough* ***to keep*** *us* ***occupied.***

occupier /ˈɒkjəpaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* someone who lives or works in a room or building

occupy /ˈɒkjəpaɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** FILL to fill a place or period of time *His book collection occupies most of the room.* ○ *The baby seems to* ***occupy*** *all our* ***time.*** **2** LIVE to live or work in a room or building *They occupy the second floor of the building.* **3** CONTROL to move into a place and take control of it *The troops eventually occupied most of the island.*

occur /əˈkɜːʳ/ *verb* [I] **occurring**, *past* **occurred** **1** *formal* to happen, often without being planned *According to the police, the shooting occurred at about 12.30 a.m.* **2 occur in/among, etc sth/sb** to exist or be present in a particular place or group of people *Minerals occur naturally in the Earth's crust.* ○ *The disease mainly occurs in women over 40.*
occur to sb *phrasal verb* to suddenly think of something [+ **(that)**] ***It*** *had never* ***occurred to*** *me that he might be lying.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***occurrence***

a **common/everyday/rare/regular** occurrence

occurrence /əˈkʌrᵊns/ *noun* [C] something that happens ***a common/everyday occurrence***

ocean /ˈəʊʃᵊn/ *noun* GEOGRAPHY **1** [**no plural**] the sea *to swim in the ocean* **2** [C] one of the five main areas that the sea is divided into *the Pacific Ocean*

oceanic /ˌəʊʃiˈænɪk/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY *formal* related to the ocean

ˌoceanic ˈcrust *noun* [C usually singular] GEOGRAPHY the part of the outer rocky layer of the Earth that is under the oceans and is thinner than the layer under the land

o'clock /əˈklɒk/ *adverb* **one/two/three, etc o'clock** used after the numbers one to twelve to mean exactly that hour when you tell the time *It was ten o'clock when we got home.*

OCR /ˌəʊsiːˈɑːʳ/ *noun* [U] COMPUTING *abbreviation for* optical character recognition: software that allows computers to read printed or written words and store them in the computer

Oct *written abbreviation for* October

octagon /ˈɒktəgən/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a flat shape with eight equal sides

octahedron /ˌɒktəˈhiːdrᵊn/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a solid shape that has eight flat triangular surfaces of the same size

octave /ˈɒktɪv/ *noun* [C] MUSIC the space between two musical notes that are eight notes apart

October /ɒkˈtəʊbəʳ/ (*written abbreviation* **Oct**) *noun* [C, U] the tenth month of the year

octopus /ˈɒktəpəs/ *noun* [C] a sea creature with eight long arms

odd /ɒd/ *adjective* **1** STRANGE strange or unusual *I always thought there was something odd about her.* ○ *It's a bit odd that he didn't come.* **2** NOT OFTEN [**always before noun**] not happening often *He does* ***odd jobs*** *here and there.* **3** SEPARATED [**always before noun**] being one of a pair when the other item is missing *an* ***odd sock*** **4** APPROXIMATELY used after a number to mean approximately *There are thirty odd kids in the class.* **5** MATHEMATICS An odd number does not produce a whole number when it is divided by two.

oddity /ˈɒdɪti/ *noun* [C] someone or something that is strange or unusual

oddly /ˈɒdli/ *adverb* in a strange way *He's been* ***behaving*** *very* ***oddly*** *lately.* ○ ***Oddly enough,*** *business was good during the bad weather months.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***odds***

the odds **of/on** sth happening ● the odds are **(stacked) against** sb

odds /ɒdz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** the probability that something will happen *What are the odds of winning the top prizes?* ○ *I'm afraid the odds are against us.* **2 against all (the) odds** If you do or achieve something against all the odds, you succeed although you were not likely to. *We won the game against all odds.* **3 be at odds with sb/sth** to not agree with someone or something *His remark was at odds with our report.* **4 odds and ends** *informal* a group of small objects of different types which are not valuable or important

odious /ˈəʊdiəs/ *adjective formal* very unpleasant *an odious little man*

odour *UK* (*US* **odor**) /ˈəʊdəʳ/ *noun* [C] a smell, often one that is unpleasant ***body odour***

odyssey /ˈɒdɪsi/ *noun* [C] *literary* a long, exciting journey

oedema *UK* (*US* **edema**) /ɪˈdiːmə/ *noun* [U] HEALTH (in medicine) a condition in which there is too much liquid in the body tissues between the cells

O

oesophagus (*US* **esophagus**) /ɪˈsɒfəɡəs/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] **ANATOMY** the tube in the body which takes food from the mouth to the stomach ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

oestrogen *UK* (*US* **estrogen**) /ˈiːstrəʊdʒᵊn/ (US) /ˈestrədʒən/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** a chemical substance in a woman's body which prepares her eggs for fertilization (= joining with the male seed to make a baby)

of *strong form* /ɒv/ *weak form* /əv/ *preposition* **1** BELONG belonging or relating to someone or something *a friend of mine* ○ *the colour of her hair* ○ *part of the problem* **2** AMOUNT used after words which show an amount *a kilo of apples* ○ *both of us* ○ *a handful of raisins* **3** NUMBER used with numbers, ages and dates *a boy of six* ○ *a decrease of 10%* ○ *the 14th of February 2005* **4** CONTAIN containing *a glass of milk* ○ *sacks of rubbish* **5** MADE made or consisting of *dresses of lace and silk* **6** ADJECTIVE/VERB used to connect particular adjectives and verbs with nouns *frightened of spiders* ○ *smelling of garlic* **7** SHOW showing someone or something *a map of the city centre* **8** CAUSE showing a reason or cause *He died of a heart attack.* **9** POSITION showing position or direction *the front of the queue* ○ *a small town north of Edinburgh* **10** ACTION/FEELING used after nouns describing actions or feelings to mean 'done to' or 'experienced by' *the destruction of the rain forest* ○ *the suffering of millions* **11** WRITTEN written or made by *the collected works of William Shakespeare*

of course /əvˈkɔːs/ *adverb* **1** YES used to say 'yes' and emphasize your answer *'can you help me?' 'Of course!'* **2** OBVIOUS used to show that what you are saying is obvious or already known *The rain meant, of course, that the match was cancelled.* ○ *Of course, the Olympics are not just about money.* **3 of course not** used to say 'no' and emphasize your answer *'Do you mind if I borrow your pen?' 'Of course not.'*

off[1] /ɒf/ *adverb, preposition* **1** NOT TOUCHING not touching or connected to something or not on a surface *Keep off the grass!* ○ *A button came off my coat.* **2** AWAY away from a place or position *He ran off to find his friend.* ○ *I'll* ***be off*** (= will go) *soon.* **3** NOT OPERATING not operating or being used *Make sure you switch your computer off.* **4** NEAR near to a building or place *an island off the coast of Spain* **5 FINANCE** If a price has a certain amount of money off, it costs that much less than the usual price. *These jeans were $10 off.* **6** DISTANCE/TIME far in distance or time *My holidays seem a long way off.* **7 go off sth/sb** *UK* to stop liking something or someone *I've gone off meat.* **8** NOT AT WORK not at work *I had 6 months off when my son was born.* ➲See also: off the **cuff**, **on**[2] and off

off[2] /ɒf/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** NOT CORRECT not correct *Our sales figures were off by ten percent.* **2 FOOD** If food or drink is off, it is not now fresh and good to eat or drink. *This milk smells off.* **3** NOT AT WORK not at work *He's off today - I think he's ill.* ➲See also: **off-chance**

offal /ˈɒfᵊl/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** organs from the inside of animals that are killed for food

ˌoff ˈbalance *adjective, adverb* If someone or something is off balance, they are in a position where they are likely to fall or be knocked down. *to knock/throw someone off balance*

off-chance /ˈɒftʃɑːns/ *noun UK informal* **on the off-chance** hoping that something may be possible, although it is not likely *I went to the station on the off-chance that she'd be there.*

ˌoff ˈduty *adjective* When an official such as a police officer is off duty, they are not working.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***offence***

cause/give/take offence ● **grave** offence

offence *UK* (*US* **offense**) /əˈfens/ *noun* **1** UPSET [**U**] when something rude makes someone upset or angry *to* ***cause/give offence*** ○ *Many people* ***take offence*** *at swearing.* **2 LAW** [**C**] a crime *a* ***criminal offence*** ○ *He* ***committed*** *several serious* ***offences***.

offend /əˈfend/ *verb* **1** UPSET [**T**] to make someone upset or angry [**often passive**] *I was deeply offended by her comments.* **2 LAW** [**I**] *formal* to commit a crime *If she offends again, she'll go to prison.*

offender /əˈfendəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **LAW** someone who has committed a crime *a young offender*

offense /əˈfens/ *noun* **LAW** *US spelling of* offence

offensive[1] /əˈfensɪv/ *adjective* **1** UPSETTING likely to make people angry or upset *an* ***offensive remark*** ➲Opposite **inoffensive** **2** ATTACKING used for attacking *an* ***offensive weapon*** ●**offensively** *adverb*

offensive[2] /əˈfensɪv/ *noun* [**C**] an attack *It's time to launch a major* ***offensive against*** *terrorism.*

offer[1] /ˈɒfəʳ/ *verb* **1** ASK [**+ two objects**] to ask someone if they would like something *They offered me a job.* **2** SAY YOU WILL DO [**I, T**] to say that you are willing to do something [**+ to do sth**] *He offered to get me a cab.* **3 FINANCE** [**T**] to say that you will pay a particular amount of money [**+ two objects**] *I offered him £500 for the car.* ○ *Police have offered a $1,000 reward for information.* **4** PROVIDE [**T**] to give or provide something *to offer advice* ○ *The hotel offers a wide range of facilities.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***offer***

accept/make/receive/turn down an offer ● a **generous/tempting** offer ● an offer **of** sth

offer[2] /ˈɒfəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** ASK when you ask someone if they would like something *an* ***offer of help*** ○ *a job offer* ○ *to* ***accept/refuse*** *an* ***offer*** **2 FINANCE** an amount of money that you say you will pay for something *The highest* ***offer*** *anyone has* ***made*** *so far is £150.* **3 FINANCE** a cheap price or special arrangement for something you are buying *This* ***special offer*** *ends on Friday.* **4 on offer a FINANCE** at a cheaper price than usual *Are these jeans still on offer?* **b** AVAILABLE available to do or have *We were amazed at the range of products on offer.*

offering /ˈɒfᵊrɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] something that you give to someone *a* ***peace offering***

offhand[1] /ˌɒfˈhænd/ *adjective* not friendly or polite *He was a bit offhand with me.*

offhand[2] /ˌɒfˈhænd/ *adverb* immediately, without thinking about something *I don't know offhand how much it will cost.*

office /ˈɒfɪs/ *noun* **1** PLACE [C] a room or building where people work *an **office worker*** ○ *I never get to the office before nine.* ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5 **2** INFORMATION [C] a room or building where you can get information, tickets, or a particular service *a **ticket office*** ○ *the **tourist office*** **3** JOB [U] an important job in an organization *Some people think he has been **in office** for too long.* ○ *She **held** the **office** of mayor for eight years.* ➲See also: **box office, the Oval Office, post office, register office, registry office**

ˈoffice ˌbuilding (*also UK* **office block**) *noun* [C] a large building which contains offices

ˈoffice ˌhours *noun* [**plural**] the hours during the day when people who work in offices are usually at work

officer /ˈɒfɪsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MILITARY someone with an important job in a military organization *an **army/naval officer*** **2** POLITICS someone who works for a government department *a customs officer* ○ *a prison officer* **3** POLICE a police officer *a uniformed officer* ➲See also: **probation officer**

official[1] /əˈfɪʃˢl/ *adjective* **1** APPROVED approved by the government or someone in authority *the **official language** of Singapore* ○ *an **official document*** **2** JOB [**always before noun**] relating to the duties of someone in a position of authority *the **official residence** of the ambassador* ○ *an **official visit*** **3** KNOWN known by the public *It's official - they're getting married!* **4** NOT TRUE [**always before noun**] An official explanation or statement is one that is given, but which may not be true. *The **official reason** for the delay is bad weather.* ➲Opposite **unofficial** ●**officially** *adverb The new hospital was officially opened yesterday.*

official[2] /əˈfɪʃˢl/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who has an important position in an organization such as the government *a senior official* ○ *a UN official*

ofˌficial reˈceiver *noun* [C] FINANCE *UK* a person who deals officially with the money problems of a company that has gone bankrupt (= has no money and cannot now pay the money that it owes)

offing /ˈɒfɪŋ/ *noun* **be in the offing** If something is in the offing, it will happen or be offered soon. *He thinks there might be a promotion in the offing.*

off-licence /ˈɒfˌlaɪsˢns/ *UK* (*US* **liquor store**) *noun* [C] a shop that sells alcoholic drink

offline /ɒfˈlaɪn/ (*also* **off-line**) *adjective, adverb* COMPUTING A computer is offline when it is not connected to a central system, or not connected to the Internet.

off-peak /ˌɒfˈpiːk/ *adjective* not at the most popular and expensive time *an off-peak phone call*

offset /ˌɒfˈset/ *verb* [T] **offsetting**, *past* **offset** If one thing offsets another thing, it has the opposite effect and so creates a more balanced situation. [**often passive**] *The costs have been offset by savings in other areas.*

offset lithography /ˌɒfsetlɪˈθɒgrəfi/ *noun* [U] DT a method of printing in which an image is put on a rubber sheet before going on to the paper or object being printed

offsetting /ɒfˈsetɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT trying to stop the damage caused by activities that produce carbon by doing other things to reduce it, such as planting trees

offshore /ˌɒfˈʃɔːʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** GEOGRAPHY in the sea and away from the coast *an offshore island* **2** ECONOMICS An offshore bank or bank account is based in another country and so less tax has to be paid. *an **offshore account/trust***

offside /ˌɒfˈsaɪd/ (*also US* **offsides**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] SPORT In sports such as football, a player who is offside is in a position that is not allowed.

offspring /ˈɒfsprɪŋ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **offspring** *formal* the child of a person or animal *to produce offspring*

off-the-cuff /ˌɒfðəˈkʌf/ *adjective* An off-the-cuff remark is one that is not planned.

off-the-job /ˈɒfðəˌdʒɒb/ *adjective* Off-the-job training happens away from the place of work.

often /ˈɒfˢn, ˈɒftˢn/ *adverb* **1** MANY TIMES many times or regularly *I often see her there.* ○ *He said I could visit as often as I liked.* ○ ***How often*** (= How many times) *do you go to the gym?* ○ *I don't see her **very often**.* **2** NORMALLY If something often happens or is often true, it is normal for it to happen or it is usually true. *Headaches are often caused by stress.* ○ *Brothers and sisters often argue.*

ogre /ˈəʊgəʳ/ *noun* [C] an unpleasant, frightening person

oh /əʊ/ *exclamation* **1** PAUSE used before you say something, often before replying to what someone has said *"Ian's going." "Oh, I didn't realize."* ○ *"I'm so sorry." "Oh, don't worry."* **2** EMOTION used to show an emotion or to emphasize your opinion about something *Oh, no! I don't believe it!* ○ *"I don't think I can come." "Oh, that's a shame."* ○ *Oh, how sweet of you!*

ohm /əʊm/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a unit used for measuring electrical resistance (= how much or little a substance allows electricity to flow through it)

oil /ɔɪl/ *noun* [U] **1** GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY a thick liquid that comes from under the Earth's surface that is used as a fuel and for making parts of machines move smoothly *an oil company* ○ *an oil well* **2** FOOD a thick liquid produced from plants or animals that is used in cooking *vegetable oil* ➲See also: **crude oil, olive oil**

oilfield /ˈɔɪlˌfiːld/ *noun* [C] GEOLOGY an area under the ground where oil is found *an offshore oilfield*

ˈoil ˌpainting *noun* [C] ART a picture made using paint which contains oil

ˈoil ˌspill *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT when oil has come out of a ship and caused pollution

oily /ˈɔɪli/ *adjective* containing a lot of oil or covered with oil ***oily fish*** ○ *oily hands*

O

oink /ɔɪnk/ *noun* [C] the sound that a pig makes

ointment /ˈɔɪntmənt/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** a smooth, thick substance that is used on painful or damaged skin

okapi /əʊˈkɑːpi/ *noun* [C] an African animal of the giraffe family which is brown with stripes of black and white around its legs and back part

okay¹ (*also* **OK**) /əʊˈkeɪ/ *exclamation* **1** AGREEING used when agreeing to do something or when allowing someone to do something *"Let's meet this afternoon." "Okay."* ○ *"Can I use the car?" "Okay."* **2** BEFORE SPEAKING used before you start speaking, especially to a group of people *Okay, I'm going to start by showing you a few figures.*

okay² *informal* (*also* **OK**) /əʊˈkeɪ/ *adjective, adverb* **1** GOOD good or good enough *Is your food okay?* ○ *It was okay, but it wasn't as good as his last film.* **2** SAFE safe or healthy *Is your grandmother okay now?* **3** ALLOWED allowed or acceptable *Is it okay if I leave early today?* [+ **to do sth**] *Is it okay to smoke in here?*

old /əʊld/ *adjective* **1** LIVED LONG having lived or existed for a long time *an old man/woman* ○ *an old house* ○ *We're all **getting older**.* ○ *Children should show some respect for **the old**.* **2** USED A LOT having been used or owned for a long time *You might get dirty so wear some old clothes.* **3** AGE used to describe or ask about someone's age ***How old** are you?* ○ *She'll be 3 **years old** this month.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **year 4 an old friend/enemy, etc** someone who has been your friend/enemy, etc for a long time *I met an old friend who I was at college with.* **5** BEFORE [**always before noun**] used before or in the past *I think the old system was better in many ways.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

older, oldest, elder, eldest

Older and **oldest** are the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective 'old'.

I'm four years older than my sister.

Pedro is the oldest student in the class.

The adjectives **elder** and **eldest** are only used before nouns. They are usually used when you are comparing members of a family.

My elder brother is a doctor.

Mary has three sons. Her eldest boy is called Mark.

ˌold ˈage *noun* [U] the period of time when you are old

ˌold-age ˈpension *noun* [U] *UK* money that people receive regularly from the government when they are old and have stopped working

ˌold-age ˈpensioner *noun* [C] *UK* someone who gets an old-age pension

olden /ˈəʊldᵊn/ *adjective* **in the olden days/in olden times** a long time ago

old-fashioned /ˌəʊldˈfæʃᵊnd/ *adjective* not modern *old-fashioned clothes/furniture*

oldie /ˈəʊldi/ *noun* [C] *informal* an old song or film, or an old person *a **golden oldie***

old-style /ˈəʊldstaɪl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used or done in the past *old-style politics*

the ˌOld ˈTestament *noun* **RELIGION** the part of the Bible (= holy book) written before the birth of Jesus Christ

the ˈOld ˌWorld *noun* Asia, Africa, and Europe

olive /ˈɒlɪv/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C] a small green or black fruit with a bitter taste that is eaten or used to produce oil **2** [U] (*also* **ˌolive ˈgreen**) a colour that is a mixture of green and yellow ●**olive** (*also* **olive-green**) *adjective*

ˈolive ˌoil *noun* [U] **FOOD** oil produced from olives, used for cooking or on salads

-ology /-ɒlədʒi/ *suffix* makes a noun meaning 'the study of something' *psychology* (= the study of the mind) ○ *sociology* (= the study of society)

the Olympic Games /əˈlɪmpɪkˌgeɪmz/ (*also* **the Olympics**) *noun* [**plural**] **SPORT** an international sports competition that happens every four years ●**Olympic** *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the Olympic Games *She broke the **Olympic record**.*

ombudsman /ˈɒmbʊdzmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **ombudsmen LAW** someone who deals with complaints that people make against the government or public organizations

omelette /ˈɒmlət/ (*also US* **omelet**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a food made with eggs that have been mixed and fried, often with other foods added *a cheese omelette*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *omen*

a **bad/good/lucky** omen ● an omen **of** [death/disaster/good fortune,etc] ● an omen **for** sb/sth

omen /ˈəʊmən/ *noun* [C] a sign of what will happen in the future *a **good/bad omen***

ominous /ˈɒmɪnəs/ *adjective* making you think that something bad is going to happen *an **ominous sign*** ○ *ominous clouds*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *omission*

a **glaring/serious/surprising** omission ● sb/sth's omission **from** sth ● the omission **of** sb/sth

omission /əʊˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when something has not been included but should have been *There are some **serious omissions** in the book.*

omit /əʊˈmɪt/ *verb* **omitting**, *past* **omitted 1** [T] to not include something [**often passive**] *He was **omitted from** the team because of his behaviour.* **2 omit to do sth** *mainly UK formal* to not do something *She omitted to mention where she was going.*

on¹ /ɒn/ *preposition* **1** SURFACE on a surface of something *We put all of our medicine on a high shelf.* **2** PLACE in a particular place *the diagram on page 22* ○ *I met her on a ship.* **3** RECORDING/PERFORMANCE used to show the way in which something is recorded or performed *What's on television tonight?* **4** TOUCHING used to show what happens as a result of touching something *I cut myself on a knife.* **5** SUBJECT about *a book on pregnancy* **6** MONEY/TIME used to show what money or time is used for *I've wasted too*

much time on this already. ○ *She refuses to spend more than £20 on a pair of shoes.* **7** NEXT TO next to or along the side of *The post office is on Bateman Street.* **8** DATE/DAY used to show the date or day when something happens *He's due to arrive on 14 February.* ○ *I'm working on my birthday.* **9** USING using something *I spoke to Mum on the phone.* **10** AFTER happening after something and often because of it *The Prince was informed on his return to the UK.* **11** TRANSPORT used to show some methods of travelling *Did you go on the ferry?* ○ *Sam loves travelling on buses.* **12** FOOD/FUEL/DRUGS used to show something that is used as food, fuel, or a drug *This radio runs on batteries.* ○ *I can't drink wine because I'm on antibiotics.* **13 be on a committee/panel, etc** to be a member of a group or organization *She's on the playgroup committee.* **14 have/carry sth on you** to have something with you *Do you have your driving licence on you?* **15 be on me/him, etc** *informal* used to show who is paying for something *This meal is on me.*

on² /ɒn/ *adverb* **1** CONTINUE used to show that an action or event continues *The old tradition lives on.* ○ *It was a complicated situation that dragged on for weeks.* **2** WEAR If you have something on, you are wearing it. *She's got a black coat on.* ○ *Why don't you **put** your new dress **on?*** **3** WORKING working or being used *The heating has been on all day.* **4** TRAVEL into a bus, train, plane, etc *Amy got on in Stamford.* **5** HAPPENING happening or planned *I've got a lot on at the moment.* ○ *Have you checked what's on at the cinema?* **6 on and off** (*also* **off and on**) If something happens on and off during a period of time, it happens sometimes. *They've been seeing each other on and off since Christmas.*

once¹ /wʌns/ *adverb* **1** ONE TIME one time *It's only snowed once or twice this year.* ○ *I go swimming **once a week*** (= one time every week). **2** NOT NOW in the past, but not now *This house once belonged to my grandfather.* **3 once again** again *Once again I'm left with all the washing up.* **4 all at once** suddenly *All at once he stood up and walked out of the room.* **5 at once a** IMMEDIATELY immediately *I knew at once that I would like it here.* **b** AT SAME TIME at the same time *They all started talking at once.* **6 once in a while** sometimes but not often *He plays tennis once in a while.* **7 once and for all** If you do something once and for all, you do it now so that it does not have to be dealt with again. *Let's get to the bottom of this matter once and for all!* **8 once more** one more time *If you say that once more, I'm going to leave.* **9 for once** used to mean that something is happening that does not usually happen *For once, I think I have good news for him.* **10** LITERATURE **once upon a time** used at the beginning of a children's story to mean that something happened a long time ago ➲See also: once in a blue **moon**

once² /wʌns/ *conjunction* as soon as *Once I've found somewhere to live, I'll send you my new address.* ○ *We'll send your tickets once we've received your cheque.*

oncoming /ˈɒnˌkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Oncoming vehicles are coming towards you.

one¹ /wʌn/ the number 1 ➲See also: back to **square¹** one

one² /wʌn/ *pronoun* **1** PARTICULAR PERSON/THING used to refer to a particular person or thing in a group that has already been talked about *I've just made some scones, do you want one?* ○ *Throw those gloves away and get some new ones.* ○ *Chris is **the one** with glasses.* **2** GENERAL *formal* any person in general *One ought to respect one's parents.* **3 one at a time** separately *Eat them one at a time.* **4 one by one** separately, with one thing happening after another *One by one the old buildings have been demolished.* **5 one another** each other *How can they reach an agreement if they won't talk to one another?* **6 (all) in one** combined into a single thing *It's a CD player and cassette deck all in one.*

one³ /wʌn/ *determiner* **1** PARTICULAR PERSON/THING used to refer to a particular person or thing in a group *One drawback is the cost of housing in the area.* ○ ***One of** our daughters has just got married.* **2** FUTURE TIME used to refer to a time in the future which is not yet decided *We must have a drink together one evening.* **3** TIME IN PAST at a particular time in the past *I first met him one day in the park.* **4** ONLY only *He's the one person you can rely on in this place.* **5** WITH ADJECTIVE *mainly US* used to emphasize an adjective *That's one big ice cream you've got there!* **6 one or two** a few *I'd like to make one or two suggestions.* ➲See also: put sth to one **side¹**, be one **step¹** ahead (of sb)

one-man /ˌwʌnˈmæn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] with only one person doing something *a His **one-man show** has been a fantastic success.*

one-off /ˌwʌnˈɒf/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *UK* only happening once *a **one-off payment*** ●**one-off** *noun* [C] *UK* something that only happens once *His Olympic victory was not just a one-off.*

one-on-one /ˌwʌnɒnˈwʌn/ *adjective, adverb mainly US* only including two people

onerous /ˈəʊnᵊrəs/ *adjective formal* difficult and needing a lot of effort *an **onerous task***

oneself /wʌnˈself/ *pronoun formal* the reflexive form of the pronoun 'one' when it refers to the person speaking or people in general *How else should one protect oneself and one's family?*

one-sided /ˌwʌnˈsaɪdɪd/ *adjective* **1** BETTER If a competition is one-sided, one team or player is much better than the other. *a one-sided contest/game* **2** UNFAIR only considering one opinion in an argument in a way that is unfair *a one-sided view*

one-time /ˈwʌntaɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A one-time position or job is one that you had or did in the past, but not now. *a one-time friend/minister*

one-to-one /ˌwʌntəˈwʌn/ *adjective, adverb mainly UK* only including two people *She's having private lessons on a one-to-one basis.*

one-way /ˌwʌnˈweɪ/ *adjective* If a road is one-way, you can only drive on it in one direction. *a **one-way street***

O

ˌone-way ˈticket *US* (*UK* **single**) *noun* [C] A one-way ticket for a journey can only be used to travel in one direction and not to return.

ongoing /ˈɒnˌɡəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] still happening *an ongoing process/investigation*

onion /ˈʌnjən/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a round vegetable with layers that has a strong taste and smell ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 ➲See also: **spring onion**

online /ˌɒnˈlaɪn/ *adjective*, *adverb* **COMPUTING** connected to a system of computers, especially the Internet *online services* ○ *to* ***go online*** (= start using the Internet) ○ *Most newspapers are now available online.* ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

onlooker /ˈɒnˌlʊkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who watches something happening without becoming involved in it *a crowd of onlookers*

only¹ /ˈəʊnli/ *adverb* **1** NOT MORE not more than a particular size or amount *It'll only take a few minutes.* ○ *She's only fifteen.* **2** NO ONE/NOTHING ELSE not anyone or anything else *The offer is available to UK residents only.* **3** RECENTLY used to mean that something happened very recently *She's* ***only just*** *finished writing it.* **4 not only ... (but) also** used to say that one thing is true and another thing is true too, especially a surprising thing *Not only did he turn up late, he also forgot his books.*

only² /ˈəʊnli/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to mean that there are not any others *This could be our only chance.* ○ *You're the only person here I know.*

only³ /ˈəʊnli/ *conjunction* used to introduce a statement which explains why something you have just said cannot happen or is not completely true *I'd phone him myself only I know he's not there at the moment.*

ˈonly ˌchild *noun* [C] *plural* **only children** someone who has no brothers or sisters

onomatopoeia /ˌɒnəʊˌmætəˈpiːə/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE, LITERATURE** the use of words which have sounds in them that are like the noises that the words refer to *'Pop!' is an example of onomatopoeia.*

on-screen /ˈɒnskriːn/ *adjective*, *adverb* appearing on a computer or television screen

onset /ˈɒnset/ *noun* **the onset of sth** the beginning of something, usually something unpleasant *the onset of cancer*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***onslaught***

launch/mount an onslaught ● an onslaught **against/on** sb

onslaught /ˈɒnslɔːt/ *noun* [C] when someone attacks or criticizes someone or something

on-the-job /ˈɒnðəˌdʒɒb/ *adjective* on-the-job training happens while you are at work

onto (*also* **on to**) /ˈɒntuː/ *preposition* **1** MOVING used to show movement into or on a particular place *The sheep were loaded onto trucks.* ○ *Can you get back onto the path?* **2 hold/grip, etc onto sth** to hold something *Hold onto my hand before we cross the road.* **3** TALKING used to show that you are starting to talk about a different subject *Can we move onto the next item on the agenda?* **4 be onto sb** to know that someone has done something wrong or illegal *She knows we're onto her and she's trying to get away.* ○ *Who* ***put*** *the police* ***onto*** (= told the police about) her? **5 be onto sth** to know or discover something useful or important *Researchers think they may be onto something big.* ○ *Can you* ***put*** *me* ***onto*** (= tell me about) *a good dentist?*

the onus /ˈəʊnəs/ *noun formal* the responsibility for doing something *The* ***onus is on*** *parents to make sure their children attend school.*

onward /ˈɒnwəd/ (*also* **onwards**) *adverb* **1 from the 1870s/March/6.30 pm, etc onwards** beginning at a time and continuing after it **2** If you move onwards, you continue to go forwards.

oops /uːps/ *exclamation* something you say when you make a mistake or have a slight accident *Oops! I've spilled my coffee.*

ooze /uːz/ *verb* **1** FLOW [I, T] If a liquid oozes from something or if something oozes a liquid, the liquid comes out slowly. *Blood was oozing out of the wound.* **2** SHOW [T] *informal* to show a lot of a quality *to* ***ooze charm***

opal /ˈəʊpəl/ *noun* [C, U] **GEOLOGY** a precious stone whose colour changes when the position of the person looking at it changes

opaque /əʊˈpeɪk/ *adjective* **1** NOT SEE If an object or substance is opaque, you cannot see through it. **2** NOT UNDERSTAND *formal* difficult to understand

op-ed /ɒpˈed/ *US* (*UK* **editorial**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] describes a piece of writing in a newspaper in which a writer gives an opinion about a subject *an op-ed article/page*

open¹ /ˈəʊpᵊn/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLOSED not closed or fastened *an* ***open door/window*** ○ *Someone had left the gate* ***wide open.*** ○ *Is there a bottle of wine already open?* ○ *A magazine was lying open on her lap.* **2** DOING BUSINESS A shop or business is open during the time it is available for business or serving customers. *Most shops are open on Sundays now.* **3 COMPUTING** If a computer document or program is open, it is ready to be read or used. **4** WITHOUT BUILDINGS [**always before noun**] An open area of land has no buildings on it or near it. *large* ***open spaces*** **5** NOT COVERED [**always before noun**] without a roof or cover *an open courtyard* **6** FOR EVERYONE If a place or event is open, everyone can go to it or become involved in it. *an* ***open debate*** ○ *Are the gardens* ***open to*** *the public?* **7** HONEST An open person is honest and does not hide their feelings. **8** NOT HIDDEN [**always before noun**] Open feelings, usually negative ones, are not hidden. ***open hostility/rivalry*** **9** NOT DECIDED If a decision or question is open, it has not yet been decided. *We don't have to make a firm arrangement now. Let's* ***leave it open.*** **10 have/keep an open mind** to wait until you know all the facts before you form an opinion about something or judge someone *The cause of the fire is still unclear and we are keeping an open mind.* **11 open to discussion/suggestions, etc** willing to consider a discussion/suggestions, etc *This is only a proposal. I'm open to suggestions.* **12 open to abuse/criticism, etc** likely to be abused/criticized, etc *The system is wide open to abuse.* ➲See also: with your eyes (**eye¹**) open

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

open and close

Be careful not to confuse the adjective and verb forms of these words.

The adjectives are **open** and **closed**.

Is the supermarket open on Sunday?

The museum is closed today.

The verbs are **open** and **close**.

The supermarket opens at 8 a.m.

The museum closes at 5 p.m. today.

open² /ˈəʊpᵊn/ *verb* **1** NOT CLOSED [**I, T**] If something opens, it changes to a position that is not closed, and if you open it, you make it change to a position that is not closed. *to open a door/window* ○ *The gate won't open.* ○ *Don't open your eyes yet.* **2** REMOVE COVER [**T**] to remove part of a container or parcel so that you can see or use what it contains *Karen opened the box and looked inside.* ○ *Why don't you open the envelope?* ○ *I can't open this bottle.* **3** PREPARE FOR USE [**I, T**] If an object opens, the parts that are folded together move apart, and if you open it, you make the parts that are folded together move apart. *Shall I open the umbrella?* ○ *Open your books at page 22.* **4** START WORK [**I**] If a shop or office opens at a particular time of day, it starts to do business at that time. *What time does the bank open?* **5 COMPUTING** [**T**] to make a computer document or program ready to be read or used **6** START OFFICIALLY [**I, T**] If a business or activity opens, it starts officially for the first time, and if you open it, you make it start officially for the first time. *That restaurant's new - it only opened last month.* ○ *Several shops have **opened up** in the last year.* **7** MAKE AVAILABLE [**T**] to allow people to use a road or area *They **opened up** the roads again the day after the flooding.* **8 open an account FINANCE** to make an arrangement to keep your money with a bank *Have you opened a bank account yet?* ➲See also: open the **floodgates**

open (sth) up *phrasal verb* **1** CREATE OPPORTUNITY to create a new opportunity or possibility *A teaching qualification can **open up** many more career **opportunities**.* **2** OPEN LOCK to open the lock on the door of a building *The caretaker opens up the school every morning at seven.*

open up *phrasal verb* to start to talk more about yourself and your feelings *I've tried to get him to **open up to** me, but with no success.*

the open /ˈəʊpᵊn/ *noun* **1 in the open** outside *We spent the night in the open.* **2 bring sth out into the open** to tell people information that was secret [**often passive**] *It's time this issue was brought out into the open.*

open-air /ˌəʊpənˈeəʳ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An open-air place does not have a roof. *an **open-air swimming pool***

ˈopen ˌday *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** *UK* a day when people can visit a school or organization to see what happens there

open-ended /ˌəʊpənˈendɪd/ *adjective* An open-ended activity or situation does not have a planned ending. *We are not willing to enter into **open-ended discussions**.*

opener /ˈəʊpənəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1 bottle/can/tin, etc opener** a piece of kitchen equipment used to open bottles/cans, etc **2** someone or something that begins a series of events, usually in sports ➲See also: **eye-opener**

opening¹ /ˈəʊpənɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HOLE a hole or space that something or someone can pass through *We found an opening in the fence and climbed through.* **2** START the beginning of something *The opening of the opera is quite dramatic.* **3** CEREMONY a ceremony at the beginning of an event or activity *I've been invited to the opening of the new exhibition on Tuesday.* **4** OPPORTUNITY a job or an opportunity to do something *There's **an opening for** an editorial assistant in our department.*

opening² /ˈəʊpənɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening at the beginning of an event or activity *the **opening night*** ○ *her **opening remarks***

openly /ˈəʊpᵊnli/ *adverb* without hiding any of your thoughts or feelings *He **talks** quite **openly** about his feelings.*

open-minded /ˌəʊpənˈmaɪndɪd/ *adjective* willing to consider ideas and opinions that are new or different to your own

openness /ˈəʊpᵊnnəs/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is honest about their thoughts and feelings *I appreciated his openness.*

open-plan /ˌəʊpᵊnˈplæn/ *adjective* describes a room or a building without many walls *an **open-plan office***

open-source /ˌəʊpənˈsɔːs/ *adjective* **COMPUTING** Open-source software is free to use, and the original program can be changed by anyone.

opera /ˈɒpᵊrə/ *noun* [**C, U**] **MUSIC** a musical play in which most of the words are sung *to go to the opera* ○ ***opera singers*** ○ *an **opera house*** (= building for opera) ●**operatic** /ˌɒpᵊrˈætɪk/ *adjective* relating to opera *an operatic society*

operate /ˈɒpᵊreɪt/ *verb* **1** ORGANIZATION [**I, T**] If an organization or business operates, it is working, and if you operate it, you manage it and make it work. *Our company is operating under very difficult conditions at present.* **2** MACHINE [**I, T**] If a machine operates, it does what it is designed to do, and if you operate it, you make it do what it is designed to do. *You have to be trained to operate the machinery.* **3 HEALTH** [**I**] to treat an illness or injury by cutting someone's body and removing or repairing part of it *Did they have to **operate on** him?*

ˈoperating ˌroom *US* (*UK* **operating theatre**) *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a room in a hospital where doctors do operations

ˈoperating ˌsystem *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** computer software that controls how different parts of a computer work together

ˈoperating ˌtheatre *UK* (*US* **operating room**) *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a room in a hospital where doctors do operations

WORD PARTNERS FOR *operation*

have/undergo an operation ● **do/perform** an operation ● an operation **on** sb/sb's [knee/hand,etc] ● a **major/minor** operation

O

operation /ˌɒpəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH when a doctor cuts someone's body to remove or repair part of it *a heart/lung operation* ○ ***a major/minor operation*** ○ *My son's got to* ***have an operation***. **2** ORGANIZATION an organization or business *a large commercial operation* **3** ACTIVITY an activity that is intended to achieve a particular purpose *a military/peacekeeping operation* ○ *a joint operation by French and Spanish police* **4 in operation** If a machine or system is in operation, it is working or being used. *The new rail link is now in operation.* ○ *Most of the machines are now back in operation.*

operational /ˌɒpəˈreɪʃənəl/ *adjective* **1** WORKING If a system is operational, it is working. *The service becomes* ***fully operational*** *next June.* **2** ACTIVITY [**always before noun**] relating to a particular activity *operational control/responsibility*

operative¹ /ˈɒpərətɪv/ *adjective formal* working or being used *The agreement will not become operative until all members have signed.*

operative² /ˈɒpərətɪv/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* someone who does secret work for a government or other organization *a former CIA operative*

operator /ˈɒpəreɪtər/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE someone who helps to connect people on a telephone system *Why don't you call the operator?* **2** MACHINE someone whose job is to use and control a machine or vehicle *a computer operator* **3** BUSINESS a company that does a particular type of business *a tour operator*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***opinion***

express/hold/voice an opinion ● a **favourable/low/personal/poor/strong** opinion ● **in** sb's opinion ● sb's opinion **about/on** sth

opinion /əˈpɪnjən/ *noun* **1** [C] a thought or belief about something or someone *What's your* ***opinion about/on*** *the matter?* ○ *He* ***has*** *fairly strong* ***opinions*** *on most subjects.* ○ ***In my opinion*** (= I think) *he's the best football player we have in this country.* **2 POLITICS public opinion** the thoughts and beliefs that most people have about a subject *Eventually, the government will have to take notice of public opinion.* **3 have a high/low opinion of sb/sth** to think that someone or something is good/bad *He has a low opinion of doctors.*

opinionated /əˈpɪnjəneɪtɪd/ *adjective* being too certain that your strong opinions are correct

oˈpinion ˌpoll *noun* [C] POLITICS when people are asked questions to discover what they think about a subject *The latest opinion poll shows that the president's popularity has improved.*

opium /ˈəʊpiəm/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a drug made from the seeds of a poppy (= a red flower)

opponent /əˈpəʊnənt/ *noun* [C] **1** COMPETE someone who you compete against in a game or competition *He beat his opponent six games to two.* **2** DISAGREE someone who disagrees with an action or belief and tries to change it *an opponent of slavery* ○ *a* ***political opponent***

opportune /ˈɒpətjuːn/ *adjective formal* **an opportune moment/time** a good time for something to happen *His letter arrived at an opportune moment.*

opportunist /ˌɒpəˈtjuːnɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who tries to get power or an advantage in every situation ●**opportunistic** /ˌɒpətjuːˈnɪstɪk/ *adjective* using a situation to get power or an advantage

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***opportunity***

create/have/miss/offer/provide/seize an opportunity ● a **golden/good/great/unique/wasted** opportunity ● **at every** opportunity ● an opportunity **for** sth

opportunity /ˌɒpəˈtjuːnəti/ *noun* **1** POSSIBILITY [**C, U**] a situation in which it is possible for you to do something, or a possibility of doing something *a* ***unique opportunity*** ○ *a* ***golden*** (= very good) ***opportunity*** [**+ to do sth**] *Everyone will* ***have an opportunity*** *to comment.* ○ *There are plenty of* ***opportunities for*** *research.* ○ *Don't* ***miss*** *this* ***opportunity*** *to win a million pounds.* ○ *She talks about her boyfriend* ***at every opportunity*** . **2** JOB [C] the chance to get a job [**usually plural**] *opportunities for young graduates* ○ ***job/employment opportunities*** **3 take the opportunity to do sth** to use an occasion to do or say something *I'd like to take this opportunity to thank all of you.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **possibility**

oppor'tunity ˌcost *noun* [C, U] FINANCE the cost to a business of not being able to do something, for example because available money is being used for something else

oppose /əˈpəʊz/ *verb* [T] to disagree with a plan or activity and to try to change or stop it *The committee opposed a proposal to allow women to join the club.*

opposed /əˈpəʊzd/ *adjective* **1 be opposed to sth** to disagree with a plan or activity *We're not opposed to tax increases.* **2 as opposed to** used to say that two things are very different *I'm talking about English football, as opposed to European football.*

opposing /əˈpəʊzɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SPORT **opposing teams/players, etc** Opposing teams/players, etc are competing against each other. **2 opposing ideas/beliefs, etc** Opposing ideas/beliefs, etc are completely different. *The book presents two opposing views.*

opposite¹ /ˈɒpəzɪt/ *adjective* **1** OTHER SIDE in a position facing something or someone but on the other side *on the* ***opposite page*** ○ *in the* ***opposite corner*** ○ *We live on* ***opposite sides*** *of the city.* ○ *I noticed a gate at the* ***opposite end*** *of the courtyard.* **2** DIFFERENT completely different *Police attempts to calm the violence had completely the* ***opposite effect***.

opposite² /ˈɒpəzɪt/ *adverb, preposition* in a position facing something or someone but on the other side *The couple sat down opposite her.* ○ *UK* She lives opposite (= on the other side of the road). ○ *Is there a bakery opposite your house?*

opposite³ /ˈɒpəzɪt/ *noun* [C] someone or something that is completely different from another person or thing *They're* ***complete opposites***. ○ *He's* ***the exact opposite of*** *my father.*

the ˌopposite ˈsex *noun* someone who is male if you are female, or female if you are male *It's not always easy to meet* ***members of the opposite sex****.*

opposition /ˌɒpəˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [U] strong disagreement *Is there much* ***opposition to*** *the proposed changes?* ○ *There has been strong* ***opposition from*** *local residents.* **2 the Opposition/opposition** POLITICS political parties that are not in power

oppress /əˈpres/ *verb* [T] **1** LIMIT FREEDOM to treat a group of people in an unfair way, often by limiting their freedom [**often passive**] *Women were oppressed by a society which considered them inferior.* **2** MAKE ANXIOUS to make someone feel anxious

oppressed /əˈprest/ *adjective* treated in an unfair way ***oppressed minorities***

oppression /əˈpreʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when people are treated in a way that is unfair and that limits their freedom ***political oppression*** ○ *the oppression of women*

oppressive /əˈpresɪv/ *adjective* **1** UNFAIR cruel and unfair *an* ***oppressive government/regime*** **2** HOT If the weather or heat is oppressive, it is too hot and there is no wind. ***oppressive heat*** **3** NOT RELAXING not relaxing or pleasant *an oppressive silence*

oppressor /əˈpresᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who treats people in an unfair way, often by limiting their freedom

opt /ɒpt/ *verb* **opt for sth; opt to do sth** to choose something or to decide to do something *Mike opted for early retirement.* ○ *Most people opt to have the operation.*
opt out *phrasal verb* to choose not to be part of an activity or to stop being involved in it *He's decided to* ***opt out of*** *the company's pension scheme.*

optical /ˈɒptɪkᵊl/ *adjective* HEALTH, BIOLOGY, PHYSICS relating to light or the ability to see *optical equipment/instruments*

ˌoptical ˈcharacter recogˌnition (*abbreviation* **OCR**) *noun* [U] COMPUTING software that allows computers to read printed or written words and store them in the computer

ˌoptical ˈfibre *UK* (*US* **optical fiber**) *noun* [C, U] COMPUTING, PHYSICS a very thin glass or plastic thread which is used for telephones and computers to carry information in the form of light *optical fibre transmission*

ˌoptical iˈllusion *noun* [C] something that you think you see, but which is not really there

optician /ɒpˈtɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] HEALTH **1** someone whose job is to make eye glasses **2** *UK* a shop where you can have your eyes tested and have your glasses made

ˌoptic ˈnerve *noun* [C] ANATOMY the nerve that passes signals to the brain from the retina (= eye part that sends images to the brain) at the back of each eye

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***optimism***

express optimism ● **cautious/renewed** optimism ● **cause for/grounds for/reason for** optimism ● optimism **about** sth

optimism /ˈɒptɪmɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when you believe good things will happen *a mood/spirit of optimism* ○ *There is* ***cause/reason for*** *optimism.* ○ *He expressed cautious* ***optimism about*** *the future.* ➲Opposite **pessimism**

optimist /ˈɒptɪmɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who always believes that good things will happen

optimistic /ˌɒptɪˈmɪstɪk/ *adjective* always believing that good things will happen *We're* ***optimistic about*** *our chances of success.* [**+ (that)**] *I'm not optimistic that we'll reach an agreement.* ➲Opposite **pessimistic**

optimum /ˈɒptɪməm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* best or most suitable *the optimum temperature*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***option***

consider/examine the options ● **be given/have** the option **of** doing sth ● an **attractive/viable** option ● an option **for** sb

option /ˈɒpʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] a choice *That's an option you might like to consider.* ○ *We don't have many options.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *You* ***always*** *have the* ***option of*** *not attending.* **2 have no option (but to do sth)** to not have the possibility of doing something else *We didn't want to dismiss him, but we had no option.* **3 keep/leave your options open** to wait and not make a decision or choice yet ➲See also: **soft option**

optional /ˈɒpʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* If something is optional, it is available but you do not have to have it. *an* ***optional extra***

opulent /ˈɒpjələnt/ *adjective* Opulent things are expensive and give a feeling of luxury. *an opulent bathroom*

or *strong form* /ɔː/ *weak form* /ᵊ/ *conjunction* **1** BETWEEN POSSIBILITIES used between possibilities, or before the last in a list of possibilities *Would you like toast or cereal?* ○ *Is that a boy or a girl?* ○ *You can have beer, wine, or mineral water.* ○ *The house will take two or three years to complete.* **2** CHANGE used to change or correct something you have said *We told the truth, or most of it.* **3** REASON used to give a reason for something you have said *She must love him or she wouldn't have stayed with him all these years.* **4** NOT EITHER used after a negative verb between a list of things to mean not any of those things or people *Tim doesn't eat meat or fish.*

oral¹ /ˈɔːrᵊl/ *adjective* **1** spoken *an* ***oral examination*** ○ *an* ***oral agreement*** **2** ANATOMY relating to or using the mouth ***oral medication*** ●**orally** *adverb*

oral² /ˈɔːrᵊl/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION an examination that is spoken, usually in a foreign language

orange¹ /ˈɒrɪndʒ/ *adjective* being a colour that is a mixture of red and yellow *a deep orange sunset* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

orange² /ˈɒrɪndʒ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C] a round, sweet fruit with a thick skin and a centre that is divided into many equal parts *orange juice* ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 **2** [C, U] a colour that is a mixture of red and yellow ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 6 **3** FOOD [U] *UK* a drink made with oranges *Would you like some orange?*

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ˈorange ˌjuice *noun* [U] **FOOD** a drink made from the juice of oranges

orang-utan /ɔːˈræŋutæŋ/ *noun* [C] a large ape (= animal like a large monkey with no tail) with reddish brown hair and long arms which lives in the forests of Sumatra and Borneo

orator /ˈɒrətəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** *formal* someone who gives good speeches *a brilliant orator*

oratory /ˈɒrətʳri/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** *formal* when people give good speeches *political oratory*

orbit /ˈɔːbɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **1 ASTRONOMY** the circular journey that a spacecraft or planet makes around the sun, the moon, or another planet *the Earth's orbit* ○ *Two satellites are already* ***in orbit***. ○ *It was the first spacecraft to* ***go into orbit*** *around Jupiter*. **2 ANATOMY** the hole in the skull (= bone in the head) that contains the eye ➲See picture at **skull** ●**orbit** *verb* [I, T] *The moon orbits the Earth*.

orchard /ˈɔːtʃəd/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a piece of land where fruit trees are grown *an apple/cherry orchard*

orchestra /ˈɔːkɪstrə/ *noun* [C] **1 MUSIC** a large group of musicians who play different instruments together *a symphony orchestra* ○ *a youth orchestra* **2** *US* (*UK* **the stalls**) the seats on the main floor near the front of a theatre or cinema ●**orchestral** /ɔːˈkestrʳl/ *adjective* [always before noun] Orchestral music is played by or written for an orchestra.

orchestrate /ˈɔːkɪstreɪt/ *verb* [T] to intentionally organize something in order to achieve what you want

orchid /ˈɔːkɪd/ *noun* [C] a plant with flowers which are an unusual shape and beautiful colours

ordain /ɔːˈdeɪn/ *verb* [T] **RELIGION** to officially make someone a Christian priest [often passive] *Dr Coker was ordained by the Bishop of London in 1986*.

ordeal /ɔːˈdiːl/ *noun* [C] a very unpleasant experience *a terrible ordeal* ○ *They feared he would not* ***survive*** *the* ***ordeal***. ○ *She* ***went through*** *the* ***ordeal*** *of being interviewed by a panel of ten people*.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***order***

follow/give/ignore/issue/obey orders ● **clear/strict** orders

order¹ /ˈɔːdəʳ/ *noun* **1** ARRANGEMENT [C, U] the arrangement of a group of people or things in a list from first to last *in alphabetical order* ○ *in the* ***right/wrong order*** ○ *We ranked the tasks* ***in order of*** *importance*. **2** INSTRUCTION [C] an instruction that someone must obey *to* ***obey orders*** ○ *to* ***give orders*** **3 under orders** If you are under orders, someone has told you to do something. [+ **to do sth**] Team members are under orders to behave well. ○ *They claimed they were under orders from the president*. **4** REQUEST [C] a request for food or goods in return for payment *Can I* ***take*** *your* ***order*** *now?* **5** TIDINESS [U] a situation in which everything is in its correct place *It's nice to see some order around here for a change*. ○ *I want to put all my things* ***in order*** *before I go away*. ➲Opposite **disorder** **6 out of order a** MACHINE If a machine or system is out of order, it is not working as it should. *The coffee machine's out of order*. **b** BEHAVIOUR If someone's behaviour is out of order, it is not acceptable. *What he did was completely out of order*. **7 in order to do/for sth to do sth** with the purpose of achieving something *She worked all summer in order to save enough money for a holiday*. **8** NO TROUBLE [U] a situation in which people obey laws and there is no trouble *The army was brought in to* ***restore order*** *to the troubled province*. ➲Opposite **disorder** **9 economic/political/social order** the way that the economy, politics, or society is organized *a threat to the established social order* **10 RELIGION** [C] a religious group who live together and have the same rules *an order of nuns* ○ *a* ***monastic order*** ➲See also: **mail order, postal order, standing order**

order² /ˈɔːdəʳ/ *verb* **1** TELL [T] to give someone an instruction that they must obey [+ **to do sth**] *He ordered them to leave*. **2** REQUEST [I, T] to ask for food, goods, etc *to order a drink/pizza* ○ *to order tickets* ○ *We've ordered new lights for the kitchen*. [+ **two objects**] *Can I order you a drink?* **3** ARRANGE [T] to arrange a group of people or things in a list from first to last *Have you ordered the pages correctly?*

order sb about/around *phrasal verb* to tell someone what they should do all the time *You can't just come in here and start ordering people around*.

orderly¹ /ˈɔːdʳli/ *adjective* tidy or organized *an orderly pile* ○ *Please form an* ***orderly queue***. ➲Opposite **disorderly**

orderly² /ˈɔːdʳli/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a hospital worker who has no special skills or training

ordinal number /ˌɔːdɪnʳlˈnʌmbəʳ/ (*also* **ordinal**) *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number such as 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc that shows the order of things in a list

ordinance /ˈɔːdɪnəns/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* **LAW** a law or rule which limits or controls something *a tax ordinance*

ordinarily /ˈɔːdʳnʳʳli/ *adverb* usually *These are people who would not ordinarily carry guns*.

ordinary /ˈɔːdʳnʳri/ *adjective* **1** NOT UNUSUAL not special, different, or unusual in any way *ordinary life* ○ *an ordinary day* ○ *I had a very ordinary childhood*. **2** NOT FAMOUS Ordinary people are not rich or famous and do not have special skills. *ordinary people/citizens* ○ *an ordinary man/woman* **3 out of the ordinary** unusual or different *Their relationship was a little out of the ordinary*. ○ *The investigation revealed* ***nothing out of the ordinary***.

ore /ɔːʳ/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** rock or soil from which metal can be obtained *iron ore*

.org /dɒtˈɔːg/ **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* organization: used in some Internet addresses *You can search Cambridge dictionaries online at www.dictionary.cambridge.org*

organ /ˈɔːgən/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a part of an animal or plant that has a special purpose *reproductive/sexual organs* ○ *The liver is a* ***vital organ*** (= you need it to stay alive). ○ *an* ***organ donor/transplant*** **2 MUSIC** a large musical instrument that has keys like a piano and produces different notes when air is

blown through pipes of different lengths *a church organ*

organelle /ˌɔːgəˈnel/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY any of the parts inside a living cell that have a particular purpose, such as a nucleus or a chloroplast

organic /ɔːˈgænɪk/ *adjective* **1** FARMING, FOOD not using artificial chemicals when keeping animals or growing plants for food ***organic farming/farmers*** ○ ***organic food/vegetables*** **2** CHEMISTRY In chemistry, 'organic' describes chemicals that contain carbon. *organic compounds* **3** BIOLOGY from a living organism *organic matter/material* ➲Opposite **inorganic** ●**organically** *adverb We have a weekly delivery of* ***organically grown*** *vegetables.*

organism /ˈɔːgənɪzəm/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a living thing, often one that is extremely small *Plants, animals, bacteria, and viruses are organisms.*

organist /ˈɔːgənɪst/ *noun* [C] MUSIC someone who plays the organ (= an instrument like a piano) *His childhood ambition was to be a church organist.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***organization***

a **charitable/international/voluntary** organization ● **join/set up** an organization

organization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌɔːgənaɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* **1** GROUP [C] an official group of people who work together for the same purpose ***a charitable/voluntary organization*** **2** ARRANGEMENT [U] the way that parts of something are arranged *Better organization of the office would improve efficiency.* **3** PLAN [U] the planning of an activity or event *Who was responsible for the organization of the conference?* ●**organizational** *adjective* ***organizational skills***

organize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈɔːgənaɪz/ *verb* [T] to plan or arrange something *to organize a meeting/wedding*

organized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈɔːgənaɪzd/ *adjective* **1** PERSON An organized person plans things well and does not waste time or effort. ➲Opposite **disorganized** **2** GROUP [**always before noun**] involving a group of people who have planned to do something together ***organized crime/religion*** ➲See also: **well-organized**

organizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈɔːgənaɪzər/ *noun* [C] someone who plans an event or activity *conference/exhibition organizers*

orgy /ˈɔːdʒi/ *noun* [C] **an orgy of sth** a period when there is too much of an often bad activity *an orgy of destruction*

the Orient /ˈɔːriənt/ *noun old-fashioned* the countries of east Asia

Oriental /ˌɔːriˈentəl/ *adjective* relating or belonging to the countries of east Asia *Oriental art*

orientated /ˈɔːriəntеɪtɪd/ *UK* (*UK/US* **oriented**) *adjective* directed towards or interested in something

orientation /ˌɔːrienˈteɪʃən/ *noun* **1** BELIEFS [C, U] the type of beliefs that a person has *He's very secretive about his political orientation.* **2** TRAINING [U] training or preparation for a new job or activity *an orientation session*

oriented /ˈɔːrientɪd/ (*also UK* **orientated**) *adjective* directed towards or interested in something *His new TV series is* ***oriented towards*** *teenage viewers.* ○ *He's very family oriented.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***origin***

sth **has** its origins **in** sth ● the origin(s) **of** sth ● be [Chinese/French, etc] **in** origin

origin /ˈɒrɪdʒɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** the cause of something, or where something begins or comes from ***the origin of*** *the universe* ○ *This dish is Greek* ***in origin.*** **2** SOCIETY the country, race, or social class of a person's family ***ethnic origin*** ○ *She's* ***of*** *Irish* ***origin.***

original¹ /əˈrɪdʒənəl/ *adjective* **1** INTERESTING special and interesting because of not being the same as others *Her essay was full of* ***original ideas.*** ○ *He's a highly* ***original thinker.*** **2** FIRST [**always before noun**] existing since the beginning, or being the earliest form of something *His original plan was to stay for a week, but he ended up staying for a month.* ○ *Does the committee still have the original version of this document?*

original² /əˈrɪdʒənəl/ *noun* [C] something that is in the form in which it was first created and has not been copied or changed *If the painting were an original, it would be very valuable.*

originality /əˌrɪdʒənˈæləti/ *noun* [U] the quality of being interesting and different from everyone or everything else *The judges were impressed by the originality of his work.*

originally /əˈrɪdʒənəli/ *adverb* at the beginning or before any changes *The bathroom was originally a bedroom.*

originate /əˈrɪdʒəneɪt/ *verb* [I] **originate from/in/with, etc** to come from a particular place or person, or to begin during a particular period *Citrus fruits originated in China and Southeast Asia.*

originator /əˈrɪdʒəneɪtər/ *noun* [C] *formal* The originator of an idea is the person who first thought of it.

ornament /ˈɔːnəmənt/ *noun* [C] an attractive object that is used as a decoration in a home or garden ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

ornamental /ˌɔːnəˈmentəl/ *adjective* used for decoration and having no other purpose

ornate /ɔːˈneɪt/ *adjective* decorated with a lot of complicated patterns *ornate wooden doors*

ornithology /ˌɔːnɪˈθɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the scientific study of birds ●**ornithologist** *noun* [C] a scientist who studies birds

orographic /ɒrəˈgræfɪk/ *adjective formal* GEOGRAPHY relating to mountains, their shape and how they were formed, etc

orography /ɒrˈɒgrəfi/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY the height of land and the way this is shown on maps ●**orographic** /ɒrəˈgræfɪk/ *adjective*

orphan¹ /ˈɔːfən/ *noun* [C] **1** SOCIETY a child whose parents are dead **2** in printing, the first

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line of a paragraph, separated from the rest which is on the next page

orphan² /ˈɔːfᵊn/ *verb* **be orphaned** SOCIETY When a child is orphaned, both their parents die. *She was orphaned at the age of six.*

orphanage /ˈɔːfᵊnɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a home for children whose parents are dead

orthodox /ˈɔːθədɒks/ *adjective* **1** RELIGION keeping the traditional beliefs and customs of Judaism or some types of Christianity *an orthodox Jewish family* ○ *the Russian/Greek Orthodox Church* **2** If ideas or methods are orthodox, most people think they are correct, usually because they have existed for a long time. ***orthodox medicine*** ➲Opposite **unorthodox**

orthodoxy /ˈɔːθədɒksi/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* RELIGION an idea of a society, religion, political party, or subject that most people believe is correct, or a set of such ideas

orthopaedic *UK* (*US* **orthopedic**) /ˌɔːθəˈpiːdɪk/ *adjective* [always before noun] HEALTH relating to the treatment or study of bones that have been injured or have not grown correctly *an orthopaedic surgeon*

Oscar /ˈɒskəʳ/ *noun* [C] *trademark* one of several prizes given to actors and people who make films every year in Hollywood in the US *Who won the* ***Oscar*** *for best actress this year?*

oscillate /ˈɒsɪleɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* to move repeatedly between two positions or opinions *an oscillating fan* ○ *The story* ***oscillates between*** *comedy and tragedy.* ●**oscillation** /ˌɒsɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

oscilloscope /əˈsɪləskəʊp/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a piece of equipment that shows changes in electrical currents as waves on a screen

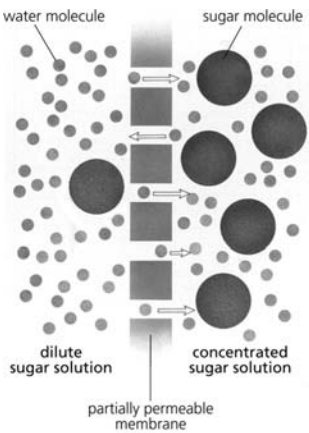

osmosis

osmosis /ɒzˈməʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the way that water moves from one part of a body or a plant to another part through a membrane (= thin layer) *Fluid flows back into the tiny blood vessels by osmosis.* ●**osmotic** /ɒzˈmɒtɪk/ *adjective*

ostensibly /ɒsˈtensɪbli/ *adverb* If something is ostensibly the reason for something else, people say it is the reason, although you do not believe it. *He was discharged from the army, ostensibly for medical reasons.*

ostentatious /ˌɒstenˈteɪʃəs/ *adjective* intended to attract attention or admiration, often by showing money or power *an* ***ostentatious display*** *of wealth* ●**ostentatiously** *adverb*

osteopath /ˈɒstiəʊpæθ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who treats injuries to bones and muscles by moving and rubbing them ●**osteopathy** *noun* [C]

osteoporosis /ˌɒstiəʊpɔˈrəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a disease which makes bones weak and makes them break easily

ostracize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈɒstrəsaɪz/ *verb* [T] SOCIETY When a group of people ostracizes someone, they refuse to talk to or do things with that person. [**often passive**] *He was ostracized by the other children at school.*

ostrich /ˈɒstrɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] a very large bird from Africa which cannot fly but can run very fast

other¹ /ˈʌðəʳ/ *adjective, determiner* **1** MORE used to refer to people or things which are similar to or in addition to those you have talked about *I don't like custard - do you have* ***any other*** *desserts?* ○ *I don't think he's funny, but other people do.* **2** PART OF SET used to talk about the remaining members of a group or items in a set *Mario and Anna sat down to watch the other dancers.* ○ *I found one shoe - have you seen* ***the other one?*** **3** DIFFERENT different from a thing or person which you have talked about *Ask me some other time, when I'm not so busy.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **another 4 the other side/end (of sth)** the opposite side/end of something *Our house is on the other side of town.* **5 the other day/week, etc** used to mean recently, without giving a particular date *I asked Kevin about it just the other day.* **6 every other day/week, etc** happening one day/week, etc but not the next *Alice goes to the gym every other day.* **7 other than** except *The form cannot be signed by anyone other than the child's parent.* [+ **to do sth**] *They had no choice other than to surrender.* **8 other than that** *informal* except for the thing you have just said *My arm was a bit sore - other than that I was fine.*

other² /ˈʌðəʳ/ *pronoun* **1** used to refer to a person or thing which belongs to a group or set that you have already talked about *Hold the racket in one hand, and the ball in the other.* ○ *Some of the pieces were damaged, others were missing.* **2 others** used to refer to people or things that are similar to people or things you have already talked about *This is broken - do you have* ***any others?*** ➲See also: **each other**

others /ˈʌðəz/ *pronoun* [plural] other people *Don't expect others to do your work for you.*

otherwise¹ /ˈʌðəwaɪz/ *adverb* **1** EXCEPT except for what has just been referred to *She hurt her arm in the accident, but otherwise she was fine.* **2** DIFFERENT different to what has just been stated *I'll meet you there at 6 o'clock unless I* ***hear otherwise.*** ○ *I'd like to help you with any problems, financial* ***or otherwise.***

otherwise² /ˈʌðəwaɪz/ *conjunction* used when saying what will happen if someone does not obey an order or do what has been suggested *You'd better phone home, otherwise your parents will start to worry.* ○ *They had to leave early, otherwise the children would have been up too late.*

otter /ˈɒtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small animal with short, brown fur and a long body that swims well

ouch /aʊtʃ/ *exclamation* something you say when you experience sudden physical pain *Ouch! This radiator's really hot.*

ought /ɔːt/ *modal verb* **1 ought to do sth** used to say or ask what is the correct or best thing to do *You ought to see a doctor.* ○ *He ought to have told her the truth.* ○ *Ought I to phone her?* **2 ought to be/do sth** used to say that you expect something to be true or that you expect something to happen *He ought to pass the exam this time.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

oughtn't /ˈɔːtᵊnt/ *formal short for* ought not *He **oughtn't to** have shouted at us.*

ounce /aʊns/ *noun* **1** MEASURES [C] (*written abbreviation* **oz**) a unit for measuring weight, equal to 28.35 grams ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. ➲See also: **fluid ounce 2 not have an ounce of sth** to not have any of a quality or emotion *His new novel doesn't have an ounce of originality.* **3 every ounce of sth** all of a quality or emotion that is available *He deserves every ounce of support that we can give him.*

our /aʊəʳ/ *determiner* belonging to or relating to the person who is speaking and one or more other people *Janice is our youngest daughter.* ○ *There's no point in our buying a new car this year.*

ours /aʊəz/ *pronoun* the things that belong or relate to the person who is speaking and one or more other people *Matt's a friend of ours.* ○ *That's their problem - not ours.*

ourselves /ˌaʊəˈselvz/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'we' *We've promised ourselves a holiday abroad this year.* **2** EMPHASIZE used for emphasis with the pronoun 'we' or when referring to yourself and at least one other person *John and I arranged the wedding reception ourselves.* **3 (all) by ourselves** alone or without anyone else's help *It's a big garden but we manage to look after it by ourselves.* **4 (all) to ourselves** for our use only *We had the swimming pool all to ourselves.*

oust /aʊst/ *verb* [T] to force someone to leave a position of power or responsibility [**often passive**] *He was **ousted from** power by a military coup.*

out /aʊt/ *adjective, adverb* **1** AWAY FROM used to show movement away from the inside of a place or container *He dropped the bag and all the apples fell out.* ○ *She opened the window and stuck her head out.* **2** OUTSIDE outside a building or room *Would you like to wait out here?* ○ *It's bitterly cold out today.* **3** NOT THERE not in the place where you usually live or work, especially for a short time *I came round to see you this morning but you were out.* **4** FIRE/LIGHT A fire or light that is out is not burning or shining. *Bring some more wood, the fire's gone out.* **5** AVAILABLE available to buy or see *When's the new Spielberg film out?* **6** FASHION no longer fashionable or popular *Trousers like that **went out** years ago.* **7** NOT ACCURATE not accurate *Your figures are out by £300.* **8** SPORT no longer able to play or take part in a game or competition *Two of the best players were out after ten minutes.* **9** APPEAR able to be seen *After a few minutes the sun came out.* **10** NOT POSSIBLE not possible or not acceptable *Next weekend is out because we're going away.* **11 be out of sth** to have no more of something left *We're nearly out of petrol.* **12 be out for sth; be out to do sth** to intend to do something, especially for an unpleasant reason *He's only out to impress the boss.* ➲See also: **out of**

out- /aʊt-/ *prefix* more than or better than *to outgrow something* ○ *to outnumber* ○ *to outdo someone* (= to show that you are better than someone)

out-and-out /ˌaʊtᵊnˈaʊt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] complete or in every way *an out-and-out lie*

the outback /ˈaʊtbæk/ *noun* GEOGRAPHY the areas of Australia where few people live, especially the central desert areas

outbid /ˌaʊtˈbɪd/ *verb* [T] **outbidding**, *past* **outbid** FINANCE to offer to pay more for something than someone else *She had to outbid two rivals to buy the business.*

out-box /ˈaʊtbɒks/ (*also* **outbox**) *noun* [C] **1** INTERNET the place on a computer which keeps copies of email messages which you have sent **2** *US* (*UK* **out-tray**) a container where you keep letters and documents that you want to send to someone else

outbreak /ˈaʊtbreɪk/ *noun* [C] when something unpleasant and difficult to control starts, such as a war or disease *an outbreak of flu/fighting*

outburst /ˈaʊtbɜːst/ *noun* [C] a sudden, forceful expression of emotion in words or actions *an **angry outburst***

outcast /ˈaʊtkɑːst/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone who is not accepted by society because they are different to most other people *a **social outcast***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***outcome***

announce/await/determine the outcome ● the **eventual/final** outcome ● the outcome **of** sth

outcome /ˈaʊtkʌm/ *noun* [C] the final result of an activity or process ***the outcome of** an election*

outcrop /ˈaʊtkrɒp/ (*also US* **outcropping**) *noun* [C] GEOLOGY a rock or group of rocks that sticks out above the surface of the ground *a rocky outcrop*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***outcry***

cause/provoke/spark an outcry ● an **international /national/public** outcry ● an outcry **against/over** sth

outcry /ˈaʊtkraɪ/ *noun* [C] a strong public expression of anger and disapproval about a recent event or decision *There has been a public **outcry against** the new road.*

outdated /ˌaʊtˈdeɪtɪd/ *adjective* not modern enough *outdated equipment* ○ *an outdated idea*

outdo /ˌaʊtˈduː/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **outdid**, *past participle* **outdone** to do something better than someone else *They are always trying to outdo each other with their jokes and funny stories.*

outdoor /ˌaʊtˈdɔːr/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening, used, or in a place that is outside and not inside a building ***outdoor activities*** ○ *an* ***outdoor concert*** ○ *an* ***outdoor swimming pool*** ○ ***outdoor clothing*** ➲Opposite **indoor**

outdoors /ˌaʊtˈdɔːz/ *adverb* not inside a building *If it's warm this evening, we could eat outdoors.* ➲Opposite **indoors**

the outdoors /ˌaʊtˈdɔːz/ *noun* countryside *He enjoys hunting, fishing, and the outdoors.*

outer /ˈaʊtər/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] on the edge or surface of something *Remove the* ***outer layers*** *of the onion.* ➲Opposite **inner**

ˌouter ˈspace *noun* [U] **ASTRONOMY** the universe outside the Earth and its gases where other planets and stars are

the outfield /ˈaʊtfiːld/ *noun* **SPORT** the outer area of the playing field in sports such as cricket and baseball ●**outfielder** *noun* [C] a baseball player who stands in the outfield

outfit¹ /ˈaʊtfɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOTHES a set of clothes for a particular event or activity *a cowboy outfit* **2** GROUP *informal* an organization, company, or any group of people who work together

outfit² /ˈaʊtfɪt/ *verb* [T] **outfitting**, *past* **outfitted** *US* to provide equipment for something [**often passive**] *My hotel room was small and outfitted with cheap wooden furniture.*

outflow /ˈaʊtfləʊ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money going out of a business

outgoing /ˌaʊtˈgəʊɪŋ/ (US) /ˈaʊtgəʊɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** FRIENDLY Someone who is outgoing is friendly, talks a lot, and enjoys meeting people. **2** LEAVING POWER [**always before noun**] leaving a position of power or responsibility *the outgoing president* **3** LEAVING A PLACE [**always before noun**] going to another place ***outgoing calls/messages***

outgoings /ˈaʊtˌgəʊɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* **FINANCE** money that you have to spend on rent, food, etc

outgrow /ˌaʊtˈgrəʊ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **outgrew**, *past participle* **outgrown** **1** TOO BIG to grow too big for something *He's already outgrown these shoes.* **2** NOT SUITABLE to develop so that something is not now suitable *She's outgrown her current job and needs a new challenge.*

outing /ˈaʊtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] when a group of people go on a short journey for pleasure or education *a* ***family/school outing*** ○ *to* ***go on*** *an* ***outing***

outlandish /ˌaʊtˈlændɪʃ/ *adjective* very strange and unusual *an outlandish story/idea* ○ ***outlandish behaviour/clothes***

outlast /ˌaʊtˈlɑːst/ *verb* [T] to continue for longer than someone or something else

outlaw¹ /ˈaʊtlɔː/ *verb* [T] **LAW** to make something officially illegal *I think all handguns should be outlawed.*

outlaw² /ˈaʊtlɔː/ *noun* [C] **LAW** *old-fashioned* a criminal *a dangerous outlaw*

outlay /ˈaʊtleɪ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money spent by a business or government *The project requires an* ***initial outlay*** *of $450,000.*

outlet /ˈaʊtlet/ *noun* [C] **1** SHOP In business, an outlet is a shop that sells one type of product or the products of one company. **2** CHEAP SHOP *US* a shop that sells goods for a lower price than usual **3** EXPRESS a way for someone to express an emotion, idea, or ability *She needs a job that will provide* ***an outlet for*** *her creative talent.* **4** WAY OUT a place where a liquid or gas can flow out of something **5** **PHYSICS** *US* a place where you can connect a wire on a piece of electrical equipment *an electrical outlet*

outline¹ /ˈaʊtlaɪn/ *verb* [T] to describe only the most important ideas or facts about something *He outlined the department's plans for next year.*

outline² /ˈaʊtlaɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** DESCRIPTION a short description of the most important ideas or facts about something *He gave us a* ***brief outline*** *of the town's history.* **2** SHAPE the shape made by the outside edge of something

outlive /ˌaʊtˈlɪv/ *verb* [T] to continue living or existing after someone or something else has died or stopped existing *She outlived both her children.*

outlook /ˈaʊtlʊk/ *noun* **1** FUTURE [**no plural**] the likely future situation *The* ***outlook for*** *the economy next year is bleak.* **2** THINKING [C] the way a person thinks about something *Despite her illness, she has a very positive* ***outlook on*** *life.*

outlying /ˈaʊtˌlaɪɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **GEOGRAPHY** far from towns and cities, or far from the centre of a place *outlying farms/villages*

outmanoeuvre *UK* (*US* **outmaneuver**) /ˌaʊtməˈnuːvər/ *verb* [T] to do something clever that gives you an advantage over someone you are competing against *She outmanoeuvred her opponents throughout the election campaign.*

outmoded /ˌaʊtˈməʊdɪd/ *adjective* not modern enough *outmoded equipment*

outnumber /ˌaʊtˈnʌmbər/ *verb* [T] to be larger in number than another group *Women now far outnumber men on language courses.*

out of /aʊt əv/ *preposition* **1** AWAY FROM used to show movement away from the inside of a place or container *A bunch of keys fell out of her bag.* ○ *She stepped out of the car and walked towards me.* **2** NO LONGER IN no longer in a place or situation *He's out of the country until next month.* ○ *I've been out of work for the past year.* **3** MADE FROM used to show what something is made from *The statue was carved out of a single block of stone.* **4** BECAUSE OF used to show the reason why someone does something *I only gave her the job out of pity.* **5** FROM AMONG from among an amount or number *Nine out of ten people said they preferred it.* **6** NOT INVOLVED no longer involved in

something *He missed the practice session and now he's out of the team.*

out-of-court /ˌaʊtəvˈkɔːt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **LAW** agreed without involving a law court *an **out-of-court settlement***

out-of-date /ˌaʊtəvˈdeɪt/ *adjective* old and not useful or correct any more *I do have a road map but I think it's out-of-date.*

out-of-town /ˌaʊtəvˈtaʊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] positioned or happening in the countryside or on the edge of a town *an out-of-town supermarket*

outpace /ˌaʊtˈpeɪs/ *verb* [**T**] to move or develop more quickly than someone or something else

outpatient /ˈaʊtˌpeɪʃᵊnt/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** someone who is treated in a hospital but does not sleep there at night

outperform /ˌaʊtpəˈfɔːm/ *verb* [**T**] to do something better than someone or something else *Girls are consistently outperforming boys at school.*

outplay /ˌaʊtˈpleɪ/ *verb* [**T**] **SPORT** to play a game or sport better than another player or team

outpost /ˈaʊtpəʊst/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOGRAPHY** a small place that is far from large towns or cities, often where a government or company is represented

outpouring /ˈaʊtˌpɔːrɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] when an emotion is expressed a lot in public *His death provoked a national **outpouring of** grief.*

output¹ /ˈaʊtpʊt/ *noun* [**U**] **1** AMOUNT the amount of something that is produced *Over the past year the factory's output has fallen by 15%.* **2 COMPUTING** information produced by a computer *You can look at the output on screen before you print it out.* **3** POWER the power or energy produced by an electrical or electronic system

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***outrage***

cause/express/provoke/spark outrage ● **moral/public** outrage ● outrage **at/over** sth

outrage¹ /ˈaʊtreɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** ANGER [**U**] a strong feeling of anger or shock ***moral outrage*** ○ *The scandal caused **public outrage**.* **2** SHOCKING THING [**C**] something that causes great anger or shock *a terrorist outrage* [**+ (that)**] *It's an outrage that these children don't have enough to eat.*

outrage² /ˈaʊtreɪdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone feel very angry or shocked [**often passive**] *Local people were **outraged at** the bombing.*

outrageous /ˌaʊtˈreɪdʒəs/ *adjective* shocking or extreme *outrageous behaviour/clothes* ○ *The prices in that restaurant were outrageous.* ●**outrageously** *adverb outrageously expensive*

outran /ˌaʊtˈræn/ *past tense of* outrun

outreach /ˈaʊtriːtʃ/ *noun* [**U**] *mainly US* when an organization helps people with their social, medical, or educational problems *an **outreach programme*** ○ *an **outreach worker***

outright /ˈaʊtraɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] total, clear, and certain *an **outright ban** on smoking* ○ *an **outright victory*** ●**outright** /ˌaʊtˈraɪt/ *adverb She needs 51% of the vote to **win outright**.* ○ *He was **killed outright*** (= immediately) when the car hit him.

outrun /ˌaʊtˈrʌn/ *verb* [**T**] **outrunning**, *past tense* **outran**, *past participle* **outrun** to move or develop faster or further than someone or something

outscore /ˌaʊtˈskɔːr/ *verb* [**T**] *mainly US* **SPORT** to score more points than another player or team

outset /ˈaʊtset/ *noun* **at/from the outset** at or from the beginning of something *I made my views clear at the outset.*

outshine /ˌaʊtˈʃaɪn/ *verb* [**T**] *past* **outshone** to be much better than someone else *She easily outshone the other students on the course.*

outside¹ /ˌaʊtˈsaɪd/ (*also US* **outside of**) *preposition* **1** NEAR not in a particular building or room, but near it *She waited outside his room for nearly two hours.* **2** NOT IN not in *a flat just outside Blackpool* ○ *You have to phone a different number outside office hours.*

outside² /ˌaʊtˈsaɪd/ *adverb* **1** NOT INSIDE not inside a building *Go and play outside for a while.* ○ *It's cold outside today.* **2** NEAR not in a particular building or room, but near it *She knocked on his bedroom door and left the tray outside.*

outside³ /ˌaʊtˈsaɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** NOT INSIDE not in a building *an outside light* ○ *outside activities* **2** DIFFERENT from a different organization or group of people ***outside help*** ○ ***outside influences*** ➲See also: **the outside world**

the outside⁴ /ˌaʊtˈsaɪd/ *noun* the outer part or surface of something *The pie was cooked on the outside but cold in the middle.*

ˌoutside ˈchance *noun* [**no plural**] when something is not likely to happen *She has an outside chance of reaching the final.*

outsider /ˌaʊtˈsaɪdᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** someone who does not belong to a particular group, organization, or place *The villagers are very suspicious of outsiders.* ➲Compare **insider**

the ˌoutside ˈworld *noun* other people in other places *When he was in prison, his radio was his only contact with the outside world.*

outsize /ˌaʊtˈsaɪz/ (*also* **outsized**) *adjective* [**always before noun**] larger than usual *an outsize jumper*

the outskirts /ˈaʊtskɜːts/ *noun* **GEOGRAPHY** the outer area of a city, town, or village *There are plans to build a new stadium **on the outskirts of** Liverpool.*

outspoken /ˌaʊtˈspəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* expressing an opinion forcefully and not worrying about what other people think ***outspoken comments*** ○ *He's an **outspoken critic** of nuclear energy.*

outstanding /ˌaʊtˈstændɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** EXCELLENT excellent and much better than most *an **outstanding achievement*** **2** NOT DONE waiting to be paid or dealt with *an outstanding debt*

outstandingly /ˌaʊtˈstændɪŋli/ *adverb* used to emphasize how good something is *outstandingly successful*

outstay /ˌaʊtˈsteɪ/ *verb* ➲See: outstay/overstay your **welcome⁴**

outstretched /ˌaʊtˈstretʃt/ *adjective* When a part of your body is outstretched, it is

O

reaching out as far as possible. *He ran towards me with his arms outstretched.*

outstrip /ˌaʊtˈstrɪp/ *verb* [T] **outstripping**, *past* **outstripped** When one amount outstrips another amount, it is much greater than it. ***Demand** for the toys far **outstrips supply**.*

outta /ˈaʊtə/ *informal short for* out of *Let's get outta here!*

out-take /ˈaʊtteɪk/ *noun* [C] a short part of a film, television programme or music recording that was removed, usually because it contains mistakes *They showed a video with funny out-takes from famous films.*

outward[1] /ˈaʊtwəd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** showing on the outside *He had a serious illness, but there was no **outward sign** of it.* **2 outward flight/journey, etc** when you travel away from a place that you will return to ➲Opposite **inward**

outward[2] /ˈaʊtwəd/ (*also UK* **outwards**) *adverb* towards the outside or away from the centre

outwardly /ˈaʊtwədli/ *adverb* If someone is outwardly calm, confident, etc, they seem to be calm, confident, etc, although they may not feel that way. *She was very nervous, but she remained **outwardly calm**.* ➲Opposite **inwardly**

outweigh /ˌaʊtˈweɪ/ *verb* [T] to be greater or more important than something else *The benefits of this treatment far outweigh the risks.*

outwit /ˌaʊtˈwɪt/ *verb* [T] **outwitting**, *past* **outwitted** to get an advantage over someone by doing something clever and deceiving them *She outwitted her kidnappers and managed to escape.*

oval /ˈəʊvəl/ *adjective* in the shape of an egg or a slightly flat circle *an oval face* ○ *an oval table* ●**oval** *noun* [C] an oval shape ➲See picture at **shape**

the ˈOval ˌOffice *noun* **POLITICS** the office of the president of the United States

ovary /ˈəʊvəri/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the part of a woman or female animal that produces eggs, or the part of a plant that produces seeds ➲See picture at **carpel** ➲See picture at **flower** ●**ovarian** /əʊˈveəriən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the ovaries *ovarian cancer*

ovation /əʊˈveɪʃən/ *noun* [C] when a group of people clap for a long time to show that they approve of someone or something ➲See also: **standing ovation**

oven /ˈʌvən/ *noun* [C] a piece of kitchen equipment with a door which is used for cooking food *an electric oven* ○ *a microwave oven* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

over[1] /ˈəʊvər/ *adverb, preposition* **1** ABOVE above or higher than something *The sign over the door said "Private, No Entry".* ○ *A fighter plane flew over.* **2** SIDE TO SIDE If you walk, jump, climb, etc over an object or place, you go from one side of it to the other side. *We had to climb over large rocks to get to the beach.* **3** AMOUNT more than a particular amount, number, or age *Over 5,000 Internet users contact our website every year.* ○ *Suitable for children aged 5 and over.* **4** OPPOSITE SIDE on or to the opposite side of a road, bridge, path, etc *The station is over the bridge.* **5** COVER covering someone or something *She placed the quilt over the bed.* **6** DOWN down from a higher to a lower position *The little boy fell over and started to cry.* ○ *She tripped over the rug.* **7** PLACE to a particular place *Could you bring the plates **over here*** (= bring them to this place). ○ *He was sent **over there** during the war.* **8** TIME during a particular period of time *I was in Seattle over the summer.* **9** ABOUT connected with or about *It's stupid arguing over something so trivial.* **10** NOT USED not used *There's some food **left over** from the party.* **11** USING using the radio or telephone *I made the booking over the phone.* **12 be/get over sth** to feel better after being ill or feeling unhappy about something *It took him months to get over splitting up with his girlfriend.* **13 do sth over** *US* to do something again from the beginning because you did not do it well the first time *You've ruined it! - Now I'll have to do it over.* **14 (all) over again** again from the beginning *It looks all messy. I'm going to have to do it all over again.* **15 over and over (again)** repeatedly *He was whistling the same tune over and over.* **16 roll/turn, etc (sth) over** to move so that a different part is showing, or to make something do this *She turned the page over.* **17** CONTROL in control of someone or something *Her husband has a lot of influence over her.*

over[2] /ˌəʊvər/ *adjective* **1** [**never before noun**] finished *The exams will be over next week.* ○ *It was **all over** very quickly.* **2 get sth over (and done) with** to do something difficult or unpleasant as soon as you can so that you do not have to worry about it any more

over- /əʊvər/ *prefix* too much *to overeat* ○ *overpopulated*

overall /ˈəʊvərɔːl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] considering everything or everyone *the overall cost of the holiday* ○ *the **overall effect*** ●**overall** /ˌəʊvərˈɔːl/ *adverb How would you rate the school overall?*

overalls /ˈəʊvərɔːlz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** KEEP CLEAN *UK* (*US* **coveralls**) a piece of clothing that you wear over your clothes to keep them clean while you are working **2** TROUSERS *US* (*UK* **dungarees**) trousers with a part that covers your chest and straps that go over your shoulders

over-anxious /ˌəʊvəˈræŋkʃəs/ *adjective* worrying too much

overbearing /ˌəʊvəˈbeərɪŋ/ *adjective* trying to have too much control over other people *an overbearing mother*

overblown /ˌəʊvəˈbləʊn/ *adjective* If something is overblown, it is made to seem more important or serious than it really is.

overboard /ˈəʊvəbɔːd/ *adverb* **1** over the side of a boat and into the water *to **fall overboard*** **2 go overboard** *informal* to do something too much, or to be too excited about something *I think people go overboard at Christmas.*

overburdened /ˌəʊvəˈbɜːdənd/ *adjective* having too much to deal with *overburdened with work*

overcame /ˌəʊvəˈkeɪm/ *past tense of* overcome

overcast /ˈəʊvəkɑːst/ *adjective* cloudy and dark *an overcast sky/day*

overcharge /ˌəʊvəˈtʃɑːdʒ/ *verb* [**I, T**] **FINANCE** to charge someone too much money for something *The shop overcharged me by £5.*

overcoat /ˈəʊvəkəʊt/ *noun* [**C**] a long, warm coat

overcome /ˌəʊvəˈkʌm/ *verb past tense* **overcame**, *past participle* **overcome 1** [**T**] to deal with and control a problem or feeling *He's trying to overcome his drug addiction and find a job.* ○ *Let's hope she overcomes her shyness.* **2 be overcome by excitement/fear/sadness, etc** to suddenly have too much of a feeling *She was overcome by emotion.* **3 be overcome by smoke/fumes, etc** to become ill or weak because you have been breathing smoke or poisonous gas *One worker died when he was overcome by chemical fumes.*

overcrowded /ˌəʊvəˈkraʊdɪd/ *adjective* containing too many people or things *an overcrowded classroom/prison* ●**overcrowding** *noun* [**U**]

overdo /ˌəʊvəˈduː/ *verb* [**T**] *past tense* **overdid**, *past participle* **overdone** to do or use too much of something *I went to the gym yesterday, but I think I* ***overdid it*** *a bit.*

overdone /ˌəʊvəˈdʌn/ *adjective* **FOOD** cooked for too long

overdose /ˈəʊvədəʊs/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** too much of a drug taken at one time *Her daughter died of a* ***drug overdose.*** ●**overdose** /ˌəʊvəˈdəʊs/ *verb* [**I**]

overdraft /ˈəʊvədrɑːft/ *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** If you have an overdraft, you have taken more money out of your bank account than you had in it. *a £250 overdraft*

overdrawn /ˌəʊvəˈdrɔːn/ *adjective* **FINANCE** If you are overdrawn, you have taken more money out of your bank account than you had in it. *We've* ***gone*** *£200* ***overdrawn!***

overdue /ˌəʊvəˈdjuː/ *adjective* happening later than expected *This decision is* ***long overdue.***

overestimate /ˌəʊvərˈestɪmeɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] to guess or think that something is bigger or better than it really is *They overestimated her ability to do the job.* ➲Opposite **underestimate**

over-fishing /ˌəʊvəˈfɪʃɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] **ENVIRONMENT** catching so many fish in a part of the sea that there are not many fish left there *low fish stocks caused by over-fishing*

overflow /ˌəʊvəˈfləʊ/ *verb* **1** CONTAINER [**I**] If a container or a place overflows, the thing that is inside it starts coming out because it is too full. *The bath overflowed, and there's water all over the floor!* ○ *The bin was* ***overflowing with*** *rubbish.* **2** CONTENTS [**I, T**] to come out of a container or a place because it is too full *The river overflowed its banks after the heavy rainfall.* **3 overflow with confidence/happiness/love, etc** to have a lot of a quality or emotion ●**overflow** /ˈəʊvəfləʊ/ *noun* [**C, U**]

overgrown /ˌəʊvəˈgrəʊn/ *adjective* covered with plants that have become too big *an overgrown garden*

overhang /ˌəʊvəˈhæŋ/ *verb* [**T**] *past* **overhung** to hang over something ***overhanging branches***

overhaul /ˌəʊvəˈhɔːl/ *verb* [**T**] to examine a machine or a system carefully and improve it or repair it *to overhaul an engine* ●**overhaul** /ˈəʊvəhɔːl/ *noun* [**C**]

overhead /ˌəʊvəˈhed/ *adjective, adverb* above you, usually in the sky *overhead power cables* ○ *A police helicopter was hovering overhead.*

overheads /ˈəʊvəhedz/ *UK* (*US* **overhead**) *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** money that a company spends on its regular and necessary costs, for example rent and heating

overhear /ˌəʊvəˈhɪəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] *past* **overheard** to hear what someone is saying when they are not talking to you [**+ doing sth**] *I overheard him telling her he was leaving.*

overheat /ˌəʊvəˈhiːt/ *verb* [**I**] to become too hot *The engine keeps overheating.*

overhung /ˌəʊvəˈhʌŋ/ *past of* overhang

overjoyed /ˌəʊvəˈdʒɔɪd/ *adjective* very happy [**+ to do sth**] *He was overjoyed to hear from his old friend.*

overkill /ˈəʊvəkɪl/ *noun* [**U**] when something is done too much *Should I add an explanation or would that be overkill?*

overlap /ˌəʊvəˈlæp/ *verb* [**I, T**] **overlapping**, *past* **overlapped 1** SAME If two subjects or activities overlap, they are the same in some way. *Although our job titles are different, our responsibilities overlap quite a lot.* **2** COVER If two objects overlap, part of one covers part of the other. ●**overlap** /ˈəʊvəlæp/ *noun* [**C, U**]

overload /ˌəʊvəˈl'əʊd/ *verb* [**T**] **1** VEHICLE to put too many people or things into or onto a vehicle [**often passive**] *The coach was overloaded with passengers.* **2** WORK to give someone more work or problems than they can deal with

overlook /ˌəʊvəˈlʊk/ *verb* [**T**] **1** VIEW to have a view of something from above *a balcony overlooking the sea* **2** NOT NOTICE to not notice or consider something *Two important facts have been overlooked in this case.* **3** FORGIVE to forgive or ignore someone's bad behaviour

overly /ˈəʊvəli/ *adverb* in a way that is extreme or too much *overly optimistic* ○ *It wasn't overly expensive.*

overnight /ˌəʊvəˈnaɪt/ *adverb* **1** NIGHT for or during the night *Sometimes we would* ***stay overnight*** *at my grandmother's house.* **2** QUICKLY very quickly or suddenly *Change does not happen overnight.* ●**overnight** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *overnight rain* ○ *an* ***overnight*** (= sudden) ***success***

overpass /ˈəʊvəpɑːs/ *US* (*UK* **flyover**) *noun* [**C**] a bridge that carries a road over another road

overpower /ˌəʊvəˈpaʊəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** DEFEAT to defeat someone by being stronger than they are [**often passive**] *The gunman was overpowered by two security guards.* **2** MAKE WEAK If a feeling, smell, etc overpowers you, it is very strong and makes you feel weak.

overpowering /ˌəʊvəˈpaʊərɪŋ/ *adjective* unpleasantly strong or powerful *an* ***overpowering smell***

overpriced /ˌəʊvəˈpraɪst/ *adjective* too expensive

overran /ˌəʊvəʳˈræn/ *past tense of* overrun

O

overrated /ˌəʊvəˈreɪtɪd/ *adjective* If something is overrated, it is considered to be better or more important than it really is.

overreact /ˌəʊvəriˈækt/ *verb* [I] to react in a way that is more extreme than you should *She tends to **overreact to** criticism.*

override /ˌəʊvəˈraɪd/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **overrode**, *past participle* **overridden** **1** NOT ACCEPT If someone in authority overrides a decision or order, they officially decide that it is wrong. *I don't have the power to **override** his **decision**.* **2** MORE IMPORTANT to be more important than something else *His desire for money seems to override anything else.*

overriding /ˌəʊvəˈraɪdɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] more important than others *an **overriding concern***

overrule /ˌəʊvəˈruːl/ *verb* [T] LAW If someone in authority overrules a decision or order, they officially decide that it is wrong. *Does the judge have the power to overrule the jury?*

overrun /ˌəʊvəˈrʌn/ *verb* **overrunning**, *past tense* **overran**, *past participle* **overrun** **1** FILL [T] If something unpleasant overruns a place, it fills it in large numbers. [often passive] *The house was overrun by rats.* ○ *Troops overran the city.* **2** CONTINUE [I] *UK* to continue for a longer time than planned *Sorry I'm late, but the meeting overran by 20 minutes.*

overseas /ˌəʊvəˈsiːz/ *adjective* [always before noun] in, to, or from another country *an **overseas student*** ●**overseas** *adverb to live/work overseas*

oversee /ˌəʊvəˈsiː/ *verb* [T] **overseeing**, *past tense* **oversaw**, *past participle* **overseen** to watch work as it is done in order to make certain that it is done correctly *A committee has been set up to oversee the project.*

overshadow /ˌəʊvəˈʃædəʊ/ *verb* [T] **1** SPOIL to cause something to be less enjoyable [often passive] *The party was overshadowed by a family argument.* **2** BE BETTER THAN to cause someone or something to seem less important or successful

oversight /ˈəʊvəsaɪt/ *noun* [C, U] a mistake that you make by not noticing something or by forgetting to do something

oversleep /əʊvəˈsliːp/ *verb* [I] *past* **overslept** to sleep longer than you had intended *Sorry I'm late, I overslept.*

overstate /ˌəʊvəˈsteɪt/ *verb* [T] to talk about something in a way that makes it seem more important than it really is

overstep /ˌəʊvəˈstep/ *verb* **overstepping**, *past* **overstepped** **overstep the mark** to behave in a way that is not allowed or not acceptable

overt /əʊˈvɜːt/ *adjective* done or shown publicly and not hidden ***overt criticism*** ●**overtly** *adverb overtly racist remarks*

overtake /ˌəʊvəˈteɪk/ *verb past tense* **overtook**, *past participle* **overtaken** **1** MORE SUCCESSFUL [T] to become more successful than someone or something else *Tobacco has overtaken coffee to become the country's leading export.* **2** GO PAST [I, T] to go past a vehicle or person that is going in the same direction

over-the-counter /ˌəʊvəðəˈkaʊntəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] HEALTH Over-the-counter medicines can be bought in a shop without first visiting a doctor. ●**over-the-counter** *adverb Most of these tablets can be **bought over-the-counter**.*

overthrow /ˌəʊvəˈθrəʊ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **overthrew**, *past participle* **overthrown** POLITICS to remove someone from power by using force *They were accused of plotting to **overthrow** the **government**.* ●**overthrow** /ˈəʊvəθrəʊ/ *noun* [no plural]

overtime /ˈəʊvətaɪm/ *noun* [U] extra time that you work after your usual working hours *unpaid overtime* ●**overtime** *adverb*

overtones /ˈəʊvətəʊnz/ *noun* [plural] ideas that seem to be expressed but that are not stated directly *His speech had political overtones.*

overtook /ˌəʊvəˈtʊk/ *past tense of* overtake

overture /ˈəʊvətjʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a piece of classical music that introduces another longer piece such as an opera

overturn /ˌəʊvəˈtɜːn/ *verb* **1** **overturn a conviction/ruling/verdict, etc** LAW to officially change a legal decision **2** [I, T] If something overturns or if you overturn something, it turns over onto its top or onto its side. *She overturned her car in the accident.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***overview***

give/provide an overview ● a **brief/broad/comprehensive/general** overview ● an overview **of** sth

overview /ˈəʊvəvjuː/ *noun* [C] a short description giving the most important facts about something *I'll just **give** you **an overview** of the job.*

overweight /ˌəʊvəˈweɪt/ *adjective* too heavy or too fat *He's still a few pounds overweight.* ➲Opposite **underweight**

overwhelm /ˌəʊvəˈwelm/ *verb* [T] If a feeling or situation overwhelms someone, it has an effect that is too strong or extreme. [often passive] *She was overwhelmed by the excitement of it all.*

overwhelming /ˌəʊvəˈwelmɪŋ/ *adjective* very strong in effect or large in amount *an **overwhelming feeling** of sadness* ○ *They won by an **overwhelming majority**.* ●**overwhelmingly** *adverb*

overworked /ˌəʊvəˈwɜːkt/ *adjective* Someone who is overworked has to work too much. *We're **overworked and underpaid**.*

overwrite /ˌəʊvəˈraɪt/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING If you overwrite a computer file, you replace it with a different one.

oviduct /ˈəʊvɪdʌkt/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY in the female body, the tube that an egg passes through after it leaves the ovary (= part that makes eggs) *In a woman's body the oviduct is either of the two fallopian tubes.*

ovulate /ˈɒvjəleɪt/ *verb* [I] BIOLOGY When a woman ovulates, her body produces eggs. ●**ovulation** /ˌɒvjəˈleɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

ovule /ˈɒvjuːl/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY in plants, the part inside the ovary (= organ that

makes eggs) that contains the female sex cell

ovum /ˈəʊvəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **ova** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** an egg in a female animal or plant that can grow into a baby or new plant

owe /əʊ/ *verb* [T] **1** **FINANCE** to have to pay money back to someone [+ **two objects**] *You still owe me money.* ○ *He* ***owes*** *about £5000* ***to*** *the bank.* **2 owe sb an apology/favour/drink, etc** to have to give something to someone because they deserve it *I think I owe you an apology.* **3 owe your existence/success, etc to sb/sth** to have something or achieve something because of someone or something else *The museum owes much of its success to the present generation of young British artists.*

owing to /əʊɪŋ tuː/ *preposition* because of *The concert has been cancelled owing to lack of support.*

owl /aʊl/ *noun* [C] a bird that has large eyes and hunts small animals at night

own[1] /əʊn/ *adjective, pronoun, determiner* **1** belonging to or done by a particular person or thing *Each student has their own dictionary.* ○ *Petra makes all her own clothes.* ○ *"Is that your mum's car?" "No, it's my own* (= it belongs to me)*."* **2 of your own** belonging to someone or something *I'll have a home of my own* (= home belonging only to me) someday. **3 (all) on your own a** alone *Jessica lives on her own.* **b** If you do something on your own, you do it without any help from other people. *She's raised three kids on her own.* **4 come into your/its own** to be very useful or successful *By the 1970s, Abrams was starting to come into his own as a soloist.* **5 get your own back (on sb)** *UK* to do something unpleasant to someone because they have done something unpleasant to you **6 hold your own** to be as successful as other people or things *She could always hold her own in political debates.*

own[2] /əʊn/ *verb* [T] to have something that legally belongs to you *The University owns a lot of the land around here.*
own up *phrasal verb* to admit that you have done something wrong [+ **to** + **doing sth**] *No one has owned up to breaking that window.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***owner***

the **current/original/previous** owner ● the owner **of** sth

owner /ˈəʊnər/ *noun* [C] someone who legally owns something *a property owner* ●**ownership** *noun* [U] when you own something

ox /ɒks/ *noun* [C] *plural* **oxen** a large, male cow, used especially in the past to pull farm vehicles

oxbow lake /ˌɒksbəʊˈleɪk/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a c-shaped lake that was in the past a bend in a river but became separated when the river stopped flowing round the bend and started flowing in a straight line

oxide /ˈɒksaɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical combination of oxygen and one other element *iron oxide*

oxidize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈɒksɪdaɪz/ *verb* [T, I] **CHEMISTRY** If a substance oxidizes, it combines with oxygen and forms another substance, and if something oxidizes a substance, it causes it to do this. ●**oxidation** /ˌɒksɪˈdeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

oxygen /ˈɒksɪdʒən/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that is in the air and that animals need to live (formula **O**)

oxygenate /ˈɒksɪdʒəneɪt/ *verb* [T] **PHYSICS, BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** to get oxygen into a substance *oxygenated blood* ●**oxygenation** /ˌɒksɪdʒəˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [U] ➲See picture at **circulation**

ˈoxygen ˌdebt *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the extra oxygen that the body uses during exercise, which must be replaced when resting

oxyhaemoglobin *UK* (*US* **oxyhemoglobin**) /ˌɒksiˌhiːməʊˈɡləʊbɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the bright red form of haemoglobin (= substance in red blood cells) that contains oxygen

oxymoron /ˌɒksɪˈmɔːrɒn/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** two words used together, which mean two different or opposite things, such as 'bitter-sweet' or 'smart casual'

oyster /ˈɔɪstər/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a sea creature that lives in a flat shell and is eaten as food

oz **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* ounce (= a unit for measuring weight) *an 8 oz steak*

ozone /ˈəʊzəʊn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a form of oxygen that has a powerful smell (formula **Oz**)

the ˈozone ˌlayer *noun* **ENVIRONMENT** the layer of ozone high above the Earth's surface that prevents the sun from harming the Earth

Pp

P, p /piː/ the sixteenth letter of the alphabet

p. **1** *written abbreviation for* page *See diagram on p.135.* **2** **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* penny or pence (= units of British money) *a 20p coin* ➲See Common Learner Error at **pence**

PA /piːˈeɪ/ *UK abbreviation for* personal assistant: a person who organizes letters, meetings and telephone calls for someone with an important job

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pace***

quicken/slow your pace ● **at** a [blistering/brisk/leisurely, etc] pace ● the pace **of** sth

pace¹ /peɪs/ *noun* **1** SPEED [**no plural**] the speed at which someone or something moves or does something *We started to walk at a much faster pace.* ○ *the* ***pace of*** *life* **2** STEP [C] a step *Every few paces I stopped to listen.* **3 keep pace with sb/sth** to move or develop at the same speed as someone or something else *We have to keep pace with the changing times.* ➲See also: at a **snail**'s pace

pace² /peɪs/ *verb* **1 pace about/up and down, etc** to walk around because you are worried or excited about something *He kept pacing up and down, glancing at his watch.* **2 pace yourself** to be careful not to do something too quickly so that you do not get too tired to finish it

pacemaker /ˈpeɪsˌmeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a small piece of medical equipment in someone's heart that makes it work at the correct speed

pachyderm /ˈpækɪdɜːm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of large animal with thick skin and hooves (= hard parts on the feet), for example an elephant

pacifier /ˈpæsɪfaɪəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **dummy**) *noun* [C] a small rubber object that you give to a baby to suck in order to make it calm

pacifism /ˈpæsɪfɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the belief that war or fighting of any type is wrong ●**pacifist** /ˈpæsɪfɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who believes in pacifism

pacify /ˈpæsɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to do something in order to make someone less angry or upset *She smiled at Jamie to pacify him.*

pack¹ /pæk/ *verb* **1** THINGS IN BAGS [**I, T**] to put your things into bags or boxes when you are going on holiday or leaving the place where you live *I've got to go home and pack.* ○ *to* ***pack your bags*** ➲Opposite **unpack** **2** CROWD [T] If people pack a place, there are so many of them in it that it is very crowded. *Thousands of fans packed the club.*
pack sth in *phrasal verb* **1** STOP *informal* to stop doing something *If this job doesn't get any better I'm going to* ***pack it in.*** **2** A LOT to manage to do a lot of things in a short period of time *We were only there four days but we packed so much in.*
pack sb off *phrasal verb informal* to send someone away *We were* ***packed off to*** *our grandparents' for the summer holidays.*
pack (sth) up *phrasal verb* to collect all your things together when you have finished doing something *I'm about to* ***pack*** *my* ***things up*** *and go home.*

pack² /pæk/ *noun* [C] **1** BOX *mainly US* a small box that contains several of the same thing *a pack of cigarettes* **2** BAG *mainly US* a bag that you carry on your back **3** ANIMALS a group of animals that live together, especially those of the dog family *a* ***pack of wolves*** **4** CARDS (*also US* **deck**) a set of playing cards ➲See also: **fanny pack**

package¹ /ˈpækɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** PARCEL an object that is covered in paper, inside a box, etc, especially so that it can be sent somewhere **2** GROUP OF THINGS a group of objects, plans, or arrangements that are sold or considered together *a computer package* ○ *This ski package includes hotel, transport, and four days of skiing.* **3** BOX *US* a box or container in which something is put to be sold *a package of raisins/cookies*

package² /ˈpækɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** IN A BOX to put something into a box or container so that it can be sold *It's neatly packaged in a blue and white box.* **2** SHOW to show someone or something in an attractive way so that people will like or buy them *What's important is the way we package the programme.*

package holiday *UK* (*UK/US* **package tour**) *noun* [C] a holiday that is arranged for you by a travel company and for which you pay a fixed price before you go

packaging /ˈpækɪdʒɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the paper, box, etc that something is inside so that it can be sold or sent somewhere ➲See picture at **CFC**

packed /pækt/ (*also UK* **packed out**) *adjective* very crowded *The hall was packed.*

packed lunch *noun* [C] *UK* food that you put in a bag or box and take to eat at work, school, etc

packet /ˈpækɪt/ *UK* (*US* **pack**) *noun* [C] a small container that contains several of the same thing *a packet of cigarettes/sweets*

packing /ˈpækɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** THINGS IN BAGS when you put things into bags or boxes in order to take them somewhere *I've got to* ***do*** *my* ***packing*** *because I'm going tomorrow.* **2** PROTECTION paper, material, etc that you put around an object in a box so that it does not get damaged

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pact***

have/make/sign a pact ● a pact **between** sb **and** sb ● a pact **with** sb

pact /pækt/ *noun* [C] an agreement between two people or groups *We* ***have*** *a* ***pact*** *never to talk about each other.*

pad¹ /pæd/ *noun* [C] **1** PAPER (*also US* **tablet**) sheets of paper that have been fastened together at one edge, used for writing or drawing *There's a pad and pencil by the phone.* **2** SOFT MATERIAL a small piece of soft material used to protect something or to make something more comfortable *knee/shin pads*

pad² /pæd/ *verb* **padding**, *past* **padded 1 pad about/around/down, etc** to walk somewhere with small, quiet steps *He padded downstairs and out of the front door.* **2** [T] to protect something or make something more comfortable by filling or surrounding it with soft material
pad sth out *phrasal verb* to make a piece of writing or a speech longer by adding more information to it

padding /ˈpædɪŋ/ *noun* [U] soft material that is used to fill or cover something to protect it or make it more comfortable

paddle¹ /ˈpædl/ *noun* **1** BOAT [C] a short pole with one flat end that you use to make a small boat move through the water **2** WALK [**no plural**] *UK* when you walk in water that is not deep *to go for a paddle*

paddle² /ˈpædl/ *verb* **1** BOAT [I, T] to move a small boat through water with a paddle **2** WALK [I] *UK* (*US* **wade**) to walk in water that is not deep **3** SWIM [I] *US* to swim using short, quick movements with your arms and legs

paddock /ˈpædək/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a small field where animals are kept, especially horses

paddy field /ˈpædiˌfiːld/ *UK* (*UK/US* **rice paddy**) *noun* [C] **FARMING** a field in which rice is grown

padlock /ˈpædlɒk/ *noun* [C] a metal lock with a U-shaped part that is used for fastening bicycles, doors, etc ●**padlock** *verb* [T]

paediatrician *UK* (*US* **pediatrician**) /ˌpiːdiəˈtrɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a children's doctor

pagan /ˈpeɪgᵊn/ *adjective* **RELIGION** relating to religious beliefs that do not belong to any of the main religions of the world *a pagan festival* ●**pagan** *noun* [C] someone who has pagan religious beliefs

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***page***

turn a page ● the **back/front** page ● **on** page [25/36, etc.]

O-➡**page¹** /peɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of paper in a book, magazine, etc, or one side of a piece of paper *The article is* ***on page*** *36.* ○ *I've only read 50 pages so far.* **2** **COMPUTING, INTERNET** (*also* **web page**) one part of a website that you can see or print separately ➲See also: **home page, the Yellow Pages**

page² /peɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** ANNOUNCEMENT to call someone using a sound system in a public place **2** ELECTRONIC MESSAGE to send a message to someone's pager (= small piece of electronic equipment)

pageant /ˈpædʒənt/ *noun* [C] a show that happens outside in which people dress and act as if they are from a time in history

pageantry /ˈpædʒəntri/ *noun* [U] ceremonies in which there are a lot of people in special clothes

pager /ˈpeɪdʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small piece of electronic equipment that you carry which makes a noise or movement when someone sends a message

pagoda /pəˈgəʊdə/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a tall religious building in Asia with many levels, each of which has a curved roof

paid /peɪd/ *past of* pay

pail /peɪl/ *noun* [C] a container with an open top and a handle used for carrying liquids

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pain***

excruciating/severe/sharp/unbearable pain ● **ease/inflict/relieve/suffer** pain ● **in** pain

O-➡**pain¹** /peɪn/ *noun* **1** HURT [C, U] an unpleasant physical feeling caused by an illness or injury *chest/stomach pains* ○ *Are you* ***in pain?*** ○ *I felt a* ***sharp pain*** *in my foot.* **2** SADNESS [U] sadness or mental suffering caused by an unpleasant event *I can't describe the pain I suffered when he died.* **3 be a pain (in the neck)** *informal* to be annoying *My brother can be a real pain in the neck sometimes.* **4 be at pains to do sth; take pains to do sth** to make a lot of effort to do something *He was at great pains to explain the reasons for his decision.*

pain² /peɪn/ *verb* [T] *formal* If something pains you, it makes you feel sad or upset. [+ **to do sth**] *It pained him to see animals being treated so cruelly.*

pained /peɪnd/ *adjective* appearing to be sad or upset *a* ***pained expression***

O-➡**painful** /ˈpeɪnfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** HURT causing physical pain *Recovery from the operation is a slow and painful process.* **2** SAD making you feel sad or upset *a painful memory*

painfully /ˈpeɪnfᵊli/ *adverb* **1** WITH PAIN in a painful way *He landed painfully on his elbow.* **2 painfully clear/obvious, etc** If a problem is painfully clear/obvious, etc, it is embarrassing because it is so clear/obvious, etc. *It was painfully obvious that she didn't like him.* **3** VERY used to emphasize an unpleasant situation or quality *She's* ***painfully thin.***

painkiller /ˈpeɪnˌkɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a drug which reduces pain

painless /ˈpeɪnləs/ *adjective* **1** NO PAIN causing no physical pain *a painless death* **2** NO PROBLEMS causing no problems or difficulties *There is no painless way of learning a language.* ●**painlessly** *adverb*

painstaking /ˈpeɪnzˌteɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* done with a lot of care *It took months of* ***painstaking research*** *to write the book.* ●**painstakingly** *adverb*

O-➡**paint¹** /peɪnt/ *noun* [C, U] **DT** a coloured liquid that you put on a surface to decorate it *a gallon of blue paint* ○ *The door needs another* ***coat*** (= layer) ***of paint.***

O-➡**paint²** /peɪnt/ *verb* **1** [T] **DT** to cover a surface with paint in order to decorate it *We've painted the kitchen yellow.* **2** **ART, DT** [I, T] to produce a picture of something or someone using paint *These pictures were all painted by local artists.* ➲See also: paint a bleak/rosy, etc **picture¹** of sth

paintbrush /ˈpeɪntbrʌʃ/ *noun* [C] **ART, DT** a brush that is used for painting pictures or for painting surfaces such as walls and doors

painter /ˈpeɪntəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **ART, DT** someone who paints pictures **2** someone whose job is to

P

paint surfaces, such as walls and doors *a painter and decorator*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***painting***

do a painting ● a painting **of** sth/sb ● a painting **by** sb

painting /ˈpeɪntɪŋ/ *noun* **ART 1** [C] a picture that someone has painted **2** [U] the activity of painting pictures or painting surfaces ➲See also: **oil painting**

pair¹ /peəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** TWO THINGS two things that look the same and that are used together *a pair of socks/shoes* **2** TWO PARTS something that is made of two parts that are joined together *a pair of scissors* ○ *a new pair of jeans/trousers* **3** TWO PEOPLE two people who are doing something together *For the next exercise, you'll need to work **in pairs**.*

pair² /peəʳ/ *verb*
pair off *phrasal verb* If two people pair off, they begin a romantic or sexual relationship.
pair sb off with sb *phrasal verb* to introduce one person to another because you hope they will begin a romantic relationship *Caroline tried to pair me off with her sister.*
pair up *phrasal verb* to join another person for a short time in order to do something *I **paired up with** Chris for the last dance.*

pajamas /pəˈdʒɑːməz/ *noun* [**plural**] *US spelling of* pyjamas (= shirt and trousers that you wear in bed)

pal /pæl/ *noun* [C] *informal* a friend *He's an old pal of mine.*

palace /ˈpælɪs/ *noun* [C] a large house where a king or queen lives *Buckingham Palace*

palatable /ˈpælətəbl/ *adjective formal* **1 FOOD** If food or drink is palatable, it has a pleasant taste. *a palatable local wine* **2** IDEA If an idea or plan is palatable, it is acceptable. *They need to make the project more palatable to local people.* ➲Opposite **unpalatable**

palate /ˈpælət/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** the top part of the inside of your mouth ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** **2** the ability to judge and enjoy good food and drink

pale /peɪl/ *adjective* **1 pale blue/green/red, etc** light blue/green/red, etc *a pale yellow dress* **2** If your face is pale, it has less colour than usual because you are ill or frightened.

palisade layer /ˌpælɪseɪdˈleɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a layer of long cells between two thin surface layers of a leaf, that contains a lot of chloroplasts (= parts of a cell where energy from the sun is turned into food) ➲See picture at **leaf**

pall¹ /pɔːl/ *verb* [I] to become less interesting and enjoyable *The pleasure of not having to work soon began to pall.*

pall² /pɔːl/ *noun* **1 a pall of dust/smoke, etc** a thick cloud of dust/smoke, etc **2 cast a pall over sth** If an unpleasant situation or piece of news casts a pall over an event, it spoils it. *The news of Nick's accident cast a pall over the celebrations.*

palm¹ /pɑːm/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** the inside surface of your hand ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** a palm tree

palm² /pɑːm/ *verb*
palm sb off *phrasal verb* to tell someone something that is not true so that they will stop asking questions *He **palmed** me **off with** an excuse about why he couldn't pay.*
palm sth off as sth *phrasal verb* to deceive people by saying that something has a particular quality or value that it does not have
palm sth off on sb *phrasal verb* to give or sell something to someone because you want to get rid of it *He palmed his old computer off on me.*

Palm /pɑːm/ *noun* [C] *trademark* **COMPUTING** a small computer that you can carry with you

palmate /ˈpælmeɪt/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** describes leaves which all grow from the same point at the end of a stalk, in a hand-shape

palmtop /ˈpɑːmtɒp/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a type of computer which is small enough to fit in your hand

ˈpalm ˌtree *noun* [C] a tall tree with long leaves at the top which grows in hot countries

palpable /ˈpælpəbl/ *adjective* very obvious *There was a palpable sense of tension in the crowd.*

paltry /ˈpɔːltri/ *adjective* A paltry amount of something, especially money, is very small. *a **paltry sum** of money*

pamper /ˈpæmpəʳ/ *verb* [T] to treat someone in a kind way and give them everything they want *She pampered herself with a trip to the beauty salon.*

pamphlet /ˈpæmflɪt/ *noun* [C] a very thin book with a paper cover that gives information about something *The tourist office gave me a pamphlet about places to visit in the city.*

pan¹ /pæn/ *noun* [C] a metal container with a handle that is used for cooking food in ➲See also: a **flash²** in the pan, **frying pan**

pan² /pæn/ *verb* [T] **panning**, *past* **panned** *informal* to criticize something severely [**often passive**] *His last novel was panned by the critics.*
pan out *phrasal verb* to develop in a particular way *Not all his ideas had panned out in the way he would have liked.*

panacea /ˌpænəˈsiːə/ *noun* [C] something that people believe can solve all their problems

panache /pəˈnæʃ/ *noun* [U] a confident and attractive way of doing things *The orchestra played with great panache.*

pancake /ˈpænkeɪk/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a thin, flat food made from flour, milk, and egg mixed together and cooked in a pan

pancreas /ˈpæŋkriəs/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** an organ in the body that makes insulin (= a substance that controls the amount of sugar in the blood) and other substances which help to change food into a form that the body can use ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

pancreˈatic ˌduct *noun* [C **usually singular**] **ANATOMY** in the human body, a tube in the pancreas that takes pancreatic juice into the small intestine (= upper tube of the bowels) ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

pancreˈatic ˌjuice *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** a watery liquid made in the pancreas which helps to change food into a form that the body can use

panda /ˈpændə/ *noun* [C] a large, black and white animal that lives in forests in China

pandemonium /ˌpændəˈməʊniəm/ *noun* [U] when there is a lot of noise and confusion because people are angry or excited about something that has happened ***Pandemonium broke out*** *in the courtroom as they took him away.*

pander /ˈpændəʳ/ *verb*
pander to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to do what someone wants although it is wrong *He said he would not pander to public pressure.*

P&P /ˌpiːᵊnˈpiː/ *noun* [U] *UK abbreviation for* postage and packing

pane /peɪn/ *noun* [C] a flat piece of glass in a window or door

panel /ˈpænᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** PIECE a flat, rectangular piece of wood, metal, etc that forms the surface of a door, wall, etc **2** PEOPLE a group of people who are chosen to discuss something or make a decision about something *a panel of experts* **3** CONTROLS the part of a car, aircraft, etc that the controls are fixed to ➲See also: **solar panel**

panelling *UK* (*US* **paneling**) /ˈpænəlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] flat, rectangular pieces of wood that form the surface of walls, doors, etc *carved oak panelling*

panellist *UK* (*US* **panelist**) /ˈpænəlɪst/ *noun* [C] one of a group of people who are chosen to discuss something or make a decision about something

pang /pæŋ/ *noun* [C] a sudden, strong feeling of an unpleasant emotion *Bernard felt a sharp pang of jealousy.*

panhandle /ˈpænˌhændl/ *verb* [I] *US* to ask people for money in a public place ●**panhandler** *noun* [C] *US*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***panic***

be **in a** panic ● panic **breaks out** ● **absolute/blind** panic ● panic **about/over** sth ● do sth **in** panic ● a panic **attack**

panic¹ /ˈpænɪk/ *noun* [C, U] a sudden, strong feeling of worry or fear that makes you unable to think or behave calmly *He was* ***in a panic*** *about his exams.* ○ *She had a* ***panic attack*** (= suddenly felt extreme panic) *in the supermarket.*

panic² /ˈpænɪk/ *verb* [I, T] **panicking**, *past* **panicked** to suddenly feel so worried or frightened that you cannot think or behave calmly, or to make someone feel this way *Don't panic, we've got plenty of time.*

panicky /ˈpænɪki/ *adjective* feeling worried or frightened

panic-stricken /ˈpænɪkˌstrɪkᵊn/ *adjective* extremely frightened

panorama /ˌpænᵊrˈɑːmə/ *noun* [C] a view of a wide area

panoramic /ˌpænᵊrˈæmɪk/ *adjective* A panoramic view is very wide. ***a panoramic view*** *of the city*

pansy /ˈpænzi/ *noun* [C] a small garden flower with round petals which can be many different colours

pant /pænt/ *verb* [I] to breathe quickly and loudly because it is hot or because you have been running, etc

panther /ˈpænθəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large, black, wild cat

panties /ˈpæntiz/ *mainly US* (*UK* **knickers**) *noun* [plural] women's underwear that covers the bottom ➲See Common Learner Error at **underwear** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

pantomime /ˈpæntəmaɪm/ *noun* [C, U] a funny play performed in the UK around Christmas, based on traditional children's stories

pantry /ˈpæntri/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small room where food is kept

pants /pænts/ *noun* [plural] **1** TROUSERS *US* (*UK/US* **trousers**) a piece of clothing that covers the legs and has a separate part for each leg ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 **2** UNDERWEAR *UK* (*US* **underpants**) underwear that covers the bottom ➲See Common Learner Error at **underwear**

ˈpant ˌsuit *US* (*UK* **trouser suit**) *noun* [C] a woman's jacket and trousers made of the same material

pantyhose /ˈpæntihəʊz/ *US* (*UK* **tights**) *noun* [plural] a piece of women's clothing made of very thin material that covers the legs and bottom

papa /pəˈpɑː/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned another word for* father

the papacy /ˈpeɪpəsi/ *noun* **RELIGION** the position or authority of the Pope (= leader of the Roman Catholic Church)

papal /ˈpeɪpᵊl/ *adjective* **RELIGION** relating to the Pope (= leader of the Roman Catholic Church)

paparazzi /ˌpæpəˈrætsi/ *noun* [plural] photographers whose job is to follow famous people and take photographs of them for newspapers and magazines

paper¹ /ˈpeɪpəʳ/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [U] thin, flat material used for writing on, covering things in, etc *a piece/sheet of paper* **2** NEWSPAPER [C] a newspaper **3** **EDUCATION** [C] *UK* an examination *Candidates must answer two questions from each paper.* **4** WRITING [C] a piece of writing about a particular subject written by someone who has been studying that subject *She's just published a paper on language acquisition.* ➲See also: **blotting paper, carbon paper, toilet paper, White Paper, wrapping paper**

paper² /ˈpeɪpəʳ/ *verb* [T] to decorate the walls of a room by covering them with paper

paperback /ˈpeɪpəbæk/ *noun* [C] a book that has a soft paper cover

ˈpaper ˌclip *noun* [C] a small piece of metal used to hold several pieces of paper together ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

ˈpaper ˌround *noun* [C] When someone does a paper round, they deliver newspapers to all the houses in a particular area.

papers /ˈpeɪpəz/ *noun* [plural] official documents *I keep all my papers safely locked away.*

ˈpaper ˌweight *noun* [C] a small, heavy object that you put on top of pieces of paper to stop them from moving

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paperwork /ˈpeɪpəwɜːk/ *noun* [U] the part of a job that involves writing letters, organizing information, etc

par /pɑː/ *noun* **1 be on a par with sb/sth** to be the same as or equal to someone or something **2 below par** not as good as usual *I'm feeling a bit below par today.* **3 be par for the course** If a type of behaviour, event, or situation is par for the course, it is not good but it is normal or as you would expect. *"Simon was late." "That's just par for the course, isn't it?"*

parable /ˈpærəbl/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE, RELIGION a short story, especially in the Bible, that shows you how you should behave

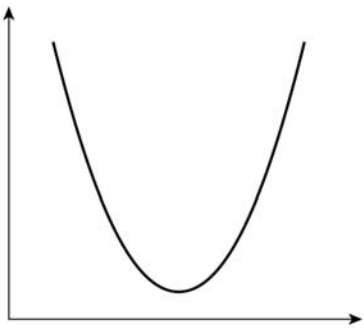

parabola

parabola /pəˈræbᵊlə/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a type of curve such as that made by an object that is thrown up in the air and falls to the ground in a different place

paracetamol /ˌpærəˈsiːtəmɒl/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a common drug used to reduce pain and fever

parachute /ˈpærəʃuːt/ *noun* [C] a large piece of cloth which is fixed to your body by strings and helps you to drop safely from an aircraft ●**parachute** *verb* [I] to jump from an aircraft using a parachute

parade¹ /pəˈreɪd/ *noun* [C] a line of people or vehicles that moves through a public place as a way of celebrating an occasion *a **victory parade***

parade² /pəˈreɪd/ *verb* **1 parade down/past/through sth** to walk as a group, usually to show disagreement about something *Thousands of workers paraded through the streets.* **2 parade around/up and down, etc** to walk somewhere so that people will see and admire you *The kids were parading around in their new clothes.* **3** [T] to try to make someone notice something that you are proud of, especially how rich you are or how much you know

paradigm /ˈpærədaɪm/ *noun* [C] *formal* a typical example or model of something *Career women are establishing a new paradigm of work and family life.*

paradise /ˈpærədaɪs/ *noun* **1** RELIGION [no plural] in some religions, a place where good people go after they die **2** [C, U] a perfect place or situation *a tropical paradise* ○ *a shoppers' paradise*

paradox /ˈpærədɒks/ *noun* [C] a situation that seems very strange or impossible because of two opposite qualities or facts ●**paradoxical** /ˌpærəˈdɒksɪkᵊl/ *adjective* involving a paradox ●**paradoxically** *adverb*

paraffin /ˈpærəfɪn/ *UK* (*US* **kerosene**) *noun* [U] oil used for heating and lights

paragraph /ˈpærəɡrɑːf/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a part of a text that contains at least one sentence and starts on a new line

parallel¹ /ˈpærəlel/ *adjective* **1** MATHEMATICS If two or more lines are parallel, the distance between them is the same along all their length. *The streets are parallel.* **2** SIMILAR similar and happening at the same time *Parallel experiments are being conducted in both countries.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***parallel** (noun)*

draw a parallel ● a **clear/close/strong** parallel ● a parallel **between** sth **and** sth ● a parallel **with** sth

parallel² /ˈpærəlel/ *noun* [C] a similarity *There are a number of **parallels between** our two situations.* ○ *People are **drawing parallels*** (= describing similarities) *between the two cases.*

ˌparallel ˈcircuit *noun* [C] PHYSICS a circuit (= closed system of wires) in which the electric current passes through two or more connected parts at the same time before it combines again ➲Compare **series circuit**

parallelism /ˈpærəlelɪzm/ *noun* [no plural] LANGUAGE (in language) repeating the same pattern of words in different sentences

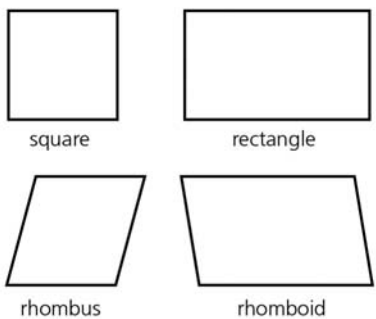

parallelograms

parallelogram /ˌpærəˈleləɡræm/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a flat shape which has four sides. The two sets of opposite sides are parallel and the same length as each other.

ˈparallel ˌport *noun* [C] COMPUTING a part of a computer where wires from other pieces of equipment such as a printer can be connected to it, sending information eight bits (= units of information) at a time ➲Compare **serial port**

the Paralympic Games /ðəˌpærəˌlɪmpɪkˈɡeɪmz/ (also **Paralympics**) *noun* [plural] SPORT an international sports competition for people who have a disability (= a condition that

makes it difficult for a person to do the things that other people do) ●**Paralympic** *adjective* ●**Paralympian** *noun* [C]

paralyse *UK* (*US* **paralyze**) /ˈpærᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** HEALTH to make someone unable to move all or part of their body [**often passive**] *He was paralysed from the waist down by polio.* **2** to make something stop working *Rail strikes have paralysed the city's transport system.*

paralysed *UK* (*US* **paralyzed**) /ˈpærəlaɪzd/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH unable to move all or part of your body because of an injury or illness **2** unable to move or speak because you are so frightened *to be paralysed with fear*

paralysis /pəˈræləsɪs/ *noun* [U] **1** HEALTH being unable to move all or part of your body because of injury or illness *muscular paralysis* **2** not being able to take action *political paralysis*

paralyze /ˈpærəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] HEALTH *US spelling of* paralyse

paramedic /ˌpærəˈmedɪk/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who is trained to give medical treatment to people who are injured or very ill, but who is not a doctor or nurse

parameter /pəˈræmɪtᵊr/ *noun* [C] a limit that controls the way that you can do something [**usually plural**] *Before we can start the research we need to* ***set*** *some* ***parameters*** (= decide some limits).

paramilitaries /ˌpærəˈmɪlɪtᵊriz/ *noun* [**plural**] people who belong to paramilitary organizations

paramilitary /ˌpærəˈmɪlɪtᵊri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] organized like an army, but not belonging to an official army *a* ***paramilitary organization/group***

paramount /ˈpærəmaʊnt/ *adjective formal* more important than anything else *Safety, of course, is paramount.* ○ *Communication is* ***of paramount importance.***

paranoia /ˌpærəˈnɔɪə/ *noun* [U] **1** FEAR when you wrongly think that other people do not like you and are always criticizing you *Do you think his boss really hates him or is it just paranoia?* **2** HEALTH a mental illness that makes people wrongly think that other people are trying to harm them ●**paranoid** /ˈpærᵊnɔɪd/ *adjective* when you have paranoia *Stop being so paranoid - no one's talking about you.*

paraphernalia /ˌpærəfəˈneɪliə/ *noun* [U] all the objects used in a particular activity *the painter's paraphernalia of brushes, paints, and pencils*

paraphrase /ˈpærəfreɪz/ *verb* [I, T] LANGUAGE to express something that has been said or written in a different way, usually so that it is clearer ●**paraphrase** *noun* [C]

parasite /ˈpærəsaɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY a plant or animal that lives on or inside another plant or animal in order to get food **2** a lazy person who expects other people to give them money and food

paratrooper /ˈpærətruːpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a soldier who is trained to be dropped from an aircraft using a parachute (= large piece of cloth fixed to the body by strings)

O-K **parcel** /ˈpɑːsᵊl/ *noun* [C] something that is covered in paper so that it can be sent by post ➲See also: **part**[1] and parcel

parched /pɑːtʃt/ *adjective* **1 be parched** *informal* to be very thirsty *I'm going to get a drink - I'm parched.* **2** very dry *a parched desert/land*

pardon[1] /ˈpɑːdᵊn/ *exclamation* **1** (*also US* **pardon me**) a polite way of asking someone to repeat what they have just said *"You'll need an umbrella." "Pardon?" "I said you'll need an umbrella."* **2 Pardon me.** used to say 'sorry' after you have done something rude, for example after burping (= letting air from your stomach out of your mouth)

pardon[2] /ˈpɑːdᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] LAW when someone who has committed a crime is officially forgiven and allowed to be free **2 I beg your pardon.** *formal spoken* **a** SORRY used for saying 'sorry' when you have made a mistake or done something wrong *I beg your pardon - I thought you were speaking to me.* **b** DISAGREEMENT/ANGER used to show that you strongly disagree or that you are angry about something that someone has said *I beg your pardon, young man - I don't want to hear you speak like that again!*

pardon[3] /ˈpɑːdᵊn/ *verb* [T] LAW to officially forgive someone who has committed a crime and allow them to be free

O-K **parent** /ˈpeərᵊnt/ *noun* [C] your mother or father *Her parents live in Oxford.* ●**parental** /pəˈrentᵊl/ *adjective* relating to a parent *parental responsibility*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

parents or **relations/relatives?**

Your **parents** are only your mother and father. The other people in your family are **relations** or **relatives**.

We spent the holidays visiting all our relatives.

~~*We spent the holidays visiting all our parents.*~~

[1]**parent company** *noun* [C] ECONOMICS a company which controls other smaller companies

parentheses /pəˈrenθəsiːz/ (*also UK* **brackets**) *noun* [**plural**] LANGUAGE two curved lines ( ) used around extra information or information that should be considered as separate from the main part *The age of each student is listed* ***in parentheses.*** ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

parenthood /ˈpeərᵊnthʊd/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY being a parent *the demands of parenthood*

parenting /ˈpeərəntɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY the things that you do during the time when you take care of your baby or child

parish /ˈpærɪʃ/ *noun* [C] RELIGION an area that has its own church

parishioner /pəˈrɪʃᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who lives in a parish and often goes to church

parity /ˈpærəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* equality, usually relating to the money people earn or their position *The union has also asked for wage* ***parity with*** *similar public-sector workers.* ➲Opposite **disparity**

O-K **park**[1] /pɑːk/ *noun* [C] a large area of grass, often in a town, where people can walk and enjoy themselves *We went for a walk in the park.*

P

➲See also: **amusement park, car park, industrial park, national park, theme park, trailer park**

park² /pɑːk/ *verb* [I, T] to leave a vehicle in a particular place for a period of time *I parked the car near the old bridge.* ○ *You can park outside the school.*

parking /ˈpɑːkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] leaving a vehicle in a particular place for a period of time *free/underground parking*

ˈparking ˌlot *US* (*UK* **car park**) *noun* [C] a place where vehicles can be parked

ˈparking ˌmeter *noun* [C] a device next to a road that you pay so that you can park your vehicle on that road

ˈparking ˌticket *noun* [C] a piece of paper that tells you that you must pay money because you have parked your car where you should not

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***parliament***

dissolve/elect a parliament ● **enter** parliament ● **in** parliament

parliament /ˈpɑːləmənt/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** in some countries, a group of people who make the laws for the country *the Russian parliament* ●**parliamentary** /ˌpɑːləˈmentᵊri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to a parliament *a parliamentary candidate/election* ➲See also: **Houses of Parliament, Member of Parliament**

parlour *UK* (*US* **parlor**) /ˈpɑːlɚ/ *noun* [C] a shop that provides a particular type of goods or services *a beauty/pizza parlour*

parody /ˈpærədi/ *noun* [C, U] a film, book, etc that copies someone else's style in a way that is funny *It's a parody of a low-budget 1950's horror movie.* ●**parody** *verb* [T]

parole /pəˈrəʊl/ *noun* [U] **LAW** when someone is allowed to leave prison early but is only allowed to remain free if they behave well *He's hoping to get released* ***on parole***.

parrot /ˈpærət/ *noun* [C] a tropical bird with a curved beak and colourful feathers that can be taught to copy what people say

parsimonious /ˌpɑːsɪˈməʊniəs/ *adjective formal* not willing to spend money or give something

parsley /ˈpɑːsli/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a herb that is added to food to give it flavour

parsnip /ˈpɑːsnɪp/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a long, cream-coloured root that is eaten as a vegetable

part¹ /pɑːt/ *noun* **1** NOT ALL [C, U] one of the things that, with other things, makes the whole of something ***Part of*** *this form seems to be missing.* ○ *I did French* ***as part of*** *my degree course.* ○ *It's* ***all part of*** *growing up.* ○ *You're part of the family.* **2 take part (in sth)** to be involved in an activity with other people *She doesn't usually take part in any of the class activities.* **3** FILM/PLAY [C] a person in a film or play *He* ***plays*** *the* ***part*** *of the father.* **4 have/play a part in sth** to be one of the people or things that are involved in an event or situation *Alcohol plays a part in 60 percent of violent crime.* **5** MACHINE [C] a piece of a machine or vehicle *aircraft parts* ○ ***spare parts*** **6** HAIR [C] *US* (*UK* **parting**) the line on your head made by brushing your hair in two different directions **7 the best/better part of sth** most of a period of time *It took the better part of the afternoon to put those shelves up.* **8 in part** *formal* partly *He is in part to blame for the accident.* **9 for the most part** mostly or usually *I enjoyed it for the most part.* **10 look the part** to look suitable for a particular situation *If you're going to be a successful businesswoman, you've got to look the part.* **11 part and parcel** If something is part and parcel of an experience, it is a necessary part of that experience and cannot be avoided. *Stress is part and parcel of the job.*

part² /pɑːt/ *adverb* not completely *She's part Irish and part English.*

part³ /pɑːt/ *verb* **1** SEPARATE [I, T] If two sides of something part, they become separated, and if you part them, you make them separate. *Slowly her lips parted and she smiled.* **2** LEAVE [I, T] *formal* If two people part, or if one person parts from another, they leave each other. *That summer, after six years of marriage, we parted.* ○ *Even after we* ***parted company****, we remained in contact.* **3** HAIR [T] to brush your hair in two directions so that there is a straight line showing on your head *In my school days, I had long hair parted in the middle.*
part with sth *phrasal verb* to give something to someone else, often when you do not want to *You know how hard it is to get Simon to part with his money.*

partial /ˈpɑːʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** not complete *He made a partial recovery.* **2 be partial to sth** If you are partial to something, you like it. *I'm rather partial to red wine myself.*

partially /ˈpɑːʃᵊli/ *adverb* not completely *partially cooked*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***participant***

an **active/unwilling** participant ● a participant **in** sth

participant /pɑːˈtɪsɪpᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone who is involved in an activity *All participants finishing the race will receive a medal.*

participate /pɑːˈtɪsɪpeɪt/ *verb* [I] to be involved with other people in an activity *She rarely* ***participates in*** *any of the discussions.* ●**participation** /pɑːˌtɪsɪˈpeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *Both shows encourage* ***audience participation***.

participle /pɑːˈtɪsɪpl/ (US) /ˈpɑːtɪsɪpl/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb that usually ends with '-ed' or '-ing' and is used in some verb tenses or as an adjective ➲See also: **past participle, present participle**

particle /ˈpɑːtɪkl/ *noun* [C] **1** a very small piece of something *particles of dust* **2 PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** a very small part of an atom, for example an electron or a proton

particular /pəˈtɪkjələɚ/ *adjective* **1** ONE PERSON/THING [**always before noun**] used to talk about one thing or person and not others *Is there any particular restaurant you'd like to go to?* ○ *"Why did you ask?" "No particular reason."* **2** SPECIAL [**always before noun**] special *"Was anything important said at the meeting?" "Nothing of particular interest."* **3** NOT EASILY SATISFIED [**never before noun**] choosing things carefully and not easily satisfied *Teenagers are very*

particular about the clothes they'll wear. **4 in particular** especially *Are you looking for anything in particular?*

particularly /pəˈtɪkjələli/ *adverb* especially *She didn't seem particularly interested.* ○ *"Was the food good?" "**Not particularly.**"*

particulars /pəˈtɪkjələz/ *noun* [**plural**] *formal* details about something or someone *There's a form for you to note down all your particulars.*

parting¹ /ˈpɑːtɪŋ/ *noun* **1** SEPARATION [**C, U**] *formal* when you are separated from another person, often for a long time *The pain of parting gradually lessened over the years.* **2** HAIR [**C**] *UK* (*US* **part**) the line on your head made by brushing your hair in two different directions

parting² /ˈpɑːtɪŋ/ *adjective* **parting glance/words, etc** something that you do or say as you leave

partisan¹ /ˌpɑːtɪˈzæn/ (US) /ˈpɑːrtɪzən/ *adjective* **POLITICS** showing support for a particular political system or leader *partisan politics* ○ *a partisan crowd*

partisan² /ˌpɑːtɪˈzæn/ (US) /ˈpɑːrtɪzən/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS 1** someone who supports a particular political system or leader **2** a member of a group that secretly fights against soldiers who are controlling their country

partition /pɑːˈtɪʃˈn/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a wall that divides a room into two parts **2 POLITICS** [**U**] when a country divides into two or more countries or areas of government ●**partition** *verb* [**T**]

partly /ˈpɑːtli/ *adverb* used to show that something is true to some degree but not completely *The house is partly owned by her father.* ○ *He was partly responsible.*

partner¹ /ˈpɑːtnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1 SOCIETY** someone that you are married to or having a sexual relationship with *sexual partners* ○ *Are partners invited to the office dinner?* **2** SPORTS/DANCING someone that you are dancing or playing a sport or game with **3 ECONOMICS** someone who owns a business with another person *a **junior/senior partner*** ○ *He's a **partner in** a law firm.* **4 ECONOMICS, POLITICS** a country that has an agreement with another country *a **trading partner*** ○ *Britain and its European partners*

partner² /ˈpɑːtnəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] to be someone's partner in a dance, sport, or game *He looks certain to partner him again in the finals.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***partnership***

enter into/go into partnership ● be **in** partnership with sb ● a partnership **between** sb **and** sb

partnership /ˈpɑːtnəʃɪp/ *noun* **1** WORKING TOGETHER [**C, U**] when two people or organizations work together to achieve something *She's **gone into partnership*** (= started to work together) *with an ex-colleague.* **2 ECONOMICS** [**C**] a company which is owned by two or more people

part-time /ˌpɑːtˈtaɪm/ *adjective, adverb* working or studying only for part of the day or the week *a **part-time job*** ○ *He **works part-time** as a waiter.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***party***

go to/have/throw a party ● a **birthday/Christmas** party ● be **at** a party

party¹ /ˈpɑːti/ *noun* [**C**] **1** EVENT an event where people enjoy themselves by talking, eating, drinking, and dancing *a **birthday party*** ○ *We're **having a party** to celebrate the occasion.* **2 POLITICS** an organization that shares the same political beliefs and tries to win elections *a **political party*** **3** GROUP a group of people who are working or travelling together *a party of tourists* **4 LAW** one of the sides in a legal agreement or disagreement *the guilty party* ○ *We hope to provide a solution that is acceptable to both parties.* ➲See also: **the Conservative Party, the Democratic Party, the Green Party, the Labour Party,** toe the (party) **line¹, the Republican Party, search party, slumber party, third party**

party² /ˈpɑːti/ *verb* [**I**] to enjoy yourself by talking, eating, drinking, and dancing with a group of people *They were out partying till five o'clock in the morning.*

pass¹ /pɑːs/ *verb* **1** GO PAST [**I, T**] (*also* **pass by**) to go past something or someone *She passed me this morning in the corridor.* ○ *Cars kept passing us on the motorway.* **2 pass (sth) over/through, etc** to go in a particular direction, or to cause something to go in a particular direction *Another plane passed over our heads.* ○ *We pass through your village on the way home.* **3** GIVE [**T**] to give something to someone *Could you pass the salt, please?* ○ *He **passed** a note **to** her in the meeting.* **4** TIME [**I**] If a period of time passes, it happens. *Four years have passed since that day.* **5 pass (the) time** to spend time doing something *She was eating only to pass the time.* **6 EDUCATION** [**I, T**] to succeed at a test or an exam, or to decide that someone has been successful *I passed my driving test the first time.* **7** BE MORE THAN [**T**] to be more than a particular level *Donations have passed the one million mark.* **8 SPORT** [**I, T**] in sports, to throw or kick a ball to someone else *Edwards **passes to** Brinkworth.* **9 pass a law/motion, etc LAW** to officially approve of something and make it into a law or rule *They passed a law banning the sale of alcohol.* **10** GO AWAY [**I**] If a feeling passes, it goes away. *I know he's angry now but it'll pass.* **11 pass judgment** to judge someone's behaviour **12 pass sentence LAW** If a judge passes sentence, they state what the criminal's punishment will be. **13 let sth pass** to decide not to criticize someone when they say something unpleasant or they make a mistake ➲See also: pass the **buck¹**

pass sth around/round *phrasal verb* to offer something to each person in a group of people *Take a copy for yourself and pass the rest around.*

pass as/for sth/sb *phrasal verb* If someone or something passes as or for someone or something else, they appear like that person or thing. *She's fifteen but could easily pass for eighteen.*

pass away *phrasal verb* to die *She passed away peacefully in her sleep.*

pass sth down *phrasal verb* to teach or give something to someone who will be alive after you have died [**often passive**] *Folk tales have*

P

been passed down from generation to generation.
pass sth/sb off as sth/sb *phrasal verb* to pretend that something or someone is different from what they really are *He tried to pass himself off as some sort of expert.*
pass on *phrasal verb* to die
pass sth on *phrasal verb* **1** TELL to tell someone something that someone else has told you *Did you pass on my message to him?* **2** GIVE to give something to someone else *Could you pass it on to Laura when you've finished reading it?* **3 HEALTH** to give a disease to another person *The virus can be passed on through physical contact.*
pass out *phrasal verb* **HEALTH** to become unconscious *I don't remember any more because I passed out at that point.*
pass sth up *phrasal verb* to not use an opportunity to do something interesting *It's a great opportunity - you'd be a fool to pass it up.*

pass² /pɑːs/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** a successful result in a test or a course *A pass is above 60%.* **2** DOCUMENT an official document that allows you to do something *a bus/rail pass* ○ *You need a pass to get into the building.* **3 SPORT** in sports, when you throw or kick a ball to someone else **4 GEOGRAPHY** a narrow path between two mountains *a mountain pass* ➲See also: **boarding pass**

passage /ˈpæsɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** SPACE [C] (*also* **passageway** /ˈpæsɪdzweɪ/) a long, narrow space that connects one place to another *There's a passage to the side of the house, leading to the garden.* **2 MUSIC, LITERATURE** [C] a short part of a book, speech, or piece of music *She can quote whole passages from the novel.* **3 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** [C] a tube in your body that allows air, liquid, etc to pass through it *the nasal/respiratory passages* **4** PROGRESS [**U, no plural**] the movement or progress from one stage or place to another *It's a difficult passage from boyhood to manhood.* **5 the passage of time** *literary* the way that time passes *Love changes with the passage of time.*

passenger /ˈpæsᵊndʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who is travelling in a vehicle, but not controlling the vehicle *a front-seat passenger*

passer-by /ˌpɑːsəˈbaɪ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **passers-by** someone who is walking past something by chance *Police were alerted by a passer-by who saw the accident.*

passing¹ /ˈpɑːsɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] lasting only for a short time and not important *a **passing interest***

passing² /ˈpɑːsɪŋ/ *noun* **1 the passing of time/years** the way that time passes *With the passing of time their love had changed.* **2 in passing** If you say something in passing, you talk about one thing briefly while talking mainly about something else. *She mentioned in passing that she'd seen Stuart.*

passion /ˈpæʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** SEX [U] a strong, sexual feeling for someone *She saw the passion in his eyes.* **2** BELIEF [C, U] a strong belief in something or a strong feeling about a subject *She spoke with passion about the injustice.* **3 a passion for sth** when you like something very much *a passion for football*

passionate /ˈpæʃᵊnət/ *adjective* **1** SEX having a strong, sexual feeling for someone *a passionate affair/lover* **2** BELIEF showing a strong belief in something or a strong feeling about a subject *a passionate speaker* ●**passionately** *adverb*

passive /ˈpæsɪv/ *adjective* **1** letting things happen to you and not taking action *Women at that time were expected to be passive.* **2 LANGUAGE** A passive verb or sentence is one in which the subject does not do or cause the action but is affected by it. For example 'He was released from prison.' is a passive sentence.

the passive /ˈpæsɪv/ (*also* **the passive voice**) *noun* **LANGUAGE** the passive form of a verb

passive immunity *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when people or animals get antibodies (= substances in the blood that fight disease) from someone else, for example from the mother's milk

passive smoking *noun* [U] **HEALTH** breathing in smoke from other people's cigarettes

Passover /ˈpɑːsˌəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the Jewish period of religious celebration held in March or April

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***passport***

apply for a passport ● **have/hold** a [British/Japanese, etc] passport ● a **valid** passport

passport /ˈpɑːspɔːt/ *noun* **1 LAW** [C] an official document, often a small book, that you need to enter or leave a country *a British passport* **2 a passport to sth** something that allows you to achieve something else *Education is a passport to a better life.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***password***

enter /put in your password ● a **secret** password ● **forget** a password ● **change** a password

password /ˈpɑːswɜːd/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a secret word that allows you to do something, such as use your computer

past¹ /pɑːst/ *adjective* **1** BEFORE NOW [**always before noun**] having happened or existed before now *past relationships* ○ *I know this from **past experience**.* **2** UNTIL NOW [**always before noun**] used to refer to a period of time before and until the present *It's been raining for the past three days.* **3** FINISHED [**never before noun**] Something that is past has now finished. *My student days are past.* **4 past tense LANGUAGE** the form of the verb which is used to show what happened in the past

past² /pɑːst/ *noun* **1 the past a** the time before the present and all the things that happened then ***In the past** people would bathe once a month.* **b LANGUAGE** the form of the verb which is used to show what happened in the past **2 sb's past** all of the things that someone has done in their life *I knew nothing about his past.*

past³ /pɑːst/ *adverb, preposition* **1** FURTHER further than *I live on Station Road, just past the Post Office.* **2** UP TO AND FURTHER up to and further than someone or something *Three boys went past us on mountain bikes.* ○ *I've just seen the bus **go past**.* **3** AFTER HOUR used to say 'after' the hour when you are saying what time it is *It's five past three.* **4** AFTER LIMIT after a

particular time or age limit *This bacon is past its sell-by date.* **5 past it** *informal* too old to do something **6 I wouldn't put it past sb (to do sth)** *informal* used to say that you would not be surprised if someone did something, especially something bad, because it is a typical thing for them to do *I wouldn't put it past him to sell her jewellery.*

pasta /ˈpæstə/ (US) /ˈpɑːstə/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a food that is made from flour, water, and sometimes eggs and is made in many different shapes ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

paste¹ /peɪst/ *noun* [C, U] **1 DT** a soft, wet, sticky substance that is used to stick things together *wallpaper paste* **2 FOOD** a soft food that spreads easily *tomato/almond paste*

paste² /peɪst/ *verb* **1** [T] **DT** to stick a piece of paper to another piece of paper *The cuttings had been pasted into a scrapbook.* **2 COMPUTING** [I, T] to move a piece of text to a particular place in a computer document ➲See also: **cut and paste**

pastel /ˈpæstᵊl/ (US) /pæsˈtel/ *adjective* A pastel colour is light. ***pastel colours/shades*** ○ *pastel pink* ●**pastel** *noun* [C] *The bedroom is decorated in pastels* (= pale colours).

pastime /ˈpɑːstaɪm/ *noun* [C] an activity that you enjoy doing when you are not working *Shopping is one of her* ***favourite pastimes.***

pastor /ˈpɑːstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a priest in some Protestant churches

pastoral /ˈpɑːstᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* **1 SOCIETY** related to giving advice and looking after people *the teacher's* ***pastoral role*** **2** [always before noun] *literary* relating to life in the country *a pastoral song/tradition*

ˌpast parˈticiple *UK* (*US* **ˌpast ˈparticiple**) *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb that usually ends with '-ed' and can be used in the perfect tense, the passive tense, or as an adjective. For example 'baked' is the past participle of 'bake'.

the ˌpast ˈperfect (*also* **the pluperfect**) *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb that is used to show that an action had already finished when another action happened. In English, the past perfect is made with 'had' and a past participle.

pastry /ˈpeɪstri/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [U] a mixture of flour, fat, and water that is cooked, usually used to cover or contain other food **2 FOOD** [C] a small cake that is made with pastry

pasture /ˈpɑːstʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** an area of land with grass where animals can feed

pat¹ /pæt/ *verb* [T] **patting**, *past* **patted** to touch a person or animal with a flat hand in a gentle, friendly way *She stopped to pat the dog.*

pat² /pæt/ *noun* **1** [C] when you pat a person or animal *He gave her an encouraging* ***pat on*** *the shoulder.* **2 a pat on the back** praise for something good that someone has done *I got a pat on the back for all my hard work.*

patch¹ /pætʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** AREA a small area that is different from the area around it *a* ***bald patch.*** ○ *There are* ***icy patches*** *on the road.* **2** MATERIAL a piece of material that you use to cover a hole in your clothes or in other material *He had leather patches sewn on the elbows of his jacket.* **3 HEALTH** a small piece of material used to cover an injured eye **4** LAND a small area of land used for a particular purpose *a cabbage/vegetable patch* **5 a bad/rough, etc patch** a difficult time *I think their marriage is going through a bad patch.* **6 not be a patch on sb/sth** *UK informal* to not be as good as someone or something else *Her cooking is okay but it's not a patch on yours.*

patch² /pætʃ/ *verb* [T] to repair a hole in a piece of clothing or other material by sewing a piece of material over it *to patch your trousers*
patch sth up *phrasal verb* to try to improve your relationship with someone after you have had an argument *Has he managed to patch things up with her?*

patchwork /ˈpætʃwɜːk/ *noun* **1** [U] **DT** a type of sewing in which a lot of small pieces of different material are sewn together *a* ***patchwork quilt*** **2 a patchwork of sth** something that seems to be made of many different pieces *We flew over a patchwork of fields.*

patchy /ˈpætʃi/ *adjective* **1** NOT COMPLETE not complete or not good in every way *a* ***patchy knowledge*** *of Spanish* **2** IN SOME AREAS existing only in some areas ***patchy clouds/fog***

patent¹ /ˈpeɪtᵊnt, ˈpætᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a legal right that a person or company receives to make or sell a particular product so that others cannot copy it ●**patent** *verb* [T] to get a patent for something

patent² /ˈpeɪtᵊnt, ˈpætᵊnt/ *adjective formal* **patent lie/nonsense** something that is obviously false *The explanation he gave - that was patent nonsense.* ●**patently** *adverb formal Her claims are patently* (= obviously) *false.*

paternal /pəˈtɜːnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** like a father *paternal affection* **2 SOCIETY** [always before noun] A paternal relative is part of your father's family. *He was my paternal grandfather.*

paternity /pəˈtɜːnəti/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the state of being a father

paˈternity ˌleave *noun* [U] a period of weeks or months that a father spends away from his usual job so that he can look after his baby or child

path /pɑːθ/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUND a long, narrow area of ground for people to walk along *There's a path through the forest.* ○ *a* ***garden path*** **2** DIRECTION the direction that a person or vehicle moves in *a* ***flight path*** **3** CHOOSING a particular way of doing something over a period of time *a* ***career path*** ○ *Whichever path we choose, we'll have difficulties.*

pathetic /pəˈθetɪk/ *adjective* **1** BAD *informal* showing no skill, effort, or bravery *He made a rather* ***pathetic attempt*** *to apologize.* ○ *You're too frightened to speak to her? Come on, that's pathetic!* ○ *It was a pathetic performance.* **2** SAD sad and weak *Four times the pathetic little creature fell to the ground.* ●**pathetically** *adverb a pathetically small amount of money*

paˌthetic ˈfallacy *noun* [U, no plural] **LANGUAGE** (in art and literature) when animals and things are described as if they have human emotions or qualities

P

pathogen /ˈpæθəʤən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** any small living thing that can cause disease *a dangerous pathogen*

pathological /ˌpæθəˈlɒʤɪkəl/ *adjective* **1** Pathological behaviour or feelings are extreme and cannot be controlled. *a **pathological liar*** ○ ***pathological hatred*** **2** **HEALTH** relating to pathology (= the study of disease)

pathologist /pəˈθɒləʤɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who has studied pathology, especially one who tries to find out why people have died

pathology /pəˈθɒləʤi/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the scientific study of disease and causes of death

pathos /ˈpeɪθɒs/ *noun* [U] *literary* a quality in a situation that makes you feel sympathy and sadness

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***patience***

have/run out of patience ● **lose** (your) patience ● **test/try** sb's patience ● sth **takes** patience ● patience **with** sb/sth

patience /ˈpeɪʃᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** BEHAVIOUR the quality of being able to stay calm and not get angry, especially when something takes a long time *Finally, I **lost** my **patience** and shouted at her.* ○ *Making small scale models **takes** a lot of **patience**.* ➲Opposite **impatience** **2** CARD GAME *UK* (*US* **solitaire**) a card game for one person

patient¹ /ˈpeɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* having patience *You need to be **patient with** children.* ●**patiently** *adverb* ➲Opposite **impatient**

patient² /ˈpeɪʃᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone who is being treated by a doctor, nurse, etc *a cancer patient*

patio /ˈpætiəʊ/ *noun* [C] an outside area with a stone floor next to a house, where people can sit to eat and relax

patriot /ˈpeɪtriət/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who loves their country and is proud of it

patriotic /ˌpeɪtriˈɒtɪk/ *adjective* **POLITICS** showing love for your country and pride in it *patriotic duty* ○ *a patriotic song* ●**patriotism** /ˈpeɪtriətɪzm/ *noun* [U] when you love your country and are proud of it

patrol¹ /pəˈtrəʊl/ *noun* **1** ACT [C, U] the act of looking for trouble or danger around an area or building *We passed a group of soldiers **on patrol**.* ○ *a patrol boat/car* **2** SOLDIERS [C] a group of soldiers or vehicles that patrol an area or building *a border patrol* ○ *an armed patrol*

patrol² /pəˈtrəʊl/ *verb* [I, T] **patrolling**, *past* **patrolled** to look for trouble or danger in an area or around a building *Police patrol the streets night and day.*

patron /ˈpeɪtrᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SUPPORTER someone who supports and gives money to artists, writers, musicians, etc *a generous patron* ○ *a patron of the arts* **2** CUSTOMER a customer at a bar, restaurant, or hotel

patronize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpætrᵊnaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** BEHAVIOUR to speak or behave towards someone as if you were better than them *Don't patronize me! I know what I'm doing.* **2** GO OFTEN *formal* to go to a store, business, etc, especially if you go regularly

ˌpatron ˈsaint *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a saint (= a special, famous Christian) who is believed to help a particular place, person, or activity *St. Christopher is the patron saint of travellers.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pattern***

alter/establish/fall into/follow a pattern ● a **consistent/familiar/traditional** pattern

pattern /ˈpætᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** a particular way that something is often done or repeated *behaviour patterns* **2** **ART** a design of lines, shapes, colours, etc **3** **ART** a drawing or shape that helps you to make something *a dress pattern*

pause /pɔːz/ *verb* [I] to stop doing something for a short time *She **paused for** a moment and looked around her.* ●**pause** *noun* [C] *There was a short pause before he spoke.*

pave /peɪv/ *verb* [T] to cover a path or road with flat stones, bricks, concrete, etc

pavement /ˈpeɪvmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** PATH *UK* (*US* **sidewalk**) a path by the side of a road that people walk on *It's illegal to park on the pavement.* **2** HARD SURFACE *US* the hard surface of a road

pavilion /pəˈvɪljən/ *noun* [C] **1** TENT a large tent that is used for outside events **2** **SPORT** *UK* a building next to a sports field where players can change their clothes **3** BUILDING *US* one of a group of related buildings, such as a hospital

paw /pɔː/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the foot of certain animals, such as cats and dogs ●**paw** (*also* **paw at**) *verb* [T] to touch something with a paw *I could hear the dog pawing at the door.*

pawn¹ /pɔːn/ *noun* [C] **1** CHESS in the game of chess, the smallest piece and the one that has the lowest value **2** PERSON someone who does not have power and is used by other people

pawn² /pɔːn/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to leave something with a pawnbroker, who gives you money for it and will sell it if you do not pay the money back *She pawned her wedding ring to pay the rent.*

pawnbroker /ˈpɔːnˌbrəʊkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** someone who lends you money in exchange for items that they will sell if you cannot pay the money back

pay¹ /peɪ/ *verb past* **paid** **1** BUY [I, T] to give money to someone because you are buying something from them, or because you owe them money *Helen **paid for** the tickets.* ○ *Did you **pay** the telephone **bill?*** ○ *You can pay by cash or credit card.* **2** WORK [I, T] to give someone money for the work that they do *She **gets paid** twice a month.* ○ *People work for them because they pay well.* [+ **two objects**] *We **paid** them £600 **for** the work.* ○ *a paid job* **3** ADVANTAGE [I] to be a good thing to do because it gives you money or an advantage *Crime doesn't pay.* **4** SUFFER [I, T] to suffer because of something bad you have done *He's certainly **paying for** his mistakes.* **5 pay attention** to look at or listen to someone or something carefully *I missed what she was saying because I wasn't paying attention.* **6 pay sb a compliment** to tell someone that you admire something about them **7 pay tribute to sb/sth** to thank someone or say that you admire someone or something, especially in public *He paid tribute to his former teacher.*

8 pay sb/sth a visit; pay a visit to sb/sth to visit a place or a person, usually for a short time

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

pay for something

Remember that **pay** means give money to buy something, it is usually followed by the preposition **for**.

Rachel paid for the meal.

~~*Rachel paid the meal.*~~

pay sb/sth back *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** to pay someone the money that you owe them *Only borrow money if you're sure you can pay it back.* ○ *I lent him £10 last month and he still hasn't paid me back.*
pay sth off *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** to pay all of the money that you owe *I'm planning to pay off my bank loan in five years.*
pay (sth) out *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** to spend a lot of money on something, or to pay a lot of money to someone *I've just paid out £700 to get the car fixed.*
pay up *phrasal verb informal* **FINANCE** to give someone all of the money that you owe them, especially when you do not want to *Come on, pay up!*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pay***

a pay **cheque/cut/raise/rise** ● **rates of** pay

pay² /peɪ/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the money you receive from your employer for doing your job *(UK) a* ***pay rise****/ (US) a* ***pay raise*** *○ good* ***rates of pay***

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

pay, wage, salary, or **income?**

Pay is a general word which means the money that you receive for working.

Doctors usually get more pay than teachers.

A **wage** is an amount of money you receive each day or week. It is often paid in cash (= notes and coins).

His weekly wage is $400.

A **salary** is the money you receive each month. A person's **salary** is often expressed as the total amount in a year.

His salary is £20,000.

Your **income** is the total amount of money that you earn by working or investing money.

She has a monthly income of £1,300.

payable /ˈpeɪəbl/ *adjective* **1** **FINANCE** describes something to be paid *Rent is payable monthly.* **2** **FINANCE** If a cheque (= a piece of paper printed by a bank that you use to pay for things) is payable to a person, that person's name is written on the cheque and the money will be paid to them.

pay-as-you-go /ˌpeɪəzjəˈgəʊ/ *adjective* [always before noun] **FINANCE** describes a system in which you pay for a service before you use it *a pay-as-you-go mobile phone* ●**pay-as-you-go** *noun* [U]

ˈpay ˌchannel *noun* [C] a television channel (= a broadcasting company) that you pay money to watch *Most of the best football matches are on the pay channels.*

ˈpay ˌcheck *noun* [C] *US* **FINANCE** pay cheque

ˈpay ˌcheque *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the amount of money a person earns

payday /ˈpeɪdeɪ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the day on which a worker is paid

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***payment***

make/receive payment ● a **form/method** of payment ● payment **for/of** sth

O-K **payment** /ˈpeɪmənt/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [U] the act of paying *They will accept payment by credit card.* **2** **FINANCE** [C] the amount of money that is paid *monthly payments* ➲See also: **balance of payments, down payment**

pay-per-view /ˌpeɪpəˈvjuː/ *noun* [U] a system in which you choose particular television programmes and then pay to watch them ***pay-per-view television/channels***

ˈpay ˌphone *noun* [C] a telephone in a public place that you pay to use

PC¹ /ˌpiːˈsiː/ *noun* [C] **1** **COMPUTING** a personal computer **2** *UK abbreviation for* police constable (= a police officer of the lowest rank)

PC² /ˌpiːˈsiː/ *adjective* **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* politically correct (= careful to speak or behave in a way which is not offensive to women, people of a particular race, or people who have physical or mental problems)

PDA /ˌpiːdiːˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* personal digital assistant: a small computer that you can carry with you

PDF /ˌpiːdiːˈef/ *abbreviation* **COMPUTING** **1** [U] portable document format: a system for storing and moving documents between computers that usually only allows them to be looked at or printed **2** [C] a document using the PDF system

PE /ˌpiːˈiː/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** *abbreviation for* physical education: classes at school where children do exercise and play sport

pea /piː/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, round, green seed that people eat as a vegetable

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***peace***

bring about/establish/restore peace ● **keep** the peace ● the peace **process** ● a peace **agreement/initiative/treaty**

O-K **peace** /piːs/ *noun* [U] **1** NO VIOLENCE when there is no war, violence, or arguing ***peace talks*** *○ a* ***peace agreement/treaty*** *○ There seems little hope for world peace.* ○ *The UN sent troops to the region to* ***keep the peace.*** **2** QUIET when there is quiet and calm *a feeling of peace* ○ *After a busy day, all I want is* ***peace and quiet.*** ○ *I wish you'd stop complaining and* ***leave me in peace!*** **3** **peace of mind** a feeling that you do not need to worry about anything *We lock our doors and windows at night for peace of mind.* ➲See also: **Justice of the Peace**

O-K **peaceful** /ˈpiːsfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** NO VIOLENCE without violence *a peaceful protest* **2** QUIET quiet and calm *The churchyard was empty and peaceful.* ●**peacefully** *adverb He died peacefully at home.*

peacekeeping /ˈpiːsˌkiːpɪŋ/ *adjective* [always before noun] **POLITICS** relating to the activity of preventing war and violence ***peacekeeping forces****/troops* ○ *a* ***peacekeeping effort/***

P

operation ●**peacekeeper** /ˈpiːsˌkiːpəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone, usually a soldier, who tries to prevent war and violence in countries where there is trouble *UN peacekeepers*

peacetime /ˈpiːstaɪm/ *noun* [U] a time when a country is not at war

peach /piːtʃ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a soft, sweet, round fruit with red and yellow skin

peacock /ˈpiːkɒk/ *noun* [C] a large, male bird with long tail feathers that it can lift up to show a lot of colours

peak¹ /piːk/ *noun* [C] **1** the highest level or value of something *Here we see an athlete* ***at the peak of*** *fitness.* ○ *The price of gold* ***reached its peak*** *during the last recession.* ○ ***peak travel times*** **2** **GEOGRAPHY** the top of a mountain, or the mountain itself ***snow-covered/mountain peaks***

peak² /piːk/ *verb* [I] to reach the highest level or value of something *Her singing career peaked in the 1990s.*

peanut /ˈpiːnʌt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** an oval-shaped nut with a soft, brown shell *salted peanuts* ○ *peanut oil* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

ˌpeanut ˈbutter *UK* (*US* **ˈpeanut ˌbutter**) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a pale brown food made by crushing peanuts *a peanut butter and jelly sandwich*

pear /peəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** an oval-shaped, pale green or yellow fruit ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

pearl /pɜːl/ *noun* [C] a hard, white, round object that is made inside the shell of an oyster (= a sea creature) and that is used to make jewellery *a string of pearls* ○ *a pearl necklace* ○ *pearl earrings*

pear-shaped /ˈpeəʃeɪpt/ *adjective* **go pear-shaped** *UK informal* If a plan goes pear-shaped, it fails.

peasant /ˈpezᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a poor person who works on the land, usually in a poor country *a peasant farmer*

peat /piːt/ *noun* [U] **FARMING** a dark brown soil made from decaying plants that you can burn as fuel or that you can put around living plants to help them grow

pebble /ˈpebl/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a small stone

pecan /ˈpiːkæn/ Ⓤⓢ /pɪˈkɑːn/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a nut that grows on a tree, or the tree itself *chopped pecans* ○ *pecan pie*

peck¹ /pek/ (*also* **peck at**) *verb* [T] If a bird pecks something, it lifts or hits it with its beak. *chickens pecking at corn*

peck² /pek/ *noun* [C] **1 give sb a peck on the cheek** to give someone a quick, gentle kiss on the face **2** when a bird pecks something

peckish /ˈpekɪʃ/ *adjective UK* slightly hungry

ˈpectoral ˌfin *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of the fins (= parts used for swimming) on each side of a fish near the front of its body

peculiar /pɪˈkjuːliəʳ/ *adjective* **1** strange, often in an unpleasant way *The wine had a peculiar, musty smell.* **2 peculiar to sb/sth** belonging to or relating to a particular person or thing *Her accent is peculiar to the region.*

peculiarity /pɪˌkjuːliˈærəti/ *noun* [C] **1** TYPICAL THING something that is typical of a person, place, or thing *Each college has its own traditions and peculiarities.* **2** STRANGE THING a strange or unusual characteristic *My mother always hummed - it was one of her little peculiarities.*

peculiarly /pɪˈkjuːliəli/ *adverb* **1** TYPICAL in a way that is typical of someone or something *a peculiarly American sense of humour* **2** STRANGE in a strange way *The birds were peculiarly quiet just before the earthquake.*

pedagogue /ˈpedəgɒg/ *noun* [C] *formal* **EDUCATION** a teacher, usually a very strict one

pedal /ˈpedᵊl/ *noun* [C] a part of a machine that you press with your foot to operate or move the machine *bicycle pedals* ○ *a* ***gas/brake pedal***

pedant /ˈpedᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone who thinks too much about details and rules ●**pedantic** /pɪˈdæntɪk/ *adjective* thinking too much about details and rules *I hate to be pedantic, but Freud was actually Austrian, not German.*

peddle /ˈpedl/ *verb* [T] to sell things, especially drugs or things of bad quality *The shops on the pier peddled cheap souvenirs to the tourists.* ○ *He was arrested for peddling drugs.*

pedestal /ˈpedɪstᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** the base for a statue (= model of a person or animal) **2 put sb on a pedestal** to believe that someone is perfect

pedestrian¹ /pɪˈdestriən/ *noun* [C] a person who is walking and not travelling in a vehicle *Many streets are reserved for cyclists and pedestrians.* ○ *a pedestrian precinct/crossing*

pedestrian² /pɪˈdestriən/ *adjective formal* ordinary or not interesting *pedestrian ideas* ○ *a pedestrian speech*

peˌdestrian ˈcrossing *UK* (*US* **crosswalk**) *noun* [C] a special place on a road where traffic must stop if people want to cross

pediatrician /ˌpiːdiəˈtrɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *US spelling of* paediatrician

pedicure /ˈpedɪkjʊəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] when someone makes your feet look attractive by cleaning and cutting your nails ➲Compare **manicure**

pedigree¹ /ˈpedɪgriː/ *noun* [C] **1** LIST a list of the parents and other relatives of an animal **2** **SOCIETY** someone's family history, or their education and experience

pedigree² /ˈpedɪgriː/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A pedigree animal has parents and other relatives all from the same breed and is thought to be of high quality. *a pedigree dog*

pee /piː/ *verb* [I] **peeing**, *past* **peed** *informal* to urinate ●**pee** *noun* [**no plural**] *informal Do I have time for a pee before we go?*

peek¹ /piːk/ *verb* [I] to look at something for a short time, often when you do not want other people to see you *I peeked out the window to see who was there.*

peek² /piːk/ *noun* **have/take a peek** to look at something for a short time

peel¹ /pi:l/ *verb* **1** FOOD [T] to remove the skin of fruit or vegetables *Peel and chop the onions.* **2** [I, T] If you peel something from a surface, you remove it and if something peels, it comes away from a surface. *The paint is starting to **peel off** where the wall is damp.* ➲See also: keep your eyes (**eye¹**) open/peeled (for sb/sth)
peel sth off *phrasal verb* to take off clothes, especially wet or tight clothes *We peeled off our muddy socks and left them outside.*

peel² /pi:l/ *noun* [U] FOOD the skin of fruit or vegetables, especially after it has been removed *Combine nuts, sugar, and orange peel in a small bowl.*

peep /pi:p/ *verb* [I] **1 peep at/ through/out, etc** to look at something for a short time, often when you do not want other people to see you *She peeped at them through the fence.* **2 peep through/over/out from, etc** to appear but not be seen completely *The sun peeped out from behind the clouds.* ●**peep** *noun* [**no plural**] *She **took a peep** at herself in the mirror.*

peer¹ /pɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SOCIETY someone who is the same age, or who has the same social position or abilities as other members of a group *Most teenagers want to be accepted by their peers.* **2** POLITICS in the UK, a person who has a title and a high social position

peer² /pɪəʳ/ *verb* **peer at/into/through, etc** to look carefully or with difficulty *She peered at me over her glasses.*

ˈpeer ˌgroup *noun* [C] SOCIETY a group of people of about the same age, social position, etc *He was the first of his peer group to get married.*

ˈpeer ˌpressure *noun* [U] SOCIETY strong influence on a member of a group to behave in the same way as other members in the group, although that behaviour is not good *Many teenagers take drugs because of boredom or peer pressure.*

peg¹ /peg/ *noun* [C] **1** ON WALL an object on a wall or door that you hang things on **2** ON ROPE (*also* **clothes peg**) *UK* a short piece of wood, plastic, etc that is used to hold clothes on a rope while they dry **3** STICK a stick made of metal or wood that has a sharp end and which is used to fix something somewhere *a tent peg*

peg² /peg/ *verb* [T] **pegging**, *past* **pegged** ECONOMICS to fix the cost of borrowing money or the value of a country's money at a particular level [**often passive**] *Interest rates were **pegged at** 8.2 %.*

pellet /ˈpelɪt/ *noun* [C] a small, hard ball of metal, grain, etc *shotgun/feed pellets*

pelvic /ˈpelvɪk/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] ANATOMY relating to the area below your waist and above your legs

pelvis /ˈpelvɪs/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the group of bones that forms the area below your waist and above your legs and to which your leg bones are joined

O-key **pen¹** /pen/ *noun* [C] **1** WRITING TOOL a long, thin object that you use to write or draw in ink ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 **2** FARMING a small area with a fence around it that you keep animals in *a pig/sheep pen* ➲See also: **ballpoint pen, felt-tip pen, fountain pen**

pen² /pen/ *verb* [T] **penning**, *past* **penned** *literary* to write something *sonnets penned by Shakespeare*
pen sb/sth in/up *phrasal verb* to keep people or animals in a small area [**often passive**] *The soldiers were penned up in their barracks.*

penal /ˈpi:nəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] LAW relating to the punishment of criminals *a **penal code/system***

penalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpi:nəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE DISADVANTAGE to cause someone a disadvantage *The present tax system penalizes poor people.* **2** LAW to punish someone for breaking a law or a rule *He was penalized early in the match for dangerous play.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***penalty***

face a penalty ● a **heavy/severe/stiff** penalty ● a penalty **for** (doing) sth

penalty /ˈpenəlti/ *noun* [C] **1** LAW a punishment for doing something which is against a law or rule *There's a £50 **penalty for** late cancellation of tickets.* **2** SPORT in sports, an advantage given to a team when the opposing team has broken a rule *They won a penalty in the first five minutes of the game.* ○ *a **penalty goal/kick*** ➲See also: **death penalty**

penance /ˈpenəns/ *noun* [C, U] RELIGION an act that shows you are sorry for something that you have done

pence /pens/ *noun* ECONOMICS plural of British penny; p

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

pence, pennies, or p?

Pence is the usual plural of penny (UK) and is used to talk about amounts of money. In informal UK English you can also say **p**.

Can you lend me 50 pence?

Can you lend me 50p?

The plural form **pennies** is only used to talk about the coins as objects.

He found some pennies in his pocket.

penchant /ˈpɒnʃɒŋ/ (US) /ˈpentʃənt/ *noun* **have a penchant for sth** *formal* to like something very much *Miguel has a penchant for fast cars.*

O-key **pencil** /ˈpensəl/ *noun* [C, U] ART a long, thin wooden object with a black or coloured point that you write or draw with ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ˈpencil ˌsharpener *noun* [C] a tool that you use to make pencils sharp ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

pendant /ˈpendənt/ *noun* [C] a piece of jewellery on a chain that you wear around your neck

pending¹ /ˈpendɪŋ/ *preposition formal* used to say that one thing must wait until another thing happens *Several employees have been suspended pending an investigation.*

pending² /ˈpendɪŋ/ *adjective formal* not decided or finished *Their court case is still pending.*

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pendulum /ˈpendjʳləm/ *noun* [C] a heavy object on a chain or stick that moves from side to side, especially inside a large clock

penetrate /ˈpenɪtreɪt/ *verb* **1** MOVE INTO [I, T] If something penetrates an object, it moves into that object. *The bullet penetrated his skull.* **2** SUCCEED IN MOVING [T] If someone penetrates a place or a group, they succeed in moving into or joining it. *No one in our industry has successfully penetrated the Asian market.* ●**penetration** /ˌpenɪˈtreɪʃʳn/ *noun* [U]

penetrating /ˈpenɪtreɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** INTELLIGENT intelligent and full of careful thought *a penetrating discussion/mind* ○ *She wrote a penetrating analysis of Shakespeare's Hamlet.* **2 a penetrating gaze/look/stare, etc** If someone gives you a penetrating look, you feel as if they know what you are thinking. **3** STRONG If a sound is penetrating, it is very strong and unpleasant. *a penetrating voice/scream*

penetration pricing *noun* [U] **FINANCE** when a business gives a low price to its product so that people start to buy it, often increasing it later

penguin /ˈpeŋgwɪn/ *noun* [C] a large, black and white sea bird that swims and cannot fly

penicillin /ˌpenɪˈsɪlɪn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a type of medicine that kills bacteria and is used to treat illness

peninsula /pəˈnɪnsjələ/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a long, thin piece of land which has water around most of it *the Korean peninsula*

penis /ˈpiːnɪs/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part of a man's or male animal's body that is used for urinating and having sex

penitentiary /ˌpenɪˈtenʃʳri/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a prison in the US

pennant /ˈpenənt/ *noun* [C] a long, pointed flag

penniless /ˈpenɪləs/ *adjective* having no money

penny /ˈpeni/ *noun* [C] *plural* **pence** or **p** or **pennies 1 ECONOMICS** a coin or unit of money with a value of $^{1}/_{100}$ of a pound (= UK unit of money); p *There are 100 pence in a pound.* ○ *fifty pence/50p* ➲See Common Learner Error at **pence 2 ECONOMICS** a coin with a value of one cent (= $^{1}/_{100}$ of a dollar) *My dad always let us have his pennies to buy candy.* **3 every penny** all of an amount of money *He seemed intent on spending every penny of his salary.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pension***

get/be on/receive a pension ● a pension **fund/plan/scheme** ● a **state/private** pension

pension¹ /ˈpenʃʳn/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** money that is paid regularly by the government or a private company to a person who has stopped working because they are old or ill ***a state/private pension*** ○ ***a pension plan/scheme*** ●**pensioner** *noun* [C] *mainly UK* someone who receives a pension ➲See also: **old-age pension, old-age pensioner**

pension² /ˈpenʃʳn/ *verb*
pension sb off *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** *mainly UK* If an organization pensions someone off, it forces that person to leave their job but pays them a pension.

pentagon /ˈpentəgʳn/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a shape with five sides and five angles

the Pentagon /ˈpentəgɒn/ *noun* **POLITICS** the department of the US government that controls the army, navy, etc, or the building where it is *The Pentagon refused to comment on potential military targets.*

penthouse /ˈpenthaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **penthouses** /ˈpenthaʊzɪz/ an expensive apartment at the top of a building

pent-up /ˌpentˈʌp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Pent-up feelings are feelings that you have not expressed for a long time. *pent-up anger*

penultimate /pəˈnʌltɪmət/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* next to the last *Y is the penultimate letter of the alphabet.*

people¹ /ˈpiːpl/ *noun* **1** [**plural**] more than one person *Our company employs over 400 people.* ○ *People live much longer than they used to.* **2 the people SOCIETY** all the ordinary people in a country *The rebels have gained the support of the people.* **3 SOCIETY** [C] *formal* all the people of a race *Europe is made up of many different peoples.*

people² /ˈpiːpl/ *verb*
be peopled by/with sb *phrasal verb literary* to be filled with a particular kind of person *His novels are peopled with angry young men.*

people carrier *UK* (*US* **minivan**) *noun* [C] a large, high car which can carry more people than a normal car

pepper¹ /ˈpepəʳ/ *noun* **FOOD 1** [U] a black, grey, or red powder that is made from crushed seeds, used to give food a slightly spicy flavour *salt and pepper* **2** [C] a hollow green, red, or yellow vegetable *green/red pepper* ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

pepper² /ˈpepəʳ/ *verb*
pepper sth with sth *phrasal verb* to include a lot of something [**often passive**] *His speech was peppered with quotations.*

peppermint /ˈpepəmɪnt/ *noun* **FOOD 1** [U] oil from a plant that is added to food to give it a strong, fresh taste, or the taste itself *peppermint tea* **2** [C] a small, hard sweet that tastes like peppermint

pepsin /ˈpepsɪn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** an enzyme (= substance made by living cells) in the stomach that helps to change protein (= substance found in meat, cheese, eggs, etc.) to a form that the body can use

peptide /ˈpeptaɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical that is made of two or more amino acids (= the substances which combine to form protein)

per *strong form* /pɜːʳ/ *weak form* /pəʳ/ *preposition* for each *Our hotel room costs $60 per night.* ○ *The speed limit is 100 kilometres per hour.* ○ *The wedding dinner will cost £30* ***per head*** (= for each person).

per annum /pɜːrˈænʌm/ *adverb formal* every year *a salary of $19,000 per annum*

per capita /pɜːˈkæpɪtə/ *adjective, adverb formal* for each person *This county has the lowest per capita income in the country.* ○ *Belgians eat*

more chocolate per capita than any other nation in Europe.

perceive /pə'siːv/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** THINK to think of something or someone in a particular way [**often passive**] *The British are often perceived as being very formal.* **2** NOTICE to notice something that is not easy to notice *We perceived a faint light in the distance.*

percent (*also* **per cent**) /pə'sent/ *adjective, adverb* **MATHEMATICS** for or out of every 100, shown by the symbol % *a 40 percent increase in prices* ●**percent** (*also* **per cent**) *noun* [C] *Nearly 70 percent of all cars in the UK are less than five years old.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***percentage***

a **high/large/small** percentage ● the percentage **of** sth

percentage /pə'sentɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** an amount of something, expressed as a number out of 100 *The **percentage of** women who work has risen steadily.* ○ *The **percentage of** people who are left-handed is small - only about 10%.*

perceptible /pə'septəbl/ *adjective formal* just able to be noticed *a **perceptible difference** in colour* ○ *His pulse was barely perceptible.*

perception /pə'sepʃˢn/ *noun* **1** BELIEF [C] what you think or believe about someone or something *The **public perception** of him as a hero is surprising.* **2** NOTICE [U] the ability to notice something *Alcohol reduces your perception of pain.*

perceptive /pə'septɪv/ *adjective* quick to notice or understand things *a perceptive writer*

perch¹ /pɜːtʃ/ *verb* **1 perch (sth) on/in/above, etc** to be in a high position or in a position near the edge of something, or to put something in this position [**often passive**] *The village was perched on the side of a mountain.* ○ *She wore glasses perched on the end of her nose.* **2 perch on/in, etc** to sit near the edge of something *The children perched on the edges of their seats.*

perch² /pɜːtʃ/ *noun* [C] a place where a bird sits, especially a stick inside a cage

percolate /'pɜːkˢleɪt/ *verb* [I] If a liquid percolates, it moves slowly through a substance that has very small holes. *Sea water percolates down through the rocks.*

percussion /pə'kʌʃˢn/ *noun* [U] **MUSIC** musical instruments that make a sound when you hit them with a stick or your hand *Drums, tambourines, and cymbals are percussion instruments.*

perennial¹ /pˢr'eniəl/ *adjective* happening again and again, or continuing for a long time *the perennial problem of unemployment*

perennial² /pˢr'eniəl/ *noun* [C] a plant that lives for several years

perestroika /ˌperə'strɔɪkə/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the political, social and economic changes which happened in the USSR during the late 1980s

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***perfect***

If something is perfect because it has no mistakes or anything bad, then you can use adjectives such as **faultless**, **flawless**, **immaculate**, and **impeccable**: *They gave a **faultless/immaculate** performance.* ● *His English is **impeccable**.* ● *She has a **flawless** complexion.*

The adjectives **ideal** and **tailor-made** are sometimes used to describe something that is perfect for a particular purpose: *The book is **ideal** for children aged between four and six.* ● *It sounds as if she's **tailor-made** for the job.*

In informal situations, if you want to describe something such as a job, house, etc, which is perfect for you, you can use the expression **dream job**, **dream home**, etc: *A pretty cottage in the Suffolk countryside - that would be my **dream home**.*

perfect¹ /'pɜːfɪkt/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT FAULT without fault, or as good as possible *James is a perfect husband and father.* ○ *Her performance was perfect.* **2** SUITABLE exactly right for someone or something *You'd be **perfect for** the job.* ○ *The weather's just perfect for a picnic.* **3** TO EMPHASIZE [**always before noun**] used to emphasize a noun *His suggestion makes perfect sense.*

perfect² /pə'fekt/ *verb* [T] to make something as good as it can be *I've spent hours perfecting my speech.*

perfection /pə'fekʃˢn/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is perfect *She strives for perfection in everything she does.* ○ *chicken legs cooked to perfection*

perfectionist /pə'fekʃənɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who wants everything to be perfect

perfectly /'pɜːfɪktli/ *adverb* **1** TO EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the word that follows it *To be perfectly honest, I don't care any more.* ○ *I made it perfectly clear to him what I meant.* **2** VERY WELL in a perfect way *The jacket fits perfectly, the skirt not so well.*

the perfect /'pɜːfɪkt/ (*also* **the ˌperfect 'tense**) *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb that is used to show an action that has happened in the past or before another time or event. In English, the perfect is made with 'have' and a past participle. ➲See also: **the future perfect, the past perfect, the present perfect**

perforated /'pɜːfəreɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** WITH HOLES Perforated materials such as paper have small holes in them so that they can be torn or liquid can pass through them. **2** **HEALTH** If an organ of your body is perforated, it has a hole in it. *a perforated eardrum* ●**perforate** *verb* [T]

perform /pə'fɔːm/ *verb* **1** ENTERTAIN [I, T] to entertain people by acting, singing, dancing, etc *She has performed all over the world.* ○ *The orchestra will perform music by Mozart.* **2** DO [T] *formal* to do a job or a piece of work *In the future, many **tasks** will be **performed** by robots.* ○ *Surgeons **performed** the **operation** in less than two hours.* **3 perform well/badly, etc** If something performs well, badly, etc, it works

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that way. *These cars perform poorly at high speeds.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***performance***

give/put on a performance ● a **brilliant/virtuoso/wonderful** performance

performance /pəˈfɔːməns/ *noun* **1** ENTERTAINMENT [C] acting, singing, dancing, or playing music to entertain people *a performance of Shakespeare's Hamlet* **2** SUCCESS [U] how successful someone or something is *The company's performance was poor for the first two years.* ○ *Some athletes take drugs to improve their performance.*

performer /pəˈfɔːmər/ *noun* [C] someone who entertains people

the performing arts *noun* [plural] **EDUCATION** types of entertainment that are performed in front of people, such as dancing, singing, and acting

perfume /ˈpɜːfjuːm/ *noun* [C, U] a liquid with a pleasant smell that women put on their skin ●**perfumed** *adjective* containing perfume

perhaps /pəˈhæps/ *adverb* **1** POSSIBLY possibly *Perhaps I'll go to the gym after work.* ○ *Ben won't be coming but perhaps it's better that way.* **2** USED TO SUGGEST used when you want to suggest or ask someone something *Perhaps you should leave now.*

pericarp /ˈperɪkɑːp/ *noun* [C usually singular] **BIOLOGY** the layer which grows around the seed of a plant and forms the skin and flesh of the fruit

peril /ˈperəl/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* extreme danger *A shortage of firefighters is putting lives* ***in peril***. ○ *His book describes* ***the perils of*** *war.*

perilous /ˈperələs/ *adjective formal* very dangerous *a perilous journey* ●**perilously** *adverb*

perimeter /pəˈrɪmɪtər/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the outer edge of an area *the perimeter of the airport*

period /ˈpɪəriəd/ *noun* [C] **1** a length of time *a 24-hour period* ○ *a period of four months* **2** **EDUCATION** one of the equal parts of time that a school day or sports game is divided into **3** **BIOLOGY** when blood comes out of a woman's uterus each month **4** **LANGUAGE** *US* (*UK* **full stop**) a mark (.) used at the end of a sentence, or to show that the letters before it are an abbreviation ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

periodic /ˌpɪəriˈɒdɪk/ *adjective* happening regularly *Our sales team makes periodic trips to Asia.* ●**periodically** *adverb*

periodical /ˌpɪəriˈɒdɪkəl/ *noun* [C] a magazine about a particular subject

the Periodic Table *noun* [no plural] **CHEMISTRY** a list of the symbols of all the chemical elements arranged in rows and columns down a page

peripheral¹ /pəˈrɪfərəl/ *adjective* not as important as someone or something else

peripheral² /pəˈrɪfərəl/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a piece of equipment, such as a printer, that can be connected to a computer

periphery /pəˈrɪfəri/ *noun* [C] the outer edge of an area *The soldiers were camped* ***on the periphery*** *of the village.*

perish /ˈperɪʃ/ *verb* [I] *literary* to die *Hundreds of people perished in the flood.*

perishable /ˈperɪʃəbl/ *adjective* **FOOD** Food that is perishable goes bad very quickly.

peristalsis /ˌperɪˈstælsɪs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the repeated movements made in the tube that carries food away from the stomach, which push food and waste through the body

perjury /ˈpɜːdʒəri/ *noun* [U] **LAW** the crime of telling a lie in a court of law *The witness was accused of* ***committing perjury***.

perk¹ /pɜːk/ *noun* [C] an advantage, such as money or a car, that you are given because of your job [**usually plural**] *A mobile phone is one of the perks of the job.*

perk² /pɜːk/ *verb*
perk (sb) up *phrasal verb* to start to feel happier, or to make someone feel happier *A cup of coffee always perks me up in the morning.*

perm /pɜːm/ *noun* [C] the use of chemicals on someone's hair to make it have curls for several months, or the hair style that is made in this way *I'm thinking of* ***having a perm***. ●**perm** *verb* [T]

permanence /ˈpɜːmənəns/ *noun* [U] when something continues forever or for a long time

permanent /ˈpɜːmənənt/ *adjective* continuing forever or for a long time *permanent damage* ○ *a permanent job* ●**permanently** *adverb He moved here permanently in 1992.*

permeable /ˈpɜːmiəbl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS, BIOLOGY, GEOLOGY** If a substance is permeable, it allows liquids or gases to go through it. ➲Opposite **impermeable**

permeate /ˈpɜːmieɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to move gradually into every part of something *The pungent smell of vinegar permeated the air.* ○ *Drug dealers have permeated every level of society.*

permissible /pəˈmɪsəbl/ *adjective formal* allowed by the rules [**+ to do sth**] *It is not permissible to smoke inside the building.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***permission***

ask for/give/grant/obtain/receive/refuse/seek permission ● permission **for** sth

permission /pəˈmɪʃən/ *noun* [U] when you allow someone to do something *She* ***gave him permission*** *without asking any questions.* [**+ to do sth**] *He has permission to stay in the country for one more year.* ○ *They even have to* ***ask for permission*** *before they go to the toilet.* ○ *He took the car* ***without permission***.

permissive /pəˈmɪsɪv/ *adjective* allowing people to behave in ways which other people may not approve of *permissive attitudes*

permit¹ /pəˈmɪt/ *verb* **permitting**, *past* **permitted** **1** ALLOW [T] *formal* to allow something [**often passive**] *Photography is not permitted inside the museum.* [**+ to do sth**] *He permitted them to leave.* **2** MAKE POSSIBLE [I] to make something possible *The match starts at 3 p.m.,* ***weather permitting***.

permit² /ˈpɜːmɪt/ *noun* [C] an official document that allows you to do something *a **work permit*** ○ *You need a permit to park your car here.*

pernicious /pəˈnɪʃəs/ *adjective formal* very harmful

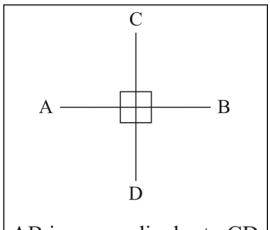

perpendicular

perpendicular /ˌpɜːpᵊnˈdɪkjʊləʳ/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS at an angle of 90 degrees to something

perpetrate /ˈpɜːpɪtreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to do something very bad [**often passive**] *They heard of torture perpetrated by the army.*

perpetrator /ˈpɜːpɪtreɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who has done something very bad *There is great public pressure to bring the **perpetrators of** these crimes to justice.*

perpetual /pəˈpetʃuəl/ *adjective* never ending *He seems to be in a **perpetual state** of confusion.* ●**perpetually** *adverb*

perpetuate /pəˈpetʃueɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something continue, especially something bad *People think of him as a cruel man, an image perpetuated by the media.*

perplexed /pəˈplekst/ *adjective* confused *He seemed a little perplexed by the question.* ●**perplex** *verb* [T]

perplexing /pəˈpleksɪŋ/ *adjective* confusing *a perplexing problem*

persecute /ˈpɜːsɪkjuːt/ *verb* [T] to treat someone unfairly or cruelly because of their race, religion, or beliefs [**often passive**] *He was persecuted for his religious beliefs.* ●**persecution** /ˌpɜːsɪˈkjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] ***political/religious persecution***

persecutor /ˈpɜːsɪkjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who persecutes people

perseverance /ˌpɜːsɪˈvɪəᵊns/ *noun* [U] when you persevere *Hard work and perseverance do pay off in the end.*

persevere /ˌpɜːsɪˈvɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] to continue to try to do something although it is difficult *Despite the difficulties, I decided to **persevere with** the project.*

persist /pəˈsɪst/ *verb* [I] **1** CONTINUE TO EXIST If an unpleasant feeling or situation persists, it continues to exist. *If symptoms persist, consult a doctor.* **2** CONTINUE TO DO to continue to do something although it is annoying other people *He **persists in** calling me Jane, even though I've corrected him twice.*

persistence /pəˈsɪstᵊns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something persists

persistent /pəˈsɪstᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** THING Something unpleasant that is persistent continues for a long time or is difficult to get rid of. *a persistent cough* **2** PERSON A persistent person continues to do something although other people do not want them to. *He can be very persistent sometimes.* ●**persistently** *adverb He has persistently lied to us.*

O-K **person** /ˈpɜːsᵊn/ *noun plural* **people 1** [C] a human being *You're the only person I know here.* ○ *He is a very dangerous person.* **2 in person** If you do something in person, you go somewhere to do it yourself. *If you can't be there in person the next best thing is watching it on TV.* ➲See also: **the first person, the second person, the third person**

persona /pəˈsəʊnə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **personae** or **personas** the way your character seems to other people *He's trying to improve his **public persona**.*

O-K **personal** /ˈpɜːsᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** RELATING TO A PERSON [**always before noun**] relating to or belonging to a particular person *I can only speak from my own **personal experience.*** ○ *Please ensure you take all **personal belongings** with you when you leave the train.* ○ *This is a personal view and not that of the government.* **2** PRIVATE relating to the private parts of someone's life, including their relationships and feelings *He's got a few **personal problems** at the moment.* ○ *She prefers to keep her personal and professional lives separate.* **3** FOR ONE PERSON [**always before noun**] designed for or used by one person *a personal computer/stereo* ○ *a personal loan/pension* **4** RUDE rude about or offensive towards someone *I know you're upset, but there's no need to **get personal*** (= start making offensive remarks). **5** BODY [**always before noun**] relating to your body ***personal hygiene***

personal computer (*abbreviation* **PC**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer designed for one person to use

personal digital assistant (*abbreviation* **PDA**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a small computer that you can carry with you

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***personality***

a **bubbly/forceful/outgoing/warm** personality

O-K **personality** /ˌpɜːsᵊnˈælətɪ/ *noun* **1** CHARACTER [C] the way you are as a person *She's got a lovely, **bubbly personality**.* **2** FAMOUS [C] a famous person *a well-known TV personality* **3** INTERESTING [U] the quality of having a very strong or interesting character *Sales people need a lot of personality.*

personalized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈpɜːsənᵊlaɪzd/ *adjective* A personalized object has someone's name on it, or has been made for a particular person. *a personalized fitness plan* ●**personalize** *verb* [T]

personally /ˈpɜːsənᵊli/ *adverb* **1** BY YOU done by you and not someone else *I'd like to personally apologize for the delay.* **2** OPINION used when you are going to give your opinion *Personally, I'd rather stay at home and watch TV.* **3 take sth personally** to think that someone is

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criticizing you when they are not *You mustn't take everything so personally.*

personal organizer *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small book or computer containing a calendar, address book, etc ➲See: **PDA**

personal pronoun *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word that is used to refer to a person in speech or in writing. For example the words 'I', 'you', and 'they' are personal pronouns.

personal stereo *noun* [C] a small machine that plays music and which has headphones (= small parts that go in the ears) so that you can listen to music while you are walking

personal trainer *noun* [C] **SPORT** a person whose job is to help you improve the shape of your body by showing you what exercises to do

personify /pəˈsɒnɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] If someone personifies a particular quality, they are a perfect example of that quality. *She seems to personify honesty and goodness.* ●**personified** *adjective* [**always after noun**] *Tom has always been laziness personified.* ●**personification** /pəˌsɒnɪfɪˈkeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U]

personnel /ˌpɜːsˁnˈel/ *noun* **1** WORKERS [**plural**] the people who work for an organization *military personnel* **2** DEPARTMENT [U] the department of an organization that deals with finding people to work there, keeping records about them, etc *I need to speak to someone in Personnel.* ○ *the personnel manager*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***perspective***

from sb's perspective ● **from** a [historical/political, etc] perspective ● perspective **on** sth

perspective /pəˈspektɪv/ *noun* **1** [C] the way you think about something *Being unemployed has made me see things **from a** different **perspective**.* **2 ART** [U] when things are drawn so that they appear to be a realistic size and in a realistic position **3 put sth in/into perspective** If something puts a problem into perspective, it makes you understand how unimportant that problem is.

perspicacious /ˌpɜːspɪˈkeɪʃəs/ *adjective formal* quick in noticing, understanding, or judging things accurately

perspiration /ˌpɜːspˁrˈeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U] *formal* **BIOLOGY** the liquid that comes out of your skin when you get hot

perspire /pəˈspaɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] *formal* **BIOLOGY** to produce liquid through your skin because you are hot or nervous

O-K **persuade** /pəˈsweɪd/ *verb* [T] to make someone agree to do something by talking to them a lot about it [**+ to do sth**] *We managed to persuade him to come with us.* [**+ (that)**] *I persuaded her that it was the right thing to do.* ➲Opposite **dissuade**

persuasion /pəˈsweɪʒˁn/ *noun* **1** PERSUADE [U] when you persuade someone *I'm sure she'll agree, she just needs a little **gentle persuasion**.* **2** BELIEF [C] *formal* a political, religious, or moral belief *There were people of all persuasions there.*

persuasive /pəˈsweɪsɪv/ *adjective* able to make people agree to do something *It's a very **persuasive argument**.* ●**persuasively** *adverb*

pertain /pəˈteɪn/ *verb*
pertain to sth *phrasal verb formal* to relate to something *Some important evidence pertaining to the case has been overlooked.*

pertinent /ˈpɜːtɪnənt/ *adjective formal* relating directly to a subject *a **pertinent question***

perturbed /pəˈtɜːbd/ *adjective* worried or upset *He seemed slightly perturbed by the news.* ●**perturb** *verb* [T]

peruse /pəˈruːz/ *verb* [T] *formal* to look at or read something in order to find what interests you

pervade /pəˈveɪd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to move gradually through every part of something *Cheap perfume and tobacco pervaded the room.*

pervasive /pəˈveɪsɪv/ *adjective formal* moving into or through everywhere or everything *a pervasive smell* ○ *the **pervasive influence** of television*

perverse /pəˈvɜːs/ *adjective* strange and not what most people would expect or enjoy *In a perverse way, I enjoy going to the dentist.* ●**perversely** *adverb*

perversion /pəˈvɜːʃˁn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** SEX getting sexual pleasure in a way that seems strange or unpleasant **2** WRONG when something that is right is changed into something that is wrong *the perversion of justice*

pervert¹ /ˈpɜːvɜːt/ *noun* [C] someone who gets sexual pleasure in a strange or unpleasant way

pervert² /pəˈvɜːt/ *verb* [T] to change something that is right into something that is wrong *They were charged with conspiracy to **pervert the course of justice**.*

perverted /pəˈvɜːtɪd/ *adjective* relating to getting sexual pleasure in a strange or unpleasant way

pessimism /ˈpesɪmɪzˁm/ *noun* [U] when you believe bad things will happen ➲Opposite **optimism**

pessimist /ˈpesɪmɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who always believes that bad things will happen *Don't be such a pessimist!*

pessimistic /ˌpesɪˈmɪstɪk/ *adjective* always believing that bad things will happen *He was feeling **pessimistic about** the future.* ➲Opposite **optimistic**

pest /pest/ *noun* [C] **1 FARMING** an animal that causes damage to plants, food, etc *Most farmers think foxes are pests.* **2** *informal* an annoying person

PEST analysis /ˈpestəˌnæləsɪs/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a document that shows how the political, economic, social and technological situation will affect a business

pester /ˈpestəʳ/ *verb* [T] to annoy someone by asking them something again and again [**+ to do sth**] *He's been pestering me to go out with him all week.*

pesticide /ˈpestɪsaɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **FARMING** a chemical that is used to kill insects which damage plants

pet¹ /pet/ *noun* [C] an animal that someone keeps in their home *my pet rabbit*

pet² /pet/ *verb* [T] **petting**, *past* **petted** ANIMAL to touch an animal because you feel affection for it

petal /ˈpetᵊl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of the thin, flat, coloured parts on the outside of a flower *rose petals* ➲See picture at **flower**

peter /ˈpiːtəʳ/ *verb*
peter out *phrasal verb* to gradually stop or disappear *The track petered out after a mile or so.*

ˌpet ˈhate *UK* (*US* **ˌpet ˈpeeve**) *noun* [C] something that annoys you a lot *That's one of my pet hates - people who smoke while other people are eating.*

petite /pəˈtiːt/ *adjective* A petite woman is small and thin in an attractive way.

petition¹ /pəˈtɪʃᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] **POLITICS** to officially ask someone in authority to do something [+ **to do sth**] *They are petitioning the government to increase funding for the project.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***petition***

launch/organize/sign a petition ● a petition **against/(calling) for** sth

petition² /pəˈtɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a document that has been signed by a lot of people officially asking someone in authority to do something *Will you sign this **petition against** experiments on animals?*

Petri dish /ˈpetriˌdɪʃ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY** a small clear round dish with a cover, which is used in scientific tests, especially for growing bacteria

petrified /ˈpetrɪfaɪd/ *adjective* extremely frightened *I'm **petrified of** spiders.*

petrol /ˈpetrᵊl/ *UK* (*US* **gas**) *noun* [U] a liquid fuel used in cars *unleaded petrol*

petroleum /pəˈtrəʊliəm/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** thick oil found under the Earth's surface which is used to produce petrol and other substances

ˈpetrol ˌstation *UK* (*US* **gas station**) *noun* [C] a place where you can buy petrol

petticoat /ˈpetɪkəʊt/ *noun* [C] a thin piece of women's clothing worn under a dress or skirt

petty /ˈpeti/ *adjective* **1** UNIMPORTANT [**always before noun**] unimportant or not serious ***petty crime*** **2** COMPLAINING [**never before noun**] complaining too much about unimportant things *You can be so petty sometimes!*

ˌpetty ˈcash *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a small amount of money that you keep in an office and use for buying small things for the company *Take the money for stamps out of petty cash.*

petty ˈcash ˌvoucher *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a piece of paper on which an employee writes what they have bought and how much it cost so that the employee can take that amount of money from petty cash

petulant /ˈpetʃələnt/ *adjective* behaving in an angry, silly way like a child

pew /pjuː/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a long seat in a church

pewter /ˈpjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [U] a blue-grey metal

pH /ˌpiːˈeɪtʃ/ *noun* [C **usually singular**] **CHEMISTRY, MEASURES** a number which shows how strongly acid or alkaline a substance is, in a range from 0 to 14 *Below pH 6.5 is acid, above pH 7.5 is alkaline.*

phage /feɪdʒ/ (*also* **bacteriophage**) *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a virus (= organism that causes disease) that grows and divides inside a bacterium

phagocyte /ˈfægəʊsaɪt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a cell that gets rid of bacteria and other cells that cause harm by absorbing them ➲See picture at **blood cells**

phantom¹ /ˈfæntəm/ *noun* [C] the spirit of a dead person

phantom² /ˈfæntəm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] imagined, not real *phantom pains*

pharaoh /ˈfeərəʊ/ *noun* [C] a king of ancient Egypt

pharmaceutical /ˌfɑːməˈsjuːtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** relating to the production of medicines *a **pharmaceutical company*** ○ *the **pharmaceutical industry*** ●**pharmaceuticals** *noun* [**plural**] medicines

pharmacist /ˈfɑːməsɪst/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone who is trained to prepare or sell medicines

pharmacy /ˈfɑːməsi/ *noun* **HEALTH** **1** [C] a shop or part of a shop that prepares and sells medicines **2** [U] the study of the preparation of medicines

pharynx /ˈfærɪŋks/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the soft part at the top of the throat which connects the mouth and nose to the throat ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***phase***

enter/go through a phase ● a **passing** phase ● a phase **of** sth

phase¹ /feɪz/ *noun* [C] a stage or period which is part of a longer period *The first phase of the project is scheduled for completion next year.* ○ *My younger daughter is **going through** a **phase** of only wearing black.*

phase² /feɪz/ *verb*
phase sth in *phrasal verb* to gradually start using a new system, process, or law *The new tax will be phased in over five years.*
phase sth out *phrasal verb* to gradually stop using something

PhD /ˌpiːeɪtʃˈdiː/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** an advanced university qualification, or a person who has this qualification *a PhD course/programme* ○ *Maria has **a PhD in** mathematics.*

pheasant /ˈfezᵊnt/ *noun* [C] *plural* **pheasants** or **pheasant** **FOOD** a bird with a long tail that is shot for food

phenomenal /fɪˈnɒmɪnᵊl/ *adjective* extremely successful or showing great qualities or abilities *The film has been a phenomenal success.* ●**phenomenally** *adverb*

phenomenon /fɪˈnɒmɪnən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **phenomena** something that exists or happens, usually something unusual *storms, lightning, and other **natural phenomena*** ○ *Road rage seems to be a fairly recent phenomenon.*

P

phenotype /ˈfiːnəʊtaɪp/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** all the qualities of a living thing, especially the qualities that you can see, for example the colour of the hair and eyes, the weight, etc. ➲Compare **genotype**

pheromone /ˈferəməʊn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a chemical that an animal sends into the air or water, whose purpose is to make other animals of the same type do a particular thing, for example to be attracted to them sexually

phew (*also* **whew**) /fjuː/ *exclamation* used when you are happy that something is not going to happen, or when you are tired or hot

philanthropist /fɪˈlænθrəpɪst/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** someone who gives money to people who need help

-phile /-faɪl/ *suffix* makes a noun meaning 'enjoying or liking something' *a Francophile* (= someone who loves France) ○ *a bibliophile* (= someone who loves books)

philosopher /fɪˈlɒsəfəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who studies or writes about the meaning of life

philosophical /ˌfɪləˈsɒfɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** PHILOSOPHY relating to the study or writing of philosophy *a philosophical problem/question* **2** CALM accepting unpleasant situations in a calm and wise way *She seems fairly* ***philosophical about*** *the failure of her marriage.* ●**philosophically** *adverb*

philosophy /fɪˈlɒsəfi/ *noun* **1** IDEAS [C, U] the study or writing of ideas about the meaning of life, or a particular set of ideas about the meaning of life *Descartes is considered by many to be the father of modern philosophy.* **2** WAY OF THINKING [C] a way of thinking about what you should do in life *My philosophy has always been to give those with ability the chance to progress.*

phishing /ˈfɪʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** the practice of sending emails to people to trick them into giving information that would let someone take money from their Internet bank account (= an arrangement with your bank to keep your money there and take it out when you need it)

phlegm /flem/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a thick liquid produced in your lungs, throat, and nose when you have a cold (= common illness that makes you sneeze)

phlegmatic /fleɡˈmætɪk/ *adjective formal* Someone who is phlegmatic is calm and does not get excited easily.

phloem /ˈfləʊem/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the part of a plant that carries food from the leaves to other parts where the food is needed ➲Compare **xylem** ➲See picture at **leaf** ➲See picture at **stem**

-phobe /-fəʊb/ *suffix* someone who hates something *a commitment-phobe* (= a person who hates commitment)

phobia /ˈfəʊbiə/ *noun* [C] an extreme fear of something *My mum's got a* ***phobia about*** *birds.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***phone***

answer/pick up the phone ● **put** the phone **down** ● a phone **rings** ● **by/over** the phone ● a phone **bill/company/conversation**

phone¹ /fəʊn/ (*also* **telephone**) *noun* **1** SYSTEM [U] a communication system that is used to talk to someone who is in another place *We'll contact you* ***by phone*** *when we get the results.* **2** EQUIPMENT [C] a piece of equipment that is used to talk to someone who is in another place *Would someone please* ***answer the phone?*** ○ *I could hear the* ***phone ringing.*** **3 on the phone a** USING PHONE using the phone *She's been on the phone all night.* **b** HAVING A PHONE *UK* when you have a phone ➲See also: **cellular phone, mobile phone, pay phone**

phone² /fəʊn/ (*also* **phone up**) *verb* [I, T] to communicate with someone by telephone *I tried to phone her last night, but she was out.* ○ *I'm going to phone for a taxi.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **telephone**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

phone or **call?**

In British English the verbs **phone** or **call** are used to mean communicate with someone by telephone. You can also use the expressions 'give someone a ring/call' or 'ring (someone)'.

I'll phone you tomorrow.

I'll give you a ring tomorrow.

I'll ring you tomorrow.

In American English **call** is the usual verb which means telephone someone.

Call me later.

I'll call you tomorrow.

ˈphone ˌbook *noun* [C] a book that contains the telephone numbers of people who live in a particular area

ˈphone ˌbox *UK* (*US* **ˈphone ˌbooth**) *noun* [C] a small structure containing a public telephone

ˈphone ˌcall *noun* [C] when you use the telephone *Will you excuse me, I've got to* ***make a phone call.***

ˈphone ˌcard *noun* [C] a small piece of plastic used to pay for the use of some telephones

phone-in /ˈfəʊnɪn/ *UK* (*US* **call-in**) *noun* [C] a television or radio programme in which the public can ask questions or give opinions over the telephone

ˈphone ˌnumber *noun* [C] the number of a particular telephone

phonetic /fəʊˈnetɪk/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** relating to the sounds you make when you speak *the international phonetic alphabet* ●**phonetically** *adverb*

phonetics /fəˈnetɪks/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** the study of the sounds made by the human voice in speech

phoney¹ *UK* (*US* **phony**) /ˈfəʊni/ *adjective informal* not real *He gave the police a phoney number.*

phoney² *UK* (*US* **phony**) /ˈfəʊni/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who is not sincere ●**phoney** *UK* (*US* **phony**) *adjective informal* a phoney smile

ˌphoney ˈwar *noun* [C usually singular] **POLITICS** a period during a war when there is no fighting and the situation appears calm

phosphate /ˈfɒsfeɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical that is used in cleaning products and to help plants grow

phosphorescent /ˌfɒsfəˈresənt/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** giving off light after radiation has hit it

phosphorus /ˈfɒs.fər.əs/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element, especially a poisonous yellow-white element that shines in the dark and burns when it is in the air (symbol **P**)

photo /ˈfəʊtəʊ/ *noun* [C] a picture produced with a camera *a **black-and-white/colour photo** ○ I **took** a **photo** of Jack lying on the beach.*

photochemical /ˌfəʊtəʊˈkemɪkəl/ *adjective* **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** relating to the effect of light on some chemicals

photochemical smog *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** a fog caused by light from the sun shining on chemicals in the air that have been produced by cars and factories

photocopier /ˈfəʊtəʊˌkɒpiər/ *noun* [C] a machine which produces copies of documents by photographing them ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

photocopy /ˈfəʊtəʊˌkɒpi/ *noun* [C] a copy of a document made with a photocopier *I **made** a **photocopy** of my letter before sending it.* ●**photocopy** *verb* [T]

photoelectric cell /ˌfəʊtəʊɪˌlektrɪkˈsel/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment that reacts if a beam of light is broken, used for example in devices to catch thieves entering buildings

photogenic /ˌfəʊtəʊˈdʒenɪk/ *adjective* Someone who is photogenic has the type of face that looks attractive in a photograph.

photograph¹ /ˈfəʊtəɡrɑːf/ *noun* [C] a picture produced with a camera *a **black-and-white/colour photograph** ○ He **took** a lovely **photograph of** the children in the garden.*

photograph² /ˈfəʊtəɡrɑːf/ *verb* [T] to take a photograph of someone or something *They were photographed leaving a nightclub together.*

photographer /fəˈtɒɡrəfər/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to take photographs

photographic /ˌfəʊtəˈɡræfɪk/ *adjective* [always before noun] relating to photographs *photographic equipment/film* ○ ***photographic** evidence*

photography /fəˈtɒɡrəfi/ *noun* [U] the activity or job of taking photographs

photometer /fəʊˈtɒmɪtər/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment used by scientists to measure the strength of light

photometry /fəʊˈtɒmətri/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the measurement of the strength of light

photosynthesis /ˌfəʊtəʊˈsɪntθəsɪs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the process by which a plant uses the energy from the light of the sun to make its own food

phototropism /fəʊtɒˈtrəpɪzəm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the way that plants grow or move towards light or away from light

photovoltaic cell /ˌfəʊtəʊvɒlteɪkˈsel/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a device that changes light from the sun into electricity

phrasal verb /ˌfreɪzəlˈvɜːb/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a verb together with an adverb or preposition which has a different meaning to the meaning of its separate parts. For example 'look up' and 'carry on' are phrasal verbs. ➲See Extra help page **Phrasal verbs** on page Centre 26. ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

phrase¹ /freɪz/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a group of words which are often used together and have a particular meaning

phrase² /freɪz/ *verb* [T] **LANGUAGE** to express something by choosing to use particular words *It might have been better if he had phrased it differently.*

phylum /ˈfaɪləm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of the groups into which animals are divided, based generally on the shape of the animal's body and the way that the body is arranged

physical¹ /ˈfɪzɪkəl/ *adjective* **1** BODY relating to the body ***physical fitness/strength*** ○ *People put too much emphasis on **physical appearance*** (= what you look like). **2** THINGS [always before noun] relating to real things that you can see and touch *There was no physical evidence linking Jones to Shaw's murder.*

physical² /ˈfɪzɪkəl/ *US* (*UK* **medical**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an examination of your body by a doctor to find out if you are healthy

physically /ˈfɪzɪkəli/ *adverb* in a way that relates to the body ***physically attractive/fit***

ˌphysical ˈtherapist *US* (*UK/US* **physiotherapist**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone whose job is to give people physical therapy

ˌphysical ˈtherapy *US* (*UK/US* **physiotherapy**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** treatment for illness or injury in which you practise moving parts of your body

physician /fɪˈzɪʃən/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** *formal* a doctor

physicist /ˈfɪzɪsɪst/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** someone who studies physics

physics /ˈfɪzɪks/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the scientific study of natural forces, such as energy, heat, light, etc

physio /ˈfɪziəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *UK informal* **HEALTH** *short for* physiotherapy or physiotherapist

physiological /ˌfɪziəˈlɒdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** relating to how the bodies of living things work

physiology /ˌfɪziˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the scientific study of how the bodies of living things work

physiotherapist /ˌfɪziəʊˈθerəpɪst/ (*also US* **physical therapist**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone whose job is to give people physiotherapy

physiotherapy /ˌfɪziəʊˈθerəpi/ (*also US* **physical therapy**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** treatment for illness or injury in which you practise moving parts of your body

physique /fɪˈziːk/ *noun* [C] the shape and size of your body *He has a very muscular physique.*

pianist /ˈpiːənɪst/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who plays the piano

P

piano /pi'ænəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a large wooden musical instrument with strings inside and black and white bars that produce sounds when you press them ➲See also: **grand piano**

pick¹ /pɪk/ *verb* [T] **1** CHOOSE to choose something or someone *Do you want to help me pick some numbers for my lottery ticket?* ○ *I was never picked for the school football team.* **2** FLOWERS/FRUIT, ETC If you pick flowers, fruit, etc, you take them off a tree or out of the ground. *I picked some apples this morning.* **3** REMOVE to remove small pieces from something with your fingers *You'll have to let the glue dry and then you can pick it off.* **4 pick a fight/argument** to start a fight or argument with someone **5 pick sb's pocket** to steal something from someone's pocket ➲See also: have a **bone**¹ to pick with sb

pick at sth *phrasal verb* **1 FOOD** to only eat a small amount of your food because you are worried or ill *He picked at his food but had no appetite.* **2** REMOVE to remove small pieces from something with your fingers *If you keep picking at that scab it'll never heal.*

pick on sb *phrasal verb* to choose a person and criticize or treat them unfairly *He just started picking on me for no reason.*

pick sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to choose someone or something from a group of people or things *She picked out a red shirt for me to try on.*

pick sth/sb up *phrasal verb* **1** LIFT to lift something or someone by using your hands *He picked his coat up off the floor.* ○ *Just pick up the phone and call him.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **2** COLLECT to collect someone who is waiting for you, or to collect something that you have left somewhere *Can you pick me up from the airport?*

pick sth up *phrasal verb* **1** GET to get something *She picked up some real bargains in the sale.* **2** LEARN to learn a new skill or language by practising it and not by being taught it *He hadn't done any skiing before the holiday, but he picked it up really quickly.* **3 HEALTH** to get an illness from someone or something *She picked up a nasty stomach bug while she was on holiday.* **4** SIGNAL If a piece of equipment picks up a signal, it receives it. *Antennas around the top of the ship picked up the radar signals.* **5** NOTICE to notice something *Police dogs picked up the scent of the two men from clothes they had left behind.*

pick sb up *phrasal verb* **1** RELATIONSHIP to start talking to someone in order to try to begin a romantic relationship with them **2** POLICE If the police pick someone up, they take that person to the police station.

pick up *phrasal verb* **1** SITUATION If a business or social situation picks up, it improves. *Business is really starting to pick up now.* **2** WIND If the wind picks up, it becomes stronger.

pick up sth *phrasal verb* If a vehicle picks up speed, it starts to go faster.

pick² /pɪk/ *noun* **1** [C] a sharp metal stick used to break hard ground or rocks **2 the pick of sth** the best of a group of things or people **3 have/take your pick** to choose what you want *We've got tea, coffee, or hot chocolate - take your pick.*

picket /'pɪkɪt/ (*also* **'picket ˌline**) *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a group of people who stand outside a building in order to show their anger about something and to try to stop people going inside ●**picket** *verb* [I, T] *Protesters picketed cinemas across the whole country.*

'picket ˌfence *noun* [C] *US* a low fence made from a row of sticks that are pointed at the top

pickle /'pɪkl/ *noun* **FOOD 1** [C, U] *UK* food which has been put into vinegar or salt water for a long time and has a sour taste *cold meat and pickles* **2** [C] *US* a small cucumber (= a green, cylindrical vegetable) that has been put in vinegar or in a liquid containing salt and spices ●**pickled** *adjective pickled onions*

pickpocket /'pɪkˌpɒkɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who steals things from people's pockets

pickup /'pɪkʌp/ (*also* **'pickup ˌtruck**) *noun* [C] *US* a small, open truck

picky /'pɪki/ *adjective informal* Someone who is picky does not like many things. *a **picky eater***

picnic /'pɪknɪk/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a meal that you make and take with you somewhere to eat outside *We're going to **have a picnic** down by the lake.* ●**picnic** *verb* [I] **picnicking**, *past* **picnicked**

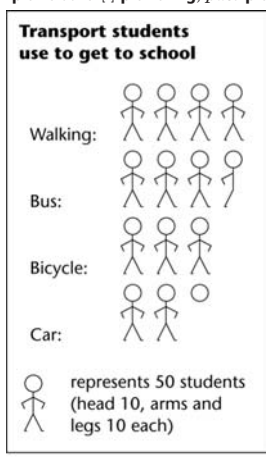

pictogram

pictogram /'pɪktəgræm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a graph that uses simple pictures to show amounts ➲See Extra help page **Graphs and charts** on page Centre 21.

pictorial /pɪk'tɔːriəl/ *adjective* relating to pictures or shown using pictures

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***picture***

draw/paint a picture ● **take** a picture ● a picture **of** sb/sth ● **in** a picture

picture¹ /'pɪktʃə/ *noun* [C] **1 ART** a drawing, painting, or photograph of something or someone *to **draw/paint a picture*** ○ *She's got pictures of pop stars all over her bedroom wall.* ○ *Did you **take** many **pictures*** (= photograph many things) *while you were in Sydney?* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

2 IDEA an idea of what something is like [**usually singular**] *I've got a much clearer picture of what's happening now.* **3** TV the image on a television screen *I'm afraid it's not a very good picture.* **4** FILM a film *Could this be the first animated film to win a best picture award?* **5 the pictures** *old-fashioned* the cinema *I really fancy going to the pictures tonight.* **6 get the picture** *informal* used to say that someone understands a situation *Oh right, I get the picture.* **7 paint a bleak/rosy, etc picture of sth** to describe something in a particular way *She paints a rosy* (= happy) picture of family life. **8 put/keep sb in the picture** *informal* to explain to someone what is happening *Jim had no idea what was going on till I put him in the picture.*

picture² /ˈpɪktʃər/ *verb* [T] **1** IMAGINE to imagine something in a particular way *The house isn't at all how I had pictured it.* **2** SHOW to show someone or something in a picture [**often passive**] *They were pictured holding hands on the beach.*

ˈpicture ˌmessaging *noun* [C] sending and receiving pictures on a mobile phone

picturesque /ˌpɪktʃərˈesk/ *adjective* A picturesque place is attractive to look at. *a picturesque cottage on the edge of the Yorkshire Moors*

pie /paɪ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a type of food made with meat, vegetables, or fruit which is covered in pastry and baked *apple/meat pie* ➲See also: **mince pie**

O-K **piece¹** /piːs/ *noun* [C] **1** AMOUNT/PART an amount of something, or a part of something *a **piece of** paper/wood* ○ *She cut the flan into eight pieces.* ○ *Some of the pieces seem to be missing.* ○ *These shoes are **falling to pieces*** (= breaking into pieces). ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2** ONE one of a particular type of thing *a useful **piece of equipment*** **3** SOME some of a particular type of thing *a **piece of news/information*** ○ *Can I give you a **piece of advice?*** **4 ART, LITERATURE, MUSIC** an example of artistic, musical, or written work *There was an interesting piece on alternative medicine in the paper yesterday.* **5 FINANCE ten-/twenty-, etc pence piece** a coin with a value of ten/twenty, etc pence (= British money) **6 be a piece of cake** *informal* to be very easy *The test was a piece of cake.* **7 give sb a piece of your mind** *informal* to speak angrily to someone because they have done something wrong **8 go/fall to pieces** If someone goes to pieces, they become so upset that they cannot control their feelings or think clearly. *He went to pieces when his mother died.* ➲See also: **set-piece**

piece² /piːs/ *verb*
piece sth together *phrasal verb* to try to understand something or discover the truth about something by collecting different pieces of information *Police are trying to piece together a profile of the murderer.*

piecemeal /ˈpiːsmiːl/ *adjective, adverb* happening very gradually *The land is being sold in a **piecemeal fashion** over a number of years.*

piecework /ˈpiːswɜːk/ *noun* [U] work for which the amount of money you are paid depends on the number of things you have finished and not the time you have spent working

pier /pɪə/ *noun* [C] a long structure that is built from the land out over the sea and sometimes has entertainments, restaurants, etc on it

pierce /pɪəs/ *verb* [T] **1** HOLE to make a hole in something using a sharp point *I'd like to have my **ears pierced**.* **2** LIGHT/SOUND *literary* If a light or a sound pierces something, it is suddenly seen or heard. *A few rays of sunlight pierced the bedroom shutters.*

piercing /ˈpɪəsɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** STRONG A piercing noise, light, etc is very strong and unpleasant. *I heard a loud, **piercing scream**.* **2** EYES Piercing eyes seem to look at you very closely.

piety /ˈpaɪəti/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** a strong belief in religious morals

O-K **pig¹** /pɪg/ *noun* [C] **1 FARMING** a large pink, brown, or black farm animal that is kept for its meat **2** PERSON *informal* someone who is very unpleasant, or someone who eats a lot *He's an ignorant pig.* ➲See also: **guinea pig**

pig² /pɪg/ *verb* **pigging**, *past* **pigged**
pig out *phrasal verb informal* to eat too much *We **pigged out on** the cakes and pastries.*

pigeon /ˈpɪdʒən/ *noun* [C] a grey bird which often lives on buildings in towns

pigeonhole¹ /ˈpɪdʒənhəʊl/ *noun* [C] one of a set of small open boxes in which letters or messages are left, especially in an office or hotel

pigeonhole² /ˈpɪdʒənhəʊl/ *verb* [T] If you pigeonhole someone, you unfairly decide what type of person they are.

piggyback /ˈpɪgibæk/ (*also* **ˈpiggyback ˌride**) *noun* [C] a way of carrying someone on your back in which they put their arms and legs around you

piggy bank /ˈpɪgi,bæŋk/ *noun* [C] a small container, often in the shape of a pig, used by children to keep money in

pigheaded /ˌpɪgˈhedɪd/ *adjective* refusing to change your opinion or the way you are doing something although it would be better if you did

piglet /ˈpɪglət/ *noun* [C] a baby pig

pigment /ˈpɪgmənt/ *noun* [C, U] a substance that gives something colour ●**pigmentation** /ˌpɪgmənˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U] the natural colour of a living thing

pigsty /ˈpɪgstaɪ/ (*also US* **pigpen** /ˈpɪgpen/) *noun* [C] **FARMING** a place where pigs are kept

pigtail /ˈpɪgteɪl/ *noun* [C] a hairstyle in which the hair is twisted together and tied [**usually plural**] *A little girl in pigtails presented the flowers.*

pike /paɪk/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **pike** a large river fish with sharp teeth, or the meat of this fish

Pilates /ˌpɪˈlɑːtiːz/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a system of physical exercise involving controlled movements, stretching and breathing

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pile***

a pile **of** sth ● **be in/put** sth **into** a pile

O-K **pile¹** /paɪl/ *noun* **1** [C] an amount of a substance in the shape of a small hill or a number of

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objects on top of each other *a **pile of** books/bricks* ○ *a **pile of** sand/rubbish* ○ *The clothes were arranged **in piles** on the floor.* **2 a pile of sth/piles of sth** *informal* a lot of something *It's all right for him, he's got piles of money.*

pile² /paɪl/ *verb*
pile in/out *phrasal verb informal* to enter/leave a place quickly and not in an organized way *She opened the door and we all piled in.*
pile sth up *phrasal verb* to make a lot of things into a pile by putting them on top of each other *Please cold you just pile those books up over there.*
pile up *phrasal verb* If something unpleasant piles up, you get more of it. *My work's really starting to pile up.*

pile-up /ˈpaɪlʌp/ *noun* [C] an accident involving several cars

pilfer /ˈpɪlfəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to steal things that do not have much value

pilgrim /ˈpɪlgrɪm/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who travels to a place which is important in their religion

pilgrimage /ˈpɪlgrɪmɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** a journey to a place which has religious importance *to **go on** a **pilgrimage** to Mecca*

pill /pɪl/ *noun* **HEALTH** **1** [C] a small, hard piece of medicine that you swallow *a vitamin pill* ○ *I've **taken** a couple of **pills**, but my headache still hasn't gone.* **2 the pill** a pill which prevents a woman from becoming pregnant ➲See also: **sleeping pill**

pillar /ˈpɪləʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] a tall structure made of stone, wood, etc which supports something above it *The new bridge will be supported by 100 concrete pillars.* **2 a pillar of sth** someone or something who is very important to a place, organization, etc *He was a pillar of the local community.*

pillow /ˈpɪləʊ/ *noun* [C] a soft object which you rest your head on in bed

pillowcase /ˈpɪləʊkeɪs/ *noun* [C] a cloth cover for a pillow

pilot /ˈpaɪlət/ *noun* [C] someone who flies an aircraft ●**pilot** *verb* [T]

pimple /ˈpɪmpl/ *noun* [C] a small spot on your skin ●**pimply** *adjective* ➲See also: **goose pimples**

pin¹ /pɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR CLOTH a thin piece of metal with a sharp point used to fasten pieces of cloth, etc together *She pricked her finger on a pin.* **2** FOR FASTENING a thin piece of metal, wood, plastic, etc that holds or fastens things together *He's had a metal pin put in his leg so that the bones heal properly.* ➲See also: **drawing pin, pins and needles, rolling pin, safety pin**

pin² /pɪn/ *verb* [T] **pinning**, *past* **pinned** **1** to fasten something with a pin *We're not allowed to **pin** anything **on** these walls.* ○ *She had a red ribbon **pinned to** her collar.* **2 pin sb to/against/under, etc** to force someone to stay in a position by holding them *They pinned him to the ground.* ➲See also: pin your hopes (**hope²**) on sb/sth
pin sb down *phrasal verb* **1** DETAILS to make someone give you details or a decision about something *I've been trying to get a decision from Jim, but he's very difficult to pin down.* **2** HOLD DOWN to force someone to stay in a horizontal position by holding them *They pinned him down on the floor.*
pin sth down *phrasal verb* to discover exact details about something *Investigators are trying to pin down the cause of the fire.*
pin sth on sb *phrasal verb informal* to blame someone for something they did not do *They tried to pin the murder on the dead woman's husband.*
pin sth up *phrasal verb* to fasten something to a wall using a pin *The exam results have been pinned up on the noticeboard.*

PIN /pɪn/ (*also* ˈ**PIN ˌnumber**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** *abbreviation for* Personal Identification Number: the secret number that allows you to use a bank card in a machine

pinafore /ˈpɪnəfɔːʳ/ *UK* (*US* **jumper**) *noun* [C] a loose dress with no sleeves that is worn over other clothes such as a shirt

pincer /ˈpɪnsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of a pair of curved hand-like parts of an animal such as a crab (= round, flat sea animal with ten legs)

pinch¹ /pɪnʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** PRESS to press someone's skin tightly between your thumb and first finger, sometimes causing pain *One of the kids had been pinching her and she was crying.* **2** STEAL *mainly UK informal* to steal something that does not have much value *Who's pinched my ruler?*

pinch² /pɪnʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** SMALL AMOUNT a small amount of a substance that you pick up between your thumb and your first finger *a **pinch of salt*** **2** PRESS when you press part of the body or an area of skin tightly between your thumb and first finger **3 at a pinch** *UK* (*US* **in a pinch**) If something can be done at a pinch, it is possible but it is difficult. *We can fit ten round the table, at a pinch.* **4 feel the pinch** to have problems because you do not have enough money ➲See also: take sth with a pinch of **salt¹**

pinched /pɪnʃt/ *adjective* A pinched face looks thin and ill.

pine¹ /paɪn/ *noun* **1** TREE [C, U] (*also* ˈ**pine ˌtree**) a tall tree with long, thin leaves shaped like needles **2** WOOD [U] the pale coloured wood from this tree

pine² /paɪn/ (*also* **pine away**) *verb* [I] to be sad because you want someone or something that has gone away *He's **pining for** his ex-girlfriend.*

pineapple /ˈpaɪnæpl/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a large fruit with thick skin and sharp leaves sticking out of the top which is sweet and yellow inside

pinecone /ˈpaɪnˌkəʊn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a hard, brown, oval object that grows on pine and fir trees (= tall trees which stay green all winter)

ping /pɪŋ/ *verb* [I] to make a short, high noise like a bell *They could hear the microwave pinging in the kitchen.* ●**ping** *noun* [C]

pink /pɪŋk/ *adjective* being a pale red colour *pretty, pink flowers* ●**pink** *noun* [C, U] ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

pinnacle /ˈpɪnəkl/ *noun* [**no plural**] the highest or best part of something *At 35, she is at **the pinnacle of** her career.*

pinnate /ˈpɪneɪt/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** describes a type of leaf which has a central stem with small leaves arranged on both sides of it

pinpoint /ˈpɪnpɔɪnt/ *verb* [**T**] to say exactly what or where something is *It is difficult to pinpoint the exact time of death.*

ˌpins and ˈneedles *noun* **have pins and needles** **HEALTH** to feel slight sharp pains in a part of your body when you move it after keeping it still for a period of time

pint /paɪnt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **MEASURES** (*written abbreviation* **pt**) a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 0.568 litres in the UK and 0.473 litres in the US ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **2** *UK informal* a pint of beer

pin-up /ˈpɪnʌp/ *noun* [**C**] an attractive, famous person who is often in big photographs which people stick to their walls, or the photograph of that person

pioneer /ˌpaɪəˈnɪər/ *noun* [**C**] someone who is one of the first people to do something *one of the pioneers of modern science* ●**pioneer** *verb* [**T**] *He pioneered the use of lasers in surgery.*

pioneering /ˌpaɪəˈnɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] starting the development of something important ***pioneering work/research** on atomic energy*

pious /ˈpaɪəs/ *adjective* **RELIGION** having strong religious beliefs, and living or behaving in a way which shows these beliefs

pip¹ /pɪp/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* **BIOLOGY** a small seed inside fruit such as apples and oranges

pip² /pɪp/ *verb* [**T**] **pipping**, *past* **pipped** *UK informal* to beat someone by a very small amount

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pipe***

a pipe **leads/runs** [from/to, etc] sth ● a pipe **bursts/leaks** ● **through** a pipe

pipe¹ /paɪp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** TUBE a long tube which liquid or gas can move through *A water **pipe** had **burst**, flooding the basement.* **2** FOR SMOKING a tube with a bowl-shaped part at one end, used to smoke tobacco *to smoke a pipe* ➲See also: **exhaust pipe**

pipe² /paɪp/ *verb* [**T**] to send something through a pipe *Water is piped from a spring to houses in the local area.*
pipe down *phrasal verb informal* to stop making noise and become quieter
pipe up *phrasal verb informal* to suddenly say something *Then Lydia piped up with her view of things.*

pipeline /ˈpaɪplaɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a series of pipes that carry liquid or gas over a long distance **2 be in the pipeline** If a plan is in the pipeline, it is being developed and will happen in the future. *We have several projects in the pipeline.*

pipette /pɪˈpet/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY** a thin glass tube used especially in science for measuring or moving a small amount of liquid ➲See picture at **laboratory**

piping /ˈpaɪpɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] a piece of pipe *copper piping*

ˌpiping ˈhot *adjective* **FOOD** Piping hot food is very hot.

piquant /ˈpiːkənt/ *adjective formal* **FOOD** having a pleasant, spicy taste

pique¹ /piːk/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* when someone is annoyed

pique² /piːk/ *verb* **piquing**, *past* **piqued** **pique sb's curiosity/interest, etc** to make someone interested in something

piqued /piːkt/ *adjective* annoyed

piracy /ˈpaɪərəsi/ *noun* [**U**] **1** SHIPS attacking and stealing from ships **2** MUSIC/FILMS the illegal activity of copying and selling music, films, etc *software/video piracy*

pirate¹ /ˈpaɪərət/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SHIPS someone who attacks ships and steals from them **2** MUSIC/FILMS someone who illegally copies and sells music, films, etc

pirate² /ˈpaɪərət/ *verb* [**T**] **LAW** to illegally copy and sell music, films, etc

pirate³ /ˈpaɪərət/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **LAW** illegally copied *a pirate CD/DVD*

Pisces /ˈpaɪsiːz/ *noun* [**C, U**] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 20 February - 20 March, or a person born during this period

pistil /ˈpɪstɪl/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** the female part of a flower, consisting of one or more carpels (= the female organs which produce seeds)

pistol /ˈpɪstəl/ *noun* [**C**] a small gun

piston /ˈpɪstən/ *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a part of an engine that moves up and down and makes other parts of the engine move

pit¹ /pɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** HOLE a large hole which has been dug in the ground **2** **BIOLOGY** *US* (*UK* **stone**) a large, hard seed that grows inside some types of fruit and vegetables **3** **GEOLOGY** (*also US* **ˈpit ˌmine**) a place where coal is dug out from under the ground **4 the pits** **SPORT** *UK* (*US* **the pit**) the place where racing cars stop to be repaired or filled with fuel during a race **5 be the pits** *informal* to be very bad *Our hotel was the absolute pits.*

pit² /pɪt/ *verb* **pitting**, *past* **pitted**
pit sb/sth against sb/sth *phrasal verb* to make someone or something compete against someone or something else *Chelsea will be pitted against Manchester United in the fourth round of the tournament.*

pitch¹ /pɪtʃ/ *verb* **1** LEVEL [**T**] to make something suitable for a particular level or group of people [**often passive**] *His talk was **pitched at** slightly too high a level for the audience.* **2** PERSUADE [**I, T**] *mainly US* to try to persuade someone to do something *They are **pitching for** new business at the moment.* **3 pitch (sb/sth) forward/into, etc** to suddenly move in a particular direction, or to make someone or something suddenly move in a particular direction *He braked too hard and the car pitched forward.* **4 pitch a tent** to choose a place for a tent and put it there **5** **SPORT** [**I, T**] in baseball, to throw the ball towards the person who is going to hit it *He used to pitch for the Chicago White Sox.* **6** **MUSIC** [**T**] to make sound at a particular level *The tune was pitched much too high for me.*
pitch in *phrasal verb informal* to help a group of people to do some work that needs to be

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done *If we all pitch in, we'll get this kitchen cleaned up in no time.*

pitch² /pɪtʃ/ *noun* **1** SPORT [C] *UK* an area of ground where a sport is played *a cricket/football pitch* **2** SPORT [C] in baseball, a throw towards the person who is going to hit the ball *He struck out two batters with six pitches.* **3** MUSIC [U] how high or low a sound is **4** [C, U] the things someone says in order to persuade you to do something *I wasn't very impressed by his* ***sales pitch.*** ➲See also: **fever pitch**

pitch-black /ˌpɪtʃˈblæk/ (*also* **pitch-dark**) *adjective* very dark *Outside it was pitch-black.*

pitcher /ˈpɪtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT in baseball, someone who throws the ball at the person who is going to hit it ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **2** *US* a container for holding and pouring out liquids *a pitcher of water*

pitfall /ˈpɪtfɔːl/ *noun* [C] a likely mistake or problem in a situation *the pitfalls of buying a house*

pithy /ˈpɪθi/ *adjective* A pithy remark expresses something in a very clear and direct way.

pitiful /ˈpɪtifᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SAD making you feel pity *I didn't recognize him, he looked so pitiful.* **2** BAD very bad *a pitiful excuse* ●**pitifully** *adverb*

pittance /ˈpɪtᵊns/ *noun* [**no plural**] a very small amount of money *She works very long hours and yet she* ***earns a pittance.***

pituitary gland /pɪˈtjuːɪtᵊriˌglænd/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] ANATOMY a small organ at the bottom of the brain which controls how the body grows and develops by producing hormones ➲See picture at **brain**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pity***

feel pity ● **take** pity **on** sb ● pity **for** sb

pity¹ /ˈpɪti/ *noun* **1 It's a pity...** used to say that something is disappointing *It's a pity you're not staying longer.* **2** [U] a feeling of sympathy for someone *I was hoping someone would* ***take pity on*** *me* (= help me in a difficult situation) *and give me a lift home.* ➲See also: **self-pity**

pity² /ˈpɪti/ *verb* [T] to feel sorry for someone *She doesn't want people to pity her.*

pivot /ˈpɪvət/ *noun* [C] **1** PHYSICS a fixed point on which something balances or turns **2** the most important part of something ●**pivot** *verb* [I, T]

pivotal /ˈpɪvətᵊl/ *adjective* having a very important influence on something *He has played a* ***pivotal role*** *in the negotiations.*

pixel /ˈpɪksᵊl/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a small point that forms part of the image on a computer screen

pixie /ˈpɪksi/ *noun* [C] a small imaginary person who can do magic things

pizza /ˈpiːtsə/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a food made from a flat, round piece of bread covered with cheese, vegetables, etc and cooked in an oven ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

placard /ˈplækɑːd/ *noun* [C] a large sign with writing that someone carries, often to show that they disagree with something

placate /pləˈkeɪt/ (US) /ˈpleɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make someone less angry about something

place¹ /pleɪs/ *noun* **1** SOMEWHERE [C] a position, building, town, area, etc *His leg's broken in two places.* ○ *Edinburgh would be a nice place to live.* ○ *What a stupid place to park.* **2 take place** to happen *The meeting will take place next week.* **3 in place a** CORRECT POSITION in the correct position *The chairs are all in place.* **b** EXISTING If a rule, system, etc is in place, it has started to exist. *There are now laws in place to prevent this from happening.* **4 out of place a** WRONG POSITION not in the correct position *Why are my files all out of place?* **b** NOT SUITABLE not right or suitable for a particular situation *Everyone else was wearing jeans and I felt completely out of place in my office clothes.* **5 all over the place** in or to many different places *There was blood all over the place.* **6 in place of sth** instead of something *Try adding fruit to your breakfast cereal in place of sugar.* **7** HOME [C] *informal* someone's home *They've just bought a place in Spain.* **8** OPPORTUNITY [C] an opportunity to take part in something *She's got a place at Liverpool University to do Spanish.* **9 in first/second/third, etc place** If you are in first/second, etc place in a race or competition, that is your position. *He finished in fifth place.* **10 fall into place** When events or details that you did not understand before fall into place, they become easy to understand. **11 in the first place** used to refer to the time when something started *How did this error happen in the first place?* **12 put sb in their place** to let someone know that they are not as important as they think they are ➲See also: **decimal place,** have/take **pride¹** of place

place² /pleɪs/ *verb* **1 place sth in/on, etc** to put something somewhere carefully *She placed a large dish in front of me.* **2** [T] to cause someone to be in a situation *One stupid action has placed us all at risk.* **3 can't place sb** to not be able to remember who someone is or where you have met them *I recognize her face, but I can't quite place her.* **4 place an advertisement/bet/order, etc** to arrange to have an advertisement, bet, order, etc **5 place emphasis/importance, etc on sth** to give something emphasis, importance, etc *They place a lot of importance on qualifications.*

placebo /pləˈsiːbəʊ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a substance that is not a medicine but which a patient takes, thinking it is a medicine. The purpose of a placebo is either to make a patient feel better because they think they have been treated, or to compare the effect of no medicine with the effect of medicine when it is given to other patients.

placement /ˈpleɪsmənt/ *noun* **1** WORK [C] *UK* a position that someone has with an organization for a short time in order to learn about the work that is done there *He got a month's placement on a national newspaper.* **2** PUT [U, **no plural**] when you put something or someone somewhere *the placement of additional police on the streets*

placenta /pləˈsenˌtə/ *noun* [U, C] BIOLOGY, ANATOMY the organ that feeds a baby as it is developing inside its mother, or the part that provides food for a seed in a plant ➲See picture at **carpel** ➲See picture at **foetus**

ˈplace ˌvalue *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** the value of a number decided by its position, for instance whether it is a one, a ten, a hundred, etc

placid /ˈplæsɪd/ *adjective* A placid person is calm and does not often get angry or excited. ●**placidly** *adverb*

plagiarism /ˈpleɪdʒᵊrɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **LAW** when someone copies someone else's work or ideas *He was accused of plagiarism.*

plagiarize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpleɪdʒᵊraɪz/ *verb* [I, T] **LAW** to copy someone else's work or ideas ●**plagiarist** /ˈpleɪdʒᵊrɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who plagiarizes

plague¹ /pleɪg/ *noun* [C] **1 HEALTH** a serious disease that spreads quickly and kills a lot of people **2 a plague of sth** a large number of something unpleasant that causes a lot of damage *a plague of rats*

plague² /pleɪg/ *verb* [T] **plaguing**, *past* **plagued** to make someone suffer for a long time [**often passive**] *He's been plagued by bad luck ever since he bought that house.*

plaice /pleɪs/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a sea fish with a flat circular body, or this fish eaten as food

plain¹ /pleɪn/ *adjective* **1** SIMPLE simple and not complicated *plain food* **2** NOT MIXED not mixed with other colours, substances, etc *a plain blue carpet* ○ *plain yoghurt* **3** PERSON A plain person is not attractive to look at. **4** OBVIOUS obvious and clear [**+ (that)**] *It's quite plain that she doesn't want to talk to me about it.* ➲See also: be plain **sailing**

plain² /pleɪn/ *adverb informal* **plain stupid/wrong, etc** completely stupid/wrong, etc *That's just plain stupid!*

plain³ /pleɪn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a large area of flat land

plainclothes /ˈpleɪnˌkləʊθz/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Plainclothes police wear normal clothes and not a uniform.

plainly /ˈpleɪnli/ *adverb* **1** SIMPLY in a simple way that is not complicated *plainly dressed* **2** OBVIOUSLY in a clear and obvious way *This is plainly wrong.*

plaintiff /ˈpleɪntɪf/ *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who takes legal action against someone else in a court of law

plaintive /ˈpleɪntɪv/ *adjective* sounding sad *a plaintive cry*

plait /plæt/ *UK* (*US* **braid**) *verb* [T] to twist three pieces of hair, rope, etc together so that they form one long piece ●**plait** *UK* (*US* **braid**) *noun* [C] *She wore her hair in plaits.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***plan***

announce/approve/implement/oppose/outline/unveil a plan ● an **ambitious/controversial/strategic** plan

plan¹ /plæn/ *noun* [C] **1** ARRANGEMENT an arrangement for what you intend to do or how you intend to do something *the country's economic plan* ○ *Do you have any* ***plans for*** *the weekend?* ○ *The plan is that we'll buy a car once we're there.* ○ *There's been a* ***change of plan*** *and we're going on Wednesday instead.* ○ *Luckily, everything went* ***according to plan*** (= happened the way it was planned). **2** DRAWING a drawing that shows how something appears from above or will appear from above when it is built *a street plan.* ○ *We had a designer draw up a plan for the yard.*

plan² /plæn/ *verb* **planning**, *past* **planned 1** THINK AND DECIDE to think about and decide what you are going to do or how you are going to do something *We're just planning our holidays.* ○ *As a manager, you've got to* ***plan ahead.*** ○ *I'd* ***planned*** *the meeting* ***for*** *Friday.* **2 plan to do sth** to intend to do something *He plans to go to college next year.* **3** DESIGN [T] to decide how something will be built *We got an architect to help us plan our new kitchen.*

plan on doing sth *phrasal verb* to intend to do something *We're planning on catching the early train.*

plan sth out *phrasal verb* to think about and decide what you are going to do or how you are going to do something *Have you planned out your journey?* ○ *I'm just planning out my day.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***plane***

board/catch/get on/get off a plane ● a plane **gets in/lands/takes off** ● **on** a plane ● **by** plane

plane¹ /pleɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** FLYING a vehicle that flies and has an engine and wings *What time does her* ***plane get in*** (= arrive)*?* ○ *He likes to watch the* ***planes taking off*** *and* ***landing.*** ○ *a plane crash* **2 DT** a tool that you use to make wood smooth **3 MATHEMATICS** in mathematics, a flat surface

plane² /pleɪn/ *verb* [T] **DT** to make a piece of wood smooth using a tool called a plane

planet /ˈplænɪt/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a large, round object in space that moves around the sun or another star *Jupiter is the largest planet of our solar system.* ●**planetary** *adjective* relating to planets

planetarium /ˌplænɪˈteᵊriəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **planetariums** or **planetaria** **ASTRONOMY** a building that has a machine for showing the positions and movements of the stars and planets

planimeter /plænˈɪmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a piece of equipment for measuring the area of a flat shape by moving a point around its edge ●**planimetric** /ˌplænɪˈmetrɪk/ *adjective*

plank /plæŋk/ *noun* [C] a long, flat piece of wood *wooden planks*

plankton /ˈplæŋktən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** very small plants and animals in the sea that are eaten by fish and other sea creatures

ˌplanned eˈconomy *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** an economic system in which industry is controlled by the government and government makes all decisions about what to do with the money made

planner /ˈplænəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to plan things, especially which buildings are built in towns *urban planners*

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planning /ˈplænɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** DECISIONS the activity of thinking about and deciding what you are going to do or how you are going to do something *Events like these take months of careful planning.* **2** BUILDINGS control over which buildings are built in an area *town planning* ➲See also: **family planning**

plant¹ /plɑːnt/ *noun* [C] **1 BIOLOGY** a living thing that grows in the soil or water and has leaves and roots, especially one that is smaller than a tree *Have you **watered the plants?*** ○ *tomato plants* **2** FACTORY a large factory where an industrial process happens *a nuclear power plant* ➲See also: **potted plant**

plant² /plɑːnt/ *verb* [T] **1 FARMING** to put seeds or plants in the ground so that they will grow *to **plant bulbs/seeds/trees*** **2** SECRETLY to secretly put something in a place that will make someone seem guilty *She insisted that the drugs had been **planted on** her without her knowledge.* **3 plant a bomb** to put a bomb somewhere so that it will explode there **4 plant sth in/next/on, etc** to put something firmly in a particular place *He planted himself next to me on the sofa.* **5** IDEA/DOUBTS to make someone start thinking something *I was confident till you **planted doubts** in my mind.*

plantation /plænˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] **1 FARMING** an area of land in a hot country where a crop is grown *a banana/cotton/sugar plantation* **2** an area of land where trees are grown to produce wood

plaque /plɑːk/ *noun* **1** [C] a flat piece of metal or stone with writing on it which is fixed to a wall, often in order to make people remember a dead person **2 HEALTH** [U] a harmful substance that forms on your teeth

plasma /ˈplæzmə/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the clear liquid part of blood which contains the blood cells

ˈplasma ˌscreen *noun* [C] a screen for showing very clear words or pictures which uses special gases pressed between two flat pieces of glass

plasmolysis /plæzˈmɒləsɪs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when protoplasm (= clear liquid in all living cells) shrinks back from cell walls because of lack of water

plaster¹ /ˈplɑːstəʳ/ *noun* **1** [U] a substance that is spread on walls in order to make them smooth **2 HEALTH** [C] *UK* (*US* **Band-Aid** *trademark*) a small piece of sticky material that you put on cuts on your body **3 be in plaster HEALTH** *UK* (*US* **be in a cast**) If your arm or leg is in plaster, it is covered in a hard, white substance to protect a broken bone.

plaster² /ˈplɑːstəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** COVER to cover most of a surface with something *My boots were **plastered with** mud.* **2** WALL to cover a wall with a substance in order to make it smooth

plastered /ˈplɑːstəd/ *adjective informal* very drunk

plastic /ˈplæstɪk/ *noun* [C, U] a light, artificial substance that can be made into different shapes when it is soft and is used in a lot of different ways *Most children's toys are made of plastic.* ●**plastic** *adjective a **plastic bag***

plasticity /plæsˈtɪsəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* the quality of being soft enough to make into many different shapes

ˌplastic ˈsurgery *noun* [U] **HEALTH** operations on someone's face or body to make them more attractive *to have plastic surgery*

ˈplastic ˌwrap *US* (*UK* **clingfilm**) *noun* [U] thin, transparent plastic used for wrapping or covering food

plate /pleɪt/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C] a flat, round object which is used for putting food on *a **dinner plate*** ○ *a plate of biscuits* **2** METAL/GLASS [C] a flat piece of metal or glass *I had a metal plate put in my knee after the accident.* **3 gold/silver plate** metal with a thin layer of gold or silver on top **4** PICTURE [C] a picture in a book ➲See also: **L-plate, license plate, number plate 5 GEOLOGY** one of the large pieces of rock that form the surface of the Earth

plateau /ˈplætəʊ/ US /plæˈtəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural UK* **plateaux** or *also US* **plateaus 1 GEOGRAPHY** a large area of high, flat land **2** a period when the level of something stays the same [**usually singular**] *Sales are still good but they've **reached** a **plateau**.*

platelet /ˈpleɪtlət/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a very small part of a cell in the blood that makes the blood thicker and stops it from flowing when you cut yourself ➲See picture at **blood cells**

plate tectonics /ˌpleɪttekˈtɒnɪks/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a theory which explains how the Earth's surface formed by the movement of large areas of rock

platform /ˈplætfɔːm/ *noun* [C] **1** RAISED SURFACE a raised surface for people to stand on, especially when they are speaking to a lot of people *The speakers all stood on a platform.* **2** TRAIN the area in a railway station where you get on and off the train *The train for London, Paddington, will depart from platform 12.* **3 POLITICS** all the things that a political party promises to do if they are elected *They campaigned on a platform of low taxation.* **4** FOR OPINIONS a way of telling the public about your opinions *Basically, he uses the newspaper as a **platform for** airing his political views.*

platinum /ˈplætɪnəm/ US /ˈplætnəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a silver-coloured metal that is very valuable (symbol **Pt**)

platitude /ˈplætɪtjuːd/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** something that is boring because it has been said many times before

platonic /pləˈtɒnɪk/ *adjective* A platonic relationship is friendly and not sexual.

platoon /pləˈtuːn/ *noun* [C] a small group of soldiers

platter /ˈplætəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large plate used for serving food

plaudit /ˈplɔːdɪt/ *noun* [C] *formal* praise [**usually plural**] *He has **earned/won** plaudits* (= been praised) *for his latest novel.*

plausible /ˈplɔːzɪbl/ *adjective* If something that someone says or writes is plausible, it could be true. *a **plausible excuse/explanation*** ➲Opposite **implausible** ●**plausibility** /ˌplɔːzɪˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] when something is plausible

O-✂ **play**[1] /pleɪ/ *verb* **1** SPORT [I, T] When you play a sport or game, you take part in it. *You play tennis, don't you Sam?* ○ *We often used to play cards.* ○ *I used to **play** netball **for** my school.* ○ *I'm playing Tony* (= playing against Tony) *at squash tonight.* ○ *Newcastle are **playing against** Arsenal tonight.* **2** CHILDREN [I, T] When children play, they enjoy themselves with toys and games. *She likes **playing with** her dolls.* **3** MUSIC [I, T] to make music with a musical instrument *Tim was playing the piano.* **4** RECORD/RADIO [I, T] If a radio, record, etc plays, it produces sounds, or if you play a radio, record, etc you make it produce sounds. *A radio was playing in the background.* ○ *He plays his records late into the night.* **5** ACTING [T] to be a character in a film or play *Morgan played the father in the film version.* **6 play a joke/trick on sb** to deceive someone as a joke *I played a trick on her and pretended we'd eaten all the food.* ➲See also: play it by **ear**, play games (**game**[1]), play (it) **safe**[1], play for **time**[1], play **truant**

play about/around *phrasal verb* to behave in a silly way *Stop playing around and get on with your homework!*

be playing at sth *phrasal verb UK* If you ask what someone is playing at, you are angry because they are doing something silly. *What do you think you're playing at!*

play sth back *phrasal verb* to listen to sounds or watch pictures that you have just recorded *When I played back our conversation, I realized I hadn't made myself clear.*

play sth down *phrasal verb* to try to make people think that something is less important or bad than it really is *The government have tried to play down the seriousness of the incident.*

play on sth *phrasal verb* to use someone's fears in order to make that person do or believe what you want *A lot of marketing strategies just **play on** your **fears** and insecurities.*

play up *phrasal verb UK* **1** CHILD If a child plays up, he or she behaves badly. **2** MACHINE If a machine plays up, it does not work as it should.

play (about/around) with sth *phrasal verb* **1** TRY to think about or try different ways of doing something *We've been playing around with ideas for a new TV show.* **2** TOUCH to keep touching or moving something, often when you are bored or nervous *Stop playing with your hair!*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***play (noun)***

perform/put on/write a play ● **in** a play ● a play **about** sth

play[2] /pleɪ/ *noun* **1** LITERATURE [C] a story that is written for actors to perform, usually in a theatre *We saw a play at the National Theatre.* ○ *Most schools usually **put on a play*** (= perform a play) *at Christmas.* **2** SPORT [U] the activity of taking part in a sport or a game *Rain stopped play in the Hingis-Davenport match.* **3** CHILDREN [U] when children enjoy themselves with toys and games *a **play area*** **4 fair play** behaviour that is fair, honest, and does not take advantage of people **5** LANGUAGE **a play on words** a joke using a word or phrase that has two meanings ➲See also: **foul play, role-play**

playboy /ˈpleɪbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] a rich man who spends his time enjoying himself and has relationships with a lot of beautiful women

O-✂ **player** /ˈpleɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT someone who plays a sport or game *football/tennis players* **2** MUSIC someone who plays a musical instrument *a piano player* ➲See also: **cassette player, CD player, record player**

playful /ˈpleɪfᵊl/ *adjective* funny and not serious *a **playful mood/remark*** ●**playfulness** *noun* [U] ●**playfully** *adverb*

playground /ˈpleɪgraʊnd/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION an area of land where children can play, especially at school

playgroup /ˈpleɪgruːp/ *noun* [C] a place where small children go during the day when they are too young to go to school

ˈ**playing ˌcard** *noun* [C] one of a set of 52 small pieces of stiff paper with numbers and pictures on, used for playing games

ˈ**playing ˌfield** *noun* [C] **1** SPORT an area of land used for sports such as football **2 a level playing field** a situation in which everyone has the same chance of succeeding

playoff /ˈpleɪɒf/ *noun* [C] SPORT a game between two teams that have equal points in order to decide which is the winner

playpen /ˈpleɪpen/ *noun* [C] a small structure with net or bars around the sides that young children are put into so that they can play safely

playroom /ˈpleɪruːm/ *noun* [C] a room in a house for children to play in

PlayStation /ˈpleɪˌsteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a machine that you use to play games on your television

plaything /ˈpleɪθɪŋ/ *noun* [C] someone who is treated without respect and is forced to do things for someone else's enjoyment

playtime /ˈpleɪtaɪm/ *noun* [C, U] *UK* EDUCATION a period of time when children at school can play outside

playwright /ˈpleɪraɪt/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE someone who writes plays

plaza /ˈplɑːzə/ *noun* [C] *US* **1** PUBLIC AREA an open, public area in a city or town *Mexico City's main plaza is called the Zocalo.* **2** SHOPS a group of buildings with shops, often including an open, public area *a shopping plaza*

PLC /ˌpiːelˈsiː/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS *abbreviation for* product life cycle: in business, all the stages that a product goes through from being made to being sold

plc, PLC /ˌpiːelˈsiː/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS *abbreviation for* Public Limited Company: used after the name of a large company in Britain whose shares (= equal parts of its total value) can be bought and sold by the public

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***plea***

issue/make/reject a plea ● a **desperate/emotional /impassioned** plea ● a plea **for** sth ● a plea **from** sb

plea /pliː/ *noun* [C] **1** LAW when someone says in a court of law if they are guilty or not guilty

P

of the crime they have been accused of *a plea of guilty/not guilty* **2** a strong request *an emotional* ***plea for*** *forgiveness*

plead /pliːd/ *verb past* **pleaded**, *also US* **pled** **1** LAW [T] to say in a court of law if you are guilty or not guilty of the crime you have been accused of *He* ***pleaded*** *not guilty* ***to*** *five felony charges.* **2** ASK [I] to ask for something in a strong and emotional way *He* ***pleaded with*** *her to come back.* ○ *She* ***pleaded for*** *mercy.* **3** EXCUSE [T] to say something as an excuse *You'll just have to* ***plead ignorance*** (= say you did not know). **4 plead sb's case/cause** to say something to try to help someone get what they want or avoid punishment

pleasant /ˈplezᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** ENJOYABLE enjoyable or attractive *pleasant weather/surroundings* ○ *We had a very pleasant evening.* **2** FRIENDLY A pleasant person has a friendly character. ➲Opposite **unpleasant** ●**pleasantly** *adverb I was* ***pleasantly surprised***.

pleasantry /ˈplezᵊntri/ *noun* [C] a polite thing that you say when you meet someone [**usually plural**] *They* ***exchanged pleasantries*** *about the weather.*

please¹ /pliːz/ *exclamation* **1** something that you say to be polite when you are asking for something or asking someone to do something *Could you fill in the form, please?* ○ *Please may I use your telephone?* **2 Yes, please.** used to accept something politely *"Would you like a lift home?" "Oh yes, please."*

please² /pliːz/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to make someone happy *the desire to please* ○ *I only got married to please my parents.* ➲Opposite **displease** **2 anything/as/what/whatever, etc you please** used to say that someone can have or do anything they want *Feel free to talk about anything you please.* ○ *He can come and go as he pleases.* **3 Please yourself.** a slightly rude way of telling someone that you do not care what they choose to do *"I don't want anything to eat." "Please yourself."*

pleased /pliːzd/ *adjective* **1** happy or satisfied *I wasn't very* ***pleased about*** *having to pay.* [**+ to do sth**] *I'm pleased to be back in England.* [**+ (that)**] *He was pleased that she had come back.* ○ *I'm really* ***pleased with*** *the quality of his work.* **2 Pleased to meet you.** a polite way of greeting someone you are meeting for the first time

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

pleased

Be careful to use the correct preposition or verb pattern after this word.

I'm ***pleased with*** *my new computer.*

He wasn't very ***pleased about*** *the news.*

I'm ***pleased to be*** *in London.*

~~*I'm pleased for my new computer.*~~

~~*He wasn't very pleased of the news.*~~

~~*I'm pleased for being in London.*~~

pleasing /ˈpliːzɪŋ/ *adjective* Something that is pleasing gives pleasure. *the most pleasing aspect of her work* ○ *These buildings are very pleasing to the eye.*

pleasurable /ˈpleʒᵊrəbl/ *adjective* enjoyable *a* ***pleasurable experience***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pleasure***

derive/express/give pleasure ● **take** pleasure **in** sth ● **enormous/great/perverse/pure/sheer** pleasure

pleasure /ˈpleʒᵊr/ *noun* **1** HAPPINESS [U] a feeling of happiness or enjoyment *His visits used to* ***give*** *us such* ***pleasure***. ○ *She seemed to* ***take pleasure in*** (= enjoy) *humiliating people.* ○ ***It gives me great pleasure*** *to introduce our next guest.* ➲Opposite **displeasure** **2** ENJOYABLE EXPERIENCE [C, U] an enjoyable activity or experience *Food is one of* ***life's great pleasures***. ○ *I once* ***had the pleasure of*** *sharing a taxi with her.* **3** NOT WORK [U] If you do something for pleasure, you do it because you enjoy it and not because it is your job. *reading* ***for pleasure*** **4 It's a pleasure.; My pleasure.** a polite way of replying to someone who has thanked you *"Thank you for a wonderful evening." "My pleasure."*

pleated /ˈpliːtɪd/ *adjective* A pleated piece of clothing or piece of cloth has regular, vertical folds in it. *a pleated skirt*

plebiscite /ˈplebɪsaɪt/ *noun* [C] *formal* **POLITICS** a referendum (= an occasion when all the people in a country can vote in order to show their opinion about a political question)

pled /pled/ *US past of* plead

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pledge (noun)***

break/fulfil/make a pledge ● a pledge **on** sth

pledge¹ /pledʒ/ *noun* [C] a serious promise [**+ to do sth**] *a pledge to create jobs* ○ *He* ***made a*** *solemn* ***pledge*** *to the American people.*

pledge² /pledʒ/ *verb* [T] to promise seriously to do something or give something *Foreign donors have pledged $550 million.* ○ *He* ***pledged*** *his* ***support*** *to Mandela.* [**+ to do sth**] *He pledged to cut government salaries.*

Pleistocene /ˈplaɪstəʊsiːn/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** from the period of time between about 1.6 million and 10,000 years ago, in which modern humans first appeared and the northern part of Earth had an ice age *the Pleistocene era*

plentiful /ˈplentɪfᵊl/ *adjective* If something is plentiful, there is a lot of it available. *a* ***plentiful supply*** *of meat*

plenty /ˈplenti/ *quantifier* **1** AS MUCH AS YOU NEED easily as much or as many as you need *Don't bring any food - we've got plenty.* ○ *There is* ***plenty of*** *evidence to support her claims.* ○ *There's plenty of room.* ○ *Help yourself to food - there's plenty more.* **2 plenty big/large/wide, etc enough** easily as big/large/wide, etc as you need something to be *This house is plenty big enough for two families.* **3** A LOT a lot *I know* ***plenty of*** *unemployed musicians.* ○ *There's plenty for you to do.*

plethora /ˈpleθᵊrə/ *noun* **a plethora of sth** *formal* a large number of something *There is a confusing plethora of pension plans.*

pleura /ˈpluərə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **plurae** **ANATOMY** the membrane (= thin layer of tissue) that surrounds each lung ●**pleural** /ˈpluərᵊl/ *adjective*

pleural membranes ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

pliers /ˈplaɪəz/ *noun* [**plural**] **DT** a tool for holding or pulling small things like nails or for cutting wire *a pair of pliers*

plight /plaɪt/ *noun* [**no plural**] *formal* an unpleasant or difficult situation *the plight of the sick and the poor*

Pliocene /ˈplaɪəʊsiːn/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** from the period of time between about 5.2 million and 1.6 million years ago, in which the primates (= monkeys, apes, etc.) first appeared which would later become humans *the Pliocene era*

plod /plɒd/ *verb* **plodding**, *past* **plodded plod along/on/through, etc** to walk with slow, heavy steps *We plodded through the mud.*

plonk¹ /plɒŋk/ *verb UK informal* **plonk sth down/in/on, etc** to put something somewhere quickly and without care *She plonked her bag on the floor.*
plonk yourself down *phrasal verb* to sit down quickly and without care

plonk² /plɒŋk/ *noun* [**U**] *UK informal* cheap wine

plop¹ /plɒp/ *noun* [**C**] the sound made by an object when it falls into water

plop² /plɒp/ *verb* **plopping**, *past* **plopped** *US informal* **plop (sth) down/onto, etc** to put something somewhere quickly and without care *She plopped down next to me.*

plot¹ /plɒt/ *noun* [**C**] **1 LITERATURE** the things that happen in a story *I don't like movies with* ***complicated plots.*** **2** PLAN a plan to do something bad [**+ to do sth**] *a plot to blow up the embassy* **3** LAND a piece of land, often for growing food or for building on *a building plot*

plot² /plɒt/ *verb* **plotting**, *past* **plotted 1** [**I, T**] to plan to do something bad [**+ to do sth**] *They plotted to bring down the government.* ○ *He fired all those accused of* ***plotting against*** *him.* **2 MATHEMATICS** [**T**] to make marks on a map, picture, etc to show the position or development of something *This chart* ***plots the position*** *of all aircraft.*

plotter /ˈplɒtəʳ/ *noun* **1** someone who makes a plan to do something bad **2 COMPUTING** a printing device that is connected to a computer and uses computer information to make graphs (= mathematical pictures showing measurements)

plough¹ *UK* (*US* **plow**) /plaʊ/ *noun* [**C**] **FARMING** a large tool used by farmers to turn over the soil before planting crops

plough² *UK* (*US* **plow**) /plaʊ/ *verb* [**I, T**] **FARMING** to turn over soil with a plough
plough sth back *phrasal verb* to spend the money that a business has earned on improving that business *All profits are* ***ploughed back into*** *the company.*
plough into sth *phrasal verb* to hit something with great force *My car ploughed straight into the car in front.*
plough on *phrasal verb* to continue doing something, although it is difficult or boring
plough through sth *phrasal verb* to finish what you are reading, eating, or working on, although there is a lot of it *I had to plough through the whole report.*

plover /ˈplʌv.əʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a bird with a short tail and long legs, which is found mainly by the sea or in areas covered with grass

plow /plaʊ/ *noun, verb* **FARMING** *US spelling of* plough

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ploy***

use a ploy ● a ploy **backfires/works** ● a **clever/cunning/cynical/deliberate** ploy ● a ploy **by** sb

ploy /plɔɪ/ *noun* [**C**] a slightly dishonest method used to try to achieve something [**+ to do sth**] *The phone call was just a ploy to get rid of her.*

PLS *informal* **INTERNET** *written abbreviation for* please: used in emails and text messages

pluck /plʌk/ *verb* **1 pluck sth/sb from/out, etc** to quickly pull something or someone from the place where they are *A helicopter plucked him from the sea.* **2 FOOD** [**T**] to pull all the feathers out of a bird before cooking it **3 MUSIC** [**T**] If you pluck the strings of a musical instrument, you pull them with your fingers to make a sound. **4** PLANT [**T**] *literary* to pick a flower or part of a plant **5 pluck your eyebrows** to pull hairs out of your eyebrows (= lines of hair above your eyes) to make them look tidy ➲See also: pluck up the **courage** (to do sth)

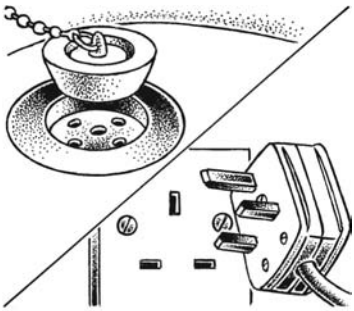

plug

plug¹ /plʌg/ *noun* [**C**] **1 PHYSICS** a plastic or rubber object with metal pins, used to connect electrical equipment to an electricity supply *I need to change the plug on my hairdryer.* **2** HOLE something you put in a hole to block it *a* ***bath plug*** **3** ADVERTISEMENT when someone talks about a new book, film, etc in public to advertise it *She managed to get in a plug for her new book.* **4 pull the plug** to prevent an activity from continuing *They have pulled the plug on jazz broadcasts.* ➲See also: **spark plug**

plug² /plʌg/ *verb* [**T**] **plugging**, *past* **plugged 1 plug a gap/hole** *mainly UK* to solve a problem by supplying something that is needed *The new computer system will help to plug the gap in the county's ability to collect taxes.* **2** ADVERTISE to talk about a new book, film, etc in public in order to advertise it *He was on TV, plugging his new book.* **3** HOLE to block a hole **plug away** *phrasal verb informal* to work hard at something for a long time *I'm still* ***plugging***

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away at *my article.*
plug sth in *phrasal verb* to connect a piece of electrical equipment to an electricity supply *Could you plug the iron in for me?* ➲Opposite **unplug**
plug sth into sth *phrasal verb* to connect one piece of electrical equipment to another *You need to plug the speakers into the stereo.*

plughole /ˈplʌghəʊl/ (*also US* **drain**) *noun* [C] the hole in a bath or sink (= place in a kitchen where dishes are washed) where the water flows away

plug-in (*also* **plugin**) /ˈplʌgɪn/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small computer program that makes a larger one work faster or be able to do more things

plum /plʌm/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a soft, round fruit with red, yellow, or purple skin and a stone in the middle

plumage /ˈpluːmɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a bird's feathers

plumber /ˈplʌmər/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to repair or connect water pipes and things like toilets and baths

plumbing /ˈplʌmɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the water pipes in a building

plume /pluːm/ *noun* **1 a plume of dust/smoke, etc** a tall, thin amount of dust/smoke, etc rising into the air. **2** [C] a large feather, often worn for decoration

plummet /ˈplʌmɪt/ *verb* [I] to fall very quickly in amount or value *Temperatures plummeted to minus 20.*

plump¹ /plʌmp/ *adjective* **1** FAT quite fat *a plump child* **2** ROUND pleasantly round or full *nice plump cloves of garlic*

plump² /plʌmp/ *verb*
plump for sth *phrasal verb UK* to choose something, especially after thinking about it for a time *I plumped for the salmon.*

plumule /ˈpluːmjuːl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the first shoot (= new branch or stem) that grows from the seed of a plant

plunder /ˈplʌndər/ *verb* [I, T] to steal, especially during a war *Many of the region's churches had been plundered.* ●**plunder** *noun* [U]

plunge¹ /plʌndʒ/ *verb* **1 plunge down/into, etc** to fall or move down very quickly and with force *The car came off the road and plunged down the hillside.* **2** [I] to become lower in temperature, value, etc very suddenly and quickly *Temperatures plunged below zero.*
plunge sth into sth *phrasal verb* to push something very hard into something else *He plunged the knife into the man's stomach.*
plunge sb/sth into sth *phrasal verb* to make someone or something suddenly be unhappy or in an unpleasant situation [**often passive**] *The country had been plunged into chaos.*
plunge into sth *phrasal verb* to start doing something with a lot of energy *Trying to forget about her, he plunged into his work.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***plunge***

take a plunge ● a plunge **in** sth ● a **stock market** plunge

plunge² /plʌndʒ/ *noun* **1** [C] a sudden and quick decrease in the value, amount, or level of something *Prices have **taken a plunge*** (= suddenly become less). **2 take the plunge** to do something important or difficult, especially after thinking about it for a long time *We're finally going to take the plunge and buy a house.*

the pluperfect /ˌpluːˈpɜːfɪkt/ (*also* **the past perfect**) *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb that is used to show that an action had already finished when another action happened. In English, the pluperfect is made with 'had' and a past participle.

plural /ˈplʊərəl/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or part of a word which shows that you are talking about more than one person or thing. For example 'babies' is the plural of 'baby'. ●**plural** *adjective* *'cattle' and 'trousers' are plural nouns.*

pluralism /ˈplʊərəlɪzəm/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the existence in a society of many different types of people with many different beliefs and opinions *political pluralism* ●**pluralist** (*also* **pluralistic** /ˌplʊərəlˈɪstɪk/) *adjective* relating to pluralism *a pluralist society*

plus¹ /plʌs/ *preposition* **1** ADDED added to *Five plus three is eight.* **2** AND and also *You've won their latest CD plus two tickets for their concert.*

plus² /plʌs/ *adjective* **40 plus, 150 plus, etc** more than the amount stated *temperatures of 40 plus*

plus³ /plʌs/ *conjunction informal* and also *That restaurant's too crowded, plus it'll be really expensive.*

plus⁴ /plʌs/ *noun* [C] **1** *informal* an advantage *Well, the apartment has a garden so that's a plus.* **2 MATHEMATICS** (*also* **ˈplus,sign**) the symbol +, used between two numbers to show that they are being added together

plush /plʌʃ/ *adjective* Plush furniture, buildings, rooms, etc are very expensive and comfortable. *a plush red carpet*

Pluto /ˈpluːtəʊ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **ASTRONOMY** a dwarf planet that comes after Neptune in distance from the sun. Pluto was considered to be a proper planet until 2006, when it was officially decided that it was a dwarf planet.

plutonium /pluːˈtəʊniəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element that is used in the production of nuclear power and nuclear weapons (symbol **Pu**)

ply /plaɪ/ *verb* **1 ply across/between, etc** *old-fashioned* to often make a particular journey *fishing boats plying across the harbour* **2 ply your trade** to work at your job, especially selling things
ply sb with sth *phrasal verb* **1** GIVE to give someone a lot of something again and again *They plied me with food and drink.* **2** ASK to ask someone a lot of questions *They **plied** him **with questions** about where he had been.*

plywood /ˈplaɪwʊd/ *noun* [U] wood that is made by sticking several thin layers of wood together

p.m. (*also* **pm**) /ˌpiːˈem/ used when you are referring to a time after 12 o'clock in the middle

of the day, but before 12 o'clock in the middle of the night *Opening hours: 9 a.m. - 6 p.m.*

PM /ˌpiːˈem/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* prime minister: the leader of an elected government in some countries

pneumatic /njuːˈmætɪk/ *adjective* filled with air, or operated using air *pneumatic tyres*

pneumatics /njuːˈmætɪks/ *noun* [U] **DT, PHYSICS** the study of the uses of gases, especially air

pneumonia /njuːˈməʊniə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious illness in which your lungs fill with liquid and it is difficult to breathe

poach /pəʊtʃ/ *verb* **1** **FOOD** [T] to cook something, especially an egg without its shell, by putting it into liquid that is gently boiling **2** ANIMALS [I, T] to illegally catch or kill animals, especially by going onto land without the permission of the person who owns it **3** PERSON [I, T] to persuade someone to leave a company or team in order to work or play for yours *They can poach experienced people easily because they offer higher salaries.*

poacher /ˈpəʊtʃə/ *noun* [C] someone who illegally catches or kills animals

O-key **pocket¹** /ˈpɒkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** BAG a small bag that is sewn or fixed onto or into a piece of clothing, a bag, the back of a seat, etc *a coat/shirt/trouser pocket* ○ *He was asked to* ***empty*** *his* ***pockets***. ○ *Safety instructions are in the pocket on the seat in front of you.* **2** SMALL AREA/AMOUNT a small area or small amount of something that is different from what is around it *There was real poverty in some* ***pockets of*** *the country.* ○ *small pockets of air trapped inside the glass* **3** MONEY the amount of money that you have for spending *I shouldn't have to pay for travel* ***out of my own pocket*** (= with my own money). **4 be out of pocket** to have less money than you should have because you have paid for something *The holiday company cancelled our trip and we were left hundreds of pounds out of pocket.*

pocket² /ˈpɒkɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** STEAL to take something, especially money, which does not belong to you *His plan was to* ***pocket*** *the* ***money*** *from the sale of the business and leave the country.* **2** PUT IN CLOTHES to put something in your pocket *Juan pocketed the knife and walked away.*

pocket³ /ˈpɒkɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] small enough to fit in your pocket *a pocket dictionary*

pocketbook /ˈpɒkɪtbʊk/ *noun* [C] *US* **1** BAG a woman's bag **2** PAY Someone's pocketbook is their ability to pay for something. *The sales tax hits consumers in the pocketbook.*

pocketful /ˈpɒkɪtfʊl/ *noun* [C] the amount you can fit in a pocket *a pocketful of coins*

pocketknife /ˈpɒkɪtnaɪf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **pocketknives** a small knife that folds into a case

ˈpocket ˌmoney *noun* [U] an amount of money given regularly to a child by its parents

pod /pɒd/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the long, flat part of some plants that has seeds in it *a pea pod*

podcast /ˈpɒdkɑːst/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** a recording that you can listen to on your computer or MP3 player from a website. You can also sign up to (= say that you want to receive) a podcast which is then updated (= new information is added to it) through the Internet when you plug your MP3 player into a computer. ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

podiatrist /pəʊˈdaɪətrɪst/ *US* (*UK* **chiropodist**) *noun* [C] **HEALTH** someone whose job is to treat problems with people's feet

podium /ˈpəʊdiəm/ *noun* [C] a small, raised area, sometimes with a tall table on it, that someone stands on when they are performing or speaking

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***poem***

read/recite/write a poem ● **in** a poem ● a poem **about** sth ● a poem **by** sb ● a **love** poem

O-key **poem** /ˈpəʊɪm/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a piece of writing, especially one that has short lines and uses words that sound the same *war poems*

poet /ˈpəʊɪt/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** someone who writes poems

poetic /pəʊˈetɪk/ *adjective* **1** Something that is poetic makes you feel strong emotions because it is so beautiful. *To him, life seemed poetic.* **2** **LITERATURE** relating to poetry *poetic language*

O-key **poetry** /ˈpəʊɪtri/ *noun* [U] **LITERATURE** poems in general, or the writing of poetry *I enjoy all kinds of poetry, especially love poetry.*

poignant /ˈpɔɪnjənt/ *adjective* making you feel sad *It's a poignant story about a poor family's struggle to survive.* ●**poignancy** /ˈpɔɪnjənsi/ *noun* [U] when something is poignant ●**poignantly** *adverb*

poikilothermic /ˌpɔɪkɪləʊˈθɜːmɪk/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** Animals that are poikilothermic have a body temperature that changes with the temperature around them.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***point***

illustrate/make /prove/raise a point ● **take** sb's point ● a point **about** sth

O-key **point¹** /pɔɪnt/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C] an opinion, idea, or fact which someone says or writes *Could I* ***make a point*** *about noise levels?* ○ *I* ***take your point*** (= I agree with you) *about cycling, but I still prefer to walk.* **2** IMPORTANT OPINION [**no plural**] an opinion or fact that deserves to be considered seriously, or which other people agree is true *"She's always complaining that the office is cold." "Well, she's* ***got a point.***" ○ *"How are we going to get there if there are no trains?" "****Good point.***" **3 the point** the most important part of what has been said or written *I thought he was never going to* ***get to the point***. ○ ***The point is****, if you don't claim the money now you might never get it.* ○ *To say his art is simplistic is* ***missing the point*** (= not understanding the most important thing about it). **4** SHARP [C] the thin, sharp end of something *the point of a needle* **5** PLACE [C] a particular place *a* ***stopping****/fuelling* ***point*** ○ *the point where the pipes enter the building* **6** TIME [C] a particular time in an event or process ***At this point****, people started to leave.* ○ *It has* ***got to***

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the point *where I can hardly bear to speak to him.* **7 be at/on the point of doing sth** to be going to do something very soon *Amy was on the point of crying.* **8** REASON [**no plural**] the reason for or purpose of something ***What's the point*** *of studying if you can't get a job afterwards?* ○ *There's* ***no point*** *inviting her - she never comes to parties.* **9 beside the point** not important or not connected with what you are talking about *The fact that he doesn't want to come is beside the point - he should have been invited.* **10 make a point of doing sth** to be certain that you always do a particular thing *He made a point of learning all the names of his staff.* **11 to the point** If something someone says or writes is to the point, it expresses the most important things without extra details. *His report was short and to the point.* **12 up to a point** partly *What he says is true up to a point.* **13** SPORT [**C**] a unit used for showing who is winning in a game or competition *With 3 games still to play, Manchester United are 5 points ahead.* **14** MEASURES [**C**] a unit used in some systems of measuring and comparing things *The stock exchange fell by five points.* **15 boiling/freezing/melting point** MEASURES the temperature at which a substance boils, freezes, or melts **16** QUALITY [**C**] a quality which someone has *I know she's bossy, but she has lots of* ***good points*** *too.* ○ *Chemistry never was* ***my strong point*** (= I was never good at it). **17** MATHEMATICS [**C**] (*also* **decimal point**) the mark (.) that is used to separate the two parts of a decimal *One mile equals one point six* (= 1.6) *kilometres.* **18** DIRECTION [**C**] one of the marks on a compass (= object used for showing directions) **19** MEASURES [**C**] a unit of measurement of the size of letters, used in printing and on computers ➲See also: **breaking point,** a **case** in point, **decimal point, focal point, moot point, point of view, starting-point, turning point, vantage point**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

point

A **point** (.) is used to separate a whole number from a fraction (= number less than 1).

Normal body temperature is 36.9° celsius.

A **comma** (,) is used to divide large numbers into groups of three so that they are easier to read.

28,071,973

1,378

point² /pɔɪnt/ *verb* **1** SHOW [**I**] to show where someone or something is by holding your finger or a thin object towards it *She* ***pointed at/to*** *a bird flying overhead.* **2** AIM [**T**] to hold something so that it faces towards something else *She* ***pointed*** *her camera* ***at*** *them.* **3** FACE [**I**] to face towards a particular direction *The solar panels were pointing away from the sun.* **point sb/sth out** *phrasal verb* to make a person notice someone or something *I didn't think about the disadvantages until you pointed them out to me.*
point sth out *phrasal verb* to tell someone a fact *If he makes a mistake I always think it's best to point it out immediately.*
point to/towards sth *phrasal verb* to show that something probably exists, is happening, or is true *All the evidence points to suicide.*

point-blank /ˌpɔɪntˈblæŋk/ *adjective, adverb* **1** If you refuse point-blank, you refuse completely and will not change your decision. **2 at point-blank range** If someone is shot at point-blank range, they are shot from a very short distance away.

pointed /ˈpɔɪntɪd/ *adjective* **1** CRITICIZE If someone says something in a pointed way, they intend to criticize someone. *He made some* ***pointed references*** *to her history of drug problems.* **2** SHARP A pointed object has a thin, sharp end. *a pointed chin/beard*

pointer /ˈpɔɪntəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** INFORMATION a piece of information which can help you understand a situation or do something better *I asked for some pointers on applying for jobs.* **2** THIN OBJECT an object that you use to point at something

pointless /ˈpɔɪntləs/ *adjective* Something that is pointless has no purpose. *pointless arguments/conflict* [**+ to do sth**] *It would be pointless to argue with him.* ●**pointlessly** *adverb*

point of sale (*abbreviation* **PoS**) *noun* [**C usually singular**] ECONOMICS the place where a product is sold

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***point of view***

from sb's point of view ● **from** a [political/financial, etc] point of view

point of view *noun* [**C**] *plural* **points of view** **1** WAY OF THINKING a way of thinking about a situation ***From*** *a medical* ***point of view****, there was no need for the operation.* **2** OPINION an opinion *You have to be willing to see other people's points of view.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

point of view or **opinion?**

When you want to talk about your own opinion, you should say **In my opinion ...**, not 'In my point of view'.

poise /pɔɪz/ *noun* [**U**] **1** BEHAVIOUR when you behave in a calm and confident way *Recovering his poise, he congratulated his opponent.* **2** MOVEMENT when you move or stand in a careful, pleasant way

poised /pɔɪzd/ *adjective* **1** READY [**never before noun**] ready to do something [**+ to do sth**] *They have three hundred ships, all poised to attack.* **2** POSITION [**never before noun**] in a particular position or situation, ready to move or change *a helicopter poised above the crowd* **3** CALM calm and confident *a* ***poised performance***

poison¹ /ˈpɔɪzᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] HEALTH a substance that can make you ill or kill you if you eat or drink it *Someone had put poison in her drink.*

poison² /ˈpɔɪzᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] **1** HEALTH to try to kill someone by giving them a dangerous substance to drink or eat *He tried to poison his wife.* **2** HEALTH to put poison or a dangerous substance in something *They poisoned the city's water supply.* **3** SPOIL to make something very unpleasant *These arguments were poisoning his life.* **4 poison sb's mind** to make someone think bad things about someone or something *Her father had* ***poisoned her mind against*** *me.* ●**poisoned** *adjective*

poisoning /ˈpɔɪzᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness caused by eating, drinking, or breathing a dangerous substance ***alcohol/lead poisoning*** ➲See also: **food poisoning**

poisonous /ˈpɔɪzᵊnəs/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** containing poison *poisonous gas* **2** ANIMAL A poisonous animal uses poison in order to defend itself. *a poisonous snake*

poke¹ /pəʊk/ *verb* **1** [T] to quickly push your finger or other pointed object into someone or something *Nell kept poking me in the arm.* ○ *He poked the fire with his stick.* **2 poke (sth) round/out/through, etc** to appear through or from behind something, or to make something do this *Grace poked her head round the door.* ➲See also: poke/stick your **nose**¹ into sth
poke about/around *phrasal verb informal* to look for something by moving other things *I was poking around in the garage, looking for a paint brush.*

poke² /pəʊk/ *noun* [C] when you quickly push your finger or other pointed object into someone or something *I gave him a poke in the back.*

poker /ˈpəʊkəʳ/ *noun* **1** GAME [U] a game played with cards in which people try to win money from each other **2** FIRE [C] a long, metal stick used for moving the coal or wood in a fire so that it burns better

poker-faced /ˈpəʊkəˌfeɪst/ *adjective* not showing on your face what you are really thinking or feeling

poky *informal* (*also* **pokey**) /ˈpəʊki/ *adjective* **1** TOO SMALL A room or house that is poky is unpleasant because it is too small. **2** SLOW *US* too slow

polar /ˈpəʊləʳ/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to the North or South Pole

ˈpolar ˌbear *noun* [C] a large, white bear that lives in the North Pole (= most northern part of the Earth)

Polaroid /ˈpəʊlᵊrɔɪd/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a camera that prints a photograph immediately after you have taken it, or a picture taken with this type of camera

pole /pəʊl/ *noun* **1** [C] a long, thin stick made of wood or metal, often used to hold something up *tent poles* **2** **GEOGRAPHY** **the North/South Pole** the part of the Earth that is furthest North/South **3 be poles apart** to be complete opposites

polemic /pəˈlemɪk/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* writing or speech that strongly criticizes or defends an idea, a belief, etc

ˈpole ˌvault *noun* [no plural] **SPORT** a sport in which you use a very long stick to jump over a high bar

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***police***

call the police ● **report** sb/sth **to** the police ● police **arrest/question** sb

O-➡**police¹** /pəˈliːs/ *noun* [plural] **LAW** the official organization that makes people obey the law and that protects people and places against crime, or the people who work for this organization *I heard a gun shot and decided to* ***call the police.*** ○ *A 30-year-old taxi driver is being interviewed by police.* ○ *a police investigation*

police² /pəˈliːs/ *verb* [T] **LAW** to make sure that people obey the law in a particular place or when they are doing a particular activity *Clubs have to pay for the cost of policing matches.*

poˌlice ˈconstable *noun* [C] **LAW** in the UK, a police officer of the lowest rank

poˈlice deˌpartment *noun* [C] **LAW** in the US, the police force in an area or city

poˈlice ˌforce *noun* [C] **LAW** the police in a country or area

policeman, policewoman /pəˈliːsmən, pəˈliːsˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **policemen, policewomen** **LAW** a man/woman who is a member of the police

poˈlice ˌofficer *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who is a member of the police

poˈlice ˌstate *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a country in which the people are not free to do what they want because the government controls them

poˈlice ˌstation *noun* [C] **LAW** the office of the police in a town or part of a city

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***policy***

adopt/formulate/implement/pursue a policy ● a policy **on** sth ● a policy **of** (doing) sth ● **company** policy ● **foreign** policy

policy /ˈpɒləsi/ *noun* **1** IDEAS/PLAN [C, U] a set of ideas or a plan of what to do in particular situations that has been agreed by a government, business, etc ***foreign policy*** ○ *It is* ***company policy*** *to help staff progress in their careers.* **2** AGREEMENT [C] an agreement that you have with an insurance company (= company that pays the costs if you are injured, etc)

polio /ˈpəʊliəʊ/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that sometimes makes it impossible for you to move your muscles

polish¹ /ˈpɒlɪʃ/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [C, U] a substance that you rub on something in order to make it clean and shiny **2** RUBBING [no plural] when you rub something in order to make it clean and shiny *Just give the table a polish.* ➲See also: **nail polish**

polish² /ˈpɒlɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to rub something with a cloth in order to make it clean or to make it shine *to polish your shoes*
polish sth off *phrasal verb informal* to finish something quickly *I gave him a bowl of ice cream which he soon polished off.*

polished /ˈpɒlɪʃt/ *adjective* **1** SHINY clean and shiny after polishing *a polished floor* **2** SKILL done with skill and style *He gave a highly* ***polished performance.***

O-➡**polite** /pəˈlaɪt/ *adjective* behaving in a way that is not rude and shows that you do not only think about yourself *She was too polite to point out my mistake.* ●**politely** *adverb* *He thanked them politely.* ●**politeness** *noun* [U]

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OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***polite***

The adjectives **courteous**, **respectful**, and **well-mannered** are sometimes used when someone is polite and shows respect for other people: *Although she often disagreed with me, she was always* ***courteous****.* ● *They were quiet,* ***well-mannered*** *children.*

A man who is polite to a woman is sometimes described as **chivalrous**: *He held open the door in that* ***chivalrous*** *way of his.*

The expression **politically-correct** and its abbreviation, **PC**, are regularly used to show that someone is being polite by speaking in a way which does not offend women, people of a particular race, or people who have physical or mental problems: *'Fireman' has been replaced by the* ***politically-correct*** *term 'firefighter'.* ● *Calling them 'ladies' - that's not very* ***PC*** *of you!*

Conversation which is polite and calm is sometimes described as **civilized**: *Let's discuss this in a* ***civilized*** *manner.*

political /pəˈlɪtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **POLITICS** relating to or involved in politics *There are two main* ***political parties*** *in my country.* ○ *The church has a strong political influence.* ●**politically** *adverb*

po,litical aˈsylum *noun* [U] **POLITICS** protection given by a government to someone whose political activities have made it too dangerous for them to live in their own country

po,litically coˈrrect *adjective* **POLITICS** careful to speak or behave in a way which is not offensive to women, people of a particular race, or people who have physical or mental problems *It's not politically correct to call women 'girls'.* ●**political correctness** *noun* [U]

po,litical ˈprisoner *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who is in prison because their political activities or opinions oppose the government

politician /,pɒlɪˈtɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who works in politics, especially a member of the government

politicize (*also UK* **-ise**) /pəˈlɪtɪsaɪz/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** to make something or someone become more involved with politics [**often passive**] *The whole issue has been politicized.* ○ *a highly* ***politicized debate***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***politics***

enter/go into/be involved in politics ● **domestic /international/local** politics

politics /ˈpɒlətɪks/ *noun* **1** **POLITICS** [U] ideas and activities relating to how a country or area is governed *He has little interest in* ***local politics****.* **2** **POLITICS** [U] a job in politics *She's planning to retire from politics next year.* **3** **sb's politics** someone's opinions about how a country or area should be governed *I don't know what his politics are, but he strongly disagreed with the decision.* **4** [**plural**] the relationships in a group which allow particular people to have power over others *I try not to get involved in* ***office politics****.*

polka /ˈpɒlkə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a type of dance, or a piece of music used for this type of dance

polka-dot /ˈpɒlkə,dɒt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having a regular pattern of small, round spots *a polka-dot bikini*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***poll***

carry out/conduct a poll ● a poll **indicates/reveals/shows/suggests** sth ● a poll **of** sb

poll¹ /pəʊl/ (*also* **opinion poll**) *noun* [C] when people are asked questions to discover what they think about a subject *A recent* ***poll indicated*** *that 77 percent of Americans supported the president.*

poll² /pəʊl/ *verb* [T] **1** to ask someone's opinion as part of a study on what people think about a subject [**often passive**] *Most students polled said they preferred the new system.* **2** **POLITICS** to receive a particular number of votes in an election *Labour polled only 45 percent of the Scottish vote.*

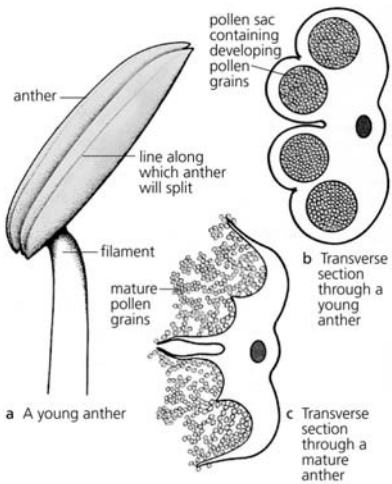

pollen

pollen /ˈpɒlən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a powder produced by flowers, which is carried by insects or the wind and makes other flowers produce seeds ➲See picture at **carpel**

ˈpollen ,count *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** the measurement of the amount of pollen in the air

pollinate /ˈpɒlənеɪt/ *verb* [T] **BIOLOGY** to carry pollen from one plant to another so that they can be fertilized (= made able to produce new plants) ●**pollination** /,pɒləˈneɪʃᵊn/

ˈpolling ,day *UK* (*US* **election day**) *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the day when people vote in an election

ˈpolling ,station *UK* (*US* **ˈpolling ,place**) *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a building where people go to vote in an election

the polls /pəʊlz/ *noun* [**plural**] **POLITICS** voting in an election *The country will* ***go to the polls*** (= vote) *on 13 September.*

pollster /ˈpəʊlstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who tries to discover what most people think about a subject by asking questions

pollute /pəˈluːt/ *verb* [T] **ENVIRONMENT** to make water, air, soil, etc dirty or harmful *We need a fuel that won't pollute the environment.* ●**pollutant** *noun* [C] a substance that pollutes water, air, etc

pollution /pəˈluːʃʰn/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** damage caused to water, air, etc by harmful substances or waste *The book shows simple things you can do to reduce pollution from your car.*

polo /ˈpəʊləʊ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a game played between two teams who ride horses and hit a ball with long, wooden hammers

ˈpolo ˌneck *UK* (*US* **turtleneck**) *noun* [C] a piece of clothing that covers the top part of the body and has a tube-like part covering the neck *a black polo neck sweater*

ˈpolo ˌshirt *noun* [C] a cotton shirt with short sleeves, a collar, and buttons at the front

poly- /pɒli-/ *prefix* many *polygamy* (= having more than one husband or wife at the same time) ○ *a polygon* (= a shape with many sides)

polyatomic /ˌpɒliəˈtɒmɪk/ *adjective* **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** containing more than two atoms

polyester /ˌpɒliˈestəʳ/ *noun* [U] **DT** a type of artificial cloth used for making clothes *a polyester shirt/skirt*

polygon /ˈpɒlɪgɒn/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape with three or more straight sides

polymer /ˈpɒlɪməʳ/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical substance consisting of large molecules made from many smaller and simpler molecules

polymerize /ˈpɒlɪməraɪz/ (*mainly UK* **-ise**) *adjective* [I, T] **CHEMISTRY** to form a polymer or to make something form a polymer ●**polymerization** /ˌpɒlɪməraɪˈzeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U]

polyp /ˈpɒlɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** a small simple water animal shaped like a tube **2** **HEALTH** a small mass of cells that grows in the body, and is usually not harmful

polypeptide /ˌpɒlɪˈpeptaɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** one of a group of polymers (= chemical substance made of large molecules) made from a chain of amino acids (= substance used to make protein)

polypropylene /ˌpɒlɪˈprəʊpəliːn/ *noun* [U] **DT** a type of plastic used for many purposes, such as food packaging, making ropes, and making artificial fabrics

polysaccharide /ˌpɒlɪˈsækʰraɪd/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a type of carbohydrate, such as starch and cellulose, whose molecules are groups of sugar molecules joined together ➲Compare **monosaccharide**

polystyrene /ˌpɒlɪˈstaɪriːn/ *UK* (*US* **Styrofoam®**) *noun* [U] a light plastic material that is wrapped around delicate objects to protect them, and around hot things to keep them hot *polystyrene packaging/polystyrene cups*

polytechnic /ˌpɒlɪˈteknɪk/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a college where students study scientific and technical subjects

polythene /ˈpɒlɪθiːn/ *UK* (*US* **polyethylene** /ˌpɒliˈeθəliːn/) *noun* [U] a thin, soft plastic, often used for making bags

polyunsaturated /ˌpɒl.i.ʌnˈsætʃʰr.eɪ.tɪd/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** describes a fat or oil which is thought to be healthy because it does not seem to cause heart disease *polyunsaturated margarine/vegetable oil* ➲Compare **saturated fat**

polyvinyl chloride /ˌpɒlɪvaɪnʰlˈklɔːraɪd/ (*abbreviation* **PVC**) *noun* [U] **DT** a type of plastic which is used especially for making clothes, floor coverings and bags

pomp /pɒmp/ *noun* [U] *formal* special clothes, decorations, and music at an official ceremony

pompous /ˈpɒmpəs/ *adjective* Someone who is pompous is too serious and thinks they are more important than they really are. ●**pompously** *adverb* ●**pomposity** /pɒmˈpɒsəti/ *noun* [U] when someone is pompous

pond /pɒnd/ *noun* [C] a small area of water, especially one that has been made artificially in a park or garden

ponder /ˈpɒndəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] *literary* to think carefully about something [+ **question word**] *He pondered what might have happened if he hadn't gone home.*

ponderous /ˈpɒndʰrəs/ *adjective* **1** BORING Ponderous speech or writing is boring or too serious. **2** SLOW slow because of being very heavy or large ●**ponderously** *adverb*

pony /ˈpəʊni/ *noun* [C] a small horse

ponytail /ˈpəʊnɪteɪl/ *noun* [C] hair tied at the back of your head so that it hangs down like a horse's tail

poodle /ˈpuːdl/ *noun* [C] a type of dog with thick, curly hair

pool¹ /puːl/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] (*also* **swimming pool**) an area of water that has been made for people to swim in *The hotel has two outdoor pools.* **2** [C] a small area of water or a small amount of liquid on a surface *We dipped our feet in a shallow pool by the rocks.* ○ ***a pool of blood*** **3** **SPORT** [U] a game in which two people use long, thin sticks to hit coloured balls into holes around the edge of a table **4** **FINANCE** [C] a collection of money, people, or equipment which is shared by a group of people ***a car pool*** *for company business*

pool² /puːl/ *verb* [T] If a group of people pool their money, knowledge, or equipment, they collect it together so that it can be shared or used for a particular purpose. *Several villages pooled their resources to set up a building project.*

the pools /puːlz/ *noun* [**plural**] in Britain, a game in which people try to win a lot of money by guessing the results of football matches

O-key **poor** /pɔːʳ/ US /pʊr/ *adjective* **1** NO MONEY having very little money or few possessions *Most of these people are desperately poor.* ○ *Modern fertilizers are too expensive for poorer countries to afford.* ○ *housing for the poor* **2** BAD of very low quality *poor health* ○ *Last year's exam results were poor.* ○ *a poor harvest* ○ *The meeting went smoothly but attendance was poor* (= not many people came). **3** NO SKILL not having much skill at a particular activity *She's always been* ***poor***

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***at** spelling.* **4** SYMPATHY [**always before noun**] used to show sympathy for someone *That cold sounds terrible, you **poor thing**.* **5 be poor in sth** If something is poor in a particular substance, it has very little of the substance. *Avoid foods which are high in calories but poor in nutrients.*

poorly¹ /ˈpɔːli/ *adverb* badly *poorly educated*

poorly² /ˈpɔːli/ *adjective UK informal* ill *Rosie was feeling poorly so I put her to bed.*

pop¹ /pɒp/ *verb* **popping**, *past* **popped 1** [**I, T**] to make a short sound like a small explosion, or to make something do this by breaking it *The music played and champagne corks popped.* **2 pop in/out/over, etc** *informal* to go to a particular place *Doug's just popped out for a few minutes.* ○ *I'll pop into the supermarket on my way home.* **3 pop sth in/into/on, etc** *informal* to quickly put something in a particular place *Can you pop the pizza in the oven?* **4 pop out/up** to move quickly and suddenly, especially out of something
pop up *phrasal verb informal* to suddenly appear or happen, often unexpectedly *A message just popped up on my screen.*

pop² /pɒp/ *noun* **1** MUSIC [**U**] (*also* [ˈ]**pop** [ˌ]**music**) modern music with a strong beat which is popular with young people **2** SOUND [**C**] a short sound like a small explosion **3** FOOD [**U**] *informal* (*also US* **soda**) a sweet drink with bubbles **4** FATHER [**no plural**] *US informal* father

popcorn /ˈpɒpkɔːn/ *noun* [**U**] FOOD yellow seeds of grain that break open when heated and are eaten with salt, sugar, or butter

Pope /pəʊp/ *noun* [**C**] RELIGION the leader of the Roman Catholic Church *Pope John Paul II* ○ *The Pope was due to visit Paraguay in May.*

poplar /ˈpɒplər/ *noun* [**C, U**] a tall tree with branches that grow up to form a thin, pointed shape

popper /ˈpɒpər/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* (*US* **snap**) a metal or plastic object used to fasten clothing, made of two parts which fit together with a short, loud sound

poppy /ˈpɒpi/ *noun* [**C**] a red flower with small, black seeds

populace /ˈpɒpjələs/ *noun* [**group**] *formal* SOCIETY all the people who live in a particular country or place

popular /ˈpɒpjələr/ *adjective* **1** LIKED liked by many people *'Jack' was the most popular boy's name.* ○ *The North African coast is becoming increasingly **popular with** British tourists.* ➲Opposite **unpopular 2** SOCIETY [**always before noun**] for or involving ordinary people and not specialists or people who are very educated *The issue was given full coverage in the popular press.* **3** MANY PEOPLE [**always before noun**] A popular belief, opinion, etc is one that many people have. *The allegations are false, contrary to **popular belief**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***popularity***

gain popularity ● be **growing in/increasing in** popularity ● sb's/sth's popularity **increases/soars/wanes** ● the popularity **of** sth ● sb/sth's popularity **with** sb

popularity /ˌpɒpjəˈlærəti/ *noun* [**U**] the quality of being liked by many people *the increasing popularity of organic produce* ➲Opposite **unpopularity**

popularize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpɒpjələraɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to make something become known or liked by many people *It was the World Cup which popularized professional soccer in the United States.* ●**popularization** /ˌpɒpjələraɪˈzeɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**]

popularly /ˈpɒpjələli/ *adverb* **popularly believed/called/known, etc** believed, called, etc by most people *Los Angeles is popularly known as 'LA'.*

populate /ˈpɒpjəleɪt/ *verb* **be populated** GEOGRAPHY If an area is populated by people or animals, they live in that area. *The countryside is **densely/sparsely populated*** (= there are many/few people). ○ *The forest was populated by rare and colourful birds.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***population***

have a population **of** [50 million, etc] ● population **growth**

population /ˌpɒpjəˈleɪʃən/ *noun* **1** GEOGRAPHY, SOCIETY [**C, U**] the number of people living in a particular area *What's the **population of** Brazil?* **2** GEOGRAPHY, SOCIETY [**group**] all the people living in a particular area, or all the people or animals of a particular type *The government has reported a 9% rise in the prison population.* **3** GEOGRAPHY all the organisms that belong to a particular species (= group of plants or animals with similar characteristics) ➲See picture at **ecosystem**

populous /ˈpɒpjələs/ *adjective formal* A populous area has a lot of people living in it. *It's one of the world's most populous cities.*

pop-up /ˈpɒpʌp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** A pop-up book is a book which has pictures that stand up from the pages when the book is opened. **2** COMPUTING A pop-up menu is a list of choices on a computer screen which is hidden until you choose to look at it. *Select the option you want from the **pop-up menu** and then double-click on it.*

porcelain /ˈpɔːsəlɪn/ *noun* [**U**] a hard, shiny, white substance used to make cups, plates, etc, or the cups and plates themselves *a porcelain dish* ○ *a fine collection of porcelain*

porch /pɔːtʃ/ *noun* [**C**] a covered area built onto the entrance to a house *We sat on the front porch sipping iced tea.*

pore¹ /pɔːr/ *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY a very small hole in your skin that sweat (= salty liquid) can pass through

pore² /pɔːr/ *verb*
pore over sth *phrasal verb* to study or look carefully at something, especially a book or document *Jeremy spent the afternoon poring over his exam notes.*

pork /pɔːk/ *noun* [**U**] FOOD meat from a pig *pork chops*

porous /ˈpɔːrəs/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** allowing liquid or air to pass through *porous rock*

porridge /ˈpɒrɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a soft, white food made of oats (= type of grain) and water or milk

port /pɔːt/ *noun* **1 GEOGRAPHY** [C] a town or an area of a town next to water where ships arrive and leave from *a fishing port* ○ *the Belgian port of Zeebrugge* **2 FOOD** [U] a sweet, strong, red wine which is made in Portugal **3** LEFT [U] the left side of a ship or aircraft *the port side*

portable /ˈpɔːtəbl/ *adjective* able to be carried *a portable computer*

portal /ˈpɔːtᵊl/ *noun* [C] **INTERNET** a page on the Internet with links to many other pages or websites that people use to start searching the World Wide Web

ˈ**portal** ˌ**vein** (*also* **hepatic portal vein**) *noun* [C usually singular] **ANATOMY** a vein which carries blood to the liver from the stomach and other organs

porter /ˈpɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to carry other people's bags in hotels, stations, etc

portfolio /ˌpɔːtˈfəʊliəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1 ART** a collection of designs, pictures, documents, etc that represents a person's work, or the large, flat container that it is carried in **2 FINANCE** a collection of accounts, money, etc that is owned by a person or organization *a stock portfolio*

porthole /ˈpɔːthəʊl/ *noun* [C] a small, round window in the side of a ship or aircraft

portion /ˈpɔːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** a part of something *A large portion of their profits go straight back into new projects.* **2 FOOD** the amount of food served to one person, especially in a restaurant

portly /ˈpɔːtli/ *adjective humorous* quite fat *a portly gentleman*

portrait /ˈpɔːtrɪt/ *noun* **1 ART** [C] a painting, drawing, or photograph of someone *a* ***portrait of*** *the princess* ○ *a portrait gallery/painter* **2 a portrait of sb/sth** a film or book which describes someone or something in detail *His latest film is a portrait of life in the 1920s.* ➲See also: **self-portrait**

portray /pɔːˈtreɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** DESCRIBE If a book or film portrays someone or something, it describes or shows them. *Both novels portray the lives of professional athletes.* ○ *In the film he's* ***portrayed as*** *a hero.* **2** ACT to act the part of a character in a film or play ●**portrayal** *noun* [C, U] when you portray someone or something *He won several awards for his portrayal of the dictator.*

pose¹ /pəʊz/ *verb* **1 pose a danger/problem/threat, etc** to cause a problem *A lot of these chemicals pose very real threats to our health.* **2 ART** [I] to stay in a particular position so that someone can paint or photograph you *The two leaders* ***posed for*** *photographs outside the White House.* **3** [I] *mainly UK* to try to make people notice and admire you, especially by looking fashionable *Pascal was posing in his new sunglasses.* **4 pose a question** *formal* to ask a question

pose as sb *phrasal verb* to pretend that you are someone else *He got into her house by posing as an electrician.*

pose² /pəʊz/ *noun* **1 ART** [C] the position that you stay in while someone photographs or paints you *an elegant pose* **2** [**no plural**] when someone pretends to be more clever or interesting than they really are *She's not really interested in art, it's just a pose.*

posh /pɒʃ/ *adjective* **1** EXPENSIVE expensive and used or owned by rich people *a posh hotel/restaurant* **2 SOCIETY** *UK* from a high social class *a posh voice*

O-key **position¹** /pəˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** SITTING/STANDING [C, U] the way someone is sitting, standing, or lying, or if something is pointing up or down, etc *a kneeling position* ○ *I go to sleep on my back but I always wake up* ***in*** *a different* ***position.*** ○ *Make sure your chair is* ***in*** *the upright* ***position.*** **2** SITUATION [C] the situation that someone is in [**usually singular**] *She's* ***in*** *a very difficult* ***position.*** **3 be in a position to do sth** to be able to do something because of your situation *I'm not in a position to talk about this at the moment.* **4** PLACE [C] the place where someone or something is *I'm trying to find our position on the map.* ○ *You're* ***in*** *a good* ***position*** *next to the window.* **5 be in position** If someone or something is in position, they are in the place that they should be in. **6 in first/second/third, etc position** in first/second/third, etc place in a race or other competition *She finished the race in third position.* **7** JOB [C] *formal* a job *to apply for a position in a company* **8** OPINION [C] *formal* a way of thinking about a subject *What's the company's* ***position on*** *recycling?* **9 SPORT** [C] the part that someone plays in a game such as football *What* ***position*** *does he* ***play?*** **10 SOCIETY** [C] your level of importance in society *the position of women in society*

position² /pəˈzɪʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] to put someone or something in a place for a reason [**often reflexive**] *I positioned myself as far away from her as possible.*

O-key **positive** /ˈpɒzətɪv/ *adjective* **1** HAPPY feeling happy about your life and your future *a* ***positive attitude*** ○ *I'm feeling much more positive about things now.* **2** ENCOURAGING Something that is positive makes you feel better about a situation. *We've shown people samples of the product and had a very* ***positive response.*** **3** CERTAIN [**never before noun**] certain that something is true *"Are you sure you saw him?" "Absolutely positive."* [**+ (that)**] *I'm positive that I switched it off.* **4** PROOF [**always before noun**] showing without any doubt that something is true ***positive proof*** **5 HEALTH** If a medical test is positive, it shows that the person being tested has a disease or condition. *She did a pregnancy test and it was positive.* **6 MATHEMATICS** In mathematics, a positive number is greater than zero. **7 PHYSICS** being the type of electrical charge which is carried by protons **8 positive charge PHYSICS** the electrical charge that is carried by protons (= parts of atoms)

positively /ˈpɒzətɪvli/ *adverb* **1** GOOD in a good way that makes you feel happier *Most children* ***respond positively*** *to praise and*

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encouragement. **2** EMPHASIS used to emphasize something that you say, especially when it is surprising *Our waiter was positively rude.*

positron /ˈpɒzɪtrɒn/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a very small piece of physical substance with a positive electrical charge, and with the same mass as an electron

possess /pəˈzes/ *verb* **1** [T] *formal* to have or own something *He was found guilty of possessing an illegal weapon.* **2 what possessed her/him/you, etc?** something that you say when someone has done something stupid [+ **to do sth**] What possessed you to tell him?

possessed /pəˈzest/ *adjective* controlled by evil spirits

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***possession***

sb's **prized/most treasured** possessions • **material/personal** possessions

possession /pəˈzeʃˀn/ *noun* **1** THING [C] a thing that you own [**usually plural**] ***personal possessions*** ○ *He woke up to discover that all his possessions had been stolen.* **2** HAVE [U] *formal* when you have or own something *I have* ***in my possession*** *a photograph which may be of interest to you.* ○ *He was caught* ***in possession of*** *explosives.*

possessive /pəˈzesɪv/ *adjective* **1** wanting someone to love and spend time with you and no one else **2 LANGUAGE** In grammar, a possessive word or form of a word shows who or what something belongs to. For example the words 'mine' and 'yours' are possessive pronouns.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***possibility***

consider/discuss/raise/rule out a possibility • a **distinct/real/strong** possibility • possibility **of** doing sth

possibility /ˌpɒsəˈbɪləti/ *noun* **1** CHANCE [C, U] a chance that something may happen or be true *Is there any* ***possibility of*** *changing this ticket?* [+ **(that)**] *There is a* ***strong possibility*** *that she was lying.* **2** CHOICE [C] something that you can choose to do *Have you considered the* ***possibility of*** *flying?* ➲Opposite **impossibility**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

possibility, occasion, or **opportunity?**

A **possibility** is a chance that something may happen or be true. **Possibility** cannot be followed by an infinitive.

Is there a possibility of finding a cure for AIDS?

~~*Is there a possibility to find a cure for AIDS?*~~

An **occasion** is an event, or a time when something happens. **Occasion** does not mean 'chance' or 'opportunity'.

Birthdays are always special occasions.

An **opportunity** is a possibility of doing something, or a situation which gives you the possibility of doing something.

The trip to Paris gave me an opportunity to speak French.

Students had the opportunity to ask questions during the lecture.

I have more opportunity to travel than my parents did.

~~*I have more possibility to travel than my parents did.*~~

possible /ˈpɒsəbl/ *adjective* **1** CAN HAPPEN If something is possible, it can happen or be done. [+ **to do sth**] *Is it possible to speak to the manager please?* ○ *The operation will* ***make it possible*** *for her to walk without crutches.* ○ *I'll send it today,* ***if possible.*** ➲Opposite **impossible** **2** NOT CERTAIN If something is possible, it might or might not exist or be true. *possible safety problems* [+ **(that)**] *It's possible that the tapes were stolen.* **3 as much/quickly/soon, etc as possible** as much/quickly/soon, etc as something can happen or be done *I'll go as soon as possible.* **4 the best/cheapest/worst, etc possible** the best/cheapest/worst, etc that can happen or exist *the shortest possible time*

possibly /ˈpɒsəbli/ *adverb* **1** NOT CERTAIN used when something is not certain *Someone, possibly Tom, had left the window open.* **2** EMPHASIS used with 'can' or 'could' for emphasis *We'll do everything we possibly can to help.* ○ *I couldn't possibly ask you to do that.* **3** QUESTIONS used in polite questions *Could I possibly borrow your bike?*

post¹ /pəʊst/ *noun* **1** SYSTEM [**no plural**] *UK* (*US* **mail**) the system for sending letters, parcels, etc *Your letter is* ***in the post.*** ○ *I'm sending the documents* ***by post.*** **2** LETTERS [U] *UK* (*US* **mail**) letters, parcels, etc that you send or receive *Has the* ***post arrived/come*** *yet?* **3** JOB [C] *formal* a job *a part-time post* ○ *a teaching post* **4** POLE [C] a long, vertical piece of wood or metal fixed into the ground at one end *I found the dog tied to a post.* **5** PLACE [C] a place where someone stands to guard something

post² /pəʊst/ *verb* [T] **1** *UK* (*US* **mail**) to send a letter or parcel by post *Did you post my letter?* **2 INTERNET** to leave a message on a website *I posted a query about arthritis treatment.* ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37. **3 be posted to France/London/Singapore, etc** to be sent to France/London/Singapore, etc to work, usually for the government or army **4 post a notice/sign, etc** to put a notice/sign, etc somewhere *He posted the message on the noticeboard.* **5 keep sb posted** to make certain that someone always knows what is happening *Keep me posted if anything happens.*

postage /ˈpəʊstɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] money that you pay to send a letter or parcel *first-class postage* ○ ***postage and packing***

ˌpostage and ˈpacking (*US* **ˌshipping and ˈhandling**) *noun* [U] money that you pay so that a company will send you something through the post

ˈpostage ˌstamp *noun* [C] *formal* a small, official piece of paper that you buy and stick onto a letter or parcel before you post it

postal /ˈpəʊstˀl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to the system of sending letters and parcels *the* ***postal service****/system*

ˈpostal ˌorder *UK* (*US* **money order**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an official piece of paper bought at a post office that you can send instead of money

ˈpost ˌbox *UK* (*US* **mailbox**) *noun* [C] a large, metal container in a public place where you can post letters

postcard /ˈpəʊstkɑːd/ *noun* [C] a card with a picture on one side that you send without an envelope *Send me a postcard.*

postcode /ˈpəʊstkəʊd/ *noun* [C] a group of letters and numbers that comes at the end of someone's address in the UK ➲Compare **zip code**

poster /ˈpəʊstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large, printed picture or notice that you put on a wall, in order to decorate a place or to advertise something

posterity /pɒsˈterəti/ *noun* [U] the people who will be alive in the future *These works of art should be preserved **for posterity**.*

postgraduate /ˌpəʊstˈgrædʒuət/ (*US* **graduate**) (*also* **postgrad**) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a student who has one degree and now studies at a university for a more advanced degree ●**postgraduate** *adjective a postgraduate degree in mathematics*

posthumous /ˈpɒstjəməs/ *adjective* happening after someone's death *the posthumous publication of her letters* ●**posthumously** *adverb*

posting /ˈpəʊstɪŋ/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* when you are sent to work in another place *a posting to Madrid*

Post-it (note) /ˈpəʊstɪtˌnəʊt/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a small piece of paper that you can write on and then stick to other papers or surfaces

postman /ˈpəʊstmən/ *UK* (*US* **mailman, letter carrier**) *noun* [C] *plural* **postmen** a man who takes and brings letters and parcels as a job

postmark /ˈpəʊstmɑːk/ *noun* [C] an official mark on a letter or parcel, showing the place and time it was sent

post-mortem /ˌpəʊstˈmɔːtəm/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medical examination of a dead body to find out why the person died

ˈpost ˌoffice *noun* [C] a place where you can buy stamps and send letters and parcels

postpone /pəʊstˈpəʊn/ *verb* [T] to arrange for something to happen at a later time *The trip to the museum has been **postponed until** next week.*

postscript /ˈpəʊstskrɪpt/ *noun* [C] extra information at the end of a letter or email, usually added after writing the letters 'PS'

posture /ˈpɒstʃəʳ/ *noun* [U] the position of your back, shoulders, etc when you are standing or sitting *She has very **good posture**.*

postwar /ˈpəʊstwɔːr/ *adjective* happening or existing in the period after a war *postwar Europe*

pot¹ /pɒt/ *noun* **1** [C] a round container, usually used for storing things or cooking *a flower pot ○ a pot of coffee/tea ○ pots and pans* **2 go to pot** to be damaged or spoilt because no effort has been made *My diet's gone to pot since the holidays.* ➲See also: **melting pot**

pot² /pɒt/ *verb* [T] **potting**, *past* **potted** to put a plant into a pot filled with soil

potassium /pəˈtæsiəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical element that combines easily with other elements, often used to help plants grow well (symbol **K**)

poˌtassium ˈiodide *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a white chemical compound similar to salt, which is used in photography and in some medical treatments (formula **KI**)

potassium permanganate /pəˌtæsiəmpɜːˈmæŋgəneɪt/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a dark purple chemical, used in industry, for example to kill germs (formula $KMnO_4$)

O-➡ **potato** /pəˈteɪtəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **potatoes** **FOOD** a round vegetable with a brown, yellow, or red skin that grows in the ground *boiled/fried potatoes ○ mashed potato* ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10 ➲See also: **couch potato, jacket potato, sweet potato**

poˈtato ˌchip *US* (*UK* **crisp**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a very thin, dry, fried slice of potato

potent /ˈpəʊtᵊnt/ *adjective* very powerful or very effective *a potent drug/weapon* ●**potency** /ˈpəʊtᵊnsi/ *noun* [U] when something is potent

potential¹ /pəʊˈtenʃᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A potential problem, employer, partner, etc may become one in the future, although they are not one now. *a **potential danger/threat** ○ a **potential customer** ○ A number of **potential buyers** have expressed interest in the building.* ●**potentially** *adverb a **potentially fatal** condition*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***potential***

have [enormous/great, etc] potential ● **achieve/fulfil/reach/realize** your (full) potential ● **see/spot** sb's/sth's potential ● sb's/sth's potential **as** sth

potential² /pəʊˈtenʃᵊl/ *noun* **1** SUCCESS [U] qualities or abilities that may develop and allow someone or something to succeed *to **achieve** your full **potential*** **2 potential for sth/doing sth** **a** the possibility that something may happen *There is the potential for some really interesting research.* **b** **PHYSICS** the difference in voltage (= how strong an electrical current is) between two points

poˌtential ˈenergy *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the energy stored by something because of its position compared with other objects, its condition, or its electrical charge

potentiometer /pəʊˌtentʃiˈɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **DT, PHYSICS** **1** a device for measuring electrical potential (= difference in amount of electrical current between two points) **2** a device for changing the resistance (= how much something prevents the flow of electricity through it), used especially to control volume (= how loud something is)

pothole /ˈpɒthəʊl/ *noun* [C] a hole in the surface of a road

potometer /pəˈtɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a device for measuring how much water is taken up into a plant ➲See picture **potometer** on next page

potted /ˈpɒtɪd/ *adjective* **1** planted in a container ***potted plants**/flowers ○ a potted palm* **2 potted history/version, etc of sth** *UK* a story or report that has been changed to make it shorter and more simple *a potted version of Shakespeare*

ˌpotted ˈplant (*also UK* **ˈpot ˌplant**) *noun* [C] a plant that is grown in a container, and usually kept inside

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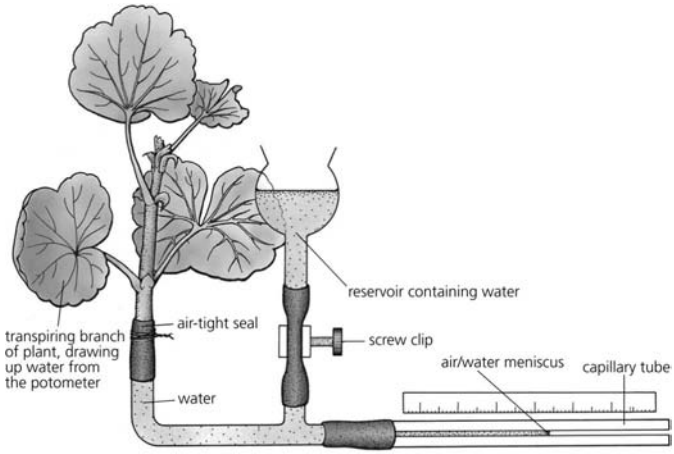

potometer

potter¹ /ˈpɒtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **DT** a person who makes plates, bowls, etc from clay

potter² /ˈpɒtəʳ/ *verb*
potter about/around (sth) *phrasal verb mainly UK* to spend time in a pleasant, relaxed way, often doing small jobs in your house

pottery /ˈpɒtᵊri/ *noun* **1 DT** [U] plates, bowls, etc that are made from clay **2 DT** [U] the activity of making plates, bowls, etc from clay **3** PLACE [C] a place where plates, bowls, etc made from clay are made or sold

potty¹ /ˈpɒti/ *noun* [C] a small toilet that young children use

potty² /ˈpɒti/ *adjective UK informal* crazy or stupid

pouch /paʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** a small, soft bag made of leather or cloth **2 BIOLOGY** a pocket of skin in which some female animals carry their babies

poultry /ˈpəʊltri/ *noun* **1** [plural] **FARMING** chickens and other birds that people breed for meat and eggs **2 FOOD** [U] the meat of chickens and other birds eaten as food

pounce /paʊns/ *verb* [I] to suddenly move towards a person or animal that you want to catch
pounce on sth/sb *phrasal verb* to immediately criticize a mistake

O-key **pound¹** /paʊnd/ *noun* [C] **1 ECONOMICS** the unit of money used in the UK and Ireland; £ *a hundred pounds/£100* ○ *a* ***pound coin*** **2 MEASURES** (*written abbreviation* **lb**) a unit for measuring weight, equal to 453.6 grams or 16 ounces *a pound of potatoes* ○ *The baby weighed just four pounds when she was born.* ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24.

pound² /paʊnd/ *verb* **1** HIT [I, T] to hit something many times using a lot of force *Someone was* ***pounding on*** *the door.* **2** HEART [I] If your heart pounds, it beats very quickly. *My* ***heart*** *was* ***pounding*** *as I walked out onto the stage.* **3 pound along/down/up, etc** to run somewhere with quick, loud steps *He pounded up the stairs.*

O-key **pour** /pɔːʳ/ *verb* **1** LIQUID [T] to make a liquid flow from or into a container *I* ***poured*** *the milk* ***into*** *a jug.* [+ **two objects**] *Can I* ***pour*** *you a* ***drink?*** **2** RAIN [I] (*also UK* **pour down**) to rain, producing a lot of water *We can't go out in this weather - it's pouring!* **3 pour into/out/from, etc a** LIQUID to flow quickly and in large amounts *Blood was pouring from my leg.* **b** PEOPLE to enter or leave a place in large numbers *The crowd poured out into the street.* **pour sth out** *phrasal verb* If you pour out your feelings or thoughts, you talk very honestly about what is making you sad. *She listened quietly while he* ***poured out*** *his* ***troubles.***

pout /paʊt/ *verb* [I] to push your lips forward because you are annoyed or because you want to look sexually attractive ●**pout** *noun* [C]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***poverty***

die in/live in poverty ● **alleviate/fight/tackle** poverty ● **abject/extreme** poverty

poverty /ˈpɒvəti/ *noun* [U] when you are very poor *to* ***live in poverty***

poverty-stricken /ˈpɒvəti,strɪkᵊn/ *adjective* A poverty-stricken area or person is very poor.

POW /ˌpiːəʊˈdʌbljuː/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* prisoner of war: a soldier who is caught by enemy soldiers during a war

powder /ˈpaʊdəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a dry substance made of many small, loose grains *curry powder* ○ *face powder* ●**powdered** *adjective* in the form of a powder *powdered milk/sugar* ➲See also: **talcum powder**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***power***

come to/devolve/seize/take/wield power ● **considerable/enormous** power

O-K **power**[1] /ˈpaʊə/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [U] control or influence over people and events *He likes to have **power over** people.* **2** **POLITICS** [U] political control in a country *They have been **in power** too long.* ○ *When did this government **come to power*** (= start to control the country)*?* **3** ENERGY [U] energy, usually electricity, that is used to provide light, heat, etc *nuclear power* ○ *Turn off the power at the main switch.* **4** **POLITICS** [C] a country that has a lot of influence over others *a major world power* **5** **LAW** [C, U] an official or legal right to do something [+ **to do sth**] *It's not **in my power** to stop him publishing this book.* **6** STRENGTH [U] strength or force ***economic/military power*** **7** ABILITY [U] a natural ability *to lose the power of speech* **8** **MATHEMATICS** the number of times that a number has to be multiplied by itself *2 to the fourth power is 2 times 2 times 2 times 2, which equals 16.* **9 do everything in your power to do sth** to do everything that you are able and allowed to do *I've done everything in my power to help him.* **10 the powers that be** important people who have authority over others ➲See also: **balance of power**

power[2] /ˈpaʊə/ *verb* [T] to supply energy to a machine and make it work [**often passive**] *The clock is powered by two small batteries.*

ˈ**power** ˌ**cut** (*also US* **power outage**) *noun* [C] when the supply of electricity suddenly stops

O-K **powerful** /ˈpaʊəfəl/ *adjective* **1** CONTROL A powerful person is able to control and influence people and events. *a powerful man/woman* **2** STRENGTH having a lot of strength or force *a powerful engine/weapon* **3** EFFECT having a strong effect on people *a **powerful effect/influence*** ●**powerfully** *adverb*

powerless /ˈpaʊələs/ *adjective* not able to control events [+ **to do sth**] *The police were powerless to stop the fighting.*

power outage /ˈpaʊərˌaʊtɪdʒ/ *US* (*UK/US* **power cut**) *noun* [C] when the supply of electricity suddenly stops

ˈ**power** ˌ**station** (*also US* ˈ**power**ˌ**plant**) *noun* [C] a place where electricity is produced

ˈ**power** ˌ**tool** *noun* [C] a tool that uses electricity

pp *written abbreviation for* pages *See pp 10 - 12 for more information.*

PR /ˌpiːˈɑːr/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* public relations: writing and activities that are intended to make a person, company, or product more popular ***good/bad PR*** ○ ***a PR campaign***

practicable /ˈpræktɪkəbl/ *adjective formal* able to be done successfully *It's just not practicable to travel in this weather.*

O-K **practical**[1] /ˈpræktɪkəl/ *adjective* **1** REAL relating to real situations or actions and not to thoughts or ideas ***practical experience*** ○ *They can offer **practical help**.* **2** SUITABLE suitable or useful for a situation which may involve some difficulty *practical clothes/shoes* ○ *Pale carpets just aren't practical if you have kids.* **3** POSSIBLE able to be done successfully *a **practical solution*** ○ *The plan is simply not practical.* **4** GOOD AT PLANNING Someone who is practical is good at planning things and dealing with problems. *She has a lot of interesting ideas but she's not very practical.* **5** GOOD WITH HANDS good at repairing and making things

practical[2] /ˈpræktɪkəl/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a lesson or examination in which you do or make something instead of only writing

practicalities /ˌpræktɪˈkælətiz/ *noun* [**plural**] real situations or facts *the **practicalities of** running your own business*

practicality /ˌpræktɪˈkæləti/ *noun* [U] **1** POSSIBLE the possibility that something can be done successfully *I like the idea but I'm not sure about the practicality of it.* **2** SUITABLE how suitable or useful something is for a situation which may involve some difficulty

ˌ**practical** ˈ**joke** *noun* [C] a trick using actions and not words to make people laugh ***to play** a **practical joke** on someone*

practically /ˈpræktɪkəli/ *adverb* **1** ALMOST almost *It's **practically impossible** to get there.* ○ *We see her practically every day.* **2** SUITABLE in a suitable or useful way *We need to think practically.*

O-K **practice** /ˈpræktɪs/ *noun* **1** REPEATING [U] when you repeat an activity to improve your ability *We need a bit more practice before the concert.* ○ *I've got basketball practice tonight.* **2** ACTIVITY [C, U] what people do or how they do it ***business/working practices*** [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *the **illegal practice** of copying CDs* [+ **to do sth**] ***It is common practice** to bury waste in landfills.* **3** WORK [C] a business in which several doctors or lawyers work together, or the work that they do *a **legal/medical practice*** **4 in practice** If something is true in practice, this is the real situation. *In practice, the new laws have had little effect.* **5 be out of practice** to not do something well because you have not done it recently **6 put something into practice** to try a plan or idea *Next month we will have a chance to put these ideas into practice.*

O-K **practise** *UK* (*US* **practice**) /ˈpræktɪs/ *verb* **1** REPEAT [I, T] to repeat something regularly in order to improve your ability *You need to practise your pronunciation.* ○ *They're **practising for** tomorrow's concert.* **2** WORK [I, T] to work as a doctor or a lawyer *to **practise medicine/law*** **3** CUSTOM/RELIGION [T] to do something regularly according to a custom, religion, or a set of rules *to **practise a religion*** **4 practise what you preach** to behave as well as you often tell other people they should behave *I'd have more respect for him if he practised what he preached.*

practised *UK* (*US* **practiced**) /ˈpræktɪst/ *adjective* very good at doing something because you have done it so often *She answered the questions with **practised ease**.*

practising *UK* (*US* **practicing**) /ˈpræktɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* **a practising Catholic/Jew/Muslim, etc** **RELIGION** someone who follows the rules of a religion

practitioner /prækˈtɪʃənər/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who works as a doctor or a lawyer *a medical practitioner* ➲See also: **general practitioner**

pragmatic /prægˈmætɪk/ *adjective* doing things in a practical and realistic way and not using

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only ideas *a **pragmatic approach** to a problem*

pragmatism /ˈprægmətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when someone is pragmatic ●**pragmatist** *noun* [C] someone who is pragmatic

prairie /ˈpreəri/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a large, flat area of land in North America that is usually covered in grass

praise¹ /preɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** to say that you admire someone or something, or that they are very good *He praised the team's performance.* ○ *Residents **praised** the firemen **for** their swift action.* **2** **RELIGION** to give respect and thanks to a god ***Praise God**, no one was hurt.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***praise***

deserve/earn/be singled out for/win praise ● **be full of** praise **for/have nothing but** praise **for** sb/ sth ● **glowing/high** praise ● praise **for** sb/sth ● **in** praise **of** sth

praise² /preɪz/ *noun* [U] words you say to show that you admire someone or something *They deserve **praise for** their achievements.* ○ *Her first novel **won** a lot of **praise** from the critics.*

praiseworthy /ˈpreɪzˌwɜːðɪ/ *adjective formal* deserving praise

pram /præm/ *noun* [C] *mainly UK* a small vehicle with four wheels for carrying a baby

prance /prɑːns/ *verb* [I] to walk or dance in a proud way, often because you want people to look at you *She was **prancing around** in a bikini.*

prank /præŋk/ *noun* [C] a trick that is intended to be funny

prawn /prɔːn/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small sea animal which you can eat, and which has a shell and ten legs

pray /preɪ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** **RELIGION** to speak to a god in order to show your feelings or to ask for something *Let us **pray for** all the sick children.* [+ **that**] *She prayed that God would forgive her.* **2** to hope very much that something will happen *We're just **praying for** rain.*

prayer /preəʳ/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [C] the words you say to a god *Shall we **say a prayer for** him?* **2** **RELIGION** [U] when you say words to a god *They knelt **in prayer**.*

praying mantis /ˌpreɪɪŋˈmæntɪs/ *noun* [C] a large green insect that holds its front legs together when it is waiting to catch another insect

preach /priːtʃ/ *verb* **1** **RELIGION** [I, T] to talk to a group of people about a religious subject, usually as a priest in a church *to preach the gospel* **2** [I] to try to persuade people to believe or support something, often in an annoying way ➲See also: **practise** what you preach

preacher /ˈpriːtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** someone who speaks in public about a religious subject, especially someone whose job is to do this

preamble /ˈpriːæmbl/ *noun* [C] *formal* an introduction to a speech or piece of writing

Precambrian /ˌpriːˈkæmbrɪən/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** from the earliest period of time, between about 4,600 and 570 million years ago, from when the Earth was formed until the first simple forms of life appeared *the Precambrian era* ○ *Precambrian rocks*

precarious /prɪˈkeəriəs/ *adjective* **1** SITUATION A precarious situation is likely to become worse. *Many illegal immigrants are in a **precarious position**.* **2** NOT FIXED not fixed and likely to fall *That shelf looks a bit precarious.* ●**precariously** *adverb Her cup was **balanced precariously** on the arm of the chair.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***precaution***

take [adequate/extra/necessary, etc] precautions ● **as** a precaution ● a **sensible/wise** precaution ● a **safety** precaution ● a precaution **against** sth

precaution /prɪˈkɔːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** something that you do to prevent bad things happening in the future *Driving alone at night can be dangerous, so always **take precautions**.* ○ *They called the doctor **as a precaution**.* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *He took the precaution of locking the door.* ●**precautionary** *adjective* **2** **a precautionary measure/step** something that you do in order to prevent something bad from happening

precede /priːˈsiːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to happen or exist before something else [**often passive**] *The formal ceremony was **preceded by** a parade.* ●**preceding** *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening or coming before *the preceding months*

precedence /ˈpresɪdᵊns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is considered more important than another person or thing *to **give precedence to** something* ○ *Quality should **take precedence** over cost.*

precedent /ˈpresɪdᵊnt/ *noun* [C, U] an action or decision that is used as an example when someone wants to do a similar thing in the future *This decision has **set an** important legal **precedent** for other countries.*

precinct /ˈpriːsɪŋkt/ *noun* **1** **a pedestrian/shopping precinct** *UK* an area in a town where there are shops and no cars are allowed **2** [C] *US* an area in a city that a particular group of police are responsible for, or the building in which they work *the 45th precinct*

precincts /ˈpriːsɪŋkts/ *noun* [**plural**] the area of land around a building, especially a large church *the cathedral precincts*

precious¹ /ˈpreʃəs/ *adjective* **1** IMPORTANT very important to you *His books are his most precious possessions.* **2** VALUABLE rare and very valuable *a precious vase* ○ *a precious metal/stone*

precious² /ˈpreʃəs/ *adverb* **precious few/little** very little or very few of something *We have precious little money at present.*

ˌprecious ˈmetal *noun* [C] a valuable metal such as gold

precipice /ˈpresɪpɪs/ *noun* [C] **1** SITUATION a dangerous situation that could lead to failure or harm *The two countries stood **on the precipice** of war.* **2** **GEOGRAPHY** a steep side of a mountain or high area of land

precipitate¹ /prɪˈsɪpɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something happen [**often passive**] *The war was precipitated by an invasion.*

precipitate² /prɪˈsɪpɪteɪt/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a solid substance found in a liquid during a chemical reaction

precipitation /prɪˌsɪpɪˈteɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **1** **GEOGRAPHY** water which falls from the clouds towards the ground, especially as rain or snow *Hail and sleet are types of precipitation.* **2** **CHEMISTRY** when a solid substance is formed in a liquid during a chemical reaction

precis /ˈpreɪsiː/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* **LANGUAGE** a report giving the main ideas of a piece of writing or speech

precise /prɪˈsaɪs/ *adjective* **1** EXACT exact and accurate *precise details/instructions* ➲Opposite **imprecise** **2** **to be precise** used to give exact details about something *We met in 1994 - October first to be precise.* **3** EMPHASIS [**always before noun**] used to emphasize something that you are referring to *At that **precise moment**, the door opened.*

precisely /prɪˈsaɪsli/ *adverb* **1** EXACTLY exactly *at 6 o' clock precisely* **2** EMPHASIS used to emphasize something *This is precisely the kind of thing I was hoping to avoid.* **3** AGREEMENT used to agree with what someone else says *" It's not the shape I dislike, it's the colour. " "Precisely!"*

precision /prɪˈsɪʒˈn/ *noun* [U] when something is very exact and accurate *She parked the car with great precision.*

preclude /prɪˈkluːd/ *verb* [T] *formal* to prevent something from happening [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *His illness precludes him from taking part in any sports.*

precocious /prɪˈkəʊʃəs/ *adjective* Children who are precocious have the confidence or skill of an adult. *A precocious child, she went to university at the age of 15.*

preconceived /ˌpriːkənˈsiːvd/ *adjective* Preconceived ideas are decided before the facts of a situation are known. ***preconceived ideas***

preconception /ˌpriːkənˈsepʃˈn/ *noun* [C] what you believe before you know the facts of a situation *People **have** so many **preconceptions about** unmarried mothers.*

precondition /ˌpriːkənˈdɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] *formal* what must happen before something else can happen *The ceasefire is a **precondition for** peace talks.*

precursor /ˌpriːˈkɜːsəʳ/ *noun* [C] *formal* something which happens or exists before something else and influences its development *Infection with HIV is a **precursor to** AIDS.*

predate /ˌpriːˈdeɪt/ *verb* [T] to exist or happen before something else *The drinking of alcohol predates the Greeks and Romans.*

predator /ˈpredətəʳ/ *noun* [C] an animal that kills and eats other animals

predatory /ˈpredətˈri/ *adjective* **1** A predatory person tries to get things from other people in a way that is unfair. **2** **BIOLOGY** A predatory animal kills and eats other animals.

predecessor /ˈpriːdɪˌsesəʳ/ US /ˈpredəsesəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON the person who was in a job or position before *He seems a lot better than his predecessor.* **2** THING something that existed before another, similar thing *The predecessors to these computers were much larger and heavier.*

predetermined /ˌpriːdɪˈtɜːmɪnd/ *adjective formal* decided before *They met at a predetermined time and place.*

predeterminer /ˌpriːdɪˈtɜːmɪnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word that is used before a determiner to give more information about a noun. For example 'all' in 'all these children' is a predeterminer.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***predicament***

face a predicament ● **explain** your predicament ● be **in** a predicament

predicament /prɪˈdɪkəmənt/ *noun* [C] a problem or a difficult situation *I sympathize with your predicament.*

predicate /ˈpredɪkət/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the part of a sentence which gives information about the subject. In the sentence 'We went to the airport.', 'went to the airport' is the predicate.

predicative /prɪˈdɪkətɪv/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** A predicative adjective comes after a verb. In the sentence 'She is happy.', 'happy' is a predicative adjective. ➲Compare **attributive**

predict /prɪˈdɪkt/ *verb* [T] to say what you think will happen in the future *Companies are predicting massive profits.* [+ **(that)**] *They predicted that the temperature would reach 80 degrees today.*

predictable /prɪˈdɪktəbl/ *adjective* happening or behaving in a way that you expect and not unusual or interesting *a predictable result* ○ *She's so predictable.* ➲Opposite **unpredictable** ●**predictably** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***prediction***

make a prediction ● an **accurate /gloomy** prediction ● a prediction **about** sth ● a prediction **of** [disaster/an improvement, etc]

prediction /prɪˈdɪkʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] when you say what you think will happen in the future *I wouldn't like to **make** any **predictions about** the result of this match.*

predictive texting *noun* [U] when your mobile phone suggests words automatically while you use it to write a text message (= a written message sent from one mobile phone to another)

predilection /ˌpriːdɪˈlekʃˈn/ *noun* [C] *formal* when you like something very much *She **has a predilection for** chocolate.*

predisposed /ˌpriːdɪˈspəʊzd/ *adjective* **be predisposed to sth** to be more likely than other people to have a medical problem or to behave in a particular way *Some people are predisposed to addiction.* ●**predisposition** /ˌpriːdɪspəˈzɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C] when you are likely to have a medical problem or to behave in a particular way *people with a **predisposition to** heart disease*

predominant /prɪˈdɒmɪnənt/ *adjective* more important or noticeable than others *He has played a **predominant role** in these talks.* ●**predominance** /prɪˈdɒmɪnəns/ *noun* [U] when

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something is more important or noticeable than others *the predominance of English on the Internet*

predominantly /prɪˈdɒmɪnəntli/ *adverb* mostly or mainly *a predominantly Asian community*

predominate /prɪˈdɒmɪneɪt/ *verb* [I] to be the largest in number or the most important *Olive trees predominate in this area.*

pre-eminent /ˌpriːˈemɪnənt/ *adjective* more important or better than others *a pre-eminent artist/scholar* ●**pre-eminence** /ˌpriːˈemɪnəns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is much more important or better than others

pre-empt /ˌpriːˈempt/ *verb* [T] to do something before something else happens in order to prevent it or reduce its effect ●**pre-emptive** *adjective* preventing something else from happening *to take **pre-emptive action***

preen /priːn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** BIRD If a bird preens or preens itself, it makes its feathers clean and tidy. **2** PERSON to try to look attractive [**often reflexive**] *The actors preened themselves in the dressing room.*

pre-existing /ˌpriːɪgˈzɪstɪŋ/ *adjective* existing before something else *a pre-existing medical condition*

prefabricated /ˌpriːˈfæbrɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **a prefabricated building/home/house, etc** a building that has already been partly built when it is put together

preface /ˈprefɪs/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a piece of writing at the beginning of a book that explains why it was written

prefect /ˈpriːfekt/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** in the UK, an older student in a school who has special duties and some authority

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O-key **prefer** /prɪˈfɜːr/ *verb* [T] **preferring**, *past* **preferred** **1** to like someone or something more than another person or thing *I **prefer** dogs **to** cats.* [+ **doing sth**] *She prefers watching tennis to playing.* **2 would prefer** used to say what you want or ask someone what they want [+ **to do sth**] *I'd prefer to go alone.* ○ *Would you prefer red or white wine?*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

prefer

Remember that **prefer** is often followed by **to do sth** or **doing sth**.

I prefer to walk.

I prefer walking.

~~*I prefer walk.*~~

preferable /ˈprefərəbl/ *adjective* better or more suitable *Staying at home is **preferable to** going out with someone you don't like.*

preferably /ˈprefərəbli/ *adverb* if possible *Serve the pudding with ice cream, preferably vanilla.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***preference***

express/have a preference ● a **clear/marked** preference ● a **personal** preference ● a preference **for** sth

preference /ˈprefərəns/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when you like something or someone more than another person or thing ***personal preferences*** ○ *We have white and brown bread. Do you **have a preference**? ○ I have a **preference for** dark-haired men.* **2 give preference to sb** to give special treatment to someone *Hospitals must give preference to urgent cases.*

preferential /ˌprefəˈrenʃəl/ *adjective* **preferential treatment** If you are given preferential treatment, you are treated in a better way than other people. *There were complaints that some guests had been given preferential treatment.*

prefix /ˈpriːfɪks/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a group of letters that you add to the beginning of a word to make another word. In the word 'unimportant', 'un-' is a prefix. ➲See Extra help page **Word formation** on page Centre 28. ➲Compare **suffix**

pregnancy /ˈpregnənsi/ *noun* [C, U] **BIOLOGY** when a woman is pregnant

O-key **pregnant** /ˈpregnənt/ *adjective* **1** **BIOLOGY** A pregnant woman has a baby developing inside her uterus. *to **get pregnant*** ○ *She's five months pregnant.* **2 a pregnant pause/silence** a pause or silence full of meaning that is not said in words

preheat /priːˈhiːt/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to heat an oven to a particular temperature before putting food in it *Preheat the oven to 180 degrees.*

prehistoric /ˌpriːhɪˈstɒrɪk/ *adjective* relating to a time in the past before there were written records of events *prehistoric remains*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***prejudice***

encounter/experience/face prejudice ● prejudice **against** sb

prejudice[1] /ˈpredʒədɪs/ *noun* [C, U] when someone dislikes a group of people or treats them unfairly because they are a different race, sex, religion, etc *racial prejudice* ○ ***prejudice against** women*

prejudice[2] /ˈpredʒədɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to influence someone in an unfair way so that they have a bad opinion of someone or something *Her comments may have **prejudiced** the voters **against** him.* **2** SITUATION to have a harmful effect on a situation *Newspaper reports have prejudiced the trial.*

prejudiced /ˈpredʒədɪst/ *adjective* feeling dislike for a group of people or treating them unfairly because they are a different race, sex, religion, etc *Are the police **prejudiced against** black people?*

preliminary /prɪˈlɪmɪnəri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] done or happening in order to prepare for the main event or activity *a preliminary discussion/meeting* ●**preliminary** *noun* [C] something that you do at the start of an event or activity

prelude /ˈprelju:d/ *noun* **1 a prelude to sth** something that happens before another event or activity, usually as an introduction to it *There are hopes that the talks are a prelude to an agreement.* **2** **MUSIC** [C] a short piece of music that introduces the main piece

premature /ˈpremətʃər/ (US) /ˌpriːməˈtʊr/ *adjective* happening too soon or before the usual time ***premature ageing/death*** ○ *a*

premature baby [+ **to do sth**] *It seems a bit premature to start talking about it already.* ●**prematurely** *adverb He died prematurely of cancer.*

premeditated /ˌpriːˈmedɪteɪtɪd/ *adjective* **LAW** If a crime is premeditated, it is planned. ***premeditated murder*** ○ ***a premeditated attack***

premenstrual /ˌpriːˈmenstruəl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** related to the time just before a woman's period (= monthly blood from the uterus) ***premenstrual syndrome/tension***

premier¹ /ˈpremiər/ (US) /prɪˈmɪr/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the leader of a government *the Chinese premier* ●**premiership** *noun* [U] the period in which someone is premier

premier² /ˈpremiər/ (US) /prɪˈmɪr/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] best or most important *the city's premier hotel*

premiere /ˈpremieər/ (US) /prɪˈmɪr/ *noun* [C] the first public performance of a film, play, etc *a film premiere* ○ *the world premiere* ●**premiere** *verb* [I, T] [**often passive**] The opera was premiered in Paris.

the Premiership /ˈpremiəˌʃɪp/ *noun* **SPORT** the group of the best English football teams who compete against each other

premise /ˈpremɪs/ *noun* [C] *formal* an idea that you use to support another theory

premises /ˈpremɪsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] the land or buildings used by an organization *We're moving to new premises.* ○ *Smoking is not allowed anywhere* ***on the premises***.

premium¹ /ˈpriːmiəm/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [C] an amount of money you pay for insurance (= payments for an accident or illness) *How much is the monthly premium?* **2** [C] an amount or rate that is higher than average *You* ***pay a premium*** *for apartments in the city centre.* **3 be at a premium** If something useful is at a premium, there is not enough of it. *Time is at a premium just before the start of exams.* **4 place/put a premium on sth** to consider a quality or achievement as very important *She puts a premium on honesty.*

premium² /ˈpriːmiəm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A premium product is of a higher quality or value than others. *premium beer/cigars*

premolar /ˌpriːˈməulər/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the two teeth in front of the molars (= large teeth at the back of the mouth) in the mouths of humans and some other animals, used for chewing food ➲See picture at **skull**

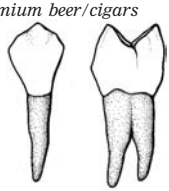

premolar

premonition /ˌpreməˈnɪʃən/ *noun* [C] a feeling that something, especially something unpleasant, is going to happen *to* ***have a premonition*** ○ ***a premonition of*** *disaster*

prenatal /ˌpriːˈneɪtəl/ *US* (*UK* **antenatal**) *adjective* **HEALTH** relating to pregnant women before their babies are born ***prenatal care***

preoccupation /priːˌɒkjəˈpeɪʃən/ *noun* **1** THINK/WORRY [C, U] when you think or worry about something so much that you do not think about other things *a* ***preoccupation with*** *death/food* **2** THING [C] something that you think or worry about a lot *His main preoccupations are football and women.*

preoccupied /ˌpriːˈɒkjəpaɪd/ *adjective* thinking or worrying about something a lot *She's been very preoccupied recently.* ○ *He's far too* ***preoccupied with*** *his own problems to notice mine.* ●**preoccupy** /ˌpriːˈɒkjəpaɪ/ *verb* [T] If something preoccupies you, you think or worry about it a lot.

prepaid /priːˈpeɪd/ *adjective* **FINANCE** If something is prepaid, you pay for it before a particular time. *Susan just got prepaid tickets for the show next weekend.*

O-key **preparation** /ˌprepərˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] the things that you do or the time that you spend preparing for something *Did you* ***do*** *much* ***preparation for*** *your interview?* ○ *He's been painting the outside of the house* ***in preparation for*** *winter.* ○ *the preparation of the document*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***preparations***

begin/finalize/make preparations ● **final/last-minute** preparations ● preparations are **underway** ● preparations **for** sth

preparations /ˌprepərˈeɪʃənz/ *noun* [**plural**] things that you do to get ready for something *wedding preparations* ○ *We've been* ***making preparations for*** *the journey.* ○ *I've been busy with* ***last-minute preparations*** *for our trip.*

preparatory /prɪˈpærətəri/ *adjective* done in order to get ready for something *preparatory work*

preˈparatory ˌschool *noun* [C] *formal* **EDUCATION** a prep school *the Perse Prep School, Cambridge*

O-key **prepare** /prɪˈpeər/ *verb* **1** GET READY [I, T] to get someone or something ready for something that will happen in the future *They're* ***preparing for*** *the big match.* ○ *We're preparing the students for their end-of-year exam.* [+ **to do sth**] *I was busy preparing to go on holiday.* **2 prepare yourself** to make yourself ready to deal with a difficult situation *Prepare yourself for a shock.* **3** **FOOD** [T] to make food ready to be eaten *to prepare lunch*

prepared /prɪˈpeəd/ *adjective* **1** ready to deal with a situation *I wasn't* ***prepared for*** *the cold.* **2 be prepared to do sth** to be willing to do something *You must be prepared to work hard.*

prepayment /ˌpriːˈpeɪmənt/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** payment for goods before they are received

preponderance /prɪˈpɒndərəns/ *noun formal* **a preponderance of sth** when there is a larger amount of one thing than of others *There is a preponderance of older people in this area.*

preposition /ˌprepəˈzɪʃən/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or group of words that is used before a noun or pronoun to show place, direction, time, etc. For example 'on' in 'Your keys are on the table.' is a preposition.

preposterous /prɪˈpɒstərəs/ *adjective* extremely stupid *That's a preposterous idea!*

prep school /ˈprepskuːl/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** **1** in the UK, a private school for children aged

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between 8 and 13 **2** in the US, a private school which prepares students for college

prerequisite /ˌpriːˈrekwɪzɪt/ *noun* [C] *formal* something that is necessary in order for something else to happen or exist *Trust is a **prerequisite for** any sort of relationship.*

prerogative /prɪˈrɒgətɪv/ *noun* [C] *formal* something that you have the right to do because of who you are *Alex makes the decisions - that's his prerogative as company director.*

Presbyterian /ˌprezbɪˈtɪəriən/ *adjective* **RELIGION** belonging or relating to a type of Christian church with elected groups of local members involved in the official organization of local churches ●**Presbyterian** *noun* [C]

pre-school /ˈpriːskuːl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **EDUCATION** relating to children who are too young to go to school ***pre-school children/education*** ●**pre-school** *noun* [C] a school for children younger than five years old

prescribe /prɪˈskraɪb/ *verb* [T] **1** **HEALTH** to say what medical treatment someone needs [**often passive**] *Painkillers are the most common drugs prescribed by doctors in Britain.* **2** *formal* to say officially what people must do *rules prescribed by law*

prescription /prɪˈskrɪpʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [C] a piece of paper saying what medicine someone needs or the medicine itself *a **doctor's prescription*** **2** **HEALTH on prescription** *UK* (*US* **by prescription**) If you get a medicine on prescription, you only get it if you have a written instruction from your doctor.

prescriptive /prɪˈskrɪptɪv/ *adjective formal* saying exactly what must happen *The government's homework guidelines are too prescriptive.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***presence***

the presence **of** sb/sth ● **in** the presence **of** sb/sth

presence /ˈprezᵊns/ *noun* **1** IN A PLACE [U] when someone or something is in a place *She signed the document **in the presence of** two witnesses.* **2** POLICE/SOLDIERS [**no plural**] a group of police or soldiers who are watching or controlling a situation *a strong **police presence*** **3** QUALITY [U] a quality that makes people notice and admire you **4 presence of mind** the ability to deal with a difficult situation quickly and effectively *She had the presence of mind to press the alarm.* **5 make your presence felt** to have a strong effect on other people *The new police chief has really made his presence felt.*

present¹ /ˈprezᵊnt/ *adjective* **1 be present** to be in a particular place *The whole family was present.* **2** [**always before noun**] happening or existing now *the present situation* ○ *What is your present occupation?* **3 present tense** **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb which is used to show what happens or exists now

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***present***

buy/get/give sb/**wrap (up)** a present ● a present **for/from** sb ● a **birthday/wedding** present

present² /ˈprezᵊnt/ *noun* **1 the present a** the period of time that is happening now *The play is set **in the present.*** **b** **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb which is used to show what happens or exists now **2** [C] something that you give to someone, usually for a particular occasion *a **birthday/wedding present*** ○ *to **give** someone a **present*** **3 at present** now *At present she's working abroad.*

present³ /prɪˈzent/ *verb* [T] **1** GIVE to give something to someone, often at a formal ceremony *to **present a prize*** ○ *They **presented** her **with** a bouquet.* **2** INFORMATION to give people information in a formal way *He **presented** the report **to** his colleagues.* **3 present a danger/threat/problem, etc** to cause a danger/threat/problem, etc *The final exam may present some problems.* **4** TV/RADIO *UK* (*US* **host**) to introduce a television or radio programme *He presents a weekly sports quiz.* **5** PLAY/FILM to show a new play or film *The school is presenting 'West Side Story' this term.* **6** INTRODUCE to introduce someone formally *May I present my daughters?* **7** OPPORTUNITY If an opportunity presents itself, it becomes possible. *I'd be happy to go to New York, if the **opportunity presented itself.***

presentable /prɪˈzentəbl/ *adjective* looking clean and tidy enough *He was looking quite presentable in his jacket and tie.*

presentation /ˌprezᵊnˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** SHOW [U] the way something is arranged or shown to people *Presentation is important if you want people to buy your products.* **2** TALK [C] a talk giving information about something *a **sales presentation*** ○ *She **gave** an excellent **presentation.*** **3** CEREMONY [C] a formal ceremony at which you give someone something *a **presentation ceremony***

present-day /ˌprezəntˈdeɪ/ *adjective* existing now *present-day attitudes*

presenter /prɪˈzentəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **host**) *noun* [C] someone who introduces a radio or television programme

presently /ˈprezəntli/ *adverb* **1** NOW *formal* now *He's presently living with his parents.* **2** SOON *old-fashioned* soon or after a short time *I'll be back presently.*

ˌpresent parˈticiple *UK* (*US* **ˌpresent ˈparticiple**) *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb that ends with '-ing'

the ˌpresent ˈperfect *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb that is used to show actions or events that have happened in a period of time up to now. The sentence 'I have never been to Australia.' is in the present perfect.

preservation /ˌprezəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you keep something the same or prevent it from being damaged or destroyed *the preservation of peace* ○ *the preservation of wildlife*

preservative /prɪˈzɜːvətɪv/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a substance used to prevent decay in food or in wood

preserve¹ /prɪˈzɜːv/ *verb* [T] **1** to keep something the same or prevent it from being damaged or destroyed *to preserve peace* ○ *to preserve the environment* **2** **FOOD** to add substances to something so that it stays in good condition for a long time *to preserve food/wood*

preserve² /prɪˈzɜːv/ *noun* **1** FOOD [C, U] *UK* (*US* **preserves**) a sweet food made from fruit, sugar, and water *apricot/strawberry preserve* **2** [**no plural**] an activity which only a particular group of people can do *Sport used to be a male preserve.* ○ *Owning racehorses is* ***the preserve of*** *the rich.* **3** ENVIRONMENT [C] *mainly US* an area where wild animals and plants are protected

preside /prɪˈzaɪd/ *verb* [I] to be officially responsible for a formal meeting or ceremony *An elderly priest* ***presided at*** *the marriage ceremony.*
preside over sth *phrasal verb* to be in charge of a situation, especially a formal meeting or legal trial *The case was* ***presided over by*** *a senior judge.*

presidency /ˈprezɪdᵊnsi/ *noun* POLITICS **1** [C] the period when someone is president *Her presidency lasted seven years.* **2 the presidency** the job of being president *He* ***won*** *the* ***presidency*** *by a wide margin.*

O-K **president** /ˈprezɪdᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** POLITICS the highest political position in some countries, usually the leader of the government *President Clinton* **2** the person in charge of a company or organization ➲See also: **vice president**

presidential /ˌprezɪˈdenʃᵊl/ *adjective* POLITICS relating to the president of a country *a* ***presidential campaign***

O-K **press¹** /pres/ *verb* **1** PUSH [I, T] to push something firmly *Press the button to start the machine.* ○ *He pressed his face against the window.* **2** PERSUADE [T] to try hard to persuade someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] *The committee pressed him to reveal more information.* ○ *We* ***pressed*** *him* ***for*** *an answer but he refused.* **3 press charges** LAW to complain officially about someone in a court of law *The family decided not to* ***press charges against*** *him.* **4** MAKE SMOOTH [T] to make clothes smooth by ironing them *I need to press these trousers.* **5** MAKE FLAT [T] to make something flat by putting something heavy on it for a long time *to press fruit/flowers* **6 press a case/claim** to try to make people accept your demands
press ahead/forward/on *phrasal verb* to continue to do something in a determined way *They're determined to press ahead with their plans despite opposition.*

press² /pres/ *noun* **1 the press** newspapers and magazines, or the people who write them *the* ***local/national press*** ○ ***press reports*** **2 good/bad press** praise or criticism from newspapers, magazines, television, etc *She's had a lot of bad press recently.* **3** BUSINESS [C] a business that prints and sells books *Cambridge University Press* **4** PRINT [C] (*also* **printing press**) a machine used to print books, newspapers, and magazines **5** MAKE FLAT [**no plural**] when you make cloth flat and smooth with a piece of equipment *Can you* ***give*** *these trousers* ***a press?***

ˈpress ˌconference *noun* [C] a meeting at which someone officially gives information to the newspapers, television, etc *to* ***call/hold*** *a* ***press conference***

pressed /prest/ *adjective* **be pressed for time/money** to not have much time/money

pressing /ˈpresɪŋ/ *adjective* A pressing problem or situation needs to be dealt with immediately. *a* ***pressing need*** *for housing*

ˈpress reˌlease *noun* [C] an official piece of information that is given to newspapers, television, etc

ˈpress ˌstud *noun* [C] a metal or plastic object used to fasten clothes, made of two small round parts which are pressed together

press-up /ˈpresʌp/ *UK* (*US* **push-up**) *noun* [C] SPORT a physical exercise in which you lie facing the floor and use your hands to push your body up

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pressure***

face/feel pressure ● **be under/come under** pressure ● pressure **on** sb ● pressure **from** sb ● pressure **for** sth

O-K **pressure¹** /ˈpreʃᵊ/ *noun* **1** MAKE SOMEONE DO [U] when someone tries to make someone else do something by arguing, persuading, etc ***public/political pressure*** [+ **to do sth**] *Teachers are* ***under*** *increasing* ***pressure*** *to work longer hours.* ○ *The government is facing* ***pressure from*** *environmental campaigners.* **2** PROBLEMS [C, U] difficult situations that make you feel worried or unhappy *the pressures of work* ○ *He's been* ***under*** *a lot of* ***pressure*** *recently.* **3** PHYSICS [C, U] the force that a liquid or gas produces when it presses against an area ***water pressure*** **4** PHYSICS [U] the force that you produce when you push something **5 put pressure on sb** to try to force someone to do something [+ **to do sth**] They're putting pressure on me to make a decision. ➲See also: **blood pressure, peer pressure**

pressure² /ˈpreʃᵊ/ (*also UK* **pressurize, -ise** /ˈpreʃᵊraɪz/) *verb* [T] to try to force someone to do something [**often passive + into + doing sth**] *We will not be pressured into making a decision.*

ˈpressure ˌcooker *noun* [C] a pan with a lid which you use to cook food quickly in steam

ˈpressure ˌgroup *noun* [C] POLITICS a group of people who try to influence what the public or the government think about something

pressurize *UK* (*also* **-ise**) /ˈpreʃᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to try to force someone to do something [**often passive + into + doing sth**] *He was pressurized into signing the agreement.*

pressurized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈpreʃᵊraɪzd/ *adjective* PHYSICS containing air or gas that is kept at a controlled pressure *a pressurized container*

prestige /presˈtiːʒ/ *noun* [U] when people feel respect and admiration for you, often because you are successful *His company has gained international prestige.* ●**prestigious** /presˈtɪdʒəs/ *adjective* respected and admired, usually because of being important *a* ***prestigious award*** ○ *a prestigious university*

presumably /prɪˈzjuːməbli/ *adverb* used to say what you think is the likely situation *Presumably he just forgot to send the letter.*

presume /prɪˈzjuːm/ *verb* **1** [T] to think that something is likely to be true, although you are not certain [+ **(that)**] *I presume that you've*

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done your homework. **2 be presumed dead/innocent, etc** If someone is presumed dead/innocent, etc, it seems very likely that they are dead/innocent, etc. **3 presume to do sth** *formal* to do something that you do not have the right or the skills to do *I certainly wouldn't presume to tell you how to do your job.*

presumption /prɪˈzʌmpʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** BELIEF [C] when you believe that something is true without any proof [**+ (that)**] *I object to the presumption that young people are only interested in pop music.* **2** BEHAVIOUR [U] behaviour that is rude and does not show respect

presumptuous /prɪˈzʌmptʃuəs/ *adjective* Someone who is presumptuous confidently does things that they have no right to do. *It was a bit presumptuous of her to take the car without asking.*

presuppose /ˌpriːsəˈpəʊz/ *verb* [T] *formal* If an idea or situation presupposes something, that thing must be true for the idea or situation to work.

pre-teen /priːˈtiːn/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a boy or girl between the ages of 9 and 12 *a magazine for pre-teens* ●**pre-teen** *adjective pre-teen fashions*

pretence *UK* (*US* **pretense**) /prɪˈtens/ *noun* **1** [U] when you make someone believe something that is not true *I can't* ***keep up the pretence*** (= continue pretending) *any longer.* ○ *They* ***made*** *absolutely* ***no pretence of*** *being interested.* **2 under false pretences** If you do something under false pretences, you do it when you have lied about who you are or what you are doing. *The police charged him with obtaining money under false pretences.*

pretend /prɪˈtend/ *verb* [I, T] to behave as if something is true when it is not [**+ (that)**] *I can't pretend that I like him.* [**+ to do sth**] *Were you just pretending to be interested?*

pretense /prɪˈtens/ *noun US spelling of* pretence

pretension /prɪˈtenʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when you try to seem better or more important than you really are [**usually plural**] *He seems to be without pretensions of any sort.*

pretentious /prɪˈtenʃəs/ *adjective* trying to seem more important or clever than you really are *a pretentious film*

pretext /ˈpriːtekst/ *noun* [C] a false reason that you use to explain why you are doing something *I called her* ***on the pretext of*** *needing some information.*

pretty¹ /ˈprɪti/ *adverb informal* **1** quite, but not extremely *The traffic was pretty bad.* ○ *I'm pretty sure they'll accept.* **2 pretty much/well** almost *We've pretty much finished here.*

pretty² /ˈprɪti/ *adjective* **1** WOMAN If a woman or girl is pretty, she is attractive. *Your daughter is very pretty.* **2** OBJECT If a place or an object is pretty, it is pleasant to look at. *a pretty little village*

prevail /prɪˈveɪl/ *verb* [I] *formal* **1** CONTROL to get control or influence *We can only hope that* ***common sense*** *will* ***prevail.*** **2** BE COMMON to be common among a group of people *The use of guns prevails among the gangs in this area.*

prevail on/upon sb to do sth *phrasal verb formal* to persuade someone to do something that they do not want to do *He was eventually prevailed upon to accept the appointment.*

prevailing /prɪˈveɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** existing a lot in a particular group, area, or at a particular time *a* ***prevailing attitude/mood*** **2 a prevailing wind** a wind that usually blows in a particular place

prevalent /ˈprevᵊlənt/ *adjective* existing a lot in a particular group, area, or at a particular time *These diseases are more prevalent among young children.* ●**prevalence** /ˈprevᵊləns/ *noun* [U] when something exists a lot in a particular group, area, or at a particular time *the prevalence of smoking among teenagers*

prevent /prɪˈvent/ *verb* [T] to stop something happening or to stop someone doing something *to prevent accidents/crime* [**+ from + doing sth**] *Members of the public were prevented from entering the building.* ●**preventable** *adjective* If something is preventable, it can be prevented.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

prevent

Prevent should not be followed by 'to do sth'.

We must prevent such a disaster from happening again.

~~*We must prevent such a disaster to happen again.*~~

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

protect or **prevent?**

Protect means to keep someone or something safe from bad things.

You should wear sunscreen to protect your skin.

Prevent means to stop something from happening.

Wearing sunscreen can help prevent skin cancer.

preventative /prɪˈventətɪv/ *adjective another word for* preventive

prevention /prɪˈvenʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you stop something happening or stop someone doing something ***crime prevention*** ○ *the* ***prevention of*** *diseases*

preventive /prɪˈventɪv/ (*also* **preventative**) *adjective* Preventive action is intended to stop something before it happens. ***preventive measures*** ○ ***preventive medicine***

preview /ˈpriːvjuː/ *noun* [C] **1** FIRST SHOWING an opportunity to see a film, play, etc before it is shown to the public **2** ADVERTISEMENT a short film that advertises a film or television programme ●**preview** *verb* [T]

previous /ˈpriːviəs/ *adjective* existing or happening before something or someone else *the previous day/year* ○ *a previous attempt* ○ *his previous marriage* ●**previously** *adverb He previously worked as a teacher.*

prey¹ /preɪ/ *noun* **1** [U] an animal that is hunted and killed by another animal **2 fall prey to sth** to be hurt or deceived by something or someone bad ➲See also: **bird of prey**

prey² /preɪ/ *verb*

prey on sth *phrasal verb* If an animal preys on

another animal, it catches it and eats it. *Spiders prey on flies and other small insects.* **prey on/upon sb** *phrasal verb* to hurt or deceive people who are weak and easy to deceive *These young thieves prey on the elderly.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***price***

charge/increase/pay/put up prices ● prices **fall** ● an **average/exorbitant/high/low/reasonable** price

price¹ /praɪs/ *noun* **1** FINANCE [C] the amount of money that you pay to buy something ***high/low prices*** ○ *House prices are falling/rising.* ○ *The price of fuel has gone up again.* **2** [**no plural**] the unpleasant results that you must accept or experience for getting or doing something *Suspension from the club was **a high/small price to pay*** (= very bad/not very bad thing to experience) *for his mistake.* **3 at a price** If you can get something at a price, you have to pay a lot of money for it. *False passports are available, at a price.* **4 at any price** If you want something at any price, you will do anything to get it. *She wanted the job at any price.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

price or prize?

These two words sound very similar but have different spellings and very different meanings - be careful not to confuse them.

Price means 'the amount of money that you pay to buy something'.

The price of oil has risen by 20%.

Prize means 'something valuable that is given to someone who wins a competition or who has done good work'.

She won first prize in the competition.

price² /praɪs/ *verb* [T] FINANCE to say what the price of something is [**often passive**] *The book is **priced at** $40.*

ˈprice ˌfixing *noun* [U] LAW, FINANCE an agreement that is usually not legal, where companies all sell goods at a particular price in order to keep prices high

priceless /ˈpraɪsləs/ *adjective* **1** VALUABLE very valuable *a **priceless antique/painting*** **2** IMPORTANT very important or useful *A trip round the world is a priceless opportunity.*

ˈprice ˌskimming *noun* [U] FINANCE, ECONOMICS the practice of selling a new product at a high price

ˈprice ˌtag (also **ˈprice ˌticket**) *noun* [C] a piece of paper attached to a product that shows the amount a product costs

pricey (*also* **pricy**) /ˈpraɪsi/ *adjective informal* expensive *That jacket's a bit pricey!*

prick /prɪk/ *verb* [T] to make a very small hole in something with a sharp object *Prick the potatoes all over before baking.* ○ *I pricked my finger on a pin.* ●**prick** *noun* [C] *The injection won't hurt - you'll just feel a slight prick.*

prickle¹ /ˈprɪkl/ *noun* [C] a sharp point on the surface of some plants or the skin of some animals

prickle² /ˈprɪkl/ *verb* [I] If part of your body prickles, it feels as if a lot of sharp points are touching it because you are frightened or excited. *a prickling sensation*

prickly /ˈprɪkli/ *adjective* **1** SHARP covered with prickles *a prickly bush* **2** UNFRIENDLY *informal* A prickly person or relationship is unfriendly or difficult to deal with.

pricy /ˈpraɪsi/ *adjective another spelling of* pricey

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***pride***

take pride **in** sth ● a **sense/source** of pride ● **great** pride ● sb's pride **at/in** sth

pride¹ /praɪd/ *noun* [U] **1** SATISFACTION a feeling of satisfaction at your achievements or the achievements of your family or friends *She felt **a great sense of pride** as she watched him accept the award.* ○ *The whole community **takes pride in*** (= feels proud about) *the school.* **2** RESPECT the respect that you feel for yourself *Defeat in the World Cup has badly damaged **national pride**.* **3** IMPORTANCE the belief that you are better or more important than other people *His pride prevented him from asking for help.* **4 sb's pride and joy** something or someone that is very important to you *He spends hours cleaning that motorcycle - it's his pride and joy.* **5 have/take pride of place** If something takes pride of place, you put it in the best position so that it can be seen easily. *A photo of her grandchildren took pride of place on the wall.* **6 swallow your pride** to decide to do something although it will embarrass you *He swallowed his pride and asked if he could have his old job back.*

pride² /praɪd/ *verb*
pride yourself on sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to feel satisfaction at a quality or skill that you have *The company prides itself on having the latest technology.*

priest /priːst/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who performs religious duties and ceremonies

the priesthood /ˈpriːsthʊd/ *noun* RELIGION the job of being a priest

prim /prɪm/ *adjective* Someone who is prim behaves in a very formal way and is easily shocked by anything rude. *Sarah wouldn't find that funny - she's far too **prim and proper*** (= shocked by anything rude). ●**primly** *adverb*

prima donna /ˌpriːməˈdɒnə/ *noun* [C] someone who behaves badly and expects to get everything they want because they think that they are very important

primal /ˈpraɪməl/ *adjective formal* very basic, or relating to the time when human life on Earth began ***primal instincts***

primarily /praɪˈmerəli/ *adverb* mainly *She's known primarily as a novelist but she also writes poetry.*

primary¹ /ˈpraɪməri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] most important *Her primary responsibility is to train new employees.*

primary² /ˈpraɪməri/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a vote in which people in a political party in the US choose the person who will represent them in an election

ˌprimary ˈcolour *UK* (*US* **ˈprimary ˌcolor**) *noun* [C] ART, DT one of the three colours, which in

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paint, etc are red, blue, and yellow, that can be mixed together to make any other colour

primary con'sumer *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal that eats plants and therefore changes the energy from the sun that is stored in plants into meat that can be eaten by other animals

primary pro'ducer *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** in the food chain, a plant that produces food from the sun and is then eaten

'primary school (*also US* **elementary school**) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a school for children aged 5 to 11

the 'primary sector *noun* **FINANCE, ECONOMICS** industry which involves collecting and selling natural things, for example crops, rock and wood, often in order for them to be made into something else ➲Compare **the secondary sector**

primate /'praɪmeɪt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a member of the group of animals which includes monkeys and people, which have large brains and hands and feet developed for climbing

prime¹ /praɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** MAIN main, or most important *the **prime suspect** in a murder investigation* **2** BEST of the best quality *The hotel is in a **prime location** in the city centre.* **3 a prime example** a very good example of something

prime² /praɪm/ *noun* [**no plural**] the period in your life when you are most active or successful *At 35, she's **in her prime**.* ○ ***the prime of life***

prime³ /praɪm/ *verb* [T] to prepare someone for an event or situation, often by giving them the information that they need *The president had been well primed before the debate.*

prime 'cost *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the cost to a business of all the employee's pay, materials and other things that are directly linked to the goods they produce

the 'prime meridian *noun* **GEOGRAPHY** the imaginary line from the North Pole to the South Pole that passes through Greenwich in England and marks 0° longitude

prime 'minister *noun* [C] **POLITICS** the leader of an elected government in some countries

prime 'number *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that cannot be divided by any other number except itself and the number 1 *2, 3 and 7 are prime numbers.*

'prime time *noun* [U] the time in the evening when the largest number of people watch television ***prime-time television***

primeval /praɪ'miːvəl/ *adjective* belonging to a very early period in the history of the world *primeval forest*

primitive /'prɪmɪtɪv/ *adjective* **1 SOCIETY** relating to human society at a very early stage of development, with people living in a simple way without machines or a writing system *primitive man* ○ *primitive societies* **2** BASIC very basic or old-fashioned *The conditions at the campsite were rather primitive.*

primrose /'prɪmrəʊz/ *noun* [C] a wild plant with pale yellow flowers

prince /prɪns/ *noun* [C] **1** SON the son of a king or queen, or one of their close male relatives *Prince Edward* **2** RULER the male ruler of a small country

princely /'prɪnsli/ *adjective* **a princely sum** a large amount of money *It cost the princely sum of £2 million.*

princess /prɪn'ses/ US /'prɪnsəs/ *noun* [C] **1** DAUGHTER the daughter of a king or queen, or one of their close female relatives **2** WIFE the wife of a prince

principal¹ /'prɪnsəpəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] main, or most important *Her principal reason for moving is to be nearer her mother.*

principal² /'prɪnsəpəl/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** the person in charge of a school or college

principality /ˌprɪnsɪ'pæləti/ *noun* [C] a country ruled by a prince

principally /'prɪnsəpəli/ *adverb* mainly *The advertising campaign is aimed principally at women.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***principle***

stick to your principles ● a **guiding** principle ● be **against** sb's principles ● be a **matter of** principle

principle /'prɪnsəpl/ *noun* **1** MORAL RULE [C, U] a rule or belief which influences your behaviour and which is based on what you think is right *He must be punished - it's a **matter of principle**.* **2** BASIC IDEA [C] a basic idea or rule which explains how something happens or works *The organization works **on the principle that** all members have the same rights.* **3 in principle** If you agree with something in principle, you agree with the idea or plan although you do not know the details or you do not know if it will be possible. *They have approved the changes in principle.* **4 on principle** If you refuse to do something on principle, you refuse to do it because you think it is morally wrong. *She doesn't wear fur on principle.*

principled /'prɪnsəpld/ *adjective* showing strong beliefs about what is right and wrong

print¹ /prɪnt/ *verb* **1** WRITING/IMAGES [T] to produce writing or images on paper or other material with a machine *The instructions are printed on the side of the box.* **2** BOOKS/NEWSPAPERS [T] to produce books, newspapers, magazines, etc, usually in large quantities, using machines *Fifty thousand booklets have been printed for the exhibition.* **3** INCLUDE [T] to include a piece of writing in a newspaper or magazine *They printed his letter in Tuesday's paper.* **4** WRITE [I, T] to write words without joining the letters together *Please print your name and address clearly using capitals.* **5** PATTERN [T] to produce a pattern on material or paper **print sth out** *phrasal verb* to produce a printed copy of a document that has been written on a computer *Can you print out a copy of that letter for me?*

print² /prɪnt/ *noun* **1** WORDS [U] words, letters, or numbers that are produced on paper by a machine **2 in/out of print** If a book is in print, it is possible to buy a new copy of it, and if it is out of print, it is not now possible. **3 ART** [C] a copy of a picture made using photography or

by pressing paper onto a design covered in ink *a print of Van Gogh's 'Sunflowers'* **4** PHOTOGRAPH [C] a photograph that is produced on paper **5 ART** [C] a pattern that is produced on material or paper *a floral print* **6** HAND [C] (*also* **fingerprint**) a mark that is left on a surface where someone has touched it *His prints were found all over the house and he was arrested the next day.* **7** MARK [C] a mark that is left on a surface where someone has walked *The dog left prints all over the kitchen floor.* ➲See also: **small print**

printer /ˈprɪntəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 COMPUTING** a machine which is connected to a computer and which produces writing or images on paper *a laser printer* **2** a person or company that prints books, newspapers, magazines, etc

printing /ˈprɪntɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when writing or images are produced on paper or other material using a machine

ˈprinting ˌpress *noun* [C] a machine that prints books, newspapers, magazines, etc

printout /ˈprɪntaʊt/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** information or a document that is printed from a computer

prior /ˈpraɪəʳ/ *adjective formal* **1** [**always before noun**] existing or happening before something else *The course requires no* ***prior knowledge*** *of Spanish.* **2 prior to sth** before a particular time or event *the weeks prior to her death*

prioritize (*also UK* **-ise**) /praɪˈɒrɪtaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to decide which of a group of things are the most important so that you can deal with them first *You must learn to* ***prioritize*** *your* ***work***.

priority /praɪˈɒrəti/ *noun* **1** [C] something that is very important and that must be dealt with before other things *My* ***first/top priority*** *is to find somewhere to live.* **2 give priority to sth** to consider that something is more important than other things and deal with it first **3 have/take priority (over sth)** to be more important than other things and to be dealt with first *His job seems to take priority over everything else.*

prise /praɪz/ *verb UK* **prise sth apart/off/open, etc** to use force to move, remove, or open something *I prised the lid off with a spoon.*

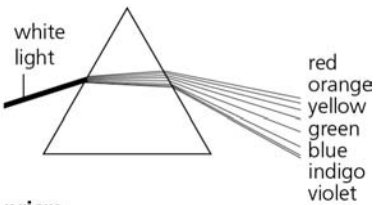

prism

prism /ˈprɪzᵊm/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** an object made of clear glass which separates the light that passes through it into different colours

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***prison***

go to/be sent to prison ● **be released from** prison ● **in/out of** prison ● a prison **sentence**

O-K **prison** /ˈprɪzᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **LAW** a place where criminals are kept as a punishment *He's spent most of his life* ***in prison***. ○ *She was* ***sent to prison*** *for two years.*

O-K **prisoner** /ˈprɪzᵊnəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] **LAW** someone who is being kept in prison as a punishment, or because they have been caught by an enemy **2 hold/keep/take sb prisoner** to catch someone and guard them so that they cannot escape ➲See also: **political prisoner**

ˌprisoner of ˈwar *noun* [C] *plural* **prisoners of war POLITICS** a soldier who is caught by enemy soldiers during a war *a prisoner of war camp*

pristine /ˈprɪstiːn/ *adjective* in very good condition, as if new *Her car is in* ***pristine condition***.

privacy /ˈprɪvəsi/ US /ˈpraɪvəsi/ *noun* [U] when you are alone and people cannot see or hear what you are doing *I hate sharing a bedroom - I never get any privacy.*

O-K **private¹** /ˈpraɪvɪt/ *adjective* **1** NOT EVERYONE only for one person or group and not for everyone *Each room has a balcony and a private bathroom.* ○ *You can't park here - this is* ***private property***. **2** NOT GOVERNMENT controlled by or paid for by a person or company and not by the government *Charles went to a* ***private school***. **3** SECRET If information or an emotion is private, you do not want other people to know about it. *This is a* ***private matter*** *- it doesn't concern you.* **4 in private** If you do something in private, you do it where other people cannot see or hear you. *I need to talk to you in private.* **5 sb's private life** someone's personal relationships and activities and not their work **6** QUIET A place which is private is quiet and there are no other people there to see or hear what you are doing. *Is there somewhere private where we can talk?* ●**privately** *adverb*

private² /ˈpraɪvɪt/ *noun* [C] a soldier of the lowest rank in the army

ˌprivate ˈenterprise *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** industry and businesses owned by ordinary people, not by the government

ˌprivate limited ˈcompany *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a company whose shares (= parts that can be bought and sold) cannot be sold to the public

the ˈprivate ˌsector *noun* **ECONOMICS** businesses and industries that are not owned or controlled by the government

privatize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpraɪvɪtaɪz/ *verb* [T] **ECONOMICS, POLITICS** If an industry or organization owned by the government is privatized, it is sold to private companies. ●**privatization** /ˌpraɪvɪtaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

privilege /ˈprɪvᵊlɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** ADVANTAGE [C, U] an advantage that only one person or group has, usually because of their position or because they are rich **2** OPPORTUNITY [**no plural**] an opportunity to do something special or enjoyable [**+ of + doing sth**] *I had the privilege of meeting the Queen.* ●**privileged** *adjective* having a privilege *to be in a* ***privileged position***

privy /ˈprɪvi/ *adjective formal* **privy to sth** knowing information that is not known by many people

P

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***prize***

be awarded/win a prize ● **first/second/the runner's-up/the top** prize ● a prize **for** sth ● a prize **of** [£500/a car, etc] ● prize **money/winner**

prize[1] /praɪz/ *noun* [C] something valuable that is given to someone who wins a competition or who has done good work *to **win** a **prize*** ○ ***first/second prize*** ➲See Common Learner Error at **price** ➲See also: **booby prize**

prize[2] /praɪz/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A prize animal or vegetable is good enough to win a competition.

prize[3] /praɪz/ *verb* [T] to think that something is very valuable or important *His car is his **prized possession**.*

prize-winning /ˈpraɪzˌwɪnɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having won a prize *a prize-winning author*

pro /prəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT *informal* someone who earns money for playing a sport *a golf/tennis pro* **2 the pros and cons** the advantages and disadvantages of something [**+ of + doing sth**] We discussed the pros and cons of buying a bigger house.

pro- /prəʊ-/ *prefix* supporting or approving of something *pro-European* ○ *pro-democracy demonstrations* ➲Compare **anti-**

proactive /ˌprəʊˈæktɪv/ *adjective* taking action by causing change and not only reacting to change when it happens

probability /ˌprɒbəˈbɪləti/ *noun* **1** [C, U] how likely it is that something will happen [**+ of + doing sth**] *What's the probability of winning?* [**+ (that)**] *There's a **high probability** that he'll get the job.* **2 in all probability** used to mean that something is very likely *She will, in all probability, have left before we arrive.*

probable /ˈprɒbəbl/ *adjective* likely to be true or to happen *The **probable cause** of death was heart failure.* [**+ (that)**] *It's **highly probable** that he'll lose his job.*

probably /ˈprɒbəbli/ *adverb* used to mean that something is very likely *I'll probably be home by midnight.*

probation /prəʊˈbeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **1** LAW a period of time when a criminal must behave well and not commit any more crimes in order to avoid being sent to prison *to be **on probation*** **2** a period of time at the start of a new job when you are watched and tested to see if you are suitable for the job ●**probationary** *adjective* relating to probation *a **probationary period***

proˈbation ˌofficer *noun* [C] LAW someone whose job is to watch and help criminals who have been put on probation

probe[1] /prəʊb/ *verb* [I, T] to ask a lot of questions in order to discover information about something or someone *The interviewer **probed** deep **into** her private life.* ○ ***probing questions***

probe[2] /prəʊb/ *noun* [C] **1** when you try to discover information about something by asking a lot of questions *an FBI **probe into** corruption* **2** HEALTH a long, thin, metal tool used by doctors to examine parts of the body

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***problem***

The noun **difficulty** is a common alternative to 'problem': *The company is having some financial **difficulties** at the moment.*

A small, temporary problem may be described informally as a **hitch** or a **hiccup**: *The ceremony went without a **hitch**.* ● *I'm afraid there's been a slight **hiccup** with the arrangements.*

A **glitch** is a problem that stops something from working properly: *We've had a few technical **glitches**, but I'm confident we'll be ready on time.*

A **hurdle** or **obstacle** is a problem that you need to deal with so that you can continue to make progress: *Getting a work permit is the first **hurdle/obstacle**.*

A **pitfall** is a problem that is likely to happen in a particular situation: *It's just one of the **pitfalls** of buying a house.*

A **setback** is a problem that makes something happen less quickly than it should: *The project has suffered a series of **setbacks** this year.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***problem***

cause/face/have/tackle/pose a problem ● a problem **arises** ● a **big/major/real/serious** problem

problem /ˈprɒbləm/ *noun* **1** DIFFICULT SITUATION [C] a situation that causes difficulties and that needs to be dealt with *health problems* ○ *I'm **having problems with** my computer.* ○ *Drugs have become a serious problem in the area.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **trouble** **2** MATHEMATICS [C] a question that you use mathematics to solve **3 have a problem with sth/sb** to find something or someone annoying or offensive *Yes, she can smoke in the house - I don't have a problem with that.* **4 No problem. a** AFTER QUESTION something that you say to mean you can or will do what someone has asked you to do *"Can you get me to the airport by 11.30?" "No problem."* **b** AFTER THANKS something that you say when someone has thanked you for something *"Thanks for taking me home." "No problem."*

problematic /ˌprɒbləˈmætɪk/ *adjective* full of problems or difficulties *He has a very problematic relationship with his father.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***procedure***

follow a procedure ● **correct/proper/standard** procedure ● a procedure **for** (doing) sth

procedure /prəʊˈsiːdʒər/ *noun* [C, U] the official or usual way of doing something *The company has new **procedures for** dealing with complaints.*

proceed /prəʊˈsiːd/ *verb* [I] *formal* **1** to continue as planned *His lawyers have decided not to **proceed with** the case.* **2 proceed to do sth** to do something after you have done something else *She sat down and proceeded to tell me about her skiing trip.* **3 proceed along/down/to, etc** *formal* to move or travel in a particular direction *Passengers for Sydney should proceed to gate 21.*

proceedings /prəˈsiːdɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** **LAW** legal action against someone *The bank is threatening to start **legal proceedings** against him.* **2** a series of organized events or actions *The chairman opened the proceedings with a short speech.*

proceeds /ˈprəʊsiːdz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** the money that is earned from an event or activity *All proceeds from the concert will go to charity.*

process¹ /ˈprəʊses/ (US) /ˈprɑːses/ *noun* [**C**] **1** ACTIONS a series of actions that you take in order to achieve a result *Buying a house can be a long and complicated process.* **2** CHANGES [**C**] a series of changes that happen naturally *the **ageing process*** **3 in the process** If you are doing something, and you do something else in the process, the second thing happens as a result of doing the first thing. *She stood up to say hello and spilled her drink in the process.* **4 be in the process of doing sth** to have started doing something *We're in the process of painting our apartment.*

process² /ˈprəʊses/ (US) /ˈprɑːses/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to add chemicals to a substance, especially food, in order to change it or make it last longer ***processed food*** **2** **COMPUTING** to deal with information or documents in an official way *Visa applications take 28 days to process.* **3** **COMPUTING** When a computer processes data (= information), it does things to it so that it can be used and understood ●**processing** *noun* [**U**] *data processing*

procession /prəˈseʃˀn/ *noun* [**C**] a line of people or vehicles that moves forward slowly as part of a ceremony or public event *a funeral procession*

processor /ˈprəʊsesəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** the main part of a computer that controls all the other parts ➲See also: **food processor, word processor**

proclaim /prəʊˈkleɪm/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to announce something officially or in public ●**proclamation** /ˌprɒkləˈmeɪʃˀn/ *noun* [**C**] an official announcement about something important

procrastinate /prəʊˈkræstɪneɪt/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to wait a long time before doing something that you must do *I know I've got to deal with the problem at some point - I'm just procrastinating.*

procure /prəˈkjʊəʳ/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to obtain something that is difficult to get

prod /prɒd/ *verb* **prodding**, *past* **prodded** **1** PUSH [**I, T**] to push someone or something with your finger or with a pointed object *He prodded me in the back and told me to hurry up.* **2** ENCOURAGE [**T**] to encourage someone to do something [**+ into + doing sth**] *We need to prod him into making a decision.* ●**prod** *noun* [**C**] [**usually singular**] to ***give** someone a **prod***

prodigious /prəˈdɪdʒəs/ *adjective formal* extremely great in size or ability *a prodigious talent* ○ *a prodigious appetite*

prodigy /ˈprɒdɪdʒi/ *noun* [**C**] a young person who is very good at something *A **child prodigy**, she entered university at the age of eleven.*

produce¹ /prəˈdjuːs/ *verb* [**T**] **1** MAKE to make or grow something *The factory produces about 900 cars a year.* ○ *This plant will produce small yellow flowers in the spring.* **2** CAUSE to cause a particular reaction or result *Nuts produce an allergic reaction in some people.* **3** SHOW to take an object from somewhere so that people can see it *One of the men suddenly produced a gun from his pocket.* **4** FILM/PLAY to control how a film, play, programme, or musical recording is made *He's produced some of the top Broadway shows.* ➲See also: **mass-produce**

produce² /ˈprɒdjuːs/ *noun* [**U**] **FARMING** food that is grown or made in large quantities to be sold *dairy produce*

producer /prəˈdjuːsəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** GOODS/FOOD a company, country, or person that makes goods or grows food *Australia is one of the world's main producers of wool.* **2** FILM/PLAY someone who controls how a film, play, programme, or musical recording is made *a **film producer*** **3** **BIOLOGY** in the food chain, a plant that can make food from the sun and is then eaten itself

product /ˈprɒdʌkt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** something that is made or grown to be sold *a new range of skin-care products* ○ *Does she eat **dairy products*** (= things made from milk)*?* **2 product of sth** someone or something that is the result of a particular experience or process *His lack of confidence is the product of an unhappy childhood.* ➲See also: **by-product, end-product** **3** **CHEMISTRY** a substance formed by a chemical reaction **4** **MATHEMATICS** the number you get when you multiply one number by another

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***production***

sth **goes into** production ● production **of** sth

production /prəˈdʌkʃˀn/ *noun* **1** MAKING [**U**] when you make or grow something *Sand is used in the **production of** glass.* ○ *The new model **goes into production*** (= starts being made) *next year.* **2** AMOUNT [**U**] the amount of something that is made or grown *We need to increase production by 20%.* **3** PERFORMANCE [**C**] a performance or series of performances of a play or show *a school production of 'Romeo and Juliet'* **4** ORGANIZING FILM/PLAY [**U**] when someone controls how a film, play, programme, or musical recording is made

productive /prəˈdʌktɪv/ *adjective* **1** USEFUL producing a good or useful result *We had a very productive meeting and sorted out a lot of problems.* **2** LARGE AMOUNT producing a large amount of goods, food, work, etc *productive land* ○ *a productive worker*

productivity /ˌprɒdʌkˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [**U**] the rate at which goods are produced *We need to increase productivity by 50%.*

ˈproduct ˌlife ˌcycle (*abbreviation* **PLC**) *noun* [**C**] **ECONOMICS** in business, all the stages that a product goes through from being made to being sold

ˈproduct ˌlining *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE, ECONOMICS** when a business sells several similar or connected products

ˈproduct ˌmix *noun* [**C usually singular**] **FINANCE, ECONOMICS** the number of different products sold by a business

Prof /prɒf/ *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** *short for* professor *Prof Susan Nishio*

P

profane /prəˈfeɪn/ *adjective formal* **RELIGION** showing no respect for God or for religious or moral rules ***profane language*** ●**profanity** /prəˈfænəti/ *noun* [U] *formal*

profess /prəˈfes/ *verb* [T] *formal* to express a quality or belief, often when it is not true [+ **to do sth**] *She professes to hate shopping, but she's always buying new things.*

profession /prəˈfeʃˈn/ *noun* **1** WORK [C] a type of work that needs special training or education *He's working in a restaurant, but he's a teacher* ***by profession*** (= he trained to be a teacher). ➲See Common Learner Error at **work 2** PEOPLE [**group**] the people who do a type of work considered as a group *The medical profession has expressed concern about the new drug.*

professional¹ /prəˈfeʃˈnˈl/ *adjective* **1** JOB [**always before noun**] relating to a job that needs special training or education *You should get some* ***professional advice*** *about your finances.* **2** EARNING MONEY Someone is professional if they earn money for a sport or activity which most people do as a hobby. *a professional athlete/musician* ➲Opposite **amateur 3** SKILL showing skill and careful attention *a professional attitude* ○ *He looks very professional in that suit.* ➲Opposite **unprofessional**

professional² /prəˈfeʃˈnˈl/ *noun* [C] **1** TRAINED someone who does a job that needs special training or education **2** WITH EXPERIENCE someone who has done a job for a long time and who does it with a lot of skill *She dealt with the problem like a true professional.* **3 SPORT** someone who earns money for doing a sport or activity which most other people do as a hobby *a rugby professional* ➲Opposite **amateur**

professionalism /prəˈfeʃˈnˈlɪzˈm/ *noun* [U] the skill and careful attention which trained people are expected to have *He complained about the lack of professionalism in the company.*

professionally /prəˈfeʃˈnˈli/ *adverb* **1** WORK in a way that relates to your work *I know him professionally, but he's not a close friend.* **2** WITH TRAINING Work that is done professionally is done by someone who has had special training. *Their house has been professionally decorated.* **3** HIGH STANDARDS in a way that shows high standards or skill *He dealt with the situation very professionally.* **4 SPORT** If someone does an activity or sport professionally, they earn money for doing it. *He's good enough at football to* ***play professionally***.

professor /prəˈfesəʳ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** the highest rank of teacher in a British university, or a teacher in an American university or college *a professor of history at Oxford* ○ *Professor Blackman.*

proffer /ˈprɒfəʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to offer something to someone *to* ***proffer advice***

proficiency /prəˈfɪʃˈnsi/ *noun* [U] when you can do something very well *The job requires* ***proficiency in*** *written and spoken English.*

proficient /prəˈfɪʃˈnt/ *adjective* very good at something *She's* ***proficient in*** *two languages.* ○ *I've become quite* ***proficient at*** *repairing bicycles.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***profile***

build up/create a profile ● a profile **of** sb/sth

profile¹ /ˈprəʊfaɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** DESCRIPTION a short description of someone's life, character, work, etc **2** HEAD a side view of someone's face or head *The picture shows him* ***in profile***. **3** ATTENTION the amount of attention that something receives *We need to increase our company's profile in Asia.* **4 high profile** important and noticeable *a high profile job* **5 INTERNET** a description of yourself and your interests on a website **6 keep a low profile** to try not to be noticed

profile² /ˈprəʊfaɪl/ *verb* [T] to describe someone's life, character, work, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***profit***

boost/increase profits ● **make** a profit ● profits **fall/rise** ● an **annual/big/gross/healthy/large/small** profit

profit¹ /ˈprɒfɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** money that you get from selling goods or services for more than they cost to produce or provide *a profit of $4.5 million* ○ *It's very hard for a new business to* ***make a profit*** *in its first year.*

profit² /ˈprɒfɪt/ *verb*
profit from sth *phrasal verb* **FINANCE** to earn a profit or get an advantage from something *Investors have profited from a rise in interest rates.*

profitable /ˈprɒfɪtəbl/ *adjective* **1 FINANCE** making or likely to make a profit *a profitable business* **2** useful or likely to give you an advantage *a profitable discussion* ●**profitability** /ˌprɒfɪtəˈbɪlɪti/ *noun* [U] ●**profitably** *adverb*

ˌprofit and ˈloss account *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record of the money a business or organization has spent and received

ˈprofit ˌmargin *noun* [C] **FINANCE** the amount of money that you get when you sell a thing or a service, not including the money that it costs to make or provide that thing or service *Many small companies operate on very narrow profit margins.*

ˈprofit ˌsharing *noun* [U] **FINANCE** the system of sharing the money that a company makes between all the people who work for it

profound /prəˈfaʊnd/ *adjective* **1** EFFECT If an effect is profound, it is extreme. *The war had a* ***profound impact*** *on people's lives.* **2** FEELING If a feeling is profound, you feel it very strongly. *a* ***profound sense of*** *sadness* **3** UNDERSTANDING If an idea or piece of work is profound, it shows intelligence or a great ability to understand. *a profound question* ○ *His theories were simple, but profound.* ●**profoundly** *adverb*

profusely /prəˈfjuːsli/ *adverb* a lot *He* ***apologized profusely*** *for being late.*

profusion /prəˈfjuːʒˈn/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] *formal* an extremely large amount of something *a profusion of wild flowers* ○ *Bacteria grow* ***in profusion*** *in the warm, wet soil.*

progesterone /prəˈdʒestˈrəʊn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a female hormone (= chemical that influences growth and development) which causes the womb to prepare for pregnancy

prognosis /prɒɡˈnəʊsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **prognoses** /prɒɡˈnəʊsiːz/ *formal* **1** HEALTH a judgment that a doctor makes about an ill person's chance of becoming healthy **2** an opinion about the future of someone or something *The prognosis for economic growth is good.*

O-K **program¹** /ˈprəʊɡræm/ *noun* [C] **1** COMPUTING a set of instructions that you put into a computer to make it do something *to write a* ***computer program*** **2** *US spelling of* programme

program² /ˈprəʊɡræm/ *verb* [T] **programming**, *past* **programmed** COMPUTING **1** If you program a computer, you give it a set of instructions to do something. **2** *US spelling of* programme

O-K **programme¹** *UK* (*US* **program**) /ˈprəʊɡræm/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEVISION/RADIO a show on television or radio *a* ***TV programme*** ○ *Did you see that programme about spiders last night?* **2** PLAN a plan of events or activities with a particular purpose *a health education programme* **3** THIN BOOK a thin book that you buy at a theatre, sports event, etc which tells you who or what you are going to see

programme² *UK* (*US* **program**) /ˈprəʊɡræm/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING If you programme a machine, you give it a set of instructions to do something. [+ **to do sth**] *I've programmed the video to start recording at 10 o'clock.*

programmer /ˈprəʊɡræmər/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING someone who writes computer programs as a job ●**programming** *noun* [U] when someone writes computer programs

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***progress***

halt / **impede** / **make** / **monitor** progress ● **rapid** / **real** / **significant** / **slow** / **steady** progress ● progress **on/toward** sth

O-K **progress¹** /ˈprəʊɡres/ US /ˈprɒɡres/ *noun* [U] **1** DEVELOPMENT development and improvement of skills, knowledge, etc ***slow/rapid progress*** ○ *technological progress* ○ *He has* ***made*** *good* ***progress*** *in French this year.* **2 in progress** *formal* happening or being done now *Quiet please - Exams in progress.* **3** MOVEMENT movement towards a place

progress² /prəʊˈɡres/ *verb* [I] **1** IMPROVE to improve or develop in skills, knowledge, etc *Technology has progressed rapidly in the last 100 years.* **2** CONTINUE to continue gradually *I began to feel more relaxed as the evening progressed.*

progression /prəʊˈɡreʃn/ *noun* [C, U] when something or someone changes to the next stage of development *a* ***logical/natural progression*** ○ *Drugs can stop the progression of the disease.*

progressive /prəʊˈɡresɪv/ *adjective* **1** MODERN thinking or behaving in a new or modern way ***progressive ideas/attitudes*** **2** GRADUAL developing or happening gradually *a progressive disease* ●**progressively** *adverb* gradually *My headaches are getting* ***progressively worse.***

the progressive /prəʊˈɡresɪv/ *noun* LANGUAGE the form of the verb that is used to show that an action is continuing. In English, the progressive is made with 'be' and the present participle.

prohibit /prəʊˈhɪbɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to officially forbid something [**often passive**] *Smoking is prohibited on most international flights.* [+ **from + doing sth**] *The new law prohibits people from drinking alcohol in the street.* ○ *a* ***prohibited substance*** ●**prohibition** /ˌprəʊhɪˈbɪʃn/ *noun* [U] when something is prohibited

prohibitive /prəʊˈhɪbətɪv/ *adjective* If the cost of something is prohibitive, it is too expensive for many people. *The cost of flying first class is prohibitive for most people.* ●**prohibitively** *adverb* ***prohibitively expensive***

O-K **project¹** /ˈprɒdʒekt/ *noun* [C] **1** a carefully planned piece of work that has a particular purpose *a research project* ○ *The new building project will cost $45 million.* **2** EDUCATION a piece of school work that involves detailed study of a subject *We're* ***doing*** *a class* ***project on*** *the environment.*

project² /prəʊˈdʒekt/ *verb* **1** CALCULATE [T] to calculate an amount or make a guess about the future based on information that you have [**often passive + to do sth**] *As people live longer, the demand for health care is projected to increase dramatically.* ○ ***projected costs/growth*** **2** IMAGE [T] to show a film or other image on a screen or a wall *Laser images were* ***projected onto*** *a screen.* **3** QUALITY [T] If you project a particular quality, that quality is what most people notice about you. *She* ***projected an image*** *of strong leadership.* **4 project from/into/out, etc** *formal* to stick out

projection /prəʊˈdʒekʃn/ *noun* **1** CALCULATION [C] a calculation or guess about the future based on information that you have *government projections of population growth* **2** IMAGE [U] when a film or an image is projected onto a screen or wall

projector /prəʊˈdʒektər/ *noun* [C] a machine that projects films, pictures or words onto a screen or a wall

proletariat /ˌprəʊlɪˈteəriət/ *noun* [**no plural**] SOCIETY the social class of people who have little money and who usually do physical work

proliferate /prəʊˈlɪfəreɪt/ *verb* [I] *formal* to increase in number very quickly

proliferation /prəʊˌlɪfəˈreɪʃn/ *noun* [U] when something increases in number very quickly *the proliferation of new TV channels*

prolific /prəʊˈlɪfɪk/ *adjective* producing a lot of something *a* ***prolific writer****/composer*

prologue /ˈprəʊlɒɡ/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE an introduction to a book, film, or play

prolong /prəʊˈlɒŋ/ *verb* [T] to make something last longer *Eating a good diet can prolong your life.*

prolonged /prəʊˈlɒŋd/ *adjective* continuing for a long time *a prolonged illness*

prom /prɒm/ *noun* [C] in the US, a formal dance party for older students held at the end of the school year *a school prom*

promenade /ˌprɒməˈnɑːd/ *noun* [C] a wide path by the sea

prominence /ˈprɒmɪnəns/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is important or famous *He first* ***came to prominence*** *as a singer in the 1980s.*

P

prominent /ˈprɒmɪnənt/ *adjective* **1** IMPORTANT important or famous *a **prominent figure*** **2** NOTICEABLE very easy to see or notice *a **prominent feature*** ●**prominently** *adverb*

promiscuous /prəˈmɪskjuəs/ *adjective* Someone who is promiscuous has sex with a lot of people. ●**promiscuity** /ˌprɒmɪˈskjuːəti/ *noun* [U] when someone is promiscuous

promise¹ /ˈprɒmɪs/ *verb* **1** SAY [I, T] to say that you will certainly do something or that something will certainly happen [+ **to do sth**] *She promised to write to me every week.* [+ **(that)**] *Paul promised me that he'd cook dinner tonight.* **2** GIVE [+ **two objects**] to say that you will certainly give something to someone *They promised us a reward.* **3 promise to be sth** If something promises to be good, exciting, etc, people expect that it will be good, exciting, etc.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

promise

When you use the expression **promise someone something**, no preposition is needed after the verb.

He promised his mum that he would clean his room.

~~*He promised to his mum that he would clean his room.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***promise***

break/keep/make/renege on a promise ● a **broken/rash/solemn/vague** promise

promise² /ˈprɒmɪs/ *noun* **1** [C] when you say that you will certainly do something *I'm not sure I can do it so I won't **make** any **promises**.* **2 keep/break a promise** to do/not do what you said that you would do **3 show promise** If someone or something shows promise, they are likely to be successful. *As a child, he showed great promise as an athlete.*

promising /ˈprɒmɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* likely to be very good or successful in the future *a promising student* ○ *a **promising start** to the game*

promo /ˈprəʊməʊ/ *noun* [C] *informal* an advertisement, especially a short film

promote /prəˈməʊt/ *verb* [T] **1** ENCOURAGE to encourage something to happen or develop *to **promote** good **health/peace*** **2** ADVERTISE to advertise something *The band is promoting their new album.* **3** JOB to give someone a more important job in the same organization [**often passive**] *She's just been **promoted to** manager.*

promoter /prəˈməʊtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** ORGANIZE someone who organizes a large event *a concert promoter* **2** ENCOURAGE someone who tries to encourage something to happen or develop *a promoter of sexual equality*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***promotion***

gain/get/be given a promotion ● promotion **to** sth

promotion /prəˈməʊʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ADVERTISEMENT [C, U] activities to advertise something *a **sales promotion*** ○ *They're giving away free T-shirts as a special promotion.* **2** JOB [C, U] when someone is given a more important job in the same organization *She was **given a promotion** in her first month with the company.* **3** ENCOURAGE [U, **no plural**] when you encourage something to happen or develop *the promotion of a healthy lifestyle*

promotional /prəˈməʊʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* Promotional items or activities are used to advertise something. *a **promotional campaign***

prompt¹ /prɒmpt/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE to cause something *His remarks prompted a lot of discussion.* **2 prompt sb to do sth** to cause someone to do sth *What prompted him to leave?* **3** HELP REMEMBER to help someone, often an actor, remember what they were going to say or do

prompt² /prɒmpt/ *adjective* done or acting quickly and without waiting, or arriving at the correct time *a **prompt reply*** ○ ***prompt payment*** ●**promptly** *adverb*

prone /prəʊn/ *adjective* **1 be prone to sth/doing sth** to often do something or suffer from something, especially something bad *I'm prone to headaches.* **2 accident/injury, etc prone** often having accidents/injuries, etc ➲See also: **accident-prone**

pronoun /ˈprəʊnaʊn/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word that is used instead of a noun which has usually already been talked about. For example the words 'she', 'it', and 'mine' are pronouns. ➲See also: **personal pronoun, relative pronoun**

pronounce /prəˈnaʊns/ *verb* [T] **1 LANGUAGE** to make the sound of a letter or word *How do you pronounce his name?* **2 pronounce sb/sth dead/a success, etc** *formal* to state that something is true in an official or formal way *Doctors pronounced him dead at 12.23 a.m.*

pronounced /prəˈnaʊnst/ *adjective* very easy to notice *She spoke with a pronounced American accent.*

pronouncement /prəʊˈnaʊnsmənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* an official announcement *to **make** a **pronouncement***

pronunciation /prəˌnʌnsiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **LANGUAGE** how words are pronounced *There are two different pronunciations of this word.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***proof***

have/provide proof ● **conclusive/positive/scientific** proof ● proof **of** sth

proof /pruːf/ *noun* [U] a fact or a piece of information that shows something exists or is true *She showed us her passport as **proof of** her identity.* [+ **(that)**] *My landlord has asked for proof that I'm employed.*

-proof /pruːf/ *suffix* used at the end of words to mean 'protecting against' or 'not damaged by' *a bulletproof vest* ○ *a waterproof jacket*

prop¹ /prɒp/ *verb* **propping**, *past* **propped prop sth against/on, etc** to put something somewhere so that it is supported on or against something *He propped the ladder against the wall.*
prop sth up *phrasal verb* **1** LIFT to lift and give support to something by putting something under it *We had to prop up the bed with some bricks.* **2** HELP to help something to continue *For years the industry was propped up by the government.*

prop² /prɒp/ *noun* [C] an object used in a film or play *a **stage prop***

propaganda /ˌprɒpəˈgændə/ *noun* [U] information or ideas, which are often false, that an organization prints or broadcasts to make people agree with what it is saying ***political propaganda*** ●**propagandist** *noun* [C] someone who creates, prints, or broadcasts propaganda

propagate /ˈprɒpəɡeɪt/ *verb formal* **1** BIOLOGY [I, T] If you propagate plants, you help them to produce new plants, and if plants propagate, they produce new plants. **2** [T] to tell your ideas or opinions to a lot of people in order to make them agree with what you are saying *to **propagate lies/rumours*** ●**propagation** /ˌprɒpəˈɡeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] *formal*

propane /ˈprəʊpeɪn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a colourless gas used as fuel, especially in cooking and heating (formula C_3H_8)

propel /prəˈpel/ *verb* [T] **propelling**, *past* **propelled** **1 propel sb into/to sth** to cause someone to do an activity or be in a situation *The film propelled him to international stardom.* **2** to push or move something somewhere, often with a lot of force *a rocket propelled through space*

propeller /prəˈpelᵊ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment made of two or more flat metal pieces that turn around and cause a ship or aircraft to move

propensity /prəʊˈpensəti/ *noun* [C] *formal* If someone has a propensity for something or to do something, they often do it. *to have a **propensity for** violence* ○ *a propensity to talk too much*

O-key **proper** /ˈprɒpᵊ/ *adjective* **1** CORRECT [**always before noun**] correct or suitable *the **proper way** to do something* ○ *Please put those books back in the **proper place**.* **2** REAL [**always before noun**] *mainly UK* real and satisfactory *his first **proper job*** **3** ACCEPTABLE socially acceptable *It's not proper to interrupt someone when they're speaking.* **4** MAIN [**always after noun**] referring to the main or most important part of something *I live outside Cambridge - I don't live in the city proper.*

ˌproper ˈfraction *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a fraction in which the number under the line is larger than the number above it *3/4 and 5/8 are proper fractions.* ➲Compare **improper fraction**

O-key **properly** /ˈprɒpᵊli/ *adverb* correctly, or in a satisfactory way *She doesn't eat properly.*

ˌproper ˈnoun *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word or group of words that is the name of a person or place and always begins with a capital letter. For example 'Tony' and 'London' are proper nouns.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***property***

private property ● property **prices** ● a property **developer**

O-key **property** /ˈprɒpəti/ *noun* **1** BUILDING [C, U] a building or area of land *There are several properties for sale in this area.* ○ ***Private property** - no parking.* ○ *a **property developer*** **2** OBJECT [U] objects that belong to someone *The police recovered a large amount of **stolen property**.* **3** QUALITY [C] a quality of something *the **medicinal properties** of wild plants* ➲See also: **lost property**

the ˈproperty ˌladder *noun* ECONOMICS a process in which you buy a small house and then sell it to buy a bigger house when you have more money *When house prices are high, it is hard for buyers to **move up the property ladder**.*

prophecy /ˈprɒfəsi/ *noun* [C, U] when someone says that something will happen in the future ●**prophesy** /ˈprɒfəsaɪ/ *verb* [I, T] to say that you believe something will happen in the future

prophet /ˈprɒfɪt/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone sent by God to tell people what to do, or to say what will happen in the future

prophetic /prəʊˈfetɪk/ *adjective* saying what will happen in the future *a **prophetic dream**/vision* ○ *Her warnings **proved prophetic**.*

proponent /prəʊˈpəʊnənt/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who supports a particular idea or plan of action *a proponent of nuclear energy*

proportion /prəˈpɔːʃˈn/ *noun* **1** [C] a part of a total number or amount *Children make up a large **proportion of** the world's population.* ○ *The class consists of both men and women **in** roughly **equal proportions**.* **2 out of proportion** If something is out of proportion, it is much bigger or smaller than it should be, when compared to other things. *The punishment is completely out of proportion to the crime.* **3 in proportion** If something is in proportion, it is the right size or shape when compared to other things. **4 in proportion to** If something changes in proportion to another thing, it changes to the same degree as that thing. *Your tax payment increases in proportion to your salary.* **5 blow/get sth out of proportion** to behave as if something that has happened is much worse than it really is

proportional /prəˈpɔːʃˈnᵊl/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS If two amounts are proportional, they change at the same rate so that the relationship between them does not change. *Weight is **proportional to** size.*

proˌportional ˌrepresenˈtation *noun* [U] POLITICS a system of voting in which the number of a political party's elected representatives is related to the number of votes the party gets

proportionate /prəˈpɔːʃˈnət/ *adjective* MATHEMATICS If two amounts are proportionate, they change at the same rate so that the relationship between them does not change. *His success was **proportionate to** his efforts.* ➲Opposite **disproportionate** ●**proportionately** *adverb*

proportions /prəˈpɔːʃˈnz/ *noun* [**plural**] the size, shape, or level of something *Crime has increased to **alarming proportions**.*

proposal /prəˈpəʊzᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** PLAN a suggestion for a plan [**+ to do sth**] *a proposal to raise taxes* ○ *The **proposal for** a new sports hall has been rejected.* **2** MARRY when someone asks someone to marry them

propose /prəˈpəʊz/ *verb* **1** SUGGEST [T] to suggest a plan or action [**+ (that)**] *I propose that we delay our decision until we have more information.* ○ ***proposed changes*** **2 propose to do sth** to intend to do something *They propose to*

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cycle across Europe. **3** MARRY [I] to ask someone to marry you *He **proposed to** me on my birthday.*

proposition /ˌprɒpəˈzɪʃˁn/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFER an offer or suggestion, usually in business *an **attractive/interesting proposition*** **2** IDEA an idea or opinion [**+ that**] *the proposition that all people are created equal* **3** PLAN in the US, a formal plan that people accept or refuse by voting

proprietary /prəˈpraɪətˁri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* owned or controlled by a company

proprietor /prəˈpraɪətˁ/ *noun* [C] *formal* the owner of a business such as a hotel, shop, newspaper, etc

propriety /prəˈpraɪəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* socially acceptable behaviour

propulsion /prəˈpʌlʃˁn/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** a force that pushes something forward *jet propulsion*

prosaic /prəʊˈzeɪɪk/ *adjective formal* ordinary and not interesting

prose /prəʊz/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE, LITERATURE** ordinary written language that is not poetry *He's a wonderful writer - readers love his clear and lively prose.*

prosecute /ˈprɒsɪkjuːt/ *verb* [I, T] **LAW** to accuse someone of a crime in a law court *No one has been **prosecuted for** the murders.*

prosecution /ˌprɒsɪˈkjuːʃˁn/ *noun* **LAW** **1 the prosecution** [**group**] the lawyers who are prosecuting someone in a court of law *The prosecution will begin presenting evidence today.* **2** [C, U] when someone is prosecuted

prosecutor /ˈprɒsɪkjuːtəˁ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a lawyer who prosecutes people

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WORD PARTNERS FOR ***prospect***

face the prospect **of** sth ● **with** the prospect **of** sth ● **at** the prospect **of** sth

prospect /ˈprɒspekt/ *noun* **1** POSSIBILITY [C, U] the possibility that something good might happen in the future *Is there any **prospect of** the weather improving?* **2** IDEA [**no plural**] the idea of something that will happen in the future [**+ of + doing sth**] *We **face the prospect of** having to start all over again.* ○ *I'm very excited **at the prospect** of seeing her again.* **3 sb's prospects** the possibility of being successful at work *He's hoping the course will improve his **career prospects**.*

prospective /prəˈspektɪv/ *adjective* **prospective buyers/employers/parents, etc** Prospective buyers, employers, parents, etc are not yet buyers, employers, parents, etc but are expected to be in the future.

prospectus /prəˈspektəs/ *noun* [C] a book or magazine which gives information about a school, college, or business for future students or customers

prosper /ˈprɒspəˁ/ *verb* [I] to be successful, usually by earning a lot of money

prosperity /prɒsˈperəti/ *noun* [U] when someone is successful, usually by earning a lot of money

prosperous /ˈprɒspˁrəs/ *adjective* successful, usually by earning a lot of money

prostate gland /ˈprɒsteɪtˌglænd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a small organ in a man's body near to the penis, which produces a liquid that carries the sperm (= small cells, one of which joins a woman's egg to make a baby)

prostitute /ˈprɒstɪtjuːt/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is having sex with people ●**prostitution** /ˌprɒstɪˈtjuːʃˁn/ *noun* [U]

prostrate /ˈprɒstreɪt/ *adjective* lying flat on the ground with your face pointing down

protagonist /prəʊˈtægˁnɪst/ *noun* [C] *formal* **LITERATURE** the main character in a play, film, or story

protease /ˈprəʊtiːeɪz/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an enzyme (= substance made by living cells) which causes proteins to break into smaller pieces

protect /prəˈtekt/ *verb* [I, T] to keep someone or something safe from something dangerous or bad *It's important to **protect** your skin **from** the harmful effects of the sun.* ○ *Vitamin C may help **protect against** cancer.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **prevent** ●**protection** /prəˈtekʃˁn/ *noun* [U] *This coat doesn't provide any **protection against** the rain.*

protectionism /prəˈtekʃˁnɪzˁm/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS, POLITICS** when a government tries to help its country's trade or industry by making things that are from other countries more expensive to buy

protective /prəˈtektɪv/ *adjective* **1** PROTECTING giving protection ***protective clothing*** ○ *a protective mask* **2** CARING wanting to protect someone from criticism, hurt, danger, etc because you like them *She's fiercely **protective of** her children.*

protector /prəˈtektəˁ/ *noun* [C] someone or something that protects

protein /ˈprəʊtiːn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, FOOD** food such as meat, cheese, fish, or eggs that is necessary for the body to grow and be strong

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***protest***

hold/stage a protest ● do sth **as** a protest ● **in** protest **at** sth ● a protest **against/over** sth ● a protest **by/from** sb

protest¹ /ˈprəʊtest/ *noun* [C, U] when people show that they disagree with something by standing somewhere, shouting, carrying signs, etc *a **protest against** the war* ○ *a **peaceful/violent protest***

protest² /prəʊˈtest/ *verb* **1 protest (about/against/at sth)** to show that you disagree with something by standing somewhere, shouting, carrying signs, etc *Students were protesting about cuts to the education budget.* **2 protest sth** *US* to show that you disagree with something by standing somewhere, shouting, carrying signs, etc *Thousands gathered to protest the plan.* **3** [I, T] to say something forcefully or complain about something [**+ that**] *The girl was crying, protesting that she didn't want to leave her mother.*

Protestant /ˈprɒtɪstˁnt/ *adjective* **RELIGION** belonging or relating to the part of the Christian religion that separated from the Roman

Catholic Church in the 1500s ●**Protestant** *noun* [C] ●**Protestantism** *noun* [U] the beliefs of the Protestant Churches

protestation /ˌprɒtesˈteɪʃ°n/ *noun* [C] *formal* when someone says something forcefully or complains about something *He was arrested despite his protestations of innocence.*

protester (*also* **protestor**) /prəˈtestəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who shows that they disagree with something by standing somewhere, shouting, carrying signs, etc

protégé /ˈprɒtəʒeɪ/ *noun* [C] a young person who is helped and taught by an older and usually famous person

protium /ˈprəʊtiəm/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** the most common isotope (= form of an atom with the same chemical structure but different weight) of hydrogen

protocol /ˈprəʊtəkɒl/ *noun* [C, U] the rules about what you must do and how you must behave in official or very formal situations *royal protocol*

proton /ˈprəʊtɒn/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** a part of an atom with a positive electrical charge

protoplasm /ˈprəʊtəplæzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the clear liquid which is inside all living cells

prototype /ˈprəʊtəʊtaɪp/ *noun* [C] the first model or example of something new that can be developed or copied in the future *a **prototype for** a new car*

protozoan /ˌprəʊtəʊˈzəʊən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** *plural* **protozoans** or **protozoa** a very small animal with only one cell

protracted /prəˈtræktɪd/ *adjective* If an unpleasant situation is protracted, it lasts a long time. *a **protracted dispute/struggle***

protractor /prəˈtræktəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a device used for measuring and drawing angles, usually a half circle made from clear plastic with degrees (°) on it

protrude /prəʊˈtruːd/ *verb* [I] If something such as a part of the body protrudes, it comes out from the surface more than usual. *protruding ears/teeth*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***proud***

fiercely/immensely/rightly proud ● proud **of** sth/sb

proud /praʊd/ *adjective* **1** PLEASED feeling very pleased about something you have done, something you own, or someone you know *She was so **proud of** her son.* [**+ to do sth**] *I'm very proud to be involved in this project.* **2 be too proud to do sth** to not be able to do something, especially ask for help, because you are too embarrassed *He's too proud to ask you for any money.* **3** IMPORTANT feeling that you are more important than you really are

proudly /ˈpraʊdli/ *adverb* in a way that shows you are pleased about something you have done, something you own, or someone you know *He proudly showed us a photo of his grandchildren.*

prove /pruːv/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **proved**, *past participle mainly US* **proven 1** to show that something is true *They knew who had stolen the money, but they couldn't prove it.* [**+ (that)**] *Can you prove that you weren't there?* ➲Opposite **disprove 2 prove sth/to be sth** to show a particular quality after a period of time *The new treatment has proved to be very effective.* **3 prove yourself** to show that you are good at something *I wish he'd stop trying to prove himself all the time.*

proven /ˈpruːvᵊn/ *adjective* If something is proven, it has been shown to be true. ***proven ability/skills***

proverb /ˈprɒvɜːb/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a famous phrase or sentence which gives you advice *an ancient Chinese proverb* ●**proverbial** /prəʊˈvɜːbiəl/ *adjective* relating to a proverb

provide /prəʊˈvaɪd/ *verb* [T] to supply something to someone *This booklet provides useful information about local services.* ○ *It's a new scheme to **provide** schools **with** free computers.* ●**provider** *noun* [C] someone who provides something *an Internet service provider*
provide for sb *phrasal verb* to give someone the things they need such as money, food, or clothes *He has a wife and two young children to provide for.*

provided (that) /prəˈvaɪdɪd/ (*also* **providing (that)**) *conjunction* only if *He's welcome to come along, provided that he behaves himself.*

province /ˈprɒvɪns/ *noun* **1** [C] **GEOGRAPHY** one of the large areas which some countries are divided into because of the type of government they have *the Canadian province of Alberta* **2 the provinces** the areas of a country that are not the capital city and so are not considered exciting or fashionable

provincial /prəˈvɪnʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1 GEOGRAPHY** relating to a province **2** NOT CAPITAL relating to or typical of the provinces *a provincial town* ○ *provincial attitudes*

provision /prəˈvɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** PROVIDING [**U, no plural**] when something is provided for someone *We need to increase **the provision of** health care for the elderly.* **2 make provision for sth** to make arrangements to deal with something *He hasn't made any provision for his retirement yet.* **3** RULE [C] **LAW** a rule that is part of a law or an agreement

provisional /prəˈvɪʒᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* If a situation or arrangement is provisional, it is not certain and might change in the future. *These dates are only provisional at the moment.* ●**provisionally** *adverb*

provisions /prəˈvɪʒᵊnz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** supplies of food and other necessary items

proviso /prəˈvaɪzəʊ/ *noun* [C] *formal* something that must happen as part of an agreement *He was released from prison **with the proviso that** he doesn't leave the country.*

provocation /ˌprɒvəˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone makes you angry *He'll start a fight **at the slightest provocation**.*

provocative /prəˈvɒkətɪv/ *adjective* **1** CAUSING REACTION causing an angry reaction, usually intentionally *a provocative question/remark* **2** SEXUAL Provocative clothes, images, etc are sexually exciting. ●**provocatively** *adverb* *She dresses very provocatively.*

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provoke /prə'vəʊk/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE REACTION to cause a strong and usually angry reaction *to **provoke** an **argument*** ○ *Her statement has **provoked** a public **outcry**.* **2** MAKE ANGRY to intentionally make someone angry so that they react in an angry or violent way *He claimed he was provoked by the victim.*

prowess /'praʊɪs/ *noun* [U] *formal* when you are good at doing something ***athletic/sporting prowess***

prowl¹ /praʊl/ *verb* [I, T] to walk around somewhere slowly as if hunting someone or something *to prowl the streets*

prowl² /praʊl/ *noun* **be on the prowl** to be hunting for someone or something

proximity /prɒk'sɪməti/ *noun* [U] *formal* when something is near to something else *What's good about this hotel is its **proximity to** the airport.*

proxy /'prɒksi/ *noun* **by proxy** using another person to do something instead of doing something yourself *to vote by proxy*

Prozac /'prəʊzæk/ *noun* [U] *trademark* HEALTH a drug that is used to make people feel happier and less worried *She's **on Prozac** because of her depression.*

prude /pruːd/ *noun* [C] someone who does not like to hear or see things relating to sex *Don't be such a prude.* ●**prudish** *adjective a prudish woman*

prudent /'pruːdᵊnt/ *adjective formal* wise and careful [+ **to do sth**] *I think it would be prudent to leave now before it starts raining.* ●**prudence** /'pruːdᵊns/ *noun* [U] *formal* ●**prudently** *adverb*

prune¹ /pruːn/ *verb* [T] FARMING If you prune a tree or bush, you cut off some of the branches or flowers to help it grow better.

prune² /pruːn/ *noun* [C] FOOD a dried plum (= type of fruit)

pry /praɪ/ *verb* **1** [I] to try to discover private things about people *to **pry into** someone's personal life.* ○ *She wanted a private holiday away from **prying eyes**.* **2 pry sth apart/loose/open, etc** to open something with difficulty *She managed to pry open a window and escape.*

PS /ˌpiː'es/ used when you want to add extra information at the end of a letter or email *PS Give my love to Emma.*

psalm /sɑːm/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE, MUSIC, RELIGION a song or poem from the Bible (= holy book)

pseudo- /sjuːdəʊ-/ *prefix* false *a pseudonym* (= a false name, especially by a writer) ○ *pseudo-academic*

pseudonym /'sjuːdənɪm/ *noun* [C] a name used by a writer instead of their own name *He writes **under** a **pseudonym**.*

PSNCR /ˌpiːesensiː'ɑːʳ/ *noun* [C usually singular] ECONOMICS, FINANCE public sector net cash requirement: the difference between how much money the UK government spends and how much it receives

psych /saɪk/ *verb*
psych yourself up *phrasal verb informal* to try to make yourself feel confident and ready to do something difficult

psyche /'saɪki/ *noun* [C] the human mind and feelings *the male psyche*

psychedelic /ˌsaɪkɪ'delɪk/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH Psychedelic drugs make you see things that are not really there. **2** Psychedelic colours or patterns are very strong, bright, and strange.

psychiatrist /saɪ'kaɪətrɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a doctor who is trained in psychiatry

psychiatry /saɪ'kaɪətri/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the study and treatment of mental illness ●**psychiatric** /ˌsaɪki'ætrɪk/ *adjective* relating to psychiatry *a psychiatric disorder* ○ *a psychiatric nurse*

psychic /'saɪkɪk/ *adjective* having a special mental ability, for example so that you are able to know what will happen in the future or know what people are thinking ***psychic powers***

psycho /'saɪkəʊ/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who is crazy and frightening

psychoanalysis /ˌsaɪkəʊə'næləsɪs/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the treatment of mental problems by studying and talking about people's dreams, fears, and experiences ●**psychoanalytic** /ˌsaɪkəʊˌænᵊl'ɪtɪk/ *adjective* relating to psychoanalysis

psychoanalyst /ˌsaɪkəʊ'ænᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who treats people using psychoanalysis

psychological /ˌsaɪkᵊl'ɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* HEALTH relating to the human mind and feelings *psychological problems* ●**psychologically** *adverb*

psychologist /saɪ'kɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who has studied the human mind and feelings

psychology /saɪ'kɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **1** HEALTH the study of the human mind and feelings ***child psychology*** ○ *He's studying psychology and philosophy.* **2** BEHAVIOUR the way someone thinks and behaves *the psychology of serial killers*

psychopath /'saɪkəʊpæθ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who is very mentally ill and usually dangerous ●**psychopathic** /ˌsaɪkəʊ'pæθɪk/ *adjective a psychopathic killer*

psychosis /saɪ'kəʊsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **psychoses** /saɪ'kəʊsiːz/ HEALTH a mental illness that makes you believe things that are not real

psychotherapy /ˌsaɪkəʊ'θerəpi/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the treatment of mental problems by talking about your feelings instead of taking medicine ●**psychotherapist** *noun* [C] someone who gives people psychotherapy

psychotic /saɪ'kɒtɪk/ *adjective* HEALTH suffering from a mental illness that makes you believe things that are not true

pâté /'pæteɪ/ US /pæt'eɪ/ *noun* [U] FOOD a soft food, usually made of meat or fish, that you spread on bread, etc *liver pâté*

pt *noun* [C] **1** SPORT *written abbreviation for* point (=a unit used for showing who is winning in a game or competition) *Hill 81 pts, Villeneuve 68 pts* **2** MEASURES *written abbreviation for* pint (= a unit for measuring liquid)

PTO /ˌpiːtiː'əʊ/ *UK abbreviation for* please turn over: used at the bottom of a page of writing to show that there is more information on the other side

pub /pʌb/ *noun* [C] a place where you can get drinks such as beer and usually food *We're all going to the pub after work.*

puberty /ˈpjuːbəti/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the time when children's bodies change and become like adults' bodies *to reach puberty*

pubic hair /ˌpjuːbɪkˈheər/ *noun* [U] the hair that grows around the sexual organs

O-K **public¹** /ˈpʌblɪk/ *adjective* **1 public awareness/health/support, etc** SOCIETY the awareness/health/support, etc of all ordinary people ***Public opinion** has turned against him.* ○ *Is it really **in the public interest*** (= useful for people) *to publish this information?* **2 public parks/toilets/transport, etc** SOCIETY parks/toilets/transport, etc that are for everyone to use and are not private *Smoking should be banned in public places.* **3 a public announcement/appearance/statement, etc** an announcement/appearance/statement, etc that can be seen or heard or known by everyone *The Prime Minister is due to make a public statement later today.* **4 make sth public** to allow everyone to know about something *The government does not plan to make its findings public.* **5** ECONOMICS, POLITICS **public funds/services/spending, etc** funds/services/spending, etc controlled or supplied by the government and not by a private company

O-K **public²** /ˈpʌblɪk/ *noun* [group] **1 the (general) public** SOCIETY all ordinary people *a member of the public* ○ *The public has a right to know about this.* ○ *The house is only open to the general public on Sundays.* **2 in public** where everyone can see you *He shouldn't behave like that in public.*

ˌpublic adˈdress system (*also UK* **tannoy**) *noun* [C] a system of equipment used in public places that someone speaks into in order to make their voice loud enough to hear

publication /ˌpʌblɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* **1** PRINTING [U] when a book, newspaper, etc is printed and sold **2** BOOK [C] a book, newspaper, or magazine *a monthly/weekly publication*

publicist /ˈpʌblɪsɪst/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to make people know about someone or something by advertising or giving information in the newspaper, on television, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***publicity***

attract/get/receive/seek publicity ● **adverse/bad/good/negative** publicity ● publicity **about/for** sth ● publicity **surrounding** sth ● a publicity **campaign/stunt**

publicity /pʌbˈlɪsəti/ *noun* [U] advertising or information about someone or something in the newspaper, on television, etc *Their publicity campaign was very successful.* ○ *to get **bad/good publicity***

publicize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈpʌblɪsaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make people know about something by advertising or giving information in newspapers, on television, etc *a highly/widely publicized event*

ˌpublic limited ˈcompany *noun* [C] ECONOMICS a company whose shares (= parts that can be bought and sold) can be sold to the public

publicly /ˈpʌblɪkli/ *adverb* If you do something publicly, everyone can see it, hear it, or know about it.

ˌpublic reˈlations *noun* [U] *formal* PR (=writing and activities that are intended to make a person, company, or product more popular)

ˌpublic ˈschool (*US* **ˈpublic ˌschool**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION **1** in the UK, a school that you pay to go to **2** (*UK* **state school**) in the US, a school that is free to go to because the government provides the money for it

the ˌpublic ˈsector *noun* [usually singular] FINANCE businesses and industries that are owned or controlled by the government *public sector workers*

ˌpublic ˈtransport *noun* [U] a system of vehicles such as buses and trains which operate at regular times and that the public use

ˌpublic uˈtility *noun* [C] an organization that supplies the public with water, gas, or electricity

O-K **publish** /ˈpʌblɪʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** PRINT to prepare and print a book, newspaper, magazine, article, etc so that people can buy it [**often passive**] *This book is published by Cambridge University Press.* **2** WRITE to write something that is then printed in a book, newspaper, magazine, etc *He's published several short stories in national magazines.* **3** MAKE PUBLIC to make information available to the public

publisher /ˈpʌblɪʃər/ *noun* [C] a company or person who prepares and prints books, newspapers, magazines, etc

publishing /ˈpʌblɪʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the business of preparing and printing books, newspapers, magazines, etc *a career in publishing*

puck /pʌk/ *noun* [C] SPORT in ice hockey (= a sport), a small, hard disc that players hit with a stick ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

pudding /ˈpʊdɪŋ/ *noun* FOOD **1** [C, U] in the UK, a sweet dish that is usually eaten as the last part of a meal *We've got apple pie for pudding.* **2** [U] in the US, a soft, sweet food made from milk, sugar, eggs, and sometimes flour *chocolate/vanilla pudding*

puddle /ˈpʌdl/ *noun* [C] a pool of liquid on the ground, usually from rain

puerile /ˈpjʊəraɪl/ (US) /ˈpjuːərɪl/ *adjective formal* behaving in a silly way like a child

puff¹ /pʌf/ *verb* **1** BREATHE [I] to breathe fast and with difficulty, usually because you have been doing exercise **2** SMOKE [I, T] to smoke something *to puff on a cigarette*

puff sth out *phrasal verb* to make your chest or your face become bigger by filling them with air

puff up *phrasal verb* If part of your body puffs up, it becomes larger because it is infected or injured.

puff² /pʌf/ *noun* [C] **1** AMOUNT a small amount of smoke, gas, powder, etc *a puff of smoke/air* **2** BREATH when someone breathes in smoke from a cigarette *to take a puff on a cigarette*

puffin /ˈpʌfɪn/ *noun* [C] a black and white sea bird with a large head and brightly coloured beak

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puffy /ˈpʌfi/ *adjective* If the skin around your eyes is puffy, it is slightly swollen. *His **eyes** were still **puffy** with sleep.*

puke /pjuːk/ (*also* **puke up**) *verb* [**I, T**] *informal* to vomit

pull¹ /pʊl/ *verb* **1** [**I, T**] to take hold of something and move it somewhere *If you keep pulling his tail, he'll bite you.* ○ *No wonder it's not working, someone's **pulled** the plug **out**.* ○ *He **pulled off** his boots.* ○ *She bent down and **pulled up** her socks.* **2 pull a muscle** HEALTH to injure a muscle by stretching it too much **3 pull a gun/knife, etc on sb** to suddenly take out a weapon *He pulled a gun on us and demanded money.* ➲See also: pull/tear your **hair** out, pull the **plug**[1], not pull any punches (**punch**[2]), pull out all the stops (**stop**[2]), pull strings (**string**[1]), pull your **weight**
pull sth apart *phrasal verb* **1** DESTROY to destroy something by tearing it into pieces **2** CRITICIZE to say that something, usually a piece of work, is very bad
pull sb/sth apart *phrasal verb* to separate two things or people
pull at sth *phrasal verb* to pull something several times, usually with quick, light movements *Stop pulling at my sleeve.*
pull away *phrasal verb* **1** START MOVING If a vehicle pulls away, it starts moving. *I just managed to get on the bus before it pulled away.* **2** MOVE BACKWARDS If you pull away from someone who is holding you, you suddenly move your body backwards, away from them.
pull sth down *phrasal verb* to destroy a building because it is not wanted any more. *They've started pulling down the old cinema.*
pull in/into sth *phrasal verb* If a vehicle pulls in or pulls into somewhere, it moves in that direction and stops there. *They pulled in at the side of the road.*
pull sth off *phrasal verb* to succeed in doing or achieving something difficult *He is about to pull off his biggest deal yet.*
pull off *phrasal verb UK* If a vehicle pulls off, it starts moving. *The car pulled off and sped up the road.*
pull on sth *phrasal verb* to put on clothes quickly *I pulled on my jeans and ran downstairs.*
pull out *phrasal verb* If a vehicle pulls out, it starts moving onto a road or onto a different part of the road. *That car pulled out right in front of me.*
pull over *phrasal verb* If a vehicle pulls over, it moves to the side of the road and stops.
pull through *phrasal verb* to continue to live after you have been badly injured or very ill
pull yourself together *phrasal verb informal* to become calm and behave normally again after being angry or upset
pull up *phrasal verb* **1** If a vehicle pulls up, it stops, often for a short time. *A car pulled up outside the bank and two men got out.* **2 pull up a chair** to move a chair nearer to something or someone *Why don't you pull up a chair and join us?*

pull² /pʊl/ *noun* [**no plural**] PHYSICS a strong force that causes something to move somewhere or be attracted to something

pull-down /ˈpʊldaʊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] COMPUTING A pull-down menu is a list of choices on a computer screen which is hidden until you choose to look at it.

pulley /ˈpʊli/ *noun* [**C**] a wheel with a rope going round it which is used to lift things

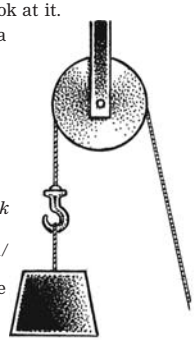
pulley

pullover /ˈpʊləʊvəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a warm piece of clothing which covers the top of your body and is pulled on over your head *a black woolly pullover*

pulmonary /ˈpʊlmənəʳri/ *adjective* ANATOMY, BIOLOGY relating to the lungs (= organs used for breathing) ➲See picture at **alveoli** ➲See picture at **heart**

pulp /pʌlp/ *noun* [**U**] **1** a soft, wet substance made from wood, which is used to make paper **2** BIOLOGY, FOOD the soft part inside a fruit or vegetable

ˌpulp ˈcavity *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY the soft part inside a tooth that contains nerves and blood vessels ➲See picture at **tooth**

pulpit /ˈpʊlpɪt/ *noun* [**C**] RELIGION the raised structure in a church where the priest stands when he speaks to everyone

pulsate /pʌlˈseɪt/ (US) /ˈpʌlseɪt/ *verb* [**I**] to beat or move with a strong, regular rhythm *The whole room was pulsating with music.*

pulse /pʌls/ *noun* [**C**] BIOLOGY, HEALTH the regular movement of blood through your body when your heart is beating *She put her fingers on my wrist to **take my pulse*** (= count the number of beats per minute). ○ *My **pulse rate** is 70.*

pulses /ˈpʌlsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] FOOD *UK* seeds such as beans or peas which are cooked and eaten as food

pump¹ /pʌmp/ *noun* [**C**] a piece of equipment which forces liquid or gas to move somewhere *a **gas/petrol pump*** ○ *a **water pump***

pump² /pʌmp/ *verb* [**T**] to force liquid or gas to move somewhere *Your heart pumps blood around your body.* ○ *Firemen used powerful hoses to **pump** water **into** the building.*
pump sth into sth *phrasal verb* to give a lot of money to a plan or organization *They've pumped millions of pounds into the economy.*
pump sth out *phrasal verb informal* to continuously produce a lot of something *a radio pumping out music*
pump sth up *phrasal verb* to fill something with air using a pump *You should pump your tyres up.*

pumpkin /ˈpʌmpkɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] FOOD a large, round vegetable with thick, orange skin

pun /pʌn/ *noun* [**C**] LANGUAGE a joke that you make by using a word that has two meanings

punch¹ /pʌnʃ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to hit someone or something with your fist (= closed hand) *He punched me twice in the stomach.* **2 punch a hole**

in sth to make a hole in something with a special piece of equipment

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***punch***

aim a punch at sb ● **deliver/land/swing/throw** a punch

punch² /pʌnʃ/ *noun* **1** HIT [C] when you hit someone or something with your fist (= closed hand) *a punch on the nose* **2 FOOD** [U] a sweet, mixed drink made from fruit juice, spices, and usually alcohol **3** HOLE [C] a piece of equipment that makes a hole in something **4 not pull any punches** to speak in an honest way without trying to be kind

punchline /ˈpʌntʃlaɪn/ *noun* [C] the last part of a joke that makes it funny

punch-up /ˈpʌntʃʌp/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a fight in which people hit each other with their fists (= closed hands)

punctual /ˈpʌŋktʃuəl/ *adjective* arriving at the right time and not too late ●**punctuality** /ˌpʌnktʃuˈæləti/ *noun* [U] when you are punctual ●**punctually** *adverb*

punctuate /ˈpʌŋktʃueɪt/ *verb* [T] **LANGUAGE** to add punctuation marks to written words so that people can see when a sentence begins and finishes, that something is a question, etc

punctuation /ˌpʌŋktʃuˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** the use of punctuation marks in writing so that people can see when a sentence begins and finishes, that something is a question, etc ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

punctuˈation ˌmark *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a symbol such as a full stop (.) or a question mark (?) used in writing to show where a sentence begins and finishes, etc.

puncture¹ /ˈpʌŋktʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** HOLE a small hole made by a sharp object **2** TYRE *UK* a hole in a tyre that makes the air come out *to have a puncture*

puncture² /ˈpʌŋktʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make a hole in something *The knife punctured his lung.*

pundit /ˈpʌndɪt/ *noun* [C] someone who is an expert in a subject and often gives their opinions on television, radio, etc *a **political pundit***

pungent /ˈpʌndʒˈnt/ *adjective* A pungent smell is very strong. *the **pungent smell** of vinegar*

O-key **punish** /ˈpʌnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to make someone suffer because they have done something bad [**often passive**] *They must be severely **punished for** these crimes.*

punishable /ˈpʌnɪʃəbl/ *adjective* **LAW** A crime that is punishable is one that you can be punished for. *Drug dealing is **punishable by death** in some countries.*

punishing /ˈpʌnɪʃɪŋ/ *adjective* very difficult and making you tired *a **punishing schedule***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***punishment***

capital/corporal punishment ● an **appropriate/cruel/harsh/severe** punishment ● **deserve/escape/impose/inflict/receive** punishment

O-key **punishment** /ˈpʌnɪʃmənt/ *noun* [C, U] when someone is punished *He had to stay in his bedroom as a punishment for fighting.* ➲See also: **capital punishment, corporal punishment,** be a **glutton** for punishment

punitive /ˈpjuːnətɪv/ *adjective formal* given as a punishment or seeming like a punishment *punitive action*

punk /pʌŋk/ *noun* **1 MUSIC** [U] (*also* **ˌpunk ˈrock**) a style of music and fashion in the 1970s which was wild, loud, and violent **2** PERSON [C] someone who wears punk clothes and likes punk music **3** BAD MAN [C] *US informal* a bad young man

punt¹ /pʌnt/ *noun* [C] **1** a long boat with a flat bottom that you push along the river with a long pole **2 SPORT** in some sports, a powerful kick which causes the ball to go very far

punt² /pʌnt/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to go or take someone along a river in a punt **2 SPORT** [T] in some sports, to kick a ball after you have dropped it from your hands and before it touches the ground

punter /ˈpʌntəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* someone who is buying something or making a bet (= risking money on a competition)

puny /ˈpjuːni/ *adjective* very small and weak

pup /pʌp/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a young dog or other particular type of baby mammal *a seal pup*

pupa /ˈpjuːpə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** *plural* **pupas** or **pupae** an insect in the stage of development which happens before it is completely developed, during which it is inside a cocoon (= cover that protects it) and does not move ➲Compare **chrysalis**

pupil /ˈpjuːpˈl/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** a student at school *The school has 1,100 pupils aged 11 to 18.* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 **2 ANATOMY** the black, round part in the centre of your eye

puppet /ˈpʌpɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** TOY a toy in the shape of a person or animal that you can move with strings or by putting your hand inside *a **glove puppet*** **2** PERSON someone who is controlled by someone else *a political puppet*

puppy /ˈpʌpi/ *noun* [C] a young dog

purchase¹ /ˈpɜːtʃəs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to buy something *Tickets must be purchased two weeks in advance.*

purchase² /ˈpɜːtʃəs/ *noun formal* **1** BUYING [C, U] when you buy something *the illegal purchase of guns* **2** THING [C] something that you buy *a major purchase*

ˈpurchases acˌcount *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of the goods it has bought in order to sell

ˈpurchases ˌjournal (*also* **purchases book, purchases day book**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a document that a business keeps of the dates on which it bought things, the names of the companies it bought them from and how much they cost

ˈpurchases ˌledger (*also* **creditors ledger**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of how much it owes to each business that has supplied goods or services to it

ˈpurchases reˌturns (*also* **returns outward**) *noun* **ECONOMICS** [**plural**] goods that are

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returned to the company that supplied them, for example because they are damaged or not needed

pure /pjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** NOT MIXED A pure substance is not mixed with anything else. *pure gold* ○ *pure wool* **2** EMPHASIS [**always before noun**] used to emphasize that a feeling, quality, or state is completely and only that thing ***pure coincidence*** ○ *Her face had a look of pure delight.* **3** CLEAN clean and healthy ***pure air/water*** **4 pure mathematics/physics, etc** the study of mathematics/physics, etc based only on ideas and not on practical use **5** GOOD completely good and not having any bad qualities or bad morals

puree /ˈpjʊəreɪ/ (US) /pjʊəˈreɪ/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a thick, smooth, liquid food made by crushing and mixing fruit or vegetables *tomato puree*

purely /ˈpjʊəli/ *adverb* only *She married him* ***purely for*** *his money.*

purgatory /ˈpɜːgətʰri/ *noun* [**U**] **1 RELIGION** in the Catholic religion, a very unpleasant place where you have to go and suffer before you go to heaven **2** a very unpleasant situation *This diet is purgatory.*

purge /pɜːdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** FEELINGS to get rid of bad feelings that you do not want [**often reflexive**] *She wanted to* ***purge*** *herself* ***of*** *guilt.* **2** PEOPLE to get rid of people from an organization because you do not agree with them ●**purge** *noun* [**C**]

purify /ˈpjʊərɪfaɪ/ *verb* [**T**] to remove bad substances from something to make it pure *Plants help to purify the air.* ○ *purified water* ●**purification** /ˌpjʊərɪfɪˈkeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [**U**]

purist /ˈpjʊərɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who believes in and follows very traditional rules or ideas in a subject

puritanical /ˌpjʊərɪˈtænɪkʰl/ *adjective* having severe religious morals and not wanting people to enjoy themselves ●**puritan** /ˈpjʊərɪtʰn/ *noun* [**C**] a puritanical person

purity /ˈpjʊərəti/ *noun* [**U**] the quality of being pure *air purity*

purple /ˈpɜːpl/ *adjective* being a colour that is a mixture of red and blue *purple pansies* ●**purple** *noun* [**C, U**] ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

purport /pəˈpɔːt/ *verb*
purport to be/do sth *phrasal verb formal* to pretend to be or do something *a man purporting to be a police officer*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***purpose***

defeat/have/fulfil/serve a purpose ● a **clear/good/primary/practical/useful** purpose ● the purpose **of** sth

purpose /ˈpɜːpəs/ *noun* **1** REASON [**C**] why you do something or why something exists *The main* ***purpose of*** *the meeting is to discuss the future of the company.* ○ *The drug may be legalized for medical purposes.* **2** INTENTION [**U**] the feeling of knowing what you want to do *He seems to have lost all* ***sense of purpose.*** **3 on purpose** intentionally *I didn't do it on purpose, it was an accident.* **4 serve a purpose** to have a use *These small village shops serve a very useful purpose.* ➲See also: **cross purposes,** to/for all intents (**intent**[1]) (and purposes)

purpose-built /ˌpɜːpəsˈbɪlt/ *adjective mainly UK* A purpose-built building has been specially designed for the way it will be used.

purposeful /ˈpɜːpəsfʰl/ *adjective* showing that you know what you want to do *He has a quiet, purposeful air.* ●**purposefully** *adverb*

purposely /ˈpɜːpəsli/ *adverb* intentionally *I wasn't purposely trying to hurt you.*

purr /pɜːʳ/ *verb* [**I**] **1** CAT If a cat purrs, it makes a soft sound in its throat to show pleasure. **2** PERSON to talk in a soft, low voice **3** CAR If a car purrs, its engine is very smooth and makes a soft sound.

purse[1] /pɜːs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** MONEY *UK* a small container for money, usually used by a woman *a leather purse* **2** BAG *mainly US* (*mainly UK* **handbag**) a bag, usually carried by a woman *I always carry aspirin in my purse.*

purse[2] /pɜːs/ *verb* **purse your lips** to press your lips tightly together, often to show that you are angry

pursue /pəˈsjuː/ (US) /pərˈsuː/ *verb* [**T**] **pursuing,** *past* **pursued 1** TRY If you pursue a plan, activity, or situation, you try to do it or achieve it, usually over a long period of time. *She decided to pursue a career in television.* **2** FOLLOW to follow someone or something, usually to try to catch them *The car was pursued by helicopters.* **3 pursue a matter** to try to discover information about something *We will not be pursuing this matter any further.*

pursuit /pəˈsjuːt/ (US) /pərˈsuːt/ *noun* [**U**] **1** TRY when you try to achieve a plan, activity, or situation, usually over a long period of time *the pursuit of pleasure* ○ *He left his native country* ***in pursuit of*** *freedom.* **2** FOLLOWING when you follow someone or something to try to catch them *The police are* ***in pursuit of*** *a 25-year-old murder suspect.*

pursuits /pəˈsjuːts/ (US) /pərˈsuːts/ *noun* [**plural**] *formal* activities or hobbies *He enjoys climbing and other* ***outdoor pursuits.***

purveyor /pəˈveɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* someone who sells or provides something *a purveyor of antiques*

pus /pʌs/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a yellow substance that is produced when part of your body is infected

push[1] /pʊʃ/ *verb* **1** MOVE SOMETHING [**I, T**] to move someone or something by pressing them with your hands or body *She* ***pushed*** *the books* ***aside*** *and sat down on my desk.* ○ *We* ***pushed*** *the children* ***down*** *the slide.* ○ *He* ***pushed*** *me violently* ***out*** *of the door.* ○ *Someone* ***pushed*** *him* ***into*** *the river.* **2** MOVE YOURSELF [**I, T**] to move somewhere by moving someone or something away from you *He pushed past me.* ○ *He* ***pushed his way*** *to the front of the crowd.* **3** PRESS [**T**] to press something *If you push this button, your seat goes back.* **4 push (sb) for sth/to do sth** to try hard to achieve something or to make someone else do something *Local residents are pushing for the road to be made safer.* **5** ENCOURAGE [**T**] to try to make someone do something that they do not want to do

[**+ into + doing sth**] *My mother pushed me into having ballet lessons.* **6 push yourself** to make yourself work very hard to achieve something ➲See also: push the **boat** out

push sb about/around *phrasal verb* to tell someone what to do in a rude way *I'm fed up with being pushed around.*

push ahead/forward *phrasal verb* to continue doing something, especially when this is difficult *They have decided to* ***push ahead with*** *legal action.*

push sth/sb aside *phrasal verb* to decide to forget about or ignore something or someone *We can't just push these problems aside - we have to deal with them.*

push in *phrasal verb UK informal* to rudely join a line of people who are waiting for something by moving in front of some of the people who are already there

push on *phrasal verb* to continue doing something, especially when this is difficult

push sb/sth over *phrasal verb* to push someone or something so that they fall to the ground

push sth through *phrasal verb* to make a plan or suggestion be officially accepted *We're trying to push this deal through as quickly as possible.*

push sth up *phrasal verb* to increase the amount, number, or value of something *If you want to travel on Saturday, it will push the price up a bit.*

push² /pʊʃ/ *noun* **1 a push for sth/to do sth** a big effort to achieve something or make someone do something *a push for higher standards in education* **2** MOVEMENT [**C**] when you move someone or something by pressing them with your hands or body [**usually singular**] *She* ***gave*** *him a little* ***push*** *towards the door.* **3 give sb the push** *UK informal* to get rid of someone from a job or relationship **4** ENCOURAGEMENT [**C**] encouragement to make someone do something [**usually singular**] *I'm sure he'll go, he just needs a little push that's all.* **5 at a push** *UK* If you can do something at a push, you can do it but it will be difficult. **6 if/when push comes to shove** If you say that something can be done if push comes to shove, you mean that it can be done if the situation becomes so bad that you have to do it. *If push comes to shove, we'll just have to sell the car.*

pushchair /ˈpʊʃtʃeəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **stroller**) *noun* [**C**] a chair on wheels which is used to move small children

pushed /pʊʃt/ *adjective UK informal* **be pushed for sth** to not have much of something *I can't stop, I'm a bit pushed for time.*

pusher /ˈpʊʃəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who sells illegal drugs

push-up /ˈpʊʃʌp/ *US* (*UK* **press-up**) *noun* [**C**] **SPORT** a physical exercise in which you lie facing the floor and use your hands to push your body up *I did forty push-ups yesterday.*

pushy /ˈpʊʃi/ *adjective* behaving in an unpleasant way by trying too much to get something or to make someone do something *a pushy salesman*

put /pʊt/ *verb* [**T**] **putting**, *past* **put 1 put sth down/in/on, etc** to move something to a place or position *Where have you put the keys?* ○ *She put her bag on the floor.* ○ *You can put your coat in the car.* ○ *He put his arm around her.* **2 put sb in a mood/position, etc** to cause someone or something to be in a particular situation *They'd had an argument and it had put her in a bad mood.* ○ *This puts me in a very difficult position.* **3** SAY to say something using particular words *I don't know quite* ***how to put this****, but I'm leaving.* **4** WRITE to write something *Please put your name on the list by Monday evening.*

put sth across *phrasal verb* to explain or express something clearly so that people understand it easily

put sth aside *phrasal verb* to save something so that you can use it later *I've been putting a bit of money aside every month.*

put sth away *phrasal verb* to put something in the place where you usually keep it *She folded the towels and put them away in the cupboard.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

put sth back *phrasal verb* to put something where it was before it was moved *I put the book back on the shelf.*

put sth down *phrasal verb* **1** STOP HOLDING to put something that you are holding onto the floor or onto another surface *I'll just put my bag down for a minute, it's rather heavy.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **2** TELEPHONE *UK* If you put the phone down, you put the part of the telephone that you speak into back to its usual position. **3** ANIMAL to kill an animal, usually because it is suffering

put sb down *phrasal verb* **1** CRITICIZE to make someone feel stupid or unimportant by criticizing them *I'm tired of him putting me down all the time.* **2** WRITE to write someone's name on a list or document, usually in order to arrange for them to do something *I've* ***put*** *you* ***down for*** *the trip to Rome next week.*

put sth down to sth *phrasal verb UK* to think that a problem or situation is caused by a particular thing

put sth forward *phrasal verb* to state an idea or opinion, or to suggest a plan, so that it can be considered or discussed

put sb/sth in sth *phrasal verb* to arrange for someone or something to go somewhere *to put someone in prison* ○ *to put some money in the bank* ○ *I'd never put my mother in an old people's home.*

put sth in *phrasal verb* to fix something into a room or building *I've just had a new kitchen put in.*

put sth into sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* If you put time, work, or effort into something, you spend a lot of time or effort doing it. *We've put a lot of effort into this project and we want it to succeed.*

put sth off *phrasal verb* to decide or arrange to do something at a later time *I must talk to her about this, I can't put it off any longer.*

put sb off (sth) *phrasal verb* to make someone not like someone or something, or not want to do something *Jan was talking about her operation and it put me off my food.*

put sth on *phrasal verb* **1** CLOTHES to put clothes or shoes onto your body *You'd better put your coat on, it's cold outside.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

P

2 EQUIPMENT *mainly UK* to make a piece of equipment work by pressing a switch *Can you put the light on please?* **3** BEHAVIOUR to pretend to have a particular feeling, or to behave in a way which is not real or natural for you *He's not really upset, he's just putting it on.* **4** MUSIC/FILM to put a CD or other recording into a machine so that you can see or hear it *Why don't you put on some music?* **5 put on weight** *UK* to become fatter and heavier

put sth out *phrasal verb* **1** STOP SHINING *mainly UK* to make a light stop shining by pressing a switch *Please put the lights out when you leave.* **2** STOP BURNING to make something that is burning stop burning *to put out a fire* **3** PUT OUTSIDE to put something outside the house *to put out the rubbish/trash*

put sb out *phrasal verb* to cause trouble or extra work for someone *It would be great if you could help, but I don't want to put you out.*

be put out *phrasal verb* to be annoyed, often because of something that someone has done or said to you *He seemed a bit* ***put out at*** *not having been invited.*

put sb through sth *phrasal verb* to make someone experience or do something unpleasant or difficult *Why did they put themselves through this ordeal?*

put sb through *phrasal verb* to connect someone using a telephone to the person they want to speak to *Can you put me through to customer services, please?*

put sth to sb *phrasal verb* **1** SUGGEST to suggest an idea or plan to someone so that they can consider it or discuss it **2** ASK to ask someone a question *to put a question to someone*

put sth together *phrasal verb* **1** JOIN PARTS to put the parts of something in the correct place and join them to each other *You buy it in a kit and then put it together yourself.* **2** PREPARE WORK to prepare a piece of work by collecting several ideas and suggestions and organizing them *to put together a plan/proposal*

put sth up *phrasal verb* **1** BUILD to build something *to put up a tent* ○ *We spent the weekend putting up a fence in the backyard.* **2** FASTEN to fasten something to a wall or ceiling *to put up shelves* ○ *I need to put up some curtains in the back bedroom.* **3** INCREASE *mainly UK* to increase the price or value of something *They're going to* ***put up*** *the* ***price*** *of fuel.*

put sb up *phrasal verb* to let someone stay in your home for a short period *If you need somewhere to stay, we can put you up for the night.*

put up with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to accept unpleasant behaviour or an unpleasant situation, although you do not like it *He's so rude, I don't know how you put up with him.*

putrid /ˈpjuːtrɪd/ *adjective* decaying and smelling bad *a putrid smell*

putt /pʌt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **SPORT** in golf, to hit the ball gently when you are near the hole ●**putt** *noun* [**C**]

putty /ˈpʌti/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a soft, grey substance that becomes hard when it is dry and is used to fasten glass into windows or to fill small holes in wood

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***puzzle***

resolve/solve a puzzle ● the puzzle **of** sth

puzzle¹ /ˈpʌzl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** GAME a game or activity in which you have to put pieces together or answer questions using skill *to do/solve a puzzle* ○ *a crossword puzzle* ○ *a jigsaw puzzle* **2** SITUATION a situation which is very difficult to understand *Scientists have been trying to* ***solve*** *this* ***puzzle*** *for years.*

puzzle² /ˈpʌzl/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone confused because they do not understand something [**often passive**] *I was puzzled by what he said.*

puzzle over sth *phrasal verb* to try to solve a problem or understand a situation by thinking carefully about it

puzzled /ˈpʌzld/ *adjective* confused because you do not understand something *He had a puzzled look on his face.*

puzzling /ˈpʌzlɪŋ/ *adjective* If something is puzzling, it confuses you because you do not understand it.

PVC /ˌpiːviːˈsiː/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a strong material similar to thick plastic

pyjamas *UK* (*US* **pajamas**) /pɪˈdʒɑːməz/ *noun* [**plural**] shirt and trousers that you wear in bed *a pair of blue pyjamas* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

pylon /ˈpaɪlɒn/ *noun* [**C**] a tall structure which supports electrical wires above the ground

pyramid /ˈpɪrəmɪd/ *noun* [**C**] a shape with a square base and four triangular sides that meet to form a point at the top

pyre /paɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a pile of wood on which a dead person is burned in some countries

pyrites /paɪˈraɪtiːz/ *noun* [**U**] **GEOLOGY** a shiny yellow mineral (= substance that is found in the ground) that contains sulphur and a metal, usually iron

Pythagoras' theorem /paɪˌθægᵊrəsˈθɪərəm/ *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a rule for working out the length of the sides of a right angled triangle (= triangle with one angle of 90°)

python /ˈpaɪθᵊn/ *noun* [**C**] a large snake that kills other animals by putting itself tightly around them

Qq

Q, q /kjuː/ the seventeenth letter of the alphabet

QC /ˌkjuːˈsiː/ *noun* [C] **LAW** *abbreviation for* Queen's Counsel: a lawyer of high rank in the UK *Horace Rumpole QC*

qt **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* quart (= a unit for measuring liquid)

quack /kwæk/ *noun* [C] the sound made by a duck (= water bird) ●**quack** *verb* [I]

quadratic equation /kwɒdˌrætɪkɪˈkweɪʒən/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** an equation (= mathematical statement) which includes an unknown value that is multiplied by itself only once, and which does not include an unknown value multiplied by itself more than once

quadrilateral /ˌkwɒdrɪˈlætᵊrᵊl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape with four straight sides

quadruple /kwɒdˈrʊpl/ *verb* [I, T] If an amount quadruples, it becomes multiplied by four, or if you quadruple it, you multiply it by four.

quagmire /ˈkwɒgmaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a difficult and unpleasant situation *a **legal quagmire*** **2** **GEOGRAPHY** an area of wet ground that you can sink into

quail /kweɪl/ *noun* [C] *plural* **quail** or **quails** **FOOD** a small bird which is shot for food

quaint /kweɪnt/ *adjective* attractive or unusual in an old-fashioned way *a quaint little village*

quake¹ /kweɪk/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY** *US short for* earthquake (= when the Earth shakes)

quake² /kweɪk/ *verb* [I] to shake because you are frightened

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***qualification***

an **academic** / **basic** / **formal** / **recognised** qualification ● **gain/get/have/need** a qualification ● a qualification **in** sth

qualification /ˌkwɒlɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **EDUCATION** [C] *mainly UK* what you get when you pass an exam or a course [**usually plural**] *legal/medical qualifications* ○ *What qualifications do you need to be a nanny?* **2** SKILLS [C] the skills, qualities, or experience that you need in order to do something *The only qualification needed for this job is an eye for detail.* **3** COMPETITION [U] success in getting into a competition **4** ADDITION [C, U] an addition to something that is said that makes its meaning less certain

qualified /ˈkwɒlɪfaɪd/ *adjective* **1** **EDUCATION** having passed exams or courses *a **newly qualified** teacher* **2** **qualified to do sth** having the skills, qualities, or experience that you need in order to do something *I think John is the best qualified to make that decision.* **3** NOT CERTAIN If something someone says is qualified, they have added something to it to make it less certain. *The answer was a qualified yes.* ➲Opposite **unqualified**

qualifier /ˈkwɒlɪfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** **1** a game or competition which decides whether you can enter another competition **2** someone who has succeeded in getting into a competition

qualify /ˈkwɒlɪfaɪ/ *verb* **1** BE ALLOWED [I, T] If you qualify for something, you are allowed to do it or have it, and if something qualifies you for something, it allows you to do it or have it. *Foreign students no longer **qualify for** grants in the UK.* ○ *To qualify for the competition, you must be over 18.* ➲Opposite **disqualify** **2** **EDUCATION** [I] *mainly UK* to pass exams so that you are able to do a job *He's recently **qualified as** a doctor.* **3** **SPORT** [I] to succeed in getting into a competition *Nigeria were the first team to **qualify for** the World Cup.* **4** ADD [T] to add something to what you say to make its meaning less certain

qualitative /ˈkwɒlɪtətɪv/ (US) /ˈkwɑːlɪteɪtɪv/ *adjective formal* relating to how good something is and not how much of it there is ●**qualitatively** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***quality***

affect/enhance/improve/maintain quality ● **good/high/inferior/low/poor** quality

O-K **quality¹** /ˈkwɒləti/ *noun* **1** GOOD OR BAD [U] how good or bad something is ***good/high quality*** ○ ***poor/low quality*** ○ *The air quality in this area is terrible.* ○ *All we are asking for is a decent **quality of life**.* ○ *The spokeswoman says a **quality control** system is being developed for next year.* **2** GOOD [U] when something is very good or well made *A designer label isn't necessarily a guarantee of quality.* **3** CHARACTER [C] part of the character or personality of someone or something *leadership qualities*

quality² /ˈkwɒləti/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] very good *We only sell quality products in this store.*

ˈquality asˌsurance *noun* [U] the things a company does to make sure that its products and services are as good as they should be

ˈquality conˌtrol *noun* [U] the process of looking at goods when they are being produced to make certain that they are of the intended standard

ˈquality ˌtime *noun* [U] time that you spend with someone when you can give them all of your attention *We've been too busy to give the children much quality time this week.*

qualm /kwɑːm/ *noun* [C] a worry or doubt about something *She **has no qualms about** taking her clothes off in public.*

quandary /ˈkwɒndᵊri/ *noun* [**no plural**] a situation in which you are trying to make a difficult choice *We're **in a quandary over** which school to send her to.*

quantifier /ˈkwɒntɪfaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or group of words that is used before a noun to show an amount of that noun. For example the words 'many', 'some', and 'a lot of' are quantifiers.

quantify /ˈkwɒntɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] **MEASURES** to measure or state the amount of something *It is difficult to quantify the damage that this storm has caused.*

Q

quantitative /ˈkwɒntɪtətɪv/ (US) /ˈkwɑːntəteɪtɪv/ *adjective* relating to quantity

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***quantity***

a **huge/large/small/sufficient/vast** quantity ● **in** [big/large, etc] quantities

quantity /ˈkwɒntəti/ *noun* **1** [C, U] the amount or number of something *A **vast quantity** of information is available on the Internet.* ○ *They are now developing ways to produce the vaccine **in large quantities** and cheaply.* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2 an unknown quantity** someone or something that you do not know and so you cannot be certain about

quantum leap /ˌkwɒntʌmˈliːp/ *noun* [C] a sudden, large increase or improvement in something [**usually singular**] *a quantum leap in information technology*

quarantine /ˈkwɒrəntiːn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** If an animal or person is put into quarantine, they are kept away from other animals or people because they have or might have a disease.

quark /kwɑːk/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** one of the most basic forms of matter that make up the particles of an atom

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***quarrel***

have a quarrel ● a quarrel **about/over** sth ● a quarrel **with** sb ● a quarrel **between** sb **and** sb

quarrel¹ /ˈkwɒrəl/ *noun* **1** [C] an argument *She walked out after **having a quarrel with** her boss.* **2 have no quarrel with sb/sth** to not disagree with someone or something *We have no quarrel with either of those ideas.*

quarrel² /ˈkwɒrəl/ *verb* [I] *UK* **quarrelling**, *past* **quarrelled**, *US* **quarreling**, *past* **quareled** to have an argument with someone *She'd been **quarrelling with** her mother all morning.*

quarry /ˈkwɒri/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a place where stone is dug out of a large hole in the ground *a marble quarry* ●**quarry** *verb* [T] to dig stone out of a quarry

quart /kwɔːt/ (*written abbreviation* **qt**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring liquid, equal to 1.14 litres in the UK and 0.95 litres in the US

quarter /ˈkwɔːtər/ *noun* **1 MATHEMATICS** [C] (*also US* **fourth**) one of four equal parts of something; ¼ *Three quarters of the island's residents speak English.* ○ *My house is one and three-quarter miles/a mile and three-quarters from here.* ○ *I waited a quarter of an hour for her.* **2** BEFORE/AFTER HOUR [**no plural**] a period of 15 minutes before or after the hour *It's (a) **quarter to** three* (= 2.45). ○ *also US* It's ***a quarter of** three* (= 2.45). ○ *We're leaving at (a) **quarter past** six* (= 6.15). ○ *also US* We're leaving at (a) ***quarter after** six* (= 6.15). **3 FINANCE** [C] one of four periods of time into which a year is divided for financial calculations such as profits or bills (= orders for payment) *I get an electricity bill every quarter.* **4 EDUCATION** [C] *US* one of four periods of time into which a year at college or university is divided **5 SPORT** [C] *US* one of four periods of time into which some sports games are divided **6** PART OF TOWN [C] a part of a town, often where people from a particular country or religion live *the Jewish quarter* **7 FINANCE** [C] a US or Canadian coin with a value of 25 cents, which is a quarter of a dollar

quarterback /ˈkwɔːtəbæk/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a player in American football who controls the attack

quarter-final /ˌkwɔːtəˈfaɪnəl/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** the part of a competition when eight people or teams are left and there are four games to decide who will reach the semi-final (= when only four people or teams are left) *She was knocked out of the competition **in the quarter-finals**.*

quarterly /ˈkwɔːtəli/ *adjective*, *adverb* produced or happening every three months *Water and electricity bills are paid quarterly.* ○ *a quarterly magazine/report*

quarters /ˈkwɔːtəz/ *noun* [**plural**] rooms to live in or sleep in, usually for people in a military organization

quartet /kwɔːˈtet/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** four people singing or playing music in a group

quartile /ˈkwɔːtaɪl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** one of four equal measurements that a set of things can be divided into *He is in the top quartile for weight.*

quartz /ˈkwɔːts/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a mineral used to make watches and clocks accurate

quash /kwɒʃ/ *verb* [T] **1 LAW** *formal* to officially change a legal decision so that it stops existing *His **conviction** was **quashed** last month.* **2** to stop something that you do not want to happen *He appeared on television to **quash rumours** that he was seriously ill.*

quasi- /kweɪzaɪ-/ *prefix* partly *quasi-religious ideas*

quay /kiː/ *noun* [C] a structure built next to water where ships stop and goods are taken on and off

queasy /ˈkwiːzi/ *adjective* **HEALTH** If you feel queasy, you feel slightly ill as if you might vomit.

queen /kwiːn/ *noun* [C] **1** FEMALE RULER a female ruler in some countries *Queen Elizabeth II* ○ *God save the Queen!* **2** KING'S WIFE the wife of a king when he is the main ruler in a country **3** PLAYING CARD a playing card with a picture of a queen on it *the queen of diamonds* **4 BIOLOGY** a large female insect which is the most important in a group and which produces all the eggs *queen bee*

queer /kwɪər/ *adjective* **1** HOMOSEXUAL *informal* homosexual **2** STRANGE strange

quell /kwel/ *verb* [T] *formal* to stop something that you do not want to happen *to **quell** a **riot*** ○ *to **quell rumours***

quench /kwenʃ/ *verb* **quench your thirst** to drink liquid so that you stop being thirsty

query¹ /ˈkwɪəri/ *noun* [C] a question *His job is to answer telephone **queries about** airline schedules.*

query² /ˈkwɪəri/ *verb* [T] to ask questions in order to check that something is true or correct [+ **question word**] *A few students have*

queried whether exam marks were added up correctly.

quest /kwest/ *noun* [C] *formal* an attempt to get something or do something difficult *the **quest for** truth* [+ **to do sth**] *He has begun his quest to become the Conservative Party's first Asian MP.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***question***

ask/answer/pose/raise/reply to a question ● a question **arises** ● an **awkward/fundamental/important/interesting/hypothetical** question ● a question **about** sth

O-K **question¹** /ˈkwestʃən/ *noun* **1** SENTENCE [C] a sentence or phrase that asks you for information *Is it OK if I **ask** you a few **questions**?* ○ *He refused to **answer** my **question**.* ○ *If you have any **questions about** the scheme, do ask me.* ○ *"So where's the money coming from?" "**That's a good question**"* (= I do not know). **2** SITUATION [C] a situation or problem that needs to be considered *This documentary **raises** important **questions** about the American legal system.* ○ *Two important **questions arise** from this debate.* **3** DOUBT [U] doubt [+ **that**] *There is **no question** that this was an accidental fire.* ○ *His ability as a chef has never been **in question**.* ○ *"So you agree she's the right person for the job." "Yes, absolutely, **without question**."* ○ *The report **brings/calls into question*** (= causes doubts about) *the safety of this drug.* **4 sb/sth in question** the person or thing that is being discussed *He claims that he was in the pub with his girlfriend on the night in question.* **5 be out of the question** If something is out of the question, it is not possible or not allowed. ➲See also: **loaded question, rhetorical question**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

ask a question

Remember to use the verb **ask** with **question**.

We weren't allowed to ask any questions.

~~*We weren't allowed to make any questions.*~~

question² /ˈkwestʃən/ *verb* [T] **1** ASK QUESTIONS to ask someone questions *Detectives were **questioning** a boy **about** the murder.* [**often passive**] *Two out of three people questioned in the survey were non-smokers.* **2** DOUBT to show or feel doubt about something *I'm not for a moment questioning your decision.* [+ **question word**] *I'm just **questioning whether** we need the extra staff.*

questionable /ˈkwestʃənəbl/ *adjective* **1** NOT CERTAIN possibly not true or correct [+ **question word**] *It is highly **questionable whether** this drug has any benefits at all.* **2** NOT HONEST not honest or not legal *He's being investigated for questionable business practices.*

questioning /ˈkwestʃənɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when the police ask someone questions about a crime *She was taken in **for questioning** by police yesterday morning.*

question mark *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a mark (?) used at the end of a question ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 18.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***questionnaire***

complete/fill in a questionnaire ● **draw up** a questionnaire ● a questionnaire **asks** sth ● a questionnaire **about/on** sth

questionnaire /ˌkwestʃəˈneər/ *noun* [C] a set of questions asked of a large number of people to discover information about a subject *Residents have been sent **questionnaires about** their homes and energy use.*

question tag *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a short phrase such as 'isn't it' or 'don't you' that is added to the end of a sentence to check information or to ask if someone agrees with you. In the sentence, 'It's hot, isn't it?', 'isn't it' is a question tag.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***queue***

form/be in/join a queue ● a queue **stretches** [for miles/around sth, etc] ● a **big/long/short/small** queue ● a queue **of** [cars/people, etc] ● a queue **for** sth

queue /kjuː/ *UK* (*US* **line**) *noun* [C] **1** a row of people waiting for something, one behind the other *to **join** the **queue*** ○ *Are you **in the queue**?* **2 jump the queue** to move in front of people who have been waiting longer for something than you ●**queue (up)** *UK* (*US* **line up**) *verb* [I] to stand in a row in order to wait for something [+ **to do sth**] They're queueing up to get tickets.

quibble /ˈkwɪbl/ *verb* **quibble about/over/with sth** to argue about something that is not important *They spend far too much time quibbling over details.* ●**quibble** *noun* [C]

quiche /kiːʃ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a dish made of a pastry base filled with a mixture of egg and milk and usually cheese, vegetables, or meat

O-K **quick¹** /kwɪk/ *adjective* **1** FAST doing something fast or taking only a short time *I tried to catch him but he was too quick for me.* [+ **to do sth**] *Publishers were quick to realize that a profit could be made.* **2** LASTING A SHORT TIME lasting a short time *Can I ask you a quick question?*

quick² /kwɪk/ *adverb informal* fast *Come here, quick!*

quicken /ˈkwɪkən/ *verb* [I, T] to become faster or to cause something to become faster *His breathing quickened.*

O-K **quickly** /ˈkwɪkli/ *adverb* fast or in a short time *I quickly shut the door.* ○ *These people need to be treated as quickly as possible.*

quick ratio (*also* **acid test ratio**) *noun* [C usually singular] FINANCE a calculation that compares the assets (= things owned) of a business that are in the form of money or can be quickly changed into money with payments that need to be made soon

quid /kwɪd/ *noun* [C] *plural* **quid** *UK informal* a pound (= UK unit of money) *This bike's not bad for twenty quid.*

O-K **quiet¹** /kwaɪət/ *adjective* **1** NOT NOISY making little or no noise *Can you **be quiet**, please?* ○ *The children are very quiet.* **2** NOT BUSY without much noise or activity *I fancy a **quiet night in** tonight.* ○ *They found a table in a quiet corner of the restaurant.* **3** NOT TALKING MUCH If someone is quiet, they do not talk very much. *He was a shy, quiet man.* **4 keep (sth) quiet** to

Q

not talk about something that is secret *It might be wise to keep this quiet for a while.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

quiet or quite?

Be careful, these two words look very similar, but they are spelled differently and have completely different meanings.

Qu**iet** means making little or no noise.

The house was very quiet without the children around.

Qu**ite** means a little or a lot but not completely.

It's quite cold today.

quiet² /kwaɪət/ *noun* [U] when there is little or no noise *She needs a bit of **peace and quiet**.*

quieten /ˈkwaɪətᵊn/ *UK* (*US* **quiet**) *verb* [T] to make someone or something quiet
quieten (sb/sth) down *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **quiet (sb/sth) down**) to become quieter or calmer, or to make a person or animal become quieter or calmer

quietly /ˈkwaɪətli/ *adverb* **1** WITHOUT NOISE making little or no noise *"Don't worry," she said quietly.* **2** WITHOUT ACTIVITY doing something without much noise or activity *He sat quietly on the sofa, waiting for her to come home.*

quilt /kwɪlt/ *noun* [C] a cover for a bed which is filled with feathers or other warm material

quilting /ˈkwɪltɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **ART, DT** the activity of making quilts or the material used for making quilts

quinine /ˈkwɪniːn/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a drug used to treat fevers such as malaria (= a serious illness spread by flies)

quip /kwɪp/ *verb* [I, T] **quipping**, *past* **quipped** to say something in a funny and clever way ●**quip** *noun* [C]

quirk /kwɜːk/ *noun* **1** [C] a strange habit *My aunt has a few odd quirks.* **2 quirk of fate** a strange and unexpected event ***By some quirk of fate**, we came to live in the same town.* ●**quirky** *adjective* strange *a quirky sense of humour*

quit /kwɪt/ *verb* **quitting**, *past* **quit 1** NOT WORK [I, T] to leave your job or school permanently *She recently **quit** her **job** to spend more time with her family.* **2** NOT DO [T] to stop doing something *I quit smoking and put on weight.*

quite /kwaɪt/ *adverb* **1** NOT COMPLETELY *UK* a little or a lot but not completely *I'm quite tired, but I'm happy to walk a little further.* ○ *He's quite attractive but not what I'd call gorgeous.* **2** VERY *US* very *My sister and I are quite different.* **3** COMPLETELY completely *The two situations are quite different.* ○ *Are you quite sure you want to go?* **4 not quite** almost but not completely *I'm not quite sure that I understand this.* ○ *He didn't get quite enough votes to win.* **5 quite a bit/a few/a lot, etc** a large amount or number *There are quite a few letters for you here.* ○ *He's changed quite a bit.*

quiver /ˈkwɪvəʳ/ *verb* [I] to shake slightly ●**quiver** *noun* [C]

quiz¹ /kwɪz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **quizzes 1** GAME a game in which you answer questions *a television quiz show* **2 EDUCATION** *US* a short test on a subject in school

quiz² /kwɪz/ *verb* [T] **quizzing**, *past* **quizzed** to ask someone questions about something *A group of journalists **quizzed** them **about/on** the day's events.*

quizzical /ˈkwɪzɪkᵊl/ *adjective* A quizzical expression or look seems to ask a question without words.

quota /ˈkwəʊtə/ *noun* [C] a limited amount of something that is officially allowed *an import quota*

quotation /kwəʊˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1 LITERATURE** a sentence or phrase that is taken out of a book, poem, or play *a **quotation from** Shakespeare/the Bible* **2 FINANCE** the amount that a piece of work will probably cost *Make sure you **get** a **quotation** for all the work before they start.*

quotˈation ˌmarks *noun* [plural] **LANGUAGE** a pair of marks (" ") or (' ') used before and after a group of words to show that they are spoken or that someone else originally wrote them
➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

quote¹ /kwəʊt/ *verb* **1** REPEAT [I, T] to repeat what someone has said or written *I was **quoting from** Marx.* ○ *Witnesses were **quoted as saying** there were two gunmen.* **2** GIVE EXAMPLE [T] to give a fact or example in order to support what you are saying *The minister quoted recent unemployment figures.* **3 FINANCE** [T] to say how much a piece of work will cost before you do it

quote² /kwəʊt/ *noun* [C] *short for* quotation

quotes /kwəʊts/ *noun* [plural] **LANGUAGE** *short for* quotation marks

the Qur'an /kʊrˈɑːn/ *noun* **RELIGION** *another spelling of* the Koran (= the holy book of Islam)

qwerty /ˈkwɜːti/ *adjective* **COMPUTING** using or referring to a keyboard on which the letters are arranged so that the top line begins with q,w,e,r,t and y

Rr

R, r /ɑːʳ/ the eighteenth letter of the alphabet

R *informal* **INTERNET** *written abbeviation for* are: used in emails and text messages

rabbi /ˈræbaɪ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a leader and teacher in the Jewish religion *Rabbi Hugo Gryn*

rabbit /ˈræbɪt/ *noun* [C] a small animal with fur and long ears that lives in a hole in the ground

rabble /ˈræbl/ *noun* [**no plural**] a group of noisy, uncontrolled people

rabies /ˈreɪbiːz/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that people can get if they are bitten by an infected animal

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***race***

drop out of/lose/win a race ● **in** a race

race¹ /reɪs/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] a competition in which people run, ride, drive, etc against each other in order to see who is the fastest *a horse race* **2** **SOCIETY** [C, U] one of the groups that people are divided into according to their physical characteristics *people of many different races* **3** [C] a situation in which people compete against each other for power or control *the **race for** governor* **4 the races** **SPORT** an event when horses race against each other **5 a race against time/the clock** a situation in which something has to be done very quickly ➲See also: **the human race, the rat race**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

race or **species?**

Race is used to talk about one of the groups that people are divided into according to their physical characteristics.

the human race

People of all races and religions live in America.

Species is used to talk about types of animals and plants.

eagles, vultures and other species of bird

race² /reɪs/ *verb* **1** **SPORT** [I, T] to compete in a race *I'll race you to the end of the road.* ○ *I used to **race against** him at school.* **2 race along/down/over, etc** to move somewhere very quickly *I raced over to see what was the matter.* **3 race sb to/back, etc** to take someone somewhere very quickly *Ambulances raced the injured to a nearby hospital.* **4** **SPORT** [T] to put a horse, dog, etc in a race

racecourse /ˈreɪskɔːs/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** *UK* the place where horses, cars, etc race

racehorse /ˈreɪshɔːs/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a horse that has been trained to run in races

race relations *noun* [**plural**] **SOCIETY** the relationship between people from different races who live together in the same place

racetrack /ˈreɪstræk/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** the place where horses, cars, etc race

racial /ˈreɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating to people's race *a racial minority* ○ ***racial discrimination/tension*** ●**racially** *adverb a **racially motivated** crime*

racing /ˈreɪsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** the activity or sport in which people, animals, or vehicles race against each other *motor racing* ➲See also: **horse racing**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***racism***

combat/encounter/face/tackle racism ● a **form of** racism ● racism **against** sb

racism /ˈreɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the belief that other races of people are not as good as your own, or the unfair treatment of people because they belong to a particular race

racist /ˈreɪsɪst/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** someone who believes that other races of people are not as good as their own ●**racist** *adjective a **racist attack***

rack¹ /ræk/ *noun* [C] a type of shelf that you can put things on or hang things from *a **magazine/luggage rack***

rack² /ræk/ *verb* **1 be racked with pain/guilt, etc** If someone is racked with pain or an emotion, they suffer a lot because of it. **2 rack your brain/brains** *informal* to think very hard, usually to try to remember something or solve a problem **rack up sth** *phrasal verb informal* to get or achieve a lot of something *He's racked up debts of over thirty thousand pounds.*

rack and pinion /ˌrækənd'pɪnjən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **DT** using a system where a cog (= round metal part with small pieces sticking out of the edge) turns against a long bar that also has small pieces sticking up, and makes it move *rack and pinion gears*

racket /ˈrækɪt/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] (*also* **racquet**) a piece of equipment that you use to hit a ball in sports such as tennis ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 **2** ILLEGAL [C] *informal* an illegal activity that is used to make money *a drugs smuggling racket* **3** NOISE [**no plural**] *informal* a loud noise *The neighbours were **making** such **a racket**.*

radar /ˈreɪdɑːʳ/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** a system that uses radio waves to find out the position of something you cannot see

radiant /ˈreɪdiənt/ *adjective* **1** HAPPY showing that you are very happy *a radiant smile* **2** BRIGHT very bright ●**radiance** /ˈreɪdiəns/ *noun* [U]

radiate /ˈreɪdieɪt/ *verb* **1 radiate from/out, etc** to spread out in all directions from a particular point *A number of roads radiate out from the centre.* **2** [T] to show an emotion or quality in your face or behaviour *His face just radiates happiness.* **3** **PHYSICS** [T] to send out heat or light

radiation /ˌreɪdiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** **1** a form of energy that comes from a nuclear reaction and that in large amounts can be very dangerous *dangerously high **levels of radiation*** ○ *radiation sickness* **2** energy from heat or light that you cannot see *solar/microwave radiation*

radiator /ˈreɪdieɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** HEATER a metal piece of equipment that is filled with hot water and is used to heat a room ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** ENGINE PART a part

R

of a vehicle engine that is used to make the engine cool

radical¹ /ˈrædɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** A radical change is very big and important. *a **radical reform*** **2** POLITICS believing that there should be big social and political changes *a radical group/movement* ○ *a **radical proposal*** ●**radically** *adverb The company has **changed radically** in recent years.*

radical² /ˈrædɪkᵊl/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who supports the idea that there should be big social and political changes

radicle /ˈrædɪkl/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY the first part that comes out of a plant's seed, and later forms the root

radio¹ /ˈreɪdiəʊ/ *noun* **1** BROADCASTS [C] a piece of equipment used for listening to radio broadcasts *a car radio* **2 the radio** the programmes that you hear when you listen to the radio *We heard him speaking **on the radio** this morning.* **3** SYSTEM [U] a system of sending and receiving sound through the air ***local radio*** ○ *a **radio station*** **4** MESSAGES [C] a piece of equipment for sending and receiving messages by sound

radio² /ˈreɪdiəʊ/ *verb* [I, T] **radioing**, *past* **radioed** to send a message to someone by radio *They radioed for help.*

radioactive /ˌreɪdiəʊˈæktɪv/ *adjective* PHYSICS containing harmful radiation (= energy from a nuclear reaction) ***radioactive waste***

radioactivity /ˌreɪdiəʊækˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS when something is radioactive

radiocarbon dating /ˌreɪdiəʊkɑːbənˈdeɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a method of calculating the age of extremely old objects by measuring the amount of a particular type of carbon in them

radioisotope /ˌreɪdiəʊˈaɪsətəʊp/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY an isotope (= form of an atom with a different atomic weight but the same chemical structure) that gives off radiation

radiotherapy /ˌreɪdiəʊˈθerəpi/ *noun* [U] HEALTH the use of controlled amounts of radiation to treat disease

ˈradio ˌwave *noun* [C] PHYSICS an electromagnetic wave that is used to send radio signals

radish /ˈrædɪʃ/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small, round, white or red vegetable with a slightly hot taste that you eat in salad

radius /ˈreɪdiəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **radii** **1** MEASURES a certain distance from a particular point in any direction *Most facilities lie **within** a two-mile **radius** of the house.* **2** MATHEMATICS the distance from the centre of a circle to its edge ➲See picture at **circle** **3** ANATOMY the shorter of the two long thin bones in the lower half of the arm, between the wrist and the elbow

radon /ˈreɪdɒn/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a colourless radioactive gas that is formed when radium and some other substances decay (symbol **Rn**)

raffle /ˈræfl/ *noun* [C] a competition in which people buy tickets with numbers on them and win a prize if any of their numbers are chosen ***raffle tickets*** ●**raffle** *verb* [T] to offer something as a prize in a raffle

raft /rɑːft/ *noun* **1** [C] a small, flat boat made by tying pieces of wood together **2 a raft of sth/sb** a lot of things or people *a raft of data*

rafter /ˈrɑːftəʳ/ *noun* [C] one of the long pieces of wood that supports a roof

rag /ræg/ *noun* [C] **1** a piece of old cloth that you use to clean things **2 be like a red rag to a bull** *UK* If a particular subject is like a red rag to a bull, it always makes someone angry.

rage¹ /reɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] strong anger that you cannot control *a jealous rage* ○ *He **flew into a rage*** (= suddenly became angry) *over the smallest mistake.* **2 be all the rage** *informal old-fashioned* to be very popular ➲See also: **road rage**

rage² /reɪdʒ/ *verb* [I] **1** CONTINUE to continue with great force or violence *The battle raged well into the night.* **2** SPEAK to speak or behave in a very angry way

ragged /ˈrægɪd/ *adjective* **1** CLOTHES old and torn *ragged jeans* **2** PERSON wearing clothes that are old and torn *a ragged child* **3** ROUGH rough and not smooth *a **ragged edge***

rags /rægz/ *noun* [plural] **1** clothes that are old and torn *an old man dressed **in rags*** **2 go from rags to riches** to start your life very poor and then later in life become very rich

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***raid***

carry out a raid ● a raid **on** sth ● an **air** raid ● a **dawn** raid

raid¹ /reɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** SOLDIERS a sudden attack on a place by soldiers *an **air raid*** ○ *a **dawn raid*** **2** POLICE a sudden visit to a place by police in order to find someone or something *a **police raid** to recover illegal weapons* **3** STEAL when people enter a place by force in order to steal from it *a **bank raid*** ➲See also: **air raid**

raid² /reɪd/ *verb* [T] **1** SOLDIERS If soldiers raid a place, they suddenly attack it. **2** POLICE If the police raid a place, they suddenly visit it in order to find someone or something. *Police raided nine properties in search of the documents.* **3** STEAL to steal many things from somewhere *to **raid** the **fridge***

rail /reɪl/ *noun* **1** FOR HANGING [C] *UK* a horizontal bar on the wall that you hang things on *a curtain rail* **2** FOR SUPPORTING [C] a bar around or along something which you can hold to stop you from falling *a hand rail* **3** TRAIN SYSTEM [U] trains as a method of transport ***rail travel*** ○ *a **rail link*** ○ *They sent the shipment **by rail**.* **4** TRAIN [C] the metal tracks that trains run on ➲See also: **towel rail**

railing /ˈreɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a fence made from posts and bars *an iron railing*

ˈrailroad ˌtie *US* (*UK* **sleeper**) *noun* [C] a piece of wood that is used to support a railway track

railway /ˈreɪlweɪ/ *noun* **1** [C] (*also US* **railroad** /ˈreɪlrəʊd/) the metal tracks that trains travel on *Repairs are being carried out on the railway.* **2 the railway(s)** (*also US* **the railroad(s)**) the organizations connected with trains *He worked on the railways all his life.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rain***

rain **falls** ● **heavy/light/pouring/torrential** rain ● be **pouring with** rain ● a **drop of/spot of** rain ● **in** the rain

rain¹ /reɪn/ *noun* **1** [U] water that falls from the sky in small drops ***heavy rain*** ○ *It looks like rain* (= as if it will rain). **2** GEOGRAPHY **the rains** in tropical countries, the time of year when there is a lot of rain *They were waiting for the rains to come.* ➲See also: **acid rain**

rain² /reɪn/ *verb* **it rains** If it rains, water falls from the sky in small drops. *It was raining all weekend.*
be rained off *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **be rained out**) If a sport or outside activity is rained off, it cannot start or continue because it is raining.

rainbow /ˈreɪnbəʊ/ *noun* [C] a half circle with seven colours that sometimes appears in the sky when the sun shines through rain

ˈrain ˌcheck *noun* [C] **1** FINANCE *US* a piece of paper which allows you to buy something at a low price although that thing is now being sold at a higher price **2** *US* a ticket that allows you to see an event at a later time if bad weather stops that event from happening **3 take a rain check on sth** something you say when you cannot accept someone's invitation, but would like to do it at a later time

raincoat /ˈreɪnkəʊt/ *noun* [C] a coat that you wear when it is raining ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

raindrop /ˈreɪndrɒp/ *noun* [C] a single drop of rain

rainfall /ˈreɪnfɔːl/ *noun* [U] RAIN the amount of rain that falls in a particular place at a particular time ***monthly rainfall*** ○ ***heavy rainfall***

rainforest /ˈreɪnˌfɒrɪst/ *noun* [C] ENVIRONMENT, GEOGRAPHY a forest with a lot of tall trees where it rains a lot ***a tropical rainforest***

ˈrain ˌgauge *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a device for measuring how much rain falls

rainy /ˈreɪni/ *adjective* raining a lot *a rainy afternoon*

raise¹ /reɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** LIFT to lift something to a higher position *to raise your hand* **2** INCREASE to increase an amount or level *to* ***raise prices/taxes*** **3** IMPROVE to improve something *to* ***raise standards*** **4** MONEY to collect money from other people *They're* ***raising money*** *for charity.* **5 raise your voice** to speak loudly and angrily to someone **6 raise hopes/fears/doubts, etc** to cause emotions or thoughts *Her answers raised doubts in my mind.* **7 raise a question/subject, etc** to start talking about a subject that you want other people to consider **8** CHILD to look after and educate a child until they have become an adult *Their ideas on how to* ***raise children*** *didn't always agree.* **9** FARMING to make an animal or crop grow *to raise chickens/sheep* ➲See Common Learner Error at **rise** ➲See also: raise the **alarm**¹

raise² /reɪz/ *US* (*UK* **rise**) *noun* [C] an increase in the amount of money that you earn *We usually get a raise at the start of a year.*

raisin /ˈreɪzᵊn/ *noun* [C] FOOD a dried grape (= small round fruit)

rake¹ /reɪk/ *noun* [C] FARMING a garden tool with a long handle that is used for moving dead leaves, grass, etc

rake² /reɪk/ *verb* [I, T] to use a rake to move dead leaves, grass, etc
rake sth in *phrasal verb informal* to earn a large amount of money. *He's* ***raking it in.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rally***

hold/organize/stage a rally ● a **mass** rally ● **at** a rally

rally¹ /ˈræli/ *noun* [C] **1** a large public meeting in support of something *an* ***election/campaign rally*** **2** SPORT a car or motorcycle race *a rally driver*

rally² /ˈræli/ *verb* **1** GIVE SUPPORT [I, T] to come together or bring people together to support something *Her fans* ***rallied behind*** *her from the start.* **2** GET BETTER [I] to get stronger or better after being weak *The stock market rallied late in the day.*
rally around/round (sb) *phrasal verb* to help or give support to someone *If one of the family has a crisis we rally round them.*

ram¹ /ræm/ *verb* [T] **ramming**, *past* **rammed** to hit something or push something into something with great force *He had to stop suddenly and a car* ***rammed into*** *him.*

ram² /ræm/ *noun* [C] a male sheep

RAM /ræm/ *noun* [U] COMPUTING *abbreviation for* random access memory: a computer's ability to immediately store information ➲Compare **ROM**

Ramadan /ˈræmədæn/ *noun* [U] RELIGION the Muslim religious period in which Muslims do not eat or drink during the part of the day when it is light

ramble¹ /ˈræmbl/ *verb* **1 ramble along/through, etc** to walk for a long time, especially in the countryside **2** (*also* **ramble on**) to talk for a long time in a boring and often confused way *The old general rambled on for hours about his time in the army.*

ramble² /ˈræmbl/ *noun* [C] a long walk in the countryside

rambler /ˈræmblᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who walks in the countryside

rambling /ˈræmblɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SPEECH/LETTER A rambling speech, letter, etc is very long and confused. **2** BUILDING A rambling building is big and without a regular shape.

ramifications /ˌræmɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [plural] the possible results of an action

ramp /ræmp/ *noun* [C] **1** SURFACE a sloping surface that joins two places that are at different heights *a wheelchair ramp* **2** ROAD *US* (*UK* **slip road**) a short road that is used to drive onto or off a large, fast road

rampage¹ /ræmˈpeɪdʒ/ *verb* [I] to run around or through an area, making a lot of noise and causing damage *Angry citizens* ***rampaged through*** *the city.*

R

rampage² /ˈræmpeɪdʒ/ *noun* [**no plural**] when a group of people rampage *Riots* ***went on a rampage*** *through the city.*

rampant /ˈræmpənt/ *adjective* growing or spreading quickly, in a way that cannot be controlled ***rampant corruption/inflation***

ramshackle /ˈræmˌʃækl/ *adjective* A ramshackle building is in very bad condition.

ran /ræn/ *past tense of* run

ranch /rɑːntʃ/ *noun* [**C**] **FARMING** a large farm where animals are kept *a cattle/sheep ranch*

rancher /ˈrɑːntʃəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **FARMING** someone who owns or works on a ranch

rancid /ˈrænsɪd/ *adjective* **FOOD** Rancid fat, such as oil or butter, smells and tastes bad because it is not fresh.

ˌR and ˈD *noun* [**U**] *abbreviation for* research and development: the part of a business that tries to find ways to improve existing products, and to develop new ones

random /ˈrændəm/ *adjective* **1** done or chosen without any plan or system ***random testing*** ○ *a* ***random selection*** **2 at random** chosen by chance *Winners will be chosen at random.* ●**randomly** *adverb*

ˌrandom ˈsampling *noun* [**U**] choosing items to test without using any pattern to how they are chosen

rang /ræŋ/ *past tense of* ring²

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***range***

a **full/wide** range ● a range **of** sth

range¹ /reɪndʒ/ *noun* **1** OF THINGS [**C**] a group of different things of the same general type *a* ***range of*** *colours/patterns* ○ *We discussed a* ***wide range*** *of subjects.* **2** AMOUNT [**C**] the amount or number between a particular set of limits [**usually singular**] *The* ***price range*** *is from $100 to $200.* ○ *The product is aimed at young people in the 18-25* ***age range.*** **3** DISTANCE [**U**] the distance from which things can be seen, heard, or reached *The soldiers came* ***within*** *firing* ***range.*** ○ *He was shot* ***at close range*** (= from very near). **4 GEOGRAPHY** [**C**] a line of hills or mountains **5** SHOOTING [**C**] a place where you can practise shooting a gun *a* ***rifle/shooting range***

range² /reɪndʒ/ *verb* **1 range from sth to sth** to have several different amounts or types *Tickets range from $12 to $35.* ○ *Choose from 13 colours, ranging from classic white to antique blue.* **2** [**I**] to deal with a large number of subjects *The discussion* ***ranged over*** *many topics.*

ranger /ˈreɪndʒəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone whose job is to look after a forest or a park *a forest ranger*

rank¹ /ræŋk/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY** [**C, U**] a position in society or in an organization, for example the army *He holds the rank of colonel.* **2 the ranks** the ordinary members of an organization, especially the army **3 break ranks** to publicly show that you disagree with a group that you belong to **4 the rank and file** the ordinary members of an organization and not its leaders ➲See also: **taxi rank**

rank² /ræŋk/ *verb* [**I, T**] to have a position in a list which shows things or people in order of importance, or to give someone or something a position on such a list *He ranked number one in the world at the start of the competition.* ○ *The city's canals now* ***rank among*** *the world's dirtiest.*

ransom /ˈrænsᵊm/ *noun* [**C, U**] the money that is demanded for the return of someone who is being kept as a prisoner *a* ***ransom note/letter***

rant /rænt/ *verb* [**I**] to talk a lot about something in an excited or angry way *He was* ***ranting and raving*** *about the injustice of the situation.*

rap¹ /ræp/ *noun* **1 MUSIC** [**U**] a type of music in which the words are spoken and there is a strong beat *a* ***rap artist*** **2** [**C**] a sudden, short sound made when someone or something hits a hard surface *There was a* ***rap on*** *the window.* **3 a rap on/across/over the knuckles** a punishment that is not severe

rap² /ræp/ *verb* **rapping**, *past* **rapped 1** [**I, T**] to hit a hard surface to make a sudden, short noise *He* ***rapped on*** *the door.* **2 MUSIC** [**I**] to perform rap music

rape /reɪp/ *verb* [**T**] to force someone to have sex when they do not want to ●**rape** *noun* [**C, U**]

rapid /ˈræpɪd/ *adjective* happening or moving very quickly ***rapid change/growth*** ●**rapidity** /rəˈpɪdəti/ *noun* [**U**] ●**rapidly** *adverb*

rapids /ˈræpɪdz/ *noun* [**plural**] **GEOGRAPHY** a part of a river where the water moves very fast

rapist /ˈreɪpɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who forces another person to have sex when they do not want to

rapper /ˈræpəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** someone who performs rap music (= a type of music in which the words are spoken and there is a strong beat)

rapport /ræpˈɔːʳ/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] a good understanding of someone and ability to communicate with them *She has a good* ***rapport with*** *her staff.*

rapture /ˈræptʃəʳ/ *noun* [**U**] a feeling of extreme pleasure and excitement

rare /reəʳ/ *adjective* **1** very unusual *a* ***rare disease/species*** [**+ to do sth**] *It's very rare to see these birds in England.* **2 FOOD** If meat is rare, it is still red because it has only been cooked for a short time. *a rare steak*

rarely /ˈreəli/ *adverb* not often *I rarely see her these days.*

raring /ˈreərɪŋ/ *adjective* **be raring to do sth** *informal* to be very enthusiastic about starting something

rarity /ˈreərəti/ *noun* **1 be a rarity** to be unusual *Genuine enthusiasm is a rarity.* **2** [**U**] the fact that something is not common *Precious stones are valued for their rarity.*

rascal /ˈrɑːskᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PERSON *humorous* a person who behaves badly, but who you still like **2** DISHONEST *old-fashioned* a dishonest man

rash¹ /ræʃ/ *noun* **1 HEALTH** [**C**] a group of small, red spots on the skin *an* ***itchy rash*** ○ *Certain foods give him a rash.* **2 a rash of sth** a group of unpleasant events of the same type,

happening at the same time *There has been a rash of burglaries in the area.*

rash² /ræʃ/ *adjective* done suddenly and without thinking carefully ***a rash decision/promise***

rasher /ˈræʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* FOOD a slice of bacon (= meat from a pig)

raspberry /ˈrɑːzbᵊri/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small, soft, red fruit that grows on bushes

rat /ræt/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL an animal that looks like a large mouse and has a long tail *Rats carry disease.* **2** PERSON *informal* an unpleasant, dishonest person

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rate***

a **cut in/drop in/increase in/rise in** the rate ● **at** a rate (of) ● the rate **for/of**

rate¹ /reɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** HOW MANY how often something happens, or how many people something happens to *the **birth rate*** ○ ***the rate of** unemployment* **2** FINANCE a fixed amount of money given for something *the **interest/exchange rate*** ○ *rates of pay* **3** SPEED the speed at which something happens *the rate of progress* **4 at this rate** used before saying what will happen if a situation continues in the same way *At this rate we're not going to be there till midnight.* **5 at any rate** used before saying one fact that is certain in a situation that you are generally not certain about *Well, at any rate we need her to be there.* **6 first-/second-/third-rate** very good, bad, or very bad *a first-rate hotel* ➲See also: **birth rate, exchange rate**

rate² /reɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** JUDGE to judge the quality or ability of someone or something *How do you **rate** her **as** a singer?* **2** DESERVE to deserve something *The incident didn't even **rate a mention*** (= was not written about) *in the local newspaper.*

rather /ˈrɑːðəʳ/ *adverb* **1** SLIGHTLY slightly or to a degree *I rather like it.* ○ *I find her books rather dull.* **2 rather than** instead of *He saw his music as a hobby rather than a career.* **3 would rather** If you would rather do something, you would prefer to do that thing. *I'd much rather go out for a meal than stay in and watch TV.* **4** CORRECT used to change something you have just said and make it more correct *I tried writing some drama, or rather comedy-drama, but it wasn't very good.*

ratify /ˈrætɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] POLITICS to make an agreement official *Sixty-five nations need to **ratify** the **treaty**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rating***

give sb/sth **/have** a rating ● sb's/sth's rating **drops/falls/improves/increases** ● a **high/low** rating ● a rating **of** [5/28%, etc]

rating /ˈreɪtɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] a measurement of how good or popular something or someone is *A high percentage of Americans gave the President a positive rating.* **2 the ratings** a list of television and radio programmes showing how popular they are

ratio /ˈreɪʃiəʊ/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS the relationship between two things expressed in numbers to show how much bigger one is than the other *The female to male ratio at the college is 2 to 1.*

ration¹ /ˈræʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] the amount of something that you are allowed to have when there is little of it available ***a food/petrol ration***

ration² /ˈræʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] to give people only a small amount of something because there is little of it available *They might have to start rationing water.*

rational /ˈræʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** BASED ON FACTS based on facts and not affected by someone's emotions or imagination ***a rational argument/debate/explanation*** **2** WITHOUT EMOTION able to make decisions based on facts and not be influenced by your emotions or imagination *Look, we've got to try to be rational about this.* ➲Opposite **irrational** ●**rationally** *adverb*

rationale /ˌræʃəˈnɑːl/ *noun* [C] a group of reasons for a decision or belief *I don't understand **the rationale behind** the policy.*

rationalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈræʃᵊnᵊlaɪz/ *verb* **1** FIND REASONS [I, T] to try to find reasons to explain your behaviour or emotions *I can't rationalize the way I feel towards him.* **2** ORGANIZE [T] *mainly UK* to improve the way a business is organized, usually by getting rid of people ●**rationalization** /ˌræʃᵊnᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

ˌrational ˈnumber *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a number that can be expressed as the ratio (= relationship expressed in numbers showing how much bigger one thing is than the other) of two whole numbers

the ˈrat ˌrace *noun informal* the unpleasant way that people compete against each other at work in order to succeed

rattle¹ /ˈrætl/ *verb* **1** NOISE [I, T] to make a noise like something knocking repeatedly, or to cause something to make this noise *The wind blew hard, rattling the doors and windows.* **2** PERSON [T] to make someone nervous [**often passive**] *He was clearly rattled by their angry reaction.*
rattle sth off *phrasal verb* to quickly say a list or something that you have learned *She can rattle off the names of all the players.*

rattle² /ˈrætl/ *noun* [C] a toy that a baby shakes to make a noise

rattlesnake /ˈrætlsneɪk/ *noun* [C] a poisonous snake found in southern parts of the US which makes a loud noise by shaking its tail

raucous /ˈrɔːkəs/ *adjective* loud and unpleasant ***raucous laughter***

ravage /ˈrævɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] to damage or destroy something [**often passive**] *The whole area has been ravaged by war.*

ravages /ˈrævɪdʒɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] **the ravages of disease/time/war, etc** the damaging effects of disease/time/war, etc

rave¹ /reɪv/ *verb* [I] **1** EXCITED to talk about something that you think is very good in an excited way *He went there last year and he's been **raving about** it ever since.* **2** ANGRY to talk in an angry, uncontrolled way

rave² /reɪv/ *noun* [C] MUSIC an event where people dance to modern, electronic music

raven /ˈreɪvᵊn/ *noun* [C] a large, black bird

ravenous /ˈrævᵊnəs/ *adjective* very hungry ●**ravenously** *adverb*

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ravine /rəˈviːn/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a narrow, deep valley with very steep sides

raving /ˈreɪvɪŋ/ *adjective informal* completely uncontrolled *He was acting like a **raving lunatic**.*

ravings /ˈreɪvɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] the strange things that a crazy person says *the ravings of a madman*

ravishing /ˈrævɪʃɪŋ/ *adjective* very beautiful

raw /rɔː/ *adjective* **1 FOOD** not cooked ***raw meat**/vegetables* **2** in the natural state *raw materials* ○ *raw sugar* **3 HEALTH** If a part of the body is raw, the skin has come off and it is red and painful. ●**rawness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: hit/touch a (raw) **nerve**

ray /reɪ/ *noun* **1 PHYSICS** [C] a narrow beam of light, heat, or energy *an ultraviolet ray* ○ *the rays of the sun* **2 a ray of hope/comfort, etc** a small amount of hope, etc ➲See also: **X-ray**

razor /ˈreɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment with a sharp blade used for removing hair from the face, legs, etc ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

ˈ**razor** ˌ**blade** *noun* [C] a very thin, sharp blade that you put in a razor

Rd *written abbreviation for* road *17, Lynton Rd*

re- /riː-/ *prefix* again *to remarry* ○ *a reusable container*

reach¹ /riːtʃ/ *verb* **1** ARRIVE [T] to arrive somewhere *We won't reach Miami till five or six o'clock.* **2** STRETCH [I, T] to stretch your arm and hand to touch or take something *She **reached for** a cigarette.* ○ *She **reached down** to stroke the dog's head.* ○ *He **reached out** and grabbed her arm.* **3 can reach (sth)** to be able to touch or take something with your hand *Could you get that book down for me - I can't reach.* **4** BE LONG ENOUGH [I, T] If something reaches, or reaches something, it is long enough to touch something. *The rope won't be long enough to reach the ground.* **5** LEVEL [T] to get to a particular level, situation, etc *We hope to reach our goal by May next year.* ○ *I've **reached the point** where I'm about to give up.* **6 reach a decision/agreement/conclusion, etc** to make a decision, agreement, etc about something **7** TELEPHONE [T] to speak to someone on the telephone *You can reach him at home.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

reach

When **reach** means 'arrive somewhere' or 'get to a particular level' it is not normally followed by a preposition.

We finally reached the hotel just after midnight.

The project has now reached the final stage.

~~*The project has now reached to the final stage.*~~

reach² /riːtʃ/ *noun* **1 out of/beyond (sb's) reach** too far away for someone to take hold of *I keep the medicines up here, out of the kids' reach.* **2 beyond (sb's) reach** not possible for someone to have *With all this money we can buy things previously beyond our reach.* **3 be within reach (of sth)** to be close enough to travel to *You'll be within easy reach of London.* **4 be within (sb's) reach a** to be close enough for someone to take hold of *The gun lay within reach.* **b** possible for someone to achieve *Winning the championship suddenly seemed within their reach.*

react /riˈækt/ *verb* [I] **1** SAY/DO to say, do, or feel something because of something else that has been said or done *He **reacted** angrily **to** her comments.* **2** BAD EFFECT to become ill because something that you have eaten or used on your body has had a bad effect on you *My skin **reacts to** most perfumes.* **3 CHEMISTRY** In science, if a substance reacts with another substance, it changes. *Carbon **reacts with** oxygen to produce carbon dioxide.*

react against sth *phrasal verb* to do the opposite of what someone wants you to do because you do not like their rules or ideas

reactant /riˈæktənt/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical substance that reacts with another

WORD PARTNERS FOR *reaction*

an **adverse** / **angry** / **immediate** / **initial** / **instinctive/negative/rapid** reaction ● **gauge/produce/provoke** a reaction ● a reaction **to/towards** sth

reaction /riˈækʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** CAUSED BY SOMETHING [C, U] something you say, feel, or do because of something that has happened *What was his **reaction to** the news?* **2 reactions** *mainly UK* the ability to move quickly when something suddenly happens *Drivers need to have quick reactions.* **3** CHANGE [**no plural**] a change in the way people behave or think because they do not agree with the way people behaved or thought in the past *In art, there was a **reaction against** Realism.* **4 HEALTH** [C] an unpleasant feeling or illness caused by something you have eaten or used on your body *A number of people have **had a** bad **reaction to** this drug.* **5 CHEMISTRY** [C] a change which happens when two substances are put together ***a chemical reaction*** ➲See also: **chain reaction**

reactionary /riˈækʃᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* **POLITICS** being against political or social progress ●**reactionary** *noun* [C] someone who is against political or social progress

reactive /riˈæktɪv/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** reactive substances have a strong chemical change when they are mixed with other substances

reactivity /ˌriækˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a measure of how much a substance reacts when it is mixed with another substance

reactor /riˈæktəʳ/ (*also* **nuclear reactor**) *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a large machine which uses nuclear fuel to produce power

read¹ /riːd/ *verb past* **read** /red/ **1** WORDS [I, T] to look at words and understand what they mean *What was the last **book** you **read**?* ○ *I've been **reading about** John F Kennedy.* [+ **that**] *I've read that the economy is going to improve by the end of the year.* **2** SAY [I, T] to look at words that are written and say them aloud for other people to listen to *Do you want me to **read** it **to** you?* [+ **two objects**] *I **read** him a **story** at bedtime.* **3** SIGNS [T] to look at signs and be able to understand them *Can you **read music**?* **4 MEASURES** [T] to show the temperature, time, etc on a piece of measuring equipment *The thermometer read 20 degrees this*

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morning. ➲See also: **lip-read**
read sth into sth *phrasal verb* to believe that an action, remark, etc has a particular meaning when it has not *Don't read too much into anything he says.*
read sth out *phrasal verb* to read something and say the words aloud so that other people can hear *He read out the names of all the winners.*
read sth over/through *phrasal verb* to read something from the beginning to the end, especially to find mistakes *I read over my essay to check for errors.*

read² /riːd/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** the act of reading something *It's not brilliant but it's worth a read.* **2 a good/easy, etc read** something that is enjoyable, easy, etc to read

readable /ˈriːdəbl/ *adjective* enjoyable and easy to read

reader /ˈriːdəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who reads *She's a slow reader.*

readership /ˈriːdəʃɪp/ *noun* [**no plural**] the number and type of people who read a particular newspaper, magazine, etc *These magazines have a very young readership.*

readily /ˈredɪli/ *adverb* **1** EASILY quickly and easily *Information is **readily available** on the Internet.* **2** WILLINGLY willingly and without stopping to think *He **readily admits** to having problems himself.*

readiness /ˈredɪnəs/ *noun* [**U**] **1** WILLING when someone is willing to do something [**+ to do sth**] *They expressed a readiness to accept our demands.* **2** PREPARED when someone is prepared for something *It was time to repair their shelters **in readiness for** the winter.*

O-key **reading** /ˈriːdɪŋ/ *noun* **1** ACTIVITY [**U**] the activity or skill of reading books *I **did** a lot of **reading** on holiday.* **2** EVENT [**C**] an event at which someone reads something to an audience *a **poetry reading*** **3 MEASURES** [**C**] the measurement that is shown on a piece of measuring equipment *It's best to **take** a meter **reading** as soon as you move in.*

readjust /ˌriːəˈdʒʌst/ *verb* **1** CHANGE BEHAVIOUR [**I**] to change in order to deal with a new situation, such as a new job or home *The children will have to **readjust to** a new school.* **2** SMALL CHANGE [**T**] to move something slightly or make a small change to something *He readjusted his tie.*

O-key **ready** /ˈredi/ *adjective* **1** PREPARED [**never before noun**] prepared for doing something *Give me a call when you're ready.* [**+ to do sth**] *Are you ready to go yet?* ○ *We're going at eight, so you've got an hour to **get ready**.* ○ *The army was **ready for** action.* **2** AVAILABLE [**never before noun**] prepared and available to be eaten, drunk, used, etc *Is dinner ready?* ○ *When will the book be **ready for** publication?* **3 be ready to do sth** to be willing to do something *We are ready to die for our country.* ➲See also: **rough**¹ and ready

ready-made /ˌredɪˈmeɪd/ *adjective* made and ready to use ***ready-made meals***

ˈready ˌmeal *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a meal that has already been cooked, that is bought at a shop but taken home to be heated and eaten

reagent /ˌriːˈeɪdʒənt/ *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** a substance which acts on another in a chemical reaction

O-key **real¹** /rɪəl/ *adjective* **1** NOT IMAGINED existing and not imagined *Romance is never like that **in real life**.* **2** TRUE true and not pretended *What was the **real reason** she didn't come?* ○ *Is that your **real name?*** **3** NOT ARTIFICIAL not artificial or false *real fur/leather* ○ *It's not a toy gun, it's **the real thing**.* **4** FOR EMPHASIS [**always before noun**] used to emphasize a noun *She was a real help.* **5 Get real!** *informal* used to tell someone that they are hoping for something that will never happen, or that they believe something that is not true ➲See also: the real **McCoy**

real² /rɪəl/ *adverb US informal* very *It's real easy to get there from here.*

ˈreal esˌtate *noun* [**U**] *US* buildings and land

ˈreal estate ˌagent *US* (*UK* **estate agent**) *noun* [**C**] someone who sells buildings and land as their job

realism /ˈrɪəlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] **1 ART, LITERATURE** when things and people in art, literature, etc are shown as they are in real life **2** ACCEPTING when you accept and deal with the true facts of a situation and do not hope for things that will not happen

realist /ˈrɪəlɪst/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PERSON someone who accepts the true facts of a situation and does not hope for things that will not happen **2** ARTIST ETC an artist or writer who shows people and things in their work as they are in real life

realistic /ˌrɪəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* **1** ACCEPTING accepting the true facts of a situation and not basing decisions on things that will not happen *Let's be realistic - we're not going to finish this by Friday.* **2** SHOWING showing things and people as they really are, or making them seem to be real *realistic special effects in a film*
➲Opposite **unrealistic** ●**realistically** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reality***

face up to reality ● **turn** [an idea/dream, etc] **into** reality ● **lose touch with** reality ● **in** reality

reality /riˈæləti/ *noun* **1** [**U**] the way things or situations really are and not the way you would like them to be *Sooner or later you have to **face up to reality**.* ○ *He may seem charming but **in reality** he's actually quite unpleasant.* **2 the reality/realities of sth** the truth about an unpleasant situation *the harsh realities of life* **3 become a reality** to start to happen or exist *New jobs could become a reality by next month.*
➲See also: **virtual reality**

reˌality TˈV *noun* [**U**] television programmes about ordinary people who are filmed in real situations

realizable (*also UK* **-isable**) /ˈrɪəlaɪzəbᵊl/ *adjective* **1** possible to do or make happen **2 FINANCE** able to be sold for money

ˌrealizable ˈvalue (*also UK* **-isable**) *noun* [**U**] **FINANCE** in a business, the amount that something is worth if it was sold

realization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌrɪəlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** NOTICING [**U, no plural**] when you notice or understand something that you did not notice or understand before [**+ that**] *There is a*

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growing realization that education has benefits at many levels. **2** ACHIEVING [U] when you achieve something that you wanted *the* ***realization of*** *an* ***ambition***

realize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈrɪəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** to notice or understand something that you did not notice or understand before [+ **question word**] *I didn't realize how unhappy she was.* ○ *I suddenly realized I'd met him before.* [+ **(that)**] *Some people just don't seem to realize that the world has changed.* **2 realize an ambition/dream/goal, etc** to achieve something that you have wanted for a long time *He had realized all his ambitions by the age of 30.* **3** FINANCE to sell things that you own *to realize your assets* **4** FINANCE to be sold for a particular amount of money *The shares realized £1.4 million.*

really /ˈrɪəli/ *adverb* **1** VERY very or very much *She's really nice.* ○ *I really don't want to go.* ○ *"Did you like it then?" "Er,* ***not really****"* (= no). **2** TRUTH used when you are saying what is the truth of a situation *She tried to hide what she was really thinking.* **3 Really?** used when you are surprised at what someone has just said *"Apparently, he's leaving." "Really?"*

realm /relm/ *noun* [C] **1** AREA *formal* an area of knowledge or activity *successes in the realm of foreign policy* **2** POLITICS *literary* a country that has a king or queen

ˌreal ˈnumber *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS any number that is not an imaginary number ➲Compare **complex number, imaginary number**

real-time /ˈrɪəltaɪm/ *adjective* COMPUTING describes computing systems that are able to deal with and use new information immediately

realtor /ˈriːltər/ *US* (*UK* **estate agent**) *noun* [C] someone who sells buildings or land as their job

reap /riːp/ *verb* **1 reap the benefits/profits/rewards** to get something good by working hard for it *Sometimes, this approach can reap tremendous rewards.* **2** FARMING [I, T] to cut and collect a crop of grain

reappear /ˌriːəˈpɪər/ *verb* [I] to appear again or return after a period of time *He reappeared later that day.* ●**reappearance** /ˌriːəˈpɪərəns/ *noun* [C, U]

rear¹ /rɪər/ *noun* **1 the rear** the back part of something *First class accommodation is towards the rear of the train.* **2 bring up the rear** to be at the back of a group of people who are walking or running ●**rear** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *a rear window/wheel*

rear² /rɪər/ *verb* **1** FARMING [T] If you rear children or young animals, you care for them until they are adults. *In these waters they breed and rear their young.* **2** [I] (*also* **rear up**) If a horse rears, it stands on its back legs. ➲See also: raise/rear its ugly **head**¹

rearm /ˌriːˈɑːm/ *verb* [I, T] to supply yourself or others with new weapons ●**rearmament** /riˈɑːməmənt/ *noun* [U]

rearrange /ˌriːəˈreɪndʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** POSITION to change the order or position of things *I've* ***rearranged*** *the* ***furniture.*** **2** EVENT to change the time of an event or meeting *I've* ***rearranged*** *the* ***meeting*** *for Monday.*

ˌrear-view ˈmirror *noun* [C] a small mirror inside a car which the driver looks in to see what is happening behind the car ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reason***

a **compelling/good/obvious/simple** reason ● **have/give/understand** a reason ● the reason **for** sth ● the reason **why** sth happens

reason¹ /ˈriːzən/ *noun* **1** WHY [C] the facts about why something happens or why someone does something *Is there any particular* ***reason why*** *he doesn't want to come?* ○ *He left without* ***giving a reason.*** ○ *That was the* ***reason for*** *telling her.* **2** RIGHT [C, U] something that makes it right for you to do something [+ **to do sth**] *There is* ***every reason*** *to believe the project will be finished on time.* **3** ABILITY [U] the ability to think and make good decisions *By this time he'd lost his powers of reason.* **4 within reason** If something is within reason, it is acceptable and possible. *You can have as much as you like, within reason.* **5 it stands to reason** If it stands to reason that something happens or is true, it is what you would expect. *It stands to reason that a child who is constantly criticized will have little self-confidence.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

reason

Be careful to choose the correct preposition.

That was the main ***reason for*** *the trip.*

~~*That was the main reason of the trip.*~~

reason² /ˈriːzən/ *verb* [T] to decide that something is true after considering the facts [+ **that**] *We reasoned that it was unlikely he would be a serious threat to the public.*

reason with sb *phrasal verb* to persuade someone not to do something stupid by giving them good reasons not to

reasonable /ˈriːzənəbl/ *adjective* **1** FAIR fair and showing good judgment [+ **to do sth**] *It's not reasonable to expect people to work those hours.* ➲Opposite **unreasonable 2** BIG ENOUGH big enough or large enough in number, although not big or not many *There were a reasonable number of people there.* **3** GOOD ENOUGH good enough but not the best *I'd say her work is of a reasonable standard.* **4** CHEAP not expensive *reasonable prices*

reasonably /ˈriːzənəbli/ *adverb* **1** in a fair way, showing good judgment *Why can't we discuss this reasonably, like adults?* **2 reasonably good/successful/well, etc** good/successful/well, etc enough but not very good or very well *I did reasonably well at school but not as well as my sister.* **3 reasonably priced** not expensive

reasoning /ˈriːzənɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the process of thinking about something in order to make a decision *I don't understand the* ***reasoning behind*** *this decision.*

reassure /ˌriːəˈʃʊər/ *verb* [T] to say something to stop someone from worrying [+ **that**] *He reassured me that I would be paid soon.* ●**reassurance** /ˌriːəˈʃʊərəns/ *noun* [C, U] something that you say to make someone stop worrying *Despite my repeated reassurances that she was welcome, she wouldn't come.*

reassuring /ˌriːəˈʃʊərɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel less worried *a reassuring smile/voice* ●**reassuringly** *adverb*

R

rebate /ˈriːbeɪt/ *noun* [C] FINANCE an amount of money that is given back to you because you have paid too much *a **tax/rent rebate***

rebel¹ /ˈrebᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** POLITICS someone who fights against the government in their country, especially a soldier *Rebels seized control of the airport.* **2** someone who does not like authority and refuses to obey rules

rebel² /rɪˈbel/ *verb* [I] **rebelling**, *past* **rebelled** **1** POLITICS to fight against the government **2** to refuse to obey rules because you do not like authority *She **rebelled against** her family.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rebellion***

launch/lead/quash/stage a rebellion ● a rebellion **against** sb/sth ● a rebellion **by** sb

rebellion /rɪˈbeliən/ *noun* [C, U] POLITICS when people fight against the government in their country

rebellious /rɪˈbeliəs/ *adjective* refusing to obey rules because you do not like authority *a rebellious teenager*

rebirth /ˈriːbɜːθ/ *noun* [**no plural**] when something becomes popular or active for the second time *the rebirth of the women's movement*

reboot /ˌriːˈbuːt/ *verb* [T, I] COMPUTING When a computer reboots, it switches off and then starts again immediately, and when you reboot a computer, you make it do this

rebound¹ /rɪˈbaʊnd/ *verb* [I] to move back through the air after hitting something *The ball **rebounded off** the post.*

rebound² /ˈriːbaʊnd/ *noun* **be on the rebound** to be unhappy because your romantic relationship has ended *She was on the rebound when she met her second husband.*

rebuff /rɪˈbʌf/ *verb* [T] *formal* to refuse someone's suggestion or offer, especially in an unfriendly way *The company has rebuffed several buyout offers.* ●**rebuff** *noun* [C]

rebuild /ˌriːˈbɪld/ *verb* [T] *past* **rebuilt** **1** BUILD AGAIN to build something again after it has been damaged *The cathedral was rebuilt after being destroyed by fire.* **2** IMPROVE to make a situation succeed again after something bad caused it to fail *The country is still struggling to rebuild its economy.*

rebuke /rɪˈbjuːk/ *verb* [T] *formal* to speak angrily to someone because they have done something wrong ●**rebuke** *noun* [C] *formal*

recalcitrant /rɪˈkælsɪtrənt/ *adjective formal* not willing to obey or help someone *recalcitrant schoolchildren*

recall /rɪˈkɔːl/ *verb* [T] **1** REMEMBER to remember something *I don't recall arranging a time to meet.* **2** RETURN to order the return of someone or something [**often passive**] *The ambassador was recalled to London.* ●**recall** /ˈriːkɔːl/ *noun* [U]

recap /ˈriːkæp/ *verb* [I] **recapping**, *past* **recapped** to repeat the most important parts of what you have just said ●**recap** /ˈriːkæp/ *noun* [C]

recapture /ˌriːˈkæptʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** CATCH to catch a person or animal that has escaped **2** EXPERIENCE to experience or feel something from the past again *Some men try to **recapture** their **youth** by going out with younger women.*

recede /rɪˈsiːd/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVE AWAY to become further and further away *The coastline receded into the distance.* **2** LESS STRONG If a memory or feeling recedes, it becomes less clear or strong. **3** HAIR If a man's hair recedes, it stops growing at the front of his head. *a **receding hairline***

receipt /rɪˈsiːt/ *noun* **1** FINANCE [C] a piece of paper that proves that you have received goods or money *Could I have a receipt?* ○ *Remember to keep **receipts for** any work done.* **2** [U] *formal* the act of receiving something *Items must be returned within fourteen days of receipt.*

receipts /rɪˈsiːts/ *US* (*UK* **takings**) *noun* [**plural**] FINANCE the amount of money that a business gets from selling things *box-office receipts*

O-K **receive** /rɪˈsiːv/ *verb* [T] **1** GET to get something that someone has given or sent to you *Occasionally, he **receives** letters **from** fans.* **2** REACT to react to a suggestion or piece of work in a particular way [**often passive**] *His first book was not **well received*** (= people did not like it). **3** WELCOME to formally welcome guests ➲See also: be on/at the receiving **end**¹ of sth

receiver /rɪˈsiːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE the part of a telephone that you hold in your hand and use for listening and speaking **2** RADIO/TV the part of a radio or television that receives signals from the air **3** PERSON someone who officially deals with a company when it has to stop business because it cannot pay the money it owes

O-K **recent** /ˈriːsᵊnt/ *adjective* happening or starting from a short time ago *a recent photo* ○ *In recent years, sales have decreased quite markedly.*

O-K **recently** /ˈriːsəntli/ *adverb* not long ago *Have you seen any good films recently?* ○ *Until recently he worked as a teacher.*

receptacle /rɪˈseptəkᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** *formal* a container *Please put any waste in the receptacle provided.* **2** BIOLOGY the part of a flower's stalk that the petals are attached to ➲See picture at **flower**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reception***

get/be given/receive a [cool/good, etc] reception ● a **cool/chilly/frosty/hostile** reception ● a **good/great/rapturous/warm** reception ● a **lukewarm/mixed** reception ● reception **from** sb

reception /rɪˈsepʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** HOTEL/OFFICE [**no plural**] the place in a hotel or office building where people go when they arrive *Ask for me **at reception**.* ○ *a reception area/desk* **2** PARTY [C] a formal party that is given to celebrate a special event or to welcome someone *a **wedding reception*** **3** REACTION [**no plural**] the way people react to something or someone *We were given a very **warm reception**.* **4** RADIO/TV [U] the quality of a radio or television signal

receptionist /rɪˈsepʃᵊnɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who works in a hotel or office building, answering the telephone and dealing with guests *a **hotel receptionist***

receptive /rɪˈseptɪv/ *adjective* willing to think about and accept new ideas *She's generally very **receptive to** ideas and suggestions.*

R

receptor /rɪˈseptəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a nerve ending that reacts to a change, such as heat or cold, in the body by sending a message to the central nervous system

recess /rɪˈses/ *noun* **1** NOT WORKING [C, U] a time in the day or in the year when a parliament or law court is not working *a parliamentary/congressional recess* ○ *The court is **in recess** for thirty minutes.* **2** **EDUCATION** [C, U] *US* (*UK* **break**) a period of free time between classes at school *At recess the boys would fight.* **3** WALL [C] a part of a wall in a room that is further back than the rest of the wall

recession /rɪˈseʃˢn/ *noun* [C, U] **ECONOMICS** a time when the economy of a country is not successful *The latest report confirms that the economy is **in recession**.*

recessive /rɪˈsesɪv/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** A recessive gene causes a particular characteristic only when it is passed on by both parents. ➲Compare **dominant**

recharge /ˌriːˈtʃɑːdʒ/ *verb* [T] to fill a battery (= object that provides a machine with power) with electricity so that it can work again

recipe /ˈresɪpi/ *noun* **1** [C] **FOOD** a list of foods and a set of instructions telling you how to cook something *a **recipe for** carrot cake* **2 be a recipe for disaster/trouble/success, etc** to be likely to become a disaster, a success, etc

recipient /rɪˈsɪpiənt/ *noun* [C] someone who receives something *a recipient of an award*

reciprocal¹ /rɪˈsɪprəkˡl/ *adjective* involving two people or groups that agree to help each other in a similar way *a **reciprocal arrangement***

reciprocal² /rɪˈsɪprəkˡl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that when multiplied with another particular number give the answer 1 *The reciprocal of 2 is 0.5.*

reciprocate /rɪˈsɪprəkeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to do something for someone because they have done something similar for you

recital /rɪˈsaɪtˡl/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a performance of music or poetry *a piano recital*

recite /rɪˈsaɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to say something aloud from memory *She can recite the whole poem.*

reckless /ˈrekləs/ *adjective* doing something dangerous and not caring about what might happen ***reckless driving*** ●**recklessly** *adverb*

reckon /ˈrekˡn/ *verb* [T] **1** THINK to think that something is probably true *I reckon he likes her.* [+ **(that)**] *He reckons that he earns more in a week than I do in a month.* **2** NUMBER to guess that a particular number is correct *His fortune is **reckoned at** $5 million.* ➲See also: a **force¹** to be reckoned with

reckon on sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to think that something is going to happen and make it part of your plans

reckon with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to deal with someone or something difficult

reclaim /rɪˈkleɪm/ *verb* [T] **1** to get something back from someone *You can reclaim the tax at the airport.* **2** **FARMING** to make land good enough to be used for growing crops

recline /rɪˈklaɪn/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I] to lie back with the upper part of your body in a horizontal position *I found him **reclining on** the sofa.* **2** CHAIR [I, T] If a chair reclines, you can lower the back part so that you can lie in it, and if you recline a chair, you put it in this position. *a **reclining chair/seat***

recluse /rɪˈkluːs/ *noun* [C] someone who lives alone and does not like being with other people ●**reclusive** *adjective* living alone and avoiding other people

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***recognition***

achieve/deserve/gain recognition ● **in** recognition **of** sth ● recognition **for** sth

recognition /ˌrekəgˈnɪʃˢn/ *noun* **1** ACCEPT [U, **no plural**] when you accept that something is true or real *There is a growing **recognition of** the scale of the problem.* [+ **that**] *There is a general recognition that she's the best person for the job.* **2** HONOUR [U] when someone is publicly thanked for something good that they have done *Ellen **gained recognition for** her outstanding work.* ○ *He was given a medal **in recognition of** his bravery.* **3** KNOW [U] when you know something or someone because you have seen or experienced them before *I waved at her, but she showed no sign of recognition.*

recognizable (*also UK* **-isable**) /ˈrekəgnaɪzəbl/ *adjective* able to be recognized (= able to be known) *Megan's voice is instantly recognizable.* ●**recognizably** *adverb*

recognize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈrekəgnaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** KNOW to know someone or something because you have seen or experienced them before *I recognized her from her picture.* ○ *Doctors are trained to recognize the symptoms of disease.* **2** ACCEPT to accept that something is true or real [+ **(that)**] *She recognized that she had been partly to blame.* ○ *Smoking is **recognized as** a leading cause of lung cancer.* **3** SHOW RESPECT to officially show respect for someone for an achievement *He was recognized by the governor for his work with teenagers.*

recoil /rɪˈkɔɪl/ *verb* [I] to react to something with fear or hate *She **recoiled in** horror at the thought of touching a snake.*

recollect /ˌrekˡˈlekt/ *verb* [T] to remember something *I didn't recollect having seen him.*

recollection /ˌrekˡˈlekʃˢn/ *noun* [C, U] when you remember something *He **had** no **recollection** of the incident.*

recommend /ˌrekəˈmend/ *verb* [T] **1** SUITABLE to say that someone or something is good or suitable for a particular purpose *Can you recommend a good wine to go with this dish?* ○ *She has been **recommended for** promotion.* **2** ADVISE to advise someone that something should be done *The judge is likely to recommend a long jail sentence.* [+ **that**] *The report recommended that tourists avoid the region.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***recommendation***

accept/follow/implement/make a recommendation ● a recommendation **for/on** sth

recommendation /ˌrekəmenˈdeɪʃˢn/ *noun* **1** ADVICE [C] a piece of advice about what to do in a particular situation *The marketing department **made** several **recommendations** to improve sales.* [+ **that**] *It's my recommendation that this factory be closed immediately.*

R

2 SUITABLE [**C, U**] a suggestion that someone or something is good or suitable for a particular purpose *I bought this book* ***on*** *Andy's* ***recommendation***.

recompense /ˈrekəmpens/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* payment that you give to someone when you have caused them difficulty or an injury *Angry soccer fans sought* ***recompense for*** *the cancelled match.* ●**recompense** *verb* [**T**] *formal He was* ***recompensed for*** *loss of earnings.*

reconcile /ˈrekəˢnsaɪl/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to make two different ideas, beliefs, or situations agree or able to exist together *It is sometimes difficult to reconcile science and religion.* ○ *How can you* ***reconcile*** *your love of animals* ***with*** *your habit of eating them?* **2 be reconciled (with sb)** to become friendly with someone after you have argued with them
reconcile yourself to sth *phrasal verb* to accept a situation although you do not like it *Eventually he reconciled himself to living without her.*

reconciliation /ˌrekəˢnˌsɪliˈeɪʃˢn/ *noun* **1** BECOME FRIENDLY [**C, U**] when two people or groups become friendly again after they have argued *to* ***seek a reconciliation*** **2** AGREE [**U, no plural**] the process of making two opposite ideas, beliefs, or situations agree *the reconciliation of facts with theory*

reconnaissance /rɪˈkɒnɪsˢns/ *noun* [**U**] the process of getting information about a place or an area for military use

reconsider /ˌriːkˢnˈsɪdəʳ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to think again about a decision or opinion and decide if you want to change it *We've been asked to reconsider the proposal.* ●**reconsideration** /ˌriːkˢnˌsɪdˢrˈeɪʃˢn/ *noun* [**U**]

reconstruct /ˌriːkˢnˈstrʌkt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** PAST EVENT to create a description of a past event using all the information that you have *The police tried to reconstruct the crime using evidence found at the scene.* **2** BUILD AGAIN to build something again after it has been damaged or destroyed

reconstruction /ˌriːkˢnˈstrʌkʃˢn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** PAST EVENT when you create a description of a past event using all the information that you have *A reconstruction of the crime was shown on TV.* **2** BUILD AGAIN when you build something again after it has been damaged or destroyed

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***record***

have/keep a record ● records **indicate/reveal/show** sth ● a record **of** sth ● [the hottest/the lowest, etc] **on** record

record¹ /ˈrekɔːd/ *noun* **1** STORED INFORMATION [**C, U**] information that is written on paper or stored on computer so that it can be used in the future ***medical/dental records*** ○ *My teacher* ***keeps a record of*** *my absences.* ○ *This has been the hottest summer* ***on record*** (= the hottest summer known about). **2** BEHAVIOUR [**C**] A person's or company's record is their behaviour or achievements. [**usually singular**] *She has an outstanding academic record* (= has done very well in school). ○ *Of all airlines they have the best* ***safety record***. **3** BEST [**C**] the best, biggest, longest, tallest, etc *to* ***set/break a record*** ○ *He* ***holds the*** *world* ***record*** *for 100 metres.* **4** MUSIC [**C**] a flat, round, plastic disc that music is stored on, used especially in the past *to play a record* **5 off the record** If you say something off the record, you do not want the public to know about it. **6 put/set the record straight** to tell people the true facts about a situation **7** COMPUTING a collection of pieces of information in a computer database that is treated as one unit *You can sort the records on any field.* ➲See also: **track record**

record² /rɪˈkɔːd/ *verb* **1** STORE INFORMATION [**T**] to write down information or store it on a computer so that it can be used in the future *He* ***recorded details*** *of their conversation in his diary.* **2** STORE SOUNDS/PICTURES [**I, T**] to store sounds or pictures using electronic equipment, a camera, etc so that you can listen to them or see them again *to record a new album* ○ *a* ***recorded message***

record-breaking /ˈrekɔːdˌbreɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] better, bigger, longer, etc than anything else before *record-breaking sales of the new video*

recorder /rɪˈkɔːdəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a machine for storing sounds or pictures *a video recorder* **2** MUSIC a long, thin, hollow instrument that you play by blowing into it ➲See also: **cassette recorder, tape recorder**

recording /rɪˈkɔːdɪŋ/ *noun* [**C, U**] sounds or moving pictures that have been recorded, or the process of recording *a recording of classical music* ○ *a new system of digital recording*

ˈrecord ˌlabel *noun* [**C**] MUSIC a company that records and sells music

ˈrecord ˌplayer *noun* [**C**] MUSIC a machine that makes it possible to hear the music on a record (= a flat, round disc)

recount¹ /rɪˈkaʊnt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to tell a story or describe an event *He was* ***recounting a story*** *about a woman he'd met on a train.*

recount² /ˌriːˈkaʊnt/ *verb* [**T**] to count something again

recount³ /ˈriːkaʊnt/ *noun* [**C**] POLITICS a second count of votes in an election *They* ***demanded a recount***.

recoup /rɪˈkuːp/ *verb* [**T**] to get back money that you have lost or spent *to* ***recoup*** *your* ***losses***

recourse /rɪˈkɔːs/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* someone or something that can help you in a difficult situation *For many cancer patients, surgery is the* ***only recourse***. ○ *They solved their problem* ***without recourse to*** (= without using) *violence.*

recover /rɪˈkʌvəʳ/ *verb* **1** HEALTH [**I**] to become healthy or happy again after an illness, injury, or period of sadness *It takes a long time to* ***recover from*** *surgery.* ○ *She never* ***recovered from*** *the death of her husband.* **2** SITUATION [**I**] If a system or situation recovers, it returns to the way it was before something bad happened. *The economy was quick to recover after the election.* **3** BODY [**T**] to be able to use or feel again part of your body which has been damaged *He never fully recovered the use of his legs.* **4** GET BACK [**T**] to get something back that has been lost or stolen *Police recovered the stolen money.*

R

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***recovery***

make a recovery ● a **full/miraculous/slow/speedy** recovery ● recovery **from** sth

recovery /rɪˈkʌvᵊri/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [U, no plural] when you feel better or happier again after an illness, injury, or period of sadness *She only had the operation last month but she's* ***made a good recovery***. **2** SITUATION [U, no plural] when a system or situation returns to the way it was before something bad happened ***economic recovery*** ○ *The housing industry has* ***made a remarkable recovery***. **3** GET BACK [U] when you get back something that was lost or stolen *the recovery of stolen jewels*

recreate /ˌriːkriˈeɪt/ *verb* [T] to make something exist or happen again *They plan to recreate a typical English village in Japan.*

recreation /ˌrekriˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] activities that you do for enjoyment when you are not working *Shopping seems to be her only form of recreation.* ●**recreational** *adjective*

recrimination /rɪˌkrɪmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* the things you say when you blame someone for something, or the act of blaming someone for something

recruit¹ /rɪˈkruːt/ *verb* [I, T] to try to persuade someone to work for a company or to join an organization ●**recruitment** *noun* [U] when you recruit people *graduate recruitment*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***recruit***

a **new** recruit ● a recruit **to** sth

recruit² /rɪˈkruːt/ *noun* [C] someone who has recently joined an organization ***a new recruit***

rectangle /ˈrektæŋgl/ *noun* [C] a shape with four 90° angles and four sides, with opposite sides of equal length and two sides longer than the other two ➲See picture at **shape** ➲See picture at **shape** ➲See picture at **parallelogram** ●**rectangular** /rekˈtæŋgjələʳ/ *adjective* shaped like a rectangle *a rectangular room*

rectify /ˈrektɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to correct something or change it so that it is acceptable *The government has promised to* ***rectify the situation***.

rector /ˈrektəʳ/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a priest in some Christian churches

rectum /ˈrektəm/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the last part of the body that solid waste travels through before coming out of the bottom ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

recuperate /rɪˈkuːpᵊreɪt/ *verb* [I] HEALTH to become healthy again after an illness or injury *She's still* ***recuperating from*** *her injuries.* ●**recuperation** /rɪˌkjuːpᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

recur /rɪˈkɜːʳ/ *verb* [I] **recurring**, *past* **recurred** to happen again or many times *The same ideas recur throughout her books.* ●**recurrence** /rɪˈkʌrᵊns/ *noun* [C, U] when something recurs *a recurrence of the disease*

recurring /rɪˈkɜːrɪŋ/ (*also* **recurrent**) *adjective* happening again or many times ***a recurring dream***

re|curring ˈnumber *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a number that repeats itself forever following a decimal point, such as 7.143333...

recycle /ˌriːˈsaɪkl/ *verb* [I, T] ENVIRONMENT to put used paper, glass, plastic, etc through a process so that it can be used again *We recycle all our newspapers and bottles.* ●**recyclable** /ˌriːˈsaɪkləbl/ *adjective* able to be recycled *Glass is recyclable.*

recycled /ˌriːˈsaɪkld/ *adjective* ENVIRONMENT Recycled paper, glass, plastic, etc has been used before and put through a process so that it can be used again.

recycling /ˌriːˈsaɪklɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT when paper, glass, plastic, etc is put through a process so that it can be used again *ways to encourage recycling* ○ *a recycling centre*

red¹ /red/ *adjective* **redder**, **reddest** **1** COLOUR being the same colour as blood *a red shirt* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** HAIR Red hair is an orange-brown colour. **3 go red** *UK* (*US* **turn red**) If someone goes red, their face becomes red because they are embarrassed or angry. **4** FOOD Red wine is made from black grapes (= small, round, purple fruits). ➲See also: be like a red **rag** to a bull

red² /red/ *noun* **1** [C, U] the colour of blood ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2 in the red** FINANCE If your bank account is in the red, you have spent more money than there was in it. **3 see red** to become very angry

ˌred ˈblood ˌcell *noun* [C] BIOLOGY any of the cells that carry oxygen around the body ➲Compare **white blood cell**

ˌred ˈcard *noun* [C] SPORT in football, a small red card which the referee (= someone who makes sure the players follow the rules) shows to a player to make him stop playing because he has broken a rule

the ˌred ˈcarpet *noun* special treatment that is given to an important person when they go somewhere *She's given* ***the red carpet treatment*** *wherever she goes.*

redden /ˈredᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become red or to make something become red *His face reddened with anger.*

redeem /rɪˈdiːm/ *verb* [T] **1** IMPROVE to make something seem less bad *He tried to* ***redeem his reputation*** *by working extra hard.* ○ *a* ***redeeming feature*** **2 redeem yourself** to do something that makes people have a better opinion of you after you have done something bad *He was two hours late, but he redeemed himself by bringing presents.* **3** GET SOMETHING to exchange something for something else **4** RELIGION to save someone from evil, especially according to the Christian religion

redemption /rɪˈdemʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** RELIGION [U] when someone is saved from evil, especially according to the Christian religion **2 be beyond redemption** to be too bad to be improved or saved

redeploy /ˌriːdɪˈplɔɪ/ *verb* [T] to move employees, soldiers, equipment, etc to a different place or use them in a more effective way ●**redeployment** *noun* [C, U] when you redeploy someone or something

redevelop /ˌriːdɪˈveləp/ *verb* [T] to make a place more modern by improving old buildings or building new ones *There are plans to redevelop*

the city's waterfront area. ●**redevelopment** *noun* [C, U] when a place is redeveloped

ˌred ˈgiant *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a large star with a low surface temperature

red-handed /ˌredˈhændɪd/ *adverb* **catch sb red-handed** *informal* to discover someone doing something wrong *He was caught red-handed trying to steal a car.*

redhead /ˈredhed/ *noun* [C] someone who has red hair

ˌred ˈherring *noun* [C] a fact or idea that takes your attention away from something that is important

red-hot /ˌredˈhɒt/ *adjective* extremely hot

redirect /ˌriːdɪˈrekt/ *verb* [T] **1** CHANGE DIRECTION to send something in a different direction *Traffic should be redirected away from the city centre.* **2** USE DIFFERENTLY to use money, energy, etc for a different purpose *Money spent on weapons could be* ***redirected to*** *hospitals and schools.*

redistribute /ˌriːdɪˈstrɪbjuːt/ *verb* [T] to share money, land, power, etc between people in a different way from before *to* ***redistribute wealth*** ●**redistribution** /ˌriːdɪstrɪˈbjuːʃˈn/ *noun* [U] the process of redistributing something

ˌred ˈmeat *noun* [U] **FOOD** meat from animals and not birds or fish

redo /ˌriːˈduː/ *verb* [T] to do something again *I'm going to have to redo that report.*

redox /ˈriːdɒks/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical process where an atom, molecule, etc. either gains or loses electrons *a redox reaction*

redress¹ /rɪˈdres/ *verb* [T] *formal* to correct something that is wrong, unfair, or not equal *laws aimed at redressing racial inequality*

redress² /rɪˈdres/ (US) /ˈriːdres/ *noun* [U] *formal* payment for an action or situation that is wrong or unfair

ˌred ˈtape *noun* [U] official rules that do not seem necessary and make things happen very slowly

reduce /rɪˈdjuːs/ *verb* [T] **1** to make something less *to reduce air pollution* ○ *The number of employees was* ***reduced from*** *500* ***to*** *300.* **2** **CHEMISTRY** to add one or more electrons to a substance or to remove oxygen from a substance

reduce sb to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to make someone unhappy or cause them to be in a bad situation *She was* ***reduced to tears*** *by his comments.*

reduce sth to sth *phrasal verb* to destroy something, especially something that has been built *The earthquake reduced the city to rubble.*

reˈducing ˌagent *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a substance that reduces (= adds one or more electrons to) another substance

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reduction***

a **dramatic/drastic/sharp/significant** reduction ● a reduction **in** sth

reduction /rɪˈdʌkʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** when something is reduced *She refused to accept a* ***reduction in*** *wages.* ○ *price reductions* **2** **CHEMISTRY** the process of adding one or more electrons to a substance or removing oxygen from a substance

redundancy /rɪˈdʌndənsi/ *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS** [C, U] *UK* when your employer makes you stop working because there is not enough work *There have been a lot of redundancies in the mining industry.* **2** EXTRA [U] when something is not needed or used because there are other similar or more modern things

redundant /rɪˈdʌndənt/ *adjective* **1** **ECONOMICS** *UK* not working because your employer has told you there is not enough work *Eight thousand people have been* ***made redundant*** *in Britain this year.* **2** NOT NEEDED *UK* not needed or used any more because there are other similar or more modern things *redundant weapons* **3** TOO MUCH more than is needed, especially extra words that mean the same thing

redwood /ˈredwʊd/ *noun* [C, U] a very tall tree that grows on the west coast of the US, or the wood of this tree

reed /riːd/ *noun* [C] a tall, stiff plant like grass that grows near water

reef /riːf/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a line of rocks or sand near the surface of the sea *a* ***coral reef***

reek /riːk/ *verb* [I] to have a very unpleasant smell *The whole room* ***reeked of*** *sweat.* ●**reek** *noun* [**no plural**]

reel¹ /riːl/ *verb* [I] **1** FEEL SHOCK to feel very shocked *She was still* ***reeling from*** *the news of his death.* **2** WALK to walk in a way that looks as if you are going to fall over *He came reeling down the street like a drunk.*

reel sth off *phrasal verb* to say a long list of things quickly and without stopping *She* ***reeled off*** *a* ***list*** *of all the countries she'd been to.*

reel² /riːl/ *noun* [C] an object shaped like a wheel that you can roll film, thread, etc around

re-elect /ˌriːɪˈlekt/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** to elect someone again to a particular position

re-election /ˌriːɪˈlekʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] **POLITICS** when someone is elected again to the same position *She's (UK)* ***standing for****/ (US)* ***running for*** *re-election* (= she wants to be re-elected).

ref /ref/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** *informal short for* referee

refer /rɪˈfɜːʳ/ *verb* **referring**, *past* **referred**

refer to sb/sth *phrasal verb* **1** SAY to talk or write about someone or something, especially briefly *She didn't once refer to her son.* ○ *He always* ***referred to*** *his father* ***as*** *'the old man'.* **2** RELATE TO If writing or information refers to someone or something, it relates to that person or thing. *The sales figures refer to UK sales only.*

refer to sth *phrasal verb* to read something in order to get information *Please refer to your owner's manual for more information.*

refer sb/sth to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to send someone or something to a different place or person for information or help *My doctor referred me to a specialist.*

referee¹ /ˌrefəˈriː/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who makes sure that players follow the rules

R

during a sports game ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

referee² /ˌrefəˈriː/ *verb* [**I, T**] **refereeing**, *past* **refereed** **SPORT** to be the referee in a sports game

reference /ˈrefərəns/ *noun* **1** SAY [**C, U**] when you briefly talk or write about someone or something *In his book, he **makes** several **references to** his time in France.* **2 with/in reference to sth** *formal* relating to something *I am writing to you with reference to the job advertised in yesterday's newspaper.* **3** LOOK AT [**C, U**] when you look at information, or the thing that you look at for information *Please keep this handout for **future reference*** (= to look at in the future). **4** LETTER [**C**] a letter that is written by someone who knows you, to say if you are suitable for a job or course ➲See also: **cross reference**

ˈreference ˌbook *noun* [**C**] a book that you look at in order to find information

referendum /ˌrefəˈrendəm/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** an occasion when all the people in a country can vote in order to show their opinion about a political question

referral /rɪˈfɜːrəl/ *noun* [**C, U**] **HEALTH** when someone or something is sent to a different place or person for information or help

refill /ˌriːˈfɪl/ *verb* [**T**] to fill something again *He got up and **refilled** their **glasses**.* ●**refill** /ˈriːfɪl/ *noun* [**C**]

refine /rɪˈfaɪn/ *verb* [**T**] **1** MAKE PURE to make a substance pure by removing other substances from it **2** IMPROVE to improve an idea, method, system, etc by making small changes *The engineers spent months refining the software.*

refined /rɪˈfaɪnd/ *adjective* **1** PURE A refined substance has been made more pure by removing other substances from it. *refined sugar* **2** POLITE very polite and showing knowledge of social rules **3** IMPROVED improved by many small changes *a refined method*

refinement /rɪˈfaɪnmənt/ *noun* **1** IMPROVEMENT [**C, U**] a small change that improves something *Several **refinements** have been **made** to improve the car's performance.* **2** POLITE [**U**] polite behaviour and knowledge of social rules *a woman of refinement* **3** PURE [**U**] the process of making a substance pure

refinery /rɪˈfaɪnəri/ *noun* [**C**] a factory where substances, such as sugar, oil, etc are made pure

reflect /rɪˈflekt/ *verb* **1** SHOW [**T**] to show or be a sign of something *The statistics reflect a change in people's spending habits.* **2** **PHYSICS** [**T**] If a surface reflects heat, light, sound, etc, it sends the light, etc back and does not absorb it. **3** **PHYSICS** [**I, T**] If a surface such as a mirror or water reflects something, you can see the image of that thing in the mirror, water, etc. *He saw himself **reflected in** the shop window.* **4** THINK [**I**] *formal* to think in a serious and careful way *In prison, he had plenty of time to **reflect on** the crimes he had committed.* **reflect on sb/sth** *phrasal verb* If something reflects on someone or something, it affects other people's opinion of them, especially in a bad way. *The whole affair **reflects badly** on the government.*

reˈflected ˌray *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a ray of light that is reflected from a surface ➲Compare **incident ray**

reflection /rɪˈflekʃən/ *noun* **1** **PHYSICS** [**C**] the image of something in a mirror, on a shiny surface, etc *I saw my reflection in the window.* **2** [**C, U**] *formal* when you think in a serious and careful way *He paused for reflection before answering my question.* ○ ***On reflection*** (= after thinking again), *I think I was wrong.* **3 a reflection of sth** something that is a sign or result of a particular situation *His poor job performance is a reflection of his lack of training.* **4 a reflection on sb/sth** something that makes people have a particular opinion about someone or something, especially a bad opinion *Low test scores are a sad reflection on our school system.*

reflective /rɪˈflektɪv/ *adjective* **1** THINK thinking carefully and quietly *a reflective mood* **2** SEE A reflective surface is one that you can see easily when a light shines on it. *a jacket made of reflective material*

reflex /ˈriːfleks/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a physical reaction that you cannot control *Shivering and blushing are reflexes.*

ˈreflex ˌaction *noun* [**C**] **1** something that you do without thinking about it because of something that happens to you or near you *I don't know what made me protect my face - it was just a reflex action.* **2** **BIOLOGY** an action of the muscles that is caused by something outside the body, and for which the nerve signals do not go through the brain but to a point in the back

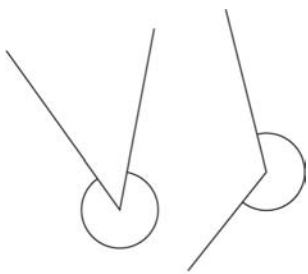

reflex angles

ˈreflex ˌangle *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** an angle that is more than 180° and less than 360°

ˈreflex ˌarc *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** the way nerve signals move to a point in a person's back in order to produce a reflex action

reflexes /ˈriːfleksɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] your ability to react quickly *A boxer needs to have **good reflexes**.*

reflexive /rɪˈfleksɪv/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** A reflexive verb or pronoun is used to show that the person who does the action is also the person who is affected by it. In the sentence 'I looked at myself in the mirror.', 'myself' is a reflexive pronoun.

reflexology /ˌriːflekˈsɒlədʒi/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** the treatment of your feet by rubbing and

R

pressing them in a special way in order to make the blood flow and help you relax

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reform***

introduce/propose a reform ● a **major/radical/sweeping** reform ● reform **in/of** sth ● **economic/political** reform

reform¹ /rɪˈfɔːm/ *noun* [C, U] when changes are made to improve a system, organization, or law, or a change that is made ***economic/political reform***

reform² /rɪˈfɔːm/ *verb* **1** IMPROVE [T] to change a system, organization, or law in order to improve it *efforts to reform the education system* **2** BEHAVIOUR [I, T] to change your behaviour and stop doing bad things, or to make someone else do this *a programme to reform criminals* ○ *a reformed drug addict*

reformer /rɪˈfɔːmər/ *noun* [C] someone who tries to improve a system or law by changing it *a **social reformer***

refract /rɪˈfrækt/ *verb* [T] **PHYSICS** When water or glass, etc. refracts light or sound, etc., it causes it to change direction or to separate when it travels through it.

refraction /rɪˈfrækʃn/ *noun* [U] **1 PHYSICS** when the direction of light, sound, etc. is changed by moving through water, glass, etc **2 BIOLOGY** when the lens (= curved part at the front of the eye) of the eye bends light so that the retina (= back part of the eye that sends messages to the brain) gets the correct image

refrain¹ /rɪˈfreɪn/ *verb* [I] *formal* to stop yourself from doing something [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *Please **refrain from** talking during the performance.*

refrain² /rɪˈfreɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** *formal* a phrase or idea that you repeat often *'Every vote counts' is a familiar refrain in politics.* **2 LITERATURE, MUSIC** a part of a song that you repeat

refresh /rɪˈfreʃ/ *verb* **1** [T] to make you feel less hot or tired *A cool drink should refresh you.* **2 COMPUTING, INTERNET** [I, T] to make the most recent information on an Internet page appear on your computer **3 refresh sb's memory** to help someone remember something

refreshing /rɪˈfreʃɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** DIFFERENT different and interesting *a **refreshing change*** [+ **to do sth**] *It's refreshing to see a film that's so original.* **2** FEEL BETTER making you feel less hot or tired *a refreshing shower/swim* ●**refreshingly** *adverb*

refreshments /rɪˈfreʃmənts/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** food and drinks that are available at a meeting, event, on a journey, etc *Refreshments are available in the lobby.*

refrigerate /rɪˈfrɪdʒəreɪt/ *verb* [T] to make or keep food cold so that it stays fresh *You should refrigerate any leftover food immediately.* ●**refrigeration** /rɪˌfrɪdʒərˈeɪʃn/ *noun* [U]

refrigerated /rɪˈfrɪdʒəreɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** CONTAINER/VEHICLE A refrigerated container or vehicle keeps the things inside it cold. **2** FOOD/DRINK Refrigerated food or drink is cold because it has been kept in a refrigerator.

refrigerator /rɪˈfrɪdʒəreɪtər/ *noun* [C] a large container that uses electricity to keep food cold ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

refuel /ˌriːˈfjuːəl/ *verb* [I, T] to put more fuel into an aircraft, ship, etc so that it can continue its journey

refuge /ˈrefjuːdʒ/ *noun* **1** PROTECTION [U] protection from danger or unpleasant conditions *We **took refuge from** the storm in an old barn.* **2** PLACE [C] a place where you are protected from danger *a refuge for homeless people*

refugee /ˌrefjuˈdʒiː/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who has been forced to leave their country, especially because of a war *a refugee camp*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***refund***

claim/give sb **/get** a refund ● a **full** refund ● a refund **of** sth

refund¹ /ˈriːfʌnd/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money that is given back to you, especially because you are not happy with something you have bought *The holiday company apologized and gave us a **full refund**.*

refund² /ˌriːˈfʌnd/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to give back money that someone has paid to you

refurbish /ˌriːˈfɜːbɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to repair or improve a building ●**refurbishment** *noun* [C, U] the process of refurbishing a building *The library was **closed for refurbishment**.*

refusal /rɪˈfjuːzəl/ *noun* [C, U] when someone refuses to do or accept something [+ **to do sth**] *his refusal to admit his mistake*

O-key **refuse¹** /rɪˈfjuːz/ *verb* [I, T] to say that you will not do or accept something *I asked him to leave but he refused.* [+ **to do sth**] *Cathy refuses to admit that she was wrong.*

refuse² /ˈrefjuːs/ *noun* [U] *formal* waste *a pile of refuse*

refute /rɪˈfjuːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say or prove that something is not true or correct *attempts to **refute** his **theory*** ○ *She angrily **refuted** their **claims**.*

regain /rɪˈgeɪn/ *verb* [T] to get something back again *Armed troops have **regained control** of the capital.* ○ *It was several hours before he **regained consciousness**.*

regal /ˈriːgəl/ *adjective* very special and suitable for a king or queen *a regal dress*

regard¹ /rɪˈgɑːd/ *verb* [T] **1** THINK OF to think of someone or something in a particular way *She is generally **regarded as** one of the greatest singers this century.* ○ *The plans were **regarded with** suspicion.* **2** LOOK *formal* to look carefully at someone or something

regard² /rɪˈgɑːd/ *noun* **1** [U] respect or admiration for someone or something *I **have** the greatest **regard for** her.* ➲Opposite **disregard** **2 in/with regard to sth** *formal* relating to something *I am writing in regard to your letter of 24 June.*

regarding /rɪˈgɑːdɪŋ/ *preposition formal* about or relating to *I am writing to you regarding your application dated 29 April.*

regardless /rɪˈgɑːdləs/ *adverb* **1 regardless of sth** despite something *She'll make a decision*

R

regardless of what we think. **2** without thinking about problems or difficulties *Mr Redwood claimed he would carry on with his campaign regardless.*

regards /rɪˈgɑːdz/ *noun* [**plural**] friendly greetings ***Give/send my regards*** *to your mother when you see her.*

regeneration /rɪˌdʒenəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [**U**] the process of improving a place or system, especially to make it more active or successful *a programme of* ***urban regeneration*** ●**regenerate** /rɪˈdʒenəreɪt/ *verb* [**T**] to improve a place or system

reggae /ˈregeɪ/ *noun* [**U**] **MUSIC** a type of popular music from Jamaica with a strong beat

regime /reɪˈʒiːm/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** a system of government or other control, especially one that people do not approve of *the former Communist regime*

regiment /ˈredʒɪmənt/ *noun* [**group**] a large group of soldiers ●**regimental** /ˌredʒɪˈmentəl/ *adjective* relating to a regiment

regimented /ˈredʒɪmentɪd/ *adjective* too controlled or organized *a regimented lifestyle*

region /ˈriːdʒən/ *noun* **1** **GEOGRAPHY** [**C**] a particular area in a country or the world *China's coastal region* **2** [**C**] an area of the body *pain in the lower abdominal region* **3 in the region of sth** approximately *It probably cost somewhere in the region of £900.*

regional /ˈriːdʒənəl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to a region (= particular area in a country) *a regional dialect/newspaper*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***register***

compile a register ● **on** a register ● a register **of** sth

register¹ /ˈredʒɪstər/ *noun* **1** [**C**] an official list of names *a* ***register of*** *approved builders* ○ *the* ***electoral register*** **2** **LANGUAGE** [**C, U**] the style of language, grammar, and words used in particular situations *a formal/informal register* ➲See also: **cash register**

register² /ˈredʒɪstər/ *verb* **1** ON A LIST [**I, T**] to put information about someone or something, especially a name, on an official list *Is he* ***registered with*** *the authorities to sell alcohol?* ○ *Students need to* ***register for*** *the course by the end of April.* ○ *a registered nurse* **2** SHOW A FEELING [**T**] to show an opinion or feeling *People gathered to* ***register*** *their* ***opposition*** *to the plans.* **3** SHOW AMOUNT [**I, T**] to show an amount on an instrument that measures something *The earthquake registered 7.3 on the Richter scale.*

registered /ˈredʒɪstəd/ *adjective* **registered mail/post** a special service that records when a letter or parcel is sent and received

ˈregister ˌoffice *noun* [**C**] in Britain, a place where births, deaths, and marriages are officially recorded and where you can get married

registrar /ˌredʒɪˈstrɑːr/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **LAW** someone whose job is to keep official records, especially of births, deaths, and marriages, or of students at a university **2** **HEALTH** *UK* a type of hospital doctor

registration /ˌredʒɪˈstreɪʃən/ *noun* **1** OFFICIAL LIST [**U**] when a name or information is recorded on an official list **2** VEHICLE [**C**] (*also* **regisˈtration ˌnumber**) *mainly UK* the official set of numbers and letters on the front and back of a vehicle

registry /ˈredʒɪstri/ *noun* [**C**] a place where official records are kept *the land registry*

ˈregistry ˌoffice *noun* [**C**] in Britain, a place where births, deaths, and marriages are officially recorded and where you can get married

regress /rɪˈgres/ *verb* [**I**] *formal* to go back to an earlier, less advanced state ●**regression** /rɪˈgreʃən/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* when someone or something regresses

regret¹ /rɪˈgret/ *verb* [**T**] **regretting**, *past* **regretted** **1** BAD DECISION to feel sorry about a situation, especially something that you wish you had not done [**+ doing sth**] *I really regret leaving school so young.* [**+ (that)**] *He began to regret that he hadn't paid more attention in class.* **2** SORRY TO SAY *formal* used to say that you are sorry that you have to tell someone about a situation [**+ to do sth**] *We regret to inform you that the application has been refused.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***regret***

express regret ● **have (no)** regrets ● sb's **biggest/only** regret ● **with** regret ● regret **about/at/over** sth

regret² /rɪˈgret/ *noun* [**C, U**] a feeling of sadness about a situation, especially something that you wish you had not done *We married very young but we've been really happy and I've* ***no regrets.*** ○ *It is* ***with*** *great* ***regret*** *that I announce Steve Adam's resignation.* ●**regretful** *adjective* expressing regret ●**regretfully** *adverb*

regrettable /rɪˈgretəbl/ *adjective* If something is regrettable, you wish it had not happened and you feel sorry about it. *a deeply regrettable incident* ●**regrettably** *adverb*

regular¹ /ˈregjələr/ *adjective* **1** SAME TIME/SPACE repeated with the same amount of time or space between one thing and the next *a regular pulse* ○ *Plant the seedlings at regular intervals.* **2** OFTEN happening or doing something often, especially at the same time every week, year, etc *a* ***regular occurrence*** ○ *We arranged to meet* ***on a regular basis.*** **3** USUAL *US* usual or normal *I couldn't see my regular dentist.* **4** SIZE *informal* being a standard size *a burger and regular fries* **5** SHAPE Something that has a regular shape is the same on both or all sides. *She's got lovely, regular teeth.* **6** **LANGUAGE** following the usual rules or patterns in grammar *'Talk' is a regular verb but 'go' is not.* ➲Opposite **irregular** ●**regularity** /ˌregjəˈlærəti/ *noun* [**U**] when something is regular

regular² /ˈregjələr/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* someone who often goes to a particular shop, restaurant, etc *Mick was one of the regulars at the local pub.*

regularly /ˈregjələli/ *adverb* **1** OFTEN often *Accidents occur regularly on this stretch of the road.* **2** SAME TIME at the same time each day, week, month, etc *They meet regularly - usually once a week.*

R

regulate /ˈregjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ACTIVITY/PROCESS to control an activity or process, especially by using rules *laws regulating advertising* **2** SPEED/TEMPERATURE to control the speed, temperature, etc of something *Babies find it difficult to regulate their body temperature.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***regulation***

breach/**comply with**/**enforce**/**introduce** regulations ● regulations **governing** sth ● **strict/stringent/tough** regulations ● **under** a regulation

regulation /ˌregjəˈleɪʃən/ *noun* **1** RULE [C] an official rule that controls how something is done [**usually plural**] *building regulations* **2** CONTROL [U] when a process or activity is controlled *government regulation of interest rates*

regulator /ˈregjəleɪtər/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFICIAL someone whose job is to make sure that a system works in a fair way *the water industry regulator* **2** EQUIPMENT a piece of equipment that is used to control the temperature, speed, etc of something

regulatory /ˈregjələtəri/ *adjective* controlling an activity or process, especially by using rules

rehab /ˈriːhæb/ *noun* [U] *informal* treatment to help someone stop drinking too much alcohol or taking drugs *He spent six months* ***in rehab***.

rehabilitate /ˌriːhəˈbɪlɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to help someone live a normal life again after they have had a serious illness or been in prison *a programme to rehabilitate young offenders* ●**rehabilitation** /ˌriːhəˌbɪlɪˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

rehearsal /rɪˈhɜːsəl/ *noun* [C, U] a time when all the people involved in a play, dance, etc practise in order to prepare for a performance

rehearse /rɪˈhɜːs/ *verb* [I, T] to practise a play, dance, etc in order to prepare for a performance

reign¹ /reɪn/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [C] a period of time when a king or queen rules a country *the reign of Henry VIII* **2** IMPORTANT JOB [**no plural**] a period of time when someone controls a sports team, an organization, etc *Christie's reign as captain of the British athletics team* **3 reign of terror** a period of time when someone uses violence to control people

reign² /reɪn/ *verb* [I] **1** POLITICS to be the king or queen of a country *Queen Victoria reigned for 64 years.* **2** MAIN FEELING/QUALITY *formal* to be the main feeling or quality in a situation ***Chaos reigned*** *as angry protesters hammered on the doors.*

ˌreigning ˈchampion *noun* [C] SPORT the most recent winner of a competition

reimburse /ˌriːɪmˈbɜːs/ *verb* [T] *formal* FINANCE to pay money back to someone, especially money that they have spent because of their work *Employees will no longer be* ***reimbursed for*** *taxi fares.* ●**reimbursement** *noun* [U] *formal* when you reimburse someone

rein /reɪn/ *noun* **1** SPORT [C] a long, thin piece of leather that helps you to control a horse [**usually plural**] *Hold the reins in your left hand.* ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14 **2 free rein** the freedom to do or say what you want [**+ to do sth**] The school gives teachers free rein to try out new teaching methods. **3 keep a tight rein on sb/sth** to have a lot of control over someone or something *We've been told to keep a tight rein on spending.*

reincarnation /ˌriːɪnkɑːˈneɪʃən/ *noun* [U] RELIGION the belief that a dead person's spirit returns to life in another body

reindeer /ˌreɪndɪər/ *noun* [C] *plural* **reindeer** a type of deer with large horns that lives in northern parts of Europe, Asia, and America

reinforce /ˌriːɪnˈfɔːs/ *verb* [T] **1** OPINION to make an existing opinion or idea stronger *to reinforce a view/feeling* **2** OBJECT to make something stronger *a security door reinforced by steel bars* ○ *reinforced concrete* ●**reinforcement** *noun* [C, U] when you reinforce something

reinforcements /ˌriːɪnˈfɔːsmənts/ *noun* [**plural**] soldiers who are sent to make an army stronger

reinstate /ˌriːɪnˈsteɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** PERSON to give someone the job or position that they had before **2** RULE to cause a rule, law, etc to exist again ●**reinstatement** *noun* [C, U] when you reinstate someone or something

reinvent /ˌriːɪnˈvent/ *verb* **1** [T] to produce something new that is based on something that already exists *The story of Romeo and Juliet was* ***reinvented as*** *a Los Angeles gangster movie.* **2 reinvent yourself** to change the way you look and behave so that you seem very different ➲See also: reinvent the **wheel**¹

reiterate /riˈɪtəreɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say something again so that people take notice of it [**+ that**] *I must reiterate that we have no intention of signing this contract.* ●**reiteration** /riˌɪtərˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U]

O-key **reject¹** /rɪˈdʒekt/ *verb* [T] **1** NOT ACCEPT to refuse to accept or agree with something *The United States government* ***rejected*** *the* ***proposal***. **2** JOB/COURSE to refuse to accept someone for a job, course, etc *I applied to Cambridge University but I was rejected.* **3** PERSON to not give someone the love or attention they were expecting *She felt rejected by her husband.*

reject² /ˈriːdʒekt/ *noun* [C] a product that is damaged or not perfect in some way

rejection /rɪˈdʒekʃən/ *noun* **1** NOT ACCEPT [C, U] when you refuse to accept or agree with something *Their* ***rejection of*** *the peace plan is very disappointing for the government.* **2** JOB/COLLEGE [C] a letter that says you have not been successful in getting a job, a place at college, etc **3** PERSON [U] when someone does not give someone else the love or attention they were expecting *a feeling of rejection*

rejoice /rɪˈdʒɔɪs/ *verb* [I] *literary* to feel very happy because something good has happened

rejoicing /rɪˈdʒɔɪsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when people show that they are very happy because something good has happened

rejoin /rɪˈdʒɔɪn/ *verb* [T] to return to a person or place *I was feeling better, so I rejoined the party.*

R

rejuvenate /rɪˈdʒuːvᵊneɪt/ *verb* [T] to make someone look or feel young and energetic again *You're supposed to come back from a holiday feeling rejuvenated.* ●**rejuvenation** /rɪˌdʒuːvᵊnˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

rekindle /ˌriːˈkɪndl/ *verb* [T] to make someone have a feeling that they had in the past *The trip seemed to rekindle their love for each other.*

relapse /rɪˈlæps, ˈriːlæps/ *noun* [C, U] **1** HEALTH when someone becomes ill again after a period of feeling better *I **had** a **relapse** last year and was off work for a month.* **2** when something or someone gets worse again after being better *The company's share prices have **suffered a relapse** this week.* ●**relapse** /rɪˈlæps/ *verb* [I]

relate /rɪˈleɪt/ *verb* **1** CONNECT [I, T] to be connected, or to find or show the connection between two or more things *How do the two proposals relate?* **2** TELL [T] *formal* to tell a story or describe a series of events
relate to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to be connected to, or to be about someone or something *Please provide all information relating to the claim.*
relate to sb *phrasal verb* to understand how someone feels *Most teenagers find it hard to relate to their parents.*

related /rɪˈleɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** connected *There's been an increase in criminal activity **related to** drugs.* **2** SOCIETY If two or more people are related, they belong to the same family. *Did you know that I'm **related to** Jackie?* ➲Opposite **unrelated**

relation /rɪˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** CONNECTION [C, U] a connection between two or more things *the **relation between** smoking and lung cancer* **2** SOCIETY [C] someone who belongs to the same family as you *He's called Ken Russell, **no relation to*** (= he is not from the same family as) *the film director.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **parent 3 in relation to sth a** COMPARED WITH when compared with something *Salaries are low in relation to the cost of living.* **b** ABOUT about or relating to something *I'd like to ask you something in relation to what you said earlier.*

R

relational database /rɪˌleɪʃᵊnᵊlˈdeɪtəbeɪs/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a database (= organized store of information on a computer) in which many connections are made between the tables in the database

relations /rɪˈleɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [plural] the way two people or groups feel and behave towards each other *It was an attempt to restore diplomatic **relations between** the two countries.* ➲See also: **public relations, race relations**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***relationship***

a **close/intimate/personal/loving/stormy** relationship ● **end/forge/form/have** a relationship ● a relationship **between** sb

relationship /rɪˈleɪʃᵊnʃɪp/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [C] the way two people or groups feel and behave towards each other *He has a very good **relationship with** his older sister.* **2** SOCIETY [C] a sexual or romantic friendship *I don't feel ready for a relationship at the moment.* **3** [C, U] a connection between two or more things *the **relationship between** sunburn and skin cancer*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

have a relationship with someone

Be careful to use the correct preposition in this expression.

I have a good relationship with my parents.

~~*I have a good relationship to my parents.*~~

relative¹ /ˈrelətɪv/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a member of your family *a party for friends and relatives* ➲See Common Learner Error at **parent**

relative² /ˈrelətɪv/ *adjective* **1** [always before noun] compared to other similar things or people *the relative prosperity of the West* **2 relative to sth** when compared to something else *The economy has been declining relative to other countries.*

relative atomic mass *noun* [U] MEASURES the mass of an atom of a particular chemical element, usually expressed in atomic mass units

relative clause *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a part of a sentence that is used to describe the noun which comes just before it. In the sentence, 'The woman who I saw yesterday wasn't his wife.', 'who I saw yesterday' is a relative clause.

relatively /ˈrelətɪvli/ *adverb* quite, when compared to other things or people *Eating out is relatively cheap.*

relative molecular mass *noun* [U] MEASURES the total of the relative atomic masses of the atoms in a particular molecule

relative pronoun *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word such as 'that', 'which', or 'who' that is used to begin a relative clause

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***relax***

The verb **chill** and the phrasal verb **chill out** are very common, informal ways of saying 'relax': *We spent the whole week **chilling out** on the beach.*

The phrasal verb **wind down** and the verb **unwind** mean 'to start to relax after working or doing something difficult': *It takes me a while to **wind down** when I get back from work.* ● *Music helps me to **unwind**.*

If a person relaxes so that they don't use up too much energy, the fixed expression **take it easy/take things easy** is often used: *You'll need to spend a few days **taking it easy/taking things easy** after the operation.*

The fixed expression **put your feet up** is also often used to mean 'sit down and relax': *I'm going to make myself a cup of coffee and **put my feet up** for half an hour.*

relax /rɪˈlæks/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I, T] to become happy and comfortable because nothing is worrying you, or to make someone do this *I find it difficult to relax.* ○ *The wine had relaxed him and he began to talk.* **2** LESS STIFF [I, T] If a part of your body relaxes, it becomes less stiff, and if you relax it, you make it become less stiff. *Try these exercises to relax your neck muscles.* **3** RULES [T] to make laws or rules

less severe *The government has recently* ***relaxed laws*** *on bringing animals into Britain.* ●**relaxation** /ˌriːlækˈseɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U]

O-K **relaxed** /rɪˈlækst/ *adjective* **1** PERSON feeling happy and comfortable because nothing is worrying you *She seemed relaxed and in control of the situation.* **2** SITUATION A relaxed situation is comfortable and informal. *There was a very relaxed atmosphere at the party.*

O-K **relaxing** /rɪˈlæksɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel relaxed *a relaxing bath*

relay¹ /ˈriːleɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** TELL to send a message from one person to another *Cory had an idea which he relayed to his friend immediately.* **2** BROADCAST to broadcast radio or television signals

relay² /ˈriːleɪ/ (*also* ˈ**relay race**) *noun* [C] **SPORT** a race in which each member of a team runs or swims part of the race

O-K **release¹** /rɪˈliːs/ *verb* [T] **1** PRISONER to allow a prisoner to be free *Six hostages were released shortly before midday.* **2** STOP HOLDING to stop holding someone or something *Release the handle.* **3** INFORMATION to let the public have news or information about something *Police have not released the dead woman's name.* **4** RECORD/FILM to make a record or film available for people to buy or see *The album is due to be released in time for Christmas.* **5** SUBSTANCE to let a substance flow out from somewhere *Dangerous chemicals were accidentally* ***released into*** *the river.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***release***

demand/secure sb's release ● release **from** sth

release² /rɪˈliːs/ *noun* **1** FROM PRISON [C] when someone is allowed to leave prison *After his release from jail, Jackson found it difficult to find work.* **2** FILM/RECORD [C] a new film or record that you can buy *Have you heard the group's latest release?* **3** SUBSTANCE [C, U] when a substance is allowed to flow out of somewhere *a release of toxic gas from the factory* ➲See also: **press release**

relegate /ˈrelɪgeɪt/ *verb* [T] to put someone or something in a less important position [**often passive**] *He'd been* ***relegated to*** *the B team.* ●**relegation** /ˌrelɪˈgeɪʃˁn/ *noun* [U]

relent /rɪˈlent/ *verb* [I] to allow something that you refused to allow before *The security guard relented and let them through.*

relentless /rɪˈlentləs/ *adjective* never stopping or getting any less extreme *relentless criticism* ●**relentlessly** *adverb*

relevance /ˈreləvəns/ (*also US* **relevancy** /ˈreləvəntsi/) *noun* [U] the degree to which something is related or useful to what is happening or being talked about *This point has no* ***relevance to*** *the discussion.*

relevant /ˈreləvənt/ *adjective* related or useful to what is happening or being talked about ***relevant information*** ○ *Education should be* ***relevant to*** *children's needs.* ➲Opposite **irrelevant**

reliable /rɪˈlaɪəbl/ *adjective* able to be trusted or believed *a reliable car* ○ *reliable information* ○ *Andy's very reliable - if he says he'll do something, he'll do it.* ➲Opposite **unreliable** ●**reliability** /rɪˌlaɪəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] how reliable someone or something is ●**reliably** *adverb I am* ***reliably informed*** *that the concert has been cancelled.*

reliance /rɪˈlaɪəns/ *noun* **reliance on sb/sth** when someone or something depends on someone or something else *our increasing reliance on computers*

reliant /rɪˈlaɪənt/ *adjective* **be reliant on sb/sth** to depend on someone or something *I don't want to be reliant on anybody.* ➲See also: **self-reliant**

relic /ˈrelɪk/ *noun* [C] a very old thing from the past *an Egyptian relic*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***relief***

a **big/great/tremendous** relief ● a **sense** of relief ● **to** sb's relief

O-K **relief** /rɪˈliːf/ *noun* **1** EMOTION [U, **no plural**] the good feeling that you have when something unpleasant stops or does not happen *It'll be such a relief when these exams are over.* ○ *"James can't come tonight." "Well, that's a relief!"* **2** HELP [U] money, food, or clothes that are given to people because they need help *an international* ***relief operation*** **3** PHYSICAL FEELING [U] when something stops hurting you *I'd been trying to sleep to find* ***relief from*** *the pain.*

reˈlief ˌmap *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a map that shows the hills, valleys and mountains of a particular area or country

relieve /rɪˈliːv/ *verb* [T] **1** FROM PAIN to make pain or a bad feeling less severe *Breathing exercises can help to relieve stress.* **2** FROM WORK to allow someone to stop working by taking their place *The 7 a.m. team arrived to relieve the night workers.*
relieve sb of sth *phrasal verb formal* to take something away from someone *Let me relieve you of your luggage.*

relieved /rɪˈliːvd/ *adjective* feeling happy because something unpleasant did not happen or you are not worried about something any more [+ **(that)**] *I'm just relieved that she's safe and well.* [+ **to do sth**] *I heard a noise and was relieved to find that it was only a cat.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***religion***

believe in/practise a religion ● a **major** religion ● be **against** sb's religion

O-K **religion** /rɪˈlɪdʒˁn/ *noun* [C, U] **RELIGION** the belief in a god or gods, or a particular system of belief in a god or gods *the Christian religion*

O-K **religious** /rɪˈlɪdʒəs/ *adjective* **RELIGION** **1** relating to religion *religious paintings* **2** having a strong belief in a religion *He's a very religious man.*

religiously /rɪˈlɪdʒəsli/ *adverb* **1** regularly *He visited the old woman religiously every weekend.* **2** **RELIGION** in a religious way

relinquish /rɪˈlɪŋkwɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to allow something to be taken away from you *At 80 he still refuses to relinquish control of the company.*

R

relish¹ /ˈrelɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to enjoy something *I don't* ***relish the thought*** *of a twelve-hour flight.*

relish² /ˈrelɪʃ/ *noun* **1** [U] enjoyment *He had baked a cake which the children now ate* ***with relish.*** **2** FOOD [C] a sauce that you put on food to give it more taste

relive /ˌriːˈlɪv/ *verb* [T] to remember something so clearly that you feel as if it is happening now

relocate /ˌriːləʊˈkeɪt/ (US) /riːˈləʊˌkeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to move to another place *The company* ***relocated to*** *Tokyo.* ●**relocation** /ˌriːləʊˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U] ***relocation costs***

reluctant /rɪˈlʌktˈnt/ *adjective* not wanting to do something [+ **to do sth**] *Many victims of crime are reluctant to go to the police.* ●**reluctance** /rɪˈlʌktˈns/ *noun* [U] when someone does not want to do something [+ **to do sth**] *a reluctance to accept changes* ●**reluctantly** *adverb*

rely /rɪˈlaɪ/ *verb*
rely on sb/sth *phrasal verb* **1** NEED to need someone or something in order to be successful, work correctly, etc *Families rely more on wives' earnings than before.* **2** TRUST to trust someone or something [+ **to do sth**] *I know I* ***can rely on*** *you to help me.*

remain /rɪˈmeɪn/ *verb* **1** [I] to continue to exist when everything or everyone else has gone *Only a few hundred of these animals remain today.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **rest 2 remain calm/open, etc; remain a secret/mystery/prisoner, etc** to continue to be in the same state *The exact date of the wedding remains a secret.* **3 remain at/in/with, etc** *formal* to stay in the same place *She will remain at her mother's until I return.*

remainder /rɪˈmeɪndəʳ/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] the things or people that are left when everything or everyone else has gone or been dealt with *He drank* ***the remainder of*** *his coffee and got up to leave.* **2** MATHEMATICS [U] the amount that is left when one number cannot be exactly divided by another

remaining /rɪˈmeɪnɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] continuing to exist when everything or everyone else has gone or been dealt with *Mix in half the butter and keep the remaining 50g for later.*

remains /rɪˈmeɪnz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** PARTS OF SOMETHING the parts of something, especially a building, that continue to exist when the rest of it has been destroyed *the remains of a Buddhist temple* **2** PARTS OF BODY *formal* someone's body after the they have died

remake /ˈriːmeɪk/ *noun* [C] a film that is the same as one that has been made before *a remake of 'King Kong'* ●**remake** /ˌriːˈmeɪk/ *verb* [T] *past* **remade**

remand¹ /rɪˈmɑːnd/ *noun* **on remand** LAW *UK* in prison before your trial (= when a law court decides if you are guilty or not) *He spent two weeks on remand in Bullingdon prison.*

remand² /rɪˈmɑːnd/ *verb* **be remanded in custody** LAW *UK* to be kept in prison on remand *He was charged with murder and remanded in custody.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***remark***

make a remark ● a remark **about/on** sth

remark¹ /rɪˈmɑːk/ *noun* [C] something that you say *He* ***made a remark*** *about her clothes.*

remark² /rɪˈmɑːk/ *verb* [I] to say something [+ **that**] *He remarked that she was looking thin.*
remark on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to say something about something that you have just noticed *He remarked on how well you were looking.*

remarkable /rɪˈmɑːkəbl/ *adjective* very unusual or noticeable in a way that you admire *a remarkable woman* ○ *He has a remarkable memory.* ➲Opposite **unremarkable**

remarkably /rɪˈmɑːkəbli/ *adverb* in a way that makes you feel surprised *She has remarkably good skin for her age.*

remarry /ˌriːˈmæri/ *verb* [I] SOCIETY to get married again *His wife died in 1970 and he never remarried.*

remedial /rɪˈmiːdiəl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** EDUCATION intended to help people who are having difficulty learning something *remedial English classes* **2** *formal* intended to improve something ***Remedial action*** *is needed.*

remedy¹ /ˈremədi/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH something that makes you better when you are ill *a flu remedy* **2** something that solves a problem *The* ***remedy for*** *the traffic problem is to encourage people to use public transport.*

remedy² /ˈremədi/ *verb* [T] to solve a problem, or to improve a bad situation *They were able to* ***remedy*** *the* ***problem*** *very easily.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***remember***

More formal alternatives are verbs such as **recall** and (*UK*) **recollect**: *I don't* ***recall*** *arranging a time to meet.* ● *I didn't* ***recollect*** *having seen him.*

Remind means 'to make someone remember something', or 'to make someone remember to do something': *Every time we meet he* ***reminds*** *me about the money he lent me.* ● *Will you* ***remind*** *me to buy some eggs?*

The phrasal verbs **come back to** and **come to** are often used when someone suddenly remembers something: *I'd forgotten his name but it's just* ***come (back) to*** *me.*

To **reminisce** is to remember and talk about pleasant things that happened in the past: *We were just* ***reminiscing*** *about our school days.*

To **bear** something **in mind** is to remember someone or something that may be useful in the future: *When you book,* ***bear in mind*** *that Christmas is the busiest period.*

remember /rɪˈmembəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** IN YOUR MIND If you remember a fact or something from the past, you keep it in your mind, or bring it back into your mind. *I can't remember his name.* [+ **doing sth**] *I don't remember signing a contract.* [+ **(that)**] *Just as the door closed he remembered that his keys were inside the room.* **2** TO DO SOMETHING to not forget to do something

[+ **to do sth**] *I must remember to send Carol a birthday card.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

remember or **memory?**

Remember is a verb. Use **remember** when you think about or bring thoughts into your mind about a person, place, or event from the past.

I can remember when I was at school.

Memory is a noun. Use **memory** to talk about the person, place, or event from the past that you think about.

I have good memories of when I was at school.

remembrance /rɪˈmembrᵊns/ *noun* [**U**] when you remember and show respect for someone who has died *They erected a statue **in remembrance of** him.*

O-key **remind** /rɪˈmaɪnd/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone remember something, or remember to do something *Every time we meet he **reminds** me **about** the money he lent me.* [+ **to do sth**] *Will you remind me to buy some eggs?*
remind sb of sth/sb *phrasal verb* to make someone think of something or someone else *Harry reminds me of my father.* ○ *This song reminds me of our trip to Spain.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

remind or **remember?**

If you **remember** a fact or something from the past, you keep it in your mind, or bring it back into your mind.

I can't remember the name of the film.

Did you remember to bring your passport?

When you **remind** someone to do something, you make them remember it.

Can you remind me to phone Anna tomorrow?

~~*Can you remember me to phone Anna tomorrow?*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reminder***

need/serve as a reminder ● a **constant/gentle/timely** reminder ● a **grim/poignant/sharp/stark** reminder ● a reminder **of** sth

reminder /rɪˈmaɪndᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] something that makes you remember something else *For me, ice cream is **a reminder of** happy childhood holidays at the seaside.*

reminisce /ˌremɪˈnɪs/ *verb* [**I**] to talk about pleasant things that happened in the past *We were just **reminiscing about** our school days.* ●**reminiscence** *noun* [**C, U**] when you reminisce

reminiscent /ˌremɪˈnɪsᵊnt/ *adjective* **reminiscent of sth/sb** making you think of someone or something that is similar *a smell reminiscent of an old church*

remission /rɪˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **be in remission** **HEALTH** to be in a period of time when a serious illness is better *He is in remission at the moment.*

remit¹ /ˈriːmɪt/ *noun* [**no plural**] *UK* the things that you are responsible for in your job

remit² /rɪˈmɪt/ *verb* [**T**] **remitting**, *past* **remitted** *formal* to send money to someone

remix¹ /ˌriːˈmɪks/ *verb* [**T**] **MUSIC** to use a machine or computer to change or improve the different parts of an existing music recording to make a new recording

remix² /ˈriːˌmɪks/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a piece of music that has been remixed

remnant /ˈremnənt/ *noun* [**C**] a piece of something that continues to exist when the rest of that thing has gone *the remnants of last night's meal*

remora /ˈremərə/ *noun* [**C**] a fish that attaches itself to other fish or objects by sucking on them

remorse /rɪˈmɔːs/ *noun* [**U**] the feeling that you are sorry for something bad that you have done *He has **shown** no **remorse for** his actions.* ●**remorseful** *adjective* feeling remorse

remorseless /rɪˈmɔːsləs/ *adjective* **1** NOT STOPPING *UK* never stopping *remorseless pressure to succeed* **2** CRUEL cruel ●**remorselessly** *adverb*

remote /rɪˈməʊt/ *adjective* **1** PLACE far away *It was a remote mountain village with no electricity supply.* **2** TIME far in time *in the remote past* **3** SLIGHT slight *There is a **remote possibility** that it could be cancer.* ●**remoteness** *noun* [**U**]

reˌmote conˈtrol *noun* **1** EQUIPMENT [**C**] (*also* **remote**) a piece of equipment that is used to control something such as a television from a distance ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** RADIO WAVES [**U**] the use of radio waves to control something such as a television from a distance

remotely /rɪˈməʊtli/ *adverb* **not remotely interested/surprised/possible, etc** not at all interested, surprised, etc *I'm not remotely interested in football.*

removal /rɪˈmuːvᵊl/ *noun* **1** TAKE AWAY [**U**] when you remove something *stain removal* **2** HOUSE [**C, U**] *UK* when you remove everything from one house to take to another *a removals firm*

O-key **remove** /rɪˈmuːv/ *verb* [**T**] **1** TAKE AWAY to take something away *An operation was needed to **remove** the bullets **from** his chest.* **2** TAKE OFF to take something off *Carefully remove the lid, then stir the paint.* **3** JOB *formal* to make someone stop doing their job [**often passive**] *He had been **removed from** his job on medical grounds.* **4 be far removed from sth** to be very different from something *The princess's world was far removed from reality.*

remuneration /rɪˌmjuːnᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* **FINANCE** when someone is paid for work they have done

renaissance /rəˈneɪsᵊns/ (US) /ˌrenəˈsɑːns/ *noun* [**no plural**] a time when something becomes popular or fashionable again *The British film industry is **enjoying a renaissance**.*

the Renaissance /rəˈneɪsᵊns/ (US) /ˌrenəˈsɑːns/ *noun* **ART, LITERATURE, MUSIC** the period during the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries in Europe when there was a lot of interest and activity in art, literature, ideas, etc

rename /ˌriːˈneɪm/ *verb* [**T**] to give something a new name [+ **two objects**] *Siam was renamed Thailand in 1939.*

render /ˈrendᵊr/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* **1** CAUSE TO BE to cause something or someone to be in a particular state or condition *She was rendered*

R

speechless upon hearing the news. **2** GIVE to give someone a decision, opinion, help, etc *payment for* ***services rendered*** **3** DT to put a first layer of plaster or cement on a wall

rendering /ˈrendᵊrɪŋ/ *noun* [C] the way that something is performed, written, drawn, etc *a child's rendering of a house*

rendezvous /ˈrɒndɪvuː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **rendezvous** an arrangement to meet someone, or the place you have arranged to meet them ●**rendezvous** *verb* [I]

rendition /renˈdɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] MUSIC the way in which a song, piece of music, etc is performed

renegade /ˈrenɪgeɪd/ *noun* [C] someone who changes and joins a group that is against their own group *a group of renegade soldiers*

renege /rɪˈneɪg/ (US) /rɪˈniːg/ *verb*
renege on sth *phrasal verb formal* to not do what you said you were going to do *to renege on a promise*

renew /rɪˈnjuː/ *verb* [T] **1** OFFICIAL AGREEMENT to arrange to continue an official agreement that was going to end soon *I've decided not to* ***renew*** *my golf club* ***membership*** *this year.* **2** BUY *UK* to get a new one of something that is old *A car isn't the sort of thing you renew every year.* **3** DO AGAIN to start to do something again *The next morning enemy war planes renewed their bombing.* ●**renewal** *noun* [C, U] when you renew something

renewable /rɪˈnjuːəbl/ *adjective* **1** ENVIRONMENT A renewable form of energy can be produced as quickly as it is used. *a* ***renewable energy*** *source such as wind power* **2** OFFICIAL AGREEMENT A renewable official agreement is one that you can arrange to continue when the time limit is reached. *a 6-month* ***renewable contract***

renewables /rɪˈnjuːəblz/ *noun* [plural] ENVIRONMENT types of energy such as wind power and power from the sun that can be replaced as quickly as they are used

renewed /rɪˈnjuːd/ *adjective* starting again in a stronger way than before *He sang now with renewed confidence.*

renounce /rɪˈnaʊns/ *verb* [T] to officially say that you do not have the right to something any more, or that you do not want to be involved in something any more *They had renounced all rights to ownership of the land.*

renovate /ˈrenəveɪt/ *verb* [T] to repair and decorate a building that is old and in bad condition ●**renovation** /ˌrenəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

renowned /rɪˈnaʊnd/ *adjective* famous *The Lake District is* ***renowned for*** *its beauty.*

rent¹ /rent/ *verb* FINANCE **1** [I, T] to pay money to live in a building that someone else owns *He'll be renting an apartment until he can find a house to buy.* **2** [T] *US* (*UK* **hire**) to pay money to use something for a short time *We could rent a car for the weekend.* **3** [T] (*also* **rent out**) to allow someone to pay you money to live in your building *I rented out my house and went travelling for a year.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

rent and **hire**

In British English you **rent** something for a long time.

I rent a 2-bedroom flat.

In British English you **hire** something for a short time.

We hired a car for the weekend.

In American English the word **rent** is used in both situations.

I rent a 2-bedroom apartment.

We rented a car for the weekend.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rent***

pay the rent ● the rent **on** sth

rent² /rent/ *noun* [C, U] FINANCE the amount of money that you pay to live in a building that someone else owns *They couldn't afford the rent.*

rental /ˈrentᵊl/ *noun* [C, U] FINANCE an arrangement to rent something, or the amount of money that you pay to rent something *The price includes flights and car rental.*

rented /ˈrentɪd/ *adjective* FINANCE describes something that you rent ***rented accommodation***

renter /ˈrentᵊ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE *US* someone who pays money to live in a house or an apartment that someone else owns

renunciation /rɪˌnʌnsiˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U, no plural] when you say that you do not want something or believe in something any more *a renunciation of violence*

reorganize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˌriːˈɔːgᵊnaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to organize something again in order to improve it *He's completely reorganized his schedule for the week.* ●**reorganization** /riːˌɔːgᵊnaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

rep /rep/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone whose job is to sell things for a company *the UK* ***sales rep***

repaid /ˌriːˈpeɪd/ *past of* repay

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***repair***

The verbs **fix** and **mend** are common alternatives: *I must get my bike* ***fixed.*** ● *Can you* ***mend*** *that hole in my trousers?*

The phrasal verbs **do up** (*UK*) and **fix up** are often used when someone repairs something and improves it: *Nick loves* ***fixing up*** *old cars.* ● *They're planning to buy an old cottage and* ***do*** *it* ***up****.*

The verb **service** (*UK*) is often used when examining and repairing cars or other machines: *I'm taking the car to the garage to have it* ***serviced*** *this afternoon.*

repair¹ /rɪˈpeᵊ/ *verb* [T] **1** FIX to fix something that is broken or damaged *I must* ***get*** *my bike* ***repaired.*** **2** IMPROVE to improve a bad situation *It will take a long time to repair relations between the two countries.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***repair (noun)***

carry out/do repairs ● be **in need of** repair ● **extensive/major/minor** repairs ● the repair **of** sth

repair² /rɪˈpeᵊ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that you do to fix something that is broken or

R

damaged [usually plural] *The repairs cost me £150.* **2 be in good/bad repair** to be in good/bad condition

reparations /ˌrepəˈreɪʃˈn/ *noun* [plural] POLITICS payment for harm or damage *The country was forced to pay reparations after the war.*

repatriate /riːˈpætrieɪt/ (US) /riːˈpeɪtrieɪt/ *verb* [T] to send someone back to their own country ●**repatriation** /ˌriːpætriˈeɪʃˈn/ (US) /ˌriˌpeɪtriˈeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

repay /ˌriːˈpeɪ/ *verb* [T] *past* **repaid 1** FINANCE to pay back money that you have borrowed *to **repay** a **loan*** **2** to do something kind for someone who has done something to help you *What can I do to repay you for your kindness?* ●**repayment** /rɪˈpeɪmənt/ *noun* [C, U] when you repay someone or the money that you pay back

repeal /rɪˈpiːl/ *verb* [T] LAW to officially make a law end

repeat¹ /rɪˈpiːt/ *verb* [T] **1** SAY/DO AGAIN to say or do something more than once *He repeated the number.* ○ *The test must be repeated several times.* **2** TELL to tell someone something that someone else has told you *I've got some news for you but you mustn't **repeat** it **to** anyone.*

repeat² /rɪˈpiːt/ *noun* **1** HAPPEN/DO AGAIN [no plural] when something happens or is done more than once *Everything is being done to avoid **a repeat of** the tragedy.* **2** TELEVISION/RADIO [C] *UK* (*US* **rerun**) a television or radio programme that is broadcast again

repeated /rɪˈpiːtɪd/ *adjective* [always before noun] done or happening more than once *He has refused repeated requests to be interviewed.* ●**repeatedly** *adverb The victim was stabbed repeatedly.*

repel /rɪˈpel/ *verb* [T] **repelling**, *past* **repelled 1** MOVE AWAY to make someone or something move away or stop attacking you *a smell that repels insects* **2** UNPLEASANT If someone or something repels you, you think they are extremely unpleasant.

repellent¹ /rɪˈpelˈnt/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant *I find his views utterly repellent.*

repellent² /rɪˈpelˈnt/ *noun* [C, U] **insect/mosquito repellent** a substance that you use to keep insects away

repent /rɪˈpent/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to say that you are sorry for doing something bad ●**repentance** *noun* [U] *formal* when someone repents

repentant /rɪˈpentənt/ *adjective formal* feeling sorry about something bad that you have done ➲Opposite **unrepentant**

repercussions /ˌriːpəˈkʌʃˈnz/ *noun* [plural] the effects that an action or event has on something, especially bad effects *Any decrease in tourism could have serious **repercussions for** the local economy.*

repertoire /ˈrepətwɑːr/ *noun* [C] all the songs, plays, etc that someone can perform

repertory /ˈrepətˈri/ *noun* **1** GROUP OF ACTORS [C, U] when a group of actors performs several different plays during a period of time *They have four plays **in repertory** this season.* ○ *a **repertory company/theatre*** **2** ALL THE SONGS ETC [C] all the songs, plays, etc that someone can perform

repetition /ˌrepɪˈtɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U] when something is repeated *We don't want a repetition of last year's disaster.*

repetitive /rɪˈpetətɪv/ (*also* **repetitious** /ˌrepɪˈtɪʃəs/) *adjective* doing or saying the same thing several times, especially in a way that is boring *a repetitive job* ●**repetitively** *adverb*

re|petitive ˈstrain |injury ➲See: **RSI**

replace /rɪˈpleɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** USE INSTEAD to start using another thing or person instead of the one that you are using now *We're thinking of **replacing** our old TV **with** a fancy new one.* **2** BE USED INSTEAD to start to be used instead of the thing or person that is being used now *This system will replace the old one.* **3** GET SOMETHING NEW to get something new because the one you had before has been lost or damaged *We'll have to replace this carpet soon.* **4** PUT BACK *formal* to put something back in the place where it usually is *She picked up the books and carefully replaced them on the shelf.*

replacement /rɪˈpleɪsmənt/ *noun* **1** THING OR PERSON [C] the thing or person that replaces something or someone *It's not going to be easy to **find** a **replacement** for you.* **2** ACT OF REPLACING [U] when something or someone is replaced

replay /ˈriːpleɪ/ *noun* [C] SPORT **1** an important part of a sports game or other event on television that is shown again immediately after it has happened **2** *UK* a game of sport that is played again ●**replay** /ˌriːˈpleɪ/ *verb* [T] ➲See also: **action replay** *UK*, **instant replay** *US*

replenish /rɪˈplenɪʃ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to fill something or make it complete again *to replenish supplies* ●**replenishment** *noun* [U] *formal* when you fill something or make it complete again

replica /ˈreplɪkə/ *noun* [C] something that is made to look almost exactly the same as something else *a replica of the White House*

replicate /ˈreplɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make or do something again in exactly the same way ●**replication** /ˌreplɪˈkeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [C, U]

reply¹ /rɪˈplaɪ/ *verb* [I, T] to answer *"I don't understand," she replied.* ○ *He didn't **reply to** my email.* [+ that] *Henry replied that he had no idea what I was talking about.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reply (noun)***

give/make/send a reply ● **get/have/receive** a reply ● a reply **to** sth ● **in** reply

reply² /rɪˈplaɪ/ *noun* [C, U] an answer *Her reply was short and unfriendly.* ○ *Have you had a **reply to** your letter?* ○ *She sent me an email **in reply*** (= as an answer).

report¹ /rɪˈpɔːt/ *noun* [C] **1** a description of an event or situation *a police report* ○ *an annual report on the economy* **2** EDUCATION *UK* (*US* **re|port |card**) when teachers write about a child's progress at school for their parents

report² /rɪˈpɔːt/ *verb* **1** DESCRIBE [I, T] to describe a recent event or situation, especially on television, radio, or in a newspaper *Jo Smith **reports on** recent developments.* [+ that] *She reported that the situation had changed dramatically.* [+ doing sth] *A woman outside the*

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shop reported seeing the gun. **2** TELL [T] to tell someone in authority that something has happened, especially an accident or crime *He should have **reported** the **accident** immediately.* ○ *Have you **reported** the fault **to** a technician?* **3** COMPLAIN [T] to complain about someone's behaviour to someone in authority. *I'm going to **report** him **to** the police.* ○ *Duncan's been **reported for** smoking.*
report to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to go to someone or a place and say that you have arrived *All visitors please report to reception.*

reportedly /rɪˈpɔːtɪdli/ *adverb* If something has reportedly happened or is reportedly a fact, people say it has happened or is true. *Two students were reportedly killed and several wounded.*

re,ported ˈspeech *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** speech or writing that is used to report what someone has said, but not using exactly the same words

reporter /rɪˈpɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to discover information about news events and describe them on television, radio, or in a newspaper

repossess /ˌriːpəˈzes/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** to take back someone's house, car, furniture, etc because they cannot finish paying for them ●**repossession** /ˌriːpəˈzeʃˢn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone repossesses something, or the thing that
is repossessed

reprehensible /ˌreprɪˈhensəbl/ *adjective formal* Reprehensible behaviour is extremely bad.

represent /ˌreprɪˈzent/ *verb* [T] **1** BE to be equal to something *In practice the figure represents a 10% pay cut.* ○ *The cancellation of the new road project represents a victory for protesters.* **2** SPEAK FOR to officially speak or do something for someone else because they have asked you to *The union represents over 200 employees.* **3** COMPETITION to be the person from a country, school, etc that is in a competition **4** SIGN to be a sign or symbol of something *The crosses on the map represent churches.* **5** SHOW to show someone or something in a particular way

representation /ˌreprɪzenˈteɪʃˢn/ *noun* **1** SPEAKING FOR [U] speaking or doing something officially for another person *Can he afford **legal representation?*** **2** SHOWING [C, U] the way someone or something is shown *an accurate representation of country life* ➲See also: **proportional representation**

representative¹ /ˌreprɪˈzentətɪv/ *noun* [C] someone who speaks or does something officially for another person ➲See also: **House of Representatives**

representative² /ˌreprɪˈzentətɪv/ *adjective* the same as other people or things in a particular group *Are his views **representative of** the rest of the department?*

repress /rɪˈpres/ *verb* [T] **1** FEELINGS to stop yourself from showing your true feelings *Brigitta repressed a sudden desire to cry.* **2** CONTROL PEOPLE to control what people do, especially by using force ●**repression** /rɪˈpreʃˢn/ *noun* [U] when you repress someone or something

repressed /rɪˈprest/ *adjective* **1** PERSON unable to show your true feelings and emotions *a lonely, repressed man* **2** EMOTION A repressed feeling or emotion is one that you do not show. *repressed anger*

repressive /rɪˈpresɪv/ *adjective* cruel and not allowing people to have freedom *a **repressive** military **regime***

reprieve /rɪˈpriːv/ *noun* [C] **1** PUNISHMENT an official order that stops a prisoner from being killed as a punishment **2** SOMETHING UNPLEASANT when something happens to stop a bad situation ●**reprieve** *verb* [T]

reprimand /ˈreprɪmɑːnd/ *verb* [T] to tell someone in an official way that they have done something wrong [**+ for + doing sth**] *Watts has already been reprimanded for disclosing confidential information.* ●**reprimand** *noun* [C]

reprint /riːˈprɪnt/ *verb* [T, I] to print a book again

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reprisal***

fear reprisals ● **in** reprisal **for** sth ● a reprisal **against/from** sb

reprisal /rɪˈpraɪzˢl/ *noun* [C, U] something violent or unpleasant that is done to punish an enemy for something they have done *The attack was **in reprisal for** police raids.* ○ *He did not wish to be filmed because he **feared reprisals**.*

reproach¹ /rɪˈprəʊtʃ/ *noun* [C, U] criticism of someone, especially for not being successful or not doing what is expected *There was a hint of reproach in his voice.* ○ *The article gave the impression that the teachers were **above/beyond reproach*** (= could not be criticized). ●**reproachful** *adjective* showing criticism *a **reproachful look*** ●**reproachfully** *adverb*

reproach² /rɪˈprəʊtʃ/ *verb* [T] to criticize someone for not being successful or not doing what is expected [**often reflexive**] *You've no reason to reproach yourself.*

reproduce /ˌriːprəˈdjuːs/ *verb* **1** [T] to make a copy of something *The diagram is reproduced by permission of the original author.* **2** **BIOLOGY** [I] *formal* If people, animals, or plants reproduce, they produce babies or young animals or plants.

reproduction /ˌriːprəˈdʌkʃˢn/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [U] the process of producing babies or young animals and plants **2** [C] a copy of something, especially a painting

reproductive /ˌriːprəˈdʌktɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **BIOLOGY** relating to the process of producing babies or young animals and plants *the **reproductive organs***

reptile /ˈreptaɪl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal whose body is covered with scales (= pieces of hard skin), and whose blood changes temperature, for example a snake ➲See picture **reptiles** on next page ●**reptilian** /repˈtɪliən/ *adjective* like a reptile, or relating to reptiles

republic /rɪˈpʌblɪk/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a country with no king or queen but with an elected government

republican /rɪˈpʌblɪkən/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** **1** someone who supports the principles of a republic **2** **Republican** someone who supports the Republican Party in the

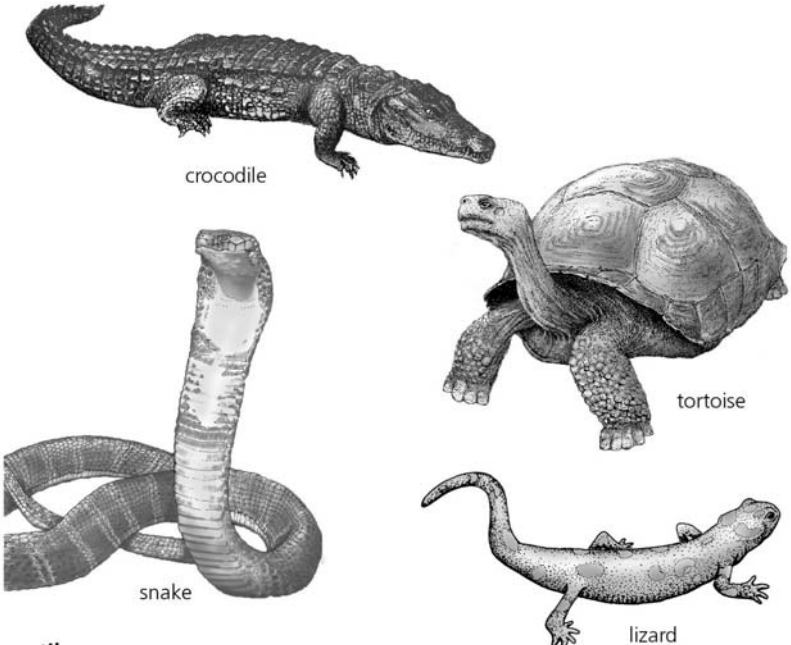

reptiles

US *the Republican candidate* ●**republican** *adjective* relating to a republic

the Re|publican ¦Party *noun* [**group**] **POLITICS** one of the two main political parties in the US

repudiate /rɪ'pju:dieɪt/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to refuse to accept or agree with something *Cousteau* ***repudiated*** *the* ***criticism/claims***. ●**repudiation** /rɪ¦pju:di'eɪʃ°n/ *noun* [**U**] *formal*

repugnant /rɪ'pʌgnənt/ *adjective formal* extremely unpleasant *She thought the idea* ***morally repugnant***. ●**repugnance** /rɪ'pʌgnəns/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* when something or someone is repugnant

repulse /rɪ'pʌls/ *verb* [**T**] **1** UNPLEASANT If someone or something repulses you, you think they are extremely unpleasant. *The smell of him repulsed her*. **2** DEFEAT to successfully stop a military attack [**often passive**] *The enemy attack was quickly repulsed*. **3** **PHYSICS** If something repulses a substance or object, it causes it to move away from it

repulsion /rɪ'pʌlʃ°n/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] **1** a strong feeling that someone or something is extremely unpleasant **2** when something causes an object or substance to move away from it ➲See picture at **magnet**

repulsive /rɪ'pʌlsɪv/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant, especially to look at *a repulsive man with long, greasy hair*

reputable /'repjətəbl/ *adjective* known to be good and honest *a reputable organization* ➲Opposite **disreputable**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reputation***

have a reputation ● a reputation **for** sth ● a **bad/good** reputation ● **acquire/establish/get** a reputation ● **damage/destroy/ruin** sb's reputation

reputation /¦repjə'teɪʃ°n/ *noun* [**C**] the opinion that people have about someone or something based on their behaviour or character in the past *Both hotels* ***have a good reputation***. ○ *He has a* ***reputation for*** *efficiency*.

reputed /rɪ'pju:tɪd/ *adjective formal* believed by most people to be true [**+ to do sth**] *The ghost of a young woman is reputed to haunt the building*. ●**reputedly** *adverb*

request¹ /rɪ'kwest/ *noun* [**C, U**] when you politely or officially ask for something *His doctor* ***made*** *an urgent* ***request for*** *a copy of the report*. ○ *An application form is available* ***on request*** (= if you ask for it). ○ *A clause was added to the contract* ***at his request*** (= because he asked).

request² /rɪ'kwest/ *verb* [**T**] to politely or officially ask for something *We've requested a further two computers*. [**+ that**] *They requested that no photographs be taken in the church*.

requiem /'rekwiəm/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC, RELIGION** a Christian ceremony where people pray for someone who has died, or a piece of music written for this ceremony

require /rɪ'kwaɪə°/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to need or demand something *Training to be a doctor requires a lot of hard work*. [**+ that**] *A recent law requires*

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that all programmes are censored. **2 require sb to do sth** to officially demand that someone does something [**often passive**] *You are required by law to produce a valid passport.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

require or **request?**

The main meaning of **require** is 'need'.

Learning a language requires time and effort.

Request means 'ask for'.

I wrote a letter to request more information.

~~*I wrote a letter to require more information.*~~

requirement /rɪˈkwaɪəmənt/ *noun* [**C**] something that is needed or demanded *college* ***entrance requirements*** ○ *Valid insurance is a* ***legal requirement****.*

requisite /ˈrekwɪzɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* needed for a particular purpose *I felt that he lacked the* ***requisite skills*** *for the job.*

re-release /ˌriːrɪˈliːs/ *verb* [**T**] to make a record or film available for people to buy or see for a second time

rerun /ˈriːrʌn/ *US* (*UK* **repeat**) *noun* [**C**] a television or radio programme or film that is broadcast again

reschedule /riːˈʃedjuːl/ (US) /riːˈskedʒuːl/ *verb* [**T**] to agree a new and later date for something to happen

rescue¹ /ˈreskjuː/ *verb* [**T**] **rescuing**, *past* **rescued** to save someone from a dangerous or unpleasant situation *Fifty passengers had to be rescued from a sinking ship.* ●**rescuer** *noun* [**C**]

rescue² /ˈreskjuː/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] when someone is saved from a dangerous or unpleasant situation *an unsuccessful* ***rescue attempt*** **2 come to the/sb's rescue** to help someone who is in a difficult situation *I forgot my purse but Anna came to the rescue and lent me some money.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *research*

carry out/conduct/do research ● research **indicates/proves/reveals/suggests** sth ● research **into** sth ● a research **assistant/institute/programme/project**

R

O-key **research¹** /rɪˈsɜːtʃ/ *noun* [**U**] when someone studies a subject in detail in order to discover new information ***research into*** *language development* ○ *They are* ***doing research*** *into the effects of passive smoking.* ○ *a* ***research project*** ➲See also: **market research**

research² /rɪˈsɜːtʃ/ *verb* [**I, T**] to study a subject in detail in order to discover new information about it *He spent several years researching a rare African dialect.* ●**researcher** *noun* [**C**]

resemblance /rɪˈzembləns/ *noun* [**C, U**] a similarity between two people or things, especially in their appearance *There's a striking* ***resemblance between*** *Diane and her mother.* ○ *He* ***bears a resemblance to*** (= looks like) *someone I used to know.*

resemble /rɪˈzembl/ *verb* [**T**] to look like or be like someone or something *She resembles her father.*

resent /rɪˈzent/ *verb* [**T**] to feel angry and upset about a situation or about something that someone has done [**+ doing sth**] *I resent having to work late.* ○ *He* ***resents*** *the* ***fact*** *that she gets more money than he does.*

resentful /rɪˈzentfᵊl/ *adjective* angry and upset about a situation that you think is unfair *He was bitterly* ***resentful of*** *his brother's success.* ●**resentfully** *adverb* ●**resentfulness** *noun* [**U**]

resentment /rɪˈzentmənt/ *noun* [**U**] a feeling of anger about a situation that you think is unfair

reservation /ˌrezəˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ARRANGEMENT [**C**] an arrangement that you make to have a seat on an aircraft, a room in a hotel, etc *I'd like to* ***make a reservation*** *for Friday evening.* **2** DOUBT [**C, U**] a doubt or a feeling that you do not agree with something completely *I still* ***have reservations*** *about her ability to do the job.*

reserve¹ /rɪˈzɜːv/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ARRANGE to arrange to have a seat on an aircraft, a room in a hotel, etc *I'd like to reserve two seats on the 9:15 to Birmingham.* **2** PARTICULAR USE to not allow people to use something because it is only for a particular person or for a particular purpose *This seat is* ***reserved for*** *elderly or disabled passengers.*

reserve² /rɪˈzɜːv/ *noun* **1** SUPPLY [**C**] a supply of something that you keep until it is needed *emergency cash reserves* **2 in reserve** ready to be used if you need it *I always keep a little money in reserve.* **3** QUALITY [**U**] when someone does not show what they are thinking or feeling **4 SPORT** [**C**] in sport, an extra player who is ready to play if one of the other players has an injury **5 ENVIRONMENT** [**C**] an area of land where animals and plants are protected ➲See also: **nature reserve**

reserved /rɪˈzɜːvd/ *adjective* not wanting to show what you are thinking or feeling *a quiet, reserved woman*

reservoir /ˈrezəvwɑːʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOGRAPHY** an artificial lake where water is stored before it goes to people's houses ➲See picture at **hydroelectric power station**

ˈreset ˌ(button) *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a button or switch on a computer that allows the user to turn the computer off and then on again when a program does not work correctly

reshuffle /ˌriːˈʃʌfl/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** when people in an organization, especially a government are given different jobs to do *a* ***government reshuffle*** ●**reshuffle** *verb* [**T**]

reside /rɪˈzaɪd/ *verb formal* **reside in/with, etc** to live somewhere *My sister currently resides in Seattle.*

residence /ˈrezɪdᵊns/ *noun formal* **1** HOME [**C**] a building where someone lives *the Queen's* ***official residence*** **2** LIVE [**U**] when someone lives somewhere *He* ***took up residence*** (= started to live) *in St. Louis.* **3 in residence** living or working somewhere *He was writer in residence with a professional theatre company.* ➲See also: **hall of residence**

resident¹ /ˈrezɪdᵊnt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** someone who lives in a particular place *complaints from* ***local residents*** **2 HEALTH** *US* a doctor who is

working in a hospital to get extra training in a particular area of medicine

resident² /ˈrezɪdᵊnt/ *adjective* living in a place *She has been resident in Britain for most of her life.*

residential /ˌrezɪˈdenʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** GEOGRAPHY A residential area has only houses and not offices or factories. **2** EDUCATION *UK* A residential job or course is one where you live at the same place as you work or study.

residual /rɪˈzɪdjuəl/ *adjective* remaining ***residual value***

residue /ˈrezɪdjuː/ *noun* [C] something that remains after most of a substance has gone or been removed

resign /rɪˈzaɪn/ *verb* [I, T] to officially tell your employer that you are leaving your job *She **resigned as** headteacher.* ○ *Mr Aitken has **resigned from** the company.*
resign yourself to sth *phrasal verb* to make yourself accept something that you do not like because you cannot easily change it *He resigned himself to living alone.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***resignation***

accept/call for sb's resignation ● **announce/hand in/tender** your resignation ● the resignation **of** sb ● sb's resignation **as** [manager/chairman, etc] ● a **letter of** resignation

resignation /ˌrezɪgˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** LEAVE JOB [C, U] when someone tells their employer that they are leaving their job *a **letter of resignation*** ○ *I **handed in** my **resignation** yesterday.* **2** ACCEPT [U] when you accept something that you do not like because you cannot easily change it

resilient /rɪˈzɪliənt/ *adjective* strong enough to get better quickly after damage, illness, shock, etc *The economy has been fairly resilient.* ●**resilience** /rɪˈzɪliəns/ *noun* [U]

resin /ˈrezɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** BIOLOGY a thick, sticky substance that is produced by some trees **2** a substance that is used for making plastics

resist /rɪˈzɪst/ *verb* [I, T] **1** AVOID to stop yourself from doing something that you want to do *I can't resist chocolate.* [+ **doing sth**] *I just can't resist reading other people's mail.* **2** NOT ACCEPT to refuse to accept something and try to stop it from happening *The President is resisting calls for him to resign.* **3** FIGHT to fight against someone or something that is attacking you *British troops resisted the attack for two days.*

resistance /rɪˈzɪstᵊns/ *noun* [U, **no plural**] **1** DISAGREE when people disagree with a change, idea, etc and refuse to accept it ***resistance to** political change* **2** FIGHT when someone fights against someone who is attacking them *She didn't **put up** much **resistance*** (= fight). **3** HEALTH the ability of your body to not be affected by illnesses *Cold weather may lower the body's **resistance to** infection.* **4** PHYSICS the degree to which a substance prevents the flow of an electric current through it **5** FORCE PHYSICS a force that makes something move slowly or stop

resistant /rɪˈzɪstᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT ACCEPTING not wanting to accept something, especially changes or new ideas *They're **resistant to** change.* **2** NOT AFFECTED not harmed or affected by something *a water-resistant cover* ○ *Bacteria can become **resistant to** antibiotics.*

resistor /rɪˈzɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a device, often a piece of wire, that controls how much electricity goes through a piece of electronic equipment

resolute /ˈrezᵊluːt/ *adjective formal* determined not to change what you do or believe because you think that you are right *a resolute opponent of the war* ●**resolutely** *adverb*

resolution /ˌrezᵊlˈuːʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** DECISION [C] an official decision that is made after a group or organization have voted *Congress **passed a resolution** in support of the plan* (= voted to support it). **2** PROMISE [C] a promise to yourself to do something *My **New Year's resolution** is to do more exercise.* **3** SOLUTION [U, **no plural**] *formal* the solution to a problem *a successful **resolution to** the crisis* **4** DETERMINATION [U] *formal* the quality of being determined **5** PHYSICS [**no plural**] the ability of a microscope, or a television or computer screen, to show things clearly and with a lot of detail *a **high/low** resolution image*

resolve¹ /rɪˈzɒlv/ *verb* **1** SOLVE [T] to solve or end a problem or difficulty *an attempt to resolve the dispute* **2** DECIDE [I, T] *formal* to decide that you will do something and be determined to do it [+ **to do sth**] *I have resolved to keep my bedroom tidy.*

resolve² /rɪˈzɒlv/ *noun* [U] *formal* when you are very determined to do something

resonant /ˈrezᵊnənt/ *adjective* A resonant sound is loud and clear. *a deep, resonant voice* ●**resonance** /ˈrezᵊnəns/ *noun* [U]

resonate /ˈrezᵊneɪt/ *verb* [I] to make a loud, clear sound

resort¹ /rɪˈzɔːt/ *noun* **1** [C] a place where many people go for a holiday *a ski resort* **2 a last resort** something that you do because everything else has failed *Soldiers were given the authority to shoot, but only as a last resort.*

resort² /rɪˈzɔːt/ *verb*
resort to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to do something that you do not want to do because you cannot find any other way of achieving something *They should be able to control the riots without resorting to violence.*

resound /rɪˈzaʊnd/ *verb* [I] to make a loud sound, or to be filled with a loud sound *The whole hall **resounded with** applause.*

resounding /rɪˈzaʊndɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** very loud *resounding applause* **2 a resounding success/victory/failure, etc** a very great success, victory, etc

resource /rɪˈzɔːs, ˈriːsɔːrs/ *noun* [C] something that a country, person, or organization has which they can use [**usually plural**] ***natural resources*** ➲See also: **human resources**

resourceful /rɪˈzɔːsfᵊl/ *adjective* good at finding ways to solve problems ●**resourcefulness** *noun* [U]

R

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***respect***

command respect ● **have/show** (great/no, etc) respect **for** sb ● **treat** sb/sth **with** respect

respect[1] /rɪˈspekt/ *noun* **1** POLITE [**U**] when you are polite to someone, especially because they are older or more important than you *You should show more **respect for** your parents.* **2** ADMIRATION [**U**] when you admire someone because of their knowledge, skill, or achievements *She's an excellent teacher and I have the greatest **respect for** her.* **3** SHOW IMPORTANCE [**U**] when you show by your behaviour that you think something is important or needs to be dealt with carefully *Electricity can be dangerous and should always be **treated with respect**.* **4 in this respect/many respects** in a particular way, or in many ways *The school has changed in many respects.* **5 with respect to sth; in respect of sth** *formal* relating to a particular thing *I am writing with respect to your letter of 24 June.* **6 pay your respects a** VISIT SOMEONE *formal* to visit someone or go to talk to them **b** GO TO FUNERAL (*also* **pay your last respects**) to go to someone's funeral ➲See also: **self-respect**

respect[2] /rɪˈspekt/ *verb* [**T**] **1** ADMIRE to admire someone because of their knowledge, achievements, etc *I **respect** him **for** his honesty.* **2** ACCEPT IMPORTANCE If you respect someone's rights, customs, wishes, etc you accept their importance and are careful not to do anything they would not want.

respectable /rɪˈspektəbl/ *adjective* **1** SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE behaving in a socially acceptable way or looking socially acceptable *a respectable family* ○ *a respectable hotel* **2** ENOUGH large enough or good enough *a respectable income* ●**respectably** *adverb* ●**respectability** /rɪˌspektəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

respected /rɪˈspektɪd/ *adjective* admired by people because of your knowledge, achievements, etc *a highly respected doctor*

respectful /rɪˈspektfᵊl/ *adjective* showing respect for someone or something ●**respectfully** *adverb*

respective /rɪˈspektɪv/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] relating to each of the people or things that you have just talked about *Members of staff and their respective partners are invited to the reception.*

respectively /rɪˈspektɪvli/ *adverb* in the same order as the people or things you have just talked about *Mr Ewing and Mr Campbell gave £2000 and £250 respectively.*

respiration /ˌrespᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** **1** the process of breathing **2** the process by which living things produce energy from food

respiratory /rɪˈspɪrətᵊri/ (US) /ˈrespərətɔːri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **BIOLOGY** relating to the process of breathing *respiratory illnesses* ➲See picture **respiratory system** on next page

respite /ˈrespaɪt/ (US) /ˈrespɪt/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] a short period of rest from something difficult or unpleasant *The weekend was a brief **respite from** the pressures of work.*

respond /rɪˈspɒnd/ *verb* [**I**] **1** ANSWER to say or do something as an answer or reaction to something that has been said or done [**+ by + doing sth**] *The government has responded by sending food and medical supplies to the region.* ○ *How quickly did the police **respond to** the call?* **2** **HEALTH** to improve as the result of a particular medical treatment *She's **responding** well **to** drug treatment.*

respondent /rɪˈspɒndənt/ *noun* [**C**] someone who has answered a request for information [**usually plural**] *More than half the respondents were opposed to the new tax.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***response***

in response **to** sth ● sb's response **to** sth ● **draw/elicit/provoke** a response ● sb's **immediate/initial/instinctive** response

response /rɪˈspɒns/ *noun* [**C, U**] an answer or reaction to something that has been said or done *The President's comments provoked an **angry response** from students.* ○ *I'm writing **in response to** your letter of 14 February.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***responsibility***

abdicate/accept/assume/claim/take/shirk responsibility ● **collective/heavy/huge/total** responsibility ● responsibility **for** sth

responsibility /rɪˌspɒnsəˈbɪləti/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] something that it is your job or duty to deal with *The head of the department has various additional responsibilities.* [**+ to do sth**] *It is your responsibility to make sure that your homework is done on time.* **2 take/accept/claim responsibility for sth** to say that you have done something or caused something to happen, especially something bad *No one has yet claimed responsibility for yesterday's bomb attack.*

responsible /rɪˈspɒnsəbl/ *adjective* **1 be responsible for sb/sth/doing sth** to be the person whose duty is to deal with someone or something *I'm responsible for looking after the children in the evenings.* **2 be responsible for sth/doing sth** to be the person who caused something to happen, especially something bad *Who was responsible for the accident?* **3** BEHAVING CORRECTLY showing good judgment and able to be trusted *a responsible attitude* ➲Opposite **irresponsible** **4** JOB A responsible job is important because you have to make decisions that affect other people. **5 be responsible to sb** If you are responsible to someone at work, they are in a higher position than you and you have to tell them what you have done.

responsibly /rɪˈspɒnsəbli/ *adverb* in a way that shows you have good judgment and can be trusted *to **behave/act responsibly***

responsive /rɪˈspɒnsɪv/ *adjective* listening to someone or something and having a positive and quick reaction to them *a wonderfully responsive audience* ○ *They have not been very **responsive to** the needs of disabled customers.* ●**responsiveness** *noun* [**U**]

rest[1] /rest/ *noun* **1 the rest** the part of something that remains, or the others that remain *I'm not sure I want to spend **the rest of** my life with him.* ○ *She was slightly older than the rest of us.* **2** [**C, U**] a period of time when you relax

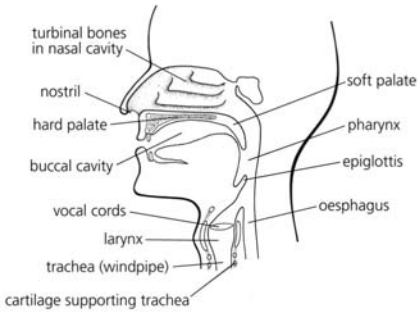

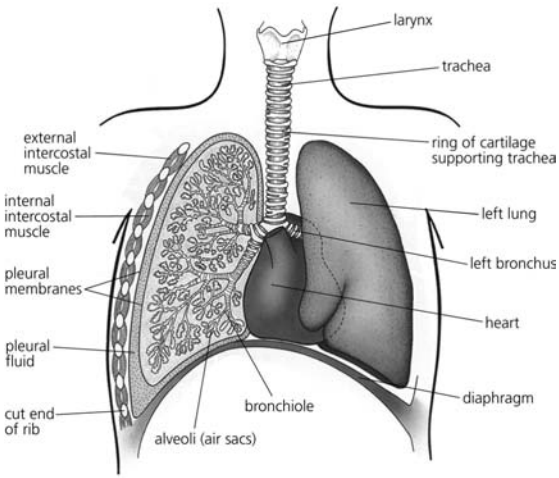

respiratory system

or sleep *Why don't you* ***have a rest?*** ○ *I must* ***get*** *some* ***rest.*** **3 come to rest** to stop moving ➲See also: put/set sb's **mind**[1] at rest

O-key **rest**[2] /rest/ *verb* **1** [I] to relax or sleep because you are tired after doing an activity or because you are ill *Pete's resting after his long drive.* **2 rest your eyes/feet/legs, etc** to stop using your eyes/feet, etc for a while because they are tired **3 rest (sth) on/against, etc** If something rests somewhere, or if you rest it somewhere, it is supported by something else. *She rested her elbows on the table.* ➲See also: rest on your **laurels**

rest on/upon sth *phrasal verb formal* to depend on something *The whole future of the team rests on his decision.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

rest, stay, or **remain?**

Rest means to relax or sleep because you are tired or ill.

The doctor told him to rest.

Stay means to continue to be in the same place, job, or particular state.

It was raining, so we stayed at home.

~~*It was raining, so we rested at home.*~~

Remain means to continue to be in the same state, or to continue to exist when everything or everyone else has gone.

He remained unconscious for a week after the accident.

After the earthquake, nothing remained of the village.

restart /ˌriːˈstɑːt/ *verb* [T] **1** to start something again that had stopped *They want to restart the talks.* **2 COMPUTING** If you restart a computer, you turn it off and then on again

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***restaurant***

go to a restaurant ● **manage/own/run** a restaurant ● a restaurant **offers/serves/specializes in** sth ● **at/in** a restaurant

R

restaurant /ˈrestərɒnt/ *noun* [C] FOOD a place where you can buy and eat a meal *an Italian/vegetarian restaurant* ○ *We had lunch* ***at/in a restaurant*** *near the station.*

restaurateur /ˌrestɒrəˈtɜːr/ *noun* [C] someone who owns a restaurant

restive /ˈrestɪv/ *adjective formal* unable to be quiet and calm

restless /ˈrestləs/ *adjective* **1** NOT STILL unable to be still or relax because you are bored or nervous *The audience was getting restless.* **2** NOT SATISFIED not satisfied with what you are doing now and wanting something new *After a while in the same relationship I start to get restless.* ●**restlessly** *adverb* ●**restlessness** *noun* [U]

restore /rɪˈstɔːr/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE EXIST to make something good exist again *Three wins in a row helped* ***restore*** *the team's* ***confidence.*** ○ ***Peace*** *has now been* ***restored*** *in the region.* **2** REPAIR to repair something old *to* ***restore antiques*** **3** RETURN *formal* to give something back to the person it was stolen from or who lost it *The painting was* ***restored to*** *its rightful owner.* ●**restoration** /ˌrestəˈreɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U] *The building is now closed for restoration* (= repair work). ○ the restoration (= return) of the former government

restrain /rɪˈstreɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** CONTROL SOMEONE to stop someone doing something, sometimes by using force *He became violent and had to be* ***physically restrained.*** [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *I had to restrain myself from shouting at him.* **2** LIMIT to limit something *to restrain arms sales*

restrained /rɪˈstreɪnd/ *adjective* calm and not showing emotions *I was expecting him to be furious but he was very restrained.* ➲Opposite **unrestrained**

restraint /rɪˈstreɪnt/ *noun* **1** CALM [U] showing control over your feelings **2** CONTROL [C] control over something *wage restraints*

restrict /rɪˈstrɪkt/ *verb* [T] to limit something *They've brought in new laws to restrict the sale of cigarettes.* ○ *I* ***restrict*** *myself* ***to*** *one cup of coffee a day.*

restricted /rɪˈstrɪktɪd/ *adjective* controlled or limited *They do good food but the choice is fairly restricted.*

restriction /rɪˈstrɪkʃən/ *noun* [C, U] a rule or law that limits what people can do *There are* ***restrictions on*** *how many goods you can bring into the country.* ○ *parking restrictions*

restrictive /rɪˈstrɪktɪv/ *adjective* limiting activities too much *restrictive practices*

restroom /ˈrestruːm/ *noun* [C] *US* a room with toilets that is in a public place, for example in a restaurant ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

restructure /ˌriːˈstrʌktʃər/ *verb* [I, T] to organize a system or organization in a new way ●**restructuring** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***result***

the result **of** sth ● **as a** result **of** sth ● **with** the result **that** ● **with** [catastrophic/disastrous, etc.] results ● **excellent/good/disappointing/disastrous** results

result[1] /rɪˈzʌlt/ *noun* **1** HAPPEN [C, U] something that happens or exists because something else has happened *Unemployment has risen* ***as a*** *direct* ***result of*** *new economic policies.* ○ *Most accidents are* ***the result of*** *human error.* **2** COMPETITION [C] the score or number of votes at the end of a competition or election *The election results will be known by Sunday.* **3** INFORMATION [C] information that you get from something such as an exam, a scientific experiment, or a medical test

result[2] /rɪˈzʌlt/ *verb* [I] to happen or exist because something else has happened *There was a food shortage* ***resulting from*** *the lack of rainfall.*

result in sth *phrasal verb* to be the reason something happens *The improvements in training resulted in increased wins.*

resultant /rɪˈzʌltənt/ *adjective formal* happening as a result of something else

resume /rɪˈzjuːm/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* If an activity resumes, or if you resume it, it starts again. *The talks are due to resume today.* ●**resumption** /rɪˈzʌmʃən/ *noun* [**no plural**]

resurface /ˌriːˈsɜːfɪs/ *verb* [I] to appear again after having been lost or forgotten *The story resurfaced in the news again last week.*

resurgence /rɪˈsɜːdʒəns/ *noun* [**no plural**] when something starts to happen again or people become interested in something again *There has been a resurgence of interest in the game.* ●**resurgent** /rɪˈsɜːdʒənt/ *adjective* happening again

resurrect /ˌrezəˈrekt/ *verb* [T] to make something exist again which has not existed for a long time *With this film Dykes hopes to resurrect his career.*

resurrection /ˌrezəˈrekʃən/ *noun* [U] **1** when something starts to exist again which has not existed for a long period *the resurrection of a fashion* **2** RELIGION in the Christian religion, Jesus Christ's return to life after he was killed

resuscitate /rɪˈsʌsɪteɪt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to make someone breathe again when they have stopped breathing ●**resuscitation** /rɪˌsʌsɪˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

retail[1] /ˈriːteɪl/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS when products are sold to customers from shops *jobs in retail*

retail[2] /ˈriːteɪl/ *verb* ECONOMICS **retail at/for £50/$100, etc** to be sold to the public for a particular price *This computer retails at $2,000.*

retailer /ˈriːteɪlər/ *noun* [C] ECONOMICS someone who sells products to the public

retailing /ˈriːteɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS the business of selling products to customers in shops

ˌretail ˈprice ˌindex (*abbreviation* **RPI**) *noun* [**C usually singular**] ECONOMICS a measurement of the changes in the cost of basic goods and services

retain /rɪˈteɪn/ *verb* [T] to continue to keep something *The council will* ***retain control*** *of the school.*

retaliate /rɪˈtælieɪt/ *verb* [I] to do something bad to someone because they have done something bad to you *They have threatened to* ***retaliate against*** *any troops that attack.*

●**retaliation** /rɪˌtæliˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *They bombed the hotel* ***in retaliation for*** *the arrests.* ●**retaliatory** /rɪˈtæliəᵊri/ *adjective retaliatory measures*

retention /rɪˈtenʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when something continues to be kept

rethink /ˌriːˈθɪŋk/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **rethought** to change what you think about something or what you plan to do *We've had to* ***rethink*** *our* ***strategy***. ●**rethink** /ˈriːθɪŋk/ *noun* [**no plural**] *The whole issue of moving to new offices needs a fundamental rethink.*

reticent /ˈretɪsᵊnt/ *adjective* saying little about what you think or feel *He was reticent about his private life.* ●**reticence** /ˈretɪsᵊns/ *noun* [U]

retina /ˈretɪnə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a part at the back of the eye, which is affected by light and sends messages to the brain ➲See picture at **eye**

retire /rɪˈtaɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] **1** STOP WORK to leave your job and stop working, usually because you are old *She* ***retired from*** *the company in 1990.* **2** GO *formal* to go to another place where you can be alone or more private *After dinner, he* ***retired to*** *his bedroom.*

retired /rɪˈtaɪəd/ *adjective* having stopped working, often because you are old *a retired farmer/teacher*

retiree /rɪˈtaɪriː/ *noun* [C] *US* someone who has stopped working, usually because they are old

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***retirement***

take early retirement ● **in** retirement ● retirement **from** sth ● retirement **age**

retirement /rɪˈtaɪəmənt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** STOP WORKING when you leave your job and stop working, usually because you are old *He's* ***taking early retirement***. **2** TIME the period of your life after you have stopped working *We wish you a long and happy retirement.*

retiring /rɪˈtaɪəɹɪŋ/ *adjective* shy and quiet

retort /rɪˈtɔːt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to answer someone quickly in an angry or funny way *"That doesn't concern you," she retorted sharply.* ●**retort** *noun* [C] *formal*

retrace /rɪˈtreɪs/ *verb* **retrace your steps** to go back somewhere the same way that you came *I was lost so I retraced my steps.*

retract /rɪˈtrækt/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to admit that something you said before was not true *Several key witnesses have* ***retracted*** *their* ***statements/claims/allegations***.

retrain /riːˈtreɪn/ *verb* [T] to learn a new skill so you can do a different job *Owen used to be an actor but now he's* ***retraining as*** *a teacher.*

retraining /ˌriːˈtreɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone learns new skills so they can do a different job

retreat¹ /rɪˈtriːt/ *verb* [I] **1** When soldiers retreat, they move away from the enemy, especially to avoid fighting. *The army was forced to retreat.* **2 retreat to/into, etc** to go away to a place or situation which is safer or quieter *She retreated into the bathroom for some peace and quiet.*

retreat² /rɪˈtriːt/ *noun* **1** MOVE [**U, no plural**] a move away, especially to a place or situation which is safer or quieter *He saw the dog coming towards him and* ***beat a*** *hasty* ***retreat*** (= moved quickly away). **2** MILITARY [C, U] a move back by soldiers or an army, especially to avoid fighting *a strategic retreat* **3** PLACE [C] a quiet place where you can go to rest or be alone *a mountain retreat*

retrial /ˌriːˈtraɪəl/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a new trial for a crime that has already been judged in a law court *The judge* ***ordered*** *a* ***retrial***.

retribution /ˌretrɪˈbjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *formal* punishment for something morally wrong that was done *They're seeking* ***retribution for*** *the killings.*

retrieve /rɪˈtriːv/ *verb* [T] to get something after first finding it *I've just* ***retrieved*** *the ball* ***from*** *the bottom of the pond.* ○ *computer tools for* ***retrieving information*** ●**retrieval** *noun* [U] when something is retrieved

retriever /rɪˈtriːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large dog with thick black or light brown hair

retro /ˈretrəʊ/ *adjective* looking or sounding like something from the past *His clothes had a retro look.*

retrospect /ˈretrəʊspekt/ *noun* **in retrospect** thinking now about something in the past *In retrospect, I should probably have told her.*

retrospective¹ /ˌretrəʊˈspektɪv/ *noun* [C] **ART** a show of work done by an artist over many years

retrospective² /ˌretrəʊˈspektɪv/ *adjective* If a law or decision is retrospective, it affects situations in the past as well as in the future. ●**retrospectively** *adverb*

return¹ /rɪˈtɜːn/ *verb* **1** GO BACK [I] to go or come back to a place where you were before *She* ***returned to*** *America in 1954.* ○ *I won't* ***return from*** *my holiday till May.* **2** GIVE BACK [T] to give, send, or put something back where it came from *He immediately* ***returned*** *the records* ***to*** *the files.* **3 return to sth a** START AGAIN to start doing an activity again or talking about something again *I returned to work three months after Susie was born.* **b** AS BEFORE to go back to a previous condition *Life has begun to* ***return to normal*** *now that the war is over.* **4** HAPPEN AGAIN [I] If something returns, it happens again. *If the pains return phone the doctor.* **5** DO THE SAME [T] to react to something that someone does or says by doing or saying the same *I must* ***return*** *Michael's* ***call*** (= telephone him because he telephoned me earlier). **6 return a verdict/sentence** to announce if someone is guilty or not guilty or what punishment the person will be given in a law court *The jury returned a verdict of guilty.* **7 SPORT** [T] to hit or throw a ball back to someone when playing a sport

return² /rɪˈtɜːn/ *noun* **1** GOING BACK [**no plural**] when someone goes or comes back to a place where they were before ***On*** *his* ***return*** *to Sydney, he started up a business.* **2** GIVING BACK [**no plural**] when something is given back, put back, or sent back *the return of the stolen goods* **3** ACTIVITY [**no plural**] when someone starts an activity again *This film marks his* ***return to acting***. **4** HAPPENING AGAIN [**no plural**] when something starts to happen or be present again

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What we are seeing here is ***a return to*** *traditional values.* **5** TICKET [C] *UK* (*US* **round-trip ticket**) a ticket that lets you travel to a place and back again, for example on a train **6** FINANCE [C, U] the profit that you get from an investment *This fund has shown* ***high returns*** *for the last five years.* **7 in return** in exchange for something or as a reaction to something *I'd like to give them something* ***in return for*** *everything they've done for us.* **8** SPORT [C] when a ball is thrown or hit back to another player in a sports match **9** COMPUTING [U] a key on a computer keyboard that is used to make the computer accept information or to start a new line in a document *Type in the password and* ***press return.*** ➲See also: **day return**

returnable /rɪˈtɜːnəbl/ *adjective* If something is returnable, it can be taken or given back. *a* ***returnable deposit***

re,turns ˈinward (*also* **sales returns**) *noun* [plural] ECONOMICS goods that are returned to the company that supplied them, for example because they are damaged or not needed

re,turns ˈoutward (*also* **purchases returns**) *noun* [plural] ECONOMICS goods that are returned to the company that supplied them, for example because they are damaged or not needed

reunification /ˌriːjuːnɪfɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] POLITICS when a country that was divided into smaller countries is joined together again as one country *the reunification of Germany*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reunion***

have/go to a reunion ● an **emotional** reunion ● a reunion **of** sb ● sb's reunion **with** sb ● a **family/school** reunion

reunion /ˌriːˈjuːniən/ *noun* [C] an occasion when people who have not met each other for a long time meet again *a* ***family/school reunion***

reunite /ˌriːjuːˈnaɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to meet again after being apart for a long time, or to bring people together who have been apart for a long time [**often passive**] *Years later, he was* ***reunited with*** *his brother.*

reuse /ˌriːˈjuːz/ *verb* [T] ENVIRONMENT to find a new use for something so that it does not have to be thrown away *Businesses are finding new ways to reuse materials.* ●**reusable** *adjective*

Rev RELIGION *written abbreviation for* Reverend (= title of Christian official) *Rev Jo Harding*

rev /rev/ (*also* **rev up**) *verb* [I, T] **revving**, *past* **revved** to increase the engine speed of a vehicle *He revved the engine and drove off.*

revalue /riːˈvæljuː/ *verb* [T] **1** FINANCE to decide the value of something again because the value has changed **2** ECONOMICS If a government revalues its currency (= the money the country uses), it makes it worth more ●**revaluation** /riːˌvæljuːˈeɪʃən/ *noun* [U]

revamp /ˌriːˈvæmp/ *verb* [T] to change something in order to make it better *They're revamping the restaurant.*

Revd RELIGION *written abbreviation for* Reverend (= title of Christian official) *the Revd Laurie Clow*

reveal /rɪˈviːl/ *verb* [T] **1** TELL to give someone a piece of information that is surprising or that was previously secret [**+ that**] *It was revealed in this morning's papers that the couple intend to marry.* **2** SEE to allow something to be seen that, until then, had been hidden *His shirt came up at the back, revealing an expanse of white skin.*

revealing /rɪˈviːlɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** SHOWING showing someone's true character or the true facts about someone or something *a revealing biography/remark* **2** CLOTHES If clothes are revealing, they show a lot of your body.

revel /ˈrevəl/ *verb UK* **revelling**, *past* **revelled**, *US* **reveling**, *past* **reveled**
revel in sth *phrasal verb* to enjoy a situation or activity very much *He revelled in his role as team manager.*

revelation /ˌrevəˈleɪʃən/ *noun* **1** [C] a piece of information that is discovered although it was intended to be kept secret *He resigned following* ***revelations about*** *his private life.* **2 be a revelation** to be an extremely pleasant surprise *Anna's boyfriend was a revelation.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***revenge***

get/plot/seek/take revenge ● **in** revenge for sth ● revenge **against/on** sb ● an **act of** revenge

revenge /rɪˈvendʒ/ *noun* [U] something that you do to punish someone who has done something bad to you *He's made life very difficult for me but I'll* ***get/take*** *my* ***revenge.*** ○ *He was shot* ***in revenge*** *for the murder.*

revenue /ˈrevənjuː/ (*also* **revenues**) *noun* [U] ECONOMICS large amounts of money received by a government as tax, or by a company

reverberate /rɪˈvɜːbəreɪt/ *verb* [I] If a sound reverberates, it is heard for a long time as it is sent back from different surfaces. *The sound of the shots reverberated around the building.*

revere /rɪˈvɪər/ *verb* [T] *formal* to respect and admire someone very much *a revered religious leader*

reverence /ˈrevərəns/ *noun* [U] *formal* a strong feeling of respect and admiration

Reverend /ˈrevərənd/ *adjective* RELIGION used as a title before the name of some Christian officials *the Reverend Alan Pringle*

reverie /ˈrevəri/ *noun* [C] *formal* a pleasant state in which you are thinking of something else, not what is happening around you

reversal /rɪˈvɜːsəl/ *noun* [C] when something changes to its opposite *In a reversal of traditional roles, Paul stayed at home to look after the baby and Clare went out to work.*

reverse¹ /rɪˈvɜːs/ *verb* **1** DRIVE [I, T] to drive a vehicle backwards *I hate reversing into parking spaces.* **2** CHANGE [T] to change a situation or change the order of things so that it becomes the opposite *It is unlikely that the judge will* ***reverse*** *his* ***decision.***

reverse² /rɪˈvɜːs/ *noun* **1 the reverse** the opposite of what has been suggested *"So, is he happier?" "Quite the reverse - I've never seen him look so miserable."* **2** [U] (*also* **reverse ˈgear**) the method of controlling a vehicle that makes it

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go backwards *Put the car **into reverse**.* **3 in reverse** in the opposite order or way *Do the same steps but this time in reverse.*

reverse³ /rɪˈvɜːs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] opposite to the usual way or to the way you have just described *I'm going to read out the names of the winners in reverse order.*

reversible /rɪˈvɜːsəbl/ *adjective* **1** CAN BE CHANGED If something is reversible, it can be changed back to what it was before. *Most of the damage done to the cells is reversible.* ➲Opposite **irreversible** **2** CLOTHES Reversible clothes can be worn so that the inside is the outside. *a reversible jacket*

revert /rɪˈvɜːt/ *verb*
revert to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to go back to how something was before *For a while I ate low-fat food but then I reverted to my old eating habits.* ●**reversion** /rɪˈvɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U, no plural**]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***review***

carry out a review ● a review **of** sth ● be **under** review

review¹ /rɪˈvjuː/ *noun* **1** CONSIDERING [**C, U**] the process of considering something again in order to make changes to it ***a review of** teachers' pay* ○ *The policy is now **under review*** (= being considered). **2** REPORT [**C**] a report in a newspaper, magazine, or programme that gives an opinion about a new book, film, etc *a book review* ○ *The film has had **mixed reviews*** (= some good, some bad).

review² /rɪˈvjuː/ *verb* **1** CONSIDER [**T**] to consider something again in order to decide if changes should be made *The courts will review her case.* **2** REPORT [**T**] to give your opinion in a report about a film, book, television programme, etc *He reviews films for the Times.* **3** **EDUCATION** [**I, T**] *US* (*UK* **revise**) to study a subject before you take a test

reviewer /rɪˈvjuːəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who writes reviews of a book, film, etc

reviled /rɪˈvaɪld/ *adjective* hated *He is possibly the most reviled man in Britain.*

revise /rɪˈvaɪz/ *verb* **1** [**T**] to change something so that it is more accurate *a revised edition of the book* **2** **EDUCATION** [**I, T**] *UK* (*US* **review**) to study a subject before you take a test

revision /rɪˈvɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] when you change something so that it is more accurate *a downward revision of prices* **2** **EDUCATION** [**U**] *UK* when you study a subject before taking a test

revitalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˌriːˈvaɪtᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to make something more active or exciting *attempts to revitalize the city*

revival /rɪˈvaɪvᵊl/ *noun* **1** POPULAR [**C, U**] when something becomes more active or popular again ***a revival in** folk music* ○ *Yoga is **enjoying a revival**.* **2** PERFORMANCE [**C**] a performance of a play, opera, etc that has not been performed for a long time

revive /rɪˈvaɪv/ *verb* **1** EXIST AGAIN [**T**] to make something from the past exist again *to revive memories* ○ *A lot of traditional skills are currently being revived.* **2** CONSCIOUS [**I, T**] to become conscious again or make someone conscious again *A police officer tried unsuccessfully to revive her.* **3** FEEL BETTER [**I, T**] to start to feel healthier and more active again, or to make someone feel this way *A cup of tea and something to eat might revive you.*

revoke /rɪˈvəʊk/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to stop someone having official permission to do something, or to change an official decision *His work permit was revoked after six months.*

revolt¹ /rɪˈvəʊlt/ *noun* [**C, U**] **POLITICS** when people try to change a government, often using violence, or when they refuse to accept someone's authority *a slave/peasant revolt*

revolt² /rɪˈvəʊlt/ *verb* **1** **POLITICS** [**I**] to try to change a government, often using violence, or to refuse to accept someone's authority *Many were killed when nationalists **revolted against** the new government.* **2** **be revolted by sth** to think that something is extremely unpleasant

revolting /rɪˈvəʊltɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant

revolution /ˌrevᵊlˈuːʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **POLITICS** [**C, U**] a change in the way a country is governed, usually to a different political system and often using violence or war *the French Revolution* **2** CHANGE [**C**] a very important change in the way people think or do things *the technological revolution* ○ *This discovery caused a **revolution in** medicine.* **3** CIRCLE [**C, U**] one whole circular movement around a central point, for example one whole movement of a wheel

revolutionary¹ /ˌrevᵊlˈuːʃᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* **1** completely different from what was done before *The twentieth century has brought about **revolutionary changes** in our lifestyles.* **2** **POLITICS** relating to a political revolution *a **revolutionary movement***

revolutionary² /ˌrevᵊlˈuːʃᵊnᵊri/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** someone who tries to cause or take part in a political revolution

revolutionize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˌrevᵊlˈuːʃᵊnaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to change something in every way so that it is much better *This will revolutionize the way we do business.*

revolve /rɪˈvɒlv/ *verb* [**I**] to move in a circle around a central point *A fan was revolving slowly.* ●**revolving** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *a **revolving door***
revolve around/round sth/sb *phrasal verb* to have as the only interest or subject *Her whole life revolves around her children.*

revolver /rɪˈvɒlvəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a small gun

revue /rɪˈvjuː/ *noun* [**C**] a show in a theatre with jokes, songs, and dancing

revulsion /rɪˈvʌlʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] a strong feeling that something is very unpleasant

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***reward***

get/receive a reward ● a **big/handsome/substantial** reward ● a reward **for** sb/sth ● a reward **of** [$500/$300, etc]

O-➡**reward¹** /rɪˈwɔːd/ *noun* **1** GOOD WORK [**C, U**] something good that you get or experience because you have worked hard, behaved well, etc *There'll be a **reward for** whoever finishes first.* **2** MONEY [**C**] money that the police give to

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someone who gives them information about a crime

reward² /rɪˈwɔːd/ *verb* [T] to give a reward to someone *She was **rewarded for** her bravery.*

rewarding /rɪˈwɔːdɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel satisfied that you have done something well *Teaching is hard work but it's very rewarding.*

rewind /ˈriːwaɪnd/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **rewound** to make a sound or television recording go back to the beginning

rework /ˌriːˈwɜːk/ *verb* [T] to change a piece of music or writing in order to improve it or make it more suitable *Elton John reworked his 1974 hit, 'Candle in the Wind', for Princess Diana's funeral.*

rewrite /ˌriːˈraɪt/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **rewrote**, *past participle* **rewritten** to write something again in order to improve it *I had to rewrite my essay.*

rhapsody /ˈræpsədi/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of music for instruments

rhetoric /ˈretᵊrɪk/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** language that is intended to make people believe things, often language that is not sincere *It was the usual political speech, full of **empty rhetoric**.* ●**rhetorical** /rɪˈtɒrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* ●**rhetorically** *adverb*

rheˌtorical ˈquestion /rɪˌtɒrɪkᵊlˈkwestʃən/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a question that is not intended as a real question because you do not expect anyone to answer it

rheumatism /ˈruːmətɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a disease in which there is swelling and pain in the joints (= parts of the body where bones join)

rhino /ˈraɪnəʊ/ *noun* [C] *short for* rhinoceros

rhinoceros /raɪˈnɒsᵊrəs/ *noun* [C] a large animal from Africa or Asia that has thick skin and one or two horns on its nose

rhizome /ˈraɪzəʊm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a stem of some plants which grows horizontally along or under the ground and which produces roots and leaves

rhomboid /ˈrɒmbɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape with four sides and opposite sides of equal length, in which the sides next to each other are not of equal length ➲See picture at **parallelogram**

rhombus /ˈrɒmbəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **rhombuses** or **rhombi** **MATHEMATICS** a flat shape which has four sides that are all of equal length ➲See picture at **parallelogram**

rhubarb /ˈruːbɑːb/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a plant that has long, red stems that can be cooked and eaten as a fruit

rhyme¹ /raɪm/ *verb* [I] **LITERATURE** If a word rhymes with another word, the end part of the words sound the same. *'Moon' rhymes with 'June'.*

rhyme² /raɪm/ *noun* **LITERATURE** **1** [C] a short poem that has words that rhyme at the end of each line **2** [U] a style of writing or speaking that uses words which rhyme *The story was written entirely in rhyme.* **3** [C] a word that rhymes with another word ➲See also: **nursery rhyme**

rhythm /ˈrɪðᵊm/ *noun* [C, U] **MUSIC** a regular, repeating pattern of sound *You need a **sense of rhythm** to be a good dancer.* ●**rhythmic** /ˈrɪðmɪk/ *adjective* with rhythm ●**rhythmically** *adverb*

rib /rɪb/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the curved bones in the chest ➲See picture at **rib cage**

ribbon /ˈrɪbᵊn/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow piece of cloth that is used for tying things or used for decoration

ˈribbon ˌlake *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a long, narrow lake

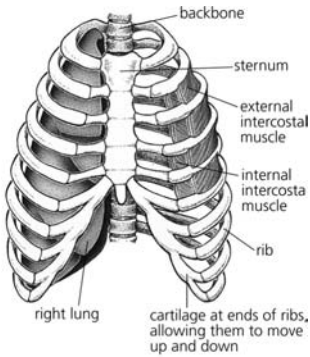

rib cage

ˈrib ˌcage *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the structure of ribs (= curved bones) in the chest

ribonucleic acid /ˌraɪbəʊnjuːkliːkˈæsɪd/ (*abbreviation* **RNA**) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** an important chemical present in all living cells

O-K **rice** /raɪs/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** small grains from a plant that are cooked and eaten ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

ˈrice ˌpaddy (*also UK* **paddy field**) *noun* [C] **FARMING** a field in which rice is grown

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***rich***

The adjectives **wealthy** and **well-off** are common alternatives to 'rich': *Oliver's parents are very **wealthy/well-off**.*

If someone is very rich, in informal situations you can use the adjective **loaded** or the expression **be rolling in it**: *They don't have any money worries - they're **loaded**.* ● *If he can afford a yacht, he must **be rolling in it**.*

If someone is richer than they were previously, the adjective **better-off** is often used: *We're a lot **better-off** now that Jane's working again.*

The adjectives **affluent** and **prosperous** are sometimes used to describe areas where people are rich: *It's a very **affluent** neighbourhood.* ● *In a **prosperous** country like this, no-one should go hungry.*

O-K **rich** /rɪtʃ/ *adjective* **1** MONEY having much more money than most people, or owning things

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that could be sold for a lot of money *She's the third richest woman in Britain.* ○ *These cars are only for* ***the rich.*** **2** CONTAINING A LOT containing a lot of something that is important or valuable *rich soil* ○ *Both foods are* ***rich in*** *Vitamin C.* **3** FOOD Rich food has a lot of butter, cream, or eggs in it. *a rich sauce* **4** STRONG A rich sound is low and strong, and a rich colour is bright and strong. ●**richness** *noun* [U]

riches /ˈrɪtʃɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *literary* a lot of money or valuable objects ➲See also: go from **rags** to riches

richly /ˈrɪtʃli/ *adverb* **1 be richly decorated/furnished, etc** to have a lot of beautiful or expensive decoration, furniture, etc *a richly decorated church* **2 be richly rewarded** to be paid a lot of money **3 richly deserve** to very much deserve something *Later that year he received the award he so richly deserved.*

the Richter scale /ðəˈrɪktəskeɪl/ *noun* GEOLOGY a system used to measure the strength of an earthquake (= sudden movement of the Earth's surface)

rickets /ˈrɪkɪts/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a disease in which the bones become soft and not shaped correctly, caused by not having enough vitamin D

rickety /ˈrɪkəti/ *adjective* likely to break soon *a rickety wooden chair*

ricochet /ˈrɪkəʃeɪ/ *verb* [I] to hit a surface and then be sent back through the air *The bullet* ***ricocheted off*** *the wall.*

rid¹ /rɪd/ *adjective* **1 get rid of sth a** to throw something away or give something to someone because you do not want it now *We must get rid of some of those old books.* **b** to end something unpleasant *I can't seem to get rid of this headache.* **2 get rid of sb** to make someone leave *She was useless at her job so we had to get rid of her.* **3 be rid of sb/sth** to be without someone or something that you do not like or want *I'd do anything to be rid of him.*

rid² /rɪd/ *verb* **ridding**, *past* **rid**
rid sth of sth *phrasal verb* to remove something unpleasant from somewhere *to rid the world of nuclear weapons*
rid yourself of sth *phrasal verb* to remove something that you do not want *to rid yourself of a reputation*

riddance /ˈrɪdᵊns/ *noun* **Good riddance!** used to express pleasure when you have got rid of something or someone that you do not want

ridden /ˈrɪdᵊn/ *past participle of* ride

riddle /ˈrɪdl/ *noun* [C] **1** QUESTION a strange and difficult question that has a clever and often funny answer **2** NOT UNDERSTAND a situation or event that you cannot understand *Scientists may have* ***solved*** *the* ***riddle*** *of Saturn's rings.*

riddled /ˈrɪdld/ *adjective* **be riddled with sth** to contain a large number of something bad *The wall was riddled with bullets.*

ride¹ /raɪd/ *verb past tense* **rode**, *past participle* **ridden 1** SPORT [I, T] to travel by sitting on a horse, bicycle, or motorcycle and controlling it *I ride my bike to work.* ○ *She taught me to ride* (= to ride a horse). ➲See Common Learner Error at **drive 2** [T] *US* to travel in a vehicle as a passenger *I've told her not to ride the subway at night.*
ride on sth *phrasal verb* If something important rides on a situation, it will succeed or fail depending on the situation. *There was $600,000 riding on the outcome of the deal.*
ride out sth *phrasal verb* to continue to exist during a bad situation *to ride out a recession*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ride (noun)***

go for/hitch a ride ● a ride **in/on** sth ● **give** sb a ride

ride² /raɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a journey in a vehicle or train *Can I* ***give*** *you a* ***ride*** *to the station?* **2** BICYCLE a journey riding a bicycle, motorcycle, or horse *He's gone out for a ride on his bike.* **3** PLAYING a machine at a fair (= event outdoors) which moves people up and down, round in circles, etc as they sit in it

rider /ˈraɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who rides a horse, bicycle, or motorcycle ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

ridge /rɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY a long, narrow piece of high land, especially along the top of a mountain *a mountain ridge* **2** a narrow, raised line on a flat surface

ridicule¹ /ˈrɪdɪkjuːl/ *verb* [T] to make people laugh at someone in an unkind way *I was* ***ridiculed for*** *saying they might win.*

ridicule² /ˈrɪdɪkjuːl/ *noun* [U] when people laugh at someone in an unkind way

ridiculous /rɪˈdɪkjələs/ *adjective* very silly *I've never heard anything so ridiculous.* ●**ridiculously** *adverb ridiculously expensive*

riding /ˈraɪdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT the sport or activity of riding horses

rife /raɪf/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] Something unpleasant that is rife is very common. *Rumours were rife that the band would split up.*

rifle¹ /ˈraɪfl/ *noun* [C] a long gun that you hold against your shoulder when you shoot

rifle² /ˈraɪfl/ (*also* **rifle through**) *verb* [T] to quickly search through things, often in order to steal something *I caught him rifling through my drawers.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rift***

create/heal a rift ● a **deep/growing/huge/serious** rift ● a rift **with** sb ● a rift **between** sb **and** sb ● a rift **over** sth

rift /rɪft/ *noun* [C] **1** a serious disagreement *the deepening* ***rift between*** *the government and the unions* **2** GEOGRAPHY a very large hole that separates parts of the Earth's surface

rig¹ /rɪg/ *verb* [T] **rigging**, *past* **rigged** POLITICS to arrange an election, competition, etc so that the results are not fair or true *He accused the government of rigging the elections.*
rig sth up *phrasal verb* to quickly make a piece of equipment from any materials you can find

rig² /rɪg/ *noun* [C] a large structure for removing gas or oil from the ground or the sea *an* ***oil rig***

rigging /ˈrɪgɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a system of ropes and chains used to support a ship's masts (= poles)

R

right[1] /raɪt/ *adjective* **1** CORRECT correct or true *He only got half the answers right.* ○ *You're **right about** Alison - she's incredible!* ○ *"You came here in 1979, didn't you?" "**That's right**."* **2** DIRECTION [**always before noun**] on or towards the side of your body that is to the east when you are facing north *your right hand* ○ *There's a tree on the **right side** of the house.* **3** SUITABLE suitable or best in a particular situation *I'm not sure she's the right person for the job.* ○ *Are we going in the right direction?* **4** ACCEPTABLE fair or morally acceptable ***It's not right** to criticize him behind his back.* **5 put sth right** to solve a problem **6** COMPLETE [**always before noun**] *UK informal* used for emphasizing when something is bad *His house is a right mess.* ➲See also: **all right**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

right or **true?**

Right is usually used to say something is correct or to agree with something someone has said.

He gave the right answer.

"That's right, they live in central London."

True is usually used to say something is based on facts.

Is it true that she's leaving?

Everything I've told you is true.

right[2] /raɪt/ *adverb* **1** EXACTLY exactly in a place or time *He's right here with me.* ○ *I fell asleep right in the middle of her speech.* **2** CORRECTLY correctly *He guessed right most of the time.* **3** DIRECTION to the right side ***Turn right** after the bridge.* **4 right away/now/after** immediately *Do you want to start right away?* **5** ALL all the way *Did you read it right through to the end?* **6** IN SPEECH *UK* used at the beginning of a sentence to get someone's attention or to show you have understood someone *Right, who's turn is it to tidy up?* ○ *Right, so Helen's coming tomorrow and Trevor on Thursday.* **7 Right** POLITICS, RELIGION used in the UK as part of the title of some politicians and Christian officials *Right Honourable/Reverend* **8 It serves her/him/you right!** *informal* something you say about a bad thing which has happened to a person and which they deserve *So she left him, did she? Serves him right!* ●**rightness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: be right up sb's **alley**, be right up sb's **street**

right[3] /raɪt/ *noun* **1** LAW [C] something that the law allows you to do ***the right to** free speech* [+ **to do sth**] *the right to vote* **2** DIRECTION [U] the right side of your body, or the direction towards this side *You'll find her in the second room **on the right**.* **3** BEHAVIOUR [U] morally correct behaviour *I've tried to teach them the difference between **right and wrong**.* **4 have a/no right to do sth** to have, or not have, a good reason for something *He has a right to be angry.* ○ *She had no right to speak to me like that.* **5 the Right/right** POLITICS political groups which support capitalism (= a system in which industries and companies are owned by people and not the government) *The right campaigned against the president.*

right[4] /raɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** to put something back in a vertical position, or to return to a vertical position [**often reflexive**] *The boat righted itself and I rowed us back to the shore.* **2 right a wrong** to do something good to make an unfair situation seem better *How can we right the wrongs of the past?*

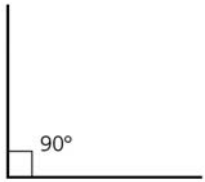

right angle

ˈright ˌangle *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a 90 degree angle of the type that is in a square

right-angled triangle /ˌraɪtæŋgldˈtraɪæŋgl/ *UK* (*US* **right triangle**) *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a triangle which has one angle of 90°

ˌright ˈclick *verb* [I] COMPUTING to press the button on the right of a computer mouse (= a small piece of equipment that you move with your hand to control what the computer does)

righteous /ˈraɪtʃəs/ *adjective* morally right and for good moral reasons ***righteous anger/indignation*** ●**righteousness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: **self-righteous**

rightful /ˈraɪtfʳl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] legally or morally correct *The wallet was returned to its **rightful owner**.*

right-hand /ˌraɪtˈhænd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** on the right of something *On **the right-hand side** you'll see a sign.* **2 sb's right-hand man/woman** the person that you most trust and depend on, especially at work

right-handed /ˌraɪtˈhændɪd/ *adjective* Someone who is right-handed uses their right hand to do most things.

rightly /ˈraɪtli/ *adverb* in a correct way *He is **rightly concerned** about the situation.*

rights /raɪts/ *noun* [**plural**] SOCIETY freedom to do and say things without fear of punishment ➲See also: **civil rights, human rights**

right-wing /ˌraɪtˈwɪŋ/ *adjective* POLITICS supporting the ideas of parties on the political right *a right-wing newspaper* ●**right-winger** *noun* [C]

rigid /ˈrɪdʒɪd/ *adjective* **1** NOT CHANGING not able to change or be changed easily *I found the rules a little too rigid.* **2** STIFF not able to bend or move easily *a rigid structure* ●**rigidly** *adverb* ●**rigidity** /rɪˈdʒɪdəti/ *noun* [U] being unable to bend or change easily

rigorous /ˈrɪgʳərəs/ *adjective* careful to look at or consider every part of something to make sure it is correct or safe *rigorous testing* ○ *a rigorous medical examination* ●**rigorously** *adverb*

rigour *UK* (*US* **rigor**) /ˈrɪgəʳ/ *noun* [U] when you look at or consider every part of something to make sure it is correct or safe *His arguments lack **intellectual rigour**.*

rigours *UK* (*US* **rigors**) /ˈrɪgəz/ *noun* **the rigours of sth** the difficult conditions of a particular situation *the rigours of a harsh winter*

R

rim /rɪm/ *noun* [C] the edge of something round *the rim of a wheel*

rind /raɪnd/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD the thick skin of fruits such as oranges and lemons and other foods, for example cheese

ring¹ /rɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** JEWELLERY a round piece of jewellery that you wear on your finger *a **wedding ring*** ○ *a gold ring* **2** CIRCLE something that is the shape of a circle *The children sat in a ring around the teacher.* **3** SOUND the sound a bell makes *The ring of the doorbell woke him up.* **4 a crime/drug/spy, etc ring** a group of people who are involved in an illegal activity together **5 a boxing/circus ring** SPORT an area with seats around it where boxers (= people fighting) or people in a circus (= show) perform **6 give sb a ring** *UK* to telephone someone *If you want anything, just give me a ring.* ➲See also: **key ring**

ring² /rɪŋ/ *verb past tense* **rang**, *past participle* **rung 1** SOUND [I, T] If something rings, it makes the sound of a bell, and if you ring a bell, you cause it to make a sound. *The **phone's ringing**.* ○ *I **rang** the **doorbell**.* **2** TELEPHONE [I, T] *UK* (*UK/US* **call**) to telephone someone *Have you rung your mother?* ○ *I've **rung for** a taxi.* **3** EARS [I] If your ears are ringing, you can hear a loud sound after the sound has stopped. ➲See also: ring a **bell**, ring **true**

ring (sb) back *phrasal verb UK* (*UK/US* **call (sb) back**) to telephone someone a second time, or to telephone someone who rang you earlier *I'm a bit busy - can I ring you back later?*

ring off *phrasal verb UK* (*UK/US* **hang up**) to end a telephone conversation and put down the part of the telephone that you speak into *She'd rung off before I could say goodbye.*

ring³ /rɪŋ/ *verb* [T] to make a circle around something *Dozens of armed police ringed the building.*

ringleader /ˈrɪŋˌliːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] the leader of a group who are doing something harmful or illegal *the ringleader of a gang of drug smugglers*

ˈring ˌroad *noun* [C] *UK* a road built to take traffic around the outside of a city

ringtone /ˈrɪŋtəʊn/ *noun* [C] the sound that a telephone makes, especially a mobile phone, when someone is calling it

rink /rɪŋk/ *noun* [C] SPORT a large, flat surface made of ice or wood where you can skate (= move wearing boots with wheels or a piece of metal) *a roller skating rink* ➲See also: **ice rink**

rinse¹ /rɪns/ *verb* [T] to wash something in clean water in order to remove dirt or soap *Rinse the beans with cold water.*

rinse sth out *phrasal verb* to quickly wash the inside of something with clean water *I'll just rinse these glasses out and leave them to dry.*

rinse² /rɪns/ *noun* [C] **1** WASH when you wash something in clean water to remove dirt or soap ***Give** it **a** quick **rinse**, then squeeze it dry.* **2** HAIR a liquid that is used for changing the colour of someone's hair *a dark brown rinse*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***riot***

quell/spark a riot ● a riot **breaks out**

riot¹ /raɪət/ *noun* **1** [C] angry, violent behaviour by a crowd of people *a race riot* ○ *Riots started in several cities.* **2 run riot** to behave in a noisy, violent, or wild way without being controlled *They allow their kids to run riot.*

riot² /raɪət/ *verb* [I] to take part in a riot *People were rioting in the streets.* ●**rioter** *noun* [C]

rioting /ˈraɪətɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when a crowd of people riots *There was **widespread rioting**.*

riotous /ˈraɪətəs/ *adjective* **1** WILD wild and not controlled by anyone *a riotous party* **2** VIOLENT *formal* violent and not controlled *He was charged with riotous behaviour and jailed for six months.*

rip¹ /rɪp/ *verb* **ripping**, *past* **ripped 1** [I, T] to tear quickly and suddenly, or to tear something quickly and suddenly *She ripped her dress getting off her bike.* ○ *He **ripped open** the parcel.* **2 rip sth out/off/from, etc** to remove something by pulling it away quickly *Hedges had been ripped out to make larger fields.* **3** [T] to copy information from a CD onto an MP3 player (= a piece of electronic equipment or a computer program for storing music)

rip sb off *phrasal verb informal* to cheat someone by making them pay too much money for something *We were ripped off by the first taxi driver.*

rip sth off *phrasal verb* to remove a piece of clothing very quickly and carelessly *I ripped off my clothes and jumped in the shower.*

rip through sth *phrasal verb* to move through a place or building, destroying it quickly *The bomb ripped through the building, killing six people.*

rip sth up *phrasal verb* to tear something into small pieces *He ripped up all her letters.*

rip² /rɪp/ *noun* [C] a hole in the shape of a line when cloth or paper has been torn

ripe /raɪp/ *adjective* **1** FOOD developed enough and ready to be eaten *ripe bananas* **2 ripe for sth** developed enough to be ready for something *The country is ripe for change.* ○ ***The time is ripe for*** (= It is the right time for) investing in new technology.

ripen /ˈraɪpᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] FOOD to become ripe, or to make something become ripe *The peaches had ripened in the sun.*

rip-off /ˈrɪpɒf/ *noun* [C] *informal* something that costs far too much money *The drinks here are a complete rip-off.*

ripple¹ /ˈrɪpl/ *verb* [I, T] to move in small waves, or to make something move in small waves *A field of wheat rippled in the breeze.*

ripple² /ˈrɪpl/ *noun* [C] **1** WAVE a small wave or series of small waves on the surface of water *She dived in, sending ripples across the pool.* **2** SOUND something that spreads through a place in a gentle way *a **ripple of applause/laughter***

rise¹ /raɪz/ *verb* [I] *past tense* **rose**, *past participle* **risen 1** INCREASE to increase in level *rising temperatures* ○ *Prices **rose by** 10 percent.* **2** GO UP to move up *The balloon rose slowly into the air.* **3** STAND to stand, especially after sitting *He rose from his seat.* **4 rise to/through, etc** to become important, successful, or rich *He quickly rose to stardom.* **5** STRENGTH to become stronger

R

or louder *The wind is rising.* **6** HIGH to be high above something *The bridge rose almost 600 feet above the water.* **7** APPEAR When the sun or moon rises, it appears in the sky. *The sun rises in the East.* **8 rise to the occasion/challenge, etc** to deal with a difficult job or opportunity successfully

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

rise or **raise?**

Be careful not to confuse these two verbs. **Rise** means to increase or move up. This verb cannot be followed by an object.

The price of petrol is rising.

~~*The price of petrol is raising.*~~

Raise means to lift something to a higher position or to increase an amount or level. This verb must always be followed by an object.

The government has raised the price of petrol.

~~*The government has rised the price of petrol.*~~

rise above sth *phrasal verb* to succeed in not allowing something harmful or bad to affect or hurt you

rise up *phrasal verb* to try to defeat and change a government

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rise***

a big/dramatic/massive/sudden rise ● a rise **in** sth ● be **on the** rise ● the rise **and fall of** sb/sth ● a **pay/price** rise

rise² /raɪz/ *noun* **1** [C] an increase in the level of something *a tax rise* ○ *a **rise in** interest rates* **2 sb's rise to fame/power, etc** when someone becomes very famous or powerful **3 give rise to sth** to cause something *The bacteria live in the human body but do not give rise to any symptoms.* **4** FINANCE [C] *UK* (*US* **raise**) an increase in the amount of money that you earn *a **pay rise***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***risk***

carry/increase/pose/minimize/reduce/take a risk ● **run** the risk **of** sth ● a **great/high/serious/slight/small** risk ● the risk **of** sth ● **at** risk

risk¹ /rɪsk/ *noun* **1** POSSIBILITY [C, U] the possibility of something bad happening *the **risk of** heart disease* ○ *People in the Northeast face the **highest risk** of being burgled.* [+ **(that)**] *There is a slight risk that the blood could have become infected.* **2** SOMETHING BAD [C] something bad that might happen *There are more **health risks** when older women get pregnant.* **3 at risk** being in a situation where something bad is likely to happen *Releasing these prisoners into the community **puts** the public **at risk**.* **4 at your own risk** If you do something at your own risk, you are completely responsible for anything bad that might happen because of it. **5 run the risk of sth** to do something although something bad might happen because of it *I think I'll run the risk of hurting her feelings, and tell her the truth.* **6 take a risk** to do something although something bad might happen because of it *This time I'm not taking any risks - I'm going to get insured.*

risk² /rɪsk/ *verb* [T] **1** MIGHT HAPPEN If you risk something bad, you do something although that bad thing might happen. [+ **doing sth**] *I'd like to help you, but I can't risk losing my job.* **2** MIGHT LOSE If you risk something important, you cause it to be in a dangerous situation where you might lose it. *He risked his life to save me.*

risky /ˈrɪski/ *adjective* dangerous because something bad might happen *Investing in shares is always a **risky business**.*

rite /raɪt/ *noun* [C] RELIGION, SOCIETY a traditional ceremony in a particular religion or culture ***initiation/funeral rites***

ritual /ˈrɪtʃuəl/ *noun* [C] an activity or a set of actions that are always done in the same way or at the same time, sometimes as part of a religion *Coffee and the paper are part of my morning ritual.* ●**ritualistic** /ˌrɪtjuəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* done as a ritual

rival¹ /ˈraɪvəl/ *noun* [C] someone or something that is competing with another person or thing *business/political rivals* ●**rival** *adjective* [always before noun] *a rival company/gang* ●**rivalry** *noun* [C, U] when two people or things are rivals *There is intense **rivalry between** the two teams.*

rival² /ˈraɪvəl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **rivalling**, *past* **rivalled**, *US* **rivaling**, *past* **rivaled** to be good enough to compete with someone or something else *Australian wine can now rival the best from France.*

river /ˈrɪvər/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY a long, natural area of water that flows across the land and into a sea, lake, or another river *the River Thames*

riverside /ˈrɪvəsaɪd/ *noun* [no plural] GEOGRAPHY the area of land at the side of a river *a riverside path*

rivet¹ /ˈrɪvɪt/ *verb* **be riveted** to give something all of your attention because it is so interesting or important *Her eyes were **riveted on/to** his face.*

rivet² /ˈrɪvɪt/ *noun* [C] DT a metal pin used to fasten pieces of metal together

riveting /ˈrɪvɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely interesting or exciting *I found the film absolutely riveting.*

RNA /ˌɑːrenˈeɪ/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY *abbreviation for* ribonucleic acid; an important chemical present in all living cells

roach /rəʊtʃ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **roach** or **roaches** *US* a cockroach (= large insect that sometimes breeds in houses)

road /rəʊd/ *noun* **1** [C, U] a long, hard surface built for vehicles to drive on *Be careful when you **cross** the **road**.* ○ *The journey takes about three hours **by road*** (= in a car, bus, etc). ○ *Follow the **main road*** (= large road) *till you come to a church.* **2 Road** (*written abbreviation* **Rd**) used in the name of a road as part of an address *142 Park Road* **3 along/down/up the road** a distance away on the same road *There's a supermarket just down the road.* **4 over the road** *UK* (*UK/US* **across the road**) on the other side of the road *Who lives in that big house over the road?* **5 on the road** driving or travelling, usually over a long distance *We'd been on the road for 48 hours.* **6 down the road** If an

event is a particular period of time down the road, it will not happen until that period has passed. *Why worry about something that's 10 years down the road?* **7 go down that road** to decide to do something in a particular way *I don't think we want to go down that road.* ➲See also: **ring road, slip road, trunk road**

roadblock /ˈrəʊdblɒk/ *noun* [C] something that is put across a road to stop people who are driving down it *The police had **set up** a **roadblock** and were checking identity papers.*

ˈroad ˌmap *noun* [C] a plan for achieving something *the road map for peace in the Middle East*

ˈroad ˌrage *noun* [U] anger and violence between drivers *a **road rage incident***

roadshow /ˈrəʊdʃəʊ/ *noun* [C] a radio or television programme broadcast from a public place

roadside /ˈrəʊdsaɪd/ *noun* [C] the area next to a road [**usually singular**] *They found an injured cat lying **by the roadside**.*

roadway /ˈrəʊdweɪ/ *noun* [C] the part of the road that the traffic drives on

roadworks /ˈrəʊdwɜːks/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* repairs being done to the road

roadworthy /ˈrəʊdˌwɜːðɪ/ *adjective* If a car is roadworthy, it is in good enough condition to be safe to drive.

roam /rəʊm/ *verb* [**I, T**] to move around a place without any purpose *gangs of youths **roaming the street** at night*

roar¹ /rɔːʳ/ *verb* **1** MAKE NOISE [**I**] to make a loud, deep sound *We could hear a **lion roaring** from the other side of the zoo.* ○ *She **roared with laughter**.* **2 roar past/down, etc** If a vehicle roars somewhere, it moves fast making a loud noise. *A huge motorcycle roared past.* **3** SHOUT [**I, T**] to say something in a very loud voice *"Stop that!" he roared.*

roar² /rɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] a loud, deep sound *a lion's roar* ○ *the roar of a jet engine*

roaring /ˈrɔːrɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** POWERFUL A roaring fire or wind is very powerful. **2** VERY *informal* used to emphasize a situation or state *The party was a **roaring success**.*

roast¹ /rəʊst/ *verb* [**I, T**] **FOOD** If you roast food, you cook it in an oven or over a fire, and if food roasts, it is cooked in an oven or over a fire. *Roast the lamb in a hot oven for 35 minutes.* ●**roast** *adjective* [**always before noun**] *roast beef/pork* ➲See picture at **cook**

roast² /rəʊst/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a piece of roasted meat

rob /rɒb/ *verb* [T] **robbing**, *past* **robbed 1** to steal from someone or somewhere, often using violence *to **rob a bank*** ○ *Two tourists were robbed at gunpoint in the city centre last night.* **2 rob sb of sth** to take something important away from someone *The war had robbed them of their innocence.*

robber /ˈrɒbəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who steals *a **bank robber*** ○ *a gang of **armed robbers***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***robbery***

commit/take part in a robbery ● an **armed/attempted** robbery ● a **bank** robbery

robbery /ˈrɒbᵊri/ *noun* [C] the crime of stealing from someone or somewhere *a **bank robbery*** ○ *an **armed robbery*** ○ *to **commit a robbery***

robe /rəʊb/ *noun* [C] a long, loose piece of clothing, often something that is worn for ceremonies or special occasions

robin /ˈrɒbɪn/ *noun* [C] a small, brown bird with a red chest

robot /ˈrəʊbɒt/ *noun* [C] a machine controlled by a computer, which can move and do other things that people can do ●**robotic** /rəʊˈbɒtɪk/ *adjective* relating to or like a robot

robust /rəʊˈbʌst/ *adjective* strong and healthy *He looks robust enough.* ○ *a robust economy*

O-K **rock¹** /rɒk/ *noun* **1 GEOLOGY** [U] the hard, natural substance which forms part of the Earth's surface *a layer of volcanic rock* **2 GEOLOGY** [C] a large piece of rock or stone *Huge waves were crashing against the rocks.* **3 MUSIC** [U] loud, modern music with a strong beat, often played with electric guitars and drums ***hard/soft rock*** ○ ***rock music*** ○ ***a rock band/singer*** **4 on the rocks a** RELATIONSHIP If a relationship is on the rocks, it has problems and is likely to end soon. **b** DRINK If a drink is on the rocks, it is served with ice in it.

rock² /rɒk/ *verb* **1** MOVE [**I, T**] to move backwards and forwards or from side to side, or to make someone or something do this *She **rocked back and forth** on her chair.* ○ *He gently **rocked** the **baby** to sleep.* **2** SHOCK [T] to shock a large number of people [**often passive**] *The country has been rocked by a series of drug scandals.* ➲See also: rock the **boat**

ˌrock ˈbottom *noun informal* **hit/reach rock bottom** to reach the lowest level possible *The president's popularity has hit rock bottom.*

the ˈrock ˌcycle *noun* **GEOLOGY** the way that rock is broken down by erosion, then the pieces are carried by wind and water until they are pressed together to form rock again

rocket¹ /ˈrɒkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a tube-shaped vehicle for travelling in space **2** WEAPON a tube-shaped weapon that carries a bomb

rocket² /ˈrɒkɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** INCREASE to quickly increase in value or amount *House prices have rocketed this year.* **2** PROGRESS to make quick progress *She **rocketed to** stardom after modelling for Vogue last year.*

rock 'n' roll /ˌrɒkənˈrəʊl/ *noun* [U] **1 MUSIC** (*also* **ˌrock and ˈroll**) a type of dance music that was especially popular in the 1950s **2 be the new rock 'n' roll** to now be the most fashionable and popular activity

ˈrock ˌstar *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a famous rock musician

rocky /ˈrɒki/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** with lots of rocks *a rocky beach*

rod /rɒd/ *noun* [C] a thin, straight pole *a **fishing rod*** ○ *The concrete is strengthened with steel rods.*

rode /rəʊd/ *past tense of* ride

R

rodent /ˈrəʊdᵊnt/ *noun* [C] an animal with long, sharp teeth, such as a mouse or rabbit

rodeo /ˈrəʊdiəʊ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a competition in which people show their skill at riding wild horses and catching cows

roe /rəʊ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** fish eggs

rogue /rəʊg/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not behaving in the way that is expected or wanted *a **rogue state*** ○ ***rogue cells***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***role***

play a role ● an **active/central/key/leading/major** role ● **in** a role ● sb's role **as** sth ● sb/sth's role **in** (doing) sth

role /rəʊl/ *noun* [C] **1** PURPOSE the job someone or something has in a particular situation *This part of the brain **plays an** important **role in** learning.* **2** PLAY/FILM a part in a play or film *In his latest film, he **plays the role of** a violent gangster.* ➲See also: **title role**

ˈrole ˌmodel *noun* [C] someone you try to behave like because you admire them *Jane is such a good role model for her younger sister.*

role-play /ˈrəʊlˌpleɪ/ *noun* [C, U] **EDUCATION** pretending to be someone else, especially as part of learning a new skill

roll¹ /rəʊl/ *verb* **1 roll (sth) across/around/over, etc** to move somewhere by turning in a circular direction, or to make something move this way *The ball rolled through the goalkeeper's legs.* ○ *She rolled over onto her side.* **2 roll down/in/off, etc** to move somewhere smoothly *Tears rolled down her face.* **3** [T] to turn something around itself to make the shape of a ball or tube *to roll a cigarette* **4 roll your eyes** to move your eyes so that they are looking up, usually to show surprise or disapproval **5 be rolling in it** *informal* to be very rich ➲See also: set/start the **ball** rolling
roll in *phrasal verb* to arrive in large numbers *She only set up the business last year and already the money's rolling in.*
roll sth up *phrasal verb* to fold something around itself to make the shape of a ball or tube, or to make a piece of clothing shorter *to **roll up** your **sleeves**/trouser legs* ○ *to roll up a carpet* ➲Opposite **unroll**
roll up *phrasal verb informal* to arrive somewhere, usually late *By the time Jim rolled up, the party had almost finished.*

roll² /rəʊl/ *noun* [C] **1** ROUND OBJECT something that has been turned around itself into a round shape like a tube *a roll of film* ○ *a roll of toilet paper* **2 FOOD** a small loaf of bread for one person *Would you like a roll and butter with your soup?* **3** LIST a list of names *the **electoral roll*** **4** SOUND a long, deep sound *a **roll of thunder*** ○ *a **drum roll*** **5 be on a roll** *informal* to be having a successful period *We were on a roll, winning our fourth game in a row.* ➲See also: **rock 'n' roll, toilet roll**

roller /ˈrəʊlᵊ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment in the shape of a tube which is rolled around or over something *She uses rollers to curl her hair.*

Rollerblades /ˈrəʊləbleɪdz/ *noun* [**plural**] *trademark* (*also* **in-line skates**) **SPORT** boots with a single line of wheels on the bottom, used for moving across the ground ●**rollerblading** *noun* [U] *Lots of people **go rollerblading** in Central Park.* ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

roller coaster /ˌrəʊləˈkəʊstᵊ/ *noun* [C] an exciting entertainment which is like a fast train that goes up and down very steep slopes

ˈroller ˌskate *noun* [C] **SPORT** a boot with wheels on the bottom, used for moving across the ground ●**roller skating** *noun* [U]

ˈrolling ˌpin *noun* [C] a kitchen tool shaped like a tube that you roll over pastry to make it thinner before cooking ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

ROM /rɒm/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* read only memory: a type of computer memory which holds information that can be used but not changed or added to ➲Compare **RAM**

Roman¹ /ˈrəʊmən/ *adjective* relating to ancient Rome or its empire *Roman remains*

roman³ /ˈrəʊ.mən/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE** describes the ordinary style of printed writing in which the letters are vertical

Roman² /ˈrəʊmən/ *noun* [C] someone who lived in ancient Rome or its empire

ˌRoman ˈCatholic *adjective* **RELIGION** related to the part of the Christian religion that has the Pope (= a very important priest) as its leader ●**Roman Catholic** *noun* [C] ●**Roman Catholicism** *noun* [U] the beliefs of the Roman Catholic religion

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***romance***

find/look for romance ● a romance **blossoms** ● a **whirlwind** romance ● a **holiday** romance ● the romance **between** sb and sb ● sb's romance **with** sb

romance /rəʊˈmæns/ *noun* **1** LOVE [C, U] an exciting relationship of love between two people, often a short one *They got married last September after a **whirlwind romance.*** **2 LITERATURE** [C] a story about love **3** EXCITEMENT [U] a feeling of excitement or exciting danger *the romance of the sea*

ˌRoman ˈnumeral *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a letter that represents a number in the Roman system in which I is 1, II is 2, V is 5, etc *My watch has Roman numerals.*

romantic¹ /rəʊˈmæntɪk/ *adjective* **1** LOVE relating to exciting feelings of love *a romantic dinner for two* **2 LITERATURE** relating to a story about love ***romantic fiction*** ○ *a **romantic comedy*** **3** IDEAS thinking that things are better than they really are, and that things are possible which are not *a romantic view of the world*
●**romantically** *adverb*

romantic² /rəʊˈmæntɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who thinks that things are better than they really are, and that things are possible which are not

romanticize (*also UK* **-ise**) /rəʊˈmæntɪsaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make something seem much better or exciting than it really is *a romanticized image of married life*

romp /rɒmp/ *verb* **romp around/in/through, etc** to run around in a happy, energetic way *The children were romping around in the garden.* ●**romp** *noun* [C]

roof /ruːf/ *noun* **1** [C] the surface that covers the top of a building or vehicle *a flat/sloping roof* ○ *He climbed onto the roof.* **2 the roof of your mouth** the top part of the inside of your mouth **3 a roof over your head** somewhere to live **4 go through the roof** If the level of something, especially a price, goes through the roof, it increases very quickly. **5 hit the roof** *informal* to become very angry and start shouting *If I'm late again he'll hit the roof.*

roofing /ˈruːfɪŋ/ *noun* [U] material used to make a roof

rooftop /ˈruːftɒp/ *noun* [C] the top of a roof *a view across the city rooftops*

rook /rʊk/ *noun* [C] a large, black bird that lives in Europe

rookie /ˈrʊki/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* someone who has only recently started doing a job or activity and so has no experience *a rookie cop*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***room***

leave/make room ● **take up** room ● room **for** sb/sth

room¹ /ruːm, rʊm/ *noun* **1** BUILDING [C] a part of the inside of a building, which is separated from other parts by walls, floors, and ceilings *a hotel room* **2** SPACE [U] space for things to fit into *Is there enough **room for** all of us in your car?* ○ *Can everyone move up a bit to **make room for** these people?* [+ **to do sth**] *There's hardly enough room to move in here.* **3 room for sth** a possibility for something to happen *His work isn't bad but there's still some **room for improvement**.* ➲See also: **changing room, chat room, dining room, drawing room, dressing room, elbow room, emergency room, living room, locker room, men's room, operating room, sitting room, waiting room**

room² /ruːm, rʊm/ *verb* **room with sb** *US* to share a bedroom with someone, usually at college

roommate /ˈruːmmeɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** ROOM someone who you share a room with **2** HOME *US* (*UK* **housemate/flatmate**) someone who you share your home with

ˈroom ˌservice *noun* [U] in a hotel, room service is when someone serves you food and drink in your room

roomy /ˈruːmi/ *adjective* having a lot of space *It looks small, but it's really quite roomy inside.*

roost /ruːst/ *noun* [C] **1** a place where birds go to rest or sleep **2 rule the roost** to be the person who makes all the decisions in a group

rooster /ˈruːstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a male chicken

root¹ /ruːt/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY the part of a plant that grows under the ground and gets water and food from the soil **2** ANATOMY, BIOLOGY the part of a hair or tooth that is under the skin ➲See picture at **tooth 3 the root of sth** the cause of something, usually something bad *the root of all evil* ➲See also: **grass roots 4** MATHEMATICS The root of a particular number is another number which, when multiplied by itself one or more times, equals the first number. ➲See: **square root, cube root**

root² /ruːt/ *verb*
root about/around (sth) *phrasal verb* to search for something, especially by looking through other things *She was rooting around in her drawer for a pencil.*
root for sb *phrasal verb informal* to show support for someone who is in a competition or who is doing something difficult *Good luck! We're all rooting for you.*
be rooted in sth *phrasal verb* to be based on something or caused by something *Most prejudices are rooted in ignorance.*
root sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to find and get rid of the thing or person that is causing a problem *It is our aim to root out corruption.*

ˈroot ˌhair *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a thin part like a hair that grows from the roots of plants and takes in water and food

roots /ruːts/ *noun* [plural] where someone or something originally comes from *the roots of modern jazz*

rope¹ /rəʊp/ *noun* [C, U] **1** very thick string made from twisted thread **2 be on the ropes** *mainly US* to be doing badly and likely to fail *His career is on the ropes.* **3 learn/know the ropes** to learn/know how to do a job or activity ➲See also: at the **end¹** of your tether, **jump rope, skipping rope**

rope² /rəʊp/ *verb* [T] to tie things together with rope
rope sb in *phrasal verb informal* to persuade someone to help you with something, especially when they do not want to

rosé /ˈrəʊzeɪ/ (US) /rəʊˈzeɪ/ *noun* [U] FOOD pink wine

rosary /ˈrəʊzᵊri/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a string of beads (= small, round balls) that is used to count prayers in the Catholic religion

rose¹ /rəʊz/ *noun* [C] a flower with a pleasant smell and thorns (= sharp points on the stem), that grows on a bush

rose² /rəʊz/ *past tense of* rise

rosemary /ˈrəʊzmᵊri/ *noun* [U] FOOD a herb that grows as a bush with thin, pointed leaves

rosette /rəʊˈzet/ *noun* [C] **1** PRIZE *UK* (*US* **ribbon**) a decoration made of coloured cloth, which is given as a prize **2** POLITICS *UK* a decoration made of coloured cloth in the shape of a rose, worn to show political support for someone

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***roster***

draw up/organize a roster ● a roster **of** sth ● **on** a roster

roster /ˈrɒstəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PLAN a plan which shows who must do which jobs and when they must do them *a staff roster* **2** LIST a list of names of people who belong to a team or organization

rostrum /ˈrɒstrəm/ *noun* [C] a raised surface which someone stands on to make a speech or receive a prize

rosy /ˈrəʊzi/ *adjective* **1** PINK Rosy faces are a healthy pink colour. *rosy cheeks* **2** POSITIVE very positive and happy *The future looks rosy.*

rot¹ /rɒt/ *verb* [I, T] **rotting**, *past* **rotted** If vegetable or animal substances rot, they decay, and if something rots them, it makes them decay. *Sugar rots your teeth.* ○ *the smell of rotting fish*

R

rot² /rɒt/ *noun* [U] **1** decay *There was rot in the woodwork.* **2 the rot sets in** *UK* If the rot sets in, a situation starts to get worse. **3 stop the rot** *UK* to do something to prevent a situation from continuing to get worse

rota /ˈrəʊtə/ *noun* [C] *UK* (*UK/US* **roster**) a plan which shows who must do which jobs and when they must do them

rotary /ˈrəʊtᵊri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] moving in a circular direction

rotate /rəʊˈteɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** TURN to turn in a circular direction, or to make something turn in a circular direction *The television rotates for viewing at any angle.* **2** CHANGE to change from one person or thing to another in a regular order *Farmers usually rotate their crops to improve the soil.* ●**rotation** /rəʊˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *the rotation of the Earth* ○ *crop rotation*

rotten /ˈrɒtᵊn/ *adjective* **1** FOOD Rotten vegetable or animal substances are decaying. *rotten eggs* **2** *informal* very bad *rotten weather*

rottweiler /ˈrɒtwaɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] a type of large, powerful dog

rough¹ /rʌf/ *adjective* **1** NOT SMOOTH A rough surface is not smooth. *rough hands* ○ *rough ground* **2** APPROXIMATE approximate *a **rough estimate*** ○ *Can you give me a **rough idea** of the cost?* **3** FORCEFUL If the sea or weather is rough, there is a lot of strong wind and sometimes rain. *The boat sank in **rough seas** off the Swedish coast.* **4** ILL [**never before noun**] *UK* ill *I **feel** a bit **rough** after last night.* **5** DIFFICULT difficult or unpleasant *She's having a **rough time** at work.* **6** DANGEROUS dangerous or violent *a rough part of town* ○ *Hockey can be quite a **rough game**.* **7** NOT PERFECT quickly done and not perfect *These are just **rough sketches**.* **8 rough and ready a** NOT PREPARED produced quickly without preparation **b** NOT POLITE not very polite or well-educated ●**roughness** *noun* [U]

rough² /rʌf/ *noun* **take the rough with the smooth** *UK* to accept the unpleasant parts of a situation as well as the pleasant parts

rough³ /rʌf/ *adverb* **live/sleep rough** *UK* to live and sleep outside because you have nowhere else to live

rough⁴ /rʌf/ *verb* **rough it** to live in a way that is simple and not comfortable

roughage /ˈrʌfɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] FOOD a substance in fruit and vegetables that helps you to get rid of waste from the body

roughen /ˈrʌfᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become rough or to make something become rough *Years of housework had roughened her hands.*

roughly /ˈrʌfli/ *adverb* **1** APPROXIMATELY approximately *There's been an increase of roughly 30% since last year.* **2** FORCEFULLY forcefully or violently *He pushed us roughly out of the door.*

roulette /ruːˈlet/ *noun* [U] a game in which a small ball moves around a dish with numbers on it, and people try to win money by guessing where the ball will stop

round¹ /raʊnd/ *adjective* **1** in the shape of a circle or ball *a round table/window* ○ *round eyes* ○ *a round face* **2 round figures/numbers** numbers given to the nearest 10, 100, 1000, etc and not as the exact amounts

round² /raʊnd/ *UK* (*UK/US* **around**) *adverb, preposition* **1** IN A CIRCLE on all sides of something *We sat round the table.* ○ *She had a scarf round her neck.* **2** DIRECTION to the opposite direction *She looked round.* ○ ***Turn** the car **round** and let's go home.* **3** TO A PLACE to or in different parts of a place *He showed me round the flat.* **4** SEVERAL PLACES from one place or person to another *Could you pass these forms round, please?* **5** VISIT to someone's home *Wendy's coming round this afternoon.* **6** NEAR near an area *Do you live round here?* **7 round about** at approximately a time or approximately an amount *We'll be there round about 10 o'clock.* **8 round and round** moving in a circle without stopping *We drove round and round trying to find the hotel.*

round³ /raʊnd/ *noun* [C] **1 first/second/third/etc, round** a part of a competition *He was beaten in the first round.* **2** EVENTS a group of events that is part of a series *a **round of interviews*** ○ *a new **round of talks** between the two countries* **3** VISITS *UK* regular visits to a group of people or houses to give them something or to see them *a milk/newspaper round* **4** DRINKS drinks that you buy for a group of people *It's your turn to buy the next round.* **5 round of applause** when people clap *The crowd gave him a huge round of applause.* **6** BULLETS a bullet or a set of bullets to be fired at one time from a gun **7 round of golf** SPORT a game of golf

round⁴ /raʊnd/ *verb* [T] to go around something *They **rounded** the **corner** at high speed.*
round sth down *phrasal verb* MATHEMATICS to reduce a number to the nearest whole or simple number
round sth off *phrasal verb* to end an activity in a pleasant way *We rounded off the lesson with a quiz.*
round sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to find and bring together a group of people or animals *The police are rounding up the usual suspects.*
round sth up *phrasal verb* MATHEMATICS to increase a number to the nearest whole or simple number

roundabout¹ /ˈraʊndəˌbaʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** ROADS *UK* (*US* **traffic circle**) a circular place where roads meet and where cars drive around until they arrive at the road that they want to turn into *to go round a roundabout* **2** ENTERTAINMENT *UK* an entertainment which goes round and round while children sit on it

roundabout² /ˈraʊndəˌbaʊt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A roundabout way of doing something or going somewhere is not the direct way.

rounded /ˈraʊndɪd/ *adjective* smooth and curved *a table with rounded corners*

rounders /ˈraʊndəz/ *noun* [U] SPORT a British game in which you try to hit a small ball and then run round all four sides of a large square

rounding /ˈraʊndɪŋ/ *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS when a number is put up or down to the nearest whole number or the nearest hundred, thousand, etc

roundly /ˈraʊndli/ *adverb* If you criticize someone or something roundly, you do it very strongly. *The action was* ***roundly condemned*** *by French and German leaders.*

round-the-clock /ˌraʊndðəˈklɒk/ *adjective* all day and all night *round-the-clock nursing care*

ˌround ˈtrip *noun* [C] a journey from one place to another and back to where you started

ˌround-trip ˈticket *US* (*UK* **return**) *noun* [C] a ticket that lets you travel to a place and back again, for example on a train

round-up /ˈraʊndʌp/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP when a group of people or animals are found and brought together *a police round-up* **2** REPORT a short report of all the facts or events relating to a subject *a* ***news round-up***

rouse /raʊz/ *verb* [T] **1** CAUSE FEELING to cause a feeling or emotion in someone *This issue is rousing a lot of public interest.* **2** WAKE UP *formal* to wake someone up *He was roused from a deep sleep.*

rousing /ˈraʊzɪŋ/ *adjective* making people feel excited and proud or ready to take action *a* ***rousing speech***

rout /raʊt/ *verb* [T] to defeat someone completely ●**rout** *noun* [C] *an election rout*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***route***

follow/take a route ● **plan/work out** a route ● **along/on** a route ● a route **between/from/to**

O-key **route** /ruːt/ US /ruːt, raʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** ROADS the roads or paths you follow to get from one place to another place *an escape route* ○ *Crowds gathered all* ***along the route*** *to watch the race.* **2** METHOD a method of achieving something *A university education is seen by many as the best route to a good job.* ➲See also: **en route**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***routine***

get into/have/settle into a routine ● sb's **daily/normal** routine ● a routine **of** doing sth

routine¹ /ruːˈtiːn/ *noun* **1** REGULAR ACTIVITY [C, U] the things you regularly do and how and when you do them *a* ***daily routine*** ○ *He longed to escape the routine of an office job.* **2** PERFORMANCE [C] a regular series of movements, jokes, etc used in a performance *a dance routine*

routine² /ruːˈtiːn/ *adjective* **1** REGULAR done regularly and not unusual *a* ***routine procedure*** ○ ***routine checks*** **2** BORING done regularly and very boring *His job is very routine.*

routinely /ruːˈtiːnli/ *adverb* regularly or often

roving /ˈrəʊvɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] moving around from one place to another place *a* ***roving reporter***

O-key **row¹** /rəʊ/ *noun* **1** LINE [C] a straight line of people or things *a row of chairs/houses* ○ *My students sit at desks* ***in rows*** *for most of the time.* **2** SEATS [C] a line of seats *to sit on the* ***back/front row*** ○ *Isn't that Sophie sitting in the row behind us?* **3 in a row** one after another without a break *He's just won the tournament for the fifth year in a row.* ➲See also: **death row**

row² /rəʊ/ *verb* [I, T] to move a boat or move someone in a boat through the water using oars (= poles with flat ends) ●**rowing** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***row*** (= argument)

have a row ● an **almighty/blazing/heated** row ● a row **about/over** sth ● a row **with** sb ● a row **between** sb and sb

row³ /raʊ/ *noun UK* **1** LOUD ARGUMENT [C] a loud, angry argument *a* ***blazing row*** ○ *The couple next door are always* ***having rows.*** **2** DISAGREEMENT [C] a disagreement about a political or public situation *A* ***row*** *has erupted* ***over*** *defence policy.* **3** NOISE [**no plural**] very loud noise *The kids were* ***making*** *a terrible* ***row*** *upstairs.*

rowdy /ˈraʊdi/ *adjective* loud and uncontrolled ***rowdy behaviour*** ○ *rowdy football fans*

ˈrow ˌhouse *US* (*UK* **terraced house**) *noun* [C] one of a row of houses that are joined together

ˈrowing ˌboat *UK* (*US* **rowboat** /ˈrəʊbəʊt/) *noun* [C] a small boat moved by oars (= poles with flat ends)

O-key **royal¹** /ˈrɔɪəl/ *adjective* **1** relating to a queen or king and their family *the British* ***royal family*** ○ *a royal visit* **2 Royal** used in the UK as part of the title of a royal person *His Royal Highness, the Duke of York*

royal² /ˈrɔɪəl/ *noun* [C] *informal* a member of a royal family *a book about the royals*

royalist /ˈrɔɪəlɪst/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who supports the principle of having a King or Queen ●**royalist** *adjective*

royalties /ˈrɔɪəltiz/ *noun* [**plural**] FINANCE money that is paid to a writer, actor, etc each time their work is sold or performed *He could receive as much as $1 million* ***in royalties*** *over the next six years.*

royalty /ˈrɔɪəlti/ *noun* [U] POLITICS the members of the royal family

RPI /ˌɑːpiːˈaɪ/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] ECONOMICS, FINANCE *abbreviation for* retail price index

RSI /ˌɑːresˈaɪ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH *abbreviation for* repetitive strain injury: a painful medical condition which can damage the hands, arms and backs of people, especially people who use computers

résumé /ˈrezəmeɪ/ *US* (*UK* **CV**) *noun* [C] a document which describes your qualifications and the jobs that you have done, which you send to an employer that you want to work for

RSVP /ˌɑːresviːˈpiː/ used at the end of a written invitation to mean 'please answer' *RSVP by October 9th*

rub¹ /rʌb/ *verb* **rubbing**, *past* **rubbed 1** PRESS YOUR HANDS [T] to press your hand or a cloth on a surface and move it backwards and forwards *She rubbed her hands together to warm them.* ○ *Rub the stain with a damp cloth.* **2 rub sth into/on, etc** to move a substance backwards and forwards over a surface so that it covers it and goes into it *I rubbed some suntan oil on her back.* ○ *Rub the butter into the flour.* **3** TOUCH [I, T] to touch and move against something, often causing pain or damage *My new boots are rubbing against my toes.* **4 rub it in** *informal* to upset someone by talking to them about something which you know they want to forget ➲See also: rub shoulders (**shoulder¹**) with sb, rub sb up the wrong **way¹**

R

rub off *phrasal verb* If a quality or characteristic of a particular person rubs off, other people begin to have it because they have been with that person. *His enthusiasm is starting to* ***rub off on*** *the rest of us.*
rub sth out *phrasal verb UK* to remove writing from something by rubbing it with a piece of rubber or a cloth

rub² /rʌb/ *noun* [C] when you rub something [**usually singular**] *Give it a rub and it'll feel better.*

rubber /ˈrʌbəʳ/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [U] a strong material that bends easily, originally produced from the juice of a tropical tree, and used to make tyres, boots, etc **2** PENCIL [C] *UK* (*US* **eraser**) a small object which is used to remove pencil marks from paper ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ˌrubber ˈband (*also UK* **elastic band**) *noun* [C] a thin circle of rubber used to hold things together

ˌrubber ˈboot *noun* [C] *US* (*UK* **wellies** [**plural**]) a large shoe made of rubber that covers your foot and part of your leg

rubber-stamp /ˌrʌbəˈstæmp/ *verb* [T] to officially approve a decision or plan without thinking very much about it

rubbery /ˈrʌbəri/ *adjective* feeling or bending like rubber *a rubbery piece of meat*

rubbish¹ /ˈrʌbɪʃ/ *noun* [U] *mainly UK* **1** WASTE things that you throw away because you do not want them *Our rubbish gets collected on Thursdays.* ○ *a rubbish dump/bin* **2** NONSENSE something that is nonsense or wrong *Ignore him, he's talking rubbish.* **3** BAD QUALITY *informal* something that is of bad quality *There's so much rubbish on TV.*

rubbish² /ˈrʌbɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to criticize someone or something *I wish you wouldn't rubbish everything about the concert - I really enjoyed it!*

rubbish³ /ˈrʌbɪʃ/ *adjective informal* disappointing or of very bad quality *I got a rubbish mark for chemistry.*

rubble /ˈrʌbl/ *noun* [U] pieces of broken bricks from a building that has been destroyed *a pile of rubble*

rubella /ruːˈbelə/ (*also* **German measles**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a disease which causes red spots on your skin

rubric /ˈruːbrɪk/ *noun* [C] a set of instructions or an explanation, especially in an examination paper or book

ruby /ˈruːbi/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a valuable red stone which is used in jewellery

rucksack /ˈrʌksæk/ *noun* [C] *UK* a bag that you carry on your back ➲See picture at **bag**

rudder /ˈrʌdəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that changes the direction of a boat or aircraft

ruddy /ˈrʌdi/ *adjective* A ruddy face is red. *ruddy cheeks*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***rude***

If someone is slightly rude or behaves without respect in a way that is funny, you might describe them as **cheeky** (*UK*): *You asked your teacher how old she was? That was a bit* ***cheeky****!*

A more formal alternative to 'rude' is the world **impolite**: *She asks direct questions without being in any way* ***impolite****.*

If someone is rude or does not show respect to a person who is older or has more authority than they do, they might be described as **impertinent** or **insolent**: *It was clear that they found his questions* ***impertinent****.*

The adjective **abrasive** describes someone's manner when they are rude and unfriendly: *I found him rather* ***abrasive****.*

A person who is rude and unpleasant is sometimes described as **uncouth**: *She found him loud-mouthed and* ***uncouth****.*

Language which is rude, referring to the body in an unpleasant way can be described as **vulgar** or **crude**: *He told a rather* ***vulgar*** *joke over dinner.*

rude /ruːd/ *adjective* **1** OFFENSIVE behaving in a way which is not polite and upsets other people *a rude remark* ○ *He complained that a member of staff had been* ***rude to*** *him.* [+ **to do sth**] *It would be rude to leave without saying goodbye.* **2** SEXUAL/TOILET Rude words or jokes relate to sex or going to the toilet. ●**rudely** *adverb* ●**rudeness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: a rude **awakening**

rudiments /ˈruːdɪmənts/ *noun formal* **the rudiments of sth** the most basic parts or principles of something ●**rudimentary** /ˌruːdɪˈmentʳri/ *adjective formal* very basic

rueful /ˈruːfʳl/ *adjective* showing slight sadness about something but not in a serious way *a* ***rueful smile*** ●**ruefully** *adverb*

ruffle /ˈrʌfl/ *verb* [T] If someone ruffles your hair, they rub it gently. *He* ***ruffled*** *my* ***hair*** *and kissed me.*

rug /rʌg/ *noun* [C] **1** FLOOR a soft piece of material used to cover the floor *The dog was lying on the rug in front of the fire.* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** COVER *UK* a soft cover that keeps you warm or comfortable

rugby /ˈrʌgbi/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport played by two teams with an oval ball and H-shaped goals *a rugby player* ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

rugged /ˈrʌgɪd/ *adjective* **1** LAND If an area of land is rugged, it looks rough and has lots of rocks. *a* ***rugged coastline*** **2** MAN If a man looks rugged, his face looks strong and attractive. *a rugged face*

ruin¹ /ˈruːɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** SPOIL to spoil or destroy something [**often passive**] *They were late and the dinner was ruined.* **2** LOSING to cause someone to lose all their money or their job *If the newspapers get hold of this story they'll ruin him.*

ruin² /ˈruːɪn/ *noun* **1** DESTRUCTION [U] the destruction of something *Fonthill Abbey* ***fell into ruin*** *10 years after it was built.* **2** BROKEN BUILDING [C] the broken parts that are left from an

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old building or town *Thousand of tourists wander around these* ***ancient ruins*** *every year.* **3** LOSING EVERYTHING [U] when someone loses everything such as all their money or their job *The collapse of the bank has left many people* ***in*** *financial* ***ruin.*** **4 be/lie in ruins** to be in a very bad state *The war left one million people dead and the country in ruins.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rule***

apply/break/enforce/establish a rule ● a rule **forbids/prohibits** sth ● a **strict/unwritten** rule ● a rule **against** sth

O-➡**rule¹** /ruːl/ *noun* **1** INSTRUCTION [C] an official instruction about what you must or must not do *to* ***break*** (= not obey) *the* ***rules.*** ○ *to* ***obey/follow*** *the* ***rules*** ○ *You can't smoke at school, it's* ***against the rules*** (= not allowed). **2** LEADER [U] when someone is in control of a country *military rule* ○ *There have been reports of immense human suffering* ***under his rule.*** **3** USUAL WAY [**no plural**] the usual way something is *an exception to the rule* ○ *Workers in the North are,* ***as a rule,*** *paid less than those in the South.* **4** PRINCIPLE [C] a principle of a system, such as a language or science *the rules of grammar* **5 a rule of thumb** a way of calculating something, which is not exact but which will help you to be correct enough **6 bend/stretch the rules** to allow someone to do something which is not usually allowed *We don't usually let students take books home, but I'll bend the rules on this occasion.* ➲See also: **ground rules**

rule² /ruːl/ *verb* [I, T] **1 LAW** to make an official legal decision [+ **(that)**] *The judge ruled that it was wrong for a 16-year-old girl to be held in an adult prison.* **2 POLITICS** to be in control of somewhere, usually a country [**often passive**] *They were ruled for many years by a dictator.* ○ *the ruling party* ➲See also: rule the **roost**

rule sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to decide that something or someone is not suitable for a particular purpose, or to decide that something is impossible *The police have not ruled him out as a suspect.*

ruler /ˈruːlər/ *noun* [C] **1** LEADER the leader of a country **2** MEASURING a flat, straight stick which is used to measure things ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ruling /ˈruːlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** an official legal decision, usually made by a judge

rum /rʌm/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a strong, alcoholic drink made from sugar

rumble /ˈrʌmbl/ *verb* [I] to make a deep, long sound *The smell of cooking made his* ***stomach rumble.*** ●**rumble** *noun* [**no plural**] *the distant* ***rumble of thunder***

rumbling /ˈrʌmblɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a deep, long sound *the rumbling of a train passing by*

rumblings /ˈrʌmblɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] signs that people are angry about something *rumblings of discontent*

rummage /ˈrʌmɪdʒ/ *verb* **rummage around/in/through, etc** to search inside something and move things around *I found him rummaging through my drawers.*

ˈrummage ˌsale *US* (*UK* **jumble sale**) *noun* [C] a sale of old items, especially clothes, usually to make money for an organization

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rumour***

fuel/spark/spread/start rumours ● **deny/dismiss/hear** rumours ● a rumour **circulates/goes around** ● a **persistent/strong/unconfirmed** rumour ● a rumour **about/of** sth

rumour¹ *UK* (*US* **rumor**) /ˈruːmər/ *noun* [C] a fact that a lot of people are talking about although they do not know if it is true *to* ***spread rumours*** ○ *to* ***deny rumours*** [+ **(that)**] *I* ***heard a rumour*** *that you were leaving.*

rumour² *UK* (*US* **rumor**) /ˈruːmər/ *verb* **be rumoured** If a fact is rumoured, people are talking about it although they do not know if it is true. [+ **(that)**] *It's rumoured that the company director is about to resign.* [+ **to do sth**] *The company is rumoured to be in financial difficulty.*

rump /rʌmp/ *noun* [C] the area above an animal's back legs

rumpled /ˈrʌmpld/ *adjective* Rumpled clothes or sheets are untidy because they have folds in them.

O-➡**run¹** /rʌn/ *verb* **running**, *past tense* **ran**, *past participle* **run** **1** MOVE FAST [I, T] to move on your feet at a faster speed than walking *He* ***ran away*** *when I tried to pick him up.* [+ **to do sth**] *We had to run to catch up with him.* ○ *I run about three miles every morning.* **2** ORGANIZE [T] to organize or control something *She ran her own restaurant for five years.* **3 run sb/sth to/down, etc** to take someone or something somewhere, usually by car *Could you run me to the station this afternoon?* **4** WORKING [I, T] If a piece of equipment is running, it is switched on and working, and if you run it, you switch it on and make it work. *The engine is running more smoothly now.* **5 COMPUTING** [T] If you run a computer program, you use it on your computer. *Did you run a virus check this morning?* **6** TRAVELLING [I] If trains or buses are running, they are available to travel on. *The buses only run until 11 p.m.* **7** LIQUID [I] If liquid runs somewhere, it flows. *Tears ran down her face.* **8** PUBLISH [T] to publish something in a newspaper or magazine *All the papers are* ***running*** *this* ***story*** *on the front page.* **9 run a bath** *UK* to fill a bath with water so that it is ready to use **10 run sth along/over/through, etc sth** to move something along, over, or through something else *She ran her fingers through her hair.* **11 run through/down/along, etc** If something long and narrow runs somewhere, it is in that position. *There are wires running across the floor.* **12** CONTINUE [I] If a play, film, etc runs for a period of time, it continues that long. **13 run in sb's/the family** If a quality, ability, disease, etc runs in the family, many members of the family have it. *A love of animals runs in our family.* **14** COLOUR [I] If a colour runs, it comes out of some material when it is washed. **15 be running at sth** to be at a particular level *Inflation is now running at 5.8%.* ➲See also: cast/run your/an **eye**¹ over sth, run the **gauntlet**, run **riot**¹, run out of **steam**¹, run **wild**¹

run across sb *phrasal verb* to meet someone

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you know when you are not expecting to *I ran across Jim in town the other day.*
run after sb/sth *phrasal verb* to chase someone or something that is moving away from you
run around *phrasal verb* to be very busy doing a lot of different things *I'm exhausted, I've been running around all morning.*
run away *phrasal verb* to secretly leave a place because you are unhappy there *to **run away from home***
run sth by sb *phrasal verb* to tell someone about something so that they can give their opinion about it *Can I run something by you, Sam?*
run sb/sth down *phrasal verb informal* to criticize someone or something, often unfairly
run for sth *phrasal verb* **POLITICS** to compete in an election *He's running for mayor again this year.*
run into sb *phrasal verb* to meet someone you know when you are not expecting to *I ran into Emma on my way home.*
run into sth *phrasal verb* **1** HIT to hit something while you are driving a vehicle *He skidded and ran into a tree.* **2** REACH A LEVEL If an amount runs into thousands, millions, etc, it reaches that level. **3** PROBLEMS If you run into difficulties, you begin to experience them. *to run into trouble*
run off *phrasal verb informal* to leave somewhere unexpectedly *He **ran off with** all my money.*
run on sth *phrasal verb* If a machine runs on a supply of power, it uses that power to work. *The scanner runs on mains electricity and batteries.*
run out *phrasal verb* **1** USE to use all of something so that there is none left *I've nearly **run out of** money.* **2** BE USED If a supply of something runs out, there is none left because it has all been used. *Come on, time is running out.*
run sb/sth over *phrasal verb* to hit someone or something with a vehicle and drive over them, injuring or killing them *He was run over by a bus as he crossed the road.*
run through sth *phrasal verb* to repeat something in order to practise it or to make sure that it is correct *I just need to run through my speech one more time.*
run sth up *phrasal verb* If you run up a debt, you do things which cause you to owe a large amount of money.
run up against sth *phrasal verb* If you run up against problems or difficulties, you begin to experience them.

run² /rʌn/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] when you move on your feet at a speed faster than walking as a sport [**usually singular**] *to **go for a run*** **2** **SPORT** [C] in cricket or baseball, a single point *to score a run* **3 a dummy/practice/trial run** when you do something to practise it before the real time **4 a run of sth** when something happens several times without something different happening during that period *a run of 10 games without a win* ○ *a **run of good/bad luck*** **5** [C] a period of performances of a play, film, etc **6 be on the run** to be trying to avoid being caught, especially by the police **7 make a run for it** *informal* to suddenly run fast in order to escape from somewhere **8 in the long/short run** at a time that is far away or near in the future

runaway¹ /ˈrʌnəˌweɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1 a runaway success/victory/winner, etc** something good that happens very quickly or easily **2** A runaway vehicle is moving away from somewhere without anyone controlling it. *a runaway car/train*

runaway² /ˈrʌnəˌweɪ/ *noun* [C] someone who has secretly left a place because they are unhappy there *teenage runaways*

run-down /ˌrʌnˈdaʊn/ *adjective* Run-down buildings or areas are in very bad condition. *a run-down housing estate*

rundown /ˈrʌndaʊn/ *noun* [**no plural**] a report of the main facts relating to a subject *He **gave** us **a rundown on** what happened at the meeting.*

rung¹ /rʌŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] one of the horizontal parts across a ladder (= structure for climbing up) **2 the first/highest/next, etc rung of the ladder** the first, highest, next, etc position, especially in society or in a job *She's on the bottom rung of the management ladder.*

rung² /rʌŋ/ *past participle of* ring²

run-in /ˈrʌnɪn/ *noun* [C] *informal* an argument *to have a run-in with someone*

runner /ˈrʌnəʳ/ *noun* **1** **SPORT** [C] someone who runs, usually in competitions *a long-distance runner* **2 drug/gun runner** someone who takes drugs or guns illegally from one place to another ➲See also: **front-runner**

ˌrunner ˈbean *UK* (*US* **ˈrunner ˌbean**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a long, flat, green bean

runner-up /ˌrʌnəʳˈʌp/ *noun* [C] *plural* **runners-up** **SPORT** someone who finishes in second position in a competition

running¹ /ˈrʌnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** **SPORT** the sport of moving on your feet at a speed faster than walking *I **go running** three times a week.* ○ *running shoes* ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14 **2** the activity of controlling or looking after something *He has recently handed over the **day-to-day running** of the museum to his daughter.* ○ ***running costs***

running² /ˈrʌnɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] continuing for a long time *a **running battle*** ○ *a **running joke*** **2 second/third, etc day/week, etc running** If something happens for the second/third, etc day/week, etc running, it happens on that number of regular occasions without changing. *He's won the Championship for the fifth year running.* **3 running water** If a place has running water, it has a working water system.

runny /ˈrʌni/ *adjective* **1** A runny substance is more liquid than usual. *runny egg* **2 runny nose** **HEALTH** If you have a runny nose, your nose is producing liquid all the time.

run-of-the-mill /ˌrʌnəvðəˈmɪl/ *adjective* ordinary and not special or exciting in any way *He gave a fairly run-of-the-mill speech.*

run-up /ˈrʌnʌp/ *noun* **the run-up to sth** *UK* the period of time before an event *Sales increased by 15% in the run-up to Christmas.*

runway /ˈrʌnweɪ/ *noun* [C] a large road that aircraft use to land on or to start flying from

R

rupture /ˈrʌptʃər/ *verb* [I, T] If you rupture something, you break or tear it, and if something ruptures, it breaks or tears. *He fell and ruptured a ligament in his knee.* ●**rupture** *noun* [C]

rural /ˈrʊərəl/ *adjective* relating to the countryside and not to towns *a rural area*

ruse /ruːz/ *noun* [C] a way of deceiving someone so that they do something that you want them to do [+ **to do sth**] *The story was just a ruse to get her out of the house.*

rush[1] /rʌʃ/ *verb* **1** HURRY [I, T] to hurry or move quickly somewhere, or to make someone or something hurry or move quickly somewhere *We **rushed out** into the street to see what all the noise was.* ○ *The UN has **rushed** medical supplies **to** the war zone.* [+ **to do sth**] *We had to rush to catch the bus.* **2 rush to do sth** to do something quickly and enthusiastically *His friends rushed to congratulate him after the ceremony.* **3** FORCE ACTION [T] to make someone do something more quickly than they want to do it [+ **into + doing sth**] *I refuse to be rushed into making a decision.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***rush***

a **frantic/headlong/last-minute/mad** rush
● a rush **for** sth

rush[2] /rʌʃ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** MOVEMENT when something suddenly moves somewhere quickly *a rush of air* **2** ACTIVITY a lot of things happening or a lot of people trying to do something [+ **to do sth**] *There was a **mad rush** to get tickets for the concert.* **3** HURRY when you have to hurry or move somewhere quickly *I'm sorry I can't talk now, I'm **in a rush**.*

rushes /rʌʃɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] tall plants that grow near water

ˈrush ˌhour *noun* [C, U] the time when a lot of people are travelling to or from work and so roads and trains are very busy *the **morning/evening rush hour***

rust /rʌst/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a dark orange substance that you get on metal when it has been damaged by air and water ●**rust** *verb* [I, T]

rustic /ˈrʌstɪk/ *adjective* simple and old-fashioned in style in a way that is typical of the countryside

rustle /ˈrʌsl/ *verb* [I, T] If things such as paper or leaves rustle, or if you rustle them, they move about and make a soft, dry sound. *Outside, the trees rustled in the wind.*
rustle up sth *phrasal verb* to produce something very quickly *I managed to rustle up a meal from the bits and pieces I found in his fridge.*

rusty /ˈrʌsti/ *adjective* **1** METAL Rusty metal has rust (= an orange substance) on its surface. *rusty nails* **2** SKILL If a skill you had is now rusty, it is not now good because you have forgotten it. *My French is a bit rusty.*

rut /rʌt/ *noun* **1 in a rut** in a bad situation where you do the same things all the time, or where it is impossible to make progress *He seems to be **stuck in a rut** at the moment.* **2** [C] a deep, narrow mark in the ground made by a wheel

ruthless /ˈruːθləs/ *adjective* not caring if you hurt or upset other people when you try to get what you want *ruthless ambition* ○ *a ruthless dictator* ●**ruthlessly** *adverb* ●**ruthlessness** *noun* [U]

rye /raɪ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a plant that has grains which are used to make things such as bread and whisky (= strong alcoholic drink) *rye bread*

R

Ss

S, s /es/ the nineteenth letter of the alphabet

the Sabbath /ˈsæbəθ/ *noun* **RELIGION** a day of the week that many religious groups use for prayer and rest

sabbatical /səˈbætɪkᵊl/ *noun* [**C, U**] **EDUCATION** a period when a university teacher does not do their usual work and instead travels or studies *He was **on sabbatical** last year.*

sabotage /ˈsæbətɑːʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** DAMAGE to damage or destroy something in order to prevent an enemy from using it *Rebels sabotaged the roads and bridges.* **2** PREVENT SUCCESS to spoil someone's plans or efforts in order to prevent them from being successful *She tried to sabotage my chances of getting the job.* ●**sabotage** *noun* [**U**] *an act of sabotage*

sac /sæk/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a part in an animal or plant that is like a small bag

saccharin /ˈsækərɪn/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a sweet, chemical substance that is used in food instead of sugar

sachet /ˈsæʃeɪ/ (US) /sæˈʃeɪ/ *noun* [**C**] a small bag containing a small amount of something *sachets of sugar and coffee powder*

sack¹ /sæk/ *noun* **1** [**C**] a large bag made of paper, plastic, or cloth and used to carry or store things **2 the sack** *UK* When someone gets the sack or is given the sack, they are told to leave their job. *He got the sack from his last job.*

sack² /sæk/ *verb* [**T**] *UK* to tell someone to leave their job, usually because they have done something wrong *He was sacked for being late.*

sacrament /ˈsækrəmənt/ *noun* [**C**] **RELIGION** an important religious ceremony in the Christian Church *the sacrament of marriage*

sacred /ˈseɪkrɪd/ *adjective* **1 RELIGION** relating to a religion or considered to be holy *sacred music* ○ *a sacred object* **2** too important to be changed or destroyed *I don't work at weekends - my private time is sacred.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sacrifice***

make (great/huge) sacrifices ● sacrifices **for** sb/sth ● the sacrifice **of** sth

sacrifice¹ /ˈsækrɪfaɪs/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** something valuable that you give up in order to achieve something, or the act of giving it up *Sometimes you have to **make sacrifices** to succeed.* **2 RELIGION** something offered to a god in a religious ceremony, especially an animal that is killed, or the act of offering it ➲See also: **self-sacrifice**

sacrifice² /ˈsækrɪfaɪs/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to give up something that is valuable to you in order to achieve something *There are thousands of men ready to **sacrifice** their lives **for** their country.* **2 RELIGION** to kill an animal and offer it to a god in a religious ceremony

sacrilege /ˈsækrɪlɪdʒ/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] when you treat something that is holy or important without respect

sacrosanct /ˈsækrəʊsæŋkt/ *adjective formal* too important to be changed or destroyed *Human life is sacrosanct.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***sad***

Unhappy and **miserable** mean the same as 'sad': *She'd had a very **unhappy** childhood.* ● *I just woke up feeling **miserable**.*

If someone is **upset**, they are unhappy because something bad has happened: *They'd had an argument and she was still **upset** about it.* ● *Mike got very **upset** when I told him the news.*

If someone is **broken-hearted** or **heartbroken** they are very sad because someone they love has ended a relationship with them: *She was **broken-hearted** when Richard left.*

If someone is **devastated** or **distraught**, they are extremely upset: *She was **devastated** when he died.* ● *The missing child's **distraught** parents made an emotional appeal for information on TV.*

The adjective **depressed** is often used when someone is very unhappy for a long time: *She became deeply **depressed** after her husband died.*

sad /sæd/ *adjective* **sadder, saddest 1** NOT HAPPY unhappy or making you feel unhappy *I was very sad when our cat died.* ○ *a sad book/movie* [**+ that**] *It's a bit sad that you'll miss our wedding.* [**+ to do sth**] *I was sad to see him go.* **2** NOT SATISFACTORY [**always before noun**] not pleasant or satisfactory *The sad truth is that we've failed.* **3** NOT FASHIONABLE *UK informal* boring or not fashionable *You enjoy reading timetables? You sad man!* ●**sadness** *noun* [**U**]

sadden /ˈsædᵊn/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* to make someone feel sad or disappointed [**often passive**] *We were saddened by his death.*

saddle¹ /ˈsædl/ *noun* [**C**] **1 SPORT** a leather seat that you put on a horse so that you can ride it ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14 **2** a seat on a bicycle or motorcycle

saddle² /ˈsædl/ (*also* **saddle up**) *verb* [**I, T**] **SPORT** to put a saddle on a horse
saddle sb with sth *phrasal verb* to give someone a job or problem which will cause them a lot of work or difficulty

saddo /ˈsædəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *UK informal* someone, especially a man, who is boring and not fashionable and has no friends

sadistic /səˈdɪstɪk/ *adjective* getting pleasure from being cruel or violent *sadistic behaviour* ○ *a sadistic murderer* ●**sadist** /ˈseɪdɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who gets pleasure from being cruel or violent ●**sadism** /ˈseɪdɪzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**]

sadly /ˈsædli/ *adverb* **1** NOT HAPPY in a sad way *She shook her head sadly.* **2** NOT SATISFACTORY in a way that is not satisfactory *Enthusiasm has been **sadly lacking** these past few months at work.* **3** SORRY used to say that you are sorry something is true *Sadly, the marriage did not last.*

sae, SAE /ˌeseɪˈiː/ *noun* [C] *UK abbreviation for* stamped addressed envelope or self-addressed envelope: an envelope that you put a stamp and your own address on and send to someone so that they can send you something back

safari /səˈfɑːri/ *noun* [C, U] a journey, usually to Africa, to see or hunt wild animals *She is **on safari** in Kenya.*

O-key **safe¹** /seɪf/ *adjective* **1** NOT DANGEROUS not dangerous or likely to cause harm *a safe driver* ○ *Air travel is generally quite safe.* ○ *We live in a safe neighbourhood.* [+ **to do sth**] *Is it safe to drink the water here?* ➲Opposite **unsafe 2** NOT HARMED not harmed or damaged *She returned **safe and sound*** (= not harmed in any way). **3** NOT IN DANGER not in danger or likely to be harmed *During the daylight hours we're **safe from** attack.* **4 safe to say** If it is safe to say something, you are sure it is correct. *I think it's safe to say that he'll be the next president.* **5 a safe place; somewhere safe** a place where something will not be lost or stolen *It's very valuable so put it somewhere safe.* **6 play (it) safe** *informal* to be careful and not take risks ●**safely** *adverb Make sure you drive safely.* ● *I can safely say* (= I am certain) I have never met anyone as rude as him. ➲See also: a safe **bet²**

safe² /seɪf/ *noun* [C] a strong metal box or cupboard with locks where you keep money, jewellery, and other valuable things

safeguard¹ /ˈseɪfɡɑːd/ *verb* [T] to protect something from harm *a plan to safeguard public health*
safeguard against sth *phrasal verb* to do things that you hope will stop something unpleasant from happening *A good diet will safeguard against disease.*

safeguard² /ˈseɪfɡɑːd/ *noun* [C] a law, rule, or system that protects people or things from being harmed or lost

ˌsafe ˈhaven *noun* [C] a place where someone is safe from danger

ˌsafe ˈsex *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when people have sex using a condom (= a thin rubber covering that a man wears on his penis) so that they do not catch a disease

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***safety***

ensure/guarantee sb's safety ● safety is **paramount**

O-key **safety** /ˈseɪfti/ *noun* [U] **1** BEING SAFE when you are safe *food/road safety* ○ *The hostages were led to safety* (= to a safe place). ○ *a safety valve* **2** HOW SAFE SOMETHING IS how safe something is *Safety at the factory has been improved.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **security**

ˈsafety ˌbelt *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that keeps you fastened to your seat when you are travelling in a vehicle *Please **fasten** your **safety belt** for take-off.*

ˈsafety ˌnet *noun* [C] **1** SYSTEM a plan or system that will help you if you get into a difficult situation *Legal aid provides a safety net for people who can't afford a lawyer.* **2** NET a net that will catch someone if they fall from a high place

ˈsafety ˌpin *noun* [C] a pin with a round cover that fits over the sharp end

saffron /ˈsæfrən/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a yellow powder that is used as a spice

sag /sæɡ/ *verb* [I] **sagging**, *past* **sagged 1** SINK to sink or bend down *Our mattress sags in the middle.* **2** BECOME WEAKER *informal* to become weaker or less successful *a sagging economy*

saga /ˈsɑːɡə/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a long story about a lot of people or events

sagacious /səˈɡeɪʃəs/ *adjective literary* having or showing understanding and the ability to make good decisions and judgments

sage /seɪdʒ/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [U] a herb whose leaves are used to give flavour to food **2** [C] *literary* a wise person

Sagittarius /ˌsædʒɪˈteəriəs/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 22 November - 22 December, or a person born during this period

said /sed/ *past of* say

sail¹ /seɪl/ *verb* **1** TRAVEL [I] to travel in a boat or a ship *We sailed to Malta.* **2** CONTROL BOAT [I, T] to control a boat that has no engine and is pushed by the wind *She sailed the small boat through the storm.* **3** START JOURNEY [I] When a ship sails, it starts its journey, and if people sail from a particular place or at a particular time, they start their journey. *This ship sails weekly from Florida to the Bahamas.* **4 sail over/past/through, etc** to move quickly through the air *The ball sailed past me.*
sail through (sth) *phrasal verb* to succeed very easily, especially in a test or competition *She sailed through her exams.*

sail² /seɪl/ *noun* **1** [C] a large piece of material that is fixed to a pole on a boat to catch the wind and make the boat move **2 set sail** to start a journey by boat or ship

sailboat /ˈseɪlbəʊt/ *noun* [C] *US* a small boat with sails

sailing /ˈseɪlɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [U] **SPORT** a sport using boats with sails *(UK) a sailing boat* **2 be plain sailing** to be very easy

sailor /ˈseɪlər/ *noun* [C] someone who sails ships or boats as their job or as a sport

saint /seɪnt/ *noun* [C] **1 RELIGION** a dead person who has been officially respected by the Christian church for living their life in a holy way *Catherine of Siena was **made a saint** in 1461.* **2** a very kind or helpful person ➲See also: **patron saint**

saintly /ˈseɪntli/ *adjective* very good and kind

sake /seɪk/ *noun* **1 for the sake of sth** for this reason or purpose *For the sake of convenience, they combined the two departments.* **2 for the sake of sb** in order to help or please someone *He begged her to stay for the sake of the children.* **3 for God's/goodness/heaven's, etc sake** something you say when you are angry about something *For heaven's sake, stop moaning!*

O-key **salad** /ˈsæləd/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a cold mixture of vegetables that have not been cooked, usually eaten with meat, cheese, etc *I made a big salad for lunch.* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

S

salami /sə'lɑːmi/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a spicy sausage (= tube of meat and spices) that is usually eaten cold in slices

salaried /'sælᵊrid/ *adjective* **FINANCE** receiving a fixed amount of money from your employer, usually every month

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***salary***

earn a salary ● a **good/high/top** salary ● an **annual** salary ● a salary **cut/increase/rise**

salary /'sælᵊri/ *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** a fixed amount of money that you receive from your employer, usually every month ➲See Common Learner Error at **pay**

sale /seɪl/ *noun* **FINANCE** **1** [U, no plural] the act of selling something, or the time when something is sold *The sale of alcohol is now banned.* ○ *to* ***make a sale*** **2 (up) for sale** available to buy *For sale: ladies bicycle - good condition.* ○ *The house next to mine is up for sale.* **3 on sale a** *UK* available to buy in a shop *The video and book are now on sale.* **b** available for a lower price than usual *This album was on sale for half price.* **4** [C] an event where things are sold *a sale of used books* **5** [C] a time when a shop sells goods at a lower price than usual *UK I bought this dress* ***in the sale.*** ➲See also: **car boot sale, jumble sale**

saleable /'seɪləbl/ *adjective* Something that is saleable can be sold easily. *He's painted some very saleable landscapes.*

sales /seɪlz/ *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** **1** the number of items sold *Our sales have doubled this year.* **2** the part of a company that deals with selling things *I used to work* ***in sales.*** ○ *a* ***sales department***

ˈsales acˌcount *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of the goods it has sold

ˈsales asˌsistant (*also US* **ˈsales ˌclerk**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is selling things in a shop

ˈsales ˌjournal (*also* **sales book, sales day book**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of the dates on which sales were made, the names of the customers and the amounts of the sales

ˈsales ˌledger (*also* **debtors ledger**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business keeps of how much each customer owes

salesman, saleswoman /'seɪlzmən, ˈseɪlzˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **salesmen, saleswomen** someone whose job is selling things

salesperson /'seɪlzˌpɜːsᵊn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **salespeople** someone whose job is selling things

ˈsales ˌrep (*formal* **sales representative**) *noun* [C] someone who travels to different places trying to persuade people to buy their company's products or services

ˈsales reˌturns (*also* **returns inward**) *noun* [plural] **ECONOMICS** when a customer returns goods to your company, for example because they are damaged or not needed

salient /'seɪliənt/ *adjective formal* The salient facts about something or qualities of something are the most important things about them.

saline /'seɪlaɪn/ US /'seɪliːn/ *adjective formal* **CHEMISTRY** containing salt *saline solution*

saliva /sə'laɪvə/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the liquid that is made in your mouth

salivary duct /sə'laɪvəriˌdʌkt/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** a small tube that takes saliva into the mouth ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

salivary gland /sə'laɪvəriˌglænd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the body parts that produce saliva (= liquid in the mouth) ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

sallow /'sæləʊ/ *adjective* Sallow skin is slightly yellow and does not look healthy.

salmon /'sæmən/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **salmon** **FOOD** a large, silver fish, or the pink meat of this fish *fresh/smoked salmon*

salmonella /ˌsælmə'nelə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a type of bacteria which can make you very ill, sometimes found in food that is not cooked enough

salon /'sælɒn/ *noun* [C] a shop where you can have your hair cut or have your appearance improved *a* ***hair salon*** ➲See also: **beauty salon**

saloon /sə'luːn/ *noun* [C] **1** CAR *UK* (*US* **sedan**) a large car with a separate, closed area for bags **2** BAR *US old-fashioned* a public bar

salsa /'sælsə/ *noun* [U] **1** **FOOD** a cold, spicy sauce **2** **MUSIC** a type of dance and music from Latin America *a salsa club*

salt¹ /sɔːlt, sɒlt/ *noun* [U] **1** **FOOD** a white substance used to add flavour to food *salt and pepper* **2 take sth with a pinch of salt** *UK* (*US* **take sth with a grain of salt**) to not completely believe something that someone tells you

salt² /sɔːlt, sɒlt/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to add salt to food

ˈsalt ˌcellar *UK* (*US* **ˈsaltˌshaker**) *noun* [C] a small container with holes in for shaking salt on food

saltwater /'sɔːltˌwɔːtəʳ/ *adjective* [always before noun] living in or containing water that has salt in it *a saltwater fish*

salty /'sɔːlti/ *adjective* **FOOD** tasting of or containing salt *Is the soup too salty?*

salute¹ /sə'luːt/ *noun* [C] a sign of respect to someone of a higher rank in a military organization, often made by raising the right hand to the side of the head *to* ***give a salute***

salute² /sə'luːt/ *verb* [I, T] to give a salute to someone of a higher rank in a military organization

salvage¹ /'sælvɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** FROM PLACE to save things from a place where other things have been damaged or lost *gold coins salvaged from a shipwreck* **2** FROM SITUATION to try to make a bad situation better *an attempt to salvage her reputation*

salvage² /'sælvɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] when things are saved from being damaged, or the things that are saved *a salvage company*

salvation /sæl'veɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** **RELIGION** in the Christian religion, when God saves someone from the bad effects of evil **2** something or someone that saves you from harm or a very unpleasant situation *Getting a dog was Dad's salvation after Mum died.*

salwar kameez (*also* **shalwar kameez** /sal,wɑːkəˈmiːz/) *noun* [C] a type of suit, worn especially by women in India, with loose trousers and a long shirt ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

same¹ /seɪm/ *adjective, pronoun* **1 the same a** exactly alike *He's **the same** age **as** me.* ○ *We work at the same speed.* ○ *Cars cost **the same** here **as** they do in Europe.* **b** not another different thing or situation *They met at the same place every week.* ○ *You meet the same people at all these events.* **c** not changed *She's the same lively person she's always been.* ○ *He looks exactly **the same as** he did ten years ago.* **2 all/just the same** despite what has just been said *He doesn't earn much. All the same, he ought to pay for some of his own drinks.* **3 Same here.** *informal* something that you say when something another person has said is also true for you *"I think she's awful." "Same here."* **4 the same old arguments/faces/story, etc** *informal* something or someone you have seen or heard many times before **5 same old same old** *informal* used to say that a situation or someone's behaviour remains the same, especially when it it boring or annoying *Most people just keep on doing the same old same old every day.* ➲See also: be in the same **boat**, in the same **vein**, be on the same **wavelength**

same² /seɪm/ *adverb* **the same** in the same way *We treat all our children the same.*

same-sex /ˌseɪmˈseks/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** A same-sex relationship, marriage, etc. is a romantic relationship between two men or two women.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sample***

analyse/collect/take/test a sample ● a sample **of** sth

sample¹ /ˈsɑːmpl/ *noun* [C] **1** SHOW a small amount of something that shows you what it is like *a **free sample** of chocolate* ○ *She brought in some **samples of** her work.* **2** EXAMINE a small amount of a substance that a doctor or scientist collects in order to examine it *a **blood/urine sample*** **3** NUMBER a small number of people from a larger group that is being tested *a sample of 500 male drivers*

sample² /ˈsɑːmpl/ *verb* [T] **1** TASTE to taste a small amount of food or drink to decide if you like it *We sampled eight different cheeses.* **2** EXPERIENCE to experience a place or an activity, often for the first time *an opportunity to sample the local night life*

sanatorium (*also US* **sanitarium**) /ˌsænəˈtɔːriəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sanatoriums** or **sanatoria** **HEALTH** a hospital where people go to rest and get well after a long illness

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sanction***

impose/lift sanctions ● **tough** sanctions ● sanctions **against/on** sb ● **economic/trade** sanctions

sanction¹ /ˈsæŋkʃᵊn/ *noun* **1 POLITICS, LAW** [C] a punishment for not obeying a rule or a law ***economic/trade sanctions** against a country* **2** APPROVAL [U] official approval or permission

sanction² /ˈsæŋkʃᵊn/ *verb* [T] to formally approve of something *He refused to sanction the publication of his private letters.*

sanctity /ˈsæŋktəti/ *noun formal* **the sanctity of life/marriage, etc** when something is very important and deserves respect

sanctuary /ˈsæŋktʃʊəri/ *noun* **1** QUIET [C, U] a quiet and peaceful place *After a busy day, I like to escape to the sanctuary of my garden.* **2** PROTECTION [C, U] a place that provides protection *to **seek sanctuary*** **3 ENVIRONMENT** [C] a place where animals are protected and cannot be hunted *a **bird/wildlife sanctuary***

sand¹ /sænd/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a substance that is found on beaches and in deserts, which is made from very small grains of rock *a grain of sand*

sand² /sænd/ *verb* [T] to make wood smooth by rubbing it with sandpaper (= strong paper with a rough surface)

sandal /ˈsændᵊl/ *noun* [C] a light shoe with straps that you wear in warm weather ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

sand-cast /ˈsændkɑːst/ *verb* [T] **DT** to make something by pouring liquid metal, plastic, etc. into a mould (= hollow container) made of sand ●**sand-cast** *adjective*

sandcastle /ˈsænd,kɑːsl/ *noun* [C] a model of a castle made of wet sand, usually built by children on a beach

ˈsand ˌdune *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a hill of sand in the desert or on the coast

sandpaper /ˈsænd,peɪpəʳ/ *noun* [U] strong paper with a rough surface that is rubbed against wood to make it smooth

sands /sændz/ *noun* [plural] a large area of sand

sandstone /ˈsændstəʊn/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** rock made of sand

sandstorm /ˈsændstɔːm/ *noun* [C] a strong wind in a desert carrying a large amount of sand

sandwich¹ /ˈsænwɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** two slices of bread with meat, cheese, etc between them *a cheese/tuna sandwich* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

sandwich² /ˈsænwɪdʒ/ *verb*
be sandwiched between sth/sb *phrasal verb informal* to be in a small space between two people or things *Andorra is a small country sandwiched between Spain and France.*

sandy /ˈsændi/ *adjective* covered with or containing sand *a **sandy beach***

sane /seɪn/ *adjective* **1** NOT ILL not suffering from mental illness **2** GOOD JUDGMENT [always before noun] showing good judgment *a sane attitude/decision* ➲Opposite **insane**

sang /sæŋ/ *past tense of* sing

sanguine /ˈsæŋgwɪn/ *adjective formal* positive and full of hope *The director is sanguine about the company's prospects.*

sanitarium /ˌsænɪˈteəriəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sanitariums** or **sanitaria** **HEALTH** *another US spelling of* sanatorium (= a hospital where people rest and get well after a long illness)

S

sanitary /ˈsænɪtᵊri/ *adjective* **HEALTH** relating to preventing disease by removing dirt and waste *sanitary conditions*

ˈsanitary ˌtowel *UK* (*US* **ˌsanitary ˈnapkin**) *noun* [**C**] a thick piece of soft paper that a woman wears to absorb blood from her period (= monthly blood from the uterus)

sanitation /ˌsænɪˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** a system for protecting people's health by removing dirt and waste

sanity /ˈsænəti/ *noun* [**U**] **1** JUDGMENT the quality of behaving calmly and showing good judgment *Jogging helps me **keep** my **sanity**.* **2** NOT ILL when you have a healthy mind and are not mentally ill ➲Opposite **insanity**

sank /sæŋk/ *past tense of* sink

sans serif /ˌsænˈserɪf/ *adjective* Sans serif letters have no serifs (= very small lines at the ends of the letters in some styles of printing). ➲Compare **serif**

Santa /ˈsæntə/ (*also* **Santa Claus** /ˈsæntəklɔːz/) *noun* [**no plural**] a kind, fat, old man in red clothes who people say brings presents to children at Christmas

sap¹ /sæp/ *verb* [**T**] **sapping**, *past* **sapped** to gradually make something weak *Ten years of war had **sapped** the country's **strength**.*

sap² /sæp/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the liquid inside plants and trees

sapling /ˈsæplɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** a young tree

sapphire /ˈsæfaɪᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOLOGY** a bright blue, transparent stone

saprophyte /ˈsæprəʊfaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** an organism that lives and feeds on dead and decaying plant and animal matter

sarcasm /ˈsɑːkæzᵊm/ *noun* [**U**] when you say the opposite of what you mean to insult someone or show them that you are annoyed *"Oh, I am sorry," she said, her voice heavy with sarcasm.*

sarcastic /sɑːˈkæstɪk/ *adjective* using sarcasm *a sarcastic comment/remark ○ Are you being sarcastic?* ●**sarcastically** *adverb*

sardine /sɑːˈdiːn/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a small sea fish that you can eat

sari (*also* **saree**) /ˈsɑːri/ *noun* [**C**] a dress, worn especially by women from India and Pakistan, made from a very long piece of thin cloth

SARS /sɑːz/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome: a serious disease that makes it difficult to breathe

SASE /ˌeseɪesˈiː/ *noun* [**C**] *US abbreviation for* self-addressed stamped envelope: an envelope that you put a stamp and your own address on and send to someone so that they can send you something back

sash /sæʃ/ *noun* [**C**] a long, narrow piece of cloth that is worn around the waist or over the shoulder, often as part of a uniform

sassy /ˈsæsi/ *adjective US informal* **1** ENERGETIC very energetic and confident *a smart, sassy young woman* **2** RUDE slightly rude, but not offensive *a sassy remark*

sat /sæt/ *past of* sit

Sat *written abbreviation for* Saturday

Satan /ˈseɪtᵊn/ *noun* [**no plural**] **RELIGION** the Devil (= the enemy of God)

satanic /səˈtænɪk/ *adjective* **RELIGION** relating to the Devil (= the enemy of God) *a satanic cult/ritual*

satchel /ˈsætʃᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] a large bag with a strap that goes over your shoulder, often used for carrying school books ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

satellite /ˈsætᵊlaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a piece of equipment that is sent into space around the Earth to receive and send signals or to collect information *a spy/weather satellite* **2** **ASTRONOMY** a natural object that moves around a planet in space *The moon is the Earth's satellite.*

ˈsatellite ˌdish *noun* [**C**] a round piece of equipment that receives television and radio signals broadcast from satellites

ˌsatellite ˈtelevision (*also* **ˌsatellite TˈV**) *noun* [**U**] television programmes that are broadcast using a satellite

satin /ˈsætɪn/ *noun* [**U**] a smooth, shiny cloth

satire /ˈsætaɪᵊr/ *noun* **1** HUMOUR [**U**] when you use jokes and humour to criticize people or ideas ***political satire*** **2** STORY [**C**] a story, film, etc that uses satire ●**satirist** /ˈsætᵊrɪst/ *noun* [**C**] someone who uses satire

satirical /səˈtɪrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* using satire *a satirical magazine/novel*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***satisfaction***

derive/get satisfaction **from** sth ● sth **gives** sb satisfaction ● **deep/immense** satisfaction ● a **sense of** satisfaction ● **job** satisfaction

satisfaction /ˌsætɪsˈfækʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] **1** the pleasant feeling you have when you get something that you wanted or do something that you wanted to do ***job satisfaction*** ○ *She smiled **with satisfaction**.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *I had the satisfaction of knowing that I'd done everything I could.* **2 to sb's satisfaction** as well as someone wants *He won't get paid until he completes the job to my satisfaction.* ➲Opposite **dissatisfaction**

satisfactory /ˌsætɪsˈfæktᵊri/ *adjective* good enough *We hope very much to find a **satisfactory solution** to the problem.* ➲Opposite **unsatisfactory** ●**satisfactorily** *adverb*

satisfied /ˈsætɪsfaɪd/ *adjective* **1** pleased because you have got what you wanted, or because something has happened in the way that you wanted *Are you **satisfied with** the new arrangement?* ➲Opposite **dissatisfied 2 be satisfied that** If you are satisfied that something is true, you believe it. *The judge was satisfied that she was telling the truth.* ➲See also: **self-satisfied**

satisfy /ˈsætɪsfaɪ/ *verb* **1** [**T**] to please someone by giving them what they want or need *They sell 31 flavours of ice cream - enough to satisfy everyone!* **2 satisfy conditions/needs/requirements, etc** to have or provide something that is needed or wanted *She satisfies all the requirements for the job.* **3 satisfy sb that** to make someone believe that something is true *I satisfied myself that I had locked the door.*

satisfying /ˈsætɪsfaɪɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel pleased by providing what you need or

want *a satisfying meal* ○ *My work is very satisfying*.

SATNAV /ˈsætnæv/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* satellite navigation: a system of computers and satellites (= equipment that is sent into space around the Earth to receive and send signals), used in cars and other places to tell a user where they are or where something is

saturate /ˈsætʃəreɪt/ *verb* [T] **1 be saturated with sth** to be filled with a lot or too much of something *The city is saturated with cheap restaurants*. **2** to make something completely wet *Heavy rain had saturated the playing field*. **3 saturate the market** ECONOMICS to provide so much of a product to be sold that no more can be sold **4** to put as much of a substance that dissolves into a solution as is possible ●**saturation** /ˌsætʃəˈreɪʃn/ *noun* [U]

ˌsaturated ˈfat *noun* [C, U] CHEMISTRY, FOOD a fat found in meat, milk, and eggs, which is thought to be bad for your health ➲Compare **unsaturated fat**

O-K **Saturday** /ˈsætədeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Sat**) *noun* [C, U] the day of the week after Friday and before Sunday

Saturn /ˈsætən/ *noun* [**no plural**] ASTRONOMY the planet that is sixth from the Sun, after Jupiter and before Uranus ➲See picture at **solar system**

O-K **sauce** /sɔːs/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a hot or cold liquid that you put on food to add flavour *pasta with tomato sauce* ➲See also: **soy sauce**

saucepan /ˈsɔːspən/ *noun* [C] a deep, metal pan, usually with a long handle and a lid, that is used to cook food in ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

saucer /ˈsɔːsəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small plate that you put under a cup *a cup and saucer*

saucy /ˈsɔːsi/ *adjective* slightly rude, or referring to sex in a funny way *a saucy postcard/joke*

sauna /ˈsɔːnə/ *noun* [C] **1** a room that is hot and filled with steam where people sit to relax or feel healthy *a gym with a pool and a sauna* **2 have a sauna** to spend time inside a sauna

saunter /ˈsɔːntəʳ/ *verb* **saunter into/over/through, etc** to walk in a slow and relaxed way *He sauntered through the door two hours late*.

sausage /ˈsɒsɪdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a mixture of meat and spices pressed into a long tube

sauté /ˈsəʊteɪ, səʊˈteɪ/ *verb* [T] FOOD to fry food quickly in a small amount of hot oil

savage¹ /ˈsævɪdʒ/ *adjective* **1** VIOLENT extremely violent *a savage attack* **2** SEVERE severe *savage criticism* ●**savagely** *adverb*

savage² /ˈsævɪdʒ/ *verb* [T] **1** ATTACK to attack violently [**often passive**] *A sheep had been savaged by a dog*. **2** CRITICIZE to severely criticize someone or something [**often passive**] *Her performance was savaged by the critics*.

savage³ /ˈsævɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* an offensive word for a person from a country at an early stage of development

savannah (*also* **savanna**) /səˈvænə/ *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY a large flat area of land covered with grass, usually with few trees, which is found in hot countries, especially in Africa

O-K **save¹** /seɪv/ *verb* **1** MAKE SAFE [T] to stop someone or something from being killed or destroyed *He was badly injured, but the doctors **saved** his **life**.* ○ *She **saved** the children **from** drowning.* ○ *He had to borrow money to save his business.* **2** FINANCE [I, T] (*also* **save up**) to keep money so that you can buy something with it in the future *We've **saved** almost $900 **for** our wedding.* ○ *Michael's **saving up for** a new computer.* **3** KEEP [T] to keep something to use in the future *I've **saved** some food **for** you.* **4 save money/space/time, etc** to reduce the amount of money/space/time, etc that you have to use **5 save sb (from) doing sth** to help someone avoid having to do something *We'll eat in a restaurant - it'll save you having to cook*. **6 save files/work, etc** COMPUTING to store work or information electronically on or from a computer **7 save a goal** SPORT to prevent a player from scoring a goal *He saved two goals in the last minute of the game*. ➲See also: save the **day**, lose/save **face**¹

save on sth *phrasal verb* to avoid using something so that you do not have to pay for it *She walks to work to save on bus fares*.

save² /seɪv/ *noun* [C] SPORT when someone prevents a goal from being scored in a sport *The goalkeeper **made** a great **save**.*

saver /ˈseɪvəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE someone who saves money in a bank

saving /ˈseɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [C] *UK* (*US* **savings**) FINANCE when you pay less money than you would usually have to [**usually singular**] *a saving of £20*.

savings /ˈseɪvɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] FINANCE money that you have saved, usually in a bank *I spent all my savings on a new kitchen.* ○ *a **savings account***

ˈsavings acˌcount *noun* [C] *US* FINANCE a bank account where you keep money that you want to save

savings and ˈloan associˌation *US* (*UK* **building society**) *noun* [C] FINANCE a bank that is owned by the people who keep their money in it and that lets them borrow money to buy a house

saviour *UK* (*US* **savior**) /ˈseɪvjəʳ/ *noun* **1** [C] someone who saves someone or something from harm or difficulty **2 the Saviour** RELIGION in Christianity, Jesus Christ

savour *UK* (*US* **savor**) /ˈseɪvəʳ/ *verb* [T] to enjoy food or a pleasant experience as much and as slowly as possible *to savour a meal* ○ *We savoured our moment of victory*.

savoury *UK* (*US* **savory**) /ˈseɪvəri/ *adjective* FOOD Savoury food is not sweet. *savoury biscuits*

savvy /ˈsævi/ *noun* [U] *informal* practical knowledge and ability ***business/political savvy*** ●**savvy** *adjective informal* having knowledge and ability *a savvy consumer*

saw¹ /sɔː/ *noun* [C] a tool with a sharp edge that you use to cut wood or other hard material ●**saw** *verb* [I, T] *past tense* **sawed**, *past participle* **sawn**, *mainly US* **sawed** to use a saw *They sawed the door in half*.

saw² /sɔː/ *past tense of* see

S

sawdust /ˈsɔːdʌst/ *noun* [U] very small pieces of wood and powder that are produced when you cut wood with a saw

saxophone /ˈsæksəfəʊn/ (*also* **sax** *informal*) *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a metal musical instrument that you play by blowing into it and pressing keys to produce different notes ●**saxophonist** /sækˈsɒfᵊnɪst/ (US) /ˈsæksəfəʊnɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who plays the saxophone

O-key **say¹** /seɪ/ *verb* [T] **says** *past* **said 1** WORDS to speak words *"I'd like to go home," she said.* ○ *I couldn't hear what they were saying.* ○ *How do you say this word?* **2** TELL to tell someone about a fact, thought, or opinion [**+ question word**] *Did she say where she was going?* [**+ (that)**] *The jury said that he was guilty.* **3** INFORMATION to give information in writing, numbers, or signs *My watch says one o'clock.* ○ *What do the papers say about the election?* **4 say sth to yourself** to think something but not speak *"I hope she likes me," he said to himself.* **5** SHOW to show what you think without using words *His smile seemed to say that I was forgiven.* **6 (let's) say...** used to introduce a suggestion or possible example of something *Say you were offered a better job in another city - would you take it?* **7 You can say that again!** *informal* used to show that you completely agree with something that someone has just said *"That was a very bad movie!" "You can say that again!"* **8 it goes without saying** If something goes without saying, it is generally accepted or understood. *It goes without saying that smoking is harmful to your health.* ➲See also: Say **cheese**!, easier (**easy²**) said than done

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

say or **tell?**

Say can refer to any type of speech.

"Good night," she said.

She said she was unhappy.

Jim said to meet him here.

Tell is used to report that someone has given information or an order. The verb **tell** is always followed by the person that the information or order is given to.

Simon told me about his new job.

Say is never followed by the person that the information or order is given to.

He told us to stay here.

~~*He said us to stay here.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***say (noun)***

be given/have [a/no/some, etc] say ● the **final** say ● say **in/on** sth

say² /seɪ/ *noun* [U] **1** when you are involved in making a decision about something *We **had some say in** how our jobs would develop.* **2 have your say** to give your opinion about something *We can't vote yet - Christina hasn't had her say.*

saying /ˈseɪɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a famous phrase that people use to give advice about life *Have you heard the saying, "misery loves company"?*

sb *written abbreviation for* somebody ●**sb's** *written abbreviation for* somebody's

scab /skæb/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a layer of dried blood that forms to cover a cut in the skin

scaffolding /ˈskæfᵊldɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a temporary structure made of flat boards and metal poles used to work on a tall building

scalar /ˈskeɪlᵊ/ *noun* [C] something that has size but no direction, such as a quantity, distance, speed or temperature ➲Compare **vector** ●**scalar** *adjective*

scald /skɔːld/ *verb* [T] to burn something or someone with very hot liquid or steam *She scalded her mouth on the hot soup.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scale***

on a [grand/large/massive/small, etc] scale ● the scale **of** sth

scale¹ /skeɪl/ *noun* **1** SIZE [**no plural**] the size or level of something *We don't yet know the scale of the problem.* ○ *Nuclear weapons cause destruction **on** a massive **scale*** (= cause a lot of destruction). **2 large-/small-scale** A large-/small-scale event or activity is large/small in size. *a large-scale investigation* **3** MEASURING SYSTEM [C] the set of numbers, amounts, etc used to measure or compare the level of something *How would you rate her work **on a scale of** 1-10?* **4** EQUIPMENT [C] *US* (*UK* **scales** [**plural**]) a piece of equipment for measuring weight *a bathroom/kitchen scale* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2, **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **5 ART** [C, U] how the size of things on a map, model, etc relates to the same things in real life *a map with a scale of one centimetre per ten kilometres* **6 MUSIC** [C] a series of musical notes that is always played in order and that rises gradually from the first note **7 BIOLOGY** [C] one of the flat pieces of hard material that covers the skin of fish and snakes **8 CHEMISTRY** (*also* **limescale**) a hard, white layer that forms on the sides of pipes or containers that heat water

scale² /skeɪl/ *verb* [T] to climb something that is high or steep *to scale a wall*
scale sth back *phrasal verb mainly US* (*UK/US* **scale sth down**) to make something smaller than it was or smaller than it was planned to be

scalene triangle /ˌskeɪliːnˈtraɪæŋgl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a triangle with three sides all of different lengths ➲Compare **equilateral, isosceles triangle**

scales /skeɪlz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* (*US* **scale** [C]) a piece of equipment for measuring weight *bathroom/kitchen scales* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2, **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

scallion /ˈskæliən/ *US* (*UK* **spring onion**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small onion with a white part at the bottom and long, green leaves which is eaten in salads

scallop /ˈskæləp/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small sea creature that lives in a shell and is eaten as food

scalp /skælp/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the skin on the top of your head under your hair

scalpel /ˈskælpᵊl/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a small, sharp knife that doctors use to cut through skin during an operation

S

scalper /ˈskælpəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **tout**) *noun* [C] someone who unofficially sells tickets outside theatres, sports grounds, etc

scaly /ˈskeɪli/ *adjective* **HEALTH** If your skin is scaly, it is rough and falls off in small, dry pieces.

scam /skæm/ *noun* [C] *informal* an illegal plan for making money

scamper /ˈskæmpəʳ/ *verb* **scamper away/down/off, etc** to run quickly and with small steps, like a child or a small animal

scampi /ˈskæmpi/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** prawns (= small sea creatures) that have been fried

scan¹ /skæn/ *verb* **scanning**, *past* **scanned** **1** **HEALTH** [T] to examine something with a machine that can see inside an object or body *Airports use X-ray machines to scan luggage for weapons.* **2** **COMPUTING** [T] to use a piece of equipment that copies words or pictures from paper into a computer *to scan photos into a computer* **3** LOOK [T] to look around an area quickly to try to find a person or thing *She **scanned** the crowd **for** a familiar face.* **4** READ [T] (*also* **scan through**) to quickly read a piece of writing to understand the main meaning or to find a particular piece of information *I scanned the travel brochures looking for a cheap holiday.*

scan² /skæn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medical examination in which an image of the inside of the body is made using a special machine *a brain scan*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scandal***

a scandal **breaks/erupts** ● be **at the centre of/involved in** a scandal ● a scandal **surrounding** sth ● a **sex** scandal

scandal /ˈskændᵊl/ *noun* [C, U] something that shocks people because they think it is morally wrong *a **sex scandal***

scandalous /ˈskændᵊləs/ *adjective* shocking or morally wrong *a **scandalous waste** of money*

Scandinavian /ˌskændɪˈneɪviən/ *adjective* from or relating to the countries of Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and sometimes Finland and Iceland ●**Scandinavian** *noun* [C]

scanner /ˈskænəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **COMPUTING** a piece of equipment that copies words or pictures from paper into a computer **2** **HEALTH** a piece of medical equipment used to examine images of the inside of someone's body

scansion /ˈskænʃən/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE, LITERATURE** the rhythm of a line of poetry

scant /skænt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] very little and not enough *His work has received only scant attention outside this country.*

scantily /ˈskæntɪli/ *adverb* **scantily clad/dressed** not wearing many clothes and showing a lot of the body

scanty /ˈskænti/ *adjective* very small in size or quantity *scanty clothing*

scapegoat /ˈskeɪpgəʊt/ *noun* [C] someone who is blamed for a bad situation, although they have not caused it *He was **made a scapegoat** for the disaster.*

scapula /ˈskæpjələ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the two bones shaped like triangles in a person's shoulders

scar /skɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **HEALTH** a permanent mark left on the body from a cut or other injury **2** damage done to a person's mind by a very unpleasant event or situation *a **psychological scar*** ●**scar** *verb* [T] **scarring**, *past* **scarred** to cause a scar [**often passive**] He was ***scarred for life** by the accident.*

scarce /skeəs/ *adjective* rare or not available in large amounts ***scarce resources***

scarcely /ˈskeəsli/ *adverb* **1** only just *They had scarcely finished eating when the doorbell rang.* **2** **can scarcely do sth** If you say you can scarcely do something, you mean it would be wrong to do it. *He's only two - you can scarcely blame him for behaving badly.*

scarcity /ˈskeəsəti/ *noun* [C, U] when there is not enough of something *a scarcity of food/affordable housing*

scare¹ /skeəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** to frighten a person or animal *Sudden, loud noises scare me.* **2** **scare the hell/life/living daylights, etc out of sb** *informal* to make someone feel very frightened ➲See also: scare/frighten sb out of their **wits**
scare sb/sth away/off *phrasal verb* to make a person or an animal so frightened that they go away *She scared off her attacker by screaming.*
scare sb away/off *phrasal verb* to make someone worried about doing something so that they decide not to do it *The recent bomb attacks have scared away the tourists.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scare***

give sb **/have/suffer** a scare ● a **food/health** scare

scare² /skeəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** FEELING a sudden feeling of fear or worry *The earthquake **gave** us a **scare**.* **2** SITUATION a situation that worries or frightens people *a **food/health scare***

scarecrow /ˈskeəkrəʊ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a model of a person that is put in a field to frighten birds and stop them from eating the plants

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***scared***

The adjectives **afraid** and **frightened** are common alternatives to 'scared': *Don't be **frightened**. The dog won't hurt you.* ● *Gerry has always been **afraid** of heights.*

If someone is extremely scared, then you can use the adjectives **petrified**, **terrified**, **panic-stricken**, or the informal phrase **scared to death**: *I'm **petrified/terrified** of spiders.* ● *She was **panic-stricken** when her little boy disappeared.* ● *He's **scared to death** of having the operation.*

If someone is scared because they are worrying about something, then you can use adjectives like **afraid** or **worried**: *I'm **afraid/worried** that something will go wrong.*

scared /skeəd/ *adjective* frightened or worried *Robert's **scared of** heights.* ○ *I was **scared to death*** (= very frightened). [**+ (that)**] *We were scared that we'd be killed.*

S

scarf¹ /skɑːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **scarves** /skɑːvz/ or **scarfs** a piece of cloth that you wear around your neck, head, or shoulders to keep warm or for decoration ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

scarf² /skɑːf/ (*also* **scarf down**) *verb* [T] *US informal* (*UK* **scoff**) to eat a lot of something quickly *Who scarfed all the cookies?*

scarlet /ˈskɑːlət/ *noun* [U] a bright red colour ●**scarlet** *adjective*

scarp /skɑːp/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a steep slope or cliff formed by folded or eroded (= washed or blown away) layers of rock

scary /ˈskeəri/ *adjective informal* frightening *a scary place/woman*

scathing /ˈskeɪðɪŋ/ *adjective* criticizing very strongly *He was **scathing about** the report.*

scatter /ˈskætəʳ/ *verb* **1** THROW [T] to throw objects over an area so that they land apart from each other *He scattered some flower seeds in the garden.* **2** MOVE [I] to suddenly move apart in different directions *The crowd scattered at the sound of gunshots.*

ˈscatter ˌdiagram *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a graph with points representing amounts of numbers on it, often with a line drawn through the points to show the pattern of the data

scattered /ˈskætəd/ *adjective* covering a wide area *His toys were scattered all over the floor.* ○ *There will be **scattered showers*** (= separate areas of rain) *today.*

scattering /ˈskætərɪŋ/ *noun* [**no plural**] a small number of separate things, especially in a large area *a scattering of houses*

scatty /ˈskæti/ *adjective informal* silly and often forgetting things

scavenge /ˈskævɪndʒ/ *verb* [I, T] to search for food or for useful things that have been thrown away ●**scavenger** *noun* [C] a person or animal who scavenges

scenario /sɪˈnɑːriəʊ/ *noun* **1** [C] a description of a situation, or of a situation that may develop in the future **2 worst-case scenario** the worst situation that you can imagine

scene /siːn/ *noun* **1** **LITERATURE** [C] a short part of a film, play, or book in which the events happen in one place *a **love scene*** ○ *the final scene* **2** VIEW [C] a view or picture of a place, event, or activity *scenes of everyday life* **3** PLACE [C] a place where an unpleasant event has happened *the scene of the crime* **4 the club/gay/music, etc scene** all the things connected with a particular way of life or activity **5** ARGUMENT [C] when people have a loud argument or show strong emotions in a public place [**usually singular**] *She **made a scene** when I told her she couldn't come with us.* **6 behind the scenes** If something happens behind the scenes, it happens secretly. **7 set the scene for sth** to make an event or situation possible or likely to happen

scenery /ˈsiːnəʳri/ *noun* [U] **1** COUNTRYSIDE the attractive, natural things that you see in the countryside *The Grand Canyon is famous for its spectacular scenery.* **2** THEATRE the large pictures of buildings, countryside, etc used on a theatre stage

scenic /ˈsiːnɪk/ *adjective* having views of the attractive, natural things in the countryside *a **scenic route*** ○ *an area of great **scenic beauty***

scent /sent/ *noun* **1** SMELL [C] a pleasant smell *the sweet scent of orange blossoms* **2** LIQUID [C, U] a pleasant smelling liquid that people put on their skin **3** ANIMAL [C, U] the smell of an animal or a person that is left somewhere

scented /ˈsentɪd/ *adjective* having a pleasant smell *a scented candle*

sceptic *UK* (*US* **skeptic**) /ˈskeptɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who doubts that a belief or an idea is true or useful

sceptical *UK* (*US* **skeptical**) /ˈskeptɪkəl/ *adjective* doubting that something is true or useful *Scientists remain **sceptical about** astrology.* ○ *She was **sceptical of** the new arrangement.*

scepticism *UK* (*US* **skepticism**) /ˈskeptɪsɪzəm/ *noun* [U] when you doubt that something is true or useful *There was some **scepticism about** her ability to do the job.*

schedule¹ /ˈʃedjuːl/ (US) /ˈskedʒuːl/ *noun* **1** PLAN [C, U] a plan that gives events or activities and the times that they will happen or be done *I have a very **busy schedule** today.* ○ *Will the work be completed **on schedule*** (= at the expected time)*?* ○ *The project was finished **ahead of schedule*** (= earlier than planned). **2** TRAVEL [C] *mainly US* a list of times when buses, trains, etc arrive and leave

schedule² /ˈʃedjuːl/ (US) /ˈskedʒuːl/ *verb* [T] to arrange that an event or an activity will happen at a particular time [**often passive**] *Your appointment has been **scheduled for** next Tuesday.* ○ *a scheduled flight*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scheme***

come up with/devise a scheme ● **implement/introduce/launch/unveil** a scheme ● a scheme **for** doing sth

scheme¹ /skiːm/ *noun* [C] **1** OFFICIAL *mainly UK* an official plan or system *an insurance/savings scheme* ○ *a training scheme for teenagers* **2** DISHONEST a plan for making money, especially in a dishonest way *a scheme to steal money from investors*

scheme² /skiːm/ *verb* [I] to make a secret plan in order to get an advantage, usually by deceiving people

schist /ʃɪst/ *noun* [U] **GEOLOGY** a type of rock that breaks easily into thin layers

schizophrenia /ˌskɪtsəʊˈfriːniə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious mental illness in which someone cannot understand what is real and what is imaginary ●**schizophrenic** /ˌskɪtsəʊˈfrenɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who suffers from schizophrenia

schizophrenic /ˌskɪtsəʊˈfrenɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** relating to schizophrenia *schizophrenic patients/symptoms*

schmooze /ʃmuːz/ *verb* [I, T] *informal* to talk to someone in a friendly, informal way so that they will like you or do something for you *politicians **schmoozing with** journalists*

S

scholar /ˈskɒləʳ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** someone who has studied a subject and knows a lot about it *a legal scholar*

scholarly /ˈskɒləli/ *adjective* **1** WRITING A scholarly article or book is a formal piece of writing by a scholar about a particular subject. **2** PERSON If someone is scholarly, they study a lot and know a lot about what they study.

scholarship /ˈskɒləʃɪp/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [C] an amount of money given to a person by an organization to pay for their education, usually at a college or university **2 EDUCATION** [U] when you study a subject for a long time

scholastic /skəˈlæstɪk/ *adjective* **EDUCATION** [**always before noun**] relating to school and education *scholastic achievements*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***school***

go to school ● **at** school ● a school **holiday** ● a school **year** ● school **children/kids**

O-K **school** /skuːl/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [C] a place where children go to be educated *Which **school** do you **go** to?* ○ *I ride my bike to school.* **2 EDUCATION** [U] the time that you spend at school *I like school.* ○ *We're going shopping after school.* **3 EDUCATION** [**no plural**] all the students and teachers at a school *The whole school took part in the project.* **4 a dance/language/riding, etc school EDUCATION** a place where you can study a particular subject **5 EDUCATION** [C] a part of a college or university *the University of Cambridge Medical School* **6 EDUCATION** [C, U] *US informal* in the US, any college or university, or the time you spend there *Which schools did you apply for?* **7** [C] a group of fish or other sea animals **8 school of thought** the ideas and beliefs shared by a group of people ➲See also: **boarding school, elementary school, grade school, grammar school, high school, junior high school, junior school, middle school, night school, nursery school, prep school, preparatory school, primary school, public school, secondary school, state school**

schoolboy /ˈskuːlbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a boy who goes to school

schoolchild /ˈskuːltʃaɪld/ *noun* [C] *plural* **schoolchildren EDUCATION** a child who goes to school

schooldays /ˈskuːldeɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* **EDUCATION** the period in your life when you go to school

schoolgirl /ˈskuːlgɜːl/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a girl who goes to school

schooling /ˈskuːlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** education at school

schoolteacher /ˈskuːlˌtiːtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** someone who teaches children in a school

O-K **science** /saɪəns/ *noun* **1 EDUCATION** [U] the study and knowledge of the structure and behaviour of natural things in an organized way **2 EDUCATION** [C, U] a particular type of science *computer science* ○ *Chemistry, physics, and biology are all sciences.* ➲See also: **natural sciences, social science**

ˌscience ˈfiction *noun* [U] **LITERATURE** stories about life in the future or in other parts of the universe

O-K **scientific** /ˌsaɪənˈtɪfɪk/ *adjective* relating to science, or using the organized methods of science ***scientific experiments/research*** ●**scientifically** *adverb a scientifically proven fact*

scienˌtific noˈtation *noun* [U] **MATHEMATICS** a way of writing very large or very small numbers by putting one number before the decimal point, then multiplying by a power of 10, e.g. 3.6 x 103

O-K **scientist** /ˈsaɪəntɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who studies science or works in science

sci-fi /ˈsaɪˌfaɪ/ *noun* [U] **LITERATURE** *informal short for* science fiction

scintillating /ˈsɪntɪleɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* very interesting or exciting *a scintillating performance*

scissors /ˈsɪzəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a tool for cutting paper, hair, cloth, etc that you hold in your hand and that has two blades that move against each other *a pair of scissors*

sclera /ˈsklɪərə/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] **ANATOMY** the strong white layer that covers the outside of the eye

scoff /skɒf/ *verb* **1** CRITICIZE [I] to laugh at someone or something, or criticize them in a way that shows you do not respect them *The critics **scoffed at** his work.* **2** EAT [I, T] *UK informal* (*US* **scarf**) to eat a lot of something quickly *Who scoffed all the chocolates?*

scold /skəʊld/ *verb* [T] *old-fashioned* to speak angrily to someone because they have done something wrong

scone /skɒn, skəʊn/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, round cake *tea and buttered scones*

scoop¹ /skuːp/ *verb* [T] to remove something from a container using a spoon, your curved hands, etc *She scooped the ice cream into the dishes.*
scoop sth/sb up *phrasal verb* to lift something or someone with your hands

scoop² /skuːp/ *noun* [C] **1** SPOON a large, deep spoon for lifting and moving an amount of something, or the amount that can be held in it *an **ice cream scoop*** ○ *a scoop of ice cream* **2** NEWS a piece of news discovered and printed by one newspaper before it appears anywhere else

scoot /skuːt/ *verb informal* **scoot along/down/over, etc** to go somewhere quickly

scooter /ˈskuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MOTORCYCLE a small motorcycle **2** TOY a child's vehicle that has two wheels fixed to the ends of a long board and a long handle

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scope***

expand/extend/limit/widen the scope of sth ● be **beyond/outside/within** the scope of sth

scope /skəʊp/ *noun* **1** AMOUNT [**no plural**] how much a subject or situation relates to *Do we know the full **scope of** the problem yet?* **2** OPPORTUNITY [U] the opportunity to do something *There is plenty of **scope for** improvement.*

scorch /skɔːtʃ/ *verb* [T] to damage something with fire or heat

scorched /skɔːtʃt/ *adjective* slightly burnt, or damaged by fire or heat *scorched earth/fields*

S

ˌscorched ˈearth ˌpolicy *noun* [**no plural**] when an army destroys everything in an area such as food, buildings or equipment which could be useful to an enemy

scorching /ˈskɔːtʃɪŋ/ *adjective* very hot *a **scorching hot** day*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***score***

keep score ● **even/level** the score ● the **final/latest** score ● a score **of** sth ● a **high/low** score

score¹ /skɔːr/ *noun* **1** SPORT [C] the number of points someone gets in a game or test *a **high/low score*** ○ *What's the score?* **2 scores of sth** a large number of people or things *Scores of teenage girls were waiting to get his autograph.* **3** MUSIC [C] a printed piece of music **4 on that/this score** about the thing or subject which you have just discussed *The company will pay your travel expenses, so don't worry on that score.*

score² /skɔːr/ *verb* [I, T] SPORT to get points in a game or test *He scored just before half-time to put Liverpool 2-1 ahead.*

scoreboard /ˈskɔːbɔːd/ *noun* [C] SPORT a large board which shows the score of a game

scorer /ˈskɔːrər/ *noun* [C] SPORT a player who scores points in a game *Domingo was Italy's **top scorer**.*

scorn /skɔːn/ *noun* [U] *formal* the feeling that something is stupid and does not deserve your respect ●**scorn** *verb* [T] *formal* to show scorn for someone or something *You scorned all my suggestions.*

scornful /ˈskɔːnfəl/ *adjective formal* showing that you think something is stupid and does not deserve your respect *I'm very **scornful of** any findings that lack proper scientific data.* ●**scornfully** *adverb*

Scorpio /ˈskɔːpiəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 October - 21 November, or a person born during this period

scorpion /ˈskɔːpiən/ *noun* [C] a small, insect-like creature with a curved, poisonous tail

Scotch /skɒtʃ/ (*also* **ˌScotch ˈwhisky**) *noun* [C, U] FOOD a type of whisky (= strong alcoholic drink)

ˌScotch ˈtape *US trademark* (*UK trademark* **Sellotape**) *noun* [U] clear, thin tape used for sticking things, especially paper, together
➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

the Scots /skɒts/ *noun* [**plural**] the people of Scotland

Scottish /ˈskɒtɪʃ/ *adjective* relating to Scotland *Scottish history*

scour /skaʊər/ *verb* [T] **1** SEARCH to search for something very carefully, often over a large area *The police **scoured** the surrounding countryside **for** possible clues.* **2** CLEAN to clean something by rubbing it with something rough

scourge /skɜːdʒ/ *noun formal* **the scourge of sth** something which causes a lot of suffering or trouble *Drug-related crime is the scourge of modern society.*

scout¹ /skaʊt/ *noun* **1** MEMBER [C] (*also* **Boy Scout**) a member of an organization for young people which teaches them practical skills and encourages them to be good members of society **2 the Scouts** an organization for young people which teaches them practical skills and encourages them to be good members of society **3** MUSIC/SPORT [C] someone whose job is to find good musicians, sports people, etc to join an organization *a **talent scout***

scout² /skaʊt/ (*also* **scout around**) *verb* [I] to try to find something by looking in different places *I'm **scouting around for** somewhere to park.*

scowl /skaʊl/ *verb* [I] to look at someone angrily *He **scowled at** me from behind his paper.* ●**scowl** *noun* [C]

scrabble /ˈskræbl/ *verb*
scrabble about/around *phrasal verb* to use your fingers to quickly find something that you cannot see *She scrabbled around in her bag, trying to find her keys.*

scramble /ˈskræmbl/ *verb* **1 scramble down/out/up, etc** to move or climb quickly but with difficulty, often using your hands *We scrambled up the hill.* **2** [I] to compete with other people for something which there is very little of [+ **to do sth**] *New teachers scramble to get jobs in the best schools.* ●**scramble** *noun* [**no plural**] *There was a **mad scramble** for places near the front.*

ˌscrambled ˈeggs *noun* [**plural**] FOOD eggs which are mixed together and then cooked

scrap¹ /skræp/ *noun* **1** SMALL PIECE [C] a small piece or amount of something *He wrote his phone number on **a scrap of** paper.* ○ *I've read every **scrap of information** I can find on the subject.* **2** OLD [U] old cars and machines that are not now needed but have parts which can be used to make other things ***scrap metal*** ○ *The car was so badly damaged we could only sell it as scrap.* **3** FIGHT [C] *informal* a fight or an argument, usually not very serious *He was always **getting into scraps** at school.*

scrap² /skræp/ *verb* [T] **scrapping**, *past* **scrapped** **1** STOP *informal* to not continue with a plan or idea *That project has now been scrapped.* **2** GET RID OF to get rid of something which you do not now want

scrapbook /ˈskræpbʊk/ *noun* [C] a book with empty pages where you can stick newspaper articles, pictures, etc, that you have collected and want to keep

scrape¹ /skreɪp/ *verb* [T] **1** DAMAGE to damage the surface of something by rubbing it against something rough *Jamie fell over and **scraped** his **knee**.* **2** REMOVE to remove something from a surface using a sharp edge *The next morning I had to scrape the ice off the car.* **3 scrape a win/draw/pass** *UK* to succeed in a test or competition but with difficulty *France scraped a 3-2 win over Norway.*
scrape by *phrasal verb* to manage to live when you do not have enough money
scrape through (sth) *phrasal verb* to succeed in something but with a lot of difficulty *I scraped through my exams* (= just passed).
scrape sth together *phrasal verb* to manage

with a lot of difficulty to get enough of something, often money *I finally **scraped together** enough **money** for a flight home.*

scrape² /skreɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** DAMAGE the slight damage caused when you rub a surface with something rough *He suffered a few cuts and scrapes but nothing serious.* **2** SITUATION *informal* a difficult or dangerous situation which you cause yourself *She's always **getting into scrapes**.*

scrappy /ˈskræpi/ *adjective* **1** UNTIDY *UK* untidy or organized badly *They won but it was a scrappy match.* **2** DETERMINED *US* determined to win or achieve something *a scrappy competitor*

scratch¹ /skrætʃ/ *verb* **1** RUB SKIN [I, T] to rub your skin with your nails, often to stop it itching (= feeling unpleasant) *He scratched his head.* **2** HURT/DAMAGE [T] to make a slight cut or long, thin mark with a sharp object *The surface was all scratched.* ○ *I scratched myself on the roses.* **3** RUB SURFACE [I, T] to rub a hard surface with a sharp object, often making a noise *I could hear the cat scratching at the door.*

scratch² /skrætʃ/ *noun* **1** HURT/DAMAGE [C] a slight cut or a long, thin mark made with a sharp object *I've got all these scratches on my arm from the cat.* **2** RUB SKIN [no plural] when you rub your skin with your nails, often to stop it itching (= feeling unpleasant) *Could you give my back a scratch?* **3 from scratch** If you do something from scratch, you do it from the beginning. **4 not be/come up to scratch** *informal* to not be good enough *She told me my work wasn't up to scratch.*

scrawl /skrɔːl/ *verb* [T] to write something quickly so that it is untidy *She scrawled a note, but I couldn't read it.* ●**scrawl** *noun* [C, U]

scrawny /ˈskrɔːni/ *adjective* too thin *a scrawny neck*

scream¹ /skriːm/ *verb* [I, T] to make a loud, high noise with your voice, or to shout something in a loud, high voice because you are afraid, hurt, or angry *She screamed for help.* ○ *I could hear a woman screaming, "Get me out of here!"*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scream***

let out a scream ● a **blood-curdling/piercing/shrill** scream ● a scream **of** [horror/pain/shock, etc]

scream² /skriːm/ *noun* **1** [C] when someone screams *We heard screams coming from their apartment.* ○ *We heard a **blood curdling** scream.* **2 be a scream** *informal* to be very funny *You'd love Amanda - she's a scream.*

scree /skriː/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY an area on the side of a mountain covered with large loose broken stones

screech /skriːtʃ/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to make an unpleasant, high, loud sound *A car came screeching around the corner.* ○ *She was screeching at him at the top of her voice.* **2 screech to a halt/stop** If a vehicle screeches to a halt, it suddenly stops, making an unpleasant, high sound. ●**screech** *noun* [C] *We could hear the **screech of brakes**.*

screen¹ /skriːn/ *noun* **1** COMPUTING [C] the part of a television or computer which shows images or writing *I spend most of my day working in front of a **computer screen**.* **2 on screen** COMPUTING using a computer *Do you work on screen?* **3** FILM SURFACE [C] a large, flat surface where a film or an image is shown **4** CINEMA [U, no plural] cinema films *an actor of **stage and screen*** (= theatre and films) ○ *She first **appeared on screen** in 1965.* **5** NET [C] a wire net which covers a window or door and is used to stop insects coming in **6** SEPARATE [C] a vertical structure which is used to separate one area from another

screen² /skriːn/ *verb* [T] **1** HEALTH to find out if people have an illness by doing medical tests on them *Babies are routinely **screened for** the condition.* **2** GET INFORMATION to find out information about someone in order to decide if they are suitable for a particular job *Applicants are screened to ensure that none of them is a security risk.* **3** SHOW to show something on television or at a cinema [often passive] *The first episode will be screened tonight.*
screen sth off *phrasal verb* to separate one area from another using a vertical structure *Part of the room is screened off and used as an office.*

screenplay /ˈskriːnpleɪ/ *noun* [C] a story that is written for television or for a film

ˈscreen ˌprinting *noun* [U] DT, ART a method of printing by forcing ink through a pattern cut into a piece of cloth stretched across a frame

ˈscreen ˌsaver (*also* **screensaver**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a program to protect a computer screen that automatically shows a moving image if the computer is not used for a few minutes

screw¹ /skruː/ *noun* [C] a small, pointed piece of metal that you turn round and round to fix things together, especially pieces of wood

screw² /skruː/ *verb* **1 screw sth down/to/onto, etc** to fasten something with a screw *You need to screw the cabinet to the wall.* **2 screw sth on/down/together, etc** to fasten something by turning it round until it is tight, or to be fastened this way *The lid is **screwed on** so tight I can't get it off.* ➲Opposite **unscrew** **3 screw up your eyes/face** to move the muscles of your face so that your eyes become narrow *He screwed up his eyes in the bright sunlight.*
screw (sth) up *phrasal verb informal* to make a mistake, or to spoil something *I screwed up my exams last year.*
screw sth up *phrasal verb* to twist and crush a piece of paper with your hands *She screwed the letter up and threw it in the bin.*

screwdriver /ˈskruːˌdraɪvər/ *noun* [C] a tool for turning screws

screwed-up /ˌskruːdˈʌp/ *adjective informal* If someone is screwed-up, they are unhappy and anxious because they have had a lot of bad experiences.

scribble /ˈskrɪbl/ *verb* [I, T] to write or draw something quickly and carelessly *She **scribbled** some **notes** in her book.* ●**scribble** *noun* [C, U] something that has been scribbled

script /skrɪpt/ *noun* **1** [C] the words in a film, play, etc *He wrote a number of **film scripts**.* **2** LANGUAGE [C, U] a set of letters used for writing a particular language *Arabic/Roman script*

S

scripted /ˈskrɪptɪd/ *adjective* A scripted speech or broadcast has been written before it is read or performed.

scripture /ˈskrɪptʃəʳ/ (*also* **the scriptures**) *noun* [U] RELIGION the holy books of a religion

scriptwriter /ˈskrɪpt,raɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who writes the words for films or radio or television programmes

scroll¹ /skrəʊl/ *noun* [C] a long roll of paper with writing on it, used especially in the past

scroll² /skrəʊl/ *verb* **scroll up/down/through, etc** COMPUTING to move text or an image on a computer screen so that you can look at the part that you want

scrollbar /ˈskrəʊlbɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING on a computer screen, a thin rectangle on the side or bottom that you use to move text or an image

scrooge /skruːdʒ/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who spends very little money

scrotum /ˈskrəʊtəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **scrotums** or **scrota** ANATOMY in most male mammals, a bag of skin near the penis which contains the testicles

scrounge /skraʊndʒ/ *verb* [I, T] *informal* to get something from someone else instead of paying for it yourself *He's always* ***scrounging money off*** *you.*

scrub¹ /skrʌb/ *verb* [I, T] **scrubbing**, *past* **scrubbed** to clean something by rubbing it hard with a brush *to scrub the floor*

scrub² /skrʌb/ *noun* **1** GEOGRAPHY [U] bushes and small trees that grow in a dry area **2** [**no plural**] when you clean something by rubbing it with a brush *I* ***gave*** *my hands* ***a scrub****.*

scruff /skrʌf/ *noun* **by the scruff of the/your neck** by the back of the neck *She picked the cat up by the scruff of its neck.*

scruffy /ˈskrʌfi/ *adjective* dirty and untidy *scruffy jeans* ○ *I don't like to look scruffy.*

scruple /ˈskruːpl/ *noun* [C] a belief that something is wrong which stops you from doing that thing [**usually plural**] *She* ***has no scruples*** *about accepting bribes.*

scrupulous /ˈskruːpjələs/ *adjective* **1** CAREFUL very careful and giving great attention to details *He's very scrupulous about making sure that all the facts are checked.* **2** HONEST always honest and fair ➲Opposite **unscrupulous**

scrutinize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈskruːtɪnaɪz/ *verb* [T] to examine something very carefully *The evidence was carefully scrutinized.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***scrutiny***

be under/come under scrutiny • **careful/close/rigorous** scrutiny • **public** scrutiny

scrutiny /ˈskruːtɪni/ *noun* [U] when you examine something carefully *Every aspect of her life* ***came under*** *public* ***scrutiny****.*

scuba diving /ˈskuːbə,daɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT a sport in which you swim under water using special equipment for breathing

scuff /skʌf/ *verb* [T] to make a mark on your shoes by rubbing them against something rough

scuffle /ˈskʌfl/ *noun* [C] a short fight in which people push each other *A* ***scuffle broke out*** (= started) *behind the courtroom.*

sculptor /ˈskʌlptəʳ/ *noun* [C] ART someone who makes sculpture

sculpture /ˈskʌlptʃəʳ/ *noun* **1** ART [C, U] a piece of art that is made from stone, wood, clay, etc *a wooden sculpture* ○ *modern sculpture* **2** ART [U] the art of making objects from stone, wood, clay, etc *She teaches sculpture at an art school.*

scum /skʌm/ *noun* **1** SUBSTANCE [U, **no plural**] an unpleasant, thick substance on the surface of a liquid **2** PERSON [U] *informal* an offensive way of referring to a very bad person

scurry /ˈskʌri/ *verb* **scurry along/around/away, etc** to walk quickly or run because you are in a hurry

scuttle /ˈskʌtl/ *verb* **scuttle across/along/away, etc** to run quickly using short steps *A beetle scuttled across the floor.*

scythe /saɪð/ *noun* [C] FARMING a tool with a long handle and a curved blade that is used to cut tall grass and crops

O-key **sea** /siː/ *noun* **1** [C, U] GEOGRAPHY a large area of salt water *I'd like to live by* ***the sea****.* ○ *It was our third day* ***at sea*** (= travelling on the sea). ○ *It's cheaper to send parcels* ***by sea*** (= on a ship). **2** GEOGRAPHY **Sea** a particular area of salt water *the North Sea* ○ *the Black Sea* **3 a sea of sth** a large number of something *He looked across the room and saw a sea of faces.*

seabed /ˈsiːbed/ *noun* [**no plural**] GEOGRAPHY the floor of the sea

ˈsea de,fence *noun* [U, C] ENVIRONMENT ways of protecting land from being flooded or worn away by the sea

seafood /ˈsiːfuːd/ *noun* [U] FOOD animals from the sea that are eaten as food, especially animals that live in shells

seafront /ˈsiːfrʌnt/ *noun* [C] *UK* a part of a town that is next to the sea [**usually singular**] *We walked* ***along*** *the* ***seafront****.*

seagull /ˈsiːgʌl/ *noun* [C] a grey and white bird that lives near the sea

seahorse /ˈsiːhɔːs/ *noun* [C] a small fish that has a head and neck the same shape as a horse's

seal¹ /siːl/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL an animal with smooth fur that eats fish and lives near the sea **2** ON A CONTAINER a piece of paper or plastic on a container that you break in order to open it **3** OFFICIAL MARK an official mark made of wax, paper, or metal that is put on important documents **4** STOP LIQUID/AIR an object or substance that stops liquid or air from leaving or entering a container

seal² /siːl/ *verb* [T] **1** CLOSE ENTRANCE (*also* **seal up**) to close an entrance or container so that air or liquid cannot enter or leave it *She quickly sealed up the bottle.* **2** CLOSE LETTER to close a letter or parcel by sticking the edges together *to seal an envelope*

seal sth off *phrasal verb* to prevent people from entering an area or building, often because it is dangerous *Police immediately sealed off the streets.*

ˈsea ˌlevel *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the level of the sea's surface, used to measure the height of an area of land

ˈsea ˌlion *noun* [C] a large seal (= sea animal)

seam /siːm/ *noun* [C] **1** a line of sewing where two pieces of cloth have been joined together **2 GEOLOGY** a long, thin layer of coal under the ground

seaman /ˈsiːmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **seamen** a sailor

seance /ˈseɪɒns/ *noun* [C] a meeting at which people try to communicate with spirits of dead people

O-K **search¹** /sɜːtʃ/ *verb* **1** TRY TO FIND [I, T] to try to find someone or something *I've searched my bedroom but I can't find my watch.* ○ *Police are still* ***searching*** *the woods* ***for*** *the missing girl.* **2** POLICE [T] If the police search someone, they look in their clothes and bags to see if they are hiding anything illegal, such as drugs. *They were searched at the airport.* **3** FIND ANSWER [I] to try to find an answer to a problem *Doctors are still* ***searching for*** *a cure.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

search or **search for?**

If you **search** a place or person, you are looking for something in that place or on that person.

The police searched the man (= looked in his clothes) *for drugs.*

I searched the kitchen (= looked in the kitchen) *for my watch.*

If you **search for** something or someone, you are looking for that thing or that person.

I searched for my watch.

~~*I searched my watch.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***search*** (noun)

carry out/conduct/make/mount a search ● a **frantic/painstaking/thorough** search ● a search **for** sb/sth ● **in search of** sb/sth

O-K **search²** /sɜːtʃ/ *noun* **1** TRY TO FIND [C] when you try to find someone or something [**usually singular**] *Police are continuing their* ***search for*** *the missing girl.* ○ *They went off* ***in search of*** (= to find) *a bar.* **2** FIND ANSWER [**no plural**] when you try to find an answer to a problem *the search for happiness*

ˈsearch ˌengine *noun* [C] **INTERNET** a computer program which finds information on the Internet by looking for words which you have typed in ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

searching /ˈsɜːtʃɪŋ/ *adjective* A searching question or look is intended to discover the truth about something.

ˈsearch ˌparty *noun* [C] a group of people who look for someone who is lost

ˈsearch ˌwarrant *noun* [C] **LAW** an official document that allows the police to search a building

searing /ˈsɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] extreme and unpleasant ***searing pain/heat***

ˈsea ˌshell *noun* [C] the empty shell of some types of sea animals

the seashore /ˈsiːʃɔːr/ *noun* **GEOGRAPHY** the area of land along the edge of the sea

seasick /ˈsiːsɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** feeling ill because of the way a boat is moving

the seaside /ˈsiːsaɪd/ *noun* an area or town next to the sea *We had a picnic* ***at the seaside.*** ○ *a seaside resort/community*

O-K **season¹** /ˈsiːzᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1 GEOGRAPHY** one of the four periods of the year; winter, spring, summer, or autumn **2** SPECIAL TIME a period of the year when a particular thing happens [**usually singular**] *the holiday season* ○ *the rainy/dry season* ○ *the football season* **3 in season a FOOD** If vegetables or fruit are in season, they are available and ready to eat. **b BIOLOGY** If a female animal is in season, she is ready to mate. **4 out of season a** FRUIT/VEGETABLES If vegetables or fruit are out of season, they are not usually available at that time. **b** FEW PEOPLE If you go somewhere out of season, you go during a period of the year when few people are there.

season² /ˈsiːzᵊn/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to add salt or spices to food that you are cooking

seasonal /ˈsiːzᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* happening or existing only at a particular time of the year *a seasonal worker* ○ *the seasonal migration of birds*

seasoned /ˈsiːzᵊnd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] having a lot of experience of doing something *a* ***seasoned traveller***

seasoning /ˈsiːzᵊnɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** salt or spices that you add to food

ˈseason ˌticket *UK* (*US* **ˌseason ˈticket**) *noun* [C] a ticket that you can use many times without having to pay each time

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***seat***

have/take a seat ● **in/on** a seat ● the **back/driver's/front/passenger** seat

seat¹ /siːt/ *noun* [C] **1** SIT something that you sit on *Please,* ***have/take a seat*** (= sit down). ○ *I've booked three seats for the cinema tonight.* ○ *the* ***back/front seat*** *of a car* **2** PART the flat part of a chair, bicycle, etc that you sit on **3 POLITICS** a position in a parliament or other group that makes official decisions *a seat in parliament* ○ *a congressional seat*

seat² /siːt/ *verb* **1 seat yourself in/on/next to, etc** to sit somewhere *I seated myself next to the fire.* **2 be seated a** to be sitting down *The director was seated on his right.* **b** used to politely ask a group of people to sit down *Would the people at the back please be seated.* **3 seat 4/12/200, etc** If a building, room, or vehicle seats a particular number of people, that many people can sit in it.

ˈseat ˌbelt *noun* [C] a strap that you fasten across your body when travelling in a vehicle *to* ***fasten your seat belt*** ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

seating /ˈsiːtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the seats in a public place, or the way that they are arranged

ˌsea ˈwall *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** a wall that protects land from being covered or damaged by the sea

S

seaweed /ˈsiːwiːd/ *noun* [U] a plant that you find on the beach and that grows in the sea

sebaceous gland /sɪˈbeɪʃəsˌglænd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the many small glands (= parts of the body that produce chemical substances) that produce an oily substance on the hair and skin

sebum /ˈsiːbəm/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an oily substance that makes hair shiny and prevents skin from becoming dry

sec /sek/ *noun* [C] *informal* a very short time *Just a sec - I'm nearly ready.*

secluded /sɪˈkluːdɪd/ *adjective* If a place is secluded, it is quiet and not near people. *a secluded beach/garden*

seclusion /sɪˈkluːʒᵊn/ *noun* [U] when someone lives alone, away from other people *He lived* ***in seclusion*** *for the rest of his life.*

second[1] /ˈsekᵊnd/ *adjective, pronoun* **1** AFTER FIRST referring to the person, thing, or event that comes immediately after the first *You're second on the list.* ○ *This is my second piece of chocolate cake.* ○ *She didn't win but she did* ***come second*** (= was the one after the winner) *in one race.* **2** NUMBER 2nd written as a word ➲See also: **second best, second-hand, second language, second nature, the second person, second-rate, second thought, second wind**

second[2] /ˈsekᵊnd/ *noun* [C] **1 MEASURES** one of the 60 parts a minute is divided into **2** SHORT TIME *informal* a very short period of time *I'll be back in just a second.* **3** PRODUCT something that is sold cheaply because it is damaged or not in perfect condition [**usually plural**] *Some of those towels are seconds.*

second[3] /ˈsekᵊnd/ *verb* [T] to formally support an idea at a meeting [**often passive**] *The chairperson's proposal was seconded by Ms Jones.*

second[4] /sɪˈkɒnd/ *verb* [T] *UK* to send someone to another job for a fixed period of time [**often passive**] *He was seconded from the police to the Department of Transport.*

secondary /ˈsekᵊndᵊri/ *adjective* **1 EDUCATION** relating to the education of students aged between 11 and 18 *secondary education* **2** less important than something else *What matters is the size of the office. The location is of secondary importance.*

secondary conˈsumer *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal that eats other animals

ˈsecondary ˌschool *noun* [C] *mainly UK* **EDUCATION** a school for students aged between 11 and 18

the ˈsecondary ˌsector *noun* **ECONOMICS** industry where finished items are made ➲Compare **the primary sector**

ˌsecond ˈbest *adjective* not the best but the next best *the second best candidate* ●**second best** *noun* [U]

second-class /ˌsekəndˈklɑːs/ *adjective* **1** TRAVEL relating to the less expensive way of travelling in a train, aircraft, etc, that most people use *a second-class carriage/ticket* **2** NOT IMPORTANT less important than other people *Women are still treated as* ***second-class citizens.*** **3 EDUCATION** A second-class university degree is a good degree but not the best possible. ●**second class** *adverb We always travel second class.*

second-guess /ˌsekᵊndˈges/ *verb* [T] to guess what someone will do in the future

second-hand /ˌsekᵊndˈhænd/ *adjective, adverb* If something is second-hand, someone else owned or used it before you. ***second-hand books/clothes*** ○ *She buys a lot of clothes second-hand.*

ˌsecond ˈlanguage *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a language that you speak that is not the first language you learned as a child

secondly /ˈsekəndli/ *adverb* used for introducing the second reason, idea, etc *I want two things: firstly, more money, and secondly, better working hours.*

ˌsecond ˈnature *noun* [U] something that you can do easily because you have done it many times before *After a few years, teaching became second nature to me.*

the ˌsecond ˈperson *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb or pronoun that is used when referring to the person being spoken or written to. For example 'you' is a second person pronoun

second-rate /ˌsekəndˈreɪt/ *adjective* of bad quality *a second-rate writer*

ˌsecond ˈthought *noun* **1 on second thoughts** *UK* used when you want to change a decision you have made *I'll have tea, please - on second thoughts, make that coffee.* **2 without a second thought** If you do something without a second thought, you do it without first considering if you should do it or not. *She'll spend a hundred pounds on a dress without a second thought.* **3 have second thoughts** to change your opinion about something or start to doubt it [**+ about + doing sth**] I've been having second thoughts about doing the course.

ˌsecond ˈwind *noun* [**no plural**] a return of energy that makes it possible to continue an activity *I was feeling tired, but I* ***got my second wind*** *after lunch.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***secrecy***

be **shrouded in** secrecy ● do sth **in** secrecy ● **absolute/strict** secrecy ● the secrecy **of/surrounding** sth

secrecy /ˈsiːkrəsi/ *noun* [U] when something is kept secret *Politicians criticized* ***the secrecy surrounding*** *the air attack.*

secret[1] /ˈsiːkrət/ *adjective* **1** If something is secret, other people are not allowed to know about it. *a secret affair/meeting* ○ *I'll tell you but you must* ***keep it secret.*** **2 secret admirer/drinker, etc** someone who does something or feels something without telling other people about it ●**secretly** *adverb He secretly taped their conversation.* ➲See also: **top-secret**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***secret***

keep a secret ● **let sb in on/reveal/tell sb** a secret ● a **big/closely-guarded/well-kept** secret

secret[2] /ˈsiːkrət/ *noun* [C] **1** something that you tell no one about or only a few people *I'm having a party for him but it's a secret.* ○ *Can you*

keep a secret? **2 the secret** the best way of achieving something *So what's the secret of your success?* **3 in secret** without telling other people *For years they met in secret.*

ˌsecret ˈagent *noun* [C] someone who tries to find out secret information, especially about another country

secretarial /ˌsekrəˈteəriəl/ *adjective* relating to the work of a secretary (= office worker who types letters, etc) ***secretarial skills***

O-key **secretary** /ˈsekrətᵊri/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who works in an office, typing letters, answering the telephone, and arranging meetings, etc **2 POLITICS** (*also* **Secretary**) an official who is in charge of a large department of the government *the Secretary of State*

secrete /sɪˈkriːt/ *verb* [T] **BIOLOGY** to produce a substance *A mixture of substances are secreted by cells within the stomach.* ●**secretion** /sɪˈkriːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

secretive /ˈsiːkrətɪv/ *adjective* not willing to tell people what you know or what you are doing *He's very* ***secretive about*** *his relationships.* ●**secretively** *adverb*

ˌSecret ˈService *noun* [no plural] **1 POLITICS** in the UK, a department of the government that tries to find out secret information about foreign countries **2 POLITICS** in the US, a government organization that protects the president

sect /sekt/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION, POLITICS** a group of people with a set of religious or political beliefs, often extreme beliefs

sectarian /sekˈteəriən/ *adjective* **RELIGION** relating to the differences between religious groups ***sectarian violence***

O-key **section** /ˈsekʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** PART one of the parts that something is divided into *a nonsmoking section in a restaurant* ○ *the business section of a newspaper* ○ *the tail section of an aircraft* **2 DT** a model or drawing of something that shows how it would look if it were cut from top to bottom and seen from the side ➲See also: **cross-section**

sector /ˈsektəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1 ECONOMICS** one part of a country's economy *the* ***private/public sector*** ○ *the financial/manufacturing sector* **2 GEOGRAPHY** one of the parts that an area is divided into *the British sector of the North Sea*

secular /ˈsekjələʳ/ *adjective* **RELIGION** not religious or not controlled by a religious group *secular education* ○ *a* ***secular state***

secure¹ /sɪˈkjʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** NOT FAIL not likely to fail or be lost *a secure investment/job* **2** SAFE safe from danger *I don't feel that the house is secure.* **3** CONFIDENT confident about yourself and the situation that you are in *I need to feel secure in a relationship.* **4** FIXED firmly fastened and not likely to fall or break *Check that all windows and doors are secure.* ➲Opposite **insecure**

secure² /sɪˈkjʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** ACHIEVE to achieve something, after a lot of effort *to secure the release of hostages* **2** FASTEN to fasten something firmly *He* ***secured*** *the bike* ***to*** *the gate.* **3** MAKE SAFE to make something safe

securely /sɪˈkjʊəli/ *adverb* If something is securely fastened, it will not fall or become loose.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***security***

lax/tight security ● security **arrangements/checks** ● a security **breach/guard/lapse/operation/risk** ● **national** security

security /sɪˈkjʊərəti/ *noun* [U] **1** BEING SAFE the things that are done to keep someone or something safe *airport/****national security*** ○ *a security alarm* **2** SAFE SITUATION when something is not likely to fail or be lost ***financial security*** ○ ***job security*** **3** CONFIDENCE confidence about yourself and the situation that you are in *the security of a long-term relationship* ➲Opposite **insecurity** **4 FINANCE** something valuable that you offer to give someone when you borrow money if you cannot pay the money back ➲See also: **social security**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

security or safety?

Security means activities or people that protect you from harm, or that try to stop crime.

He works as a security guard.

airport security

Safety is when you are safe or how safe something is.

Remember to wear your safety belt in the car.

Children should have lessons in road safety.

sedan /sɪˈdæn/ *US* (*UK* **saloon**) *noun* [C] a large car with a separate, closed area for bags

sedate¹ /sɪˈdeɪt/ *adjective* calm and slow *walking at a* ***sedate pace***

sedate² /sɪˈdeɪt/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to give a person or animal a drug to make them feel calm ●**sedation** /sɪˈdeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *She had to be put* ***under sedation.***

sedative /ˈsedətɪv/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a drug used to sedate a person or an animal

sedentary /ˈsedᵊntᵊri/ *adjective* spending a lot of time sitting down or not being active *a* ***sedentary job/lifestyle***

sediment /ˈsedɪmənt/ *noun* [C, U] a solid substance that forms a layer at the bottom of a liquid

sedimentary /ˌsedɪˈmentᵊri/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** (of rock) made from sediment left by the action of water, ice or wind ➲Compare **igneous, metamorphic**

sedimentation tank /ˌsedɪmenˈteɪʃᵊnˌtæŋk/ *noun* [C] a large container in which dirty or waste water is stored until all the solid material in it is lying on the bottom

seduce /sɪˈdjuːs/ *verb* [T] **1** SEX to persuade someone to have sex with you, especially someone young **2** PERSUADE to persuade someone to do something they would not normally do *I wouldn't have bought it but I was seduced by the low prices.*

seductive /sɪˈdʌktɪv/ *adjective* **1** SEX sexually attractive *a seductive smile/voice* **2** WANT making you want to have or do something *the seductive power of money*

S

O-key **see** /siː/ *verb* **seeing**, *past tense* **saw**, *past participle* **seen** **1** EYES [**I, T**] to notice people and things with your eyes *Have you seen Jo?* ○ *Turn the light on so I can see.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **look** **2** UNDERSTAND [**I, T**] to understand something *I see what you mean.* ○ *I don't see why I should go.* **3** MEET [**T**] to meet or visit someone *I'm seeing Peter tonight.* ○ *You should see a doctor.* **4** WATCH [**T**] to watch a film, television programme, etc *Did you see that film last night?* **5** INFORMATION [**T**] to find out information [+ **question word**] *I'll just see what time the train gets in.* **6** IMAGINE [**T**] to imagine or think about something or someone in a particular way *I just can't **see** him **as** a father.* **7** BELIEVE [**T**] to believe that something will happen *I can't see us finishing on time.* **8** HAPPEN [**T**] to be the time or place where something happens *This decade has seen huge technological advances.* **9 see that** If you ask someone to see that something happens, you want them to make sure it happens. *Could you see that everyone gets a copy of this letter?* **10 see sb home/to the station, etc** to go somewhere with someone, especially to make sure they are safe *Let me see you home.* **11 I'll/we'll see** used to say that you will make a decision about something later *"Dad, can I have a guitar?" "We'll see."* **12 see you** *informal* used for saying goodbye ➲See also: be glad/happy, etc to see the **back**[2] of sb/sth, see **eye**[1] to eye (with sb), see **red**[2]

see about sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to deal with something, or arrange for something to be done

see sth in sb/sth *phrasal verb* to believe that someone or something has a particular quality *I can't understand what you see in her* (= why you like her).

see sb off *phrasal verb* to go to the place that someone is leaving from in order to say goodbye to them *My parents came to the airport to see me off.*

see sb out *phrasal verb* to take someone to the door of a room or building when they are leaving *Don't worry, I'll see myself out* (= leave the room/building by myself).

see through sb/sth *phrasal verb* to understand that someone is trying to deceive you *I saw through him at once.*

see to sth *phrasal verb* to deal with something *Don't worry, I'll see to everything while you're away.*

seed[1] /siːd/ *noun* **1** BIOLOGY [**C, U**] a small round or oval object produced by a plant that a new plant can grow from ***Sow** the **seeds*** (= plant them) *near the surface.* **2 (the) seeds of sth** the beginning of something *the seeds of hope/change* ➲See also: **sesame seed**

seed[2] /siːd/ *verb* **1** FARMING [**T**] to plant seeds in the ground **2 be seeded first/second, etc** SPORT in tennis, to be the first/second, etc on a list of players expected to succeed in a competition

seedless /ˈsiːdləs/ *adjective* FOOD without seeds *seedless grapes*

seedling /ˈsiːdlɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] BIOLOGY a young plant that has been grown from a seed

seedy /ˈsiːdi/ *adjective informal* looking dirty or in bad condition and likely to be involved in immoral activities *a seedy bar/hotel*

ˌseeing ˈeye dog *US* (*UK/US* **guide dog**) *noun* [**C**] a dog that is trained to help blind people

seek /siːk/ *verb* [**T**] *past* **sought** **1** TO FIND/GET to try to find or get something *to **seek advice**/a solution* **2** TO DO to try to do something [+ **to do sth**] *They are seeking to change the rules.* ○ *to seek re-election* ➲See also: **hide-and-seek**

O-key **seem** /siːm/ *verb* **seem happy/a nice person, etc; seem like/as if, etc** to appear to be a particular thing or to have a particular quality *She seemed happy enough.* ○ *It seemed like a good idea at the time.* ○ *There doesn't **seem to be** any real solution.* [+ **(that)**] *It seems that the bars close early here.* ○ ***It seems to me*** (= I think) *that she's in the wrong job.*

seemingly /ˈsiːmɪŋli/ *adverb* appearing to be something without really being that thing *a seemingly harmless comment*

seen /siːn/ *past participle of* see

seep /siːp/ *verb* **seep from/into/through, etc** to flow very slowly through something *Water was seeping through the walls.*

seesaw /ˈsiːsɔː/ (*also US* **teeter-totter**) *noun* [**C**] a long board that children play on by sitting at each end and using their feet on the ground to push the board up and down

seethe /siːð/ *verb* [**I**] to be very angry, often without showing it *I left him **seething with** anger.*

segment /ˈsegmənt/ *noun* [**C**] one of the parts that something can be divided into *a segment of the population/market* ○ *an orange segment*

segregate /ˈsegrɪgeɪt/ *verb* [**T**] SOCIETY to separate one group of people from another, especially one sex or race from another *At school the girls were **segregated from** the boys.* ●**segregation** /ˌsegrɪˈgeɪʃ*n/ *noun* [**U**] *racial segregation*

seismic /ˈsaɪzmɪk/ *adjective* GEOLOGY relating to or caused by an earthquake (= when the earth shakes) ***seismic activity***

seismograph /ˈsaɪzməɡrɑːf/ *noun* [**C**] GEOLOGY a piece of equipment which measures and records the strength of an earthquake (= sudden movement of the Earth's surface)

seize /siːz/ *verb* [**T**] **1** HOLD to take hold of something quickly and firmly *She seized my arm and pulled me towards her.* **2** OPPORTUNITY to do something quickly when you have the opportunity *You need to **seize** every **opportunity**.* **3** PLACE to take control of a place suddenly by using military force *Troops **seized control** in the early hours of the morning.* **4** DRUGS ETC to take away something that is illegal, for example drugs *Officials seized 2.7 tons of cocaine from the ship.*

seize on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to quickly use something that will give you an advantage *Her story was seized upon by the press.*

seize up *phrasal verb* If part of your body or a machine seizes up, it stops moving or working in the normal way. *His right leg suddenly seized up during the race.*

seizure /ˈsiːʒə/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [**U**] when someone takes control of a country, government,

etc *a seizure of power* **2** LAW [C] when someone in authority takes away something that is illegal, for example drugs *a seizure of heroin* **3** HEALTH [C] a sudden attack of an illness *an epileptic seizure*

seldom /ˈseldəm/ *adverb* not often *We seldom go out in the evenings.*

select¹ /sɪˈlekt/ *verb* [T] to choose someone or something *We've selected three candidates.*

select² /sɪˈlekt/ *adjective* consisting of only a small group of people who have been specially chosen *a **select group***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***selection***

a **good/wide** selection ● a selection **of** sth

selection /sɪˈlekʃˈn/ *noun* **1** CHOOSING [U] when someone or something is chosen *the **selection process*** **2** PEOPLE/THINGS [C] a group of people or things that has been chosen *We have a **wide selection of** imported furniture.* ➲See also: **natural selection**

selective /sɪˈlektɪv/ *adjective* **1** CAREFUL careful about what you choose *He's very selective about the people he spends time with.* **2** CHOSEN involving only people or things that have been specially chosen *selective breeding*

selenium /səˈliːniəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical element used in photography and also necessary in small amounts in the body (symbol **Se**)

self /self/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **selves** /selvz/ your characteristics, including your personality, your abilities, etc *his true self*

self-assured /ˌselfəˈʃʊəd/ *adjective* confident about yourself

self-catering /ˌselfˈkeɪtˈrɪŋ/ *adjective UK* describes a holiday in which you have a kitchen so that you can cook meals for yourself *We decided to stay in self-catering accommodation rather than in a hotel.*

self-centred *UK* (*US* **self-centered**) /ˌselfˈsentəd/ *adjective* interested only in yourself

self-confident /ˌselfˈkɒnfɪdˈnt/ *adjective* feeling sure about yourself and your abilities ●**self-confidence** *noun* [U] being self-confident

self-conscious /ˌselfˈkɒnʃəs/ *adjective* too aware of what other people are thinking about you and your appearance ●**self-consciously** *adverb* ●**self-consciousness** *noun* [U]

self-contained /ˌselfkənˈteɪnd/ *adjective UK* If a flat is self-contained, it has its own kitchen, bathroom, and entrance.

self-control /ˌselfkənˈtrəʊl/ *noun* [U] the ability to control your emotions and actions although you are very angry, upset, etc

self-defence *UK* (*US* **self-defense**) /ˌselfdɪˈfens/ *noun* [U] when you protect yourself from someone who is attacking you by fighting *He claimed he had acted **in self-defence**.*

self-destructive /ˌselfdɪˈstrʌktɪv/ *adjective* A self-destructive action harms the person who is doing it.

self-discipline /ˌselfˈdɪsɪplɪn/ *noun* [U] the ability to make yourself do things that you do not want to do

self-employed /ˌselfɪmˈplɔɪd/ *adjective* working for yourself and not for a company or other organization ●**self-employment** /ˌselfɪmˈplɔɪmənt/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***self-esteem***

boost/build/damage/raise self-esteem ● **high/low** self-esteem

self-esteem /ˌselfɪˈstiːm/ *noun* [U] confidence in yourself and a belief in your qualities and abilities *She suffers from **low self-esteem**.*

self-evident /ˌselfˈevɪdˈnt/ *adjective* obviously true and not needing to be explained

self-explanatory /ˌselfɪkˈsplænətˈri/ *adjective* easy to understand and not needing to be explained

self-help /ˌselfˈhelp/ *adjective* A self-help book, activity, organization, etc is designed to help you deal with your problems on your own. *a self-help group for alcoholics*

self-indulgent /ˌselfɪnˈdʌldʒˈnt/ *adjective* doing or having things that you like although they are not necessary or are bad for you ●**self-indulgence** /ˌselfɪnˈdʌldʒˈns/ *noun* [C, U]

self-inflicted /ˌselfɪnˈflɪktɪd/ *adjective* If an injury or a problem is self-inflicted, you have caused it yourself.

self-interest /ˌselfˈɪntrəst/ *noun* [U] interest in what will help you and not what will help other people

selfish /ˈselfɪʃ/ *adjective* caring only about yourself and not other people *It's very selfish of him.* ●**selfishly** *adverb* ●**selfishness** *noun* [U]

selfless /ˈselfləs/ *adjective* caring about other people and not about yourself

self-made /ˌselfˈmeɪd/ *adjective* rich because you have earned a lot of money yourself *a self-made millionaire*

self-pity /ˌselfˈpɪti/ *noun* [U] sadness for yourself because you think you have suffered so much, especially when this is not true

self-portrait /ˌselfˈpɔːtrɪt/ *noun* [C] ART a picture that you draw or paint of yourself

self-reliant /ˌselfrɪˈlaɪənt/ *adjective* able to do things yourself without depending on other people

self-respect /ˌselfrɪˈspekt/ *noun* [U] the feeling of pride in yourself and your character ●**self-respecting** *adjective*

self-righteous /ˌselfˈraɪtʃəs/ *adjective* believing that you are morally better than other people

self-sacrifice /ˌselfˈsækrɪfaɪs/ *noun* [U] when you do not have or do something so that you can help other people

self-satisfied /ˌselfˈsætɪsfaɪd/ *adjective* too pleased with yourself and what you have achieved

self-service /ˌselfˈsɜːvɪs/ *adjective* A self-service restaurant or shop is one in which you serve yourself and are not served by the people who work there.

self-sufficient /ˌselfsəˈfɪʃˈnt/ *adjective* having everything that you need yourself and not needing help from others

S

sell /sel/ *verb past* **sold 1** FINANCE [I, T] to give something to someone who gives you money for it *He **sold** his guitar **for** £50.* ○ *I **sold** my bike **to** Claire.* [+ **two objects**] *I'm hoping she'll sell me her car.* **2** FINANCE [T] to offer something for people to buy *Excuse me, do you sell newspapers?* **3** FINANCE **sell for/at sth** to be available for sale at a particular price *The shirts are selling for £30 each.* **4** FINANCE [I, T] to be bought in large numbers *His last book sold eight million copies.* **5** MAKE YOU WANT [T] to make someone want to buy something *Scandal sells newspapers.* **6** IDEA/PLAN [T] to persuade someone that an idea or plan is good *I'm currently trying to sell the idea to my boss.*
sell sth off *phrasal verb* to sell all or part of a business
sell out *phrasal verb* If a shop sells out of something, it sells all of that thing. *They'd **sold out of** bread by the time I got there.*
sell up *phrasal verb UK* to sell your house or company in order to go somewhere else or do something else

ˈsell-by ˌdate *noun* [C] *UK* the date printed on a food or drink container after which it should not be sold

seller /ˈselər/ *noun* [C] FINANCE **1** someone who sells something *a flower seller* **2** a product that a company sells

Sellotape® /ˈselətəʊteɪp/ *UK* (*US* **Scotch® tape**) *noun* [U] clear, thin material with glue on it, used to stick things together, especially paper ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

sellout /ˈselaʊt/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** EVENT a performance or event where all of the tickets have been sold **2** FOR MONEY/POWER *informal* when someone does something that is against their beliefs in order to get money or power

selves /selvz/ *plural of* self

semantic /sɪˈmæntɪk/ *adjective* LANGUAGE connected with the meaning of language

semblance /ˈsembləns/ *noun* **semblance of normality/order, etc** a small amount of a quality, but not as much as you would like *Our lives have now returned to some semblance of normality.*

semen /ˈsiːmən/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the liquid that is produced by the male sex organs, that contains sperm (= cells that join with female eggs to make new life)

semester /sɪˈmestər/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* EDUCATION one of the two time periods that a school or college year is divided into

semi- /semi-/ *prefix* half or partly *a semicircle* ○ *semifrozen*

semi-arid /ˌsemiˈærɪd/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY, ENVIRONMENT describes an area or climate with little rain but not completely dry

semicircle /ˈsemiˌsɜːkl/ *noun* [C] half a circle

semicolon /ˌsemɪˈkəʊlən/ (US) /ˈsemiˌkəʊlən/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a mark (;) used to separate parts of a sentence, or items in a list which already has commas ➲See Extra help page **Punctuation** on page Centre 19.

semiconductor /ˌsemikənˈdʌktər/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a material, such as silicon, which allows electricity to move through it more easily when its temperature increases, or an electronic device made from this material

semi-detached /ˌsemɪdɪˈtætʃt/ *adjective UK* A semi-detached house has one wall that is joined to another house.

semifinal /ˌsemɪˈfaɪnəl/ *noun* [C] SPORT one of the two games in a sports competition that are played to decide who will play in the final game

semilunar valve /ˌsemiluːnəˈvælv/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY one of the valves (= structures that open and close) which stop blood from returning into the ventricles (= lower spaces) of the heart from the aorta or the pulmonary artery ➲See picture at **heart**

semi-metal /ˈsemiːˌmetəl/ (*also* **metalloid**) *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a chemical element with some of the properties of a metal and some of a non-metal, for example silicon and arsenic

seminar /ˈsemɪnɑːr/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION a meeting of a group of people with a teacher or expert for training, discussion, or study of a subject

semipermeable /ˌsemiˈpɜːmiəbl/ *adjective* PHYSICS,BIOLOGY,GEOLOGY describes something that allows some liquids and gases to pass through it, but not others

Semitic /sɪˈmɪtɪk/ *adjective* LANGUAGE, SOCIETY relating to the Jewish or Arab races, or their languages

the Senate /ˈsenɪt/ *noun* [**group**] POLITICS a part of a government in some countries

senator /ˈsenətər/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who has been elected to the Senate *Senator Moynihan*

send /send/ *verb* [T] *past* **sent 1** SOMETHING to arrange for something to go or be taken somewhere, especially by post [+ **two objects**] *I sent him a letter last week.* ○ *Do you think we should send flowers?* **2** SOMEONE to make someone go somewhere *I sent him into the house to fetch some glasses.* **3 send sb to sleep** to cause someone to start sleeping ➲See also: drive/send sb round the **bend**[2]
send sth back *phrasal verb* to return something to the person who sent it to you, especially because it is damaged or not suitable *I had to send the shirt back because it didn't fit me.*
send for sb *phrasal verb* to send someone a message asking them to come to see you *Do you think we should send for a doctor?*
send (off/away) for sth *phrasal verb* to write to an organization to ask them to send you something *I've sent off for a catalogue.*
send sth in *phrasal verb* to send something to an organization *Viewers were asked to send in photographs of their pets.*
send sb in *phrasal verb* to send soldiers, police, etc to a place in order to deal with a dangerous situation
send sth off *phrasal verb* to send a letter, document, or parcel by post
send sb off *phrasal verb UK* SPORT to order a sports player to leave the playing area because they have done something wrong
send sth out *phrasal verb* **1** SEND to send something to a lot of different people *to send out*

invitations **2** LIGHT/SOUND to produce light, sound, etc
send sb/sth up *phrasal verb UK* to make someone or something seem stupid by copying them in a funny way

send-off /ˈsendɒf/ *noun* [C] when a group of people say goodbye to someone at the same time *I **got** a good **send-off** at the station.*

senile /ˈsiːnaɪl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** confused and unable to remember things because of old age ●**senility** /sɪˈnɪləti/ *noun* [U] the state of being senile

senior¹ /ˈsiːniəʳ/ *adjective* **1** MORE IMPORTANT having a more important job or position than someone else *a **senior executive** ○ We work in the same team but she's **senior to** me.* **2** OLDER older *senior students* **3** NAME *mainly US* (*written abbreviation* **Sr**) used at the end of a man's name to show that he is the older of two men in the same family who have the same name *Hello, may I speak to Ken Griffey Senior, please?*

senior² /ˈsiːniəʳ/ *noun* **1 be 20/30, etc years sb's senior** to be 20/30, etc years older than someone *She married a man 20 years her senior.* **2** **EDUCATION** [C] *US* a student who is in the last year of high school or college

ˌsenior ˈcitizen *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** an old person

seniority /ˌsiːniˈɒrəti/ *noun* [U] **SOCIETY** the state of being older or of having a more important position in an organization

sensation /senˈseɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [C, U] a physical feeling, or the ability to physically feel things *a burning sensation ○ Three months after the accident she still has no sensation in her right foot.* **2** FEELING [C] a strange feeling or idea that you can not explain *I had the strangest sensation that I had met him before.* **3** EXCITEMENT [**no plural**] a lot of excitement, surprise, or interest, or the person or event that causes these feelings *Their affair **caused a sensation**.*

sensational /senˈseɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SHOCKING done in a way that is intended to shock people *sensational journalism* **2** EXCITING very exciting or extremely good *a sensational performance*

sensationalism /senˈseɪʃᵊnᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] when a story is told in a way that is intended to shock people

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sense***

have the sense to do sth ● **good** sense

O-key **sense¹** /sens/ *noun* **1** GOOD JUDGMENT [U] good judgment, especially about practical things *He had the **good sense** to book a seat in advance.* **2** ABILITY [**no plural**] the ability to do something *a **sense of** direction ○ good **business sense*** **3** **BIOLOGY** [C] one of the five natural abilities of sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste *I have a very poor sense of smell.* **4 a sense of humour** *UK* (*US* **sense of humor**) the ability to understand funny things and to be funny yourself **5 a sense of loyalty/responsibility/security, etc** the quality or feeling of being loyal, responsible, safe, etc *He has absolutely no sense of loyalty.* **6** **LANGUAGE** [C] the meaning of a word, phrase, or sentence **7 in a sense/in some senses** thinking about something in a particular way *In a sense, he's right.* **8 make sense a** CLEAR MEANING to have a meaning or reason that you can understand *He's written me this note but it doesn't make any sense.* **b** SHOULD DO to be a good thing to do [**+ to do sth**] It makes sense to buy now while prices are low. **9 make sense of sth** to understand something that is difficult to understand *I'm trying to make sense of this document.* **10 come to your senses** to start to understand that you have been behaving stupidly ➲See also: **common sense**

sense² /sens/ *verb* [T] to understand what someone is thinking or feeling without being told about it [**+ (that)**] *I sensed that you weren't happy about this.*

senseless /ˈsensləs/ *adjective* **1** NO REASON happening or done without a good reason ***senseless violence*** **2** NOT CONSCIOUS not conscious *He was beaten senseless.*

sensibility /ˌsensɪˈbɪləti/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* someone's feelings, or the ability to understand what other people feel

sensible /ˈsensɪbl/ *adjective* **1** JUDGMENT showing good judgment *a sensible decision* [**+ to do sth**] *Wouldn't it be more sensible to leave before the traffic gets bad?* **2** PRACTICAL having a practical purpose *sensible shoes/clothes* ●**sensibly** *adverb to eat/behave sensibly*

sensitive /ˈsensɪtɪv/ *adjective* **1** KIND able to understand what people are feeling and deal with them in a way that does not upset them *I want a man who's kind and sensitive.* **2** EASILY UPSET easily upset by the things people say or do *He was always **sensitive to** criticism. ○ She's very **sensitive about** her weight.* **3** SUBJECT A sensitive subject or situation needs to be dealt with carefully in order to avoid upsetting people. *Gender is a very sensitive subject.* **4** EASILY DAMAGED easily damaged or hurt *sensitive eyes/skin* **5** EQUIPMENT Sensitive equipment is able to measure very small changes. ➲Opposite **insensitive** ●**sensitively** *adverb I think she dealt with the problem very sensitively.* ●**sensitivity** /ˌsensɪˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is sensitive

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

sensitive or **sensible?**

Remember that **sensible** does not mean 'easily upset' or 'able to understand what people are feeling'. The word you need to express that is **sensitive**.

Don't criticize her too much. She's very sensitive.

sensor /ˈsensəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that can find heat, light, etc *Sensors detect movement in the room.*

sensual /ˈsensjʊəl/ *adjective* relating to physical pleasure, often sexual pleasure *a sensual experience ○ a sensual mouth* ●**sensuality** /ˌsensjuˈæləti/ *noun* [U] being sensual

sensuous /ˈsensjʊəs/ *adjective* giving physical pleasure *the sensuous feel of silk sheets*

sent /sent/ *past of* send

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sentence***

impose/receive/serve a sentence ● a **jail/prison** sentence ● a sentence **for** sth

S

sentence[1] /ˈsentəns/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [C] a group of words, usually containing a verb, that expresses a complete idea **2** LAW [C, U] a punishment that a judge gives to someone who has committed a crime *a 30-year sentence*

sentence[2] /ˈsentəns/ *verb* [T] LAW to give a punishment to someone who has committed a crime [**often passive**] *She was **sentenced to** six months in prison.*

sentiment /ˈsentɪmənt/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C, U] an opinion that you have because of the way you feel about something *nationalist/religious sentiments* **2** EMOTION [U] emotional feelings such as sympathy, love, etc, especially when they are not considered to be suitable for a situation *I find her writing full of sentiment.*

sentimental /ˌsentɪˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* **1** FEELING showing kind feelings such as sympathy, love, etc, especially in a silly way *a sentimental song* ○ *The British are very sentimental about animals.* **2** VALUE related to feelings and memories and not related to how much money something costs *It wasn't an expensive ring but it had great **sentimental value**.* ●**sentimentality** /ˌsentɪmenˈtæləti/ *noun* [U]

sentry /ˈsentri/ *noun* [C] a soldier who stands outside a building in order to guard it

sepal /ˈsepəl/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY one of the parts that form the outer part of a flower which surrounds the petals and which are usually small and green

separable /ˈsepᵊrəbl/ *adjective* able to be separated ➲Opposite **inseparable**

separate[1] /ˈsepᵊrət/ *adjective* **1** NOT JOINED not joined or touching anything else *a separate compartment* ○ *I try to keep meat **separate from** other food.* **2** NOT AFFECTING not affecting or related to each other *I've asked him to turn his music down on three **separate occasions**.* ○ *I have my professional life and my private life and I try to **keep** them **separate**.* **3** DIFFERENT different *Use a separate sheet of paper.* ●**separately** *adverb*

separate[2] /ˈsepᵊreɪt/ *verb* **1** DIVIDE [I, T] to divide into parts, or to make something divide into parts *I **separated** the class **into** three groups.* **2** MOVE APART [I, T] to move apart, or to make people move apart *I shall separate you two if you don't stop talking.* **3** HUSBAND/WIFE [I] to start to live in a different place from your husband or wife because the relationship has ended *My parents separated when I was four.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **married**

separation /ˌsepᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** WHEN SEPARATE [C, U] when people or things are separate or become separate from other people or things *the separation of church and state* ○ *Their working in different countries meant long periods of separation.* **2** AGREEMENT [C] a legal agreement when two people stay married but stop living together

September /sepˈtembᵊr/ (*written abbreviation* **Sept**) *noun* [C, U] the ninth month of the year

septic /ˈseptɪk/ *adjective* HEALTH infected by poisonous bacteria (= small living things which cause disease)

septum /ˈseptəm/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a part of the body that divides two hollow parts, for example in the heart ➲See picture at **heart**

sequel /ˈsiːkwᵊl/ *noun* [C] a film, book, etc that continues the story from an earlier one

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sequence***

in a sequence ● a sequence **of** sth ● be **out of** sequence ● a **logical** sequence

sequence /ˈsiːkwəns/ *noun* **1** SERIES [C] a series of related events or things that have a particular order *the **sequence of events** that led to his death* **2** ORDER [U] the order that events or things should happen or be arranged in *I got my slides mixed up and they appeared **out of sequence**.*

sequential /sɪˈkwenʃᵊl/ *adjective* following a particular order ●**sequentially** /sɪˈkwenʃᵊli/ *adverb*

sequin /ˈsiːkwɪn/ *noun* [C] a small, flat, shiny circle that is sewn onto clothes for decoration

serenade /ˌserəˈneɪd/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a song, usually about love

serendipity /ˌserᵊnˈdɪpəti/ *noun* [U] *literary* when you are lucky and find something interesting or valuable by chance

serene /sɪˈriːn/ *adjective* calm and quiet *a serene face/smile* ●**serenely** *adverb*

serf /sɜːf/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY in the past, a member of a low social class who worked on the land and was the property of the person who owned that land

serfdom /ˈsɜːfdəm/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY the state of being a serf

sergeant /ˈsɑːdʒᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** POLICE an officer of low rank in the police **2** ARMY a soldier of middle rank in the army or air force

serial /ˈsɪəriəl/ *noun* [C] a story in a magazine or on television or radio that is told in separate parts over a period of time

ˈserial ˌkiller *noun* [C] someone who has murdered several people over a period of time

ˈserial ˌnumber *noun* [C] one of a set of numbers that is put on an item that is made in large quantities, such as computers, televisions, paper money, etc., so that you can tell one item from another

ˈserial ˌport *noun* [C] COMPUTING a part of a computer where wires from other pieces of equipment can be connected to it, sending through information one bit (= unit of information) at a time ➲Compare **parallel port**

series /ˈsɪəriːz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **series** **1** SAME THINGS several things or events of the same type that come one after the other *a series of lectures* **2** TELEVISION/RADIO a group of television or radio programmes that have the same main characters or deal with the same subject *a four-part drama series*

ˈseries ˌcircuit *noun* [C] PHYSICS a circuit (= closed system of wires) in which the electric current passes through one part after another ➲Compare **parallel circuit**

S

serif /ˈserɪf/ *noun* the very small lines at the ends of the letters in some styles of printing *a serif font* ➲Compare **sans serif**

O-K **serious** /ˈsɪəriəs/ *adjective* **1** [BAD] A serious problem or situation is bad and makes people worry. *a serious accident/illness* ○ *This is a serious matter.* **2** [NOT JOKING] thinking or speaking sincerely about something and not joking *I'm being serious now - this is a very real problem.* ○ *Are you **serious about** changing your job?* **3** [QUIET] A serious person is quiet and does not laugh often. *a serious child* ●**seriousness** *noun* [U]

O-K **seriously** /ˈsɪəriəsli/ *adverb* **1** [SERIOUS WAY] in a serious way *seriously injured* ○ *Smoking can **seriously damage** your health.* **2** [NOT A JOKE] used to show that what you are going to say is not a joke *Seriously though, you mustn't say that.* **3 take sb/sth seriously** to believe that someone or something is important and that you should pay attention to them *The police have to take any terrorist threat seriously.*

sermon /ˈsɜːmən/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a religious speech given by a priest in church *to **deliver/give a sermon***

serotonin /ˌserəˈtəʊnɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a chemical in your brain which controls your moods

serpent /ˈsɜːpᵊnt/ *noun* [C] *literary* a snake

serrated /sɪˈreɪtɪd/ *adjective* A serrated edge, usually of a knife, has sharp triangular points along it.

serum /ˈsɪərəm/ *noun* [U] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a clear liquid in blood that contains substances that stop infection

servant /ˈsɜːvᵊnt/ *noun* [C] someone who works and lives in someone else's house doing their cooking and cleaning, especially in the past ➲See also: **civil servant**

O-K **serve¹** /sɜːv/ *verb* **1** [FOOD/DRINK] [I, T] to give someone food or drink, especially guests or customers in a restaurant or bar *We're not allowed to serve alcohol to anyone under 18.* **2** [SHOP] [I, T] to help customers and sell things to them in a shop *Are you being served?* **3** [WORK] [I, T] to do work that helps society, for example in an organization such as the army or the government *to serve in the army* ○ *to serve on a committee/jury* ○ *He **served as** mayor for 5 years.* **4** [BE USEFUL] [I, T] to be useful as something *It's a very entertaining film but it also **serves** an educational **purpose**.* ○ *The spare bedroom also **serves as** a study.* [+ **to do sth**] *He hopes his son's death will serve to warn others about the dangers of owning a gun.* **5 LAW** [T] to be in prison for a period of time *Williams, 42, is serving a four-year jail sentence.* **6 SPORT** [I] in a sport such as tennis, to throw the ball up into the air and then hit it towards the other player **7 serves one/two/four, etc** If an amount of food serves a particular number, it is enough for that number of people. ➲See also: It serves her/him/you **right²**!

serve² /sɜːv/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** in sports such as tennis, when you throw the ball up into the air and hit it towards the other player

server /ˈsɜːvəʳ/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer that is used only for storing and managing programs and information used by other computers *an email/Internet server*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***service***

2 offer/provide/use a service

O-K **service¹** /ˈsɜːvɪs/ *noun* **1** [SHOP] [U] when people help you and bring you things in a place such as a shop, restaurant, or hotel *The food was nice, but the service wasn't very good.* **2 ECONOMICS** [C] a system that supplies something that people need *financial/medical services* ○ *electricity/water services* ○ *They **provide** a free bus **service** from the station.* **3** [WORK] [U] the time you spend working for an organization *He retired last week after 25 years' service.* **4 RELIGION** [C] a religious ceremony *They **held a** memorial **service** for the victims of the bombing.* **5** [CAR/MACHINE] [C] when a car or machine is examined for faults and repaired **6 SPORT** [C] when you throw a ball up into the air and hit it towards the other player in sports such as tennis ➲See also: **the Civil Service, community service, lip-service, the National Health Service, national service, secret service**

service² /ˈsɜːvɪs/ *verb* [T] to examine and repair a car or machine

serviceable /ˈsɜːvɪsəbl/ *adjective* able to be used, but not very good or attractive *I have some old but serviceable chairs.*

ˈservice ˌcharge *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money that is added to what you pay in a restaurant for being helped and brought things *a 10% service charge*

serviceman /ˈsɜːvɪsmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **servicemen** a man who is in the army or navy

ˈservice proˌvider *noun* [C] **COMPUTING, INTERNET** a company that connects your computer to the Internet, and lets you use email and other services

the services /ˈsɜːvɪsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] the military forces such as the army or navy

ˈservice ˌstation *noun* [C] a place at the side of a road where you can buy fuel for cars, and food

serviette /ˌsɜːviˈet/ *UK* (*UK/US* **napkin**) *noun* [C] a piece of cloth or paper used when you eat, to keep your clothes clean and to clean your mouth and hands

servile /ˈsɜːvaɪl/ (US) /ˈsɜːrvᵊl/ *adjective* too willing to do things for other people

serving /ˈsɜːvɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** an amount of food for one person to eat *a large serving of rice*

sesame seed /ˈsesəmiˌsiːd/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small seed that is used to add a taste to food

session /ˈseʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [PERIOD OF TIME] [C] a period during which you do one activity *a weekly aerobics session* ○ *We're having a training session this afternoon.* **2** [MEETING] [C, U] a meeting of an official group of people such as in a court or in the government *The court is now **in session**.*

O-K **set¹** /set/ *verb* **setting**, *past* **set 1** [A TIME] [T] to arrange a time when something will happen [**often passive**] *The next meeting is **set for** 6 February.* **2** [LEVEL] [T] to decide the level of something *The interest rate has been **set at** 5%.* **3-**

S

MACHINE [T] to press switches on a machine so that it will start when you want it to *I've **set** the alarm **for** 6.30.* [+ **to do sth**] *Can you set the video to record 'Neighbours' please?* **4 set an example/a record/a standard, etc** to do something in a way that people will copy or try to improve on *She's set a new world record with that jump.* **5 set fire to sth; set sth on fire** to make something start burning **6 set sb free** to allow someone to leave prison, or to allow a person or animal to escape **7 set sth alight** to make something start burning **8 set the table** to put plates, knives, forks, etc on the table before you have a meal **9** SUN [I] When the sun sets, it moves down in the sky so that it cannot be seen. *The sun rises in the East and sets in the West.* **10** BECOME SOLID [I] If a liquid substance sets, it becomes solid. **11 EDUCATION** [T] *UK* If you set work or an exam at a school or college, you ask the students to do it. [+ **two objects**] *Mr Harley forgot to set us any maths homework.* **12 set sth down/on, etc** to put something somewhere *She set the vase down on the table.* **13** BOOK/FILM/PLAY [T] If a book, play, or film is set in a place or period of time, the story happens there or at that time. [**often passive**] *It's a historical adventure set in India in the 1940s.* **14 set to work** to start working

set about sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to start doing something, especially something that uses a lot of time or energy *I got home and immediately set about cleaning the house.*

be set against sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to not want to do or have something *He is **dead set against** the move.*

set sb/sth apart *phrasal verb* If a quality sets someone or something apart, it makes them different from and usually better than others of the same type. *It's their intelligence which **sets them apart from** other rock bands.*

set sth aside *phrasal verb* to save something, usually time or money, for a special purpose

set sb/sth back *phrasal verb* to make something happen more slowly or later than it should *The heavy traffic set us back about half an hour.*

set sb back (sth) *phrasal verb informal* to cost someone a large amount of money *A car like that will probably set you back about £12,000.*

set in *phrasal verb* If something unpleasant sets in, it begins and seems likely to continue. *This rain looks as if it has set in for the rest of the day.*

set off *phrasal verb* to start a journey *What time are you setting off tomorrow morning?*

set sth off *phrasal verb* to cause something to begin or happen, especially a loud noise or a lot of activity *He's always burning the toast and setting off the smoke alarm.*

set sb/sth on/upon sb *phrasal verb* to make a person or animal attack someone *If you come any closer, I'll set the dog on you.*

set out *phrasal verb* **1** INTEND to start doing something when you have already decided what you want to achieve [+ **to do sth**] *I'd done what I set out to do.* **2** START JOURNEY to start a journey

set sth out *phrasal verb* to give all the details of something, or to explain something clearly, especially in writing *Your contract will set out the terms of your employment.*

set sth up *phrasal verb* **1** COMPANY to start a company or organization *A committee has been set up to investigate the problem.* **2** ARRANGE to arrange for something to happen *I've set up a meeting with him for next week.*

set sb up *phrasal verb* to trick someone in order to make them do something, or in order to make them seem guilty of something that they have not done

set (sth) up *phrasal verb* to get all the necessary equipment ready for an activity *I need one or two people to help me set up the display.*

set² /set/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP a group of things which belong together *a set of instructions/rules* ○ *a **set of** keys/tools* **2** FILM/PLAY the place where a film or play is performed or recorded, and the pictures, furniture, etc that are used *They first met **on the set of** 'Star Wars'.* **3 SPORT** one part of a tennis match *Agassi is leading by four games to one in the third set.* **4** TV/RADIO a television or radio *a TV set* **5 MUSIC** a group of songs or tunes that go together to make a musical performance **6 MATHEMATICS** a group of numbers or things

set³ /set/ *adjective* **1** fixed and never changing *Most people work for a **set number of hours** each week.* ○ *I have no **set routine**.* **2 be all set** to be ready [+ **to do sth**] *We were all set to go when the phone rang.* ➲See also: On your marks (**mark**¹). Get set. Go!

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***setback***

suffer a setback ● a **major/serious** setback ● a setback **for** sb ● a setback **in/to** sth

setback /ˈsetbæk/ *noun* [C] a problem that makes something happen later or more slowly than it should *The project has **suffered** a series of **setbacks** this year.*

set-piece /ˌsetˈpiːs/ *noun* [C] a speech or set of actions that has been carefully planned and practised

settee /setˈiː/ *UK* (*UK/US* **sofa**) *noun* [C] a large, comfortable seat for more than one person

setting /ˈsetɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** PLACE the place where something is or where something happens, often in a book, play, or film *The house provided the **setting for** the TV series 'Pride and Prejudice'.* **2** LEVEL a position on the controls of a piece of equipment *Set the oven at the lowest setting.*

settle /ˈsetl/ *verb* **1** ARGUMENT [T] If you settle an argument, you solve the problem and stop arguing. *to **settle a dispute*** **2** LIVE [I] to start living somewhere that you are going to live for a long time *He travelled around Europe for years before finally settling in Vienna.* **3** DECIDE [T] to decide or arrange something [**often passive**] *Right, that's settled. We're going to Spain.* **4** RELAX [I, T] to relax into a comfortable position [**often reflexive**] *She settled herself into the chair opposite.* **5 FINANCE** [T] If you settle a bill or a debt, you pay the money that you owe. **6** MOVE DOWN [I] to move down towards the ground or the bottom of something and then stay there *Do you think the snow will settle?* ➲See also: the **dust**¹ settles

settle down *phrasal verb* **1** STAY to start living in a place where you intend to stay for a long time, usually with a partner *Do you think*

he'll ever settle down and have a family? **2** FEEL HAPPY to start to feel happy and confident with a new situation *Has she settled down in her new job?*
settle (sb) down *phrasal verb* to become quiet and calm, or to make someone become quiet and calm *Come on children, stop chatting and settle down please!*
settle for sth *phrasal verb* to accept something, especially something that is not exactly what you want *He wants a full refund and he won't settle for anything less.*
settle in *phrasal verb* to begin to feel relaxed and happy in a new home or job *Are you settling in OK?*
settle on/upon sth *phrasal verb* to agree on a decision *We still haven't settled on a place to meet.*
settle up *phrasal verb* FINANCE to pay someone the money that you owe them *I need to* ***settle up with*** *you for the tickets.*

settled /ˈsetld/ *adjective* **1 be settled** to feel happy and relaxed in a place or situation *He seems quite settled now.* **2** regular and not often changing *The weather's a lot more settled at this time of year.* ➲Opposite **unsettled**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***settlement***

agree/negotiate/reach a settlement ● a settlement **between** sb and sb ● a settlement **over** sth ● a **peace** settlement

settlement /ˈsetlmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** AGREEMENT an official agreement that finishes an argument *a* ***peace settlement*** **2** SOCIETY a town or village which people built to live in after arriving from somewhere else *a Jewish settlement*

settler /ˈsetlər/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone who moves to a new place where there were not many people before *The first European settlers arrived in Virginia in 1607.*

set-top box /ˈsettɒpˌbɒks/ *noun* [C] a piece of electronic equipment that allows you to watch digital broadcasts (= television sounds and pictures sent as signals in the form of numbers) on an ordinary television

set-up /ˈsetʌp/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** ARRANGEMENT the way that something is arranged or organized *It took me a while to get used to the set-up in my new job.* **2** TRICK a plan that is dishonest and is intended to trick someone

O-M**seven** /ˈsevən/ the number 7

O-M**seventeen** /ˌsevənˈtiːn/ the number 17 ●**seventeenth** 17th written as a word

seventh[1] /ˈsevənθ/ 7th written as a word

seventh[2] /ˈsevənθ/ *noun* [C] one of seven equal parts of something; 1/7

O-M**seventy** /ˈsevənti/ **1** the number 70 **2 the seventies** the years from 1970 to 1979 **3 be in your seventies** to be aged between 70 and 79 ●**seventieth** 70th written as a word

sever /ˈsevər/ *verb* [T] **1** to cut through something, especially a part of the body *to sever an artery* [**often passive**] *Two of her fingers were severed in the accident.* **2 sever links/ties, etc with sb** to end a relationship with someone

O-M**several** /ˈsevərəl/ *pronoun, determiner* some, but not a lot *Several people have complained about the scheme.* ○ ***Several of*** *my friends studied in Manchester.*

severance /ˈsevərəns/ *noun* [U] when an employer forces an employee to leave a job ***severance pay***

severe /sɪˈvɪər/ *adjective* **1** BAD extremely bad *a severe headache* ○ *severe weather conditions* **2** NOT KIND not kind or gentle *a severe punishment* **3** PERSON A severe person looks unfriendly or very strict. ●**severely** *adverb to be severely injured* ○ *She has been severely criticized for the speech.*

severity /sɪˈverəti/ *noun* [U] how severe something is

sew /səʊ/ *verb* [I, T] *past tense* **sewed**, *past participle* **sewn** or **sewed** to join things together with a needle and thread
sew sth up *phrasal verb* **1** to close or repair something by sewing the edges together **2 have sth sewn up** *informal* to be certain to win or succeed at something

sewage /ˈsuːɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] waste water and waste from toilets *a sewage treatment plant*

sewer /ˈsʊər/ *noun* [C] a large underground system of pipes that carries away sewage

sewing /ˈsəʊɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** ACTIVITY the activity of joining pieces of cloth together or repairing them with a needle and thread **2** CLOTH the pieces of cloth that you are joining together or repairing with a needle and thread

ˈ**sewing maˌchine** *noun* [C] a machine that joins pieces of cloth together with a needle and thread

sewn /səʊn/ *past participle of* sew

O-M**sex**[1] /seks/ *noun* **1** [U] BIOLOGY sexual activity between people *to* ***have sex*** *with someone* ○ ***sex education*** **2** BIOLOGY [U] the fact of being male or female *Do you know what sex the baby is?* ○ ***sex discrimination*** **3 the female/male/opposite, etc sex** people who are female/male/the other sex from you, etc

ˈ**sex ˌchromosome** *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a chromosome that controls what sex an organism will be

sexism /ˈseksɪzəm/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY when someone is treated unfairly because they are a woman or because they are a man ●**sexist** *adjective sexist attitudes/jokes*

ˈ**sex ˌlife** *noun* [C] a person's sexual activities and relationships

O-M**sexual** /ˈsekʃʊəl/ *adjective* **1** BIOLOGY relating to the activity of sex *sexual experiences* ○ *sexual organs* **2** SOCIETY relating to being male or female ***sexual discrimination*** ○ ***sexual equality***

ˌ**sexual ˈintercourse** *noun* [U] BIOLOGY *formal* when a man puts his penis into a woman's vagina

sexuality /ˌsekʃuˈæləti/ *noun* [U] the way you feel about sexual activity and the type of sex you prefer

sexually /ˈsekʃʊəli/ *adverb* in a way that relates to the activity of sex *sexually attractive* ○ ***a sexually transmitted disease***

S

ˌsexual reproˈduction *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a method of producing babies where a male seed and a female egg join together

sexy /ˈseksi/ *adjective* attractive or exciting in a sexual way *sexy underwear* ○ *He's very sexy.*

SGML /ˌesdʒiːemˈel/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* standard generalized markup language: a system for organizing information on computers

sh (*also* **shh**) /ʃ/ *exclamation* used to tell someone to be quiet

shabby /ˈʃæbi/ *adjective* **1** UNTIDY looking untidy and in bad condition *shabby clothes/furniture* **2** UNFAIR Shabby behaviour or treatment is bad and unfair. ●**shabbily** *adverb shabbily dressed* ○ *shabbily treated*

shack¹ /ʃæk/ *noun* [C] a small simple building that has been badly built

shackle /ˈʃækl/ *verb* [T] **1** to fasten a prisoner's arms or legs together with chains **2 be shackled by sth** to be prevented from doing what you want to do by something

shackles /ˈʃæklz/ *noun* [plural] chains used to fasten together prisoners' arms or legs

shade¹ /ʃeɪd/ *noun* **1** NO SUN [U] an area where there is no light from the sun and so it is darker and not as hot *I'd prefer to sit* ***in the shade***. **2 ART** [C] a colour, especially when referring to how dark or light it is *a pale/dark shade of grey* ○ *pastel shades* **3** COVER [C] a cover that stops too much light coming from the sun or from an electric light *a lamp shade* **4 a shade** a small amount *He's perhaps a shade taller*. **5 a shade of meaning/opinion, etc** a slight difference in the meaning of something

shade² /ʃeɪd/ *verb* [T] to cover something in order to protect it from the sun *He shaded his eyes with his hand.*

shades /ʃeɪdz/ *noun* [plural] *informal* sunglasses (= dark glasses that protect your eyes from the sun)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shadow***

sth **casts** a shadow ● a shadow **crosses/falls across** sth ● sth is **in** shadow ● the shadow **of** sth

shadow¹ /ˈʃædəʊ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] a dark area made by something that is stopping the light *The tree had* ***cast*** (= made) *a long* ***shadow***. **2 beyond/without a shadow of a doubt** If something is true beyond a shadow of a doubt, it is certainly true. **3 cast a shadow over sth** to spoil a good situation with something unpleasant *The bombing has cast a shadow over the Queen's visit.*

shadow² /ˈʃædəʊ/ *verb* [T] to follow someone secretly in order to see where they go and what they do [often passive] *He was being shadowed by a private detective.*

shadowy /ˈʃædəʊi/ *adjective* **1** DARK dark and full of shadows *in a shadowy corner* **2** SECRET secret and mysterious *the* ***shadowy world*** *of espionage*

shady /ˈʃeɪdi/ *adjective* **1** NOT SUNNY A shady place is protected from the sun and so it is darker and cooler. *We found a* ***shady spot*** *to sit in.* **2** DISHONEST *informal* dishonest and illegal ***shady deals***

shaft /ʃɑːft/ *noun* [C] **1** HOLE a long, vertical hole that people or things can move through, either inside a building or in the ground *a mine shaft* ○ *a ventilation shaft* **2** HANDLE the handle of a tool or weapon **3 a shaft of light** a beam of light

shake¹ /ʃeɪk/ *verb past tense* **shook**, *past participle* **shaken 1** MOVE [I, T] to make quick, short movements from side to side or up and down, or to make something or someone do this *He was shaking with nerves.* ○ *Shake the bottle.* **2 shake hands** to hold someone's hand and move it up and down when you meet them for the first time, or when you make an agreement with them *The two leaders smiled and shook hands for the photographers.* ○ *I* ***shook hands with*** *him.* **3 shake your head** to move your head from side to side to mean 'no' **4** SHOCK [T] to shock or upset someone [often passive] *No one was injured in the crash, but the driver was badly shaken.* **5** VOICE [I] If your voice shakes, you sound very nervous or frightened.

shake sth off *phrasal verb* to get rid of an illness or something that is causing you problems *I hope I can shake off this cold before the weekend.*

shake sb off *phrasal verb* to succeed in escaping from someone who is following you

shake sth out *phrasal verb* to hold something that is made of cloth at one end and move it up and down in order to get rid of dirt

shake sb up *phrasal verb* If an unpleasant experience shakes someone up, it makes them feel shocked and upset. *The accident really shook him up.*

shake² /ʃeɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** when you shake something ***Give it a*** *good* ***shake*** *before you open it.* **2 FOOD** (*also* **milkshake**) a sweet drink made of milk and chocolate or fruit

shake-up /ˈʃeɪkʌp/ *noun* [C] when big changes are made to a system or an organization *This is the biggest shake-up in the legal system for fifty years.*

shaky /ˈʃeɪki/ *adjective* **1** MOVING making quick, short movements from side to side or up and down *shaky hands* **2** NOT STRONG not physically strong because you are nervous, old, or ill *I felt a bit shaky when I stood up.* **3** LIKELY TO FAIL not working well and likely to fail *They managed to win the game, despite a very* ***shaky start***.

shall *strong form* /ʃæl/ *weak form* /ʃəl/ *modal verb* **1 shall I/we...? a** used to make an offer or suggestion *Shall I cook dinner tonight?* ○ *We'll ask him later, shall we?* **b** used to ask someone what to do *Who shall I ask?* **2 I/we shall...** *formal* used to say what you are going to do in the future *I shall be talking to her tomorrow.* ○ *I shan't forget to tell them.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

shall and will

Shall and **will** are both used to talk about what you are going to do in the future. **Shall** is usually used with 'I' or 'we' and is more formal than **will**.

shallot /ʃəˈlɒt/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a vegetable like a small onion

shallow /ˈʃæləʊ/ *adjective* **1** NOT DEEP not deep *shallow water* ○ *a shallow dish* ➲See picture at **deep 2** NOT SERIOUS not showing any interest in serious ideas

the shallows /ˈʃæləʊz/ *noun* [**plural**] areas of shallow water

sham /ʃæm/ *noun* [**no plural**] something that is not what it seems to be and is intended to deceive people *Newspapers have described their marriage as a sham.*

shambles /ˈʃæmblz/ *noun* **be a shambles** *informal* to be very badly organized *The performance was a complete shambles.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shame***

bring shame **on** sb/sth ● a **sense of** shame ● the shame **of** (doing) sth

shame¹ /ʃeɪm/ *noun* **1 a shame** If you describe something as a shame, you are disappointed that it has happened. [**+ to do sth**] ***It's a real shame*** *to waste all this food.* [**+ (that)**] ***What a shame*** *that they had to destroy such a beautiful building.* **2** [**U**] when you feel embarrassed and guilty about something bad that you have done *to be filled with shame* **3 have no shame** to not feel embarrassed or guilty about doing bad or embarrassing things **4 put sb/sth to shame** to be much better than someone or something else *Your cooking puts mine to shame.*

shame² /ʃeɪm/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone feel embarrassed and guilty about something [**+ into + doing sth**] *His children are trying to shame him into giving up smoking.*

shameful /ˈʃeɪmfᵊl/ *adjective* Something shameful is bad and should make you feel embarrassed and guilty. *shameful scenes* ●**shamefully** *adverb*

shameless /ˈʃeɪmləs/ *adjective* without feeling embarrassed or guilty although you should *shameless behaviour/lies* ●**shamelessly** *adverb*

shampoo /ʃæmˈpuː/ *noun* [**C, U**] a liquid substance that you use to wash your hair *a bottle of shampoo* ●**shampoo** *verb* [**T**] **shampooing**, *past* **shampooed**

shan't /ʃɑːnt/ *mainly UK short for* shall not *I was invited to the party, but I shan't be going.*

shanty town /ˈʃæntiˌtaʊn/ *noun* [**C**] an area on the edge of a town where poor people live in very simply built houses

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shape***

an **irregular/pleasing/strange/unusual** shape ● **change** shape ● **in** the shape **of** sth

shape¹ /ʃeɪp/ *noun* **1** [**C, U**] the physical form of something made by the line around its outer edge *a circular/rectangular shape* ○ *You can recognize trees by the shape of their leaves.* **2 in good/bad/great, etc shape** in good/bad, etc health or condition *She runs every day so she's in pretty good shape.* **3 out of shape** **HEALTH** not healthy or physically strong **4 keep in shape** to stay healthy and physically strong **5 take shape** to start to develop and become more clear or certain *The project is slowly beginning to take shape.* **6 all shapes and sizes** many different types of people or things *We saw people there of all shapes and sizes.*

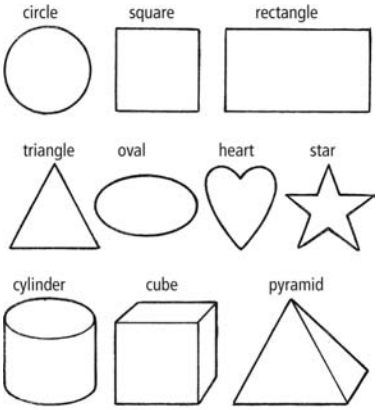

shapes

shape² /ʃeɪp/ *verb* [**T**] **1** INFLUENCE to influence the way that something develops [**often passive**] *Their attitudes were shaped during the war.* **2** MAKE A SHAPE to make something become a particular shape *Combine the meat and egg and shape the mixture into small balls.*
shape up *phrasal verb informal* to develop or improve *Things at work seem to be shaping up quite nicely.*

-shaped /ʃeɪpt/ *suffix* used after nouns to mean 'having a particular shape' *a heart-shaped cake* ➲See also: **pear-shaped**

shapeless /ˈʃeɪpləs/ *adjective* not having a clear or well designed shape *a shapeless dress*

shapely /ˈʃeɪpli/ *adjective* having an attractive shape *shapely legs*

share¹ /ʃeəʳ/ *verb* **1** AT SAME TIME [**I, T**] to have or use something at the same time as someone else *She* ***shares*** *a house* ***with*** *Paul.* **2** DIVIDE [**I, T**] to divide something between two or more people *We shared a pizza and a bottle of wine.* ○ *We* ***shared*** *the cost of the wedding* ***between*** *us.* **3 share an interest/opinion, etc** to have the same interest/opinion, etc as someone else *They share a love of gardening.* **4 share your problems/thoughts/ideas, etc** to tell someone your problems/thoughts, etc
share sth out *phrasal verb* to divide something into smaller amounts and give one amount to each person in a group *Profits are* ***shared out*** *equally* ***among*** *members of the group.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***share*** (noun)

buy/have/sell shares ● shares **in** sth ● share **prices**

share² /ʃeəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **ECONOMICS** one of the equal parts that the value of a company is divided into when it is owned by a group of people *to* ***buy/sell shares*** ○ *We own shares in a number of companies.* ○ ***Share prices*** *have fallen for the third day running.* **2** a part of

S

something that has been divided [**usually no plural**] *When am I going to get my share of the money?* **3 have your (fair) share of sth** to have a lot of something and enough of it, usually something bad *We've had our fair share of rain already this summer.*

shareholder /ˈʃeəˌhəʊldəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** someone who owns shares in a company *a shareholders' meeting*

shareware /ˈʃeəweəʳ/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** software that can be used by anyone without having to pay for it

Sharia /ʃəˈriːə/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the holy law of Islam

shark /ʃɑːk/ *noun* [C] a large fish with very sharp teeth

sharp¹ /ʃɑːp/ *adjective* **1** ABLE TO CUT having a very thin or pointed edge that can cut things *a sharp knife ○ sharp claws/teeth* **2 a sharp rise/increase/drop, etc** a sudden and very large increase or reduction in something **3 a sharp contrast/difference/distinction, etc** a very big and noticeable difference between two things **4** QUICK quick to notice and understand things *a sharp mind* **5 a sharp pain HEALTH** a sudden, short, strong pain **6** SEVERE severe and not gentle *sharp criticism ○ She can be a bit sharp with people sometimes.* **7 a sharp bend/turn, etc** a sudden large change in the direction you are travelling **8 FOOD** A sharp taste is slightly sour. **9** CLEAR A sharp image is very clear. *a photograph in sharp focus* **10 a sharp wit** the ability to say things that are funny and clever **11 a sharp tongue** If you have a sharp tongue, you often upset people by saying unkind things to them. **12** FASHIONABLE If a piece of clothing or a style is sharp, it is fashionable and tidy. *young men in sharp suits* **13 C sharp/F sharp, etc MUSIC** the musical note that is between the note C, F, etc and the note above it **14 MUSIC** A sharp musical note sounds unpleasant because it is slightly higher than it should be. ●**sharply** *adverb* ●**sharpness** *noun* [U]

sharp² /ʃɑːp/ *adverb* **3 o'clock/8.30 p.m., etc sharp** at exactly 3 o'clock, 8.30 p.m., etc

sharp³ /ʃɑːp/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical note that is between one note and the note above it

sharpen /ˈʃɑːpᵊn/ *verb* [T] to make something sharper *to sharpen a knife/pencil*

shatter /ˈʃætəʳ/ *verb* **1** BREAK [I, T] to break into very small pieces, or to make something break into very small pieces *Someone threw a stone at the car, shattering the windscreen.* **2** DESTROY [T] to destroy something good, such as your confidence, hopes, or belief in something *The accident completely shattered her confidence.*

shattered /ˈʃætəd/ *adjective* **1** UPSET very upset **2** TIRED *UK informal* very tired

shave¹ /ʃeɪv/ *verb* [I, T] to cut hair off your face or body *to shave your head/legs ○ shaving cream/foam*
shave sth off *phrasal verb* to cut a very thin piece off a surface

shave² /ʃeɪv/ *noun* **1** [C] when a man shaves the hair growing on his face **2 a close shave** a situation when something unpleasant or dangerous almost happens

shaven /ˈʃeɪvᵊn/ *adjective* A shaven part of the body has had the hair cut off it. *a gang of youths with **shaven heads***

shaver /ˈʃeɪvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of electrical equipment used to cut hair off the head or body

shavings /ˈʃeɪvɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] very thin pieces that have been cut off something ***wood shavings***

shawl /ʃɔːl/ *noun* [C] a piece of cloth that is worn by a woman around her shoulders or used to cover a baby

she *strong form* /ʃiː/ *weak form* /ʃi/ *pronoun* used as the subject of the verb when referring to someone female who has already been talked about *"When is Ruth coming?" "She'll be here soon."*

sheaf /ʃiːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sheaves** /ʃiːvz/ **1** several pieces of paper held together *a sheaf of papers* **2 FARMING** several pieces of wheat or corn (= plant for grain) tied together

shear /ʃɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **sheared**, *past participle* **sheared** or **shorn FARMING** to cut the wool off a sheep

shears /ʃɪəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a cutting tool with two large blades, like a large pair of scissors *a pair of garden shears*

sheath /ʃiːθ/ *noun* [C] a cover for the sharp blade of a knife

she'd /ʃiːd/ **1** SHE HAD *short for* she had *By the time I got there, she'd fallen asleep.* **2** SHE WOULD *short for* she would *She knew that she'd be late.*

shed¹ /ʃed/ *noun* [C] a small building used to store things such as tools *a garden shed*

shed² /ʃed/ *verb* [T] **shedding**, *past* **shed 1 shed leaves/skin/hair, etc** to lose something because it falls off *A lot of trees shed their leaves in the autumn.* **2** to get rid of something that you do not want or need *A lot of companies are shedding jobs.* **3 shed tears** to cry **4 shed blood** to kill or injury someone ➲See also: cast/shed **light¹** on sth

shedload /ˈʃedləʊd/ *noun* [C] *informal* a large amount *They spent shedloads of money on that car.*

sheen /ʃiːn/ *noun* [**no plural**] a smooth shine on a surface

sheep /ʃiːp/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sheep FARMING** a farm animal whose skin is covered with wool *a **flock of sheep***

sheepish /ˈʃiːpɪʃ/ *adjective* slightly embarrassed, usually because you have done something stupid *a **sheepish grin**/look* ●**sheepishly** *adverb*

sheer /ʃɪəʳ/ *adjective* **1** EXTREME [**always before noun**] used to emphasize how strong a feeling or quality is *a look of sheer delight/joy ○ sheer determination/hard work* **2** LARGE [**always before noun**] used to emphasize the large size or amount of something *The delays are due to the sheer volume of traffic.* **3** STEEP very steep *a sheer cliff face* **4** CLOTH Sheer cloth is very thin and you can see through it. *sheer tights/nylons*

sheet /ʃiːt/ *noun* [C] **1** a large piece of cloth put on a bed to lie on or under *a double fitted sheet* ○ *to change the sheets* **2 a sheet of paper/glass/metal, etc** a flat piece of paper/glass, etc *a sheet of yellow paper* ➲See also: **balance sheet**

sheeting /ˈʃiːtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a large flat piece of material, usually used as a cover *plastic sheeting*

Sheikh (*also* **Sheik**) /ʃeɪk/ *noun* [C] an Arab leader

shelf /ʃelf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **shelves** /ʃelvz/ a flat, horizontal board used to put things on, often fixed to a wall or inside a cupboard *a book shelf* ○ *on the top/bottom shelf*

ˈshelf ˌlife *noun* [C] *plural* **shelf lives** A product's shelf life is the length of time it stays in good condition and can be used. [**usually singular**] *Fresh fruit has a very short shelf life.*

O-key **she'll** /ʃiːl/ *short for* she will *She'll be away until Tuesday.*

shell¹ /ʃel/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY the hard outer covering of some creatures and of eggs, nuts, or seeds *a snail's shell* ○ *an egg shell* **2** a bomb fired from a large gun ➲See also: **sea shell**

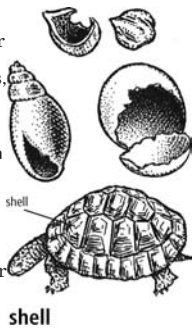

shell² /ʃel/ *verb* [T] to attack a place with bombs
shell out (sth) *phrasal verb informal* to pay or give money for something, especially when you do not want to

shellfish /ˈʃelfɪʃ/ *noun* [U] FOOD sea creatures that live in shells and are eaten as food

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shelter***

find/provide/seek/take shelter ● shelter **from** sth ● **under** the shelter **of** sth

shelter¹ /ˈʃeltəʳ/ *noun* **1** PLACE [C] a place that protects you from bad weather or danger *a bomb shelter* **2** PROTECTION [U] protection from bad weather or danger *We **took shelter** from the rain in a doorway.*

shelter² /ˈʃeltəʳ/ *verb* **1 shelter from/in/under, etc** to go under a cover or inside a building to be protected from bad weather or danger *They went under a tree to shelter from the rain.* **2** [T] to provide cover or protection for someone *Many households are already sheltering refugees.*

sheltered /ˈʃeltəd/ *adjective* **1** covered or protected from bad weather or danger *a sheltered spot by the wall* **2 a sheltered existence/life/upbringing, etc** If you have a sheltered life, you are protected too much and experience very little danger or excitement. **3 sheltered accommodation/housing** *UK* houses for old and ill people in a place where help can be given if it is needed

shelve /ʃelv/ *verb* [T] to decide not to continue with a plan [**often passive**] *The project had to be shelved when they ran out of money.*

shelves /ʃelvz/ *plural of* shelf

shenanigans /ʃɪˈnænɪgənz/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* secret or dishonest behaviour ***political/sexual shenanigans***

shepherd¹ /ˈʃepəd/ *noun* [C] FARMING someone whose job is to look after sheep

shepherd² /ˈʃepəd/ *verb* [T] to go somewhere with someone in order to guide them or protect them *children shepherded to school by their parents*

sheriff /ˈʃerɪf/ *noun* [C] LAW an elected law officer in the US

sherry /ˈʃeri/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a strong Spanish wine that is drunk before a meal

O-key **she's** /ʃiːz/ **1** SHE IS *short for* she is *She's a very good student.* **2** SHE HAS *short for* she has *She's been working very hard.*

shh /ʃ/ *exclamation* used to tell someone to be quiet

Shia /ˈʃiːə/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a Shiite

shield¹ /ʃiːld/ *noun* [C] **1** METAL OBJECT a large, flat object that police officers and soldiers hold in front of their bodies to protect themselves **2** PROTECTION a person or thing used as protection *The hostages are being used as **human shields**.*

shield² /ʃiːld/ *verb* [T] to protect someone or something from something dangerous or unpleasant *to **shield** your **eyes** from the sun*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shift***

a **dramatic/fundamental/gradual/major** shift ● a shift **(away) from/towards** sth ● a shift **in** sth

shift¹ /ʃɪft/ *noun* [C] **1** CHANGE a change in something *There has been a dramatic **shift in** public opinion on this matter.* **2** WORK a period of work in a place such as a factory or hospital *afternoon/**night shift*** ○ *He works an eight-hour shift.*

shift² /ʃɪft/ *verb* **1** CHANGE [I, T] to change something *We are trying to **shift** the emphasis **from** curing illness **to** preventing it.* **2** MOVE STH [T] to move something to another place *We need to shift all these boxes into the other room.* **3** MOVE YOURSELF [I, T] to move into a different position *He shifted uncomfortably in his seat.* **4** CHANGE SPEED [T] (*also* **shift into**) *US* to change the position of the gears (= parts that control how fast the wheels turn) in a vehicle *to **shift gears***

ˈshift ˌkey *noun* [C] COMPUTING the key on a computer keyboard which allows you to create a capital letter (= a large letter of the alphabet used at the beginning of sentences and names)

shifty /ˈʃɪfti/ *adjective informal* Someone who looks shifty looks dishonest.

Shiite (*also* **Shi'ite**) /ˈʃiːaɪt/ *noun* [C] RELIGION a member of a large group within the Islamic religion ●**Shiite** (*also* **Shi'ite**) *adjective* describing the Shiites or their type of Islam

shilling /ˈʃɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a unit of money used in the past in the UK

S

shimmer /ˈʃɪmər/ *verb* [I] to shine gently and seem to be moving slightly *The trees shimmered in the moonlight.*

shin /ʃɪn/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the front part of a leg between the knee and the foot ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

shine¹ /ʃaɪn/ *verb past* **shone** or **shined** **1** PRODUCE LIGHT [I] to produce bright light *The **sun** was **shining** brightly through the window.* **2** POINT LIGHT [I, T] to point a light somewhere *The car's headlights shone right into my eyes.* **3** REFLECT [I, T] If a surface shines, it reflects light, and if you shine it, you make it reflect light. *She polished her shoes until they shone.* **4** EYES/FACE [I] If your eyes or face shine, you look happy, healthy, or excited. *His **eyes** were **shining** with excitement.* **5** DO WELL [I] to do something very well, usually better than other people.

shine² /ʃaɪn/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] when something is bright from reflected light on its surface *hair with body and shine* **2 take a shine to sb** *informal* to like someone immediately *I think he's taken a bit of a shine to you.* **3 take the shine off sth** to spoil something pleasant

shingle /ˈʃɪŋgl/ *noun* GEOLOGY [U] *UK* a lot of very small pieces of stone on a beach

shiny /ˈʃaɪni/ *adjective* A shiny surface is bright because it reflects light. *shiny hair*

ship¹ /ʃɪp/ *noun* [C] a large boat that carries people or goods by sea *a cargo ship*

ship² /ʃɪp/ *verb* [T] **shipping**, *past* **shipped** to send something from one place to another [**often passive**] *These vegetables have been shipped halfway around the world.*

shipbuilder /ˈʃɪpˌbɪldər/ *noun* [C] a person or company that builds ships ●**shipbuilding** /ˈʃɪpˌbɪldɪŋ/ *noun* [U]

shipment /ˈʃɪpmənt/ *noun* **1** AMOUNT [C] an amount of goods sent from one place to another *The first shipments of food arrived this month.* **2** SEND SOMEWHERE [U] when something is sent from one place to another *the shipment of nuclear waste*

S

ˌshipping and ˈhandling *noun* [U] *US* postage and packing

shipwreck¹ /ˈʃɪprek/ *noun* [C] an accident in which a ship is destroyed at sea

shipwreck² /ˈʃɪprek/ *verb* **be shipwrecked** If someone is shipwrecked, the ship they are in is destroyed in an accident.

shipyard /ˈʃɪpjɑːd/ *noun* [C] a place where ships are built or repaired

shirk /ʃɜːk/ *verb* [I, T] to avoid doing something because it is difficult or unpleasant *to **shirk** your **duties/responsibilities***

shirt /ʃɜːt/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing worn on the top part of the body, often made of thin material like cotton and fastened with buttons down the front ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 ➲See also: **polo shirt, T-shirt**

shish kebab /ˈʃɪʃkəˌbæb/ *noun* [C] FOOD small pieces of meat or vegetables cooked on a long, thin stick

shiver /ˈʃɪvər/ *verb* [I] to shake because you are cold or frightened *She **shivered with** cold.* ●**shiver** *noun* [C] *He felt a shiver run down his spine* (= He felt afraid).

shoal /ʃəʊl/ *noun* [C] a large group of fish swimming together

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shock***

come as a shock ● **get/have** a shock ● a **big/nasty/real** shock ● a shock **to** sb ● be **in** shock

shock¹ /ʃɒk/ *noun* **1** SURPRISE [C, U] a big, unpleasant surprise *We **got a** nasty **shock** when he gave us the bill.* ○ *Her death **came as a** terrible **shock** to him.* ○ *They are still **in shock*** (= feeling the effect of a shock) *from the accident.* **2** HEALTH [U] a medical condition when someone is extremely weak because of damage to their body *He **went into shock** and nearly died.* **3** ELECTRICITY [C] (*also* **electric shock**) a sudden, painful feeling that you get when electricity flows through your body **4** MOVEMENT [C] a sudden movement caused by an explosion, accident, etc ➲See also: **culture shock**

shock² /ʃɒk/ *verb* [I, T] to surprise and upset someone [**often passive**] *Many people were shocked by the violent scenes in the film.* ●**shocked** *adjective* [+ **to do sth**] *We were shocked to find rat poison in our hotel room.*

shocking /ˈʃɒkɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** UPSETTING very surprising and upsetting or immoral *shocking news* ○ *This report contains scenes that some people may find shocking.* **2** BAD *UK* very bad *My memory is shocking.* ●**shockingly** *adverb*

shoddy /ˈʃɒdi/ *adjective* very bad quality *shoddy goods* ○ ***shoddy work/workmanship/treatment***

shoe /ʃuː/ *noun* [C] **1** a strong covering for the foot, often made of leather *a pair of shoes* ○ *to put your shoes on/take your shoes off* **2 be in sb's shoes** *informal* to be in the same situation as someone else, especially an unpleasant situation *What would you do if you were in my shoes?*

shoelace /ˈʃuːleɪs/ *noun* [C] a long, thin piece of material used to fasten shoes

shoeshine boy /ˈʃuːʃaɪnˌbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] a boy or man who is paid to clean people's shoes

shoestring /ˈʃuːstrɪŋ/ *noun* **on a shoestring** If you do something on a shoestring, you do it using very little money.

shone /ʃɒn/ (US) /ʃəʊn/ *past of* shine

shoo /ʃuː/ *verb* **shooing**, *past* **shooed** **shoo sb away/off/out, etc** to make a person or animal leave a place by chasing them or shouting 'shoo' at them ●**shoo** *exclamation*

shook /ʃʊk/ *past tense of* shake

shoot¹ /ʃuːt/ *verb past* **shot** **1** INJURE [T] to injure or kill a person or animal by firing a bullet from a gun at them [**often passive**] *He was robbed and then **shot in** the stomach.* ○ *An innocent bystander was **shot dead** in the incident.* **2** FIRE BULLET [I, T] to fire a bullet from a gun *Don't shoot!* **3** SPORT [I] to try to score points in sports such as football by hitting,

kicking, or throwing the ball towards the goal **4 shoot across/out/up, etc** to move somewhere very quickly *She shot across the road without looking.* **5** FILM [T] to use a camera to record a film or take a photograph [**often passive**] *Most of the film was shot in Italy.*
shoot sb/sth down *phrasal verb* to destroy an aircraft or make it fall to the ground by firing bullets or weapons at it
shoot up *phrasal verb* If a number or amount shoots up, it increases very quickly. *Prices have shot up by 25%.*

shoot² /ʃuːt/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY a new branch or stem growing on a plant *bamboo shoots* **2** when someone takes photographs or makes a film *a **fashion shoot***

shooting /ˈʃuːtɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] when someone is injured or killed by a bullet from a gun *a fatal shooting* **2** SPORT [U] the sport of firing bullets from guns, sometimes to kill animals

shop¹ /ʃɒp/ (*also US* **store**) *noun* [C] a building or part of a building where you can buy things *a book shop* ○ *a shoe shop* ○ *to go to the shops* ○ *a shop window* ➲See also: **charity shop**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

shop or store?

In **American English** the usual word for shop is **store**.

He went to the store to buy some cookies.

In **British English** the word **store** is only used to mean a very large shop where you can buy many different things.

Harrods is a famous department store.

shop² /ʃɒp/ *verb* [I] **shopping**, *past* **shopped** to buy things in shops *I'm **shopping for** baby clothes.* ○ *I usually **go shopping** on Saturday.*
shop around *phrasal verb* to compare the price and quality of the same thing from different places before deciding which one to buy *to shop around for a computer*

ˈshop asˌsistant *UK* (*US* **sales clerk**) *noun* [C] someone whose job is selling things in a shop

ˌshop ˈfloor *noun* [**no plural**] the part of a factory where things are made and not the part where the managers' offices are

shopkeeper /ˈʃɒpˌkiːpəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who owns or manages a small shop

shoplifting /ˈʃɒplɪftɪŋ/ *noun* [U] LAW stealing things from a shop ●**shoplifter** *noun* [C] ●**shoplift** *verb* [I]

shopper /ˈʃɒpəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who is buying things from shops

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shopping***

a shopping **spree/trip** ● to **go** shopping

shopping /ˈʃɒpɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** BUYING when you buy things from shops *I love shopping.* ○ *a shopping basket/trolley* **2** GOODS the things that you buy from a shop or shops *Can you help me unpack the shopping?* ○ *a shopping bag* ➲See also: **window shopping**

ˈshopping ˌbasket *noun* [C] INTERNET a place on a website where you collect things that you plan to buy from the website ➲See: **basket**

ˈshopping ˌcentre *UK* (*US* **shopping center**) *noun* [C] a place where a lot of shops have been built close together

ˈshopping ˌmall *noun* [C] a large, covered shopping area

ˌshop ˈsteward *noun* [C] POLITICS a worker chosen by workers in a factory or business to represent them in discussions with the management, usually a member of a trade union

shore¹ /ʃɔːʳ/ *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY the area of land along the edge of the sea or a lake *They had to abandon the boat and swim back to shore.*

shore² /ʃɔːʳ/ *verb*
shore sth up *phrasal verb* to help or improve something that is likely to fail

shorn /ʃɔːn/ *past participle of* shear

short¹ /ʃɔːt/ *adjective* **1** DISTANCE having a small distance from one end to the other *short, brown hair* ○ *short legs* ○ *a short skirt* **2** TIME continuing for a small amount of time *a short visit* ○ *There's a short break for coffee between classes.* **3** BOOK A short book or other piece of writing has few pages or words. *a short article/story* **4** PERSON A short person is not as tall as most people. *She's short and slim with dark hair.* **5** NOT HAVING ENOUGH not having enough of something *I'm a bit **short of** money at the moment.* ○ *Would you like to play? We're a couple of people short.* ○ *He seemed a bit **short of breath*** (= having difficulty breathing). **6 be short for sth** to be a shorter way of saying the same thing *'Mick' is short for 'Michael'.* **7 be short with sb** to talk to someone quickly in an angry or rude way ●**shortness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: in the long/short **run²**

short² /ʃɔːt/ *adverb* **1 short of doing sth** without doing something *He did everything he could to get the money, short of robbing a bank.* **2 stop short of sth/doing sth** to almost do something but decide not to do it *She stopped short of accusing him of lying.* **3 fall short of sth** to not reach a particular level, but only by a small amount *Sales for the first half of this year fell just short of the target.* **4 cut sth short** to have to stop doing something before it is finished *They had to cut the holiday short when her mother was taken ill.*

short³ /ʃɔːt/ *noun* **1 in short** in a few words *In short, we need more staff.* **2** [C] a short film **3** FOOD [C] *UK* a small amount of a strong alcoholic drink like whisky

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shortage***

an **acute/chronic/desperate/serious** shortage ● a shortage **of** sth

shortage /ˈʃɔːtɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] when there is not enough of something *a **shortage of** nurses* ○ *food shortages*

shortbread /ˈʃɔːtbred/ *noun* [U] FOOD a hard, sweet cake

short-circuit /ˌʃɔːtˈsɜːkɪt/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a fault in an electrical connection ●**short-circuit** *verb* [I, T]

shortcoming /ˈʃɔːtˌkʌmɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a fault [**usually plural**] *I like him despite his shortcomings.*

S

shortcut (*also UK* ˌ**short** ˈ**cut**) /ˈʃɔːtkʌt/ *noun* [C] **1** a quicker and more direct way of getting somewhere or doing something *I* ***took a shortcut*** *through the car park.* **2** COMPUTING In computing, a shortcut is a quick way to start or use a computer program. *a shortcut key*

shorten /ˈʃɔːtᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become shorter or to make something shorter *Smoking shortens your life.*

shortfall /ˈʃɔːtfɔːl/ *noun* [C] the difference between the amount that is needed and the smaller amount that is available *a shortfall in government spending*

shorthand /ˈʃɔːthænd/ *noun* [U] a fast way of writing using abbreviations and symbols

short-haul /ˈʃɔːthɔːl/ *adjective* travelling a short distance *a* ***short-haul flight***

shortlist /ˈʃɔːtlɪst/ *noun* [C] *UK* a list of people who are competing for a prize, job, etc, who have already been chosen from a larger list *to be* ***on the shortlist*** ●**shortlist** *verb* [T] *UK short-listed candidates*

short-lived /ˌʃɔːtˈlɪvd/ *adjective* only lasting for a short time

shortly /ˈʃɔːtli/ *adverb* **1** If something is going to happen shortly, it will happen soon. *Our plans for the next year will be announced shortly.* **2 shortly after/before sth** a short time after or before something *He left here shortly after midnight.*

short-range /ˌʃɔːtˈreɪndʒ/ *adjective* intended to go a short distance *a short-range missile*

shorts /ʃɔːts/ *noun* [plural] **1** SHORT TROUSERS a very short pair of trousers that stop above the knees *T-shirt and shorts* ○ *cycling shorts* **2** UNDERWEAR *US* men's underwear to wear under trousers ➲See also: **boxers**

short-sighted /ˌʃɔːtˈsaɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH not able to see far without wearing glasses **2** not thinking enough about how an action will affect the future *a short-sighted policy*

short-term /ˌʃɔːtˈtɜːm/ *adjective* lasting a short time ***short-term memory***

short-wave /ˈʃɔːtweɪv/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS a system used to broadcast radio signals around the world *short-wave radio*

shot¹ /ʃɒt/ *noun* [C] **1** GUN when a bullet is fired from a gun *Three* ***shots*** *were* ***fired.*** **2** SPORT when someone tries to score points in sports such as football by hitting or throwing the ball *Good shot!* **3** PHOTOGRAPH a photograph *I got a good shot of them leaving the hotel together.* **4 give sth a shot; have/take a shot at sth** *informal* to try to do something, often for the first time *I've never played football, but I'll give it a shot.* **5** HEALTH an amount of medicine put into the body with a special needle **6** FOOD a small amount of a strong alcoholic drink *a shot of whisky* **7 like a shot** If someone does something like a shot, they do it quickly and enthusiastically. **8 a shot in the dark** an attempt to guess something when you have no information or knowledge about it ➲See also: **long shot**

shot² /ʃɒt/ *past of* shoot

shotgun /ˈʃɒtgʌn/ *noun* [C] a long gun that fires small, metal balls

should *strong form* /ʃʊd/ *weak form* /ʃəd/ *modal verb* **1** BEST used to say or ask what is the correct or best thing to do *He should have gone to the doctor.* ○ *Should I apologize to her?* **2** EXPECT used to say that you expect something to be true or that you expect something to happen *She should be feeling better by now.* ○ *The letter should arrive by Friday.* **3** POSSIBLE *formal* used to refer to a possible event in the future *Should you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact me.* **4 why should/shouldn't...?** used to ask or give the reason for something, especially when you are surprised or angry about it *He told me to forgive her, but why should I?* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

shoulder¹ /ˈʃəʊldəʳ/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY [C] where your arm joins your body next to your neck *He put his arm around my shoulder.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** [C] *US* (*UK* **hard shoulder**) the area on the edge of a main road, where a car can stop in an emergency **3 rub shoulders with sb** to spend time with famous people **4 a shoulder to cry on** someone who gives you sympathy when you are upset ➲See also: have a **chip¹** on your shoulder

shoulder² /ˈʃəʊldəʳ/ *verb* **shoulder the blame/burden/responsibility, etc** to accept that you are responsible for something difficult or bad

ˈ**shoulder** ˌ**bag** *noun* [C] a bag with a long strap that you hang from your shoulder

ˈ**shoulder** ˌ**blade** *noun* [C] ANATOMY a large, flat bone on each side of your back below your shoulder

shoulder-length /ˈʃəʊldəleŋθ/ *adjective* If your hair is shoulder-length, it goes down as far as your shoulders.

shouldn't /ˈʃʊdᵊnt/ *short for* should not *I shouldn't have said that.*

should've /ˈʃʊdəv/ *short for* should have *She should've finished by now.*

shout¹ /ʃaʊt/ *verb* [I, T] to say something very loudly *"Look out!" she shouted.* ○ *I was angry and I* ***shouted at*** *him.* ○ *I* ***shouted out*** *her name but she didn't hear me.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***shout*** *(noun)*

give a shout ● a shout **of** [anger, etc] ● an **angry** shout

shout² /ʃaʊt/ *noun* [C] when you say something very loudly or make a very loud sound with your voice *He was woken by a loud shout.*

shouty /ˈʃaʊti/ *adjective informal* Someone who is shouty shouts a lot because they get angry very easily.

shove /ʃʌv/ *verb* [I, T] **1** to push someone or something in a rough way *He wouldn't move, so I shoved him out of the way.* **2 shove sth into/in/under, etc** to put something somewhere in a quick, careless way *She shoved the suitcase under the bed.* ●**shove** *noun* [C] *to give someone a shove* ➲See also: if/when **push²** comes to shove

shovel /ˈʃʌvᵊl/ *noun* [C] a tool with a long handle, used for digging or moving things such as soil or snow ●**shovel** *verb* [I, T] *UK* **shovelling**, *past* **shovelled**, *US* **shoveling**, *past* **shoveled**

O–■ **show**[1] /ʃəʊ/ *verb past tense* **showed**, *past participle* **shown** **1** PROVE [T] If numbers, results, facts, etc show something, they prove that it is true. [+ **(that)**] *Research shows that 40% of the programme's viewers are aged over 55.* ○ *Sales figures showed a significant increase last month.* **2** LET SOMEONE SEE [T] to let someone look at something [+ **two objects**] *Show me your photos.* ○ *Show your passport to the officer.* **3 show sb what to do/how to do sth** to teach someone how to do something by explaining it or by doing it yourself while they watch *She showed me how to use the new computer system.* ○ *Have you shown him what to do?* **4** EXPRESS [T] to express a feeling so that other people are able to notice it *He hasn't shown any interest so far.* ○ *If she was upset, she certainly didn't show it.* **5** EASY TO SEE [I, T] to be easy to see, or to make something easy to see *The sadness really shows on her face.* ○ *Light-coloured carpets show the dirt.* **6 show sb into/around/round, etc** to take someone to or round a place *She showed me round the factory.* **7** IMAGE [T] If a picture, film, map, etc shows something, that thing can be seen in the picture, film, etc. *A diagram shows the levels of rainfall in different parts of the country.* **8** FILM [I, T] If a cinema shows a film or a film is showing somewhere, you can go and see it there.

show off *phrasal verb* to try to make people admire your abilities or achievements in a way which other people find annoying *He was the kind of kid who was always showing off to his classmates.*

show sb/sth off *phrasal verb* to show something or someone you are proud of to other people *I couldn't wait to show off my new ring.*

show up *phrasal verb informal* to arrive somewhere *I waited for nearly half an hour, but he didn't show up.*

show sb up *phrasal verb* to behave in a way that makes someone you are with feel embarrassed *I didn't want my parents there, showing me up in front of all my friends.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***show*** *(noun)*

host/present a show ● a show is **broadcast/screened** ● be **on** a show

show[2] /ʃəʊ/ *noun* **1** ENTERTAINMENT [C] a television or radio programme or a theatre performance *He's got his own show on Channel 5.* **2** PUBLIC EVENT [C] an event at which a group of similar things are brought together for the public to see *a fashion show* **3 a show of sth** an expression of a feeling which can be clearly seen by other people *Crowds gathered in the central square in a show of support for the government.* **4 for show** for looking at only, and not for using *The cakes are just for show - you can't eat them.* **5 on show** being shown to the public *Her designs are currently on show at the Museum of Modern Art.* ➲See also: **chat show, game show, talk show**

ˈ**show** ˌ**business** (*also* **show biz** *informal*) *noun* [U] the entertainment industry, including films, television, theatre, etc

showcase /ˈʃəʊkeɪs/ *noun* [C] an event which is intended to show the best qualities of something *The exhibition acts as* ***a showcase for*** *British design.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***showdown***

face/be heading for a showdown ● a showdown **between** sb and sb ● a showdown **with** sb

showdown /ˈʃəʊdaʊn/ *noun* [C] an argument or fight that is intended to end a period of disagreement *Opponents of the changes are heading for* ***a showdown with*** *party leaders.*

O–■ **shower**[1] /ˈʃaʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** WASH If you have or take a shower, you wash your whole body while standing under a flow of water. *I got up,* ***had a shower*** *and got dressed.* **2** BATHROOM EQUIPMENT a piece of bathroom equipment that you stand under to wash your whole body *He likes to sing* ***in the shower.*** ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **3** RAIN a short period of rain **4 a shower of sth** a lot of small things in the air, especially falling through the air *a shower of glass*

shower[2] /ˈʃaʊəʳ/ *verb* [I] to wash standing under a shower

shower sb with sth *phrasal verb* to give a lot of something to someone *I was showered with gifts.*

showing /ˈʃəʊɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C] a broadcast of a television programme at a particular time or of a film at a cinema *There's a repeat showing of Wednesday's episode on Saturday morning.* **2 a good/poor/strong, etc showing** how successful someone is in a competition, election, etc *She* ***made*** *a good* ***showing*** *in the world championships.*

showman /ˈʃəʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **showmen** someone who is very good at entertaining people

shown /ʃəʊn/ *past participle of* show

show-off /ˈʃəʊɒf/ *noun* [C] someone who tries to make other people admire their abilities or achievements in a way which is annoying

showroom /ˈʃəʊruːm/ *noun* [C] a large room where you can look at large items for sale, such as cars or furniture

ˈ**show** ˌ**trial** *noun* [C] POLITICS a trial organized by a government for political reasons, not for real justice

shrank /ʃræŋk/ *past tense of* shrink

shrapnel /ˈʃræpnᵊl/ *noun* [U] small, sharp pieces of metal which fly through the air when a bomb explodes

shred[1] /ʃred/ *noun* [C] **1** a very small piece that has been torn from something [**usually plural**] *She tore the letter* ***to shreds.*** **2 not a shred of sth** not the smallest amount of something *There is not a shred of evidence to support his story.*

shred[2] /ʃred/ *verb* [T] **shredding**, *past* **shredded** to tear or cut something into small, thin pieces *shredded cabbage*

shrewd /ʃruːd/ *adjective* good at judging situations and making decisions which give you an advantage *a shrewd businessman* ○ *a shrewd investment* ●**shrewdly** *adverb*

shriek /ʃriːk/ *verb* [I, T] to make a sudden, loud, high noise because you are afraid, surprised, excited, etc *to shriek with laughter* ○ *"It's about to explode!" she shrieked.* ●**shriek** *noun* [C]

S

shrill /ʃrɪl/ *adjective* A shrill sound is very high, loud, and often unpleasant. *a shrill voice*

shrimp /ʃrɪmp/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, pink, sea animal that you can eat, with a curved body and a shell

shrine /ʃraɪn/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a place where people go to pray because it is connected with a holy person or event

shrink¹ /ʃrɪŋk/ *verb* [I, T] *past tense* **shrank**, *past participle* **shrunk** to become smaller, or to make something smaller *My shirt shrank in the wash.* ○ *Its forests have shrunk to almost half the size they were 10 years ago.*
shrink from sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to avoid doing something that is difficult or unpleasant *We will not shrink from using force.*

shrink² /ʃrɪŋk/ *noun* [C] *informal* a doctor trained to help people with mental or emotional problems

shrivel /ˈʃrɪvᵊl/ *verb* [I] *UK* **shrivelling**, *past* **shrivelled**, *US* **shriveling**, *past* **shriveled** If something shrivels, it becomes smaller, dryer, and covered in lines, often because it is old. ●**shrivelled** *adjective There were a few shrivelled apples at the bottom of the bowl.*

shroud¹ /ʃraʊd/ *noun* [C] a cloth used to cover the body of a dead person

shroud² /ʃraʊd/ *verb* **1 be shrouded in darkness/fog/mist** to be hidden or covered by the dark/fog, etc *The island was shrouded in sea mist.* **2 be shrouded in mystery/secrecy** to be difficult to find out about or to know the truth about *Details of the president's trip remain shrouded in secrecy.*

shrub /ʃrʌb/ *noun* [C] a large plant, smaller than a tree, that has several main stems

shrubbery /ˈʃrʌbᵊri/ *noun* **1** AREA [C, U] an area of a garden with shrubs in it **2** GROUP [U] *US* shrubs considered as a group

shrug /ʃrʌg/ *verb* [I, T] **shrugging**, *past* **shrugged** to move your shoulders up and down to show that you do not care about something or that you do not know something *I told him we weren't happy with it but he just* ***shrugged*** *his* ***shoulders***. ●**shrug** *noun* [C]
shrug sth off *phrasal verb* to not worry about something and treat it as not important *The team manager shrugged off criticism.*

shrunk /ʃrʌŋk/ *past participle of* shrink

shrunken /ˈʃrʌŋkən/ *adjective* having become smaller or having been made smaller *a shrunken old man*

shudder /ˈʃʌdəʳ/ *verb* [I] to shake, usually because you are thinking of something unpleasant *I still* ***shudder at*** *the thought of the risks we took.* ○ *She* ***shuddered with*** *horror.* ●**shudder** *noun* [C]

shuffle /ˈʃʌfl/ *verb* **1** WALK [I] to walk slowly without lifting your feet off the floor *I heard him shuffling around downstairs.* **2** ARRANGE [I, T] If you shuffle papers or cards, you mix them or arrange them in a different order. **3** MOVE [I, T] to move your body or feet a little because you feel nervous or uncomfortable. *People starting* ***shuffling*** *their* ***feet*** *and looking at their watches.*

shun /ʃʌn/ *verb* [T] **shunning**, *past* **shunned** to avoid or ignore someone or something *He was shunned by colleagues and family alike.* ○ *She has always* ***shunned publicity***.

shunt /ʃʌnt/ *verb* [T] to move someone or something from one place to another, usually because they are not wanted *As a teenager he was shunted between different children's homes.*

shut¹ /ʃʌt/ *verb* [I, T] **shutting**, *past* **shut** **1** CLOSE to close something, or to become closed *Shut the door.* ○ *He lay back and shut his eyes.* ○ *The lid shut with a bang.* **2** STOP SERVING *UK* (*UK/US* **close**) When a shop, restaurant, etc shuts, it stops serving customers and does not allow people to enter. *The museum shuts at 4 o'clock on a Friday.* ○ *Several schools were shut because of the bad weather.*
shut sb/sth away *phrasal verb* to put someone or something in a place from which they cannot leave or be taken away
shut (sth) down *phrasal verb* If a business or a large piece of equipment shuts down or someone shuts it down, it stops operating. *Many factories have been forced to shut down.*
shut sb/sth in (sth) *phrasal verb* to prevent someone or something from leaving a place by shutting a door or gate *We normally shut the dog in the kitchen when we go out.*
shut sth off *phrasal verb* to stop a machine working, or to stop the supply of something *Shut the engine off.* ○ *Oil supplies have been shut off.*
shut sth/sb out *phrasal verb* to stop someone or something from entering a place or from being included in something *The curtains shut out most of the light from the street.*
shut (sb) up *phrasal verb informal* to stop talking or making a noise, or to make someone do this *Just shut up and get on with your work!*
shut sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to keep a person or animal somewhere and prevent them from leaving *You can't keep it shut up in a cage all day.*

shut² /ʃʌt/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** CLOSED closed *Her eyes were shut and I thought she was asleep.* **2** NOT SERVING *UK* (*UK/US* **closed**) When a shop, restaurant, etc is shut, it has stopped serving customers and does not allow people to enter it.

shutdown /ˈʃʌtdaʊn/ *noun* [C] when a business or a large piece of equipment stops operating, usually for a temporary period

shutter /ˈʃʌtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** WINDOW a wooden or metal cover on the outside of a window **2** CAMERA the part at the front of a camera which opens quickly to let in light when you take a photograph

shuttle¹ /ˈʃʌtl/ *noun* [C] **1** TRAVEL a bus, train, plane etc which travels regularly between two places, usually a short distance *the London-Glasgow shuttle* ○ *There's a* ***shuttle service*** *between the airport and the city centre.* **2** SPACE (*also* ˈ**space ˌshuttle**) a spacecraft which can go into space and return to Earth more than once

shuttle² /ˈʃʌtl/ *verb* [I, T] to travel or take people regularly between the same two places *He* ***shuttles between*** *Ireland and England.*

S

shuttlecock /ˈʃʌtlkɒk/ (*also US* **birdie**) *noun* [C] **SPORT** a small object with feathers that is used like a ball in badminton (= sport like tennis)

shy¹ /ʃaɪ/ *adjective* **shyer**, **shyest** not confident, especially about meeting or talking to new people *He was too shy to say anything to her.* ●**shyly** *adverb She smiled shyly.* ●**shyness** *noun* [U]

shy² /ʃaɪ/ *verb* [I] If a horse shies, it moves backwards suddenly because it has been frightened by something.
shy away from sth *phrasal verb* to avoid doing something, usually because you are not confident enough to do it *He tends to shy away from public speaking.*

SI /ˌesˈaɪ/ *noun* [U] **MEASURES** *abbreviation for* Système International: the international system of units used for scientific measurements

sibling /ˈsɪblɪŋ/ *noun* [C] *formal* a sister or brother

sic /sɪk/ *adverb* **(sic)** **LANGUAGE** used in writing after a word that you have copied to show that you know it has been spelt or used wrongly

sick¹ /sɪk/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** ill *He was off work sick for most of last week.* ○ *They provide care for* ***the sick.*** **2 be sick** **HEALTH** If you are sick, food and drink comes up from your stomach and out of your mouth. *The baby was sick all down his shirt.* **3 feel sick** **HEALTH** to feel that the food or drink in your stomach might soon come up through your mouth *I was so nervous I felt quite sick.* **4 be sick of sth** *informal* to be bored with or annoyed about something that has been happening for a long time *I'm sick of people telling me how to run my life.* **5 It makes me sick.** *informal* something you say when you are jealous of someone *She looks fantastic whatever she wears - it makes me sick.* **6** CRUEL cruel and unpleasant *He's got a sick mind.* ○ ***a sick joke***

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

sick, ill, and **be sick**

In British English **ill** is the word that is usually used to mean 'not well'. In American English the word for this is **sick**.

He went home early because he felt ill/sick.

In British English to **be sick** is to bring food up from the stomach. Another way of saying this is the word **vomit**, which is used both in British and American English.

sick² /sɪk/ *noun* [U] *UK informal* food or liquid that has come up from someone's stomach and out of their mouth

sicken /ˈsɪkᵊn/ *verb* [T] to shock someone and make them very angry *Sickened by the violence, she left.*

sickening /ˈsɪkᵊnɪŋ/ *adjective* causing shock and anger *a sickening act of violence*

sickle /ˈsɪkl/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a tool with a round blade used to cut long grass or grain crops

ˈsick ˌleave *noun* [U] **HEALTH** when you are away from your work because you are ill

sickly /ˈsɪkli/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** weak and often ill *a sickly child* **2** unpleasant and making you feel slightly ill *a sickly smell*

sickness /ˈsɪknəs/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [U] when you are ill *She's had three weeks off for sickness this year.* **2** **HEALTH** [U] when the food or drink in your stomach come up through your mouth, or a feeling that this might happen ***morning/travel sickness*** **3** **HEALTH** [C, U] a particular illness *radiation sickness*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *side*

on the [right/left] side ● the side **of** sth

side¹ /saɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF SOMETHING one of the two parts that something would divide into if you drew a line down the middle *In most countries people drive* ***on*** *the right* ***side*** *of the road.* ○ *Which* ***side of*** *the bed do you sleep on?* **2** SURFACE a flat, outer surface of an object, especially one that is not its top, bottom, front, or back *The ingredients are listed on the side of the box.* ○ *The side of the car was badly scratched.* **3** EDGE one edge of something *A square has four sides.* ○ *There were chairs round the sides of the room.* **4** NEXT TO SOMETHING the area next to something *trees growing by the side of the road* **5** PAPER/COIN ETC either of the two surfaces of a thin, flat object such as a piece of paper or a coin *Write on both sides of the paper.* **6** ARGUMENT one of the people or groups who are arguing, fighting, or competing *Whose* ***side*** *is he* ***on?*** ○ *Whenever we argue he always* ***takes*** *Alice's* ***side*** (= gives support to Alice). **7** **SPORT** *UK* the players in a sports team *He's been selected for the national side.* **8** PART OF A SITUATION part of a situation that can be considered or dealt with separately *She looks after the financial* ***side of things.*** **9** CHARACTER a part of someone's character *She has a very practical side.* **10** **ANATOMY** the two areas of your body from under your arms to the tops of your legs *Stand with your arms by your sides.* ○ *She lay on her side.* **11** STORY Someone's side of a story is the way in which they explain how something happened. *I thought I'd better listen to Clare's* ***side of the story.*** ○ *So far they'd only heard the story from the wife's side.* **12** TELEVISION/RADIO *UK* a number on a television or radio that you can choose in order to receive a broadcast *Which side is the film on?* **13 from side to side** If something moves from side to side, it moves from left to right and back again repeatedly. *swinging from side to side* **14 side-by-side** If two things or people are side-by-side, they are next to each other. *sitting side-by-side on the sofa* **15** RELATIVES the part of your family who are either your mother's relatives or your father's relatives *They tend to be tall on my mother's side of the family.* **16 err on the side of caution** to be very careful instead of taking a risk or making a mistake **17 on the side** in addition to your main job *She does a bit of bar work on the side.* **18 put sth to one side** to not use or deal with something now, but keep it for a later time
➲See also: **the flip side**

side² /saɪd/ *verb*
side with sb *phrasal verb* to support one person or group in an argument *If ever there was any sort of argument, she'd always side with my father.*

sideboard /ˈsaɪdbɔːd/ *noun* [C] a piece of furniture with a flat top and low cupboards and

S

drawers, used for storing dishes and glasses, etc in the room you eat in

sideburns /ˈsaɪdbɜːnz/ *noun* [**plural**] hair that grows on the sides of a man's face in front of the ear

side effect /ˈsaɪdɪfekt/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH another effect that a drug has on your body in addition to the main effect for which the doctor has given you the drug *Headaches are one side effect of this drug.* **2** an unexpected result of a situation

sidekick /ˈsaɪdkɪk/ *noun* [C] someone who helps, or is friends with, a more powerful and important person

sideline¹ /ˈsaɪdlaɪn/ *noun* [C] a job or business in addition to your main job or business *He works in a bank but teaches English* ***as a sideline.***

sideline² /ˈsaɪdlaɪn/ *verb* [T] to stop someone from being included in an activity that they usually do, especially a sport [**often passive**] *He's broken his ankle and could be sidelined for weeks.*

sidelines /ˈsaɪdlaɪnz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** SPORT the outside edge of the playing area of a sport such as football *The coach was shouting instructions* ***from the sidelines.*** **2 on the sidelines** not really involved in something

sidelong /ˈsaɪdlɒŋ/ *adjective* **a sidelong glance/look** a very short look at someone, moving your eyes to the side, and not looking at them directly

ˈside ˌmirror *US* (*UK* **wing mirror**) *noun* [C] a small mirror on the side of a car or truck ➲See colour picture **Car** at page Centre 7

sideshow /ˈsaɪdʃəʊ/ *noun* [C] an event or activity that is considered less important than another event or activity

sidestep /ˈsaɪdstep/ *verb* [T] **sidestepping**, *past* **sidestepped** to avoid talking about a subject, especially by starting to talk about something else *She neatly* ***sidestepped questions*** *about her recent divorce.*

sidetrack /ˈsaɪdtræk/ *verb* [T] to make someone forget what they were doing or speaking about and start doing or speaking about something different [**often passive**] *Sorry, I was talking about staffing and I got sidetracked.*

sidewalk /ˈsaɪdwɔːk/ *US* (*UK* **pavement**) *noun* [C] a path with a hard surface by the side of a road that people walk on

sideways /ˈsaɪdweɪz/ *adverb* in a direction to the left or right, not forwards or backwards *He glanced sideways.*

siding /ˈsaɪdɪŋ/ *noun* **1** RAILWAY [C] a short railway track, connected to a main track, where trains are kept when they are not being used **2** WALL [U] *US* material which covers the outside walls of a building, usually in layers

sidle /ˈsaɪdl/ *verb* **sidle along/over/up, etc** to walk towards someone, trying not to be noticed *He sidled up to her and whispered something in her ear.*

SIDS /sɪdz/ *noun* [U] *US* HEALTH *abbreviation for* sudden infant death syndrome: the sudden death of a sleeping baby for no obvious reason ➲See: **cot death**

siege /siːdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] when an army or the police stand around a building or city to stop supplies from entering it, in order to force the people inside to stop fighting *The city is* ***under siege*** *from rebel forces.*

siesta /siˈestə/ *noun* [C] a short period of rest or sleep in the afternoon

sieve /sɪv/ *noun* [C] a piece of kitchen equipment with a wire or plastic net which separates large pieces of food from liquids or powders *Pass the sauce through a sieve to remove any lumps.* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 ●**sieve** *verb* [T]

sift /sɪft/ *verb* [T] **1** FOOD to put flour, sugar, etc through a sieve (= wire net shaped like a bowl) to break up large pieces *Sift the flour into a large bowl.* **2** (*also* **sift through**) to carefully look at every part of something in order to find something *to* ***sift through evidence***

sigh /saɪ/ *verb* [I, T] to breathe out slowly and noisily, often because you are annoyed or unhappy *He sighed deeply and sat down.* ●**sigh** *noun* [C] *a* ***sigh of relief***

sight¹ /saɪt/ *noun* **1** BIOLOGY [U] the ability to use your eyes to see *Doctors managed to save his sight.* **2 the sight of sb/sth** when you see someone or something *The sight of so much blood had shocked him.* ○ *informal* I ***can't stand the sight of*** *her* (= I hate her). ➲See Common Learner Error at **view 3** AREA SEEN [U] the area that it is possible for you to see *I looked for her but she was nowhere* ***in sight.*** ○ *I was able to park* ***within sight of*** *the house.* ○ *Security guards were waiting* ***out of sight*** (= where they could not be seen). **4** VIEW [C] something which you see, especially something interesting *the* ***sights and sounds*** *of the market* **5 at first sight** when you first see or hear about something or someone *It may, at first sight, seem a surprising choice.* **6 the sights** the beautiful or interesting places in a city or country, that a lot of people visit *He took me around New York and showed me the sights.* **7 lose sight of sth** to forget about an important idea or fact because you are thinking too much about other, less important things *We mustn't lose sight of the original aims of this project.* **8 set your sights on sth** to decide to achieve something *She's set her sights on becoming an actress.*

sight² /saɪt/ *verb* [T] to see something that it is difficult to see or that you have been looking for [**often passive**] *The ship was last sighted off the French coast at 8 o'clock yesterday evening.*

-sighted /ˈsaɪtɪd/ HEALTH used after a word describing a person's ability to see ***long-/short-sighted*** ○ ***partially-sighted***

sighted /ˈsaɪtɪd/ *adjective* HEALTH A sighted person is able to see.

sighting /ˈsaɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] when you see something that is rare or unusual *UFO sightings*

S

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sightseeing***

do some/go sightseeing ● a sightseeing **tour/trip**

sightseeing /ˈsaɪtsiːɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the activity of visiting places which are interesting because they are historical, famous, etc *a **sightseeing tour** of London* ●**sightseer** /ˈsaɪtˌsiːəʳ/ *noun* [C] a person who goes sightseeing

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sign***

see/take sth as a sign ● **show** (no) signs of sth ● a **clear/sure** sign ● a sign **of** sth

O-key **sign¹** /saɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** PROOF something which shows that something is happening *Flowers are the first **sign of** Spring.* [+ **(that)**] *It's a sign that things are improving.* ○ *Staff are **showing signs of** strain.* **2** NOTICE a symbol or message in a public place which gives information or instructions *a **road sign*** ○ *a 'no-smoking' sign* **3** SYMBOL a symbol which has a particular meaning *a dollar/pound sign* ○ *the sign of the cross* **4** MOVEMENT a movement you make to give someone information or tell them what to do ➲See also: **star sign**

O-key **sign²** /saɪn/ *verb* [I, T] to write your name on something to show that you wrote/painted, etc it or to show that you agree to it *He signs his letters 'Prof. James D. Nelson'.* ○ *to **sign a contract/treaty***
sign for sth *phrasal verb UK* SPORT If a player signs for a football team, he signs a formal agreement saying that he will play for that team.
sign (sb) in *phrasal verb* to write your name or someone else's name in a book when you arrive at a building such as an office or hotel
sign on *phrasal verb* **1** START WORK to sign a document saying that you will work for someone *She's **signed on with** a temp agency.* **2** NOT IN WORK *UK* to sign a form at a government office to say that you do not have a job and that you want to receive money from the government
sign (sb) out *phrasal verb* to write your name or someone else's name in a book when leaving a building such as an office or factory
sign up *phrasal verb* to arrange to do an organized activity *I've **signed up for** evening classes at the local college.*

signal¹ /ˈsɪgnᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** ACTION a movement, light, or sound which gives information, or tells people what to do *Don't move until I **give** the **signal**.* **2** WAVE a series of light waves or sound waves which are sent to a radio or television **3** PROOF something which shows that something else exists or is likely to happen *The changing colour of the leaves on the trees is a signal that it will soon be autumn.* **4** TRAINS a piece of equipment which tells trains to stop or to continue **5** VEHICLES/PEOPLE *US* a piece of equipment that shows people or vehicles when to stop, go, or move carefully *a **traffic signal***

signal² /ˈsɪgnᵊl/ *verb* [I, T] *UK* **signalling**, *past* **signalled**, *US* **signaling**, *past* **signaled** **1** ACTION to make a movement which gives information or tells people what to do *He **signalled for** them to be quiet.* [+ **to do sth**] *He signalled the driver to stop.* **2** INTENTION to show that you intend or are ready to do something [+ **(that)**] *The US signalled that they were ready to enter talks.*

signatory /ˈsɪgnətᵊri/ *noun* [C] POLITICS *formal* a person or country that signs an official document

signature /ˈsɪgnətʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] your name written in your own way which is difficult for someone else to copy

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***significance***

play down /realize/understand the significance of sth ● **have** significance for sb ● be **of** [great/little/major/no] significance

significance /sɪgˈnɪfɪkəns/ *noun* [U] the importance or meaning of something *I still don't understand **the significance of** his remark.*

O-key **significant** /sɪgˈnɪfɪkənt/ *adjective* important or noticeable *These measures will save a significant amount of money.* ○ *It is significant that Falkner did not attend the meeting himself.* ➲Opposite **insignificant** ●**significantly** *adverb*

sigˌnificant ˈfigures *UK* (*US* **sigˌnificant ˈdigits**) *noun* [plural] MATHEMATICS the numbers used to write a number to be as exact as is needed *2.3945 to two significant figures is 2.4.*

signify /ˈsɪgnɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to be a sign of something *Red signifies danger.*

signing /ˈsaɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT *UK* a player who has joined a sports team or a musician who has joined a record company **2** the act of signing something [**usually singular**] *the signing of the declaration*

ˈsign ˌlanguage *noun* [C, U] LANGUAGE a system of communication using hand movements, used by people who are deaf (= cannot hear)

signpost /ˈsaɪnpəʊst/ *noun* [C] a sign by the side of the road that gives information about routes and distances

Sikh /siːk/ *noun* [C] RELIGION someone who believes in an Indian religion based on belief in a single god and on the teachings of Guru Nanak ●**Sikh** *adjective a Sikh temple* ●**Sikhism** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***silence***

in silence ● **deafening/stunned** silence ● **break** the silence ● **lapse into** silence ● silence **falls/descends/ensues**

O-key **silence¹** /ˈsaɪləns/ *noun* **1** NO SOUND [U] when there is no sound *The three men ate **in silence**.* ○ *No sound **broke the silence** of the wintry landscape.* **2** NO TALKING [U] when someone says nothing about a particular subject *She **ended** her **silence** yesterday and spoke to a TV reporter about the affair.* **3** PERIOD OF TIME [C] a period of time when there is no sound or no talking *an awkward/embarrassed silence*

silence² /ˈsaɪləns/ *verb* [T] **1** STOP SOUND to stop something making a sound or stop someone from talking, often about a particular subject *He silenced the alarm.* ○ *Opponents of the government would be silenced or thrown into prison.* **2** STOP CRITICISM to stop people from criticizing you by giving a good argument to support your opinion *He seems to have **silenced** his **critics**.*

S

silencer /ˈsaɪlənsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE *UK* (*US* **muffler**) a part of a vehicle that reduces noise **2** GUN a piece of equipment that you use on a gun to reduce the sound of it firing

silent /ˈsaɪlənt/ *adjective* **1** NO SOUND without any sound *The building was dark and silent.* ○ *At last the guns* ***fell silent.*** **2** NO TALKING without talking *He remains silent about his plans.* **3** LETTER If a letter in a word is silent, it is not pronounced. *The 'p' in 'receipt' is silent.* ●**silently** *adverb*

silhouette /ˌsɪluˈet/ *noun* [C, U] the shape of something when the light is behind it so that you cannot see any details *He saw a woman* ***in silhouette.*** ●**silhouetted** *adjective the roofs* ***silhouetted against*** *the night sky*

silica /ˈsɪlɪkə/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY a mineral which exists in various forms, including sand, quartz and flint, and which is used to make glass and cement

silicon /ˈsɪlɪkən/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical element used in making electronic equipment such as computers, and materials such as glass and concrete (symbol **Si**) ***a silicon chip***

silk /sɪlk/ *noun* [U] a type of cloth which is light and smooth *a silk dress/shirt*

silken /ˈsɪlkʰn/ *adjective literary* soft and smooth, like silk *her silken skin*

silky /ˈsɪlki/ *adjective* soft and smooth, like silk *a large, silky, grey cat*

silly /ˈsɪli/ *adjective* **1** STUPID stupid *silly games/hats* ○ *I feel silly in this hat.* ○ *It's a bit silly spending all that money on something we don't need.* **2** UNIMPORTANT small and not important *She gets upset over such silly things.* ●**silliness** *noun* [U]

silt /sɪlt/ *noun* [U] GEOLOGY sand and clay that has been carried along by a river and is left on land

silver¹ /ˈsɪlvəʳ/ *noun* **1** CHEMISTRY [U] a valuable, shiny, grey-white metal used to make coins and jewellery (symbol **Ag**) *silver and gold* ○ *a solid silver ring* **2** OBJECTS [U] objects made of silver **3** PRIZE [C] a silver medal (= a small, round disc given to someone for finishing second in a race or competition)

silver² /ˈsɪlvəʳ/ *adjective* **1** OBJECT made of silver *a silver coin* ○ *a silver necklace* **2** COLOUR being the colour of silver *a silver sports car*

silver medal *noun* [C] a small, round disc given to someone for finishing second in a race or competition

silverware /ˈsɪlvəweəʳ/ *noun* [U] *US* (*UK* **cutlery**) knives, forks, spoons, etc that are used for eating

silver wedding anniversary *noun* [C] the date that is 25 years after the day that two people married

silvery /ˈsɪlvʳri/ *adjective* shiny and pale like silver *a silvery light*

sim card /ˈsɪmkɑːd/ *noun* [C] a plastic card in a mobile phone that contains information about you and makes you able to use the phone

similar /ˈsɪmɪləʳ/ *adjective* Something which is similar to something else has many things the same, although it is not exactly the same. *The two houses are remarkably similar.* ○ *The style of cooking is* ***similar to*** *that of Northern India.* ➲Opposite **dissimilar**

similarity /ˌsɪmɪˈlærəti/ *noun* [C, U] when two things or people are similar, or a way in which they are similar *There are a number of* ***similarities between*** *the two systems.* ○ *He bears a striking* ***similarity to*** *his grandfather.*

similarly /ˈsɪmɪləli/ *adverb* in a similar way

simile /ˈsɪmɪli/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a phrase which compares one thing to something else, using the words 'like' or 'as', for example 'as white as snow'

simmer /ˈsɪməʳ/ *verb* [I, T] FOOD to gently cook a liquid or something with liquid in it so that it is very hot, but does not boil

simple /ˈsɪmpl/ *adjective* **1** EASY not difficult to do or to understand [+ **to do sth**] *It's very simple to use.* ○ *Just mix all the ingredients together - it's as simple as that.* **2** NOT COMPLICATED not complicated or containing details which are not necessary *a simple life* ○ *a simple black dress* (= dress without decoration) **3** IMPORTANT used to describe the one important fact, truth, etc *We chose her for the simple reason that she's the best person for the job.*

simple eye *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a basic type of eye with only one lens, found in some insects ➲Compare **compound eye**

simple leaf *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a type of leaf which is formed of one leaf on a leaf stalk ➲Compare **compound leaf**

simple sugar *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a monosaccharide (= type of carbohydrate, such as glucose and fructose, formed of molecules that cannot be broken down into any simpler form)

simplicity /sɪmˈplɪsəti/ *noun* [U] **1** NOT COMPLICATED when something is not complicated and has few details or little decoration *I admire the simplicity of his designs.* **2** EASY when something is easy to understand

simplify /ˈsɪmplɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to make something less complicated or easier to do or to understand *We need to simplify the instructions.* ●**simplification** /ˌsɪmplɪfɪˈkeɪʃʰn/ *noun* [C, U]

simplistic /sɪmˈplɪstɪk/ *adjective* making something complicated seem simple by ignoring many of the details *a simplistic explanation*

simply /ˈsɪmpli/ *adverb* **1** EMPHASIS used to emphasize what you are saying *We simply don't have the time.* **2** ONLY only *A lot of people miss out on this opportunity simply because they don't know about it.* **3** NOT COMPLICATED in a way which is not complicated or difficult to understand *simply prepared food*

simulate /ˈsɪmjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] to do or make something which behaves or looks like something real but which is not real *The company uses a computer to simulate crash tests of its new cars.* ●**simulation** /ˌsɪmjəˈleɪʃʰn/ *noun* [C, U]

simulator /ˈsɪmjəleɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine on which people can practise operating a vehicle or an aircraft without having to drive or fly ***a flight simulator***

simultaneous /ˌsɪməlˈteɪniəs/ *adjective* If two or more things are simultaneous, they happen or exist at the same time. *simultaneous translation* ●**simultaneously** *adverb It was broadcast simultaneously in Britain and France.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sin***

commit a sin ● the sin **of** [pride/greed, etc

sin¹ /sɪn/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [**C, U**] something which is against the rules of a religion ***the sin of pride*** **2** [**no plural**] *informal* something that you should not do because it is morally wrong *You've only got one life and it's a sin to waste it.*

sin² /sɪn/ *verb* [**I**] **sinning**, *past* **sinned** **RELIGION** to do something that is against the rules of a religion ●**sinner** *noun* [**C**] someone who does something against the rules of a religion

O-key **since¹** /sɪns/ *adverb, preposition* from a time in the past until a later time or until now *They've been waiting since March.* ○ *The factory had been closed since the explosion.* ○ *I've felt fine ever since.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

since or **for?**

When you talk about the beginning of a period of time, use **since**.

I have lived here since 1997.

When you talk about the whole period of time, use **for**.

I have lived here for five years.

~~*I have lived here since five years.*~~

O-key **since²** /sɪns/ *conjunction* **1** TIME from a time in the past until a later time or until now *He's been much happier since he started his new job.* ○ *I've known Tim since he was seven.* **2** BECAUSE because *He drove quite slowly since we had plenty of time.*

sincere /sɪnˈsɪəʳ/ *adjective* **1** honest and saying or showing what you really feel or believe *He seems to be sincere.* ➲Opposite **insincere** **2** **sincere apologies/thanks, etc** *formal* used to add emphasis when you are expressing a feeling *The family wishes to express their sincere thanks to all the staff at the hospital.* ●**sincerity** /sɪnˈserəti/ *noun* [**U**] *No one doubted his sincerity.*

sincerely /sɪnˈsɪəli/ *adverb* **1** in a sincere way *I **sincerely hope** that this never happens again.* **2** **Yours sincerely** *formal* used at the end of formal letters where you know the name of the person you are writing to

sine /saɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** in a triangle that has one angle of 90°, the ratio of the length of the side opposite an angle less than 90° divided by the length of the hypotenuse (= the side opposite the 90° angle) ➲Compare **cosine**

sinful /ˈsɪnfᵊl/ *adjective* **RELIGION** against the rules of a religion or morally wrong *sinful thoughts*

O-key **sing** /sɪŋ/ *verb* [**I, T**] *past tense* **sang**, *past participle* **sung** **MUSIC** to make musical sounds with your voice *They all sang 'Happy Birthday' to him.* ○ *She sings in the church choir.*

singer /ˈsɪŋəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** someone who sings *a jazz singer*

singing /ˈsɪŋɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] **MUSIC** the activity of singing

O-key **single¹** /ˈsɪŋgl/ *adjective* **1** ONE [**always before noun**] only one *There was a single light in the corner of the room.* **2** **every single** used to emphasize that you are talking about each one of a group or series *I call him every single day.* **3** **SOCIETY** not married *He's young and single.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **married** **4** **SOCIETY** [**always before noun**] looking after your children alone without a partner or the children's other parent ***a single mother*** ○ ***a single-parent family*** **5** FOR ONE [**always before noun**] for only one person ***a single bed***

single² /ˈsɪŋgl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **MUSIC** a record or CD which includes only one main song **2** TICKET *UK* (*US* **one-way ticket**) a ticket for a journey that is from one place to another but not back again *Could I have a single to London, please?*

single³ /ˈsɪŋgl/ *verb*
single sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to choose one person or thing from a group to criticize or praise them *The report **singled** him **out for** special criticism.*

single-handedly /ˌsɪŋglˈhændɪdli/ (*also* **single-handed**) *adverb* on your own, without anyone's help *After his partner left, he kept the business going single-handedly.* ●**single-handed** /ˌsɪŋglˈhændɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *a single-handed round-the-world yacht race*

single-minded /ˌsɪŋglˈmaɪndɪd/ *adjective* very determined to achieve something *She had a single-minded determination to succeed in her career.*

ˌsingle ˈparent (*UK* **lone parent**) *noun* [**C**] **SOCIETY** someone who has a child or children but no husband, wife or partner that lives with them

singles /ˈsɪŋglz/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a game in sports such as tennis, in which one person plays against another *He won the men's singles title two years running.*

singly /ˈsɪŋgli/ *adverb* separately or one at a time *We don't sell them singly, only in packs of four or ten.*

singular /ˈsɪŋgjələʳ/ *adjective* **1** **LANGUAGE** The singular form of a word is used to talk about one person or thing. For example 'woman' is the singular form of 'women'. **2** *formal* very special, or found only in one person or situation *a landscape of singular beauty*

the singular /ˈsɪŋgjələʳ/ *noun* **LANGUAGE** the singular form of a word

singularly /ˈsɪŋgjələli/ *adverb formal* very *Fulbright was singularly uninterested in his comments.*

sinister /ˈsɪnɪstəʳ/ *adjective* making you feel that something bad or evil might happen *a sinister figure dressed in black*

O-key **sink¹** /sɪŋk/ *verb past* **sank**, *also US* **sunk**, *past participle* **sunk** **1** WATER [**I, T**] to go down or make something go down below the surface of water and not come back up *The Titanic sank after hitting an iceberg.* **2** SOFT SUBSTANCE [**I, T**] to go down, or make something go down, into something soft *My feet keep sinking into the*

S

sand. **3** MOVE DOWN [I] to move down slowly *The sun sank below the horizon.*
sink in *phrasal verb* If an unpleasant or surprising fact sinks in, you gradually start to believe it and understand what effect it will have on you. *It still hasn't sunk in that I'll never see her again.*
sink sth into sth *phrasal verb* to spend a large amount of money in a business or other piece of work *Millisat has already sunk $25 million into the Hong Kong project.*
sink into sth *phrasal verb* to slowly move into a sitting or lying position, in a relaxed or tired way *I just want to go home and sink into a hot bath.*

sink² /sɪŋk/ *noun* [C] a bowl that is fixed to the wall in a kitchen or bathroom that you wash dishes or your hands, etc in ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2, **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

sinus /ˈsaɪnəs/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the spaces inside the head that are connected to the back of the nose

sip /sɪp/ *verb* [I, T] **sipping**, *past* **sipped** to drink, taking only a small amount at a time *She sipped her champagne.* ●**sip** *noun* [C] *He **took a sip of** his coffee and then continued.*

siphon¹ /ˈsaɪfᵊn/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment for moving liquid from one place to another

siphon² /ˈsaɪfᵊn/ *verb* [T] **1** LIQUID to remove liquid from a container using a siphon **2** TAKE (*also* **siphon off**) to dishonestly take money from an organization or other supply over a period of time

sir /sɜːr/ *noun* **1** POLITE NAME (*also* **Sir**) You call a man 'sir' when you are speaking to him politely. *Excuse me, sir, is this seat taken?* **2** FORMAL LETTER You write 'Sir' at the beginning of a formal letter to a man when you do not know his name. *Dear Sir, I am writing to...* **3 Sir** a title used in the UK before the name of a man who has been officially respected or who has a high social rank *Sir Cliff Richard*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***siren***

a siren **goes off/sounds** ● a siren **blares/wails** ● a **police** siren

S

siren /ˈsaɪərən/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that makes a loud sound as a warning *a police siren*

sister /ˈsɪstər/ *noun* [C] **1 SOCIETY** a girl or woman who has the same parents as you *an older/younger sister* ○ *my big/little sister* **2 RELIGION** (*also* **Sister**) a nun (= woman who lives in a female religious group) *Sister Bridget* **3 HEALTH** (*also* **Sister**) a female nurse in the UK who is responsible for a hospital ward (= an area of a hospital containing beds for ill people) **4** a woman who is a member of the same race, religious group, organization, etc

sister-in-law /ˈsɪstᵊrɪnlɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sisters-in-law** the woman married to your brother, or the sister of your husband or wife

sisterly /ˈsɪstəli/ *adjective* experienced by or for a sister *sisterly love*

sit /sɪt/ *verb* **sitting**, *past* **sat 1** BODY POSITION [I] to be in a position with the weight of your body on your bottom and the top part of your body up, for example, on a chair *Emma was **sitting on** a stool.* ○ *The children **sat at** the table by the window.* ○ *We **sat by** the river and had a picnic.* **2** MOVE BODY [I] (*also* **sit down**) to move your body into a sitting position after you have been standing *She came over and **sat beside** him.* ○ *She **sat down on** the grass.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **3 sit sb down/at/in, etc** to make someone sit somewhere *She sat me down and told me the bad news.* ○ *I thought we'd sit the children at the end of the table.* **4** STAY [I] to stay in one place for a long time and not be used *He hardly ever drives the car. It just sits in the garage.* **5** MEETING [I] If a court, parliament, etc sits, it has a meeting to do its work. *The board will be sitting next week.* **6 EDUCATION** [T] *UK* to take a test or exam *The changes will affect many students sitting their exams this summer.* ➲See also: sit on the **fence**¹
sit about/around *phrasal verb* to spend time sitting down and doing very little [+ **doing sth**] *He just sits around all day watching television.*
sit back *phrasal verb* **1** RELAX to relax in a chair so that your back is against the back of the chair *Just sit back and enjoy the show.* **2** DO NOTHING to wait for something to happen without making any effort to do anything yourself *You can't just sit back and expect someone else to deal with the problem.*
sit in *phrasal verb* to go to a meeting or class to watch *I **sat in on** a couple of classes before choosing a course.*
sit sth out *phrasal verb* **1** NOT DO to not do an activity such as a game or dance because you are tired or have an injury *I think I'll sit out the next dance.* **2** WAIT to wait for something unpleasant to finish before you do anything *The government is prepared to sit out the strike rather than agree to union demands.*
sit through sth *phrasal verb* to stay until the end of a meeting, performance, etc that is very long or boring *We had to sit through two hours of speeches.*
sit up *phrasal verb* **1** MOVEMENT to move your body to a sitting position after you have been lying down *I sat up and opened my eyes.* **2** STAY AWAKE to stay awake and not go to bed although it is late [+ **doing sth**] *We sat up talking all night.*

sitar /ˈsɪtɑːr/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a South Asian musical instrument with a round body, a long neck and two sets of strings

sitcom /ˈsɪtkɒm/ *noun* [C, U] a funny television programme that is about the same group of people every week in different situations

site¹ /saɪt/ *noun* **1** HISTORY [C] the place where something important happened in the past *a **historic site*** ○ *the site of a battle* **2** AREA [C] an area that is used for something or where something happens *a **building site*** **3 on site** inside a factory, office building, etc *There are two restaurants on site.* ○ *They provide on-site childcare facilities for employees.* **4 INTERNET** [C] *short for* website (= an area on the Internet where information about a particular subject, organization, etc can be found)

site² /saɪt/ *verb formal* **site sth in/on, etc** to build something in a particular place [**often passive**] *The company's head office is sited in Geneva.*

sitter /ˈsɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a babysitter (= someone who looks after children when their parents go out)

sitting /ˈsɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** MEETING a meeting of a parliament, court, etc *a late-night sitting of parliament* **2** MEAL one of the times when a meal is served to a large group of people who cannot all eat at the same time

ˈsitting ˌroom *noun* [C] *UK* the room in a house where people sit to relax and, for example, watch television

situated /ˈsɪtjueɪtɪd/ *adjective formal* **be situated in/on/by, etc** to be in a particular place *a hotel situated by Lake Garda*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***situation***

bring about/rectify/improve a situation ● a situation **arises/deteriorates/worsens** ● a **complicated/dangerous/difficult/stressful** situation ● **in a** situation

situation /ˌsɪtjuˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** SOMETHING HAPPENING/EXISTING the set of things that are happening and the conditions that exist at a particular time and place *the economic/political situation* ○ *He's **in a** difficult **situation**.* **2** POSITION *formal* the position of a town, building, etc *The park's situation was perfect.*

six /sɪks/ the number 6

sixteen /ˌsɪkˈstiːn/ the number 16 ●**sixteenth** 16th written as a word

sixth¹ /sɪksθ/ 6th written as a word

sixth² /sɪksθ/ *noun* [C] one of six equal parts of something; 1/6

ˈsixth ˌform *noun* [C] EDUCATION in Britain, the part of a school for students between the ages of 16 and 18

sixty /ˈsɪksti/ **1** the number 60 **2 the sixties** the years from 1960 to 1969 **3 be in your sixties** to be aged between 60 and 69 ●**sixtieth** 60th written as a word

sizable /ˈsaɪzəbl/ *adjective another spelling of* sizeable

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***size***

take/wear a size [10/39, etc] ● **come in** [all/different/various, etc sizes]

size¹ /saɪz/ *noun* **1** HOW BIG [C, U] how big or small something is *It's an area about the size of Oxford.* ○ *The size of some of those trees is incredible* (= they are very large). **2** MEASURES [C] one of the different measurements in which things, for example clothes, food containers, etc are made *a size 10 skirt* ○ *What **size** shoes do you **take**?* ○ *I usually buy the 1.5 litre size.* ➲See also: all shapes (**shape¹**) and sizes

size² /saɪz/ *verb*
size sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to look at someone or think about something carefully before making a judgment *I could see her trying to size me up.*

sizeable (*also* **sizable**) /ˈsaɪzəbl/ *adjective* quite large *a sizeable crowd*

-sized /saɪzd/ *suffix* used at the end of a word to mean 'of a particular size' *a medium-sized pizza* ○ *a good-sized bedroom*

sizzle /ˈsɪzl/ *verb* [I] to make the sound of food cooking in hot oil

skanky /ˈskæŋki/ *adjective informal* very unpleasant or dirty

skate¹ /skeɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** SPORT (*also* **roller skate**) a boot with wheels on the bottom, used for moving across the ground *a pair of skates* **2** SPORT (*also* **ice skate**) a boot with a metal part on the bottom, used for moving across ice ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14 **3 get/put your skates on** *UK informal* used to tell someone to hurry

skate² /skeɪt/ *verb* [I] SPORT to move using skates ●**skater** *noun* [C] ●**skating** *noun* [U]

skateboard /ˈskeɪtbɔːd/ *noun* [C] SPORT a board with wheels on the bottom, that you stand on and move forward by pushing one foot on the ground ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

skateboarding /ˈskeɪtbɔːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT the activity of moving using a skateboard ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

skeletal /ˈskelɪtᵊl/ *adjective* like a skeleton, or relating to skeletons

skeleton /ˈskelɪtᵊn/ *noun* **1** ANATOMY, BIOLOGY [C] the structure made of all the bones in the body of a person or animal **2 a skeleton crew/staff/service** the smallest number of people that you need to keep an organization working **3 have a skeleton in the cupboard** *UK* (*US* **have a skeleton in the closet**) to have an embarrassing or unpleasant secret about something that happened in the past

skeptic /ˈskeptɪk/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* sceptic

skeptical /ˈskeptɪkᵊl/ *adjective US spelling of* sceptical

skepticism /ˈskeptɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] *US spelling of* scepticism

sketch¹ /sketʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** ART a picture that you draw quickly and with few details *He **did** a quick **sketch** of the cat.* **2** ACTING a short piece of acting about a funny situation **3** DESCRIPTION a short description of something without many details

sketch² /sketʃ/ *verb* [T] ART to draw a sketch *I sketched a map for him on a scrap of paper.*
sketch sth out *phrasal verb* to give a short description with few details, especially of an idea or plan *I've sketched out some ideas for my new book.*

sketchy /ˈsketʃi/ *adjective* with few details *Reports about the accident are still sketchy.*

ski¹ /skiː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **skis** SPORT one of a pair of long, thin pieces of wood or plastic that you wear on the bottom of boots to move over snow ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

ski² /skiː/ *verb* [I] **skiing**, *past* **skied** SPORT to move over snow wearing skis ●**skier** *noun* [C] ●**skiing** *noun* [U] *I'd like to **go skiing** in Switzerland.* ➲See also: **water-skiing** ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

skid /skɪd/ *verb* [I] **skidding**, *past* **skidded** If a vehicle skids, it slides along a surface and you cannot control it. *The car skidded on ice and hit a tree.* ●**skid** *noun* [C]

S

skies /skaɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] the sky in a particular place or in a particular state *beautiful, clear, blue skies*

skilful *UK* (*US* **skillful**) /ˈskɪlfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SOMEONE good at doing something *a skilful artist* **2** SOMETHING done or made very well *skilful use of language* ●**skilfully** *adverb UK*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***skill***

acquire/develop/learn/master/require a skill ● **consummate/great** skill ● a **basic/necessary/useful** skill ● skill **at/in** sth

skill /skɪl/ *noun* [**C, U**] the ability to do an activity or job well, especially because you have practised it *You need good communication skills to be a teacher.*

skilled /skɪld/ *adjective* **1** PERSON having the abilities needed to do an activity or job well *a **highly skilled*** (= very skilled) *photographer* ○ *He has become **skilled in** dealing with the media.* **2** WORK/JOB Skilled work needs someone who has had special training to do it. ➲Opposite **unskilled**

skillet /ˈskɪlɪt/ *noun* [**C**] *mainly US* a large, heavy pan with a long handle, used for frying food

skillful /ˈskɪlfʊl/ *adjective US spelling of* skilful

skim /skɪm/ *verb* **skimming**, *past* **skimmed** **1** MOVE OVER [**I, T**] to move quickly, and almost or just touch the surface of something *Birds skimmed the surface of the pond.* **2** REMOVE [**T**] (*also* **skim off**) to remove something from the surface of a liquid *Skim off any excess fat before serving.* **3** READ QUICKLY [**T**] (*also* **skim through**) to read or look at something quickly without looking at the details *She began skimming through the reports on her desk.*

ˌskimmed ˈmilk (*also US* **ˈskim ˌmilk**) *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** milk that has had the fat removed from it

skimp /skɪmp/ *verb*
skimp on sth *phrasal verb* to not spend enough time or money on something, or not use enough of something *We've got plenty of cheese so don't skimp on it.*

skimpy /ˈskɪmpi/ *adjective* Skimpy clothes show a lot of your body. *a skimpy bikini/dress*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***skin***

dark/fair/olive skin ● **dry/oily/sensitive** skin

skin¹ /skɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the outer layer of a person or animal's body ***dark/fair skin*** **2** ANIMAL the outer layer of a dead animal used as leather, fur, etc *a leopard skin rug* **3** **BIOLOGY, FOOD** the outer layer of a fruit or vegetable *a banana/potato skin* **4** LIQUID a thin, solid layer that forms on the top of a liquid *A skin had formed on the top of the milk.* **5** **COMPUTING** the particular way that information is arranged and shown on a computer screen **6 do sth by the skin of your teeth** *informal* to only just succeed in doing something *They held on by the skin of their teeth to win 1-0.* **7 have (a) thick skin** to not care if someone criticizes you

skin² /skɪn/ *verb* [**T**] **skinning**, *past* **skinned** **1** **FOOD** to remove the skin from something **2** (*also UK* **graze**) to injure your skin by rubbing it against something rough *Mary fell and skinned her knees.*

skinhead /ˈskɪnhed/ *noun* [**C**] a man who has extremely short hair, especially one who behaves in a violent way

skinny /ˈskɪni/ *adjective* Someone who is skinny is too thin.

skip¹ /skɪp/ *verb* **skipping**, *past* **skipped** **1** MOVE FORWARD [**I**] to move forward, jumping quickly from one foot to the other *She watched her daughter skipping down the street.* **2** **SPORT** [**I**] (*US* **ˌskip ˈrope**) to jump over a rope while you or two other people move it over and then under your body again and again *I skip for ten minutes every day to keep fit.* **3** NOT DO [**T**] to not do something that you usually do or that you should do *I think I'll skip lunch today - I'm not very hungry.* **4** AVOID [**T**] (*also* **skip over**) to avoid reading or talking about something by starting to read or talk about the next thing instead *I usually skip the boring bits.*

skip² /skɪp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** CONTAINER *UK* (*US* **Dumpster** *trademark*) a very large, metal container for big pieces of rubbish **2** MOVE when you jump quickly from one foot to the other

skipper /ˈskɪpᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* the leader of a team, an aircraft, a ship, etc

ˈskipping ˌrope *UK* (*US* **jump rope**) *noun* [**C**] **SPORT** a rope that you move over your head and then jump over as you move it under your feet

skirmish /ˈskɜːmɪʃ/ *noun* [**C**] a small fight

skirt¹ /skɜːt/ *noun* [**C**] a piece of women's clothing that hangs from the waist and has no legs ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

skirt² /skɜːt/ (*also* **skirt around**) *verb* [**T**] **1** AVOID to avoid talking about something *I deliberately skirted the question of money.* **2** MOVE to move around the edge of something *We skirted around the edge of the field.*

skittle /ˈskɪtl/ *noun* **1** [**C**] one of a set of bottle-shaped objects that you try to knock down with a ball as a game **2** **skittles** [**U**] a game in which you try to knock down bottle-shaped objects with a ball

skive /skaɪv/ (*also* **skive off**) *verb* [**I, T**] *UK* to not go to school or work when you should, or to leave school or work earlier than you should ●**skiver** *noun* [**C**] *UK informal* someone who skives

skulk /skʌlk/ *verb* **skulk about/behind/in, etc** to hide somewhere or move around quietly in a way that makes people think you are going to do something bad *I saw a man skulking behind the shed.*

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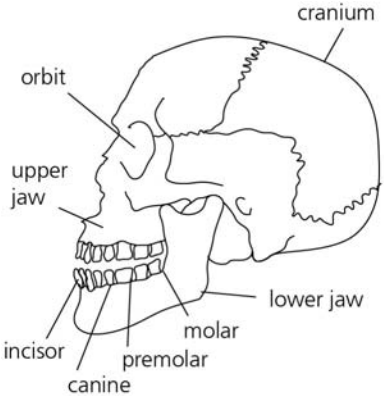

skull

skull /skʌl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part of your head that is made of bone and which protects your brain

ˈskull ˌcap *noun* [C] a small round hat worn especially by some religious men

skunk /skʌŋk/ *noun* [C] a black and white animal that produces a very unpleasant smell in order to defend itself

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sky***

the sky **darkens/lightens** ● **in** the sky ● a **clear/cloudy/overcast** sky

sky /skaɪ/ *noun* [**U, no plural**] the area above the Earth where you can see clouds, the sun, the moon, etc *a beautiful, blue sky* ○ *The sky suddenly went dark.* ➲See also: **skies**

skydiving /ˈskaɪˌdaɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport of jumping out of an aircraft with a parachute (= large piece of cloth that allows you to fall slowly to the ground)

skylight /ˈskaɪlaɪt/ *noun* [C] a window in the roof of a building

skyline /ˈskaɪlaɪn/ *noun* [C] the pattern that is made against the sky by tall buildings *the New York skyline*

ˈsky ˌmarshal *noun* [C] a person whose job is to carry a gun and protect the passengers on an aircraft

skyscraper /ˈskaɪˌskreɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a very tall building

ˈsky ˌsurfing *noun* [U] the imaginary activity of surfing (= riding on a wave standing on a special board) in the air

slab /slæb/ *noun* [C] a thick, flat piece of something, especially stone *a slab of concrete*

slack¹ /slæk/ *adjective* **1** LOOSE loose or not tight *Suddenly the rope became slack.* **2** BUSINESS If business is slack, there are not many customers. **3** LAZY not trying hard enough in your work *slack management*

slack² /slæk/ *informal* (*also US* **slack off**) *verb* [I] to work less hard than usual *I'm afraid I haven't been to the gym recently - I've been slacking.*

slacken /ˈslækᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** SLOW to become slower or less active, or to make something become slower or less active *Economic growth is slackening.* **2** LOOSE to become loose, or to make something become loose *As you get older your muscles slacken.*

slacks /slæks/ *noun* [**plural**] *mainly US* trousers

slag /slæg/ *verb* **slagging**, *past* **slagged**
slag sb/sth off *phrasal verb UK informal* to criticize someone or something in an unpleasant way

slain /sleɪn/ *past participle of* slay

slalom /ˈslɑːləm/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a race in which you go forwards by moving from side to side between poles

slam /slæm/ *verb* **slamming**, *past* **slammed 1** [I, T] to close with great force, or to make something close with great force *Kate heard the front door slam.* **2 slam sth down/onto/into, etc** to put something somewhere with great force *She **slammed the phone down**.* ●**slam** *noun* [C] [**usually singular**] the slam of a car door

slander /ˈslɑːndəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **LAW** the crime of saying bad things about someone that are not true ●**slander** *verb* [T] ●**slanderous** /ˈslɑːndᵊrəs/ *adjective* saying bad things about someone that are not true

slang /slæŋ/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** informal language, often language that is only used by people who belong to a particular group *prison slang*

slant¹ /slɑːnt/ *verb* [I, T] to slope in a particular direction, or to make something slope in a particular direction *Pale sunlight **slanted through** the curtain.*

slant² /slɑːnt/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** POSITION a position that is sloping *The road is **on/at a slant**.* **2** WRITING a way of writing about something that shows who or what you support *a political slant* ○ *It's certainly a new **slant on** the subject.*

slap¹ /slæp/ *verb* [T] **slapping**, *past* **slapped** to hit someone with the flat, inside part of your hand *She slapped him across the face.*
slap sth on *phrasal verb* to quickly put or spread something on a surface *I'll just slap some make-up on.*

slap² /slæp/ *noun* [C] **1** a hit with the flat, inside part of your hand **2 a slap in the face** something someone does that insults or upsets you *After all that hard work, losing my job was a real slap in the face.*

slapdash /ˈslæpdæʃ/ *adjective* done quickly and without being careful *Her work has been a bit slapdash recently.*

slapstick /ˈslæpstɪk/ *noun* [U] when actors do funny things like falling down, hitting each other, etc to make people laugh

slap-up /ˈslæpˌʌp/ *adjective* **slap-up meal/dinner, etc** *UK informal* **FOOD** a large and very good meal

slash¹ /slæʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** CUT to cut something by making a quick, long cut with something very sharp *His throat had been slashed.* **2** REDUCE to reduce the amount of something by a lot *to **slash prices***

S

slash² /slæʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** a long, deep cut **2** LANGUAGE a mark (/) used in writing to separate words or numbers, often to show a choice or connection

slate¹ /sleɪt/ *noun* [C, U] GEOLOGY a dark grey rock that can easily be cut into thin pieces, or a small, flat piece of this used to cover a roof

slate² /sleɪt/ *verb* **1** [T] *UK* to criticize someone or something severely [**often passive**] *The film had been slated by critics.* **2 be slated** *US* to be expected to happen in the future, or to be expected to be or do something in the future [+ **to do sth**] Filming is slated to begin next spring.

slaughter¹ /ˈslɔːtəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** FARMING to kill an animal for meat **2** PEOPLE to kill a lot of people in a very cruel way **3** DEFEAT *informal* to defeat someone very easily

slaughter² /ˈslɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [U] when a lot of people or animals are killed in a cruel way

slaughterhouse /ˈslɔːtəhaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **slaughterhouses** /ˈslɔːtəhaʊzɪz/ FARMING a place where animals are killed for meat

slave¹ /sleɪv/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [C] someone who is owned by someone else and has to work for them *He treats his mother like a slave.* **2 be a slave to sth** to be completely controlled or influenced by something *You're a slave to fashion.*

slave² /sleɪv/ (*also* **slave away**) *verb* [I] *informal* to work very hard *Giorgio was **slaving away at** his homework.*

slavery /ˈsleɪvəʳri/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY the system of owning slaves, or the condition of being a slave

slay /sleɪ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **slew**, *past participle* **slain** *literary* to kill someone in a very violent way

sleaze /sliːz/ *noun* [U] political or business activities that are morally wrong

sleazy /ˈsliːzi/ *adjective* unpleasant and morally wrong, often in a way that relates to sex *He spent the night drinking in a sleazy bar.*

sledge¹ /sledʒ/ *UK* (*US* **sled** /sled/) *noun* [C] SPORT a vehicle that is used for travelling on snow

sledge² /sledʒ/ *UK* (*US* **sled** /sled/) *verb* [I] SPORT to travel on snow using a sledge

sleek /sliːk/ *adjective* **1** HAIR Sleek hair is smooth and very shiny. **2** CAR A sleek car is attractive and looks expensive.

sleep¹ /sliːp/ *verb past* **slept 1** [I] to be in the state of rest when your eyes are closed, your body is not active, and your mind is unconscious *Did you sleep well?* **2 sleep four/six, etc** If a place sleeps four, six, etc, it is big enough for that number of people to sleep in. **3 sleep on it** to wait until the next day before making a decision about something important so that you can think about it carefully ➲See also: not sleep a **wink²**
sleep in *phrasal verb* to sleep longer in the morning than you usually do
sleep sth off *phrasal verb* to sleep until you feel better, especially after drinking too much alcohol
sleep over *phrasal verb* to sleep in someone else's home for a night *After the party, I slept over at Tom's house.*
sleep through sth *phrasal verb* to continue to sleep although there is noise *I don't know how you slept through the storm.*
sleep with sb *phrasal verb informal* to have sex with someone

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sleep*** *(noun)*

get [no/some, etc] sleep ● **get to/go to** sleep ● **have** a sleep ● a **good night's** sleep ● **in** your sleep

sleep² /sliːp/ *noun* **1** [U, **no plural**] the state you are in when you are sleeping, or a period of time when you are sleeping *I haven't had **a good night's sleep*** (= a long sleep at night) *for weeks.* ○ *You need to go home and **get some sleep**.* ○ *It took me ages to **get to sleep*** (= to succeed in sleeping). ○ *He died peacefully **in his sleep**.* **2 go to sleep a** to begin to sleep *Babies often go to sleep after a feed.* **b** HEALTH *informal* If part of your body goes to sleep, you cannot feel it. *I'd been sitting on my feet and they'd gone to sleep.* **3 put sth to sleep** to kill an animal that is very old or ill **4 could do sth in your sleep** to be able to do something very easily **5 lose sleep over sth** to worry about something

sleeper /ˈsliːpəʳ/ *noun* **1 a light/heavy sleeper** someone who wakes up easily/does not wake up easily **2** TRAIN [C] a train or a part of a train that has beds in it **3** SUPPORT [C] *UK* (*US* **railroad tie**) a piece of wood that is used to support a railway track (= the thing a train moves along on) **4** JEWELLERY [C] *UK* a small gold or silver ring worn in the ear

ˈsleeping ˌbag *noun* [C] a long bag made of thick material that you sleep inside

ˈsleeping ˌpill *noun* [C] HEALTH a medicine that you take to help you sleep

sleepless /ˈsliːpləs/ *adjective* **sleepless night** a night when you are not able to sleep *He'd spent a sleepless night worrying about his exam.* ●**sleeplessness** *noun* [U]

sleep-over /ˈsliːpəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a party when a group of young people stay at a friend's house for the night

sleepwalk /ˈsliːpˌwɔːk/ *verb* [I] to get out of bed and walk around while you are sleeping ●**sleepwalker** *noun* [C]

sleepy /ˈsliːpi/ *adjective* **1** PERSON feeling tired and wanting to go to sleep *The heat had made me sleepy.* **2** PLACE quiet and with little activity *a sleepy little town* ●**sleepily** *adverb* ●**sleepiness** *noun* [U]

sleet /sliːt/ *noun* [U] a mixture of snow and rain ●**sleet** *verb* [I] ***It was sleeting** when I looked outside.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sleeve***

long/short sleeves ● **roll up** your sleeves

sleeve /sliːv/ *noun* **1** [C] the part of a jacket, shirt, etc that covers your arm *He **rolled up** his **sleeves** to do the dishes.* **2 have sth up your sleeve** *informal* to have a secret plan *They were worried he might have another nasty surprise up his sleeve.*

-sleeved /sliːvd/ *suffix* **short-sleeved/long-sleeved** having short/long sleeves *a short-sleeved shirt*

sleeveless /ˈsliːvləs/ *adjective* describes a piece of clothing with no sleeves *a sleeveless dress*

sleigh /sleɪ/ *noun* [C] a large vehicle that is pulled by animals and used for travelling on snow

slender /ˈslendəʳ/ *adjective* thin in an attractive way *a slender woman with long, red hair*

slept /slept/ *past of* sleep

sleuth /sluːθ/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* a police officer whose job is to discover who has committed a crime

slew /sluː/ *past tense of* slay

slice¹ /slaɪs/ *noun* **1** [C] a flat piece of food that has been cut from a larger piece *a slice of bread/cake/meat* ➲See colour picture **Pieces and Quantities** on page Centre 1 **2 a slice of sth** a part of something that is being divided *a large slice of the profits* ➲See also: **fish slice**

slice² /slaɪs/ *verb* **1** FOOD [T] (*also* **slice up**) to cut food into thin, flat pieces *Could you slice the tomatoes?* **2 slice into/off/through, etc** CUT [I, T] to cut into or through something with a knife or something sharp *I almost sliced my finger off.* ➲See also: the best/greatest **thing** since sliced bread

slick /slɪk/ *adjective* **1** WITH SKILL done with a lot of skill *a slick presentation* **2** NOT SINCERE attractive but in a way that is not sincere or honest *He was a bit slick - I didn't trust him.*

slide¹ /slaɪd/ *verb past* **slid 1 slide (sth) across/down/along, etc** to move smoothly over a surface, or to make something move smoothly over a surface *He slid the letter into his pocket.* **2 slide (sth) into/out of/through, etc** to move somewhere quietly, or to make something move quietly *She slid out of the room, being careful not to wake Alan.*

slide² /slaɪd/ *noun* **1** PHOTOGRAPH [C] a small piece of film that you shine light through in order to see a photograph **2** GAME [C] a large object that children climb and slide down as a game **3 CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY** [C] a small piece of glass that you put something on when you want to look at it under a microscope (= equipment used to make things look bigger) **4** LESS/WORSE [**no plural**] when the level or quality of something gets less or worse *a price slide*

O-➡**slight¹** /slaɪt/ *adjective* **1** SMALL small and not important *slight differences in colour* ○ *We're having a slight problem with our computer system.* **2** PERSON Someone who is slight is thin.

slight² /slaɪt/ *noun* [C] an action or remark that insults someone

slighted /ˈslaɪtɪd/ *adjective* **be/feel slighted** to feel insulted because someone has done or said something which shows that they think you are not important *Annie felt slighted because she hadn't been invited to the meeting.*

slightest /ˈslaɪtɪst/ *adjective* **1 the slightest** [**always before noun**] the smallest *The slightest movement will disturb these shy animals.* **2 not in the slightest** not at all *"Do you mind if I open the window?" "Not in the slightest."*

O-➡**slightly** /ˈslaɪtli/ *adverb* a little *I think I did slightly better in my exams this time.* ○ *I find it slightly worrying.*

slim¹ /slɪm/ *adjective* **slimmer**, **slimmest 1** PERSON Someone who is slim is thin in an attractive way. **2** SLIGHT small and not as much as you would like *There's a **slim chance** he'll succeed.*

slim² /slɪm/ *verb* [I] **slimming**, *past* **slimmed** *UK* to eat less in order to become thinner
slim down *phrasal verb* to become thinner
slim sth down *phrasal verb* to reduce the size of something *It is not our intention to slim down the workforce.*

slime /slaɪm/ *noun* [U] a thick, sticky liquid that is unpleasant to touch

slimy /ˈslaɪmi/ *adjective* **1** SLIME covered in slime **2** PERSON *informal* too friendly in a way that is not sincere

sling¹ /slɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1 HEALTH** a piece of cloth that you wear around your neck and put your arm into to support it when it is injured **2** a piece of cloth or a strap that you tie around your body to carry things in *She had her baby in a sling.*

sling² /slɪŋ/ *verb past* **slung 1 sling sth over/around/on, etc** to put something in a position where it hangs loosely *He slung his bag over his shoulder.* **2 sling sth into/onto/under, etc** to throw something somewhere in a careless way *She slung her coat onto the bed.*

slingshot /ˈslɪŋʃɒt/ *US* (*UK* **catapult**) *noun* [C] a Y-shaped object with a piece of elastic across it used by children to shoot small stones

slink /slɪŋk/ *verb past* **slunk slink away/off/out, etc** to move somewhere quietly so that no one will notice you *I caught him slinking out of the meeting.*

slip¹ /slɪp/ *verb* **slipping**, *past* **slipped 1** FALL [I] to slide by accident and fall or almost fall *She slipped on the ice and broke her ankle.* **2** OUT OF POSITION [I] to slide out of the correct position *The photo had slipped from the frame.* **3 slip away/out/through, etc** to go somewhere quietly or quickly *I'll slip out of the room if I get bored.* **4 slip sth into/through, etc** to put something somewhere quickly or secretly *She slipped the letter into an envelope and sealed it.* **5** GIVE SECRETLY [**+ two objects**] *informal* to give something to someone secretly *I slipped her a five pound note.* **6** GET LESS/WORSE [I] to get less or worse in level or quality *His school grades have slipped recently.* **7 let sth slip** to forget that something is a secret and tell someone about it ➲See also: slip your **mind**¹
slip into sth *phrasal verb* to quickly put on a piece of clothing
slip sth off *phrasal verb* to quickly take off a piece of clothing *Slip your shirt off and I'll listen to your heart.*
slip sth on *phrasal verb* to quickly put on a piece of clothing *I'll just slip my shoes on.*
slip out *phrasal verb* If a remark slips out, you say it without intending to. *I didn't mean to tell anyone you were getting married - it just slipped out.*
slip out of sth *phrasal verb* to quickly take off a piece of clothing
slip up *phrasal verb* to make a mistake

S

slip² /slɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** PAPER a small piece of paper *He wrote the number on a* ***slip of paper***. **2** FALL when you slide by accident and fall or almost fall **3** WOMEN'S CLOTHING a piece of clothing that a woman wears under a dress or skirt **4** MISTAKE a small mistake **5 give sb the slip** *informal* to escape from someone you do not want to be with **6 a slip of the tongue** a mistake made by using the wrong word

slipper /ˈslɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a soft, comfortable shoe that you wear in the house ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

slippery /ˈslɪpᵊri/ *adjective* **1** smooth and wet and difficult to hold or walk on *Be careful - the floor's slippery.* **2 a slippery slope** a bad situation that is likely to get worse

ˈ**slip ˌroad** *UK* (*US* **ramp**) *noun* [C] a short road that is used to drive onto or off a motorway (= wide, fast road)

slit¹ /slɪt/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow cut or hole in something *Make a slit in the pastry to allow the steam to escape.*

slit² /slɪt/ *verb* [T] **slitting**, *past* **slit** to make a long, narrow cut in something *She* ***slit*** *her* ***wrists***.

slither /ˈslɪðəʳ/ *verb* [I] to move smoothly by twisting and sliding

sliver /ˈslɪvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a thin piece of something that has come off a larger piece ***slivers of glass***

slob /slɒb/ *noun* [C] *informal* a lazy or dirty person

slog¹ /slɒg/ *verb* **slogging**, *past* **slogged** *informal* **slog up/down/through, etc** to move forward with difficulty *We slogged up the hill in silence.*
slog away *phrasal verb informal* to work very hard for a long time *I've been* ***slogging away at*** *this for hours and I'm exhausted.*

slog² /slɒg/ *noun* [U **no plural**] *UK informal* a O-K period of hard work *Studying for all the exams was a* ***hard slog***.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***slogan***

sth **bears/carries** a slogan • a slogan **of** sth • an **advertising** slogan

slogan /ˈsləʊgən/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a short phrase that is easy to remember and is used to make people notice something *an* ***advertising slogan***

slop /slɒp/ *verb* **slopping**, *past* **slopped slop (sth) about/around/into, etc** If liquid slops about, it moves around or over the edge of its container, and if you slop it about, you make it move around or over the edge of its container. *Her hand shook, making her tea slop into the saucer.*

slope¹ /sləʊp/ *noun* [C] a surface or piece of land that is high at one end and low at the other *There's a* ***steep slope*** *to climb before we're at the top.* ➲See also: a **slippery** slope

slope² /sləʊp/ *verb* [I] to be high at one end and low at the other *The field* ***slopes down*** *to the river.*

sloppy /ˈslɒpi/ *adjective* **1** CARELESS not done carefully *His work was sloppy and full of spelling mistakes.* **2** CLOTHES Sloppy clothes are O-K loose and untidy. *a girl wearing a sloppy sweater and torn jeans* **3** TOO WET A sloppy substance has too much liquid in it. •**sloppily** *adverb* •**sloppiness** *noun* [U]

slosh /slɒʃ/ *verb* **slosh against/over/around, etc** If liquid sloshes, it moves against or over the edge of its container. *Water sloshed over the edge of the pool as the swimmers dived in.*

sloshed /slɒʃt/ *adjective informal* drunk

slot¹ /slɒt/ *noun* [C] **1** HOLE a long, narrow hole that you put something into, especially money **2** TIME a period of time that you allow for something in a plan *The programme is being moved to a later slot.*

slot² /slɒt/ *verb* [I, T] **slotting**, *past* **slotted** to fit into a slot, or to make something fit into a slot
slot sb/sth in *phrasal verb* to find time for someone or something in a period of time that has already been planned *Dr O'Neil can slot you in around 9.30.*

sloth /sləʊθ/ *noun* **1** ANIMAL [C] an animal that moves very slowly and lives in Central and South America **2** LAZY [U] *literary* when someone is lazy

ˈ**slot maˌchine** *noun* [C] a machine that you put money into in order to try to win money

slouch¹ /slaʊtʃ/ *verb* [I] to stand, sit, or walk with your shoulders forward so that your body is not straight *Stop slouching and stand up straight.*

slouch² /slaʊtʃ/ *noun* **1** [**no plural**] the position your body is in when you slouch **2 be no slouch** *informal* to work very hard and be good at something *He's no slouch when it comes to cooking.*

slovenly /ˈslʌvᵊnli/ *adjective* lazy, untidy, and dirty *slovenly habits* •**slovenliness** *noun* [U]

O-K **slow¹** /sləʊ/ *adjective* **1** NOT FAST moving, happening, or doing something without much speed *I'm making slow progress with the painting.* ○ *He's a very slow reader.* **2 be slow to do sth; be slow in doing sth** to take a long time to do something *The government has been slow to react to the problem.* ○ *The ambulance was very slow in coming.* **3** CLOCK If a clock is slow, it shows a time that is earlier than the correct time. **4** BUSINESS If business is slow, there are few customers. **5** NOT CLEVER not quick at learning and understanding things **6** NOT EXCITING not exciting *I find his films very slow.*

slow² /sləʊ/ *verb* [I, T] to become slower or to make something become slower *The car* ***slowed to a halt*** (= moved more and more slowly until it stopped).
slow (sth) down *phrasal verb* to become slower or to make something become slower *Slow down, Claire, you're walking too fast!*
slow down *phrasal verb* If someone slows down, they become less active. *The doctor told me I should slow down and not work so hard.*

slowdown /ˈsləʊdaʊn/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** when business activity becomes slower *an* ***economic slowdown*** ○ *The figures show a* ***slowdown in*** *retail sales.*

O-K **slowly** /ˈsləʊli/ *adverb* at a slow speed *Could you speak more slowly, please?*

ˌslow ˈmotion *noun* [U] a way of showing pictures from a film or television programme at a slower speed than normal *They showed a replay of the goal* ***in slow motion****.*

sludge /slʌdʒ/ *noun* [U] soft, wet soil, or a substance that looks like this

slug¹ /slʌg/ *noun* [C] **1** ANIMAL a small, soft creature with no legs that moves slowly and eats plants **2** DRINK a small amount of a drink, especially an alcoholic drink *He* ***took a slug*** *of whisky from the bottle.*

slug² /slʌg/ *verb* [T] **slugging**, *past* **slugged** *informal* to hit someone with your fist (= closed hand)
slug it out *phrasal verb informal* to fight, argue, or compete with someone until one person wins *Federer and Hewitt slugged it out for a place in the final.*

sluggish /ˈslʌgɪʃ/ *adjective* moving or working more slowly than usual *a sluggish economy* ○ *I felt really sluggish after lunch.*

slum /slʌm/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a poor and crowded area of a city where the buildings are in a very bad condition *He grew up in the slums of Mexico City.* ○ *slum areas*

slumber /ˈslʌmbəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] *literary* sleep *She lay down on the bed and fell into a deep slumber.* ●**slumber** *verb* [I] *literary*

ˈslumber ˌparty *noun* [C] *US* a party when a group of children spend the night at one child's house

slump¹ /slʌmp/ *verb* **1** ECONOMICS [I] If a price, value, or amount slumps, it goes down suddenly. *Sales have slumped by 50%.* **2 slump back/down/over, etc** to fall or sit down suddenly because you feel tired or weak *She slumped back in her chair, exhausted.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***slump (noun)***

a **dramatic/severe** slump ● a slump **in** sth

slump² /slʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** ECONOMICS a sudden fall in prices or sales *a* ***slump in*** *world oil prices* **2** ECONOMICS a period when there is very little business activity and not many jobs *It's been the worst* ***economic slump*** *for 25 years.*

slung /slʌŋ/ *past of* sling

slunk /slʌŋk/ *past of* slink

slur¹ /slɜːʳ/ *verb* [I, T] **slurring**, *past* **slurred** to speak without separating your words clearly, often because you are tired or drunk *He'd drunk too much and was slurring his words.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***slur***

cast slurs ● a slur **against/on** sb/sth

slur² /slɜːʳ/ *noun* [C] a criticism that will make people have a bad opinion of someone or something *a racial slur* ○ *She regarded it as a* ***slur on*** *her character.*

slurp /slɜːp/ *verb* [I, T] *informal* to drink in a noisy way *He slurped his tea.* ●**slurp** *noun* [C] *informal*

slush /slʌʃ/ *noun* [U] snow that has started to melt

sly /slaɪ/ *adjective* **slyer**, **slyest 1** deceiving people in a clever way to get what you want **2 sly smile** a smile that shows you know something that other people do not *"I know why Chris didn't come home yesterday," she said with a sly smile.* ●**slyly** *adverb*

smack¹ /smæk/ *verb* **1** [T] to hit someone with the flat, inside part of your hand *Do you think it's right to smack children when they're naughty?* **2 smack sth against/onto/down, etc** to hit something hard against something else *Ray smacked the ball into the net.*
smack of sth *phrasal verb* If something smacks of an unpleasant quality, it seems to have that quality. *a policy that smacks of racism*

smack² /smæk/ *noun* [C] a hit with the flat, inside part of your hand *Stop shouting or I'll* ***give*** *you* ***a smack****!*

smack³ /smæk/ *informal* (*also UK* **ˈsmack ˌbang**) (*also US* **ˌsmack ˈdab**) *adverb* **1** EXACTLY exactly in a particular place *She lives smack in the middle of Edinburgh.* **2** SUDDENLY suddenly and with a lot of force *He braked too late and ran smack into the car in front.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***small***

Little is a very common alternative to 'small', and can describe things or people: *I'll just have a* ***little*** *piece of cake.* ● *She's so* ***little****.*

If someone is extremely small, you can say that they are **tiny** or **minute**, and if something is extremely small, you can say that it is **minute**, **tiny**, or, in more formal contexts, **microscopic** or **minuscule**: *Inside the pram was a* ***tiny*** *baby.* ● *The phone he pulled out of his pocket was* ***minute****.* ● *The cost of vaccination is* ***minuscule*** *compared to the cost of treatment.*

The adjectives **dwarf** and **miniature** are sometimes used to describe things that are smaller than the normal size: *There were* ***dwarf*** *fir trees in pots on the patio.* ● *It's a* ***miniature*** *bath for the doll's house.*

If a woman or girl is small in an attractive way, you can use the adjectives **dainty** or **petite**: *She had* ***dainty*** *feet.* ● *Like all his girlfriends, Emma was dark and* ***petite****.*

You can use the informal adjective **poky** to describe a room or other area that is too small: *They live in a* ***poky*** *little flat in south London.*

The adjective **slight** is sometimes used with abstract nouns to describe things that are small and not important: *There was a* ***slight*** *difference in colour.*

O-key **small¹** /smɔːl/ *adjective* **1** LITTLE little in size or amount *They live in a small apartment near Times Square.* ○ *We teach the children in small groups.* **2** YOUNG A small child is very young. *a woman with three small children* **3** NOT IMPORTANT not important or serious *a small mistake* **4 feel small** to feel stupid or unimportant *Simon was always trying to make me feel small.*

S

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

small or little?

Small refers to size and is the usual opposite of 'big' or 'large'.

Could I have a hamburger and a small Coke please?

Our house is quite small.

Little refers to size but also expresses the speaker's feelings. For example, it can suggest that the speaker likes or dislikes something.

They live in a beautiful little village.

Rats are horrible little animals.

The comparative and superlative forms of **little** are not usually used in British English. Use **smaller** or **smallest** instead.

My car is smaller than yours.

~~*My car is littler than yours.*~~

small² /smɔːl/ *adverb* in a small size *Emma knitted the sweater far too small.*

ˈsmall ˌad *noun* [C] *UK* a small advertisement that you put in a newspaper if you want to buy or sell something

ˌsmall ˈbusiness *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a business with a small number of employees

ˌsmall ˈchange *noun* [U] **FINANCE** coins that have little value

ˈsmall ˌfry *noun* [U] *informal* people or activities that are not considered important *Compared to companies that size we're just small fry.*

ˌsmall inˈtestine *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the upper part of the bowels between the stomach and the large intestine ➲Compare **large intestine** ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

ˌsmall ˈprint *noun* [U] **LAW** the part of a written agreement that is printed smaller than the rest and that contains important information *Make sure you read the small print before you sign.*

small-scale /ˌsmɔːlˈskeɪl/ *adjective* A small-scale activity or organization is not big and involves few people.

ˈsmall ˌtalk *noun* [U] polite conversation between people at social events *He's not very good at **making small talk**.*

small-time /ˈsmɔːlˌtaɪm/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *informal* not important or successful *a small-time criminal*

smart¹ /smɑːt/ *adjective* **1** INTELLIGENT intelligent *Rachel's one of the smartest kids in the class.* **2** TIDY If you look smart or your clothes are smart, you look clean and tidy. *a smart, blue suit* ○ *I need to look a bit smarter for my interview.* **3** FASHIONABLE fashionable and expensive *a smart, new restaurant* **4 COMPUTING** A smart machine, weapon, etc uses computers to make it work. *smart bombs* ●**smartly** *adverb*

smart² /smɑːt/ *verb* [I] **1** to feel upset because someone has said or done something unpleasant to you *The team are still **smarting from** last week's defeat.* **2 HEALTH** If part of your body smarts, it hurts with a sharp, burning pain. *The smoke from the fire made her **eyes smart**.*

ˈsmart ˌcard *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a small, plastic card that contains a very small computer and can be used to pay for things or to store personal information

smarten /ˈsmɑːtᵊn/ *verb*
smarten (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to make a person or place look more clean and tidy *plans to smarten up the city centre*

ˈsmart ˌfibre *UK* (*US* **smart fiber**) *noun* [C] **DT** a type of material that can react, for example to temperature or light

smash¹ /smæʃ/ *verb* **1** BREAK [I, T] to break into a lot of pieces with a loud noise, or to make something break into a lot of pieces with a loud noise *Thieves smashed the shop window and stole $50,000 worth of computer equipment.* **2 smash (sth) against/into/through, etc** to hit a hard object or surface with a lot of force, or to make something do this *The car skidded and smashed into a tree.* ○ *He smashed the glass against the wall.* **3** DESTROY [T] to destroy a political or criminal organization *attempts to smash a drug smuggling ring*
smash sth up *phrasal verb* to damage or destroy something *They were arrested for smashing up a hotel bar.*

smash² /smæʃ/ (*also* **ˌsmash ˈhit**) *noun* [C] a very successful film, song, play, etc *the smash hit movie 'Titanic'*

smashing /ˈsmæʃɪŋ/ *adjective UK old-fashioned* extremely good or attractive *We had a smashing time at Bob and Vera's party.*

smear¹ /smɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** SPREAD to spread a thick liquid or sticky substance over something *His shirt was **smeared with** paint.* ○ *He **smeared** sun cream **over** his face and neck.* **2** SAY to say unpleasant and untrue things about someone in order to harm them, especially in politics

smear² /smɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** MARK a dirty mark *There was a smear of oil on his cheek.* **2** STORY an unpleasant and untrue story about someone that is meant to harm them, especially in politics *a **smear campaign***

smell¹ /smel/ *verb past* **smelled**, *also UK* **smelt** **1 smell of/like; smell delicious/horrible, etc** to have a particular quality that people notice by using their nose *I've been cooking, so my hands smell of garlic.* ○ *That soup smells delicious - what's in it?* **2** NOTICE [T] to notice something by using your nose *I think I can smell something burning.* **3** UNPLEASANT [I] to have an unpleasant smell *Your running shoes really smell!* **4** PUT YOUR NOSE NEAR [T] to put your nose near something and breathe in so that you can notice its smell *Come and smell these flowers.* **5** ABILITY [I] to have the ability to notice smells *Dogs can smell much better than humans.*

smell² /smel/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [C] the quality that something has which you notice by using your nose *The **smell of** roses filled the room.* ○ *There was a delicious smell coming from the kitchen.* **2** UNPLEASANT [C] an unpleasant smell *I wish I could get rid of that smell in the bathroom.* **3** ABILITY [U] the ability to notice smells *Smoking can affect your **sense of smell**.*

smelly /ˈsmeli/ *adjective* having an unpleasant smell *smelly feet*

smelt /smelt/ *UK past of* smell

O-K **smile¹** /smaɪl/ *verb* [I] to make a happy or friendly expression in which the corners of your mouth curve up *She **smiled at** me.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

smile at someone/something

Be careful to choose the right preposition after the verb **smile**.

*She **smiled at** the little girl.*

~~*She smiled to the little girl.*~~

O-K **smile²** /smaɪl/ *noun* [C] a happy or friendly expression in which the corners of your mouth curve up *"I passed my driving test," she said with a smile.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***smile** (noun)*

a **beaming/faint/radiant/rueful/wry** smile ● **break into/force/give/wear** a smile ● a smile **broadens/flickers across sb's face/fades**

smiley /ˈsmaɪli/ *noun* [C] **INTERNET** an image such as :-) which looks like a face when you look at it from the side, made using keyboard symbols and used in emails to express emotions

smirk /smɜːk/ *verb* [I] to smile in an annoying or unkind way *What are you smirking at?* ●**smirk** *noun* [C]

smitten /ˈsmɪtᵊn/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] loving someone or liking something very much *He's absolutely **smitten with** this Carla woman.*

smog /smɒg/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT** air pollution in a city that is a mixture of smoke, gases, and chemicals

O-K **smoke¹** /sməʊk/ *noun* **1** GAS [U] the grey or black gas that is produced when something burns **2** CIGARETTE [**no plural**] when someone smokes a cigarette *I'm just going outside for a smoke.*

O-K **smoke²** /sməʊk/ *verb* **1** CIGARETTE [**I, T**] to breathe smoke into your mouth from a cigarette *Do you mind if I smoke?* ○ *She smokes thirty cigarettes a day.* **2** MEAT/FISH [**T**] to give meat or fish a special taste by hanging it over burning wood *smoked ham/salmon* **3** PRODUCE SMOKE [**I**] to produce or send out smoke *smoking chimneys* ➲See also: **chain-smoke**

smoker /ˈsməʊkᵊr/ *noun* [C] someone who smokes cigarettes regularly *He used to be a **heavy smoker*** (= someone who smokes a lot). ➲Opposite **non-smoker**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***smoking***

give up/stop/quit smoking ● **ban** smoking ● **heavy** smoking ● the **dangers/effects** of smoking

O-K **smoking** /ˈsməʊkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone smokes a cigarette or regularly smokes cigarettes *The new law will restrict smoking in public places.* ➲See also: **passive smoking**

smoky /ˈsməʊki/ *adjective* **1** PLACE filled with smoke *a smoky bar/room* **2** TASTE having the smell, taste, or appearance of smoke *That ham has a delicious, smoky flavour.*

smolder /ˈsməʊldᵊr/ *verb* [I] *US spelling of* smoulder

O-K **smooth¹** /smuːð/ *adjective* **1** SURFACE having a regular surface that has no holes or lumps in it *soft, smooth skin* ○ *a smooth wooden table* **2** SUBSTANCE A substance that is smooth has no lumps in it. *Mix the butter and sugar together until smooth.* **3** MOVEMENT happening without any sudden movements or changes *The plane made a smooth landing.* **4** PROCESS happening without problems or difficulties *Her job is to help students make a smooth transition from high school to college.* **5** PERSON too polite and confident in a way that people do not trust *a smooth salesman* ●**smoothness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: take the **rough²** with the smooth

smooth² /smuːð/ (*also* **smooth down/out, etc**) *verb* [T] to move your hands across something in order to make it flat *He straightened his tie and smoothed down his hair.*

smooth sth over *phrasal verb* to make a disagreement or problem seem less serious, especially by talking to the people involved in it *Would you like me to smooth things over between you and Nick?*

smoothie /ˈsmuːði/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a thick cold drink made mainly from fruit, sometimes with milk, cream or ice cream (= cold, sweet food)

smoothly /ˈsmuːðli/ *adverb* **1 go smoothly** to happen without any problems or difficulties *Everything was going smoothly until Darren arrived.* **2** without any sudden movements or changes *The car accelerated smoothly.*

smother /ˈsmʌðᵊr/ *verb* [T] **1** KILL to kill someone by covering their face with something so that they cannot breathe **2** LOVE to give someone too much love and attention so that they feel they have lost their freedom *I try not to smother him.* **3** PREVENT to prevent something from happening *I tried to smother my cough.* **4** FIRE to make a fire stop burning by covering it with something

smother sth in/with sth *phrasal verb* to cover something completely with a substance *She took a slice of chocolate cake and smothered it in cream.*

smoulder *UK* (*US* **smolder**) /ˈsməʊldᵊr/ *verb* [I] **1** FIRE to burn slowly, producing smoke but no flames *a smouldering bonfire* **2** EMOTION to have a strong feeling, especially anger, but not express it *I could see he was **smouldering with** anger.*

SMS /esemˈes/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* short message service: a system for sending written messages from one mobile phone to another ●**SMS** *verb* [**T, I**]

smudge¹ /smʌdʒ/ *noun* [C] a dirty mark *a smudge of ink*

smudge² /smʌdʒ/ *verb* [**I, T**] If ink, paint, etc smudges, or if it is smudged, it becomes dirty or not clear because someone has touched it. *Be careful you don't smudge the drawing.*

smug /smʌg/ *adjective* too pleased with your skill or success in a way that annoys other people *a smug smile* ●**smugly** *adverb* *"I've never lost a match yet," she said smugly.*

S

smuggle /ˈsmʌgl/ *verb* [T] LAW to take something into or out of a place in an illegal or secret way *He was arrested for smuggling cocaine into Britain.* ●**smuggler** *noun* [C] ***drug smugglers*** ●**smuggling** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***snack***

have a snack ● a **light** snack

snack¹ /snæk/ *noun* [C] FOOD a small amount of food that you eat between meals *Do you want a quick snack before you go out?* ○ ***snack food***

snack² /snæk/ *verb* [I] *informal* to eat a snack *I've been **snacking on** chocolate and biscuits all afternoon.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***snag***

hit a snag ● **the (only)** snag is ● a snag **in/with** sth

snag¹ /snæg/ *noun* [C] *informal* a problem or difficulty *I'd love to come - **the only snag is** I have to be home by 3 o'clock.*

snag² /snæg/ *verb* [T] **snagging**, *past* **snagged** **1** TEAR If you snag something, it becomes stuck on a sharp object and tears. ***I snagged** my coat **on** the wire.* **2** WIN *US informal* to get, catch, or win something *She managed to snag a seat in the front row.*

snail /sneɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** a small creature with a long, soft body and a round shell **2 at a snail's pace** very slowly *There was so much traffic that we were travelling at a snail's pace.*

ˈsnail ˌmail *noun* [U] *humorous informal* letters or messages that are not sent by email but by post

snake¹ /sneɪk/ *noun* [C] a long, thin creature with no legs that slides along the ground ➲See picture at **reptile**

snake² /sneɪk/ *verb* **snake across/around/through, etc** to follow a route that has a lot of bends *The river snakes through some of the most spectacular countryside in France.*

snap¹ /snæp/ *verb* **snapping**, *past* **snapped** **1** BREAK [I, T] If something long and thin snaps, it breaks making a short, loud sound, and if you snap it, you break it, making a short, loud sound. *The twigs snapped as we walked on them.* **2 snap (sth) open/shut/together, etc** to suddenly move to a particular position, making a short, loud noise, or to make something do this *The suitcase snapped open and everything fell out.* **3** SPEAK ANGRILY [I, T] to say something suddenly in an angry way *I was **snapping at** the children because I was tired.* **4** LOSE CONTROL [I] to suddenly be unable to control a strong feeling, especially anger *She asked me to do the work again and I just snapped.* **5** PHOTOGRAPH [T] *informal* to take a photograph of someone or something *Photographers snapped the Princess everywhere she went.* **6** ANIMAL [I] If an animal snaps, it tries to bite someone. *The dog was barking and **snapping at** my ankles.* ➲See also: snap your fingers (**finger¹**)

snap out of sth *phrasal verb informal* to force yourself to stop feeling sad, angry, upset, etc *He's in a bad mood now but he'll soon snap out of it.*

snap sth up *phrasal verb informal* to buy or get something quickly because it is cheap or exactly what you want *The dress was perfect, so I snapped it up.*

snap sb up *phrasal verb informal* to immediately accept someone's offer to join your company or team because you want them very much *She was snapped up by a large law firm.*

snap² /snæp/ *noun* **1** SOUND [**no plural**] a sudden, short, loud sound like something breaking or closing *I heard a snap as I sat on the pencil.* **2** PHOTOGRAPH [C] *UK informal* (*UK/US* **snapshot**) a photograph ***holiday snaps*** **3** FASTENING [C] *US* (*UK* **popper**) a metal or plastic object made of two parts which fit together with a short, loud sound, used to fasten clothing **4** GAME [U] a card game in which you say "snap" when you see two cards that are the same **5 be a snap** *US informal* to be very easy *The French test was a snap.*

snap³ /snæp/ *adjective* **snap decision/judgment** A snap decision or judgment is made very quickly and without careful thought.

snappy /ˈsnæpi/ *adjective* **1** WRITING/SPEECH written or spoken in a short and interesting way *a snappy title* **2** CLOTHES Snappy clothes are fashionable. *a snappy new suit* **3 make it snappy** *informal* used to tell someone to hurry

snapshot /ˈsnæpʃɒt/ *noun* [C] a photograph that you take quickly without thinking

snare¹ /sneər/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to catch animals

snare² /sneər/ *verb* [T] **1** ANIMAL to catch an animal using a snare **2** PERSON to trick someone so that they cannot escape from a situation *She's trying to snare a rich husband.*

snarl /snɑːl/ *verb* **1** PERSON [I, T] to speak angrily *"Go away!" he snarled.* ○ *She **snarled at** me.* **2** ANIMAL [I] If an animal snarls, it shows its teeth and makes an angry sound. ●**snarl** *noun* [C]

snatch¹ /snætʃ/ *verb* [T] **1** TAKE to take something or someone quickly and suddenly *Bill snatched the telephone from my hand.* ○ *The child was snatched from his bed.* **2** DO QUICKLY to do or get something quickly because you only have a short amount of time *I managed to snatch some lunch.*

snatch² /snætʃ/ *noun* [C] a short part of a conversation, song, etc that you hear *I keep hearing **snatches of** that song on the radio.*

sneak¹ /sniːk/ *verb past* **sneaked**, *also US* **snuck** **1 sneak into/out/around, etc** to go somewhere quietly because you do not want anyone to hear you *I sneaked into his bedroom while he was asleep.* **2 sneak sth into/out of/through, etc** to take something somewhere without anyone seeing you *We tried to sneak the dog into the hotel.* **3 sneak a look/glance at sb/sth** to look at someone or something quickly and secretly *I sneaked a look at the answers.*

sneak up *phrasal verb* to move close to someone without them seeing or hearing you *Don't **sneak up on** me like that - you scared me!*

sneak² /sniːk/ *noun* [C] *informal UK* someone who you do not like because they tell people when someone else has done something bad

S

sneaker /ˈsniːkəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **trainer**) *noun* [C] a soft sports shoe ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

sneaking /ˈsniːkɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 have a sneaking feeling/suspicion** to think that something is true but not be sure [+ **(that)**] *I have a sneaking feeling that the English test is going to be very difficult.* **2 have a sneaking admiration/fondness for sb** *UK* to like someone secretly, especially when you do not want to

sneaky /ˈsniːki/ *adjective* doing things in a secret and unfair way

sneer /snɪəʳ/ *verb* [I] to talk about, or look at someone or something in a way that shows you do not approve of them *Carlos **sneered at** my attempts to put the tent up.* ●**sneer** *noun* [C]

sneeze /sniːz/ *verb* [I] HEALTH When you sneeze, air suddenly comes out through your nose and mouth. *He had a cold and was sneezing a lot.* ●**sneeze** *noun* [C]

snicker /ˈsnɪkəʳ/ *US* (*UK* **snigger**) *verb* [I] to laugh quietly in a rude way ●**snicker** *noun* [C]

snide /snaɪd/ *adjective* A snide remark criticizes someone in an unpleasant way.

sniff /snɪf/ *verb* **1** BREATHE [I] to breathe air in through your nose in a way that makes a noise *Sam had a cold and she kept sniffing.* **2** SMELL [I, T] to breathe air in through your nose in order to smell something *She sniffed the flowers.* ●**sniff** *noun* [C]

snigger /ˈsnɪgəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **snicker**) *verb* [I] to laugh quietly in a rude way *The boys were **sniggering at** the teacher.* ●**snigger** *noun* [C]

snip¹ /snɪp/ *verb* [I, T] **snipping**, *past* **snipped** to cut something using scissors (= tool with two flat blades) with quick, small cuts *She snipped the article out of the magazine.*

snip² /snɪp/ *noun* **1** [C] a small, quick cut with scissors (= tool with two flat blades) **2 be a snip** *UK informal* to be very cheap

snipe /snaɪp/ *verb* [I] **1** CRITICIZE to criticize someone in an unpleasant way *I hate the way politicians **snipe at** each other.* **2** SHOOT to shoot people from a place that they cannot see *Rebels were indiscriminately **sniping at** civilians.* ●**sniping** *noun* [U]

sniper /ˈsnaɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who shoots at people from a place they cannot see **2** INTERNET on a website, someone who makes an offer for an item just before the end of an auction (= a sale in which things are sold to the person who offers the most money)

snippet /ˈsnɪpɪt/ *noun* [C] a small piece of information, news, conversation, etc *I kept hearing **snippets of** conversation.*

snob /snɒb/ *noun* [C] someone who thinks they are better than other people because they are in a higher social position ●**snobbery** /ˈsnɒbəʳi/ *noun* [U] behaviour and opinions that are typical of a snob

snobbish /ˈsnɒbɪʃ/ (*also* **snobby**) *adjective* like a snob *a snobbish attitude*

snog /snɒg/ *verb* [I, T] **snogging**, *past* **snogged** *UK informal* If two people snog, they kiss each other for a long time. ●**snog** *noun* [C] *UK informal*

snooker /ˈsnuːkəʳ/ *noun* [U] SPORT a game in which two people use long sticks to hit coloured balls into holes at the edge of a table

snoop /snuːp/ *verb* [I] to look around a place secretly in order to find out information about someone *I found her **snooping around** in my bedroom.* ●**snoop** *noun* [no plural]

snooty /ˈsnuːti/ *adjective* Someone who is snooty behaves in an unfriendly way because they think they are better than other people.

snooze /snuːz/ *verb* [I] *informal* to sleep for a short time, especially during the day *Grandpa was snoozing in his chair.* ●**snooze** *noun* [C] *informal Why don't you **have a snooze**?*

snore /snɔːʳ/ *verb* [I] to breathe in a very noisy way while you are sleeping *I couldn't sleep because my brother was snoring.* ●**snore** *noun* [C]

snorkel¹ /ˈsnɔːkəl/ *noun* [C] SPORT a tube that you use to help you breathe if you are swimming with your face under water

snorkel² /ˈsnɔːkəl/ *verb* [I] *UK* **snorkelling**, *past* **snorkelled**, *US* **snorkeling**, *past* **snorkeled** SPORT to swim using a snorkel

snort /snɔːt/ *verb* [I, T] to breathe out noisily through your nose, especially to show that you are annoyed or think something is funny *"Stupid man!" he snorted.* ○ *Rosie started **snorting with** laughter.* ●**snort** *noun* [C]

snot /snɒt/ *noun* [U] *informal* the thick liquid that is produced in your nose

snout /snaʊt/ *noun* [C] the long nose of some animals, such as pigs

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***snow*** *(noun)*

snow **falls/melts** ● a snow **flurry/shower** ● **deep/heavy** snow ● [walk/tramp, etc] **through** the snow

O-key **snow¹** /snəʊ/ *noun* [U] soft white pieces of frozen water that fall from the sky when the weather is cold *children playing in the snow*

O-key **snow²** /snəʊ/ *verb* **1 it snows** If it snows, snow falls from the sky. *It snowed all day yesterday.* **2 be snowed in** to be unable to leave a place because there is too much snow *We were snowed in for two days.* **3 be snowed under** to have too much work *I'm snowed under with homework.*

snowball¹ /ˈsnəʊbɔːl/ *noun* [C] a ball made from snow that children throw at each other

snowball² /ˈsnəʊbɔːl/ *verb* [I] If a problem, idea, or situation snowballs, it quickly grows bigger or more important. *The whole business idea snowballed from one phone call.*

snowboard /ˈsnəʊbɔːd/ *noun* [C] SPORT a large board that you stand on to move over snow ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

snowboarding /ˈsnəʊbɔːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] SPORT a sport in which you stand on a large board and move over snow ●**snowboarder** *noun* [C] ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

snowdrift /ˈsnəʊdrɪft/ *noun* [C] a deep pile of snow that the wind has blown

snowdrop /ˈsnəʊdrɒp/ *noun* [C] a small, white flower that you can see at the end of winter

S

snowfall /ˈsnəʊfɔːl/ *noun* [**C, U**] the snow that falls at one time, or the amount of snow that falls *a heavy snowfall* (= a lot of snow)

snowflake /ˈsnəʊfleɪk/ *noun* [**C**] a small piece of snow that falls from the sky

snowman /ˈsnəʊmæn/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **snowmen** something that looks like a person and is made from snow *The kids made a snowman in the garden.*

snowplough *UK* (*US* **snowplow**) /ˈsnəʊplaʊ/ *noun* [**C**] a vehicle used for moving snow off roads and railways

snowstorm /ˈsnəʊstɔːm/ *noun* [**C**] a storm when a lot of snow falls

snowy /ˈsnəʊi/ *adjective* snowing or covered with snow *a cold, snowy day*

Snr *UK* (*UK/US* **Sr**) *written abbreviation for* senior (= the older of two men in a family with the same name) *Thomas Smith, Snr*

snub /snʌb/ *verb* [**T**] **snubbing**, *past* **snubbed** to be rude to someone, especially by not speaking to them ●**snub** *noun* [**C**]

snuck /snʌk/ *US past of* sneak

snuff¹ /snʌf/ *noun* [**U**] tobacco powder that people breathe in through their noses, especially in the past

snuff² /snʌf/ *verb*
snuff sth out *phrasal verb* **1** END *informal* to suddenly end something *England's chances were snuffed out by three brilliant goals from the Italians.* **2** FLAME to stop a candle flame from burning by covering it or pressing it with your fingers

snug /snʌg/ *adjective* **1** PLACE/PERSON warm and comfortable *a snug little house* **2** CLOTHES Snug clothes fit tightly. *a pair of snug brown shoes* ●**snugly** *adverb*

snuggle /ˈsnʌgl/ *verb* **snuggle up/down/into, etc** to move into a warm, comfortable position *I **snuggled up to** him on the sofa.*

so¹ /səʊ/ *adverb* **1** VERY used before an adjective or adverb to emphasize what you are saying, especially when there is a particular result *I was so tired when I got home.* [**+ (that)**] *I was so upset that I couldn't speak.* **2** ANSWER used to give a short answer to a question to avoid repeating a phrase *"Is Ben coming to the party?" "I hope so."* **3 so did we/so have I/so is mine, etc** used to say that someone else also does something or that the same thing is true about someone or something else *"We saw the new Star Trek movie last night." "Oh, so did we."* **4** GET ATTENTION used to get someone's attention when you are going to ask them a question or when you are going to start talking *So, when are you two going to get married?* **5** SHOW SOMETHING used with a movement of your hand to show someone how to do something or show them the size of something *The box was so big.* ○ *For this exercise, you have to put your hands **like so**.* **6 so it is/so they are, etc** used to agree with something that you had not noticed before *"The cat's hiding under the chair." "So it is."* **7 or so** used after a number or amount to show that it is not exact *"How many people were at the party?" "Fifty or so, I guess."* **8 I told you so** used to say that you were right and that someone should have believed you **9 So (what)?** used to say that you do not think something is important, especially in a rude way *"She might tell Emily." "So what?"* **10 and so on/forth** used after a list of things to show that you could have added other similar things *She plays a lot of tennis and squash and so on.* **11 so as (not) to do sth** used to give the reason for doing something *He went in very quietly so as not to wake the baby.* **12 only so much/many** used to say that there are limits to something *There's only so much help you can give someone.* **13 so much for...** *informal* used to say that something has not been useful or successful *"The computer's crashed again." "So much for modern technology."*

so² /səʊ/ *conjunction* **1** REASON used to say that something is the reason why something else happens *I was tired so I went to bed.* ○ *Greg had some money so he bought a bike.* **2 so (that)** in order to make something happen or be possible *He put his glasses on so that he could see the television better.* **3** CONNECT used at the beginning of a sentence to connect it with something that was said or happened previously *So we're not going away this weekend after all?*

so³ /səʊ/ *adjective* **be so** to be correct or true *"Apparently, she's moving to Canada." " Is that so?"*

soak /səʊk/ *verb* [**I, T**] **1** PUT IN LIQUID If you soak something, or let it soak, you put it in a liquid for a period of time. *He left the pan in the sink to soak.* ○ *Soak the bread in the milk.* **2** MAKE WET If liquid soaks somewhere or soaks something, it makes something very wet. *The rain soaked my clothes.* ○ *The ink **soaked through** the paper onto the table.*
soak sth up *phrasal verb* If a dry substance soaks up a liquid, the liquid goes into the substance. *Fry the potatoes until they soak up all the oil.*

soaked /səʊkt/ *adjective* completely wet *My shirt was soaked.*

soaking /ˈsəʊkɪŋ/ *adjective* completely wet *You're soaking - why didn't you take an umbrella?* ○ *The dog was **soaking wet**.*

so-and-so /ˈsəʊəndsəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** NO NAME used to talk about someone or something without saying a particular name *It was the usual village news - so-and-so got married to so-and-so, and so-and-so's having a baby.* **2** BAD PERSON *informal* someone who you do not like *He's a lazy so-and-so.*

soap /səʊp/ *noun* **1** FOR WASHING [**U**] a substance that you use for washing *a **bar of soap*** ○ *soap powder* ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **2** TELEVISION PROGRAMME [**C**] (*also* ˈ**soap** ˌ**opera**) a television programme about the lives of a group of people that is broadcast several times every week

ˈ**soap** ˌ**opera** (*informal* **soap**) *noun* [**C**] a series of television or radio programmes that continues over a long period and is about the lives of a group of characters

soapy /ˈsəʊpi/ *adjective* containing soap, or covered with soap *soapy hands*

soar /sɔː/ *verb* [**I**] **1** INCREASE to increase to a high level very quickly *House prices have*

soared. **2** IN THE SKY to move quickly and smoothly in the sky, or to move quickly up into the sky *The birds were soaring high above.* ●**soaring** *adjective*

sob /sɒb/ *verb* [I] **sobbing**, *past* **sobbed** to cry in a noisy way ●**sob** *noun* [C]

sober[1] /ˈsəʊbəʳ/ *adjective* **1** NOT DRUNK Someone who is sober is not drunk. **2** SERIOUS Someone who is sober is serious and thinks a lot. *He was in a sober mood.* **3** NOT BRIGHT *UK* Clothes or colours that are sober are plain and not bright. *a sober, grey dress* ●**soberly** *adverb*

sober[2] /ˈsəʊbəʳ/ *verb*
sober (sb) up *phrasal verb* to become less drunk or to make someone become less drunk

sobering /ˈsəʊbərɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel serious *a* ***sobering thought***

so-called /ˌsəʊˈkɔːld/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to show that you think a word that is used to describe someone or something is wrong *My so-called friend has stolen my girlfriend.*

soccer /ˈsɒkəʳ/ (*also UK* **football**) *noun* [U] SPORT a game in which two teams of eleven people kick a ball and try to score goals ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

sociable /ˈsəʊʃəbl/ *adjective* Someone who is sociable enjoys being with people and meeting new people.

O-➡**social** /ˈsəʊʃˡl/ *adjective* **1** SOCIETY relating to society and the way people live *social problems* ○ *social and political changes* **2** relating to the things you do with other people for enjoyment when you are not working *I have a very good* ***social life.*** ●**socially** *adverb* ➲Compare **anti-social**

socialism /ˈsəʊʃᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] POLITICS a political system in which the government owns important businesses and industries, and which allows the people to share the money and opportunities equally

socialist /ˈsəʊʃəlɪst/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who supports socialism ●**socialist** *adjective* *socialist principles*

socialize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsəʊʃᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [I] to spend time enjoying yourself with other people *The cafe is a place where students can* ***socialize with*** *teachers.*

ˌsocial ˈnetworking *noun* [U] INTERNET using a website to communicate with friends and to meet other people ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

ˌsocial ˈscience *noun* [C, U] SOCIETY the study of society and the way people live

ˌsocial seˈcurity *noun* [U] SOCIETY, FINANCE money that the government gives to people who are old, ill, or not working

ˈsocial ˌworker *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone whose job is to help people who have problems because they are poor, old, have difficulties with their family, etc ●**social work** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***society***

a **democratic/free/modern/multicultural/secular** society

O-➡**society** /səˈsaɪəti/ *noun* **1** SOCIETY [C, U] a large group of people who live in the same country or area and have the same laws, traditions, etc *The US is a multicultural society.* **2** [C] an organization for people who have the same interest or aim *the London Zoological Society* ➲See also: **building society**

socio- /ˈsəʊʃiəʊ-/ *prefix* SOCIETY relating to society *socio-economic*

sociology /ˌsəʊʃiˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] SOCIETY the study of society and the relationship between people in society ●**sociologist** /ˌsəʊʃiˈɒlədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who studies sociology

sociopath /ˈsəʊʃiəʊpæθ/ *noun* [C] someone who is completely unable to behave in a way that is acceptable to society

sock /sɒk/ *noun* [C] *plural* **socks**, *also US* **sox** something that you wear on your foot inside your shoe [**usually plural**] *a pair of black socks* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

socket /ˈsɒkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** ELECTRICITY the place on a wall where you connect electrical equipment to the electricity supply **2** HOLLOW PLACE a hollow place where one thing fits inside another thing *Your eyeball is in your eye socket.*

soda /ˈsəʊdə/ *noun* **1** FOOD [U] (*also* **ˈsodaˌwater**) water with bubbles in it that you mix with other drinks **2** FOOD [C, U] *US* (*also* **ˈsodaˌpop**) a sweet drink with bubbles *a can of soda*

sodden /ˈsɒdᵊn/ *adjective* extremely wet

sodium /ˈsəʊdiəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical element that is found in salt and food (symbol **Na**) *a low-sodium diet*

sodium carbonate /ˌsəʊdiəmˈkɑːbᵊneɪt/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound used to make water soft, and in foods and producing goods, in the form of white powder or crystals (formula $\mathbf{Na_2CO_3}$) ➲See picture at **sodium chloride**

ˌsodium ˈchloride *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY salt (formula **NaCl**) ➲See picture **sodium chloride** on next page

sodium hydroxide /ˌsəʊdiəmhaɪˈdrɒksaɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound used in soap and paper production and in powerful cleaning substances; caustic soda (formula **NaOH**) ➲See picture at **sodium chloride**

ˌsodium ˈnitrate *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a chemical compound used to make explosives, fireworks and fertilizers, and to keep meat in good condition (formula $\mathbf{NaNO_3}$)

O-➡**sofa** /ˈsəʊfə/ *noun* [C] a large, comfortable seat for more than one person ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

O-➡**soft** /sɒft/ *adjective* **1** NOT HARD not hard, and easy to press *a soft cushion* ○ *Cook the onion until it's soft.* **2** SMOOTH smooth and pleasant to touch *soft hair/skin* **3** SOUND A soft sound is very quiet. *He spoke in a soft voice.* **4** COLOUR/LIGHT A soft colour or light is not bright. *soft lilac paint* **5** PERSON too kind and not angry enough when someone does something wrong *The kids are naughty because she's too* ***soft on them.*** **6** DRUGS Soft drugs are illegal drugs that some people think are not dangerous. ●**softness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: have a soft **spot**[1] for sb

softball /ˈsɒftbɔːl/ *noun* [U] SPORT a game that is like baseball but played with a larger and softer ball

S

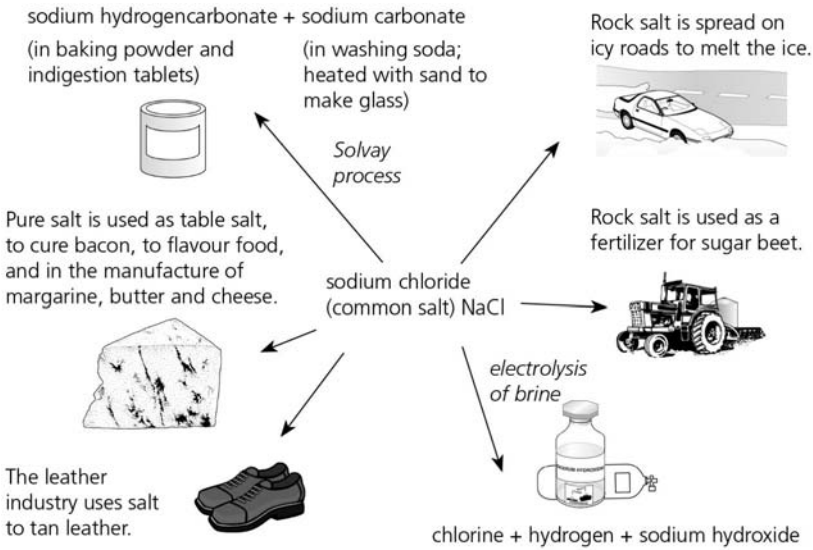

sodium chloride

soft drink *UK* (*US* **soft drink**) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a cold, sweet drink that does not have alcohol in it

soften /ˈsɒfᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** BECOME SOFTER to become softer or to make something become softer *Heat the butter until it softens.* **2** BECOME GENTLE to become more gentle or to make someone or something become more gentle *Her voice softened.*

softly /ˈsɒftli/ *adverb* in a quiet or gentle way *"Are you OK?" she said softly.*

soft option *noun* [C] *UK* a choice that is easier than other choices *The cookery course is not a soft option.*

soft palate *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the soft part that forms the top of the mouth at the back, separating the nose from the throat ➲Compare **hard palate** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

soft-spoken /ˌsɒftˈspəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* having a quiet, gentle voice *a small, soft-spoken man*

software /ˈsɒftweəʳ/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** programs that you use to make a computer do different things *educational software*

softwood /ˈsɒftwʊd/ *noun* [U] **DT** wood from evergreen (= never losing their leaves) trees which grow quickly

soggy /ˈsɒgi/ *adjective* very wet and soft *soggy ground*

soil[1] /sɔɪl/ *noun* [C, U] **FARMING** the top layer of earth that plants grow in *clay/sandy soil*

soil[2] /sɔɪl/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something dirty ●**soiled** *adjective* dirty *soiled clothes*

solace /ˈsɒləs/ *noun* [U no plural] *formal* comfort when you are feeling sad *Music was a great solace to me.*

solar /ˈsəʊləʳ/ *adjective* **ASTRONOMY** relating to, or involving the sun ***solar panels***

solar energy *noun* [U] **PHYSICS, ENVIRONMENT** energy that uses the power of the sun

solar panel *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT** a piece of equipment that changes light from the sun into electricity

solar system

the solar system *noun* **ASTRONOMY** the sun and planets that move around it

sold /səʊld/ *past of* sell

solder /ˈsəʊl.dəʳ/ *verb* [T] **DT** to join pieces of metal together using melted metal to stick them ●**solder** *noun* [U] *I used a small amount of solder to join the pieces.*

soldier /ˈsəʊldʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] a member of an army

sole[1] /səʊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** ONLY only *the sole survivor* **2** NOT SHARED not shared with anyone else *She has **sole responsibility** for the project.*

sole[2] /səʊl/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [C] the bottom part of your foot that you walk on **2** [C] the part of a shoe that is under your foot **3** **FOOD** [C, U] a small, flat fish that you can eat

solely /ˈsəʊlli/ *adverb* only, and not involving anyone or anything else *I bought it solely for that purpose.*

solemn /ˈsɒləm/ *adjective* **1** SERIOUS serious or sad *solemn music* **2** PROMISE/WARNING ETC A solemn promise, warning, etc is serious and sincere. ●**solemnly** *adverb* ●**solemnity** /səˈlemnəti/ *noun* [U]

ˌsole ˈtrader *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a person who has a business on their own, with no business partners

solicit /səˈlɪsɪt/ *verb* **1** ASK FOR SOMETHING [T] *formal* to ask someone for money, information, or help *to solicit donations for a charity* **2** SEX [I] to offer sex for money, usually in a public place

soliciting /səˈlɪsɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone offers to have sex for money

solicitor /səˈlɪsɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LAW** in Britain, a lawyer who gives legal advice and help, and who works in the lower courts of law ➲See Common Learner Error at **lawyer**

O-K **solid¹** /ˈsɒlɪd/ *adjective* **1** HARD/FIRM hard and firm without holes or spaces, and not liquid or gas *solid ground* ○ *solid food* **2** STRONG strong and not easily broken or damaged *solid furniture* **3 solid gold/silver/wood, etc** gold/silver/wood, etc with nothing added *a solid silver bracelet* **4** TIME continuing for a period of time without stopping *The noise continued for two solid hours/two hours solid.* **5** INFORMATION [**always before noun**] Solid information, proof, etc is based on facts and you are certain that it is correct. *This provides **solid evidence** that he committed the crime.* **6** PERSON honest and able to be trusted ●**solidity** /səˈlɪdəti/ *noun* [U] ●**solidly** *adverb*

solid² /ˈsɒlɪd/ *noun* [C] **1 PHYSICS** a substance or object that is not a liquid or a gas **2** a shape that has length, width, and height, and is not flat

solidarity /ˌsɒlɪˈdærəti/ *noun* [U] agreement and support between people in a group who have similar aims or beliefs

solidify /səˈlɪdɪfaɪ/ *verb* [I] **PHYSICS** If a liquid solidifies, it becomes solid.

solids /ˈsɒlɪdz/ *noun* [**plural**] **FOOD** food that is not liquid *Three weeks after the operation he still couldn't eat solids.*

solipsism /ˈsɒlɪpsɪzəm/ *noun* [U] the belief that in life you can only really know yourself and your own experiences

solitaire /ˌsɒlɪˈteəʳ/ (US) /ˈsɒləteər/ *US* (*UK* **patience**) *noun* [U] a card game for one person

solitary /ˈsɒlɪtəri/ *adjective* **1** ONLY A solitary person or thing is the only person or thing in a place. *a solitary figure/walker* **2** DONE ALONE A solitary activity is done alone. *solitary walks*

ˌsolitary conˈfinement *noun* [U] when a prisoner is kept in a room alone as a punishment

solitude /ˈsɒlɪtjuːd/ *noun* [U] being alone *He went upstairs to read the letter **in solitude**.*

solo¹ /ˈsəʊləʊ/ *adjective, adverb* done alone by one person only *a **solo performance*** ○ *to **perform solo***

solo² /ˈsəʊləʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of music for one person or one instrument

soloist /ˈsəʊləʊɪst/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musician who performs a solo

solstice /ˈsɒlstɪs/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** the longest day or the longest night of the year *the **summer/winter solstice***

soluble /ˈsɒljəbl/ *adjective* **CHEMISTRY** If a substance is soluble, it will dissolve in water. *soluble vitamins* ○ *These tablets are soluble in water.*

solute /ˈsɒljuːt/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a substance that has been dissolved in another substance

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***solution***

find/offer/provide/seek a solution ● a **diplomatic/good/long-term/peaceful/simple/workable** solution ● a solution **to** sth

O-K **solution** /səˈluːʃəⁿn/ *noun* [C] **1** ANSWER the answer to a problem *There's no easy **solution to** this problem.* **2 CHEMISTRY** a liquid which a substance has been dissolved into

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

solution to a problem

Be careful to choose the correct preposition after **solution**.

This could be one solution to the problem.

~~*This could be one solution of the problem.*~~

the Solvay process /ˈsɒlveɪˌprəʊses/ *noun* **CHEMISTRY** a method used in industry to produce sodium carbonate ➲See picture at **sodium chloride**

O-K **solve** /sɒlv/ *verb* [T] to find the answer to something *to **solve a problem*** ○ *to **solve a mystery/puzzle*** ○ *Police are still no nearer to **solving** the **crime**.*

solvent¹ /ˈsɒlvənt/ *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** a liquid which is used to dissolve other substances

solvent² /ˈsɒlvənt/ *adjective* **FINANCE** having enough money to pay your debts

sombre *UK* (*US* **somber**) /ˈsɒmbəʳ/ *adjective* **1** SAD sad and serious *a **sombre expression/mood*** **2** DARK dark and without bright colours *a **sombre colour***

O-K **some¹** *strong form* /sʌm/ *weak form* /səⁿm/ *pronoun, quantifier* **1** UNKNOWN AMOUNT used to refer to an amount of something without saying exactly how much or how many *You'll need a pair of scissors and some glue.* ○ *I can't eat all this chocolate, would you like some?* ○ *Could I have **some more*** (= an extra amount of) *paper, please?* **2** NOT ALL used to refer to part of a larger amount or number of something and not all of it *In some cases it's possible to fix the problem right away.* ○ ***Some of** the children were frightened.* **3** UNKNOWN NAME used to refer to someone or something when you do not know the name of it or exact details about it *Some girl phoned for you, but she didn't leave a message.* **4 some time/distance, etc** a large

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amount of time, distance, etc *I'm afraid it'll be some time before it's ready.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

some or **any?**

Be careful not to confuse these two words. **Any** is used in questions and negative sentences.

Have you got any friends in America?

I haven't got any money.

Some is used in positive sentences.

I've got some friends in America.

Sometimes **some** is used in questions, especially when the speaker thinks that the answer will be 'yes'.

Have you got some money I could borrow?

The same rules are true for 'something/anything' and 'someone/anyone'.

I didn't see anyone I knew.

I saw someone I knew at the party.

some² *strong form* /sʌm/ *weak form* /sᵊm/ *adverb* used before a number to show that it is not the exact amount *He died some ten years ago.*

somebody /ˈsʌmbədi/ *pronoun another word for* someone

someday /ˈsʌmdeɪ/ *adverb US* at an unknown time in the future *We plan to get married someday.*

somehow /ˈsʌmhaʊ/ *adverb* in a way which you do not know or do not understand *Don't worry, we'll fix it somehow.* ○ ***Somehow or other*** (= I do not know how) *they managed to get in.*

someone /ˈsʌmwʌn/ (*also* **somebody**) *pronoun* **1** used to refer to a person when you do not know who they are or when it is not important who they are *There's someone at the door.* ○ *Will someone please answer the phone?* **2 someone else** a different person *Sorry, I thought you were talking to someone else.*

someplace /ˈsʌmpleɪs/ *adverb US* used to refer to a place when you do not know where it is or when it is not important where it is *They live someplace in the South.* ○ *If they don't like it here, they can go* ***someplace else*** (= to a different place).

somersault /ˈsʌməsɔːlt/ *noun* [C] when you roll your body forwards or backwards so that your feet go over your head and come back down to the ground again ●**somersault** *verb* [I]

something /ˈsʌmθɪŋ/ *pronoun* **1** used to refer to a thing when you do not know what it is or when it is not important what it is *As soon as I walked in, I noticed that something was missing.* ○ *We know about the problem and we're trying to do something about it.* ○ *It's not something that will be easy to change.* ○ *There's* ***something else*** (= another thing) *I wanted to tell you.* **2 or something (like that)** used to show that what you have just said is only an example or you are not certain about it *Why don't you go to a movie or something?* **3 something like** similar to or approximately *He paid something like $2000 for his car.* **4 be something** *informal* to be a thing which is important, special, or useful *The President visiting our hotel - that would really be something.* **5 something of a sth** used to describe a person or thing in a way which is partly true but not completely or exactly *It came as something of a surprise.* **6 be/have something to do with sth/sb** to be related to something or a cause of something but not in a way which you know about or understand exactly *It might have something to do with the way it's made.*

sometime /ˈsʌmtaɪm/ *adverb* used to refer to a time when you do not know exactly what it is or when it is not important what it is *sometime before June* ○ *You must come over and visit sometime.*

sometimes /ˈsʌmtaɪmz/ *adverb* on some occasions but not always or often *He does cook sometimes, but not very often.* ○ *Sometimes I feel like no one understands me.*

somewhat /ˈsʌmwɒt/ *adverb formal* slightly *We were somewhat disappointed with the food.*

somewhere /ˈsʌmweəʳ/ *adverb* **1** used to refer to a place when you do not know exactly where it is or when it is not important exactly where it is *They had difficulties finding somewhere to live.* ○ *He comes from somewhere near London.* ○ *Can you think of* ***somewhere else*** (= a different place) *we could go?* **2 somewhere around/between, etc** approximately *He earns somewhere around £50,000 a year.* **3 get somewhere** to achieve something or to make progress *Right, that's the printer working. Now we're getting somewhere!*

son /sʌn/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** your male child

sonar /ˈsəʊnɑːʳ/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** a system, used especially on ships, which uses sound waves to find the position of things in the water

sonata /səˈnɑːtə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a piece of music written to be played on a piano or on another instrument and the piano together

WORD PARTNERS FOR *song*

sing/write a song ● a song **about** sth ● a **love** song

song /sɒŋ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** words that go with a short piece of music *a folk/**love song*** ○ ***to sing a song***

songwriter /ˈʃɒŋˌraɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who writes songs

sonic /ˈsɒnɪk/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** relating to sound

son-in-law /ˈsʌnɪnlɔː/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sons-in-law** your daughter's husband

sonnet /ˈsɒnɪt/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a poem with 14 lines, written in a particular pattern *Shakespeare's sonnets*

soon /suːn/ *adverb* **1** after a short period of time *I've got to leave quite soon.* ○ *It's too soon to make a decision.* ○ *He joined the company soon after leaving college.* **2 as soon as** at the same time or a very short time after *As soon as I saw her, I knew there was something wrong.* ○ *They want it as soon as possible.* **3 sooner or later** used to say that you do not know exactly when something will happen, but you are sure that it will happen *Sooner or later they'll realize that it's not going to work.* **4 would sooner** would prefer *I'd sooner spend*

a bit more money than take chances with safety. **5 no sooner ... than** used to show that something happens immediately after something else *No sooner had we got home than the phone rang.*

soot /sʊt/ *noun* [U] a black powder produced when coal, wood, etc is burnt

soothe /suːð/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE LESS PAINFUL to make something feel less painful *I had a long, hot bath to soothe my aching muscles.* **2** MAKE CALM to make someone feel calm or less worried *to soothe a crying baby* ●**soothing** *adjective* making you feel calm or in less pain ***soothing music*** ○ *a* ***soothing effect/voice***

sophisticated /sə'fɪstɪkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** PERSON well-educated and having experience of the world or knowledge of culture **2** SYSTEM A sophisticated machine or system is very advanced and works in a clever way. *a sophisticated computer system* ●**sophistication** /sə,fɪstɪ'keɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

sophomore /'sɒfəmɔːr/ *noun* [C] *US* **EDUCATION** a student studying in the second year of a course at a US university or high school (= school for students aged 15 to 18)

soprano /sə'prɑːnəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a female singer who sings the highest notes

sordid /'sɔːdɪd/ *adjective* unpleasant, dirty, or immoral *a sordid affair*

sore[1] /sɔːr/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** painful, especially when touched ***a sore throat/knee*** ○ *Her eyes were red and sore.* **2 sore point/spot/subject** a subject which causes disagreement or makes people angry when it is discussed *Money is a bit of a sore point with him at the moment.* ➲See also: stick/stand out like a sore **thumb**[1]

sore[2] /sɔːr/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an area of skin which is red and painful because of an infection

sorely /'sɔːli/ *adverb formal* very much *to be* ***sorely disappointed/tempted*** ○ *He will be* ***sorely missed*** *by everyone.*

sorrow /'sɒrəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when someone feels very sad ●**sorrowful** *adjective formal*

O-key **sorry** /'sɒri/ *adjective* **1 (I'm) sorry** something that you say to be polite when you have done something wrong, or when you cannot agree with someone or accept something *Sorry I'm late.* ○ *Oh, I'm sorry. I didn't see you there.* ○ *Tom, I'm so* ***sorry about*** *last night - it was all my fault.* ○ *I'm sorry, but I just don't think it's a good idea.* **2** SYMPATHY used to show sympathy or sadness for a person or situation *I* ***feel sorry for*** *the children - it must be very hard for them.* ○ *I was* ***sorry to hear*** *about your brother's accident.* [+ **(that)**] *I'm sorry that things didn't work out for you.* **3 Sorry?** *mainly UK* used as a polite way to say that you did not hear what someone has just said *Sorry? What was that?* **4** WISH SOMETHING WAS DIFFERENT used to say that you wish something in the past had not happened or had been different [+ **(that)**] *I'm sorry that I ever met him.* **5 a sorry sight/state/tale** a bad condition or situation *Her car was in a sorry state after the accident.*

O-key **sort**[1] /sɔːt/ *noun* **1** [C] a type of something *We both like the same* ***sort of*** *music.* ○ *What sort of shoes does she wear?* ○ *I'm going to have a salad* ***of some sort.*** **2 all sorts of sth** many different types of something **3 sort of** *informal* used to describe a situation approximately *It's a sort of pale orange colour.* **4 (and) that sort of thing** *informal* used to show that what you have just said is only an example from a larger group of things *They sell souvenirs, postcards, that sort of thing.* **5 of sorts** *informal* used to describe something which is not a typical example *He managed to make a curtain of sorts out of an old sheet.*

O-key **sort**[2] /sɔːt/ *verb* **1** [T] to arrange things into different groups or types or into an order *They* ***sort*** *the paper* ***into*** *white and coloured for recycling.* ○ *The names are sorted alphabetically.* **2 be sorted/get sth sorted** *UK informal* If something is sorted or you get something sorted, you successfully deal with it and find a solution or agreement. *Did you manage to get everything sorted?*
sort sth out *phrasal verb* to successfully deal with something, such as a problem or difficult situation *Have you sorted out your schedule yet?*
sort through sth *phrasal verb* to look at a number of things to organize them or to find something *I had the sad task of sorting through her papers after she died.*

so-so /'səʊsəʊ/ *adjective informal* not very good, but not bad *"Are you feeling better today?" "So-so."*

soufflé /'suːfleɪ/ US /suːf'leɪ/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a light food made by baking the white part of eggs *chocolate/cheese soufflé*

sought /sɔːt/ *past of* seek

sought-after /'sɔːtˌɑːftəʳ/ *adjective* wanted by lots of people, but difficult to get *a house in a sought-after location*

soul /səʊl/ *noun* **1** **RELIGION** [C] the part of a person which is not their body, which some people believe continues to exist after they die **2** **MUSIC** [U] (*also* **'soul ˌmusic**) popular music which expresses deep feelings, originally performed by Black Americans **3** PERSON [C] *informal* a person *I didn't see a soul when I went out.* ➲See also: **heart** and soul

soulful /'səʊlfˈl/ *adjective* expressing deep feelings, often sadness ***soulful eyes***

soulless /'səʊlləs/ *adjective* without any interesting or attractive characteristics *a soulless housing estate*

soul-searching /'səʊlˌsɜːtʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when you think very carefully about something to decide if it is the right thing to do *After much soul-searching, he decided to leave his job.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sound***

emit/make/produce a sound ● **hear/listen to** a sound ● the sound **of** sth

O-key **sound**[1] /saʊnd/ *noun* **1** [C, U] something that you hear or that can be heard *I could* ***hear*** *the* ***sounds*** *of the city through the open window.* ○ *She stood completely still, not* ***making a sound.*** ○ *Can you turn the sound up* (= make a radio, television, etc louder)*?* **2 the sound of sth** *informal* how something seems to be, from what you have been told or heard *I like the*

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sound of the beef in red wine sauce. ○ *He's really enjoying college,* ***by the sound of it.***

sound² /saʊnd/ *verb* **1 sound good/interesting/strange, etc** to seem good/interesting/strange, etc, from what you have heard or read *Your job sounds really interesting.* **2 sound like/as if/as though** to seem like something, from what you have heard or read *That sounds like a really good idea.* **3 sound angry/happy/rude, etc** to seem angry/happy/rude, etc when you speak *You don't sound too sure about it.* **4** [I, T] to make a noise *It looks and* ***sounds like*** *a real bird.* ○ *If the alarm sounds, you must leave the building immediately.*

sound³ /saʊnd/ *adjective* good or safe and able to be trusted ***sound advice/judgment*** ○ *The building is quite old, but still* ***structurally sound.*** ➲Opposite **unsound**

sound⁴ /saʊnd/ *adverb* **sound asleep** in a deep sleep

soundbite /ˈsaʊndbaɪt/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a short statement which is easy to remember, usually used by a politician to get attention on television, in newspapers, etc

ˈsound ˌcard *noun* [C] COMPUTING a small piece of electronic equipment inside a computer that makes it able to record and play sound

soundly /ˈsaʊndli/ *adverb* **1 sleep soundly** to sleep well **2 soundly beaten/defeated** beaten/defeated easily and by a large amount

soundtrack /ˈsaʊndtræk/ *noun* [C] MUSIC the music used in a film

soup /suːp/ *noun* [U] FOOD a hot, liquid food, made from vegetables, meat, or fish *chicken/tomato soup* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

sour¹ /saʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** FOOD having a sharp, sometimes unpleasant, taste or smell, like a lemon, and not sweet *These plums are a bit sour.* **2** very unfriendly or unpleasant *Their relationship suddenly* ***turned sour.***

sour² /saʊəʳ/ *verb* [T] to make something unpleasant or unfriendly *This affair has* ***soured relations*** *between the two countries.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***source***

a [good/important/major, etc] source **of** sth

source /sɔːs/ *noun* [C] **1** ORIGIN where something comes from *a source of income/information* ○ *Oranges are a good* ***source of*** *vitamin C.* **2** PERSON someone who gives information to the police, newspapers, etc

ˈsource ˌcode *noun* [U] COMPUTING computer instructions written in a form that humans can understand, that must be changed into machine code (= a set of numbers that gives instructions to a computer)

south, South /saʊθ/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction that is on your right when you face towards the rising sun **2 the south** the part of an area that is further towards the south than the rest ●**south** *adjective the south side of the house* ●**south** *adverb* towards the south *Birds fly south in winter.*

southbound /ˈsaʊθbaʊnd/ *adjective* going or leading towards the south

southeast, Southeast /ˌsaʊθˈiːst/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction between south and east **2 the southeast** the southeast part of a country ●**southeast, Southeast** *adjective, adverb*

southeastern, Southeastern /ˌsaʊθˈiːstən/ *adjective* in or from the southeast

southerly /ˈsʌðəʳli/ *adjective* **1** DIRECTION towards or in the south *We continued in a southerly direction.* **2** WIND A southerly wind comes from the south.

southern, Southern /ˈsʌðən/ *adjective* in or from the south part of an area *the southern half of the country*

southerner, Southerner /ˈsʌðəʳnəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone from the south part of a country

southernmost /ˈsʌðənməʊst/ *adjective* The southernmost part of an area is the part furthest to the south.

south-facing /ˈsaʊθˌfeɪsɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] positioned towards the south *a south-facing garden/window*

the ˌSouth ˈPole *noun* GEOGRAPHY a point on the Earth's surface which is furthest south

southward, southwards /ˈsaʊθəd, ˈsaʊθwədz/ *adverb* towards the south ●**southward** *adjective a southward direction*

southwest, Southwest /ˌsaʊθˈwest/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction between south and west **2 the southwest** the southwest part of the country ●**southwest, Southwest** *adjective, adverb*

southwestern, Southwestern /ˌsaʊθˈwestən/ *adjective* in or from the southwest

souvenir /ˌsuːvəʳnˈɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] something which you buy or keep to remember a special event or holiday *a* ***souvenir shop*** ○ *I kept the ticket as a* ***souvenir of*** *my trip.*

sovereign¹ /ˈsɒvəʳɪn/ *adjective* POLITICS A sovereign country or state is completely independent. ●**sovereignty** /ˈsɒvrəʳnti/ *noun* [U] the power of a country to control its own government

sovereign, Sovereign² /ˈsɒvəʳɪn/ *noun* [C] *formal* a king or queen

sow¹ /səʊ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **sowed**, *past participle* **sown** or **sowed** FARMING to put seeds into the ground *to* ***sow seeds/crops***

sow² /saʊ/ *noun* [C] a female pig

soya bean /ˈsɔɪəˌbiːn/ *UK* (*US* **soybean** /ˈsɔɪbiːn/) *noun* [C] FOOD a bean used to produce oil, and which is used in many foods

soy sauce /ˌsɔɪˈsɔːs/ *noun* [U] FOOD a dark brown sauce made from soya beans, used in Chinese and Japanese cooking

spa /spɑː/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a place where people go to improve their health by exercising or by having baths in special water *a* ***health spa*** ○ *a* ***spa town***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***space***

create/make space ● **fill a/occupy a/take up** space ● space **for** sb/sth ● an **open** space

space¹ /speɪs/ *noun* **1** EMPTY AREA [C, U] an empty area which is available to be used *a* ***parking space*** ○ *We need more* ***open spaces*** *for children to play in.* ○ *There wasn't enough* ***space for***

everyone. [+ **to do sth**] *We don't have the space to store it all.* **2 ASTRONOMY** [U] the area outside the Earth *They plan to send another satellite into space.* ○ *space travel* **3 in the space of six weeks/three hours, etc** during a period of six weeks/three hours, etc *It all happened in the space of 10 minutes.* ➲See also: **breathing space, outer space**

space² /speɪs/ *verb* [T] to arrange things so that there is some distance or time between them [**often passive**] *They will have to be spaced at least two metres apart.*

spacecraft /ˈspeɪskrɑːft/ *noun* [C] *plural* **spacecraft** **ASTRONOMY** a vehicle which can travel outside the Earth and into space

spaceship /ˈspeɪsʃɪp/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a vehicle which can travel outside the Earth and into space, especially one which is carrying people

ˈspace ˌshuttle *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a vehicle in which people travel into space (= the area outside the Earth) and back again

spacesuit /ˈspeɪssuːt/ *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a piece of clothing worn by a person who travels in space to protect the body when outside a spacecraft

spacious /ˈspeɪʃəs/ *adjective* large and with a lot of space *a spacious apartment/office*

spade /speɪd/ *noun* [C] **1 FARMING** a tool with a long handle and a flat, metal part at one end used for digging **2 spades** playing cards with black leaf shapes on them *the ace of spades*

spaghetti /spəˈgeti/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** long, thin pieces of pasta

spam /spæm/ *noun* [U] **INTERNET** emails that you do not want, usually advertisements ●**spam** *verb* [T] ●**spammer** *noun* [C] a person who sends spam

span /spæn/ *noun* [C] **1** TIME the period of time that something exists or happens *a short **attention span*** ○ *an average **life span** of seventy years* **2** DISTANCE the length of something from one end to the other *a **wing span** of five metres* ●**span** *verb* [T] **spanning**, *past* **spanned** to exist or continue for a particular distance or length of time *Her acting **career spanned** almost forty years.*

spaniel /ˈspænjəl/ *noun* [C] a dog with long hair and long ears

spank /spæŋk/ *verb* [T] to hit someone, usually a child, on their bottom

spanner /ˈspænəʳ/ *UK* (*US* **wrench**) *noun* [C] a tool with a round end that is used to turn nuts and bolts (= metal objects used to fasten things together)

spar /spɑːʳ/ *verb* [I] **sparring**, *past* **sparred** to fight or argue with someone in a friendly way

O-K **spare¹** /speəʳ/ *adjective* **1** If something is spare, it is available to use, because it is extra and not being used. *a spare bedroom* ○ *spare cash* ○ ***spare parts*** **2 spare time** time when you are not working *I enjoy gardening **in my spare time**.*

spare² /speəʳ/ *noun* [C] an extra thing which is not being used and which can be used instead of a part which is broken, lost, etc

spare³ /speəʳ/ *verb* **1** GIVE [T] to give time or money to someone *I have to go soon, but I can spare a few minutes.* [+ **two objects**] *Can you spare me some change?* **2** PREVENT [+ **two objects**] to prevent someone from having to experience something unpleasant [**often passive**] *I was spared the embarrassment of having to sing in front of everybody.* **3 to spare** If you have time, money, etc to spare, you have more than you need. *I arrived at the station with more than an hour to spare.* **4 spare no effort/expense, etc** to use a lot of effort/expense, etc to do something [+ **to do sth**] We will spare no effort to find out who did this. **5 spare sb's life** to not kill someone ➲See also: spare a **thought**¹ for sb

sparingly /ˈspeərɪŋli/ *adverb* carefully using only a very small amount of something *to eat/drink sparingly* ●**sparing** *adjective*

spark¹ /spɑːk/ *noun* [C] **1** FIRE a very small, bright piece of burning material *The fire was caused by a spark from a cigarette.* **2** ELECTRICITY a small flash of light caused by electricity **3** START a small idea or event which causes something bigger to start

spark² /spɑːk/ (*also* **spark off**) *verb* [T] to cause an argument, fight, etc to start happening *to **spark** a **debate/protest*** ○ *to **spark criticism/fears***

sparkle¹ /ˈspɑːkl/ *verb* [I] **1** LIGHT to shine brightly because of reflected light *water sparkling in the sun* ○ *Her **eyes sparkled** with excitement.* **2** SPECIAL to do something in a special or exciting way *The concert gave her an opportunity to sparkle.*

sparkle² /ˈspɑːkl/ *noun* **1** LIGHT [C, U] the light from something reflecting on a shiny surface **2** SPECIAL [U] the quality of being special or exciting *The performance lacked a bit of sparkle.*

sparkling /ˈspɑːklɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** LIGHT shining brightly because of reflected light **2** SPECIAL special or exciting *a **sparkling performance*** ○ ***sparkling conversation*** **3 sparkling water/wine** **FOOD** water/wine with bubbles in it

ˈspark ˌplug *noun* [C] a part in an engine that makes the fuel burn

sparrow /ˈspærəʊ/ *noun* [C] a small, brown bird which is common in towns and cities

sparse /spɑːs/ *adjective* **1** SMALL AMOUNT existing only in small amounts over a large area ***sparse population/vegetation*** **2** ROOM A room that is sparse contains little furniture and does not seem very comfortable. ●**sparsely** *adverb* ***sparsely populated/furnished***

spartan /ˈspɑːtən/ *adjective* very simple and not comfortable or luxurious *The rooms were clean but spartan.*

spasm /ˈspæzᵊm/ *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** when a muscle suddenly gets tight in a way that you cannot control *a back/muscle spasm* ○ *to **go into spasm***

spasmodic /spæzˈmɒdɪk/ *adjective* happening suddenly for short periods of time and not in a regular way

spat /spæt/ *past of* spit

spate /speɪt/ *noun* **a spate of accidents/crimes/thefts, etc** a large number of bad things which happen at about the same time

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spatial /ˈspeɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* relating to the position, area, and size of things ●**spatially** *adverb*

spatter /ˈspætəʳ/ *verb* [T] to cover someone or something with small drops of liquid without intending to [**often passive**] *His shirt was **spattered with** blood.*

spatula /ˈspætjələ/ *noun* [C] a tool with a wide flat blade, used in cooking for mixing, spreading, or lifting food ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

spawn /spɔːn/ *verb* [T] to cause a lot of other things to be produced or to exist *Her death spawned several films and books.*

speak /spiːk/ *verb past tense* **spoke**, *past participle* **spoken** **1** SAY WORDS [I] to say something using your voice *to speak loudly/quietly* ○ *There was complete silence - nobody spoke.* **2 speak to sb** *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **speak with sb**) to talk to someone *Could I speak to Mr Davis, please?* ○ *Have you spoken with your new neighbors yet?* **3 speak about/of sth** to talk about something *He refused to speak about the matter in public.* **4 speak English/French/German, etc** LANGUAGE to be able to communicate in English/French/German, etc *Do you speak English?* **5** IN PUBLIC [I] to make a speech to a large group of people *She was invited to speak at a conference in Madrid.* **6 speak for/on behalf of sb** to express the feelings, opinions, etc of another person or of a group of people *I've been chosen to speak on behalf of the whole class.* **7 generally/personally, etc speaking** used to explain that you are talking about something in a general/personal, etc way *Personally speaking, I don't like cats.* **8 so to speak** used to explain that the words you are using do not have their usual meaning ➲See also: speak/talk of the **devil**, speak your **mind**[1]

speak out *phrasal verb* to give your opinion about something in public, especially on a subject which you have strong feelings about *He decided to speak out against the bombing.*

speak up *phrasal verb* **1** TALK LOUDER to say something in a louder voice so that people can hear you *Could you speak up a bit? I can't hear you.* **2** OPINION to give your opinion about something, especially about a problem or to support someone else *It's getting bad - it's time someone spoke up about it.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

speak or **talk?**

Remember that you **speak** a language. You do not 'talk' it.

She speaks French.

~~*She talks French.*~~

speaker /ˈspiːkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** EQUIPMENT the part of a radio, CD player, etc which the sound comes out of ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 ➲See picture at **computer** **2 an English/French/German, etc speaker** someone who can speak English/French, etc **3** SPEECH someone who makes a speech to a group of people *a **guest speaker***

spear /spɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a long weapon with a sharp point at one end used for hunting

spearhead /ˈspɪəhed/ *verb* [T] to lead an attack or series of actions *to spearhead a campaign*

spearmint /ˈspɪəmɪnt/ *noun* [U] FOOD a type of mint (= a herb used as a flavour for sweets) *spearmint chewing gum*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***special***

If someone or something is special because they are better than usual, you can describe them as **exceptional** or **outstanding**: *Their standard of acting was very high but there was one **exceptional/outstanding** performance.*

The adjective **extraordinary** is sometimes used to describe someone or something that is special in a surprising way: *Her capacity to remember things is **extraordinary**.* ● *She has an **extraordinary** talent.*

The adjectives **deluxe** and **superior** are sometimes used to describe things which you can buy which are special because they are particularly good quality: *The shop assistant tried to sell us the **deluxe/superior** model.*

The adjectives **rare** and **unique** are sometimes used instead of special when it means 'unusual': *This is a **rare/unique** opportunity to see inside the building.*

If something is special because it is of extremely good quality, you can describe it as **out of this world**: *Their chocolate cake is just **out of this world**.*

special[1] /ˈspeʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** VERY GOOD better or more important than usual things *a special friend* ○ *I'm cooking **something special** for her birthday.* **2 special attention/care/treatment** treatment that is better than usual **3 special offer** *UK* a price which is lower than usual *I bought them because they were **on special offer**.* **4** DIFFERENT different from normal things, or used for a particular purpose *You need to use a special kind of paint.*

special[2] /ˈspeʃᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** TELEVISION a television programme made for a particular reason or occasion and not part of a series *The Christmas special had 24.3 million viewers.* **2** FOOD a dish in a restaurant which is not usually available ***Today's specials** are written on the board.*

ˌspecial efˈfects *noun* an unusual type of action in a film, or an entertainment on stage, created by using special equipment *The new Harry Potter film includes some very frightening special effects.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***specialist***

a **leading** specialist ● a specialist **in** sth ● specialist **knowledge**

specialist /ˈspeʃᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who has a lot of experience, knowledge, or skill in a particular subject *a cancer/software specialist* ○ *He's **a specialist in** childhood illnesses.*

speciality /ˌspeʃiˈælәti/ *UK* (*US* **specialty** /ˈspeʃᵊlti/) *noun* [C] a product, skill, etc that a person or place is especially known for *We tasted a local speciality made from goat's cheese.*

specialize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈspeʃᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [I] to spend most of your time studying one particular subject or doing one type of business *She*

works for a company ***specializing in*** *business law.* ●**specialization** /ˌspeʃᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

specialized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈspeʃəlaɪzd/ *adjective* relating to a particular subject or activity and not general *specialized equipment/language*

O-key **specially** /ˈspeʃəli/ *adverb* for a particular purpose *They searched the building with specially trained dogs.* ○ *I made this* ***specially for*** *you.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

specially or **especially?**

Sometimes these two words both mean 'for a particular purpose'.

I cooked this meal specially/especially for you.

Specially is often used before an adjective made from a past participle, e.g. specially prepared, specially trained.

He uses a specially adapted wheelchair.

Especially is used to give emphasis to a person or thing. This word is not usually used at the beginning of a sentence.

I like all kinds of films, especially horror films.

ˌ**special** ˈ**needs** *adjective* **HEALTH, EDUCATION** describes something that is intended for people who have an illness or condition that makes it difficult for them to do the things that other people do *a special needs school*

species /ˈspiːʃiːz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **species** **BIOLOGY** a group of plants or animals which share similar characteristics *a rare species of bird* ➲See Common Learner Error at **race**

specific /spəˈsɪfɪk/ *adjective* **1** PARTICULAR used to refer to a particular thing and not something general *a* ***specific purpose/reason*** ○ *Could we arrange a specific time to meet?* **2** EXACT exact or containing details *Could you* ***be*** *more* ***specific about*** *the problem?*

specifically /spəˈsɪfɪkᵊli/ *adverb* **1** PARTICULAR PURPOSE for a particular reason, purpose, etc *They're designed* ***specifically for*** *children.* [+ **to do sth**] *She bought it specifically to wear at the wedding.* **2** EXACTLY exactly or in detail *I specifically told them that she doesn't eat meat.*

specification /ˌspesɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] *formal* a detailed description of how something should be done, made, etc *They are made exactly* ***to*** *the customer's* ***specifications.***

speˌ**cific** ˈ**heat (ca**ˌ**pacity)** *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** the amount of energy from heat that is needed to raise the temperature of a particular substance by a particular amount

specifics /spəˈsɪfɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] exact details about something *I can't comment on the specifics of the case.*

specify /ˈspesɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to say or describe something in a detailed way [+ **question word**] *They didn't specify what colour they wanted.*

specimen /ˈspesəmɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** EXAMPLE an animal, plant, etc used as an example of its type, especially for scientific study *This is one of the museum's finest specimens.* **2** SMALL AMOUNT a small amount of a substance, such as blood, that is used for a test

speck /spek/ *noun* [C] a very small spot or a very small amount of something *a* ***speck of dirt/dust*** ○ *I watched the car until it was just a tiny speck in the distance.*

speckled /ˈspekld/ *adjective* covered in a pattern of very small spots *a speckled egg*

specs /speks/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal short for* spectacles

spectacle /ˈspektəkl/ *noun* [C] **1** an event that is exciting or unusual to watch **2 make a spectacle of yourself** to do something that makes you look stupid and that makes other people look at you *He got drunk and made a real spectacle of himself.*

spectacles /ˈspektəklz/ *noun* [**plural**] *old-fashioned* glasses *a pair of spectacles*

spectacular /spekˈtækjləʳ/ *adjective* extremely good, exciting, or surprising *a* ***spectacular success*** ○ *a* ***spectacular view*** ○ ***spectacular scenery*** ●**spectacularly** *adverb* *a spectacularly beautiful country*

spectator /spekˈteɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who watches an event, sport, etc *They won 4-0 in front of over 40,000 cheering spectators.* ●**spectate** /spekˈteɪt/ *verb* [I] to watch an event, sport, etc

spectre *UK* (*US* **specter**) /ˈspektəʳ/ *noun* **1 the spectre of sth** the idea of something unpleasant that might happen in the future *This attack* ***raises the spectre of*** *a return to racial violence.* **2** [C] *literary* a ghost (= dead person's spirit)

spectroscope /ˈspektrəskəʊp/ (*also* **mass spectrometer**) *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment used by scientists to separate ions into groups to measure and compare their mass and charge (= amount of electricity)

spectrum /ˈspektrəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **spectra** **1** all the different ideas, opinions, possibilities, etc that exist *He has support from* ***across the*** *whole political* ***spectrum.*** **2 PHYSICS** the set of colours into which light can be separated

speculate /ˈspekjəleɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to guess possible answers to a question when you do not have enough information to be certain *The police refused to* ***speculate about*** *the cause of the accident.* [+ **that**] *The newspapers have speculated that they will get married next year.*

speculation /ˌspekjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when people guess about something without having enough information to be certain [+ **that**] *She has dismissed the claims as* ***pure speculation.***

speculative /ˈspekjələtɪv/ *adjective* based on a guess and not on information *The article was dismissed as* ***highly/purely speculative.*** ●**speculatively** *adverb*

sped /sped/ *past of* speed

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***speech***

careful/continuous/human/normal speech
● **slur** your speech

O-key **speech** /spiːtʃ/ *noun* **1 LANGUAGE** [U] someone's ability to talk, or an example of someone talking *His speech was very slow and difficult to understand.* ○ *These changes can be seen in both speech and writing.* **2** [C] a formal talk that someone gives to a group of people *I had to* ***make a speech*** *at my brother's wedding.* **3 free speech/freedom of speech** the right to say or

S

write what you want ➲See also: **figure of speech, reported speech**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

make/give a speech

Be careful to choose the correct verb.

I have to make a speech.

~~*I have to do a speech.*~~

He gave a speech at the conference.

~~*He said a speech at the conference.*~~

speechless /ˈspiːtʃləs/ *adjective* unable to speak because you are so angry, shocked, surprised, etc *I couldn't believe what he was telling me - I was speechless.*

ˈ**speech recogˌnition** (*also* **voice recognition**) *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** the process of changing the sound of people speaking into instructions that a computer can understand

WORD PARTNERS FOR *speed*

gain/gather/pick up speed ● **lower /reduce** sb's/sth's speed ● **reach** a speed **of** [100kph/70mph, etc] ● **at** a speed **of** [100kph/70mph, etc]

speed¹ /spiːd/ *noun* **1** HOW FAST [C, U] how fast something moves or happens ***high/low speed*** ○ *He was travelling **at a speed of** 90 mph.* **2** FAST MOVEMENT [U] very fast movement *He put on a sudden burst of speed.* **3 up to speed** having all the most recent information about a subject or activity *The course should bring you up to speed with the latest techniques.*

speed² /spiːd/ *verb past* **sped** or **speeded 1 speed along/down/past, etc** to move somewhere or happen very fast *The three men jumped into a car and sped away.* **2 be speeding** to be driving faster than you are allowed to
speed (sth) up *phrasal verb* to move or happen faster, or to make something move or happen faster *Can you try to speed up a bit please?*

speedboat /ˈspiːdbəʊt/ *noun* [C] a small, fast boat with an engine

ˈ**speed ˌdating** *noun* [U] a way to meet people for possible romantic relationships, in which you talk with lots of people for a short amount of time to see if you like them

ˈ**speed ˌdial** *noun* [U] a feature on a telephone that makes it possible for you to call a number by pressing only one button ●**speed dial** *verb* [I, T]

speeding /ˈspiːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] driving faster than you are allowed to *They were stopped by the police for speeding.*

ˈ**speed ˌlimit** *noun* [C] the fastest speed that a vehicle is allowed to travel on a particular road *to **break** the **speed limit***

speedometer /spiːˈdɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment in a vehicle that shows how fast it is moving ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

speedy /ˈspiːdi/ *adjective* done quickly *a **speedy recovery*** ●**speedily** *adverb*

spell¹ /spel/ *verb past* **spelled**, *also UK* **spelt 1 LANGUAGE** [T] to write down or tell someone the letters which are used to make a word *How do you spell that?* ○ *Her name's spelt S-I-A-N.* **2 LANGUAGE** [I] If you can spell, you know how to write the words of a language correctly. *My grammar's all right, but I can't spell.* **3 spell disaster/trouble, etc** If something spells disaster, trouble, etc, you think it will cause something bad to happen in the future. *The new regulations could spell disaster for small businesses.*
spell sth out *phrasal verb* to explain something in a very clear way with details *They sent me a letter, **spelling out the details** of the agreement.*

spell² /spel/ *noun* [C] **1** TIME a period of time *a short spell in Australia* ○ *a spell of dry weather* **2** MAGIC a magic instruction *The witch **cast a spell** over him and he turned into a frog.*

spell-check (*also* **spellcheck**) /ˈspeltʃek/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to use a computer program to make certain that the words in a document have the correct letters in the correct order ●**spell-check** *noun* [C] *to run a spell-check*

spelling /ˈspelɪŋ/ *noun* **1 LANGUAGE** [C] how a particular word is spelt *There are two possible spellings of this word.* ○ ***spelling mistakes*** **2 LANGUAGE** [U] someone's ability to spell words *My spelling is terrible.*

spelt /spelt/ *UK past of* spell

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING *spend*

The most common alternative is the verb **pay**: *When you booked the tickets, how much did you **pay**?* ● *I **paid** an extra £30 to get a double room.*

The verb **invest** is used when someone spends money on something because they hope to get a profit: *She's **invested** all her savings in the business.*

If someone spends a lot of money on something, the phrasal verb **pay out** is sometimes used: *I've just **paid out** £700 to get the car fixed.*

If someone spends a lot of money on something that they want but do not need, you can use the phrasal verb **splash out**: *We've just **splashed out** £12,000 on a new kitchen.*

The phrasal verb **dip into** is sometimes used when someone spends part of a supply of money that they have been keeping: *We had to **dip into** our savings to pay for the repairs.*

If someone spends money on something when they do not want to, the phrasal verbs **fork out** and **shell out** are often used: *We had to **shell out** two thousand pounds to get the roof fixed.* ● *I'm not going to **fork out** another five hundred quid for their tickets.*

spend /spend/ *verb* [T] *past* **spent 1 FINANCE** to use money to buy or pay for something *The company has **spent** £1.9 million **on** improving its computer network.* ○ *She **spends** too much **money** on clothes.* ○ *How much did you spend?* **2** to use time doing something or being somewhere *He spent 18 months working on the project.* ○ *He's planning to **spend** some **time** at home with his family.* ○ *How long did you spend in Edinburgh?*

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spending /ˈspendɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the money which is used for a particular purpose, especially by a government or organization *government spending on health* ○ ***spending cuts***

spent¹ /spent/ *adjective* already used, so not useful or effective any more *spent bullets*

spent² /spent/ *past of* spend

sperm /spɜːm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sperm** **BIOLOGY** a small cell produced by a male animal which joins an egg from a female animal to create a baby

spermatozoon /ˌspɜːmətəˈzəʊɒn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **spermatozoa** **BIOLOGY** a sperm (= cell from a male animal that joins a female's egg to make a baby)

spew /spjuː/ (*also* **spew out**) *verb* [I, T] If something spews liquid or gas, or liquid or gas spews from something, it flows out in large amounts. *The factory spews out clouds of black smoke.*

SPF /ˌespiːˈef/ *noun* [C] **MEASURES** *abbreviation for* sun protection factor: the letters and numbers on a bottle of sunscreen (= a substance which protects your skin in the sun) which shows how effective the sunscreen is

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sphere***

in a sphere ● a sphere of **activity/influence/life**

sphere /sfɪə/ *noun* [C] **1** SUBJECT a subject or area of knowledge, work, etc *the political sphere* **2** SHAPE a round object shaped like a ball

spherical /ˈsferɪkəl/ *adjective* round, like a ball

sphincter /ˈsfɪŋktə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a muscle that surrounds an opening in the body and can tighten to close it *a sphincter muscle* ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

spice¹ /spaɪs/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C, U] a substance made from a plant, which is used to give a special taste to food ***herbs and spices*** **2** [U] something that makes something else more exciting *A scandal or two* ***adds*** *a little* ***spice to*** *office life.*

spice² /spaɪs/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to add spice to something [**often passive**] *The apples were* ***spiced with*** *nutmeg and cinnamon.*
spice sth up *phrasal verb* to make something more interesting or exciting *You can always spice up a talk with a few pictures.*

spicy /ˈspaɪsi/ *adjective* **FOOD** containing strong flavours from spice ***spicy food*** ○ *a spicy sauce*

spider /ˈspaɪdə/ *noun* [C] a small creature with eight long legs which catches insects in a web (= structure like a net)

spidery /ˈspaɪdəri/ *adjective* thin and often untidy, looking like a spider ***spidery handwriting***

spike /spaɪk/ *noun* [C] a long, thin piece of metal, wood, etc with a sharp point at one end ●**spiky** *adjective* covered with spikes or having that appearance ***spiky hair***

spill /spɪl/ *verb* [T] *past* **spilled**, *also UK* **spilt** to pour liquid somewhere without intending to *Someone at the party spilled red wine on the carpet.* ●**spill** *noun* [C] *an oil spill*
spill out *phrasal verb* **1** FALL to flow or fall out of a container *The contents of the truck spilled out across the road.* **2** MOVE If people spill out of a place, large numbers of them move out of it. *The crowd spilled out onto the street.*
spill over *phrasal verb* If a bad situation spills over, it begins to have an unpleasant effect on another situation or group of people. *There are fears that the war could spill over into neighbouring countries.*

spin¹ /spɪn/ *verb* [I, T] **spinning**, *past* **spun** **1** TURN If something spins or you spin something, it turns around and around quickly. *The car* ***spun across*** *the road.* **2** MAKE THREAD to make thread by twisting together cotton, wool, etc
spin (sb) around/round *phrasal verb* If you spin around, or someone spins you around, your body turns quickly to face the opposite direction.
spin sth out *phrasal verb* to make something such as a story or an activity last as long as possible

spin² /spɪn/ *noun* **1** TURN [C, U] the movement of something turning round very quickly *The skater did a series of amazing spins and jumps.* **2** IDEA [**no plural**] when an idea is expressed in a clever way that makes it seem better than it really is, especially in politics *This report* ***puts*** *a different* ***spin on*** *the issue.* **3** CAR [**no plural**] *informal* a short journey by car

spinach /ˈspɪnɪtʃ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a vegetable with large, dark green leaves and a strong taste

spinal /ˈspaɪnəl/ *adjective* **ANATOMY** relating to the spine *a spinal injury*

ˌspinal ˈcord *noun* **ANATOMY** the set of nerves inside the spine that connect the brain to other nerves in the body ➲See picture at **brain**

spin-chilling /ˈspaɪnˌtʃɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* very frightening

ˈspin ˌdoctor *noun* [C] *informal* **POLITICS** someone whose job is to make ideas, events, etc seem better than they really are, especially in politics

spine /spaɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** the long structure of bones down the centre of your back, which supports your body **2** the narrow part of a book cover where the pages are joined together and which you can see when it is on a shelf

spineless /ˈspaɪnləs/ *adjective* A spineless person has a weak personality and is frightened easily.

spinneret /spɪnəˈret/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a spider or caterpillar that makes thin, sticky thread

spin-off /ˈspɪnɒf/ *noun* [C] a product that develops from another more important product

spinster /ˈspɪnstə/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* a woman who has never married

spiracle /ˈspaɪrəkəl/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** in an insect or spider, one of the small holes that allow air in and out through the surface of the

S

body **2** BIOLOGY in some fish, a small hole behind each eye used for breathing

spiral /ˈspaɪərᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** a shape made by a curve turning around and around a central point *a spiral staircase* **2 a downward spiral** a situation which is getting worse very quickly, and which is difficult to control

spiral

spire /spaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a tall, pointed tower on the top of a building such as a church

spirit¹ /ˈspɪrɪt/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**no plural**] the way people think and feel about something *a spirit of optimism* ○ *Everyone soon* ***got into the spirit of*** (= started to enjoy) *the carnival - singing, dancing, and having fun.* **2 community/team, etc spirit** when you feel enthusiasm about being part of a group **3 in good/high/low spirits** feeling good/excited/unhappy **4** NOT BODY [C] the part of a person which is not their body, which some people believe continues to exist after they die **5** NOT ALIVE [C] something which people believe exists but does not have a physical body, such as a ghost *evil spirits* **6 the spirit of the law/an agreement, etc** the intended meaning of the law/an agreement, etc and not just the written details **7** FOOD [C] a strong alcoholic drink, such as whisky or vodka [**usually plural**] *I don't often drink spirits.*

spirit² /ˈspɪrɪt/ *verb* **be spirited away/out/to, etc** to be moved somewhere secretly *He was spirited away to a secret hide-out in Mexico.*

spirited /ˈspɪrɪtɪd/ *adjective* enthusiastic and determined, often in a difficult situation *a spirited performance*

spiritual /ˈspɪrɪtʃuəl/ *adjective* RELIGION relating to deep feelings and beliefs, especially religious beliefs *a spiritual leader*

spiritualism /ˈspɪrɪtʃuᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] the belief that living people can communicate with people who are dead ●**spiritualist** *noun* [C] someone who is involved with spiritualism

spirogyra /ˌspaɪərəʊˈdʒaɪərə/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY a type of algae (= very simple plant found in water) formed of cells that contain a green spiral of chloroplast

spit¹ /spɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **spitting**, *past* **spat**, *also US* **spit** **1** to force out the liquid in your mouth *I don't like to see people spitting in public.* ○ *He took a mouthful of coffee and then* ***spat*** *it* ***out.*** **2 Spit it out!** *informal* used to tell someone to say more quickly what it is they want to say *Come on, spit it out!*

spit² /spɪt/ *noun* **1** LIQUID [U] *informal* the liquid that is made in your mouth **2** COOKING [C] a long, thin stick used for cooking meat over a fire **3** GEOGRAPHY a long, thin beach (= area of sand) that goes out into the sea

spite /spaɪt/ *noun* **1 in spite of sth** although something exists or happens *He still smokes, in spite of all the health warnings.* **2** [U] a feeling of anger towards someone which makes you want to hurt or upset them *He hid my new jacket* ***out of spite.***

spiteful /ˈspaɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* intentionally hurting or upsetting someone *That was a very spiteful thing to do.* ●**spitefully** *adverb*

splash¹ /splæʃ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** If a liquid splashes or you splash a liquid, drops of it hit or fall on something. *The paint splashed onto his new shirt.* ○ *She splashed some cold water on her face.* **2 splash about/around/through, etc** to move in water so that drops of it go in all directions *The children splashed about in the puddles.* **3 be splashed across/all over sth** to be the main story in a newspaper, usually on the front page, which many people will see *His picture was splashed across the front pages of all the newspapers the next morning.*
splash out (sth) *phrasal verb UK* to spend a lot of money on something which you want but do not need *He* ***splashed out on*** *the best champagne for the party.*

splash² /splæʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** DROP OF LIQUID a drop of liquid which has fallen on something, or the mark made by it *There were several small splashes of paint on the carpet.* **2** NOISE the sound of something falling into or moving in water *They sat listening to the splash of raindrops on the lake.* **3 a splash of colour** a small area of colour which makes something look brighter *The flowers added a splash of colour to the room.* **4 make a splash** *informal* to get a lot of public attention *The film made quite a splash in the US.*

splatter /ˈsplætəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] If a liquid splatters or you splatter it, it falls onto a surface, often in many small drops. [**often passive**] *His clothes were* ***splattered with*** *blood.*

splendid /ˈsplendɪd/ *adjective* very good or very beautiful, special, etc *a splendid idea* ○ *a splendid view* ●**splendidly** *adverb*

splendour *UK* (*US* **splendor**) /ˈsplendəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] when something is extremely beautiful or luxurious *Tourists marvelled at the splendour of the medieval cathedral.*

splinter /ˈsplɪntəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a small, sharp piece of wood, glass, etc which has broken from a large piece *I've got a splinter in my finger.* **2 a splinter group** POLITICS a small group of people that forms after leaving a larger organization, such as a political party ●**splinter** *verb* [I] to break into small, sharp pieces

split¹ /splɪt/ *verb* **splitting**, *past* **split** **1** BREAK [I, T] If something splits or if you split it, it tears so that there is a long, thin hole in it. *He split his trousers when he bent over.* ○ *Her shoes were* ***splitting apart*** *at the sides.* **2** DIVIDE [I, T] (*also* **split up**) to divide into smaller parts or groups, or to divide something into smaller parts or groups *The children* ***split up into*** *three groups.* **3** SHARE [T] to share something by dividing it into smaller parts *The cost of the wedding will be* ***split between*** *the two families.* **4** DISAGREE [I, T] If a group of people splits, or something splits them, they disagree and form smaller groups. [**often passive**] *The government is* ***split on*** *the issue of hunting.* ➲See also: split hairs (**hair**)
split up *phrasal verb* If two people split up, they end their relationship. *She* ***split up with*** *her boyfriend.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *split (noun)*

2 cause/create a split ● a split **develops** ● a split **between** sb and sb ● a split **in** sth ● a split **on/over** sth

split² /splɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** BREAK a long, thin hole in something where it has broken apart *There's a **split in** my trousers.* **2** DISAGREEMENT when a group of people divides into smaller groups because they disagree about something *This issue is likely to cause a major **split in** the party.* **3** RELATIONSHIP when a marriage or relationship ends *Very few of their friends were surprised when they announced their split last week.*

split³ /splɪt/ *adjective* **a split second** a very short period of time *It was all over in a split second.* ○ *a **split second decision***

splitting headache *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a very bad pain in your head *I've got a splitting headache.*

splurge /splɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I, T] to spend a lot of money on something which you want but do not need *We could either save the money or **splurge on** a new car.* ●**splurge** *noun* [C]

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING *spoil*

Ruin is a very common alternative to 'spoil': *I put too much salt in the sauce and **ruined** it.*

The verb **deface** is sometimes used when someone spoils the appearance of something by writing or drawing on it: *Many of the library books had been **defaced**.*

The verb **disfigure** is sometimes used when a person's physical appearance has been spoilt: *Her face was **disfigured** by the scar.*

If something spoils a friendship or other relationship, you can use the verbs **sour** or **poison**: *The long dispute has **poisoned/soured** relations between the two countries.*

In informal situations you can use the phrasal verbs **mess up** and **screw up** to say that something has been spoilt: *Laurie's illness has completely **messed up** all our holiday plans.* ● *That new software has really **screwed up** my computer.*

spoil /spɔɪl/ *verb past* **spoiled** or **spoilt** **1** MAKE BAD [T] to stop something from being enjoyable or successful *The picnic was spoiled by the bad weather.* **2** CHILD [T] If you spoil a child, you let them have anything they want or do anything they want, usually making them badly behaved. **3** TREAT WELL [T] to treat someone very well, buying them things or doing things for them *He's always sending flowers - he absolutely spoils me!* **4** FOOD [I] *formal* If food spoils, it starts to decay and you cannot eat it.

spoils /spɔɪlz/ *noun* [**plural**] *formal* things which are taken by the winners of a war ***the spoils of war***

spoilt /spɔɪlt/ *adjective UK* (*US* **spoiled** /spɔɪld/) badly behaved because you are always given what you want or allowed to do what you want *He was behaving like a **spoilt child**.*

spoke¹ /spəʊk/ *noun* [C] one of the thin pieces of metal which connects the middle of a wheel to the outside edge, for example, on a bicycle

spoke² /spəʊk/ *past tense of* speak

spoken /ˈspəʊkᵊn/ *past participle of* speak

spokesman, spokeswoman /ˈspəʊksmən, ˈspəʊks,wʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **spokesmen, spokeswomen** a man/woman who is chosen to speak officially for a group or organization *A spokesman for the company refused to comment on the reports.*

spokesperson /ˈspəʊks,pɜːsᵊn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **spokespeople** someone who is chosen to speak officially for a group or organization

spondee /ˈspɒndiː/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** in poetry, a rhythm of two long or strong syllables

sponge /spʌndʒ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** a soft substance full of small holes, which absorbs liquid very easily and is used for washing things **2** **FOOD** (*also* **sponge cake**) a soft, light cake

spongy /ˈspʌnðʒi/ *adjective* soft and full of small holes

sponsor¹ /ˈspɒnsəʳ/ *verb* [T] **SPORT** to give money to someone to support an activity, event, or organization, sometimes as a way to advertise your company or product *The event is sponsored by First National Bank. UK* ○ *a sponsored walk* (= a walk for charity) ●**sponsorship** *noun* [U] when someone gives money to support something

sponsor² /ˈspɒnsəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a person or organization that gives money to support an activity, event, etc

spontaneous /spɒnˈteɪniəs/ *adjective* happening naturally and suddenly and without being planned *a spontaneous reaction* ○ *The crowd broke into spontaneous applause.* ●**spontaneity** /ˌspɒntəˈneɪəti/ *noun* [U] when something is spontaneous ●**spontaneously** *adverb*

spoof /spuːf/ *noun* [C] a funny television programme, film, article, etc that copies the style of a real programme, film, article, etc *They did a **spoof of** the Oscars, giving awards for the worst films of the year.*

spooky /ˈspuːki/ *adjective informal* strange and frightening *There's something spooky about that place.*

spoon /spuːn/ *noun* [C] an object with a handle and a round, curved part at one end, used for eating and serving food *knives, forks, and spoons* ●**spoon** *verb* [T] to move or serve food using a spoon *Spoon the sauce over the fish.*

spoonful /ˈspuːnfʊl/ *noun* [C] the amount of something which can be held on a spoon *Then add a spoonful of yoghurt.*

sporadic /spəˈrædɪk/ *adjective* not happening regularly or happening in different places *sporadic violence* ●**sporadically** *adverb*

sporangium /spəˈrændʒiəm/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a plant, especially a fungus (= plant like a mushroom) that produces spores (= cells from which new plants grow)

spore /spɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a single cell produced by some plants and simple organisms, for example fungus or ferns, from which new plants and organisms grow

S

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sport***

do/play a sport ● **spectator/team** sports

sport¹ /spɔːt/ *noun* **SPORT** **1** [C] a game or activity which people do to keep healthy or for enjoyment, often competing against each other *winter sports* ○ ***team sports*** ➲See colour picture **Sports 1 & 2** on pages Centre 14, 15 **2** [U] *UK* all types of physical activity which people do to keep healthy or for enjoyment ➲See also: **blood sport**

sport² /spɔːt/ *verb* [T] *humorous* to wear something, especially something which people notice *He turned up sporting a bright red baseball cap and sunglasses.*

sporting /ˈspɔːtɪŋ/ *adjective* **SPORT** relating to sports *a **sporting hero***

ˈsports ˌcar *noun* [C] a car designed to go very fast, often with only two seats and an open roof

ˈsports ˌcentre *UK* (*US* **sports center**) *noun* [C] **SPORT** a building with places where you can play different sports

sportsmanship /ˈspɔːtsmənʃɪp/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** behaviour in sport which is fair and shows respect for other players *We hope to teach children **good sportsmanship**.*

sportsman, sportswoman /ˈspɔːtsmən, ˈspɔːtsˌwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sportsmen, sportswomen** **SPORT** a man/woman who is good at sport

sportswear /ˈspɔːtsweər/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** clothes, shoes, etc for people to wear when they play sports *a sportswear shop*

sporty /ˈspɔːti/ *adjective* **1** ATTRACTIVE Sporty cars, clothes, etc are attractive, comfortable, and stylish. **2** **SPORT** Sporty people are good at sports.

spot¹ /spɒt/ *noun* [C] **1** ROUND MARK a small, round mark which is a different colour to the surface it is on *a blue shirt with white spots* ○ *I noticed a small spot of oil on my jacket.* **2** **HEALTH** *UK* (*US* **pimple**) an unpleasant, small, red mark on your skin *He suffered badly with spots as a teenager.* **3** PLACE a place *We found a good spot to sit and have our picnic.* **4 a spot of sth** *UK old-fashioned* a small amount of something *a spot of lunch/shopping* **5 on the spot a** TIME immediately *I accepted the job on the spot.* **b** PLACE in the place where something happens *The police were called and they were on the spot within three minutes.* **6 have a soft spot for sb** to like someone a lot *I've always had a soft spot for her.* **7 put sb on the spot** to ask someone a question which is difficult or embarrassing to answer at that time ➲See also: **beauty spot, blind spot**

spot² /spɒt/ *verb* [T] **spotting**, *past* **spotted** to see or notice something or someone *They were spotted together in London last week.* ○ *She soon **spotted** the **mistake**.*

spotless /ˈspɒtləs/ *adjective* completely clean *By the time I'd finished, the whole room was spotless.* ●**spotlessly** *adverb* ***spotlessly clean***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***spotlight***

2 be under/come under the spotlight ● the spotlight **falls on/is on** sb/sth ● **put/turn** the spotlight on sb/sth ● **in/out of** the spotlight ● the **media/public** spotlight

spotlight /ˈspɒtlaɪt/ *noun* **1** [C] a strong light which can be pointed in different directions **2 the spotlight** when someone gets public attention by being on television, in the newspapers, etc *to be **in the spotlight*** ○ *She's rarely **out of the** media **spotlight** these days.* ●**spotlight** *verb* [T] *past* **spotlighted** or **spotlit**

ˌspot ˈon *adjective* [**never before noun**] *UK* exactly correct *Her imitation of Ann was spot on.*

spotty /ˈspɒti/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** *UK* having a lot of unpleasant, small, red marks on your skin *a spotty young man with greasy hair* **2** PATTERN *UK* with a pattern of round marks *a spotty dress* **3** NOT GOOD/REGULAR *US* (*UK* **patchy**) If an action, quality, supply, etc is spotty, it is not all good or regular. *Sales of tickets for the concert have been spotty.*

spouse /spaʊs/ *noun* [C] *formal* **SOCIETY** your husband or wife

spout¹ /spaʊt/ *noun* [C] an opening of a container, in the shape of a tube which liquid flows out through *the spout of a teapot*

spout² /spaʊt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** LIQUID If a liquid spouts or if something makes it spout, it flows out of something with force. **2** SPEAK *informal* to talk a lot about something, often when other people are not interested *He was spouting his usual rubbish about politics.*

sprain /spreɪn/ *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to injure part of your body by twisting it, but not so badly that it breaks *I slipped on the ice and sprained my ankle.* ●**sprain** *noun* [C]

sprang /spræŋ/ *past tense of* spring

sprawl /sprɔːl/ *verb* [I] **1** PERSON (*also* **sprawl out**) to sit or lie in a relaxed, untidy position with your arms and legs stretched out *He sprawled out on the sofa.* **2** BUILDINGS to cover a large area, often in a way which is not tidy or not planned ***sprawling suburbs*** ●**sprawl** *noun* [U] *urban sprawl*

spray¹ /spreɪ/ *noun* **1** LIQUID CONTAINER [C, U] liquid in a container which forces it out in small drops *hair spray* ○ *spray paint* **2** DROPS [U] many small drops of liquid blown through the air *sea spray*

spray² /spreɪ/ *verb* **1** LIQUID [T] to force liquid out of a container in many small drops *The fields are **sprayed with** pesticides.* ○ *She sprayed a little perfume on her wrists.* **2** PIECES [I, T] If small pieces of something spray somewhere or if something sprays them, they are sent through the air in all directions. *A brick shattered the window, **spraying** the room **with** pieces of broken glass.*

spread¹ /spred/ *verb past* **spread** **1 spread sth across/over/through, etc** to arrange something so that it covers a large area *He **spread** the cards **out** on the table.* **2** TIME [T] (*also* **spread out**) to arrange for something to happen over a period of time and not at once *The **payments** will be **spread** over two years.* **3** INCREASE [I] to increase, or move to cover a larger area or

S

affect a larger number of people *The virus is spread by rats.* **4** SURFACE [T] to move a soft substance across a surface so that it covers it *What I really like is hot buttered toast* ***spread with*** *strawberry jam.* ○ *He* ***spread*** *a thin layer of glue* ***on*** *the paper.* **5** INFORMATION [I, T] If information spreads or if someone spreads it, it is communicated from one person to another. ***News*** *of his death* ***spread*** *quickly.*
spread out *phrasal verb* If people spread out, they move from being close together in a group to being in different places across a larger area. *They spread out to search the whole area.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***spread*** *(noun)*

the spread **of** sth ● **control/halt/limit/prevent** the spread of sth

spread[2] /spred/ *noun* **1** MOVEMENT [U] when something moves to cover a larger area or affect a larger number of people *They are looking for ways to slow down* ***the spread of*** *the disease.* **2 FOOD** [C, U] a soft food which you put on bread *cheese spread* **3** NEWSPAPER [C] an article which covers one or more pages of a newspaper or magazine *a double-page spread*

spreadsheet /ˈspredʃiːt/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer program which helps you to do business calculations and planning

spree /spriː/ *noun* **a shopping/spending, etc spree** a short period when someone does a lot of shopping/spending, etc

sprig /sprɪg/ *noun* [C] a small piece of a plant with leaves *a sprig of parsley*

sprightly /ˈspraɪtli/ *adjective* A sprightly person is able to move about easily and quickly although they are old.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***spring***

in (the) spring ● **early/late** spring ● **last/next** spring

O-key **spring**[1] /sprɪŋ/ *noun* **1** SEASON [C, U] the season of the year between winter and summer, when the weather becomes warmer and plants start to grow again *I'm starting a new course* ***in the spring.*** ○ *spring flowers/weather* **2** METAL [C] a piece of metal which curves round and round and which returns to its original shape after being pushed or pulled *bed springs* **3 GEOGRAPHY** [C] a place where water comes out of the ground *hot springs* **4** MOVEMENT [C, U] when someone or something suddenly moves or jumps somewhere

spring[2] /sprɪŋ/ *verb past* **sprang**, *also US* **sprung**, *past participle* **sprung 1 spring back/forward/out, etc** to jump or move somewhere suddenly *The cat sprang onto the sofa.* ○ *I tried to shut the door, but it kept springing open.* **2 spring to life** to suddenly become very active *After about 8 o'clock, the city springs to life.* **3 spring to mind** If a word or idea springs to mind, you suddenly think of it. *He asked if I knew any good places to go, but nothing sprang to mind.*
spring from sth *phrasal verb* to come from or be the result of something *Many of his problems spring from his strict religious upbringing.*
spring sth on sb *phrasal verb* to suddenly tell or ask someone something when they do not expect it *I'm sorry to spring this on you, but could you give a talk at tomorrow's meeting?*
spring up *phrasal verb* to appear suddenly *A lot of new hotels have sprung up along the coast recently.*

ˌspring ˈclean *UK* (*UK/US* **ˌspring ˈcleaning**) *noun* [**no plural**] when you clean a place more carefully and using more effort than usual *I gave the kitchen a spring clean at the weekend.* ●**spring clean** *verb* [I, T] *UK*

ˌspring ˈonion *UK* (*US* **scallion**) *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a small onion with a white part at the bottom and long, green leaves, which is eaten in salads

sprinkle /ˈsprɪŋkl/ *verb* [T] to gently drop small pieces of something over a surface *Sprinkle the cake with sugar before serving.* ●**sprinkling** *noun* [**no plural**] a small amount of a powder or liquid that has been sprinkled on a surface *a sprinkling of pepper/snow*

sprinkler /ˈsprɪŋklər/ *noun* [C] a piece of garden equipment which automatically spreads drops of water over grass and plants

sprint /sprɪnt/ *verb* [I] **SPORT** to run very fast for a short distance *She sprinted along the road to the bus stop.* ●**sprinter** *noun* [C] someone who runs short distances in competitions ●**sprint** *noun* [C] *a 100m sprint*

sprocket /ˈsprɒkɪt/ *noun* [C] **DT** a device like a wheel with small parts sticking out which keeps a chain moving on a bicycle or pulls film, paper, etc. through a machine

sprout[1] /spraʊt/ *verb* [I, T] **BIOLOGY** If a plant sprouts, or if it sprouts something, it begins to produce leaves, flowers, etc. *The seeds I planted are just beginning to sprout.*
sprout up *phrasal verb* If a large number of things sprout up, they suddenly appear or begin to exist. *New buildings are sprouting up all over the city.*

sprout[2] /spraʊt/ *noun* [C] **1 FOOD** (*also* **brussel sprout**) a small, green vegetable which is round and made of leaves **2** a part of a plant that is just beginning to grow

spruce /spruːs/ *verb*
spruce sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to make someone or something cleaner or more tidy [**often reflexive**] *I'd like to spruce myself up a bit before we go out.*

sprung /spraŋ/ **1** PAST PARTICIPLE *past participle of* spring **2** PAST TENSE *US past tense of* spring

spun /spʌn/ *past tense of* spin

spur[1] /spɜːr/ (*also* **spur on**) *verb* [T] **spurring**, *past* **spurred** to encourage someone to do something or something to happen *Spurred on by his fans, he won the next three games easily.*

spur[2] /spɜːr/ *noun* [C] **1** a sharp, pointed piece of metal fixed to the boot of someone riding a horse **2 on the spur of the moment** If you do something on the spur of the moment, you do it suddenly, without planning it.

spurious /ˈspjʊəriəs/ *adjective formal* false and not based on the truth

spurn /spɜːn/ *verb* [T] *formal* to not accept someone or something *He* ***spurned*** *my* ***offer/suggestion.*** ○ *a* ***spurned lover***

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spurt¹ /spɜːt/ *verb* **1** [I, T] (*also* **spurt out**) If something spurts liquid or fire, or if liquid or fire spurts from somewhere, it flows out suddenly with force. *Blood was spurting out of his stomach.* **2 spurt ahead/into/past, etc** to increase your speed, effort, or activity *She spurted ahead in the final lap.*

spurt² /spɜːt/ *noun* [C] **1** INCREASE a sudden, short increase in speed, effort, or activity *He works in short spurts.* **2** FLOW a sudden, powerful flow of liquid *The water came out of the tap* ***in spurts***.

sputter /ˈspʌtəʳ/ *verb* [I] to make several quick, explosive sounds *The car sputtered to a halt.*

spy¹ /spaɪ/ *noun* [C] someone who secretly tries to discover information about a person, country, etc

spy² /spaɪ/ *verb* **1** INFORMATION [I] to secretly try to discover information about a person, country, etc **2** SEE [T] *literary* to see someone or something, often from a distance *I spied him on the dance floor.*
spy on sb *phrasal verb* to secretly watch someone *He spied on her through the keyhole.*

sq MEASURES *written abbreviation for* square in measurements *an area of 70 sq km* (= square kilometres)

squabble /ˈskwɒbl/ *verb* [I] to argue about something that is not important *They're always* ***squabbling over*** *money.* ●**squabble** *noun* [C]

squad /skwɒd/ *noun* [C] **1 bomb/drug/fraud, etc squad** a group of police officers who have special skills to deal with particular problems **2 death/firing/hit, etc squad** a group of people who are trained to kill, usually with guns **3** SPORT a sports team *the England rugby squad*

squadron /ˈskwɒdrᵊn/ *noun* [C] a group of soldiers, ships, aircraft, etc in a military organization *a squadron of fighter jets*

squalid /ˈskwɒlɪd/ *adjective* **1** DIRTY very dirty and unpleasant *squalid conditions* **2** NOT MORAL morally bad *a squalid affair*

squall /skwɔːl/ *noun* [C] a sudden storm with strong winds

squalor /ˈskwɒləʳ/ *noun* [U] extremely dirty and unpleasant conditions *They live in squalor.*

squander /ˈskwɒndəʳ/ *verb* [T] to waste time, money, etc *He* ***squandered*** *all his money* ***on*** *alcohol and drugs.*

O-K **square¹** /skweəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SHAPE a shape with four equal sides and four 90° angles ➲See picture at **shape** ➲See picture at **parallelogram 2** PLACE an open area with buildings around it, often in the centre of a town *Trafalgar Square* **3** MATHEMATICS a number that results from multiplying a number by itself *The square of 3 is 9.* **4 back to square one** back to the beginning of a long process or piece of work *None of the applicants were suitable, so we had to go back to square one and advertise the job again.* ➲See also: **fair³** and square

O-K **square²** /skweəʳ/ *adjective* **1** having the shape of a square *a square room* ○ *He has broad shoulders and a square jaw.* **2 square centimetre/metre/mile, etc** MEASURES the area of a square with sides that are a centimetre/metre/mile, etc long *3000 square feet of office space* **3 a square meal** a big, healthy meal *You need three square meals a day.*

square³ /skweəʳ/ *verb* **2/3/4, etc squared** MATHEMATICS 2/3/4, etc multiplied by itself *Four squared is sixteen.*
square off *phrasal verb US* to prepare to fight, compete, or argue with someone *The two teams will square off in the finals next Saturday.*
square up *phrasal verb UK* **1** FIGHT to prepare to fight, compete, or argue with someone *The players squared up to each other and started shouting.* **2** PAY *informal* to pay someone the money that you owe them *If you pay for it now, I'll* ***square up with*** *you later.*
square with sth *phrasal verb* to match or to agree with something *Her story doesn't quite square with the evidence.*

squarely /ˈskweəli/ *adverb* directly *I looked him squarely in the eye.* ○ *The report put the blame squarely on the police.*

ˌsquare ˈroot *noun* **the square root of 16/64/144, etc** MATHEMATICS the number you multiply by itself to get 16/64/144, etc *The square root of 144 is 12.*

squash¹ /skwɒʃ/ *noun* **1** SPORT [U] a sport in which two people hit a small rubber ball against the four walls of a room *a game of squash* ○ *a squash court/racket* **2 it's a squash** *UK* used to say that there are too many people or things in a small space *We managed to get in but it was a squash.* **3** FOOD [U] *UK* a sweet drink that tastes like fruit **4** FOOD [C, U] a fruit with hard skin, a soft inside, and large seeds, that you cook and eat as a vegetable

squash² /skwɒʃ/ *verb* **1** CRUSH [T] to crush something into a flat shape *I stepped on a spider and squashed it.* **2** PUSH [I, T] to push someone or something into a small space [**often passive**] *The kids were all* ***squashed into*** *the back seat.*

squat¹ /skwɒt/ *verb* [I] **squatting**, *past* **squatted 1** SIT (*also* **squat down**) to bend your legs so that you are sitting with your bottom very close to the ground *He squatted down beside me.* **2** LIVE to live in an empty building without the owner's permission

squat² /skwɒt/ *adjective* short and wide *a squat little man*

squat³ /skwɒt/ *noun* [C] a building that people are living in without the owner's permission

squatter /ˈskwɒtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who lives in a building without the owner's permission

squawk /skwɔːk/ *verb* [I] If a bird squawks, it makes a loud, unpleasant noise. ●**squawk** *noun* [C]

squeak /skwiːk/ *verb* [I] to make a short, high sound *His shoes squeaked loudly as he walked.* ●**squeak** *noun* [C]

squeaky /ˈskwiːki/ *adjective* **1** making short, high sounds *a* ***squeaky voice*** **2 squeaky clean** very clean

squeal /skwiːl/ *verb* [I] to make a loud, high sound, often because of fear or excitement *She* ***squealed with*** *delight.* ●**squeal** *noun* [C] *squeals of laughter*

squeamish /ˈskwiːmɪʃ/ *adjective* If you are squeamish about something such as blood, you find it very unpleasant and it makes you feel ill.

O-key **squeeze¹** /skwiːz/ *verb* **1** [T] to press something firmly *She squeezed his hand and said goodbye.* **2 squeeze into/through/past, etc** to move somewhere where there is very little space *She squeezed through a narrow gap in the wall.* **3 squeeze a lemon/orange, etc** FOOD to press a lemon/orange, etc to get juice from it ***freshly squeezed** orange juice*
squeeze sth/sb in *phrasal verb* to manage to do something or see someone when you are very busy *The doctor will try to squeeze you in this afternoon.*

squeeze² /skwiːz/ *noun* **1** [C] when you press something firmly *He **gave** her hand a little **squeeze**.* **2 it's a squeeze** used to say that there are too many people or things in a small space *We all got in, but it was a **tight squeeze**.* **3 a squeeze of lemon/orange, etc** a small amount of juice from a lemon/orange, etc

squid /skwɪd/ *noun* [C] *plural* **squid** a sea creature with a long body and ten long arms

squiggle /ˈskwɪgl/ *noun* [C] *informal* a short, curly line *Her signature just looks like a squiggle.*

squint /skwɪnt/ *verb* [I] to look at something with your eyes partly closed *She was **squinting at** her computer screen.*

squirm /skwɜːm/ *verb* [I] to twist your body because you are embarrassed, nervous, etc

squirrel /ˈskwɪrᵊl/ (US) /ˈskwɜːrᵊl/ *noun* [C] a small animal with a big, fur tail that climbs O-key trees and eats nuts

squirt /skwɜːt/ *verb* **1** [I, T] If liquid squirts, it comes out suddenly and with force, and if you squirt liquid, you make it come out suddenly and with force. *Water **squirted out** all over the floor.* **2 squirt sb with sth** to hit someone with a liquid

Sr (*also UK* **Snr**) *written abbreviation for* senior (= the older of two men in a family with the same name) *Joseph Kennedy, Sr.*

St **1** *written abbreviation for* street (= a road in a town or city that has houses or other buildings) *42 Oxford St* **2** RELIGION *written abbreviation for* saint (= a dead person who has been officially respected by the Christian Church for living their life in a holy way) *St Patrick*

stab¹ /stæb/ *verb* [T] **stabbing**, *past* **stabbed** to push a knife into someone *He was stabbed several times in the chest.*

stab² /stæb/ *noun* [C] **1** the act of pushing a knife into someone *He had a deep **stab wound** in his neck.* **2 a stab of guilt/jealousy/regret, etc** a sudden, unpleasant emotion *She felt a stab of guilt.* **3 have a stab at sth/doing sth** *informal* to try to do something, or to try an activity that you have not done before *She had a stab at solving the problem.*

stabbing /ˈstæbɪŋ/ *noun* [C] when someone stabs someone *Where were you on the night of the stabbing? US ○ a stabbing death*

ˈstabbing ˌpain *noun* [C] HEALTH a sudden, strong pain

stability /stəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] when something is not likely to change or move ***political/financial stability*** ➲Opposite **instability**

stabilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsteɪbᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] If you stabilize something, or if something stabilizes, it stops changing or moving. *The economy has finally stabilized.* ●**stabilization** /ˌsteɪbᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

stable¹ /ˈsteɪbl/ *adjective* **1** SITUATION not likely to change or end suddenly *a stable relationship ○ The doctor said his **condition** was **stable**.* **2** OBJECT fixed or safe and not likely to move *Be careful! That chair isn't very stable.* **3** PERSON mentally calm and not easily upset ➲Opposite **unstable**

stable² /ˈsteɪbl/ *noun* [C] a building where horses are kept

stack¹ /stæk/ *noun* [C] **1** a tidy pile of things *a stack of books/CDs* **2 stacks of sth** *informal* a lot of something *There are stacks of studies linking salt to high blood pressure.*

stack² /stæk/ (*also* **stack up**) *verb* [T] to arrange things in a tidy pile *Can you help me **stack** these **chairs**?*

stadium /ˈsteɪdiəm/ *noun* [C] SPORT a large, open area with seats around it, used for playing and watching sports *a football/baseball stadium*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***staff***

administrative/experienced/extra/full-time/senior staff ● **employ/lay off/train** staff ● **join** the staff ● **on** the staff

O-key **staff¹** /stɑːf/ *noun* [**group**] the people who work for an organization *The company has a staff of over 500 employees. ○ Please talk to a **member of staff**.*

staff² /stɑːf/ *verb* [T] to provide workers for an organization [**often passive**] *The charity was staffed by volunteers.*

stag /stæg/ *noun* [C] a male deer

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stage***

reach a stage ● **at** [one/some/this/that] stage ● the **closing/early/final** stages ● a stage **in/of** sth

O-key **stage¹** /steɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** TIME [C] a period of development, or a particular time in a process *an **early stage** in his career ○ Our project is in its **final stages**. ○ I'm not prepared to comment **at this stage**.* **2** THEATRE [C] the raised area in a theatre where actors perform *He's **on stage** for most of the play.* **3 the stage** performances in theatres *He's written plays for television and the stage.* **4 set the stage for sth** to make something possible or likely to happen *The meeting set the stage for cooperation between the men.*

stage² /steɪdʒ/ *verb* **1** POLITICS **stage a demonstration/protest, etc** to organize and take part in a public meeting to complain about something **2 stage a concert/show, etc** to organize and produce a performance of music or a play, etc *They staged a free concert in Central Park.*

stagger /ˈstægəʳ/ *verb* **1** MOVE [I] to walk as if you might fall *He staggered drunkenly towards the door.* **2** ARRANGE [T] to arrange events so that

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they do not happen at the same time *We stagger our lunch breaks at work.*

staggered /ˈstægəd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] very shocked or surprised *I was staggered at the prices.*

staggering /ˈstægərɪŋ/ *adjective* very shocking and surprising *He earns a staggering amount of money.*

stagnant /ˈstægnənt/ *adjective* **1** NO FLOW Stagnant water or air does not flow and becomes dirty and smells unpleasant. *a stagnant pond* **2 ECONOMICS** A stagnant economy, society, or organization does not develop or grow.

stagnate /stægˈneɪt/ US /ˈstægneɪt/ *verb* [**I**] to stay the same and not grow or develop *He expects the economy to stagnate and unemployment to rise.* ●**stagnation** /stægˈneɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**U**]

ˈstag ˌnight *noun* [**C**] a night when a group of men go out just before one of them gets married ➲Compare **hen night**

staid /steɪd/ *adjective* serious and old-fashioned *a staid, middle-aged man*

stain¹ /steɪn/ *noun* **1** MARK [**C**] a dirty mark on something that is difficult to remove *a blood/grass stain* ○ *a stain on the carpet* **2** PAINT [**C, U**] a thin, clear paint that you put on wood to make it darker *wood stain*

stain² /steɪn/ *verb* **1** MARK [**I, T**] to leave a dirty mark on something which is difficult to remove, or to become dirty in this way *That wine I spilt has stained my shirt.* **2 DT** [**T**] to paint a wooden surface with a thin paint in order to change its colour *She stained the bookcase to match the desk.*

ˌstained ˈglass *noun* [**U**] **DT** coloured glass that is used to make pictures in windows *a stained-glass window*

stainless steel /ˌsteɪnləsˈstiːl/ *noun* [**U**] a type of steel (= strong metal) that is not damaged by water

stair /steər/ *noun* [**C**] one of the steps in a set of steps

staircase /ˈsteəkeɪs/ *noun* [**C**] a set of stairs and the structure around them *a spiral staircase*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stairs***

climb/fall down/go down/go up the stairs ● the **bottom of/foot of** the stairs ● the **head of/top of** the stairs ● **on** the stairs ● a **flight of** stairs

stairs /steəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a set of steps from one level in a building to another *to **climb** the **stairs*** ○ *a **flight*** (= set) ***of** stairs*

stairway /ˈsteəweɪ/ *noun* [**C**] a set of stairs and the structure around them

stake¹ /steɪk/ *noun* **1 be at stake** If something is at stake, it is in a situation where it might be lost or damaged. *We have to act quickly - people's lives are at stake.* **2 FINANCE** [**C**] a part of a business that you own, or an amount of money that you have invested in a business *He has a 30 percent **stake in** the company.* **3** [**C**] a strong stick with a pointed end that you push into the ground *a wooden stake*

stake² /steɪk/ *verb* **stake a/your claim** to say that you want something and that you should have it
stake sth on sth *phrasal verb* to risk something on the result of a competition or situation *He has staked his reputation on the film's success.*
stake sth out *phrasal verb* to watch a place in order to catch criminals or to see a famous person *The police are staking out the house where the terrorists are hiding.*

stakeholder /ˈsteɪkˌhəʊldər/ *noun* [**C**] **FINANCE** a person or group of people who own a share in a business

stakes /steɪks/ *noun* [**plural**] money or other advantages that you may get or lose in a competition or situation *People get very competitive because the **stakes** are so **high**.*

stalactite /ˈstæləktaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOLOGY** a column of rock that hangs from the roof of a cave

stalagmite /ˈstæləgmaɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **GEOLOGY** a column of rock which rises from the floor of a cave

stale /steɪl/ *adjective* **1 FOOD** old and not fresh *stale bread* ○ *Cake **goes stale** quickly if it's not covered.* **2** boring or bored, and not producing or feeling excitement or enthusiasm like before *I'd been too long in the same job and was getting stale.*

stalemate /ˈsteɪlmeɪt/ *noun* [**C, U**] a situation in which neither side in an argument can win *The talks **ended in** a **stalemate**.*

stalk¹ /stɔːk/ *verb* **1** [**T**] to follow a person or animal closely and secretly, often to try to catch or attack them *She claimed that the man had been stalking her for a month.* **2 stalk out/off, etc** to walk in an angry or proud way *She stalked out of the restaurant.*

stalk² /stɔːk/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** the main stem of a plant

stalker /ˈstɔːkər/ *noun* [**C**] someone who follows a person or animal closely and secretly, often to try to catch or attack them

stall¹ /stɔːl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SHOP *mainly UK* a small shop with an open front or a table from which goods are sold *a **market stall*** **2** ROOM *US* a small area in a room for washing or using the toilet *a shower stall*

stall² /stɔːl/ *verb* **1** ENGINE [**I, T**] If an engine stalls, or if you stall it, it stops working suddenly. *The car stalled when I stopped at the traffic lights.* **2** STOP [**I**] to stop making progress *The peace talks have stalled over the issue of nuclear weapons.* **3** MORE TIME [**T**] to intentionally make someone wait or make something happen later so that you have more time *She wanted an answer immediately, but I managed to stall her.*

stallion /ˈstæljən/ *noun* [**C**] an adult male horse

the stalls /stɔːlz/ *UK* (*US* **orchestra**) *noun* [**plural**] the seats on the main floor near the front of a theatre or cinema *a seat in the stalls*

stalwart /ˈstɔːlwət/ *noun* [**C**] someone who supports an organization, team, etc in a very loyal way ●**stalwart** *adjective*

stamen /ˈsteɪmən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the male part of a flower that produces pollen ➲See picture at **flower**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stamina***

have stamina ● **build up/improve/increase** stamina ● **mental/physical** stamina ● stamina **for** sth ● a **test of** stamina

stamina /ˈstæmɪnə/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** the physical or mental energy that allows you to do something for a long time *Marathon runners need a lot of stamina.*

stammer /ˈstæmər/ *verb* [I] to pause a lot and repeat sounds because of a speech problem or because you are nervous *He blushed and began to stammer.* ●**stammer** *noun* [C] *He has a stammer.*

O-key **stamp¹** /stæmp/ *noun* [C] **1** PAPER (*also* **postage stamp**) a small, official piece of paper that you buy and stick onto a letter or parcel before you post it **2** MARK a tool for putting a special ink mark on something, or the mark made by it *a stamp in a passport* **3 stamp of approval** official, public approval *The president has put his stamp of approval on the proposal.*

stamp² /stæmp/ *verb* **1** MARK [T] to make a mark on something with a tool that you put ink on and press down *She stamped the date on the invoice.* **2** FOOT [I, T] to put your foot down on the ground hard and quickly, often to show anger *"No!" she shouted, stamping her foot.* ➲See also: **rubber-stamp**
stamp sth out *phrasal verb* to get rid of something that is wrong or harmful *a campaign to stamp out racism*

stampede /stæmˈpiːd/ *noun* [C] when a large group of animals or people suddenly move in an uncontrolled way, often in the same direction *Gunfire caused a stampede in the marketplace.* ●**stampede** *verb* [I]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stance***

take a stance ● **change** your stance ● a **hard-line/tough** stance ● a stance **against** sb/sth ● sb's stance **on** sth

stance /stæns/ *noun* [C] **1** OPINION an opinion or belief about something, especially if you say it in public [**usually singular**] *What's their **stance on** nuclear energy?* ○ *They are **taking** a very tough **stance against** drugs.* **2** STAND *formal* the way that someone stands [**usually singular**] *an awkward stance*

O-key **stand¹** /stænd/ *verb past* **stood 1** ON FEET [I] to be in a vertical position on your feet *We'd been standing for hours.* **2** RISE [I] (*also* **stand up**) to rise to a vertical position on your feet from sitting or lying down *I get dizzy if I stand up too quickly.* ○ *Please stand when the bride arrives.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **3 stand in line** *US* (*UK* **queue**) to wait for something as part of a line of people *We stood in line all afternoon.* **4 stand (sth) in/against/by, etc sth** to be in or to put something in a particular place or position *His walking stick stood by the door.* ○ *You'll have to stand the sofa on its end to get it through the door.* **5 can't stand sb/sth** *informal* to hate someone or something *I can't stand him.* [+ **doing sth**] *She can't stand doing housework.* **6** ACCEPT [T] to be able to accept or deal with a difficult situation *She couldn't stand the pressures of the job.* **7 stand at sth** to be at a particular level, amount, height, etc *Inflation currently stands at 3 percent.* **8 where you stand on sth** what your opinion is about something *We asked the senator where she stood on gun control.* **9 where you stand (with sb)** what someone thinks about you, how they expect you to behave, and how they are likely to behave *She said she will never leave her husband, so now at least I know where I stand.* **10** OFFER [I] If an offer still stands, it still exists. *You're welcome to visit any time - my invitation still stands.* **11 as it stands** as something is now, without changes in it *The law as it stands is very unclear.* **12 stand trial** If someone stands trial, they appear in a law court where people decide if they are guilty of a crime. *to stand trial for murder* **13 stand to gain/lose sth** to be in a situation where you can get/lose money or an advantage *He stands to gain a fortune if the company is sold.* **14 POLITICS** [I] *UK* (*US* **run**) to compete in an election for an official position *to stand for office* ➲See also: stand your **ground¹**, not have a **leg** to stand on, it stands to **reason¹**, stand on your own two feet (**foot¹**), stand sb in good **stead**
stand about/around *phrasal verb* to spend time standing somewhere and doing very little *They stood around waiting for the store to open.*
stand aside *phrasal verb* to leave a job or position so that someone else can do it instead
stand back *phrasal verb* to move a short distance away from something or someone *Stand back while I light the fire.*
stand by *phrasal verb* **1** BE READY to be ready to do something or to help *Doctors were standing by to treat the injured passengers.* **2** DO NOTHING to do nothing to prevent something unpleasant from happening *We can't stand by while millions of people starve.*
stand by sb *phrasal verb* to continue to support someone when they are in a difficult situation *She stood by him throughout his troubled career.*
stand by sth *phrasal verb* If you stand by an agreement, decision, etc, you do not change it. *The government stood by its promise to improve education.*
stand down *phrasal verb UK* to leave a job or position so that someone else can do it instead *He stood down as party leader.*
stand for sth *phrasal verb* **1** LETTER If a letter stands for a word, it is used to represent it. *UFO stands for 'unidentified flying object'.* **2** SUPPORT If a group of people stand for a set of ideas, they support those ideas. *The party stands for low taxes and individual freedom.* **3 not stand for sth** If you will not stand for something, you will not accept a situation or someone's behaviour. *He can't speak to me like that - I won't stand for it!*
stand in *phrasal verb* to do something that someone else was going to do because they cannot be there *She **stood in for** me when I was sick.*
stand out *phrasal verb* **1** NOTICE to be very easy to see or notice *The bright blue letters really stand out on the page.* **2** BETTER to be better than other similar things or people *His application **stood out from** all the rest.*

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➲See also: stick/stand out like a sore **thumb**[1]
stand up *phrasal verb* If an idea or some information stands up, it is proved to be correct. **stand sb up** *phrasal verb* to fail to meet someone when you said you would *He's stood me up twice now.*
stand up for sth/sb *phrasal verb* to support an idea or a person who is being criticized [**often reflexive**] *Never be afraid to stand up for yourself.*

stand[2] /stænd/ *noun* **1** SHOP [**C**] a small shop with an open front or a table from which goods are sold *a hot dog stand* ○ *Visit our stand at the trade fair.* **2** **SPORT** [**C**] *UK* (*US* **stands**) a structure in a sports ground where people can stand or sit to watch an event **3** FURNITURE [**C**] a piece of furniture for holding things *a music/hat stand* **4 the (witness) stand** **LAW** (*UK also* **the dock**) the place in a law court where people sit or stand when they are being asked questions *The judge asked her to* ***take the stand*** (= go into the witness stand). **5** OPINION [**C**] an opinion or belief about something, especially if you say it in public [**usually singular**] *What's the President's* ***stand on*** *gun control?* **6 take a stand** to express your opinion about something publicly *He refuses to take a stand on this issue.* **7 make a stand** to publicly defend something or stop something from happening

standalone /ˈstændəˌləʊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **COMPUTING** a standalone computer can operate without any other equipment or programs

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***standard***

come up to standard ● **below/(not) up to** standard ● **set** standards ● **comply with/conform to/meet** standards ● **exacting/high/low/rigorous** standards ● standards **of** sth

standard[1] /ˈstændəd/ *noun* [**C**] **1** QUALITY a level of quality, especially a level that is acceptable *a* ***high standard*** *of service* ○ *low* ***safety standards*** ○ *His work was* ***below standard*** (= not acceptable). ○ *She* ***sets*** *very high* ***standards*** *for herself.* **2** BEHAVIOUR a level of behaviour, especially a level that is acceptable [**usually plural**] *high moral standards* ➲See also: **double standard**

standard[2] /ˈstændəd/ *adjective* usual and not special ***standard procedure/practice***

ˈstandard ˌform *noun* [**U**] **MATHEMATICS** (*also* **standard index form**) a way of writing a very large number with one number before the decimal point, multiplied by a power of 10. For example, 280,000 is 2.8 x 10^5

standardize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈstændədaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to change things so that they are all the same *I wish someone would standardize clothing sizes.* ●**standardization** /ˌstændədaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [**U**] *the standardization of computer terms*

ˌstandard of ˈliving *noun* [**C**] *plural* **standards of living** **SOCIETY, ECONOMICS** how much money and comfort someone has *a high standard of living*

standby /ˈstændbaɪ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **standbys** **1** someone or something extra that is ready to be used if needed *We kept our old TV as a standby in case the new one broke.* **2 be on standby** to be ready to do something or to be used if needed *Police were on standby in case there was any trouble after the game.*

stand-in /ˈstændɪn/ *noun* [**C**] someone who does what another person was going to do because the other person cannot be there

standing[1] /ˈstændɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] Your standing is the opinion that other people have of you. *Last week's speech has improved the Prime Minister's standing in the polls.*

standing[2] /ˈstændɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** permanent and not only created when necessary *a standing committee* ○ *He has a* ***standing invitation*** *to stay at our house.* **2 a standing joke** a situation that a group of people often make jokes about *The poor quality of his work has become a standing joke in the office.* ➲See also: **long-standing**

ˌstanding ˈorder *noun* [**C**] *UK* **FINANCE** an instruction to a bank to pay someone a fixed amount of money at regular times from your account

ˌstanding oˈvation *noun* [**C**] when people stand while clapping to show that they have enjoyed a performance very much *She* ***got a standing ovation*** *for her speech.*

stand-off *UK* (*US* **standoff**) /ˈstændɒf/ *noun* [**C**] when an argument or fight stops for a period of time because no one can win or get an advantage

standpoint /ˈstændpɔɪnt/ *noun* [**C**] a particular way of thinking about a situation or problem *to look at something* ***from*** *a political/religious* ***standpoint***

standstill /ˈstændstɪl/ *noun* [**no plural**] a situation in which all movement or activity has stopped *The traffic* ***came to a standstill*** *in the thick fog.*

stand-up /ˈstændʌp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A stand-up comedian is someone who stands in front of a group of people and tells jokes as a performance. ***stand-up comedy***

stank /stæŋk/ *past tense of* stink

stanza /ˈstænzə/ *noun* [**C**] **LITERATURE** a group of lines of poetry

stapes /ˈsteɪpiːz/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] *plural* **stapes** **ANATOMY** one of three very small bones that carry sound into the inner ear ➲Compare **incus, malleus**

staple[1] /ˈsteɪpl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A staple food, product, etc is basic and very important. *a* ***staple diet*** *of rice and fish*

staple[2] /ˈsteɪpl/ *noun* [**C**] a small piece of wire that you put through pieces of paper to join them together ●**staple** *verb* [**T**] to join pieces of paper together with staples

stapler /ˈsteɪplə/ *noun* [**C**] a piece of equipment used for putting staples through paper

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***star***

become/make sb a star ● a **big** star ● a **pop** star

star[1] /stɑː/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **ASTRONOMY** a ball of burning gases that you see as a small point of light in the sky at night **2** FAMOUS PERSON a famous singer, actor, sports person, etc *a* ***pop star*** **3** BEST PERSON someone in a group of

people who is the best at doing something *Baggio is one of our **star players**.* **4** SHAPE a shape that has five or more points ➲See picture at **shape** **5 two-star/three-star, etc** used to show how good a restaurant or hotel is *a five-star hotel* **6 sb's stars/the stars** *UK informal* something you read that tells you what will happen to you based on the position of the stars in the sky *My stars said it would be a good month for romance.* ➲See also: **co-star, film star, rock star**

star² /stɑːʳ/ *verb* [**I, T**] **starring**, *past* **starred** If a film, play, etc stars someone, or if someone stars in a film, play, etc, they are the main person in it. *a film starring Meg Ryan ○ Tom Hanks **starred in** 'Sleepless in Seattle'.* ➲See also: **co-star**

starboard /ˈstɑːbəd/ *noun* [**U**] the right side of a ship or aircraft

starch /stɑːtʃ/ *noun* **1** CHEMISTRY, FOOD [**C, U**] a substance in foods such as rice, bread, and potatoes **2** [**U**] a substance used to make cloth stiff ●**starchy** *adjective* containing a lot of starch

stardom /ˈstɑːdəm/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is very famous for acting, singing, etc

stare /steəʳ/ *verb* [**I**] to look at someone or something for a long time and not move your eyes *Sean was **staring at** me.* ●**stare** *noun* [**C**]

stark¹ /stɑːk/ *adjective* **1** CLEAR unpleasantly clear and obvious *His death is a **stark warning** to other people about the dangers of drugs.* **2 stark difference/contrast** a total difference *Jerry is very lazy, in stark contrast to his sister who works very hard.* **3** PLAIN with a very plain and simple appearance and not very attractive *a stark, snowy landscape* ●**starkly** *adverb*

stark² /stɑːk/ *adverb* **stark naked** wearing no clothes

starry /ˈstɑːri/ *adjective* A starry sky or night is one in which you can see a lot of stars.

ˈstar ˌsign *UK* (*US* **sign**) *noun* [**C**] one of the twelve signs that are based on star positions when you are born, which some people believe shows what type of person you are *"What star sign are you?" "I'm Capricorn."*

start¹ /stɑːt/ *verb* **1** BEGIN DOING [**I, T**] to begin doing something [**+ doing sth**] *He started smoking when he was eighteen.* [**+ to do sth**] *Maria started to laugh. ○ We start work at nine o'clock.* **2** BEGIN HAPPENING [**I, T**] to begin to happen or to make something begin to happen *The programme starts at seven o'clock. ○ Police believe the fire started in the kitchen.* **3** BUSINESS [**I, T**] (*also* **start up**) If a business, organization, etc starts, it begins to exist, and if you start it, you make it begin to exist. *She started her own computer business. ○ A lot of new restaurants have started up in the area.* **4** CAR [**I, T**] (*also* **start up**) If a car or engine starts, it begins to work, and if you start it, you make it begin to work. *The car won't start. ○ Start up the engine.* **5 to start with a** SITUATION used to talk about what a situation was like at the beginning before it changed *I was happy at school to start with, but later I hated it.* **b** LIST used before saying the first thing in a list of things *To start with, we need better computers. Then we need more training.* **6** MOVE SUDDENLY [**I**] to move suddenly because you are frightened or surprised ➲See also: set/start the **ball** rolling, get/start off on the wrong **foot**¹
start (sth) off *phrasal verb* to begin by doing something, or to make something begin by doing something *She started off the meeting with the monthly sales report.*
start on sth *phrasal verb* to begin doing something *Have you started on your homework yet?*
start out *phrasal verb* to begin your life or the part of your life when you work, in a particular way *My dad started out as a sales assistant in a shop.*
start over *phrasal verb US* to begin something again *If you make a mistake, you'll have to start over.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***start***

at the start ● **from** the start ● the start **of** sth

start² /stɑːt/ *noun* **1** BEGINNING [**C**] the beginning of something [**usually singular**] *Our teacher checks who is in class **at the start of** each day. ○ Ivan has been involved in the project **from the start**. ○ The meeting **got off to a bad start*** (= began badly). **2 make a start** *mainly UK* to begin doing something *I'll **make a start on** the washing-up.* **3 for a start** *UK* used when you are giving the first in a list of reasons or things *I won't be going - I've got too much homework for a start.* **4** ADVANTAGE [**C**] an advantage that you have over someone else when you begin something [**usually singular**] *I'm grateful for the start I had in life.* **5 the start** SPORT the place where a race begins **6** SUDDEN MOVEMENT [**no plural**] a sudden movement that you make because you are frightened or surprised *Kate sat up **with a start**.* ➲See also: **false start**

starter /ˈstɑːtəʳ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [**C**] *UK* (*US* **appetizer**) something that you eat as the first part of a meal **2** SPORT [**C**] *US* in sports, a member of a team who is involved in a competition from the beginning *At only 20, he's the team's youngest starter.* **3 for starters** *informal* used to say that something is the first in a list of things *Try this exercise for starters.* ➲See also: **non-starter**

starting-point /ˈstɑːtɪŋˌpɔɪnt/ *noun* [**C**] an idea, subject, etc that you use to begin a discussion or process

startle /ˈstɑːtl/ *verb* [**T**] to suddenly surprise or frighten someone *The sound startled me.* ●**startled** *adjective a **startled expression***

startling /ˈstɑːtlɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel very surprised *startling news*

start-up /ˈstɑːtʌp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] ECONOMICS, FINANCE relating to starting a business ***start-up costs***

starve /stɑːv/ *verb* [**I, T**] HEALTH to become ill or die because you do not have enough food, or to make someone ill or die because they do not have enough food *Many people have **starved to death** in parts of Africa.* ●**starvation** /stɑːˈveɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] *Children were dying of starvation.*

starved /stɑːvd/ *adjective* **1 be starved of sth** *UK* (*US* **be starved for sth**) to not have enough of something that you need very much *a child starved of love* **2** *mainly US informal* very hungry

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starving /ˈstɑːvɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH dying because there is not enough food *starving people* **2** *informal* very hungry *I'm absolutely starving.*

stash¹ /stæʃ/ (*also* **stash away**) *verb* [T] *informal* to keep a lot of something in a safe, secret place *His money was stashed away in a cupboard.*

stash² /stæʃ/ *noun* [C] *informal* a lot of something that you keep in a safe, secret place *He had a stash of whisky under the bed.*

state¹ /steɪt/ *noun* **1** CONDITION [C] the condition that something or someone is in *the state of the economy* ○ *The building is in a terrible state.* **2 in/into a state** *informal* very upset or nervous *Ben was in a real state before the exam.* **3** GEOGRAPHY [C] (*also* **State**) one of the parts that some countries such as the US are divided into *Washington State* ○ *Alaska is the largest state in the US.* **4** GEOGRAPHY, POLITICS [C] a country *a union of European states* ➲See Common Learner Error at **country** **5 the state** POLITICS the government of a country *financial help from the state* **6** POLITICS **state visit/occasion, etc** an important visit/occasion, etc involving the leader of a government **7 the States** the United States of America ➲See also: **police state, welfare state**

state² /steɪt/ *verb* [T] to officially say or write something [+ **(that)**] *Two medical reports stated that he was mentally ill.*

stately /ˈsteɪtli/ *adjective* formal and slow *a **stately procession** through the streets*

ˌstately ˈhome *noun* [C] a big, old house in the countryside that people pay to visit in Britain

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***statement***

issue/make/prepare/release a statement ● a **false/joint/public/sworn** statement ● a statement **about/on** sth

statement /ˈsteɪtmənt/ *noun* [C] **1** something that someone says or writes officially *The pop star is expected to **make a statement** about his involvement with drugs.* **2** FINANCE (*also* **bank statement**) a piece of paper that shows how much money you have put into your bank account and how much you have taken out

ˌstatement of acˈcount *noun* [C] FINANCE a document that a business sends to regular customers that is a record of what they have bought and how much they owe

ˌstate of aˈffairs *noun* [**no plural**] a situation *a sad state of affairs*

ˌstate of ˈmind *noun* [C] *plural* **states of mind** how you are feeling at a particular time *to be in a positive state of mind*

state-of-the-art /ˌsteɪtəvðiˈɑːt/ *adjective* using the newest ideas, designs, and materials *a computer system that uses **state-of-the-art technology***

ˌstate ˈschool *UK* (*US* **public school**) *noun* [C] EDUCATION a school that is free to go to because the government provides the money for it

statesman /ˈsteɪtsmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **statesmen** POLITICS an important politician, especially one who people respect

static¹ /ˈstætɪk/ *adjective* not moving or changing *The number of students on the course has remained static.*

static² /ˈstætɪk/ *noun* [U] **1** PHYSICS (*also* **ˌstatic electˈricity**) electricity that you get when two surfaces rub together **2** NOISE noise on a radio or television that is caused by electricity in the air

station¹ /ˈsteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** TRAINS a building where trains stop so that you can get on or off them *Dad met me at the station.* **2 bus station** (*also UK* **coach station**) a building where a bus starts or ends its journey **3** SERVICE a building where a particular service is based *(UK) a petrol station/ (US) a gas station* **4** RADIO/TV a company that broadcasts television or radio programmes *a classical music station* ➲See also: **filling station, fire station, police station, polling station, power station, service station**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

station or **stop?**

Station is used for trains.

the train/railway station

the underground/tube station

Stop or **bus stop** is used for buses.

I stood at the bus stop for over half an hour.

Get off at the third stop.

A **bus station** is a place where many buses start or end their journeys.

station² /ˈsteɪʃᵊn/ *verb* **be stationed at/in, etc** If someone such as a soldier is stationed somewhere, they are sent there to work for a period of time. *US soldiers stationed in Germany*

stationary /ˈsteɪʃᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* not moving *stationary cars*

stationer's /ˈsteɪʃənəz/ *noun* [C] *UK* a shop where you can buy pens, paper, and other things for writing

stationery /ˈsteɪʃᵊnᵊri/ *noun* [U] things that you use for writing, such as pens and paper

ˈstation ˌwagon *US* (*UK* **estate car**) *noun* [C] a big car with a large space for bags behind the back seat

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***statistic***

collect/gather statistics ● statistics **confirm/indicate/reveal/show** sth ● **according to** statistics ● statistics **on** sth

statistic /stəˈtɪstɪk/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a fact in the form of a number that shows information about something [**usually plural**] ***Statistics show** that skin cancer is becoming more common.* ●**statistical** *adjective* relating to statistics ***statistical evidence*** ●**statistically** *adverb*

statistics /stəˈtɪstɪks/ *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS the subject that involves collecting and studying numbers to show information about something

statue /ˈstætʃuː/ *noun* [C] ART a model that looks like a person or animal, usually made from stone or metal

stature /ˈstætʃəʳ/ *noun* [U] *formal* **1** IMPORTANCE the importance that someone has because of

their work *a scientist of international stature* **2** HEIGHT your height *a man of small stature*

status /ˈsteɪtəs/ *noun* [U] **1** SOCIETY the position that you have in relation to other people because of your job or social position *The pay and status of nurses has improved.* **2** LAW the legal position of someone or something *What's your **marital status*** (= are you married or not)*?*

the status quo /ˌsteɪtəsˈkwəʊ/ *noun formal* the situation that exists now, without any changes *They only want to **maintain** the **status quo**.*

ˈ**status** ˌ**symbol** *noun* [C] something that someone owns that shows they have a high position in society

statute /ˈstætʃuːt/ *noun* [C] *formal* LAW a law or rule

statutory /ˈstætjətᵊri/ *adjective formal* LAW decided or controlled by law *a statutory minimum wage*

staunch /stɔːnʃ/ *adjective* [always before noun] very loyal in your support for someone or your belief in something *a **staunch supporter** of the Communist party*

stave /steɪv/ *verb*
stave sth off *phrasal verb* to stop something bad from happening now although it may happen later *He had a bar of chocolate to **stave off** his **hunger**.*

O-key **stay¹** /steɪ/ *verb* **1** NOT LEAVE [I] to continue to be in a place, job, etc and not leave *The weather was bad so we stayed at home.* ○ *Do you want to stay in teaching?* **2** IN A STATE [T] to continue to be in a particular state *The supermarket stays open late.* ○ *I was tired and couldn't stay awake.* **3** VISIT [I, T] to spend a short period of time in a place *We **stayed in** a hotel.* ○ *We're going to **stay with** my grandmother.* **4 stay put** *informal* to continue to be in the same place *He told me to stay put while he fetched the car.*
➲See Common Learner Error at **rest**
stay behind *phrasal verb* to not leave a place when other people leave *I stayed behind after class to speak to the teacher.*
stay in *phrasal verb* to stay in your home *Let's stay in tonight and watch a video.*
stay on *phrasal verb* to continue to be in a place, job, or school after other people have left *I stayed on an extra two years at school.*
stay out *phrasal verb* to not go home at night, or to go home late *He stayed out all night.*
stay out of sth *phrasal verb* to not become involved in an argument or discussion *It's better to stay out of their arguments.*
stay up *phrasal verb* to go to bed later than usual [+ **to do sth**] *She stayed up to watch a film.*

stay² /steɪ/ *noun* [C] a period of time that you spend in a place *Did you enjoy your stay in Tokyo?*

stead /sted/ *noun* **stand sb in good stead** to be useful to someone in the future *The course will stand you in good stead.*

steadfast /ˈstedfɑːst/ *adjective formal* refusing to change your beliefs or what you are doing *He is **steadfast in** his support for political change.* ●**steadfastly** *adverb*

steady¹ /ˈstedi/ *adjective* **1** GRADUAL happening at a gradual, regular rate ***steady** economic **growth*** ○ *He has had a **steady flow/stream** of visitors.* **2** STILL still and not shaking *You need steady hands to be a dentist.* ➲Opposite **unsteady** **3** NOT CHANGING not changing *She drove at a **steady speed**.* **4 steady job/work** a job that is likely to continue for a long time and pay you regular money ●**steadily** *adverb* ●**steadiness** *noun* [U]

steady² /ˈstedi/ *verb* **1** [T] to make something stop shaking or moving *He managed to steady the plane.* **2 steady yourself** to stop yourself from falling *She grabbed hold of the rail to steady herself.*

steak /steɪk/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a thick, flat piece of meat or fish *steak and chips*

O-key **steal** /stiːl/ *verb past tense* **stole**, *past participle* **stolen** **1** [I, T] LAW to take something that does not belong to you, without intending to return it *Burglars broke into the house and stole a computer.* ○ *stolen cars* **2 steal away/in/out, etc** to move somewhere quietly and secretly

stealth /stelθ/ *noun* [U] secret, quiet behaviour ●**stealthy** *adjective* behaving in a secret, quiet way ●**stealthily** *adverb*

O-key **steam¹** /stiːm/ *noun* **1** [U] PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY the gas that water produces when you heat it **2 let off steam** to get rid of your anger, excitement, etc by being noisy or using a lot of energy **3 run out of steam** to not have enough energy to finish doing something

steam² /stiːm/ *verb* **1** FOOD [T] to cook something using steam *steamed rice* **2** [I] to produce steam *a steaming bowl of soup*
steam (sth) up *phrasal verb* If glass steams up, or if you steam it up, it becomes covered in steam.

steamer /ˈstiːməʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD a pan used for cooking food using steam **2** BOAT a ship that uses steam power

steamy /ˈstiːmi/ *adjective* **1** WATER hot and full of steam *a steamy kitchen* **2** SEX sexually exciting *a steamy love story*

stearic acid /stiˌærɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a substance like wax that is used for making candles and for some medicines

steel¹ /stiːl/ *noun* [U] a very strong metal made from iron, used for making knives, machines, etc ➲See also: **stainless steel**

steel² /stiːl/ *verb* **steel yourself** to prepare yourself to do something difficult or unpleasant *He was steeling himself for an argument.*

ˌ**steel** ˈ**band** *noun* [C] MUSIC a group of musicians who play steel drums

ˌ**steel** ˈ**drum** *noun* [C] MUSIC large oil container which has been made into a musical instrument and is played like a drum

steely /ˈstiːli/ *adjective* [always before noun] very strong and determined *a **steely determination** to succeed*

O-key **steep¹** /stiːp/ *adjective* **1** SLOPE A steep slope, hill, etc goes up or down very quickly. *The **hill** was too **steep** to cycle up.* **2** CHANGE A steep increase or fall in something is very big and quick. *a **steep rise** in prices* **3** PRICE *informal*

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very expensive *Hotel prices are steep at $300 for a room.* ●**steeply** *adverb Food prices have* ***risen steeply.*** ●**steepness** *noun* [U]

steep² /stiːp/ *verb* **be steeped in sth** to have a lot of something around or to be strongly influenced by something *The town is steeped in history.*

steeple /ˈstiːpl/ *noun* [C] a church tower that has a point at the top

steer /stɪə^{r}/ *verb* **1** VEHICLE [I, T] to control the direction of a vehicle *I tried to steer the boat away from the bank.* **2** SITUATION [T] to influence the way a situation develops *I managed to* ***steer the conversation*** *away from my exam results.* **3 steer sb into/out of/towards, etc** to guide someone somewhere, especially by putting your hand on their back *He steered me towards the door.* ➲See also: steer **clear**³ of sb/sth

steering /ˈstɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the parts of a vehicle that control its direction

steering wheel *noun* [C] a wheel that you turn to control the direction of a vehicle ➲See colour picture **Car** at page Centre 7

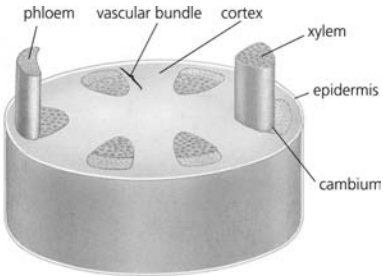

stem: transverse section

stem¹ /stem/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the long, thin part of a plant that the leaves and flowers grow on

stem² /stem/ *verb* [T] **stemming**, *past* **stemmed** to stop something from continuing or increasing *The new procedures are intended to* ***stem the flow*** *of drugs into the country.*
stem from sth *phrasal verb* to develop as the result of something *Her problems stem from childhood.*

stem cell *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a cell, especially one taken from a person or animal in a very early stage of development, that can develop into any other type of cell

stench /stenʃ/ *noun* [C] a very unpleasant smell *the stench of rotten fruit*

stencil /ˈstensᵊl/ *noun* [C] **ART, DT** a piece of paper or plastic with patterns cut into it, that you use to paint patterns onto a surface ●**stencil** *verb* [I, T] *UK* **stencilling**, *past* **stencilled**, *US* **stenciling**, *past* **stenciled** to use a stencil to paint patterns onto a surface

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***step*** *(noun)*

take steps to do sth ● a **big/important/major** step ● the **first/next** step ● a step **towards** sth ● a step **in** (doing) sth

step¹ /step/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT one of the movements you make with your feet when you walk *She* ***took*** *a few* ***steps*** *forward and then started to speak.* **2** METHOD one of the things that you do to achieve something *This meeting is the* ***first step*** *towards a peace agreement.* ○ *The company has* ***taken steps*** *to improve its customer service.* **3** STAIR one of the surfaces that you walk on when you go up or down stairs **4 in step (with sb/sth)** having the same ideas, opinions, etc as other people *This time, Britain is in step with the rest of Europe.* **5 out of step (with sb/sth)** having different ideas, opinions, etc from other people *Her views are out of step with government policy.* **6 be one step ahead (of sb)** to have done something before someone else **7 watch your step a** WALKING used to tell someone to be careful about where they are walking **b** BEHAVIOUR to be careful about what you say and do

step² /step/ *verb* **stepping**, *past* **stepped 1 step back/forward/over, etc** to move somewhere by lifting your foot and putting it down in a different place *She stepped carefully over the dog.* **2 step on/in sth** to put your foot on or in something *I accidentally stepped on her foot.*
step down *phrasal verb* to leave an important job *He stepped down as manager of the Italian team.*
step in *phrasal verb* to become involved in a difficult situation in order to help [+ **to do sth**] *A Japanese bank stepped in to provide financial help.*
step sth up *phrasal verb* to increase what you are doing to try to achieve something *Police have stepped up their efforts to find the man.*

stepbrother /ˈstepˌbrʌðə^{r}/ *noun* [C] not your parent's son but the son of the person your parent has married

step-by-step /ˌstepbaɪˈstep/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A step-by-step method, plan, etc, deals with one thing and then another thing in a fixed order. *a* ***step-by-step guide*** *to buying a house*

step change *noun* [C] when a very big change happens *There is a step change taking place in communications technology.*

stepchild /ˈsteptʃaɪld/ *noun* [C] *plural* **stepchildren** the child of your husband or wife from an earlier marriage

stepdaughter /ˈstepˌdɔːtə^{r}/ *noun* [C] the daughter of your husband or wife from an earlier marriage

stepfather /ˈstepˌfɑːðə^{r}/ *noun* [C] the man who has married your mother but is not your father

stepmother /ˈstepˌmʌðə^{r}/ *noun* [C] the woman who has married your father but is not your mother

stepping-stone /ˈstepɪŋstəʊn/ *noun* [C] **1** METHOD an event or experience that helps you achieve something else *Education is a* ***stepping-stone to*** *a good job.* **2** STONE one of several stones that you walk on to cross a stream

stepsister /ˈstepˌsɪstə^{r}/ *noun* [C] not your parent's daughter but the daughter of the person your parent has married

stepson /ˈstepsʌn/ *noun* [C] the son of your husband or wife from an earlier marriage

stereo /ˈsteriəʊ/ *noun* **1** MUSIC [C] a piece of equipment for playing CDs, listening to the radio, etc that has two speakers (= parts where sound comes out) *a car stereo* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** SYSTEM [U] a system for hearing music, speech, etc through two speakers (= parts where sound comes out) *The concert was broadcast* ***in stereo***. ○ *stereo sound*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stereotype***

challenge/fit a stereotype ● a **negative** stereotype ● a stereotype **of** sth ● a **racial** stereotype

stereotype¹ /ˈsteriəʊtaɪp/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a fixed idea that people have about what a particular type of person is like, especially an idea that is wrong ***racial stereotypes*** ●**stereotypical** /ˌsteriəʊˈtɪpɪkᵊl/ *adjective* having the qualities that you expect a particular type of person to have *a stereotypical student*

stereotype² /ˈsteriəʊtaɪp/ *verb* [T] to have a fixed idea about what a particular type of person is like, especially an idea that is wrong [**often passive**] *Young people are often* ***stereotyped as*** *being lazy.*

sterile /ˈsteraɪl/ *adjective* **1** BIOLOGY, HEALTH completely clean and without any bacteria *a sterile needle* **2** BIOLOGY unable to produce children **3** not having enough new ideas *a sterile discussion* ●**sterility** /stəˈrɪləti/ *noun* [U]

sterilize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsterᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** BIOLOGY to make something clean and without bacteria *a sterilized needle* **2** HEALTH to perform a medical operation on someone to make them unable to have children ●**sterilization** /ˌsterᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

sterling /ˈstɜːlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ECONOMICS British money

stern¹ /stɜːn/ *adjective* very serious and without any humour *a* ***stern expression/face*** ○ *stern criticism* ●**sternly** *adverb*

stern² /stɜːn/ *noun* [C] the back part of a ship

sternum /ˈstɜːnəm/ *noun* [C] *plural* **sternums** or **sterna** ANATOMY the long, flat vertical bone in the centre of your chest; breastbone ➲See picture at **rib cage**

steroid /ˈsterɔɪd/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a drug for treating injuries that some people use illegally in sport to make their muscles stronger

stethoscope /ˈsteθəskəʊp/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a piece of equipment that a doctor uses to listen to your heart and breathing

stew /stjuː/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a dish made of vegetables and meat cooked together slowly in liquid *beef/lamb stew* ●**stew** *verb* [T] to cook food slowly in liquid *stewed fruit*

steward /ˈstjuːəd/ *noun* [C] **1** TRANSPORT a man who looks after people on an aircraft, boat, or train *an air steward* **2** EVENT someone who helps to organize a race or big event

stewardess /ˈstjuːədɪs/ *noun* [C] a woman who looks after people on an aircraft, boat, or train *an air stewardess*

sth *written abbreviation for* something ●**sth's** *written abbreviation for* something's

O-key **stick¹** /stɪk/ *verb past* **stuck 1** JOIN [I, T] to become joined to something else or to make something become joined to something else, usually with a substance like glue *Anne stuck a picture of her boyfriend on the wall.* ○ *The stamp wouldn't* ***stick to*** *the envelope.* **2 stick sth in/on/under, etc** *informal* to put something somewhere *Just stick your bag under the table.* **3 stick (sth) in/into/through, etc** If something sharp sticks into something, it goes into it, and if you stick something sharp somewhere, you push it into something. *She stuck the needle into his arm.* **4** NOT MOVE [I] to become fixed in one position and not be able to move *This drawer has stuck - I can't open it.* **5 can't stick sb/sth** *UK informal* to not like someone or something *I can't stick her.* ➲See also: stick to your guns (**gun¹**), poke/stick your **nose¹** into sth, stick/put your **oar** in

stick around *phrasal verb informal* to stay somewhere for a period of time *Stick around after the concert and you might meet the band.*

stick at sth *phrasal verb* to continue trying hard to do something difficult *I know it's hard learning to drive but stick at it.*

stick by sb *phrasal verb* to continue to support someone when they are having problems

stick out *phrasal verb* **1** COME OUT If part of something sticks out, it comes out further than the edge or surface. *His ears stick out a bit.* **2** NOTICEABLE to be very easy to notice *She certainly sticks out in a crowd.* ➲See also: stick/stand out like a sore **thumb¹**

stick sth out *phrasal verb* to make part of your body come forward from the rest of your body *The little boy stuck his tongue out.*

stick it out *phrasal verb informal* to continue doing something that is boring, difficult, or unpleasant

stick to sth *phrasal verb* to continue doing or using something and not change to anything else *I'll stick to lemonade - I'm driving.*

stick together *phrasal verb* If people stick together, they support and help each other.

stick up *phrasal verb* to point up above a surface and not lie flat *I can't go out with my hair sticking up like this.*

stick up for sb/sth *phrasal verb informal* to support someone or something when they are being criticized

stick with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to continue using someone or doing something and not change to anyone or anything else *He's a good builder - I think we should stick with him.*

O-key **stick²** /stɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** WOOD a long, thin piece of wood, usually broken or fallen from a tree **2 walking/hockey, etc stick** SPORT a long, thin piece of wood that you use when you are walking/playing hockey, etc **3** PIECE a long, thin piece of something *a stick of candy/celery* ➲See also: **carrot** and stick, get (hold of) the wrong **end¹** of the stick

sticker /ˈstɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of paper or plastic with writing or a picture on it that you stick onto a surface *a car sticker* ➲See also: **bumper sticker**

sticky /ˈstɪki/ *adjective* **1** LIKE GLUE made of or covered with a substance that can stick to

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other things ***sticky fingers*** ○ ***sticky tape*** **2** WEATHER Sticky weather is unpleasantly hot. **3 a sticky moment/problem/situation, etc** *informal* a moment/problem/situation, etc that is difficult or embarrasses you

stiff¹ /stɪf/ *adjective* **1** HARD hard and difficult to bend *stiff material* **2** NOT MOVING A door, drawer, etc that is stiff does not move as easily as it should. **3** **HEALTH** If a part of your body is stiff, it hurts and is difficult to move. *I've got a **stiff neck**.* **4** SEVERE very severe or difficult ***stiff competition/opposition*** ○ *We need **stiffer penalties** for drink driving.* **5** FORMAL behaving in a way that is formal and not relaxed **6** THICK A stiff substance is thick and does not move around easily. *Whip the cream until it is stiff.* **7 stiff drink/whisky/vodka, etc** **FOOD** a strong alcoholic drink *I need a stiff brandy.* **8 stiff wind/breeze** a wind that is quite strong ●**stiffly** *adverb* ●**stiffness** *noun* [U]

stiff² /stɪf/ *adverb* **bored/scared/worried, etc stiff** extremely bored, worried, etc *The lecture was awful - I was bored stiff.*

stiffen /ˈstɪfᵊn/ *verb* **1** BECOME STIFF [I, T] to become stiff or to make something become stiff **2** STOP MOVING [I] to suddenly stop moving because you are frightened or angry *She stiffened at the sound of the doorbell.*

stifle /ˈstaɪfl/ *verb* [T] to stop something from happening or continuing *to **stifle** a **sneeze/yawn*** ○ *Large supermarkets **stifle competition**.*

stifling /ˈstaɪflɪŋ/ *adjective* extremely hot *a stifling summer in Rome*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stigma***

sth **carries** a stigma ● the stigma **attached to/surrounding** sth ● sth **loses** its stigma ● a **social** stigma ● the stigma **of** (doing) sth

stigma /ˈstɪgmə/ *noun* **1** [C, U] **SOCIETY** when people disapprove of something, especially when this is unfair *There is still **a stigma attached** to being mentally ill.* **2** **BIOLOGY** [C] the top of the central female part of a flower, where pollen is received ➲See picture at **carpel** ➲See picture at **flower** ●**stigmatize** (*also UK* **-ise**) *verb* [T] to treat someone or something unfairly by disapproving of them [**often passive**] *Unmarried mothers are stigmatized by society.*

stiletto /stɪˈletəʊ/ *noun* [C] a shoe with a very high, pointed heel (= part at the bottom and back of a shoe) *a pair of stilettos*

still¹ /stɪl/ *adverb* **1** CONTINUING used to say that something is continuing to happen now or that someone is continuing to do something now *He's still here if you want to speak to him.* ○ *Do you still play basketball?* **2** POSSIBLE used to say that something continues to be possible *We could still catch the train if we leave now.* **3** EMPHASIS used to emphasize that you did not expect something to happen because something else makes it surprising *He didn't do much work but still came top of the class.* ○ *The weather was terrible. Still, we had a good holiday.* **4 better/harder/worse, etc still** better/harder/worse, etc than something else

still² /stɪl/ *adjective* **1 stand/stay/sit, etc still** to stand, stay, sit, etc without moving *Sit still so I can brush your hair.* **2** A still place is calm and quiet. *It was night and the whole village was still.* **3** **FOOD** *UK* A still drink does not have any bubbles in it. ●**stillness** *noun* [U]

still³ /stɪl/ *noun* [C] a photograph from one moment in a film

stillborn /ˌstɪlˈbɔːn/ US /ˈstɪlˌbɔːn/ *adjective* **HEALTH** born dead ***a stillborn baby***

stilt /stɪlt/ *noun* [C] **1** WALKING one of two long poles that you can stand on and use to walk above the ground [**usually plural**] *a clown on stilts* **2** BUILDING one of several poles that support a building above the ground [**usually plural**] *a house on stilts*

stilted /ˈstɪltɪd/ *adjective* talking or writing in a formal way that does not sound natural ***a stilted conversation***

stimulant /ˈstɪmjələnt/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a drug that makes you feel more active and awake *Coffee contains caffeine which is a stimulant.*

stimulate /ˈstɪmjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE HAPPEN to make something happen or develop more *It stimulates the production of red blood cells.* **2** EXCITED to make someone feel interested and excited *Colourful pictures can stimulate a child.* ●**stimulation** /ˌstɪmjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

stimulating /ˈstɪmjəleɪtɪŋ/ *adjective* interesting and making you think ***a stimulating discussion***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stimulus***

act as/provide a stimulus ● a stimulus **for/to** sth

stimulus /ˈstɪmjələs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **stimuli** /ˈstɪmjəlaɪ/ something that makes something else happen, grow, or develop more *The report **provided** the **stimulus** for more studies.*

sting¹ /stɪŋ/ *verb past* **stung** **1** **HEALTH** [T] If an insect, plant, etc stings you, it causes pain by putting poison into your skin. *He was stung by a wasp.* **2** **HEALTH** [I, T] If your eyes, skin, etc sting, or if something makes them sting, you feel a sudden, burning pain. *That shampoo really made my **eyes sting**.* **3** [T] to upset someone [**often passive**] *She was clearly stung by his criticism.*

sting² /stɪŋ/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [C] a painful wound that you get when an insect, plant, etc puts poison into your skin *a **wasp/bee sting*** **2** **HEALTH** [**no plural**] a sudden, burning pain in your eyes, skin, etc **3** [**no plural**] the feeling of being upset by something *the sting of defeat*

stingy /ˈstɪndʒi/ *adjective informal* not generous *He's too stingy to buy any drinks.*

stink¹ /stɪŋk/ *verb* [I] *past* **stank**, *also US* **stunk**, *past participle* **stunk** **1** SMELL to smell very bad *The kitchen **stinks of** fish.* **2** BAD *informal* to be very bad and dishonest *If you ask me, the whole affair stinks.*

stink² /stɪŋk/ *noun* **1 make/cause/create, etc a stink** *informal* to complain about something in a forceful way **2** [**no plural**] a very bad smell

stint /stɪnt/ *noun* [C] a period of time spent doing something *He had a two-year stint as a teacher in Spain.*

stipulate /ˈstɪpjəleɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say exactly what must be done [**+ (that)**] *The rules*

stipulate that smoking is not allowed. ●**stipulation** /ˌstɪpjəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C]

O-K**stir¹** /stɜːʳ/ *verb* **stirring**, *past* **stirred** **1** **FOOD** [T] to mix food or liquid by moving a spoon round and round in it ***Stir the mixture until it is smooth.*** **2** MOVE [I, T] to move slightly or make someone move slightly *The baby stirred in its sleep.* **3** FEEL [T] to make someone feel a strong emotion *The case has **stirred** great **anger** among the public.*
stir sth up *phrasal verb* **1** ARGUE to cause arguments or bad feelings between people, often intentionally *I think she just likes to **stir up trouble**.* **2** REMEMBER If something stirs up memories, it makes you remember events in the past. *The photographs **stirred up** some painful **memories**.*

stir² /stɜːʳ/ *noun* **1** **cause/create a stir** to make people excited or surprised *Her new book has caused quite a stir.* **2** **FOOD** [**no plural**] when you mix food or liquid with a spoon *Could you give the soup a stir?*

stir-fry /ˈstɜːˌfraɪ/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to fry small pieces of vegetable, meat, etc very quickly while mixing them around ●**stir-fry** *noun* [C]

stirring /ˈstɜːrɪŋ/ *adjective* making people feel excitement or other strong emotions *a **stirring** performance/**speech***

stirrup /ˈstɪrəp/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** one of the two metal parts that support your feet when you are riding a horse

stitch¹ /stɪtʃ/ *noun* **1** **DT** [C] a short line of thread that is sewn through a piece of material **2** **HEALTH** [C] one of the small pieces of thread that is used to sew together a cut *She needed 50 stitches in her head.* **3** **DT** [C] one of the small circles of wool that you make when you are knitting (= making something from wool) **4** **HEALTH** [**no plural**] a sudden pain that you get in the side of your body when you exercise too much *to get a stitch* **5** **in stitches** laughing a lot *He had the whole audience in stitches.*

stitch² /stɪtʃ/ *verb* [I, T] **DT** to sew two things together or to repair something by sewing *I need to get my shoes stitched.*
stitch sth up *phrasal verb* to sew together the two parts of something that have come apart *The nurse stitched up my finger.*

stock¹ /stɒk/ *noun* **1** SHOP [U] all the goods that are available in a shop *We're expecting some new stock in this afternoon.* **2** **be in stock/out of stock** to be available/not available in a shop **3** SUPPLY [C] a supply of something that is ready to be used [**usually plural**] *stocks of food/weapons* **4** **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** [C, U] the value of a company, or a share in its value *to buy/sell stock* ○ *falling/rising **stock prices*** **5** **FOOD** [U] a liquid made by boiling meat, bones, or vegetables and used to make soups, sauces, etc *chicken/vegetable stock* **6** **take stock (of sth)** to think carefully about a situation before making a decision ➲See also: **laughing stock**

stock² /stɒk/ *verb* [T] to have something available for people to buy *They stock a wide range of books and magazines.*
stock up *phrasal verb* to buy a lot of something *We'd better **stock up on** food for the holiday.*

stock³ /stɒk/ *adjective* **stock answer/phrase, etc** an answer/phrase, etc that is always used and so is not really useful

ˈstock acˌcount *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a record that a business makes, usually at the end of each year, of the value of its stock (= products it has not yet sold)

stockbroker /ˈstɒkˌbrəʊkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** someone whose job is to buy and sell stocks and shares in companies for other people

ˈstock conˌtrol *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the system of making certain that new supplies are ordered for a business and that goods have not been stolen

the ˈstock exˌchange (*also* **the ˈstockˌmarket**) *noun* **1** **ECONOMICS** the place where stocks and shares in companies are bought and sold **2** **ECONOMICS** the value of stocks and shares being bought and sold

stocking /ˈstɒkɪŋ/ *noun* [C] a very thin piece of clothing that covers a woman's foot and leg *a pair of stockings*

stockpile /ˈstɒkpaɪl/ *verb* [T] to collect a lot of something, usually so that it can be used in the future *to stockpile food* ●**stockpile** *noun* [C] *a **stockpile of weapons***

stockturn /ˈstɒktɜːn/ *noun* [U] **FINANCE** a measurement of how fast a business is selling its goods

stocky /ˈstɒki/ *adjective* having a wide, strong, body *a short, stocky man*

stoic /ˈstəʊɪk/ *adjective formal* dealing with pain, problems, etc, but never complaining ●**stoically** *adverb* ●**stoicism** /ˈstəʊɪsɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U]

stole /stəʊl/ *past tense of* steal

stolen /ˈstəʊlᵊn/ *past participle of* steal

stolid /ˈstɒlɪd/ *adjective* calm and not showing emotion or excitement

stoma /ˈstəʊmə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **stomata** **BIOLOGY** one of the many very small holes in the surface of a leaf or stem of a plant through which gases pass in and out ➲See picture at **leaf** ➲See picture at **photosynthesis**

O-K**stomach¹** /ˈstʌmək/ *noun* [C] *plural* **stomachs** **1** **ANATOMY** the organ inside your body where food goes after it has been eaten and where it starts to be digested ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** **2** **ANATOMY** the front part of your body just below your chest ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **3** **have no stomach for sth** to not feel brave enough to do something unpleasant ➲See also: have butterflies (**butterfly**) (in your stomach)

stomach² /ˈstʌmək/ *verb informal* **can't stomach sth** to be unable to deal with, watch, etc something unpleasant *I can't stomach horror movies.*

ˈstomach ˌache *noun* [C, U] **HEALTH** pain in your stomach *I've got terrible stomach ache.*

stomp /stɒmp/ *verb* [I] to put your foot down on the ground hard and quickly, or to walk with heavy steps, usually because you are angry *He stomped off to his room.*

O-K**stone¹** /stəʊn/ *noun* **1** **GEOLOGY** [U] a hard, natural substance that is found in the ground *a stone wall* **2** **GEOLOGY** [C] a small rock or piece

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of rock **3** GEOLOGY [C] a hard, valuable substance that is often used in jewellery *precious stones* **4** MEASURES [C] *plural* **stone** *UK* a unit for measuring weight, equal to 6.35 kilograms or 14 pounds *I gained two stone when I was pregnant.* ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. **5** BIOLOGY [C] the hard seed that is at the centre of some fruits *a cherry stone* ➲See also: **stepping-stone**

stone² /stəʊn/ *verb* [T] to kill or hurt someone by throwing stones (= small rocks) at them, usually as a punishment [**often passive**] *Two men were **stoned to death** by the crowd.*

stoned /stəʊnd/ *adjective informal* **1** HEALTH relaxed or excited because of the effect of drugs **2** drunk

stonemason /ˈstəʊnˌmeɪsᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone who makes things from stone

stony /ˈstəʊni/ *adjective* **1** GEOLOGY covered with or containing stones (= small rocks) *a stony path/road* **2** not friendly, usually because you are angry *a **stony silence***

stood /stʊd/ *past of* stand

stool /stuːl/ *noun* [C] a seat that does not have a back or arms *a piano/bar stool*

stoop¹ /stuːp/ *verb* [I] to bend the top half of your body forward and down *He stooped to pick up the letter.*
stoop to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to do something bad that will give you an advantage *I can't believe he would stoop to blackmail.*

stoop² /stuːp/ *noun* **1** BODY [**no plural**] when the upper part of your body is bent forwards *He has a slight stoop.* **2** STEPS [C] *US* a raised area in front of the door of a house, with steps leading up to it

O-key **stop¹** /stɒp/ *verb* **stopping**, *past* **stopped** **1** FINISH [I, T] to finish doing something that you were doing [+ **doing sth**] *Stop laughing - it's not funny.* ○ *He started to say something and then stopped.* ○ *I'm trying to work but I keep having to stop to answer the phone* (= stop so that I can answer the telephone). **2** FOR A SHORT TIME [I] to stop a journey or an activity for a short time *He stopped at a pub for lunch.* **3** NOT OPERATE [I, T] to not continue to operate, or to make something not continue to operate *My watch has stopped.* ○ *Can you stop the video for a minute?* **4** FINISH MOVING [I, T] to not move any more, or make someone or something not move any more *A car stopped outside the house.* ○ *I stopped someone in the street to ask for directions.* **5** BUS/TRAIN [I] If a bus, train, etc stops at a particular place, it pauses at that place so that people can get on and off. *Does this train **stop at** Cambridge?* **6** END [T] to make something end *We must find a way to stop the war.* **7** PREVENT [T] to prevent something from happening or someone from doing something [+ **from** + **doing sth**] *Health workers are trying to stop the disease from spreading.* **8 Stop it/that!** used to tell someone to finish doing something, usually something annoying **9 stop a cheque** FINANCE *UK* (*US* **stop a check**) to prevent money from being paid from a cheque (= a piece of paper that you sign to pay for things) ➲See also: stop at **nothing**, stop the **rot²**
stop by (sth) *phrasal verb* to visit a person or place for a short time *If you're passing our house, why don't you stop by sometime?*
stop off *phrasal verb* to visit a place for a short time when you are going somewhere else *We stopped off in Paris for a couple of days before heading south.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

stop doing something or **stop to do something?**

Stop doing something means 'not continue with an activity'.

Suddenly, everyone stopped talking.

~~*Suddenly, everyone stopped to talk.*~~

Stop to do something means 'stop one activity so that you can do something else'.

We stopped to look at the map.

O-key **stop²** /stɒp/ *noun* [C] **1** BUS/TRAIN a place where a bus or train stops so that people can get on or off *We need to get off at the next stop.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **station** **2 put a stop to sth** to end something unpleasant *We must put a stop to the violence.* **3** JOURNEY a place where you stop on a journey, or the time that you spend there *We had an overnight stop in Singapore.* **4 come to a stop** to stop moving *The car came to a stop in front of an old cottage.* **5 pull out all the stops** to do everything you can to make something succeed ➲See also: **bus stop, full stop**

stoplight /ˈstɒplaɪt/ *noun* [C] *US* a set of red, green, and yellow lights that is used to stop and start traffic

stopover /ˈstɒpˌəʊvəʳ/ *noun* [C] a short stop between parts of a journey, especially a plane journey

stoppage /ˈstɒpɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] POLITICS when people stop working because they are angry about something their employers have done

stopwatch /ˈstɒpwɒtʃ/ *noun* [C] a watch that can measure exactly how long it takes to do something and is often used in sports activities

storage /ˈstɔːrɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] **1** when you put things in a safe place until they are needed *We had to put our furniture into storage.* **2** COMPUTING the amount of space a computer has for keeping information

O-key **store¹** /stɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** SHOP *mainly US* a shop *a book store* ○ *She works at a men's clothing store.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **shop** **2** SUPPLY a supply of something that you are keeping to use later *a store of grain* **3 be in store (for sb)** If something is in store for you, it will happen to you in the future. *There's a surprise in store for you!* **4 set great store by sth** *UK* to believe that something is very important *Martina sets great store by physical strength and fitness.* ➲See also: **chain store, convenience store, department store, liquor store**

O-key **store²** /stɔːʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** KEEP SOMETHING (*also* **store away**) to put something somewhere and not use it until you need it *We have a lot of old clothes stored in the attic.* **2** COMPUTING to keep information on a computer *All the data is stored on diskettes.*

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ˌstored ˈenergy *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** in physics, the energy stored by something; potential energy

storeroom /ˈstɔːrruːm/ *noun* [C] a room where goods are kept until they are needed

storey *UK* (*US* **story**) /ˈstɔːri/ *noun* [C] a level of a building *a three-storey house*

stork /stɔːk/ *noun* [C] a large, white bird with very long legs which walks around in water to find its food

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***storm***

an **approaching/gathering** storm ● a **fierce/severe/violent** storm ● a storm **breaks** ● a storm **abates/passes**

O-K **storm¹** /stɔːm/ *noun* [C] **1** very bad weather with a lot of rain, snow, wind, etc *a snow/thunder storm* **2 a storm of controversy/protest, etc** a strong, negative reaction to something that has been said or done

storm² /stɔːm/ *verb* **1** [T] to attack a building, town, etc, using violence *Armed police stormed the embassy and arrested hundreds of protesters.* **2 storm into/out of, etc** to enter or leave a place in a very noisy way because you are angry *He stormed out of the meeting.*

ˈstorm ˌsurge *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** when a lot of water is pushed from the sea onto the land, usually caused by a hurricane (= a violent storm with very strong winds)

stormy /ˈstɔːmi/ *adjective* **1** WEATHER If it is stormy, the weather is bad with a lot of wind and rain. *a **stormy night** ○ **stormy seas*** **2** ARGUING A stormy relationship or situation involves a lot of anger and arguments. *a **stormy relationship** ○ a stormy meeting/debate*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***story***

read/listen to a story ● **tell** sb a story ● a story **about/of** sth

O-K **story** /ˈstɔːri/ *noun* [C] **1 LITERATURE** a description of a series of real or imaginary events which is intended to entertain people *a horror/detective story ○ the story of the revolution ○ **Tell us a story**, Mum. ○ She **reads stories** to the children every night.* **2** REPORT a report in a newspaper, magazine, or news programme *Today's main story is the hurricane in Texas.* **3** EXPLANATION an explanation of why something happened, which may not be true *Did he tell you the same story about why he was late?* **4** BUILDING *US spelling of* storey

stout¹ /staʊt/ *adjective* **1** FAT quite fat *a short, stout man* **2** STRONG If shoes or other objects are stout, they are strong and thick.

stout² /staʊt/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a very dark beer

stove /stəʊv/ *noun* [C] **1 FOOD** a piece of equipment that you cook on *I've left some soup **on the stove** for you.* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2 **2** HEATING a piece of equipment that burns coal, gas, wood, etc and is used for heating a room

stow /stəʊ/ (*also* **stow away**) *verb* [T] to put something in a particular place until it is needed *Our camping equipment is stowed away in the loft.*

stowaway /ˈstəʊəˌweɪ/ *noun* [C] someone who hides on a ship or aircraft so that they can travel without paying

straddle /ˈstrædl/ *verb* [T] **1** SIT to sit or stand with one leg on either side of something *He straddled the chair.* **2** ON BOTH SIDES to be on both sides of a place *Niagara Falls straddles the Canadian border.*

straggle /ˈstrægl/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVE SLOWLY to move more slowly than other members of a group *Some runners are straggling a long way behind.* **2** GROW to grow or spread out in an untidy way *I could see a line of straggling bushes.*

straggly /ˈstrægli/ *adjective* growing or spreading out in an untidy way *a **straggly beard***

O-K **straight¹** /streɪt/ *adjective* **1** NOT CURVED not curved or bent *a straight road ○ straight hair* **2** LEVEL in a position that is level or vertical *That shelf's not straight.* **3** IN A SERIES [**always before noun**] one after another *They've won five straight games so far.* **4** HONEST honest *a **straight answer*** **5 FOOD** An alcoholic drink that is straight is not mixed with water, ice, etc. **6 get sth straight** to make sure that you completely understand a situation *Let me get this straight - am I paying for this?* **7** NOT HOMOSEXUAL *informal* not homosexual ➲See also: keep a straight **face**¹

O-K **straight²** /streɪt/ *adverb* **1** DIRECTION in a straight line *It's **straight ahead**. ○ He was looking straight at me.* **2** IMMEDIATELY immediately *I went straight back to sleep.* **3 sit up/stand up straight** to sit or stand with your body vertical **4 not think straight** If you cannot think straight, you are not thinking clearly about something. *I was so tired, I couldn't think straight.* **5 tell sb straight (out)** to tell someone the truth in a clear way *I told him straight that he wasn't getting a pay increase.* **6 straight away** immediately *Go there straight away.*

ˌstraight ˈangle *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** an angle of 180 degrees

straighten /ˈstreɪtᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become straight or to make something straight
straighten sth out *phrasal verb* to successfully deal with a problem or a confusing situation *We need to straighten a few things out.*
straighten sth up *phrasal verb* to make a place tidy *Could you straighten up your room?*
straighten up *phrasal verb* to stand so that your back is straight

straightforward /ˌstreɪtˈfɔːwəd/ *adjective* **1** EASY easy to do or understand *The task looked fairly straightforward.* **2** HONEST saying clearly and honestly what you think *She's very straightforward.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***strain***

feel the strain ● be **under** strain ● the strain **of** doing sth

strain¹ /streɪn/ *noun* **1** FEELING [C, U] when you feel worried and nervous about something *The strain of the last few months had exhausted her.* **2 put a strain on sb/sth** to cause problems for someone or to make a situation difficult *Children put tremendous strains on a marriage.* **3 HEALTH** [C, U] an injury to part of your

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body that is caused by using it too much *back strain* **4** STRETCH [U] when something is pulled or stretched too tightly *The rope broke **under the strain**.* **5** **BIOLOGY** [C] a type of disease or plant *a new strain of virus*

strain² /streɪn/ *verb* **1** TRY HARD [I, T] to try hard to do something, usually to see or hear something [+ **to do sth**] *I had to strain to hear the music.* **2** **HEALTH** [T] to injure part of your body by using it too much *I think I've strained a muscle.* **3** CAUSE PROBLEMS [T] to cause problems for a situation or relationship *The incident has strained relations between the two countries.* **4** MONEY [T] to cause too much of something to be used, especially money *The war is straining the defence budget.* **5** **FOOD** [T] to separate solids from a liquid by pouring the mixture into a container with small holes in it *Strain the sauce to remove the seeds and skins.*

strained /streɪnd/ *adjective* **1** NOT RELAXED showing that someone is nervous or anxious *We had a rather **strained conversation**.* **2** DIFFICULT If a relationship is strained, problems are spoiling that relationship. ***Relations** are still **strained** between the two countries.* ○ *They have a rather **strained relationship**.*

strait /streɪt/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a narrow area of sea that connects two large areas of sea [**usually plural**] *the straits of Florida*

strait-jacket /ˈstreɪtˌdʒækɪt/ *noun* [C] a special jacket used for mentally ill people that prevents them from moving their arms

strand /strænd/ *noun* [C] **1** THREAD a thin piece of hair, thread, rope, etc *She tucked a **strand of hair** behind her ear.* **2** PART OF STORY one part of a story, situation, idea, etc *There are a number of different strands to the plot.*

stranded /ˈstrændɪd/ *adjective* unable to leave a place *We were stranded at the airport for ten hours.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***strange***

Other ways of saying 'strange' are **odd**, **bizarre**, and **weird**: *I always thought there was something a bit **odd** about her.* ● *I had a really **bizarre/weird** dream last night.*

If something is strange because it is not what you usually expect, you can use the adjectives **curious**, **funny**, or **peculiar**: *This lemonade tastes **funny**.* ● *The chicken had a **peculiar** smell.* ● *A **curious** thing happened to me yesterday.*

If someone always behaves strangely, you might describe them as **eccentric**: *The whole family are **eccentric**.*

O-K **strange** /streɪndʒ/ *adjective* **1** UNEXPECTED If something is strange, it is surprising because it is unusual or unexpected. [+ **(that)**] *It's strange that she hasn't called.* ○ *It's midnight and he's still at work - that's strange.* ○ *What a strange-looking man.* **2** NOT FAMILIAR A strange person or place is one that you are not familiar with. *I was stuck in a strange town with no money.* ●**strangely** *adverb* *She's been behaving very strangely* (= in an unusual way) recently.

stranger /ˈstreɪndʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone you have never met before *I can't just walk up to a complete stranger and start speaking to them.* **2** **be no stranger to sth** to have a lot of experience of something *He's no stranger to hard work himself.*

strangle /ˈstræŋgl/ *verb* [T] **1** KILL to kill someone by pressing their throat with your hands, a rope, wire, etc [**often passive**] *Police believe the victim was strangled.* **2** PREVENT to prevent something from developing *High-level corruption is strangling the economy.*

stranglehold /ˈstræŋglhəʊld/ *noun* [**no plural**] a position of complete control that prevents something from developing *Two major companies have a **stranglehold on** the market.*

strap /stræp/ *noun* [C] a narrow piece of material used to fasten two things together or to carry something *a watch strap* ○ *a bra strap* ○ *I want a bag with a shoulder strap.* ●**strap** *verb* [T] **strapping**, *past* **strapped** to fasten something using a strap

strategic /strəˈtiːdʒɪk/ *adjective* **1** PLAN helping to achieve a plan, usually in business or politics ***strategic planning*** **2** WAR related to fighting a war ***strategic weapons*** **3** POSITION If something is in a strategic position, it is in a useful place for achieving something. ●**strategically** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***strategy***

adopt/develop/have a strategy ● a strategy **for** doing sth ● the strategy **of** doing sth ● an **economic** strategy ● a **long-term/short-term** strategy ● a **sales** strategy

strategy /ˈstrætədʒi/ *noun* **1** PLAN [C] a plan that you use to achieve something *a **an economic strategy*** ○ *a long-term strategy* **2** ACT [U] the act of planning how to achieve something *a **military strategy***

the stratosphere /ˈstrætəsfɪəʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] **GEOGRAPHY** the layer of gases surrounding the Earth at a height of between 15 and 50 kilometres, above the troposphere and below the mesosphere

stratus /ˈstreɪtəs/ *noun* **GEOGRAPHY** a type of flat grey cloud found at the lowest level

straw /strɔː/ *noun* **1** **FARMING** [U] the long, dried stems of plants such as wheat (= plant for grain), often given to animals for sleeping on and eating *a straw hat* **2** [C] a thin plastic or paper tube that you use for drinking through **3** **the final/last straw** the last in a series of unpleasant events which finally makes you stop accepting a bad situation *Last week he came home drunk at five in the morning, and that was the last straw.*

strawberry /ˈstrɔːbᵊri/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small, red fruit with a green leaf at the top and small, brown seeds on its surface

stray¹ /streɪ/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVE AWAY to move away from the place where you should be, without intending to *I suddenly realized that I had **strayed** far **from** the village.* **2** CHANGE THOUGHTS to start thinking or talking about a different subject from the one you should be giving attention to *We seem to have **strayed from** the original **subject**.*

stray² /streɪ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** LOST A stray animal is lost or has no home.

*a **stray dog*** **2** SEPARATED A stray piece of something has become separated from the main part. *a stray hair*

stray³ /streɪ/ *noun* [C] an animal that is lost or has no home

streak¹ /stri:k/ *noun* [C] **1** MARK a thin line or mark *She has a streak of white hair.* **2** QUALITY a quality in someone's character, especially a bad one *Tom has a **mean/ruthless streak.*** **3 a winning/losing streak** a period of always winning/losing a game *I'm **on a winning streak.***

streak² /stri:k/ *verb* **1 streak across/down/through, etc** to move quickly *The plane streaked across the sky.* **2 be streaked with sth** to have thin lines of a different colour *His dark hair was lightly streaked with grey.*

stream¹ /stri:m/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY a small river **2 a stream of sth a** a line of people or vehicles moving in the same direction *a constant stream of traffic* **b** a large number of similar things that happen or appear one after another *He has produced a steady stream of books.* **c** a moving line of liquid, gas, smoke, etc *A stream of smoke was coming from the chimney.*

stream² /stri:m/ *verb* **1 stream down/in/through, etc** to move or flow continuously in one direction *Tears were streaming down her face.* **2** INTERNET [T] to listen to or watch something on a computer directly from the Internet

streamer /ˈstri:mə^{r}/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow piece of coloured paper that you use to decorate a room or place for a party

streamline /ˈstri:mlaɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** MAKE SIMPLE to make an organization or process simpler and more effective *We need to streamline our production procedures.* **2** GIVE SHAPE to give a vehicle a smooth shape so that it moves easily through air or water

O-K **street** /stri:t/ *noun* [C] **1** a road in a town or city that has houses or other buildings *We live on the same street.* ○ *a street map* **2 the man/person, etc in the street** a typical, ordinary person **3 be right up sb's street** *UK informal* (*US* **be right up sb's alley**) to be exactly the type of thing that someone knows about or likes to do *I've got a little job here which should be right up your street.* **4 be streets ahead (of sb/sth)** *UK* to be much better or more advanced than someone or something else *American film companies are streets ahead of their European rivals.* ➲See also: **high street, Wall Street**

streetcar /ˈstri:tkɑ:^{r}/ *US* (*UK/US* **tram**) *noun* [C] an electric vehicle for carrying passengers, mostly in cities, which runs along metal tracks in the road

ˈstreet ˌlight (*also* **ˈstreet ˌlamp**) *noun* [C] a light on a tall post next to a street

streetwise /ˈstri:twaɪz/ (US *also* **street-smart**) *adjective* Someone who is streetwise knows how to manage dangerous or difficult situations in big towns or cities.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***strength***

full/great/superhuman strength ● **draw/have/muster/regain/sap** strength

O-K **strength** /streŋθ/ *noun* **1** STRONG [U] when someone or something is strong *upper-body strength* ○ *A good boxer needs skill as well as strength.* **2** INFLUENCE [U] the power or influence that an organization, country, etc has *economic strength* **3** BEING BRAVE [U] when you are brave or determined in difficult situations *I think she showed great **strength of character.*** **4** GOOD QUALITIES [C] a good quality or ability that makes someone or something effective *We all have our **strengths and weaknesses.*** ○ *The great strength of this arrangement is its simplicity.* **5** STRONG FEELING [U] how strong a feeling or opinion is *There is great **strength of feeling** against tax increases.* **6** ECONOMICS [U] the value of a country's money *The strength of the dollar has traders worried.* **7 at full strength** with the necessary number of people *Our team is now at full strength.* **8 on the strength of sth** If you do something on the strength of facts or advice, you do it because of them. *On the strength of this year's sales figures, we've decided to expand the business.* **9 go from strength to strength** *UK* to continue to become more successful ➲See also: a **tower¹** of strength

strengthen /ˈstreŋθ^{ə}n/ *verb* [I, T] to become stronger or make something become stronger *exercises to strengthen the leg muscles*

strenuous /ˈstrenjuəs/ *adjective* using or needing a lot of effort ***strenuous exercise***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***stress***

be **under** stress ● **cope with/deal with/handle** stress ● **alleviate/combat/reduce/relieve** stress ● stress **levels**

O-K **stress¹** /stres/ *noun* **1** HEALTH [C, U] feelings of worry caused by difficult situations such as problems at work *work-related stress* ○ *She's been **under** a lot of **stress** recently.* **2** IMPORTANCE [U] special importance that you give to something *At school, they **laid** great **stress** on academic achievement.* **3** PHYSICS [C, U] physical force on something *Jogging **puts** a lot of **stress on** your knee joints.* **4** LANGUAGE [U] when you say one part of a word more strongly *In the word 'blanket', the **stress** is **on** the first syllable.*

stress² /stres/ *verb* **1** EMPHASIZE [T] to emphasize something in order to show that it is important [+ **(that)**] *I stressed that this was our policy.* **2** WORRY [I] *US informal* to be worried *Stop stressing about tonight - it'll be fine.*

stressed /strest/ (*also* **stressed out**) *adjective* HEALTH worried and not able to relax *Tanya's really stressed out about her exams.*

stressful /ˈstresfʊl/ *adjective* making you stressed *a **stressful job***

O-K **stretch¹** /stretʃ/ *verb* **1** PULL [I, T] to become longer or wider, or to pull something so that it becomes longer or wider *Don't pull my sweater - you'll stretch it.* **2** MAKE STRAIGHT [I, T] to make your body or part of your body straighter and longer *Stretch your arms above your head.* **3 stretch away/into, etc** to cover a large area *The fields stretched away into the distance.* **4 stretch into/over, etc** to continue for a long period of time *The discussions will probably stretch into next month.* ➲See also: stretch your legs (**leg**), bend/stretch the rules (**rule¹**)

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stretch out *phrasal verb* to lie with your legs and arms spread out in a relaxed way

stretch² /stretʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** GEOGRAPHY an area of land or water *a stretch of coastline* **2** TIME a continuous period of time *He often worked ten hours* ***at a stretch***. **3** BODY when you stretch part of your body *I always* ***do*** *a few* ***stretches*** *before I go jogging*. **4 not by any stretch of the imagination** used to say that something, often a description, is certainly not true *She was never a great player, not by any stretch of the imagination.*

stretcher /ˈstretʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a flat structure covered with cloth which is used to carry someone who is ill or injured

stricken /ˈstrɪkᵊn/ *adjective* suffering from the effects of something bad, such as illness, sadness, etc *a child stricken by fear* ➲See also: **panic-stricken, poverty-stricken**

strict /strɪkt/ *adjective* **1** PERSON A strict person makes sure that children or people working for them behave well and does not allow them to break any rules. *a strict teacher* ○ *My parents were very* ***strict with*** *us*. **2** RULE If a rule, law, etc is strict, it must be obeyed. *She gave me* ***strict instructions*** *to be there by ten*. **3** BEHAVIOUR [**always before noun**] always behaving in a particular way because of your beliefs *a strict Muslim* **4** EXACT exactly correct *a strict translation of a text*

strictly /ˈstrɪktli/ *adverb* **1** EXACTLY exactly or correctly *That's not* ***strictly true***. ○ ***Strictly speaking*** (= The rules say), *we're not allowed to give you any advice*. **2** ONLY done or existing for a particular person or purpose *Her visit is strictly business*. **3 strictly forbidden/prohibited** used to emphasize that something is not allowed

stride¹ /straɪd/ *verb past* **strode stride across/down/into, etc** to walk somewhere with long steps *She strode across the stage.*

stride² /straɪd/ *noun* [C] **1** a long step when walking or running **2 get into your stride** *UK* (*US* **hit your stride**) to start to do something well and with confidence because you have been doing it for a period *Once I get into my stride, I'm sure I'll work much faster*. **3 take sth in your stride** *UK* (*US* **take sth in stride**) to calmly deal with something that is unpleasant and not let it affect what you are doing *There are often problems at work but she seems to take it all in her stride.*

strident /ˈstraɪdᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** STRONG expressed in a strong way ***strident criticism*** **2** LOUD loud and unpleasant *a* ***strident voice***

strife /straɪf/ *noun* [U] *formal* trouble or disagreement between people

strike¹ /straɪk/ *verb past* **struck 1** HIT [T] to hit someone or something *His car went out of control and struck a tree*. ○ *I've never heard of anyone being* ***struck by lightning***. **2** THINK [T] If a thought or idea strikes you, you suddenly think of it. [**+ (that)**] ***It struck me*** *that I'd forgotten to order the champagne*. **3 strike sb as sth** If someone strikes you as having a particular quality, they seem to have that quality. *He didn't strike me as a passionate man*. **4** POLITICS [I] to stop working for a period of time because you want more money, etc *Bus drivers are threatening to strike*. **5** EFFECT [T] If something bad strikes something or someone, it affects them strongly and quickly. *The hurricane struck the coast at about eight in the morning*. **6** ATTACK [I] to attack suddenly *The marines will strike at dawn*. **7** CLOCK [I, T] If a clock strikes, a bell rings to show what the time is. **8 strike gold, oil, etc** to find a supply of gold, oil, etc in the ground **9 strike a match** to light a match in order to produce fire **10 strike a balance** to give two things the same amount of attention *It's important to* ***strike a balance between*** *spending and saving*. **11 strike a deal** If two people strike a deal, they promise to do something for each other which will give them both an advantage. *The book's author has struck a deal with a major film company*. ➲See also: strike a **chord** (with sb), be struck **dumb**

strike back *phrasal verb* to attack someone who has attacked you

strike out *phrasal verb* **1** START MOVING to start moving towards somewhere in a determined way *She* ***struck out for*** *the opposite bank*. **2** FAIL *US informal* to fail at something *I really struck out with her - she wouldn't even let me kiss her goodbye.*

strike sth out *phrasal verb* to draw a line through something wrong that you have written

strike up sth *phrasal verb* to start a conversation or relationship with someone *I* ***struck up a conversation*** *with a guy who worked behind the bar.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***strike*** *(noun)*

be on/go on strike ● a strike **over** sth ● strike **action**

strike² /straɪk/ *noun* **1** POLITICS [C, U] a period of time when people are not working because they want more money, etc *Teachers are planning to* ***go on strike*** *next month*. **2** ATTACK [C] a sudden military attack *an air strike* ➲See also: **hunger strike**

striker /ˈstraɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** someone who is on strike **2** SPORT a football player whose job is to try to score goals

striking /ˈstraɪkɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** NOTICEABLE easily noticed *There's a* ***striking resemblance*** *between them*. **2** ATTRACTIVE very attractive *She's very striking.*

string¹ /strɪŋ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] very thin rope used for tying things *a ball of string* **2** MUSIC [C] a piece of wire that is part of a musical instrument *guitar strings* **3 a string of beads/pearls** a set of decorative things joined together on a thread, worn as jewellery **4 a string of sth** a number of similar things *a string of questions* ○ *As a writer, she's enjoyed a string of successes*. **5 no strings (attached)** If there are no strings attached to an offer or arrangement, there is nothing that is unpleasant that you have to accept. *I'll drive you home - no strings attached*. **6 pull strings** to secretly use the influence that you have over important people to get something or to help someone

string² /strɪŋ/ *verb* [T] *past* **strung** to hang something somewhere with string *They had strung flags across the entrance to welcome us home.*

string sb along *phrasal verb* to deceive someone for a long time about what you are intending to do
be strung out *phrasal verb* If a group of things or people are strung out somewhere, they are in a line with spaces between them. *There were chairs strung out across the room.*

stringent /ˈstrɪndʒənt/ *adjective* Stringent controls, rules, etc are very strict or extreme.

the strings /strɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] **MUSIC** the people in a musical group who play instruments with strings on them such as the violin

strip¹ /strɪp/ *verb* **stripping**, *past* **stripped** **1** CLOTHES [**I, T**] (*also UK* **strip off**) to remove all your clothes, or to remove all someone else's clothes *She was stripped and searched by the guards.* ○ *He stripped off his clothes and ran into the sea.* **2** COVERING [**T**] (*also* **strip off**) to remove a covering from the surface of something *to strip paint/wallpaper off the wall*
strip sb of sth *phrasal verb* to take something important away from someone as a punishment *He was **stripped of** his gold **medal**.*

strip² /strɪp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PIECE a long, narrow piece of something *a strip of paper/plastic* **2** AREA a long, narrow area of land or water *A narrow strip of land separated the lake from the sea.* ➲See also: **comic strip**

stripe /straɪp/ *noun* [**C**] a long, straight area of colour *white with blue stripes*

striped /straɪpt/ *adjective* with a pattern of stripes *a striped shirt*

stripey /ˈstraɪpi/ *adjective another spelling of* stripy

stripy (*also* **stripey**) /ˈstraɪpi/ *adjective* with a pattern of stripes *stripy trousers*

strive /straɪv/ *verb* [**I**] *past* **strove** or **strived**, *past participle* **striven** or **strived** *formal* to try very hard to do or achieve something *to **strive for** happiness/peace* [**+ to do sth**] *We are constantly striving to improve our service in order to keep up with our rivals.*

strode /strəʊd/ *past of* stride

stroke¹ /strəʊk/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [**C**] a sudden problem in your brain that changes the flow of blood and makes you unable to move part of your body *to **have/suffer** a **stroke*** **2** [**C**] a movement that you make against something with your hand, a pen, brush, etc *a **brush stroke*** **3** **SPORT** [**C**] a style of swimming **4** **SPORT** [**C**] when you move your arm and hit the ball in sports such as tennis, golf, etc **5 a stroke of luck** something good that happens to you by chance *He had exactly the part that I needed so that was a stroke of luck.*

stroke² /strəʊk/ *verb* [**T**] to gently move your hand over a surface *to stroke a cat/dog* ○ *He stroked her hair.*

stroll /strəʊl/ *verb* **stroll along/down/through, etc** to walk somewhere in a slow and relaxed way *They strolled along the beach.* ●**stroll** *noun* [**C**] *Shall we **go for a stroll** around the garden before lunch?*

stroller /ˈstrəʊlər/ *US* (*UK* **pushchair**) *noun* [**C**] a chair on wheels which is used to move small children

O-K **strong** /strɒŋ/ *adjective* **1** PHYSICALLY POWERFUL A strong person or animal is physically powerful. *Are you strong enough to lift this table on your own?* **2** NOT BREAK A strong object does not break easily or can support heavy things. *a strong box/chair* **3** QUALITY of a good quality or level and likely to be successful *a strong competitor/team* ○ *a strong economy* **4** FEELING A strong feeling, belief, or opinion is felt in a very deep and serious way. *a strong sense of pride* **5** NOTICEABLE If a taste, smell, etc is strong, it is very noticeable. *There's a strong smell of burning.* **6** PERSONALITY If a person or their personality is strong, they are confident and able to deal with problems well. **7** ALCOHOL containing a lot of alcohol *a strong drink* **8** RELATIONSHIP If a friendship, relationship, etc is strong, it is likely to last for a long time. **9 strong chance/possibility, etc** something that is very likely to happen *There's a strong possibility of rain this afternoon.* **10 strong opposition/support, etc** a lot of opposition/support, etc **11 strong language** words that some people might consider to be offensive **12 sb's strong point** something that someone is very good at *Cooking is not my strong point.* **13 be still going strong** continuing to be successful after a long time *Fran's grandfather is well into his eighties and still going strong.*

ˌstrong ˈacid *noun* [**C**] **CHEMISTRY** an acid with a pH of between 1 and 3, whose ionic compounds separate or divide into smaller molecules completely in a solution containing water

strongly /ˈstrɒŋli/ *adverb* very much or in a very serious way *He is **strongly opposed** to violence of any sort.* ○ *I **strongly believe** that we should take action.*

strong-willed /ˌstrɒŋˈwɪld/ *adjective* very determined to do what you want to do *A strong-willed toddler can be quite difficult to deal with.*

strontium /ˈstrɒntɪəm/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a soft metallic silver-white chemical element that burns easily with a bright red flame, used in fireworks and some colour televisions (symbol **Sr**)

stroppy /ˈstrɒpi/ *adjective UK informal* angry or arguing a lot *He used to be so cute – all of a sudden he's turned into a stroppy teenager.*

strove /strəʊv/ *past tense of* strive

struck /strʌk/ *past of* strike

structural /ˈstrʌktʃərəl/ *adjective* relating to the structure of something ***structural damage*** ○ *The last five years have seen big **structural changes** in the company.* ●**structurally** *adverb*

O-K **structure¹** /ˈstrʌktʃər/ *noun* **1** WAY [**C, U**] the way that parts of something are arranged or put together *cell structure* ○ *grammatical structure* **2** BUILDING [**C**] a building or something that has been built

structure² /ˈstrʌktʃər/ *verb* [**T**] to arrange something in an organized way *How is the course structured?*

O-K **struggle¹** /ˈstrʌgl/ *verb* [**I**] **1** TRY to try very hard to do something difficult [**+ to do sth**] *He's*

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struggling to pay off his debts. **2** FIGHT to fight someone when they are holding you *She struggled but couldn't break free.*
struggle on *phrasal verb* to continue doing something that is difficult

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***struggle (noun)***

a **constant/ongoing/uphill** struggle ● a struggle **for** [justice/survival, etc]

struggle² /ˈstrʌgl/ *noun* [C] **1** TRY when you try very hard to do something difficult *It was a real struggle to stay awake during the film.* **2** FIGHT a fight between people

strum /strʌm/ *verb* [I, T] **strumming**, *past* **strummed** **MUSIC** to move your fingers across the strings of a guitar

strung /strʌŋ/ *past of* string

strut /strʌt/ *verb* **strutting**, *past* **strutted** **strut along/around/down, etc** to walk somewhere with big steps in a proud way ➲See also: strut your **stuff**¹

stub¹ /stʌb/ *noun* [C] the short, end piece of something such as a cigarette or pencil that is left after it has been used *There were **cigarette stubs** all over the floor.*

stub² /stʌb/ *verb* **stubbing**, *past* **stubbed** **stub your toe** to hit your toe against a hard surface by accident
stub sth out *phrasal verb* to stop a cigarette from burning by pressing the burning end against a hard surface

stubble /ˈstʌbl/ *noun* [U] **1** HAIRS very short, stiff hairs, usually on a man's face **2** **FARMING** the short bits of dried plant stems left in a field after it has been cut

stubborn /ˈstʌbən/ *adjective* determined not to change your ideas, plans, etc, although other people want you to ●**stubbornly** *adverb* ●**stubbornness** *noun* [U]

stubby /ˈstʌbi/ *adjective* short and thick ***stubby legs/fingers***

stuck¹ /stʌk/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** NOT MOVE not able to move anywhere *My car **got stuck in** a ditch.* ○ *We were stuck at the airport for twelve hours.* **2** NOT CONTINUE not able to continue reading, answering questions, etc because something is too difficult *I keep **getting stuck** on difficult words.* **3** **be stuck with sb/sth** to have to deal with someone or something unpleasant because no one else wants to *Whenever we eat out, I always get stuck with the bill.*

stuck² /stʌk/ *past of* stick

stud /stʌd/ *noun* [C] **1** JEWELLERY a small, metal piece of jewellery that is put through a part of your body such as your ear or nose **2** DECORATION a small piece of metal that is fixed to the surface of something, usually for decoration **3** **FARMING** (*also* ˈ**stud ˌfarm**) a place where horses are kept for breeding

student /ˈstjuːdᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** someone who is studying at a school or university *a law student* ○ *a foreign student* ➲See also: **mature student**

studio /ˈstjuːdiəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** **ART** a room where an artist or photographer works **2** TV/RADIO a room where television/radio programmes or musical recordings are made **3** FILMS a film company or a place where films are made

studious /ˈstjuːdiəs/ *adjective* spending a lot of time studying ●**studiously** *adverb*

study¹ /ˈstʌdi/ *verb* **1** **EDUCATION** [I, T] to learn about a subject, usually at school or university *I studied biology before going into medicine.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **learn** **2** LOOK [T] to look at something very carefully *He studied his face in the mirror.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***study (noun)***

carry out/conduct/undertake a study ● a study **examines/focuses on** sth ● a study **concludes/finds/shows/suggests** sth ● a study **into** sth

study² /ˈstʌdi/ *noun* **1** FINDING OUT INFORMATION [C] when someone studies a subject in detail in order to discover new information *For years, **studies** have **shown** the link between smoking and cancer.* **2** **EDUCATION** [U] when you learn about a subject, usually at school or university *the study of English literature* **3** ROOM [C] a room in a house where you can read, write, etc ➲See also: **case study**

stuff¹ /stʌf/ *noun* [U] *informal* **1** used to refer to a substance or a group of things or ideas, etc without saying exactly what they are *There's some sticky stuff on the carpet.* ○ *They sell bread and cakes and stuff like that.* ○ *Can I leave my stuff at your house?* **2** **know your stuff** *informal* to know a lot about a subject, or to be very good at doing something *She's an excellent teacher - she really knows her stuff.* **3** **strut your stuff** *humorous informal* to dance

stuff² /stʌf/ *verb* [T] **1** **stuff sth in/into/behind, etc** to push something into a small space, often quickly or in a careless way *He stuffed the papers into his briefcase and left.* **2** FILL to completely fill a container with something *an envelope stuffed with money* **3** **FOOD** to fill meat, vegetables, etc with a mixture of food before you cook them *stuffed peppers* **4** DEAD ANIMAL to fill the body of a dead animal with special material so that it looks as if it is still alive

stuffing /ˈstʌfɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** **FOOD** a mixture of food which is put into meat, vegetables, etc before they are cooked **2** material which is used to fill the inside of things such as soft chairs, beds, toys, etc

stuffy /ˈstʌfi/ *adjective* **1** AIR If a room or a building is stuffy, it is hot and unpleasant and the air is not fresh. **2** FORMAL old-fashioned, formal and boring *a stuffy club for wealthy old men*

stumble /ˈstʌmbl/ *verb* [I] **1** FALL to step badly and almost fall over *Mary stumbled on the loose rocks.* **2** PAUSE to make a mistake, such as pausing or repeating a word, while speaking or performing *He kept **stumbling over** the same word.*
stumble across/on/upon sth/sb *phrasal verb* to discover something by chance, or to meet someone by chance *I stumbled across these photographs while I was cleaning out my desk.*

ˈ**stumbling ˌblock** *noun* [C] a problem which makes it very difficult to do something *Lack of money has been the main stumbling block.*

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stump¹ /stʌmp/ *noun* [C] **1** the short part of something that is left after most of it has been removed *a **tree stump*** **2** SPORT one of the three vertical wooden sticks that you throw a ball at in the game of cricket ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

stump² /stʌmp/ *verb* **1 be stumped by sth** *informal* to not be able to answer a question or solve a problem because it is too difficult *Scientists are completely stumped by this virus.* **2** POLITICS [I] *US* to travel to different places to get political support
stump (sth) up *phrasal verb UK informal* to provide money for something, especially when you do not want to

stun /stʌn/ *verb* [T] **stunning**, *past* **stunned** **1** SHOCK to shock or surprise someone very much [**often passive**] *Friends and family were stunned by her sudden death.* **2** MAKE UNCONSCIOUS to make a person or animal unconscious, usually by hitting them on the head

stung /stʌŋ/ *past of* sting

stunk /stʌŋk/ **1** PAST PARTICIPLE *past participle of* stink **2** PAST TENSE *US past tense of* stink

stunning /ˈstʌnɪŋ/ *adjective* very beautiful *stunning views over the city* ○ *She's stunning.* ●**stunningly** *adverb a **stunningly beautiful** woman*

stunt¹ /stʌnt/ *noun* [C] **1** DANGER when someone does something dangerous that needs great skill, usually in a film *He always **does** his own **stunts**.* **2** ATTENTION something that is done to get people's attention *Their marriage was just a cheap **publicity stunt**.*

stunt² /stʌnt/ *verb* [T] to stop the normal growth or development of something *They say that smoking **stunts** your **growth**.*

stupefied /ˈstjuːpɪfaɪd/ *adjective* so shocked, tired, etc that you cannot think ●**stupefying** *adjective* making you stupefied ●**stupefy** *verb* [T]

stupendous /stjuːˈpendəs/ *adjective* extremely good or large *a stupendous performance* ●**stupendously** *adverb stupendously successful*

O-K **stupid** /ˈstjuːpɪd/ *adjective* **1** SILLY silly or not intelligent *That was a really stupid thing to do.* ○ *How could you be so stupid?* **2** ANNOYING [**always before noun**] *informal* used to show that you are annoyed about something which is causing a problem *I can never get this stupid machine to work!* ●**stupidity** /stjuːˈpɪdəti/ *noun* [U] ●**stupidly** *adverb*

stupor /ˈstjuːpəʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] when someone is almost unconscious and cannot think clearly, especially because they have drunk too much alcohol *He staggered into the room in a **drunken stupor**.*

sturdy /ˈstɜːdi/ *adjective* very strong and solid *sturdy walking boots*

stutter /ˈstʌtəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to repeat the first sound of a word several times when you talk, usually because you have a speech problem *"C-c-can we g-go now?" she stuttered.* ●**stutter** *noun* [**no plural**] *He has a really bad stutter.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***style***

a **distinctive** style ● **in** a style ● a style **of** doing sth

O-K **style¹** /staɪl/ *noun* **1** WAY [C, U] a way of doing something that is typical of a particular person, group, place, or period *a **style of** painting/writing* **2** DESIGN [C, U] a way of designing hair, clothes, furniture, etc *She's had her hair cut in a really nice style.* **3** QUALITY [U] the quality of being attractive and fashionable or behaving in a way which makes people admire you *She's got style.* **4** BIOLOGY [C] the middle section of the female part of a flower ➲See picture at **carpel** ➲See picture at **flower 5 do sth in style** to do something in a way that people admire, usually because it involves spending a lot of money *If we ever get married we'll do it in style.* **6 cramp sb's style** to prevent someone from enjoying themselves, especially by going somewhere with them

style² /staɪl/ *verb* [T] to shape or design hair, clothes, furniture, etc in a particular way *He spends hours in the bathroom styling his hair.*

-style /staɪl/ *suffix* used at the end of words to mean 'looking or behaving like something or someone' *antique-style furniture* ○ *Japanese-style management* ➲See also: **old-style**

stylish /ˈstaɪlɪʃ/ *adjective* fashionable and attractive *a stylish, black suit* ●**stylishly** *adverb stylishly dressed*

stylus /ˈstaɪləs/ *noun* [C] **1** a small point that touches a record (= flat, round, plastic disc that music is stored on) in order to play it **2** COMPUTING a device shaped like a pen that is used for getting information or images into a computer

Styrofoam /ˈstaɪrəfəʊm/ *noun* [U] *trademark* DT polystyrene (= light plastic material used to protect objects when they are packed)

suave /swɑːv/ *adjective* If someone, especially a man, is suave, they are polite and confident in a way that is attractive but may be false. *suave and sophisticated*

sub- /sʌb-/ *prefix* **1** under or below *substandard workmanship* **2** less important or a smaller part of a larger whole *a subsection*

subarctic /sʌbˈɑːktɪk/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY relating to the regions of the world just south of the Arctic Circle

subatomic /ˌsʌbəˈtɒmɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY smaller than or within an atom *a subatomic particle*

subconscious¹ /sʌbˈkɒnʃəs/ *adjective* Subconscious thoughts and feelings influence your behaviour without you being aware of them. *a subconscious fear* ●**subconsciously** *adverb*

subconscious² /sʌbˈkɒnʃəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] the part of your mind which contains thoughts and feelings that you are not aware of but which influence your behaviour *The memory was buried deep within my subconscious.*

subcontract /ˌsʌbkənˈtrækt/ *verb* [T] to pay someone else to do part of a job that you have agreed to do

subculture /ˈsʌbˌkʌltʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY a group of people with beliefs, interests, etc that are different from the rest of society

subdirectory /ˈsʌbdɪˌrektəʳi/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a directory (= place on a computer for

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putting files and folders together) that is inside another directory

subdivide /ˌsʌbdɪˈvaɪd/ *verb* [T] to divide something into smaller parts [**often passive**] *Each chapter is* ***subdivided into*** *smaller sections.* ●**subdivision** /ˌsʌbdɪˈvɪʒ^{ə}n/ *noun* [C, U]

subduction zone /sʌbˈdʌkʃən ˌzəʊn/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** an area where two continental plates (= large layers of rock that form the Earth's surface) meet and where there are often earthquakes

subdue /səbˈdjuː/ *verb* [T] **subduing**, *past* **subdued** to start to control someone or something, especially by using force

subdued /səbˈdjuːd/ *adjective* **1** PERSON quiet because you are feeling sad or worried *She seemed a bit subdued.* **2** LIGHT/COLOUR Subdued lights or colours are not bright. ***subdued lighting***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***subject***

bring up/broach/raise a subject ● **get onto** a subject ● **change/drop/get off** a subject ● **on** the subject (of sth)

subject¹ /ˈsʌbdʒɪkt/ *noun* [C] **1** WHAT what someone is writing or talking about *a series of programmes* ***on the subject of*** *homelessness* **2** **EDUCATION** an area of knowledge studied in school or university *Chemistry is my favourite subject.* **3** **LANGUAGE** the person or thing which performs the action described by the verb. In the sentence 'Bob phoned me yesterday.', 'Bob' is the subject. **4** **SOCIETY** someone who is from a particular country, especially a country with a king or queen *a British subject*

subject² /ˈsʌbdʒɪkt/ *adjective* **subject to sth** **a** often affected by something, especially something unpleasant *Departure times are subject to alteration.* **b** only able to happen if something else happens *The pay rise is subject to approval by management.*

subject³ /səbˈdʒekt/ *verb* **subject sb/sth to sth** *phrasal verb* to make someone or something experience something unpleasant *In prison, he was subjected to beatings and interrogations.*

subjective /səbˈdʒektɪv/ *adjective* influenced by someone's beliefs or feelings, instead of facts *a subjective judgment* ●**subjectively** *adverb* ●**subjectivity** /ˌsʌbdʒekˈtɪvəti/ *noun* [U] when someone or something is influenced by beliefs or feelings instead of facts

ˈsubject ˌmatter *noun* [U] what is being talked or written about *I'm not sure whether the subject matter is suitable for children.*

subjunctive /səbˈdʒʌŋktɪv/ *noun* [**no plural**] **LANGUAGE** the form of the verb which is used to express doubt, possibility, or wish. In the sentence 'I wish I were rich.', 'were' is in the subjunctive. ●**subjunctive** *adjective*

sublime /səˈblaɪm/ *adjective* extremely good, beautiful, or enjoyable *sublime scenery* ●**sublimely** *adverb*

sublime /səˈblaɪm/ *verb* [T, I] **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** to change a substance directly from a solid to a gas, or to change in this way ●**sublimation** /ˌsʌblɪˈmeɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U]

submarine /ˌsʌbm^{ə}rˈiːn/ *noun* [C] a boat that travels under water

submerge /səbˈmɜːdʒ/ *verb* [I, T] to cause something to be under the surface of water, or to move below the surface of water *The floods destroyed farmland and submerged whole villages.* ●**submerged** *adjective*

submission /səbˈmɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* **1** CONTROL [U] when you accept that someone has complete control over you *They tried to starve her* ***into submission.*** **2** DOCUMENT [C, U] when you send a document, plan, etc to someone so that they can consider it, or the document, plan, etc that you send *The deadline for submissions is 29 April.*

submissive /səbˈmɪsɪv/ *adjective* always doing what other people tell you to do *a quiet, submissive wife*

submit /səbˈmɪt/ *verb* **submitting**, *past* **submitted** **1** DOCUMENT [T] to send a document, plan, etc to someone so that they can consider it *Applications must be submitted before 31 January.* **2** OBEY [I] to accept that someone has control over you and do what they tell you to do *He was forced to* ***submit to*** *a full body search.*

submultiple /ˌsʌbˈmʌltɪp^{ə}l/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a number that divides into another number an exact number of times

subordinate¹ /səˈbɔːd^{ə}nət/ *adjective* less important or lower in rank *a* ***subordinate position/role*** ○ *An individual's needs are* ***subordinate to*** *those of the group.*

subordinate² /səˈbɔːd^{ə}nət/ *noun* [C] someone who has a less important position than someone else in an organization

subordinate³ /səˈbɔːdɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to put someone or something into a less important position ●**subordination** /səˌbɔːdɪˈneɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U]

sub ˌordinate ˈclause *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** in grammar, a clause which cannot form a separate sentence but adds information to the main clause

subpoena /səbˈpiːnə/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a legal document ordering someone to go to court ●**subpoena** *verb* [T] to give someone a subpoena

subscribe /səbˈskraɪb/ *verb* [I] **FINANCE** to pay money to an organization so that you regularly receive a service or product, such as a magazine or newspaper *to* ***subscribe to*** *a magazine/an internet service* ●**subscriber** *noun* [C] **subscribe to sth** *phrasal verb formal* to agree with an opinion, belief, etc *I certainly don't subscribe to the view that women are morally superior to men.*

subscript /ˈsʌbskrɪpt/ *adjective* subscript numbers or letters are written just below the rest of the words or numbers, often in a smaller size ●**subscript** *noun* [U] ➲Compare **superscript**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***subscription***

cancel/pay/take out a subscription ● a subscription **to** sth ● an **annual** subscription

subscription /səbˈskrɪpʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money that you pay regularly to

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receive a product or service or to be a member of an organization *an **annual subscription***

subsequent /ˈsʌbsɪkwənt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] happening after something else *The mistakes were corrected in a subsequent edition of the book.* ●**subsequently** *adverb*

subservient /səbˈsɜːviənt/ *adjective* always doing what other people want you to do

subset /ˈsʌbset/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** a set (= group of similar numbers, objects or people) that is part of another, larger set

subside /səbˈsaɪd/ *verb* [I] **1** LESS STRONG to become less strong or extreme *The violence seems to be subsiding at last.* **2** BUILDING If a building subsides, it sinks down to a lower level.

subsidence /səbˈsaɪdᵊns/ *noun* [U] when buildings subside or land sinks down to a lower level

subsidiary /səbˈsɪdiᵊri/ *noun* [C] a company which is owned by another larger company

subsidize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsʌbsɪdaɪz/ *verb* [T] **FINANCE** If a government or other organization subsidizes something, it pays part of the cost of it, so that prices are reduced. *We have a subsidized restaurant at work.*

subsidy /ˈsʌbsɪdi/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** money given by a government or other organization to pay part of the cost of something *housing subsidies for the poor*

subsist /səbˈsɪst/ *verb* [I] to manage to live when you only have a very small amount of food or money ●**subsistence** *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***substance***

a **dangerous/hazardous/toxic** substance ● a **powdery/sticky/waxy** substance

O-key **substance** /ˈsʌbstᵊns/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [C] a solid, liquid, or gas *a **dangerous substance*** ○ *illegal substances* (= illegal drugs) **2** TRUTH [U] truth or importance *There's no **substance to** the allegations.* **3 the substance of sth** the most important part of what someone has said or written

substandard /sʌbˈstændəd/ *adjective* Something that is substandard is not as good as it should be. *substandard conditions/housing*

substantial /səbˈstænʃᵊl/ *adjective* **1** AMOUNT large in amount *a substantial change/increase* ○ *a substantial amount of money/time* **2** STRENGTH large and strong *a substantial building* ➲Opposite **insubstantial**

substantially /səbˈstænʃᵊli/ *adverb* by a large amount *House prices are substantially higher in the south.*

substantiate /səbˈstænʃieɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to provide facts which prove that something is true *His **claims** have never been **substantiated**.*

substantive /ˈsʌbstᵊntɪv/ *adjective formal* important or serious *a **substantive issue***

substitute¹ /ˈsʌbstɪtjuːt/ *noun* [C] someone or something that is used instead of another person or thing *Margarine can be used as **a substitute for** butter.* ○ *a substitute teacher*

substitute² /ˈsʌbstɪtjuːt/ *verb* **1** [T] to use someone or something instead of another person or thing *You can **substitute** pasta **for** the rice, if you prefer.* **2 substitute for sb** to do someone's job because they are not there *I'm substituting for her while she's on holiday.* ●**substitution** /ˌsʌbstɪˈtjuːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

substrate /ˈsʌbstreɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** a substance or surface which an organism grows and lives on and uses as food **2** **CHEMISTRY** a substance which an enzyme acts on to produce a chemical reaction

subsume /səbˈsjuːm/ *verb* [T] *formal* to include someone or something as part of a larger group [**often passive**] *The company has been subsumed by a large US bank.*

subterfuge /ˈsʌbtəfjuːdʒ/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* a trick or a dishonest way of achieving something *They obtained the information by subterfuge.*

subterranean /ˌsʌbtᵊrˈeɪniən/ *adjective* under the ground *subterranean passages*

subtitles /ˈsʌbˌtaɪtlz/ *noun* [**plural**] words shown at the bottom of a cinema or television screen to explain what is being said *It's a French film with English subtitles.*

subtle /ˈsʌtl/ *adjective* **1** NOT OBVIOUS not obvious or easy to notice *a subtle change/difference* ○ ***a subtle hint*** **2** NOT STRONG A subtle flavour, colour, etc is delicate and not strong or bright. **3** CLEVER clever in a way that does not attract attention *a subtle way of solving the problem* ●**subtly** *adverb*

subtlety /ˈsʌtlti/ *noun* **1** QUALITY [U] the quality of being subtle **2** THING [C] something that is subtle

subtract /səbˈtrækt/ *verb* [T] **MATHEMATICS** to take a number or amount away from another number or amount *You need to **subtract** 25% **from** the final figure.* ●**subtraction** /səbˈtrækʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

subtropical /ˌsʌbˈtrɒpɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to parts of the world that are immediately south or north of the tropics (= the hottest areas) *a subtropical climate* ●**the subtropics** /ˌsʌbˈtrɒpɪks/ *noun* [**plural**]

suburb /ˈsʌbɜːb/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an area where people live outside the centre of a city *a suburb of New York* ●**suburban** /səˈbɜːbᵊn/ *adjective* relating to a suburb *a suburban area/home*

suburbia /səˈbɜːbiə/ *noun* [U] **GEOGRAPHY** the suburbs of towns and cities generally

subversive /səbˈvɜːsɪv/ *adjective* **POLITICS** trying to destroy the authority of a government, religion, etc *subversive literature* ●**subversive** *noun* [C] someone who is subversive

subvert /sʌbˈvɜːt/ *verb* [T] **POLITICS** *formal* to try to destroy the authority of a government, religion, etc *a plot to subvert the government* ●**subversion** /səbˈvɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] *formal*

subway /ˈsʌbweɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** PASSAGE *UK* (*UK/US* **underpass**) a passage under a road or railway for people to walk through **2** TRAIN *US* (*UK* **underground**) a system of trains that travel underground *We can **take the subway** to Grand Central Station.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **metro**

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sub-zero /ˌsʌbˈzɪərəʊ/ *adjective* Sub-zero temperatures are temperatures below zero degrees.

succeed /səkˈsiːd/ *verb* **1** ACHIEVE [I] to achieve what you are trying to achieve *She has the skill and determination to succeed.* [**+ in + doing sth**] *He has finally succeeded in passing his exams.* **2** TAKE POSITION [T] to take an official job or position after someone else *The Queen was succeeded by her eldest son when she died.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

succeed

Remember that **succeed** is often followed by the preposition **in + doing sth**. It is not used with 'to do sth'.

Two prisoners succeeded in escaping.

~~*Two prisoners succeeded to escape.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***success***

achieve/have success ● the **key to/secret of** success ● success **in** (doing) sth ● **without** success

success /səkˈses/ *noun* **1** ACHIEVEMENT [U] when you achieve what you want to achieve *Her success is due to hard work and determination.* **2** GOOD RESULT [C] something that has a good result or that is very popular *His first film was a great success.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

success

Be careful to choose the correct verb with this noun.

*The evening **was** a great success.*

*They tried for weeks but **had** little success.*

*They are determined to **make** a success of the scheme.*

~~*She reached success as a writer.*~~

successful /səkˈsesfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** ACHIEVEMENT achieving what you want to achieve *If the operation is successful, she should be walking within a few months.* **2** WORK having achieved a lot or made a lot of money through your work *a successful businessman* **3** POPULAR very popular *a successful book/film* ➲Opposite **unsuccessful** ●**successfully** *adverb*

succession /səkˈseʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** EVENTS [**no plural**] a number of similar events or people that happen, exist, etc after each other *to suffer a **succession of** injuries* ○ *a succession of boyfriends* **2 in quick/rapid succession** If several things happen in quick/rapid succession, they happen very quickly after each other. *She had her first three children in quick succession.* **3** POSITION [U] when someone takes an official position or job after someone else

successive /səkˈsesɪv/ *adjective* happening after each other *He has just won the World Championship for the third **successive year**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***successor***

appoint/choose/find a successor ● a **natural/worthy** successor ● a successor **to** sb

successor /səkˈsesəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who has a position or job after someone else *He is her most likely successor.* **2** THING an organization, product, etc that follows and takes the place of an earlier one

succinct /səkˈsɪŋkt/ *adjective* said in a very clear way using only a few words *a succinct explanation* ●**succinctly** *adverb*

succulent /ˈsʌkjələnt/ *adjective* **FOOD** If food is succulent, it is good to eat because it has a lot of juice. *a succulent piece of meat*

succumb /səˈkʌm/ *verb* [I] *formal* **1** to not be able to stop yourself doing something *I **succumbed to** temptation and had some cheesecake.* **2** **HEALTH** to die or suffer badly from an illness

such /sʌtʃ/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** REFER TO used to refer to something or someone that you were just talking about, or something or someone of that type *It's difficult to know how to treat such cases.* **2** FOR EMPHASIS used to emphasize a quality of someone or something *She's such a nice person.* ○ *It's such a shame that he's leaving.* **3 such as** for example *She can't eat dairy products, such as milk and cheese.* **4 as such** used after a word or phrase in negative statements to mean in the exact meaning of that word or phrase *There are no rules as such, just a few guidelines.* **5 such...that** used to talk about the result of something *The whole thing was such a worry that I began to lose sleep over it.* **6 there's no such thing/person (as)...** used to say that something or someone does not exist *There's no such thing as ghosts.*

such-and-such /ˈsʌtʃᵊnsʌtʃ/ *determiner informal* used instead of referring to a particular or exact thing *If they tell you to arrive at such-and-such a time, get there a couple of minutes before.*

suck /sʌk/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to have something in your mouth and use your tongue, lips, etc to pull on it or to get liquid, air, etc out of it *to suck a sweet/lollipop* ○ *to suck your thumb* **2 suck sth in/under/up, etc** to pull something somewhere using the force of moving air, water, etc *He was sucked under the boat and drowned.* **3 be sucked into sth** to become involved in something bad when you do not want to **4 he/it/this, etc sucks!** *US very informal* If someone or something sucks, they are bad or unpleasant.

suck up to sb *phrasal verb very informal* to try to make someone who is in authority like you by doing and saying things that will please them

sucker /ˈsʌkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** *informal* someone who believes everything that you tell them and is easy to deceive **2** **BIOLOGY** something that helps an animal or object stick to a surface

sucrase /ˈsuːkreɪz/ (*also* **invertase**) *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an enzyme (= substance in the body that makes chemical reactions happen) found in the intestines that breaks down sucrose to fructose and glucose

sucrose /ˈsuːkrəʊz/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a type of sugar that exists naturally in many plants

suction /ˈsʌkʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **PHYSICS** when something is forced into a container or space by removing air

O-K **sudden** /ˈsʌdᵊn/ *adjective* **1** done or happening quickly and unexpectedly *a sudden change/increase* ○ *His sudden death was a great shock to us all.* **2 all of a sudden** unexpectedly *All of a sudden she got up and walked out.* ●**suddenness** *noun* [U]

ˌsudden ˌinfant ˈdeath ˌsyndrome *noun* [U] HEALTH SIDS

O-K **suddenly** /ˈsʌdᵊnli/ *adverb* quickly and unexpectedly *I suddenly realized who she was.* ○ *It all happened so suddenly that I can't remember much about it.*

Sudoku (also **Su Doku**) /ˌsuːˈdɒkuː/ *noun* [C, U] a number game in which you have to write a number between 1 and 9 in each small box of a 9x9 square

suds /sʌdz/ *noun* [plural] small bubbles made from soap and water

sue /suː/ *verb* [I, T] **suing**, *past* **sued** LAW to take legal action against someone and try to get money from them because they have harmed you *He **sued** the newspaper **for** slander.*

suede /sweɪd/ *noun* [U] leather that has a slightly rough surface

O-K **suffer** /ˈsʌfəʳ/ *verb* **1** PAIN [I, T] to experience pain or unpleasant emotions *I can't bear to see animals suffering.* **2 suffer from sth** HEALTH to have an illness or other health problem *She suffers from severe depression.* **3 suffer a broken leg/a heart attack, etc** to experience an injury or other sudden health problem *He suffered a serious neck injury in the accident.* **4 suffer damage/defeat/loss, etc** to experience something bad such as damage/defeat/loss, etc **5** BECOME WORSE [I] to become worse in quality *If you're tired all the time your work tends to suffer.*

sufferer /ˈsʌfərəʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone who suffers from an illness or other health problem *AIDS/cancer sufferers*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***suffering***

create/endure/relieve suffering ● **human** suffering ● **unnecessary/unspeakable** suffering ● the suffering **of** sb

suffering /ˈsʌfərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when someone experiences pain or unpleasant emotions ***human suffering***

suffice /səˈfaɪs/ *verb* [I] *formal* to be enough *You don't need to give a long speech - a few sentences will suffice.*

sufficient /səˈfɪʃᵊnt/ *adjective* as much as is necessary *She didn't have sufficient time to answer all the questions.* ➲Opposite **insufficient** ●**sufficiently** *adverb I was sufficiently close to hear what they were saying.* ➲See also: **self-sufficient**

suffix /ˈsʌfɪks/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a group of letters that you add to the end of a word to make another word. In the word 'slowly', '-ly' is a suffix. ➲See Extra help page **Word formation** on page Centre 29. ➲Compare **prefix**

suffocate /ˈsʌfəkeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to die because you cannot breathe or to kill someone by stopping them from breathing *He suffocated her with a pillow.* ●**suffocation** /ˌsʌfəˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

suffrage /ˈsʌfrɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] POLITICS the right to vote in an election *universal suffrage* (= the right of all adults to vote)

suffragette /ˌsʌfrəˈdʒet/ *noun* [C] POLITICS a woman in Britain, Australia and the United States in the early 20th century who was a member of a group that fought for the right of women to vote

suffragist /ˈsʌfrədʒɪst/ *noun* [C] POLITICS someone who supports the right of people to vote in elections, especially a supporter of the right of women to vote in the early 20th century

O-K **sugar** /ˈʃʊgəʳ/ *noun* **1** FOOD [U] a very sweet substance used to give flavour to food and drinks *coffee with milk and sugar* **2** FOOD [C] a spoon of sugar in a cup of tea or coffee *He likes two sugars in his tea.*

O-K **suggest** /səˈdʒest/ *verb* [T] **1** IDEA to express an idea or plan for someone to consider [+ **(that)**] *I suggest that we park the car here and walk into town.* [+ **doing sth**] *He suggested having the meeting at his house.* **2** ADVICE to say that someone or something is suitable for something *to suggest someone for a job* ○ *Can you suggest a good hotel?* **3** SEEM TRUE to make something seem likely to be true *All the evidence suggests that she did it.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***suggestion***

A suggestion about what to do is sometimes described as a **thought** or **idea**: *Rebecca has a few **ideas** about how we could improve things.* ● *I've had a **thought** about what we might do this summer.*

If someone suggests a plan or action, especially in business, you can use nouns such as **proposal** or **proposition**: *The **proposal** for a new sports hall has been rejected.* ● *He wrote to me with a very interesting business **proposition**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***suggestion***

bristle at/deny/make/reject/welcome a suggestion ● an **alternative/constructive/helpful/ridiculous/sensible** suggestion ● **at** sb's suggestion

O-K **suggestion** /səˈdʒestʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** [C] an idea or plan that someone suggests *to **make** a **suggestion*** ○ *Have you got any suggestions for improvements?* **2 a suggestion of/that sth** something that makes something seem likely to be true *There's no suggestion of any connection between the two men.* **3 at sb's suggestion** following the advice that someone has given you *We went to that restaurant at Paul's suggestion.*

suggestive /səˈdʒestɪv/ *adjective* **1** making you think about sex *suggestive comments/remarks* **2 suggestive of sth** *formal* similar to something and making you think about it *The shapes are suggestive of human forms.* ●**suggestively** *adverb*

suicidal /ˌsuːɪˈsaɪdᵊl/ *adjective* **1** UNHAPPY so unhappy that you want to kill yourself *to feel suicidal* **2** DANGEROUS likely to have an extremely bad result *a suicidal decision*

suicide /ˈsuːɪsaɪd/ *noun* **1** DEATH [C, U] when you intentionally kill yourself *He **committed suicide** after a long period of depression.* **2** MISTAKE

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[U] when you do something that will have an extremely bad result for you ***political suicide***

ˈsuicide ˌbomber *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a person who has a bomb hidden on their body and who kills themselves in the attempt to kill others

suit¹ /suːt/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOTHES a jacket and trousers or a jacket and skirt that are made from the same material *She wore a dark blue suit.* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8 **2** CARDS one of the four types of cards with different shapes on them in a set of playing cards **3 follow suit** to do the same as someone else has just done *If other shops lower their prices, we will have to follow suit.* ➲See also: **bathing suit, pant suit, trouser suit, wet suit**

suit² /suːt/ *verb* [T] **1** ATTRACTIVE to make someone look more attractive *Green really suits you.* **2** ACCEPTABLE to be acceptable or right for someone *It would suit me better if we left a bit earlier.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **fit 3 be suited to/for sth** to be right for someone or something *These plants are better suited to a warm climate.* ➲See also: suit sb down to the **ground**¹

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***suitable***

A common alternative to 'suitable' is the adjective **appropriate**: *Is this film **appropriate** for young children?* ● *You should bring **appropriate** footwear.*

If an action is suitable for a particular situation, you can use the adjectives **apt** or **fitting**: *'Unusual', yes, that's a very **apt** description.* ● *The promotion was a **fitting** reward for all his hard work.*

The adjective **right** can also be used to show that someone or something is suitable for a particular situation: *I'm not sure that she's the **right** person for the job.* ● *Is this the **right** way to do it?*

If someone or something is very suitable, you can use the adjective **perfect**: *It's a **perfect** day for a picnic.* ● *She'd be **perfect** for the job.*

The expression **in keeping with** is sometimes used when something is suitable for a particular style or tradition: *The antique desk was very much **in keeping with** the rest of the furniture in the room.*

suitable /ˈsuːtəbl/ *adjective* acceptable or right for someone or something *a suitable time to call* ○ *This film is **suitable for** children.* ➲Opposite **unsuitable** ●**suitably** *adverb suitably dressed*

suitcase /ˈsuːtkeɪs/ *noun* [C] a rectangular case with a handle that you use for carrying clothes when you are travelling *to **pack** your **suitcase***

suite /swiːt/ *noun* [C] **1** FURNITURE several pieces of furniture which go together *a bedroom suite* **2** ROOMS a set of hotel rooms which are used together ➲See also: **en suite**

suitor /ˈsuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* a man who wants to marry a particular woman

sulfur /ˈsʌlfəʳ/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** *US spelling of* sulphur

sulk /sʌlk/ *verb* [I] to look unhappy and not speak to anyone because you are angry about something *He's upstairs sulking in his bedroom.* ●**sulky** *adjective a sulky teenager*

sullen /ˈsʌlən/ *adjective* in an unpleasant mood and not smiling or speaking to anyone

sulphate *UK* (*US* **sulfate**) /ˈsʌlfeɪt/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical formed from sulphur, oxygen and another element

sulphide (*US* **sulfide**) /ˈsʌlfaɪd/ *noun* [C, U] **CHEMISTRY** a chemical formed from sulphur and another element

sulphur *UK* (*US* **sulfur**) /ˈsʌlfəʳ/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a yellow chemical element that has an unpleasant smell (symbol **S**)

ˌsulphur diˈoxide (*US* **sulfur dioxide**) *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a gas with no colour which has a strong unpleasant smell and dissolves in water. It is used in various industrial processes and for keeping food fresh, and causes serious air pollution (formula SO_2).

sulphuric acid (*US* **sulfuric acid**) /sʌlˌfjʊərɪkˈæsɪd/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a strong acid with no colour (formula H_2SO_4)

sultan /ˈsʌltᵊn/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a ruler in some Muslim countries

sultana /sʌlˈtɑːnə/ *noun* [C] *UK* **FOOD** a dried grape (= small round fruit) often used in cakes

sultry /ˈsʌltri/ *adjective* **1** SEXUALLY ATTRACTIVE If a woman is sultry, she behaves in a sexually attractive way. *a sultry voice* **2** HOT If the weather is sultry, it is hot and wet. *a sultry summer night*

sum¹ /sʌm/ *noun* [C] **1 FINANCE** an amount of money *a large/small sum of money* **2 MATHEMATICS** *UK* a simple mathematical calculation such as adding two numbers together *Kids these days can't **do sums** without a calculator.* **3 MATHEMATICS** the total amount that you get when you add two or more numbers together *The sum of six and seven is thirteen.* ➲See also: **lump sum**

sum² /sʌm/ *verb* **summing**, *past* **summed**
sum (sth/sb) up *phrasal verb* to describe briefly the important facts or characteristics of something or someone *The purpose of a conclusion is to sum up the main points of an essay.*
sum sth/sb up *phrasal verb* to quickly decide what you think about something or someone *I think she summed up the situation very quickly.*

summarize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsʌmᵊraɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to describe briefly the main facts or ideas of something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***summary*** *(noun)*

give/produce/provide a summary ● a **brief/quick/short** summary ● a summary **of** sth

summary¹ /ˈsʌmᵊri/ *noun* [C] a short description that gives the main facts or ideas about something *He **gave a** brief **summary of** what happened.*

summary² /ˈsʌmᵊri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* decided or done quickly, without the usual discussions or legal arrangements *a **summary arrest/execution***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***summer***

in (the) summer ● **last/next** summer ● **early/late** summer ● the summer **months**

O-key **summer** /ˈsʌmər/ *noun* [**C, U**] the season of the year between spring and autumn, when the weather is warmest *We usually go away **in the summer**.* ○ *a long, hot summer* ●**summery** *adjective* typical of or suitable for summer

ˌ**summer** ˈ**holiday** (*US* **summer vacation**) *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** the time during the summer when you do not have to go to school

ˈ**summer** ˌ**school** *noun* [**C**] **EDUCATION** an educational course that happens during the summer when other courses have finished

summertime /ˈsʌmətaɪm/ *noun* [**U**] when it is summer ***In the summertime**, we often eat outside.*

summit /ˈsʌmɪt/ *noun* [**C**] **1 POLITICS** an important meeting between the leaders of two or more governments *a two-day summit* ○ *a summit meeting* **2 GEOGRAPHY** the top of a mountain *The climbers hope to **reach the summit** before nightfall.*

summon /ˈsʌmən/ *verb* [**T**] **1** *formal* to officially order someone to come to a place *He was summoned to a meeting.* **2 summon (up) the courage/strength, etc** to make a great effort to do something [**+ to do sth**] *He tried to summon up the courage to speak to her.*

summons /ˈsʌmənz/ *noun* [**C**] **LAW** an official order saying that you must go to a court of law

Sun *written abbreviation for* Sunday

sun² /sʌn/ *verb* **sunning**, *past* **sunned sun yourself** to sit or lie in the sun

O-key **sun¹** /sʌn/ *noun* **1 the sun ASTRONOMY** the large, bright star that shines in the sky during the day and provides light and heat for the Earth **2** [**U no plural**] the light and heat that comes from the sun *I can't sit **in the sun** for too long.*

sunbathe /ˈsʌnbeɪð/ *verb* [**I**] to sit or lie in the sun so that your skin becomes brown ●**sunbathing** *noun* [**U**]

sunbed /ˈsʌnbed/ (*US* **tanning bed**) *noun* [**C**] a piece of equipment with a flat area like a bed and a strong light, which you lie on in order to make your skin go darker

sunblock /ˈsʌnblɒk/ *noun* [**C, U**] sunscreen

sunburn /ˈsʌnbɜːn/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** when your skin becomes painful and red from being in the sun too long ●**sunburnt** (*also* **sunburned**) *adjective*

sundae /ˈsʌndeɪ/ *noun* [**C**] **FOOD** a sweet dish made of ice cream with fruit and nuts

O-key **Sunday** /ˈsʌndeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Sun**) *noun* [**C, U**] the day of the week after Saturday and before Monday

sundial /ˈsʌndaɪl/ *noun* [**C**] a device for telling the time by a shadow made by the sun

sundry /ˈsʌndri/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] of different types ***sundry items*** **2 all and sundry** *UK informal* (*US* **various and sundry**) everyone *I don't want all and sundry knowing about my problems.*

sunflower /ˈsʌnflaʊər/ *noun* [**C**] a tall, yellow flower with a large, black centre full of seeds

sung /sʌŋ/ *past participle of* sing

sunglasses /ˈsʌnˌglɑːsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] dark glasses that you wear to protect your eyes from the sun ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

sunk /sʌŋk/ **1** PAST PARTICIPLE *past participle of* sink **2** PAST TENSE *US past tense of* sink

sunken /ˈsʌŋkən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** LOW at a lower level than the surrounding area *a sunken bath* **2** SEA having fallen down to the bottom of the sea *a sunken ship* **3 sunken eyes/cheeks** eyes or cheeks that make you look ill because they go too far into your face

sunlight /ˈsʌnlaɪt/ *noun* [**U**] the light from the sun

sunlit /ˈsʌnlɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A sunlit place is bright because of light from the sun. *a sunlit room*

ˈ**sun** ˌ**lotion** *noun* [**C, U**] sunscreen

Sunni /ˈsʊni/ *noun* [**C**] **RELIGION** a member of a large group within the Islamic religion ●**Sunni** *adjective* describing the Sunni or their type of Islam

sunny /ˈsʌni/ *adjective* **1** BRIGHT bright because of light from the sun *a lovely **sunny day*** **2** HAPPY behaving in a happy way *a sunny smile/personality*

sunrise /ˈsʌnraɪz/ *noun* [**C, U**] when the sun appears in the morning and the sky becomes light

sunroof /ˈsʌnruːf/ *noun* [**C**] part of a roof of a car which you open to allow air and light from the sun to come in

sunscreen /ˈsʌnskriːn/ *noun* [**C, U**] a substance that protects your skin in the sun

sunset /ˈsʌnset/ *noun* [**C, U**] when the sun disappears in the evening and the sky becomes dark

sunshine /ˈsʌnʃaɪn/ *noun* [**U**] the light from the sun *Let's sit over there in the sunshine.*

sunstroke /ˈsʌnstrəʊk/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** an illness caused by spending too much time in the sun

suntan /ˈsʌntæn/ (*also* **tan**) *noun* [**C**] when your skin is brown from being in the sun *suntan oil* ●**suntanned** (*also* **tanned**) *adjective*

super /ˈsuːpər/ *adjective, adverb informal old-fashioned* very good *We had a super time.*

super- /suːpər-/ *prefix* extremely or more than usual *a supermodel* ○ *super-rich*

superb /suːˈpɜːb/ *adjective* excellent *a superb performance/restaurant* ●**superbly** *adverb*

superbug /ˈsuːpəbʌg/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a type of bacteria (= very small living things that cause disease) that is very difficult to destroy

supercomputer /ˈsuːpəkəmˌpjuːtər/ *noun* [**C**] **COMPUTING** a very powerful computer

super-cooled /ˌsuːpəˈkuːld/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** Supercooled liquids have been made colder than the temperature at which they would normally freeze without freezing them.

superficial /ˌsuːpəˈfɪʃəl/ *adjective* **1** NOT SERIOUS If someone is superficial, they never think about things that are serious or important. **2** NOT COMPLETE not complete and involving

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only the most obvious things ***superficial knowledge*** ○ ***a superficial resemblance*** **3** NOT DEEP only on the surface of something ***superficial damage/injuries*** ●**superficially** *adverb*

superfluous /suːˈpɜːfluəs/ *adjective* not needed, or more than is needed ***superfluous details/information***

supergroup /ˈsuːpəˌgruːp/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a very successful pop group

superhuman /ˌsuːpəˈhjuːmən/ *adjective* **superhuman effort/strength, etc** more effort/strength, etc than a normal human being

superimpose /ˌsuːpᵊrɪmˈpəʊz/ *verb* [T] **ART** to put an image, text, etc over something so that the thing under it can still be seen

superintendent /ˌsuːpᵊrɪnˈtendənt/ *noun* [C] **1** **LAW** in Britain, a police officer of high rank **2** OFFICIAL in the US, an official responsible for a place, event, etc

superior¹ /suːˈpɪəriəʳ/ *adjective* **1** BETTER better than other things *superior quality* ○ *This car is far* ***superior to*** *the others.* **2** OPINION thinking that you are better than other people *She has a very superior manner.*

superior² /suːˈpɪəriəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone in a higher position than you at work *I will have to report this to my superiors.*

superiority /suːˌpɪəriˈɒrəti/ *noun* [U] **1** BETTER when something is better than other things *the superiority of modern design* **2** OPINION when you think that you are better than other people *She has an* ***air of superiority.***

superlative /suːˈpɜːlətɪv/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** the form of an adjective or adverb that is used to show that someone or something has more of a particular quality than anyone or anything else. For example 'best' is the superlative of 'good' and 'slowest' is the superlative of 'slow'. ➲Compare **comparative**

O-K **supermarket** /ˈsuːpəˌmɑːkɪt/ *noun* [C] a large shop that sells food, drink, products for the home, etc

supermodel /ˈsuːpəˌmɒdᵊl/ *noun* [C] a very famous model (= someone whose job is to wear fashionable clothes for photographs)

the supernatural /ˌsuːpəˈnætʃᵊrᵊl/ *noun* things that cannot be explained by our knowledge of science or nature ●**supernatural** *adjective* ***supernatural forces/powers***

supernova /ˌsuːpəˈnəʊvə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **supernovas** or **supernovae** **ASTRONOMY** a star that becomes very bright for a few days because it is exploding

superpower /ˈsuːpəˌpaʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a country that has great military and political power in the world

superscript /ˈsuːpəskrɪpt/ *adjective* superscript numbers or letters are written just above the rest of the words or numbers, often in a smaller size ●**superscript** *noun* [U] ➲Compare **subscript**

supersede /ˌsuːpəˈsiːd/ *verb* [T] to take the place of someone or something that went before [**often passive**] *Records were superseded by CDs.*

supersonic /ˌsuːpəˈsɒnɪk/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** faster than the speed of sound *supersonic aircraft*

superstar /ˈsuːpəstɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] a very famous singer, performer, etc

superstition /ˌsuːpəˈstɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] when someone believes that particular actions or objects are lucky or unlucky

superstitious /ˌsuːpəˈstɪʃəs/ *adjective* believing that particular objects or events are lucky or unlucky *Are you superstitious about the number 13?*

superstore /ˈsuːpəstɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] a very large shop that sells many different things, often outside a town

supervise /ˈsuːpəvaɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to watch a person or activity and make certain that everything is done correctly, safely, etc *Students must be supervised by a teacher at all times.* ●**supervisor** *noun* [C] someone who supervises

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***supervision***

be **under** supervision ● **close/constant** supervision ● the supervision **of** sb/sth

supervision /ˌsuːpəˈvɪʒᵊn/ *noun* [U] when you supervise someone or something *He needs* ***constant supervision.***

supper /ˈsʌpəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a meal that you eat in the evening *What are we having for supper?*

supplant /səˈplɑːnt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to take the place of someone or something

supple /ˈsʌpl/ *adjective* able to bend or move easily *a supple body*

supplement /ˈsʌplɪmənt/ *noun* [C] an extra amount or part added to something *to take a* ***vitamin supplement*** ○ *a newspaper with a* ***colour supplement*** ●**supplement** /ˈsʌplɪment/ *verb* [T] *She works part-time to supplement her pension.*

supplementary /ˌsʌplɪˈmentᵊri/ (*also US* **supplemental**) *adjective* added to something ***supplementary materials***

ˌsupplementary ˈangle *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** one of two angles which together add up to 180° ➲Compare **complementary angle**

supplier /səˈplaɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who provides things that people want or need, often over a long period of time

supplies /səˈplaɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] the food, equipment, etc that is needed for a particular activity, holiday, etc

O-K **supply¹** /səˈplaɪ/ *verb* [T] to provide things that people want or need, often over a long period of time *to supply food/drugs to people* ○ *This lake* ***supplies*** *the whole town* ***with*** *water.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***supply*** *(noun)*

a supply **of** sth ● a **constant/endless/plentiful** supply

O-K **supply²** /səˈplaɪ/ *noun* **1** AMOUNT [C] an amount of something that is ready to be used *a* ***supply of*** *water* ○ *food supplies* **2 in short supply** If something is in short supply, there is little of it available. **3** SYSTEM [C] the system of supplying something to people *Someone has turned off the electricity supply.*

support¹ /sə'pɔːt/ *verb* [T] **1** AGREE to agree with an idea, group, or person *Do you **support** their **views** on nuclear weapons?* **2** PROVE to help to show that something is true *There's no evidence to **support** his **story**.* **3** HOLD to hold the weight of someone or something *Is this ladder strong enough to support me?* **4** PAY to look after someone by paying for their food, clothes, etc *She has three children to support.* **5** SPORT *mainly UK* to like a particular sports team and want them to win *Who do you support?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***support** (noun)*

enlist/express/give/lose/rally support ● **overwhelming/public/strong/tacit/widespread** support ● support **for** sb/sth

support² /sə'pɔːt/ *noun* **1** AGREEMENT [U] agreement with an idea, group or person *Is there much public **support for** the death penalty?* **2 in support of sb/sth** agreeing with someone or something *The minister spoke in support of military action.* **3** HELP [U] help or encouragement ***emotional/financial support*** **4** OBJECT [C] an object that can hold the weight of something ➲See also: **child support, income support, moral support**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***supporter***

a **keen/loyal/staunch/strong** supporter ● a supporter **of** sth

supporter /sə'pɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** IDEA someone who supports a particular idea, group, or person *a **strong supporter of** the government* **2 SPORT** *mainly UK* someone who likes a particular sports team and wants them to win *English football supporters*

supportive /sə'pɔːtɪv/ *adjective* giving help or encouragement *a very supportive friend*

suppose /sə'pəʊz/ *verb* **1 be supposed to do sth a** to be expected or intended to do something, especially when this does not happen *These drugs are supposed to reduce the pain.* ○ *He was supposed to be here by nine.* **b** If you are supposed to do something, the rules say that you should do it. *You're supposed to pay by the end of the month.* ○ *You're not supposed to* (= you should not) smoke in here. **2 be supposed to be sth** to be considered by many people to be something *The scenery is supposed to be fantastic.* **3** [T] to think that something is likely to be true [+ **(that)**] *I suppose that you've already heard the news?* **4 suppose/supposing (that)** used to introduce an idea for someone to consider *Suppose he phones tonight. What should I say?* **5 I suppose** used to show that you are not certain or not completely happy about something *It was quite interesting, I suppose.* **6 I suppose so** used to show agreement to something when you do not really want to *"Can I come with you?" 'I suppose so."*

supposed /sə'pəʊzɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to show that you do not believe that someone or something really is what many people consider them to be *a supposed genius* ●**supposedly** /sə'pəʊzɪdli/ *adverb The building is supposedly in good condition.*

supposition /ˌsʌpə'zɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when someone believes that something is true although there is no proof

suppress /sə'pres/ *verb* [T] **1** FEELINGS to control feelings so that they do not show *I could barely suppress my anger.* **2** INFORMATION to prevent information from being known *to suppress evidence/news* **3** FIGHT to stop someone or something by using force [**often passive**] *The rebellion was suppressed by government forces.* ●**suppression** /sə'preʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

supremacy /suː'preməsi/ *noun* [U] when a country or group of people is more powerful, successful, etc than anyone else *a battle/struggle for supremacy*

supreme /suː'priːm/ *adjective* **1** IMPORTANT of the highest rank or greatest importance *the **supreme ruler*** **2** GREAT very great ***supreme confidence/effort*** ●**supremely** *adverb* very *supremely confident*

the su|preme 'court *noun* **LAW** the court of law that has the most authority in a state or country

surcharge /'sɜːtʃɑːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an extra amount of money that you have to pay for something *a surcharge for single rooms*

sure /ʃɔːʳ/ *adjective* **1** [**never before noun**] certain [+ **(that)**] *I'm sure that he won't mind.* [+ **question word**] *She's **not sure** what she's going to do next.* ○ *I'm quite **sure about** the second answer.* ➲Opposite **unsure** **2 make sure (that)** to take action so that you are certain that something happens, is true, etc *Make sure that you close all the windows before you leave.* **3 be sure of sth** to be confident that something is true *He'll win, I'm sure of it.* **4 for sure** without any doubts *I think he's from Korea but don't know for sure.* **5 be sure of yourself** to be confident of your own abilities, qualities, etc *She's always been very sure of herself.* **6 be sure to do sth a** If you are sure to do something, it is certain that you will do it. *He's sure to go back there again.* **b** used to tell someone what they must remember to do *Be sure to tell her I called.* **7 a sure sign of/that sth** something that makes something seem certain to be true **8 a sure thing** something that is certain to happen *Death is the one sure thing about life.* **9 sure** (*also US* **sure thing**) used to show agreement *"Can I borrow your pen please?" "Sure."* **10 sure enough** as expected *He said the book was on his desk, and sure enough, there it was.*

surely /'ʃɔːli/ *adverb* used to express surprise that something has happened or is going to happen *You surely didn't tell him, did you?* ○ *Surely you're not going to go out dressed like that?*

surf¹ /sɜːf/ *verb* **1 SPORT** [I] to ride on a wave in the sea using a special board **2 surf the Internet/Net/Web INTERNET** to look at information on the Internet by moving from one page to another using electronic links (= connections) ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36. ●**surfer** *noun* [C] someone who surfs ●**surfing** *noun* [U]

surf² /sɜːf/ *noun* [U] the top of the waves in the sea as it moves onto the coast

S

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***surface***

a **flat/hard/level/smooth/uneven** surface ● **cover** the surface ● **above/below/beneath/on** the surface

surface¹ /ˈsɜːfɪs/ *noun* **1** TOP [C] the top or outside part of something *the Earth's surface* ○ *The sun was reflected on the surface of the water.* **2** APPEARANCE [**no plural**] what someone or something seems to be like when you do not know much about them ***On the surface*** *he seemed very pleasant.* ➲See also: **work surface**

surface² /ˈsɜːfɪs/ *verb* **1** APPEAR [I] to appear or become public, often after being hidden *This problem **first surfaced** about two weeks ago.* ○ *So when did these **allegations surface**?* **2** RISE [I] to rise to the surface of water *The submarine surfaced a few miles off the coast.* **3** COVER [T] to cover a road with a hard substance

ˌsurface ˈarea *noun* [C **usually singular**] **MEASURES, MATHEMATICS** the area of a surface or of all of the outer surfaces of something

ˈsurface ˌmail *noun* [U] letters, parcels, etc that are sent by road, sea, or train and not by aircraft

surfboard /ˈsɜːfbɔːd/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a long piece of wood or plastic that you use to ride on waves in the sea

surfeit /ˈsɜːfɪt/ *noun* [**no plural**] *formal* too much of something *We've had **a surfeit of** applications from women for this job.*

surfing /ˈsɜːfɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** **SPORT** the sport of riding on a wave on a special board **2** **INTERNET** the activity of looking at a lot of different things on the Internet

surge¹ /sɜːdʒ/ *verb* **1 surge forward/into/through, etc** to move somewhere with great strength *The crowd surged against the barriers.* **2** [I] to increase very quickly ***Prices surged*** *on the stock exchange.*

surge² /sɜːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** INCREASE a large increase in something *a **surge in** spending* **2** MOVEMENT a sudden movement forward

surgeon /ˈsɜːdʒən/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a doctor who does medical operations ➲See also: **veterinary surgeon**

surgery /ˈsɜːdʒəri/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [U] when a doctor cuts your body open and repairs or removes something *to **have surgery*** ○ *heart/knee surgery* **2** **HEALTH** [C] *UK* a place where doctors or other medical workers treat people ➲See also: **plastic surgery**

surgical /ˈsɜːdʒɪkəl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** relating to medical operations *surgical instruments/gloves* ●**surgically** *adverb*

surly /ˈsɜːli/ *adjective* unfriendly and rude *a surly teenager*

surmount /səˈmaʊnt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to deal successfully with a problem

surname /ˈsɜːneɪm/ *noun* [C] the name that you and other members of your family all have *His surname is Walker.*

surpass /səˈpɑːs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to be or do better than someone or something else *The book's success **surpassed** everyone's **expectations**.*

surplus /ˈsɜːpləs/ *noun* [C, U] **1** an amount of something that is more than you need *Every year we produce a huge **surplus of** meat.* **2** **FINANCE** the amount of money you have left when you sell more than you buy, or spend less than you have ●**surplus** *adjective surplus wheat*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***surprise***

come as a surprise ● a **big/nice/unpleasant** surprise ● a surprise **to** sb ● a surprise **party**

surprise¹ /səˈpraɪz/ *noun* **1** EVENT [C] an event that you did not expect to happen *I didn't know that my parents were coming - it was a lovely surprise.* ○ *Her resignation **came as a** complete **surprise*** (= was very surprising). ○ *a **surprise party*** **2** FEELING [U] the feeling that you get when something happens that you did not expect *He agreed to everything, much **to** my **surprise**.* **3** **take/catch sb by surprise** to be unexpected and make someone feel surprise *I wasn't expecting her to be so angry - it took me by surprise.*

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***surprise***

An unpleasant surprise is often described as a **shock**: *We got a nasty **shock** when he gave us the bill.* ● *His death came as a terrible **shock**.*

A **blow** is a surprising event that causes someone to feel very sad and disappointed: *Losing his job was a terrible **blow** to him.*

Something which is so surprising that it is almost difficult to believe is sometimes described as a **miracle**: *It's a **miracle** that she survived the accident.* ● *If I pass this exam it'll be a **miracle**.*

The expression **a rude awakening** is sometimes used if someone has an unpleasant surprise when they discover the truth about a situation: *She'll be in for **a rude awakening** when she has to pay her own bills.*

If you want to say informally that an event is a surprise to you, you can use the expression **be news to**: *Sarah is leaving? Well that's **news to** me.*

surprise² /səˈpraɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** FEELING to make someone feel surprise *I didn't tell her I was coming home early - I thought I'd surprise her.* **2** CATCH to find or attack someone when they are not expecting it

surprised /səˈpraɪzd/ *adjective* feeling surprise because something has happened that you did not expect [+ **to do sth**] *I'm surprised to see you here.* ○ *She wasn't **surprised at** his decision.* [+ **(that)**] *I'm surprised that you've decided to leave.*

surprising /səˈpraɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* not expected and making someone feel surprised *It's not surprising you're putting on weight, the amount you're eating!* ●**surprisingly** *adverb surprisingly good*

surreal /səˈrɪəl/ (*also* **surrealistic** /səˌrɪəˈlɪstɪk/) *adjective* strange and not real, like something in a dream *His paintings have a surreal quality.*

surrender /səˈrendər/ *verb* **1** STOP FIGHTING [I] to stop fighting and admit that you have been

beaten *Rebel troops are refusing to surrender.* **2** GIVE [T] *formal* to give something to someone else because you have been forced or officially asked to give it to them *He was released on the condition that he surrendered his passport.* ●**surrender** *noun* [C, U]

surreptitious /ˌsʌrəpˈtɪʃəs/ *adjective* done secretly so that other people do not see ***surreptitious glances*** *at the clock* ●**surreptitiously** *adverb*

surrogate /ˈsʌrəgɪt/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used instead of someone or something else *Twenty years older than her, he effectively became a surrogate father.* ●**surrogate** *noun* [C] someone or something that is used instead of someone or something else *He seemed to regard her as a* ***surrogate for*** *his dead mother.*

ˌsurrogate ˈmother *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a woman who has a baby for a woman who is not able to have a baby herself

surround /səˈraʊnd/ *verb* [T] **1** AROUND to be or go everywhere around something or someone *The house is surrounded by a large garden.* ○ *The police have surrounded the building.* ○ *the surrounding countryside* **2 be surrounded by sb/sth** to have a lot of people or things near you *She's surrounded by the people she loves.* **3** CONNECTED WITH If a feeling or situation surrounds an event, it is closely connected with it. ***Mystery*** *still* ***surrounds*** *the exact circumstances of his death.*

surroundings /səˈraʊndɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] the place where someone or something is and the things that are in it *Have you got used to your new surroundings?*

surveillance /sɜːˈveɪləns/ *noun* [U] when someone is watched carefully, especially by the police or army, because they are expected to do something wrong *The police have* ***kept*** *the man* ***under*** *strict* ***surveillance.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***survey***

carry out/conduct/take part in a survey ● a survey **finds/reveals/shows/suggests** sth ● a survey **of** sth ● **in** a survey ● **according to** a survey ● a **recent** survey

survey¹ /ˈsɜːveɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** QUESTIONS an examination of people's opinions or behaviour made by asking people questions *Holidays in the UK are becoming more popular, according to a* ***recent survey.*** **2** BUILDING *UK* an examination of the structure of a building in order to find out if there is anything wrong with it *The bank have refused a loan until we've had a survey done on the property.* **3 GEOGRAPHY** when an area of land is looked at, and its measurements and details recorded, especially in order to make a map

survey² /səˈveɪ/ *verb* [T] **1** EXAMINE to look at or examine something carefully *I got out of the car to* ***survey*** *the* ***damage.*** **2** QUESTION to ask people questions in order to find out about their opinions or behaviour *75% of midwives surveyed were in favour of home births.* **3 GEOGRAPHY** to measure and record the details of an area of land **4** BUILDING *UK* to examine the structure of a building in order to find out if there is anything wrong with it

surveyor /səˈveɪər/ *noun* [C] **1** BUILDING *UK* someone whose job is to examine the structure of buildings **2 GEOGRAPHY** someone whose job is to measure and record the details of an area of land

survival /səˈvaɪvəl/ *noun* [U] when someone or something continues to live or exist, especially after a difficult or dangerous situation *Flood victims had to fight for survival.*

survive /səˈvaɪv/ *verb* **1** NOT DIE [I, T] to continue to live after almost dying because of an accident, illness, etc *He was born with a heart problem and only survived ten days.* ○ *No one survived the plane crash.* **2** EXIST [I, T] to continue to exist after being in a difficult or dangerous situation *Only two buildings survived the earthquake.* **3** LIVE LONGER [T] If you survive someone, you continue to live after they have died.

survivor /səˈvaɪvər/ *noun* [C] someone who continues to live after almost dying because of an accident, illness, etc *Rescuers have given up hope of finding any more survivors.*

susceptible /səˈseptəbl/ *adjective* easily influenced or harmed by something *Older people are more* ***susceptible to*** *the virus.* ○ *a susceptible young teenager* ●**susceptibility** /səˌseptəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] when someone is susceptible

sushi /ˈsuːʃi/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** Japanese food made of cold rice and fish which has not been cooked *a sushi bar*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***suspect***

the **chief/main/prime** suspect ● a suspect **for/in** sth

suspect¹ /ˈsʌspekt/ *noun* [C] **1 LAW** someone who may have committed a crime *He's the* ***prime suspect*** (= the most likely suspect) *in the murder case.* **2 the usual suspects** the people you would expect to be present somewhere or doing a particular thing *"Who was at the party?" "Oh, Adrian, John, Dave - the usual suspects."*

suspect² /səˈspekt/ *verb* [T] **1** CRIME to think that someone may have committed a crime or done something bad *He was* ***suspected of*** *drug dealing.* ○ *suspected terrorists* **2** THINK LIKELY to think that something is probably true, or is likely to happen [**+ (that)**] *They suspected that he was lying.* **3** NOT TRUST to not trust someone or something *She* ***suspected*** *his* ***motives*** *for offering to help.*

suspect³ /ˈsʌspekt/ *adjective* difficult to trust or believe *His explanation was highly suspect.*

suspend /səˈspend/ *verb* [T] **1** to stop something happening for a short time *The semi-final was suspended because of bad weather.* **2 suspend sth from/between, etc** to hang something from somewhere [**often passive**] *A light bulb was suspended from the ceiling.* **3 EDUCATION** to not allow someone to go to work or school for a period of time because they have done something wrong [**often passive**] *She was* ***suspended from*** *school for fighting.*

suspenders /səˈspendəz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** FOR WOMEN *UK* (*US* **garters**) pieces of elastic fixed to a belt that hold up a woman's stockings (= very thin pieces of clothing that cover a

S

woman's foot and leg) **2** FOR TROUSERS *US* (*UK* **braces**) two straps fixed to a pair of trousers that go over your shoulders and stop the trousers from falling down

suspense /sə'spens/ *noun* [U] the feeling of excitement that you have when you are waiting for something to happen *What's your answer then? Don't* ***keep*** *me* ***in suspense****.*

sus'pense ac,count *noun* [C] FINANCE an account where amounts of money are recorded temporarily until it is decided how to record them properly

suspension /sə'spenʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** STOP [U] when someone stops something happening for a period of time *an immediate suspension of all imports and exports* **2** EDUCATION [C, U] when someone is not allowed to go to work or school for a period of time **3** VEHICLE [C, U] equipment which is fixed to the wheels of a vehicle in order to make it move more smoothly **4** CHEMISTRY a liquid in which small pieces of solid are contained, but not dissolved

sus'pension ,bridge *noun* [C] a bridge which is supported by strong steel ropes hung from a tower at each end of the bridge

suspensory ligament /sə,spentsəri'lɪgəmənt/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY one of the strong strips of tissue in the body that hold the lens of the eye in position or that another part or organ hangs from

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***suspicion***

have a suspicion ● **confirm** sb's suspicion ● a **deep/sneaking/strong** suspicion

suspicion /sə'spɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** ABOUT SOMEONE [C, U] a feeling or belief that someone has done something wrong *They were arrested* ***on suspicion of*** *drug dealing.* ○ *Several members of staff are* ***under suspicion*** *of stealing money.* **2** ABOUT SOMETHING [C] an idea that something may be true [+ **(that)**] *I had a* ***sneaking suspicion*** *that the two events might be connected.*

suspicious /sə'spɪʃəs/ *adjective* **1** WRONG/BAD making you feel that something is wrong or that something bad or illegal is happening ***suspicious behaviour/circumstances*** ○ *I called airport security after noticing a* ***suspicious package.*** **2** NOT TRUST not trusting someone *Many of them remain* ***suspicious of*** *journalists.* ●**suspiciously** *adverb She's been acting very suspiciously lately.*

sustain /sə'steɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** CONTINUE to cause or allow something to continue for a period of time *The team may not be able to sustain this level of performance.* **2** SUPPORT to support someone or something so that they can live or exist *The money he received was hardly enough to sustain a wife and five children.* **3 sustain damage/injuries/losses** *formal* If someone or something sustains injuries, damage, losses, etc, they are injured, damaged, etc.

sustainable /sə'steɪnəbl/ *adjective* **1** able to continue over a period of time *sustainable development/growth* **2** ENVIRONMENT causing little or no damage to the environment and therefore able to continue for a long time

sustained /sə'steɪnd/ *adjective* continuing for a period of time without getting weaker *a sustained attack* ○ *sustained pressure*

SUV /,esjuː'viː/ *noun* [C, U] *abbreviation for* sports utility vehicle: a large vehicle with an engine that supplies power to all four wheels, so that the vehicle can travel easily over rough ground

svelte /svelt/ *adjective* thin in an attractive way

swab /swɒb/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a small piece of material used for cleaning an injury or for taking a small amount of a substance from someone's body so that it can be tested

swagger /'swægəʳ/ *verb* [I] to walk in a way that shows that you are confident and think that you are important *A group of young men swaggered around in leather jackets.* ●**swagger** *noun* [no plural]

swallow¹ /'swɒləʊ/ *verb* **1** [T] to move your throat in order to make food or drink go down *The snake swallowed the bird whole.* **2** [I] to make a movement with your throat as if you are eating, sometimes because you are nervous *Claire swallowed hard, opened the door and stepped inside.* **3** ACCEPT [T] to accept something unpleasant *They found the final decision* ***hard to swallow.*** **4** BELIEVE [T] *informal* to believe something, usually something which is not true *I told him we were journalists and he seemed to swallow it.* ➲See also: swallow your **pride**¹ **swallow sth up** *phrasal verb* to make something disappear *Many small businesses are being swallowed up by large international companies.*

swallow² /'swɒləʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** BIRD a small bird with long, pointed wings and a tail with two points **2** the movement of swallowing

swam /swæm/ *past tense of* swim

swamp¹ /swɒmp/ *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY an area of very wet, soft land

swamp² /swɒmp/ *verb* [T] **1** to give someone more of something than they can deal with [**often passive**] *The company was* ***swamped with*** *calls about its new service.* ○ *The market has been* ***swamped by*** *cheap imports.* **2** GEOGRAPHY If an area is swamped, it becomes covered with water. *Heavy rain has swamped many villages in the region.*

swan /swɒn/ *noun* [C] a large, white bird with a long neck which lives on lakes and rivers

swap /swɒp/ *verb* [I, T] **swapping**, *past* **swapped** to give something to someone and get something from them in return *Would you mind if Dave* ***swapped*** *places* ***with*** *you for a bit?* ●**swap** *noun* [C] *We'll* ***do a swap****.*

swarm¹ /swɔːm/ *noun* [C] a large group of things, usually insects, moving together *a swarm of bees*

swarm² /swɔːm/ *verb* [I] to move in a large group *TV reporters swarmed outside the pop star's home.*
swarm with sb/sth *phrasal verb* If a place is swarming with people, insects, etc, there are

a lot of them moving around it. *The house was swarming with police.*

swarthy /ˈswɔːði/ *adjective* having dark skin

swat /swɒt/ *verb* [T] **swatting**, *past* **swatted** to hit something, especially an insect, with a flat object *He swatted a fly with his newspaper.*

sway /sweɪ/ *verb* **1** MOVE [I] to move slowly from one side to the other *The trees swayed gently in the wind.* **2** PERSUADE [T] to persuade someone to change their opinion or decision *I think I was swayed by what James said.*

O-key **swear** /sweəʳ/ *verb past tense* **swore**, *past participle* **sworn** **1** LANGUAGE [I] to use language which people think is rude or offensive *He was sent home because he* ***swore at*** *the teacher.* **2** PROMISE [I, T] to make a serious promise [+ **to do sth**] *I swear to tell the truth.* [+ **(that)**] *She swore that she was at home at the time of the accident.* **3** TRUE [T] used to say that you are sure something is true [+ **(that)**] *I* ***could have sworn*** *that she said she lived in Canterbury* (= I was sure she lived in Canterbury, but now I have found that it is not true).
swear by sth *phrasal verb* to believe strongly that something is useful or effective *Have you tried using vinegar to clean windows? My mum swears by it.*
swear sb in *phrasal verb* LAW to make someone such as a president, judge, etc officially promise to be honest and responsible when they start their job [**often passive**] *Mr Stein was sworn in as City Council president yesterday.*

swearing /ˈsweərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] LANGUAGE using rude or offensive language *He was always getting into trouble for swearing.*

ˈ**swear** ˌ**word** *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a word which people think is rude or offensive

sweat /swet/ *verb* [I] BIOLOGY to produce liquid through your skin because you are hot or nervous *I'd been running and I was sweating.* ●**sweat** *noun* [U] *The sweat was running down his face.*
sweat it out *phrasal verb informal* to wait nervously for an unpleasant situation to improve or end *I don't get my exam results till the end of June so I'll just have to sweat it out till then.*
sweat over sth *phrasal verb* to work hard at something *She's been sweating over the preparations for the party all weekend.*

sweater /ˈswetəʳ/ (*also UK* **jumper**) *noun* [C] a warm piece of clothing which covers the top of your body and is pulled on over your head ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

ˈ**sweat** ˌ**gland** *noun* [C] ANATOMY, BIOLOGY a gland in the skin that produces sweat

sweats /swets/ *noun* [**plural**] *US* a sweatshirt and sweatpants (= loose, comfortable trousers), often worn for exercising ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

sweatshirt /ˈswetʃɜːt/ *noun* [C] a piece of clothing made of soft cotton which covers the top of your body and is pulled on over your head ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

sweatshop /ˈswetʃɒp/ *noun* [C] a small factory where workers are paid very little and work many hours in very bad conditions

sweaty /ˈsweti/ *adjective* covered in sweat *He was hot and sweaty from working in the garden.*

swede /swiːd/ *noun* [C, U] *UK* FOOD a round, yellow vegetable which grows in the ground

sweep[1] /swiːp/ *verb past* **swept** **1** CLEAN [I, T] (*also* **sweep up**) to clean the floor using a brush *She's just swept the floor.* ○ *He swept up the pieces of broken glass* (= removed them from the floor with a brush). **2 be swept along/away, etc** to be pushed or carried along, often by something strong which you cannot control *Many trees were swept away in the flood.* **3** AFFECT [I, T] to quickly affect a large area *The disease is* ***sweeping the country.*** ○ *Panic* ***swept through*** *the crowd.* **4 sweep along/into/past, etc** to move quickly, especially in a way that shows you think you are important *She swept past me in the corridor.*

sweep[2] /swiːp/ *noun* [C] **1** MOVEMENT a long movement [**usually singular**] *With a sweep of his arm, he gestured towards the garden.* **2** CURVE something shaped in a long curve *a long sweep of sandy beach* ➲See also: **chimney sweep**

sweeping /ˈswiːpɪŋ/ *adjective* **1** [**always before noun**] affecting many things or people *sweeping changes/reforms* **2 sweeping statement/generalization** when someone says something that is very general and has not been carefully thought about

sweepstake /ˈswiːpsteɪk/ *UK* (*US* **sweepstakes**) *noun* [C] a type of betting (= risking money on a competition) in which the winner receives all the money

O-key **sweet**[1] /swiːt/ *adjective* **1** FOOD with a taste like sugar *It was covered in a very sweet chocolate sauce.* **2** ATTRACTIVE attractive, often because of being small *Look at that kitten - isn't she sweet?* **3** KIND kind and friendly *It was really sweet of you to come.* **4** SMELL/SOUND A sweet smell or sound is pleasant. ●**sweetness** *noun* [U]

sweet[2] /swiːt/ *UK* (*US* **candy**) *noun* [C] FOOD a small piece of sweet food, often made of sugar or chocolate *You shouldn't eat so many sweets - they're bad for your teeth.*

sweetcorn /ˈswiːtkɔːn/ *UK* (*US* **corn**) *noun* [U] FOOD the sweet, yellow seeds of maize (= a plant) which are eaten as a vegetable ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

sweeten /ˈswiːtᵊn/ *verb* [T] FOOD to make something sweeter, for example by adding more sugar *She gave me a hot lemon drink, sweetened with honey.*

sweetener /ˈswiːtᵊnəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** FOOD something which is used to make something taste sweeter *an* ***artificial sweetener*** **2** something that is used to persuade someone to do something

sweetheart /ˈswiːthɑːt/ *noun* [C] You call someone 'sweetheart' to show affection or to be friendly. *Come here, sweetheart.*

sweetly /ˈswiːtli/ *adverb* in an attractive or kind way *She smiled sweetly.*

ˌ**sweet** **poˈtato** *UK* (*US* ˈ**sweet** **poˌtato**) *noun* [C, U] *plural* **sweet potatoes** FOOD a long, red vegetable like a potato but that tastes slightly sweet

S

swell¹ /swel/ *verb past tense* **swelled**, *past participle* **swollen** or **swelled** **1** SIZE [I] (*also* **swell up**) to increase in size *One side of his face had swollen up where he'd been stung.* **2** AMOUNT [I, T] to increase in amount because more things are added *The population of the region was swollen by refugees from across the border.*

swell² /swel/ *noun* **1** GEOGRAPHY [C, U] the movement of waves in the sea, or the waves themselves *ocean swells* **2** INCREASE [C] an increase

swell³ /swel/ *adjective US old-fashioned* good or pleasant *Everyone's having a swell time.*

swelling /ˈswelɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a part of your body which has become bigger because of illness or injury *The doctor gave me drugs to reduce the swelling in my ankle.*

sweltering /ˈsweltərɪŋ/ *adjective* so hot that you feel uncomfortable *It was a sweltering afternoon in August.*

swept /swept/ *past of* sweep

swerve /swɜːv/ *verb* [I] to change direction suddenly, especially when you are driving a vehicle *He swerved to avoid a cyclist and hit another car.*

swift /swɪft/ *adjective* happening or moving quickly *a swift response* ●**swiftly** *adverb*

swig /swɪg/ *verb* [T] **swigging**, *past* **swigged** *informal* to drink something, taking a lot of liquid into your mouth at a time ●**swig** *noun* [C] *He* ***took a swig of*** *his beer and carried on with the story.*

swill¹ /swɪl/ *verb* [T] **1** CLEAN (*also* **swill out**) to clean something by making liquid move around it *The dentist handed me a glass of water to swill my mouth out.* **2** DRINK to quickly drink a large amount of something, especially alcohol

swill² /swɪl/ *noun* [U] FARMING waste food that is fed to pigs

swim¹ /swɪm/ *verb* **swimming**, *past tense* **swam**, *past participle* **swum** **1** SPORT [I, T] to move through water by moving your body *I learnt to swim when I was about 5 years old.* ○ *I swim thirty lengths of the pool most mornings.* ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14 **2** HEAD [I] If your head swims, you feel confused and are unable to see or think clearly. **3** SEEM TO MOVE [I] to seem to move about *I got up suddenly and the room started swimming.* ●**swimming** *noun* [U] SPORT *I usually* ***go swimming*** *about twice a week.* ●**swimmer** *noun* [C] *I'm not a very* ***strong swimmer****.*

swim² /swɪm/ *noun* [C] SPORT a time when you swim *I* ***went for a swim*** *before breakfast.*

ˈswim ˌbladder *noun* [C] BIOLOGY an organ like a bag of air inside a fish that keeps the fish in the correct position

ˈswimming ˌcostume *UK* (*US* **bathing suit**) *noun* [C] SPORT a piece of clothing that you wear to go swimming ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

ˈswimming ˌpool *noun* [C] SPORT an area of water that has been made for people to swim in

ˈswimming ˌtrunks *noun* [plural] SPORT a piece of clothing that boys and men wear when they swim ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

swimsuit /ˈswɪmsuːt/ *noun* [C] SPORT a piece of clothing that girls and women wear to go swimming ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

swindle /ˈswɪndl/ *verb* [T] to get money from someone by cheating or deceiving them [**often passive**] *She was* ***swindled out of*** *thousands of dollars.* ●**swindle** *noun* [C] *a multi-million-pound swindle* ●**swindler** *noun* [C]

swine /swaɪn/ *noun* **1** PIGS [**plural**] *formal* pigs **2** PERSON [C] *informal* an unpleasant person

swing¹ /swɪŋ/ *verb past* **swung** **1** BACKWARDS/FORWARDS [I, T] to move smoothly backwards and forwards, or to make something do this *She really swings her arms when she walks.* **2** CURVE [I, T] to move smoothly in a curve, or to make something do this *The door swung shut.* ○ *Watch the ball as you swing the bat.* **3** CHANGE [I] If someone's opinion or their feelings swing, they suddenly change. *Her moods swing with absolutely no warning.*
swing around/round *phrasal verb* to turn around quickly
swing at sb *phrasal verb informal* to try to hit someone

swing² /swɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** FOR CHILDREN a chair hanging on two ropes that children sit on and swing backwards and forwards **2** HIT an attempt to hit someone *Isn't that the boy Mark* ***took a swing at*** (= tried to hit)*?* **3** CHANGE a sudden change *He suffered terrible* ***mood swings****.* **4 be in full swing** If an event is in full swing, everything has started and there is a lot of activity. *By ten o'clock, the party was in full swing.*

swipe¹ /swaɪp/ *verb* [T] **1** HIT (*also* **swipe at**) to move your arm in order to try to hit someone or something **2** STEAL *informal* to steal something

swipe² /swaɪp/ *noun* [C] an attempt to hit someone

ˈswipe ˌcard *noun* [C] *UK* a small piece of plastic that contains electronic information, used to open doors, etc

swirl /swɜːl/ *verb* [I, T] to move around and around quickly, or to make something do this *The mist swirled round the castle.* ●**swirl** *noun* [C]

swish /swɪʃ/ *verb* [I, T] to move quickly through the air making a soft sound, or to make something do this ●**swish** *noun* [C] *the swish of curtains closing*

switch¹ /swɪtʃ/ *verb* [I, T] **1** CHANGE to change from one thing to another *We're trying to encourage people to* ***switch from*** *cars* ***to*** *bicycles.* ○ *He's just switched jobs.* **2** EXCHANGE to exchange something with someone else *After a couple of months we switched roles.*
switch (sth) off *phrasal verb* to turn off a light, television, etc by using a switch *Have you switched the computer off?*
switch off *phrasal verb UK* to stop giving your attention to someone or something *I'm afraid I just switch off when she starts telling me about her problems.*
switch (sth) on *phrasal verb* to turn on a light,

S

television, etc by using a switch
switch over *phrasal verb* **1** TELEVISION *UK* to change from one television or radio station to another **2** CHANGE to change from doing one thing to another *We've decided to* ***switch over to*** *low fat milk.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***switch***

flick/press a switch ● the **on/off** switch

O-key **switch²** /swɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** **PHYSICS** a small object that you push up or down with your finger to turn something electrical on or off **2** CHANGE a change *There has been a switch in policy.*

switchboard /ˈswɪtʃbɔːd/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that is used to direct all the telephone calls made from and to a building

swivel /ˈswɪvᵊl/ (*also* **swivel around**) *verb* [I, T] *UK* **swivelling**, *past* **swivelled**, *US* **swiveling**, *past* **swiveled** to turn round, or to make something turn round

swollen¹ /ˈswəʊlən/ *adjective* bigger than usual *a swollen wrist/ankle* ○ *swollen rivers*

swollen² /ˈswəʊlən/ *past participle of* swell

swoop /swuːp/ *verb* [I] **1** MOVE to suddenly move very quickly down through the air *Huge birds* ***swoop down*** *from the sky.* **2** ATTACK to suddenly attack *The day before police had* ***swooped on*** *his home.* ●**swoop** *noun* [C]

swop /swɒp/ *verb* [I, T] **swopping**, *past* **swopped** *another UK spelling of* swap (= to give something to someone and get something from them in return)

sword /sɔːd/ *noun* [C] a weapon with a long, metal blade and a handle, used especially in the past

swordfish /ˈsɔːdfɪʃ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **swordfish** a large fish with a long, pointed part at the front of its head, that can be eaten as food

swore /swɔːʳ/ *past tense of* swear

sworn¹ /swɔːn/ *adjective* **1** **LAW** **sworn statement/testimony, etc** something that you have officially said is true **2** **sworn enemies** two people, or two groups of people who are completely against each other

sworn² /swɔːn/ *past participle of* swear

swot¹ /swɒt/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* someone who studies too much

SWOT /swɒt/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* strength, weaknesses, opportunities, threats; a way of looking at the good and bad parts of a business in order to plan for its future *a SWOT analysis*

swot² /swɒt/ *UK informal* (*US* **cram**) *verb* [I] **swotting**, *past* **swotted** to study a lot *I'm swotting for tomorrow's exam.*
swot up (on sth) *phrasal verb* to learn as much as you can about a subject, especially before an examination

swum /swʌm/ *past participle of* swim

swung /swʌŋ/ *past of* swing

sycamore /ˈsɪkəmɔːʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a tree with leaves that are divided into five parts and with seeds that turn around as they fall

sycophantic /ˌsɪkəʊˈfæntɪk/ *adjective formal* Someone who is sycophantic praises people in authority in a way that is not sincere, especially in order to get an advantage for themselves. ●**sycophant** /ˈsɪkəfænt/ *noun* [C]

syllable /ˈsɪləbl/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or part of a word that has one vowel sound *'But' has one syllable and 'apple' has two syllables.*

syllabus /ˈsɪləbəs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **syllabuses** or **syllabi** **EDUCATION** a list of the subjects that are included in a course of study

symbiosis /ˌsɪmbaɪˈəʊsɪs/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when two organisms live together and get advantages from each other

O-key **symbol** /ˈsɪmbᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** SIGN a sign or object that is used to represent something *A heart shape is the symbol of love.* **2** **CHEMISTRY** a number, letter, or sign that is used instead of the name of a chemical substance, another number, etc *The symbol for oxygen is O.* ➲See also: **status symbol**

symbolic /sɪmˈbɒlɪk/ *adjective* representing something else *The blue, white and red of the French flag are symbolic of liberty, equality and fraternity.* ●**symbolically** *adverb*

symbolism /ˈsɪmbᵊlɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **ART, LITERATURE** the use of signs and objects in art, films, etc to represent ideas

symbolize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɪmbᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to represent something *The lighting of the Olympic torch symbolizes peace and friendship among the nations of the world.*

symmetrical /sɪˈmetrɪkᵊl/ (*also* **symmetric**) *adjective* having the same shape or size on both halves *Faces are roughly symmetrical.*

symmetry /ˈsɪmətri/ *noun* [U] when something is symmetrical

O-key **sympathetic** /ˌsɪmpəˈθetɪk/ *adjective* **1** PROBLEMS showing that you understand and care about someone's problems *My boss is very* ***sympathetic about*** *my situation.* **2** IDEAS agreeing with or supporting someone's ideas or actions *He was* ***sympathetic to*** *their views.* ➲Opposite **unsympathetic** ●**sympathetically** *adverb*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

sympathetic

Be careful not to use **sympathetic** when you simply want to say that someone is **nice**, **friendly**, or **kind**. Remember that if someone is **sympathetic**, they understand your problems.

sympathize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɪmpəθaɪz/ *verb* [I] **1** PROBLEMS to understand and care about someone's problems *It's a really bad situation - I do* ***sympathize with*** *her.* **2** IDEAS to agree with or support someone's ideas or actions *I* ***sympathize with*** *the general aims of the party.*

sympathizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈsɪmpəθaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who supports a particular political organization, or believes in a particular set of ideas *a communist sympathizer*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***sympathy***

have/express/feel [every/little/no, etc] sympathy **for** sb ● **look for** sympathy ● **deep/great/heartfelt** sympathy ● **words of** sympathy

S

sympathy /ˈsɪmpəθi/ *noun* [U] **1** PROBLEMS when you show that you understand and care about someone's problems *I **have** no **sympathy for** people who say they can't find work but are really just too lazy to look.* **2** IDEAS agreement with or support for someone's ideas or actions *Scott was **in sympathy with** this view.*

symphony /ˈsɪmfəni/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a long piece of music for an orchestra (= large group of different musicians)

symptom /ˈsɪmptəm/ *noun* [C] **1 HEALTH** a physical feeling or problem which shows that you have a particular illness *The inability to sleep is often a **symptom of** some other illness.* **2** a problem that is caused by and shows a more serious problem *The drinking was just a **symptom of** his general unhappiness.* ●**symptomatic** /ˌsɪmptəˈmætɪk/ *adjective* relating to a symptom

synagogue /ˈsɪnəɡɒɡ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a building in which Jewish people pray

synapse /ˈsaɪnæps/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the point at which electrical signals move from one nerve cell to another ●**synaptic** /saɪˈnæptɪk/ *adjective*

sync /sɪŋk/ *noun informal* **1 be in sync** to be happening at the same time **2 be out of sync** to not be happening at the same time

synchronize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɪŋkrənaɪz/ *verb* [T] **1** to make something happen at the same time as something else *We had a problem synchronizing the music and the images.* **2 synchronize watches** to make two or more watches show exactly the same time ●**synchronization** /ˌsɪŋkrənaɪˈzeɪʃˈn/ *noun* [U]

syncline /ˈsɪŋklaɪn/ *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** a downward, U-shaped fold in the layers of rock in the Earth's surface ➲Compare **anticline**

syndicate /ˈsɪndɪkət/ *noun* [C] a group of people or companies who join together in order to achieve something *a bank syndicate ○ a crime syndicate*

syndrome /ˈsɪndrəʊm/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a combination of physical problems that often go together in a particular illness

synergy /ˈsɪnədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] **ECONOMICS** when two companies or groups work together and achieve more success than they would separately *a synergy between the two software companies*

synonym /ˈsɪnənɪm/ *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a word or phrase that means the same as another word or phrase

synonymous /sɪˈnɒnɪməs/ *adjective* **1** If one thing is synonymous with another, they are very closely connected with each other in people's minds. *It is a country where wealth is **synonymous with** corruption.* **2 LANGUAGE** If one word is synonymous with another, they have the same meaning.

synopsis /sɪˈnɒpsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **synopses** **LITERATURE** a short description of a book, film, etc

synovial fluid /saɪˌnəʊviəlˈfluːɪd/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** a transparent liquid in our joints (= place where bones join), that helps them to move easily

syntax /ˈsɪntæks/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence

synthesis /ˈsɪnθəsɪs/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **syntheses** /ˈsɪnθəsiːz/ *formal* the mixing of several things to make another whole new thing

synthesize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈsɪnθəsaɪz/ *verb* [T] to mix several things in order to make something else

synthesizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈsɪnθəsaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** an electronic musical instrument that can copy the sounds made by other musical instruments

synthetic /sɪnˈθetɪk/ *adjective* not made from natural substances *synthetic rubber* ●**synthetically** *adverb*

syphilis /ˈsɪfɪlɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease caught during sex that spreads slowly from the sex organs to all parts of the body

syringe /sɪˈrɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] **1 HEALTH** a piece of medical equipment used to push liquid into or take liquid out of someone's body **2** a similar piece of equipment used by scientists for adding or taking small amounts of liquid ➲See picture at **laboratory**

syringe

syrup /ˈsɪrəp/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a very sweet liquid made from sugar and water

system /ˈsɪstəm/ *noun* [C] **1** METHOD a way or method of doing things *the American **legal system** ○ the public transport system* **2** EQUIPMENT a set of connected pieces of equipment that operate together *They've had an alarm system installed at their home.* **3 BIOLOGY** parts of the body that work together in order to make something happen *the body's **immune system*** **4 the system SOCIETY** the laws and rules of a society **5 get sth out of your system** to get rid of a strong feeling or a need to do something, especially by expressing that feeling or doing the thing you want to do *It's not a bad idea to travel before getting a job - that way you get it out of your system.* ➲See also: **immune system, nervous system, operating system, public address system, the solar system**

systematic /ˌsɪstəˈmætɪk/ *adjective* done using a fixed and organized plan *the systematic collection and analysis of information* ●**systematically** *adverb*

systemic /sɪˈstemɪk/ *adjective* **HEALTH** A systemic drug, disease or poison reaches and has an effect on the whole of a body or a plant.

ˈsystems ˌanalyst *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** someone who examines businesses and industry in order to find ways of improving the way they work, especially by using computer programs and equipment ●**ˈsystems anˌalysis** *noun* [U]

ˈsystem ˌsoftware *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** software that controls computer hardware (= machines and equipment) ➲Compare **application software**

systole /ˈsɪstəli/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a heart's action where it pushes blood out ➲Compare **diastole** ●**systolic** /sɪˈstɒlɪk/ *adjective*

S

Tt

T, t /tiː/ the twentieth letter of the alphabet

ta /tɑː/ *exclamation UK informal* thank you

tab /tæb/ *noun* [C] **1** a small piece of paper, metal, etc that is fixed to something and that you use to open it or find out information about it *Pull tab to open.* **2** FINANCE an amount of money that you owe for something you have bought or for a service you have used *Officials said the tab for the new bridge would be $8 million.* **3 pick up the tab** to pay for something, especially a meal in a restaurant **4 keep tabs on sb/sth** *informal* to watch someone or something carefully to check they do nothing wrong

tabby /ˈtæbi/ *noun* [C] a cat that has stripes in its fur

ˈ**tab ˌkey** *noun* [C] COMPUTING the key on a computer keyboard which allows you to move the cursor (= a symbol which shows you where you are working) forward a few spaces

tabla /ˈtæblə/ *noun* [C] MUSIC two small drums that are played with the hands, used especially in Indian music

O-key **table¹** /ˈteɪbl/ *noun* [C] **1** FURNITURE a piece of furniture with four legs, used for eating off, putting things on, etc *the kitchen table* **2 lay the table** *UK* (*UK/US* **set the table**) to put plates, knives, forks, etc on the table to prepare for a meal **3** NUMBERS/WORDS a set of numbers or words written in rows that go across and down the page *The table below shows the results of the experiment.* **4** COMPUTING a collection of a particular kind of information in a database **5 turn the tables on sb** to change a situation so that you have an advantage over someone who before had an advantage over you ➲See also: put/lay your cards (**card**) on the table, **coffee table, dressing table**

table² /ˈteɪbl/ *verb* [T] **1** SUGGEST *UK* to formally suggest that a particular subject is discussed **2** LATER *US* to decide to discuss something later

tablecloth /ˈteɪblklɒθ/ *noun* [C] a piece of material that covers a table, especially during a meal

tablespoon /ˈteɪblspuːn/ *noun* [C] MEASURES a large spoon used for measuring or serving food, or the amount this spoon can hold

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tablet***

take a tablet ● a tablet **for** sth ● **sleeping** tablets ● **headache** tablets

tablet /ˈtæblət/ *noun* [C] **1** HEALTH a small, round object containing medicine that you swallow **2** STONE a square piece of stone that has words cut into it **3** PAPER *US* (*UK/US* **pad**) sheets of paper that have been fastened together at one edge, used for writing or drawing **4** COMPUTING a graphics tablet (= flat device that is connected to a computer that you draw on with a special pen to make an image on the computer screen)

ˈ**table ˌtennis** *noun* [U] SPORT a game in which two or four people hit a small ball over a low net on a large table

tabloid /ˈtæblɔɪd/ *noun* [C] a small newspaper with a lot of pictures and short, simple news stories

taboo /təˈbuː/ *noun* [C, U] SOCIETY something that you should not say or do because people generally think it is morally wrong, unpleasant, or embarrassing *Sex is a taboo in this country.* ●**taboo** *adjective Suicide is a taboo subject.*

tabulate /ˈtæbjʊleɪt/ *verb* [T] to show information in the form of a table (= an arrangement of facts and numbers in rows or blocks)

ˈ**T acˌcount** *noun* [C] FINANCE a method of keeping financial records with debits (= money spent) on one side, credits (= money received) on the other side, and a line down the middle

tacit /ˈtæsɪt/ *adjective formal* understood without being said *a **tacit agreement***

taciturn /ˈtæsɪtɜːn/ *adjective formal* saying very little and not seeming friendly

tack¹ /tæk/ *noun* **1 take/try a different tack** to try to deal with a problem in a different way *I've tried being nice to her and it doesn't work so I might take a different tack.* **2** NAIL [C] a small, sharp nail with a flat top *carpet tacks* **3** PIN [C] *US* (*UK* **drawing pin**) a short pin with a flat, round top, used for fastening pieces of paper to the wall

tack² /tæk/ *verb* [T] **1** FASTEN to fasten something to a wall with a tack **2** SEW to sew something loosely
tack sth on *phrasal verb* to add something that you had not planned to add

tackle¹ /ˈtækl/ *verb* [T] **1** DEAL WITH to try to deal with a problem *new ways to **tackle crime*** **2** SPEAK TO *UK* to speak to someone about something bad that they have done *I decided to tackle him about his absences.* **3** SPORT to try to get the ball from someone in a game such as football

tackle² /ˈtækl/ *noun* **1** SPORT [C] an attempt to get the ball from someone in a game such as football **2** [U] all the things you need for a particular activity ***fishing tackle***

tacky /ˈtæki/ *adjective* **1** CHEAP *informal* cheap and of bad quality *tacky holiday souvenirs* **2** STICKY slightly sticky

tact /tækt/ *noun* [U] the ability to talk to people about difficult subjects without upsetting them

tactful /ˈtæktfᵊl/ *adjective* careful not to say or do anything that could upset someone ●**tactfully** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tactic***

adopt/employ/use tactics ● a **change of** tactics ● **bullying/underhand** tactics

tactic /ˈtæktɪk/ *noun* [C] a way of doing something that you plan in order to achieve what you want [**usually plural**] *These bomb attacks represent a **change of tactics** by the terrorists.*

tactical /ˈtæktɪkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to tactics, or done in order to achieve something ***tactical voting*** ○ *a **tactical error*** ●**tactically** *adverb*

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tactless /ˈtæktləs/ *adjective* not being careful about saying or doing something that could upset someone

tad /tæd/ *noun informal* **a tad** a little *It was a tad expensive, I thought.*

tadpole /ˈtædpəʊl/ *noun* [C] a small, black animal that lives in water and will become a frog (= green jumping animal)

taffeta /ˈtæfɪtə/ *noun* [U] a stiff, shiny cloth used in women's formal dresses

TAFN INTERNET *internet abbreviation for* that's all for now: used at the end of an email or message

tag¹ /tæg/ *noun* [C] a small piece of paper or plastic with information on it that is fixed to something *a **price tag***

tag² /tæg/ *verb* [T] **tagging**, *past* **tagged** to put a tag on something
tag along *phrasal verb informal* to go somewhere with someone, especially when they have not asked you to

t'ai chi /taɪˈtʃiː/ *noun* [U] SPORT a form of Chinese exercise that involves a series of slow movements

tail¹ /teɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** BIOLOGY the long, narrow part that sticks out at the back of an animal's body *The dog's pleased to see you - he's **wagging** his **tail**.* **2** the back part of something long, such as a plane **3 the tail end of sth** the last part of something *the tail end of the eighties*

tail² /teɪl/ *verb* [T] to secretly follow someone, especially because you think they have done something wrong
tail off *phrasal verb* to gradually become quieter, smaller, less frequent, etc *His voice tailed off.*

tailback /ˈteɪlbæk/ *noun* [C] *UK* a line of cars that have stopped or are moving very slowly because of an accident or other problem on the road in front of them

tailcoat /ˈteɪlˌkəʊt/ *noun* [C] a formal coat that has a short front part and a long back part that is divided in two

tailgate /ˈteɪlgeɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to drive too closely to the car in front of you ●**tailgating** *noun* [U]

ˈtail ˌlight *noun* [C] *US* one of the two red lights on the back of a car ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

tailor¹ /ˈteɪlər/ *noun* [C] someone whose job is to make or repair clothes, especially men's clothes

tailor² /ˈteɪlər/ *verb* [T] to make or change something so that it is suitable *The kitchen can then be **tailored** exactly **to** the customer's needs.*

tailor-made /ˌteɪləˈmeɪd/ *adjective* **1** PERFECT perfect for a particular person or purpose *It sounds as if you're **tailor-made for** the job.* **2** CLOTHES Tailor-made clothes are made by a tailor.

tailpipe /ˈteɪlpaɪp/ *US* (*UK* **exhaust pipe**) *noun* [C] the pipe that waste gas from a vehicle's engine flows through ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

tails /teɪlz/ *noun* [plural] **1** COIN the side of a coin that does not have someone's head on it *Let's toss a coin - **heads or tails?*** **2** COAT a formal coat that has a short front part and a long back part that is divided in two

taint /teɪnt/ *verb* [T] **1** OPINION to spoil people's opinion of someone [**often passive**] *a government tainted by scandal* **2** MAKE HARMFUL to spoil something, especially food or blood, by adding a harmful substance

take /teɪk/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **took**, *past participle* **taken 1** CARRY to get and carry something with you when you go somewhere *I always **take** my mobile phone **with** me.* **2** GO to go somewhere with someone, often paying for them or being responsible for them *I **took** the kids **to** the park.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **bring 3** WITHOUT PERMISSION to remove something without permission *Someone's taken my coat.* **4** GET HOLD to get hold of something and move it *He reached across and took the glass from her.* **5** ACCEPT to accept something *So, are you going to take the job?* ○ *Do you take credit cards?* **6** NEED If something takes a particular amount of time, or a particular quality, you need that amount of time or that quality in order to be able to do it. [**+ to do sth**] *It's taken me three days to get here.* ○ *It takes a lot of courage to stand up and talk in front of so many people.* **7** HEALTH to swallow or use medicine *Take two tablets, three times a day.* **8** MEASURE to measure something *Have you taken her temperature?* **9** CLOTHES to wear a particular size of clothes *I take a size 12 in trousers.* **10** SPACE to have enough space for a particular number of people or things *There's six of us and the car only takes five.* **11** TRAVEL to travel somewhere by using a bus, train, car, etc, or by using a particular road *Are you taking the train to Edinburgh?* **12 take a break/rest, etc** to stop working for a period **13 take pleasure/pride/an interest, etc** to have a particular, good feeling about something that you do *I take great pleasure in cooking.* ○ *These women take their jobs very seriously* (= think their jobs are very important). **14 take a look** to look at something *Take a look at these photos.* **15** UNDERSTAND to understand something in a particular way *Whatever I say she'll take it the wrong way.* **16 I take it (that)** used when you think that what you say is probably true *I take it you're not coming with us.* **17 can't take sth** to not be able to deal with an unpleasant situation *We argue all the time - I really can't take it any more.* **18 take it from me** accept that what I say is true, because I know or have experienced it *You could be doing a much less interesting job, take it from me.* **19 take sth as it comes** to deal with something as it happens, without planning for it **20** BY FORCE to get control of something by force *By morning they had taken the city.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

take part in or **take place?**

If someone **takes part in** something, they join other people in doing it.

All the children took part in the competition.

If something **takes place**, it happens.

The festival takes place every summer in the castle gardens.

take after sb *phrasal verb* to be similar to an older member of your family *Peter's very tall - he takes after his father.*
take sth apart *phrasal verb* to separate something into its different parts *He spent the whole afternoon taking his bike apart.*
O-key **take sth away** *phrasal verb* **1** REMOVE to remove something *The waitress took our plates away.* ○ *Supermarkets are **taking** business **away from** small local shops.* **2** NUMBER to subtract a number ***Take** 3 **away from** 20.*
take sb away *phrasal verb* to make someone leave a place and go with you
take sth back *phrasal verb* **1** THING to return something to the place you borrowed or bought it from **2** WORDS to admit that your opinion was wrong *You're right, he's nice - I take back everything I said about him.*
take sth down *phrasal verb* **1** WRITE to write something *Did you take down the telephone number?* **2** REMOVE to remove something that is on a wall or something that is temporary *I've taken the pictures down.*
take sth in *phrasal verb* **1** UNDERSTAND to understand something *It was an interesting lecture but there was just too much to take in.* **2** FILM/BUILDING ETC to go to see a film, visit an interesting building, etc for enjoyment *I thought we might get something to eat and then take in a movie.* **3** CLOTHES to make a piece of clothing narrower
take sb in *phrasal verb* **1** POLICE If the police take someone in, they take that person to the police station. **2** LET SOMEONE STAY to let someone stay in your house *You could earn some extra cash by taking in foreign students.* **3 be taken in** to be deceived by someone
O-key **take sth off** *phrasal verb* **1** REMOVE to remove something *If you're hot, take your jacket off.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **2** TIME to spend time away from your work *I'm taking Friday off to get some things done around the house.*
take off *phrasal verb* **1** AIRCRAFT If an aircraft takes off, it begins to fly. **2** SUCCESSFUL to suddenly become successful *Her career had just taken off.* **3** LEAVE to suddenly leave without telling anyone where you are going *He took off in the middle of the night.*
take sth on *phrasal verb* to accept a responsibility *I don't want to take on too much work.*
take sb on *phrasal verb* **1** EMPLOY to begin to employ someone *We'll be taking on two new members of staff.* **2** COMPETE to compete against someone *I might **take** you **on at** tennis sometime.*
take on sth *phrasal verb* to begin to have a particular quality *Her voice took on a tone of authority.*
take sth out *phrasal verb* to remove something from somewhere *He reached into his bag and took out a book.*
take sb out *phrasal verb* to go somewhere with someone and pay for them *Are you taking her out for her birthday?*
take sth out on sb *phrasal verb* to unfairly treat someone badly because you are upset *Don't take it out on me!*
take (sth) over *phrasal verb* to get control of or responsibility for something *They've recently been taken over by a larger company.* ○ *Who'll be **taking over from** Cynthia when she retires?*
take sb through sth *phrasal verb* to explain something to someone
take to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to start to like someone or something *For some reason, I just didn't take to him.*
take to sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to start doing something *Dad's taken to swimming every morning.*
take sth up *phrasal verb* **1** ACTIVITY to start doing a particular job or activity *I thought I might take up cycling.* **2** TIME/SPACE to use an amount of time or space *This desk takes up too much space.*
take sb up on sth *phrasal verb* to accept an offer *Could I take you up on your offer of a ride home?*
take sth up with sb *phrasal verb* to discuss something with someone *You'll have to take the matter up with your manager.*

takeaway /ˈteɪkəweɪ/ *UK* (*US* **takeout** /ˈteɪkaʊt/) *noun* [C] **FOOD** a meal that you buy in a restaurant but eat at home, or a shop that sells this type of meal

take-off /ˈteɪkɒf/ *noun* **1** AIRCRAFT [C, U] when an aircraft leaves the ground and begins to fly **2** COPY [C] a film, book, etc that copies someone else's style in a way that is funny

takeover /ˈteɪkˌəʊvə/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** when a company gets control of another company

takings /ˈteɪkɪŋz/ *UK* (*US* **receipts**) *noun* [plural] **FINANCE** all the money that a business gets from selling things

talcum powder /ˈtælkəmˌpaʊdə/ (*also* **talc**) *noun* [U] white powder that you put on your skin after a bath

tale /teɪl/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a story, especially one which is not true or is difficult to believe *My grandfather used to **tell** us **tales** of his time as a pilot during the war.* ➲See also: **fairy tale**

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***talent***

have/show a talent for sth ● a **natural** talent ● sb's talent **as** sth

O-key **talent** /ˈtælənt/ *noun* [C, U] a natural ability to do something *She showed an early **talent for** drawing.* ●**talented** *adjective* showing natural ability in a particular area *a talented young musician*

talisman /ˈtælɪzmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **talismans** an object that people think will make them lucky

O-key **talk**[1] /tɔːk/ *verb* **1** SAY [I] to say things to someone *We were just **talking about** Simon's new girlfriend.* ○ *It was nice **talking to** you. US* ○ *It was nice **talking with** you.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **speak** **2** DISCUSS [I] to discuss something with someone, often to try to find a solution to a disagreement *The two sides have agreed to talk.* **3 talk about sth/doing sth** to think about or make plans to do something in the future *They're talking about building a new fire station just up the road.* **4 talk business/politics, etc** to discuss a particular subject *I don't like to talk business over lunch.* **5 talking of sth** *UK* (*US* **speaking of sth**) used when you are going

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to start talking about something that is related to what has just been said *Talking of holidays, did you hear about Lesley's skiing trip?* ➲See also: speak/talk of the **devil**

talk at sb *phrasal verb* to talk to someone without letting them say anything or without listening to them

talk back *phrasal verb* If a child talks back to an adult, they answer them rudely.

talk down to sb *phrasal verb* to talk to someone in a way that shows you think they are not intelligent or not important

talk sb into/out of (doing) sth *phrasal verb* to persuade someone to do or not do something *We managed to talk Lisa into doing the cooking.*

talk sth over *phrasal verb* to discuss something with someone, often to find out their opinion or to get advice before making a decision

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***talk***

The most common alternatives are **speak** and **say**: *Could you **speak** more quietly, please?* ● *I couldn't hear what they were **saying**.*

The verb **chat** or the expression **have a chat** are often used if a person is talking with someone in a friendly, informal way: *We were just **chatting** about the party on Saturday.* ● *Give me a call and we'll **have a chat**.*

If people talk for a long time about things that are not important, verbs such as **chatter**, **natter** (*UK, informal*), and the expression **have a natter** (*UK, informal*) are sometimes used: *She spent the morning **chattering** away to her friends.* ● *We **had a** long **natter** over coffee.*

If someone talks about something too much in an annoying way, you can use the phrasal verb **go on** (*UK*): *He's always **going on** about how much he hates his work.*

If someone talks quietly so that their voice is difficult to hear, often because they are complaining about something, then the verbs **mumble** and **mutter** are used: *She walked past me, **muttering** to herself.* ● *He **mumbled** something about it being a waste of time.*

The verb **whisper** is used when someone talks extremely quietly so that other people cannot hear: *What are you two girls **whispering** about?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***talk*** *(noun)*

have a talk ● a talk **with** sb ● a talk **about** sth ● a **long/serious** talk

talk² /tɔːk/ *noun* **1** CONVERSATION [C] a conversation between two people, often about a particular subject *I **had a** long **talk with** Chris at the weekend about going to university.* **2** PEOPLE [U] when people talk about what might happen or be true *There's been some **talk of** possible job losses.* **3** TO A GROUP [C] when someone speaks to a group of people about a particular subject *Someone's coming to the school to **give a talk about** road safety.* **4 be all talk (and no action)** If someone is all talk, they never do the brave or exciting things they often say they will do. ➲See also: **small talk**

talkative /ˈtɔːkətɪv/ *adjective* A talkative person talks a lot.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***talks***

attend/have/hold/resume talks ● talks **break down/take place** ● **lengthy/secret/urgent** talks ● talks **about/on** sth

talks /tɔːks/ *noun* [plural] **POLITICS** formal meetings, especially between political leaders, to discuss a problem and to try to reach an agreement *peace talks* ○ *US officials are **holding talks with** EU leaders over trade.*

ˈtalk ˌshow *US* (*UK* **chat show**) *noun* [C] an informal television or radio programme where people are asked questions about themselves and their lives

tall /tɔːl/ *adjective* **1** BIG having a greater than average height. *He's tall and thin.* ○ *It's one of the tallest buildings in the city.* **2** SIZE used to describe or ask about the height of someone or something *How tall is she?* ○ *He's almost 2 metres tall.*

tally¹ /ˈtæli/ *noun* [C] the number of things you have achieved, used, won, etc until now *This adds to his **tally of** 12 race wins so far this year.*

tally² /ˈtæli/ *verb* **1** SAME [I] If two numbers or stories tally, they are the same. **2** TOTAL [T] (*also* **tally up**) to find out the total number

the Talmud /ˈtælmʊd/ *noun* **RELIGION** the ancient Jewish written laws and traditions

talon /ˈtælən/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a sharp nail on the foot of a bird that it uses to catch animals

Tamagotchi /ˌtæməˈgɒtʃi/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a small electronic toy which you pretend to look after by feeding it, playing with it, etc

tambourine /ˌtæmbəˈriːn/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument with a wooden ring and small metal discs loosely fixed to it which you play by shaking or hitting

tame¹ /teɪm/ *adjective* **1** ANIMAL If an animal is tame, it is not wild and not frightened of people. **2** NOT EXCITING too controlled and not exciting *His TV show is very tame in comparison with his live performances.*

tame² /teɪm/ *verb* [T] to make a wild animal tame

tamper /ˈtæmpə/ *verb*
tamper with sth *phrasal verb* to touch or make changes to something which you should not, often in order to damage it

tampon /ˈtæmpɒn/ *noun* [C] a small roll of cotton which a woman puts in her vagina to absorb her monthly flow of blood

tan¹ /tæn/ (*also* **suntan**) *noun* [C] when your skin is brown from being in the sun

tan² /tæn/ *verb* [I, T] **tanning**, *past* **tanned** **1** to become brown from the sun, or to make a person or body part become brown *I tan quite easily.* **2** to make the skin of animals into leather (= material for shoes, etc.)

tan³ /tæn/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being a pale yellow-brown colour *a tan jacket* **2** SKIN *US* (*UK/*

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US **tanned**) having darker skin because you have been in the sun

tandem /ˈtændəm/ *noun* **1 in tandem (with sb)** If someone does something in tandem with someone else, they do it together or at the same time. **2** [C] a bicycle for two people

tangent /ˈtændʒᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1** MATHEMATICS a straight line which touches but does not cross a curve **2** MATHEMATICS in a triangle that has one angle of 90°, the ratio of the length of the side opposite an angle less than 90° divided by the length of the shorter of the two sides that are next to the angle ➲Compare **cosine, sine 3 go off at/on a tangent** to suddenly start talking about a different subject

tangerine /ˌtændʒᵊrˈiːn/ *noun* [C] FOOD a fruit like a small orange

tangible /ˈtændʒəbl/ *adjective* Something which is tangible is real and can be seen, touched, or measured. ***tangible benefits/evidence*** ➲Opposite **intangible**

tangle¹ /ˈtæŋgl/ *noun* [C] several things which have become twisted together in an untidy way *a tangle of hair/wires*

tangle² /ˈtæŋgl/ *verb* [I, T] to become twisted together, or to make things become twisted together ➲Opposite **disentangle, untangle**

tangled /ˈtæŋgld/ *adjective* **1** TWISTED (*also* **tangled up**) twisted together in an untidy way *The wires are all tangled.* **2** CONFUSED confused and difficult to understand *tangled finances* **3 be tangled up in/with sth** to be involved in something unpleasant or complicated that is difficult to escape from

tango /ˈtæŋgəʊ/ *noun* [C] a South American dance

tangy /ˈtæŋi/ *adjective* FOOD having a strong, sharp but pleasant taste or smell *a tangy lemon drink* ●**tang** *noun* [**no plural**]

tank /tæŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER a large container for storing liquid or gas *(UK) a* ***petrol tank****/ (US)* a ***gas tank*** ○ *a hot-water tank* **2** MILITARY a large, strong military vehicle with a gun on it which moves on wheels inside large metal belts ➲See also: **think tank**

tanker /ˈtæŋkəʳ/ *noun* [C] a ship or truck used to carry large amounts of liquid or gas *an* ***oil tanker***

tanned /tænd/ (*also US* **tan**) *adjective* having darker skin because you have been in the sun

ˡ**tanning ˌbed** *noun* [C] *US* a sun bed

tannoy /ˈtænɔɪ/ *UK trademark* (*UK/US* **public address system**) *noun* [**no plural**] a system of equipment used in public places that someone speaks into in order to make their voice loud enough to hear

tantalizing (*also UK* **-ising**) /ˈtæntəlaɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* Something that is tantalizing is very attractive and makes you want it, although often you cannot have it. *a tantalizing glimpse of blue sea*

tantamount /ˈtæntəmaʊnt/ *adjective* **be tantamount to sth** to be almost as bad as something else *Resignation would be tantamount to admitting he was guilty.*

tantrum /ˈtæntrəm/ *noun* [C] when someone, especially a child, suddenly shows that they are very angry, usually because they cannot have something *Tom* ***threw a tantrum*** *in the middle of the supermarket.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tap***

turn on/turn off a tap ● a tap is **dripping/running** ● the **cold/hot** tap ● **under** the tap ● tap **water**

tap¹ /tæp/ *noun* [C] **1** WATER *mainly UK* (*also US* **faucet**) the part at the end of a pipe which controls the flow of water *the* ***cold/hot tap*** ○ *to* ***turn a tap on/off*** ○ *She rinsed the cup* ***under the tap.*** **2** KNOCK a gentle knock or touch, or the noise made by knocking something gently *I felt a tap on my shoulder.* ○ *There was a tap at the door.* **3** TELEPHONE a small piece of equipment that can be fixed to someone's telephone in order to listen to their telephone calls **4 on tap** easily available *They have all that sort of information on tap.*

tap² /tæp/ *verb* **tapping**, *past* **tapped 1** KNOCK [I, T] to knock or touch something gently *I* ***tapped on*** *the window to try and get her attention.* **2** A SUPPLY [T] If you tap a supply of something, you use what is available. *There are immense natural resources here waiting to be tapped.* **3** TELEPHONE [T] to use a special piece of equipment to listen to someone's telephone calls [**often passive**] *I think the phone's been tapped.*
tap into sth *phrasal verb* to use part of a large supply of something for your own advantage

ˡ**tap ˌdancing** *noun* [U] a type of dancing where the dancer wears special shoes with pieces of metal on the bottom which make a noise ●**tap dance** *verb* [I] ●**tap dancer** *noun* [C]

tape¹ /teɪp/ *noun* **1** RECORDING [C, U] a long, thin piece of plastic which is used to store sound, pictures, or information, or a plastic box containing it *I've got the match* ***on tape.*** **2** STICKY [U] a thin piece of plastic which has glue on one side and is used for sticking things together ***adhesive/sticky tape*** **3** DT [C, U] a long, thin piece of material used, for example, in sewing or to tie things together ➲See also: **red tape, Scotch tape**

tape² /teɪp/ *verb* **1** [T] to record something onto tape *I often tape programmes and watch them later.* **2 tape sth to/onto, etc** to stick something somewhere using tape

ˡ**tape ˌmeasure** *noun* [C] a long, thin piece of cloth, metal, or plastic used to measure lengths

taper /ˈteɪpəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to become gradually narrower at one end ●**tapered** *adjective*
taper off *phrasal verb* to become gradually smaller or less frequent *Sales have gradually tapered off.*

ˡ**tape reˌcorder** *noun* [C] a machine used to record sound onto tape ●**tape recording** *noun* [C] something which has been recorded on tape

tapestry /ˈtæpɪstri/ *noun* [C] ART a picture or pattern created by sewing different coloured threads onto heavy cloth

taproot /ˈtæpruːt/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY the main thick root found in some plants, such as the

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carrot, which stores food and grows straight down

ˈtap ˌwater *noun* [U] water which comes out of a tap (= part at the end of a pipe)

tar /tɑːr/ *noun* [U] **1** ROAD a thick, black substance that is sticky when hot and is used to cover roads **2 HEALTH** a black, sticky substance that is produced when tobacco burns ●**tar** *verb* [T] **tarring**, *past* **tarred** to cover something with tar

tarantula /təˈræntjələ/ *noun* [C] a large, hairy spider that is often poisonous

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***target***

attack/hit/miss/strike a target ● an **obvious/prime** target ● a target **for** sth

target¹ /ˈtɑːɡɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** ATTACK something or someone that you attack, shoot at, try to hit, etc *It's very difficult to **hit** a moving **target**.* ○ *Foreign businesses in the region have become a **target for** terrorist attacks.* **2** ACHIEVE something that you intend to achieve *I'm hoping to save £3,000 by June - that's my target.* ○ *If you want to lose weight, you have to **set** yourself* (= decide) *a **target**.* **3** BLAME the person or thing that people are criticizing or blaming for something *Such extreme views have recently made him the target of criticism.* **4 be on target** to have made enough progress in order to achieve something that you intended to achieve [+ **to do sth**] *We're on target to finish the project in June.* **5 target audience/market, etc** the group of people that a programme, product, etc is aimed at

target² /ˈtɑːɡɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ATTACK to aim an attack at a particular person or place *They mostly targeted military bases.* **2** AIM AT to aim advertising, criticism, or a product at someone [**often passive**] *The products are **targeted at** people in their late twenties.*

tariff /ˈtærɪf/ *noun* [C] **1 ECONOMICS, FINANCE** an amount of money that has to be paid for goods that are brought into a country *import tariffs* **2 FINANCE** a list of prices

tarmac /ˈtɑːmæk/ *noun trademark* **1** [U] *UK* (*US* **asphalt**) a thick, black substance that is sticky when hot and is used to cover roads **2 the tarmac** the area at an airport where aircraft land and take off

tarnish /ˈtɑːnɪʃ/ *verb* **1** SOMEONE [T] to spoil the way in which people think of someone so that they do not respect them *to **tarnish** someone's **image/reputation*** **2** METAL [I, T] If a metal tarnishes or something tarnishes it, it becomes less bright and shiny.

tarpaulin /tɑːˈpɔːlɪn/ (*also US* **tarp**) *noun* [C, U] a large piece of plastic or cloth that water cannot go through which is used to cover and protect things

tart² /tɑːt/ *adjective* **FOOD** having a sour, bitter taste

tartan /ˈtɑːtᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] cloth with a pattern of different coloured squares and crossing lines *a tartan kilt*

task /tɑːsk/ *noun* [C] a piece of work, especially something unpleasant or difficult [+ **of + doing sth**] *I was given the task of sorting out all the stuff in the garage.*

taskbar /ˈtɑːskbɑːr/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** on a computer screen, a set of symbols that shows the programs you are using and allows you to change them

ˈtask ˌforce *noun* [C] a group of people, often a military group, who are brought together in order to do a particular job

tassel /ˈtæsᵊl/ *noun* [C] a decoration made of a group of short threads tied together which is hung on curtains, furniture, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***taste***

disguise/improve/like/spoil a taste ● a **bitter/pleasant/strong/unpleasant/unusual** taste

taste¹ /teɪst/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C, U] the flavour of a particular food in your mouth *a sweet/**bitter taste*** ○ *It's got quite a **strong taste**.* **2** ABILITY [U] the ability to feel different flavours in your mouth *When you've got a cold you often lose your **sense of taste**.* **3 a taste** a small amount of food that you have in order to try it *Could I **have** just **a taste** of the sauce?* **4** WHAT YOU LIKE [C, U] the particular things you like, such as styles of music, clothes, decoration, etc *I don't like his **taste in** music.* ○ *It's okay, but it's not really **to** my **taste**.* **5** ART/STYLE ETC [U] the ability to judge what is attractive or suitable, especially in things related to art, style, beauty, etc *Everything in his house is beautiful - he's got very **good taste**.* **6 be in good taste** to be acceptable in a way that will not upset or anger people **7 be in bad/poor taste** to be unacceptable in a way that will upset or anger people *He told a joke about a plane crash which I thought was in rather poor taste.* **8 a taste for sth** when you like or enjoy something *I've developed a bit of a taste for opera.* **9 taste of sth** when you do or experience something new for a short time *That was my first taste of Mexican culture.*

taste² /teɪst/ *verb* **1 taste funny/nice/sweet, etc** If food tastes a particular way, it has that flavour. *This sauce tastes strange.* ○ *It **tastes of** chocolate.* **2 can taste sth** to be able to experience a particular flavour in a food *You can really taste the garlic in it.* **3** [T] to put food or drink in your mouth to find out what its flavour is like *I always taste food while I'm cooking it.*

ˈtaste ˌbuds *noun* [plural] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the cells on your tongue that allow you to taste different foods

tasteful /ˈteɪstfᵊl/ *adjective* attractive and chosen for style and quality *a tasteful beige suit* ●**tastefully** *adverb tastefully dressed/decorated*

tasteless /ˈteɪstləs/ *adjective* **1** UGLY ugly or without style **2** OFFENSIVE likely to upset or anger people *a **tasteless joke*** **3 FOOD** having no flavour *The meat was dry and tasteless.*

tasty /ˈteɪsti/ *adjective* **FOOD** Food which is tasty has a good flavour and is nice to eat.

tattered /ˈtætəd/ *adjective* old and badly torn *tattered clothes*

tatters /ˈtætəz/ *noun* **in tatters** badly torn, damaged, or spoilt *The yacht finally made it to the*

T

harbour, its sails in tatters. ○ *His reputation is in tatters.*

tattoo /tæt'uː/ *noun* [C] a design on someone's skin that is put on using ink and a needle ●**tattoo** *verb* [T] *past* **tattooed**

tatty /'tæti/ *adjective UK informal* untidy and in bad condition *He turned up wearing a pair of tatty old jeans.*

taught /tɔːt/ *past of* teach

taunt /tɔːnt/ *verb* [T] to repeatedly say unkind things to someone in order to upset them or make them angry *He was taunted by his classmates because of his size.* ●**taunt** *noun* [C]

Taurus /'tɔːrəs/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 21 April - 22 May, or a person born during this period

taut /tɔːt/ *adjective* stretched very tight *My skin feels taut.*

tavern /'tæv^{ə}n/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a place where people go to drink alcohol

tawdry /'tɔːdri/ *adjective* **1** UNPLEASANT unpleasant and immoral **2** BAD QUALITY cheap and of bad quality

tawny /'tɔːni/ *adjective* being a light yellow-brown colour

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tax***

deduct/increase/pay tax ● **high/low** taxes ● a tax **on** sth ● **after/before** tax

O-K **tax¹** /tæks/ *noun* [C, U] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** money that you have to pay to the government from what you earn or when you buy things *They're putting up the* ***tax on*** *cigarettes.* ○ *Do you have to* ***pay tax*** *on that?* ➲See also: **income tax**

tax² /tæks/ *verb* [T] **1** **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** to make someone pay a tax *Goods such as clothes are taxed at 15%.* **2** to need a lot of effort *It's only a short report - it shouldn't tax me too much.*

taxable /'tæksəbl/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** If something is taxable, you have to pay tax on it. ***taxable income***

taxation /tæk'seɪʃ^{ə}n/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS** the system of making people pay taxes

tax-free /ˌtæks'friː/ *adjective* **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** If something is tax-free, you do not pay tax on it.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***taxi***

call/get/hail/order/take a taxi ● a taxi **driver/fare/firm**

O-K **taxi** /'tæksi/ *noun* [C] a car with a driver who you pay to take you somewhere *a* ***taxi driver*** ○ *I'll* ***take*** *a* ***taxi*** *to the airport.*

taxing /'tæksɪŋ/ *adjective* difficult and needing a lot of thought or effort to do or understand

ˈtaxi ˌrank *UK* (*US* **ˈtaxi ˌstand**) *noun* [C] a place where you can go to get a taxi

taxonomy /tæk'sɒnəmi/ *noun* **1** [U] **BIOLOGY** the process of organizing groups of things which are similar, especially plants and animals, and giving names to those groups **2** [C] one particular system for organizing groups of similar things

taxpayer /'tæksˌpeɪə^{r}/ *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a person who pays tax

TB /ˌtiː'biː/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** *abbreviation for* tuberculosis (= a serious infectious disease of the lungs)

tbsp **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* tablespoonful: the amount that can be held by a large spoon used for measuring food

T-cell /'tiːsel/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a type of white blood cell that helps to protect the body against diseases

O-K **tea** /tiː/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **FOOD** a hot drink that you make by pouring water onto dried leaves, or the leaves that you use to make this drink ***herbal teas*** ○ *Would you like* ***a cup of tea*** *or coffee?* **2** **FOOD** *UK* a small afternoon meal of cakes, biscuits, etc and tea to drink *They invited us for* ***afternoon tea.*** **3** **FOOD** *UK* a word used by some people for the meal that is eaten in the evening

teabag /'tiːbæg/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a small paper bag with dried leaves inside, used for making tea

O-K **teach** /tiːtʃ/ *verb past* **taught** **1** **EDUCATION** [I, T] to give lessons in a particular subject at a school, university, etc *She taught at Harvard University for several years.* ○ *He teaches history.* **2** SHOW HOW TO [T] to show or explain to someone how to do something [+ **to do sth**] *My dad taught me to drive.* ○ *Can you* ***teach*** *me* ***how to*** *knit?* **3** GET KNOWLEDGE [T] If a situation teaches you something, it gives you new knowledge or helps you to understand something. [+ **to do sth**] *The whole experience taught him to be more careful with money.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **learn** ➲See also: teach sb a **lesson**

O-K **teacher** /'tiːtʃə^{r}/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** someone whose job is to teach in a school, college, etc *a history/science teacher* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6 ➲See Common Learner Error at **lecturer**

teaching /'tiːtʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** the job of being a teacher *He decided to* ***go into teaching*** (= become a teacher).

teachings /'tiːtʃɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] the ideas or beliefs of someone, such as a political or religious leader *the teachings of Martin Luther King*

teacup /'tiːkʌp/ *noun* [C] a cup that you drink tea from

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***team***

be **in/on** a team ● **join/play for** a team ● team **captain/coach/member**

O-K **team¹** /tiːm/ *noun* [**group**] **1** **SPORT** a group of people who play a sport or game together against another group of players *a basketball/football team* **2** a group of people who work together to do something *a management team* ○ *a team of advisers*

team² /tiːm/ *verb*
team up *phrasal verb* to join someone else and work together with them to do something *I* ***teamed up with*** *Brendan for the doubles tournament.*

T

teammate /ˈtiːmmeɪt/ *noun* [C] SPORT a member of your team

teamwork /ˈtiːmwɜːk/ *noun* [U] when a group of people work well together

teapot /ˈtiːpɒt/ *noun* [C] a container used for making and serving tea, which has a lid, a handle, and a spout (= tube that liquid comes out of) ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

tear¹ /teəʳ/ *verb past tense* **tore**, *past participle* **torn 1** DAMAGE SOMETHING [T] to pull paper, cloth, etc into pieces, or to make a hole in it by accident *The nail had **torn a hole in** my skirt.* **2** BECOME DAMAGED [I] If paper, cloth, etc tears, it becomes damaged because it has been pulled. **3 tear sth out of/off/down, etc** to remove something by pulling it quickly and violently *She tore his picture down from the wall.* **4 tear along/about/past, etc** *informal* to move somewhere very quickly *The kids were tearing around the house.* **5 be torn between sth and sth** to be unable to decide between two choices *I'm torn between the apple pie and the chocolate mousse.* ➲See also: pull/tear your **hair** out

tear sth apart *phrasal verb* **1** FIGHT/ARGUE to make a group of people argue or fight with each other *The country was torn apart by 12 years of civil war.* **2** DESTROY to destroy something *The building was torn apart by the bomb blast.*

tear sb apart *phrasal verb* to make someone very unhappy

tear sb away *phrasal verb* to make someone stop doing something that they enjoy, in order to do something else *I'll bring Ian, if I can **tear** him **away from** his computer games.*

tear sth down *phrasal verb* to intentionally destroy a building or structure *They tore down the old hospital and built some offices.*

tear sth off *phrasal verb* to quickly remove your clothes *He tore off his shirt and jumped into the stream.*

tear sth up *phrasal verb* to tear paper into a lot of small pieces *He tore up her photograph.*

tear² /teəʳ/ *noun* [C] a hole in a piece of cloth, paper, etc where it has been torn

tear³ /tɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a drop of water that comes from your eye when you cry *Suddenly he **burst into tears*** (= started crying). ○ *I was **in tears*** (= crying) *by the end of the film.* ●**tearful** *adjective* crying *a tearful goodbye* ●**tearfully** *adverb* ➲See also: in floods (**flood²**) of tears

ˈtear ˌgas *noun* [U] a gas that makes people's eyes hurt, used by the police or army to control violent crowds

tease /tiːz/ *verb* [I, T] to laugh at someone or say unkind things to them, either because you are joking or because you want to upset them *They were **teasing** Dara **about** her new haircut.* ○ *Don't get upset, I'm only teasing.*

teaspoon /ˈtiːspuːn/ *noun* [C] a small spoon that is used for mixing drinks and measuring small amounts of food, or the amount this spoon can hold

teatime /ˈtiːtaɪm/ *noun* [C, U] *UK* FOOD the time in the evening when people have a meal

ˈtea ˌtowel *UK* (*US* **dishtowel**) *noun* [C] a cloth that is used for drying plates, dishes, etc

tech¹ /tek/ *adjective mainly US short for* technical¹ *online tech support*

tech² /tek/ *noun mainly US* **1** TECHNOLOGY [U] *short for* technology *high/low tech* ○ *tech stocks* **2** PERSON [C] *informal short for* technician *Bill was a lab tech at NYU.*

techie /ˈteki/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who has a strong interest in technology, usually computers

technical /ˈteknɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** SCIENCE/INDUSTRY relating to the knowledge, machines, or methods used in science and industry *We're having a few **technical problems**.* **2** SPECIALIZED relating to the knowledge and methods of a particular subject or job *There are a few **technical terms** here that I don't understand.* **3** PRACTICAL SKILL relating to practical skills and methods that are used in a particular activity *As a dancer she had great technical skill.*

technicalities /ˌteknɪˈkælətiz/ *noun* [plural] the exact details of a system or process *the technicalities of photography*

technicality /ˌteknɪˈkælətɪ/ *noun* [C] a small detail of a law or rule

technically /ˈteknɪkᵊli/ *adverb* **1** SCIENCE/INDUSTRY relating to the knowledge, machines, or methods used in science and industry *technically advanced weapons* **2** DETAIL according to the exact details of a rule, law, or fact *Irvine is technically British but lives in Dublin and races for the Irish team.*

technician /tekˈnɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] someone whose job involves practical work with scientific or electrical equipment *a **lab technician***

technique /tekˈniːk/ *noun* [C, U] a particular or special way of doing something [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *Scientists have developed a new technique for taking blood samples.*

techno /ˈteknəʊ/ *noun* [U] *UK* MUSIC a type of electronic dance music

techno- /teknəʊ-/ *prefix* relating to technology *a technophile* (= a person who loves technology)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***technology***

advanced/cutting-edge/modern technology
● **develop/harness** technology

technology /tekˈnɒlədʒi/ *noun* [C, U] knowledge, equipment, and methods that are used in science and industry *computer technology* ●**technological** /ˌteknəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to, or involving technology *technological developments* ●**technologically** *adverb* ➲See also: **information technology**

tectonic /tekˈtɒnɪk/ *adjective* GEOLOGY relating to the structure of the Earth's surface and the way that it moves ●**tectonics** /tekˈtɒnɪks/ *noun* [no plural] the processes which change the structure of the Earth's surface

teddy bear /ˈtedi,beəʳ/ (*also UK* **teddy**) *noun* [C] a soft, toy bear

tedious /ˈtiːdiəs/ *adjective* boring *a tedious job* ●**tediously** *adverb*

tee /tiː/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a small stick that is used for holding a golf ball

teem /tiːm/ *verb*
be teeming with sb/sth *phrasal verb* to contain large numbers of people or animals *The mall was teeming with shoppers on Saturday afternoon.*

teeming /ˈtiːmɪŋ/ *adjective* full of people *the teeming city*

teen¹ /tiːn/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** *mainly US short for* teenager

teen² /tiːn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *informal* **SOCIETY** relating to, or popular with people who are between 13 and 19 years old *a **teen idol***

teenage /ˈtiːneɪdʒ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **SOCIETY** aged between 13 and 19 or suitable for people of that age *a teenage daughter* ○ *a teenage disco*

O-K **teenager** /ˈtiːnˌeɪdʒəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** someone who is between 13 and 19 years old

teens /tiːnz/ *noun* [**plural**] **SOCIETY** the part of your life between the age of 13 and 19 *Tony and Sally's youngest daughter is still **in her teens**.*

ˈ**tee ˌshirt** *noun* [C] *another spelling of* T-shirt (= a piece of cotton clothing for the top part of the body with short sleeves and no collar)

teeter /ˈtiːtəʳ/ *verb* **1 be teetering on the brink/edge of sth** to be in a situation where something bad might happen very soon *The British economy is teetering on the brink of collapse.* **2 teeter about/across/around, etc** to look as if you are going to fall *She teetered around the room in six-inch heels.*

teeter-totter /ˈtiːtəˌtɒtəʳ/ *US* (*UK/US* **seesaw**) *noun* [C] a long board that children play on by sitting at each end and using their feet on the ground to push the board up and down

teeth /tiːθ/ **ANATOMY** *plural of* tooth

teethe /tiːð/ *verb* **1 be teething** If a baby is teething, it is getting its first teeth. **2 teething problems/troubles** problems that happen because something is new and has not been done before

teetotal /ˌtiːˈtəʊtᵊl/ *adjective* never drinking any alcohol ●**teetotaller** *UK* (*US* **teetotaler**) *noun* [C] someone who never drinks alcohol

TEFL /ˈtefl/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Teaching English as a Foreign Language

tel *written abbreviation for* telephone number *Tel 0113 246369*

tele- /telɪ-/ *prefix* **1** TELEPHONE done using a telephone *telesales* **2** TELEVISION connected with television *telecast* (= something that is broadcast on television) **3** DISTANCE over a long distance *telephoto lens* (= a camera lens that makes distant objects look nearer)

telecommunications /ˌtelɪkəˌmjuːnɪˈkeɪʃᵊnz/ *noun* [**U, group**] **ECONOMICS** the process or business of sending information or messages by telephone, radio, etc

telecommuting /ˌtelɪkəˈmjuːtɪŋ/ US /ˈtelɪkəˌmjuːtɪŋ/ *US* (*UK* **teleworking**) *noun* [U] working at home, while communicating with your office by computer and telephone ●**telecommuter** *noun* [C] *US*

telecoms /ˈtelɪkɒmz/ *noun* [U] *short for* telecommunications

teleconference /ˌtelɪˈkɒnfᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [C] when people in different places have a meeting using computers, telephones, televisions etc to allow them to talk to each other and see each other

telegram /ˈtelɪgræm/ *noun* [C] a message that is sent by telegraph and printed on paper

telegraph /ˈtelɪgrɑːf/ *noun* [U] an old-fashioned system of sending messages using radio or electrical signals

telemarketing /ˈtelɪˌmɑːkɪtɪŋ/ (*also UK* **telesales**) *noun* [U] the selling of goods or services by telephone

telepathy /tɪˈlepəθi/ *noun* [U] the ability to know what someone is thinking or to communicate thoughts without speaking or writing ●**telepathic** /ˌtelɪˈpæθɪk/ *adjective* having or involving telepathy

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***telephone***

answer/pick up/put down the telephone ● the telephone **rings** ● **on** the telephone ● a telephone **call**

O-K **telephone¹** /ˈtelɪfəʊn/ (*also* **phone**) *noun* **1** COMMUNICATION [U] a communication system that is used to talk to someone who is in another place *a **telephone call*** ○ *I'm sorry, he's **on the telephone*** (= using the telephone) *at the moment.* **2** EQUIPMENT [C] a piece of equipment that is used to talk to someone who is in another place *The **telephone rang** and she hurried to pick it up.* ○ *Could you **answer** the **telephone**?*

telephone² /ˈtelɪfəʊn/ (*also* **phone**) *verb* [I, T] *formal* to communicate with someone by telephone

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

telephone and **phone**

Telephone and **phone** mean the same thing, but we usually use **phone** for both the noun and the verb.

I'll phone you this evening.

Can I use your phone, please?

When the phone rings or when you want to make a phone call, you **pick** it **up**.

I picked up the phone and dialled his number.

When you finish a phone call, you **put** the phone **down** or you **hang up**.

Don't hang up - I can explain everything!

She thanked him and put the phone down.

~~*She thanked him and hung up the phone.*~~

ˈ**telephone diˌrectory** *noun* [C] a book that contains the telephone numbers of people who live in a particular area

ˈ**telephone ˌnumber** (*also* **phone number**) *noun* [C] the number of a particular telephone

telesales /ˈtelɪseɪlz/ *UK* (*UK/US* **telemarketing**) *noun* [U] the selling of goods or services by telephone

T

telescope /ˈtelɪskəʊp/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a piece of equipment, in the shape of a tube, that makes things which are far away look bigger or nearer

telescope

Teletext /ˈtelɪˌtekst/ *noun trademark* a system that gives written information on many subjects, such as news, on a television screen *You can get all the latest football news on Teletext.*

televise /ˈtelɪvaɪz/ *verb* [T] to show something on television *The concert will be televised live around the world.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***television***

watch television ● **see/watch** sth on television ● **on** television ● a television **channel/presenter/programme/series**

O-key **television** /ˈtelɪvɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** EQUIPMENT [C] a piece of equipment in the shape of a box, with a screen on the front, used for watching programmes **2** PROGRAMMES [U] the programmes that are shown on a television *I mostly **watch television** in the evening.* ○ *I **saw** it **on television**.* ○ *a **television programme*** **3** SYSTEM [U] the system or business of making and broadcasting programmes for television ➲See also: **closed-circuit television, satellite television**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

watch television

Be careful to choose the correct verb with television.

My children watch too much television.

~~*My children look too much television.*~~

teleworking /ˈtelɪˌwɜːkɪŋ/ *UK* (*US* **telecommuting**) *noun* [U] working at home, while communicating with your office by computer and telephone ●**teleworker** *noun* [C] *UK*

O-key **tell** /tel/ *verb past* **told 1** SAY [T] to say something to someone, usually giving them information *He **told** me **about** his new school.* [+ **(that)**] *Sally told me that the play didn't start until 9 o'clock.* [+ **question word**] *Can you tell me what time the next bus leaves?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **say** **2 tell sb to do sth** to order someone to do something *I told you to stay here.* **3 can tell** to know or recognize something from what you hear, see, etc [+ **(that)**] *You could tell that he was tired.* [+ **question word**] *You can never tell whether Hajime's being serious or not.* ○ *I can't **tell the difference between** them.* **4** UNDERSTAND FROM [T] If something tells you something, it gives you information. *What does the survey tell us about the lives of teenagers?* **5 (I'll) tell you what** used to suggest a plan *Tell you what, let's go swimming and then get a pizza.* **6** EFFECT [I] to have a bad effect on someone *The worry of the last few months was starting to **tell on** him.* **7 (I) told you so!** *informal* used when someone has caused problems for themselves by doing something that you told them not to ➲See also: tell sb's **fortune**

tell sb/sth apart *phrasal verb* to be able to see the difference between two things or people that are very similar *It's impossible to tell the twins apart.*

tell sb off *phrasal verb* to tell someone that they have done something wrong and that you are angry about it [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *Darren **got told off** for talking in class.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

teller /ˈtelᵊʳ/ *noun* [C] *US* someone who works in a bank and gives out or takes in money ➲See also: **fortune-teller**

telling /ˈtelɪŋ/ *adjective* showing the truth about a situation, or showing what someone really thinks *a telling comment*

telltale /ˈteltel/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] showing something that someone is trying to keep secret *She was showing all the **telltale signs** of pregnancy.*

telly /ˈteli/ *noun* [C, U] *UK informal short for* television

temp /temp/ *noun* [C] someone who works in an office for a short time while someone else is away, ill, etc ●**temp** *verb* [I] to work as a temp in an office

temper¹ /ˈtempᵊʳ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when someone becomes angry very easily *He's got a really **bad temper**.* **2 be in a bad/foul, etc temper** to be feeling angry *I'd avoid her if I were you - she's in a foul temper.* **3 lose your temper (with sb)** to suddenly become very angry *I lost my temper with the children this morning.* **4 keep your temper** to succeed in staying calm and not becoming angry

temper² /ˈtempᵊʳ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to make something less strong, extreme, etc *I learnt to temper my criticism.*

temperament /ˈtempᵊrəmənt/ *noun* [C, U] the part of your character that affects your moods and the way you behave *I don't think he's got the right temperament to be a teacher.*

temperamental /ˌtempᵊrəˈmentᵊl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON becoming angry or upset very often and suddenly **2** MACHINE A machine, vehicle, etc that is temperamental does not always work correctly.

temperate /ˈtempᵊrət/ *adjective formal* **GEOGRAPHY** having weather that is not very hot and not very cold *Virginia has a **temperate climate**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***temperature***

average/extreme/high/low temperatures ● temperatures **drop/fall/rise/soar**

O-key **temperature** /ˈtemprətʃəʳ/ *noun* **1 MEASURES** [C, U] how hot or cold something is *The room's kept at **a temperature of** around 20°C.* **2 sb's temperature HEALTH** how hot or cold someone's body is *The doctor examined him and **took** his **temperature*** (= measured his temperature). **3 have a temperature HEALTH** to be hotter than usual because you are ill

template /ˈtemplɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** a metal, plastic, etc pattern that is used for making many copies of a shape **2 COMPUTING** a system that helps you arrange information on a computer screen

temple /ˈtempl/ *noun* [C] **1 RELIGION** a building where people in some religions go to pray or worship *a Buddhist temple* **2 ANATOMY** the

T

area on each side of your head in front of the top of your ear

tempo /ˈtempəʊ/ *noun* **1** [**U, no plural**] the speed at which an activity happens *The tempo of the game increased in the second half.* **2** **MUSIC** [**C, U**] *formal* the speed of a piece of music

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***temporary***

The phrase **for now** can be used to say that something should happen or be done now but can be changed later: *Just put everything on the table **for now** - I'll sort it all out later.*

The adjective **disposable** can be used to describe objects which are intended to be used temporarily and then thrown away: *I bought a **disposable** camera at the airport.*

If something is temporary and low quality, you can say that it is **makeshift**: *We built a **makeshift** shelter under the trees.*

The adjective **short-lived** can be used instead of 'temporary' when it means 'lasting for a short time': *I had a few relationships at college, most of which were fairly **short-lived**.*

The expression **acting manager/chairman**, etc is often used to describe someone who does a job temporarily while the person who usually does it is not there: *He'll be the **acting** director until they appoint a permanent one.*

temporary /ˈtempᵊrᵊri/ *adjective* existing or happening for only a short or limited time *a temporary job* ○ *temporary accommodation/housing* ●**temporarily** *adverb*

tempt /tempt/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone want to have or do something, especially something that they do not need or something that is wrong [**+ to do sth**] *She's trying to tempt me to go shopping with her.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***temptation***

avoid/resist (the) temptation ● **give in to/succumb to** temptation ● a **strong** temptation ● the temptation **of** doing sth

temptation /tempˈteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** FEELING [**C, U**] a feeling that you want to do or have something, although you know you should not [**+ to do sth**] *I **resisted the temptation** to* (= I did not) *have another piece of chocolate cake.* **2** SOMETHING THAT TEMPTS [**C**] something that makes you want to do or have something although you know you should not *He knew crime was wrong but the money was too great a temptation.*

tempting /ˈtemptɪŋ/ *adjective* Something that is tempting makes you want to have or do it. *a **tempting invitation/offer***

O-key **ten** /ten/ the number 10

tenacious /tɪˈneɪʃəs/ *adjective* very determined to do something and not wanting to stop ●**tenaciously** *adverb* ●**tenacity** /tɪˈnæsəti/ *noun* [**U**]

tenancy /ˈtenənsi/ *noun* [**C, U**] the period of time when someone rents a room, house, etc

tenant /ˈtenənt/ *noun* [**C**] someone who pays rent to live in a room, house, etc

O-key **tend** /tend/ *verb* **1** **tend to do sth** to often do a particular thing or be likely to do a particular thing *I tend to wear dark colours.* ○ *July and August tend to be our busiest months.* **2** [**T**] (*also* **tend to**) *formal* to look after someone or something *He spends most afternoons tending his vegetable garden.*

tendency /ˈtendənsi/ *noun* [**C**] something that someone often does, or something that often happens [**+ to do sth**] *She **has a tendency** to talk for too long.* ○ *There is a growing **tendency for** companies to employ people on short contracts.*

tender¹ /ˈtendᵊr/ *adjective* **1** GENTLE kind and gentle *a tender kiss/look* **2** **FOOD** Tender meat or vegetables are soft and easy to cut. **3** **HEALTH** If part of your body is tender, it is painful when you touch it. **4 at the tender age of 8/17/25 etc** *literary* at the young age of 8/17, etc ●**tenderness** *noun* [**U**]

tender² /ˈtendᵊr/ *verb formal* **1** OFFER [**I**] to make a formal offer to do a job or to provide a service **2** IDEA/SUGGESTION [**T**] *formal* to formally offer a suggestion, idea, money etc *He **tendered** his **resignation*** (= offered to leave his job).

tender³ /ˈtendᵊr/ *noun* [**C, U**] a formal offer to do some work *The work has been **put out to tender*** (= people have been asked to make offers to do the work).

tenderly /ˈtendəli/ *adverb* in a kind and gentle way *He looked at her tenderly.*

tendon /ˈtendən/ *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** a strong piece of tissue in your body that connects a muscle to a bone

tenement /ˈtenəmənt/ *noun* [**C**] a large building that is divided into apartments, usually in a poor area of a city

tenet /ˈtenɪt/ *noun* [**C**] a principle or belief of a theory or religion *one of the basic tenets of Islam*

tenner /ˈtenᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] *UK informal* a piece of paper money that has a value of £10

tennis /ˈtenɪs/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a sport in which two or four people hit a small ball to each other over a net ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15 ➲See also: **table tennis**

tenor /ˈtenᵊr/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a male singer with a high voice

tense¹ /tens/ *adjective* **1** FEELING nervous, worried, and not able to relax *The students looked tense as they waited for their exam results.* **2** SITUATION A tense situation makes you feel nervous and worried. *There were some tense moments in the second half of the game.* **3** MUSCLE A tense muscle feels tight and stiff.

tense² /tens/ (*also* **tense up**) *verb* [**I, T**] If your muscles tense, they become tight and stiff, and if you tense them, you make them do this.

tense³ /tens/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb which shows the time at which an action happened. For example 'I sing' is in the present tense and 'I will sing' is in the future tense.

T

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tension***

create/defuse/ease tension ● tension **mounts** ● **growing/increased/mounting** tension ● tension **between** sb and sb ● **ethnic/racial** tensions

tension /ˈtenʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** NO TRUST [**C, U**] a feeling of fear or anger between two groups of people who do not trust each other ***ethnic/racial tension*** ○ *There are growing* ***tensions between*** *the two countries.* **2** BEING NERVOUS [**U**] a feeling that you are nervous, worried, and not relaxed *You could feel the tension in the room as we waited for her to arrive.* **3** TIGHT [**U**] when a muscle, rope, etc, is tight or stiff

tent /tent/ *noun* [**C**] a structure made of metal poles and cloth which is fixed to the ground with ropes and used as a cover or to sleep under *It only took twenty minutes to* ***put the tent up*** (= make it ready to use).

tentacle /ˈtentəkl/ *noun* [**C**] **BIOLOGY** one of the long, arm-like parts of some sea creatures

tentative /ˈtentətɪv/ *adjective* **1** NOT CERTAIN A tentative idea, plan, agreement, etc is not certain. *The two companies have announced a tentative deal.* **2** NOT CONFIDENT doing something in a way that shows you are not confident *a child's tentative first steps* ●**tentatively** *adverb*

tenth¹ /tenθ/ 10th written as a word

tenth² /tenθ/ *noun* [**C**] one of ten equal parts of something; 1/10; 0.1

tenuous /ˈtenjuəs/ *adjective* A tenuous connection, idea, or situation is weak and possibly does not exist. *The court is unlikely to accept such tenuous evidence.* ●**tenuously** *adverb*

tenure /ˈtenjəʳ/ *noun* [**U**] **1** BUILDING/LAND the legal right to live in a building or use a piece of land for a period **2** TIME the period of time when someone has an important job *his tenure as president* **3** PERMANENT If you have tenure in your job, your job is permanent.

tepee /ˈtiːpiː/ *noun* [**C**] a type of tent in the shape of a cone made from animal skins or cloth, used by some Native Americans

tepid /ˈtepɪd/ *adjective* A tepid liquid is slightly warm.

terabyte /ˈterəbaɪt/ (*written abbreviation* **Tb**) *noun* **COMPUTING, MEASURES** a unit for measuring the amount of information a computer can store, equal to 1,000,000,000,000 bytes

term¹ /tɜːm/ *noun* **1** **LANGUAGE** [**C**] a word or phrase that is used to refer to a particular thing, especially in a technical or scientific subject *a* ***legal/technical term*** **2** TIME [**C**] the fixed period of time when someone does an important job or is in a particular place *a prison term* ○ *The government has been elected for another four-year term.* **3** **EDUCATION** [**C**] one of the periods of time that the school or university year is divided into *We've got a test at the* ***end of term.*** **4 in the long/short, etc term** a long/short, etc period of time from now ➲See also: **half-term**

term² /tɜːm/ *verb* [**T**] *formal* **LANGUAGE** to use a particular word or phrase to describe something *Critics termed the movie a 'disaster'.*

terminal¹ /ˈtɜːmɪnᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] **1** a building where you can get onto an aircraft, bus, or ship *a terminal building* **2** **COMPUTING** a screen and keyboard with which you can use a computer

terminal² /ˈtɜːmɪnᵊl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** A terminal illness will cause death. *terminal cancer* ●**terminally** *adverb terminally ill*

terminate /ˈtɜːmɪneɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] *formal* If something terminates, it ends, and if you terminate something, you make it end. *His contract has been terminated.* ●**termination** /ˌtɜːmɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**]

terminology /ˌtɜːmɪˈnɒlədʒi/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LANGUAGE** the special words and phrases that are used in a particular subject *medical/scientific terminology*

terminus /ˈtɜːmɪnəs/ *noun* [**C**] the place where a train or bus finishes its journey

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***terms***

agree terms ● **break/meet** the terms **of** sth ● **under** the terms **of** sth

terms /tɜːmz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** the rules of an agreement ***Under the terms of*** *their contract, employees must give 3 months notice if they want to leave.* **2 be on good/bad/friendly, etc terms** to have a good/bad, etc relationship with someone **3 not be on speaking terms** to not speak to someone because you have argued with them **4 in ... terms** (*also* **in terms of sth**) used to explain which part of a problem or situation you are referring to *In financial terms, the project was not a success.* **5 in no uncertain terms** in a direct and often angry way *I told him to go away in no uncertain terms.* **6 come to terms with sth** to accept a sad situation *He still hasn't come to terms with his brother's death.* ➲See also: a **contradiction** in terms

terrace /ˈterɪs/ *noun* [**C**] **1** FLAT AREA a flat area outside a house, restaurant, etc where you can sit **2** HOUSE *UK* a row of houses that are joined together

ˌterraced ˈhouse *UK* (*US* **row house**) *noun* [**C**] one of a row of houses that are joined together

the terraces /ˈterɪsɪz/ *noun* [**plural**] **SPORT** in the UK, wide, concrete steps where people stand to watch a football game

terracotta /ˌterəˈkɒtə/ *noun* [**U**] **DT** a hard, red-brown clay that is used for making containers for plants, tiles for house roofs, etc. *terracotta pots*

terrain /təˈreɪn/ *noun* [**C, U**] a particular type of land *rough terrain*

terrestrial /təˈrestriəl/ *adjective formal* relating to the Earth, not space

terrible /ˈterəbl/ *adjective* very bad, of low quality, or unpleasant *a terrible accident* ○ *The weather was terrible.*

terribly /ˈterəbli/ *adverb* **1** VERY very *She seemed terribly upset.* **2** BADLY very badly *I slept terribly last night.*

terrier /ˈteriəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a type of small dog

terrific /təˈrɪfɪk/ *adjective* **1** EXCELLENT excellent *a terrific opportunity* ○ *I thought she looked terrific.* **2** LARGE/SERIOUS [**always before noun**] very

large, great, or serious *a terrific increase in prices* ○ *a terrific storm* ●**terrifically** *adverb*

terrified /ˈterəfaɪd/ *adjective* very frightened *I'm **terrified of** flying.* [+ **(that)**] *Maggie was terrified that her parents would discover the truth.*

terrify /ˈterəfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel very frightened *The idea of parachuting out of an aircraft terrifies me.* ●**terrifying** *adjective a terrifying experience*

territorial /ˌterɪˈtɔːriəl/ *adjective* **POLITICS** relating to the land that is owned or controlled by a particular country *a territorial dispute*

territory /ˈterɪtᵊri/ *noun* **1 POLITICS** [C, U] land that is owned or controlled by a particular country *Spanish territory* **2** PERSON/ANIMAL [C, U] an area that an animal or person thinks belongs to them *Cats like to protect their territory.* **3** AREA OF KNOWLEDGE [U] an area of knowledge or experience *With this project we'll be moving into unknown territory.*

terror /ˈterəʳ/ *noun* [U] a feeling of being very frightened *There was a look of terror on his face.* ➲See also: **reign**[1] of terror

terrorism /ˈterᵊrɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] **POLITICS** the use of violence for political purposes, for example putting bombs in public places *an **act of terrorism***

terrorist /ˈterərɪst/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who is involved in terrorism *a **terrorist attack***

terrorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈterᵊraɪz/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel very frightened by saying that you will hurt or kill them *A gang of young men with knives have been terrorizing local people.*

terse /tɜːs/ *adjective* said or written in a few words, often showing that you are annoyed ●**tersely** *adverb*

tertiary /ˈtɜːʃᵊri/ *adjective UK formal* **EDUCATION** Tertiary education is education at university or college level. *a tertiary institution*

the ˈtertiary ˌsector *noun* **ECONOMICS** businesses that provide services but do not make anything, for example banks and shops

TESOL /ˈtiːsɒl/ *noun* [U] **EDUCATION** *abbreviation for* Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

tessellate /ˈtesᵊleɪt/ *verb* [I] **DT** If shapes tessellate, they fit together completely, with no spaces between them. ●**tessellation** /ˌtesᵊlˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***test***

do/sit/take a test ● **fail/pass** a test ● a test **on** sth

O-K **test**[1] /test/ *noun* [C] **1 EDUCATION** a set of questions to measure someone's knowledge or ability *a driving test* ○ *You have to **take a test**.* ○ *Only two students in the class **failed the test**.* ○ *Did you **pass the** biology **test?*** **2 HEALTH** a short medical examination of part of your body *an eye test* ○ *a pregnancy test* **3** EXPERIMENT something that you do to discover if something is safe, works correctly, etc *a safety test* **4** SITUATION a situation that shows how good something is *This will be a real **test of** his ability.*

O-K **test**[2] /test/ *verb* [T] **1** EXPERIMENT to do something in order to discover if something is safe, works correctly, etc *None of our products are **tested on** animals.* **2 HEALTH** to do a medical examination of part of someone's body *I'm going to get my hearing tested.* **3 EDUCATION** to give someone a set of questions, in order to measure their knowledge or ability *You'll be **tested on** all the things we've studied this term.* **4** SITUATION If a situation tests someone, it proves how good, strong, etc they are.

testa /ˈtestə/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** in plants with flowers, a hard layer that covers and protects the surface of a seed

testament /ˈtestəmənt/ *noun formal* **a testament to sth** *formal* proof of something good *It's a testament to Jane's popularity that so many people are celebrating with her today.* ➲See also: **the New Testament, the Old Testament**

testicle /ˈtestɪkl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of the two round, male sex organs that produce sperm

testify /ˈtestɪfaɪ/ *verb* [I] **LAW** to say what you know or believe is true in a law court [+ **that**] *Elliott testified that he had met the men in a bar.*

testimony /ˈtestɪməni/ *noun* **1 LAW** [C, U] a formal statement about what someone knows or believes is true, especially in a law court *the testimony of a witness* **2 testimony to sth** *formal* proof of something good *The book's continued popularity is testimony to the power of clever marketing.*

testis /ˈtestɪs/ *noun plural* **testes** /ˈtestiːz/ **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a testicle (= round male sex organ which produces sperm)

testosterone /ˌtesˈtɒs.tᵊr.əʊn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a male hormone that makes boys develop into men and causes changes in the male sexual organs

ˈtest ˌplan *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a document that explains the way that new computer software and systems will be tested

ˈtest ˌtube *noun* [C] a glass tube that is open at one end and used in scientific experiments ➲See picture at **laboratory**

tetanus /ˈtetᵊnəs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious disease that makes your muscles stiff and is caused by an infection that gets into the body through a cut

tether /ˈteðəʳ/ *verb* [T] to tie an animal to something so that it cannot move away ●**tether** *noun* [C] ➲See also: at the **end**[1] of your tether

tetrahedron /ˌtetrəˈhiːdrᵊn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **tetrahedra** or **tetrahedrons MATHEMATICS** a solid shape that has four flat triangular surfaces

O-K **text**[1] /tekst/ *noun* **1 LANGUAGE** [C, U] the written words in a book, magazine, etc, not the pictures *a page of text* **2 EDUCATION** [C] a book or piece of writing that you study as part of a course **3** a written message, usually containing words with letters left out, sent from one mobile phone to another

text[2] /tekst/ *verb* [I, T] to send a text message (= written message from a mobile phone)

textbook /ˈtekstbʊk/ *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a book about a particular subject, written for

T

students *a chemistry/French textbook* ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

textile /ˈtekstaɪl/ *noun* [C] DT any type of cloth that is made by weaving (= crossing threads under and over each other)

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***text message***

get/send a text message ● a text message **saying** sth ● a text message **from/to** sb

ˈ**text ˌmessage** *noun* [C] a written message, usually containing words with letters left out, sent from one mobile phone to another ●**text messaging** *noun* [U]

texture /ˈtekstʃər/ *noun* [C, U] the way that something feels when you touch it *wood with a rough texture*

than *strong form* /ðæn/ *weak form* /ðən/ *preposition, conjunction* used to compare two different things or amounts *Susannah's car is bigger than mine.* ○ *Tom's a bit taller than Sam.* ○ *It cost less than I expected.*

thank /θæŋk/ *verb* [T] **1** to tell someone that you are grateful for something they have done or given you *I haven't **thanked** her **for** her present yet.* [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *Yu Yin thanked the boys for helping her.* **2 thank God/goodness/Heavens, etc** something that you say when you are happy because something bad did not happen *Thank goodness you're okay - I was really worried.*

thankful /ˈθæŋkfəl/ *adjective* pleased or grateful about something [+ **(that)**] *We were thankful that none of the children saw the accident.*

thankfully /ˈθæŋkfəli/ *adverb* used at the beginning of a sentence to show that you are pleased or grateful about something *Thankfully, nobody was hurt.*

thankless /ˈθæŋkləs/ *adjective* A thankless job is difficult or unpleasant and no one thanks you for doing it. *Nursing can be a **thankless job**.*

thanks¹ /θæŋks/ *exclamation informal* **1** used to tell someone that you are grateful because they have given you something or done something for you *Can you pass me the book? Thanks very much.* ○ ***Thanks for** all your help.* **2 thanks/no, thanks** used to accept or refuse someone's offer *"Would you like a cup of coffee?" "No, thanks."*

thanks² /θæŋks/ *noun* [plural] **1** words that show you are grateful for something someone has given to you or done for you *He sent a message of thanks.* **2 thanks to sb/sth** because of someone or something *I passed my driving test, thanks to the extra help my Dad gave me.*

Thanksgiving /ˌθæŋksˈgɪvɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] a holiday in the autumn in the US and Canada, when families have a big meal together

ˈ**thank ˌyou** *exclamation* **1** used to tell someone that you are grateful because they have given you something or done something for you ***Thank you** very much **for** the birthday card.* ○ *"Here's the money I promised you." "Thank you."* **2 thank you/no, thank you** used to accept or refuse someone's offer *"Would you like something to eat?" "No, thank you."*

thank-you /ˈθæŋkju/ *noun* [C] something that you say or do to thank someone for doing something [+ **for** + **doing sth**] *I bought Emma some chocolates as a thank-you for looking after the dog.* ○ *a **thank-you present***

that¹ /ðæt/ *determiner plural* **those 1** ALREADY DISCUSSED/SEEN used to refer to something or someone that has already been talked about or seen *Did you know that woman in the post office?* ○ *How much are those shoes?* **2** NOT NEAR used to refer to something or someone that is not near you *He went through that door.* ○ *Have you seen that man over there?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **this**

that² /ðæt/ *pronoun plural* **those 1** ALREADY DISCUSSED/SEEN used to refer to something that has already been talked about or seen *That looks heavy.* ○ *You can't possibly wear those!* **2** NOT NEAR used to refer to something that is not near you *What's that in the corner?* **3 that's it a** CORRECT used to say that something is correct *You need to push the two pieces together. That's it.* **b** ENDED used to say that something has ended *Well that's it then, we've finished.* **4 that's that** used to say that something has happened or a decision has been made and there is nothing more to say or do *I won't agree to it and that's that.* **5 that is (to say)** used to correct something you have said or give more information about something *Everybody was at the meeting, well everyone except Jeanne, that is.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

this/these or **that/those ?**

Use **this** or **these** to talk about people and things which are close to the speaker.

This is my sister Sarah.

Do you like these earrings I'm wearing?

Use **that** or **those** to talk about people and things which are further away from the speaker.

That girl over there is called Sarah.

I liked those earrings you wore last night.

that³ *strong form* /ðæt/ *weak form* /ðət/ *conjunction* **1** AFTER VERB/NOUN/ADJECTIVE used after some verbs, nouns, and adjectives to introduce a new part of a sentence *He said that he'd collect it later.* ○ *Is it true that she's pregnant?* **2** RELATIVE CLAUSE used instead of 'who' or 'which' at the beginning of a relative clause *Have you eaten all the cake that I made yesterday?*

that⁴ /ðæt/ *adverb* **1** used when describing the size, amount, or state of something or someone *I've never seen a fish that big before.* **2 not (all) that big/good/warm, etc** not very big, good, warm, etc *It hasn't been all that cold this winter.*

thatched /θætʃt/ *adjective* A thatched building has a roof that is made of straw (= dried grass-like stems). *a **thatched cottage***

thaw /θɔː/ *verb* **1** FROZEN SUBSTANCE [I, T] (*also* **thaw out**) If something that is frozen thaws, it becomes warmer and softer or changes to liquid, and if you thaw something that is frozen, you make it do this. *Allow the meat to thaw before cooking it.* **2** RELATIONSHIP [I] If a

relationship between people thaws, it becomes more friendly after being bad. ●**thaw** *noun* [C]

the *strong form* /ðiː/ *weak forms* /ði, ðə/ *determiner* **1** ALREADY KNOWN used before nouns to refer to particular things or people that have already been talked about or are already known *Can you pass the salt?* ○ *I'll pick you up at the station.* ○ *That's the new restaurant I told you about.* **2** ONLY ONE used before nouns when only one of something exists *Have you seen the Eiffel Tower?* ○ *I'd love to travel round the world.* **3** SINGULAR NOUN used before a singular noun to refer to all the things or people described by that noun *The tiger has become extinct in many countries.* **4** ADJECTIVE used before some adjectives to make them into nouns *a home for the elderly* ○ *relatives of the deceased* **5** COMPARE used before each of two adjectives or adverbs to show how one thing changes depending on another *The longer we live here, the more we like it.* **6** EACH used with units or measurements to mean each or every *How many Belgian francs to the pound?* **7** BODY used when referring to a part of the body *He held her tightly by the arm.* **8** TIME used before numbers which refer to dates or periods of time *the sixties* ○ *Thursday the 29th of April* **9** MUSIC used with the names of musical instruments or dances to mean the type of instrument or dance in general *Can you play the violin?*

theatre *UK* (*US* **theater**) /ˈθɪətəʳ/ *noun* **1** BUILDING WITH STAGE [C] a building with a stage where people go to watch plays *the Arts Theatre* **2** BUILDING FOR FILMS [C] *US* a building where people go to watch films *a movie theater* **3** WORK [U] the work of writing, acting in, and producing plays **4** **HEALTH** [C, U] *UK* a room in a hospital where doctors do operations

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***theatre***

go to the theatre ● **at** the theatre ● **musical** theatre ● **street** theatre ● a theatre **company/director**

theatrical /θiˈætrɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** THEATRE [**always before noun**] relating to the theatre *theatrical make-up* **2** BEHAVIOUR doing and saying things in a very obvious way that is intended to make people notice you

theft /θeft/ *noun* [C, U] the action or crime of stealing something *car theft*

their /ðeəʳ/ *determiner* **1** OF A GROUP belonging to or relating to a group of people, animals, or things that have already been talked about *It was their problem, not mine.* **2** HIS/HER used to refer to what belongs to or relates to a person when you want to avoid saying 'his' or 'her' or when you do not know if the person is male or female *Did this person give their name?*

theirs /ðeəz/ *pronoun* the things that belong or relate to a group of people, animals, or things that have already been talked about *I think she's a relation of theirs.*

them *strong form* /ðem/ *weak form* /ðəm/ *pronoun* **1** GROUP used after a verb or preposition to refer to a group of people, animals, or things that have already been talked about *I'm looking for my keys - have you seen them?* **2** HIM/HER used after a verb or preposition to refer to a person when you want to avoid saying 'him' or 'her' or when you do not know if the person is male or female *When each passenger arrives we ask them to fill in a form.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***theme***

a theme **runs through** sth ● the **central/main** theme ● a **recurring** theme ● the theme **of** sth ● **on** the theme **of** sth

theme /θiːm/ *noun* **1** [C] the subject of a book, film, speech, etc *The **theme of** loss runs through most of his novels.* **2** **theme music/song/tune** **MUSIC** the music that is played at the beginning and end of a particular television or radio programme

ˈ**theme** ˌ**park** *noun* [C] a park with entertainments, such as games, machines to ride on, restaurants, etc, that are all based on one idea

themselves /ðəmˈselvz/ *pronoun* **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'they' *They're both 16 - they're old enough to look after themselves.* **2** EMPHASIS used to emphasize the pronoun 'they' or the particular group of people you are referring to *They've decided to run the club themselves.* **3** **(all) by themselves** alone or without anyone else's help *The kids arranged the party all by themselves.* **4** **(all) to themselves** for their use only *They had the whole campsite to themselves.*

then¹ /ðen/ *adverb* **1** TIME at that time *Call me tomorrow - I'll have time to speak then.* ○ *Tim and I were at school together, but I haven't seen him **since then**.* **2** NEXT next, or after something has happened *She trained as a teacher and then became a lawyer.* ○ *Let me finish my drink, then we'll go.* **3** SO so or because of that *Have a rest now, then you won't be tired this evening.* ○ *"My interview's at 9 o'clock." "You'll be catching an early train, then?"* **4** IN ADDITION used in order to add something to what you have just said *I've got two essays to write and then my science project to finish.* **5** **now then/right then/okay then** used to introduce a question or a suggestion *Right then, what do you want to drink?*

then² /ðen/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to refer to something which was true in the past but which is not true now *the then Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher*

thence /ðens/ *adverb formal* from there *The oil is shipped to Panama and thence to Texan refineries.*

theology /θiˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** the study of religion and religious belief ●**theological** /ˌθiːəˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective theological college*

theorem /ˈθɪərəm/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** (especially in maths) a formal statement that you can show to be true *a mathematical theorem*

theoretical /θɪəˈretɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** IDEAS based on the ideas that relate to a subject, not the practical uses of that subject *theoretical physics* **2** NOT PROVED related to an explanation that has not been proved

theoretically /θɪəˈretɪkᵊli/ *adverb* in a way that obeys some rules but is not likely *It is **theoretically possible**.*

T

theorist /ˈθɪərɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who develops ideas about the explanation for events *a political theorist*

theorize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈθɪəraɪz/ *verb* [I, T] to develop a set of ideas about something [+ **that**] *Investigators theorized that the crash was caused by engine failure.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***theory***

challenge/formulate/prove/test a theory ● a **popular/plausible/new** theory ● a theory **about** sth

theory /ˈθɪəri/ *noun* **1** IDEA [C] an idea or set of ideas that is intended to explain something *Darwin's theory of evolution* **2** PRINCIPLES [U] the set of principles on which a subject is based *economic theory* **3 in theory** If something is possible in theory, it should be possible but often it does not happen this way.

therapeutic /ˌθerəˈpjuːtɪk/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH helping to cure a disease or improve your health *the **therapeutic benefits** of massage* **2** helping you to feel happier and more relaxed *I find gardening very therapeutic.*

therapist /ˈθerəpɪst/ *noun* [C] HEALTH someone whose job is to treat a particular type of mental or physical illness *a speech therapist*

therapy /ˈθerəpi/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH the work of treating mental or physical illness without using an operation *cancer therapy* ○ *She's now **in therapy** to help her deal with her alcohol problem.* ➲See also: **physical therapy**

there[1] *strong form* /ðeəʳ/ *weak form* /ðəʳ/ *pronoun* **There is/are/was, etc** used to show that something exists or happens *There are three pubs in the village.* ○ *There's not much room in the back of the car.* ○ *There have been a lot of accidents on this road.* ○ *Is there any milk?*

there[2] /ðeəʳ/ *adverb* **1** PLACE in or at a particular place *We live in York because my wife works there.* ○ *I went to the party but I didn't know anyone there.* ○ *We'll never **get there*** (= arrive) *in time!* **2** DIRECTION used when you are pointing or looking at something in order to make someone look in the same direction *Put them in that box there.* ○ *Your bag's **over there** by the door.* **3** AVAILABLE present or available *They were all there - Mark, Jill, and the three kids.* ○ *That money is there for you if you need it.* **4** POINT at a particular point in a process or activity *Do you want to play another game or do you want to stop there?* ○ *Keep on trying - you'll **get there*** (= succeed) *in the end.* **5 there and then** If you do something there and then, you do it immediately. *I showed James the ring I liked and he bought it there and then.* **6 There you are/go. a** GIVING used when you are giving something to someone *Do you want a tissue? There you are.* **b** EMPHASIZING used to emphasize that you were right *There you go - I told you you'd win!*

thereabouts /ˈðeərəbaʊts/ *adverb mainly UK* near the number, amount, or time that has just been given *For this recipe you'll need 1kg of tomatoes, **or thereabouts**.*

thereafter /ˌðeəˈrɑːftəʳ/ *adverb formal* after a particular amount, time, or event *Faxes cost $1.20 for the first page, and 60 cents for each page thereafter.*

thereby /ˌðeəˈbaɪ/ *adverb formal* as a result of a particular action or event *The new dam will improve the water supply and thereby reduce hunger and disease.*

therefore /ˈðeəfɔːʳ/ *adverb* for that reason *The region has suffered severe flooding and tourists are therefore advised not to travel there.*

therein /ˌðeəˈrɪn/ *adverb formal* **1** in a particular document or place *We recommend that you study the report and the proposals contained therein.* **2 therein lies sth** because of the reason that has just been given *But the medicines are expensive, and therein lies the problem.*

thereof /ˌðeəˈrɒv/ *adverb formal* relating to what has just been said *It's gospel music, traditional country, jazz, and some strange combinations thereof.*

thermal /ˈθɜːmᵊl/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** PHYSICS relating to heat *thermal energy* **2** CLOTHES Thermal clothes are made to keep you warm. ***thermal underwear***

thermistor /θɜːˈmɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a device in which resistance (= the amount of electricity it allows to pass through) gets less as the temperature gets higher

thermo- /ˈθɜːməʊ-/ *prefix* PHYSICS relating to heat or temperature *a thermostat* (= a piece of equipment that controls temperature) ○ *a thermometer*

thermodynamics /ˌθɜːməʊdaɪˈnæmɪks/ *noun* [U] PHYSICS the part of physics that deals with the relationship between heat and other types of energy

thermometer /θəˈmɒmɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a piece of equipment that measures the temperature of the air or of your body

thermoplastic /ˌθɜːməʊˈplæstɪk/ *adjective* PHYSICS Thermoplastic substances can be melted and formed into shapes which become hard, and then can be melted again.

Thermos /ˈθɜːmɒs/ *noun* [C] *trademark* a container that keeps hot liquids hot or cold liquids cold *(UK) a Thermos flask/ (US) a Thermos bottle* ➲See picture at **flask**

thermosetting /ˌθɜːməʊˈsetɪŋ/ *adjective* PHYSICS Thermosetting substances can be melted and formed into shapes which become hard and cannot be melted again.

thermostat /ˈθɜːməstæt/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a piece of equipment that controls the temperature of something or of a place

thesaurus /θɪˈsɔːrəs/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a book in which words with similar meanings are put together in groups

these /ðiːz/ *pronoun, determiner plural of* this ➲See Common Learner Error at **that, this**

thesis /ˈθiːsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **theses** /ˈθiːsiːz/ **1** EDUCATION a long piece of writing that you do as part of an advanced university course *a master's/PhD thesis* **2** *formal* a theory that is suggested and can then be argued with or agreed with *That is the central thesis of the book.*

T

they /ðeɪ/ *pronoun* **1** GROUP used as the subject of the verb when referring to a group of people, animals, or things that have already been talked about *I saw Kate and Nigel yesterday - they came over for dinner.* ○ *"Have you seen my car keys?" "They're on the kitchen table."* **2** PERSON used to refer to a person when you want to avoid saying 'he' or 'she' or when you do not know if the person is male or female *Someone I met at a party said they knew you.* **3** PEOPLE people in general *They say that breaking a mirror brings you seven years' bad luck.*

they'd /ðeɪd/ **1** THEY HAD *short for* they had *They'd just moved in when I saw them.* **2** THEY WOULD *short for* they would *They'd like to take us out to dinner.*

they'll /ðeɪl/ *short for* they will *They'll be in Scotland next week.*

they're /ðeə˞/ *short for* they are *They're both from Washington.*

they've /ðeɪv/ *short for* they have *They've got three children - two girls and a boy.*

thick[1] /θɪk/ *adjective* **1** DISTANCE Something that is thick is larger than usual between its opposite sides. *a thick slice of meat* ○ *a thick layer of snow* **2 10cm/2m, etc thick** being 10cm/2m, etc thick *a piece of wood 2cm thick* **3** LARGE AMOUNT growing very close together and in large amounts *thick, dark hair* **4** SMOKE Thick smoke, cloud, or fog is difficult to see through. *Thick, black smoke was pouring out of the chimney.* **5** LIQUID A thick substance or liquid has very little water in it and does not flow easily. *Stir the sauce over a low heat until thick.* **6** STUPID *UK informal* not intelligent **7 be thick with sth** If something is thick with a particular substance, it is covered in or full of that substance. *The air was thick with petrol fumes.* **8 thick and fast** quickly and in large numbers *Calls were coming in thick and fast by the end of the programme.* ➲See also: have (a) thick **skin**[1]

thick[2] /θɪk/ *noun* **1 be in the thick of sth** to be involved in a situation at the point where there is most activity *He loves being in the thick of the action.* **2 through thick and thin** If you support or stay with someone through thick and thin, you always support or stay with them in easy and difficult situations. *She'd stuck by* (= stayed with) *Neil through thick and thin.*

thicken /ˈθɪk˞n/ *verb* [I, T] to become thicker, or to make something thicker *Boil the sauce until it thickens.*

thickly /ˈθɪkli/ *adverb* in thick pieces, or in a thick layer *toast **thickly spread** with butter*

thickness /ˈθɪknəs/ *noun* [C, U] the distance between the opposite sides of something

thick-skinned /ˌθɪkˈskɪnd/ *adjective* If someone is thick-skinned, they do not get upset when other people criticize them.

thief /θiːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **thieves** /θiːvz/ someone who steals things *a car thief* ○ *Thieves stole $500,000 worth of computer equipment.*

thigh /θaɪ/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the top part of your leg above your knee ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

thimble /ˈθɪmbl/ *noun* [C] DT a small metal or plastic object that you use to protect your finger when you are sewing

thin[1] /θɪn/ *adjective* **thinner**, **thinnest 1** DISTANCE Something that is thin is smaller than usual between its opposite sides. *a thin slice of ham* ○ *The walls are very thin.* **2** PERSON A thin person or animal has very little fat on their body. **3** LIQUID A thin substance or liquid has a lot of water in it and flows easily. *thin soup* **4** AMOUNT having only a small number of people or a small amount of something *His hair is going thin on top.* **5** AIR Thin air does not have enough oxygen in it. **6 wear thin** ANNOYED If your patience wears thin, you become less and less patient with someone who is annoying you. REPEATED If a joke or explanation wears thin, it becomes less effective because it has been used too much. ➲See also: disappear/vanish into thin **air**[1], be thin on the **ground**[1], through **thick**[2] and thin

thin[2] /θɪn/ *verb* [T] **thinning**, *past* **thinned** to make a substance less thick, often by adding a liquid to it
thin out *phrasal verb* If a large number of people or things thin out, they become fewer in number.

thing /θɪŋ/ *noun* **1** OBJECT [C] used to refer to an object without saying its name *How do I switch this thing off?* ○ *I need to get a few things in town.* **2** PERSON [C] used to refer to a person or animal when you are expressing your feelings towards them *You look tired, you poor thing.* **3** IDEA [C] used to refer to an idea, event, or activity *I can't believe Nick would say such a thing!* ○ *Meeting Nina was the best thing that's ever happened to me.* **4 for one thing** used to give a reason for something *You can't give Amy that shirt - for one thing it's too small for her.* **5 the thing is** *informal* used to introduce a problem which relates to something that you have just said *I'd love to go out tonight, but the thing is, I've got to finish my report.* **6 a thing** used instead of 'anything' in order to emphasize what you are saying *I haven't got a thing to wear!* **7 have a thing about sth/sb** *informal* to like or dislike something or someone very much *He's got a thing about blonde women.* **8 it's a good thing** *informal* If it is a good thing that something happened, it is lucky that it happened. [+ **(that)**] *It's a good thing that Jo was there to help you.* **9 first/last thing** *informal* at the beginning/end of the day *I'll phone him first thing and tell him I can't come.* ○ *She likes a glass of milk last thing at night.* **10 be sb's thing** *informal* If an activity or subject is someone's thing, they are very interested in it and like doing it. *Jogging's just not my thing - I prefer team sports.* **11 the best/greatest thing since sliced bread** *humorous* extremely good *When I first got this computer I thought it was the best thing since sliced bread.*

things /θɪŋz/ *noun* [plural] **1** SITUATIONS what is happening in your life *Don't worry - things will get better soon.* **2** OBJECTS the objects that you own *I'll just gather my things and then I'll be ready.* **3 be hearing/seeing things** to imagine that you can hear or see things that do not exist

T

thingy /ˈθɪŋi/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* used to refer to something or someone when you cannot remember their name *We ate that beef thingy for lunch.*

think¹ /θɪŋk/ *verb past* **thought 1** OPINION [I, T] to have an opinion about something or someone *Do you think it's going to rain?* [+ **(that)**] *I don't think that Emma will get the job* (= I believe she will not get it). ○ *What did you* ***think of*** *the film?* ○ *What do you* ***think about*** *modern art?* **2** CONSIDER [I] to consider an idea or a problem *He thought for a few seconds before answering.* ○ *You should* ***think about*** *where you want to live.* **3** EXPECT [I, T] to believe that something is true, or to expect that something will happen, although you are not sure *I think she's called Joanna.* ○ *"Does this train stop at Oxford?" "Yes, I* ***think so.***" [+ **(that)**] *I never thought that I would see Steven again.* **4 think about/of doing sth** to consider doing something *I'm thinking of moving to Sydney.* ○ *We thought about getting married, but decided not to.* **5 think about/of sb/sth** to use your mind to imagine a situation *I'm sorry I can't be at the wedding, but I'll be thinking of you.* **6 think of sth** to use your imagination and intelligence to produce an idea, a solution to a problem, or an answer to a question *When did you first think of the idea?* **7 think a lot of sb/sth** to admire someone, or to believe that something is good quality *Simon thinks a lot of you, you know.* **8 not think much of sb/sth** to not like someone, or to believe that something is not good quality *I don't think much of the food here.* **9 I think** used to introduce a suggestion or explanation in order to be polite [+ **(that)**] *It's getting late - I think that we should go.* **10 Who would have thought...?** used to express how surprising something is [+ **(that)**] *Who would have thought that buying a house could take so long!* ➲See also: think the **world**[1] of sb **11 think outside the box** to use new ideas instead of traditional ideas when you think about something

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

think about or **think of?**

Think about someone/something means to have thoughts in your mind about a person or thing, or to consider them.

I was thinking about my mother.

I thought about the question before answering.

~~*I thought the question before answering.*~~

Think of/about something/someone also means to have an opinion about something or someone.

What do you think of/about the colour?

~~*What do you think the colour?*~~

Think of doing something means to consider the possibility of doing something.

We are thinking of having a party.

~~*We are thinking to have a party.*~~

think back *phrasal verb* to remember something that happened in the past *I* ***thought back to*** *the time when I was living in Toronto.*
think sth out *phrasal verb* to consider all the possible details of something *The scheme was well thought out.*
think sth over *phrasal verb* to consider an idea or plan carefully before making a decision
think sth through *phrasal verb* to carefully consider the possible results of doing something
think sth up *phrasal verb* to produce a new idea or plan *I don't want to go tonight and I'm trying to think up an excuse.*

think² /θɪŋk/ *noun UK* **have a think** to consider something carefully *Have a think about it and then tell me what you've decided.*

thinker /ˈθɪŋkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who considers important subjects or produces new ideas *a political/religious thinker*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *thinking*

the thinking **behind/on** sth ● the **current** thinking

thinking /ˈθɪŋkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** CONSIDER when you use your mind to consider something *This problem requires careful thinking.* **2** OPINION someone's ideas or opinions *The book discusses the impact of Christian thinking on western society.* ➲See also: **wishful thinking**

ˈthink ˌtank *noun* [C] a group of people who advise the government or an organization about particular subjects and who suggest new ideas

thinly /ˈθɪnli/ *adverb* **1** SIZE in thin pieces, or in a thin layer *She sliced the bread thinly.* **2** AMOUNT with only a small number of people or things *thinly populated areas*

third¹ /θɜːd/ 3rd written as a word

third² /θɜːd/ *noun* [C] **1** one of three equal parts of something; 1/3 **2 a third EDUCATION** in the UK, one of the lowest exam results you can achieve at the end of a university course

thirdly /ˈθɜːdli/ *adverb* used in order to introduce the third thing in a list

ˌthird ˈparty *noun* [C] someone who is not one of the two main people or groups that are involved in a situation

the ˌthird ˈperson *noun* **LANGUAGE** the form of a verb or pronoun that is used when referring to the person or thing being spoken about or described. For example 'she' and 'they' are third person pronouns.

the ˌThird ˈWorld *noun* **ECONOMICS** the countries in Africa, Asia, and South America, which do not have well-developed economies

thirst /θɜːst/ *noun* **1** [U, **no plural**] the feeling that you want to drink something *I had a long, cold drink to* ***quench*** *my* ***thirst*** (= stop me feeling thirsty). **2 a thirst for sth** a strong wish for something *a thirst for adventure*

thirsty /ˈθɜːsti/ *adjective* wanting or needing a drink *I felt really hot and thirsty after my run.* ●**thirstily** *adverb*

thirteen /θɜːˈtiːn/ the number 13 ●**thirteenth** 13th written as a word

thirty /ˈθɜːti/ **1** the number 30 **2 the thirties** the years from 1930 to 1939 **3 be in your thirties** to be between the ages of 30 and 39 ●**thirtieth** 30th written as a word

this¹ /ðɪs/ *determiner plural* **these 1** ALREADY TALKED ABOUT used to refer to something that you have already talked about *Most people don't agree with this decision.* ○ *How did you*

hear about this course? **2** NEAR used to refer to something or someone that is near you or that you are pointing to *How much does this CD cost?* ○ *David gave me these earrings for my birthday.* **3** TIME used to refer to the present week, month, year, etc or the one that comes next *I'll see you this evening.* ○ *Kate and Nigel are getting married this June.* **4** NOW TALKING ABOUT *informal* used to refer to a particular person or thing that you are going to talk about *We went to this really great club last night.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **that** ➲See also: be out of this **world**[1]

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

this/that or these/those?

Remember **this** and **that** are used before a singular noun. **These** and **those** are used before a plural noun.

Look at this photo.

Look at these photos.

Can you pass me that book please?

Can you pass me those books please?

O-key **this**[2] /ðɪs/ *pronoun plural* **these 1** ALREADY TALKED ABOUT used to refer to something that you have already talked about *When did this happen?* ○ *This is the best news I've heard all week!* **2** NEAR used to refer to something or someone that is near you or that you are pointing to *Try some of this - it's delicious.* ○ *Are these your keys?* ○ *This is my girlfriend, Beth.* **3** SAY/ASK WHO used to say or ask who someone is when speaking on the telephone, radio, etc *"Hello, is this Julie Hawkins?" "Yes, who's this?"* **4 this and that** different things which are not very important *"What are you doing today?" "Oh, just this and that."*

O-key **this**[3] /ðɪs/ *adverb* used when describing the size, amount, or state of something or someone *I need a piece of wood this big.* ○ *I've never seen her this angry.*

thistle /ˈθɪsl/ *noun* [C] a wild plant with purple flowers and sharp points

THNQ *informal* **INTERNET** *written abbreviation for* thank you: used in emails and text messages

thong /θɒŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** UNDERWEAR a piece of underwear or the bottom part of a bikini (= a piece of clothing with two parts that women wear for swimming) which does not cover the bottom **2** SHOE *US* a flip flop

thorax /ˈθɔːræks/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** in humans and animals, the middle part of the body below the neck and above the waist **2 BIOLOGY** in insects, the middle part of the body, to which its legs and wings are attached ●**thoracic** /θɔːˈræsɪk/ *adjective*

thorn /θɔːn/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a small, sharp point on the stem of a plant

thorny /ˈθɔːni/ *adjective* **1 BIOLOGY** covered in thorns **2** PROBLEM A thorny problem, question, subject, etc is difficult to deal with.

thorough /ˈθʌrə/ (US) /ˈθɜːrəʊ/ *adjective* careful and covering every detail *The government has promised a thorough investigation of the matter.* ●**thoroughness** *noun* [U]

thoroughbred /ˈθʌrəbred/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a horse especially bred for racing

thoroughly /ˈθʌrəli/ *adverb* **1** CAREFULLY very carefully *Wash the spinach thoroughly before cooking.* **2** VERY very, or very much *We thoroughly enjoyed ourselves.*

O-key **those** /ðəʊz/ *pronoun, determiner plural of* that ➲See Common Learner Error at **that, this**

O-key **though**[1] /ðəʊ/ *conjunction* **1** INTRODUCE FACT used to introduce a fact or opinion that makes the other part of the sentence seem surprising *And though she's quite small, she's very strong.* ○ *Nina didn't phone, **even though** she said she would.* **2** BUT but *They're coming next week, though I don't know when.* ○ *The restaurant serves good, though extremely expensive, food.*

though[2] /ðəʊ/ *adverb* used to add a new fact or opinion which changes what you have just said *Okay, I'll come to the party - I'm not staying late though.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR *thought*

give sth some thought ● **have** a thought ● a **secret/sobering/terrible** thought

O-key **thought**[1] /θɔːt/ *noun* **1** IDEA [C] an idea or opinion *Do you have any **thoughts about/on** where you want to spend Christmas?* [+ **of** + **doing sth**] *The thought of seeing her again filled him with happiness.* ○ *informal* "Why don't we invite Ben?" "***That's a thought*** (= That's a good idea)." **2** THINKING [U] the activity of thinking, or when you think about something carefully *She sat staring at the picture, **deep in thought**.* ○ *You'll need to **give** the matter **some thought**.* **3** CARE [**no plural**] when you do something that shows you care about someone *Thanks for the card - it was a really kind thought.* **4** SET OF IDEAS [U] a set of ideas about a particular subject *The book examines his influence on recent political thought.* **5 spare a thought for sb** to think about someone who is in a bad situation *Spare a thought for all the people who have lost their homes.* ➲See also: **school** of thought, **second thought**

thought[2] /θɔːt/ *past of* think

thoughtful /ˈθɔːtfʲl/ *adjective* **1** QUIET quiet because you are thinking about something *You look thoughtful.* **2** KIND kind and always thinking about how you can help other people *Thank you for the card - it was very **thoughtful of** you.* ●**thoughtfully** *adverb She gazed thoughtfully into the distance.* ●**thoughtfulness** *noun* [U]

thoughtless /ˈθɔːtləs/ *adjective* not considering how your actions and words might upset someone else *I should have called her to say we'd be late - it was a bit thoughtless of me.* ●**thoughtlessly** *adverb*

thought-provoking /ˈθɔːtprəˌvəʊkɪŋ/ *adjective* making you think a lot about a subject *a thought-provoking book/film*

O-key **thousand** /ˈθaʊzʲnd/ **1** the number 1000 **2 thousands** *informal* a lot *She tried on **thousands of** dresses but didn't like any of them.*

thousandth[1] /ˈθaʊzʲndθ/ 1000th written as a word

thousandth[2] /ˈθaʊzʲndθ/ *noun* [C] one of a thousand equal parts of something; $^{1}/_{1000}$; .001 *a thousandth of a second*

T

thrash /θræʃ/ *verb* **1** HIT [T] to hit a person or animal several times as a punishment **2** MOVE [I] to move from side to side in a violent way *He was screaming in pain and **thrashing around** on the floor.* **3** DEFEAT [T] *informal* to win against someone very easily
thrash sth out *phrasal verb* to discuss a plan or problem in detail until you reach an agreement or find a solution

thrashing /ˈθræʃɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** DEFEAT *informal* when you win against someone very easily **2** HIT *old-fashioned* when someone hits a person or animal several times as a punishment

thread¹ /θred/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [C, U] a long, thin piece of cotton, wool, etc that is used for sewing *a needle and thread* **2** CONNECTION [C] the connection between different events or different parts of a story or discussion *By that point I'd **lost the thread** of the conversation.* **3** INTERNET a group of pieces of writing on the Internet in which people discuss one subject
➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

thread² /θred/ *verb* [T] **1** DT **thread a needle** to push thread through the hole in a needle **2 thread your way through, between, etc** to move carefully through a crowded place, changing direction in order to avoid people or things

threadbare /ˈθredbeər/ *adjective* Threadbare material or clothes are very thin because they have been used too much. *a threadbare carpet*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***threat***

2 a threat **to** sb/sth ● **pose** a threat ● a **potential** threat ● a **security/terrorist** threat

threat /θret/ *noun* **1** HARM [C] when someone says they will kill or hurt you, or cause problems for you if you do not do what they want *a **death threat** ○ I was scared he would **carry out** his **threat*** (= do what he said he would do). **2** DAMAGE [C] someone or something that is likely to cause harm or damage [**usually singular**] *a **threat to** the environment ○ Smoking **poses*** (= is) *a serious **threat** to your health.* **3** POSSIBILITY [**no plural**] the possibility that something bad will happen *the threat of invasion*

threaten /ˈθretᵊn/ *verb* **1** HARM [T] to tell someone that you will kill or hurt them, or cause problems for them if they do not do what you want *He **threatened** the staff **with** a gun and demanded money.* [+ **to do sth**] *He threatened to report her to the police.* **2** DAMAGE [T] to be likely to cause harm or damage to something or someone *His knee problem is threatening his cycling career.* **3** HAPPEN [I] If something bad threatens to happen, it is likely to happen. [+ **to do sth**] *The conflict threatened to spread to neighbouring countries.* ●**threatening** *adjective* ***threatening behaviour*** ●**threateningly** *adverb*

three /θriː/ the number 3

three-dimensional /ˌθriːdɪˈmenʃᵊnᵊl/ (*also* **3-D** /θriːˈdiː/) *adjective* **DT, ART** having length, depth, and height *three-dimensional computer graphics*

threshold /ˈθreʃhəʊld/ *noun* **1** LEVEL [C] the level at which something starts to happen *He had a low **boredom threshold**.* **2 on the threshold of sth** at the start of a new and important time or development *We're on the threshold of a new era in European relations.* **3** ENTRANCE [C] the floor of an entrance

threw /θruː/ *past tense of* throw

thrift /θrɪft/ *noun* [U] careful use of money so that you do not spend too much ●**thrifty** *adjective*

ˈthrift ˌshop *US* (*UK* **charity shop**) *noun* [C] a shop which sells goods given by the public, especially clothes, to make money for a particular charity

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***thrill***

feel a thrill ● **get** a thrill **from/out of** doing sth ● a **big/great** thrill ● the thrill **of** (doing) sth ● a thrill **seeker**

thrill¹ /θrɪl/ *noun* [C] a strong feeling of excitement and pleasure *It was a **big thrill** meeting the stars of the show.* [+ **of + doing sth**] *the **thrill of** winning a competition*

thrill² /θrɪl/ *verb* [T] to make someone feel excited and happy *Ballesteros thrilled the golf world with his performance.*

thrilled /θrɪld/ *adjective* very excited and pleased *She was thrilled with your present.*

thriller /ˈθrɪlər/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** a book or film with an exciting story, often about crime

thrilling /ˈθrɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* very exciting *a thrilling game*

thrive /θraɪv/ *verb* [I] to grow very well, or to become very healthy or successful *The business is thriving. ○ He seems to **thrive on** hard work.* ●**thriving** *adjective a **thriving economy***

throat /θrəʊt/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY the back part of your mouth and the passages inside your neck *a **sore throat*** **2** ANATOMY the front of your neck *He grabbed her round the throat.*
➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13
3 clear your throat to cough once so that you can speak more clearly

throb /θrɒb/ *verb* [I] **throbbing**, *past* **throbbed** **1** PART OF THE BODY If a part of your body throbs, you feel pain in it in a series of regular beats. *My head was throbbing.* **2** SOUND OR MOVEMENT to make a strong, regular sound or movement *The whole house **throbbed with** the music.* ●**throb** *noun* [C] *the throb of the engine*

throes /θrəʊz/ *noun* **in the throes of sth** in a difficult or unpleasant situation *a country in the throes of war*

thrombosis /θrɒmˈbəʊsɪs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **thromboses** **HEALTH** when the flow of blood in the body is stopped by a clot (= solid piece) of blood

throne /θrəʊn/ *noun* **1** [C] the special chair that a king or queen sits on **2** **POLITICS** **the throne** the position of being king or queen *He **came to the throne** in 1936.*

throng¹ /θrɒŋ/ *noun* [C] *literary* a large group of people

throng² /θrɒŋ/ *verb* [I, T] to be or go somewhere in very large numbers *The street was **thronged with** shoppers and tourists.*

throttle¹ /ˈθrɒtl/ *verb* [T] to press someone's throat tightly so they cannot breathe

throttle² /ˈθrɒtl/ *noun* [C] the part of a vehicle that controls how much fuel or power goes to the engine

through¹ /θruː/ *preposition* **1** ONE SIDE TO ANOTHER from one end or side of something to the other *The River Seine flows through Paris.* ○ *The sun was shining through the window.* ○ *She cut through the wire.* **2** START TO END from the start to the end of something *He worked through the night.* ○ *The phone rang halfway through the programme.* **3** BECAUSE OF because of someone or something, or with someone's help *I got the job through my mum's friend.* ○ *He became ill through eating undercooked meat.* **4** UNTIL *US* (*UK* **to**) from a particular time until and including another time *The store is open Monday through Friday.*

through² /θruː/ *adverb* **1** FROM ONE SIDE TO ANOTHER from one end or side to another *He opened the door and walked through.* **2 read/think/talk, etc sth through** to read, think, talk to someone, etc very carefully about something from the start to the end *I've thought it through and decided not to take the job.* **3** TELEPHONE connected to someone by telephone *I tried to phone David but I couldn't* ***get through.*** ○ *Can you* ***put*** *me* ***through*** *to the manager, please?*

through³ /θruː/ *adjective* **1 be through with sth** *informal* to have finished using something or doing something *Let me know when you're through with the iron.* **2 be through (with sb)** *informal* to not have a relationship with someone any more **3** [**always before noun**] *UK* A through train goes all the way from one place to another place without the passenger having to change trains.

throughout /θruˈaʊt/ *adverb, preposition* **1** EVERYWHERE in every part of a place *The same laws apply throughout much of Europe.* ○ *The house was painted pink throughout.* **2** DURING during the whole of a period of time *He yawned throughout the performance.*

throw¹ /θrəʊ/ *verb* [T] *past tense* **threw**, *past participle* **thrown 1** THROUGH THE AIR to make something move through the air by pushing it out of your hand *Amy* ***threw*** *the ball* ***to*** *the dog.* ○ *He* ***threw*** *the book* ***at*** *the wall.* [**+ two objects**] *Throw me a chocolate.* ○ *How far can you throw?* **2 throw sth in/on, etc** to put something somewhere quickly and without thinking about it *He threw his clothes on the floor and got into bed.* **3 throw sth around/down/on, etc** to suddenly and quickly move your body or a part of your body *She threw her arms around the child.* ○ *Gabriela threw herself onto the bed and started to cry.* **4 throw sb from/forward, etc** to make someone move somewhere suddenly or fall down [**often passive**] *The bus suddenly stopped and we were thrown forward.* **5** CONFUSE to make someone feel shocked or confused *It threw me completely when he asked me to marry him.* **6** LIGHT to make light or shadows (= dark shapes) appear on something *The trees threw shadows across the road.* ➲See also: throw **caution¹** to the wind, throw sb in at the deep **end¹**, throw down the **gauntlet**, throw in the **towel**, throw your **weight** around

throw sth away *phrasal verb* **1** GET RID OF to get rid of something that you do not want any more *He read the magazine and then threw it away.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **2** WASTE OPPORTUNITY to waste a skill or opportunity *You've spent three years studying - don't throw it all away.*

throw sth in *phrasal verb* to add something extra when you sell something and not increase the price *They're selling computers with a free printer thrown in.*

throw sth out *phrasal verb* to get rid of something that you do not want any more *I must throw some of my old clothes out.*

throw sb out *phrasal verb* to force someone to leave *He was thrown out of school for taking drugs.*

throw (sth) up *phrasal verb informal* **HEALTH** to vomit

throw sth up *phrasal verb* to produce new problems or ideas *The meeting threw up some interesting ideas.*

throw² /θrəʊ/ *noun* [C] when you throw something *a throw of the dice*

throwback /ˈθrəʊbæk/ *noun* [C] something that is like something of the same type in the past *Her style of playing is* ***a throwback to*** *the early days of jazz.*

thru /θruː/ *adjective, adverb, preposition mainly US informal another spelling of* through, used in signs and advertisements

thrust¹ /θrʌst/ *verb past* **thrust thrust sth behind/into/through, etc** to push something somewhere suddenly and with force *She thrust a letter into my hand and told me to read it.*

thrust sth on/upon sb *phrasal verb* to force someone to accept or deal with something [**often passive**] *Fatherhood had been thrust on him.*

thrust² /θrʌst/ *noun* **1 PHYSICS** [C, U] a strong push or the power used to push something forward **2 the thrust of sth** the main part or ideas of what someone says or does *The main thrust of our work involves helping victims of crime.*

thud /θʌd/ *noun* [C] the sound that is made when something heavy falls or hits something else *There was a thud as he fell on the floor.* ●**thud** *verb* [I] **thudding**, *past* **thudded**

thug /θʌg/ *noun* [C] an unpleasant person who behaves violently

thumb¹ /θʌm/ *noun* [C] **1 ANATOMY** the short, thick finger on the side of your hand that can touch the top of all your other fingers ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2 have a green thumb** *US* (*UK* **have green fingers**) to be good at gardening and making plants grow well **3 be under sb's thumb** If you are under someone's thumb, they control you completely. **4 stick/stand out like a sore thumb** to be very different from all the other people or things around *I was the only one in uniform and I stuck out like a sore thumb.* ➲See also: a **rule¹** of thumb

thumb² /θʌm/ *verb* ➲See: thumb your **nose¹** at sth/sb

thumb through sth *phrasal verb* to quickly turn the pages of a book or magazine

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thumbtack /ˈθʌmtæk/ *US* (*UK* **drawing pin**) *noun* [C] a pin with a wide, flat top, used for fastening pieces of paper to a wall

thump /θʌmp/ *verb* **1** HIT [T] *UK* to hit someone with your fist (= closed hand) **2** NOISE [I, T] to hit something and make a noise *She thumped the tambourine.* **3** HEART [I] If your heart thumps, it beats very quickly because you are excited or frightened. ●**thump** *noun* [C]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***thunder***

a **clap/crack/crash/roll/rumble** of thunder ● thunder **rumbles/rolls** ● thunder **and lightning**

thunder¹ /ˈθʌndər/ *noun* [U] the loud noise in the sky that you hear during a storm ***thunder and lightning***

thunder² /ˈθʌndər/ *verb* **1 it thunders** When it thunders during a storm, a loud noise comes from the sky. **2 thunder along/down/through, etc** to move in a way that makes a deep, loud, continuous sound *Traffic thunders through the village all day.*

thunderous /ˈθʌndərəs/ *adjective* extremely loud *the **thunderous roar** of the aircraft's engine*

thunderstorm /ˈθʌndəstɔːm/ *noun* [C] a storm that has thunder (= loud noise) and lightning (= sudden flashes of light in the sky)

Thursday /ˈθɜːzdeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Thur, Thurs**) *noun* [C, U] the day of the week after Wednesday and before Friday

thus /ðʌs/ *adverb formal* **1** SHOWING RESULT used after saying a fact to introduce what then happened as a result *The guard fell asleep, thus allowing Bates to escape.* **2** IN THIS WAY in this way *They limit the number of people allowed into the forest, thus preventing damage to the trails.*

thwart /θwɔːt/ *verb* [T] to prevent someone from doing what they have planned to do

thyme /taɪm/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a herb used in cooking

thyristor /θaɪˈrɪstər/ *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** a device, usually a semiconductor, that is used as a switch to control the amount of electricity passing through a particular point

thyroid /ˈθaɪrɔɪd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** an organ in the neck that produces a substance that helps your body to grow and develop

thyroxine /θaɪˈrɒksɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the main hormone produced by the thyroid gland. It increases metabolism (= the changing of food into energy) and in this way, makes the body grow and develop.

TIA **INTERNET** *internet abbreviation for* thanks in advance: used in an email when you have asked someone for something

tibia /ˈtɪbiə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the thick inside bone in a person's leg, between the knee and the foot

tick¹ /tɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOCK the sound that some clocks or watches make every second **2** MARK *UK* (*US* **check**) a mark (✓) that shows something is correct or has been done **3** INSECT a small insect that sucks the blood of animals **4** TIME *UK informal* a short time *Wait a tick!*

tick² /tɪk/ *verb* **1** CLOCK [I] If a clock or watch ticks, it makes a sound every second. **2** MARK [T] *UK* to mark something with a tick **3 what makes sb tick** *informal* the reasons for someone's behaviour

tick away/by *phrasal verb* If seconds or minutes tick away or by, they pass. *With the final seconds ticking away, Milan scored a goal.*

tick sth off *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **check sth off**) to put a small mark next to something on a list to show that you have dealt with it

tick sb off *phrasal verb* **1** CRITICIZE *UK informal* to tell someone that they have done something wrong and that you are angry about it *I got ticked off for not going to the meeting.* **2** ANNOY *US informal* to annoy someone

tick over/along *phrasal verb UK* If a business or system ticks over, it continues to work but makes little progress. *Carlton managed to **keep** the business **ticking over**.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ticket***

book/buy/get/purchase a ticket ● a ticket **for** sth

ticket /ˈtɪkɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** TRAVEL OR ENTERTAINMENT a small piece of paper that shows you have paid to do something, for example travel on a bus, watch a film, etc *a lottery ticket* ○ *plane tickets* **2** **LAW** a piece of paper that orders you to pay money because you have put your car in an illegal place, driven too fast, etc *a parking ticket* ➲See also: **round-trip ticket, season ticket**

tickle /ˈtɪkl/ *verb* **1** TOUCH LIGHTLY [T] to touch someone lightly with your fingers, in order to make them laugh **2** PART OF THE BODY [I, T] If a part of your body tickles, or if something tickles it, it feels uncomfortable and you want to rub it. *My nose is tickling.* **3** AMUSE [T] to make someone smile or laugh *I was very tickled by his comments.* ●**tickle** *noun* [C]

tidal /ˈtaɪdəl/ *adjective* **GEOGRAPHY** relating to the regular rising and falling of the sea

ˈtidal ˌwave *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a very large wave that destroys things, often caused by an earthquake (= when the Earth shakes)

tidbit *US* (*UK* **titbit**) /ˈtɪdbɪt/ *noun* [C] a small piece of nice food, or an interesting piece of information

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tide***

the tide **comes in/goes out** ● the tide is **in/out** ● **at high/at low** tide

tide¹ /taɪd/ *noun* **1** **GEOGRAPHY** [C] the regular rise and fall in the level of the sea ***high/low tide*** **2** [**no plural**] an increase in something that is developing *the **rising tide** of drug-related deaths*

tide² /taɪd/ *verb*

tide sb over (sth) *phrasal verb* to help someone through a difficult time, especially by giving them money

tidy¹ /ˈtaɪdi/ *adjective* **1** PLACE having everything in the right place and arranged in a good order *Her room was clean and tidy.* **2** PERSON

T

liking to keep things in the correct place and arranged in a good order *I'm afraid I'm not very tidy.* ➲Opposite **untidy** ●**tidily** *adverb* ●**tidiness** *noun* [U]

tidy² /ˈtaɪdi/ (*also* **tidy up**) *verb* [I, T] *UK* to make a place tidy *I'm tidying up before our guests arrive.*
tidy sth away *phrasal verb UK* to put things back in drawers, cupboards, etc after you have used them

tie¹ /taɪ/ *verb* **tying**, *past* **tied 1 tie sth to/together/around, etc** to fasten something with string, rope, etc *The dog was tied to a tree.* **2** [T] to make a knot in a piece of string, rope, etc *She tied the scarf.* ➲Opposite **untie 3** SPORT [I] to have the same score as someone else at the end of a competition or game *Sweden **tied with** France in the winter sports competition.* ➲See also: tie the **knot**¹
tie sb down *phrasal verb* to limit someone's freedom *I don't want to be tied down by having children.*
tie in *phrasal verb* If one idea or statement ties in with another one, they have some of the same information in them. *His story **ties in with** what Gemma told me.*
tie sb/sth up *phrasal verb* to tie a part of someone's body with a rope or something similar so they cannot move ➲Opposite **untie**
tie sth up *phrasal verb* to fasten something together using string, rope, etc
be tied up *phrasal verb* to be very busy and unable to speak to anyone, go anywhere, etc

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tie***

2 create/forge ties ● **cut/sever** (all) ties ● **have** ties **with** sb/sth ● **close/strong** ties ● ties **between** sb **and** sb ● ties **to/with** sb/sth

tie² /taɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** CLOTHES a long, thin piece of cloth that a man wears around his neck with a shirt ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 **2** CONNECTION a relationship that connects you with a place, person, etc [**usually plural**] *The two countries have **close ties with** each other.* **3** SPORT when a game or competition ends with two people or teams having the same score ➲See also: **bow tie**

tie-break /ˈtaɪbreɪk/ *noun* [C] SPORT an extra part that is played when a game or competition ends in a tie, to decide who is the winner

tie-dye /ˈtaɪdaɪ/ *verb* [T] **tie-dyeing**, *past tense* **tie-dyed**, *past participle* **tie-dyed** DT to give cloth a pattern of circles by tying it in knots before putting it in a dye (= substance which changes the colour of cloth) *There are pictures of us in the sixties wearing flares and tie-dyed T-shirts.*

tier /tɪə/ *noun* [C] one of several rows or layers *the upper tier of seats in a stadium*

tiger /ˈtaɪgə/ *noun* [C] a large wild cat that has yellow fur with black lines on it

tight¹ /taɪt/ *adjective* **1** FIRM firm and difficult to move *Make sure the knot is tight.* **2** CLOTHES fitting your body very closely *a tight skirt* **3** CONTROLLED controlled and obeying all rules completely *tight security* ○ *They kept tight control of the school budget.* **4** STRAIGHT If cloth, wire, skin, etc is tight, it has been pulled so that it is straight or smooth. **5** NOT MUCH If money, time, or space is tight, there is only just enough of it. *We should get six people into the car but it will be tight.* ●**tightly** *adverb* ●**tightness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: keep a tight **rein** on sb/sth

tight² /taɪt/ *adverb* very firmly or closely *He held her tight.*

tighten /ˈtaɪtᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become tighter or to make something become tighter *His hand tightened around her arm.* ➲See also: tighten your **belt**¹
tighten sth up *phrasal verb* to make something become firmer and less easy to move *Tighten up the screws.*
tighten (sth) up *phrasal verb* to make a rule, system, or law more difficult to avoid *I think they should **tighten up** the laws **on** gun ownership.*

tightrope /ˈtaɪtrəʊp/ *noun* [C] a rope high above the ground that a performer walks along at a circus (= show)

tights /taɪts/ *UK* (*US* **pantyhose**) *noun* [**plural**] a piece of women's clothing made of very thin material that covers the legs and bottom *a pair of black tights* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

tile /taɪl/ *noun* [C] one of the flat, square pieces that are used for covering roofs, floors, or walls ●**tile** *verb* [T] *a tiled kitchen*

till¹ /tɪl/ *preposition, conjunction* until *The supermarket is open till midnight.* ○ *I lived with my parents till I was twenty.*

till² /tɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** MACHINE *UK* a machine that holds the money in a shop and shows how much you have to pay **2** DRAWER *US* a drawer where money is kept in a store

tilt /tɪlt/ *verb* [I, T] to move into a position where one end or side is higher than the other, or to make something move into this position *He tilted backwards on his chair.* ●**tilt** *noun* [**no plural**]

timber /ˈtɪmbə/ *noun* **1** WOOD [U] *UK* (*US* **lumber**) wood that is used for building **2** TREE [U] *US* trees that are grown to provide wood for building **3** PIECE OF WOOD [C] *UK* a large piece of wood *The roof was supported by timbers.*

time¹ /taɪm/ *noun* **1** HOURS/YEARS ETC [U] Time is what we measure in minutes, hours, days, etc. *He wants to **spend** more **time** with his family.* ○ ***Time** seems to **pass** so slowly when you're unhappy.* **2** PARTICULAR POINT [C, U] a particular point in the day or night ***What time** is it?* ○ ***What time** do you leave for school in the mornings?* ○ *Can you tell me the times of the trains to London, please?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **hour 3 it's time (for/to do sth)** used to say that something should happen or be done now *It's time to get up.* **4 in (good) time** early or at the right time *We arrived in time to catch the train.* **5 on time** not early or late *I got to school on time.* **6 can tell the time** to be able to know what time it is by looking at a clock or watch **7** PERIOD [**no plural**] a period of minutes, hours, years, etc *I lived in Switzerland for a **long time**.* ○ ***It takes time*** (= takes a long time) *to make friends at a new school.* **8 have time** to

T

have enough time to do something *Do you have time for a cup of coffee?* [+ **to do sth**] *I never have time to eat breakfast.* **9 in no time** very soon *We'll be home in no time.* **10** OCCASION [C] an occasion when something happens *Give me a call the* ***next time*** *you're in Seattle.* ○ *I can't remember the* ***last time*** *we went away.* ○ ***How many times*** *have you been to Germany?* **11 at the same time** If two things happen at the same time, they happen together. *We arrived at the same time.* **12 one, two, six, etc at a time** one, two, six, etc on one occasion *He carried the chairs, three at a time.* **13 time after time** again and again on repeated occasions **14 all the time a** OFTEN very often *"She's been late twice this week." "It happens all the time."* **b** WHOLE TIME during the whole of a period of time *He was ill all the time we were in Spain.* **15 three/eight/nine, etc times** used to say how much bigger, better, worse, etc one thing is than another thing *Ben earns three times more than me.* **16 in a day's/two months', etc time** a week, two months, etc from now *I have to go to the doctor again in a month's time.* **17 at times** sometimes *At times, I wish I didn't have to go to school.* **18 for the time being** for now but not permanently *I'm living with my parents for the time being.* **19** IN THE PAST [C] a period of time in the past *Did you enjoy your time in Japan?* **20 at one time** at a time in the past *At one time, you could drive without taking a driving test.* **21 before sb's time** before someone was born **22 from time to time** sometimes, but not often *I still see my ex-boyfriend from time to time.* **23** SPORT [C] the amount of time that someone takes in a race *a winning time of three minutes* **24** IN A PLACE [U] the time in a particular place *The plane arrives at 20.50, New York time.* **25 be ahead of your time** to have new ideas a long time before other people think that way **26 behind the times** not fashionable or modern *Dad's a bit behind the times.* **27 bide your time** to wait for an opportunity to do something *She was biding her time until she could get her revenge.* **28 give sb a hard time** to criticize someone and make them feel guilty about something they have done *Ever since I missed the goal, the other players have been giving me a hard time.* **29 have no time for sb/sth** to have no respect for someone or something *I have no time for people who are racist.* **30 kill time** to do something while you are waiting for something else *I went shopping to kill some time before my job interview.* **31 play for time** *UK* to try to make something happen more slowly because you want more time or because you do not want it to happen **32 take your time** to do something without hurrying ➲See also: **half-time, local time,** in the **nick²** of time, **night-time, prime time, a race¹** against time/the clock

time² /taɪm/ *verb* [T] **1** DECIDE A TIME to decide that something will happen at a particular time *They timed production of the CD so it was in the shops just before Christmas.* ○ *Her comment was* ***well timed.*** **2** MEASURE to measure how long it takes for something to happen or for someone to do something *It's a good idea to time yourself while you do the exercises.* ➲See also: **two-time**

time-consuming /ˈtaɪmkənˌsjuːmɪŋ/ *adjective* needing a lot of time *The legal process was time-consuming and expensive.*

ˈtime ˌframe ➲See: **timescale**

time-honoured *UK* (*US* **time-honored**) /ˈtaɪmˌɒnəd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A time-honoured tradition or way of doing things is one that has been used for a long time.

ˈtime ˌlag *noun* [C] a period of time between two things happening

timeless /ˈtaɪmləs/ *adjective* not changing because of time or fashion *Her clothes have a* ***timeless quality.*** ○ *a* ***timeless classic***

timely /ˈtaɪmli/ *adjective* happening or done at exactly the right time ➲Opposite **untimely**

time-out /ˌtaɪmˈaʊt/ *noun* [C] SPORT a short period during a sports game in which players can rest

timer /ˈtaɪmə˞/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment that measures time

times /taɪmz/ *preposition* MATHEMATICS used to say that one number is multiplied by another number *Two times three is six.*

timescale /ˈtaɪmskeɪl/ (*also* **time frame**) *noun* [C] the amount of time that something takes or during which something happens

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***timetable***

draw up/give/keep to/set a timetable ● a timetable **for** (doing) sth

timetable /ˈtaɪmˌteɪbl/ *noun* [C] **1** BUS/TRAIN ETC (*also US* **schedule**) a list of times when buses, trains, etc arrive and leave **2** PLANNED EVENTS a list of dates and times that shows when things will happen ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

ˈtime ˌtraveller *UK* (*US* **ˈtime traveler**) *noun* [C] someone who can move between different times in the past or the future

ˈtime ˌzone *noun* [C] one of the areas of the world that has a different time from all the other areas *London and New York are five time zones apart.*

timid /ˈtɪmɪd/ *adjective* shy and easily frightened *a timid little boy* ●**timidly** *adverb* ●**timidity** /tɪˈmɪdəti/ *noun* [U]

timing /ˈtaɪmɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** TIME the time when something happens *the timing of the announcement* **2** SKILL the ability to do something at exactly the right time *You need great timing to be a good football player.*

tin /tɪn/ *noun* **1** METAL CONTAINER [C] *UK* (*UK/US* **can**) a metal container in which food is sold *a tin of beans/soup* **2** CONTAINER WITH LID [C] *UK* a metal container with a lid that you keep food or other substances in *a biscuit tin* ○ *a paint tin* **3** COOKING EQUIPMENT [C] (*US* **pan**) a flat pan that you cook food in *a roasting tin* **4** CHEMISTRY [U] a soft, silver metal that is often combined with other metals or used to cover them (symbol **Sn**)

tinfoil /ˈtɪnfɔɪl/ *noun* [U] metal made into very thin sheets like paper and used mainly for covering food

T

tinge /tɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] a small amount of a sad feeling or colour *"Goodbye," he said, with a tinge of sadness.* ●**tinged** *adjective Her dark hair is now* ***tinged with*** *grey.*

tingle /ˈtɪŋgl/ *verb* [I] If a part of your body tingles, the skin feels slightly uncomfortable. *My hands are starting to tingle with the cold.* ●**tingle** *noun* [C]

tinker /ˈtɪŋkəʳ/ *verb* [I] to make small changes to something in order to improve or repair it *Tim loves* ***tinkering with*** *car engines.*

tinkle /ˈtɪŋkl/ *verb* [I] to make a soft, high, ringing sound ●**tinkle** *noun* [C]

tinned /tɪnd/ *UK* (*UK/US* **canned**) *adjective* Tinned food is sold in metal containers.

ˈtin ˌopener *UK* (*UK/US* **can opener**) *noun* [C] a piece of kitchen equipment for opening metal food containers ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

tinsel /ˈtɪnsᵊl/ *noun* [U] long, shiny, coloured string, used as a decoration at Christmas (= a Christian holiday)

tint¹ /tɪnt/ *noun* [C] **ART** a particular colour *the yellow and red tints of autumn*

tint² /tɪnt/ *verb* [T] to add a small amount of a colour to something *Do you think he tints his hair?*

tinted /ˈtɪntɪd/ *adjective* Tinted glass has colour added to it. *tinted sunglasses*

O-✒ **tiny** /ˈtaɪni/ *adjective* extremely small *a tiny baby* ○ *a tiny little room*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tip***

give/pass on/pick up tips ● a **handy/helpful/hot/useful** tip ● tips **for/on** sth

tip¹ /tɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** END the end of something long and narrow *the tips of your fingers* **2** ADVICE a piece of useful advice *gardening tips* ○ *Emma was giving me some* ***tips on*** *how to grow tomatoes.* **3** MONEY an extra amount of money that you give to a driver, someone working in a restaurant, etc to thank them *We* ***left a tip*** *because the waiter was so friendly.* **4** WASTE *UK* (*UK/US* **dump**) a place where people take things that they want to get rid of *We took our old fridge to the tip.* **5** UNTIDY PLACE *UK informal* (*UK/US* **dump**) a place that is dirty and untidy *His bedroom is an absolute tip.* **6 be on the tip of your tongue** If a word is on the tip of your tongue, you want to say it but cannot remember it. **7 be the tip of the iceberg** to be a small part of a very big problem

tip² /tɪp/ *verb* **tipping**, *past* **tipped 1** MOVE [I, T] to move so that one side is higher than the other side, or to make something move in this way *The table tipped and all the drinks fell on the floor.* **2 tip sth into/onto/out of sth** to make the contents of a container fall out by holding the container in a position where this happens *She tipped the contents of her purse onto the table.* **3** GIVE MONEY [I, T] to give an extra amount of money to a driver, someone working in a restaurant, etc to thank them **4 be tipped as/to do/for sth** *UK* If someone is tipped to achieve something, most people say it will happen. *Christie was tipped to win the race.*
tip sb off *phrasal verb* to warn someone secretly about something so that they can take action or prevent it happening ●**tip-off** /ˈtɪpɒf/ *noun* [C] a piece of information that you give someone secretly, so that they can take action or prevent something happening
tip (sth) over *phrasal verb* If something tips over, or if you tip it over, it falls onto its side.

tiptoe¹ /ˈtɪptəʊ/ *noun* **on tiptoe** standing on your toes with the rest of your feet off the ground

tiptoe² /ˈtɪptəʊ/ *verb* **tiptoe across/down/through, etc** to walk quietly on your toes

tire¹ /taɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* tyre ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

tire² /taɪəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to become tired or to make someone become tired *He tires easily.*
tire of sth/doing sth *phrasal verb* to become bored with something *He never tires of playing games on his computer.*
tire sb out *phrasal verb* to make someone very tired

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***tired***

If someone is extremely tired, you can say that they are **exhausted**, **worn-out**, or, in informal situations in the UK, **shattered**: *I'm too* ***exhausted*** *to take the dog for a walk tonight.* ● *By the time I got home, I was absolutely* ***shattered***.

You can use the adjectives **burnt-out** and **drained** to describe someone who is tired because they have been working very hard: *He was completely* ***burnt-out*** *after a full week of performances.* ● *I'd worked a twelve-hour day and was absolutely* ***drained***.

If someone is tired and wants to go to sleep, you can describe them as **drowsy** or **sleepy**: *The heat had made me* ***drowsy/sleepy***.

O-✒ **tired** /taɪəd/ *adjective* **1** feeling that you want to rest or sleep *He was* ***tired out*** (= very tired) *by the end of the day.* ○ *She never seems to* ***get tired***. **2 tired of doing sth** bored or annoyed by something that has happened too often *I'm tired of listening to her problems.* ●**tiredness** *noun* [U]

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

tired of or **tired from?**

If you are **tired of** something or **of doing** something, you are bored or annoyed by it.

I'm tired of hearing his awful jokes.

If you are **tired from** something, you want to rest because of it.

I'm tired from the long journey.

tireless /ˈtaɪələs/ *adjective* working very hard at something and not stopping *He was a* ***tireless campaigner/worker*** *for children's organizations.* ○ *I want to thank James for his* ***tireless efforts*** *on behalf of the company.*

tiresome /ˈtaɪəsəm/ *adjective formal* making you feel annoyed or bored *a tiresome little boy*

tiring /ˈtaɪərɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel tired *a long and tiring day*

tissue /ˈtɪʃuː/ *noun* **1** BIOLOGY [C, U] the material that animals and plants are made of *human*

T

brain tissue **2** FOR YOUR NOSE [C] a soft piece of paper that you use for cleaning your nose **3** FOR WRAPPING [U] (*also* ˈ**tissue ˌpaper**) soft, thin paper that you cover things with in order to protect them

ˈ**tissue ˌculture** *noun* **1** **BIOLOGY** [U] the scientific process of growing tissue (= cells) taken from a living thing in a special substance **2** **BIOLOGY** [C] an amount of tissue (= cells) that has been grown in this way

titbit *UK* (*US* **tidbit**) /ˈtɪtbɪt/ *noun* [C] a small piece of nice food, or an interesting piece of information

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***title***

defend/lose/retain/take/win the title ● the **world** title

title /ˈtaɪtl/ *noun* [C] **1** BOOK/FILM ETC the name of a book, film, etc **2** **SPORT** what you get if you win an important sports competition *He **won** the 1999 world motor racing **title**.* **3** SOMEONE'S NAME a word such as 'Lord', 'Dr', etc that is used before someone's name

ˈ**title ˌbar** *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** the long thin part along the top of a computer screen that shows the name of the document or program that is open

titled /ˈtaɪtld/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** having a title such as 'Lord', 'Lady', or 'Duke' that shows you have a high social position

title-holder /ˈtaɪtlˌhəʊldəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone who has won a sports competition

ˈ**title ˌrole** *noun* [C] the person in a play or film who has the same name as the play's or film's title

titration /taɪˈtreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a way of finding out how much of a substance there is in a liquid by adding to it measured amounts of another substance which reacts to it, for example by making it change colour

titter /ˈtɪtəʳ/ *verb* [I] to laugh in a nervous way ●**titter** *noun* [C]

tjanting tool /ˈtjæntɪŋˌtuːl/ *noun* [C] **DT** a tool for putting wax onto cloth before it is dyed (= has had colour put on it) so that that area will not be coloured

T-junction /ˈtiːˌdʒʌŋkʃᵊn/ *UK* (*US* **intersection**) *noun* [C] a place where two roads join and make the shape of the letter 'T'

TNT /ˌtiːenˈtiː/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** *abbreviation for* trinitrotoluene, a powerful explosive substance

to¹ /tə/ **1** INFINITIVE used with a verb to make the infinitive *I want to learn Spanish.* ○ *He forgot to feed the cat.* **2** REASON used to give the reason for doing something *I'm just going out to get some milk.*

to² *strong form* /tuː/ *weak forms* /tʊ, tə/ *preposition* **1** DIRECTION in the direction of somewhere *Dimitri is going to Germany next week.* ○ *I ran to the door.* **2** ANOTHER PERSON used to show who receives something or experiences an action *Could you give these keys to Pete?* ○ *Anna was speaking to her mother on the phone.* ○ *I lent my bike to Tom.* **3** POSITION almost touching or facing something *She stood with her back to the window.* **4 from ... to ...** **a** TIME/DISTANCE used to give information about periods of time and distances *The museum is open from Monday to Saturday.* ○ *The bus goes from London to Cambridge.* **b** INCLUDING including *The book deals with everything from childhood to old age.* **5** BEFORE used to say 'before' the hour when you are saying what time it is *It's five to three.* **6** COMPARE used to compare two things *I prefer football to cricket.* **7** UNTIL until a particular time or state *It's only two weeks to my birthday.* ○ *She nursed him back to health.* **8** SOMEONE'S OPINION used to say what someone's opinion is *Fifty pounds is nothing to Matthew* (= he would not think it was a lot of money). **9 to sb's disappointment/relief/surprise, etc** used to say that someone feels surprised, disappointed, etc by something *To Pierre's disappointment, Monique wasn't at the party.* **10** MEASUREMENT used to say how many parts make up a whole unit of measurement or money *There are 100 pence to the British pound.* **11** BELONGING belonging to or connected with *Can you give me the keys to the car?*

to³ /tuː/ *adverb* **1** *UK* If you push or pull a door to, you close it. **2 to and fro** backwards and forwards *The sign was swinging to and fro in the wind.*

toad /təʊd/ *noun* [C] a small, brown animal with long back legs for swimming and jumping

toadstool /ˈtəʊdstuːl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a poisonous fungus (= organism like a plant) with a short stem and a round top

toast¹ /təʊst/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [U] bread that has been heated to make it brown *a slice of toast* **2** [C] a time when people lift their glasses and drink because they want someone to be successful, happy, etc *At the wedding, there was a **toast to** the happy couple.*

toast² /təʊst/ *verb* [T] **1** DRINK to lift your glass and drink with other people because you want someone to be successful, happy, etc **2** BREAD to heat bread so that it becomes brown

toaster /ˈtəʊstəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine that heats bread so that it becomes brown ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

toasty /ˈtəʊsti/ *adjective* warm and comfortable *It's nice and toasty near the fire.*

tobacco /təˈbækəʊ/ *noun* [U] dried leaves that are inside cigarettes

toboggan /təˈbɒgᵊn/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a board that you sit or lie on, used for going down a hill on a surface of snow

today /təˈdeɪ/ *noun* [U], *adverb* **1** THIS DAY this day, or on this day *It's Johann's birthday today.* ○ *Today is Friday.* **2** THIS PERIOD OF TIME the period of time that is happening now or in this period of time *More young people smoke today than in the past.*

toddle /ˈtɒdl/ *verb* **toddle down/off/to, etc** *informal* to walk somewhere *Sophie said goodbye and toddled off towards the station.*

toddler /ˈtɒdləʳ/ *noun* [C] a child who has just learned to walk

toe¹ /təʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY** one of the five separate parts at the end of your foot *your **big***

toe (= largest toe) ○ ***your little toe*** (= smallest toe) ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** the part of a shoe or sock that covers your toes **3 keep sb on their toes** to make sure that someone gives all their attention to what they are doing and is ready for anything that might happen

toe² /təʊ/ *verb* ➲See: toe the (party) **line¹**

toenail /ˈtəʊneɪl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the hard, flat parts on top of the end of your toes ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13

toffee /ˈtɒfi/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a sticky sweet, made by boiling sugar and butter together

tofu /ˈtəʊfuː/ (also **bean curd**) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a soft pale food made from the soya bean plant

O-key **together¹** /təˈgeðəʳ/ *adverb* **1** WITH SOMEONE with each other *We went shopping together.* ○ *They live together.* **2** CONNECTED used to say that two or more things are joined to each other, mixed with each other, etc *She tied the two pieces of rope together.* **3** SAME PLACE in the same place or close to each other *We all sat together.* **4** SAME TIME at the same time *We'll deal with the next two items on the list together.* **5 together with sth** in addition to something *She sent some flowers together with a card.* ➲See also: get your **act²** together, **get-together**

together² /təˈgeðəʳ/ *adjective informal* Someone who is together thinks clearly and organizes their life well.

togetherness /təˈgeðənəs/ *noun* [U] a feeling of friendship

toil /tɔɪl/ *verb* [I] *literary* to do difficult work for a long time ●**toil** *noun* [U] *literary*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***toilet***

be on/go to/flush/need the toilet ● toilet **facilities** ● a toilet **seat**

O-key **toilet** /ˈtɔɪlɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** BOWL a bowl that you sit on or stand near when you get rid of waste substances from your body ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **2** ROOM *UK* (*US* **bathroom**) a room with a toilet in it

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

toilet

Toilet is the most general word. In **British English** the informal word **loo** is often used. In **American English** the word **bathroom** is often used to mean toilet, especially in the home.

In public places toilets are usually called **the ladies** or **the gents** in Britain and the **men's room**, **ladies' room**, or **restroom** in America.

The **lavatory** is slightly formal and **WC** is only used in **British English**. These two words are not used much today.

ˈ**toilet** ˌ**paper** *noun* [U] paper used for cleaning your body after you have used the toilet ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

toiletries /ˈtɔɪlɪtriz/ *noun* [**plural**] things such as soap, toothpaste (= substance for cleaning teeth), etc that you use for making yourself clean

ˈ**toilet** ˌ**roll** *noun* [C] *UK* paper for cleaning your body after using the toilet that is folded around a tube ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

token¹ /ˈtəʊkᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** LOVE/THANKS something that you give to someone in order to show them love, to thank them, etc *I gave Helen some chocolates as* ***a token of*** *thanks for all her help.* **2** INSTEAD OF MONEY a round piece of metal or plastic that you put in some machines instead of money *You need a token to get out of the car park.* **3** PAPER *UK* (*US* **gift certificate**) a piece of paper that you give someone which they can exchange for a book, CD, etc *a* ***book/record/gift token***

token² /ˈtəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** PERSON A token person is chosen so that an organization can pretend that they care about that type of person. *a token woman* **2** ACTION A token action is small or unimportant and may show your future intentions or may only pretend to. *He made a* ***token effort*** *to find a job.*

told /təʊld/ *past of* tell

tolerable /ˈtɒlᵊrəbl/ *adjective* acceptable but not excellent *The food was just about tolerable but the service was terrible.* ➲Opposite **intolerable** ●**tolerably** *adverb*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tolerance***

show tolerance ● tolerance **of/towards** sb/sth ● sb's tolerance **level** ● **racial/religious** tolerance

tolerance /ˈtɒlᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [U] the quality of allowing people to do or believe what they want although you do not agree with it ***religious/racial tolerance*** ➲See also: **zero tolerance**

tolerant /ˈtɒlᵊrᵊnt/ *adjective* allowing people to do what they want especially when you do not agree with it *a tolerant attitude* ○ *I think we're becoming more* ***tolerant of*** *children in public places.* ➲Opposite **intolerant**

tolerate /ˈtɒlᵊreɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** ALLOW to accept or allow something although you do not like it *We will not tolerate racism of any sort.* **2** DEAL WITH to be able to deal with something unpleasant and not be harmed by it *These plants can tolerate very low temperatures.* ●**toleration** /ˌtɒlᵊrˈeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

toll¹ /təʊl/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [C] money that you pay to use a bridge, road, etc **2** [**no plural**] the number of people who are killed or injured **3 take its toll** to have a bad effect on someone or something, especially over a long period of time *The stress was starting to* ***take its toll on*** *him.* ➲See also: **death toll**

toll² /təʊl/ *verb* [I] When a bell tolls, it rings slowly, especially because someone has died.

toll-free /ˌtəʊlˈfriː/ *US* (*UK* **freephone**) *adjective* A toll-free number is a telephone number that you can connect to without paying.

O-key **tomato** /təˈmɑːtəʊ/ (US) /təˈmeɪtəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **tomatoes** **FOOD** a soft, round, red fruit eaten in salad or as a vegetable ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

tomb /tuːm/ *noun* [C] a place where a dead person is buried, usually with a monument (= stone structure)

tomboy /ˈtɒmbɔɪ/ *noun* [C] a young girl who behaves and dresses like a boy

T

tombstone /ˈtuːmstəʊn/ *noun* [C] a stone that shows the name of a dead person who is buried under it

tomcat /ˈtɒmkæt/ *noun* [C] a male cat

tomorrow /təˈmɒrəʊ/ *noun* [U], *adverb* **1** DAY AFTER TODAY the day after today or on the day after today *It's my birthday tomorrow.* ○ *Tomorrow is Friday.* **2** THE FUTURE the future, or in the future *the children of tomorrow*

ton /tʌn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **tons** or **ton 1** **MEASURES** a unit for measuring weight, equal to 1016 kilograms in the UK and 907 kilograms in the US ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24. ➲Compare **tonne 2 tons of sth** *informal* a lot of something *We've got tons of cheese left.* **3 weigh a ton** *informal* to be very heavy

tone[1] /təʊn/ *noun* **1** **MUSIC** [C, U] the quality of a sound, especially of someone's voice *I knew by her* ***tone of voice*** *that she was serious.* **2** FEELING/STYLE [U, no plural] the general feeling or style that something has *Then the director arrived and the whole tone of the meeting changed.* **3** TELEPHONE [C] an electronic sound made by a telephone *a dialling tone/an engaged tone* **4** **ART** [C] one of the many types of a particular colour

tone[2] /təʊn/ (*also* **tone up**) *verb* [T] **HEALTH** to make your muscles or skin firmer and stronger *These exercises will tone up your stomach muscles.*
tone sth down *phrasal verb* to make a piece of writing, a speech, etc less offensive or rude

tone-deaf /ˌtəʊnˈdef/ (US) /ˈtəʊndef/ *adjective* **MUSIC** unable to sing the correct musical notes or hear the difference between musical notes

toner /ˈtəʊnər/ *noun* [U] a type of ink used for computer printers and photocopiers (= machines that copy documents)

tongs /tɒŋz/ *noun* [plural] a tool used for picking things up, that has two pieces joined together at one end

tongue /tʌŋ/ *noun* **1** **ANATOMY** [C] the soft thing inside your mouth that you move and use for tasting and speaking **2** [C, U] the tongue of some animals that you can eat as meat **3** **LANGUAGE** [C] *formal* a language *Japanese is her* ***native tongue*** (= the language she learnt to speak as a child). ➲See also: **mother tongue,** a **slip**[2] of the tongue, be on the **tip**[1] of your tongue ➲See picture at **alimentary canal**

tongue-in-cheek /ˌtʌŋɪnˈtʃiːk/ *adjective*, *adverb* said or done as a joke

tongue-tied /ˈtʌŋtaɪd/ *adjective* unable to say anything because you are nervous

ˈtongue ˌtwister *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a phrase or sentence that is difficult to say quickly because it has many similar sounds in it

tonic /ˈtɒnɪk/ *noun* **1** **FOOD** [C, U] (*also* **ˈtonic ˌwater**) a drink with bubbles in it that has a bitter taste and is often added to alcoholic drinks **2** [no plural] something that makes you feel better *Spending time with Leo is always a tonic.*

tonight /təˈnaɪt/ *noun*, *adverb* [U] the night of this day, or during the night of this day *What are you doing tonight?*

tonne /tʌn/ *noun* [C] *plural* **tonnes** or **tonne** *UK* **MEASURES** a metric ton (= unit for measuring weight, equal to 1000 kilograms) ➲Compare **ton**

tonsil /ˈtɒnsᵊl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** one of the two small, soft parts at the back of your mouth

tonsillitis /ˌtɒnsəlˈaɪtɪs/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** an illness that makes your tonsils very painful

too /tuː/ *adverb* **1 too small/heavy/much, etc** used before adjectives and adverbs to mean 'more than is allowed, necessary, possible, etc' *The film is also far too long.* ○ *There are too many cars on the roads these days.* [+ **to do sth**] *I decided it was too early to get up and went back to sleep.* **2** also *Do you know Jason too?* ○ *I'll probably go there next year too.* **3 not too** used before adjectives and adverbs to mean 'not very' *"How was your exam?" "Not too bad, I suppose."* ○ *I didn't play too well today.*

took /tʊk/ *past tense of* take

tools

tool /tuːl/ *noun* [C] **1** EQUIPMENT a piece of equipment that you use with your hands in order to help you do something **2** HELP something that helps you to do a particular activity *Computers are an essential tool for modern scientists.* ➲See also: **power tool**

toolbar /ˈtuːlbɑːr/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** on a computer screen, a row of icons (= small pictures that you choose in order to make the computer do something)

ˈtool ˌbox *noun* [C] a container in which you keep and carry small tools

toot /tuːt/ *UK* (*UK/US* **honk**) *verb* **toot your horn** If a driver toots their horn, they make a short sound with the horn (= thing you press to make a warning noise). ●**toot** *noun* [C]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tooth***

brush/clean your teeth ● your **back/front** teeth ● **have** a tooth removed/**taken out** ● a **set of** teeth

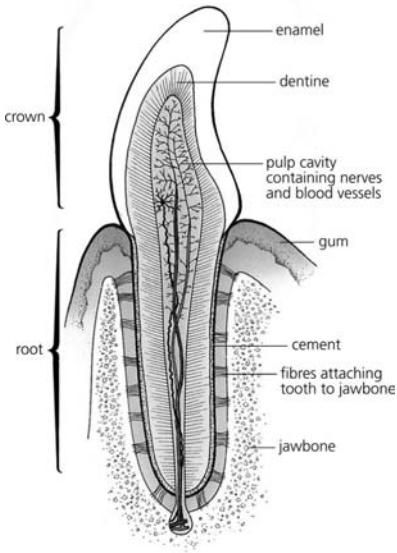

tooth

O-K tooth /tuːθ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **teeth** **1** ANATOMY one of the hard, white objects in your mouth that you use for biting and crushing food *You should **brush** your **teeth** twice a day.* **2** one of the row of metal or plastic points that stick out from a tool such as a comb (= thing used to make your hair tidy), or saw (= thing used to cut wood) **3 grit your teeth** to accept a difficult situation and deal with it in a determined way ➲See also: a **kick**[2] in the teeth, do sth by the **skin**[1] of your teeth, **wisdom tooth**

toothache /ˈtuːθeɪk/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a pain in one of your teeth

toothbrush /ˈtuːθbrʌʃ/ *noun* [C] a small brush that you use to clean your teeth

toothpaste /ˈtuːθpeɪst/ *noun* [U] a substance that you use to clean your teeth ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

toothpick /ˈtuːθpɪk/ *noun* [C] a small, thin stick that you use to remove pieces of food from between your teeth

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***top***

reach the top ● **at** the top ● **on** top ● the top **of** sth

O-K top[1] /tɒp/ *noun* **1** HIGHEST PART [C] the highest part of something *They were waiting for him **at the top of** the stairs.* ○ *I want a cake with cherries **on top**.* **2** SURFACE [C] the flat, upper surface of something *the table top* **3** LID [C] the lid or cover of a container, pen, etc *Put the top back on the bottle.* **4** CLOTHING [C] a piece of women's clothing worn on the upper part of the body **5** TOY [C] a toy that turns round and round when you move its handle up and down **6 the top** the most important position in a company, team, etc *At forty he was already **at the top of** his profession.* **7 at the top of your voice** *UK* (*US* **at the top of your lungs**) shouting very loudly **8 from top to bottom** completely *I've searched the house from top to bottom and still can't find it.* **9 get on top of sb** *UK* If a difficult situation gets on top of someone, it upsets them. **10 off the top of your head** *informal* If you say a fact off the top of your head, you say it immediately, from memory. *"What date is their wedding?" "I couldn't tell you off the top of my head."* **11 on top of sth** IN ADDITION in addition to something else that is bad *And then, on top of everything else, her car was stolen.* IN CONTROL able to deal with or in control of something *I'm not at all sure that he's on top of the situation.* **12 be on top of the world** *informal* to be very happy **13 over the top** *mainly UK informal* too extreme and not suitable *I thought her performance was way over the top.*

O-K top[2] /tɒp/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** BEST the best, most important, or most successful *He's one of the country's top athletes.* **2** HIGHEST at the highest part of something *I can't reach the top shelf.*

top[3] /tɒp/ *verb* [T] **topping**, *past* **topped** **1** to be better or more than something *I don't think film makers will ever top 'Gone With The Wind'.* **2 be topped with sth** to be covered with something *lemon tart topped with cream*

top sth off *phrasal verb informal* to finish something in an enjoyable or successful way

top sth up *phrasal verb UK* (*US* **top sth off**) **1** to add more liquid to a container in order to make it full **2** to add more of something, especially money, to an existing amount to create the total you need *Can I top up my mobile phone here?*

ˌtop ˈhat *UK* (*US* **ˈtop ˌhat**) *noun* [C] a tall, black or grey hat worn by men on some formal occasions

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***topic***

cover/discuss/raise a topic ● a **controversial/hot** topic ● the **(main)** topic **of** sth ● a topic **of conversation /discussion**

topic /ˈtɒpɪk/ *noun* [C] a subject that you talk or write about

topical /ˈtɒpɪkᵊl/ *adjective* relating to things that are happening now

topless /ˈtɒpləs/ *adjective* without clothes on the upper part of your body

topmost /ˈtɒpməʊst/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] highest *the topmost branches of a tree*

topography /təˈpɒgrəfi/ *noun* [U] GEOGRAPHY the shape and other physical characteristics of a piece of land

topping /ˈtɒpɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD food that is put on top of other food in order to give it more flavour, or to make it look attractive

topple /ˈtɒpl/ *verb* **1** FALL [I, T] to fall, or to make something or someone fall **2** LEADER [T] to make a leader lose their position of power

top-secret /ˌtɒpˈsiːkrət/ *adjective* Top-secret information is very important and must not be told to anyone.

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topsy-turvy /ˌtɒpsiˈtɜːvi/ *adjective informal* confused or badly organized

ˈtop-up ˌcard *noun* [C] a card you can buy which gives you a special number so that you can use your mobile phone for longer

the Torah /ˈtɔːrə/ *noun* **RELIGION** the holy books of the Jewish religion, especially the first five books of the Bible

torch¹ /tɔːtʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** LIGHT *UK* (*US* **flashlight**) a small electric light that you hold in your hand **2** STICK a long stick with material that burns tied to the top of it

torch² /tɔːtʃ/ *verb* [T] *informal* to destroy something by burning it *A number of houses were torched.*

tore /tɔːʳ/ *past tense of* tear

torment¹ /tɔːˈment/ *verb* [T] to make someone suffer or worry a lot *All evening the question tormented her.* ●**tormentor** *noun* [C]

torment² /ˈtɔːment/ *noun* [C, U] extreme unhappiness or pain

torn /tɔːn/ *past participle of* tear

tornado /tɔːˈneɪdəʊ/ (*also US* **twister**) *noun* [C] *plural* **tornados** or **tornadoes** an extremely strong and dangerous wind that blows in a circle and destroys buildings as it moves along

torpedo /tɔːˈpiːdəʊ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **torpedoes** a long, thin bomb that is fired from a ship and moves under water to destroy another ship

torrent /ˈtɒrᵊnt/ *noun* [C] **1 a torrent of sth** a lot of something unpleasant *a **torrent of abuse*** **2** a large amount of water that is moving very fast

torrential /təˈrenʃᵊl/ *adjective* Torrential rain is very heavy rain.

torso /ˈtɔːsəʊ/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the main part of a human body without its arms, legs, or head

tortilla /tɔːˈtiːə/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a type of thin round Mexican bread

tortoise /ˈtɔːtəs/ *noun* [C] an animal with a thick, hard shell that it can move its head and legs into for protection ➲See picture at **reptile**

tortuous /ˈtɔːtʃuəs/ *adjective formal* **1** DIFFICULT very complicated or difficult *Gaining permission to build was a long and **tortuous process**.* ○ *a **tortuous path/route*** **2** ROAD A tortuous road has many turns in it.

torture¹ /ˈtɔːtʃəʳ/ *verb* [T] to cause someone severe pain, often in order to make them tell you something ●**torturer** *noun* [C]

torture² /ˈtɔːtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** PHYSICAL PAIN when someone is tortured **2** BORING/UNPLEASANT a very unpleasant experience *I had to sit there listening to her for two whole hours - it was torture!*

Tory /ˈtɔːri/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** someone who supports the Conservative Party in the UK *a Tory voter*

toss¹ /tɒs/ *verb* **1 toss sth away/into/on, etc** to throw something somewhere carelessly *He read the letter quickly, then tossed it into the bin.* **2** [I, T] (*also* **toss up**) to throw a coin in the air and guess which side will land facing upwards as a way of deciding something

toss² /tɒs/ *noun* **1 a toss of a coin** when you throw a coin in the air and guess which side will land facing upwards as a way of deciding something **2 a toss of your head/hair** when you move your head quickly backwards

tot /tɒt/ *noun* [C] *informal* **1** a small child **2** **FOOD** *UK* a small amount of strong alcohol

total¹ /ˈtəʊtᵊl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** EVERYTHING including everything *The total cost of the work was $800.* **2** EXTREME extreme or complete *The whole evening was a total disaster.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***total*** *(noun)*

sth **brings/takes** the total to [500/4000, etc] ● **reach** a total of [500/4000, etc] ● the **final/overall/sum** total ● [500/4000, etc] **in** total

total² /ˈtəʊtᵊl/ *noun* [C] **MATHEMATICS** the amount you get when you add several smaller amounts together ***In total*** *we made over £3,000.*

total³ /ˈtəʊtᵊl/ *verb* [T] *UK* **totalling**, *past* **totalled**, *US* **totaling**, *past* **totaled** to add up to a particular amount

totalitarian /təʊˌtælɪˈteərɪən/ *adjective* **POLITICS** belonging to a political system in which the people in power have complete control and do not allow anyone to oppose them ●**totalitarianism** *noun* [U]

totally /ˈtəʊtᵊli/ *adverb* completely *They look totally different.* ○ *I totally disagree.*

tote bag /ˈtəʊtˌbæg/ *noun* [C] *US* a large bag with handles and an open top

totter /ˈtɒtəʳ/ *verb* [I] to walk in a way that looks as if you are going to fall *She tottered around the dance floor.*

toucan /ˈtuːkən/ *noun* [C] a South American bird that has a brightly coloured beak

touch¹ /tʌtʃ/ *verb* **1** HAND [T] to put your hand on something *You can look at them but please don't touch them.* **2** GET CLOSE [I, T] If two things touch, they are so close to each other that there is no space between them. *These two wires must not touch.* **3** EMOTION [T] If something kind that someone says or does touches you, it makes you feel pleased or a little sad. [**often passive**] *I was deeply touched by her letter.*
4 not touch sth to not eat or drink something
5 not touch sb/sth to not harm someone or not damage something ➲See also: touch/cover all the bases (**base¹**), hit/touch a (raw) **nerve**
touch down *phrasal verb* When a plane touches down, it lands.
touch on sth *phrasal verb* to briefly talk about something *We only touched on the subject.*
touch sth up *phrasal verb* to improve something by making small changes

touch² /tʌtʃ/ *noun* **1** HAND [**no plural**] when you put your hand on something *I felt the touch of his hand on my face.* **2** ABILITY [U] the ability to feel things by putting your hand on them *It was cold **to the touch*** (= when I touched it). **3** DETAIL [C] a small detail that makes something better *Having flowers on the tables was a **nice touch**.* **4 a touch** a little *Add a little olive oil and **a touch of** vinegar.* **5 be/get/keep, etc in touch** to communicate or continue to communicate with someone by telephoning, or

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writing to them **6 lose touch** to stop communicating with someone, usually because they do not live near you now **7 be out of touch** to know little about what has recently happened

touchdown /ˈtʌtʃdaʊn/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when an aircraft lands **2** SPORT [C] when the ball is carried or thrown over a line in order to score points in rugby or American football

touched /tʌtʃt/ *adjective* pleased or a little sad because someone has done something kind *She was touched that he had remembered her birthday.*

touching /ˈtʌtʃɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel sadness or sympathy *a touching performance*

touchpad /ˈtʌtʃpæd/ (**trackpad**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a flat device, often part of a laptop computer, that you touch with your fingers to move the cursor (= symbol that shows the place on the screen where you are working)

ˈtouch ˌscreen *noun* [C] COMPUTING a screen that works when you touch it

touchstone /ˈtʌtʃstəʊn/ *noun* [**no plural**] something that other things can be judged against

touchy /ˈtʌtʃi/ *adjective* **1** easily upset *Why are you so touchy today?* **2 touchy subject/issue, etc** a subject that you have to talk about carefully because it is likely to upset someone

O-K **tough** /tʌf/ *adjective* **1** DIFFICULT difficult *He's had a **tough time** at work recently.* ○ *We've had to make some **tough decisions**.* **2** SEVERE Tough rules are severe. ***tough** new **laws** on noise pollution* **3** STRONG THING not easily damaged, cut, etc *Children's shoes have to be tough.* ○ *This meat's very tough.* **4** STRONG PERSON physically strong and not afraid of violence *a **tough guy*** **5** DETERMINED determined and not easily upset *You have to be tough to survive in politics.* **6** UNFAIR unfair or unlucky *It can **be tough on** kids when parents get divorced.*

toughen /ˈtʌfᵊn/ (*also* **toughen up**) *verb* [I, T] to become stronger, or to make something or someone stronger *School tends to toughen kids up.*

toupee /ˈtuːpeɪ, tuːpˈeɪ/ *noun* [C] a piece of artificial (= not natural) hair worn by a man to cover part of his head where there is no hair

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tour***

be on/go on a tour ● a **guided/sightseeing/world** tour ● a tour **of** sth

O-K **tour¹** /tʊəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] a visit to and around a place, area, or country *a **tour of Europe*** ○ *We went on a **guided tour** of the cathedral.* ○ *The band are **on tour*** (= travelling and performing in different places).

tour² /tʊəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to travel around a place for pleasure *to tour the States*

tourism /ˈtʊərɪzᵊm/ *noun* [U] the business of providing services for tourists, including organizing their travel, hotels, entertainment, etc

O-K **tourist** /ˈtʊərɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who visits a place for pleasure and does not live there

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tournament***

host/play in/pull out of/take part in/win a tournament ● **in** a tournament ● a **major** tournament ● a **round/stage** of a tournament

tournament /ˈtʊənəmənt/ *noun* [C] SPORT a competition with a series of games between many teams or players, with one winner at the end *a golf/tennis tournament*

tourniquet /ˈtʊənɪkeɪ/ (US) /ˈtɜːrnɪkɪt/ *noun* [C] HEALTH a long piece of cloth that you tie tightly around an injured arm or leg to stop the blood coming out

tousled /ˈtaʊsld/ *adjective* Tousled hair is untidy.

tout¹ /taʊt/ *verb* **1** PRAISE [T] to praise someone or something in order to make people think that they are important [**often passive**] *He is being **touted as** the next big star.* **2** SELL [I, T] *mainly UK* to try to persuade people to buy something *Drug dealers were seen **touting for business** outside schools.*

tout² /taʊt/ *UK* (*US* **scalper**) *noun* [C] someone who unofficially sells tickets outside theatres, sporting events, etc

tow¹ /təʊ/ *verb* [T] to pull a car, boat, etc, using a rope or chain connected to another vehicle *His car was **towed away** by the police.*

tow² /təʊ/ *noun informal* **in tow** If you have someone in tow, you have them with you. *Shopping can be very stressful with young children in tow.*

O-K **towards** /təˈwɔːdz/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **toward**) *preposition* **1** DIRECTION in the direction of someone or something *She stood up and walked towards him.* **2** POSITION near to a time or place *Your seats are towards the back of the theatre.* ○ *He only became successful towards the end of his life.* **3** FEELING used when talking about feelings about something or someone *His attitude towards work needs to improve.* **4** PURPOSE for the purpose of buying or achieving something *We're asking people for a contribution towards the cost.* ○ *This piece of work counts towards your final mark.*

O-K **towel** /taʊəl/ *noun* [C] **1** a soft piece of cloth or paper that you use for drying yourself or for drying something *a **bath/beach towel*** ○ *a paper towel* ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3 **2 throw in the towel** to stop trying to do something because you do not think you can succeed ➲See also: **sanitary towel, tea towel**

ˈtowel ˌrail *UK* (*US* **ˈtowel ˌrack**) *noun* [C] a horizontal bar on the wall that you hang towels on

tower¹ /taʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a very tall, narrow building, or part of a building *a church tower* ○ *the Eiffel Tower* **2 a tower of strength** someone who helps you a lot during a difficult time

tower² /taʊəʳ/ *verb* **tower over/above sb/sth** to be much taller or higher than someone or something else *David towers over his mother.*

ˈtower ˌblock *noun* [C] *UK* a very tall building divided into apartments or offices

towering /ˈtaʊərɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] very tall *towering mountains/trees*

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WORD PARTNERS FOR ***town***

go into town ● **in** town ● a **part of/side of** town ● (*UK*) the town **centre**

town /taʊn/ *noun* **1** PLACE [C] a place where people live and work, usually larger than a village but smaller than a city *It's a small town in the north of England.* **2** CENTRAL AREA [U] the central area of a town where the shops are *I usually **go into town** on a Saturday.* ○ *Shall I meet you **in town?*** **3 go to town (on sth)** to spend a lot of money or time doing something in order to make it special *They've really gone to town on the decorations.* **4 out on the town** *informal* enjoying yourself in bars, restaurants, etc in the evening ➲See also: **ghost town, shanty town**

town hall *noun* [C] a large building where local government is based

township /ˈtaʊnʃɪp/ *noun* [C] in South Africa, an area where only black people live

townspeople /ˈtaʊnzˌpiːpl/ *noun* [**group**] SOCIETY the people who live in a particular town, considered as a group

toxic /ˈtɒksɪk/ *adjective* HEALTH, ENVIRONMENT poisonous ***toxic chemicals/fumes*** ○ ***toxic waste*** (= poisonous waste materials produced by industry) ●**toxicity** /tɒkˈsɪsəti/ *noun* [U] *formal* how poisonous a substance is

toxin /ˈtɒksɪn/ *noun* [C] *formal* HEALTH, ENVIRONMENT a poisonous substance

toy¹ /tɔɪ/ *noun* [C] an object for children to play with *a toy car/train* ○ *He was happily playing with his toys.*

toy² /tɔɪ/ *verb*
toy with sth *phrasal verb* **1** THINK ABOUT to briefly think about doing something, but not really intend to do it *I've toyed with the idea of going to work abroad.* **2** TOUCH to move something around in your hands without any clear purpose *He sat toying with his empty glass.*

TQM /ˌtiːkjuːˈem/ *noun* [U] *abbreviation for* total quality management: a system used in businesses and other organizations to make sure that every part of the organization is of high quality

trace¹ /treɪs/ *verb* [T] **1** FIND to find someone or something that was lost *Police have so far failed to trace the missing woman.* **2** ORIGIN to find the origin of something *She's **traced** her family **back** to the sixteenth century.* ○ *They were able to **trace** the **call*** (= find out the number of the telephone used). **3** DEVELOPMENT to describe the way something has developed over time *The book traces the development of women's art since the start of the century.* **4** ART to copy a picture by putting transparent paper on top and following the outer line of the picture with a pen *tracing paper*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trace***

find no/leave no trace (**of** sth) ● **disappear without/vanish without** trace

trace² /treɪs/ *noun* **1** PROOF [C, U] proof that someone or something was in a place *There was **no trace** of her anywhere.* ○ *Ships have **disappeared without trace*** (= completely). **2** SMALL AMOUNT [C] a small amount of something *They found traces of blood on his clothing.*

traceable /ˈtreɪsəbl/ *adjective* If something is traceable, it is possible to find out where it came from.

trace element *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY one of many types of simple chemical substance that are in animals and plants in small amounts and are necessary for the animal or plant to grow and develop

trachea /trəˈkiːə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **tracheae** or **tracheas** ANATOMY the tube that carries air from your throat to your lungs ➲See picture at **alimentary canal** ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

track¹ /træk/ *noun* **1** PATH [C] a narrow path or road *We followed a dirt track off the main road.* **2** RAILWAY [C] the long metal lines which a train travels along *(UK) a railway track/ (US) a railroad track* **3** SPORT [C] a path, often circular, used for races *a race track* ○ *track events* **4** SPORT [U] *US* the sport of running in races around a wide circular path made for this sport **5** MUSIC [C] one song or piece of music on a CD, record, etc **6 keep track** to continue to know what is happening to someone or something *He changes jobs so often - I find it hard to keep track of what he's doing.* **7 lose track** to not know what is happening to someone or something any more *I've lost track of how much we've spent.* **8 on track** making progress and likely to succeed [+ **to do sth**] *A fighter from Edinburgh is on track to become world heavyweight boxing champion.* **9 a fast track (to sth)** a very quick way of achieving or dealing with something *These intensive courses claim to offer a fast track to wealth and success.* **10 off the beaten track** in a place where few people go

track² /træk/ *verb* [T] **1** FOLLOW to follow a person or animal by looking for proof that they have been somewhere, or by using electronic equipment *The wolves are tracked by using radio collars.* **2** PROGRESS to record the progress or development of something over a period *The project tracks the effects of population growth on the area.*
track sth/sb down *phrasal verb* to find something or someone after looking for them in a lot of different places *The man was finally tracked down by French police.*

track and field *US* (*UK* **athletics**) *noun* [U] SPORT the sports which include running, jumping, and throwing ➲See colour picture **Sports 1** on page Centre 14

trackball /ˈtrækbɔːl/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a ball on the keyboard of a computer that you roll with your finger in order to move the cursor (= symbol which shows where you are working) on the screen

trackpad /ˈtrækpæd/ (*also* **touchpad**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING a flat device, often part of a laptop computer, that you touch with your fingers to move the cursor (= symbol that shows the place on the screen where you are working)

track record *UK* (*US* **track record**) *noun* [C] how well or badly you have done in the past *This company has an impressive track record in completing projects on time.*

tracks /ˈtræks/ *noun* [**plural**] the marks left on the ground by a person, animal, or vehicle *We followed their tracks in the snow.*

tracksuit /ˈtræksuːt/ *noun* [C] *UK* loose, comfortable clothes, usually trousers and a top, especially worn for exercising ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

tract /trækt/ *noun* [C] **1** **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a system of connected tubes in someone's body which has a particular purpose *the **digestive/respiratory tract*** **2** a large area of land

tractor /ˈtræktəʳ/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** a strong vehicle with large back wheels used on farms for pulling things

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trade** (noun)*

trade **agreement/deal/policy** ● trade **between** [two countries/regions] ● trade **with** [a country] ● trade **in** sth ● a trade **dispute**

O-➡ **trade**[1] /treɪd/ *noun* **1** [U] **ECONOMICS** the buying and selling of large numbers of goods or services, especially between countries *a **trade agreement/dispute*** ○ *They rely heavily on **trade with** Europe.* ○ *The laws ban the international **trade in** ivory.* **2** **ECONOMICS** [C] a particular area of business or industry *the building/tourist trade* **3** JOB [C] someone's job, especially one which needs skill in using their hands *He's a builder **by trade**.*

trade[2] /treɪd/ *verb* **1** **ECONOMICS** [I] to buy and sell goods or services, especially between countries *This will increase costs for companies **trading with** Asia.* **2** EXCHANGE [T] *mainly US* to give something to someone and receive something else in exchange *He **traded** his guitar **for** a leather jacket.* ●**trading** *noun* [U]
trade sth in *phrasal verb* to give something as part of your payment for something else *He traded his old car in for a new model.*

ˈ**trade** ˌ**barrier** *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** anything that makes international trade more difficult, such as taxes

ˌ**trade** ˈ**creditor** *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a company that supplies goods to a business that have not yet been paid for

ˌ**trade** ˈ**debtor** *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a business that owes money to a company for goods that company has supplied

ˌ**trade** ˈ**deficit** *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a situation in which the value of goods that a country sells to other countries is lower than the value of goods it buys from other countries, or the size of this difference

the ˌ**Trade Desˈcriptions** ˌ**Act** *noun* **LAW** a law in the UK to make sure that people selling things describe them fairly and accurately

ˌ**trade** ˈ**discount** *noun* [C, U] **FINANCE** a lower price that is sometimes given to people who work in the same area of business

ˈ**trade** ˌ**fair** (*also* **trade show**) *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a large event at which companies show their new products to people who might buy them

trademark /ˈtreɪdmɑːk/ *noun* [C] the name of a particular company or product which cannot be used by anyone else

trade-off /ˈtreɪdɒf/ *noun* [C] a situation where you accept something bad in order to have something good *There's always **a trade-off between** speed and quality.*

trader /ˈtreɪdəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** a person who buys and sells things *His father was a market trader.* **2** a person who buys and sells company shares or money *a currency/futures trader*

tradesman /ˈtreɪdzmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **tradesmen** *UK* someone who works in trade or in a trade which needs skill in using their hands, usually in the building industry

ˌ**trade** ˈ**surplus** *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** a situation in which the value of goods that a country sells to other countries is bigger than the value of goods it buys from other countries, or the size of this difference

ˌ**trade** ˈ**union** (*also US* **labor union**) *noun* [C] **POLITICS** an organization that represents people who do a particular job

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tradition***

break with/follow/revive/uphold a tradition ● an **ancient/old/proud/rich/strong** tradition

O-➡ **tradition** /trəˈdɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **SOCIETY** a custom or way of behaving that has continued for a long time in a group of people or a society *There is a **strong tradition** of dance in St Petersburg.* ○ *We decided to **break with tradition*** (= not behave as usual) *this year and go away for Christmas.*

O-➡ **traditional** /trəˈdɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** following the customs or ways of behaving that have continued in a group of people or society for a long time *traditional Hungarian dress* ○ *traditional farming methods* ●**traditionally** *adverb*

traditionalist /trəˈdɪʃᵊnᵊlɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who believes in traditional ideas and ways of doing things

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***traffic***

reduce/ease/divert/slow down traffic ● **bad/heavy** traffic ● be **stuck in** traffic ● a traffic **accident**

O-➡ **traffic** /ˈtræfɪk/ *noun* [U] **1** CARS ETC the cars, trucks, etc using a road ***Traffic is heavy*** (= there are a lot of cars, etc) *in both directions.* ○ *a **traffic accident*** ○ *Sorry we're late - we got **stuck in traffic**.* **2** PLANES AND SHIPS the planes or ships moving around an area *air traffic control* **3** **LAW** the illegal buying and selling of goods, such as drugs, weapons, etc *the **traffic in** illegal drugs*

ˈ**traffic** ˌ**circle** *US* (*UK* **roundabout**) *noun* [C] a circular place where roads meet and where cars drive around until they arrive at the road that they want to turn into

ˈ**traffic** ˌ**jam** *noun* [C] a line of cars, trucks, etc that are moving slowly or not moving at all *They got stuck in a traffic jam.*

trafficking /ˈtræfɪkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **LAW** the activity of illegally buying and selling goods, such as drugs or weapons ***arms/drug trafficking*** ●**trafficker** *noun* [C]

ˈ**traffic** ˌ**light** *noun* (*also* **lights** [**plural**]) a set of red, green, and yellow lights that is used to

T

stop and start traffic [usually plural] *Turn left at the traffic lights.*

ˈtraffic ˌwarden *noun* [C] *UK* someone whose job is to make sure that people do not leave their cars in illegal places

tragedy /ˈtrædʒədi/ *noun* **1** SAD EVENT [C, U] an event or situation which is very sad, often involving death *the tragedy of their daughter's death* **2** **LITERATURE** [C] a play with a sad end *a Greek tragedy*

tragic /ˈtrædʒɪk/ *adjective* very sad, often relating to death and suffering ***a tragic accident/death*** ●**tragically** *adverb He was tragically killed in a flying accident at the age of 25.*

trail¹ /treɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** SIGNS a line of marks that someone or something leaves behind as they move *He left a trail of muddy footprints across the kitchen floor.* **2** PATH a path through the countryside, often where people walk ***a nature trail***

trail² /treɪl/ *verb* **1** FOLLOW [T] to follow someone, especially without them knowing, in order to watch or catch them *He suspected he was being trailed by undercover police.* **2** HANG DOWN [I, T] *UK* to hang down and touch the ground, or to make something do this *Your coat's trailing in the mud.* **3** LOWER SCORE [I, T] to have a lower score than someone else, especially in a sporting event *City were trailing United 2-1 at half time.*
trail away/off *phrasal verb* If someone's voice trails away or off, it gradually becomes quieter until it stops.

trailer /ˈtreɪlər/ *noun* [C] **1** CONTAINER a container with wheels that can be pulled by a car or a truck **2** HOUSE *mainly US* a house on wheels which can be pulled by a car **3** FILM short parts of a film or television programme which are shown in order to advertise it

ˈtrailer ˌpark *noun* [C] *US* a place where trailers (= vehicles that people live in) can park

train¹ /treɪn/ *noun* **1** [C] a long, thin vehicle which travels along metal tracks and carries people or goods *a train journey* ○ *We could go **by train**.* ○ *You'll have to **catch/get** the next **train**.* **2** **train of thought/events** a series of connected thoughts, ideas, or events which come or happen one after the other *I was interrupted and lost my train of thought.*

train² /treɪn/ *verb* **1** **EDUCATION** [T] to teach someone how to do something, usually a skill that is needed for a job *We are **training** all our staff **in** how to use the new computer system.* [+ **to do sth**] *The aid workers trained local people to give the injections.* **2** **EDUCATION** [I] to learn the skills you need to do a job *He **trained as** a lawyer in Vienna.* ○ *I'm **trained in** basic first aid.* **3** **SPORT** [I, T] to practise a sport or exercise, often in order to prepare for a sporting event, or to help someone to do this *He's been training hard for the race for several weeks now.*

trainee /ˌtreɪˈniː/ *noun* [C] someone who is learning how to do something, especially a job *a trainee accountant/teacher*

trainer /ˈtreɪnər/ *noun* [C] **1** PERSON someone who trains people *a fitness trainer* **2** **SPORT** a person who trains animals *a racehorse trainer* **3** SHOE *UK* (*US* **sneaker**) a soft sports shoe *a pair of trainers* ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***training***

have/receive/undergo training ● **give** sb / **provide** training ● training **in/on** sth ● a training **course/day/programme/session**

training /ˈtreɪnɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** **EDUCATION** the process of learning the skills you need to do a particular job or activity *a **training course*** ○ *management training* **2** **SPORT** preparation for a sport or competition *weight training* ○ *He's **in training** for the big match next month.*

trait /treɪt/ *noun* [C] a quality, good or bad, in someone's character *a family trait*

traitor /ˈtreɪtər/ *noun* [C] someone who is not loyal to their country or to a group which they are a member of

trajectory /trəˈdʒektəri/ *noun* [C] *formal* **PHYSICS** the curved line that something follows as it moves through the air

tram /træm/ *noun* [C] an electric vehicle for carrying passengers, mostly in cities, which moves along metal lines in the road

tramp¹ /træmp/ *noun* [C] someone who has no home, job, or money and who lives outside

tramp² /træmp/ *verb* [I, T] to walk a long way, or to walk with heavy steps because you are tired *We spent all day tramping around the city looking for somewhere cheap to stay.*

trample /ˈtræmpl/ (*also* **trample on**) *verb* [T] to walk on something, usually damaging or hurting it *She shouted at the boys for trampling on her flowers.* ○ *Two people were **trampled to death** in the panic.*

trampoline /ˈtræmpəliːn/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a piece of sports equipment that you jump up and down on, made of a metal structure with a piece of strong material fixed to it

trance /trɑːns/ *noun* [C] a condition in which you are not completely conscious of what is happening around you or able to control what you are doing *He sat staring out of the window as if **in a trance**.*

tranquil /ˈtræŋkwɪl/ *adjective* calm and quiet *a tranquil garden* ●**tranquility** (*also* **tranquillity**) /træŋˈkwɪləti/ *noun* [U] *I love the tranquility of the woods.*

tranquilizer (*also UK* **-iser**) /ˈtræŋkwɪˌlaɪzər/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a drug which is used to make people or animals sleep or to make them calm

trans- /trænsˈ, trænzˈ/ *prefix* **1** ACROSS across *transatlantic flights* **2** CHANGE showing a change *to transform* ○ *to translate*

transaction /trænˈzækʃən/ *noun* [C] *formal* **FINANCE** when someone buys or sells something, or when money is exchanged *a **business/financial transaction***

transatlantic /ˌtrænzətˈlæntɪk/ *adjective* crossing the Atlantic *a **transatlantic flight**/phone call*

transcend /trænˈsend/ *verb* [T] *formal* to be better or more important than something else *Somehow her appeal transcends class barriers.*

transcribe /trænˈskraɪb/ *verb* [T] **LANGUAGE** to make a written record of something you hear,

such as speech or music *I later transcribed the tapes of the interviews.* ●**transcription** /trænˈskrɪpʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a written record of speech, music, etc, or the process of making it

transcript /ˈtrænskrɪpt/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE an exact written record of speech, music, etc

transducer /trænzˈdjuː.səʳ/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS an electronic device that changes one form of energy into another, such as a microphone, which changes sound waves into electrical signals

transfer /trænsˈfɜːʳ/ *verb* **transferring**, *past* **transferred** **1** MOVE [T] to move someone or something from one place to another *She was later* ***transferred to*** *a different hospital.* ○ *I'll* ***transfer*** *some money* ***into*** *my other account.* **2** SPORT [I, T] to change to a different job, team, place of work, etc, or to make someone do this *After a year he* ***transferred to*** *University College, Dublin.* **3** CHANGE OWNER [T] to change who owns or controls something *We had all the documents transferred to my name.* ●**transfer** /ˈtrænsfɜːʳ/ *noun* [C, U] *I'm hoping for a transfer to the Brussels office.*

transfixed /trænsˈfɪkst/ *adjective* unable to move or stop looking at something because you are so interested, surprised, or frightened *We all sat in silence, transfixed by what we saw on the screen.*

transform /trænsˈfɔːm/ *verb* [T] to change something completely, usually to improve it *Within weeks they had* ***transformed*** *the area* ***into*** *a beautiful garden.* ●**transformation** /ˌtrænsfəˈmeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] a complete change *The company has* ***undergone*** *a dramatic* ***transformation*** *in the past five years.*

transformer /trænsˈfɔːməʳ/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a piece of equipment that changes the strength of an electrical current

transfusion /trænsˈfjuːʒᵊn/ (*also* **blood transfusion**) *noun* [C] HEALTH when blood is put into someone's body

transgress /trænzˈgres/ *verb* [I, T] *formal* to do something which is against a law or rule ●**transgression** /trænzˈgreʃᵊn/ *noun* [C]

transient¹ /ˈtrænziənt/ *adjective formal* **1** TEMPORARY lasting only for a short time *transient pleasures* **2** SOCIETY staying in one place only for a short time

transient² /ˈtrænziənt/ *noun* [C] *US* SOCIETY someone who has no home and stays in a place for only a short time

transistor /trænˈzɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] PHYSICS a small piece of electrical equipment used in radios, televisions, etc

transit /ˈtrænsɪt/ *noun* [U] *formal* the movement of goods or people from one place to another *Some things got damaged* ***in transit.***

transition /trænˈzɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when something changes from one system or method to another, often gradually *The country is in the process of* ***making the transition from*** *military rule* ***to*** *democracy.* ●**transitional** *adjective* ***a transitional period/phase*** ○ ***a transitional government***

tranˈsition ˌmetal (*also* **tranˈsition ˌelement**) *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY any of a group of metals, including iron and gold, which are heavy, melt at high temperatures and show more than one valency (= number of hydrogen atoms that can combine with one of its atoms to form a compound)

transitive /ˈtrænsətɪv/ *adjective* LANGUAGE A transitive verb always has an object. In the sentence 'I'll make a drink.', 'make' is a transitive verb. ➲See Extra help page **Verb patterns** on page Centre 25. ➲Compare **intransitive**

transitory /ˈtrænsɪtᵊri/ *adjective formal* lasting only for a short time

translate /trænzˈleɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** LANGUAGE to change written or spoken words from one language to another *The book has now been* ***translated from*** *Spanish* ***into*** *more than ten languages.* **2** *formal* If an idea or plan translates into an action, it makes it happen. *So how does this theory* ***translate into*** *practical policy?*

translation /trænzˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] LANGUAGE something which has been translated from one language to another, or the process of translating

translator /trænzˈleɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE someone whose job is to change written or spoken words from one language to another

translocation /ˌtrænzləʊˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] **1** BIOLOGY when one part of a chromosome (= part of a cell that controls what an animal or plant is like) moves to another part of the same chromosome or to a different chromosome **2** BIOLOGY the way the substances a plant needs to live and grow are carried through it in a liquid

translucent /trænzˈluːsᵊnt/ *adjective* If something is translucent, light can pass through it and you can almost see through it. *translucent fabric*

transmission /trænzˈmɪʃᵊn/ *noun* **1** PHYSICS [C, U] the process of broadcasting something by radio, television, etc, or something which is broadcast *radio/satellite transmission* **2** HEALTH [U] *formal* the process of passing something from one person or place to another *There is still a risk of transmission of the virus through infected water.* **3** CAR [U] the system in a car that moves power from its engine to its wheels *automatic/manual transmission*

transmit /trænzˈmɪt/ *verb* [T] **transmitting**, *past* **transmitted** **1** PHYSICS to broadcast something, or to send out signals using radio, television, etc [**often passive**] *The information is transmitted electronically to the central computer.* **2** HEALTH *formal* to pass something from one person or place to another *The* ***disease*** *is* ***transmitted*** *by mosquitoes.* ●**transmitter** *noun* [C] *a radio/television transmitter*

transparency /trænˈspærᵊnsi/ *noun* [C] a photograph or picture printed on plastic which you can see on a screen by shining a light through it

transparent /trænˈspærᵊnt/ *adjective* If a substance or material is transparent, you can see through it. *transparent plastic*

transpiration /ˌtrænspɪˈreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY the process by which water is lost

T

through the surface of a plant ➲See picture at **potometer** ➲See picture at **water cycle**

transpire /trænˈspaɪəʳ/ *verb formal* **1 It transpires that** If it transpires that something has happened, this fact becomes known. *It later transpired that he had known about the plan from the beginning.* **2** [I] to happen **3 BIOLOGY** When a plant transpires, it loses water through its surfaces.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***transplant***

have/perform/undergo a transplant ● a transplant **donor/operation/patient/surgeon**

transplant /ˈtrænsplɑːnt/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an operation in which a new organ is put into someone's body *a heart/kidney transplant* ●**transplant** /trænˈsplɑːnt/ *verb* [T] to remove an organ or other body part from one person and put it into someone else's body

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***transport***

provide/arrange/improve transport ● **free/cheap** transport ● **public** transport ● the transport **system**

transport¹ /ˈtrænspɔːt/ *noun* [U] **1** VEHICLES a vehicle or system of vehicles, such as buses, trains, aircraft, etc for getting from one place to another *He can't drive so he has to rely on* ***public transport***. ○ *the city's* ***transport system*** **2** PEOPLE/GOODS when people or goods are moved from one place to another *the transport of live animals*

transport² /trænˈspɔːt/ *verb* [T] to move people or goods from one place to another

transportation /ˌtrænspɔːˈteɪʃʰn/ *noun* [U] **1** VEHICLES *US* (*UK* **transport**) a vehicle or system of vehicles, such as buses, trains, etc for getting from one place to another **2** PEOPLE/GOODS when people or goods are moved from one place to another *transportation costs*

transverse /trænzˈvɜːs/ *adjective* **MATHEMATICS** in a position or direction that is at an angle of 90° to something else

ˌtransverse ˈwave *noun* [C] **PHYSICS** in physics, a wave moving at a 90° angle to the vibrations (= fast movements backwards and forwards) of the particles of the substance through which it is moving ➲Compare **longitudinal wave**

transvestite /trænzˈvestaɪt/ *noun* [C] someone, especially a man, who likes to wear the clothes of someone of the opposite sex

trap¹ /træp/ *noun* [C] **1** CATCHING ANIMALS a piece of equipment for catching animals *a mouse trap* **2** SITUATION a dangerous or unpleasant situation which is difficult to escape from [**usually singular**] *Such families* ***get caught in*** *the poverty* ***trap***. ➲See also: **booby trap**

trap² /træp/ *verb* [T] **trapping**, *past* **trapped 1** CANNOT ESCAPE If someone or something is trapped, they cannot move or escape from a place or situation. *The car turned over, trapping the driver underneath.* **2** ANIMAL to catch an animal using a trap **3** TRICK to trick someone into doing or saying something that they do not want to

ˌtrap ˈdoor *noun* [C] a small door that you cannot see in a floor or ceiling

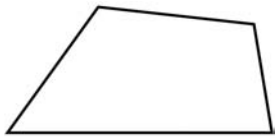

trapezium UK, trapezoid US

trapezium /trəˈpiːziəm/ *noun* [C] **1 MATHEMATICS** *UK* a flat shape with four sides, where two of the sides are parallel **2 MATHEMATICS** *US* a trapezoid

trapezoid /ˈtræpɪzɔɪd/g *noun* [C] **1 MATHEMATICS** *UK* a shape with four sides of different lengths, none of which are parallel **2 MATHEMATICS** *US* a trapezium

trappings /ˈtræpɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] things that you usually get when you are rich and successful, such as a big house and car *the trappings of success/power*

trash¹ /træʃ/ *noun* [U] **1** WASTE *US* (*UK* **rubbish**) things that you throw away because you do not want them **2** BAD *informal* something that is of bad quality *It's better than the trash she usually reads.*

trash² /træʃ/ *verb* [T] *informal* to destroy something *Vandals broke in and trashed the place.*

ˈtrash ˌcan *noun* [C] *US* a container for waste, often one that is kept outdoors ➲See colour picture **The Office** on page Centre 5

trashy /ˈtræʃi/ *adjective informal* of very bad quality *a trashy novel/movie*

trauma /ˈtrɔːmə/ *noun* [C, U] severe shock caused by an unpleasant experience, or the experience which causes this feeling *the trauma of marriage breakdown*

traumatic /trɔːˈmætɪk/ *adjective* If an experience is traumatic, it makes you feel very shocked and upset. *His parents split up when he was eight, which he found very traumatic.*

traumatized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈtrɔːmətaɪzd/ *adjective* **HEALTH** very shocked and upset for a long time *The violence that he witnessed left him traumatized.*

travel¹ /ˈtrævʰl/ *verb UK* **travelling**, *past* **travelled**, *US* **traveling**, *past* **traveled 1** MAKE A JOURNEY [I, T] to make a journey *I spent a year travelling around Asia.* ○ *He has to travel abroad a lot on business.* **2** MOVE [I] If light, sound, or news travels, it moves from one place to another. *News of the accident travelled fast.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **move**

travel² /ˈtrævʰl/ *noun* **1** [U] the activity of travelling *air/rail travel* ○ ***travel expenses/insurance*** **2 sb's travels** someone's journey *I meet all kinds of interesting people* ***on my travels***.

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

travel, journey, or trip?

The noun **travel** is a general word which means the activity of travelling.

Air travel has become much cheaper.

Use **journey** to talk about when you travel from one place to another.

He fell asleep during the train journey.

Did you have a good journey?

~~*Did you have a good travel?*~~

A **trip** is a journey in which you visit a place for a short time and come back again.

a business trip

a 3-day trip to Spain

ˈtravel ˌagency (*also* **ˈtravel ˌagent's**) *noun* [C] a company or shop that makes travel arrangements for people

ˈtravel ˌagent *noun* [C] someone whose job is making travel arrangements for people

ˈtravel ˌcard *noun* [C] a ticket that can be used for several journeys or for a particular length of time in an area

traveller /ˈtrævᵊlər/ *noun* [C] **1** (*also US* **traveler**) someone who is travelling or who often travels *We're doing a survey of business travellers.* **2** **SOCIETY** *UK another word for* gypsy (= a member of a race of people who travel from place to place, especially in Europe)

ˈtraveller's ˌcheque *UK* (*US* **traveler's check**) *noun* [C] **FINANCE** a special piece of paper which you buy at a bank and exchange for local money when you are in another country

traverse /trəˈvɜːs/ *verb* [T] *formal* to move across something

travesty /ˈtrævəsti/ *noun* [C] *formal* If something is a travesty, it is very badly done or unfair and does not represent how that thing should be. *She described the trial as* ***a travesty of justice***.

trawl /trɔːl/ *verb*
trawl through sth *phrasal verb mainly UK* to look through a lot of things in order to find something *to trawl through data*

trawler /ˈtrɔːlər/ *noun* [C] a large ship which is used for catching fish by pulling a large net through the sea behind it

tray /treɪ/ *noun* [C] a flat object with higher edges, used for carrying food and drinks *She came back carrying a tray of drinks.*

treacherous /ˈtretʃᵊrəs/ *adjective* **1** DANGEROUS very dangerous, especially because of bad weather conditions *Ice had made the roads treacherous.* **2** NOT LOYAL *formal* If someone is treacherous, they deceive people who trust them.

treachery /ˈtretʃᵊri/ *noun* [U] *formal* when a person deceives someone who trusts them

treacle /ˈtriːkl/ *UK* (*UK/US* **molasses**) *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sweet, thick, dark liquid used in sweet dishes

tread¹ /tred/ *verb past tense* **trod**, *past participle* **trodden** **1** [I, T] *mainly UK* to put your foot on something or to press something down with your foot *I* ***trod on*** *a piece of broken glass.* ○ *David* ***trod in*** *some paint.* ○ *The kids were* ***treading*** *cake crumbs* ***into*** *the carpet.* **2** **tread carefully/gently/lightly, etc** to be careful what you say so that you do not upset someone **3** **tread water** to float vertically in the water by moving your arms and legs up and down

tread² /tred/ *noun* **1** TYRE [C, U] the pattern of lines on the surface of a tyre **2** STEP [**no plural**] the sound of someone putting their feet down when walking

treadmill /ˈtredmɪl/ *noun* [C] **1** **SPORT** a machine with a moving part which you walk or run on for exercise **2** a job which is boring because you have to repeat the same thing again and again

treason /ˈtriːzᵊn/ *noun* [U] **LAW, POLITICS** the crime of doing something that harms your country or government, especially by helping its enemies

treasure¹ /ˈtreʒər/ *noun* **1** GOLD/JEWELLERY [U] a collection of gold, silver, jewellery and valuable objects, especially in children's stories *buried treasure* **2** VALUABLE OBJECT [C] a very valuable object [**usually plural**] *art treasures*

treasure² /ˈtreʒər/ *verb* [T] If you treasure something, it is very important to you and gives you a lot of pleasure. *I shall treasure those memories of her.*

treasurer /ˈtreʒᵊrər/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** someone who is responsible for the money of an organization

treasury /ˈtreʒᵊri/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS, ECONOMICS** the government department which controls a country's money supply and economy

O-M **treat¹** /triːt/ *verb* [T] **1** DEAL WITH to behave towards or deal with someone in a particular way *He* ***treats*** *her really* ***badly***. ○ *She felt she'd been* ***unfairly treated*** *by her employer.* ○ *They* ***treat*** *her* ***like*** *one of their own children.* **2** CONSIDER to consider something in a particular way *He* ***treated*** *my suggestion* ***as*** *a joke.* **3** **HEALTH** to give medical care to someone for an illness or injury *He's being* ***treated for*** *cancer at a hospital in Manchester.* **4** SPECIAL to do or buy something special for someone *I'm going to* ***treat*** *her* ***to*** *dinner at that nice Italian restaurant.* **5** PROTECT to put a substance on something in order to protect it *The wood is then* ***treated with*** *a special chemical to protect it from the rain.*

treat² /triːt/ *noun* [C] something special which you buy or do for someone else *a* ***birthday treat*** ○ *As a* ***special treat*** *I'm taking him out for dinner.* ○ *Annie, put your money away, this is* ***my treat*** (= I am paying). ➲See also: **Trick or treat!**

treatise /ˈtriːtɪz/ *noun* [C] a formal piece of writing that examines a particular subject

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***treatment***

get/have/receive/undergo treatment ● **give/provide** treatment ● **respond to** treatment ● treatment **for** sth

O-M **treatment** /ˈtriːtmənt/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH** [C, U] something which you do to try to cure an illness or injury, especially something suggested or done by a doctor *She's* ***receiving treatment*** *for a lung infection.* **2** [U] the way you deal with or behave towards someone or something *There have been complaints about the treatment of prisoners.*

T

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***treaty***

draw up/ratify/sign a treaty ● the **terms of** a treaty ● **under** a treaty ● a treaty **between** sb and sb ● a treaty **on** sth ● a **peace** treaty ● an **international** treaty

treaty /ˈtriːti/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a written agreement between two or more countries *a **peace treaty*** ○ *an **international treaty***

treble /ˈtrebl/ *verb* [I, T] to increase three times in size or amount, or to make something do this

tree /triː/ *noun* [C] a tall plant with a thick stem which has branches coming from it and leaves ➲See also: **Christmas tree, family tree, palm tree**

trek /trek/ *noun* [C] a long, difficult journey that you make by walking *They started out on the long trek across the mountains.* ●**trek** *verb* [I] **trekking**, *past* **trekked**

trellis /ˈtrelɪs/ *noun* [C] a wooden structure fixed to a wall for plants to grow up

tremble /ˈtrembl/ *verb* [I] to shake slightly, especially because you are nervous, frightened, or cold *My hands were trembling so much I could hardly hold the pen.*

tremendous /trɪˈmendəs/ *adjective* **1** GOOD extremely good *I think she's doing a tremendous job.* **2** LARGE very large, great, strong, etc *a tremendous amount of money* ●**tremendously** *adverb* very much

tremor /ˈtremər/ *noun* [C] **1** **GEOLOGY** a slight earthquake (= when the Earth shakes) **2** a slight shaking of part of your body which you cannot control

trench /trenʃ/ *noun* [C] a long, narrow hole dug into the ground

trenchant /ˈtrenʃənt/ *adjective formal* expressing strong criticism ***trenchant criticism/views***

trenchcoat /ˈtrentʃˌkəʊt/ *noun* [C] a long coat that does not let water through, similar in style to a military coat

trend /trend/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a general development or change in a situation *There's a **trend towards** more locally produced television programmes.* ○ *I'm not familiar with the latest **trends in** teaching methodology.*

trendy /ˈtrendi/ *adjective informal* fashionable at the moment

trepidation /ˌtrepɪˈdeɪʃən/ *noun* [U] *formal* fear or worry about something you are going to do *It was **with trepidation** that I accepted Klein's invitation.*

trespass /ˈtrespəs/ *verb* [I] **LAW** to go on someone's land without their permission ●**trespasser** *noun* [C]

tri- /traɪ-/ *prefix* three *a triangle* ○ *a tripod*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trial***

be on/stand trial (**for** sth) ● **be awaiting/be facing** trial ● a trial **court/date/judge**

trial /traɪəl/ *noun* [C, U] **1** **LAW** a legal process to decide if someone is guilty of a crime *The two men are now **on trial for** attempted murder.* ○ *He will be taken to the US to **stand trial**.* **2** TEST a test of something new to find out if it is safe, works correctly, etc *The drug is currently undergoing **clinical trials**.* **3** **trial and error** a way of learning the best way to do something by trying different methods

ˈtrial ˌbalance *noun* **FINANCE** a list of how much a business has in its accounts that is produced on a particular date to check that the business's double entry bookkeeping accounts do not have mistakes

trials /traɪəlz/ *noun* [plural] **1** **SPORT** a sports competition to find out how good a player is **2** **trials and tribulations** problems and suffering *the trials and tribulations of growing up*

triangle /ˈtraɪæŋgl/ *noun* [C] **1** a flat shape with three sides ➲See picture at shape **2** **MUSIC** a small musical instrument made of a piece of metal with three sides which you hit with a metal bar ●**triangular** /traɪˈæŋgjələr/ *adjective* shaped like a triangle

Triassic /traɪˈæsɪk/ *adjective* **GEOLOGY** from the period of time between around 245 and 208 million years ago, in which dinosaurs first appeared *the Triassic period*

triathlon /traɪˈæθlɒn/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** a competition in which you must swim, ride a bicycle and run a particular distance without stopping between these activities

tribe /traɪb/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a group of people who live together, usually in areas far away from cities, and who share the same culture and language and still have a traditional way of life *Native American tribes* ●**tribal** *adjective* relating to a tribe *a tribal dance*

tribulations /ˌtrɪbjəˈleɪʃənz/ *noun* [plural] ➲See: **trials** and tribulations

tribunal /traɪˈbjuːnəl/ *noun* [C] **LAW** an official court or group of people whose job is to deal with a particular problem or disagreement ➲See also: **industrial tribunal**

tributary /ˈtrɪbjətəri/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a river or stream which flows into a larger river

tribute /ˈtrɪbjuːt/ *noun* [C, U] **1** something which you do or say to show that you respect and admire someone, especially in a formal situation *The concert was organized as **a tribute to** the singer who died last year.* ○ *The President **paid tribute to*** (= expressed his admiration for) *the brave soldiers who had defended the country.* **2** **be a tribute to sb/sth** to show how good someone or something is *It's a tribute to Mark's hard work that the project is finished.*

ˈtribute ˌband *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a group of musicians who play the music of a famous pop group and pretend to be that group *a Rolling Stones tribute band*

triceps /ˈtraɪseps/ *noun* [C] *plural* **triceps** **ANATOMY** the large muscle at the back of the upper arm

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trick***

play a trick (on sb) ● a **cheap/cruel/dirty/sneaky** trick ● a trick **question**

trick[1] /trɪk/ *noun* [C] **1** DECEIVE something you do to deceive or cheat someone, or to make someone look stupid as a joke *a **trick question*** ○ *I*

wasn't really ill - it was just a trick. ○ *My little brother liked to* ***play tricks on*** *me* (= do things to deceive me as a joke). **2** METHOD an effective way of doing something *What's the* ***trick to*** *pulling out this sofa bed?* **3** MAGIC something that is done to entertain people and that seems to be magic *a card trick* **4 do the trick** If something does the trick, it solves a problem or has the result you want. *If I've got a headache, a couple of aspirins usually do the trick.* ➲See also: **hat trick**

trick² /trɪk/ *verb* [T] to deceive someone [+ **into** + **doing sth**] *They tricked him into signing the papers.*

trickery /ˈtrɪkᵊri/ *noun* [U] the use of tricks to deceive or cheat people

trickle /ˈtrɪkl/ *verb* **1 trickle down/from/out of, etc** If liquid trickles somewhere, it flows slowly and in a thin line. *She could feel the sweat trickling down her back.* **2 trickle in/into/out, etc** to go somewhere slowly in small numbers *People began to trickle into the classroom.* ●**trickle** *noun* [C] *a trickle of blood*

ˌTrick or ˈtreat! **1** something that children say on Halloween (= a holiday on 31 October), when they dress to look frightening and visit people's houses to ask for sweets **2 go trick or treating** If children go trick or treating, they visit people's houses on Halloween to ask for sweets.

tricky /ˈtrɪki/ *adjective* difficult to deal with or do *a* ***tricky question/situation***

tricuspid valve /traɪˈkʌspɪdˌvælv/ *noun* [**C usually singular**] ANATOMY the valve (= part that opens and closes) in the heart which stops blood from returning into the right atrium (= upper space) from the right ventricle (= lower space) ➲Compare **mitral valve** ➲See picture at **heart**

tricycle /ˈtraɪsɪkl/ *noun* [C] a bicycle with one wheel at the front and two at the back

trifle /ˈtraɪfl/ *noun* **1 a trifle** *formal* slightly *It does seem a trifle odd.* **2** FOOD [C, U] *UK* a cold, sweet dish that has layers of cake, fruit, custard (= sweet, yellow sauce), and cream **3** [C] *formal* something silly or unimportant

trigger¹ /ˈtrɪgəʳ/ (*also* **trigger off**) *verb* [T] to make something begin to happen *His arrest triggered mass protests.*

trigger² /ˈtrɪgəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** GUN the part of a gun that you pull when you shoot **2** CAUSE an event or situation that makes something else happen *Stress can be a* ***trigger for*** *many illnesses.*

trigonometry /ˌtrɪgəˈnɒmətri/ *noun* [U] MATHEMATICS the type of mathematics that deals with the relationship between the angles and sides of triangles, used in measuring the height of buildings, mountains, etc

trillion /ˈtrɪljən/ the number 1,000,000,000,000

trilogy /ˈtrɪlədʒi/ *noun* [C] a series of three books, plays, etc with the same characters or subject

trim¹ /trɪm/ *verb* [T] **trimming**, *past* **trimmed** **1** CUT (*also* **trim off**) to cut a small amount from something to make it tidy or to remove parts that you do not need *I've had my hair trimmed.* ○ *Trim the fat off the meat.* **2** REDUCE to reduce something *to trim costs* **3 be trimmed with sth** to be decorated with something around the edges *a silk dress trimmed with lace*

trim² /trɪm/ *noun* **1** CUT [**no plural**] when you cut something to make it tidy *The hedge needs a trim.* **2** DECORATION [**U, no plural**] decoration that is added to something such as clothes or a car *The car has a stereo, sunroof, and leather trim.*

trim³ /trɪm/ *adjective* looking thin and healthy

trimaran /ˈtraɪmərǽn/ *noun* [C] a small fast sailing boat with three hulls (= the part of the boat that floats on the water)

trimester /trɪˈmestəʳ/ (US) /traɪˈmestər/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* EDUCATION one of the periods of time that the school or university year is divided into

trimming /ˈtrɪmɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] decoration on the edge of something such as a piece of clothing

trimmings /ˈtrɪmɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] FOOD extra dishes that are often eaten with a main dish *a roast dinner* ***with all the trimmings***

trinitrotoluene /ˌtraɪnaɪtrəʊˈtɒljuːn/ (*abbreviation* **TNT**) *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a powerful explosive substance

the Trinity /ˈtrɪnəti/ *noun* RELIGION the existence of God in three forms, Father, Son, and Holy Spirit, in the Christian religion

trio /ˈtriːəʊ/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a group of three things or people, especially three musicians who play together

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trip***

go on/take a trip ● a **day/two-day/weekend** trip ● **on** a trip ● a trip **around/to** sth ● a **business** trip

O-key **trip¹** /trɪp/ *noun* [C] a journey in which you visit a place for a short time and come back again *a* ***business trip*** ○ *a* ***day trip*** *to Paris* ○ *We might* ***take a trip to*** *Spain later in the summer.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **travel** ➲See also: **round trip**

trip² /trɪp/ *verb* **tripping**, *past* **tripped** **1** FALL [I] to fall or almost fall because you hit your foot on something when you are walking or running *Careful you don't* ***trip over*** *the cat!* ○ *He* ***tripped on*** *a stone and hurt his ankle.* **2** MAKE FALL [T] to make someone fall by putting your foot in front of their foot

trip (sb) up *phrasal verb* **1** FALL *UK* to fall because you hit your foot on something, or to make someone fall by putting your foot in front of their foot **2** MAKE A MISTAKE to make a mistake, or to cause someone to make a mistake *I tripped up on the last question.*

triple¹ /ˈtrɪpl/ *adjective* having three parts of the same type, or happening three times *a triple world champion*

triple² /ˈtrɪpl/ *verb* [I, T] to increase three times in size or amount, or to make something do this *Sales have tripled in the past five years.*

the ˌTriple Alˈliance *noun* POLITICS the agreement of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy to support each other, that lasted from 1882-1914

T

the Triple Entente /ˌtrɪplɒnˈtɒnt/ *noun* POLITICS an agreement in 1907 between the UK, France and Russia to support each other

triplet /ˈtrɪplət/ *noun* [C] one of three children who are born to the same mother at the same time

tripod /ˈtraɪpɒd/ *noun* [C] a piece of equipment with three legs, used for supporting a camera or a container in a science laboratory ➲See picture at **laboratory**

trite /traɪt/ *adjective* A trite remark, idea, etc does not seem sincere or true because it has been used so much before or is too simple.

tritik /trɪˈtiːk/ *noun* [U] DT a method of dyeing (= putting colour on) cloth in which the cloth is folded and sewn so that the dye does not get onto some areas

tritium /ˈtrɪtiəm/ *noun* [U] CHEMISTRY a radioactive isotope (= form of an atom which has a different atomic weight from other forms of the same atom) of hydrogen

triumph¹ /ˈtraɪəmf/ *noun* **1** SUCCESS [C] an important success, achievement, or victory *Barcelona's 2-0 triumph over Manchester United* **2** FEELING [U] the feeling of happiness that you have when you win something or succeed

triumph² /ˈtraɪəmf/ *verb* [I] to win or succeed *The Democrats once again triumphed in recent elections.*

triumphant /traɪˈʌmfənt/ *adjective* feeling very pleased because you have won something or succeeded *the President's triumphant return to the White House* ●**triumphantly** *adverb*

trivia /ˈtrɪviə/ *noun* [U] small facts or details that are not important

trivial /ˈtrɪviəl/ *adjective* small and not important *a **trivial matter/offence***

trivialize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈtrɪviəlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to make something seem less important or serious than it really is *I don't mean to trivialize the problem.*

trochee /ˈtrəʊkiː/ *noun* [C] LITERATURE a rhythm in poetry with one long or strong syllable and one short or weak syllable

trod /trɒd/ *past tense of* tread

trodden /ˈtrɒdən/ *past participle of* tread

trojan (horse) /ˌtrəʊdʒənˈhɔːs/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer program that looks useful but does harm, often by allowing other people to get into a computer system

trolley /ˈtrɒli/ *noun* [C] **1** CARRYING THINGS *UK* (*US* **cart**) a metal structure on wheels that is used for carrying things *a supermarket trolley* ○ *a luggage trolley* **2** CARRYING PEOPLE *US* (*UK/US* **tram**) an electric vehicle for carrying passengers, mostly in cities, which runs along metal tracks in the road **3 off your trolley** *informal* mad

trombone /trɒmˈbəʊn/ *noun* [C] MUSIC a metal musical instrument that you play by blowing into it and sliding a tube up and down

troop¹ /truːp/ *noun* [C] a group of people or animals

troop² /truːp/ *verb informal* **troop into/through/out of, etc** to walk somewhere in a large group *We all trooped into the hall in silence.*

trooper /ˈtruːpər/ *noun* [C] LAW a police officer in the US state police force

troops /truːps/ *noun* [plural] soldiers *UN troops have been sent to help in the rescue effort.*

trophic level /ˌtrɒfɪkˈlevəl/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY any of the layers of an ecosystem with the same position in the food chain

trophy /ˈtrəʊfi/ *noun* [C] a prize, such as a silver cup, that you get for winning a race or competition

tropical /ˈtrɒpɪkəl/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY from or in the hottest parts of the world

ˌtropical ˈrain ˌforest *noun* [C, U] GEOGRAPHY thick forest that grows in hot parts of the world

the tropics /ˈtrɒpɪks/ *noun* [plural] GEOGRAPHY the hottest parts of the world, near to the Equator (= imaginary line around the Earth's middle)

tropism /ˈtrəʊpɪzəm/ *noun* [U] BIOLOGY when living things turn towards or away from something, for example light

the troposphere /ˈtrɒpəsfɪər/ *noun* [no plural] GEOGRAPHY the layer of gases surrounding the Earth from the surface up to about 10 kilometres

trot¹ /trɒt/ *verb* **trotting**, *past* **trotted 1** [I] If a horse trots, it runs slowly with short steps. **2 trot down/up/along, etc** to walk with quick, short steps *The little boy trotted along behind his father.*
trot sth out *phrasal verb informal* to say something that has been said many times before and does not seem sincere *They always trot out the same old statistics.*

trot² /trɒt/ *noun* **1** SPORT [no plural] the speed that a horse moves when it trots **2 on the trot** If you do several things on the trot, you do them one after the other. *They won three games on the trot.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trouble***

have trouble with sth ● **get into/run into** trouble ● the trouble **is** ● **without** any trouble

trouble¹ /ˈtrʌbl/ *noun* **1** PROBLEMS [C, U] problems, difficulties, or worries [+ **doing sth**] *We **had trouble** finding somewhere to park.* ○ *She's been having a lot of **trouble with** her boss recently.* ○ *I'd like to go to the party, but **the trouble is** my parents won't let me.* **2 the trouble with sb/sth** used to say what is wrong with someone or something *The trouble with a white floor is that it gets dirty so quickly.* **3** NOT WORKING [U] a problem that you have with a machine or part of your body *back trouble* ○ ***car trouble*** **4** FIGHTING [U] a situation in which people are fighting or arguing *The trouble started after a group of drunken football fans started to throw bottles.* **5** DIFFICULT SITUATION [U] a difficult or dangerous situation *The company was **in trouble** and had huge debts.* **6** PUNISHMENT [U] when you have done something wrong and are likely to be punished *Her children are always **in trouble**.* ○ *They **got***

into trouble *with the police.* **7** EXTRA WORK [U] when you use extra time or energy to do something [+ **to do sth**] *He* ***took the trouble*** *to write to each of them personally.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

trouble or **problem?**

Problem means 'a situation that causes difficulties and that needs to be dealt with'. You can talk about **a problem** or **problems**.

Tell me what the problem is.

There's a problem with the engine.

He's having a few problems at work.

Trouble means 'problems, difficulties, or worries' and is used to talk about problems in a more general way. **Trouble** is almost always uncountable so do not use the determiner 'a' before it.

We had some trouble while we were on holiday.

He helped me when I was in trouble.

I had trouble with the car last night.

~~*I had a trouble with the car last night.*~~

trouble² /ˈtrʌbl/ *verb* [T] **1** WORRY If something troubles you, you think about it a lot and it makes you worry. *The situation has been troubling me for a while.* **2** FORMAL REQUEST *formal* used to ask someone politely to help you *I'm sorry to trouble you, but could you tell me how to get to the station?*

troubled /ˈtrʌbᵊld/ *adjective* worried or having a lot of problems *You look troubled.*

troublemaker /ˈtrʌblˌmeɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who intentionally causes problems

troublesome /ˈtrʌblsəm/ *adjective* causing a lot of problems, especially over a long period of time *a troublesome knee injury*

trough /trɒf/ *noun* [C] **1** **FARMING** a long, narrow container that animals eat or drink from **2** *formal* a low point in a series of high and low points ***peaks and troughs***

troupe /truːp/ *noun* [C] a group of singers, dancers, etc who perform together

O-key **trousers** /ˈtraʊzəz/ (*also US* **pants**) *noun* [**plural**] a piece of clothing that covers the legs and has a separate part for each leg *a* ***pair of trousers*** ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on pages Centre 8, 9

ˡ**trouser ˌsuit** *UK* (*US* **pant suit**) *noun* [C] a woman's jacket and trousers made of the same material

trout /traʊt/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **trout** **FOOD** a type of river fish, or the meat from this fish

truant /ˈtruːənt/ *noun* [C] **1** **EDUCATION** a child who stays away from school without permission **2** **play truant** *UK* to stay away from school without permission ●**truancy** /ˈtruːənsi/ *noun* [U] when children are truants

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***truce***

agree/call/offer a truce ● a **fragile/uneasy** truce ● a truce **between** sb and sb ● a truce **with** sb

truce /truːs/ *noun* [C] an agreement between two enemies to stop fighting for a period of time

O-key **truck** /trʌk/ (*also UK* **lorry**) *noun* [C] a large road vehicle for carrying goods from place to place

trucker /ˈtrʌkəʳ/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* someone whose job is driving trucks

trudge /trʌdʒ/ *verb* **trudge along/through/up, etc** to walk slowly with heavy steps, especially because you are tired *We trudged back up the hill.*

O-key **true** /truː/ *adjective* **1** NOT FALSE based on facts and not imagined *a true story* [+ **(that)**] *Is it true that Martin and Sue are getting married?* ➲Opposite **untrue** ➲See Common Learner Error at **right** **2** REAL [**always before noun**] real *a true friend* ○ ***true love*** **3** **come true** If a dream or hope comes true, it really happens. **4** **be true to sb/sth** to be loyal and sincere even in a difficult situation *It's important to be true to your principles.* **5** **ring true** to seem to be the truth *Something about the story didn't ring true.*

truffle /ˈtrʌfl/ *noun* [C] **1** **FOOD** a soft sweet that is made with chocolate **2** **FOOD** a fungus (= organism like a plant) that you can eat, which grows under the ground

truly /ˈtruːli/ *adverb* **1** NOT FALSE used to emphasize that something is true in every way *The project was truly a team effort.* **2** VERY used to emphasize a description of something *It's truly amazing to watch a baby being born.* **3** SINCERE used to emphasize that something is sincere or honest *I truly believe that he is innocent.*

trump /trʌmp/ *noun* **1** [C] a card that has a higher value than other cards in some card games **2** **come/turn up trumps** *UK* to be successful, or provide something that is needed, especially when people do not expect you to *He's really come up trumps with this latest book.*

ˡ**trump ˌcard** *noun* [C] an advantage that will help you succeed, especially one that other people do not know about

trumpet /ˈtrʌmpɪt/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a metal musical instrument that you play by blowing into it and pressing buttons to make different notes ●**trumpeter** *noun* [C]

truncheon /ˈtrʌnʃᵊn/ *UK* (*US* **nightstick**) *noun* [C] a short stick that police officers carry to use as a weapon

trundle /ˈtrʌndl/ *verb* **trundle (sth) along/down/up, etc** to move slowly on wheels, or to push something slowly on wheels *The bus trundled along the lane.*

trunk /trʌŋk/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** the thick stem of a tree that the branches grow from **2** CAR *US* (*UK* **boot**) a closed space at the back of a car for storing things in ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7 **3** **BIOLOGY** the long nose of an elephant (= large, grey animal) **4** CONTAINER a large box with a lid that you store things in **5** **ANATOMY** the main part of your body, not your head, legs, or arms

ˡ**trunk ˌroad** *noun* [C] *UK* a main road across a country or area

trunks /trʌŋks/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** (*also* **swimming trunks**) a piece of clothing that boys and men wear when they swim **2** underwear worn by men ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

O-key **trust¹** /trʌst/ *verb* **1** [T] to believe that someone is good and honest and will not harm you *My sister warned me not to trust him.* ➲Opposite

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distrust, mistrust 2 trust sb to do sth to be sure that someone will do the right thing or what they should do *I trust them to make the right decision.* **3 trust sb with sb/sth** to allow someone to look after someone or something because you believe they will be careful *I wouldn't trust him with my car.* **4 Trust sb (to do sth)!** *mainly UK informal* used to say that it is typical of someone to do something stupid *Trust Chris to leave the tickets at home!* **5 I trust (that)** *formal* used to say that you hope something is true *I trust that you had an enjoyable stay.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***trust*** *(noun)*

have/show trust **in** sb ● **earn/gain/win** sb's trust ● **betray** sb's trust ● trust **between** [two people]

trust² /trʌst/ *noun* **1** BELIEF [U] the belief that you can trust someone or something *a marriage based on love and trust* ○ *They **showed** a lot of **trust in** me right from the beginning.* ➲Opposite **distrust, mistrust 2** **FINANCE, LAW** [C, U] a legal arrangement that allows a person or organization to control someone else's money

trustee /trʌs'tiː/ *noun* [C] **LAW** someone who has legal control over someone else's money or possessions

trusting /'trʌstɪŋ/ *adjective* always believing that other people are good or honest and will not harm or deceive you

trustworthy /'trʌstˌwɜːði/ *adjective* Someone who is trustworthy can be trusted.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***truth***

tell the truth ● **discover/find out/learn/uncover** the truth ● the truth **comes out/emerges** ● the **awful/honest/simple** truth ● the truth **about** sb/sth

truth /truːθ/ *noun plural* **truths** /truːðz/ **1 the truth** the real facts about a situation *Do you think he was **telling the truth**?* ○ *I don't think we'll ever know **the truth about** what really happened.* **2** BEING TRUE [U] the quality of being true *There may be some truth in their claim.* **3** TRUE FACT [C] a fact or idea that people accept is true *moral/religious truths* ➲Opposite **untruth**

truthful /'truːθfʳl/ *adjective* honest and not containing or telling any lies *a truthful answer* ●**truthfully** *adverb* ●**truthfulness** *noun* [U]

try¹ /traɪ/ *verb* **1** ATTEMPT [I] to attempt to do something [+ **to do sth**] *I tried to open the window but couldn't.* ○ *Try not to drop anything this time.* **2** TEST [T] to do, test, taste, etc something to discover if it works or if you like it *I tried that recipe you gave me last night.* [+ **doing sth**] *Why don't you try using a different shampoo?* **3** **LAW** [T] to examine facts in a court of law to decide if someone is guilty of a crime [**often passive**] *He was **tried for** attempted murder.*

try sth on *phrasal verb* to put on a piece of clothing to discover if it fits you or if you like it *Could I try this dress on, please?*

try sth out *phrasal verb* to use something to discover if it works or if you like it *We're going to try out that new restaurant tonight.*

try² /traɪ/ *noun* **1** [C] an attempt to do something *She suggested I should **have a try**.* **2 give sth a try** to do something in order to find out if it works or if you like it **3** **SPORT** [C] when a team scores points in rugby (= game played with an oval ball) by putting the ball on the ground behind the other team's goal line

trying /traɪɪŋ/ *adjective* annoying and difficult *I've had a very **trying day/time**.*

trypsin /'trɪpsɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** an enzyme (= chemical substance produced by living cells) that breaks down proteins

tsar *UK* (*UK/US* **czar**) /zɑːʳ/ *noun* [C] **POLITICS 1** a male Russian ruler before 1917 **2** a powerful official who makes important decisions for the government about a particular activity

T-shirt (*also* **tee shirt**) /'tiːʃɜːt/ *noun* [C] a piece of cotton clothing for the top part of the body with short sleeves and no collar ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 8

tsp **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* teaspoonful: the amount that can be held by a small spoon used for measuring food

tsunami /tsuː'nɑːmi/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** an extremely large wave from the sea which causes a lot of damage to buildings, etc. on land and is often caused by an earthquake (= sudden movement of the Earth's surface) under the sea

tub /tʌb/ *noun* [C] **1** LARGE CONTAINER a large, round container with a flat base and an open top *Outside was a stone patio with tubs of flowering plants.* **2** FOOD CONTAINER a small, plastic container with a lid, used for storing food *a tub of ice cream/margarine* **3** BATH *US* (*UK* **bath**) a large container that you fill with water and sit in to wash ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

tuba /'tjuːbə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a large, metal musical instrument that produces low notes, and is played by blowing into it

tube /tjuːb/ *noun* **1** PIPE [C] a pipe made of glass, plastic, metal, etc, especially for liquids or gases to flow through **2** CONTAINER [C] a long, thin container for a soft substance, that you press to get the substance out *a tube of toothpaste* **3 the Tube** the system of railways under the ground in London *I got the Tube to Oxford Circus.* ➲See also: **test tube**

tuber /'tjuːbəʳ/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the round part of a plant such as a potato that grows underground and from which new plants can grow

tuberculosis /tjuːˌbɜːkjə'ləʊsɪs/ (*abbreviation* **TB**) *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious infectious disease of the lungs

tubing /'tjuːbɪŋ/ *noun* [U] a long piece of metal, plastic, etc in the shape of a tube *steel tubing*

tubular /'tjuːbjələʳ/ *adjective* in the shape of a tube

tuck /tʌk/ *verb* **1 tuck sth into/behind/under, etc** to push a loose piece of clothing or material somewhere to make it tidy *Tuck your shirt in.* **2 tuck sth behind/under/in, etc** to put something in a small place so that it is safe and cannot move *I found an old letter tucked in the back of the book.*

tuck sth away *phrasal verb* to put something in a safe place *Helen tucked the money away in her purse.*

be tucked away *phrasal verb* to be in a place that is hidden, or in a place that few people go to *He lives in a cottage tucked away in the Suffolk countryside.*
tuck in/tuck into sth *phrasal verb UK informal* to start eating something, especially with enthusiasm *I was just about to tuck into a huge bowl of pasta.*
tuck sb in/up *phrasal verb* to make someone, especially a child, comfortable in bed by putting the covers around them

Tuesday /ˈtjuːzdeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Tue, Tues**) *noun* [**C, U**] the day of the week after Monday and before Wednesday

tuft /tʌft/ *noun* [**C**] a small group of hairs, grass, etc

tug¹ /tʌg/ *verb* [**T**] **tugging**, *past* **tugged** to pull something suddenly and strongly *Tom **tugged at** his mother's arm.*

tug² /tʌg/ *noun* [**C**] **1** PULL a sudden, strong pull on something **2** BOAT (*also* **tugboat** /ˈtʌgbəʊt/) a boat used for pulling larger ships

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tuition***

get/be given/offer/receive tuition ● **expert** tuition ● **individual/one-to-one/private** tuition ● tuition **in** sth

tuition /tjuˈɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] **1 EDUCATION** the teaching of one person or of a small group of people *French tuition* **2 EDUCATION** *mainly US* money that you pay for being taught, especially at college or university

tulip /ˈtjuːlɪp/ *noun* [**C**] a brightly coloured spring flower in the shape of a cup

tumble /ˈtʌmbl/ *verb* [**I**] **1** FALL to suddenly fall *He **tumbled down** the stairs.* **2** BECOME LOWER If the price or value of something tumbles, it suddenly becomes lower. *Share prices tumbled by 20%.* ●**tumble** *noun* [**C**]

ˌtumble ˈdryer *UK* (*US* **dryer**) *noun* [**C**] a machine that dries clothes

tumbler /ˈtʌmblə˞/ *noun* [**C**] a glass that you drink out of, that has straight sides and no handle

tummy /ˈtʌmi/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* stomach

tumour *UK* (*US* **tumor**) /ˈtjuːmə˞/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a group of cells in someone's body which are not growing normally

tumultuous /tjuːˈmʌltjuəs/ *adjective* full of noise and excitement ***tumultuous applause*** ○ ***a tumultuous reception/welcome***

tuna /ˈtjuːnə/ *noun* [**C, U**] *plural* **tuna** **FOOD** a large sea fish, or the meat from this fish

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***tune***

hum/play/sing/whistle a tune ● a **catchy** tune

tune¹ /tjuːn/ *noun* **1 MUSIC** [**C**] a series of musical notes that are pleasant to listen to *He was **humming a tune** as he dried the dishes.* **2 in tune** **MUSIC** singing or playing the right notes **3 out of tune** **MUSIC** singing or playing the wrong notes *The piano is out of tune.* **4 change your tune** to suddenly change your opinion about something **5 be in tune with sb** to be able to understand what someone wants or needs *The government is not in tune with the voters.*

tune² /tjuːn/ *verb* [**T**] **1 MUSIC** to make slight changes to a musical instrument so that it plays the right notes **2** to make changes to a television or radio so that it receives programmes from a particular company ***Stay tuned for*** (= continue watching or listening for) *more details.* ○ *The radio is **tuned to** Radio 5.*
tune in *phrasal verb* to watch or listen to a particular television or radio programme *Be sure to **tune in to** next week's show.*
tune (sth) up *phrasal verb* **MUSIC** to make slight changes to a musical instrument before you play it so that it produces the right notes *The orchestra were tuning up.*

tunic /ˈtjuːnɪk/ *noun* [**C**] a loose piece of clothing that covers the top part of your body

tunnel¹ /ˈtʌnᵊl/ *noun* [**C**] a long passage under the ground or through a mountain *The train went into the tunnel.* ➲See also: **light¹** at the end of the tunnel

tunnel² /ˈtʌnᵊl/ *verb* [**I, T**] *UK* **tunnelling**, *past* **tunnelled**, *US* **tunneling**, *past* **tunneled** to dig a tunnel

turban /ˈtɜːbən/ *noun* [**C**] a long piece of cloth that men from some religions fold around their heads

turbine /ˈtɜːbaɪn/ *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a large machine that produces power by using gas, steam, etc to turn a wheel ➲See picture at **hydroelectric power station** ➲See picture at **wind turbine**

turbulent /ˈtɜːbjələnt/ *adjective* **1** SITUATION/TIME A turbulent situation, time, etc is one in which there are a lot of sudden changes, arguments, or violence. ***a turbulent relationship*** **2** AIR/WATER Turbulent air or water moves very strongly and suddenly. ●**turbulence** /ˈtɜːbjələns/ *noun* [**U**]

turf¹ /tɜːf/ *noun* [**U**] short, thick grass and the soil it is growing in

turf² /tɜːf/ *verb*
turf sb out *phrasal verb UK informal* to make someone leave

turgor /ˈtɜːgə˞/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the normal state of how hard a cell is, caused by its contents pressing against the cell wall

turkey /ˈtɜːki/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a bird that looks like a large chicken, or the meat of this bird

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***turmoil***

be in/be thrown into turmoil ● a **state of** turmoil ● **emotional/political** turmoil ● the turmoil **of** (doing) sth

turmoil /ˈtɜːmɔɪl/ *noun* [**U no plural**] a situation in which there is a lot of trouble, confusion, or noise *The whole region is **in turmoil**.*

turn¹ /tɜːn/ *verb* **1** MOVE YOUR BODY [**I**] to move your body so that you are facing a different direction *Ricky turned and saw Sue standing in the doorway.* **2** CHANGE DIRECTION [**I, T**] to change direction when you are moving, or to make a car do this *Turn left at the traffic lights.* **3** CHANGE POSITION [**T**] to move something round so that it faces a different direction *Ella*

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turned the cup to hide the crack in it. **4** GO ROUND [**I, T**] to move around a central point in a circle, or to make something do this *Turn the steering wheel as quickly as you can.* **5 turn blue/cold/sour, etc** to become blue, cold, etc *The sky turned black and it started to rain.* **6 turn 16/21, etc** to become a particular age *He turned 18 last May.* **7 turn a page** to move a page in a book or magazine in order to see the next one ➲See also: turn your **back**[2] on sb/sth, turn/put the **clock**[1] back, turn a blind **eye**[1] (to sth), turn over a new **leaf**[1], turn your **nose**[1] up at sth, turn the tables (**table**[1]) on sb, come/turn up trumps (**trump**), turn sth **upside down**[1]

turn sb away *phrasal verb* to not allow someone to enter a place *By 10 o'clock the club was already full and they were turning people away.*

turn (sb) back *phrasal verb* to return in the direction you have come from, or to make someone do this *They had to turn back because of the bad weather.*

turn sb/sth down *phrasal verb* to refuse an offer or request *They did offer me the job, but I turned it down.*

turn sth down *phrasal verb* to reduce the level of sound or heat that a machine produces *Could you turn the radio down, please?*

turn (sb/sth) into sb/sth *phrasal verb* to change and become someone or something different, or to make someone or something do this *There are plans to turn his latest book into a film.*

turn off (sth) *phrasal verb* to leave the road you are driving along and drive on a different road

turn sth off *phrasal verb* to move the switch on a machine, light, etc so that it stops working, or to stop the supply of water, electricity, etc *How do you turn the computer off?* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

turn sth on *phrasal verb* to move the switch on a machine, light, etc so that it starts working, or to start the supply of water, electricity, etc *Ben turned the TV on.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

turn out *phrasal verb* **1** RESULT to happen in a particular way, or to have a particular result *The bomb warning **turned out to be** a false alarm.* [+ **(that)**] *I got talking to her and **it turned out** that we'd been to the same school.* **2** GO TO If people turn out for an event, they go to be there or watch. *Over 800 people **turned out for** the protest.*

turn sth out *phrasal verb* **1** PRODUCE to produce something *The factory turns out more than 600 vehicles a month.* **2** LIGHT to move the switch on a light so that it stops working

turn (sth) over *phrasal verb UK* to change to a different television station *Are you watching this or can I turn over?*

turn to sb *phrasal verb* to ask someone for help or advice *Eventually she **turned to** her aunt **for** help.*

turn to sth *phrasal verb* **1** PAGE to find a page in a book *Turn to page 105.* **2** SOMETHING BAD to start to do something bad, especially because you are unhappy *She turned to drugs after the break-up of her marriage.*

turn up *phrasal verb* **1** ARRIVE *informal* to arrive *Fred turned up late again.* **2** APPEAR If something that you have been looking for turns up, you find it.

turn sth up *phrasal verb* to increase the level of sound or heat that a machine produces *I'm cold, could you turn the heating up please?*

turn[2] /tɜːn/ *noun* **1** TIME [**C**] the time when you can or must do something, usually before or after someone else [+ **to do sth**] *It's your turn to feed the rabbit - I did it yesterday.* ○ *You'll have to be patient and **wait** your **turn**.* **2 take turns** (*also UK* **take it in turns**) If two or more people take turns, one person does something, then another person does something, etc. [+ **doing sth**] *They all took turns carrying the suitcase.* [+ **to do sth**] *The children took it in turns to hold the baby.* **3 in turn** one after another *He spoke to the three boys in turn.* **4** CHANGE DIRECTION [**C**] a change in the direction in which you are moving or facing ***a right/left turn*** **5** BEND [**C**] a bend or corner in a road, river, etc *Take the next turn on the right.* **6 turn of events** the way in which a situation develops, especially a sudden or unexpected change **7 take a turn for the better/worse** to become better or worse suddenly **8 do sb a good turn** to do something to help someone **9 the turn of the century** the start of a new century ➲See also: **U-turn**

turnaround /ˈtɜːnəraʊnd/ *noun* [**C**] when a bad situation changes into a good one

turning /ˈtɜːnɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] *UK* a corner where one road meets another *Take the second turning on the left.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***turning point***

mark/prove/reach a turning point ● the turning point **came** ● **be at** a turning point ● the turning point **in/of** sth ● the turning point **for** sb ● a **crucial/important/major/real** turning point

ˈ**turning** ˌ**point** *noun* [**C**] a time when an important change begins to happen *This event **marked** a **turning point** in the country's history.*

turnip /ˈtɜːnɪp/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a large, round, pale yellow vegetable that grows under the ground

turn-off /ˈtɜːnɒf/ *noun* **1** PLACE [**C**] a place where you can leave a main road to go onto another road **2** DISLIKE [**no plural**] *informal* something which you dislike or which makes you feel less interested, especially sexually *Greasy hair is a real turn-off.*

turnout /ˈtɜːnaʊt/ *noun* [**C**] the number of people at an event, such as a meeting or election [**usually singular**] *They blamed the **low turnout** on the bad weather.*

turnover /ˈtɜːnˌəʊvəʳ/ *noun* **1 FINANCE** [**no plural**] how much money a business earns in a period of time **2** [**U, no plural**] the rate at which workers leave an organization and new workers join it *a **high turnover** of staff*

ˈ**turn** ˌ**signal** *US* (*UK* **indicator**) *noun* [**C**] a light that flashes on a vehicle to show that the driver intends to turn right or left ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

turnstile /ˈtɜːnstaɪl/ *noun* [**C**] a gate that only allows one person to go through it at a time

turpentine /ˈtɜːpᵊntaɪn/ (*also UK* **turps** /tɜːps/) *noun* [U] **DT** a clear liquid that has a strong smell and is used for removing paint

turquoise /ˈtɜːkwɔɪz/ *noun* [U] a blue-green colour ●**turquoise** *adjective*

turret /ˈtʌrɪt/ *noun* [C] a small tower that is part of a building

turtle /ˈtɜːtl/ *noun* [C] an animal with four legs and a hard shell that lives mainly in water

turtleneck /ˈtɜːtlnek/ *US* (*UK* **polo neck**) *noun* [C] a piece of clothing that covers the top part of the body and has a tube-like part covering the neck *a turtleneck sweater*

tusk /tʌsk/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** one of the two long, pointed teeth that come out of the mouth of some animals

tussle /ˈtʌsl/ *noun* [C] a fight or argument, especially between two people who want the same thing

tut /tʌt/ (*also* **tut-tut**) *exclamation* a sound you make when you do not approve of something

tutor /ˈtjuːtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** **EDUCATION** someone who teaches one person or a very small group of people *a private tutor* **2** **EDUCATION** *UK* a university teacher who is responsible for a small group of students ●**tutor** *verb* [T]

tutorial /tjuːˈtɔːriəl/ *noun* [C] **1** **EDUCATION** a class in which a small group of students talks about a subject with their tutor, especially at a British university **2** **EDUCATION** a set of instructions and exercises that teaches you how to use a computer program

tux /tʌks/ *noun* [C] *US short for* tuxedo

tuxedo /tʌkˈsiːdəʊ/ *US* (*UK* **dinner jacket**) *noun* [C] a black or white jacket that a man wears on a very formal occasion

O-key **TV** (*also* **tv**) /ˌtiːˈviː/ *noun* [C, U] *abbreviation for* television *What's **on TV** tonight?* ○ *We could stay in and **watch TV**.* ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

twang /twæŋ/ *noun* [C] the sound that is made by pulling a tight string or wire ●**twang** *verb* [I, T]

tweak /twiːk/ *verb* [T] **1** CHANGE to change something slightly to try to improve it **2** PULL to pull or twist something quickly and suddenly *Dad sat there tweaking his beard.* ●**tweak** *noun* [C]

tweed /twiːd/ *noun* [U] a thick, rough cloth made of wool

tweezers /ˈtwiːzəz/ *noun* [**plural**] a small tool with two narrow pieces of metal joined at one end, used for picking up or pulling out very small things

twelfth¹ /twelfθ/ 12th written as a word

twelfth² /twelfθ/ *noun* [C] one of twelve equal parts of something; 1/12

O-key **twelve** /twelv/ the number 12

O-key **twenty** /ˈtwentɪ/ **1** the number 20 **2 the twenties** the years from 1920 to 1929 **3 be in your twenties** to be aged between 20 and 29 ●**twentieth** 20th written as a word

O-key **twice** /twaɪs/ *adverb* two times *I've been there twice.* ○ *I have to take the tablets twice a day.*

twiddle /ˈtwɪdl/ *verb* [I, T] to move your fingers around, or turn something around many times, especially because you are bored *Karen just sat there **twiddling with** her hair.*

twig /twɪg/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a small, thin branch on a tree

twilight /ˈtwaɪlaɪt/ *noun* [U] the time just before it becomes completely dark in the evening

ˈtwilight ˌzone *noun* [C] a state where things are strange and not clear *He is hovering in a twilight zone between life and death.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***twin***

a **set of** twins ● sb's twin **brother/sister** ● **identical** twins

twin¹ /twɪn/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** one of two children who are born to the same mother at the same time ➲See also: **identical twin**

twin² /twɪn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to describe two similar things that are a pair ***twin beds***

twin³ /twɪn/ *verb UK* **be twinned with sth** If a town in one country is twinned with a town in another country, the two towns have a special relationship. *Leeds in England is twinned with Dortmund in Germany.*

twinge /twɪndʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** a sudden, slight emotion *a **twinge of** guilt* **2** **HEALTH** a sudden, slight pain

twinkle /ˈtwɪŋkl/ *verb* [I] **1** LIGHT If light twinkles, it shines and seems to be quickly flashing on and off. *The lights of the town twinkled in the distance.* **2** EYES If someone's eyes twinkle, they look bright and happy. ●**twinkle** *noun* [C]

twirl /twɜːl/ *verb* [I, T] to turn around and around quickly, or to make something do this ●**twirl** *noun* [C]

twist¹ /twɪst/ *verb* **1** TURN [T] to turn something using your hand *She sat there nervously twisting the ring around on her finger.* **2** BEND [T] to bend and turn something many times and change its shape *The wheels of the bike had been twisted in the accident.* **3** TURN YOUR BODY [I, T] to turn part of your body to face a different direction *She twisted her head so she could see what was happening.* **4** CHANGE DIRECTION [I] If a road, river, etc twists, it has a lot of bends in it. *The path **twisted and turned** up the side of the mountain.* **5** **HEALTH** [T] If you twist a part of your body, such as your knee, you injure it by turning it suddenly. **6** CHANGE MEANING [T] to unfairly change the meaning of something that someone has said *Journalists had twisted his remarks.* ➲See also: twist sb's **arm**¹

twist² /twɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** UNEXPECTED CHANGE a sudden change in a story or situation that you do not expect *The story has an unusual twist at the end.* **2** MOVEMENT when you twist something **3** PART a part of something that is twisted *There's a twist in the wire.* **4** SHAPE a shape that is made by twisting something *Finally, add a twist of lemon for decoration.* **5** RIVER/ROAD a bend in a river, road, etc

twisted /ˈtwɪstɪd/ *adjective* **1** SHAPE Something that is twisted is bent a lot of times and does not have its usual shape. **2** STRANGE strange and slightly unpleasant or cruel *He'd become **bitter and twisted**.*

T

twister /ˈtwɪstəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US another word for* tornado (= an extremely strong and dangerous wind that blows in a circle) ➲See also: **tongue twister**

twit /twɪt/ *noun* [C] *informal* a silly person

twitch /twɪtʃ/ *verb* [I] HEALTH If a part of your body twitches, it suddenly makes a slight movement in a way that you cannot control. *His face twitched nervously.* ●**twitch** *noun* [C]

twitter /ˈtwɪtəʳ/ *verb* [I] If a bird twitters, it makes a series of short, high sounds.

two /tuː/ **1** the number 2 **2 in two** into two pieces *She broke the chocolate in two.* **3 put two and two together** to guess the truth from details that you notice about a situation *She didn't tell me she was pregnant - I just put two and two together.* ➲See also: the **lesser** of two evils, be in two minds (**mind**[1]), stand on your own two feet (**foot**[1])

two-dimensional /ˌtuːdaɪˈmentʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* describes a shape which is flat

two-time /ˌtuːˈtaɪm/ *verb* [T] *informal* If someone two-times their partner, they secretly have a romantic relationship with someone else.

two-way /ˈtuːˌweɪ/ *adjective* moving, or allowing something to move or work in two directions *a two-way street*

tycoon /taɪˈkuːn/ *noun* [C] someone who is very successful and powerful in business and has a lot of money ***a media tycoon*** ○ ***a property/shipping tycoon***

tying /ˈtaɪɪŋ/ *present participle of* tie

Tylenol /ˈtaɪlənɒl/ *noun* [C, U] *trademark* HEALTH a common drug used to reduce pain and fever

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***type***

of this type ● **all** types of sth ● **different/various** types

type[1] /taɪp/ *noun* [C] **1** SIMILAR QUALITIES a person or thing that is part of a group of people or things that have similar qualities, or a group of people or things that have similar qualities *They sell over 20* ***different types*** *of cheese.* ○ *Illnesses* ***of this type*** *are very common in children.* **2** PERSON someone who has particular qualities or interests *He's the outdoor type* (= enjoys being outside). **3 not be sb's type** *informal* to not be the type of person that someone thinks is attractive *I like Bertrand but he's not really my type.* ➲See also: **blood type**

type[2] /taɪp/ *verb* [I, T] to write something using a keyboard ●**typing** *noun* [U]

typeface /ˈtaɪpfeɪs/ *noun* [C] a set of letters and symbols that are printed in a particular design

typewriter /ˈtaɪpˌraɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a machine with keys that you press to produce letters and numbers on paper ●**typewritten** /ˈtaɪpˌrɪtᵊn/ *adjective* printed using a typewriter *a typewritten letter*

typhoid /ˈtaɪfɔɪd/ *noun* [U] HEALTH a serious infectious disease that is caused by dirty water or food

typhoon /taɪˈfuːn/ *noun* [C] a violent storm with very strong winds

typical /ˈtɪpɪkᵊl/ *adjective* having all the qualities you expect a particular person, object, place, etc to have *typical German food* ○ *This style of painting is* ***typical of*** *Monet.*

typically /ˈtɪpɪkᵊli/ *adverb* **1** TYPICAL used for saying that something is typical of a person, thing, place, etc *behaviour that is typically English* **2** SITUATION used for saying what usually happens *Schools in the area typically start at 8.30.*

typify /ˈtɪpɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to be a typical example or quality of something *Emma's opinions typify the attitude of many young people.*

typist /ˈtaɪpɪst/ *noun* [C] *old-fashioned* someone who types (= writes using a machine)

typography /taɪˈpɒgrəfi/ *noun* [U] DT the style and size of the letters in a piece of printing

tyranny /ˈtɪrᵊni/ *noun* [U] POLITICS when a leader or government has too much power and uses that power in a cruel and unfair way ●**tyrannical** /tɪˈrænɪkᵊl/ *adjective* using or involving tyranny

tyrant /ˈtaɪərənt/ *noun* [C] someone who has total power and uses it in a cruel and unfair way

tyre *UK* (*US* **tire**) /taɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] a thick, round piece of rubber filled with air, that fits around a wheel *It's got a* ***flat tyre*** (= tyre with no air in it). ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

T

Uu

U, u /juː/ the twenty-first letter of the alphabet

uber- /uːbər-/ *prefix humorous* used before nouns to mean 'extreme' or 'extremely good or successful' *uber-billionaire*

ubiquitous /juːˈbɪkwɪtəs/ *adjective formal* seeming to be in all places *the ubiquitous security cameras*

U-boat /ˈjuːbəʊt/ *noun* [C] a German submarine (= boat that travels under water), used especially in World Wars I and II

udder /ˈʌdər/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a female cow, goat, etc that hangs under its body and produces milk

UFO /ˌjuːefˈəʊ/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* unidentified flying object: something strange that you see in the sky that could be from another part of the universe

ugh /ʌɡ/ *exclamation* used to show that you think something is very unpleasant *Ugh! What a smell!*

ugly /ˈʌɡli/ *adjective* **1** NOT ATTRACTIVE unpleasant to look at *an ugly city* **2** SITUATION An ugly situation is very unpleasant, usually because it involves violence. *There were **ugly scenes** outside the stadium.* ●**ugliness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: raise/rear its ugly **head**[1]

uh *US* (*UK* **er**) /ə/ *exclamation* something that you say when you are thinking what to say next *It's not too far - it's about, uh, five miles from here.*

UK /ˌjuːˈkeɪ/ *noun abbreviation for* United Kingdom

ulcer /ˈʌlsər/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a painful, infected area on your skin or inside your body *a **mouth/stomach ulcer***

ulna /ˈʌlnə/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the longer of the two long thin bones in the lower half of the arm, between the wrist and the elbow ➲Compare **radius, [BONE]**

ulterior /ʌlˈtɪəriər/ *adjective* **ulterior motive/purpose, etc** a secret purpose or reason for doing something

ultimate[1] /ˈʌltɪmət/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** BEST better, worse, or greater than all similar things *Climbing Mount Everest is the ultimate challenge.* ○ *the ultimate insult* **2** FINAL final or most important *the ultimate aim/solution*

ultimate[2] /ˈʌltɪmət/ *noun* **the ultimate in sth** the best or greatest example of something *It describes the hotel as 'the ultimate in luxury'.*

ultimately /ˈʌltɪmətli/ *adverb* **1** FINALLY finally, after a series of things have happened *a disease that ultimately killed him* **2** MOST IMPORTANT used to emphasize the most important fact in a situation *Ultimately, he'll have to decide.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***ultimatum***

deliver/give sb **/issue** an ultimatum ● an ultimatum **demands** sth ● an ultimatum **from/to** sb

ultimatum /ˌʌltɪˈmeɪtəm/ *noun* [C] when someone says they will do something that will affect you badly if you do not do what they want *The children were **given** an **ultimatum** - finish their work quietly or stay behind after class.*

ultra- /ʌltrə-/ *prefix* extremely *ultra-modern architecture* ○ *ultra-careful*

ultrasonic /ˌʌltrəˈsɒnɪk/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** involving ultrasound

ultrasound /ˈʌltrəsaʊnd/ *noun* **1** **HEALTH, PHYSICS** [U] very high sound waves, especially those that are used in medical examinations to produce an image of something inside your body *an **ultrasound scan*** **2** **HEALTH** [C] a medical examination which produces an image of something that is inside the body, especially a baby, using sound waves *An ultrasound revealed a perfectly healthy baby.*

ultraviolet /ˌʌltrəˈvaɪələt/ *adjective* **PHYSICS** Ultraviolet light makes your skin become darker.

umbilical cord /ʌmˈbɪlɪkl,kɔːd/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the tube that connects a baby to its mother before it is born ➲See picture at **foetus**

umbrella /ʌmˈbrelə/ *noun* [C] **1** a thing that you hold above your head to keep yourself dry when it is raining **2** **umbrella group/organization, etc** a large organization that is made of many smaller organizations

umpire /ˈʌmpaɪər/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** someone whose job is to watch a sports game and make sure that the players obey the rules *a tennis/cricket umpire* ●**umpire** *verb* [I, T]

umpteen /ʌmˈtiːn/ *quantifier informal* very many *I've been there **umpteen times** and I still can't remember the way.* ●**umpteenth** *I drank my umpteenth cup of coffee.*

un- /ʌn-/ *prefix* not or the opposite of *unhappy* ○ *unfair* ○ *to unfasten*

the UN /ˌjuːˈen/ *noun* **POLITICS** *abbreviation for* the United Nations: an international organization that tries to solve world problems in a peaceful way

O-K **unable** /ʌnˈeɪbl/ *adjective* **be unable to do sth** to not be able to do something *Some days he is unable to get out of bed.*

unabridged /ˌʌnəˈbrɪdʒd/ *adjective* **LITERATURE** An unabridged book, play, etc is in its original form and has not been made shorter.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***unacceptable***

find sth unacceptable ● **completely/totally/wholly** unacceptable ● unacceptable **to** sb

unacceptable /ˌʌnəkˈseptəbl/ *adjective* too bad to be allowed to continue *The water contains unacceptable levels of pollution.* ○ *I find that sort of behaviour completely unacceptable.* ●**unacceptably** *adverb*

unaccompanied /ˌʌnəˈkʌmpənid/ *adjective* not having anyone with you when you go somewhere *Unaccompanied children are not allowed in the museum.*

U

unaccountable /ˌʌnəˈkaʊntəbl/ *adjective* **1** SURPRISING impossible to explain *For some **unaccountable reason**, I've got three copies of the same book.* **2** PERSON not having to give reasons for your actions or decisions ●**unaccountably** *adverb*

unadulterated /ˌʌnəˈdʌltᵊreɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** COMPLETE complete *I've never heard such unadulterated nonsense in all my life!* **2** PURE pure and with nothing extra added *People using drugs can never be sure that they're using unadulterated substances.*

unadventurous /ˌʌnədˈventʃᵊrəs/ *adjective* not willing to take risks or try something new

unaffected /ˌʌnəˈfektɪd/ *adjective* not changed by something *Smaller colleges will be **unaffected by** the new regulations.*

unaided /ʌnˈeɪdɪd/ *adjective, adverb* without help *He's now well enough to **walk unaided**.*

unanimous /juːˈnænɪməs/ *adjective* agreed by everyone *The jury was unanimous in finding him guilty.* ●**unanimity** /ˌjuːnəˈnɪməti/ *noun* [U] when everyone agrees about something ●**unanimously** *adverb The members **unanimously agreed** to the proposal.*

unannounced /ˌʌnəˈnaʊnst/ *adjective, adverb* without telling anyone first *an **unannounced visit***

unappealing /ˌʌnəˈpiːlɪŋ/ *adjective* not attractive or enjoyable *Five hours on a train with Mike is a fairly **unappealing prospect**.* ○ *an **unappealing character***

unarmed /ʌnˈɑːmd/ *adjective* not carrying a weapon

unashamedly /ˌʌnəˈʃeɪmɪdli/ *adverb* in a way that shows you are not embarrassed or worried about what other people think of you *Galliano is unashamedly romantic.*

unassuming /ˌʌnəˈsjuːmɪŋ/ *adjective* not wanting to be noticed *a shy, unassuming man*

unattached /ˌʌnəˈtætʃt/ *adjective* not married or having a romantic relationship

unattended /ˌʌnəˈtendɪd/ *adjective* not being watched or looked after *Passengers should not **leave** bags **unattended**.*

unattractive /ˌʌnəˈtræktɪv/ *adjective* **1** NOT BEAUTIFUL not beautiful or nice to look at *I felt old and unattractive.* **2** NOT INTERESTING not interesting or useful *an unattractive proposition*

unauthorized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ʌnˈɔːθᵊraɪzd/ *adjective* done without official permission *an unauthorized use of company money*

unavailable /ˌʌnəˈveɪləbl/ *adjective* **1** CANNOT DO SOMETHING not able to talk to someone or meet them, especially because you are doing other things *The manager was **unavailable for comment**.* **2** CANNOT GET impossible to buy or get *The book is unavailable in Britain.*

unavoidable /ˌʌnəˈvɔɪdəbl/ *adjective* impossible to avoid or prevent *an unavoidable delay*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***unaware***

blissfully/completely/seemingly/totally unaware ● unaware **of** sth

unaware /ˌʌnəˈweəʳ/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] not knowing about something *He seems **totally unaware of** the problem.*

unawares /ˌʌnəˈweəz/ *adverb* **catch/take sb unawares** If something catches or takes you unawares, it happens when you do not expect it to. *The rain caught me unawares and I didn't have my umbrella.*

unbalanced /ʌnˈbæləns̬t/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** slightly mentally ill **2** NOT FAIR false and not fair *He gave an unbalanced view of the situation.*

unbearable /ʌnˈbeərəbl/ *adjective* too painful or unpleasant for you to continue to experience *The heat was almost unbearable.* ●**unbearably** *adverb*

unbeatable /ʌnˈbiːtəbl/ *adjective* much better than everyone or everything else *We aim to sell the best products at unbeatable prices.*

unbeaten /ʌnˈbiːtᵊn/ *adjective* **SPORT** in sports, having won every game *Manchester United **remain unbeaten** this season.*

unbelievable /ˌʌnbɪˈliːvəbl/ *adjective* **1** EXTREME extremely bad or good and making you feel surprised *It's unbelievable how lucky she's been.* **2** NOT LIKELY not probable and difficult to believe ●**unbelievably** *adverb*

unborn /ʌnˈbɔːn/ *adjective* not yet born *the **unborn child***

unbreakable /ˌʌnˈbreɪkəbl/ *adjective* impossible to break *unbreakable glass/plastic*

unbridled /ʌnˈbraɪdld/ *adjective* An unbridled feeling is one that you do not try to hide or control. ***unbridled enthusiasm/passion***

unbroken /ʌnˈbrəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* continuous and with no pauses *unbroken sunshine*

unbutton /ʌnˈbʌtᵊn/ *verb* [T] to open the buttons on a piece of clothing *He unbuttoned his jacket.*

uncalled for /ʌnˈkɔːldfɔːʳ/ *adjective* If an action or remark is uncalled for, it is unfair or unkind. *That was uncalled for, Tess - apologize to your brother.*

uncanny /ʌnˈkæni/ *adjective* strange and impossible to explain *an **uncanny resemblance*** ●**uncannily** *adverb*

uncaring /ʌnˈkeərɪŋ/ *adjective* without sympathy for people with problems *victims of an uncaring society*

uncertain /ʌnˈsɜːtᵊn/ *adjective* **1** SOMEONE not sure or not able to decide about something *Bridie was **uncertain about** meeting him.* **2** SITUATION not known, or not completely certain *The museum faces an **uncertain future**.* ●**uncertainly** *adverb* ●**uncertainty** *noun* [C, U]

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***uncertainty***

face uncertainty ● the uncertainty **surrounding** sth ● uncertainty **about/as to/over** sth ● **continuing/great/growing** uncertainty ● the uncertainty **of** sth

uncertainty /ʌnˈsɜːtᵊnti/ *noun* [C, U] when something is uncertain *Life is full of uncertainties.*

U

unchanged /ʌn'tʃeɪndʒd/ *adjective* staying the same *The area has* ***remained*** *virtually* ***unchanged*** *in fifty years.*

uncharacteristic /ˌʌnkærəktər'ɪstɪk/ *adjective* not typical ●**uncharacteristically** *adverb*

unchecked /ʌn'tʃekt/ *adjective* If something bad continues unchecked, it is not stopped.

O-key **uncle** /'ʌŋkl/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** the brother of your mother or father, or the husband of your aunt

unclean /ʌn'kliːn/ *adjective* **RELIGION** morally bad, as described by the rules of a religion

unclear /ʌn'klɪər/ *adjective* **1** DIFFICULT TO UNDERSTAND not easy to understand *The situation at the moment is unclear.* [+ **question word**] *It's unclear what actually happened that night.* **2** NOT SURE If you are unclear about something, you do not understand it exactly. *I'm* ***unclear about*** *exactly who's doing what.*

uncomfortable /ʌn'kʌmftəbl/ *adjective* **1** PHYSICAL not feeling comfortable and pleasant, or not making you feel comfortable and pleasant *These shoes are really uncomfortable.* **2** SITUATION slightly embarrassed, or making you feel slightly embarrassed *an uncomfortable silence* ●**uncomfortably** *adverb*

uncommon /ʌn'kɒmən/ *adjective* unusual [+ **for + to do sth**] *It's not uncommon for people to become ill* (= they often become ill) *when they travel.* ●**uncommonly** *adverb*

uncompromising /ʌn'kɒmprəmaɪzɪŋ/ *adjective* determined not to change your ideas or decisions *an* ***uncompromising attitude***

unconcerned /ˌʌnkən'sɜːnd/ *adjective* not worried by something *The baby seemed* ***unconcerned by*** *all the noise.*

unconditional /ˌʌnkən'dɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* done or given without any limits and without asking for anything for yourself ***unconditional love*** ●**unconditionally** *adverb*

unconfirmed /ˌʌnkən'fɜːmd/ *adjective* An unconfirmed report or story may not be true because there is no proof yet.

unconnected /ˌʌnkə'nektɪd/ *adjective* If two or more things are unconnected, there is no connection between them. *The stomach ailment was* ***unconnected with*** *his cancer.*

unconscious[1] /ʌn'kɒnʃəs/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** in a state as though you are sleeping, for example because you have been hit on the head *She was* ***knocked unconscious.*** **2** An unconscious thought or feeling is one that you do not know you have. *an unconscious fear* ●**unconsciousness** *noun* [U]

unconscious[2] /ʌn'kɒnʃəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] the part of your mind that contains feelings and thoughts that you do not know about, and that influences the way you behave

unconsciously /ʌn'kɒnʃəsli/ *adverb* If you do something unconsciously, you do it without knowing that you are doing it.

unconstitutional /ʌnˌkɒnstɪ'tjuːʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **LAW** not allowed by the rules of an organization or political system

uncontrollable /ˌʌnkən'trəʊləbl/ *adjective* unable to be controlled *uncontrollable anger* ○ *an uncontrollable desire to cry* ●**uncontrollably** *adverb*

unconventional /ˌʌnkən'venʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** doing things in a way that is different from most people *an unconventional lifestyle*

unconvincing /ˌʌnkən'vɪntsɪŋ/ *adjective* not seeming true or real

uncool /ʌn'kuːl/ *adjective* embarrassing and not stylish or fashionable

uncountable noun /ʌnˌkaʊntəᵊl'naʊn/ (*also* **uncount noun**) *noun* [C] **LANGUAGE** a noun which does not have a plural form and cannot be used with 'a' or 'one'. For example 'music' and 'furniture' are uncountable nouns. ➲See Extra help page **Countable and uncountable nouns** on page Centre 30.

uncouth /ʌn'kuːθ/ *adjective* behaving in a rude, unpleasant way

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***uncover***

uncover **evidence/** a **plot/** a **secret/the truth** ● an **investigation** uncovers sth

uncover /ʌn'kʌvər/ *verb* [T] **1** DISCOVER to discover something that had been secret or hidden *The inspectors* ***uncovered evidence*** *of corruption.* **2** REMOVE COVER to remove a cover from something

undaunted /ʌn'dɔːntɪd/ *adjective* not frightened to do something that is difficult or dangerous *Keiko spoke,* ***undaunted by*** *the crowd.*

undecided /ˌʌndɪ'saɪdɪd/ *adjective* If you are undecided about something, you have not made a decision yet.

undefeated /ˌʌndɪ'fiːtɪd/ *adjective* **SPORT** in sports, having won every game *Both teams* ***remain undefeated*** *in the final weeks of the season.*

undelete /ʌndɪ'liːt/ *verb* [T] **COMPUTING** to make something that has been deleted (= removed from a computer's memory) able to be seen again

undeniable /ˌʌndɪ'naɪəbl/ *adjective* certainly true *an undeniable fact* ●**undeniably** *adverb*

O-key **under**[1] /'ʌndər/ *preposition* **1** BELOW below something *She pushed her bag under the table.* ○ *The children were sitting under a tree.* **2** BELOW THE SURFACE below the surface of something *He could only keep his head under the water for a few seconds.* **3** LESS THAN less than a number, amount, or age *You can buy the whole system for just under $2000.* ○ *We don't serve alcohol to anyone under 18.* **4** CONTROLLED BY controlled or governed by a particular person, organization, etc *a country under military rule* ○ *The restaurant is under new management.* **5** RULE/LAW according to a rule, law, etc *Under the new law, all new buildings must be approved by the local government.* **6** IN A PARTICULAR STATE in a particular state or condition *The President is under pressure to resign.* **7** IN PROGRESS used to say that something is happening at the moment but is not finished *A new 16-screen cinema is* ***under construction.*** ○ *Several different plans are* ***under discussion.*** **8** NAME using a particular name, especially one that is not your usual name *He also wrote several detective novels under the name, Edgar Sandys.*

U

9 PLACE IN LIST used to say which part of a list, book, library, etc you should look in to find something *Books about health problems are under 'Medicine'.*

under- /ʌndə˞-/ *prefix* **1** not enough *undercooked potatoes* **2** below *underwear* ○ *an underpass*

under² /ˈʌndə˞/ *adverb* **1** BELOW THE SURFACE below the surface of something *The child was swimming and suddenly started to go under.* **2** LESS THAN less than a particular number, amount, or age *I want a computer that is £2000 or under.*

under-age /ˌʌndərˈeɪdʒ/ *adjective* **LAW** younger than the legal age when you are allowed to do something ***under-age drinking***

undercover /ˌʌndəˈkʌvə˞/ *adjective, adverb* working secretly in order to get information for the police or government *an **undercover police officer***

undercut /ˌʌndəˈkʌt/ *verb* [T] **undercutting**, *past* **undercut** **FINANCE** to sell something at a lower price than someone else

the underdog /ˈʌndədɒg/ *noun* the person or team that is expected to lose a race or competition

underestimate /ˌʌndə˞ˈestɪmeɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** SIZE/AMOUNT to not understand how large, strong, or important something is *Many people underestimate the cost of owning a car.* **2** PERSON to not understand how powerful or clever someone is *I thought it would be an easy game but I had underestimated my opponent.* ➲Opposite **overestimate**

underfoot /ˌʌndəˈfʊt/ *adverb* under your feet as you walk *Several people were **trampled underfoot** in the rush to escape.*

undergo /ˌʌndəˈgəʊ/ *verb* [T] **undergoing**, *past tense* **underwent**, *past participle* **undergone** to experience something, especially a change or medical treatment *The country is currently **undergoing** major political **change**.* ○ *He is **undergoing surgery** for a heart problem.*

undergraduate /ˌʌndəˈgrædʒuət/ (*also* **undergrad** /ˈʌndəgræd/ *informal*) *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** a student who is studying for their first university degree (= qualification)

underground¹ /ˈʌndəgraʊnd/ *adjective, adverb* **1** under the surface of the ground *underground caves* ○ *an animal that lives underground* **2** **POLITICS** Underground political activities are secret and illegal. *an underground political organization*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***underground*** *(noun)*

take the underground ● **on** the underground ● an underground **station /train**

underground² /ˈʌndəgraʊnd/ *UK* (*US* **subway**) *noun* [**no plural**] a system of trains that is built under a city *the London Underground* ➲See Common Learner Error at **metro**

undergrowth /ˈʌndəgrəʊθ/ *noun* [U] short plants and bushes that grow around trees

underhand /ˌʌndəˈhænd/ (*also* **underhanded**) *adjective* secret and not honest ***underhand business deals***

underline /ˌʌndəˈlaɪn/ *verb* [T] **1** DRAW A LINE to draw a line under a word or sentence **2** EMPHASIZE to emphasize the importance or truth of something *The report **underlines the need** for more teachers in schools.*

underlying /ˌʌndəˈlaɪɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An underlying reason or problem is the real reason or problem, although it is not obvious. *We need to look at the **underlying reasons** for ill health.*

undermine /ˌʌndəˈmaɪn/ *verb* [T] to make someone less confident or make something weaker *A series of scandals have **undermined** people's **confidence** in the government.*

underneath¹ /ˌʌndəˈniːθ/ *adverb, preposition* under something *Florian was wearing a jacket with a red shirt underneath.* ○ *Deborah pushed her shoes underneath the bed.*

the underneath² /ˌʌndəˈniːθ/ *noun* the bottom part of something

underpaid /ˌʌndəˈpeɪd/ *adjective* not earning enough for your work

underpants /ˈʌndəpænts/ *noun* [**plural**] a piece of underwear that covers the area between your waist and the top of your legs ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 ➲See Common Learner Error at **underwear**

underpass /ˈʌndəpɑːs/ *noun* [C] a road or path that goes under another road

underprivileged /ˌʌndəˈprɪvᵊlɪdʒd/ *adjective* poor and having fewer opportunities than most people *underprivileged families*

underrate /ˌʌndəˈreɪt/ *verb* [T] to think that someone or something is not as good as they really are *Critics have continued to underrate Sampras.* ●**underrated** *adjective I think he's really underrated as an actor.* ➲Opposite **overrated**

underscore /ˌʌndəˈskɔː˞/ *verb* [T] *mainly US* to emphasize the importance of something

undersea /ˌʌndəˈsiː/ *adjective* below the surface of the sea

undershirt /ˈʌndəʃɜːt/ *US* (*UK* **vest**) *noun* [C] a piece of underwear that you wear under a shirt

the underside /ˈʌndəsaɪd/ *noun* the bottom surface of something *There was some damage to the underside of the car.*

understand /ˌʌndəˈstænd/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **understood** **1** KNOW MEANING to know the meaning of something that someone says *I don't understand half of what he says.* ○ *She didn't understand so I explained it again.* **2** KNOW WHY/HOW to know why or how something happens or works [+ **question word**] *We still don't fully understand how the brain works.* **3** KNOW FEELINGS to know how someone feels or why they behave in a particular way *I don't understand James sometimes.* [+ **question word**] *I understand why she's so angry.* **4 I/we understand (that)...** *formal* used to say that you believe something is true because someone has told you it is *I understand that the school is due to close next year.* **5 make yourself understood** to say something to someone in a way that they understand *I had a little difficulty making myself understood.*

understandable /ˌʌndəˈstændəbl/ *adjective* An understandable feeling or action is one that you would expect in that particular situation. *It's understandable that he's angry.* ●**understandably** *adverb* *She's understandably upset.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***understanding***

develop/gain/have an understanding (of sth) ● a **better/clear** understanding ● an understanding **of** sth

understanding¹ /ˌʌndəˈstændɪŋ/ *noun* **1** KNOWLEDGE [**U, no plural**] knowledge about a subject, situation, etc or about how something works *We now **have a better understanding of** this disease.* **2** AGREEMENT [**C**] an informal agreement between two people [**usually singular + that**] *We **have** an **understanding** that we don't discuss the subject in front of his mother.* **3** SYMPATHY [**U**] sympathy *Thank you for your understanding.* **4 my/her/his, etc understanding** what you thought to be true *It was my understanding that she was coming alone.* **5** ABILITY [**U**] the ability to learn or think about something

understanding² /ˌʌndəˈstændɪŋ/ *adjective* showing sympathy for someone's problems *Fortunately, my girlfriend is very understanding.*

understated /ˌʌndəˈsteɪtɪd/ *adjective* simple and attractive in style *an understated black dress*

understatement /ˌʌndəˈsteɪtmənt/ *noun* [**C, U**] when you say that something is less extreme than it really is *'Quite big', did you say? That's an understatement - he's enormous!*

understood /ˌʌndəˈstʊd/ *past of* understand

understudy /ˈʌndəˌstʌdi/ *noun* [**C**] an actor in the theatre who learns the words and actions of another character so that they can perform if the usual actor is ill

undertake /ˌʌndəˈteɪk/ *verb past tense* **undertook**, *past participle* **undertaken** *formal* **1** [**T**] to start work on something that will take a long time or be difficult *Max has undertaken the task of restoring an old houseboat.* **2 undertake to do sth** to promise to do something

undertaker /ˈʌndəˌteɪkər/ *noun* [**C**] someone whose job is to organize funerals and prepare dead bodies to be buried or burned

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***undertaking***

give/sign an undertaking ● a **written** undertaking ● an undertaking **by/from** sb

undertaking /ˈʌndəˌteɪkɪŋ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** WORK a difficult or important piece of work, especially one that takes a long time [**usually singular**] *Building your own house is a **major undertaking**.* **2** LAW *UK* a legal or official promise to do something [**usually singular**] *The newspaper has **given an undertaking** not to print the story.*

undertone /ˈʌndətəʊn/ *noun* [**C**] a feeling or quality that exists but is not obvious *an article with worrying political undertones*

undertook /ˌʌndəˈtʊk/ *past tense of* undertake

undervalued /ˌʌndəˈvæljuːd/ *adjective* If someone or something is undervalued, they are more important or useful than people think they are.

underwater /ˌʌndəˈwɔːtər/ *adjective, adverb* under the surface of water *an underwater camera* ○ *Seals can hear very well underwater.*

underwear /ˈʌndəweər/ *noun* [**U**] the clothes that you wear next to your skin, under your other clothes

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

types of underwear

Underpants are a piece of underwear that cover the bottom. In British English **underpants** are only worn by men or boys, but in American English they can also be worn by women and girls.
The American English word **panties** is a piece of underwear for women or girls that covers the bottom. The British English word for **panties** is **knickers** or **pants**.

underweight /ˌʌndəˈweɪt/ *adjective* HEALTH too light

underwent /ˌʌndəˈwent/ *past tense of* undergo

underworld /ˈʌndəwɜːld/ *noun* [**no plural**] criminals and their activities *the **criminal underworld*** ○ *the London underworld*

undesirable /ˌʌndɪˈzaɪərəbl/ *adjective formal* Something that is undesirable is not wanted because it is bad or unpleasant. *an undesirable influence*

undeveloped /ˌʌndɪˈveləpt/ *adjective* Undeveloped land has no buildings on it and is not used for anything.

undid /ʌnˈdɪd/ *past tense of* undo

undisclosed /ˌʌndɪsˈkləʊzd/ *adjective* If official information is undisclosed, it is secret. *The meeting is taking place at an undisclosed location.*

undisputed /ˌʌndɪˈspjuːtɪd/ *adjective* If something is undisputed, everyone agrees about it. *an **undisputed fact*** ○ *the **undisputed champion/master***

undisturbed /ˌʌndɪˈstɜːbd/ *adjective* not interrupted or changed in any way *undisturbed sleep*

undivided /ˌʌndɪˈvaɪdɪd/ *adjective* **undivided attention/loyalty/support, etc** complete attention, support, etc *There, now you can have my undivided attention.*

undo /ʌnˈduː/ *verb* [**T**] **undoing**, *past tense* **undid**, *past participle* **undone 1** OPEN to open something that is tied or fastened *I took off my hat and undid my coat.* **2** GET RID OF EFFECTS to get rid of the effects of something that has been done before *Some of the **damage** caused by pollution cannot be **undone**.*

undoing /ʌnˈduːɪŋ/ *noun* **be sb's undoing** to be the thing that makes someone fail *It was a policy that proved to be the President's undoing.*

undone /ʌnˈdʌn/ *adjective* **1** NOT FASTENED not fastened or tied *Her coat was undone.* **2** NOT DONE not done *I don't think I've **left** anything **undone**.*

undoubted /ʌnˈdaʊtɪd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to emphasize that something is true

U

The project was an ***undoubted success****.* ○ *her* ***undoubted ability/talent***

undoubtedly /ʌnˈdaʊtɪdli/ *adverb* used to emphasize that something is true *Stress has undoubtedly contributed to her illness.*

undress /ʌnˈdres/ *verb* [**I, T**] to remove your clothes or someone else's clothes ●**undressed** *adjective I* ***got undressed*** *and went to bed.*

undue /ʌnˈdjuː/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* more than is necessary *I don't want to cause* ***undue alarm****.*

undulating /ˈʌndjəleɪtɪŋ/ *adjective formal* having slight slopes or curves, or moving slightly up and down *undulating roads*

unduly /ʌnˈdjuːli/ *adverb formal* more than necessary *She didn't seem* ***unduly concerned/worried****.*

unearth /ʌnˈɜːθ/ *verb* [**T**] **1** FIND BY DIGGING to find something in the ground [**often passive**] *Thousands of dinosaur bones have been unearthed in China.* **2** FIND to find something that has been secret or hidden *Reporters* ***unearthed evidence*** *of criminal activity.*

unearthly /ʌnˈɜːθli/ *adjective* strange and frightening *an* ***unearthly light/beauty***

unease /ʌnˈiːz/ *noun* [**U**] when you feel worried because you think something bad might happen

uneasy /ʌnˈiːzi/ *adjective* worried because you think something bad might happen *I feel a bit* ***uneasy about*** *her travelling alone.*

uneconomic /ʌnˌiːkəˈnɒmɪk/ (*also* **uneconomical**) *adjective* **1** WASTING SOMETHING using too much money, fuel, time, etc *a car that is uneconomic to run* **2** **ECONOMICS** not making enough profit *plans to close uneconomic factories*

unemployed /ˌʌnɪmˈplɔɪd/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** not having a job *I've been unemployed for six months.* ○ *The government is helping to create jobs for* ***the unemployed****.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***unemployment***

unemployment **drops/falls/increases/rises** ● **high/low/rising/soaring** unemployment ● the unemployment **rate** ● a **drop/fall/increase/rise** in unemployment

unemployment /ˌʌnɪmˈplɔɪmənt/ *noun* [**U**] **ECONOMICS, SOCIETY** **1** the number of people who are unemployed *a* ***rise/fall in unemployment*** ○ *The* ***unemployment rate*** *has increased to 20 percent.* **2** when you do not have a job

unending /ʌnˈendɪŋ/ *adjective* seeming to continue forever *an* ***unending series*** *of problems*

unequal /ʌnˈiːkwəl/ *adjective* **1** NOT THE SAME different in size, level, amount, etc **2** UNFAIR unfair *the unequal distribution of wealth* ●**unequally** *adverb*

unequivocal /ˌʌnɪˈkwɪvəkəl/ *adjective formal* clear and certain *an unequivocal answer* ●**unequivocally** *adverb*

unethical /ʌnˈeθɪkəl/ *adjective* morally bad *unethical business methods*

uneven /ʌnˈiːvən/ *adjective* not level or smooth *an uneven floor* ●**unevenly** *adverb*

uneventful /ˌʌnɪˈventfəl/ *adjective* without problems and without anything exciting happening *The journey itself was fairly uneventful.*

unexpected /ˌʌnɪkˈspektɪd/ *adjective* Something that is unexpected surprises you because you did not know it was going to happen. *His death was completely unexpected.* ●**unexpectedly** *adverb*

unfailing /ʌnˈfeɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* An unfailing quality or ability is one that someone always has. ***unfailing support/courtesy*** ●**unfailingly** *adverb*

unfair /ʌnˈfeər/ *adjective* **1** NOT EQUAL not treating people in an equal way *an unfair system* ○ *The test was unfair because some people had seen it before.* **2** NOT RIGHT not true and morally wrong [**+ to do sth**] *It's unfair to blame Frank for everything.* ●**unfairly** *adverb* ●**unfairness** *noun* [**U**]

unfair dismissal *noun* [**U**] when someone is forced to leave their job for a reason that is not fair or legal

unfaithful /ʌnˈfeɪθfəl/ *adjective* having sex with someone who is not your wife, husband, or usual sexual partner *She was* ***unfaithful to*** *me.*

unfamiliar /ˌʌnfəˈmɪljər/ *adjective* **1** not known to you *an unfamiliar face* ○ *His name was* ***unfamiliar to*** *me.* **2** **be unfamiliar with sth** to not have any knowledge or experience of something *Many older people are unfamiliar with computers.*

unfashionable /ʌnˈfæʃənəbl/ *adjective* not fashionable or popular at a particular time

unfasten /ʌnˈfɑːsən/ *verb* [**T**] to open something that is closed or fixed together *to unfasten a seat belt*

unfavourable *UK* (*US* **unfavorable**) /ʌnˈfeɪvərəbl/ *adjective* **1** CRITICIZING negative and showing that you do not like something ***unfavourable publicity*** **2** NOT GOOD not good and likely to cause problems ***unfavourable*** *weather* ***conditions*** ●**unfavourably** *adverb*

unfeeling /ʌnˈfiːlɪŋ/ *adjective* not having sympathy for other people

unfettered /ʌnˈfetəd/ *adjective formal* not limited by rules *The UN inspectors were given* ***unfettered access*** *to all nuclear sites.*

unfinished /ʌnˈfɪnɪʃt/ *adjective* not completed *an unfinished novel/portrait*

unfit /ʌnˈfɪt/ *adjective* **1** not suitable or good enough *The food was judged* ***unfit for*** *human consumption.* **2** **HEALTH** *UK* not healthy because you do too little exercise

unflattering /ʌnˈflætərɪŋ/ *adjective* making someone look less attractive or seem worse than usual *an unflattering photo/dress/colour*

unfold /ʌnˈfəʊld/ *verb* **1** DEVELOP [**I**] If a situation or story unfolds, it develops or becomes known. *The nation watched on TV as the tragic events unfolded.* **2** OPEN [**I, T**] to become open and flat, or to make something become open and flat *I unfolded the map.*

unforeseen /ˌʌnfɔːˈsiːn/ *adjective* not expected *The concert was cancelled due to* ***unforeseen circumstances****.*

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unforgettable /ˌʌnfəˈgetəbl/ *adjective* Something that is unforgettable is so good, interesting, etc that you remember it for a long time. *Seeing Niagara Falls was an **unforgettable experience**.*

unfortunate /ʌnˈfɔːtʃᵊnət/ *adjective* **1** SHOW FEELING used to show that you wish something was not true or had not happened *an unfortunate mistake* [**+ (that)**] *It was unfortunate that she lost her job just as her husband became ill.* **2** NOT LUCKY unlucky *One unfortunate person failed to see the hole and fell straight into it.*

unfortunately /ʌnˈfɔːtʃənətli/ *adverb* used to say that you wish something was not true or that something had not happened *I'd love to come, but unfortunately I have to work.*

unfounded /ʌnˈfaʊndɪd/ *adjective* not based on facts ***unfounded allegations/rumours***

unfriendly /ʌnˈfrendli/ *adjective* not friendly

unfulfilled /ˌʌnfʊlˈfɪld/ *adjective* **1** NOT DONE An unfulfilled wish, hope, promise, etc is one that has not happened or not been achieved. *an **unfulfilled ambition/dream** ○ **unfulfilled potential*** **2** UNHAPPY unhappy because you think you should be achieving more in your life

ungainly /ʌnˈgeɪnli/ *adjective* moving in a way that is not attractive *an ungainly walk*

ungrateful /ʌnˈgreɪtfᵊl/ *adjective* not thanking or showing that you are pleased with someone who has done something for you

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***unhappy***

Sad and **miserable** mean the same as unhappy: *I felt so **sad** after he left.* ● *I just woke up feeling **miserable**.*

If someone is **upset**, they are unhappy because something bad has happened: *They'd had an argument and she was still **upset** about it.* ● *Mike got very **upset** when I told him the news.*

If someone is **broken-hearted** or **heartbroken** they are very sad because someone they love has ended a relationship with them: *She was **broken-hearted** when Richard left.*

If someone is **devastated**, or **distraught**, they are extremely upset: *She was **devastated** when he died.* ● *The missing child's **distraught** parents made an emotional appeal for information on TV.*

The adjective **depressed** is often used when someone is very unhappy for a long time: *She became deeply **depressed** after her husband died.*

unhappy /ʌnˈhæpi/ *adjective* **1** SAD sad *an unhappy childhood* **2** NOT SATISFIED not satisfied *Giorgio was **unhappy with** his test results.* ○ *I'm **unhappy about** the situation.* ●**unhappily** *adverb* ●**unhappiness** *noun* [**U**]

unharmed /ʌnˈhɑːmd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] not harmed or damaged *Both children **escaped unharmed** from the burning building.*

unhealthy /ʌnˈhelθi/ *adjective* **1** HEALTH likely to damage your health *Eating too much is unhealthy.* **2** HEALTH not strong, and likely to become ill *She looks pale and unhealthy.* **3** not normal and slightly unpleasant *an **unhealthy interest** in weapons*

unheard /ʌnˈhɜːd/ *adjective* not listened to or considered *Her cries **went unheard**.*

unˈheard ˌof *adjective* [**never before noun**] never having happened before *Thirty years ago the disease was unheard of.*

unhelpful /ʌnˈhelpfʊl/ *adjective* **1** NOT IMPROVE not improving a situation *an unhelpful remark* **2** NOT HELP not wanting to help someone, in a way that seems unfriendly *The taxi driver was rude and unhelpful.*

unhurt /ʌnˈhɜːt/ *adjective* not harmed

unicellular /ˌjuː.nɪˈsel.jə.lᵊr/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** describes a living thing that is made of only one cell *Most algae are unicellular.*

unicorn /ˈjuːnɪkɔːn/ *noun* [**C**] an imaginary white horse with a horn growing from the front of its head

unidentified /ˌʌnaɪˈdentɪfaɪd/ *adjective* not recognized *The body of an unidentified woman was found in a field last night.*

unification /ˌjuːnɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] **POLITICS** when two or more countries join together and become one country *the unification of East and West Germany*

uniform¹ /ˈjuːnɪfɔːm/ *noun* [**C, U**] a special set of clothes that are worn by people who do a particular job or people who go to a particular school *a **school uniform*** ○ *a nurse's uniform* ○ *Tom looks completely different **in uniform*** (= wearing a uniform). ●**uniformed** *adjective uniformed police officers*

uniform² /ˈjuːnɪfɔːm/ *adjective* being the same size, shape, amount, etc *a row of houses of uniform height* ●**uniformity** /ˌjuːnɪˈfɔːməti/ *noun* [**U**] ●**uniformly** *adverb*

unify /ˈjuːnɪfaɪ/ *verb* [**T**] **POLITICS** to join together two or more countries or groups to make a single one *We need a leader who can unify the party.* ●**unified** *adjective Many people want a more unified Europe.*

unilateral /ˌjuːnɪˈlætᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* A unilateral action or decision is done or made by one country, group, etc without waiting for others to agree. *unilateral nuclear disarmament* ●**unilaterally** *adverb*

unimaginable /ˌʌnɪˈmædʒɪnəbl/ *adjective* Something that is unimaginable is difficult to imagine because it is so bad, good, big, etc. *unimaginable pain/wealth* ●**unimaginably** *adverb*

unimportant /ˌʌnɪmˈpɔːtᵊnt/ *adjective* not important

unincorporated /ʌnɪnˈkɔːpəreɪtɪd/ *adjective* An unincorporated business is not incorporated (= organized in a particular legal way).

uninhabitable /ˌʌnɪnˈhæbɪtəbl/ *adjective* too cold, dangerous, etc to live in

uninhabited /ˌʌnɪnˈhæbɪtɪd/ *adjective* If a place is uninhabited, no one lives there. *an uninhabited island*

uninhibited /ˌʌnɪnˈhɪbɪtɪd/ *adjective* feeling free to behave in any way that you want without worrying about other people's opinions

U

uninstall /ˌʌnɪnˈstɔːl/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to remove a computer program from a computer

unintelligible /ˌʌnɪnˈtelɪdʒəbl/ *adjective* impossible to understand

unintentional /ˌʌnɪnˈtentʃənəl/ *adjective* not planned or intended *If I did offend her it was entirely unintentional.*

uninterested /ʌnˈɪntrəstɪd/ *adjective* not interested *He's completely **uninterested in** politics.*

uninterrupted /ʌnˌɪntərˈʌptɪd/ *adjective* continuous *I want a radio station that offers uninterrupted music.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***union***

join a union ● a union **member/official/leader/representative**

union /ˈjuːnjən/ *noun* POLITICS **1** [C] (*also* **trade union**) (*also US* **labor union**) an organization that represents people who do a particular job *a teachers'/firefighters' union* **2** [U, no plural] when two or more countries, groups, etc join together to make one country, group, etc *a move towards full economic union of EU countries* ➲See also: **the European Union**

Union Jack (*also* **Union flag**) *noun* [C] the red, white and blue flag of the United Kingdom

unique /juːˈniːk/ *adjective* **1** NOT THE SAME different from everyone and everything else *Everyone's fingerprints are unique.* **2** SPECIAL unusual and special *a **unique opportunity*** **3 be unique to sb/sth** to exist in only one place, or be connected with only one person or thing *It's a method of education that is unique to this school.* ●**uniquely** *adverb* ●**uniqueness** *noun* [U]

unisex /ˈjuːnɪseks/ *adjective* for both men and women *unisex clothes* ○ *a unisex hairdresser*

unison /ˈjuːnɪsən/ *noun* **in unison** If people do something in unison, they all do it at the same time.

unit /ˈjuːnɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** GROUP a group of people who are responsible for a particular part of an organization *an anti-terrorist unit* **2** MEASURES a measure used to express an amount or quantity *The kilogram is a **unit of** weight.* **3** SINGLE a single, complete thing that may be part of a larger thing *a French course book with ten units* **4** FURNITURE a piece of furniture that fits together with other pieces ***kitchen units*** **5** MACHINE a small machine, or part of a machine, that has a particular purpose *a computer's central processing unit* **6** BUILDING a single apartment, office, etc in a larger building

unite /juːˈnaɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to join together as a group, or to make people join together as a group *We need a leader who can unite the party.*

united /juːˈnaɪtɪd/ *adjective* **1** AGREE If people are united, they all agree about something. *On the issue of education the party is united.* **2** JOINED joined together *a united Germany*

the United Nations *noun* [group] POLITICS an international organization that tries to solve world problems in a peaceful way

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***unity***

achieve/maintain/restore unity ● unity **among/between** sb ● a **show of** unity

unity /ˈjuːnəti/ *noun* [U] when everyone agrees with each other or wants to stay together *national unity* ○ *family unity*

universal /ˌjuːnɪˈvɜːsəl/ *adjective* relating to everyone in the world, or to everyone in a particular group *Kittens and puppies have an almost **universal appeal**.* ●**universally** *adverb* *It's a style of music that is universally popular.*

universal indicator *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a substance which changes colour with different pH levels, used to discover how acid or alkaline something is

universal set *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a set that contains all the things being considered

the universe /ˈjuːnɪvɜːs/ *noun* ASTRONOMY everything that exists, including stars, space, etc *Many people believe that there is life elsewhere in the universe.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***university***

go to university ● **at** university ● a **university** course

university /ˌjuːnɪˈvɜːsəti/ *noun* [C, U] EDUCATION a place where students study at a high level to get a degree (= type of qualification) *the University of Cambridge* ○ *I applied to three universities.* ○ *(mainly UK) Sarah studied chemistry **at university**.* ○ *(mainly UK) I want to **go to university** when I finish school.*

unjust /ʌnˈdʒʌst/ *adjective* not fair ***unjust treatment/laws/sanctions*** ●**unjustly** *adverb*

unjustified /ʌnˈdʒʌstɪfaɪd/ *adjective* done without a reason and not deserved ***unjustified criticism***

unkempt /ʌnˈkempt/ *adjective* untidy *Her hair was long and unkempt.*

unkind /ʌnˈkaɪnd/ *adjective* slightly cruel *I didn't tell her the truth because I thought it would be unkind.* ●**unkindly** *adverb* ●**unkindness** *noun* [U]

unknown[1] /ʌnˈnəʊn/ *adjective* **1** NOT KNOWN not known *The cause of his death is still unknown.* **2** NOT FAMOUS not famous *an unknown actor* ➲See also: an unknown **quantity**

unknown[2] /ʌnˈnəʊn/ *noun* **1 the unknown** things that you have not experienced and know nothing about *It's normal to fear the unknown.* **2** [C] someone who is not famous *The game was won by a complete unknown.*

unlawful /ʌnˈlɔːfəl/ *adjective formal* LAW illegal ***unlawful possession of** guns* ●**unlawfully** *adverb*

unleaded /ʌnˈledɪd/ *adjective* ENVIRONMENT Unleaded fuel does not contain lead (= a metal).

unleash /ʌnˈliːʃ/ *verb* [T] to suddenly cause a strong reaction *The newspaper report unleashed a storm of protest from readers.*

unless /ənˈles/ *conjunction* except if *I won't call you unless there are any problems.*

unlike /ʌnˈlaɪk/ *preposition* **1** DIFFERENT different from someone or something *Jackie's really*

U

clever, unlike her sister. ○ *The furniture was unlike anything she had ever seen.* **2** NOT TYPICAL not typical of someone or something *It's unlike her to be quiet - was there something wrong?*

O-key unlikely /ʌnˈlaɪkli/ *adjective* **1** NOT HAPPEN not expected to happen [**+ (that)**] *It's unlikely that I'll be able to come to the party.* [**+ to do sth**] *He's unlikely to arrive before midday.* **2** NOT TRUE probably not true *an unlikely explanation*

unlimited /ʌnˈlɪmɪtɪd/ *adjective* without any limits *a service that offers unlimited Internet access*

unˌlimited liaˈbility *noun* [**U**] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** when the owner or owners of a business are responsible for all its debts

unload /ʌnˈləʊd/ *verb* **1** REMOVE [**I, T**] to remove things from a vehicle *Can you help me unload the car?* **2** SHIP/AIRCRAFT [**I**] If a ship, aircraft, etc unloads, goods are taken off it.

unlock /ʌnˈlɒk/ *verb* [**T**] to open something which is locked using a key

unlucky /ʌnˈlʌki/ *adjective* having or causing bad luck [**+ to do sth**] *The team played well and was unlucky to lose.* ○ *Some people think it's unlucky to walk under ladders.* ●**unluckily** *adverb*

unmarked /ʌnˈmɑːkt/ *adjective* having no signs or words that show what something is *The once famous actor was buried in an **unmarked grave**.*

unmarried /ʌnˈmærɪd/ *adjective* not married

unmatched /ʌnˈmætʃt/ *adjective* better than anyone or anything else *Horses have an athletic beauty **unmatched by** any other animal.*

unmistakable /ˌʌnmɪˈsteɪkəbl/ *adjective* Something that is unmistakable is very obvious and cannot be confused with anything else. *an unmistakable look of disappointment* ●**unmistakably** *adverb*

unmoved /ʌnˈmuːvd/ *adjective* not feeling any emotion *It's impossible to **remain unmoved** by pictures of starving children.*

unnamed /ʌnˈneɪmd/ *adjective* An unnamed person or thing is talked about but their name is not said. *The money was given by an unnamed businessman.*

unnatural /ʌnˈnætʃᵊrᵊl/ *adjective* not normal or right *an unnatural interest in death* ●**unnaturally** *adverb unnaturally thin*

unnecessary /ʌnˈnesəsᵊri/ *adjective* **1** NOT NEEDED not needed *You don't want to make any unnecessary car journeys in this weather.* **2** UNKIND unkind *Why did she say that? That was unnecessary.* ●**unnecessarily** /ʌnˈnesəsᵊrᵊli/ *adverb*

unnerve /ʌnˈnɜːv/ *verb* [**T**] to make someone feel nervous or frightened

unnerving /ʌnˈnɜːvɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel nervous or frightened *He kept looking at me which I found unnerving.*

unnoticed /ʌnˈnəʊtɪst/ *adjective* without being seen or noticed *We managed to slip away unnoticed.*

unobtrusive /ˌʌnəbˈtruːsɪv/ *adjective* not attracting attention *He was quiet and unobtrusive.* ●**unobtrusively** *adverb*

unoccupied /ʌnˈɒkjəpaɪd/ *adjective* An unoccupied building, room, seat, etc has no one in it.

unofficial /ˌʌnəˈfɪʃᵊl/ *adjective* not said or done by the government or someone in authority ***Unofficial reports** suggest the death toll from the earthquake is around 600.* ●**unofficially** *adverb*

unorthodox /ʌnˈɔːθədɒks/ *adjective* unusual and different from most people's opinions, methods, etc ***unorthodox ideas/views*** ○ *an **unorthodox style** of teaching*

unpack /ʌnˈpæk/ *verb* [**I, T**] to take things out of a bag, box, etc *Bella **unpacked** her **suitcase**.* ○ *I haven't had time to unpack yet.*

unpaid /ʌnˈpeɪd/ *adjective* **1 FINANCE** An unpaid debt, tax, etc has not been paid. **2** working without getting any money ***unpaid work***

unpalatable /ʌnˈpælətəbl/ *adjective formal* shocking and difficult to accept *an **unpalatable fact***

unparalleled /ʌnˈpærᵊleld/ *adjective formal* better, greater, worse, etc than anything else *an act of unparalleled cruelty*

unplanned /ʌnˈplænd/ *adjective* not planned or expected *an **unplanned pregnancy***

unpleasant /ʌnˈplezᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** NOT ENJOYABLE not enjoyable or pleasant *an unpleasant experience/smell* **2** RUDE rude and angry *The waiter got quite unpleasant with us.* ●**unpleasantly** *adverb*

unplug /ʌnˈplʌg/ *verb* [**T**] to stop a piece of electrical equipment being connected to an electricity supply by pulling its plug (= object with pins) out of the wall

unpopular /ʌnˈpɒpjələʳ/ *adjective* disliked by most people *an unpopular idea* ○ *an unpopular teacher* ●**unpopularity** /ʌnˌpɒpjəˈlærəti/ *noun* [**U**]

unprecedented /ʌnˈpresɪdᵊntɪd/ *adjective* never having happened before *The Internet has given people unprecedented access to information.*

unpredictable /ˌʌnprɪˈdɪktəbl/ *adjective* changing so much that you do not know what will happen next *unpredictable weather conditions* ●**unpredictability** /ˌʌnprɪˌdɪktəˈbɪlɪti/ *noun* [**U**]

unprofessional /ˌʌnprəˈfeʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* behaving badly at work *an unprofessional attitude*

unprovoked /ˌʌnprəˈvəʊkt/ *adjective* An unprovoked attack is one in which the person who is attacked has done nothing to cause it.

unqualified /ʌnˈkwɒlɪfaɪd/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT QUALIFICATIONS without the qualifications or knowledge to do something [**+ to do sth**] *She was totally unqualified to look after children.* **2** TOTAL [**always before noun**] *formal* total and not limited in any way *an **unqualified success***

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unquestionably /ʌnˈkwestʃənəbli/ *adverb* in a way that is obvious and causes no doubt *She is unquestionably the best person for the job.*

unravel /ʌnˈrævəl/ *verb* [**I, T**] *UK* **unravelling**, *past* **unravelled**, *US* **unraveling**, *past* **unraveled** **1** BECOME CLEAR If you unravel a difficult situation or story, or if it unravels, it becomes clear and easier to understand. *No one has yet unravelled the mystery of his death.* **2** THREAD/STRING to stop being twisted together, or to move pieces of string, etc so that they are not twisted together

unreal /ʌnˈriəl/ *adjective* Something that is unreal seems so strange that it is difficult to believe. *For a while I couldn't believe she was dead - it all seemed unreal.* ●**unreality** /ˌʌnriˈæləti/ *noun* [**U**]

unrealistic /ˌʌnrɪəˈlɪstɪk/ *adjective* not thinking about what is likely to happen or what you can really do *She has a totally unrealistic view of life.* [**+ to do sth**] *It's unrealistic to expect their decision before Tuesday.*

unreasonable /ʌnˈriːzᵊnəbl/ *adjective* not fair ***unreasonable demands/behaviour*** [**+ to do sth**] *It seems unreasonable to expect one person to do both jobs.* ●**unreasonably** *adverb*

unrelated /ˌʌnrɪˈleɪtɪd/ *adjective* having no connection *Police said his death was* ***unrelated to*** *the attack.*

unrelenting /ˌʌnrɪˈlentɪŋ/ *adjective formal* never stopping or getting any less extreme *unrelenting pressure* ○ *The heat was unrelenting.*

unreliable /ˌʌnrɪˈlaɪəbl/ *adjective* not able to be trusted or depended on *an* ***unreliable witness*** ○ *The trains were noisy, dirty, and unreliable.*

unremarkable /ʌnrɪˈmɑːkəbl/ *adjective* ordinary and not interesting *an unremarkable town*

unremitting /ˌʌnrɪˈmɪtɪŋ/ *adjective formal* never stopping or getting any less extreme ***unremitting hostility/pressure*** ○ *unremitting efforts*

unrepentant /ˌʌnrɪˈpentənt/ *adjective* not feeling sorry about something bad that you have done

unreservedly /ˌʌnrɪˈzɜːvɪdli/ *adverb* completely *The minister has* ***apologized unreservedly.***

unresolved /ˌʌnrɪˈzɒlvd/ *adjective formal* If a problem or question is unresolved, there is still no solution or answer. *The question of who owns the land* ***remains unresolved.***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***unrest***

cause unrest ● **continuing/growing** unrest ● unrest **among** sb ● unrest **over** sth ● a **wave of** unrest ● **political/social** unrest

unrest /ʌnˈrest/ *noun* [**U**] when a lot of people are angry about something and are likely to become violent ***political/social unrest***

unrestrained /ˌʌnrɪˈstreɪnd/ *adjective* not limited or controlled *unrestrained anger*

unrivalled *UK* (*US* **unrivaled**) /ʌnˈraɪvᵊld/ *adjective* better than any other of the same type *The museum has an* ***unrivalled collection*** *of modern American paintings.* ○ *an* ***unrivalled reputation***

unroll /ʌnˈrəʊl/ *verb* [**T**] to open something that was rolled into a tube shape and make it flat *He unrolled the carpet.*

unruly /ʌnˈruːli/ *adjective* **1** PEOPLE behaving badly and difficult to control ***unruly children*** **2** HAIR Unruly hair is difficult to keep tidy.

unsafe /ʌnˈseɪf/ *adjective* **1** DANGEROUS dangerous *The building is unsafe.* [**+ to do sth**] *The water was dirty and unsafe to drink.* **2** IN DANGER If you feel unsafe, you feel that you are in danger. *Many women feel unsafe on the streets at night.*

unsatisfactory /ʌnˌsætɪsˈfæktᵊri/ *adjective* not good enough to be acceptable *Many school buildings are in an unsatisfactory condition.*

unsaturated fat /ˌʌnsætʃəreɪtɪdˈfæt/ **FOOD** a fat or oil that is found in plants, vegetable oil and fish and thought to be better for your health than saturated fat ➲Compare **saturated fat**

unsavoury *UK* (*US* **unsavory**) /ʌnˈseɪvᵊri/ *adjective* unpleasant and morally offensive *an* ***unsavoury reputation/incident/character***

unscathed /ʌnˈskeɪðd/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] not harmed *The driver of the car was killed but both passengers* ***escaped unscathed.***

unscrew /ʌnˈskruː/ *verb* [**T**] **1** TWIST to remove something by twisting it *I can't unscrew the lid.* **2** REMOVE METAL PIECES to remove something by taking the screws (= small, metal pieces) out of it

unscrupulous /ʌnˈskruːpjələs/ *adjective* behaving in a way that is dishonest or unfair in order to get what you want *an unscrupulous financial adviser*

unseat /ʌnˈsiːt/ *verb* [**T**] **POLITICS** to remove someone from a powerful position *Kennedy has a good chance of unseating the President at the next election.*

unseen /ʌnˈsiːn/ *adjective, adverb* not seen or noticed *an exhibition of previously unseen photographs*

unsettled /ʌnˈsetld/ *adjective* **1** CHANGING changing often *The* ***weather*** *continues to be* ***unsettled.*** **2** ANXIOUS anxious and not able to relax or feel happy in a situation *Children tend to get unsettled if you keep changing their routine.*

unsettling /ʌnˈsetlɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel anxious *an* ***unsettling experience/feeling***

unsightly /ʌnˈsaɪtli/ *adjective* unpleasant to look at *unsightly piles of litter*

unskilled /ʌnˈskɪld/ *adjective* **1** PEOPLE without special skills or qualifications *an* ***unskilled labourer/worker*** **2** WORK Unskilled work does not need people with special skills or qualifications.

unsociable /ʌnˈsəʊʃəbl/ *adjective* not wanting to be with other people

unsolicited /ˌʌnsəˈlɪsɪtɪd/ *adjective* not asked for and often not wanted ***unsolicited advice/offer***

unsolved /ʌnˈsɒlvd/ *adjective* having no answer or solution *an* ***unsolved mystery/murder/crime***

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unsound /ʌnˈsaʊnd/ *adjective* **1** WRONG based on ideas, facts, and reasons that are wrong *an **unsound practice*** **2** BAD CONDITION in a bad condition *The bridge was **structurally unsound**.*

unspeakable /ʌnˈspiːkəbl/ *adjective* extremely bad or shocking *unspeakable crimes/suffering* ●**unspeakably** *adverb*

unspecified /ʌnˈspesɪfaɪd/ *adjective* If something is unspecified, you are not told what it is. *The court awarded her an unspecified amount of money.*

unspoiled (*also UK* **unspoilt**) /ʌnˈspɔɪlt/ *adjective* An unspoiled place is beautiful because it has not been changed or damaged by people. *an island with clean, unspoiled beaches*

unspoken /ʌnˈspəʊkᵊn/ *adjective* not said, but thought or felt *unspoken doubts*

unstable /ʌnˈsteɪbl/ *adjective* **1** CHANGE likely to change or end suddenly *an **unstable situation*** ○ *an unstable economy* **2** PERSON If someone is unstable, their moods and behaviour change suddenly, especially because they are mentally ill. **3** MOVE not fixed or safe and likely to move *That chair looks a bit unstable.*

unsteady /ʌnˈstedi/ *adjective* moving slightly from side to side, as if you might fall *The alcohol had made her unsteady on her feet.*

unstuck /ʌnˈstʌk/ *adjective* **come unstuck** **a** *UK* If something comes unstuck, it stops being fixed to something. *One of the photos has come unstuck.* **b** *UK informal* to experience difficulties and fail *The negotiations came unstuck at a crucial stage.*

unsubscribe /ˌʌnsəbˈskraɪb/ *verb* [**I, T**] **COMPUTING** to remove your name from an Internet mailing list (= a list of names and addresses that an organization sends information to)

unsuccessful /ˌʌnsəkˈsesfᵊl/ *adjective* not achieving what was wanted or intended *an unsuccessful attempt/effort* ●**unsuccessfully** *adverb*

unsuitable /ʌnˈsuːtəbl/ *adjective* not acceptable or right for someone or something *My parents considered the programme unsuitable for children.*

unsung /ʌnˈsʌŋ/ *adjective* not famous or praised although you have done something very well *He was the **unsung hero** of the match.*

unsure /ʌnˈʃʊəʳ/ *adjective* **1** not certain or having doubts *I'm a bit **unsure about** what to do.* **2 unsure of yourself** without confidence

unsuspecting /ˌʌnsəˈspektɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] not aware that something bad is happening *In each case the **unsuspecting victim** had been invited into Cooper's home.*

unsustainable /ˌʌnsəˈsteɪnəbᵊl/ *adjective* **1** Something that is unsustainable cannot continue at the same rate **2** **ENVIRONMENT** causing damage to the environment by using more of something than can be replaced naturally *unsustainable fishing methods*

unsympathetic /ˌʌnsɪmpəˈθetɪk/ *adjective* **1** WITHOUT SYMPATHY showing that you do not understand or care about someone's problems *I told him I'd got a cold but he was completely unsympathetic.* **2** NOT SUPPORTING not agreeing with or supporting someone's ideas or actions

untangle /ʌnˈtæŋgl/ *verb* [**T**] **1** SEPARATE to separate pieces of string, hair, wire, etc that have become twisted together *I'm trying to untangle these wires.* **2** UNDERSTAND to understand the different parts of a situation that has become confused or very complicated *Historians have tried to untangle the complex issues behind the events.*

untapped /ʌnˈtæpt/ *adjective* not yet used ***untapped potential***

untenable /ʌnˈtenəbl/ *adjective formal* If an argument, action, or situation is untenable, it cannot be supported or defended from criticism. *an **untenable position***

unthinkable /ʌnˈθɪŋkəbl/ *adjective* If something is unthinkable, it is so strange that you can not imagine it will ever happen. *Thirty years ago a no-smoking restaurant would have been unthinkable.*

untidy /ʌnˈtaɪdi/ *adjective* not tidy *an untidy room* ○ *She's really untidy at home.*

untie /ʌnˈtaɪ/ *verb* [**T**] **untying**, *past* **untied** to open a knot or something that has been tied with a knot *I untied my shoelaces and kicked off my shoes.*

O-key **until** /ᵊnˈtɪl/ (*also* **till**) *preposition, conjunction* **1** HAPPEN THEN STOP continuing to happen before a particular time or event and then stopping *The show will be on until the end of the month.* ○ *Whisk the egg whites until they look white and fluffy.* **2** AS FAR AS as far as *Carry on until you reach the traffic lights and turn right.* **3 not until** not before a particular time or event *It doesn't open until 7.* ○ *We won't start until Jeanne arrives.*

untimely /ʌnˈtaɪmli/ *adjective* happening too soon *her **untimely death** from cancer*

untold /ʌnˈtəʊld/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] too much to be measured or counted ***untold riches*** ○ ***untold damage***

untouched /ʌnˈtʌtʃt/ *adjective* **1** NOT DAMAGED not changed or damaged in any way *Most of the island remains **untouched by** tourism.* **2** NOT EATEN If food is untouched, it has not been eaten.

untoward /ˌʌntəˈwɔːd/ *adjective formal* unexpected and causing problems *If nothing **untoward happens** we should be there by midday.*

untrained /ʌnˈtreɪnd/ *adjective* **1** never having been taught the skills for a particular job *untrained staff* **2 the untrained eye** someone without the skill or knowledge to judge what they see ***To the untrained eye**, most fake diamonds look real.*

untried /ʌnˈtraɪd/ *adjective* not yet used or tested *new and untried technology*

untrue /ʌnˈtruː/ *adjective* false

untruth /ʌnˈtruːθ/ *noun* [**C**] *formal* a lie, or something that is not true

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unused[1] /ʌnˈjuːzd/ *adjective* not used now or not used before now *an unused room*

unused[2] /ʌnˈjuːst/ *adjective* **be unused to sth** to not have experience of something *I was unused to city life.*

unusual /ʌnˈjuːʒuəl/ *adjective* different and not ordinary, often in a way that is interesting or exciting *an unusual name* [+ **to do sth**] *It's fairly unusual to keep insects as pets.*

unusually /ʌnˈjuːʒuəli/ *adverb* **1 unusually big/strong/good, etc** bigger, stronger, better, etc than is normal *unusually warm weather* **2 unusually for sb** in a way that is not usual for someone *Unusually for me, I actually couldn't finish my meal.*

unveil /ʌnˈveɪl/ *verb* [T] **1** TELL THE PUBLIC to tell the public about an idea or plan that was secret before *The new policy is due to be unveiled later this month.* **2** REMOVE COVER to remove the cover from an object as part of an official ceremony

unwanted /ʌnˈwɒntɪd/ *adjective* not wanted *an **unwanted gift***

unwarranted /ʌnˈwɒrᵊntɪd/ *adjective formal* without a good reason ***unwarranted intrusion***

unwary /ʌnˈweəri/ *adjective* not aware of possible dangers ***Unwary travellers** can easily get lost in these parts.*

unwelcome /ʌnˈwelkəm/ *adjective* not wanted *unwelcome publicity* ○ *an unwelcome visitor*

unwell /ʌnˈwel/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] *formal* HEALTH ill *to feel/look unwell*

unwieldy /ʌnˈwiːldi/ *adjective* An unwieldy object is difficult to carry because it is heavy, large, or a strange shape.

unwilling /ʌnˈwɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* not wanting to do something [+ **to do sth**] *A lot of people are unwilling to accept change.* ●**unwillingly** *adverb* ●**unwillingness** *noun* [U]

unwind /ʌnˈwaɪnd/ *verb past* **unwound 1** RELAX [I] *informal* to relax, especially after working *Music helps me to unwind.* **2** MAKE STRAIGHT [I, T] If you unwind something, or if something unwinds, it stops being curled round or twisted round something else and is made straight. *He unwound the bandage.*

unwise /ʌnˈwaɪz/ *adjective* stupid and likely to cause problems *an unwise decision* ●**unwisely** *adverb*

unwittingly /ʌnˈwɪtɪŋli/ *adverb* without intending to do something *I apologized for the chaos I had unwittingly caused.*

unworkable /ʌnˈwɜːkəbl/ *adjective* A plan that is unworkable is impossible. *The policy has been described as unworkable.*

unwrap /ʌnˈræp/ *verb* [T] **unwrapping**, *past* **unwrapped** to remove the paper, cloth, etc that is covering something *She carefully unwrapped the present.*

unwritten /ʌnˈrɪtᵊn/ *adjective* **an unwritten agreement/law/rule** an agreement, law, etc that is accepted and obeyed by most people but is not formally written

unzip /ʌnˈzɪp/ *verb* [T] **unzipping**, *past* **unzipped 1** to open something by using its zip (= two rows of metal or plastic points that fasten two sides together) *He unzipped his trousers.* **2** COMPUTING to make a file bigger again after it has been zipped (= made smaller so that you can send or store it) so that it can easily be used

up[1] /ʌp/ *adverb, preposition* **1** HIGHER PLACE towards or in a higher place *He ran up the stairs.* ○ *Pick up your clothes and put them away.* ○ *She looked up and smiled at me.* **2** VERTICAL vertical or as straight as possible *He stood up.* ○ *She opened her eyes and sat up.* **3** INCREASE to a greater degree, amount, volume, etc *Inflation keeps pushing prices up.* ○ *Can you turn up the heat? I'm freezing!* ○ *Please speak up* (= speak louder), *I can't hear you.* **4** COMPLETELY used to emphasize that someone completes an action or uses all of something *I used up all my money.* ○ *Eat up the rest of your dinner.* **5 up the road/street, etc** along or further along the street/road, etc *My best friend lives up the street from me.* ○ *He ran up the path and hugged her.* **6 go/walk, etc up to sb/sth** to walk directly towards someone or something until you are next to them *He walked straight up to me and introduced himself.* **7** DIRECTION in or towards a particular direction, usually north *We moved from London **up to** Scotland.* ○ *Chris lives up north.* **8 up and down** If something or someone moves up and down, they move repeatedly in one direction and then in the opposite direction. *The children were constantly running up and down the stairs.* **9 up to 10, 20, etc** any amount under 10, 20, etc *We can invite up to 65 people.* **10 up to** until a particular time *You can call me up to midnight.* **11 up to sth** equal in quality or achievement *His work wasn't up to his usual standard.* **12 up to sth/doing sth** able to do something *It'll be a while before I feel up to walking again.* **13 be up to (sth)** *informal* to be doing or planning something, often something secret and bad *Joe, what are you up to?* **14 be up to sb** If an action or decision is up to someone, they are responsible for doing or making it. *I can't decide for you Jack, **it's up to you**.* [+ **to do sth**] *It's up to her to decide whether she wants to enter the competition.* **15 be up against sb/sth** If you are up against a situation or a person, they make it very difficult for you to achieve what you want to achieve. *We were up against some of the best players in the world.*

up[2] /ʌp/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **1** NOT IN BED not in bed *I was up all night with the baby.* ○ *Is she up yet?* **2 be up and around/about** to be well enough after an illness to get out of bed and move around **3** FINISHED If a period of time is up, it has ended. *My health club membership is up.* **4** INCREASE If a level or amount is up, it has increased. *Profits are up by 26%.* **5** ROAD *UK* If a road is up, it is being repaired. **6** COMPUTING If a computer system is up, it is operating. **7** SPORT *US* In baseball and similar sports, if a player is up, they are taking a turn to play. **8 be up and running** If a system, organization, or machine is up and running, it is operating. **9 be up for sth** *informal* to want to

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do something *We're going clubbing tonight if you're up for it.*

up³ /ʌp/ *verb* [T] **upping**, *past* **upped** to increase something *Dad's upped my allowance by fifty cents a week.*

up-and-coming /ˌʌpəˈnˈkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] becoming popular and likely to achieve success *He's a young, up-and-coming DJ.*

upbeat /ˈʌpˌbiːt/ *adjective informal* positive and expecting a situation to be good or successful *He remains upbeat about the future.*

upbringing /ˈʌpˌbrɪŋɪŋ/ *noun* [**no plural**] SOCIETY the way your parents treat you when you are growing up *a middle-class/religious upbringing*

upcoming /ˈʌpˌkʌmɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] An upcoming event will happen soon. *the upcoming elections*

update¹ /ʌpˈdeɪt/ *verb* [T] **1** INFORMATION to add new information *We've just updated our website.* ○ *I'll* ***update*** *you* ***on*** (= tell you about) *any developments.* **2** MODERN to make something more modern *They need to update their image.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***update*** *(noun)*

get/give an update ● an update **on** sth ● an update **from** sb

update² /ˈʌpdeɪt/ *noun* [C] **1** INFORMATION new information *I'll need regular* ***updates on*** *your progress.* **2** NEW FORM a new form of something which existed at an earlier time *It's an* ***update of*** *an old 60's movie.*

upfront¹ /ˌʌpˈfrʌnt/ *adjective* **1** MONEY paid or obtained before work starts *an* ***upfront payment/fee*** **2** BEHAVIOUR behaving in a way that makes your beliefs and intentions obvious to other people *She's very* ***upfront about*** *her dislike of men.*

upfront² /ˌʌpˈfrʌnt/ *adverb* If you pay someone upfront, you pay them before they work for you.

upgrade /ʌpˈgreɪd/ *verb* [T] to improve something so that it is of a higher quality or a newer model *to upgrade a computer* ●**upgrade** /ˈʌpgreɪd/ *noun* [C]

upheaval /ʌpˈhiːvəl/ *noun* [C, U] a very big change that causes difficulty or confusion ***political/social upheaval***

uphill¹ /ʌpˈhɪl/ *adjective* **an uphill battle/struggle/task** something that is difficult to do and needs a lot of effort *I can lose weight but it's a real uphill struggle.*

uphill² /ʌpˈhɪl/ *adverb* towards the top of a hill *We'd walked half a mile uphill.*

uphold /ʌpˈhəʊld/ *verb* [T] *past* **upheld** **1** AGREE to agree with a decision, especially a legal one, and say it was correct *The court* ***upheld*** *the* ***ruling.*** **2** SUPPORT to support a decision, principle, or law *Police officers are expected to* ***uphold the law.***

upholstery /ʌpˈhəʊlstəri/ *noun* [U] the material that covers chairs and other types of seats

upkeep /ˈʌpkiːp/ *noun* [U] the process of keeping something in good condition, or of keeping a person or animal healthy

upland /ˈʌplənd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] existing on a hill or mountain *upland areas*

upland /ˈʌplənd/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY describes an area of land that is high up, such as on a hill or mountain ●**uplands** *noun* [**plural**]

uplands /ˈʌpləndz/ *noun* [**plural**] GEOGRAPHY high areas of land *the uplands of Nepal*

uplifting /ʌpˈlɪftɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel happy and full of good feelings *an uplifting film*

upload /ʌpˈləʊd/ *verb* [T] COMPUTING to copy computer programs or information electronically, usually from a small computer to a larger one or to the Internet ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36. ➲Compare **download**

upmarket /ˌʌpˈmɑːkɪt/ *UK* (*US* **upscale**) *adjective* expensive and used by people who are rich and from a high social class *an upmarket hotel/restaurant*

upon /əˈpɒn/ *preposition formal* on

upper /ˈʌpər/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** POSITION at a higher position *an upper floor* ○ *the upper lip* ○ *the upper body* **2** SOCIAL CLASS of a higher social class **3 the upper limit** the highest amount or level, or the longest time that something is allowed ➲See also: get/gain the upper **hand**¹

ˌupper ˈcase *noun* [U] letters written as capitals

ˌupper ˈclass *noun* [C] SOCIETY the highest social class of people *members of the upper classes* ●**upper-class** *adjective an upper-class accent*

uppermost /ˈʌpəməʊst/ *adjective* **1** highest *the building's uppermost floors* **2 be uppermost in sb's mind** to be the most important thing someone is thinking about *The safety of her children was uppermost in her mind.*

upright¹ /ˈʌpraɪt/ *adverb* vertical and as straight as possible *to sit/stand upright* ➲See also: **bolt upright**

upright² /ˈʌpraɪt/ *adjective* **1** VERTICAL straight up or vertical *Please return your seat to an upright position and fasten your seat belt.* **2** MORAL honest and morally good *an upright citizen*

uprising /ˈʌpˌraɪzɪŋ/ *noun* [C] POLITICS when a large group of people try to make political changes or change the government by fighting [**usually singular**] *a* ***general/popular uprising***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***uproar***

cause/provoke (an) uproar ● be (UK) **in** (US) **in an** uproar ● uproar **among** sb ● uproar **at/over** sth

uproar /ˈʌprɔːr/ *noun* [**U no plural**] when many people complain about something angrily *The book* ***caused*** *an* ***uproar*** *in the United States.* ○ *Local residents are UK* ***in uproar****/ US* ***in an uproar*** *over plans for the new road.*

uproot /ʌpˈruːt/ *verb* [T] **1** TREE to pull a tree or plant out of the ground *Hundreds of trees were uprooted in the storm.* **2** PERSON to make someone leave a place where they have been living for a long time *The war has uprooted nearly half the country's population.*

U

ˌups and ˈdowns *noun* [**plural**] the mixture of good and bad things that happen to people *Like most married couples, we've* ***had our ups and downs****.*

upscale /ˈʌpˌskeɪl/ *US* (*UK* **upmarket**) *adjective* expensive and used by people who are rich and from a high social class *an upscale restaurant/neighbourhood*

upset¹ /ʌpˈset/ *adjective* **1** unhappy or worried because something unpleasant has happened *They'd had an argument and she was still* ***upset about*** *it.* ○ *Mike* ***got*** *very* ***upset*** *when I told him the news.* **2 upset stomach/tummy** HEALTH an illness in the stomach

upset² /ʌpˈset/ *verb* [**T**] **upsetting**, *past* **upset** **1** WORRY to make someone feel unhappy or worried *The phone call had clearly upset her.* **2** SPOIL to cause problems for something *If I arrived later would that upset your plans?* **3 upset sb's stomach** HEALTH to make someone feel ill in the stomach

upset³ /ˈʌpset/ *noun* [**C**] **1** SPORT when someone beats the player or team that was expected to win *After Harding won the second set, a major upset seemed likely.* **2 a stomach/tummy upset** HEALTH *UK* an illness in the stomach **3** PROBLEM a difficulty or problem *We had the usual upsets but overall the day went well.*

upsetting /ʌpˈsetɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel unhappy or worried *I found the programme very upsetting.*

the upshot /ˈʌpʃɒt/ *noun* the final result of a discussion or series of events *The upshot is that we've decided to move to Sydney.*

ˌupside ˈdown¹ *adverb* **1** turned so that the part that is usually at the top is now at the bottom *One of the pictures had been hung upside down.* ○ ***Turn*** *the jar* ***upside down*** *and shake it.* **2 turn sth upside down a** MAKE UNTIDY to make a place very untidy while looking for something **b** CHANGE COMPLETELY to change someone's life or a system completely *Their lives were turned upside down when their son was arrested.*

ˌupside ˈdown² *adjective* turned so that the part that is usually at the top is now at the bottom *Why is this box upside down?*

upstage /ʌpˈsteɪdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] to do something that takes people's attention away from someone or something and gives it to you instead *You mustn't upstage the bride.*

upstairs /ʌpˈsteəz/ *adverb* on or to a higher level of a building *He ran upstairs to answer the phone.* ●**upstairs** *adjective an upstairs bedroom*

upstart /ˈʌpstɑːt/ *noun* [**C**] someone who has just started a job but already thinks they are very important

upstate /ˌʌpˈsteɪt/ *adjective US* in the northern part of a US state (= one of the parts into which the country is divided) *upstate New York* ●**upstate** *adverb She's taken a trip upstate with some friends.*

upstream /ʌpˈstriːm/ *adverb* along a river in the opposite direction to the way that the water is moving

upsurge /ˈʌpsɜːdʒ/ *noun* [**C**] a sudden increase *an* ***upsurge in*** *violent crime*

uptake /ˈʌpteɪk/ *noun informal* **be slow/quick on the uptake** to be slow/quick to understand something

uptight /ʌpˈtaɪt/ *adjective informal* worried or nervous and not able to relax

up-to-date /ˌʌptəˈdeɪt/ *adjective* **1** MODERN modern, and using the most recent technology or knowledge **2** INFORMATION having the most recent information *The Internet* ***keeps*** *us* ***up-to-date****.*

up-to-the-minute /ˌʌptəðəˈmɪnɪt/ *adjective* most recent *up-to-the-minute news*

uptown /ʌpˈtaʊn/ *adjective, adverb US* in or to the northern part of a city *She lives uptown.*

upturn /ˈʌptɜːn/ *noun* [**C**] ECONOMICS an improvement, especially in economic conditions or a business *There's been a sharp* ***upturn in*** *sales.*

upturned /ʌpˈtɜːnd/ *adjective* pointing up, or turned so the under side faces up *an upturned boat*

upward /ˈʌpwəd/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] moving towards a higher place or level *an upward glance* ○ *an upward trend in sales*

upwards /ˈʌpwədz/ *mainly UK* (*mainly US* **upward**) *adverb* **1** towards a higher place or level *House prices have started moving upwards again.* **2 upwards of sth** more than a particular amount *Double rooms cost upwards of £70 a night.*

uranium /jʊəˈreɪniəm/ *noun* [**U**] CHEMISTRY a heavy, grey metal that is used in the production of nuclear power (symbol **U**)

Uranus /ˈjʊərᵊnəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] ASTRONOMY the planet that is seventh from the Sun, after Saturn and before Neptune ➲See picture at **solar system**

urban /ˈɜːbᵊn/ *adjective* GEOGRAPHY, SOCIETY belonging or relating to a town or city *urban areas* ○ *urban development*

urbane /ɜːˈbeɪn/ *adjective* confident, relaxed, and polite *With his good looks and urbane manner, he was very popular.*

urbanization (*also UK* **-isation**) /ˌɜːbᵊnaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] GEOGRAPHY the way in which cities get bigger and more and more people leave the countryside to live in them

urea /jʊᵊriːə/ *noun* [**U**] BIOLOGY a colourless substance found in urine (= the liquid that comes out of your body when you go to the toilet) ➲See picture at **nitrogen cycle**

ureter /jʊəˈriː.təʳ/ *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY a tube on each side of the body that takes urine (= liquid waste) from the kidney (= organ that makes urine) to the bladder (= organ that stores urine)

urethra /jʊəˈriːθrə/ *noun* [**C**] ANATOMY the tube which carries urine (= liquid waste) out of the body. In men and male animals it also carries sperm (= small cells, one of which joins an egg to make a baby).

urge¹ /ɜːdʒ/ *verb* [**T**] **1 urge sb to do sth** to try to persuade someone to do something *His parents urged him to go to university.* **2** *formal* to

U

strongly advise an action *Financial experts are* ***urging caution***.
urge sb on *phrasal verb* to encourage someone to do or achieve something

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***urge*** *(noun)*

feel/have/resist/satisfy an urge ● an **irresistible/overwhelming/strong/sudden/uncontrollable** urge

urge² /ɜːdʒ/ *noun* [C] a strong wish or need [+ **to do sth**] *I* ***resisted*** *a powerful* ***urge*** *to slap him.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***urgency***

a **matter of** urgency ● a **sense of** urgency ● the urgency **of** sth

urgency /ˈɜːdʒᵊnsi/ *noun* [U] when something is very important and needs you to take action immediately *a* ***matter of*** *great* ***urgency***

urgent /ˈɜːdʒᵊnt/ *adjective* very important and needing you to take action immediately *an urgent message* ○ *The refugees were* ***in urgent need of*** *food and water.* ●**urgently** *adverb I need to* ***speak to*** *you* ***urgently***.

urinate /ˈjʊərɪneɪt/ *verb* [I] **BIOLOGY** to get rid of urine from your body

urine /ˈjʊərɪn/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the liquid that comes out of your body when you go to the toilet

URL /juːɑːrˈel/ **INTERNET** *abbreviation for* uniform resource locator: a website address ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

urn /ɜːn/ *noun* [C] **1** PLANTS a round container that is used for plants or to store someone's ashes (= the powder that is left after a dead body has been burned) **2** DRINKS a metal container that is used to make a large amount of coffee or tea and to keep it hot

urogenital /ˌjʊərəʊˈdʒenɪtᵊl/ *adjective* **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** relating to the parts of the body which make and carry urine (= liquid waste), and also the genitals (= sexual organs)

us *strong form* /ʌs/ *weak forms* /əs, s/ *pronoun* used after a verb or preposition to refer to the person who is speaking or writing and one or more other people *She gave us all a present.* ○ *Come and have dinner with us tonight.*

USA /ˌjuːesˈeɪ/ *noun abbreviation for* United States of America

usage /ˈjuːsɪdʒ/ *noun* **1** **LANGUAGE** [C, U] the way that words are used *a guide to English grammar and usage* **2** [U] the amount of something that is used, or the way that something is used *restrictions on water usage*

USB /ˌjuːesˈbiː/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* Universal Serial Bus: a part of a computer which allows you to connect extra devices, such as printers and cameras, without stopping and starting the computer again

use¹ /juːz/ *verb* [T] *past* **used** **1** PURPOSE If you use something, you do something with it for a particular purpose. *Can I use your pen?* ○ *She* ***uses*** *her car* ***for*** *work.* [+ **to do sth**] *Nick used the money to buy a CD player.* **2** MAKE LESS to take an amount from a supply of something *A shower uses less water than a bath.* **3** PERSON to treat someone badly in order to get what you want *He was just using me to make his girlfriend jealous.* **4** WORD to say or write a particular word or phrase *'Autumn' is used in British English and 'fall' in American English.* **5 could use sth** *mainly US informal* something that you say when you want or need something *I could use some help with these packages, please.*
use sth up *phrasal verb* to finish a supply of something *Someone's used up all the milk.*

use² /juːs/ *noun* **1** USING [U] when you use something, or when something is being used *an increase in the use of mobile phones* ○ *Guests have free use of the hotel swimming pool.* ○ *Turn the machine off when it's not* ***in use*** (= being used). **2** PURPOSE [C] a purpose for which something is used *A food processor has a variety of uses in the kitchen.* ○ *Can you* ***find a use for*** *this box?* **3 be (of) any/some use** to be useful *Is this book of any use to you?* **4 be (of) no use** to not be useful *His advice was no use at all.* **5 be no use; be no use doing sth** used to say that trying to do something has no effect *It was no use talking to him - he wouldn't listen.* **6** WORD [C] one of the meanings of a word, or the way that a particular word is used *Can you list all the uses of the verb 'go'?* **7 the use of sth** permission to use something, or the ability to use something *Martin has offered me the use of his car.* **8 make use of sth** to use something that is available *We were encouraged to make use of all the facilities.*

used¹ /juːst/ *adjective* **used to sth/doing sth** If you are used to something, you have done it or experienced it many times before. *He's used to working long hours.* ○ *We've been living here for two years and we've (UK)* ***got used to*** */ (US)* ***gotten used to*** *the heat.* ➲Opposite **unused**

used² /juːzd/ *adjective* Something that is used is not new and has been owned by someone else. *a* ***used car*** ➲Opposite **unused**

used to /ˈjuːsttuː/ *modal verb* **used to do/be sth** If something used to happen or a situation used to exist, it happened regularly or existed in the past but it does not happen or exist now. *I used to go out every night when I was a student.* ○ *He used to be a lot fatter.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

used to and **be used to**

Used to + verb is for talking about a situation or regular activity in the past.

My dad used to smoke when he was younger.

I used to live in Italy, but now I live in England.

When you make **used to + verb** into a question or negative using the verb do, the correct form is **use to**.

My dad didn't use to smoke.

Where did you use to live?

~~*Where did you used to live?*~~

The expression **be used to something/doing something** is for talking about something which you have done or experienced a lot before.

I don't mind the heat. I'm used to hot weather.

He's not used to working long hours.

~~*He's not use to working long hours.*~~

U

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***useful***

If something is useful because it helps you do or achieve something, you can describe it as **helpful** or **valuable**: *They gave us some really **helpful** advice.* ● *He was able to provide the police with some **valuable** information.*

The adjective **invaluable** means 'extremely useful': *The Internet is an **invaluable** resource for teachers.*

An activity which requires a lot of effort but is useful, is sometimes described as **worthwhile**: *It's a difficult course but it's very **worthwhile**.*

Something which is useful because it is simple to use is often described as **handy**: *That's a **handy** little gadget.*

The expression **come in handy** is often used when you think something will be useful in the future: *Don't throw that away - it'll **come in handy** for the party.*

If speech or writing contains a lot of useful information, you can describe it as **informative** or **instructive**: *It's an interesting and highly **informative** book.*

useful /ˈjuːsfᵊl/ *adjective* **1** helping you to do or achieve something *useful information* **2 come in useful** *UK* to be useful and help someone do or achieve something, especially when there is nothing else to help them *You should keep that paint - it might come in useful.* ●**usefully** *adverb* ●**usefulness** *noun* [U]

useless /ˈjuːsləs/ *adjective* **1** THING If something is useless, it does not work well or it has no effect. *This umbrella's useless - there's a big hole in it.* [+ **doing sth**] *It's useless arguing with her.* **2** PERSON *UK informal* having no skill in an activity *Dave's **useless at** football.*

user /ˈjuːzᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who uses a product, machine, or service *Internet users*

user-friendly /ˌjuːzəˈfrendli/ *adjective* A machine or system that is user-friendly is easy to use or understand. *user-friendly software*

ˈuser ˌgroup *noun* [C] COMPUTING, INTERNET a group of people who use the Internet to share information about a particular area of computing or a particular product

ˌuser ˈID *noun* [U] COMPUTING information that proves who a person using a computer system is

ˈuser ˌname (*also* **username**) *noun* [C] COMPUTING, INTERNET a name or otherword that you sometimes need to use together with a password (= secret word) before you can use a computer on the Internet ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 37.

usher¹ /ˈʌʃᵊ/ *verb* **usher sb into/to/across, etc** to show someone where to go or sit *She ushered me into her office.*
usher in sth *phrasal verb formal* to be at the start of a period when important changes happen, or to cause important changes to start happening *His presidency ushered in a new era of democracy.*

usher² /ˈʌʃᵊ/ *noun* [C] someone who shows people where to sit in a theatre or at a formal event

usual /ˈjuːʒuəl/ *adjective* **1** normal and happening most often *I went to bed at my usual time.* ○ *This winter has been much colder than usual.* ➲Opposite **unusual 2 as usual** in the way that happens most of the time *As usual, Ben was the last to arrive.*

usually /ˈjuːʒəli/ *adverb* in the way that most often happens *I usually get home at about six o'clock.* ○ *Usually I just have a sandwich.*

usurp /juːˈzɜːp/ *verb* [T] *formal* to take someone else's job or power when you should not

utensil /juːˈtensᵊl/ *noun* [C] a tool that you use for doing jobs in the house, especially cooking *wooden cooking utensils* ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

uterus /ˈjuːtᵊrəs/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the organ inside a woman's body where a baby grows ➲See picture at **foetus**

utilitarian /ˌjuːtɪlɪˈteəriən/ *adjective* designed to be useful and not beautiful *utilitarian furniture*

utility /juːˈtɪləti/ (*also* **public utility**) *noun* [C] an organization that supplies the public with water, gas, or electricity

utilize *formal* (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈjuːtɪlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to use something in an effective way *The vitamins come in a form that is easily utilized by the body.*

utmost¹ /ˈʌtməʊst/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* used to emphasize how important or serious something is *a matter of the **utmost importance*** ○ *The situation needs to be handled **with** the **utmost** care.*

utmost² /ˈʌtməʊst/ *noun* **do your utmost** to try as hard as you can to do something [+ **to do sth**] *We did our utmost to finish the project on time.*

utopia /juːˈtəʊpiə/ *noun* [C, U] SOCIETY an imaginary place where everything is perfect

utopian /juːˈtəʊpiən/ *adjective* SOCIETY A utopian idea or plan is based on the belief that things can be made perfect. *a **utopian vision** of society*

utter¹ /ˈʌtəᵣ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to emphasize something *She dismissed the article as utter nonsense.*

utter² /ˈʌtəᵣ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say something *She left without **uttering a word**.*

utterance /ˈʌtᵊrᵊns/ *noun* [C] *formal* something that you say

utterly /ˈʌtəli/ *adverb* completely *It's **utterly ridiculous**.*

U-turn /ˈjuːtɜːn/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a change of direction that you make when driving in order to travel in the opposite direction **2** DECISION a complete change from one opinion or plan to an opposite one *the government's **U-turn on** economic policy*

UV /juːˈviː/ *adjective abbreviation for* ultraviolet (= of the type of light that makes your skin darker) *UV light*

U

Vv

V, v /viː/ the twenty-second letter of the alphabet

V MEASURES *written abbreviation for* volt (= a unit for measuring an electric current) *a 9V battery*

v *UK* (*UK/US* **vs**) /viː/ *preposition* SPORT *abbreviation for* versus (= used to say that one team or person is competing against another) *Germany v France*

vacancy /ˈveɪkᵊnsi/ *noun* [C] **1** ROOM a room that is not being used in a hotel *Do you have any vacancies?* **2** JOB a job that is available for someone to do *Tell me if you hear of any vacancies for secretaries.*

vacant /ˈveɪkᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** EMPTY Somewhere that is vacant is available because it is not being used. *a vacant building* **2** JOB A vacant job is available for someone to do. **3** EXPRESSION A vacant expression on someone's face shows they are not thinking about anything. ●**vacantly** *adverb*

vacate /vəˈkeɪt/ (US) /ˈveɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to leave a room, building, chair, etc so that someone else can use it

O-key **vacation**[1] /vəˈkeɪʃᵊn/ (US) /veɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] **1** *US* (*UK* **holiday**) a period of time when you are not at home but are staying somewhere else for enjoyment *We're **taking a vacation** in Florida.* ○ *We met Bob and Wendi **on vacation**.* **2** EDUCATION *mainly US* a period of the year when schools or colleges are closed *the summer vacation* ○ *He's **on vacation** for three months.*

vacation[2] /vəˈkeɪʃᵊn/ (US) /veɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *US* (*UK* **holiday**) *verb* **vacation in/on/by, etc** to go on vacation *Sam was vacationing in Guatemala.*

vaccinate /ˈvæksɪneɪt/ *verb* [T] HEALTH to give someone a vaccine to stop them from getting a disease *Have you been **vaccinated against** polio?* ●**vaccination** /ˌvæksɪˈneɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

vaccine /ˈvæksiːn/ *noun* [C, U] HEALTH a substance that is given to people to stop them from getting a particular disease

vacuole /ˈvækjuəʊl/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a space inside a living cell, often containing a liquid ➲See picture at **cell** ➲See picture at **leaf**

vacuum[1] /ˈvækjuːm/ *noun* **1** PHYSICS [C] a space that has no air or other gas in it **2** [**no plural**] when someone or something important is not now in your life and you are unhappy *When her husband died, it left a big vacuum in her life.*

vacuum[2] /ˈvækjuːm/ *verb* [I, T] to clean somewhere using a vacuum cleaner

ˈvacuum ˌcleaner (*also UK* **Hoover**) *noun* [C] an electric machine that cleans floors by sucking up dirt

ˌvacuum ˈpacked *adjective* packed in a plastic covering with no air inside it

vagaries /ˈveɪgəriz/ *noun* [**plural**] sudden changes that are not expected or known about before they happen ***the vagaries of** the English weather*

vagina /vəˈdʒaɪnə/ *noun* [C] ANATOMY the part of a woman's body that connects her outer sex organs to the place where a baby grows

vagrant /ˈveɪgrᵊnt/ *noun* [C] *formal* someone who has no job and no home and who lives outside

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***vague***

a vague **feeling/idea/impression/memory/promise**

vague /veɪg/ *adjective* **1** NOT CLEAR not clear or certain *I have a **vague idea** of where the hotel is.* ○ *He was a bit vague about directions.* **2** NOT THINKING showing that someone is not thinking clearly or does not understand *a vague expression* ●**vaguely** *adverb I **vaguely remember*** (= slightly remember) meeting her. ●**vagueness** *noun* [U]

vain /veɪn/ *adjective* **1 in vain** without any success *I tried in vain to start a conversation.* **2 vain attempt/effort/hope** A vain attempt, effort, etc does not have the result you want. **3** too interested in your own appearance and thinking you are very attractive ●**vainly** *adverb*

valency /ˈveɪlᵊntsi/ *noun* [C] CHEMISTRY a measurement of the ability of an atom of a particular chemical element to combine with other hydrogen atoms *Zinc has a valency of 2.*

Valentine /ˈvæləntaɪn/ (*also* **ˈValentine ˌcard**) *noun* [C] a card (= stiff, folded paper with a message inside) that you give someone on Valentine's Day

Valentine's Day /ˈvæləntaɪnzˌdeɪ/ *noun* [C, U] 14 February, a day when you give a Valentine to someone you have a romantic relationship with or want a romantic relationship with

valet /ˈvæleɪ/ *noun* [C] **1** CAR someone who parks your car when you arrive at a restaurant, hotel, or airport **2** SERVANT a male servant who looks after a man's clothes and helps him to dress

valiant /ˈvæliənt/ *adjective formal* very brave *a valiant effort* ●**valiantly** *adverb*

valid /ˈvælɪd/ *adjective* **1** GOOD REASONS based on good reasons or facts that are true *a **valid argument*** **2** LAW A valid ticket or document is legally acceptable. *The ticket is valid for three months.* ➲Opposite **invalid** ●**validity** /vəˈlɪdəti/ *noun* [U]

validate /ˈvælɪdeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to prove that something is true ●**validation** /ˌvælɪˈdeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

valley /ˈvæli/ *noun* [C] GEOGRAPHY an area of low land between hills or mountains

valour *UK literary* (*US* **valor**) /ˈvæləʳ/ *noun* [U] when someone is very brave, especially during a war

V

OTHER WAYS OF SAYING ***valuable***

If something is valuable because it helps you do or achieve something, you can describe it as **helpful** or **useful**: *They gave us some really **helpful** advice.* ● *She made a really **useful** contribution to the project.*

Something which is valuable because it produces useful results may be described as **constructive** or **productive**: *It was a very **constructive** discussion.* ● *We had a very **productive** meeting and sorted out a lot of problems.*

An activity which is valuable but requires a lot of effort, is sometimes described as **worthwhile**: *It's a difficult course but it's very **worthwhile**.*

If speech or writing contains a lot of valuable information, you can describe it as **informative** or **instructive**: *It's an interesting and highly **informative** book.*

valuable /ˈvæljuəbl/ *adjective* **1** OBJECT Valuable objects could be sold for a lot of money. *valuable paintings and antiques* **2** USEFUL Valuable information, help, advice, etc is very helpful.

valuables /ˈvæljuəblz/ *noun* [**plural**] small things that you own which could be sold for a lot of money *valuables such as jewellery and watches*

valuation /ˌvæljuˈeɪʃˀn/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FINANCE** when someone judges how much money something could be sold for

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***value***

the value **of** sth ● **of** [any/great/real] value ● values **go up/increase** ● values **decrease/go down** ● a **drop/fall/increase/rise in** value

value[1] /ˈvæljuː/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [**C, U**] how much money something could be sold for *The new road has affected the **value of** these houses.* ○ *Cars quickly go down in value.* **2** [**U**] how useful or important something is *a document of great historical value* **3 good value (for money)** If something is good value it is of good quality or there is a lot of it so you think the amount of money you spent on it was right. *The meal was very good value.* ➲See also: **face value**

value[2] /ˈvæljuː/ *verb* [**T**] **valuing**, *past* **valued 1** If you value something or someone, they are very important to you. *I always value his opinion.* **2** **FINANCE** to judge how much money something could be sold for *The ring was **valued at** $1000.*

values /ˈvæljuːz/ *noun* [**plural**] your beliefs about what is morally right and wrong and what is most important in life

valve /vælv/ *noun* [**C**] something that opens and closes to control the flow of liquid or gas

vampire /ˈvæmpaɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] in stories, a dead person who bites people's necks and drinks their blood

van /væn/ *noun* [**C**] a vehicle that is used for carrying things but which is smaller than a truck

vanadium /vəˈneɪdiəm/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a silver-grey metal used to make steel alloys (= metal mixtures) (symbol **V**)

vandal /ˈvændˀl/ *noun* [**C**] someone who intentionally damages things in public places *Vandals had smashed the shop window.*

vandalism /ˈvændˀlɪzˀm/ *noun* [**U**] the crime of intentionally damaging things in public places

vandalize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈvændˀlaɪz/ *verb* [**T**] to intentionally damage things in public places

vanguard /ˈvæŋɡɑːd/ *noun* **in the vanguard of sth** involved in the most recent changes in technology and understanding *Libraries are in the vanguard of the electronic revolution.*

vanilla /vəˈnɪlə/ *noun* [**U**] **FOOD** a substance that is used to give flavour to some sweet foods *vanilla ice cream*

vanish /ˈvænɪʃ/ *verb* [**I**] to disappear suddenly *The sun vanished behind the trees.* ○ *The report mysteriously vanished from the files.* ➲See also: disappear/vanish into thin **air**[1]

ˈvanishing ˌpoint *noun* [**C usually singular**] **ART** in a picture, the point in the distance at which two parallel (= same distance apart) lines look as though they join

vanity /ˈvænəti/ *noun* [**U**] when someone thinks they are very attractive and is too interested in their own appearance

vantage point /ˈvɑːntɪdʒˌpɔɪnt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** WAY OF THINKING the way you think about a subject when you are in a particular situation *From my vantage point, it is difficult to see how things can improve.* **2** PLACE a place from which you can see something very well

vapour *UK* (*US* **vapor**) /ˈveɪpəʳ/ *noun* [**U**] **1** **PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY** many small drops of liquid in the air which look like a cloud **2** **PHYSICS** the form of a liquid when it has become a gas

variable[1] /ˈveəriəbl/ *adjective* changing often *The sound quality on the recording is variable.* ●**variability** /ˌveəriəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

variable[2] /ˈveəriəbl/ *noun* [**C**] **MATHEMATICS** a number, amount or situation which can change *A patient's recovery time depends on so many variables, such as age, weight and general health.*

ˌvariable ˈcosts *noun* [**plural**] **FINANCE** the things that a business must pay for, the amount of which changes according to things such as how much work it is doing ➲Compare **fixed costs**

variance /ˈveəriəns/ *noun formal* **at variance with sb/sth** If two things or people are at variance with each other, they do not agree or are very different. *The statement seems to be at variance with government policy.*

variant /ˈveəriənt/ *noun* [**C**] something that is a slightly different form from the usual one *There are several **variants of** the virus.* ○ *spelling variants*

variation /ˌveəriˈeɪʃˀn/ *noun* **1** DIFFERENCE [**C, U**] a difference in amount or quality ***variations in** price* **2** SOMETHING DIFFERENT [**C**] something that is slightly different from the usual form *It's a **variation on** the standard apple pie.*

V

varied /ˈveərɪd/ *adjective* consisting of many different types of things *a long and varied career*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***variety***

a **bewildering/great/infinite/wide** variety ● **offer/provide** variety

O-key **variety** /vəˈraɪəti/ *noun* **1 a variety of sth/sb** many different types of things or people *Ben has done a variety of jobs.* **2** TYPE [C] a different type of something *a new variety of potato* **3** DIFFERENT THINGS [U] a lot of different activities, situations, people, etc *I need more variety in my life.*

O-key **various** /ˈveəriəs/ *adjective* many different *They have offices in various parts of the country.* ○ *I started learning Spanish for various reasons.*

variously /ˈveəriəsli/ *adverb* in many different ways *The event was variously described as "terrible", "shocking", and "unbelievable".*

varnish¹ /ˈvɑːnɪʃ/ *noun* [C, U] a clear liquid that you paint onto wood to protect it and make it shine ➲See also: **nail varnish**

varnish² /ˈvɑːnɪʃ/ *verb* [T] to put varnish on a surface

vary /ˈveəri/ *verb* **1** BE DIFFERENT [I] If things of the same type vary, they are different from each other. *Car prices vary greatly across Europe.* ○ *Roses vary widely in size and shape.* **2** CHANGE [I] to change *Temperatures vary depending on the time of year.* **3** INTENTIONALLY CHANGE [T] to often change something that you do *I try to vary what I eat.*

vascular /ˈvæskjələr/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** containing veins (= thin tubes that carry blood in animals and other liquid in plants)

ˌvascular ˈbundle *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the part of a plant's stem or leaves that has veins ➲See picture at **stem**

vas deferens /ˌvæsˈdefərenz/ *noun* [C] *plural* **vasa deferentia** /ˌveɪsədefəˈrentʃiə/ **BIOLOGY, ANATOMY** the tube through which a male's sperm (= seeds that join with the female's egg to make a baby) pass on the way out of the body

vase /vɑːz/ (US) /veɪs/ *noun* [C] a container that you put flowers in

vasectomy /vəˈsektəmi/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a medical operation that is done to stop a man having children

vasoconstriction /ˌveɪzəʊkənˈstrɪkʃən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when blood vessels (= tubes that carry blood) become more narrow

vasodilation /ˌveɪzəʊdaɪˈleɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** when blood vessels (= tubes that carry blood) become wider

vast /vɑːst/ *adjective* extremely big *a vast amount of money* ○ *vast forest areas*

vastly /ˈvɑːstli/ *adverb* very much *Life now is vastly different from 100 years ago.*

VAT /ˌviːeɪˈtiː/ *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** *abbreviation for* value added tax: a tax on goods and services in the UK

vault¹ /vɔːlt/ *noun* [C] **1** IN A BANK a special room in a bank where money, jewellery, and other valuable objects are kept **2** IN A CHURCH a room under a church where people are buried

vault² /vɔːlt/ *verb* [I, T] to jump over something by first putting your hands on it *Rick vaulted the gate and ran off.* ➲See also: **pole vault**

VCR /ˌviːsiːˈɑːr/ *mainly US* (*UK* **video**) *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* video cassette recorder: a machine that you use for recording television programmes and playing videos (= recorded films or programmes) ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

VDU /ˌviːdiːˈjuː/ *noun* [C] *UK* **COMPUTING** *abbreviation for* visual display unit: a machine with a screen that shows information from a computer

've /v/ *short for* have *I've already eaten.*

veal /viːl/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** meat from a very young cow

vector /ˈvektər/ *noun* [C] **1 PHYSICS** something physical such as a force which has size and direction ➲Compare **scalar 2 BIOLOGY** an insect or animal which carries a disease from one animal or plant to another

vee belt /ˈviːˌbelt/ *noun* [C] **DT** a strip of material that is used to connect two turning parts in a machine

veer /vɪər/ *verb* **veer across/off/towards, etc** to suddenly change direction *The car veered off the road and hit a tree.*

veg /vedʒ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **veg** *UK informal* **FOOD** *short for* vegetables ***fruit and veg***

vegan /ˈviːgən/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** someone who does not eat meat, fish, eggs, milk, or cheese ●**vegan** *adjective*

O-key **vegetable** /ˈvedʒtəbl/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a plant that you eat, for example potatoes, onions, beans, etc ➲See colour picture **Fruit and Vegetables** on page Centre 10

vegetarian¹ /ˌvedʒɪˈteəriən/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** someone who does not eat meat or fish

vegetarian² /ˌvedʒɪˈteəriən/ *adjective* **FOOD** not eating, containing, or using meat or fish *All her children are vegetarian.* ○ *a vegetarian restaurant/pizza*

vegetation /ˌvedʒɪˈteɪʃən/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY** the plants and trees that grow in a particular area

veggie /ˈvedʒi/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a vegetarian ●**veggie** *adjective*

veggie burger /ˈvedʒiˌbɜːgər/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** a flat round piece of food, made of vegetables, nuts, etc. and no meat, usually eaten inside two pieces of bread

vehement /ˈviːəmənt/ *adjective formal* showing strong, often negative, feelings about something *vehement criticism/opposition* ●**vehemently** *adverb*

O-key **vehicle** /ˈviːɪkl/ *noun* **1** [C] *formal* something such as a car or bus that takes people from one place to another, especially using roads **2 a vehicle for sth/doing sth** something that you use as a way of telling people your ideas or opinions *The paper was merely a vehicle for his political beliefs.*

V

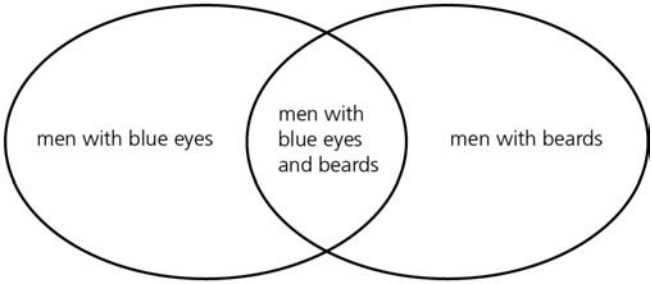

Venn diagram

veil /veɪl/ *noun* **1** [C] a thin piece of material that covers a woman's face **2 draw a veil over sth** *UK* to not talk any more about a subject because it could cause trouble or embarrassment

veiled /veɪld/ *adjective* said so that the true meaning or purpose is not clear ***veiled criticism***

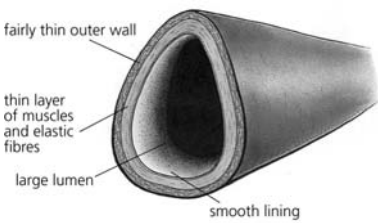

vein

vein /veɪn/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY, BIOLOGY one of the tubes in your body that carries blood to your heart **2** BIOLOGY one of the thin lines on a leaf ➲See picture at **leaf 3 in the same vein** in the same style of speaking or writing

Velcro /ˈvelkrəʊ/ *noun* [U] *trademark* DT material that consists of two pieces of cloth that stick together, used to fasten clothes

velocity /vɪˈlɒsəti/ *noun* [C, U] PHYSICS the speed at which something moves

velvet /ˈvelvɪt/ *noun* [U] cloth that has a thick, soft surface on one side *a black velvet jacket*

vena cava /ˌviːnəˈkeɪvə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **venae cavae** /ˌviːniːˈkeɪviː/ BIOLOGY, ANATOMY one of the two very large veins (= tubes that carry blood) which take blood without oxygen to the heart ➲See picture at **heart**

vendetta /venˈdetə/ *noun* [C] when someone tries to do something bad to someone over a period of time because they have been treated badly by them *He had a **vendetta against** the company after he lost his job.*

vending machine /ˈvendɪŋməˌʃiːn/ *noun* [C] a machine that sells drinks, cigarettes, etc

vendor /ˈvendɔː/ *noun* [C] **1** SELL OUTSIDE someone who sells something outside *an ice cream vendor* **2** COMPANY *formal* a company that sells goods or services

veneer /vəˈnɪə/ *noun* **1** [C, U] DT a thin layer of wood that covers a piece of furniture that is made of a cheaper material **2 a veneer of sth** *formal* a way of behaving that is not sincere and hides someone's real character or emotions *a thin veneer of calm/respectability*

venerable /ˈvenərəbl/ *adjective* old and very much respected *a **venerable institution**/tradition*

venetian blind /vənˌiːʃənˈblaɪnd/ *noun* [C] a covering for a window that is made from long, flat, horizontal pieces of metal or wood which you can move to let in light

vengeance /ˈvendʒəns/ *noun* **1** [U] when you do something bad to someone who has done something bad to you, or the feeling of wanting to do this *an act of vengeance* **2 with a vengeance** If something happens with a vengeance, it happens a lot or in a very strong way. *The disease swept across the country with a vengeance.*

vengeful /ˈvendʒfəl/ *adjective formal* wanting vengeance

venison /ˈvenɪsən/ *noun* [U] FOOD meat from a deer

Venn diagram /ˌvenˈdaɪəgræm/ *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a drawing in which mathematical sets are shown inside a group of circles, parts of which cover each other. Numbers which belong to more than one set are shown in these parts of the circles.

venom /ˈvenəm/ *noun* [U] **1** POISON poison that some snakes and insects produce **2** ANGER/HATE a feeling of extreme anger or hate *Much of his venom was directed at his boss.* ●**venomous** *adjective* containing or involving venom

vent¹ /vent/ *noun* [C] a hole in a wall or machine that lets air in and allows smoke or smells to go out

vent² /vent/ *verb* **vent your anger/frustration, etc** to do or say something to show your anger or another strong, bad feeling

ventilate /ˈventɪleɪt/ *verb* [T] to let air come into and go out of a room or building ●**ventilation** /ˌventɪˈleɪʃən/ *noun* [U] *a ventilation system*

V

ventricle /ˈventrɪkl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** each of the two main spaces in the heart, left and right ➲See picture at **heart**

venture¹ /ˈventʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] a new activity that may not be successful *a **business venture*** ➲See also: **joint venture**

venture² /ˈventʃəʳ/ *verb formal* **1 venture into/out/outside, etc** to leave a safe place and go somewhere that may involve risks *If the snow stops I might venture out.* **2** [T] to be brave enough to say something that might be criticized *I didn't dare **venture** an **opinion**.*

ˈventure ˌcapital *noun* [U] **ECONOMICS, FINANCE** money that is spent on a new activity or company, especially when there is a chance that the activity or company will not be successful

venue /ˈvenjuː/ *noun* [C] a place where a sports game, musical performance, or special event happens

venule /ˈviːnjuːl/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** a very small vein ➲See picture at **capillary**

Venus /ˈviːnəs/ *noun* [**no plural**] **ASTRONOMY** the planet that is second from the Sun, after Mercury and before the Earth ➲See picture at **solar system**

veranda (*also* **verandah**) /vəˈrændə/ *noun* [C] a room that is joined to the outside of a house and has a roof and floor but no outside wall

O-➡ **verb** /vɜːb/ *noun* **LANGUAGE** a word that is used to say that someone does something or that something happens. For example the words 'arrive', 'make', 'be', and 'feel' are verbs. ➲See also: **auxiliary verb, modal verb, phrasal verb**

verbal /ˈvɜːbᵊl/ *adjective* **LANGUAGE 1** spoken and not written *a verbal promise* **2** relating to words or the use of words *verbal ability/skills* ●**verbally** *adverb*

verbatim /vɜːˈbeɪtɪm/ *adjective, adverb* using the exact words that were originally used

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***verdict***

deliver/reach/return a verdict ● a **guilty/not guilty** verdict

verdict /ˈvɜːdɪkt/ *noun* [C] **1 LAW** a decision in a court of law saying if someone is guilty or not *a **guilty verdict*** ○ *The jury took nine hours to **reach** a **verdict**.* **2** DECISION someone's opinion about something after experiencing it, often for the first time *You tried out that Italian restaurant? What was the verdict?*

verge¹ /vɜːdʒ/ *noun* [C] **1** *UK* the edge of a road or path that is usually covered in grass **2 be on the verge of sth/doing sth** to be going to happen or to do something very soon *a company on the verge of financial disaster*

verge² /vɜːdʒ/ *verb*
verge on sth *phrasal verb* to almost be a particular state or quality *His constant questions verged on rudeness.*

verify /ˈverɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] to prove that something is true, or do something to discover if it is true *It was impossible to verify her statement.* ●**verification** /ˌverɪfɪˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

veritable /ˈverɪtəbl/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *formal* used to emphasize how extreme something is *Their house was a veritable palace* (= was very large).

vermin /ˈvɜːmɪn/ *noun* [**plural**] small animals that damage crops and can cause disease

versatile /ˈvɜːsətaɪl/ US /ˈvɜːrsəᵗl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON having many different skills *a versatile player/performer* **2** THING useful for doing a lot of different things *a versatile tool* ●**versatility** /ˌvɜːsəˈtɪləti/ *noun* [U]

verse /vɜːs/ *noun* **1 LITERATURE, MUSIC** [C] one of the parts that a song or poem is divided into *I only know the first verse.* **2 LITERATURE** [U] words that are in the form of poetry *The story was told in verse.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***version***

a new/the latest version ● a version **of** sth ● **in** a version

O-➡ **version** /ˈvɜːʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** FORM one form of something that is slightly different to other forms of the same thing *I saw the original version of the film.* **2** DESCRIPTION someone's description of what has happened *Bates gave his version of events to the police.*

versus /ˈvɜːsəs/ *preposition* **1 SPORT** used to say that one team or person is competing against another *Tomorrow's game is Newcastle versus Arsenal.* **2** used to compare two things or ideas, especially when you have to choose between them *private education versus state education*

vertebra /ˈvɜːtɪbrə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **vertebrae** /ˈvɜːtɪbriː/ **ANATOMY** any of the small bones that form the spine (= bones that go up the back) ●**vertebral** /ˈvɜːtɪbrəl/ *adjective* ➲See picture at **brain**

vertebrate /ˈvɜːtɪbrət/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** an animal that has a spine (= bone in the back) *Birds, fish, mammals, amphibians and reptiles are all vertebrates.* ●**vertebrate** *adjective* ➲Compare **invertebrate**

vertical /ˈvɜːtɪkᵊl/ *adjective* pointing straight up from a surface *a vertical line* ●**vertically** *adverb* ➲See picture at **horizontal**

ˈvertical ˌaxis *noun* [**no plural**] **MATHEMATICS** the line of figures or letters along the side of a graph or map; the y-axis ➲See Extra help page **Graphs and charts** on page Centre 20. ➲Compare **horizontal axis**

ˌvertical ˈmerger *noun* [C] **ECONOMICS** when two companies that work on different stages in the production of the same product join together

vertigo /ˈvɜːtɪgəʊ/ *noun* [U] when you feel slightly ill because you are in a high place and feel as if you might fall

verve /vɜːv/ *noun* [U] *formal* energy and enthusiasm

O-➡ **very¹** /ˈveri/ *adverb* **1** used to emphasize an adjective or adverb *She was very pleased.* ○ *Marie speaks very slowly.* ○ *Thank you very much.* **2 not very good/tall/happy, etc** not good, happy, etc *The film wasn't very good.*

very² /ˈveri/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] used to emphasize a noun *This is the very house where we stayed.*

vesicle /ˈvesɪkᵊl/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a small hollow part in the body of a plant or animal

V

vessel /ˈvesᵊl/ *noun* [C] **1** SHIP *formal* a ship or large boat **2** CONTAINER *old-fashioned* a container for liquids ➲See also: **blood vessel**

vest /vest/ *noun* [C] **1** UNDERWEAR *UK* (*US* **undershirt**) a piece of underwear that you wear under a shirt **2** WORN OVER A SHIRT *US* (*UK* **waistcoat**) a piece of clothing with buttons at the front and no sleeves, that you wear over a shirt ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

vested interest /ˌvestɪdˈɪntrest/ *noun* [C] If you have a vested interest in something, you want it to happen because it will give you advantages.

vestige /ˈvestɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a very small amount of something that still exists after most of it has gone *There is still a vestige of hope that she might be found alive.*

vet¹ /vet/ *noun* [C] someone who job is to give medical care to animals that are ill or hurt

vet² /vet/ *verb* [T] **vetting**, *past* **vetted** to look at details of someone's life, in order to make sure that they are suitable for a particular job [**often passive**] *Applicants for the job are carefully vetted.*

veteran /ˈvetᵊrᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** MILITARY PERSON someone who has been in an army or navy during a war *a veteran of World War Two* **2** A LONG TIME someone who has done a job or activity for a long time *a 20-year veteran of BBC news*

veterinarian /ˌvetᵊrɪˈneəriən/ *noun* [C] *US* a vet

veterinary /ˈvetᵊrɪnᵊri/ *adjective formal* relating to medical care given to animals that are ill or hurt

ˈveterinary ˌsurgeon *noun* [C] *UK formal* a vet

veto¹ /ˈviːtəʊ/ *verb* [T] **vetoing**, *past* **vetoed** **POLITICS** If someone in authority vetoes something, they do not allow it to happen, although other people have agreed to it. *The plan was vetoed by the President.*

veto² /ˈviːtəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] *plural* **vetoes** **POLITICS** when someone in authority does not allow something to happen

vexed /vekst/ *adjective* **vexed question/issue, etc** a situation that causes problems and is difficult to deal with *the vexed issue of unemployment*

via /vaɪə/ *preposition* **1** GOING THROUGH going through or stopping at a place on the way to another place *The train to Utrecht goes via Amsterdam.* **2** USING using a particular machine, system, or person to send or receive something *I receive all my work via e-mail.*

viable /ˈvaɪəbl/ *adjective* effective and able to be successful *a **viable alternative** to nuclear power* ○ *an economically viable plan* ●**viability** /ˌvaɪəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

viaduct /ˈvaɪədʌkt/ *noun* [C] a long, high bridge across a valley

vibes /vaɪbz/ *noun* [**plural**] *informal* the way a person or place makes you feel *I get **bad/good vibes** from her.*

vibrant /ˈvaɪbrənt/ *adjective* **1** EXCITING full of excitement and energy *a vibrant city* ○ *a vibrant, young performer* **2** COLOUR A vibrant colour is very bright.

vibrate /vaɪˈbreɪt/ (US) /ˈvaɪbreɪt/ *verb* [I, T] to shake with small, quick movements or to make something shake this way *The music was so loud that the floor was vibrating.* ●**vibration** /vaɪˈbreɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U]

vicar /ˈvɪkəʳ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** a priest in some Christian churches

vicarage /ˈvɪkᵊrɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **RELIGION** the house where a vicar lives

vicarious /vɪˈkeəriəs/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] A vicarious feeling is one you get from seeing or hearing about another person's experiences. *It gives me **vicarious pleasure** to watch him eat.*

vice /vaɪs/ *noun* **1** BAD HABIT [C] something bad that someone often does *Smoking is his only vice.* **2** CRIME [U] crime that involves sex or drugs **3** DT [C] *UK* (*US* **vise**) a tool used for holding something tightly while you cut it, make it smooth, etc

ˌvice ˈpresident *noun* [C] **1** **POLITICS** the person who is a rank lower than the president of a country **2** *US* someone who is responsible for part of a company *She's vice president of sales and marketing.*

vice versa /ˌvaɪsˈvɜːsə/ *adverb* used for referring to the opposite of what you have just said *Never use indoor lights outside and vice versa.*

vicinity /vɪˈsɪnəti/ *noun* **in the vicinity (of sth)** *formal* in the area near a place *A number of buildings in the vicinity of the fire were damaged.*

vicious /ˈvɪʃəs/ *adjective* **1** VIOLENT violent and dangerous *a vicious attack on a child* ○ *a vicious dog* **2** UPSETTING intended to upset someone *a **vicious rumour*** ●**viciously** *adverb*

ˌvicious ˈcircle (*also* **ˌvicious ˈcycle**) *noun* [**no plural**] when one problem causes another problem which then makes the first problem worse

victim /ˈvɪktɪm/ *noun* [C] someone who has suffered the effects of violence, illness, or bad luck *victims of crime* ○ *hurricane/flood victims*

victimize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈvɪktɪmaɪz/ *verb* [T] to treat someone unfairly because you do not like or approve of them *Ben feels he has been victimized by his teacher.*

victor /ˈvɪktəʳ/ *noun* [C] *formal* the person who wins a fight or competition

Victorian /vɪkˈtɔːriən/ *adjective* from or relating to the period between 1837 and 1901 in Britain *a Victorian house*

victorious /vɪkˈtɔːriəs/ *adjective* having won a fight or competition *a victorious army*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***victory***

claim/secure victory ● a **comfortable/easy/impressive** victory ● a victory **for/over** sb

victory /ˈvɪktᵊri/ *noun* [C, U] when you win a fight or competition *Phoenix managed a 135-114 **victory over** Denver.*

video¹ /ˈvɪdiəʊ/ *noun* **1** TAPE [U] a film or television programme recorded on videotape *'Pride and Prejudice' has just come out **on video**.* **2** RECORDING [C] something that you have

V

recorded on videotape using a video camera *Caroline and Yann showed us their wedding video last night.* **3** [C] (*also* **VCR**) (*also* **video recorder**) a machine that you use for recording a television programme or watching a video ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

video² /ˈvɪdiəʊ/ *verb* [T] **videoing**, *past* **videoed** **1** to record a television program using a video recorder **2** to film something using a video camera

ˈvideo ˌcamera *noun* [C] a piece of equipment used to record something onto videotape

ˈvideo ˌclip *noun* [C] a short video recording

video conferencing /ˈvɪdiəʊˌkɒnfərənsɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when two or more people who are in different parts of the world talk to each other and see each other on television screens

ˈvideo ˌgame *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a game in which you make pictures move on a screen

videophone /ˈvɪdiəʊfəʊn/ *noun* [C] a telephone with a small screen so that you can see the person you are talking to

ˈvideo recˌorder *noun* [C] a video machine

videotape /ˈvɪdiəʊteɪp/ *noun* [C, U] a thin strip of material inside a plastic box that is used for recording television programmes and films

vie /vaɪ/ *verb* [I] **vying**, *past* **vied** to try hard to do something more successfully than someone else *The children were **vying for** attention.* [+ **to do sth**] *Film crews were **vying with** each other to get the best pictures.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***view***

express/have/hold a view ● **strong** views ● **in** sb's view ● sb's views **about/on** sth ● an **exchange of** views

O--**view¹** /vjuː/ *noun* **1** OPINION [C] your opinion *We have different **views about/on** education.* ○ ***In** her **view** this is wrong.* **2** THINGS YOU SEE [C] the things that you can see from a place *There was a lovely view of the lake from the bedroom window.* **3** ABILITY TO SEE [**no plural**] how well you can see something from a particular place *We had a great view of the procession.* **4** POSITION [U] a position from which something can be seen *The house was hidden from view behind a wall.* ○ *He turned the corner and the harbour **came into view**.* **5 in full view of sb** happening where someone can easily see *All this happened in full view of the cameras.* **6 in view of sth** *formal* because of *In view of recent events, we have decided to cancel the meeting.* **7 with a view to doing sth** *formal* so that you can do something *He's doing some improvements on the house with a view to selling it.* ➲See also: **point of view**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

view or **sight?**

View means the countryside, buildings, things, etc which you can see from a place, or how well you can see something. A **view** is usually pleasant.

We had a wonderful view from the aircraft.

~~*We had a wonderful sight from the aircraft.*~~

Sight means when you see something, or the ability to see.

The sight of blood makes me feel sick.

~~*The view of blood makes me feel sick.*~~

view² /vjuː/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** OPINION to have a particular opinion about someone or something *In all three countries he is **viewed as** a terrorist.* **2** WATCH to watch something *They were able to view the city from a helicopter.*

viewer /ˈvjuːər/ *noun* [C] someone who watches a television programme

viewpoint /ˈvjuːpɔɪnt/ *noun* [C] a way of thinking about a situation ***From** his **viewpoint** the action seemed entirely justified.*

vigil /ˈvɪdʒɪl/ *noun* [C, U] when people stay somewhere quietly in order to show that they support someone, disagree with someone, etc *an all-night vigil for peace*

vigilant /ˈvɪdʒɪlənt/ *adjective* watching carefully and always ready to notice anything dangerous or illegal *Police have asked people to be vigilant after yesterday's bomb attack.* ●**vigilance** /ˈvɪdʒɪləns/ *noun* [U]

vigilante /ˌvɪdʒɪˈlænti/ *noun* [C] a member of a group of people who try to catch criminals and punish them without having any legal authority

vigor /ˈvɪgər/ *noun* [U] *US spelling of* vigour

vigorous /ˈvɪgərəs/ *adjective* **1** ENERGETIC showing or needing a lot of physical energy ***vigorous exercise*** **2** FORCEFUL showing strong, often negative, feelings about something *a vigorous debate* ○ *He was a **vigorous opponent** of the government.* ●**vigorously** *adverb* *Bates **vigorously denies*** (= strongly denies) *murdering his wife.*

vigour *UK* (*US* **vigor**) /ˈvɪgər/ *noun* [U] strength and energy *She set about her work **with** great **vigour**.*

vile /vaɪl/ *adjective* extremely unpleasant *a vile attack* ○ *The bathroom was vile.*

vilify /ˈvɪlɪfaɪ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to say bad things about someone so that other people will not like or approve of them

villa /ˈvɪlə/ *noun* [C] a large house, especially one used for holidays in a warm country

O--**village** /ˈvɪlɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a place where people live in the countryside that includes buildings such as shops and a school but which is smaller than a town *She lives in a small village outside Oxford.* ○ *a village shop*

villager /ˈvɪlɪdʒər/ *noun* [C] someone who lives in a village

villain /ˈvɪlən/ *noun* [C] a bad person in a film, book, etc

villus /ˈvɪləs/ *noun* [C **usually plural**] *plural* **villi** /ˈvɪlaɪ/ **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** one of many small finger-like parts on the inside surface of the small intestine (= part of body where food goes after the stomach), through which the food is absorbed

vindicate /ˈvɪndɪkeɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* to prove that what someone said or did was right after people generally thought it was wrong ●**vindication** /ˌvɪndɪˈkeɪʃən/ *noun* [C, U] *formal*

vindictive /vɪnˈdɪktɪv/ *adjective* intending to harm or upset someone who has harmed or upset you

V

vine /vaɪn/ *noun* [C] a plant that grapes (= small, green or purple fruit used for making wine) grow on

vinegar /ˈvɪnɪgəʳ/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a sour liquid that is used in cooking, often made from wine

vineyard /ˈvɪnjəd/ *noun* [C] **FARMING** an area of land where someone grows grapes (= small, green or purple fruit) for making wine

vintage¹ /ˈvɪntɪdʒ/ *adjective* **1** **FOOD** Vintage wine is wine of a good quality that was made in a particular year. **2** VERY GOOD having all the best or most typical qualities of something, especially from the past *a vintage Hollywood movie* **3** CAR A vintage car was made between 1919 and 1930.

vintage² /ˈvɪntɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] **FOOD** the wine that was made in a particular year *The 1993 vintage is one of the best.*

vinyl /ˈvaɪnᵊl/ *noun* [U] **DT** a type of very strong plastic

viola /viˈəʊlə/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a wooden instrument, larger than a violin, that you hold against your neck and play by moving a special stick across strings

violate /ˈvaɪəleɪt/ *verb* [T] *formal* **1** NOT OBEY to not obey a law, rule, or agreement *Countries that violate international law will be dealt with severely.* **2** NOT ALLOW to not allow someone something that they should morally be allowed to have *They were accused of violating human rights.* ●**violation** /ˌvaɪəˈleɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C, U] *a violation of privacy*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***violence***

erupt into/renounce/use violence ● **escalating/extreme/gratuitous** violence ● violence **against/towards** sb

violence /ˈvaɪəlᵊns/ *noun* [U] **1** CAUSING HURT when someone tries to hurt or kill someone else *an act of violence* ○ *A number of people were killed in the violence.* ○ ***Violence against women has increased in recent years.*** **2** EXTREME FORCE extreme force and energy, especially of something causing damage *Such was the violence of the explosion that three buildings collapsed.*

violent /ˈvaɪəlᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** ACTION involving violence *a victim of* ***violent crime*** ○ *a violent protest* ○ *I don't like violent films* (= films that show violence). **2** PERSON likely to hurt or kill someone else *a violent criminal* **3** DAMAGE sudden and causing damage *a violent explosion/storm* **4** EMOTIONS showing very strong feelings, especially anger *violent emotions* ●**violently** *adverb* ➲See also: **non-violent**

violet /ˈvaɪələt/ *noun* **1** FLOWER [C] a small plant with a small, purple flower **2** COLOUR [U] a pale purple colour

violin /ˌvaɪəˈlɪn/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a wooden musical instrument that you hold against your neck and play by moving a bow (= special stick) across strings ●**violinist** /vaɪəˈlɪnɪst/ *noun* [C] someone who plays a violin

VIP /ˌviːaɪˈpiː/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* very important person: someone who is famous or powerful and is treated in a special way *The airport has a separate lounge for VIPs.*

viper /ˈvaɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a small, poisonous snake

viral /ˈvaɪrᵊl/ *adjective* **HEALTH** caused by or relating to a virus (= infectious organism) *a viral infection*

virgin¹ /ˈvɜːdʒɪn/ *noun* [C] someone who has never had sex

virgin² /ˈvɜːdʒɪn/ *adjective* Virgin land, forest, etc has not been used or damaged by people.

virginity /vəˈdʒɪnəti/ *noun* [U] when someone has never had sex *Emma* ***lost her virginity*** (= had sex for the first time) *at sixteen.*

Virgo /ˈvɜːgəʊ/ *noun* [C, U] the sign of the zodiac which relates to the period of 23 August - 22 September, or a person born during this period

virile /ˈvɪraɪl/ (US) /ˈvɪrᵊl/ *adjective* A virile man is strong and has sexual energy. ●**virility** /vɪˈrɪləti/ *noun* [U]

virtual /ˈvɜːtʃuəl/ *adjective* [always before noun] **1** almost a particular thing or quality *They played the game in virtual silence.* **2** **COMPUTING** using computer images and sounds that make you think an imagined situation is real *a virtual art gallery*

virtually /ˈvɜːtʃuəli/ *adverb* almost *They're virtually the same.* ○ *I've virtually finished.*

ˌvirtual ˈmemory *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** on a computer, space that software can use to store information for a short time

ˌvirtual reˈality *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** when a computer produces images and sounds that make you feel an imagined situation is real

virtue /ˈvɜːtjuː/ *noun* **1** ADVANTAGE [C, U] an advantage or useful quality *The great* ***virtue of*** *having a small car is that you can park it easily.* **2** GOOD QUALITY [C] a good quality that someone has *Patience is not among his virtues.* **3** MORAL BEHAVIOUR [U] behaviour that is morally good **4 by virtue of sth** *formal* because of something *She succeeded by virtue of hard work rather than talent.*

virtuoso /ˌvɜːtjuˈəʊsəʊ/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** someone who is extremely good at doing something, especially playing a musical instrument

virtuous /ˈvɜːtʃuəs/ *adjective* behaving in a good and moral way ●**virtuously** *adverb*

virulent /ˈvɪrolᵊnt/ *adjective* **1** **HEALTH** A virulent disease or poison causes severe illness very quickly. **2** HATE *formal* criticizing or hating someone or something very much *a virulent attack on the government*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***virus***

carry/contract/have/transmit a virus ● a **deadly/rare** virus

virus /ˈvaɪərəs/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY, HEALTH** an infectious organism too small to be seen that causes disease, or an illness that it causes *The doctor says I've got a virus.* **2** **COMPUTING** a program that is secretly put onto a computer in order to destroy the information that is stored on it

visa /ˈviːzə/ *noun* [C] an official mark in your passport (= document which proves your nationality) that allows you to enter or leave a

V

particular country *She went to Miami* ***on*** *a tourist* ***visa***.

viscous /ˈvɪskəs/ *adjective* describes a liquid that is thick and sticky and does not flow easily ●**viscosity** /vɪˈskɒsɪti/ *noun* [U]

vise /vaɪs/ *noun* [C] *US spelling of* vice (= a tool used for holding something tightly while you cut it, make it smooth, etc)

visibility /ˌvɪzəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U] how far or how well you can see because of weather conditions *good/poor visibility* ○ *It was foggy and visibility was down to 50 metres.*

visible /ˈvɪzəbl/ *adjective* able to be seen *The fire was* ***visible from*** *five kilometres away.* ➲Opposite **invisible** ●**visibly** *adverb She was visibly upset.*

vision /ˈvɪʒᵊn/ *noun* **1** IDEA [C] an idea or image in your mind of what something could be like in the future *a vision of a better society* **2** **BIOLOGY** [U] the ability to see *He has poor vision in his left eye.* **3** ABILITY TO PLAN [U] the ability to make plans for the future that are imaginative and wise *As a leader, he lacked vision.* **4** **RELIGION** [C] when you see someone or something that no one else can see as part of a religious experience

visionary /ˈvɪʒᵊnᵊri/ *adjective* able to make plans for the future that are imaginative and wise *a visionary leader* ●**visionary** *noun* [C]

visit[1] /ˈvɪzɪt/ *verb* [I, T] **1** SEE A PERSON to go to someone's home and spend time with them *We have friends coming to visit this weekend.* **2** SEE A PLACE to go to a place and spend a short amount of time there *Did you visit St Petersburg while you were in Russia?* **3** **INTERNET** to look at a website
visit with sb *phrasal verb US* to spend time talking with someone who you know *Mom was visiting with our neighbor.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***visit***

a visit **to** sth ● a visit **from** sb ● **on** a visit ● **pay** sb a visit ● **have** a visit **from** sb ● **a brief/flying** visit

visit[2] /ˈvɪzɪt/ *noun* [C] when you visit a place or a person *the President's* ***visit to*** *Hong Kong* ○ *Why don't you* ***pay*** *him* ***a visit*** (= visit him)*?*

visitor /ˈvɪzɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] someone who visits a person or place *The museum attracts large numbers of visitors.*

visor /ˈvaɪzəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF HAT the part of a helmet (= hard hat that protects your head) that you can pull down to cover your face **2** HAT (*also* ˈ**sun** ˌ**visor**) a hat that has a curved part above your eyes to protect them from the sun ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9 **3** CAR the parts in the front window of a car that you pull down to protect your eyes from the sun ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

vista /ˈvɪstə/ *noun* [C] a view, especially a beautiful view that you look at from a high place

visual /ˈvɪʒuəl/ *adjective* relating to seeing *The film has some powerful* ***visual effects***. ●**visually** *adverb visually appealing*

ˌ**visual** ˈ**aid** *noun* [C] **EDUCATION** something that helps you understand or remember information, such as a picture or film

visualize (*also UK* **-ise**) /ˈvɪʒuᵊlaɪz/ *verb* [T] to create a picture in your mind of someone or something *I was very surprised when I met Geoff - I'd visualized someone much older.* ●**visualization** /ˌvɪʒuᵊlaɪˈzeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [U]

vis-à-vis /ˌviːzəˈviː/ *preposition* relating to something, or in comparison with something *I have to speak to James vis-à-vis the conference arrangements.*

vital /ˈvaɪtᵊl/ *adjective* **1** IMPORTANT necessary *Tourism is* ***vital to*** *the country's economy.* [+ **(that)**] *It's vital that you send off this form today.* **2** ENERGY *formal* full of energy

vitality /vaɪˈtæləti/ *noun* [U] energy and strength *At 48, he still projects an image of youth and vitality.*

vitally /ˈvaɪtəli/ *adverb* in a very important way *Safety at work is* ***vitally important***.

vitamin /ˈvɪtəmɪn/ (US) /ˈvaɪtəmɪn/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** one of a group of natural substances in food that you need to be healthy *Oranges are full of vitamin C.*

ˌ**vitreous** ˈ**humour** *noun* [U] **ANATOMY, BIOLOGY** the thick clear substance inside the eye behind the lens (= part that you see through) ➲Compare **aqueous humour**

vitriolic /ˌvɪtriˈɒlɪk/ *adjective formal* criticizing someone in a very severe and unpleasant way

viva /ˈvaɪvə/ *noun* [C] *UK* **EDUCATION** a spoken examination at university

vivacious /vɪˈveɪʃəs/ *adjective* A vivacious person, especially a woman, is full of energy and enthusiasm.

vivid /ˈvɪvɪd/ *adjective* **1** IMAGE Vivid descriptions or memories produce strong, clear images in your mind. *He gave a very* ***vivid description*** *of life in Caracas.* **2** COLOUR A vivid colour is very bright. ●**vividly** *adverb I remember my first day at school very vividly.*

vivisection /ˌvɪvɪˈsekʃᵊn/ *noun* [U] when living animals are used in scientific experiments, especially in order to discover the effects of new drugs

vixen /ˈvɪksᵊn/ *noun* [C] a female fox (= wild dog with red-brown fur)

V-neck /ˈviːnek/ *noun* [C] a V-shaped opening for your neck on a piece of clothing, or a sweater, dress, etc with this opening *a V-neck jumper* ●**V-necked** /viːˈnekt/ *adjective a V-necked dress*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***vocabulary***

a **limited/wide** vocabulary ● be **in** sb's vocabulary ● **widen** your vocabulary

vocabulary /vəʊˈkæbjəlᵊri/ *noun* **1** **LANGUAGE** [C, U] all the words you know in a particular language *Reading helps to widen your vocabulary.* **2** **LANGUAGE** [**no plural**] all the words that exist in a language, or that are used when discussing a particular subject *Computing has its own specialist vocabulary.* **3** **LANGUAGE** [**no plural**] a list of words and their meanings

vocal /ˈvəʊkᵊl/ *adjective* **1** expressing your opinions in a strong way *She is a* ***vocal supporter*** *of women's rights.* **2** **MUSIC** involving or relating to the voice, especially singing *vocal music*

V

ˈvocal ˌcords (*also* **vocal chords**) *noun* [**plural**] **ANATOMY** folds of skin at the top of your throat that make sounds when air from your lungs moves over them ➲See picture at **respiratory system**

vocalist /ˈvəukᵊlɪst/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** the person who sings in a group of people who play popular music

vocals /ˈvəukᵊlz/ *noun* [**plural**] **MUSIC** the part of a piece of music that is sung

vocation /vəuˈkeɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**C, U**] a strong feeling that you are right for a particular type of work, or a job that gives you this feeling *He knew that teaching was his true vocation.*

vocational /vəuˈkeɪʃᵊnᵊl/ *adjective* **EDUCATION** Vocational education and skills prepare you for a particular type of work.

vociferous /vəuˈsɪfᵊrəs/ *adjective formal* expressing your opinions in a loud and strong way *She has become increasingly* ***vociferous in*** *her opposition to the scheme.*

vodka /ˈvɒdkə/ *noun* [**C, U**] **FOOD** a strong alcoholic drink that is popular in Russia and Poland

vogue /vəʊg/ *noun* [**U no plural**] If there is a vogue for something, it is very fashionable. *This period saw a* ***vogue for*** *Japanese painting.* ○ *Flat shoes are* ***in vogue*** (= fashionable) *this spring.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***voice***

a deep/husky/low voice ● **lose** your voice ● **lower/raise** your voice ● **in** a [bored/stern, etc.] voice ● your **tone of** voice

voice¹ /vɔɪs/ *noun* **1** SOUNDS [**C**] the sounds that you make when you speak or sing *I could hear voices in the next room.* ○ *Jessie has a beautiful singing voice.* ○ *Could you please* ***keep your voices down*** (= speak more quietly)*?* ○ *He* ***raised his voice*** (= spoke more loudly) *so that everyone could hear.* **2 lose your voice HEALTH** to become unable to speak, often because of an illness *She had a bad cold and was losing her voice.* **3** OPINION [**C**] someone's opinion about a particular subject *The programme gives people the opportunity to make their voices heard.* **4** PERSON [**no plural**] someone who expresses the opinions or wishes of a group of people *It's important that students have a voice on the committee.* ➲See also: **the passive voice**

voice² /vɔɪs/ *verb* [**T**] to say what you think about a particular subject *He has voiced concern about the new proposals.*

voice-activated /ˌvɔɪsˈæktɪveɪtɪd/ *adjective* A machine that is voice-activated can recognize and follow spoken instructions.

ˈvoice ˌbox *noun* [**C**] **ANATOMY** *informal* the larynx

ˈvoice ˌmail *noun* [**U**] an electronic telephone answering system

ˈvoice recogˌnition (*also* **speech recognition**) *noun* [**U**] **COMPUTING** the process of changing the sound of people speaking into instructions that a computer can understand

void¹ /vɔɪd/ *adjective* **1** [**never before noun**] not legally or officially acceptable *The contracts were* ***declared void.*** **2 be void of sth** *formal* to be without something *His last statement was entirely void of meaning.*

void² /vɔɪd/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** FEELING when someone or something important is not now in your life and you are unhappy *Her husband's death* ***left a void*** *in her life.* **2** SPACE a large hole or empty space

vol **MEASURES** *written abbreviation for* volume

volatile /ˈvɒlətaɪl/ (US) /ˈvɑːlətᵊl/ *adjective* **1** PERSON A volatile person can suddenly become angry or violent. **2** SITUATION A volatile situation might suddenly change. *a volatile political situation* ●**volatility** /ˌvɒləˈtɪləti/ *noun* [**U**]

volcano /vɒlˈkeɪnəʊ/ *noun* [**C**] *plural* **volcanoes** or **volcanos GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY** a mountain with a large hole at the top which sometimes explodes and produces hot, melted rock and smoke ➲See picture **volcano** on next page ●**volcanic** /vɒlˈkænɪk/ *adjective* relating to a volcano *volcanic ash*

vole /vəʊl/ *noun* [**C**] a small animal like a mouse

volition /vəuˈlɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [**U**] *formal* the power to make your own decisions *He left the firm* ***of his own volition*** (= because he decided to).

volley¹ /ˈvɒli/ *noun* **1 SPORT** [**C**] in sports, a kick or hit in which a player returns a ball before it touches the ground **2 a volley of shots/gunfire, etc** when a lot of bullets are shot at the same time *A volley of bullets ripped through the floorboards.* **3 a volley of abuse/complaints, etc** a lot of insults/complaints, etc said at the same time

volley² /ˈvɒli/ *verb* [**I, T**] **SPORT** in sports, to return a ball by kicking or hitting it before it touches the ground

volleyball /ˈvɒlibɔːl/ *noun* [**U**] **SPORT** a game in which two teams use their hands to hit a ball over a net without allowing it to touch the ground ➲See colour picture **Sports 2** on page Centre 15

volt /vɒlt/ (*written abbreviation* **V**) *noun* [**C**] **MEASURES** a unit for measuring the force of an electric current

voltage /ˈvəʊltɪdʒ/ *noun* [**C, U**] **MEASURES** the force of an electric current, measured in volts

voltmeter /ˈvəʊltˌmiːtəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **PHYSICS** a device used for measuring voltage

volume /ˈvɒljuːm/ *noun* **1** SOUND [**U**] the level of sound produced by a television, radio, etc *to turn the volume up/down* **2** AMOUNT [**U**] the number or amount of something, especially when it is large *the volume of work involved* **3 MEASURES** [**U**] the amount of space inside an object *Which of the bottles has the larger volume?* **4** BOOK [**C**] a book, especially one of a set *a new dictionary in two volumes*

voluminous /vəˈluːmɪnəs/ *adjective formal* very large *voluminous trousers*

voluntary /ˈvɒləntᵊri/ *adjective* **1** WORK Voluntary work is done without being paid and usually involves helping people. *She does* ***voluntary work*** *for the Red Cross.* ○ ***voluntary organizations*** **2** NOT FORCED done or given because you want to and not because you have been forced to ***voluntary contributions*** ➲Opposite **involuntary** ●**voluntarily** /ˌvɒlənˈteərᵊli/ *adverb She left voluntarily.*

V

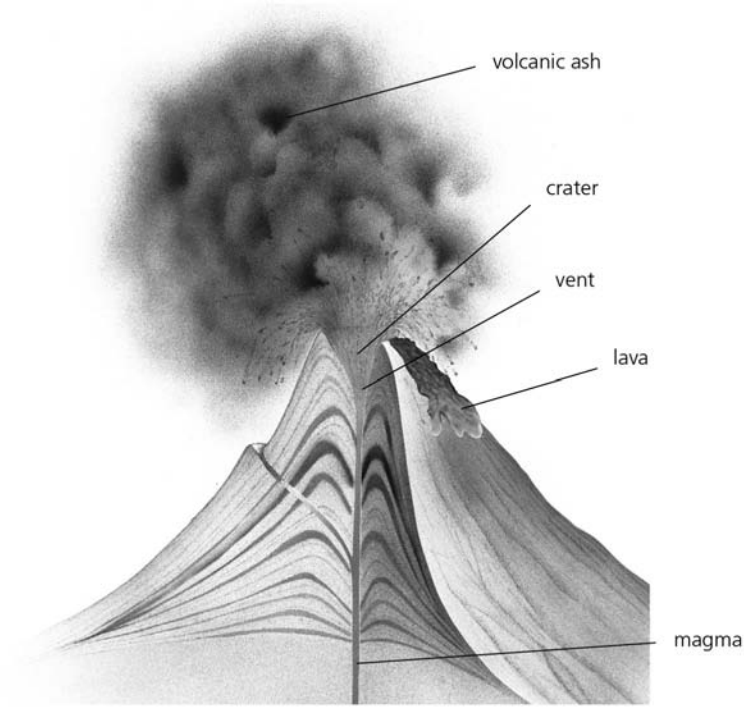

volcano

volunteer¹ /ˌvɒlənˈtɪəʳ/ *verb* **1** OFFER [**I, T**] to offer to do something without being asked or told to do it [**+ to do sth**] *Rob volunteered to look after the kids.* **2** ARMY [**I**] to join the army, navy, etc without being officially told to join *In 1939 he **volunteered for** active service.* **3** INFORMATION [**T**] to give information without being asked *No one volunteered the truth.*

volunteer² /ˌvɒlənˈtɪəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** NOT PAID someone who does work without being paid, especially work that involves helping people *a Red Cross volunteer* **2** NOT FORCED someone who does or gives something because they want to and not because they have been forced to *Any volunteers to help me move these books?*

voluptuous /vəˈlʌptʃuəs/ *adjective* A voluptuous woman has a sexually attractive body, often with large breasts.

vomit¹ /ˈvɒmɪt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **HEALTH** If someone vomits, the food or liquid that was in their stomach comes up and out of their mouth. *She was vomiting blood.*

vomit² /ˈvɒmɪt/ *noun* [**U**] **HEALTH** the food or liquid that comes from your mouth when you vomit

voodoo /ˈvuːduː/ *noun* [**U**] **RELIGION** a religion involving magic and praying to spirits

voracious /vəˈreɪʃəs/ *adjective* wanting to do something a lot, especially wanting to eat a lot of food *She has a **voracious appetite**.* ○ *a voracious reader of historical novels* ●**voraciously** *adverb* ●**voracity** /vəˈræsəti/ *noun* [**U**]

O-key **vote¹** /vəʊt/ *verb* [**I, T**] **POLITICS** to show your choice or opinion in an election or meeting by writing a cross on an official piece of paper or putting your hand up *Who did you **vote for**?* ○ *The unions **voted against** strike action.* [**+ to do sth**] *Staff have voted to accept the pay offer.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***vote***

cast your vote ● a vote **against/for** sb/sth ● a vote **on** sth

O-key **vote²** /vəʊt/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **POLITICS** when someone shows their choice or opinion in an election or meeting by writing a cross on an official piece of paper or putting their hand up *He lost the election by twenty votes.* **2** a way of making a decision by asking a group of people to vote *We called a meeting in order to **take a vote on** the proposal.* **3 the vote a** **POLITICS** the total number of votes given or received in an election *The Green party got 10% of the vote.* **b** **POLITICS** when someone is officially allowed to vote *In some countries women still don't have the vote.*

voter /ˈvəʊtəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** someone who votes or who is officially allowed to vote

V

vouch /vaʊtʃ/ *verb*
vouch for sb/sth *phrasal verb* to say that you know from experience that something is true or good, or that someone has a good character

voucher /ˈvaʊtʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] FINANCE a piece of paper that can be used instead of money to pay for goods or services *a discount voucher*

vow¹ /vaʊ/ *verb* [T] to make a serious promise or decision [+ **(that)**] *She vowed that she would never leave the children again.* [+ **to do sth**] *I've vowed never to go there again.*

vow² /vaʊ/ *noun* [C] a serious promise or decision *marriage vows* ○ *I* ***made a vow*** *that I would write to him once a week.*

vowel /vaʊəl/ *noun* [C] LANGUAGE a speech sound that you make with your lips and teeth open, shown in English by the letters 'a', 'e', 'i', 'o' or 'u'

voyage /ˈvɔɪɪdʒ/ *noun* [C] a long journey, especially by ship, or in space *The ship sank on its* ***maiden voyage*** (= first journey).

vs (*also UK* **v**) *preposition* SPORT *written abbreviation for* versus (= used to say that one team or person is competing against another)

vulgar /ˈvʌlgəʳ/ *adjective* **1** RUDE rude and likely to upset or anger people, especially by referring to sex and the body in an unpleasant way *vulgar jokes/language* **2** NOT SUITABLE not showing good judgment about what is suitable or pleasant to look at *a vulgar shade of yellow* ●**vulgarity** /vʌlˈgærəti/ *noun* [U]

ˌvulgar ˈfraction *noun* [C] MATHEMATICS a fraction written with one number above and one number below the line, not written as a number with a decimal point in it

vulnerable /ˈvʌlnᵊrəbl/ *adjective* easy to hurt or attack physically or emotionally *She was a vulnerable sixteen-year-old.* ○ *The troops are in a vulnerable position.* ○ *He's more* ***vulnerable to*** *infection because of his injuries.* ●**vulnerability** /ˌvʌlnᵊrəˈbɪləti/ *noun* [U]

vulture /ˈvʌltʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] a large bird with no feathers on its head or neck that eats dead animals

vulva /ˈvʌlvə/ *noun* [C] *plural* **vulvas** or **vulvae** ANATOMY the parts of the female sex organs which are outside the body, between the legs

vying /ˈvaɪɪŋ/ *present participle of* vie

V

Ww

W, w /ˈdʌbljuː/ the twenty-third letter of the alphabet

W MEASURES *written abbreviation for* watt (= a unit for measuring electrical power) *a 40W light bulb*

wacky /ˈwæki/ *adjective informal* unusual in a funny or surprising way *a wacky sense of humour*

wad /wɒd/ *noun* [C] **1** PILE a thick pile of pieces of paper, especially paper money *a wad of cash* **2** BALL a piece of soft material in the shape of a ball *a wad of (UK) cotton wool/ (US) cotton*

waddle /ˈwɒdl/ *verb* [I] A duck (= water bird) or fat person that waddles walks with short steps, moving from side to side.

wade /weɪd/ *verb* **wade across/through, etc** to walk through water *He waded across the river.* **wade through sth** *phrasal verb* to read a lot of boring or difficult information

wafer /ˈweɪfəʳ/ *noun* [C] FOOD a light, thin biscuit

waffle¹ /ˈwɒfl/ *noun* **1** [U] *informal* speech or writing that says nothing important **2** FOOD [C] a square, flat cake with a pattern of holes in it, eaten especially in the US

waffle² /ˈwɒfl/ (*also* **waffle on**) *verb* [I] *informal* to talk or write a lot and say nothing important

waft /wɒft/ *verb* **waft from/through, etc** to gradually move through the air *The smell of coffee wafted through the room.*

wag /wæg/ *verb* [I, T] **wagging**, *past* **wagged** **1** DOG If a dog wags its tail, it moves it from side to side. **2** FINGER If you wag your finger, you move it from side to side, often to tell someone not to do something.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wage***

earn a wage ● a **decent** wage ● a wage **increase/rise** ● the **minimum** wage

wage¹ /weɪdʒ/ *noun* [no plural] FINANCE (*also* **wages** [plural]) the amount of money a person regularly receives for their job *weekly wages* ○ *the **minimum wage*** ➲See Common Learner Error at **pay**

wage² /weɪdʒ/ *verb* **wage a battle/campaign/war, etc** to fight or organize a series of activities in order to achieve something *They're currently waging a campaign to change the law.*

wager /ˈweɪdʒəʳ/ *verb* [T] to risk money on the result of a game, race, competition, etc ●**wager** *noun* [C]

wagon /ˈwægən/ *noun* [C] a large vehicle with four large wheels pulled by horses

wail /weɪl/ *verb* [I, T] **1** PERSON to cry loudly because you are very unhappy *"I've lost my mummy," she wailed.* **2** DANGER If a siren (= loud noise to warn of danger) wails, it makes a noise. *Somewhere in the distance a police siren was wailing.* ●**wail** *noun* [C]

waist /weɪst/ *noun* [C] **1** ANATOMY the part around the middle of your body where you wear a belt *She had a 26 inch waist.* ➲See colour picture **The Body** on page Centre 13 **2** the part of a piece of clothing that fits round the waist

waistband /ˈweɪstbænd/ *noun* [C] the strip of material at the top of a pair of trousers or a skirt that goes around the waist

waistcoat /ˈweɪstkəʊt/ *UK* (*US* **vest**) *noun* [C] a piece of clothing with buttons at the front and no sleeves, that you wear over a shirt ➲See colour picture **Clothes** on page Centre 9

waistline /ˈweɪstlaɪn/ *noun* [C] how big or small your waist is, or the part of a piece of clothing that goes around the waist

O-key **wait¹** /weɪt/ *verb* [I] **1** STAY to stay in a place until someone or something arrives or someone or something is ready for you *I'm **waiting for** Clive.* ○ *How long did you wait for a taxi?* [+ **to do sth**] *I'm still waiting to use the phone.* **2** NOT DO SOMETHING to not do something until something else happens *We'll wait till Jane gets here before we start eating.* **3 can't wait** *informal* used to say how excited you are about something that you are going to do [+ **to do sth**] *I can't wait to see him.* **4 keep sb waiting** to be late so that someone has to wait for you *I'm sorry to have kept you waiting.* **5 wait and see** to wait to discover what will happen *We'll wait and see what she says.* ➲See also: be waiting in **the wings**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

wait or **expect?**

When you **wait**, you stay somewhere until a person or thing arrives or is ready.

I waited twenty minutes for the bus.

She's waiting for her exam results.

When you **expect** something, you think that it will happen.

I'm expecting the bus to arrive in about 5 minutes.

She expected to do well in the exam.

~~*She waited to do well in the exam.*~~

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

wait

Wait must always be followed by **for** or **to do sth**. It cannot be followed by the thing you are waiting for.

I am waiting for my mother.

~~*I am waiting my mother.*~~

wait about/around *phrasal verb* to stay in a place and do nothing while you wait for someone to arrive or something to happen

wait in *phrasal verb UK* to stay at home because you are expecting someone to visit or telephone you

wait on sb *phrasal verb* to bring a meal to someone, especially in a restaurant

wait up *phrasal verb* to not go to bed at night until someone has come home *I'll be quite late, so don't **wait up for** me.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wait***

face/have a wait • an **agonizing/anxious/long** wait • the wait **for** sth • sth is **(well) worth the wait**

wait² /weɪt/ *noun* [**no plural**] when you stay in a place until someone or something arrives or someone or something is ready for you *We **had** a **long wait** at the airport.*

waiter /ˈweɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] a man who works in a restaurant, bringing food to customers

ˈ**waiting ˌlist** *noun* [C] a list of people who are waiting until it is their time to have or do something *a hospital waiting list*

ˈ**waiting ˌroom** *noun* [C] a room in which people wait for something, for example to see a doctor or take a train

waitress /ˈweɪtrəs/ *noun* [C] a woman who works in a restaurant, bringing food to customers

waive /weɪv/ *verb* [T] **1** ALLOW UNUSUAL ACTION to allow someone not to obey the usual rule or not to pay the usual amount of money *He agreed to waive his fee to help us.* **2** LAW to decide not to have something that you are allowed by law to have *She **waived** her **right** to have a lawyer representing her.*

wake¹ /weɪk/ (*also* **wake up**) *verb* [I, T] *past tense* **woke**, *past participle* **woken** to stop sleeping or to make someone else stop sleeping *I've only just woken up.* ○ *Could you wake me up before you go?* ○ *You woke me up making so much noise.* ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16

wake up to sth *phrasal verb* to start to understand something that is important *We need to wake up to the fact that the Earth's resources are limited.*

wake² /weɪk/ *noun* **1 in the wake of sth** after something has happened, and often because it has happened *Airport security was extra tight in the wake of last week's bomb attacks.* **2** SHIP [C] the waves behind a moving ship **3** FUNERAL [C] when people come together to remember someone who has recently died

ˈ**wake-up ˌcall** *noun* [C] **1** TELEPHONE a telephone call to wake you in the morning, especially when you are staying in a hotel **2** EVENT something bad that happens and shows you that you need to take action to change a situation

walk¹ /wɔːk/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to move forward by putting one foot in front of the other and then repeating the action *She walks to school.* ○ *We walked twenty miles in all.* **2 walk sb home/to sth** to walk with someone in order to guide them or keep them safe *He walked me to my house.* **3 walk the dog** to walk with a dog to give the dog exercise **4 walk all over sb** *informal* to treat someone badly

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

walk or **go on foot?**

The expression **go on foot** means **walk**, usually when you are describing how you get somewhere.

How do you get to school? I go on foot/I walk.

walk into sth *phrasal verb* to get a job easily

walk off with sth *phrasal verb* to win something easily *She walked off with the top prize.*

walk out *phrasal verb* to leave a job, meeting, or performance because you are angry or do not approve of something *He was so disgusted by the film he walked out.*

walk out on sb *phrasal verb* to suddenly leave your husband, wife, or partner and end your relationship with them *He walked out on his wife and kids.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***walk***

go for/take a walk • a **brisk** walk • a **long/short** walk

walk² /wɔːk/ *noun* **1** JOURNEY [C] a journey that you make by walking, often for enjoyment *We usually **go for a walk** on Sunday afternoons.* ○ *He took the dog for a walk.* **2 a short/ten-minute, etc walk** a journey that takes a short time/ten minutes, etc when you walk *The station is just a five-minute walk from the house.* **3** PATH [C] a path or route where people can walk for enjoyment *There are some lovely walks in the forest.* **4 walk of life** People from different walks of life have different jobs and different experiences in life.

walker /ˈwɔːkəʳ/ *noun* [C] SPORT someone who walks for exercise or enjoyment

walkie talkie /ˌwɔːkiˈtɔːki/ *noun* [C] a radio that you carry with you and that lets you talk to someone else with a similar radio

Walkman /ˈwɔːkmən/ *noun* [C] *trademark* MUSIC a small piece of equipment with parts that you put in your ears which allows you to listen to music that no one else can hear

wall /wɔːl/ *noun* [C] **1** PART OF BUILDING one of the vertical sides of a room or building *There were several large paintings on the wall.* **2** DIVIDE AREA a vertical structure made of brick or stone that divides areas that are owned by different people *a garden wall* **3 drive sb up the wall** *informal* to make someone very angry *She drives me up the wall.* ➲See also: **fly²** on the wall, be banging your **head¹** against a brick wall

wallaby /ˈwɒləbi/ *noun* [C] an animal like a small kangaroo, with strong back legs for jumping with and a long tail

walled /wɔːld/ *adjective* **walled garden/city** a garden/city with walls around it

wallet /ˈwɒlɪt/ (*also US* **billfold**) *noun* [C] a small, flat container for paper money and credit cards (= plastic cards used for paying with), usually used by a man

wallop /ˈwɒləp/ *verb* [T] *informal* to hit someone or something hard •**wallop** *noun* [**no plural**] *informal*

wallow /ˈwɒləʊ/ *verb* [I] **1** EMOTION to allow yourself to feel too much sadness in a way that stops people respecting you *There's no use **wallowing in** self-pity.* **2** LIE AROUND to lie or move around in soil or water, especially for pleasure

wallpaper /ˈwɔːlˌpeɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C, U] **1** paper, usually with a pattern, that you decorate walls with **2** COMPUTING a design or image that you choose to appear on the screen of your computer •**wallpaper** *verb* [T]

W

ˈWall ˌStreet *noun* **ECONOMICS** the financial area of New York where shares (= small, equal parts of the value of a company) are bought and sold *The company's shares rose* ***on Wall Street*** *yesterday.*

wally /ˈwɒli/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a silly person

walnut /ˈwɔːlnʌt/ *noun* **1 FOOD** [C] a nut that is in two halves inside a brown shell, and whose surface has curves and folds in it **2** [U] the hard wood of the tree that produces walnuts, used to make furniture

walrus /ˈwɔːlrəs/ *noun* [C] a large sea animal that has two tusks (= long, pointed teeth that come out of the mouth)

waltz¹ /wɒls/ *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a dance for two partners performed to music that has a rhythm of three beats, or the music for the dance

waltz² /wɒls/ *verb* [I] **1** to dance a waltz **2 waltz in/off, etc** to walk somewhere quickly and confidently, often in a way that annoys other people *You can't just waltz into my bedroom - it's private!*

wan /wɒn/ *adjective* pale and looking ill or tired

WAN /wæn/ *noun* [C] *abbreviation for* **COMPUTING** wide area network: a computer network that connects separate machines over a wide area, for example in different countries ➲Compare **LAN**

wand /wɒnd/ *noun* [C] a thin stick that someone who performs magic tricks holds in their hand

wander /ˈwɒndəʳ/ *verb* **1** WALK [I, T] to walk slowly about a place without any purpose *They wandered aimlessly around the town.* **2** LEAVE PLACE [I] (*also* **wander off**) to walk away from the place where you should be *He was here a moment ago - he must have wandered off.* **3 sb's attention/mind/thoughts, etc wander** If someone's attention/mind, etc wanders, they start thinking about one subject when they should be thinking about a different subject. *I was bored and my thoughts started to wander.*

wane /weɪn/ *verb* [I] to become less powerful, important, or popular *Interest in the product is starting to wane.*

wangle /ˈwæŋgl/ *verb* [T] *informal* to succeed in getting something that a lot of people want, by being clever or tricking someone *He managed to wangle an invitation to the party.*

O-K **want¹** /wɒnt/ *verb* [T] **1** HOPE to hope to have or do something, or to wish for something *He wants a new car.* [+ **to do sth**] *I don't want to talk about it.* ○ *You can't always do what you want.* ○ *We can go later if you want.* ○ *I want him to explain why.* **2** NEED to need something *This soup wants more salt.* **3 want to do sth** *UK informal* used to give advice to someone *You want to go to bed earlier and then you won't be so tired.* **4 be wanted** to be needed for a particular activity or in a particular place *You're wanted on the phone.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

want something/someone to do something

Be careful to use the correct form after this expression. You cannot say 'that' after **want**.

I just want him to enjoy himself.

~~*I just want that he enjoy himself.*~~

They don't want the school holidays to end.

~~*They don't want that the school holidays end.*~~

want² /wɒnt/ *noun* **want of sth** when there is not enough of something *If we fail, it won't be* ***for want of*** *effort* (= it is not because we have not tried).

wanted /ˈwɒntɪd/ *adjective* **LAW** If someone is wanted, the police think they have committed a serious crime and are trying to find them. *He is* ***wanted for*** *murder.*

wanton /ˈwɒntən/ *adjective formal* done in order to cause suffering or destruction but with no other reason *wanton cruelty/violence*

wants /wɒnts/ *noun* [**plural**] the things you want or need

WORD PARTNERS FOR *war*

all-out/full-scale war ● **declare/go to** war ● **wage** war on sb ● war **breaks out** ● war **against** sb

O-K **war** /wɔːʳ/ *noun* **1** FIGHTING [C, U] fighting, using soldiers and weapons, between two or more countries, or two or more groups inside a country *They've been* ***at war*** *for the past five years.* ○ *He was only a child when the* ***war broke out*** (= started). ○ *If this country* ***goes to war*** (= starts to fight in a war), *thousands of people will die.* **2** COMPETING [C, U] when two or more groups are trying to be more successful than each other *a* ***price war*** *between supermarkets* **3** TO STOP [**no plural**] an attempt to stop something bad or illegal *the* ***war against*** *crime/drugs* ➲See also: **civil war, prisoner of war, world war**

ˈwar ˌcrime *noun* [C] **LAW** a crime during a war that breaks the international rules of war ●**war criminal** *noun* [C] someone guilty of a war crime

ward¹ /wɔːd/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** a room in a hospital where people receiving treatment stay, often for the same type of illness *the maternity ward*

ward² /wɔːd/ *verb*
ward sth off *phrasal verb* to prevent something unpleasant happening *I take vitamin C to ward off colds.*

warden /ˈwɔːdᵊn/ *noun* [C] **1** PRISON *US* (*UK* **governor**) someone who is responsible for controlling a prison **2** BUILDING *UK* someone who is responsible for looking after a particular building or the people in it ➲See also: **traffic warden**

warder /ˈwɔːdəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a prison guard

wardrobe /ˈwɔːdrəʊb/ *noun* **1** CUPBOARD [C] *UK* (*US* **closet**) a large cupboard for keeping clothes in **2** CLOTHES [**no plural**] all the clothes that you own

-ward, wards /-wəd, -wədz/ *suffix* makes an adverb meaning 'towards a direction or place' *inward* ○ *forward* ○ *homeward*

warehouse /ˈweəhaʊs/ *noun* [C] *plural* **warehouses** /ˈweəhaʊzɪz/ a large building for storing goods that are going to be sold

wares /weəz/ *noun* [**plural**] *literary* goods that are for sale, especially not in a shop *People were selling their wares at the side of the road.*

warfare /ˈwɔːfeəʳ/ *noun* [**U**] fighting in a war, especially using a particular type of weapon ***chemical/modern warfare***

warhead /ˈwɔːhed/ *noun* [**C**] the part of a missile (= weapon) that explodes when it reaches the place it is aimed at ***a nuclear warhead***

warlord /ˈwɔːlɔːd/ *noun* [**C**] **POLITICS** a military leader who controls a particular area of a country

warm¹ /wɔːm/ *adjective* **1** TEMPERATURE having a temperature between cool and hot *It's nice and warm in here.* ○ *Are you warm enough?* ○ *Make sure you* ***keep warm.*** **2** CLOTHES Warm clothes or covers keep your body warm. *a warm sweater* **3** FRIENDLY friendly and showing affection *a warm smile/welcome*

warm² /wɔːm/ *verb* [**I, T**] to become warm or to make something become warm *She warmed her feet against his.* ○ *I'll warm the soup.*
warm to sb/sth *phrasal verb* to start to like a person or idea
warm up *phrasal verb* **SPORT** to do gentle exercises in order to prepare yourself for more energetic exercise *They were warming up before the match.* ●**warm-up** /ˈwɔːmʌp/ *noun* [**C**]
warm (sb/sth) up *phrasal verb* to become warmer or to make someone or something warmer *The house soon warms up with the heating on.*

warmly /ˈwɔːmli/ *adverb* in a friendly way

warmth /wɔːmθ/ *noun* [**U**] **1** HEAT the heat that is produced by something *the warmth of the fire* **2** FRIENDLY when someone is friendly and shows affection *There was no warmth in his eyes.*

warn /wɔːn/ *verb* [**T**] **1** OF DANGER to tell someone that something bad may happen in the future, so that they can prevent it [**+ that**] *I warned you that it would be cold but you still wouldn't wear a coat.* ○ *I've been warning him for months.* **2** ADVISE to advise someone not to do something that could cause danger or trouble [**+ to do sth**] *I* ***warned*** *you* ***not*** *to tell her.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***warning***

deliver/give/heed/ignore/issue a warning ● a **blunt/final/stern** warning ● **without** warning

warning /ˈwɔːnɪŋ/ *noun* [**C, U**] something that tells or shows you that something bad may happen *All cigarette packets carry a warning.* ○ *The bombs fell completely* ***without warning.***

warp /wɔːp/ *verb* **1** TWIST [**I, T**] to become bent into the wrong shape or to make something do this *The window frames had warped.* **2** MIND [**T**] If something warps your mind, it makes you strange and cruel.

the warp /wɔːp/ *noun* **DT** the threads that go from one end to the other in a piece of cloth and which the other threads are twisted over and under

warpath /ˈwɔːpɑːθ/ *noun* **be on the warpath** *informal* to be trying to find someone in order to be angry with them

warped /wɔːpt/ *adjective* strange and cruel *You've got a warped mind!*

warplane /ˈwɔː,pleɪn/ *noun* [**C**] an aircraft for carrying bombs

warrant¹ /ˈwɒrʳnt/ *noun* [**C**] an official document that allows someone to do something, for example that allows a police officer to search a building *The police have a* ***warrant for*** *his arrest.* ➲See also: **search warrant**

warrant² /ˈwɒrʳnt/ *verb* [**T**] **LAW** to make something necessary *None of her crimes is serious enough to warrant punishment.*

warranty /ˈwɒrʳnti/ *noun* [**C, U**] **LAW** a written promise made by a company to change or repair one of its products if it has a fault *a five-year warranty*

warren /ˈwɒrʳn/ (*also* **ˈrabbit ˌwarren**) *noun* [**C**] a group of connected underground holes where rabbits live

warring /ˈwɔːrɪŋ/ *adjective* **warring factions/parties/sides, etc** groups that are fighting against each other

warrior /ˈwɒriəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] a person who has experience and skill in fighting in a war, especially in the past

warship /ˈwɔːʃɪp/ *noun* [**C**] a ship with weapons, used in war

wart /wɔːt/ *noun* [**C**] **HEALTH** a small, hard lump that grows on the skin

wartime /ˈwɔːtaɪm/ *noun* [**U**] a period when a country is fighting a war

war-torn /ˈwɔː,tɔːn/ *adjective* damaged by war *a war-torn country*

wary /ˈweəri/ *adjective* If you are wary of someone or something, you do not trust them completely. *She's still* ***wary of*** *strangers.* ●**warily** *adverb* ●**wariness** *noun* [**U**]

was /wɒz/ *past simple I/he/she/it of* be

wash¹ /wɒʃ/ *verb* **1** CLEAN SOMETHING [**T**] to make something clean using water, or water and soap *Dad was washing the dishes.* **2** CLEAN YOURSELF [**I, T**] to clean part of your body with water and soap *Have you washed your hands?* ○ *I* ***got washed*** *and dressed.* **3 be washed away/out/up, etc** If something is washed away/out, etc, it is moved there by water. *A lot of the waste is washed out to sea.* **4 wash against/on, etc** If water washes somewhere, it flows there. *Waves washed against the base of the cliff.*
wash sth away *phrasal verb* If water washes something away, it removes that thing. *Floods washed away much of the soil.*
wash sth down *phrasal verb* to drink something with food or medicine to make it easier to swallow *I had a plate of sandwiches, washed down with a glass of cool beer.*
wash out *phrasal verb* If a colour or dirty mark washes out, it disappears when you wash something. *Most hair dye washes out after a few weeks.*
wash (sth) up *phrasal verb UK* to wash the dishes, pans, and other things you have used for cooking and eating a meal ➲See colour picture
Phrasal Verbs on page Centre 16
wash up *phrasal verb US* to wash your hands, especially before a meal *Go and wash up - your dinner's ready.*

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wash² /wɒʃ/ *noun* **1 a wash a** when you wash a part of your body *Have you **had a wash?*** **b** *mainly UK* when you wash something *Could you **give** the car **a wash?*** **2** [C, U] clothes, sheets, etc that are being washed together *Your jeans are **in the wash**.*

washable /ˈwɒʃəbl/ *adjective* Something that is washable will not be damaged by being washed.

washbasin /ˈwɒʃˌbeɪsᵊn/ *UK* (*UK/US* **sink**) *noun* [C] a bowl in a bathroom that water can flow into, used for washing your face or hands

washcloth /ˈwɒʃklɒθ/ *US* (*UK* **flannel**) *noun* [C] a small cloth that you use to wash your face and body ➲See colour picture **The Bathroom** on page Centre 3

washed-out /ˌwɒʃtˈaʊt/ *adjective* looking pale and tired

washer /ˈwɒʃəʳ/ *noun* [C] **1** RING a thin, flat ring that is put between a nut and a bolt (= metal objects used to fasten things together) **2** MACHINE a machine that washes clothes

washing /ˈwɒʃɪŋ/ *noun* [U] clothes, sheets, and similar things that are being washed or have been washed, or when you wash these *I'm **doing** the **washing** this morning.* ○ *He does his own washing and ironing.*

ˈ**washing maˌchine** *noun* [C] a machine that washes clothes

ˈ**washing ˌpowder** *UK* (*US* **laundry detergent**) *noun* [C] a soap in the form of a powder that is used to wash clothes

washing-up /ˌwɒʃɪŋˈʌp/ *noun* [U] *UK* when you wash the dishes, pans, and other things you have used for cooking and eating a meal *He was **doing the washing-up**.*

ˌ**washing-ˈup ˌliquid** *UK* (*US* **dish soap**) *noun* [C, U] a thick liquid soap used to wash pans, plates, knives and forks, etc

washout /ˈwɒʃaʊt/ *noun* [**no plural**] *informal* an event that fails badly *No one came to the fete - it was a complete washout.*

washroom /ˈwɒʃruːm/ *noun* [C] *mainly US* a room where you can go to the toilet or wash your hands and face

wasn't /ˈwɒzᵊnt/ *short for* was not *I wasn't hungry this morning.*

wasp /wɒsp/ *noun* [C] a flying insect with a thin, black and yellow body *a wasp sting* ➲See picture at **insect**

wastage /ˈweɪstɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] when you waste something *fuel wastage*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***waste***

a waste **of** sth ● a waste **of effort/money/time** ● **household/nuclear/toxic** waste ● waste **disposal** ● **go to** waste

O-K **waste¹** /weɪst/ *noun* **1** BAD USE [**U, no plural**] a bad use of something useful, such as time or money, when there is a limited amount of it *Meetings are a **waste of time**.* ○ *They throw away loads of food - it's such a waste.* ○ *a waste of energy/resources* **2** REMAINING MATERIAL [U] things that are not wanted, especially what remains after you have used something ***household/nuclear waste*** **3 go to waste** to not be used *I hate to see good food go to waste.*

O-K **waste²** /weɪst/ *verb* [T] **1** to use too much of something or use something badly when there is a limited amount of it *I don't want to waste any more time so let's start.* ○ *Why waste your money on things you don't need?* **2 be wasted on sb** to be clever or of high quality in a way that someone will not understand or enjoy *Good coffee is wasted on Joe - he prefers instant.*
waste away *phrasal verb* to become thinner and weaker

waste³ /weɪst/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] Waste material is not now needed and can be got rid of. ***waste paper***

wasteful /ˈweɪstfᵊl/ *adjective* using too much of something, or using something badly when there is a limited amount of it

wasteland /ˈweɪstlænd/ *noun* [C, U] an area of land that cannot be used in any way

ˈ**wastepaper ˌbasket** *UK* (*US* **wastebasket**) *noun* [C] a container that is used inside buildings for putting rubbish such as paper into

O-K **watch¹** /wɒtʃ/ *verb* **1** LOOK AT [I, T] to look at something for a period of time *I watched him as he arrived.* ○ *The kids are watching TV.* ○ *I want to watch the news* (= programme on television). ➲See Common Learner Error at **look 2** BE CAREFUL [T] to be careful about something *She has to watch what she eats.* ○ *Watch how you cross the road!* **3** GIVE ATTENTION TO [T] to give attention to a situation which is changing *We'll be watching the case with interest.* ➲See also: **bird-watching,** watch your **step**¹
watch out *phrasal verb* used to tell someone to be careful because they are in danger *Watch out! There's a car coming!* ○ *Drivers were told to **watch out for** black ice on the road.*
watch over sb *phrasal verb* to look after someone and protect them if it is necessary

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***watch*** *(noun)*

wear a watch ● **glance at/look at** your watch

O-K **watch²** /wɒtʃ/ *noun* **1** CLOCK [C] a small clock on a strap that you fasten round your wrist (= lower arm) *I don't **wear** a **watch**.* **2** ATTENTION [**U, no plural**] when you watch or give attention to something or someone, especially to make sure nothing bad happens *We're **keeping a** close **watch** on the situation.*

watchdog /ˈwɒtʃdɒg/ *noun* [C] an organization whose job is to make sure that companies behave legally and provide good services

watchful /ˈwɒtʃfᵊl/ *adjective* careful to notice things and ready to deal with problems *They were playing outside under the **watchful eye** of a teacher.*

watchword /ˈwɒtʃwɜːd/ *noun* [**no plural**] a word or phrase that describes the main ideas or most important part of something *As regards fashion, the watchword this season is simplicity.*

O-K **water¹** /ˈwɔːtəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** LIQUID the clear liquid that falls from the sky as rain and that is in seas, lakes, and rivers ***hot/cold water*** ○ *a drink of water* **2 GEOGRAPHY** (*also* **waters**) an area in the sea or in river or lake *coastal*

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waters **3 be in deep water** to be in a difficult situation which is hard to deal with *They tried to adopt a baby illegally and ended up in very deep water*. **4 be (like) water off a duck's back** If criticisms, insults, etc are like water off a duck's back to you, they do not affect you at all. *She calls him lazy and useless, but it's like water off a duck's back.* ➲See also: **drinking water, mineral water, tap water**

water² /ˈwɔːtəʳ/ *verb* **1** PLANTS [T] to pour water over plants **2** MOUTH [I] If food makes your mouth water, it makes you want to eat it, sometimes making your mouth produce liquid. *The smells from the kitchen are making my mouth water.* **3** EYES [I] If your eyes water, they produce liquid because something is hurting them. *The smoke was making my eyes water.*
water sth down *phrasal verb* **1** DRINK to add water to a drink, especially an alcoholic drink **2** MAKE WEAKER to make a plan or idea less extreme, usually so that people will accept it

watercolour *UK* (*US* **watercolor**) /ˈwɔːtəˌkʌləʳ/ *noun* [C] **ART** a type of paint that is mixed with water, or a picture made with this paint

ˈwater ˌcooler *noun* [C] a machine for providing cool drinking water, usually in an office or other public place

watercress /ˈwɔːtəkres/ *noun* [U] **FOOD** a small, strong-tasting plant that is eaten in salads

the ˈwater ˌcycle *noun* **BIOLOGY, GEOGRAPHY** the way that water is taken up from the sea, rivers, soil, etc and then comes back down as rain or snow

waterfall /ˈwɔːtəfɔːl/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a stream of water that flows from a high place, often to a pool below

waterfront /ˈwɔːtəfrʌnt/ *noun* [C] a part of a town which is next to the sea, a lake, or a river *waterfront restaurants*

waterhole /ˈwɔːtəhəʊl/ *noun* [C] a small pool of water in a dry area where animals go to drink

ˈwatering ˌcan *noun* [C] a container used for watering plants in the garden

waterlogged /ˈwɔːtəlɒgd/ *adjective* Waterlogged land is too wet.

watermark /ˈwɔːtəmɑːk/ *noun* [C] a pattern or picture on paper, especially paper money, which you can only see when a strong light is behind it

watermelon /ˈwɔːtəˌmelən/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a large, round, green fruit that is pink inside with a lot of black seeds

waterproof /ˈwɔːtəpruːf/ *adjective* Waterproof material or clothing does not let water through. *a waterproof sleeping bag*

waters /ˈwɔːtəz/ *noun* [plural] **GEOGRAPHY** the part of a sea around the coast of a country that legally belongs to that country

watershed /ˈwɔːtəʃed/ *noun* [no plural] an important event after which a situation completely changes *The discovery marked* ***a watershed in*** *the history of medicine.*

water-skiing /ˈwɔːtəskiːɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which someone is pulled behind a

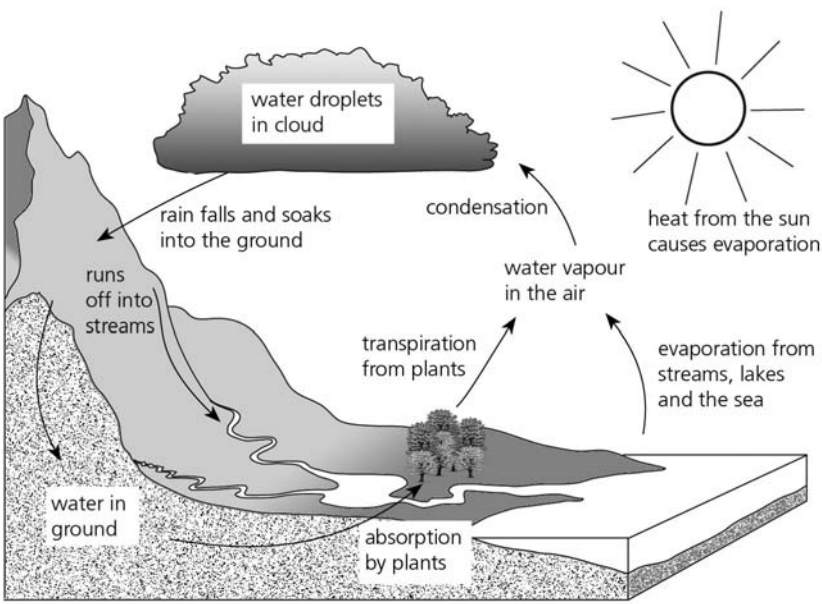

water cycle

boat while standing on skis (= long, narrow pieces of wood or plastic fastened to the feet)

ˈwater ˌtable *noun* [C] **GEOLOGY** the layer below the Earth's surface where water is found

watertight /ˈwɔːtətaɪt/ *adjective* **1** WATER Something that is watertight prevents any water from entering it. **2** REASON/EXCUSE A watertight reason or excuse is one that no one can prove is false. *a watertight alibi*

waterway /ˈwɔːtəweɪ/ *noun* [C] a river or canal (= river made by people, not nature) which people can use to travel along

watery /ˈwɔːtᵊri/ *adjective* **1** FOOD made with too much water *watery soup* **2** EYES Watery eyes are wet with tears.

watt /wɒt/ (*written abbreviation* **W**) *noun* [C] **MEASURES, PHYSICS** a unit for measuring electrical power *a 60 watt light bulb*

O-K **wave¹** /weɪv/ *verb* **1** WITH HAND [I] to raise your hand and move it from side to side in order to attract someone's attention or to say goodbye ***Wave goodbye*** *to Grandma.* ○ *She* ***waved at*** *him.* **2 wave sb in/on/through, etc** to show which way you want someone to go by moving your hand in that direction *The police waved him on.* **3** MOVE SIDE TO SIDE [I, T] (*also* **wave about/around**) to move from side to side in the air or make something move this way *The long grass waved in the breeze.* ○ *He started waving his arms about wildly.*
wave sth aside *phrasal verb* to refuse to consider what someone says *She waved aside all my objections.*
wave sb off *phrasal verb* to wave your hand to someone as they are leaving in order to say goodbye *We went to the station to wave him off.*

O-K **wave²** /weɪv/ *noun* [C] **1 GEOGRAPHY** a line of higher water that moves across the surface of the sea or a lake *I could hear the waves crashing against the rocks.* **2** GROUP a group of people or things that arrive or happen together or in a short period of time *There has been a* ***wave of*** *kidnappings in the region.* ○ *Another wave of refugees is arriving at the border.* **3 a wave of hatred/enthusiasm/sadness, etc** when you suddenly feel an emotion *She felt a sudden wave of sadness.* **4** HAND when you raise your hand and move it from side to side in order to attract someone's attention or say goodbye *She* ***gave a*** *little* ***wave*** *as the train left.* **5 PHYSICS** a piece of sound, light, or other energy that travels up and down in a curved pattern *a radio wave* ➲See also: **new wave, tidal wave**

wavelength /ˈweɪvleŋθ/ *noun* [C] **1 PHYSICS** the length of radio wave used by a radio company for broadcasting its programmes **2 PHYSICS** the distance between one sound or light wave, etc and the next **3 be on the same wavelength** If two people are on the same wavelength, they have the same way of thinking and it is easy for them to understand each other.

waver /ˈweɪvᵊr/ *verb* [I] **1** NOT SURE to start to be uncertain about a belief or decision *Her support for him never wavered.* ○ *I'm* ***wavering between*** *the blue shirt and the red.* **2** SHAKE to shake slightly or lose strength *His voice wavered and I thought he was going to cry.*

wavy /ˈweɪvi/ *adjective* with slight curves *wavy hair*

wax¹ /wæks/ *noun* [U] a solid substance that becomes soft when warm and melts easily, often used to make candles

wax² /wæks/ *verb* [T] **1** WAX to put wax on something, especially to make it shiny *They cleaned and waxed my car.* **2** HAIR If you wax your legs, you remove the hair from them by using wax.

O-K **way¹** /weɪ/ *noun* **1** METHOD [C] how you do something [**+ to do sth**] *I must* ***find a way*** *to help him.* [**+ of + doing sth**] *We looked at various ways of solving the problem.* [**+ (that)**] *It was the way that she told me that I didn't like.* **2** ROUTE [C] the route you take to get from one place to another [**usually singular**] *Is there another way out of here?* ○ *I must buy a paper* ***on the way*** *home.* ○ *Can you* ***find your way*** *back to my house?* ○ *I took the wrong road and* ***lost my way*** (= got lost). **3 make your way to/through/towards, etc** to move somewhere, often with difficulty *We made our way through the shop to the main entrance.* **4 be on her/my/its, etc way** to be arriving soon *Apparently she's on her way.* **5 in/out of the/sb's way** in/not in the area in front of someone that they need to pass or see through *I couldn't see because Bill was in the way.* ○ *Sorry, am I in your way?* ○ *Could you move out of the way, please?* **6 a third of the way/most of the way, etc** used to say how much of something is completed *A third of the way through the film she dies.* **7 get in the way of sth/sb** to prevent someone from doing or continuing with something *Don't let your new friends get in the way of your studies.* **8 be under way** to be already happening *Building work is already under way.* **9 give way (to sb/sth) a** ALLOW to allow someone to get what they want, or to allow something to happen after trying to prevent it *The boss finally gave way when they threatened to stop work.* **b** TRAFFIC (*US* **yield**) *UK* to allow other vehicles to go past before you move onto a road **10 give way to sth** to change into something else *Her excitement quickly gave way to horror.* **11 give way** If something gives way, it falls because it is not strong enough to support the weight on top of it. *Suddenly the ground gave way under me.* **12 get sth out of the way** to finish something *I'll go shopping when I've got this essay out of the way.* **13** DIRECTION [C] a direction something faces or travels *This bus is going the* ***wrong way.*** ○ *Which* ***way up*** *does this picture go* (= which side should be at the top)*?* ○ *UK He always wears his baseball cap* ***the wrong way round*** (= backwards). **14** SPACE/TIME [**no plural**] an amount of space or time *We're* ***a long way*** *from home.* ○ *The exams are still* ***a long way away/off.*** **15 make way** to move away so that someone or something can pass **16 make way for sth** If you move or get rid of something to make way for something new, you do so in order to make a space for the new thing. *They knocked down the old houses to make way for a new hotel.* **17 in a way/in many ways** used to say that you think something is partly true *In a way his behaviour is understandable.* **18 in no way** not at all *This is in no way your fault.* **19 there's no way** *informal* If there is no way that something will happen, it is certainly not

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allowed or not possible. *There's no way that dog's coming in the house.* **20 No way!** *informal* certainly not *"Would you invite him to a party?" "No way!"* **21 get/have your (own) way** to get what you want, although it might upset other people *She always gets her own way in the end.* **22 in a big/small way** *informal* used to describe how much or little you do a particular thing *They celebrate birthdays in a big way.* **23 a/sb's way of life** the way someone lives *Violence has become a way of life there.* **24 by the way** used when you say something that does not relate to what is being discussed *Oh, by the way, my name's Julie.* **25 go out of your way to do sth** to try very hard to do something pleasant for someone *He went out of his way to make us feel welcome.* **26 rub sb up the wrong way** *UK* (*US* **rub sb the wrong way**) *informal* to annoy someone without intending to ➲See also: **the Milky Way**

way² /weɪ/ *adverb informal* used to emphasize how extreme something is *The room was **way too** hot.* ○ *He's in second place but he's **way behind/off**.*

ˌway ˈout *noun* [C] **1** DOOR *UK* (*UK/US* **exit**) a door that takes you out of a building **2** SITUATION a way of avoiding doing something unpleasant *I'm supposed to be going to this meeting at 2.00 and I'm looking for a way out.*

wayside /ˈweɪsaɪd/ *noun* **fall by the wayside** to fail to complete something or be completed *Many students fall by the wayside during their first year at college.*

wayward /ˈweɪwəd/ *adjective literary* behaving badly in a way that causes trouble for other people

WC /ˌdʌbljuːˈsiː/ *noun* [C] *UK abbreviation for* water closet: a toilet, especially in a public place ➲See Common Learner Error at **toilet**

we *strong form* /wiː/ *weak form* /wi/ *pronoun* **1** used as the subject of the verb when the person speaking or writing is referring to themselves and one or more other people *My wife and I both play golf and we love it.* **2** people generally *The world in which we live is very different.*

weak /wiːk/ *adjective* **1** BODY not physically strong *He felt too weak to sit up.* ○ *The children were **weak with/from** hunger.* **2** CHARACTER not powerful, or not having a strong character *a weak government/leader* **3** LIKELY TO FAIL likely to fail *a weak economy* ○ *a weak team* **4** LIKELY TO BREAK likely to break and not able to support heavy things *a weak bridge* **5 FOOD** A weak drink has little taste or contains little alcohol. *weak coffee/beer* **6** REASON A weak reason or excuse is one that you cannot believe because there is not enough proof to support it. **7** NOT GOOD not good at something *She reads well but her spelling is weak.* **8** SLIGHT difficult to see or hear *He spoke in a weak voice.* ○ *a weak light* **9 CHEMISTRY** describes an acid, alkali or chemical base that does not produce many ions (= atoms with an electrical charge) when it is dissolved in water ●**weakly** *adverb*

ˌweak ˈacid *noun* [C] **CHEMISTRY** an acid with a pH of 5 or 6 whose ionic compounds do not completely separate or divide into smaller molecules in a solution containing water

weaken /ˈwiːkᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** LOSE POWER to become less strong or powerful, or to make someone or something less strong or powerful *A number of factors have weakened the economy.* **2** LOSE CONFIDENCE to become less certain or determined about a decision, or to make someone less determined *I told him he wasn't having any more money but then I weakened.*

weakling /ˈwiːklɪŋ/ *noun* [C] someone who is physically weak

weakness /ˈwiːknəs/ *noun* **1** FEELING WEAK [U] when someone or something is not strong or powerful *Asking for help is not a **sign of weakness**.* **2** FAULT [C] a particular part or quality of something or someone that is not good *What do you think are your weaknesses as a manager?* ○ *There are a number of weaknesses in this proposal.* **3 have a weakness for sth/sb** to like a particular thing or person very much *She has a real weakness for ice cream.*

wealth /welθ/ *noun* **1** [U] when someone has a lot of money or valuable possessions *He enjoyed his new wealth and status.* **2 a wealth of sth** a large amount of something good *a wealth of experience/information*

wealthy /ˈwelθi/ *adjective* rich *a wealthy businessman/nation* ○ *Only **the** very **wealthy** can afford to live here.*

wean /wiːn/ *verb* [T] **FOOD** to start to give a baby food to eat instead of its mother's milk
wean sb off sth *phrasal verb* to make someone gradually stop using something that is bad for them *I'm trying to wean myself off fatty food generally.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***weapon***

biological /chemical/nuclear weapons ● **deadly/lethal/offensive** weapons ● **carry/possess** a weapon

weapon /ˈwepən/ *noun* [C] a gun, knife, or other object used to kill or hurt someone ***nuclear weapons*** ○ *Police have found the murder weapon.* ●**weaponry** *noun* [U] weapons

wear¹ /weəʳ/ *verb past tense* **wore**, *past participle* **worn 1** DRESS [T] to have a piece of clothing, jewellery, etc on your body *I wear jeans a lot of the time.* ○ *She wears glasses.* ○ *I don't usually wear make-up for work.* **2** FACE [T] to show a particular emotion on your face. *He was wearing a smile/frown.* **3** HAIR [T] to arrange or grow your hair in a particular way *She usually wears her hair in a ponytail.* **4** SPOIL [I, T] to become thin and damaged after being used a lot, or to make this happen *The carpet is already starting to wear in places.* ○ *He keeps **wearing holes in** his socks.* ➲See also: wear **thin**¹
wear (sth) away *phrasal verb* to disappear after a lot of time or use, or to make something disappear in this way *The words on the gravestone had worn away completely.*
wear sb down *phrasal verb* to make someone feel tired and less able to argue *Their continual nagging just wears me down.*
wear off *phrasal verb* If a feeling or the effect of something wears off, it gradually disappears. *The anaesthetic is starting to wear off.*
wear on *phrasal verb* If a period of time wears on, it passes, especially slowly. *As time wore on she became more and more unhappy.*

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wear sb out *phrasal verb* to make someone extremely tired
wear (sth) out *phrasal verb* to use something so much that it is damaged and cannot be used any more, or to become damaged in this way

wear² /weəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** DAMAGE (*also* **wear and tear**) damage that happens to something when it is used a lot *The furniture is already showing signs of wear.* **2** USE how much you wear a piece of clothing *These clothes are not for everyday wear.* **3 be the worse for wear** to be in a bad state or condition

-wear /weəʳ/ *suffix* used at the end of words that describe a particular type of clothes *menswear/swimwear*

wearing /ˈweərɪŋ/ *adjective* making you tired or annoyed

weary /ˈwɪəri/ *adjective* **1** tired *You look weary, my love.* **2 weary of sth/sb** bored with something or someone *She **grew weary of** the children and their games.* ●**wearily** *adverb* ●**weariness** *noun* [U]

weasel /ˈwiːzᵊl/ *noun* [C] a small animal with a long body that kills and eats other small animals

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***weather***

bad/cold/good/hot/stormy/warm/wet weather ● weather **brightens up/improves/worsens**

weather¹ /ˈweðəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** the temperature or conditions outside, for example if it is hot, cold, sunny, etc *The flight was delayed because of **bad weather**.* **2 be/feel under the weather** to feel ill

weather² /ˈweðəʳ/ *verb* [T] to deal with a difficult situation or difficult conditions *to weather criticism/a recession*

weathered /ˈweðəd/ *adjective* looking rough and old *a weathered face*

ˈweather ˌforecast *noun* [C] a description of what the weather will be like

weathering /ˈweðərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] ENVIRONMENT, GEOLOGY when rocks are broken into small pieces by the action of the weather

weave /wiːv/ *verb* **1 weave in and out; weave through** *past* **weaved** to go somewhere by moving around a lot of things *to weave in and out of the traffic* **2** [I, T] *past tense* **wove**, *past participle* **woven** DT to make cloth on a machine by crossing threads under and over each other

web /web/ *noun* [C] **1** a type of net made by a spider (= small creature with eight legs) to catch other insects *a spider's web* **2 the Web** INTERNET (*also* **the World Wide Web**) part of the Internet that consists of all the connected websites (= pages of text and pictures) ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

ˈweb adˌdress (*US* **ˈweb ˌaddress**) *noun* [C] INTERNET an email or website address ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

ˈweb ˌbrowser *noun* [C] INTERNET a computer program which allows you to look at pages on the Internet

webcam /ˈwebkæm/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING, INTERNET a camera which records moving pictures and sound and allows these to be shown on the Internet as they happen ➲See picture at **computer**

webcast /ˈwebkɑːst/ *noun* [C] INTERNET a broadcast made on the Internet

ˈweb ˌpage *noun* [C] INTERNET a part of a website that can be read on a computer screen ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

ˈweb ˌserver *noun* [C] INTERNET a computer system or program that finds and sends web pages when Internet users ask for them

website /ˈwebsaɪt/ *noun* [C] INTERNET an area on the Web (= computer information system) where information about a particular subject, organization, etc can be found ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

we'd /wiːd/ **1** WE HAD *short for* we had *By the time she arrived we'd eaten.* **2** WE WOULD *short for* we would *We'd like two tickets for the three o'clock show, please.*

Wed (*also* **Weds**) *written abbreviation for* Wednesday

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wedding***

go to/be invited to/plan a wedding ● **at** a wedding ● sb's wedding **day** ● a wedding **dress/guest/present/reception/ring**

wedding /ˈwedɪŋ/ *noun* [C] an official ceremony at which a man and woman get married *We're **going to a wedding** on Saturday afternoon.* ○ ***a wedding dress/ring*** ➲See also: **golden wedding**

wedge¹ /wedʒ/ *noun* [C] a piece of something that is thin at one end and thicker at the other *a big wedge of cheese*

wedge² /wedʒ/ *verb* [T] **1 wedge sth open/shut** to use a wedge or similar shaped object to keep a door or window firmly open or closed *I wedged the door open.* **2** to push something into a narrow space *I was wedged between Andy and Pete in the back of the car.*

Wednesday /ˈwenzdeɪ/ (*written abbreviation* **Wed, Weds**) *noun* [C, U] the day of the week after Tuesday and before Thursday

wee¹ /wiː/ *noun* [**no plural**] *mainly UK informal* when you urinate *to have a wee* ○ *I need a wee.* ●**wee** *verb* [I] **weeing**, *past* **weed**

wee² /wiː/ *adjective* small, usually used by Scottish speakers *a wee girl*

weed¹ /wiːd/ *noun* [C] a wild plant that you do not want to grow in your garden

weed² /wiːd/ *verb* [I, T] to remove wild plants from a garden where they are not wanted
weed sb/sth out *phrasal verb* to get rid of people or things that you do not want from a group *The government plans to weed out bad teachers.*

weedy /ˈwiːdi/ *adjective UK informal* thin and weak *He looks too weedy to be an athlete.*

week /wiːk/ *noun* **1** [C] a period of seven days *last week/next week* ○ *I've got three exams this week.* ○ *We get paid every week.* **2 the week** the five days from Monday to Friday when people

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usually go to work or school *I don't go out much during the week.*

weekday /ˈwiːkdeɪ/ *noun* [C] one of the five days from Monday to Friday, when people usually go to work or school

weekend /ˌwiːkˈend/ (US) /ˈwiːkend/ *noun* [C] **1** Saturday and Sunday, the two days in the week when many people do not work *Are you doing anything this weekend?* ○ *I'm going home for the weekend.* **2 at the weekend** *UK* (*US* **on the weekend**) on Saturday or Sunday *He's going to a football match at the weekend.*

weekly /ˈwiːkli/ *adjective, adverb* happening once a week or every week *a weekly newspaper* ○ *We're paid weekly.*

weep /wiːp/ *verb* [I, T] *past* **wept** *literary* to cry, usually because you are sad

the weft /weft/ *noun* DT the threads in a piece of cloth that go from side to side and are twisted over and under threads going from end to end

weigh /weɪ/ *verb* **1 weigh 200g/75 kg/10 stone, etc** to have a weight of 200g/75 kg/10 stone, etc *How much do you weigh?* **2** MEASURE [T] to measure how heavy someone or something is *Can you weigh that piece of cheese for me?* ○ *She weighs herself every day.* **3** CONSIDER [T] (*also UK* **weigh up**) to consider something carefully, especially in order to make a decision *The jury must weigh the evidence.* ○ *He needs to weigh up the pros and cons of going to college.*
weigh sth against sth *phrasal verb* to judge which of two things is more important before making a decision *The advantages have to be weighed against the possible disadvantages.*
be weighed down by/with sth *phrasal verb* **1** CARRYING to be carrying or holding too much *She was weighed down with shopping bags.* **2** WORRIED to be very worried about something *be weighed down by problems/debts*
weigh on/upon sb/sth *phrasal verb* If a problem or responsibility weighs on you, it makes you worried or unhappy. *Problems at work are weighing on me.*
weigh sth out *phrasal verb* to measure an amount of something *Weigh out 8 ounces of flour.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***weight***

gain/lose/put on weight ● **carry/lift/support** a weight ● **average/excess/heavy/ideal/light** weight

weight /weɪt/ *noun* **1** AMOUNT [U] how heavy someone or something is *He's about **average** height and **weight**.* **2 lose weight** If someone loses weight, they become lighter and thinner. *I need to **lose a bit of weight**.* **3 put on/gain weight** If someone puts on weight or gains weight, they become heavier and fatter. **4** HEAVINESS [U, no plural] the quality of being heavy *The shelf collapsed under the weight of the books.* **5** OBJECT [C] something that is heavy *You're not supposed to lift heavy weights after an operation.* **6 carry weight** to be considered important and effective in influencing someone *His opinions carry a lot of weight with the scientific community.* **7 pull your weight** to work as hard as other people in a group *The rest of the team complained that Sarah wasn't pulling her weight.* **8 throw your weight around** to behave as if you are more important or powerful than other people **9 a weight off your mind** when a problem which has been worrying you stops or is dealt with *Finally selling that house was a weight off my mind.* ➲See also: **paper weight**

weighted /ˈweɪtɪd/ *adjective* **be weighted in favour of/towards/against sth** to give one group an advantage or disadvantage over other people *The system is weighted in favour of families with young children.*

weights /weɪts/ *noun* [plural] SPORT heavy pieces of metal that you lift up and down to make your muscles stronger

weighty /ˈweɪti/ *adjective* very serious and important *The film deals with the **weighty issues** of religion and morality.*

weir /wɪəʳ/ *noun* [C] *UK* a low wall built across a river to control the flow of water

weird /wɪəd/ *adjective* very strange *I had a really weird dream last night.*

weirdo /ˈwɪədəʊ/ *noun* [C] *informal* a person who behaves strangely

welcome[1] /ˈwelkəm/ *exclamation* used to greet someone who has just arrived somewhere *Welcome home!* ○ *Welcome to the UK.*

welcome[2] /ˈwelkəm/ *verb* [T] **1** GREET to greet someone who has arrived in a place *Both families were there to welcome us.* **2** LIKE to be pleased about something and want it to happen *The decision was welcomed by everybody.* ○ *I would welcome your advice.*

welcome[3] /ˈwelkəm/ *adjective* **1** If something is welcome, people are pleased about it and want it to happen. *a **welcome change*** ○ *Your comments are very welcome.* ➲Opposite **unwelcome** **2 You're welcome.** used to be polite to someone who has thanked you *"Thank you." "You're welcome."* **3 make sb (feel) welcome** to make a visitor feel happy and comfortable in a place by being kind and friendly to them *They made me very welcome in their home.* **4 be welcome to do sth** used to tell someone that they can certainly do something, if they want to *Anyone who is interested is welcome to come along.* **5 be welcome to sth** used to tell someone that they can certainly have something, if they want it, because you do not

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***welcome*** *(noun)*

get/be given a [big/friendly/warm, etc] welcome

welcome[4] /ˈwelkəm/ *noun* [no plural] **1** when someone is greeted when they arrive somewhere *He was **given a warm*** (= friendly) ***welcome** by his fans.* **2 outstay/overstay your welcome** to stay somewhere too long so that people want you to leave

weld /weld/ *verb* [T] DT to join pieces of metal together by heating them until they almost melt and then pressing them together

welfare /ˈwelfeəʳ/ *noun* [U] **1** Someone's welfare is their health and happiness. *He is concerned about the welfare of young men in prison.* **2** SOCIETY *US* (*UK* **social security**) money paid by a government to people who are poor,

W

ill, or who do not have jobs *to be* ***on welfare*** (= getting welfare)

ˌwelfare ˈstate *UK* (*US* **ˈwelfareˌstate**) *noun* [**no plural**] **SOCIETY** a system in which the government looks after and pays for people who are ill, old, or who cannot get a job

O–K **we'll** /wiːl/ *short for* we shall or we will *We'll be home on Friday.*

O–K **well¹** /wel/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] **better, best 1 HEALTH** healthy *to feel/look well* ○ *I'm not very well.* ○ *Are you feeling better now?* ➲Opposite **unwell 2 all is well** everything is in a good or acceptable state *I hope all is well with Jack.* **3 be all very well** used to show that you do not agree with something or that you are annoyed about something *It's all very well for her to say everything's fine, she doesn't have to live here.* **4 be (just) as well** used to say that something might be a good thing to do or happen [**+ (that)**] *It was just as well that you left when you did.* ➲See also: be **alive** and kicking/well

O–K **well²** /wel/ *adverb* **better, best 1** SUCCESSFULLY in a successful or satisfactory way *I thought they played well.* ○ *He's* ***doing well*** *at school/work.* **2** COMPLETELY in a complete way or as much as possible *I know him quite well.* ○ *Stir the mixture well.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **good 3 as well** also *Are you going to invite Steve as well?* **4 as well as sth** in addition to something *They have lived in the United States as well as Britain.* **5 may/might as well do sth** If you may/might as well do something, it will not spoil the situation if you do that thing. *If we're not waiting for Karen, we might as well go now.* **6 may/might/could well** used to say that something is likely to be true *He could well be at Michelle's house.* **7 well above/ahead/below, etc** above/ahead/below, etc by a large amount *It was well after seven o'clock when we got home.* **8 can't/couldn't very well do sth** used to say that something is not a suitable or practical thing to do *I couldn't very well tell her while he was there.* **9 Well done!** used to tell someone how pleased you are about their success *"I passed my exams." "Well done!"*

O–K **well³** /wel/ *exclamation* **1** PAUSE used at the beginning of a sentence to pause slightly or to express doubt or disagreement *"You'll go, won't you?" "Well, I'm not sure."* ○ *"You said the food was bad." "Well, I didn't exactly say that."* **2** SURPRISE (*also* **well, well**) used to express surprise *Well, well, I never expected that to happen.* **3 oh well** used to say that a situation cannot be changed although it might be disappointing *Oh well, it doesn't matter, I can always buy another one.*

well⁴ /wel/ *noun* [**C**] a deep hole in the ground from which you can get water, oil, or gas

well-balanced /ˌwelˈbælənst/ *adjective* **1 FOOD, HEALTH a well-balanced diet/meal** food which includes all the different types of food that the body needs to be healthy **2** Well-balanced people are calm and have good judgment.

well-behaved /ˌwelbɪˈheɪvd/ *adjective* behaving in a polite and quiet way *a well-behaved child*

well-being /ˈwelˌbiːɪŋ/ *noun* [**U**] when someone is healthy, happy, and comfortable

well-built /ˌwelˈbɪlt/ *adjective* having a large, strong body

well-connected /ˌwelkəˈnektɪd/ *adjective* having important or powerful friends

well-done /ˌwelˈdʌn/ *adjective* Meat that is well-done has been cooked completely and is not pink inside.

well-dressed /ˌwelˈdrest/ *adjective* wearing attractive, good quality clothes

well-earned /ˌwelˈɜːnd/ *adjective* **well-earned break/holiday/rest, etc** a rest that you deserve because you have been working hard

well-educated /ˌwelˈedʒʊkeɪtɪd/ *adjective* having had a good education

well-established /ˌwelɪˈstæblɪʃt/ *adjective* having existed for a long time *a well-established tradition*

well-fed /ˌwelˈfed/ *adjective* having eaten enough good food *a well-fed cat*

well-heeled /ˌwelˈhiːld/ *adjective* having a lot of money, expensive clothes, etc

wellies /ˈweliz/ *UK informal* (*US* **rubber boots**) *noun* [**plural**] large rubber boots that you wear outside when the ground is wet and dirty *a pair of wellies*

well-informed /ˌwelɪnˈfɔːmd/ *adjective* knowing a lot of useful information

wellingtons /ˈwelɪŋtənz/ *noun* [**plural**] *UK* wellies

well-intentioned /ˌwelɪnˈtenʃᵊnd/ *adjective* trying to be helpful and kind but not improving a situation

well-kept /ˌwelˈkept/ *adjective* **1 a well-kept secret** something that has been carefully and successfully kept secret *The recipe is a well-kept secret.* **2** tidy and organized *a well-kept kitchen*

well-known /ˌwelˈnəʊn/ *adjective* famous *a well-known actor*

well-meaning /ˌwelˈmiːnɪŋ/ *adjective* trying to be helpful and kind but not improving a situation *well-meaning friends*

well-off /ˌwelˈɒf/ *adjective* having a lot of money *His parents are very well-off.*

well-organized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˌwelˈɔːgᵊnaɪzd/ *adjective* working in an effective and successful way because of good organization

well-paid /ˌwelˈpeɪd/ *adjective* earning a lot of money

well-placed /ˌwelˈpleɪst/ *adjective* in a very convenient position or in a position that gives someone an advantage [**+ to do sth**] *She's very well-placed to find out what's going on.*

well-read /ˌwelˈred/ *adjective* having read a lot of books on different subjects

well-to-do /ˌweltəˈduː/ *adjective old-fashioned* having a lot of money *a well-to-do family*

well-wisher /ˈwelˌwɪʃᵊ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who wants another person to be happy, successful, or healthy *A crowd of well-wishers gathered outside the hospital.*

W

Welsh /welʃ/ *noun* [U] **1** a language that is spoken in some parts of Wales **2 the Welsh** the people of Wales

went /went/ *past tense of* go

wept /wept/ *past of* weep

we're /wɪəʳ/ *short for* we are *Hurry! We're late!*

were /wɜʳ/ *past simple you/we/they of* be

weren't /wɜːnt/ *short for* were not *They weren't there.*

west, West[1] /west/ *noun* [U] **1** the direction that you face to see the sun go down **2 the west** the part of an area that is further towards the west than the rest **3** GEOGRAPHY, POLITICS **the West** the countries of North America and western Europe ●**west** *adjective the west coast of Ireland* ●**west** *adverb* towards the west *They lived in a village four miles west of Oxford.*

the ˌWest ˈEnd *noun* a part of central London that has a lot of shops, theatres, restaurants, etc

westerly /ˈwestəʳli/ *adjective* **1** DIRECTION towards or in the west *Senegal is the most westerly country in Africa.* **2** WIND A westerly wind comes from the west. *westerly breezes*

western, Western[1] /ˈwestən/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** AREA in or from the west part of an area *western France* **2** COUNTRIES related to the countries of North America and western Europe *a Western diplomat*

western[2] /ˈwestən/ *noun* [C] a film or story that happens in the west of the US at the time when Europeans started living there

westerner, Westerner /ˈwestənəʳ/ *noun* [C] SOCIETY someone who is from a country in North America or western Europe

westernized (*also UK* **-ised**) /ˈwestənaɪzd/ *adjective* having a culture like North America and western Europe *Some Asian countries are becoming increasingly westernized.*

ˌWest ˈIndian *adjective* belonging or relating to the West Indies *a West Indian island* ●**West Indian** *noun* [C] someone from the West Indies

the ˌWest ˈIndies *noun* [**plural**] a group of islands in the Caribbean Sea

westward, westwards /ˈwestwəd, ˈwestwədz/ *adverb* towards the west *They were travelling westward.* ●**westward** *adjective*

wet[1] /wet/ *adjective* **wetter**, **wettest** **1** WATER covered in water or another liquid *a wet towel* ○ *We* ***got*** *soaking* ***wet*** *in the rain.* ○ *UK Look at you - you're* ***wet through*** (= very wet) **2** RAIN raining *a wet and windy day* **3** NOT DRY not dry yet *wet paint* **4** PERSON *UK informal* Someone who is wet has a weak personality.

wet[2] /wet/ *verb* [T] **wetting**, *past* **wet** or **wetted** **1 wet the bed/your pants/yourself, etc** to urinate in your bed or in your underwear without intending to **2** to make something wet

ˈwet ˌsuit *noun* [C] SPORT a piece of clothing covering the whole body that keeps you warm and dry when you are under water

we've /wiːv/ *short for* we have *We've bought a house.*

whack /wæk/ *verb* [T] *informal* to hit someone or something in a quick, strong way *She whacked him on the head with her book.* ●**whack** *noun* [C] *informal*

whale /weɪl/ *noun* [C] a very large animal that looks like a large fish, lives in the sea and breathes air through a hole at the top of its head

whaling /ˈweɪlɪŋ/ *noun* [U] hunting whales

wharf /wɔːf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **wharves** /wɔːvz/ an area next to the sea or a river where goods can be put on or taken off ships

what /wɒt/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** INFORMATION used to ask for information about something *What's this?* ○ *What time is it?* ○ *What happened?* ➲See Common Learner Error at **how** **2** THE THING used to refer to something without naming it *I heard what he said.* ○ *Do you know what I mean?* ○ *What I like most about her is her honesty.* **3** NOT HEARD *informal* used when you have not heard what someone has said and you want them to repeat it. Some people think this use is not very polite. *"Do you want a drink Tom?" "What?"* **4** REPLY *informal* used to ask what someone wants when they call you *"Hey Jenny?" "Yes, what?"* **5 what a/an ...** used to give your opinion, especially when you have strong feelings about something *What a mess!* ○ *What an awful day!* **6 what about...?** used to suggest something *What about asking Martin to help?* **7 what ... for?** used to ask about the reason for something *What are you doing that for?* ○ *"We really need a bigger car." "What for?"* **8 what if...?** used to ask about something that could happen in the future, especially something bad *What if I don't pass my exams?* **9 what's up (with sb)** *informal* used to ask why someone is unhappy or angry *What's up, Angie? You look troubled.* **10 what with** *informal* used to talk about the reasons for a particular situation, especially a bad or difficult situation *I'm tired, what with travelling all day yesterday and sleeping badly.* **11 what's more** used to add something surprising or interesting to what you have just said

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

what

When you have not heard what someone has said and you want them to repeat it, you can say **what?**, but this is not polite. It is better to say **sorry?** or **pardon?**.

"It's 10 o'clock." "Sorry/Pardon?" "I said it's 10 o'clock."

whatever /wɒtˈevəʳ/ *adverb, pronoun, determiner* **1** ANYTHING anything or everything *Do whatever you want.* ○ *He eats whatever I put in front of him.* **2** NO DIFFERENCE used to say that what happens is not important because it does not change a situation *Whatever happens I'll still love you.* ○ *We'll support you, whatever you decide.* **3** QUESTION used to ask for information when you are surprised or angry about something *Whatever do you mean?* **4** ANGRY *informal* something that you say when you are angry with someone who is asking you something *'Isabel, will you just listen when I'm talking to you?' 'Whatever.'* **5 or whatever** or something similar *The children are usually outside playing football or whatever.*

W

whatnot /ˈwɒtnɒt/ **and whatnot** *informal* and other things of a similar type *They sell cards and wrapping paper and whatnot.*

whatsoever /ˌwɒtsəʊˈevəʳ/ (*also* **whatever**) *adverb* **no...whatsoever** none at all *There's no evidence whatsoever that she was involved.*

wheat /wiːt/ *noun* [U] FOOD a plant whose grain is used for making flour, or the grain itself

wheel¹ /wiːl/ *noun* **1** [C] a circular object fixed under a vehicle so that it moves smoothly over the ground *My bike needs a new front wheel.* **2 the wheel** a steering wheel (= circular object you turn to direct a vehicle) *You should drive with both hands on the wheel.* ○ *He fell asleep* ***at the wheel*** (= while driving). **3 reinvent the wheel** to waste time trying to create something that has been done before ➲See also: **Ferris wheel**

wheel² /wiːl/ *verb* **wheel sth around/into/to, etc** to push something that has wheels somewhere *He wheeled his bicycle into the garden.* **wheel around/round** *phrasal verb* to quickly turn around *She wheeled around to face him.*

wheelbarrow /ˈwiːlˌbærəʊ/ *noun* [C] a big, open container with a wheel at the front and handles that is used to move things, especially around in a garden

wheelchair /ˈwiːltʃeəʳ/ *noun* [C] a chair with wheels used by someone who cannot walk

wheeze /wiːz/ *verb* [I] HEALTH to make a noisy sound when breathing because of a problem in your lungs

when¹ /wen/ *adverb* used to ask at what time something happened or will happen *When's your birthday?* ○ *When did he leave?* ○ *When are you going away?*

when² /wen/ *conjunction* **1** TIME used to say at what time something happened or will happen *I found it when I was cleaning out the cupboards.* ○ *We'll go when you're ready.* **2** ALTHOUGH although *Why are you doing this when I've asked you not to?*

whenever /wenˈevəʳ/ *conjunction* every time or at any time *You can go whenever you want.* ○ *I try to help them out whenever possible.*

where¹ /weəʳ/ *adverb* used to ask about the place or position of someone or something *Where does she live?* ○ *Where are my car keys?*

where² /weəʳ/ *conjunction* **1** PLACE/POSITION at, in, or to a place or position *He's not sure where they are.* ○ *I know where to go.* **2** PART OF PROCESS/SITUATION relating to a particular part of a process or situation *We've now reached the point where we can make a decision.*

whereabouts¹ /ˌweərəˈbaʊts/ *adverb* used to ask in what place or area someone or something is *Whereabouts does he live?*

whereabouts² /ˈweərəbaʊts/ *noun* **sb's whereabouts** the place where someone or something is *His whereabouts are unknown.*

whereas /weəˈræz/ *conjunction* compared with the fact that *His parents were rich, whereas mine had to struggle.*

whereby /weəˈbaɪ/ *adverb formal* by which *They've introduced a system whereby people share cars.*

wherein /weəˈrɪn/ *adverb formal* in which

whereupon /ˈweərəpɒn/ *conjunction formal* after which *We decided to have a picnic, whereupon it started to rain.*

wherever¹ /weəˈrevəʳ/ *conjunction* **1** in or to any place or every place *You can sit wherever you like.* **2 wherever possible** every time it is possible *We try to use natural fabrics wherever possible.*

wherever² /weəˈrevəʳ/ *adverb* used to ask in what situation or place something happened, especially when the person asking feels surprised *Wherever did you get that idea?*

wherewithal /ˈweəwɪðɔːl/ *noun* **the wherewithal to do sth** the money, skills, or other things that are needed to do something

whether /ˈweðəʳ/ *conjunction* **1** CHOICE used to talk about a choice between two or more possibilities *Someone's got to tell her,* ***whether*** *it's you* ***or*** *me.* ○ *I didn't know* ***whether or not*** *to go.* **2** IF if *I wasn't sure whether you'd like it.*

whew /fjuː/ *exclamation* used when you are happy that something is not going to happen, or when you are tired or hot

which /wɪtʃ/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** CHOICE used to ask or talk about a choice between two or more things *Which of these do you like best?* ○ *Which way is it to the station?* ○ *I just don't know which one to choose.* **2** REFERRING TO SOMETHING used at the beginning of a relative clause to show what thing is being referred to *These are principles which we all believe in.* **3** EXTRA INFORMATION used to give more information about something *The book, which includes a map, gives you all the information you need about Venice.* **4** GIVING OPINION used when you give an opinion about what you have just said *He took us both out for lunch, which I thought was very kind of him.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

which or **who?**

Use **which** to refer to a thing.

The restaurant which is next to the pub is good.

~~*The restaurant who is next to the pub is good.*~~

Use **who** to refer to a person.

The boy who is wearing the red coat is called Paul.

~~*The boy which is wearing the red coat is called Paul.*~~

Sometimes it is possible to use 'that' or no word instead of **which** or **who**.

He's the man (that) I saw in the bar.

This is the shirt (that) I bought yesterday.

whichever /wɪˈtʃevəʳ/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** NO DIFFERENCE used to say that what happens is not important because it does not change a situation *Whichever option we choose there'll be disadvantages.* ○ *It's a sad situation whichever way you look at it.* **2** ANY any of a group of similar things *Choose whichever bedroom you want.*

whiff /wɪf/ *noun* [**no plural**] a smell which you only smell for a short time *I just caught* ***a whiff of*** *garlic from the kitchen.*

W

while¹ /ˈwaɪl/ (*also UK* **whilst** /waɪlst/) *conjunction* **1** DURING during the time that *I read a magazine while I was waiting.* ○ *I can't talk to anyone while I'm driving.* ○ *While you're away, I might decorate the bathroom.* **2** ALTHOUGH although *And while I like my job, I wouldn't want to do it forever.* **3** COMPARING used to compare two different facts or situations *Tom is very confident while Katy is shy and quiet.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***while*** *(noun)*

take/wait a while ● **after/for/in** a while ● **quite** a while ● a **short** while ● a while **ago**

while² /waɪl/ *noun* **a while** a period of time *a long/short while* ○ *I'm going out* ***for a while.***

while³ /waɪl/ *verb*
while sth away *phrasal verb* to spend time in a relaxed way because you are waiting for something or because you have nothing to do *We played a few games to while away the time.*

whim /wɪm/ *noun* [C] when you suddenly want to do something without having a reason *We booked the holiday* ***on a whim.***

whimper /ˈwɪmpəʳ/ *verb* [I] to make quiet crying sounds because of fear or pain *The dog was whimpering with pain.*

whimsical /ˈwɪmzɪkᵊl/ *adjective* unusual in a way that is slightly funny *a whimsical tale*

whine /waɪn/ *verb* [I] **1** COMPLAIN to complain in an annoying way *She's always whining about something.* **2** CRY to make a long, high, sad sound *The dog whined and scratched at the door.* ●**whine** *noun* [C]

whinge /wɪndʒ/ *verb* [I] **whingeing** or **whinging** *UK informal* to complain in an annoying way *Oh, stop whingeing!* ●**whinge** *noun* [C] *UK He was just* ***having a whinge.***

whip¹ /wɪp/ *noun* [C] a long piece of leather fixed to a handle and used to hit an animal or person

whip² /wɪp/ *verb* **whipping**, *past* **whipped** **1** HIT [T] to hit a person or animal with a whip **2** FOOD [T] to make a food such as cream more solid by mixing it hard with a kitchen tool **3 whip (sth) away/off/out, etc** *informal* to move or make something move in a fast, sudden way *She opened the bag and whipped out her camera.*
whip up sth *phrasal verb* **1** FEELINGS to try to make people have strong feelings about something *to whip up enthusiasm/hatred* **2** FOOD to prepare food very quickly *I could whip up a plate of spaghetti if you like.*

whir /wɜːʳ/ *noun, verb* **whirring**, *past* **whirred** *US spelling of* whirr

whirl¹ /wɜːl/ *verb* [I, T] to move or make something move quickly round and round

whirl² /wɜːl/ *noun* [**no plural**] **1** ACTIVITY when a lot of exciting or confusing things happen at the same time *a whirl of activity* **2** TURN a sudden turning movement **3 give sth a whirl** *informal* to try to do something, often for the first time *I've never danced salsa before but I'll give it a whirl.*

whirlpool /ˈwɜːlpuːl/ *noun* [C] an area of water that moves round and round very quickly

whirlwind¹ /ˈwɜːlwɪnd/ *adjective* **a whirlwind romance/visit/tour, etc** a relationship/visit, etc that only lasts a short time

whirlwind² /ˈwɜːlwɪnd/ *noun* **1 a whirlwind of sth** a lot of sudden activity, emotion, etc *a whirlwind of activity* **2** [C] a strong wind that moves round and round very quickly

whirr *UK* (*US* **whir**) /wɜːʳ/ *noun* [**no plural**] a low, continuous sound *the whirr of machinery* ●**whirr** *UK* (*US* **whir**) *verb* [I]

whisk¹ /wɪsk/ *verb* [T] **1 whisk sb away/off/into, etc** *informal* to take someone somewhere quickly *They whisked him off to the police station.* **2** FOOD to mix food such as eggs, cream, etc very quickly using a fork or whisk *Whisk the mixture until smooth.*

whisk² /wɪsk/ *noun* [C] a kitchen tool made of wire that is used to mix eggs, cream, etc, or to make such food thicker ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

whisker /ˈwɪskəʳ/ *noun* [C] one of the long, stiff hairs that grows around the mouths of animals such as cats

whiskers /ˈwɪskəz/ *noun* [**plural**] *old-fashioned* hairs growing on a man's face

whiskey /ˈwɪski/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD whisky in Ireland or the United States

whisky /ˈwɪski/ *noun* [C, U] FOOD a strong, alcoholic drink made from grain

whisper /ˈwɪspəʳ/ *verb* [I, T] to speak extremely quietly so that other people cannot hear *She whispered something to the girl sitting next to her.* ●**whisper** *noun* [C]

whistle¹ /ˈwɪsl/ *verb* **1** MOUTH [I, T] to make a sound by breathing air out through a small hole made with your lips or through a whistle *Someone whistled at her as she walked past.* **2** WIND [I] to produce a sound when air passes through a narrow space *He could hear the wind whistling through the trees.*

whistle² /ˈwɪsl/ *noun* [C] **1** MUSIC a small, simple instrument that makes a high sound when you blow through it *The referee* ***blew the whistle*** *to end the game.* **2** the sound made by someone or something whistling

white¹ /waɪt/ *adjective* **1** COLOUR being the colour of snow or milk *a white T-shirt* ○ *white walls* ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** PERSON Someone who is white has skin that is pale in colour. *He's described as a white man in his early thirties.* **3** OF WHITE PEOPLE relating to white people *the white community* **4** FACE having a pale face because you are ill or you are feeling shocked *He was white with shock.* **5** FOOD *UK* White coffee has milk or cream added to it. *Two coffees please, one black and one white.* **6** FOOD White wine is a pale yellow colour. ●**whiteness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: **black¹** and white

white² /waɪt/ *noun* **1** COLOUR [C, U] the colour of snow or milk ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12 **2** PERSON [C] a white person *For a long time, whites controlled the economy here.* **3** FOOD [C] the part of an egg that is white when it is cooked *Mix the egg whites with the sugar.* ➲See also: in **black²** and white

ˌwhite ˈblood ˌcell *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** a cell in the blood that has no red colour and is involved in the fight against infection ➲Compare **red blood cell**

whiteboard /ˈwaɪtbɔːd/ *noun* [C] **1 COMPUTING** (*also* **interactive whiteboard**) a white screen on which you can write with a special pen and which allows other people with computers to see what you have written **2 EDUCATION** a large board with a white surface that teachers write on ➲See colour picture **The Classroom** on page Centre 6

white-collar /ˌwaɪtˌkɒləʳ/ *adjective* **SOCIETY** relating to work in an office or in a job that needs special knowledge and education *white-collar jobs/workers*

ˌwhite ˈdwarf *noun* [C] **ASTRONOMY** a small star that is not very bright, but is very dense (= contains a lot of matter)

the ˈWhite ˌHouse *noun* **1 POLITICS** the US president and government **2 POLITICS** the building that is the official home and offices of the US president ●**White House** *adjective a White House spokesman*

ˌwhite ˈlie *noun* [C] a lie which is not important and is usually said to avoid upsetting someone

ˈwhite ˌmatter *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the part of the brain and spinal cord (= nerves inside the backbone) which is light in colour

ˌwhite ˈmeat *noun* [U] **FOOD** a meat that is pale in colour, such as chicken

whiten /ˈwaɪtᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become white or to make something become white

ˌWhite ˈPaper *noun* [C] **POLITICS** a government report in the UK giving information or suggestions on a subject *a White Paper on employment*

whitewash /ˈwaɪtwɒʃ/ *noun* [**no plural**] when the truth about a serious mistake, crime, etc is hidden from the public *The newspaper accused the government of a whitewash.* ●**whitewash** *verb* [T]

whizz (*also* **whiz**) /wɪz/ *verb* **whizz by/past/through, etc** *informal* to move somewhere very quickly *She whizzed down the street in her new sports car.*

whizzkid (*also* **whizkid**) /ˈwɪzˌkɪd/ *noun* [C] a young person who is very successful or good at doing something *a computer whizzkid*

O-K **who** /huː/ *pronoun* **1** NAME used to ask about someone's name or which person or group someone is talking about *Who told you?* ○ *Who's that?* **2** WHICH PERSON used at the beginning of a relative clause to show which person or group of people you are talking about *That's the man who I saw in the bank.* **3** ADD INFORMATION used to give more information about someone *My brother, who's only just seventeen, has already passed his driving test.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **which**

O-K **who'd** /huːd/ **1** WHO HAD *short for* who had *I was reading about a man who'd sailed around the world.* **2** WHO WOULD *short for* who would *Who'd have thought we'd still be friends?*

whoever /huːˈevəʳ/ *pronoun* **1** WHICH PERSON the person who *Whoever broke the window will have to pay for it.* ○ *Could I speak to whoever is in charge please?* **2** ANY PERSON used to say that it is not important which person or group does something *Can whoever leaves last lock up, please?* **3** SURPRISE used to ask who a person is when expressing surprise *Whoever could that be phoning at this time?* ○ *Whoever would believe such a ridiculous story?*

O-K **whole¹** /həʊl/ *adjective* **1** COMPLETE [**always before noun**] complete, including every part *She spent the whole afternoon studying.* ○ *The whole family went to the show.* **2** NOT IN PIECES [**never before noun**] as a single object and not in pieces *The chick swallowed the worm whole.* ➲See also: a whole new **ball game**, the whole **world**¹

O-K **whole²** /həʊl/ *noun* **1 the whole of sth** all of something *His behaviour shows the whole of the class.* **2 as a whole** when considered as a group and not in parts *The population as a whole is getting healthier.* **3 on the whole** generally *We've had a few problems, but on the whole we're very happy.*

wholefood /ˈhəʊlfuːd/ *noun* [U] *UK* **FOOD** food that is as natural as possible, without artificial things added to it *a wholefood shop*

wholehearted /ˌhəʊlˈhɑːtɪd/ *adjective* **wholehearted agreement/approval/support, etc** complete agreement/approval/support, etc without any doubts ●**wholeheartedly** *adverb I agree wholeheartedly.*

wholemeal /ˈhəʊlmiːl/ *UK* (*UK/US* **whole wheat**) *adjective* **FOOD** made using whole grains, or made from flour that contains whole grains ***wholemeal bread/flour***

wholesale /ˈhəʊlseɪl/ *adjective* **1 FINANCE** relating to products which are sold in large amounts, usually at a cheaper price ***wholesale prices*** **2** [**always before noun**] complete or affecting a lot of things, people, places, etc ***wholesale changes*** ●**wholesale** *adverb*

wholesaler /ˈhəʊlˌseɪləʳ/ *noun* [C] a company that sells products in large amounts to shops which then sell them to customers

wholesome /ˈhəʊlsᵊm/ *adjective* **1 FOOD** Wholesome food is good for your health. **2** GOOD morally good *wholesome family entertainment*

ˈwhole ˌwheat (*also UK* **wholemeal**) *adjective* **FOOD** made using whole grains, or made from flour that contains whole grains ***whole wheat bread/flour***

O-K **who'll** /huːl/ *short for* who will *Who'll be at your party?*

wholly /ˈhəʊlli/ *adverb* completely *His behaviour is wholly unacceptable.*

whom /huːm/ *pronoun formal* used instead of 'who' as the object of a verb or preposition *I met a man with whom I used to work.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

whom or **who?**

Whom is very formal and most people use **who** instead.

Whom did you see at the party?

Who did you see at the party?

Whom should be used after a preposition but most people avoid this by putting the preposition at the end of the sentence and using **who**.

W

With whom did you go to the party?
Who did you go to the party with?

whoop /wuːp/ *noun* [C] a loud, excited shout *He gave a loud whoop of delight.*

whooping cough /ˈhuːpɪŋˌkɒf/ *noun* [U] **HEALTH** a serious children's disease in which a cough is followed by a 'whoop' noise

whoops /wʊps/ *exclamation* used when you make a mistake or have a small accident

whopping /ˈwɒpɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] *informal* extremely large *a whopping 50 percent increase*

who're /ˈhuːəʳ/ *short for* who are *Who're the people we're going to see?*

whore /hɔːʳ/ *noun* [C] an offensive word for someone whose job is having sex with people

who's /huːz/ **1** WHO IS *short for* who is *Who's your new friend?* **2** WHO HAS *short for* who has *Who's been using my computer?*

whose /huːz/ *pronoun, determiner* **1** QUESTIONS used to ask who something belongs to or who someone or something is connected with *Whose gloves are these?* ○ *Whose car shall we use?* **2** CONNECTED WITH used to say that something or someone is connected with or belongs to a person *She has a brother whose name I can't remember.*

who've /huːv/ *short for* who have *I know people who've bought their homes on the Internet.*

why /waɪ/ *adverb* **1** used to ask or talk about the reasons for something *Why didn't you call me?* ○ *I wonder why he didn't come.* ○ *So that's **the reason why** he asked her!* **2 Why don't you?/Why not do sth?** used to make a suggestion *Why don't you come with us?* ○ *Why not give it a try?* **3 why not?** *informal* used to agree with something that someone has suggested *"Let's have an ice cream." "Yes, why not?"*

wicker /ˈwɪkəʳ/ *adjective* **DT** made from thin branches crossed over and under each other *a wicker basket*

wicket /ˈwɪkɪt/ *noun* [C] **SPORT** in cricket, an arrangement of three long, vertical poles with two short poles across the top

wide¹ /waɪd/ *adjective* **1** LONG DISTANCE measuring a long distance or longer than usual from one side to the other *a wide river/road* ○ *I have very wide feet.* ➲See picture at **narrow 2 5 miles/3 inches/6 metres, etc wide** having a distance of 5 miles/3 inches/6 metres, etc from one side to the other *The swimming pool is five metres wide.* **3 a wide range/selection/variety, etc** a lot of different types of thing *The library is a good source of a wide range of information.* **4** EYES If your eyes are wide, they are completely open. *Her eyes were wide with fear.* **5 SPORT** If a ball, shot, etc is wide, it does not go near enough to where it was intended to go. ➲See also: be wide of the **mark**¹

wide² /waɪd/ *adverb* **1 wide apart/open** as far apart/open as possible *The window was wide open.* **2 wide awake** completely awake

wide-eyed /ˌwaɪdˈaɪd/ *adjective* with your eyes completely open because of surprise, fear, happiness, etc *The children looked on, wide-eyed with wonder.*

widely /ˈwaɪdli/ *adverb* **1** including a lot of different places, people, subjects, etc *widely known* ○ *He has travelled widely in Europe.* **2 differ/vary widely** to be very different *Prices vary widely from shop to shop.*

widen /ˈwaɪdᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] **1** DISTANCE to become wider or make something become wider *The road is being widened to two lanes.* **2** INCREASE to increase or make something increase in number or degree *to widen choice*

wide-ranging /ˌwaɪdˈreɪndʒɪŋ/ *adjective* including a lot of subjects *a **wide-ranging discussion/interview***

widescreen /ˈwaɪdskriːn/ *adjective* describes a very wide cinema or television screen which shows very clear pictures ***widescreen TV***

widespread /ˈwaɪdspred/ *adjective* affecting or including a lot of places, people, etc *a **widespread problem.*** ○ *widespread support*

widow /ˈwɪdəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** a woman whose husband has died **2** in printing, the last line of a paragraph, separated from the rest which is on the page before

widowed /ˈwɪdəʊd/ *adjective* If someone is widowed, their husband or wife has died.

widower /ˈwɪdəʊəʳ/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a man whose wife has died

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***width***

the width **of** sth ● [1 metre/5 feet, etc] **in** width ● the **full** width of sth

width /wɪtθ/ *noun* **1 MEASURES** [C, U] the distance from one side of something to the other side *a **width of** 2 metres* ○ *height, length, and width* ➲See picture at **length 2 SPORT** [C] the distance across the shorter side of a swimming pool when you swim across it

wield /wiːld/ *verb* [T] **1** to hold a weapon or tool and look as if you are going to use it *They were confronted by a man wielding a knife.* **2 wield influence/power, etc** to have a lot of influence or power over other people

wiener /ˈwiːnəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US* **FOOD** a long thin sausage (= tube of meat and spices) that is usually eaten in bread

wife /waɪf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **wives** /waɪvz/ the woman that a man is married to *I've never met William's wife.*

wi-fi /ˈwaɪfaɪ/ *noun* [U] **COMPUTING** a system for connecting electronic equipment such as computers and electronic organizers to the Internet without using wires

wig /wɪg/ *noun* [C] a covering of real or artificial hair that you wear on your head *She was **wearing** a blonde **wig**.*

wiggle /ˈwɪgl/ *verb* [I, T] to make small movements from side to side or to make something else move from side to side *He was wiggling his hips to the music.* ●**wiggle** *noun* [**no plural**]

wild¹ /waɪld/ *adjective* **1 BIOLOGY, ENVIRONMENT** A wild animal or plant lives or grows in its natural environment and not where people live. *a wild dog* ○ ***wild flowers*** **2** LAND Wild land is in a completely natural state. *a wild garden* **3** ENERGETIC very energetic and not controlled *a wild party* ○ *wild dancing* **4** WEATHER with a lot of wind, rain, etc *a wild and stormy*

night **5 a wild accusation/guess/rumour, etc** something that you say which is not based on facts and is probably wrong **6 be wild about sth** *informal* to be very enthusiastic about something *He's wild about jazz.* **7 run wild** If someone, especially a child, runs wild, they behave as they want to and no one controls them. ●**wildness** *noun* [U] ➲See also: beyond your wildest dreams (**dream**[1])

wild[2] /waɪld/ *noun* **1 in the wild** in a natural environment *Animals are better off in the wild than in a zoo.* **2 the wilds** an area which is far from where people usually live *the wilds of Alaska*

ˌwild ˈboar *noun* [C] a wild pig

ˈwild ˌcard *noun* [C] someone or something that you know nothing about *a **wild-card candidate** in the election*

wildcard /ˈwaɪldˌkɑːd/ *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a sign that is used to represent any letters, numbers or symbols *a **wildcard search***

wilderness /ˈwɪldənəs/ *noun* [C] **GEOGRAPHY** a place that is in a completely natural state without houses, industry, roads, etc [**usually singular**] *a beautiful mountain wilderness*

wildlife /ˈwaɪldlaɪf/ *noun* [U] **ENVIRONMENT, BIOLOGY** animals, birds, and plants living in their natural environment *a wildlife park*

wildly /ˈwaɪldli/ *adverb* **1** ENERGETICALLY in a very energetic way and without control *They cheered wildly.* **2** EXTREMELY extremely *It hasn't been wildly successful.*

wiles /waɪlz/ *noun* [**plural**] tricks or clever ways of making other people do what you want *I'll use my **womanly wiles**.*

wilful *UK* (*US* **willful**) /ˈwɪlfəl/ *adjective* doing what you want to do, although you are not allowed to or other people tell you not to *wilful disobedience* ●**wilfully** *adverb*

O-K **will**[1] *strong form* /wɪl/ *weak forms* /wəl, əl/ *modal verb* **1** FUTURE used to talk about what is going to happen in the future, especially things that you are certain about *Claire will be five next month.* ○ *I'll see him on Saturday.* ○ *She'll have a great time.* ➲See Common Learner Error at **shall** **2** ABLE/WILLING used to talk about what someone or something is willing or able to do *Ask Susie if she'll take them.* ○ *I've asked her but she won't come.* ○ *The car won't start.* **3** ASK used to ask someone to do something or to politely offer something to someone *Will you give me her address?* ○ *Will you have a drink with us, Phil?* **4** IF used in conditional sentences that start with 'if' and use the present tense *If he's late again I'll be very angry.* **5** HAPPENING OFTEN used to talk about something that often happens, especially something annoying *Accidents will happen.* ○ *He will keep talking when I'm trying to concentrate.* **6 it/that will be** *mainly UK* used to talk about what is probably true *That will be his mother with him.* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***will***

make/write a will ● **in** sb's will ● **leave** sb sth in your will

will[2] /wɪl/ *noun* **1** MENTAL POWER [C, U] the mental power to control your thoughts and actions or to succeed in doing something difficult *She has a very strong will.* [+ **to do sth**] *He lacks the will to win.* **2** WANT [**no plural**] what someone wants *She was forced to marry him **against her will**.* **3** DOCUMENT [C] a legal document that gives instructions about what should happen to your money and possessions after you die *She left me some money **in her will**.* ➲See also: **free will, ill will**

willful /ˈwɪlfəl/ *adjective US spelling of* wilful

O-K **willing** /ˈwɪlɪŋ/ *adjective* **1 be willing to do sth** to be happy to do something, if you need to *He's willing to pay a lot of money for that house.* **2** wanting to do something *He is a very willing assistant.* ➲Opposite **unwilling** ●**willingly** *adverb He would willingly risk his life for her.* ●**willingness** *noun* [U]

willow /ˈwɪləʊ/ *noun* [C] a tree with long, thin leaves that grows near water

willowy /ˈwɪləʊi/ *adjective* tall and attractively thin *a willowy blonde*

willpower /ˈwɪlpaʊər/ *noun* [U] the ability to make yourself do difficult things or to stop yourself from doing enjoyable things that are bad for you *It takes great willpower to lose weight.*

wilt /wɪlt/ *verb* [I] If a plant wilts, it starts to bend because it is dying or needs water.

wily /ˈwaɪli/ *adjective* good at getting what you want, especially by deceiving people

wimp /wɪmp/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone who is not brave and tries to avoid dangerous or difficult situations *I'm too much of a wimp to go rock climbing.* ●**wimpy** *adjective informal*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***win*** *(noun)*

a **comfortable/convincing/emphatic** win ● a win **against/over** sb ● a win **for** sb

O-K **win**[1] /wɪn/ *verb* **winning**, *past* **won 1** COMPETITION [I, T] to get the most points in a competition or game, or the most votes in an election *Barcelona won the game 6-0.* ○ *Who do you think will win the election?* **2** ARGUMENT [I, T] to be successful in a war, fight, or argument *Protesters have won their battle to stop the road being built.* **3** PRIZE [T] to get a prize in a game or competition *He won $500.* ○ *She won a gold medal at the Olympics.* **4 win approval/respect/support, etc** to get approval/respect/support, etc because of your skill and hard work *Her plans have won the support of many local people.* **5 sb can't win** *informal* used to say that nothing someone does in a situation will succeed or please people *Whatever I do seems to annoy her - I just can't win.*
win sb over *phrasal verb* to persuade someone to support you or agree with you

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

win or **beat?**

You **win** a game or competition.

Who do you think will win the football game?

You **beat** someone, or a team you are playing against.

We beat both teams.

~~*We won both teams.*~~

W

win² /wɪn/ *noun* [C] when someone wins a game or competition *The Jets have only had three wins this season.*

wince /wɪns/ *verb* [I] to suddenly look as if you are suffering because you feel pain or because you see or think about something unpleasant *It makes me wince just to think about eye operations.*

winch /wɪnʃ/ *noun* [C] a machine with a thick chain, used for lifting heavy things ●**winch** *verb* [T] to lift someone or something with a winch *The injured climber was* ***winched to safety*** *by a helicopter.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wind***

the wind **blows** ● a **gust of** wind ● a **biting/light/strong** wind ● **high** winds ● **in** the wind

wind¹ /wɪnd/ *noun* **1** [C, U] a natural, fast movement of air *The weather forecast said there would be* ***strong winds*** *and rain.* **2** **HEALTH** [U] *UK* (*US* **gas**) gas or air in your stomach that makes you feel uncomfortable and sometimes makes noises **3 get wind of sth** to discover something that is intended to be a secret *Dad got wind of our plans for a party.* **4 get your wind (back)** to breathe easily again, for example after you have been running ➲See also: throw **caution**¹ to the wind, **second wind**

wind² /wɪnd/ *verb* [T] to make someone have difficulty breathing, often by hitting them in the stomach

wind³ /waɪnd/ *verb past* **wound 1 wind sth around/round, etc sth** to turn or twist something long and thin around something else several times *She wound the rope around the tree.* ➲Opposite **unwind 2 wind (up) a clock/toy/watch, etc** to make a clock/toy/watch, etc work by turning a small handle or button several times *Did you remember to wind the alarm clock?* **3 wind along/down/through, etc** If a river, road, etc winds somewhere, it bends a lot and is not straight. *The path winds along the edge of the bay.*
wind (sth) down *phrasal verb* to gradually end, or to make something gradually end *to wind down a business*
wind down *phrasal verb* (*also* **unwind**) to gradually relax after doing something that has made you tired or worried
wind up *phrasal verb* to finally be somewhere or do something, especially without having planned it *If he carries on like this, he'll wind up in prison.* [+ **doing sth**] *I wound up having to start the course from the beginning again.*
wind (sth) up *phrasal verb* to end, or to make something end *It's time to wind up the game now.*
wind sb up *phrasal verb UK informal* **1** JOKE to tell someone something that is not true, as a joke *Have I really won or are you winding me up?* **2** ANNOY to annoy someone *He keeps complaining and it really winds me up.*

windfall /ˈwɪndfɔːl/ *noun* [C] **FINANCE** an amount of money that you get that you did not expect *Investors each received a windfall of £1000.*

winding /ˈwaɪndɪŋ/ *adjective* **a winding path/road/street, etc** a path/road, etc that bends a lot and is not straight

ˈwind ˌinstrument *noun* [C] **MUSIC** a musical instrument that you play by blowing into it *A flute is a wind instrument.*

windmill /ˈwɪndmɪl/ *noun* [C] a building with long parts at the top that turn in the wind, used for producing power or crushing grain

window /ˈwɪndəʊ/ *noun* [C] **1** a space in the wall of a building or vehicle that has glass in it, used for letting light and air inside and for looking through ***Open the window*** *if you're too hot.* ○ *I could see the children's faces* ***at the window.*** ○ ***a window frame/ledge*** ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4 **2** **COMPUTING** a separate area on a computer screen showing information and which you can move around *to minimize/maximize a window* ➲See also: **French windows**

windowpane /ˈwɪndəʊpeɪn/ *noun* [C] a piece of glass in a window

ˈwindow ˌshopping *noun* [U] when you look at things in shops but do not buy anything

windowsill /ˈwɪndəʊsɪl/ *noun* [C] a shelf at the bottom of a window ➲See colour picture **The Living Room** on page Centre 4

windpipe /ˈwɪndpaɪp/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the tube that carries air from your throat to your lungs

windscreen /ˈwɪndskriːn/ *UK* (*US* **windshield** /ˈwɪndʃiːld/) *noun* [C] the window at the front end of a car, bus, etc ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

ˈwindscreen ˌwiper *UK* (*US* **ˈwindshield ˌwiper**) *noun* [C] one of two long, metal and rubber parts that move against a windscreen to remove rain ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

windsurfing /ˈwɪndsɜːfɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which you sail across water by standing on a board and holding onto a large sail ●**windsurfer** *noun* [C]

windswept /ˈwɪndswept/ *adjective* **1** PLACE A windswept place often has strong winds. *a remote, windswept hill* **2** PERSON looking untidy because you have been in the wind *windswept hair*

ˈwind ˌturbine *noun* [C] **ENVIRONMENT, PHYSICS** a machine with long parts at the top that are turned by the wind, used to make electricity ➲See picture **wind turbine** on next page

windy /ˈwɪndi/ *adjective* with a lot of wind *a windy day* ○ *Outside it was cold and windy.*

wine /waɪn/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** an alcoholic drink that is made from the juice of grapes (= small, green or purple fruit), or sometimes other fruit ***a glass of wine*** ○ ***red/white wine***

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wine***

a **bottle of/glass of** wine ● **dry/red/sparkling/sweet/white** wine

wing /wɪŋ/ *noun* [C] **1** **BIOLOGY** one of the two parts that a bird or insect uses to fly **2** AIRCRAFT one of the two long, flat parts at the sides of an aircraft that make it stay in the sky **3** CAR *UK* (*US* **fender**) one of the parts at each corner of a car above the wheels **4** BUILDING a part of a large building that is joined to the side of the main part *Their offices are in the West wing.* **5** **POLITICS** a group of people in an organization

W

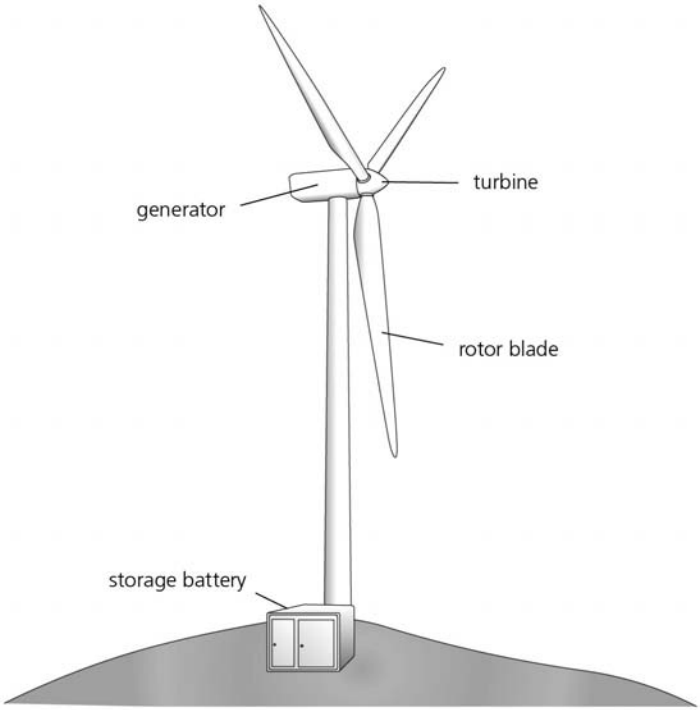

wind turbine

or political party who have the same beliefs *the nationalist wing of the party* **6 take sb under your wing** to help and protect someone who is younger than you or who has less experience than you

winged /wɪŋd/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** with wings *a winged insect*

ˈwing ˌmirror *UK* (*US* **side mirror**) *noun* [**C**] a small mirror on the side of a car or truck ➲See colour picture **Car** on page Centre 7

the wings /wɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** the area behind the sides of a stage where actors wait just before they perform **2 be waiting in the wings** to be ready to do something or be used at any time

wink¹ /wɪŋk/ *verb* [**I**] to quickly close and then open one eye, in order to be friendly or to show that something is a joke *She smiled and* ***winked at*** *me.*

wink² /wɪŋk/ *noun* [**C**] **1** when you wink at someone *He gave me a friendly wink.* **2 not sleep a wink** to not have any sleep *I was so excited last night - I didn't sleep a wink.*

O-K **winner** /ˈwɪnəʳ/ *noun* [**C**] someone who wins a game, competition, or election *the winners of the World Cup*

winnings /ˈwɪnɪŋz/ *noun* [**plural**] money that you win in a competition

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***winter***

in (the) winter ● a **cold/severe** winter ● a **mild** winter ● **last/next** winter ● the winter **months**

O-K **winter** /ˈwɪntəʳ/ *noun* [**C, U**] the coldest season of the year, between autumn and spring *We went skiing* ***last winter.*** ○ *a* ***mild winter*** ●**wintry** /ˈwɪntri/ *adjective* cold and typical of winter ***wintry showers*** (= snow mixed with rain) ➲See also: the **dead³** of night/winter

win-win /ˈwɪnwɪn/ *adjective* A win-win situation is one in which something good happens to everyone.

wipe¹ /waɪp/ *verb* [**T**] **1** to clean or dry something by moving a cloth across it *I had a job wiping tables in a cafe.* ○ *She wiped her hands on the towel.* **2 wipe sth from/away/off, etc** to remove dirt, water, a mark, etc from something with a cloth or your hand *He wiped a tear from his eye.*
wipe sth out *phrasal verb* to destroy something completely *The earthquake wiped out many villages.*
wipe sth up *phrasal verb* to remove a substance, usually liquid, with a cloth *Have you got something I could wipe this mess up with?*

wipe² /waɪp/ *noun* [**C**] **1** CLEAN/DRY when you clean or dry something with a cloth *I'll* ***give***

W

the table ***a wipe.*** **2** CLOTH a thin cloth or piece of paper used for cleaning ***baby wipes***

wiper /ˈwaɪpəʳ/ (*also* **windscreen wiper**) *noun* [C] a long, metal and rubber part that removes rain from the front window of a vehicle

wire¹ /waɪəʳ/ *noun* **1** METAL [C, U] thin, metal thread, used to fasten things or to make fences, cages, etc **2** ELECTRICITY [C] a long, thin piece of metal thread, usually covered in plastic, that carries electricity *electrical wires* ➲See also: **barbed wire**

wire² /waɪəʳ/ *verb* [T] **1** ELECTRICITY (*also* **wire up**) to connect wires so that a piece of electrical equipment will work *Do you know how to wire a burglar alarm?* **2** JOIN to join two things together using wire **3** SEND *US* to send a message or money using an electrical communication system

wireless /ˈwaɪələs/ *adjective* without a cable

wiring /ˈwaɪərɪŋ/ *noun* [U] the system of wires that carry electricity around a building *The fire was caused by* ***faulty wiring.***

wiry /ˈwaɪəri/ *adjective* **1** PERSON Someone who is wiry is strong but quite thin. **2** HAIR Wiry hair is thick and stiff, like wire. *a wiry beard*

wisdom /ˈwɪzdəm/ *noun* **1** [U] the ability to use your knowledge and experience to make good decisions and judgments **2 the wisdom of sth/doing sth** If you doubt the wisdom of something, you think it is probably not a good plan. *Many people have questioned the wisdom of spending so much money on weapons.*

ˈwisdom ˌtooth *noun* [C] *plural* **wisdom teeth** ANATOMY one of the four teeth at the back of your mouth that are the last to grow

wise¹ /waɪz/ *adjective* **1** DECISION A wise decision or action shows good judgment and is the right thing to do. *I think we've made a wise choice.* [+ **to do sth**] *It's always wise to see a doctor if you're worried about your health.* ➲Opposite **unwise** **2** PERSON A wise person is able to use their knowledge and experience to make good decisions and give good advice. **3 be none the wiser** *informal* to still not understand something after someone has tried to explain it to you ●**wisely** *adverb*

-wise /-waɪz/ *suffix* changes a noun into an adverb meaning 'relating to this subject' *Weather-wise, the holiday was great.* ○ *How are we doing time-wise?*

wise² /waɪz/ *verb*
wise up *phrasal verb informal* to start to understand the truth about a situation *Employers are starting to* ***wise up to*** *the fact that people want flexible working hours.*

wish¹ /wɪʃ/ *verb* **1 wish (that)** to want a situation that is different from the one that exists *I wish that I didn't have to go to work.* ○ *I* ***wish*** *he* ***would*** *leave.* ○ *I* ***wish*** *I* ***had*** *been there.* **2 wish to do sth** *formal* to want to do something *I wish to speak to the manager.* **3 wish sb luck/success, etc** to say that you hope someone will be lucky, successful, etc *I wished him luck for his test.* **4 I/you wish!** *informal* used to say that you would like something to be true although you know it is not true *"Have your exams finished yet?" "I wish!"*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wish*** *(noun)*

ignore/respect sb's wishes ● **get** your wish ● **have no** wish to do sth ● **according to/against** sb's wishes

wish² /wɪʃ/ *noun* [C] **1** WANT what you want to do or what you want to happen *The hospital always tries to* ***respect*** *the* ***wishes*** *of its patients.* ○ *I* ***have no wish*** *to travel the world.* **2** SECRET something that you say secretly to yourself about what you want to have or happen *She closed her eyes and* ***made a wish.*** **3 best wishes** something you say or write at the end of a letter, to show that you hope someone is happy and has good luck *Please give her my best wishes when you see her.*

wishful thinking /ˌwɪʃfəlˈθɪŋkɪŋ/ *noun* [U] when you want something to happen or be true but it is impossible

wisp /wɪsp/ *noun* [C] **1 a wisp of cloud/smoke/steam** a small, thin line of cloud/smoke/steam **2 a wisp of hair/grass, etc** a thin piece of hair/grass, etc ●**wispy** *adjective* in the form of wisps ***wispy hair*** ○ ***a wispy cloud***

wistful /ˈwɪstfʳl/ *adjective* slightly sad because you are thinking about something you cannot have ***a wistful look/smile*** ●**wistfully** *adverb*

wit /wɪt/ *noun* [U] the ability to say things that are funny and clever *a woman of great intelligence and wit*

witch /wɪtʃ/ *noun* [C] in stories, a woman who has magical powers that she uses to do bad or strange things

witchcraft /ˈwɪtʃkrɑːft/ *noun* [U] the use of magic to make bad or strange things happen

witch-hunt /ˈwɪtʃhʌnt/ *noun* [C] when a group of people try to blame someone and punish them for something, in a way that is unfair

with /wɪð/ *preposition* **1** TOGETHER used to say that people or things are in a place together or are doing something together *Emma lives with her boyfriend.* ○ *Hang your coat with the others.* **2** HAVING having or including something *a house with a swimming pool* ○ *a woman with brown eyes* **3** USING using something *She hit him over the head with a tennis racket.* **4** HOW used to describe the way someone does something *He plays with great enthusiasm.* ○ *She shut the drawer with a bang.* **5** WHAT used to say what fills, covers, etc something *a bucket filled with water* ○ *shoes covered with mud* **6** CAUSE because of something *She was trembling with fear.* **7** RELATING TO relating to something or someone *There's something wrong with the car.* ○ *The doctors are very pleased with his progress.* **8** POSITION used to describe the position of someone's body *She sat with her legs crossed.* **9 be with me/you** *informal* to understand what someone is saying *Sorry, I'm not with you - can you say that again?*

withdraw /wɪðˈdrɔː/ *verb past tense* **withdrew**, *past participle* **withdrawn** **1** FINANCE [T] to take money out of a bank account *She withdrew $50.* **2** REMOVE [T] to remove something, especially because of an official decision *This product has been* ***withdrawn from*** *sale.* ○ *He has threatened to withdraw his support.* **3** MILITARY [I, T] If a military force withdraws, or if someone

withdraws it, it leaves the place where it is fighting. *The President has ordered troops to be* ***withdrawn from*** *the area.* **4** COMPETITION [I] to decide that you will not now be in a race, competition, etc *Christie was forced to* ***withdraw from*** *the race because of injury.* **5** SOMETHING SAID [T] *formal* to say that you want people to ignore something you said before because it was not true *He admitted taking the money, but later* ***withdrew*** *his* ***confession.***

withdrawal /wɪðˈdrɔːəl/ *noun* **1** **FINANCE** [C] when you take money out of a bank account *This account allows you to* ***make withdrawals*** *whenever you want to.* **2** STOP [C, U] when someone stops doing something, for example helping someone or giving money [**usually singular**] *the withdrawal of financial support* **3** MILITARY [C, U] when a military force moves out of an area [**usually singular**] *the withdrawal of troops* **4** **HEALTH** [U] the unpleasant feelings that someone gets when they stop taking a drug that they have taken for a long time ***withdrawal symptoms*** **5** ALONE [U] when someone prefers to be alone and does not want to talk to other people *Withdrawal can be a symptom of depression.*

withdrawn /wɪðˈdrɔːn/ *adjective* [**never before noun**] quiet and not talking to other people

wither /ˈwɪðər/ (*also* **wither away**) *verb* [I] If a plant withers, it becomes dry and starts to die.

withering /ˈwɪðərɪŋ/ *adjective* **withering attack/contempt/look** criticism or an expression that shows that someone strongly disapproves of someone or something *He published a withering attack on the government's policies.*

withhold /wɪðˈhəʊld/ *verb* [T] *past* **withheld** to not give someone the information, money, etc that they want *The company has decided to* ***withhold payment*** *until the job has been finished.*

O-key **within¹** /wɪˈðɪn/ *preposition* **1** TIME before a particular period of time has finished *The ambulance arrived within 10 minutes.* ○ *Consume within two days of purchase.* **2** DISTANCE less than a particular distance from something *She was born within 20 miles of New York.* ○ *The hotel is* ***within easy reach of*** (= near) *the airport.* **3** INSIDE inside an area, group or system *a dispute within the department* ○ *There's a pharmacy within the hospital building.* **4** LIMIT not outside the limits of something *The project was completed well within budget.* **5 within the law/the rules/your rights, etc** allowed according to the law/the rules/your rights, etc *You're perfectly within your rights to complain.*

within² /wɪˈðɪn/ *adverb* inside someone or something *The organization needs to change from within.*

O-key **without** /wɪˈðaʊt/ *preposition* **1** NOT HAVING not having, using, or doing something *I did the test without any problems.* ○ *I can't see without my glasses.* ○ *He went to school without eating any breakfast.* **2** NOT PRESENT when someone is not with someone else *You can start the meeting without me.* **3 go/do without (sth)** to not have something important *They went without sleep for three days.*

withstand /wɪðˈstænd/ *verb* [T] *past* **withstood** to not be damaged or broken by something *a bridge designed to withstand earthquakes*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***witness***

appeal for a witness ● a witness **to** sth ● a **character/key** witness ● a witness **account/testimony**

O-key **witness¹** /ˈwɪtnəs/ *noun* [C] **1** COURT someone in a court of law who says what they have seen and what they know about a crime *The witness was called to the stand.* **2** SEE someone who sees an accident or crime *Police are appealing for* ***witnesses to*** *the shooting.* **3** **LAW** someone who signs their name on an official document to say that they were present when someone else signed it

witness² /ˈwɪtnəs/ *verb* [T] **LAW** **1** to see something happen, especially an accident or crime *Did anyone witness the attack?* **2** to sign your name on an official document to say that you were present when someone else signed it

ˈwitness ˌbox *UK* (*UK/US* ˈ**witness ˌstand**) *noun* [C] **LAW** the place in a court of law where a witness stands or sits when they are answering questions

wits /wɪts/ *noun* [**plural**] **1** intelligence and the ability to think quickly **2 keep/have your wits about you** to be ready to think quickly in a situation and react to things that you are not expecting *You have to keep your wits about you when you're cycling.* **3 be at your wits' end** to be very worried about something and not know what you should do next **4 scare/frighten sb out of their wits** to make someone very frightened

witty /ˈwɪti/ *adjective* using words in a funny and clever way *a witty comment* ○ *He was witty and charming.*

wives /waɪvz/ *plural of* wife

wizard /ˈwɪzəd/ *noun* [C] **1** MAGIC in stories, a man who has magical powers **2** SKILL *informal* someone who is very good at something or knows a lot about something *a computer wizard* **3** **COMPUTING** a computer program that gives the user a series of questions or instructions to help them use a particular system

WMD /ˌdʌbəljuːemˈdiː/ *noun* [**plural**] *abbreviation for* weapons of mass destruction: weapons, such as nuclear bombs, which cause a lot of damage and death when used

wobble /ˈwɒbl/ *verb* [I, T] If something wobbles or you make something wobble, it moves from side to side, often because it is not on a flat surface. *The ladder started to wobble.* ○ *Stop wobbling the table.* ●**wobbly** *adjective* likely to wobble *a* ***wobbly chair***

woe /wəʊ/ *noun* [U] *literary* sadness *full of woe*

woeful /ˈwəʊfəl/ *adjective* very bad and showing no skill *a woeful attempt/performance* ●**woefully** *adverb*

woes /wəʊz/ *noun* [**plural**] *formal* **your woes** your problems and worries

wok /wɒk/ *noun* [C] a large, bowl-shaped pan that is used for frying Chinese food

woke /wəʊk/ *past tense of* wake

woken /ˈwəʊkən/ *past participle of* wake

W

wolf¹ /wʊlf/ *noun* [C] *plural* **wolves** /wʊlvz/ a wild animal like a large dog

wolf² /wʊlf/ (*also* **wolf down**) *verb* [T] *informal* to eat something very quickly *I gave her a plate of pasta and she wolfed it down.*

woman /ˈwʊmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **women** /ˈwɪmɪn/ an adult female person *a 30-year-old woman* ○ *There were two women at the bus stop.* ●**womanhood** *noun* [U] the state of being a woman

womanly /ˈwʊmənli/ *adjective* having the qualities and appearance that people think a woman should have *womanly charms*

womb /wuːm/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the organ inside a woman's body where a baby grows

women /ˈwɪmɪn/ *plural of* woman

won /wʌn/ *past of* win

wonder¹ /ˈwʌndəʳ/ *verb* **1** [I, T] to want to know something or to try to understand the reason for something [**+ question word**] *I wonder what he's making for dinner.* ○ *I wonder why she left so suddenly.* **2 I/we wonder if/whether ...** used to politely ask someone for something or to suggest something *I wonder if you could help me?* ○ *We were wondering if you'd like to come over for a meal sometime.*

wonder² /ˈwʌndəʳ/ *noun* **1** ADMIRATION [U] surprise and admiration *The boys gazed* ***in wonder*** *at the shiny, red Ferrari.* **2** THING [C] something that makes you feel surprise or admiration [**usually plural**] ***the wonders of*** *modern medicine* **3 no wonder** used to say that you are not surprised about something *No wonder she failed the test if she didn't do any work.* **4 it's a wonder (that)** used to say that you are surprised about something *It's a wonder he's still alive.*

wonderful /ˈwʌndəfʰl/ *adjective* very good *a wonderful idea* ○ *We had a wonderful time in Spain.* ●**wonderfully** *adverb*

won't /wəʊnt/ *short for* will not *I won't be home before midnight.*

woo /wuː/ *verb* [T] **wooing**, *past* **wooed** to try to persuade someone to support you or to use your business *a political party trying to woo young voters*

wood /wʊd/ *noun* **1** MATERIAL [C, U] the hard material that trees are made of *a piece of wood* **2** AREA [C] (*also* **woods**) a large area of trees growing near each other *We went for a walk in the woods.*

wooded /ˈwʊdɪd/ *adjective* covered with trees *a wooded area*

wooden /ˈwʊdʰn/ *adjective* made of wood *a wooden chair*

woodland /ˈwʊdlənd/ *noun* [C, U] **GEOGRAPHY** an area of land with a lot of trees

woodwind /ˈwʊdwɪnd/ *noun* [U] **MUSIC** the group of musical instruments that you play by blowing into them ***woodwind instruments***

woodwork /ˈwʊdwɜːk/ *noun* [U] **1** PARTS the parts of a building that are made from wood **2** **DT** the activity of making things from wood

woof /wʊf/ *noun* [C] the sound made by a dog

wool /wʊl/ *noun* [U] **1** SHEEP the soft, thick hair on a sheep **2** **DT** thick thread or material that is made from the hair of a sheep *a wool suit* ○ *a ball of wool* ➲See also: **cotton wool**

woollen *UK* (*US* **woolen**) /ˈwʊlən/ *adjective* made of wool *woollen gloves*

woolly *UK* (*US* **wooly**) /ˈwʊli/ *adjective* made of wool, or made of something that looks like wool *a green woolly hat*

word¹ /wɜːd/ *noun* **1** LANGUAGE [C] a group of letters or sounds that mean something, or a single letter or sound that means something *'Hund' is the German word for 'dog'.* ○ *He has difficulty spelling long words.* **2 not believe/understand/hear, etc a word** to not believe/understand/hear, etc anything *I don't believe a word he says.* **3 a word of warning/advice/thanks, etc** something that you say to warn someone, give them advice, thank them, etc *Just a word of warning - he doesn't like people being late.* **4 have a word with sb** to talk to someone for a short time *I'll have a word with Ted and see if he wants to come.* **5 put in a good word for sb** to praise someone, often to someone who might be able to employ them **6 give sb your word** to promise someone something *He gave me his word that he wouldn't tell anyone.* **7 take sb's word for it** to believe what someone says without any proof **8 in other words** used to explain what something means in a different way *He said he's too busy, in other words, he isn't interested.* **9 in sb's words** used when you repeat what someone said *In the manager's words, the game was 'a total disaster'.* **10 word for word** using the exact words that were originally used *She repeated word for word what he had told her.* **11 have the last word** to say the last thing in a discussion or argument or make the final decision about something **12 not breathe a word** to not tell people a secret *Don't breathe a word about this to anyone.* **13 not get a word in edgeways** *UK* (*US* **not get a word in edgewise**) to be unable to say anything because someone else is talking so much ➲See also: a **play²** on words, **swear word**

word² /wɜːd/ *verb* [T] to choose the words you use when you are saying or writing something *How should I word this letter?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wording***

change the wording ● the **exact** wording ● the wording **of** sth ● a **form of** wording

wording /ˈwɜːdɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **LANGUAGE** the words that are used when someone says or writes something

word processor *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer or computer program that you use for writing letters, reports, etc ●**word processing** *noun* [U]

wore /wɔːʳ/ *past tense of* wear

work¹ /wɜːk/ *verb* **1** JOB [I, T] to do a job, especially the job you do to earn money *Helen* ***works for*** *a computer company.* ○ *He* ***works as*** *a waiter in an Italian restaurant.* ○ *My dad works very long hours* (= he works a lot of hours). **2** MACHINE [I] If a machine or piece of equipment works, it is not broken. *Does this radio work?* ○ *The washing machine isn't working.* **3** SUCCEED [I] If something works, it is

effective and successful. *Her plan to get rid of me didn't work.* **4 can work sth; know how to work sth** to know how to use a machine or piece of equipment *Do you know how to work the video recorder?* **5** EFFORT [**I, T**] to do something that needs a lot of time or effort, or to make someone do this [**+ to do sth**] *He's been working to improve his speed.* ○ *Our teacher works us very hard.* **6 work your way around/through/up, etc sth** to achieve something gradually *I have a pile of homework to work my way through.*

work against sb *phrasal verb* to make it more difficult for someone to achieve something *Age can work against you when you are looking for a job.*

work at sth *phrasal verb* to try hard to achieve something [**+ doing sth**] You need to work at improving your writing.

work on sth *phrasal verb* to spend time repairing or improving something *Tim loves working on old cars.*

work sth out *phrasal verb* **1** MATHEMATICS to calculate an amount *I'm trying to work out the total cost.* **2** THINK to understand something or decide something after thinking very carefully [**+ question word**] *I haven't worked out what to do yet.*

work out *phrasal verb* **1** PROBLEM If a problem or difficult situation works out, it gradually becomes better. *Don't worry - everything will work out in the end.* **2 SPORT** to do exercises to make your body stronger ➲See colour picture **Phrasal Verbs** on page Centre 16 **3 work out badly/well, etc** to happen or develop in a particular way *Changing schools worked out really well for me.* **4 work out at sth** to be the result when you calculate something *If we share the costs, it works out at $10 per person.*

work sb out *phrasal verb UK* to understand the reasons for someone's behaviour *I can't work him out at all.*

work up to sth *phrasal verb* to gradually prepare yourself for something difficult

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***work***

do/find/finish/have work ● **clerical/dirty/hard/part-time/pioneering** work ● **at** work

O-key **work**[2] /wɜːk/ *noun* **1** EFFORT [**U**] when you use physical or mental effort to do something *Decorating that room was **hard work**.* **2** PLACE [**U**] the place where you go to do your job *He had an accident **at work**.* **3** JOB [**U**] something you do as a job to earn money *Has she got any work yet?* ○ *Many young people are **out of work*** (= they do not have a job). **4** ACTIVITY [**U**] the activities that you have to do at school, for your job, etc *Have you got a lot of work to do?* ○ *The teacher said she was pleased with my work.* **5 get/set to work (on sth)** to start doing something **6 ART, LITERATURE, MUSIC** [**C, U**] a painting, book, piece of music, etc *The exhibition includes works by Picasso and Klee.* ○ *the **complete works** of Shakespeare* **7 do sb's dirty work** to do something unpleasant or difficult for someone else because they do not want to do it themselves **8 have your work cut out** to have something very difficult to do *It's a demanding job - she's going to have her work cut out for her.* ➲See also: **donkey work, work of art**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

work, job or **occupation?**

Work is something you do to earn money. Remember that this noun is uncountable.

She enjoys her work in the hospital.

He's looking for work.

~~*He's looking for a work.*~~

Job is used to talk about the particular work activity which you do.

He's looking for a job in computer programming.

Teaching must be an interesting job.

~~*Teaching must be an interesting work.*~~

Occupation is a formal word which means the job that you do. It is often used on forms. See also: **career** and **profession**.

workable /ˈwɜːkəbl/ *adjective* A workable plan or system can be used or done easily and is effective. ➲Opposite **unworkable**

workaholic /ˌwɜːkəˈhɒlɪk/ *noun* [**C**] *informal* someone who works too much and does not have time to do anything else

workbook /ˈwɜːkbʊk/ *noun* [**C**] EDUCATION a book with questions and exercises in it that you use when you are learning something

ˌworked ˈup *adjective* very nervous, angry, or excited

worker /ˈwɜːkər/ *noun* **1** [**C**] someone who works for a company or organization but does not have a powerful position *an office worker* **2 a quick/slow/good, etc worker** someone who works quickly/slowly/well, etc ➲See also: **social worker**

workforce /ˈwɜːkfɔːs/ *noun* [**group**] **1** COMPANY all the people who work for a company or organization **2** COUNTRY all the people in a country who are able to do a job *10% of the workforce are unemployed.*

working /ˈwɜːkɪŋ/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] **1** relating to your job *good working conditions* **2 a working man/woman, etc** someone who has a job *a working mother* **3 a working knowledge of sth** knowledge about something which is good enough to be useful *She has a working knowledge of German and Russian.* ➲See also: **hard-working**

ˌworking ˈcapital *noun* [**U**] FINANCE the amount of money that a company has available to run its business

ˌworking ˈcapital ˌratio *noun* [**C usually singular**] FINANCE a calculation that compares the assets (= things owned) of a business that will be changed into money within 12 months with the payments that have to be made in that time

ˌworking ˈclass *noun* [**C**] SOCIETY the social class of people who have little money and who usually do physical work ●**working-class** /ˌwɜːkɪŋˈklɑːs/ *adjective a working-class family*

workings /ˈwɜːkɪŋz/ *noun* **the workings of sth** how something works *the workings of the mind*

W

workload /ˈwɜːkləʊd/ *noun* [C] the amount of work that you have to do *Nurses have a very **heavy workload*** (= they work hard).

workman /ˈwɜːkmən/ *noun* [C] *plural* **workmen** someone who does a physical job such as building

workmanship /ˈwɜːkmənʃɪp/ *noun* [U] the skill that is used in making something

ˌwork of ˈart *noun* [C] *plural* **works of art** **1** ART a very beautiful and important painting, drawing, etc *They stole several valuable works of art.* **2 be a work of art** to be something which is beautiful or needed a lot of skill to create *Have you seen the wedding cake? It's a work of art.*

workout /ˈwɜːkaʊt/ *noun* [C] SPORT when you do a series of exercises to make your body strong and healthy *a daily workout at the gym*

workplace /ˈwɜːkpleɪs/ *noun* [C] the place where you work *We are trying to get rid of bullying **in the workplace**.*

worksheet /ˈwɜːkˌʃiːt/ *noun* [C] EDUCATION a piece of paper with questions and exercises for students

workshop /ˈwɜːkʃɒp/ *noun* [C] **1** EDUCATION when a group of people meet to learn more about something by discussing it and doing practical exercises *a workshop on crime prevention* **2** a place where people use tools and machines to make or repair things

workstation /ˈwɜːkˌsteɪʃᵊn/ *noun* [C] COMPUTING a computer and the area around it where you work in an office

ˈwork ˌsurface (*also* **worktop** /ˈwɜːktɒp/) *noun* [C] a flat surface for preparing food in a kitchen ➲See colour picture **The Kitchen** on page Centre 2

work-to-rule /ˌwɜːktəˈruːl/ *noun* [C usually singular] POLITICS a situation at work in which people do only the work that they agreed to do and nothing extra in order to show that they disagree with something, such as the amount of money they are paid or the hours that they work

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***world***

travel the world • **in** the world • **across/all over** the world

O-key **world¹** /wɜːld/ *noun* **1 the world** GEOGRAPHY the Earth and all the people, places, and things on it *Everest is the highest mountain **in the world**.* **2** [C] the people and things that are involved in a particular activity or subject [usually singular] *the entertainment world* ○ *the world of politics* **3 the developing/industrialized/Western, etc world** a particular area of the Earth **4 the plant/animal, etc world** plants/animals, etc as a group **5 your world** your life and experiences *His whole world fell apart when she left.* **6 do sb a/the world of good** *informal* to make someone feel much happier or healthier *That swim has done me a world of good.* **7 be out of this world** *informal* to be of extremely good quality *Their chocolate cake is just out of this world!* **8 think the world of sb** to like and admire someone very much **9 the whole world** *informal* everyone *The whole world knew she was getting married before fore I did.* ➲See also: have the **best³** of both worlds, not be the **end¹** of the world, **the Old World, the outside world, the Third World,** be on **top¹** of the world

world² /wɜːld/ *adjective* [always before noun] relating to the whole world *world peace* ○ *the world championships*

the ˌWorld ˈBank *noun* ECONOMICS an international organization that lends money to countries that need it

world-class /ˌwɜːldˈklɑːs/ *adjective* one of the best in the world *a world-class swimmer*

world-famous /ˌwɜːldˈfeɪməs/ *adjective* known by people everywhere in the world *The Eiffel Tower is a world-famous landmark.*

worldly /ˈwɜːldli/ *adjective* **1 sb's worldly goods/possessions** everything that someone owns **2** having had a lot of experience of life *a worldly woman*

the ˌWorld ˈTrade Organization (*abbreviation* **WTO**) *noun* ECONOMICS an organization that tries to control international trade and make it easier

ˌworld ˈwar *noun* [C] a war in which several large or important countries fight

worldwide /ˌwɜːldˈwaɪd/ *adjective, adverb* in all parts of the world *10 million copies have been sold worldwide.*

the ˌWorld Wide ˈWeb *noun* INTERNET all the websites (= pages of text and pictures) on the Internet ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36.

worm¹ /wɜːm/ *noun* [C] a small creature with a long, thin, soft body and no legs ➲See also: a **can²** of worms

worm² /wɜːm/ *verb* **worm your way into sth** to gradually get into a situation by making people like you and trust you, especially by deceiving them *He wormed his way into the family.*

worn¹ /wɔːn/ *adjective* Worn clothing or objects have been used a lot and show damage. *a worn leather chair*

worn² /wɔːn/ *past participle of* wear

worn-out /ˌwɔːnˈaʊt/ *adjective* **1** TIRED extremely tired *I was absolutely worn-out after all that dancing.* **2** DAMAGED Something that is worn-out is so old or has been used so much that it is damaged too much to repair. *a worn-out carpet*

O-key **worried** /ˈwʌrid/ *adjective* anxious because you are thinking about problems or unpleasant things that might happen *She's really **worried about** her son.* [+ **(that)**] *I'm worried that she'll tell Maria.*

O-key **worry¹** /ˈwʌri/ *verb* **1** BE ANXIOUS [I] to think about problems or unpleasant things that might happen in a way that makes you feel anxious ***Don't worry** - she'll be all right.* ○ *She's always **worrying about** something.* [+ **(that)**] *I worry that he might run away.* **2** MAKE ANXIOUS [T] to make someone feel anxious because of problems or unpleasant things that might happen *It worries me that he hasn't phoned yet.*

W

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

worry about something or **someone**

Be careful to use the correct preposition after this verb.

They were worried about the weather.

~~*They were worried for the weather.*~~

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***worry*** *(noun)*

allay/ease/express a worry ● a **constant/lingering/nagging/real** worry ● a worry **about/over** sth

worry² /ˈwʌri/ *noun* **1** PROBLEM [C] a problem that makes you feel anxious *health worries* **2** FEELING [U] when you are anxious about something *She's been sick with worry.*

worrying /ˈwʌriɪŋ/ *adjective* making you feel anxious *a worrying situation* ●**worryingly** *adverb She's worryingly thin.*

O-K **worse¹** /wɜːs/ *adjective* (*comparative of* bad) **1** LESS GOOD more unpleasant or difficult than something else that is also bad *The exam was* ***worse than*** *I expected.* ○ *We'll have to stop the game if the rain* ***gets*** *any* ***worse.*** **2** MORE ILL more ill *The drugs aren't working, he just seems to be* ***getting worse.*** **3 be none the worse for sth** to not be harmed or damaged by something *He seemed none the worse for the experience.* **4 worse luck** *UK informal* used to show that you are annoyed or unhappy about something *I've got to work on Saturday, worse luck!*

worse² /wɜːs/ *noun* [U] **1** something that is more unpleasant or difficult *It was a nasty accident, although I've seen worse.* **2 for the worse** If a situation changes for the worse, it becomes worse.

worse³ /wɜːs/ *adverb* (*comparative of* badly) less well *He was treated much worse than I was.*

worsen /ˈwɜːsᵊn/ *verb* [I, T] to become worse or to make something become worse *His condition suddenly worsened last week.*

ˌworse ˈoff *adjective* [**never before noun**] poorer or in a more difficult situation *If Rick loses his job we'll be even worse off.*

worship /ˈwɜːʃɪp/ *verb* **worshipping**, *past* **worshipped**, *also US* **worshiping**, *past* **worshiped 1 RELIGION** [I, T] to show respect for a god by saying prayers or performing religious ceremonies **2** [T] to love and respect someone very much *She worshipped her mother.* ●**worship** *noun* [U] *a* ***place of worship*** (= a religious building) ●**worshipper** *noun* [C]

O-K **worst¹** /wɜːst/ *adjective* (*superlative of* bad) **the worst** the most unpleasant or difficult *What's the worst job you've ever had?*

worst² /wɜːst/ *noun* **1 the worst** the most unpleasant or difficult thing, person, or situation *I've made some mistakes in the past, but this is definitely the worst.* **2 at worst** used to say what the most unpleasant or difficult situation could possibly be *At worst, we might lose our money.* **3 if the worst comes to the worst** *UK* (*US* **if worse/worst comes to worst**) if a situation develops in the most unpleasant or difficult way

worst³ /wɜːst/ *adverb* (*superlative of* badly) the most badly *the* ***worst affected*** *area*

O-K **worth¹** /wɜːθ/ *adjective* **1 be worth sth** to have a particular value, especially in money *Our house is worth about £600,000.* **2 be worth doing/seeing/trying, etc** to be useful or enjoyable to do/see/try, etc *It's not as good as his last book but it's definitely worth reading.* **3 be worth it** to be useful or enjoyable despite needing a lot of effort *It was a long climb up the mountain but the view was worth it.* ○ *Don't bother complaining - it's really not worth it.* **4 be worth your while** If it is worth your while doing something, it is useful or enjoyable despite needing a lot of effort. *It isn't worth my while going all that way just for one day.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

be worth doing something

When **worth** is followed by a verb, the verb is always in the **-ing** form.

Do you think it's worth asking Patrick first?

~~*Do you think it's worth to ask Patrick first?*~~

O-K **worth²** /wɜːθ/ *noun* **1 £20/$100, etc worth of sth** the amount of something that you can buy for £20/$100, etc *I've put £2 worth of stamps on the letter.* **2 a month's/year's, etc worth of sth** the amount of something that can be done or used in a month/year, etc *an hour's worth of free phone calls* **3** [U] how important or useful someone or something is *She's finally proved her worth.*

worthless /ˈwɜːθləs/ *adjective* **1** NOT IMPORTANT not important or useful *He made me feel stupid and worthless.* **2** MONEY having no value in money *The painting's a fake - it's completely worthless.*

worthwhile /ˌwɜːθˈwaɪl/ *adjective* useful and enjoyable, despite needing a lot of effort *It's a difficult course but it's very worthwhile.*

worthy /ˈwɜːði/ *adjective* **1** deserving respect, admiration, or support *a worthy cause* ○ *a worthy champion* **2 be worthy of attention/respect, etc** to deserve attention/respect, etc

O-K **would** *strong form* /wʊd/ *weak form* /wəd/ *modal verb* **1** IF used to say what might happen if something else happens *What would you do if you lost your job?* **2** SAID/THOUGHT used as the past form of 'will' to talk about what someone has said or thought *Sue promised that she would help.* ○ *They thought that she would never recover.* **3** WILLING used as the past form of 'will' to talk about what someone was willing to do or what something was able to do *I asked her to talk to him, but she wouldn't.* ○ *The car wouldn't start this morning.* **4 would like/love sth** used to say politely that you want something *I'd* (= I would) *like a cup of coffee, please.* **5 would you** used to politely ask someone something *Would you like a drink?* ○ *Would you come with me, please?* **6** IMAGINE used to talk about a situation that you can imagine happening *It would be lovely to go to New York.* **7 I would imagine/think, etc** used to give an opinion in a polite way *I would imagine she'll discuss it with her husband first.* **8** OFTEN used to talk about things that happened often in the past *He would always turn and wave at the end of the street.* **9 She/he/you would!** *mainly UK* used to show that you are

W

not surprised by someone's annoying behaviour *Margot spent £200 on a dress for the occasion but she would, wouldn't she?* ➲See Extra help page **Modal verbs** on page Centre 34.

O-key **wouldn't** /ˈwʊdᵊnt/ *short for* would not *She wouldn't let us watch TV.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wound*** *(noun)*

inflict/sustain a wound ● a wound **heals (up)** ● **bullet/gunshot/stab** wounds ● a wound **on/to** [sb's arm/back, etc] ● an **open** wound

wound¹ /wuːnd/ *noun* [C] **HEALTH** an injury, especially one that is made by a knife or bullet

wound² /wuːnd/ *verb* [T] **1** INJURE to injure someone, especially with a knife or gun [**often passive**] *He was badly wounded in the attack.* **2** UPSET to upset someone [**often passive**] *She was deeply wounded by his rejection.*

wound³ /waʊnd/ *past of* wind³

ˌwound ˈup *adjective* very nervous, worried, or angry *He gets very wound up before an important match.*

wove /wəʊv/ *past tense of* weave²

woven /ˈwəʊvᵊn/ *past participle of* weave²

wow /waʊ/ *exclamation informal* something that you say to show surprise, excitement, admiration, etc *Wow! Look at that car!*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wrangle***

be involved in/get into a wrangle ● a **bitter/legal** wrangle ● a wrangle **over** sth ● a wrangle **between** sb and sb ● a wrangle **with** sb

wrangle¹ /ˈræŋgl/ *noun* [C] a long and complicated argument *a **legal wrangle***

wrangle² /ˈræŋgl/ *verb* [I] to argue with someone for a long time *They're still **wrangling over** money.*

wrap /ræp/ *verb* [T] **wrapping**, *past* **wrapped** **1** (*also* **wrap up**) to cover something or someone with paper, cloth, etc *to wrap a present* ○ *They wrapped him in a blanket.* ➲Opposite **unwrap** **2 wrap sth around sb/sth** to fold paper, cloth, etc around something to cover it *He wrapped a towel around his waist.* **3 wrap your arms/fingers, etc around sb/sth** to put your arms/fingers, etc around someone or something *She wrapped her arms around my neck.*
wrap sth up *phrasal verb* **1** COVER to fold paper, cloth, etc around something to cover it *Have you wrapped up Jenny's present?* **2** FINISH to finish an activity successfully *We hope to have this deal wrapped up by Monday.*
wrap up *phrasal verb* to dress in warm clothes *Wrap up well - it's cold outside.*
be wrapped up in sth *phrasal verb* to give so much of your attention to something that you do not have time for other things or people *She's so wrapped up in her work that she hardly sees her kids.*

wrapper /ˈræpəʳ/ *noun* [C] a piece of paper or plastic that covers something that you buy, especially food *(UK) sweet wrappers/ (US)* candy wrappers

wrapping /ˈræpɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] paper or plastic that is used to cover and protect something

ˈwrapping ˌpaper *noun* [U] decorated paper that is used to cover presents

wrath /rɒθ/ *noun* [U] *literary* extreme anger

wreak /riːk/ *verb past* **wrought**, **wreaked wreak havoc** to cause a lot of damage or harm *Floods have wreaked havoc in central Europe.*

wreath /riːθ/ *noun* [C] *plural* **wreaths** /riːðz/ a large ring of leaves and flowers used as a decoration or to show respect for someone who has died

wreck¹ /rek/ *verb* [T] to destroy something completely *The explosion wrecked several cars and damaged nearby buildings.*

wreck² /rek/ *noun* [C] **1** VEHICLE a car, ship, or aircraft that has been very badly damaged **2** PERSON *informal* someone who is in a bad physical or mental condition [**usually singular**] *I was a complete wreck by the end of my exams.* **3** ACCIDENT *mainly US* a bad accident involving a car or train *a car/train wreck*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***wreckage***

be **cut (free) from/pulled from/recovered from** the wreckage ● be **trapped in** the wreckage ● a **piece of** wreckage ● the **tangled** wreckage of sth

wreckage /ˈrekɪdʒ/ *noun* [U] the parts that remain of a car, ship, or aircraft that has been destroyed *Two survivors were **pulled from the wreckage**.*

wren /ren/ *noun* [C] a very small, brown bird

wrench¹ /renʃ/ *verb* [T] **1 wrench sth from/off, etc sb/sth** to pull something violently away from a fixed position *The phone had been wrenched off the wall.* **2 HEALTH** to injure part of your body by turning it suddenly *I wrenched my right shoulder playing tennis.*

wrench² /renʃ/ *noun* **1** SADNESS [**no plural**] when you are very sad because you have to leave someone or something *She found leaving home a real wrench.* **2 DT** [C] *US* (*UK* **spanner**) a tool with a round end that is used to turn nuts and bolts (= metal objects used to fasten things together)

wrestle /ˈresl/ *verb* [I] **SPORT** to fight with someone by holding them and trying to push them to the ground
wrestle with sth *phrasal verb* to try very hard to deal with a difficult problem or decision *He's still wrestling with his conscience.*

wrestling /ˈreslɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a sport in which two people fight and try to push each other to the ground ●**wrestler** *noun* [C]

wretched /ˈretʃɪd/ *adjective* **1** UNHAPPY very unhappy or ill *I'd been feeling wretched all day so I went to bed early.* **2** BAD very bad or of poor quality *The refugees were living in **wretched conditions**.* **3** ANNOYED [**always before noun**] used to show that something or someone makes you angry *This wretched phone won't work!*

wriggle /ˈrɪgl/ *verb* [I, T] **1** to twist your body or move part of your body with short, quick movements *She wriggled her toes in the warm sand.* **2 wriggle out of sth/doing sth** to avoid doing something that you have agreed to do *Are you trying to wriggle out of going to the meeting?*

W

wring /rɪŋ/ (*also* **wring out**) *verb* [T] *past* **wrung** to twist a cloth or piece of clothing with your hands to remove water from it *He wrung out his socks and hung them up to dry.* ➲See also: wring your hands (**hand**[1])

wrinkle /ˈrɪŋkl/ *noun* [C] **1** SKIN a small line on your face that you get when you grow old **2** CLOTH a small fold in a piece of cloth ●**wrinkle** *verb* [I, T] *a wrinkled face*

wrist /rɪst/ *noun* [C] **ANATOMY** the part of your body between your hand and your arm

wristband /ˈrɪstbænd/ *noun* [C] **1** ATTACH a piece of material which goes around the wrist (= the part of your body between your hand and your arm), for example to hold a watch **2** SHOW SUPPORT a piece of material in a particular colour which goes around the wrist and shows that the person wearing it supports a certain charity

wristwatch /ˈrɪstwɒtʃ/ *noun* [C] a watch which you wear on your wrist (= the part of your body between your hand and your arm)

writ /rɪt/ *noun* [C] **LAW** a legal document that orders someone to do something

O--**write** /raɪt/ *verb past tense* **wrote**, *past participle* **written** **1** WORDS [I, T] to produce words, letters, or numbers on a surface using a pen or pencil *Write your name at the top of the page.* ○ *She can't read or write.* **2** BOOK [I, T] to create a book, story, article, etc or a piece of music *He's writing a book on Russian literature.* ○ *She writes for Time magazine.* **3** LETTER [I, T] to send someone a letter [+ **two objects**] *I wrote her a letter last week.* ○ *Has Bill **written to** you recently?* **4** DOCUMENT [T] (*also* **write out**) to put all the information that is needed on a document *He wrote out a cheque for £250.*

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

write

Remember to use the correct grammar after **write**.

write to someone

Rachel wrote to me last week.

write someone **a letter**

Rachel wrote me a letter last week.

write someone (American English)

Rachel wrote me last week.

write back *phrasal verb* to reply to someone's letter

write sth down *phrasal verb* to write something on a piece of paper so that you do not forget it *Did you write Jo's phone number down?*

write in *phrasal verb* to write a letter to a newspaper, television company, etc *Lots of people have written in to complain about the show.*

write off *phrasal verb* to write a letter to an organization asking them to send you something *I've **written off for** an information pack.*

write sth off *phrasal verb* **1** FINANCE to accept that an amount of money has been lost or will never be paid to you *to write off debts* **2** VEHICLE *UK* to damage a vehicle so badly that it cannot be repaired

write sb/sth off *phrasal verb* to decide that someone or something is not useful or important *They had written him off before they even met him.*

write sth up *phrasal verb* to write something in a complete form, usually using notes that you made earlier *Have you written up that report yet?*

write-off /ˈraɪtɒf/ *noun* [C] *UK* a vehicle that is damaged so badly in an accident that it cannot be repaired *I wasn't hurt, but the car was a complete write-off.*

O--**writer** /ˈraɪtəʳ/ *noun* [C] **LITERATURE** someone whose job is writing books, stories, articles, etc

write-up /ˈraɪtʌp/ *noun* [C] an article in a newspaper or magazine in which someone gives their opinion about a performance, product, etc *The film **got** a very good **write-up** in yesterday's paper.*

writhe /raɪð/ *verb* [I] to twist your body in a violent way, often because you are in pain *She lay on her bed, writhing in agony.*

O--**writing** /ˈraɪtɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **1** SKILL the skill or activity of producing words on a surface *Teachers focus on reading and writing in the first year.* **2** WORDS words that have been written or printed *The writing was too small to read.* **3** STYLE the way that someone writes *You've got very neat writing.* **4** **LITERATURE** the books, stories, articles, etc written by a particular person or group of people *She's studying women's writing of the 1930s.* **5** **LITERATURE** the activity or job of creating books, stories, or articles **6 in writing** An agreement that is in writing is official because it has been written and not only spoken. *Please confirm your reservation in writing.*

written[1] /ˈrɪtᵊn/ *adjective* [**always before noun**] presented as a document on paper *a **written statement/warning***

written[2] /ˈrɪtᵊn/ *past participle of* write

O--**wrong**[1] /rɒŋ/ *adjective* **1** NOT CORRECT not correct *the **wrong answer*** ○ *We're going the **wrong way**.* **2 be wrong** to think or say something that is not correct *You were **wrong about** the party - it's today, not tomorrow.* **3 get sth wrong** to produce an answer or result that is not correct *I got most of the answers wrong.* **4** PROBLEM [**never before noun**] If something is wrong, there is a problem. *There's something **wrong with** my computer.* ○ ***What's wrong?*** **5** NOT MORAL [**never before noun**] morally bad [+ **to do sth**] *It's wrong to tell lies.* **6** NOT SUITABLE not suitable *I think she's **wrong for** this job.* ➲See also: get (hold of) the wrong **end**[1] of the stick, get/start off on the wrong **foot**[1], not put a **foot**[1] wrong, rub sb up the wrong **way**[1]

O--**wrong**[2] /rɒŋ/ *adverb* **1** in a way that is not correct *He always says my name wrong.* **2 go wrong** to develop problems *Something's gone wrong with my computer.* **3 Don't get me wrong.** *informal* used when you do not want someone to think that you do not like someone or something *Don't get me wrong, I like her, but she can be very annoying.*

wrong[3] /rɒŋ/ *noun* **1** [C, U] when something is not morally right *She's old enough to know the difference between **right and wrong**.* **2 be in the wrong** to be responsible for a mistake or something bad that has happened

W

wrong[4] /rɒŋ/ *verb* [T] *formal* to treat someone unfairly *a wronged man*

wrongdoing /ˈrɒŋˌduːɪŋ/ *noun* [C, U] *formal* when someone does something that is illegal or not honest

wrongful /ˈrɒŋfəl/ *adjective* **wrongful arrest/conviction/imprisonment, etc** when someone is accused of something or punished for something unfairly or illegally ●**wrongfully** *adverb* ***wrongfully arrested***

wrongly /ˈrɒŋli/ *adverb* **1** in a way that is not correct *The letter was wrongly addressed.* **2 wrongly accused/convicted/imprisoned, etc** accused or punished unfairly or illegally *She was wrongly convicted of drug smuggling.*

wrote /rəʊt/ *past tense of* write

wrought /rɔːt/ *past of* wreak

ˌwrought ˈiron *noun* [U] iron that can be bent into shapes and used to make gates, furniture, etc

wrung /rʌŋ/ *past of* wring

wry /raɪ/ *adjective* A wry expression or remark shows your humour despite being in a difficult or disappointing situation. *a* ***wry smile*** ●**wryly** *adverb*

WTO /ˌdʌbljuːtiːˈəʊ/ *noun* **ECONOMICS** *abbreviation for* World Trade Organisation: an organization that tries to control international trade and make it easier

www /ˌdʌbljuːˌdʌbljuːˈdʌbljuː/ *noun* **INTERNET** *abbreviation for* World Wide Web (= part of the Internet that consists of all the connected websites) ➲See Extra help page **The Web and the Internet** on page Centre 36

W

Xx

X, x /eks/ **1** LETTER the twenty-fourth letter of the alphabet **2** WRONG used to show that an answer is wrong **3** KISS used to represent a kiss at the end of a letter **4** UNKNOWN used to represent an unknown person or thing

x-axis /ˈeksˌæksɪs/ *noun* [**no plural**] **MATHEMATICS** the line of figures or letters along the bottom of a graph or map; the horizontal axis ➲Compare **y-axis**

X-chromosome /ˈeksˌkrəʊməsəʊm/ **BIOLOGY** a sex chromosome (= part of a cell that controls the appearance, characteristics, etc. of an animal or plant). In the cells of female humans and most mammals there are two of these and in the cells of males there is one X-chromosome and there is also a Y-chromosome. ➲Compare **Y-chromosome**

xenon /ˈzenɒn/ *noun* [**U**] **CHEMISTRY** a gas that is found in the air and used in some electric lights (symbol **Xe**)

xenophobia /ˌzenəʊˈfəʊbiə/ *noun* [**U**] extreme dislike or fear of people from other countries ●**xenophobic** /ˌzenəʊˈfəʊbɪk/ *adjective*

XL /ˌeksˈel/ *abbreviation for* extra large: the largest size of clothes

Xmas /ˈkrɪstməs/ *noun* [**U**] *informal* used as a short way of writing 'Christmas' (= a Christian holiday), mainly on signs or cards *Happy Xmas!*

XML /eksemˈel/ *noun trademark abbreviation for* **COMPUTING** extensible mark up language: a system of organizing information on computers

X-ray

X-ray /ˈeksreɪ/ *noun* [**C**] **1** **HEALTH** a photograph that shows the inside of your body *They **took an X-ray of** his leg.* **2** **PHYSICS** a wave of energy that can pass through solid materials ●**X-ray** *verb* [**T**] to take a photograph that shows the inside of something

xylem /ˈzaɪləm/ *noun* [**U**] **BIOLOGY** the part of a plant that carries water from the roots to the leaves and gives support to the stem or trunk ➲Compare **phloem** ➲See picture at **leaf** ➲See picture at **photosynthesis** ➲See picture at **stem**

xylophone /ˈzaɪləfəʊn/ *noun* [**C**] **MUSIC** a musical instrument consisting of a row of flat, metal bars that you hit with sticks

X

Yy

Y, y /waɪ/ the twenty-fifth letter of the alphabet

ya /jə/ *pronoun informal* you *See ya later.*

yacht /jɒt/ *noun* [C] a large boat with sails used for pleasure or in races *a luxury yacht*

Yank /jæŋk/ *noun* [C] *informal* someone from the US, sometimes considered an offensive word

yank /jæŋk/ *verb* [T] *informal* to pull something with a strong, sudden movement *She yanked the drawer open.* ○ *He **yanked at** the rope.*

yap /jæp/ *verb* [I] **yapping**, *past* **yapped** If a small dog yaps, it makes a lot of short, high sounds.

yard /jɑːd/ *noun* [C] **1** MEASURES (*written abbreviation* **yd**) a unit for measuring length, equal to 0.9144 metres or 3 feet *There's a bus stop a few hundred yards up the road.* ➲See Extra help page **Numbers and measurements** on page Centre 24 **2** HOUSE *US* (*UK* **garden**) an area of land in front of or behind a house **3** AREA a small area of ground next to a building, often with a fence or wall around it *a school yard*

yardstick /ˈjɑːdstɪk/ *noun* [C] something that you use to judge how good or successful something else is *If popularity is the yardstick of success, he's done very well.*

yarn /jɑːn/ *noun* **1** DT [U] thread used for making cloth **2** STORY [C] *informal* a long story that is probably not true

yawn /jɔːn/ *verb* [I] to take a deep breath with your mouth wide open, because you are tired or bored *She yawned and looked at her watch.* ●**yawn** *noun* [C]

yawning /ˈjɔːnɪŋ/ *adjective* **a yawning gap** a very big gap (= space or difference)

y-axis /ˈwaɪˌæksɪs/ *noun* [**no plural**] MATHEMATICS the line of figures or letters along the side of a graph or map; the vertical axis ➲Compare **x-axis**

Y-chromosome /ˈwaɪˌkrəʊməsəʊm/ *noun* [C] BIOLOGY a sex chromosome (= part of a cell that controls the appearance, characteristics, etc. of an animal or plant) that exists only in male cells of humans and most mammals ➲Compare **X-chromosome**

yd MEASURES *written abbreviation for* yard (= a unit for measuring length)

yeah /jeə/ *exclamation informal spoken* yes *Yeah, I agree.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***year***

each/every/last/next year ● the **past** year ● [2/5, etc] years **ago**

year /jɪə/ *noun* [C] **1** a period of 12 months, or 365 or 366 days, especially from 1 January to 31 December ***last year/next year*** ○ *He joined the company a year ago.* **2 the academic/financial, etc year** the period of a year that is used by universities/businesses, etc to organize their activities **3 be two/twelve/37, etc years old** to be a particular age *Her son is six years old.* **4 a two-/twelve-/37-, etc year-old** someone who is a particular age **5** EDUCATION *UK* a group of students who start college or a course together *He was **in** my **year** at school.* **6 years** a long time *I haven't seen Linda **for years**.* ➲See also: for **donkey**'s years, **leap year, new year**

COMMON LEARNER ERROR

describing age

If you describe someone's age by saying 'Tom is 8 years old', you always write the age as three separate words.

My son is 8 years old.

You can use also use 8-year-old, etc. as an adjective. When you do this, the words are written together using hyphens (-).

I've got a 12-year-old son.

You can also do the same with days, weeks, and months.

I've got a 10-week-old rabbit.

The baby is three months old.

a three-month-old baby

yearbook /ˈjɪəbʊk/ *noun* [C] a book produced every year by a school or organization, containing information about its activities, members, etc

yearly /ˈjɪəli/ *adjective, adverb* happening once a year or every year *a yearly fee* ○ *Interest is paid yearly.*

yearn /jɜːn/ *verb* **yearn for sth; yearn to do sth** to want something very much with a feeling of sadness *They yearned for peace.* ○ *She yearned to get away.* ●**yearning** *noun* [C, U]

yeast /jiːst/ *noun* [U] FOOD a substance used to make bread rise and to make beer and wine

yell /jel/ *verb* [I, T] to shout something very loudly *The policeman **yelled at** them to stop.* ●**yell** *noun* [C]

yellow /ˈjeləʊ/ *adjective* being the same colour as a lemon or the sun *a bright yellow tablecloth* ●**yellow** *noun* [C, U] the colour yellow ➲See colour picture **Colours** on page Centre 12

ˌyellow ˈcard *noun* [C] SPORT in football, a small card shown to a player as a warning that the player has not obeyed a rule ➲Compare **red card**

the ˌYellow ˈPages *UK trademark* (*US* **the ˈYellow ˌPages**) *noun* [**plural**] a big, yellow book containing telephone numbers of shops and businesses

yelp /jelp/ *verb* [I] If a dog yelps, it gives a sudden cry because of pain or shock.

yep /jep/ *exclamation informal spoken* yes

yes¹ /jes/ *exclamation* **1** AGREE used to agree with something, or to give a positive answer to something *"Can I borrow your pencil?" "Yes, of course."* ○ *"Are you feeling better?" "Yes, thanks."* ○ *"Coffee?" " Yes, please."* **2** ANSWER used as an answer when someone calls you *"Jack!" "Yes?"* **3** DISAGREE used to disagree with a negative announcement *"He's not here yet." "Yes he is, I've just seen him."*

yes² /jes/ *noun* [C] a positive reaction or agreement with something *Was that a yes or a no?*

yesterday /ˈjestədeɪ/ *noun* [U], *adverb* the day before today *I went to see the doctor yesterday.* ○ *yesterday morning/afternoon*

O–W **yet¹** /jet/ *adverb* **1** BEFORE before now or before that time *Have you read his book yet?* ○ *"Has he called?" "No, not yet."* **2** NOW now or as early as this time *I don't want to go home yet.* **3 the best/worst, etc yet** the best or worst, etc until now *That was my worst exam yet.* **4 be/have yet to do sth** to not have done something that was expected before this time *They have yet to make a decision.* **5 yet again/another/more, etc** used to show that you are surprised or annoyed that something is being repeated or increased *He's given us yet more work to do.* **6 could/may/might, etc yet** used to say there is still a possibility that something will happen *He may win yet.*

yet² /jet/ *conjunction* used to add something that seems surprising because of what you have just said *simple yet effective*

yew /juː/ *noun* [C, U] a tree with dark, needle-shaped leaves, or the wood of this tree

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***yield***

yield **clues/information/** a **profit/** a **result**

yield¹ /jiːld/ *verb* **1** PRODUCE [T] to produce or provide something *to **yield a profit*** ○ *The investigation **yielded** some unexpected **results**.* **2 yield to demands/pressure, etc** to be forced to do something **3** TRAFFIC [I] *US* (*UK* **give way**) to stop in order to allow other vehicles to go past before you drive onto a bigger road

yield² /jiːld/ *noun* [C] the amount of something that is produced

yo /jəʊ/ *exclamation mainly US informal* used as a greeting

yob /jɒb/ *noun* [C] *UK informal* a rude or violent young man

yoga /ˈjəʊgə/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** a set of exercises for the mind and body, based on the Hindu religion *She does yoga three times a week.*

yoghurt (*also* **yogurt**) /ˈjɒgət/ (US) /ˈjəʊgərt/ *noun* [C, U] **FOOD** a thick, liquid food with a slightly sour taste which is made from milk *a low-fat strawberry yoghurt* ➲See colour picture **Food** on page Centre 11

yolk /jəʊk/ *noun* [C] **1 FOOD** the round, yellow part in the middle of an egg **2 BIOLOGY** the substance in the eggs of all animals and birds, that provides food for the growing baby ➲See picture at **egg**

Yom Kippur /ˌjɒmkɪˈpʊər/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** a Jewish holy day in September or October

yonder /ˈjɒndər/ *adverb, determiner literary* in that place or direction

O–W **you** *strong form* /juː/ *weak forms* /ju, jə/ *pronoun* **1** PERSON SPOKEN TO used to refer to the person or people you are talking to *I love you.* ○ *You said I could go with you.* **2** PEOPLE GENERALLY people generally *You learn to accept these things as you get older.*

O–W **you'd** /juːd/ **1** YOU HAD *short for* you had *You'd better go home now.* **2** YOU WOULD *short for* you would *I expect you'd like some lunch.*

O–W **you'll** /juːl/ *short for* you will *I hope you'll come again.*

O–W **young¹** /jʌŋ/ *adjective* having lived or existed for only a short time and not old *young children/people* ○ *We were very young when we met.*

young² /jʌŋ/ *noun* [plural] **1 the young** young people generally *It's the sort of music that appeals mainly to the young.* **2 sth's young BIOLOGY** an animal's babies

youngster /ˈjʌŋstər/ *noun* [C] a young person, especially an older child *He talked to the youngsters about the dangers of drugs.*

O–W **your** *strong form* /jɔːr/ *weak form* /jər/ *determiner* **1** OF PERSON SPOKEN TO belonging or relating to the person or people you are talking to *Can I borrow your pen?* ○ *It's not your fault.* **2** OF PEOPLE IN GENERAL belonging or relating to people in general *You never stop loving your children.*

O–W **you're** /jɔːr/ *short for* you are *You're my best friend.*

O–W **yours** /jɔːz/ *pronoun* **1** the things that belong or relate to the person or people you are talking to *Is this pen yours?* ○ *Our tent's smaller than yours.* **2 Yours faithfully/sincerely, etc** used just before your name at the end of a polite or formal letter **3 yours truly** *humorous* I or me

O–W **yourself** /jɔːˈself/ *pronoun plural* **yourselves** **1** REFLEXIVE the reflexive form of the pronoun 'you' *Don't cut yourself with that sharp knife.* **2** EMPHASIZE used to emphasize the pronoun 'you' when talking about the actions of the person you are speaking to *Did you make the dress yourself?* **3 (all) by yourself/yourselves** alone or without anyone else's help *I'm amazed you managed to move those boxes all by yourself.* **4 (all) to yourself** for your use only *So you've got the whole house to yourself this weekend?*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***youth***

recapture/relive your youth ● **in** sb's youth

youth /juːθ/ *noun* **1 SOCIETY** [C] a young man *gangs of youths* **2 SOCIETY** [group] young people generally *the youth of today* ○ *a youth club* **3 sb's youth** the period of time when someone is young *I was very shy **in** my **youth**.* **4** [U] the quality of being young

youthful /ˈjuːθfəl/ *adjective* typical of a young person *youthful energy/good looks*

ˈyouth ˌhostel *noun* [C] a cheap, simple hotel, especially for young people who are travelling around

O–W **you've** /juːv/ *short for* you have *If you've finished your work, you can go.*

yo-yo /ˈjəʊjəʊ/ *noun* [C] a small, round toy that you make go up and down on a string that you hang from your finger

yuck /jʌk/ *exclamation informal* used to say that something looks or tastes very unpleasant

yum /jʌm/ (*also* **ˌyum ˈyum**) *exclamation informal* used to say that something tastes very good

yummy /ˈjʌmi/ *adjective informal* If food or drink is yummy, it tastes very good.

yuppie /ˈjʌpi/ *noun* [C] **SOCIETY** a young person who earns a lot of money and likes expensive things

Y

Zz

Z, z /zed/ the twenty-sixth and last letter of the alphabet

zany /ˈzeɪni/ *adjective* funny in a strange way ***zany humour***

zap /zæp/ *verb* [T] **zapping**, *past* **zapped** *informal* to attack or destroy something in a fast and powerful way

zeal /ziːl/ *noun* [U] extreme enthusiasm *religious zeal*

zealous /ˈzeləs/ *adjective* extremely enthusiastic ●**zealously** *adverb*

zebra /ˈzebrə/ (US) /ˈziːbrə/ *noun* [C] an animal like a horse with black and white lines

ˌzebra ˈcrossing *noun* [C] *UK* a part of the road painted with black and white lines where people can cross over safely

Zen /zen/ *noun* [U] **RELIGION** a religion that developed from Buddhism

zenith /ˈzenɪθ/ (US) /ˈziːnɪθ/ *noun* [**no plural**] *literary* the highest or most successful point of something *The city* ***reached its zenith*** *in the 1980s.*

WORD PARTNERS FOR ***zero***

sth **drops to/falls to** zero ● **above/below** zero

zero /ˈzɪərəʊ/ the number 0

ˌzero ˈtolerance *noun* [U] **LAW, SOCIETY** when you do not accept any bad behaviour, often by using laws to prevent it *zero tolerance of crime*

zest /zest/ *noun* [U] **1** FEELING excitement and enthusiasm *a zest for life* **2** FRUIT the outer skin of a lemon or orange used to give flavour to food

zigzag /ˈzɪgzæg/ *noun* [C] a line that changes direction from left to right and back again at sharp angles ●**zigzag** *verb* [I] **zigzagging**, *past* **zigzagged** to make a movement or pattern like a zigzag

zillion /ˈzɪljən/ *quantifier informal* a very large number *a zillion times*

zinc /zɪŋk/ *noun* [U] **CHEMISTRY** a blue-white metal that is used to make or cover other metals (symbol **Zn**)

zip¹ /zɪp/ *UK* (*US* **zipper**) *noun* [C] a thing for fastening clothes, bags, etc consisting of two rows of very small parts that connect together *Your zip's undone.*

zip² /zɪp/ *verb* **zipping**, *past* **zipped** **1** [T] (*also* **zip up**) to fasten something with a zip *He zipped up his jacket.* **2** **COMPUTING** (*also* **zip up**) to reduce the size of a computer file (= collection of information) so that it uses less space and can be sent or stored more easily **3 zip along/around/past, etc** *informal* to move somewhere very quickly

ˈzip ˌcode *noun* [C] a set of numbers that go after someone's address in the US ➲Compare **postcode**

ˈzip ˌdrive *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a device used for copying large documents onto special disks ➲See: **memory stick**

ˈzip ˌfile *noun* [C] **COMPUTING** a computer file (= collection of information) that has been made smaller so that it uses less space

zipper /ˈzɪpəʳ/ *noun* [C] *US* a zip¹

the zodiac /ˈzəʊdiæk/ *noun* the twelve signs representing groups of stars which are thought by some people to influence your life and personality *What sign of the zodiac are you?*

zombie /ˈzɒmbi/ *noun* [C] **1** a dead body that walks around because of magic **2 like a zombie** *informal* in a very tired, slow way *The day after the party I was walking around like a zombie.*

zone /zəʊn/ *noun* [C] an area where a particular thing happens *a* ***war zone*** ○ *a nuclear-free zone* ➲See also: **buffer zone**

zoo /zuː/ *noun* [C] a place where wild animals are kept and people come to look at them

zoological /ˌzəʊəʊˈlɒdʒɪkᵊl/ *adjective* **BIOLOGY** relating to the scientific study of animals

zoology /zuˈɒlədʒi/ (US) /zəʊˈɒlədʒi/ *noun* [U] **BIOLOGY** the scientific study of animals and how they behave ●**zoologist** *noun* [C] someone who studies zoology

zoom /zuːm/ *verb informal* **zoom along/down/past, etc** to travel somewhere very fast, especially with a loud noise
zoom in *phrasal verb* to make something appear much closer and larger when using a camera or computer *The TV cameras zoomed in on her face.*

ˈzoom ˌlens *noun* [C] a lens (= part of a camera) that can make something appear much closer and larger

zorbing /ˈzɔːbɪŋ/ *noun* [U] **SPORT** the sport of rolling down a hill inside a plastic ball

zucchini /zʊˈkiːni/ *US* (*UK* **courgette**) *noun* [C, U] *plural* **zucchini** or **zucchinis** **FOOD** a long, green vegetable which is white inside

zygote /ˈzaɪgəʊt/ *noun* [C] **BIOLOGY** the cell which will develop into a baby person or animal and which is made by the combining of a male and female gamete (= cell from each parent)

Appendices

page **862** **Popular first names**
863 **Geographical names**
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870 **Irregular verbs**
873 **Word beginnings and endings**
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Popular first names

These two lists give you the most common names for males and females in English-speaking countries, along with their pronunciation. The names in brackets are common short forms or different forms of the name.

Male names

Adam /ˈædəm/
Alan /ˈælən/
Alexander /ˌælɪgˈzɑːndər/
(**Alex**) /ˈælɪks/
Andrew /ˈændruː/
(**Andy**) /ˈændi/
Anthony
UK /ˈæntəni/
US /ˈænθəni/
(**Tony**) /ˈtəʊni/
Benjamin /ˈbendʒəmɪn/
(**Ben**) /ben/
Charles /tʃɑːlz/
(**Charlie**) /ˈtʃɑːli/
Christopher /ˈkrɪstəfər/
(**Chris**) /krɪs/
Daniel /ˈdænjəl/
(**Dan**) /dæn/
Darren /ˈdærən/
David /ˈdeɪvɪd/
(**Dave**) /deɪv/
Edward /ˈedwəd/
(**Ed**) /ed/
(**Ted**) /ted/
Ethan /ˈiːθən/
Gareth /ˈgærəθ/
Gary /ˈgæri/
Gene /dʒiːn/
Geoffrey /ˈdʒefri/
(**Geoff**) /(**Jeff**) /dʒef/
George /dʒɔːdʒ/
Harry /ˈhæri/
Ian /ˈiːən/
Jack /dʒæk/
Jacob /ˈdʒeɪkəb/
(**Jake**) /dʒeɪk/
James /dʒeɪmz/
(**Jim**) /dʒɪm/
Jamie /ˈdʒeɪmi/
John /dʒɒn/
Jonathan /ˈdʒɒnəθən/
Joseph /ˈdʒəʊzɪf/
(**Joe**) /dʒəʊ/
Joshua /ˈdʒɒʃjuə/
(**Josh**) /dʒɒʃ/
Kevin /ˈkevɪn/
Liam /ˈliːəm/
Louis /ˈluːi/
Luke /luːk/
Mark /mɑːk/
Martin /ˈmɑːtɪn/
Matthew /ˈmæθjuː/
(**Matt**) /mæt/
Max /mæks/
Michael /ˈmaɪkəl/
(**Mike**) /maɪk/
(**Mick**) /mɪk/
Nathan /ˈneɪθən/
Nicholas /ˈnɪkələs/
(**Nick**) /nɪk/
Oliver /ˈɒlɪvə/
(**Ollie**) /ˈɒli/
Oscar /ˈɒskə/
Patrick /ˈpætrɪk/
(**Pat**) /pæt/
(**Paddy**) /ˈpædi/
Paul /pɔːl/
Peter /ˈpiːtə/
(**Pete**) /piːt/
Philip /ˈfɪlɪp/
(**Phil**) /fɪl/
Richard /ˈrɪtʃəd/
(**Ricky**) /ˈrɪki/
(**Dick**) /dɪk/
(**Rick**) /rɪk/
Robert /ˈrɒbət/
(**Bob**) /bɒb/
(**Rob**) /rɒb/
(**Bobby**) /bɒbi/
Samuel /ˈsæmjʊəl/
(**Sam**) /sæm/
Scott /skɒt/
Simon /ˈsaɪmən/
Steven /ˈstiːvən/
(**Steve**) /stiːv/
Thomas /ˈtɒməs/
(**Tom**) /tɒm/
(**Tommy**) /ˈtɒmi/
Timothy /ˈtɪməθi/
(**Tim**) /tɪm/
Tyler /ˈtaɪlə/
William /ˈwɪljəm/
(**Billy**) /ˈbɪli/
(**Bill**) /bɪl/
(**Will**) /wɪl/

Female names

Alice /ˈælɪs/
Alison /ˈælɪsən/
Amanda /əˈmændə/
(**Mandy**) /ˈmændi/
Amy /ˈeɪmi/
Ann/Anne /æn/
Anna /ˈænə/
Ashley /ˈæʃli/
Bridget /ˈbrɪdʒɪt/
Carol /ˈkærəl/
Caroline /ˈkærəlaɪn/
Catherine/Katherine/
Kathryn /ˈkæθrɪn/
(**Kate**) /keɪt/
(**Katie**) /ˈkeɪti/
(**Cath**) /kæθ/
Charlotte /ˈʃɑːlət/
Chloe /ˈkləʊi/
Christine /ˈkrɪstiːn/
(**Chris**) /krɪs/
Clare/Claire /kleər/
Daisy /ˈdeɪzi/
Deborah /ˈdebrə/
(**Debbie**) /ˈdebi/
Diane /daɪˈæn/
Elizabeth /ɪˈlɪzəbəθ/
(**Beth**) /beθ/
(**Liz**) /lɪz/
Ella /ˈelə/
Emily /ˈemɪli/
Emma /ˈemə/
Georgia /ˈdʒɔːdʒə/
Grace /greɪs/
Hannah /ˈhænə/
Helen /ˈhelən/
Isabel/Isobel /ˈɪzəbel/
(**Izzie**) /ˈɪzi/
Jane /dʒeɪn/
Jennifer /ˈdʒenɪfə/
(**Jenny**) /ˈdʒeni/
Jessica /ˈdʒesɪkə/
Joanne /dʒəʊˈæn/
(**Jo**) /dʒəʊ/
Julie /ˈdʒuːli/
Karen /ˈkærən/
Laura /ˈlɔːrə/
Lauren /ˈlɪrrən/
Lily /ˈlɪli/
Linda /ˈlɪndə/
Lucy /ˈluːsi/
Margaret /ˈmɑːgərət/
(**Maggie**) /ˈmægi/
Mary /ˈmeəri/
Megan /ˈmegən/
Molly /ˈmɒli/
Olivia /əˈlɪviə/
Rachel /ˈreɪtʃəl/
Rebecca /rɪˈbekə/
(**Becky**) /ˈbeki/
Rosie /ˈrəʊzi/
Ruth /ruːθ/
Sarah /ˈseərə/
Sharon /ˈʃærən/
Sophie /ˈsəʊfi/
Susan /ˈsuːzən/
(**Sue**) /suː/
Tracy /ˈtreɪsi/
Valerie /ˈvæləri/
Zoe /ˈzəʊi/

Geographical names

This list shows the spellings and pronunciations of countries, regions, and continents. Each name is followed by its related adjective. Most of the time you can use the adjective to talk about a person who comes from each place. However, in some cases you must use a special word, which is listed in the column labelled 'Person' (for example, **Finland**, **Finnish**, **Finn**).

To talk about more than one person from a particular place, add '**s**', except for:

- words ending in '**ese**' or '**s**', which remain the same (**Chinese**, **Swiss**)
- words ending in '**man**' or '**woman**', which change to '**men**' and '**women**' (**Irishman**).

This list is for reference only. Inclusion does not imply or suggest status as a sovereign nation.

Name	Adjective	Person (if different from adj)
Afghanistan /æf'gænɪstæn/	**Afghan** /'æfgæn/	
Africa /'æfrikə/	**African** /'æfrikən/	
Albania /æl'beɪniə/	**Albanian** /æl'beɪniən/	
Algeria /æl'dʒɪəriə/	**Algerian** /æl'dʒɪəriən/	
Central America /ˌsentrəl ə'merɪkə/	**Central American** /ˌsentrəl ə'merɪkən/	
North America /ˌnɔːθ ə'merɪkə/	**North American** /ˌnɔːθ ə'merɪkən/	
South America /ˌsaʊθ ə'merɪkə/	**South American** /ˌsaʊθ ə'merɪkən/	
Andorra /æn'dɔːrə/	**Andorran** /æn'dɔːrən/	
Angola /æŋ'gəʊlə/	**Angolan** /æŋ'gəʊlən/	
Antigua and Barbuda /æn'tiːgə æn bɑː'bjuːdə/	**Antiguan** /æn'tiːgən/	
Argentina /ˌɑːdʒən'tiːnə/	**Argentine** /'ɑːdʒəntaɪn/	
Armenia /ɑː'miːniə/	**Armenian** /ɑː'miːniən/	
Asia /'eɪʒə/	**Asian** /'eɪʒən/	
Australia /ɒs'treɪliə/	**Australian** /ɒs'treɪliən/	
Austria /'ɒstriə/	**Austrian** /'ɒstriən/	
Azerbaijan /ˌæzəbaɪ'dʒɑːn/	**Azerbaijani** /ˌæzəbaɪ'dʒɑːni/	**Azeri** /ə'zeəri/
The Bahamas /ðə bə'hɑːməz/	**Bahamian** /bə'heɪmiən/	
Bahrain /bɑː'reɪn/	**Bahraini** /bɑː'reɪni/	
Bangladesh /ˌbæŋglə'deʃ/	**Bangladeshi** /ˌbæŋglə'deʃi/	
Barbados /bɑː'beɪdɒs/	**Barbadian** /bɑː'beɪdiən/	
Belarus /ˌbelə'ruːs/	**Belorussian** /ˌbelə'rʌʃən/	
Belgium /'beldʒəm/	**Belgian** /'beldʒən/	
Belize /be'liːz/	**Belizian** /bə'liːziən/	
Benin /be'niːn/	**Beninese** /ˌbenɪ'niːz/	
Bhutan /buː'tɑːn/	**Bhutanese** /ˌbuːtə'niːz/	
Bolivia /bə'lɪviə/	**Bolivian** /bə'lɪviən/	
Bosnia-Herzegovina /ˌbɒzniəˌhɜːzəgɒ'vɪnə/	**Bosnian** /'bɒzniən/	
Botswana /bɒt'swɑːnə/	**Botswanan** /bɒt'swɑːnən/	**Motswana** /mɒt'swɑːnə/
Brazil /brə'zɪl/	**Brazilian** /brə'zɪliən/	
Brunei /bruː'naɪ/	**Bruneian** /bruː'naɪən/	
Bulgaria /bʌl'geəriə/	**Bulgarian** /bʌl'geəriən/	

Name	Adjective	Person
Burkina Faso /bɜːˈkiːnə ˈfæseʊ/	**Burkinabe** /bɜːˈkiːnəˌbeɪ/	
Burundi /bʊˈrʊndi/	**Burundi** /bʊˈrʊndi/	**Burundian** /bʊˈrʊndiən/
Cambodia /ˌkæmˈbəʊdiə/	**Cambodian** /ˌkæmˈbəʊdiən/	
Cameroon /ˌkæməˈruːn/	**Cameroonian** /ˌkæməˈruːniən/	
Canada /ˈkænədə/	**Canadian** /kəˈneɪdiən/	
Cape Verde /ˌkeɪp ˈvɜːd/	**Cape Verdean** /ˌkeɪp ˈvɜːdiən/	
The Central African Republic /ðə ˈsentrəl ˈæfrɪkən rɪˈpʌblɪk/	**Central African** /ˌsentrəl ˈæfrɪkən/	
Chad /tʃæd/	**Chadian** /ˈtʃædiən/	
Chile /ˈtʃɪli/	**Chilean** /ˈtʃɪliən/	
China /ˈtʃaɪnə/	**Chinese** /tʃaɪˈniːz/	
Colombia /kəˈlʌmbiə/	**Colombian** /kəˈlʌmbiən/	
Comoros /ˈkɒmərəʊz/	**Comoran** /kəˈmɔːrən/	
The Democratic Republic of the Congo /ðə ˌdeməˈkrætɪk rɪˈpʌblɪk əv ðə ˈkɒŋgəʊ/	**Congolese** /ˌkɒŋgəˈliːz/	
The Republic of the Congo /ðə rɪˈpʌblɪk əv ðə ˈkɒŋgəʊ/	**Congolese** /ˌkɒŋgəˈliːz/	
Costa Rica /ˌkɒstəˈriːkə/	**Costa Rican** /ˌkɒstəˈriːkən/	
Côte d'Ivoire /ˌkəʊt diːˈvwɑː/	**Ivorian** /aɪˈvɔːriən/	
Croatia /krəʊˈeɪʃə/	**Croatian** /krəʊˈeɪʃən/	**Croat** /ˈkrəʊæt/
Cuba /ˈkjuːbə/	**Cuban** /ˈkjuːbən/	
Cyprus /ˈsaɪprəs/	**Cypriot** /ˈsɪpriət/	
The Czech Republic /ðə tʃek rɪˈpʌblɪk/	**Czech** /tʃek/	
Denmark /ˈdenmɑːk/	**Danish** /ˈdeɪnɪʃ/	**Dane** /deɪn/
Djibouti /dʒɪˈbuːti/	**Djiboutian** /dʒɪˈbuːtiən/	
Dominica /ˌdəˈmɪnɪkə/	**Dominican** /dəˈmɪnɪkən/	
The Dominican Republic /ðə dəˈmɪnɪkən rɪˈpʌblɪk/	**Dominican** /dəˈmɪnɪkən/	
East Timor /iːst ˈtiːmɔːʳ/	**East Timorese** /iːst ˌtiːmɔːˈriːz/	
Ecuador /ˈekwədɔːʳ/	**Ecuadorian** /ˌekwəˈdɔːriən/	
Egypt /ˈiːdʒɪpt/	**Egyptian** /ɪˈdʒɪpʃən/	
El Salvador /ˌelˈsælvədɔːʳ/	**Salvadoran** /ˌsælvəˈdɔːrən/	
Equatorial Guinea /ˌekwətɔːriəl ˈgɪni/	**Equatorial Guinean** /ˌekwətɔːriəl ˈgɪniən/	
Eritrea /ˌerɪˈtreɪə/	**Eritrean** /ˌerɪˈtreɪən/	
Estonia /esˈtəʊniə/	**Estonian** /esˈtəʊniən/	
Ethiopia /ˌiːθiˈəʊpiə/	**Ethiopian** /ˌiːθiˈəʊpiən/	
Europe /ˈjʊərəp/	**European** /ˌjʊərəˈpiːən/	
Fiji /ˈfiːdʒiː/	**Fijian** /fɪˈdʒiːən/	
Finland /ˈfɪnlənd/	**Finnish** /ˈfɪnɪʃ/	**Finn** /fɪn/
France /frɑːnts/	**French** /frentʃ/	**Frenchman** /ˈfrentʃmən/
Gabon /gæbˈɒn/	**Gabonese** /ˌgæbənˈiːz/	
The Gambia /ðəˈgæmbiə/	**Gambian** /ˈgæmbiən/	
Georgia /ˈdʒɔːdʒə/	**Georgian** /ˈdʒɔːdʒən/	
Germany /ˈdʒɜːməni/	**German** /ˈdʒɜːmən/	
Ghana /ˈgɑːnə/	**Ghanaian** /gɑːˈneɪən/	
Greece /griːs/	**Greek** /griːk/	
Greenland /ˈgriːnlənd/	**Greenland** /ˈgriːnlənd/	**Greenlander** /ˈgriːnləndəʳ/
Grenada /grəˈneɪdə/	**Grenadian** /grəˈneɪdiən/	
Guatemala /ˌgwɑːtəˈmɑːlə/	**Guatemalan** /ˌgwɑːtəˈmɑːlən/	
Guinea /ˈgɪni/	**Guinean** /ˈgɪniən/	

Name	Adjective	Person
Guinea-Bissau /ˌɡɪnibɪˈsaʊ/	**Guinea-Bissauan** /ˌɡɪnibɪˈsaʊən/	
Guyana /ɡaɪˈænə/	**Guyanese** /ˌɡaɪəˈniːz/	
Haiti /ˈheɪti/	**Haitian** /ˈheɪʃən/	
Honduras /hɒnˈdjʊərəs/	**Honduran** /hɒnˈdjʊərən/	
Hungary /ˈhʌŋɡəri/	**Hungarian** /hʌŋˈɡeəriən/	
Iceland /ˈaɪsləndˈ/	**Icelandic** /aɪsˈlændɪk/	**Icelander** /ˈaɪsləndəʳ/
India /ˈɪndiə/	**Indian** /ˈɪndiən/	
Indonesia /ˌɪndəˈniːʒə/	**Indonesian** /ˌɪndəˈniːʒən/	
Iran /ɪˈrɑːn/	**Iranian** /ɪˈreɪniən/	
Iraq /ɪˈrɑːk/	**Iraqi** /ɪˈrɑːki/	
Ireland /ˈaɪələnd/	**Irish** /ˈaɪrɪʃ/	**Irishman** /ˈaɪrɪʃmən/
Israel /ˈɪzreɪl/	**Israeli** /ɪzˈreɪli/	
Italy /ˈɪtəli/	**Italian** /ɪˈtæliən/	
Jamaica /dʒəˈmeɪkə/	**Jamaican** /dʒəˈmeɪkən/	
Japan /dʒəˈpæn/	**Japanese** /ˌdʒæpəˈniːz/	
Jordan /ˈdʒɔːdn/	**Jordanian** /dʒɔːˈdeɪniən/	
Kazakhstan /ˌkæzækˈstɑːn/	**Kazakh** /kæˈzæk/	
Kenya /ˈkenjə/	**Kenyan** /ˈkenjən/	
Kiribati /ˌkɪrəˈbæs/	**Kiribati** /ˌkɪrəˈbæs/	
North Korea /ˌnɔːθ kəˈriːə/	**North Korean** /ˌnɔːθ kəˈriːən/	
South Korea /ˌsaʊθ kəˈriːə/	**South Korean** /ˌsaʊθ kəˈriːən/	
Kuwait /kuːˈweɪt/	**Kuwaiti** /kuːˈweɪti/	
Kyrgyzstan /ˌkɜːɡɪˈstɑːn/	**Kyrgyz** /ˈkɜːɡɪz/	
Laos /lɑʊs/	**Laotian** /ˈlɑʊʃən/	
Latvia /ˈlætviə/	**Latvian** /ˈlætviən/	
Lebanon /ˈlebənən/	**Lebanese** /ˌlebəˈniːz/	
Lesotho /ləˈsuːtuː/	**Basotho** /bəˈsuːtuː/	**Mosotho** /məˈsuːtuː/
Liberia /laɪˈbɪəriə/	**Liberian** /laɪˈbɪəriən/	
Libya /ˈlɪbiə/	**Libyan** /ˈlɪbiən/	
Liechtenstein /ˈlɪktənstaɪn/	**Liechtenstein** /ˈlɪktənstaɪn/	**Liechtensteiner** /ˈlɪktənstaɪnəʳ/
Lithuania /ˌlɪθjuˈeɪniə/	**Lithuanian** /ˌlɪθjuˈeɪniən/	
Luxembourg /ˈlʌksəmbɜːɡ/	**Luxembourg** /ˈlʌksəmbɜːɡ/	**Luxembourger** /ˈlʌksəmbɜːɡəʳ/
Madagascar /ˌmædəˈɡæskəʳ/	**Malagasy** /ˌmæləˈɡæsi/	
Malawi /məˈlɑːwi/	**Malawian** /məˈlɑːwiən/	
Malaysia /məˈleɪziə/	**Malaysian** /məˈleɪziən/	
The Maldives /ðə ˈmɔːldiːvz/	**Maldivian** /mɔːlˈdɪviən/	
Mali /ˈmɑːli/	**Malian** /ˈmɑːliən/	
Malta /ˈmɔːltə/	**Maltese** /mɔːlˈtiːz/	
The Marshall Islands /ðə ˈmɑːʃəl ˈaɪləndz/	**Marshallese** /ˌmɑːʃəˈliːz/	
Mauritania /ˌmɒrɪˈteɪniə/	**Mauritanian** /ˈmɒrɪˈteɪniən/	
Mauritius /məˈrɪʃəs/	**Mauritian** /məˈrɪʃən/	
Mexico /ˈmeksɪkəʊ/	**Mexican** /ˈmeksɪkən/	
Micronesia /ˌmaɪkrəˈniːziə/	**Micronesian** /ˌmaɪkrəˈniːziən/	
Moldova /mɒlˈdəʊvə/	**Moldovan** /mɒlˈdəʊvən/	
Monaco /ˈmɒnəkəʊ/	**Monégasque** /mɒneɪˈɡæsk/	
Mongolia /mɒŋˈɡəʊliə/	**Mongolian** /mɒŋˈɡəʊliən/	
Montenegro /ˌmɒntɪˈniːˌɡrəʊ/	**Montenegrin** /ˌmɒntɪˈniːˌɡrən/	
Morocco /məˈrɒkəʊ/	**Moroccan** /məˈrɒkən/	
Mozambique /ˌməʊzæmˈbiːk/	**Mozambican** /ˌməʊzæmˈbiːkən/	

Name	Adjective	Person
Myanmar /ˈmjænmɑːʳ/	**Burmese** /bɜːˈmiːz/	
Namibia /nəˈmɪbiə/	**Namibian** /nəˈmɪbiən/	
Nauru /nɑːˈuːruː/	**Nauruan** /nɑːuːˈruːən/	
Nepal /nəˈpɔːl/	**Nepalese** /ˌnepəlˈiːz/	
The Netherlands /ðə ˈneðələnz/	**Dutch** /dʌtʃ/	**Dutchman** /ˈdʌtʃmən/
New Zealand /ˌnjuːˈziːlənd/	**New Zealand** /ˌnjuːˈziːlənd/	**New Zealander** /ˌnjuːˈziːləndəʳ/
Nicaragua /ˌnɪkəˈrɑːgwə/	**Nicaraguan** /ˌnɪkəˈrɑːgwən/	
Niger /niːˈʒeə/	**Nigerien** /niːˈʒeəriən/	
Nigeria /naɪˈdʒɪəriə/	**Nigerian** /naɪˈdʒɪəriən/	
Norway /ˈnɔːweɪ/	**Norwegian** /nɔːˈwiːdʒən/	
Oman /əʊˈmɑːn/	**Omani** /əʊˈmɑːni/	
Pakistan /ˌpɑːkɪˈstɑːn/	**Pakistani** /ˌpɑːkɪˈstɑːni/	
Palestine /ˈpæləstaɪn/	**Palestinian** /ˌpæləˈstɪniən/	
Panama /ˈpænəmɑː/	**Panamanian** /ˌpænəˈmeɪniən/	
Papua New Guinea /ˈpæpuə njuː ˈgɪni/	**Papua New Guinean** /ˈpæpuə njuː ˈgɪniən/	
Paraguay /ˈpærəgwaɪ/	**Paraguayan** /ˌpærəˈgwaɪən/	
Peru /pəˈruː/	**Peruvian** /pəˈruːviən/	
The Philippines /ðə ˈfɪlɪpiːnz/	**Philippine** /ˈfɪlɪpiːn/	**Filipino** /ˌfɪlɪˈpiːnəʊ/
Poland /ˈpəʊlənd/	**Polish** /ˈpəʊlɪʃ/	**Pole** /pəʊl/
Portugal /ˈpɔːtʃəgəl/	**Portuguese** /ˌpɔːtʃəˈgiːz/	
Qatar /ˈkʌtɑːʳ/	**Qatari** /kʌˈtɑːri/	
Romania /rʊˈmeɪniə/	**Romanian** /rʊˈmeɪniən/	
Russia /ˈrʌʃə/	**Russian** /ˈrʌʃən/	
Rwanda /ruˈændə/	**Rwandan** /ruˈændən/	
Saint Kitts and Nevis /seɪnt kɪts ən ˈnevɪs /	**Kittsian** /ˈkɪtsiən/	
Saint Lucia /seɪnt ˈluːʃə/	**Saint Lucian** /seɪnt ˈluːʃən/	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines /seɪnt ˈvɪntsənt ən ðə ˌgrenəˈdiːnz/	**Vincentian** /vɪnˈsɪntiən/	
Samoa /səˈməʊə/	**Samoan** /səˈməʊən/	
San Marino /ˌsænməˈriːnəʊ/	**Sanmarinese** /ˌsænmærɪˈniːz/	
São Tomé and Príncipe /ˌsaʊ təˈmeɪ ən ˈprɪnsɪpəɪ/	**Sao Tomean** /ˌsaʊ təˈmeɪən/	
Saudi Arabia /ˌsaʊdi əˈreɪbiə/	**Saudi** /ˈsaʊdi/	
Scandinavia /ˌskændɪˌneɪviə/	**Scandinavian** /ˌskændɪˌneɪviən/	
Senegal /ˌsenɪˈgɔːl/	**Senegalese** /ˌsenɪgəˈliːz/	
Serbia /ˌsɜɣbiə/	**Serbian** /ˈsɜɣbiən/	
The Seychelles /ðə seɪˈʃelz/	**Seychelles** /seɪˈʃelz/	**Seychellois** /seɪʃelˈwɑː/
Sierra Leone /siˌerəliˈəʊn/	**Sierra Leonean** /siˈerə liˈəʊniən/	
Singapore /ˌsɪŋəˈpɔːʳ/	**Singaporean** /ˌsɪŋəˈpɔːriən/	
Slovakia /sləˈvækiə/	**Slovak** /ˈsləʊvæk/	
Slovenia /sləˈviːniə/	**Slovenian** /sləˈviːniən/	**Slovene** /ˈsləʊviːn/
The Solomon Islands /ðə ˈsɒləmən ˈaɪləndz/	**Solomon Islander** /ˈsɒləmən ˈaɪləndəʳ/	
Somalia /səˈmɑːliə/	**Somali** /səˈmɑːli/	
South Africa /ˌsaʊθ ˈæfrɪkə/	**South African** /ˌsaʊθ ˈæfrɪkən/	
Spain /speɪn/	**Spanish** /ˈspænɪʃ/	**Spaniard** /ˈspænjəd/
Sri Lanka /ˌsriːˈlæŋkə/	**Sri Lankan** /ˌsriːˈlæŋkən/	

Name	Adjective	Person
Sudan /suː'dɑːn/	**Sudanese** /ˌsuːdə'niːz/	
Suriname /ˌsʊərɪ'næm/	**Surinamese** /ˌsʊərɪnæm'iːz/	
Swaziland /'swɑːzilænd/	**Swazi** /'swɑːzi/	
Sweden /'swiːdn/	**Swedish** /'swiːdɪʃ/	**Swede** /swiːd/
Switzerland /'swɪtsələnd/	**Swiss** /swɪs/	
Syria /'sɪriə/	**Syrian** /'sɪriən/	
Taiwan /ˌtaɪ'wɑːn/	**Taiwanese** /ˌtaɪwə'niːz/	
Tajikistan /tɑː'dʒiːkɪˌstɑːn/	**Tajik** /tɑː'dʒiːk/	
Tanzania /ˌtænzə'niːə/	**Tanzanian** /ˌtænzə'niːən/	
Thailand /'taɪlænd/	**Thai** /taɪ/	
Tibet /tɪ'bet/	**Tibetan** /tɪ'betn/	
Togo /'təʊgəʊ/	**Togolese** /ˌtəʊgə'liːz/	
Tonga /'tɒŋə/	**Tongan** /'tɒŋən/	
Trinidad and Tobago /'trɪnɪdæd ən tə'beɪgəʊ/	**Trinidadian** /ˌtrɪnɪ'dædiən/	
Tunisia /tjuː'nɪziə/	**Tunisian** /tjuː'nɪziən/	
Turkey /'tɜːki/	**Turkish** /'tɜːkɪʃ/	**Turk** /tɜːk/
Turkmenistan /tɜːkˌmenɪ'stɑːn/	**Turkmen** /'tɜːkmen/	
Tuvalu /tuː'vɑːluː/	**Tuvaluan** /ˌtuːvɑː'luːən/	
Uganda /juː'gændə/	**Ugandan** /juː'gændən/	
Ukraine /juː'kreɪn/	**Ukrainian** /juː'kreɪniən/	
The United Arab Emirates /ðə juː'naɪtɪd 'ærəb 'emɪrəts/	**Emirian** /e'mɪriən/	
The United Kingdom /ðə juː'naɪtɪd 'kɪŋdəm/	**British** /'brɪtɪʃ/	**Briton** /'brɪtən/
The United States of America /ðə juː'naɪtɪd steɪts əv ə'merɪkə/	**American** /ə'merɪkən/	
Uruguay /'jʊərəgwaɪ/	**Uruguayan** /ˌjʊərə'gwaɪən/	
Uzbekistan /ʊzˌbekɪ'stɑːn/	**Uzbek** /'ʊzbek/	
Vanuatu /ˌvænu'ɑːtuː/	**Vanuatuan** /ˌvænuɑː'tuːən/	
Vatican City /'vætɪkən 'sɪti/	**Vatican** /'vætɪkən/	
Venezuela /ˌvenɪ'zweɪlə/	**Venezuelan** /ˌvenɪ'zweɪlən/	
Vietnam /ˌviːet'næm/	**Vietnamese** /ˌviːetnə'miːz/	
Western Sahara /ˌwestən ˌsə'hɑːrə/	**Sahrawian** /sɑː'rɑːwɪən	
Yemen /'jemən/	**Yemeni** /'jeməni/	
Yugoslavia /ˌjuːgəʊ'slɑːviə/	**Yugoslav** /'juːgəʊslɑːv/	
Zambia /'zæmbiə/	**Zambian** /'zæmbiən/	
Zimbabwe /zɪm'bɑːbweɪ/	**Zimbabwean** /zɪm'bɑːbwiən/	

Regular verb tenses

The simple tenses

Present Simple

used for action in the present, for things that are always true or that happen regularly, and for opinions and beliefs

I/we/you/they	arrive (**do not** arrive)
he/she/it	arrive**s** (**does not** arrive)

Past Simple

used for completed actions and events in the past

I/we/you/they	arrive**d** (**did not** arrive)
he/she/it	arrive**d** (**did not** arrive)

Future Simple

used for actions and events in the future

I/we/you/they	**will** arrive (**will not** arrive)
he/she/it	**will** arrive (**will not** arrive)

Present Perfect

used to show that an event happened or an action was completed at some time before the present

I/we/you/they	**have** arrive**d** (**have not** arrive**d**)
he/she/it	**has** arrive**d** (**has not** arrive**d**)

Past Perfect

used to show that an event happened or an action was completed before a particular time in the past

I/we/you/they	**had** arrive**d** (**had not** arrive**d**)
he/she/it	**had** arrive**d** (**had not** arrive**d**)

Future Perfect

used to show that something will be completed before a particular time in the future

I/we/you/they	**will have** arrive**d** (**will not have** arrive**d**)
he/she/it	**will have** arrive**d** (**will not have** arrive**d**)

The continuous/progressive tenses

Present Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events that are happening or developing now, for future plans, or to show that an event is repeated

I	**am** arriv**ing** (**am not** arriv**ing**)
we/you/they	**are** arriv**ing** (**are not** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**is** arriv**ing** (**is not** arriv**ing**)

Past Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events in the past that were not yet finished or that were interrupted

I	**was** arriv**ing** (**was not** arriv**ing**)
we/you/they	**were** arriv**ing** (**were not** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**was** arriv**ing** (**was not** arriv**ing**)

Future Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events in the future that will continue into the future

I/we/you/they	**will be** arriv**ing** (**will not be** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**will be** arriv**ing** (**will not be** arriv**ing**)

Present Perfect Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events that started in the past but are still happening now, or for past actions which only recently finished and their effects are seen now

I/we/you/they	**have been** arriv**ing** (**have not been** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**has been** arriv**ing** (**has not been** arriv**ing**)

Past Perfect Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events that happened for a period of time but were completed before a particular time in the past

I/we/you/they	**had been** arriv**ing** (**had not been** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**had been** arriv**ing** (**had not been** arriv**ing**)

Future Perfect Continuous/Progressive

used for actions or events that will already be happening at a particular time in the future

I/we/you/they	**will have been** arriv**ing** (**will not have been** arriv**ing**)
he/she/it	**will have been** arriv**ing** (**will not have been** arriv**ing**)

Irregular verbs

This list gives the infinitive form of the verb, its past tense, and then the past participle. If two forms are given, look the verb up in the dictionary to see whether they have a different meaning.

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
be	was/were	been
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten (*also US*) beat
become	became	become
befall	befell	befallen
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bid	bid, bade	bid, bidden
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast (*also US*) broadcasted	broadcast (*also US*) broadcasted
build	built	built
burn	burnt, burned	burnt, burned
burst	burst	burst
bust	(*UK*) bust, (*US*) busted	(*UK*) bust, (*US*) busted
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dive	dived (*also US*) dove	dived
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, (*also UK*) dreamt	dreamed, (*also UK*) dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelled, (*also UK*) dwelt	dwelled, (*also UK*) dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forecast	forecast, forecasted	forecast, forecasted
foresee	foresaw	foreseen
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forgo	forwent	forgone
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got (*also US*) gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
input	inputted, input	inputted, input
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
know	knew	known

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leaned (*also UK*) leant	leaned (*also UK*) leant
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped
learn	learned (*also UK*) learnt	learned (*also UK*) learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay, lied	lain, lied
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mislay	mislaid	mislaid
mislead	misled	misled
misread	misread	misread
misspell	misspelled (*also UK*) misspelt	misspelled (*also UK*) misspelt
mistake	mistook	mistaken
misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood
mow	mowed	mown, mowed
outdo	outdid	outdone
outgrow	outgrew	outgrown
overcome	overcame	overcome
overdo	overdid	overdone
overhang	overhung	overhung
overhear	overheard	overheard
override	overrode	overridden
overrun	overran	overrun
oversee	oversaw	overseen
oversleep	overslept	overslept
overtake	overtook	overtaken
overthrow	overthrew	overthrown
pay	paid	paid
plead	pleaded (*also US*) pled	pleaded (*also US*) pled
prove	proved (*also US*) proven	proved,
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt
repay	repaid	repaid
rethink	rethought	rethought
rewind	rewound	rewound

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
rewrite	rewrote	rewritten
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn (*also US*) sawed
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared	sheared, shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelled (*also UK*) smelt	smelled (*also UK*) smelt
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
spell	spelled (*also UK*) spelt	spelled (*also UK*) spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled (*also UK*) spilt	spilled (*also UK*) spilt
spin	spun	spun
spit	spat (*also US*) spit	spat (*also US*) spit
split	split	split
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank (*also US*) stunk	stunk
stride	strode	strode
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove,strived	striven, strived
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
tread	trod	trodden
undercut	undercut	undercut
undergo	underwent	undergone
understand	understood	understood
undertake	undertook	undertaken
undo	undid	undone
unwind	unwound	unwound
uphold	upheld	upheld
upset	upset	upset
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove, weaved	woven, weaved
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
withhold	withheld	withheld
withstand	withstood	withstood
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

Word beginnings and endings

You can change the meaning of many English words simply by adding a group of letters to the beginning or the ending of a word.

Prefixes

A group of letters added to the beginning of a word is called a **prefix**. Here is a list of the most common prefixes and examples of how they are used.

Anglo- relating to the UK or England *an Anglophile* (= someone who loves England)
anti- **1** opposed to or against *anti-racist laws* **2** preventing or destroying *an anti-aircraft missile*
astro- relating to stars or outer space *astronomer • astrophysics*
audio- relating to hearing or sound *audiotape*
auto- **1** operating without being controlled by humans *autopilot* (= a computer that directs an aircraft) **2** self *an autobiography* (= a book that someone writes about their own life)
bi- two *bilingual* (= speaking two languages) • *bimonthly* (= happening twice in a month or once every two months)
bio- relating to living things or human life *biodiversity • bioethics*
centi-, cent- hundred *a centimetre • a century*
co- with or together *a co-author • to coexist*
contra- against or opposite *to contradict* (= say the opposite) • *contraception* (= something that is used to prevent pregnancy)
counter- opposing or as a reaction to *a counter-attack* (= an attack on someone who has attacked you)
cross- **1** across *cross-border* **2** including different groups or subjects *a cross-party committee* (= one formed from many political parties) • *cross-cultural*
cyber- relating to electronic communications, especially the Internet *cyberspace*
de- to take something away *deforestation* (= when the trees in an area are cut down)
deca- ten *decade*
demi- half, partly *demitasse* (=a small coffee cup) • *demigod* (=a creature that is part god and part human)
dis- not or the opposite of *dishonest • disbelief • to disagree*
e- electronic, usually relating to the Internet *email • e-commerce*
eco- relating to the environment *eco-friendly tourism* (= tourism which does not damage the environment)
equi- equal, equally *equidistant* (=the same distance from two or more places)
Euro- relating to Europe *Europop* (= modern, young people's music from Europe)
ex- from before *an ex-boyfriend • an ex-boss*
extra- outside of or in addition to *extracurricular activities* (= activities that are in addition to the usual school work)
geo- of the earth *geothermal* (=of or connected with the heat inside the earth)
hydro- relating to water *hydroponic* (=a method of growing plants in water)
hyper- having a lot of or too much of a quality *hyperactive • hypersensitive* (= more than normally sensitive)
ill- in a way which is bad or not suitable *ill-prepared • an ill-judged remark*
in-, il-, im-, ir- not *incorrect • illegal • impossible • irregular*
inter- between or among *international • an interdepartmental meeting*
intra- within *an intranet*
kilo- a thousand *a kilometre • a kilogram*
macro- on a large scale *macroeconomics* (= the study of economics at a national or international level)
maxi- most, very large *maximum*
mega- **1** *informal* extremely *megarich* (= extremely rich) **2** one million *40 megabytes*
micro- very small *a microchip • microscopic* (= extremely small)
mid- in the middle of *mid-July • a man in his mid-forties • mid-afternoon/-morning*
milli- a thousandth *a millisecond*
mini- small *a miniskirt* (= very short skirt) • *a minibus*
mis- not or badly *mistrust • to misbehave*
mono- one or single *monolingual • a monologue*
multi- many *a multi-millionaire • a multi-storey car park*
nano- **1** one billionth *nanometre* **2** extremely small *nanotechnology*
neo- new *neo-fascists*
non- not or the opposite of *non-alcoholic drinks • non-smokers*
out- more than or better than *to outgrow • to outnumber • to outdo someone* (= to show that you are better than someone)
over- too much *to overeat • overpopulated*
poly- many *polygamy* (= having more than one husband or wife at the same time) • *a polygon* (= shape with many sides)
post- after or later than *postwar • a postgraduate*
pre- before or earlier than *pre-tax profits • pre-school*

pro- supporting *pro-democracy demonstrations*
pseudo- false *a pseudonym* (= false name used especially by a writer) • *pseudo-academic*
quasi- partly *quasi-religious ideas*
re- again *to remarry* • *a reusable container*
semi- half or partly *a semicircle* • *semi-frozen*
socio- relating to society *socio-economic*
sub- **1** under or below *subzero temperatures* **2** less important or a smaller part of a larger whole *a subsection*
super- extremely or more than usual *a supermodel* • *super-rich*
techno- relating to technology *technophile* (=a person who loves technology)
tele- **1** done using a telephone *telesales* **2** connected with television *telecast* (=something that is broadcast on television) **3** over a long distance *telephoto lens* (=a camera lens that makes distant objects look nearer)
thermo- relating to heat or temperature *a thermostat* (= piece of equipment that controls temperature) • *a thermometer*
trans- **1** across *transatlantic flights* **2** showing a change *to transform* • *to translate*
tri- three *a triangle* • *a tripod*
ultra- extremely *ultra-modern architecture* • *ultra-careful*
uber- *humorous* used before nouns to mean 'extreme' or 'extremely good or successful' *uber-successful*
un- not or the opposite of *unhappy* • *unfair* • *to unfasten*
under- **1** not enough *undercooked potatoes* • *underprivileged children* **2** below *underwear* • *an underpass*

Suffixes

A **suffix** is a group of letters at the end of a word which changes the word's meaning and often its part of speech. Here is a list of the most common suffixes and examples of how they are used.

-able,-ible changes a verb into an adjective meaning 'able to be' *avoid → avoidable* • *admire → admirable* • *like → likeable*
-age changes a verb into a noun meaning 'the action described by the verb or the result of that action' *marry → marriage* • *break → breakage* • *spill → spillage*
-aholic unable to stop doing or taking something *chocaholic* (=someone who cannot stop eating chocolate)
-al **1** changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'relating to' *culture → cultural* • *nation → national* • *nature → natural* **2** changes a verb into a noun meaning 'the action described by the verb' *approve → approval* • *remove → removal*
-an, -ian **1** makes a noun meaning 'a person who does something' *historian* • *politician* **2** makes an adjective meaning 'belonging somewhere' *American*
-ance, -ence, -ancy, -ency makes a noun meaning 'an action, state, or quality' *performance* • *independence* • *preference*
-athon an event or activity that lasts a long time, usually to raise money for charity *a walkathon* (=a long walk)
-ation, -ion changes a verb into a noun meaning 'the process of the action described by the verb, or the result of that action' *educate → education* • *explain → explanation* • *connect → connection*
-ed makes an adjective meaning, 'having this thing or quality' *bearded* • *coloured* • *surprised*
-ee changes a verb into a noun meaning 'someone that something is done to' *employ → employee* • *interview → interviewee* • *train → trainee*
-en changes an adjective into a verb meaning 'to become or make something become' *thick → thicken* • *fat → fatten* • *soft → soften*
-ence, -ency See **-ance**
-er, -or changes a verb into a noun meaning 'the person or thing that does the activity' *dance → dancer* • *employ → employer* • *act → actor* • *cook → cooker* (= a machine for cooking) • *time → timer*
-ese of a place, the language spoken there *Lebanese* • *Chinese*
-esque in the style of *Kafka-esque* (= in the style of writer Franz Kafka)
-est makes superlative adjectives and adverbs *bravest* • *latest*
-ful changes a noun into an adjective meaning, 'having a particular quality' *beauty → beautiful* • *power → powerful* • *use → useful*
-hood makes a noun meaning 'the state of being something and the time when someone is something' *childhood* • *motherhood*
-ian See **-an**
-ible See **-able**
-ical changes a noun ending in **-y** or **-ics** into an adjective meaning 'relating to' *history → historical* • *politics → political*
-ify to produce a state or quality *simplify*
-in an activity in which many people take part a *sit– in*
-ing makes an adjective meaning 'making someone feel something' *interest → interesting* • *surprise → surprising* • *shock → shocking*
-ion See **-ation**
-ise See **-ize**

-ish makes an adjective meaning **1** slightly *a greyish colour* • *a smallish* (= quite small) *house* **2** typical of or similar to *a childish remark* **3** approximately *fiftyish* (= about fifty)

-ist **1** makes a noun meaning 'a person who does a particular activity' *artist* • *novelist* • *scientist* **2** makes a noun and an adjective meaning 'someone with a particular set of beliefs' *communist* • *feminist*

-ive changes a verb into an adjective meaning 'having a particular quality or effect' *attract* → *attractive* • *create* → *creative* • *explode* → *explosive*

-ize, -ise *UK* changes an adjective into a verb meaning 'to make something become' *modern* → *modernize* • *commercial* → *commercialize*

-less changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'without' *homeless people* • *a meaningless statement* • *a hopeless situation*

-let small, *piglet*

-like changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'typical of or similar to' *childlike trust* • *a cabbage-like vegetable*

-ly **1** changes an adjective into an adverb describing the way that something is done *She spoke slowly.* • *Drive safely.* **2** makes an adjective and an adverb meaning 'happening every day, night, week, etc' *a daily newspaper* • *We hold the meeting weekly.* **3** changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'like that person or thing' *mother* → *motherly* • *coward* → *cowardly*

-ment changes a verb into a noun meaning 'the action or process described by a verb, or its result' *develop* → *development* • *disappoint* → *disappointment*

-ness changes an adjective into a noun meaning 'the quality or condition described by the adjective' *sweet* → *sweetness* • *happy* → *happiness* • *dark* → *darkness* • *ill* → *illness*

-ology makes a noun meaning 'the study of something' *psychology* (= the study of the mind) • *sociology* (= the study of society)

-or See **-er**

-ous changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'having that quality' *danger* → *dangerous* • *ambition* → *ambitious*

-phile makes a noun meaning 'enjoying or liking something' *a Francophile* (= someone who loves France) • *a bibliophile* (= someone who loves books)

-phobe someone who hates something or someone *commitment-phobe* (= a person who hates commitment)

-ship makes a noun showing involvement between people *friendship* • *a relationship* • *partnership*

-ster a person who is associated with something *gangster*

-ward, -wards makes an adverb meaning 'towards a direction or place' *inward* • *forward* • *homeward*

-wise changes a noun into an adverb meaning 'relating to this subject' *Weather-wise, the holiday was great.* • *How are we doing time-wise?*

-y changes a noun into an adjective meaning 'having a lot of something, *noise* → *noisy* • *dirt* → *dirty* • *smell* → *smelly*

Word building

It is useful to know how to build up word families, and for some exams you need to know these word families. In the list below, words in **bold** type are words which have the symbol 🔑 by them in the dictionary, meaning that they are very common and important to learn. The other words on each line are words in the same family, often formed with prefixes and suffixes, or sometimes just a different part of speech (e.g. **anger**, which is a noun and a verb). All the words in this list have entries in the dictionary except for some beginning with 'un-', 'im-', 'in-' or 'ir-', or ending with '-ly' or '-ily', where the meaning is always regular. Sometimes words in a word family can have meanings which are quite different from others in the group, so you should always check in the dictionary if you are not sure of the meaning.

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
ability, disability, inability	enable, disable	**able**, unable, disabled	ably
acceptance	**accept**	**acceptable**, unacceptable, accepted	acceptably, unacceptably
accident		accidental	accidentally
accuracy, inaccuracy		**accurate**, inaccurate	accurately, inaccurately
accusation, the accused, accuser	**accuse**	accusing	accusingly
achievement, achiever	**achieve**	achievable	
act, **action**, inaction, interaction, reaction, transaction	**act**	acting	
activity, inactivity	activate	**active**, inactive, interactive, proactive	actively
addition	**add**	additional	additionally
admiration, admirer	**admire**	admirable	admirably
advantage, disadvantage		advantageous, disadvantaged	advantageously
advertisement, advertiser, **advertising**	advertise		advertise
advice, adviser	**advise**	advisable, inadvisable, advisory	advisedly
agreement, disagreement	**agree**, disagree	agreeable	agreeably
aim	**aim**	aimless	aimlessly
amazement	amaze	amazed, **amazing**	amazingly
anger	anger	**angry**	angrily
announcement, announcer	**announce**	unannounced	unannounced
appearance, disappearance, reappearance	**appear**, disappear, reappear		
applicant, application	**apply**	applicable, applied	
appreciation	**appreciate**	appreciable, appreciative	appreciatively
approval, disapproval	**approve**, disapprove	approving, disapproving	approvingly
approximation	approximate	approximate	**approximately**
argument	**argue**	arguable, argumentative	arguably
arrangement	**arrange**, rearrange		
art, **artist**, artistry		artistic, arty	artistically
shame	shame	**ashamed**, unashamed, shameful, shameless	shamefully, shamelessly
attachment	**attach**, detach	attached, unattached, detachable, detached	

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
attack, counter-attack, attacker	**attack**, counter-attack		
attention	attend	attentive, inattentive	attentively
attraction, attractiveness	attract	**attractive**, unattractive	attractively
authority, authorization	authorize	authoritarian, authoritative, authorized, unauthorized	
availability		**available**, unavailable	
avoidance	**avoid**	avoidable, unavoidable	
awareness		**aware**, unaware	unawares
base, the basics, basis	**base**	baseless, **basic**	**basically**
bearer	**bear**	bearable, unbearable	
beat, beating	**beat**	unbeatable, unbeaten	
beautician, **beauty**		**beautiful**	beautifully
beginner, **beginning**	**begin**		
behaviour/US **behavior**, misbehaviour/US misbehavior	**behave**, misbehave	behavioural/US behavioral	
belief, disbelief	**believe**, disbelieve	believable, unbelievable	unbelievably
block, blockage	**block**, unblock	blocked, unblocked	
blood, bleeding	bleed	bloodless, bloody	
the boil, boiler	**boil**	boiling	
bore, boredom	bore	**bored**, **boring**	boringly
break, breakage, outbreak	**break**	**broken**, unbreakable, unbroken	
breath, breather, breathing	**breathe**	breathless	breathlessly
brother, brotherhood		brotherly	
build, builder, **building**	**build**, rebuild		
burn, burner	**burn**	burning, burnt	
burial	**bury**	buried	
calculation, calculator	**calculate**	incalculable, calculated, calculating	
calm, calmness	calm	**calm**	calmly
capability		**capable**, incapable	capably
care, carer	**care**	careful, careless, caring, uncaring	carefully, carelessly
celebration, celebrity	**celebrate**	celebrated, celebratory	
centre/US **center**, centralization, decentralization	centre/US center, centralize, decentralize	**central**, centralized	centrally
certainty, uncertainty	ascertain	**certain**, uncertain	certainly, uncertainly
challenge, challenger	challenge	challenging	
change	**change**	changeable, interchangeable, unchanged, changing	
character, characteristic, characterization	characterize	characteristic, uncharacteristic	characteristically
chemical, chemist, chemistry		chemical	chemically
circle, semicircle, circulation	circle, circulate	circular	
cleaner, cleaning, cleanliness	**clean**	**clean**, unclean	clean, cleanly
clarity, clearance, clearing	**clear**	**clear**, unclear	clear, **clearly**
close, closure	**close**	closed, closing	
closeness		**close**	**close**, closely
clothes, clothing	clothe	clothed, unclothed	
collection, collector	**collect**	collected, collective	collectively
colour/US **color**, colorfully colouring/US coloring	colour/US color	coloured/US colored, discoloured/US discolored, colourful/US colorful, colourless/US colorless	colourfully/US
combination	**combine**	combined	

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
comfort, discomfort	comfort	**comfortable**, uncomfortable, comforting	comfortably
commitment	**commit**	noncommittal, committed	
communication, communicator	**communicate**	communicative, uncommunicative	
comparison	**compare**	comparable, incomparable, comparative	comparatively
competition, competitor	**compete**	competitive, uncompetitive	competitively
completion, incompleteness	**complete**	**complete**, incomplete	**completely**, incompletely
complication	complicate	**complicated**, uncomplicated	
computer, computing, computerization	computerize		
concentration	**concentrate**	concentrated	
concern	**concern**	**concerned**, unconcerned	
conclusion	conclude	concluding, conclusive, inconclusive	conclusively
condition, precondition, conditioner, conditioning	condition	conditional, unconditional	conditionally, unconditionally
confidence	confide	**confident**, confidential	confidently, confidentially
confirmation	**confirm**	confirmed, unconfirmed	
confusion	**confuse**	confused, confusing	confusingly
connection	**connect**, disconnect	connected, disconnected, unconnected	
subconscious, unconscious, consciousness, unconsciousness		**conscious**, subconscious, unconscious	consciously, unconsciously
consequence		consequent, inconsequential	consequently
consideration	**consider**, reconsider	considerable, considerate, inconsiderate, considered	considerably, considerately
continent		continental, intercontinental	
continuation, continuity	**continue**, discontinue	continual, continued, **continuous**	continually, continuously
contribution, contributor	**contribute**	contributory	
control, controller	**control**	controlling, uncontrollable	uncontrollably
convenience, inconvenience	inconvenience	**convenient**, inconvenient	conveniently
	convince	convinced, convincing, unconvincing	convincingly
cook, cooker, cookery, **cooking**	**cook**	cooked, uncooked	
cool, coolness	cool	**cool**	coolly
correction, correctness	**correct**	**correct**, incorrect, corrective	correctly, incorrectly
count, recount	**count**, recount	countable, uncountable, countless	
cover, coverage, covering	**cover**, uncover	undercover, uncovered	undercover
creation, creativity, creator	**create**, recreate	creative, uncreative	creatively
crime, **criminal**, criminologist	incriminate	criminal, incriminating	criminally
critic, **criticism**	**criticize**	**critical**, uncritical	critically
crowd, overcrowding	crowd	**crowded**, overcrowded	
cruelty		**cruel**	cruelly
cry, outcry	cry	crying	
culture, subculture		cultural, cultured	culturally
cure	**cure**	cured, incurable	
custom, **customer**, customs	accustom	customary	customarily
cut, cutting	**cut**, undercut	cutting	
damage, damages	**damage**	damaging, undamaged	
danger	endanger	endangered, **dangerous**	dangerously

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
dare, daring	**dare**	daring	daringly
dark, darkness	darken	**dark**, darkened, darkening	darkly
date	date, predate	dated, outdated	
day, midday		daily	daily
dead, **death**	deaden	**dead**, deadly, deathly	deadly, deathly
deal, dealer, dealings	**deal**		
deceit, deceiver, deception	**deceive**	deceitful, deceptive	deceptively
decision, indecision	**decide**	decided, undecided, decisive, indecisive	decidedly, decisively, indecisively
decoration, decorator	**decorate**	decorative	decoratively
deep, **depth**	deepen	**deep**, deepening	deeply
defeat, defeatism, defeatist	**defeat**	undefeated, defeatist	
defence/US **defense**, defendant, defender	**defend**	defenceless/US defenseless, indefensible, defensive	defensively
definition	define	**definite**, indefinite	**definitely**, indefinitely
demand, demands	**demand**	demanding, undemanding	
democracy, democrat		democratic, undemocratic	democratically
demonstration, demonstrator	**demonstrate**	demonstrable, demonstrative	demonstrably
denial	**deny**	undeniable	undeniably
dependant, dependence, independence, dependency	**depend**	dependable, dependent, independent	dependably, independently
description	**describe**	describable, indescribable, descriptive, nondescript	descriptively
desire	desire	desirable, undesirable, desired, undesired	
destroyer, destruction	**destroy**	indestructible, destructive	destructively
determination, determiner	determine	**determined**, predetermined indeterminate	determinedly
developer, **development**, redevelopment	**develop**, redevelop	developed, undeveloped, developing	
difference, indifference, differentiation	differ, differentiate	**different**, indifferent	differently
directness, **direction**, directions, **director**	**direct**, redirect	**direct**, indirect	directly, indirectly
disagreement	**disagree**	disagreeable	disagreeably
disappointment	disappoint	**disappointed**, disappointing	disappointingly
disaster		disastrous	disastrously
disciplinarian, **discipline**	discipline	disciplinary, disciplined, undisciplined	
discoverer, **discovery**	**discover**		
distance	distance	**distant**	distantly
disturbance	**disturb**	disturbed, undisturbed, disturbing	disturbingly
divide, division, subdivision	**divide**, subdivide	divided, undivided, divisible, divisive	
divorce, divorcee	divorce	divorced	
do, doing	**do**, outdo, overdo, redo, undo	done, overdone, undone	
doubt, doubter	**doubt**	undoubted, doubtful, doubtless	undoubtedly, doubtfully
dream, dreamer	**dream**	dream, dreamless, dreamy	dreamily
dress, dresser, dressing	**dress**, redress, undress	dressed, undressed, dressy	
drink, drinker, drinking, drunk, drunkenness	**drink**	**drunk**, drunken	drunkenly
drive, **driver**, driving	**drive**	driving	
due, dues		**due**, undue	due, duly, unduly
earner, earnings	**earn**		
earth	unearth	earthy, earthly, unearthly	
ease, unease, easiness	ease	**easy**, uneasy	**easily**, uneasily, easy

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
east, easterner		east, easterly, eastern	east, eastward(s)
economics, economist, **economy**	economize	**economic**, economical, uneconomic(al)	economically
education	educate	educated, uneducated, educational	educationally
effect, effectiveness, ineffectiveness	effect	**effective**, ineffective, ineffectual	effectively, ineffectively
effort		effortless	effortlessly
election, re-election, elector, electorate	elect, re-elect	unelected, electoral	
electrician, **electricity**	electrify	**electric**, **electrical**	electrically
electronics		**electronic**	electronically
embarrassment	embarrass	**embarrassed**, **embarrassing**	embarrassingly
emotion		emotional, emotive	emotionally
emphasis	**emphasize**	emphatic	emphatically
employee, **employer**, **employment**, unemployment	**employ**	unemployed	
encouragement, discouragement	**encourage**, discourage	encouraged, encouraging, discouraging	encouragingly
end, ending	**end**	unending, endless	endlessly
energy	energize	energetic	energetically
enjoyment	**enjoy**	enjoyable	enjoyably
enormity		**enormous**	enormously
entrance, entrant, **entry**	**enter**		
entertainer, **entertainment**	entertain	entertaining	entertainingly
enthusiasm, enthusiast	enthuse	**enthusiastic**, unenthusiastic	enthusiastically, unenthusiastically
environment, environmentalist		environmental	environmentally
equality, inequality	equalize	**equal**, unequal	**equally**, unequally
escape, escapism	**escape**	escaped, inescapable	inescapably
essence, essentials		**essential**	essentially
estimate, estimation	**estimate**, overestimate underestimate	estimated	,
event, non-event		eventful, uneventful, eventual	eventfully, eventually
exam, examination, cross-examination, examiner	examine, cross-examine		
excellence	excel	**excellent**	excellently
excitement	excite	excitable, **excited**, **exciting**, unexciting	excitedly, excitingly
excuse	**excuse**	excusable, inexcusable	inexcusably
existence	**exist**, coexist	non-existent, existing, pre-existing	
expectancy, expectation	**expect**	expectant, unexpected	expectantly, unexpectedly
expense, expenditure, expenses	expend	**expensive**, inexpensive	expensively, inexpensively
experience, inexperience	experience	**experienced**, inexperienced	
experiment	experiment	experimental	experimentally
expert, expertise		expert, inexpert	expertly
explaining, **explanation**	**explain**	unexplained, explanatory, explicable, inexplicable	inexplicably
explosion, explosive	**explode**	exploding, explosive	explosively
exploration, explorer	**explore**	exploratory	
expression	**express**	expressive	expressively
extreme, extremism, extremist, extremity		**extreme**, extremist	**extremely**

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
fact		factual	factually
fail, failure	**fail**	unfailing	unfailingly
fairness		**fair**, unfair	**fairly**, unfairly
faith, faithfulness		faithful, unfaithful	faithfully
familiarity, **family**	familiarize	**familiar**, unfamiliar	familiarly
fame		famed, **famous**, infamous	famously, infamously
fashion	fashion	fashionable, unfashionable	fashionably, unfashionably
fat	fatten	**fat**, fattening, fatty	
fastener	**fasten**, unfasten		
fault	fault	faultless, faulty	faultlessly
fear	fear	fearful, fearless, fearsome	fearfully, fearlessly
feel, **feeling**, feelings	**feel**	unfeeling	
fiction, nonfiction		fictional	
fill, refill, filling	**fill**, refill	filling	
final, finalist, semifinal	finalize	**final**	**finally**
finish	**finish**	finished, unfinished	
firmness, infirmity		**firm**, infirm	firmly
fish, fishing	fish	fishy	fishily
fit, fittings	**fit**	fitted, fitting	fittingly
fix, fixation, fixture	**fix**	fixed, transfixed, unfixed	fixedly
flat	flatten	**flat**	flat, flatly
flower	flower	flowered/flowery, flowering	
fold, folder	**fold**, unfold	folded, folding	
follower, following	**follow**	following	
force	**force**	forceful, forcible	forcefully, forcibly
forest, deforestation, forestry		forested	
forgetfulness	**forget**	forgetful, unforgettable	forgetfully
forgiveness	**forgive**	forgiving, unforgiving	
form, formation, transformation, reformer, transformer	**form**, reform, transform	reformed	
formality	formalize	**formal**, informal	formally, informally
fortune		fortunate, unfortunate	**fortunately**, unfortunately
freedom, freebie	**free**	**free**	free, freely
freeze, freezer, freezing	**freeze**	freezing, frozen	
frequency, infrequency	frequent	**frequent**, infrequent	**frequently**, infrequently
freshness, refreshments	freshen, refresh	**fresh**, refreshing	freshly, refreshingly
friend, friendliness	befriend	friendly, unfriendly	
fright	**frighten**	**frightened**, **frightening**, frightful	frighteningly, frightfully
fruit, fruition		fruitful, fruitless, fruity	fruitfully, fruitlessly
fund, refund, funding	fund, refund	funded	
furnishings, **furniture**	furnish	furnished, unfurnished	
garden, gardener, gardening	garden		
generalization	generalize	**general**	**generally**
generosity		**generous**	generously
gentleness		**gentle**	gently
gladness	gladden	**glad**	gladly
glass, glasses		glassy	
good, goodies, goodness, goods		**good**	
government, governor	govern	governmental, governing	governmentally
gratitude, ingratitude		**grateful**, ungrateful	gratefully
greatness		**great**	greatly

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
green, greenery, greens		**green**	
ground, underground, grounding, grounds	ground	groundless, underground	underground
grower, **growth**, undergrowth	**grow**, outgrow	growing, grown, overgrown	
guilt, guiltiness		**guilty**	guiltily
habit		habitual	habitually
hair, hairiness		hairless, hairy	
hand, handful	**hand**	underhand, handy	
handle, handler, handling	**handle**		
hanger	**hang**, overhang	hanging	
happiness, unhappiness		**happy**, unhappy	happily, unhappily
hardship	harden	**hard**	**hard**, hardly
harm	**harm**	harmful, harmless, unharmed	harmlessly
head, heading, overheads	head, behead	overhead, heady	overhead
health		**healthy**, unhealthy	healthily, unhealthily
hearing	**hear**, overhear	unheard, unheard of	
heart		heartened, heartening, heartless, hearty	heartily, heartlessly
heat, heater, heating	heat, overheat	heated, unheated	heatedly
height, heights	heighten	heightened	
help, helper, helpfulness, helping	**help**	helpful, unhelpful, helpless	helpfully, helplessly
height	**high**	high, highly	
historian, **history**		historic, prehistoric, historical	historically
hold, holder, holding	**hold**		
home	home	homeless, homely	**home**
honesty, dishonesty		**honest**, dishonest	honestly, dishonestly
hope, hopefulness, hopelessness	**hope**	hopeful, hopeless	**hopefully**, hopelessly
human, humanism, humanity, inhumanity	humanize	**human**, inhuman, superhuman, humane	humanly, humanely
hunger		**hungry**	hungrily
hurry	**hurry**	hurried, unhurried	hurriedly
hurt	**hurt**	unhurt, hurtful	hurtfully
ice, icicle, icing	ice	icy	icily
identification, identity	**identify**	identifiable, unidentified	
imagination	**imagine**	imaginable, unimaginable, imaginary, imaginative	imaginatively, unimaginably
importance		**important**, unimportant	importantly
impression	impress	impressionable, impressive	impressively
improvement	**improve**	improved	
increase	**increase**	increased	increasingly
credibility, incredulity		**incredible**, credible, incredulous	incredibly, incredulously
independence, independent		**independent**	independently
industrialist, industrialization, **industry**		**industrial**, industrialized, industrious	industrially, industriously
infection, disinfectant	infect, disinfect	infectious	infectiously
inflation	inflate, deflate	inflatable, inflated, inflationary	
information, informant, informer	inform, misinform	informative, uninformative, informed, uninformed	
injury	**injure**	injured, uninjured	
innocence		**innocent**	innocently
insistence	**insist**	insistent	insistently
instance, instant		**instant**, instantaneous	instantly, instantaneously
instruction, instructor	instruct	instructive	instructively

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
intelligence		**intelligent**, unintelligent, intelligible, unintelligible	intelligently
intent, **intention**	**intend**	intended, unintended, intentional, unintentional	intentionally, unintentionally
interest	interest	**interested**, **interesting**, disinterested, uninterested	interestingly
interruption	**interrupt**	uninterrupted	
interview, interviewee	interview		
introduction	**introduce**	introductory	
invention, inventiveness, inventor	**invent**, reinvent	inventive	inventively
invitation, invite	**invite**	uninvited, inviting	invitingly
involvement	**involve**	**involved**, uninvolved	
item	itemize	itemized	
joke, joker	joke	jokingly	
journal, journalism, **journalist**		journalistic	
judge, **judg(e)ment**	**judge**	judgmental	
juice, juices		juicy	
keenness		**keen**	keenly
keep, keeper, keeping	**keep**	kept	
kill, overkill, killer, killing	**kill**		
kindness, unkindness		**kind**, unkind	kindly, unkindly
knowledge	**know**	knowing, knowledgeable, known, unknown	knowingly, unknowingly, knowledgeably
enlargement	enlarge	**large**	largely
laugh, **laughter**	**laugh**	laughable	laughably
law, **lawyer**, outlaw	outlaw	lawful, unlawful	lawfully, unlawfully
laziness		**lazy**	lazily
lead, **leader**, leadership	**lead**	lead, leading	
learner, learning	**learn**, unlearn	learned, unlearned	
legality, illegality, legalization	legalize	**legal**, illegal	legally, illegally
length	lengthen	lengthening, lengthy	lengthily
liar, **lie**	lie	lying	
life		lifeless, lifelike, lifelong	lifelessly
light, lighter, lighting, lightness	light, lighten	**light**	lightly
dislike, liking	**like**, dislike	likeable	
likelihood		**likely**, unlikely	likely
limit, limitation, limitations	**limit**	limited, unlimited	
literature, literacy		literary, literate, illiterate	
liveliness, living	**live**, outlive, relive	**live**, lively, living	live
local, location, relocation	dislocate, relocate	**local**	locally
loser, **loss**	**lose**	lost	
		loud	aloud, loud/loudly
love, lover	**love**	lovable, unlovable, loveless, lovely, loving	lovingly
low	lower	**low**, lower, lowly	low
luck		**lucky**, unlucky	luckily, unluckily
machine, machinery, mechanic, mechanics, mechanism		mechanical, mechanized	mechanically
magic, magician		magic, magical	magically
make, remake, maker, making	**make**, remake	unmade	
man, manhood, mankind	man	manly, manned, unmanned	
management, manager	**manage**	manageable, unmanageable, managerial	
mark, marker, markings	**mark**	marked, unmarked	markedly

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
market, marketing, marketer	market	marketable	
marriage	**marry**, remarry	**married**, unmarried	
match	**match**	matching, unmatched	
material, materialism, materialist, materials	materialize	material, immaterial, materialistic	
meaning	**mean**	meaningful, meaningless	meaningfully
measure, **measurement**	**measure**	measurable, immeasurable	immeasurably
medical, medication, **medicine**		**medical**, medicated, medicinal	medically, medicinally
memorial, **memory**	memorize	memorable	memorably
mentality		**mental**	mentally
method, methodology		methodical, methodological	methodically
militancy, militant, the military, militia		**military**, militant	militantly, militarily
mind, minder, reminder	**mind**, remind	mindless	mindlessly
minimum	minimize	minimal, **minimum**, minimalist	minimally
miss	**miss**	**missing**	
mistake	mistake	mistaken, unmistakable	unmistakably, mistakenly
mix, mixer, **mixture**	**mix**	mixed	
modernity, modernization	modernize	**modern**	
moment		momentary, momentous	momentarily
mood, moodiness		moody	moodily
moral, morals, morality, immorality		**moral**, amoral, immoral	morally
mother, motherhood		motherly	
move, **movement**, removal, remover	**move**, remove	movable, unmoved, moving	movingly
murder, murderer	**murder**	murderous	murderously
music, musical, musician		musical, unmusical	musically
name	**name**, rename	named, unnamed, nameless	namely
nation, national, multinational, nationalism, nationalist, nationality, nationalization	nationalize	**national**, international, multinational, nationalistic	nationally, internationally
nature, naturalist, naturalization, naturalness the supernatural	naturalize	**natural**, unnatural, supernatural, naturalistic	naturally, unnaturally
necessity, unnecessarily	necessitate	**necessary**, unnecessary	necessarily, unnecessarily
need, needs	**need**	needless, needy	needlessly
nerve, nerves, nervousness	unnerve	**nervous**, unnerving	nervously, unnervingly
news, renewal	renew	**new**, renewable, renewed	newly, anew
night, midnight			overnight, nightly
noise		noisy	noisily
normality/US normalcy, abnormality, norm		**normal**, abnormal	**normally**, abnormally
north, northerner		north, northerly, northern	north, northward(s)
notice	**notice**	noticeable, unnoticed	noticeably
number, numeral	number, outnumber, enumerate	innumerable, numerical, numerous	
nurse, nursery, nursing	nurse		
obedience, disobedience	**obey**, disobey	obedient, disobedient	obediently, disobediently
occasion		occasional	occasionally
offence/US **offense**, offender, offensive	**offend**	offensive, inoffensive	offensively
office, officer, official		**official**, unofficial	officially, unofficially
the open, opener, opening, openness	**open**	**open**, opening	openly

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
operation, cooperation, operative, cooperative operator	**operate**, cooperate	operational, operative, cooperative	operationally
opposition, opposite	**oppose**	opposed, opposing, **opposite**	opposite
option	opt	optional	optionally
order, disorder	**order**	disordered, orderly, disorderly	
organization, disorganization, reorganization, organizer	**organize**, disorganize, reorganize	organizational, organized, disorganized	
origin, original, originality, originator	originate	**original**, unoriginal	**originally**
owner, ownership	**own**, disown		
pack, package, packaging, packet, packing	**pack**, unpack, package	packed	
pain	pain	pained, **painful**, painless	painfully, painlessly
paint, painter, **painting**	**paint**		
part, counterpart, parting, partition	part, partition	partial, parting	part, partially, **partly**
pass, overpass, underpass, passage, passing	**pass**	passing	
patience, impatience, **patient**		**patient**, impatient	patiently, impatiently
pay, **payment**, repayment	**pay**, repay	unpaid, underpaid	
peace		**peaceful**	peacefully
perfection, imperfection, perfectionist	perfect	**perfect**, imperfect	**perfectly**
performance, performer	**perform**		
permission, permit	permit	permissible, impermissible, permissive	
person, **personality**	personalize, personify	**personal**, impersonal, personalized	personally
persuasion	**persuade**, dissuade	persuasive	persuasively
photo, **photograph**, photographer, photography	photograph	photogenic, photographic	
picture	picture	pictorial, picturesque	
place, placement, displacement, replacement	place, displace, replace	misplaced	
plan, planner, planning	**plan**	unplanned	
plant, transplant, plantation	plant, transplant		
play, **player,** interplay, replay, playfulness	**play**, outplay, replay	playful	playfully
pleasure, pleasantry, displeasure	please, displease	**pleasant**, unpleasant, **pleased**, displeased, pleasing, pleasurable	pleasantly, unpleasantly
poem, **poetry**, poet		poetic	
point, pointer	**point**	pointed, pointless	pointlessly
politeness		**polite**, impolite	politely, impolitely
politician, **politics**	politicize	**political**, politicized	politically
popularity, unpopularity, popularization	popularize	**popular**, unpopular	popularly
population	populate	populated, unpopulated, populous	
possibility, impossibility, the impossible		**possible**, impossible	**possibly**, impossibly
post, postage	**post**	postal	
power, superpower	power, empower, overpower	**powerful**, overpowering, powerless	powerfully
practical, practicalities, practicality		practicable, **practical**, impractical	practically

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
practice, practitioner	**practise**/US **practice**	practised/US practiced, practising/US practicing	
precision		**precise**, imprecise	precisely
preference	**prefer**	preferable, preferential	preferably
preparation, preparations	**prepare**	prepared, unprepared, preparatory	
present, presence, presentation, presenter	present, represent	**present**, presentable	presently
pressure, press	**press**, pressure/pressurize	pressed, pressing, pressurized	
prevention	**prevent**	preventable, preventive/preventative	
price	price	overpriced, priceless, pricey/pricy	
print, printer, printing	**print**	printed	
prison, **prisoner**, imprisonment	imprison		
privacy, private, privatization	privatize	**private**	privately
probability		probable, improbable	**probably**, improbably
process, processing, procession, processor	process	processed	
produce, producer, **product**, **production**, reproduction, productivity	**produce**, reproduce	productive, counterproductive, reproductive, unproductive	
profession, professional, professionalism		**professional**, unprofessional	professionally
profit, profitability	profit	profitable, unprofitable	profitably
progress, progression	progress	progressive	progressively
proof	prove, disprove	proven, unproven	
protection, protector	**protect**	protected, unprotected, protective	protectively
provider, provision, provisions	**provide**	provisional	provisionally
public, publication, publicist, publicity	publicize	**public**	publicly
publisher, publishing	**publish**	published, unpublished	
punishment	**punish**	punishable, punishing, punitive	
purification, purist, purity, impurity	purify	**pure**, impure	purely
purpose		purposeful	purposefully, purposely
push, pusher	**push**	pushed, pushy	
qualification, disqualification, qualifier	qualify, disqualify	qualified, unqualified	
quarter, quarters	quarter	quarterly	quarterly
question, questioning, questionnaire	question	questionable, unquestionable	unquestionably
quiet, disquiet	quieten/quiet	**quiet**	quietly
race, racism, racist		racial, multiracial, racist	racially
rarity		**rare**	rarely
rate, rating, ratings	rate, underrate	overrated, underrated	
reaction, reactor	**react**, overreact	reactionary	
read, reader, readership, **reading**	**read**	readable, unreadable	
readiness		**ready**	readily
realism, realist, reality, unreality, realization	**realize**	**real**, unreal, realistic, unrealistic	real, **really**, realistically
reason, reasoning	reason	reasonable, unreasonable	reasonably, unreasonably
receipt, receipts, receiver, reception, recipient	**receive**	receptive	
recognition	**recognize**	recognizable, unrecognizable	recognizably

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
record, recorder, recording	recorded, unrecorded	**record**	
referee, reference, referral	**refer**, referee		
reflection	**reflect**	reflective	
regret	**regret**	regrettable, regretful	regrettably, regretfully
regular, regularity, irregularity, irregularly	regulate	**regular**, irregular	**regularly**
relation, relations, **relationship**, **relative**	relate	**related**, unrelated, relative	relatively
relaxation	**relax**	**relaxed**, relaxing	
reliability, reliance	**rely**	**reliable**, unreliable, reliant	reliably
religion		**religious**, irreligious	religiously
the remainder, remains	**remain**	remaining	
remark	remark	remarkable, unremarkable	remarkably
repair, disrepair	**repair**	irreparable	irreparably
repeat, repetition	**repeat**	repeated, repetitive/repetitious	repeatedly, repetitively
report, reporter	**report**	unreported	reportedly
representation, representative	**represent**	representative, unrepresentative	
reputation, disrepute		reputable, disreputable, reputed	reputedly
respect, disrespect, respectability	**respect**	respectable, respected, respectful, disrespectful, respective	respectably, respectfully, disrespectfully, respectively
respondent, **response**, responsiveness	**respond**	responsive, unresponsive	responsively
responsibility, irresponsibility		**responsible**, irresponsible	responsibly, irresponsibly
rest, unrest, restlessness	**rest**	restless	restlessly
retiree, retirement	**retire**	retired, retiring	
reward	reward	rewarding, unrewarding	
riches, richness, enrichment	enrich	**rich**	richly
ride, rider, riding	**ride**, override	overriding	
right, rights, rightness, righteousness	right	right, righteous, rightful	**right**, rightly, rightfully
roll, roller	**roll**, unroll	rolling	
romance, romantic	romance, romanticize	**romantic**, unromantic, romanticized	romantically
rough, roughage, roughness	rough, roughen	**rough**	rough, **roughly**
round, rounders, roundness	round	**round**, rounded	**round**, roundly
royal, royalist, royalty		**royal**, royalist	royally
rudeness		**rude**	rudely
rule, ruler, ruling	rule, overrule	ruling, unruly	
run, rerun, runner, running, rundown	**run**, outrun, overrun	running, runny	
sadness	sadden	**sad**	sadly
safe, **safety**		**safe**, unsafe	safely
satisfaction, dissatisfaction	satisfy	**satisfactory**, unsatisfactory, **satisfied**, dissatisfied, unsatisfied, satisfying	satisfactorily, unsatisfactorily
save, saver, saving, savings, saviour/US savior	**save**		
scare	scare	**scared**, scary	
school, pre-school, schooling		pre-school	
science, **scientist**		**scientific**, unscientific	scientifically
score, scorer	**score**, outscore, underscore		
search, research, researcher	**search**, research	searching	
seat, seating	seat, unseat	seated	
secrecy, secret		**secret**, secretive	secretly, secretively

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
sense, nonsense, sensibility, sensitivity, insensitivity, sensor	sense	**sensible**, senseless, sensitive, insensitive	sensibly, sensitively, insensitively
separation	**separate**	separable, inseparable, **separate**	inseparably, separately
seriousness		**serious**	**seriously**
servant, serve, server, **service**, disservice, services, serving	**serve**, service	serviceable, servile	
sex, sexism, sexuality, sexist		sexist, **sexual**, bisexual, sexy	sexually
shadow	shadow, overshadow	shadowy	
shake	**shake**	shaky	shakily
shape	shape	shapeless, shapely	
(pencil) sharpener, sharpness	sharpen	**sharp**	sharp, sharply
shine	**shine**, outshine	shiny	
shock	**shock**	shocked, shocking	shockingly
shop, shopper, **shopping**	shop		
short, shortage, shortness, shorts	shorten	**short**	short, shortly
shyness	shy	**shy**	shyly
sick, sickness	sicken	**sick**, sickening, sickly	sickeningly
sight, insight, oversight, sighting	sight	sighted, unsightly	
sign, **signal**, signatory, signature, signing	**sign**, signal	signed, unsigned	
significance, insignificance	signify	**significant**, insignificant	significantly, insignificantly
silence, silencer	silence	**silent**	silently
similarity		**similar**, dissimilar	similarly
simplicity, simplification	simplify	**simple**, simplistic	simply
singer, singing	**sing**	unsung	
single, singles	single	**single**, singular	singly
skill		skilful/US skillful, skilled, unskilled	skilfully/US skillfully
sleep, sleeper, sleepiness, sleeplessness	**sleep**	asleep, sleepless, sleepy	sleepily
slight		**slight**, slighted, slightest	**slightly**
slip, slipper	**slip**	slippery	
smoke, smoker, non-smoker, smoking	**smoke**	smoked, smoking, non-smoking, smoky	
smoothness, smoothie	**smooth**	smooth	smoothly
society, sociologist, sociology	socialize	sociable, unsociable, **social**, anti-social, unsocial	socially
softness	soften	**soft**	softly
solid, solidarity, solidity, solids	solidify	**solid**	solidly
solution, solvent	**solve**	soluble, insoluble, unsolved, solvent	
south, southerner		south, southerly, southern	south, southward(s)
speaker, **speech**	**speak**	unspeakable, speechless, outspoken, unspoken	unspeakably
special, specialist, speciality/US specialty, specialization	specialize	**special**, specialized	**specially**
speed, speeding	speed	speedy	speedily
spelling, speller	**spell**, misspell		
spoils	**spoil**	spoilt/spoiled, unspoiled/unspoilt	
sport	sport	sporting, sporty	
spot	spot	spotted, spotless, spotty	spotlessly
stand, standing, standoff, standstill	**stand**, withstand	standing, outstanding	outstandingly

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
standard, standardization	standardize	standard, substandard	
start, starter, non-starter	**start**, restart		
statement, understatement	state, overstate	understated	
steam, steamer	steam	steamy	
steepness		**steep**	steeply
sticker	**stick**	sticky, stuck, unstuck	
stiffness	stiffen	**stiff**	stiff, stiffly
stone	stone	stoned, stony	
stop, stoppage	**stop**	non-stop	non-stop
storm	storm	stormy	
	straighten	**straight**	**straight**
stranger		**strange**, estranged	strangely
strength	strengthen	**strong**	strongly
stress	stress	stressed, stressful	
strike, striker	**strike**	striking	
structure, restructuring	structure, restructure	structural	structurally
student, **study**	**study**	studious	studiously
stupidity		**stupid**	stupidly
style	style	stylish	stylishly
substance	substantiate	substantial, insubstantial, substantive	substantially
success, succession, unsuccessfully	**succeed**	**successful**, unsuccessful, successor	successfully, successive
suddenness		**sudden**	**suddenly**
sufferer, suffering	**suffer**	insufferable	insufferably
suggestion	**suggest**	suggestive	suggestively
summer, midsummer		summery	
supplier, supplies, **supply**	**supply**		
support, supporter	**support**	supportive	
supposition	**suppose**, presuppose	supposed	supposedly
surface	surface, resurface	surface	
surprise	surprise	**surprised**, surprising	surprisingly
surroundings	**surround**	surrounding	
survival, survivor	**survive**		
suspect, suspicion	**suspect**	suspect, suspected, unsuspecting, suspicious	suspiciously
swearing	**swear**	sworn	
sweet, sweetener, sweetness	sweeten	**sweet**	sweetly
swim, swimmer, swimming	**swim**		
symbol, symbolism	symbolize	symbolic	symbolically
sympathy, sympathizer	sympathize	**sympathetic**, unsympathetic	sympathetically
system		systematic	systematically
takings, undertaking	**take**, overtake, undertake		
talk, talks	**talk**	talkative	
taste, distaste	**taste**	tasteful, distasteful, tasteless, tasty	tastefully, distastefully
tax, taxation	tax	taxable, taxing	
teacher, teaching, teachings	**teach**		
tear		tearful	tearfully
technicalities, technicality, technician, technique		**technical**	technically
technology		technological	technologically
thanks	**thank**	thankful, thankless	thankfully
theorist, **theory**	theorize	theoretical	theoretically
thickness	thicken	**thick**	thickly
thinness	thin	**thin**	thinly
think, rethink, thinker, thinking	**think**, rethink	unthinkable	

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
thirst		**thirsty**	thirstily
thought, thoughtfulness		thoughtful, thoughtless	thoughtfully, thoughtlessly
threat	**threaten**	threatening	threateningly
tightness	tighten	**tight**	tight, tightly
time, overtime, timer, timing	time	timeless, timely, untimely	
tiredness	tire	**tired**, tireless, tiresome, tiring	tirelessly
title, subtitles	entitle	titled	
top, topping	top	**top**, topless, topmost	
touch	**touch**	touched, untouched, touching, touchy	touchingly
	toughen	**tough**	toughly
trade, trader, trading	trade		
tradition, traditionalist		**traditional**	traditionally
trainee, trainer, **training**, retraining	**train**	trained, untrained	
transport, transportation	transport		
treat, **treatment**, mistreatment	**treat**, mistreat	untreated	
trick, trickery	trick	tricky	
trouble	trouble	troubled, troublesome	
trust, distrust, mistrust, trustee	**trust**, distrust, mistrust	trusting, trustworthy	
truth, untruth, truthfulness		**true**, untrue, truthful	truly, truthfully
try	**try**	trying, untried	
turn, upturn, turning	**turn**, overturn	upturned	
twist, twister	**twist**	twisted	
type, typist	typify	**typical**	typically
understanding, misunderstanding	**understand**	understandable, understanding, misunderstood	understandably, misunderstand
upset	upset	**upset**, upsetting	
urgency, urge	urge	**urgent**	urgently
usage, **use**, disuse, misuse, usefulness, user	**use**, misuse, reuse	reusable, **used**, disused, unused, **useful**, **useless**	usefully
valuables, **value**, values	value, devalue	**valuable**, invaluable, undervalued	
variable, variance, variant, **variety**	vary	variable, varied, **various**	invariably, variously
view, overview, preview, review, viewer	view, preview, review		
violence	violate	**violent**, non-violent	violently
visit, **visitor**	**visit**, revisit		
vote, voter	**vote**		
want, wants	**want**	wanted, unwanted	
war, warfare, warrior		postwar, warring	
warmth	warm	**warm**	warmly
wash, washer, washing	**wash**	washable, unwashed	
waste, wastage	**waste**	waste, wasteful	wastefully
watch	**watch**	watchful	
water, waters	water	underwater, waterproof, watery	underwater
way, subway		wayward	midway
weakling, weakness	weaken	**weak**	weakly
wear, underwear	**wear**	wearing, worn	
week, midweek		weekly, midweek	weekly, midweek
weight, weights	**weigh**, outweigh	overweight, underweight, weighted, weighty	
welcome	**welcome**	welcome, unwelcome	

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs
west, western, westerner		westerly, western	west, westward(s)
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whole		**whole**, wholesome, unwholesome	
width	widen	**wide**	**wide**, **widely**
wild, wildness		**wild**	wildly
willingness, unwillingness		**willing**, unwilling	willingly, unwillingly
win, **winner**, winnings	**win**		
winter, midwinter		wintry	
wire, wireless, wiring	wire	wiry	
woman, womanhood		womanly	
wonder	**wonder**	**wonderful**	wonderfully
wood		wooded, wooden	
wool		woollen/US woolen, woolly/US wooly	
word, wording	word		
work, workaholic, worker, workings	**work**, rework	workable, unworkable, overworked, working	
world, underworld		world, worldly, unworldly, worldwide	worldwide
worry	**worry**	**worried**, unworried, worrying	worryingly
worth		**worth**, worthless, worthwhile, worthy, unworthy	
writer, **writing**	**write**, rewrite	written, unwritten	
wrong	wrong	**wrong**, wrongful	**wrong**, wrongly, wrongfully
year		yearly	yearly
young, youngster, youth		**young**, youthful	

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH UNITS TO STUDY, USE THE STUDY GUIDE ON PAGE 271

To the student (working without a teacher)

This is a grammar book for elementary students of English. There are 115 units in the book and each unit is about a different point of English grammar. There is a list of units at the beginning of the book (*Contents*).

Do not study all the units in order from beginning to end. It is better to choose the units that you need to do. For example, if you have a problem with the present perfect (*I have been, he has done* etc.), study Units 15–20.

Use the *Contents* or the *Index* (at the back of the book) to find the unit (or units) that you need.

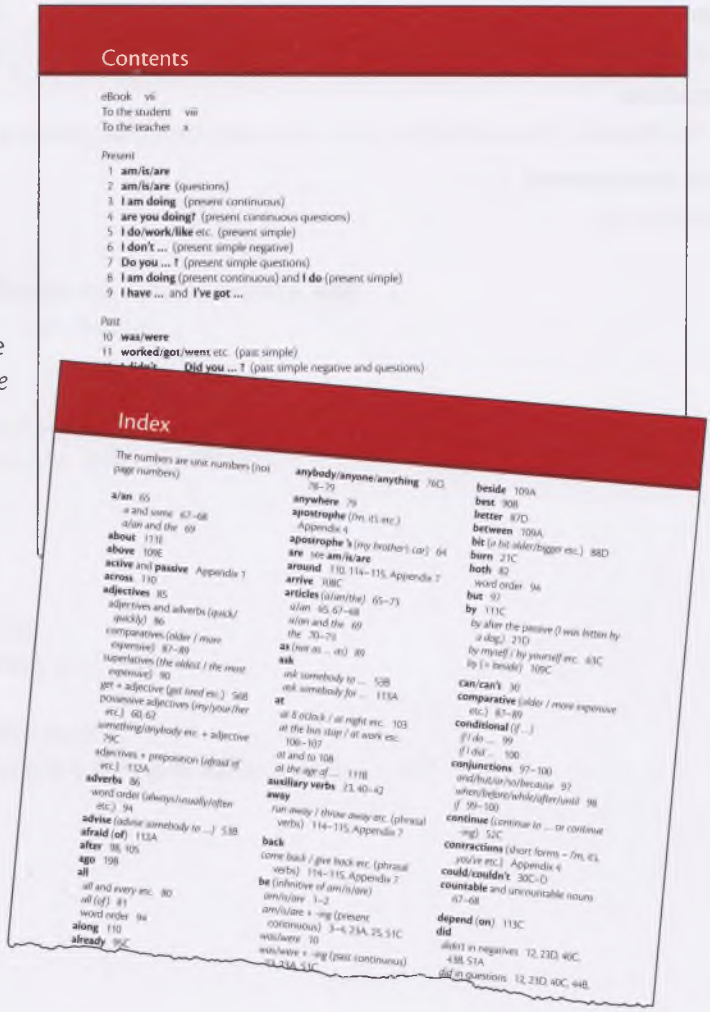

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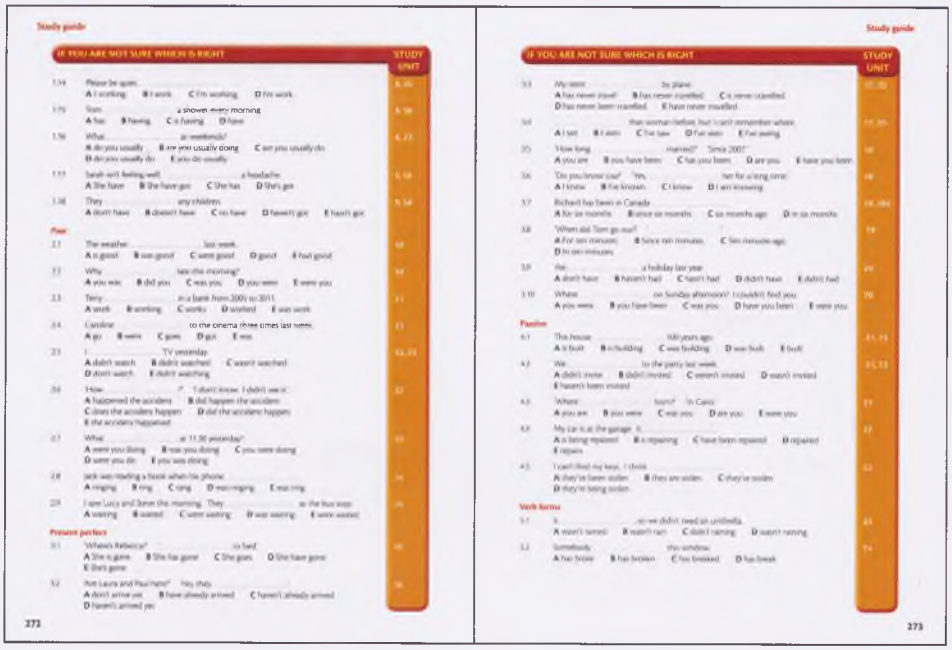

Study guide

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT — STUDY UNIT

Study guide (pages 271–282)

Each unit is two pages. The information is on the left-hand page and the exercises are on the right:

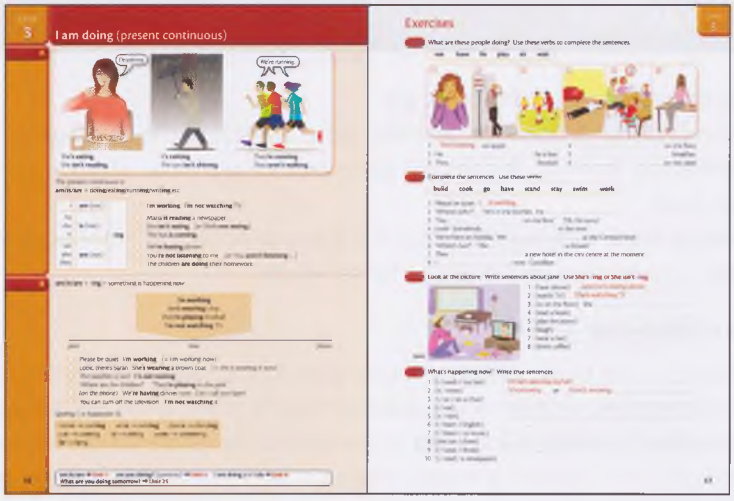

Information **Exercises**

Study the left-hand page (information), and then do the exercises on the right-hand page.

Use the *Key* to check your answers. The *Key* is on pages 283–309.

Study the left-hand page again if necessary.

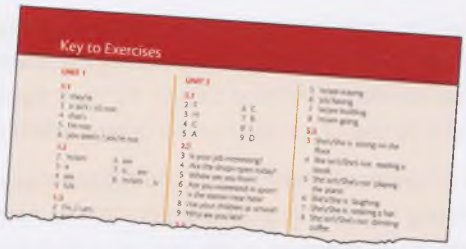

Don't forget the seven *Appendices* at the back of the book (pages 243–251). These will give you information about active and passive forms, irregular verbs, short forms, spelling and phrasal verbs.

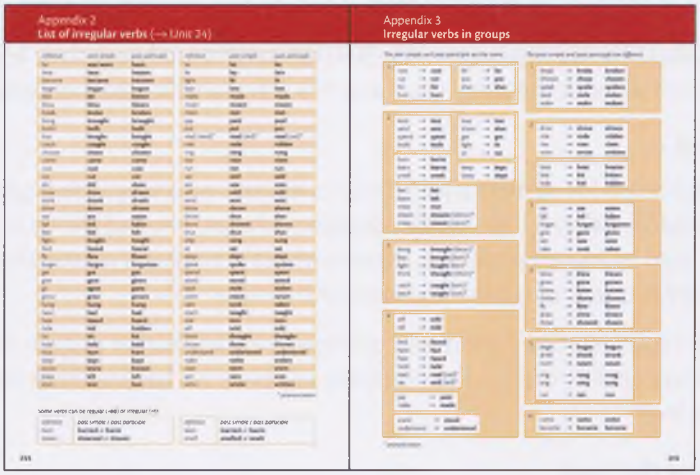

There are also *Additional exercises* at the back of the book (pages 252–270). There is a list of these exercises on page 252.

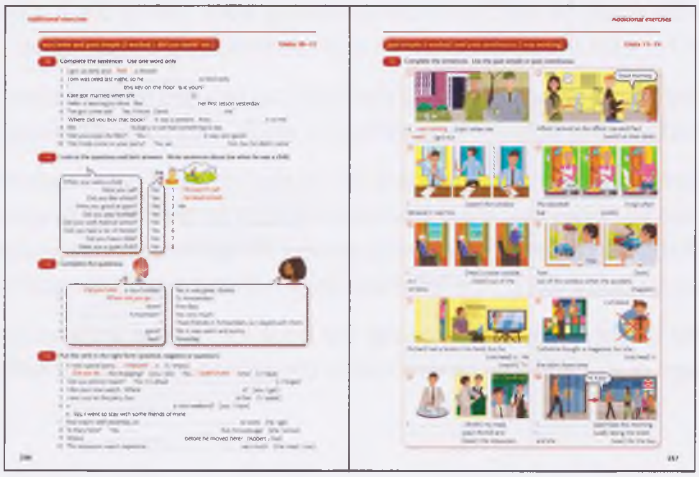

To the teacher

The most important features of this book are:

- It is a grammar book. It does not deal with other aspects of the language.
- It is for elementary learners. It does not cover areas of grammar which are not normally taught at elementary level.
- It is a reference book with exercises. It is not a course book and is not organised progressively.
- It is addressed to learners and intended for self-study.

Organisation of the book

There are 115 units in the book, each one focusing on a particular area of grammar. The material is organised in grammatical categories, such as tenses, questions and articles. Units are *not* ordered according to difficulty, and should therefore be selected and used in the order appropriate for the learner(s). The book should *not* be worked through from beginning to end. The units are listed in the *Contents* and there is a comprehensive *Index* at the end of the book.

Each unit has the same format consisting of two facing pages. The grammar point is presented and explained on the left-hand page and the corresponding exercises are on the right. There are seven *Appendices* (pages 243–251) dealing with active and passive forms, irregular verbs, short forms (contractions), spelling and phrasal verbs. It might be useful for teachers to draw students' attention to these.

At the back of the book there is a set of *Additional exercises* (pages 252–270). These exercises provide 'mixed' practice bringing together grammar points from a number of different units (especially those concerning verb forms). There are 35 exercises in this section and there is a full list on page 252.

Also at the back of the book there is a *Study guide* to help students decide which units to study – see page 271.

Finally, there is a *Key* (pages 283–309) for students to check their answers to all the exercises in the book. An edition without the *Study guide* and *Key* is available for teachers who would prefer it for their students.

Level

The book is for elementary learners, i.e. learners with very little English, but not for complete beginners. It is intended mainly for elementary students who are beyond the early stages of a beginners' course. It could also be used by low-intermediate learners whose grammar is weaker than other aspects of their English or who have problems with particular areas of basic grammar.

The explanations are addressed to the elementary learner and are therefore as simple and as short as possible. The vocabulary used in the examples and exercises has also been restricted so that the book can be used at this level.

Using the book

The book can be used by students working alone (see *To the student*) or as supplementary course material. In either case the book can serve as an elementary grammar book.

When used as course material, the book can be used for immediate consolidation or for later revision or remedial work. It might be used by the whole class or by individual students needing extra help and practice.

In some cases it may be desirable to use the left-hand pages (presentation and explanation) in class, but it should be noted that these have been written for individual study and reference. In most cases, it would probably be better for teachers to present the grammar point in their preferred way with the exercises being done for homework. The left-hand page is then available for later reference by the student.

Some teachers may prefer to keep the book for revision and remedial work. In this case, individual students or groups of students can be directed to the appropriate units for self-study and practice.

am/is/are

A

B

positive

I	**am**	(I'**m**)
he she it	**is**	(he'**s**) (she'**s**) (it'**s**)
we you they	**are**	(we'**re**) (you'**re**) (they'**re**)

short form

negative

I	**am not**	(I'**m not**)		
he she it	**is not**	(he'**s not** (she'**s not** (it'**s not**	*or* *or* *or*	he **isn't**) she **isn't**) it **isn't**)
we you they	**are not**	(we'**re not** (you'**re not** (they'**re not**	*or* *or* *or*	we **aren't**) you **aren't**) they **aren't**)

short forms

- I'**m** cold. Can you close the window, please?
- I'**m** 32 years old. My sister **is** 29.
- Steve **is** ill. He'**s** in bed.
- My brother **is** scared of dogs.
- It'**s** ten o'clock. You'**re** late again.
- Ann and I **are** good friends.
- Your keys **are** on the table.

- I'**m** tired, but I'**m not** hungry.
- Lisa **isn't** interested in politics. She'**s** interested in art.
- James **isn't** a teacher. He'**s** a student.
- Those people **aren't** English. They'**re** Australian.
- It'**s** sunny today, but it **isn't** warm.

C

that'**s** = that **is** there'**s** = there **is** here'**s** = here **is**

- Thank you. That'**s** very kind of you.
- Look! There'**s** Chris.
- 'Here'**s** your key.' 'Thank you.'

am/is/are (questions) ➜ **Unit 2** **there is/are** ➜ **Unit 37** **a/an** ➜ **Unit 65** short forms ➜ **Appendix 4**

Exercises

1.1 Write the short form (**she's / we aren't** etc.).

1 she is ...she's...
2 they are .....
3 it is not .....
4 that is .....
5 I am not .....
6 you are not .....

1.2 Write **am, is** or **are**.

1 The weather ...is... nice today.
2 I ..... not rich.
3 This bag ..... heavy.
4 These bags ..... heavy.
5 Look! There ..... Helen.
6 My brother and I ..... good tennis players.
7 Emily ..... at home. Her children ..... at school.
8 I ..... a taxi driver. My sister ..... a nurse.

1.3 Complete the sentences.

1 Steve is ill. ...He's... in bed.
2 I'm not hungry, but ..... thirsty.
3 Mr Thomas is a very old man. ..... 98.
4 These chairs aren't beautiful, but ..... comfortable.
5 The weather is nice today. ..... warm and sunny.
6 '..... late.' 'No, I'm not. I'm early!'
7 Catherine isn't at home. ..... at work.
8 '..... your coat.' 'Oh, thank you very much.'

1.4 Look at Lisa's sentences in 1A. Now write sentences about yourself.

1 (name?) My .....
2 (age?) I .....
3 (from?) I .....
4 (job?) I .....
5 (favourite colour or colours?) My .....
6 (interested in ... ?) I .....

1.5 Write sentences for the pictures. Use:

angry **cold** **hot** **hungry** **scared** ~~**thirsty**~~

1 ...She's thirsty.
2 They .....
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

1.6 Write true sentences, positive or negative. Use **is/isn't** or **are/aren't**.

1 (it / hot today) ...It isn't hot today... or ...It's hot today...
2 (it / windy today) It .....
3 (my hands / cold) My .....
4 (Brazil / a very big country) .....
5 (diamonds / cheap) .....
6 (Toronto / in the US) .....

Write true sentences, positive or negative. Use **I'm / I'm not**.

7 (tired) ...I'm tired... or ...I'm not tired...
8 (hungry) I .....
9 (a good swimmer) .....
10 (interested in football) .....

→ **Additional exercise 1** (page 252)

Unit 2

am/is/are (questions)

A

positive

I	**am**
he she it	**is**
we you they	**are**

question

am	I?
is	he? she? it?
are	we? you? they?

What's your name?

Are you married?

How old are you?

Are you a student?

David.

No, I'm not.

25.

Yes, I am.

- ☐ '**Am I** late?' 'No, **you're** on time.'
- ☐ '**Is your mother** at home?' 'No, **she's** out.'
- ☐ '**Are your parents** at home?' 'No, **they're** out.'
- ☐ '**Is it** cold in your room?' 'Yes, a little.'
- ☐ **Your shoes are** nice. **Are they** new?

We say:

- ☐ **Is she** at home? / **Is your mother** at home? (*not* Is at home your mother?)
- ☐ **Are they** new? / **Are your shoes** new? (*not* Are new your shoes?)

B

Where ... ? / **What** ... ? / **Who** ... ? / **How** ... ? / **Why** ... ?

- ☐ **Where is** your mother? Is she at home?
- ☐ '**Where are** you from?' 'Canada.'
- ☐ '**What colour is** your car?' 'It's red.'
- ☐ '**How old is** Joe?' 'He's 24.'
- ☐ **How are** your parents? Are they well?
- ☐ These shoes are nice. **How much are** they?
- ☐ This hotel isn't very good. **Why is** it so expensive?

what**'s** = what **is** who**'s** = who **is** how**'s** = how **is** where**'s** = where **is**

- ☐ **What's** the time?
- ☐ **Where's** Lucy?
- ☐ **Who's** that man?
- ☐ **How's** your father?

C

Short answers

Yes,	I	**am.**	No,	I'**m**	**not.**	*or*	No,	he she it	**isn't.**
	he she it	**is.**		he'**s** she'**s** it'**s**				we you they	**aren't.**
	we you they	**are.**		we'**re** you'**re** they'**re**					

- ☐ '**Are you** tired?' '**Yes, I am.**'
- ☐ '**Are you** hungry?' '**No, I'm not**, but I'm thirsty.'
- ☐ '**Is your friend** English?' '**Yes, he is.**'
- ☐ '**Are these your keys?**' '**Yes, they are.**'
- ☐ '**That's** my seat.' '**No, it isn't.**'

am/is/are → Unit 1 questions → Unit 44 **what/which/how** → Unit 47

Exercises

2.1 Find the right answers for the questions.

1 Where's the camera?	A London.	1 G
2 Is your car blue?	B No, I'm not.	2 .....
3 Is Kate from London?	C Yes, you are.	3 .....
4 Am I late?	D My sister.	4 .....
5 Where's Amy from?	E Black.	5 .....
6 What colour is your bag?	F No, it's black.	6 .....
7 Are you hungry?	G In your bag.	7 .....
8 How is George?	H No, she's American.	8 .....
9 Who's that woman?	I Very well.	9 .....

2.2 Make questions with these words.

1 (is / at home / your mother) Is your mother at home ?
2 (your parents / are / well) Are your parents well ?
3 (interesting / is / your job) ..... ?
4 (the shops / are / open today) ..... ?
5 (from / where / you / are) ..... ?
6 (interested in sport / you / are) ..... ?
7 (is / near here / the station) ..... ?
8 (at school / are / your children) ..... ?
9 (you / are / late / why) ..... ?

2.3 Complete the questions. Use **What ... / Who ... / Where ... / How ... .**

1 How are your parents?	They're very well.
2 ..... the bus stop?	At the end of the street.
3 ..... your children?	Five, six and ten.
4 ..... these oranges?	£1.50 a kilo.
5 ..... your favourite sport?	Skiing.
6 ..... the man in this photo?	That's my father.
7 ..... your new shoes?	Black.

2.4 Write the questions.

PAUL

1 (name?) What's your name?	Paul.
2 (American?)	No, I'm Australian.
3 (how old?)	I'm 30.
4 (a teacher?)	No, I'm a lawyer.
5 (married?)	Yes, I am.
6 (wife a lawyer?)	No, she's a designer.
7 (from?)	She's Italian.
8 (her name?)	Anna.
9 (how old?)	She's 27.

2.5 Write short answers (**Yes, I am. / No, he isn't.** etc.).

1 Are you married? No, I'm not.
2 Are you thirsty? .....
3 Is it cold today? .....
4 Are your hands cold? .....
5 Is it dark now? .....
6 Are you a teacher? .....

→ **Additional exercises 1–2** (pages 252–53)

Unit 3

I am doing (present continuous)

A

She**'s eating**.
She **isn't reading**.

It**'s raining**.
The sun **isn't shining**.

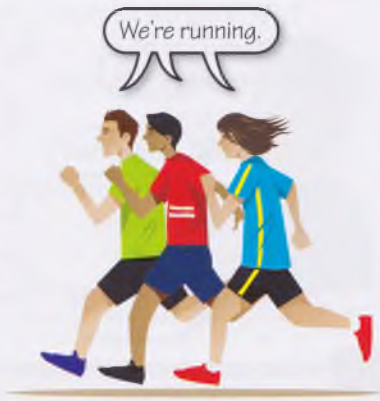

They**'re running**.
They **aren't walking**.

The present continuous is:
am/**is**/**are** + do**ing**/eat**ing**/run**ning**/writ**ing** etc.

I	**am** (not)	**-ing**
he she it	**is** (not)	
we you they	**are** (not)	

- I**'m working**. I**'m not watching** TV.
- Maria **is reading** a newspaper.
- She **isn't eating**. (*or* She**'s not eating**.)
- The bus **is coming**.
- We**'re having** dinner.
- You**'re not listening** to me. (*or* You **aren't listening** ...)
- The children **are doing** their homework.

B

am/**is**/**are** + **-ing** = something is happening *now*:

I**'m working**
she**'s wearing** a hat
they**'re playing** football
I**'m not watching** TV

past — *now* — *future*

- Please be quiet. I**'m working**. (= I'm working now)
- Look, there's Sarah. She**'s wearing** a brown coat. (= she is wearing it now)
- The weather is nice. It**'s not raining**.
- 'Where are the children?' 'They**'re playing** in the park.'
- *(on the phone)* We**'re having** dinner now. Can I call you later?
- You can turn off the television. I**'m not watching** it.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

come → co**m**ing write → writ**i**ng dance → danc**i**ng
run → ru**nn**ing sit → si**tt**ing swim → swi**mm**ing
lie → l**y**ing

am/is/are ➜ Unit 1 **are you doing?** (questions) ➜ Unit 4 **I am doing** and **I do** ➜ Unit 8
What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25

Exercises

3.1 What are these people doing? Use these verbs to complete the sentences:

~~eat~~ **have** **lie** **play** **sit** **wait**

1 She's eating an apple.
2 He ..... for a bus.
3 They ..... football.
4 ..... on the floor.
5 ..... breakfast.
6 ..... on the table.

3.2 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs:

build **cook** **go** **have** **stand** **stay** **swim** ~~**work**~~

1 Please be quiet. I 'm working .
2 'Where's John?' 'He's in the kitchen. He ..... .'
3 'You ..... on my foot.' 'Oh, I'm sorry.'
4 Look! Somebody ..... in the river.
5 We're here on holiday. We ..... at the Central Hotel.
6 'Where's Sue?' 'She ..... a shower.'
7 They ..... a new hotel in the city centre at the moment.
8 I ..... now. Goodbye.

3.3 Look at the picture. Write sentences about Jane. Use **She's -ing** or **She isn't -ing**.

Jane

1 (have dinner) Jane isn't having dinner.
2 (watch TV) She's watching TV.
3 (sit on the floor) She .....
4 (read a book) .....
5 (play the piano) .....
6 (laugh) .....
7 (wear a hat) .....
8 (drink coffee) .....

3.4 What's happening now? Write true sentences.

1 (I / wash / my hair) I'm not washing my hair.
2 (it / snow) It's snowing. or It isn't snowing.
3 (I / sit / on a chair) .....
4 (I / eat) .....
5 (it / rain) .....
6 (I / learn / English) .....
7 (I / listen / to music) .....
8 (the sun / shine) .....
9 (I / wear / shoes) .....
10 (I / read / a newspaper) .....

Unit 4

are you doing?
(present continuous questions)

A

positive question

I	**am**	**doing** **working** **going** **staying** etc.
he she it	**is**	
we you they	**are**	

am	I	**doing** **working** **going** **staying** etc.
is	he she it	
are	we you they	

- ☐ '**Are** you **feeling** OK?' 'Yes, I'm fine, thanks.'
- ☐ '**Is** it **raining**?' 'Yes, take an umbrella.'
- ☐ Why **are** you **wearing** a coat? It's not cold.
- ☐ 'What**'s** Paul **doing**?' 'He**'s studying** for his exams.'
- ☐ 'What **are** the children **doing**?' 'They**'re watching** TV.'
- ☐ Look, there's Emily! Where**'s** she **going**?
- ☐ Who **are** you **waiting** for? **Are** you **waiting** for Sue?

B

Study the word order:

is/are + *subject* + **-ing**

	Is	he	**working** today?
	Is	Ben	**working** today? (*not* Is working Ben today?)
Where	**are**	they	**going**?
Where	**are**	those people	**going**? (*not* Where are going those people?)

C

Short answers

Yes,	I	**am**.
	he she it	**is**.
	we you they	**are**.

No,	I'**m**	**not**.
	he'**s** she'**s** it'**s**	
	we'**re** you'**re** they'**re**	

or

No,	he she it	**isn't**.
	we you they	**aren't**.

- ☐ '**Are** you **going** now?' '**Yes, I am.**'
- ☐ '**Is** Ben **working** today?' '**Yes, he is.**'
- ☐ '**Is** it **raining**?' '**No, it isn't.**'
- ☐ '**Are** your friends **staying** at a hotel?' '**No, they aren't.** They're staying with me.'

I am doing ➜ Unit 3 **What are you doing tomorrow?** ➜ Unit 25 questions ➜ Units 44–47

Exercises

4.1 Look at the pictures and write the questions.

4.2 Look at the pictures and complete the questions. Use:

cry **eat** **go** **laugh** **look at** ~~**read**~~

4.3 Make questions from these words. Put the words in the right order.

1 (is / working / Ben / today) Is Ben working today ?
2 (what / the children / are / doing) What are the children doing ?
3 (you / are / listening / to me) ..... ?
4 (where / your friends / are / going) ..... ?
5 (are / watching / your parents / TV) ..... ?
6 (what / Jessica / is / cooking) ..... ?
7 (why / you / are / looking / at me) ..... ?
8 (is / coming / the bus) ..... ?

4.4 Write short answers (**Yes, I am.** / **No, he isn't.** etc.).

1 Are you watching TV? No, I'm not.
2 Are you wearing a watch? .....
3 Are you eating something? .....
4 Is it raining? .....
5 Are you sitting on the floor? .....
6 Are you feeling well? .....

→ **Additional exercise 3 (page 253)**

Unit 5

I do/work/like etc. (present simple)

A

They have a lot of books.
They **read** a lot.

He's eating an ice cream.
He **likes** ice cream.

They **read** / he **likes** / I **work** etc. = the *present simple*:

I/we/you/they	**read**	**like**	**work**	**live**	**watch**	**do**	**have**
he/she/it	**reads**	**likes**	**works**	**lives**	**watches**	**does**	**has**

Remember:
he work**s** / **she** live**s** / **it** rain**s** etc.

- **I work** in a shop. **My brother works** in a bank. (*not* My brother work)
- **Lucy lives** in London. **Her parents live** in Scotland.
- **It rains** a lot in winter.

I **have** → he/she/it **has**:

- **Joe has** a shower every day.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

-es after **-s** / **-sh** / **-ch**:	pass → pass**es**	finish → finish**es**	watch → watch**es**
-y → **-ies**:	study → stud**ies**	try → tr**ies**	
also:	do → do**es**	go → go**es**	

B

We use the present simple for things that are true in general, or for things that happen sometimes or all the time:

- I **like** big cities.
- Your English is good. You **speak** very well.
- Tom **works** very hard. He **starts** at 7.30 and **finishes** at 8 o'clock in the evening.
- The earth **goes** round the sun.
- We **do** a lot of different things in our free time.
- It **costs** a lot of money to build a hospital.

C

always/never/often/usually/sometimes + present simple

- Sue **always gets** to work early. (*not* Sue gets always)
- I **never eat** breakfast. (*not* I eat never)
- We **often go** away at weekends.
- Mark **usually plays** football on Sundays.
- I **sometimes walk** to work, but not very often.

I don't ... (negative) ➜ Unit 6 **Do you** ... ? (questions) ➜ Unit 7 **I am doing** and **I do** ➜ Unit 8
always/usually/often etc. (word order) ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

5.1 Write these verbs with **-s** or **-es**.

1 (read) she ...reads... 3 (fly) it ..... 5 (have) she .....
2 (think) he ..... 4 (dance) he ..... 6 (finish) it .....

5.2 Complete the sentences about the people in the pictures. Use:

eat **go** **live** ~~**play**~~ **play** **sleep**

1 ...He plays... the piano.
2 They ..... in a very big house.
3 ..... a lot of fruit.
4 ..... tennis.
5 ..... to the cinema a lot.
6 ..... seven hours a night.

5.3 Complete the sentences. Use:

boil **close** **cost** **cost** **like** **like** **meet** **open** ~~**speak**~~ **teach** **wash**

1 Maria ...speaks... four languages.
2 The shops in the city centre usually ..... at 9 o'clock in the morning.
3 The City Museum ..... at 5 o'clock in the evening.
4 Tina is a teacher. She ..... mathematics to young children.
5 My job is very interesting. I ..... a lot of people.
6 Peter's car is always dirty. He never ..... it.
7 Food is expensive. It ..... a lot of money.
8 Shoes are expensive. They ..... a lot of money.
9 Water ..... at 100 degrees Celsius.
10 Laura and I are good friends. I ..... her and she ..... me.

5.4 Write sentences from these words. Use the right form of the verb (**arrive** or **arrives** etc.).

1 (always / early / Sue / arrive) ...Sue always arrives early.....
2 (to the cinema / never / I / go) I .....
3 (work / Martina / hard / always) .....
4 (like / chocolate / children / usually) .....
5 (Jackie / parties / enjoy / always) .....
6 (often / people's names / I / forget) .....
7 (TV / Sam / watch / never) .....
8 (usually / dinner / we / have / at 7.30) .....
9 (Kate / always / nice clothes / wear) .....

5.5 Write sentences about yourself. Use **always/never/often/usually/sometimes.**

1 (watch TV in the evening) ...I usually watch TV in the evening.....
2 (read in bed) I .....
3 (get up before 7 o'clock) .....
4 (go to work/school by bus) .....
5 (drink coffee in the morning) .....

I don't ... (present simple negative)

A

The present simple negative is **don't/doesn't** + *verb*:

She **doesn't drink** coffee.

He **doesn't like** his job.

positive

I we you they	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**works** **likes** **does** **has**

negative

I we you they	**don't** **(do not)**	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**doesn't** **(does not)**	

- I **drink** coffee, but I **don't drink** tea.
- Sue **drinks** tea, but she **doesn't drink** coffee.
- You **don't work** very hard.
- We **don't watch** TV very often.
- The weather is usually nice. It **doesn't rain** very often.
- Sam and Chris **don't know** many people.

B

Remember:

I/we/you/they	**don't** ...
he/she/it	**doesn't** ...

- **I don't** like football.
- **He doesn't** like football.

- **I don't** like Fred and **Fred doesn't** like me. (*not* Fred don't like)
- **My car doesn't** use much petrol. (*not* My car don't use)
- Sometimes he is late, but **it doesn't** happen very often.

C

We use **don't/doesn't** + *infinitive* (don't **like** / doesn't **speak** / doesn't **do** etc.):

- I **don't like** washing the car. I **don't do** it very often.
- Sarah **speaks** Spanish, but she **doesn't speak** Italian. (*not* doesn't speaks)
- David **doesn't do** his job very well. (*not* David doesn't his job)
- Paula **doesn't** usually **have** breakfast. (*not* doesn't ... has)

I do/work/like etc. (present simple) ➜ Unit 5 **Do you** ... ? (present simple questions) ➜ Unit 7

Exercises

6.1 Write the negative.

1 I play the piano very well. I don't play the piano very well.
2 Anna plays the piano very well. Anna .....
3 They know my phone number. They .....
4 We work very hard. .....
5 He has a bath every day. .....
6 You do the same thing every day. .....

6.2 Study the information and write sentences with **like**.

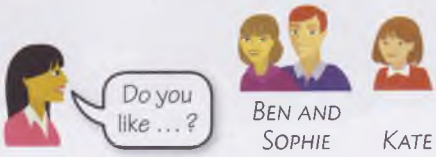

	Ben and Sophie	Kate	You
1 classical music?	yes	no	?
2 boxing?	no	yes	
3 horror movies?	yes	no	

1 Ben and Sophie like classical music.
Kate .....
I ..... classical music.

2 Ben and Sophie .....
Kate .....
I .....

3 .....
.....
.....

6.3 Write about yourself. Use:

I never ... or **I often ...** or **I don't ... very often.**

1 (watch TV) I don't watch TV very often. or I never watch TV. or I often watch TV.
2 (go to the theatre) .....
3 (ride a bike) .....
4 (eat in restaurants) .....
5 (travel by train) .....

6.4 Complete the sentences. All of them are negative. Use **don't/doesn't** + these verbs:

cost **go** **know** ~~**rain**~~ **see** **use** **wear**

1 The weather here is usually nice. It doesn't rain much.
2 Paul has a car, but he ..... it very often.
3 Paul and his friends like films, but they ..... to the cinema very often.
4 Amanda is married, but she ..... a ring.
5 I ..... much about politics. I'm not interested in it.
6 The Regent Hotel isn't expensive. It ..... much to stay there.
7 Ed lives very near us, but we ..... him very often.

6.5 Put the verb into the correct form, positive or negative.

1 Margaret speaks four languages – English, French, German and Spanish. (speak)
2 I don't like my job. It's very boring. (like)
3 'Where's Steve?' 'I'm sorry. I .....' (know)
4 Sue is a very quiet person. She ..... very much. (talk)
5 Andy ..... a lot of tea. It's his favourite drink. (drink)
6 It's not true! I ..... it! (believe)
7 That's a very beautiful picture. I ..... it very much. (like)
8 Mark is a vegetarian. He ..... meat. (eat)

Unit 7

Do you ... ? (present simple questions)

A

We use **do**/**does** in present simple questions:

positive

I we you they	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**works** **likes** **does** **has**

question

do	I we you they	**work?** **like?** **do?** **have?**
does	he she it	

B

Study the word order:

do/**does** + *subject* + *infinitive*

	Do	you	**play**	the guitar?
	Do	your friends	**live**	near here?
	Does	Chris	**work**	on Sundays?
	Does	it	**rain**	a lot here?
Where	**do**	your parents	**live?**	
How often	**do**	you	**wash**	your hair?
What	**does**	this word	**mean?**	
How much	**does**	it	**cost**	to fly to Rome?

Questions with **always** and **usually**:

	Does	Chris	**always**	**work**	on Sundays?
What	**do**	you	**usually**	**do**	at weekends?

What do you **do?** = What's your job?

- ○ '**What do** you **do?**' 'I work in a bank.'

C

Remember:

do I/we/you/they ...
does he/she/it ...

- ○ **Do they** like music?
- ○ **Does he** like music?

D

Short answers

Yes,	I/we/you/they	**do**.
	he/she/it	**does**.

No,	I/we/you/they	**don't**.
	he/she/it	**doesn't**.

- ○ '**Do you** play the guitar?' '**No, I don't.**'
- ○ '**Do your parents** speak English?' '**Yes, they do.**'
- ○ '**Does James** work hard?' '**Yes, he does.**'
- ○ '**Does your sister** live in London?' '**No, she doesn't.**'

I do/work/like etc. (present simple) ➜ Unit 5 **I don't** ... (negative) ➜ Unit 6 questions ➜ Units 44–47

Exercises

7.1 Write questions with **Do ... ?** and **Does ... ?**

1 I like chocolate. How about you? Do you like chocolate ?
2 I play tennis. How about you? ..... you ..... ?
3 You live near here. How about Lucy? ..... Lucy ..... ?
4 Tom plays tennis. How about his friends? ..... ?
5 You speak English. How about your brother? ..... ?
6 I do yoga every morning. How about you? ..... ?
7 Sue goes away a lot. How about Paul? ..... ?
8 I want to be famous. How about you? ..... ?
9 You work hard. How about Anna? ..... ?

7.2 Make questions from these words + **do/does**. Put the words in the right order.

1 (where / live / your parents) Where do your parents live ?
2 (you / early / always / get up) Do you always get up early ?
3 (how often / TV / you / watch) ..... ?
4 (you / want / what / for dinner) ..... ?
5 (like / you / football) ..... ?
6 (your brother / like / football) ..... ?
7 (what / you / do / in your free time) ..... ?
8 (your sister / work / where) ..... ?
9 (breakfast / always / you / have) ..... ?
10 (what / mean / this word) ..... ?
11 (in winter / snow / it / here) ..... ?
12 (go / usually / to bed / what time / you)
..... ?
13 (how much / to phone New York / it / cost)
..... ?
14 (you / for breakfast / have / usually / what)
..... ?

7.3 Complete the questions. Use these verbs:

~~do~~ do enjoy go like start teach work

1 What do you do ?
2 ..... it?
3 What time ..... in the morning?
4 ..... on Saturdays?
5 How ..... to work?
6 And your husband. What ..... ?
7 What ..... ?
8 ..... his job?

I work in a bookshop.
It's OK.
At 9 o'clock.
Sometimes.
Usually by bus.
He's a teacher.
Science.
Yes, he loves it.

7.4 Write short answers (**Yes, he does.** / **No, I don't.** etc.).

1 Do you watch TV a lot? No, I don't. or Yes, I do.
2 Do you live in a big city? .....
3 Do you often ride a bike? .....
4 Does it rain a lot where you live? .....
5 Do you play the piano? .....

→ **Additional exercises 4–7** (pages 253–54)

Unit 8

I am doing (present continuous) and I do (present simple)

A

Jack is watching television.
He is *not* playing the guitar.

But Jack has a guitar.
He often plays it and he plays very well.

Jack **plays** the guitar,
but he **is not playing** the guitar now.

Is he playing the guitar?	**No, he isn't.**	*(present continuous)*
Does he play the guitar?	**Yes, he does.**	*(present simple)*

B

Present continuous (**I am doing**) = now, at the time of speaking:

I'm doing

past — *now* — *future*

- Please be quiet. I'**m** work**ing**. (*not* I work)
- Tom **is** hav**ing** a shower at the moment. (*not* Tom has)
- Take an umbrella with you. It'**s** rain**ing**.
- You can turn off the television. I'**m** not watch**ing** it.
- Why are you under the table? What **are** you do**ing**?

C

Present simple (**I do**) = in general, all the time or sometimes:

I do

past — *now* — *future*

- I **work** every day from 9 o'clock to 5.30.
- Tom **has** a shower every morning.
- It **rains** a lot in winter.
- I **don't watch** TV very often.
- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?

D

We do *not* use these verbs in the present continuous (**I am -ing**):

like	**want**	**know**	**understand**	**remember**
prefer	**need**	**mean**	**believe**	**forget**

Use only the present simple with these verbs (I **want** / **do you like?** etc.):

- I'm tired. I **want** to go home. (*not* I'm wanting)
- '**Do** you **know** that girl?' 'Yes, but I **don't remember** her name.'
- I **don't understand**. What **do** you **mean**?

present continuous ➜ **Units 3–4** present simple ➜ **Units 5–7** present for the future ➜ **Unit 25**

Exercises

8.1 Answer the questions about the pictures.

Does he take photographs? Yes, he does.
Is he taking a photograph? No, he isn't.
What is he doing?
He's having a bath.

Is she driving a bus? .....
Does she drive a bus? .....
What is she doing?
.....

Does he clean windows? .....
Is he cleaning a window? .....
What is he doing?
.....

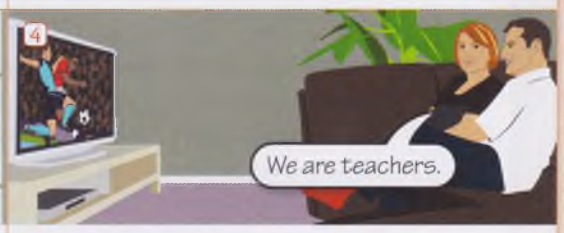

Are they teaching? .....
Do they teach? .....
What do they do?
.....

8.2 Complete the sentences with **am/is/are** or **do/don't/does/doesn't**.

1 Excuse me, do you speak English?
2 'Where's Kate?' 'I ..... know.'
3 What's funny? Why ..... you laughing?
4 'What ..... your sister do?' 'She's a dentist.'
5 It ..... raining. I ..... want to go out in the rain.
6 'Where ..... you come from?' 'Canada.'
7 How much ..... it cost to stay at this hotel? Is it expensive?
8 Steve is a good tennis player, but he ..... play very often.

8.3 Put the verb in the present continuous (**I am doing**) or the present simple (**I do**).

1 Excuse me, do you speak (you/speak) English?
2 'Where's Tom?' 'He's having (he/have) a shower.'
3 I don't watch (I/not/watch) TV very often.
4 Listen! Somebody ..... (sing).
5 Sarah is tired. ..... (she/want) to go home now.
6 How often ..... (you/use) your car? Every day?
7 'Excuse me, but ..... (you/sit) in my seat.' 'Oh, I'm sorry.'
8 I'm sorry, ... (I/not/understand). Can you speak more slowly?
9 It's late. ..... (I/go) home now. ..... (you/come) with me?
10 What time ..... (your father / finish) work every day?
11 You can turn off the radio. ..... (I/not/listen) to it.
12 'Where's Paul?' 'In the kitchen. ..... (he/cook) something.'
13 Mark ..... (not/usually/drive) to work. He ..... (usually/walk).
14 Sue ..... (not/like) coffee. ..... (she/prefer) tea.

→ Additional exercises 8–9 (page 255)

I have ... and I've got ...

A

You can say **I have** or **I've got**, **he has** or **he's got**:

I we you they	**have**	*or*	I we you they	**have got**	(I'**ve got**) (we'**ve got**) (you'**ve got**) (they'**ve got**)
he she it	**has**	*or*	he she it	**has got**	(he'**s got**) (she'**s got**) (it'**s got**)

short form

- I **have** blue eyes. *or* I'**ve got** blue eyes.
- Tom **has** two sisters. *or* Tom **has got** two sisters.
- Our car **has** four doors. *or* Our car **has got** four doors.
- Sarah isn't feeling well. She **has** a headache. *or* She'**s got** a headache.
- They like animals. They **have** a horse, three dogs and six cats. *or* They'**ve got** a horse ...

B

I **don't have** / I **haven't got** etc. (negative)

You can say:

I/you we/they	**don't**	**have**	*or*	I/you we/they	**haven't**	**got**
he/she it	**doesn't**			he/she it	**hasn't**	

- I **don't have** a car. *or* I **haven't got** a car.
- They **don't have** any children. *or* They **haven't got** any children.
- It's a nice house, but it **doesn't have** a garden. *or* ... it **hasn't got** a garden.
- Amy **doesn't have** a job at the moment. *or* Amy **hasn't got** a job ...

C

do you **have**? / **have** you **got**? etc. (questions)

You can say:

do	I/you we/they	**have**	*or*	**have**	I/you we/they	**got**
does	he/she it			**has**	he/she it	

- '**Do** you **have** a camera?' 'No, I **don't**.' *or*
  '**Have** you **got** a camera?' 'No, I **haven't**.'
- '**Does** Helen **have** a car?' 'Yes, she **does**.' *or*
  '**Has** Helen **got** a car?' 'Yes, she **has**.'
- What kind of car **does** she **have**? *or* ... **has** she **got**?
- How many children **do** they **have**? *or* ... **have** they **got**?

had / **didn't have** (past) ➜ Units 11–12 **have breakfast** / **have a shower** etc. ➜ Unit 58
some and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

9.1 Write these sentences with **got**. The meaning is the same.

1 They have two children. They've got two children.
2 She doesn't have a key. She hasn't got a key.
3 He has a new job. He .....
4 Do you have an umbrella? .....
5 We have a lot of work to do. .....
6 I don't have your phone number. .....
7 Does your father have a car? .....
8 How much money do we have? .....

9.2 Write these sentences with **do/does/don't/doesn't**. The meaning is the same.

1 Have you got any money? Do you have any money?
2 I haven't got many clothes. I .....
3 Has Tom got a brother? .....
4 How many children have they got? .....
5 Have you got any questions? .....
6 Sam hasn't got a job. .....

9.3 Read the questions and answers. Then write sentences about Mark.

1	Have you got a car?	No.	1 He hasn't got a car.
2	Have you got a bike?	Yes.	2 He .....
3	Have you got a dog?	No.	3 .....
4	Have you got a mobile phone?	Yes.	4 .....
5	Have you got a watch?	No.	5 .....
6	Have you got any brothers or sisters?	Yes, two brothers and a sister.	6 .....

Mark

What about you? Write sentences with **I've got** or **I haven't got**.

7 (a dog) .....
8 (a bike) .....
9 (brothers/sisters) .....

9.4 Complete the sentences. Use **have, has, don't have** or **doesn't have**.

1 Sarah doesn't have a car. She goes everywhere by bike.
2 They like animals. They have three dogs and two cats.
3 Charles isn't happy. He ..... a lot of problems.
4 They are always busy. They ..... much free time.
5 'What's wrong?' 'I ..... something in my eye.'
6 'Where's my pen?' 'I don't know. I ..... it.'
7 Amy wants to go to the concert, but she ..... a ticket.

9.5 Complete the sentences. Use **have/has got** or **haven't/hasn't got** with:

six legs **a key** ~~**a headache**~~ **a lot of friends** **a job** **much time**

1 I'm not feeling very well. I've got a headache.
2 Everybody likes Tom. He .....
3 She can't open the door. She .....
4 Quick!. We .....
5 An insect .....
6 I'm unemployed. I .....

→ Additional exercises 5–7 (page 254)

Unit 10

was/were

A

last night *now*

Now Robert **is** at work.

At midnight last night he **wasn't** at work.

He **was** in bed.
He **was** asleep.

am/is (present) → **was** (past):

- I **am** tired. (now) — I **was** tired **last night**.
- Where **is** Kate? (now) — Where **was** Kate **yesterday**?
- The weather **is** good today. — The weather **was** good **last week**.

are (present) → **were** (past):

- You **are** late. (now) — You **were** late **yesterday**.
- They **aren't** here. (now) — They **weren't** here **last Sunday**.

B

positive	
I he she it	**was**
we you they	**were**

negative	
I he she it	**was not (wasn't)**
we you they	**were not (weren't)**

question	
was	I? he? she? it?
were	we? you? they?

- Last year Rachel **was** 22, so she **is** 23 now.
- When I **was** a child, I **was** scared of dogs.
- We **were** hungry after the journey, but we **weren't** tired.
- The hotel **was** comfortable, but it **wasn't** expensive.

- **Was** the weather nice when you **were** on holiday?
- Your shoes are nice. **Were** they expensive?
- Why **were** you late this morning?

C

Short answers

Yes,	I/he/she/it **was**.
	we/you/they **were**.

No,	I/he/she/it **wasn't**.
	we/you/they **weren't**.

- '**Were you** late?' '**No, I wasn't.**'
- '**Was Tom** at work yesterday?' '**Yes, he was.**'
- '**Were Sue and Steve** at the party?' '**No, they weren't.**'

am/is/are → Units 1–2 I was doing → Unit 13

Exercises

10.1 Where were these people at 3 o'clock yesterday afternoon?

1 Joe was in bed.
2 Jack and Kate .....
3 Sue .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 And you? I .....

10.2 Write **am/is/are** (present) or **was/were** (past).

1 Last year she was 22, so she is 23 now.
2 Today the weather ..... nice, but yesterday it ..... very cold.
3 I ..... hungry. Can I have something to eat?
4 I feel fine this morning, but I ..... very tired last night.
5 Where ..... you at 11 o'clock last Friday morning?
6 Don't buy those shoes. They ..... very expensive.
7 I like your new jacket. ..... it expensive?
8 This time last year I ..... in Paris.
9 'Where ..... Sam and Joe?' 'I don't know. They ..... here a few minutes ago.'

10.3 Write **was/were** or **wasn't/weren't**.

1 We weren't happy with the hotel. Our room was very small and it wasn't clean.
2 Mark ..... at work last week because he ..... ill. He's better now.
3 Yesterday ..... a public holiday, so the banks ..... closed. They're open today.
4 '..... Kate and Ben at the party?' 'Kate ..... there, but Ben .....'
5 Where are my keys? They ..... on the table, but they're not there now.
6 You ..... at home last night. Where ..... you?

10.4 Write questions from these words + **was/were**. Put the words in the right order.

1 (late / you / this morning / why?)
Why were you late this morning? → The traffic was bad.

2 (difficult / your exam?)
..... → No, it was easy.

3 (last week / where / Sue and Chris?)
..... → They were on holiday.

4 (your new camera / how much?)
..... → A hundred pounds.

5 (angry / you / yesterday / why?)
..... → Because you were late.

6 (nice / the weather / last week?)
..... → Yes, it was beautiful.

Unit 11

worked/got/went etc. (past simple)

A

They **watch** TV every evening. *(present simple)*

They **watched** TV yesterday evening. *(past simple)*

watched is the *past simple*:

I/we/you/they	**watched**
he/she/it	

B

The past simple is often **-ed** (*regular verbs*). For example:

work → **worked**	dance → **danced**
clean → **cleaned**	stay → **stayed**
start → **started**	need → **needed**

- I clean my teeth every morning. This morning I **cleaned** my teeth.
- Terry **worked** in a bank from 2005 to 2011.
- Yesterday it **rained** all morning. It **stopped** at lunchtime.
- We **enjoyed** the party last night. We **danced** a lot and **talked** to a lot of people. The party **finished** at midnight.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

tr**y** → tr**ied**	stud**y** → stud**ied**	cop**y** → cop**ied**
sto**p** → sto**pped**	pla**n** → pla**nned**	

C

Some verbs are *irregular* (= not regular). The past simple is *not* **-ed**. Here are some important irregular verbs (see also Appendix 2–3):

begin →	**began**	fall →	**fell**	leave →	**left**	sell →	**sold**
break	**broke**	find	**found**	lose	**lost**	sit	**sat**
bring	**brought**	fly	**flew**	make	**made**	sleep	**slept**
build	**built**	forget	**forgot**	meet	**met**	speak	**spoke**
buy	**bought**	get	**got**	pay	**paid**	stand	**stood**
catch	**caught**	give	**gave**	put	**put**	take	**took**
come	**came**	go	**went**	read	**read** (red)*	tell	**told**
do	**did**	have	**had**	ring	**rang**	think	**thought**
drink	**drank**	hear	**heard**	say	**said**	win	**won**
eat	**ate**	know	**knew**	see	**saw**	write	**wrote**

* *pronounced 'red'*

- I usually get up early, but this morning I **got** up at 9 o'clock.
- We **did** a lot of work yesterday.
- Caroline **went** to the cinema three times last week.
- James **came** into the room, **took** off his coat and **sat** down.

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **I didn't / Did you** ... ? (negative and questions) ➜ Unit 12 **ago** ➜ Unit 19

Exercises

11.1 Complete the sentences. Use a verb from the box.

~~clean~~ **die** **enjoy** **finish** **happen** **open** **rain** **start** **stay** **want**

1 I ...cleaned... my teeth three times yesterday.
2 It was hot in the room, so I ..... the window.
3 The film was very long. It ..... at 7.15 and ..... at 10 o'clock.
4 When I was a child, I ..... to be a doctor.
5 The accident ..... last Sunday afternoon.
6 The weather is nice today, but yesterday it ..... all day.
7 We ..... our holiday last year. We ..... at a very nice place.
8 Anna's grandfather ..... when he was 90 years old.

11.2 Write the past simple of these verbs.

1 get ...got... 4 pay ..... 7 go ..... 10 know .....
2 see ..... 5 visit ..... 8 think ..... 11 put .....
3 play ..... 6 buy ..... 9 copy ..... 12 speak .....

11.3 Read about Lisa's journey to Madrid. Put the verbs in the correct form.

Last Tuesday Lisa (1) ...flew... from London to Madrid. She (2) ..... up at 6 o'clock in the morning and (3) ..... a cup of coffee. At 6.30 she (4) ..... home and (5) ..... to the airport. When she (6) ..... there, she (7) ..... the car, (8) ..... to the airport building, and (9) ..... in. Then she (10) ..... breakfast at a cafe and (11) ..... for her flight. The plane (12) ..... on time and (13) ..... in Madrid two hours later. Finally she (14) ..... a taxi from the airport to her hotel in the centre of Madrid.

fly, get
have
leave, drive
get, park, walk
check, have
wait, depart
arrive, take

11.4 Write sentences about the past (**yesterday / last week** etc.).

1 James always goes to work by car. Yesterday ...he went to work by car.
2 Rachel often loses her keys. She ..... last week.
3 Kate meets her friends every evening. She ..... yesterday evening.
4 I buy a newspaper every day. Yesterday I .....
5 We often go to the cinema at weekends. Last Sunday we .....
6 I eat an orange every day. Yesterday I .....
7 Tom always has a shower in the morning. This morning he .....
8 Our friends often come to see us. They ..... last Friday.

11.5 Write sentences about what <u>you</u> did yesterday.

1 ...I went to the theatre. 4 .....
2 ..... 5 .....
3 ..... 6 .....

→ **Additional exercise 10** (page 256)

Unit 12

I didn't ... Did you ... ? (past simple negative and questions)

A

We use **did** in past simple negatives and questions:

infinitive	*positive*		*negative*			*question*		
play	I	**played**	I	**did not (didn't)**	play	**did**	I	play?
start	we	**started**	we		start		we	start?
watch	you	**watched**	you		watch		you	watch?
have	they	**had**	they		have		they	have?
see	he	**saw**	he		see		he	see?
do	she	**did**	she		do		she	do?
go	it	**went**	it		go		it	go?

B

do/does *(present)* → **did** *(past)*:

- I **don't** watch TV very often.
  I **didn't** watch TV **yesterday**.
- **Does** she often go away?
  Did she go away **last week**?

C

We use **did/didn't** + *infinitive* (**watch/play/go** etc.):

I **watched**	*but*	I **didn't watch**	(*not* I didn't watched)
they **went**		**did** they **go**?	(*not* did they went?)
he **had**		he **didn't have**	
you **did**		**did** you **do**?	

- I **played** tennis yesterday, but I **didn't win**.
- '**Did** you **do** the shopping?' 'No, I **didn't have** time.'
- We **went** to the cinema, but we **didn't enjoy** the film.

D

Study the word order in questions:

	did + *subject*		+ *infinitive*	
	Did	your sister	**call**	you?
What	**did**	you	**do**	last night?
How	**did**	the accident	**happen**?	
Where	**did**	your parents	**go**	for their holiday?

E

Short answers

Yes,	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**did.**	No,	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**didn't.**

- '**Did you** see Joe yesterday?' '**No, I didn't.**'
- '**Did it** rain on Sunday?' '**Yes, it did.**'
- '**Did Helen** come to the party?' '**No, she didn't.**'
- '**Did your parents** have a good holiday?' '**Yes, they did.**'

worked/got/went etc. (past simple) → Unit 11

Exercises

12.1 Complete these sentences with the verb in the negative.

1 I saw Barbara, but I ...didn't see... Jane.
2 They worked on Monday, but they ..... on Tuesday.
3 We went to the post office, but we ..... to the bank.
4 She had a pen, but she ..... any paper.
5 Jack did French at school, but he ..... German.

12.2 Write questions with **Did ... ?**

1 I watched TV last night. How about you? ...Did you watch TV last night... ?
2 I enjoyed the party. How about you? ..... ?
3 I had a good holiday. How about you? ..... ?
4 I finished work early. How about you? ..... ?
5 I slept well last night. How about you? ..... ?

12.3 What did you do yesterday? Write positive or negative sentences.

1 (watch TV) ...I watched TV... or ...I didn't watch TV...
2 (get up before 7 o'clock) I .....
3 (have a shower) .....
4 (buy a magazine) .....
5 (eat meat) .....
6 (go to bed before 10.30) .....

12.4 Write B's questions. Use:

arrive **cost** **go** **go to bed late** **happen** **have a nice time** ~~**stay**~~ **win**

1 A: We went to New York last month. B: Where ...did you stay... ? A: With some friends.	5 A: We came home by taxi. B: How much ..... ? A: Ten pounds.
2 A: I was late for the meeting. B: What time ..... ? A: Half past nine.	6 A: I'm tired this morning. B: ..... ? A: No, but I didn't sleep very well.
3 A: I played tennis this afternoon. B: ..... ? A: No, I lost.	7 A: We went to the beach yesterday. B: ..... ? A: Yes, it was great.
4 A: I had a nice holiday. B: Good. Where ..... ? A: To the mountains.	8 A: The window is broken. B: How ..... ? A: I don't know.

12.5 Put the verb in the correct form – positive, negative or question.

1 We went to the cinema, but the film wasn't very good. We ...didn't enjoy... it. (enjoy)
2 Tom ..... some new clothes yesterday – two shirts, a jacket and a pullover. (buy)
3 '..... yesterday?' 'No, it was a nice day.' (rain)
4 We were tired, so we ..... long at the party. (stay)
5 It was very warm in the room, so I ..... a window. (open)
6 'Did you phone Chris this morning?' 'No, I ..... time.' (have)
7 'I cut my hand this morning.' 'How ..... that?' (do)
8 'Why weren't you at the meeting yesterday?' 'I ..... about it.' (know)

→ Additional exercises 10–13 (page 256)

I was doing (past continuous)

A

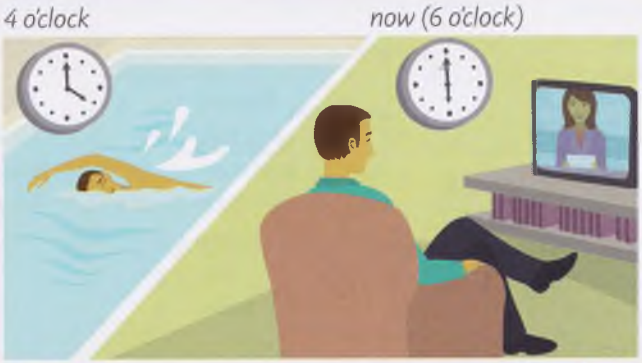

It is 6 o'clock now.
Paul **is** at home.
He **is watching** TV.

At 4 o'clock he **wasn't** at home.
He **was** at the sports club.

He **was swimming** in the pool.
He **wasn't watching** TV.

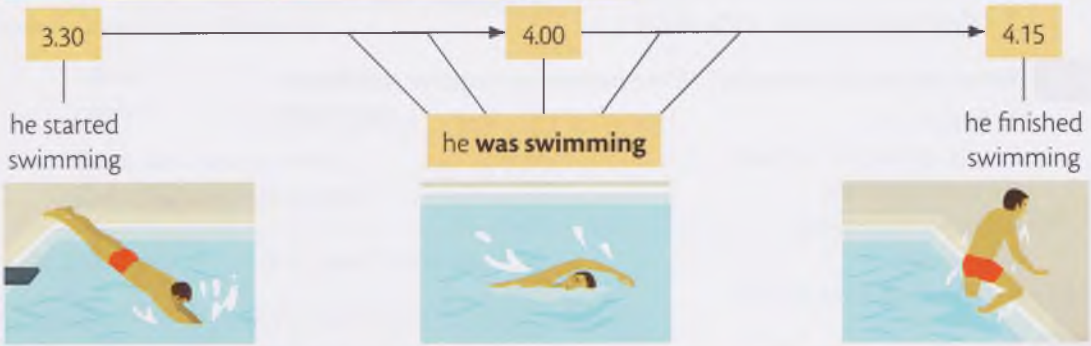

B

was/were + **-ing** is the *past continuous*:

positive

I he she it	**was**	**doing** **watching** **playing** **swimming** **living** etc.
we you they	**were**	

negative

I he she it	**was not** **(wasn't)**	**doing** **watching** **playing** **swimming** **living** etc.
we you they	**were not** **(weren't)**	

question

was	I he she it	**doing?** **watching?** **playing?** **swimming?** **living?** etc.
were	we you they	

- What **were** you **doing** at 11.30 yesterday? **Were** you **working**?
- 'What did he say?' 'I don't know. I **wasn't listening**.'
- It **was raining**, so we didn't go out.
- In 2009 we **were living** in Canada.
- Today she's wearing a skirt, but yesterday she **was wearing** trousers.
- I woke up early yesterday. It was a beautiful morning. The sun **was shining** and the birds **were singing**.

Spelling (liv**e** → liv**ing** / ru**n** → ru**nning** / l**ie** → l**ying** etc.) → Appendix 5

C

am/is/are + **-ing** *(present)* → **was/were** + **-ing** *(past)*:

present
- I**'m working** (now).
- It **isn't raining** (now).
- What **are** you **doing** (now)?

past
- I **was working** at 10.30 last night.
- It **wasn't raining** when we went out.
- What **were** you **doing** at 3 o'clock?

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **I was doing** and **I did** (past continuous and simple) ➜ Unit 14

Exercises

13.1 Look at the pictures. Where were these people at 3 o'clock yesterday afternoon? And what were they doing? Write two sentences for each picture.

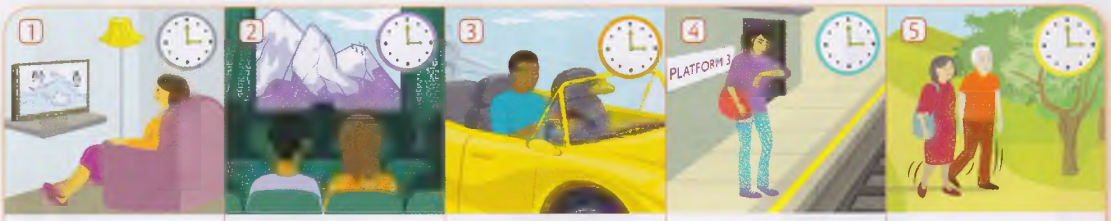

RACHEL	JACK KATE	TOM	TRACEY	MR AND MRS HALL
at home watch TV	at the cinema watch a film	in his car drive	at the station wait for a train	in the park walk

1 Rachel was at home. She was watching TV.
2 Jack and Kate ..... . They .....
3 Tom .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 And you? I .....

13.2 Sarah did a lot of things yesterday morning. Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 At 8.45 she was washing her car.
2 At 10.45 she .....
.....
3 At 8 o'clock .....
.....
4 At 12.10 .....
.....
5 At 7.15 .....
.....
6 At 9.30 .....
.....

13.3 Complete the questions. Use **was/were -ing**. Use **what/where/why** if necessary.

1 (you/live) Where were you living ..... in 2012?
2 (you/do) ..... at 2 o'clock?
3 (it/rain) ..... when you got up?
4 (Sue/drive) ..... so fast?
5 (Tom/wear) ..... a suit yesterday?

In London.
I was asleep.
No, it was sunny.
Because she was late.
No, a T-shirt and jeans.

13.4 Look at the picture. You saw Joe in the street yesterday afternoon. What was he doing? Write positive or negative sentences.

1 (wear / a jacket) He wasn't wearing a jacket.
2 (carry / a bag) .....
3 (go / to the dentist) .....
4 (eat / an ice cream) .....
5 (carry / an umbrella) .....
6 (go / home) .....
7 (wear / a hat) .....
8 (ride / a bicycle) .....

Unit 14

I was doing (past continuous) and I did (past simple)

A

Jack was reading a book. | His phone rang. | He stopped reading. | He answered his phone.

What **happened**? His phone **rang**. *(past simple)*

What **was** Jack **doing** when his phone rang?
He **was reading** a book. } *(past continuous)*

What **did** he **do** when his phone rang?
He **stopped** reading and **answered** his phone. } *(past simple)*

Jack began reading *before* his phone rang.
So *when* his phone rang, he **was reading**.

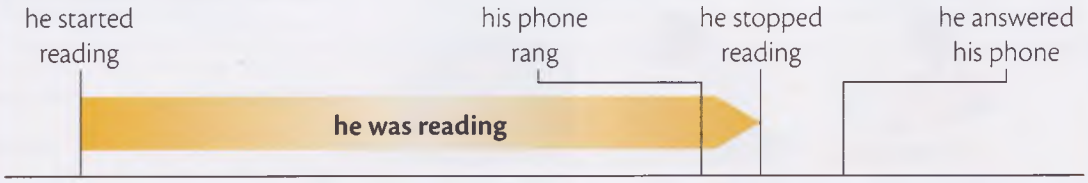

B

past simple

- A: What **did** you **do** yesterday morning?
  B: We **played** tennis. (from 10 to 11.30)

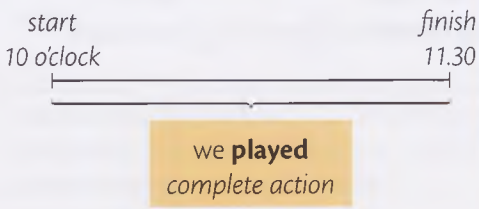

- Jack **read** a book yesterday. (= from beginning to end)
- **Did** you **watch** the game on TV last night?
- It **didn't rain** while we were on holiday.

past continuous

- A: What **were** you **doing** at 10.30?
  B: We **were playing** tennis.

- Jack **was reading** a book when his phone rang.
- **Were** you **watching** TV when I phoned you?
- It **wasn't raining** when I got up.

- I **started** work at 9 o'clock and **finished** at 4.30. At 2.30 I **was working**.
- It **was raining** when we **went** out. (= it started raining *before* we went out)
- I **saw** Lucy and Steve this morning. They **were waiting** at the bus stop.
- Kelly **fell** asleep while she **was reading**.

I did (past simple) ➜ Units 11–12 **I was doing** (past continuous) ➜ Unit 13 **while** ➜ Unit 105

Exercises

14.1 Look at the pictures. Put the verbs in the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

1

Lucy ...broke... (break) her arm last week. It ..... (happen) when she ..... (paint) her room. She ..... (fall) off the ladder.

2

The train ..... (arrive) at the station and Paula ..... (get) off. Two friends of hers, Jon and Rachel, ... (wait) to meet her.

3

Yesterday Sue ..... (walk) along the road when she ..... (meet) James. He ..... (go) to the station to catch a train and he ..... (carry) a bag. They ..... (stop) to talk for a few minutes.

14.2 Put the verb into the past continuous or past simple.

1 A: What was the weather like when you ...got... (get) up this morning?
B: It ...was raining... (rain).

2 A: Was Jane busy when you went to see her?
B: Yes, she ..... (study).

3 A: ..... (Paul/call) you this morning?
B: Yes, he ..... (call) while I ..... (have) breakfast.

4 A: Was Tracey at work today?
B: No, she ..... (not/go) to work. She was ill.

5 A: How fast ..... (you/drive) when the police ..... (stop) you?
B: I'm not sure, but I ..... (not/drive) very fast.

6 A: ..... (your team / win) the football match yesterday?
B: The weather was very bad, so we ..... (not/play).

7 A: How ..... (you/break) the window?
B: We ..... (play) football. I ..... (kick) the ball and it ..... (hit) the window.

8 A: ..... (you/see) Jessica last night?
B: Yes, she ..... (wear) a very nice jacket.

9 A: What ..... (you/do) at 2 o'clock this morning?
B: I was asleep.

10 A: I ..... (lose) my key last night.
B: How ..... (you/get) into your room?
A: I ..... (climb) in through a window.

→ Additional exercises 14–15 (pages 257–58)

Unit 15

I have done (present perfect 1)

A

His shoes are dirty.

He is cleaning his shoes.

He **has cleaned** his shoes.
(= his shoes are clean *now*)

They are at home.

They are going out.

They **have gone** out.
(= they are not at home *now*)

B

has cleaned / **have gone** etc. is the *present perfect* (**have** + *past participle*):

I we you they	**have** (**'ve**) **have not** (**haven't**)	**cleaned** **finished** **started** **lost** **done** **been** **gone**
he she it	**has** (**'s**) **has not** (**hasn't**)	

↑ *past participle*

have	I we you they	**cleaned?** **finished?** **started?** **lost?**
has	he she it	**done?** **been?** **gone?**

regular verbs

irregular verbs

Regular verbs The past participle is **-ed** (the same as the past simple):

clean → I have clean**ed** finish → we have finish**ed** start → she has start**ed**

Irregular verbs The past participle is not **-ed**.
Sometimes the past simple and past participle are the same:

buy → I **bought** / I have **bought** have → he **had** / he has **had**

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are different:

break → I **broke** / I have **broken** see → you **saw** / you have **seen**
fall → it **fell** / it has **fallen** go → they **went** / they have **gone**

C

We use the present perfect for *an action in the past* with a result *now*:

- I**'ve lost** my passport. (= I can't find my passport *now*)
- 'Where's Rebecca?' 'She**'s gone** to bed.' (= she is in bed *now*)
- We**'ve bought** a new car. (= we have a new car *now*)
- It's Rachel's birthday tomorrow and I **haven't bought** her a present. (= I don't have a present for her *now*)
- 'Bob is away on holiday.' 'Oh, where **has** he **gone**?' (= where is he *now*?)
- Can I take this newspaper? **Have** you **finished** with it? (= do you need it *now*?)

present perfect → **Units 16–19** present perfect and past simple → **Unit 20**
irregular verbs → **Unit 24, Appendix 2–3**

Exercises

15.1 Look at the pictures. What has happened? Choose from the box.

go to bed	**~~clean his shoes~~**	**stop raining**
close the door	**fall down**	**have a shower**

before *now*

1 → He has cleaned his shoes.

2 → She .....

3 → They .....

4 → It .....

5 → He .....

6 → The .....

15.2 Complete the sentences with a verb from the box.

break	**buy**	**decide**	**finish**	**forget**	**go**	**go**
invite	**~~lose~~**	**see**	**not/see**	**take**	**tell**	**not/tell**

1 I 've lost my keys. I don't know where they are.
2 I ..... some new shoes. Do you want to see them?
3 'Where is Helen?' 'She's not here. She ..... out.'
4 I'm looking for Paula. ..... you ..... her?
5 Look! Somebody ..... that window.
6 'Does Lisa know that you're going away?' 'Yes, I ..... her.'
7 I can't find my umbrella. Somebody ..... it.
8 'Where are my glasses?' 'I don't know. I ..... them.'
9 I'm looking for Sarah. Where ..... she ..... ?
10 I know that woman, but I ..... her name.
11 Sue is having a party tonight. She ..... a lot of people.
12 What are you going to do? ..... you ..... ?
13 A: Does Ben know about the meeting tomorrow?
B: I don't think so. I ..... him.
14 I ..... with this magazine. Do you want it?

Unit 16

I've just ... I've already ... I haven't ... yet (present perfect 2)

A

I've just ...

just = a short time ago

- A: Are Laura and Paul here?
  B: Yes, they'**ve just arrived**.
- A: Are you hungry?
  B: No, I'**ve just had** dinner.
- A: Is Tom here?
  B: No, I'm afraid he'**s just gone**.
  (= he **has** just gone)

They **have just arrived**.

B

I've already ...

already = before you expected / before I expected

- A: What time are Laura and Paul coming?
  B: They'**ve already arrived**.
  (= before you expected)
- It's only 9 o'clock and Anna **has already gone** to bed. (= before I expected)
- A: Jon, this is Emma.
  B: Yes, I know. We'**ve already met**.

C

I haven't ... **yet** / **Have you** ... **yet?**

yet = until now

We use **yet** in negative sentences and questions. **Yet** is usually at the end.

yet in negative sentences (**I haven't** ... **yet**)

- A: Are Laura and Paul here?
  B: No, they **haven't arrived yet**.
  (but B expects Laura and Paul to arrive soon)
- A: Does James know that you're going away?
  B: No, I **haven't told** him **yet**.
  (but B is going to tell him soon)
- Silvia has bought a new dress, but she **hasn't worn** it **yet**.

The film **hasn't started yet**.

yet in questions (**Have** you ... **yet**?)

- A: **Have** Laura and Paul **arrived yet**?
  B: No, not yet. We're still waiting for them.
- A: **Has** Nicola **started** her new job **yet**?
  B: No, she starts next week.
- A: This is my new dress.
  B: Oh, it's nice. **Have** you **worn** it **yet**?

present perfect ➜ Units 15, 17–20 word order ➜ Unit 94 **still**, **yet** and **already** ➜ Unit 95

Exercises

16.1 Write a sentence with **just** for each picture.

1 They've just arrived.
2 He .....
3 They .....
4 The race .....

16.2 Complete the sentences. Use **already** + present perfect.

1 What time is Paul arriving? — He's already arrived.
2 Do your friends want to see the film? — No, they ..... it.
3 Don't forget to phone Tom. — I .....
4 When is Mark going away? — He .....
5 Do you want to read the newspaper? — I .....
6 When does Sarah start her new job? — She .....

16.3 Write a sentence with **just** (**They've just ...** / **She's just ...** etc.) or a negative sentence with **yet** (**They haven't ... yet** / **She hasn't ... yet** etc.).

1 (she / go / out) She hasn't gone out yet.
2 (the bus / go) The bus .....
3 (the train / leave) .....
4 (he / open / it) .....
5 (they / finish / their dinner) .....
6 (it / stop / raining) .....

16.4 Write questions with **yet**.

1 Your friend has a new job. Perhaps she has started it. You ask her:
Have you started your new job yet?
2 Your friend has some new neighbours. Perhaps he has met them. You ask him:
..... you .....
3 Your friend has to pay her electricity bill. Perhaps she has paid it. You ask her:
.....
4 Tom was trying to sell his car. Perhaps he has sold it. You ask a friend about Tom:
.....

Have you ever ... ? (present perfect 3)

A

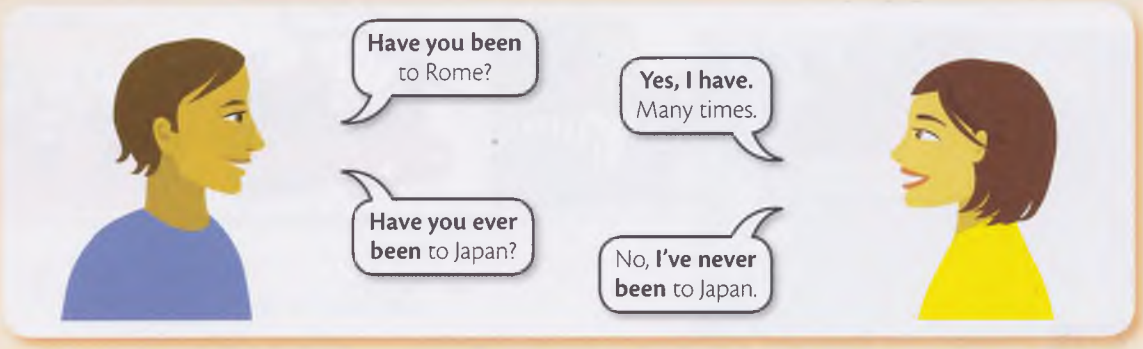

We use the *present perfect* (**have been** / **have had** / **have played** etc.) when we talk about a time from the past until now – for example, a person's life:

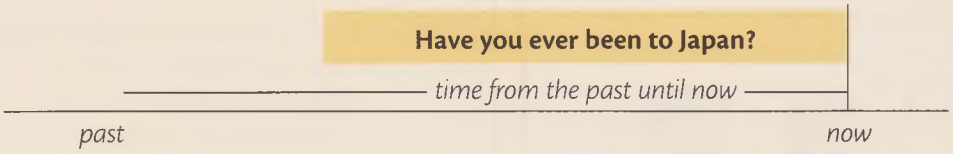

- '**Have** you **been** to France?' 'No, I **haven't**.'
- I'**ve been** to Canada, but I **haven't been** to the United States.
- Mary is an interesting person. She **has had** many different jobs and **has lived** in many places.
- I'**ve seen** that woman before, but I can't remember where.
- How many times **has** Brazil **won** the World Cup?
- '**Have** you **read** this book?' 'Yes, I'**ve read** it twice.' (**twice** = two times)

B

present perfect + **ever** (in questions) and **never**:

- '**Has** Ann **ever been** to Australia?' 'Yes, once.' (**once** = one time)
- '**Have** you **ever played** golf?' 'Yes, I play a lot.'
- My sister **has never travelled** by plane.
- I'**ve never ridden** a horse.
- 'Who is that man?' 'I don't know. I'**ve never seen** him before.'

C

gone and **been**

Ben **has gone** to Spain.
(= he is in Spain *now*)

Ben **has been** to Spain.
(= he went to Spain, but now he is back)

Compare:

- I can't find Susan. Where **has** she **gone?** (= where is she now?)
- Oh, hello Susan! I was looking for you. Where **have** you **been**?

present perfect ➜ **Units 15–16, 18** present perfect and past simple ➜ **Unit 20**

Exercises

17.1 You are asking Helen questions beginning **Have you ever ... ?** Write the questions.

Helen

1 (be / London?)	Have you ever been to London?	No, never.
2 (play / golf?)	Have you ever played golf?	Yes, many times.
3 (be / Australia?)	Have	Yes, once.
4 (lose / your passport?)	.....	No, never.
5 (fly / in a helicopter?)	.....	Yes, a few times.
6 (win / a race?)	.....	No, never.
7 (be / New York?)	.....	Yes, twice.
8 (drive / a bus?)	.....	No, never.
9 (break / your leg?)	.....	Yes, once.

17.2 Write sentences about Helen. (Look at her answers in Exercise 17.1.)

1 (be / New York) She's been to New York twice.
2 (be / Australia) She .....
3 (win / a race) .....
4 (fly / in a helicopter) .....

Now write about yourself. How often have you done these things?

5 (be / New York) I .....
6 (play / tennis) .....
7 (drive / a lorry) .....
8 (be / late for work or school) .....

17.3 Mary is 65 years old. She has had an interesting life. What has she done?

Mary

~~have~~	be
do	write
travel	meet

all over the world	a lot of interesting things
~~many different jobs~~	a lot of interesting people
ten books	married three times

1 She has had many different jobs.
2 She .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

17.4 Write **gone** or **been**.

1 Ben is on holiday at the moment. He's gone to Spain.
2 'Have you ever ..... to Mexico?' 'No, never.'
3 My parents aren't at home at the moment. They've ..... out.
4 There's a new restaurant in town. Have you ..... to it?
5 Rebecca loves Paris. She's ..... there many times.
6 Helen was here earlier, but I think she's ..... now.
7 'Where's Jessica?' 'She's not in the office. I think she's ..... home.'
8 Hello, Sue. I was looking for you. Where have you ..... ?

→ **Additional exercises 16, 18** (pages 258–60)

How long have you ... ? (present perfect 4)

A

Helen is on holiday in Ireland.
She is there now.

She arrived in Ireland on Monday.
Today is Thursday.

How long **has she been** in Ireland?

She **has been** in Ireland { **since Monday.** / **for three days.** }

Compare **is** and **has been**:

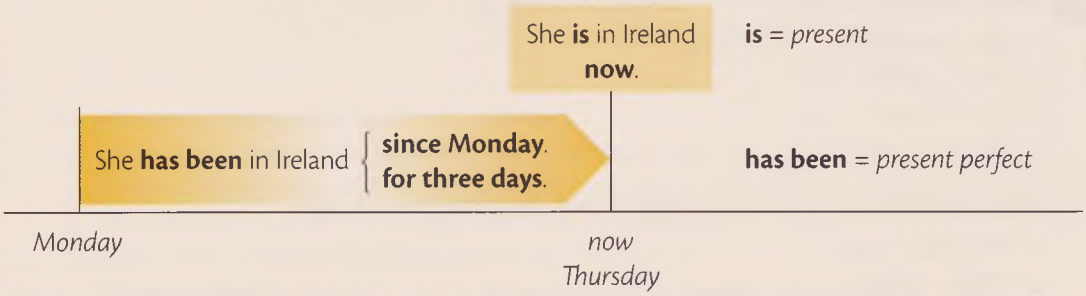

B

Compare:

present simple	*present perfect simple* (**have been** / **have lived** / **have known** etc.)
Dan and Kate **are** married.	They **have been** married **for five years**. (*not* They are married for five years.)
Are you married?	**How long have** you **been** married? (*not* How long are you married?)
Do you **know** Lisa?	**How long have** you **known** her? (*not* How long do you know her?)
I **know** Lisa.	I'**ve known** her **for a long time**. (*not* I know her for ...)
Vicky **lives** in London.	**How long has** she **lived** in London? She **has lived** there **all her life**.
I **have** a car.	**How long have** you **had** your car? I'**ve had** it **since April**.

present continuous	*present perfect continuous* (**have been** + **-ing**)
I'**m learning** German.	**How long have** you **been learning** German? (*not* How long are you learning German?) I'**ve been learning** German **for two years**.
David **is watching** TV.	**How long has** he **been watching** TV? He'**s been** (= He **has been**) **watching** TV **since 5 o'clock**.
It'**s raining**.	It'**s been** (= It **has been**) **raining all day**.

for and **since** ➜ Units 19, 104

Exercises

18.1 Complete these sentences.

1 Helen is in Ireland. She ....has been.... in Ireland since Monday.
2 I know Lisa. I ....have known.... her for a long time.
3 Sarah and Andy are married. They ..... married since 2005.
4 Ben is ill. He ..... ill for the last few days.
5 We live in Scott Road. We ..... there for a long time.
6 Catherine works in a bank. She ..... there for five years.
7 Alan has a headache. He ..... a headache since he got up this morning.
8 I'm learning English. I ..... English for six months.

18.2 Make questions with **How long ... ?**

1	Helen is on holiday.	....How long has she been on holiday.... ?
2	Steve and Nadia are in Brazil.	How long ..... ?
3	I know Amy.	How long ..... you ..... ?
4	Emily is learning Italian.	..... ?
5	My brother lives in Canada.	..... ?
6	I'm a teacher.	..... ?
7	It is raining.	..... ?

18.3 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with:

for ten minutes	**all day**	**all her life**
~~**for ten years**~~	**since he was 20**	**since Sunday**

1 ....They have been married for ten years....
2 She .....
3 They .....
4 The sun .....
5 She .....
6 He .....

18.4 Which is right?

1 Mark ~~lives~~ / has lived in Canada since April. (has lived *is right*)
2 Jane and I are friends. I know / I've known her very well.
3 Jane and I are friends. I know / I've known her for a long time.
4 A: Sorry I'm late. How long are you waiting/ have you been waiting?
B: Not long. Only five minutes.
5 Luke works / has worked in a hotel now. He likes his job a lot.
6 Ruth is reading a newspaper. She is reading / She has been reading it for two hours.
7 'How long do you live / have you lived in this house?' 'About ten years.'
8 'Is that a new coat?' 'No, I have / I've had this coat for a long time.'
9 Tom is / has been in Spain at the moment. He is / He has been there for the last three days.

Unit 19

for since ago

A for and since

We use **for** and **since** to say *how long*:

- Helen is in Ireland. She **has been** there { **for three days.** / **since Monday.**

We use **for** + a period of time (**three days** / **two years** etc.):

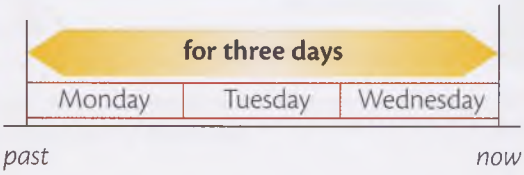

for	
three days	ten minutes
an hour	two hours
a week	four weeks
a month	six months
five years	a long time

- Richard has been in Canada **for six months**. (*not* since six months)
- We've been waiting **for two hours**. (*not* since two hours)
- I've lived in London **for a long time**.

We use **since** + the start of the period (**Monday** / **9 o'clock** etc.):

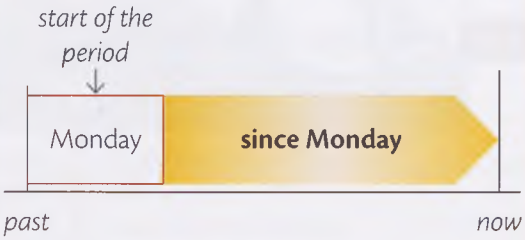

since	
Monday	Wednesday
9 o'clock	12.30
24 July	Christmas
January	I was ten years old
1985	we arrived

- Richard has been in Canada **since January**. (= from January to now)
- We've been waiting **since 9 o'clock**. (= from 9 o'clock to now)
- I've lived in London **since I was ten years old**.

B ago

ago = before now:

- Susan started her new job **three weeks ago**. (= three weeks before now)
- 'When did Tom go out?' '**Ten minutes ago.**' (= ten minutes before now)
- I had dinner **an hour ago**.
- Life was very different **a hundred years ago**.

We use **ago** with the *past* (**started**/**did**/**had**/**was** etc.).

Compare **ago** and **for**:

- **When did** Helen **arrive** in Ireland?
  She **arrived** in Ireland **three days ago**.
- **How long has** she **been** in Ireland?
  She **has been** in Ireland **for three days**.

present perfect + **for/since** ➜ Unit 18 **from/until/since/for** ➜ Unit 104 **for** and **during** ➜ Unit 105

Exercises

19.1 Write **for** or **since**.

1 Helen has been in Ireland ...since... Monday.
2 Helen has been in Ireland ...for... three days.
3 My aunt has lived in Australia ..... 15 years.
4 Tina is in her office. She has been there ..... 7 o'clock.
5 India has been an independent country ..... 1947.
6 The bus is late. We've been waiting ..... 20 minutes.
7 Nobody lives in those houses. They have been empty ..... many years.
8 Michael has been ill ..... a long time. He has been in hospital ..... October.

19.2 Answer these questions. Use **ago**.

1 When was your last meal? ...Three hours ago.....
2 When was the last time you were ill? .....
3 When did you last go to the cinema? .....
4 When was the last time you were in a car? .....
5 When was the last time you went on holiday? .....

19.3 Complete the sentences. Use **for** or **ago** with these words.

1 Helen arrived in Ireland ...three days ago..... (three days)
2 Helen has been in Ireland ...for three days..... (three days)
3 Lynn and Mark have been married ..... (20 years)
4 Lynn and Mark got married ..... (20 years)
5 Dan arrived ..... (an hour)
6 I bought these shoes ..... (a few days)
7 Silvia has been learning English ..... (six months)
8 Have you known Lisa ..... ? (a long time)

19.4 Complete the sentences with **for** or **since**.

1 (Helen is in Ireland – she arrived there three days ago)
...Helen has been in Ireland for three days.....
2 (Jack is here – he arrived on Tuesday)
Jack has .....
3 (It's raining – it started an hour ago)
It's been .....
4 (I know Sue – I first met her in 2008)
I've .....
5 (Claire and Matt are married – they got married six months ago)
Claire and Matt have .....
6 (Laura is studying medicine at university – she started three years ago)
Laura has .....
7 (David plays the piano – he started when he was seven years old)
David has .....

19.5 Write sentences about yourself. Begin your sentences with:

I've lived ... **I've been ...** **I've been learning ...** **I've known ...** **I've had ...**

1 ...I've lived in this town for three years.....
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

→ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 258–60)

Unit 20

I have done (present perfect) and I did (past)

A

With a *finished time* (**yesterday** / **last week** etc.), we use the past (**arrived**/**saw**/**was** etc.):

past	+ *finished time*
We **arrived**	yesterday. last week. at 3 o'clock. in 2002. six months ago.

Do *not* use the present perfect (**have arrived** / **have done** / **have been** etc.) with a finished time:

- I **saw** Paula **yesterday**.
  (*not* I have seen)
- Where **were** you **on Sunday afternoon**?
  (*not* Where have you been)
- We **didn't have** a holiday **last year**.
  (*not* We haven't had)
- 'What **did** you **do last night**?' 'I **stayed** at home.'
- William Shakespeare **lived from 1564 to 1616**. He **was** a writer. He **wrote** many plays and poems.

Use the past to ask **When** ... **?** or **What time** ... **?**:

- **When did** you **buy** your computer? (*not* When have you bought)
- **What time did** Andy **go** out? (*not* What time has Andy gone out)

B

Compare:

present perfect

- I **have lost** my key.
  (= I can't find it *now*)
- Ben **has gone** home.
  (= he isn't here *now*)
- **Have** you **seen** Kate?
  (= where is she *now*?)

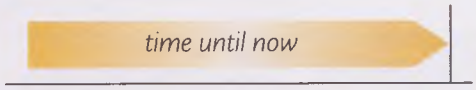

past *now*

- **Have** you **ever been** to Spain?
  (= in your life, until *now*)
- My friend is a writer. He **has written** many books.
- Sam **hasn't phoned** me yet.
- We'**ve lived** in Singapore for six years.
  (= we live there *now*)

past

- I **lost** my key **last week**.
- Ben **went** home **ten minutes ago**.
- **Did** you **see** Kate **on Saturday**?

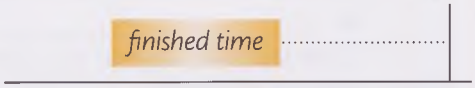

past *now*

- **Did** you **go** to Spain **last year**?
- Shakespeare **wrote** many plays and poems.
- Sam **didn't phone** me yesterday.
- We **lived** in Glasgow for six years, but now we live in Singapore.

past simple ➜ Units 11–12 present perfect ➜ Units 15–18

Exercises

20.1 Complete the answers to the questions.

1	Have you seen Kate?	Yes, I saw her ..... five minutes ago.
2	Have you started your new job?	Yes, I ..... last week.
3	Have your friends arrived?	Yes, they ..... at 5 o'clock.
4	Has Sarah gone away?	Yes, ... on Friday.
5	Have you worn your new suit?	Yes, ... yesterday.

20.2 Are these sentences OK? Correct the verbs that are wrong. (The verbs are underlined.)

1 I've lost my key. I can't find it. ..... OK .....
2 Have you seen Kate yesterday? ..... Did you see .....
3 I've finished my work at 2 o'clock. .....
4 I'm ready now. I've finished my work. .....
5 What time have you finished your work? .....
6 Sue isn't here. She's gone out. .....
7 Steve's grandmother has died two years ago. .....
8 Where have you been last night? .....

20.3 Put the verb in the present perfect or past.

1 My friend is a writer. He ..... has written ..... (write) many books.
2 We ..... didn't have ..... (not/have) a holiday last year.
3 I ..... (play) tennis yesterday afternoon.
4 What time ..... (you/go) to bed last night?
5 ..... (you ever meet) a famous person?
6 The weather ..... (not/be) very good yesterday.
7 Kathy travels a lot. She ..... (visit) many countries.
8 I ..... (switch) off the light before going out this morning.
9 I live in New York now, but I ..... (live) in Mexico for many years.
10 'What's Canada like? Is it beautiful?' 'I don't know. I ..... (not/be) there.'

20.4 Put the verb in the present perfect or past.

1 A: ..... Have you ever been. ..... (you/ever/be) to Florida?
B: Yes, we ..... went ..... (go) there on holiday two years ago.
A: ..... (you/have) a good time?
B: Yes, it ..... (be) great.

2 A: Where's Alan? ..... (you/see) him?
B: Yes, he ..... (go) out a few minutes ago.
A: And Rachel?
B: I don't know. I ..... (not/see) her.

3 Rose works in a factory. She ..... (work) there for six months. Before that she ..... (be) a waitress in a restaurant. She ..... (work) there for two years, but she ..... (not/enjoy) it very much.

4 A: Do you know Mark's sister?
B: I ..... (see) her a few times, but I ..... (never/speak) to her. ..... (you/ever/speak) to her?
A: Yes. I ..... (meet) her at a party last week. She's very nice.

→ Additional exercises 19–23, 29–31 (pages 260–62, 265–67)

is done was done (passive 1)

A

The office **is cleaned** every day.

The office **was cleaned** yesterday.

Compare active and passive:

Somebody **cleans** the office every day.	*(active)*
The office **is cleaned** every day.	*(passive)*
Somebody **cleaned** the office yesterday.	*(active)*
The office **was cleaned** yesterday.	*(passive)*

B

The passive is:

					past participle
present simple	**am/is/are**	(not)	+	**cleaned**	**done**
past simple	**was/were**			**invented**	**built**
				injured	**taken** etc.

The past participle of regular verbs is **-ed** (clean**ed**/damag**ed** etc.).
For a list of irregular past participles (**done/built/taken** etc.), see Appendix 2–3.

- Butter **is made** from milk.
- Oranges **are imported** into Britain.
- How often **are** these rooms **cleaned**?
- I **am** never **invited** to parties.

- This house **was built** 100 years ago.
- These houses **were built** 100 years ago.
- When **was** the telephone **invented**?
- We **weren't invited** to the party last week.
- '**Was** anybody **injured** in the accident?' 'Yes, two people **were taken** to hospital.'

C

was/were born

- I **was born** in Berlin in 1993. (*not* I am born)
- 'Where **were** you **born**?' 'In Cairo.'

D

passive + **by** ...

- The telephone was invented **by Alexander Bell** in 1876. (= Alexander Bell invented it)
- I was bitten **by a dog** a few days ago.
- Do you like these paintings? They were painted **by a friend of mine**.

is being done / has been done ➜ Unit 22 irregular verbs ➜ Unit 24, Appendix 2–3 **by** ➜ Unit 111
active and passive ➜ Appendix 1

Exercises

21.1 Write sentences from these words. Some of the sentences are questions.

Sentences 1–7 are present.

1 (the office / clean / every day) The office is cleaned every day.
2 (how often / these rooms / clean?) How often are these rooms cleaned?
3 (glass / make / from sand) Glass .....
4 (the windows / clean / every two weeks) .....
5 (this room / not / use / very much) .....
6 (we / allow / to park here?) .....
7 (how / this word / pronounce?) .....

Sentences 8–15 are past.

8 (the office / clean / yesterday) The office was cleaned yesterday.
9 (the house / paint / last month) The house .....
10 (my phone / steal / a few days ago) .....
11 (three people / injure / in the accident) .....
12 (when / this bridge / build?) .....
13 (I / not / wake up / by the noise) .....
14 (how / these windows / break?) .....
15 (you / invite / to Jon's party last week?) .....

21.2 These sentences are not correct. Correct them.

1 This house built 100 years ago. This house was built
2 Football plays in most countries of the world. .....
3 Why did the letter send to the wrong address? .....
4 A film studio is a place where films make. .....
5 Where are you born? .....
6 How many languages are speaking in Switzerland? .....
7 Somebody broke into our house, but nothing stolen. .....
8 When was invented the bicycle? .....

21.3 Complete the sentences. Use the passive (present or past) of these verbs:

~~clean~~ damage find give invite make make show steal ~~take~~

1 The room is cleaned every day.
2 I saw an accident yesterday. Two people were taken to hospital.
3 Paper ..... from wood.
4 There was a fire at the hotel last week. Two of the rooms ..... .
5 'Where did you get this picture?' 'It ..... to me by a friend of mine.'
6 Many American programmes ..... on British TV.
7 'Did James and Sue go to the wedding?' 'No. They ....., but they didn't go.'
8 'How old is this film?' 'It ..... in 1985.'
9 My car ..... last week, but the next day it ..... by the police.

21.4 Where were they born?

1 (Ian / Edinburgh) Ian was born in Edinburgh.
2 (Sarah / Manchester) Sarah .....
3 (her parents / Ireland) Her .....
4 (you / ???) I .....
5 (your mother / ???) .....

Unit 22

is being done has been done (passive 2)

A

is/are being ... *(present continuous passive)*

Somebody **is painting** the door . *(active)*

The door **is being painted**. *(passive)*

- My car is at the garage. It **is being repaired**. (= somebody is repairing it)
- Some new houses **are being built** opposite the park. (= somebody is building them)

Compare the present continuous and present simple:

- The office **is being cleaned** at the moment. *(continuous)*
  The office **is cleaned** every day. *(simple)*
- Football matches **are** often **played** at the weekend, but no matches **are being played** next weekend.

For the present continuous and present simple, see Units 8 and 25.

B

has/have been ... *(present perfect passive)*

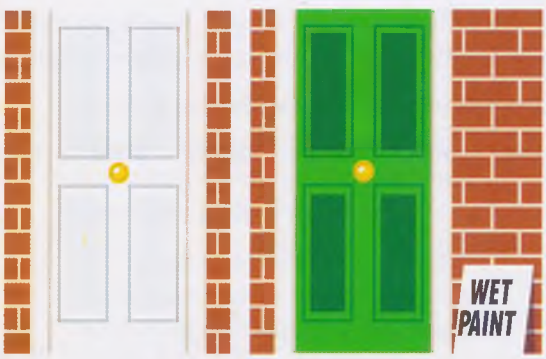

Somebody **has painted** the door . *(active)*

The door **has been painted**. *(passive)*

- My key **has been stolen**. (= somebody has stolen it)
- My keys **have been stolen**. (= somebody has stolen them)
- I'm not going to the party. I **haven't been invited**. (= nobody has invited me)
- **Has** this shirt **been washed**? (= has somebody washed it?)

Compare the present perfect and past simple:

- The room isn't dirty any more. It **has been cleaned**. *(present perfect)*
  The room **was cleaned** yesterday. *(past simple)*
- I can't find my keys. I think they**'ve been stolen**. *(present perfect)*
  My keys **were stolen** last week. *(past simple)*

For the present perfect and past simple, see Unit 20.

is done / was done ➜ **Unit 21** active and passive ➜ **Appendix 1**

Exercises

22.1 What's happening?

1 The car is being repaired.
2 A bridge .....
3 The windows .....
4 The grass .....

22.2 Look at the pictures. What is happening or what has happened? Use the present continuous (**is/are being ...**) or the present perfect (**has/have been ...**).

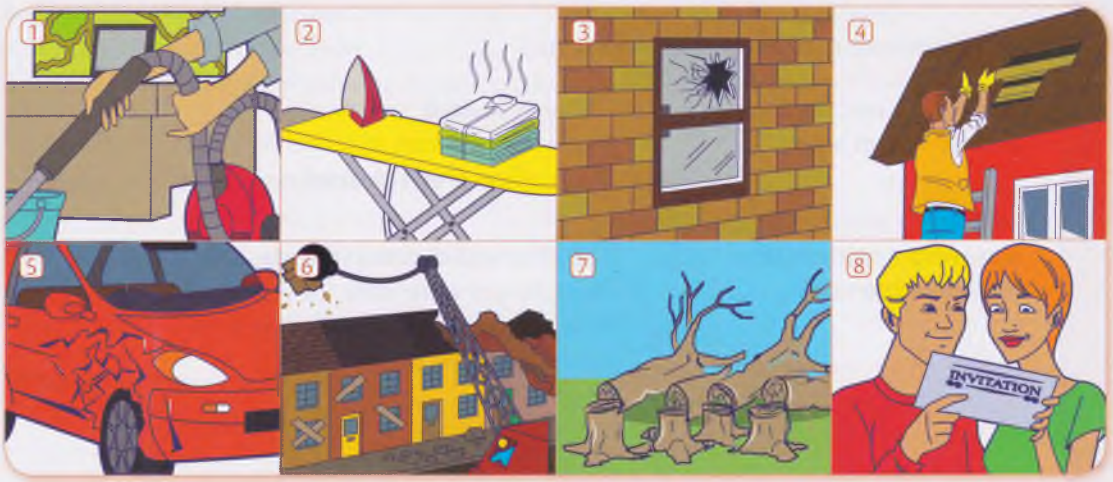

1 (the office / clean) The office is being cleaned.
2 (the shirts / iron) The shirts have been ironed.
3 (the window / break) The window .....
4 (the roof / repair) The roof .....
5 (the car / damage) .....
6 (the houses / knock / down) .....
7 (the trees / cut / down) .....
8 (they / invite / to a party) .....

22.3 Complete the sentences. (Study Unit 21 before you do this exercise.)

1 I can't use my office at the moment. It is being painted (paint).
2 We didn't go to the party. We weren't invited (not/invite).
3 The washing machine was broken, but it's OK now. It ..... (repair).
4 The washing machine ..... (repair) yesterday afternoon.
5 A factory is a place where things ..... (make).
6 How old are these houses? When ..... (they/build)?
7 A: ..... (the photocopier / use) at the moment?
B: No, you can go ahead and use it.
8 I've never seen these flowers before. What ..... (they/call)?
9 My sunglasses ..... (steal) at the beach yesterday.
10 The bridge is closed at the moment. It ..... (damage) last week and it ..... (not/repair) yet.

→ Additional exercises 24–27 (pages 263–64)

Unit 23

be/have/do in present and past tenses

A

be (= **am/is/are/was/were**) + **-ing** (**cleaning/working** etc.)

am/is/are + -ing
(present continuous)
→ Units 3–4 and 25

- Please be quiet. **I'm working**.
- It **isn't raining** at the moment.
- What **are** you **doing** this evening?

was/were + -ing
(past continuous)
→ Unit 13

- I **was working** when she arrived.
- It **wasn't raining**, so we didn't need an umbrella.
- What **were** you **doing** at 3 o'clock?

B

be + *past participle* (**cleaned/made/eaten** etc.)

am/is/are + *past participle*
(passive present simple)
→ Unit 21

- I'**m** never **invited** to parties.
- Butter **is made** from milk.
- These offices **aren't cleaned** every day.

was/were + *past participle*
(passive past simple)
→ Unit 21

- The office **was cleaned** yesterday.
- These houses **were built** 100 years ago.
- How **was** the window **broken**?
- Where **were** you **born**?

C

have/has + *past participle* (**cleaned/lost/eaten/been** etc.)

have/has + *past participle*
(present perfect)
→ Units 15–18

- I'**ve cleaned** my room.
- Tom **has lost** his passport.
- Kate **hasn't been** to Canada.
- Where **have** Paul and Emma **gone**?

D

do/does/did + *infinitive* (**clean/like/eat/go** etc.)

do/does + *infinitive*
(present simple negative and questions)
→ Units 6–7

- I like coffee, but I **don't like** tea.
- Chris **doesn't go** out very often.
- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?
- **Does** Sam **live** alone?

did + *infinitive*
(past simple negative and questions)
→ Unit 12

- I **didn't watch** TV yesterday.
- It **didn't rain** last week.
- What time **did** Paul and Emma **go** out?

irregular verbs ➜ **Unit 24, Appendix 2–3**

Exercises

23.1 Write **is/are** or **do/does**.

1 ....Do.... you work in the evenings?
2 Where ....are.... they going?
3 Why ..... you looking at me?
4 ..... Ben live near you?
5 ..... you like cooking?
6 ..... the sun shining?
7 What time ..... the shops close?
8 ..... Maria working today?
9 What ..... this word mean?
10 ..... you feeling all right?

23.2 Write **am not/isn't/aren't** or **don't/doesn't**. All these sentences are negative.

1 Tom ....doesn't.... work at weekends.
2 I'm very tired. I ..... want to go out this evening.
3 I'm very tired. I ..... going out this evening.
4 Gary ..... working this week. He's on holiday.
5 My parents are usually at home. They ..... go out very often.
6 Nicola has travelled a lot, but she ..... speak any foreign languages.
7 You can turn off the television. I ..... watching it.
8 Lisa has invited us to her party next week, but we ..... going.

23.3 Write **was/were/did/have/has**.

1 Where ....were.... your shoes made?
2 ..... you go out last night?
3 What ..... you doing at 10.30?
4 Where ..... your mother born?
5 ..... Laura gone home?
6 What time ..... she go?
7 When ..... these houses built?
8 ..... Steve arrived yet?
9 Why ..... you go home early?
10 How long ..... they been married?

23.4 Write **is/are/was/were/have/has**.

1 Joe ....has.... lost his passport.
2 This bridge ..... built ten years ago.
3 ..... you finished your work yet?
4 This town is always clean. The streets ..... cleaned every day.
5 Where ..... you born?
6 I ..... just made some coffee. Would you like some?
7 Glass ..... made from sand.
8 This is a very old photograph. It ..... taken a long time ago.
9 David ..... bought a new car.

23.5 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb into the correct form.

damage	**~~rain~~**	**enjoy**	**~~go~~**	**pronounce**	**eat**
listen	**use**	**open**	**go**	**understand**	

1 I'm going to take an umbrella with me. It's ....raining....
2 Why are you so tired? Did you ....go.... to bed late last night?
3 Where are the chocolates? Have you ..... them all?
4 How is your new job? Are you ..... it?
5 My car was badly ..... in the accident, but I was OK.
6 Kate has got a car, but she doesn't ..... it very often.
7 Lisa isn't at home. She has ..... away for a few days.
8 I don't ..... the problem. Can you explain it again?
9 Mark is in his room. He's ..... to music.
10 I don't know how to say this word. How is it .....?
11 How do you ..... this window? Can you show me?

Unit 24

Regular and irregular verbs

A Regular verbs

The *past simple* and *past participle* of regular verbs is **-ed**:
clean → clean**ed** live → liv**ed** paint → paint**ed** study → studi**ed**

Past simple (→ Unit 11)

- I **cleaned** my room yesterday.
- Chris **studied** engineering at university.

Past participle

have/has + *past participle* (present perfect → Units 15–18):

- I **have cleaned** my room.
- Tina **has lived** in London for ten years.

be (**is/are/were/has been** etc.) + *past participle* (passive → Units 21–22):

- These rooms **are cleaned** every day.
- My car **has been repaired**.

B Irregular verbs

The past simple and past participle of irregular verbs do *not* end in **-ed**:

	make	break	cut
past simple	**made**	**broke**	**cut**
past participle	**made**	**broken**	**cut**

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are the same. For example:

	make	find	buy	cut
past simple / *past participle*	**made**	**found**	**bought**	**cut**

- I **made** a cake yesterday. *(past simple)*
- I **have made** some coffee. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- Butter **is made** from milk. *(past participle – passive present)*

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are different. For example:

	break	know	begin	go
past simple	**broke**	**knew**	**began**	**went**
past participle	**broken**	**known**	**begun**	**gone**

- Somebody **broke** this window last night. *(past simple)*
- Somebody **has broken** this window. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- This window **was broken** last night. *(past participle – passive past)*

irregular verbs → **Appendix 2–3** spelling (regular verbs) → **Appendix 5**

Exercises

24.1 Write the past simple / past participle of these verbs. (The past simple and past participle are the same for all the verbs in this exercise.)

1 make ...made... 6 enjoy ..... 11 hear .....
2 cut ...cut... 7 buy ..... 12 put .....
3 get ..... 8 sit ..... 13 catch .....
4 bring ..... 9 leave ..... 14 watch .....
5 pay ..... 10 happen ..... 15 understand .....

24.2 Write the past simple and past participle of these verbs.

1 break ...broke... ...broken... 8 come ....
2 begin .... 9 know ....
3 eat .... 10 take ....
4 drink .... 11 go ....
5 drive .... 12 give ....
6 speak .... 13 throw ....
7 write .... 14 forget ....

24.3 Put the verb in the right form.

1 I ...washed... my hands because they were dirty. (wash)
2 Somebody has ...broken... this window. (break)
3 I feel good. I ..... very well last night. (sleep)
4 We ..... a really good film yesterday. (see)
5 It ..... a lot while we were on holiday. (rain)
6 I've ..... my bag. Have you ..... it? (lose / see)
7 Rosa's bicycle was ..... last week. (steal)
8 I ..... to bed early because I was tired. (go)
9 Have you ..... your work yet? (finish)
10 The shopping centre was ..... about 20 years ago. (build)
11 Anna ..... to drive when she was 18. (learn)
12 I've never ..... a horse. (ride)
13 Jessica is a good friend of mine. I've ..... her for a long time. (know)
14 Yesterday I ..... and ..... my leg. (fall / hurt)
15 My brother ..... in the London Marathon last year. Have you ever ..... in a marathon? (run / run)

24.4 Complete these sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb into the correct form.

cost	**drive**	**fly**	~~**make**~~	**meet**	**sell**
speak	**swim**	**tell**	**think**	**wake up**	**win**

1 I have ...made... some coffee. Would you like some?
2 Have you ..... John about your new job?
3 We played basketball on Sunday. We didn't play very well, but we ..... the game.
4 I know Gary, but I've never ..... his wife.
5 We were ..... by loud music in the middle of the night.
6 Stephanie jumped into the river and ..... to the other side.
7 'Did you like the film?' 'Yes, I ..... it was very good.'
8 Many different languages are ..... in the Philippines.
9 Our holiday ..... a lot of money because we stayed in an expensive hotel.
10 Have you ever ..... a very fast car?
11 All the tickets for the concert were ..... very quickly.
12 A bird ..... in through the open window while we were having our dinner.

Unit 25

What are you doing tomorrow?

A

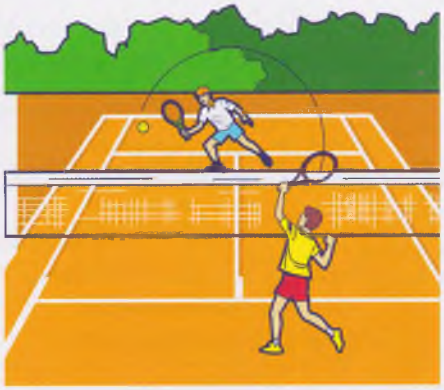

They **are playing** tennis (**now**).

today is Sunday

He **is playing** tennis **tomorrow**.

We use **am/is/are** + **-ing** *(present continuous)* for something happening now:

- 'Where are Tina and Helen?' 'They**'re playing** tennis in the park.'
- Please be quiet. **I'm working**.

We also use **am/is/are** + **-ing** for the *future* (tomorrow / next week etc.):

- Andrew **is playing** tennis tomorrow.
- I**'m** not **working** next week.

B

I am doing something tomorrow = I have arranged to do it, I have a plan to do it:

- Sophie **is going** to the dentist on Friday.
  (= she has an appointment with the dentist)
- We**'re having** a party next weekend.
- **Are** you **meeting** your friends tonight?
- What **are** you **doing** tomorrow evening?
- **I'm** not **going** out tonight. **I'm staying** at home.

You can also say '**I'm going to** do something' (→ Unit 26).

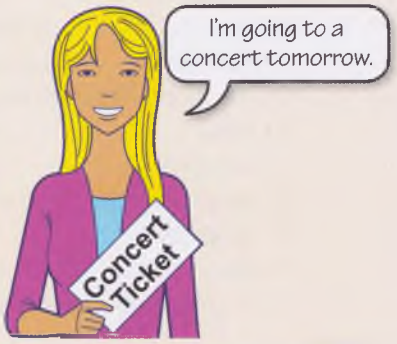

C

We use the present continuous (**I'm staying** / **are you coming** etc.) to say what somebody has arranged to do:

- I**'m staying** at home this evening. (*not* I stay)
- **Are** you **going** out tonight? (*not* Do you go)
- Lisa **isn't coming** to the party next week. (*not* Lisa doesn't come)

But we use the present simple (**start**, **arrives** etc.) for timetables, programmes, trains, buses etc. :

- The train **arrives** at 7.30.
- What time **does** the film **finish**?

Compare:

present continuous (usually for people)	*present simple* (for timetables, programmes etc.)
I**'m going** to a concert tomorrow.	The concert **starts** at 7.30.
What time **are** you **leaving**?	What time **does** your train **leave**?

present continuous ➜ **Units 3–4** present simple ➜ **Units 5–7** **I'm going to** ... ➜ **Unit 26**

Exercises

25.1 Look at the pictures. What are these people doing next Friday?

1 Andrew is playing tennis on Friday.
2 Richard ..... to the cinema.
3 Rachel .....
4 ..... lunch with Will.
5 .....

25.2 Write questions. All the sentences are future.

1 (you / go / out / tonight?) Are you going out tonight?
2 (you / work / next week?) .....
3 (what / you / do / tomorrow evening?) .....
4 (what time / your friends / come?) .....
5 (when / Lisa / go / on holiday?) .....

25.3 Write sentences about yourself. What are you doing in the next few days?

1 I'm staying at home tonight.
2 I'm going to the theatre on Monday.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

25.4 Put the verb in the present continuous (**he is leaving** etc.) or present simple (**the train leaves** etc.).

1 '.....Are you going..... (you/go) out tonight?' 'No, I'm too tired.'
2 .....We're going..... (we/go) to a concert tonight. .....It starts..... (it/start) at 7.30.
3 Do you know about Sarah? ..... (she/get) married next month!
4 A: My parents ..... (go) on holiday next week.
B: Oh, that's nice. Where ..... (they/go)?
5 Silvia is doing an English course at the moment. The course ..... (finish) on Friday.
6 There's a party tomorrow night, but ..... (I/not/go).
7 ..... (I/go) out with some friends tonight. Why don't you come too? ..... (we/meet) at the Royal Hotel at 8 o'clock.
8 A: How ..... (you/get) home after the party tomorrow? By taxi?
B: No, I can go by bus. The last bus ..... (leave) at midnight.
9 A: ..... (you/come) with us to the cinema tonight?
B: Yes, what time ..... (the film / begin)?
10 A: What ..... (you/do) tomorrow afternoon?
B: ..... (I/work).

Unit 26

I'm going to ...

A

I'm going to do something

She **is going to watch** TV this evening.

We use **am/is/are going to** ... for the *future:*

I	**am**		do ...
he/she/it	**is**	(not) **going to**	drink ...
we/you/they	**are**		watch ...

am	I		buy ... ?
is	he/she/it	**going to**	eat ... ?
are	we/you/they		wear ... ?

B

I am going to do something = I have decided to do it, my intention is to do it:

I decided to do it → **I'm going to do it**

past — *now* — *future*

- **I'm going to buy** some books tomorrow.
- Sarah **is going to sell** her car.
- **I'm not going to have** breakfast this morning. I'm not hungry.
- What **are** you **going to wear** to the wedding next week?
- 'Your hands are dirty.' 'Yes, I know. **I'm going to wash** them.'
- **Are** you **going to invite** Mark to your party?

We also use the present continuous (**I am doing**) for the future, usually for arrangements (→ Unit 25):

- **I am playing** tennis with Julia tomorrow.

C

Something **is going to happen**

Something **is going to happen** = we can see *now* that it is sure to happen:

- Look at the sky! It**'s going to rain**.
  (black clouds *now* → rain)
- Oh dear! It's 9 o'clock and I'm not ready.
  I'm going to be late.
  (9 o'clock *now* and not ready → late)

present for the future ➜ Unit 25 **will** ➜ Units 27–28

Exercises

26.1 What are these people saying?

26.2 Complete the sentences. Use **going to** + these verbs:

do **eat** **give** **lie down** **stay** **walk** ~~**wash**~~ **watch** ~~**wear**~~

1 My hands are dirty. I'm going to wash them.
2 What are you going to wear to the party tonight?
3 It's a nice day. I don't want to take the bus. I .....
4 Steve is going to London next week. He ..... with some friends.
5 I'm hungry. I ..... this sandwich.
6 It's Sarah's birthday next week. We ..... her a present.
7 Sue says she's feeling very tired. She ..... for an hour.
8 Your favourite programme is on TV tonight. ..... you ..... it?
9 What ..... Rachel ..... when she leaves school?

26.3 Look at the pictures. What is going to happen?

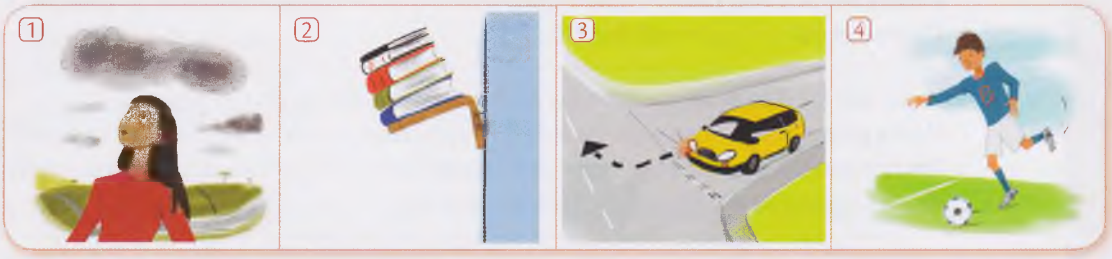

1 It's going to rain.
2 The shelf .....
3 The car .....
4 He .....

26.4 What are you going to do today or tomorrow? Write three sentences.

1 I'm .....
2 .....
3 .....

Unit 27

will/shall 1

A

SARAH

Sarah goes to work every day. She is always there from 8.30 until 4.30.

It is 11 o'clock now. Sarah **is** at work.

At 11 o'clock yesterday, she **was** at work.

At 11 o'clock tomorrow, she **will be** at work.

will + *infinitive* (**will be** / **will win** / **will come** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**will** (**'ll**) **will not** (**won't**)	**be** **win** **eat** **come** etc.

will	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**be?** **win?** **eat?** **come?** etc.

'll = **will**: I**'ll** (I will) / you**'ll** / she**'ll** etc.
won't = **will not**: I **won't** (= I will not) / you **won't** / she **won't** etc.

B

We use **will** for the *future* (tomorrow / next week etc.):

- Sue travels a lot. Today she is in Madrid. Tomorrow she**'ll be** in Rome. Next week she**'ll be** in Tokyo.
- You can call me this evening. I**'ll be** at home.
- Leave the old bread in the garden. The birds **will eat** it.
- We**'ll** probably **go** out this evening.
- **Will** you **be** at home this evening?
- I **won't be** here tomorrow. (= I will not be here)
- Don't drink coffee before you go to bed. You **won't sleep**.

We often say **I think** ... **will** ... :

- **I think** Kelly **will pass** the exam.
- **I don't think** it **will rain** this afternoon.
- **Do you think** the exam **will be** difficult?

C

We do *not* use **will** for things we have already arranged or decided to do (→ Units 25–26):

- We**'re going** to the cinema on Saturday. Do you want to come with us? (*not* We will go)
- I**'m** not **working** tomorrow. (*not* I won't work)
- **Are** you **going to do** the exam? (*not* Will you do)

D

shall

You can say **I shall** (= I will) and **we shall** (= we will):

- **I shall be** late tomorrow. *or* **I will** (**I'll**) **be** late tomorrow.
- I think **we shall win**. *or* I think **we will** (**we'll**) **win**.

But *do not* use **shall** with **you/they/he/she/it**:

- **Tom will** be late. (*not* Tom shall be)

What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25 I'm going to ... ➜ Unit 26 will/shall 2 ➜ Unit 28

Exercises

27.1 Helen is travelling in Europe. Complete the sentences with **she was, she's** or **she'll be**.

1 Yesterday ...she was... in Paris.
2 Tomorrow ..... in Amsterdam.
3 Last week ..... in Barcelona.
4 Next week ..... in London.
5 At the moment ..... in Brussels.
6 Three days ago ..... in Munich.
7 At the end of her trip ..... very tired.

Helen

27.2 Where will you be? Write sentences about yourself. Use:

I'll be ... or **I'll probably be ...** or **I don't know where I'll be.**

1 (at 10 o'clock tomorrow) ...I'll probably be on the beach.
2 (one hour from now) .....
3 (at midnight tonight) .....
4 (at 3 o'clock tomorrow afternoon) .....
5 (two years from now) .....

27.3 Put in **will ('ll)** or **won't**.

1 Don't drink coffee before you go to bed. You ...won't... sleep.
2 'Are you ready yet?' 'Not yet. I ..... be ready in five minutes.'
3 I'm going away for a few days. I'm leaving tonight, so I ..... be at home tomorrow.
4 It ..... rain, so you don't need to take an umbrella.
5 A: I don't feel very well this evening.
B: Well, go to bed early and you ..... feel better in the morning.
6 It's Ben's birthday next Monday. He ..... be 25.
7 I'm sorry I was late this morning. It ..... happen again.

27.4 Write sentences with **I think ...** or **I don't think ...** .

1 (Kelly will pass the exam) ...I think Kelly will pass the exam.
2 (Kelly won't pass the exam) ...I don't think Kelly will pass the exam.
3 (we'll win the game) I .....
4 (I won't be here tomorrow) .....
5 (Sue will like her present) .....
6 (they won't get married) .....
7 (you won't enjoy the film) .....

27.5 Which is right? (Study Unit 25 before you do this exercise.)

1 ~~We'll go~~ / We're going to the theatre tonight. We've got tickets. (We're going *is right*)
2 'What will you do / are you doing tomorrow evening?' 'Nothing. I'm free.'
3 They'll go / They're going away tomorrow morning. Their train is at 8.40.
4 I'm sure your aunt will lend / is lending us some money. She's very rich.
5 'Why are you putting on your coat?' 'I'll go / I'm going out.'
6 Do you think Clare will phone / is phoning us tonight?
7 Steve can't meet us on Saturday. He'll work / He's working.
8 Will you / Shall you be at home tomorrow evening?
9 A: What are your plans for the weekend?
B: Some friends will come / are coming to stay with us.

will/shall 2

A

You can use **I'll** ... (**I will**) when you offer something or decide to do something:

- 'My bag is very heavy.' **'I'll carry** it for you.'
- **'I'll phone** you tomorrow, OK?' 'OK, bye.'

We often say **I think I'll** ... / **I don't think I'll** ... when we decide to do something:

- I'm tired. **I think I'll go** to bed early tonight.
- It's a nice day. **I think I'll sit** outside.
- It's raining. **I don't think I'll go** out.

Do *not* use the present simple (**I go** / **I phone** etc.) in sentences like these:

- **I'll phone** you tomorrow, OK? (*not* I phone you)
- I think I'**ll go** to bed early. (*not* I go to bed)

B

Do *not* use **I'll** ... for something you decided before (→ Units 25–26):

- I'**m working** tomorrow. (*not* I'll work)
- I don't want my car any more. I'**m going to sell** it. (*not* I'll sell)
- What **are** you **doing** at the weekend? (*not* What will you do)

C

Shall I ... **?** **Shall we** ... **?**

Shall I / **Shall we** ... **?** = Do you think this is a good thing to do? Do you think this is a good idea?

- It's very warm in this room. **Shall I open** the window?
- '**Shall I phone** you this evening?' 'Yes, please.'
- I'm going to a party tonight. What **shall I wear**?

- It's a nice day. **Shall we go** for a walk?
- Where **shall we go** for our holidays this year?
- 'Let's go out this evening.' 'OK, what time **shall we meet**?'

What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25 **I'm going to** ... ➜ Unit 26 **will/shall** 1 ➜ Unit 27
Let's ➜ Units 35, 53

Exercises

28.1 Complete the sentences. Use **I'll** (**I will**) + these verbs:

~~carry~~ do eat show sit stay

1	My bag is very heavy.	I'll carry ..... it for you.
2	I don't want this banana.	Well, I'm hungry. ..... it.
3	Do you want a chair?	No, it's OK. ..... on the floor.
4	Did you phone Sophie?	Oh no, I forgot. ..... it now.
5	Are you coming with me?	No, I don't think so. ..... here.
6	How do you use this camera?	Give it to me and ..... you.

28.2 Complete the sentences. Use **I think I'll ...** or **I don't think I'll ...** + these verbs:

buy buy ~~go~~ have play

1 It's cold today. I don't think I'll go ..... out.
2 I'm hungry. I ..... something to eat.
3 I feel very tired. ..... tennis.
4 I like this hat. ..... it.
5 This camera is too expensive. ..... it.

28.3 Which is right?

1 ~~I phone~~ / I'll phone you tomorrow, OK? (I'll phone *is right*)
2 I haven't done the shopping yet. I do / I'll do it later.
3 I like sport. I watch / I'll watch a lot of sport on TV.
4 I need some exercise. I think I go / I'll go for a walk.
5 Carl is going to buy / will buy a new car. He told me last week.
6 'This book belongs to Tina.' 'OK. I give / I'll give / I'm going to give it to her.'
7 A: Are you doing / Will you do anything this evening?
B: Yes, I'm going / I'll go out with some friends.
8 I can't go out with you tomorrow night. I work / I'm working / I'll work.

28.4 Write sentences with **Shall I ... ?** Choose from the two boxes.

make	turn off
~~open~~	turn on

some sandwiches	the TV
the light	~~the window~~

1	It's very warm in this room.	Shall I open the window?
2	This programme isn't very good.	.....
3	I'm hungry.	.....
4	It's dark in this room.	.....

28.5 Write sentences with **Shall we ... ?** Choose from the two boxes.

what	where
~~what time~~	who

buy	invite
go	~~meet~~

1	Let's go out tonight.	OK, what time shall we meet?
2	Let's have a holiday.	OK, ...
3	Let's spend some money.	OK, ...
4	Let's have a party.	OK, ...

→ Additional exercises 28–31 (pages 264–67)

Unit 29

might

A

He **might go** to New York.
(= it is possible that he will go to New York)

It **might rain**.
(= it is possible that it will rain)

might + *infinitive* (**might go** / **might be** / **might rain** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**might** (not)	**be** **go** **play** **come** etc.

B

I might = it is possible that I will:

- I **might go** to the cinema this evening, but I'm not sure. (= it is possible that I will go)
- A: When is Rebecca going to phone you?
  B: I don't know. She **might phone** this afternoon.
- Take an umbrella with you. It **might rain**.
- Buy a lottery ticket. You **might be** lucky. (= perhaps you will be lucky)
- A: Are you going out tonight?
  B: **I might**. (= I might go out)

Study the difference:

- **I'm playing** tennis tomorrow. *(sure)*
  I **might play** tennis tomorrow. *(possible)*
- Rebecca **is going to phone** later. *(sure)*
  Rebecca **might phone** later. *(possible)*

C

I might not = it is possible that I will not:

- I **might not go** to work tomorrow.
  (= it is possible that I will not go)
- Sue **might not come** to the party.
  (= it is possible that she will not come)

D

may

You can use **may** in the same way. **I may** = **I might**:

- I **may go** to the cinema this evening. (= I might go)
- Sue **may not come** to the party. (= Sue might not come)

May I ... **?** = Is it OK to ... ? / Can I ... ?:

- **May I** ask a question? (= is it OK to ask / can I ask?)
- '**May I** sit here?' 'Yes, of course.'

will → Units 27–28 **can** → Unit 30

Exercises

29.1 Write sentences with **might**.

1 (it's possible that I'll go to the cinema) I might go to the cinema.
2 (it's possible that I'll see you tomorrow) I .....
3 (it's possible that Sarah will forget to phone) .....
4 (it's possible that it will snow today) .....
5 (it's possible that I'll be late tonight) .....

Write sentences with **might not**.

6 (it's possible that Mark will not be here next week) .....
7 (it's possible that I won't have time to go out) .....

29.2 Somebody is asking you about your plans. You have some ideas, but you are not sure. Choose from the list and write sentences with **I might**.

fish **go away** ~~**Italy**~~ **Monday** **a new car** **taxi**

1	Where are you going for your holidays?	I'm not sure. I might go to Italy.
2	What are you doing at the weekend?	I don't know. I .....
3	When will you see Kate again?	I'm not sure. .....
4	What are you going to have for dinner?	I don't know. .....
5	How are you going to get home tonight?	I'm not sure. .....
6	I hear you won some money. What are you going to do with it?	I haven't decided yet. .....

29.3 You ask Ben questions about his plans for tomorrow. Sometimes he is sure, but usually he is not sure.

1	Are you playing tennis tomorrow?	Yes, in the afternoon.
2	Are you going out tomorrow evening?	Possibly.
3	Are you going to get up early?	Perhaps.
4	Are you working tomorrow?	No, I'm not.
5	Will you be at home tomorrow morning?	Maybe.
6	Are you going to watch TV?	I might.
7	Are you going out in the afternoon?	Yes, I am.
8	Are you going shopping?	Perhaps.

Ben

Now write about Ben. Use **might** where necessary.

1 He's playing tennis tomorrow afternoon.
2 He might go out tomorrow evening.
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

29.4 Write three things that you **might** do tomorrow.

1 .....
2 .....
3 .....

Unit 30

can and could

A

He **can play** the piano.

can + *infinitive* (**can do** / **can play** / **can come** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**can** **can't** (**cannot**)	**do** **play** **see** **come** etc.

can	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**do?** **play?** **see?** **come?** etc.

B

I can do something = I *know how* to do it, or *it is possible* for me to do it:

- I **can play** the piano. My brother **can play** the piano too.
- Sarah **can speak** Italian, but she **can't speak** Spanish.
- A: **Can** you **swim**?
  B: Yes, but I'm not a very good swimmer.
- A: **Can** you **change** twenty pounds?
  B: I'm sorry, I **can't**.
- I'm having a party next week, but Paul and Rachel **can't come**.

C

For the past (yesterday / last week etc.), we use **could**/**couldn't**:

- When I was young, I **could run** very fast.
- Before Maria came to Britain, she **couldn't understand** much English. Now she **can understand** everything.
- I was tired last night, but I **couldn't sleep**.
- I had a party last week, but Paul and Rachel **couldn't come**.

D

Can you ... **?** **Could you** ... **?** **Can I** ... **?** **Could I** ... **?**

We use **Can you** ... **?** or **Could you** ... **?** when we ask people to do things:

- **Can you** open the door, please? *or* **Could you** open the door, please?
- **Can you** wait a moment, please? *or* **Could you** wait ... ?

We use **Can I have** ... **?** or **Can I get** ... **?** to ask for something:

- **Can I have** a glass of water, please? *or* **Can I get** ... ?

Can I ... **?** or **Could I** ... **?** = is it OK to do something?:

- **Can I** sit here?
- Tom, **could I** borrow your umbrella?

May I ... ? ➜ Unit 29

Exercises

30.1 Ask Steve if he can do these things:

You — Steve

1 Can you swim?
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

Can you do these things? Write sentences about yourself. Use **I can** or **I can't**.

7 I .....
8 .....
9 .....
10 .....
11 .....
12 .....

30.2 Complete these sentences. Use **can** or **can't** + one of these verbs:

~~come~~ find hear see speak

1 I'm sorry, but we can't come to your party next Saturday.
2 I like this hotel room. You ..... the mountains from the window.
3 You are speaking very quietly. I ..... you.
4 Have you seen my bag? I ..... it.
5 Catherine got the job because she ..... five languages.

30.3 Complete these sentences. Use **can't** or **couldn't** + one of these verbs:

decide eat find go go ~~sleep~~

1 I was tired, but I couldn't sleep.
2 I wasn't hungry yesterday. I ..... my dinner.
3 Kate doesn't know what to do. She ..... .
4 I wanted to speak to Mark yesterday, but I ..... him.
5 James ..... to the concert next Saturday. He has to work.
6 Paula ..... to the meeting last week. She was ill.

30.4 What do you say in these situations? Use **can** or **could**.

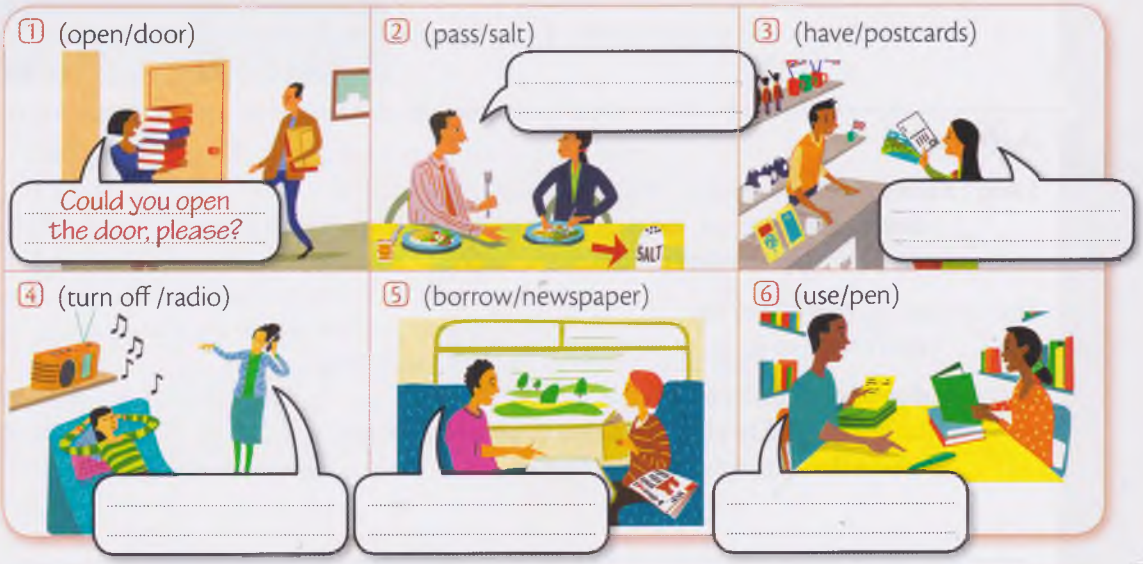

Unit 31

must mustn't don't need to

A

must + *infinitive* (**must do** / **must work** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**must**	**do** **go** **see** **eat** etc.

B

I must (do something) = I need to do it:

- I'm very hungry. I **must eat** something.
- It's a fantastic film. You **must see** it.
- The windows are very dirty. We **must clean** them.

For the past (yesterday / last week etc.), we use **had to** ... (*not* must):

- I was very hungry. I **had to eat** something. (*not* I must eat)
- We **had to walk** home last night. There were no buses. (*not* We must walk)

C

mustn't (= must not)

I mustn't (do something) = it is necessary *not* to do it, it is the wrong thing to do:

- I **must go**. I **mustn't be** late.
- I **mustn't forget** to phone Chris.
  (= I **must remember** to phone her)
- Be happy! You **mustn't be** sad. (= don't be sad)
- You **mustn't touch** the pictures.
  (= don't touch the pictures)

D

don't need to

I don't need (to do something) = it is not necessary:

- I **don't need to go** yet. I can stay a little longer.
- You **don't need to shout**. I can hear you OK.

You can also say **don't have to** ... :

- I **don't have to go** yet. I can stay a little longer.

Compare **don't need to** and **mustn't**:

- You **don't need to** go. You can stay here if you want.
- You **mustn't** go. You must stay here.

I have to ... → Unit 33

Exercises

31.1 Complete the sentences. Use **must** + these verbs:

be ~~**eat**~~ **go** **learn** **meet** **wash** **win**

1 I'm very hungry. I ....must eat.... something.
2 Marilyn is a very interesting person. You ..... her.
3 My hands are dirty. I ..... them.
4 You ..... to drive. It will be very useful.
5 I ..... shopping. I need to buy some food.
6 The game tomorrow is very important for us. We ..... .
7 You can't always have things immediately. You ..... patient.

31.2 Write **I must** or **I had to**.

1 ....I had to.... walk home last night. There were no buses.
2 It's late. ..... go now.
3 I don't usually work on Saturdays, but last Saturday ..... work.
4 ..... get up early tomorrow. I have a lot to do.
5 I came here by train. The train was full and ..... stand all the way.
6 I was nearly late for my appointment this morning. ..... run to get there on time.
7 I forgot to phone David yesterday. ..... phone him later today.

31.3 Complete the sentences. Use **mustn't** or **don't need to** + these verbs:

forget ~~**go**~~ **lose** **phone** **rush** **wait**

1 I ....don't need to go.... home yet. I can stay a little longer.
2 We have a lot of time. We ..... .
3 Keep these papers in a safe place. You ..... them.
4 I'm not ready yet, but you ..... for me. You can go now and I'll come later.
5 We ..... to turn off the lights before we leave.
6 I must contact David, but I ..... him – I can send him an email.

31.4 Find the sentences with the same meaning.

1 We can leave the meeting early.	A We must stay until the end.	1 ....E....
2 We must leave the meeting early.	B We couldn't stay until the end.	2 .....
3 We mustn't leave the meeting early.	C We can't stay until the end.	3 .....
4 We had to leave the meeting early.	D We can stay until the end.	4 .....
5 We don't need to leave the meeting early.	E We don't need to stay until the end.	5 .....

31.5 Write **must** / **mustn't** / **had to** / **don't need to**.

1 You ....don't need to.... go. You can stay here if you want.
2 It's a fantastic film. You ....must.... see it.
3 The restaurant won't be busy tonight. We ..... reserve a table.
4 I was very busy last week. I ..... work every evening.
5 I want to know what happened. You ..... tell me.
6 I don't want Sue to know what happened. You ..... tell her.
7 I ..... go now or I'll be late for my appointment.
8 'Why were you so late?' 'I ..... wait half an hour for a bus.'
9 We ..... decide now. We can decide later.
10 It's Lisa's birthday next week. I ..... forget to buy her a present.

Unit 32

should

A

should + *infinitive*
(**should do** / **should watch** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**should** **shouldn't**	**do** **stop** **go** **watch** etc.

B

You **should** do something = it is a good thing to do, it is the right thing to do:

- Tom doesn't study enough. He **should study** harder.
- It's a good film. You **should go** and see it.
- When you play tennis, you **should** always **watch** the ball.

C

You **shouldn't** do something = it is not a good thing to do.
Shouldn't = should not:

- Tom **shouldn't go** to bed so late.
- You watch TV all the time. You **shouldn't watch** TV so much.

D

We often say **I think** ... **should** ...

I think ... **should** ... :

- **I think** Lisa **should buy** some new clothes.
  (= I think it is a good idea.)
- It's late. **I think** I **should go** home now.
- A: Shall I buy this coat?
  B: Yes, **I think** you **should**.

I don't think ... **should** ... :

- **I don't think** you **should work** so hard.
  (= I don't think it is a good idea.)
- **I don't think** we **should go** yet. It's too early.

Do you think ... **should** ... ?:

- **Do you think** I **should buy** this hat?
- What time **do you think** we **should go** home?

E

Must is stronger than **should**:

- It's a **good** film. You **should** go and see it.
- It's a **fantastic** film. You **must** go and see it.

F

Another way to say **should** is **ought to**:

- It's a good film. You **ought to go** and see it. (= you should go)
- I think Lisa **ought to buy** some new clothes. (= Lisa should buy)

shall ➜ Units 27–28 **must** ➜ Unit 31

Exercises

32.1 Complete the sentences. Use **you should** + these verbs:

eat **go** **take** **visit** ~~**watch**~~ **wear**

1 When you play tennis, you should watch the ball.
2 It's late and you're very tired. ..... to bed.
3 ..... plenty of fruit and vegetables.
4 If you have time, ... the Science Museum. It's very interesting.
5 When you're driving, ... a seat belt.
6 It's too far to walk from here to the station. ..... a taxi.

32.2 Write about the people in the pictures. Use **He/She shouldn't ... so ...** .

1 She shouldn't watch TV so much.
2 He .....
3 ..... hard.
4 .....

32.3 You are not sure what to do, so you ask a friend. Write questions with **Do you think I should ... ?**

1 You are in a shop. You are trying on a jacket. (buy?)
You ask your friend: Do you think I should buy this jacket?
2 You can't drive. (learn?)
You ask your friend: Do you think .....
3 You don't like your job. (get another job?)
You ask your friend: .....
4 You are going to have a party. (invite Gary?)
You ask your friend: .....

32.4 Write sentences with **I think ... should ...** and **I don't think ... should ...** .

1 We have to get up early tomorrow. (go home now) I think we should go home now.
2 That coat is too big for you. (buy it) I don't think you should buy it.
3 You don't need your car. (sell it) .....
4 Karen needs a rest. (have a holiday) .....
5 Sarah and Dan are too young. (get married) .....
6 You're not well this morning. (go to work) .....
7 James isn't well today. (go to the doctor) .....
8 The hotel is too expensive for us. (stay there) .....

32.5 What do you think? Write sentences with **should**.

1 I think everybody should learn another language.
2 I think everybody .....
3 I think .....
4 I don't think .....
5 I think I should .....

Unit 33

I have to ...

A

I have to do something = it is necessary for me to do it, I am obliged to do it

I/we/you/they	**have**	**to do** **to work** **to go** **to wear** etc.
he/she/it	**has**	

- I'll be late for work tomorrow. I **have to go** to the dentist.
- Jane starts work at 7 o'clock, so she **has to get** up at 6.
- You **have to pass** a test before you can get a driving licence.

B

The past (yesterday / last week etc.) is **had to** ... :

- I was late for work yesterday. I **had to go** to the dentist.
- We **had to walk** home last night. There were no buses.

C

In questions and negatives we use **do/does** (present) and **did** (past):

present

do	I/we/you/they	**have to** ... ?
does	he/she/it	

I/we/you/they	**don't**	**have to** ...
he/she/it	**doesn't**	

past

did	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**have to** ... ?

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**didn't have to** ...

- What time **do** you **have to go** to the dentist tomorrow?
- **Does** Jane **have to work** on Sundays?
- Why **did** they **have to leave** the party early?

I **don't have to** (do something) = it is not necessary to do it:

- I'm not working tomorrow, so I **don't have to get** up early.
- Ian **doesn't have to work** very hard. He's got an easy job.
- We **didn't have to wait** very long for the bus – it came in a few minutes.

D

must and **have to**

You can use **must** or **have to** when you say what *you* think is necessary, when you give *your* opinion:

- It's a fantastic film. You **must** see it. *or* You **have to** see it.

When you are *not* giving your personal opinion, use **have to** (*not* **must**). Compare:

- Jane won't be at work this afternoon. She **has to** go to the doctor.
  (this is not my personal opinion – it is a fact)
- Jane isn't well. She doesn't want to go to the doctor, but I told her she **must** go.
  (this is my personal opinion)

must / mustn't / don't need to ➜ Unit 31

Exercises

33.1 Complete the sentences. Use **have to** or **has to** + these verbs:

do **hit** **read** **speak** **travel** ~~**wear**~~

1 My eyes are not very good. I have to wear glasses.
2 At the end of the course all the students ..... a test.
3 Sarah is studying literature. She ..... a lot of books.
4 Albert doesn't understand much English. You ..... very slowly to him.
5 Kate is often away from home. She ..... a lot in her job.
6 In tennis you ..... the ball over the net.

33.2 Complete the sentences. Use **have to** or **had to** + these verbs:

answer **buy** **change** **go** ~~**walk**~~

1 We had to walk home last night. There were no buses.
2 It's late. I ..... now. I'll see you tomorrow.
3 I went to the supermarket after work yesterday. I ..... some food.
4 This train doesn't go all the way to London. You ..... at Bristol.
5 We did an exam yesterday. We ..... six questions out of ten.

33.3 Complete the questions. Some are present and some are past.

1	I have to get up early tomorrow.	What time do you have to get up ?
2	George had to wait a long time.	How long ..... ?
3	Lisa has to go somewhere.	Where ..... ?
4	We had to pay a lot of money.	How much ..... ?
5	I have to do some work.	What exactly ..... ?

33.4 Write sentences with **don't/doesn't/didn't have to ...** .

1 Why are you going out? You don't have to go out.
2 Why is Sue waiting? She .....
3 Why did you get up early? You .....
4 Why is Paul working so hard? He .....
5 Why do you want to leave now? We .....

33.5 Which is correct? Sometimes **must** and **have to** are both correct. Sometimes only one is correct.

1 It's a fantastic film. You must see / have to see it. (*both are correct*)
2 Jessica won't be at work this afternoon. She ~~must go~~ / has to go to the doctor. (has to go *is correct*)
3 You can't park your car here for nothing. You must pay / have to pay.
4 I didn't have any money with me last night, so I must borrow / had to borrow some.
5 I eat too much chocolate. I really must stop / have to stop.
6 Paul is in a hurry. He must meet / has to meet somebody in five minutes.
7 What's wrong? You must tell / have to tell me. I want to help you.

33.6 Write some things that you (or your friends or family) have to do or had to do.

1 (every day) I have to travel ten miles every day.
2 (every day) .....
3 (yesterday) .....
4 (tomorrow) .....

Unit 34

Would you like ... ? I'd like ...

A

Would you like ... **?** = Do you want ... ?

We use **Would you like** ... **?** to offer things:

- A: **Would you like** some coffee?
  B: No, thank you.
- A: **Would you like** a chocolate?
  B: Yes, please.
- A: What **would you like**, tea or coffee?
  B: Tea, please.

We use **Would you like to** ... **?** to invite somebody:

- **Would you like to go** for a walk?
- A: **Would you like to eat** with us on Sunday?
  B: Yes, **I'd love to**. (= I would love to eat with you)
- What **would you like to do** this evening?

B

I'd like ... is a polite way to say 'I want'. **I'd** like = **I would** like:

- I'm thirsty. **I'd like** a drink.
- *(in a tourist office)* **I'd like** some information about hotels, please.
- I'm feeling tired. **I'd like to stay** at home this evening.

C

Would you like ... **?** and **Do you like** ... **?**

Would you like ... **?** / **I'd like** ...

Would you like some tea? = Do you want some tea?

- A: **Would you like** to go to the cinema tonight?
  (= do you want to go *tonight?*)
  B: Yes, I'd love to.
- **I'd like** an orange, please.
  (= can I have an orange?)
- What **would you like** to do next weekend?

Do you like ... **?** / **I like** ...

Do you like tea? = Do you think tea is nice?

- A: **Do you like** going to the cinema? *(in general)*
  B: Yes, I go to the cinema a lot.
- **I like** oranges. *(in general)*
- What **do you like** to do at weekends?

like to do and **like -ing** → Unit 52 **I would do** something **if** ... → Unit 100

Exercises

34.1 What are the people in the pictures saying? Use **Would you like ... ?**

34.2 What do you say to Sue in these situations? Use **Would you like to ... ?**

1 You want to go to the cinema tonight. Perhaps Sue will go with you. (go)
You say: *Would you like to go to the cinema tonight?*

2 You want to play tennis tomorrow. Perhaps Sue will play too. (play)
You say: .....

3 You have an extra ticket for a concert next week. Perhaps Sue will come. (come)
You say: .....

4 It's raining and Sue is going out. She doesn't have an umbrella, but you have one. (borrow)
You say: .....

34.3 Which is right?

1 '~~Do you like~~ / Would you like a chocolate?' 'Yes, please.' (Would you like *is right*)
2 'Do you like / Would you like bananas?' 'Yes, I love them.'
3 'Do you like / Would you like an ice cream?' 'No, thank you.'
4 'What do you like / would you like to drink?' 'A glass of water, please.'
5 'Do you like / Would you like to go out for a walk?' 'Not now. Perhaps later.'
6 I like / I'd like tomatoes, but I don't eat them very often.
7 What time do you like / would you like to have dinner this evening?
8 'Do you like / Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thanks. I'm not hungry.'
9 'Do you like / Would you like your new job?' 'Yes, I'm enjoying it.'
10 I'm tired. I like / I'd like to go to sleep now.
11 'I like / I'd like a sandwich, please.' 'Sure. What kind of sandwich?'
12 'What kind of music do you like / would you like?' 'All kinds.'

Unit 35

Do this! Don't do that! Let's do this!

A

We use **come**/**look**/**go**/**wait**/**be** etc. when we tell somebody to do something:

- '**Come** here and **look** at this!' 'What is it?'
- I don't want to talk to you. **Go** away!
- I'm not ready yet. Please **wait** for me.
- Please **be** quiet. I'm working.

also

- Bye! **Have** a good holiday! / **Have** a nice time! / **Have** a good flight! / **Have** fun!
  (= I hope you have a good holiday etc.)
- '**Have** a chocolate.' 'Oh, thanks.'
  (= would you like a chocolate?)

B

We use **don't** ... when we tell somebody not to do something:

- Be careful! **Don't fall**.
- Please **don't go**. Stay here with me.
- Be here on time. **Don't be** late.

C

You can say **Let's** ... when you want people to do things with you. **Let's** = Let us.

- It's a nice day. **Let's go** out.
  (= *you and I* can go out)
- Come on! **Let's dance**.
  (= *you and I* can dance)
- Are you ready? **Let's go**.
- **Let's have** fish for dinner tonight.
- A: Shall we go out tonight?
  B: No, I'm tired. **Let's stay** at home.

The negative is **Let's not** ... :

- It's cold. **Let's not** go out. Let's stay at home.
- **Let's not** have fish for dinner tonight. Let's have chicken.

shall we ... ? ➜ Unit 28

Exercises

35.1 Look at the pictures. What are the people saying? Some sentences are positive (**buy**/**come** etc.) and some are negative (**don't buy** / **don't come** etc.). Use these verbs:

be **buy** ~~come~~ ~~drink~~ **drop** **forget** **have** **sit** **sleep** **smile**

1 Come ..... in!

2 Don't drink ..... the water!

3 It's too expensive. ..... it.

4 OK, are you ready? ..... !

5 ..... on the cat!

6 Bye! ..... a nice time!

7 ..... to phone me. Don't worry. I won't.

8 I'm going to bed now. OK. ..... well.

9 ..... careful with that vase. ..... it!

35.2 Complete the sentences. Use **let's** with:

~~go for a swim~~ **go to a restaurant** **take a taxi** **wait a little** **watch TV**

1	Would you like to play tennis?	No, let's go for a swim.
2	Do you want to walk home?	No, ...
3	Shall I put a CD on?	No, ...
4	Shall we eat at home?	No, ...
5	Would you like to go now?	No, ...

35.3 Answer with **No, don't ...** or **No, let's not ...** .

1	Shall I wait for you?	No, don't wait for me.
2	Shall we go home now?	No, let's not go home yet.
3	Shall we go out?	.....
4	Do you want me to close the window?	.....
5	Shall I phone you tonight?	.....
6	Do you think we should wait for Andy?	.....
7	Do you want me to turn on the light?	.....
8	Shall we go by bus?	.....

I used to ...

A

Dave **used to work** in a factory. Now he **works** in a supermarket.

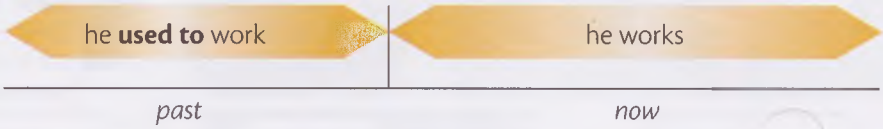

Dave **used to work** in a factory = he worked in a factory before, but he doesn't work there now.

B

You can say **I used to work** ... / **she used to have** ... / **they used to be** ... etc. :

I/you/we/they he/she/it	**used to**	**be** **work** **have** **play** etc.

- When I was a child, I **used to like** chocolate.
- I **used to read** a lot of books, but I don't read much these days.
- Lisa has got short hair now, but it **used to be** very long.
- They **used to live** in the same street as us, so we **used to see** them a lot. But we don't see them much these days.
- Helen **used to have** a piano, but she sold it a few years ago.

The negative is **I didn't use to** ... :

- When I was a child, I **didn't use to like** tomatoes.

The question is **did you use to** ... **?**:

- Where **did** you **use to live** before you came here?

C

We use **used to** ... only for the past. You cannot say 'I use to ...' for the present:

- I **used to play** tennis. These days I **play** golf. (*not* I use to play golf)
- We usually **get** up early. (*not* We use to get up early)

Exercises

36.1 Look at the pictures. Complete the sentences with **used to ...** .

1 She used to have long hair.

2 He ..... football.

3 ..... a taxi driver.

4 ..... in the country.

5 .....

6 This building .....

36.2 Karen works very hard and has very little free time. A few years ago, things were different.

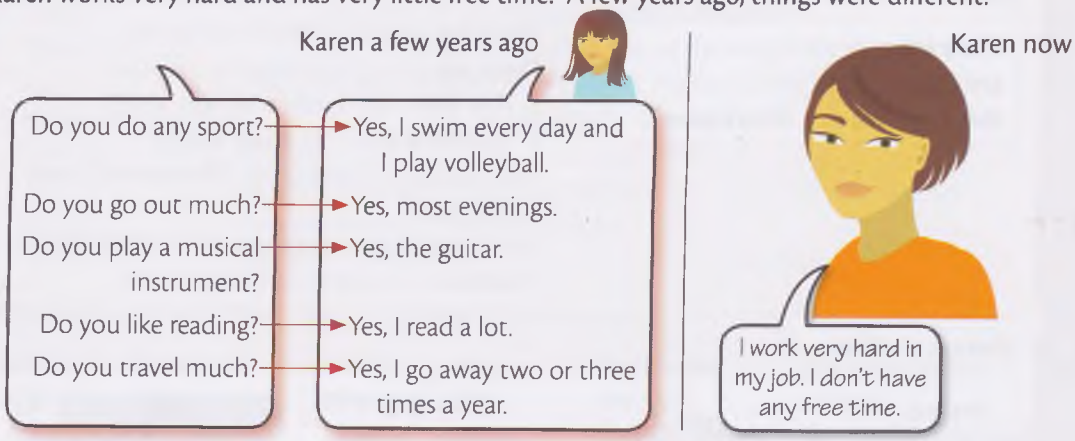

Write sentences about Karen with **used to ...** .

1 She used to swim every day.
2 She .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

36.3 Complete these sentences. Use **used to** or the present simple (**I play / he lives** etc.).

1 I used to play tennis. I stopped playing a few years ago.
2 'Do you do any sport?' 'Yes, I play basketball.'
3 'Do you have a car?' 'No, I ..... one, but I sold it.'
4 George ..... a waiter. Now he's the manager of a hotel.
5 'Do you go to work by car?' 'Sometimes, but most days I ..... by train.'
6 When I was a child, I never ..... meat, but I eat it now.
7 Mary loves watching TV. She ..... TV every evening.
8 We ..... near the airport, but we moved to the city centre a few years ago.
9 Normally I start work at 7 o'clock, so I ..... up very early.
10 What games ..... you ..... when you were a child?

there is there are

A

There's a man on the roof.

There's a train at 10.30.

SUNDAY
MONDAY
TUESDAY
WEDNESDAY
THURSDAY
FRIDAY
SATURDAY
} 7

There are seven days in a week.

singular

there is ...	(**there's**)
is there ... ?	
there is not ...	(**there isn't** *or* **there's not**)

- **There's** a big tree in the garden.
- **There's** nothing on TV tonight.
- A: Do you have any money?
  B: Yes, **there's** some in my bag.
- A: Excuse me, **is there** a hotel near here?
  B: Yes, **there is**. / No, **there isn't**.
- We can't go skiing. **There isn't** any snow.

plural

there are ...	
are there ... ?	
there are not ...	(**there aren't**)

- **There are** some big trees in the garden.
- **There are** a lot of accidents on this road.
- A: **Are there** any restaurants near here?
  B: Yes, **there are**. / No, **there aren't**.
- This restaurant is very quiet. **There aren't** many people here.
- How many players **are there** in a football team?
- **There are** 11 players in a football team.

B

there is and **it is**

there is

There's a book on the table.
(*not* It's a book on the table.)

it is

I like this book. **It's** interesting.
(**It** = this book)

Compare:

- 'What's **that noise**?' '**It**'s a train.' (**It** = that noise)
  There's a train at 10.30. **It**'s a fast train. (**It** = *the 10.30 train*)
- **There's** a lot of salt in this soup.
  I don't like **this soup**. **It**'s too salty. (**It** = this soup)

there was / were / has been etc. ➜ Unit 38 **it** and **there** ➜ Unit 39 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

37.1 Kentham is a small town. Look at the information in the box and write sentences about Kentham with **There is/are** or **There isn't/aren't**.

1	a castle?	No
2	any restaurants?	Yes (a lot)
3	a hospital?	Yes
4	a swimming pool?	No
5	any cinemas?	Yes (two)
6	a university?	No
7	any big hotels?	No

1 There isn't a castle.
2 There are a lot of restaurants.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....

37.2 Write sentences about your town (or a town that you know). Use **There is/are** or **There isn't/aren't**.

1 There are a few restaurants.
2 There's a big park.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

37.3 Write **there is / there isn't / is there** or **there are / there aren't / are there**.

1 Kentham isn't an old town. There aren't any old buildings.
2 Look! ..... a picture of your brother in the newspaper!
3 'Excuse me, ... a bank near here?' 'Yes, at the end of the street.'
4 ..... five people in my family: my parents, my two sisters and me.
5 'How many students ..... in the class?' 'Twenty.'
6 The road is usually very quiet. ..... much traffic.
7 '..... a bus from the city centre to the airport?' 'Yes, every 20 minutes.'
8 '..... any problems?' 'No, everything is OK.'
9 ..... nowhere to sit down. ..... any chairs.

37.4 Write sentences with **There are ...** . Choose from the boxes.

~~seven~~	twenty-six
eight	thirty
fifteen	fifty

letters	~~days~~
players	days
planets	states

September	the solar system
the USA	~~a week~~
a rugby team	the English alphabet

1 There are seven days in a week.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

37.5 Write **there's / is there** or **it's / is it**.

1 '..... There's a train at 10.30.' '..... Is it a fast train?'
2 I'm not going to buy this shirt. ..... too expensive.
3 'What's wrong?' '..... something in my eye.'
4 ..... a red car outside your house. ..... yours?
5 '..... anything good on TV tonight?' 'Yes, ... a programme I want to see at 8.15.'
6 'What's that building?' '..... a school.'
7 '..... a restaurant in this hotel?' 'No, I'm afraid not.'

Unit 38

there was/were there has/have been there will be

A there was / there were *(past)*

There is a train every hour.

The time now is 11.15.
There was a train at 11 o'clock.

Compare:

there is/are *(present)*

- **There is** nothing on TV tonight.
- We are staying at a very big hotel. **There are** 550 rooms.
- Is everything OK? **Are there** any problems?
- I'm hungry, but **there isn't** anything to eat.

there was/were *(past)*

- **There was** nothing on TV last night.
- We stayed at a very big hotel. **There were** 550 rooms.
- Was everything OK yesterday? **Were there** any problems?
- I was hungry when I got home, but **there wasn't** anything to eat.

B there has been / there have been *(present perfect)*

- Look! **There's been** an accident. (**there's been** = there **has** been)
- This road is very dangerous. **There have been** many accidents.

Compare **there was** *(past)*:

- **There was** an accident **last night**. (*not* There has been an accident last night.)

For past simple and present perfect, see Unit 20.

C there will be

- Do you think **there will be** a lot of people at the party on Saturday?
- The manager of the company is leaving, so **there will be** a new manager soon.
- I'm going away tomorrow. I'll do my packing today because **there won't be** time tomorrow. (**there won't be** = there **will not** be)

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **has/have been** ➜ Units 15–18 **will** ➜ Unit 27 **there is/are** ➜ Unit 37
there and **it** ➜ Units 37, 39 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

38.1 Look at the two pictures. Now the room is empty, but what was in the room last week? Choose from the box and write sentences with **There was ...** or **There were ...** .

an armchair	**a carpet**	**some flowers**	**a sofa**
some books	~~**a clock**~~	**three pictures**	**a small table**

1 There was a clock. ..... on the wall near the window.
2 ..... on the floor.
3 ..... on the wall near the door.
4 ..... in the middle of the room.
5 ..... on the table.
6 ..... on the shelves.
7 ..... in the corner near the door.
8 ..... opposite the armchair.

38.2 Write **there was / there wasn't / was there** or **there were / there weren't / were there.**

1 I was hungry, but there wasn't anything to eat.
2 Was everything OK yesterday? Were there any problems?
3 I opened the envelope, but it was empty. ..... nothing in it.
4 'We stayed at a very nice hotel.' 'Really? ..... a swimming pool?'
5 'Did you buy any bananas?' 'No, ... any in the shop.'
6 The wallet was empty. ..... any money in it.
7 '..... many people at the meeting?' 'No, very few.'
8 We didn't visit the museum. ..... enough time.
9 I'm sorry I'm late. ..... a lot of traffic.
10 Twenty years ago ..... many tourists here. Now there are a lot.

38.3 Write **there** + **is / are / was / were / has been / have been / will be.**

1 There was a good film on TV last night.
2 ..... 24 hours in a day.
3 ..... a party at the club last Friday, but I didn't go.
4 'Where can I get something to eat?' '..... a cafe at the end of the street.'
5 'Why are the police outside the bank?' '..... a robbery.'
6 When we arrived at the theatre, ... a long queue outside.
7 When you arrive tomorrow, ... somebody at the station to meet you.
8 Ten years ago ..... 500 children at the school. Now ..... more than a thousand.
9 Last week I went back to the town where I was born. It's very different now. ..... a lot of changes.
10 I think everything will be OK. I don't think ..... any problems.

It ...

A

We use **it** for time/day/distance/weather:

time

- What time is **it**?
- **It**'s half past ten.
- **It**'s late.
- **It**'s time to go home.

day

- What day is **it**?
- **It**'s Thursday.
- **It**'s 16 March.
- **It** was my birthday yesterday.

distance

- **It**'s three kilometres from our house to the city centre.
- How far is **it** from New York to Los Angeles?
- **It**'s a long way from here to the station.
- We can walk home. **It** isn't far.

We use **far** in questions (**is it far**?) and negatives (**it isn't far**).
In positive sentences, we use **a long way** (**it's a long way**).

weather

- **It**'s raining. **It** isn't raining. Is **it** snowing?
- **It** rains a lot here. **It** didn't rain yesterday. Does **it** snow very often?
- **It**'s warm/hot/cold/fine/cloudy/windy/sunny/foggy/dark etc.
- **It**'s a nice day today.

Compare **it** and **there**:

- **It rains** a lot in winter.
  There is **a lot of rain** in winter.
- **It** was very **windy**.
  There was **a strong wind** yesterday.

B

It's nice to ... etc.

It's	easy / difficult / impossible / dangerous / safe / expensive / interesting / nice / wonderful / terrible etc.	**to** ...

- **It**'s nice **to see you again**.
- **It**'s impossible **to understand her**.
- **It** wasn't easy **to find your house**.

C

Don't forget **it**:

- **It**'s raining again. (*not* Is raining again)
- Is **it** true that you're going away? (*not* Is true that ...)

there is ➜ Unit 37

Exercises

39.1 Write about the weather in the pictures. Use **It's ... .**

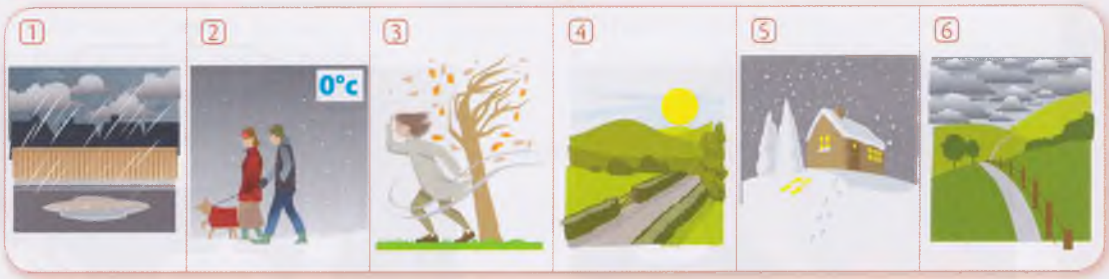

1 It's raining. ..... 4 .....
2 ..... 5 .....
3 ..... 6 .....

39.2 Write **it is (it's)** or **is it.**

1 What time ...is it... ?
2 We have to go now. ..... very late.
3 ..... true that Ben can fly a helicopter?
4 'What day ..... today? Tuesday?' 'No, ... Wednesday.'
5 ..... ten kilometres from the airport to the city centre.
6 ..... OK to call you at your office?
7 'Do you want to walk to the hotel?' 'I don't know. How far ..... ?'
8 ..... Lisa's birthday today. She's 27.
9 I don't believe it! ..... impossible.

39.3 Write questions with **How far ... ?**

1 (here / the station) ...How far is it from here to the station?...
2 (the hotel / the beach) How .....
3 (New York / Washington) .....
4 (your house / the airport) .....

39.4 Write **it** or **there.**

1 The weather isn't so nice today. ...It... 's cloudy.
2 ...There... was a strong wind yesterday.
3 ..... 's hot in this room. Open a window.
4 ..... was a nice day yesterday. ..... was warm and sunny.
5 ..... was a storm last night. Did you hear it?
6 I was afraid because ..... was very dark.
7 ..... 's often cold here, but ..... isn't much rain.
8 ..... 's a long way from here to the nearest shop.

39.5 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

it's	easy	dangerous	to	work here	~~get up early~~
	~~difficult~~	nice		visit different places	go out alone
	impossible	interesting		see you again	make friends

1 If you go to bed late, ...it's difficult to get up early... in the morning.
2 Hello, Jane. ..... . How are you?
3 ..... . There is too much noise.
4 Everybody is very nice at work. ..... .
5 I like travelling. ..... .
6 Some cities are not safe. ..... at night.

I am, I don't etc.

A

She isn't tired, but **he is**.
(**he is** = he is tired)

He likes tea, but **she doesn't**.
(**she doesn't** = she doesn't like tea)

In these examples, it is not necessary to repeat some words ('he is *tired*', 'she doesn't *like tea*').

You can use these verbs in the same way:

am/is/are
was/were
have/has
do/does/did
can
will
might
must

- I haven't got a car, but my sister **has**. (= my sister has got a car)
- A: Please help me.
  B: I'm sorry. I **can't**. (= I can't help you)
- A: Are you tired?
  B: I **was**, but I**'m not** now. (= I was tired, but I'm not tired now)
- A: Do you think Laura will come and see us?
  B: She **might**. (= she might come)
- A: Are you going now?
  B: Yes, I'm afraid I **must**. (= I must go)

We don't use **'m/'s/'ve** etc. (*short forms*) in this way. You must use **am/is/have** etc. :

- She isn't tired, but he **is**. (*not* but he's)

But you can use **isn't** / **haven't** / **won't** etc. (*negative* short forms):

- My sister has got a car, but I **haven't**.
- 'Are you and Jane working tomorrow?' 'I am, but Jane **isn't**.'

B

You can use **I am** / **I'm not** etc. after **Yes** and **No**:

- 'Are you tired?' 'Yes, I **am**. / No, I**'m not**.'
- 'Will Alan be here tomorrow?' 'Yes, he **will**. / No, he **won't**.'
- 'Is there a bus to the airport?' 'Yes, there **is**. / No, there **isn't**.'

C

We use **do/does** for the *present simple* (→ Units 6–7):

- I don't like hot weather, but Sue **does**. (= Sue likes hot weather)
- Sue works hard, but I **don't**. (= I don't work hard)
- 'Do you enjoy your work?' 'Yes, I **do**.'

We use **did** for the *past simple* (→ Unit 12):

- A: Did you and Chris enjoy the film?
  B: I **did**, but Chris **didn't**. (= I enjoyed it, but Chris didn't enjoy it)
- 'I had a good time.' 'I **did** too.' (= I enjoyed it too)
- 'Did it rain yesterday?' 'No, it **didn't**.'

have you? / don't you? etc. → Unit 41 **so am I / neither am I** etc. → Unit 42

Exercises

40.1 Complete these sentences. Use only one verb (**is/have/can** etc.) each time.

1 Kate wasn't hungry, but we ...were... .
2 I'm not married, but my brother ..... .
3 Ben can't help you, but I ..... .
4 I haven't seen the film, but Tom ..... .
5 Karen won't be here, but Chris ..... .
6 You weren't late, but I ..... .

40.2 Complete these sentences with a negative verb (**isn't/haven't/can't** etc.).

1 My sister can play the piano, but I ...can't... .
2 Sam is working today, but I ..... .
3 I was working, but my friends ..... .
4 Mark has been to China, but I ..... .
5 I'm ready to go, but Tom ..... .
6 I've got a key, but Sarah ..... .

40.3 Complete these sentences with **do/does/did** or **don't/doesn't/didn't**.

1 I don't like hot weather, but Sue ...does... .
2 Sue likes hot weather, but I ...don't... .
3 My mother wears glasses, but my father ..... .
4 You don't know Paul very well, but I ..... .
5 I didn't enjoy the party, but my friends ..... .
6 I don't watch TV much, but Peter ..... .
7 Kate lives in London, but her parents ..... .
8 You had breakfast this morning, but I ..... .

40.4 Complete the sentences. Write about yourself and other people.

1 I didn't ...go out last night, but my friends did.....
2 I like ....., but .....
3 I don't ....., but .....
4 I'm .....
5 I haven't .....

40.5 Put in a verb, positive or negative.

1 'Are you tired?' 'I ...was... earlier, but I'm not now.'
2 Steve is happy today, but he ..... yesterday.
3 The bank isn't open yet, but the shops ..... .
4 I haven't got a telescope, but I know somebody who ..... .
5 I would like to help you, but I'm afraid I ..... .
6 I don't usually go to work by car, but I ..... yesterday.
7 A: Have you ever been to the United States?
B: No, but Sandra ..... . She went there on holiday last year.
8 'Do you and Chris watch TV a lot?' 'I ....., but Chris doesn't.'
9 I've been invited to Sam's wedding, but Kate ..... .
10 'Do you think Sarah will pass her driving test?' 'Yes, I'm sure she ..... .'
11 'Are you going out tonight?' 'I ..... . I don't know for sure.'

40.6 Answer these questions about yourself. Use **Yes, I have.** / **No, I'm not.** etc.

1 Are you American? ...No, I'm not.....
2 Have you got a car? .....
3 Do you feel OK? .....
4 Is it snowing? .....
5 Are you hungry? .....
6 Do you like classical music? .....
7 Will you be in Paris tomorrow? .....
8 Have you ever broken your arm? .....
9 Did you buy anything yesterday? .....
10 Were you asleep at 3 a.m.? .....

Have you? Are you? Don't you? etc.

A

You can say **have you?** / **is it?** / **can't he?** etc. to show that you are interested or surprised:

- '**You're** late.' 'Oh, **am I?** I'm sorry.'
- '**I was** ill last week.' '**Were you?** I didn't know that.'
- '**It's** raining again.' '**Is it?** It was sunny ten minutes ago.'
- '**There's** a problem with the car.' '**Is there?** What's wrong with it?'

- '**Bill can't** drive.' '**Can't he?** I didn't know that.'
- '**I'm not** hungry.' '**Aren't you?** I am.'
- '**Sue isn't** at work today.' '**Isn't she?** Is she ill?'

Use **do**/**does** for the *present simple*, and **did** for the *past simple*:

- '**I speak** four languages.' '**Do you?** Which ones?'
- '**Ben doesn't** eat meat.' '**Doesn't he?** Does he eat fish?'
- '**Nicola got** married last week.' '**Did she?** Really?'

B

Question tags

You can use **have you?** / **is it?** / **can't she?** etc. at the end of a sentence.

These 'mini-questions' are *question tags*.

positive sentence → *negative* question tag

It's a beautiful day,	**isn't it?**	Yes, it's perfect.
Kate lives in London,	**doesn't she?**	Yes, that's right.
You closed the window,	**didn't you?**	Yes, I think so.
Those shoes are nice,	**aren't they?**	Yes, very nice.
Tom will be here soon,	**won't he?**	Yes, probably.

negative sentence → *positive* question tag

That isn't your car,	**is it?**	No, it's my mother's.
You haven't met my mother,	**have you?**	No, I haven't.
Helen doesn't go out much,	**does she?**	No, she doesn't.
You won't be late,	**will you?**	No, I'm never late.

I am / **I don't** etc. ➜ Unit 40

Exercises

41.1 Answer with **Do you?** / **Doesn't she?** / **Did they?** etc.

1	I speak four languages	Do you ..... ?	Which ones?
2	I work in a bank.	..... ?	I work in a bank too.
3	I didn't go to work yesterday.	..... ?	Were you ill?
4	Jane doesn't like me.	..... ?	Why not?
5	You look tired.	..... ?	I feel fine.
6	Kate phoned me last night.	..... ?	What did she say?

41.2 Answer with **Have you?** / **Haven't you?** / **Did she?** / **Didn't she?** etc.

1	I've bought a new car.	Have you ..... ?	What make is it?
2	Tim doesn't eat meat.	Doesn't he ..... ?	Does he eat fish?
3	I've lost my key.	..... ?	When did you last have it?
4	Sue can't drive.	..... ?	She should learn.
5	I was born in Italy.	..... ?	I didn't know that.
6	I didn't sleep well last night.	..... ?	Was the bed uncomfortable?
7	There's a film on TV tonight.	..... ?	Are you going to watch it?
8	I'm not happy.	..... ?	Why not?
9	I saw Paula last week.	..... ?	How is she?
10	Maria works in a factory.	..... ?	What kind of factory?
11	I won't be here next week.	..... ?	Where will you be?
12	The clock isn't working.	..... ?	It was working yesterday.

41.3 Complete these sentences with a question tag (**isn't it?** / **haven't you?** etc.).

1	It's a beautiful day, isn't it ..... ?	Yes, it's perfect.
2	These flowers are nice, ... ?	Yes, what are they?
3	Jane was at the party, ... ?	Yes, but I didn't speak to her.
4	You've been to Paris, ... ?	Yes, many times.
5	You speak German, ... ?	Yes, but not very well.
6	Martin looks tired, ... ?	Yes, he works very hard.
7	You'll help me, ... ?	Yes, of course I will.

41.4 Complete these sentences with a question tag, positive (**is it?** / **do you?** etc.) or negative (**isn't it?** / **don't you?** etc.).

1	You haven't got a car, have you ..... ?	No, I can't drive.
2	You aren't tired, ... ?	No, I feel fine.
3	Lisa is a very nice person, ... ?	Yes, everybody likes her.
4	You can play the piano, ... ?	Yes, but I'm not very good.
5	You don't know Mike's sister, ... ?	No, I've never met her.
6	Sarah went to university, ... ?	Yes, she studied psychology.
7	The film wasn't very good, ... ?	No, it was terrible.
8	Anna lives near you, ... ?	That's right. In the same street.
9	You won't tell anybody what I said, ... ?	No, of course not.

too/either so am I / neither do I etc.

A too and either

We use **too** and **either** at the end of a sentence.

We use **too** after a *positive* verb:

- A: I'm happy.
  B: I'**m** happy **too**.
- A: I enjoyed the film.
  B: I **enjoyed** it **too**.
- Jane is a doctor. Her husband **is** a doctor **too**.

We use **either** after a *negative* verb:

- A: I'm not happy.
  B: I'**m not** happy **either**.
- A: I can't cook.
  B: I **can't either**.
- Ben doesn't watch TV. He **doesn't** read newspapers **either**.

B so am I / neither do I etc.

so	**am/is/are** ... **was/were** ... **do/does** ... **did** ... **have/has** ... **can** ... **will** ... **would** ...
neither	

so am I = I am too
so have I = I have too (etc.):

- A: **I'm** working.
  B: **So am I**. (= I'm working too)
- A: **I was** late for work today.
  B: **So was Sam**.
- A: **I work** in a bank.
  B: **So do I**.
- A: **We went** to the cinema last night.
  B: Did you? **So did we**.
- A: **I'd** like to go to Australia.
  B: **So would I**.

neither am I = I'm not either
neither can I = I can't either (etc.):

- A: **I haven't** got a key.
  B: **Neither have I**. (= I haven't either)
- A: **Kate can't** cook.
  B: **Neither can Tom**.
- A: **I won't** (= will not) be here tomorrow.
  B: **Neither will I**.
- A: **I never go** to the cinema.
  B: **Neither do I**.

You can also use **Nor** (= Neither):

- A: I'm not married.
  B: **Nor am I**. *or* **Neither am I**.

Remember: So **am I** (*not* So I am), Neither **have I** (*not* Neither I have).

I am / I don't etc. ➜ Unit 40

Exercises

42.1 Write **too** or **either**.

1	I'm happy.	I'm happy too.
2	I'm not hungry.	I'm not hungry .....
3	I'm going out.	I'm going out .....
4	It rained on Saturday.	It rained on Sunday .....
5	Rachel can't drive a car.	She can't ride a bike .....
6	I don't like shopping.	I don't like shopping .....
7	Emma's mother is a teacher.	Her father is a teacher .....

42.2 Answer with **So ... I** (**So am I** / **So do I** / **So can I** etc.).

1	I went to bed late last night.	So did I.
2	I'm thirsty.	.....
3	I've just eaten.	.....
4	I need a holiday.	.....
5	I'll be late tomorrow.	.....
6	I was very tired this morning.	.....

Answer with **Neither ... I.**

7	I can't go to the party.	.....
8	I didn't phone Alex last night.	.....
9	I haven't got any money	.....
10	I'm not going out tomorrow.	.....
11	I don't know what to do.	.....

42.3 You are talking to Maria. Write sentences about yourself. Where possible, use **So ... I** or **Neither ... I.** Look at these examples carefully:

I'm tired today. — You can answer: So am I. or I'm not.

I don't work hard. — You can answer: Neither do I. or I do.

	Maria	You
1	I'm learning English.	.....
2	I can ride a bike.	.....
3	I'm not American.	.....
4	I like cooking.	.....
5	I don't like cold weather.	.....
6	I slept well last night.	.....
7	I've never run a marathon.	.....
8	I don't use my phone much.	.....
9	I'm going out tomorrow evening.	.....
10	I haven't been to Scotland.	.....
11	I didn't watch TV last night.	.....
12	I go to the cinema a lot.	.....

isn't, haven't, don't etc. (negatives)

A

We use **not** (**n't**) in negative sentences:

positive → negative

am	**am not** (**'m not**)	I**'m not** tired.
is	**is not** (**isn't** *or* **'s not**)	It **isn't** (*or* It**'s not**) raining.
are	**are not** (**aren't** *or* **'re not**)	They **aren't** (*or* They**'re not**) here.
was	**was not** (**wasn't**)	Julian **wasn't** hungry.
were	**were not** (**weren't**)	The shops **weren't** open.
have	**have not** (**haven't**)	I **haven't** finished my work.
has	**has not** (**hasn't**)	Sue **hasn't** got a car.
will	**will not** (**won't**)	We **won't** be here tomorrow.
can	**cannot** (**can't**)	George **can't** drive.
could	**could not** (**couldn't**)	I **couldn't** sleep last night.
must	**must not** (**mustn't**)	I **mustn't** forget to phone Jane.
should	**should not** (**shouldn't**)	You **shouldn't** work so hard.
would	**would not** (**wouldn't**)	I **wouldn't** like to be an actor.

B

don't/doesn't/didn't

present simple negative	I/we/you/they	**do not** (**don't**)	**work/live/go** etc.
	he/she/it	**does not** (**doesn't**)	
past simple negative	I/they/he/she etc.	**did not** (**didn't**)	

positive	→	*negative*
I **want** to go out.	→	I **don't want** to go out.
They **work** hard.	→	They **don't work** hard.
Lisa **plays** the guitar.	→	Lisa **doesn't play** the guitar.
My father **likes** his job.	→	My father **doesn't like** his job.
I **got** up early this morning.	→	I **didn't get** up early this morning.
They **worked** hard yesterday.	→	They **didn't work** hard yesterday.
We **played** tennis.	→	We **didn't play** tennis.
Emily **had** dinner with us.	→	Emily **didn't have** dinner with us.

Don't ...

Look!	→	**Don't look!**
Wait for me.	→	**Don't wait** for me.

Sometimes **do** is the main verb (**don't do** / **doesn't do** / **didn't do**):

Do something!	→	**Don't do** anything!
Sue **does** a lot at weekends.	→	Sue **doesn't do** much at weekends.
I **did** what you said.	→	I **didn't do** what you said.

present simple (negative) ➜ Unit 6 past simple (negative) ➜ Unit 12
don't look / **don't wait** etc. ➜ Unit 35 **Why isn't/don't** ... ? ➜ Unit 44

Exercises

43.1 Make these sentences negative.

1 He's gone away. *He hasn't gone away.*
2 They're married. .....
3 I've had dinner. .....
4 It's cold today. .....
5 We'll be late. .....
6 You should go. .....

43.2 Make these sentences negative. Use **don't/doesn't/didn't**.

1 She saw me. *She didn't see me.*
2 I like cheese. .....
3 They understood. .....
4 He lives here. .....
5 Go away! .....
6 I did the shopping. .....

43.3 Make these sentences negative.

1 She can swim. *She can't swim.*
2 They've arrived. .....
3 I went to the bank. .....
4 He speaks German. .....
5 We were angry. .....
6 He'll be pleased. .....
7 Call me tonight. .....
8 It rained yesterday. .....
9 I could hear them. .....
10 I believe you. .....

43.4 Complete these sentences with a negative verb (**isn't/haven't/don't** etc.).

1 They aren't rich. They *haven't* got much money.
2 'Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thank you. I ..... hungry.'
3 I ..... find my glasses. Have you seen them?
4 Steve ..... go to the cinema much. He prefers to watch DVDs at home.
5 We can walk to the station from here. It ..... very far.
6 'Where's Jane?' 'I ..... know. I ..... seen her today.'
7 Be careful! ..... fall!
8 We went to a restaurant last night. I ..... like the food very much.
9 I've been to Japan many times, but I ..... been to Korea.
10 Julia ..... be here tomorrow. She's going away.
11 'Who broke that window?' 'Not me. I ..... do it.'
12 We didn't see what happened. We ..... looking at the time.
13 Lisa bought a new coat a few days ago, but she ..... worn it yet.
14 You ..... drive so fast. It's dangerous.

43.5 You ask Gary some questions. He answers 'Yes' or 'No'. Write sentences about Gary, positive or negative.

Gary

You		
Are you married?	No.	1 *He isn't married.*
Do you live in London?	Yes.	2 *He lives in London.*
Were you born in London?	No.	3 .....
Do you like London?	No.	4 .....
Would you like to live in the country?	Yes.	5 .....
Can you drive?	Yes.	6 .....
Have you got a car?	No.	7 .....
Do you read newspapers?	No.	8 .....
Are you interested in politics?	No.	9 .....
Do you watch TV most evenings?	Yes.	10 .....
Did you watch TV last night?	No.	11 .....
Did you go out last night?	Yes.	12 .....

Unit 44

is it ... ? have you ... ? do they ... ? etc. (questions 1)

A

positive	**you**	**are**	**You are** eating.
question	**are**	**you**	**Are you** eating? What **are you** eating?

In questions, the first verb (**is**/**are**/**have** etc.) is before the subject:

positive subject + verb			*question* verb + subject	
I	**am** late.	→	**Am**	**I** late?
That seat	**is** free.	→	**Is**	**that seat** free?
She	**was** angry.	→	Why **was**	**she** angry?
David	**has** gone.	→	Where **has**	**David** gone?
You	**have** got a car.	→	**Have**	**you** got a car?
They	**will** be here soon.	→	When **will**	**they** be here?
Paula	**can** swim.	→	**Can**	**Paula** swim?

Remember: the subject is after the first verb.

- Where **has David** gone? (*not* Where has gone David?)
- **Are those people** waiting for something? (*not* Are waiting ... ?)
- When **was the telephone** invented? (*not* When was invented ... ?)

B

do ... ? / does ... ? / did ... ?

present simple questions	**do**	I/we/you/they	**work**/**live**/**go** etc. ... ?
	does	he/she/it	
past simple questions	**did**	I/they/he/she etc.	

positive		*question*
They **work** hard.	→	**Do** they **work** hard?
You **watch** television.	→	How often **do** you **watch** television?
Chris **works** hard.	→	**Does** Chris **work** hard?
She **gets up** early.	→	What time **does** she **get** up?
They **worked** hard.	→	**Did** they **work** hard?
You **had** dinner.	→	What **did** you **have** for dinner?
She **got** up early.	→	What time **did** she **get** up?

Sometimes **do** is the main verb (do you **do** / did he **do** etc.):

- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?
- A: What **does** your brother **do**?
  B: He works in a bank.
- A: I broke my finger last week.
  B: How **did** you **do** that? (*not* How did you that?)

C

Why isn't ... ? / Why don't ... ? etc. (**Why** + *negative*):

- Where's John? **Why isn't he** here? (*not* Why he isn't here?)
- **Why can't Paula** come to the meeting tomorrow? (*not* Why Paula can't ... ?)
- **Why didn't you** phone me last night?

present simple questions ➜ **Unit 7** past simple questions ➜ **Unit 12** questions 2–3 ➜ **Units 45–46**
what/which/how ➜ **Units 47–48**

Exercises

44.1 Write questions.

1 I can swim. (and you?) Can you swim?
2 I work hard. (and Jack?) Does Jack work hard?
3 I was late this morning. (and you?) .....
4 I've got a key. (and Kate?) .....
5 I'll be here tomorrow. (and you?) .....
6 I'm going out this evening. (and Paul?) .....
7 I like my job. (and you?) .....
8 I live near here. (and Nicola?) .....
9 I enjoyed the film. (and you?) .....
10 I had a good holiday. (and you?) .....

44.2 You are talking to a friend about driving. Write the full questions.

You

1 (have / a car?) Have you got a car?
2 (use / a lot?) ..... it .....
3 (use / yesterday?) .....
4 (enjoy driving?) .....
5 (a good driver?) .....
6 (ever / have / an accident?) .....

Yes, I have.
Yes, nearly every day.
Yes, to go to work.
Not very much.
I think I am.
No, never.

44.3 Make questions with these words. Put the words in the right order.

1 (has / gone / where / David?) Where has David gone?
2 (working / Rachel / is / today?) Is Rachel working today?
3 (the children / what / are / doing?) What .....
4 (made / is / how / cheese?) .....
5 (to the party / coming / is / your sister?) .....
6 (you / the truth / tell / don't / why?) .....
7 (your guests / have / yet / arrived?) .....
8 (leave / what time / your train / does?) .....
9 (to work / Emily / why / go / didn't?) .....
10 (your car / in the accident / was / damaged?) .....

44.4 Complete the questions.

1 I want to go out. — Where do you want to go?
2 Kate and Paul aren't going to the party. — Why aren't they going?
3 I'm reading. — What .....
4 Sue went to bed early. — What time .....
5 My parents are going on holiday. — When .....
6 I saw Tom a few days ago. — Where .....
7 I can't come to the party. — Why .....
8 Tina has gone away. — Where .....
9 I need some money. — How much .....
10 Angela doesn't like me. — Why .....
11 It rains sometimes. — How often .....
12 I did the shopping. — When .....

Who saw you? Who did you see? (questions 2)

A

Silvia saw Paul.

Who **saw** Paul?
Silvia. (Silvia saw him.)

Who **did** Silvia **see?**
Paul. (She saw Paul.)

Silvia saw Paul

subject

Somebody saw Paul.

Who saw Paul?

Silvia. (Silvia saw him.)

who is the *subject*
Paul is the *object*

object

Silvia saw somebody.

Who did Silvia see?

Paul. (She saw Paul.)

who is the *object*
Silvia is the *subject*

B

In these questions, **who/what** is the *subject*:

- **Who lives** in this house? (= somebody lives in it – who?)
  (*not* Who does live?)
- **What happened?** (= something happened – what?)
  (*not* What did happen?)
- **What's happening?** (What's = What **is**)
- **Who's got** my key? (Who's = Who **has**)

In these questions, **who/what** is the *object*:

- Who did **you** meet yesterday? (= **you** met somebody – who?)
- What did **Paul** say? (= **Paul** said something – what?)
- Who are **you** phoning?
- What was **Silvia** wearing?

Compare:

- George likes oranges. → **Who likes** oranges? – George.
  What does George like? – Oranges.
- Jane won a new car. → **Who won** a new car? – Jane.
  What did Jane win? – A new car.

C

Use **who** for people (somebody). Use **what** for things, ideas etc. (something):

- **Who** is your favourite **singer**?
- **What** is your favourite **song**?

questions → Units 44, 46 what/which/how → Unit 47

Exercises

45.1 Make questions with **who** or **what**. In these questions, **who/what** is the subject.

1	Somebody broke the window.	Who broke the window?
2	Something fell off the shelf.	What .....
3	Somebody wants to see you.	..... me?
4	Somebody took my umbrella.	.....
5	Something made me ill.	.....
6	Somebody is coming.	.....

45.2 Make questions with **who** or **what** (subject or object).

1	I bought something.	What did you buy?
2	Somebody lives in this house.	Who lives in this house?
3	I phoned somebody.	.....
4	Something happened last night.	.....
5	Somebody knows the answer.	.....
6	Somebody did the washing-up.	.....
7	Jane did something.	.....
8	Something woke me up.	.....
9	Somebody saw the accident.	.....
10	I saw somebody.	.....
11	Somebody has got my pen.	.....
12	This word means something.	.....

45.3 You want the missing information (XXXXX). Write questions with **who** or **what**.

1	I lost **XXXXX** yesterday, but fortunately **XXXXX** found it and gave it back to me.	What did you lose? Who found it?
2	**XXXXX** phoned me last night. She wanted **XXXXX**.	Who ..... What .....
3	I needed some advice, so I asked **XXXXX**. He said **XXXXX**.	....
4	I hear that **XXXXX** got married last week. **XXXXX** told me.	....
5	I met **XXXXX** on my way home this evening. She told me **XXXXX**.	....
6	Steve and I played tennis yesterday. **XXXXX** won. After the game we **XXXXX**.	....
7	It was my birthday last week and I had some presents. **XXXXX** gave me a book and Catherine gave me **XXXXX**.	....

Unit 46

Who is she talking to? What is it like? (questions 3)

A

Jessica is talking to somebody.

Who is she talking **to**?

In questions beginning **Who** ... **?** / **What** ... **?** / **Where** ... **?** / **Which** ... **?**, prepositions (**to**/**from**/**with** etc.) usually go at the end:

- ☐ '**Where** are you **from**?' 'I'm from Thailand.'
- ☐ 'Jack was afraid.' '**What** was he afraid **of**?'
- ☐ '**Who** do these books belong **to**?' 'They're mine.'
- ☐ 'Tom's father is in hospital.' '**Which hospital** is he **in**?'
- ☐ 'Kate is going on holiday.' '**Who with**?' / '**Who** is she going **with**?'
- ☐ 'Can we talk?' 'Sure. **What** do you want to talk **about**?'

B

What's it like? / **What are they like?** etc.

What**'s** it like? = What **is** it like?

What's it like? = tell me something about it – is it good or bad, big or small, old or new (etc.)?

When we say '**What is it like?**', **like** is a *preposition*. It is not the verb **like** ('**Do** you **like** your new house?' etc.).

- ☐ A: There's a new restaurant in our street.
  B: **What's** it **like**? Is it good?
  A: I don't know. I haven't eaten there yet.
- ☐ A: **What's** your new teacher **like**?
  B: She's very good. We learn a lot.
- ☐ A: I met Nicola's parents yesterday.
  B: Did you? **What** are they **like**?
  A: They're very nice.
- ☐ A: Did you have a good holiday? **What** was the weather **like**?
  B: It was lovely. It was sunny every day.

questions 1–2 ➜ Units 44–45 what/which/how ➜ Unit 47 prepositions ➜ Units 103–113

Exercises

46.1 You want the missing information (XXXXX). Write questions with **who** or **what**.

1 The letter is from **XXXXX**. — Who is the letter from?
2 I'm looking for a **XXXXX**. — What ..... you .....
3 I went to the cinema with **XXXXX**. — .....
4 The film was about **XXXXX**. — .....
5 I gave the money to **XXXXX**. — .....
6 The book was written by **XXXXX**. — .....

46.2 Write questions about the people in the pictures. Use these verbs + a preposition:

go **listen** **look** ~~**talk**~~ **talk** **wait**

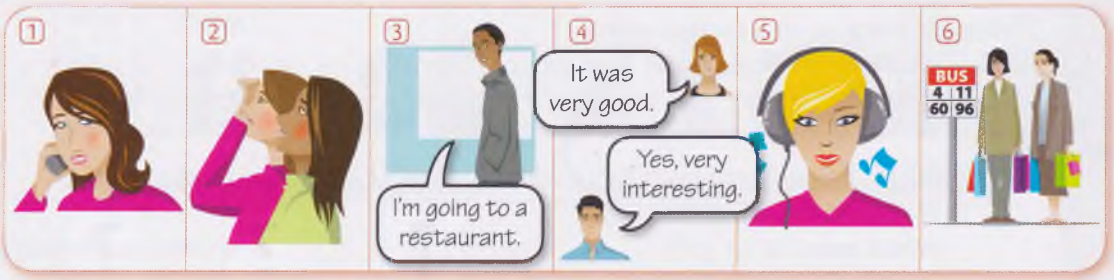

1 Who is she talking to?
2 What ..... they .....
3 Which restaurant .....
4 What .....
5 What .....
6 Which bus .....

46.3 Write questions beginning **Which ... ?**

1 Tom's father is in hospital. — Which hospital is he in?
2 We stayed at a hotel. — ..... you .....
3 Jack plays for a football team. — .....
4 I went to school in this town. — .....

46.4 You want some information about another country. You ask somebody who has been there. Ask questions with **What is/are ... like?**

1 (the roads) What are the roads like?
2 (the food) .....
3 (the people) .....
4 (the weather) .....

46.5 Ask questions with **What was/were ... like?**

1 Your friend has just come back from holiday. Ask about the weather.
What was the weather like?
2 Your friend has just come back from the cinema. Ask about the film.
.....
3 Your friend has just finished an English course. Ask about the lessons.
.....
4 Your friend has just come back from holiday. Ask about the hotel.
.....

Unit 47

What ... ? Which ... ? How ... ? (questions 4)

A

What + *noun* (**What colour** ... ? / **What kind** ... ? etc.)

- **What colour** is your car?
- **What colour** are your eyes?
- **What size** is this shirt?
- **What make** is your TV?
- **What time** is it?
- **What day** is it today?
- **What kind** of job do you want?
  (*or* **What type** of job ... ? / **What sort** of job ... ?)

What without a noun:

- **What**'s your favourite colour?
- **What** do you want to do tonight?

B

Which + *noun* (things or people):

- **Which train** did you catch – the 9.50 or the 10.30?
- **Which doctor** did you see – Doctor Ellis, Doctor Gray or Doctor Hill?

We use **which** without a noun for things, not people:

- **Which** is bigger – Canada or Australia?

We use **who** for people (without a noun):

- **Who** is taller – Joe or Gary? (*not* Which is taller?)

C

What or **which**?

We use **which** when we are thinking about a small number of possibilities (perhaps 2, 3 or 4):

- We can go this way or that way.
  Which way shall we go?
- There are four umbrellas here.
  Which is yours?

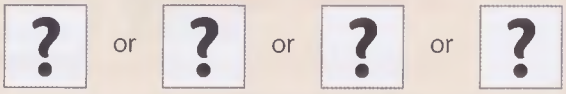

WHICH?

What is more general:

- **What**'s the capital of Argentina? (of all the cities in Argentina)
- **What sort** of music do you like? (of all kinds of music)

Compare:

- **What colour** are his eyes? (*not* Which colour?)
  Which colour do you prefer, **pink or yellow**?
- **What** is the longest river in the world?
  Which is the longest river – **the Mississippi, the Amazon or the Nile**?

D

How ... ?

- '**How** was the party last night?' 'It was great.'
- '**How** do you usually go to work?' 'By bus.'

You can use **how** + *adjective/adverb* (**how tall** / **how old** / **how often** etc.):

'**How**	**tall** are you?' 'I'm 1 metre 70.' **big** is the house?' 'Not very big.' **old** is your mother?' 'She's 45.' **far** is it from here to the airport?' 'Five kilometres.' **often** do you use your car?' 'Every day.' **long** have they been married?' 'Ten years.' **much** was the meal?' 'Thirty pounds.'

questions ➜ Units 44–46 How long does it take? ➜ Unit 48 which one(s) ➜ Unit 75

Exercises

47.1 Write questions with **what**.

1	I've got a new TV.	(make?)	What make is it?
2	I want a job.	(kind?)	What kind of job do you want?
3	I bought a new sweater.	(colour?)	What .....
4	I got up early this morning.	(time?)	..... get up?
5	I like music.	(type?)	.....
6	I want to buy a car.	(kind?)	.....

47.2 Complete the questions. Use **Which ... ?**

47.3 Write **what/which/who**.

1 What is that man's name?
2 Which way shall we go? Left or right?
3 You can have tea or coffee. ..... do you prefer?
4 '..... day is it today?' 'Friday.'
5 This is a nice office. ..... desk is yours?
6 ..... is your favourite sport?
7 ..... is more expensive, meat or fish?
8 ..... is older, Liz or Steve?
9 ..... kind of camera have you got?
10 A: I have three cameras.
B: ..... camera do you use most?
11 ..... nationality are you?

47.4 Complete the questions with **How** + adjective or adverb (**high/long** etc.).

1	How high is Mount Everest?	Nearly 9000 metres.
2	..... is it to the station?	It's about two kilometres from here.
3	..... is Helen?	She's 26.
4	..... do the buses run?	Every ten minutes.
5	..... is the water in the pool?	Two metres.
6	..... have you lived here?	Nearly three years.

47.5 Write questions with **How ... ?**

1 Are you 1 metre 70? 1.75? 1.80? How tall are you?
2 Is this box one kilogram? Two? Three? .....
3 Are you 20 years old? 22? 25? .....
4 Did you spend £20? £30? £50? .....
5 Do you watch TV every day? Once a week? Never?
.....
6 Is it 1000 miles from Paris to Moscow? 1500? 2000?
.....

Unit 48

How long does it take ... ?

A

How long does it take from ... to ... ?

How long **does it take** by plane from New York to Washington?

It takes an hour.

- How long **does it take** by train from London to Manchester?
- **It takes** two hours by train from London to Manchester.
- How long **does it take** by car from your house to the station?
- **It takes** ten minutes by car from my house to the station.

B

How long does it take to do something?

How long	**does** **did** **will**	**it take to** ... ?

It	**takes** **took** **will take**		a week a long time three hours	**to** ...
	doesn't **didn't** **won't**	**take**	long	

- How long **does it take to cross** the Atlantic by ship?
- 'I came by train.' 'Did you? How long **did it take** (**to get** here)?'
- How long **will it take to get** from here to the hotel?

- **It takes** a long time **to learn** a language.
- **It doesn't take** long **to cook** an omelette.
- **It won't take** long **to fix** the computer.

C

How long does it take you to do something?

How long	**does** **did** **will**	**it take**	you Tom them	**to** ... ?

It	**takes** **took** **will take**	me Tom them	a week a long time three hours	**to** ...

I started reading the book on Monday.
I finished it on Wednesday evening.

It **took me** three days **to read** it.

- How long **will it take me to learn** to drive?
- **It takes Tom** 20 minutes **to get** to work in the morning.
- **It took us** an hour **to do** the shopping.
- **Did it take you** a long time **to find** a job?
- **It will take me** an hour **to cook** dinner.

Exercises

48.1 Look at the pictures and write questions with **How long ... ?**

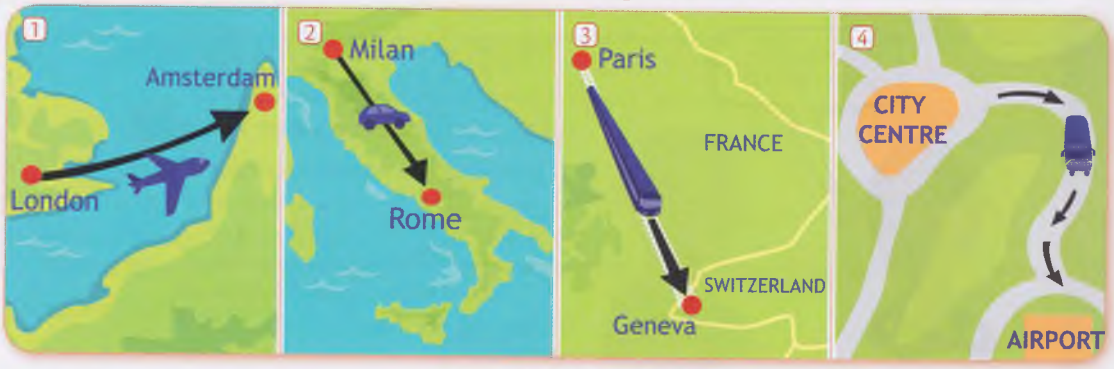

1 How long does it take by plane from London to Amsterdam?
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....

48.2 How long does it take to do these things? Write full sentences.

1 fly from your city/country to London
It takes two hours to fly from Madrid to London.
2 fly from your city/country to New York
.....
3 study to be a doctor in your country
.....
4 walk from your home to the nearest shop
.....
5 get from your home to the nearest airport
.....

48.3 Write questions with **How long did it take ... ?**

1 (Jane found a job.) How long did it take her to find a job?
2 (I walked to the station.) ..... you .....
3 (Tom painted the bathroom.) .....
4 (I learnt to ski.) .....
5 (They repaired the car.) .....

48.4 Read the situations and write sentences with **It took ... .**

1 I read a book last week. I started reading it on Monday. I finished it three days later.
It took me three days to read the book.
2 We walked home last night. We left at 10 o'clock and we arrived home at 10.20.
.....
3 I learnt to drive last year. I had my first driving lesson in January. I passed my driving test six months later.
.....
4 Mark drove to London yesterday. He left home at 7 o'clock and got to London at 10.
.....
5 Lisa began looking for a job a long time ago. She got a job last week.
.....
6 *Write a sentence about yourself.*
.....

Unit 49

Do you know where ... ? I don't know what ... etc

A

We say: Where **is** **Paula**?

but **Do you know** where **Paula** **is** ?
(*not* Do you know where is Paula?)

In the same way we say:
I know / I don't know / Can you tell me } where **Paula is**.

Compare:

Who **are those people**?
How old **is Nicola**?
What time **is it**?
Where **can I** go?
How much **is this camera**?
When **are you** going away?
Where **have they** gone?
What **was Kate** wearing?

but

Do you know **Can you tell me**	who **those people are** how old **Nicola is** what time **it is** where **I can** go	?
I know **I don't know** **I don't remember**	how much **this camera is** when **you're** going away where **they have** gone what **Kate was** wearing	.

B

Questions with **do/does/did** (*present simple* and *past simple*)

Where **does he live** ?

but **Do you know** where **he lives** ? (*not* Do you know where does he live?)

Compare:

How **do airplanes** fly?
What **does Jane** want?
Why **did she** go home?
Where **did I** put the key?

but

Do you know	how **airplanes fly**	?
I don't know **I don't remember** **I know**	what **Jane wants** why **she went** home where **I put** the key	.

C

Questions beginning **Is** ... **?** / **Do** ... **?** / **Can** ... **?** etc. (yes/no questions)

Compare:

Is Jack at home?
Have they got a car?
Can Ben swim?
Do they live near here?
Did anybody see you?

but

Do you know	**if** *or* **whether**	**Jack is** at home **they've got** a car **Ben can** swim **they live** near here **anybody saw** you	?
I don't know			.

You can use **if** *or* **whether** in these sentences:

- Do you know **if** they've got a car? *or*
  Do you know **whether** they've got a car?
- I don't know **if** anybody saw me. *or*
  I don't know **whether** anybody saw me.

Exercises

49.1 Answer these questions with **I don't know where/when/why ...** etc.

1	Have your friends gone home?	(where) I don't know where they've gone.
2	Is Kate in her office?	(where) I don't know .....
3	Is the castle very old?	(how old) .....
4	Will Paul be here soon?	(when) .....
5	Was he angry because I was late?	(why) .....
6	Has Emily lived here a long time?	(how long) .....

49.2 Complete the sentences.

1 (How do airplanes fly?) Do you know how airplanes fly ..... ?
2 (Where does Susan work?) I don't know ..... .
3 (What did Peter say?) Do you remember ..... ?
4 (Why did he go home early?) I don't know ..... .
5 (What time does the meeting begin?) Do you know ..... ?
6 (How did the accident happen?) I don't remember. ..... .

49.3 Which is right?

1 Do you know what time ~~is it~~ / it is? (Do you know what time it is? *is right*)
2 Why are you / you are going away?
3 I don't know where are they / they are going.
4 Can you tell me where is the museum / the museum is?
5 Where do you want / you want to go for your holidays?
6 Do you know what do elephants eat / elephants eat?
7 I don't know how far is it / it is from the hotel to the station.

49.4 Write questions with **Do you know if ... ?**

1 (Have they got a car?) Do you know if they've got a car? .....
2 (Are they married?) Do you know .....
3 (Does Sue know Bill?) .....
4 (Will Gary be here tomorrow?) .....
5 (Did he pass his exam?) .....

49.5 Write questions beginning **Do you know ... ?**

1 (What does Laura want?) Do you know what Laura wants? .....
2 (Where is Paula?) Do .....
3 (Is she working today?) .....
4 (What time does she start work?) .....
5 (Are the shops open tomorrow?) .....
6 (Where do Sarah and Jack live?) .....
7 (Did they go to Jane's party?) .....

49.6 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 Do you know why the bus was late ..... ?
2 Do you know what time ..... ?
3 Excuse me, can you tell me where ..... ?
4 I don't know what .....
5 Do you know if ..... ?
6 Do you know how much ..... ?

She said that ... He told me that ...

A

Last week you went to a party. A lot of your friends were there. Here are some things they said to you:

Today you meet Paul. You tell him about the party. You tell Paul what your friends said:

CLARE

I'm enjoying my new job.

My father isn't well.

am / is → **was**

- Clare said that **she was** enjoying her new job.
- She said that **her father wasn't** well.

SARAH

We're going to buy a house.

BEN

are → **were**

- Sarah and Ben said that **they were** going to buy a house.

PETER

I have to leave early.

My sister has gone to Australia.

have / has → **had**

- Peter said that **he had** to leave early.
- He said that **his sister had** gone to Australia.

KATE

I can't find a job.

can → **could**

- Kate said that **she couldn't** find a job.

STEVE

I'll phone you.

will → **would**

- Steve said that **he would** phone me.

RACHEL

I don't like my job.

My son doesn't like school.

do / does → **did**

- Rachel said that **she didn't** like her job.
- She said that **her son didn't** like school.

MIKE

You look tired.

I feel fine.

YOU

look → **looked**	
feel → **felt**	
etc.	etc.
(present)	*(past)*

- Mike said that **I looked** tired.
- I said that **I felt** fine.

B

say and **tell**

say (→ **said**)

- He **said** that he was tired. (*not* He said me)
- What did she **say to** you? (*not* say you)

We say **he said to me**, **I said to Ann** etc. (*not* 'he said me', 'I said Ann').

tell (→ **told**)

- He **told me** that he was tired. (*not* He told that)
- What did she **tell you**? (*not* tell to you)

We say **he told me**, **I told Ann** etc. (*not* 'he told to me', 'I told to Ann').

C

You can say:

- He said **that** he was tired. *or* He said he was tired. (*without* that)
- Kate told me **that** she couldn't find a job. *or* Kate told me she couldn't find a job.

I told you to ... ➜ Unit 53

Exercises

50.1 Read what these people say and write sentences with **He/She/They said (that) ...** .

1
I've lost my watch.
He said he had lost his watch.

2
I'm very busy.
.....

3
I can't go to the party.
.....

4
I have to go out.
.....

5
I'm learning Russian.
.....

6
I don't feel very well.
.....

7
We'll be home late.
.....

8
I've just come back from holiday.
.....

9
I'm going to buy a guitar.
.....

10
We haven't got a key.
.....

50.2 Use the pictures to complete the sentences.

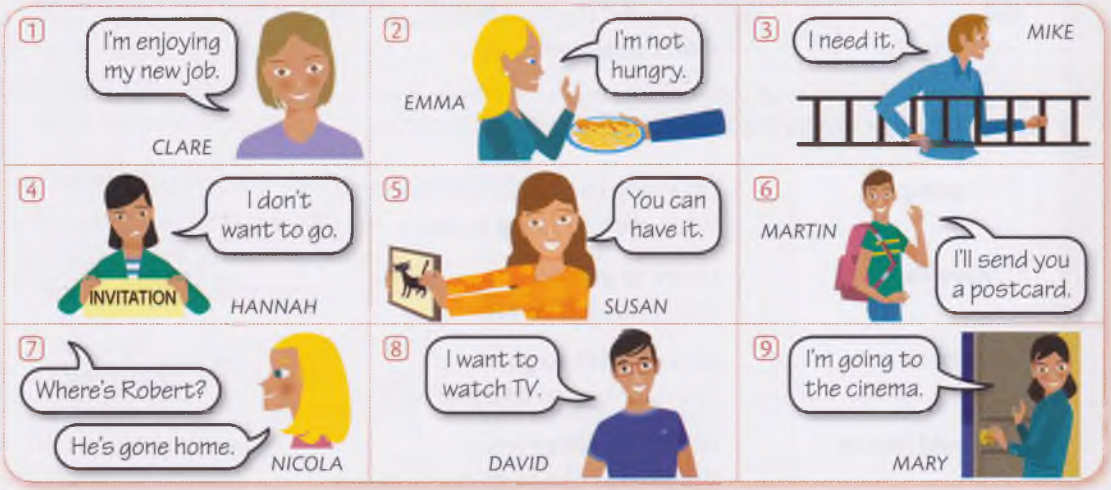

1 I met Clare last week. She said ....she was enjoying her new job....
2 Emma didn't want anything to eat. She said .....
3 I wanted to borrow Mike's ladder, but he said .....
4 Hannah was invited to the party, but she said .....
5 Susan told me she didn't want the picture. She said .....
6 Martin has just gone away on holiday. He said .....
7 I was looking for Robert. Nicola said .....
8 'Why did David stay at home?' 'He said .....'
9 'Has Mary gone out?' 'I think so. She said .....'

50.3 Write **say/said** or **tell/told**.

1 He ....said.... he was tired.
2 What did she....tell.... you?
3 Anna ..... she didn't like Peter.
4 Jack ..... me that you were ill.
5 Please don't ..... Dan what happened.
6 Did Lucy ..... she would be late?
7 The woman ..... she was a reporter.
8 The woman ..... us she was a reporter.
9 They asked me a lot of questions, but I didn't ..... them anything.
10 They asked me a lot of questions, but I didn't ..... anything.

Unit 51

work/working go/going do/doing

A

work/go/be etc. *(infinitive)*

will/can/must etc. + *infinitive*:

will	Anna **will be** here soon.	→ Units 27–28
shall	**Shall** I **open** the window?	
might	I **might phone** you later.	→ Unit 29
may	**May** I **sit** here?	
can	I **can't meet** you tomorrow.	→ Unit 30
could	**Could** you **pass** the salt, please?	
must	It's late. I **must go** now.	→ Unit 31
should	You **shouldn't work** so hard.	→ Unit 32
would	**Would** you **like** some coffee?	→ Unit 34

do/does/did + *infinitive*:

do/does *(present simple)*	**Do** you **work**?	→ Units 6–7
	They **don't work** very hard.	
	Helen **doesn't know** many people.	
	How much **does** it **cost**?	
did *(past simple)*	What time **did** the train **leave**?	→ Unit 12
	We **didn't sleep** well.	

B

to work / to go / to be etc. (**to** + *infinitive*)

(I'm) **going to** ...	**I'm going to play** tennis tomorrow.	→ Unit 26
	What **are** you **going to do**?	
(I) **have to** ...	I **have to go** now.	→ Unit 33
	Everybody **has to eat**.	
(I) **want to** ...	Do you **want to go** out?	→ Unit 52
	They don't **want to come** with us.	
(I) **would like to** ...	**I'd like to talk** to you.	→ Unit 34
	Would you **like to go** out?	
(I) **used to** ...	Dave **used to work** in a factory.	→ Unit 36

C

working/going/playing etc.

am/is/are + -ing *(present continuous)*	Please be quiet. **I'm working**.	→ Units 3–4, 8, 25
	Tom **isn't working** today.	
	What time **are** you **going** out?	
was/were + -ing *(past continuous)*	It **was raining**, so we didn't go out.	→ Units 13–14
	What **were** you **doing** at 11.30 yesterday?	

*verbs + **to** ... and **-ing** (**I want to do** / **I enjoy doing**)* ➜ *Unit 52* *go and **-ing*** ➜ *Unit 55*

Exercises

51.1 Complete the sentences. Write: **... phone Paul** or **... to phone Paul**.

1 I'll phone Paul.
2 I'm going to phone Paul.
3 Can you ..... Paul?
4 Shall I .....?
5 I'd like .....
6 Do you have .....?
7 You should .....
8 I want .....
9 I might .....
10 You must .....

51.2 Complete the sentences with a verb from the box. Sometimes you need the infinitive (**work/go** etc.) and sometimes you need **-ing** (**working/going** etc.).

do/doing	**get/getting**	~~**sleep/sleeping**~~	**watch/watching**
eat/eating	**go/going**	**stay/staying**	**wear/wearing**
fly/flying	**listen/listening**	**wait/waiting**	~~**work/working**~~

1 Please be quiet. I'm working.
2 I feel tired today. I didn't sleep very well last night.
3 What time do you usually ..... up in the morning?
4 'Where are you .....?' 'To the office.'
5 Did you ..... TV last night?
6 Look at that plane! It's ..... very low.
7 You can turn off the radio. I'm not ..... to it.
8 They didn't ..... anything because they weren't hungry.
9 My friends were ..... for me when I arrived.
10 'Does Susan always ..... glasses?' 'No, only for reading.'
11 'What are you ..... tonight?' 'I'm ..... at home.'

51.3 Put the verb in the correct form. Choose from:

the infinitive (**work/go** etc.) or
to ... (**to work / to go** etc.) or
-ing (**working/going** etc.)

1 Shall I open the window? (open)
2 It's late. I have to go now. (go)
3 Amanda isn't working this week. She's on holiday. (work)
4 I'm tired. I don't want ..... out. (go)
5 It might ....., so take an umbrella with you. (rain)
6 What time do you have ..... tomorrow morning? (leave)
7 I'm sorry I can't ..... you. (help)
8 My brother is a student. He's ..... physics. (study)
9 Would you like ..... on a trip round the world? (go)
10 When you saw Maria, what was she .....? (wear)
11 When you go to London, where are you going .....? (stay)
12 I'm hungry. I must ..... something to eat. (have)
13 'Where's Gary?' 'He's ..... a bath.' (have)
14 I used ..... a car, but I sold it last year. (have)
15 He spoke very quietly. I couldn't ..... him. (hear)
16 You don't look well. I don't think you should ..... to work today. (go)
17 I don't know what he said. I wasn't ..... to him. (listen)
18 I missed the bus and had ..... home. (walk)
19 I want ..... what happened. (know) You must ..... me. (tell)
20 May I ..... this book? (borrow)

Unit 52

to ... (I want to do) and -ing (I enjoy doing)

A

verbs + **to** ... (**I want to do**)

want	**plan**	**decide**	**try**
hope	**expect**	**offer**	**forget**
need	**promise**	**refuse**	**learn**

+ **to** ... (**to do** / **to work** / **to be** etc.)

- What do you **want to do** this evening?
- It's not very late. We don't **need to go** home yet.
- Tina has **decided to sell** her car.
- You **forgot to switch** off the light when you went out.
- My brother is **learning to drive**.
- I **tried to read** my book, but I was too tired.

B

verbs + **-ing** (**I enjoy doing**)

enjoy	**stop**	**suggest**
mind	**finish**	

+ **-ing** (**doing** / **working** / **being** etc.)

- I **enjoy dancing**. (*not* enjoy to dance)
- I don't **mind getting** up early.
- Has it **stopped raining**?
- Sonia **suggested going** to the cinema.

C

verbs + **-ing** *or* **to** ...

like	**love**	**start**	**continue**
prefer	**hate**	**begin**	

+ **-ing** (**doing** etc.) *or* **to** ... (**to do** etc.)

- Do you **like getting** up early? *or* Do you **like to get** up early?
- I **prefer travelling** by car. *or* I **prefer to travel** by car.
- Anna **loves dancing**. *or* Anna **loves to dance**.
- I **hate being** late. *or* I **hate to be** late.
- It **started raining**. *or* It **started to rain**.

D

would like to ... etc.

would like	**would** love
would prefer	**would** hate

+ **to** ... (**to do** / **to work** / **to be** etc.)

- Amy **would like to meet** you.
- **I'd love to go** to Australia. (**I'd** = I **would**)
- '**Would** you **like to sit** down?' 'No, **I'd prefer to stand**, thank you.'
- I like this apartment. I **wouldn't like to move**.
- I live in a small village. **I'd hate to live** in a big city.

would like ➜ Unit 34 **I want you to** ... ➜ Unit 53 **go** + **-ing** ➜ Unit 55 preposition + **-ing** ➜ Unit 112

Exercises

52.1 Put the verb in the right form, **to ...** or **-ing**.

1 I enjoy ....dancing.... . (dance)
2 What do you want ....to do.... tonight? (do)
3 Bye! I hope ..... you again soon. (see)
4 I learnt ..... when I was five years old. (swim)
5 Have you finished ..... the kitchen? (clean)
6 Where's Anna? I need ..... her something. (ask)
7 Do you enjoy ..... other countries? (visit)
8 The weather was nice, so I suggested ..... for a walk by the river. (go)
9 Where's Ben? He promised ..... here on time. (be)
10 I'm not in a hurry. I don't mind ..... . (wait)
11 What have you decided ..... ? (do)
12 Dan was angry and refused ..... to me. (speak)
13 I'm tired. I want ..... to bed. (go)
14 I was very upset and started ..... . (cry)
15 I'm trying ..... . (work) Please stop ..... . (talk)

52.2 Complete the sentences using **to ...** or **-ing**. Use these verbs:

~~go~~ **go** **help** **lose** **rain** **read** **see** **send** **wait** **watch**

1 'Have you ever been to Australia?' 'No, but I'd love ....to go.... .'
2 Amy had a lot to do, so I offered ..... her.
3 I'm surprised that you're here. I didn't expect ..... you.
4 Kate has a lot of books. She enjoys ..... .
5 This ring was my grandmother's. I'd hate. ..... it.
6 Don't forget ..... us a postcard when you're on holiday.
7 I'm not going out until it stops ..... .
8 What shall we do this afternoon? Would you like ..... to the beach?
9 When I'm tired in the evenings, I like ..... TV.
10 'Shall we go now?' 'No, I'd prefer ..... a few minutes.'

52.3 Complete the answers to the questions.

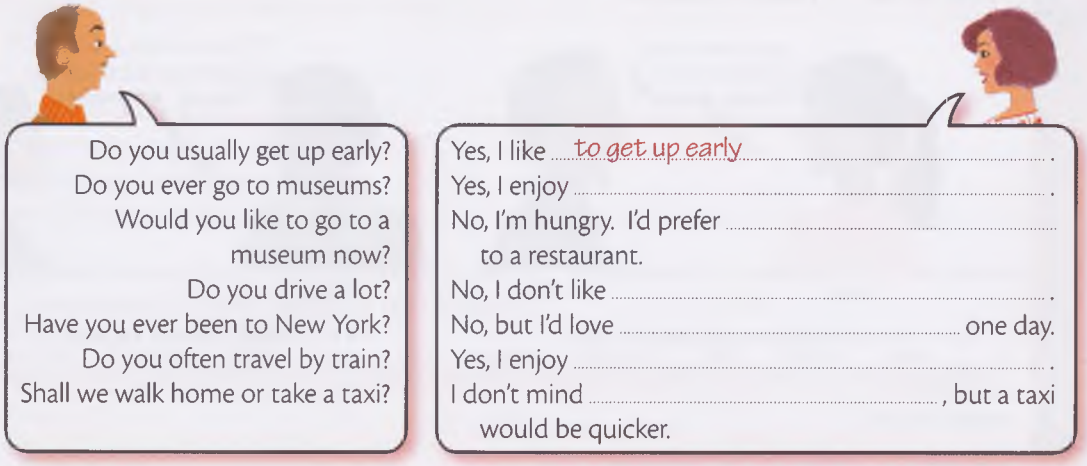

1	Do you usually get up early?	Yes, I like ....to get up early.... .
2	Do you ever go to museums?	Yes, I enjoy ..... .
3	Would you like to go to a museum now?	No, I'm hungry. I'd prefer ..... to a restaurant.
4	Do you drive a lot?	No, I don't like ..... .
5	Have you ever been to New York?	No, but I'd love ..... one day.
6	Do you often travel by train?	Yes, I enjoy ..... .
7	Shall we walk home or take a taxi?	I don't mind ....., but a taxi would be quicker.

52.4 Complete these sentences. Write about yourself. Use **to ...** or **-ing**.

1 I enjoy .....
2 I don't like .....
3 If it's a nice day tomorrow, I'd like .....
4 When I'm on holiday, I like .....
5 I don't mind ....., but .....
6 I wouldn't like .....

→ **Additional exercise 32** (page 268)

Unit 53

I want you to ... I told you to ...

A I want you to ...

The woman **wants to go**.

The man **doesn't want** the woman **to go**. He **wants** her **to stay**.

We say:

I want	**you** **somebody** **Sarah**	**to do** something

- I **want you to be** happy. (*not* I want that you are happy)
- They didn't **want anybody to know** their secret.
- Do you **want me to lend** you some money?

We use **would like** in the same way:

- **Would** you **like me to lend** you some money?

B

We also use this structure with:

		verb	+ somebody +	**to** ...	
ask	Sue	**asked**	a friend	**to lend**	her some money.
tell	I	**told**	you	**to be**	careful.
advise	What do you	**advise**	me	**to do**?	
expect	I didn't	**expect**	them	**to be**	here.
persuade	We	**persuaded**	Gary	**to come**	with us.
teach	I	**am teaching**	my brother	**to swim**.	

C I told you to ... / I told you not to ...

→ Jane **told** me **to wait** for her.

→ Paul **told** Sue **not to wait** for him.

D make and let

After **make** and **let**, we do *not* use **to**:

- He's very funny. He **makes** me **laugh**. (*not* makes me to laugh)
- At school our teacher **made** us **work** very hard.
- I didn't have my phone with me, so Sue **let** me **use** hers. (*not* let me to use)

You can say **Let's** ... (= **Let us**) when you want people to do things with you:

- Come on! **Let's dance**.
- 'Do you want to go out tonight?' 'No, I'm tired. **Let's stay** at home.'

Let's ... → Unit 35 **He told me that** ... → Unit 50

Exercises

53.1 Write sentences beginning **I want you ... / I don't want you ... / Do you want me ... ?**

1 (you must come with me) I want you to come with me.
2 (listen carefully) I want .....
3 (please don't be angry) I don't .....
4 (shall I wait for you?) Do you .....
5 (don't call me tonight) .....
6 (you must meet Sarah) .....

53.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 Dan persuaded me to go to the cinema.
2 I wanted to get to the station. A woman told .....
3 Ben wasn't well. I advised .....
4 Laura had a lot of luggage. She asked .....
5 I was too busy to talk to Tom. I told .....
6 I wanted to make a phone call. Paul let .....
7 Sue is going to call me later. I told .....
8 Amy's mother taught .....

53.3 Complete these sentences with the verbs in the list. Sometimes **to** is necessary (**to go / to wait** etc.); sometimes **to** is not necessary (**go/wait** etc.).

arrive borrow get ~~go~~ go make repeat tell think wait

1 Please stay here. I don't want you to go yet.
2 I didn't hear what she said, so I asked her ..... it.
3 'Shall we begin?' 'No, let's ..... a few minutes.'
4 Are they already here? I expected them ..... much later.
5 Kevin's parents didn't want him ..... married.
6 I want to stay here. You can't make me ..... with you.
7 'Is that your bike?' 'No, it's John's. He let me ..... it.'
8 Rachel can't come to the party. She told me ..... you.
9 Would you like a drink? Would you like me ..... some coffee?
10 'Kate doesn't like me.' 'What makes you ..... that?'

I went to the shop to ...

A

Paula wanted a newspaper, so she went to the shop.

Why did she go to the shop?
To get a newspaper.

She went to the shop **to get** a newspaper.

to ... (**to get** / **to see** etc.) tells us *why* a person does something:

- 'Why are you going out?' '**To buy** some food.'
- Catherine went to the station **to meet** her friend.
- Sue turned on the television **to watch** the news.
- I'd like to go to Spain **to learn** Spanish.

money/time to (do something):

- We need some **money to buy** food.
- I haven't got **time to watch** television.

B

to ... and **for** ...

to + *verb* (**to get** / **to see** etc.)	**for** + *noun* (**for a newspaper** / **for food** etc.)
I went to the shop **to get** a newspaper. (*not* for get)	I went to the shop **for a newspaper**.
They're going to Brazil **to see** their friends.	They're going to Brazil **for a holiday**.
We need some money **to buy** food.	We need some money **for food**.

C

wait for ... :

- Please **wait for** me.
- Are you **waiting for** the bus?

wait to (do something):

- Hurry up! I'm **waiting to go**.
- Are you **waiting to see** the doctor?

wait for (somebody/something) **to** ... :

- The lights are red. You have to **wait for them to change**.
- Are you **waiting for the doctor to come**?

They're **waiting for the lights to change**.

go to ... and **go for** ... ➜ Unit 55 **something to eat** / **nothing to do** etc. ➜ Unit 79
enough + **to/for** ... ➜ Unit 91 **too** + **to/for** ... ➜ Unit 92

Exercises

54.1 *Write sentences beginning* ***I went to ...*** *. Choose from the boxes.*

a coffee shop	~~**the station**~~	+	**buy some vegetables**	**get some medicine**
the chemist	**the market**		**meet a friend**	~~**get a train ticket**~~

1 I went to the station to get a train ticket.
2 I went .....
3 .....
4 .....

54.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

to get some fresh air	**to read the newspaper**	**to wake him up**
to open this door	**to see who it was**	~~**to watch the news**~~

1 I turned on the TV to watch the news.
2 Alice sat down in an armchair .....
3 Do I need a key .....?
4 I went for a walk by the river .....
5 I knocked on the door of David's room .....
6 The doorbell rang, so I looked out of the window .....

54.3 *Use your own ideas to finish these sentences. Use* ***to ...*** *.*

1 *I went to the shop* *to get a newspaper*.
2 I'm very busy. I don't have time .....
3 I called Amy .....
4 I'm going out .....
5 I borrowed some money .....

54.4 Write **to** or **for**.

1 I went out to get some bread.
2 We went to a restaurant ..... have dinner.
3 Robert wants to go to university ..... study economics.
4 I'm going to London ..... an interview next week.
5 I'm going to London ..... visit some friends of mine.
6 Do you have time ..... a cup of coffee?
7 I got up late this morning. I didn't have time ..... wash.
8 Everybody needs money ..... live.
9 We didn't have any money ..... a taxi, so we walked home.
10 The office is very small. There's space only ..... a desk and chair.
11 A: Excuse me, are you waiting ..... be served?
B: No, I'm already being served, thanks.

54.5 Complete these sentences. Choose from:

it / to arrive	**you / tell me**	~~**them / change**~~	**the film / begin**

1 We stopped at the lights and waited for them to change.
2 I sat down in the cinema and waited .....
3 We called an ambulance and waited .....
4 'Do you know what to do?' 'No, I'm waiting .....'

Unit 55

go to ... go on ... go for ... go -ing

A

go to ... (**go to work** / **go to London** / **go to a concert** etc.)

- What time do you usually **go to work**?
- I'm **going to China** next week.
- Sophie didn't want to **go to the concert**.
- 'Where's Tom?' 'He's **gone to bed**.'
- I **went to the dentist** yesterday.

go to

go to sleep = start to sleep:

- I was very tired and **went to sleep** quickly.

go home (without **to**)

- I'm **going home** now. (*not* going to home)

B

go on ...

go on	holiday a trip a tour a cruise strike

- We're **going on holiday** next week.
- Children often **go on school trips**.
- Workers at the airport have **gone on strike**. (= they are refusing to work)

C

go for ...

go (somewhere) **for**	a walk a run a swim a drink a meal

- 'Where's Emma?' 'She's **gone for a walk**.'
- Do you **go for a run** every morning?
- The water looks nice. I'm **going for a swim**.
- I met Chris in town, so we **went for coffee**.
- Shall we **go** out **for a meal**? I know a good restaurant.

D

go + -ing

We use **go + -ing** for many sports (**swimming** / **skiing** etc.) and also **shopping**.

I **go** he is **going** we **went** they have **gone** she wants to **go**	**shopping** **swimming** **fishing** **sailing** **skiing** **jogging** etc.

- Are you **going shopping** this afternoon?
- It's a nice day. Let's **go swimming**. (*or* Let's **go for a** swim.)
- Richard has a small boat and he often **goes sailing**.
- I **went jogging** before breakfast this morning.

Exercises

55.1 Write **to/on/for** where necessary.

1 I'm going ....to.... China next week.
2 Richard often goes ....–.... sailing. *(no preposition)*
3 Sue went ..... Mexico last year.
4 Jack goes ..... jogging every morning.
5 I'm going out ..... a walk. Do you want to come?
6 I'm tired because I went ..... bed very late last night.
7 Mark is going ..... holiday ..... Italy next week.
8 The weather was warm and the river was clean, so we went ..... a swim.
9 The taxi drivers went ..... strike when I was in New York.
10 Let's go ..... the cinema this evening.
11 It's late. I have to go ..... home now.
12 Would you like to go ..... a tour of the city?
13 Shall we go out ..... dinner this evening?
14 My parents are going ..... a cruise this summer.

55.2 Use the pictures to complete the sentences. Use **go/goes/going/went + -ing**.

1 Richard has a boat. He often ....goes sailing.... .
2 Last Saturday Emily went ..... .
3 Dan ..... every day.
4 Jessica is going on holiday next month. She is ..... .
5 Peter is going out later. He has to ..... .
6 Sarah ..... after work yesterday.

55.3 Complete the sentences. Use the words in the box. Use **to/on/for** if necessary.

~~a swim~~	holiday	Portugal	shopping	sleep
a walk	home	riding	skiing	university

1 The water looks nice. Let's go ....for a swim.... .
2 After leaving school, Tina went ..... where she studied psychology.
3 I'm going ..... now. I have to buy a few things.
4 I was very tired last night. I sat down in an armchair and went ..... .
5 I wasn't enjoying the party, so I went ..... early.
6 We live near the mountains. In winter we go ..... most weekends.
7 Robert has got a horse. He goes ..... a lot.
8 The weather is nice. Shall we go ..... along the river?
9 A: Are you going ..... soon?
B: Yes, next month. We're going ..... . We've never been there before.

Unit 56

get

A

get + *noun* = receive, buy, find etc.

you **don't have** something → you **get** it → you **have** it

- I **got** an email from Sam this morning. (= receive)
- I like your sweater. Where did you **get** it? (= buy)
- It's hard to **get** a job at the moment? (= find)
- 'Is Lisa here?' 'Yes, I'll **get** her for you.'

also **get a bus** / **a train** / **a taxi** (= take a bus/train etc.):

- 'Did you walk here?' 'No, I **got** the bus.'

B

get hungry / **get cold** / **get tired** etc. (**get** + *adjective*) = become:

you're **not hungry** → you **get hungry** → you **are hungry**

- If you don't eat, you **get hungry**.
- Drink your coffee. It**'s getting cold**.
- I'm sorry your mother is ill. I hope she **gets better** soon.
- It was raining very hard. We didn't have an umbrella, so we **got** very **wet**.

also **get married**
get dressed (= put your clothes on)
get lost (= lose your way)

- Nicola and Frank are **getting married** soon.
- I got up and **got dressed** quickly.
- We didn't have a map, so we **got lost**.

C

get to a place = arrive:

- I usually **get to work** before 8.30. (= arrive at work)
- We left London at 10 o'clock and **got to Manchester** at 12.45.

get here/there (without **to**):

- How did you **get here**? By bus?

get home (without **to**):

- What time did you **get home** last night?

D

get in/out/on/off

get in (a car)

get out (**of** a car)

get on

get off

(a bus / a train / a plane)

- Kate **got in the car** and drove away. (You can also say: Kate got **into** the car and ...)
- A car stopped and a man **got out**. (*but* A man got out **of the car**.)
- We **got on the bus** outside the hotel and **got off** in Church Street.

get to → Unit 108 in/out/on/off → Units 110, 114 get up → Unit 114 get on → Appendix 6

Exercises

56.1 Complete these sentences. Use **get/gets** and choose from the box.

a doctor	**a lot of rain**	**a taxi**	~~**my email**~~	**the job**
a good salary	**a new laptop**	**a ticket**	**some milk**	**your boots**

1 Did you ....get my email.... ? I sent it a week ago.
2 Where did you ..... ? They're very nice.
3 Quick! This man is ill. We need to ..... .
4 I don't want to walk home. Let's ..... .
5 Tom has an interview tomorrow. I hope he ..... .
6 When you go to the shop, can you ..... ?
7 'Are you going to the concert?' 'Yes, if I can ..... .'
8 Helen has got a well-paid job. She ..... .
9 The weather is horrible here in winter. We ..... .
10 I'm going to ..... . The one I have is too slow.

56.2 Complete these sentences. Use **getting** + these words:

~~**cold**~~	**dark**	**late**	**married**	**ready**

1 Drink your coffee. It's ....getting cold.... .
2 Turn on the light. It's ..... .
3 'I'm ..... next week.' 'Really? Congratulations!'
4 'Where's Karen?' 'She's ..... to go out.'
5 It's ..... . It's time to go home.

56.3 Complete the sentences. Use **get/gets/got** + these words:

angry	**better**	~~**hungry**~~	**lost**	**married**	**old**	**wet**

1 If you don't eat, you ....get hungry.... .
2 Don't go out in the rain. You'll ..... .
3 My brother ..... last year. His wife's name is Sarah.
4 Mark is always very calm. He never ..... .
5 We tried to find the hotel, but we ..... .
6 Everybody wants to stay young, but we all ..... .
7 Yesterday the weather wasn't so good at first, but it ..... during the day.

56.4 Write sentences with **I left ...** and **got to ...** .

1 home / 7.30 → work / 8.15
....I left home at 7.30 and got to work at 8.15.....
2 London / 10.15 → Bristol / 11.45
I left London at 10.15 and .....
3 the party / 11.15 → home / midnight
.....
4 *Write a sentence about yourself.*
I left .....

56.5 Write **got in / got out of / got on / got off.**

1 Kate ....got in.... the car and drove away.
2 I ..... the bus and walked to my house from the bus stop.
3 Isabel ..... the car, shut the door and went into a shop.
4 I made a stupid mistake. I ..... the wrong train.

Unit 57

do and make

A

Do is a general word for actions:

- What are you **doing** this evening? (*not* What are you making?)
- 'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll **do** it.'
- Rachel's job is very boring. She **does** the same thing every day.
- I **did** a lot of things yesterday.

What do you do? = What's your job?:

- 'What do you **do**?' 'I work in a bank.'

B

Make = produce/create. For example:

She's **making** coffee.

He has **made** a cake.

They **make** umbrellas.

It was **made** in China.

Compare **do** and **make**:

- I **did** a lot yesterday. I **cleaned** my room, I **wrote** some letters and I **made** a cake.
- A: What do you **do** in your free time? Sport? Reading? Hobbies?
  B: I **make** clothes. I **make** dresses and jackets. I also **make** toys for my children.

C

Expressions with **do**

do	an exam / a test
	a course
	homework
	housework
	somebody a favour
	an exercise

- I'm **doing my driving test** next week.
- John has just **done a training course**.
- Our children have to **do** a lot of **homework**.
- I hate **doing housework**, especially cleaning.
- Sue, could you **do me a favour**?
- I go for a run and **do exercises** every morning.

also **do the shopping** / **do the washing** / **do the washing-up** / **do the ironing** / **do the cooking** etc.:

- I **did the washing**, but I didn't **do the shopping**.

D

Expressions with **make**

make	a mistake
	an appointment
	a phone call
	a list
	a noise
	a bed

- I'm sorry, I **made a mistake**.
- I need to **make an appointment** to see the doctor.
- Excuse me, I have to **make a phone call**.
- Have you **made a shopping list**?
- It's late. Don't **make a noise**.
- Sometimes I forget to **make my bed** in the morning.

We say **make a film** *but* **take a photo** / **take a picture**:

- When was **this film made**?

but

- When was **this photo taken**?

do/does/did (negatives and questions) ➜ Units 43–44 **make** somebody do something ➜ Unit 53

Exercises

57.1 Write **make/making/made** or **do/doing/did/done**.

1 'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll ...do... it.'
2 What did you ..... at the weekend? Did you go away?
3 Do you know how to ..... bread?
4 Paper is ..... from wood.
5 Richard didn't help me. He sat in an armchair and ..... nothing.
6 'What do you ..... ?' 'I'm a doctor.'
7 I asked you to clean the bathroom. Have you ..... it?
8 'What do they ..... in that factory?' 'Shoes.'
9 I'm ..... some coffee. Would you like some?
10 Why are you angry with me? I didn't ..... anything wrong.
11 'What are you ..... tomorrow afternoon?' 'I'm working.'

57.2 What are these people doing?

1 ...He's making a cake.... 6 .....
2 They ..... 7 .....
3 He ..... 8 .....
4 ..... 9 .....
5 ..... 10 .....

57.3 Write **make** or **do** in the correct form.

1 I hate ...doing... housework, especially cleaning.
2 Why do you always ..... the same mistake?
3 'Can you ..... me a favour?' 'It depends what it is.'
4 'Have you ..... your homework?' 'Not yet.'
5 I need to see the dentist, but I haven't ..... an appointment.
6 I'm ..... a course in photography at the moment. It's very good.
7 The last time I ..... an exam was ten years ago.
8 How many phone calls did you ..... yesterday?
9 When you've finished Exercise 1, you can ..... Exercise 2.
10 There's something wrong with the car. The engine is ..... a strange noise.
11 It was a bad mistake. It was the worst mistake I've ever ..... .
12 Let's ..... a list of all the things we have to ..... today.

Unit 58

have

A

have and **have got**

I have (something) or **I've got** (something) = it is mine:

- I **have** a new car. *or* I**'ve got** a new car.
- Sue **has** long hair. *or* Sue **has got** long hair.
- **Do** they **have** any children? *or* **Have** they **got** any children?
- Tom **doesn't have** a job. *or* Tom **hasn't got** a job.
- How much time **do** you **have**? *or* How much time **have** you **got**?

also

I **have** / I**'ve got**	a headache / (a) toothache / a pain (in my leg etc.) a cold / a cough / a sore throat / a temperature / flu etc.

- I **have** a headache. *or* I**'ve got** a headache.
- **Do** you **have** a cold? *or* **Have** you **got** a cold?

The past is **I had** (without **got**) / **I didn't have** / **Did you have**? etc. :

- When I first met Sue, she **had** short hair.
- He **didn't have** any money because he **didn't have** a job.
- **Did** you **have** enough time to do everything you wanted?

B

have breakfast / **have a shower** etc.

In these expressions **have** = eat/drink/take etc. You can't use 'have got'.

have	breakfast / lunch / dinner a meal / a sandwich / a pizza etc. a cup of coffee / a glass of milk etc. something to eat/drink

- 'Where's Lisa?' 'She**'s having** lunch.'
- I **don't** usually **have** breakfast.
- I **had** three cups of coffee this morning.
- '**Have** a biscuit!' 'Oh, thank you.'

We also use **have** (*not* have got) in these expressions:

have	a bath / a shower a rest / a holiday / a party a nice time / a good trip / fun etc. a walk / a swim / a game (of tennis etc.) a dream / an accident a baby a look (at something)

- I **had** a shower this morning.
- We'**re having** a party next week. You must come.
- Enjoy your holiday. **Have** a nice time!
- **Did** you **have** a good time in Tokyo?
- Sandra **has** just **had** a baby.
- Can I **have** a look at your magazine?

C

Compare:

Have *or* **have got**

- I **have** / I**'ve got** a new shower. It's very good.

Have (*not* **have got**)

- I **have** a shower every morning.
  (*not* I**'ve got** a shower every morning)
- A: Where's Paul?
  B: He**'s having** a shower.
  (= he's washing now)

I have / I've got → Unit 9 I've (done) (present perfect) → Units 15–18 I have to ... → Unit 33

Exercises

58.1 Write the correct form of **have** or **have got**.

1 I didn't have time to do the shopping yesterday. (I / not / have)
2 'Has Lisa got (OR Does Lisa have) a car?' 'No, she can't drive.' (Lisa / have?)
3 He can't open the door. ..... a key. (he / not / have)
4 ..... a cold last week. He's better now. (Gary / have)
5 What's wrong? ..... a headache? (you / have?)
6 We wanted to go by taxi, but ..... enough money. (we / not / have)
7 Laura is very busy. ..... much free time. (she / not / have)
8 ..... any problems when you were on holiday? (you / have?)

58.2 What are these people doing? Choose from the list:

a bath ~~**breakfast**~~ **a cup of tea** **dinner** **a good time** **a rest**

1 They're having breakfast.
2 She .....
3 He .....
4 They .....
5 .....
6 .....

58.3 What do you say in these situations? Use **have**.

1 Emily is going on holiday. What do you say to her before she goes?
Have a nice holiday!
2 You meet Clare at the airport. She has just got off her plane. Ask her about the flight.
Did you have a good flight?
3 Tom is going on a long trip. What do you say to him before he leaves?
.....
4 It's Monday morning. You are at work. Ask Paula about her weekend.
.....
5 Paul has just come home after playing tennis with a friend. Ask him about the game.
.....
6 Rachel is going out this evening. What do you say to her before she goes?
.....
7 Mark has just returned from holiday. Ask him about his holiday.
.....

58.4 Complete the sentences. Use **have/had** and choose from the list.

an accident **a glass of water** **a look** **a walk** ~~**a party**~~ **something to eat**

1 We had a party a few weeks ago. We invited 50 people.
2 'Shall we ..... ?' 'No, I'm not hungry.'
3 I was thirsty, so I ..... .
4 I like to get up early and ..... before breakfast.
5 Tina is a very good driver. She has never ..... .
6 There's something wrong with the engine of my car. Can you ..... at it?

Unit 59

I/me he/him they/them etc.

A People

subject	**I**	**we**	**you**	**he**	**she**	**they**
object	**me**	**us**	**you**	**him**	**her**	**them**

subject	
I	**I** know Tom.
we	**We** know Tom.
you	**You** know Tom.
he	**He** knows Tom.
she	**She** knows Tom.
they	**They** know Tom.

	object
Tom knows **me**.	**me**
Tom knows **us**.	**us**
Tom knows **you**.	**you**
Tom knows **him**.	**him**
Tom knows **her**.	**her**
Tom knows **them**.	**them**

B Things

subject	**it**	**they**
object	**it**	**them**

- I don't want **this book**. You can have **it**.
- I don't want **these books**. You can have **them**.
- Kate never drinks **milk**. She doesn't like **it**.
- I never go to **parties**. I don't like **them**.

C

We use **me/her/them** etc. (object) after a *preposition* (**for/to/with** etc.):

- This letter isn't **for me**. It's **for you**.
- Who is that woman? Why are you looking **at her**?
- We're going to the cinema. Do you want to come **with us**?
- Sue and Kevin are going to the cinema. Do you want to go **with them**?
- 'Where's the newspaper?' 'You're sitting **on it**.'

give it/them to ... :

- I want that book. Please give **it to me**.
- Robert needs these books. Can you give **them to him**, please?

my/his/their etc. ➜ Unit 60 **Give me that book / Give it to me** ➜ Unit 96

Exercises

59.1 Complete the sentences with **him/her/them.**

1 I don't know those girls. Do you know ....them.... ?
2 I don't know that man. Do you know .... ?
3 I don't know those people. Do you know .... ?
4 I don't know David's wife. Do you know .... ?
5 I don't know Mr Stevens. Do you know .... ?
6 I don't know Sarah's parents. Do you know .... ?
7 I don't know the woman in the black coat. Do you know .... ?

59.2 Complete the sentences. Use **I/me/you/she/her** etc.

1 **I** want to see **her**, but ....she.... doesn't want to see ....me.... .
2 **They** want to see **me**, but .... don't want to see .... .
3 **She** wants to see **him**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .
4 **We** want to see **them**, but .... don't want to see .... .
5 **He** wants to see **us**, but .... don't want to see .... .
6 **They** want to see **her**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .
7 **I** want to see **them**, but .... don't want to see .... .
8 **You** want to see **her**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .

59.3 Write sentences beginning **I like ... , I don't like ...** or **Do you like ... ?**

1 I don't eat tomatoes. ....I don't like them.... .
2 George is a very nice man. I like .... .
3 This jacket isn't very nice. I don't .... .
4 This is my new car. Do .... ?
5 Mrs Clark is not very friendly. I .... .
6 These are my new shoes. .... ?

59.4 Complete the sentences. Use **I/me/he/him** etc.

1 Who is that woman? Why are you looking at ....her.... ?
2 'Do you know that man?' 'Yes, I work with .... .'
3 Where are the tickets? I can't find .... .
4 I can't find my keys. Where are .... ?
5 We're going out. You can come with .... .
6 I've got a new motorbike. Do you want to see .... ?
7 Maria likes music. .... plays the piano.
8 I don't like dogs. I'm afraid of .... .
9 I'm talking to you. Please listen to .... .
10 Where is Anna? I want to talk to .... .
11 You can have these CDs. I don't want .... .
12 My brother has a new job, but .... doesn't like .... very much.

59.5 Complete the sentences.

1 I need that book. Can you ....give it to me.... ?
2 He wants the key. Can you give .... ?
3 She wants the keys. Can you .... ?
4 I need my bag. Can you .... ?
5 They want the money. Can you .... ?
6 We want the pictures. Can you .... ?

my/his/their etc.

A

I	→	**my**
we	→	**our**
you	→	**your**
he	→	**his**
she	→	**her**
they	→	**their**

I	like	**my**	house.
We	like	**our**	house.
You	like	**your**	house.
He	likes	**his**	house.
She	likes	**her**	house.
They	like	**their**	house.

it → **its**

Oxford (= **it**) is famous for **its** university.

We use **my**/**your**/**his** etc. + *noun*:

my hands	**his** new **car**	**her parents**
our clothes	**your** best **friend**	**their room**

B

his/her/their

AMY

her car (= Amy's car)

her husband (= Amy's husband)

her children (= Amy's children)

ANDY

his bike

his sister

his parents

MR AND MRS LEE

their son

their daughter

their children

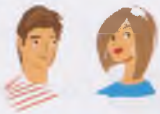

C

its and it's

its Oxford is famous for **its** university.

it's (= it **is**) I like Oxford. **It's** a nice place. (= It **is** a nice place.)

mine/yours etc. → Unit 61 I/me/my/mine → Unit 62

Exercises

60.1 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 I'm going to wash my hands.
2 She's going to wash ..... hands.
3 We're going to wash .....
4 He's going to wash .....
5 They're going to wash .....
6 Are you going to wash .....?

60.2 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 He lives with his parents.
2 They live with ..... parents.
3 We ..... parents.
4 Martina lives .....
5 I ..... parents.
6 John .....
7 Do you live .....?
8 Most children .....

60.3 Look at the family tree, and complete the sentences with **his/her/their**.

1 I saw Sarah with her husband, Philip.
2 I saw Laura and Steve with ..... children.
3 I saw Steve with ..... wife, Laura.
4 I saw Ben with ..... brother, Will.
5 I saw Laura with ..... brother, Will.
6 I saw Sarah and Philip with ..... son, Will.
7 I saw Laura with ..... parents.
8 I saw Beth and Robert with ..... parents.

60.4 Write **my/our/your/his/her/their/its.**

1 Do you like your job?
2 I know Mr Watson, but I don't know ..... wife.
3 Alice and Tom live in London. ..... son lives in Australia.
4 We're going to have a party. We're going to invite all ..... friends.
5 Anna is going out with ..... friends this evening.
6 I like tennis. It's ..... favourite sport.
7 'Is that ..... car?' 'No, I don't have a car.'
8 I want to contact Maria. Do you know ..... number?
9 Do you think most people are happy in ..... jobs?
10 I'm going to wash ..... hair before I go out.
11 This is a beautiful tree. ..... leaves are a beautiful colour.
12 John has a brother and a sister. ..... brother is 25, and ..... sister is 21.

60.5 Complete the sentences. Use **my/his/their** etc. with these words:

coat **homework** **house** **husband** ~~**job**~~ **key** **name**

1 James doesn't enjoy his job. It's not very interesting.
2 I can't get in. I don't have .....
3 Sally is married. ..... works in a bank.
4 Please take off ..... and sit down.
5 'What are the children doing?' 'They're doing .....'
6 'Do you know that man?' 'Yes, but I don't know .....'
7 We live in Barton Street. ..... is at the end on the left.

Unit 61

Whose is this? It's mine/yours/hers etc.

A

I	→	**my**	→	**mine**
we	→	**our**	→	**ours**
you	→	**your**	→	**yours**
he	→	**his**	→	**his**
she	→	**her**	→	**hers**
they	→	**their**	→	**theirs**

It's **my** money.	It's **mine**.
It's **our** money.	It's **ours**.
It's **your** money.	It's **yours**.
It's **his** money.	It's **his**.
It's **her** money.	It's **hers**.
It's **their** money.	It's **theirs**.

B

We use **my**/**your** etc. + *noun* (**my hands** / **your book** etc.):

- **My hands** are cold.
- Is this **your book**?
- Helen gave me **her umbrella**.
- It's **their problem**, not **our problem**.

We use **mine**/**yours** etc. without a noun:

- Is this book **mine** or **yours**? (= my book or your book)
- I didn't have an umbrella, so Sarah gave me **hers**. (= her umbrella)
- It's their problem, not **ours**. (= not our problem)
- We went in our car, and they went in **theirs**. (= their car)

You can use **his** with or without a noun:

- 'Is this **his camera** or **hers**?' 'It's **his**.'

C

a friend **of mine** / a friend **of his** / some friends **of yours** etc.

- I went out to meet a friend **of mine**. (*not* a friend of me)
- Tom was in the restaurant with a friend **of his**. (*not* a friend of him)
- Are those people friends **of yours**? (*not* friends of you)

D

Whose ... ?

- **Whose phone** is this? (= Is it your phone? his phone? my phone? etc.)

You can use **whose** with or without a noun:

- **Whose money** is this? / **Whose** is this? } It's mine.
- **Whose shoes** are these? / **Whose** are these? } They're John's.

my/his/their etc. → Unit 60 I/me/my/mine → Unit 62 Kate's camera / my brother's car → Unit 64

Exercises

61.1 Complete the sentences with **mine/yours** etc.

1 It's your money. It's yours.
2 It's my bag. It's ..... .
3 It's our car. It's ..... .
4 They're her shoes. They're ..... .
5 It's their house. It's ..... .
6 They're your books. They're ..... .
7 They're my glasses. They're ..... .
8 It's his coat. It's ..... .

61.2 Choose the right word.

1 It's their/~~theirs~~ problem, not ~~our~~/ours. (their *and* ours *are right*)
2 This is a nice camera. Is it your/yours?
3 That's not my/mine umbrella. My/Mine is black.
4 Whose books are these? Your/Yours or my/mine?
5 Catherine is going out with her/hers friends this evening.
6 My/Mine room is bigger than her/hers.
7 They have two children, but I don't know their/theirs names.
8 Can we use your washing machine? Our/Ours isn't working.

61.3 Complete these sentences. Use **friend(s) of mine/yours** etc.

1 I went to the cinema with a friend of mine.
2 They went on holiday with some friends of theirs.
3 She's going out with a friend ..... .
4 We had dinner with some ..... .
5 I played tennis with a ..... .
6 Tom is going to meet a ..... .
7 Do you know those people? Are they ..... ?

61.4 Look at the pictures. What are the people saying?

I/me/my/mine

A

	I etc. (→ Unit 59)	**me** etc. (→ Unit 59)	**my** etc. (→ Unit 60)	**mine** etc. (→ Unit 61)
	I know Tom.	Tom knows **me**.	It's **my** car.	It's **mine**.
	We know Tom.	Tom knows **us**.	It's **our** car.	It's **ours**.
	You know Tom.	Tom knows **you**.	It's **your** car.	It's **yours**.
	He knows Tom.	Tom knows **him**.	It's **his** car.	It's **his**.
	She knows Tom.	Tom knows **her**.	It's **her** car.	It's **hers**.
	They know Tom.	Tom knows **them**.	It's **their** car.	It's **theirs**.

B

Study these examples:

- 'Do **you** know that man?' 'Yes, **I** know **him**, but **I** can't remember **his name**.'
- **She** was very pleased because **we** invited **her** to stay with **us** at **our house**.
- A: Where are the children? Have **you** seen them?
  B: Yes, **they** are playing with **their friends** in the park.
- That's **my pen**. Can **you** give it to **me**, please?
- 'Is this **your umbrella**?' 'No, it's **yours**.'
- **He** didn't have an umbrella, so **she** gave **him hers**. (= she gave her umbrella to him)
- **I**'m going out with a friend of **mine** this evening. (*not* a friend of me)

myself/yourself etc. ➜ Unit 63 **Give me that book / Give it to me** ➜ Unit 96

Exercises

62.1 Answer the questions in the same way.

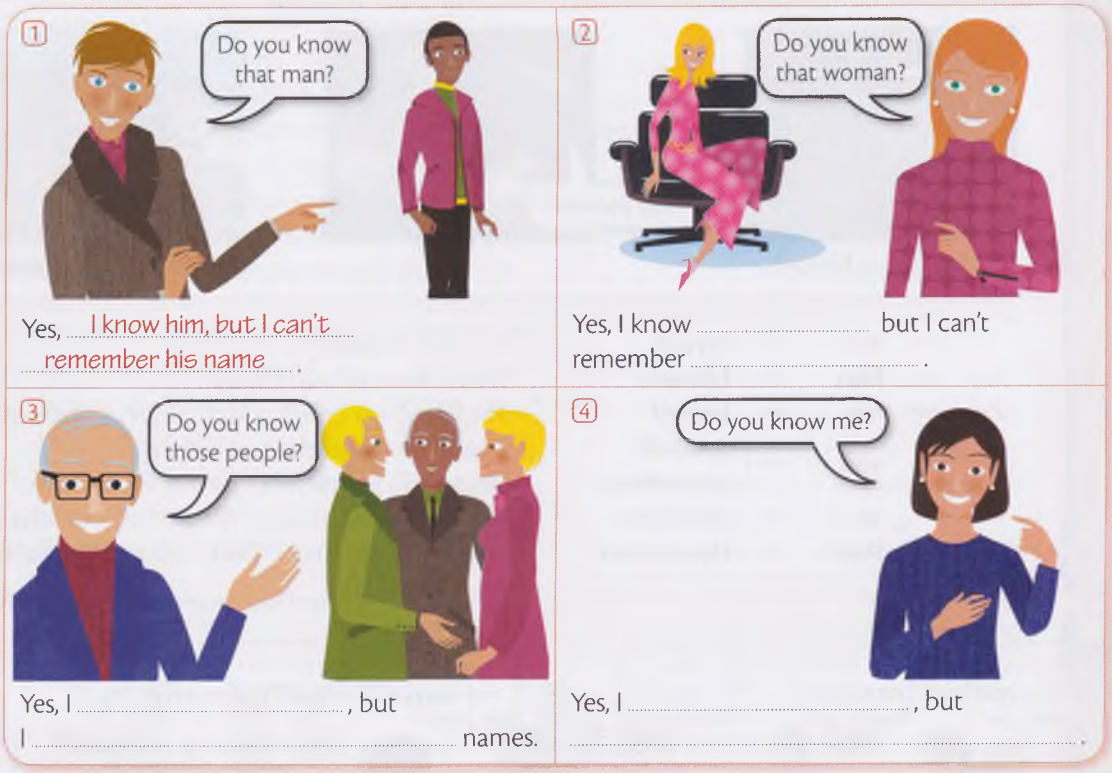

1 Yes, I know him, but I can't remember his name.

2 Yes, I know ..... but I can't remember ..... .

3 Yes, I ..... , but I ..... names.

4 Yes, I ..... , but ..... .

62.2 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 We invited her to stay with us at our house.
2 He invited us to stay with ..... at his house.
3 They invited me to stay with ..... house.
4 I invited them to stay ..... house.
5 She invited us to stay ..... house.
6 Did you invite him ..... house?

62.3 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 I gave him my phone number, and he gave me his.
2 I gave her my phone number, and she gave me ..... .
3 He gave me his phone number, and I gave ..... .
4 We gave them ..... phone number, and they gave ..... .
5 She gave him ..... phone number, and he gave ..... .
6 You gave us ..... phone number, and we gave ..... .
7 They gave you ..... phone number, and you gave ..... .

62.4 Write **him/her/yours** etc.

1 Where's Amanda? Have you seen her?
2 Where are my keys? Where did I put ..... ?
3 This book belongs to Ben. Can you give it to ..... ?
4 We don't see ..... neighbours much. They're not at home very often.
5 'I can't find my phone. Can I use ..... ?' 'Yes, of course.'
6 We're going to the cinema. Why don't you come with ..... ?
7 Did your sister pass ..... exams?
8 Some people talk about ..... work all the time.
9 Last night I went out for a meal with a friend of ..... .

Unit 63

myself/yourself/themselves etc.

A

He's looking at **himself**.

They're enjoying **themselves**.

I	→	**me**	→	**myself**
he	→	**him**	→	**himself**
she	→	**her**	→	**herself**
you	→	**you**	→	**yourself** / **yourselves**
we	→	**us**	→	**ourselves**
they	→	**them**	→	**themselves**

- **I** looked at **myself** in the mirror.
- **He** cut **himself** with a knife.
- **She** fell off her bike, but she didn't hurt **herself**.
- Please help **yourself**. *(one person)*
- Please help **yourselves**. *(two or more people)*
- We had a good holiday. **We** enjoyed **ourselves**.
- They had a nice time. **They** enjoyed **themselves**.

B

Compare:

me/him/them etc.

She is looking at **him**.
different people

- You never talk to **me**.
- I didn't pay for **them**.
- I'm sorry. Did I hurt **you**?

myself/himself/themselves etc.

He is looking at **himself**.
the same person

- Sometimes I talk to **myself**.
- They paid for **themselves**.
- Be careful. Don't hurt **yourself**.

C

by myself / **by yourself** etc. = alone:

- I went on holiday **by myself**. (= I went alone)
- 'Was she with friends?' 'No, she was **by herself**.'

D

each other

- Kate and Helen are good friends. They know **each other** well. (= Kate knows Helen / Helen knows Kate)
- Paul and I live near **each other**. (= he lives near me / I live near him)

Compare **each other** and **-selves**:

- James and Sue looked at **each other**. (= he looked at her, she looked at him)

- James and Sue looked at **themselves**. (= he looked at himself, she looked at herself)

me/him/them etc. ➜ Unit 59

Exercises

63.1 Complete the sentences with **myself/yourself** etc.

1 He looked at ...himself... in the mirror.
2 I'm not angry with you. I'm angry with .....
3 Karen had a good time in Australia. She enjoyed .....
4 My friends had a good time in Australia. They enjoyed .....
5 I picked up a very hot plate and burnt .....
6 He never thinks about other people. He only thinks about .....
7 I want to know more about you. Tell me about ..... *(one person)*
8 Goodbye! Have a good trip and take care of ..... ! *(two people)*

63.2 Write sentences with **by myself / by yourself** etc.

1 I went on holiday alone. ...I went on holiday by myself...
2 When I saw him, he was alone. When I saw him, he .....
3 Don't go out alone. Don't .....
4 I went to the cinema alone. I .....
5 My sister lives alone. My sister .....
6 Many people live alone. Many people .....

63.3 Write sentences with **each other**.

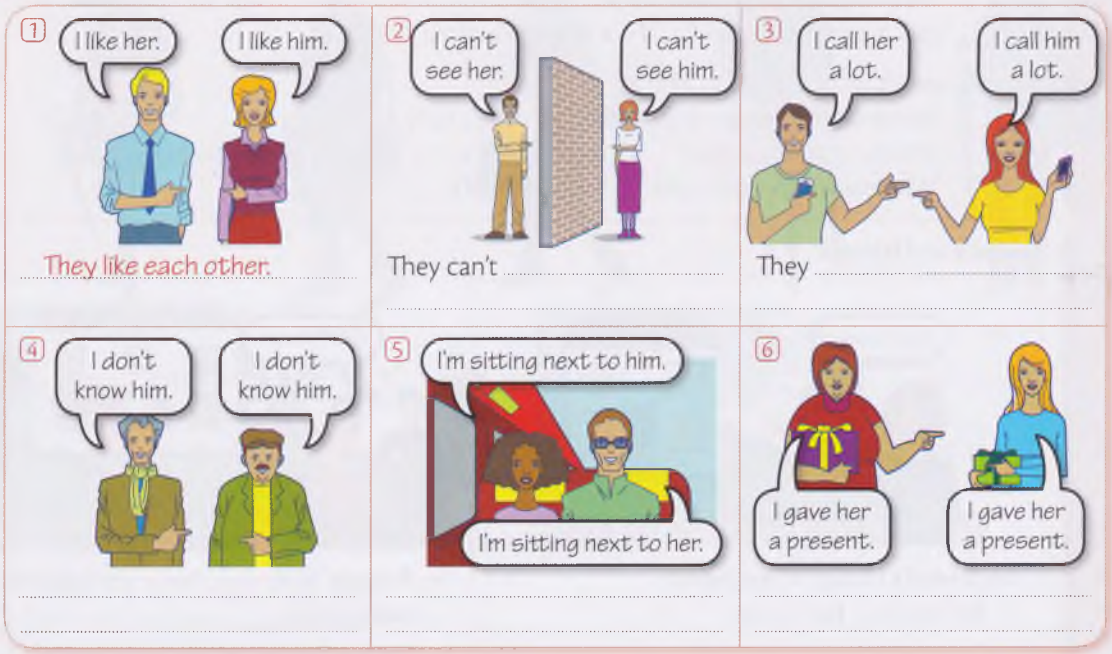

63.4 Complete the sentences. Use:

each other or **ourselves/yourselves/themselves** or **us/you/them**

1 Paul and I live near ...each other...
2 Who are those people? Do you know ...them... ?
3 You can help Tom, and Tom can help you. So you and Tom can help .....
4 There's food in the kitchen. If you and Chris are hungry, you can help .....
5 We didn't go to Emily's party. She didn't invite .....
6 When we go on holiday, we always enjoy .....
7 Helen and Jane were at school together, but they never see ..... now.
8 Karen and I are very good friends. We've known ..... for a long time.
9 'Did you see Sam and Laura at the party?' 'Yes, but I didn't speak to .....'
10 Many people talk to ..... when they're alone.

Unit 64

-'s (**Kate's** camera / **my brother's** car etc.)

A

Kate**'s** camera
(**her** camera)

my brother**'s** car
(**his** car)

the manager**'s** office
(**his** *or* **her** office)

We normally use **-'s** for people:

- I stayed at **my sister's** house. (*not* the house of my sister)
- Have you met **Mr Black's** wife? (*not* the wife of Mr Black)
- Are you going to **James's** party?
- Paul is **a man's** name. Paula is **a woman's** name.

You can use **-'s** without a noun after it:

- Sophie's hair is longer than **Kate's**. (= Kate's hair)
- 'Whose umbrella is this?' 'It's **my mother's**.' (= my mother's umbrella)
- 'Where were you last night?' 'I was at **Paul's**.' (= Paul's house)

B

friend's and **friends'**

my **friend's** house = *one friend*
(= **his** house or **her** house)

We write **'s** after
friend/student/mother etc. (*singular*):
my mother**'s** car (*one mother*)
my father**'s** car (*one father*)

my **friends'** house = *two or more friends*
(= **their** house)

We write **'** after
friend**s**/student**s**/parent**s** etc. (*plural*):
my parent**s'** car (*two parents*)

C

We use **of** ... for things, places etc. :

- Look at the roof **of that building**. (*not* that building's roof)
- We didn't see the beginning **of the film**. (*not* the film's beginning)
- What's the name **of this village**?
- Do you know the cause **of the problem**?
- You can sit in the back **of the car**.
- Madrid is the capital **of Spain**.

mine/yours etc. ➜ Unit 61 **whose** ... ? ➜ Unit 61 **-'s** (**he's** / **Kate's** etc.) ➜ Appendix 4.5

Exercises

64.1 Look at the family tree. Complete the sentences about the people in the family.

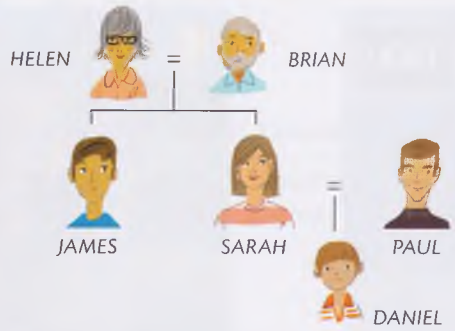

Helen and Brian are married.
They have a son, James, and a daughter, Sarah.
Sarah is married to Paul.
Sarah and Paul have a son, Daniel.

1 Brian is Helen's husband.
2 Sarah is Daniel's mother.
3 Helen is ..... wife.
4 James is Sarah's .....
5 James is ..... uncle.
6 Sarah is ..... wife.
7 Helen is Daniel's .....
8 Sarah is James's .....
9 Paul is ..... husband.
10 Paul is Daniel's .....
11 Daniel is ..... nephew.

64.2 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use one word only.

1 Whose is this? Alice's
2 Whose is this? .....
3 And this? .....
4 And these? .....
5 And this? .....
6 And these? .....

64.3 Are these sentences OK? Change them where necessary.

1 I stayed at the house of my sister. — my sister's house
2 What is the name of this village? — OK
3 Do you like the colour of this coat? .....
4 Do you have the phone number of Simon? .....
5 The job of my brother is very interesting. .....
6 Write your name at the top of the page. .....
7 For me, the morning is the best part of the day. .....
8 The favourite colour of Paula is blue. .....
9 When is the birthday of your mother? .....
10 The house of my parents isn't very big. .....
11 The walls of this house are very thin. .....
12 The car stopped at the end of the street. .....
13 Are you going to the party of Silvia next week? .....
14 The manager of the hotel is not here at the moment .....

a/an ...

A

He's got **a** camera.

She's waiting for **a** taxi.

It's **a** beautiful day.

a ... = one thing or person:

- Rachel works in **a bank**. (*not* in bank)
- Can I ask **a question**? (*not* ask question)
- I don't have **a job** at the moment.
- There's **a woman** at the bus stop.

B

an (*not* a) before **a/e/i/o/u**:

- Do you want **an a**pple or **a b**anana?
- I'm going to buy **a h**at and **an u**mbrella.
- There was **an i**nteresting programme on TV last night.

also **an hour** (**h** is not pronounced: an ~~h~~our)
but **a university** (pronounced *yuniversity*)
a European country (pronounced *yuropean*)

another (= **an** + **other**) is one word:

- Can I have **another** cup of coffee?

C

We use **a/an** ... when we say what a thing or a person is. For example:

- The sun is **a star**.
- Football is **a game**.
- Dallas is **a city in Texas**.
- A mouse is **an animal**. It's **a small animal**.
- Joe is **a very nice person**.

We use **a/an** ... for jobs etc. :

- A: What's your job?
  B: I'm **a dentist**. (*not* I'm dentist)
- 'What does Mark do?' 'He's **an engineer**.'
- Would you like to be **a teacher**?
- Beethoven was **a composer**.
- Picasso was **a famous painter**.
- Are you **a student**?

a car / **some money** (countable/uncountable) ➜ **Units 67–68** **a** and **the** ➜ **Unit 69**

Exercises

65.1 Write **a** or **an**.

1 ....an.... old book
2 ..... window
3 ..... horse
4 ..... airport
5 ..... new airport
6 ..... organisation
7 ..... university
8 ..... hour
9 ..... economic problem

65.2 What are these things? Choose from the box.

~~bird~~	fruit	mountain	river	musical instrument
flower	game	planet	tool	vegetable

1 A duck is ....a bird.....
2 A carrot is .....
3 Tennis is .....
4 A hammer is .....
5 Everest is .....
6 Saturn is .....
7 A banana is .....
8 The Amazon is .....
9 A rose is .....
10 A trumpet is .....

65.3 What are their jobs? Choose from the list and complete the sentences.

architect	~~dentist~~	shop assistant	photographer
electrician	nurse	taxi driver	

1 ....She's a dentist.....
2 He's .....
3 She .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 And you? I'm .....

65.4 Write sentences. Choose from the two boxes. Use **a/an** where necessary.

~~I want to ask you~~	Rebecca works in	+	old house	artist
Tom never wears	Jane wants to learn		party	~~question~~
I can't ride	Mike lives in		bookshop	foreign language
My brother is	This evening I'm going to		hat	bike

1 ....I want to ask you a question.....
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

Unit 66

train(s) bus(es) (singular and plural)

A

The plural of a noun is usually **-s**:

singular (= one) → *plural* (= two or more)
a flower → some **flowers**
a train → two **trains**
one week → a few **weeks**
a nice place → some nice **places**
this student → these **students**

a flower

some **flowers**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

-s / **-sh** / **-ch** / **-x**	→	**-es**	bus → bus**es** dish → dish**es** chur**ch** → chur**ches** box → box**es** *also* potato → potato**es** tomato → tomato**es**
-y *but* **-ay** / **-ey** / **-oy**	→	**-ies** **-ys**	baby → bab**ies** dictionary → dictionar**ies** party → part**ies** day → day**s** monkey → monkey**s** boy → boy**s**
-f / **-fe**	→	**-ves**	shel**f** → shel**ves** kni**fe** → kni**ves** wi**fe** → wi**ves**

B

These things are plural:

scissors **glasses** **trousers** **jeans** **shorts** **tights** **pyjamas**

- Do you wear **glasses**?
- Where **are** the **scissors**? I need **them**.

You can also say **a pair of scissors** / **a pair of trousers** / **a pair of pyjamas** etc. :

- I need **a** new **pair of jeans**. *or* I need **some** new **jeans**. (*not* a new jeans)

C

Some plurals do *not* end in **-s**:

this **man** → these **men**	one **foot** → two **feet**	that **sheep** → those **sheep**
a **woman** → some **women**	a **tooth** → all my **teeth**	a **fish** → a lot of **fish**
a **child** → many **children**	a **mouse** → some **mice**	

also a **person** → **two people** / **some people** / **a lot of people** etc. :

- **She**'s a nice **person**.

but
- **They** are nice **people**. (*not* nice persons)

D

People is plural (= they), so we say **people are** / **people have** etc. :

- **A lot of people speak** English. (*not* speaks)
- I like **the people** here. **They are** very friendly.

Police is plural:

- **The police want** to talk to anybody who saw the accident. (*not* The police wants)

Exercises

66.1 Write the plural.

1 flower ...flowers...
2 boat .....
3 woman .....
4 city .....
5 umbrella .....
6 address .....
7 knife .....
8 sandwich .....
9 family .....
10 foot .....
11 holiday .....
12 potato .....

66.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 There are a lot of ...sheep... in the field.
2 Gary is cleaning his .....
3 There are three ..... at the bus stop.
4 Lucy has two .....
5 There are a lot of ..... in the river.
6 The ..... are falling from the tree.

66.3 Are these sentences OK? Change the sentences where necessary.

1 I'm going to buy some flowers. ...OK...
2 I need a new jeans. ...I need a new pair of jeans. OR I need some new jeans.
3 It's a lovely park with a lot of beautiful tree. .....
4 There was a woman in the car with two mens. .....
5 Sheep eat grass. .....
6 David is married and has three childs. .....
7 Most of my friend are student. .....
8 He put on his pyjama and went to bed. .....
9 We went fishing, but we didn't catch many fish. .....
10 Do you know many persons in this town? .....
11 I like your trouser. Where did you get it? .....
12 The town centre is usually full of tourist. .....
13 I don't like mice. I'm afraid of them. .....
14 This scissor isn't very sharp. .....

66.4 Which is right? Complete the sentences.

1 It's a nice place. Many people ...go... there on holiday. **go** *or* **goes**?
2 Some people ..... always late. **is** *or* **are**?
3 The new city hall is not a beautiful building. Most people ..... like it. **don't** *or* **doesn't**?
4 A lot of people ..... TV every day. **watch** *or* **watches**?
5 Three people ..... injured in the accident. **was** *or* **were**?
6 How many people ..... in that house? **live** *or* **lives**?
7 ..... the police know the cause of the explosion? **Do** *or* **Does**?
8 The police ..... looking for the stolen car. **is** *or* **are**?
9 I need my glasses, but I can't find ..... . **it** *or* **them**?
10 I'm going to buy ..... new jeans today. **a** *or* **some**?

Unit 67

a bottle / some water (countable/uncountable 1)

A

A noun can be *countable* or *uncountable*.

Countable nouns

For example: (a) **car** (a) **man** (a) **bottle** (a) **house** (a) **key** (an) **idea** (an) **accident**

You can use **one/two/three** (etc.) + *countable nouns* (you can count them):

one **bottle**

two **bottles**

three **men**

four **houses**

Countable nouns can be *singular* (= one) or *plural* (= two or more):

singular	**a car**	**the car**	**my car**	etc.		
plural	**cars**	**two cars**	**the cars**	**some cars**	**many cars**	etc.

- I've got **a car**.
- New **cars** are very expensive.
- There aren't **many cars** in the car park.

You can't use the singular (**car/bottle/key** etc.) alone. You need **a/an**:

- We can't get into the house without **a key**. (*not* without key)

B

Uncountable nouns

For example: **water** **air** **rice** **salt** **plastic** **money** **music** **tennis**

water

salt

money

music

You can't say **one/two/three** (etc.) + these things: ~~one water~~ ~~two musics~~

Uncountable nouns have only *one* form:

money the **money** my **money** some **money** much **money** etc.

- I've got **some money**.
- There isn't **much money** in the box.
- **Money** isn't everything.

You can't use **a/an** + *uncountable nouns*: ✗ **money** ✗ **music** ✗ **water**

But you can say **a piece of** ... / **a bottle of** ... etc. + *uncountable noun*:

a bottle of water	**a carton of** milk	**a bar of** chocolate
a piece of cheese	**a bottle of** perfume	**a piece of** music
a bowl of rice	**a cup of** coffee	**a game of** tennis

a/an ➜ Unit 65 countable/uncountable 2 ➜ Unit 68

Exercises

67.1 What are these things? Some are countable and some are uncountable. Write **a/an** if necessary. The names of these things are:

bucket	**envelope**	**money**	**sand**	**toothbrush**	**wallet**
egg	**jug**	~~**salt**~~	~~**spoon**~~	**toothpaste**	**water**

1 It's salt.
2 It's a spoon.
3 It's .....
4 It's .....
5 It's .....
6 It's .....
7 It's .....
8 It's .....
9 It's .....
10 It's .....
11 It's .....
12 It's .....

67.2 Some of these sentences are OK, but some need **a/an**. Write **a/an** where necessary.

1 I don't have watch. a watch
2 Do you like cheese? OK
3 I never wear hat. .....
4 Are you looking for job? .....
5 Kate doesn't eat meat. .....
6 Kate eats apple every day. .....
7 I'm going to party tonight. .....
8 Music is wonderful thing. .....
9 Jamaica is island. .....
10 I don't need key. .....
11 Everybody needs food. .....
12 I've got good idea. .....
13 Can you drive car? .....
14 Do you want cup of coffee? .....
15 I don't like coffee without milk. .....
16 Don't go out without umbrella. .....

67.3 What are these things? Write **a ... of ...** for each picture. Use the words in the boxes.

bar	**cup**	**loaf**	+	**bread**	~~**milk**~~	**tea**
bowl	**glass**	**piece**		**chocolate**	**paper**	**water**
~~**carton**~~	**jar**	**piece**		**honey**	**soup**	**wood**

1 a carton of milk
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....
9 .....

Unit 68

a cake / some cake / some cakes (countable/uncountable 2)

A a/an and some

a/an + *singular countable nouns* (**car/apple/shoe** etc.):
- I need **a** new **car**.
- Would you like **an apple**?

an apple

some + *plural countable nouns* (**cars/apples/shoes** etc.):
- I need **some** new **shoes**.
- Would you like **some apples**?

some apples

some + *uncountable nouns* (**water/money/music** etc.):
- I need **some water**.
- Would you like **some cheese**? (*or* Would you like **a piece of** cheese?)

some cheese *or* **a piece of** cheese

Compare **a** and **some**:
- Nicola bought **a hat**, **some shoes** and **some perfume**.
- I read **a newspaper**, made **some phone calls**, and listened to **some music**.

B

Many nouns are sometimes countable and sometimes uncountable. For example:

a cake

some cakes

some cake *or* **a piece of cake**

a chicken

some chickens

some chicken *or* **a piece of chicken**

Compare **a paper** (= a newspaper) and **some paper**:
- I want something to read. I'm going to buy **a paper**.

but
- I want to make a shopping list. I need **some paper** / **a piece of paper**. (*not* a paper)

C

Be careful with:

advice **bread** **furniture** **hair** **information** **news** **weather** **work**

These nouns are usually uncountable. So you can't say **a/an** ... (~~a bread, an advice~~), and they can't be plural (~~advices, furnitures~~ etc.).
- Can I talk to you? I need **some advice**. (*not* an advice)
- I'm going to buy **some bread**. (*not* a bread)
- They've got **some** nice **furniture** in their house. (*not* furnitures)
- Silvia has very long **hair**. (*not* hairs)
- Where can I get **some information** about hotels here? (*not* informations)
- Listen! I've just had **some** good **news**. (*not* a good news)
- It's nice **weather** today. (*not* a nice weather)
- 'Do you like your job?' 'Yes, but it's hard **work**.' (*not* a hard work)

We say **a job** (*but not* a work):
- I've got **a** new **job**. (*not* a new work)

countable/uncountable 1 ➜ Unit 67 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

68.1 What can you see in these pictures? Use **a** or **some**.

1 some perfume, a hat and some shoes
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....

68.2 Write sentences with **Would you like a ... ?** or **Would you like some ... ?**

1 Would you like some cheese?
2 Would you like .....?
3 Would .....?
4 .....?
5 .....?
6 .....?

68.3 Write **a/an** or **some**.

1 I read a book and listened to some music.
2 I need ..... money. I want to buy ..... food.
3 We met ..... interesting people at the party.
4 I'm going to open ..... window to get ..... fresh air.
5 Rachel didn't eat much for lunch – only ..... apple and ..... bread.
6 We live in ..... big house. There's ..... nice garden with ..... beautiful trees.
7 I'm going to make a table. First I need ..... wood.
8 Listen to me carefully. I'm going to give you ..... advice.
9 I want to make a list of things to do. I need ..... paper and ..... pen.

68.4 Which is right?

1 I'm going to buy some new shoe/shoes. (shoes *is right*)
2 Mark has brown eye/eyes.
3 Paula has short black hair/hairs.
4 The tour guide gave us some information/informations about the city.
5 We're going to buy some new chair/chairs.
6 We're going to buy some new furniture/furnitures.
7 It's hard to find a work/job at the moment.
8 We had wonderful weather / a wonderful weather when we were on holiday.

a/an and the

A

a/an

There are *three* windows here.
a window = window 1 or 2 or 3

- I've got **a car**. (there are many cars and I've got one)
- Can I ask **a question**? (there are many questions – can I ask one?)
- Is there **a hotel** near here? (there are many hotels – is there one near here?)
- Paris is **an interesting city**. (there are many interesting cities and Paris is one)
- Lisa is **a student**. (there are many students and Lisa is one)

the

There is only *one* window here – **the** window.

- I'm going to clean **the car** tomorrow. (= my car)
- Can you repeat **the question**, please? (= the question that you asked)
- We enjoyed our holiday. **The hotel** was very nice. (= our hotel)
- Paris is **the capital of France**. (there is only one capital of France)
- Lisa is **the youngest student** in her class. (there is only one youngest student in her class)

Compare **a** and **the**:

- I bought **a jacket** and **a shirt**. **The jacket** was cheap, but **the shirt** was expensive.
  (= **the** jacket and **the** shirt **that I bought**)

B

We say **the** ... when it is clear which thing or person we mean. For example:

the door / **the ceiling** / **the floor** / **the carpet** / **the light** etc. *(of a room)*
the roof / **the garden** / **the kitchen** / **the bathroom** etc. *(of a house)*
the centre / **the station** / **the airport** / **the town hall** etc. *(of a town)*

- 'Where's Tom? 'In **the kitchen**.' (= the kitchen of this house or flat)
- Turn off **the light** and close **the door**. (= the light and the door of the room)
- Do you live far from **the centre**? (= the centre of your town)
- I'd like to speak to **the manager**, please. (= the manager of this shop etc.)

a/an → Unit 65 the → Units 70–73

Exercises

69.1 Write **a/an** or **the**.

1 We enjoyed our trip. ....The.... hotel was very nice.
2 'Can I ask ....a.... question?' 'Sure. What do you want to know?'
3 You look very tired. You need ..... holiday.
4 'Where's Tom?' 'He's in ..... garden.'
5 Eve is ..... interesting person. You should meet her.
6 A: Excuse me, can you tell me how to get to ..... city centre?
B: Yes, go straight on and then take ..... next turning left.
7 A: Shall we go out for ..... meal this evening?
B: Yes, that's ..... good idea.
8 It's ..... nice morning. Let's go for ..... walk.
9 Amanda is ..... student. When she finishes her studies, she wants to be ..... journalist. She lives with two friends in ..... apartment near ..... college where she is studying. ..... apartment is small, but she likes it.
10 Peter and Mary have two children, ... boy and ..... girl. ..... boy is seven years old, and ..... girl is three. Peter works in ..... factory. Mary doesn't have ..... job at the moment.

69.2 Complete the sentences. Use **a** or **the** + these words:

airport **cup** **dictionary** ~~**door**~~ **floor** **picture**

69.3 These sentences are not correct. Put in **a/an** or **the** where necessary.

1 Don't forget to turn off light when you go out. ....turn off the light....
2 Enjoy your trip, and don't forget to send me postcard. .....
3 What is name of this village? .....
4 Canada is very big country. .....
5 What is largest city in Canada? .....
6 I like this room, but I don't like colour of carpet. .....
7 'Are you OK?' 'No, I've got headache.' .....
8 We live in old house near station. .....
9 What is name of director of film we saw last night? .....

Unit 70

the ...

A

We use **the** when it is clear which thing or person we mean:

- What is **the name** of this street? (there is only one name)
- Who is **the best player** in your team? (there is only one best player)
- Can you tell me **the time**, please? (= the time *now*)
- My office is on **the first floor**. (= the first floor of the building)

Don't forget **the**:

- Do you live near **the city centre**? (*not* near city centre)
- Excuse me, where is **the nearest bank**? (*not* where is nearest ...)

B

the same ...

- We live in **the same street**. (*not* in same street)
- 'Are these two books different?' 'No, they're **the same**.' (*not* they're same)

C

We say:

the sun / the moon / the world / the sky / the sea / the country

- **The sky** is blue and **the sun** is shining.
- Do you live in a town or in **the country**?

the police / the fire brigade / the army (of a city, country etc.)

- My brother is a soldier. He's in **the army**.
- What do you think of **the police**? Do they do a good job?

the top / the end / the middle / the left etc.

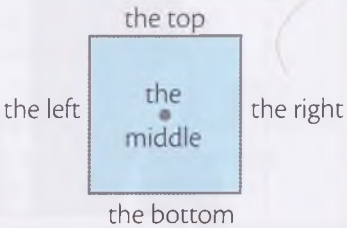

- Write your name at **the top of** the page.
- My house is at **the end of** the street.
- The table is in **the middle of** the room.
- Do you drive on **the right** or on **the left** in your country?

(play) **the piano / the guitar / the trumpet** etc. (musical instruments)

- Paula is learning to play **the piano**.

the radio

- I listen to **the radio** a lot.

the internet

- What do you use **the internet** for?

D

We do *not* use **the** with:

television / TV

- I watch **TV** a lot.
- What's on **television** tonight?

but Can you turn off **the TV**? (= the TV set)

breakfast / lunch / dinner

- What did you have for **breakfast**? (*not* the breakfast)
- **Dinner** is ready!

next / last + week/month/year/summer/Monday etc.

- I'm not working **next week**. (*not* the next week)
- Did you have a holiday **last summer**? (*not* the last summer)

a/an and **the** → Unit 69 **the** → Units 71–73 **the oldest / the most expensive** etc. → Unit 90

Exercises

70.1 Put in **the** where necessary. Write 'OK' if the sentence is already correct.

1 What is name of this street? ...the name...
2 What's on TV tonight? ...OK...
3 Our apartment is on second floor. .....
4 Would you like to go to moon? .....
5 Which is best hotel in this town? .....
6 What time is lunch? .....
7 How far is it to city centre? .....
8 We're going away at end of May. .....
9 What are you doing next weekend? .....
10 I didn't like her first time I met her. .....
11 I'm going out after dinner. .....
12 It's easy to get information from internet. .....
13 My sister got married last month. .....
14 My dictionary is on top shelf on right. .....
15 We live in country about ten miles from nearest town. .....

70.2 Complete the sentences. Use **the same** + these words:

age **colour** **problem** ~~**street**~~ **time**

1 I live in North Street and you live in North Street. We live in ...the same street...
2 I arrived at 8.30 and you arrived at 8.30. We arrived at .....
3 James is 25 and Sue is 25. James and Sue are .....
4 My shirt is dark blue and so is my jacket. My shirt and jacket are .....
5 I have no money and you have no money. We have .....

70.3 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **the** if necessary.

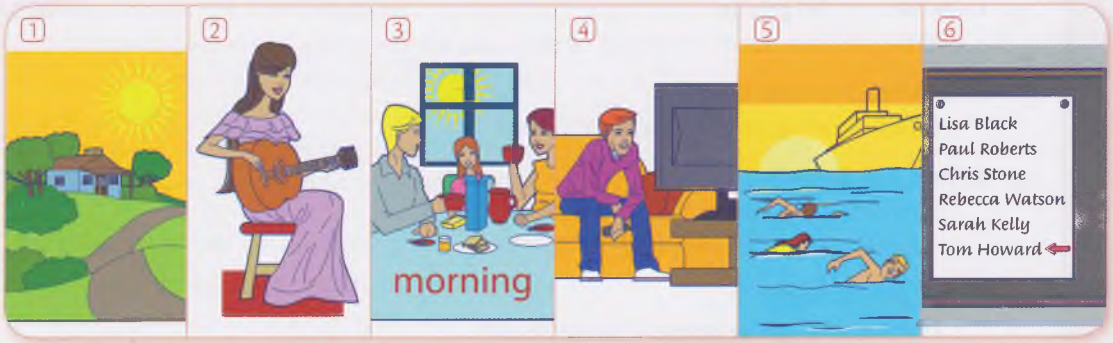

1 ...The sun... is shining.
2 She's playing .....
3 They're having .....
4 He's watching .....
5 They're swimming in .....
6 Tom's name is at ..... of the list.

70.4 Complete these sentences. Choose from the list. Use **the** if necessary.

capital ~~**dinner**~~ **police** **lunch** **middle** **name** **sky** **TV**

1 We had ...dinner... at a restaurant last night.
2 We stayed at a very nice hotel, but I don't remember .....
3 ..... is very clear tonight. You can see all the stars.
4 Sometimes there are some good films on ..... late at night.
5 Somebody was trying to break into the shop, so I called .....
6 Tokyo is ..... of Japan.
7 'What did you have for .....?' 'A salad.'
8 I woke up in ..... of the night.

go to work go home go to the cinema

A

She's **at work**.

They're going **to school**.

He's **in bed**.

We say:

(go) **to work**, (be) **at work**, start **work**, finish **work**

- Bye! I'm **going to work** now. (*not* to the work)
- I **finish work** at 5 o'clock every day.

(go) **to school**, (be) **at school**, start **school**, leave **school** etc.

- What did you learn **at school** today? (*not* at the school)
- Some children don't like **school**.

(go) **to university/college**, (be) **at university/college**

- Helen wants to **go to university** when she **leaves school**.
- What did you study **at college**?

(go) **to hospital**, (be) **in hospital**

- Jack had an accident. He had to go **to hospital**.

(go) **to prison**, (be) **in prison**

- Why is he **in prison**? What did he do?

(go) **to church**, (be) **in/at church**

- David usually goes **to church** on Sundays.

(go) **to bed**, (be) **in bed**

- I'm tired. I'm **going to bed**. (*not* to the bed)
- 'Where's Alice?' 'She's **in bed**.'

(go) **home**, (be) **at home** etc.

- I'm tired. I'm **going home**. (*not* to home)
- Are you going out tonight, or are you **staying at home**?

B

We say:

(go to) **the cinema** / **the theatre** / **the bank** / **the post office** / **the station** / **the airport** / **the city centre**

- I never go to **the theatre**, but I go to **the cinema** a lot.
- 'Are you going to **the bank**?' 'No, to **the post office**.'
- The number 5 bus goes to **the airport**; the number 8 goes to **the city centre**.

(go to) **the doctor**, **the dentist**

- You're not well. Why don't you go to **the doctor**?
- I have to go to **the dentist** tomorrow.

the → Units 69–70, 72–73 in/at → Units 106–107 to/in/at → Unit 108 (at) home → Unit 108

Exercises

71.1 Where are these people? Complete the sentences. Sometimes you need **the**.

1 He's in bed.
2 They're at .....
3 She's in .....
4 She's at .....
5 They're at .....
6 He's in .....

71.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the list. Use **the** if necessary.

~~bank~~ bed ~~church~~ home post office school station

1 I need to change some money. I have to go to the bank.
2 David usually goes to church on Sundays.
3 In Britain, children go to ..... from the age of five.
4 There were a lot of people at ..... waiting for the train.
5 We went to their house, but they weren't at .....
6 I'm going to ..... now. Goodnight!
7 I'm going to ..... to get some stamps.

71.3 Complete the sentences. Sometimes you need **the**.

1 If you want to catch a plane, you go to the airport.
2 If you want to see a film, you go to .....
3 If you are tired and you want to sleep, you .....
4 If you rob a bank and the police catch you, you .....
5 If you have a problem with your teeth, you .....
6 If you want to study after you leave school, you .....
7 If you are badly injured in an accident, you .....

71.4 Are these sentences OK? Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 We went to cinema last night. — to the cinema
2 I finish work at 5 o'clock every day. — OK
3 Lisa wasn't feeling well yesterday, so she went to doctor. — .....
4 I wasn't feeling well this morning, so I stayed in bed. — .....
5 Why is Angela always late for work? — .....
6 'Where are your children?' 'They're at school.' — .....
7 We have no money in bank. — .....
8 When I was younger, I went to church every Sunday. — .....
9 What time do you usually get home from work? — .....
10 Do you live far from city centre? — .....
11 'Where shall we meet?' 'At station.' — .....
12 James is ill. He's in hospital. — .....
13 Kate takes her children to school every day. — .....
14 Would you like to go to university? — .....
15 Would you like to go to theatre this evening? — .....

I like **music** I hate **exams**

A

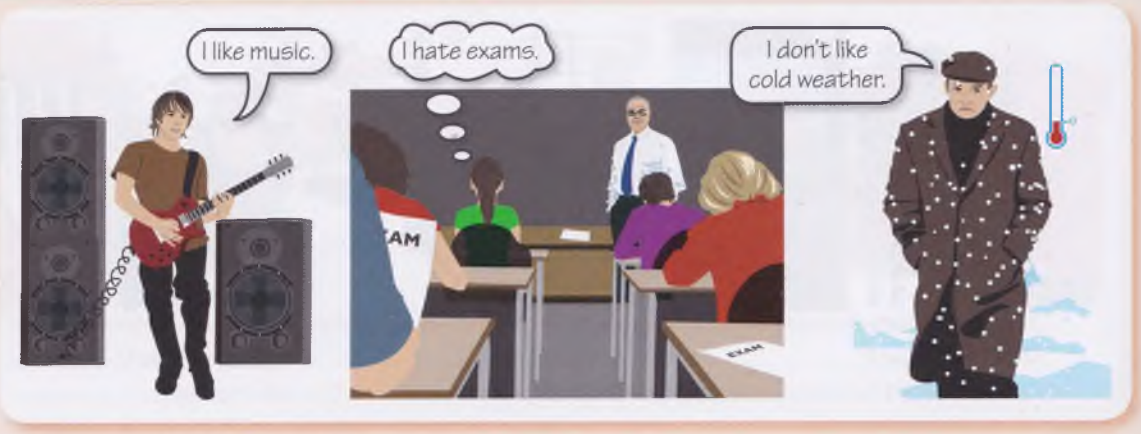

We do not use **the** for general ideas:

- I like **music**, especially **classical music**.
  (*not* the music ... the classical music)
- We don't eat **meat** very often. (*not* the meat)
- **Life** is not possible without **water**.
  (*not* The life ... the water)
- I hate **exams**. (*not* the exams)
- Is there a shop near here that sells **newspapers**?

We do not use **the** for games and sports:

- My favourite sports are **football** and **skiing**. (*not* the football ... the skiing)

We do not use **the** for languages or school subjects (**history/geography/physics/biology** etc.):

- Do you think **English** is difficult? (*not* the English)
- Tom's brother is studying **physics** and **chemistry**.

B

flowers or **the flowers**?

Compare:

- **Flowers** are beautiful.
  (= flowers in general)
- I don't like **cold weather**.
  (= cold weather in general)
- We don't eat **fish** very often.
  (= fish in general)
- Are you interested in **history**?
  (= history in general)

- I love this garden.
  The flowers are beautiful.
  (= the flowers in this garden)
- **The weather** isn't very good today.
  (= the weather today)
- We had a great meal last night. **The fish** was excellent.
  (= the fish we ate last night)
- Do you know much about **the history** of your country?

the → Units 69–71, 73

Exercises

72.1 What do you think about these things?

big cities	**computer games**	**exams**	**jazz**	**parties**
chocolate	**dogs**	**housework**	**museums**	**tennis**

Choose seven of these things and write sentences with:

I like ... **I don't like ...** **I love ...** **I hate ...** or **... is/are all right**

1 I hate exams. or I like exams. or Exams are all right. (etc.)
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

72.2 Are you interested in these things? Write sentences with:

I'm (very) interested in ...	**I know a lot about ...**	**I don't know much about ...**
I'm not interested in ...	**I know a little about ...**	**I don't know anything about ...**

1 (history) I'm very interested in history.
2 (politics) I .....
3 (sport) .....
4 (art) .....
5 (astronomy) .....
6 (economics) .....

72.3 Which is right?

1 My favourite sport is football / ~~the football~~. (football *is right*)
2 I like this hotel. ~~Rooms~~ / The rooms are very nice. (The rooms *is right*)
3 Everybody needs friends / the friends.
4 Jane doesn't go to parties / the parties very often.
5 I went shopping this morning. Shops / The shops were very busy.
6 'Where's milk / the milk?' 'It's in the fridge.'
7 I don't like milk / the milk. I never drink it.
8 'Do you do any sports?' 'Yes, I play basketball / the basketball.'
9 An architect is a person who designs buildings / the buildings.
10 We went for a swim in the river. Water / The water was very cold.
11 I don't like swimming in cold water / the cold water.
12 Excuse me, can you pass salt / the salt, please?
13 I like this town. I like people / the people here.
14 Vegetables / The vegetables are good for you.
15 Houses / The houses in this street are all the same.
16 I can't sing this song. I don't know words / the words.
17 I enjoy taking pictures / the pictures. It's my hobby.
18 Do you want to see pictures / the pictures that I took when I was on holiday?
19 English / The English is used a lot in international business / the international business.
20 Money / The money doesn't always bring happiness / the happiness.

Unit 73

the ... (names of places)

A

Places (continents, countries, states, islands, towns etc.)

In general we do *not* use **the** with names of places:

- **France** is a very large country. (*not* the France)
- **Cairo** is the capital of **Egypt**.
- **Corsica** is an island in the Mediterranean.
- **Peru** is in **South America**.

But we use **the** in names with 'republic'/'states'/'kingdom':

the Czech **Republic**
the United **States** of America (**the** USA)
the United **Kingdom** (**the** UK)

B

the -s (plural names)

We use **the** with *plural* names of countries/islands/mountains:

the Netherlands **the** Canary Islands
the Philippines **the** Alps

C

Seas, rivers etc.

We use **the** with names of oceans/seas/rivers/canals:

the Atlantic (Ocean) **the** Mediterranean (Sea) **the** Amazon
the (River) Nile **the** Suez Canal **the** Black Sea

D

Places in towns (streets, buildings etc.)

In general we do *not* use **the** with names of streets, squares etc. :

- Kevin lives in **Newton Street**.
- Where is **Highfield Road**, please?
- **Times Square** is in New York.

We do not use **the** with names of airports, stations and many other important buildings:

Kennedy Airport **Westminster Abbey** **London Zoo**
Victoria Station **Edinburgh Castle**

also

Cambridge University, **Harvard University** etc.

But we use **the** with names of most hotels, museums, theatres and cinemas:

the Regent Hotel **the** National Theatre
the Science Museum **the** Odeon (cinema)

E

the ... **of** ...

We use **the** + names with ... **of** ... :

the Museum **of** Modern Art **the** University **of** California
the Great Wall **of** China **the** Tower **of** London

We say **the north** / **the south** / **the east** / **the west** (of ...):

- I've been to **the north of Italy**, but not to **the south**.

the ➜ Units 69–72

Exercises

73.1 Answer these geography questions. Choose from the box. Use **The** if necessary.

1 Cairo is the capital of Egypt.
2 The Atlantic is between Africa and America.
3 ..... is a country in northern Europe.
4 ..... is a river in South America.
5 ..... is the largest continent in the world.
6 ..... is the largest ocean.
7 ..... is a river in Europe.
8 ..... is a country in East Africa.
9 ..... is between Canada and Mexico.
10 ..... are mountains in South America.
11 ..... is the capital of Thailand.
12 ..... are mountains in central Europe.
13 ..... is between Saudi Arabia and Africa.
14 ..... is an island in the Caribbean.
15 ..... are a group of islands near Florida.

Alps
Amazon
Andes
Asia
~~Atlantic~~
Bahamas
Bangkok
~~Cairo~~
Jamaica
Kenya
Pacific
Red Sea
Rhine
Sweden
United States

73.2 Write **the** where necessary. If the sentence is already correct, write OK.

1 Kevin lives in Newton Street. OK
2 We went to see a play at National Theatre. at the National Theatre
3 Have you ever been to China? .....
4 Have you ever been to Philippines? .....
5 Have you ever been to south of France? .....
6 Can you tell me where Regal Cinema is? .....
7 Can you tell me where Merrion Street is? .....
8 Can you tell me where Museum of Art is? .....
9 Europe is bigger than Australia. .....
10 Belgium is smaller than Netherlands. .....
11 Which river is longer – Mississippi or Nile? .....
12 Did you go to National Gallery when you were in London? .....
13 We stayed at Park Hotel in Hudson Road. .....
14 How far is it from Trafalgar Square to Victoria Station *(in London)*? .....
15 Rocky Mountains are in North America. .....
16 Texas is famous for oil and cowboys. .....
17 I hope to go to United States next year. .....
18 Mary comes from west of Ireland. .....
19 Alan is a student at Manchester University. .....
20 Panama Canal joins Atlantic Ocean and Pacific Ocean. .....

→ **Additional exercises 33–34** (pages 269–70)

this/that/these/those

A

this *(singular)*

these *(plural)*

this
these

this picture
(= this picture *here*)
these flowers
(= these flowers *here*)

that *(singular)*

those *(plural)*

that
those

that picture
(= that picture *there*)
those people
(= those people *there*)

B

We use **this/that/these/those** with a noun (**this picture** / **those girls** etc.) or without a noun:

with a noun

- **This hotel** is expensive, but it's very nice.
- 'Who's **that girl**?' 'I don't know.'
- Do you like **these shoes**? I bought them last week.
- **Those apples** look nice. Can I have one?

without a noun

- **This** is a nice hotel, but it's very expensive.
- 'Excuse me, is **this** your bag?' 'Oh yes, thank you.'
- Who's **that**? (= Who is that person?)
- Which shoes do you prefer – **these** or **those**?

C

that = something that *has happened*:

- 'I'm sorry I forgot to phone you.' '**That**'s all right.'
- **That** was a really nice meal. Thank you very much.

that = what somebody *has just said*:

- 'You're a teacher, aren't you?' 'Yes, **that**'s right.'
- 'Martin has a new job.' 'Really? I didn't know **that**.'
- 'I'm going on holiday next week.' 'Oh, **that**'s nice.'

D

We use **this is** ... and **is that** ... **?** on the phone:

- Hi Sarah, **this** is David.
  (**this** = the speaker)
- Is **that** Sarah?
  (**that** = the other person)

We use **this is** ... to introduce people:

- A: Ben, **this is** Chris.
  B: Hello, Chris – nice to meet you.
  C: Hi.

this one / that one ➜ Unit 75

Exercises

74.1 Complete the sentences. Use **this/that/these/those** + these words:

birds **house** **plates** **postcards** **seat** ~~**shoes**~~

74.2 Write questions: **Is this/that your ... ?** or **Are these/those your ... ?**

74.3 Complete the sentences with **this is** or **that's** or **that**.

1 A: I'm sorry I'm late.
B: That's all right.

2 A: I can't come to the party tomorrow.
B: Oh, ... a pity. Why not?

3 *on the phone*
SUE: Hello, Jane. ..... Sue.
JANE: Oh, hi Sue. How are you?

4 A: You're lazy.
B: ..... not true!

5 A: Beth plays the piano very well.
B: Does she? I didn't know ..... .

6 *Mark meets Paul's sister, Helen.*
PAUL: Mark, ... my sister, Helen.
MARK: Hi, Helen.

7 A: I'm sorry I was angry yesterday.
B: ..... OK. Forget it!

8 A: You're a friend of Tom's, aren't you?
B: Yes, ... right.

Unit 75

one/ones

A one (= a ...)

Would you like **one** ?

= Would you like **a chocolate** ?

one = **a/an** ... (a chocolate / an apple etc.)

- I need **a pen**. Do you have **one**? (**one** = **a pen**)
- A: Is there **a bank** near here?
  B: Yes, there's **one** at the end of this street. (**one** = **a bank**)

B one and ones

one *(singular)*

Which **one**? = Which **hat**?

one = **hat/car/girl** etc.

this one / **that one**

- Which **car** is yours? **This one** or **that one**? (= this car or that car)

the one ...

- A: Which **hotel** did you stay at?
  B: **The one** opposite the station.
- I found this **key**. Is it **the one** you lost?

the ... **one**

- I don't like the black **coat**, but I like **the brown one**.
- Don't buy that **camera**. Buy **the other one**.

a/an ... **one**

- This **cup** is dirty. Can I have **a clean one**?
- That **biscuit** was nice. I'm going to have **another one**.

ones *(plural)*

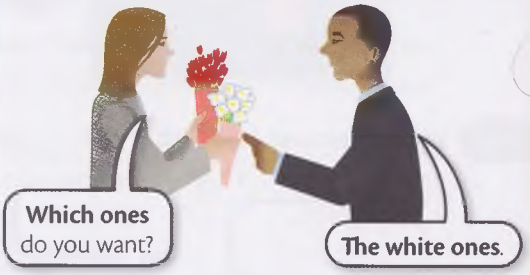

Which **ones**? = Which **flowers**?

ones = **flowers/cars/girls** etc.

these/those or **these ones** / **those ones**

- Which flowers do you want? **These** or **those**? *or* **These ones** or **those ones**?

the ones ...

- A: Which **books** are yours?
  B: **The ones** on the table.
- I found these **keys**. Are they **the ones** you lost?

the ... **ones**

- I don't like the red **shoes**, but I like **the green ones**.
- Don't buy those **apples**. Buy **the other ones**.

some ... **ones**

- These **cups** are dirty. Can we have **some clean ones**?
- My **shoes** are very old. I'm going to buy **some new ones**.

which ... ? → Unit 47 **another** → Unit 65 **this/that** → Unit 74

Exercises

75.1 A asks B some questions. Use the information in the box to write B's answers. Use **one** (not **a/an ...**) in the answers.

B doesn't need a car	B has just had a cup of coffee
there's a chemist in Mill Road	B is going to get a bike
~~B doesn't have a pen~~	B doesn't have an umbrella

1 A: Can you lend me a pen? B: I'm sorry, I don't have one.
2 A: Would you like to have a car? B: No, I don't .....
3 A: Do you have a bike? B: No, but .....
4 A: Can you lend me an umbrella? B: I'm sorry, but .....
5 A: Would you like a cup of coffee? B: No, thank you. .....
6 A: Is there a chemist near here? B: Yes, ...

75.2 Complete the sentences. Use **a/an ... one.** Use the words in the list.

better big ~~clean~~ different new old

1 This cup is dirty. Can I have a clean one?
2 I'm going to sell my car and buy .....
3 That's not a very good photo, but this is .....
4 I want today's newspaper. This is .....
5 This box is too small. I need .....
6 Why do we always go to the same restaurant? Let's go to .....

75.3 A is talking to B. Use the information to complete the conversations. Use **one/ones.**

1 *A stayed at a hotel. It was opposite the station.* A: We stayed at a hotel. B: Which one? A: The one opposite the station.	6 *A is looking at a picture. It's on the wall.* A: That's an interesting picture. B: .....? A: .....
2 *A sees some shoes in a shop window. They're green.* A: I like those shoes. B: Which .....? A: The	7 *A sees a girl in a group of people. She's tall with long hair.* A: Do you know that girl? B: .....? A: .....
3 *A is looking at a house. It has a red door.* A: That's a nice house. B: .....? A: ..... with	8 *A is looking at some flowers in the garden. They're yellow.* A: Those flowers are beautiful. B: .....? A: .....
4 *A is looking at some CDs. They're on the top shelf.* A: Are those your CDs? B: .....? A:	9 *A is looking at a man in a restaurant. He has a moustache and glasses.* A: Who's that man? B: .....? A: .....
5 *A is looking at a jacket in a shop. It's black.* A: Do you like that jacket? B: .....? A:	10 *A took some photos at the party last week.* A: Did I show you my photos? B: .....? A: .....

some and any

A

some

Use **some** in *positive* sentences:

- I'm going to buy **some** clothes.
- There's **some** milk in the fridge.
- We made **some** mistakes.

any

Use **any** in *negative* sentences:

- I'm **not** going to buy **any** clothes.
- There **isn't any** milk in the fridge.
- We **didn't** make **any** mistakes.

B

any and **some** in questions

In most questions (but not all) we use **any** (*not* **some**):

- Is there **any** milk in the fridge?
- Does he have **any** friends?
- Do you need **any** help?

We normally use **some** (*not* **any**) when we *offer* things (**Would you like** ... **?**):

- A: Would you like **some** coffee?
  B: Yes, please.

or when we *ask for* things (**Can I have** ... **?** etc.):

- A: Can I have **some** soup, please?
  B: Yes. Help yourself.
- A: Can you lend me **some** money?
  B: Sure. How much do you need?

C

some and **any** without a noun

- I didn't take any pictures, but Jessica took **some**. (= some pictures)
- You can have some coffee, but I don't want **any**. (= any coffee)
- I've just made some coffee. Would you like **some**? (= some coffee)
- 'Where's your luggage?' 'I don't have **any**.' (= any luggage)
- 'Are there any biscuits?' 'Yes, there are **some** in the kitchen.' (= some biscuits)

D

something / somebody (*or* **someone**)

- She said **something**.
- I saw **somebody** (*or* **someone**).
- Would you like **something** to eat?
- **Somebody**'s at the door.

anything / anybody (*or* **anyone**)

- She **didn't** say **anything**.
- I **didn't** see **anybody** (*or* **anyone**).
- Are you doing **anything** tonight?
- Where's Sue? Has **anybody** seen her?

a and **some** ➜ Unit 68 **somebody/anything** etc. ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

76.1 Write **some** or **any**.

1 I bought ....some.... cheese, but I didn't buy ....any.... bread.
2 In the middle of the room there was a table and ..... chairs.
3 There aren't ..... shops in this part of town.
4 Gary and Alice don't have ..... children.
5 Do you have ..... brothers or sisters?
6 There are ..... beautiful flowers in the garden.
7 Do you know ..... good hotels in London?
8 'Would you like ..... tea?' 'Yes, please.'
9 When we were on holiday, we visited ..... interesting places.
10 Don't buy ..... rice. We don't need ..... .
11 I went out to buy ..... bananas, but they didn't have ..... in the shop.
12 I'm thirsty. Can I have ..... water, please?

76.2 Complete the sentences. Use **some** or **any** + the words in the box.

air	**cheese**	**help**	**milk**	**questions**
batteries	**friends**	**languages**	**pictures**	~~**shampoo**~~

1 I want to wash my hair. Is there ....any shampoo.... ?
2 The police want to talk to you. They want to ask you ..... .
3 I had my camera, but I didn't take ..... .
4 Do you speak ..... foreign ..... ?
5 Yesterday evening I went to a restaurant with ..... of mine.
6 Can I have ..... in my coffee, please?
7 The radio isn't working. There aren't ..... in it.
8 It's hot in this office. I'm going out for ..... fresh ..... .
9 A: Would you like ..... ?
B: No, thank you. I've had enough to eat.
10 I can do this job alone. I don't need ..... .

76.3 Complete the sentences. Use **some** or **any**.

1 Kate didn't take any pictures, but ....I took some.... . (I/take)
2 'Where's your luggage?' '....I don't have any....' (I/not/have)
3 'Do you need any money?' 'No, thank you. .....' (I/have)
4 'Can you lend me some money?' 'I'm sorry, but .....' (I/not/have)
5 The tomatoes in the shop didn't look very good, so ..... . (I/not/buy)
6 There were some nice oranges in the shop, so ..... . (I/buy)
7 'How much coffee did you drink yesterday?' '.....' (I/not/drink)

76.4 Write **something/somebody** or **anything/anybody**.

1 A woman stopped me and said ....something.... , but I didn't understand.
2 'What's wrong?' 'There's ..... in my eye.'
3 Do you know ..... about politics?
4 I went to the shop, but I didn't buy ..... .
5 ..... has broken the window. I don't know who.
6 There isn't ..... in the bag. It's empty.
7 I'm looking for my keys. Has ..... seen them?
8 Would you like ..... to drink?
9 I didn't eat ..... because I wasn't hungry.
10 This is a secret. Please don't tell ..... .

Unit 77

not + any no none

A

The car park is empty.

There are**n't any** cars / There are **no** cars } in the car park.

How many cars are there in the car park?
None.

not (**-n't**) + **any**

- There are**n't any** cars in the car park.
- Tracey and Jack do**n't** have **any** children.
- You can have some coffee, but I do**n't** want **any**.

no + *noun* (**no cars** / **no garden** etc.)

no ... = **not any** *or* **not a**

- There are **no cars** in the car park. (= there are**n't any** cars)
- We have **no coffee**. (= we do**n't** have **any** coffee)
- It's a nice house, but there's **no garden**. (= there is**n't a** garden)

We use **no** ... especially after **have** and **there is/are**.

negative verb + **any** = *positive verb* + **no**

- They **don't** have **any** children. *or* They **have no** children.
  (*not* They don't have no children)
- There **isn't any** sugar in your coffee. *or* There**'s no** sugar in your coffee.

B

no and **none**

Use **no** + *noun* (**no money** / **no children** etc.):

- We have **no money**.
- Everything was OK. There were **no problems**.

Use **none** alone (*without* a noun):

- 'How much money do you have?' '**None**.' (= no money)
- 'Were there any problems?' 'No, **none**.' (= no problems)

C

none and **no-one**

none = 0 (zero)
no-one = nobody

None is an answer for **How much**? / **How many**? (things or people):

- A: **How much** money do you have?
  B: **None**. (= no money)
- A: **How many** people did you meet?
  B: **None**. (= no people)

No-one is an answer for **Who**?:

- A: **Who** did you meet?
  B: **No-one**. (*or* **Nobody**.)

negatives ➜ Unit 43 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **anybody/nobody/nothing** etc. ➜ Units 78–79

Exercises

77.1 Write these sentences again with **no**.

1 We don't have any money. We have no money.
2 There aren't any shops near here. There are .....
3 Carla doesn't have any free time. .....
4 There isn't a light in this room. .....

Write these sentences again with **any**.

5 We have no money. We don't have any money.
6 There's no milk in the fridge. .....
7 There are no buses today. .....
8 Tom has no brothers or sisters. .....

77.2 Write **no** or **any**.

1 There's no sugar in your coffee.
2 My brother is married, but he doesn't have ..... children.
3 Sue doesn't speak ..... foreign languages.
4 I'm afraid there's ..... coffee. Would you like some tea?
5 'Look at those birds!' 'Birds? Where? I can't see ..... birds.'
6 'Do you know where Jessica is?' 'No, I have ..... idea.'

Write **no, any** or **none**.

7 There aren't ..... pictures on the wall.
8 The weather was cold, but there was ..... wind.
9 I wanted to buy some oranges, but they didn't have ..... in the shop.
10 Everything was correct. There were ..... mistakes.
11 'How much luggage do you have?' '.....'
12 'How much luggage do you have?' 'I don't have .....'

77.3 Complete the sentences. Use **any** or **no** + the words in the box.

difference	**friends**	**furniture**	**heating**	**idea**
money	~~**problems**~~	**questions**	**queue**	

1 Everything was OK. There were no problems.
2 Jack and Emily would like to go on holiday, but they have .....
3 I'm not going to answer .....
4 He's always alone. He has .....
5 There is ..... between these two machines. They're exactly the same.
6 There wasn't ..... in the room. It was completely empty.
7 'Do you know how the accident happened?' 'No, I have .....'
8 The house is cold because there isn't .....
9 We didn't have to wait to get our train tickets. There was .....

77.4 Write short answers (one or two words) to these questions. Use **none** where necessary.

1 How many letters did you write yesterday? Two. or A lot. or None.
2 How many sisters do you have? .....
3 How much coffee did you drink yesterday? .....
4 How many photos have you taken today? .....
5 How many legs does a snake have? .....

Unit 78

not + anybody/anyone/anything nobody/no-one/nothing

A

not + anybody/anyone
nobody/no-one
(for *people*)

- There **isn't** { **anybody** / **anyone** } in the room.
- There **is** { **nobody** / **no-one** } in the room.
- A: **Who** is in the room?
  B: **Nobody**. / **No-one**.

-body and **-one** are the same:
any**body** = any**one** no**body** = no-**one**

not + anything
nothing
(for *things*)

- There **isn't anything** in the bag.
- There **is nothing** in the bag.
- A: **What**'s in the bag?
  B: **Nothing**.

B

not + anybody/anyone
- I don**'t** know **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) here.

nobody = not + anybody
no-one = not + anyone
- I'm lonely. I have **nobody** to talk to. (= I don**'t** have **anybody**)
- The house is empty. There is **no-one** in it. (= There isn**'t anyone** in it.)

not + anything
- I can**'t** remember **anything**.

nothing = not + anything
- She said **nothing**. (= She didn**'t** say **anything**.)
- There's **nothing** to eat. (= There isn**'t anything** to eat.)

C

You can use **nobody/no-one/nothing** at the beginning of a sentence or alone (to answer a question):

- The house is empty. **Nobody** lives there.
- 'Who did you speak to?' '**No-one**.'
- **Nothing** happened.
- 'What did you say?' '**Nothing**.'

D

Remember: *negative verb* + **anybody/anyone/anything**
positive verb + **nobody/no-one/nothing**

- He does**n't** know **anything**. (*not* He doesn't know nothing)
- Don**'t** tell **anybody**. (*not* Don't tell nobody)
- There **is nothing** to do in this town. (*not* There isn't nothing)

some and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **any** and **no** ➜ Unit 77 **somebody/anything/nowhere** etc. ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

78.1 Write these sentences again with **nobody/no-one** or **nothing**.

1 There isn't anything in the bag. There's nothing in the bag.
2 There isn't anybody in the office. There's .....
3 I don't have anything to do. I .....
4 There isn't anything on TV. .....
5 There wasn't anyone at home. .....
6 We didn't find anything. .....

78.2 Write these sentences again with **anybody/anyone** or **anything**.

1 There's nothing in the bag. There isn't anything in the bag.
2 There was nobody on the bus. There wasn't .....
3 I have nothing to read. .....
4 I have no-one to help me. .....
5 She heard nothing. .....
6 We have nothing for dinner. .....

78.3 Answer these questions with **nobody/no-one** or **nothing**.

1a What did you say? Nothing.
2a Who saw you? Nobody.
3a What do you want? .....
4a Who did you meet? .....
5a Who knows the answer? .....
6a What did you buy? .....
7a What happened? .....
8a Who was late? .....

Now answer the same questions with full sentences.

Use **nobody/no-one/nothing** or **anybody/anyone/anything**:

1b I didn't say anything.
2b Nobody saw me.
3b I don't .....
4b I .....
5b ..... the answer.
6b .....
7b .....
8b .....

78.4 Complete the sentences. Use:

nobody / no-one / nothing or **anybody / anyone / anything**

1 That house is empty. Nobody lives there.
2 Jack has a bad memory. He can't remember anything.
3 Be quiet! Don't say ..... .
4 I didn't know about the meeting. ..... told me.
5 'What did you have to eat?' '..... . I wasn't hungry.'
6 I didn't eat ..... . I wasn't hungry.
7 Helen was sitting alone. She wasn't with ..... .
8 I'm afraid I can't help you. There's ..... I can do.
9 I don't know ..... about car engines.
10 The museum is free. It doesn't cost ..... to go in.
11 I heard a knock on the door, but when I opened it, there was ..... there.
12 The hotel receptionist spoke very fast. I didn't understand ..... .
13 'What are you doing tonight?' '..... . Why?'
14 Sophie has gone away. ..... knows where she is. She didn't tell ..... where she was going.

Unit 79

somebody/anything/nowhere etc.

A

Somebody (or **Someone**) has broken the window.

somebody/someone = a person, but we don't know who

She has got **something** in her mouth.

something = a thing, but we don't know what

Tom lives **somewhere** near London.

somewhere = in/to a place, but we don't know where

B

people (**-body** *or* **-one**)

somebody *or* **someone**	There is **somebody** (*or* **someone**) at the door.
anybody *or* **anyone**	Is there **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) at the door?
nobody *or* **no-one**	There isn't **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) at the door.
	There is **nobody** (*or* **no-one**) at the door.

-body and **-one** are the same: **somebody** = **someone, nobody** = **no-one** etc.

things (**-thing**)

something	Lucy said **something**, but I didn't understand what she said.
anything	Are you doing **anything** at the weekend?
nothing	I was angry, but I did**n't** say **anything**.
	'What did you say?' '**Nothing**.'

places (**-where**)

somewhere	Ruth's parents live **somewhere** in the south of England.
anywhere	Did you go **anywhere** interesting for your holidays?
nowhere	I'm staying here. I'm **not** going **anywhere**.
	I don't like this town. There is **nowhere** to go.

C

something/anybody etc. + *adjective* (**big/cheap/interesting** etc.)

- Did you meet **anybody interesting** at the party?
- We always go to the same place. Let's go **somewhere different**.
- 'What's that letter?' 'It's **nothing important**.'

D

something/anybody etc. + **to** ...

- I'm hungry. I want **something to eat**. (= something that I can eat)
- Tony doesn't have **anybody to talk** to. (= anybody that he can talk to)
- There is **nowhere to go** in this town. (= nowhere where people can go)

some and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **any** and **no** ➜ Unit 77 **anybody/nothing** etc. ➜ Unit 78
everything/-body/-where ➜ Unit 80

Exercises

79.1 Write **somebody** (or **someone**) / **something** / **somewhere**.

1	Lucy said ...something... .	What did she say?
2	I've lost	What have you lost?
3	Sue and Tom went	Where did they go?
4	I'm going to phone	Who are you going to phone?

79.2 Write **nobody** (or **no-one**) / **nothing** / **nowhere**.

1a	What did you say?	...Nothing...
2a	Where are you going?	.....
3a	What do you want?	.....
4a	Who are you looking for?	.....

Now answer the same questions with full sentences.

Use **not + anybody/anything/anywhere**.

1b ...I didn't say anything... 3b .....

2b I'm not ..... 4b .....

79.3 Write **somebody/anything/nowhere** etc.

1 It's dark. I can't see ...anything... .
2 Tom lives ...somewhere... near London.
3 Do you know ..... about computers?
4 'Listen!' 'What? I can't hear ..... .'
5 'What are you doing here?' 'I'm waiting for ..... .'
6 We need to talk. There's ..... I want to tell you.
7 'Did ..... see the accident?' 'No, ...'
8 We weren't hungry, so we didn't eat ..... .
9 'What's going to happen?' 'I don't know. ..... knows.'
10 'Do you know ..... in Paris?' 'Yes, a few people.'
11 'What's in that cupboard?' '..... . It's empty.'
12 I'm looking for my glasses. I can't find them ..... .
13 I don't like cold weather. I want to live ..... warm.
14 Is there ..... interesting on TV tonight?
15 Have you ever met ..... famous?

79.4 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

something	**anything**	**nothing**
something	**anywhere**	~~**nowhere**~~
somewhere		**nowhere**

do	**eat**	**park**	**sit**
drink	~~**go**~~	**read**	**stay**

1 We don't go out very much because there's ...nowhere to go... .
2 There isn't any food in the house. We don't have ..... .
3 I'm bored. I've got ..... .
4 'Why are you standing?' 'Because there isn't ..... .'
5 'Would you like ..... ?' 'Yes, please – a glass of water.'
6 If you're going to the city centre, take the bus. Don't drive because there's ..... .
7 I want ..... . I'm going to buy a magazine.
8 I need ..... in London. Can you recommend a hotel?

every and all

A every

Every house in the street is the same.

every house in the street =
all the houses in the street

We use **every** + *singular noun* (**every house** / **every country** etc.):

- Sarah has been to **every country** in Europe.
- **Every summer** we have a holiday by the sea.
- She looks different **every time** I see her.

Use a *singular verb* after **every** ... :

- **Every house** in the street **is** the same. (*not* are the same)
- **Every country has** a national flag. (*not* have)

Compare **every** and **all**:

- **Every student** in the class passed the exam.
- **Every country has** a national flag.

- **All the students** in the class passed the exam.
- **All countries have** a national flag.

B every day and all day

every day = on all days:

- It rained **every day** last week.
- Ben watches TV for about two hours **every evening**. (= on all evenings)

also **every morning/night/summer** etc.

all day = the complete day:

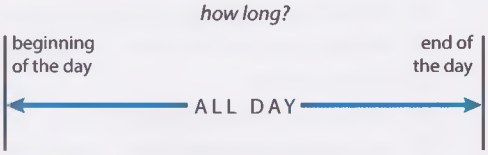

- It rained **all day** yesterday.
- On Monday, I watched TV **all evening**. (= the complete evening)

also **all morning/night/summer** etc.

C everybody (*or* everyone) / everything / everywhere

everybody *or* **everyone** *(people)*	**Everybody** (*or* **Everyone**) needs friends. (= all people need friends)
everything *(things)*	Do you have **everything** you need? (= all the things you need)
everywhere *(places)*	I lost my watch. I've looked **everywhere** for it. (= I've looked in all places)

Use a *singular verb* after **everybody/everyone/everything**:

- **Everybody has** problems. (*not* Everybody have)

all → Unit 81

Exercises

80.1 Complete the sentences. Use **every** + these words:

day **room** ~~**student**~~ **time** **word**

1 Every student in the class passed the exam.
2 My job is very boring. ..... is the same.
3 Kate is a very good tennis player. When we play, she wins ..... .
4 ..... in the hotel has free internet access and a minibar.
5 'Did you understand what she said?' 'Most of it, but not ..... .'

80.2 Complete the sentences with **every day** or **all day**.

1 Yesterday it rained all day.
2 I buy a newspaper ..... , but sometimes I don't read it.
3 I'm not going out tomorrow. I'll be at home ..... .
4 I usually drink about four cups of coffee ..... .
5 Paula was ill yesterday, so she stayed in bed ..... .
6 I'm tired now because I've been working hard ..... .
7 Last year we went to the seaside for a week, and it rained ..... .

80.3 Write **every** or **all**.

1 Bill watches TV for about two hours every evening.
2 Julia gets up at 6.30 ..... morning.
3 The weather was nice yesterday, so we sat outside ..... afternoon.
4 I'm going away on Monday. I'll be away ..... week.
5 A: How often do you go skiing?
B: ..... year. Usually in March.
6 A: Were you at home at 10 o'clock yesterday?
B: Yes, I was at home ..... morning. I went out after lunch.
7 My sister loves new cars. She buys one ..... year.
8 I saw Sam at the party, but he didn't speak to me ..... evening.
9 We go away on holiday for two or three weeks ..... summer.

80.4 Write **everybody/everything/everywhere**.

1 Everybody needs friends.
2 Chris knows ..... about computers.
3 I like the people here. ..... is very friendly.
4 This is a nice hotel. It's comfortable and ..... is very clean.
5 Kevin never uses his car. He goes ..... by motorcycle.
6 Let's get something to eat. ..... is hungry.
7 Sue's house is full of books. There are books ..... .
8 You are right. ..... you say is true.

80.5 Complete the sentences. Use one word only each time.

1 Everybody has problems.
2 Are you ready yet? Everybody ..... waiting for you.
3 The house is empty. Everyone ..... gone out.
4 Gary is very popular. Everybody ..... him.
5 This town is completely different now. Everything ..... changed.
6 I got home very late last night. I came in quietly because everyone ..... asleep.
7 Everybody ..... mistakes!
8 A: ..... everything clear? ..... everybody know what to do?
B: Yes, we all understand.

Unit 81

all most some any no/none

A

Compare:

children/money/books etc. (in general):

- **Children** like playing. (= children in general)
- **Money** isn't everything. (= money in general)
- I enjoy reading **books**.
- Everybody needs **friends**.

the children / **the** money / **these** books etc. :

- Where are **the children**? (= our children)
- I want to buy a car, but I don't have **the money**. (= the money for a car)
- Have you read **these books**?
- I often go out with **my friends**.

B

most / **most of** ... , **some** / **some of** ... etc.

all

most

some

any

no / none / not + any

most/some etc. + noun

all most some any no	~~of~~	cities children books money

- **Most children** like playing. (= children in general)
- I don't want **any money**.
- **Some books** are better than others.
- He has **no friends**.
- **All cities** have the same problems. (= cities in general)

Do not use **of** in these sentences:

- **Most people** drive too fast. (*not* Most of people)
- **Some birds** can't fly. (*not* Some of birds)

most of/some of etc. + **the/this/my** ... etc.

all	(of)	the ... this/that ... these/those ... my/your... etc.
most some any none	of	

- **Most of the children at this school** are under 11 years old.
- I don't want **any of this money**.
- **Some of these books** are very old.
- **None of my friends** live near me.

You can say **all the** ... or **all of the** ... (with or without **of**):

- **All the students in our class** passed the exam. (*or* **All of the students** ...)
- Amy has lived in London **all her life**. (*or*... **all of her life**.)

C

all of it / **most of them** / **none of us** etc.

all most some any none	of	it them us you

- You can have **some of this cake**, but not **all of it**.
- A: Do you know those people?
  B: **Most of them**, but not **all of them**.
- **Some of us** are going out tonight. Why don't you come with us?
- I have a lot of books, but I haven't read **any of them**.
- 'How many of these books have you read?' '**None of them**.'

the ... (**children** / **the children** etc.) ➜ Unit 72 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **no/none/any** ➜ Unit 77
all and **every** ➜ Unit 80

Exercises

81.1 Complete the sentences. Use the word in brackets (**some**/**most** etc.). Sometimes you need **of** (**some of** / **most of** etc.).

1 Most children like playing. (**most**)
2 Some of this money is yours. (**some**)
3 ..... people never stop talking. (**some**)
4 ..... the shops in the city centre close at 6.30. (**most**)
5 ..... people have mobile phones these days. (**most**)
6 I don't like ..... the pictures in the living room. (**any**)
7 He's lost ..... his money. (**all**)
8 ..... my friends are married. (**none**)
9 Do you know ..... the people in this picture? (**any**)
10 ..... birds can fly. (**most**)
11 I enjoyed ..... the film, but I didn't like the ending. (**most**)
12 ..... sports are very dangerous. (**some**)
13 We can't find anywhere to stay. ..... the hotels are full. (**all**)
14 You must have ..... this cheese. It's delicious. (**some**)
15 The weather was bad when we were on holiday. It rained ..... the time. (**most**)

81.2 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use:

all/most/some/none + **of them / of it**

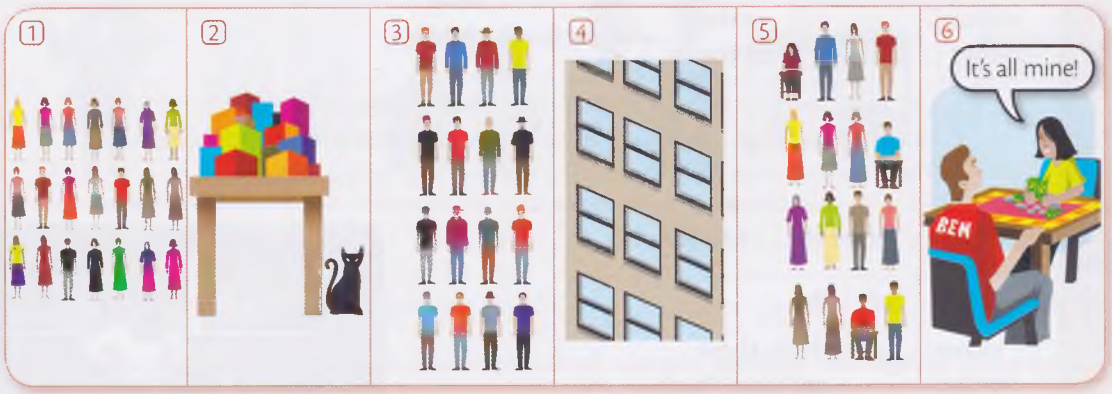

1 How many of the people are women? Most of them.
2 How many of the boxes are on the table? .....
3 How many of the men are wearing hats? .....
4 How many of the windows are open? .....
5 How many of the people are standing? .....
6 How much of the money is Ben's? .....

81.3 Are these sentences OK? Correct the sentences that are wrong.

1 Most of children like playing. Most children
2 All the students failed the exam. OK
3 Some of people work too hard. .....
4 Some of questions in the exam were very easy. .....
5 I haven't seen any of those people before. .....
6 All of insects have six legs. .....
7 Have you read all these books? .....
8 Most of students in our class are very nice. .....
9 Most of my friends are going to the party. .....
10 I'm very tired this morning – I was awake most of night. .....

Unit 82

both either neither

A

We use **both/either/neither** to talk about two things or people:

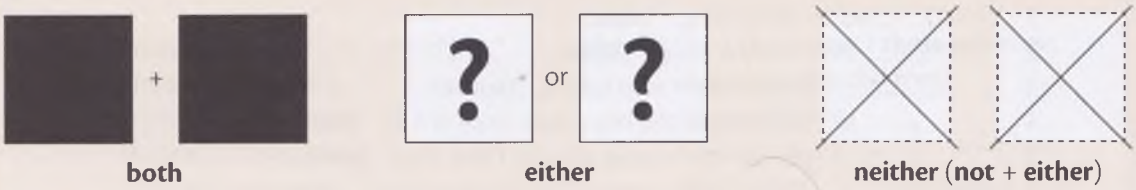

both **either** **neither** (**not** + **either**)

- Rebecca has two children. **Both** are married. (**both** = the two children)
- Would you like tea or coffee? You can have **either**. (**either** = tea or coffee)
- A: Do you want to go to the cinema or the theatre?
  B: **Neither**. I want to stay at home. (**neither** = not the cinema or the theatre)

Compare **either** and **neither**:

- 'Would you like **tea** or **coffee**?'
  - '**Either**. I don't mind.' (= tea or coffee)
  - 'I **don't** want **either**.' (*not* I don't want neither)
  - '**Neither**.' (= not tea or coffee)

B

both/either/neither + *noun*

both + *plural*		**both**	**windows/books/children** etc.
either / **neither**	+ *singular*	**either** / **neither**	**window/book/child** etc.

- Last year I went to Paris and Rome. I liked **both cities** very much.
- First I worked in an office, and later in a shop. **Neither job** was very interesting.
- There are two ways from here to the station. You can go **either way**.

C

both of ... / **either of** ... / **neither of** ...

both	(**of**)	**the** ...
either / **neither**	**of**	**these/those** ... / **my/your/Paul's** ... etc.

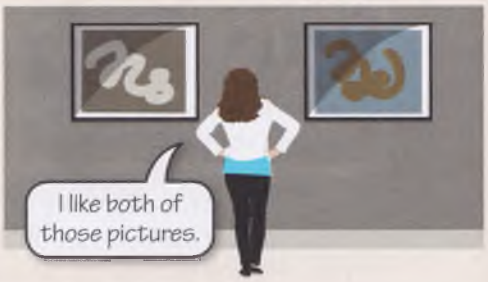

- **Neither of my parents** is British.
- I **haven't** read **either of these books**.

You can say **both of the/those/my** ... or **both the/those/my** ... (with or without **of**):

- I like **both of** those pictures. *or*
  I like **both** those pictures.
- **Both of** Paul's sisters are married. *or*
  Both Paul's sisters are married.

but - **Neither of** Paul's sisters is married. (*not* Neither Paul's sisters)

D

both of them / **neither of us**

both / **either** / **neither**	**of**	**them** / **us** / **you**

- Paul has two sisters. **Both of them** are married.
- Sue and I didn't eat anything. **Neither of us** was hungry.
- Who are those two people? I **don't** know **either of them**.

I can't either / neither can I ➜ Unit 42

Exercises

82.1 Write **both/either/neither**. Use **of** where necessary.

1 Last year I went to Paris and Rome. I liked ....both.... cities very much.
2 There were two pictures on the wall. I didn't like ....either of.... them.
3 It was a good football match. ..... teams played well.
4 It wasn't a good football match. ..... team played well.
5 'Is your friend English or American?' '..... . She's Australian.'
6 We went away for two days, but the weather wasn't good. It rained ..... days.
7 A: I bought two newspapers. Which one do you want?
B: ..... . It doesn't matter which one.
8 I invited Sam and Chris to the party, but ..... them came.
9 'Do you go to work by car or by bus?' '..... . I always walk.'
10 'Which jacket do you prefer, this one or that one?' 'I don't like ..... them.'
11 'Do you work or are you a student?' '..... . I work and I'm a student too.'
12 My friend and I went to the cinema, but ..... us liked the film. It was really bad.
13 Helen has two sisters and a brother. ..... sisters are married.
14 Helen has two sisters and a brother. I've met her brother, but I haven't met ..... her sisters.

82.2 Complete the sentences for the pictures. Use **Both ...** and **Neither ... .**

1 ....Both cups are.... empty.
2 ..... are open.
3 ..... wearing a hat.
4 ..... beards.
5 ..... to the airport.
6 ..... correct.

82.3 A man and a woman answered some questions. Their answers were the same. Write sentences with **Both/Neither of them ... .**

1 Are you married?	No	No	→ 1	....Neither of them is married....
2 How old are you?	21	21	→ 2	....Both of them are 21....
3 Are you a student?	Yes	Yes	→ 3	..... students.
4 Do you have a car?	No	No	4	..... a car.
5 Where do you live?	London	London	5	.....
6 Do you like cooking?	Yes	Yes	6	.....
7 Can you play the piano?	No	No	7	.....
8 Do you eat seafood?	Yes	Yes	8	.....
9 Are you interested in sport?	No	No	9	.....

a lot much many

A

a lot of money

not much money

a lot of books

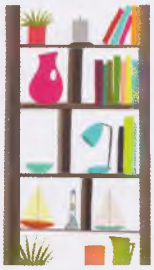

not many books

We use **much** + *uncountable noun* (**much food** / **much money** etc.):

- Did you buy **much food**?
- We don't have **much luggage**.
- How **much money** do you want?
- A: Do you have any **money**?
  B: I have some, but **not much**.

We use **many** + *plural noun* (**many books** / **many people** etc.):

- Did you buy **many books**?
- We don't know **many people**.
- How **many photos** did you take?
- A: Did you take any **photos**?
  B: I took some, but **not many**.

We use **a lot of** + *both types of noun*:

- We bought **a lot of food**.
- Paula doesn't have **a lot of** free **time**.
- We bought **a lot of books**.
- Did they ask **a lot of questions**?

We say:

- There **is** a lot of **food/money/water** ... *(singular verb)*
- There **are** a lot of **trees/shops/people** ... *(plural verb)*
- A lot of **people speak** English. (*not* speaks)

B

We use **much** in *questions* and *negative sentences*:

- Do you drink **much coffee**?
- I don't drink **much coffee**.

But we do not often use **much** in *positive sentences*:

- I drink **a lot of coffee**. (*not* I drink much coffee)
- 'Do you drink much coffee?' 'Yes, **a lot**.' (*not* Yes, much)

We use **many** and **a lot of** in all types of sentences (positive/negative/question):

- We have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends.
- We don't have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends.
- Do you have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends?

C

You can use **much** and **a lot** without a noun:

- Amy spoke to me, but she didn't say **much**.
- 'Do you watch TV **much**?' 'No, **not much**.' (= not often)
- We like films, so we go to the cinema **a lot**. (*not* go to the cinema much)
- I don't like him very **much**.

countable/uncountable ➜ **Units 67–68**

Exercises

83.1 Write **much** or **many**.

1 Did you buy ....much.... food?
2 There aren't ..... hotels in this town.
3 We don't have ..... petrol. We need to stop and get some.
4 Were there ..... people on the train?
5 Did ..... students fail the exam?
6 Paula doesn't have ..... money.
7 I wasn't hungry, so I didn't eat ..... .
8 I don't know where Gary lives these days. I haven't seen him for ..... years.

Write **How much** or **How many**.

9 ..... people are coming to the party?
10 ..... milk do you want in your coffee?
11 ..... bread did you buy?
12 ..... players are there in a football team?

83.2 Complete the sentences. Use **much** or **many** with these words:

~~**books**~~ **countries** **luggage** **people** **time** **times**

1 I don't read very much. I don't have ....many books.... .
2 Hurry up! We don't have ..... .
3 Do you travel a lot? Have you been to ..... ?
4 Tina hasn't lived here very long, so she doesn't know ..... .
5 'Do you have ..... ?' 'No, only this bag.'
6 I know Tokyo well. I've been there ..... .

83.3 Complete the sentences. Use **a lot of** + these words:

accidents ~~**books**~~ **fun** **interesting things** **traffic**

1 I like reading. I have ....a lot of books.... .
2 We enjoyed our visit to the museum. We saw ..... .
3 This road is very dangerous. There are ..... .
4 We enjoyed our holiday. We had ..... .
5 It took me a long time to drive here. There was ..... .

83.4 In some of these sentences **much** is not natural. Change the sentences or write *OK*.

1 Do you drink <u>much coffee</u>? ....OK....
2 I drink <u>much tea</u>. ....a lot of tea....
3 It was a cold winter. We had <u>much snow</u>. .....
4 There wasn't <u>much snow</u> last winter. .....
5 It costs <u>much money</u> to travel around the world. .....
6 We had a cheap holiday. It didn't cost <u>much</u>. .....
7 Do you know <u>much</u> about computers? .....
8 'Do you have any luggage?' 'Yes, <u>much</u>.' .....

83.5 Write sentences about these people. Use **much** and **a lot**.

1 James loves films. (go to the cinema) ....He goes to the cinema a lot.....
2 Nicola thinks TV is boring. (watch TV) ....She doesn't watch TV much.....
3 Tina is a good tennis player. (play tennis) She .....
4 Mark doesn't like driving. (use his car) He .....
5 Paul spends most of the time at home. (go out) .....
6 Sue has been all over the world. (travel) .....

Unit 84

(a) little (a) few

A

(a) **little** + *uncountable noun*:

(a) **little water**
(a) **little time**
(a) **little money**
(a) **little soup**

a little water

(a) **few** + *plural noun*:

(a) **few books**
(a) **few questions**
(a) **few people**
(a) **few days**

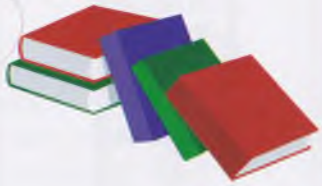

a few books

B

a little = some but not much

- She didn't eat anything, but she drank **a little water**.
- I speak **a little Spanish**. (= some Spanish but not much)
- A: Can you speak Spanish?
  B: **A little**.

a few = some but not many

- Excuse me, I have to make **a few phone calls**.
- We're going away for **a few days**.
- I speak **a few words** of Spanish.
- A: Are there any shops near here?
  B: Yes, **a few**.

C

little (without **a**) = nearly no *or* nearly nothing

- There was **little food** in the fridge. It was nearly empty.

You can say **very little**:

- Dan is very thin because he eats **very little**. (= nearly nothing)

few (without **a**) = nearly no

- There were **few people** in the theatre. It was nearly empty.

You can say **very few**:

- Your English is very good. You make **very few mistakes**.

D

Compare **little** and **a little**:

- They have **a little** money, so they're not poor. (= they have some money)
- They have **little** money. They are very poor. (= nearly no money)

Compare **few** and **a few**:

- I have **a few** friends, so I'm not lonely. (= I have some friends)
- I'm sad and I'm lonely. I have **few** friends. (= nearly no friends)

countable/uncountable ➜ Units 67–68

Exercises

84.1 Answer the questions with **a little** or **a few**.

1 'Do you have any money?' 'Yes, a little.'
2 'Do you have any envelopes?' 'Yes, ...'
3 'Do you want sugar in your coffee?' 'Yes, ..., please.'
4 'Did you take any photos when you were on holiday?' 'Yes, ...'
5 'Does your friend speak English?' 'Yes, ...'
6 'Are there any good restaurants in this town?' 'Yes, ...'

84.2 Write **a little** or **a few** + these words:

chairs **days** **fresh air** **friends** **milk** **Russian** **times** ~~**years**~~

1 Mark speaks Italian well. He lived in Italy for a few years.
2 Can I have ..... in my coffee, please?
3 'When did Amy go away?' '..... ago.'
4 'Do you speak any foreign languages?' 'I can speak .....'
5 'Are you going out alone?' 'No, I'm going with .....'
6 'Have you ever been to Mexico?' 'Yes, ...'
7 There wasn't much furniture in the room – just a table and .....
8 I'm going out for a walk. I need .....

84.3 Complete the sentences. Use **very little** or **very few** + these words:

coffee **hotels** ~~**mistakes**~~ **people** **rain** **time** **work**

1 Your English is very good. You make very few mistakes.
2 I drink ..... . I prefer tea.
3 The weather here is very dry in summer. There is .....
4 It's difficult to find a place to stay in this town. There are .....
5 Hurry up. We have .....
6 The town is very quiet at night. ..... go out.
7 Some people in the office are very lazy. They do .....

84.4 Write **little / a little** or **few / a few**.

1 There was little food in the fridge. It was nearly empty.
2 'When did Sarah go out?' '..... minutes ago.'
3 I can't decide now. I need ..... time to think about it.
4 There was ..... traffic, so we arrived earlier than we expected.
5 The bus service isn't very good at night – there are ..... buses after 9 o'clock.
6 'Would you like some soup?' 'Yes, ..., please.'
7 I'd like to practise my English more, but I have ..... opportunity.

84.5 Right or wrong? Change the sentences where necessary. Write *OK* if the sentence is correct.

1 We're going away for few days next week. for a few days
2 Everybody needs little luck. .....
3 I can't talk to you now – I have few things to do. .....
4 I eat very little meat – I don't like it very much. .....
5 Excuse me, can I ask you few questions? .....
6 There were little people on the bus – it was nearly empty. .....
7 Mark is a very private person. Few people know him well. .....

Unit 85

old/nice/interesting etc. (adjectives)

A

adjective + *noun* (**nice day** / **blue eyes** etc.)

	adjective + noun
It's a **nice**	**day** today.
Laura has **brown**	**eyes**.
There's a very **old**	**bridge** in this village.
Do you like **Italian**	**food**?
I don't speak any **foreign**	**languages**.
There are some **beautiful yellow**	**flowers** in the garden.

The adjective is *before* the noun:

- They live in a **modern house**. (*not* a house modern)
- Have you met any **famous people**? (*not* people famous)

The ending of an adjective is always the same:

a **different place** **different** places (*not* differents)

B

be (**am**/**is**/**was** etc.) + *adjective*

- The weather **is nice** today.
- These flowers **are** very **beautiful**.
- **Are** you **cold**? Shall I close the window?
- **I'm hungry**. Can I have something to eat?
- The film **wasn't** very **good**. It **was boring**.
- Please **be quiet**. I'm reading.

C

look/**feel**/**smell**/**taste**/**sound** + *adjective*

- A: You **look tired**.
  B: Yes, I **feel tired**.
- Joe told me about his new job. It **sounds** very **interesting**.
- I'm not going to eat this fish. It doesn't **smell good**.

Compare:

He	**is** **feels** **looks**	**tired**.

They	**are** **look** **sound**	**happy**.

It	**is** **smells** **tastes**	**good**.

get + adjective (**get hungry**/**tired** etc.) ➜ Unit 56 **something**/**anybody** + adjective ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

85.1 Put the words in the right order.

1 (new / live in / house / they / a) They live in a new house.
2 (like / jacket / I / that / green) I .....
3 (music / like / do / classical / you?) Do .....
4 (had / wonderful / a / I / holiday) .....
5 (went to / restaurant / a / Japanese / we) .....

85.2 The words in the box are adjectives (**black/foreign** etc.) or nouns (**air/job** etc.). Use an adjective and a noun to complete each sentence.

air	**clouds**	~~**foreign**~~	**holiday**	**job**	~~**languages**~~	**sharp**
black	**dangerous**	**fresh**	**hot**	**knife**	**long**	**water**

1 Do you speak any foreign languages ?
2 Look at those ..... . It's going to rain.
3 Sue works very hard, and she's very tired. She needs a ..... .
4 I would like to have a shower, but there's no ..... .
5 Can you open the window? We need some ..... .
6 I need a ..... to cut these onions.
7 Fire-fighting is a ..... .

85.3 Write sentences for the pictures. Choose from the boxes.

feel(s)	**look(s)**	~~**sound(s)**~~	~~**happy**~~	**ill**	**nice**
look(s)	**smell(s)**	**taste(s)**	**horrible**	**new**	**surprised**

85.4 A and B don't agree. Complete B's sentences. Use **feel/look** etc.

	A	B	
1	You look tired.	Do I? I don't feel tired	(feel)
2	This is a new coat.	Is it? It doesn't	(look)
3	I'm American.	Are you? You	(sound)
4	You look cold.	Do I? I	(feel)
5	These bags are heavy.	Are they? They	(look)
6	That soup looks good.	Maybe, but it	(taste)

quickly/badly/suddenly etc. (adverbs)

A

He ate his dinner very **quickly**.

Suddenly the shelf fell down.

Quickly and **suddenly** are adverbs.

adjective + **-ly** → adverb:

adjective	**quick**	**bad**	**sudden**	**careful**	**heavy**	
adverb	**quickly**	**badly**	**suddenly**	**carefully**	**heavily**	etc.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): easy → easily heavy → heavily

B

Adverbs tell you *how* something happens or *how* somebody does something:

- The train **stopped suddenly**.
- I **opened** the door **slowly**.
- Please **listen carefully**.
- I **understand** you **perfectly**.

It's **raining heavily**.

Compare:

adjective

- Sue is very **quiet**.
- **Be careful**!
- It was **a bad game**.
- I **felt nervous**. (= I was nervous)

adverb

- Sue **speaks** very **quietly**. (*not* speaks very quiet)
- **Listen carefully**! (*not* listen careful)
- Our team **played badly**. (*not* played bad)
- I **waited nervously**.

C

hard fast late early

These words are adjectives *and* adverbs:

- Sue's job **is** very **hard**.
- Ben is **a fast runner**.
- The bus **was late/early**.

- Sue **works** very **hard**. (*not* hardly)
- Ben can **run fast**.
- I **went** to bed **late/early**.

D

good *(adjective)* → **well** *(adverb)*

- Your English **is** very **good**.
- It was **a good game**.

- You **speak** English very **well**. (*not* very good)
- Our team **played well**.

But **well** is also an *adjective* (= not ill, in good health):

- 'How are you?' '**I'm** very **well,** thank you. And you?'

adjectives → Unit 85

Exercises

86.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with these adverbs:

angrily **badly** **dangerously** **fast** ~~**heavily**~~ **quietly**

1 It's raining heavily.
2 He sings very ..... .
3 They came in ..... .
4 She shouted at me ..... .
5 She can run very ..... .
6 He was driving ..... .

86.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

come	**know**	**sleep**	**win**	+	~~**carefully**~~	**clearly**	**hard**	**well**
explain	~~**listen**~~	**think**	**work**		**carefully**	**easily**	**quickly**	**well**

1 I'm going to tell you something very important, so please listen carefully.
2 They ..... . At the end of the day they're always tired.
3 I'm tired this morning. I didn't ..... last night.
4 You play tennis much better than me. When we play, you always ..... .
5 ..... before you answer the question.
6 I've met Alice a few times, but I don't ..... her very ..... .
7 Our teacher doesn't ..... things very ..... . We never understand him.
8 Helen! I need your help. ..... !

86.3 Which is right?

1 Don't eat so ~~quick~~/quickly. It's not good for you. (quickly *is right*)
2 Why are you angry/angrily? I haven't done anything.
3 Can you speak slow/slowly, please?
4 Come on, Dave! Why are you always so slow/slowly?
5 Sam is a very careful/carefully driver.
6 Amy is studying hard/hardly for her examinations.
7 'Where's Anna?' 'She was here, but she left sudden/suddenly.'
8 Please be quiet/quietly. I'm studying.
9 Some companies pay their workers very bad/badly.
10 Those oranges look nice/nicely. Can I have one?
11 I don't remember much about the accident. Everything happened quick/quickly.

86.4 Write **good** or **well**.

1 Your English is very good. You speak it very well.
2 Jackie did very ..... in her exams.
3 The party was very ..... . I enjoyed it very much.
4 Mark has a difficult job, but he does it ..... .
5 How are your parents? Are they ..... ?
6 Did you have a ..... holiday? Was the weather ..... ?

Unit 87

old/older expensive / more expensive

A

old | **older** | heavy | **heavier** | expensive | **more expensive**

Older / **heavier** / **more expensive** are *comparative* forms.
The comparative is **-er** (**older**) or **more** ... (**more expensive**).

B

older/heavier etc.

Short words (1 syllable) → **-er**:
old → **older** slow → **slower** cheap → **cheaper**
nice → **nicer** late → **later** big → **bigger**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): big → bi**gg**er hot → ho**tt**er thin → thi**nn**er

Words ending in **-y** → **-ier**:
easy → **easier** heavy → **heavier** early → **earlier**

- Rome is **old**, but Athens is **older**. (*not* more old)
- Is it **cheaper** to go by car or by train? (*not* more cheap)
- Helen wants a **bigger** car.
- This coat is OK, but I think the other one is **nicer**.
- Don't take the bus. It's **easier** to take a taxi. (*not* more easy)

far → further:
- A: How far is it to the station? A mile?
  B: No, it's **further**. About two miles.

C

more ...

Long words (2/3/4 syllables) → **more** ... :
careful → **more careful** polite → **more polite**
expensive → **more expensive** interesting → **more interesting**

- You must be **more careful**.
- I don't like my job. I want to do something **more interesting**.
- Is it **more expensive** to go by car or by train?

D

good/well → better bad → worse
- The weather wasn't very **good** yesterday, but it's **better** today.
- 'Do you feel **better** today?' 'No, I feel **worse**.'
- Which is **worse** – a headache or a toothache?

older than ... / **more expensive than** ... → Unit 88 **the oldest** / **the most expensive** → Unit 90

Exercises

87.1 Look at the pictures and write the comparative (**older** / **more interesting** etc.).

87.2 Write the comparative.

1 old ...older...
2 strong .....
3 happy .....
4 modern .....
5 important .....
6 good .....
7 large .....
8 serious .....
9 pretty .....
10 crowded .....

87.3 Write the opposite.

1 younger ...older...
2 colder .....
3 cheaper .....
4 better .....
5 nearer .....
6 easier .....

87.4 Complete the sentences. Use a comparative.

1 Helen's car isn't very big. She wants a ...bigger... one.
2 My job isn't very interesting. I want to do something ...more interesting... .
3 You're not very tall. Your brother is ..... .
4 David doesn't work very hard. I work ..... .
5 My chair isn't very comfortable. Yours is ..... .
6 Your idea isn't very good. My idea is ..... .
7 These flowers aren't very nice. The blue ones are ..... .
8 My bag isn't very heavy. Your bag is ..... .
9 I'm not very interested in art. I'm ..... in history.
10 It isn't very warm today. It was ..... yesterday.
11 These tomatoes don't taste very good. The other ones tasted ..... .
12 Britain isn't very big. France is ..... .
13 London isn't very beautiful. Paris is ..... .
14 This knife isn't very sharp. Have you got a ..... one?
15 People today aren't very polite. In the past they were ..... .
16 The weather isn't too bad today. Often it is much ..... .

older than ... more expensive than ...

A

She's **taller than** him.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** the Grand.

We use **than** after comparatives (**older than** ... / **more expensive than** ... etc.):

- Athens is **older than** Rome.
- Are oranges **more expensive than** bananas?
- It's **easier** to take a taxi **than** to take the bus.
- 'How are you today?' 'Not bad. **Better than** yesterday.'
- The restaurant is **more crowded than** usual.

B

We usually say: than **me** / than **him** / than **her** / than **us** / than **them**.
You can say:

- I can run faster **than him**. *or* I can run faster **than he can**.
- You are a better singer **than me**. *or* You are a better singer **than I am**.
- I got up earlier **than her**. *or* I got up earlier **than she did**.

C

more/less than ...

- A: How much did your shoes cost? £60?
  B: No, **more than** that. (= **more than** £60)
- The film was very short – **less than** an hour.
- They have **more money than** they need.
- You go out **more than** me.

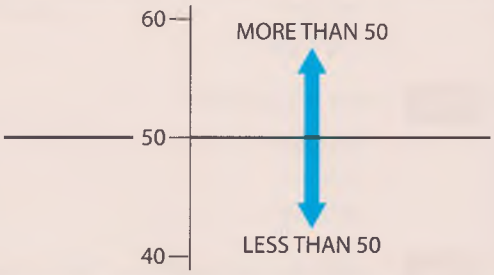

D

a bit older / **much older** etc.

Box A is **a bit bigger** than Box B.

Box C is **much bigger** than Box D.

a bit **much**	bigger older better more difficult more expensive	than ...

- Canada is **much bigger** than France.
- Sue is **a bit older** than Joe – she's 25 and he's 24.
- The hotel was **much more expensive** than I expected.
- You go out **much more** than me.

old → older, expensive → more expensive ➜ Unit 87 **not as ... as** ➜ Unit 89

Exercises

88.1 Write sentences about Kate and Ben. Use **than**.

Kate

1 I'm 26.
2 I'm not a very good swimmer.
3 I'm 1 metre 68 tall.
4 I start work at 8 o'clock.
5 I don't work very hard.
6 I don't have much money.
7 I'm a very good driver.
8 I'm not very patient.
9 I'm not a very good dancer.
10 I'm very intelligent.
11 I speak French very well.
12 I don't go to the cinema very much.

Ben

1 I'm 24.
2 I'm a very good swimmer.
3 I'm 1 metre 63 tall.
4 I start work at 8.30.
5 I work very hard.
6 I have a lot of money.
7 I'm not a very good driver.
8 I'm very patient.
9 I'm a good dancer.
10 I'm not very intelligent.
11 I don't speak French very well.
12 I go to the cinema a lot.

1 Kate is older than Ben.
2 Ben is a better swimmer than Kate.
3 Kate is ....
4 Kate starts .... Ben.
5 Ben ....
6 Ben has ....
7 Kate is a ....
8 Ben ....
9 Ben ....
10 Kate ....
11 Kate ....
12 Ben ....

88.2 Complete the sentences. Use **than**.

1 He isn't very tall. You're taller than him (OR taller than he is).
2 She isn't very old. You're ....
3 I don't work very hard. You work ....
4 He doesn't watch TV very much. You ....
5 I'm not a very good cook. You ....
6 We don't know many people. You ....
7 They don't have much money. You ....
8 I can't run very fast. You can ....
9 She hasn't been here very long. You ....
10 They didn't get up very early. You ....
11 He wasn't very surprised. You ....

88.3 Complete the sentences with **a bit** or **much** + comparative (**older/better** etc.).

1 Emma is 25. Joe is $24\frac{1}{2}$.
Emma is a bit older than Joe.
2 Jack's mother is 52. His father is 69.
Jack's mother ....
3 My camera cost £120. Yours cost £112.
My camera ....
4 Yesterday I felt terrible. Today I feel OK.
I feel ....
5 Today the temperature is 12 degrees. Yesterday it was 10 degrees.
It's ....
6 Sarah is an excellent tennis player. I'm not a very good player.
Sarah ....

not as ... as

A

not as ... as

She's old, but she's **not as old as** he is.

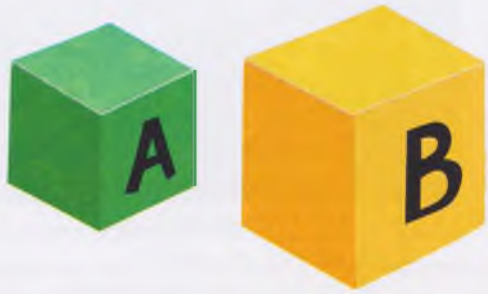

Box A is**n't as big as** Box B.

- Rome **is not as old as** Athens.
  (= Athens is **older**)
- The Grand Hotel **isn't as expensive as** the Europa.
  (= the Europa is **more expensive**)
- I **don't** play tennis **as often as** you.
  (= you play **more often**)
- The weather is better than it was yesterday. It **isn't as cold**.
  (= as cold **as it was yesterday**)

B

not as much as ... / **not as many as** ...

- I don't have **as much money as** you. (= you've got **more money**)
- I don't know **as many people as** you. (= you know **more people**)
- I don't go out **as much as** you. (= you go out **more**)

C

Compare **not as** ... **as** and **than**:

- Rome is **not as old as** Athens.
  Athens is **older than** Rome. (*not* older as Rome)
- Tennis **isn't as popular as** football.
  Football is **more popular than** tennis.
- I **don't** go out **as much as** you.
  You go out **more than** me.

D

We usually say: as **me** / as **him** / as **her** etc.
You can say:

- She's not as old **as him**. *or* She's not as old **as he is**.
- You don't work as hard **as me**. *or* You don't work as hard **as I do**.

E

We say **the same as** ... :

- The weather today is **the same as** yesterday.
- My hair is **the same colour as** yours.
- I arrived at **the same time as** Tom.

much/many ➜ Unit 83 **older than** ... / **more expensive than** ... ➜ Unit 88

Exercises

89.1 Look at the pictures and write sentences about A, B and C.

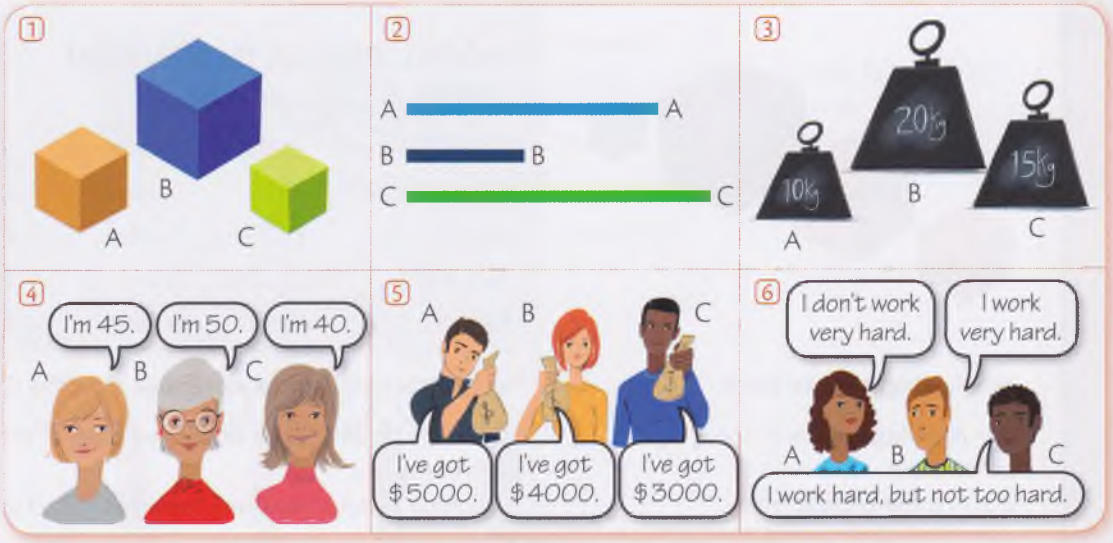

1 A is bigger than C, but not as big as B.
2 A is ..... B, but not ..... C.
3 C is ..... A, but ..... .
4 A is ....., but ..... .
5 B has got ..... .
6 C works ..... .

89.2 Write sentences with **as ... as ...** .

1 Athens is older than Rome. Rome isn't as old as Athens.
2 My room is bigger than yours. Your room isn't ..... .
3 You got up earlier than me. I didn't ..... .
4 We played better than them. They ..... .
5 I've been here longer than you. You ..... .
6 She's more nervous than him. He ..... .

89.3 Write **as** or **than**.

1 Athens is older than Rome.
2 I don't watch TV as much ..... you.
3 You eat more ..... me.
4 I'm more tired today ..... I was yesterday.
5 Joe isn't as intelligent ..... he thinks.
6 Belgium is smaller ..... Switzerland.
7 Brazil isn't as big ..... Canada.
8 I can't wait longer ..... an hour.

89.4 Complete the sentences about Julia, Andy and Laura. Use **the same age** / **the same street** etc.

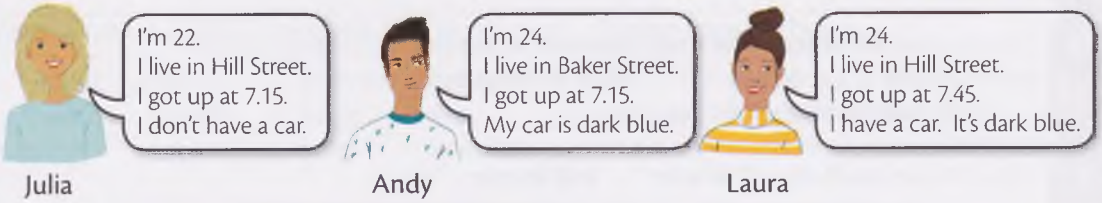

Julia Andy Laura

1 (age) Andy is the some age as Laura.
2 (street) Julia lives ..... .
3 (time) Julia got up ..... .
4 (colour) Andy's ..... .

the oldest the most expensive

A

HOTEL PRICES IN KINTON

(Per room per night)

Europa Hotel	£150	Grosvenor	£110
Grand Hotel	£130	Bennets	£100
Royal	£120	Carlton	£98
Astoria	£115	Star	£85
Palace	£115	Station	£75

Box A is **bigger than** Box B.

Box A is **bigger than** all the other boxes.
Box A is **the biggest** box.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** the Grand.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** all the other hotels in the city.
The Europa Hotel is **the most expensive** hotel in the city.

Bigger and **more expensive** etc. are *comparative* forms (→ Unit 87).
Biggest and **most expensive** etc. are *superlative* forms.

B

The superlative form is **-est** (**oldest**) or **most** ... (**most expensive**).

Short words (**old/cheap/nice** etc.) → **the -est**:
old → **the oldest** cheap → **the cheapest** nice → **the nicest**
but good → **the best** bad → **the worst**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): big → the bi**gg**est ho**t** → the ho**tt**est

Words ending in **-y** (**easy/heavy** etc.) → **the -iest**:
easy → **the easiest** heavy → **the heaviest** pretty → **the prettiest**

Long words (**careful/expensive/interesting** etc.) → **the most** ... :
careful → **the most careful** interesting → **the most interesting**

C

We say **the** oldest ... / **the** most expensive ... etc. (with **the**):

- The church is very old. It's **the oldest** building in the town.
  (= it is **older than** all the other buildings)
- What is **the longest** river in the world?
- Money is important, but it isn't **the most important** thing in life.
- Excuse me, where is **the nearest** bank?

D

You can use **the oldest** / **the best** / **the most expensive** etc. without a noun:

- Luke is a good player, but he isn't **the best** in the team.
  (**the best** = the best player)

E

You can use *superlative* + **I've ever** ... / **you've ever** ... etc. :

- The film was very bad. I think it's **the worst** film **I've ever seen**.
- What is **the most unusual** thing **you've ever done**?

present perfect + **ever** → Unit 17 **older / more expensive** → Units 87–88

Exercises

90.1 Write sentences with comparatives (**older** etc.) and superlatives (**the oldest** etc.).

1 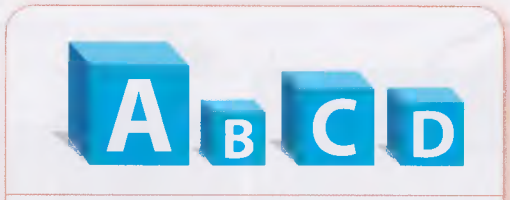

big/small
(A/D) A is bigger than D.
(A) A is the biggest.
(B) B is the smallest.

2 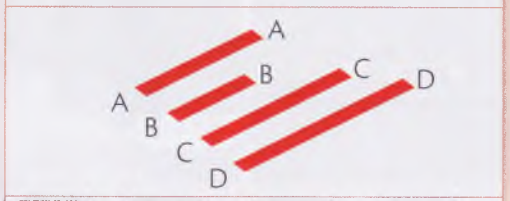

long/short
(C/A) C is ..... A.
(D) D is .....
(B) B .....

3 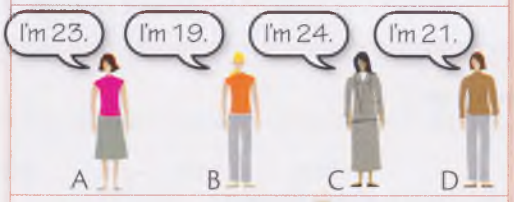

young/old
(D/C) D .....
(B) .....
(C) .....

4

expensive/cheap
(D/A) .....
(C) .....
(A) .....

5 Restaurant A, Excellent
Restaurant B, Not bad
Restaurant C, Good but not wonderful
Restaurant D, Awful

good/bad
(A/C) .....
(A) .....
(D) .....

90.2 Complete the sentences. Use a superlative (**the oldest** etc.).

1 This building is very old. It's the oldest building in the town.
2 It was a very happy day. It was ..... of my life.
3 It's a very good film. It's ..... I've ever seen.
4 She's a very popular singer. She's ..... in the country.
5 It was a very bad mistake. It was ..... I've ever made.
6 It's a very pretty village. It's ..... I've ever seen.
7 It was a very cold day. It was ..... of the year.
8 He's a very boring person. He's ..... I've ever met.

90.3 Write sentences with a superlative (**the longest** etc.). Choose from the boxes.

~~Sydney~~	Alaska	high	country	river	Africa	South America
Everest	the Nile	large	~~city~~	state	~~Australia~~	the world
Brazil	Jupiter	long	mountain	planet	the USA	the solar system

1 Sydney is the largest city in Australia.
2 Everest .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

Unit 91

enough

A

She isn't going to take a taxi.
She hasn't got **enough money**.

He can't reach the shelf.
He isn't **tall enough**.

B

enough + *noun* (**enough money** / **enough people** etc.)

- A: Is there **enough milk** in your coffee?
  B: Yes, thank you.
- We wanted to play football, but we didn't have **enough players**.
- Why don't you buy a car? You've got **enough money**. (*not* money enough)

enough *without a noun*

- I've got some money, but not **enough** to buy a car.
  (= I need more money to buy a car)
- A: Would you like some more to eat?
  B: No, thanks. I've had **enough**.
- You're always at home. You don't go out **enough**.

C

adjective + **enough** (**good enough** / **tall enough** etc.)

- A: Shall we sit outside?
  B: No, it isn't **warm enough**. (*not* enough warm)
- Can you hear the radio? Is it **loud enough** for you?
- Don't buy that coat. It's nice, but it isn't **long enough**. (= it's too short)

Remember:

enough + *noun* but *adjective* + **enough**

enough money	tall **enough**
enough time	good **enough**
enough people	old **enough**

D

We say:

enough for somebody/something	This pullover isn't **big enough for me**. I haven't got **enough money for a new car**.
enough to do something	I haven't got **enough money to buy** a new car. (*not* for buy) Is your English **good enough to have** a conversation? (*not* for have)
enough for somebody/something **to do** something	There aren't **enough chairs for everybody to sit** down.

to ... and **for** ... ➜ Unit 54 **too** ➜ Unit 92

Exercises

91.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **enough** + these words:

chairs ~~**money**~~ **paint** **wind**

1 She hasn't got enough money.
2 There aren't ..... .
3 She hasn't got ..... .
4 There isn't ..... .

91.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use these adjectives + **enough**:

big **long** **strong** ~~**tall**~~

1 He isn't tall enough.
2 The car ..... .
3 His legs aren't ..... .
4 He ..... .

91.3 Complete the sentences. Use **enough** with these words:

big **eat** ~~**loud**~~ ~~**milk**~~ **old** **practise** **space** **time** **tired**

1 'Is there enough milk in your coffee?' 'Yes, thank you.'
2 Can you hear the radio? Is it loud enough for you?
3 He can leave school if he wants – he's ..... .
4 When I visited New York last year, I didn't have ..... to see all the things I wanted to see.
5 This house isn't ..... for a large family.
6 Tina is very thin. She doesn't ..... .
7 My office is very small. There isn't ..... .
8 It's late, but I don't want to go to bed now. I'm not ..... .
9 Lisa isn't a very good tennis player because she doesn't ..... .

91.4 Complete the sentences. Use **enough** with these words:

1 We haven't got enough money to buy a new car. (money/buy)
2 This knife isn't ..... tomatoes. (sharp/cut)
3 The water wasn't ..... swimming. (warm/go)
4 Have we got ..... sandwiches? (bread/make)
5 We played well, but not ..... the game. (well/win)
6 I don't have ..... newspapers. (time/read)

too

A

His shoes are **too big** for him.

There is **too much** sugar in it.

B

too + *adjective / adverb* (**too big** / **too hard** etc.)

- Can you turn the radio down?
  It's **too loud**. (= louder than I want)
- I can't work. I'm **too tired**.
- I think you work **too hard**.

C

too much / **too many** = more than you want, more than is good:

- I don't like the weather here. There is **too much rain**. (= more rain than is good)
- Let's go to another restaurant. There are **too many people** here.
- Emily studies all the time. I think she studies **too much**.
- Traffic is a problem in this town. There are **too many cars**.

D

Compare **too** and **not enough**:

too big

- The hat is **too big** for him.
- The music is **too loud**. Can you turn it down, please?
- There's **too much sugar** in my coffee.
  (= more sugar than I want)
- I don't feel very well. I ate **too much**.

not big enough

- The hat is**n't big enough** for him. (= it's **too small**)
- The music is**n't loud enough**. Can you turn it up, please?
- There's **not enough sugar** in my coffee.
  (= I need more sugar)
- You're very thin. You don**'t** eat **enough**.

E

We say:

too ... **for** somebody/something	These shoes are **too big for me**. It's a small house – **too small for a large family**.
too ... **to do** something	I'm **too tired to go** out. (*not* for go out) It's **too cold to sit** outside.
too ... **for** somebody **to do** something	She speaks **too fast for me to understand**.

to ... and **for** ... ➜ Unit 54 **much/many** ➜ Unit 83 **enough** ➜ Unit 91

Exercises

92.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **too** + these words:

big **crowded** **fast** **heavy** ~~**loud**~~ **low**

1 The music is *too loud*.
2 The box is ..... .
3 The net is ..... .
4 She's driving ..... .
5 His jacket is ..... .
6 The museum is ..... .

92.2 Write **too** / **too much** / **too many** or **enough**.

1 You're always at home. You don't go out *enough* .
2 I don't like the weather here. There's *too much* rain.
3 I can't wait for them. I don't have ..... time.
4 There was nowhere to sit on the beach. There were ..... people.
5 You're always tired. I think you work ..... hard.
6 'Did you have ..... to eat?' 'Yes, thank you.'
7 You drink ..... coffee. It's not good for you.
8 You don't eat ..... vegetables. You should eat more.
9 I don't like the weather here. It's ..... cold.
10 Our team didn't play well. We made ..... mistakes.
11 'Would you like some milk in your tea?' 'Yes, but not ..... .'

92.3 Complete the sentences. Use **too** or **enough** with these words:

1 I couldn't work. I *was too tired* . (tired)
2 Can you turn the radio up, please? It *isn't loud enough* . (loud)
3 I don't want to walk home. It's ..... . (far)
4 Don't buy anything in that shop. It ..... . (expensive)
5 You can't put all your things in this bag. It ..... . (big)
6 I couldn't do the exercise. It ..... . (difficult)
7 Your work needs to be better. It ..... . (good)
8 I can't talk to you now. I ..... . (busy)
9 I thought the film was boring. It ..... . (long)

92.4 Complete the sentences. Use **too** (+ adjective) + **to** ... .

1 (I'm not going out / cold) It's *too cold to go out* .
2 (I'm not going to bed / early) It's ..... .
3 (they're not getting married / young) They're ..... .
4 (nobody goes out at night / dangerous)
It's ..... .
5 (don't phone Sue now / late)
It's ..... .
6 (I didn't say anything / surprised)
I was ..... .

Unit 93

He **speaks English** very well. (word order 1)

A verb + object

Sue **bought** **some new shoes** yesterday.
subject *verb* *object*

The *verb* (**bought**) and the *object* (**some new shoes**) are usually together. We say:

- Sue **bought some new shoes** yesterday. (*not* Sue bought yesterday some new shoes)

	verb + object	
He **speaks**	**English** very well.	(*not* He speaks very well English)
I **like**	**Italian food** very much.	(*not* I like very much ...)
Did you **watch**	**TV** all evening?	(*not* ... watch all evening TV)
Paul often **wears**	**a black hat**.	(*not* Paul wears often ...)
We **invited**	**a lot of people** to the party.	
I **opened**	**the door** slowly.	
Why do you always **make**	**the same mistake**?	
I'm going to **borrow**	**some money** from a friend.	

B where and when

We went **to a party** **last night**.
where? *when?*

Place (*where?*) is usually before time (*when?*). We say:

- We went **to a party last night**. (*not* We went last night to a party)

	place (*where?*) +	time (*when? how long? how often?*)	
Lisa walks	**to work**	**every day**.	(*not* ... every day to work)
Will you be	**at home**	**this evening**?	(*not* ... this evening at home)
I usually go	**to bed**	**early**.	(*not* ... early to bed)
We arrived	**at the airport**	**at 7 o'clock**.	
They've lived	**in the same house**	**for 20 years**.	
Joe's father has been	**in hospital**	**since June**.	

word order in questions ➜ Units 44–46 **always/usually/often** etc. ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

93.1 Right or wrong? Correct the sentences that are wrong.

1 Did you watch all evening TV? Did you watch TV all evening?
2 Sue bought some new shoes yesterday. OK
3 I like very much this picture. .....
4 Tom started last week his new job. .....
5 I want to speak English fluently. .....
6 Jessica bought for her friend a present. .....
7 I drink every day three cups of coffee. .....
8 Don't eat your dinner too quickly! .....
9 I borrowed from my brother fifty pounds. .....

93.2 Put the words in order.

1 (the door / opened / I / slowly) I opened the door slowly.
2 (a new phone / I / last week / got) I .....
3 (finished / Paul / quickly / his work) .....
4 (Emily / very well / French / doesn't speak) .....
5 (a lot of shopping / did / I / yesterday) .....
6 (London / do you know / well?) .....
7 (we / enjoyed / very much / the party) .....
8 (the problem / carefully / I / explained) .....
9 (we / at the airport / some friends / met) .....
10 (did you buy / in England / that jacket?) .....
11 (every day / do / the same thing / we) .....
12 (football / don't like / very much / I) .....

93.3 Put the words in order.

1 (to work / every day / walks / Lisa) Lisa walks to work every day.
2 (at the hotel / I / early / arrived) I .....
3 (goes / every year / to Italy / Julia) Julia .....
4 (we / since 1998 / here / have lived) We .....
5 (in London / Sue / in 1990 / was born)
Sue .....
6 (didn't go / yesterday / Paul / to work)
Paul .....
7 (to a wedding / last weekend / went / Helen)
Helen .....
8 (I / in bed / this morning / my breakfast / had)
I .....
9 (in September / Amy / to university / is going)
Amy .....
10 (I / a beautiful bird / this morning / in the garden / saw)
I .....
11 (many times / have been / my parents / to the United States)
My .....
12 (my umbrella / I / last night / left / in the restaurant)
I .....
13 (to the cinema / tomorrow evening / are you going?)
Are .....
14 (the children / I / took / this morning / to school)
I .....

Unit 94

always/usually/often etc. (word order 2)

A

These words (**always**/**never** etc.) go with the verb in the middle of a sentence:

always	**often**	**ever**	**rarely**	**also**	**already**	**all**
usually	**sometimes**	**never**	**seldom**	**just**	**still**	**both**

- My brother **never speaks** to me.
- She**'s always** late.
- Do you **often go** to restaurants?
- I **sometimes eat** too much. (*or* **Sometimes** I eat too much.)
- A: Don't forget to phone Laura.
  B: I**'ve already phoned** her.
- I've got three sisters. They**'re all** married.

B

Always/**never** etc. go *before* the verb:

	verb
always	**go**
often	**play**
never	**have**
etc.	etc.

- I **always drink** coffee in the morning.
  (*not* I drink always coffee)
- Helen **often goes** to London.
  (*not* Helen goes often)
- You **sometimes look** unhappy.
- They **usually have** dinner at 7 o'clock.
- We **rarely watch** TV. *or*
  We **seldom watch** TV.
- Richard is a good footballer. He **also plays** tennis and volleyball.
  (*not* He plays also tennis)
- I've got three sisters. They **all live** in London.

But **always**/**never** etc. go *after* **am**/**is**/**are**/**was**/**were**:

am	**always**
is	**often**
are	**never**
was	etc.
were	

- I **am always tired**.
  (*not* I always am tired)
- They **are never** at home during the day.
- It **is usually** very cold here in winter.
- When I was a child, I **was often** late for school.
- A: Where's Laura?
  B: She**'s still** in bed.
- I've got two brothers. They**'re both** doctors.

C

Always/**never** etc. go *between* two verbs (**have** ... **been** / **can** ... **find** etc.):

verb 1		*verb 2*
will	**always**	**go**
can	**often**	**find**
do	**never**	**remember**
etc.	etc.	etc.
have		**gone**
has		**been**
		etc.

- I **will always remember** you.
- It **doesn't often rain** here.
- **Do** you **usually go** to work by car?
- I **can never find** my keys.
- **Have** you **ever been** to Egypt?
- A: Where's Laura?
  B: She**'s just gone** out. (She's = She has)
- My friends **have all gone** to the cinema.

always/**never** + present simple ➜ Unit 5 **just**/**already** + present perfect ➜ Unit 16 **all** ➜ Units 80–81
both ➜ Unit 82 **still** ➜ Unit 95

Exercises

94.1 Read Paul's answers to the questions. Write sentences about Paul with **often/never** etc.

			Paul
1	Do you ever play tennis?	Yes, often.	Paul often plays tennis.
2	Do you get up early?	Yes, always.	He .....
3	Are you ever late for work?	No, never.	He .....
4	Do you ever get angry?	Sometimes.	.....
5	Do you ever go swimming?	Rarely.	.....
6	Are you at home in the evenings?	Yes, usually.	.....

94.2 Write these sentences with **never/always/usually** etc.

1 My brother speaks to me. (never) My brother never speaks to me.
2 Susan is polite. (always) Susan .....
3 I finish work at 5 o'clock. (usually) I .....
4 Sarah has started a new job. (just) Sarah .....
5 I go to bed before midnight. (rarely) .....
6 The bus isn't late. (usually) .....
7 I don't eat fish. (often) .....
8 I will forget what you said. (never) .....
9 Have you lost your passport? (ever) .....
10 Do you work in the same place? (still) .....
11 They stay in the same hotel. (always) .....
12 Jane doesn't work on Saturdays. (usually) .....
13 Is Tina here? (already) .....
14 What do you have for breakfast? (usually) .....
15 I can remember his name. (never) .....

94.3 Write sentences with **also**.

1 Do you play football? (tennis) Yes, and I also play tennis.
2 Do you speak Italian? (French) Yes, and I .....
3 Are you tired? (hungry) Yes, and .....
4 Have you been to England? (Ireland) Yes, ...
5 Did you buy any clothes? (some books) .....

94.4 Write sentences with **both** and **all**.

I live in London.
I play football.
I'm a student.
I've got a car.

I live in London.
I play football.
I'm a student.
I've got a car.

1 They both live in London.
They ..... football.
..... students.
..... cars.

I'm married. I was born in England.
I live in New York.

2 They ..... married.
They ..... England.
.....

still yet already

A still

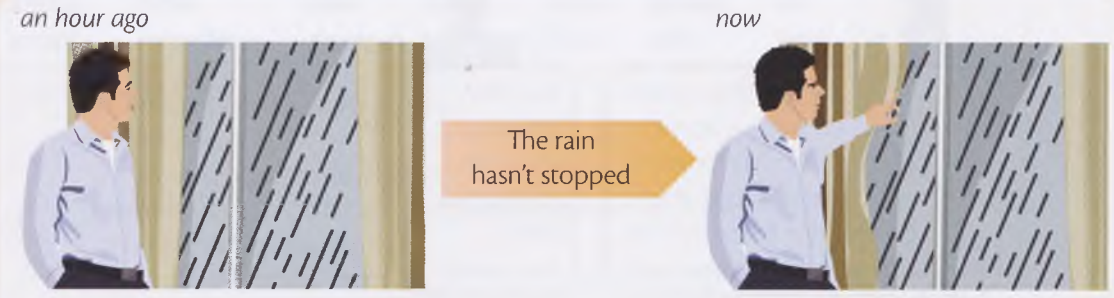

An hour ago it was raining.

It is **still** raining now.

still = something is the same as before:

- I had a lot to eat, but I'm **still** hungry. (= I was hungry before, and I'm hungry now)
- 'Did you sell your car?' 'No, I've **still** got it.'
- 'Do you **still** live in Barcelona?' 'No, I live in Madrid now.'

B yet

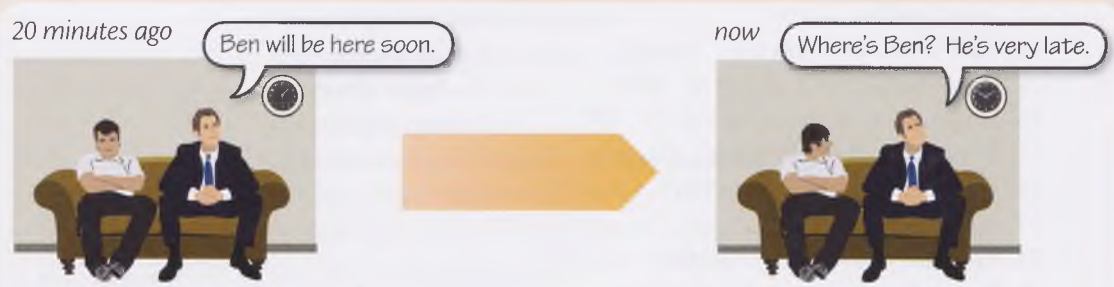

Twenty minutes ago they were waiting for Ben.

They are **still** waiting for Ben. Ben **hasn't come yet**.

yet = until now

We use **yet** in *negative* sentences (He **hasn't** come yet.) and in *questions* (**Has he** come yet?). **Yet** is usually at the end of a sentence:

- A: Where's Emma?
  B: She **isn't** here **yet**. (= she will be here, but until now she hasn't come)
- A: What are you doing this evening?
  B: I **don't** know **yet**. (= I will know later, but I don't know at the moment)
- A: Are you ready to go **yet**?
  B: **Not yet**. In a minute. (= I will be ready, but I'm not ready at the moment)
- A: Have you finished with the newspaper **yet**?
  B: No, I'm still reading it.

Compare **yet** and **still**:

- She hasn't gone **yet**. = She's **still** here. (*not* she is yet here)
- I haven't finished eating **yet**. = I'm **still** eating.

C already

already = earlier than expected:

- 'What time is Joe coming?' 'He's **already** here.' (= earlier than we expected)
- 'I'm going to tell you what happened.' 'That's not necessary. I **already** know.'
- Sarah isn't coming to the cinema with us. She has **already** seen the film.

already/yet + present perfect ➜ Unit 16 word order (**still/already**) ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

95.1 You meet Tina. The last time you saw her was two years ago. You ask her some questions with **still**.

Tina – two years ago

1 I play the piano.
2 I live in Clare Street.
3 I'm a student.
4 I've got a motorbike.
5 I go to the cinema a lot.
6 I want to be a teacher.

1 Do you still play the piano?
2 Do you .....
3 Are .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

95.2 Write three sentences for each situation. Look at the example carefully.

before *now*

1 → (before) They were waiting for the bus.
(still) They are still waiting.
(yet) The bus hasn't come yet.

2 I'm looking for a job. → (before) He was .....
(still) He .....
(yet) ..... yet.

3 07 : 00 → 07 : 30 (before) She ..... asleep.
(still) .....
(yet) .....

4 dinner → dinner (before) They .....
(still) .....
(yet) .....

95.3 Write questions with **yet**.

1 You and Sue are going out together. You are waiting for her to get ready. Perhaps she is ready now.
You ask her: Are you ready yet?
2 You are waiting for Helen to arrive. She wasn't here ten minutes ago. Perhaps she is here now.
You ask somebody: ..... Helen .....
3 Anna did an exam and is waiting for the results. Perhaps she has her results now.
You ask her: ..... you .....
4 A few days ago you spoke to Tom. He wasn't sure where to go on holiday. Perhaps he has decided now.
You ask him: .....

95.4 Complete the sentences. Use **already**.

1 What time is Joe coming? — He's already ..... here.
2 Do they want to see the film? — No, they've already seen ..... it.
3 I have to see Julia before she goes. — It's too late. She ..... .
4 Do you need a pen? — No, thanks. I ..... one.
5 Shall I pay the bill? — No, it's OK. I ..... .
6 Shall I tell Paul about the meeting? — No, he ..... . I told him.

Give me that book! Give it to me!

A

give lend pass send show

After these verbs (**give**/**lend** etc.), there are two possible structures:

give something to somebody
- I gave **the keys to Sarah**.

give somebody something
- I gave **Sarah the keys**.

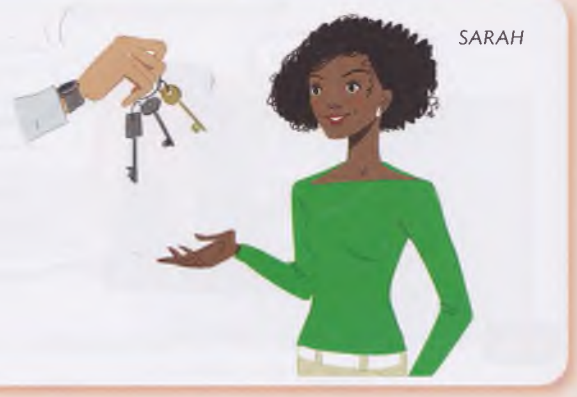

B

give **something to somebody**

		something	**to** somebody
That's my book.	**Give**	it	**to** me.
These are Sue's keys. Can you	**give**	them	**to** her?
Can you	**give**	these flowers	**to** your mother?
I	**lent**	my car	**to** a friend of mine.
Did you	**send**	the money	**to** Kate?
We've seen these photos. You	**showed**	them	**to** us.

C

give somebody something

		somebody	something
	Give	me	that book. It's mine.
Tom	**gave**	his mother	some flowers.
I	**lent**	Joe	some money.
How much money did you	**lend**	him?	
I	**sent**	you	an email. Did you get it?
Nicola	**showed**	us	her holiday photos.
Can you	**pass**	me	the salt, please?

You can also say '**buy**/**get** somebody something':
- I **bought my mother** some flowers. (= I bought some flowers **for** my mother.)
- I'm going to the shop. Can I **get you** anything? (= get anything for you)

D

You can say:
- I **gave** the keys **to Sarah**.

and I **gave Sarah** the keys.
(*but not* I gave to Sarah the keys)

- That's my book. Can you **give** it **to me**?

and Can you **give me** that book?
(*but not* Can you give to me that book?)

We prefer the first structure (**give** something **to** somebody) with **it** or **them**:
- I gave **it to her**. (*not* I gave her it)
- Here are the keys. Give **them to your father**. (*not* Give your father them)

it/**him**/**them** etc. → Unit 59

Exercises

96.1 Mark had some things that he didn't want. He gave them to different people.

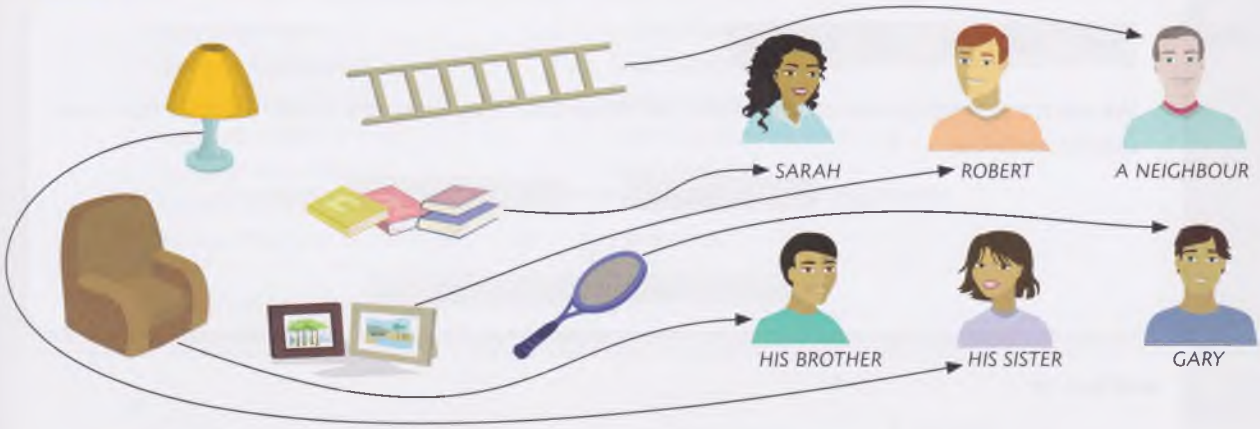

Write sentences beginning **He gave ...** .

1 What did Mark do with the armchair? He gave it to his brother.
2 What did he do with the tennis racket? He gave .....
3 What happened to the books? He .....
4 What about the lamp? .....
5 What did he do with the pictures? .....
6 And the ladder? .....

96.2 You gave presents to your friends. You decided to give them the things in the pictures. Write a sentence for each person.

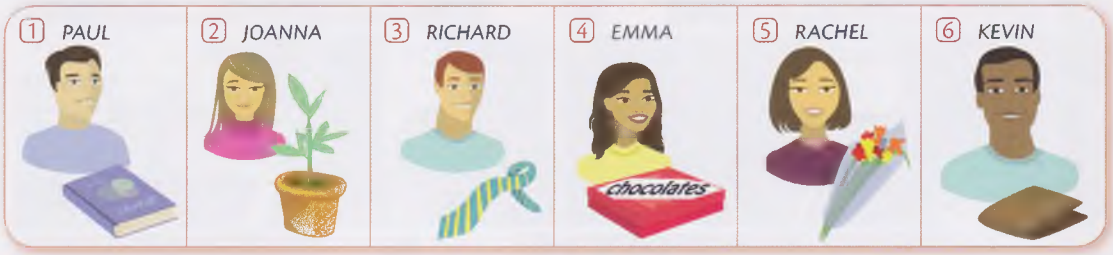

1 I gave Paul a book.
2 I gave .....
3 I .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

96.3 Write questions beginning **Can you give me ... ? / Can you pass me ... ?** etc.

1 (you want the salt) (pass) Can you pass me the salt?
2 (you need an umbrella) (lend) Can you .....
3 (you want my address) (give) Can ..... your .....
4 (you need twenty pounds) (lend) .....
5 (you want more information) (send) .....
6 (you want to see the letter) (show) .....

96.4 Which is right?

1 ~~I gave to Sarah the keys.~~ / I gave Sarah the keys. (I gave Sarah the keys *is right*)
2 I'll lend to you some money if you want. / I'll lend you some money if you want.
3 Did you send the bill me? / Did you send the bill to me?
4 I want to buy for you a present. / I want to buy you a present.
5 Can you pass to me the sugar, please? / Can you pass me the sugar, please?
6 This is Lisa's bag. Can you give it to her? / Can you give her it?
7 I showed to the policeman my identity card. / I showed the policeman my identity card.

Unit 97

and but or so because

A

and but or so because

We use these words (*conjunctions*) to join two sentences. They make one longer sentence from two shorter sentences:

sentence A The car stopped. — The driver got out. *sentence B*

The car stopped **and** the driver got out.

B

and/but/or

sentence A		*sentence B*
We stayed at home	**and**	(we)* watched television.
My sister is married	**and**	(she)* lives in London.
He doesn't like her,	**and**	she doesn't like him.
I bought a sandwich,	**but**	I didn't eat it.
It's a nice house,	**but**	it doesn't have a garden.
Do you want to go out,	**or**	are you too tired?

* It is not necessary to repeat 'we' and 'she'.

In lists, we use commas (,). We use **and** before the last thing:

- I got home, had something to eat, sat down in an armchair **and** fell asleep.
- Karen is at work, Sue has gone shopping **and** Chris is playing football.

C

so (the result of something)

sentence A		*sentence B*
It was very hot,	**so**	I opened the window.
Joe does a lot of sport,	**so**	he's very fit.
They don't like travelling,	**so**	they haven't been to many places.

D

because (the reason for something)

sentence A		*sentence B*
I opened the window	**because**	it was very hot.
Joe can't come to the party	**because**	he's going away.
Lisa is hungry	**because**	she didn't have breakfast.

Because is also possible at the beginning:

- **Because it was very hot**, I opened the window.

E

In these examples there is more than one conjunction:

- It was late **and** I was tired, **so** I went to bed.
- I always enjoy visiting London, **but** I wouldn't like to live there **because** it's too big.

when/while/before etc. ➜ Unit 98

Exercises

97.1 Write sentences. Choose from the boxes and use **and/but/or**.

~~I stayed at home.~~	I didn't have your number.
~~I bought a sandwich.~~	Shall I wait here?
I went to the window.	~~I didn't eat it.~~
I wanted to phone you.	I went by bus this morning.
I jumped into the river.	~~I watched TV.~~
I usually drive to work.	I swam to the other side.
Do you want me to come with you?	I looked out.

1 I stayed at home and watched TV.
2 I bought a sandwich, but I didn't eat it.
3 I .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....

97.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **and/but/so/because**.

1 It was very hot, so he opened the window.
2 They couldn't play tennis .....
3 They went to the museum, ...
4 Ben wasn't hungry, ...
5 Helen was late .....
6 Sue said .....

97.3 Write sentences about what you did yesterday. Use **and/but** etc.

1 (and) In the evening I stayed at home and studied.
2 (because) I went to bed very early because I was tired.
3 (but) .....
4 (and) .....
5 (so) .....
6 (because) .....

Unit 98

When ...

A

When I went out, it was raining.

This sentence has two parts:

when I went out + **it was raining**

You can say:

- **When I went out**, it was raining. *or*
  It was raining when I went out.

We write a comma (,) if **When** ... is at the beginning:

- **When** you're tired, don't drive.
  Don't drive **when** you're tired.
- Helen was 25 **when** she got married.
  When Helen got married, she was 25.

We do the same in sentences with **before/while/after**:

- Always look both ways **before** you cross the road.
  Before you cross the road, always look both ways.
- **While** I was waiting for the bus, it began to rain.
  It began to rain **while** I was waiting for the bus.
- He never played football again **after** he broke his leg.
  After he broke his leg, he never played football again.

B

When I am ... / **When I go** ... etc.

Next week Sarah is going to New York.
She has a friend, Lisa, who lives in New York,
but Lisa is also going away – to Mexico.
So they won't see each other in New York.

Lisa **will be** in Mexico **when** Sarah **is** in New York.

The time is *future* (**next week**) but we say:
... **when** Sarah **is** in New York.
(*not* when Sarah will be)

We use the *present* (**I am** / **I go** etc.) with a *future meaning* after **when**:

- **When** I **get** home this evening, I'm going to have a shower.
  (*not* When I will get home)
- I can't talk to you now. I'll talk to you later **when** I **have** more time.

We do the same after **before/while/after/until**:

- Please close the window **before** you **go** out.
  (*not* before you will go)
- Rachel is going to stay in our flat **while** we **are** away.
  (*not* while we will be)
- I'll wait here **until** you **come** back.
  (*not* until you will come back)

if and **when** → Unit 99 **until** → Unit 104 **before/while/after** → Unit 105

Exercises

98.1 Write sentences beginning with **when**. Choose from the boxes.

When +		+
~~I went out~~	I turned off the TV	
I'm tired	I always go to the same place	
I knocked on the door	there were no rooms	
I go on holiday	~~it was raining~~	
the programme ended	there was no answer	
I got to the hotel	I like to watch TV	

1 When I went out, it was raining.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

98.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

somebody broke into the house | **before they came here** | **when they heard the news**
~~before they crossed the road~~ | **while they were away** | **they didn't believe me**
they went to live in New Zealand

1 They looked both ways before they crossed the road.
2 They were very surprised .....
3 After they got married, ...
4 Their house was damaged in a storm .....
5 Where did they live .....?
6 While we were asleep, ...
7 When I told them what happened, ...

98.3 Which is right?

1 ~~I stay~~ / I'll stay here until you come / ~~you'll come~~ back. (I'll stay *and* you come *are right*)
2 I'm going to bed when I finish / I'll finish my work.
3 We must do something before it's / it will be too late.
4 Helen is going away soon. I'm / I'll be very sad when she leaves / she'll leave.
5 Don't go out yet. Wait until the rain stops / will stop.
6 We come / We'll come and visit you when we're / we'll be in England again.
7 When I come to see you tomorrow, I bring / I'll bring our holiday photos.
8 I'm going to Paris next week. I hope to see some friends of mine while I'm / I'll be there.
9 Let's go out for a walk before it gets / it will get dark.
10 I'm not ready yet. I tell / I'll tell you when I'm / I'll be ready.

98.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 Can you close the window before you go out.....?
2 What are you going to do when .....?
3 When I have enough money, ...
4 I'll wait for you while .....
5 When I start my new job, ...
6 Will you be here when .....?

Unit 99

If we go ... If you see ... etc.

A

If can be at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle:

If at the beginning

If we go by bus,	it will be cheaper.
If you don't hurry,	you'll miss the train.
If you're hungry,	have something to eat.
If the phone rings,	can you answer it, please?

if in the middle

It will be cheaper	**if** we go by bus.
You'll miss the train	**if** you don't hurry.
I'm going to the concert	**if** I can get a ticket.
Is it OK	**if** I use your phone?

In conversation, we often use the **if**-part of the sentence alone:

- 'Are you going to the concert?' 'Yes, **if I can get a ticket**.'

B

If you see Ann tomorrow ... etc.

After **if**, we use the present (*not* will). We say '**if** you **see** ...' (*not* if you will see):

- **If** you **see** Ann tomorrow, can you ask her to call me?
- **If** I'**m** late this evening, don't wait for me. (*not* if I will be)
- What shall we do **if** it **rains**? (*not* if it will rain)
- **If** I **don't feel** well tomorrow, I'll stay at home.

C

if and **when**

If I go out = it is possible that I will go out, but I'm not sure:

- A: Are you going out later?
- B: Maybe. **If I go out**, I'll close the windows.

When I go out = I'm going out (for sure):

- A: Are you going out later?
- B: Yes, I am. **When I go out**, I'll close the windows.

Compare **when** and **if**:

- **When** I get home this evening, I'm going to have a shower.
- **If** I'm late this evening, don't wait for me. (*not* When I'm late)
- We're going to play tennis **if** it doesn't rain. (*not* when it doesn't rain)

when ➜ Unit 98 **if I had / if we went** ... etc. ➜ Unit 100

Exercises

99.1 Write sentences beginning with **if**. Choose from the boxes.

If +		+	
	~~you don't hurry~~		we can have lunch now
	you pass the exam		you can have them
	you fail the exam		I can lend you some
	you don't want this magazine		you'll get a certificate
	you want those pictures		~~you'll be late~~
	you're busy now		I'll throw it away
	you're hungry		we can talk later
	you need money		you can do it again

1 If you don't hurry, you'll be late.
2 If you pass .....
3 If .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

99.2 Which is right?

1 If I'm / ~~I'll be~~ late this evening, don't wait for me. (I'm *is right*)
2 Will you call me if I give / I'll give you my phone number?
3 If there is / will be a fire, the alarm will ring.
4 If I don't see you tomorrow morning, I call / I'll call you in the evening.
5 I'm / I'll be surprised if Michael and Jane get / will get married.
6 Do you go / Will you go to the party if they invite / they'll invite you?

99.3 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 I'm going to the concert if I can get a ticket.
2 If you don't hurry, you'll miss the train.
3 I don't want to disturb you if .....
4 If you go to bed early tonight, ...
5 Turn the TV off if .....
6 Tina won't pass her exams if .....
7 If I have time tomorrow, ...
8 We can go to the beach tomorrow if .....
9 I'll be surprised if .....

99.4 Write **if** or **when**.

1 If I'm late this evening, don't wait for me.
2 I'm going to do some shopping now. ..... I come back, we can have lunch.
3 I'm thinking of going to see Tom. ..... I go, will you come with me?
4 ..... you don't want to go out tonight, we can stay at home.
5 Is it OK ..... I close the window?
6 John is still at school. ..... he leaves school, he wants to go to college.
7 Shall we have a picnic tomorrow ..... the weather is good?
8 We're going to Madrid next week. We don't have anywhere to stay – we hope to find a hotel ..... we get there. I don't know what we'll do ..... we don't find a room.

If I had ... If we went ... etc.

A

Dan likes fast cars, but he doesn't have one. He doesn't have enough money.

If he **had** the money, he **would buy** a fast car.

Usually **had** is *past*, but in this sentence **had** is *not* past. **If** he **had** the money = if he had the money *now* (but he doesn't have it).

If	I you it they	**had** / **knew** / **lived** (etc.) ... , **didn't have** / **didn't know** (etc.) ... , **were** ... , **could** ... ,	I you it they	**would** ... **wouldn't** ... **could** ... **couldn't** ...

You can say:

- **If he had** the money, he would buy a car.

or He would buy a car **if he had** the money.

I'd / **she'd** / **they'd** etc. = I **would** / she **would** / they **would** etc. :

- I don't know the answer. **If** I **knew** the answer, I**'d tell** you.
- It's raining, so we're not going out. We**'d get** wet **if** we **went** out.
- Jane lives in a city. She likes cities. She **wouldn't be** happy **if** she **lived** in the country.
- **If** you **didn't have** a job, what **would** you **do**? (but you *have* a job)
- I'm sorry I can't help you. I**'d help** you **if** I **could**. (but I *can't*)
- **If** we **had** a car, we **could travel** more. (but we *don't* have a car, so we *can't* travel much)

B

If (I) **was/were** ...

You can say: **if** I/he/she/it **was** *or*
if I/he/she/it **were**

- It's not a very nice place. I wouldn't go there **if I were you**. (*or* ... **if I was** you)
- It would be nice **if the weather was** better. (*or* ... **if the weather were** better)
- What would Tom do **if he were** here? (*or* ... **if he was** here)

C

Compare:

if I have / **if it is** etc.

- I must go and see Helen. **If** I **have** time, I **will go** today. (= maybe I'll have time, so maybe I'll go)
- I like that jacket. I**'ll buy** it **if** it **isn't** too expensive. (= maybe it will not be too expensive)
- I**'ll help** you **if** I **can**. (= maybe I can)

if I had / **if it was** etc.

- I must go and see Helen. **If** I **had** time, I **would go** today. (= I don't have time today, so I will not go)
- I like this jacket, but it's very expensive. I**'d buy** it **if** it **wasn't** so expensive. (= it is expensive, so I'm not going to buy it)
- I**'d help** you **if** I **could**, but I can't.

if we go / **if I have** / **if I can** etc. ➜ Unit 99

Exercises

100.1 Complete the sentences.

1 I don't know the answer. If I ...knew... the answer, I'd tell you.
2 I have a car. I couldn't travel very much if I ...didn't have... a car.
3 I don't want to go out. If I ..... to go out, I'd go.
4 We don't have a key. If we ..... a key, we could get into the house.
5 I'm not hungry. I would have something to eat if I ..... hungry.
6 Sue enjoys her work. She wouldn't do it if she ..... it.
7 He can't speak any foreign languages. If he ..... speak a foreign language, perhaps he would get a better job.
8 You don't try hard enough. If you ..... harder, you would have more success.
9 I have a lot to do today. If I ..... so much to do, we could go out.

100.2 Put the verb in the correct form.

1 If ...he had... the money, he would buy a fast car. (he/have)
2 Jane likes living in a city. ...She wouldn't be... happy if she lived in the country. (she/not/be)
3 If I wanted to learn Italian, ... to Italy. (I go)
4 I haven't told Helen what happened. She'd be angry if ..... . (she/know)
5 If ..... a map, I could show you where I live. (we/have)
6 What would you do if ..... a lot of money? (you/win)
7 It's not a very good hotel. ..... there if I were you. (I/not/stay)
8 If ..... nearer London, we would go there more often. (we/live)
9 It's a shame you have to go now. ..... nice if you had more time. (it/be)
10 I'm not going to take the job. I'd take it if ..... better. (the salary/be)
11 I don't know anything about cars. If the car broke down, ... what to do. (I/not/know)
12 If you could change one thing in the world, what ..... ? (you/change)

100.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb in the correct form.

we (have) a bigger house	**~~it (be) a bit cheaper~~**
we (buy) a bigger house	**the air (be) cleaner**
we (have) some pictures on the wall	**I (watch) it**
every day (be) the same	**I (be) bored**

1 I'd buy that jacket if ...it was a bit cheaper... .
2 If there was a good film on TV tonight, ...
3 This room would be nicer if ..... .
4 If there wasn't so much traffic, ...
5 Life would be boring if ..... .
6 If I had nothing to do, ...
7 We could invite all our friends to stay if ..... .
8 If we had more money, ...

100.4 Complete the sentences. Use your own ideas.

1 I'd be happier if ...I could get a better job... .
2 If I could go anywhere in the world, ...
3 I wouldn't be very happy if ..... .
4 I'd buy ..... if ..... .
5 If I saw an accident in the street, ...
6 The world would be a better place if ..... .

Unit 101

a person **who** ... a thing **that/which** ... (relative clauses 1)

A

I met a woman. **She** can speak six languages.
2 sentences

she → who

1 sentence
I met **a woman who** can speak six languages.

JACK

Jack was wearing a hat. **It** was too big for him.
2 sentences

it → that *or* **which**

1 sentence
Jack was wearing **a hat that** was too big for him.
or
Jack was wearing **a hat which** was too big for him.

B

who is for people (not things):

A thief is **a person**	**who** steals things.	
Do you know **anybody**	**who** can play the piano?	
The man	**who** phoned	didn't give his name.
The people	**who** work in the office	are very friendly.

C

that is for things or people:

An airplane is **a machine**	**that** flies.	
Emma lives in **a house**	**that** is 400 years old.	
The people	**that** work in the office	are very friendly.

You can use **that** for people, but **who** is more usual.

D

which is for things (not people):

An airplane is **a machine**	**which** flies. (*not* a machine who ...)
Emma lives in **a house**	**which** is 400 years old.

Do not use **which** for people:

- Do you remember **the woman who** was playing the piano at the party? (*not* the woman which ...)

who and **which** in questions ➜ **Units 45, 47** **the people we met** (relative clauses 2) ➜ **Unit 102**

Exercises

101.1 Choose from the boxes and write sentences: **A ... is a person who ...** . Use a dictionary if necessary.

~~a thief~~	a dentist
a butcher	a fool
a musician	a genius
a patient	a liar

doesn't tell the truth	is ill in hospital
takes care of your teeth	~~steals things~~
is very intelligent	does stupid things
plays a musical instrument	sells meat

1 A thief is a person who steals things.
2 A butcher is a person .....
3 A musician .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

101.2 Make one sentence from two.

1 (A man phoned. He didn't give his name.)
The man who phoned didn't give his name.

2 (A woman opened the door. She was wearing a yellow dress.)
The woman ..... a yellow dress.

3 (Some students took the exam. Most of them passed.)
Most of the students .....

4 (A policeman stopped our car. He wasn't very friendly.)
The .....

101.3 Write **who** or **which**.

1 I met a woman ....who.... can speak six languages.
2 What's the name of the man ..... has just started work in your office?
3 What's the name of the river ..... flows through the town?
4 Where is the picture ..... was hanging on the wall?
5 Do you know anybody ..... wants to buy a car?
6 You always ask questions ..... are difficult to answer.
7 I have a friend ..... is very good at repairing cars.
8 I think everybody ..... went to the party enjoyed it very much.
9 Why does he always wear clothes ..... are too small for him?

101.4 Right or wrong? Correct the mistakes.

1 A thief is a person which steals things. ....a person who steals....
2 An airplane is a machine that flies. ....OK....
3 A coffee maker is a machine who makes coffee. .....
4 What's happened to the money that was on the table? .....
5 I don't like people which never stop talking. .....
6 I know somebody that can help you. .....
7 I know somebody who works in that shop. .....
8 Correct the sentences who are wrong. .....
9 My neighbour bought a car who cost £40,000 .....

Unit 102

the people **we met** the hotel **you stayed at** (relative clauses 2)

A

The man is carrying a bag.
It's very heavy. } *2 sentences*

The bag (**that**) **he is carrying** is very heavy.
1 sentence

KATE

Kate won some money.
What is she going to do with it? } *2 sentences*

What is Kate going to do with **the money** (**that**) **she won**?
1 sentence

You can say:

- The bag **that** he is carrying ... *or* The bag he is carrying ... (with or without **that**)
- ... the money **that** Kate won? *or* ... the money Kate won?

You do not need **that/who/which** when it is the *object*:

subject	*verb*	*object*	
The man	was carrying	a bag	→ **the bag** (that) **the man was carrying**
Kate	won	some money	→ **the money** (that) **Kate won**
You	wanted	some books	→ **the books** (that) **you wanted**
We	met	some people	→ **the people** (who) **we met**

- Did you find **the books you wanted**? (*or* ... the books **that** you wanted?)
- **The people we met** were very friendly. (*or* The people **who** we met ...)
- **Everything I said** was true. (*or* Everything **that** I said ...)

We say:

- The film **we saw** was very good. (*not* The film we saw it was ...)

B

Sometimes there is a *preposition* (**to/in/at** etc.) after the verb:

Eve **is talking to** a man.	→	Do you know **the man Eve is talking to**?
We **stayed at** a hotel.	→	**The hotel we stayed at** was near the station.
I **told** you **about** some books.	→	These are **the books I told you about**.

We say:

... the books **I told you about**. (*not* the books I told you about them)

You can say '(a place) **where** ...':

- **The hotel where** we stayed was near the station. (= The hotel we stayed at ...)

C

You must use **who/that/which** when it is the *subject* (→ Unit 101):

- I met a woman **who can speak** six languages. (**who** is the subject)
- Jack was wearing a hat **that was** too big for him. (**that** is the subject)

a person who ... , **a thing that/which** ... (relative clauses 1) ➜ Unit 101

Exercises

102.1 Make one sentence from two.

1 (Helen took some pictures. Have you seen them?)
Have you seen the pictures Helen took?
2 (You gave me a pen. I've lost it.)
I've lost the .....
3 (Sue is wearing a jacket. I like it.)
I like the .....
4 (I gave you some flowers. Where are they?)
Where are the ..... ?
5 (He told us a story. I didn't believe it.)
I .....
6 (You bought some oranges. How much were they?)
How ..... ?

102.2 Make one sentence from two.

1 (I was carrying a bag. It was very heavy.)
The bag I was carrying was very heavy.
2 (You cooked a meal. It was excellent.)
The .....
3 (I'm wearing shoes. They aren't very comfortable.)
The shoes .....
4 (We invited some people to dinner. They didn't come.)
The .....

102.3 You ask your friend some questions. Complete the sentences.

1 Your friend stayed at a hotel. You ask:
What's the name of the hotel you stayed at ..... ?
2 Your friend was talking to some people. You ask:
Who are the people ..... ?
3 Your friend was looking for some keys. You ask:
Did you find the ..... ?
4 Your friend is going to a party. You ask:
Where is the ..... ?
5 Your friend was talking about a film. You ask:
What's the name of ..... ?
6 Your friend is listening to some music. You ask:
What's that ..... ?
7 Your friend applied for a job. You ask:
Did you get ..... ?

102.4 Complete the questions. Use **where.**

1 John stayed at a hotel. You ask him:
Did you like the hotel where you stayed ..... ?
2 Sue had dinner in a restaurant. You ask her:
What's the name of the restaurant ..... ?
3 Sarah lives in a village. You ask her:
How big is the ..... ?
4 Richard works in a factory. You ask him:
Where exactly is ..... ?

Unit 103

at 8 o'clock on Monday in April

A

at

at	8 o'clock 10.30 midnight etc.

- I start work **at 8 o'clock**.
- The shops close **at 5.30**.

on

on	Sunday(s) / Monday(s) etc. 25 April / 6 June etc. New Year's Day etc.

- Bye! I'll see you **on Friday**.
- What do you usually do **on Sundays**?
- The concert is **on 22 November**.

in

in	April/June etc. 2013/1988 etc. summer/spring etc.

- I'm going on holiday **in October**.
- Emma was born **in 1995**.
- The park is beautiful **in spring**.

B

We say:

at the weekend
at night
at Christmas
at the end of ...
at the moment

- Are you going away **at the weekend**?
- I can't sleep **at night**.
- Where will you be **at Christmas**? (*but* **on** Christmas **Day**)
- I'm going on holiday **at the end of** October.
- Are you busy **at the moment**?

C

in the morning / in the afternoon / in the evening

- I always feel good **in the morning**.
- Do you often go out **in the evening**?

but

on Monday morning / on Tuesday afternoon / on Friday evening / on Saturday night etc. :

- I'm meeting Jackie **on Monday morning**.
- Are you doing anything **on Saturday night**?

D

We do *not* use **at/on/in** before:

this ... (**this morning** / **this week** etc.)
last ... (**last August** / **last week** etc.)
next ... (**next Monday** / **next week** etc.)
every ... (**every day** / **every week** etc.)

- Are you going out **this evening**?
- We go on holiday **every summer**. **Last summer** we went to Canada.
- I'm leaving **next Monday**. (*not* on next Monday)

E

in five minutes / in a few days / in six weeks / in two years etc.

now **in five minutes**

- Hurry! The train leaves **in five minutes**. (= it leaves five minutes from now)
- Bye! I'll see you **in a few days**. (= a few days from now)

in/on/at (places) ➜ **Units 106–107**

Exercises

103.1 Write **at/on/in**.

1 ...on... 6 June
2 ...in... the evening
3 ..... half past two
4 ..... Wednesday
5 2007
6 ..... September
7 ..... 24 September
8 ..... Thursday
9 ..... 11.45
10 ..... Christmas Day
11 ..... Christmas
12 ..... the morning
13 ..... Friday morning
14 ..... Saturday night
15 ..... night
16 ..... the end of the day
17 ..... the weekend
18 ..... winter

103.2 Write **at/on/in**.

1 Bye! See you ...on... Friday.
2 Where were you ..... 28 February?
3 I got up ..... 8 o'clock this morning.
4 I like getting up early ..... the morning.
5 My sister got married ..... May.
6 Jessica and I first met ..... 2006.
7 Did you go out ..... Tuesday?
8 Did you go out ..... Tuesday evening?
9 Do you often go out ..... the evening?
10 Let's meet ..... 7.30 tomorrow evening.
11 I often go away ..... the weekend.
12 I'm starting my new job ..... 3 July.
13 We often go to the beach ..... summer.
14 George isn't here ..... the moment.
15 Jane's birthday is ..... December.
16 Do you work ..... Saturdays?
17 The company started ..... 1999.
18 I like to look at the stars ..... night.
19 I'll send you the money ..... the end of the month.

103.3 Look at Lisa's diary for next week and complete the sentences.

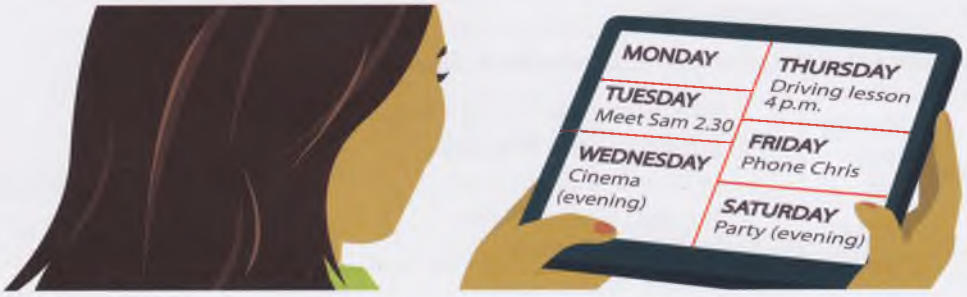

1 Lisa is going to the cinema ...on Wednesday evening...
2 She has to phone Chris .....
3 She isn't doing anything special .....
4 She's got a driving lesson .....
5 She's going to a party .....
6 She's meeting Sam .....

103.4 Write sentences with **in ...** .

1 It's 8.25 now. The train leaves at 8.30. ...The train leaves in five minutes.
2 It's Monday today. I'll call you on Thursday. I'll ..... days.
3 Today is 14 June. My exam is on 28 June. My .....
4 It's 3 o'clock now. Tom will be here at 3.30. Tom .....

103.5 Write **at/on/in** if necessary. Sometimes the sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 I'm going ...on... Friday.
2 I'm going ...–... next Friday. *(already complete)*
3 I always feel tired ..... the evening.
4 Will you be at home ..... this evening?
5 We went to France ..... last summer.
6 Laura was born ..... 1997.
7 What are you doing ..... the weekend?
8 I phone Robert ..... every Sunday.
9 Shall we play tennis ..... next Sunday?
10 I can't go to the party ..... Sunday.
11 I'm going out. I'll be back ..... an hour.
12 I don't often go out ..... night.

Unit 104

from ... to until since for

A

from ... **to** ...

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **to** 2010.
- I work **from** Monday **to** Friday.

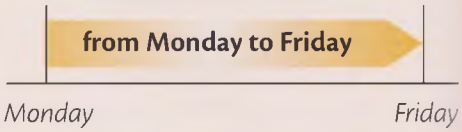

You can also say **from** ... **until** ... :

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **until** 2010.

B

until ...

until	Friday December 3 o'clock I come back

- They're going away tomorrow.
  They'll be away **until Friday**.
- I went to bed early, but I wasn't tired.
  I read a book **until 3 o'clock**.
- Wait here **until I come back**.

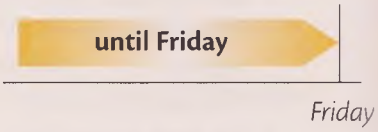

You can also say **till** (= **until**):

- Wait here **till** I come back.

Compare:

- '**How long** will you be away?' '**Until** Monday.'
- '**When** are you coming back?' '**On** Monday.'

C

since + a time in the past (to now)

We use **since** after the *present perfect* (**have been** / **have done** etc.):

since	Monday 1998 2.30 I arrived

- Joe is in hospital. He has been in hospital **since Monday**.
  (= from Monday to now)
- Sue and Dave have been married **since 1998**.
  (= from 1998 to now)
- It has been raining **since I arrived**.

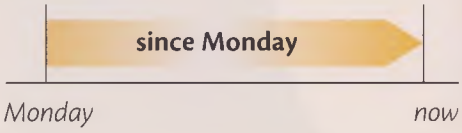

Compare:

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **to** 2010.
  We lived in Japan **until** 2010.
- Now we live in Canada. We came to Canada **in** 2010.
  We have lived in Canada **since** 2010. (= from 2010 until now)

We use **for** (*not* **since**) + a period of time (**three days** / **ten years** etc.):

- Joe has been in hospital **for three days**. (*not* since three days)

D

for + a period of time

for	three days ten years five minutes a long time

- Gary stayed with us **for three days**.
- I'm going away **for a few weeks**.
- I'm going away **for the weekend**.
- They've been married **for ten years**.

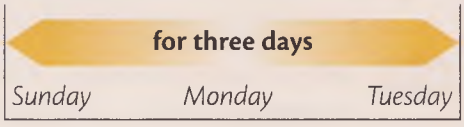

present perfect + **for/since** ➜ Units 18–19 present perfect (**I have lived**) and past simple (**I lived**) ➜ Unit 20

Exercises

104.1 Read the information and complete the sentences. Use **from ... to / until / since.**

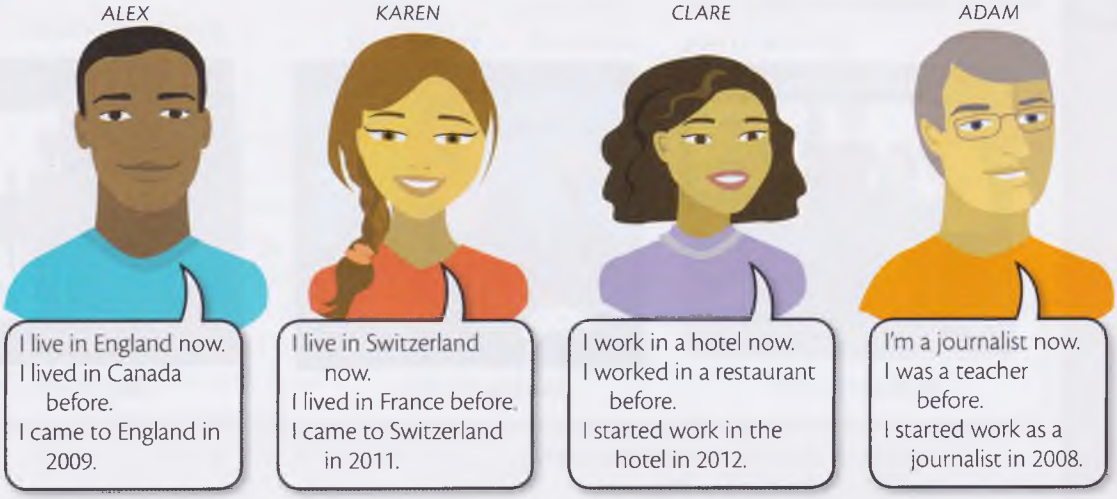

1 (Alex / Canada / 2001 → 2009) Alex lived in Canada from 2001 to 2009.
2 (Alex / Canada / → 2009) Alex lived in Canada ..... 2009.
3 (Alex / England / 2009 →) Alex has lived in England .....
4 (Karen / France / → 2011) Karen lived in .....
5 (Karen / Switzerland / 2011 →) Karen has lived in .....
6 (Clare / a restaurant / 2010 → 2012) Clare worked ..... 2010 .....
7 (Clare / a hotel / 2012 →) Clare has worked .....
8 (Adam / a teacher / 2002 → 2008) Adam was a .....
9 (Adam / a journalist / 2008 →) Adam has been .....

Now write sentences with **for.**

10 (Alex / Canada) Alex lived in Canada for eight years.
11 (Alex / England) Alex has lived in England .....
12 (Karen / Switzerland) Karen has .....
13 (Clare / a restaurant) Clare worked .....
14 (Clare / a hotel) Clare .....
15 (Adam / a teacher) Adam .....
16 (Adam / a journalist) Adam .....

104.2 Write **until/since/for.**

1 Sue and Dave have been married since 1998.
2 I was tired this morning. I stayed in bed ..... 10 o'clock.
3 We waited for Sue ..... half an hour, but she didn't come.
4 'Have you just arrived?' 'No, I've been here ..... half past seven.'
5 'How long did you stay at the party last night?' '..... midnight.'
6 Dan and I are good friends. We have known each other ..... ten years.
7 I'm tired. I'm going to lie down ..... a few minutes.
8 Don't open the door of the train ..... the train stops.
9 This is my house. I've lived here ..... I was seven years old.
10 Jack has gone away. He'll be away ..... Wednesday.
11 Next week I'm going to Paris ..... three days.
12 I usually finish work at 5.30, but sometimes I work ..... six.
13 'How long have you known Anna?' '..... we were at school together.'
14 Where have you been? I've been waiting for you ..... twenty minutes.

Unit 105

before after during while

A before, during and after

before the film

during the film

after the film

- Everybody feels nervous **before exams**.
- I fell asleep **during the film**.
- We were tired **after our visit** to the museum.

B before, while and after

before we played

while we were playing

after we played

- Don't forget to close the window **before you go out**.
- I often fall asleep **while I'm reading**.
- They went home **after they did the shopping**.

C during, while and for

We use **during** + *noun* (during **the film**). We use **while** + *verb* (while **I'm reading**):

- We didn't speak **during the meal**.

but We didn't speak **while we were eating**. (*not* during we were eating)

Use **for** (*not* during) + *a period of time* (**three days** / **two hours** / **a year** etc.):

- We played tennis **for two hours**. (*not* during two hours)
- I lived in London **for a year**. (*not* during a year)

D

You can use **before/after** + **-ing** (**before going** / **after eating** etc.):

- I always have breakfast **before going** to work. (= before I go to work)
- **After doing** the shopping, they went home. (= after they did)

We say **before going** (*not* before to go), **after doing** (*not* after to do) etc. :

- **Before eating** the apple, I washed it carefully. (*not* before to eat)
- I started work **after reading** the newspaper. (*not* after to read)

past continuous (**I was -ing**) ➜ Units 13–14 **before/after/while/when** ➜ Unit 98 **for** ➜ Unit 104
prepositions + **-ing** ➜ Unit 112

Exercises

105.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

after	**during**	+	**lunch**	**the end**	**they went to Australia**
before	**while**		**the concert**	**~~the exam~~**	**you're waiting**
			the course	**the night**	

1 Everybody was nervous ...before the exam... .
2 I usually work four hours in the morning, and another three hours ..... .
3 The film was really boring. We left ..... .
4 Anna went to evening classes to learn German. She learnt a lot ..... .
5 My aunt and uncle lived in London ..... .
6 A: Somebody broke a window ..... . Did you hear anything?
B: No, I was asleep all the time.
7 Would you like to sit down .....?
8 A: Are you going home .....?
B: Yes, I have to get up early tomorrow.

105.2 Write **during/while/for.**

1 We didn't speak ...while... we were eating.
2 We didn't speak ...during... the meal.
3 Gary called ..... you were out.
4 Amy went to Italy and stayed in Rome ..... five days.
5 I didn't check my email ..... I was away.
6 The students looked very bored ..... the lesson.
7 I fell out of bed ..... I was asleep.
8 Last night I watched TV ..... three hours.
9 I don't usually watch TV ..... the day.
10 Do you ever watch TV ..... you are having dinner?

105.3 Complete the sentences. Use **-ing (doing, having** etc.).

1 After ...doing... the shopping, they went home.
2 I felt sick after ..... too much chocolate.
3 I'm going to ask you a question. Think carefully before ..... it.
4 I felt awful when I got up this morning. I felt better after ..... a shower.
5 After ..... my work, I left the office and went home.
6 Before ..... to a foreign country, it's good to try and learn a little of the language.

105.4 Write sentences with **before + -ing** and **after + -ing.**

1 They did the shopping. Then they went home.
After ...doing the shopping, they went home.

2 John left school. Then he worked in a bookshop for two years.
John worked .....

3 I read for a few minutes. Then I went to sleep.
Before .....

4 We walked for three hours. We were very tired.
After .....

5 Let's have a cup of coffee. Then we'll go out.
Let's .....

Unit 106

in at on (places 1)

A in

in a room
in a shop
in a car
in the water

in a garden
in a town
in the city centre
in Brazil

- 'Where's David?' '**In the kitchen**. / **In the garden**. / **In London**.'
- What's **in that box** / **in that bag** / **in that cupboard**?
- Rachel works **in a shop** / **in a bank** / **in a factory**.
- I went for a swim **in the river** / **in the pool** / **in the sea**.
- Milan is **in the north of Italy**. Naples is **in the south**.
- I live **in a big city**, but I'd like to live in the country.

B at

at the bus stop

at the door

at the traffic lights

at her desk

- There's somebody **at the bus stop** / **at the door**.
- The car is waiting **at the traffic lights**.
- Vicky is working **at her desk**.

at the top / **at the bottom** / **at the end** (of ...):

- Write your name **at the top of the page**.
- My house is **at the end of the street**.

at the top (of the page)

at the bottom (of the page)

C on

on a shelf
on a plate
on a balcony
on the floor
etc.

on a wall
on a door
on the ceiling
etc.

- There are some books **on the shelf** and some pictures **on the wall**.
- There are a lot of apples **on those trees**.
- Don't sit **on the grass**. It's wet.
- There is a stamp **on the envelope**.

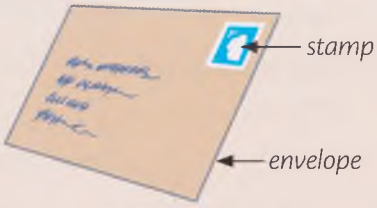

on a horse / **on a bicycle** / **on a motorbike**:

- Who is that man **on the motorbike**?

the top / **the bottom** → Unit 70 **at/on/in** (time) → Unit 103 **in/at/on** (places) → Unit 107

Exercises

106.1 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use **in/at/on**.

1 Where is he? In the kitchen.
2 Where are the shoes? .....
3 Where is the pen? .....
4 Where is the clock? .....
5 Where is the bus? .....
6 Where are the horses? .....
7 Where are they standing? .....
8 Where is she swimming? .....
9 Where is he standing? .....
10 Where is the spider? .....
11 Where is he sitting? .....
12 Where is she sitting? .....

106.2 Write **in/at/on**.

1 Don't sit ....on.... the grass. It's wet.
2 What do you have ..... your bag?
3 Look! There's a man ..... the roof. What's he doing?
4 There are a lot of fish ..... this river.
5 Our house is number 45 – the number is ..... the door.
6 'Is the hospital near here?' 'Yes, turn left ..... the traffic lights.'
7 It's difficult to park ..... the centre of town. It's better to take the bus.
8 My sister lives ..... Brussels.
9 There's a small park ..... the top of the hill.
10 I think I heard the doorbell. There's somebody ..... the door.
11 Munich is a large city ..... the south of Germany.
12 There are a few shops ..... the end of the street.
13 It's difficult to carry a lot of things ..... a bike.
14 I looked at the list of names. My name was ..... the bottom.
15 There is a mirror ..... the wall ..... the living room.

Unit 107

in at on (places 2)

A in

in bed
in hospital
in the sky
in the world
in a newspaper / **in** a book
in a photo(graph) / **in** a picture
in a car / **in** a taxi
in the middle (of ...)

- 'Where's Kate?' 'She's **in bed**.'
- David's father is ill. He's **in hospital**.
- I like to look at the stars **in the sky** at night.
- What's the largest city **in the world**?
- I read about the accident **in the newspaper**.
- You look sad **in this picture**.
- Did you come here **in your car**?
- There's a big tree **in the middle** of the garden.

B at

at home
at work / **at** school
at university / **at** college
at the station / **at** the airport
at Lisa's (house) / **at** my sister's (house) / **at** the doctor's / **at** the hairdresser's etc.
at a concert / **at** a party / **at** a football match etc.

- Will you be **at home** this evening?
- 'Where's Kate?' 'She's **at work**.'
- Helen is studying law **at university**.
- I'll meet you **at the station**, OK?
- A: Where were you yesterday?
  B: **At my sister's**.
- I saw Tom **at the doctor's**.
- There weren't many people **at the party**.

Often it is possible to use **in** or **at** for buildings (hotels, restaurants etc.):

- We stayed **at** a nice hotel. *or* We stayed **in** a nice hotel.

C on

on a bus

on the first floor

on the way from A to B

on a bus / **on** a train / **on** a plane / **on** a ship
on the ground floor / **on** the first floor etc.
on the way (to ...) / **on** the way home

- Did you come here **on the bus**?
- The office is **on the first floor**.
- I met Anna **on the way** to work / **on the way** home.

in/at/on (places) → Unit 106 to/in/at → Unit 108 on the left/right → Unit 109

Exercises

107.1 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use **in/at/on**.

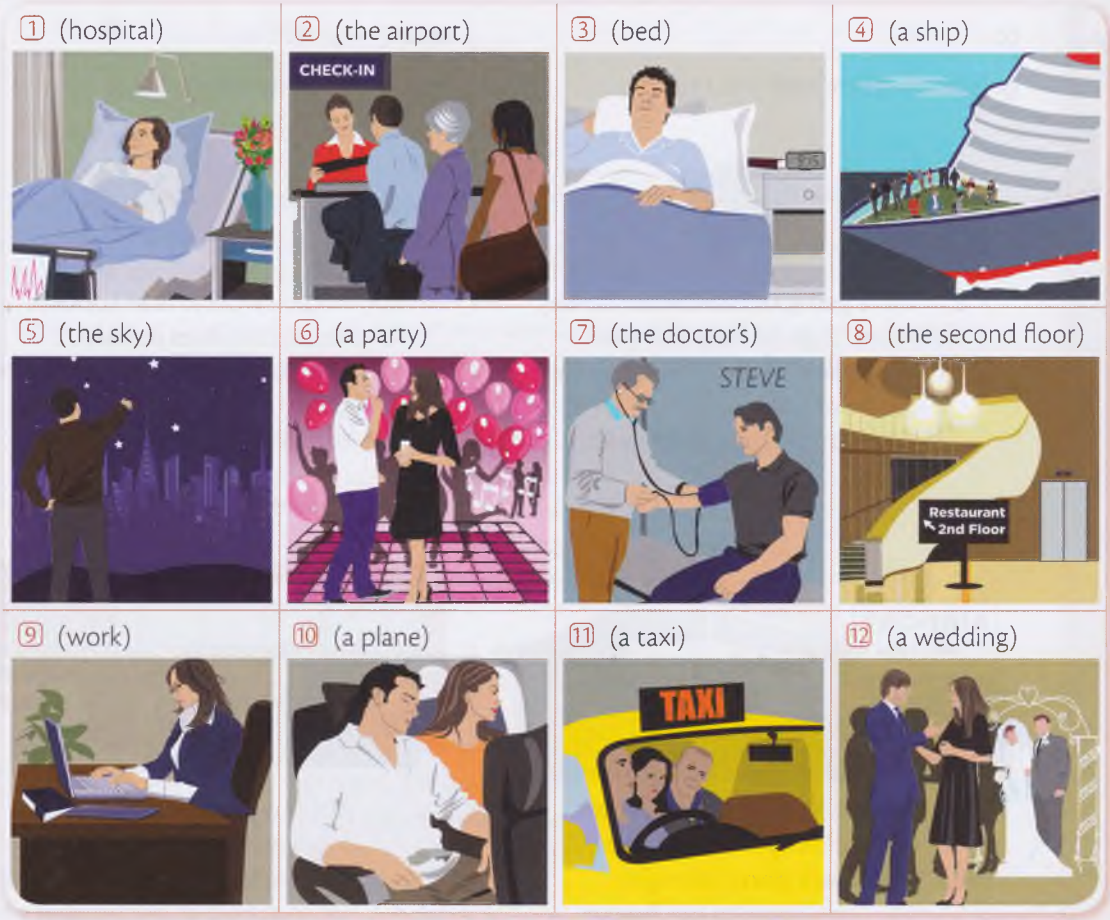

1 Where is she? In hospital.
2 Where are they? .....
3 Where is he? .....
4 Where are they? .....
5 Where are the stars? .....
6 Where are they? .....
7 Where is Steve? .....
8 Where is the restaurant? .....
9 Where is she? .....
10 Where are they? .....
11 Where are they? .....
12 Where are they? .....

107.2 Write **in/at/on**.

1 Helen is studying law ...at... university.
2 There was a big table ..... the middle of the room.
3 What is the longest river ..... the world?
4 Were there many people ..... the concert last night?
5 Will you be ..... home tomorrow afternoon?
6 Who is the man ..... this photo? Do you know him?
7 Where are your children? Are they ..... school?
8 Gary is coming by train. I'm going to meet him ..... the station.
9 Charlie is ..... hospital. He had an operation yesterday.
10 How many pages are there ..... this book?
11 'Are you hungry after your journey?' 'No, I had something to eat ..... the train.'
12 I'm sorry I'm late. My car broke down ..... the way here.
13 'Is Tom here?' 'No, he's ..... his friend's house.'
14 Don't believe everything you see ..... the newspaper!
15 I walked to work, but I came home ..... the bus.

Unit 108

to in at (places 3)

A

to

go/come/return/walk (etc.) **to** ...

- We're **going to London** on Sunday.
- I want to **go to Italy** next year.
- We **walked** from my house **to the centre of town**.
- What time do you **go to bed**?

- The bus is **going to the airport**.
- Karen didn't **go to work** yesterday.
- I **went to a party** last night.
- You must **come to our house**.

in/at (→ Units 106–107)

be/stay/do something (etc.) **in** ...

- Piccadilly Circus **is in London**.
- My brother **lives in Italy**.
- The main shops **are in the centre of town**.
- I like **reading in bed**.

be/stay/do something (etc.) **at** ...

- The bus **is at the airport**.
- Sarah **wasn't at work** yesterday.
- I **met a lot of people at the party**.
- Helen **stayed at her brother's house**.

B

home

go/come/walk (etc.) **home** (without **to**):

- I'm tired. I'm **going home**. (*not* to home)
- Did you **walk home**?

be/stay/do something (etc.) **at home**:

- I'm **staying at home** tonight.
- Dan doesn't work in an office. He **works at home**.

C

arrive and **get**

arrive in a country or town (**arrive in Italy** / **arrive in Paris** etc.):

- They **arrived in this country** last week. (*not* arrived to this country)

arrive at other places (**arrive at the station** / **arrive at work** etc.):

- What time did you **arrive at the hotel**? (*not* arrive to the hotel)

get to (**a place**):

- What time did you **get to the hotel**?
- What time did you **get to Paris**?

get home / **arrive home** (no preposition):

- I was tired when **I got home**. *or* I was tired when I **arrived home**.

been to → Unit 17 **get** (to ...) → Unit 56 **in/at** → Units 106–107

Exercises

108.1 Write **to** or **in**.

1 I like reading ...in... bed.
2 We're going ..... Italy next month.
3 Sue is on holiday ..... Italy at the moment.
4 I have to go ..... the hospital tomorrow.
5 I was tired, so I stayed ..... bed late.
6 What time do you usually go ..... bed?
7 Does this bus go ..... the centre?
8 Would you like to live ..... another country?

108.2 Write **to** or **at** if necessary. One sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 Paula didn't go ...to... work yesterday.
2 I'm tired. I'm going ...–... home. *(already complete)*
3 Tina is not very well. She has gone ..... the doctor.
4 Would you like to come ..... a party on Saturday?
5 'Is Lisa ..... home?' 'No, she's gone ..... work.'
6 There were 20,000 people ..... the football match.
7 Why did you go ..... home early last night?
8 A boy jumped into the river and swam ..... the other side.
9 There were a lot of people waiting ..... the bus stop.
10 We had a good meal ..... a restaurant, and then we went back ..... the hotel.

108.3 Write **to, at** or **in** if necessary. One sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 I'm not going out this afternoon. I'm staying ...at... home.
2 We're going ..... a concert tomorrow evening.
3 I went ..... New York last year.
4 How long did you stay ..... New York?
5 Next year we hope to go ..... Canada to visit some friends.
6 Do you want to go ..... the cinema this evening?
7 Did you park your car ..... the station?
8 After the accident three people were taken ..... hospital.
9 How often do you go ..... the dentist?
10 'Is Sarah here?' 'No, she's ..... Helen's.'
11 My house is ..... the end of the street on the left.
12 I went ..... Maria's house, but she wasn't ..... home.
13 There were no taxis, so we had to walk ..... home.
14 'Who did you meet ..... the party?' 'I didn't go ..... the party.'

108.4 Write **to, at** or **in** if necessary. Sometimes the sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 What time do you usually get ..... work?
2 What time do you usually get ..... home?
3 What time did you arrive ..... the party?
4 When did you arrive ..... London?
5 What time does the train get ..... Paris?
6 We arrived ..... home very late.

108.5 Complete these sentences about yourself. Use **to/in/at**.

1 At 3 o'clock this morning I was ...in bed...
2 Yesterday I went .....
3 At 11 o'clock yesterday morning I was .....
4 One day I'd like to go .....
5 I don't like going .....
6 At 9 o'clock yesterday evening I was .....

Unit 109

under, behind, opposite etc.

A next to / beside / between / in front of / behind

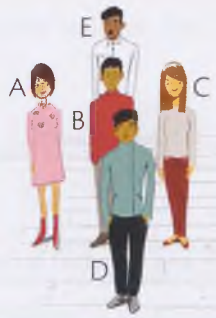

A is **next to** B. *or* A is **beside** B.
B is **between** A and C.
D is **in front of** B.
E is **behind** B.

also
A is **on the left**.
C is **on the right**.
B is **in the middle** (of the group).

B opposite / in front of

A is sitting **in front of** B.
A is sitting **opposite** C.
C is sitting **opposite** A.

C by (= next to / beside)

by the window

- Our house is **by the sea**. (= beside the sea)
- Who is that man standing **by the window**?
- If you feel cold, why don't you sit **by the fire**?

D under

under the table

under a tree

- The cat is **under the table**.
- The girl is standing **under a tree**.
- I'm wearing a jacket **under my coat**.

E above and below

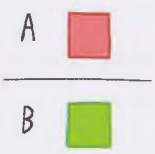

A is **above the line**.
(= higher than the line)

B is **below the line**.
(= lower than the line)

The pictures are **above the shelves**.

The shelves are **below the pictures**.

up/over/through etc. ➜ Unit 110 by ➜ Unit 111

Exercises

109.1 Where are the people in the picture? Complete the sentences.

1 Carl is standing ...behind... Frank.
2 Frank is sitting ..... Emma.
3 Emma is sitting ..... Becky.
4 Emma is sitting ..... Daniela and Frank.
5 Daniela is sitting ..... Emma.
6 Frank is sitting ..... Carl.
7 Alan is standing ..... Daniela.
8 Alan is standing ..... left.
9 Becky is standing ..... middle.

109.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 The cat is ...under... the table.
2 There is a big tree ..... the house.
3 The plane is flying ..... the clouds.
4 She is standing ..... the piano.
5 The cinema is ..... the right.
6 She's standing ..... the fridge.
7 The switch is ..... the window.
8 The cupboard is ..... the sink.
9 There are some shoes ..... the bed.
10 The plant is ..... the piano.
11 Paul is sitting ..... Fiona.
12 In Britain people drive ..... the left.

109.3 Write sentences about the picture.

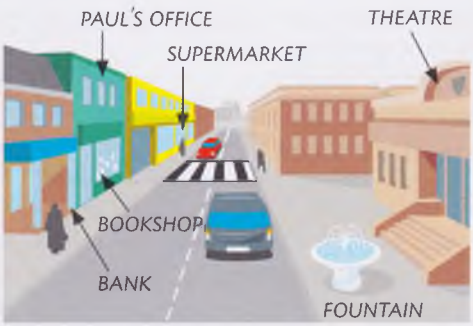

1 (next to) ...The bank is next to the bookshop.
2 (in front of) The ..... in front of .....
3 (opposite) .....
4 (next to) .....
5 (above) .....
6 (between) .....

up, over, through etc.

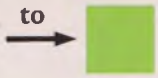

- Jane is going **to** France next week.
- We walked **from** the hotel **to** the station.
- A lot of English words come **from** Latin.

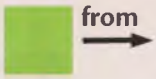

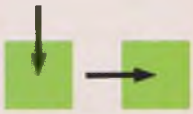

into (in)

- We jumped **into** the water.
- A man came **out of** the house and got **into** a car.
- Why are you looking **out of** the window?
- I took the old batteries **out of** the radio.

We say **put** something **in** ... (*not usually* into):

- I **put** new batteries **in** the radio.

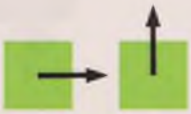

out of

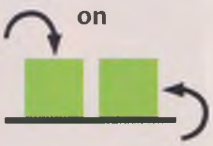

- Don't put your feet **on** the table.
- Please take your feet **off** the table.
- I'm going to hang some pictures **on** the wall.
- Be careful! Don't fall **off** your bike.
- We got **on** the bus in Princes Street.

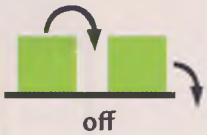

off

- We walked **up** the hill to the house.
- Be careful! Don't fall **down** the stairs.

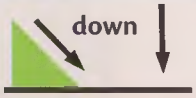

- The plane flew **over** the mountains.
- I jumped **over** the wall into the garden.
- Some people say it is unlucky to walk **under** a ladder.

under

through

- A bird flew into the room **through** a window.
- The old road goes **through** the village.
- The new road goes **round** the village.
- The bus stop is just **round** the corner.
- I walked **round** the town and took some photographs.

round

You can also use **around** (= round):

- We walked **around** the town.

round the town

- I was walking **along** the road with my dog.
- Let's go for a walk **along** the river.
- The dog swam **across** the river.

across

past

- They walked **past** me without speaking.
- A: Excuse me, how do I get to the hospital?
  B: Go along this road, **past** the cinema, under the bridge and the hospital is on the left.

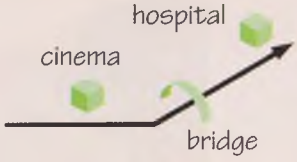

get in/on etc. → Unit 56 **in/on** → Units 106–107 **to** → Unit 108 **fall off / run away** etc. → Unit 114

Exercises

110.1 Somebody asks you how to get to a place. You say which way to go. Look at the pictures and write sentences beginning **Go ...** .

110.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 The dog swam ...across... the river.
2 A book fell ..... the shelf.
3 A plane flew ..... the village.
4 A woman got ..... the car.
5 A girl ran ..... the road.
6 Suddenly a car came ..... the corner.
7 They drove ..... the village.
8 They got ..... the train.
9 The moon travels ..... the earth.
10 They got ..... the house ..... a window.

110.3 Complete the sentences. Use **over/from/into** etc.

1 I looked ..... the window and watched the people in the street.
2 My house is very near here. It's just ..... the corner.
3 'Where's my phone?' 'You put it ..... your bag.'
4 How far is it ..... here ..... the airport?
5 We walked ..... the museum for an hour and saw a lot of interesting things.
6 You can put your coat ..... the back of the chair.
7 In tennis, you have to hit the ball ..... the net.
8 Silvia took a key ..... her bag and opened the door.

Unit 111

on at by with about

A on

on holiday
on television
on the radio
on the phone
on fire
on time (= not late)

- Jane isn't at work this week. She's **on holiday**.
- We watched the news **on TV**.
- We listened to the news **on the radio**.
- I spoke to Rachel **on the phone** last night.
- The house is **on fire**! Call the fire brigade.
- 'Was the train late?' 'No, it was **on time**.'

B at

at (the age of) 21 / at 50 kilometres an hour / at 100 degrees etc. :

- Lisa got married **at 21**. (*or*... **at the age of 21**.)
- A car uses more petrol **at 120 kilometres an hour** than **at 90**.
- Water boils **at 100 degrees Celsius**.

C by

by car / by bus / by plane / by bike etc. :

- Do you like travelling **by train**?
- Jane usually goes to work **by bike**.

but **on foot**:

- You can't get there **by car**. You have to go **on foot**. (= you have to walk)

a book **by** ... / a painting **by** ... / a piece of music **by** ... etc. :

- Have you read any books **by Charles Dickens**?
- **Who** is that painting **by**? Picasso?

by after the passive (→ Unit 21):

- I was bitten **by a dog**.

D with/without

- Did you stay at a hotel or **with friends**?
- Wait for me. Please don't go **without me**.
- Do you like your coffee **with** or **without milk**?
- I cut the paper **with a pair of scissors**.

a man **with** a beard / a woman **with** glasses etc. :

- Do you know that man **with the beard**?
- I'd like to have a house **with a big garden**.

a man **with** a beard

a woman **with** glasses

E about

talk/speak/think/hear/know about ... :

- Some people **talk about their work** all the time.
- I don't **know** much **about cars**.

a book / a question / a programme / information (etc.) **about** ... :

- There was **a programme about** volcanoes on TV last night. Did you see it?

by → Units 21, 63, 109 at/on → Units 103, 106–107 preposition + -ing → Unit 112

Exercises

111.1 Complete the sentences. Use **on** + these words:

holiday **the phone** ~~**the radio**~~ **TV** **time**

1 We heard the news ....on the radio.... .
2 Please don't be late. Try to be here .... .
3 I won't be here next week. I'm going .... .
4 'Did you see Linda?' 'No, but I talked to her ....'.
5 'What's .... this evening?' 'Nothing that I want to watch.'

111.2 Look at the pictures. Complete the sentences with **at/by/with** etc.

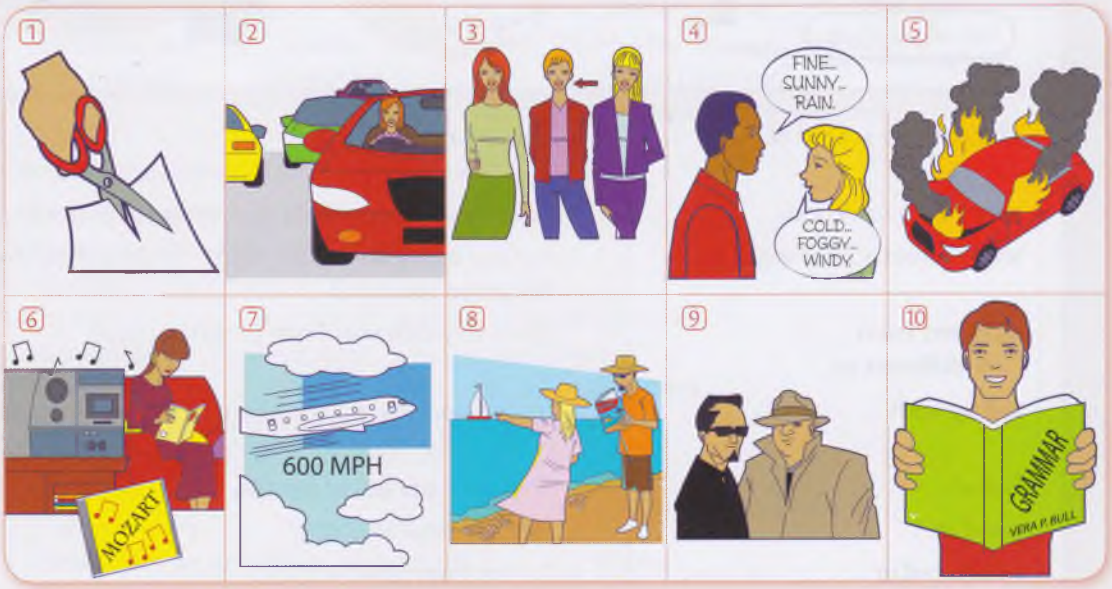

1 I cut the paper ....with.... a pair of scissors.
2 She usually goes to work .... car.
3 Who is the woman .... short hair?
4 They are talking .... the weather.
5 The car is .... fire.
6 She's listening to some music .... Mozart.
7 The plane is flying .... 600 miles an hour.
8 They're .... holiday.
9 Do you know the man .... sunglasses?
10 He's reading a book .... grammar .... Vera P. Bull.

111.3 Complete the sentences. Use **at/by/with** etc.

1 In tennis, you hit the ball .... a racket.
2 It's cold today. Don't go out .... a coat.
3 *Hamlet*, *Othello* and *Macbeth* are plays .... William Shakespeare.
4 Do you know anything .... computers?
5 My grandmother died .... the age of 98.
6 How long does it take from New York to Los Angeles .... plane?
7 I didn't go to the football match, but I watched it .... TV.
8 My house is the one .... the red door on the right.
9 These trains are very fast. They can travel .... very high speeds.
10 I don't use my car very often. I prefer to go .... bike.
11 Can you give me some information .... hotels in this town?
12 I was arrested .... two policemen and taken to the police station.
13 The buses here are very good. They're nearly always .... time.
14 What would you like to drink .... your meal?
15 We travelled from Paris to Moscow .... train.
16 The museum has some paintings .... Rembrandt.

afraid of ... , good at ... etc. of/at/for etc. (prepositions) + -ing

A afraid of ... / good at ... etc. *(adjective + preposition)*

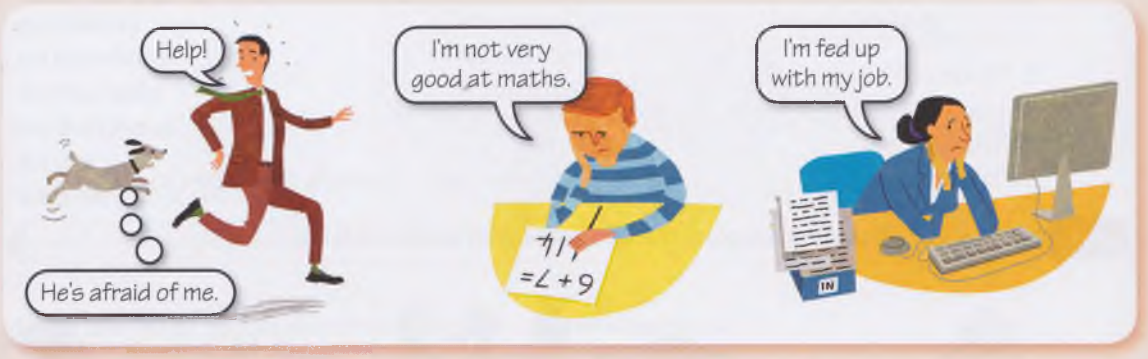

afraid of ... / **scared of** ...	Are you **afraid of** dogs?
angry with somebody	Why are you **angry with** me? What have I done?
angry about something	Are you **angry about** last night? (= something that happened last night)
different from ... *or* **different to** ...	Lisa is very **different from** (*or* **to**) her sister.
fed up with ...	I'm **fed up with** my job. I want to do something different. (= I've had enough of my job)
full of ...	The room was **full of people**.
good at ...	Are you **good at** maths?
interested in ...	I'm not **interested in** sport.
married to ...	Sue is **married to** a dentist. (= her husband is a dentist)
nice/kind of somebody to ...	It was **kind of** you to help us. Thank you very much.
be **nice/kind to** somebody	David is very friendly. He's always very **nice to** me.
sorry about a situation	I'm afraid I can't help you. I'm **sorry about** that.
sorry for/about doing something	I'm **sorry for/about** not phoning you yesterday. (*or* I'm sorry I didn't phone you)
be/feel **sorry for** somebody	I feel **sorry for** them. They are in a very difficult situation.

B of/at/for (etc.) + -ing

After a preposition (**of/at/for** etc.), a verb ends in **-ing**:

I'm not very good **at**	**telling**	stories.
Are you fed up **with**	**doing**	the same thing every day?
I'm sorry **for**	not **phoning**	you yesterday.
Thank you **for**	**helping**	me.
Mark is thinking **of**	**buying**	a new car.
Tom left **without**	**saying**	goodbye. (= he didn't say goodbye)
After	**doing**	the shopping, they went home.

before/after -ing ➜ Unit 105 think about/of ➜ Unit 113

Exercises

112.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with **of/with/in** etc.

1 He's afraid ...of... dogs.
2 She's interested ..... science.
3 She's married ..... a footballer.
4 She's very good ..... languages.
5 He's fed up ..... the weather.
6 A: Can I help you?
B: Thanks, that's very kind ..... you.

112.2 Complete the sentences with **in/of/with** etc.

1 I'm not interested ...in... sport.
2 I'm not very good ..... sport.
3 I like Sarah. She's always very kind ..... me.
4 I'm sorry ..... your broken window. It was an accident.
5 He's very brave. He isn't scared ..... anything.
6 It was very nice ..... Jane to let us stay in her apartment.
7 Life today is very different ..... life 50 years ago.
8 Are you interested ..... politics?
9 I feel sorry ..... her, but I can't help her.
10 Chris was angry ..... what happened.
11 These boxes are very heavy. They are full ..... books.
12 I'm sorry ..... getting angry ..... you yesterday.

112.3 Complete the sentences.

1 I'm not very ...good at telling... stories. (good/tell)
2 I wanted to go to the cinema, but Paula wasn't ..... . (interested/go)
3 Sue isn't very ..... up in the morning. (good/get)
4 Let's go! I'm ..... . (fed up / wait)
5 I'm ..... you up in the middle of the night. (sorry/wake)
6 Sorry I'm late! ..... . (thank you / wait)

112.4 Complete the sentences. Use **without -ing**.

1 (Tom left / he didn't say goodbye) ...Tom left without saying goodbye.....
2 (Sue walked past me / she didn't speak)
Sue walked .....
3 (Don't do anything / ask me first)
Don't .....
4 (I went out / I didn't lock the door)
I .....

112.5 Write sentences about yourself.

1 (interested) ...I'm interested in sport.....
2 (scared) I'm .....
3 (not very good) I'm not .....
4 (not interested) .....
5 (fed up) .....

Unit 113

listen to ... , look at ... etc. (verb + preposition)

A

ask (somebody) **for** ...
belong to ...
happen to ...
listen to ...
talk to somebody (**about** ...)
speak to somebody (**about** ...)
thank somebody **for** ...
think about ... *or* **think of** ...
wait for ...

- Don't **ask** me **for** money. I don't have any.
- This house doesn't **belong to** me. (= it's not mine)
- I can't find my phone. What's **happened to** it?
- **Listen to** this music. It's great.
- Did you **talk to** Paul **about** the problem?
- I'd like to **speak to** the manager, please.
- **Thank** you very much **for** your help.
- He never **thinks about** (*or* **of**) other people.
- Mark is **thinking of** (*or* **about**) buying a car.
- **Wait for** me. I'm nearly ready.

Note that we say **call/phone/text/email** somebody (no preposition):

- I have to **phone my parents** today.
  (*not* phone to my parents)
- Shall I **text you** or **email you**?

B

look at / look for / look after

look at ...

- He's **looking at** his watch.
- **Look at** these flowers! They're beautiful.
- Why are you **looking at** me like that?

look for ...
(= try to find)

- She's lost her key. She's **looking for** it.
- I'm **looking for** Sarah. Have you seen her?

look after ...
(= take care of, keep safe)

- When Emily is at work, a friend of hers **looks after** her children.
- Don't lose this book. **Look after** it.
  (= Keep it safe.)

C

depend

We say **depend on** ... :

- A: Do you like eating in restaurants?
  B: Sometimes. It **depends on** the restaurant. (*not* it depends of)

You can say **it depends what/where/how** (etc.) with or without **on**:

- A: Do you want to come out with us?
  B: It **depends where** you're going. *or* It **depends on where** you're going.

wait → Unit 54 preposition + **-ing** → Unit 112

Exercises

113.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with **to/for/at** etc.

1 She's looking ...at... her watch.
2 He's listening ..... the radio.
3 They're waiting ..... a taxi.
4 Paul is talking ..... Jane.
5 They're looking ..... a picture.
6 Sue is looking ..... Tom.

113.2 Complete the sentences with **to/for/about** etc. Two sentences are already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 Thank you very much ...for... your help.
2 This isn't my umbrella. It belongs ..... a friend of mine.
3 I saw Steve, but I didn't speak ..... him.
4 Don't forget to phone ..... your mother tonight.
5 Thank you ..... the present. It was lovely.
6 What happened ..... Ella last night? Why didn't she come to the party?
7 We're thinking ..... going to Australia next year.
8 We asked the waiter ..... coffee, but he brought us tea.
9 'Do you like reading books?' 'It depends ..... the book.'
10 John was talking, but nobody was listening ..... what he was saying.
11 We waited ..... Karen until 2 o'clock, but she didn't come.
12 I texted ..... Lisa to tell her I would be late.
13 He's alone all day. He never talks ..... anybody.
14 'How much does it cost to stay at this hotel?' 'It depends ..... the type of room.'
15 Catherine is thinking ..... changing her job.

113.3 Complete these sentences. Use **at/for/after**.

1 I looked ..... the letter, but I didn't read it carefully.
2 When you are ill, you need somebody to look ..... you.
3 Excuse me, I'm looking ..... Hill Street. Is it near here?
4 Bye! Have a great holiday and look ..... yourself.
5 I want to take a picture of you. Please look ..... the camera and smile.
6 Ben is looking ..... a job. He wants to work in a hotel.

113.4 Answer these questions with **It depends ... .**

1	Do you want to go out with us?	It depends where you're going.
2	Do you like eating in restaurants?	It depends on the restaurant.
3	Do you enjoy watching TV?	It depends .....
4	Can you do something for me?	It .....
5	Are you going away this weekend?	.....
6	Can you lend me some money?	.....

go in, fall off, run away etc. (phrasal verbs 1)

A *phrasal verb* is a verb (**go/look/be** etc.) + **in/out/up/down** etc.

in

- I waited outside the shop. I didn't **go in**.
- Sarah opened the door of the car and **got in**. (= **into** the car)

out

- I went to the window and **looked out**.
- The car stopped and a woman **got out**. (= **out of** the car)

on

- The bus came, and I **got on**.

off

- Be careful! Don't **fall off**.

up

- He **stood up** and left the room.
- I usually **get up** early. (= get out of bed)
- We **looked up** at the stars in the sky.

down

- The picture **fell down**.
- Would you like to **sit down**?
- **Lie down** on the floor.

away *or* **off**

- The thief **ran away**. (*or* ... **ran off**)
- Emma got into the car and **drove away**. (*or* ... **drove off**)

be/go away (= in/to another place)

- Tom has **gone away** for a few days.

back

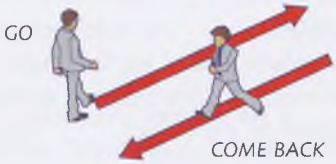

- Go away and don't **come back**!
- We went out for dinner and then **went back** to our hotel.

be back

- Tom is away. He'll **be back** on Monday.

over

- The wall wasn't very high, so we **climbed over**.
- **Turn over** and look at the next page.

round (*or* **around**)

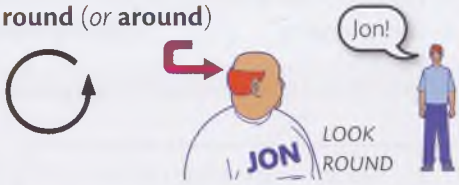

- Somebody shouted my name, so I **looked round** (*or* **around**).
- We went for a long walk. After an hour we **turned round** (*or* **around**) and went back.

get → Unit 56 **put on** / **take off** etc. (phrasal verbs 2) → Unit 115 more phrasal verbs → Appendix 6

Exercises

114.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use these verbs + **in/out/up** etc.

got **got** ~~**looked**~~ **looked** **rode** **sat** **turned** **went**

1 I went to the window and ...looked out... .
2 The door was open, so we ..... .
3 He heard a plane, so he ..... .
4 She got on her bike and ..... .
5 I said hello, and he ..... .
6 The bus stopped, and she ..... .
7 There was a free seat, so she ..... .
8 A car stopped, and two men ..... .

114.2 Complete the sentences. Use **out/away/back** etc.

1 'What happened to the picture on the wall?' 'It fell ...down...'
2 Wait a minute. Don't go ..... . I want to ask you something.
3 Lisa heard a noise behind her, so she looked ..... to see what it was.
4 I'm going ..... now to do some shopping. I'll be ..... at 5 o'clock.
5 I'm feeling very tired. I'm going to lie ..... on the sofa.
6 When you have read this page, turn ..... and read the other side.
7 Mark is from Canada. He lives in London now, but he wants to go ..... to Canada.
8 We haven't got a key to the house, so we can't get ..... .
9 I was very tired this morning. I couldn't get ..... .
10 A: When are you going ..... ?
B: On the 5th. And I'm coming ..... on the 24th.

114.3 Before you do this exercise, study the verbs in Appendix 6 (page 250). Complete the sentences. Choose a verb from the box + **on/off/up** etc. If necessary, put the verb into the correct form.

break **fall** **give** **hold** **speak** ~~**wake**~~
carry **get** **go** **slow** **take**

+ on/off/up/down/over

1 I went to sleep at 10 o'clock and ...woke up... at 8 o'clock the next morning.
2 'It's time to go.' '..... a minute. I'm not ready yet.'
3 The train ..... and finally stopped.
4 I like flying, but I'm always nervous when the plane ..... .
5 How are your children? How are they ..... at school?
6 It's difficult to hear you. Can you ..... a little?
7 This car isn't very good. It has ..... many times.
8 When babies try to walk, they sometimes ..... .
9 The hotel isn't far from here. If you ..... along this road, you'll see it on the left.
10 I tried to find a job, but I ..... . It was impossible.
11 The fire alarm ..... and everyone had to leave the building.

Unit 115

put on your shoes put your shoes on (phrasal verbs 2)

A

Sometimes a phrasal verb (**put on** / **take off** etc.) has an *object*. For example:

verb *object*
put on your coat

You can say:
put on your coat
or **put** your coat **on**

verb *object*
take off your shoes

You can say:
take off your shoes
or **take** your shoes **off**

But **it**/**them** *(pronouns)* always go before **on**/**off** etc. :
put **it on** (*not* put on it) take **them off** (*not* take off them)

- It was cold, so I **put on** my coat.
  or ... I **put** my coat **on**.
- Here's your coat. **Put it on**.
- I'm going to **take off** my shoes.
  or ... **take** my shoes **off**.
- Your shoes are dirty. **Take them off**.

B

Some more phrasal verbs + *object:*

turn on / **turn off** (lights, machines, taps etc.):

- It was dark, so I **turned on** the light.
  or ... I **turned** the light **on**.
- I don't want to watch this programme.
  You can **turn it off**.

also **switch on** / **switch off** (lights, machines etc.):

- I **switched on** the light and **switched off** the television.

pick up / **put down**:

- Those are my keys on the floor.
  Can you **pick them up** for me?
- I stopped reading and **put** my book **down**.
  or ... **put down** my book.

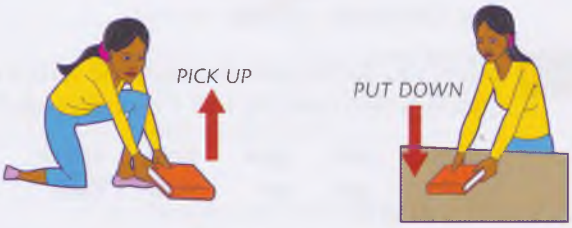

bring back / **take back** / **give back** / **put back**:

- You can take my umbrella, but please **bring it back**.
- I **took** my new sweater **back** to the shop. It was too small for me.
- I've got Rachel's keys. I have to **give them back** to her.
- I read the letter and then **put it back** in the envelope.

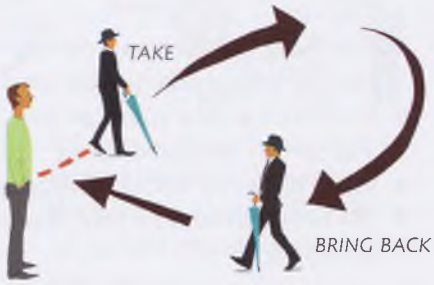

go in / **fall off** etc. (phrasal verbs 1) ➜ **Unit 114** more phrasal verbs + object ➜ **Appendix 7**

Exercises

115.1 Look at the pictures. What did these people do?

1 He turned on the light.
2 She ..... .
3 He ..... .
4 She ..... .
5 He ..... .
6 She ..... .

115.2 You can write these sentences in three different ways. Complete the table.

1	I turned on the radio.	I turned the radio on.	I turned it on.
2	He put on his jacket.	He	He .....
3	She	She took her glasses off.	.....
4	I picked up the phone.	.....	.....
5	They gave back the key.	.....	.....
6	.....	We turned the lights off.	.....

115.3 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs with **it** or **them**.

bring back **pick up** **switch off** **take back** ~~**turn on**~~

1 I wanted to watch something on TV, so I turned it on.
2 My new lamp doesn't work. I'm going to ..... to the shop.
3 There were some gloves on the floor, so I ..... and put them on the table.
4 The heating was on but it was too warm, so I ..... .
5 Thank you for lending me these books. I won't forget to ..... .

115.4 Before you do this exercise, study the verbs in Appendix 7 (page 251). Complete the sentences. Use a verb from the box. Sometimes you will also need to use **it/them/me**.

fill in ~~**knock down**~~ **look up** **show round** ~~**turn down**~~
give up **knock over** **put out** **throw away** **try on**

1 They knocked a lot of houses down when they built the new road.
2 That music is very loud. Can you turn it down?
3 I ..... a glass and broke it.
4 'What does this word mean?' 'Why don't you ..... ?'
5 I want to keep these magazines. Please don't ..... .
6 I ..... a pair of shoes in the shop, but I didn't buy them.
7 I visited a school last week. One of the teachers ..... .
8 'Do you play the piano?' 'No, I started to learn, but I ..... after a month.'
9 Somebody gave me a form and told me to ..... .
10 Smoking isn't allowed here. Please ..... your cigarette ..... .

Appendix 1
Active and passive

1.1 Present and past

	active	*passive*
present simple	We **make** butter from milk.	Butter **is made** from milk.
	Somebody **cleans** these rooms every day.	These rooms **are cleaned** every day.
	People never **invite** me to parties.	I **am** never **invited** to parties.
	How **do** they **make** butter?	How **is** butter **made**?
past simple	Somebody **stole** my car last week.	My car **was stolen** last week.
	Somebody **stole** my keys yesterday.	My keys **were stolen** yesterday.
	They **didn't invite** me to the party.	I **wasn't invited** to the party.
	When **did** they **build** these houses?	When **were** these houses **built**?
present continuous	They **are building** a new airport at the moment. (= it isn't finished)	A new airport **is being built** at the moment.
	They **are building** some new houses near the river.	Some new houses **are being built** near the river.
past continuous	When I was here a few years ago, they **were building** a new airport. (= it wasn't finished at that time)	When I was here a few years ago, a new airport **was being built**.
present perfect	Look! They **have painted** the door.	Look! The door **has been painted**.
	These shirts are clean. Somebody **has washed** them.	These shirts are clean. They **have been washed**.
	Somebody **has stolen** my car.	My car **has been stolen**.
past perfect	Tina said that somebody **had stolen** her car.	Tina said that her car **had been stolen**.

1.2 **will** / **can** / **must** / **have to** etc.

active	*passive*
Somebody **will clean** the office tomorrow.	The office **will be cleaned** tomorrow.
Somebody **must clean** the office.	The office **must be cleaned**.
I think they**'ll invite** you to the party.	I think you**'ll be invited** to the party.
They **can't repair** my watch.	My watch **can't be repaired**.
You **should wash** this sweater by hand.	This sweater **should be washed** by hand.
They **are going to build** a new airport.	A new airport **is going to be built**.
Somebody **has to wash** these clothes.	These clothes **have to be washed**.
They **had to take** the injured man to hospital.	The injured man **had to be taken** to hospital.

Appendix 2
List of irregular verbs (→ Unit 24)

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
be	**was/were**	**been**
beat	**beat**	**beaten**
become	**became**	**become**
begin	**began**	**begun**
bite	**bit**	**bitten**
blow	**blew**	**blown**
break	**broke**	**broken**
bring	**brought**	**brought**
build	**built**	**built**
buy	**bought**	**bought**
catch	**caught**	**caught**
choose	**chose**	**chosen**
come	**came**	**come**
cost	**cost**	**cost**
cut	**cut**	**cut**
do	**did**	**done**
draw	**drew**	**drawn**
drink	**drank**	**drunk**
drive	**drove**	**driven**
eat	**ate**	**eaten**
fall	**fell**	**fallen**
feel	**felt**	**felt**
fight	**fought**	**fought**
find	**found**	**found**
fly	**flew**	**flown**
forget	**forgot**	**forgotten**
get	**got**	**got**
give	**gave**	**given**
go	**went**	**gone**
grow	**grew**	**grown**
hang	**hung**	**hung**
have	**had**	**had**
hear	**heard**	**heard**
hide	**hid**	**hidden**
hit	**hit**	**hit**
hold	**held**	**held**
hurt	**hurt**	**hurt**
keep	**kept**	**kept**
know	**knew**	**known**
leave	**left**	**left**
lend	**lent**	**lent**

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
let	**let**	**let**
lie	**lay**	**lain**
light	**lit**	**lit**
lose	**lost**	**lost**
make	**made**	**made**
mean	**meant**	**meant**
meet	**met**	**met**
pay	**paid**	**paid**
put	**put**	**put**
read (reed)*	**read** (red)*	**read** (red)*
ride	**rode**	**ridden**
ring	**rang**	**rung**
rise	**rose**	**risen**
run	**ran**	**run**
say	**said**	**said**
see	**saw**	**seen**
sell	**sold**	**sold**
send	**sent**	**sent**
shine	**shone**	**shone**
shoot	**shot**	**shot**
show	**showed**	**shown**
shut	**shut**	**shut**
sing	**sang**	**sung**
sit	**sat**	**sat**
sleep	**slept**	**slept**
speak	**spoke**	**spoken**
spend	**spent**	**spent**
stand	**stood**	**stood**
steal	**stole**	**stolen**
swim	**swam**	**swum**
take	**took**	**taken**
teach	**taught**	**taught**
tear	**tore**	**torn**
tell	**told**	**told**
think	**thought**	**thought**
throw	**threw**	**thrown**
understand	**understood**	**understood**
wake	**woke**	**woken**
wear	**wore**	**worn**
win	**won**	**won**
write	**wrote**	**written**

* *pronunciation*

Some verbs can be regular (**-ed**) *or* irregular (**-t**):

infinitive	*past simple / past participle*
burn	**burned** *or* **burnt**
dream	**dreamed** *or* **dreamt**

infinitive	*past simple / past participle*
learn	**learned** *or* **learnt**
smell	**smelled** *or* **smelt**

Appendix 3
Irregular verbs in groups

The past simple and past participle are the same:

1

cost	→	**cost**
cut	→	**cut**
hit	→	**hit**
hurt	→	**hurt**
let	→	**let**
put	→	**put**
shut	→	**shut**

2

lend	→	**lent**
send	→	**sent**
spend	→	**spent**
build	→	**built**
lose	→	**lost**
shoot	→	**shot**
get	→	**got**
light	→	**lit**
sit	→	**sat**
burn	→	**burnt**
learn	→	**learnt**
smell	→	**smelt**
keep	→	**kept**
sleep	→	**slept**
feel	→	**felt**
leave	→	**left**
meet	→	**met**
dream	→	**dreamt** (dremt)*
mean	→	**meant** (ment)*

3

bring	→	**brought** (brort)*
buy	→	**bought** (bort)*
fight	→	**fought** (fort)*
think	→	**thought** (thort)*
catch	→	**caught** (kort)*
teach	→	**taught** (tort)*

4

sell	→	**sold**
tell	→	**told**
find	→	**found**
have	→	**had**
hear	→	**heard**
hold	→	**held**
read	→	**read** (red)*
say	→	**said** (sed)*
pay	→	**paid**
make	→	**made**
stand	→	**stood**
understand	→	**understood**

The past simple and past participle are different:

1

break	→	**broke**	**broken**
choose	→	**chose**	**chosen**
speak	→	**spoke**	**spoken**
steal	→	**stole**	**stolen**
wake	→	**woke**	**woken**

2

drive	→	**drove**	**driven**
ride	→	**rode**	**ridden**
rise	→	**rose**	**risen**
write	→	**wrote**	**written**
beat	→	**beat**	**beaten**
bite	→	**bit**	**bitten**
hide	→	**hid**	**hidden**

3

eat	→	**ate**	**eaten**
fall	→	**fell**	**fallen**
forget	→	**forgot**	**forgotten**
give	→	**gave**	**given**
see	→	**saw**	**seen**
take	→	**took**	**taken**

4

blow	→	**blew**	**blown**
grow	→	**grew**	**grown**
know	→	**knew**	**known**
throw	→	**threw**	**thrown**
fly	→	**flew**	**flown**
draw	→	**drew**	**drawn**
show	→	**showed**	**shown**

5

begin	→	**began**	**begun**
drink	→	**drank**	**drunk**
swim	→	**swam**	**swum**
ring	→	**rang**	**rung**
sing	→	**sang**	**sung**
run	→	**ran**	**run**

6

come	→	**came**	**come**
become	→	**became**	**become**

* *pronunciation*

Appendix 4
Short forms (**he's / I'd / don't** etc.)

4.1 In spoken English we usually pronounce '**I am**' as one word. The short form (**I'm**) is a way of writing this:

I am	→	**I'm**
it is	→	**it's**
they have	→	**they've**
		etc.

- **I'm** feeling tired this morning.
- 'Do you like this jacket?' 'Yes, **it's** nice.'
- 'Where are your friends?' '**They've** gone home.'

When we write short forms, we use ' (*an apostrophe*):

I ~~a~~m → I'**m** he~~is~~ → he'**s** you ~~ha~~ve → you'**ve** she ~~wi~~ll → she'**ll**

4.2 We use these forms with **I/he/she** etc.:

am	→	'm	I'm						
is	→	's		he's	she's	it's			
are	→	're					we're	you're	they're
have	→	've	I've				we've	you've	they've
has	→	's		he's	she's	it's			
had	→	'd	I'd	he'd	she'd		we'd	you'd	they'd
will	→	'll	I'll	he'll	she'll		we'll	you'll	they'll
would	→	'd	I'd	he'd	she'd		we'd	you'd	they'd

- I'**ve** got some new shoes.
- We'**ll** probably go out this evening.
- It'**s** 10 o'clock. You'**re** late again.

'**s** = **is** *or* **has**:

- She'**s** going out this evening. (she'**s** going = she **is** going)
- She'**s** gone out. (she'**s** gone = she **has** gone)

'**d** = **would** *or* **had**:

- A: What would you like to eat?
  B: I'**d** like a salad, please. (I'**d** like = I **would** like)
- I told the police that I'**d** lost my passport. (I'**d** lost = I **had** lost)

Do not use '**m**/'**s**/'**d** etc. at the end of a sentence (→ Unit 40):

- 'Are you tired?' 'Yes, I **am**.' (*not* Yes, I'm.)
- She isn't tired, but he **is**. (*not* he's)

4.3 We use short forms with **I/you/he/she** etc., but you can use short forms (especially '**s**) with other words too:

- **Who's** your favourite singer? (= who **is**)
- **What's** the time? (= what **is**)
- **There's** a big tree in the garden. (= there **is**)
- **My sister's** working in London. (= my sister **is** working)
- **Paul's** gone out. (= Paul **has** gone out)
- **What colour's** your car? (= What colour **is** your car?)

4.4 Negative short forms (→ Unit 43):

isn't (= is not)	**don't** (= do not)	**can't** (= cannot)
aren't (= are not)	**doesn't** (= does not)	**couldn't** (= could not)
wasn't (= was not)	**didn't** (= did not)	**won't** (= will not)
weren't (= were not)		**wouldn't** (= would not)
hasn't (= has not)		**shouldn't** (= should not)
haven't (= have not)		**mustn't** (= must not)
hadn't (= had not)		

- We went to her house, but she **wasn't** at home.
- 'Where's David?' 'I **don't** know. I **haven't** seen him.'
- You work all the time. You **shouldn't** work so hard.
- I **won't** be here tomorrow. (= I will not)

4.5 **'s** (*apostrophe* + **s**)

's can mean different things:

(1) **'s** = **is** *or* **has** (→ section 4.2 of this appendix)

- It**'s** raining. (= It **is** raining)
- It**'s** stopped raining. (= It **has** stopped)

(2) let's = let **us** (→ Units 35, 53)

- It's a lovely day. **Let's** go out. (= Let **us** go out.)

(3) Kate**'s** camera = her camera
my brother**'s** car = his car
the manager**'s** office = his/her office etc.
(→ Unit 64)

Compare:

- **Kate's** camera was very expensive. (**Kate's** camera = **her** camera)
- **Kate's** a very good photographer. (**Kate's** = Kate **is**)
- **Kate's** got a new camera. (Kate**'s** got = Kate **has** got)

Appendix 5
Spelling

5.1 Words + **-s** and **-es** (birds/watch**es** etc.)

noun + **s** (plural) (→ Unit 66)

bird → bird**s** | mistake → mistake**s** | hotel → hotel**s**

verb + **s** (he/she/it **-s**) (→ Unit 5)

think → think**s** | live → live**s** | remember → remember**s**

but

+ **es** after **-s** / **-sh** / **-ch** / **-x**

bu**s** → bu**ses** | pa**ss** → pa**sses** | addre**ss** → addre**sses**
di**sh** → di**shes** | wa**sh** → wa**shes** | fini**sh** → fini**shes**
wat**ch** → wat**ches** | tea**ch** → tea**ches** | sandwi**ch** → sandwi**ches**
bo**x** → bo**xes**

also

potato → potato**es** | tomato → tomato**es**
do → do**es** | go → go**es**

-f / -fe → -ves

shel**f** → shel**ves** | kni**fe** → kni**ves** | *but* roo**f** → roo**fs**

5.2 Words ending in **-y** (bab**y** → bab**ies** / stud**y** → stud**ied** etc.)

-y → -ies

stud**y** → stud**ies** (*not* studys) | fami**ly** → fami**lies** (*not* familys)
sto**ry** → sto**ries** | ci**ty** → ci**ties** | bab**y** → bab**ies**
tr**y** → tr**ies** | marr**y** → marr**ies** | fl**y** → fl**ies**

-y → -ied (→ Unit 11)

stud**y** → stud**ied** (*not* studyed)
tr**y** → tr**ied** | marr**y** → marr**ied** | cop**y** → cop**ied**

-y → -ier/-iest (→ Units 87, 90)

easy → easier/easiest (*not* easyer/easyest)
happy → happier/happiest | lucky → luckier/luckiest
heavy → heavier/heaviest | funny → funnier/funniest

-y → -ily (→ Unit 86)

easy → easily (*not* easyly)
happy → happily | heavy → heavily | lucky → luckily

y does not change to **i** if the ending is **-ay/-ey/-oy/-uy**:

holid**ay** → holid**ays** (*not* holidaies)
enj**oy** → enj**oys**/enj**oyed** | st**ay** → st**ays**/st**ayed** | b**uy** → b**uys** | k**ey** → k**eys**

but

say → said | **pay → paid** | *(irregular verbs)*

5.3 -ing

Verbs that end in **-e** (mak**e**/writ**e**/driv**e** etc.) → **-ing**:

mak**e** → mak**ing** writ**e** → writ**ing** com**e** → com**ing** danc**e** → danc**ing**

Verbs that end in **-ie** → **-ying**:

lie → **lying** **die** → **dying** **tie** → **tying**

5.4

sto**p** → sto**pp**ed, bi**g** → bi**gg**er etc.

Vowels and consonants:

Vowel letters:	a	e	i	o	u									
Consonant letters:	b	c	d	f	g	k	l	m	n	p	r	s	t	w	y

Sometimes a word ends in a *vowel* + a *consonant*. For example: st**o**p, bi**g**, ge**t**.
Before **-ing**/**-ed**/**-er**/**-est**, **p**/**g**/**t** etc. become **pp**/**gg**/**tt** etc.

For example:

	V+C					
stop	ST	**O**	**P**	p → **pp**	sto**pp**ing	sto**pp**ed
run	R	**U**	**N**	n → **nn**	ru**nn**ing	
get	G	**E**	**T**	t → **tt**	ge**tt**ing	
swim	SW	**I**	**M**	m → **mm**	swi**mm**ing	
big	B	**I**	**G**	g → **gg**	bi**gg**er	bi**gg**est
hot	H	**O**	**T**	t → **tt**	ho**tt**er	ho**tt**est
thin	TH	**I**	**N**	n → **nn**	thi**nn**er	thi**nn**est

V = *vowel*
C = *consonant*

This does *not* happen
(1) if the word ends in *two* consonant letters (C + C):

	C+C				
help	HE	**L**	**P**	he**lp**ing	he**lp**ed
work	WO	**R**	**K**	wo**rk**ing	wo**rk**ed
fast	FA	**S**	**T**	fa**st**er	fa**st**est

(2) if the word ends in two vowel letters + a consonant letter (V + V + C):

	V+V+C					
need	N	**E**	**E**	**D**	nee**d**ing	nee**d**ed
wait	W	**A**	**I**	**T**	wai**t**ing	wai**t**ed
cheap	CH	**E**	**A**	**P**	chea**p**er	chea**p**est

(3) in longer words (two syllables or more) if the last part of the word is *not* stressed:

	stress		
happen	**HAP**-pen	→	happe**n**ing/happe**n**ed (*not* happenned)
visit	**VIS**-it	→	visi**t**ing/visi**t**ed
remember	re-**MEM**-ber	→	remembe**r**ing/remembe**r**ed

but

prefer	pre-**FER**	*(stress at the end)*	→ prefe**rr**ing/prefe**rr**ed
begin	be-**GIN**	*(stress at the end)*	→ begi**nn**ing

(4) if the word ends in **-y** or **-w**. (At the end of words, **y** and **w** are not consonants.)

enjo**y** → enjo**y**ing/enjo**y**ed sno**w** → sno**w**ing/sno**w**ed fe**w** → fe**w**er/fe**w**est

Appendix 6
Phrasal verbs (**take off / give up** etc.)

This is a list of some important phrasal verbs (→ Unit 114).

on

carry on = *continue*

- Don't stop working. **Carry on**. (= continue working)
- A: Excuse me, where is the station?
  B: **Carry on** along this road and turn right at the lights. (= Continue along ...)

also **go on** / **walk on** / **drive on** etc. = *continue going/walking/driving* etc.

- Don't stop here. **Drive on**.

come on = *be quick*

- **Come on**! Everybody is waiting for you.

get on = *manage (in a job, at school, in an exam etc.)*

- How was your exam? How did you **get on**? (= how did you do?)

hold on = *wait*

- Can you **hold on** a minute? (= can you wait?)

off

take off = *leave the ground (for planes)*

- The plane **took off** 20 minutes late, but arrived on time.

TAKE OFF

go off = *explode (a bomb etc.) or ring (an alarm, an alarm clock etc.)*

- A bomb **went off** and caused a lot of damage.
- A car alarm **goes off** if somebody tries to break into the car.

GO OFF

up

give up = *stop trying*

- I know it's difficult, but don't **give up**. (= don't stop trying)

GROW UP

grow up = *become an adult*

- What does your son want to do when he **grows up**?

hurry up = *do something more quickly*

- **Hurry up**! We haven't got much time.

WAKE UP

speak up = *speak more loudly*

- I can't hear you. Can you **speak up**, please?

wake up = *stop sleeping*

- I often **wake up** in the middle of the night.

WASH UP

wash up = *wash the plates etc. after a meal*

- Do you want me to **wash up**? (*or* ... to do the washing-up?)

down

slow down = *go more slowly*

- You're driving too fast. **Slow down**!

BREAK DOWN

break down = *stop working (for cars, machines etc.)*

- Sue was very late because her car **broke down**.

over

fall over = *lose your balance*

- I **fell over** because my shoes were too big for me.

FALL OVER

Appendix 7 Phrasal verbs + object (**put out** a fire / **give up** your job etc.)

This is a list of some important phrasal verbs + object (→ Unit 115).

in/out

fill in / **fill out** a form = *complete a form*

- Can you **fill in this form**, please? *or* Can you **fill out this form**, please?

out

put out a fire, a cigarette etc.

- The fire brigade arrived and **put the fire out**.

cross out a mistake, a word etc.

- If you make a mistake, **cross it out**.

PUT OUT

CROSS OUT

on

try on clothes = *put on clothes to see if they fit you*

- *(in a shop)* This is a nice jacket. Shall I **try it on**?

up

give up something = *stop doing it*

- Sue **gave up her job** when her baby was born. (= she stopped working)
- 'Are you still learning Italian?' 'No, I **gave it up**.'

look up a word in a dictionary etc.

- I didn't know the meaning of the word, so I **looked it up** in a dictionary.

turn up the TV, radio, music, heating etc. = *make it louder or warmer*

- Can you **turn the radio up**? I can't hear it.

wake up somebody who is sleeping

- I have to get up early tomorrow. Can you **wake me up** at 6.30?

down

knock down a building = *demolish it*

- They are going to **knock down** the school and build a new one.

turn down the TV, radio, music, heating etc. = *make it more quiet or less warm*

- The music is too loud. Can you **turn it down**?

KNOCK DOWN

over

knock over a cup, a glass, a person etc.

- Be careful. Don't **knock your cup over**.
- There was an accident at the end of the road. A man was **knocked over** by a car. (*or* A man was **knocked down** by a car.)

KNOCK OVER

KNOCK OVER or KNOCK DOWN

away

throw away rubbish, things you don't want

- These apples are bad. Shall I **throw them away**?
- Don't **throw away that picture**. I want it.

put something **away** = *put it in the place where you usually keep it*

- After they finished playing, the children **put their toys away**.

THROW AWAY

back

pay somebody **back** = *give back money that you borrowed*

- Thank you for lending me the money. I'll **pay you back** next week.

round/around

show somebody **round/around** = *take somebody on a tour of a place*

- We visited a factory last week. The manager **showed us round**.

Additional exercises

List of exercises:

1–2	**am/is/are**	Units 1–2
3	present continuous	Units 3–4
4	present simple	Units 5–7
5–7	present simple, **am/is/are** and **have (got)**	Units 1–2, 5–7, 9
8–9	present continuous and present simple	Units 3–8
10–13	**was/were** and past simple	Units 10–12
14	past simple and past continuous	Units 11–14
15	present and past	Units 3–14
16–18	present perfect	Units 15–19
19–22	present perfect and past simple	Units 18–20
23	present, past and present perfect	Units 3–20
24–27	passive	Units 21–22
28	future	Units 25–28
29	past, present and future	Units 3–20, 25–28
30–31	past, present and future	Units 3–22, 25–28, 52, 54, 98, 105
32	**-ing** and **to** ...	Units 51–55,105,112
33–34	**a** and **the**	Units 65, 69–73
35	prepositions	Units 103–108,111

am/is/are

Units 1–2

1 Write sentences for the pictures. Use the words in the boxes + **is/isn't/are/aren't**.

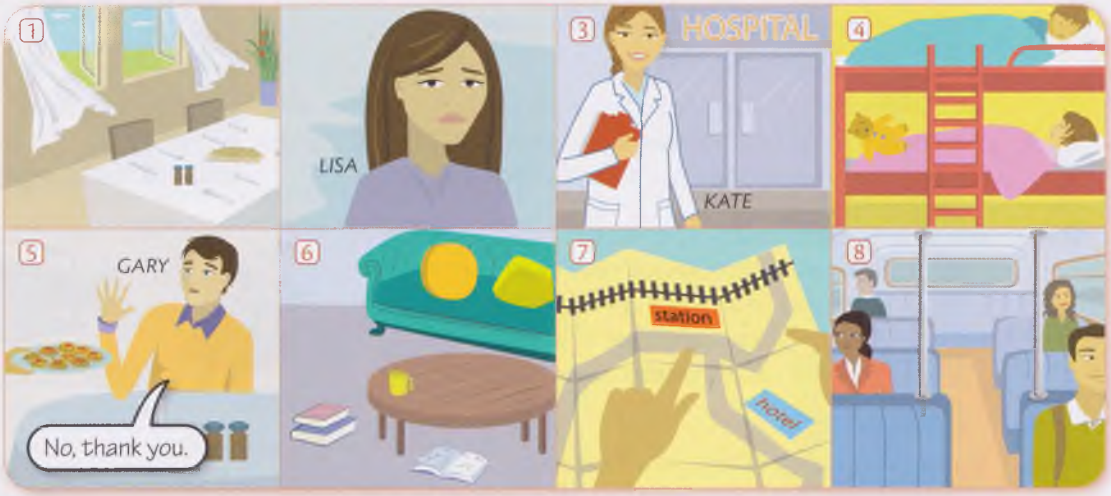

~~The windows~~	on the table	1 The windows are open.
~~Lisa~~	hungry	2 Lisa isn't happy.
Kate	asleep	3 Kate .....
The children	~~open~~	4 .....
Gary	full	5 .....
The books	near the station	6 .....
The hotel	a doctor	7 .....
The bus	~~happy~~	8 .....

2 Complete the sentences.

1 'Are you hungry?' 'No, but ...I'm... thirsty.'
2 '...How are... your parents?' 'They're fine.'
3 'Is Anna at home?' 'No, ... at work.'
4 '..... my keys?' 'On your desk.'
5 Where is Paul from? ..... American or British?
6 ..... very hot today. The temperature is 38 degrees.
7 'Are you a teacher?' 'No, ... a student.'
8 '..... your umbrella?' 'Green.'
9 Where's your car? ..... in the car park?
10 '..... tired?' 'No, I'm fine.'
11 'These shoes are nice. How ..... ?' 'Sixty pounds.'

present continuous (I'm working / are you working? etc.)

Units 3–4

3 Use the words in brackets to write sentences.

1 A: Where are your parents?
B: ...They're watching TV.... (they / watch / TV)
2 A: Paula is going out.
B: ...Where's she going?... (where / she / go?)
3 A: Where's David?
B: ..... (he / have / a shower)
4 A: ..... ? (the children / play?)
B: No, they're asleep.
5 A: ..... ? (it / rain?)
B: No, not at the moment.
6 A: Where are Sue and Steve?
B: ..... (they / come / now)
7 A: ..... ? (why / you / stand / here?)
B: ..... (I / wait / for somebody)

present simple (I work / she doesn't work / do you work? etc.)

Units 5–7

4 Complete the sentences. Use the present simple.

1 ...Sue always gets... to work early. (Sue / always / get)
2 ...We don't watch... TV very often. (we / not / watch)
3 How often ...do you wash... your hair? (you / wash)
4 I want to go to the cinema, but ..... to go. (Sam / not / want)
5 ..... to go out tonight? (you / want)
6 ..... near here? (Helen / live)
7 ..... a lot of people. (Sarah / know)
8 I enjoy travelling, but ..... very much. (I / not / travel)
9 What time ..... in the morning? (you / usually / get up)
10 My parents are usually at home in the evening.
..... very often. (they / not / go out)
11 ..... work at five o'clock. (Tom / always / finish)
12 A: What ..... ? (Jessica / do)
B: ..... in a hotel. (she / work)

present simple, am/is/are and have (got)

Units 1–2, 5–7, 9

5 Read the questions and Clare's answers. Then write sentences about Clare.

1	Are you married?	No.	1 She isn't married.
2	Do you live in London?	Yes.	2 She lives in London.
3	Are you a student?	Yes.	3 .....
4	Have you got a car?	No.	4 .....
5	Do you go out a lot?	Yes.	5 .....
6	Have you got a lot of friends?	Yes.	6 .....
7	Do you like London?	No.	7 .....
8	Do you like dancing?	Yes.	8 .....
9	Are you interested in sport?	No.	9 .....

Clare

6 Complete the questions.

1 What's your name ..... ?
..... married?
Where ..... ?
..... any children?
How ..... ?

Ben.
Yes, I am.
In Barton Road.
Yes, a daughter.
She's three.

2 ..... ?
..... ?
..... your job?
..... a car?
..... to work by car?

I'm 29.
I work in a supermarket.
No, I hate it.
Yes, I have.
No, I usually go by bus.

3 Who is this man ..... ?
..... ?
..... ?
..... in London?

That's my brother.
Michael.
He's a travel agent.
No, in Manchester.

7 Write sentences from these words. All the sentences are present.

1 Sarah often / tennis ..... Sarah often plays tennis.
2 my parents / a new car ..... My parents have got a new car.
3 my shoes / dirty ..... My shoes are dirty.
4 Sonia / 32 years old ..... Sonia .....
5 I / two sisters .....
6 we often / TV in the evening .....
7 Amy never / a hat .....
8 a bicycle / two wheels .....
9 these flowers / beautiful .....
10 Emma / German very well .....

present continuous (I'm working) and present simple (I work)

Units 3–8

8 Complete the sentences.

9 Which is right?

1 '~~Are you speaking~~ / Do you speak English?' 'Yes, a little.' (Do you speak *is right*)
2 Sometimes we're going / we go away at weekends.
3 It's a nice day today. The sun is shining / shines.
4 *(You meet Kate in the street.)* Hello, Kate. Where are you going / do you go?
5 How often are you going / do you go on holiday?
6 Emily is a writer. She's writing / She writes books for children.
7 I'm never reading / I never read newspapers.
8 'Where are Mark and Laura?' 'They're watching / They watch TV in the living room.'
9 Helen is in her office. She's talking / She talks to somebody.
10 What time are you usually having / do you usually have dinner?
11 Joe isn't at home at the moment. He's visiting / He visits some friends.
12 'Would you like some tea?' 'No, thank you. I'm not drinking / I don't drink tea.'

was/were and past simple (I worked / did you work? etc.) — Units 10–12

10 Complete the sentences. Use one word only.

1 I got up early and ...had... a shower.
2 Tom was tired last night, so he ..... to bed early.
3 I ..... this key on the floor. Is it yours?
4 Kate got married when she ..... 23.
5 Helen is learning to drive. She ..... her first lesson yesterday.
6 'I've got a new job.' 'Yes, I know. David ..... me.'
7 'Where did you buy that book?' 'It was a present. Amy ..... it to me.'
8 We ..... hungry, so we had something to eat.
9 'Did you enjoy the film?' 'Yes, I ..... it was very good.'
10 'Did Andy come to your party?' 'No, we ..... him, but he didn't come.'

11 Look at the questions and Joe's answers. Write sentences about Joe when he was a child.

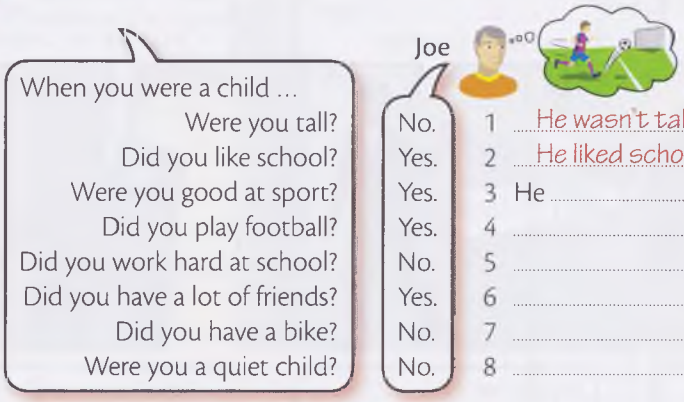

1 ...He wasn't tall.....
2 ...He liked school.....
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

12 Complete the questions.

13 Put the verb in the right form (positive, negative or question).

1 It was a good party. ...I enjoyed... it. (I / enjoy)
2 '...Did you do... the shopping?' (you / do) 'No, ...I didn't have... time.' (I / have)
3 'Did you phone Adam?' 'No, I'm afraid .....' (I / forget)
4 I like your new watch. Where ..... it? (you / get)
5 I saw Lucy at the party, but ..... to her. (I / speak)
6 A: ..... a nice weekend? (you / have)
B: Yes, I went to stay with some friends of mine.
7 Paul wasn't well yesterday, so ..... to work. (he / go)
8 'Is Mary here?' 'Yes, ... five minutes ago.' (she / arrive)
9 Where ..... before he moved here? (Robert / live)
10 The restaurant wasn't expensive. ..... very much. (the meal / cost)

past simple (I worked) and past continuous (I was working)

Units 11–14

14 Complete the sentences. Use the past simple or past continuous.

1

It ....was raining.... (rain) when we ....went.... (go) out.

2

When I arrived at the office, Lisa and Paul ..... (work) at their desks.

3

I ..... (open) the window because it was hot.

4

The doorbell ..... (ring) when Sue ..... (cook).

5

I ..... (hear) a noise outside, so I ..... (look) out of the window.

6

Tom ..... (look) out of the window when the accident ..... (happen).

7

Richard had a book in his hand, but he ..... (not/read) it. He ..... (watch) TV.

8

Catherine bought a magazine, but she ..... (not/read) it. She didn't have time.

9

I ..... (finish) my meal, ... (pay) the bill and ..... (leave) the restaurant.

10

I ..... (see) Kate this morning. I ..... (walk) along the street and she ..... (wait) for the bus.

present and past

Units 3–14

15 Complete the sentences. Use one of these forms:

present simple (**I work/drive** etc.) present continuous (**I am working/driving** etc.)
past simple (**I worked/drove** etc.) past continuous (**I was working/driving** etc.)

1 You can turn off the television. I 'm not watching (not/watch) it.
2 Last night Jenny fell (fall) asleep while she was reading (read).
3 Listen! Somebody ..... (play) the piano.
4 'Have you got my key?' 'No, I ..... (give) it back to you.'
5 David is very lazy. He ..... (not/like) hard work.
6 Where ..... (your parents / go) for their holidays last year?
7 I ..... (see) Laura yesterday. She ..... (drive) her new car.
8 A: ..... (you/watch) TV much?
B: No, I haven't got a TV.
9 A: What ..... (you/do) at 6 o'clock last Sunday morning?
B: I was in bed asleep.
10 Andy isn't at home very much. He ..... (go) away a lot.
11 I ..... (try) to find a job at the moment. It's not easy.
12 I'm tired this morning. I ..... (not/sleep) very well last night.

present perfect (I have done / she has been etc.)

Units 15–19

16 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use the present perfect.

5
Bookshop
Is this a good book?
I don't know.
I ..... it.
6
I'm looking for Jessica.
..... her?
Yes, she was here a few minutes ago.
7
More coffee?
No, thanks. I
..... enough.
8
..... to Sweden?
SWEDEN
Yes, I went there a few years ago.
9
Hi. We .....
to the cinema.
later
10
Enjoy the party!
Where are Steve and Jane?
later
JANE
STEVE
.....
to a party.
11
PAUL
Paul was asleep in the armchair.
He ..... up.
12
Since 2010.
How long
..... here?
13
ALAN
Do you know Alan?
Yes, we .....
each other for a long time.
14
The weather is horrible here.
It .....
all day.

17 Complete the sentences (1, 2 or 3 words).

1 Mark and Sarah are married. They ....have been.... married for five years.
2 David has been watching TV ....since.... 5 o'clock.
3 Joe is at work. He .... at work since 8.30.
4 'Have you just arrived in London?' 'No, I've been here .... five days.'
5 I've known Helen .... we were at school together.
6 'My brother lives in Los Angeles.' 'Really? How long .... there?'
7 George has had the same job .... 20 years.
8 Some friends of ours are staying with us at the moment. They .... here since Monday.

18 Complete the sentences. Write about yourself.

1 I've never ....ridden a horse.....
2 I've ....been to London.... many times.
3 I've just ....
4 I've .... (once / twice / a few times / many times)
5 I haven't .... yet.
6 I've never ....
7 I've .... since ....
8 I've .... for ....

present perfect (I have done etc.) and past simple (I did etc.) — Units 18–20

19 Present perfect or past simple? Complete the sentences (positive or negative).

1 A: Do you like London?
B: I don't know. I ....haven't been.... there.
2 A: Have you seen Kate?
B: Yes, I ....saw.... her five minutes ago.
3 A: That's a nice sweater. Is it new?
B: Yes, I .... it last week.
4 A: Are you tired this morning?
B: Yes, I .... to bed late last night.
5 A: Do you want this newspaper, or can I have it?
B: You can have it. I .... it.
6 A: Are you enjoying your new job?
B: I .... yet. My first day is next Monday.
7 A: The weather isn't very nice today, is it?
B: No, but it .... nice yesterday.
8 A: Was Helen at the party on Saturday?
B: I don't think so. I .... her there.
9 A: Is your son still at school?
B: No, he .... school two years ago.
10 A: Is Silvia married?
B: Yes, she .... married for five years.
11 A: Have you heard of George Washington?
B: Of course. He .... the first President of the United States.
12 A: How long does it take to make a pizza?
B: I don't know. I .... a pizza.

20 Write sentences with the present perfect or past simple.

1 A: Have you been to Thailand?
B: Yes, I went there last year. (I / go / there / last year)
2 A: Do you like London?
B: I don't know. I've never been there. (I / never / there)
3 A: What time is Paul going out?
B: ..... (he / already / go)
4 A: Has Catherine gone home?
B: Yes, ... (she / leave / at 4 o'clock)
5 A: New York is my favourite city.
B: Is it? ..... ? (how many times / you / there?)
6 A: What are you doing this weekend?
B: I don't know. ..... (I / not / decide / yet)
7 A: I can't find my address book. Have you seen it?
B: ..... (it / on the table / last night)
8 A: Do you know the Japanese restaurant in Leeson Street?
B: Yes, ... (I / eat / there a few times)
9 A: Paula and Sue are here.
B: Are they? ..... ? (what time / they / arrive?)

21 Present perfect or past simple? Complete the sentences.

1 A: Have you been to France?
B: Yes, many times.
A: When ..... the last time?
B: Two years ago.

2 A: Is this your car?
B: Yes, it is.
A: How long ..... it?
B: It's new. I ..... it yesterday.

3 A: Where do you live?
B: In Harold Street.
A: How long ..... there?
B: Five years. Before that ..... in Mill Road.
A: How long ..... in Mill Road?
B: About three years.

4 A: What do you do?
B: I work in a shop.
A: How long ..... there?
B: Nearly two years.
A: What ..... before that?
B: I ..... a taxi driver.

22 Write sentences about yourself.

1 (yesterday morning) I was late for work yesterday morning.
2 (last night) .....
3 (yesterday afternoon) .....
4 (... days ago) .....
5 (last week) .....
6 (last year) .....

present, past and present perfect

Units 3–20

23 Which is right?

1 '.....Is Sue working? (C).....' 'No, she's on holiday.'
A Does Sue work? **B** Is working Sue? **C** Is Sue working? **D** Does work Sue?

2 'Where ..... ?' 'In a village near London.'
A lives your uncle **B** does your uncle live **C** your uncle lives **D** does live your uncle

3 I speak Italian, but ..... French.
A I speak not **B** I'm not speaking **C** I doesn't speak **D** I don't speak

4 'Where's Tom?' '..... a shower at the moment.'
A He's having **B** He have **C** He has **D** He has had

5 Why ..... angry with me yesterday?
A were you **B** was you **C** you were **D** have you been

6 My favourite film is *Cleo's Dream*. ..... it four times.
A I'm seeing **B** I see **C** I was seeing **D** I've seen

7 I ..... out last night. I was too tired.
A don't go **B** didn't went **C** didn't go **D** haven't gone

8 Tina is from Chicago. She ..... there all her life.
A is living **B** has lived **C** lives **D** lived

9 My friend ..... for me when I arrived.
A waited **B** has waited **C** was waiting **D** has been waiting

10 'How long ..... English?' 'Six months.'
A do you learn **B** are you learning **C** you are learning **D** have you been learning

11 Paul is Canadian, but he lives in France. He has been there ..... .
A for three years **B** since three years **C** three years ago **D** during three years

12 'What time ..... ?' 'About an hour ago.'
A has Lisa phoned **B** Lisa has phoned **C** did Lisa phone **D** is Lisa phoning

13 What ..... when you saw her?
A did Sue wear **B** was Sue wearing **C** has Sue worn **D** was wearing Sue

14 'Can you drive?' 'No, ... a car, but I want to learn.'
A I never drive **B** I'm never driving **C** I've never driven **D** I was never driving

15 I saw Helen at the station when I was going to work this morning, but she ..... me.
A didn't see **B** don't see **C** hasn't seen **D** didn't saw

passive

Units 21–22, Appendix 1

24 Complete the sentences.

1

These houses ..were built.. (build) 20 years ago. Before that there was a cinema here, but the building ..... (damage) in a fire and had to ..... (knock down).

2

This bridge ..... (build) in 1955. It ..... (use) by hundreds of people every day. At the moment the bridge ..... (paint).

3

This street ..... (call) Wilton Street. It used to ..... (call) James Street, but the name ..... (change) a few years ago.

4

This is a bicycle factory. Bicycles ..... (make) here since 1971. It's the largest bicycle factory in the country. Thousands of bicycles ..... (produce) here every year.

25 Complete the sentences.

1 We ..were invited.. (invite) to the party, but we didn't go.
2 The museum is very popular. Every year it ..... (visit) by thousands of people.
3 Many buildings ..... (damage) in the storm last week.
4 A new road is going to ..... (build) next year.
5 'Where's your jacket?' 'It ..... (clean). It will be ready tomorrow.'
6 She's famous now, but in a few years her name will ..... (forget).
7 'Shall I do the washing-up?' 'No, it ..... (already/do).'
8 Milk should ..... (keep) in a fridge.
9 ..... (you/ever/bite) by a snake?
10 My bag ..... (steal) from my car yesterday afternoon.

26 Write a new sentence with the same meaning.

1 Somebody has stolen my keys. ..My keys have been stolen.....
2 Somebody stole my car last week. My car .....
3 Somebody has eaten all the bananas. All the .....
4 Somebody will repair the machine. The .....
5 Somebody is watching us. We .....
6 Somebody has to do the housework. The .....

27 Active or passive? Complete the sentences.

1 They ....are building.... (build) a new airport at the moment.
2 These shirts are clean now. They ....have been washed.... (wash).
3 'How did you fall?' 'Somebody .... (push) me.'
4 'How did you fall?' 'I .... (push).'
5 I can't find my bag. Somebody .... (take) it!
6 My watch is broken. It .... (repair) at the moment.
7 Who .... (invent) the camera?
8 When .... (the camera/invent)?
9 These shirts are clean now. They .... (wash).
10 These shirts are clean now. I .... (wash) them.
11 The letter was for me, so why .... (they/send) it to you?
12 The information will .... (send) to you as soon as possible.

future

Units 25–28

28 Which is the best alternative?

1 ....We're having (B).... a party next Sunday. I hope you can come.
A We have **B** We're having **C** We'll have

2 Do you know about Karen? .... her job. She told me last week.
A She leaves **B** She's going to leave **C** She'll leave

3 There's a programme on TV that I want to watch. .... in five minutes.
A It starts **B** It's starting **C** It will start

4 The weather is nice now, but I think .... later.
A it rains **B** it's raining **C** it will rain

5 'What .... next weekend?' 'Nothing. I've got no plans.'
A do you do **B** are you doing **C** will you do

6 'When you see Tina, can you ask her to phone me?' 'OK, ... her.'
A I ask **B** I'm going to ask **C** I'll ask

7 'What would you like to drink, tea or coffee?' '.... tea, please.'
A I have **B** I'm going to have **C** I'll have

8 Don't take that magazine away. .... it.
A I read **B** I'm going to read **C** I'll read

9 Rachel is ill, so .... to the party tomorrow night.
A she doesn't come **B** she isn't coming **C** she won't come

10 I want to meet Sarah at the station. What time ....?
A does her train arrive **B** is her train going to arrive **C** is her train arriving

11 'Will you be at home tomorrow evening?' 'No. ....'
A I go out **B** I'm going out **C** I'll go out

12 '.... you tomorrow?' 'Yes, OK.'
A Do I phone **B** Am I going to phone **C** Shall I phone

past, present and future

Units 3–20, 25–28

29 Complete the sentences.

1 A: Did you go (you/go) out last night?
B: No, ... (I/stay) at home.
A: What ..... (you/do)?
B: ..... (I/watch) TV.
A: ..... (you/go) out tomorrow night?
B: Yes, ... (I/go) to the cinema.
A: Which film ..... (you/see)?
B: ..... (I/not/know). ..... (I/not/decide) yet.

2 A: Are you on holiday here?
B: Yes, we are.
A: How long ..... (you/be) here?
B: ..... (we/arrive) yesterday.
A: And how long ..... (you/stay)?
B: Until the end of next week.
A: And ..... (you/like) it here?
B: Yes, ... (we/have) a wonderful time.

3 A: ..... (I/go) out with Chris and Steve this evening.
..... (you/want) to come with us?
B: Yes, where ..... (you/go)?
A: To the Italian restaurant in North Street. ..... (you/ever/eat) there?
B: Yes, ... (I/be) there two or three times. In fact I
..... (go) there last night, but I'd love to go again!

4 A: ..... (I/lose) my glasses again.
..... (you/see) them?
B: ..... (you/wear) them
when ..... (I/come) in.
A: Well, ... (I/not/wear)
them now, so where are they?
B: ..... (you/look) in the kitchen?
A: No, ... (I/go) and look now.

past, present and future

Units 3–22, 25–28, 52, 54, 98, 105

30 Rachel is talking about her best friend, Carolyn. Put the verbs in the correct form.

Rachel

Carolyn is my best friend. I remember very well the first time (1) ..... (we/meet). It was our first day at secondary school, and (2) ..... (we/sit) next to each other for the first lesson. (3) ..... (we/not/know) any other students in our class, and so (4) ..... (we/become) friends. We found that (5) ..... (we/like) the same things, especially music and sport, and so (6) ..... (we/spend) a lot of time together.

(7) ..... (we/leave) school five years ago, but (8) ..... (we/meet) as often as we can. For the last six months Carolyn (9) ..... (be) in Mexico – at the moment (10) ..... (she/work) in a school as a teaching assistant. (11) ..... (she/come) back to England next month, and when (12) ..... (she/come) back, (13) ..... (we/have) lots of things to talk about. (14) ..... (it/be) really nice to see her again.

31 Nick and his friend Jon are travelling round the world. Read the emails between Nick and his parents, and put the verbs in the correct form.

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Dear Mum and Dad

We're in Los Angeles, the first stop on our round-the-world trip! (1) We arrived (we/arrive) here yesterday, and now (2) ..... (we/stay) at a hotel near the airport. The flight was twelve hours, but (3) ..... (we/enjoy) it. (4) ..... (we/watch) some films and (5) ..... (sleep) a few hours, which is unusual for me – usually (6) ..... (I/not/sleep) well on planes.

Today is a rest day for us and (7) ..... (we/not/do) anything special, but tomorrow (8) ..... (we/go) to Hollywood (9) ..... (see) the film studios. (10) ..... (we/not/decide) yet what to do after Los Angeles. Jon (11) ..... (want) to drive up the coast to San Francisco, but I'd prefer (12) ..... (go) south to San Diego.

I hope all is well with you – (13) ..... (I/send) you another email next week.

Love

Nick

Nick

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Dear Nick

Thanks for your mail. It's good to hear that (14) ..... (you/have) a good time.
We're fine – Ellie and Jo (15) ..... (work) hard for their exams next month.
Dad has been busy at work and last week (16) ..... (he/have) a lot of important meetings. He's a little tired – I think (17) ..... (he/need) a good holiday.

Keep in touch!

Love

Mum

A month later ...

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Hi Mum and Dad

(18) ..... (we/be) in California for a month now. (19) ..... (we/get) back to Los Angeles yesterday after (20) ..... (see) many wonderful places.
I think the place (21) ..... (I/like) most was Yosemite National Park – it's beautiful there and (22) ..... (we/go) cycling a lot. The day before (23) ..... (we/leave), Jon (24) ..... (have) an accident on his bike. Luckily (25) ..... (he/not/injure), but the bike (26) ..... (damage).

(27) ..... (we/change) our travel plans since my last message: now (28) ..... (we/leave) for Hawaii on Monday (not Tuesday).
(29) ..... (we/stay) there for a week before (30) ..... (fly) to New Zealand. (31) ..... (that/be) different, I'm sure!

All the best to Ellie and Jo for their exams.

Love

Nick

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Hi Nick

Have a good time in Hawaii! Ellie and Jo (32) ..... (finish) their exams yesterday – (33) ..... (I/let) you know when (34) ..... (we/get) the results.

We're all OK. Dad and I (35) ..... (look) forward to our holiday next month. (36) ..... (we/go) to Italy for two weeks – (37) ..... (we/send) you an email from there.

Take care!

Love

Mum

-ing and to ...

Units 51–55, 105, 112

32 Which is correct?

1 Don't forget ..to switch (B).. off the light before you go out.
A switch **B** to switch **C** switching

2 It's late. I must ..... now.
A go **B** to go **C** going

3 I'm sorry, but I don't have time ..... to you now.
A for talking **B** to talk **C** talking

4 Gary is always in the kitchen. He enjoys ..... .
A cook **B** to cook **C** cooking

5 We've decided ..... away for a few days.
A go **B** to go **C** going

6 You're making too much noise. Can you please stop ..... ?
A shout **B** to shout **C** shouting

7 Would you like ..... and eat with us on Sunday?
A come **B** to come **C** coming

8 That bag is too heavy for you. Let me ..... you.
A help **B** to help **C** helping

9 There's a swimming pool near my house. I go ..... every day.
A to swim **B** to swimming **C** swimming

10 I need to go shopping ..... some food.
A to buy **B** for buy **C** for buying

11 I'd love ..... a car like yours.
A have **B** to have **C** having

12 Could you ..... me with this bag, please?
A help **B** to help **C** helping

13 I don't mind ..... here, but I'd prefer to sit by the window.
A sit **B** to sit **C** sitting

14 Do you want ..... you?
A that I help **B** me to help **C** me helping

15 You should think carefully before ..... an important decision.
A make **B** to make **C** making

16 I wasn't feeling very well, but the medicine made me ..... better.
A feel **B** to feel **C** feeling

17 Shall I phone the restaurant ..... a table?
A for reserve **B** for reserving **C** to reserve

18 Tom looked at me without ..... anything.
A say **B** saying **C** to say

a and the

Units 65, 69–73

33 Complete the sentences.

1 Can you pass ....the sugar...., please?

2 Have you got .....?
No, I can't drive.

3 Do you have any milk?
Yes, there's some in .....

4 What do you do?
I'm .....

5 I don't feel very well.
I don't want to go to .....

6 What did you do last night?
I went to .....

7 Shall we walk home?
No, let's get .....

8 Can you play .....?
Yes, but not very well.

9 I'm interested in .....

10 What's the difference between those cars?
Nothing, they're .....

34 Write **a/an** or **the** if necessary. If **a/an/the** are not necessary, leave an empty space (–).

1 Who is ...the... best player in your team?
2 I don't watch ...–... TV very often.
3 'Is there ...a... bank near here?' 'Yes, at ...the... end of this street.'
4 I can't ride ..... horse.
5 ..... sky is very clear tonight.
6 Do you live here, or are you ..... tourist?
7 What did you have for ..... lunch?
8 Who was ..... first President of ..... United States?
9 I'm not feeling very good. I've got ..... headache.
10 I'm sorry, but I've forgotten your name. I can never remember ..... names.
11 What time is ..... next train to London?
12 Kate doesn't often send ..... emails. She prefers to call people.
13 'Where's Sue?' 'She's in ..... garden.'
14 Excuse me, I'm looking for ..... Majestic Hotel. Is it near here?
15 Gary was ill ..... last week, so he didn't go to ..... work.
16 Everest is ..... highest mountain in ..... world.
17 I usually listen to ..... radio while I'm having ..... breakfast.
18 I like ..... sport. My favourite sport is ..... basketball.
19 Emily is ..... doctor. Her husband is ..... art teacher.
20 My apartment is on ..... second floor. Turn left at ..... top of ..... stairs, and it's on ..... right.
21 After ..... dinner, we watched ..... TV.
22 Last year we had ..... wonderful holiday in ..... south of ..... France.

prepositions

Units 103–108, 111

35 Write a preposition (**in/for/by** etc.).

1 Helen is studying law ...at... university.
2 What is the longest river ..... Europe?
3 Is there anything ..... TV this evening?
4 We arrived ..... the hotel after midnight.
5 'Where's Mark?' 'He's ..... holiday.'
6 Tom hasn't got up yet. He's still ..... bed.
7 Lisa is away. She's been away ..... Monday.
8 The next meeting is ..... 15 April.
9 I usually go to work ..... car.
10 There's too much sugar ..... my coffee.
11 Joe lived in London ..... six months. He didn't like it very much.
12 Were there a lot of people ..... the party?
13 What are you doing ..... the moment? Are you working?
14 I don't know any of the people ..... this photo.
15 The train was very slow. It stopped ..... every station.
16 I like this room. I like the pictures ..... the walls.
17 'Did you buy that picture?' 'No, it was given to me ..... a friend of mine.'
18 I'm going away ..... a few days. I'll be back ..... Thursday.
19 Silvia has gone ..... Italy. She's ..... Milan at the moment.
20 Emma left school ..... sixteen and got a job ..... a shop.

Study guide

If you are not sure which units you need to study, use this study guide.

You have to decide which alternative (A, B, C etc.) is right. SOMETIMES MORE THAN ONE ALTERNATIVE IS CORRECT.

If you don't know (or if you are not sure) which alternatives are correct, study the unit (or units) on the right. You will find the correct sentence in the unit.

The key to this study guide is on page 313.

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Present	
1.1 ..... . Can you close the window, please? **A** I cold **B** I'm cold **C** I have cold **D** It has cold	1
1.2 Lisa ..... in politics. **A** isn't interested **B** not interested **C** doesn't interested **D** doesn't interest	1
1.3 '..... ?' 'No, she's out.' **A** Is at home your mother **B** Does your mother at home **C** Is your mother at home **D** Are your mother at home	2
1.4 These shoes are nice. ..... **A** How much are they? **B** How many are they? **C** How much they are? **D** How much is they?	2
1.5 Look, there's Sarah. ..... a brown coat. **A** She wearing **B** She has wearing **C** She is wearing **D** She's wearing	3, 23
1.6 You can turn off the television. ..... it. **A** I'm not watch **B** I'm not watching **C** I not watching **D** I don't watching	3, 23
1.7 '..... today?' 'No, he's at home.' **A** Is working Ben **B** Is work Ben **C** Is Ben work **D** Is Ben working	4, 23
1.8 Look, there's Emily! ..... **A** Where she is going? **B** Where she go? **C** Where's she going? **D** Where she going?	4, 23
1.9 The earth ..... round the sun. **A** going **B** go **C** goes **D** does go **E** is go	5, 23
1.10 We ..... away at weekends. **A** often go **B** go often **C** often going **D** are often go	5, 23, 94
1.11 We ..... TV very often. **A** not watch **B** doesn't watch **C** don't watch **D** don't watching **E** watch not	6, 23
1.12 '..... play the guitar?' 'Yes, but I'm not very good.' **A** Do you play **B** Are you play **C** Does you play **D** Do you playing **E** Play you	7, 23
1.13 I don't understand this sentence. What ..... ? **A** mean this word **B** means this word **C** does mean this word **D** does this word mean **E** this word means	7, 23

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT

STUDY UNIT

1.14 Please be quiet. 8, 23
A I working. **B** I work. **C** I'm working. **D** I'm work.

1.15 Tom ..... a shower every morning. 8, 58
A has **B** having **C** is having **D** have

1.16 What ..... at weekends? 8, 23
A do you usually **B** are you usually doing **C** are you usually do
D do you usually do **E** you do usually

1.17 Sarah isn't feeling well. ..... a headache. 9, 58
A She have **B** She have got **C** She has **D** She's got

1.18 They ..... any children. 9, 58
A don't have **B** doesn't have **C** no have **D** haven't got **E** hasn't got

Past

2.1 The weather ..... last week. 10
A is good **B** was good **C** were good **D** good **E** had good

2.2 Why ..... late this morning? 10
A you was **B** did you **C** was you **D** you were **E** were you

2.3 Terry ..... in a bank from 2005 to 2011. 11
A work **B** working **C** works **D** worked **E** was work

2.4 Caroline ..... to the cinema three times last week. 11
A go **B** went **C** goes **D** got **E** was

2.5 I ..... TV yesterday. 12, 23
A didn't watch **B** didn't watched **C** wasn't watched
D don't watch **E** didn't watching

2.6 'How ..... ?' 'I don't know. I didn't see it.' 12
A happened the accident **B** did happen the accident
C does the accident happen **D** did the accident happen
E the accident happened

2.7 What ..... at 11.30 yesterday? 13
A were you doing **B** was you doing **C** you were doing
D were you do **E** you was doing

2.8 Jack was reading a book when his phone 14
A ringing **B** ring **C** rang **D** was ringing **E** was ring

2.9 I saw Lucy and Steve this morning. They ..... at the bus stop. 14
A waiting **B** waited **C** were waiting **D** was waiting **E** were waited

Present perfect

3.1 'Where's Rebecca?' '..... to bed.' 15
A She is gone **B** She has gone **C** She goes **D** She have gone
E She's gone

3.2 'Are Laura and Paul here?' 'No, they ..... .' 16
A don't arrive yet **B** have already arrived **C** haven't already arrived
D haven't arrived yet

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
3.3	My sister ..... by plane. **A** has never travel **B** has never travelled **C** is never travelled **D** has never been travelled **E** have never travelled	17, 23
3.4	..... that woman before, but I can't remember where. **A** I see **B** I seen **C** I've saw **D** I've seen **E** I've seeing	17, 23
3.5	'How long ..... married?' 'Since 2007.' **A** you are **B** you have been **C** has you been **D** are you **E** have you been	18
3.6	'Do you know Lisa?' 'Yes, ... her for a long time.' **A** I knew **B** I've known **C** I know **D** I am knowing	18
3.7	Richard has been in Canada ..... . **A** for six months **B** since six months **C** six months ago **D** in six months	19, 104
3.8	'When did Tom go out?' '.....' **A** For ten minutes. **B** Since ten minutes. **C** Ten minutes ago. **D** In ten minutes.	19
3.9	We ..... a holiday last year. **A** don't have **B** haven't had **C** hasn't had **D** didn't have **E** didn't had	20
3.10	Where ..... on Sunday afternoon? I couldn't find you. **A** you were **B** you have been **C** was you **D** have you been **E** were you	20
Passive		
4.1	This house ..... 100 years ago. **A** is built **B** is building **C** was building **D** was built **E** built	21, 23
4.2	We ..... to the party last week. **A** didn't invite **B** didn't invited **C** weren't invited **D** wasn't invited **E** haven't been invited	21, 23
4.3	'Where ..... born?' 'In Cairo.' **A** you are **B** you were **C** was you **D** are you **E** were you	21
4.4	My car is at the garage. It ..... . **A** is being repaired **B** is repairing **C** have been repaired **D** repaired **E** repairs	22
4.5	I can't find my keys. I think ..... . **A** they've been stolen **B** they are stolen **C** they've stolen **D** they're being stolen	22
Verb forms		
5.1	It ....., so we didn't need an umbrella. **A** wasn't rained **B** wasn't rain **C** didn't raining **D** wasn't raining	23
5.2	Somebody ..... this window. **A** has broke **B** has broken **C** has breaked **D** has break	24

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Future	
6.1 Andrew ..... tennis tomorrow. **A** is playing **B** play **C** plays **D** is play	25
6.2 ..... out tonight? **A** Are you going **B** Are you go **C** Do you go **D** Go you **E** Do you going	25
6.3 'What time is the concert tonight?' 'It ..... at 7.30.' **A** is start **B** is starting **C** starts **D** start **E** starting	25
6.4 What ..... to the wedding next week? **A** are you wearing **B** are you going to wear **C** do you wear **D** you are going to wear	26
6.5 I think Kelly ..... the exam. **A** passes **B** will pass **C** will be pass **D** will passing	27
6.6 ..... to the cinema on Saturday. Do you want to come with us? **A** We go **B** We'll go **C** We're going **D** We will going	27
6.7 '..... you tomorrow, OK?' 'OK, bye.' **A** I phone **B** I phoning **C** I'm phoning **D** I'll phone	28
6.8 ..... tomorrow, so I can't meet you. **A** I work **B** I'll work **C** I'm working **D** I'll working	28
6.9 It's a nice day. ..... for a walk? **A** Do we go **B** Shall we go **C** Are we go **D** We go **E** Go we	28
Modals, imperative etc.	
7.1 ..... to the cinema this evening, but I'm not sure. **A** I'll go **B** I'm going **C** I may go **D** I might go	29
7.2 '..... here?' 'Yes, of course.' **A** Can I sit **B** Do I sit **C** May I sit **D** Can I to sit	29, 30
7.3 I'm having a party next week, but Paul and Rachel ..... . **A** can't come **B** can't to come **C** can't coming **D** couldn't come	30
7.4 Before Maria came to Britain, she ..... understand much English. **A** can **B** can't **C** not **D** couldn't **E** doesn't	30
7.5 We ..... walk home last night. There were no buses. **A** have to **B** had to **C** must **D** must to **E** must have	31, 33
7.6 I ..... go yet. I can stay a little longer. **A** must **B** mustn't **C** must not **D** don't need **E** don't need to	31
7.7 It's a good film. You ..... go and see it. **A** should to **B** ought to **C** ought **D** should **E** need	32
7.8 What time ..... go to the dentist tomorrow? **A** you must **B** you have to **C** have you to **D** do you have to	33
7.9 We ..... wait long for the bus – it came in a few minutes. **A** don't have to **B** hadn't to **C** didn't have to **D** didn't had to **E** mustn't	33

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT

		STUDY UNIT
7.10	'..... some coffee?' 'No, thank you.' **A** Are you liking **B** You like **C** Would you like **D** Do you like	34
7.11	Please ..... . Stay here with me. **A** don't go **B** you no go **C** go not **D** you don't go	35
7.12	Dave ..... in a factory. Now he works in a supermarket. **A** working **B** works **C** worked **D** use to work **E** used to work	36
There and **it**		
8.1	Excuse me, ... a hotel near here? **A** has there **B** is there **C** there is **D** is it	37
8.2	..... a lot of accidents on this road. It's very dangerous. **A** Have **B** It has **C** There have **D** They are **E** There are	37
8.3	I was hungry when I got home, but ..... anything to eat. **A** there wasn't **B** there weren't **C** it wasn't **D** there hasn't been	38
8.4	..... three kilometres from our house to the city centre. **A** It's **B** It has **C** There is **D** There are	39
8.5	..... true that you're going away? **A** Is there **B** Is it **C** Is **D** Are you	39
Auxiliary verbs		
9.1	I haven't got a car, but my sister ..... . **A** have **B** is **C** has **D** hasn't **E** has got	40
9.2	I don't like hot weather, but Sue ..... . **A** does **B** doesn't **C** do **D** does like **E** likes	40
9.3	'Nicola got married last week.' '..... Really?' **A** Is she? **B** Got she? **C** Did she? **D** Has she?	41
9.4	You haven't met my mother, ... ? **A** haven't you **B** have you **C** did you **D** you have **E** you haven't	41
9.5	Ben doesn't watch TV. He doesn't read newspapers ..... . **A** too **B** either **C** neither **D** never	42
9.6	'I'd like to go to Australia.' '.....' **A** So do I. **B** So am I. **C** So would I. **D** Neither do I. **E** So I would.	42
9.7	Sue ..... much at weekends. **A** don't **B** doesn't **C** don't do **D** doesn't do	43
Questions		
10.1	'When ..... ?' 'I'm not sure. More than 100 years ago.' **A** did the telephone invent **B** has the telephone invented **C** was invented the telephone **D** was the telephone invented **E** the telephone was invented	44
10.2	'I broke my finger last week.' 'How ..... that?' **A** did you **B** you did **C** you did do **D** did you do	44

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
10.3	Why ..... me last night? I was waiting for you to phone. **A** didn't you phone **B** you not phone **C** you don't phone **D** you didn't phone	44
10.4	'Who ..... in this house?' 'I don't know.' **A** lives **B** does live **C** does lives **D** living	45
10.5	What ..... when you told him the story? **A** said Paul **B** did Paul say **C** Paul said **D** did Paul said	45
10.6	'Tom's father is in hospital.' '.....' **A** In which hospital he is? **B** In which hospital he is in? **C** Which hospital he is in? **D** Which hospital is he in?	46
10.7	Did you have a good holiday? ..... **A** How was the weather like? **B** What was the weather like? **C** What the weather was like? **D** Was the weather like?	46
10.8	..... taller – Joe or Gary? **A** Who is **B** What is **C** Which is **D** Who has	47
10.9	There are four umbrellas here. ..... is yours? **A** What **B** Who **C** Which **D** How **E** Which one	47, 75
10.10	How long ..... to cross the Atlantic by ship? **A** is it **B** does it need **C** does it take **D** does it want	48
10.11	I don't remember what ..... at the party. **A** Kate was wearing **B** was wearing Kate **C** was Kate wearing	49
10.12	'Do you know ..... ?' 'Yes, I think so.' **A** if Jack is at home **B** is Jack at home **C** whether Jack is at home **D** that Jack is at home	49
Reported speech		
11.1	I saw Steve a week ago. He said that ..... me, but he didn't. **A** he phone **B** he phones **C** he'll phone **D** he's going to phone **E** he would phone	50
11.2	'Why did Tim go to bed so early?' 'He .....' **A** said he was tired **B** said that he was tired **C** said me he was tired **D** told me he was tired **E** told that he was tired	50
-ing and to		
12.1	You shouldn't ..... so hard. **A** working **B** work **C** to work **D** worked	51
12.2	It's late. I ..... now. **A** must to go **B** have go **C** have to going **D** have to go	51
12.3	Tina has decided ..... her car. **A** sell **B** to sell **C** selling **D** to selling	52
12.4	I don't mind ..... early. **A** get up **B** to get up **C** getting up **D** to getting up	52

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
12.5	Do you like ..... early? **A** get up **B** to get up **C** getting up **D** to getting up	52
12.6	Do you want ..... you some money? **A** me lend **B** me lending **C** me to lend **D** that I lend	53
12.7	He's very funny. He makes ..... . **A** me laugh **B** me laughing **C** me to laugh **D** that I laugh	53
12.8	Paula went to the shop ..... a newspaper. **A** for get **B** for to get **C** for getting **D** to get **E** get	54
Go, get, do, make and **have**		
13.1	It's a nice day. Let's go ..... . **A** for a swim **B** on a swim **C** to swimming **D** swimming	55
13.2	I'm sorry your mother is ill. I hope she ..... better soon. **A** has **B** makes **C** gets **D** goes	56
13.3	Kate ..... the car and drove away. **A** went into **B** went in **C** got in **D** got into	56
13.4	'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll ..... it.' **A** do **B** make **C** get **D** open	57
13.5	I'm sorry, I ..... a mistake. **A** did **B** made **C** got **D** had	57
13.6	'..... a good time in Tokyo?' 'Yes, it was great.' **A** Have you **B** Had you **C** Do you have **D** Did you have	58
Pronouns and possessives		
14.1	I don't want this book. You can have ..... . **A** it **B** them **C** her **D** him	59, 62
14.2	Sue and Kevin are going to the cinema. Do you want to go with ..... ? **A** her **B** they **C** them **D** him	59, 62
14.3	I know Amy, but I don't know ..... husband. **A** their **B** his **C** she **D** her	60, 62
14.4	Oxford is famous for ..... university. **A** his **B** its **C** it's **D** their	60
14.5	I didn't have an umbrella, so Sarah gave me ..... . **A** her **B** hers **C** her umbrella **D** she's	61, 62
14.6	I went out to meet a friend of ..... . **A** mine **B** my **C** me **D** I **E** myself	61, 62
14.7	We had a good holiday. We enjoyed ..... . **A** us **B** our **C** ours **D** ourself **E** ourselves	63
14.8	Kate and Helen are good friends. They know ..... well. **A** each other **B** them **C** themselves **D** theirselves	63

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
Determiners and pronouns		
16.1	'I'm going on holiday next week.' 'Oh, ... nice.' **A** it's **B** this is **C** that's	74
16.2	'Is there a bank near here?' 'Yes, there's ..... at the end of this street.' **A** some **B** it **C** one **D** a one	75
16.3	This cup is dirty. Can I have ..... ? **A** clean one **B** a clean one **C** clean **D** a clean	75
16.4	I'm going shopping. I'm going to buy ..... clothes. **A** any **B** some	76
16.5	'Where's your luggage?' 'I don't have ..... .' **A** one **B** some **C** any	76
16.6	Tracey and Jack ..... . **A** have no children **B** don't have no children **C** don't have any children **D** have any children	77, 78
16.7	'How much money do you have?' '.....' **A** No. **B** No-one. **C** Any. **D** None.	77
16.8	There is ..... in the room. It's empty. **A** anybody **B** nobody **C** anyone **D** no-one	78, 79
16.9	'What did you say?' '.....' **A** Nothing. **B** Nobody. **C** Anything. **D** Not anything.	78, 79
16.10	I'm hungry. I want ..... . **A** something for eat **B** something to eat **C** something for eating	79
16.11	Ben watches TV for about two hours ..... . **A** all evening **B** all evenings **C** all the evenings **D** every evenings **E** every evening	80
16.12	..... friends. **A** Everybody need **B** Everybody needs **C** Everyone need **D** Everyone needs	80
16.13	..... children like playing. **A** Most **B** The most **C** Most of **D** The most of	81
16.14	I like ..... those pictures. **A** both **B** both of **C** either **D** either of	82
16.15	I haven't read ..... these books. **A** neither **B** neither of **C** either **D** either of	82
16.16	Do you have ..... friends? **A** a lot of **B** much **C** many **D** much of **E** many of	83
16.17	We like films, so we go to the cinema ..... . **A** a lot of **B** much **C** many **D** a lot	83
16.18	There were ..... people in the theatre. It was nearly empty. **A** a little **B** few **C** little **D** a few of	84
16.19	They have ..... money, so they're not poor. **A** a little **B** a few **C** few **D** little **E** little of	84

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Adjectives and adverbs	
17.1 I don't speak any ..... . **A** foreign languages **B** languages foreign **C** languages foreigns	85
17.2 He ate his dinner very ..... . **A** quick **B** quicker **C** quickly	86
17.3 You speak English very ..... . **A** good **B** fluent **C** well **D** slow	86
17.4 Helen wants ..... . **A** a more big car **B** a car more big **C** a car bigger **D** a bigger car	87
17.5 'Do you feel better today?' 'No, I feel ..... .' **A** good **B** worse **C** more bad **D** more worse	87
17.6 Athens is older ..... Rome. **A** as **B** than **C** that **D** of	88
17.7 I can run faster ..... . **A** than him **B** that he can **C** than he can **D** as he can **E** as he	88
17.8 Tennis isn't ..... football. **A** popular as **B** popular than **C** as popular than **D** so popular that **E** as popular as	89
17.9 The weather today is the same ..... yesterday. **A** as **B** that **C** than **D** like	89
17.10 The Europa Hotel is ..... in the city. **A** the more expensive hotel **B** the most expensive hotel **C** the hotel most expensive **D** the hotel the more expensive **E** the hotel more expensive	90
17.11 The film was very bad. I think it's the ..... film I've ever seen. **A** worse **B** baddest **C** most bad **D** worst **E** more worse	90
17.12 Why don't you buy a car? You've got ..... . **A** enough money **B** money enough **C** enough of money	91
17.13 Is your English ..... a conversation? **A** enough good to have **B** good enough for have **C** enough good for **D** good enough to have	91
17.14 I'm ..... out. **A** too tired for go **B** too much tired for going **C** too tired to go **D** too much tired to go	92
Word order	
18.1 Sue ..... . They're very nice. **A** bought yesterday some new shoes **B** bought some new shoes yesterday **C** yesterday bought some new shoes	93
18.2 ..... coffee in the morning. **A** I drink always **B** Always I drink **C** I always drink	94

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
18.3 ..... during the day. **A** They are at home never **B** They are never at home **C** They never are at home **D** Never they are at home	94
18.4 'Where's Emma?' 'She .....' **A** isn't here yet **B** isn't here already **C** isn't here still	95
18.5 I locked the door and I gave ..... . **A** Sarah the keys **B** to Sarah the keys **C** the keys Sarah **D** the keys to Sarah	96
Conjunctions and clauses	
19.1 I can't talk to you now. I'll talk to you later when ..... more time. **A** I'll have **B** I had **C** I have **D** I'm going to have	98
19.2 ..... late this evening, don't wait for me. **A** If I'm **B** If I'll be **C** When I'm **D** When I'll be	99
19.3 I don't know the answer. If I ..... the answer, I'd tell you. **A** know **B** would know **C** have known **D** knew	100
19.4 I like this jacket. ..... it if it wasn't so expensive. **A** I buy **B** I'll buy **C** I bought **D** I'd bought **E** I'd buy	100
19.5 Emma lives in a house ..... is 400 years old. **A** who **B** that **C** which **D** it **E** what	101
19.6 The people ..... work in the office are very friendly. **A** who **B** that **C** they **D** which **E** what	101
19.7 Did you find the books ..... ? **A** who you wanted **B** that you wanted **C** what you wanted **D** you wanted **E** you wanted it	102
19.8 I met ..... can speak six languages. **A** a woman who **B** a woman which **C** a woman **D** a woman she	102
Prepositions	
20.1 Bye! I'll see you ..... . **A** until Friday **B** at Friday **C** in Friday **D** on Friday	103
20.2 Hurry! The train leaves ..... five minutes. **A** at **B** on **C** from **D** after **E** in	103
20.3 'How long will you be away?' '..... Monday.' **A** On **B** To **C** Until **D** Till **E** Since	104
20.4 We played tennis yesterday. We played ..... two hours. **A** in **B** for **C** since **D** during	105
20.5 I always have breakfast before ..... to work. **A** I go **B** go **C** to go **D** going	105
20.6 Write your name ..... the top of the page. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	106

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
20.7 There are a lot of apples ..... those trees. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	106
20.8 What's the largest city ..... the world? **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** of	107
20.9 The office is ..... the first floor. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	107
20.10 I met a lot of people ..... the party. **A** on **B** to **C** in **D** at	108
20.11 I want to go ..... Italy next year. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	108
20.12 What time did you arrive ..... the hotel? **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	108
20.13 'Where is David in this picture?' 'He's ..... Laura.' **A** at front of **B** in the front of **C** in front of **D** in front from	109
20.14 I jumped ..... the wall into the garden. **A** on **B** through **C** across **D** over **E** above	110
20.15 Jane isn't at work this week. She's ..... holiday. **A** on **B** in **C** for **D** to **E** at	111
20.16 Do you like travelling ..... ? **A** with train **B** with the train **C** in train **D** on train **E** by train	111
20.17 I'm not very good ..... telling stories. **A** on **B** with **C** at **D** in **E** for	112
20.18 Tom left without ..... goodbye. **A** say **B** saying **C** to say **D** that he said	112
20.19 I have to phone ..... today. **A** with my parents **B** to my parents **C** at my parents **D** my parents	113
20.20 'Do you like eating in restaurants?' 'It depends ..... the restaurant.' **A** in **B** at **C** of **D** on **E** over	113

Phrasal verbs

21.1 The car stopped and a woman got ..... . **A** off **B** down **C** out **D** out of	114
21.2 It was cold, so I ..... . **A** put on my coat **B** put my coat on **C** put the coat on me **D** put me the coat on	115
21.3 I've got Rachel's keys. I have to ..... to her. **A** give back **B** give them back **C** give back them **D** give it back	115

Key to Exercises

UNIT 1

1.1
2 they're
3 it isn't / it's not
4 that's
5 I'm not
6 you aren't / you're not

1.2
2 'm/am
3 is
4 are
5 's/is
6 are
7 is ... are
8 'm/am ... is

1.3
2 I'm / I am
3 He's / He is
4 they're / they are
5 It's / It is
6 You're / You are
7 She's / She is
8 Here's / Here is

1.4
Example answers:
1 My name is Robert.
2 I'm 25.
3 I'm from Australia.
4 I'm a gardener.
5 My favourite colours are black and white.
6 I'm interested in plants.

1.5
2 They're / They are cold.
3 He's / He is hot.
4 He's / He is scared.
5 They're / They are hungry.
6 She's / She is angry.

1.6
2 It's/It is windy today. *or* It isn't/It's not windy today.
3 My hands are cold. *or* My hands aren't/are not cold.
4 Brazil is a very big country.
5 Diamonds aren't/are not cheap.
6 Toronto isn't/is not in the US.
8 I'm/I am hungry. *or* I'm not/I am not hungry.
9 I'm/I am a good swimmer. *or* I'm not/I am not a good swimmer.
10 I'm/I am interested in football. *or* I'm not/I am not interested in football.

UNIT 2

2.1
2 F
3 H
4 C
5 A
6 E
7 B
8 I
9 D

2.2
3 Is your job interesting?
4 Are the shops open today?
5 Where are you from?
6 Are you interested in sport?
7 Is the station near here?
8 Are your children at school?
9 Why are you late?

2.3
2 Where's / Where is
3 How old are
4 How much are
5 What's / What is
6 Who's / Who is
7 What colour are

2.4
2 Are you American?
3 How old are you?
4 Are you a teacher?
5 Are you married?
6 Is your wife a lawyer?
7 Where's/Where is she from?
8 What's/What is her name?
9 How old is she?

2.5
2 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
3 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
4 Yes, they are. *or* No, they aren't. / No, they're not.
5 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
6 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.

UNIT 3

3.1
2 's/is waiting
3 're/are playing
4 He's/He is lying
5 They're/They are having
6 She's/She is sitting

3.2
2 's/is cooking
3 're/are standing
4 's/is swimming
5 're/are staying
6 's/is having
7 're/are building
8 'm/am going

3.3
3 She's/She is sitting on the floor.
4 She isn't/She's not reading a book.
5 She isn't/She's not playing the piano.
6 She's/She is laughing.
7 She's/She is wearing a hat.
8 She isn't/She's not drinking coffee.

3.4
3 I'm sitting on a chair. *or* I'm not sitting on a chair.
4 I'm eating. *or* I'm not eating.
5 It's raining. *or* It isn't raining. / It's not raining.
6 I'm learning English.
7 I'm listening to music. *or* I'm not listening to music.
8 The sun is shining. *or* The sun isn't shining.
9 I'm wearing shoes. *or* I'm not wearing shoes.
10 I'm not reading a newspaper.

UNIT 4

4.1
2 Are you going now?
3 Is it raining?
4 Are you enjoying the film?
5 Is that clock working?
6 Are you waiting for a bus?

4.2
2 Where is she going?
3 What are you eating?
4 Why are you crying?
5 What are they looking at?
6 Why is he laughing?

4.3
3 Are you listening to me?
4 Where are your friends going?
5 Are your parents watching TV?
6 What is Jessica cooking?
7 Why are you looking at me?
8 Is the bus coming?

4.4
2 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
3 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
4 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
5 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
6 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.

UNIT 5

5.1
2 thinks
3 flies
4 dances
5 has
6 finishes

5.2
2 live
3 She eats
4 He plays
5 They go
6 He sleeps

5.3
2 open
3 closes
4 teaches
5 meet
6 washes
7 costs
8 cost
9 boils
10 like ... likes

5.4
2 I never go to the cinema.
3 Martina always works hard.
4 Children usually like chocolate.
5 Jackie always enjoys parties.
6 I often forget people's names.
7 Sam never watches TV.
8 We usually have dinner at 7.30.
9 Kate always wears nice clothes.

5.5
Example answers:
2 I sometimes read in bed.
3 I often get up before 7 o'clock.
4 I never go to work by bus.
5 I usually drink two cups of coffee in the morning.

UNIT 6

6.1
2 Anna doesn't play the piano very well.
3 They don't know my phone number.
4 We don't work very hard.
5 He doesn't have a bath every day.
6 You don't do the same thing every day.

6.2
2 Kate doesn't like classical music.
I like (*or* I don't like) classical music.
3 Ben and Sophie don't like boxing.
Kate likes boxing.
I like (*or* I don't like) boxing.
4 Ben and Sophie like horror movies.
Kate doesn't like horror movies.
I like (*or* I don't like) horror movies.

6.3
Example answers:
2 I never go to the theatre.
3 I don't ride a bike very often.
4 I never eat in restaurants.
5 I often travel by train.

6.4
2 doesn't use
3 don't go
4 doesn't wear
5 don't know
6 doesn't cost
7 don't see

6.5
3 don't know
4 doesn't talk
5 drinks
6 don't believe
7 like
8 doesn't eat

UNIT 7

7.1
2 Do you play tennis?
3 Does Lucy live near here?
4 Do Tom's friends play tennis? / Do his friends play tennis? / Do they play tennis?
5 Does your brother speak English? / Does he speak English?
6 Do you do yoga every morning?
7 Does Paul go away a lot? / Does he go away a lot? *or* Does Paul go away much? / Does he go away much?
8 Do you want to be famous?
9 Does Anna work hard? / Does she work hard?

7.2
3 How often do you watch TV?
4 What do you want for dinner?
5 Do you like football?
6 Does your brother like football?
7 What do you do in your free time?
8 Where does your sister work?
9 Do you always have breakfast?
10 What does this word mean?
11 Does it snow here in winter?
12 What time do you usually go to bed?
13 How much does it cost to phone New York?
14 What do you usually have for breakfast?

7.3
2 Do you enjoy / Do you like
3 do you start
4 Do you work
5 do you go
6 does he do
7 does he teach
8 Does he enjoy / Does he like

7.4
2 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
3 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
4 Yes, it does. *or* No, it doesn't.
5 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.

UNIT 8

8.1
2 No, she isn't.
Yes, she does.
She's playing the piano.
3 Yes, he does.
Yes, he is.
He's cleaning a window.
4 No, they aren't.
Yes, they do.
They teach.

8.2
2 don't
3 are
4 does
5 's/is ... don't
6 do
7 does
8 doesn't

8.3

4 is singing
5 She wants
6 do you use
7 you're sitting
8 I don't understand
9 I'm going ... Are you coming
10 does your father finish
11 I'm not listening
12 He's/He is cooking
13 doesn't usually drive ... usually walks
14 doesn't like ... She prefers

UNIT 9

9.1

3 He's got a new job.
4 Have you got an umbrella?
5 We've got a lot of work to do.
6 I haven't got your phone number.
7 Has your father got a car?
8 How much money have we got?

9.2

2 I don't have many clothes.
3 Does Tom have a brother?
4 How many children do they have?
5 Do you have any questions?
6 Sam doesn't have a job.

9.3

2 He's got a bike. *or* He has a bike.
3 He hasn't got a dog. *or* He doesn't have a dog.
4 He's got a mobile phone. *or* He has a mobile phone.
5 He hasn't got a watch. *or* He doesn't have a watch.
6 He's got two brothers and a sister. *or* He has two brothers and a sister.
7 I've got a dog. / I have a dog. *or* I haven't got a dog. / I don't have a dog.
8 I've got a bike. / I have a bike. *or* I haven't got a bike. / I don't have a bike.
9 *(Example answer)* I've got a brother and a sister. *or* I have a brother and a sister.

9.4

3 has
4 don't have
5 have
6 don't have
7 doesn't have

9.5

2 's got / has got a lot of friends
3 hasn't got a key
4 haven't got much time
5 has got six legs
6 haven't got a job

UNIT 10

10.1

2 Jack and Kate were at/in the cinema.
3 Sue was at the station.
4 Mr and Mrs Hall were in/at a restaurant.
5 Ben was on the beach / on a beach / at the beach / at the seaside.
6 *(Example answer)* I was at work.

10.2

2 is ... was
3 'm/am
4 was
5 were
6 're/are
7 Was
8 was
9 are ... were

10.3

2 wasn't ... was
3 was ... were
4 '**Were** Kate and Ben at the party?' 'Kate **was** there, but Ben **wasn't**.' *or* 'Kate **wasn't** there, but Ben **was**.'
5 were
6 weren't ... were

10.4

2 Was your exam difficult?
3 Where were Sue and Chris last week?
4 How much was your new camera?
5 Why were you angry yesterday?
6 Was the weather nice last week?

UNIT 11

11.1

2 opened
3 started ... finished
4 wanted
5 happened
6 rained
7 enjoyed ... stayed
8 died

11.2

2 saw
3 played
4 paid
5 visited
6 bought
7 went
8 thought
9 copied
10 knew
11 put
12 spoke

11.3

2 got
3 had
4 left
5 drove
6 got
7 parked
8 walked
9 checked
10 had
11 waited
12 departed
13 arrived
14 took

11.4

2 lost her keys
3 met her friends
4 bought a newspaper
5 went to the cinema
6 ate an orange
7 had a shower
8 came (to see us)

11.5

2–6 *Example answers*
I got up late yesterday.
I met some friends at lunchtime.
I went to the supermarket.
I phoned a lot of people.
I lost my keys.

UNIT 12

12.1

2 didn't work
3 didn't go
4 didn't have
5 didn't do

12.2

2 Did you enjoy the party?
3 Did you have a good holiday?
4 Did you finish work early?
5 Did you sleep well last night?

12.3
2 I got up before 7 o'clock. *or* I didn't get up before 7 o'clock.
3 I had a shower. *or* I didn't have a shower.
4 I bought a magazine. *or* I didn't buy a magazine.
5 I ate meat. *or* I didn't eat meat.
6 I went to bed before 10.30. *or* I didn't go to bed before 10.30.

12.4
2 did you arrive
3 Did you win
4 did you go
5 did it cost
6 Did you go to bed late
7 Did you have a nice time
8 did it happen / did that happen

12.5
2 bought
3 Did it rain
4 didn't stay
5 opened
6 didn't have
7 did you do
8 didn't know

UNIT 13

13.1
2 Jack and Kate were at the cinema. They were watching a film.
3 Tom was in his car. He was driving.
4 Tracey was at the station. She was waiting for a train.
5 Mr and Mrs Hall were in the park. They were walking.
6 *(Example answer)* I was in a cafe. I was having a drink with some friends.

13.2
2 she was playing tennis
3 she was reading a/the paper/newspaper
4 she was cooking (lunch)
5 she was having breakfast
6 she was cleaning the kitchen

13.3
2 What were you doing
3 Was it raining
4 Why was Sue driving
5 Was Tom wearing

13.4
2 He was carrying a bag.
3 He wasn't going to the dentist.
4 He was eating an ice cream.
5 He wasn't carrying an umbrella.
6 He wasn't going home.
7 He was wearing a hat.
8 He wasn't riding a bicycle.

UNIT 14

14.1
1 happened ... was painting ... fell
2 arrived ... got ... were waiting
3 was walking ... met ... was going ... was carrying ... stopped

14.2
2 was studying
3 Did Paul call ... called ... was having
4 didn't go
5 were you driving ... stopped ... wasn't driving
6 Did your team win ... didn't play
7 did you break ... were playing ... kicked ... hit
8 Did you see ... was wearing
9 were you doing
10 lost ... did you get ... climbed

UNIT 15

15.1
2 She has/She's closed the door.
3 They have/They've gone to bed.
4 It has/It's stopped raining.
5 He has/He's had a shower.
6 The picture has fallen down.

15.2
2 've bought / have bought
3 's gone / has gone
4 Have you seen
5 has broken
6 've told / have told
7 has taken
8 haven't seen
9 has she gone
10 've forgotten / have forgotten
11 's invited / has invited
12 Have you decided
13 haven't told
14 've finished / have finished

UNIT 16

16.1
2 He's/He has just got up.
3 They've/They have just bought a car.
4 The race has just started.

16.2
2 they've/they have already seen it.
3 I've/I have already phoned him.
4 He's/He has already gone (away).
5 I've/I have already read it.
6 She's/She has already started (it).

16.3
2 The bus has just gone.
3 The train hasn't left yet.
4 He hasn't opened it yet.
5 They've/They have just finished their dinner.
6 It's / It has just stopped raining.

16.4
2 Have you met your new neighbours yet?
3 Have you paid your electricity bill yet?
4 Has Tom/he sold his car yet?

UNIT 17

17.1
3 Have you ever been to Australia?
4 Have you ever lost your passport?
5 Have you ever flown in a helicopter?
6 Have you ever won a race?
7 Have you ever been to New York?
8 Have you ever driven a bus?
9 Have you ever broken your leg?

17.2

Helen:

2 She's/She has been to Australia once.
3 She's/She has never won a race.
4 She's/She has flown in a helicopter a few times.

You (example answers):

5 I've/I have never been to New York.
6 I've/I have played tennis many times.
7 I've/I have never driven a lorry.
8 I've/I have been late for work a few times.

17.3

2–6

She's/She has done a lot of interesting things.
She's/She has travelled all over the world. *or* She's/She has been all over the world.
She's/She has been married three times.
She's/She has written ten books.
She's/She has met a lot of interesting people.

17.4

2 been
3 gone
4 been
5 been
6 gone
7 gone
8 been

UNIT 18

18.1

3 have been
4 has been
5 have lived / have been living
6 has worked / has been working
7 has had
8 have been learning

18.2

2 How long have they been there? *or* ... been in Brazil?
3 How long have you known her? *or* ... known Amy?
4 How long has she been learning Italian?
5 How long has he lived in Canada? / How long has he been living ... ?
6 How long have you been a teacher?
7 How long has it been raining?

18.3

2 She has lived in Wales all her life.
3 They have been on holiday since Sunday.
4 The sun has been shining all day.
5 She has been waiting for ten minutes.
6 He has had a beard since he was 20.

18.4

2 I know
3 I've known
4 have you been waiting
5 works
6 She has been reading
7 have you lived
8 I've had
9 is ... He has been

UNIT 19

19.1

3 for
4 since
5 since
6 for
7 for
8 for ... since

19.2

Example answers:

2 A year ago.
3 A few weeks ago.
4 Two hours ago.
5 Six months ago.

19.3

3 for 20 years
4 20 years ago
5 an hour ago
6 a few days ago
7 for six months
8 for a long time

19.4

2 Jack has been here since Tuesday.
3 It's been raining for an hour.
4 I've known Sue since 2008.
5 Claire and Matt have been married for six months.
6 Laura has been studying medicine (at university) for three years.
7 David has played / David has been playing the piano since he was seven years old.

19.5

Example answers

2 I've been in the same job for ten years.
3 I've been learning English for six months.
4 I've known Chris for a long time.
5 I've had a headache since I got up this morning.

UNIT 20

20.1

2 I started (it)
3 they arrived
4 she went (away)
5 I wore it

20.2

3 I finished
4 *OK*
5 did you finish
6 *OK*
7 (Steve's grandmother) died
8 Where were you / Where did you go

20.3

3 played
4 did you go
5 Have you ever met
6 wasn't
7 's/has visited
8 switched
9 lived
10 haven't been

20.4

1 Did you have ... was
2 Have you seen ... went ... haven't seen
3 has worked / has been working ... was ... worked ... didn't enjoy
4 've/have seen ... 've/have never spoken ... Have you ever spoken ... met

UNIT 21

21.1
3 Glass is made from sand.
4 The windows are cleaned every two weeks.
5 This room isn't used very much.
6 Are we allowed to park here?
7 How is this word pronounced?
9 The house was painted last month.
10 My phone was stolen a few days ago.
11 Three people were injured in the accident.
12 When was this bridge built?
13 I wasn't woken up by the noise.
14 How were these windows broken?
15 Were you invited to Jon's party last week?

21.2
2 Football **is played** in most ...
3 Why **was the letter sent** to ... ?
4 ... where films **are made**.
5 Where **were** you born?
6 How many languages **are spoken** ... ?
7 ... but nothing **was** stolen.
8 When **was** the bicycle **invented**?

21.3
3 is made
4 were damaged
5 was given
6 are shown
7 were invited
8 was made
9 was stolen ... was found

21.4
2 Sarah was born in Manchester.
3 Her parents were born in Ireland.
4 I was born in ...
5 My mother was born in ...

UNIT 22

22.1
2 A bridge is being built.
3 The windows are being cleaned.
4 The grass is being cut.

22.2
3 The window **has been** broken.
4 The roof **is being** repaired.
5 The car **has been** damaged.
6 The houses **are being** knocked down.
7 The trees **have been** cut down.
8 They **have been** invited to a party.

22.3
3 has been repaired
4 was repaired
5 are made
6 were they built
7 Is the photocopier being used *or* Is anybody using the photocopier
8 are they called
9 were stolen
10 was damaged ... hasn't been repaired

UNIT 23

23.1
3 are
4 Does
5 Do
6 Is
7 do
8 Is
9 does
10 Are

23.2
2 don't
3 'm/am not
4 isn't
5 don't
6 doesn't
7 'm/am not
8 aren't / 're not

23.3
2 Did
3 were
4 was
5 Has
6 did
7 were
8 Has
9 did
10 have

23.4
2 was
3 Have
4 are
5 were
6 've/have
7 is
8 was
9 has

23.5
3 eaten
4 enjoying
5 damaged
6 use
7 gone
8 understand
9 listening
10 pronounced
11 open

UNIT 24

24.1
3 got
4 brought
5 paid
6 enjoyed
7 bought
8 sat
9 left
10 happened
11 heard
12 put
13 caught
14 watched
15 understood

24.2

2	began	begun
3	ate	eaten
4	drank	drunk
5	drove	driven
6	spoke	spoken
7	wrote	written
8	came	come
9	knew	known
10	took	taken
11	went	gone
12	gave	given
13	threw	thrown
14	forgot	forgotten

24.3
3 slept
4 saw
5 rained
6 lost ... seen
7 stolen
8 went
9 finished
10 built
11 learnt/learned
12 ridden
13 known
14 fell ... hurt
15 ran ... run

24.4

2 told
3 won
4 met
5 woken up
6 swam
7 thought
8 spoken
9 cost
10 driven
11 sold
12 flew

UNIT 25

25.1

2 Richard is going to the cinema.
3 Rachel is meeting Dave.
4 Karen is having lunch with Will.
5 Sue and Tom are going to a party.

25.2

2 Are you working next week?
3 What are you doing tomorrow evening?
4 What time are your friends coming?
5 When is Lisa going on holiday?

25.3

3–6 *Example answers*
I'm going away at the weekend.
I'm playing basketball tomorrow.
I'm meeting a friend this evening.
I'm going to the cinema on Thursday evening.

25.4

3 She's getting
4 are going ... are they going
5 finishes
6 I'm not going
7 I'm going ... We're meeting
8 are you getting ... leaves
9 Are you coming ... does the film begin
10 are you doing ... I'm working

UNIT 26

26.1

2 I'm going to have a bath.
3 I'm going to buy a car.
4 We're going to play football.

26.2

3 'm/am going to walk
4 's/is going to stay
5 'm/am going to eat
6 're/are going to give
7 's/is going to lie down
8 Are you going to watch
9 is Rachel going to do

26.3

2 The shelf is going to fall (down).
3 The car is going to turn (right).
4 He's / He is going to kick the ball.

26.4

1–3 *Example answers*
I'm going to phone Maria this evening.
I'm going to get up early tomorrow.
I'm going to buy some shoes tomorrow.

UNIT 27

27.1

2 she'll be
3 she was
4 she'll be
5 she's
6 she was
7 she'll be

27.2

Example answers:
2 I'll be at home.
3 I'll probably be in bed.
4 I'll be at work.
5 I don't know where I'll be.

27.3

2 'll/will
3 won't
4 won't
5 'll/will
6 'll/will
7 won't

27.4

3 I think we'll win the game.
4 I don't think I'll be here tomorrow.
5 I think Sue will like her present.
6 I don't think they'll get married.
7 I don't think you'll enjoy the film.

27.5

2 are you doing
3 They're going
4 will lend
5 I'm going
6 will phone
7 He's working
8 Will you
9 are coming

UNIT 28

28.1

2 I'll eat
3 I'll sit
4 I'll do
5 I'll stay
6 I'll show

28.2

2 I think I'll have
3 I don't think I'll play
4 I think I'll buy
5 I don't think I'll buy

28.3

2 I'll do
3 I watch
4 I'll go
5 is going to buy
6 I'll give
7 Are you doing ... I'm going
8 I'm working

28.4

2 Shall I turn off the TV?
3 Shall I make some sandwiches?
4 Shall I turn on the light?

28.5

2 where shall we go?
3 what shall we buy?
4 who shall we invite?

UNIT 29

29.1

2 I might see you tomorrow.
3 Sarah might forget to phone.
4 It might snow today.
5 I might be late tonight.
6 Mark might not be here next week.
7 I might not have time to go out.

29.2

2 I might go away.
3 I might see her on Monday.
4 I might have fish.
5 I might get/take a taxi. *or* ... go by taxi.
6 I might buy/get a new car.

29.3
3 He might get up early.
4 He isn't/He's not working tomorrow.
5 He might be at home tomorrow morning.
6 He might watch TV.
7 He's going out in the afternoon.
8 He might go shopping.

29.4
1–3 *Example answers*
I might buy some new clothes.
I might go out with some friends.
I might have an egg for breakfast.

UNIT 30

30.1
2 Can you ski?
3 Can you play chess?
4 Can you run ten kilometres?
5 Can you drive (a car)?
6 Can you ride (a horse)?
7 I can/can't swim.
8 I can/can't ski.
9 I can/can't play chess.
10 I can/can't run ten kilometres.
11 I can/can't drive (a car).
12 I can/can't ride (a horse).

30.2
2 can see
3 can't hear
4 can't find
5 can speak

30.3
2 couldn't eat
3 can't decide
4 couldn't find
5 can't go
6 couldn't go

30.4
2 Can/Could you pass the salt (please)?
3 Can/Could I have these postcards (please)?
4 Can/Could you turn off the radio (please)?
5 Can/Could I borrow your newspaper (please)?
6 Can/Could I use your pen (please)?

UNIT 31

31.1
2 must meet
3 must wash
4 must learn
5 must go
6 must win
7 must be

31.2
2 I must
3 I had to
4 I must
5 I had to
6 I had to
7 I must

31.3
2 don't need to rush
3 mustn't lose
4 don't need to wait
5 mustn't forget
6 don't need to phone

31.4
2 C
3 A
4 B
5 D

31.5
3 don't need to
4 had to
5 must
6 mustn't
7 must
8 had to
9 don't need to
10 mustn't

UNIT 32

32.1
2 You should go
3 You should eat
4 you should visit
5 you should wear
6 You should take

32.2
2 He shouldn't eat so much.
3 She shouldn't work so hard.
4 He shouldn't drive so fast.

32.3
2 Do you think I should learn (to drive)?
3 Do you think I should get another job?
4 Do you think I should invite Gary (to the party)?

32.4
3 I think you should sell it.
4 I think she should have a holiday.
5 I don't think they should get married.
6 I don't think you should go to work.
7 I think he should go to the doctor.
8 I don't think we should stay there.

32.5
Example answers:
2 I think everybody should have enough food.
3 I think people should drive more carefully.
4 I don't think the police should carry guns.
5 I think I should take more exercise.

UNIT 33

33.1
2 have to do
3 has to read
4 have to speak
5 has to travel
6 have to hit

33.2
2 have to go
3 had to buy
4 have to change
5 had to answer

33.3
2 did he have to wait
3 does she have to go
4 did you have to pay
5 do you have to do

33.4
2 doesn't have to wait.
3 didn't have to get up early.
4 doesn't have to work (so) hard.
5 don't have to leave now.

33.5
3 have to pay
4 had to borrow
5 must stop *or* have to stop *(both are correct)*
6 has to meet
7 must tell *or* have to tell *(both are correct)*

33.6
Example answers:
2 I have to go to work every day.
3 I had to go to the dentist yesterday.
4 I have to go shopping tomorrow.

UNIT 34

34.1
2 Would you like an apple?
3 Would you like some coffee? / ... a cup of coffee?
4 Would you like some cheese? / ... a piece of cheese?
5 Would you like a sandwich?
6 Would you like some cake? / ... a piece of cake?

34.2
2 Would you like to play tennis tomorrow?
3 Would you like to come to a concert next week?
4 Would you like to borrow my umbrella?

34.3
2 Do you like
3 Would you like
4 would you like
5 Would you like
6 I like
7 would you like
8 Would you like
9 Do you like
10 I'd like
11 I'd like
12 do you like

UNIT 35

35.1
3 Don't buy
4 Smile
5 Don't sit
6 Have
7 Don't forget
8 Sleep
9 Be ... Don't drop

35.2
2 let's take a taxi
3 let's watch TV
4 let's go to a restaurant
5 let's wait a little

35.3
3 No, let's not go out.
4 No, don't close the window.
5 No, don't phone me (tonight).
6 No, let's not wait for Andy.
7 No, don't turn on the light.
8 No, let's not go by bus.

UNIT 36

36.1
2 He used to play football.
3 She used to be a taxi driver.
4 They used to live in the country.
5 He used to wear glasses.
6 This building used to be a hotel.

36.2
2–6
She used to play volleyball.
She used to go out most evenings. / She used to go out a lot.
She used to play the guitar.
She used to read a lot. / She used to like reading.
She used to go away two or three times a year. / She used to travel a lot.

36.3
3 used to have
4 used to be
5 go / travel
6 used to eat
7 watches
8 used to live
9 get
10 did you use to play

UNIT 37

37.1
3 There's/There is a hospital.
4 There isn't a swimming pool.
5 There are two cinemas.
6 There isn't a university.
7 There aren't any big hotels.

37.2
3–6 *Example answers*
There is a university in ...
There are a lot of big shops.
There isn't an airport.
There aren't many factories.

37.3
2 There's/There is
3 is there
4 There are
5 are there
6 There isn't
7 Is there
8 Are there
9 There's / There is ...
There aren't

37.4
2–6
There are eight planets in the solar system.
There are fifteen players in a rugby team.
There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.
There are thirty days in September.
There are fifty states in the USA.

37.5
2 It's
3 There's
4 There's ... Is it
5 Is there ... there's
6 It's
7 Is there

UNIT 38

38.1
2 There was a carpet
3 There were three pictures
4 There was a small table
5 There were some flowers
6 There were some books
7 There was an armchair
8 There was a sofa

38.2
3 There was
4 Was there
5 there weren't
6 There wasn't
7 Were there
8 There wasn't
9 There was
10 there weren't

38.3
2 There are
3 There was
4 There's/There is
5 There's been/There has been *or* There was
6 there was
7 there will be
8 there were ... there are
9 There have been
10 there will be *or* there are

UNIT 39

39.1
2 It's cold.
3 It's windy.
4 It's sunny/fine. *or* It's a nice day.
5 It's snowing.
6 It's cloudy.

39.2
2 It's / It is
3 Is it
4 is it ... it's / it is
5 It's / It is
6 Is it
7 is it
8 It's / It is
9 It's / It is

39.3
2 How far is it from the hotel to the beach?
3 How far is it from New York to Washington?
4 How far is it from your house to the airport?

39.4
3 It
4 It ... It
5 There
6 it
7 It ... there
8 It

39.5
2 It's nice to see you again.
3 It's impossible to work here.
4 It's easy to make friends.
5 It's interesting to visit different places.
6 It's dangerous to go out alone

UNIT 40

40.1
2 is
3 can
4 has
5 will
6 was

40.2
2 'm not
3 weren't
4 haven't
5 isn't
6 hasn't

40.3
3 doesn't
4 do
5 did
6 does
7 don't
8 didn't

40.4
Example answers:
2 I like sport, but my sister doesn't.
3 I don't eat meat, but Jessica does.
4 I'm American, but my husband isn't.
5 I haven't been to Japan, but Jessica has.

40.5
2 wasn't
3 are
4 has
5 can't
6 did
7 has
8 do
9 hasn't
10 will
11 might

40.6
2 Yes, I have. *or* No, I haven't.
3 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
4 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't.
5 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
6 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
7 Yes, I will. *or* No, I won't.
8 Yes, I have. *or* No, I haven't.
9 Yes, I did. *or* No, I didn't.
10 Yes, I was. *or* No, I wasn't.

UNIT 41

41.1
2 Do you?
3 Didn't you?
4 Doesn't she?
5 Do I?
6 Did she?

41.2
3 Have you?
4 Can't she?
5 Were you?
6 Didn't you?
7 Is there?
8 Aren't you?
9 Did you?
10 Does she?
11 Won't you?
12 Isn't it?

41.3
2 aren't they
3 wasn't she
4 haven't you
5 don't you
6 doesn't he
7 won't you

41.4
2 are you
3 isn't she
4 can't you
5 do you
6 didn't she
7 was it
8 doesn't she
9 will you

UNIT 42

42.1
2 either
3 too
4 too
5 either
6 either
7 too

42.2
2 So am I.
3 So have I.
4 So do I.
5 So will I.
6 So was I.
7 Neither can I.
8 Neither did I.
9 Neither have I.
10 Neither am I.
11 Neither do I.

42.3
1 So am I.
2 So can I. *or* I can't.
3 Neither am I. *or* I am.
4 So do I. *or* I don't.
5 Neither do I. *or* I do.
6 So did I. *or* I didn't.
7 Neither have I. *or* I have.
8 Neither do I. *or* I do.
9 So am I. *or* I'm not.
10 Neither have I. *or* I have.
11 Neither did I. *or* I did.
12 So do I. *or* I don't.

UNIT 43

43.1
2 They aren't / They're not married.
3 I haven't had dinner.
4 It isn't cold today.
5 We won't be late.
6 You shouldn't go.

43.2
2 I don't like cheese.
3 They didn't understand.
4 He doesn't live here.
5 Don't go away!
6 I didn't do the shopping.

43.3
2 They haven't arrived.
3 I didn't go to the bank.
4 He doesn't speak German.
5 We weren't angry.
6 He won't be pleased.
7 Don't call me tonight.
8 It didn't rain yesterday.
9 I couldn't hear them.
10 I don't believe you.

43.4
2 'm not / am not
3 can't
4 doesn't
5 isn't / 's not

6 don't ... haven't
7 Don't
8 didn't
9 haven't
10 won't
11 didn't
12 weren't
13 hasn't
14 shouldn't / mustn't

43.5

3 He wasn't born in London.
4 He doesn't like London.
5 He'd like to live in the country.
6 He can drive.
7 He hasn't got a car. *or* He doesn't have a car.
8 He doesn't read newspapers.
9 He isn't interested in politics.
10 He watches TV most evenings.
11 He didn't watch TV last night.
12 He went out last night.

UNIT 44

44.1

3 Were you late this morning?
4 Has Kate got a key? *or* Does Kate have a key?
5 Will you be here tomorrow?
6 Is Paul going out this evening?
7 Do you like your job?
8 Does Nicola live near here?
9 Did you enjoy the film?
10 Did you have a good holiday?

44.2

2 Do you use it a lot?
3 Did you use it yesterday?
4 Do you enjoy driving?
5 Are you a good driver?
6 Have you ever had an accident?

44.3

3 What are the children doing?
4 How is cheese made?
5 Is your sister coming to the party?
6 Why don't you tell the truth?
7 Have your guests arrived yet?
8 What time does your train leave?
9 Why didn't Emily go to work?
10 Was your car damaged in the accident?

44.4

3 What are you reading?
4 What time did she go (to bed)?
5 When are they going (on holiday)?
6 Where did you see him?
7 Why can't you come (to the party)?
8 Where has she gone?
9 How much (money) do you need?
10 Why doesn't she like you?
11 How often does it rain?
12 When did you do it? / ... the shopping?

UNIT 45

45.1

2 What fell off the shelf?
3 Who wants to see me?
4 Who took your umbrella? / Who took it?
5 What made you ill?
6 Who is / Who's coming?

45.2

3 Who did you phone?
4 What happened last night?
5 Who knows the answer?
6 Who did the washing-up?
7 What did Jane do? / What did she do?
8 What woke you up?
9 Who saw the accident?
10 Who did you see?
11 Who has got your pen? / Who's got your pen? / Who has your pen?
12 What does this word mean? / What does it mean?

45.3

2 Who phoned you ?
What did she want?
3 Who did you ask?
What did he say?
4 Who got married?
Who told you?
5 Who did you meet?
What did she tell you?
6 Who won?
What did you do (after the game)?
7 Who gave you a/the book?
What did Catherine give you?

UNIT 46

46.1

2 What are you looking for?
3 Who did you go to the cinema with?
4 What/Who was the film about?
5 Who did you give the money to?
6 Who was the book written by?

46.2

2 What are they looking at?
3 Which restaurant is he going to?
4 What are they talking about?
5 What is she listening to?
6 Which bus are they waiting for?

46.3

2 Which hotel did you stay at?
3 Which (football) team does he play for?
4 Which school did you go to?

46.4

2 What is the food like?
3 What are the people like?
4 What is the weather like?

46.5

2 What was the film like?
3 What were the lessons like?
4 What was the hotel like?

UNIT 47

47.1

3 What colour is it?
4 What time did you get up?
5 What type of music do you like?
6 What kind of car do you want (to buy)?

47.2

2 Which coat
3 Which film/movie
4 Which bus

47.3

3 Which
4 What
5 Which
6 What
7 Which
8 Who
9 What
10 Which
11 What

47.4

2 How far
3 How old
4 How often
5 How deep
6 How long

47.5

2 How heavy is this box?
3 How old are you?
4 How much did you spend?
5 How often do you watch TV?
6 How far is it from Paris to Moscow?

UNIT 48

48.1

2 How long does it take by car from Milan to Rome?
3 How long does it take by train from Paris to Geneva?
4 How long does it take by bus from the city centre to the airport?

48.2

2 It takes ... hours to fly from ... to New York.
3 It takes ... years to study to be a doctor in ... .
4 It takes ... to walk from my home to the nearest shop.
5 It takes ... to get from my home to the nearest airport.

48.3

2 How long did it take you to walk to the station?
3 How long did it take him to paint the bathroom?
4 How long did it take you to learn to ski?
5 How long did it take them to repair the car?

48.4

2 It took us 20 minutes to walk home. / ... to get home.
3 It took me six months to learn to drive.
4 It took Mark/him three hours to drive to London. / ... to get to London.
5 It took Lisa/her a long time to find a job. / ... to get a job.
6 It took me ... to ...

UNIT 49

49.1

2 I don't know where she is.
3 I don't know how old it is.
4 I don't know when he'll be here.
5 I don't know why he was angry.
6 I don't know how long she has lived here.

49.2

2 where Susan works
3 what Peter said
4 why he went home early
5 what time the meeting begins
6 how the accident happened

49.3

2 are you
3 they are
4 the museum is
5 do you want
6 elephants eat
7 it is

49.4

2 Do you know if/whether they are married?
3 Do you know if/whether Sue knows Bill?
4 Do you know if/whether Gary will be here tomorrow?
5 Do you know if/whether he passed his exam?

49.5

2 Do you know where Paula is?
3 Do you know if/whether she is working today? / ... she's working today?
4 Do you know what time she starts work?
5 Do you know if/whether the shops are open tomorrow?
6 Do you know where Sarah and Jack live?
7 Do you know if/whether they went to Jane's party?

49.6

Example answers:

2 Do you know what time the bus leaves?
3 Excuse me, can you tell me where the station is?
4 I don't know what I'm going to do this evening.
5 Do you know if there's a restaurant near here?
6 Do you know how much it costs to rent a car?

UNIT 50

50.1

2 She said (that) she was very busy.
3 She said (that) she couldn't go to the party.
4 He said (that) he had to go out.
5 He said (that) he was learning Russian.
6 She said (that) she didn't feel very well.
7 They said (that) they would be home late. / ... they'd be ...
8 She said (that) she had just come back from holiday. / ... she'd just come back ...
9 She said (that) she was going to buy a guitar.
10 They said (that) they hadn't got a key. / They said (that) they didn't have a key.

50.2

2 She said (that) she wasn't hungry.
3 he said (that) he needed it.
4 she said (that) she didn't want to go.
5 She said (that) I could have it.
6 He said (that) he would send me a postcard. / ... he'd send ...
7 Nicola said (that) he had gone home. / ... he'd gone home.
8 He said (that) he wanted to watch TV.
9 She said (that) she was going to the cinema.

50.3

3 said
4 told
5 tell
6 say
7 said
8 told
9 tell
10 say

UNIT 51

51.1

3 phone
4 phone Paul

5 to phone Paul
6 to phone Paul
7 phone Paul
8 to phone Paul
9 phone Paul
10 phone Paul

51.2
3 get
4 going
5 watch
6 flying
7 listening
8 eat
9 waiting
10 wear
11 doing ... staying

51.3
4 to go
5 rain
6 to leave
7 help
8 studying
9 to go
10 wearing
11 to stay
12 have
13 having
14 to have
15 hear
16 go
17 listening
18 to walk
19 to know ... tell
20 borrow

UNIT 52

52.1
3 to see
4 to swim
5 cleaning
6 to ask
7 visiting
8 going
9 to be
10 waiting
11 to do
12 to speak
13 to go
14 crying / to cry
15 to work ... talking

52.2
2 to help
3 to see
4 reading
5 to lose
6 to send
7 raining
8 to go
9 watching / to watch
10 to wait

52.3
2 going to museums
3 to go
4 driving / to drive
5 to go (there)
6 travelling by train
7 walking

52.4
Example answers:
1 I enjoy cooking.
2 I don't like studying.
3 If it's a nice day tomorrow, I'd like to go to the beach.
4 When I'm on holiday, I like to do very little.
5 I don't mind travelling alone, but I prefer to travel with somebody.
6 I wouldn't like to live in a big city.

UNIT 53

53.1
2 I want you to listen carefully.
3 I don't want you to be angry.
4 Do you want me to wait for you?
5 I don't want you to call me tonight.
6 I want you to meet Sarah.

53.2
2 A woman told me to turn left after the bridge.
3 I advised him to go to the doctor.
4 She asked me to help her. / ... asked me if I could help her.
5 I told him to come back in ten minutes.
6 Paul let me use his phone.
7 I told her not to phone before 8 o'clock. / ... not to call (me) before 8 o'clock.
8 Amy's mother taught her to play the piano.

53.3
2 to repeat
3 wait
4 to arrive
5 to get
6 go
7 borrow
8 to tell
9 to make (*or* to get)
10 think

UNIT 54

54.1
2–4
I went to a coffee shop to meet a friend.
I went to the chemist to get some medicine.
I went to the market to buy some vegetables.

54.2
2 to read the newspaper
3 to open this door
4 to get some fresh air
5 to wake him up
6 to see who it was

54.3
Example answers:
2 to talk to you now
3 to tell her about the party
4 to do some shopping
5 to buy a motorbike

54.4
2 to
3 to
4 for
5 to
6 for
7 to
8 to
9 for
10 for
11 to

54.5
2 for the film to begin
3 for it to arrive
4 for you to tell me

UNIT 55

55.1
3 to
4 – *(no preposition)*
5 for
6 to
7 on ... to
8 for
9 on
10 to
11 – *(no preposition)*
12 on
13 for
14 on

55.2
2 went fishing
3 goes swimming
4 going skiing
5 go shopping
6 went jogging

55.3
2 to university
3 shopping
4 to sleep
5 home
6 skiing
7 riding
8 for a walk
9 on holiday ... to Portugal

UNIT 56

56.1
2 get your boots
3 get a doctor
4 get a taxi
5 gets the job
6 get some milk
7 get a ticket
8 gets a good salary
9 get a lot of rain
10 get a new laptop

56.2
2 getting dark
3 getting married
4 getting ready
5 getting late

56.3
2 get wet
3 got married
4 gets angry
5 got lost
6 get old
7 got better

56.4
2 got to Bristol at 11.45.
3 I left the party at 11.15 and got home at midnight.
4 *(Example answer)* I left home at 8.30 and got to the airport at 10 o'clock.

56.5
2 got off
3 got out of
4 got on

UNIT 57

57.1
2 do
3 make
4 made
5 did
6 do
7 done
8 make
9 making
10 do
11 doing

57.2
2 They're/They are doing (their) homework.
3 He's/He is doing the shopping. *or* He is shopping.
4 She's/She is making a jacket.
5 They're/They are doing an exam. (*or* ... taking an exam.)
6 He's/He is making the/his bed.
7 She's/She is doing the washing-up. *or* She is washing up. / She is doing the dishes. / She is washing the dishes.
8 He's/He is making a (shopping) list.
9 They're/They are making a film.
10 He's/He is taking a picture/photo/photograph.

57.3
2 make
3 do
4 done
5 made
6 doing
7 did
8 make
9 do
10 making
11 made
12 make ... do

UNIT 58

58.1
3 He doesn't have / He hasn't got
4 Gary had
5 Do you have / Have you got
6 we didn't have
7 She doesn't have / She hasn't got
8 Did you have

58.2
2 She's/She is having a cup of tea.
3 He's/He is having a rest.
4 They're/They are having a good time.
5 They're/They are having dinner.
6 He's/He is having a bath.

58.3
3 Have a nice/good trip!
4 Did you have a nice/good weekend?
5 Did you have a nice/good game (of tennis)?
6 Have a nice/good time! *or* Have a nice/good evening! *or* Have fun!
7 Did you have a nice/good holiday?

58.4
2 have something to eat
3 had a glass of water
4 have a walk
5 had an accident
6 have a look

UNIT 59

59.1
2 him
3 them
4 her
5 him
6 them
7 her

59.2
2 I ... them
3 he ... her
4 they ... us
5 we ... him
6 she ... them
7 they ... me
8 she ... you

59.3
2 I like him.
3 I don't like it.
4 Do you like it?
5 I don't like her.
6 Do you like them?

59.4
2 him
3 them
4 they
5 us
6 it
7 She
8 them
9 me
10 her
11 them
12 he ... it

59.5
2 Can you give it to him?
3 Can you give them to her?
4 Can you give it to me?
5 Can you give it to them?
6 Can you give them to us?

UNIT 60

60.1
2 her hands
3 our hands
4 his hands
5 their hands
6 your hands

60.2
2 They live with their parents.
3 We live with our parents.
4 Martina lives with her parents.
5 I live with my parents.
6 John lives with his parents.
7 Do you live with your parents?
8 Most children live with their parents.

60.3

2 their
3 his
4 his
5 her
6 their
7 her
8 their

60.4

2 his
3 Their
4 our
5 her
6 my
7 your
8 her
9 their
10 my
11 Its
12 His … his

60.5

2 my key
3 Her husband
4 your coat
5 their homework
6 his name
7 Our house

UNIT 61

61.1

2 mine
3 ours
4 hers
5 theirs
6 yours
7 mine
8 his

61.2

2 yours
3 my … Mine
4 Yours … mine
5 her
6 My … hers
7 their
8 Ours

61.3

3 of hers
4 friends of ours
5 friend of mine
6 friend of his
7 friends of yours

61.4

2 Whose camera is this? It's hers.
3 Whose gloves are these? They're mine.
4 Whose hat is this? It's his.
5 Whose money is this? It's yours.
6 Whose bags are these? They're ours.

UNIT 62

62.1

2 Yes, I know **her**, but I can't remember **her name**.
3 Yes, I **know them**, but I **can't remember their** names.
4 Yes, I **know you**, but **I can't remember your name**.

62.2

2 He invited us to stay with **him** at his house.
3 They invited me to stay with **them at their** house.
4 I invited them to stay **with me at my** house.
5 She invited us to stay **with her at her** house.
6 Did you invite him **to stay with you at your** house?

62.3

2 I gave her my phone number, and she gave me **hers**.
3 He gave me his phone number, and I gave **him mine**.
4 We gave them **our** phone number, and they gave **us theirs**.
5 She gave him **her** phone number, and he gave **her his**.
6 You gave us **your** phone number, and we gave **you ours**.
7 They gave you **their** phone number, and you gave **them yours**.

62.4

2 them
3 him
4 our
5 yours
6 us
7 her
8 their
9 mine

UNIT 63

63.1

2 myself
3 herself
4 themselves
5 myself
6 himself
7 yourself
8 yourselves

63.2

2 When I saw him, he **was by himself**.
3 Don't **go out by yourself**.
4 I **went to the cinema by myself**.
5 My sister **lives by herself**.
6 Many people **live by themselves**.

63.3

2 They can't see each other.
3 They call each other a lot.
4 They don't know each other.
5 They're/They are sitting next to each other.
6 They gave each other presents / a present.

63.4

3 each other
4 yourselves
5 us
6 ourselves
7 each other
8 each other
9 them
10 themselves

UNIT 64

64.1

3 Helen is **Brian's** wife.
4 James is Sarah's **brother**.
5 James is **Daniel's** uncle.
6 Sarah is **Paul's** wife.
7 Helen is Daniel's **grandmother**.
8 Sarah is James's **sister**.
9 Paul is **Sarah's** husband.
10 Paul is Daniel's **father**.
11 Daniel is **James's** nephew.

64.2

2 Andy's
3 Dave's
4 Jane's
5 Rachel's
6 Alice's

64.3

3 *OK*
4 Simon's phone number
5 My brother's job
6 *OK*
7 *OK*
8 Paula's favourite colour
9 your mother's birthday
10 My parents' house
11 *OK*
12 *OK*
13 Silvia's party
14 *OK*

UNIT 65

65.1

2 a
3 a
4 an
5 a
6 an
7 a
8 an
9 an

65.2

2 a vegetable
3 a game
4 a tool
5 a mountain
6 a planet
7 a fruit
8 a river
9 a flower
10 a musical instrument

65.3

2 He's a shop assistant.
3 She's an architect.
4 He's a taxi driver.
5 He's an electrician.
6 She's a photographer.
7 She's a nurse.
8 I'm a/an ...

65.4

2–8
Tom never wears **a** hat.
I can't ride **a** bike.
My brother is **an** artist.
Rebecca works in **a** bookshop.
Jane wants to learn **a** foreign language.
Mike lives in **an** old house.
This evening I'm going to **a** party.

UNIT 66

66.1

2 boats
3 women
4 cities
5 umbrellas
6 addresses
7 knives
8 sandwiches
9 families
10 feet
11 holidays
12 potatoes

66.2

2 teeth
3 people
4 children
5 fish
6 leaves

66.3

3 ... with a lot of beautiful **trees**.
4 ... with two **men**.
5 *OK*
6 ... three **children**.
7 Most of my **friends** are **students**.
8 He put on his **pyjamas** ...
9 *OK*
10 Do you know many **people** ...
11 I like your **trousers**. Where did you get **them**?
12 ... full of **tourists**.
13 *OK*
14 **These scissors aren't** ...

66.4

2 are
3 don't
4 watch
5 were
6 live
7 Do
8 are
9 them
10 some

UNIT 67

67.1

3 a jug
4 water
5 toothpaste
6 a toothbrush
7 an egg
8 money
9 a wallet
10 sand
11 a bucket
12 an envelope

67.2

3 ... **a** hat.
4 ... **a** job?
5 *OK*
6 ... **an** apple ...
7 ... **a** party ...
8 ... **a** wonderful thing.
9 ... **an** island.
10 ... **a** key.
11 *OK*
12 ... **a** good idea.
13 ... **a** car?
14 ... **a** cup of coffee?
15 *OK*
16 ... **an** umbrella.

67.3

2 a piece of wood
3 a glass of water
4 a bar of chocolate
5 a cup of tea
6 a piece of paper
7 a bowl of soup
8 a loaf of bread
9 a jar of honey

UNIT 68

68.1

2 a newspaper (*or* a paper), some flowers (*or* a bunch of flowers) and a pen
3 some bananas, some eggs and some bread (*or* a loaf of bread)
4 some toothpaste, some soap (*or* a bar of soap) and a comb

68.2

2 Would you like some coffee? (*or* ... a cup of coffee?)
3 Would you like a biscuit?
4 Would you like some bread? (*or* ... a piece of bread? / a slice of bread?)
5 Would you like a chocolate?
6 Would you like some cake? (*or* ... a piece of cake?)

68.3

2 some ... some
3 some
4 a ... some
5 an ... some
6 a ... a ... some
7 some
8 some
9 some ... a

68.4

2 eyes
3 hair
4 information
5 chairs
6 furniture
7 job
8 wonderful weather

UNIT 69

69.1

3 a
4 the
5 an
6 the ... the
7 a ... a
8 a ... a
9 ... **a** student ... **a** journalist ... **an** apartment near **the** college ... **The** apartment is ...
10 ... two children, **a** boy and **a** girl. **The** boy is seven years old, and **the** girl is three ... in **a** factory ... doesn't have **a** job ...

69.2
2 **the** airport
3 **a** cup
4 **a** nice picture
5 **the** dictionary
6 **the** floor

69.3
2 ... send me **a** postcard.
3 What is **the** name of ...
4 ... **a** very big country.
5 What is **the** largest ...
6 ... **the** colour of **the** carpet.
7 ... **a** headache.
8 ... **an** old house near **the** station.
9 ... **the** name of **the** director of **the** film ...

UNIT 70

70.1
3 ... **the** second floor.
4 ... **the** moon?
5 ... **the** best hotel in this town?
6 *OK*
7 ... **the** city centre?
8 ... **the** end of May.
9 *OK*
10 ... **the** first time I met her.
11 *OK*
12 It's easy to get information from **the** internet.
13 *OK*
14 ... on **the** top shelf on **the** right.
15 ... in **the** country about ten miles from **the** nearest town.

70.2
2 the same time
3 the same age
4 the same colour
5 the same problem

70.3
2 **the** guitar
3 breakfast
4 television/TV
5 **the** sea
6 **the** bottom

70.4
2 **the** name
3 **The** sky
4 TV
5 **the** police
6 **the** capital
7 lunch
8 **the** middle

UNIT 71

71.1
2 **the** cinema
3 hospital
4 **the** airport
5 home
6 prison

71.2
3 school
4 **the** station
5 home
6 bed
7 **the** post office

71.3
2 **the** cinema
3 go to bed
4 go to prison
5 go to **the** dentist
6 go to university/college
7 go to hospital / are taken to hospital
(American speakers say 'go to **the** hospital', 'are taken to **the** hospital'.)

71.4
3 **the** doctor
4 *OK*
5 *OK*
6 *OK*
7 **the** bank
8 *OK*
9 *OK*
10 **the** city centre
11 **the** station
12 *OK*
(American speakers say 'in **the** hospital'.)
13 *OK*
14 *OK*
15 **the** theatre

UNIT 72

72.1
2–8 *Example answers:*
I don't like dogs.
I hate museums.
I love big cities.
Tennis is all right.
I love chocolate.
I don't like computer games.
I hate parties.

72.2
Example answers:
2 I'm not interested in politics.
3 I'm interested in sport.
4 I don't know much about art.
5 I don't know anything about astronomy.
6 I know a little about economics.

72.3
3 friends
4 parties
5 **The** shops
6 **the** milk
7 milk
8 basketball
9 buildings
10 **The** water
11 cold water
12 **the** salt
13 **the** people
14 Vegetables
15 **The** houses
16 **the** words
17 pictures
18 **the** pictures
19 English ... international business
20 Money ... happiness

UNIT 73

73.1
3 Sweden
4 **The** Amazon
5 Asia
6 **The** Pacific
7 **The** Rhine
8 Kenya
9 **The** United States
10 **The** Andes
11 Bangkok
12 **The** Alps
13 **The** Red Sea
14 Jamaica
15 **The** Bahamas

73.2

3 *OK*
4 **the** Philippines
5 **the** south of France
6 **the** Regal Cinema
7 *OK*
8 **the** Museum of Art
9 *OK*
10 Belgium is smaller than **the** Netherlands.
11 **the** Mississippi ... **the** Nile
12 **the** National Gallery
13 **the** Park Hotel in Hudson Road
14 *OK*
15 **The** Rocky Mountains are in North America.
16 *OK*
17 **the** United States
18 **the** west of Ireland
19 *OK*
20 **The** Panama Canal joins **the** Atlantic Ocean and **the** Pacific Ocean.

UNIT 74

74.1

2 that house
3 these postcards
4 those birds
5 this seat
6 These plates

74.2

2 Is that your umbrella?
3 Is this your book?
4 Are those your books?
5 Is that your bicycle/bike?
6 Are these your keys?
7 Are those your keys?
8 Is this your watch?
9 Are those your glasses?
10 Are these your gloves?

74.3

2 that's
3 This is
4 That's
5 that
6 this is
7 That's
8 that's

UNIT 75

75.1

2 I don't need one
3 I'm going to get one
4 I don't have one / I haven't got one
5 I've just had one
6 there's one in Mill Road

75.2

2 a new one
3 a better one
4 an old one
5 a big one
6 a different one

75.3

2 Which ones?
The green ones.
3 Which one?
The one with a/the red door.
4 Which ones?
The ones on the top shelf.
5 Which one?
The black one.
6 Which one?
The one on the wall.
7 Which one?
The tall one with long hair.
8 Which ones?
The yellow ones.
9 Which one?
The one with a/the moustache and glasses.
10 Which ones?
The ones I took at the party last week.

UNIT 76

76.1

2 some
3 any
4 any
5 any
6 some
7 any
8 some
9 some
10 any ... any
11 some ... any
12 some

76.2

2 some questions
3 any pictures
4 any foreign languages
5 some friends
6 some milk
7 any batteries
8 some fresh air
9 some cheese
10 any help

76.3

3 I have some / I've got some
4 I don't have any / I haven't got any / I haven't any
5 I didn't buy any
6 I bought some
7 I didn't drink any

76.4

2 something
3 anything
4 anything
5 Somebody/Someone
6 anything
7 anybody/anyone
8 something
9 anything
10 anybody/anyone

UNIT 77

77.1

2 There are no shops near here.
3 Carla has no free time. / Carla has got no free time.
4 There's no light in this room.
6 There isn't any milk in the fridge.
7 There aren't any buses today.
8 Tom doesn't have any brothers or sisters. / Tom hasn't got any brothers or sisters.

77.2

2 any
3 any
4 no
5 any
6 no
7 any
8 no
9 any
10 no
11 None
12 any

77.3

2 no money
3 any questions
4 no friends
5 no difference
6 any furniture
7 no idea
8 any heating
9 no queue

77.4

Example answers:

2 Three.
3 Two cups.
4 None.
5 None.

UNIT 78

78.1

2 There's nobody in the office.
3 I have nothing to do. / I've got nothing to do.
4 There's nothing on TV.
5 There was no-one at home.
6 We found nothing.

78.2
2 There wasn't anybody on the bus.
3 I don't have anything to read. / I haven't got anything to read.
4 I don't have anyone to help me. / I haven't got anyone to help me.
5 She didn't hear anything.
6 We don't have anything for dinner. / We haven't got anything for dinner.

78.3
3 a Nothing.
4 a Nobody./No-one.
5 a Nobody./No-one.
6 a Nothing.
7 a Nothing.
8 a Nobody./No-one.
3 b I don't want anything.
4 b I didn't meet anybody/anyone.
5 b Nobody/No-one knows the answer.
6 b I didn't buy anything.
7 b Nothing happened.
8 b Nobody/No-one was late.

78.4
3 anything
4 Nobody/No-one
5 Nothing
6 anything
7 anybody/anyone
8 nothing
9 anything
10 anything
11 nobody/no-one
12 anything
13 Nothing
14 Nobody/No-one ... anybody/anyone

UNIT 79

79.1
2 something
3 somewhere
4 somebody/someone

79.2
2a Nowhere.
3a Nothing.
4a Nobody./No-one.
2b I'm not going anywhere.
3b I don't want anything.
4b I'm not looking for anybody/anyone.

79.3
3 anything
4 anything
5 somebody/someone
6 something
7 anybody/anyone ... nobody/no-one
8 anything
9 Nobody/No-one
10 anybody/anyone
11 Nothing
12 anywhere
13 somewhere
14 anything
15 anybody/anyone

79.4
2 anything to eat
3 nothing to do
4 anywhere to sit
5 something to drink
6 nowhere to park
7 something to read
8 somewhere to stay

UNIT 80

80.1
2 Every day
3 every time
4 Every room
5 every word

80.2
2 every day
3 all day
4 every day
5 all day
6 all day
7 every day

80.3
2 every
3 all
4 all
5 Every
6 all
7 every
8 all
9 every

80.4
2 everything
3 Everybody/Everyone
4 everything
5 everywhere
6 Everybody/Everyone
7 everywhere
8 Everything

80.5
2 is
3 has
4 likes
5 has
6 was
7 makes
8 Is ... Does

UNIT 81

81.1
3 Some
4 Most of
5 Most
6 any of
7 all *or* all of
8 None of
9 any of
10 Most
11 most of
12 Some
13 All *or* All of
14 some of
15 most of

81.2
2 All of them.
3 Some of them.
4 None of them.
5 Most of them.
6 None of it.

81.3
3 Some people ...
4 Some of **the** questions ...
or Some questions ...
5 *OK*
6 All insects ...
7 *OK* (*or* ... all **of** these books)
8 Most of **the** students ...
or Most students ...
9 *OK*
10 ... most of **the** night.

UNIT 82

82.1
3 Both
4 Neither
5 Neither
6 both
7 Either
8 neither of
9 Neither
10 either of
11 Both
12 neither of
13 Both
14 either of

82.2
2 Both windows are open.
3 Neither man is wearing a hat. *or* Neither of them is wearing ...
4 Both men have (got) beards. *or* Both of them have ...
5 Both buses go to the airport. *or* ... are going to the airport.
6 Neither answer is correct.

82.3
3 Both of them are students.
4 Neither of them has a car. / ... has got a car.
5 Both of them live in London.
6 Both of them like cooking.
7 Neither of them can play the piano.
8 Both of them eat seafood.
9 Neither of them is interested in sport.

UNIT 83

83.1
2 many
3 much
4 many
5 many
6 much
7 much
8 many
9 How many
10 How much
11 How much
12 How many

83.2
2 much time
3 many countries
4 many people
5 much luggage
6 many times

83.3
2 a lot of interesting things
3 a lot of accidents
4 a lot of fun
5 a lot of traffic

83.4
3 a lot of snow
4 *OK*
5 a lot of money
6 *OK*
7 *OK*
8 a lot

83.5
3 She plays tennis a lot.
4 He doesn't use his car much. (*or* ... a lot.)
5 He doesn't go out much. (*or* ... a lot.)
6 She travels a lot.

UNIT 84

84.1
2 a few
3 a little
4 a few
5 a little
6 a few

84.2
2 a little milk
3 A few days
4 a little Russian
5 a few friends
6 a few times
7 a few chairs
8 a little fresh air

84.3
2 very little coffee
3 very little rain
4 very few hotels
5 very little time
6 Very few people
7 very little work

84.4
2 A few
3 a little
4 little
5 few
6 a little
7 little

84.5
2 ... **a** little luck
3 ... **a** few things
4 *OK*
5 ... **a** few questions
6 ... **few** people
7 *OK*

UNIT 85

85.1
2 I like that green jacket.
3 Do you like classical music?
4 I had a wonderful holiday.
5 We went to a Japanese restaurant.

85.2
2 black clouds
3 long holiday
4 hot water
5 fresh air
6 sharp knife
7 dangerous job

85.3
2 It looks new.
3 I feel ill.
4 You look surprised.
5 They smell nice.
6 It tastes horrible.

85.4
2 It doesn't look new.
3 You don't sound American.
4 I don't feel cold.
5 They don't look heavy.
6 Maybe, but it doesn't taste good.

UNIT 86

86.1
2 badly
3 quietly
4 angrily
5 fast
6 dangerously

86.2
2 work hard
3 sleep well
4 win easily
5 Think carefully
6 know her very well
7 explain things very clearly/well
8 Come quickly

86.3
2 angry
3 slowly
4 slow
5 careful
6 hard
7 suddenly
8 quiet
9 badly
10 nice (*See Unit 85C.*)
11 quickly

86.4
2 well
3 good
4 well
5 well
6 good ... good

UNIT 87

87.1
2 bigger
3 slower
4 more expensive
5 higher
6 more dangerous

87.2
2 stronger
3 happier
4 more modern
5 more important
6 better
7 larger
8 more serious
9 prettier
10 more crowded

87.3
2 hotter/warmer
3 more expensive

4 worse
5 further
6 more difficult *or* harder

87.4
3 taller
4 harder
5 more comfortable
6 better
7 nicer
8 heavier
9 more interested
10 warmer
11 better
12 bigger
13 more beautiful
14 sharper
15 more polite
16 worse

UNIT 88

88.1
3 Kate is taller than Ben.
4 Kate starts work earlier than Ben.
5 Ben works harder than Kate.
6 Ben has more money than Kate. / Ben has got more money ...
7 Kate is a better driver than Ben.
8 Ben is more patient than Kate.
9 Ben is a better dancer than Kate. / Ben dances better than Kate.
10 Kate is more intelligent than Ben.
11 Kate speaks French better than Ben. / Kate speaks better French than Ben. / Kate's French is better than Ben's.
12 Ben goes to the cinema more than Kate. / ... more often than Kate.

88.2
2 You're older than her. / ... than she is.
3 You work harder than me. / ... than I do.
4 You watch TV more than him. / ... than he does.
5 You're a better cook than me. / ... than I am. *or* You cook better than me. / ... than I do.
6 You know more people than us. / ... than we do.
7 You have more money than them. / ... than they have.
8 You can run faster than me. / ... than I can.
9 You've been here longer than her. / ... than she has.
10 You got up earlier than them. / ... than they did.
11 You were more surprised than him. / ... than he was.

88.3
2 Jack's mother is much younger than his father.
3 My camera cost a bit more than yours. / ... than your camera. *or* My camera was a bit more expensive than ...
4 I feel much better today than yesterday. / ... than I did yesterday. /... than I felt yesterday.
5 It's a bit warmer today than yesterday. / ... than it was yesterday.
6 Sarah is a much better tennis player than me. / ... than I am. *or* Sarah is much better at tennis than me. / ... than I am. *or* Sarah plays tennis much better than me. / ... than I do.

UNIT 89

89.1
2 A is longer than B, but not as long as C.
3 C is heavier than A, but not as heavy as B.
4 A is older than C, but not as old as B.
5 B has got more money than C, but not as much as A. *or* ... but less (money) than A.
6 C works harder than A, but not as hard as B.

89.2
2 Your room isn't as big as mine. / ... as my room.
3 I didn't get up as early as you. / ... as you did.
4 They didn't play as well as us. / ... as we did.
5 You haven't been here as long as me. / ... as I have.
6 He isn't as nervous as her. / ... as she is.

89.3
2 as
3 than
4 than
5 as
6 than
7 as
8 than

89.4
2 Julia lives in the same street as Laura.
3 Julia got up at the same time as Andy.
4 Andy's car is the same colour as Laura's.

UNIT 90

90.1
2 C is longer than A.
D is the longest.
B is the shortest.
3 D is younger than C.
B is the youngest.
C is the oldest.
4 D is more expensive than A.
C is the most expensive.
A is the cheapest.
5 A is better than C.
A is the best.
D is the worst.

90.2
2 the happiest day
3 the best film
4 the most popular singer
5 the worst mistake
6 the prettiest village
7 the coldest day
8 the most boring person

90.3
2 Everest is the highest mountain in the world.
3–6
Brazil is the largest country in South America.
Alaska is the largest state in the USA.
The Nile is the longest river in Africa. / ... in the world.
Jupiter is the largest planet in the solar system.

UNIT 91

91.1
2 enough chairs
3 enough paint
4 enough wind

91.2
2 The car isn't big enough.
3 His legs aren't long enough.
4 He isn't strong enough.

91.3
3 old enough
4 enough time
5 big enough
6 eat enough
7 enough space
8 tired enough
9 practise enough

91.4
2 sharp enough to cut
3 warm enough to go
4 enough bread to make
5 well enough to win
6 enough time to read

UNIT 92

92.1
2 too heavy
3 too low
4 too fast
5 too big
6 too crowded

92.2
3 enough
4 too many
5 too
6 enough
7 too much
8 enough
9 too
10 too many
11 too much

92.3
3 It's too far.
4 It's too expensive.
5 It isn't/It's not big enough.
6 It was too difficult.
7 It isn't good enough.
8 I'm too busy.
9 It was too long.

92.4
2 too early to go to bed
3 too young to get married
4 too dangerous to go out at night
5 too late to phone Sue (now)
6 too surprised to say anything

UNIT 93

93.1
3 I like this picture very much.
4 Tom started his new job last week.
5 *OK*
6 Jessica bought a present for her friend. *or* Jessica bought her friend a present.
7 I drink three cups of coffee every day.
8 *OK*
9 I borrowed fifty pounds from my brother.

93.2
2 I got a new phone last week.
3 Paul finished his work quickly.
4 Emily doesn't speak French very well.
5 I did a lot of shopping yesterday.
6 Do you know London well?
7 We enjoyed the party very much.
8 I explained the problem carefully.
9 We met some friends at the airport.
10 Did you buy that jacket in England?
11 We do the same thing every day.
12 I don't like football very much.

93.3
2 I arrived at the hotel early.
3 Julia goes to Italy every year.
4 We have lived here since 1998.
5 Sue was born in London in 1990.
6 Paul didn't go to work yesterday.
7 Helen went to a wedding last weekend.
8 I had my breakfast in bed this morning.
9 Amy is going to university in September.
10 I saw a beautiful bird in the garden this morning.
11 My parents have been to the United States many times.
12 I left my umbrella in the restaurant last night.
13 Are you going to the cinema tomorrow evening?
14 I took the children to school this morning.

UNIT 94

94.1
2 He always gets up early.
3 He's/He is never late for work.
4 He sometimes gets angry.
5 He rarely goes swimming.
6 He's/He is usually at home in the evenings.

94.2
2 Susan is always polite.
3 I usually finish work at 5 o'clock.
4 Sarah has just started a new job.
5 I rarely go to bed before midnight.
6 The bus isn't usually late.
7 I don't often eat fish.
8 I will never forget what you said.
9 Have you ever lost your passport?
10 Do you still work in the same place?
11 They always stay in the same hotel.
12 Jane doesn't usually work on Saturdays.
13 Is Tina already here?
14 What do you usually have for breakfast?
15 I can never remember his name.

94.3
2 Yes, and I also speak French.
3 Yes, and I'm also hungry.
4 Yes, and I've also been to Ireland.
5 Yes, and I also bought some books.

94.4
1 They both play football.
They're/They are both students.
They've both got cars. / They both have cars.
2 They're/They are all married.
They were all born in England.
They all live in New York.

UNIT 95

95.1
2 Do you still live in Clare Street?
3 Are you still a student?
4 Have you still got a motorbike? / Do you still have a motorbike?
5 Do you still go to the cinema a lot?
6 Do you still want to be a teacher?

95.2
2 He was looking for a job.
He's/He is still looking (for a job).
He hasn't found a job yet.
3 She was asleep.
She's/She is still asleep.
She hasn't woken up yet. / She isn't awake yet. *or* She hasn't got up yet. / She isn't up yet.
4 They were having dinner. / They were eating.
They're/They are still having dinner. / ... still eating.
They haven't finished (dinner) yet. / They haven't finished eating yet.

95.3
2 Is Helen here yet? *or* Has Helen arrived/come yet?
3 Have you got your (exam) results yet? / Have you had your ... / Have you received your ...
4 Have you decided where to go yet? / Do you know where you're going yet?

95.4
3 She's/She has already gone/left.
4 I've already got one. / I already have one.
5 I've/I have already paid (it).
6 he already knows.

UNIT 96

96.1
2 He gave it to Gary.
3 He gave them to Sarah.
4 He gave it to his sister.
5 He gave them to Robert.
6 He gave it to a neighbour.

96.2
2 I gave Joanna a plant.
3 I gave Richard a tie.
4 I gave Emma some chocolates / a box of chocolates.
5 I gave Rachel some flowers / a bunch of flowers.
6 I gave Kevin a wallet.

96.3
2 Can you lend me an umbrella?
3 Can you give me your address?
4 Can you lend me twenty pounds?
5 Can you send me more information?
6 Can you show me the letter?

96.4
2 lend you some money
3 send the bill to me
4 buy you a present
5 pass me the sugar
6 give it to her
7 showed the policeman my identity card

UNIT 97

97.1
3 I went to the window and (I) looked out.
4 I wanted to phone you, but I didn't have your number.
5 I jumped into the river and (I) swam to the other side.
6 I usually drive to work, but I went by bus this morning.
7 Do you want me to come with you, or shall I wait here?

97.2
Example answers:
2 because it was raining. / because the weather was bad.
3 but it was closed.
4 so he didn't eat anything. / so he didn't want anything to eat.
5 because there was a lot of traffic. / because the traffic was bad.
6 Sue said goodbye, got into her car and drove off/away.

97.3
Example answers:
3 I went to the cinema, **but** the film wasn't very good.
4 I went to a café **and** met some friends of mine.
5 There was a film on television, **so** I watched it.
6 I got up in the middle of the night **because** I couldn't sleep.

UNIT 98

98.1
2 When I'm tired, I like to watch TV.
3 When I knocked on the door, there was no answer.
4 When I go on holiday, I always go to the same place.
5 When the programme ended, I turned off the TV.
6 When I got to the hotel, there were no rooms.

98.2
2 when they heard the news
3 they went to live in New Zealand
4 while they were away
5 before they came here
6 somebody broke into the house
7 they didn't believe me

98.3
2 I finish
3 it's
4 I'll be ... she leaves
5 stops
6 We'll come ... we're
7 I'll bring
8 I'm
9 it gets
10 I'll tell ... I'm

98.4
Example answers:
2 you finish your work
3 I'm going to buy a motorbike
4 you get ready
5 I won't have much free time
6 I come back

UNIT 99

99.1
2 If you pass the exam, you'll get a certificate.
3 If you fail the exam, you can do it again.
4 If you don't want this magazine, I'll throw it away.
5 If you want those pictures, you can have them.
6 If you're busy now, we can talk later.
7 If you're hungry, we can have lunch now.
8 If you need money, I can lend you some.

99.2
2 I give
3 is
4 I'll call
5 I'll be ... get
6 Will you go ... they invite

99.3
Example answers:
3 ... you're busy.
4 ... you'll feel better in the morning.
5 ... you're not watching it.
6 ... she doesn't study.
7 ... I'll go and see Chris.
8 ... the weather is good.
9 ... it rains today.

99.4
2 When
3 If
4 If
5 if
6 When
7 if
8 when ... if

UNIT 100

100.1
3 wanted
4 had
5 were/was
6 didn't enjoy
7 could
8 tried
9 didn't have

100.2
3 I'd go / I would go
4 she knew
5 we had
6 you won
7 I wouldn't stay
8 we lived
9 It would be
10 the salary was/were
11 I wouldn't know
12 would you change

100.3
2 I'd watch it / I would watch it
3 we had some pictures on the wall
4 the air would be cleaner
5 every day was/were the same
6 I'd be bored / I would be bored
7 we had a bigger house / we bought a bigger house
8 we would/could buy a bigger house *or*
we would/could have a bigger house

100.4
Example answers:
2 I'd go to Antarctica
3 I didn't have any friends
4 I'd buy a house if I had enough money.
5 I'd try and help
6 there were no guns

UNIT 101

101.1
2 A butcher is a person who sells meat.
3 A musician is a person who plays a musical instrument.
4 A patient is a person who is ill in hospital.
5 A dentist is a person who takes care of your teeth.
6 A fool is a person who does stupid things.
7 A genius is a person who is very intelligent.
8 A liar is a person who doesn't tell the truth.

101.2
2 The woman who opened the door was wearing a yellow dress.
3 Most of the students who took the exam passed (it).
4 The policeman who stopped our car wasn't very friendly.

101.3
2 who
3 which
4 which
5 who
6 which
7 who
8 who
9 which
that *is also correct in all these sentences.*

101.4
3 ... a machine **that/which** makes coffee.
4 *OK* (**which** *is also correct*)
5 ... people **who/that** never stop talking.
6 *OK* (**who** *is also correct*)
7 *OK* (**that** *is also correct*)
8 ... the sentences **that/which** are wrong.
9 ... a car **that/which** cost £40,000.

UNIT 102

102.1
2 I've lost the pen you gave me.
3 I like the jacket Sue is wearing.
4 Where are the flowers I gave you?
5 I didn't believe the story he told us.
6 How much were the oranges you bought?

102.2
2 The meal you cooked was excellent.
3 The shoes I'm wearing aren't very comfortable.
4 The people we invited to dinner didn't come.

102.3
2 Who are the people you were talking to?
3 Did you find the keys you were looking for?
4 Where is the party you're going to?
5 What's the name of the film you were talking about?
6 What's that music you're listening to?
7 Did you get the job you applied for?

102.4

2 What's the name of the restaurant where you had dinner?
3 How big is the village where you live?
4 Where exactly is the factory where you work?

UNIT 103

103.1

3	at	11	at
4	on	12	in
5	in	13	on
6	in	14	on
7	on	15	at
8	on	16	at
9	at	17	at*
10	on	18	in

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

103.2

2	on	11	at*
3	at	12	on
4	in	13	in
5	in	14	at
6	in	15	in
7	on	16	on
8	on	17	in
9	in	18	at
10	at	19	at

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

103.3

2 on Friday
3 on Monday
4 at 4 o'clock on Thursday (afternoon) / on Thursday (afternoon) at 4 o'clock
5 on Saturday evening
6 at 2.30 on Tuesday (afternoon) / on Tuesday (afternoon) at 2.30

103.4

2 I'll call you in three days.
3 My exam is in two weeks.
4 Tom will be here in half an hour. / ... in 30 minutes.

103.5

3 in
4 – *(already complete)*
5 – *(already complete)*
6 in
7 at*
8 – *(already complete)*
9 – *(already complete)*
10 on
11 in
12 at

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

UNIT 104

104.1

2 Alex lived in Canada **until** 2009.
3 Alex has lived in England **since** 2009.
4 Karen lived in France **until** 2011.
5 Karen has lived in Switzerland **since** 2011.
6 Clare worked in a restaurant **from** 2010 **to** 2012.
7 Clare has worked in a hotel **since** 2012.
8 Adam was a teacher **from** 2002 **to** 2008.
9 Adam has been a journalist **since** 2008.
11 Alex has lived in England for ... years.
12 Karen has lived in Switzerland for ... years.
13 Clare worked in a restaurant for two years.
14 Clare has worked in a hotel for ... years.
15 Adam was a teacher for six years.
16 Adam has been a journalist for ... years.

104.2

2	until	9	since
3	for	10	until
4	since	11	for
5	Until	12	until
6	for	13	Since
7	for	14	for
8	until		

UNIT 105

105.1

2 after lunch
3 before the end
4 during the course
5 before they went to Australia
6 during the night
7 while you're waiting
8 after the concert

105.2

3 while
4 for
5 while
6 during
7 while
8 for
9 during
10 while

105.3

2 eating
3 answering
4 having/taking
5 finishing/doing
6 going/travelling

105.4

2 John worked in a bookshop for two years after leaving school.
3 Before going to sleep, I read for a few minutes.
4 After walking for three hours, we were very tired.
5 Let's have a cup of coffee before going out.

UNIT 106

106.1

2 **In** the box.
3 **On** the box.
4 **On** the wall.
5 **At** the bus stop.
6 **In** the field.
7 **On** the balcony.
8 **In** the pool.
9 **At** the window.
10 **On** the ceiling.
11 **On** the table.
12 **At** the table.

106.2

2 in
3 on
4 in
5 on
6 at
7 in
8 in
9 at
10 at
11 in
12 at
13 on
14 at
15 **on** the wall **in** the living room

UNIT 107

107.1
2 **At** the airport.
3 **In** bed.
4 **On** a ship.
5 **In** the sky.
6 **At** a party.
7 **At** the doctor's.
8 **On** the second floor.
9 **At** work.
10 **On** a plane.
11 **In** a taxi.
12 **At** a wedding.

107.2
2 in
3 in
4 at
5 at
6 in
7 at
8 at
9 in
10 in
11 on
12 on
13 at
14 in
15 on

UNIT 108

108.1
2 to
3 in
4 to
5 in
6 to
7 to
8 in

108.2
3 to
4 to
5 **at** home ... **to** work
6 at
7 – *(already complete)*
8 to
9 at
10 **at** a restaurant ... **to** the hotel

108.3
2 to
3 to
4 in
5 to
6 to
7 at
8 to
9 to
10 at
11 at
12 **to** Maria's house ... **at** home
13 – *(already complete)*
14 meet **at** the party... go **to** the party

108.4
1 to
2 – *(already complete)*
3 at
4 in
5 to
6 – *(already complete)*

108.5
Example answers:
2 to work
3 at work
4 to Canada
5 to parties
6 at a friend's house

UNIT 109

109.1
2 next to / beside / by
3 in front of
4 between
5 next to / beside / by
6 in front of
7 behind
8 on the left
9 in the middle

109.2
2 behind
3 above
4 in front of
5 on
6 by / next to / beside
7 below / under
8 above
9 under
10 by / next to / beside
11 opposite
12 on

109.3
2 The fountain is in front of the theatre.
3 The bank/bookshop is opposite the theatre. *or* Paul's office is opposite the theatre. *or* The theatre is opposite ...
4 The bank/bookshop/ supermarket is next to ...
5 Paul's office is above the bookshop.
6 The bookshop is between the bank and the supermarket.

UNIT 110

110.1
2 Go under the bridge.
3 Go up the hill.
4 Go down the steps.
5 Go along this street.
6 Go into the hotel.
7 Go past the hotel.
8 Go out of the hotel.
9 Go over the bridge.
10 Go through the park.

110.2
2 off
3 over
4 out of
5 across
6 round/around
7 through
8 on
9 round/around
10 **into** the house **through** a window

110.3
1 out of
2 round/around
3 in
4 **from** here **to** the airport
5 round/around
6 on/over
7 over
8 out of / from

UNIT 111

111.1
2 on time
3 on holiday
4 on the phone
5 on TV

111.2
2 by
3 with
4 about
5 on
6 by
7 at
8 on
9 with
10 **about** grammar **by** Vera P. Bull

111.3
1 with
2 without
3 by
4 about
5 at
6 by
7 on
8 with
9 at
10 by

11 about
12 by
13 on
14 with
15 by
16 by

UNIT 112

112.1
2 in
3 to
4 at
5 with
6 of

112.2
2 at
3 to
4 about
5 of
6 of
7 from/to (*You can also say* different than ...)
8 in
9 for
10 about
11 of
12 **for/about** getting angry **with** you

112.3
2 interested in going
3 good at getting
4 fed up with waiting
5 sorry for/about waking
6 Thank you for waiting.

112.4
2 Sue walked past me without speaking.
3 Don't do anything without asking me first.
4 I went out without locking the door.

112.5
Example answers:
2 I'm scared of the dark.
3 I'm not very good at drawing.
4 I'm not interested in cars.
5 I'm fed up with living here.

UNIT 113

113.1
2 to
3 for
4 to
5 at
6 for

113.2
2 to
3 to
4 – *(already complete)*
5 for
6 to
7 of/about
8 for
9 on
10 to
11 for
12 – *(already complete)*
13 to
14 on
15 of/about

113.3
1 at
2 after
3 for
4 after
5 at
6 for

113.4
Example answers:
3 It depends on the programme.
4 It depends (on) what it is.
5 It depends on the weather.
6 It depends (on) how much you want.

UNIT 114

114.1
2 went in
3 looked up
4 rode off/away
5 turned round/around
6 got off
7 sat down
8 got out

114.2
2 away
3 round/around
4 going **out** ... be **back**
5 down
6 over
7 back
8 in
9 up
10 going **away** ... coming **back**

114.3
2 Hold on
3 slowed down
4 takes off
5 getting on
6 speak up
7 broken down
8 fall over / fall down
9 carry on
10 gave up
11 went off

UNIT 115

115.1
2 She took off her hat. *or* She took her hat off.
3 He put down his bag. *or* He put his bag down.
4 She picked up the magazine. *or* She picked the magazine up.
5 He put on his sunglasses. *or* He put his sunglasses on.
6 She turned off the tap. *or* She turned the tap off.

115.2
2 He put his jacket on.
He put it on.
3 She took off her glasses.
She took them off.
4 I picked the phone up.
I picked it up.
5 They gave the key back.
They gave it back.
6 We turned off the lights.
We turned them off.

115.3
2 take it back
3 picked them up
4 switched it off
5 bring them back

115.4
3 knocked over
4 look it up
5 throw them away
6 tried on
7 showed me round
8 gave it up *or* gave up (*without* it)
9 fill it in
10 put your cigarette out

Key to Additional exercises

1

3 Kate is a doctor.
4 The children are asleep.
5 Gary isn't hungry.
6 The books aren't on the table.
7 The hotel is near the station.
8 The bus isn't full.

2

3 she's / she is
4 Where are
5 Is he
6 It's / It is
7 I'm / I am *or* No, I'm not. I'm a student.
8 What colour is
9 Is it
10 Are you
11 How much are they?

3

3 He's/He is having a shower.
4 Are the children playing?
5 Is it raining?
6 They're/They are coming now.
7 Why are you standing here? I'm/I am waiting for somebody.

4

4 Sam doesn't want
5 Do you want
6 Does Helen live
7 Sarah knows
8 I don't travel
9 do you usually get up
10 They don't go out
11 Tom always finishes
12 does Jessica do ... She works

5

3 She's/She is a student.
4 She hasn't got a car. *or* She doesn't have a car.
5 She goes out a lot.
6 She's got/She has got a lot of friends. *or* She has a lot of friends.
7 She doesn't like London.
8 She likes dancing.
9 She isn't/She's not interested in sport.

6

1 Are you married?
Where do you live?
Have you got any children? *or* Do you have any children?
How old is she?
2 How old are you?
What do you do? / Where do you work? / What's your job?
Do you like/enjoy your job?
Have you got a car? *or* Do you have a car?
Do you (usually) go to work by car?
3 What's his name? / What's he called?
What does he do? / What's his job?
Does he live/work in London?

7

4 Sonia is 32 years old.
5 I've got two sisters. *or* I have two sisters.
6 We often watch TV in the evening.
7 Amy never wears a hat.
8 A bicycle has got two wheels. *or* ... has two wheels.
9 These flowers are beautiful.
10 Emma speaks German very well.

8

3 are you cooking
4 plays
5 I'm going
6 It's raining
7 I don't watch
8 we're looking
9 do you pronounce

9

2 we go
3 is shining
4 are you going
5 do you go
6 She writes
7 I never read
8 They're watching
9 She's talking
10 do you usually have
11 He's visiting
12 I don't drink

10

2 went
3 found
4 was
5 had
6 told
7 gave
8 were
9 thought
10 invited/asked

11

3 He was good at sport.
4 He played football.
5 He didn't work hard at school.
6 He had a lot of friends.
7 He didn't have a bike.
8 He wasn't a quiet child.

12

3 How long were you there? / How long did you stay there?
4 Did you like/enjoy Amsterdam?
5 Where did you stay?
6 Was the weather good?
7 When did you get/come back?

13

3 I forgot
4 did you get
5 I didn't speak
6 Did you have
7 he didn't go
8 she arrived
9 did Robert live
10 The meal didn't cost

14

2 were working
3 opened
4 rang ... was cooking
5 heard ... looked
6 was looking ... happened
7 wasn't reading ... was watching
8 didn't read
9 finished ... paid ... left
10 saw ... was walking ... was waiting

15

3 is playing
4 gave
5 doesn't like

6 did your parents go
7 saw ... was driving
8 Do you watch
9 were you doing
10 goes
11 'm/am trying
12 didn't sleep

16

3 it's/it has just finished/ended.
4 I've/I have found them. *or* I've got them.
5 I haven't read it.
6 Have you seen her?
7 I've/I have had enough.
8 Have you (ever) been to Sweden?
9 We've/We have (just) been to the cinema.
10 They've/They have gone to a party.
11 He's/He has (just) woken up.
12 How long have you lived here? *or* ... have you been living here?
13 we've/we have known each other for a long time.
14 It's/It has been raining all day. *or* It has rained all day. *or* It has been horrible/bad all day.

17

3 's/has been
4 for
5 since
6 has he lived / has he been / has he been living
7 for
8 've/have been

18

Example answers:

3 I've just started this exercise.
4 I've met Sarah a few times.
5 I haven't had lunch yet.
6 I've never been to Australia.
7 I've lived here since I was born.
8 I've lived here for three years.

19

3 bought/got
4 went
5 've/have read *or* read *or* 've/have finished with
6 haven't started (it) *or* haven't begun (it)
7 was
8 didn't see
9 left
10 's/has been
11 was
12 've/have never made

20

3 He's/He has already gone.
4 she left at 4 o'clock.
5 How many times have you been there?
6 I haven't decided yet.
7 It was on the table last night.
8 I've eaten there a few times.
9 What time did they arrive?

21

1 When was the last time? *or* When did you go the last time?
2 How long have you had it? I bought/got it yesterday.
3 How long have you lived there / have you been there / have you been living there? Before that we lived in Mill Road. How long did you live in Mill Road?
4 How long have you worked there / have you been working there? What did you do before that? I was a taxi driver. *or* I worked as a taxi driver.

22

Example answers:

2 I didn't go out last night.
3 I was at work yesterday afternoon.
4 I went to a party a few days ago.
5 It was my birthday last week.
6 I went to America last year.

23

2	B	9	C
3	D	10	D
4	A	11	A
5	A	12	C
6	D	13	B
7	C	14	C
8	B	15	A

24

1 was damaged ... be knocked down
2 was built ... is used ... is being painted
3 is called ... be called ... was changed
4 have been made ... are produced

25

2 is visited
3 were damaged
4 be built
5 is being cleaned
6 be forgotten
7 has already been done
8 be kept
9 Have you ever been bitten
10 was stolen

26

2 My car was stolen last week.
3 All the bananas have been eaten.
4 The machine will be repaired.
5 We're/We are being watched.
6 The housework has to be done.

27

3 pushed
4 was pushed
5 has taken
6 is being repaired
7 invented
8 was the camera invented
9 have been washed *or* were washed
10 I've/I have washed them. *or* I washed them.
11 did they send *or* have they sent
12 be sent

28

2	B	8	B
3	A	9	B
4	C	10	A
5	B	11	B
6	C	12	C
7	C		

29

1 I stayed
did you do
I watched
Are you going
I'm going
are you going to see
I don't know. I haven't decided
2 have you been
We arrived
are you staying / are you going to stay
do you like
we're having
3 I'm going ... Do you want
are you going
Have you ever eaten
I've been ... I went
4 I've lost ... Have you seen
You were wearing ... I came
I'm not wearing
Have you looked / Did you look
I'll go

30

1 we met
2 we sat / we were sitting
3 We didn't know
4 we became
5 we liked
6 we spent
7 We left
8 we meet
9 has been
10 she's working
11 She's coming
12 she comes
13 we'll have / we're going to have
14 It will be

31

2 we're staying
3 we enjoyed
4 We watched
5 slept
6 I don't sleep
7 we're not doing / we're not going to do *or* we aren't doing / we aren't going to do
8 we're going
9 to see
10 We haven't decided
11 wants
12 to go
13 I'll send
14 you're having
15 are working / have been working
16 he had
17 he needs
18 We've been
19 We got
20 seeing
21 I liked
22 we went
23 we left
24 had
25 he wasn't injured
26 was damaged
27 We've changed / We changed
28 we're leaving
29 We're staying / We're going to stay / We'll stay
30 flying
31 That will be / That's going to be
32 finished
33 I'll let
34 we get
35 are looking
36 We're going
37 we'll send

32

2	A	11	B
3	B	12	A
4	C	13	C
5	B	14	B
6	C	15	C
7	B	16	A
8	A	17	C
9	C	18	B
10	A		

33

2 a car
3 the fridge
4 a teacher
5 school
6 the cinema
7 a taxi
8 the piano
9 cars
10 the same

34

4 **a** horse
5 **The** sky
6 **a** tourist
7 for lunch (–)
8 **the** first President of **the** United States
9 **a** headache
10 remember names (–)
11 **the** next train
12 send emails (–)
13 **the** garden
14 **the** Majestic Hotel
15 ill last week (–) ... to work (–)
16 **the** highest mountain in **the** world
17 to **the** radio ... having breakfast (–)
18 like sport (–) ... is basketball (–)
19 **a** doctor ... **an** art teacher
20 **the** second floor ... **the** top of **the** stairs ... on **the** right
21 After dinner (–) ... watched TV (–)
22 **a** wonderful holiday in **the** south of France (–)

35

2	in	12	at
3	on	13	at
4	at	14	in
5	on	15	at
6	in	16	on
7	since	17	by
8	on	18	for ... on
9	by	19	to ... in
10	in	20	at ... in
11	for		

Key to Study guide

Present

1.1	B
1.2	A
1.3	C
1.4	A
1.5	C, D
1.6	B
1.7	D
1.8	C
1.9	C
1.10	A
1.11	C
1.12	A
1.13	D
1.14	C
1.15	A
1.16	D
1.17	C, D
1.18	A, D

Past

2.1	B
2.2	E
2.3	D
2.4	B
2.5	A
2.6	D
2.7	A
2.8	C
2.9	C

Present perfect

3.1	B, E
3.2	D
3.3	B
3.4	D
3.5	E
3.6	B
3.7	A
3.8	C
3.9	D
3.10	E

Passive

4.1	D
4.2	C
4.3	E
4.4	A
4.5	A

Verb forms

5.1	D
5.2	B

Future

6.1	A
6.2	A
6.3	C
6.4	A, B
6.5	B
6.6	C
6.7	D
6.8	C
6.9	B

Modals, imperative etc.

7.1	C, D
7.2	A, C
7.3	A
7.4	D
7.5	B
7.6	E
7.7	B, D
7.8	D
7.9	C
7.10	C
7.11	A
7.12	E

There and it

8.1	B
8.2	E
8.3	A
8.4	A
8.5	B

Auxiliary verbs

9.1	C
9.2	A
9.3	C
9.4	B
9.5	B
9.6	C
9.7	D

Questions

10.1	D
10.2	D
10.3	A
10.4	A
10.5	B
10.6	D
10.7	B
10.8	A
10.9	C, E
10.10	C
10.11	A
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12.2	D
12.3	B
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12.5	B, C
12.6	C
12.7	A
12.8	D

Go, get, do, make and have

13.1	A, D
13.2	C
13.3	C, D
13.4	A, D
13.5	B
13.6	D

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14.2	C
14.3	D
14.4	B
14.5	B, C
14.6	A
14.7	E
14.8	A
14.9	D
14.10	C

A and the

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15.2 B
15.3 A, C
15.4 B
15.5 B
15.6 A
15.7 D
15.8 C
15.9 B
15.10 B
15.11 E
15.12 D
15.13 B
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16.15 D
16.16 A, C
16.17 D
16.18 B
16.19 A

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17.6 B
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17.13 D
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18.5 A, D

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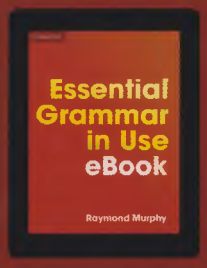

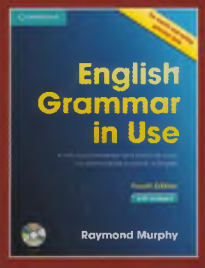

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BETTER ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Never has there been a greater need to make sure that you write and speak ‘good’ English. This is true of people in countries such as the UK where English is the native language and of people in countries where English is a second or foreign language. In countries where English is the language of business, a marked emphasis is now being placed on the need for competent communicative skills in the workplace. Although life in the modern world is generally less formal than it was and people in personal, academic and business contexts write considerably fewer letters than formerly, they are often still required to demonstrate their powers of written communication in the classroom and the workplace. For example, they might have to write a report for presentation to their work colleagues.

When it comes to correspondence, emails may have taken over from formal letters to a large extent but it reflects badly on a person if their emails are sloppily written and full of errors. The computer spell checker can only help you out to some extent. Many employers complain that a significant number of the people whom they recruit for jobs are sadly lacking in these skills. This is true even of young people who have just graduated from some of the top universities.

You might think that grammar and spelling are trivial matters, that they’re just not that important in your line of work. You might think that as long as the facts are correct, what does it matter if the grammar is bad? However, poor grammar reflects badly on you—you might miss out on a job opportunity, you might not be taken seriously when making a complaint, you could even put off a potential Internet date—all because of terrible grammar and sloppy spelling. Any public display of poor language skills can give a very bad impression of even the most intelligent person.

At the same time, the importance of English as a world language continues to grow. In fact, there are many versions of Standard English spoken around the world: British, American, Canadian, Australian, Indian, South African, New Zealand and more. All have rich variations in vocabulary, syntax, semantics and grammar. More and more people in other countries are anxious to learn English and there is an ever-increasing demand both for teachers of English as a second

or foreign language and for effective teaching materials in these areas.

But what is ‘good’ English or even correct English? Don’t those of us who learn it as a native tongue at our mother’s knee automatically speak and write it correctly? Alas, the answer to that is no. Native speakers obviously have much less of a struggle learning to speak good English than learners of English as a foreign or second language do, but the process is not effort-free.

Good or correct English is often regarded as grammatical English. Grammar has been variously described as the framework on which ideas are hung, and the cement that binds words together. Basically, grammar refers to the rules that govern the way a language works. Society cannot operate without rules and neither can language.

The prospect of learning grammar is more likely to depress those whose native tongue is English. Learners of English as a second or foreign language are used to having to come to grips with the grammar of their own languages and will not protest so much.

Often, the first time that people come into contact with written rules of grammar is when they come to learn a foreign language. The language is broken up into vocabulary, parts of speech, regular and irregular verbs, tenses, agreements and structures, *etc*. The rules of this foreign language seem more explicit, more ‘grammatical’ than that of our own, but, of course, our own language has such rules, it’s just that we don’t notice them.

It might be surprising to hear that, if your first language is English, you do already know some English grammar. You can speak the language, you understand others, you can respond and make yourself understood. For example, we automatically know the difference in structure between a question (Can I have that?) and a command (Give me that!).

You started to learn English grammar as an infant without consciously knowing you were doing so. You learned what were the correct structures and combinations of words through hearing others speak and—once you learned how to read—through the written word. Perhaps what you don’t know about are the prescriptive rules that have been devised to describe English grammar. They used to be taught by rote in schools but emphasis on this side of teaching English has long since died out.

Spoken and written English are enormously different in structure and formality. Spoken discourse is often disjointed, with sentence fragments used in preference to complete sentences that would perhaps sound uncomfortably formal, yet it is easily understood. Even the world’s most articulate and witty people do not always speak using perfect, prescriptively ordered, ‘grammatically correct’ English. Speech also employs stress, rhythm and intonation as an

important part of conveying meaning.

However, our written words need structure and formality to convey meaning as accurately and unambiguously as possible; and our spoken words can still sound ‘wrong’ and give a bad impression if the formal rules are not followed.

Grammar has, over the years, got rather a bad press. At one point, in the UK, it was set aside by the educational powers-that-be as being largely unnecessary. Although it is now often seen as something valuable that should be brought back into prominence, it is also often seen as something essentially difficult and boring. This is not the case. It is logical and can be of great interest. Furthermore, you really have to get to grips with it if you want to improve your English.

In conclusion, in order to speak and write effectively and confidently in English, you must know something about the structure of the language. This book gives a clear explanation of the nuts and bolts of English grammar as well as hints on how to create a better personal writing style incorporating ‘good’ English.

WEBSTER'S WORD POWER

Betty Kirkpatrick, a graduate of Edinburgh University, has a long career in reference publishing. She has edited *Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary*, *Roget’s Thesaurus*, the concise edition of *Brewer’s Phrase and Fable*, and was language consultant to the *Encarta World English Dictionary*. She has compiled various other reference books, including the *Oxford Paperback Thesaurus* and the *Bloomsbury Dictionary of Clichés*. She acts as a consultant to the *Bloomsbury Good Word Guide*. Betty is author of an extensive list of publications on various aspects of the English language for learners of English.

GRAMMAR

THE SENTENCE AND THE PARAGRAPH

The sentence

The most important unit of structure is the **sentence**. Most of the other grammatical units are parts that go together to form a sentence. However, that leaves us with the question 'What is a sentence?' and there has been some dispute about the definition. The traditional view of the sentence seems as good a jumping-off point as any—a unit of language that can stand alone and make sense.

The following are all complete in themselves, make sense and are, therefore, all sentences: *We ran*.
The boy kicked the ball.
They played hard and they won.
Look over there!

Minor sentences

The following examples are also all complete in themselves and make sense and are, therefore, sentences. They are known as **minor sentences** or **irregular sentences**.

They are called **minor sentences** because they lack some of the other usual grammatical features of a sentence. For example, a minor sentence often lacks a **subject** and a **predicate**.

Minor sentences are most common in spoken English and in conversation in literary fiction. They are also common in certain kinds of written English such as notices, labels and adverts. The following are examples of **minor sentences:** *No!*
Nonsense!
How terrible!
What a view!
Good try!
No way!
Taxi!
Poison!
No entry.
Well done!
Once bitten, twice shy.

Major sentences

Other sentences are known as **major sentences** or **regular sentences**. A major sentence usually has a **subject** (see 1) and **predicate** (see 1). The following are examples of **major sentences:** *We ran.*
The boy kicked the ball.
Mother baked a cake.
She leaves tomorrow.
They are coming to town.
She studied hard, but she failed the exam.
I called him when I arrived.

Subject and predicate

Basically, a sentence is a combination of two grammatical units—the **subject** (see 1, 2, 3) and the **predicate** (see 1, 2, 3).

Subject

The **subject** (see 4) of a sentence refers to what the sentence is about, often the person or thing that carries out the action of the verb. The **subject** usually gives a clear idea of what the sentence is about.

The subject can be a **noun**—either a **common noun** or a **proper noun** or a **verbal noun**; a **noun phrase**; a **pronoun**; a **subordinate clause**; an **infinitive**.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **subject** of the sentence and the subjects are **nouns**: *Dogs need a lot of exercise*.
Children play in the park.
Money is extremely important to him.
Marriage is not for him, he says.
Accommodation is expensive in that area.
People are beginning to leave.
Jane is giving a party.
Jim has resigned.
Paris is the capital of France.
Mountaineering can be dangerous.
Dancing is her favourite pastime.
Painting can be a form of relaxation.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **subject** of the sentence and the subjects are **noun phrases**: *A heatwave has been forecast*.
Several unhappy employees have complained to the management.
The large black dog bounded up to the child.
Those terrible floods affected many people.
Representatives from the firm have issued a statement to staff.
James, my brother-in-law and dear friend, has just died.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **subject** of the sentence and the subjects are **pronouns**: *They were found guilty*.
We won the battle.
You have passed the exam.
He denied the charge.
She lost her wedding ring.
It has broken down again.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **subject** of the sentence and the subjects are **subordinate clauses**: *Who she was remained a mystery*.
Why he left has not yet been revealed.
What he says is not true.
When he will go has not yet been decided.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **subject** of the sentence and the subjects are **infinitives**: *To do that would be unforgivable*.
To get there is going to be very difficult.
To marry young is her main aim.
To get through your exams should be your principal concern.

NB: Dummy subject
A **dummy subject** sometimes has no intrinsic meaning but is inserted to maintain a balanced grammatical structure.

In the sentences

It has started to rain.

and
It is nearly midnight.
the word *It* is a **dummy subject**.

In the sentences

There is nothing else to say.

and
There is no reason for his behaviour.
the word *There* is a **dummy subject**.

NB: Directives
In sentences which are **directives** the subject often does not appear, but is implied, as in: *Get this out of here*.

and
Lend me that pen for a minute, please.
The implied subject is *you*.

Predicate

The **predicate** refers to the part of a sentence or clause that gives information about the **subject**. It is basically all the parts of a clause or sentence that are not contained in the subject. It can either be a single verb or a number of elements.

Thus in the sentence
The little girl fell.
the word *fell* is the predicate of the sentence.

Similarly, in the sentence
The tired old man slept soundly.
the words *slept soundly* form the predicate of the sentence.

And in the sentence
The tired old man slept like a log.
The words *slept like a log* form the predicate of the sentence.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **predicate** of the sentence: *Jane fainted*.
Peter was rich and powerful.
Children screamed loudly.
The lights went out all of a sudden.
Workers protested long and loudly at the factory gates.
They are leaving at the end of next week.
We took the stray kittens home.
The students celebrated their exam results all night long.
The child threw the red ball to the dog in the park.

Object

Very often the **predicate** contains an **object** (see 1). The **object** of a sentence is the part of a sentence that is acted upon or is affected by the verb. It usually follows the verb to which it relates.

There are two possible forms of object in a sentence or clause—a **direct object** or an **indirect object**.

Direct object

A **direct object** (see 1) refers to the person or thing that is directly affected by the action described by the verb.

The **direct object** can be a **noun**, and in the sentence *The girl hit the ball*.
the word *ball* is a **noun** and the **direct object**.

A **direct object** can also be a **pronoun**, and in the sentence *She hit him*.
the word *him* is a **pronoun** and the **direct object**.

A **direct object** can also be a **noun phrase**, and in the sentence *He has bought a*

large Victorian house.
the phrase *a large Victorian house* is a **noun phrase** and the **direct object**.

A **direct object** can be a **noun clause**, and in the sentence *I know what he means*.
the clause *what he means* is a **noun clause** and the **direct object**.

In the following sentences the underlined words form a **direct object**: *The dog bit the child.*
He dislikes cats.
We loved them.
People admire her.
He wanted a comfortable city-centre flat.
She lost her diamond engagement ring.
I don't know what you mean.
I asked why you did that.

Indirect object

An **indirect object** usually refers to the person who benefits from the action described by the verb, often by receiving something.

In the sentence
Her father sent the school a letter.
the school is the **indirect object** and a *letter* is the **direct object**.

NB: Direct and indirect objects
If there is a **direct object** and an **indirect object** in a sentence or clause, the **indirect object** is almost always placed before the **direct object**, as in: *I gave the boy the sweets*.
where *the boy* is the **indirect object** and *the sweets* the **direct object**.

However, if both the **direct** and **indirect objects** are **pronouns** the **direct object** is sometimes placed first, especially in informal speech, as in: *That is my book. Give it to me, please*.

NB: Verbs and indirect objects
Some verbs commonly take an **indirect object** as well as a **direct object**. These include **bring**, **buy**, **give**, **send**, **show**, **tell**.

In the following sentences the underlined words form an **indirect object**.

I sent <u>you</u> the book.
She showed <u>her mother</u> the letter.
We had to tell <u>her</u> the bad news.
They gave <u>the children</u> some sweets.
Mary bought <u>them</u> some magazines for the journey.
Pass <u>me</u> the salt, please.

An **indirect object** can be preceded by the word *to* or *for*.

So the sentence
Her sent the school a letter.

could be rephrased as
Her father sent a letter to the school..

And in this case the **direct object** would come before the **indirect object**.

Complement

In a sentence where the verb is a **linking verb**, such as *be*, *become*, *seem*, etc, what follows the verb in a **predicate** is called not an **object**, but a **complement**.

In the sentence
Mark is a policeman.
the words *a policeman* form the **complement** of the sentence.

Similarly, in the sentence
Jane became a heart surgeon.
the words *a heart surgeon* form the **complement** of the sentence.

In the following sentences the underlined words form a **complement**: *He seems an honest man*.
She became a huge fan.
They are nice enough people.
It appears a good bargain.

Punctuation of sentences

A sentence begins with a **capital letter** and ends with **a full stop** or an equivalent **punctuation mark**, such as a question mark or exclamation mark.

Thus, the following are all sentences: *They did not like the house*.
He lives in the country.
He designed and built the house.
We will leave when he gets here.
Where did he go?
Why did she leave?
Get out of here!
Help me!

(*See* Punctuation.)

Types of sentence

Traditionally five types of sentence are recognized. These are **statements**, **negative sentences**, **questions**, **directives** or **commands** and **exclamations**.

Statements

Statements are sentences that 'state' something or give information. They are sometimes called **declarative sentences** because they 'declare' something. In most statements the subject comes before the verb. The following sentences are all **declarative sentences**: *The boy hit his sister*.
The man attacked the old woman.
We serve evening meals.
The weather was dreadful.

Negative sentences

A **negative sentence** is one that makes a negative, rather than a positive, statement. This is usually created by the inclusion of a word such as *not*, *nothing* or *never*. The word *not* is sometimes contracted to *n't*. When *not* or *n't* is used it is accompanied by an **auxiliary verb**. The following sentences are **negative sentences**: *We did not invite her*.
I didn't see him.
I don't like it.
I don't know the man.
I heard nothing unusual last night.
They did nothing about it.
She has never been here.
We have never denied that.

NB: The double negative
The occurrence of two negative words in a sentence or clause is known as a **double negative**. If taken literally, this actually conveys the opposite sense to that which is intended.

Thus
He didn’t say nothing.
literally conveys the idea that he said something.

However, this is rarely what is intended by the speaker or writer and the **double negative** should be avoided in standard English, although it is a feature of some regional dialects.

Words such as *hardly* and *scarcely*, which can be regarded as semi-negative forms, are incorrectly used with a negative. When this happens it creates a double negative.

Thus, a sentence such as
We didn’t hardly have time to catch the train.
is an example of incorrect usage.

You should say
We hardly had time to catch the train.

Questions

Questions (see 1) are sentences that seek information of some kind. They are followed by a question mark **(?)** and they often involve the inversion of the subject and **an auxiliary** (see 1) or **modal verb**, as in: *Do you play the piano?*
Did you pass the exam?
Have you written to him?
Didn't you like it?

There are three main types of questions: **yes-no questions**, **wh-questions** and **alternative questions**.

Yes-no questions

Yes-no questions are designed to seek a reply in the affirmative or negative, whether the reply is just 'yes' or 'no' or whether this is amplified in some way, as in: *Is the house occupied just now?*
No.

Has the doctor arrived yet?
Yes. He's just arrived.

Are we ready to begin?
Let's get started. Yes.

Tag questions

Some **yes-no questions** are **tag questions** in which the questioning part is in the tag at the end of the sentence. The following are examples of tag questions, with the **tags** in bold: *She's a lawyer,* ***isn't she?***
He's not here yet, is ***he?***
You won't tell her, ***will you?***

Wh-questions

Wh-questions begin with a word beginning with **wh**, such as *why*, *where*, *when*, *who* and *what*, as in: *What do you want?*
Where did he go?
When did you last see her?
Who gave you that?

Alternative questions

Alternative questions require a reply that refers to the options given in the sentence. They contain the conjunction 'or'. The following are examples of **alternative questions**: *Did you come by bus or train?*
By train.

Is the party on Friday or Saturday?
It's on Saturday.

Is she younger or older than him She's a few years younger.

Exclamatory questions

Exclamatory questions are sentences which have the structure of questions but which are actually used as exclamations and end with an exclamation mark. They are really seeking the listener's agreement rather than seeking an answer. The following are examples of **exclamatory questions**: *Wasn't that a wonderful meal!*
Hasn't she changed!
Isn't it a dreadful day!

Rhetorical questions

Rhetorical questions are also sentences that have the structure of questions and they end in a question mark. However, the speaker does not require an answer to these questions.

The following are examples of **rhetorical questions**: *Why should I care?*
Who does she think she is?
How should I know?

Question by tone of voice

A **yes-no question** can have the structure of a statement, rather than a question, uttered in a questioning tone of voice and ending with a question mark.

The following are examples of this: *Anne told you I was going?*
Yes, she did.

Tom has actually left her?
He went today. Yes.

The house is no longer for sale?
No. It's been sold.

Directives

Directives (see 1), which are also called **commands** (although they are not all actually commands), are sentences that instruct someone to do something.

In some **directives** an actual command is being given and this is followed by an exclamation mark, as in: Keep quiet!
There is usually no subject in a directive and the verb is in its basic or infinitive form. In this kind of structure the verb is said to be in the **imperative mood**.

The following are examples of **directives** in the **imperative mood**: *Stand up!*
Help me, please!
Have a piece of cake.
Take two of these pills after meals.
Turn left here.

Some **directives** begin with the word 'let' or the word 'do', as in: *Let me help*.
Let's go.
Do come in.
Don't worry.

Exclamations

Exclamations are sentences expressed by someone who is impressed, excited or roused by something. Exclamations sometimes take the form of a single word or a **minor sentence** but they can also be **major sentences**, often beginning with 'what' or 'how'. Exclamations always end with an exclamation mark **(!)**.

The following are examples of **exclamations**: *Ouch!*

What a day!
How pretty you look!

NB: Sentence length

As we have seen above, sentences, particularly minor sentences, can be extremely short. They can even be one word. On the other hand, sentences can be extremely long.

There is no restriction on the length of sentences, except, of course, that they should not be so long that they are confusing or unintelligible. Usually, relatively short sentences make for greater clarity. However, a series of sentences should not all be so short that the effect is too abrupt or jerky.

Apart from clarity, there is the question of style when it comes to sentence length. From the point of view of good style, it is important to vary the length of your sentences. A mixture of sentence lengths makes a piece of prose seem more interesting.

Kinds of sentence

Simple sentences

Short sentences often contain one **main clause** and a sentence with just one main clause is called a **simple sentence**.

The following are examples of **simple sentences**: *The boy laughed*.
He enjoyed the trip.
We liked the play very much.
Her son is ill.
Her daughter became a doctor.
They gave me a present yesterday.

Multiple sentences

Sentences which contain more than one clause are known as **multiple sentences**, sometimes abbreviated to **multi-sentences**. These can either be **compound sentences** or **complex sentences**.

Compound sentences

Longer sentences usually contain more than one **clause**. Sometimes they consist of just two **main clauses** (see 1), sometimes more than two. These clauses are linked by a **coordinating conjunction** (see 4), such as *and*, *but* or *or*, and the sentences formed in this way are known as **compound sentences**.

The following are examples of **compound sentences**: *She loved the children and she looked after them well*.
He left on time but the bus was late.
She will mend the dress or buy a new one.
I was sorry for him but I could not help him and I felt bad about that.
She played well but her opponent played even better and she lost the match.

Complex sentences

Longer sentences are often **complex sentences**. In **complex sentences** at least one of the clauses is a **main clause** but one or more of the clauses is a **subordinate clause** (see 1).

A subordinate clause is connected to the main clause by a **subordinating conjunction** such as *although*, *because*, *before*, *since*, *unless*, *when*, *while* and *why*. Often the main clause comes before the subordinate, but sometimes the subordinate clause is put first.

The following are examples of **complex sentences**: *She danced while he played*.
I left when they arrived.
The book was still where we had left it.
She cannot go unless her mother gives her permission.
Because his car broke down he arrived late at the wedding.
Wherever he goes, she goes.
Since you left he has been sad.

The paragraph

The **paragraph** is usually a considerably larger unit of structure than a **sentence**. Indeed, it usually consists of several sentences. Pieces of prose are usually divided into **paragraphs** to make the information conveyed by the prose more comprehensible and easier of access.

Unlike the construction of sentences, there are no set grammatical rules for the construction of paragraphs and many people find it difficult to divide their work into paragraphs. However, this improves with practice and soon becomes instinctive. Here are some guidelines.

There is no set length that a paragraph should be. A **paragraph** should deal with one particular theme or point of the writer's writing or argument. When that has been dealt with satisfactorily, a new paragraph should be started. If a paragraph is very long it can be difficult for readers to make their way through it and it can also be rather off-putting visually. In such cases it is best to consider subdividing the theme of the long paragraph to make shorter paragraphs.

On the other hand, it is best not to make all one's paragraphs too short as this can create a disjointed effect. Try to aim for a mixture of lengths to create some variety. Traditionally, it was frowned upon to have a one-sentence paragraph but there are no hard and fast rules about this. Usually, however, it takes more than one sentence to develop the theme of the paragraph, unless one is a tabloid journalist or copywriter for an advertising firm.

The opening paragraph of a piece of writing should introduce the topic about which you are writing. The closing paragraph should sum up what you have been writing about.

New paragraphs begin on new lines and they are usually indented from the margin. In the case of dialogue in a work of fiction, each speaker's speech usually begins on a new line to make things clearer for the reader.

EXERCISES 1

1 Which of the following are **minor sentences**?

Have you finished?
Rubbish!
This food is tasteless.
How simply delicious!
What lovely flowers.
What's causing that dreadful smell?
No pain, no gain.
There is no smoke without fire.
Better luck next time.
No smoking.

2 Underline the **subject** in the following sentences.

They own several flats in the area.
Skating is her latest hobby.
Anne has become engaged to Peter.
To study hard should be your main concern.
There is no sense in this.
Where we go has not yet been decided.
It was a complete disaster.
Teachers from local schools protested against the school closures.
My cousin Jack knows two of the accident victims.
Many disenchanted workers resigned right away.

3 Underline the **predicate** in the following sentences.

The old lady slipped on the ice.
He left suddenly without warning.
The soldiers moved slowly and cautiously.
The young man was violent and vindictive.
The lorry broke down yesterday on the motorway.
The teacher punished both pupils.
Jack quickly telephoned the police.

She recovered from her terrible injuries in time.
The heavy rain battered against the cottage windows all day and all night.

4 Which of the underlined words in the following sentences form **direct objects** and which form **indirect objects?**

The applicant gave the official the necessary information.
Each guest brought a bottle of wine.
She recognized an old colleague.
The child sent her mother a birthday card.
I know what you mean.
Pass our guest the bread, please.
She showed her friend her new outfit.
The result gave the team renewed confidence.
Send me the document, please.
We had to tell her what happened.

5 Which of the underlined words in the following sentences form **complements**?
They became best friends.
We made great changes to the system.
His friends blame themselves.
She seems a very caring person.
He appeared as if from nowhere.
Jack's father is a professional tennis player.
This looks exactly what we need.
She always gets what she wants.

6 Which of the following sentences are **negative sentences?**

We have something important to tell you.
I have never seen anything like it.
He didn't ever love her.
She saw something move the undergrowth.
It doesn't matter any more.
I know nothing about the incident.
They will mourn her forever.
We saw nothing in the least bit suspicious.
They weren't adequately equipped.

He did care for her once.

7 Replace the full stop with the appropriate punctuation mark at the end of any of the following sentences which are **questions**.

Where he went is a mystery to us all.
She has been gone a long time, hasn't she.
What did he say in reply.
Did she go abroad on holiday or stay at home.
When I last saw her she was very ill.
Is she older or younger than her sister.
Why she left so suddenly is unclear.
Have you lived here long.
The flat isn't very big, is it.
He'll come back one day, I'm sure.

8 Which of the following questions are likely to be **rhetorical questions**?

How can God do this to me?
Where is the nearest bus stop?
No one is serving me—am I invisible?
Do you know where we are?
Why does it always rain when I want to spend the day at the beach?
How does this machine work?

9 Which of the following sentences are **compound sentences** and which are **complex sentences**?

He enjoyed his work and he was very good at it.
While she was good at her work, she didn't enjoy it very much.
I won't go unless it stops raining.
We had intended going but it started to rain very heavily.
You can either study here or you can study in the library.
As it was getting late, we looked for somewhere to stay the night.
They can get the last bus or they can get a taxi.
If you miss the last bus you will have to get a taxi.
He's going to accept the dinner invitation, although he doesn't really want to go.

ANSWERS 1

1 *Rubbish!*
How simply delicious!
What lovely flowers.
No pain, no gain.
Better luck next time.
No smoking.

2 *<u>They</u> own several flats in the area.*
<u>Skating</u> is her latest hobby.
<u>Anne</u> has become engaged to Peter.
<u>To study hard</u> should be your main concern.
<u>There</u> is no sense in this.
<u>Where we go</u> has not yet been decided.
<u>It</u> was a complete disaster.
<u>Teachers from local schools</u> protested against the school closures.
<u>My cousin Jack</u> works there.
<u>Many disenchanted workers</u> resigned right away.

3 *The old lady <u>slipped on the ice</u>.*
He <u>left suddenly without warning</u>.
The soldiers <u>moved slowly and cautiously.</u>
The young man <u>was violent and vindictive.</u>
The lorry <u>broke down yesterday on the motorway.</u>
The teacher <u>punished both pupils.</u>
Jack <u>quickly telephoned the police.</u>
She <u>recovered from her terrible injuries in time.</u>
The heavy rain <u>battered against the cottage windows all day and all night.</u>

4 direct objects
a bottle of wine, an old colleague, what you mean, the blood-stained knife, what happened.
indirect objects
the official, her mother, our guest, the team, me.

5 *best friends, a very caring person, a professional tennis player, what we need.*

6 *I have never seen anything like it.*

He didn't ever love her.
It doesn't matter any more.
I know nothing about the incident.
We saw nothing in the least bit suspicious.
They weren't adequately equipped.

7 *She has been gone a long time, hasn't she?*
What did he say in reply?
Did she go abroad on holiday or stay at home?
Is she older or younger than her sister?
Have you lived here long?
The flat isn't very big, is it?

8 *How can God do this to me?*
No one is serving me—am I invisible?
Why does it always rain when I want to spend the day at the beach?

9 compound sentences
He enjoyed his work and he was very good at it.
We had intended going, but it started to rain very heavily.
You can either study here or you can study in the library.
They can get the last bus or they can get a taxi.
complex sentences
While she was good at her work, she didn't enjoy it very much.
I won't go unless it stops raining.
As it was getting late, we looked for somewhere to stay the night.
If you miss the last bus you will have to get a taxi.
He's going to accept the dinner invitation, although he doesn't really want to go.

CLAUSES, PHRASES AND PHRASAL VERBS

Clauses

A clause (see 1, 2), like a **major sentence**, is a meaningful group of words containing a **subject** (see 2) and **predicate** (see 2). However, unlike sentences, not all clauses can stand alone and make sense.

Main clause

A clause that can stand alone and make sense is known as a **main clause**. Every major sentence must have at least one main clause (see 2). (*See* **Types of sentence**). In each of the following sentences the underlined words form a **main clause**: *He was at the office when I arrived.*
I knew why he left.
We took the train because the car broke down.

Some sentences consist of more than one **main clause** connected by a **coordinating conjunction** (see 1) such as *and*, *but* or *or*. Such sentences are known as **compound sentences**.

The following sentences consist of two **main clauses** (see 1): *I was very angry and he knew it.*
You can either apologize or you can leave immediately.
It was a sunny day but it was very cold.

The following sentences consist of more than two **main clauses**:

She was intelligent and she was very efficient but she had no luck in finding a job.
We can get a flight today or we can get one next week, but we cannot get one at the weekend.

Punctuation and main clauses

A **comma** may be used to separate **main clauses** joined by a **coordinating conjunction** (see 2), but this is not usual, especially if the clauses have the same

subject and the coordinating conjunction is *and*. When the coordinating conjunction is *but*, the use of a comma to mark off the main clause is more a matter of choice, especially when both clauses are quite long.

Subordinate clause

A clause that cannot stand alone and make sense and is dependent on the main clause to make sense is called a **subordinate clause** (see 1, 2, 4). A subordinate clause can come before or after a main clause. In each of the following sentences the underlined words form a subordinate clause.

He arrived <u>after we had started the meal</u>.
We won't be able to put in an offer for the house <u>until we sell our own</u>.
He failed the exam <u>although he worked hard</u>.
<u>If you buy that car</u> you will regret it.
<u>When he saw her</u> he smiled.
I wonder <u>why she left</u>.

There are several types of **subordinate clause**. With the exception of a verb, a subordinate clause can replace most elements of a sentence (adverb, adjective and noun).

Adverbial clause

A subordinate **adverbial clause** performs a similar function to an adverb in a sentence.

For example in the sentence
She left for the airport early.
the word *early* is an adverb.

This adverb can be replaced by an adverbial clause,as in:
She left for the airport *when it became light*.

or
She left for the airport before the city traffic got too heavy.

In both these sentences the underlined words form an adverbial clause.

In some cases an **adverbial clause** can come before the main clause, as in: *Before he left he gave her a letter*.

If the **adverbial clause** comes before the main clause it is sometimes separated from the main clause by a comma, especially when the adverbial clause is quite a long one. When the adverbial clause follows the main clause there is usually no comma. *See* **Commas** **and** **subordinate clauses** (see 3).

Types of adverbial clause

There are various types of **adverb** and, correspondingly, there are various types of **adverbial clause**.

adverbial clause of time

This indicates the time something happens and is introduced by a **conjunction** relating to time such as *after, before, when, whenever, while, until, as soon as*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of time**: *We need to leave before the traffic gets bad*.
He got there as I was leaving.
It had snowed heavily while we slept.
Whenever they meet they quarrel.
While we slept someone broke into the house.

adverbial clause of place

This indicates the place that something happens and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 1) relating to place such as *where, wherever, everywhere*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of place**: *We left the books where we had found them*.
Wherever we went we saw signs of terrible poverty.
Everywhere she goes she upsets people.

NB: Conjunctions and relative clauses

If the conjunctions *where* or *when* follow a noun the subordinate clause so formed is not an adverbial clause of place, but a **relative clause** (*see* **Relative clause**). For *where* you can substitute *in which* and for *when* you can substitute *at which*. In each of the following sentences the underlined words form a **relative clause** not an **adverbial clause**.

This is the place where we last saw him.
This is the time when the pain gets worse.

adverbial clause of purpose

This indicates the intention someone has when doing something and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 2) relating to purpose such as *in order* (*to*), *to*, *so as to*, *so that*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of purpose**: *We started on our journey very early so that we could avoid the city rush hour.*
In order to pass the exam you are going to have to work a lot harder.
He reduced the number of staff in order that he might avoid bankruptcy.
We are saving hard so that we can buy a new house.

adverbial clause of reason

This indicates why something happens or is done and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 3) relating to reason such as *because*, *since*, *as*, *in case*. The words underlined in the following sentences form **adverbial clauses of reason**: *I couldn't go to the wedding because I had to work that day.*
As it was raining we had the party indoors instead of in the garden.
Since your child broke the window you should pay for the repair.
I'm taking some sandwiches in case there is no buffet on the train.

adverbial clause of result

This indicates the result of an event or situation and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 4) relating to result, *so that*. The words *so* and *that* can be separated, *so* coming before an adjective or adverb in the main clause and *that* being the first word in the subordinate clause. The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of result**: *She spoke very quickly so that we could scarcely understand her instructions.*

He fell awkwardly so that he broke his leg.
She was so ill that she had to be taken to hospital immediately.
We were so bored that we left the lecture early.

An **adverbial clause of result** always comes after the main clause, unlike some other adverbial clauses which can also come before it.

adverbial clause of condition

This indicates a possible situation and its consequences and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 5) relating to condition such as *unless, if, as if, provided* (*that*), *providing, as long as*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of condition**: *I'll come to the party provided I don't have to work.*
If you finish your project you can leave early.
I could have told you that if you had bothered to ask me.
We will miss the plane unless we leave for the airport now.
As long as you work late this evening you can have tomorrow morning off.
If you study hard and do well in your exams, you will easily get into university.

adverbial clause of manner

This indicates the way someone behaves or the way in which something is done, and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 6) relating to manner such as *as though, as if, as, like*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of manner**.

He talks as if he knows a lot about the subject.
She looked at him as though she hated him.
Why does he behave as he does?

An **adverbial clause of manner** always follows the main clause, unlike some other adverbial clauses which can also come before it.

adverbial clause of concession

This contains a fact that contrasts in some way with the main clause or makes it seem surprising and is introduced by a **conjunction** (see 7) such as *although*,

though, even though, whereas, while, whilst. The words underlined in each of the following sentences form an **adverbial clause of concession**: *I admire his work although I don't really like him*.
Even though she loves him she doesn't trust him.
Whilst he works very hard, he doesn't really achieve anything.
My friend loves to lie on the beach all day, whereas I like to explore the surrounding villages.
Although he had all the right qualifications and experience for that particular post, he was not appointed.

Comparative clause

A **comparative clause** is a subordinate clause that modifies comparative adjectives and adverbs and is introduced by *than*. The words underlined in each of the following sentences form a **comparative clause**: *The task was much more difficult than any of us had anticipated*.
He worked harder than we could ever have imagined.
She somehow looked less attractive today than she did last night.

Relative clause

A **relative clause** (see 1, 2) performs a similar function to an adjective in a sentence. It comes immediately after a noun in the main clause, which is called the **antecedent**, and gives more information about this noun. A relative clause is introduced by a **relative pronoun** (see 1), such as *who*, *whose*, *which* and *that*, and this comes immediately after the **antecedent**. *Who* and *whom* are used when the noun refers to a **person**, *which* is used when it refers to a **thing** and *that* can be used of either a person or thing. *Whom* is used when the relative pronoun is the object of the verb in the relative clause. *Whose* is used when you want to refer to something relating to the person or thing you are talking about. The words underlined in each of the sentences below form a **relative clause**.

That's the boy who stole the bike.
I know the man whose wife was a surgeon.
These are the men whose wages have been increased.
It is a country whose population is in decline.
He is the neighbour whom we like best.
Here is the book that I borrowed.

I lost the ring which he gave me.
He hit the driver that damaged his car.

Sometimes the **relative clause** divides the parts of a **main clause** rather than coming after it. The words underlined in each of the sentences below form a **relative clause**: *The house that we liked most was much too expensive for us.*
The woman whose daughter is ill is very upset.
The dream which I had last night was very vivid.

NB: Relative pronoun
Sometimes there is no relative pronoun at the beginning of the relative clause, as in the underlined clauses below: *He was the best cook we ever had.*
She was not then the rich woman she later became.
He wasn't the man she thought he was.

NB: Of which
In formal English, especially written English, *of which* is sometimes used instead of *whose*, as in the underlined clauses below: *It is one of those cities of which the centre has become a slum.*
The ruined castle is one of those buildings of which the history is inadequately documented.

Types of relative clause

There are two types of **relative clause**. A **defining relative clause** identifies which person or thing you are talking about.

Defining relative clause

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form a **defining relative clause**: *I recognized the woman who stole my purse.*
There is the man whom she adores.
He bought the necklace which she had admired.
These are the chocolates that Mum likes best.

Non-defining relative clause

A **non-defining relative clause** is not needed to identify the person or thing that you are talking about, but it gives further information about that person or thing.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form a **non-defining relative clause**: *They walked down the town's main street which was called George Street.*
He fell in love with the girl next door who became his wife.
He got his promotion which was long overdue.

Punctuation in relative clauses

Where a **non-defining relative clause** divides the parts of a main clause it is placed within **commas**.

His two sisters, who were very close to him, never got over his death.
The old man, who is nearly 90, has become the oldest person to complete a marathon.

Commas are not used in this way in the case of **defining relative clauses**.

The book that he took was very valuable.
The car that we bought proved to be unreliable.

Prepositions in relative clauses

When there is a preposition in a relative clause this is often placed at the end of the clause, which is often also the end of the sentence. Previously it was considered a grammatical error to end a sentence with a preposition, but this attitude has changed. However, the preposition can be put in front of the relative pronoun as long as the sentence so formed sounds natural. This is most often done in formal English, particularly written English.

This is what has happened to the society which we live in.

or

This is what has happened to the society <u>in which we live</u>.

Unbelievably, he has given up the job <u>which he trained so hard for</u>.

or
Unbelievably, he has given up the job for which he trained so hard.

This is the kind of behaviour that I refuse to put up with.

You would NEVER say:
This is the kind of behaviour up with which I refuse to put.

Noun clause or nominal clause

A **noun** or **nominal clause** performs a similar function to a noun or noun phrase in a sentence. Like a noun it can act as the **subject** (see 4), **object** or **complement** of the main clause.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences are noun clauses that act as the **subject** of the sentence: *Where you go is of very little interest to me.*
What you know should be told to the police.
What he does now is up to him.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences are noun clauses that act as the **object** of the sentence: *I'm not asking why you're going.*
We didn't know who had done it.
He refused to say where he was going.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences are noun clauses that act as the **complement** of the sentence: *The theory is that there will definitely be enough money for everyone.*
My point is that we simply can't afford to move house.

NB: Nouns and prepositions
Sometimes noun clauses come after a preposition. The words underlined in each of the following sentences are noun clauses: *It depends on how much money is available.*
They all commented on what a lot of weight he had lost.

Comment clause

A **comment clause** is a short clause inserted into a sentence, sometimes used to show the speaker's attitude to what he or she is saying and sometimes used as a filler without much meaning. Comment clauses are particularly common in informal speech.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences form a **comment clause**.

To put it bluntly, he is a liar.
He wasn't sent to prison for the crime, more's the pity.
The patient will most likely survive, I'm glad to say.
She's only a few years older than me, you know.
He's been married twice before, it seems.

NB: Use of a comma
A **comment clause** is often separated from the main clause by a **comma.**

Phrases

A **phrase** usually refers to a group of words that work together to form a grammatical unit, although, in fact, a phrase may consist of just one word.

A clause or sentence can usually be broken down into phrases. There are five kinds of phrase and each phrase takes its name from the word class (see Main parts of speech) which plays the main part in its structure.

Thus, in a **noun phrase** a noun is the main part of the structure of the phrase and in an **adjective phrase** an adjective is the main part of the structure of the phrase.

Noun phrase

A **noun phrase**, also called a **nominal phrase**, is a group of related words in which the main word is a noun and which functions like a noun in a sentence or clause. Thus, *a very long black car* is a noun phrase in which the main word is the noun **car**.

A noun phrase can either act as the **subject**, **object** or **complement** of the sentence or clause. The words underlined in each of the following sentences are all noun phrases.

In the first two sentences the noun phrases act as the **subject**: *The most dreadful road accident has happened*.
A terrible storm is forecast.

In the next two sentences the noun phrases act as the **object**: *We have some interesting new neighbours*.
I met a very charming woman at the party.

And in the last two sentences the noun phrases act as the **complement**: *His father is a fairly talented artist*.
My great-aunt later became a famous opera singer.

Adjective phrase

An **adjective phrase**, also called an **adjectival phrase**, is a group of related words in which the main word is an adjective and which functions like an adjective in a sentence or clause. Thus, *rather too old* is an adjectival phrases in which the main word is the adjective **old**. The words underlined in each of the following sentences are **adjective phrases**: *She was tired, miserable and hungry*.
The task was extremely challenging.
The patient was getting paler and weaker.
The flowers were fresh from the garden.
On the day of the picnic the weather was the worst possible.

Adverb phrase

An **adverb phrase**, also called an **adverbial phrase** or an **adverbial**, is a group of related words in which the main word is an adverb and which functions like an adverb in a sentence or clause.

Thus,

extremely frequently

is an adverb phrase in which the main word is the adverb *frequently*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences are **adverb phrases**: *I used to play tennis fairly regularly*.
I saw both of them very recently.
I can't stand this noise for much longer.
She greeted her guests extremely warmly.
The students are working really hard.
They live very close.

Preposition phrase

A **preposition phrase**, also called a **prepositional phrase**, is a group of related words in which the main word is a preposition and which functions like a preposition in a sentence or clause.

Thus

on the table

is a preposition phrase in which the main word is the preposition *on*.

The words underlined in each of the following sentences are **preposition phrases**: *We waited* at the bus stop.
He placed the book on the table.
They walked into the room.
You must stay in the garden.

Participial phrase

A **participial phrase** (see 1) is a group of related words in which the main word is a participle of a verb, either a **present participle**, as in the following sentence: *Walking along the beach, he thought deeply about his problems*.

Or a **past participle**, as in the sentence:

Disgusted by her treatment, she resigned from her job.

The words underlined in the following sentences are **participial phrases** (see 2):
Bored by the party, she went home early.
Living by himself, he was frequently lonely.
Relieved by the news, he smiled broadly.
Laughing happily, she went off to celebrate.
Built by his father, the house had been designed by him.
Weeping bitterly, the child held the broken toy.
Destroyed by war-time bombing, the city is now being rebuilt.
Badly injured, the miners somehow managed to make their way to the surface.
Deeply touched by the gesture, the young woman wrote a thank you-note.

Phrasal verbs

A **phrasal verb** (see 1, 2) is a verb that consists of two or three words. They can consist of a verb followed by an adverb *or* they can consist of a verb followed by a preposition *or* they can consist of a verb followed by an adverb and a preposition.

Examples of **phrasal verbs** are shown in the sentences below with the **phrasal verb** underlined.

In this first group of sentences the **phrasal verbs** all consist of a verb followed by an **adverb**:

We sat down and waited.
She slipped on the ice and fell over.
They set off just before dawn.
When does the plane take off?
It's time to go in.
The price of property here will go up.
Come up now, please.
How long did it take for the patient to come round?
Winter will set in soon.
The effects of the painkiller began to wear off.
Our holiday plans have fallen through.
Lie down and try to sleep.
The car had moved off.
He hopes to find a permanent job and settle down.
The child curled up and went to sleep.
The caller rang off before I got to the phone.

In the next group of sentences the **phrasal verbs** all consist of a verb followed by a **preposition**:

They walked through the forest.
We drove through the city at midnight.
You should call on your new neighbour.
The child fell into the water.

My father finally got over his illness.
The workers asked for more money.
He originally came from London.
She was living with her parents at the time.
We had pored over all the holiday brochures.
He is embarking on a new career.
We banked on your support.
She brought up her children alone.
He turned down the job offer.

In this last group of sentences the **phrasal verbs** all consist of a verb followed by an **adverb** and a **preposition**.

Tiredness crept up on her as she drove and she decided to stop for some coffee.
We'll have to come up with another source of funding.
It is time they did away with these out-dated laws.
He must face up to the possible consequences of his action.
I refuse to put up with our noisy neighbours any longer.
You are bound to come up against a few problems in the course of this task.
She looked up to her father until she discovered that he was a crook.
The children get up to a lot of mischievous tricks when the teacher leaves the room.
He ran off with his best friend's wife.
It all comes down to money in the end.

Position of object in phrasal verbs

Many phrasal verbs act like intransitive verbs (*see* intransitive). Some, however, act like transitive verbs and, as such, take a **direct object**.

When a phrasal verb is used in a transitive situation you sometimes have a choice as to where to place the object. If it consists of a short noun phrase, the object can be placed either after the second word of the phrasal verb, or after the first word and before the second word. In the following sentences the underlined words, in different positions, represent the object:

We filled up the water jug with cold water from the kitchen tap.

or

We filled the water jug up with cold water from the kitchen tap.

He'll never live down this terrible scandal.

or
He'll never live <u>this terrible scandal</u> down.

The quarrel tore apart <u>the entire family</u>.

or
The quarrel tore the entire family apart.

When the object is a **pronoun**, such as *him*, *her*, *it*, it usually comes before the second word of the phrasal verb.

In the following sentences the underlined words form phrasal verbs and their pronoun objects:

I gave my letter of complaint to the manager, but she immediately handed it over to her assistant.
When she broke off the engagement he wanted her to keep the ring, but she gave it back.
It was Jim who thought of the idea, but it was Jack who put it forward to the committee.
The little girl was badly injured and police are trying to find the driver who knocked her over.
The young boxer was knocked out and doctors took several minutes to bring him round.

NB: Dangling participle
A **dangling participle** is a **participle** that has been misplaced in a sentence. A participle is often used to introduce a phrase that is attached to a subject mentioned later in a sentence as in:
Worn out by the long walk, she fell to the ground in a faint.
Worn out is the participle and *she* the subject.

It is a common error for such a participle not to be related to any subject, as in:
Working mainly at night, it seemed along time since she had seen daylight.
This participle is said to be 'dangling'.

Another example of a **dangling participle** is contained in *Living alone, the days seemed long*.
where *Living alone* is not related to a particular subject.

It is also a common error for a participle to be related to the wrong subject in a sentence, as in:

Painting the ceiling, some of the plaster fell on his head.
Painting is the participle and should go with a subject such as *he*. Instead it goes with *some of the plaster*.
Participles in this situation are more correctly known as **misrelated participles**, although they are also called **dangling participles**.

EXERCISES 2

1 Underline the **subordinate clauses** in the following sentences.

No one knew who she was.
They left before the rush hour got under way in earnest.
There is the youth who stole my purse.
Doctors won't know his chances of recovery until they get the test results.
As the sun continued to shine we decided to stay at the beach a little longer.
That is the book that I have been looking for.
If you leave now you will be there by nightfall.
The drains get blocked whenever it rains heavily.
She acts as if she were superior to the rest of us.
She didn't tell him when she would be back.

2 Write down which type of **adverbial clause** (i.e. time, place, reason, etc) is underlined in the following sentences.

Because the tickets were so expensive I didn't go to the concert.
He is moving to this area in order to be nearer his work.
The ring will be where you left it.
He walked so quickly that I had difficulty in keeping up with him.
As long as we get him to a hospital right away he should be all right.
She's going to buy the dress although she can't afford it.
The rent of the flat was much more expensive than I had anticipated.

3 Underline the **relative clauses** in the following sentences.

She is one of those mothers who overprotect their children.
That is the name of the man whose car I bought.
He bought the cottage which my aunt used to own.
This is the dress that she likes best.
The village is the place where we first met.
Jack was the friend whom my father trusted most.
She was not the honest woman that we all considered her to be.
That was the moment when she fell in love.
It is one of those areas in which the population has declined rapidly.

4 Which of the following **relative clauses** are **defining** and which are **non-defining**?

She bought the flowers which were her mother's favourites.
We went to the exhibition at the city portrait gallery which is in Queen Street.
That is the teacher who teaches my son maths.
His birth mother, whom he finally tracked down, *did not want to know him.*
They had dinner at the town's best fish restaurant which is quite near where they live.
We eventually bought the house which we had seen first.
The students who passed the exam were all in the top section of the class.
This is the area where most people want to live.
My former neighbour, who moved away a few years ago, died last week.

5 Write out the sentences which contain a **noun clause** and underline that clause.

The police suspected that she was the thief.
We knew who committed the crime.
They are the people who really care.
We realize that it is not your fault.
Where he goes every night no one knows.
This is the place where they meet.
I'm not telling you when I plan to leave.
That was the day when his exam results were due.
His theory is that the murderer is one of the victim's relatives.

6 Underline the **comment clauses** in the following sentences.

To be frank about it, I wouldn't believe a word he says.
We have to move to the city, I'm sorry to say.
The police arrested the wrong man, it appears.
To be realistic, I think the job will take at least six weeks.

7 Write down which of the following underlined phrases are **noun phrases**, which are **adjectival phrases** and which are **adverbial phrases**.

A terrible accident occurred last night.

The weather was wet, windy and bitterly cold.
They worked rapidly and competently.
We saw some wonderful scenery.
I once knew them very well indeed.
She drove quickly and carelessly.
The young woman was beautiful, slender and well-dressed.
She married a handsome but untrustworthy man.

8 Underline the **participial phrases** in the following sentences.

Smiling happily, she congratulated the young couple on their engagement.
She ran along the road, shouting loudly.
Completely exhausted by the day's work, she had a bath and went to bed early.
Savagely bombed by enemy aircraft, the area was a wilderness for many years.
Greatly amused by the speech, the crowd applauded enthusiastically.
Designed and made by her mother, the dress attracted a great deal of admiration.
Walking slowly and painfully, I eventually reached the doctor's surgery.

9 Underline the **phrasal verbs** in the following sentences.

They stood up and applauded warmly.
I fell over the cat.
The dog lay down by the fire.
Our neighbours are moving away.
He comes from London originally.
She asked for more time to pay.
Our guests set off after dinner.
I can't put up with this noise any longer.
They brought up their children in extreme poverty.
The plane will take off shortly.
The effects of the sleeping pills wore off slowly.

ANSWERS 2

1 *No one knew* *who she was*.
They left *before the rush hour got under way in earnest*.
There is the youth *who stole my purse*.
Doctors won't know his chances of recovery *until they get the test results*.
As the sun continued to shine *we decided to stay at the beach a little longer*.
That is the book *that I have been looking for*.
If you leave now *you will be there by nightfall*.
The drains get blocked *whenever it rains heavily*.
She acts *as if she were superior to the rest of us*.
She didn't tell him *when she would be back,*

2 *Because the tickets were so expensive* ***(reason)***
in order to be nearer his work ***(purpose)***
where you left it ***(place)***
that I had difficulty in keeping up with him ***(result)***
As long as we get him to a hospital right away
(condition)
although she can't afford it ***(concession)***
than I had anticipated ***(comparative)***

3 *She is one of those mothers* *who overprotect their children*.
That is the name of the man *whose car I bought*.
He bought the cottage *which my aunt used to own*.
This is the dress *that she likes best*.
The village is the place *where we first met*.
Jack was the friend *whom my father trusted most*.
She was not the honest woman *that we all considered her to be*.
That was the moment *when she fell in love*.
It is one of those areas *in which the population has declined rapidly*.

4 which were her mother's favourites ***(defining)***
which is in Queen Street ***(non-defining)***
who teaches my son maths ***(defining)***
whom he finally tracked down ***(non-defining)***
which is quite near where they live ***(non-defining)***
which we had seen first ***(defining)***
who passed the exam ***(defining)***
where most people want to live ***(defining)***
who moved away a few years ago ***(non-defining)***

5 *The police suspected that she was the thief.*
We knew who committed the crime.
We realize that it is not your fault.
Where he goes every night no one knows.
I'm not telling you when I plan to leave.
His theory is that they'll come round eventually.

6 *To be frank about it, I wouldn't believe a word he says.*
We have to move to the city, I'm sorry to say.
The police arrested the wrong man, it appears.
To be realistic, I think the job will take at least six weeks.

7 *A terrible accident occurred last night.* ***(noun phrase)***
The weather was wet, windy and bitterly cold.
(adjectival phrase)
They worked rapidly and competently. ***(adverbial phrase)***
We saw some wonderful scenery. ***(noun phrase)***
I once knew them very well indeed. ***(adverbial phrase)***
She drove quickly and carelessly. ***(adverbial phrase)***
The young woman was beautiful, slender and well-dressed. ***(adjectival phrase)***
She married a handsome but untrustworthy man. ***(noun phrase)***

8 *Smiling happily, she congratulated the young couple on their engagement.*
She ran along the road, shouting loudly.
Completely exhausted, she had a bath and went to bed early.
Savagely bombed by enemy aircraft, the area was a wilderness for many years.
Greatly amused by the speech, the crowd applauded enthusiastically.
Designed and made by her mother, the dress attracted a great deal of admiration.
Walking slowly and painfully, I eventually reached the doctor's surgery.

9 *They stood up and applauded warmly.*
I fell over the cat.
The dog lay down by the fire.
Our neighbours are moving away.
He comes from London originally.
She asked for more time to pay.
Our guests set off after dinner.
I can't put up with this noise any longer.

They brought up their children in extreme poverty.
The plane will take off shortly.
The effects of the sleeping pills wore off slowly.

PARTS OF SPEECH I

Main parts of speech

The smallest unit of language is the **word**. In grammar each word is assigned a grammatical category known as a **part of speech**.

The following main parts of speech are discussed in this section: **noun**, **pronoun**, **adjective**, **determiner**, **verb**, **adverb**, **preposition** and **conjunction**.

Nouns

Often called a 'naming word' in primary schools, a **noun** is used to refer to a person, thing or quality. Nouns are a very common feature of language and they are categorized into various classifications as follows.

Common and proper nouns

A **common noun** refers to something of which there are many examples and so is very common. The following words are examples of **common nouns**:

apple, *band*, *car*, *city*, *country*, *day*, *dog*, *man*, *month*, *planet*, *religion*, *street*.

A **proper noun**, on the other hand, refers to something in particular of which there is only one example. Unlike common nouns, **proper nouns** begin with a capital letter. Thus, the following words are examples of **proper nouns**:

Granny Smith (*type of apple*), *Beatles* (*name of pop group*), *Buddhism*, *Volkswagen* (*trade name of type of car*), *London*, *Sweden*, *Wednesday*, *Doberman* (*type of dog*), *Jack* (*name of man*), *March*, *Mars* (*name of planet*), *Scotland Street.*

Concrete and abstract nouns

A **concrete noun** refers to something that you can touch. The following are examples of **concrete nouns**:

bag, *carpet*, *door*, *flower*, *grape*, *hand*, *lake*, *monkey*, *orange*, *pan*, *road*, *shoe*, *window*.

An **abstract noun** refers to something that you cannot touch. In other words, it refers to a quality, concept or idea. The following are examples of **abstract nouns**.

anger, *beauty*, *Christianity*, *courage*, *danger*, *fear*, *greed*, *happiness*, *loyalty*, *Marxism*, *wisdom*, *youth.*

Countable and uncountable nouns

A **countable noun**, also known as a **count noun**, is a noun that can be preceded by the word 'a' and can exist in a plural form. When the plural form is used it is not usually preceded by a determiner, but is used alone. Most **concrete nouns** are countable. The following are examples of **countable nouns**:

city (*plural cities*), *gate* (*plural gates*), *foot* (*plural feet*), *hat* (*plural hats*), *lady* (*plural ladies*), *monkey* (*plural monkeys*), *mouse* (*plural mice*), *taxi* (*plural taxis*), *window* (*plural windows*).

In the following sentences the underlined words, either in the singular or plural form, are **countable nouns**:

I've just bought a flat there.
I prefer cities to the countryside.
Open the door please.
The child believes in fairies.
The church is over there.
There are mice in the house.

An **uncountable noun**, also known as an **uncount noun**, is a noun that cannot usually be preceded by the word 'a' or 'an' and does not usually exist in a plural form. Abstract nouns tend to be uncountable. The following are examples of **uncountable nouns**:

They lived in poverty.
Our luggage went missing.
We are waiting for vital information.
You should put sugar in this pudding.
Education is an obsession with her.
I put some petrol in the car yesterday.
I'll have a kilo of flour, please.
Could I have a slice of bread?

Verbal noun

When the **present participle** functions as a noun it is known as a **verbal noun** (see 1) or **gerund**. The **verbal noun** is so called because, although formed from

a verb, it functions as a **noun**, acting as the subject of a sentence. In the following sentences the underlined words are **verbal nouns** or **gerunds**:

Smoking is bad for your health.
Stealing is a crime.
Jogging is good exercise.
Swimming is his favourite sport.

NB: Countable and uncountable nouns
Some nouns exist in both countable and uncountable forms. One example is the word *cake* which is **countable** in the example
The child ate three cakes.
and **uncountable** in the example
Do have some cake.

Another example is the word *light* which is **countable** in the example
The lights in the house suddenly went out.
and **uncountable** in the example
She was depressed by the lack of light in the winter.

In some situations it is possible to have a **countable** version of what is usually an **uncountable** noun. Thus, although the word *sugar* is usually considered **uncountable**, as in the example
Add a little sugar to the mixture.
it can be used colloquially as a **countable noun** in the example
I take two sugars (= teaspoonfuls of sugar).

Similarly, although the word *tea* is usually considered **uncountable**, as in the examples
I would love a cup of tea.

and
She invited me to tea.
Tea can be used colloquially as a **countable noun** in the example
I'll have two teas without sugar, please.

Sometimes the **verbal noun** can act as the object of a sentence. In the following sentences the underlined words are **verbal nouns** or **gerunds** acting as the object of a sentence.

I don't enjoy swimming.
She hates dancing.
She gave up smoking.
He took up jogging in the park.
They loathe eating in restaurants.
The young men love drinking in pubs.
She took to giving noisy parties late at night.

Nouns or pronouns that qualify **verbal nouns** or **gerunds** should be in the **possessive case** (*see* personal pronouns, possessive determiners, possessive determiners (see 1), possession), as in:

My mother hates my smoking in her house.

and
The head teacher objected to our wearing casual clothes on the school trip.

In these sentences the words *my* and *our* are both in the possessive case.

However, there is a general tendency to think of gerunds as being a very difficult area of the English language. The result is that most people do not understand that the gerund should be preceded by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case and they, instead, use an **object**, as in:

My mother hates me smoking in her house.

and
The head teacher objected to us wearing casual clothes on the school trip.

Although ungrammatical, such usage is becoming more and more common.

Collective nouns

A **collective noun** is a singular noun that refers to a group of things or people when the whole group is being considered. In the following phrases the underlined word is a **collective noun**:

a pack of wolves
a flock of sheep
a herd of cattle
a school of whales
a shoal of herring
a fleet of ships
a pride of lions
a swarm of flies
a gaggle of geese
a constellation of stars.

Singular and plural forms of nouns

Regular singular forms of nouns

Most English nouns have a different ending for 'one' of something (called the **singular** form) than they do for 'more than one' (called the **plural** form). In the case of the majority of nouns the plural is formed regularly simply by adding *s* or *es* to the singular, as in *bat/bats, monkey/monkeys, church/churches*. In cases where the singular noun ends in a consonant followed by *y* then the plural form regularly becomes *ies*, as in *fairy/fairies*.

Regular plural forms of nouns

The following is a list of common nouns with their **regular plural forms**:

banana	*bananas*

berry	*berries*
bush	*bushes*
dog	*dogs*
elephant	*elephants*
friend	*friends*
house	*houses*
kiss	*kisses*
lady	*ladies*
march	*marches*
porch	*porches*
road	*roads*
story	*stories*
table	*tables*
taxi	*taxis*
umbrella	*umbrellas*
variety	*varieties*.

Irregular plural forms of nouns

Some nouns do not form their plural in the above regular ways. Instead their plural forms are said to be irregular.

Some **irregular plurals** are formed, not by adding an ending to the singular form, but by changing the vowel in the singular forms, as in *man/men*, or by having a completely different form from the singular, as in *mouse/mice*.

The following are examples of nouns with their **irregular plural forms**:

foot	*feet*
goose	*geese*
tooth	*teeth*
woman	*women*.

A few **irregular plural forms** are formed by adding ‘en’ to the singular form, as in *ox/oxen*. In the case of the word *child* the letter *r* is added before the *en*.

Some nouns ending in *f* form **irregular plurals** ending in *ves*, as in *loaf/loaves*. The following is a list of such nouns with their plural forms:

half	*halves*
leaf	*leaves*
scarf	*scarves*
wife	*wives*
wolf	*wolves*.

NB: Irregular and regular forms
The word *hoof* can either have the **irregular plural form** *hooves* or the regular plural form *hoofs*. The word *roof* usually has the regular plural form *roofs*.

Foreign plural forms of nouns

Some nouns in English have a plural form that follows the spelling rules of the foreign language from which they are derived, as in *stimulus* (*stimuli*). The following are examples of such words with the plural form in their original foreign language:

bacterium	*bacteria*
bacillus	*bacilli*
criterion	*criteria*
larva	*larvae*
phenomenon	*phenomena*.

Unchanging plural form

Some **irregular plural forms** are the same as the singular form of the noun. These include *sheep*, *salmon* and *grouse* (the game bird).

Nouns used only in the plural form

There are some words, such as *jeans*, *scissors* and *trousers*, which are only used in the plural form and have no singular equivalent form. To refer to any of these in the singular the construction *a pair of jeans*, *scissors* or *trousers* is used.

NB: Foreign plurals
In modern English there is a tendency to anglicize the plural forms of foreign words. Many of these co-exist with the original foreign plural form, as *thesaurus (thesauri/thesauruses)*. Other examples include *formula (formulae/formulas), appendix (appendices/appendixes), index (indices/indexes)* and *gateau* (*gateaux/gateaus)*.

In the case of the words *appendix* and *index* the two plural forms are used in different contexts. The plural *appendices* is used in a literary context, as in the *appendices* added as additional information to a book, whereas the plural *appendixes* is used in a medical context, as in the surgical removal of *appendixes*. The plural *indices* is usually used in a mathematical context, whereas the plural *indexes* is usually used in a literary context to refer to a guide to a book.

Gender of nouns

Many languages, such as French and German, are affected by the concept of grammatical gender. Thus, in French the word *hill* is feminine (*la colline*) according to grammatical gender, although in gender in the real world it would be neuter. Similarly, the German word for a mountain (*der Berg*) is masculine in terms of grammatical gender, although in the real world it is neuter.

This is not true of English because English nouns tend to be grouped according to the natural distinctions of sex, or, where appropriate, absence of sex. Thus, we have the gender categories of **masculine, feminine** and **neuter** and a *man* or *boy* is classified as **masculine**, a *girl* or *woman* is classified as **feminine** and a *table* or *chair* as **neuter**.

The words in the following list are masculine:

bridegroom, brother, duke, drake, emperor, father, husband, king, nephew, prince, son, widower.

The words in the following list are the feminine equivalents of the words in the masculine list:

bride, sister, duchess, duck, empress, mother, wife, queen, niece, princess, daughter, widow.

The words in the following list are neuter:

apple, bottle, car, desk, egg, house, letter, newspaper, road, shoe, town, window.

Dual gender

Some nouns in English, such as *child*, can either refer to a male or a female, unless the sex is indicated in the context. The words in the following list fall into this category:

adult, architect, artist, athlete, baby, author, cousin, doctor, parent, secretary, singer, student, teacher.

Feminine forms

Some words in the dual gender category, such as *author, poet, sculptor and proprietor*, were formerly automatically assumed to be masculine and they had feminine forms, as in *authoress, poetess, sculptress* and *proprietrix*. The rise of the Women's Movement in the 1960s with its concern for the equality of women in society gave rise to a corresponding concern for sexism in language. Words such as *authoress* and *poetess* were thought to be sexist and are now generally thought to be unacceptable. However, some feminine forms, such as *waitress*, are still in common use and both *actor* and *actress* are used for a female actor.

Person in compound nouns

The need to remove sexism from language also resulted in the increase in use of the word **person** to form compounds that could refer to either a man or a woman and were, therefore, of dual gender. Such words include *chairperson* and *spokesperson*. These replaced *chairman* and *spokesman* which were hitherto thought to be able to apply to a man or a woman, although they sounded masculine.

(*See* **he** under **Pronoun**.)

Compound nouns

Many nouns, known as **compound nouns**, consist of **two** or more **words**. A

compound noun is a fixed expression that is made up of more than one word and functions as a noun in a sentence or clause. Most compound nouns consist of two **nouns** or an **adjective** and a **noun**, but some, such as *cover-up* and *make-up*, are derived from **phrasal verbs** and some, such as *passer-by* and *looker-on*, are derived from a **noun** plus **adverb**. A few compound nouns consist of a letter of the alphabet and a noun, as in *X-ray* and *U-turn*.

Some **compound nouns** are written as **two words**, as in *estate agent*, some are separated by a **hyphen**, as in *pen-friend*, and some are written as **one word**, as in *housewife*. Sometimes which style of writing you use for compound nouns is a matter of choice. For example, *babysitter* can also be written as *babysitter* and *spinoff* can be written as *spinoff*. If you want to be consistent in your writing, it is best to select a reliable dictionary and follow its recommendations.

The words in the following list are all examples of **compound nouns**:

air conditioning, bank account, blood pressure, coffee jug, doorstep, fairy tale, frying pan, health centre, housewife, income tax, letter-box, make-up, musical instrument, nail varnish, passer-by, police station, seaweed, swimming pool, teapot, washing machine.

Plural forms of compound nouns

The plural forms of **compound nouns** vary according to the type of words they are made up of. If the final word of a compound noun is a countable noun, the plural form of the countable noun is used when the compound noun is made plural, as in *swimming pools*, *police stations*, *letter-boxes* and *coffee jugs*.

Compound nouns that are directly derived from **phrasal verbs** (see 1) usually have a plural form ending in *s*, as in *cover-up/cover-ups* and *show-off/ show-offs*.

In the case of **compound nouns** which consist of a **count noun** and an **adverb** the plural form of the noun is used before the adverb when the compound noun is in the plural form, as in *passers-by* and *lookers-on*.

Nouns and noun phrases in apposition

A noun or noun phrase is said to be **in apposition** when it is placed next to another noun or noun phrase and provides further information about it, especially by saying something that identifies or describes it. In such a situation, the main noun or phrase and the amplifying noun or phrase refer to the same

person or thing. In the following sentences the underlined words are **in apposition**:

My eldest brother, the acting head of the firm, has called a shareholder meeting.
My nearest neighbour, the owner of Grange Farm, has kindly offered to check in on my house while I am away.
George Jones, a well-known local lawyer, is standing in the local council elections.
The man who caused all this trouble, the children's father, has walked away without punishment.

For punctuation *see* **The comma with nouns or phrases in apposition**.

Pronouns

A **pronoun** is a word that takes the place of a noun or noun phrase in a sentence.

In the following sentences the underlined word is a **pronoun**:

I bought an apple and ate it.
I phoned Jane and invited her to dinner.
You should have asked permission.
Jack told Sally all about himself.
Is anyone there?
Who said that?
Those are gloves.
Each of us had to sing a song.
He thanked the man who had saved his life.

There are several types of **pronoun** and they are categorized as follows.

Personal pronouns

A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun that is used to refer back to someone or something that has already been mentioned. Of the different kinds of pronoun the **personal pronouns** are the most common.

There are three types of **personal pronoun**, according to their function in the sentence. The **subject pronoun** is used as the subject of a sentence; the **object pronoun** is used as the object of a sentence; the **possessive pronoun** is used to indicate that a person or thing belongs to, or is associated with, another person or thing. In sentence *1* below, the underlined word is a personal **subject pronoun**, in sentence *2* the underlined word is a personal **object pronoun** and in sentence *3* the underlined word is a **possessive pronoun**.

1 I looked after the children.
2 The grandparents looked after her.
3 That car is mine.

I and we: the first person personal pronoun

Personal pronouns are also categorized according to **person**.

The **first person personal pronoun** refers to the person who is speaking or writing when referring to himself or herself. The **first person personal pronoun**, in the singular form, is *I* and, in the plural form, *we*, when it acts as the subject of a sentence. When it is the object of a sentence the singular form is *me* and the plural form is *us*. The **possessive** form of the first person personal pronoun in the singular form is *mine* and in the plural form is *ours*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **first person personal pronouns** acting as the subject of the sentences:

She said, '<u>I</u> am going home.'
'<u>I</u> am going shopping,' he said.
'<u>We</u> have very little money left,' she said to her husband.
He said, '<u>We</u> shall have to leave now if <u>we</u> are to get there on time.'

In the following sentences the underlined words are **first person personal pronouns** acting as the object of the sentences:

'I think he hates <u>me</u>,' Jane said.
'It's obvious that she deceived <u>us</u>,' said Jim.
'You have been very kind to <u>me</u>,' said Sue.

In the following examples the underlined words are **first person personal pronouns**, in the possessive form also known as **possessive pronouns**:

'That book is <u>mine</u>,' said Anne.
'We won,' said Bill, 'and so the prize is clearly <u>ours</u>.'

You: the second person personal pronoun

The **second person personal pronoun** refers to the person or thing that is being addressed in the sentence. The **second person personal pronoun** is *you*, whether it is the pronoun or object of the sentence and whether it is singular or plural. Unlike in some languages, the **second person personal pronoun** does not alter its form in English. The **possessive** form of the second person personal pronoun is *yours* in both singular and plural forms.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **second person personal pronouns** acting as the subject of the sentences:

You should have told me earlier, Jane.
You, Mum and Dad, have been very generous to me.
You all are equally to blame.

NB: Me and I
Many people are confused about when to use *I* and when to use *me*. It is often wrongly assumed that the use of the word *me* is less polite than that that of the word *I*.

In fact, the pronoun *I* should be used as the subject of a sentence, as in:
Jim and I are going on holiday together.

or
May Jane and I come to the party?

The pronoun *me* should be used as the object of a sentence, as in:
They invited my brother and me to tea.

or
They played tennis against my father and me.

Exception Except in very formal contexts, it is now considered quite acceptable to say.
It is me.
although, strictly speaking, this use is ungrammatical and it should be
It is I.
However, this sounds very stilted and it is rarely used.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **second person personal pronouns** acting as the object of the sentences:

NB: Between, I and Me
There is some confusion as to whether the preposition *between* should be followed by *I* or *me*. Because *between* is followed by an object, the correct answer is *me*, as
The dog stood between me and the gate.

or
There is a great deal of ill feeling between my cousin and me.
It is wrongly assumed that the use of *me* is less polite than that of *I*.

Someone has called you.
I blame you for what happened, Jim.
Your mother loves you both equally.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **second person personal pronouns** in the possessive form. These are also known as **possessive pronouns**.

This pen is yours, Jim, is it?
Sue and Sally, the prize is yours.
Is this dog yours, Mr and Mrs Jones?

He, she, it and they: the third person personal pronoun

The **third person personal pronoun** refers to a third party, not to the speaker or writer of the sentence or to the person being addressed. The **third person personal pronouns** are, in the singular form, *he*, *she* and *it* and, in the plural form, *they*, when the personal pronoun is the subject of the sentence. When the **third person personal pronoun** is the object of the sentence it takes the form of *him*, *her* or *it* in the singular form and, in the plural form, *them*. The possessive forms of the **third person personal pronoun** in the singular are respectively *his*, *hers* or *its*. In the plural the possessive from is *theirs*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **third person personal pronouns** acting as the subject of the sentence:

He left school last year.
She is the youngest of the three sisters.
It was the only hotel with vacancies in the area.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **third person personal pronouns** acting as the object of the sentence:

Jane met <u>him</u> at a party.
I drove <u>her</u> to the station.
The house was charming and we loved <u>it</u> at first sight.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **third person personal pronouns** in the possessive form. They are also known as **possessive pronouns**.

The stolen car is <u>theirs</u>.
The fault is <u>theirs</u>, apparently.
That part of the garden is <u>theirs</u>.

NB: Personal pronouns and sexist language
Until fairly recently, it was very common to use a masculine personal pronoun to refer to a noun where the gender was not known, as in:

If a student does not attend classes regularly he will be asked to leave college.

or

If the applicant is successful he will be expected to start the job next week.

When the movement towards the removal of sexist language from the English language began, this use of *he* was considered to be sexist and such sentences required to be rephrased.

The problem is that this is not easy to do. Where possible, the easiest way of doing this may be to turn the whole sentence into the plural, as in:

If students do not attend classes regularly they will be asked to leave college.

Alternatively, the easiest course of action may be to use ‘he or she’ or ‘he/she’ instead of *he*, as

If the applicant is successful he or she (he/she) will be expected to start work next week.

This last way round the problem is felt by many people to be clumsy, particularly in spoken or informal English. The solution often used now is ungrammatical in nature. Thus, instead of using ‘he/she’ many people use ‘they’ instead, although the rest of the sentence is left in the singular form. Instead of saying

Every student has been instructed that he/she must register for the exams by the end of December.

they say

Every student has been instructed that they must register for the exams by the end of December.

The use of the third person personal pronoun in plural form in such contexts is becoming more and more common, frequently being used in textbooks and dictionaries and even more so in newspapers, magazines and works of fiction.

Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns *see* **first person personal pronouns**, **second personal pronouns** and **third personal pronouns**.

Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns end in *-self* or *-selves* and refer back to a noun or pronoun that has been mentioned earlier in the sentence. The following is a list of **reflexive pronouns**:

myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves.

In the following sentences the underlined words are reflexive pronouns:

I cut myself with the breadknife.
You will have to wash yourself in cold water.
He sees himself becoming a lawyer.
The cat was licking itself.
The town's inhabitants braced *themselves* for the storm.

Reflexive pronouns can also be used for emphasis, as in the following sentences:

The town itself is not very attractive, but the surrounding countryside is

beautiful.
The headmaster himself decided on the boys' punishment.
We ourselves must provide the funding for the project.

NB: Emphatic pronouns
Reflexive pronouns which are used, as above, for emphasis are sometimes known as **emphatic pronouns**.

Reflexive pronouns can also be used to indicate that someone has done something alone without the help of anyone else, as in:

The bride made that beautiful dress herself.
The young couple are planning to build the house themselves.
I'm sure that he did not write that book himself.

Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are pronouns which are used to indicate a two-way relationship or to convey the idea of reciprocity. The **reciprocal pronouns** are *each other* and *one another*. In the following sentences the underlined words form **reciprocal pronouns**:

The two sisters have hated each other from childhood.
It is important to help each other as much as possible.
The children are always calling one another unpleasant names.
The friends helped one another with their geography homework.

Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are used to indicate or point to things or people. The **demonstrative pronouns** are *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*.

The **demonstrative pronouns** *this* and *these* are used to refer to something or someone close to the writer or speaker, while *that* and *those* are used to refer to something further away. In the following sentences the underlined words are **demonstrative pronouns**:

I'm sure this is my book.
This is my father.
That is definitely Dad's car.
That is my cousin.
These are my favourite flowers.
These are my nephews, Jim and John.
These are some of the issues which we will be discussing this term.
Those are very expensive houses.
Those were interesting points which you raised at the meeting.
Those are our nearest neighbours.

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that are used to refer to people or things without specifying exactly who or what they are. The following is a list of the **indefinite pronouns**:

anyone, anybody, anything, everyone, everybody, everything, someone, somebody, something, no one, nobody, nothing.

NB: No one
Unlike the other **indefinite pronouns** *no one* is written as two words.

In the following sentences the underlined words form an **indefinite pronoun**:

Is anyone there?
I don't know anybody here.
I didn't buy anything.
Does everyone have a drink?
Nothing matters now.
Everybody knows at least one other person here.
She has everything she could ever want.
Someone must know what happened.
No one can help me now.
I know somebody who can help.
I have something to tell you.
Nobody understands.

Some other pronouns are sometimes classified as **indefinite pronouns**. *See* **distributive pronouns** below.

Distributive pronouns

Some pronouns were traditionally known as **distributive pronouns** but are now also variously known as **indefinite pronouns** (*see* above) or **universal pronouns**. Often such pronouns are followed by an 'of' construction. The following is a list of such pronouns:

all, both, each, either, neither, more, most, some.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **distributive/indefinite/universal pronouns**:

We thought a few workers would be declared redundant, but, in the end, all kept their jobs.
All of the victims of the crash survived.
The three boys were involved in the crime and each deserves to be punished.
Each of the girls stands a chance of winning the competition.
I am very impressed by these two projects and think that either of them would suit our purpose well.
Neither of the candidates seemed suitable for the job.
There are too many student applicants for the college positions available and some will be disappointed.

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns which are used to ask questions. They are among words sometimes called **wh-words** because they all begin with the letters 'wh-'. The following is a list of **interrogative pronouns**:

who, whom, to whom, whose, which, what.

Who is used as the subject of an **interrogative sentence**, while the **object** in formal or written English is *whom*. In informal or spoken English the **object** of an **interrogative sentence** is often *who*. The **interrogative pronoun** *to whom* is confined to formal or written English.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **interrogative pronouns**:

Who has got the job?
Whom did she blame?
Whom did he appoint as his heir?
To whom was he referring?
Whose is the blue car?
Which of these do you prefer?
What happened then?

See **interrogative adverbs**.

Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns (see 1) are pronouns that introduce a **relative clause** (see 1). The **relative pronoun** refers back to a noun or noun phrase in the main clause, called the **antecedent**. In each case the **antecedent** is the word immediately before the relative pronoun. The following is a list of **relative pronouns**:

who, whom, whose, which, that.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **relative pronouns**:

There's the man who stole the car.
She was the only person whom I could trust.
That's the man whose permission we need for the project to go ahead.
This is the last house which he built.
The dress that I would like is too expensive.

EXERCISES 3

1 Which of the following nouns are **proper nouns** and so should be spelt with a capital letter?

lion, child, tuesday, book, october, castle, venus, america, region, mount everest, day, sunshine, uncle william, ocean, new york, city, chapel, flower, oak, atlantic, queen elizabeth.

2 Which of the following are **concrete nouns** and which are **abstract nouns**?

hat, sorrow, basket, folly, tyre, sadness, floor, mountain, grief, bliss, hut, ceiling, silence, lamp, faith, computer, gluttony, dish, rug, depression, contentment, dustbin, hatred, plum, sofa, clarity, portrait, finger, hospitality, tool, enmity.

3 Which of the following are **countable nouns** and which are **uncountable nouns**?

happiness, saucer, source, discretion, fence, lawn, misery, cooker, information, beach, location, luggage, bottle, forest, poem, inspiration, jewel, milk, suitcase, music, poetry, essay, literature, choir, legislation, beauty, cookery, knowledge.

4 Underline the words in the following sentences which are **verbal nouns**:
Walking is excellent exercise.
Smoking can kill you.
She hates dancing.
He has taken up running.
She enjoys swimming.

5 What is the **collective noun** for a group of the following?

wolves, cattle, flies, lions, stars, herring, geese, sheep, ships, whales.

6 Give the **plural** forms of the following words.

house, table, friend, dog, road, elephant, umbrella, banana, taxi, berry, bush,

march, variety, kiss, lady, story, porch, child, loaf, wolf, tooth, woman.

7 Give the **singular** forms of the following words.

feet, geese, scarves, wives, halves, sheep, criteria, larvae, phenomena, bacteria, formulae, appendices.

8 Write down the words in the following list which are of **feminine** gender.

nephew, town, widow, empress, car, bridegroom, duchess, road, drake, sister, desk, niece, duke, waitress.

9 Write down the words in the following list that can be of **dual gender**.

artist, egg, writer, shoe, widower, king, poet, author, doctor, letter, princess, teacher, newspaper, bride, drake, parent, student, waitress, singer, athlete.

10 Give the **plural** forms of the following **compound nouns**.

passer-by, swimming pool, looker-on, coffee pot, show-off, police station, letter-box, cover-up.

11 Underline the phrase in each of the following sentences which is **in apposition** to a noun phrase.

The most important people involved, the pupils in the school, have not been consulted at all.
My favourite house, the one we saw last, is far too expensive for our budget.
Her cousin Mark, a senior partner in the firm, has just been arrested for fraud.
The local beach, a favourite meeting-place for teenagers, has been closed temporarily.

12 Write out those of the following sentences that contain a **personal pronoun** used as the **subject** of a sentence, underlining the relevant **personal pronoun**.

You must leave right away.
People simply don't trust you.
She didn't tell us what to do.

They nearly killed their victim.
You should have told the truth.
The police don't believe you.
He was driving dangerously.
Her colleagues admire her.
A bunch of flowers will make her feel better.
We gave them invitations to the wedding.

13 Write out the following sentences filling in the blanks with either **me** or **I**.

Jack asked ... to give you this.
Jane and … are going on holiday together.
He is going to play chess against ….
Can Sue and … come to the party?
Just ask for … at the front desk.
There's been trouble between my neighbours and …
The students and … welcome this opportunity to put our point of view.
Just between you and … I think he's a bit crazy.

14 Write out any of the sentences below that contain a **reflexive pronoun** used as an **emphatic pronoun**, underlining the relevant **emphatic pronouns**.

The children themselves should choose a book to be read aloud.
We hurt ourselves badly when falling off our skis.
We ourselves helped him as much as we could, but others did nothing.
Doctors think that he harmed himself deliberately.
You yourselves will have to do the bulk of the work.
The child cut herself with her mother's scissors.
The prime minister himself must take full responsibility for the error of judgement.
The house itself is not very attractive, but it has a beautiful garden.

15 Underline the words in the following sentences which are **demonstrative pronouns**.

This is not the ring which I lost.
Let me have a look at those.
That is an attractive plant.

These are the most expensive cars in the saleroom.
Those are the members of the jury.
This is the bus you must take.

16 Underline the words in the following sentences which are **indefinite pronouns**.

Nothing has been done to remedy the situation.
I didn't see anything which I wanted to buy.
Something must be seriously wrong.
I didn't recognize anyone in the crowd.
Nobody seems to know what happened.
Everyone was affected by the bad weather.

17 Underline the words in the following sentences which are **interrogative pronouns**.

Who made this mess?
Why change jobs now?
Whose is the briefcase on the chair?
Which do you like best?
How does he do it?
Where has he gone to?
Whose bike did you borrow?
To whom did he apply for the job?

18 Underline the words in the following sentences which are **relative pronouns**.

I think I know the man who did this.
There is the woman whose car was in the accident.
He doesn't know who she is.
Here is the book which won first prize.
He walked so slowly that he was late.
The flat that we liked best had already been sold.
Who got the job is not yet known.
This is the employee to whom the threatening letter was addressed.
It was her husband whom she blamed for the disaster.

19 Underline the **antecedent** in each of the following sentences.

Here are the keys which he lost.
That is the student who was accused of cheating.
The boy whose bike this is was injured in the accident.
The newspaper that first published the story got the facts wrong.
This is the address of the official to whom you should apply.

ANSWERS 3

1 proper nouns

Tuesday, October, Venus, America, Mount Everest, Uncle William, New York, Atlantic, Queen Elizabeth.

2 concrete nouns

hat, basket, tyre, floor, mountain, hut, ceiling, lamp, computer, dish, rug, dustbin, plum, sofa, portrait, finger, tool.

abstract nouns

sorrow, folly, sadness, grief, bliss, silence, faith, gluttony, depression, contentment, hatred, clarity, hospitality, enmity.

3 countable nouns

saucer, source, fence, lawn, cooker, beach, location, bottle, forest, poem, jewel, suitcase, essay, literature, choir.

uncountable nouns

happiness, discretion, misery, information, luggage, inspiration, milk, music, poetry, legislation, beauty, cookery, knowledge.

4 *Walking is excellent exercise.*
Smoking can kill you.

She hates dancing.
He has taken up running.
She enjoys swimming.

5 *a pack of wolves, a herd of cattle, a swarm of flies, a pride of lions, a constellation of stars, a shoal of herring, a flock of geese, a flock of sheep, a fleet of ships, a school of whales.*

6 *houses, tables, friends, dogs, roads, elephants, umbrellas, bananas, taxis, berries, bushes, marches, varieties, kisses, ladies, stories, porches, children, loaves, wolves, teeth, women.*

7 *foot, goose, scarf, wife, half, sheep, criterion, larva, phenomenon, bacterium, formula, appendix.*

8 *widow, empress, duchess, sister, niece, waitress.*

9 *artist, writer, poet, author, doctor, teacher, parent, student, singer, athlete.*

10 *passers-by, swimming pools, lookers-on, coffee pots, show-offs, police stations, letter-boxes, cover-ups.*

11 *The most important people involved, the pupils in the school, have not been consulted at all.*
My favourite house, the one we saw last, is far too expensive for our budget.
Her cousin Mark, a senior partner in the firm, has just been arrested for fraud.
The local beach, a favourite meeting-place for teenagers, has been closed temporarily.

12 *You must leave right away.*
She didn't tell us what to do.
They nearly killed their victim.
You should have told the truth.
He was driving dangerously.
We gave them invitations to the wedding.

13 *Jack asked **me** to give you this.*
*Jane and **I** are going on holiday together.*

He is going to play chess against ***me.***
Can Sue and ***I*** *come to the party?*
Just ask for ***me*** *at the front desk.*
There's been trouble between my neighbours and me.
The students and **I** welcome this opportunity to put our point of view.
Just between you and ***me I*** *think he's a bit crazy.*

14 *The children themselves should choose a book to be read aloud.*
We ourselves helped him as much as we could, but others did nothing.
You yourselves will have to do the bulk of the work The prime minister himself must take full responsibility for the error of judgement.
The house itself is not very attractive, but it has a beautiful garden.

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Let me have a look at those.
That is an attractive plant.
These are the most expensive cars in the saleroom.
Those are the members of the jury.
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16 *Nothing has been done to remedy the situation.*
I didn't see anything which I wanted to buy.
Something must be seriously wrong.
I didn't recognize anyone in the crowd.
Nobody seems to know what happened.
Everyone was affected by the bad weather.

17 *Who made this mess?*
Whose is the briefcase on the chair?
Which do you like best?
Whose did you borrow?
To whom did he apply for the job?

18 *I think I know the man who did this.*
There is the woman whose car was in the accident.

He doesn't know who she is.
Here is the book which won first prize.
He walked so slowly that he was late.
The flat that we liked best had already been sold.
Who got the job is not yet known.
This is the employee to whom the threatening letter was addressed.
It was her husband whom she blamed for the disaster.

19 *Here are the keys which he lost.*
That is the student who was accused of cheating.
The boy whose bike this is was injured in the accident.
The newspaper that first published the story got the facts wrong.
This is the address of the official to whom you should apply.

PARTS OF SPEECH II

Adjectives

An **adjective** is a word that describes or gives more information about nouns or pronouns.

An adjective is said to **qualify** a noun or pronoun because it limits the word it describes in some way by making it more specific. Thus, qualifying the word *book* with the adjective *red* means that we know that we are concentrating on a *red book* and that we can forget about books of any other colour. Similarly, qualifying the word *car* with the word *large* means that we know that we are concentrating on a *large car* and that we can forget about cars of another size. *See* **determiner**.

Adjectives usually tell us something about the colour, size, quantity, quality or classification of a noun or pronoun.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adjectives**:

She wore a white dress.
It was a tiny dog.
They had five children.
They were sad people.
It was a Victorian house.

Gradable and non-gradable adjectives

Most adjectives are **gradable adjectives**. Such adjectives refer to qualities that can vary in degree. Such adjectives can take a **comparative** and a **superlative** form or can be accompanied by an **adverb of degree** such as *very*. Adjectives which do not take a comparative and superlative form and cannot be modified by an adverb of degree are called **non-gradable adjectives**.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **gradable adjectives**:

He drove a small car.
It was a bright shade of red.
We were happy.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **non-gradable adjectives:**

There was a wooden fence round the garden.
It was a plastic toy.
It was a unique experience.

Position of adjectives

Adjectives can be placed immediately before nouns or they can be joined to their relevant nouns by a verb. A few adjectives go directly after the noun. **Adjectives** are classified as follows in this respect.

Attributive adjectives

Attributive adjectives are placed immediately before the nouns which they qualify.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **attributive adjectives**:

The blue dress suited her very well.
They lived in a huge house.
We lived there for six years.
They sell delicious cakes.
They built a wooden hut in the garden.
They live in a Georgian square.

NB: Attributive position
Some **adjectives** are found only in the **attributive** position. The underlined words in the following list are examples of these:

my former boss
her chief reason for being here

his sheer folly in doing that
the utter beauty of the scene
paying scant attention to his work
in a commanding lead
the searing heat
a thankless task
a fateful meeting.

Predicative adjectives

Predicative adjectives are joined to their relevant nouns by a verb. They are so called because they help to form the **predicate** (see 3) of a sentence.

The curtains in the bedroom were blue.
The dog was huge.
We were hungry.
The result is still uncertain.

Some **adjectives** are followed by a **preposition** such as *to*, *of* or *with*. In the following sentences the underlined words form a **predicative adjective** plus preposition:

The bug was resistant to the antibiotics.
She is allergic to eggs.
He is afraid of his boss.
The house is devoid of charm.
The behaviour is characteristic of a recovering alcoholic.
Is he capable of murder?
The task was fraught with danger.
A baby is just not compatible with such a lifestyle.
She is reliant on her parents.
She is good at tennis.

Post-modifiers

Adjectives which are **post-modifiers** go immediately after the noun which they qualify. In the following sentences the underlined words are **post-modifiers**:

The president-elect takes over the presidency at the beginning of the year.
The soldier is to appear before a court martial.

Qualitative adjectives

There are various types of adjective. The two main groups are **qualitative adjectives** and **classifying adjectives**. **Qualitative adjectives** tell you something about a quality that someone or someone has, as in:

sad, happy, wealthy, foolish, intelligent.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **qualitative adjectives:**

He is a violent man.
It was an effective remedy.
Please give a brief description.
You did some useful work.
They are busy people.
We had a pleasant day.
We have a new car.
It is a huge house.

NB: Qualitative adjectives include adjectives relating to size, such as *tiny* and *massive*.

Classifying adjectives

Classifying adjectives identify the particular class that something belongs to. For example, if you take the noun *pain*, there are various kinds or classes of pain such as *mental pain*, *physical pain* and *emotional pain*. The adjectives *mental*, *physical* and *emotional* are all examples of **classifying adjectives**. In the following sentences the underlined words are **classifying adjectives**:

It is not a democratic government.
They need a financial system.
The country has an agricultural economy.
This is not a medical problem.

This is an urban issue.
We have annual meetings.

Colour adjectives

Colour adjectives identify the colour of something, as in *black*, *red*, *yellow*, *purple* and *brown*.

In order to give a more precise description of a colour you can precede the colour adjective with a word such as *dark*, *pale*, *bright*, *light*, *deep*. The underlined words in the following sentences are examples of this:

She has light brown hair.
He wore a dark blue shirt.
It was a bright green hat.
She wants a deep purple dress.

If you wish to be less precise about the colour of something you can add the suffix *–ish* to the relevant colour, as in *greenish*, *yellowish*.

Number adjectives

See **number determiners**.

Emphatic adjectives

Emphatic adjectives are adjectives which you place in front of a noun to emphasise your feelings about something or to emphasise the degree of something, as in *absolute*, *pure*. In the following sentences the underlined words are **emphatic adjectives**:

The play was an utter disaster.
It was pure magic.
He is an utter idiot.
She is a complete fool.
The whole thing was a positive nightmare.
The campaign was a total failure.

Interrogative adjectives

The **adjectives** *which?* and *what?* are known as **interrogative adjectives**. They are used to ask questions about the nouns which they qualify. In the following sentences the underlined words are **interrogative adjectives**:

Which book would you like to borrow?
Which bus goes to the centre of town?
What school did you go to?
What plans have you made for the wedding?
Which dress did you choose in the end?
What restaurant have they gone to?

Demonstrative adjectives

Formerly **demonstrative determiners** were commonly known as **demonstrative adjectives**. *See* **determiners** (see 1) and **demonstrative determiners**.

Possessive adjectives

Formerly **possessive determiners** were commonly known as **possessive adjectives**. *See* **determiners** (see 2) and **possessive determiners** (see 2).

Compound adjectives

Compound adjectives are made up of two or more words, usually separated by a hyphen. In the following list the underlined words are **compound adjectives**:

a grey-haired man
a part-time post
a black-and-white cat
an air-conditioned office
a kind-hearted woman
a good-looking young woman
a broken-hearted young man
a first-class hotel.

Order of adjectives

If several **adjectives** are used to qualify a noun they tend to be placed in a certain order. The usual order is qualitative adjectives, such as *pretty*, adjectives relating to size, such as *large*, verb participles used as adjectives, such as *exciting*, *depressing*, *broken*, *disappointed*, *worried*, adjectives relating to colour, such as *orange*, adjectives relating to nationality or region, such as *American* or *northern*, adjectives relating to classification, such as *wooden*, *Victorian*, followed by adjectives relating to purpose or use such as *dining table*. The following sentences show the usual sequence of adjectives:

They live in a pretty little white house.
She wore a beautiful short black dress.
There was a large deep circular pond in the garden.
The roses were growing in the small enchanting Italian country garden.
They lived in an ugly depressing city suburb.
They sat round a large polished mahogany dining table.

NB: Order of adjectivesa
English is a very flexible language and the usual order of adjectives can be changed for emphasis.

Adjectives used as nouns

Sometimes adjectives can be used as **nouns**, especially when they are preceded by the definite article. In the following sentences the underlined words are adjectives used as nouns. It is sometimes considered offen-sive to use this construction, such as *the disabled*, as it can sound as though you are just lumping people together rather than considering them as individuals:

There are few opportunities for the unemployed around here.
The poor seem to keep getting poorer.
The old are often lonely.

Sometimes **colour adjectives** function as nouns without the definite or indefinite article:

Yellow is meant to make people feel more optimistic.
Blue is her favourite colour.
He always wears black.

NB: List commas
In cases where there is a list of adjectives before a noun, the use of commas between the adjectives is now optional although it was formerly standard practice. When the adjective immediately before the noun has a closer relationship with it than the other adjectives, and indeed often helps to define the noun, no comma should be used before that adjective, as

We want to buy some large juicy green peppers.

See **The comma as a separating device in a list of adjectives**.

Adjective or adverb?

Some words can be used both as **adjectives** and **adverbs**.

Which part of speech they are is obvious from the context in which they appear. The word *early* is an **adjective** in the first of the following sentences and an **adverb** in the second.

We caught the early train.
The train left early and we missed it.

Comparative forms of adjectives

Many adjectives have a **comparative form** used to indicate that something has more of a quality than something else. It is mostly qualitative adjectives that take comparative forms, although a few colour adjectives can also do so.

Some adjectives add *-er* to the absolute form to form their comparative form such as *braver* and *louder*. Some other adjectives are preceded by the word *more* to form their comparative form such as *more beautiful* and *more suitable*.

Which is the correct form of the comparative to use is often largely a matter of length. Adjectives which consist of one syllable, such as *loud*, usually add *-er* to make *louder*.

Comparative and number of syllables

When a one-syllable adjective ends in a single vowel followed by a single consonant, the consonant is doubled before the *-er* ending is added, as in *big*, *bigger*.

Some adjectives which consist of two syllables form their comparative by adding *-er*. This is especially true of adjectives which end in *-y*, such as *merry/merrier*, but it is also true of some other two-syllable adjectives such as *clever/ cleverer* and *quiet/quieter*. In other cases, such as *famous* or *careful*, the comparative form is formed with *more*, as in *more famous*, *more careful*. In some cases the comparative of a two-syllable adjective can be formed either by adding *-er* to the positive or absolute form or by preceding this with *more*. Thus the word *gentle* can have the comparative form *gentler* or *more gentle* and the word *pleasant* can have the comparative form *pleasanter* or *more pleasant*.

Adjectives which consist of three or more syllables usually have comparative forms using *more*, such as *more dangerous*. Some three-syllable adjectives which begin with the prefix *-un* can form their comparative forms by adding *-er* , such as *unhappy/unhappier*, *unlucky/unluckier*.

The above are regular ways of forming the comparative of adjectives. In the following sentences the underlined words are examples of these:

She is <u>prettier</u> than her sister.
It was a <u>brighter</u> day.
The walls are <u>whiter</u> now.
He is <u>younger</u> than his wife.
It's a <u>safer</u> place now.
The house is even <u>dirtier</u>.
It's a <u>heavier</u> burden.
She is the <u>more careful</u> worker.
He was the <u>cleverer</u> student.
She is <u>madder</u> than ever.
That death was <u>sadder</u> still.
The child is <u>quieter</u> than her brother.
He is the <u>more honest</u> of the two business partners.
I chose the <u>bigger</u> room.
She gets <u>lovelier</u> each year.
This is an even <u>riskier</u> venture.
This essay is far <u>more interesting</u>.
This doorway is <u>narrower</u> than the other.

This is a <u>politer/more polite</u> way of saying the same thing.
This is certainly a <u>pleasanter/more pleasant</u> way of spending the day.
That is the <u>likelier/more likely</u> solution.
That is an even <u>more ridiculous</u> idea.

Irregular comparatives

The adjectives *good* and *bad* have the irregular comparative forms *better* and *worse*, as in *a good day/a better day* and *a bad experience/a worse experience*.

No comparative form

Some adjectives have only an absolute form and do not normally have a comparative form. These include *mere, perfect, real, right, unique* and *utter*.

Superlative forms

You can also describe something by saying that something has more of a quality than anything else of its kind. In order to do this you use the **superlative form** of an adjective. The regular superlative form of an adjective is formed in the same way as the comparative form, except that the comparative ending *-er* is replaced by the superlative ending *-est*, and the word *more*, which is used to form the comparative, is replaced by the word *most*. Thus, in the following sentences the underlined words are examples of the superlative form of adjectives:

I want the <u>largest</u> size.
It was the <u>longest</u> journey I've ever taken.
That is the <u>maddest</u> idea yet.
He is the <u>unhappiest</u> person I know.
It was the <u>most disappointing</u> news that I had had all year.
This is the <u>quietest</u> room in the hotel.
He is certainly the <u>cleverest</u> student.
She was the <u>most beautiful</u> woman there.
The rose is the <u>loveliest</u> flower.
This seems the <u>most dangerous</u> plan.

Irregular superlatives

The adjectives *good* and *bad* have the irregular superlative forms *best* and *worst*, as in *a good day/the best day* and *a bad experience/the worst experience*.

No superlative form

Some adjectives have only an absolute form and do not normally have a superlative form. These include *mere*, *perfect*, *real*, *right*, *unique* and *utter*.

Determiners

A **determiner** (see 1, 2) is a word that is used in front of a noun or pronoun to give some information about it. Formerly, **determiners** were classified as **adjectives**. However, because, unlike adjectives, determiners do not, strictly speaking 'describe' a noun or pronoun, the modern grammatical practice is to draw a distinction between them. Thus, the category **determiner** has been created.

Types of determiner

Definite and indefinite articles

The **definite and indefinite articles** are often categorized as **determiners**.

Definite article

The **definite article** is *the* and it can be used in various ways. It can be used in a sentence to refer back to a person or thing that has already been mentioned or identified.

In the following sentences *the* is used in this way:

Mrs Brown gave birth to a boy and the boy was called John.
I was asked to choose a restaurant and the restaurant I chose was The Olive Tree.
Father bought a new dog and the dog is a Labrador.

The **definite article** can also be used to identify someone or something as the only one of its kind. In the following sentences *the* is used in this way: *He is reading the Bible.*

Tourists often visit the Tower of London.
He has been declared the new Prime Minister of the UK.

The **definite article** is used to refer to a whole class or group of things or people.

In the following sentences *the* is used in this way: *Lions belong to the big cats*.

She really does not like the English.
Because of a long-lasting family feud the Smiths did not speak to the Simpsons at John and Jane's wedding.

Less commonly, the **definite article** can be used to indicate the unique quality of someone or something. In this context *the* is emphasized and is pronounced *thee*. In the following sentences *the* is used in this way: *In the sixties it was the restaurant to go to in London*.

It is currently the city venue for fashionable wedding receptions.
The musical is the show to see this Christmas.

Indefinite article

The form of the **indefinite article** is either *a* or *an*. The form *a* is used before words that begin with a consonant sound such as *a box, a garden, a road, a star, a wall*. The form *an* is used before words that begin with an initial vowel sound such as *an apple, an egg, an igloo, an ostrich, an uncle*.

NB: It's the sound that counts
It is the sound of the initial letter and not the spelling that counts in this case. Thus, *a* is used before words beginning with the letter *u* when these are pronounced as though they began with the consonant *y*, as *a unit*. Similarly, *an* is used before words beginning with the letter *h* where this is not pronounced, as *an heir, an hour, an honest man*.

Formerly it was quite common to use *an* before words which begin with the *h* sound and also begin with an unstressed syllable, as *an hotel, an historic occasion, an habitual criminal* and *an hereditary disease*. Nowadays, it is more usual to use *a* in these cases, as in *a hotel, a historic occasion, a habitual criminal, a hereditary disease*.

The **indefinite article** can also be used in various ways.
It can be used in the same way as the adjective *one*. In the following sentences *a/an* is used in this way: *The town is exactly a mile away*.
We waited an hour for the bus to come.
A year ago we were happy, but things have changed.

NB: Just the one
If you wish to stress that you are referring to just *one* of something, rather than to several, you use the pronunciation *ay* to rhyme with *hay*, as in: *I wanted a (ay) biscuit, not a packet of them*.
It's OK to have a (ay) drink, but you will certainly not be fit to drive if you have half a bottle of wine.

The **indefinite article** is also used to refer to or single out a specific person or thing. In the following sentences *a/an* is used in this way: *Jim married a girl called Mary from the next village*.
The family had a black cat called Sooty.
Sue is going out with a young man called Tom.

The **indefinite article** is also used with an indefinite meaning, in the same way that *any* is. In the following sentence *a/an* is used in this way: *He was as big as a house*.
An island is a piece of land entirely surrounded by water.
A paediatrician is a doctor who specializes in children's illnesses.

The **indefinite article** is also used in the following way, with the word 'for' implied but omitted before it: *The grapes are £3 a kilo.*
The gardener will charge you £12 an hour.
The cake is £2 a slice.

NB: Zero article
The absence of both the definite or indefinite articles is sometimes referred to as **zero article**. The following sentences contain examples of this: *We went by train*.
He is in hospital.
Have you had lunch?
She's at work.

Demonstrative determiners

Formerly known as **demonstrative adjectives, demonstrative determiners** are used to point out or indicate the nouns which they qualify.

The **demonstrative determiners** are *this, that, these* and *those*, as in *this book, that house, these flowers* and *those girls*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are examples of **demonstrative determiners**: *This cake is absolutely delicious.*
I do admire those flowers.
I used to live in that house.
These students are all taking the exam.
I love this dress, but I can't afford it.
Who is that man over there?
Why are those people laughing at us?
These trees are huge.
Those red grapes are delicious.
These green grapes are sour.

Possessive determiners

When you wish to indicate that something belongs to someone or something or that it is connected in some way with someone or something you use the **possessive determiners** (see 1, 2)*my, our, your, his/her/its, their*. Formerly, **possessive determiners** were commonly known as **possessive adjectives**. In the following sentences the underlined words are **possessive determiners**: *I would like my book back, please.*
Where are your children?
Dad let me borrow his car.
He was brushing his teeth.
She looks very like her mother.
Unfortunately, the dog broke its leg in the accident.
The children loved their new bikes.

(*See* **possessive pronouns** under **personal pronouns**.) Indefinite determiners
The **indefinite determiners**, also called **general determiners**, are used to qualify nouns or pronouns when you are talking about people or things in a general or indefinite way, without identifying them.

The **indefinite** or **general determiners** include *all, any, both, each, either, every, few, little, less, many, much, more, neither, no, several, some and neither*, as underlined in the following sentences: *Any room in the hotel will do.*
Both students are to blame.
Neither house is really suitable.

Either bus will take you to the village.
Every car has been damaged.
Many books were destroyed in the fire.
Few patients have survived such an operation.
No facts are known yet.
Some gardens are beautifully kept.
Several buses go into the centre of town.
Little information has been released.
We have enough children to start a new class.
He does not have enough knowledge.
He has no more work.
There have been more accidents on that stretch of road.
Are there any jobs available?

Number determiners

Numbers when they are used before a noun are sometimes classified as **determiners**, and sometimes as **adjectives**. Numbers such as *one*, *two*, *ten*, *twenty*, etc are called **cardinal numbers**, while numbers such as *first*, *second*, *tenth*, *twentieth*, etc are called **ordinal numbers**.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **cardinal numbers**:

We only have one chance to succeed.
There are seven people in the house.
More than sixty soldiers died in the battle.
There are five hundred and fifty pupils in the school.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **ordinal numbers**:

This is the third time he's been in prison.
This is the little girl's fourth birthday.
They're celebrating their twenty-fifth wedding anniversary.

EXERCISES 4

1 Which of the underlined adjectives in the following sentences are **attributive** and which are **predicative**?

It was a delightful trip.
The bride was beautiful.
She has an interesting job.
The job was boring.
The meal was delicious.
The basket was full of ripe fruit.
The dog was safely behind iron gates.
The hungry children ate all the food quickly.
They aren't busy today.
The violent man was arrested by the police.
The weather was very pleasant.
The carpet was red.
The difficult task took a long time.
The white dress stained very easily.
She combed her long hair.
Her eyes were brown.
They do a useful job.
The story was brief.
The new car was expensive.
The child was sad.

2 Write out the following sentences replacing the blanks with the appropriate **prepositions**.

There was a garden, but it was devoid … flowers.
He is not at all good … administration.
Do you think they are capable … such deceit?
Some people are naturally resistant … the disease.
The child is allergic … dairy products.
His symptoms are characteristic … a neurological disorder.
Such investments are fraught … risk.

3 Write out the sentences which contain an **emphatic adjective**, underlining the **emphatic adjectives**.

She is an absolute idiot to trust that man.
She gave the right answer.
The whole evening was a total success.
It was a true story.
The end-of-school play was a positive triumph for the drama department.
She gave a positive response to his queries.
The situation was a complete disaster.
The prince requires his bride to be virtuous and pure.
He must be an utter maniac to do such a thing.

4 Write out those of the following sentences which contain an **adjective**, underlining the **adjectives**.

He ran fast, but failed to win the race.
The early flight leaves at 7 a.m.
If you arrive late you will not be allowed into the concert.
It was a fast race and several of the runners did not finish.
There's a late bus that leaves at midnight.
We got there early for our appointment.

5 Write out the following sentences, inserting in each blank the **comparative** form of the adjective given in bold in brackets.

*She is … than ever. (**lovely**) The streets here are much … than they are in other areas of the town. (**dirty**) This week's lecture was … than last week's. (**interesting**) Her story is even … than that of the other orphans. (**sad**) They are … now than they have ever been. (**unhappy**) You must be … when walking in that area. (**careful**).*
*He seems to be the … of the two brothers. (**honest**) This load seems to get … the further I walk. (**heavy**) The writer is over-shadowed by his … brother. (**famous**) The place is … now since the students moved out. (**quiet**)* **6** Write out the following sentences, inserting in each blank the **superlative** form of the adjective given in bold in brackets.
*This is the … result that we could have had. (**disappointing**) The teenager had the … birthday of her life (**good**) It is the … village on that coast. (**beautiful**) It*

*was the … experienceof my life. (**bad**) She was the … woman at the ball. (**lovely**) This is the … day of the year. (**long**) That was the … period of his entire life. (**unhappy**)* **7** Write out the following sentences, inserting the correct form of the **indefinite article** in the blanks.

He lives … mile away from the city centre.
The fee will be £15 … hour.
They're building … wall round the back garden.
The child was eating … apple.
We packed up all the books in … box.
The house has no heating and it's like … igloo.
We need … star for the top of the Christmas tree.
She's like … ostrich that's burying its head in the sand.
He has … hereditary heart disease that is likely to shorten his life.
The metre is … unit of length.

8 Write out the sentences which contain **ordinal numbers** and underline these numbers.

They have six children.
Jack is her second husband.
The businessman owns three local companies.
The baby is their first grandchild.
There were five members of the gang.
This is your third, and final, warning.
There is only one thing to be done.
They're having a party to celebrate their twenty-fifth wedding anniversary.
Sue is their seventh child.
We need at least twenty workers to finish the job in time.
They've been on four holidays this year.
He is celebrating his ninetieth birthday.
This is the third cold I've had this winter.

9 Write out the sentences which contain **indefinite determiners** and underline these determiners.

That man looks ill.
He owns this house.
Several trains have been cancelled today.

Few victims recovered.
Her dog attacked my cat.
Less help was given to pensioners this year.
The monkey broke out of its cage.
These paintings are lovely.
Both men were charged with the offence.
Is this your coat?
Neither jacket is mine.
Every bag must be searched.
There is no room in the hall for all these people.
We do not have enough information on which to act.
Dad took his car to work.
This is a complete disaster.
Why blame this error on me?
Some children will have to go to the school in the city.

10 Write out the sentences which contain **possessive determiners** and underline these determiners.

You lied to me.
This book is mine, not yours.
He parked his car in the next street.
She took her children with her.
Jack and Sue have left their flat empty for the whole summer.
We must get back there before nightfall.
I think this note book is yours.
Our rose garden is lovely at this time of year.
They need to take action right away.
Their assistance is required.
Your experience will be invaluable.
His attitude to his work annoys his colleagues.
Her neglect of her children is absolutely shameful.

ANSWERS 4

1 attributive adjectives *delightful, interesting, ripe, iron, hungry, violent, difficult, white, long, useful, new.*

predicative adjectives *beautiful, boring, delicious, busy, pleasant, red, brown, brief, sad.*

2 There was a garden, but it was devoid **of** flowers.

*He is not at all good **at** administration.*

*Do you think they are capable **of** such deceit?*

*Some people are naturally resistant **to** the disease.*

*The child is allergic **to** dairy products.*

*His symptoms are characteristic **of** a neurological disorder.*

*Such investments are fraught **with** risk.*

3 *She is an <u>absolute</u> idiot to trust that man.*

The whole evening was a <u>total</u> success.

The end-of-school play was a <u>positive</u> triumph for the drama department.

The situation was a <u>complete</u> disaster.

He must be an <u>utter</u> maniac to do such a thing.

4 *The <u>early</u> flight leaves at 7 a.m.*

It was a <u>fast</u> race and several of the runners did not finish.

There's a <u>late</u> bus that leaves at midnight.

5 *She is **lovelier** than ever.*

The streets here are much **dirtier** than they are in other areas of the town.

*This week's lecture was **more interesting** than last week's.*

*Her story is even **sadder** than that of the other orphans.*

*They are **unhappier** now than they have ever been.*

*You must be **more careful** when walking in that area.*

*He seems to be the **more honest** of the two brothers.*

*This load seems to get **heavier** the further I walk.*

*The writer is over-shadowed by his **more famous** brother.*

*The place is **quieter** now since the students moved out.*

6 *This is the most disappointing result that we could have had.*

*The teenager had the **best** birthday of her life.*
*It is the **most beautiful** village on that coast.*
*It was the **worst** experience of my life.*
*She was the **loveliest** woman at the ball.*
*This is the **longest** day of the year.*
*That was the **unhappiest** period of his entire life.*

7 *He lives **a** mile away from the city centre.*
*The fee will be £15 **an** hour.*
*They're building **a** wall round the back garden.*
*The child was eating **an** apple.*
*We packed up all the books in **a** box.*
*The house has no heating and it's like **an** igloo.*
*We need **a** star for the top of the Christmas tree.*
*She's like **an** ostrich that's burying its head in the sand.*
*He has **a** hereditary heart disease that is likely to shorten his life.*
*The metre is **a** unit of length.*

8 *Jack is her <u>second</u> husband.*
The baby is their <u>first</u> grandchild.
This is your <u>third,</u> and final, warning.
They're having a party to celebrate their <u>twenty-fifth</u> wedding anniversary.
Sue is their <u>seventh</u> child.
He is celebrating his ninetieth birthday.
This is the third cold I've had this winter.

9 *<u>Several</u> trains have been cancelled today.*
<u>Few</u> victims recovered.
<u>Less</u> help was given to pensioners this year.
<u>Both</u> men were charged with the offence.
<u>Neither</u> jacket is mine.
<u>Every</u> bag must be searched.
There is <u>no</u> room in the hall for all these people.
We do not have <u>enough</u> information on which to act.

Some children will have to go to the school in the city.

10 *He parked his car in the next street.*
She took her children with her.
Jack and Sue have left their flat empty for the whole summer.
Our rose garden is lovely at this time of year.
Their assistance is required.
Your experience will be invaluable.
His attitude to his work annoys his colleagues.
Her neglect of her children is absolutely shameful.

PARTS OF SPEECH III

Verbs

In simple terms the **verb** is known as a 'doing word'— you might have been told this in primary school. In many ways this description is an oversimplification and unduly restrictive since it tends to overlook the fact that, although many verbs do express action, many simply indicate a condition or state. The description also excludes **auxiliary verbs**, **modal verbs**, *etc.*

Never the less, the verb is usually the word in a sentence that is most concerned with the action and it is usually essential to the structure of a sentence. The verb is usually the most important part of the **predicate**.

Verbs have a number of functions. In particular, they indicate **tense**, **voice**, **mood**, **number** and **person**.

Verbs are classified as **regular verbs** and **irregular verbs**.

Regular verbs

Most verbs are **regular verbs**, occasionally known as **weak verbs**. They are described as regular because they obey certain rules, especially regarding the forming of **tenses**. **Regular verbs** obey the following such rules: **1** Regular verbs add the ending *-s* to the base or infinitive form of the verb, as in *walk*, *play* and *look*, to form the **third person singular** of the **present tense**, as in: *he walks*, *it plays*, *she looks.*

While the rest of the present tense is formed by using just the base or infinitive form, as in: *I walk*, *you play*, *they look*.

The **present participle** of regular verbs is formed by adding the ending *-ing* to the base form, as in *walking*, *playing*, *looking*.

If the base form ends in *-e* the *e* is usually omitted before the *-ing* ending is added, as in: *hating*, *loving*, *loathing*.

2 Regular verbs add the ending *-ed* to the base (or the ending *-d* if the base form already ends in *-e*) to form the **past tense**.

This applies to all **persons**, as in:

I walked
they played
you killed
he worked
she loved
they hated.

In the following sentences the underlined words all form examples of **regular verbs**: *You rarely smile*.

She walked slowly.
You all seemed so sad.
We laugh a lot.
They look happy.
He plays tennis.
She reads crime fiction.
She is looking pale.
Loving her as he did, he was distraught at her death.
It rains every day.
She loathed her boss.
He looked at the view from the window.

Irregular verbs

Irregular verbs (see 1, 2) do not obey the rules which apply to **regular verbs**. In particular, they deviate from the pattern of adding *-ed* or *-d* to the infinitive form to form the past tense and past participle forms.

Categories of irregular verbs

Irregular verbs fall into several categories when it comes to forming the past tense and past participle forms.

1 One category concerns those verbs which have the same form as the infinitive form in the past tense and past participle forms, as in: *to cut*:

I cut my hand yesterday.
I have cut myself.

to burst:
The river burst its banks.
The child has burst the balloon.

The following verbs are included in this category:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
put	put	put
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread

2 Another category includes those **irregular verbs** which have two past tenses and two past participles, the past tenses having the same forms as the past participles, such as *spoil, spoiled/spoilt, have spoiled/spoilt*. The following verbs are included in this category:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
burn	burned/burnt	burned/burnt

dream	dreamed/dreamt	dreamed/dreamt
dwell	dwelled/dwelt	dwelled/dwelt
hang	hanged/hung	hanged/hung
kneel	kneeled/knelt	kneeled/knelt
lean	leaned/leant	leaned/leant
leap	leaped/leapt	leaped/leapt
learn	learned/learnt	learned/learnt
light	lighted/lit	lighted/lit
smell	smelled/smelt	smelled/smelt
speed	speeded/sped	speeded/sped
spill	spilled/spilt	spilled/spilt
spoil	spoiled/spoilt	spoiled/spoilt
weave	weaved/woven	weaved/woven
wet	wetted/wet	wetted/wet

3 Another category includes those **irregular verbs** which have past tenses that never end in *-ed* and which have the same form as that of the past participles. The following verbs are included in this category:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
bend	bent	bent
build	built	built
dig	dug	dug
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
get	got	got
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent

lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shine	shone	shone
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
spend	spent	spent
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
strike	struck	struck
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won

4 Another category includes **irregular verbs** which have regular past tense forms ending in *-ed* or *-d* and two possible past participles, one of which is regular and the same as the past tense. The following verbs are included in this category:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
mow	mowed	mowed/mown
prove	proved	proved/proven
sew	sewed	sewed/sewn
show	showed	showed/shown
sow	sowed	sowed/sown

swell	swelled	swelled/swollen

5 Another category includes **irregular verbs** which have past tenses and past participles which are different from each other and different from the infinitive. Some common verbs in this category are included in the following list:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
bear	bore	borne
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blown	blew
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
ring	rang	rung
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken

shrink	shrank	shrunk
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

Tense

One of the most important functions of the verb is to indicate the time at which an action takes place, whether someone or something is doing something, was doing something or will do something. This is expressed by **tense** and in many languages this is marked by inflection.

In English, tense is marked by inflection only in the **present tense** and the **past tense**. Thus, in the case of the verb to *walk* the third person singular masculine of the present tense is *he walks* and the third person singular masculine of the past tense is *he walked*.

There are several tenses in English. The major ones are **present tense, past tense** and **future test**, but there are other categories relating to these.

Present tense

The **present tense** indicates an action now going on or a state now existing. It uses the base form, also known as the infinitive form, of the verb, as *walk*, *run*, *make*, *go* but it changes in the third person singular when it adds *-s* to the base form, sometimes with a spelling change, as *walks*, *runs*, *makes*, *goes*.

There are two forms of the present tense, the **simple present tense** and the **continuous present tense**.

Simple present tense

The **simple present tense** is used to indicate an action that is currently going on. In the following sentences the underlined words are all verbs in the **simple present tense**: *He works in the city*.
She lives by the sea.
I want some food.
My head hurts.
He is an excellent chef.

The **simple present tense** is also used to indicate something that is always or generally true. In the following sentences the underlined words are all verbs in

the **simple present tense**: *The world is round*.

Three and three make six.
Thin glass breaks easily.
Tigers are carnivorous.
Milk goes sour quickly in heat.

The **simple present tense** is also used to indicate an action that is regular or habitual. In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the **simple present tense**: *I rise at seven*.

He drinks whisky.
I work on Saturdays.
He drives a white van.
They walk to work.

The **simple present tense** is also used with some **adverbs** or **adverbials** of time to refer to a time in the future. In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the **simple present tense** referring to the future: *We arrive at midnight*.

They leave early.
The holidays start tomorrow.
I move next month.
The match begins in an hour.

Continuous present tense

The **continuous present tense** (see 1), also called the **progressive present tense**, is used when you are talking about something that is happening at the very moment when you are speaking or when you are referring to an action continuing over a period of time, including the present, and not complete at the time when you are referring to it.

This tense is formed using the present tense of the verb *to be*, *is* and *are*, and the **present participle**, ending in *-ing* of the main verb. It frequently occurs in a **contracted form**, such as *I'm* for *I am*, *you're* for *you are*, *aren't* for *are not etc.*

In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the **continuous present tense**: *We are having a picnic*.

I am studying the report.
She is feeling very nervous.
They are laughing loudly.
I'm driving home.
They aren't trying.
We're climbing the hill.
She's spending Christmas here.
The standard of work is improving.
The child is developing normally.
We are staying in a hotel in the centre of town.
I believe you are studying English at the local university.

The **continuous present tense** is also used with some **adverbs** or **adverbials** of time to refer to a time in the future. In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the **continuous present tense**: *We are having a meeting next week.*

He's leaving next month.
I'm travelling tomorrow.
She's graduating next summer.

Past tense

The **past tense** refers to an action that has taken place before the present time. In the case of **regular verbs** it is formed by adding *-ed* to the base or infinitive form of the verb, as *walked, looked, started, failed*. For the **past tense** of **irregular verbs**.

There are two forms of the past tense, the **simple past tense** and the **continuous past tense**.

Simple past tense

The **simple past tense** is used to refer to an event or state that occurred at some point in the past. In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the past tense: *The car crashed into the van.*

I cracked the vase.

The child climbed the tree.
The mother rocked the cradle.
She loved him very much.
They hated each other.
She drowned in the river.
They drew their swords.
We slept on the beach.
She chose a simple wedding dress.
He stole a car.
I heard a strange noise.
In time she forgave him.
The dog stood by the gate.
The bells rang out.
He swore that he would be faithful.
It made a huge difference to their lifestyle.

The **simple past tense** is also used to indicate a regular or repeated action in the past, as in: *They worked night shift.*

The children attended the local primary school.
The policeman walked the beat nightly.
When I was a child we lived in the city.
People drank very little alcohol in those days.
The sun always shone when we were there.
As children we rode our ponies in the lanes around the village.

Continuous past tense

The **continuous past tense**, also called the **progressive past tense** and the **imperfect tense**, is used to refer to a continuing action that happened in the past and is probably now complete. This tense is formed by using the past tense of the verb *to be*, *was* and *were*, and the present participle, ending in *-ing*, of the main verb, as in: *We were living in the area at the time.*

In the following sentences the words underlined form the **continuous past tense** of a verb: *We were studying at university then.*

You were building your house that year.

They were painting the kitchen yesterday.
He was running in the marathon last week.
She was serving in the bar last night.
I was sewing the dress until midnight.

The **continuous past** is also used to refer to an event in the past that occurred during the course of another event. In the following sentences the words underlined are used to form the **continuous past tense** of the verb: *They were walking to the shops when they saw her across the road.*

I was running down the hill when I tripped and fell.
You were risking your lives when you did that.
We were driving home when the car broke down.

Perfect tense

The **present perfect tense**, also known as the **perfect tense**, is another tense which refers to the past. It is formed using the **present tense** of the verb *have* and the **past participle** of the main verb (*see* **past participle** and **irregular verbs** (see 1), as in: *I have looked everywhere for it.*

It is used to refer to an action that began in the past but continues into the present time or to refer to an action in the past which has results continuing to the present. In the following sentences the underlined words form the **present perfect tense**: *He has lived in France for over thirty years.*

Floods have destroyed thousands of books in the warehouse.
I have made your favourite dessert.
You have ruined this carpet by spilling wine on it.
It has lasted well, but now needs replaced.
We have thought a great deal about this.
They have travelled throughout Britain.
Age has changed him rather a lot.

Continuous present perfect tense

The **present perfect tense** also exists in a continuous or progressive form indicating an action in the past that is still going on. In the following sentences

the underlined words are examples of the **continuous present perfect tense**: *I have been living abroad for many years now.*
We have been thinking of buying a new house.
They have been studying the results carefully.
Our projects have been developing quite slowly because of lack of funding.
You have been staring out of the window for hours.

Past perfect tense

The **past perfect tense**, also known as **the pluperfect tense**, also refers to the past. It is formed using the **past tense** of the verb *have* and the **past participle** of the main verb (*see* **past participle** (see 1) and **irregular verbs** (see 2), as in: *We had discussed the matter in detail.*
The past perfect tense is used to refer to a past action that took place at an earlier time than another action, there sometimes being a causal link between the events, as in: *She went round to see him after she had received his message.*
It is also used to refer to an action that continues right up to, or relates to, a single point in the past, as in: *By the end of the year the project had been abandoned.*
In the following sentences the underlined words form examples of the **past perfect tense**: *By evening it was obvious that he had decided not to come.*
His condition had deteriorated since I last saw him.
We had known each other for several years before we became partners.
By then we had climbed to the summit.
I had expected to see him there.
She had resigned from her job and was unemployed.

The **past perfect tense** also exists in a continuous or progressive form. In the following sentences the underlined words are examples of the **continuous past perfect tense**: *We had been working on the project for three months by then.*

They had been hoping that we would fail.
It was clear that she had been contemplating leaving.
You had obviously been thinking of emigrating, although you did not.

Future tense

The **future tense** describes an action or state that will occur at some point in the

future. The future tense is formed by using *will* or *shall* with the infinitive form of the main verb. It is used to predict or say what is likely to happen in the future, as in: *Work will begin next week*.

Traditional grammar

According to traditional grammar rules *shall* should be used with *I* and *we*, and *will* should be used with *you*, *he/she/it* and *they*, as in: *We shall arrive in time for tea*.

I shall take the bus to work today.
You will find fresh milk in the fridge.
He will give you the book tomorrow.
She will act as a temporary secretary.
It will certainly spoil things.
They will be punished for this.

Again, according to traditional rules, this order is reversed for emphasis and *will* is then used with *I* and *we*, as in: *I will succeed at this, believe me*.

We will have the house of our dreams one day.
You shall get the dress you want if I have anything to do with it.
He shall be punished for this, if there's any justice.
My daughter shall have the wedding she dreams of.
They shall be made to pay for this, I assure you.

Modern usage

In modern usage things have changed and, increasingly, *will* is the preferred form in most modern contexts, whether these be spoken or written contexts, in all but the most formal. The only exception to this is the use of *shall* as used with *I* and *we* when questions are being asked, and, even then, this is a fairly formal context, as in: *Shall we proceed?*
Shall I go on?
Shall we postpone the meeting until next week?
Shall I reserve a room for you?

In the following sentences the underlined words are used to form the future tense

as it is found in modern usage: *I will have to leave now*.

We will get the next bus.
You will require to give references.
He will see you now.
She will be back tomorrow.
It will take a miracle.
They will do anything you want.
Shall I send you an application form?
Shall we meet at the same time tomorrow?

Other ways of referring to the future

You can also use *be about to* or *be going to* with the infinitive form of the main verb to refer to the future. In the following sentences the underlined words refer to the future: *I am going to see her today*.

You are about to discover what happened.
They are going to experience danger.
Things are about to improve.

The **continuous future tense** is used to refer to a future action. It is formed by using *will be* or *shall be* followed by the present participle of the main verb, often in a contracted form, as *I will be working late tonight* and *I'll be announcing the date of the exam tomorrow*.

The continuous future tense is used to describe an action that will, or is likely to, take place in the future but emphasizing that the action will go on over a period of time, or to refer events that have been planned or arranged for the future.

In the following sentences the underlined words form the **continuous future tense**: *They will be changing the computer system tomorrow*.

He will be reporting the matter to the police.
The bus will be changing routes from tomorrow.
You will be hearing from my solicitors.
We will be stopping halfway on the journey to the city.

The **future perfect tense** is formed by using *will have* or *shall have* followed by the past participle of the main verb. It is used to predict that a future action will be completed by a particular time or to make deductions, as in: *The decorators will have finished the room by this evening*.

In the following sentences the underlined words form examples of the **future perfect tense**: *They will have reached home by tomorrow night*.

You will have realized by now that I am quite serious.
Shops will have started their sales by next week.
Doubtless she will have regretted her decision by tomorrow morning.

The **future perfect continuous tense** is used to refer to an action that will have been completed at a point in the future, emphasizing that the action will have been continuing over a period of time.

In the following sentences the underlined words form examples of the **future perfect continuous tense**: *Many people will have been saving for years for this trip*.
Students will have been studying this text for weeks without realizing that it is the wrong one.
We will have been travelling for two years by the summer.

Mood

Mood is one of the categories into which verbs are divided. These **moods** are called the **indicative mood**, the **imperative mood** and the **subjunctive mood**. The word **mood** in this sense acquired its meaning because it was said to show the attitude or viewpoint that a particular verb indicated.

Indicative mood

The **indicative mood** of a verb is used to make a factual statement, as in:

They have three children.

In the following sentences the underlined words are verbs in the **indicative mood**:

The parking restrictions apply on working days.
It snowed last night.
The plane leaves at 7 a.m.
I start my new job tomorrow.
The play at the Lyceum is very good.
We give generous discounts to members of staff.
We are losing money on this venture.

Imperative mood

The **imperative mood** of a verb is used to give orders or instructions or to make a request, as in:

Be quiet!
Shut the door behind you.
Take care!
Bring us a copy of the menu, please.

Subjunctive mood

The **subjunctive mood** was originally a term used in Latin grammar where it was used to express a wish, supposition, doubt, improbability or other non-factual statement. The **subjunctive mood** in English is used to express hypothetical statements, as in:

If I were you I would forget all about it.

The word *were* is in the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive mood is also used in certain formal clauses beginning with *that*, as in:

I demand that she pay me in full immediately.

It is also used in certain fixed expressions, such as *So be it!*

In the following sentences the words underlined form examples of the **subjunctive mood**:

If he were to go down on bended knee I would still not forgive him.
If I were you I would leave now.
I insist that he apologize immediately.
Be that as it may, he should still be finished.
God save the Queen!
I suggest that he be told of our decision right away.

NB: Modern use of the subjunctive mood
The **subjunctive mood** can sound rather stilted in modern usage and many people either ignore it, perhaps being ignorant of its true use, or else choose to avoid it.

For example

I insist that he apologizes immediately

instead of

I insist that he apologize immediately

is considered quite acceptable, especially in all but the most formal contexts.

Voice

Voice with reference to verbs has nothing to do with the voice that makes sounds. Instead, it denotes two ways of looking at the action of the verb. **Transitive verbs**, verbs which take an **object** (see 1), can either be in the **active voice** or the **passive voice**.

Active voice

In the case of sentences using the **active voice** of the verb, the **subject** (see 3) performs the action described by the verb. Thus, in the sentence

The boy threw the ball.

the verb *threw* is in the **active voice** because the **subject** of the sentence *The boy* is performing the action of throwing.

Similarly, in the sentence

She is driving the car too fast.

the verb *is driving* is in the active voice because the **subject** of the sentence *She* is performing the action of driving.

In the following sentences the underlined words form examples of verbs in the **active voice**:

Terrorists <u>hijacked</u> the plane.
Rain <u>spoiled</u> the day.
He <u>found</u> the solution.
Dad <u>dug</u> the garden.
I <u>lost</u> the ring.
A thief <u>stole</u> the purse.

Passive voice

In the case of sentences using the **passive voice** of the verb the subject is the recipient of the action of the verb. Thus, in the sentence

The ball was thrown by the boy.

the verb *was thrown* is in the **passive voice** because the **subject** of the sentence *The ball* is having the action of throwing performed on it. Similarly, in the sentence

The car was being driven too fast by her.

the verb *was being driven* is in the **passive voice** because the subject of the sentence *The car* is having the action of driving performed on it.

In the following sentences the underlined words form examples of verbs in the **passive voice**:

He <u>was</u> fatally <u>wounded</u>.
A woman <u>was found</u> dead.
The car <u>was</u> badly <u>damaged</u> in the crash.
We <u>were delighted</u> by the news.
It <u>is known</u> that a statement will be released tomorrow.

As you will see from the examples given in **Active voice** and **Passive voice** above, it is often quite easy to convert active form to passive form and vice versa.

Verbs in the **active voice** are much more commonly used in English than verbs in the passive voice. Overuse of the **passive voice** can sound rather formal and unnatural and it can make sentences sound unnecessarily complicated.

However, it should not be avoided altogether. For example, it is a useful construction when it is not yet known who carried out the action of the verb, as in:

A young man has been murdered.

It is also useful, especially to people such as journalists, in sentences such as the following where it is not known whose opinion is being given:

It is believed that such conditions may occur again.

However, this habit of generalization should not be overdone. Also, the passive construction is often used in pieces of scientific or other specialist writing where the question of who exactly is performing the action of a verb is not important, as in:

A sample of the bacterium is being tested under lab conditions.

Transitive verb and intransitive verb

We have seen above that it is only **transitive verbs** which are affected by **voice**. **Transitive verbs** are verbs which can take a **direct object** (see 1). In the sentence *The men love their children*.

the noun *children* is a **direct object** and the verb *love* is **transitive**. Similarly, in the sentence *The children like jelly*.

the noun *jelly* is a **direct object** and the verb *like* is **transitive**. On the other hand, in the sentence *Snow fell yesterday*.

the verb *fell* (*fall*) is **intransitive** because it does not take an object. Similarly, in the sentence *The situation improved.*

the verb *improved* (*improve*) is **intransitive**.

Many verbs can be either **transitive** or **intransitive** according to context. Thus, in the sentence *They both play the piano.*

the verb *play* is **transitive**, while, in the sentence *The children play on the beach every day*.

the verb *play* is **intransitive**.

Similarly, in the sentence

They climb the highest mountains.

the verb *climb* is **transitive**, while in the sentence, *The paths climb steeply*.

the verb *climb* is **intransitive**.

In the following sentences the underlined words form a **transitive verb**: *We <u>know</u>* the truth.

They hate the climate here.
I chose the blue curtains.
You will adore him.
She crossed the street.
We are painting the house.
They dig the garden at weekends.
We appreciate the gesture.
They welcome the praise.
The doctor cured him.
We want more money.
They drink red wine.
She is picking flowers.

In the following sentences the underlined words form an **intransitive verb**: *A figure appeared.*

She blushes easily.
These plants grow rapidly.
We failed.
They work hard.
He died yesterday.
He talks constantly.
Things are going badly.
I walk with difficulty.
They ran away.
She is sleeping.

Linking verb

A **linking verb**, also called a **copula** or **copular verb**, is a verb that 'links' a subject with its complement. Unlike other verbs, linking verbs do not denote an action but indicate a state.

The most common **linking verb** is *be*, as in: *He is a fool*.

Others include *become*, *seem*, *appear*, *look*, as in: *You seemed rather an anxious person*.

and

He looks a new man.

In the following sentences the underlined words form **linking verbs**: *He appears quite calm*.

She appears a very competent young woman.
Mary looks quite exhausted.
It looks just what we want.
Jim became a famous writer.
I feel a different person after my holiday.
I feel unwell.

Auxiliary verb

An **auxiliary verb** (see 1) is a verb that is used with a main verb to form certain tenses and to form a negative or question and to form the passive voice. The main **auxiliary verbs** are *be*, *have* and *do*. These are also known as **primary auxiliary verbs** and all three can also be used as main verbs, as in: *The house is very old.*
I have a book.

and
I do a lot of work in the garden.

The verb *be* is used as an **auxiliary verb** with the -*ing* of the main verb to form the **continuous present tense**, as in: *We are thinking of moving house*

and
She is attending school.

The verb *be* is used with the **past participle** (see 2) of the main verb to form the **passive voice**, as in: *The car was parked here*

and
Her hands were covered in blood.

The verb *have* is used as an **auxiliary verb** with the **past participle** (see 3) of the main verb to form the **present perfect tense** and the **past perfect tense** as in: *We have opened the box.*

and
I had assumed that the two of you were old friends.

The verb *be* is used as an **auxiliary verb** with the main verb to form negative sentences, as in: *She is not accepting the job.*

and
The work is not finished yet.

The verb *do* is also used as an **auxiliary verb** with the main verb to form negative sentences, as in: *I do not believe you.*

and
She did not love him.

The verb *do* is also used as an **auxiliary verb** with the main verb to form questions, as in: *Do they still live here?*

and
Did they go by bus?

The verb *do* is also used as an **auxiliary verb** with the main verb to emphasize the main verb, as in: *The bus does stop here, I'm sure*.

and
The shop does open on Sundays.

In the following sentences the underlined words form **primary auxiliary verbs**:
He does still love her, he says.

Does the bus stop here?
She doesn't work here now.
The scheme is not operating yet.
We have rejected the idea.
I had somehow got the idea that you were related to him.

Modal auxiliary verb

A **modal auxiliary verb** is a verb that is used with a main verb to help it express a wide range of meanings including possibility, probability, ability, permission, prediction, obligation, suggestions, requests, invitations, offers, promises *etc.* The main **modal auxiliary verbs** are *can, could, may, might, will, shall, would, should, must, ought to*. **Modal auxiliary verbs**, unlike **primary auxiliary verbs**, cannot be used as main verbs, having only one form. In the following sentences the underlined words all form examples of **modal auxiliary verbs**:

The child can ride a bike.
She could stay there if she wanted to.
You may borrow the car if you return it by lunchtime.
We may be in time for the 5 o'clock train.
He might still have the receipt for the book.
We should get there before nightfall.
Those who make fraudulent claims shall be prosecuted.
Will you have some more tea?
Would you take a seat over there, please.
You may prefer to come back another time.
You might prefer to pay by credit card.
Can you post this letter for me?
Could you give her a message?
We must get there before dinner.
You must leave at once.
They ought to pay for the damage.
You could endanger your life by such an action.

Concord

Concord or **verb agreement** refers to the fact that a verb must 'agree' with the subject in **number**. In other words a singular subject must be accompanied by a singular verb, as in: *The boy loves chocolate*.

And a plural subject must be accompanied by a plural verb, as in: *The boys love chocolate*.

Concord is not a big issue in English since verbs in English generally have the same form, irrespective of **number**, apart from the change of form in the third person singular of the present tense when *-s* or *-es* is added to the base form. A difficulty arises when a subject takes the form of a singular noun linked to a plural noun by *of*, as in: *A number of problems*.

Although it is grammatically correct to use a singular verb, as in the sentence *A number of problems has arisen*.

it is common in modern usage to have the verb agreeing with the plural noun because it is nearest to it, this sounding more natural, as in: *A number of problems have arisen*.

Sometimes it depends on whether the writer or speaker wishes to emphasize the unity of the group of things or people referred to or whether the individual components are to be emphasized. Thus, in the sentence *A collection of his paintings is to be displayed at the town hall*.

the verb is singular because the paintings are being regarded as a single entity. However, in the sentence *A collection of miscellaneous valuable objects were found in the thief's house*.

the verb is in the plural form because the emphasis is on the number of individual objects. This duality of singular and plural verbs also arises with regard to some **collective nouns**. Thus in the sentence *The family is what matters most to her*.

the verb is singular, whereas in the sentence *The family are coming from all parts of the world to be home for Christmas*.

the verb is plural.

Parts of a verb

Infinitive

The **infinitive**, or **base**, is the form of a verb when used without any indication of person, number or tense. There are two forms of the infinitive. One is the **to infinitive** form, as in: *They wished to leave*.
The child has nothing to do.

The other form of the **infinitive**, without *to*, is sometimes called the **base infinitive**. This form consists of the base form of the verb without *to*, as in: *We saw him fall*. and *She watched him go*.

NB: The split infinitive
The **split infinitive** is an infinitive that has had another word in the form of an **adverb** placed between itself and *to*, as in *to rudely push*

and
to quietly accept.

This was once considered a bad grammatical error, but the split infinitive is becoming acceptable in modern usage. In any case, it sometimes makes for a clumsy sentence if one slavishly follows the correct form.

Participles

There are two **participles**. One is the **present participle** which is formed by adding the ending *-ing* to the **base** or **infinitive form**, as in *going*. If the base form ends in *-e*, the *-e* is usually removed before the -ing ending is added, as *making*. The other is the **past participle** which is formed by adding the ending *-ed* to the **base** or **infinitive** form.

Present participle

The **present participle** is used with parts of the verb *be* to form the **continuous present tense** (see 1) and other continuous tenses, as in: *I am waiting*.

and
She was watching.

The **present participle** can also function as an **adjective**, positioned next to the noun which it modifies.

In the following phrases the underlined word is a **present participle** functioning as an **adjective**: *no running water*
the sinking ship
the protesting crowd the whispering onlookers the crumbling sea wall a disappearing way of life a fading memory
the driving rain.

The **present participle** can also function as a noun. (**verbal noun** (see 1)).

The **present participle** is also used in **participial phrases**.

Past participle

In **regular verbs**, the **past participle** (see 1, 2, 3) has the same form as the **past tense**. In the case of **irregular verbs,** however, the **past participle** is formed in different ways.

The **past participle** is used with parts of the verb *have* to form the **perfect tense** and other perfect tenses.

The **past participle** is also used in **participial phrases** (see 2).

EXERCISES 5

1 Which of the following are parts of **regular verbs**?

walked, looked, stuck, met, smiled, kept, held, seemed, hated, meant, climbed, drew, loved, begun, laughed, worked, felt, called, fought, rained, snowed.

2 Write down the **past tense** of the following **irregular verbs.**

do, swim, drink, fly, rise, blow, tear, throw, write, shut, choose, tell, think, understand, dig, find, send, build, cut, hit, make, grow, ring, speak, break, wear, give, know, steal.

3 The following sentences contain underlined verbs in the **past tense.** Rewrite the sentences to contain the same verbs but in the **continuous past tense.**

The man stood outside the shop.
The church bells rang out.
The children slept peacefully.
The mother rocked the cradle slowly.
The sun shone brightly from very early in the morning.
They walked as fast as they could.
I studied English at university.

4 Which of the following underlined verbs are in the **future tense**?

We will go immediately.
I am cleaning the house just now.
They will need a visa to cross the border.
The project will cost a lot of money.
He was sure of success.
She is about to leave on a dangerous journey.
We have finished the job.
Things are going to improve soon.
I will consult my solicitor shortly.
They are going to submit an application.

The luggage was damaged during the flight.

5 Which of the following underlined verbs are in the **subjunctive mood**, which are in the **imperative mood** and which are in the **indicative mood**?

If I <u>were</u> the head teacher, I would exclude the bullies immediately.
<u>Get out</u> now!
He <u>sells</u> a wide range of electrical goods.
The parking regulations <u>apply</u> only in the city centre.
<u>Watch out</u>!
We <u>walk</u> to work every morning.
I suggest that the students' lockers <u>be searched</u> for the stolen goods.
It <u>rained</u> all last week.
I demand that you <u>give</u> me <u>back</u> the money immediately.
<u>Stop</u> thief!
I <u>believe</u> him.

6 In the following sentences which of the underlined verbs are in the **active voice** and which are in the **passive voice**?

Rain <u>is spoiling</u> the picnic.
He <u>was driving</u> the lorry dangerously.
She <u>was supported</u> by her husband.
Someone <u>has stolen</u> a valuable painting from the art gallery.
A bicycle <u>has been stolen</u> from the shop by a gang of youths.
The severe storm <u>destroyed</u> the crops.
The whole village <u>was devastated</u> by the tragedy.
We <u>are digging</u> a new flower garden.
The ancient artefact <u>was found</u> by a farmer in his field.
The floods <u>damaged</u> a great deal of property.
The ball <u>was thrown</u> over the hedge by the boy.
A new office system <u>is being tested</u> right now.

7 In the following sentences which verbs are **transitive** and which are **intransitive**?

Snow fell that night.
They need a place to live.

They painted the front door.
Things went well.
A man suddenly appeared.
They welcomed their guests warmly.
We were picking wild flowers.
Their guests drank only water.
The tree grew rapidly.
Doctors could not cure the patient.
We worked all night.
The child chose two library books.
She died about a year ago.
Few people know the real facts.
He can't walk without a stick now.

8 Write out the sentences which contain a **linking verb**, underlining each of the linking verbs.

The ghost, apparently, appeared last night.
She appears a different person since her counselling sessions.
We looked carefully at samples.
He looked in the mirror.
She looks a suitable enough candidate for the job.
She says that she feels a completely new person since her short break.
Jack became a lawyer.
They seem fine young people.
His brother is a doctor.
She is an attractive young woman.
Her father appeared to her in a dream.
It seems an appropriate solution.
We looked over a few houses.

9 Write out the sentences which contain a **modal auxiliary verb**, underlining each of the modal auxiliary verbs.

Could you give me some assistance?
She does have talent.
They might get there in time, if the traffic's light.
Jack did know the accident victim.

She should pass the driving test first time.
She has lost her memory.
Dad says that we may borrow the car.
She is taking great care of them.
They could lose a lot of money in this venture.
I can't meet you today.
The task is not finished yet.
Would you come this way, please?
Can you sign here, please?
We are studying the evidence.
Might we discuss this at a more convenient time?

10 Write out the sentences which contain the **base infinitive** of a verb, underlining each base infinitive.

I heard him go.
We wished him to leave.
We watched the children play.
I have to go now.
He saw her die.
Have you something important to say?
I want you to give me some advice.
Did you see him attack her?
They aimed to leave right away.
We both heard someone drive past the house.
Many older workers plan to take early retirement.
Two people witnessed the man fall from the bridge.

ANSWERS 5

1 *walked, looked, smiled, seemed, hated, climbed, loved, laughed, worked, called, rained, snowed.*

2 *did, swam, drank, flew, rose, blew, tore, threw, wrote, shut, chose, told, thought, understood, dug, found, sent, built, cut, hit, made, grew, rang, spoke,*

broke, wore, gave, knew, stole.

3 *The man was standing outside the shop.*
The church bells were ringing out.
The children were sleeping peacefully.
The mother was rocking the cradle slowly.
The sun was shining brightly from very early in the morning.
They were walking as fast as they could.
I was studying English at university.

4 future tense *will go, will need, will cost, is about to leave, are going to improve, will consult, are going to submit.*

5 subjunctive mood *were, be searched, give back.*
imperative mood *get out, watch out, stop.*
indicative mood *sells, apply, walk, rained, believe.*

6 active voice *is spoiling, was driving, has stolen, destroyed, are digging, damaged.*
passive voice *was murdered, has been stolen, was devastated, was found, was thrown, is being tested.*

7 transitive *need, painted, welcomed, picking, drank, cure, chose, know.*
intransitive *fell, went, appeared, grew, worked, died, walk.*

8 *She appears a different person since her counselling sessions.*
She looks a suitable enough candidate for the job.
She says that she feels a completely new person since her short break.
Jack became a lawyer.
They seem fine young people.
His brother is a doctor.
She is an attractive young woman.
It seems an appropriate solution.

9 *Could you give me some assistance?*
They might get there in time, if the traffic's light.
She should pass the driving test first time.
Dad says that we may borrow the car.
They could lose a lot of money in this venture.
I can't meet you today.

Would you come this way, please?
Can you sign here, please?
Might we discuss this at a more convenient time?

10 *I heard him go.*
We watched the children play.
He saw her die.
Did you see him attack her?
We both heard someone drive past the house.
Two people witnessed the man fall from the bridge.

PARTS OF SPEECH IV

Adverbs

The main function of an **adverb** is to give more information about a verb. An **adverb** is said to **modify** a verb because it limits the word it describes in some way. Thus, modifying the verb *walk* with the adverb *quickly* means that we know that we are concentrating on walking quickly and that we can forget about walking in any other way. **Adverbs** can also modify other adverbs, as in *extremely suddenly*, adjectives, as in *gravely ill*, prepositions, as in *just after dinner* and conjunctions as in *exactly what he said*.

An **adverb** is usually a single word. When a group of words performs the same function as an adverb it is known as an **adverbial phrase** or **adverbial**.

Types of adverb

There are various types of **adverb**—adverbs of **time**, **frequency**, **duration**, **place**, **manner** and **degree,** as well as **interrogative** adverbs.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time indicate when something has happened. They include words such as *then*, *now*, *afterwards*, *before*, *later*. In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of time**: *I'll see you soon.*
They haven't seen him lately.
It was her birthday today.
I wasn't married then.
We'd never met before.
Afterwards we had afternoon tea.

Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency indicate how frequently something happens. They include words such as *often*, *always* , *never*, and *seldom*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of frequency**: *It always snowed at Christmas there*.
We rarely meet these days.
He never drinks alcohol.
She is forever criticizing him.
We play tennis together regularly.
The patient is being monitored constantly.
We usually have dinner at 8 p.m.

Adverbs of duration

Adverbs of duration indicate how long something lasts or occurs. They include words such as *always, briefly, permanently, indefinitely*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of duration**: *She is living with her grandmother temporarily*.
He has been suspended from his job indefinitely.
I haven't known her long.
We will stay here overnight.
She's always lived here.
They stopped briefly to fill the car with petrol.

Adverbs of place

Adverbs of place are used to indicate where something happens or takes place. They include such words as *here*, *there*, *near*, *downstairs* and *indoors*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of place**: *He has gone overseas*.
They live nearby.
She went inside.
He walked alongside.
They are travelling northward.
We waded ashore.
The child doesn't live here.
He held the banner aloft.
We met midway.

Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner indicate how something happens or the circumstances in which something happens. They are frequently formed by adding -*ly* to an adjective and they include *carefully*, *easily*, *hurriedly*, *plainly*, *quickly*, *safely*, *suddenly*, *willingly*. A few of them end in -*wise*, -*ways* or -*wards*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of manner**: *She was neatly dressed*.
He smiled vaguely.
They spoke eloquently.
I behaved foolishly.
He lives dangerously.
We waited patiently.
You are needed urgently.
She laughed excitedly.
They filmed him secretly.
I met him accidentally.
She acted independently.
He moved sideways.

Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree are used to indicate the degree to which an action is performed. Many of them are formed by adding -*ly* to an adjective and they include *fairly*, *moderately*, *remarkably*, *very* and *partly*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of degree**: *I enjoyed the film immensely*.
I was tremendously pleased by the unexpected gift.
She was hugely impressed by the efforts of the children.
She was unbelievably beautiful.
They were only moderately enthusiastic about the project.
She was slightly hurt by the remark.
They were partly responsible for the error.
Her father was a supremely successful businessman.
They largely ignored us.
The village was virtually destroyed by the storms.
The child almost drowned.
I was enormously encouraged by their praise.
He was working very hard.

Adverbs of emphasis

A small group of **adverbs of degree** are known as **adverbs of emphasis**. These are formed from **emphatic adjectives** and include *absolutely*, *entirely*, *really*, *utterly* and *positively*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **adverbs of emphasis**:
We totally disagree with you.
I was utterly devastated by the news.
I quite agree.
She positively adores him.
He really loathes his job.
She completely broke down and wept uncontrollably.

Interrogative adverbs

Interrogative adverbs are among the **wh-words** which are used to ask **wh-questions** and include *when*, *where*, *how* and *why*.
In the following sentences the underlined words are **interrogative adverbs**:
When did you last see him?
Where was the money hidden?
How are you feeling?
Why was he there?

Prepositions

A **preposition** is used to show the relationship, such as time or place, between a noun or pronoun and the rest of a sentence, clause or phrase. The **preposition** usually comes before the noun it refers to or 'governs'. There are two types of preposition, **simple prepositions** and **complex prepositions**.

Simple prepositions

Simple prepositions are often very short words, such as *at, by, in, of, off, on, to* and *up*, but also include such words as *among, before, behind, during* and *through*.

In the following sentences the underlined words are all **simple prepositions**:
The cakes are on the table.
The cat is up the tree.
She sleeps during the day.
They left before dawn.
We arrived after dinner.
I will stay there for three weeks.
He is a young man of great talent.
She carried a bag with a black handle.
I will go with them.
He was sacked for theft.
I paid by cash.
We had to leave without Mary.
They were against the scheme.

Complex prepositions

Complex prepositions consist of two or three words. These include *ahead of, because of, instead of, on account of, by means of* and *on behalf of*.

In the following sentences the underlined words form **complex prepositions**:
She attended the conference in spite of illness.
He had to retire on account of his age.
They are not rich in terms of money.
They have a dog in addition to the three cats.

Conjunctions

A **conjunction** (see 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) is a linking word used to join words, word groups or **clauses**. There are two types of conjunction, **coordinating conjunctions** and **subordinating conjunctions**.

Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions (see 1, 2, 3, 5) are conjunctions which join elements which are of equal status. These units may be words, word groups or main clauses. **Coordinating conjunctions** include *and, but, or, yet* and, in pairs and often for emphasis, *both … and, either … or, neither … nor.*

In the following sentences the underlined words **are coordinating conjunctions** which link words: *The women <u>and</u> children left the sinking ship first.*
She's an artist <u>and</u> a writer.
He was wearing a hat <u>and</u> gloves.
He is an intelligent <u>and</u> enthusiastic young man.
It was a difficult <u>and</u> embarrassing problem.
The firm was being run efficiently <u>and</u> economically.
He was tall, dark <u>and</u> handsome.
She was poor <u>but</u> happy.
It was a small <u>but</u> comfortable house.
She was elderly <u>but</u> extremely fit.
They worked slowly <u>but</u> confidently.
You can serve fruit <u>or</u> cheese at the end of the meal.
Did you <u>or</u> your husband witness the crime?
Is that good <u>or</u> bad news?
The teacher was firm <u>yet</u> fair.
She was <u>both</u> pretty <u>and</u> clever.
He is <u>both</u> a coward <u>and</u> a bully.
They are <u>either</u> stupid <u>or</u> naïve.
She is <u>either</u> foolish <u>or</u> deceitful.
They are <u>neither</u> skilled <u>nor</u> experienced.
We have <u>neither</u> sufficient money <u>nor</u> sufficient time to undertake this task.

In the following sentences the underlined words are **coordinating conjunctions**

which link main clauses: *He has asked Anne to marry him and she has accepted*.
The students live in Leeds and they travel here every day.
He was born in England but lives in Australia.
They can stay here or they can go home.
Students can either live in flats or they can live in halls of residence.

Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions (see 1) are used to link a **subordinate clause** (see 2) or dependent clause to the **main clause**. **Subordinating conjunctions** may introduce an **adverbial clause**, a **comparative clause**, a **relative clause**, or a **noun clause**. For all of these clause (see 1).

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses

These are **clauses** which have a function in a sentence similar to that of an **adverb** or an **adverbial phrase**. They add information about time, place, concession, condition, manner, purpose and result.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of time include *after, before, since, when, whenever, while, until, as soon as*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of time: *As soon as the babysitter comes we'll set off*.
I smile whenever I see the child's happy face.
I'll wait until your friend comes.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of place include *where, wherever, everywhere*. In the following sentences the underlined word is a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of place: *I forget where I left the package*.

Wherever the actor goes, photographers follow.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of purpose include *in order* (*to*), *to, so as to, so that*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of purpose: *We left the party early so as to catch the last bus home*.

To get there on time we'd have to leave now.

I saved money all year so that I could afford to go on holiday to South Africa.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of reason include *because, since, as, in case*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of reason: *We need to leave very early in case the traffic is very heavy on the motorway*.

Because it's raining heavily we'll have to cancel the picnic.
Since he committed the crime he should accept the punishment.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of result include *so that*. The words *so* and *that* can be separated, *so* coming before an adjective or adverb in the main clause and *that* being the first word in the subordinate clause. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of result: *He hit his opponent so hard that he knocked him out*.

He spoke clearly so that everyone heard every word.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of condition include *unless, if, provided* (*that*), *providing, as long as*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of condition*: I'll go provided you come with me*.

As long as you're happy I'm happy to do what you ask.
If he stays I'm leaving.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of manner include *as though, as if, as, like*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of manner*: He walked as though he were in pain*.

She smiled broadly as if she were very happy.

Subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of concession include *although, though, even though, whereas, while, whilst*. In the following sentences the underlined word/words form a conjunction introducing an adverbial clause of concession: *She still loves him although he treated her badly*.

<u>Even though</u> I dislike him personally I admire his work.
<u>While</u> Mary is an excellent cook neither of her sisters can even boil an egg.

EXERCISES 6

1 Write out the sentences which contain an adverb, underlining the adverbs.

She was very pretty.
He was smartly dressed.
The man is an utter fool.
He utterly adores her.
She enjoyed her time at university tremendously.
The campaign was a huge success.
He was once a supremely successful chef.
It was a regular occurrence.
He acted impulsively and foolishly.
She was not in a very patient mood.
We go to the cinema regularly.
They rarely meet.
I usually go to work by train.
We go to France in the summer.
They went to their usual restaurant in the high street.
She stamped her foot impatiently.

2 Write down the adverbs of duration and the adverbs of frequency in the following sentences.

Jack never tells lies.
I worry about him constantly.
The couple plan to leave here permanently.
Sue is forever talking of looking for another job.
They stopped over briefly in Singapore on their way to Australia.
We seldom see our old friends.
The boys often play football on Saturdays.
She is working as a secretary temporarily.
Are you going to work in the States indefinitely?

3 Rewrite the following sentences inserting in the blanks an adverb formed from the adjective given in bold type in brackets.

I met her ... on the way to the station. ***(accidental)***
He won ... and went on to the next round. ***(easy)***
You must proceed ... and be aware of the danger. ***(careful)***
She acted ... without thinking. ***(foolish)***
He left his job quite ... in a panic. ***(sudden)***
You have to decide ... if you want the job. ***(quick)***

4 Write out the following sentences, underlining the simple prepositions.

I stayed there for six months.
She is a person of considerable wealth.
She did the shopping during her lunch hour.
They live in the house with the green door.
I will pay by cheque.
The money is on the kitchen table.
The workman is up the ladder.
She studies during the evening.
I'm leaving after breakfast.
If we leave now we'll get there before the bus.
She directed the remark at him.
She thought he was the man of her dreams.

5 Write out the sentences which contain a complex preposition, underlining the complex prepositions.

He was invited, but his sister went instead.
My colleague was ill and so I went to the conference instead of her.
He had to take early retirement on account of his ill health.
He won the race in spite of his injured back.
I can't pay for the work in full, but here is some money on account.
He has promised to speak for her at the complaints tribunal.
The union leader is going to talk to management on behalf of all the workers.
You can get there by means of transport, but it will take a long time.
Let's go by train.
She resigned because of acute stress.
She must have gone for her own reasons.

6 Write out the sentences which contain a coordinating conjunction, underlining

each of the coordinating conjunctions.

The girls and boys go into the school by different entrances.
You can have either tea or coffee.
I'll wait till they turn up.
We decided not to go because of the rain.
She was very old but in good health.
I know when to leave.
Did you or your brother see your mother before you left for school?
I get angry whenever I catch sight of him.
He is hard-working and experienced.
She is either his cousin or his aunt, I'm not sure which.
He forgot what he said.
If he does that he'll be sacked.
Usually they go to France for the summer but they are going to Italy this year.
He asked her to marry him and she accepted.
He cycled to work in order to get fit.
They can rent an apartment or they can stay in a budget hotel.

7 Underline the subordinating conjunctions in the following sentences.

We realized that he was quite ill.
She sang while he played the piano.
Although he is very talented he has been unable to find a job.
If you leave now you will get the last bus.
I'll tell them the good news as soon as I see them.
I'll get there before dinner provided the traffic is not too heavy.
After dinner he was so tired that he fell asleep in his chair.
While she is highly academically qualified, she has very little experience.
Since it's raining very heavily the beach picnic will have to be cancelled.
She's been going to that seaside resort since she was a child.
We'll set out as soon as it stops raining.
Why did she go I wonder?
The students won't pass the exams unless they study hard.

ANSWERS 6

1 *She was very pretty.*
He was smartly dressed.
He utterly adores her.
She enjoyed her time at university tremendously.
He was once a supremely successful chef.
He acted impulsively and foolishly.
She was not in a very patient mood.
We go to the cinema regularly.
They rarely meet.
I usually go to work by train.
She stamped her foot impatiently.

2 adverbs of duration *permanently, briefly, temporarily, indefinitely* **adverbs of frequency** *never, constantly, forever, seldom, often* **3** *I met her* **accidentally** *on the way to the station.*
He won **easily** *and went on to the next round.*
You must proceed **carefully** *and be aware of the danger.*
She acted **foolishly** *without thinking.*
He left his job quite **suddenly** *in a panic.*
You have to decide **quickly** *if you want the job.*

4 *I stayed there for six months.*
She is a person of considerable wealth.
She did the shopping during her lunch hour.
They live in the house with the green door.
I will pay by cheque.
The money is on the kitchen table.
The workman is up the ladder.
She studies during the evening.
I'm leaving after breakfast.
If we leave now we'll get there before the bus.

She directed the remark at him.
She thought he was the man of her dreams.

5 *My colleague was ill and so I went to the conference instead of her.*
He had to take early retirement on account of his ill health.
He won the race in spite of his injured back.
The union leader is going to talk to management on behalf of all the workers.
You can get there by means of public transport, but it will take a long time.
She resigned because of acute stress.

6 *The girls and boys go into the school by different entrances.*
You can have either tea or coffee.
She was very old but in good health.
Did you or your brother see your mother before you left for school?
He is hard-working and experienced.
She is either his cousin or his aunt, I'm not sure which.
Usually they go to France for the summer but they are going to Italy this year.
He asked her to marry him and she accepted.
They can rent an apartment or they can stay in a budget hotel.

7 *We realized that he was quite ill.*
She sang while he played the piano.
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We'll set out as soon as it stops raining.
Why did she go I wonder?
The students won't pass the exams unless they study hard.

PUNCTUATION

THE IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is the use of certain established marks **(punctuation marks)** or symbols within a piece of written text. **Punctuation** prevents a piece of text from being just a string of words by breaking up the string of words into meaningful units and by making the text more fluent. Basically, punctuation marks can be seen as symbols which are used to separate and join units of language into a cohesive text.

Modern writers tend to punctuate much more lightly than their older counterparts did. This goes hand in hand with the modern tendency to use less formal language and a plainer style. However, the importance of punctuation, even in these less formal modern times, should not be underestimated. Appropriate punctuation creates order in what might otherwise be a piece of linguistic confusion.

The important punctuation marks are the **full stop**, **question mark**, **exclamation mark**, **comma**, **brackets**, **dash**, **semicolon**, **colon**, **hyphen**, **quotation marks**, **apostrophe**, **asterisk**, **three-dot ellipsis** and the **oblique**.

Full stop

The **full stop**, also called **period**, is a punctuation mark consisting of a small dot (.). It is one of the most important punctuation marks and the most emphatic, because its main function is to mark the end of a sentence and so separate one sentence from another. Only sentences that are either **questions** or **exclamations** (*see* Questions and Exclamations) do not end in a **full stop**. Instead, they end respectively in a **question mark** or an **exclamation mark**. The following are examples of sentences ending in a full stop: *The children behaved very well*.
They are getting married next week.
We are moving house soon.
The car broke down.

You can choose the restaurant.
I went by bus.

NB: The stop
The **full stop** is also used to mark the end of a group of words which is not actually a sentence, but which is complete in itself, as in the following underlined words.

'When do we leave?'
'Tomorrow morning.'

The full stop and abbreviations

The **full stop** has another function. It is used with certain types of **abbreviation**, although the modern tendency, particularly in British English, is to use full stops with abbreviations far less than was formerly the case. For example, abbreviations involving initial capital letters are generally written without full stops, especially in British English, as *TUC*, *BBC*, *USA*. In such cases full stops should definitely not be used if one or some of the initial letters do not belong to a full word, as *TV*. *TV* is the abbreviation for television and the letter *V* is simply the initial letter of the second syllable of the word, not that of a new word.

There are usually no **full stops** in abbreviations involving the first and last letters of a word (**contractions**), as *Dr*, *Rd*, *St*, but whether they are used or not can be a matter of taste. The important thing is to be consistent in whether you use **full stops** or not in such cases.Abbreviations involving the first few letters of a word are the most likely to have **full stops**, as in *Feb*. for February and *Sept*. for September.

The full stop in email and website addresses

The **full stop** is also used in **email addresses** such as *sample.name@sampleaddress.co.uk*

and in **website addresses** such as *www.sample-url.com*

In these cases the inclusion of the full stops and their correct placing are necessary to send the email successfully or access the website.

Question mark

The **question mark** (**?**) is sometimes also known as the **query** and it is used to mark the end of a sentence which asks a question (see 1). The following sentences are all questions ending in a **question mark**: *Where are we?*
Is that the right time?
Who is that?
Why did they leave so early?
Does he always behave so badly?
Would you pass me the salt, please?
Can I help you?
Whose coat is this?

NB: Writing questions
It is not recommended to use more than one question mark at the end of a sentence.

When writing college essays or literary interpretations it may be tempting to interperse your writing with questions, as in: 'So what do we learn from Wordsworth's view of nature?'

This is too informal for a such a composition. It is better to write: 'What we learn from Wordsworth's view of nature is ...'

Exclamation mark

The **exclamation mark** (**!**) is used to mark the end of an **exclamation** or sometimes a **directive** (see 1)). The following sentences are all exclamations or directives ending in an **exclamation mark**: *Run!*
Save me!
What a beautiful day!
How marvellous!
Well done!
You must be joking!
Ouch!
Let me go!

NB: Watch out!
Be careful not to overuse the **exclamation mark**. It is easy to do so, particularly in a piece of informal English. One is enough at the close of a sentence. Overuse of such sentences within a piece of writing can detract from the potential dramatic effect of the occasional use of the mark.

It is common for people to overuse exclamation marks in emails, because the communication is often informal and because we are often trying to convey points of view and emotions that we would not normally be doing in a formal piece of writing.

Capital letter

Capital letters are not technically speaking punctuation marks, but their use is so closely associated with the use of the **full stop**, and with the **question mark** and **exclamation mark** that it makes sense to treat their use here. Just as a sentence ends with a **full stop** or, occasionally, with a **question mark** or **exclamation mark**, so it always begins with a **capital letter**. The opposite of a **capital letter** is a **lower-case letter**. **Capital letters** are used in a number of situations:

A **capital letter is** used as the initial letter **of the first word** of a sentence or a direct quotation, as in *They left early*. and *He said weakly, 'I don't feel very well*.'

A **capital letter** is always used as the initial letter of a name or proper noun, as in *Mary Brown*, *South America*, *Rome*, *speak Italian*, *Buddhism and Marxism*.

A **capital letter** is also used as the initial letter of the main words in the titles of people, places or works of art, as in the following:

Uncle Fred, *Professor Jones*, *Ely Cathedral*, *Edinburgh University*, *Glasgow Caledonian University*, *reading* Wuthering Heights, *watching a production of* Guys and Dolls, *listen to Beethoven's Third Symphony* and *buy a copy of 'The Potato Eaters' by van Gogh*.

They are also used in the titles of wars and historical, cultural and geological periods, as in the *Wars of the Roses*, *the Renaissance* and *the Ice Age*. Only the major words of titles, etc, begin with capital letters. Words, such as *the*, *on*, *of*, etc, are in lower-case letters, as *The Mill on the Floss*.

A **capital letter** is used as the initial letter of the days of the week, months of the year, and religious festivals, as *Monday*, *October*, *Easter*, *Yom Kippur*. It is a matter of choice whether the seasons of the year are given capital letters or not, as in spring/Spring, autumn/ Autumn.

A **capital letter** is used as the initial letter of God, Allah or Jesus Christ, or similar words. When a pronoun is used to refer to God or Christ the pronoun

begins with an initial capital letter, as *God asks us to trust in Him*.

A **capital letter** is always used as the initial letter of a noun that is a trade name as in *Peugeot*, *Xerox*, *Hoover*.

When verbs are formed from such nouns, they are usually spelt with an initial **lower-case letter** (*see* below), as in *xerox the letter* and *hoover the carpet*.

Lower-case letter

The opposite of a **capital letter** is a **lower-case letter**, also known informally as **small letter**. **Lower-case letters** are used for most words in the language. It is **capital letters** that are exceptional in their use.

EXERCISES 7

1 Rewrite the following passages, inserting the appropriate **punctuation mark** at the end of each sentence.

a

Ouch I slipped on the ice and hurt my ankle I can hardly walk Do you think my ankle could be broken
Perhaps I'd better get a doctor to have a look at it Could you possibly take me to the hospital in your car if you've time It shouldn't take very long, should it It's not far If you're in a hurry you can just drop me outside the hospital and leave I'll phone my parents from the hospital and they'll come and get me

b

Is that the right time It's much later than I thought and we simply mustn't miss the nine o'clock train It's the last one tonight Isn't that it standing at the platform Come on Run We may just catch it if we're lucky We made it just in time Thank goodness We'd better phone home to say we're on our way or Mum will be worried You know what she's like

c

I don't know many people at this party That man over there looks familiar, though Do you know who he is I seem to recognize the woman he's with as well Who can she be Where's our host I'll just go and ask him who they are I don't see them anymore Have they gone How annoying Never mind I probably didn't know them anyway They probably just looked like some other people I know

2 Rewrite the following passages replacing a **lower-case letter** with a **capital letter** where you think this is appropriate.

a

it's saturday today and we're going shopping. christmas is only two weeks away and we've still got a lot of gifts to buy, although we bought quite a few in november. we want to find something special for my sister anne. she's been working in south africa and we haven't seen her since easter last year. anne's arriving at heathrow next tuesday and my brother john and I are going to the airport to meet her. we live in london and so we don't have far to go, although we'll probably get caught up in traffic jams.

b

They all teach english at american universities and they've come to britain to attend a conference in oxford. after the conference ends they're planning to go on a brief tour of britain. They'll start with stratford and they have tickets for performances of shakespeare's king lear *and* twelfth night. *Then they're going to london and plan to go on a river cruise on the thames before going to the tower of london and windsor castle. after that they're going to go to canterbury and then to ely to visit the cathedrals there before travelling up to scotland to attend some of the events at the edinburgh festival in august. they hope to have time to go to the various art exhibitions, particularly the one featuring the impressionists.*

ANSWERS 7

1

a

Ouch! I slipped on the ice and hurt my ankle. I can hardly walk. Do you think my ankle could be broken? Perhaps I'd better get a doctor to have a look at it. Could you possibly take me to the hospital in your car if you've time? It shouldn't take very long, should it? It's not far. If you're in a hurry you can just drop me outside the hospital and leave. I'll phone my parents from the hospital and they'll come and get me.

b

Is that the right time? It's much later than I thought and we simply mustn't miss the nine o'clock train.
It's the last one tonight. Isn't that it standing at the platform? Come on! Run! We may just catch it if we're lucky. We made it just in time. Thank goodness! We'd better phone home to say we're on our way or Mum will be worried. You know what she's like.

c

I don't know many people at this party. That man over there looks familiar, though. Do you know who he is? I seem to recognize the woman he's with as well. Who can she be? Where's our host? I'll just go and ask him who they are. I don't see them anymore. Have they gone? How annoying! Never mind! I probably didn't know them anyway. They probably just looked like some other people I know.

2

a

It's Saturday today and we're going shopping. Christmas is only two weeks away and we've still got a lot of gifts to buy, although we bought quite a few in November. We want to find something special for my sister Anne. She's been working in South Africa and we haven't seen her since Easter last year. Anne's arriving at Heathrow next Tuesday and my brother John and I are going to the airport to meet her. We live in London and so we don't have far to go, although we'll probably get caught up in traffic jams.

b

They all teach English at American universities and they've come to Britain to attend a conference in Oxford. After the conference ends they're planning to go on a brief tour of Britain. They'll start with Stratford and they have tickets for performances of Shakespeare's King Lear *and* Twelfth Night. *Then they're going to London and plan to go on a river cruise on the Thames before going to*

the Tower of London and Windsor Castle. After that they're going to go to Canterbury and then to Ely to visit the cathedrals there before travelling up to Scotland to attend some of the events at the Edinburgh Festival in August. They hope to have time to go to the various art exhibitions, particularly the one featuring the Impressionists.

Comma

A **comma** (**,**) is an extremely common punctuation mark and yet the use of **commas** causes a great deal of concern and confusion in many people. This is partly because the use of commas has changed quite a bit in recent times.

In modern usage there is a tendency to adopt a system of minimal punctuation and one of the casualties of this change has been the comma. Most people use the comma considerably less frequently than was formerly the case.

The **comma** has two major functions, that of linking and separating.

The comma as separating device in lists

One of the common separating functions of the **comma** concerns lists. The individual items in a list of three or more items are separated by commas. Whether a comma is put before the word *and* which follows the second-last item is now a matter of choice. Some people dislike the use of the comma in this situation, sometimes called the **Oxford comma** or **serial comma**, and, indeed, it was formerly considered wrong. However, it has become very common in **British English** and is even more common in **American English**. It is best to insert such a comma if there is any possibility of confusion arising from its omission.

In the following sentences the underlined words form lists containing commas:

At the sports club we can play tennis, squash, badminton and table tennis.
We need to buy bread, milk, fruit and sugar.
They are studying French, German, Spanish and Russian.
We opened the door, let ourselves in, fed the cat and started to cook a meal.

The comma as a separating device in a list of adjectives

In cases where there is a list of adjectives before a noun, the use of commas between the adjectives is now optional although it was formerly standard practice. Thus the sentences

She wore a long, red, sequinned dress.

and
She wore a long red sequinned dress.

are both considered correct these days. When the adjective immediately before the noun has a closer relationship with it than the other adjectives, and indeed often helps to define the noun, no comma should be used before that adjective, as in the sentences

We want to buy some large juicy green peppers.
and
They live in a beautiful old fishing village.

It would be quite wrong to place a comma before the word *green* in the first sentence or before the word *fishing* in the second sentence.

NB: Last item in a list
Confusion may arise if the last item in the list contains the word *and* used in its own right as an essential part of the sentence, as in:

In the pub they served ham salad, shepherd's pie, omelette, and pie and chips.

In such cases it as well to put a comma before the final connecting *and* to avoid confusion.

If the list of items is a very long one or the items in the list consist of several words a **semicolon** is sometimes used instead of a **comma** (*see* semicolon).

Commas and relative clauses

Commas are not normally used to separate main clauses and **relative clauses** (see 2), where the relative clause is an essential part of the sentence and not an additional piece of information, as in:

The woman whom I met was a friend's sister.

In other words, a **defining relative clause** is not separated from the main clause by a comma.

However, commas are used to separate the main clause from a relative clause which is not required to identify the person or thing that you are talking about, but which is simply giving additional information, as in:

My father, who lived in London, died early last year.

In other words, where a **non-defining relative clause** divides the parts of a main clause the clause is placed within **commas**.

Commas and subordinate clauses

Commas are not now usually used to separate main clauses and **subordinate clauses** (see 3, 4) as in:

He left when we arrived
and
They came to the party although we didn't expect them to.

However, if the subordinate clause precedes the main clause, it is sometimes followed by a comma. This is especially true if it is a reasonably long clause, as in:

Although we stopped and thought about it for quite a long time, we still made the wrong decision.

If the clause is quite short, a comma is not usually inserted, as in:

Although it rained we had a good holiday.
and
If you go you will regret it.

The **comma** is never used to separate a main clause from a clause beginning with *that*, as in *I knew very well that I was right*.

However, as is the case with all lists, **commas** are used to separate clauses beginning with *that* if there are several of them, as in:

Police know that the bankrobbers were armed, that they wore balaclavas to conceal their faces, that they were all of medium height and that they escaped in a blue transit van.

NB: To avoid confusion
It is important to insert a **comma** between a **subordinate clause** and a main clause if doing so prevents any possibility of confusion.

For example, confusion can arise when a subordinate clause ends with a verb and the following clause begins with a noun, as in:

After the pupils had finished reading, the books were returned to the school library.

Here the use of the comma is an aid to clarity. Otherwise you could read the first part of the sentence as *After the pupils had finished reading the books* ...

The comma as a separating device in clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions

A **comma** may be used to separate main clauses joined by a **coordinating conjunction** (see 3) but this is not usual if the clauses have the same subject and the coordinating conjunction is *and*, as in *She swept the floor and dusted the table*.

In cases where the subjects are different and the clauses are fairly long, it is best to insert a comma, as in *They took with them all the furniture and appliances and anything of any value, and she was left with nothing*.

When the coordinating conjunction is *but*, the use of a comma to mark off the main clause is more a matter of choice, especially when both clauses are quite long.

NB: To avoid repetition
A comma can be inserted to avoid repeating a verb in the second of two clauses, as in:

He plays golf and tennis, his brother rugby.

The comma as separating device with initial phrases

A **comma** is often used to separate an **adverb** or an **adverbial phrase** at the beginning of a sentence from the rest of the sentence, as with *However* in:

The weather was not great and it rained a lot. <u>However</u>, we had an interesting and enjoyable holiday.

Nowadays, the use of a **comma** in such situations is sometimes considered optional. However, it is essential to insert a comma if there is any possibility of confusion.

For example, in the sentence

Normally, intelligent students will attend their lectures on a regular basis.

the meaning is changed slightly by the omission of the comma. The longer the expression is, the more likely it is to need a **comma** after it, as in:

After a great deal of consideration, I decided to accept the invitation.

The comma with terms of address

Commas are always used to separate **terms of address** from the rest of the sentence, as in the following sentences:

Mary, I'm afraid I have some bad news for you about your proposed holiday.
Please come this way, Mrs Brown.
Thanks a lot, John.
Now, ladies, what can I get you?
Right, James, I'm ready to leave now.
Doctor Jones, I have an important call for you.

The comma with tag questions

The **comma** is used to separate a **tag question** from the rest of a sentence, as in

the following sentences:

It's a beautiful day, isn't it?
You do love him, don't you?
He still smokes, doesn't he?
She's not happy, is she?
We can still go, can't we?
They've won again, haven't they?
It isn't raining again, is it?

The comma with interjections

The **comma** is used to separate an **interjection** from the rest of a sentence, as in the following sentences:

Look, there's the train coming.
Heavens, I've never seen such heavy rain!
Wait, she's here now!
Gosh, I'm going to be late!

The comma used in pairs as a means of separation or parenthesis

The **comma** is used in pairs to separate phrases or words that are naturally cut off from the main sense of the rest of the sentence, as if they were additional thoughts or qualifications to what is being said in the rest of the sentence, as in:

The project was, on the whole, successful.

In such a sentence the clause within the commas can be removed without altering the basic meaning. In this respect the use of a pair of commas resembles the use of **brackets**.

The underlined expressions in the following sentences illustrate this use of the **comma**:

Jim, <u>sensible as ever</u>, told them both to talk things over.
My first impression of him, <u>to be honest</u>, was not very favourable.
We realized, <u>nevertheless</u>, that we could still face problems.
I knew, <u>of course</u>, that something might still go wrong.

I knew all too well, in fact, that he was not telling the truth.

NB: Use both commas
Care should be taken to include both commas. It is easy to forget to include the second one of the pair.

The comma with nouns or phrases in apposition

A noun or noun phrase is said to be **in apposition** when it is placed next to another noun or noun phrase and provides further information about it, especially by saying something that identifies or describes them. In such a situation, the main noun or phrase and the amplifying noun or phrase refer to the same person or thing.

When such a noun or noun phrase is placed after the main noun or noun phrase in the sentence, a comma is almost always placed after the main noun or noun phrase to separate it from the amplifying noun or noun phrase, as in:

Dan Jones, the well-known racing driver, has been involved in a serious car accident.

However, when the amplifying noun or noun phrase is placed before the main noun or noun phrase it is now usual to omit the comma between them when the noun phrases involved are very short, as in:

My son Mike lives with us.
and
The singer Joan Green gave a short recital.

When the noun phrases involved are quite long, it is best to include the comma, as in:

The person who suggested the scheme, Jim Blunt, has now left the company.

In the following sentences the underlined words are in **apposition**:

Jack Blair, our managing director, has resigned.
Sue Brown, leader of the protest campaign, has given a statement to the press.

Peter Shaw, my cousin's husband, is representing the family.
Mike Black, our local Labour MP, has stated his opposition to the scheme.
The head of the local primary school, Jane Lewis, is very much in favour of improved sports facilities.
My elder brother's latest girlfriend, Liz Grant, is quite a famous fashion model.
The writer Lou Wilson is giving a talk at the local bookshop tonight.
Her husband Pete is a very nice man.

The comma and numbers

A **comma** is used when writing a number that is made up of four or more figures, as in:

£45,000

12,000 kilometres

1,000.

However, this is not the case with a date, as in:

1066

1984.

EXERCISES 8

Insert **commas** where this is appropriate in the following passages.

1

Mary's son Mark is a brilliant linguist and works as an interpreter. He speaks fluent French German Spanish and Russian and has a good knowledge of Danish Norwegian and Swedish. His wife Maria who is Spanish used to teach at the local senior school before the birth of the first of their four children. John Brown the head teacher there says that she was an excellent teacher and he would like her to go back to work.

Maria loves teaching and of course would like to get her old job back. Sadly the cost of childcare in the area is extremely expensive. In addition Mark has to travel a lot in connection with his work and cannot help much with looking after the children. Mark caring as ever would like to help more and spend more time with the children but this is simply not possible.

Maria's mother who lives with them is too frail to take care of four active children and so Maria will have to postpone going back to work for a while. She sometimes talks about taking on some private pupils who are in need of special tutoring to help them pass their exams. This on the whole sounds like a very good idea.

2

'Please sit down here Mr Smith. Dr Black will see you next. Mrs Wilson Dr Jones will see you now. Can you manage all right? It's so difficult to walk on crutches until you get used to them isn't it? Still your leg seems to be healing nicely doesn't it? Ms Black Dr Martin is off ill. I've given you an appointment with Dr Blair who's acting as a locum while Dr Martin is off. I hope your cold is a bit better. This cold weather's doesn't help does it? Look it's started snowing. Take care Mrs Wilson! The pavements may be quite slippery and you certainly don't want to fall again do you?'

3

We've just started a literary society in the village and we've already got quite a few members. My aunt who has just moved here is the president of the society and I am the secretary. It involves more work than I thought it would but nevertheless I am enjoying it.

Sometimes we invite a speaker to address the society sometimes one of the society members gives a talk and sometimes we just have an informal discussion. There are several people among the members who have worked in publishing and we also have some members who are professional writers. For example Bill Jackson the society's treasurer is quite a well-known travel writer and his wife Jean Jackson who writes under the pseudonym Jenny Adams is making quite a name for herself as a crime writer.

Alas we have been unable to persuade Mark Hill writer of several very successful novels about espionage to join the society. He says that he is too busy with his writing and in addition he travels a lot. Still we have quite enough members to have a successful society.

ANSWERS 8

1

Mary's son Mark is a brilliant linguist and works as an interpreter. He speaks fluent French, German, Spanish and Russian and has a good knowledge of Danish, Norwegian and Swedish. His wife Maria, who is Spanish, used to teach at the local senior school before the birth of the first of their four children. John Brown, the head teacher there, says that she was an excellent teacher and he would like her to go back to work.

Maria loves teaching and, of course, would like to get her old job back. Sadly, the cost of childcare in the area is extremely expensive. In addition, Mark has to travel a lot in connection with his work and cannot help much with looking after the children. Mark, caring as ever, would like to help more and spend more time with the children, but this is simply not possible.

Maria's mother, who lives with them, is too frail to take care of four active children and so Maria will have to postpone going back to work for a while. She sometimes talks about taking on some private pupils who are in need of special tutoring to help them pass their exams. This, on the whole, sounds like a very

good idea.

2

‘Please sit down here, Mr Smith. Dr Black will see you next. Mrs Wilson, Dr Jones will see you now. Can you manage all right? It’s so difficult to walk on crutches until you get used to them, isn’t it? Still, your leg seems to be healing nicely, doesn’t it? Ms Black, Dr Martin is off ill. I’ve given you an appointment with Dr Blair who’s acting as a locum while Dr Martin is off. I hope your cold is a bit better. This cold weather’s doesn’t help, does it? Look, it’s started snowing. Take care, Mrs Wilson! The pavements may be quite slippery and you certainly don’t want to fall again, do you?’

3

We’ve just started a literary society in the village and we’ve already got quite a few members. My aunt, who has just moved here, is the president of the society and I am the secretary. It involves more work than I thought it would, but, nevertheless, I am enjoying it.

Sometimes we invite a speaker to address the society, sometimes one of the society members gives a talk and sometimes we just have an informal discussion. There are several people among the members who have worked in publishing and we also have some members who are professional writers. For example, Bill Jackson, the society’s treasurer, is quite a well-known travel writer and his wife Jean Jackson, who writes under the pseudonym Jenny Adams, is making quite a name for herself as a crime writer.

Alas, we have been unable to persuade Mark Hill, writer of several very successful novels about espionage, to join the society. He says that he is too busy with his writing and, in addition, he travels a lot. Still, we have quite enough members to have a successful society.

Brackets

Brackets, in common with a pair of **commas** or a pair of **dashes**, are used to enclose information that is in some way additional to a main statement. The information so enclosed is said to be **in parenthesis** and the pair of brackets enclosing it can be known as **parentheses**. The information that is enclosed in the brackets is purely supplementary or explanatory in nature and could be removed without changing the overall basic meaning or grammatical completeness of the statement.

Brackets, like **commas** and **dashes**, interrupt the flow of the main statement but **brackets** indicate a more definite or clear-cut interruption. The fact that they are more visually obvious emphasizes this. Material within **brackets** can be **one word**, as in the following sentences:

In a local wine bar we had some delicious crepes (*pancakes*)

and
They didn’t have the chutzpah (*nerve*) *to challenge her*.

Material within **brackets** can also take the form of **dates**, as in the following sentences:

Robert Louis Stevenson (*1850–94*) *wrote* Treasure Island.

and
Animal Farm *was written by George Orwell* (*1903–50*).

The material within **brackets** (see 1) can also take the form of a **phrase**, as in the following sentences:

They served lasagne (*a kind of pasta*) *and some delicious veal*.

and
They were drinking Calvados (*a kind of brandy made from apples*).

The material within **brackets** can also take the form of a **clause**, as in the following sentences:

We were to have supper (*or so they called it*) *later in the evening*.

and
They went for a walk round the loch (*as a lake is called in Scotland*) *before taking their departure*.

The material within **brackets** can also take the form of a **complete sentence**, as in the following sentences:

He was determined (*we don't know why*) *to tackle the problem alone*.

and
She made it clear (*nothing could be more clear*) *that she was not interested in the offer*.

Sentences that appear in brackets in the middle of a sentence are not usually given an initial capital letter or a full stop, as in the following sentence:

They very much desired (*she had no idea why*) *to purchase her house*.

If the material within **brackets** comes at the end of a sentence the full stop comes outside the second bracket, as in the following sentence:

For some reason we agreed to visit her at home (*we had no idea where she lived*).

If the material in **brackets** is a sentence which comes between two other sentences it is treated like a normal sentence with an initial capital letter and a closing full stop, as in the following sentences:

He never seems to do any studying. (*He is always either asleep or watching television*.) *Still, he does brilliantly in his exams*.

Punctuation of the main statement is unaffected by the presence of the brackets and their enclosed material, except that any punctuation that would have followed the word before the first bracket follows the second bracket, as in the following sentence:

He lives in London (*I am not sure exactly where*), *though his family live in France*.

There are various shapes of brackets. **Round brackets** are the most common type. **Square brackets** are sometimes used to enclose information that is contained inside other information already in brackets, as in the following sentence:

(Christopher Marlowe [1564–93] was a contemporary of Shakespeare).

Square brackets are also sometimes used to enclose information that is contained

in a piece of writing where round brackets have already been used for some other purpose. Thus, in a dictionary if round brackets are used to separate off the pronunciation, square brackets are sometimes used to separate off the etymologies.

Square brackets are also used for editorial comments in a scholarly work where the material within brackets consists of an editorial comment or expanation within a quotation by another author. They can also be used in scholarly writing to indicate words or phrases that have been altered by the author in a quotation by another writer.

Dash

The **dash** (see 1), written as **— (em dash**, used close up to text) or **– (en dash**, with a space on either side), takes the form of a short line, resembling an extended **hyphen (-)**. The dash indicates a short break in the continuity of a sentence or it is used to extend a sentence. It often serves the same purpose as **brackets** except that it is usually considered to be much less formal. The **dash** fulfils various functions, as explained below.

The **dash** can be used to emphasize a word or phrase, as in:

They parted company then—forever.

The **dash** can also be used to add a remark to the end of a sentence, as in:

They had no money at the end of the month—a regular state of affairs with this extravagant couple.

The **dash** can also be used to introduce a statement that adds to or explains what has been said, as in:

The burglar took everything of value—paintings, jewellery, silverware and several thousand pounds in money.

The **dash** can also be used as a linking device to sum up what has gone before, as in:

Famine, drought, disease—these are the seemingly insuperable problems that the villagers are facing.

The **dash** can also be used to introduce an afterthought, as in:

You can come with me if you like—I'd appreciate your company.

The **dash** can also be used to introduce a sharp change of subject, as in:

I'll be with you in a minute—what was that noise?

The **dash** can also be used to introduce some kind of balance in a sentence, as in:

It's going to take at least three of you to get this heavy table out of here—one at each end to carry it and one to hold the door open.

The **dash** is sometimes found as part of a pair. A pair of dashes can act in a similar way to a pair of round **brackets** (see 1). They can be used to indicate a break in continuity in a sentence, as in:

We prayed—prayed as we had never done before—that the children would be safe.
and (showing a spaced **en dash**)
We came to the conclusion – after due consideration – that we had done the wrong thing.

NB: Don't forget
When using a pair of dashes as a substitute for a pair of brackets do not forget to include the second dash. Its omission is a common fault.

The **dash** is also used to indicate a hesitation in speech, as in:

I don't think—well—maybe—you could be right.

The **dash** can also be used to indicate the omission of part of a word or name, as in:

The witness, who is being referred to by police simply as Mrs D—, has not yet come forward

and
It's none of your d— business.

In this last sentence *d—* is short for *damned* as a way of not writing a swear word in full. The **asterisk** is often used in this way.

The **en dash** can also be used as a replacement for the word *to*, as a connection between points in time or places, as in:

1850–1900 and *London–Paris*.

NB: Dashes—don't overuse
Be careful not to overuse the dash, especially in more formal pieces of writing. It is tempting to do so when another thought occurs to you as you write, but you can end up with rather an unattractive page peppered with these.

Semicolon

The semicolon as a link

The **semicolon** (**;**) is a rather formal form of punctuation. It is mainly used between clauses that are not joined by any form of conjunction, as in:

We had a wonderful holiday; sadly they did not.

and
He was a marvellous friend; he is much missed.

The part before the **semicolon** and the part after could both be sentences in their own right. The **semicolon** is used to show a closer link between the two parts of the sentence. It has the force of a strong comma. A **dash** (see 1) is sometimes used instead.

The semicolon as a separation device in lists

The **semicolon** is also used to separate the items in a long list or series of things so that the said list seems less complex and easier to understand, as in:

The young man who wants to be a journalist has applied everywhere. He has applied to The Times *in London;* The Globe *and* Mail *in Toronto;* The Age *in Melbourne;* The Tribune *in Chicago*.

It is also used in lists in which the individual items are quite long, as in:

We tried various ways to raise money. We approached the local bank manger; we asked the local council for a grant; we approached local businessmen for a contribution; and we organized various charity events.

The use of a **semicolon** in this situation resembles that of the **comma**, especially a particularly strong comma, except that the **semicolon** is more formal and it is more common in more complicated lists.

The semicolon as separation device in lists of word groups already containing commas

The **semicolon** is also used to separate items in a list which already contains a number of commas in the individual items in the list, as in:

Those guests present at the wedding included Mr and Mrs Brown and their daughters Mary, Jane and Sue; Mr and Mrs Lewis and their sons Tom, Frank and Jack; Miss Taylor and her nieces Liz, Carol and Meg; Ken, Mike and Mark Greene.

To use yet more commas to separate the list of items would cause confusion. Thus, the **semicolon** is used in such a context in the interests of clarity.

The semicolon as a separation device before certain adverbs

The **semicolon** is also sometimes used before such **adverbs** as *however*, *nevertheless*, *hence*, *moreover* and *furthermore* in such situations where a preceding pause is required but a pause that is longer and stronger than that which can be provided by a **comma**, as in:

We have extra seats for the concert; however you must decide right now whether you want them or not.

and

Your notice to quit takes effect immediately; furthermore, you will be escorted from the building and your personal belongings from your desk will be sent on to you.

Colon

The colon as a separating device in a two-part sentence

The **colon** (**:**) is a punctuation mark that is used to separate two parts of a sentence when the first leads on to the second. The **colon** is used to explain, interpret, clarify or amplify what has gone before it, as in: *The standard of school work here is extremely high: it is almost university standard*.

and
The fuel bills are giving cause for concern: they are almost double last year's.

and
We have some new information: the allies have landed.

The colon as a linking device or introduction

The **colon** is used to introduce a list, as in:

The recipe says we need: tomatoes, peppers, courgettes, garlic, oregano and basil.

and
The boy has a huge list of things he needs for school: blazer, trousers, shirts, sweater, ties, shoes, tennis shoes, rugby boots, sports clothes and leisure wear.

The **colon** is also used to introduce a quotation or a piece of direct speech, as in: *One of his favourite quotations was: 'If music be the food of love, play on'*.

and
The headmaster strode on to the platform, looking solemnly at the assembled students, and his statement was concise: 'I will not allow this kind of behaviour in my school.'

The **colon** is sometimes used with numerals in references to the time of day, the date and ratios, as in: *7:30 a.m*. and *22:11:72* and *7:3*.

The **colon** is often used in the titles of books, for example where there is a subtitle or explanatory title, as in *The Dark Years: the Economy in the 1930s*.

In informal writing, the **dash** is sometimes used instead of the **colon**. Indeed the dash tends to be overused for this purpose.

EXERCISES 9

1 Rewrite the following sentences, inserting **brackets** or a **bracket** where this is appropriate.

a *In the French restaurant we had ragout (actually just a stew, but tasting nicer than any stew I've ever had.*

b *We had quite a lot of wine with dinner and afterwards we had Armagnac a kind of French brandy).*

c *We arranged to meet in the large square (the Italians call it a piazza in the centre of the town.*

d *They say that they are planning to visit us in the fall as the Americans call autumn.*

e *He went away quite suddenly no one knows where or why) some years ago and has not been in touch with his family since.*

f *Both Oliver Twist and Bleak House were written by Charles Dickens 1812–70.*

g (*Vincent Van Gogh [1853–90 is one of Holland's most well-known painters.*

2 Rewrite the following sentences, inserting a **dash** or a **pair of dashes** where this is appropriate.

a *You can come to the dinner as my partner I'd like that very much.*

b *I'm just going now what did I do with my car keys?*

c *The drunk driver said to the police that where he was going was none of their d business.*

d *We begged our captors begged them on bended knee to release us.*

e *Christopher Marlowe (1564 93) was a contemporary of Shakespeare.*

f *Wealth, power, status these were the things which he craved all his life and totally failed to achieve.*

g *We were awoken at dawn by the noisy barking of the dog next door a regular occurrence these days.*

h *I'm just about to serve dinner was that the doorbell?*

3 Rewrite the following sentences, inserting a **semi-colon** where this is appropriate.

a *Their best player has moved to another team he will be greatly missed.*

b *We did our very best to save the old building from demolition. We sent a letter of protest to the council we sought the help of our local MP we launched a protest campaign we collected hundreds of signatures from fellow objectors and we held demonstrations outside the town hall.*

c *The members of the choir had all practised very hard before the competition sadly they came last.*

d *We visited many historical sites in Britain. We went to the Tower of London the Houses of Parliament in London some of the colleges at Oxford Durham Cathedral the historical cities of Chester and York.*

4

Rewrite the following sentences, inserting a **colon** where this is appropriate.

a *Economists are worried about house prices they are falling rapidly.*

b *I've packed a picnic lunch for us French bread, cheese, tomatoes, salad, grapes, apples, chocolate, white wine and mineral water. Can you think of anything else?*

c *They have just released the name of the new head teacher James Hunt, presently the deputy head.*

d *The title of the book is The Years of Conflict a Reassessment of the Two World*

Wars.

ANSWERS 9

1

a *In the French restaurant we had ragout (actually just a stew, but tasting nicer than any stew I've ever had).*

b *We had quite a lot of wine with dinner and afterwards we had Armagnac (a kind of French brandy).*

c *We arranged to meet in the large square (the Italians call it a piazza) in the centre of the town.*

d *They say that they are planning to visit us in the fall (as the Americans call autumn).*

e *He went away quite suddenly (no one knows where or why) some years ago and has not been in touch with his family since.*

f *Both Oliver Twist and Bleak House were written by Charles Dickens (1812–70).*

g *(Vincent van Gogh [1853–90] is one of Holland's most well-known painters.)*

2

a *You can come to the dinner as my partner—I'd like that very much.*

b *I'm just going now—what did I do with my car keys?*

c *The drunk driver said to the police that where he was going was none of their d— business.*

d *We begged our captors—begged them on bended knee—to release us.*

e *Christopher Marlowe (1564–93) was a contemporary of Shakespeare.*

f *Wealth, power, status—these were the things which he craved all his life and totally failed to achieve.*

g *We were awoken at dawn by the noisy barking of the dog next door—a regular occurrence these days.*

h *I'm just about to serve dinner—was that the doorbell?*

3

a *Their best player has moved to another team; he will be greatly missed.*

b *We did our very best to save the old building from demolition. We sent a letter of protest to the council; we sought the help of our local MP; we launched a protest campaign; we collected hundreds of signatures from fellow objectors; and we held demonstrations outside the town hall.*

c *The members of the choir had all practised very hard before the competition; sadly they came last.*

d *We visited many historical sites in Britain. We went to the Tower of London; the Houses of Parliament in London; some of the colleges at Oxford; Durham Cathedral; the historical cities of Chester and York.*

4

a *Economists are worried about house prices: they are falling rapidly.*

b *I've packed a picnic lunch for us: French bread, cheese, tomatoes, salad, grapes, apples, chocolate, white wine and mineral water. Can you think of anything else?*

c *They have just released the name of the new head teacher: James Hunt, presently the deputy head.*

d *The title of the book is* The Years of Conflict: a Reassessment of the Two World Wars.

Hyphen

A **hyphen (-)** is used to join two words together or to indicate that a word has been broken at the end of a line because of lack of space. It is used in a variety of situations.

The **hyphen** is used as the prefixed element in a proper noun, as in *pre-Christian, post-Renaissance, anti-British, anti-Semitic, pro-French* and *pro-American*.

The **hyphen** is also used in this way before dates or numbers, as in *pre-1914, pre-1066, post-1920, post-1745*.

It is also used in this way before abbreviations such as *pro-BBC, anti-EU* and *anti-TUC*.

The **hyphen** is sometimes used for clarification and to avoid confusion. Some words are ambiguous without the presence of a hyphen. For example, *recover*, as in *recover a chair*, is spelt with a hyphen to differentiate it from *recover*, as in *The accident victim is likely to recover*. Similarly, it is used in *re-form*, meaning 'to form again', as in *They have decided to re-form the society which closed last year* to differentiate the word from *reform*, meaning 'to improve, to become better behaved', as in *He was wild as a young man but he has reformed now*.

The **hyphen** was formerly used to separate a prefix from the main element of a word if the main element begins with a vowel, as in *preeminent*, but there is a growing tendency in modern usage to omit the hyphen in such cases. At the moment both *preeminent* and *preeminent* are found.

However, if the omission of the hyphen results in double *i*, the hyphen is usually retained, as in *anti-inflationary* and *semi-insulated*.

The **hyphen** was formerly used in words formed with the prefix *non-*, such as *nonfunctional, non-political, non-flammable* and *nonpollutant*.

However, there is a growing tendency to omit the hyphen in such cases, as in *nonfunctional* and *nonpollutant*. At the moment both forms of such words are common.

The **hyphen** is usually used with the prefix *ex-* in the sense of 'former', as in *ex-*

wife and *ex-president*.

The **hyphen** is usually used when *self-* is prefixed to words, such as *self-styled*, *self-starter* and *self-evident*.

Use or non-use of the **hyphen** is often a matter of choice, house style of a particular organization, or frequency of usage, as in *drawing-room* or *drawing room*, and *dining-room* or *dining room*.

There is a modern tendency to punctuate more lightly than was formerly the case and so, in modern usage, use of the hyphen in such expressions is less frequent.

The **hyphen** is always used in some fixed compounds of two or three words or more, such as *son-in-law*, *good-for-nothing* and *devil-may-care*.

NB: To include or omit?
The length of compounds often affects the inclusion or omission of the **hyphen**.

Compounds of two short elements that are well-established words tend not to be hyphenated, as in:

bedroom and *toothbrush*.

Compound words with longer elements are more likely to be hyphenated, as in:

engine-driver and *carpet-layer*.

The **hyphen** is sometimes used in some compounds formed from **phrasal verbs** (see 2) and sometimes not. Thus both *takeover* and *takeover* are common, and *run-up* and *runup* are both common. Again the use of the hyphen is a matter of choice.

However, some words formed from phrasal verbs are usually spelt without a hyphen, as in *breakthrough*.

The **hyphen** is usually used in compound adjectives consisting of two elements, the second of which ends in *-ed*, such as *heavy-hearted*, *fair-haired*, *fair-minded* and *long-legged*.

The **hyphen** is usually used in compound adjectives when they are used before

nouns, such as *gas-fired central heating*, *oil-based paints*, *solar-heated buildings* and *chocolate-coated biscuits*.

The **hyphen** is usually used in compounds containing certain adverbs, sometimes to avoid ambiguity, as in *his best-known opera*, *an ill-considered venture* and *a half-planned scheme*.

The **hyphen** is generally not used in adjectives and participles preceded by an adverb if the adverb ends in *-ly*, as in *a highly talented singer*, *neatly pressed clothes* and *beautifully dressed young women*.

The **hyphen** is used in compound numerals from 21 to 99 when they are written in full, as in *thirty-five gallons*, *forty-four years*, *sixty-seven miles* and *two hundred and forty-five miles*. Compound numbers such as *three hundred* and *two thousand* are not hyphenated.

The **hyphen** is used in fractions, such as *three-quarters*, *two-thirds* and *seven-eighths*.

The **hyphen** is also used in such number phrases as *a seventeenth-century play*, *a sixteenth-century church*, *a five-gallon bucket*, *a five-year contract* and *a third-year student*.

NB: Repeated hyphenated elements
In the case of two or more compound hyphenated adjectives with the same second element qualifying the same noun, the common element need not be repeated but the **hyphen** should be, as in *two-and three-bedroom houses* and *long-and short-haired dogs*.

The hyphen in word-breaks

The other use of **hyphens** is to break words at the ends of lines. Formerly, people were more careful about where they broke words. Previously, words were broken up according to etymological principles, but there is a growing tendency to break words according to how they are pronounced or just where it seems convenient.

Some dictionaries or spelling dictionaries give help with the division and hyphenation of individual words and, if you are in doubt, you should consult one

of these.

NB: Where to break

Generally speaking, one-syllable words should not be divided and words should not be broken after the first letter of a word or before the last letter.

Also, care should be taken not to break up words, for example by forming elements that are words in their own right, in such a way as to mislead the reader. Thus divisions such as ‘the-rapist’ and ‘mans-laughter’ should be avoided.

EXERCISES 10

Rewrite the following sentences, inserting a **hyphen** where this is appropriate.

1 *The candidate is very proBritish and incredibly antiEuropean.*
2 *The remains are known to be preChristian.*
3 *There were a great many elegantly dressed women at the wedding.*
4 *He is an excellent after dinner speaker and is in much demand.*
5 *He was the most highly qualified and talented of all the candidates for the post.*
6 *We are seeking a strict, but fair minded, judge for the talent competition.*
7 *The child is using water based paints.*
8 *We have a gas fired central heating system.*
9 *The glass is two thirds full.*
10 *It was a distance of three hundred miles.*
11 *They walked forty five miles across a bleak terrain.*
12 *There are still two and three bedroom flats for sale in the complex.*
13 *The vase cost two hundred and fifty five pounds.*
14 *The previous manager had a very heavy handed approach to dealing with employees' problems.*
15 *It is a rough haired breed of dog.*
16 *He is a good for nothing who has never done a day's work in his life.*
17 *Red haired girls often look marvellous in green.*
18 *I think I'll have one of those cream covered cakes.*
19 *Fair skinned people burn easily in the sun.*
20 *Her father in law has just died and she is helping with the funeral arrangements.*
21 *He gave a lecture to second year students.*
22 *The sixteenth century church in the village is badly in need of repair.*
23 *The members of the hotel staff are always immaculately dressed.*
24 *We are currently putting together a five year plan for the company.*
25 *She is two thirds of the way through her art course.*

ANSWERS 10

1 *The candidate is very proBritish and incredibly antiEuropean.*
2 *The remains are known to be preChristian.*
3 *There were a great many elegantly dressed women at the wedding.*
4 *He is an excellent after-dinner speaker and is in much demand.*
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23 *The members of the hotel staff are always immaculately dressed.*
24 *We are currently putting together a five-year plan for the company.*
25 *She is two-thirds of the way through her art course.*

Quotation marks

Quotation marks and direct speech

Quotation marks (**‘** . . . **’** or **“** . . . **”**), also known as **inverted commas**, are used to enclose material that is part of **direct speech**. **Direct speech** is a term used to describe the reporting of speech by repeating exactly the actual words used by the speaker, as in the following example:

Peter said, ‘I am tired of this.’

‘I am tired of this.’ is a piece of **direct speech**. Similarly in the following example:

Jane asked, ‘Where are you going?’

‘Where are you going?’ is a piece of **direct speech**.

Quotation marks are used at the beginning and end of pieces of **direct speech**. Only the words actually spoken are placed within the quotation marks, as in *‘If I were you,’ he said, ‘I would refuse to go.’*

The **quotation marks** involved can be either **single** (*‘ . . . ’)* or **double** (*“ . . . ”)* according to preference or house style. Be sure to be consistent in your use of either single or double **quotation marks**.

If there is a statement such as *he said* following the piece of **direct speech**, a **comma** is placed before the **second** inverted comma, as in *‘Come along,’ he said*. If the piece of direct speech is a **question** or **exclamation**, a **question mark** or **exclamation mark** is put instead of the **comma**, as in:

‘What are you doing?’ asked John

and
‘Get away from me!’ she screamed.

If a statement such as *he said* is placed within a sentence in **direct speech**, a **comma** is placed after *he said* and the second part of the piece of direct speech does *not* begin with a capital letter, as in:

‘I know very well,’ he said, ‘that you do not like me.’

If the piece of **direct speech** includes a complete sentence, the sentence begins with a **capital letter**, as in:

‘I am going away,’ she said, ‘and I am not coming back. Really, I don’t feel that I belong here anymore.’

NB: Before or after?
The full stop at the end of a piece of direct speech that is a sentence should go before the closing inverted comma.

Quotation marks and paragraphs

If the piece of **direct speech** quoted takes up more than one **paragraph**, **quotation marks** are placed at the beginning of each new **paragraph**. However, **quotation marks** are not placed at the end of each **paragraph**, just at the end of the final one.

Quotation marks and dialogue

When writing a story, etc, that includes dialogue or conversation, each new piece of direct speech should begin on a new line or sometimes in a new paragraph.

Other uses of quotation marks

Quotation marks are not used only to indicate direct speech. They have other uses.

Quotation marks and titles

Quotation marks are sometimes used to indicate the title of a book or newspaper. The **quotation marks** used in this way can be either **single** or **double**, according to individual preference or according to the house style of a particular organization.

If a piece of direct speech contains the title of a book, newspaper, poem, song, etc, it should be put in the opposite type of quotation marks to those used to enclose the piece of direct speech. Thus, if **single quotation marks** have been used in the **direct speech**, then **double quotation marks** should be used for the **title** within the direct speech, as in:

'Have you read "Animal Farm" by George Orwell?' the teacher asked.

If **double quotation marks** have been used for the **direct speech**, **single quotation marks** should be used for the **title**, as in:

"Have you read 'Animal Farm' by George Orwell?" the teacher asked.

Quotation marks and a direct quotation

When a piece of writing includes a **direct quotation** from another book, piece of text, or speaker, the words which are quoted are contained within quotation marks, either single or double, according to individual preference or house style, as in:

In his report the marketing director refers to the new product as 'a technological miracle'.

and
In his autobiography Brian refers to that part of his life as 'a terrible living nightmare' and his sister confirms that that was the case.

If the quotation from another piece of text or speaker is fairly long it is often set out below on the page and indented without quotation marks, as in:

The victim of the attack gave the following statement to the police:

> *It was pitch dark and I was attacked from behind. I had no opportunity to see my assailant and, therefore, I could not possibly identify him, if, indeed, it was a man. I suppose it could have been a woman. At any rate, I was hit over the head by something heavy and I knew nothing more till I woke up lying on the ground with a very sore head. My wallet and watch had gone*.

Sometimes writers use **quotation marks** round a word or words to indicate that this expression is not their own or not one that they would have chosen to use, as in:

The 'exclusive hotel' we stayed in was far from comfortable.

Sometimes the word *so-called* is also included, as in:

The so-called 'exclusive hotel' we stayed in was far from comfortable.

However, either the quotation marks or the word *so-called* will suffice on their own. You do not need to use both.

NB: Titles
Often, **titles** are put in **italic type** instead of **quotation marks**. This avoids the clumsiness that can occur when both sets of quotation marks end on the same word, as in

The pupil replied, 'No, I have not read *Animal Farm*.'

EXERCISES 11

1 Rewrite the following conversations, inserting **quotation marks** where this is appropriate.

a

What time is it? asked Mike.
It's nearly 11 o'clock, replied John.
I'd better leave soon, said Mike, because I don't want to be too late home.
If you leave now, said Bill, you'll be in time to catch the last bus.
Good idea! exclaimed Mike, getting up to leave.

b

Mary said, I know that I can't really afford a new dress, but I don't have anything suitable to wear to Sally's wedding.
I bought a new outfit for my cousin's wedding earlier this year, said Lucy, and I've not worn it since. You are welcome to borrow it if you want.
That's very kind of you, said Mary, and we're much the same size. Could I come over to your flat and try it on?
Sure! replied Lucy. Let me know when you want to come. I'll be in most evenings this week.

c

I'm reading Bleak House at the moment. Have you read it? asked Sue.
No, replied Jack, I haven't, but I've read quite a lot of novels by Dickens.
What's your favourite? asked Sue.
I think I like David Copperfield and Hard Times best, said Jack, but I'm fond of A Tale of Two Cities as well.
Do you have a favourite, Sue?
Sue replied, Yes, I do. It's Great Expectations, without a doubt.

2 Rewrite the following sentences, inserting **quotation marks** where this is

appropriate.

a *The organization's new computer system was hailed by the designers as a triumph for modern technology, but it broke down at least three times a week, on average.*

b *The released hostage described the conditions which he experienced as a hostage as hell on earth.*

c *The so-called home from home turned out to be a damp, cold, run-down cottage in the middle of nowhere.*

d *The accommodation in the exclusive luxury hotel was very basic and the food that was served was appalling and virtually inedible.*

ANSWERS 11

1

a

'What time is it?' asked Mike.
'It's nearly 11 o'clock,' replied John.
'I'd better leave soon,' said Mike, 'because I don't want to be too late home.'
'If you leave now,' said Bill, 'you'll be in time to catch the last bus.'
'Good idea!' exclaimed Mike, getting up to leave.

b

Mary said, 'I know that I can't really afford a new dress, but I don't have anything suitable to wear to Sally's wedding.'
'I bought a new outfit for my cousin's wedding earlier this year,' said Lucy, 'and I've not worn it since. You are welcome to borrow it if you want.'
'That's very kind of you,' said Mary, 'and we're much the same size. Could I come over to your flat and try it on?'

‘Sure!’ replied Lucy. ‘Let me know when you want to come. I’ll be in most evenings this week.’

c

‘I’m reading “Bleak House” at the moment. Have you read it?’ asked Sue.
‘No,’ replied Jack, ‘I haven’t, but I’ve read quite a lot of novels by Dickens.’
‘What’s your favourite?’ asked Sue.
‘I think I like “David Copperfield” and “Hard Times” best,’ said Jack, ‘but I’m fond of “A Tale of Two Cities” as well. Do you have a favourite, Sue?’
Sue replied, ‘Yes, I do. It’s “Great Expectations”, without a doubt.’

2

a *The organization’s new computer system was hailed by the designers as ‘a triumph of modern technology’, but it broke down at least three times a week, on average.*

b *The released hostage described the conditions which he experienced as a hostage as ‘hell on earth’.*

c *The so-called home from home turned out to be a damp, cold, run-down cottage in the middle of nowhere.*

d *The accommodation in the ‘exclusive luxury hotel’ was very basic and the food that was served was appalling and virtually inedible.*

Other punctuation marks

Apostrophe

An **apostrophe** (**’**) is used with the letter *s* to indicate that something belongs to someone or something. In other words it is used to indicate **possession**.

Many errors centre on the position of the apostrophe in relation to the letter *s*.

A **singular noun** usually indicates possession by adding *’s* (**apostrophe s**) to the singular form as in *the girl’s mother*, *Peter’s car*, *the company’s policy*, *the town’s pride and joy*.

A **plural noun** usually indicates possession by adding **s’** (**s apostrophe**) to the plural form ending in *s*, as in *all the teachers’ cars*, *many parents’ attitude to discipline*, and by adding *’s* to irregular plural nouns that do not end in *s*, as in *women’s shoes*.

In the **possessive form** of a **name** or **singular noun** that ends in *s*, *x* or *z*, the apostrophe may or may not be followed by *s*. In words of one syllable the final *s* is usually added, as in *James’s house*, *the fox’s lair*, *Roz’s dress*.

The final *s* is most frequently omitted in names, particularly in names of three or more syllables, as in *Euripides’ plays*. In many cases the presence or absence of the final *s* is a matter of convention.

The **apostrophe** is also used to indicate omitted letters in contracted forms of words, such as *can’t* and *you’ve*. They are sometimes used to indicate missing century numbers in dates, as the *’60s* and *’70s*, but are not used at the end of decades, etc, as in *1960s*, not *1960’s*.

Generally, **apostrophes** are no longer used to indicate omitted letters in shortened forms that are in common use such as *’phone* and *’flu*, now used simply as *phone* and *flu*.

Apostrophes are often omitted **wrongly** in modern usage, particularly in the media and by advertisers, as in *womens hairdressers*, *childrens helpings*. This is partly because people are unsure about when to use them and when not to use them, and partly because of a modern tendency to punctuate as little as possible.

Apostrophes, on the other hand, are also frequently used **wrongly** nowadays as in *potato's for sale* and *Beware of the dog's*. Again, this is because people are unsure about when, and when not, to use them.

NB: Its and It's
Its is an exception to the possession rule which sometimes causes confusion. When used to indicate possession (*its fault*, *its engine*, *its environment*) **its** has no apostrophe.

It is only when used as a contraction that an apostrophe is added (***it's*** *cold*, ***it's*** *raining*, ***it's*** *still morning*). Similarly, possessive pronouns that end in an *s* never take an apostrophe (*yours*, *hers*, *ours*, *theirs)*.

Asterisk

The **asterisk** (*****) is commonly used to direct the reader's attention from a particular word or piece of text to a footnote or to another part of the text. The asterisk is placed after the relevant word or piece of text.
The **asterisk** is often used to replace a letter. The **asterisk** is usually one of a series and such a series is often found as a substitute for letters that would make up a word that would cause offence in some way, often swear words, as in: *I can't open this b****y tin*
The asterisks replace the letters *l o o d*. When the letters are used instead of the asterisks the swear word *bloody* is formed.

Three-dot ellipsis

The **three-dot ellipsis** (...)is used to indicate missing material. This missing material may be one word, as in the sentence *I told you to get the ... out of here* where the missing word is the swear word *hell*.

The missing material may be several words or a longer piece of text. For example, the **three-dot ellipsis** may be used to replace part of a quotation, proverb, etc, as in: *Ah well you know, the moving finger writes ...* (where *and, having writ, moves on* is omitted) and

You know what they say. A stitch in time ... (where *saves nine* is omitted).

It can also be used to indicate an unfinished thought or statement, as in: *We might win handsomely; on the other hand ...*

Sometimes a **dash** is used in the above cases.

Oblique

The **oblique** (/) is a diagonal mark that has various uses. Its principal use is to show alternatives, as in: *he/she*

Dear Sir/Madam
two-/three-room flat.

The **oblique** is also used in some abbreviations, as in: *c/o Smith* (meaning *care of Smith*)

An **oblique** is sometimes used instead of the word *per*, as in: *60km/h* (60 kilometres per hour).

EXERCISES 12

1 Rewrite the following sentences, inserting **apostrophes** where this is appropriate.

a *I cant remember his phone number and I dont know his address.*

b *Youll soon find out that youve made the wrong decision.*

c *Wed missed the train and there wasnt another one for several hours.*

d *Its amazing to think that they've known each other since the 60s.*

e *Its an interesting idea, but we need to consider its advantages and disadvantages.*

2 Rewrite the following phrases, inserting an **apostrophe** where this is appropriate.

my mothers house
admiring her new kitchens modern facilities that streets convenient location
his two aunts wise advice
the only local schools role in the community that sites most obvious disadvantage
Jacks main objection
mens outdoor clothes
stylish womens hairdressers
a lack of childrens nurseries in the area Jamess victory over the rest of the competitors consider all the travel agents best deals the foxs bushy tail
Rozs beautiful wedding dress
the potatos long-lasting culinary appeal potatoes for sale here
the last centurys most significant contributions to industry all vegetables drastically reduced
its universal appeal.

ANSWERS 12

1

a *I can't remember his phone number and I don't know his address.*

b *You'll soon find out that you've made the wrong decision.*

c *We'd missed the train and there wasn't another one for several hours.*

d *It's amazing to think that they've known each other since the '60s.*

e *It's an interesting idea, but we need to consider its advantages and disadvantages.*

2

my mother's house
admiring her new kitchen's modern facilities that street's convenient location
his two aunts' wise advice
the only local school's role in the community that site's most obvious disadvantage Jack's main objection
men's outdoor clothes
stylish women's hairdressers
a lack of children's nurseries in the area James's victory over the rest of the competitors consider all the travel agents' best deals the fox's bushy tail
Roz's beautiful wedding dress
the potato's long-lasting culinary appeal potatoes for sale here
the last century's most significant contributions to industry all vegetables drastically reduced
its universal appeal.

DEVELOPING YOUR OWN STYLE

STYLE

There is, of course, more to good English than a knowledge of correct grammar and correct usage. **Style** is also an important issue.

Style with regard to language, as is the case with style with regard to other things such as dress, refers to a characteristic, personal way of doing things. Most famous writers have a distinctive way of writing. We cannot all become famous writers but we can all improve, to some extent, our personal writing style.

In much of what we write in our day-to-day lives clarity and comprehensibility are extremely important and good grammar has a big role to play in this. However, they are not the only things to be considered if you want to improve your English writing.

For example, if all you want to do is to get your message across then you can write or speak in simple sentences with very simple words. (In grammatical terms a simple sentence is a sentence which consists of one main clause (see 2)). However, this approach can become very monotonous and boring.

In this section we consider some of the ways you can make what you are writing or saying more interesting and more stylish, from the length and structure of your sentences to the vocabulary you choose to use.

Sentence style

Sentence length

One of the easiest ways of introducing variety in your writing is to vary the length of your sentences. A piece of writing that contains sentences of varying length is more likely to capture and retain your reader's attention. From your own point of view as the writer, it is much more interesting and enjoyable to write a piece of prose that contains a variety of lengths of sentence.

The occasional long sentence is quite permissible, provided that it remains clear and unambiguous. You should avoid using too many of these, and you should avoid altogether long sentences which are unnecessarily complicated. These are inclined to confuse readers, or even to make them stop reading the writing in question altogether, because they cannot easily follow what is being said. Thus, sentences like the following should be avoided and should be broken up into shorter ones: *As it was a long trip from our house to my parents' farm, where we were going to celebrate my father's sixtieth birthday, which is on June 20, we decided to break our journey halfway at a hotel which had been recommended by my Aunt Mary, who regularly makes the same journey, and whose judgement we trust because she is an experienced traveller, who is usually quite critical of hotels and restaurants that she encounters when she is travelling*.

It has been pointed out above that a piece of writing composed entirely of very short simple sentences can be monotonous and boring. This is the case in the following piece of prose: *I sat my English exam today. It was very difficult. I did badly. I think I will fail. I am dreading getting the results. My parents are going to be very angry. They told me to study harder. I did not. I played football instead. I got into the school team. My parents do not care about that. They want*

me to go to university. They both did. I do not really want to go. I do not like studying. I am not clever.

However, the occasional very short sentence in a piece of writing with longer sentences can be very effective, as in the passage below. They signify to the reader that something important has happened, thus making the reader pay more attention, and they can make a situation sound more dramatic and so more interesting. The two short sentences in the passage are in bold type.

It was a beautiful day when we started out on our walk. Since there was not a cloud in the sky, and the sun was shining very brightly, we were all wearing light summer clothes. As we had decided to take a picnic, we started, around lunch time, to look for a picturesque spot from which we could admire the view as we ate. Having found the ideal spot, we unpacked all the food and made ourselves comfortable on a blanket, looking forward to basking in the sun. ***How wrong we were!*** *A few clouds had gathered when we were concentrating on finding the right spot and the sky had darkened. Now the heavens opened and the rain poured down.* ***We got soaked****.*

The middle way

Most sentences in a piece of prose are likely to lie somewhere between the very long and the very short. They are likely to consist of several **clauses.** Extensive information on the various kinds of **clause**(see 2) is given earlier in the book.

Sentence structure

You can also introduce variety into your writing and formal speech by varying the number of **clauses** in your sentences, by varying the **types** of clause which you use, and by varying the **position** of clauses in your sentences. In order to achieve such variation you should make yourself familiar with the information on **clauses** and **sentences** given earlier in the grammar section of the book. Then

experiment with this information to achieve variety in your writing and formal speech.

Compound sentences

Writing or speaking only in **compound sentences** connected by **coordinating conjunctions** (see 4, 5) can be just as monotonous as simple sentences.

If you are aiming for variety and a degree of stylishness avoid a piece of prose like the following: *My daughters are twins and they usually like the same things. They wear the same clothes and they have the same hair styles. They both like music, but Sue likes to sing and Jane likes to dance. They are both learning to play musical instruments, but Jane plays the piano and Sue plays the violin. They both play in the school orchestra and they will both be playing in the end-of-term concert. It takes place next month and most of the members of our family will be there, but my parents will be overseas and so will be unable to attend . . .*

Complex sentences

Introduce some **complex sentences** with **subordinating conjunctions** (see 1) to create some variety in your work. There is a wide range of conjunctions for you to choose from and a wide range of information given as guidance in the relevant section of this book.

Thus, instead of writing

It was raining and we played indoors.

you can write

Because it was raining we played indoors.

or

Since it was raining we played indoors.

Instead of writing

She worked hard but she failed the exam.

you can write

Although she worked hard, she failed the exam or

Even though she worked hard she failed the exam.

Instead of writing

I met him at Jane's party and disliked him instantly.

you can write

When I met him at a party I disliked him instantly.

or

As soon as I met him at Jane's party I disliked him.

Alternatively, you can use a **participial phrase** (see 1) instead of a clause.

Thus, you can write

Having arrived at our hotel, *we unpacked and went for a walk* instead of

When we arrived at our hotel we unpacked and went for a walk.

Vocabulary

Your choice of **vocabulary** can also greatly influence your style of writing and speaking.

Vocabulary refers to the stock of words that a language is made up of. The English language is made up of a huge number of words, although most educated native speakers of English are likely to have in their own personal stock of words only a fraction of this number. Furthermore, they are likely to use a relatively small number of this personal stock of words in their day-to-day communication.

Active and passive vocabulary

The words that a person is likely to use confidently and regularly are known collectively as that person's **active vocabulary**. The opposite of this is **passive vocabulary**. This consists of the words whose meanings a person knows, although they would not usually use them in the course of their ordinary conversation and writing.

People who are keen to improve their English should try to improve the range of their vocabulary. They may need relatively few words to make themselves understood, but, although comprehensibility is extremely important in speaking and writing, it is not the only issue. If you wish to make your speech or writing more interesting and more stylish you need to introduce a degree of variation into your vocabulary and so improve your word power.

Increasing your word power

How is this to be achieved? There is very little point in simply learning lists of words, perhaps from a dictionary, because things learned in this way tend not to stick in the memory very well. Also, you need to see words in actual use in order

to know how you yourself should use them.

Reading can extend your vocabulary quite considerably and this should not be confined to the works of the acknowledged great writers in English. There is a wide range of reading matter available and you should take full advantage of this. Newspapers, for example, can be a useful source of words as well as news. A word of warning, however. Try not to be too much influenced by the level of slang that you may find in some articles in some of the tabloids.

Listening to English radio programmes can also be useful, especially those that concentrate more on talk than music. Television, too, especially 'serious' programmes such as documentaries and those that are concerned with news, current affairs, politics, the arts etc, can also be a useful contributor to your vocabulary stock. Even just talking to and listening to people can be extremely valuable in your attempt to increase your vocabulary.

Dictionaries and thesauruses

To some extent, some language reference books can help improve your word power. In general a thesaurus is more helpful than a dictionary in this respect. A dictionary is a valuable tool when you want to know the meaning of a word, or how to pronounce it, or when you want to find out the origin of a word.

Some of them also supply notes which provide useful advice on usage. Even more useful guidance on usage is provided by those dictionaries which provide example sentences and phrases showing the defined words in action. The dictionaries most likely to provide such example sentences and phrases are those designed for use by learners of English as a foreign or second language.

You are likely to find a thesaurus more helpful than a dictionary in your attempt to increase the extent of your vocabulary. In English, there are two kinds of thesaurus. One type is arranged according to **theme** and the other is, more or less, a dictionary of **synonyms**.

The first thesaurus, published in Britain in 1852, is known as *Roget's*

Thesaurus, after its compiler, Peter Mark Roget. It is arranged according to theme. For example, all the words, whatever their part of speech, and all the phrases relating to *fear* are included in the same section and are followed by the words and phrases relating to the opposite of fear, *courage*. Thus we find such nouns as *fright*, *terror* and *panic* and *alarmist*, *scaremonger* and *terrorist* together with adjectives such as *afraid*, *frightened*, *panic-stricken* and verbs such as *take fright*, *be petrified*, *alarm*, *intimidate* in the same section. There, too, are phrases such as *make one's blood run cold* and *make one's hair stand on end*.

Roget's Thesaurus is an extremely valuable reference book but it is a very sophisticated one and it can be quite difficult to use until you become familiar with it. There are other thesauruses, also arranged according to theme in the manner of *Roget's Thesaurus*, but slightly easier to use. Like Roget, they tend to be most useful when you want to write about a particular topic and are seeking the range of vocabulary associated with that topic.

If you want, for example, to avoid repeating a particular word, although you want a word with the same meaning, you will probably find it easier to use the kind of thesaurus which is, in effect, a dictionary of synonyms. (The word *synonym* means a word that has more or less the same meaning as a particular word.)

If, for example, you want to avoid using an overused adjective, such as *nice* or *good*, a synonym-style thesaurus will provide you with a selection of appropriate alternatives. The more helpful of these will have numbered the various meanings of a particular word *and* will have provided example sentences or phrases.

Thus, instead of writing:

*It was a **nice** day yesterday and we decided to go for a drive in the country. We drove through some **nice** scenery and stopped for a really **nice** meal in a restaurant which was run by two very **nice** people. It's a long time since I had such a **nice** day out.*

With the help of a thesaurus you could avoid overusing *nice* and write, for example:

*It was a **sunny** day yesterday and we decided to go for a drive in the country. We drove through some **attractive** scenery and stopped for a really **delicious** meal in a restaurant which was run by two very **agreeable** people. It's a long time since I had such an **enjoyable** day out.*

Likewise, instead of writing:

*My **good** friend Jim is planning to visit us at the end of this month. It is a **good** time for him to come and see us as I am going to be on holiday from work for a **good** two weeks during his visit and we usually have **good** weather at this time of year. It is not the usual holiday season, but I have a **good** reason for taking a break as I have been working a great deal of overtime. I am quite glad that the children are not going to be on holiday because, although they are usually very **good**, they probably would not sit quietly to listen to Jim's stories. He is **a good** conversationalist and has led an interesting life. A very **good** engineer, he has had several very **good** jobs in many parts of the world and loves to talk about his experiences. I cannot wait for him to get here and tell me about them.*

With the help of a thesaurus you could avoid overusing *good* and write, for example:

*My **close** friend Jim is planning to visit us at the end of this month. It is a **convenient** time for him to come and see us as I am going to be on holiday from work for a **full** two weeks during his visit and we usually have **fine** weather at this time of year. It is not the usual holiday season but I have a **valid** reason for taking a break as I have been working a great deal of overtime. I am quite glad that the children are not going to be on holiday because, although they are usually very **well-behaved**, they probably would not sit quietly to listen to Jim's stories. He is an **excellent** conversationalist and has led an interesting life. A very **competent** engineer, he has had several very **interesting** jobs in many parts*

of the world and loves to talk about his experiences. I cannot wait for him to get here and tell me about them.

These are very simple examples, but they illustrate how you can introduce variation into your vocabulary, perhaps with a little help from a reference book.

Register

When deciding on the vocabulary for your piece of writing or speech you must be careful that you do not use very informal words in a piece of very formal writing or speech, such as a company report. Conversely, you must be careful not to use very formal words in a piece of very informal writing or speech.

The aspect of language that refers to formality and informality is called **register**. It refers to language of a type that is used in a particular social situation. Formal language should be used in formal social situations and informal language in informal situations. Many dictionaries, particularly those specially designed for use by learners of English as a foreign or second language, will often indicate which words are formal and which are informal.

Language formality can be seen as a kind of scale. It starts with the very formal language of formal invitations and legal documents and ends with the slang of much of today's speech. Much of today's written language comes in the middle of the scale. It is neither very formal nor very informal.

People producing written material have much more time than people who are producing instantaneous spoken material in which to choose the exact word they are looking for. Of course, they also have the opportunity to consult thesauruses and dictionaries. This has the result that written English often contains much more innovative and formal vocabulary than the spoken version, unless, of course, the spoken English takes the form of a prepared speech which is to be read aloud.

Keep it simple

There is a danger in having a great deal of time in which to prepare a piece of writing or a speech. You can be faced with the temptation to try to impress people by selecting very difficult words, rather than using those words that come naturally. Although it is a good idea to introduce some variety into your vocabulary, you should resist the temptation to seek out very difficult or pompous-sounding words. This will simply bore your readers or listeners. You will not keep their attention if you are using a great many unnecessarily difficult words which they do not understand.

You should also avoid using a large number of words where a few would be perfectly adequate. If you are too wordy or verbose you are, again, likely to bore, or even confuse, your readers or listeners. Again, you are unlikely to hold their attention.

Adding variety

You can add variety to the vocabulary of writing and so improve your personal style by the careful use of figures of speech such as similes. A **figure of speech** is is a word or phrase that departs from everyday literal language for the sake of comparison, emphasis, clarity or freshness.

A **simile** is a figure of speech in which a thing or person is, for the sake of comparison, said to be *like* another and most include the words *like* or *as*. Examples of similes include:

as calm as a millpond
as cool as a cucumber
as helpless as a babe in arms
as keen as mustard
as neat as a new pin
as poor as a church mouse
as silent as the grave

Another figure of speech found in English writing is the **metaphor**. Like a simile it uses comparison to create a striking image that can enliven your writing

but it does not use the words *like* or *as* that help to identify similes. *I had butterflies in my tummy* is a good example of a metaphor. The words do not mean that the person literally has butterflies in their tummy but the image the words present beautifully illustrates that feeling of nervousness that many of us often experience.

Sometimes correct English writing lacks the fluent use of an English **idiom** which can be used inventively to increase the effect of what is being said. An idiom is a common word or phrase with a culturally understood meaning that differs from what its composite words would suggest. In other words it is a phrase whose meaning cannot easily be understood just from the meanings of the individual words that make up the phrase. Knowing what all the individual words mean in an idiom will not necessarily help you to work out what the idiom is about.

Take, for example, the common English idiom *let the cat out of the bag*. Most people new to it will know all the words in this phrase but they will probably not be able to guess that the phrase means to make known to other people, often accidentally or inappropriately, something that is intended to be kept secret or confidential. If you *swallow something hook, line and sinker*, it does not mean that you are literally copying the actions of a fish in the process of being caught. Instead, it means that you believe something completely (and often naïvely).

There are a great many idioms in the English language. They can add colour and interest to your writing but you should not use too many of them or the clarity of your writing may suffer. You should especially use sparingly those idioms which have been used so often that they have become clichés.

Clichés are expressions which have become so overused that native speakers of English tend to use them without thinking. They are an important part of the English language (especially so in spoken English) and they can add interest and variety to what you want to say in your writing but it is difficult for learners of the language to become familiar with them and learn how to use them well. Like other aspects of language this requires of lot of practice.

There are some words (particularly relevant to spoken English but which you may wish to include in your written English) which can cause some confusion because they are very similar in some way to other words. These are homophones, homonyms and homographs.

A **homophone** is a word that is pronounced in the same way as another but is spelled in a different way and has a different meaning. For example, **aisle** is a noun meaning a passage between rows of seats in a church, theatre, cinema etc, as in *The bride walked down the aisle on her father's arm* while **isle** is a noun meaning an island, often in used in literary or poetic contexts, but occasionally used in place names, as in *the Isle of Skye*.

A **homonym** is a word that has the same spelling and the same pronunciation as another word, but has a different meaning from it. For example, **bill** is a noun meaning a written statement of money owed, as in *You must pay the bill for the conversion work immediately*; a written or printed advertisement, as in *We were asked to deliver handbills advertising the play;* and a bird's beak, as in *The seagull injured its bill*.

A **homograph** is a word that is spelled the same as another word but has a different meaning, and sometimes pronunciation (heteronym). For example, **sow**, pronounced to rhyme with *low*, is a verb meaning to scatter seeds in the earth, as in *In the spring the gardener sowed some flower seeds in the front garden*, while **sow**, pronounced to rhyme with *how*, is a noun meaning a female pig, as in *The sow is in the pigsty with her piglets*.

(*See* homophones for more examples of homophones, homonyms and homographs.)

Exercises 13

Rewrite the following passage using complex sentences with **subordinating conjunctions** or **participial phrases** instead of **coordinating conjunctions**.

A bad start to the day

I didn't hear my alarm go off yesterday and I overslept. I dressed very quickly but was still very much behind schedule. I was very late and I had no time for breakfast, not even a cup of coffee.

I was late leaving the house and I had to run to the bus stop. I got there on time to catch the bus, but I didn't get on it. There was a long queue in front of me waiting for the same bus and it was soon full.

What was I to do? I could wait for the next bus, but I would be late for work. I had been late twice this month already and my boss would not be pleased. In fact, he would be furious.

I was standing there feeling very depressed and I heard a car's horn sounding. I looked up and saw my friend Jack waving at me from his car. He is a very kind person and he offered me a lift. I would not be late after all!

I arrived at work on time and was able to relax for the first time that morning. Better still, I could have a cup of coffee. I must remember to go out at lunch time and buy a new alarm clock.

ANSWERS 13

The passage below is just for guidance. There are other ways of rewriting the passage.

A bad start to the day

Yesterday I overslept because I didn't hear my alarm going off. Even though I dressed very quickly I was still very much behind schedule. Being very late, I had no time for breakfast, not even a cup of coffee.

I had to run to the bus stop because I was so late leaving the house. Although I got there on time to catch the bus I didn't get on it. As there was a long queue in front of me waiting for the same bus, it was soon full.

What was I to do? I would be late for work if I waited for the next bus. My boss would not be pleased since I had been late twice this month already. In fact, he would be furious.

I suddenly heard a car's horn sounding while I was standing there feeling very depressed. When I looked up I saw my friend Jack waving from his car. Being a very kind person, he offered me a lift to work. I would not be late after all!

Having arrived at work on time, I was able to relax for the first time that morning. Better, still, I could have a cup of coffee. I must remember to go out at lunch time so that I can buy a new alarm clock.

EXERCISES 14

Replace the word **hard** in each of the sentences below. Choose a suitable word for each sentence from the list below.

arduous, difficult, complicated, firm, harsh, industrious, unkind, violent **1** *It had not rained for a long time and the ground was very .....*

2 *They were all ..... workers and deserved a pay increase.*

3 *He received a ..... blow to the head and passed out.*

4 *Whether to go or stay was a ..... decision for him to make.*

5 *This jigsaw is too ..... for a child.*

6 *After an ..... climb up the mountain the climbers were exhausted.*

7 *An exchange of ..... words between the two sisters led to a bitter family feud.*

8 *Poor farmers lived in very ..... conditions in those days, especially in winter.*

ANSWERS 14

1 *It had not rained for a long time and the ground was very* **firm**.

2 *They were all* **industrious** *workers and deserved a pay increase.*

3 *He received a* **violent** *blow to the head and passed out.*

4 *Whether to go or stay was a* **difficult** *decision for him to make.*

5 *This jigsaw is too* **complicated** *for a child.*

6 *After an* **arduous** *climb up the mountain the climbers were exhausted.*

7 *An exchange of* **unkind** *words between the two sisters led to a bitter family feud.*

8 *Poor farmers lived in very* **harsh** *conditions in those days, especially in winter.*

WORDS THAT MAY CONFUSE

IDIOMS, CLICHÉS AND EVERYDAY PHRASES

In this last section of the book, there are lists of common English idioms, clichés and everyday phrases, and a few examples of homophones, homonyms and homographs, all of which can cause some confusion to learners of English. To help you become more confident when it comes to including them in your written and spoken English, we have provided example sentences showing them in use.

Common idioms

The list that follows gives a selection of **common idioms** with an explanation of the meaning, the origin of the idiom where appropriate and a short piece of dialogue showing how the idiom is used.

Achilles' heel
This idiom indicates that someone has a weak spot of some kind. (In Greek legend, Achilles is said to have been dipped by his mother in the River Styx in order to make him invulnerable, but his heel was left vulnerable because she was holding him by it and he was killed by an arrow shot through his heel.)
Bill: I'm surprised you decided to fire Lucy.
Tony: I was sorry to have to do it but we had to lose some members of staff and we wanted to keep our best people.
Bill: I thought Lucy was one of those.
Tony: She's very talented but her lack of concentration is her **Achilles' heel**.

acid test

This idiom refers to a test that will prove or disprove something so that there is

no doubt. (Nitric acid was once used as a test for gold. If the metal tested was not gold, it decomposed because of the action of the acid on it.)
Sally: Doesn't the new range of cosmetics look wonderful? The packaging is very stylish, isn't it?
Mary: It is and many people have admired it, but **the acid test** will be how well it sells.

have an axe to grind

This idiom means to have a personal or selfish reason to be involved in something. (From a story told by the American politician Benjamin Franklin about an incident in his boyhood when a man asked him to show him how well his grandfather's grindstone worked. The man gave Franklin his own axe to demonstrate on and so got it sharpened for nothing.)
Liz: Jenny must be very fond of her parents-in-law. She's trying to persuade them to buy a house in the street where she and Bob live.
Pat: I don't think that's because she likes them. She has **an axe to grind**.
Liz: What do you mean?
Pat: She's finding it difficult to get a reliable childminder and she thinks it would be hard for them to refuse to look after their grandchildren if they lived close by.

the back of beyond

This idiom refers to a remote place which is difficult to get to and probably has very few people living there.
Sam: You've obviously lived in the city a long time. Were you brought up here?
Ken: No, I came to university here and stayed on. I was brought up on a farm in the north of the country in **the back of beyond**.

beat about the bush

This idiom means to approach a subject in an indirect way, rather than getting straight to the point. (When hunters are shooting game birds people are employed to beat the bushes, heather, etc to make the birds fly up.)
Jane: The new assistant I hired is no good. I'm going to have to let her go, but she's so keen and she really needs the money. I don't know how to tell her.

Sue: There's no point in **beating about the bush**. You're just going to have to tell her straight.

having a bee in your bonnet
This idiom means that you are unable to stop thinking or talking about something so that it becomes an obsession. (A bee trapped under a hat cannot escape and goes buzzing around under it.)
Pat: What's wrong? You look very annoyed.
Kate: I'm annoyed with Ben. He's just spent half-an-hour criticizing me for buying a car.
Pat: I can't say I'm surprised. He **has a bee in his bonnet** about private cars. He thinks everyone should use public transport and save the environment.
Kate: I can sympathize with that, but he has no right to be so nasty to me.

a big fish in a small pond
An important or influential person whose importance is restricted to a small group, organization, area, *etc.*
Jim: Do you think Pete's wise to take the new job he's been offered?
Ben: No, I don't. It's a very senior job and I'm not sure Pete could cope with it.
Jim: But he has a very senior job in his present company.
Ben: But it's a small firm and Pete's **a big fish in a small pond**. The firm that's offered him the job is a huge multi-national.

burn your bridges/boats
This idiom means to take an action that means that you cannot return to your original position or situation. (If you literally burn your bridges/boat after arriving, you have no means of getting back to where you came from.)
Sam : Did Ben really shout at the boss?
John : Yes, he did and he was very rude to him. I was there when it happened.
Sam: Do you think the boss will forgive him?
John: Absolutely not. Ben's really **burnt his bridges**. The boss fired him and won't give him a reference.

the buck stops here

This idiom is used to indicate the person who is finally responsible for something that has to be dealt with. (The expression refers to a card game such as poker, the buck being a marker passed around to indicate who the dealer is. Harry S. Truman, US President [1945–53], had a sign on his desk with this

inscription.)
Will: Why are you going to resign? The mistake wasn't your fault.
Mike: I know it wasn't, but it was the fault of someone in my department and I'm in charge. So I'm afraid it's a case of **the buck stops here**.

carry the can

This idiom means to take the blame or responsibility for something that has gone wrong, even although someone else may be at least partly responsible.
Eve: I can't believe that Joe's been found guilty of cheating in the exam.
Anne: Neither can I, but some people say that he just **carried the can** and that a lot of people were involved in a cheating scam. They got away with it, but Joe didn't.

catch someone red-handed
This idiom means to find someone in the actual act of doing something wrong. (This is reference to the blood on the hands of someone who has just murdered someone.)
Alison: Do you think young Joe really broke into the Brown's house? He seems such a nice quiet boy.
Jenny: There's no doubt about it, I'm afraid. The police **caught him red-handed** when he was trying to sell some of the stolen jewellery.

catch someone with their hand in the till
This idiom, means to discover someone in the act of stealing or doing something dishonest.
Paul: I hear the company accountant's been fired.
Robbie: Yes. They say he's been **caught with his hand in the till**. The auditors have found out that he's been embezzling money for months.

chalk and cheese

This idiom is used to emphasize a measure of how completely different two things are.
Mary: Amy and Lily are sisters, but they're as different as **chalk and cheese**.
Kate: I agree. They don't look the least alike and they have completely different personalities.

cross that bridge when you come to it
This idiom means to worry about a problem or try to cope with it only when it actually affects you.
Mary: It's a lovely flat and we can just about afford the rent between us, but what if the landlord puts the rent up?
Alice: We'll **cross that bridge when we come to it**. Let's go and tell the landlord we'll take it before someone else takes it.

be at daggers drawn

This idiom means that two people are being extremely hostile towards each other. (This is a reference to people pulling out their daggers when they were ready to fight.)
Amy: I didn't know that Dave was Tom's brother. They never seem to speak each other.
Pam: They don't. They've been **at daggers drawn** since their father died more than ten years ago.
Amy: What did they quarrel about?
Pam: I've no idea, but it was something to do with the money left to them by their father.

a rough diamond

This idiom refers to a person who behaves in rather a rough manner but who has some very good qualities.
Ken: What do you think of Sue's new boyfriend?
Alice: The first time I met him he seemed a bit boorish, but he's **a rough diamond**. He's really very kind and helpful.
Ken: I much prefer him to her previous boyfriend. He was very smooth and polite on the surface, but he had a really nasty side to him.

dog eat dog

This idiom is used to refer to a situation in which rivals or opponents are prepared to do anything at all to get what they want.
Dave: My son's just graduated and he's job-hunting.
Bob: Unemployment's so high just now. It's not a good time to be looking for a

job.
Dave: No, it's not. There's a lot of competition. It's a case of **dog eat dog** out there.

get (all) your ducks in a row
This idiom means to get everything organized and under control.
Liz: Jill always looks exhausted. She's really not coping with her job and the children.
Mary: She's in a difficult situation, but she really needs to **get her ducks in a row**. She can't do her job properly until she gets help with childcare.

Dutch courage

This idiom refers to a confidence or lack of nervousness that has been brought about by consuming alcohol. (This is perhaps a reference to a former Dutch custom of drinking alcohol before going into battle.**)**
Pete: It's a bit early for you to be drinking.
Mark: I need a bit of **Dutch courage**. I'm going on a date with Sally and I'm really nervous.
Pete: I'm sure you'll be fine. Don't drink too much!

be at the end of your tether
This idiom means that you are no longer able to tolerate or put up with something. (A tether is literally a rope that is used to tie up an animal, such as a goat, and that extends a certain distance to let the animal graze.)
Janet: You look very tired, Molly.
Molly: I'm exhausted and **at the end of my tether**.
Janet: Why's that?
Molly: I'm hardly getting any sleep because of my upstairs neighbours. They're students and they play loud music all night.

flog a dead horse

This idiom means to go on trying to rouse interest or enthusiasm in something when this is no longer of interest, making your efforts likely to be unsuccessful.
Diane: Jack keeps trying to get Jenny to forgive him for cheating on her, but he's **flogging a dead horse**.
Lily: He certainly is. Jenny has no intention of forgiving him. Her last boyfriend

cheated on her and she won’t put up with that sort of treatment again.

with flying colours

With great success. (This is a reference to a ship leaving a place of battle with its colours or flag still flying, rather than being lowered in surrender.)
Frank: My son’s just got his exam results. He’s passed **with flying colours**!
Ben: That’s great, especially as he was nervous about his results.
Frank. He was and I can see he’s very relieved!

go by the board

This idiom is used to indicate that something is being abandoned or is no longer likely to be possible or successful. (This is a nautical reference. The expression originally meant literally to go overboard and vanish.)
Jill: Are you still thinking of going back to work full-time after the summer?
Wendy: No, my work plans have **gone by the board**. I’m having another baby.
Jill: That’s great news! Congratulations!

have green fingers

This idiom means to be very skilful at growing plants.
Kate: I’m looking after my mother’s house plants and I’m scared they’re going to die. My mother has **green fingers**, but I’m hopeless with plants.
Helen: Remember to water them, but don’t water them too much. They should be OK.

hit the ground running

This idiom means to begin some kind of new activity immediately and energetically. (A reference to soldiers running swiftly into battle immediately after leaving a helicopter or being dropped by parachute.)
Lucy: I must say our spring fashion range looks very good.
Emma: It does, but there’s a lot of competition around. We really need to find some exciting ways to promote our range and **hit the ground running** when we launch it.

hit the sack/hit the hay
This idiom means to go to bed.
John: Mark and I are going clubbing later. Want to come?
Dan: I can't. I've a busy day tomorrow. I'm going to **hit the sack**.

the jewel in the crown

This idiom refers to the most valuable or successful thing associated with someone or something.
Susan: What a wonderful painting.
Jennifer: Yes, it is, isn't it? The gallery has a marvellous collection, but this is definitely **the jewel in the crown**.

jump on the bandwagon

This idiom means to become involved in something because it is fashionable or because it will be profitable, although you may not be really interested in it. (From the brightly coloured vehicle carrying a band at the head of a procession which often encourages people to follow the procession.)
Tom: I hear George has gone into the real estate business. I didn't know he was interested in property.
David: George's not the least bit interested in it. The property market's doing very well just now and he's just **jumping on the bandwagon**.

kill two birds with one stone
This idiom means to carry out two aims by means of one action.
Sue: What are you planning to do in the city?
Rosemary: I'm going to **kill two birds with one stone**. I have an appointment with my dentist and I need to collect some books I ordered from the central library.

be left holding the baby

This idiom means to be left to cope with a situation on your own which was really the responsibility of other people.
Joe: What's wrong with you? You look really cross.
Mark: I'm furious. My boss is responsible for organizing the sales conference,

but he’s suddenly decided to go on holiday. I’ve been left **holding the baby**.

let off steam

This idiom means to do something active that helps you get rid of your excess energy or strong feelings about something. (This is a reference to steam being released from a steam engine in order to reduce pressure.)
Harry: I don’t think Dad should write such a rude letter to the store manager.
Bob: Don’t worry. He won’t send it. He’s just **letting off steam**. He was so annoyed when it wouldn’t work.

lock, stock and barrel
This idiom is used to emphasize how complete something is, with everything included. (This is a reference to the main parts of a gun.)
Ben : Has Sam really bought a house?
James: Yes, he has. He bought it with the money his aunt left him.
Ben: He’ll have to buy furniture now.
James: No, he won’t. He bought the contents and house **lock, stock and barrel**.

make a mountain out of a molehill
This idiom means to exaggerate the extent of a difficult situation or problem to make it seem much worse than it really is.
Lucy: What did Tony say to Jane? She says that she’ll never speak to him again.
Jill: Emma was there when it happened and she said that Tony was just teasing Jane. He apologized when he saw she was upset, but she wouldn’t listen.
Lucy: I’m sure Emma’s right. Jane’s always **making mountains out of molehills**.

the moment of truth

This idiom refers to a crucial time when you find out whether something has proved to be successful, will work *etc.* (This is a translation of the Spanish expression *el momento de la verdad*, which refers to the moment in a bullfight when the matador is about to kill the bull.)
Mary: Your brother’s spent ages working on that old car.
Pat: He certainly has and he’s spent quite a lot of money on it.
Mary: I hope it’s worth all that time and money.
Pat: So do I. He’s taking it for a test drive tomorrow. That’ll be **the moment of**

truth.

the final nail in someone's coffin
This idiom refers to something, often the latest in a series of events, which helps to bring about someone's ruin or destruction.
Bob: Joe's just told me that Mike's been fired.
Bill: Has he? I can't say I'm surprised. Quite a few customers have complained about him recently.
Bob: Apparently the boss heard him being very rude to one of our most regular customers this morning. That was **the final nail in his coffin**. The boss told him to leave immediately.

once in a blue moon

This idiom means almost never or very rarely. (A blue moon is the appearance of the third full moon in a season that has four full moons, instead of the usual three and as a blue moon occurs only every two or three years, the term *blue moon* is used to mean a rare event, as in this phrase *once in a blue moon*.)
Joan: I remember that you and Pete were real movie buffs at college. Do you go to the movies much these days?
Alice: Once in a blue moon. It's hard to get out with three young children. We usually have to make do with DVDs.

be over the moon

This idiom means to be extremely happy or joyful.
Lucy: Amy seems in a very good mood today.
Anne: She's **over the moon**. She's just got engaged. She's getting married next year.

paddle your own canoe

This idiom means to be independent enough to manage your own affairs without help or support from anyone else.
Jane: Jenny has finally decided to leave home.
Sue: And about time too! She's far too old to be so dependent on her parents.
Jane: Yes, it really is time for her to **paddle her own canoe**.

paint the town red

This idiom means to go out and celebrate something, usually in a lively, extravagant way.
Anne: I can't come to the meeting tonight. I'm going out.
Mary: What are you doing?
Anne: We're going to **paint the town red**. We're celebrating our daughter's graduation.
Mary: Have a good time!

be par for the course

This idiom refers to what usually happens or what might be expected to happen, often used with reference to something undesirable or bad. (This is a golfing reference to the number of strokes that would be made in a perfect round on a golf course.)
Jack: Dan's had to close down his computer business.
Will: I'm afraid that's **par for the course** for small businesses these days.
Jack: Yes. The recession's hit a lot of them very badly.

pass the buck

This idiom means to try to shift the blame or responsibility for something onto someone else instead of accepting it yourself. (The expression refers to a card game such as poker, the buck being a marker passed around to indicate who the dealer is.)
Pete: The sales are very bad again this month. It's all the fault of the new sales manager. He's hopeless.
Ken: You're quite right, but he's trying to **pass the buck**. He says the poor sales are down to the marketing department.

pie in the sky

This idiom refers to an idea, hope or plan, relating to something good, that is unlikely to happen. (This phrase is from the words of a song by Joe Hill, an American who wrote many radical songs for a labour organisation known as the Industrial Workers of the World: 'You'll get pie in the sky when you die.')

Sally: Joe was desperate to be a doctor when we were at school but it was all **pie in the sky**. Although he worked really hard, he was not at all academic.
Amy: It was a real shame, but I believe he went into his father's business and is doing very well.

the rat race

This idiom refers to a way of life in which people compete aggressively for success in business *etc.*
Mark: I'm amazed that Steve's given up his job and gone to live in the country. He was doing so well.
Goerge: Yes. He was making a lot of money as a stockbroker, but he got really tired of the financial world and he was doing nothing but work. He hardly ever saw his wife and children. He's tired of **the rat race**.
Mark: I think he'll be back. Country life'll be too quiet for him.

a red herring

This idiom refers to a piece of information, sometimes a false clue laid deliberately, which misleads someone. (A reference to a strong-smelling fish whose scent could mislead hunting dogs and distract them from their prey.)
Molly: Do the police think that Frank was killed by a burglar?
Sue: Not any more. They did at first because his apartment was in such a mess. Now they think that was done by the murderer as **a red herring**. They think that someone went to Frank's place intending to kill him, not to steal anything.

rest on your laurels

This idiom refers to the fact that you are not trying very hard for further success because you are relying on the good reputation brought about by past successes. (This is a reference to the ancient Greek practice of crowning successful poets and winners with laurel wreaths.)
Jim: Bob didn't play very well in the match today. If he doesn't start trying harder he'll get dropped from the team.
Frank: I'm sure you're right. He used to be the best player by far but there are now quite a few good young players in the team. Bob really can't afford to **rest on his laurels**.

score an own goal

This idiom means to do something that is harmful or disadvantageous to your own interests. (This is a reference to kicking a ball into your own team's goal.)
Mike: Did Kate get the job?
Sam: No, she didn't and she **scored an own goal** at her interview. She told the owner of the firm that one of the other applicants had been in prison.
Mike: What happened?
Sam: They gave the job to the woman who had been in prison. Apparently the boss had been in prison himself when he was young and sympathized with ex-prisoners.

shoot yourself in the foot

This idiom means to do something which is disadvantageous or harmful to yourself or to your situation.
John: I'm not taking my car back to that garage again. The guy charged me a fortune for servicing it.
Tom: I've stopped using them. They kept putting their prices up.
John: They're **shooting themselves in the foot**. Everyone's going to go somewhere cheaper.

sing from the same hymn sheet
This idiom means to show agreement with each other about something, especially in public.
Chief executive: There may be minor differences of opinion among members of the board, but it is vital that we all **sing from the same hymn sheet** at the annual general meeting.
Company accountant: I quite agree. We must make sure that shareholders continue to have confidence in the company.

smell a rat

This idiom means to suspect that something is not right or normal. (This is a reference to a dog hunting rats by scent.)
Sally: How did Alice find out that her husband was having an affair?
Lily: She **smelt a rat** when he started saying he had to work late every night.

Then a friend told her that she had seen him a couple of times in a club with his secretary.
Sally: What happened then?
Lily: He admitted to the affair and moved out.

stab someone in the back

This idiom means to behave treacherously towards someone, often a friend or colleague, or to betray someone.
Ben: I thought Pete was my friend, but he **stabbed me in the back**. I told him in complete confidence that I had pretended to be off ill for a few days when I had really taken my kids on holiday.
Harry: So what?
Ben: Pete went and told our boss. It turns out that he wants my job. He was trying to get me sacked.
Harry: But you still have your job, don't you?
Ben: Only just. I got an official warning.

stick to your guns

This idiom means to refuse to change your decision or opinion about something, no matter what happens. (This is reference to a soldier who keeps firing at the enemy even when his life is in great danger.)
Liz: Is Pat still thinking of reporting her boss for bullying her?
Jane: I think so, but some of her colleagues are trying to persuade her not to. They say that management will be on the side of the boss and will take no notice of her complaint.
Liz: I hope she **sticks to her guns**. Her boss has been horrible to her. He deserves to be punished.

a storm in a teacup

This idiom means a great fuss over something not at all important. The American version of this idiom is a 'tempest in a teacup'.
Lucy: Was Alice hurt? Somebody said she'd been bitten by a dog.
Jenny: No. The whole thing was **a storm in a teacup**. The dog just jumped up on her but it was a large dog and Alice caused a big fuss about it.
Lucy: Well, she is terrified of dogs, so you can't blame her.

take the biscuit

This idiom refers to something that is particularly surprising, shocking, or annoying.
Bob: My brother's always borrowing my things without asking me, but this **takes the biscuit**. He's gone away for a few days and borrowed my car and I need it to get to work.
Mark: How do you know?
Bob: He's left me a note!

a tempest in a teacup *see* **a storm in a teacup**

throw someone a curve/curved ball
This idiom, more common in American English, means to surprise someone by doing something unexpected and perhaps putting them at some kind of disadvantage. (The expression has its origins in baseball when a curved ball suddenly and unexpectedly swerves away from the person trying to hit the ball just as it reaches his or her bat.)
Mike: John and Will were expecting their grandfather to leave them a lot of money. They were planning to use it to set up their own business.
Jack: What happened?
Mike: The old man **threw them a curve** and changed his will just before he died. He had lung cancer and he left all his money to a cancer charity. John and Will were shocked but there was nothing they could do about it.

throw a spanner in the works
This idiom means to stop, prevent or delay a plan, project, etc from going ahead.
Phil: You're holiday starts next week, right?
Harry: Not any more. My boss has **thrown a spanner in the works**. He wants me to go on a management course then.
Phil: That's too bad.

tighten your belt

This idiom means to reduce the amount of money which you spend regularly. (If you spend less money on food and so lose weight you will have to tighten your belt to hold up your jeans.)
Jackie: Prices seem to keep going up and up.

Lorna: But our pay's not going up. With three children we're finding it difficult to manage.
Jackie: So are we. We're really having to **tighten our belts**.

too big for your boots

This idiom means that you have become very conceited and think that you are superior to others.
Julie: Are you still friendly with Amy?
Sarah: No, not any longer. She's become far **too big for her boots** since she married Mike Brown. He's very rich.

turn over a new leaf

This idiom means to start to act in a better, more acceptable way.
Teacher: We're very pleased with Paul's work this term. It shows a great improvement and he's certainly working much harder.
Paul's mother: Yes, thank goodness. He's spending a lot more time studying. He really seems to have **turned over a new leaf**.

twist someone's arm
This idiom means to try to persuade or force someone to do something that they really do not want to do. (If you literally twist someone's arm you use physical force.)
Peter: I thought you weren't coming to Jill's party, Joe. You've always said you hate parties.
Joe: I do hate them. I told Jill several times that I wasn't coming, but **she twisted my arm**. You know how determined she is!

be up in the air

This idiom means to be still undecided or uncertain about something.
Jill: Where are you and Jim going on holiday this year?
Trisha: Our plans are still **up in the air**. We'd like to go to Greece with my brother and sister-in-law but it's very difficult for us all to get off work at the same time.
Jill: I hope you can sort something out.

Trisha: So do I. We'll have to book soon if we're going to get a reasonably priced flight.

be up in arms

This idiom means to protest in a very angry way. ('Arms' in this sense means 'weapons'.)
John: Apparently they're planning to extend the airport. They're thinking of adding another runway. The people who live near the airport are **up in arms**. They are planning to hold a protest.
Mary: I'm not surprised. The noise from the planes is terrible at the moment. Goodness knows what it will be like if there are more flights.

wash your hands of someone/something
To indicate that you are no longer going to be responsible for, or involved with, someone or something. (From a reference in the Bible to such an action by Pontius Pilate after the crucifixion of Jesus.)
Wendy: Jill's teaching young Tom to play the piano, isn't she?
Sue: She was, but not any more. She says that Tom has a lot of talent, but he just refuses to practise. She's **washed her hands of him**.

Clichés

Clichés arise from several different areas of English. Sometimes a cliché is just a very common idiom which has become overused. It is very easy for someone to get into the habit of using an idiom again and again without being aware of this. Such **clichés from idioms** include:

between a rock and a hard place
Faced with two equally unpleasant or unacceptable choices.
John: I'm going to stay with my parents at the end of the week but I can't decide whether to go by train or plane. I'm **between a rock and a hard place**. The plane is quicker but it's very expensive while the train is much slower but it's also much cheaper.
Phil: I suppose it depends which matters most to you—time or money.

fall on your sword

Historically to commit suicide in this way, but the modern cliché means to resign from a position of power or importance, often because you have been found committing some kind of crime or wrongdoing which would have resulted in your being fired anyway.
Bill: Did you hear about Frank's father?
Sam: Yes. He's been arrested for fraud.
Bill: He's a fairly senior politician. Will he be fired from the administration?
Sam: I think he'll **fall on his sword**. Politicians usually do when something like that happens.

flavour of the month

A person or thing that is particularly popular at a particular time, although this is likely to last only for a short time.
Trisha: This toy was **flavour of the month** at Christmas and it was almost impossible to find it. Now none of the kids will play with it.
Rose: I know. They've all moved on to some new toy.

the jury's still out
No decision has yet been reached or an issue has not been resolved.
Harry: Has your family decided where to go on holiday yet?
Peter: Every member of the family has a vote and **the jury's still out**. If we can't agree Mum gets to choose.

keep the wolf from the door
To earn enough money for your basic needs, such as food.
Jack: I really need to look for a job that pays more.
Ken: Me too. I need more money just to **keep the wolf from the door**. I certainly can't afford any luxuries.

leave no stone unturned

To try by every means possible to find or do something.
Mary: The police haven't found the child's killer yet. Everyone is so upset by it all.
Jane: I know, but the report in the local paper says that they're **leaving no stone unturned** in their efforts to find whoever is responsible.
Mary: They're certainly asking all the neighbours for information, but they don't seem to have made much progress.

a level playing field

A situation which is completely fair to everyone involved because none of the people taking part has any advantage over the others.
Ben: Some people say that the college gives preference to wealthier students.
Sally: The college authorities have denied that. They say that entrance to the college is **a level playing field**.

a loose cannon

A person who is apt to behave in a unpredictable or reckless fashion and cannot be relied upon not to cause trouble or do something embarrassing.
Jackie: Should we ask Sue to come clubbing with us?
Alice: I don't think so. She can be such **a loose cannon**. Last time she had a bit too much to drink and started shouting at people.

Jackie: I'd forgotten about that. We'll definitely not ask her!

move the goalposts

To change the aims, conditions and rules relating to a project after it is under way.
Roger: Why haven't you started building the extension to your house?
Harry: We haven't got planning permission yet. The officials keep **moving the goalposts**.

open the floodgates

To remove some form of control or restriction so that it makes it possible for a huge number of people to do something.
Ben: The tennis club is getting a bit short of members. I wonder if more people would join if we dropped the minimum age qualification?
Joe: The trouble is that might **open the floodgates**. We don't want a whole lot of very young children joining.
Ben: Well, as a compromise, how about we keep the age limit, but lower it?
Joe: Good idea. Let's raise it at the next committee meeting.

Of course, not all clichés are idioms. Many of them are simply phrases that have become overused. Some examples of **clichés from overused phrases** are included in the pages that follow.

an accident waiting to happen

A situation which has always had the potential to be dangerous and which might result in injury or tragedy at any time.
Will: That old burnt-out house is **an accident waiting to happen**. They should pull it down before someone gets hurt.
Sam: They certainly should. The neighbourhood kids are all playing there.

the end of an era

When used correctly the word *era* suggests something relatively important or a

considerable length of time. It is used of an important period of history or period of time characterized by a particular feature, event or person, as in *the Victorian era*. As a modern cliché, *the end of an era* is often used to refer to a fairly unimportant event or short-lived period.
June: It's the **end of an era**. Our next-door neighbours are moving house. We've lived next door to each other for six years.
Lucy: You are going to miss them.
June: I certainly will. I'm feeling really depressed about it.

a hidden agenda

A secret or unrevealed motive behind some plan or action.
Jim: I'm surprised that Mark is in favour of the new office block. We're all protesting against it.
Jason: Ah, but Mark has **a hidden agenda**. His father-in-law is the property developer behind the office scheme.
Jim: Well, that explains it.

it goes with the territory

Used of a particular kind of problem or difficulty that often occurs in connection with a particular kind of situation.
Amy: Jim is so much more stressed since he got promoted at work. He used to be such a laid-back person.
Rose: A lot of senior managers suffer from stress. **It goes with the territory**.

it's the thought that counts
A comment or response made on the giving of a gift that has not cost very much. Sometimes the comment is made ironically to refer to a low-cost gift when a higher-priced gift would have been more appropriate.
Jenny: What did your son give you for your birthday?
Meg: He gave me this little book of poems.
Jenny: It certainly is very small.
Meg: But it's by my favourite poet and my son spent ages looking for a copy. Besides, **it's the thought that counts**.

Amy: My brother had obviously forgotten all about my birthday. He arrived late last night with a bunch of flowers that he must have bought from the local petrol

station. Still, **it's the thought that counts**!
Diane: You're lucky. I can't remember when my brother last remembered my birthday.

last but not least

Used when giving a list of names or items when there is no particular order of merit.
Jane: I am so pleased to have won the championship. I want to thank my parents, my sister and brother, my cousin Tom and, **last but not least**, my friends Sue and Lucy for their continuing support.

a merciful release

Used to say that you think a person's death was a good thing for that person because it put an end to the suffering caused by a long, painful illness.
Mary: My grandfather died last night.
Alice: I'm sorry to hear that. You must be very sad.
Mary: I am, but actually it was **a merciful release**. He had terminal cancer and was in terrible pain.

needs no introduction

Used by someone who is introducing a person to a group of people. In spite of saying this, they often go on to give an introduction, sometimes a long one.
John: Our last speaker, Sally Brown, **needs no introduction**. She is one of our most talented actresses and many of you will recognize her from her TV appearances. She is particularly well known for her charitable work and has raised lots of money for children's charities in particular.

one hundred and ten per cent
Used to emphasize the great amount of effort used to do something. The maximum mathematical percentage is, in fact, one hundred per cent.
Bill: What qualifications are you looking for in your new assistant?
Jack: I want someone with the right academic qualifications and with business experience but most of all, I want someone who will give **one hundred and ten per cent** to the job. Someone who won't complain about having to work late or

come in early.

a race against time

Used to describe an extremely urgent situation.
Mike: The mine has collapsed and some of the miners are trapped underground. It's going to be **a race against time** to get them out alive.
Bob: It's certainly a very dangerous situation.

and the rest is history

Used to indicate that no more need be said about a subject because the details are already well known to the listeners.
Anne: Jack seems to give a great deal of money to local charities. Was he born in this area?
Mary: Yes, he was born of very poor parents in a slum down by the dock. He started work at a very young age doing just about anything. Then he set up his own clothing company **and the rest is history**.
Anne: Well, he's now a millionaire several times over and a very generous man.

these things happen

Used to remind someone who may have experienced some kind of misfortune that bad things happen to people all the time.
Dave: Sam's been laid off. The firm he works for is closing down.
Bill: I'm sorry to hear he's lost his job, but **these things happen**. And we *are* in the middle of a recession.

time will tell

A cliché suggesting that the outcome of something will not be known for quite a long time.
Sally: I hear Joe's still in hospital. Is he going to be all right?
Meg: Only time will tell. He suffered some terrible injuries in the accident.
Sally: We'll just have to hope for the best but it is a very worrying situation.

too numerous to mention

Used in more formal spoken contexts supposedly to mean that there are too many people or things involved to mention them all by name. In fact, the phrase is often used as an introduction to a list of the names.
Jack: I would also like to thank the volunteers who helped to make the event such a great success. They are **too numerous to mention**, but many thanks to Sue, Amy, Anne, Diane, Lucy, Pat, Jim, Ben, Joe, John, Mark, and Steve.

the usual suspects

Used to describe the people who are usually involved in something. (‘Round up the usual suspects’ from *Casablanca*, Warner Bros, 1942.)
Joanna: Were there many people at Sally’s barbecue?
Shirley: Not really. It was mostly just **the usual suspects**.

Some of the phrases used as clichés have been in use for a long time and some of them are more formal or even more archaic than you would expect to find in the context in which they are being used. These **archaic** or **more formal clichés** include:

bow to the inevitable

To have to tolerate or accept a situation, however unpleasant, because you cannot avoid it.
Sally: It’s dreadful that the landlord’s not renewing our lease.
Jane: It is, but he’s not going to change his mind. We’ll just have to **bow to the inevitable**.
Sally: You’re right. We need to look for somewhere else to live.

by the same token

In the same way or for the same, or a similar, reason.
Ben: The students are furious that they’re not allowed to leave the school at lunch time anymore.
Joshua: I’m sure they are, but, **by the same token**, the parents are mostly very pleased. It means the kids can’t buy junk food at lunch time and they can’t get

into any trouble.

a daunting prospect

Something very difficult or alarming that you have to face or deal with.
Emma: We love the house and we'd like to buy it, but it needs a lot of work done. We'd have to do it ourselves. That's **a daunting prospect**.
Jessica: It certainly is. Neither of you has ever done any of that kind of work before.

dulcet tones

Sweet or musical tones. This cliché is mostly used ironically.
Rob: We knew we were home when we heard our neighbour's **dulcet tones** shouting at her poor husband.
Pete: I bet you wanted to go away again immediately.

a moot point

Something that is not at all certain but is doubtful or needs to be debated. [A moot court is a method of teaching law and legal skills that requires students to analyze and argue both sides of a hypothetical legal case.]
Lily: We're going for a meal to the Gourmet Scene tonight. We'd better make a reservation. It's still the best restaurant in town.
Rose: That's **a moot point**. There are one or two others that are just as popular now.

pale into insignificance

Used to indicate that something which seems very bad, or unfortunate does not seem quite so bad when compared with something which is much worse.
Jenny: I was feeling very depressed yesterday. I've just lost my job and now I've got to get out of my flat. But my problems **pale into insignificance** compared with Sue's.
Sarah: What's wrong with Sue?
Jenny: She's having tests for breast cancer.

speculation is rife

A cliché popular with journalists indicating that a lot of people are forming opinions about something and spreading these around without knowing the facts of the situation.
Speculation is rife that police have arrested a member of the murder victim's family. Up till now, the police have neither confirmed nor denied that this is the case.

Some clichés add very little meaning to what is being said. They can be described as **fillers**—phrases which fill up space rather than adding significantly to the meaning. Fillers give you thinking time in a conversation and although such clichés can be annoying they help to make a conversation flow along. Without them conversation would be more stilted. Such **filler clichés** include the following:

at the end of the day
Another of today's most irritating and overused clichés, used in much the same way as **when all is said and done** and often used almost meaninglessly.
Kim: My ex can say what he likes but **at the end of the day** it's my decision whether I go out with Tim or not.
Kirsty: I think you are quite right.

at this moment in time

One of today's most overused clichés which really just means now or just now.
Mr Brown: At this moment in time, we have no plans to get rid of any staff.
Jim: What about in the future?
Mr Brown: We can't really say. It depends on the company's financial situation over the next few months.

if you ask me

In my opinion.
Joan: If you ask me, Harry's thinking of leaving.
Trisha: What makes you think that?
Joan: Well, he's always saying how bored he is and he's been looking at job

vacancies in the local paper.

in all honesty

To be frank, to be honest.
Hayley: Shall we go for a drink after work?
Julia: I'm too tired. **In all honesty**, I just want to go home to bed.

in point of fact

A rather meaningless phrase, rather like *in fact*.
Ken: I wouldn't know John if I met him in the street. **In point of fact**, I don't think I know him at all.
Ian: I must introduce you sometime.

mark my words

Pay attention to what I'm going to say.
Lottie: Sally and Tom have just got engaged.
Mary: Mark my words. It won't last. Tom's been engaged at least three times before but he's never made it to the altar.
Lottie: You're joking. Why ever not?
Mary: He just can't commit himself. He gets engaged and then he breaks it off.

the thing is

A filler used to pre-empt an explanation that you are about to make.
Amy: I'm not sure whether I'll be able to play tennis with you tomorrow. **The thing is** my parents are away and I have to walk their dog.
Rosemary: Let's leave it till next week, then.

when all is said and done

This phrase is sometimes used to refer to the most important point of a situation, but it is often used almost meaninglessly.
Ken: Hopefully, my son will realize that he needs to spend more time studying if he's to pass the exams. We're doing all we can to encourage him but **when all is said and done** he is the only one that can do anything about it.

Mike: As long as he doesn’t leave it too late. The exams are quite soon.

Everyday phrases

There are many expressions used in everyday communication that are an essential part of spoken English and you may wish to use these in any written work involving dialogue. Some of these expressions are interjections (often followed by an exclamation mark) that are used to express emotion or reaction, such as excitement, surprise, annoyance, disgust, joy, pain, *etc*. Sometimes interjections consist of single words, sometimes they consist of short phrases or very short sentences, and sometimes they consist of just a sound. In many cases interjections provide the links that help conversation to move along smoothly.

A speaker simply cannot be considered fluent without having the ability to use some of these everyday phrases. Yet it can be difficult to acquire information about this feature of English. Dictionaries, especially the smaller ones, do not provide such information and even the larger ones do not necessarily cover this subject in enough detail.

Of course, listening skills come in useful here and you can learn a great deal from listening to English-language radio and television programmes. When doing so it will be helpful to make your own list of everyday phrases, memorize them and then try them out in a conversation. This is an excellent way of increasing your knowledge of the vocabulary of spoken English but some extra help will prove valuable and this is provided in the list that follows.

about time too!
You use this rather rude expression to indicate that someone has arrived late or has taken a long time to do something.
Locksmith: That's all the locks on your doors and windows changed.
Mrs Smith: About time too! I didn't think it would take that long.
Locksmith: I worked as fast as I could. There are a lot of windows in this house.

ah!
You use this interjection in various ways. It can be used to express a variety of

emotions such as pleasure, surprise or disagreement.
Bill: Ah! That was a really delicious meal.
Mary: It certainly was. The new chef has made a huge difference.

ahem!
A sound like a short cough made by someone who is trying to attract attention, sometimes in a difficult or embarrassing situation.
Jill: Let's ask John to organize the meeting. He's not working at the moment and has plenty of free time.
John: Ahem! I heard that and it's not true. I'm working freelance and I've got plenty to do.
Jill: Sorry, John! I didn't see you there.

alas

This expression can be used to show that you are sad or sorry about something, but it is sometimes used ironically or humorously.
Bob: I was going to offer to pay half the restaurant bill, but, **alas**, my brother paid it before I had a chance to offer.
Ken: That's fair enough, isn't it? He's a wealthy lawyer and you're still a student.

all right

You use this expression when you wish to say *Yes* to something that someone has asked you.
Sue: I'm going shopping. Do you want to come?
Katie: All right. I need a new dress, anyway.

as a matter of fact

You can use this expression in two ways. You can use it to add a piece of interesting or surprising information to what has just been said.
Jack: I don't think this firm can last much longer. I think we should start looking for other jobs.
Will: You're right. **As a matter of fact**, I've already started looking. I've made an appointment with a recruitment agency.

You can also use this expression to indicate that the truth about a situation is the opposite of what has just been stated.
Amy: Was the air fare very expensive?
Jill: No, **as a matter of fact**, it was surprisingly cheap. It cost a lot more last year.

believe it or not

You use this expression when you are mentioning something that is true but very unlikely or surprising.
Matthew: Have you found a flat yet?
Ken: Yes. **Believe it or not**, we've found quite a cheap one in the city centre. The owner's abroad and just wants someone to take care of it.
Matthew: That was lucky.

believe you me

You use this expression in order to stress the truth of what you are going to say or have said.
Jane: Believe you me, Joe will regret not going to university.
Mark: I think you're right, but he's really keen on this job he's been offered.
Jane: That's just because it's quite well paid and he wants to get some money fast. It doesn't offer very good promotion prospects.

by all means

You use this expression when you are telling someone that you are happy for them to do something.
Jade: Please can I leave work a bit earlier today? It's my father's sixtieth birthday and we're giving him a surprise party.
Boss: By all means take us much time as you need and give your father my best wishes.

by the way

You use this expression when you mention something which is connected in some way with what has just been said.

Jack: I visited Sam yesterday. **By the way**, he's moving to a new flat.
Harry: Can you give me his new address?
Jack: Of course. I've got it right here.

come on!
You say this expression to someone when you want them to hurry or to do something.
Joe: Come on, Tom! We'll miss the plane!
Tom: We'll be there in a minute. We've still got plenty of time.
Joe: No we haven't. It's the rush hour!

come to think of it

You use this expression when you have just thought of or remembered something.
Michael: Apparently, Ben's not very well. He's going to the hospital for some tests.
George: I'm sorry to hear that. **Come to think of it**, he's not been going to the gym recently but I just thought he was busy. I didn't know he was ill.

don't bank on it
You use this expression when you want to advise someone not to rely on something happening.
Mary: Sue said that she'd help me look after my sister's baby tomorrow. I was feeling a bit nervous about it.
Emma: I wouldn't bank on it. Sue doesn't always keep her promises.

don't say that!
You use this expression when someone says something that you don't want to be true.
Pete: I've had a quick look at your car and I think it might need a new engine.
Bill: Don't say that! That'll cost a fortune!
Pete: I could be wrong but you'd better get a mechanic to look at it right away.

dream on!
You use this expression in an informal context to indicate to someone that something is not at all practical or not at all likely to happen.
Tara: I'd love to have a flat overlooking the park.
Mark: Dream on! The monthly rent would be more than your annual salary.

for goodness' sake
You use this expression when you are very annoyed or surprised.
Mother: For goodness' sake, Lisa, get up and get dressed. We've got guests coming to lunch.
Lisa: OK, I'm just getting up. There's plenty of time.
Mother: No there isn't. I need you to help me tidy the house.

good!
You use this expression to show that you approve of something or are pleased about something.
Rory: The builder said the work on the house is nearly finished. We can move in next week.
Gillian: Good! I'm tired of living in this small flat.

good grief!
You use this expression to show great surprise or shock.
Sally: Good grief! It's been snowing**!** I've never known it to snow here before.
Meg: And look how deep it is!

good heavens!
You use this expression when you are surprised about something. You can also use *Heavens!* in the same way.
Jane: Good heavens! There's our neighbour over there.
Jim: So it is. Imagine coming halfway across the world and meeting someone we know.

good question!
You use this expression in reply to a question to which it is difficult to find an answer.
Dan: I hear you're going to Jim's wedding in New Zealand next year. How're you going to afford it?
Ken: Good question! I'm hoping to get an evening job to earn some extra money. If not, I might get a loan.

great!
You use this expression to indicate that you are very pleased about something.
Tom: I've found us a flat near the town centre.
Karen: Great! When do we move in? I can't wait to get out of here.

You can also use the expression ironically to indicate that you are not at all pleased about something, but are disappointed, upset, *etc.*
Harry: The landlord's putting the rent up.
Joe: Great! Where am I going to find the extra money? I've just taken out a loan on a car.

hang on!
You use this expression when you want to ask someone to wait for you.
Hannah: I'm just going to the library. I'll see you later.
Rose: Hang on! I'll come with you. I've got some books to return.

You can also use this expression to ask someone to stop what they are doing or thinking.
Ben: It must have been Matt who set fire to my garage. He wanted revenge. I'm going to call the police.
John: Hang on, Ben. You've no proof it was Matt.

hardly!
You use this expression when something seems very unlikely in your opinion.
Kate: Is Tom taking you to that new French restaurant?
Liz: Hardly! He couldn't possibly afford it. It's very expensive.

having said that

You use this expression before you add something that makes what you have said less strong.
Bob: Dave doesn't seem to treat his wife very well. **Having said that**, I don't think she's an easy person to get along with.
Mike: No, she isn't. I think they deserve each other.

heavens! *see* **good heavens!**

heaven knows!
Use this expression to emphasize that you do not know something or that it is difficult to find an answer to something.
Jackie: The landlord's given us a month's notice on our flat. It is such a blow. We've been so happy there.
Mary: Where will you live?
Jackie: Heaven knows! Flats are difficult to find around here.

how's it going?
You can use this informal phrase when asking someone how they are.
Ken: Hi, George, **how's it going?**
George: OK. I'm a bit tired because I've been working late every night this week.

I can't tell you
You use this expression when you wish to emphasize what strong feelings you have about something.
Diane: I can't tell you how much I appreciate your help. I simply couldn't have coped without it.
Jane: I'm just glad I was able to help.

I can't think why
An everyday expression used to emphasize that you do not understand something at all.
Ben: Jim's decided to leave his job.
Joe: Yes, I heard that, but **I can't think why**. It's a well paid job and he's been so happy there.
Ben: He says he can't stand his new boss.

I could do without

You use this expression when you want to emphasize that you do not want to do something or have someone or something.
Sue: I could do without working late tonight. I have guests coming for dinner.
Lucy: I've got to work too and my parents-in-law are coming round to see the kids. They won't be pleased.

I dare say

You use this expression when you want to say that something is probable or likely.
Alicia: I dare say Jenny thinks that she's doing the right thing moving in with her parents, but I think she'll regret it. She doesn't get on with them very well.
Diana: Well, she doesn't think she's got a choice. Both her parents have got health problems.

I hate to think

You use this expression when you want to stress how bad you consider a situation is or might be.
Ken: My wife wants us to go on a world cruise when I retire.
Bill: That'll be nice, but **I hate to think** what it'll cost you.

I'm afraid
This expression does not mean that you are feeling fear. You use it when you are apologizing or when you are politely telling someone something that may upset or annoy them.
Ken: Do you have two single rooms for one night?
Hotel receptionist: I'm afraid we don't have any vacancies. It's the middle of the tourist season and we're very busy.

Anne: This TV set keeps switching itself on and off. Can you have a look at it?
Repairman: I've had a look and **I'm afraid** I can't repair it. You're going to have to get a new one.

I must say

You use this expression when you want to emphasize how you feel about something or what you think about something.
Fiona: I must say that meal was absolutely delicious.
Bob: Yes, it was. And it wasn't very expensive.

I suppose so

You use this expression when you say that you agree with someone but rather reluctantly.
Mark: It's getting late and we're tired. I think we should leave the rest of this job until tomorrow.
Tom: I suppose so, but I wish we could have finished it tonight.

I thought as much

You use this expression when you find out that something you suspected turns

out to be true.
Derek: It's the cat next door that's been digging up the plants in our front garden. I've just seen it doing it.
Lisa: I thought as much but when I spoke to its owner she said it was never out at the front of the house.

I thought I'd
Use this expression when you want to tell someone what you are planning to do.
Janet: What are you going to do on your day off?
Wendy: I thought I'd go and look for a present for Sally.
Janet: That's a good idea. I've got to find something as well.

I told you so

You use this expression when you are reminding someone that you had warned them that something bad or unfortunate would happen before it did.
Jim: I wish I hadn't bought this cheap TV. The quality of the picture's terrible.
George: I told you so. I said that you only get what you pay for.

if you don't mind my saying so
You use this expression when you are going to say something that criticizes someone in some way or is likely to annoy or upset them.
Mrs Brown: If you don't mind my saying so, that child should be in bed by now.
Mrs Smith: It's got nothing to do with you, and anyway she usually goes to bed much earlier than this but we were visiting my mother and we missed the last bus.

I've no idea
You use this expression to emphasize that you do not know anything about something.
Debbie: We've run out of petrol. How far is it to the next town?
Lyn: I've no idea, but I'm pretty sure it's too far to walk, especially in these shoes.
Debbie: We'll just have to hope that someone comes along to help.

I was wondering if/whether ... ?
You use this expression as a polite way of asking somebody something.
Sophie: I was wondering if I could borrow your laptop this evening for a

couple of hours? My computer's being repaired.
Dorothy: Sure! It's on the desk in my study.

it's beyond me
You use this expression when you want to stress that you do not understand something.
Will: My daughter's on the phone again—and to her best friend. **It's beyond me** what they find to say to each other. They're at school together all day.
Ron: My daughter's just the same. She's always on her mobile phone, either talking or texting.

it's just that
You use this expression when you are giving a reason or explanation for something.
Lucy: It's a pity you can't go on holiday with us.
Amy: Yes, I'm so sorry but it can't be helped. **It's just that** I can't get away from the office at that time of year.

it's no big deal
You use this expression to indicate that something is not at all important.
Mary: Thanks very much for offering to help me move all these books.
Bob: It's no big deal! I wasn't doing anything else anyway.

let me see/let's see
You use this expression when you are thinking about something.
Tourist: Excuse me, do you know of a good seafood restaurant in this area?
Peter: Let me see. There are two or three, but the one I like best is the one down on the shore. It's called the Crab Shell. It's very good.

Tourist: Excuse, me. Can you tell me where the nearest bank is, please?
Bill: Let's see. Some of them have closed down recently. The nearest one's in George Street, just off Main Street. Do you know where that is?
Tourist: Yes, I do. Many thanks.

listen

You often use this interjection when you want someone to pay attention or if you want to interrupt someone. It's usually not meant rudely and is often followed by *sorry*.

Salesman: Hello, sir. Can I ask if you've ever thought about the doors and windows in your home and whether ... ?
Tim: Listen. Sorry to stop you there, but I am not at all interested in double glazing and I don't want to waste your time.

look!
You use this interjection when you want someone to pay attention to what you are going to say, often when you are annoyed.
Martin: Look! I forgot I was supposed to be meeting you and I've said I'm sorry. What more do you expect me to do?
Tina: You could say sorry as though you meant it.

lookout!
You use this interjection to warn someone of possible danger.
Neil: Lookout! This pavement's very icy.
Caroline: Thanks for the warning. I'll be careful.

me too

You use this expression when you wish to agree with someone or when you wish to be included in something.
Liz: I'm furious that they're pulling down that lovely old building.
Helen: Me too. It's disgraceful. I'm going to organize a protest!

never mind

You use this expression when you want to tell someone that something is not important.
Tara: I broke one of your mugs when I was stacking the dishwasher. Sorry. I'll replace it.
Nancy: Never mind! It wasn't an expensive one and I've got plenty of other mugs.

Nathalie: I'm sorry I can't come to the meeting tonight. I promised to have dinner with my parents.
Jim: Never mind. I'll let you know what happens and you can come to the next one.

no chance!
Use this expression when you think that it is extremely unlikely that something will happen.
Jill: Do you think Tom and Sally will get back together?
Lucy: No chance! She said it's definitely over. She discovered he was cheating on her with her best friend.

no fear!
You use this expression in informal contexts to stress that you are definitely not going to do something or that something is not going to happen.
Sarah: Are you going on holiday with your parents?
Tom: No fear! They like to wander round museums and old churches. I just want to go and lie on a beach somewhere.

Donald: Will Jim really leave his job do you think? He's always saying he will.
William: No fear! He's far too well paid to do that.

no way!
You use this expression to emphasize that you are not going to do something or that something is not likely to happen.
Tom: Are you going to apologize to Anne?
Ryan: No way! I didn't do anything wrong.

no wonder

You use this expression when you consider that something is not at all surprising or that it is to be expected.
Harry: Jack's really furious with me.
Charles: No wonder. You borrowed his bike without asking him and then damaged it.

Sue: No wonder Jane's feeling miserable. Her dog's just died.
Elizabeth: And she adored it. She'd had it since it was a puppy.

not on your life!
You use this expression when you want to stress that you are definitely not going to do something.
Bill: Are you going to help Bob move house tomorrow?
Sam: Not on your life! I'm exhausted after a week's hard work. I need a rest.

And Bob never does anything to help other people.
Bill: That's true. I don't think I'll help him either.

not to worry/don't worry
You use this expression to show that you do not think that something is important.
Martha: I'm so sorry but I can't come to the cinema tonight. The boss's asked me to work late.
Joe: Not to worry. We can go some other time. I'll give you a ring.

oh dear!
Use this expression when you are disappointed, upset or worried.
Kate: Oh dear! We've just missed a bus. We'll have to wait an hour for the next one.
Diana: We might as well go and have some coffee. Where's the nearest café?

oops!
You use this expression when you drop something or nearly drop something, when you have made a mistake, or accidentally revealed a secret.
Jessica: Oops! I've dropped a contact lens. Can anyone see it?
Paula: There it is, over there. I'll get it.

ouch!
You use this interjection when you feel a sudden pain.
Simon: Ouch! I've been stung by a wasp.
Tanya: I'm going inside. I hate wasps.

You might also use *ouch* if someone has hurt your feelings.

Janice: That dress does nothing for you.
Jenny: Ouch! At least you're honest, I suppose.

ow!
You can also use this interjection when you feel a sudden pain.
Malcolm: Ow! That hurt my arm. Don't throw the ball so hard.
James: Sorry! But you were supposed to catch it.

phew!
This interjection can be used in several situations. You can use it to indicate that you are feeling tired.

Pete: Phew! That climb was much harder than I thought.

You can use it to indicate that you are feeling hot.
Alice: Phew! I find this heat unbearable. I'm going inside.

You can also use it to indicate that you are feeling very relieved because something did not happen.
Luke: Phew! I'm glad the teacher didn't ask me any questions about the play. I haven't read it yet!

quite right too!
You use this expression to emphasize how much you agree with something.
Joan: I'm thinking of moving to a bigger flat. This place is just not big enough.
Catherine: Quite right too! You need a lot more space.

rather you than me!
You use this expression to stress that you would certainly not want to be involved in something that someone else is going to do.
Tim: Are you really going to swim in the sea at this time of year? **Rather you than me!** It will be freezing.
Jack: I know, but the others are going to do it and I don't want to look like a coward.

really?
You say this in response to something that you hear that surprises you or interests you very much.
Sarah: I've just met Wendy. She's just got married.
Kate: Really? I didn't even know that she was seeing someone.

right you are

This is quite an old-fashioned expression that is used when you agree to do as someone has suggested.
John: I'm going to be a bit late so I won't have time to come for a drink before the meal. I'll meet you at the restaurant.
Martin: Right you are, John. See you there.

roll on ... !
You use this expression when you want something that you know you will find

pleasant to happen very soon.
Craig: I'm so tired. I've been working late and coming in early every day this week.
Ian: So have I. **Roll on** the weekend so we can get a rest!

same here

You use this expression to indicate that you share someone else's opinion or feelings or that you are in a similar situation to theirs.
Annette: It seems to take me much longer to get to work these days.
Joanne: Same here. The traffic's got much worse in the morning for some reason.

search me!
You use this expression when you want to stress that you do not know the answer to a question.
Joe: Why's the boss looking so angry?
Thomas: Search me! He's been in a terrible mood all morning but I can't think why.
Joe: Maybe he's had a row with his wife.

shh!
You use this expression to ask someone to be quiet or make less noise.
Molly: Shh! I've just got the baby to sleep.
Mark: Sorry. I hope I didn't wake her.

shoo!
You use this interjection to tell an animal or someone who is annoying you to go away.
Donald: There's that cat again from across the road. I'm going to try and get rid of it. **Shoo!**
Robbie: It'll just come back again. It seems to like your garden more than its own!

so what?
This expression is rather rude. You use it when you think that something someone has said is not relevant or important.
Sally: You were a bit late getting to the students' meeting.
Pamela: So what? These meetings are a complete waste of time. I wish I hadn't

bothered to go at all.

so what's new?
You use this expression in an informal context to stress that you do not think that something is at all surprising or unexpected.
Craig: My computer's crashed again.
Ken: So what's new? It's always breaking down. You need to get a new one. That one's ancient!

some hope!
You use this expression to emphasize that you think that there is very little, or no, chance of something happening.
Jackie: Do you think there's any chance we'll get a pay raise this year?
Monica: Some hope! Sales are down and profits are at an all-time low. We'll be lucky if we get to keep our jobs.

speaking of

You use this expression when you want to say something more about a person or thing that has just been mentioned.
Debbie: Sue won't be at work this week. She's on holiday.
Mary: Speaking of holidays, are you still thinking of going to Australia this year?
Debbie: Yes. I'm going to visit my sister.

suit yourself!
You use this expression rather rudely to tell someone that they can do what they want to do when you are annoyed with them for not doing what you want them to do.
Helen: Jill's having a party tonight. Do you want to come with me?
Rose: Sorry, I can't. I've an English essay to finish.
Helen: Suit yourself! I'll get Anne to come but it would do you good to have some fun for a change.

sure!
You use this expression when you mean *yes* or *yes, certainly*.
Jim: Are you going to work by car today?
Adam: Yes. I'm just about to leave.
Jim: Could you possibly give me a ride? My car won't start and I need to be at

work for an important meeting.
Adam: Sure! Come round right away.

talk about ... !
You say *talk about* ... when you want to emphasize something.
Carole: Talk about stinginess! Joe's just asked me for the money for the coffee he bought me yesterday.
Laura: That's typical of him!

that's all I need!
You use this expression when a problem or difficulty arises when you are already having several other problems or difficulties to cope with.

Jerry: That's all I need!
Bill: What's wrong?
Jerry: My car won't start and the boss has just rung to say he needs me in the office right away. Before that I spilled coffee on my shirt and had to change it and then I slipped on the stairs and hurt my ankle.
Bill: Calm down! You can come in my car. I work quite near you.
Jerry: Thanks!

that's fine by me
You use this expression when you are indicating that you agree to do something which has been suggested.
Peter: The film starts very early. We could go to the cinema first and eat later.
Alicia: That's fine by me. I'm not very hungry, anyway.

that's news to me
You use this expression when you hear about something that you did not know, often when you feel that you should have known about it earlier.
Ben: Apparently they're going to renovate our office and we need to move while the work gets done.
Garth: That's news to me. Who told you?
Ben: The office manager.
Garth: Well, she should have told me as well. I've got a lot of stuff to move.

that's OK with me
You use this expression when you are indicating that you agree to something which has been suggested.

Lisa: We're going to have to go by train. My car's broken down and they can't repair it till tomorrow.
Maria: That's OK with me. I love going by train and I sometimes get sick in a car.

that's too bad
You use this expression when you want to say that something is unfortunate.
Hugh: The picnic's been cancelled because of the rain.
Lisa: That's too bad. The kids will be upset. They were really looking forward to it.
Hugh: We're organizing some indoor games for them. That should cheer them up!

there's no doubt about it
You use this expression to emphasize that something is definitely true or certain.
Frank: I can't believe that Bob would steal money from the company. He seems such an honest guy.
Mike: It does seem amazing, but **there's no doubt about it**. The police have proof and Bob has confessed. Apparently, he has huge gambling debts and stole the money to pay them off.

there you go/are
You use this expression when you are giving something to someone or have done something for them.
Customer: A kilo of red apples, please.
Shopkeeper: There you go. A kilo of my very best apples. Enjoy.
Customer: Thank you.

though

You use this word at the end of a sentence when you want to make the previous statement less strong or less important.
Ken: I've got to work on Saturday. It's annoying because I'd made plans. I've got an extra two days off next week, **though**.
John: That's not too bad. It's good to get some time off during the week sometimes.

too true!
You use this expression when you want to stress how true you consider a

statement to be or how much you agree with it.
Trisha: It's time that women factory workers got the same pay as the men.
Patsy: Too true! After all, they're doing the same kind of work.

Jane: It's so cold in this office. They should really put the heating on.
Betty: Too true! My hands are freezing. I can scarcely work my keyboard.

tut!/tut,tut!
You use this sound to show that you disapprove of something. It is often used humorously.
Mrs Brown: Tut! Look at what those children are doing. They're disturbing everyone. You'd think their parents would stop them.
Mrs Smith: They're not paying any attention to them. Some parents just don't care.

Bob: Tut, tut! What are you doing here, Jennifer? Aren't you meant to be at work?
Jennifer: No, I took the day off to come to the fair. How about you, Bob?
Bob: I've just come for an hour. It's my lunch break.

ugh!
You use this expression to show that you dislike something very much or that it disgusts you.
Alison: Ugh! This sauce has mushrooms in it. I hate them!
Barbara: I think it's delicious.

uh-huh
You make this sound when you are agreeing with someone or saying *yes*.
Barry: Are you going to Pam's party tonight? Most of our friends are going.
Susan: Uh-huh, but I might be a bit late.

what about?
You use this expression when you are making a suggestion to someone about something.
Alex: I've had a hard day at the office. I quite fancy going out.
Meg: Me, too. **What about** going to the cinema?
Alex: Good idea! I'll see what's on.

what about it?/how about it?
You use this expression in an informal context when you are asking someone if

they agree with a suggestion that you have made.
Lucy: You can have my spare room for a month if you give me some help with childcare. **What about it?**
Alice: Yes, thanks. It will be great to have somewhere to stay until I can move into my new flat.

what did I tell you?
You use this expression after you have warned someone that something bad or unfortunate might happen and it does happen.
Patrick: Sally's just found out that her new boyfriend is married with two children.
Luke : **What did I tell you?** I said there was something deceitful about him.

what if?
You use this expression when you want to mention something that might happen, especially something bad or unhelpful.
Tom: We have to change planes in London and we don't have much time between the flights.
Pete: What if we miss our connection?
Tom: We'll just have to hope that we don't.

what's more
You use this expression when you wish to add something to what you have just said, often something very important or relevant.
Pam: I'm not taking a holiday this year. I'm very busy at work and, **what's more**, I can't really afford to go away.
Tessa: Neither can I. I've just spent a lot of money on the house.

what's the use?
You use this expression when you want to stress that doing or saying something will have no effect.
Harry: I should try to warn Sue that Bill's not to be trusted.
Wendy: What's the use? She wouldn't believe you. She's madly in love with him.
Harry: She's going to get hurt.
Wendy: Well, there's nothing we can do.

what's up?
You use this expression to find out if something bad or unfortunate has

happened. You can add *with* to find out why someone is upset.
Jack: The local shop's not open. **What's up?**
Sally: There was a breakin last night and the owner got hurt.
Jack: Poor man. Is he going to be all right?
Sally: He's fine, but he's in shock. The shop'll be closed for the rest of the week at least.

why don't ... ?
Use this expression to make suggestions.
Larry: It's a glorious day. **Why don't** we go to the beach?
Peggy: Good idea. I'll go and put a picnic together.
Larry: And I'll take the car to get more petrol.

wonders will never cease!
You use this expression when you want to express great surprise. It is often used ironically.
Myra: Wonders will never cease! I actually found a parking place in the town centre.
Jane: You were lucky! Parking there's getting more and more impossible.

wouldn't you know it?
You use this expression when something unexpected has happened and caused problems or difficulties for you. Sometimes the expression is *wouldn't you just know it?*
Mark: Wouldn't you know it? I usually arrive early at the station and the train is usually late. Today I was slightly later and the train was early.
Joe: Did you miss it?
Mark: Yes, the train was just leaving the platform as I got there.

you could always

You use this expression when you are making a suggestion to someone. Other personal pronouns, such as I, he, she, or a noun can be used instead of *you*.
Will: The last train leaves quite early in the evening but **you could always** stay tonight with me and get the first train in the morning. It leaves very early.
Sam: Thanks for the invitation. I think I might just do that.

you'll never guess!
You use this expression when you are about to tell someone something very

surprising or exciting.
Sally: You'll never guess who I've just seen!
Anne: I can't think who. Why don't you tell me?
Sally: It was Rob Brown.
Anne: I thought he was in prison for fraud.
Sally: He was but he's out. It seems he was innocent all along.

you never know

You use this expression when you think that it is just possible that something might happen, although it is very unlikely.
Alan: You never know. Mike might pass the English exam, although he's not very good at English and some of the questions were very difficult.
Dave: I would be very surprised if he passed. He didn't do much studying for it.

yuck!
You use this expression to indicate that something tastes unpleasant or disgusting.
Mary: Yuck! This soup has far too much salt in it.
Jade: So it does. It tastes horrible.

Homophones

A homophone is a word that is pronounced the same as another word but it differs in meaning or spelling or both. A few examples are listed below.

ail, a rather old-fashioned verb meaning to be ill, as in *The old woman is ailing*; or to be the matter, to be wrong, as in *What ails you?*
ale, a noun meaning a kind of beer, as in *a pint of foaming ale*.

alter a verb meaning to change, as in *They have had to alter their plans*.
altar a noun meaning, in the Christian church, the table on which the bread and wine are consecrated for communion and which serves as the centre of worship, as in *The priest moved to the altar, from where he dispensed communion*. The word can also refer to a raised structure on which sacrifices are made, as in *The Druids made sacrifices on the altar of their gods*.

blew a verb, the past tense of the verb to blow, as in *They blew the trumpets loudly*.
blue a noun and adjective meaning a colour of the shade of a clear sky, as in *She wore a blue dress*.

boar a noun meaning a male pig, as in *a dish made with wild boar*.
bore a verb meaning to produce a hole in something with a drill as in *He bored a hole in the wall*.
bore a verb meaning to make tired and uninterested, as in *The audience was obviously bored by the rather academic lecture*.
bore a verb, the past tense of the verb to bear, as in *They bore their troubles lightly*.

cereal a noun meaning a plant yielding grain suitable for food, as in *Countries which grow cereal crops* and *Quite a lot of cereal crops are grown in the UK* and a prepared food made with grain, as in *We often have cereal for breakfast*.
serial a noun meaning a story or television play which is published or appears in regular parts, as in *the final instalment of the magazine serial which she was following*.

cite a verb meaning to quote or mention by way of example or proof, as in *The*

lawyer cited a previous case to try and get his client off a charge of manslaughter.
sight a noun meaning the act of seeing, as in *They recognized him at first sight*.
site a noun meaning a location, place, as in *They have found a site for the new factory*.

feat a noun meaning a notable act or deed, as in *The old man received an award for his courageous feat*.
feet a noun, the plural form of *foot*, as in *The child got her feet wet from walking through a puddle*.

know a verb meaning to have understanding or knowledge of, as in *He is the only one who knows the true facts of the situation*, and *to be acquainted with*, as in *I met her once but I don't really know her*.
no an adjective meaning not any, as in *We have no food left* and T*here is no right of way through the large estate*.

none a pronoun meaning not any, as in *They are demanding money but we have none*.
nun a noun meaning a woman who joins a religious order and takes vows of poverty, chastity and obedience, as in *She gave up the world to become a nun*.

rite a noun meaning a ceremonial act or words, as in *She has been taking part in rites involving witchcraft*.
right an adjective meaning correct, as in *Very few people gave the right answer to the question*.
write a verb meaning to form readable characters, as in *He writes regularly for the newspapers*.

stare a verb and noun meaning to look fixedly and a fixed gaze, as in *She stared at him in disbelief when he told her the news* and *He gave me an angry stare*.
stair a noun meaning a series of flights of steps, as in *The old lady caught her foot on the stair*.

Homonyms

A homonym is one of a group of words that share the same spelling and the same pronunciation but have different meanings. A few examples are listed below.

bank a noun meaning an institution offering financial services, such as the safekeeping of money and lending of money, as in *I have opened a savings account at the bank*.
bank a noun meaning a long raised mass, a hill or a slope and especially the sloping sides of a river, as in *We walked for miles along the banks of the river*.

bill a noun meaning a written statement of money owed, as in *You must pay the telephone bill immediately*.
bill a noun meaning a bird's beak, as in *The seagull has injured its bill*.

fair an adjective meaning attractive, as in *fair young women*; light in colour, as in *She has fair hair*; fine, not raining, as in *I hope it keeps fair*; just, free from prejudice, as in *We felt that the referee came to a fair decision*.
fair a noun which formerly meant a market held regularly in the same place, often with stalls, entertainments and rides but now referring more to an event with entertainments and rides without the market, as in *He won a coconut at the fair*; a trade exhibition, as in *the Frankfurt Book Fair*.

pulse a noun meaning the throbbing caused by the contractions of the heart, as in *The patient has a weak pulse*.
pulse a noun meaning the edible seeds of any of various crops of the pea family, such as lentils, peas and beans, as in *Vegetarians eat a lot of food made with pulses*.

row a verb, pronounced to rhyme with **low**, meaning to propel a boat by means of oars, as in *He plans to row across the Atlantic single-handed*.
row a noun, pronounced to rhyme with **low**, meaning a number of people or things arranged in a line, as in *We tried to get into the front row to watch the procession*.

trip a noun meaning a tour, journey or a voyage, as in *I had a wonderful time*

during my trip to Spain.

trip a verb meaning to stumble or fall over something, as in *I tripped over a fallen branch in the wood and twisted my ankle*.

Homographs and heteronyms

A homograph is one of a group of words that are spelled the same way but have different meanings.

A homograph that is also pronounced differently is a heteronym. Some examples of heteronyms are given below.

bow pronounced to rhyme with **how**, a verb meaning to bend the head or body as a sign of respect or in greeting as in *The visitors bowed to the emperor* and *The mourners bowed their heads as the coffin was lowered into the grave*.
bow pronounced to rhyme with **low**, a noun meaning a looped knot or a ribbon tied in this way, as in *She wears blue bows in her hair*; or a wooden tool used to propel an arrow, as in *He shot the arrow from the bow*.

deliberate pronounced to rhyme with **deliberat**, an adjective meaning carefully thought out or planned, intentional, as in *It was a deliberate insult*.
deliberate pronounced to rhyme with **deliberate**, a verb meaning to consider something deeply, to ponder or think something over, as in *The jury deliberated for some time before reaching a verdict*.

lead pronounced **leed**, a verb meaning to show the way, as in *The guide will lead you down the mountain*.
lead pronounced **led**, a noun meaning a type of greyish metal, as in *They are going to remove water pipes made from lead*.

row pronounced to rhyme with **low**, a noun meaning a number of people or things arranged in a line, as in *The princess sat in the front row*.
row pronounced to rhyme with **how**, a noun meaning a quarrel, a disagreement, as in *He has had a row with his neighbour over repairs to the garden wall*.

sow pronounced to rhyme with **low**, a verb meaning to scatter seeds in the earth, as in *She sowed some flower seeds in the garden*.
sow pronounced to rhyme with **how**, a noun meaning a female pig, as in *The sow is in her pigsty with her piglets*.

In conclusion

Improving your written and spoken English is not as difficult or boring as you might think now that you have a better understanding of English grammar. Improving your personal writing style and word power is even less difficult. Writing in English, in particular, gives you the opportunity to practise your language skills and make good use of your knowledge of English grammar and it can be fun as well as rewarding. Try it and see!

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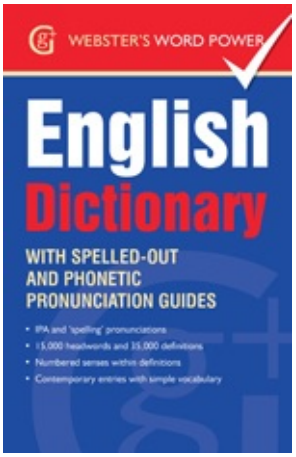

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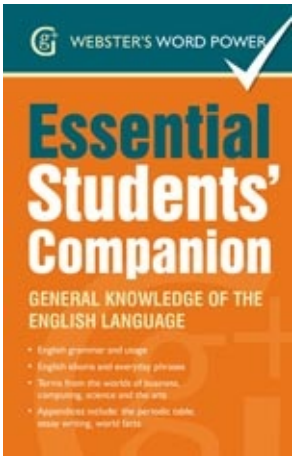

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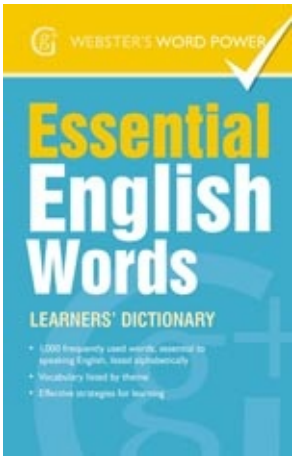

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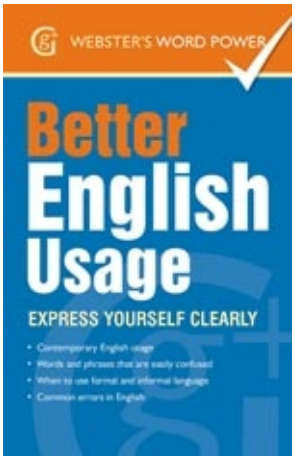

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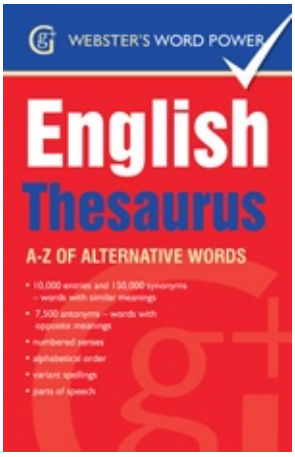

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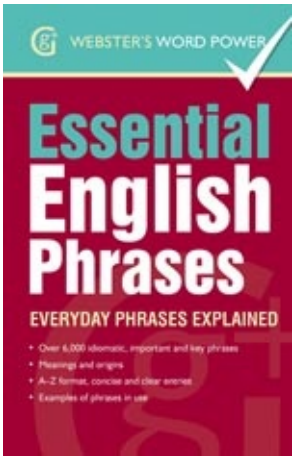

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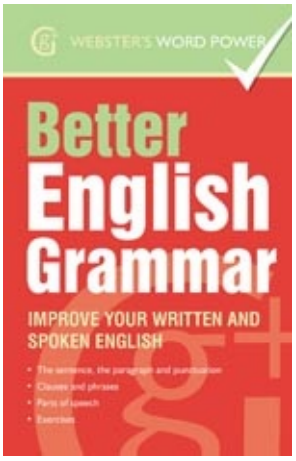

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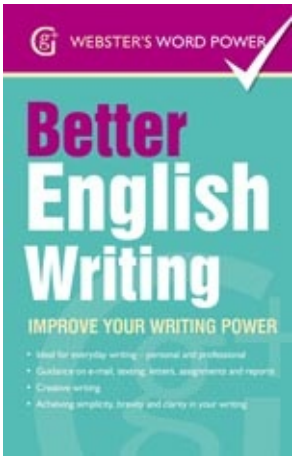

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FREE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

MARY ANSELL

English Grammar

ENGLISH GRAMMAR: EXPLANATIONS AND EXERCISES

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The contents of the book can be seen at a glance from the Table of Contents, which contains links to all of the material covered. There is also an Index.

TO THE READER

This book has the following features:

* All of the essential points of English grammar are covered.

* Each point of grammar is clearly explained, and is illustrated by examples.

* For every important point of grammar, one or more exercises are provided, to make it easier to learn and remember the material.

* Answers for the exercises are provided.

* A summary of the uses and formation of the English verb tenses is given for easy reference.

* Grammatically determined rules for spelling, pronunciation, and punctuation are included.

* The grammar of North American English is emphasized.

* Grammatical differences between formal and informal English are pointed out.

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THE USES AND FORMATION OF THE ENGLISH VERB TENSES

The Uses of the English Tenses

Type of Tense	Type of Action Expressed
Simple	- actions occurring at regular intervals - general truths, or situations existing for a period of time - non-continuous actions
Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions
Perfect	- non-continuous actions completed before a certain time
Perfect Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions completed before a certain time

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	do/does *	bare infinitive **
Present Continuous	am/is/are	present participle
Present Perfect	have/has	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been	present participle
Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	was/were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle
Simple Future	will (shall) ****	bare infinitive
Future Continuous	will (shall) be	present participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been	present participle

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Active Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	do *	bare infinitive
Present Continuous	be	present participle
Present Perfect	have	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been	present participle

Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	am/is/are	past participle
Present Continuous	am/is/are being	past participle
Present Perfect	have/has been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been being	past participle
Simple Past	was/were	past participle
Past Continuous	was/were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle
Simple Future	will (shall) **** be	past participle
Future Continuous	will (shall) be being	past participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have been	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been being	past participle

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	be	past participle
Present Continuous	be being	past participle
Present Perfect	have been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been being	past participle
Simple Past	were	past participle
Past Continuous	were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle

* In the Simple Present and Simple Past tenses of the Active Voice, the auxiliaries are used only for emphasis, and for the formation of questions and negative statements. Auxiliaries are never used with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**.

** When used without the auxiliary, the third person singular of the Simple Present, in the Indicative Mood of the Active Voice, has the ending **s**.

*** When used without the auxiliary, the Simple Past form of the verb is used. For regular verbs, and for many irregular verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past participle.

**** The other modal auxiliaries **could**, **may**, **might**, **must**, **should** and **would** form conjugations in the same way as **will** and **shall**.

THE ACTIVE VOICE OF THE VERB TO SHOW

Simple Past: showed
Past Participle: shown

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Present
I show
you show
he shows
she shows
it shows
we show
they show

Simple Past
I showed
you showed
he showed
she showed
it showed
we showed
they showed

Present Continuous
I am showing
you are showing
he is showing
she is showing
it is showing
we are showing
they are showing

Past Continuous
I was showing
you were showing
he was showing
she was showing
it was showing
we were showing
they were showing

Present Perfect
I have shown
you have shown
he has shown
she has shown
it has shown
we have shown
they have shown

Past Perfect
I had shown
you had shown
he had shown
she had shown
it had shown
we had shown
they had shown

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been showing
you have been showing
he has been showing
she has been showing
it has been showing

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been showing
you had been showing
he had been showing
she had been showing
it had been showing

we have been showing
they have been showing

we had been showing
they had been showing

Simple Future
I will (shall) show
you will show
he will show
she will show
it will show
we will (shall) show
they will show

Simple Conjugation with Would
I would show
you would show
he would show
she would show
it would show
we would show
they would show

Future Continuous
I will (shall) be showing
you will be showing
he will be showing
she will be showing
it will be showing
we will (shall) be showing
they will be showing

Continuous Conjugation with Would
I would be showing
you would be showing
he would be showing
she would be showing
it would be showing
we would be showing
they would be showing

Future Perfect
I will (shall) have shown
you will have shown
he will have shown
she will have shown
it will have shown
we will (shall) have shown
they will have shown

Perfect Conjugation with Would
I would have shown
you would have shown
he would have shown
she would have shown
it would have shown
we would have shown
they would have shown

Future Perfect Continuous
I will (shall) have been showing
you will have been showing
he will have been showing
she will have been showing
it will have been showing
we will (shall) have been showing
they will have been showing

Perfect Continuous Conjugation with Would
I would have been showing
you would have been showing
he would have been showing
she would have been showing
it would have been showing
we would have been showing
they would have been showing

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Simple Present
I show
you show
he show

Simple Past
I showed
you showed
he showed

she show
it show
we show
they show

she showed
it showed
we showed
they showed

Present Continuous
I be showing
you be showing
he be showing
she be showing
it be showing
we be showing
they be showing

Past Continuous
I were showing
you were showing
he were showing
she were showing
it were showing
we were showing
they were showing

Present Perfect
I have shown
you have shown
he have shown
she have shown
it have shown
we have shown
they have shown

Past Perfect
I had shown
you had shown
he had shown
she had shown
it had shown
we had shown
they had shown

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been showing
you have been showing
he have been showing
she have been showing
It have been showing
we have been showing
they have been showing

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been showing
you had been showing
he had been showing
she had been showing
it had been showing
we had been showing
they had been showing

THE VERB TO BE AND THE PASSIVE VOICE OF THE VERB TO SHOW

INDICATIVE MOOD

Simple Present
I am
you are
he is
she is
it is
we are
they are

Simple Present
I am shown
you are shown
he is shown
she is shown
it is shown
we are shown
they are shown

Present Continuous
I am being
you are being
he is being
she is being
it is being
we are being
they are being

Present Continuous
I am being shown
you are being shown
he is being shown
she is being shown
it is being shown
we are being shown
they are being shown

Present Perfect
I have been
you have been
he has been
she has been
it has been
we have been
they have been

Present Perfect
I have been shown
you have been shown
he has been shown
she has been shown
it has been shown
we have been shown
they have been shown

Present Perfect Continuous
have been being
you have been being
he has been being
she has been being
it has been being
we have been being
they have been being

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been being shown
you have been being shown
he has been being shown
she has been being shown
it has been being shown
we have been being shown
they have been being shown

Simple Past
I was
you were
he was
she was
it was
we were
they were

Simple Past
I was shown
you were shown
he was shown
she was shown
it was shown
we were shown
they were shown

Past Continuous
I was being
you were being
he was being
she was being
it was being
we were being
they were being

Past Continuous
I was being shown
you were being shown
he was being shown
she was being shown
it was being shown
we were being shown
they were being shown

Past Perfect
I had been
you had been
he had been
she had been
it had been
we had been
they had been

Past Perfect
I had been shown
you had been shown
he had been shown
she had been shown
it had been shown
we had been shown
they had been shown

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being
you had been being
he had been being
she had been being
it had been being
we had been being
they had been being

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being shown
you had been being shown
he had been being shown
she had been being shown
it had been being shown
we had been being shown
they had been being shown

Simple Future
I will (shall) be
you will be
he will be
she will be
it will be
we will (shall) be
they will be

Simple Future
I will (shall) be shown
you will be shown
he will be shown
she will be shown
it will be shown
we will (shall) be shown
they will be shown

Future Continuous
I will (shall) be being
you will be being
he will be being
she will be being
it will be being
we will (shall) be being
they will be being

Future Continuous
I will (shall) be being shown
you will be being shown
he will be being shown
she will be being shown
it will be being shown
we will (shall) be being shown
they will be being shown

Future Perfect
I will (shall) have been
you will have been
he will have been
she will have been
it will have been
we will (shall) have been
they will have been

Future Perfect
I will (shall) have been shown
you will have been shown
he will have been shown
she will have been shown
it will have been shown
we will (shall) have been shown
they will have been shown

Future Perfect Continuous
I will (shall) have been being
you will have been being
he will have been being
she will have been being
It will have been being
we will (shall) have been being
they will have been being

Future Perfect Continuous
I will (shall) have been being shown
you will have been being shown
he will have been being shown
she will have been being shown
it will have been being shown
we will (shall) have been being shown
they will have been being shown

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Simple Present
I be
you be
he be
she be
it be
we be
they be

Simple Present
I be shown
you be shown
he be shown
she be shown
it be shown
we be shown
they be shown

Present Continuous
I be being
you be being
he be being
she be being
it be being
we be being
they be being

Present Continuous
I be being shown
you be being shown
he be being shown
she be being shown
it be being shown
we be being shown
they be being shown

Present Perfect
I have been
you have been
he have been
she have been
it have been
we have been
they have been

Present Perfect
I have been shown
you have been shown
he have been shown
she have been shown
it have been shown
we have been shown
they have been shown

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been being
you have been being
he have been being
she have been being
it have been being

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been being shown
you have been being shown
he have been being shown
she have been being shown
it have been being shown

we have been being
they have been being

we have been being shown
they have been being shown

Simple Past
I were
you were
he were
she were
it were
we were
they were

Simple Past
I were shown
you were shown
he were shown
she were shown
it were shown
we were shown
they were shown

Past Continuous
I were being
you were being
he were being
she were being
it were being
we were being
they were being

Past Continuous
I were being shown
you were being shown
he were being shown
she were being shown
it were being shown
we were being shown
they were being shown

Past Perfect
I had been
you had been
he had been
she had been
it had been
we had been
they had been

Past Perfect
I had been shown
you had been shown
he had been shown
she had been shown
it had been shown
we had been shown
they had been shown

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being
you had been being
he had been being
she had been being
it had been being
we had been being
they had been being

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being shown
you had been being shown
he had been being shown
she had been being shown
it had been being shown
we had been being shown
they had been being shown

Common English Irregular Verbs

Bare Infinitive	Simple Past	Past Participle
be	was/were	been
bear	bore	born
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become

begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forecast	forecast	forecast
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden

hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mistake	mistook	mistaken
partake	partook	partaken
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
read	read	read
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank **or** shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped

spend	spent	spent
spin	span **or** spun	spun
spit	spit **or** spat	spat
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode	strode
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

CHAPTER 1. THE SIMPLE PRESENT OF THE VERB TO BE

1. Grammar

The **grammar** of a language is an analysis of the various functions performed by the words of the language, as they are used by native speakers and writers.

There are many different ways of analyzing a language. In such an analysis, words can be given various names, depending on the function which they perform. For instance, words which perform the function of naming things are commonly referred to as **nouns**, and words which perform the function of expressing states or actions are commonly referred to as **verbs**.

It should be kept in mind that many English words can perform more than one function. For instance, in the following sentences, the underlined words can be referred to as **nouns** because they perform the function of naming things.
e.g. I have lost my comb.
Water is one of the necessities of life.

However, in the following sentences, the same words can be referred to as **verbs** because they perform the function of expressing actions.
e.g. I comb my hair every morning.
Do you water your plants once a week?

In this book, widely used terms such as **noun**, **verb**, **pronoun** and so on, will be used in order to explain the way in which words function in the English language.

2. Verb forms

English verbs may have different forms, depending on the **subject** of the verb, and depending on when the action expressed by the verb takes place.

In the following sentences, the subjects of the verbs indicate who or what is performing the actions expressed by the verbs. The verbs in these examples are underlined.
e.g. We live in the city.
He lives on Queen Street.

These examples illustrate how the form of a verb may vary, depending on the subject of the verb. In the first example, the subject is **we**, and the form of the verb is **live**. In the second example, the subject is **he**, and the form of the verb is **lives**.

The different verb forms which indicate when the action expressed by a verb takes place are usually referred to as **tenses**.
e.g. We always walk to work.
We walked to work yesterday.

In the first sentence, the verb **walk** is in the Simple Present tense. In the second sentence, the verb **walked** is in the Simple Past tense. Present tenses are usually used to express actions which are taking place in the present; whereas past tenses are usually used to express actions which took place in the past.

The **infinitive** form of a verb can be used without reference to any particular subject or any particular time. In English, the infinitive form of a verb begins with the word **to**. For instance, **to walk** is the infinitive of the verb used in the two preceding examples.

3. Uses of the simple present tense

The Simple Present is one of four present tenses in English, and is used in various ways. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Simple Present tense are underlined.

For instance, the Simple Present can be used to refer to actions which occur at regular intervals.
e.g. We visit our friends every Sunday.
They take a holiday once a year.
Geese fly south every fall.

The Simple Present is also used in stating general truths.
e.g. Gas expands when heated.
The Pacific Ocean is the largest ocean in the world.
Canada lies north of the United States.

In addition, the Simple Present is used when referring to printed material, and when describing events portrayed in a book, film, or other work of art.
e.g. The report presents the information clearly.
At the end of the film , the hero finds the hidden treasure.

Occasionally, the Simple Present is used to express actions occurring in the future or the past.

e.g. Our plane leaves at eight o'clock tomorrow night.
Burglar Steals Valuable Paintings

In the first example, the Simple Present is used to refer to something which will happen in the future. In the second example, which is written in the style of a newspaper headline, the Simple Present is used to refer to something which happened in the past.

4. The simple present of the verb To Be

A **conjugation** of a verb is a list showing the different forms a verb may take. When a verb is conjugated, it is usually accompanied by all of the **personal pronouns** which can act as subjects of a verb. Thus, a conjugation can show the different forms a verb must take when it is used with different subjects.

The English personal pronouns which may be used as subjects of verbs are as follows:

I
you
he
she
it
we
they

It should be noted that in modern English, the same verb forms are used with the

subject **you**, whether **you** refers to one or more than one person or thing. In an older form of English, there was another personal pronoun, **thou**, which was used with different verb forms, and which generally referred to one person or thing.

The Simple Present of the verb **to be** is conjugated as follows. In spoken English, contractions are often used.

Without contractions	With contractions
I am	I'm
you are	you're
he is	he's
she is	she's
it is	it's
we are	we're
they are	they're

In written English, an apostrophe: ' is used in a contraction, to indicate that one or more letters have been omitted.

a. Affirmative statements
An affirmative statement states that something is true. In an affirmative statement, the verb follows the subject.
e.g. I am awake.
They are ready.

In the first example, the verb **am** follows the subject **I**. In the second example, the verb **are** follows the subject **they**. In written English, statements are always followed by a period: **.** Statements and questions must begin with a capital letter.

In order to review the preceding points, see Exercise 1.

b. Questions
For the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, questions are formed by reversing the order of the subject and the verb, so that the verb precedes the subject.
e.g. Am I awake?
Are they ready?

In the first example, the verb **am** precedes the subject **I**. In the second example, the verb **are** precedes the subject **they**. In written English, questions are always followed by a question mark: **?**

See Exercise 2.

c. Negative statements
In the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, negative statements are formed by adding the word **not** after the verb.
e.g. I am not awake.
They are not ready.
In the first example, **not** follows the verb **am**. In the second example, **not** follows the

verb **are**.

In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without contractions	With contractions
is not	isn't
are not	aren't

See Exercise 3.

d. Negative questions
In the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, negative questions are formed by reversing the order of the subject and verb, and adding **not** after the subject.
e.g. Am I not awake?
Are they not ready?

In spoken English, contractions are usually used in negative questions. In the contracted form of a negative question, the contraction of **not** follows immediately after the verb. For example:

Without contractions	With contractions
Are you not awake?	Aren't you awake?
Is he not awake?	Isn't he awake?
Are we not awake?	Aren't we awake?
Are they not awake?	Aren't they awake?

It should be noted that there is no universally accepted contraction for **am not**. In spoken English, **am I not?** is often contracted to **aren't I?**. However, although the expression **aren't I?** is considered acceptable in informal English, it is not considered to be grammatically correct in formal English. In formal English, no contraction should be used for **am I not**.

See Exercise 4.

e. Tag questions
A **tag question** is a question added at the end of a sentence. A tag question following an affirmative statement generally has the form of a negative question, with the meaning: **Isn't that true?** In some languages, such tag questions are invariable. However, in English, tag questions vary, depending on the verbs and subjects of the preceding statements.

In the following examples, the tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative statement	Affirmative statement with tag question
Are you not awake?	Aren't you awake?
I am awake.	I am awake, <u>am I not</u>?
You are awake.	You are awake, <u>aren't you</u>?
She is awake.	She is awake, <u>isn't she</u>?
We are awake.	We are awake, <u>aren't we</u>?

They are awake. They are awake, aren't they?

These examples illustrate how the subjects and verbs of the preceding statements are repeated in tag questions. For instance, in the first example, the subject **I** and the verb **am** are repeated in the tag question. In the second example, the subject **you** and the verb **are** are repeated in the tag question.

In spoken English, the expression **aren't I?** is often used as a tag question. However, this is not considered to be grammatically correct in formal, written English.

EXERCISES for Chapter 1

1. Change the following pairs of words into sentences, using the correct forms of the Simple Present of the verb **to be**. For example:

I, cautious
I am cautious.

they, friendly
They are friendly.

1. you, careful
2. it, warm
3. he, here
4. we, bold
5. they, careless
6. she, clever
7. we, ready
8. you, reckless
9. I, shy
10. they, polite

Answers

2. Change the affirmative statements resulting from Exercise 1 into questions. For example:

I am cautious.
Am I cautious?

They are friendly.
Are they friendly?

Answers

3. Change the affirmative statements resulting from Exercise 1 into negative statements. For example:

I am cautious.
I am not cautious.

They are friendly.
They are not friendly.

Answers

4. Change the affirmative statements resulting from Exercise 1 into negative questions. Except where the subject of the verb is **I**, write both the form without contractions and the form with contractions. For example:

I am cautious.
Am I not cautious?

They are friendly.
Are they not friendly?
Aren't they friendly?

Answers

5. Add negative tag questions to the ends of the affirmative statements resulting from Exercise 1. Except where the subject of the verb is **I**, use contractions for the tag questions. For example:

I am cautious.
I am cautious, am I not?

They are friendly.
They are friendly, aren't they?

Answers

6. Using the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, and making sure that the word order is correct, form the following groups of words into grammatically correct statements or questions. If the symbol **?** is present, form the words into a question. If the word **not** is present, form the words into a negative statement or negative question. Do not use contractions in this exercise. For example:

it, brown
It is brown.

you, ?, excited
Are you excited?

I, satisfied, not
I am not satisfied.

not, ?, they, ready
Are they not ready?

1. you, ?, hungry
2. we, ?, not, correct
3. he, ?, happy
4. not, ?, it, cold
5. she, here
6. I, early, ?
7. they, wrong, not
8. you, ?, comfortable
9. they, ?, not, strong
10. not, ?, I, fortunate
11. it, slippery, ?

12. not, you, late
13. it, not, ?, important
14. we, famous
15. they, present, ?
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 1

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. You are careful. 2. It is warm. 3. He is here. 4. We are bold. 5. They are careless. 6. She is clever. 7. We are ready. 8. You are reckless. 9. I am shy. 10. They are polite.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Are you careful? 2. Is it warm? 3. Is he here? 4. Are we bold? 5. Are they careless? 6. Is she clever? 7. Are we ready? 8. Are you reckless? 9. Am I shy? 10. Are they polite?

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. You are not careful. 2. It is not warm. 3. He is not here. 4. We are not bold. 5. They are not careless. 6. She is not clever. 7. We are not ready. 8. You are not reckless. 9. I am not shy. 10. They are not polite.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. Are you not careful? Aren't you careful? 2. Is it not warm? Isn't it warm? 3. Is he not here? Isn't he here? 4. Are we not bold? Aren't we bold? 5. Are they not careless? Aren't they careless? 6. Is she not clever? Isn't she clever? 7. Are we not ready? Aren't we ready? 8. Are you not reckless? Aren't you reckless? 9. Am I not shy? 10. Are they not polite? Aren't they polite?

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. You are careful, aren't you? 2. It is warm, isn't it? 3. He is here, isn't he? 4. We are bold, aren't we? 5. They are careless, aren't they? 6. She is clever, isn't she? 7. We are ready, aren't we? 8. You are reckless, aren't you? 9. I am shy, am I not? 10. They are polite, aren't they?

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. Are you hungry? 2. Are we not correct? 3. Is he happy? 4. Is it not cold? 5. She is here. 6. Am I early? 7. They are not wrong. 8. Are you comfortable? 9. Are they not strong? 10. Am I not fortunate? ii. Is it slippery? 12. You are not late. 13. Is it not important? 14. We are famous. 15. Are they present?

CHAPTER 2. THE SIMPLE PRESENT OF VERBS OTHER THAN THE VERB TO BE

1. Formation of the simple present

The Simple Present of any verb other than the verb **to be** is formed from the **bare infinitive** of the verb. As shown in the following examples, the bare infinitive of a verb consists of the infinitive without the word **to**. The bare infinitive is the form in which English verbs are usually listed in dictionaries. For example:

Infinitive	Bare Infinitive
to be	be
to walk	walk
to work	work

In the Simple Present of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the form of the verb used with the subjects **I** , **you**, **we** and **they** is the same as the bare infinitive. The form of the verb used with the subjects **he**, **she** and **it** has the ending **s** added to the bare infinitive.

For example, the Simple Present of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I work
you work
he works
she works
it works
we work
they work

The form of the verb used with the subjects **he**, **she** and **it** is generally referred to as the **third person singular**

See Exercise 1.

a. The simple present of the verb To Have
The Simple Present of the verb **to have** is slightly irregular, since the bare infinitive is **have**, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular is **has**. The Simple Present of the verb **to have** is conjugated as follows:

I have
you have
he has
she has
it has
we have
they have

See Exercise 2.

2. Spelling rules for adding s in the third person singular

Some verbs change their spelling when **s** is added in the third person singular.

a. Verbs ending in y
The English letters **a**, **e**, **i**, **o** and **u** are generally referred to as **vowels**. The other English letters are generally referred to as **consonants**.

When a verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **ie** before the ending **s** is added. In each of the following examples, the consonant immediately preceding the final **y** is underlined.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
study	studies
fly	flies
carry	carries

However, when a verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a vowel, the **y** is not changed before the ending **s** is added. In each of the following examples, the vowel immediately preceding the final **y** is underlined.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
say	says
enjoy	enjoys
buy	buys

See Exercise 3.

b. Verbs ending in o
When a verb ends in **o**, the letter **e** is added before the **s** ending. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
do	does
echo	echoes
go	goes

c. Verbs ending in ch, s, sh, x or z
When a verb ends in a sibilant sound such as **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the letter **e** is added before the **s** ending. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
pass	passes
push	pushes
watch	watches
fix	fixes
buzz	buzzes

See Exercise 4.

3. Pronunciation of the es ending

A syllable is a unit of pronunciation, usually consisting of a vowel sound which may or may not be accompanied by consonants.

When a verb ends in a sibilant sound such as **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the **es** ending of the third person singular is pronounced as a separate syllable. The reason for this is that these sounds are so similar to the sound of the **es** ending, that the ending must be

pronounced as a separate syllable in order to be heard clearly.

In each of the following examples the bare infinitive consists of one syllable, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular consists of two syllables.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
pass	passes
push	pushes
catch	catches
mix	mixes

Similarly, when **s** is added to verbs ending in **ce**, **ge**, **se** or **ze**, the final **es** is usually pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples the bare infinitive consists of one syllable, whereas the form of the verb used in the third person singular consists
of two syllables.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
race	races
rage	rages
praise	praises
doze	dozes

However, when **s** is added to a verb ending in **e** preceded by a letter
other than **c**, **g**, **s** or **z**, the final **es** is not pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples, both the bare infinitive and the form of the verb used in the third person singular consist of one syllable.

Bare Infinitive	Third Person Singular
make	makes
smile	smiles
dine	dines
save	saves

See Exercise 5.

4. The auxiliary Do

With the exception of the verb **to be**, verbs in modern English use the auxiliary **do** to form questions and negative statements in the Simple Present.
The Simple Present of the verb **to do** is conjugated as follows:

I do
you do
he does
she does
it does
we do
they do

Auxiliaries are verbs which are combined with other verbs to form various tenses. It should be noted that when an auxiliary is combined with another verb, it is the auxiliary which must agree with the subject, while the form of the other verb remains invariable.

When the auxiliary **do** is combined with another verb, the other verb always has the form of the bare infinitive.

a. Questions
In order to form a question in the Simple Present of any verb other than the verb **to be**, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** is added before the subject, and the bare infinitive of the verb is placed after the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I work.	Do I work?
You work.	Do you work?
He works.	Does he work?
She works.	Does she work?
It works.	Does it work?
We work.	Do we work?
They work.	Do they work?

See Exercise 6.

b. Negative statements
In order to form a negative statement, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** followed by the word **not** is placed before the bare infinitive of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I work.	I do not work.
You work.	You do not work.
He works.	He does not work.
She works.	She does not work.
It works.	It does not work.
We work.	We do not work.
They work.	They do not work.

See Exercise 7.
In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without contractions	With contractions
do not	don't
does not	doesn't

c. Negative questions
To form a negative question, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do** is placed before the subject, and the word **not** followed by the bare infinitive is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the Simple Present of the auxiliary **do**. For example:

Without contractions	With contractions
Do I not work?	Don't I work?
Do you not work?	Don't you work?
Does he not work?	Doesn't he work?
Does she not work?	Doesn't she work?
Does it not work?	Doesn't it work?
Do we not work?	Don't we work?
Do they not work?	Don't they work?

See Exercise 8.

d. Tag questions

The auxiliary **do** or **does** is used for a tag question which follows a statement containing the Simple Present of a verb other than the verb **to be**. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I work.	I work, don't I?
You work.	You work, don't you?
He works.	He works, doesn't he?
She works.	She works, doesn't she?
It works.	It works, doesn't it?
We work.	We work, don't we?
They work.	They work, don't they?

See Exercise 9.

e. The verb To Have

It should be noted that, particularly in British English, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to have**, questions and negative statements are sometimes formed in the same way as for the verb **to be**, without the use of the auxiliary **do**.
e.g. He has a sister, hasn't he?

EXERCISES for Chapter 2

1. Using the Simple Present tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____ to the radio. (to listen)
I listen to the radio.

He _____ to the radio. (to listen)
He listens to the radio.

1. She _____ the guitar. (to play)
2. We _____ soccer. (to play)
3. They _____ to talk. (to like)
4. He _____ ice cream. (to like)
5. You _____ your friends often. (to call)

6. He _____ the office every day. (to call)
7. She _____ regularly. (to practise)
8. They _____ once a week. (to practise)
9. We _____ here. (to shop)
10. It _____ delicious. (to taste)
Answers

2. Using the Simple Present tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verb **to have**. For example:

I ____ a pen.
I have a pen.

He ___ two pencils.
He has two pencils.

1. I _____ many books.
2. You _____ an apartment.
3. He _____ a bicycle.
4. We _____ fun.
5. They _____ two sleds.
6. She _____ milk in her tea.
7. I _____ a warm sweater.
8. We _____ breakfast at eight o'clock.
9. He _____ an alarm clock.
10. They _____ a sense of humor.
Answers

3. Paying attention to which verbs change their spelling before adding **s** in the third person singular, fill in the blanks with the Simple Present of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He always _____ promptly. (to reply)
He always replies promptly.

She _____ little. (to say)
She says little.

They _____ bridge once a week. (to play)
They play bridge once a week.

1. He _____ it. (to deny)
2. They _____ to be on time. (to try)
3. It _____ to be careful. (to pay)
4. She _____ hard. (to study)
5. You _____ good manners. (to display)
6. He always _____ himself. (to enjoy)
7. She _____ to Ireland once a year. (to fly)
8. We _____ five people. (to employ)
9. He _____ his friends. (to accompany)
10. She _____ chocolate chip cookies every week. (to buy)
Answers

4. Paying attention to which verbs take **s** and which take **es** in the third person singular, fill in the blanks with the Simple Present of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He ____ everywhere on foot. (to go)
He goes everywhere on foot.

It _____ surprising. (to seem)
It seems surprising.

They _____ skiing. (to teach)
They teach skiing.

1. She _____ a great deal of work. (to do)
2. He _____ television every evening. (to watch)
3. She _____ a horse. (to own)
4. We _____ the dishes every night. (to do)
5. She _____ she had a pair of skates. (to wish)
6. He _____ us to call him. (to want)
7. She _____ she made a mistake. (to confess)
8. He usually _____ the truth. (to tell)
9. They _____ apples to make cider. (to press)
10. It _____ out easily. (to wash)

Answers

5. For each of the following verbs, underline the letter or letters representing the sound preceding the **es** ending, and then indicate the number of syllables in the verb. For example:

wishes __
wishes 2

laces __
laces 2

takes __
takes 1

1. watches __
2. teases __
3. likes __
4. rushes __
5. faces __
6. dines __
7. misses __
8. tames __
9. scares __
10. passes __
11. pinches __
12. wades __

Answers

6. Change the following affirmative statements into questions. For example:

She walks to work.
Does she walk to work?

They take the bus.
Do they take the bus?

1. I hurry home.
2. He drives a truck.
3. You follow the news.
4. They want a pet.
5. She likes flowers.
6. We need tea.
7. She answers the questions.
8. He drinks coffee.
9. I learn quickly.
10. It rains heavily.

Answers

7. Change the affirmative statements given in Exercise 6 into negative statements. For example:

She walks to work.
She does not walk to work.

They take the bus.
They do not take the bus.

Answers

8. Change the affirmative statements given in Exercise 6 into negative questions. Give both the forms without contractions, and the forms with contractions. For example:

She walks to work.
Does she not walk to work?
Doesn't she walk to work?

They take the bus.
Do they not take the bus?
Don't they take the bus?

Answers

9. Add negative tag questions to the affirmative statements given in Exercise 6. Use contractions for the tag questions. For example:

She walks to work.
She walks to work, doesn't she?

They take the bus.
They take the bus, don't they?

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 2

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. plays 2. play 3. like 4. likes 5. call 6. calls 7. practises 8. practise 9. shop 10. tastes

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. have 2. have 3. has 4. have 5. have 6. has 7. have 8. have 9. has 10. have

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. denies 2. try 3. pays 4. studies 5. display 6. enjoys 7. flies 8. employ 9. accompanies 10. buys

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. does 2. watches 3. owns 4. do 5. wishes 6. wants 7. confesses 8. tells 9. press 10. washes

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. watches 2 2. teases 2 3. likes 1 4. rushes 2 5. faces 2 6. dines 1 7. misses 2 8. tames 1 9. scares 1 10. passes 2 11. pinches 2 12. wades 1

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. Do I hurry home? 2. Does he drive a truck? 3. Do you follow the news? 4. Do they want a pet? 5. Does she like flowers? 6. Do we need tea? 7. Does she answer the questions? 8. Does he drink coffee? 9. Do I learn quickly? 10. Does it rain heavily?

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. I do not hurry home. 2. He does not drive a truck. 3. You do not follow the news. 4. They do not want a pet. 5. She does not like flowers. 6. We do not need tea. 7. She does not answer the questions. 8. He does not drink coffee. 9. I do not learn quickly. 10. It does not rain heavily.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. Do I not hurry home? Don't I hurry home? 2. Does he not drive a truck? Doesn't he drive a truck? 3. Do you not follow the news? Don't you follows the news? 4. Do they not want a pet? Don't they want a pet? 5. Does she not like flowers? Doesn't she like flowers? 6. Do we not need tea? Don't we need tea? 7. Does she not answer the questions? Doesn't she answer the questions? 8. Does he not drink coffee? Doesn't he drink coffee? 9. Do I not learn quickly? Don't I learn quickly? 10. Does it not rain heavily? Doesn't it rain heavily?

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. I hurry home, don't I? 2. He drives a truck, doesn't he?
3. You follow the news, don't you? 4. They want a pet, don't they? 5. She likes flowers, doesn't she? 6. We need tea, don't we? 7. She answers the questions, doesn't she? 8. He drinks coffee, doesn't he? 9. I learn quickly, don't I? 10. It rains heavily, doesn't it?

CHAPTER 3. THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS

1. Uses of the present continuous

In English, the Present Continuous tense is usually used to express continuing, ongoing actions which are taking place at the moment of speaking or writing. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Present Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. Right now I am cooking supper.
At the moment the plane is flying over the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

The Present Continuous tense is often used in conversation.
e.g. "What are you doing?"
"I am working on my English assignment."

Occasionally, the Present Continuous tense is used to refer to a future event.
e.g. We are leaving tomorrow.

2. Formation of the present continuous

The Present Continuous tense of any verb is formed from the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by what is generally referred to as the **present participle** of the verb.

The present participle of a verb is formed by adding **ing** to the bare infinitive. For instance, the present participle of the verb **to work** is **working**.

Thus, the Present Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I am working
you are working
he is working
she is working
it is working
we are working
they are working

See Exercise 1.

3. Spelling rules for the formation of the present participle

Some verbs change their spelling when the ending **ing** is added to form the present participle.

a. Verbs ending in a silent e
When a verb ends in a silent **e**, the silent **e** is dropped before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to close	closing
to dine	dining
to leave	leaving
to move	moving

However, when a verb ends in an **e** which is not silent, the final **e** is not dropped before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to be	being
to see	seeing

b. Verbs ending in ie
When a verb ends in **ie**, the **ie** is changed to **y** before the ending **ing** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to die	dying
to lie	lying

When a verb ends in **y**, no change is made before the ending is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to fly	flying
to play	playing

See Exercise 2.

c. One-syllable verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel
Except in the case of the final consonants **w**, **x** and **y**, when a one-syllable verb ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ing** is added. The reason for this is to reflect the fact that the pronunciation of the single vowel does not change when the ending **ing** is added.

English vowels have a variety of pronunciations. For instance, each English vowel has two contrasting pronunciations, which are sometimes referred to as **short** and **long**. Vowels which are followed by two consonants, and vowels which are followed by a single consonant at the end of a word, are generally pronounced **short**. In contrast, vowels which are followed by a single consonant followed by another vowel are generally pronounced **long**.

In the table below, the underlined vowels in the left-hand column are pronounced

short; whereas the underlined vowels in the right-hand column are pronounced **long**. For example:

Short Vowels	Long Vowels
fat	fate
tapping	taping
let	delete
win	wine
filling	filing
not	note
hopping	hoping
flutter	flute

Thus, in the case of most one-syllable verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the vowel is pronounced **short**. In order to reflect the fact that the vowel is also pronounced short in the corresponding present participle, except in the case of **w**, **x** and **y**, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ing** is added.

In the following examples, the consonants which have been doubled are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to nod	nodding
to dig	digging
to run	running
to clap	clapping
to set	setting

When a verb ends in **w**, **x** or **y** preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending is added. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to draw	drawing
to fix	fixing
to say	saying

It should also be noted that when a verb ends in a single consonant preceded by two vowels, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending is added. The reason for this is that two vowels together are generally pronounced **long**. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to rain	raining
to read	reading
to meet	meeting
to soak	soaking

See Exercise 3.

d. Verbs of more than one syllable which end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled to form the present participle only when the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress.

For instance, in the following examples, the last syllables of the verbs have the heaviest stress, and the final consonants are doubled to form the present participles. In these examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to expel	expelling
to begin	beginning
to occur	occurring
to omit	omitting

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in **w**, **x** or **y**, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **ing** is added. In the following examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to allow	allowing
to affix	affixing
to convey	conveying

When the last syllable of a verb is not pronounced with the heaviest stress, the final consonant is usually not doubled to form the present participle. For instance, in the following examples, the last syllables of the verbs do not have the heaviest stress, and the final consonants are not doubled to form the present participles. In these examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle
to listen	listening
to order	ordering
to focus	focusing
to limit	limiting

If necessary, a dictionary can be consulted to determine which syllable of a verb has the heaviest stress. Many dictionaries use symbols such as apostrophes to indicate which syllables are pronounced with the heaviest stress.

See Exercise 4.

It should be noted that British and American spelling rules differ for verbs which end in a single **l** preceded by a single vowel. In British spelling, the **l** is always doubled before the endings **ing** and **ed**
are added. However, in American spelling, verbs ending with a single **l** follow the same rule as other verbs; the **l** is doubled only when the last syllable has the heaviest stress. In the following examples, the syllables with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Present Participle American Spelling	British Spelling
to signal	signaling	signalling
to travel	traveling	travelling
to compel	compelling	compelling
to propel	propelling	propelling

From these examples it can be seen that the American and British spellings for verbs ending in a single **l** differ only when the last syllable does not have the heaviest stress.

4. Questions and negative statements

a. Questions

In the Present Continuous, the verb **to be** acts as an auxiliary. As is the case with other English tenses, it is the auxiliary which is used to form questions and negative statements.

To form a question in the Present Continuous tense, the auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I am working.	Am I working?
You are working.	Are you working?
He is working.	Is he working?
She is working.	Is she working?
It is working.	Is it working?
We are working.	Are we working?
They are working.	Are they working?

See Exercise 5.

b. Negative statements

To form a negative statement, the word **not** is added after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I am working.	I am not working.
You are working.	You are not working.
He is working.	He is not working.
She is working.	She is not working.
It is working.	It is not working.
We are working.	We are not working.
They are working.	They are not working.

See Exercise 6.

c. Negative questions

To form a negative question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word

not is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. Although there is no universally accepted contraction for **am not**, the expression **aren't I?** is often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Am I not working?	[Aren't I working?] - used in speaking
Are you not working?	Aren't you working?
Is he not working?	Isn't he working?
Is she not working?	Isn't she working?
Is it not working?	Isn't it working?
Are we not working?	Aren't we working?
Are they not working?	Aren't they working?

See Exercise 7.

d. Tag questions

Tag questions are also formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the tag questions are underlined. In spoken English, **aren't I?** is often used as a tag question. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I am working.	I am working, am I not?
You are working.	You are working, aren't you?
He is working.	He is working, isn't he?
She is working.	She is working, isn't she?
It is working.	It is working, isn't it?
We are working.	We are working, aren't we?
They are working.	They are working, aren't they?

See Exercise 8.

5. Comparison of the uses of the simple present and present continuous

As pointed out in Chapter 1, the Simple Present tense may be used for stating general truths, and for referring to actions which occur at regular intervals. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Present tense are underlined.
e.g. Nova Scotia is a Canadian province. Geese fly south every winter.

In contrast, the Present Continuous tense is usually used to refer to ongoing actions happening at the time of speaking or writing. In the following examples, the verbs in the Present Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. Right now, I am visiting the province of Nova Scotia. At the moment, a flock of geese is flying overhead.

EXERCISES for Chapter 3

1. Using the Present Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He _____ hard. (to work)
He is working hard.

We _____ anxious. (to feel)
We are feeling anxious.

1. I _____ the questions. (to answer)
2. You _____ boots. (to wear)
3. We _____ for work. (to look)
4. She _____ her friend. (to call)
5. He _____ a house. (to build)
6. They _____ supper. (to cook)
7. We _____ a story. (to tell)
8. You _____ for the bus. (to wait)
9. I _____ a book. (to read)
10. They _____ berries. (to pick)

Answers

2. Using the Present Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

They _____ the lemons. (to squeeze)
They are squeezing the lemons.

It _____ on the sidewalk. (to lie)
It is lying on the sidewalk.

I _____ the groceries. (to carry)
I am carrying the groceries.

1. She _____ a letter. (to write)
2. They _____ about it. (to worry)
3. He _____ jam. (to make)
4. It _____. (to die)
5. We _____ to school. (to hurry)
6. She _____ us to do it. (to dare)
7. You _____ on the blanket. (to lie)
8. He _____ the problem. (to solve)
9. I _____ now. (to leave)
10. They _____ to help us. (to try)

Answers

3. Using the Present Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____ to come. (to plan)
We are planning to come.

They _____ the lawn. (to mow)
They are mowing the lawn.

It _____. (to rain)
It is raining.

1. I _____ the grass. (to cut)
2. It _____ downstream. (to float)
3. They _____ the game. (to win)
4. We _____ the present. (to wrap)
5. She _____ lettuce. (to grow)
6. He _____ for us. (to look)
7. I _____ a sweater. (to knit)
8. They _____ wood. (to saw)
9. She _____ the windows. (to clean)
10. We _____ the floor. (to scrub)
11. I _____ the toaster. (to fix)
12. He _____ his coffee. (to sip)
13. They _____ the hedge. (to trim)
14. You _____ the ducks. (to feed)
15. She _____ her head. (to nod)

Answers

4. Each of the following sentences is preceded by a bare infinitive, the most heavily stressed syllable of which is underlined. Paying attention to whether or not the final consonant should be doubled before **ing** is added, fill in the blanks with the present participles corresponding to the bare infinitives. Use the American spelling for verbs ending in **l**. For example:

whisper: They are _____ to their friends.
They are whispering to their friends.

refer: I was _____ to your letter.
I was referring to your letter.

1. open: I am _____ the door.
2. display: She is _____ her talents.
3. submit: He is _____ his report tomorrow.
4. limit: The store is _____ the number of items on sale.
5. permit: We are not _____ him to go.
6. sharpen: They are _____ the pencils.
7. confer: She is _____ with her colleagues.
8. focus: He is _____ the camera.
9. repel: They are _____ the attack.
10. shovel: I am _____ the steps.
11. destroy: Hail is _____ the crops.
12. dispel: They are _____ our doubts.
13. squander: He is _____ his money.
14. prefer: We are _____ our new school to the old one.
15. color: The child is _____ the picture.
16. unravel: We are _____ the wool.
17. propel: Jet engines are _____ the plane.
18. flower: The pansies are _____

19. infer: They are _____ that we do not want to come.
20. listen: The children are _____ to us.
Answers

5. Change the following affirmative statements into questions. For example:
It is snowing.
Is it snowing?

They are being cautious.
Are they being cautious?

1. I am learning English.
2. You are carrying a parcel.
3. It is growing colder.
4. We are living in Halifax.
5. They are running a race.
6. He is drinking coffee.
7. She is shopping for presents.
8. I am cleaning the window.
9. We are buying pencils.
10. They are playing football.
Answers

6. Change the affirmative statements given in Exercise 5 into negative statements. For example:
It is snowing.
It is not snowing.

They are being cautious.
They are not being cautious.
Answers

7. Change the affirmative statements given in Exercise 5 into negative questions. Except when the subject of the verb is **I**, write both the form without contractions and the form with contractions. For example:
It is snowing.
Is it not snowing?
Isn't it snowing?

They are being cautious.
Are they not being cautious?
Aren't they being cautious?
Answers

8. Add negative tag questions to the affirmative statements given in Exercise 5. Except when the subject of the verb is **I**, use contractions for the tag questions. For example:
It is snowing.
It is snowing, isn't it?

They are being cautious.

They are being cautious, aren't they?

Answers

9. For each of the following sentences, determine whether the Simple Present tense or the Present Continuous tense is more appropriate, and fill in the blank with the correct form of the verb given in brackets. For example:

Right now, he _____ ridiculous. (to be)
Right now, he is being ridiculous.

She _____ to Sydney every weekend. (to drive)
She drives to Sydney every weekend.

1. At the moment, I _____ supper. (to cook)
2. He _____ the paper every weekday. (to read)
3. We _____ right now. (to study)
4. She _____ every day. (to study)
5. Now it _____. (to rain)
6. They _____ to Mexico every year. (to travel)
7. Just now we _____ the shopping. (to do)
8. She always _____ correctly.(to answer)
9. You _____ never late. (to be)
10. Now I _____ to the radio. (to listen)
11. Each Sunday, we _____ the flea market. (to visit)
12. At present, I _____ for work. (to look)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 3

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. am answering 2. are wearing 3. are looking 4. is calling 5. is building 6. are cooking 7. are telling 8. are waiting 9. am reading 10. are picking

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. is writing 2. are worrying 3. is making 4. is dying 5. are hurrying 6. is daring 7. are lying 8. is solving 9. am leaving 10. are trying

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. am cutting 2. is floating 3. are winning 4. are wrapping 5. is growing 6. is looking 7. am knitting 8. are sawing 9. is cleaning 10. are scrubbing 11. am fixing 12. is sipping 13. are trimming 14. are feeding 15. is nodding

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. opening 2. displaying 3. submitting 4. limiting 5. permitting 6. sharpening 7. conferring 8. focusing 9. repelling 10. shoveling 11. destroying 12. dispelling 13. squandering 14. preferring 15. coloring 16. unraveling 17. propelling 18. flowering 19. inferring 20. listening

Answers to Exercise 5:

1. Am I learning English? 2. Are you carrying a parcel? 3. Is it growing colder? 4. Are we living in Halifax? 5. Are they running a race? 6. Is he drinking coffee? 7. Is she shopping for presents? 8. Am I cleaning the window? 9. Are we buying pencils? 10. Are they playing football?

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. I am not learning English. 2. You are not carrying a parcel. 3. It is not growing colder. 4. We are not living in Halifax. 5. They are not running a race. 6. He is not drinking coffee. 7. She is not shopping for presents. 8. I am not cleaning the window. 9. We are not buying pencils. 10. They are not playing football.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Am I not learning English? 2. Are you not carrying a parcel? Aren't you carrying a parcel? 3. Is it not growing colder? Isn't it growing colder? 4. Are we not living in Halifax? Aren't we living in Halifax? 5. Are they not running a race? Aren't they running a race? 6. Is he not drinking coffee? Isn't he drinking coffee? 7. Is she not shopping for presents? Isn't she shopping for presents? 8. Am I not cleaning the window? 9. Are we not buying pencils? Aren't we buying pencils? 10. Are they not playing football? Aren't they playing football?

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. I am learning English, am I not? 2. You are carrying a parcel, aren't you? 3. It is growing colder, isn't it? 4. We are living in Halifax, aren't we? 5. They are running a race, aren't they? 6. He is drinking coffee, isn't he? 7. She is shopping for presents, isn't she? 8. I am cleaning the window, am I not? 9. We are buying pencils, aren't we? 10. They are playing football, aren't they?

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. am cooking 2. reads 3. are studying 4. studies 5. is raining 6. travel 7. are doing 8. answers 9. are 10. am listening 11. visit 12. am looking

CHAPTER 4. THE PRESENT PERFECT AND THE PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

1. Use of the present perfect

The English Present Perfect tense is used to express actions which have already been completed, or **perfected**, at the time of speaking or writing. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Present Perfect tense are underlined.
e.g. I have done the work.
She has answered half the questions.

In the first example, the use of the Present Perfect tense emphasizes the fact that, at the time of speaking or writing, the work has already been completed. In the second example, the use of the Present Perfect indicates that, at the time of speaking or writing, half the questions have been answered.

2. Formation of the present perfect: Regular verbs

The Present Perfect tense of any English verb is formed from the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by what is generally referred to as the **past participle** of the verb.

Most English verbs form the past participle in a regular, predictable manner. These verbs are commonly referred to as **regular verbs**.

The past participle of a regular English verb is formed by adding the ending **ed** to the bare infinitive of the verb. For instance, the past participle of the verb **to work** is **worked**.

Thus, the Present Perfect tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I have worked
you have worked
he has worked
she has worked
it has worked
we have worked
they have worked

See Exercise 1.

The following contractions are often used in spoken English:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
I have	I've
you have	you've
he has	he's
she has	she's
it has	it's
we have	we've
they have	they've

It should be noted that the contractions for **he has**, **she has** and **it has** are the same as the contractions for **he is**, **she is** and **it is**.

See Exercise 2.

3. Spelling rules for adding ed to form the past participle

Some regular verbs change their spelling when the ending **ed** is added to form the past participle.

a. Verbs ending in a silent e
When a regular verb ends in a silent **e**, only the letter **d** must be added in order to form the past participle. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to close	closed
to move	moved
to please	pleased
to receive	received

b. Verbs ending in y
When a regular verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to study	studied
to rely	relied
to carry	carried

However, when a regular verb ends in **y** immediately preceded by a vowel, the **y** is not changed before the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to play	played
to convey	conveyed
to enjoy	enjoyed

See Exercise 3.

c. Verbs ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel
The rules concerning the doubling of final consonants which apply when adding the ending **ing** to form the present participle also apply when adding the ending **ed** to form the past participle.

Thus, when a one-syllable verb ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** immediately preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant must be doubled before the ending **ed** is added to form the past participle. In the following examples, the consonants which have been doubled are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to rub	rubbed
to trim	trimmed
to plan	planned
to stop	stopped

When a verb of more than one syllable ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y** immediately preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled before the ending **ed** only when the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest

stress. In the following examples, the syllables pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to control	controlled
to infer	inferred
to occur	occurred
to permit	permitted
to fasten	fastened
to order	ordered
to focus	focused
to limit	limited

In the first four examples, the last syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress, and the final consonant is doubled before **ed** is added. In the last four examples, the first syllable of the verb is pronounced with the heaviest stress, and the final consonant is not doubled before **ed** is added.

The final consonants **w**, **x** and **y** are never doubled when the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to follow	followed
to box	boxed
to portray	portrayed

It should also be noted that final consonants immediately preceded by two vowels are not doubled when the ending **ed** is added. For example:

Infinitive	Past Participle
to greet	greeted
to rain	rained
to soak	soaked
to treat	treated

See Exercise 4.

4. Pronunciation of the ed ending

The ending **ed** is usually not pronounced as a separate syllable. For instance, in each of the following examples, both the bare infinitive and the past participle consist of one syllable. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
puff	puffed
work	worked

miss	missed
watch	watched

However, when the ending **ed** is added to verbs which end in **d** or **t**, the **ed** ending of the past participle is pronounced as a separate syllable. The reason for this is that the sounds of **d** and **t** are so similar to the sound of the **ed** ending, that the ending must be pronounced as a separate syllable in order to be heard clearly.

In each of the following examples, the bare infinitive consists of one syllable; whereas the past participle consists of two syllables. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
add	add**ed**
land	land**ed**
hunt	hunt**ed**
wait	wait**ed**

Similarly, when **d** is added to verbs ending in a silent **e** preceded by **d** or **t**, the final **ed** of the past participle is pronounced as a separate syllable. In each of the following examples, the bare infinitive consists of one syllable; whereas the past participle consists of two syllables. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
fade	fad**ed**
glide	glid**ed**
cite	cit**ed**
note	not**ed**

See Exercise 5.

5. Formation of the present perfect: Irregular verbs

In addition to **regular** English verbs, there are many **irregular** English verbs, which do not form the past participle with the ending **ed**. The English irregular verbs are related to the **strong** verbs of the German language. The following are examples of irregular English verbs. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Past Participle
begin	begun
find	found
go	gone
let	let
take	taken

The past participles of irregular English verbs are formed in an unpredictable manner, and must be memorized. A table of common English irregular verbs is provided.

Except for the irregularity of the past participle, the formation of the Present Perfect

tense is the same for an irregular verb as for a regular verb. In both cases, the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to have** is followed by the past participle of the verb.

For instance, the irregular verb **to take** has the past participle **taken**. Thus, the Present Perfect of the irregular verb **to take** is conjugated as follows:

I have taken
you have taken
he has taken
she has taken
it has taken
we have taken
they have taken

See Exercise 6.

6. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Present Perfect are formed using the auxiliary. In the case of the Present Perfect, the auxiliary is **have** or **has**.

a. Questions
In order to form a question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I have worked.	Have I worked?
You have worked.	Have you worked?
He has worked.	Has he worked?
She has worked.	Has she worked?
It has worked.	Has it worked?
We have worked.	Have we worked?
They have worked.	Have they worked?

b. Negative statements
In order to form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I have worked.	I have not worked.
You have worked.	You have not worked.
He has worked.	He has not worked.
She has worked.	She has not worked.
It has worked.	It has not worked.

We have worked.	We have not worked.
They have worked.	They have not worked.

The following contractions are often used in spoken English:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
have not	haven't
has not	hasn't

c. Negative questions
In order to form a negative question, the auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Have I not worked?	Haven't I worked?
Have you not worked?	Haven't you worked?
Has he not worked?	Hasn't he worked?
Has she not worked?	Hasn't she worked?
Has it not worked?	Hasn't it worked?
Have we not worked?	Haven't we worked?
Have they not worked?	Haven't they worked?

d. Tag questions
Tag questions are also formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I have worked.	I have worked, haven't I?
You have worked.	You have worked, haven't you?
He has worked.	He has worked, hasn't he?
She has worked.	She has worked, hasn't she?
It has worked.	It has worked, hasn't it?
We have worked.	We have worked, haven't we?
They have worked.	They have worked, haven't they?

See Exercise 7.

7. The present perfect continuous

a. Use
The Present Perfect Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which have already been completed at the time of speaking or writing.

In the following example, the verb in the Present Perfect Continuous tense is underlined.
e.g. The bus has been waiting for one hour.

The use of the Present Perfect Continuous tense in this example indicates that, at the time of speaking or writing, the bus has completed one hour of continuous waiting.

b. Formation
The Present Perfect Continuous tense of any English verb is formed from the Present Perfect of **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Present Perfect Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I have been working
you have been working
he has been working
she has been working
it has been working
we have been working
they have been working

Thus, it can be seen that the Present Perfect Continuous tense has two auxiliaries. The first auxiliary is **have** or **has**, and the second auxiliary is **been**.

See Exercise 8.

c. Questions and negative statements
When a verb has more than one auxiliary, it is the first auxiliary which must change its form to agree with the subject of the verb. It is also the first auxiliary which is used to form questions and negative statements.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject of the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I have been working.	Have I been working?
You have been working.	Have you been working?
He has been working.	Has he been working?
She has been working.	Has she been working?
It has been working.	Has it been working?
We have been working.	Have we been working?
They have been working.	Have they been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I have been working.	I have not been working.
You have been working.	You have not been working.
He has been working.	He has not been working.
She has been working.	She has not been working.
It has been working.	It has not been working.
We have been working.	We have not been working.

They have been working. They have not been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	**With Contractions**
Have I not been working?	Haven't I been working?
Have you not been working?	Haven't you been working?
Has he not been working?	Hasn't he been working?
Has she not been working?	Hasn't she been working?
Has it not been working?	Hasn't it been working?
Have we not been working?	Haven't we been working?
Have they not been working?	Haven't they been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. For example:

Affirmative Statement	**Affirmative Statement with Tag Question**
I have been working.	I have been working, haven't I?
You have been working.	You have been working, haven't you?
He has been working.	He has been working, hasn't he?
She has been working.	She has been working, hasn't she?
It has been working.	It has been working, hasn't it?
We have been working.	We have been working, haven't we?
They have been working.	They have been working, haven't they?

EXERCISES for Chapter 4

1. Using the Present Perfect tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____ the contest. (to enter)
We have entered the contest.

He _____ the work. (to finish)
He has finished the work.

1. They _____ a pizza. (to order)
2. It _____ to rain. (to start)
3. You _____ the question. (to answer)
4. I _____ the eggs. (to cook)
5. We _____ the sauce. (to heat)
6. He _____ the room. (to clean)
7. She _____ the car. (to start)
8. They _____ on the door. (to knock)
9. You _____ on the lights. (to turn)
10. She _____ them to come. (to ask)

Answers

2. Rewrite the following sentences, using the contracted form of the auxiliary **to have**. For example:

It has started.
It's started.

We have telephoned.
We've telephoned.

1. I have agreed.
2. You have moved.
3. He has looked.
4. We have argued.
5. They have explained.
6. You have waited.
7. She has answered.
8. We have finished.
9. It has cooled.
10. I have ordered.

Answers

3. Paying attention to the spelling of the past participles, fill in the blanks using the Present Perfect tense of the regular verbs shown in brackets. For example:

She _____ hard. (to try)
She has tried hard.

He _____ his friend. (to annoy)
He has annoyed his friend.

1. We _____ them. (to envy)
2. She _____ the clarinet for five years. (to play)
3. You _____ for the job. (to apply)
4. We _____ the eggs. (to fry)
5. They _____ six people. (to employ)
6. He _____ the wall with paint. (to spray)
7. I _____ home. (to hurry)
8. They _____ unusual intelligence. (to display)
9. It _____ our chances. (to destroy)
10. You _____ on your bicycle. (to rely)

Answers

4. Paying attention to the spelling of the past participles, fill in the blanks using the Present Perfect tense of the regular verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He _____ the child. (to scare)
He has scared the child.

They _____ the hillside. (to scar)
They have scarred the hillside.

1. She _____. (to apologize)
2. I _____ the soup. (to stir)

3. It _____. (to stop)
4. We _____ what happened. (to explain)
5. They _____ a concert. (to plan)
6. You _____ the table. (to wipe)
7. We _____ our hopes on you. (to pin)
8. She _____ the choir. (to join)
9. They _____ an eagle. (to spot)
10. It _____ every day. (to rain)
11. You _____ the cream. (to whip)
12. She _____ everything. (to arrange)
Answers

5. Keeping in mind that the ending **ed** forms a separate syllable only when it follows the letter **d** or **t**, indicate the number of syllables in each of the following past participles. Read each of the the past participles aloud. For example:

__ pained
1 pained

__ painted
2 painted

1. ___ waited
2. ___ wailed
3. ___ pinned
4. ___ printed
5. ___ acted
6. ___ added
7. ___ wanted
8. ___ warned
9. ___ raced
10. ___ rated
11. ___ joined
12. ___ jumped
13. ___ folded
14. ___ frowned
15. ___ passed
16. ___ patted
17. ___ raided
18. ___ rained
19. ___ stared
20. ___ started
Answers

6. Referring to the table of irregular verbs if necessary, fill in the blanks with the Present Perfect tense of the irregular verbs shown in brackets. For example:

They _____ tall. (to grow)
They have grown tall.

He _____ it. (to choose)
He has chosen it.

1. We _____ lunch. (to eat)
2. I _____ the floor. (to sweep)
3. She _____ in a choir. (to sing)
4. They _____ to work. (to go)
5. You _____ your way. (to lose)
6. He _____ earlier than usual. (to rise)
7. We _____ to everyone. (to speak)
8. I _____ the kingfisher. (to see)
9. They _____ each other a long time. (to know)
10. She _____ here from France. (to fly)
11. He _____ very helpful. (to be)
12. I _____ the blue cloth. (to cut)
13. We _____ two letters. (to write)
14. They _____ the competition. (to win)
15. She _____ no one. (to tell)
16. It _____ a long time. (to take)
17. You _____ to do it. (to forget)
18. I _____ it. (to hear)
19. They _____ town. (to leave)
20. He _____ the problem. (to understand)

Answers

7. Following the model of the examples, rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

I have read this book.
Have I read this book?
I have not read this book.
Have I not read this book?
Haven't I read this book?
I have read this book, haven't I?

He has found the answer.
Has he found the answer?
He has not found the answer.
Has he not found the answer?
Hasn't he found the answer?
He has found the answer, hasn't he?

1. They have eaten the cookies.
2. She has told the truth.
3. He has run fast.
4. We have watered the plants.
5. You have hurried.

Answers

8. Paying attention to the spelling of the present participles, fill in the blanks using the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____ all night. (to work)
I have been working all night.

She _____ the trumpet. (to practise)
She has been practising the trumpet.

1. We _____ for you. (to wait)
2. They _____ a race. (to run)
3. He _____ a book. (to read)
4. You _____ a letter. (to write)
5. I _____ the table. (to set)
6. It _____ for hours. (to rain)
7. We _____ here for three years. (to live)
8. She _____ to us. (to speak)
9. You _____ presents. (to buy)
10. They _____ a trip. (to plan)

Answers

9. Following the model of the example, rewrite the following two affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

They have been enjoying themselves.
Have they been enjoying themselves?
They have not been enjoying themselves.
Have they not been enjoying themselves?
Haven't they been enjoying themselves?
They have been enjoying themselves, haven't they?

1. It has been snowing.
2. You have been visiting your friends.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 4

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. have ordered 2. has started 3. have answered 4. have cooked 5. have heated 6. has cleaned 7. has started 8. have knocked 9. have turned 10. has asked

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. I've agreed. 2. You've moved. 3. He's looked. 4. We've argued. 5. They've explained. 6. You've waited. 7. She's answered. 8. We've finished. 9. It's cooled. 10. I've ordered.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. have envied 2. has played 3. have applied 4. have fried 5. have employed 6. has sprayed 7. have hurried 8. have displayed 9. has destroyed 10. have relied

Answers to Exercise 4:

1. has apologized 2. have stirred 3. has stopped 4. have explained 5. have planned 6. have wiped 7. have pinned 8. has joined 9. have spotted 10. has rained 11. have whipped 12. has arranged

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. 2 2. 1 3. 1 4. 2 5. 2 6. 2 7. 2 8. 1 9. 1 10. 2 11. 1 12. 1 13. 2 14. 1 15. 1 16. 2 17. 2 18. 1 19. 1 20. 2

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. have eaten 2. have swept 3. has sung 4. have gone 5. have lost 6. has risen 7. have spoken 8. have seen 9. have known 10. has flown 11. has been 12. have cut 13. have written 14. have won 15. has told 16. has taken 17. have forgotten 18. have heard 19. have left 20. has understood

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Have they eaten the cookies? They have not eaten the cookies. Have they not eaten the cookies? Haven't they eaten the cookies? They have eaten the cookies, haven't they?
2. Has she told the truth? She has not told the truth. Has she not told the truth? Hasn't she told the truth? She has told the truth, hasn't she?
3. Has he run fast? He has not run fast. Has he not run fast? Hasn't he run fast? He has run fast, hasn't he?
4. Have we watered the plants? We have not watered the plants. Have we not watered the plants? Haven't we watered the plants? We have watered the plants, haven't we?
5. Have you hurried? You have not hurried. Have you not hurried? Haven't you hurried? You have hurried, haven't you?

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. have been waiting 2. have been running 3. has been reading 4. have been writing 5. have been setting 6. has been raining 7. have been living 8. has been speaking 9. have been buying 10. have been planning

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. Has it been snowing? It has not been snowing. Has it not been snowing? Hasn't it been snowing? It has been snowing, hasn't it?
2. Have you been visiting your friends? You have not been visiting your friends. Have you not been visiting your friends? Haven't you been visiting your friends? You have been visiting your friends, haven't you?

CHAPTER 5. THE SIMPLE PAST

1. Uses of the simple past

The uses of the Simple Past are somewhat similar to the uses of the Simple Present, except that past states or actions are expressed. In the examples given below, the verbs in the Simple Past are underlined.

For instance, the Simple Past can be used to express actions which occurred at regular intervals in the past.
e.g. Last year I drove to Yarmouth once a week.

In addition, the Simple Past is used to describe situations which existed for a period of time in the past.
e.g. Millions of years ago, dinosaurs inhabited the earth.
George Washington was the first president of the United States.

The Simple Past is also used to express non-continuous actions which occurred at a definite time in the past.
e.g. Columbus reached America in 1492.
I graduated from school last year.

2. Formation of the simple past

a. The verb To Be

The Simple Past of the verb **to be** is conjugated as follows:

I was
you were
he was
she was
it was
we were
they were

See Exercise 1.

i. Questions and negative statements

The Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be** do not use auxiliaries to form questions and negative statements. Instead, the verb itself is used.

The verb **to be** forms questions and negative statements in the same way in the Simple Past as in the Simple Present. In order to form a question, the verb is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I was awake.	Was I awake?
They were ready.	Were they ready?

In order to form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the verb. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I was awake.	I was not awake.
They were ready.	They were not ready.

In spoken English, the following contractions are often used:

Without Contractions	With Contractions

was not	wasn't
were not	weren't

In order to form a negative question, the verb is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the verb. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Was I not awake?	Wasn't I awake?
Were they not ready?	Weren't they ready?

In order to form tag questions, the verb itself is used. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I was awake.	I was awake, wasn't I?
They were ready.	They were ready, weren't they?

See Exercise 2.

b. Other verbs
English verbs other than the verb **to be** have the same form in the Simple Past, regardless of the subject.

In the case of regular English verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past participle. For example, the Simple Past of the regular verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I worked
you worked
he worked
she worked
it worked
we worked
they worked

See Exercise 3.

In the case of irregular English verbs, the form of the Simple Past must be memorized. As illustrated by the examples below, for some irregular verbs, the Simple Past is the same as the past participle; whereas for others, the Simple Past differs from the past participle. A table of 140 common English irregular verbs is provided. For example:

Bare Infinitive	Simple Past	Past Participle
begin	began	begun
find	found	found
go	went	gone

let	let	let
take	took	taken

Like the regular verbs, irregular verbs other than the verb **to be** do not modify in the Simple Past, but have the same form, regardless of the subject. For example, the Simple Past of the irregular verb **to take** is conjugated as follows:

I took
you took
he took
she took
it took
we took
they took

See Exercise 4.

i. Questions and negative statements
In both the Simple Present and the Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, questions and negative statements are formed using the auxiliary **to do** and the bare infinitive.

For questions and negative statements in the Simple Past, the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to do** is used. The Simple Past of **to do** is conjugated as follows:

I did
you did
he did
she did
it did
we did
they did

In order to change an affirmative statement into a question, **did** is placed before the subject, and the form of the verb is changed from the Simple Past to the bare infinitive. In the following example, the regular verb **to work** is used. The verb **to work** has the Simple Past **worked**, and the bare infinitive **work**.

Affirmative Statement	Question
I worked.	Did I work?
You worked.	Did you work?
He worked.	Did he work?
She worked.	Did she work?
It worked.	Did it work?
We worked.	Did we work?
They worked.	Did they work?

See Exercise 5.

In order to change an affirmative statement into a negative statement, **did not** is placed after the subject, and the form of the verb is changed to the bare infinitive. In the following example, the irregular verb **to speak** is used. The verb **to speak** has the bare infinitive **speak** and the Simple Past **spoke**.

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I spoke.	I did not speak.
You spoke.	You did not speak.
He spoke.	He did not speak.
She spoke.	She did not speak.
It spoke.	It did not speak.
We spoke.	We did not speak.
They spoke.	They did not speak.

See Exercise 6.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	With Contraction
did not	didn't

In order to change an affirmative statement into a negative Question, **did** is placed before the subject, **not** is placed after the subject, and the form of the verb is changed to the bare infinitive. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary **did**. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Did I not work?	Didn't I work?
Did you not work?	Didn't you work?
Did he not work?	Didn't he work?
Did she not work?	Didn't she work?
Did it not work?	Didn't it work?
Did we not work?	Didn't we work?
Did they not work?	Didn't they work?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary **did**. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I worked.	I worked, didn't I?
You worked.	You worked, didn't you?
He worked.	He worked, didn't he?
She worked.	She worked, didn't she?
It worked.	It worked, didn't it?
We worked.	We worked, didn't we?
They worked.	They worked, didn't they?

See Exercise 7.

3. The simple past of To Use followed by an infinitive

The Simple Past of the verb **to use**, followed by an infinitive, generally refers to something which took place repeatedly or continuously in the past, but which no longer takes place.

In the following examples, the Simple Past of **to use** is printed in bold type, and the infinitives which follow it are underlined. The Simple Past of **to use** is **used**.
e.g. The ferry used to operate every day.
We used to live on Duke Street.

In the first example, the use of **used** followed by the infinitive indicates that in the past the ferry operated every day, but now it does not operate every day. In the second example, the use of **used** followed by the infinitive indicates that in the past we lived on Duke Street, but now we do not live on Duke Street.

EXERCISES for Chapter 5

1. Using the Simple Past tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verb **to be**. For example:
I ___ calm.
I was calm.

You ____ right.
You were right.

1. He _____ happy.
2. We _____ students.
3. They _____ ambitious.
4. You _____ clever.
5. It _____ hot.
6. I _____ busy.
7. We _____ patient.
8. She _____ eleven years old.
9. They _____ intelligent.
10. He _____ in a hurry.

Answers

2. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:
You were on time.
Were you on time?
You were not on time.

Were you not on time?
Weren't you on time?
You were on time, weren't you?

It was warm enough.
Was it warm enough?
It was not warm enough.
Was it not warm enough?
Wasn't it warm enough?
It was warm enough, wasn't it?

1. I was late.
2. They were in a hurry.
3. He was an artist.
4. We were right.
5. She was there.

Answers

3. Paying attention to the correct spelling, fill in the blanks with the Simple Past of the regular verbs shown in brackets. For example:

It _____ raining. (to stop)
It stopped raining.

I _____ myself. (to disguise)
I disguised myself.

1. She _____ through the book. (to flip)
2. We _____ the traffic. (to watch)
3. You _____ the flowers carefully. (to arrange)
4. He _____ about his success. (to brag)
5. They _____ sightseeing. (to enjoy)
6. He _____ us with pencils. (to supply)
7. I _____ the child. (to reassure)
8. We _____ for them. (to wait)
9. They _____ the books overseas. (to ship)
10. She _____ too much. (to worry)

Answers

4. Referring to the table of English irregular verbs if necessary, fill in the blanks with the Simple Past tense of the irregular verbs shown in brackets. For example:

They _____ a song. (to write)
They wrote a song.

We _____ the floor. (to sweep)
We swept the floor.

1. She _____ the dishes. (to do)
2. They _____ for a walk. (to go)
3. He _____ his time. (to take)
4. I _____ the beds. (to make)

5. They _____ to catch the bus. (to run)
6. She _____ up quickly. (to get)
7. You _____ the coffee. (to drink)
8. We _____ soundly. (to sleep)
9. He _____ his books. (to forget)
10. I _____ the house. (to leave)
Answers

5. Paying attention to the correct forms of the bare infinitives, change the following affirmative statements into questions. For example:

He lifted the suitcase.
Did he lift the suitcase?

I paid the rent.
Did I pay the rent?

1. She hurried to school.
2. They carried the parcels.
3. You closed the door.
4. I plugged in the lamp.
5. They planned the party.
6. We taught the class.
7. She told a story.
8. They struck a bargain.
9. He met his friends.
10. I shook hands.
Answers

6. Paying attention to the correct forms of the bare infinitives, change the following affirmative statements into negative statements. For example:

I scanned the newspaper.
I did not scan the newspaper.

They flew to Toronto.
They did not fly to Toronto.

1. We enjoyed ourselves.
2. She pinned on the brooch.
3. I fanned myself.
4. They emptied their pockets.
5. You replied at once.
6. He went to work.
7. We swam across the river.
8. They took the bus.
9. I shut the windows.
10. You ran fast.
Answers

7. Paying attention to the correct forms of the bare infinitives, change the following affirmative statements into negative questions. Give both the forms without

contractions and the forms with contractions. For example:

You walked quickly.
Did you not walk quickly?
Didn't you walk quickly?

He burst the balloon.
Did he not burst the balloon?
Didn't he burst the balloon?

1. You watched the game.
2. I climbed the ladder.
3. We pleased the visitors.
4. They canned the peaches.
5. He received the letter.
6. You saw the fireworks.
7. It cost five dollars.
8. She hit the ball.
9. He did his homework.
10. They cut the ribbon.

Answers

8. Rewrite the following sentences, changing the underlined verbs from the Simple Past to the form with **used** followed by the infinitive. For example:

They took the bus.
They used to take the bus.

She traveled every year.
She used to travel every year.

1. It snowed heavily.
2. I came often.
3. We were neighbors.
4. He wrote many letters.
5. They walked to work.
6. He teased us.
7. She told us stories.
8. You rode a bicycle.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 5

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. was 2. were 3. were 4. were 5. was 6. was 7. were 8. was 9. were 10. was

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Was I late? I was not late. Was I not late? Wasn't I late? I was late, wasn't I?
2. Were they in a hurry? They were not in a hurry. Were they not in a hurry? Weren't they In a hurry? They were in a hurry, weren't they?

3. Was he an artist? He was not an artist. Was he not an artist? Wasn't he an artist? He was an artist, wasn't he?
4. Were we right? We were not right. Were we not right? Weren't we right? We were right, weren't we?
5. Was she there? She was not there. Was she not there? Wasn't she there? She was there, wasn't she?

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. flipped 2. watched 3. arranged 4. bragged 5. enjoyed 6. supplied 7. reassured 8. waited 9. shipped 10. worried

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. did 2. went 3. took 4. made 5. ran 6. got 7. drank 8. slept 9. forgot 10. left

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. Did she hurry to school? 2. Did they carry the parcels? 3. Did you close the door? 4. Did I plug in the lamp? 5. Did they plan the party? 6. Did we teach the class? 7. Did she tell a story? 8. Did they strike a bargain? 9. Did he meet his friends? 10. Did I shake hands?

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. We did not enjoy ourselves. 2. She did not pin on the brooch. 3. I did not fan myself. 4. They did not empty their pockets. 5. You did not reply at once. 6. He did not go to work. 7. We did not swim across the river. 8. They did not take the bus. 9. I did not shut the windows. 10. You did not run fast.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Did you not watch the game? Didn't you watch the game?
2. Did I not climb the ladder? Didn't I climb the ladder?
3. Did we not please the visitors? Didn't we please the visitors?
4. Did they not can the peaches? Didn't they can the peaches?
5. Did he not receive the letter? Didn't he receive the letter?
6. Did you not see the fireworks? Didn't you see the fireworks?
7. Did it not cost five dollars? Didn't it cost five dollars?
8. Did she not hit the ball? Didn't she hit the ball?
9. Did he not do his homework? Didn't he do his homework?
10. Did they not cut the ribbon? Didn't they cut the ribbon?

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. It used to snow heavily. 2. I used to come often. 3. We used to be neighbors. 4. He used to write many letters. 5. They used to walk to work. 6. He used to tease us. 7. She used to tell us stories. 8. You used to ride a bicycle.

CHAPTER 6. THE PAST CONTINUOUS, THE PAST PERFECT AND THE PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

1. Summary of the uses of the English tenses

There are four types of verb tense in English: the Simple, the Continuous, the Perfect, and the Perfect Continuous. Each type of tense has a Present, a Past, and a Future

form, as well as other modal forms.

Thus, just as there are four present tenses in English, there are also four past tenses: the Simple Past, the Past Continuous, the Past Perfect, and the Past Perfect Continuous.

As will be shown below, the three forms of each type of tense are closely related in terms of their use and formation. For instance, the Present Continuous, Past Continuous, and Future Continuous tenses are all used to express continuous, ongoing actions; and are all formed from the verb **to be** followed by the present participle. The differences are that the Present Continuous is formed with the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, and is used mainly to express present actions; the Past Continuous is formed with the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, and is used to express past actions; and the Future Continuous is formed with the Simple Future of the verb **to be**, and is used to express future actions.

The uses of the Simple, Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous tenses are summarized in the following table.

The Uses of the English Tenses

Type of Tense	Type of Action Expressed
Simple	- actions occurring at regular intervals - general truths, or situations existing for a period of time - non-continuous actions
Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions
Perfect	- non-continuous actions completed before a certain time
Perfect Continuous	- continuous, ongoing actions completed before a certain time

2. The past continuous

a. Use

The Past Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which took place in the past. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Continuous tense are underlined.

e.g. He <u>was traveling</u> in Europe last summer.
They <u>were playing</u> tennis yesterday afternoon.

The Past Continuous tense is frequently used to refer to an ongoing action which was taking place when something else occurred in the past.

e.g. I <u>was washing</u> the dishes when the telephone rang.
We <u>were entertaining</u> friends when the parcel arrived.

In the first example, the use of the Past Continuous tense indicates that the action of washing the dishes was taking place at the time when the telephone rang. In the second

example, the use of the Past Continuous tense indicates that the action of entertaining friends was taking place at the time when the parcel arrived.

b. Formation
The Past Continuous tense is formed from the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For example, the Past Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I was working
you were working
he was working
she was working
it was working
we were working
they were working

See Exercise 1.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Continuous are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I was working.	Was I working?
They were working.	Were they working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I was working.	I was not working.
They were working.	They were not working.

In spoken English, the contractions **wasn't** and **weren't** are often used.

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the auxiliary. The following are examples of negative questions with and without contractions:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Was I not working?	Wasn't I working?
Were they not working?	Weren't they working?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative

tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I was working.	I was working, wasn't I?
They were working.	They were working, weren't they?

See Exercises 2 and 3.

3. The past perfect

a. Use

The Past Perfect tense is used to refer to a non-continuous action in the past, which was already completed by the time another action in the past took place. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect tense are underlined.

e.g. She had heard the news before I saw her.
I had finished my work by the time the clock struck twelve.

In the preceding examples, the verbs **had heard** and **had finished** are in the Past Perfect tense, and the verbs **saw** and **struck** are in the Simple Past. The use of the Past Perfect tense indicates that the actions of hearing the news and finishing the work were already completed by the time the actions expressed by the verbs in the Simple Past took place.

b. Formation

The Past Perfect tense is formed from the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by the past participle of the verb.

The Simple Past of **to have** is **had**. In spoken English, the auxiliary **had** is often contracted to **'d**. For example, the Past Perfect of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
I had worked	I'd worked
you had worked	you'd worked
he had worked	he'd worked
she had worked	she'd worked
it had worked	it'd worked
we had worked	we'd worked
they had worked	they'd worked

The contraction **it'd** is less frequently used than the other contractions, since it is more difficult to pronounce.

See Exercise 4.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Perfect tense are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I had worked.	Had I worked?
They had worked.	Had they worked?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I had worked.	I had not worked.
They had worked.	They had not worked.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	With Contraction
had not	hadn't

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contraction	With Contraction
Had I not worked?	Hadn't I worked?
Had they not worked?	Hadn't they worked?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I had worked.	I had worked, hadn't I?
They had worked.	They had worked, hadn't they?

See Exercises 5 and 6.

4. The past perfect continuous

a. Use

The Past Perfect Continuous tense is used to refer to a continuous, ongoing action in the past which was already completed by the time another action in the past took place. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect Continuous tense are underlined.

e.g. I had been waiting for two months by the time I received the reply.
He had been thinking about his friends shortly before they called.

In the preceding examples, the verbs **had been waiting** and **had been thinking** are in the Past Perfect Continuous tense, and the verbs **received** and **called** are in the Simple Past. The use of the Past Perfect Continuous tense indicates that the actions of waiting and thinking were continuous, and were completed by the time the actions expressed by the verbs in the Simple Past took place.

b. Formation
The Past Perfect Continuous tense is formed from the Past Perfect of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For example, the Past Perfect Continuous tense of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I had been working
you had been working
he had been working
she had been working
it had been working
we had been working
they had been working

The auxiliary **had** is often contracted to **'d** in spoken English.

See Exercise 7.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Past Perfect Continuous tense are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
I had been working.	Had I been working?
They had been working.	Had they been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
I had been working.	I had not been working.
They had been working.	They had not been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Had I not been working?	Hadn't I been working?
Had they not been working?	Hadn't they been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
I had been working.	I had been working, hadn't I?
They had been working.	They had been working, hadn't they?

See Exercises 8 and 9.

5. Summary of the formation of the English present and past tenses

The following table summarizes the formation of the English present and past tenses.

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	do/does *	bare infinitive **
Present Continuous	am/is/are	present participle
Present Perfect	have/has	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have/has been	present participle
Simple Past	did *	bare infinitive ***
Past Continuous	was/were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

* In the Simple Present and Simple Past tenses, the auxiliaries are used only for emphasis, and for the formation of questions and negative statements. Auxiliaries are never used with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**.

** When used without the auxiliary, the third person singular of the Simple Present has the ending **s**.

*** When the verb is used without the auxiliary, the Simple Past form of the verb is used. For regular verbs, and for many irregular verbs, the Simple Past has the same form as the past participle.

See Exercise 10.

6. Emphatic statements

In spoken English, words can be emphasized by being pronounced with a heavier stress than usual. This type of emphasis is usually indicated in written English by means of italics or underlining. In the following examples, emphasized words are indicated by means of underlining.

Emphatic statements are often used in conversation; for instance, when one speaker is contradicting another.
e.g. "I don't believe he works very hard."
"Yes, he does work hard."

When it is desired to emphasize a verb, it is generally the first auxiliary which is stressed. For instance, in the sentence **I am working hard**, the verb can be emphasized by stressing the auxiliary **am**.
e.g. I am working hard.

Usually, no auxiliary is required for affirmative statements in the Simple Present and Simple Past. However, in order to make such statements emphatic, for verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used, followed by the bare infinitive. For example, in the Simple Present, the emphatic form of the verb **to work** is formed with the Simple Present of the auxiliary **to do**, as shown below:

Affirmative Statement	Emphatic Affirmative Statement
I work.	I do work.
You work.	You do work.
He works.	He does work.
She works.	She does work.
It works.	It does work.
We work.	We do work.
They work.	They do work.

In the Simple Past, the emphatic form of the verb **to work** is formed with the Simple Past of the auxiliary **to do**, as shown below:

Affirmative Statement	Emphatic Affirmative Statement
I worked.	I did work.
You worked.	You did work.
He worked.	He did work.
She worked.	She did work.
It worked.	It did work.
We worked.	We did work.
They worked.	They did work.

For the emphatic form of the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, no auxiliary is used. Instead, the verb itself is stressed. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Emphatic Affirmative Statement
I am ready.	I am ready.
It is ready.	It is ready.
They are ready.	They are ready.

Similarly, for the emphatic form of the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, no auxiliary is used. Instead, the verb itself is stressed. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Emphatic Affirmative Statement

I was ready.	I was ready.
It was ready.	It was ready.
They were ready.	They were ready.

Examples of emphatic statements in all of the present and past tenses are given in the following table:

Tense	Affirmative Statement	Emphatic Statement
Simple Present	I work.	I do work.
Present Continuous	I am working.	I am working.
Present Perfect	I have worked.	I have worked.
Present Perfect Continuous	I have been working.	I have been working.
Simple Past	I worked.	I did work.
Past Continuous	I was working.	I was working.
Past Perfect	I had worked.	I had worked.
Past Perfect Continuous	I had been working.	I had been working.
Simple Present of **to be**	I am ready.	I am ready.
Simple Past of **to be**	I was ready.	I was ready.

It should be noted that questions may be emphasized in the same way as statements.
e.g. Did it work?
Are they ready?

Sometimes it is desired to emphasize a negative statement containing the word **not**. In spoken English, often both the auxiliary and the word **not** are stressed, but in written English, usually only the word **not** is underlined or written in italics. For example:

Negative Statement	Emphatic Negative Statement
He does not know the answer.	He does not know the answer.

When a contracted form of the word **not** is used, it is generally the auxiliary which is stressed in an emphatic statement. For example:

Negative Statement	Emphatic Negative Statement
He doesn't know the answer.	He doesn't know the answer.

EXERCISES for Chapter 6

1. Using the Past Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____ a salad. (to make)
I was making a salad.

They _____ to find some boots. (to try)
They were trying to find some boots.

1. He _____ a book. (to read)

2. We _____ money. (to save)
3. She _____ school. (to attend)
4. It _____. (to thunder)
5. They _____ for the exam. (to study)
6. We _____ ourselves. (to sun)
7. They _____ they way. (to lead)
8. You _____ by bus. (to leave)
9. We _____ through the snow. (to plod)
10. You _____ your goals. (to attain)
Answers

2. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

You were learning French.
Were you learning French?
You were not learning French.
Were you not learning French?
Weren't you learning French?
You were learning French, weren't you?

1. We were starting a business.
2. She was waiting outside.
3. He was singing.
Answers

3. Using the Past Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

____ you _____ last night? (to work)
Were you working last night?

It ___ not _____. (to rain)
It was not raining.

They _____ home. (to hurry)
They were hurrying home.

1. We _____ for the test. (to prepare)
2. _____ she _____ notes? (to take)
3. I _____ not _____ long. (to wait)
4. They _____ at Woolco. (to shop)
5. _____ it not _____ outside? (to freeze)
6. She _____ on Almond Street last year. (to live)
7. _____ you _____ supper when the phone rang? (to eat)
8. He _____ asleep by the time the lesson ended. (to fall)
9. _____ we not _____ the next chapter? (to discuss)
10. They _____ their books away, when their friends arrived. (to put)
11. You _____ not _____ the news. (to follow)
12. _____ I _____ too much noise? (to make)
Answers

4. Using the Past Perfect tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____ the parcel. (to open)
I had opened the parcel.

They _____ to the opera. (to be)
They had been to the opera.

1. She _____ a sweater. (to buy)
2. He _____ to work. (to start)
3. You _____ the message. (to understand)
4. We _____ the appointment. (to forget)
5. They _____ us. (to convince)
6. She _____ the book. (to find)
7. He _____ the envelope. (to tear)
8. You _____ your breakfast. (to finish)
9. We _____ to school. (to go)
10. They _____ the beds. (to make)

Answers

5. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

He had attended the concert.
Had he attended the concert?
He had not attended the concert.
Had he not attended the concert?
Hadn't he attended the concert?
He had attended the concert, hadn't he?

1. You had entered the contest.
2. I had wanted to come.
3. We had arrived on time.

Answers

6. Using the Past Perfect tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He _____ hard. (to practise)
He had practised hard.

___ they ____ a good job? (to do)
Had they done a good job?

I ___ not _____ the news. (to hear)
I had not heard the news.

1. You _____ it carefully.(to consider)
2. She _____ her way in the woods. (to lose)
3. _____ he not _____ his hands? (to wash)

4. _____ they _____ the letter? (to read)
5. I _____ not _____ the words. (to forget)
6. We _____ to come even before we received the letter. (to decide)
7. _____ he not _____ everything well? (to organize)
8. They _____ not _____ a holiday in a long time. (to have)
9. She _____ to talk to us. (to stop)
10. He _____ not yet _____. (to arrive)
11. _____ you _____ to meet him? (to plan)
12. I _____ not _____ her for a long time. (to see)
Answers

7. Using the Past Perfect Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____ for an apartment. (to search)
We had been searching for an apartment.

She _____ extra courses. (to take)
She had been taking extra courses.

1. We _____ the grass. (to cut)
2. You _____ at the photographs. (to look)
3. They _____ you the letters. (to give)
4. He _____ for us. (to wait)
5. She _____ a business. (to run)
6. It _____ all night. (to rain)
7. We _____ them. (to encourage)
8. You _____ on the beach. (to lie)
9. They _____ the sauce. (to taste)
10. He _____ behind. (to lag)
Answers

8. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

She had been keeping a diary.
Had she been keeping a diary?
She had not been keeping a diary.
Had she not been keeping a diary?
Hadn't she been keeping a diary?
She had been keeping a diary, hadn't she?

1. We had been raking the leaves.
2. You had been visiting your cousins.
3. They had been swimming in the lake.
Answers

9. Using the Past Perfect Continuous tense, fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____. (to argue)
We had been arguing.

___ he _____ well? (to feel)
Had he been feeling well?

I ___ not _____ much walking. (to do)
I had not been doing much walking.

1. You _____ the stove. (to clean)
2. She _____ not _____ regularly. (to come)
3. _____ they not _____ on you? (to count)
4. We _____ for shoes. (to look)
5. _____ it not _____ that day? (to snow)
6. I _____ for groceries. (to shop)
7. _____ he not _____ to the news? (to listen)
8. They _____ not _____ to drive far. (to intend)
9. _____ we _____ on time? (to leave)
10. _____ you _____ that? (to expect)
11. They _____ television. (to watch)
12. He _____ not _____ long when the bus arrived. (to wait)

Answers

10. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to whether the underlined auxiliary is a form of **to be**, **to do** or **to have**, fill in the blank with the bare infinitive, present participle, or past participle of the verb given in brackets, as appropriate. Refer if necessary to the table summarizing the formation of the English present and past tenses. For example:

He was _____ medicine. (to study)
He was studying medicine.

You have _____ the food. (to bring)
You have brought the food.

We had been _____ a long time. (to wait)
We had been waiting a long time.

Does she _____ classical music? (to like)
Does she like classical music?

1. She was _____ a picture. (to draw)
2. We have _____ our homework. (to finish)
3. I have been _____ for an opportunity. (to wait)
4. Do you _____ a bicycle? (to own)
5. We are _____ coffee. (to drink)
6. Did he _____ the book? (to enjoy)
7. They were _____ us. (to expect)
8. You had _____ a job. (to find)
9. He is _____ the truth. (to tell)
10. It had been _____ all morning. (to snow)
11. We had _____ the window. (to open)
12. I am _____ potatoes. (to peel)

13. You did not _____ my letter. (to answer)
14. It does not _____. (to matter)
15. I have _____ this movie before. (to see)
Answers

11. Make the following statements emphatic. For example:
He likes cats.
He does like cats.

You have finished.
You have finished.

They were here.
They were here.

We are not ready.
We are not ready.

1. I enjoy reading.
2. They do not like music.
3. It snowed.
4. I have found my pen.
5. She cooks well.
6. You were listening to the radio.
7. They found the answer.
8. He was right.
9. She understands.
10. They had locked the door.
11. He did not arrive late.
12. You ran fast.
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 6

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. was reading 2. were saving 3. was attending 4. was thundering 5. were studying 6. were sunning 7. were leading 8. were leaving 9. were plodding 10. were attaining

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Were we starting a business? We were not starting a business. Were we not starting a business? Weren't we starting a business? We were starting a business, weren't we?
2. Was she waiting outside? She was not waiting outside. Was she not waiting outside? Wasn't she waiting outside? She was waiting outside, wasn't she?
3. Was he singing? He was not singing. Was he not singing? Wasn't he singing? He was singing, wasn't he?

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. were preparing 2. Was, taking 3. was, waiting 4. were shopping 5. Was, freezing 6.

was living 7. Were, eating 8. was falling 9. Were, discussing 10. were putting 11. were, following 12. Was, making

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. had bought 2. had started 3. had understood 4. had forgotten 5. had convinced 6. had found 7. had torn 8. had finished 9. had gone 10. had made

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. Had you entered the contest? You had not entered the contest. Had you not entered the contest? Hadn't you entered the contest? You had entered the contest, hadn't you?
2. Had I wanted to come? I had not wanted to come. Had I not wanted to come? Hadn't I wanted to come? I had wanted to come, hadn't I?
3. Had we arrived on time? We had not arrived on time. Had we not arrived on time? Hadn't we arrived on time? We had arrived on time, hadn't we?

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. had considered 2. had lost 3. Had, washed 4. Had, read 5. had, forgotten 6. had decided 7. Had, organized 8. had, had 9. had stopped 10. had, arrived 11. Had, planned 12. had, seen

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. had been cutting 2. had been looking 3. had been giving 4. had been waiting 5. had been running 6. had been raining 7. had been encouraging 8. had been lying 9. had been tasting 10. had been lagging

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. Had we been raking the leaves? We had not been raking the leaves. Had we not been raking the leaves? Hadn't we been raking the leaves? We had been raking the leaves, hadn't we?
2. Had you been visiting your cousins? You had not been visiting your cousins. Had you not been visiting your cousins? Hadn't you been visiting your cousins? You had been visiting your cousins, hadn't you?
3. Had they been swimming in the lake? They had not been swimming in the lake. Had they not been swimming in the lake? Hadn't they been swimming in the lake? They had been swimming in the lake, hadn't they?

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. had been cleaning 2. had/been coming 3. Had/been counting 4. had been looking 5. Had/been snowing 6. had been shopping 7. Had/ been listening 8. had/been intending 9. Had/been leaving 10. Had/ been expecting 11. had been watching 12. had/been waiting

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. drawing 2. finished 3. waiting 4. own 5. drinking 6. enjoy 7. expecting 8. found 9. telling 10. snowing 11. opened 12. peeling 13. answer 14. matter 15. seen

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. I do enjoy reading. 2. They do not like music. 3. It did snow. 4. I have found my pen. 5. She does cook well. 6. You were listening to the radio. 7. They did find the answer.

8. He was right. 9. She does understand. 10. They had locked the door. 11. He did not arrive late. 12. You did run fast.

CHAPTER 7. THE FUTURE TENSES

Just as there are four present tenses and four past tenses in English, there are also four future tenses: the Simple Future, the Future Continuous, the Future Perfect, and the Future Perfect Continuous.

1. The simple future

a. Use
The Simple Future tense is used to express non-continuous actions which will take place in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Future tense are underlined.
e.g. They will finish the work tomorrow.
He will arrive next Saturday.

b. Formation
The Simple Future of any verb is formed from the auxiliary **will** or **shall**, followed by the bare infinitive of the verb.

In informal English, particularly in American English, the Simple Future is usually conjugated entirely with the auxiliary **will**. The auxiliary **will** is a **modal** auxiliary. Modal auxiliaries do not modify, but have the same form, regardless of the subject.

The auxiliary **will** is often contracted to **'ll**. Thus, in informal English, the Simple Future of the verb **to work** is usually conjugated as follows:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
I will work	I'll work
you will work	you'll work
he will work	he'll work
she will work	she'll work
it will work	it'll work
we will work	we'll work
they will work	they'll work

Verbs used with the subjects **I** and **we** are generally referred to as being in the **first person**; verbs used with the subject **you** are generally referred to as being in the **second person**; and verbs used with the subjects **he**, **she**, **it** and **they** are generally referred to as being in the **third person**.

For formal English, there is a rule which states that in the Simple Future, the auxiliary **shall** should be used in the first person, and the auxiliary **will** should be used in the second person and third person. Like the auxiliary **will**, the auxiliary **shall** is a modal auxiliary.

Thus, in formal English, the Simple Future of the verb **to work** may be conjugated as follows:

I shall work
you will work
he will work
she will work
it will work
we shall work
they will work

Even in informal English, the auxiliary **shall** is usually used in the first person for questions in which a request for permission is implied.
e.g. Shall I call the office?
Shall we go to the library?

However, the use of **will** for the first person of the Simple Future is beginning to be considered acceptable in formal English. Thus, except for questions where a request for permission is implied, either **will** or **shall** may be used for the first person of the Simple Future. In this chapter, the alternative use of the auxiliary **shall** in the first person will be indicated by the word **shall** in brackets.

The rules for the use of **will** and **shall** which apply to the Simple Future tense, also apply to the other future tenses.

See Exercise 1.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Simple Future are formed using the auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will work.	Will it work?
They will work.	Will they work?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
It will work.	It will not work.
They will work.	They will not work.

In spoken English, the following contraction is often used:

Without Contraction	With Contraction

will not	won't

The contracted form of **will not** is unusual, since it is not only the **o** of **not** which is omitted. In addition, the **ll** of **will** is omitted, and the **i** of **will** is changed to **o**. The contracted form, **won't**, is pronounced to rhyme with **don't**.

In addition, **shall not** is sometimes contracted to **shan't**. However, the word **shan't** is rarely used in modern American English.

Negative questions are formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the auxiliary. The following are examples of negative questions with and without contractions:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not work?	Won't it work?
Will they not work?	Won't they work?

Tag questions are formed using the auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
It will work.	It will work, won't it?
They will work.	They will work, won't they?

See Exercises 2 and 3.

2. The conjugation expressing determination and compulsion

In formal English, there is a rule which states that, in order to express determination and compulsion, the auxiliary **will** is to be used in the first person, and the auxiliary **shall** is to be used in the second person and third person. This is the reverse of the use of **will** and **shall** found in the Simple Future. The use of **will** in the first person is supposed to express determination, and the use of **shall** in the second person and third person is supposed to express compulsion.

For instance, for the verb **to work**, the Simple conjugation which expresses determination and compulsion is as follows:

I will work
you shall work
he shall work
she shall work
it shall work
we will work
they shall work

In this conjugation, the expressions **I will work,** and **we will work,** have the meaning **I am determined to work,** and **we are determined to work.** In contrast, the expressions **you shall work,** and **they shall work,** for instance, have the meaning **you will be compelled to work,** and **they will be compelled to work.**

See Exercise 4.

The rule for expressing determination and compulsion which applies to the Simple conjugation, also applies to the Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous conjugations.

However, particularly in American English, the use of the conjugations expressing determination and compulsion is beginning to be considered old-fashioned.

3. The present continuous of To Go followed by an infinitive

The Present Continuous tense of **to go**, followed by an infinitive, is often used to refer to an event which is about to happen, or to refer to an action which someone intends to carry out in the future.

The Present Continuous tense of the verb **to go** is conjugated as follows:

I am going
you are going
he is going
she is going
it is going
we are going
they are going

The examples below illustrate the use of the Present Continuous tense of **to go**, followed by an infinitive, to refer to a future event. In each of these examples, the Present Continuous of **to go** is printed in bold type, and the infinitive which follows it is underlined.

e.g. It **is going** <u>to rain</u>.
I **am going** <u>to write</u> a letter tonight.
They **are going** <u>to study</u> in France next year.

In the first example, the use of the Present Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitive **to rain** indicates that it is about to rain. In the second and third examples, the use of the Present Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitives **to write** and **to study** indicates that the actions of writing and studying are intended to be carried out in the future.

See Exercise 5.

It should also be noted that the Past Continuous tense of **to go** can be used to express actions which were about to happen in the past.
e.g. I **was going** to write a letter last night.
In this example, the use of the Past Continuous of **to go** followed by the infinitive **to write** indicates that the action of writing was intended to be carried out in the past.

4. The future continuous

a. Use
The Future Continuous tense is used to express continuous, ongoing actions which will take place in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. He will be waiting for us.
They will be arriving tomorrow.

b. Formation
The Future Continuous of any verb is formed from the Simple Future of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) be working
you will be working
he will be working
she will be working
it will be working
we will (shall) be working
they will be working

See Exercise 6.

It can be seen that the Future Continuous tense has two auxiliaries. The first auxiliary is **will** or **shall**, and the second auxiliary is **be**.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Continuous are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will be working.	Will it be working?
They will be working.	Will they be working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement

It will be working.	It will not be working.
They will be working.	They will not be working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not be working?	Won't it be working?
Will they not be working?	Won't they be working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
It will be working.	It will be working, won't it?
They will be working.	They will be working, won't they?

See Exercises 7 and 8.

5. The future perfect

a. Use

The Future Perfect tense is used to refer to a non-continuous action which will be completed by a certain time in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Perfect tense are underlined.

e.g. She will have finished the work by Wednesday.
I will have cleaned the room before the guests arrive.
They will have eaten breakfast by the time he gets up.

In these examples, the use of the Future Perfect indicates that the actions of finishing the work, cleaning the room, and eating breakfast will have been completed before the coming of Wednesday, the arrival of the guests, and his getting up take place.

b. Formation

The Future Perfect of any verb is formed from the Simple Future of the auxiliary **to have**, followed by the past participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Perfect of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) have worked
you will have worked
he will have worked
she will have worked
it will have worked
we will (shall) have worked

they will have worked

See Exercise 9.

c. Questions and negative statements
As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Perfect are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will have worked.	Will it have worked?
They will have worked.	Will they have worked?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
It will have worked.	It will not have worked.
They will have worked.	They will not have worked.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not have worked?	Won't it have worked?
Will they not have worked?	Won't they have worked?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
It will have worked.	It will have worked, <u>won't it</u>?
They will have worked.	They will have worked, <u>won't they</u>?

See Exercises 10 and 11.

6. The future perfect continuous

a. Use
The Future Perfect Continuous tense is used to express a continuous, ongoing action which will be completed by a certain time in the future. In the following examples, the verbs in the Future Perfect Continuous tense are underlined.
e.g. By next January, she <u>will have been living</u> here for a year.

You will have been traveling a great deal by the time you return home.
He will have been working for ten months by the time he takes his vacation.

In these examples, the use of the Future Perfect Continuous indicates that the continuous, ongoing actions of living, traveling, and working, will have been completed before the events of the coming of January, your returning home, and his taking a vacation, take place.

b. Formation
The Future Perfect Continuous of any verb is formed from the Future Perfect of the auxiliary **to be**, followed by the present participle of the verb. For instance, the Future Perfect Continuous of the verb **to work** is conjugated as follows:

I will (shall) have been working
you will have been working
he will have been working
she will have been working
it will have been working
we will (shall) have been working
they will have been working

See Exercise 12.

c. Questions and negative statements

As is the case with other English tenses, questions and negative statements in the Future Perfect Continuous are formed using the first auxiliary.

Questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
It will have been working.	Will it have been working?
They will have been working.	Will they have been working?

Negative statements are formed by placing the word **not** after the first auxiliary. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
It will have been working.	It will not have been working.
They will have been working.	They will not have been working.

Negative questions are formed by placing the first auxiliary before the subject, and the word **not** after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** immediately follows the first auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Will it not have been working?	Won't it have been working?
Will they not have been working?	Won't they have been working?

Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
It will have been working.	It will have been working, won't it?
They will have been working.	They will have been working, won't they?

See Exercises 13 and 14.

7. Summary of the formation of the English future tenses

The following table summarizes the formation of the English future tenses.

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Future	will (shall)	bare infinitive
Future Continuous	will (shall) be	present participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous	will (shall) have been	present participle

8. Clauses

If a sentence has only one subject and one verb, it is said to consist of a single clause, called the **main** or **principal** clause. A **main clause** is a clause which can stand alone to form a complete sentence. Each of the following sentences has only one clause. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. It is cold.
The flowers are blooming.

If a sentence contains more than one verb, and each verb has its own subject, the sentence is said to consist of more than one clause. The following sentences each have two clauses. The verbs are underlined.
e.g. He said that he was ready.
The door opened, and my uncle entered the room.

In the first example, **he said** is the first clause, and **that he was ready** is the second clause. In the second example, **the door opened** is the first clause, and **my uncle entered the room** is the second clause.

a. Coordinate clauses

When two clauses are joined by a word such as **and**, **or** or **but**, the two clauses are called **coordinate** clauses, and the word which joins them is called a **coordinate**

conjunction. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. It is cold, but the flowers are blooming.
The flowers are blooming and the birds are singing.

In the first example, the coordinate conjunction **but** joins the clause **it is cold** to the clause **the flowers are blooming**. In the second example, the coordinate conjunction **and** joins the clause **the flowers are blooming** to the clause **the birds are singing**. The clauses in these examples are coordinate clauses.

b. Subordinate clauses
Coordinate clauses are main clauses. A main clause is grammatically independent, in that it may stand alone to form a complete sentence. In contrast, a clause which describes some part of the main clause, or which is in some other way grammatically dependent on the main clause, is called a **subordinate** clause. A subordinate clause cannot stand alone to form a complete sentence.

In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. The book which I lent you is a library book.
He told me what he had seen.
If you are ready, we will go.

In the preceding examples, the main clauses are **the book is a library book**, **he told me** and **we will go**; and the subordinate clauses are **which I lent you**, **what he had seen** and **if you are ready**. A subordinate clause usually begins with a connecting word or phrase which joins it to the main clause. In the preceding examples, these connecting words are **which**, **what** and **if**.

c. The past perfect and the simple past
It has already been seen that the tense of a verb in one clause is related to the tenses of verbs in other clauses in the same sentence. For instance, if one action happened before another in the past, the action that happened first would usually be expressed by a verb in the Past Perfect tense, and the action that happened subsequently would usually be expressed by a verb in the Simple Past tense.

For instance, each of the following sentences has one verb in the Past Perfect tense, and one verb in the Simple Past tense. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. She was late, because she had lost her way.
It had started to snow before we reached the inn.

In the first example, the verb **had lost** is in the Past Perfect, and the verb **was** is in the Simple Past. This indicates that the action of losing the way occurred before the action of being late. In the second example, the verb **had started** is in the Past Perfect, and the verb **reached** is in the Simple Past. This indicates that the action of starting to snow occurred before the action of reaching the inn.

d. The use of the present in subordinate clauses to express future actions
It should be noted that if the verb in the main clause of a sentence is in a future tense, the verb of any subordinate clause which refers to the future is usually in a present tense. This is illustrated in the following examples. The verbs are underlined.

e.g. We will welcome him when he arrives.
I will have finished the work before it is time to leave.

In these examples, the main clauses are **we will welcome him** and **I will have finished the work**; and the subordinate clauses are **when he arrives** and **before it is time to leave**. In the main clauses, the **will welcome** is in the Simple Future tense, and the **will have finished** is in the Future Perfect tense. However, in the subordinate clauses, the verbs **arrives** and **is** are both in the Simple Present, even though they refer to future events.

In most cases, the rule is that if the verb in the main clause of a sentence is in a future tense, the verb of any subordinate clause which refers to the future must be in a present tense. There is usually no ambiguity in such sentences, because the fact that the verb in the main clause is in a future tense is generally enough to indicate that all of the actions expressed in the sentence are to take place in the future.

See Exercise 15.

However, there are a few cases in which the verb in a subordinate clause must be put into a future tense in order to avoid ambiguity. For instance, in subordinate clauses beginning with **although** or **because**, it is sometimes necessary to use future tenses, to make it clear that the actions expressed relate to the future, rather than the present.

e.g. We will not need to send for her, because she will already be here.
Although he will be in the neighborhood, we will have to search for him.

In these examples, the use of the Simple Future tense in the subordinate clauses **because she will already be here** and **although he will be in the neighborhood** is necessary to make it clear that the events of her being here, and his being in the neighborhood, relate to the future rather than the present.

EXERCISES for Chapter 7

1. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Simple Future of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____. (to agree)
I shall agree **or** I will agree.

You _____ the results. (to publish)
You will publish the results.

1. We _____. (to succeed)
2. They _____ the site. (to excavate)
3. He _____ the situation. (to study)
4. We _____. (to hurry)
5. I _____ soon. (to follow)
6. It _____ a surprise. (to be)
7. He _____ us. (to remind)
8. She _____ tomorrow. (to depart)

9. I _____ here. (to remain)
10. They _____ university. (to enter)
Answers

2. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

She will notice us.
Will she notice us?
She will not notice us.
Will she not notice us?
Won't she notice us?
She will notice us, won't she?

1. You will wash the windows.
2. They will help you.
Answers

3. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Simple Future of the verbs shown in brackets. Use **shall** in the first person for questions in which a request for permission is implied. For example:

I _____ out soon. (to go)
I shall go out soon. **or** I will go out soon.

_____ we _____ now? (to leave)
Shall we leave now?

____ they _____ France? (to visit)
Will they visit France?

It ____ not ____ long. (to take)
It will not take long.

1. We _____ you at the museum. (to meet)
2. _____ you _____ me a pen? (to lend)
3. _____ they not _____ the competition? (to win)
4. She _____ not _____ to come. (to forget)
5. _____ he not _____ the boat? (to sail)
6. You _____ the expedition. (to enjoy)
7. _____ I _____ this? (to order)
8. _____ you not _____ for me? (to wait)
9. We _____ not _____ late. (to be)
10. He _____ us the news. (to send)
11. I _____ not _____ my way. (to lose)
12. _____ they _____ the program? (to watch)
Answers

4. Using the Simple conjugation which expresses determination and compulsion, fill in the blanks with the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____ the exam. (to pass)

We will pass the exam.

You _____ the work on time. (to finish)
You shall finish the work on time.

1. They _____ the tickets. (to buy)
2. I _____ home. (to go)
3. He _____ our guide. (to be)
4. You _____ with me. (to come)
5. I _____ it. (to remember)
6. She _____ us. (to call)
7. We _____ the money. (to earn)
8. They _____ us. (to respect)
9. I _____ you. (to help)
10. It _____ not _____ us. (to hinder)
11. We _____ it. (to find)
12. You _____ not _____ it. (to regret)

Answers

5. The following sentences refer to future events. Complete each sentence by filling in the blank with the correct form of the Present Continuous tense of **to go**, followed by the infinitive of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

She _____ swimming. (to teach)
She is going to teach swimming.

___ we _____ home? (to walk)
Are we going to walk home?

He __ not _____ us. (to find)
He is not going to find us.

1. _____ he _____ horseback riding? (to learn)
2. I _____ the windows. (to wash)
3. _____ you _____ with us? (to come)
4. It _____ not _____ cold tonight. (to be)
5. _____ he not _____ the letter? (to answer)
6. We _____ to the library. (to go)
7. _____ she _____ a sweater? (to buy)
8. _____ you not _____ us? (to call)
9. I _____ not _____ late. (to stay)
10. They _____ supper. (to cook)

Answers

6. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Continuous of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

We _____ you tomorrow. (to see)
We shall be seeing you tomorrow. **or** We will be seeing you tomorrow.

He _____ school next year. (to attend)
He will be attending school next year.

1. You _____ with us. (to come)
2. It _____ warmer. (to grow)
3. They _____ new furniture. (to buy)
4. She _____ the clock. (to watch)
5. I _____ downtown. (to go)
6. You _____ the cake. (to cut)
7. They _____ the newspaper. (to read)
8. We _____ the museum. (to visit)
Answers

7. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

They will be serving the dessert.
Will they be serving the dessert?
They will not be serving the dessert.
Will they not be serving the dessert?
Won't they be serving the dessert?
They will be serving the dessert, won't they?

1. He will be needing this.
2. They will be living here.
Answers

8. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Continuous of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

I _____ soon. (to leave)
I shall be leaving soon. **or** I will be leaving soon.

____ you _____ coffee? (to make)
Will you be making coffee?

He ____ not _____ the bus. (to use)
He will not be using the bus.

1. He _____ a new language. (to learn)
2. _____ she _____ help? (to need)
3. _____ you not _____ your jacket? (to mend)
4. He _____ not _____ here. (to stay)
5. _____ we not _____ them a card? (to mail)
6. They _____ the telephone. (to answer)
7. _____ you _____ downtown? (to go)
8. I _____ not _____ at the school. (to stop)
9. _____ she not _____ a trip? (to plan)
10. I _____ the arrangements. (to make)
11. They _____ not _____ tired. (to feel)
12. _____ we _____ at the library? (to meet)
Answers

9. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Perfect of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

She _____ by then. (to arrive)
She will have arrived by then.

We _____ everyone. (to meet)
We shall have met everyone **or** We will have met everyone.

1. You _____ the advertisement. (to study)
2. He _____ the newspapers. (to scan)
3. I _____ here for five years. (to be)
4. They _____ the proposal. (to consider)
5. It _____ raining by tomorrow. (to stop)
6. You _____ your plans. (to make)
7. I _____ the flowers. (to pick)
8. They _____ their minds. (to change)

Answers

10. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

She will have foreseen the difficulty.
Will she have foreseen the difficulty?
She will not have foreseen the difficulty.
Will she not have foreseen the difficulty?
Won't she have foreseen the difficulty?
She will have foreseen the difficulty, won't she?

1. It will have happened by then.
2. You will have paid the rent.

Answers

11. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Perfect of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

He _____ it soon. (to finish)
He will have finished it soon.

You ____ not _____ time to read the book. (to have)
You will not have had time to read the book.

____ they _____ before? (to fly)
Will they have flown before?

1. I _____ for a walk. (to go)
2. They _____ not yet _____. (to arrive)
3. _____ she not _____ the apples? (to eat)
4. _____ you _____ the letter? (to send)
5. They _____ an apartment by then. (to find)
6. He _____ not _____ soundly. (to sleep)
7. _____ I not _____ you before then? (to see)

8. _____ he _____ the puzzle? (to solve)
9. We _____ the parcel by Monday. (to receive)
10. _____ she not _____ the chairs? (to sell)
11. _____ we _____ the bus schedules? (to study)
12. You _____ not _____ the rabbits. (to feed)
Answers

12. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Perfect Continuous of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

You _____ all night. (to wait)
You will have been waiting all night.

They _____ a good time. (to have)
They will have been having a good time.

1. She _____ with them. (to argue)
2. We _____ the city. (to tour)
3. He _____ what happened. (to wonder)
4. I _____ inventory. (to take)
5. It _____ for two days. (to snow)
6. They _____ to come. (to long)
7. You _____ a speech. (to give)
8. We _____ our breath. (to hold)
Answers

13. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

You will have been reading the timetable.
Will you have been reading the timetable?
You will not have been reading the timetable.
Will you not have been reading the timetable?
Won't you have been reading the timetable?
You will have been reading the timetable, won't you?

1. He will have been guarding the luggage.
2. They will have been preparing the meal.
Answers

14. Using either the auxiliary **shall** or the auxiliary **will** for the first person, fill in the blanks with the Future Perfect Continuous of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

They _____ the house. (to clean)
They will have been cleaning the house.

____ you _____ to call? (to try)
Will you have been trying to call?

He ____ not _____ the paper. (to read)
He will not have been reading the paper.

1. She _____ to help us. (to offer)
2. _____ it not _____ by then? (to snow)
3. We _____ not _____ to leave. (to plan)
4. _____ they _____ for rain? (to hope)
5. I _____ my friends. (to visit)
6. He _____ not _____ the pictures. (to develop)
7. _____ she _____ the hedge? (to clip)
8. _____ we not _____ them often? (to see)
9. They _____ for twenty-four hours. (to wait)
10. _____ he not _____ down? (to lie)
11. _____ you _____ croquet? (to play)
12. They _____ not _____ here long. (to live)
Answers

15. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to the tense of the underlined verb, complete the sentence correctly by filling in the blank with either the Past Perfect or the Simple Present of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

When I first met him, he ___ already _____. (to graduate)
When I first met him, he had already graduated.

We will read the information before we ____ a decision. (to make)
We will read the information before we make a decision.

1. They _____ already _____ the letter when they heard the news.
2. They will wait until he _____. (to come)
3. She will help us if we _____ for assistance. (to ask)
4. Although I _____ him to come, he stayed away. (to beg)
5. He will send for us as soon as he _____ time. (to have)
6. After I _____ the grass, it started to rain. (to water)
7. When we called, they _____ already _____ the house. (to leave)
8. He will watch while they _____ their tricks. (to perform)
9. By the time I _____ everything, it was past nine o'clock. (to organize)
10. They will signal when they _____ ready. (to be)
11. Even though we _____ warm clothes, we became quite cold. (to bring)
12. If it _____ tomorrow, we will go skiing. (to snow)
13. We _____ just _____ supper, when the phone rang. (to finish)
14. I will let you know when I _____ it. (to find)
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 7

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. shall succeed **or** will succeed 2. will excavate 3. will study 4. shall hurry **or** will hurry 5. shall follow **or** will follow 6. will be 7. will remind 8. will depart 9. shall remain **or** will remain 10. will enter

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Will you wash the windows? You will not wash the windows. Will you not wash the

windows? Won't you wash the windows? You will wash the windows, won't you?
2. Will they help you? They will not help you. Will they not help you? Won't they help you? They will help you, won't they?

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. shall meet **or** will meet 2. Will, lend 3. Will, win 4. will, forget 5. Will, sail 6. will enjoy 7. Shall, order 8. Will, wait 9. shall **or** will, be 10. will send 11. shall **or** will, lose 12. Will, watch

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. shall buy 2. will go 3. shall be 4. shall come 5. will remember 6. shall call 7. will earn 8. shall respect 9. will help 10. shall, hinder 11. will find 12. shall, regret

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. Is, going to learn 2. am going to wash 3. Are, going to come 4. is, going to be 5. Is, going to answer 6. are going to go 7. Is, going to buy 8. Are, going to call 9. am, going to stay 10. are going to cook

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. will be coming 2. will be growing 3. will be buying 4. will be watching 5. shall be going **or** will be going 6. will be cutting 7. will be reading 8. shall be visiting **or** will be visiting

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Will he be needing this? He will not be needing this. Will he not be needing this? Won't he be needing this? He will be needing this, won't he?
2. Will they be living here? They will not be living here. Will they not be living here? Won't they be living here? They will be living here, won't they?

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. will be learning 2. Will, be needing 3. Will, be mending 4. will, be staying 5. Shall **or** Will, be mailing 6. will be answering 7. Will, be going 8. shall **or** will, be stopping 9. Will, be planning 10. shall be making or will be making 11. will, be feeling 12. Shall **or** Will, be meeting

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. will have studied 2. will have scanned 3. shall have been **or** will have been 4. will have considered 5. will have stopped 6. will have made 7. shall have picked **or** will have picked 8. will have changed

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. Will it have happened by then? It will not have happened by then. Will it not have happened by then? Won't it have happened by then? It will have happened by then, won't it?
2. Will you have paid the rent? You will not have paid the rent. Will you not have paid the rent? Won't you have paid the rent? You will have paid the rent, won't you?

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. shall have gone **or** will have gone 2. will, have arrived 3. Will, have eaten 4. Will, have sent 5. will have found 6. will, have slept 7. Shall **or** Will, have seen 8. Will, have

solved 9. shall have received **or** will have received 10. Will, have sold 11. Shall **or** Will, have studied 12. will, have fed

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. will have been arguing 2. shall have been touring **or** will have been touring 3. will have been wondering 4. shall have been taking **or** will have been taking 5. will have been snowing 6. will have been longing 7. will have been giving 8. shall have been holding **or** will have been holding

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. Will he have been guarding the luggage? He will not have been guarding the luggage. Will he not have been guarding the luggage? Won't he have been guarding the luggage? He will have been guarding the luggage, won't he?
2. Will they have been preparing the meal? They will not have been preparing the meal. Will they not have been preparing the meal? Won't they have been preparing the meal? They will have been preparing the meal, won't they?

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. will have been offering 2. Will, have been snowing 3. shall **or** will, have been planning 4. Will, have been hoping 5. shall have been visiting **or** will have been visiting 6. will, have been developing 7. Will, have been clipping 8. Shall **or** Will, have been seeing 9. will have been waiting 10. Will, have been lying 11. Will, have been playing 12. will, have been living

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. had, mailed 2. comes 3. ask 4. had begged 5. has 6. had watered 7. had, left 8. perform 9. had organized 10. are 11. had brought 12. snows 13. had, finished 14. find

CHAPTER 8. CONJUGATIONS WITH THE AUXILIARY WOULD

1. Uses of the auxiliary Would

English verbs conjugated with the auxiliary **would** are used in a variety of ways. For instance, the auxiliary **would** is often used in polite requests and suggestions. In the following examples, the verbs conjugated with **would** are underlined.
e.g. Would you please tell me the time?
Perhaps it would be a good idea to call the office.

The auxiliary **would** can also express a **future in the past**, and is used in reporting statements and questions which pertained to the future at the time they were made.
e.g. She asked if we would help her the next day.
They said they would arrange to meet us the following week.

The auxiliary **would** can also be used in wishes pertaining to the future, and in the main clauses of sentences containing false or improbable conditions. These two uses of the auxiliary **would** will be discussed in the next chapter.
e.g. I wish they would help us.
It would have saved time if I had known what to do.

2. Formation of conjugations with the auxiliary Would

There are four types of conjugation formed with the auxiliary **would**: the Simple, the Continuous, the Perfect, and the Perfect Continuous.

The conjugations with **would** are formed in the same way as the Future conjugations, except that instead of **will** and **shall**, **would** and **should** are used. In the conjugations with **would**, **should** may be used for the first person in British English; however, **would** is normally used for the first person in American English.

Like **will** and **shall**, **would** is a modal auxiliary. When verbs are conjugated with modal auxiliaries, the results are sometimes referred to as **moods** rather than tenses.

a. The simple conjugation with the auxiliary Would
The Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is used to express non-continuous actions.

In spoken English, the auxiliary **would** is frequently contracted to **'d**. It should be noted that this contraction is the same as that used for **had**.

In the case of the verb **to work**, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
I would work	I'd work
you would work	you'd work
he would work	he'd work
she would work	she'd work
it would work	it'd work
we would work	we'd work
they would work	they'd work

The contraction **it'd** is used less frequently than the other contractions, since it is more difficult to pronounce.

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

In spoken English, **would not** is frequently contracted to **wouldn't**.

Simple conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	Examples
Affirmative Statement:	I would work. They would work.
Question:	Would I work? Would they work?

Negative Statement:	I would not work. They would not work.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not work? Would they not work?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I work? Wouldn't they work?
Negative Tag Question:	I would work, wouldn't I? They would work, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 1 and 2.

The Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is often used in polite requests and suggestions.
e.g. Would you please pass the butter?
Perhaps it would be best to postpone the meeting.
In the first example, **would pass** is used in a polite request. In the second example, **would be** is used in a polite suggestion.

See Exercise 3.

b. The continuous conjugation with the auxiliary Would
The Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is used to express continuous, ongoing actions.

In the case of the verb **to work**, the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would be working
you would be working
he would be working
she would be working
it would be working
we would be working
they would be working

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Continuous conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	Examples

Affirmative Statement:	I would be working. They would be working.
Question:	Would I be working? Would they be working?
Negative Statement:	I would not be working. They would not be working.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not be working? Would they not be working?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I be working? Wouldn't they be working?
Negative Tag Question:	I would be working, wouldn't I? They would be working, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 4 and 5.

c. The perfect conjugation with the auxiliary Would
In the case of the verb **to work**, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would have worked
you would have worked
he would have worked
she would have worked
it would have worked
we would have worked
they would have worked

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Perfect conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	Examples
Affirmative Statement:	I would have worked. They would have worked.
Question:	Would I have worked? Would they have worked?
Negative Statement:	I would not have worked.

	They would not have worked.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not have worked? Would they not have worked?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I have worked? Wouldn't they have worked?
Negative Tag Question:	I would have worked, wouldn't I? They would have worked, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 6 and 7.

Unlike the Perfect conjugations in the English past, present, and future tenses, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is not generally used to express an action completed by a certain time.

Instead, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** may be used as a past form of the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. The verbs in the following examples are underlined.

Present Form	**Past Form**
I would like that.	I would have liked that.
We would write to him.	We would have written to him.

In the first example, the Perfect conjugation **would have liked** is used as the past form of the Simple conjugation **would like**. In the second example, the Perfect conjugation **would have written** is used as the past form of the Simple conjugation **would write**.

See Exercises 8 and 9.

d. The perfect continuous conjugation with the auxiliary Would
In the case of the verb **to work**, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is as follows:

I would have been working
you would have been working
he would have been working
she would have been working
it would have been working
we would have been working
they would have been working

As illustrated below, the word order for questions and negative statements in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is similar to that in other English conjugations. The negative tag questions are underlined.

Perfect continuous conjugation with Would

Type of Statement	Examples
Affirmative Statement:	I would have been working. They would have been working.
Question:	Would I have been working? Would they have been working?
Negative Statement:	I would not have been working. They would not have been working.
Negative Question without Contractions:	Would I not have been working? Would they not have been working?
Negative Question with Contractions:	Wouldn't I have been working? Wouldn't they have been working?
Negative Tag Question:	I would have been working, wouldn't I? They would have been working, wouldn't they?

See Exercises 10 and 11.

Like the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would**, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is not generally used to express an action completed by a certain time.

Instead, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would** may be used as a past form of the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. The verbs in the following examples are underlined.

Present Form	Past Form
I would be waiting outside.	I would have been waiting outside.
He would be helping you.	He would have been helping you.

In the first example, the Perfect Continuous conjugation **would have been waiting** is used as the past form of the Continuous conjugation **would be waiting**. In the second example, the Perfect Continuous conjugation **would have been helping** is used as the past form of the Continuous conjugation **would be helping**.

See Exercise 12.

3. Summary of the formation of the conjugations with the auxiliary Would

The following table summarizes the formation of the conjugations with the auxiliary **would**.

Conjugation	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple	would	bare infinitive
Continuous	would be	present participle
Perfect	would have	past participle
Perfect Continuous	would have been	present participle

4. The "future in the past"

The modal auxiliary **would** is the past form of the modal auxiliary **will**. For this reason, the auxiliary **would** can be used to form what is sometimes called a **future in the past**.

The **future in the past** is used in reporting statements and questions which pertained to the future at the time they were made. In the following examples, the verbs in the main clauses are printed in bold type, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are underlined.

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	I **think** you <u>will succeed</u>.
Simple Past	I **thought** you <u>would succeed</u>.

In the sentence **I think you will succeed,** the verb of the main clause, **think**, is in the Simple Present, and the verb of the subordinate clause, **will succeed**, is in the Simple Future. If the verb **think** is changed to the Simple Past, then the verb **will succeed** must also be put into the past, by using the auxiliary **would** instead of **will**.

The following are other examples of the use of the **future in the past**:

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	She **says** she <u>will visit</u> us next week.
Simple Past	She **said** she <u>would visit</u> us the following week.
Simple Present	They **know** that we <u>will be arriving</u> tomorrow.
Simple Past	They **knew** that we <u>would be arriving</u> the next day.

In both pairs of examples, when the verb in the main clause is changed from the Simple Present to the Simple Past, the verb in the subordinate clause is changed from a future tense to the **future in the past**, by changing the auxiliary **will** to **would**.

It should be noted that adverb and adverb phrases such as **tomorrow**, **yesterday** and **next year** can be used only with reference to present time. When used with reference to past or future time, as in reported speech, these adverbs and adverb phrases must be changed.

For instance, **tomorrow** must be changed to an expression such as **the next day** or **the**

following day; and **next year** must be changed to an expression such as **the next year** or **the following year**. Other examples are given in the table below.

Used with Reference to Present Time	Used with Reference to Past or Future Time
tomorrow	the next day **or** the following day
today	that day **or** the same day
yesterday	the day before **or** the previous day
next week	the next week **or** the following week
this week	that week **or** the same week
last week	the week before **or** the previous week
next year	the next year **or** the following year
this year	that year **or** the same year
last year	the year before **or** the previous year

EXERCISES for Chapter 8

1. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

He would like to help us.
Would he like to help us?
He would not like to help us.
Would he not like to help us?
Wouldn't he like to help us?
He would like to help us, wouldn't he?

1. She would find it easy.
2. They would be on time.

Answers

2. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. For example:

I _____ some coffee. (to like)
I would like some coffee.

_____ he _____ us? (to believe)
Would he believe us?

They _____ not ____ the interruption. (to mind)
They would not mind the interruption.

_____ you not _____ to stay at home? (to prefer)
Would you not prefer to stay at home?

1. We _____ our best. (to try)
2. _____ you not _____ your glasses? (to need)

3. I _____ everything carefully. (to plan)
4. _____ they _____ us? (to remember)
5. _____ he not _____ willing to help them? (to be)
6. _____ she not _____ a good job? (to do)
7. We _____ not _____ much luggage. (to bring)
8. _____ they _____ their decision? (to reconsider)
9. You _____ a great deal. (to learn)
10. _____ he not _____ the tickets ahead of time? (to purchase)
Answers

3. Complete the following polite requests and suggestions, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. For example:

_____ you ____ some help? (to like)
Would you like some help?

_____ you please ____ me the way to the post office? (to tell)
Would you please tell me the way to the post office?

1. _____ you _____ for some coffee? (to care)
2. _____ you not _____ to visit the library? (to prefer)
3. I think it _____ wise to let them know. (to be)
4. _____ you please _____ here? (to wait)
5. I _____ not _____ that excursion. (to recommend)
6. _____ you _____ the door open? (to hold)
Answers

4. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

She would be arriving by bus.
Would she be arriving by bus?
She would not be arriving by bus.
Would she not be arriving by bus?
Wouldn't she be arriving by bus?
She would be arriving by bus, wouldn't she?

1. You would be coming with us.
2. He would be setting an example.
Answers

5. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. For example:

I _____ for good weather. (to wish)
I would be wishing for good weather.

_____ you _____ them? (to visit)
Would you be visiting them?

He _____ not _____ to come. (to expect)
He would not be expecting to come.

_____ they not ____ their car? (to drive)
Would they not be driving their car?

1. I _____ not _____ overtime. (to work)
2. _____ she not _____ to stay? (to intend)
3. He _____ for us to call. (to wait)
4. _____ they _____ warm clothes? (to wear)
5. You _____ twenty dollars on books. (to spend)
6. _____ we _____ early? (to arrive)
7. _____ I not _____ the guests? (to receive)
8. They _____ not _____ him for a long time. (to see)
9. _____ he not _____ what to do? (to wonder)
10. She _____ not _____ her bicycle. (to ride)

Answers

6. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

It would have been a disaster.
Would it have been a disaster?
It would not have been a disaster.
Would it not have been a disaster?
Wouldn't it have been a disaster?
It would have been a disaster, wouldn't it?

1. We would have told you.
2. They would have won.

Answers

7. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. For example:

They _____ this interesting. (to find)
They would have found this interesting.

_____ she _____ without us? (to come)
Would she have come without us?

He _____ not _____ the map. (to lose)
He would not have lost the map.

_____ we not _____ him the news? (to tell)
Would we not have told him the news?

1. I _____ everything. (to arrange)
2. She _____ not _____ to come. (to forget)
3. _____ they not _____ what to do? (to know)
4. _____ he _____ this route? (to choose)
5. We _____ them make a contribution. (to let)
6. _____ you not _____ it was missing? (to notice)

7. He _____ not _____ it to your old address. (to send)
8. _____ you _____ it? (to mention)
9. I _____ able to find you. (to be)
10. _____ they not _____ us? (to join)
Answers

8. Rewrite the following sentences so that they refer to the past, by changing the verbs from the Simple conjugation to the Perfect conjugation. For example:

I would like to come.
I would have liked to come.

Would he appreciate it?
Would he have appreciated it?

They would not mind.
They would not have minded.

Would she not remember us?
Would she not have remembered us?

1. They would mail us their address.
2. Would you recognize him?
3. He would not order pizza.
4. Would I not need your help?
5. She would prefer to play the violin.
6. Would they not provide clear instructions?
7. It would not be a good idea.
8. Would you feel left out?
Answers

9. Rewrite the following sentences so that they refer to the present, by changing the verbs from the Perfect conjugation to the Simple conjugation. For example:

It would have been preferable.
It would be preferable.

Would we have succeeded?
Would we succeed?

They would not have understood.
They would not understand.

Would you not have preferred to go?
Would you not prefer to go?

1. Would she have drunk the lemonade?
2. You would not have wanted to be late.
3. We would have begun at once.
4. I would not have stayed up all night.
5. Would he not have eaten the ice cream?
6. Would they have made the dessert?

7. She would have known what to do.
8. Would you not have recommended it?
Answers

10. Rewrite the following affirmative statements as questions, negative statements, negative questions without contractions, negative questions with contractions, and affirmative statements followed by negative tag questions. For example:

I would have been playing in the orchestra.
Would I have been playing in the orchestra?
I would not have been playing in the orchestra.
Would I not have been playing in the orchestra?
Wouldn't I have been playing in the orchestra?
I would have been playing in the orchestra, wouldn't I?

1. He would have been listening to the radio.
2. She would have been watering the lawn.
Answers

11. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with the auxiliary **would**. For example:

He _____ to see us. (to hope)
He would have been hoping to see us.

_____ you _____ to come? (to plan)
Would you have been planning to come?

We _____ not _____ rubber boots. (to wear)
We would not have been wearing rubber boots.

_____ she not _____ this? (to expect)
Would she not have been expecting this?

1. I _____ to catch the bus. (to hurry)
2. _____ you _____ with us? (to stay)
3. He _____ not _____ by train. (to travel)
4. _____ we not _____ you here? (to meet)
5. They _____ to Halifax. (to come)
6. _____ we _____ a report? (to make)
7. _____ she not _____ the parcels? (to open)
8. We _____ not _____ to the radio. (to listen)
9. You _____ for a long time. (to wait)
10. _____ they _____ the operation? (to run)
Answers

12. Put each of the following sentences into the past, by changing the verb from the Continuous conjugation to the Perfect Continuous conjugation. For example:

I would be enjoying it.
I would have been enjoying it.

Would she be preparing for the trip?

Would she have been preparing for the trip?

We would not be entertaining such suspicions.
We would not have been entertaining such suspicions.

Would he not be organizing the evidence?
Would he not have been organizing the evidence?

1. I would be investigating the report.
2. Would he be following the shoreline?
3. You would not be listening to rumors.
4. It would be growing colder.
5. They would not be exceeding the speed limit.
6. Would she not be weeding the garden?
7. Would we be receiving the messages?
8. They would be reporting to us.

Answers

13. For each of the following sentences, change the verb in the main clause from the Simple Present to the Simple Past; and change the verb in the subordinate clause from the Simple Future to the **future in the past**. If necessary, alter the adverb or adverb phrase referring to time. For example:

He thinks it will snow tomorrow.
He thought it would snow the next day.

We believe she will succeed.
We believed she would succeed.

I think she will come next week.
I thought she would come the next week.

1. I promise I will help you.
2. She says the letter will arrive tomorrow.
3. The boys are certain that their plane will fly.
4. We expect the weather will improve.
5. He maintains that he will win next year.
6. We feel that the plan will not work.
7. You know I will return next week.
8. They tell us that the harvest will be good.
9. He hopes the circus will come tomorrow.
10. I am sure they will be welcome.
11. We think the fruit will be ripe next month.
12. They say they will follow us.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 8

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. Would she find it easy? She would not find it easy. Would she not find it easy? Wouldn't she find it easy? She would find it easy, wouldn't she?
2. Would they be on time? They would not be on time. Would they not be on time? Wouldn't they be on time? They would be on time, wouldn't they?

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. would try 2. Would, need 3. would plan 4. Would, remember 5. Would, be 6. Would, do 7. would, bring 8. Would, reconsider 9. would learn 10. Would, purchase

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. Would, care 2. Would, prefer 3. would be 4. Would, wait 5. would, recommend 6. Would, hold

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. Would you be coming with us? You would not be coming with us. Would you not be coming with us? Wouldn't you be coming with us? You would be coming with us, wouldn't you?
2. Would he be setting an example? He would not be setting an example. Would he not be setting an example? Wouldn't he be setting an example? He would be setting an example, wouldn't he?

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. would, be working 2. Would, be intending 3. would be waiting 4. Would, be wearing 5. would be spending 6. Would, be arriving 7. Would, be receiving 8. would, be seeing 9. Would, be wondering 10. would, be riding

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. Would we have told you? We would not have told you. Would we not have told you? Wouldn't we have told you? We would have told you, wouldn't we?
2. Would they have won? They would not have won. Would they not have won? Wouldn't they have won? They would have won, wouldn't they?

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. would have arranged 2. would, have forgotten 3. Would, have known 4. Would, have chosen 5. would have let 6. Would, have noticed 7. would, have sent 8. Would, have mentioned 9. would have been 10. Would, have joined

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. They would have mailed us their address. 2. Would you have recognized him? 3. He would not have ordered pizza. 4. Would I not have needed your help? 5. She would have preferred to play the violin. 6. Would they not have provided clear instructions? 7. It would not have been a good idea. 8. Would you have felt left out?

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. Would she drink the lemonade? 2. You would not want to be late. 3. We would begin at once. 4. I would not stay up all night. 5. Would he not eat the ice cream? 6. Would they make the dessert? 7. She would know what to do. 8. Would you not recommend it?

Answers to Exercise 10:

1. Would he have been listening to the radio? He would not have been listening to the radio. Would he not have been listening to the radio? Wouldn't he have been listening to the radio? He would have been listening to the radio, wouldn't he?
2. Would she have been watering the lawn? She would not have been watering the lawn. Would she not have been watering the lawn? Wouldn't she have been watering the lawn? She would have been watering the lawn, wouldn't she?

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. would have been hurrying 2. Would, have been staying 3. would, have been traveling 4. Would, have been meeting 5. would have been coming 6. Would, have been making 7. Would, have been opening 8. would, have been listening 9. would have been waiting 10. Would, have been running

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. I would have been investigating the report. 2. Would he have been following the shoreline? 3. You would not have been listening to rumors. 4. It would have been growing colder. 5. They would not have been exceeding the speed limit. 6. Would she not have been weeding the garden? 7. Would we have been receiving the messages? 8. They would have been reporting to us.

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. I promised I would help you. 2. She said the letter would arrive the next day. 3. The boys were certain that their plane would fly. 4. We expected the weather would improve. 5. He maintained that he would win the next year. 6. We felt that the plan would not work. 7. You knew I would return the next week. 8. They told us that the harvest would be good. 9. He hoped the circus would come the next day. 10. I was sure they would be welcome. 11. We thought the fruit would be ripe the next month. 12. They said they would follow us.

CHAPTER 9. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

1. Uses of the subjunctive

In modern English, the Simple Present Subjunctive is most commonly used in formal commands and requests. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Present Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. They demand that he <u>submit</u> a report.
We request that you <u>be</u> here tomorrow.

The Simple Present Subjunctive is also still used in a few traditional expressions.
e.g. Long <u>live</u> the King!

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, are used in expressing wishes.
e.g. I wish you <u>were</u> here.
I wish I <u>had known</u> that.
I wish the rain <u>would stop</u>.

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, can also be used in order to indicate that conditions being expressed are false or improbable.

e.g. If I were rich, I would travel around the world.
If he had been here, he would have been glad to see you.

In the first example, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive **were** and the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the condition expressed in the clause **If I were rich** is false or improbable. In the second example, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive **had been**, and the Perfect conjugation with **would**, indicates that the condition expressed in the clause **If he had been here** is false.

2. Formation of the subjunctive

The English past and present tenses discussed in previous chapters are in what is usually referred to as the **Indicative** Mood. Each of the past and present tenses in the Indicative Mood has a corresponding tense in the **Subjunctive** Mood.

In modern English, most verb tenses in the Subjunctive Mood are similar or identical to the corresponding tenses in the Indicative Mood. It should be noted that verbs in the Subjunctive Mood do not modify, but have the same form regardless of the subject.

The Simple Present Subjunctive and Simple Past Subjunctive of the verb **to be** are shown below. The Indicative forms are also given, for purposes of comparison. The Subjunctive forms which differ from the corresponding Indicative forms are shown in bold type.

The simple indicative and subjunctive tenses of the verb To Be

Simple Present

Indicative	Subjunctive
I am	I **be**
you are	you **be**
he is	he **be**
she is	she **be**
it is	it **be**
we are	we **be**
they are	they **be**

Simple Past

Indicative	Subjunctive
I was	I **were**
you were	you were
he was	he **were**
she was	she **were**
it was	it **were**
we were	we were

they were	they were

For any verb, the Simple Present Subjunctive is formed from the bare infinitive of the verb.

For any verb except the verb **to be**, the Simple Past Subjunctive is identical to the Simple Past Indicative.

For all of the past and present tenses conjugated with auxiliaries, the Subjunctive tenses are formed in the same way as the Indicative tenses, except that the Subjunctive of the auxiliaries is used.

Using the example of the verb **to work**, the following table compares the tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods. The Subjunctive forms which differ from the corresponding Indicative forms are printed in bold type.

The indicative and subjunctive tenses of the verb To Work

Simple Present

Indicative	Subjunctive
I work	I work
you work	you work
he works	he **work**
she works	she **work**
it works	it **work**
we work	we work
they work	they work

Present Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I am working	I **be** working
you are working	you **be** working
he is working	he **be** working
she is working	she **be** working
it is working	it **be** working
we are working	we **be** working
they are working	they **be** working

Present Perfect

Indicative	Subjunctive
I have worked	I have worked
you have worked	you have worked
he has worked	he **have** worked

she has worked	she **have** worked
it has worked	it **have** worked
we have worked	we have worked
they have worked	they have worked

Present Perfect Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I have been working	I have been working
you have been working	you have been working
he has been working	he **have** been working
she has been working	she **have** been working
it has been working	it **have** been working
we have been working	we have been working
they have been working	they have been working

Simple Past

Indicative	Subjunctive
I worked	I worked
you worked	you worked
he worked	he worked
she worked	she worked
it worked	it worked
we worked	we worked
they worked	they worked

Past Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I was working	I **were** working
you were working	you were working
he was working	he **were** working
she was working	she **were** working
it was working	it **were** working
we were working	we were working
they were working	they were working

Past Perfect

Indicative	Subjunctive
I had worked	I had worked
you had worked	you had worked
he had worked	he had worked
she had worked	she had worked
it had worked	it had worked

we had worked	we had worked
they had worked	they had worked

Past Perfect Continuous

Indicative	Subjunctive
I had been working	I had been working
you had been working	you had been working
he had been working	he had been working
she had been working	she had been working
it had been working	it had been working
we had been working	we had been working
they had been working	they had been working

The following table summarizes the formation of the English Subjunctive tenses:

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	do	bare infinitive
Present Continuous	be	present participle
Present Perfect	have	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been	present participle
Simple Past	did	bare infinitive
Past Continuous	were	present participle
Past Perfect	had	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been	present participle

3. Formal commands and requests

The Simple Present Subjunctive was once more extensively used than it is today. In modern American English, the Simple Present Subjunctive is still used in clauses beginning with the word **that** which express formal commands or requests. In the following examples, the word **that** is printed in bold type, and the verbs in the Simple Present Subjunctive are underlined.

e.g. They requested **that** she <u>arrive</u> early.
It is important **that** they <u>be</u> present at the meeting.
The demand **that** he <u>provide</u> identification will create a delay.

The main clauses of the preceding examples are **they requested**, **it is important** and **the demand will create a delay**. In the first example, the verb **requested** is in the Simple Past; in the second example, the verb **is** is in the Simple Present; and in the third example, the verb **will create** is in the Simple Future.

As illustrated in these examples, the use of the Simple Present Subjunctive in the subordinate clause of a formal command or request is independent of the tense of the verb in the main clause.

The Simple Present Subjunctive is more commonly used in formal English than in informal English. For instance, the sentence "He advises **that** you not be late," is an example of formal English. In informal English, the same idea would probably be expressed by the sentence "He advises you not to be late," in which the infinitive is used, rather than a clause requiring the Simple Present Subjunctive.

See Exercise 1.

4. Wishes

The past tenses of the Subjunctive, and the auxiliary **would**, are used in the subordinate clauses of sentences which use the verb **to wish** in the main clause. In the following examples, the verb **to wish** is printed in bold type, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. He **wishes** that he were rich.
They **wish** that they had studied harder when they were young.
She **wishes** that you would come to the meeting tomorrow.

It should be noted that the word **that** can be omitted from a sentence which uses the verb **to wish** in the main clause.
e.g. He **wishes** he were rich.
They **wish** they had studied harder when they were young.
She **wishes** you would come to the meeting tomorrow.

The form of the verb used in the subordinate clause of a wish is independent of the tense of the verb in the main clause. As explained below, the form of the verb used in the subordinate clause of a wish is determined by whether the time of the action referred to in the subordinate clause is earlier than, the same as, or later than the time of the action referred to in the main clause.

a. An earlier time
When the subordinate clause refers to an earlier time than the main clause, the Past Perfect Subjunctive is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Past Perfect Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. We **wished** he had spoken to us.
I **wish** you had called earlier.
They **will wish** they had listened to us sooner.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive may be used instead of the Past Perfect Subjunctive. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. She **wishes** she had been staying with us last week.

In each of these examples, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive or the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause refers to an earlier time than the main clause.

See Exercise 2.

b. The same time
When the subordinate clause refers to the same time as the main clause, the Simple Past Subjunctive is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Past Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. When she was at the party, she **wished** she were at home.
Now that he is in China, he **wishes** he understood Chinese.
When we begin the trip, they **will wish** they were with us.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Continuous Subjunctive may be used instead of the Simple Past Subjunctive. In the following example, the verb in the Past Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. They **wish** they were traveling now.

In each of these examples, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive or the Past Continuous Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause refers to the same time as the main clause.

See Exercise 3.

c. A later time
When the subordinate clause refers to a later time than the main clause, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used in the subordinate clause. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. You **wished** she would arrive the next day.
I **wish** she would change her mind.
He **will wish** we would join him the following week.

In each of these examples, the use of the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the subordinate clause refers to a later time than the main clause.

See Exercise 4.

d. Summary
The following table summarizes the verb forms most often used in the subordinate clauses of sentences expressing wishes.

Time Referred to in Subordinate Clause Compared to Time Referred to in Main Clause	Form of Verb Used in Subordinate Clause
Earlier	Past Perfect Subjunctive **or** Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive e.g. I wish it had snowed yesterday.

Same	Simple Past Subjunctive **or** Past Continuous Subjunctive e.g. I wish it were snowing now.
Later	Simple conjugation with **would** e.g. I wish it would snow tomorrow.

See Exercise 5.

e. Use of the auxiliary Could in expressing wishes
It should be noted that the modal auxiliary **could**, which will be discussed further in the next chapter, can also be used in the subordinate clause of a sentence expressing a wish. The auxiliary **could** forms conjugations in the same way as the auxiliary **would**.
e.g. I wish I could help you tomorrow.
I wish I could help you now.

As illustrated in the preceding examples, the Simple conjugation with **could** may be used when the time referred to in the subordinate clause is later than, or the same as, the time referred to in the main clause.

As illustrated in the following example, the Perfect conjugation with **could** may be used when the time referred to in the subordinate clause is earlier than the time referred to in the main clause.
e.g. I wish I could have helped you yesterday.

5. Conditions which are false or improbable

Conditions are most often expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **if**. In the following examples, the word **if** is printed in bold type.
e.g. **If** it had rained yesterday, we would have stayed at home.
The condition contained in this sentence is expressed in the subordinate clause **if it had rained yesterday**.

Sometimes the word **if** is omitted from a subordinate clause expressing a condition. When the word **if** is omitted, the verb (in the case of the Simple tenses of **to be**), or the first auxiliary, must be placed before the subject. The following pairs of sentences illustrate the change in word order which occurs when the word **if** is omitted from a clause expressing a condition. In these examples, the verbs of the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. **If** I were braver, I would challenge him.
Were I braver, I would challenge him.

If they had been expecting us, they would have arranged to meet us.
Had they been expecting us, they would have arranged to meet us.

If I had not received your message, I would have left.
Had I not received your message, I would have left.

See Exercise 6.

As well as being expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **if**, conditions may also be expressed in subordinate clauses beginning with the word **unless**.
e.g. **Unless** he were a giant, he would not be able to see over the wall.

Either the Indicative Mood or the Subjunctive Mood can be used to express a condition.

In the case of a condition which is considered true or probable, the Indicative Mood is used.
e.g. If she is here now, we will ask her opinion.
In this example, the verb **is** is in the Simple Present Indicative. The use of the Simple Present Indicative indicates that the condition **if she is here now** is considered to be probable.

In the case of a condition which is considered false or improbable, the Subjunctive Mood is used.
e.g. If she were here now, we would ask her opinion.
In this example, the verb **were** is in the Simple Past Subjunctive. The use of the Simple Past Subjunctive indicates that the condition **if she were here now** is considered to be false or improbable.

a. Forms of the verb used in the main clause
When a sentence contains a condition which is considered false or improbable, the verb in the main clause is usually in the Simple or Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would**.

i. Referring to present or future time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the main clause refers to present or future time, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. If he were ready, I would accompany him.
If she came, I would lend her my bicycle.

In these examples, the use of the Simple conjugation with **would** indicates that the main clauses **I would accompany him** and **I would lend her my bicycle** refer to present or future time.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Continuous conjugation with **would** may be used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Continuous conjugation with **would** are underlined.
e.g. If they were here, he would be speaking to them now.
If they arrived tomorrow, he would be giving them a tour of the city.

See Exercise 7.

ii. Referring to past time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the main clause refers to

past time, the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **would** is usually used. In the following example, the verb in the Perfect conjugation with **would** is underlined.
e.g. If it had snowed, I would have skied in the park.

In this example, the use of the Perfect conjugation with **would** indicates that the main clause **I would have skied in the park** refers to past time. The use of the Perfect conjugation with **would**, combined with the use of the Past Perfect in the subordinate clause, indicates that the condition **it had snowed** is false, and that the action of skiing did not take place.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** is underlined.
e.g. If they had been here, he would have been speaking to them.

See Exercise 8.

iii. Summary
The forms of the verb most commonly used in the main clauses of sentences containing false or improbable conditions are summarized in the following table.

Referring To	Verb in Main Clause
Present or future time	Simple conjugation with **would** **or** Continuous conjugation with **would** e.g. If you started now, you would arrive on time.
Past time	Perfect conjugation with **would** **or** Perfect Continuous conjugation with **would** e.g. If you had started yesterday, you would have arrived on time.

See Exercise 9.

iv. Use of the auxiliary Could in sentences containing false or improbable Conditions
It should be noted that the auxiliary **could** can be used in either the main clause or the subordinate clause of a sentence containing a false or improbable condition. The first pair of examples illustrates the use of the auxiliary **could** in the main clause. The second pair of examples illustrates the use of the auxiliary **could** in the subordinate clause.
e.g. If they studied hard, they could pass the exam next year.
If they had studied hard, they could have passed the exam last year.

If you could see me now, you would not recognize me.
If you could have seen me yesterday, you would not have recognized me.

In these examples, the verbs **could pass** and **could see** are in the Simple conjugation with **could**; and the verbs **could have passed** and **could have seen** are in the Perfect conjugation with **could**. As illustrated in these examples, the Simple conjugation with **could** may be used to refer to present or future time; whereas the Perfect conjugation with **could** may be used to refer to past time.

b. Forms of the verb used in the subordinate clause
i. Referring to present or future time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the subordinate clause refers to present or future time, the Simple Past Subjunctive is usually used. In the following examples, the verbs in the Simple Past Subjunctive are underlined.
e.g. If it snowed, I would ski in the park.
If he were here, I would give him the books.

In these examples, the use of the Simple Past Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clauses **if it snowed** and **if he were here** refer to present or future time.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Continuous Subjunctive may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
If she were staying here now, I would let her ride my horse.

See Exercise 10.

It should be noted that, in the case of the verb **to be**, in informal English, the Simple Past Indicative is often used instead of the Simple Past Subjunctive. For instance, the following pair of examples shows how the same idea might be expressed in formal and informal English.

Formal: If he were here now, I would give him the books.
Informal: If he was here now, I would give him the books.

It should be observed that, even when the Indicative is used instead of the Subjunctive, the use of a past tense for an action pertaining to present time, combined with the use of the conjugation with **would** in the main clause, is enough to indicate clearly that the condition expressed is considered false or improbable. However, this use of **was** instead of **were** is considered grammatically incorrect in formal English.

ii. Referring to past time
In a sentence containing a false or improbable condition, if the subordinate clause refers to past time, the Past Perfect Subjunctive is usually used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. If he had wanted to come, he would have called us.

In this example, the use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive indicates that the subordinate clause **if he had wanted to come** refers to past time. The use of the Past Perfect Subjunctive also indicates that the condition **he had wanted to come** is false.

In the case of a continuous, ongoing action, the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive may be used. In the following example, the verb in the Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive is underlined.
e.g. If it had been raining yesterday, I would have taken my umbrella.

See Exercise 11.

iii. Summary
The forms of the Subjunctive most commonly used in subordinate clauses expressing false or improbable conditions are summarized in the following table.

Referring To	Verb in Subordinate Clause
Present or future time	Simple Past Subjunctive **or** Past Continuous Subjunctive e.g. If you started now, you would arrive on time.
Past time	Past Perfect Subjunctive **or** Past Perfect Continuous Subjunctive e.g. If you had started yesterday, you would have arrived on time.

See Exercise 12.

c. Changing a statement containing a probable condition into a statement containing an improbable condition
A statement containing a probable condition can be changed into a statement containing an improbable condition, by changing the forms of the verbs.

For instance, in each of the following pairs of examples, the first statement contains a probable condition; whereas the second statement contains an improbable condition. The verbs in the subordinate clauses and main clauses are underlined.

Probable: If he is here now, we will give him the book.
Improbable: If he were here now, we would give him the book.

Probable: If I have time tonight, I will help you with your homework.
Improbable: If I had time tonight, I would help you with your homework.

In these examples, **he is here now** and **I have time tonight** express probable conditions; whereas **he were here now** and **I had time** tonight express improbable conditions.

These examples illustrate how, when referring to non-continuous actions in present or future time, a statement containing a probable condition can be changed into a statement containing an improbable condition. The verb in the subordinate clause is changed from the Simple Present Indicative to the Simple Past Subjunctive; and the verb in the main clause is changed from the Simple Future to the Simple conjugation with **would**.

See Exercise 13.

It is sometimes said that when a verb is in the Indicative Mood, the use of a past tense indicates remoteness in terms of time; however, when a verb is in the Subjunctive Mood, the use of a past tense indicates remoteness in terms of probability.

6. The imperative mood

The Imperative Mood is used for giving commands. Like the Simple Present Subjunctive, the Imperative Mood of a verb is formed from the bare infinitive of the verb. For instance, the Imperative of the verb **to work** is **work**. In the following examples, the verbs in the Imperative Mood are underlined.
e.g. Work!
Work harder!

Likewise, the Imperative of the verb **to be** is **be**.
e.g. Be more alert!
You be ready to come with us.

The Imperative Mood can be used only in the second person. As shown in the first three examples above, the subject of the sentence is often omitted when the Imperative Mood is used. In such sentences, the subject **you** is said to be "understood". In written English, when the subject of the verb is omitted from a command, the command is often followed by an exclamation mark: **!**

The Imperative Mood can also be used in negative statements. Negative statements are formed using the auxiliary **do**, followed by the word **not**. The contraction **don't** is often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Do not work so hard.	Don't work so hard.
Do not be afraid.	Don't be afraid.

EXERCISES for Chapter 9

1. Fill in the blanks with the Simple Present Subjunctive of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:
They insisted that she _____ at once. (to come)
They insisted that she come at once.

The proposal that she _____ us has merit. (to meet)
The proposal that she meet us has merit.

1. He suggested that I _____ ready by eight o'clock. (to be)
2. We request that she _____ the window. (to open)
3. They demanded that he _____ the room. (to leave)
4. I will ask that she _____ me. (to accompany)
5. They recommended that he _____ to Bermuda. (to fly)
6. The request that we _____ ready to leave at six is a nuisance. (to be)
7. The recommendation that she _____ a holiday was carried out. (to take)
8. It is necessary that you _____ able to come with us. (to be)
9. They asked that we _____ standing. (to remain)
10. The requirement that he _____ work will be hard to meet. (to find)
11. It is important that he _____ everything he can. (to learn)
12. The demand that she _____ the report has been carried out. (to complete)

Answers

2. Complete each of the following sentences with the Past Perfect Subjunctive of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

They wished they ___ not ____. (to come)
They wished they had not come.

I wish I _____ ready on time. (to be)
I wish I had been ready on time.

Will she wish she _____ her bicycle? (to ride)
Will she wish she had ridden her bicycle?

1. I wish I _____ not _____ the answers. (to lose)
2. They wished they _____ not _____ the appointment. (to forget)
3. He will wish he _____ us the book. (to show)
4. Will they wish we _____ them some food? (to give)
5. We wish it _____ yesterday. (to snow)
6. She wished she _____ not _____ the window. (to open)
7. I wished I _____ the news. (to hear)
8. You wish you _____ what to do. (to know)

Answers

3. Complete each of the following sentences with the Simple Past Subjunctive of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

He wished he ____ able to do it. (to be)
He wished he were able to do it.

I wish I _____ with you. (to agree)
I wish I agreed with you.

They will wish they _____ time to come. (to have)
They will wish they had time to come.

1. I wish it _____ possible to finish the work tonight. (to be)
2. Will he wish he _____ ready? (to be)
3. She wished she _____ how to sing. (to know)
4. We wish they _____ to come with us. (to want)
5. You wished you _____ better. (to feel)
6. They will wish it _____ warmer. (to be)
7. Does he wish he _____ younger? (to be)
8. I wish I _____ the subject more interesting. (to find)

Answers

4. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would**. For example:

They wished the sun _____. (to shine)
They wished the sun would shine.

Does she wish it _____? (to snow)

Does she wish it would snow?

You will wish the bell _____. (to ring)
You will wish the bell would ring.

1. They wished she _____ the arrangements. (to make)
2. He will wish you _____ him. (to help)
3. She wishes the mail _____. (to come)
4. We wished they _____. (to hurry)
5. You will wish the door _____. (to open)
6. They wish we _____ for them. (to wait)
7. I wish you _____ to me. (to write)
8. Will she wish you _____ her? (to join)

Answers

5. Paying attention to the underlined adverbs indicating time, complete each of the following sentences with the correct form of the verb shown in brackets. Use the Past Perfect Subjunctive, the Simple Past Subjunctive, or the Simple conjugation with **would**, depending on whether the time of the action referred to in the subordinate clause is earlier than, the same as, or later than, the time of making the wish. For example:

We wished they _____ us earlier. (to call)
We wished they had called us earlier.

She wishes she ____ in Rome now.
She wishes she were in Rome now.

I wish you _____ with us tomorrow. (to come)
I wish you would come with us tomorrow.

1. I wish he _____ here now. (to be)
2. I wish that you _____ here yesterday. (to be)
3. We wish you _____ tomorrow. (to come)
4. You will wish you _____ earlier. (to leave)
5. They wished he _____ with them the next day. (to come)
6. We wish you _____ yesterday. (to arrive)
7. I wish that he _____ us next year. (to visit)
8. She wishes that she _____ at home now. (to be)
9. You wish that he _____ you last week. (to help)
10. He will always wish he _____ rich. (to be)
11. The boy wished that he _____ the competition the next day. (to win)
12. She will wish she _____ the arrangements earlier. (to make)
13. I wish the weather _____ warmer now. (to be)
14. We always wished we _____ fluent in other languages. (to be)
15. They wish he _____ them next week. (to telephone)

Answers

6. For each of the following sentences, rewrite the subordinate clause, using the form in which the word **if** is omitted. For example:

If I were in your position, I would pay close attention.

Were I in your position, I would pay close attention.

If it had been raining, we would have used our umbrellas.
Had it been raining, we would have used our umbrellas.

1. If he were here, he would lend us his car.
2. If I had remembered their address, I would have sent them a card.
3. If we were not waiting for a telephone call, we would go downtown.
4. If they had recognized her, they would have spoken to her.
5. If I had been intending to go shopping, I would have let you know.
6. If you had seen the movie, you would have liked it.
7. If it were not snowing, we would go out.
8. If he had been shoveling the walk, we would have seen him.

Answers

7. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with **would**. For example:

We _____ if we were ready. (to come)
We would come if we were ready.

_____ you _____ more if you had time? (to travel)
Would you travel more if you had time?

If they saw us, they _____ not _____ us. (to recognize)
If they saw us, they would not recognize us.

_____ you not ____ glad if you were rich? (to be)
Would you not be glad if you were rich?

1. If we were hitchhiking, _____ you _____ to pick us up? (to stop)
2. If we waited for him, we _____ not _____ on time. (to be)
3. _____ he _____ us know if we made a mistake? (to let)
4. I _____ not _____ to have a party if you were not there. (to want)
5. If you knew more about her, you _____ your opinion. (to change)
6. _____ you _____ pizza if you did not like it? (to order)
7. _____ they not _____ to come if we asked them? (to agree)
8. We _____ not _____ a car unless we were insured. (to drive)

Answers

8. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Perfect conjugation with **would**. For example:

If it had rained, I _____ at home. (to stay)
If it had rained, I would have stayed at home.

_____ you _____ with us if we had asked you? (to come)
Would you have come with us if we had asked you?

If he had hurried, he _____ not _____ the bus. (to miss)
If he had hurried, he would not have missed the bus.

_____ she not _____ if she had seen us? (to wave)
Would she not have waved if she had seen us?

1. If he had arrived late, _____ we _____ without him? (to begin)
2. If they had felt thirsty, _____ they not _____ the lemonade? (to drink)
3. If we had been here, we _____ not _____ the fireworks. (to miss)
4. If his office had called, _____ he not _____ to work? (to return)
5. She _____ not _____ early if she had not had a good reason. (to leave)
6. If they had searched more carefully, they _____ the watch sooner. (to find)
7. If you had visited Rome, _____ you _____ to the opera? (to go)
8. She _____ down if she had been tired. (to lie)

Answers

9. The following statements contain false or improbable conditions. Paying attention to the underlined adverbs indicating time, complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the appropriate conjugations with **would**. use the Simple conjugation for actions pertaining to the present or the future, and use the Perfect conjugation for actions pertaining to the past. For example:

If you came with us now, you _____ everything. (to see)
If you came with us now, you would see everything.

_____ he _____ us yesterday if we had slept in? (to wake)
Would he have woken us yesterday if we had slept in?

1. If he were here now he _____ not _____ to help us. (to hesitate)
2. I _____ the book last week if I had known you wanted it. (to finish)
3. _____ you _____ to him last night if you had seen him? (to speak)
4. If they were old enough, they _____ the contest next week. (to enter)
5. _____ she not _____ a vacation now if she had more time? (to take)
6. If he had sent a message, we _____ it two days ago. (to receive)
7. I _____ it if you came with me now. (to appreciate)
8. _____ she not _____ grateful if we offered to help her tomorrow? (to be)
9. _____ he _____ yesterday if he had entered the race? (to win)
10. _____ they not _____ more books last month if they had noticed the stock was low? (to order)
11. _____ she not _____ us now if she knew where we lived? (to visit)
12. _____ you _____ cucumbers yesterday if they had been on sale? (to buy)

Answers

10. For each of the following sentences, complete the subordinate clause with the Simple Past Subjunctive of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

If he ____ in town, he would call us. (to be)
If he were in town, he would call us.

Would you go to the party if you _____ an invitation? (to receive)
Would you go to the party if you received an invitation?

If he ___ not ____ his work, he would find another job. (to like)

If he did not like his work, he would find another job.

1. If he _____ rich, he would travel. (to be)
2. _____ I not anxious to meet him, I would stay at home. (to be)
3. He would have more free time if he _____ not _____ so hard. (to work)
4. If I _____ a car, I would visit Cape Breton. (to have)
5. We would take the bus if it _____ to snow. (to begin)
6. If you _____ him, you would surely recognize him. (to see)
7. I would not confide in him if I _____ not _____ him. (to trust)
8. If we _____ not _____ time, we would let you know. (to have)
9. If he _____ an expedition, I would certainly join it. (to organize)
10. I would not worry about it if I _____ you. (to be)

Answers

11. For each of the following sentences, complete the subordinate clause with the Past Perfect Subjunctive of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

If I _____ him to do it, he would have obeyed me. (to order)
If I had ordered him to do it, he would have obeyed me.

Had it not _____ yesterday, we would have raked the leaves. (to snow)
Had it not snowed yesterday, we would have raked the leaves.

1. I would not have got lost if I _____ the map. (to study)
2. _____ he _____ at home, we would have visited him. (to be)
3. We would have invited him if we _____ he would come. (to think)
4. He would have applied for the job if he _____ the advertisement. (to see)
5. We would not have ordered tea, _____ we _____ how late it was. (to know)
6. _____ it not _____, they would have held the party in the park. (to rain)
7. We would have agreed with you if we _____ what you meant. (to understand)
8. If you _____ salt on the steps, they would not have been so slippery. (to put)
9. _____ he _____ to us, we would have known when to expect him. (to write)
10. If he _____ to take the course, he would have had to work hard. (to choose)

Answers

12. The following statements contain false or improbable conditions. Paying attention to the underlined adverbs indicating time, complete the subordinate clauses with the correct forms of the verbs shown in brackets. Use the Simple Past Subjunctive for actions pertaining to the present or the future, and use the Past Perfect Subjunctive for actions pertaining to the past. For example:

If she ____ here now, she would be admiring the rose bushes. (to be)
If she were here now, she would be admiring the rose bushes.

___ he _____ here last week, we would have met him. (to stay)
Had he stayed here last week, we would have met him.

1. If he _____ here now, we would ask his opinion. (to be)
2. We would have forgotten our tickets last night, if she ____not _____ us. (to

remind)
3. _____ I _____ earlier, I would have arrived on time yesterday. (to leave)
4. Would you visit Spain next summer, if you _____ enough money? (to have)
5. If it _____ yesterday, we would not need to water the lawn. (to rain)
6. If he _____ you last Wednesday, he would have asked your advice. (to see)
7. If they _____ to leave now, they would need special permission. (to want)
8. _____ they _____ of the concert yesterday, they would have arranged to go. (to know)
9. Would you not have stayed longer last week, if you _____ able to? (to be)
10. If they _____ the letter tomorrow, they would receive an answer in two weeks. (to write)
11. If he _____ the book now, he would enjoy it. (to read)
12. If we _____ more attention yesterday, we would know what time to be there. (to pay)
Answers

13. Change each of the following sentences from a statement containing a probable condition to a statement containing a false or improbable condition. Following the model of the examples, change the underlined verb in the subordinate clause from the Simple Present Indicative to the Simple Past Subjunctive; and change the underlined verb in the main clause from the Simple Future to the Simple conjugation with **would**. For example:

If she is angry, she will scold us.
If she were angry, she would scold us.

If he wins, we will congratulate him.
If he won, we would congratulate him.

They will join us, if we send them a message.
They would join us, if we sent them a message.

1. If they want to see you, they will come to the party.
2. If he is curious, he will ask what we are doing.
3. She will help us, if she has time.
4. If they work hard, they will succeed.
5. If I find the culprits, I will teach them a lesson.
6. If she recognizes us, she will wave.
7. They will treat you well, if you are honest with them.
8. If she likes you, she will tell you.
9. If he is ready, we will invite him to come.
10. If they see me, they will want to speak to me.
Answers

14. Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the Imperative form of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

____ the door. (to open)
Open the door.

Don't _____ to come. (to forget)
Don't forget to come.

1. Don't _____ out late. (to stay)
2. Please _____ ready on time. (to be)
3. Don't _____ about that. (to worry)
4. _____ your own business! (to mind)
5. _____ careful not to trip. (to be)
6. Do not _____ everything you hear. (to believe)
7. Always _____ both ways before crossing the street. (to look)
8. You _____ here while I go into the store. (to wait)
9. _____ me! (to excuse)
10. _____ me a postcard if you have time. (to send)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 9

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. be 2. open 3. leave 4. accompany 5. fly 6. be 7. take 8. be 9. remain 10. find 11. learn 12. complete

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. had, lost 2. had, forgotten 3. had shown 4. had given 5. had snowed 6. had, opened 7. had heard 8. had known

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. were 2. were 3. knew 4. wanted 5. felt 6. were 7. were 8. found

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. would make 2. would help 3. would come 4. would hurry 5. would open 6. would wait 7. would write 8. would join

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. were 2. had been 3. would come 4. had left 5. would come 6. had arrived 7. would visit 8. were 9. had helped 10. were 11. would win 12. had made 13. were 14. were 15. would telephone

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. Were he here, he would lend us his car. 2. Had I remembered their address, I would have sent them a card. 3. Were we not waiting for a telephone call, we would go downtown. 4. Had they recognized her, they would have spoken to her. 5. Had I been intending to go shopping, I would have let you know. 6. Had you seen the movie, you would have liked it. 7. Were it not snowing, we would go out. 8. Had he been shoveling the walk, we would have seen him.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. would, stop 2. would, be 3. Would, let 4. would, want 5. would change 6. Would, order 7. Would, agree 8. would, drive

Answers to Exercise 8:

1. would, have begun 2. would, have drunk 3. would, have missed 4. would, have returned 5. would, have left 6. would have found 7. would, have gone 8. would have lain

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. would, hesitate 2. would have finished 3. Would, have spoken 4. would enter 5. Would, take 6. would have received 7. would appreciate 8. Would, be 9. Would, have won 10. Would, have ordered 11. Would, visit 12. Would, have bought

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. were 2. Were 3. did, work 4. had 5. began 6. saw 7. did, trust 8. did, have 9. organized 10. were

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. had studied 2. Had, been 3. had thought 4. had seen 5. had, known 6. Had, rained 7. had understood 8. had put 9. Had, written 10. had chosen

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. were 2. had, reminded 3. Had, left 4. had 5. had rained 6. had seen 7. wanted 8. Had, known 9. had been 10. wrote 11. read 12. had paid

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. If they wanted to see you, they would come to the party. 2. If he were curious, he would ask what we are doing. 3. She would help us, if she had time. 4. If they worked hard, they would succeed. 5. If I found the culprits, I would teach them a lesson. 6. If she recognized us, she would wave. 7. They would treat you well, if you were honest with them. 8. If she liked you, she would tell you. 9. If he were ready, we would invite him to come. 10. If they saw me, they would want to speak to me.

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. stay 2. be 3. worry 4. Mind 5. Be 6. believe 7. look 8. wait 9. Excuse 10. Send

CHAPTER 10. MODAL VERBS

There are nine modal verbs in English: can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, and would. Two of these, **will** and **would**, have already been discussed in detail.

1. Formation of the modal conjugations

All of the modal verbs are used as auxiliaries, and all of them form conjugations in the same way. Thus, the other modal auxiliaries form conjugations in the same way as **will** and **would**. For instance, the conjugation of the modal auxiliary **could** with the verb **to work** is formed as follows:

Conjugations of the modal auxiliary Could with the verb To Work

Simple	Continuous
I could work	I could be working
you could work	you could be working
he could work	he could be working
she could work	she could be working
it could work	it could be working
we could work	we could be working
they could work	they could be working

Perfect	Perfect Continuous
I could have worked	I could have been working
you could have worked	you could have been working
he could have worked	he could have been working
she could have worked	she could have been working
it could have worked	it could have been working
we could have worked	we could have been working
they could have worked	they could have been working

The formation of conjugations using the modal auxiliaries can be summarized as follows:

Conjugation	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple	modal auxiliary	bare infinitive
Continuous	modal auxiliary + be	present participle
Perfect	modal auxiliary + have	past participle
Perfect Continuous	modal auxiliary + have been	present participle

Verbs in the Simple conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to present or future time; whereas verbs in the Perfect conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to past time.

Verbs in the Continuous conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to continuous, ongoing actions in present or future time; whereas verbs in the Perfect Continuous conjugation with a modal auxiliary generally refer to continuous, ongoing actions in past time.

The word order for questions and negative statements in the conjugations with the modal auxiliaries is similar to that in other English conjugations.

a. Questions
To form a question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
She can work.	Can she work?
He would be working.	Would he be working?
They should have worked.	Should they have worked?
I could have been working.	Could I have been working?

See Exercise 1.

b. Negative statements
To form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the first auxiliary. It should be noted that the auxiliary **can**, followed by **not**, is written as a single word. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Negative Statement
She can work.	She cannot work.
He would be working.	He would not be working.
They should have worked.	They should not have worked.
I could have been working.	I could not have been working.

See Exercise 2.

In spoken English, the following contractions may be used:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
cannot	can't
could not	couldn't
might not	mightn't
must not	mustn't
shall not	shan't
should not	shouldn't
will not	won't
would not	wouldn't

However, it should be noted that the contractions **mightn't** and **shan't** are rarely used in modern American English.

c. Negative questions
To form a negative question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. For example:

Without Contractions	With Contractions
Can she not work?	Can't she work?
Would he not be working?	Wouldn't he be working?
Should they not have worked?	Shouldn't they have worked?
Could I not have been working?	Couldn't I have been working?

See Exercise 3.

d. Tag questions
Tag questions are formed using the first auxiliary. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined.

Affirmative Statement	Affirmative Statement with Tag Question
She can work.	She can work, can't she?
He would be working.	He would be working, wouldn't he?
They should have worked.	They should have worked, shouldn't they?
I could have been working.	I could have been working, couldn't I?

2. Relationships among the modal auxiliaries

Just as **would** can be used as the past of **will**; **could** can be used as the past of **can**; **might** can be used as the past of **may**; and **should** can be used as the past of **shall**. The auxiliary **must** can refer either to the present or to the past. These relationships among the modal auxiliaries can be summarized as follows:

Present	Past
can	could
may	might
must	must
shall	should
will	would

The following examples illustrate these relationships:

Tense of Verb in Main Clause	Complete Sentence
Simple Present	I **think** I can do it.
Simple Past	I **thought** I could do it.
Simple Present	He **predicts** it may rain.
Simple Past	He **predicted** it might rain.
Simple Present	She **knows** she must be there.
Simple Past	She **knew** she must be there.
Simple Present	I **wonder** what we shall do tomorrow.
Simple Past	I **wondered** what we should do the next day.

See Exercises 4 and 5.

Each of the modal auxiliaries has more than one meaning. The meaning depends upon the context in which the auxiliary is used.

3. Can and Could

The modal auxiliary **can** is most often used in the Simple conjugation.

The most important meaning of **can** and **could** is **to be able to**.
e.g. He can walk thirty miles a day.
When she was young, she could swim across the lake.
The first example has the meaning, **He is able to walk thirty miles a day.** The second example has the meaning, **When she was young, she was able to swim across the lake.**

Like the auxiliary **would**, **could** can be used in polite requests and suggestions.
e.g. Could you please tell me how to get to Almond Street?
You could try asking the bus driver to help you.

As indicated in the previous chapter, **could** can be used in sentences expressing wishes.
e.g. He wished he could visit France.
I wish I could have helped you.

See Exercise 6.

It has also been pointed out that **could** can be used in either the main clause or the subordinate clause of a statement expressing a false or improbable condition.
e.g. If he were stronger, he could help us push the car out of the snow.
She could have caught the bus if she had left right away.
I would be glad if I could help you.
If he could have solved the problem, he would have felt happier.

See Exercises 7 and 8.

In informal English, **can** is often used with the meaning **to be allowed to**.
e.g. He says I can take the day off.
Can I have some more soup?

However, in formal English, it is considered more correct to use the auxiliary **may** in such situations.
He says I may take the day off.
May I have some more soup?

4. May, Might and Must

One of the meanings of **may** and **might** is **to be allowed to**.
e.g. The members of the organization agree that I may join it.
The members of the organization agreed that I might join it.

The auxiliary **must** is a stronger form of **may** and **might**. One of the meanings of **must** is **to be obliged to** or **to have to**.
e.g. You must provide proper identification in order to cash a check.
They must work harder if they are to succeed.

It should be noted that the meaning of **must not** is **to be obliged not to**.

e.g. You must not leave.
He must not speak.
The first example has the meaning, **You must stay.** The second example has the meaning, **He must be silent.**

In order to express the idea of not being obliged to do something, an expression such as **not to be obliged to** or **not to have to** is generally used.
e.g. You do not have to leave.
He is not obliged to speak.
The first example has the meaning, **You may stay, if you wish.** The second example has the meaning, **He may be silent, if he wishes.**

Like **could** and **would**, **might** can be used in polite requests and suggestions. The auxiliaries **could**, **would** and **might** can be used to express differing degrees of politeness:

Degree of Politeness	Auxiliary
somewhat polite	could
quite polite	would
very polite	might

Thus, **might** expresses the highest degree of politeness.
e.g. Might I observe what you are doing?
Might I offer some advice?

See Exercise 9.

May, **might** and **must** are also used to express differing degrees of probability:

Degree of Probability	Auxiliary
somewhat probable	may, might
highly probable	must

For instance, **may** and **might** are often used in the Simple conjugation to express the idea that an event is somewhat probable.
e.g. You might be right.
It may snow later this afternoon.

Similarly, **must** can be used in the Simple conjugation to express the idea that an event is highly probable.
e.g. He must be mistaken.

In the following examples, the Perfect conjugations with **may**, **might** and **must** are used to express differing degrees of probability relating to past events.
Rupert might have taken the money, but it seems unlikely.
It is possible he may have called while we were out.
It must have rained last night, because the streets are wet.

See Exercise 10.

5. Should

In British English, the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **should** is often used in subordinate clauses stating conditions. This construction is usually used to refer to events that may occur by chance.
e.g. If I should see him, I will tell him what I think.

Should is also used with the meaning **ought to**. This is the most common use of **should** in American English.
e.g. You should take an umbrella with you, in case it starts to rain.
I should answer his letter as soon as possible.

Ought is said to be a **defective** verb, since it has no infinitive, or present or past participle. It does not modify, but has the same form, regardless of the subject. **Ought** can be used only in combination with other verbs. Unlike the modal auxiliaries, which are followed by the bare infinitive, **ought** is followed by the infinitive of whatever verb it accompanies.

In each of the following examples, **ought** is underlined, and the infinitive which follows it is printed in bold type.
e.g. You ought **to take** an umbrella with you.
He ought **to stop** smoking.
They ought **to drive** more carefully.

6. Expressions which are synonymous with the modal auxiliaries

The modal verbs can be used only as auxiliaries; they cannot be used on their own. They are defective, since they have no infinitive, or present or past participle.

It should be noted that in addition to the modal auxiliaries **will** and **can**, there are two other English verbs, **to will** and **to can**, which are conjugated regularly. The verb **to will** has the meaning **to direct one's willpower toward something**, or **to bequeath by means of a will**. The verb **to can** has the meaning **to put into a can**.

Because the modal auxiliaries are defective, they cannot be combined with one another. Thus, the fact that the English future tenses are formed with the modal auxiliaries **will** and **shall** means that the other modal auxiliaries cannot be put into the future.

When it is desired to put the ideas expressed by the modal auxiliaries into the future, synonymous expressions must be used. The following are the synonymous expressions most often used:

Modal Auxiliary	Synonymous Expression
can	be able to
may	be allowed to

must	have to

It should be noted that the expression **be allowed to** is synonymous with **may** only when **may** is used in the sense of permission being granted.

The following examples illustrate how synonymous expressions may be used when it is desired to put the modal auxiliaries **can**, **may** and **must** into the future.

Present	Future
I can work.	I will be able to work.
You may work.	You will be allowed to work.
He must work.	He will have to work.

See Exercise 11.

a. The pronunciation of Have To
The following table illustrates how the pronunciation of the words **have** and **has** in the expression **have to** differs from the usual pronunciation of the verb **to have**. In the expression **have to**, the consonant preceding the **t** of **to** is unvoiced. An imitated pronunciation of **has** and **have** is indicated in the right-hand column.

Usual pronunciation of Have

Example	Imitated Pronunciation
She has two children.	"haz"
We have two children.	"hav"

Pronunciation of Have in the expression Have To

Example	Imitated Pronunciation
She has to leave.	"hass"
We have to leave.	"haff"

7. The use of auxiliaries in tag questions, short answers and ellipsis

In English, the verbs used as auxiliaries are **to be**, **to do**, **to have**, and the modal auxiliaries. All of these auxiliaries can be used in tag questions and short answers.

a. Negative tag questions
Negative tag questions have already been discussed. An affirmative statement is often followed by a negative tag question, in order to ask for confirmation of the affirmative statement. In the following examples, the negative tag questions are underlined. Contractions are usually used in negative tag questions.
e.g. You are coming with me, aren't you?
You like coffee, don't you?

For the Simple Present and the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, tag questions are formed using the verb itself. For instance, in the following examples, the verbs **is** and **were** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. She is very nice, isn't she?
They were ready on time, weren't they?

For the Simple Present and the Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used in tag questions. For instance, in the following examples, the auxiliaries **does** and **did** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. He rides a bicycle, doesn't he?
They ordered pizza, didn't they?

For all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used in tag questions. For instance, in the following examples, the first auxiliaries **have**, **would**, **should** and **can** are used in negative tag questions.
e.g. You have worked all night, haven't you?
He would have helped us, wouldn't he?
They should get more exercise, shouldn't they?
She can speak five languages, can't she?

See Exercise 12.

b. Affirmative tag questions
A negative statement is often followed by an affirmative tag question, in order to ask for confirmation of the negative statement, or in order to ask for more information. In the following examples, the affirmative tag questions are underlined.
e.g. He is not very tall, is he?
They don't want to work, do they?

The rules for forming affirmative tag questions are similar to those for forming negative tag questions. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.
e.g. He wasn't much help, was he?
They didn't want to come with us, did they?
You hadn't slept well, had you?
She can't speak Greek, can she?
They wouldn't mind helping us, would they?

See Exercise 13.

c. Short answers
Sometimes it is possible to reply to a question by means of a short answer, consisting of a subject, followed by the verb or first auxiliary used in the question. The rules for forming affirmative and negative short answers are similar to those for forming affirmative and negative tag questions. Thus, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.

The following are examples of questions with affirmative and negative short answers. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Contractions are usually used in negative short answers.

Question	Affirmative Short Answer	Negative Short Answer
Is he ready?	Yes, he is.	No, he isn't.
Were you finished?	Yes, I was.	No, I wasn't.
Do you know them?	Yes, I do.	No, I don't.
Did we win?	Yes, we did.	No, we didn't.
Has he left?	Yes, he has.	No, he hasn't.
Will they need help?	Yes, they will.	No, they won't.
Could you help me?	Yes, I could.	No, I couldn't.

It should be noted that the form of the verb in a short answer is not always the same as the form of the verb in the question, since the verb of a short answer must agree with its subject. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and their subjects are printed in bold type.
e.g. Are **you** ready? Yes, **I** am.
Were **you** excited? Yes, **I** was.

See Exercises 14 and 15.

d. Ellipsis
In English, words can sometimes be omitted from a sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence. The words which are omitted are said to be "understood". This type of short form is usually referred to as **ellipsis**.

Short answers are one kind of ellipsis. For instance, in the example:
Can you speak Spanish? Yes, I can.
the short answer **Yes, I can,** means **Yes, I can speak Spanish.** The words **speak Spanish** are understood.

Another kind of ellipsis uses the words **and so**, followed by the verb or first auxiliary, followed by the subject.

For instance, the sentence:
He can speak Spanish, and I can speak Spanish too.
would normally be shortened to:
He can speak Spanish, and so can I.

Other examples of this type of ellipsis are given below. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Without Ellipsis: She is tired, and I am tired too.
With Ellipsis: She is tired, and so am I.

Without Ellipsis: They like ice cream, and we like ice cream too.
With Ellipsis: They like ice cream, and so do we.

Without Ellipsis: He wrote a letter, and I wrote a letter too.
With Ellipsis: He wrote a letter, and so did I.

Without Ellipsis: You had worked all night, and I had worked all night too.
With Ellipsis: You had worked all night, and so had I.

Without Ellipsis: You should get more sleep, and we should get more sleep too.
With Ellipsis: You should get more sleep, and so should we.

As illustrated above, the rules for forming the construction with **and so** are similar to the rules for forming tag questions and short answers. Thus, in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**, the verb itself is used; in the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** is used; and in the case of all other tenses and conjugations, the first auxiliary is used.

See Exercise 16.

The construction using the words **and so** is used to express an affirmative idea, following an affirmative statement.

In contrast, a similar construction, using the words **and neither**, is used to express a negative idea, following a negative statement.

For instance, the sentence:
He cannot speak Danish, and I cannot speak Danish either.
would normally be shortened to:
He cannot speak Danish, and neither can I.

Other examples of this type of ellipsis are given below. The verbs and auxiliaries are underlined.

Without Ellipsis: She is not ready, and you are not ready either.
With Ellipsis: She is not ready, and neither are you.

Without Ellipsis: They do not own a car, and he does not own a car either.
With Ellipsis: They do not own a car, and neither does he.

Without Ellipsis: We have not forgotten, and she has not forgotten either.
With Ellipsis: We have not forgotten, and neither has she.

Without Ellipsis: They couldn't find it, and we couldn't find it either.
With Ellipsis: They couldn't find it, and neither could we.

EXERCISES for Chapter 10

1. Change the following affirmative statements into questions. For example:
   I may go.
   May I go?

We could have found it.
Could we have found it?

1. I must leave at four o'clock.
2. He might be leaving for work now.
3. We can solve the puzzle.
4. You should have called him.
5. They could have been waiting for the bus.
6. I shall go out now.
7. You will have finished the book.
8. We should be making the arrangements.
9. She would like to know the answer.
10. They can explain what happened.

Answers

2. Change the following affirmative statements into negative statements. For example:

I can answer the question.
I cannot answer the question.

He shall be sorry.
He shall not be sorry.

1. You must come with us.
2. It may be sunny tomorrow.
3. She could have won the race.
4. We might be right.
5. You would have liked that movie.
6. They can swim very well.
7. She might be finishing school now.
8. He should have been walking to work.
9. I shall be happy to see him.
10. You will have been working all night.

Answers

3. Change the following affirmative statements into negative questions. Do not use contractions in this exercise. For example:

He must be at work now.
Must he not be at work now?

They might call us later.
Might they not call us later?

1. You should be wearing a warm hat.
2. He could have decided to stay at home.
3. They might have forgotten the message.
4. She will see you again next week.
5. They would enjoy riding on the ferry.
6. He may decide to go camping.
7. They could have been playing football yesterday.

8. We shall visit our friends.
9. She must have wanted to join us.
10. He should be getting more sleep.
Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, change the verb in the main clause from the Simple Present to the Simple Past; and change the modal auxiliary from the present to the past. For example:

He says he can do it.
He said he could do it.

Do you think she will manage it?
Did you think she would manage it?

1. She says he may go.
2. I think we can finish on time.
3. They know we will help them.
4. He says he must leave.
5. We believe she will be there.
6. Do you hope they will reply soon?
7. Does he not realize we may meet him there?
8. You think we can reach our destination by nightfall.
9. I suppose he must be at home.
10. I predict I shall succeed.
Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, change the verb in the main clause from the Simple Past to the Simple Present; and change the modal auxiliary from the past to the present. For example:

They felt they could not win.
They feel they cannot win.

He believed he would reach the Amazon River in a few days.
He believes he will reach the Amazon River in a few days.

1. He thought he might arrive early.
2. She felt she must make a phone call.
3. I maintained they would not have any difficulty.
4. They realized they could not do all the work in one day.
5. We knew we should not be able to return home for Christmas.
6. They hoped they could find their way.
7. He imagined he would be able to convince us.
8. She suspected they must be living nearby.
9. I hoped you would enjoy the play.
10. We thought you might know him.
Answers

6. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **could**. For example:

I wish I _____ Portuguese. (to speak)

I wish I could speak Portuguese.

They will wish they _____ the questions. (to answer)
They will wish they could answer the questions.

You wished you _____ some chocolate. (to buy)
You wished you could buy some chocolate.

1. He wishes he _____ them. (to call)
2. We wish we _____ more time sightseeing. (to spend)
3. She wished she _____ you. (to visit)
4. They will wish they _____ to the concert. (to go)
5. I wished I _____ my way home. (to find)
6. He wishes he _____ famous. (to become)
7. I wish I _____ it to you. (to describe)

Answers

7. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Simple conjugation with the auxiliary **could**. For example:

If he wanted to, he _____ how to sail a boat. (to learn)
If he wanted to, he could learn how to sail a boat.

If we _____ anywhere, we would visit Greece. (to travel)
If we could travel anywhere, we would visit Greece.

1. If I _____ you, I would be glad to do it. (to help)
2. If she played the piano, she _____ your singing. (to accompany)
3. We _____ before dawn if we made all our preparations tonight. (to depart)
4. He would be thrilled if he _____ to ride a horse. (to learn)
5. If she came with us, we _____ her all the sights. (to show)
6. If they gave us their address, we _____ them a card. (to send)
7. He would move at once if he _____ a better place to live. (to find)

Answers

8. Complete the following sentences, using the indicated verbs in the Perfect conjugation with the auxiliary **could**. For example:

Had I studied harder, I _____ every question. (to answer)
Had I studied harder, I could have answered every question.

_____ she _____ you earlier, she would have spoken to you. (to see)
Could she have seen you earlier, she would have spoken to you.

1. If you _____ him trying to skate, you would have laughed. (to see)
2. If I had experienced difficulties, I _____ him for help. (to ask)
3. It would have been better if we _____ everything to her. (to explain)
4. Had they had permission, they _____ the arrangements themselves. (to make)
5. We _____ easily our way if we had not brought a compass with us. (to lose)
6. _____ they _____ what he had in mind, they would not have been so complacent. (to know)

7. Had a flying saucer landed on the roof, he _____ not _____ more surprised. (to be)
8. If only I _____ them of the truth, much time and trouble would have been saved. (to convince)
9. If you _____ what might happen, would you have acted differently? (to guess)
10. Had I realized he was in town, I _____ him. (to contact)
Answers

9. Fill in the blanks, indicating whether each of the following sentences is somewhat polite (S), quite polite (Q), or very polite (V). Notice the indirect phrasing of the most polite requests and suggestions. For example:

Could you pass the butter? S
Would you please pass the butter? Q
Might I trouble you to pass the butter? V

1. Could you help me? ___
2. Would you like some help? ___
3. Might I be of assistance? ___
4. You could come with us. ___
5. You might wish to accompany us. ___
6. Would you like to come with us? ___
7. Might I trouble you for two pounds of fish? ___
8. I would like to buy two pounds of fish, please. ___
9. Could you give me two pounds of fish? ___
10. Could I have your opinion on this? ___
11. Would you please tell me what you think? ___
12. Might I know your feelings on the matter? ___
Answers

10. Complete each of the following sentences with the auxiliary **may**, **might** or **must**. Use **may** or **might** when the event described seems somewhat probable, and use **must** when the event described seems very probable. For example:

You ___ be right; we shall have to wait and see.
You may be right; we shall have to wait and see. **or** You might be right; we shall have to wait and see.

That ____ be our landlord; I would recognize him anywhere.
That must be our landlord; I would recognize him anywhere.

1. Although it _____ be true, it seems unlikely.
2. That _____ have been the number 10 bus, because no other bus runs on this street.
3. We _____ have to wait a long time for a bus, because they do not run very frequently.
4. That _____ be the right answer; there is no other possibility.
5. Tell me your problem; I _____ be able to help you.
6. It _____ have been he who answered the phone, because no one else was at home.
7. Since we have never been to this store before, we _____ have difficulty finding

what we want.
8. You _____ be pleased that you are doing so well in your new job.
9. I _____ go downtown tomorrow; it depends on the weather.
10. Although he is a very careful worker, it is possible that he _____ have made a mistake.
Answers

11. Rewrite the following sentences, putting the underlined verbs into the future. For example:

They can explain the situation to us.
They will be able to explain the situation to us.

May they leave whenever they wish?
Will they be allowed to leave whenever they wish?

She must obtain a license.
She will have to obtain a license.

1. She can describe it to you.
2. You must lock the doors when you leave.
3. He can follow the instructions.
4. May they stay overnight?
5. We must remember to buy groceries.
6. She can finish the work on time.
7. Must he take his glasses with him?
8. Can they buy the tickets in advance?
9. She must learn to be more careful.
10. You may choose your own seat.
Answers

12. Add negative tag questions to the following affirmative statements. For example:

They are lucky.
They are lucky, aren't they?

You know what I mean.
You know what I mean, don't you?

We will tell him the truth.
We will tell him the truth, won't we?

She could try harder.
She could try harder, couldn't she?

1. You are cold.
2. They passed the test.
3. I can do this well.
4. You live near the school.
5. He went downtown.
6. We should call them.
7. She likes toffee.

8. They could help us.
9. I won the race.
10. You were reading.
11. He rides a bicycle.
12. We would need more time.

Answers

13. Add affirmative tag questions to the following negative statements. For example:
    She isn't well.
    She isn't well, is she?

    You don't eat fish.
    You don't eat fish, do you?

    He hadn't found it.
    He hadn't found it, had he?

    They won't mind.
    They won't mind, will they?

1. They won't reach their destination before five o'clock.
2. He doesn't want to come with us.
3. She hasn't eaten breakfast yet.
4. They aren't very clever.
5. I couldn't have persuaded you.
6. You won't forget to come.
7. We weren't expecting company.
8. They wouldn't like that.

Answers

14. Write affirmative short answers to the following questions. For example:
    Is he thirsty?
    Yes, he is.

    Haven't they read the book?
    Yes, they have.

    Can they finish the work by themselves?
    Yes, they can.

    Should she leave now?
    Yes, she should.

1. Do we need any butter?
2. May they send for you?
3. Is she sure she is right?
4. Does he enjoy studying?
5. Had they been meaning to call us?
6. Couldn't he send us the information?
7. Would she like to listen to the radio?

8. Had he been wanting to travel?
Answers

15. Write negative short answers to the following questions. For example:
Wasn't he thirsty?
No, he wasn't.

Were they watching television?
No, they weren't.

Should we turn left here?
No, we shouldn't.

Will they want some coffee?
No, they won't.

1. Isn't she driving her own car?
2. Will he be visiting Denmark?
3. Would she mind?
4. Could they understand everything?
5. Will she have to get up early?
6. Should he warn them?
7. Didn't we sell all the chocolate bars?
8. Couldn't they find any evidence?
Answers

16. Add the short form construction using the words **and so** to each of the following affirmative statements. Use the subjects shown in brackets. For example:
He is lucky. (I)
He is lucky, and so am I.

She likes chocolate. (you)
She likes chocolate, and so do you.

They can swim well. (we)
They can swim well, and so can we.

1. We are thirsty. (they)
2. You have been helpful. (she)
3. I swam to the island. (he)
4. He was riding a horse. (you)
5. They can understand Dutch. (we)
6. She enjoyed the trip. (I)
7. You should study hard. (they)
8. He reads a great deal. (she)
Answers

17. Add the short form construction using the words **and neither** to each of the following negative statements. Use the subjects shown in brackets. For example:
He is not angry. (we)

He is not angry, and neither are we.

They didn't visit you. (I)
They didn't visit you, and neither did I.

I couldn't understand it. (she)
I couldn't understand it, and neither could she.

1. You haven't finished supper. (she)
2. He couldn't tell the time. (they)
3. She is not planning to go. (we)
4. We didn't wait long. (he)
5. He has not been feeling well. (I)
6. She cannot run fast. (they)
7. We do not own a canary. (he)
8. You won't be needing an umbrella. (we)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 10

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. Must I leave at four o'clock? 2. Might he be leaving for work now? 3. Can we solve the puzzle? 4. Should you have called him? 5. Could they have been waiting for the bus? 6. Shall I go out now? 7. Will you have finished the book? 8. Should we be making the arrangements? 9. Would she like to know the answer? 10. Can they explain what happened?

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. You must not come with us. 2. It may not be sunny tomorrow. 3. She could not have won the race. 4. We might not be right. 5. You would not have liked that movie. 6. They cannot swim very well. 7. She might not be finishing school now. 8. He should not have been walking to work. 9. I shall not be happy to see him. 10. You will not have been working all night.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. Should you not be wearing a warm hat? 2. Could he not have decided to stay at home? 3. Might they not have forgotten the message? 4. Will she not see you again next week? 5. Would they not enjoy riding on the ferry? 6. May he not decide to go camping? 7. Could they not have been playing football yesterday? 8. Shall we not visit our friends? 9. Must she not have wanted to join us? 10. Should he not be getting more sleep?

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. She said he might go. 2. I thought we could finish on time. 3. They knew we would help them. 4. He said he must leave. 5. We believed she would be there. 6. Did you hope they would reply soon? 7. Did he not realize we might meet him there? 8. You thought we could reach our destination by nightfall. 9. I supposed he must be at home. 10. I predicted I should succeed.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. He thinks he may arrive early. 2. She feels she must make a phone call. 3. I maintain they will not have any difficulty. 4. They realize they cannot do all the work in one day. 5. We know we shall not be able to return home for Christmas. 6. They hope they can find their way. 7. He imagines he will be able to convince us. 8. She suspects they must be living nearby. 9. I hope you will enjoy the play. 10. We think you may know him.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. could call 2. could spend 3. could visit 4. could go 5. could find 6. could become 7. could describe

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. could help 2. could accompany 3. could depart 4. could learn 5. could show 6. could send 7. could find

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. could have seen 2. could have asked 3. could have explained 4. could have made 5. could, have lost 6. Could, have known 7. could, have been 8. could have convinced 9. could have guessed 10. could have contacted

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. S 2. Q 3. V 4. S 5. V 6. Q 7. V 8. Q 9. S 10. S 11. Q 12. V

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. may **or** might 2. must 3. may **or** might 4. must 5. may **or** might 6. must 7. may **or** might 8. must 9. may **or** might 10. may **or** might

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. She will be able to describe it to you. 2. You will have to lock the doors when you leave. 3. He will be able to follow the instructions. 4. Will they be allowed to stay overnight? 5. We will have to remember to buy groceries. 6. She will be able to finish the work on time. 7. Will he have to take his glasses with him? 8. Will they be able to buy the tickets in advance? 9. She will have to learn to be more careful. 10. You will be allowed to choose your own seat.

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. You are cold, aren't you? 2. They passed the test, didn't they? 3. I can do this well, can't I? 4. You live near the school, don't you? 5. He went downtown, didn't he? 6. We should call them, shouldn't we? 7. She likes toffee, doesn't she? 8. They could help us, couldn't they? 9. I won the race, didn't I? 10. You were reading, weren't you? 11. He rides a bicycle, doesn't he? 12. We would need more time, wouldn't we?

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. They won't reach their destination before five o'clock, will they? 2. He doesn't want to come with us, does he? 3. She hasn't eaten breakfast yet, has she? 4. They aren't very clever, are they? 5. I couldn't have persuaded you, could I? 6. You won't forget to come, will you? 7. We weren't expecting company, were we? 8. They wouldn't like that, would they?

Answers to Exercise 14:

1. Yes, we do. 2. Yes, they may. 3. Yes, she is. 4. Yes, he does. 5. Yes, they had. 6. Yes, he could. 7. Yes, she would. 8. Yes, he had.

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. No, she isn't. 2. No, he won't. 3. No, she wouldn't. 4. No, they couldn't. 5. No, she won't. 6. No, he shouldn't. 7. No, we didn't. 8. No, they couldn't.

Answers to Exercise 16:
1. We are thirsty, and so are they. 2. You have been helpful, and so has she. 3. I swam to the island, and so did he. 4. He was riding a horse, and so were you. 5. They can understand Dutch, and so can we. 6. She enjoyed the trip, and so did I. 7. You should study hard, and so should they. 8. He reads a great deal, and so does she.

Answers to Exercise 17:
1. You haven't finished supper, and neither has she. 2. He couldn't tell the time, and neither could they. 3. She is not planning to go, and neither are we. 4. We didn't wait long, and neither did he. 5. He has not been feeling well, and neither have I. 6. She cannot run fast, and neither can they. 7. We do not own a canary, and neither does he. 8. You won't be needing an umbrella, and neither will we.

CHAPTER 11. TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

1. Direct objects

Most of the verbs examined so far have been in the **Active Voice**. When a verb is in the Active Voice, the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing performing the action described by the verb; and the **object** of the verb refers to the person or thing receiving the action described by the verb.

In the following examples, the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. He read the **book**.
I did not see the **balloon**.
They ate the **potatoes** quickly.
She rode her **bicycle** along the sidewalk.
Do we understand **it**?

In these sentences, the verbs **read**, **did see**, **ate**, **rode** and **do understand** are in the Active Voice; and the words **book**, **balloon**, **potatoes**, **bicycle** and **it** are the objects of the verbs. These objects are said to be **direct** objects, because they refer to things which receive directly the actions described by the verbs.

See Exercise 1.

2. Lay and Lie, Raise and Rise, and Set and Sit

Verbs which take an object are usually called **transitive** verbs. Verbs which do not take an object are usually called **intransitive** verbs.

Many English verbs can be used either intransitively or transitively. For instance, in the sentence **Most birds can fly,** the verb **to fly** is intransitive, since it is used without an object. But in the sentence **This pilot will fly the plane,** the verb **to fly** is transitive, since it takes the object **plane**.

However, some English verbs can be used only intransitively. A few pairs of verbs should be noted. The two verbs of each pair have similar meanings, but one of the verbs can take an object, and the other cannot. In the following table, the verbs labeled **intransitive** are those which cannot take an object.

	Infinitive	Simple Past	Past Participle
Transitive:	to lay	laid	laid
Intransitive:	to lie	lay	lain
Transitive:	to raise	raised	raised
Intransitive:	to rise	rose	risen
Transitive:	to set	set	set
Intransitive:	to sit	sat	sat

Particular care must be taken not to confuse the verbs **to lay** and **to lie**, since, as shown above, the Simple Past of the verb **to lie** has the same form as the bare infinitive of the verb **to lay**.

a. To Lay and To Lie

To lay is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to lay**. The verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.

e.g. I am laying the **table**.
He laid a **bet** on the white horse.
The hen has laid an **egg**.

To lie is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to lie**.

e.g. She is lying on the sofa.
We lay on the beach in the sun.
He has lain in bed for a week.

In these examples, it might appear that the words **sofa**, **beach**, and **bed** act as objects of the verb **to lie**. However, this is not the case.

Not only verbs, but also **prepositions** have the ability to take objects. A few commonly used English prepositions are **at**, **by**, **for**, **from**, **in**, **of**, **on**, **to** and **with**. Prepositions will be discussed in detail in a later chapter.

In the examples above, **sofa**, and **beach** are objects of the preposition **on**; and **bed** is the object of the preposition **in**.

See Exercise 2.

b. To Raise and To Rise

To raise is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to raise**. The verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.

e.g. She is raising **poodles**.
He raised the **window**.
They have raised a **crop** of wheat.

To rise is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to rise**.

e.g. The moon is rising in the east.
They rose to the occasion.
The temperature has risen by five degrees.

In these sentences, the verbs have no objects. The words **east**, **occasion** and **degrees** are the objects of the prepositions **in**, **to** and **by**.

See Exercise 3.

c. To Set and To Sit

To set is a transitive verb, which can take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to set**. The verbs are underlined, and the objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.

e.g. They are setting a **record.**
We set the **jars** on a shelf.
Have you set the **date** for your trip?

To sit is an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object. The following examples illustrate the use of the Present Continuous, Simple Past, and Present Perfect tenses of the verb **to sit**.

e.g. They are sitting by the front steps.
I sat at my desk for an hour.
You have sat on the couch all afternoon.

In these sentences, the verbs have no objects. The words **steps**, **desk**, and **couch** are the objects of the prepositions **by**, **at** and **on**.

See Exercises 4 and 5.

3. Indirect objects

In addition to taking direct objects, some verbs also take **indirect** objects. In the following examples, the direct objects are printed in bold type, and the indirect objects are underlined.

e.g. We gave the child a **toy**.
I sent the man the **information**.

In these examples, the words **child** and **man** are said to be the indirect objects of the verbs **gave** and **sent**. Indirect objects refer to things which receive indirectly the actions described by the verbs. In the above examples, the words **toy** and **information** are the direct objects of the verbs.

Indirect objects usually refer to living things.

It is possible for a sentence containing an indirect object to be rewritten by placing a preposition before the indirect object. When this is done, the original indirect object can be regarded either as the indirect object of the verb, or as the object of the preposition.

For example, the sentence **We gave the child a toy,** can be rewritten as follows:
We gave a **toy** to the child.
In the rewritten sentence, **child** can be regarded either as the indirect object of the verb **gave**, or as the object of the preposition **to**.

The following examples illustrate the position of the indirect object in a sentence. The direct object, **toy**, is printed in bold type, and the indirect object, **child**, is underlined.
e.g. We gave the child a **toy**.
We gave a **toy** to the child.

When an indirect object is not preceded by a preposition, the indirect object must be placed before the direct object. Thus, in the sentence **We gave the child a toy,** the indirect object **child** is placed before the direct object **toy**.

However, when an indirect object is preceded by a preposition, the indirect object must be placed after the direct object. In the sentence **We gave a toy to the child**, the indirect object **child** is preceded by the preposition **to**. Therefore, the indirect object, **child** is placed after the direct object **toy**.

The object which is placed last in a sentence tends to receive greater emphasis than the object which is placed first. Thus, the word order of a sentence can be varied in order to give greater emphasis to one object or the other. For instance, in the sentence **We lent the teacher a book**, the direct object **book** is slightly emphasized. However, in the sentence **We lent a book to the teacher**, the indirect object **teacher** is emphasized.

See Exercises 6 and 7.

A few English verbs, such as **to describe**, **to distribute**, **to explain** and **to say**, can take an indirect object only when the indirect object is preceded by a preposition. In the following examples, the direct objects are printed in bold type, and the indirect objects are underlined.
e.g. He described his **experiences** to the reporters.
They distributed the **leaflets** to their friends.
We explained the **situation** to the participants.

She said **something** to her teacher.

These verbs cannot take an indirect object which immediately follows the verb. One reason for this may be to avoid creating sentences which are ambiguous or confusing. For instance, a sentence which began with the words **He described the reporters...** would create the impression that it was the reporters who were being described. When **the reporters** is preceded by the preposition **to**, there is no ambiguity.

EXERCISES for Chapter 11

1. In each of the following sentences, underline the direct object of the verb. For example:

She forgot the pencils.
She forgot the pencils.

Was he writing a letter?
Was he writing a letter?

You did not answer the question.
You did not answer the question.

1. I watched the birds.
2. He did not close the window.
3. She rang the bell.
4. Did you find the answer?
5. I opened the door.
6. Did she play the violin?
7. You will need an umbrella.
8. They are not carrying the parcels.
9. You organized the race.
10. Were they using the blankets?

Answers

2. In the following sentences, the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type. In addition, each sentence contains an adverb or adverb phrase indicating time. Depending upon whether or not there is a direct object, complete each sentence using either **to lay** or **to lie**, as appropriate. Use the Present Continuous tense if the action takes place in the present, and use the Simple Past tense if the action took place in the past. For example:

They _____ the **bricks** now.
They are laying the **bricks** now.

I _____ the **money** on the counter last night.
I laid the **money** on the counter last night.

Right now, the dogs _____ in the middle of the road.
Right now, the dogs are lying in the middle of the road.

Yesterday, he ___ in bed until ten o'clock.

Yesterday, he lay in bed until ten o'clock.

1. Now I _____ too close to the fire.
2. Last night he _____ twenty **dollars** on top of the bookcase.
3. Right now she _____ a **fire**.
4. Until last year, the treasure _____ hidden under the earth.
5. Yesterday she _____ her **coat** on the bed.
6. His books _____ on the floor all last week.
7. Right now he _____ low in order to stay out of danger.
8. Yesterday morning he _____ the **parcel** close to the door.
9. Last night they _____ in wait for the thieves.
10. Now they _____ their **cards** on the table.

Answers

3. In the following sentences, the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type. In addition, each sentence contains an adverb or adverb phrase indicating time. Depending upon whether or not there is a direct object, complete each sentence using either **to raise** or **to rise**, as appropriate. Use the Present Continuous tense if the action takes place in the present; and use the Simple Past tense if the action took place in the past. For example:

Right now, he _____ **sheep**.
Right now, he is raising **sheep**.

Last night he _____ their **expectations**.
Last night he raised their **expectations**.

The price of housing _____ now.
The price of housing is rising now.

Last year she _____ at six o'clock every morning.
Last year she rose at six o'clock every morning.

1. Last night, when we heard the news, our hopes _____.
2. Last year they _____ six hundred **dollars** by selling chocolate bars.
3. Now they _____ the **price** of gasoline.
4. The price of gold _____ yesterday.
5. At the moment, he _____ **corn**.
6. Right now mist _____ from the water.
7. Last week, you _____ a difficult **question**.
8. The temperature _____ at the moment.
9. Now he _____ his **hat**.
10. The water level _____ last week.

Answers

4. In the following sentences, the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type. In addition, each sentence contains an adverb or adverb phrase indicating time. Depending upon whether or not there is a direct object, complete each sentence using either **to set** or **to sit**, as appropriate. Use the Present Continuous tense if the action takes place in the present; and use the Simple Past tense if the action took place in the past. For example:

Now they _____ the **table**.
Now they are setting the **table**.

Last night we ___ our alarm **clock** for six o'clock.
Last night we set our alarm **clock** for six o'clock.

At the moment, the cat _____ on top of the car.
At the moment, the cat is sitting on top of the car.

Yesterday he ___ at his desk all afternoon.
Yesterday he sat at his desk all afternoon.

1. Right now they _____ down to a good meal.
2. Yesterday they _____ the empty **bottles** on the front step.
3. At the moment, she _____ in front of the fire.
4. Now we _____ the **suitcases** on the moving belt.
5. In ancient times, King Arthur's knights _____ at the Round Table.
6. Yesterday morning the doctor _____ the broken **bone**.
7. Right now, we _____ around the table.
8. He _____ a good **example** last week, by studying hard.
9. Now she _____ her **watch** to the correct time.
10. Yesterday afternoon we _____ at the end of the dock, in the sun.

Answers

5. In the following sentences, the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type. Paying attention to whether or not there is a direct object, for each sentence, choose the correct verb from the pair given in brackets, and complete the sentence using the Present Perfect tense of the verb. For example:

I _____ two **blankets** on the bed. (to lay, to lie)
I have laid two **blankets** on the bed.

He _____ down for half an hour. (to lay, to lie)
He has lain down for half an hour.

They _____ the **flag**. (to raise, to rise)
They have raised the **flag**.

Our opinion of them _____. (to raise, to rise)
Our opinion of them has risen.

We _____ the electric **train** in motion. (to set, to sit)
We have set the electric **train** in motion.

She ___ just ___ down. (to set, to sit)
She has just sat down.

1. They _____ a **limit** of four cartons per customer. (to set, to sit)
2. We _____ our **plans** carefully. (to lay, to lie)
3. You _____ very early for the past three weeks. (to raise, to rise)
4. We _____ in the car all afternoon. (to set, to sit)

5. They _____ four **children**. (to raise, to rise)
6. He _____ a **record** for endurance. (to set, to sit)
7. I _____ awake half the night. (to lay, to lie)
8. They _____ the **table**. (to lay, to lie)
9. She _____ still for fifteen minutes. (to set, to sit)
10. You _____ your **standards**. (to raise, to rise)
11. Your standards _____. (to raise, to rise)
12. Your gloves _____ on the table all week. (to lay, to lie)

Answers

6. Rewrite each of the following sentences, omitting the underlined preposition which precedes the indirect object, and making the necessary changes in word order. For example:

I bought a rose <u>for</u> the singer.
I bought the singer a rose.

She gave an apple <u>to</u> the boy.
She gave the boy an apple.

1. I handed the book <u>to</u> the student.
2. He wrote a letter <u>to</u> the twins.
3. She made a scarf <u>for</u> the girl.
4. I told the story <u>to</u> the audience.
5. We paid the money <u>to</u> the dentist.
6. He sent a reply <u>to</u> the doctor.
7. We offered the job <u>to</u> the students.
8. She told the news <u>to</u> her friends.

Answers

7. Rewrite each of the following sentences, inserting the preposition **to** before the indirect object, and making the necessary changes in word order. For example:

I wrote the president a letter.
I wrote a letter to the president.

They showed the visitor the garden.
They showed the garden to the visitor.

1. We sent the reporters a photograph.
2. They mailed the agency a postcard.
3. I paid the manager the fee.
4. We sold the students the doughnuts.
5. You read the teacher the story.
6. She mailed the seamstress the material.
7. I sent the workers a message.
8. He offered his guest the wine.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 11

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. birds 2. window 3. bell 4. answer 5. door 6. violin 7. umbrella 8. parcels 9. race 10. blankets

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. am lying 2. laid 3. is laying 4. lay 5. laid 6. lay 7. is lying 8. laid 9. lay 10. are laying

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. rose 2. raised 3. are raising 4. rose 5. is raising 6. is rising 7. raised 8. is rising 9. is raising 10. rose

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. are sitting 2. set 3. is sitting 4. are setting 5. sat 6. set 7. are sitting 8. set 9. is setting 10. sat

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. have set 2. have laid 3. have risen 4. have sat 5. have raised 6. has set 7. have lain 8. have laid 9. has sat 10. have raised 11. have risen 12. have lain

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. I handed the student the book. 2. He wrote the twins a letter. 3. She made the girl a scarf. 4. I told the audience the story. 5. We paid the dentist the money. 6. He sent the doctor a reply. 7. We offered the students the job. 8. She told her friends the news.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. We sent a photograph to the reporters. 2. They mailed a postcard to the agency. 3. I paid the fee to the manager. 4. We sold the doughnuts to the students. 5. You read the story to the teacher. 6. She mailed the material to the seamstress. 7. I sent a message to the workers. 8. He offered the wine to his guest.

CHAPTER 12. THE PASSIVE VOICE

1. Use of the passive voice

As explained in the preceding chapter, the Active Voice of a verb is used when the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing performing the action described by the verb.

In contrast, the **Passive Voice** of a verb is used when the subject of the verb refers to the person or thing receiving the action described by the verb. Only a verb which can take an object can be put into the Passive Voice.

The Passive Voice is more commonly used in English than it is in other European languages such as German or French. As well as being used in everyday English, the Passive Voice is used extensively in official documents and scientific papers.

In the following examples, the verbs in the Passive Voice are underlined.
e.g. The ball was struck by the boy.
Gold has been found by the explorers.

In these examples, the verbs **was struck** and **has been found** are in the Passive Voice. The subjects **ball** and **gold** refer to things receiving the actions described by the verbs.

2. Formation of the indicative mood of the passive voice

For every tense in the Active Voice, there is a corresponding tense in the Passive Voice. In the Passive Voice, the verb **to be** acts as an auxiliary. The Passive Voice tenses of an English verb are formed from the corresponding conjugations of **to be**, followed by the past participle of the verb.

a. The simple present indicative

For instance, the Simple Present Indicative of **to be**, and the Simple Present Indicative of the Passive Voice of the verb **to show** are conjugated as follows:

Simple Present Indicative of To Be	Simple Present Indicative of Passive Voice of To Show
I am	I am shown
you are	you are shown
he is	he is shown
she is	she is shown
it is	it is shown
we are	we are shown
they are	they are shown

b. The other indicative tenses

Similarly, the other Indicative tenses of the Passive Voice of the verb **to show** are conjugated as indicated in the following table. The corresponding tenses of the verb **to be** are included for purposes of comparison.

The verb To Be compared with the Passive Voice of the verb To Show

Present Continuous	Present Continuous
I am being	I am being shown
you are being	you are being shown
he is being	he is being shown
she is being	she is being shown
it is being	it is being shown
we are being	we are being shown
they are being	they are being shown

Present Perfect	Present Perfect
I have been	I have been shown
you have been	you have been shown
he has been	he has been shown
she has been	she has been shown
it has been	it has been shown
we have been	we have been shown

they have been

Present Perfect Continuous
have been being
you have been being
he has been being
she has been being
it has been being
we have been being
they have been being

Simple Past
I was
you were
he was
she was
it was
we were
they were

Past Continuous
I was being
you were being
he was being
she was being
it was being
we were being
they were being

Past Perfect
I had been
you had been
he had been
she had been
it had been
we had been
they had been

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being
you had been being
he had been being
she had been being
it had been being
we had been being
they had been being

Simple Future
I will (shall) be
you will be

they have been shown

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been being shown
you have been being shown
he has been being shown
she has been being shown
it has been being shown
we have been being shown
they have been being shown

Simple Past
I was shown
you were shown
he was shown
she was shown
it was shown
we were shown
they were shown

Past Continuous
I was being shown
you were being shown
he was being shown
she was being shown
it was being shown
we were being shown
they were being shown

Past Perfect
I had been shown
you had been shown
he had been shown
she had been shown
it had been shown
we had been shown
they had been shown

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being shown
you had been being shown
he had been being shown
she had been being shown
it had been being shown
we had been being shown
they had been being shown

Simple Future
I will (shall) be shown
you will be shown

he will be	he will be shown
she will be	she will be shown
it will be	it will be shown
we will (shall) be	we will (shall) be shown
they will be	they will be shown

Future Continuous	**Future Continuous**
I will (shall) be being	I will (shall) be being shown
you will be being	you will be being shown
he will be being	he will be being shown
she will be being	she will be being shown
it will be being	it will be being shown
we will (shall) be being	we will (shall) be being shown
they will be being	they will be being shown

Future Perfect	**Future Perfect**
I will (shall) have been	I will (shall) have been shown
you will have been	you will have been shown
he will have been	he will have been shown
she will have been	she will have been shown
it will have been	it will have been shown
we will (shall) have been	we will (shall) have been shown
they will have been	they will have been shown

Future Perfect Continuous	**Future Perfect Continuous**
I will (shall) have been being	I will (shall) have been being shown
you will have been being	you will have been being shown
he will have been being	he will have been being shown
she will have been being	she will have been being shown
It will have been being	it will have been being shown
we will (shall) have been being	we will (shall) have been being shown
they will have been being	they will have been being shown

c. Summary of the formation of the indicative tenses of the passive voice

The following table summarizes the formation of the Indicative tenses of the Passive Voice.

The Formation of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	am/is/are	past participle
Present Continuous	am/is/are being	past participle
Present Perfect	have/has been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous**	have/has been being	past participle
Simple Past	was/were	past participle
Past Continuous	was/were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous**	had been being	past participle

Simple Future	will (shall) be*	past participle
Future Continuous**	will (shall) be being	past participle
Future Perfect	will (shall) have been	past participle
Future Perfect Continuous**	will (shall) have been being	past participle

* The other modal auxiliaries form conjugations in the same way as shown for **will** and **shall**.

** The Present Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, Future Continuous, and Future Perfect Continuous tenses of the Passive Voice are cumbersome, and are rarely used. Only the more commonly used tenses of the Passive Voice will be discussed below.

3. Questions and negative statements

As is the case for other English conjugations, verbs in the Passive Voice form questions and negative statements using the first auxiliary.

a. Questions
To form a question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject. For example:

Affirmative Statement	Question
You were shown the sights.	Were you shown the sights?
She is being shown the sights.	Is she being shown the sights?
He will have been shown the sights.	Will he have been shown the sights?
We should be shown the sights.	Should we be shown the sights?

See Exercise 1.

b. Negative statements
To form a negative statement, the word **not** is placed after the first auxiliary. For example:

Negative Statements
You were not shown the sights.
She is not being shown the sights.
He will not have been shown the sights.
We should not be shown the sights.

See Exercise 2.

c. Negative questions
To form a negative question, the first auxiliary is placed before the subject, and the word **not** is placed after the subject. However, when contractions are used, the

contracted form of **not** follows immediately after the auxiliary. Contractions are often used in spoken English. For example:

Without Contractions
Were you not shown the sights?
Is she not being shown the sights?
Will he not have been shown the sights?
Should we not be shown the sights?

With Contractions
Weren't you shown the sights?
Isn't she being shown the sights?
Won't he have been shown the sights?
Shouldn't we be shown the sights?

See Exercise 3.

4. Changing the voice of a verb

When the verb of a sentence is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice and the other words in the sentence are left unaltered, a change in meaning results. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. Active Voice: He is driving to the airport.
Passive Voice: He is being driven to the airport.
The person referred to by the subject of the first sentence is behaving actively; the person is doing the driving. The person referred to by the subject of the second sentence is behaving passively; someone else is doing the driving.

Using the first person singular of the verb **to show** as an example, the following table compares the most commonly used tenses of the Indicative Mood of the Passive Voice with the corresponding tenses of the Active Voice.

Tense	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Present	I show	I am shown
Negative Statement:	I do not show	I am not shown
Present Continuous	I am showing	I am being shown
Present Perfect	I have shown	I have been shown
Simple Past	I showed	I was shown
Negative Statement:	I did not show	I was not shown
Past Continuous	I was showing	I was being shown
Past Perfect	I had shown	I had been shown
Simple Future	I will show	I will be shown
Future Perfect	I will have shown	I will have been shown
Simple, with **would**	I would show	I would be shown

Perfect, with **would**	I would have shown	I would have been shown

See Exercises 4 and 5.

5. Changing the voice of a verb while preserving the meaning of a sentence

In order to preserve the meaning of a sentence when the Voice of the verb is changed, it is necessary to alter the order of the words in the sentence.

a. Changing the verb from the active voice to the passive voice
When a verb which takes an object is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice, in order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, the former object becomes the subject of the verb, and the former subject may be preceded by the preposition **by**, and placed after the verb. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the direct objects of the verbs are printed in bold type.

For instance, in the sentence:
The wind is rippling the **water**.
the verb **is rippling** has the subject **wind** and takes the object **water**. When the verb is put into the Passive Voice and the meaning of the sentence is preserved, the former object, **water**, becomes the subject of the verb, and the former subject, **wind**, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, as follows:
The water is being rippled by the wind.

Other examples are:
Active: The squirrel ate the **nut**.
Passive: The nut was eaten by the squirrel.

Active: The child will open the **parcel**.
Passive: The parcel will be opened by the child.

In the first pair of examples, the verb **ate**, in the Active Voice, is changed to **was eaten**, in the Passive Voice. In order to preserve the meaning, **nut**, the object of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice, and is placed before the verb; and **squirrel**, the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, and is placed after the verb.

Similarly, in the second pair of examples, **parcel**, the object of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice and is placed before the verb; and **child**, the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, becomes the object of the preposition **by**, and is placed after the verb.

See Exercise 6.

It should be noted that, when changing the Voice of a verb in a sentence while preserving the meaning of the sentence, it is necessary to make sure that the verb agrees with its new subject.

e.g. Active: The boys are mowing the **lawn**.
Passive: The lawn is being mowed by the boys.

In the first sentence, the subject **boys** is plural; therefore a plural auxiliary **are** is used. In the second sentence, the subject **lawn** is singular; therefore a singular auxiliary **is** is used. The agreement of verbs with noun subjects is discussed in the next chapter.

b. Changing the verb from the passive voice to the active voice
When a verb is changed from the Passive Voice to the Active Voice, in order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, the former subject becomes the object of the verb, and, if the sentence includes a phrase beginning with the preposition **by**, the former object of the preposition becomes the subject of the verb.
e.g. Passive: The clover is being eaten by the cow.
Active: The cow is eating the **clover**.

In this pair of examples, the verb **is being eaten**, in the Passive Voice, is changed to **is eating**, in the Active Voice. In order to preserve the meaning of the sentence, **clover**, the subject of the verb in the Passive Voice, becomes the object of the verb in the Active Voice, and is placed after the verb; and **cow**, the object of the preposition **by**, becomes the subject of the verb in the Active Voice, and is placed before the verb.

Other examples are:
Passive: The wine was ordered by the dealer.
Active: The dealer ordered the **wine**.

Passive: The deer could have been killed by the poacher.
Active: The poacher could have killed the **deer**.

See Exercise 7.

c. Changing the voice of a verb which takes both a direct object and an indirect object
When a verb in the Active Voice takes both a direct object and an indirect object, either object can become the subject of the verb when the verb is put into the Passive Voice, and the meaning of the sentence is preserved. The object which does not become the subject remains as an object. When a verb in the Passive Voice takes an indirect object, the indirect object is usually preceded by a preposition.
e.g. Active: The guide will show you the **museum**.
Passive: You will be shown the **museum** by the guide.
Passive: The museum will be shown to you by the guide.

In the first sentence, the verb **will show**, in the Active Voice, takes the direct object **museum**, and the indirect object **you**. In the second and third sentences, the verb **will be shown** is in the Passive Voice, and the meaning has been preserved by altering the word order and using the preposition **by**. In the second sentence, the former indirect object, **you**, is the subject of the verb, and the former direct object, **museum**, remains the direct object. In the third sentence, the former direct object, **museum**, is the subject of the verb, and the former indirect object, **you**, is preceded by the preposition **to**.

A similar example is:

Active: The policeman gave you a **medal**.
Passive: You were given a **medal** by the policeman.
Passive: A medal was given to you by the policeman.

In the first sentence, the verb **gave**, in the Active Voice, takes the direct object **medal** and the indirect object **you**. In the second and third sentences, the verb **was given** is in the Passive Voice. In the second sentence, the former indirect object, **you**, is the subject of the verb, and the former direct object, **medal**, remains the direct object. In the third sentence, the former direct object, **medal**, is the subject of the verb, and the former indirect object, **you**, is preceded by the preposition **to**.

6. The subjunctive mood of the passive voice

The Passive Voice tenses discussed so far have all been in the Indicative Mood. However, verbs in the Passive Voice can also be put into the Subjunctive Mood.

It has been seen that all of the tenses in the Passive Voice are formed using auxiliaries. As has already been explained, the Subjunctive Mood of tenses using auxiliaries is formed by putting the first auxiliary into the Subjunctive Mood.

Using the verb **to show** as an example, the following table illustrates the formation of the tenses of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice.

The Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice of the verb To Show

Simple Present	**Simple Past**
I be shown	I were shown
you be shown	you were shown
he be shown	he were shown
she be shown	she were shown
it be shown	it were shown
we be shown	we were shown
they be shown	they were shown
Present Continuous	**Past Continuous**
I be being shown	I were being shown
you be being shown	you were being shown
he be being shown	he were being shown
she be being shown	she were being shown
it be being shown	it were being shown
we be being shown	we were being shown
they be being shown	they were being shown
Present Perfect	**Past Perfect**
I have been shown	I had been shown
you have been shown	you had been shown
he have been shown	he had been shown

she have been shown
it have been shown
we have been shown
they have been shown

she had been shown
it had been shown
we had been shown
they had been shown

Present Perfect Continuous
I have been being shown
you have been being shown
he have been being shown
she have been being shown
it have been being shown
we have been being shown
they have been being shown

Past Perfect Continuous
I had been being shown
you had been being shown
he had been being shown
she had been being shown
it had been being shown
we had been being shown
they had been being shown

The following table summarizes the formation of the Subjunctive tenses of the Passive Voice.

The Formation of the Subjunctive Mood of the Passive Voice

Tense	Auxiliary	Verb Form
Simple Present	be	past participle
Present Continuous	be being	past participle
Present Perfect	have been	past participle
Present Perfect Continuous	have been being	past participle
Simple Past	were	past participle
Past Continuous	were being	past participle
Past Perfect	had been	past participle
Past Perfect Continuous	had been being	past participle

a. Use of the simple present subjunctive
Like the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Active Voice, the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Passive Voice is often used in subordinate clauses beginning with **that** in sentences which contain formal commands, or requests.

As can be seen from the preceding table, the Simple Present Subjunctive of The Passive Voice is formed from the invariable auxiliary **be**, followed by the past participle of the verb. The following sentences are examples of the use of the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Passive Voice.
e.g. I request that he be invited to speak.
We asked that our suggestions be considered.
They will insist that their colleague be admitted to the association.

See Exercise 8.

b. Use of the past forms of the subjunctive
Like the past forms of the Subjunctive of the Active Voice, the past forms of the Subjunctive of the Passive Voice are used in wishes, and in statements containing false

or improbable conditions.
e.g. I wish he were allowed to come.
It would have been better if they had been invited.

In the first example, the Simple Past Subjunctive of the Passive Voice, **were allowed**, is used in expressing a wish. In the second example, the Past Perfect Subjunctive of the Passive Voice, **had been invited**, is used in expressing the false condition **they had been invited**.

EXERCISES for Chapter 12

1. Change the following affirmative statements into questions. For example:
You are required to attend the meeting.
Are you required to attend the meeting?

She is being ignored.
Is she being ignored?

1. They should be notified.
2. He might have been allowed to come.
3. You had been told about it.
4. They will be needed.
5. It has been adjourned.
6. They were being prepared.

Answers

2. Change the following affirmative statements into negative statements. For example:
They would have been instructed to join us.
They would not have been instructed to join us.

It was sent on time.
It was not sent on time.

1. We could have been seen from the island.
2. It is being dealt with satisfactorily.
3. They were being kept under observation.
4. You will be held responsible.
5. They were expected at six o'clock.
6. He will be asked to participate.

Answers

3. Change the following affirmative statements into negative questions. Do not use contractions in this exercise. For example:
He is respected by everyone.
Is he not respected by everyone?

She should be consulted.
Should she not be consulted?

1. They were recognized immediately.
2. We were being assisted by volunteers.
3. It had been delivered.
4. They should have been guarded more carefully.
5. We will be given financial assistance.
6. It had been organized by the club members.

Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, first indicate the tense of the underlined verb, and then change the verb from the Active Voice to the corresponding tense in the Passive Voice. Take note of the resulting change in the meaning of the sentence. For example:

They drive to work at seven o'clock every morning.
Simple Present: They are driven to work at seven o'clock every morning.

Did he notice?
Simple Past: Was he noticed?

She is not telling the truth.
Present Continuous: he is not being told the truth.

We have sent a message.
Present Perfect: We have been sent a message.

I will pay.
Simple Future: I will be paid.

1. Do they expect to leave? _____
2. He is giving instructions. _____
3. They have moved to a new location. _____
4. She will fly to London. _____
5. He has offered a discount. _____
6. They have stopped. _____
7. Will you have given the order? _____
8. We sent a favorable reply. _____
9. We were teaching German. _____
10. I understand. _____
11. He is offering free advice. _____
12. She will rush to the reception. _____

Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, first indicate the tense of the underlined verb, and then change the verb from the Passive Voice to the corresponding tense in the Active Voice. Take note of the resulting change in the meaning of the sentence. For example:

We are paid regularly.
Simple Present: We pay regularly.

She is not assisted every day.
Simple Present: She does not assist every day.

Was he not being flown to Boston?
Past Continuous: Was he not flying to Boston?

It has been grown here for the past twenty years.
Present Perfect: It has grown here for the past twenty years.

Might they be called at nine o'clock?
Simple conjugation with **might**: Might they call at nine o'clock?

1. We can be heard easily. _____
2. She is being given advice. _____
3. Were they not flown over the lake? _____
4. I had been transferred to another department.
5. He is being stopped. _____
6. We have been sent a letter. _____
7. He is not being taught music theory. _____
8. Should they have been flown to their next destination? _____
9. They will be watched constantly. _____
10. We had been driven to the beach this morning. _____
11. Has he been checked into the hotel? _____
12. Could I have been told the news yesterday? _____

Answers

6. Change the underlined verbs in the following sentences from the Active Voice to the corresponding tenses in the Passive Voice. Preserve the meaning of the sentences by using the preposition **by** and making the necessary changes in word order. For example:

The teenager rowed the boat.
The boat was rowed by the teenager.

The girl is riding the horse.
The horse is being ridden by the girl.

The student has prepared the lunch.
The lunch has been prepared by the student.

The president will thank the members.
The members will be thanked by the president.

The children can understand the poem.
The poem can be understood by the children.

1. The woman founded the club.
2. This entry took the prize.
3. The girl is playing the guitar.
4. The mailman has delivered the letter.
5. The chauffeur can drive the car.
6. The child chose the hat.
7. The cat chased the mouse.
8. The workers will weave the carpet.

9. The stranger could have bought the hiking boots.
10. The dealer has sold the car.
11. The dog splashed the water.
12. The man has watered the garden.
Answers

7. Change the underlined verbs in the following sentences from the Passive Voice to the corresponding tenses in the Active Voice. Preserve the meaning of the sentences by omitting the preposition **by** and making the necessary changes in word order. For example:

The news was heard by everyone.
Everyone heard the news.

The orders were followed by the officials.
The officials followed the orders.

The money is being counted by the cashier.
The cashier is counting the money.

The ducks have been fed by the tourists.
The tourists have fed the ducks.

The flowers will be photographed by the naturalist.
The naturalist will photograph the flowers.

1. The bill was paid by the manager.
2. The bread was made by the baker.
3. The wiring must be checked by the electrician.
4. The crow was being scolded by the squirrel.
5. The book was written by a doctor.
6. The house was painted by a student.
7. The seeds were taken by the chickadee.
8. The cider has been drunk by the guest.
9. The mail is opened by the secretary.
10. The ingredients have been measured by the cooks.
11. The bird was seen by the photographers.
12. His work will be published by the magazine.
Answers

8. Complete the following sentences using the Simple Present Subjunctive of the Passive Voice of the verbs shown in brackets. For example:

She ordered that the most important details _____ known. (to make)
She ordered that the most important details be made known.

He advises that the plane _____ at a high altitude. (to fly)
He advises that the plane be flown at a high altitude.

1. They demand that the change of plans _____ at nine o'clock. (to announce)
2. We ask that permission to compete _____ to everyone. (to grant)
3. It is important that their accomplishments _____. (to recognize)

4. It is crucial that we _____ of any change. (to advise)
5. He asks that his affairs _____ in order. (to put)
6. They requested that their qualifications _____. (to accept)
7. We insist that he not _____ his rights. (to deny)
8. It is necessary that the requirements _____. (to meet)
9. She requests that the most experienced candidate _____. (to choose)
10. It is recommended that care _____ in making the repairs. (to take)
11. He insists that smoking _____. (to forbid)
12. It is essential that supplies _____ well in advance. (to order)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 12

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. Should they be notified? 2. Might he have been allowed to leave? 3. Had you been told about it? 4. Will they be needed? 5. Has it been adjourned? 6. Were they being prepared?

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. We could not have been seen from the island. 2. It is not being dealt with satisfactorily. 3. They were not being kept under observation. 4. You will not be held responsible. 5. They were not expected at six o'clock. 6. He will not be asked to participate.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. Were they not recognized immediately? 2. Were we not being assisted by volunteers? 3. Had it not been delivered? 4. Should they not have been guarded more carefully? 5. Will we not be given financial assistance? 6. Had it not been organized by the club members?

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. Simple Present: Are they expected to leave?
2. Present Continuous: He is being given instructions.
3. Present Perfect: They have been moved to a new location.
4. Simple Future: She will be flown to London.
5. Present Perfect: He has been offered a discount.
6. Present Perfect: They have been stopped.
7. Future Perfect: Will you have been given the order?
8. Simple Past: We were sent a favorable reply.
9. Past Continuous: We were being taught German.
10. Simple Present: I am understood.
11. Present Continuous: He is being offered free advice.
12. Simple Future: She will be rushed to the reception.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. Simple conjugation with **can**: We can hear easily.
2. Present Continuous: She is giving advice.
3. Simple Past: Did they not fly over the lake?

4. Past Perfect: I had transferred to another department.
5. Present Continuous: He is stopping.
6. Present Perfect: We have sent a letter.
7. Present Continuous: He is not teaching music theory.
8. Perfect conjugation with **should**: Should they have flown to their next destination?
9. Simple Future: They will watch constantly.
10. Past Perfect: We had driven to the beach this morning.
11. Present Perfect: Has he checked into the hotel?
12. Perfect conjugation with **could**: Could I have told the news yesterday?

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The club was founded by the woman. 2. The prize was taken by this entry. 3. The guitar is being played by the girl. 4. The letter has been delivered by the mailman. 5. The car can be driven by the chauffeur. 6. The hat was chosen by the child. 7. The mouse was chased by the cat. 8. The carpet will be woven by the workers. 9. The hiking boots could have been bought by the stranger. 10. The car has been sold by the dealer. 11. The water was splashed by the dog. 12. The garden has been watered by the man.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. The manager paid the bill. 2. The baker made the bread. 3. The electrician must check the wiring. 4. The squirrel was scolding the crow. 5. A doctor wrote the book. 6. A student painted the house. 7. The chickadee took the seeds. 8. The guest has drunk the cider. 9. The secretary opens the mail. 10. The cooks have measured the ingredients. 11. The photographers saw the bird. 12. The magazine will publish his work.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. be announced 2. be granted 3. be recognized 4. be advised 5. be put 6. be accepted 7. be denied 8. be met 9. be chosen 10. be taken 11. be forbidden 12. be ordered

CHAPTER 13. NOUNS: THE FORMATION OF PLURALS

A **noun** is a word used as the name of a person or a thing. In the following examples, the nouns are underlined.

He opened the parcel.
She is a student.
The weather is warm.
A cat is sitting on the steps.

1. Proper nouns

Names of individual persons or things are referred to as **proper nouns**. In English, proper nouns must begin with a capital letter. The underlined words in the following sentences are proper nouns.
e.g. The capital of England is London.
My friend, George, is an American.

2. Countable nouns

Countable nouns are nouns which can form a plural, and which can be preceded by **a**, **an**, or a number. In the following examples, the countable nouns are underlined.
e.g. A bus is coming.
You may need an umbrella.
Here are two books.
Twenty students are present.

3. The formation of plurals

In general, when a countable noun refers to two or more things, it must be put into the plural. In English, the plural of most countable nouns is formed by adding **s**. For example:

Singular	Plural
hat	hats
letter	letters
pencil	pencils
student	students

It has already been explained that a verb must agree with its subject. When the subject of a verb is a singular noun, the verb must be in the third person singular. The third person singular is the form of the verb used with the personal pronouns **he**, **she**, and **it**.

When the subject of a verb is a plural noun, the verb must be in the third person plural. The third person plural is the form of the verb used with the personal pronoun **they**. In the following examples, the verbs are printed in bold type and their subjects are underlined.

Singular Subject: The book **is** interesting.
Plural Subject: The books **are** interesting.

Singular Subject: A duck **was flying** overhead.
Plural Subject: Two ducks **were flying** overhead.

Singular Subject: One student **lives** here.
Plural Subject: Three students **live** here.

See Exercise 1.

a. Nouns ending in ch, s, sh, x or z
For nouns ending in **ch**, **s**, **sh**, **x** or **z**, the plural is formed by adding **es**. The reason for this is that these words would be difficult to pronounce if only **s** were added. The ending **es** is pronounced as a separate syllable. For example:

Singular	Plural
branch	branch**es**

match	match**es**
bus	bus**es**
pass	pass**es**
dish	dish**es**
marsh	marsh**es**
ax	ax**es**
fox	fox**es**
buzz	buzz**es**

It should be noted that when a plural is formed by adding **s** to words ending in **ce**, **ge**, **se** or **ze**, the final **es** is pronounced as a separate syllable. For example:

Singular	Plural
place	plac**es**
voice	voic**es**
change	chang**es**
page	pag**es**
house	hous**es**
phrase	phras**es**
size	siz**es**

In each of the preceding examples, the singular noun consists of one syllable, whereas the plural noun consists two syllables.

See Exercise 2.

b. Nouns ending in y

Nouns ending in **y** preceded by a consonant usually form the plural by changing the **y** to **i** and adding **es**. For example:

Singular	Plural
candy	candies
city	cities
lady	ladies
story	stories

Nouns ending in **y** preceded by a vowel usually form the plural simply by adding **s**. For example:

Singular	Plural
boy	boys
day	days
key	keys
toy	toys

See Exercise 3.

c. Plurals of proper nouns
Proper nouns form plurals following the rules given above, except that proper nouns ending in **y** always form the plural simply by adding **s**, even when the **y** is preceded by a consonant. For example:

Singular	Plural
Jill	Jills
Tom	Toms
George	Georges
Grace	Graces
Jones	Joneses
Max	Maxes
May	Mays
Nancy	Nancys
Sally	Sallys

See Exercise 4.

d. Nouns ending in f or fe
Some English nouns ending in **f** or **fe** change the **f** to **v** when forming the plural. For instance, the following nouns ending in **f** form the plural by changing the **f** to **v** and adding **es**:

Singular	Plural
calf	calves
elf	elves
half	halves
leaf	leaves
loaf	loaves
self	selves
sheaf	sheaves
shelf	shelves
thief	thieves
wolf	wolves

In addition, the following nouns ending in **fe** form the plural by changing the **f** to **v** and adding **s**:

Singular	Plural
knife	knives
life	lives
wife	wives

There are also a few nouns ending in **f** which can form the plural in two different ways. For example:

Singular	Plural
hoof	hoofs **or** hooves
scarf	scarfs **or** scarves

staff	staffs **or** staves
wharf	wharfs **or** wharves

Most other nouns ending in **f** or **fe** form the plural simply by adding **s**.

See Exercise 5.

e. Nouns ending in o
Some English nouns ending in **o** form the plural by adding **s**, some form the plural by adding **es**, and some can form the plural by adding either **s** or **es**. The following fairly commonly used nouns form the plural by adding **es**:

Singular	Plural
archipelago	archipelagoes
cargo	cargoes
echo	echoes
hero	heroes
innuendo	innuendoes
mosquito	mosquitoes
potato	potatoes
tomato	tomatoes
tornado	tornadoes
torpedo	torpedoes
veto	vetoes
volcano	volcanoes

Most other nouns ending in **o**, particularly those of Spanish or Italian origin, can form the plural simply by adding **s**; however a good dictionary should be consulted in cases of doubt. For example:

Singular	Plural
albino	albinos
alto	altos
casino	casinos
piano	pianos
radio	radios
ratio	ratios
silo	silos
solo	solos
sombrero	sombreros
soprano	sopranos
studio	studios

See Exercise 6.

f. Foreign words
Many words from other languages have been adopted into the English language. Most of these form the plural by adding **s** or **es**, but some, particularly Greek and Latin words

used for scientific purposes, form the plural in the same way that they do in the original language. For example:

Singular	Plural
analysis	analyses
axis	axes
basis	bases
crisis	crises
criterion	criteria
honorarium	honoraria
hypothesis	hypotheses
medium	media
nebula	nebulae
nucleus	nuclei
oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
spectrum	spectra
stimulus	stimuli
stratum	strata
synopsis	synopses
synthesis	syntheses
thesis	theses
vertebra	vertebrae

See Exercise 7.

g. Hyphenated nouns
In the case of nouns formed from two or more words joined by hyphens, usually only the last word forms a plural. However, there are a few cases in which only the first word forms a plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
brother-in-law	brothers-in-law
daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law
father-in-law	fathers-in-law
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law
runner-up	runners-up
sister-in-law	sisters-in-law
son-in-law	sons-in-law

h. Numbers and letters
Numbers, letters, and other symbols can form plurals by adding **'s**. For example:

Singular	Plural
3	3's
b	b's

%	%'s

i. Irregular plurals
The English language has not always used **s** to form plurals. There are still a few words surviving from Old English, which do not use **s** to form the plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
child	children
foot	feet
goose	geese
tooth	teeth
louse	lice
mouse	mice
ox	oxen
man	men
woman	women

Nouns ending in **man** usually form the plural by changing **man** to **men**. For example:

Singular	Plural
gentleman	gentlemen
policeman	policemen
policewoman	policewomen

A few nouns do not change in the plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
deer	deer
sheep	sheep
salmon	salmon

EXERCISES for Chapter 13

1. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The room is large.
The rooms are large.

The letter was delivered yesterday.
The letters were delivered yesterday.

The tourist has a map.
The tourists have a map.

The girl studies hard.
The girls study hard.

1. The book was heavy.

2. The train has left.
3. The bird was singing.
4. The door was closed by the superintendent.
5. The shoe fits well.
6. The parcel is being opened.
7. The newspaper is read by many people.
8. The flame is flickering.
9. The ship has been sighted.
10. The street was being cleaned.

Answers

2. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The beach is supervised by lifeguards.
The beaches are supervised by lifeguards.

The singer performs twice a week.
The singers perform twice a week.

The class was visiting the museum.
The classes were visiting the museum.

The vase has been filled with flowers.
The vases have been filled with flowers.

1. The box was empty.
2. The river flows to the sea.
3. The bush has grown in the last two months.
4. The hat was on sale.
5. The bench is made of stone.
6. The plant has been watered.
7. The hedge is being trimmed.
8. The process was invented last year.
9. The sketch is nearly finished.
10. The breeze was warm.
11. The wall is being painted.
12. The church is two hundred years old.
13. The bridge will soon be completed.
14. The carpet has been cleaned.
15. The branch is covered with ice.

Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The party was held downtown.
The parties were held downtown.

The society accomplishes a great deal.
The societies accomplish a great deal.

The day seemed long.
The days seemed long.

1. The berry was red.
2. The key was difficult to use.
3. The valley is very beautiful.
4. The eddy can be dangerous for swimmers.
5. The journey was undertaken by pilgrims.
6. The daisy was picked by the child.
7. The monkey is considered to be sacred.
8. The gully is full of water.
9. The boy ran to school.
10. The facility is open to the public.
11. The secretary works overtime.
12. The toy was being sold at a discount.
13. The tray is being piled high with dishes.
14. The dairy opens at nine o'clock.
15. The chimney has been repaired.

Answers

4. Rewrite each of the following sentences, adding the word **two** before the proper noun. Change the proper noun to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

Smith lives in this building.
Two Smiths live in this building.

Harry was nominated for the position.
Two Harrys were nominated for the position.

Alex is here.
Two Alexes are here.

1. Maurice is volunteering.
2. Jones was ordered to leave.
3. Harrison owns land.
4. Sandy has telephoned us.
5. Susan met us.
6. Trish is studying French.
7. Pat does well in school.
8. Liz has arrived early.
9. Jacky was making the cake.
10. Russ knows all the answers.
11. Eric is planning the party.
12. Terry has difficulty understanding Spanish.

Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The knife has been sharpened.
The knives have been sharpened.

The reef attracts tourists.
The reefs attract tourists.

The thief will be caught.
The thieves will be caught.

1. The leaf has turned red.
2. The fife had the solo.
3. The calf is hungry.
4. The scarf kept him warm.
5. The knife will be useful.
6. The giraffe was eating leaves.
7. The cliff is being explored by geologists.
8. The wolf howls every night.
9. The loaf is rising.
10. The chief will decide.
11. The shelf is being used.
12. The proof is convincing.

Answers

6. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The hero was enthusiastically welcomed.
The heroes were enthusiastically welcomed.

The studio is used by many artists.
The studios are used by many artists.

1. The radio is broadcasting news every hour.
2. The tomato was being baked.
3. The mosquito woke us up.
4. The soprano performed with the orchestra.
5. The solo was played by the violinist.
6. The archipelago lies off the coast of South America.
7. The silo is used for storing corn.
8. The potato has been boiled.
9. The volcano is not active.
10. The casino was open until one o'clock in the morning.
11. The innuendo should be ignored.
12. The ratio has been favorable.

Answers

7. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The hypothesis is still tentative.
The hypotheses are still tentative.

The nebula has been studied by many scientists.
The nebulae have been studied by many scientists.

The thesis will have been reviewed by experts.
The theses will have been reviewed by experts.

1. The synopsis is accurate.
2. The phenomenon surprised us.
3. The stratum contains fossils.
4. The analysis was proved correct.
5. The crisis has caused concern.
6. The spectrum includes many different colors of light.
7. The axis of rotation will be investigated.
8. The stimulus has been found to be effective.
9. The criterion was used to judge which proposals should be accepted.
10. The oasis is visited by many travelers.
11. The honorarium is being presented today.
12. The parenthesis was omitted.

Answers

8. For each of the following sentences, change the subject of the verb to the plural, and change the verb so that it agrees with its subject. For example:

The goose likes to eat daisies.
The geese like to eat daisies.

The ox was being led to the barn.
The oxen were being led to the barn.

The salmon has been caught by the bear.
The salmon have been caught by the bear.

1. The child is happy.
2. The sheep has been sheared.
3. The man was being given directions.
4. The deer is eating the hay.
5. The woman has visited us.
6. The mouse makes a great deal of noise at night.
7. The gentleman would like to have breakfast early.
8. The louse is a nuisance.
9. Your foot is size ten.
10. The fisherman has had a good season.
11. The tooth needs to be filled.
12. The policewoman was directing traffic.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 13

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. The books were heavy. 2. The trains have left. 3. The birds were singing. 4. The doors were closed by the superintendent. 5. The shoes fit well. 6. The parcels are being

opened. 7. The newspapers are read by many people. 8. The flames are flickering. 9. The ships have been sighted. 10. The streets were being cleaned.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. The boxes were empty. 2. The rivers flow to the sea. 3. The bushes have grown in the last two months. 4. The hats were on sale. 5. The benches are made of stone. 6. The plants have been watered. 7. The hedges are being trimmed. 8. The processes were invented last year. 9. The sketches are nearly finished. 10. The breezes were warm. 11. The walls are being painted. 12. The churches are two hundred years old. 13. The bridges will soon be completed. 14. The carpets have been cleaned. 15. The branches are covered with ice.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. The berries were red. 2. The keys were difficult to use. 3. The valleys are very beautiful. 4. The eddies can be dangerous for swimmers. 5. The journeys were undertaken by pilgrims. 6. The daisies were picked by the child. 7. The monkeys are considered to be sacred. 8. The gullies are full of water. 9. The boys ran to school. 10. The facilities are open to the public. 11. The secretaries work overtime. 12. The toys were being sold at a discount. 13. The trays are being piled high with dishes. 14. The dairies open at nine o clock. 15. The chimneys have been repaired.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. Two Maurices are volunteering. 2. Two Joneses were ordered to leave. 3. Two Harrisons own land. 4. Two Sandys have telephoned us. 5. Two Susans met us. 6. Two Trishes are studying French. 7. Two Pats do well in school. 8. Two Lizes have arrived early. 9. Two Jackys were making the cake. 10. Two Russes know all the answers. 11. Two Erics are planning the party. 12. Two Terries have difficulty understanding Spanish.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. The leaves have turned red. 2. The fifes had the solo. 3. The calves are hungry. 4. The scarfs kept him warm. **or** The scarves kept him warm. 5. The knives will be useful. 6. The giraffes were eating the leaves. 7. The cliffs are being explored by geologists. 8. The wolves howl every night. 9. The loaves are rising. 10. The chiefs will decide. 11. The shelves are being used. 12. The proofs are convincing.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The radios are broadcasting news every hour. 2. The tomatoes were being baked. 3. The mosquitoes woke us up. 4. The sopranos performed with the orchestra. 5. The solos were played by the violinist. 6. The archipelagoes lie off the coast of South America. 7. The silos are used for storing corn. 8. The potatoes have been boiled. 9. The volcanoes are not active. 10. The casinos were open until one o'clock in the morning. 11. The innuendoes should be ignored. 12. The ratios have been favorable.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. The synopses are accurate. 2. The phenomena surprised us. 3. The strata contain fossils. 4. The analyses were proved correct. 5. The crises have caused concern. 6. The spectra include many different colors of light. 7. The axes of rotation will be investigated. 8. The stimuli have been found to be effective. 9. The criteria were used to judge which proposals should be accepted. 10. The oases are visited by many travelers. 11. The honoraria are being presented today. 12. The parentheses were

omitted.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. The children are happy. 2. The sheep have been sheared. 3. The men were being given directions. 4. The deer are eating the hay. 5. The women have visited us. 6. The mice make a great deal of noise at night. 7. The gentlemen would like to have breakfast early. 8. The lice are a nuisance. 9. Your feet are size ten. 10. The fishermen have had a good season. 11. The teeth need to be filled. 12. The policewomen were directing traffic.

CHAPTER 14. SINGULAR COUNTABLE NOUNS

1. The use of determiners with singular countable nouns

In English, singular countable nouns usually cannot be used alone; they must be preceded by a word such as **a**, **the**, **each** or **every**.
e.g. a box
the person
each child
every tree

The words **a**, **the**, **each** and every are examples of a group of words which can be referred to as **determiners**. Such words, when used together with nouns, help to determine to which particular entities the nouns are referring. Determiners other than **a** and **the** are dealt with in detail in a separate chapter.

Singular countable nouns must usually be preceded by determiners even when the nouns are also preceded by various descriptive words.
e.g. a heavy, awkward box
the right person
each young child
every tall tree

The meanings of the words **a** and **the** are less specific than the meanings of the other determiners. **A** and **the** are sometimes referred to as **articles**. They are the determiners most frequently used with singular countable nouns.

2. A and An

The word **a** is often referred to as **the indefinite article**. The indefinite article has two forms: **a** and **an**. The form **a** is used before words which begin with a consonant sound.
e.g. a broom
a garage
a green apple

As well as being used before words beginning with consonants, **a** is also used before words which begin with vowels, but which are pronounced with an initial consonant sound. For instance, **a** is used before words beginning with **eu** and words beginning with

a long **u**, since these words are pronounced with an initial **y** sound. **A** is also used before the word **one**, since **one** is pronounced with an initial **w** sound.
e.g. a euphonium
a utensil
a one-way street

As was mentioned in Chapter 3, a vowel followed by a single consonant, followed by another vowel, is usually pronounced long. **A** is used before the following words which begin with a long **u**:

ubiquitous
unicorn
unified
union
unison
united
uranium
useful
usual
utensil
Utopia
unanimous
unification
uniform
unique
unit
university
use
useless
usurper
utility

The word **an** is used before words beginning with a vowel sound.
e.g. an apple
an old broom
an umbrella
an hour

As well as being used before words beginning with vowels, **an** is also used before the following words which begin with a silent **h**:

heir
heirloom
honest
honor
honorable
honorarium
honorary
honorific
hour
hourglass
hourly

See Exercise 1.

3. The use of A and An before singular countable nouns

In many languages, the word for **a** is the same as the word for **one**. This was also formerly the case in English. Because of the association of **a** and **an** with the idea of **one**, **a** and **an** are usually used only with singular countable nouns.

a. A weakened form of One
A or **an** frequently has the meaning of a weakened form of **one**.
e.g. I would like a cup of tea.
A car is parked in front of the house.
The child owns a bicycle.

b. Naming a profession
When a sentence such as the following is used to name someone's profession, **a** or **an** must precede the name of the profession.
e.g. She is an artist.
He is a student.

c. Making a general statement
A is referred to as the **indefinite** article because it can be used to refer to something in general terms. **A** and **an** are often used in general statements.
e.g. A bank account can provide a good means of saving money.
An accountant must have a good knowledge of arithmetic.
A good pair of scissors should be used for cutting cloth.

d. Referring to something not mentioned before
In dialogue and descriptions, **a** and **an** are used with nouns that name something which has not been referred to previously.
e.g. Where can I find a telephone?
Suddenly we heard an eerie sound.
All at once a moose appeared in front of us.
In these examples, it is assumed that the things referred to by the nouns **telephone**, **sound** and **moose** have not been referred to previously.

e. A or An with the meaning of Per
A or **an** can also be used with the meaning of **per**.
e.g. once a week
two dollars a dozen
four times a year
In these examples, **a** has the meaning of **per**. For instance, **once a week** means **once per week**, and **two dollars a dozen** means **two dollars per dozen**.

4. The use of The before singular countable nouns

The word **the** is often referred to as **the definite article**. The Old English word from which **the** is derived was used as a demonstrative pronoun, with a meaning similar to that of the modern English words **this** and **that**. In modern English, the word **the** is usually used with a noun when the speaker or writer feels that there will be no doubt about which particular thing is meant.

a. Referring to something mentioned before
The is used with nouns referring to things previously mentioned.
e.g. Here is the book I mentioned to you last week.
As I was walking to work I passed a garden. The garden was full of roses.
In the first example, **the** is used with **book**, because the book has been mentioned previously. In the second example, the first time the garden is referred to, the indefinite article **a** is used, because the garden has not been mentioned previously. The second time the garden is referred to, the definite article **the** is used, because the garden has already been mentioned.

See Exercise 2.

b. Referring to something unique
The is used when referring to things which are unique, since in such cases there can be no doubt about which particular thing is meant.
e.g. I have found the answer.
This is the shortest route into town.
In the first example, **the** would be used if there is only one possible answer. In the second example, **the** is used because only one route can be the shortest one.

Expressions such as **middle of** and **top of** are generally preceded by **the**, since it is considered that there can, for example, be only one middle or one top of something.
e.g. There is a car stopped in the middle of the road.
She is at the top of her class.
They like to be the center of attention.
The police are determined to get to the bottom of the mystery.

c. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant
The is also used when, because the thing being referred to is the most important one of its kind to the speaker or writer, it is assumed that it will be understood which particular thing is meant.
e.g. The house needs to be painted.
The sun rose at six o'clock this morning.
I'm going to the park.
Don't slam the door.

These sentences give examples of the use of **the** to refer to things which are not in fact unique, but which are uniquely important to the speaker or writer. The expression **the house** is often used when referring to one's own house. The expression **the sun** almost always refers to the sun which is closest to the earth. The expression **the park** might be used to refer to the only park in the vicinity, or to a park which one visits often. In the sentence **Don't slam the door,** the expression **the door** might refer to the door of the room or building which one is presently occupying.

d. Referring to something as a class
When preceded by **the**, a singular countable noun can be used to represent something as a class.
e.g. The telephone is a modern convenience.
The horse is a domesticated animal.

The eagle is a bird of prey.
In the first example, **the telephone** refers to telephones considered as a class. Likewise, in the other examples, **the horse** refers to horses considered as a class, and **the eagle** refers to eagles considered as a class.

It should be noted that **the** is not used when the word **man** represents the human race considered as a class.
e.g. Man has invented many things.
The dolphin may be as intelligent as man.

EXERCISES for Chapter 14

1. Rewrite each of the following sentences, changing the subject of the verb to the singular, inserting **a** or **an** before the subject, as appropriate, and changing the verb to agree with the subject. For example:

Violins are difficult to play.
A violin is difficult to play.

Unions have been formed.
A union has been formed.

Answers are always provided.
An answer is always provided.

Heirs have many friends.
An heir has many friends.

1. Avocados are expensive.
2. Windows are an important feature of an artist's studio.
3. Umbrellas should not be used during a thunderstorm.
4. Horses can be useful in the mountains.
5. Cashews are a type of nut.
6. Onions can be used for flavoring soup.
7. Trucks have many uses.
8. Hours passed.
9. Sentences should have proper punctuation.
10. Escalators are very convenient.
11. Uniforms must be worn.
12. Boxes were found on the floor.
13. Marshes lie beyond the city boundary.
14. Ideas can be valuable.
15. Eggs are a good source of protein.

Answers

2. Fill in each blank with either the indefinite article (**a** or **an**) or the definite article (**the**). Use **a** or **an** with nouns referring to people or things which have not been mentioned previously, and use **the** with nouns referring to people or things which have been mentioned previously.

I had never visited Seretnay Park before. Last week I went to ____ park and chose ____ tour to take. There were twenty tourists and one guide. ____ guide asked what we wanted to see. I said I had never seen ____ eagle, and I would like to see one. ____ child on ____ tour said he would like to see ____ beaver, since he had heard there were many in ____ park. ____ guide said he would do his best. First he led us along ____ road, and then we turned off onto ____ path. To our right was ____ marshy pond.

Suddenly ____ child who had spoken before shouted, "Look! I see ____ beaver!" Of course ____ beaver was startled. It slapped its tail and disappeared into pond.

Our guide pointed to ____ pile of sticks and said, "That's where ____ beaver lives. That's his house." I had my camera with me, and took ____ photograph of ____ house.

As we were standing there, ____ guide was looking across ____ pond through ____ small telescope. After a minute, he tapped my shoulder and handed me ____ telescope. He pointed to ____ tall tree and said, "Do you see that white speck? That's ____ bald eagle."

I had difficulty focusing ____ telescope, but finally I saw ____ eagle. As I watched, ____ eagle spread its wings and soared over the water.

It was ____ wonderful experience for me to see some of the wild creatures that live in ____ park.

Answers

3. Fill in each blank with **a**, **an** or **the**. Be prepared to justify your choice. For example:

   ___ moon is full tonight.
   The moon is full tonight.

   He is ___ singer.
   He is a singer.

   Please sit in ___ center of the boat.
   Please sit in the center of the boat.

   The room costs twenty dollars ___ day.
   The room costs twenty dollars a day.

   ___ wheel is considered one of mankind's most important inventions.
   The wheel is considered one of mankind's most important inventions.

1. His aunt is ____ teacher.
2. ____ architect is trained in design, drafting, and economics.
3. ____ ostrich is the world's largest bird.
4. Buses pass this point two or three times ____ hour.
5. Plants gain energy from the light of ____ sun.
6. I woke up in ____ middle of the night.
7. She is ____ doctor.
8. ____ seal is an excellent swimmer.
9. Our eyes usually blink several times ____ minute.

10. At ____ equator, sunrise occurs at the same time each day.
11. He is ____ author.
12. They wanted to hear ____ end of the story.
13. Such a severe storm occurs only once ____ decade.
14. Mount Everest is tallest mountain in ____ world.
15. There is an index at ____ back of the book.
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 14

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. An avocado is 2. A window is 3. An umbrella should not be used 4. A horse can be 5. A cashew is 6. An onion can be used 7. A truck has 8. An hour passed 9. A sentence should have 10. An escalator is 11. A uniform must be worn 12. A box was found 13. A marsh lies 14. An idea can be 15. An egg is

Answers to Exercise 2:
the park, a tour. The guide. an eagle. A child, the tour, a beaver, the park. The guide. a road, a path, a marshy pond. the child, a beaver. the beaver. the pond. a pile, the beaver. a photograph, the house. the guide, the pond, a small telescope. the telescope. a tall tree. a bald eagle. the telescope, the eagle. the eagle. a wonderful experience, the park.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. a [profession] 2. An [general statement] 3. The [considered as a class] 4. an [per] 5. the [obvious what is meant] 6. the [unique] 7. a [profession] 8. A [general statement] 9. a [per] 10. the [unique] 11. an [profession] 12. the [unique] 13. a [per] 14. the [unique], the [obvious what is meant] 15. the [unique]

CHAPTER 15. PLURAL COUNTABLE NOUNS

1. The absence of a determiner before plural countable nouns

The absence of a determiner before plural countable nouns generally has the same significance as the presence of **a** or **an** before singular countable nouns.

a. Making a general statement
When used in general statements, plural countable nouns are usually not preceded by determiners. The plural countable nouns in the following general statements are underlined.
e.g. Musicians must practise a great deal.
Newspapers can contain valuable information.
Larches are conifers.

A general idea can often be expressed either by means of a singular countable noun preceded by **a** or **an**, or by means of a plural countable noun not preceded by a determiner. For instance, in each of the following pairs of sentences, both sentences in the pair have the same meaning.
Musicians must practise a great deal.

A musician must practise a great deal.

Newspapers can contain valuable information.
A newspaper can contain valuable information.

Larches are conifers.
A larch is a conifer.

See Exercises 1, 2, 3 and 4.

b. Referring to something not mentioned before
Plural countable nouns are generally not preceded by a determiner when referring to something not mentioned before.
e.g. Branches blocked our path.
Clouds were gathering overhead.
Suddenly we saw buildings in front of us.
In these examples, the plural nouns **branches**, **clouds** and **buildings** are not preceded by determiners. It is assumed that the branches, clouds and buildings have not been referred to previously.

c. Naming a profession
When a sentence such as the following is used to name a profession practised by two or more people, the name of the profession is in the plural and is not preceded by a determiner.
e.g. They are doctors.
My friends are electricians.
We were chefs.

2. The use of The before plural countable nouns

a. Referring to something mentioned before
In general, **the** has the same meaning when used with plural countable nouns as when used with singular countable nouns. For instance, **the** is used with plural countable nouns when referring to something which has been mentioned before.
e.g. Fallen leaves covered the ground. The leaves rustled as we walked.
In the orchard were apples and pears. The apples were nearly ripe.
The doors opened, and students and teachers began leaving the building. The students were talking and laughing.

In these examples, the first time the words **leaves**, **apples** and **students** appear, they are not preceded by determiners, because the things referred to have not been mentioned previously. The second time the words **leaves**, **apples** and **students** appear, they are preceded by **the**, since the things referred to have already been mentioned.

See Exercise 5.

b. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant

The is used with plural countable nouns when the speaker or writer considers it obvious which particular persons or things are meant.
e.g. The stars are shining brightly.
The roses are blooming.
We have put the children to bed.
I was sitting on the front steps.

These sentences give examples of the use of **the** to refer to things which are particularly important to the speaker or writer. The expression **the stars** usually refers to the stars which can be seen from the part of the earth where one lives. The expression **the roses** might refer to roses in one's own garden, or to roses in which one feels a particular interest. **The children** might refer to one's own children or to children for whom one is responsible. **The front steps** might refer to the front steps of one's own house.

c. Names of nationalities
The is sometimes used with the name of a nationality in order to make a general statement about the people of that nationality. A plural verb must be used in such a statement.

When the name of a nationality ends in the sound of **ch**, **s**, **sh** or **z**, the name of the nationality must usually be preceded by **the**.

Nationality	Example
French	The French are famous for their fine wines.
Irish	The Irish are known as poets and songwriters.

When the name of a nationality does not end in the sound of **ch**, **s**, **sh** or **z**, the letter **s** must be added to the end of the name when it is used in a general statement. Names of nationalities to which **s** has been added are often used without being preceded by **the**.

Nationality	Example
Argentinian	Argentinians like to eat beef.
Canadian	Canadians have a tradition of playing hockey.

d. Adjectives referring to classes of people
Adjectives such as **rich** and **poor** can be used with **the** in order to refer to a group of people as a class. A plural verb must be used.
e.g. The blind attend special schools.
The poor do not own their own homes.
The rich often married for money.
In the above examples, **the blind** has the meaning of **blind people**, **the poor** has the meaning of **poor people**, and **the rich** has the meaning of **rich people**.

The following table summarizes the most important uses of the determiners **a**, **an**, and **the** with singular and plural countable nouns.

The absence of a determiner and the use of A, An and The before countable nouns

Use	Singular Countable Nouns	Plural Countable Nouns
A weakened form of **One**	a/an	
Naming a profession	a/an	no determiner
Making a general statement	a/an	no determiner
Something not mentioned before	a/an	no determiner
Something referred to as a class	the	
Something mentioned before	the	the
When it is obvious what is meant	the	the
Nationalities ending in ch, se, sh		the
Adjectives referring to classes of people		the

See Exercise 6.

3. The use of The with proper nouns

a. Names of people
In English, names of people in the singular are not usually preceded by a determiner.
e.g. Washington was the first president of the United States.
Jack and Eleanor saw the movie.

Determiners are also usually not used when a title precedes a person's name.
Doctor Defoe has a good reputation.
Mr. Carpenter is a friend of ours.
In these examples, the titles **Doctor** and **Mr.** are not preceded by determiners.

However, names of people in the plural are usually preceded by **the**.
e.g. The Smiths live in that house.
I have known the Harrisons for years.

b. Names of places
In English, **the** is usually used before the following types of place name:

Type of Place Name
canal
desert
ocean
river
sea
plural place names
place names containing the word **of**

The following are examples of names of canals, deserts, oceans, rivers, and seas:
e.g. the Panama Canal
the Mojave Desert

the Atlantic Ocean
the St. Lawrence River
the Beaufort Sea

The following are examples of plural place names:
e.g. the United States
the British Isles
the Great Lakes
the Rocky Mountains

The following are examples of place names containing the word **of**:
e.g. the Gulf of Mexico
the Cape of Good Hope
the Bay of Biscay
the Isle of Wight

Other types of place name are usually not preceded by determiners. For instance, determiners are usually not used before the following types of place name:

Type of Place Name	Example
lake	Lake Superior
island	Manhattan Island
mountain	Mount Rainier
park	Yosemite National Park
city	Boston
street	Main Street
country	Canada
state	Kansas
province	Nova Scotia
county	Halifax County

See Exercise 7.

4. Nouns used only in the plural

Some English nouns are usually used only in the plural. Such nouns take a plural verb, and generally have a plural form. For instance, the following nouns, which all refer to objects with two parts, are usually used only in the plural:
e.g. jeans
pajamas
pliers
scissors

If it is desired to refer to such objects individually, the expression **pair of** is often used.
e.g. a pair of jeans
a pair of pajamas

a pair of pliers
a pair of scissors

When the expression **pair of** is used as the subject of the verb, the verb must agree with the word **pair**.
e.g. Jeans are fashionable.
A pair of jeans is expensive.

Pliers are very useful.
A pair of pliers is often useful.

In the above examples, the nouns **jeans** and **pliers** take the plural verb **are**, and the noun **pair** takes the singular verb **is**.

EXERCISES for Chapter 15

1. Rewrite the following general statements using singular nouns. Make sure that the verbs agree with their subjects. For example:
Engineers must be familiar with computers.
An engineer must be familiar with computers.

Trees produce oxygen.
A tree produces oxygen.

1. Automobiles should be kept in good repair.
2. Bats locate insects by means of sonar.
3. Diplomats should, if possible, be multilingual.
4. Hats are useful in cold weather.
5. Physicists must study a great deal.
6. Elephants can be dangerous.

Answers

2. Rewrite the following general statements using plural nouns. Make sure that the verbs agree with their subjects. For example:
A bicycle is a convenient means of transportation.
Bicycles are a convenient means of transportation.

A secretary should be proficient in spelling and grammar.
Secretaries should be proficient in spelling and grammar.

1. A sportsman needs to remain calm under pressure.
2. An eagle has good eyesight.
3. A conference requires careful planning.
4. A rock is composed of minerals.
5. A potato is rich in starch.
6. An omelette is made of eggs and other ingredients.

Answers

3. Rewrite the following general statements using singular nouns. Make sure that the verbs agree with their subjects. For example:

Frogs are amphibians.
A frog is an amphibian.

Wrenches are tools.
A wrench is a tool.

1. Pines are evergreens.
2. Otters are mammals.
3. Computers are machines.
4. Crabs are crustaceans.
5. Crickets are insects.
6. Oaks are hardwoods.

Answers

4. Rewrite the following general statements using plural nouns. Make sure that the verbs agree with their subjects. For example:

A robin is a bird.
Robins are birds.

A refrigerator is an appliance.
Refrigerators are appliances.

1. A schooner is a ship.
2. A mallard is a duck.
3. A rhododendron is a bush.
4. A beech is a tree.
5. A kangaroo is a marsupial.
6. An emerald is a gem.

Answers

5. Paying attention to whether the people and things referred to have been mentioned previously, fill in each blank with **a**, **an** or **the**, or leave the blank empty if no determiner is required.

I once had the chance to see ___ Chinese opera. It was very exciting. As well as ___ singers, there were ___ dancers and ___ acrobats. ___ acrobats staged ___ fights. During ___ fights, some of ___ acrobats wielded ___ swords, and others leaped over ___ swords. Many of ___ dancers carried scarves. ___ dancers ___ flourished ___ scarves to make ____ patterns in the air.

Behind ___ screen was a group of ___ musicians. ___ musicians played various oriental instruments. ___ instruments included ___ drums, ___ cymbals, ___ flutes and ___ gong. ___ flutes usually played the melody, and ___ gong was sounded at particularly exciting moments.

Of course there were ___ hero and ___ heroine. ___ hero had to rescue ___ heroine from ___ magician. ___ hero and ___ heroine had both proved their courage by the end of ___ opera.

Answers

6. Fill in each blank with **the** or leave it empty, as appropriate. Be prepared to justify your choices. For example:

Those participants are ____ lawyers.
Those participants are lawyers.

____ eagles are birds of prey.
Eagles are birds of prey.

___ deaf have their own language.
The deaf have their own language.

___ Dutch are members of the European Union.
The Dutch are members of the European Union.

____ planets circle the sun.
The planets circle the sun.

1. ____ English have a reputation for being animal lovers.
2. ____ wounded were treated immediately.
3. His friends are ____ scientists.
4. ____ crows are black.
5. ____ stars are covered by clouds.
6. ____ French make excellent pastries.
7. Two of the women are ____ reporters.
8. ____ turtles are reptiles.
9. ____ wealthy generally have a good knowledge of finance.
10. ____ Americans like to watch television.
11. They are ____ businessmen.

Answers

7. Paying attention to the rules for the use of **the** with proper nouns, fill in the blanks with **the** or leave them empty, as appropriate. For example:

___ Rick is one of ___ Smiths who live on our street.
Rick is one of the Smiths who live on our street.

___ Channel Islands lie south of ___ England.
The Channel Islands lie south of England.

___ Rhine River flows through ___ Lake Constance.
The Rhine River flows through Lake Constance.

____ Isle of Man lies in ____ Irish Sea.
The Isle of Man lies in the Irish Sea.

Part of ___ New York City is situated on ___ Long Island.
Part of New York City is situated on Long Island.

1. ____ Hawaiian Islands are in the middle of ____ Pacific Ocean.
2. ____ Salt Lake City is the capital of Utah.
3. ____ London lies on ____ Thames River.

4. ____ Suez Canal connects ____ Mediterranean Sea with Red Sea.
5. ____ Lake Huron and ____ Lake Erie are two of ____ Great Lakes.
6. ____ Calcutta lies north of ____ Bay of Bengal.
7. ____ North Sea separates British Isles from ____ Norway and ____ Denmark.
8. ____ Bay of Biscay lies to the west of ____ France.
9. ____ Orkney Islands are in the north of ____ Scotland.
10. ____ Anticosti Island lies in ____ Gulf of St. Lawrence.
11. Part of ____ Sahara Desert lies in ____ Algeria.
12. ____ Gerry, one of ____ Johnsons, lives on ____ Belleview Street.
13. ____ Mount Kilimanjaro is south-east of ____ Lake Victoria.
14. ____ Vancouver Island lies off the west coast of ____ Canada.
15. ____ Serengeti National Park lies in ____ Tanzania.

Answers

8. Paying attention to whether a singular or plural verb should be used, complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with **is** or **are**. For example:

My scissors ___ very sharp.
My scissors <u>are</u> very sharp.

One pair of scissors __ not enough for the whole class.
One pair of scissors <u>is</u> not enough for the whole class.

Five pairs of scissors ___ sufficient for a small class.
Five pairs of scissors <u>are</u> sufficient for a small class.

1. Her jeans _____ white.
2. Only one pair of jeans _____ clean.
3. Three pairs of jeans _____ being washed.
4. A good pair of pliers _____ handy for repairing a bicycle.
5. His pliers _____ equipped with a sharp edge for cutting wire.
6. Several pairs of pliers _____ on sale.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 15

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. An automobile should be kept 2. A bat locates 3. A diplomat should be 4. A hat is 5. A physicist must study 6. An elephant can be

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Sportsmen need 2. Eagles have 3. Conferences require 4. Rocks are composed 5. Potatoes are 6. Omelettes are made

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. A pine is an evergreen. 2. An otter is a mammal. 3. A computer is a machine. 4. A crab is a crustacean. 5. A cricket is an insect. 6. An oak is a hardwood.

Answers to Exercise 4:

1. Schooners are ships. 2. Mallards are ducks. 3. Rhododendrons are bushes. 4. Beeches are trees. 5. Kangaroos are marsupials. 6. Emeralds are gems.

Answers to Exercise 5:
a Chinese opera. __ singers, __ dancers, __ acrobats. The acrobats, __ fights. the fights, the acrobats, __ swords, the swords, the dancers, __ scarves. The dancers, the scarves, __ patterns. a screen, __ musicians. The musicians. The instruments, __ drums, cymbals, __ flutes, a gong. The flutes, the gong. a hero, a heroine. The hero, the heroine, a magician. The hero, the heroine the opera.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The [nationality ending in **sh**] 2. The [considered as a class] 3. __ [a profession] 4. __ [general statement] 5. The [obvious what is meant] 6. The [nationality ending in **ch**] 7. __ [profession] 8. __ [general statement] 9. The [considered as a class] 10. __ [nationality not ending in **ch**, **se** or **sh**] 11. __ [profession]

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. The Hawaiian Islands, the Pacific Ocean 2. __ Salt Lake City, __ Utah 3. __ London, the Thames River 4. The Suez Canal, the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea 5. __ Lake Huron. __ Lake Erie, the Great Lakes 6. __ Calcutta, the Bay of Bengal 7. The North Sea, the British Isles, __ Norway, __ Denmark 8. The Bay of Biscay, __ France 9. The Orkney Islands, __ Scotland 10. __ Anticosti Island the Gulf of St. Lawrence 11. the Sahara Desert, __ Algeria 12. __ Gerry, the Johnsons, __ Belleview Street 13. __ Mount Kilimanjaro, __ Lake Victoria 14. __ Vancouver Island, __ Canada 15. __ Serengeti National Park, __ Tanzania

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. are 2. is 3. are 4. is 5. are 6. are

CHAPTER 16. UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS

Some English nouns usually cannot form a plural or be preceded by **a**, **an** or a number. Because they usually cannot be preceded by a number, such nouns can be referred to as **uncountable**. English uncountable nouns include:

a) nouns naming intangible things which normally cannot be counted:
e.g. honesty
courage
impatience

b) nouns naming tangible things which are thought of as substances:
e.g. butter
milk
sand

c) nouns naming groups of things which in English are referred to collectively:
e.g. furniture
luggage
news

d) names of languages:
e.g. English
German
Spanish

An uncountable noun takes a singular verb.
e.g. Honesty is a virtue.
Butter tastes good.
Furniture was provided.

1. The absence of a determiner before uncountable nouns

a. Making a general statement
In general statements, uncountable nouns are usually not preceded by determiners. The uncountable nouns in the following general statements are underlined.
e.g. Information is often valuable.
Butter is fattening.
Courage and honesty are admirable qualities.
Sunlight and water are usually required for plants to grow.

b. Referring to something not mentioned before
In descriptions, uncountable nouns are generally not preceded by a determiner when naming something which has not been referred to previously.
e.g. Rain was forecast for the next day.
However, thunder and lightning were not expected.
Our breakfast consisted of bread, honey and marmalade.

In these examples, the uncountable nouns **rain**, **thunder**, **lightning**, **bread**, **honey** and **marmalade** are not preceded by determiners. It is assumed that the things referred to by these nouns have not been mentioned previously.

See Exercise 1.

2. The use of The before uncountable nouns

a. Referring to something mentioned before
The is used with uncountable nouns referring to things previously mentioned.
e.g. We were served bread and cheese. The bread was somewhat stale, but the cheese was delicious.
Gold was discovered in the Klondike. The gold attracted thousands of prospectors.
Furniture and clothing are being sold at the flea market. The furniture is reasonably priced, and the clothing is cheap.

In these examples, the first time the uncountable nouns **bread**, **cheese**, **gold**, **furniture** and **clothing** are used, they are not preceded by determiners, because the things

referred to have not been mentioned previously. The second time these nouns are used, they are preceded by **the**, since the things referred to have already been mentioned.

See Exercise 2.

b. Referring to something when it is considered obvious what is meant
The is used with uncountable nouns when the speaker or writer considers it obvious which particular thing is meant.
e.g. The weather is fine.
The butter is hard.
The music is too loud.
The expression **the weather** usually refers to the local weather. The expression **the butter** could refer to butter which one plans to use, and the expression **the music** could refer to music which is playing nearby.

The is often used before uncountable nouns followed by descriptive phrases, since such phrases tend to make it clear to which particular things the uncountable nouns are referring.
e.g. The warmth of the sun causes water to evaporate.
The coal mined in Germany is used in making steel.
The milk which they produce is marketed locally.

In the first sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **warmth**, since the phrase **of the sun** specifies what warmth is meant. In the second sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **coal**, since the phrase **mined in Germany** specifies which particular coal is meant. In the third sentence, **the** is used with the uncountable noun **milk**, since the phrase **which they produce** makes it clear which particular milk is meant.

As shown in the following table, the absence of a determiner and the use of **the** before uncountable nouns follows a pattern similar to the absence of a determiner and the use of **the** before plural countable nouns.

The absence of a determiner and the use of The before uncountable nouns

Use	Uncountable Nouns
Making a general statement	no determiner
Something not mentioned before	no determiner
Something mentioned before	the
When it is obvious what is meant	the

3. The use of uncountable nouns to refer to individual things

Uncountable nouns can be used to refer to individual things by being preceded by a countable noun and the word **of**. For example:

Uncountable Noun	Referring to an Individual Thing
information	a piece of information

wheat	a grain of wheat
milk	a glass of milk
sunlight	a patch of sunlight

The countable nouns may, of course, be put into the plural. For example:

Singular	Plural
one piece of information	two pieces of information
one grain of wheat	three grains of wheat
one glass of milk	four glasses of milk
one patch of sunlight	five patches of sunlight

In sentences such as the following, it is the countable noun which is the subject of the verb.
e.g. Fifty grains of wheat are required.
Two glasses of milk are enough.
In the above examples, the plural countable nouns **grains** and **glasses** each take the plural verb **are**.

In English, the names of games are usually uncountable nouns.
e.g. He plays hockey.
Chess is a challenging game.

When it is desired to refer to individual games, the word **game** must usually be used. For example:

Uncountable Noun	Referring to an Individual Thing
chess	a game of chess
hockey	a game of hockey **or** a hockey game

See Exercise 3.

4. Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable

Many English nouns are used sometimes as countable nouns and sometimes as uncountable nouns. Nouns which can be either countable or uncountable include nouns which may have different shades of meaning; normally uncountable nouns which are used to refer to types of things; and a few nouns which refer to places used for specific activities.

a. Differences in meaning
Many nouns are uncountable when they refer to something as a substance or a concept, but are countable when they refer to an individual thing related to the substance or concept. For instance, **cake** is used as an uncountable noun when referring to cake as a substance, but is used as a countable noun when referring to individual cakes.
e.g. Cake and ice cream is my favorite dessert.

This afternoon we baked two cakes.
In the first sentence **cake** is an uncountable noun, and in the second sentence **cakes** is a countable noun.

Similarly, **life** is used as an uncountable noun when referring to life as an abstract concept, but is used as a countable noun when referring to individual lives.
e.g. Life is full of surprises.
It was feared that two lives had been lost.
In the first sentence **life** is an uncountable noun, and in the second sentence **lives** is a countable noun.

b. Referring to a type of something
An uncountable noun can be used as countable noun when it refers to a type of something.
e.g. He has an honesty which is rare nowadays.
The wheats of Canada differ from those of India.
In the first sentence, the usually uncountable noun **honesty** is used with **an** as a countable noun to refer to a type of honesty. In the second sentence, the usually uncountable noun **wheat** is used as a countable noun in the plural to refer to types of wheat.

c. Referring to places used for specific activities
A few nouns referring to places used for specific activities can be either countable or uncountable. These nouns are used as uncountable nouns when referring to places as locations where specific activities are carried out, but are used as countable nouns when referring to the places as objects. In the following pairs of sentences, the words **bed** and **church** are used first as uncountable nouns, and then as countable nouns.
e.g. Because I was tired, I stayed in bed.
Please help me to move the bed.

She goes to church.
She likes to photograph churches.

In the first pair of sentences, **stayed in bed** refers to the activity of resting in bed; whereas **move the bed** refers to a bed as an object. In the second pair of sentences, **goes to church** refers to the activity of taking part in church services; whereas **likes to photograph churches** refers to churches as objects.

Nouns which are used in this way include:

bed	home	sea
church	hospital	town
college	prison	university
court	school	

d. Names of meals
Similarly, the word **television** and the names of meals such as **breakfast**, **lunch**, **dinner** and **supper** are used as uncountable nouns when it is desired to emphasize the activity being carried out.

e.g. They are watching television.
We are eating breakfast.

See Exercise 4.

5. Infinitives used in the place of nouns

Infinitives are sometimes used in the place of nouns.
e.g. To ski well is one of my goals.
They plan to call us.

In the first sentence, the infinitive **to ski** performs the function of a noun, since it is the subject of the verb **is**. In the second sentence, the infinitive **to call** performs the function of a noun, since it is the object of the verb **to plan**. These infinitives also function as verbs, since **to ski** is described by the adverb **well**, and **to call** takes the object **us**.

Like an uncountable noun, an infinitive which is the subject of a verb takes a singular verb. Unlike an uncountable noun, an infinitive usually cannot be preceded by the word **the**.

6. Gerunds

Present participles are often used in the place of nouns. A present participle used in the place of a noun is usually referred to as a **gerund**. In the following sentences, the gerunds are underlined.
e.g. Skating is good exercise.
They like jogging.
In the first sentence, **skating** is the subject of the verb **is**. In the second sentence, **jogging** is the object of the verb **like**.

A gerund can perform the functions of a noun and a verb at the same time.
e.g. Riding a bicycle is good exercise.
They like playing hockey.

In the first sentence, the gerund **riding** functions as a noun, since it is the subject of the verb **is**; and also functions as a verb, since it takes the object **bicycle**. In the second sentence, the gerund **playing** functions as a noun, since it is the object of the verb **like**; and also functions as a verb, since it takes the object **hockey**.

In their role as nouns, gerunds are sometimes regarded as uncountable nouns. Like an uncountable noun, a gerund which is the subject of a verb takes a singular verb. Also, like an uncountable noun, a gerund can be preceded by **the** when referring to a particular thing or to something previously mentioned.
e.g. The skiing was excellent.
He went hunting. The hunting was good.

In the first example, **the skiing** could refer to skiing done at a particular place. In the second example, **the hunting** refers to the hunting mentioned in the previous sentence.

7. Specific verbs followed by infinitives and gerunds

a. Verbs followed by infinitives
Many English verbs can be followed by an infinitive. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the infinitives are printed in bold type.
e.g. They want **to succeed**.
He hopes **to travel** next year.

The following verbs can take an infinitive as an object, but cannot take a gerund as an object:

agree	demand	learn	promise
appear	deserve	manage	refuse
arrange	expect	mean	seem
ask	fail	need	tend
claim	forget	offer	threaten
consent	hesitate	plan	wait
dare	hope	prepare	want
decide	intend	pretend	

Other examples of the use of infinitives with these verbs are:
They agreed **to come**.
He expected **to win**.
She managed **to keep** the secret.
We pretended **to agree** with them.

b. Verbs followed by either infinitives or gerunds
Some English verbs can be followed either by an infinitive or by a gerund. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the infinitives and gerunds are printed in bold type.
e.g. I like **to fish**.
I like **fishing**.

She prefers **to ride** a bicycle.
She prefers **riding** a bicycle.

The following verbs can take either an infinitive or a gerund as an object:

attempt	like
begin	love
cease	prefer
commence	propose
continue	start
hate	try

c. Verbs followed by gerunds

Other English verbs can be followed by a gerund, but cannot be followed by an infinitive used as an object. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the gerunds are printed in bold type.

e.g. They disliked **waiting**.
It stopped **raining**.

The following verbs can take a gerund as an object, but cannot take an infinitive as an object:

1	2	3	4	5
keep	appreciate	admit	avoid	complete
practise	deplore	anticipate	defer	finish
risk	detest	consider	delay	quit
	dislike	deny	escape	stop
	dread	discuss	miss	
	enjoy	mention	postpone	
	loathe	recall		
	mind	recommend		
	regret	suggest		
	resent			
	resist			
	tolerate			

It should be noted that many of the verbs listed above have similar meanings. The second column contains verbs which express feelings about doing something; many of the feelings are negative. The third column contains verbs which refer to thoughts about doing something. The fourth column contains verbs which refer to negative actions with respect to doing something. The fifth column contains verbs which refer to ceasing to do something.

Other examples of the use of gerunds with these verbs are:
I kept **calling** the office.
We appreciate **hearing** from you.
He denies **following** us.
They avoid **discussing** the subject.
She finished **filling** in the blanks.

EXERCISES for Chapter 16

1. For the following sentences, fill in the blanks with **a** or **an** or leave the blanks empty, as appropriate. Fill in the blanks with **a** or **an** before countable nouns, and leave them empty before uncountable nouns. For example:
__ bird is singing outside the window.
A bird is singing outside the window.

___ copper is used in making electrical wiring.
Copper is used in making electrical wiring.

1. ___ air is made up of elements such as ___ oxygen and ___ nitrogen.
2. ___ book is lying on the floor.
3. ___ Russian is a difficult language.
4. ___ onion is ___ vegetable.
5. ___ butter and ___ cream are made from ___ milk.
6. ___ letter has been delivered to the wrong house.
7. ___ child is playing on the sidewalk.
8. ___ asbestos is a fireproof material.
9. ___ tree is growing outside the house.
10. ___ curiosity is considered a sign of ___ intelligence.
11. They want to buy ___ camera.
12. ___ egg was added to the soup.
13. ___ rain is expected this evening.
14. The farmers wished for ___ peace and ___ prosperity.
15. ___ bicycle is parked in front of the store.

Answers

2. Paying attention to whether the nouns in the following paragraphs are countable or uncountable, and to whether or not the nouns refer to things which have been mentioned before, fill in the blanks with **a** or **the**, or leave the blanks empty, as appropriate.

Phil Jones was ____ prospector, who was looking for ____ gold. He had to travel a long way, crossing ___ mountains and ____ streams to reach his destination.

Previously, he had been ____ miner and had mined ___ copper and ___ coal. But ____ copper had given out, and mining ____ coal was dangerous work. When he had heard about ___ gold in ____ mountains, Phil had left his job and traveled west. He knew he would need ___ courage and ___ determination to reach his goal.

One evening he camped beside ___ stream. When he tested ____ stream, he found there was a small amount of glittering gold dust in it. As usual, Phil made ___ fire to prepare his evening meal. He took ____ ___ flour and ___ salt from his knapsack, and got ___ water from ____ stream. Then he mixed ___ salt with ___ flour, and gradually added ___ water, to make ___ pancakes over ___ fire.

As ___ fire died away, Phil looked up and down ___ stream. Expecting to see only ___ darkness, to his surprise, he saw ____ lights from many small fires. He knew they must be ____ fires of other prospectors. "I've reached end of my journey", he thought. Now he was in the goldfields, and with ___ luck, he would find ___ gold he had come to seek.

Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, change the word **one** to **two**, put the subject of the verb into the plural, and make sure that the verb agrees with its subject. For example:

One bar of soap will be provided.
Two bars of soap will be provided.

One bag of flour is on the counter.
Two bags of flour are on the counter.

1. One piece of luggage is allowed per passenger.
2. One bottle of water is enough.
3. One jar of honey is larger than the others.
4. One piece of furniture will be delivered.
5. One grain of rice has fallen onto the table.
6. One bucket of sand was needed to build the sand castle.
7. One cup of sugar should be mixed with the flour.
8. One game of chess will be played at four o'clock.

Answers

4. Fill in each blank with **a** or **an** if the noun following the blank is used as a countable noun, or leave the blank empty if the noun following the blank is used as an uncountable noun. For example:

The bowl is made of ___ glass.
The bowl is made of glass.

Would you like __ glass of water?
Would you like a glass of water?

1. The sun gives off ___ heat and ___ light.
2. There is ___ light suspended from the ceiling.
3. She will buy ___ paper to find out what movies are being shown.
4. ___ paper can be made from ___ wood or ___ cloth.
5. She has a keen sense of ___ honor.
6. It is ___ honor to be invited to speak.
7. There is ___ bed near the window.
8. He has gone to ____ bed early because he is tired.
9. ___ iron used in making ___ steel.
10. If I had ___ iron, I would press my new suit.
11. They always eat ___ lunch at twelve o'clock.
12. We will pack you ____ lunch to take with you.

Answers

5. Paying attention to which verbs can be followed by an infinitive and which can be followed by a gerund, for each sentence, fill in the blank with the infinitive or gerund of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

Please stop _____ that! (to do)
Please stop doing that!

He has decided _____ a holiday. (to take)
He has decided to take a holiday.

1. Has he finished _____ the report? (to read)
2. We plan _____ the concert. (to attend)
3. They will discuss _____ a club. (to organize)
4. She offered _____ the letter. (to write)
5. They asked _____ us. (to accompany)

6. You should practise _____ the speech. (to give)
7. I would suggest _____ the work by next week. (to finish)
8. He has not dared _____ you. (to contradict)
9. They delayed _____ us. (to call)
10. She deserves _____. (to succeed)
11. We forgot _____ the letter. (to mail)
12. He enjoys _____. (to ski)
13. They would not risk _____ the bus. (to miss)
14. Do you want _____ the book? (to borrow)
15. I don't mind _____. (to wait)
16. Her daughter is learning _____ a bicycle. (to ride)
17. It has stopped _____. (to snow)
18. He is preparing _____ a business. (to open)
19. They hesitated _____ the invitation. (to accept)
20. I miss _____ from them. (to hear)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 16

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. __ Air, __ oxygen, __ nitrogen 2. A book 3. __ Russian 4. An onion, a vegetable 5. __ Butter, __ cream, __ milk 6. A letter 7. A child 8. __ Asbestos 9. A tree 10. __ Curiosity, __ intelligence 11. a camera 12. An egg 13. __ Rain 14. __ peace, __ prosperity 15. A bicycle

Answers to Exercise 2:
a prospector, __ gold. __ mountains, __ streams. a miner, __ copper, __ coal. the copper, the coal. the gold, the mountains, __ courage, __ determination. a stream. the stream. a fire. __ flour, __ salt, __ water, the stream. the salt, the flour the water, __ pancakes, the fire. the fire, the stream. __ darkness, __ lights. the fires. the end. __ luck, the gold.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. Two pieces of luggage are allowed 2. Two bottles of water are 3. Two jars of honey are 4. Two pieces of furniture will be delivered. 5. Two grains of rice have fallen 6. Two buckets of wand were needed 7. Two cups of sugar should be mixed 9. Two games of chess will be played

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. __ heat, __ light 2. a light 3. a paper 4. __ Paper, __ wood, __ cloth 5. __ honor 6. an honor 7. a bed 8. __ bed 9. __ Iron, __ steel 10. an iron 11. __ lunch 12. a lunch

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. reading 2. to attend 3. organizing 4. to write 5. to accompany 6. giving 7. finishing 8. to contradict 9. calling 10. to succeed 11. to mall 12. skiing 13. missing 14. to borrow 15. waiting 16. to ride 17. snowing 18. to open 19. to accept 20. hearing

CHAPTER 17. NOUNS INDICATING POSSESSION AND COMPOUND SUBJECTS

1. Ways in which possession is indicated

a. The ending 's

One way in which English nouns indicate possession is by means of the ending **'s**.

e.g. the boy's hat
Sally's bicycle

In the above examples, the ending **'s** indicates that the hat is possessed by the boy, and that the bicycle is possessed by Sally. The English ending **'s** is related to the German possessive ending **es**.

The ending **'s** is most often used with nouns referring to human beings or animals.

e.g. the child's toy
the bird's song

Nouns formed from two or more words joined by hyphens indicate possession by adding **'s** to the last word.

e.g. the runner-up's score
the sister-in-law's children

The ending **'s** may also used with nouns referring to non-living things which are sometimes thought of as if they were living, such as ships, countries, corporations, and the earth.

e.g. the ship's bell
Italy's exports
the city's parks
the earth's surface

The ending **'s** may also be used with nouns referring to units of time.

e.g. a day's work
a week's delay

In addition, the ending **'s** is used with nouns referring to non-living things in a few idioms such as the following:

e.g. a stone's throw away
your money's worth

It should be noted that the ending **'s** is used only with singular and plural nouns which do not end in **s**.

e.g. the girl's hat
the children's books
the men's jackets

b. The ending s'

For plural nouns which end in **s**, the ending **'s** is not used. Instead, an apostrophe: ' is placed after the **s** which indicates a plural. The following examples illustrate how the plural nouns **students** and **Smiths** indicate possession.

e.g. the students' books
the Smiths' house

In these examples, the apostrophes indicate that the books belong to the students, and

that the house belongs to the Smiths.

It should be noted that both **'s** and **s'** are pronounced like **s**. Thus, in spoken English, there is no distinction between a singular noun with the ending **'s** and a plural noun ending in **s'**. For instance, the phrase **the student's books** is pronounced in the same way as the phrase **the students' books**.

In American English, singular nouns ending in **s** can also indicate possession by means of a final apostrophe.
e.g. James' scarf
Dickens' novels
In these examples, a final apostrophe is used with the singular proper nouns **James** and **Dickens** to indicate possession.

See Exercises 1 and 2.

c. Phrases beginning with Of
When the possessor is not a human being or animal, possession is often indicated by the use of a phrase beginning with **of** following the name of the thing possessed. A phrase beginning with **of** is most commonly used when the thing possessed is an abstract quality, such as size. This means of indicating possession is related to the method used in French, and may be the result of the influence of French on the English language.
e.g. the size of the portrait
the color of the carpet
the beginning of the story

See Exercise 3.

d. Two consecutive nouns
When the possessor and the thing possessed are both concrete objects, possession can often be indicated by placing the noun naming the possessor before the noun naming the thing possessed.
e.g. the car radio
the tree trunk
the kitchen sink
the onion skin
These examples indicate that the radio belongs to the car, the trunk belongs to the tree, the sink belongs to the kitchen, and the skin belongs to the onion. This type of construction will be discussed further in the section on Defining Adjectives.

2. Agreement of verbs with collective nouns and compound subjects

The following rules apply in formal English, but may or may not be observed in informal English.

a. Collective nouns
Collective nouns are singular nouns which refer to a group. The words **audience**, **class**, **family**, **flock**, **group** and **team** are examples of collective nouns.

A collective noun takes a singular verb when the group referred to acts as a whole or is considered as a whole.
e.g. Our team has won the game.
That family is well-known.
In the first example, the singular verb **has won** is used, since the collective noun **team** refers to a group acting as a whole. In the second example, the singular verb **is** is used, since the collective noun **family** refers to a group being considered as a whole.

However, a collective noun takes a plural verb when the members of the group are considered to be acting individually.
e.g. The flock were running, playing and searching for fresh grass.
The audience were throwing flowers and jewelry onto the stage.
In the first example, the use of the plural verb **were running** indicates that the members of the flock are considered to be acting individually. Similarly, in the second example, the use of the plural verb **were throwing** indicates that the members of the audience are considered to be acting individually.

b. Amounts considered as a whole
A noun subject naming a unit of currency or a unit of measurement takes a singular verb when the amount referred to is being considered as a whole.
e.g. Ten dollars is my best offer.
Five minutes is all that is required.
Two years is a long time.
In each of the above examples, the amount of money or length of time referred to by the subject is being considered as a whole. Thus, in each case a singular verb, **is**, is used.

See Exercise 4.

c. Compound subjects
When the subject of a verb consists of two or more nouns joined by **and**, **or** or **nor**, the subject can be referred to as a **compound** subject. In the following examples, the compound subjects are underlined.
e.g. Cars and buses were filling the streets.
One apple or one pear is needed.
Neither ducks nor pigeons were in the yard.

i. Compound subjects with And
A compound subject consisting of two nouns joined by the word **and** usually takes a plural verb. In the following examples, the compound subjects consist of various combinations of singular and plural nouns joined by the word **and**. In all of the examples, the compound subject with **and** takes a plural verb.
e.g. Red and white are my favorite colors.
One egg and one lemon are required to make the cake.
One teacher and twenty students are present.
Roses and tulips are blooming in the garden.

However, a compound subject with **and** takes a singular verb when the subject as a whole refers to only one thing, or is considered as referring to only one thing.

e.g. Our vice-president and treasurer is a person everyone likes.
Strawberries and cream is my favorite dessert.
In the first example, the use of the singular verb **is** indicates that the compound subject **vice-president and treasurer** refers to a single person. In the second example, the use of the singular verb **is** indicates that the compound subject **strawberries and cream** is being considered as referring to a single type of dessert.

Likewise, a compound subject with **and** takes a singular verb when the subject is the title of a book or the name of a company.
e.g. War and Peace is a long book.
Johnson and Sons is a company which sells musical instruments.
In each of the above examples a singular verb, **is**, is used, since the compound subject is the name of a single thing.

ii. Compound subjects with Or or Nor
When a compound subject consists of two or more nouns joined by the word **or** or **nor**, the verb agrees with the noun nearest the verb.

In the following examples the verbs are singular, since the nouns nearest the verbs are singular.
e.g. A bus or a streetcar passes this point every two minutes.
Neither my friend nor his brother knows what to do.
Cookies or cake is available.
Neither sardines nor salmon was served.

In the following examples the verbs are plural, since the nouns nearest the verbs are plural.
e.g. Sandals or slippers are suitable.
Neither pencils nor pens were provided.
Cake or cookies are available.
Neither salmon nor sardines were served.

When a compound subject consists of one singular noun and one plural noun joined by **or** or **nor**, it is sometimes considered advisable to place the plural noun directly before the verb, so that the verb will be plural.
e.g. A coat or two sweaters are needed.
Neither the teacher nor the students were there.
In these examples, the plural nouns **sweaters** and **teachers** have been placed immediately before the verbs, so that the verbs will be plural.

The following table summarizes the rules for the agreement of verbs with compound subjects:

Agreement of Verbs with Compound Subjects

Nouns of Compound Subject	Conjunction	Verb
Nouns referring to a single thing	and	singular
Nouns referring to two or more things	and	plural
Singular noun nearest the verb	or/nor	singular

Plural noun nearest the verb	or/nor	plural

See Exercise 5.

d. Nouns followed by descriptive phrases
Two or more nouns can form a compound subject when joined by **and**, **or** or **nor**. However, when a noun subject is followed by a descriptive phrase containing another noun, the two nouns do not form a compound subject. In this case, the verb must agree with the noun subject, not with the noun in the descriptive phrase.

In the following examples, the subjects of the verbs are printed in bold type, and the descriptive phrases following the subjects are underlined.
e.g. One **book**, larger than the others, was lying open on the desk.
The **leader** of the students was an excellent speaker.
My **friend**, as well as her sisters, is here.

In the above examples, the verbs **was lying**, **was** and **is** are singular, to agree with the singular subjects **book**, **leader** and **friend**. The descriptive phrases **larger than the others**, **of the students** and **as well as her sisters** have no effect on which form of the verb is used.

EXERCISES for Chapter 17

1. For each of the following phrases, change the noun indicating possession from the singular to the plural. For example:
    the man's experiences
    the men's experiences

    the doctor's office
    the doctors' office

1. the musician's instruments
2. the child's adventures
3. the animal's habitat
4. the workman's instructions
5. the ship's passengers
6. the pilot's vacation
7. the officer's friends

Answers

2. For each of the following phrases, change the noun indicating possession from the plural to the singular. For example:
    the owners' permission
    the owner's permission

    the mice's nest
    the mouse's nest

1. the surgeons' skill

2. the policemen's warning
3. the directors' decision
4. the secretaries' correspondence
5. the eagles' aerie
6. the women's errand
7. the managers' assistants

Answers

3. Show the relationships between the possessors and the things possessed by using the ending **'s** or the word **of**, as appropriate. For example:

	Possessor	Thing Possessed	Indicating Possession
	visitor	map	the visitor's map
	stairs	top	the top of the stairs
1.	woman	scarf	
2.	children	answers	
3.	door	color	
4.	concert	beginning	
5.	instructor	advice	
6.	deficit	size	
7.	girl	tricycle	
8.	building	height	
9.	hen	cackling	
10.	boy	parents	
11.	chair	arm	
12.	street	length	

Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with either the singular or the plural verb form shown in brackets. Be prepared to explain why the form you have chosen is correct. For example:

The committee ____ put forward a new proposal. (has, have)
The committee has put forward a new proposal.
In this example the committee is acting as a whole. Therefore a singular verb is used.

The committee ____ disagreed on what policy to adopt. (has, have)
The committee have disagreed on what policy to adopt.
In this example, the members of the committee are acting as individuals. Therefore a plural verb is used.

Two tons of coal __ required. (is, are)
Two tons of coal is required.
In this example, the amount **two tons** is considered as a whole. Therefore a singular verb is used.

1. The crew _____ preparing the ship to go to sea. (is, are)

2. The crew _____ different levels of experience. (has, have)
3. Two pounds of butter _____ too much. (is, are)
4. The class _____ not agree on what should be done. (does, do)
5. The class _____ contributed eighty dollars to the cause. (has, have)
6. Three ounces of gold _____ worth more than three ounces of copper. (is, are)
7. The group _____ decided to hold a meeting once a month. (has, have)
8. The group _____ varied backgrounds. (has, have)
9. Fifty cents _____ the regular price. (was, were)
10. Six dollars _____ been collected. (has, have)
Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with either the singular or the plural verb form shown in brackets. Be prepared to explain why the form you have chosen is correct. For example:

Both the sky and the water ___ blue. (is, are)
Both the sky and the water <u>are</u> blue.
The two nouns of a compound subject with **and** refer to two different things. Therefore a plural verb is used.

Wilson and Brothers __ a company dealing in antiques. (is, are)
Wilson and Brothers <u>is</u> a company dealing in antiques.
The two nouns of a compound subject with **and** refer to one thing. Therefore a singular verb is used.

Either Richard or his uncle __ sure to be there. (is, are)
Either Richard or his uncle <u>is</u> sure to be there.
A singular noun is nearest the verb in a compound subject with **or**. Therefore a singular verb is used.

Neither the main office nor the branch offices ___ open. (is, are)
Neither the main office nor the branch offices <u>are</u> open.
A plural noun is nearest the verb in a compound subject with **nor**. Therefore a plural verb is used.

1. Either a large jar or two small jars _____ required. (is, are)
2. Neither the road nor the highway _____ to Pictou. (leads, lead)
3. A duck and a heron _____ in the pond. (is, are)
4. Either spring or summer _____ a good time to visit our region. (is, are)
5. Both the bow and the arrows _____ to the instructor. (belongs, belong)
6. Neither the boats nor the raft _____ in good repair. (was, were)
7. Milk and porridge _____ a nutritious breakfast. (is, are)
8. Either his brother or his sister _____ here. (lives, live)
9. Both boys and girls _____ eligible to apply. (is, are)
10. Neither threats nor persuasion _____ proved effective. (has, have)
11. Bread and potatoes _____ staple foods in many parts of North America. (is, are)
12. Either the twins or their friend _____ in the class. (is, are)
13. <u>The Picts and the Martyrs</u> _____ a book I would like to read again. (is, are)
14. Both feathers and fur _____ to keep animals warm. (helps, help)
15. Rope or string _____ required. (is, are)

16. Either plates or saucers _____ suitable. (is, are)
17. Smith and Smith _____ a family business. (is, are)
18. Neither the apples nor the plums _____ ripe. (was, were)
Answers

6. For each of the following sentences, place brackets around the phrase which describes the noun subject. Then, using the Simple Present tense, fill in the blank with the correct form of the verb shown in brackets. For example:

The tools, including the hammer, ___ made of iron. (to be)
The tools, [including the hammer,] are made of iron.

The ferry, as well as the other boats, ___ at anchor. (to be)
The ferry, [as well as the other boats,] is at anchor.

1. The letter, as well as the postcards, _____ on the table. (to be)
2. The windows at the front of the house _____ to be repaired. (to need)
3. His friends, as well as his sister, _____ about to leave. (to be)
4. The meadow, filled with flowers, _____ a beautiful sight. (to be)
5. The children in the class _____ eager to learn. (to be)
6. The kettle, in contrast to the saucepans, _____ pitch black. (to be)
7. The books, although purchased only last year, already _____ worn. (to look)
8. The leader of the musicians _____ responsible for the arrangements. (to be)
9. The table, together with the chairs, _____ quite old. (to be)
10. The members of the club _____ attending the meetings. (to enjoy)
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 17

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. the musicians' instruments 2. the children's adventures 3. the animals' habitat 4. the workmen's instructions 5. the ships' passengers 6. the pilots' vacation 7. the officers' friends

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. the surgeon's skill 2. the policeman's warning 3. the director's decision 4. the secretary's correspondence 5. the eagle's aerie 6. the woman's errand 7. the manager's assistants

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. the woman's scarf 2. the children's answers 3. the color of the door 4. the beginning of the concert 5. the instructor's advice 6. the size of the deficit 7. the girl's tricycle 8. the height of the building 9. the hen's cackling 10. the boy's parents 11. the arm of the chair 12. the length of the street

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. is [acting as a whole] 2. have [considered individually] 3. is [considered as a whole] 4. do [acting individually] 5. has [acting as a whole] 6. is [considered as a whole] 7. has [acting as a whole] 8. have [considered individually] 9. was [considered as a whole] 10.

has [considered as a whole]

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. are [**or**: noun nearest the verb is plural] 2. leads [**nor**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 3. are [**and**: subject refers to more than one thing] 4. is [**or**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 5. belong [**and**: subject refers to more than one thing] 6. was [**nor**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 7. is [**and**: subject refers to a single type of breakfast] 8. lives [**or**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 9. are [**and**: subject refers to more than one thing] 10. has [**or**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 11. are [**and**: subject refers to more than one thing] 12. is [**or**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 13. is [**and**: title of a book] 14. help [**and**: subject refers to more than one thing] 15. is [**or**: noun nearest the verb is singular] 16. are [**or**: noun nearest the verb is plural] 17. is [**and**: name of a company] 18. were [**nor**: noun nearest the verb is plural]

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The letter, [as well as the postcards,] is on the table. 2. The windows [at the front of the house] need to be repaired. 3. His friends, [as well as his sister,] are about to leave. 4. The meadow, [filled with flowers,] is a beautiful sight. 5. The children [in the class] are eager to learn. 6. The kettle, [in contrast to the saucepans] is pitch black. 7. The books, [although purchased only last year] already look worn. 8. The leader [of the musicians] is responsible for the arrangements. 9. The table, [together with the chairs,] is quite old. 10. The members [of the club] enjoy attending the meetings.

CHAPTER 18. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Pronouns are words which can be used in the place of nouns. The personal pronouns in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. She will do the work herself.
They gave it to him.
We want to know who was there.

In the following examples, pronouns are used in the place of nouns, instead of repeating the nouns.
e.g. I saw a boy on the steps. He seemed to recognize me.
My friend and her brother like to ski. They ski whenever they can.
In the first example, the pronoun **he** is used instead of repeating the noun **boy**. In the second example, the pronoun **they** is used instead of repeating the nouns **friend** and **brother**.

1. The subjective case

The following English personal pronouns were listed in Chapter 1. They are usually referred to as indicated below:

	Singular	Plural
First Person	I	we
Second Person	you	you

Third Person	he, she, it	they

Thus, **I** is referred to as the **first person singular**; **we** is referred to as the **first person plural**; **you** is referred to as the **second person**; **he**, **she** and **it** are referred to as the **third person singular**; and **they** is referred to as the **third person plural**.

These pronouns are said to be in the **subjective case**, because they can each be used as the subject of a verb. In the following examples, the personal pronouns in the subjective case are underlined.
e.g. I am ready.
He is fortunate.
She is a teacher.
It is raining.
We are coming.
You are right.
They are determined.

The agreement of verbs with subjects which are personal pronouns has been discussed in previous chapters.

2. Agreement of personal pronouns with their antecedents

The pronoun **I** is used to refer to the speaker or writer. The pronoun **you** is used to refer to one or more persons or things which are being addressed by the speaker or writer. The pronoun **we** is normally used to refer to the speaker or writer together with one or more other people.

When a pronoun stands for a noun which has already been mentioned, the noun is sometimes referred to as the **antecedent** of the pronoun.
e.g. The apples are cheap, but they are not ripe yet.
In the preceding example, the noun **apples** is the antecedent of the pronoun **they**.

The antecedents of pronouns usually precede the pronouns. However, a pronoun may also stand for a noun which follows the pronoun, provided that it is obvious to what the pronoun is referring.
e.g. Because they are sour, the apples will be used for cooking.
In this example, the pronoun **they** stands for the noun **apples**, which occurs later In the sentence.

a. Male and female antecedents

The third person singular pronouns **he** and **she** are the only pronouns in the subjective case which are differentiated with respect to gender. The pronoun **he** is used to refer to male antecedents, and the pronoun **she** is used to refer to female antecedents.
e.g. A girl was sitting on the steps. She was waiting for her friend.
A boy was delivering papers. He seemed to be in a hurry.
In the above examples, the pronoun **she** agrees with the female antecedent **girl**, and the pronoun **he** agrees with the male antecedent **boy**.

b. Singular and plural antecedents
English third person pronouns are also differentiated with respect to number. If the antecedent of a pronoun is singular, a singular pronoun must be used. If the antecedent of a pronoun is plural, a plural pronoun must be used.
e.g. I have one watch. It is quite accurate.
I have two watches. They are quite accurate.

This is my sister. She is younger than I am.
These are my sisters. They are younger than I am.

This is my brother. He is older than I am.
These are my brothers. They are older than I am.

In the above examples, the singular pronouns **it**, **he** and **she** agree with the singular antecedents **watch**, **sister** and **brother**. The plural pronoun **they** agrees with the plural antecedents **watches**, **sisters** and **brothers**.

As illustrated above, the third person plural pronoun **they** can be used to stand for either male or female antecedents.
e.g. The men liked to play cards. They took turns keeping score.
The women came, but they did not stay long.
The men and women greeted each other. They all knew one another.

c. Human and non-human antecedents
The third person singular pronouns **he**, **she** and **it** usually distinguish between antecedents which refer to human beings, and antecedents which refer to things which are not human. The pronouns **he** and **she** usually refer to human beings. However, **he** or **she** may also be used to refer to an animal, if the gender of the animal is known to the speaker or writer.
e.g. My aunt is very intelligent. She has a degree in philosophy.
His brother was not there, because he had to work late.
Your dog is well trained. He is a good guard dog.
In the first two examples, **he** and **she** are used to refer to human beings. In the third example, **he** is used to refer to an animal.

If a third person singular antecedent does not refer to a human being, the pronoun **it** is usually used. However, when the thing named by the antecedent is referred to as if it had human qualities, the pronoun **he** or **she** may be used. For instance, ships and countries are sometimes referred to as **she**.
e.g. There is a robin on the lawn. It has a nest in that tree.
This is a good book. It is interesting and well-written.
The *Bonnie Belle* is a sailing ship. She is very seaworthy.
In the first two examples, **it** is used to refer to things which are not human. In the third example, **she** is used to refer to a thing which is not human.

The third person plural pronoun **they** can stand for either human or non-human antecedents.
e.g. The children bought ice cream, because they felt hungry.
The umbrellas are popular, because they are inexpensive.

In the first example, **they** stands for the human antecedent **children**. In the second example, **they** stands for the non-human antecedent **umbrellas**.

The main rules for the agreement of the third person pronouns **he**, **she**, **it** and **they** with their antecedents can be summarized as follows:

Agreement of Third Person Pronouns with their Antecedents

Pronoun	Antecedent
he	singular, male, usually human
she	singular, female, usually human
it	singular, non-human
they	plural

See Exercises 1 and 2.

A pronoun should not be used to stand for a noun, unless it is obvious to which noun the pronoun is referring. For instance, in the following examples, it is not clear to which nouns the underlined pronouns refer.
e.g. My friend was there with her mother. She was wearing a blue dress.
The children stared at the horses. They were ready to start.
In the first example, the pronoun **she** could stand either for the noun **friend** or for the noun **mother**. Similarly, in the second example, the pronoun **they** could stand for either **children** or **horses**.

In written English, when it is not obvious to which antecedent a pronoun refers, the relevant sentence should be corrected. This can be done either by repeating the noun, instead of using a pronoun; or by rewriting the sentence to make the meaning clear. For instance, the preceding examples could be corrected as follows. It will be assumed that **she** refers to **friend**, and that **they** refers to **horses**.
e.g. My friend was there with her mother. My friend was wearing a blue dress.
or My friend, wearing a blue dress, was there with her mother.

The children stared at the horses. The horses were ready to start.
or The children stared at the horses, which were ready to start.

See Exercise 3.

3. Special uses of It

The pronoun **it** can be used without an antecedent in sentences referring to general conditions such as the weather or the time.
e.g. It is raining.
It has been a wet summer.
It is too hot here.
It is the twenty-fourth of April.
It is seven o'clock.

It is Friday.

The pronoun **it** can also be used in expressions such as the following.
e.g. It would be a good idea to attend the meeting.
It is not necessary to buy tickets in advance.
It will be easy to find the right house.
It was clever of you to think of that.
In these sentences, **it** can be thought of as standing for the infinitive which follows the verb. The ideas expressed in such sentences may be expressed without the use of **it** by changing the infinitive to a gerund, which is placed before the verb.

For instance, the preceding sentences can be rewritten as follows:
Attending the meeting would be a good idea.
Buying tickets in advance is not necessary.
Finding the right house will be easy.
Thinking of that was clever of you.

See Exercise 4.

4. The objective case

Objects of verbs have already been discussed in the chapter on transitive and intransitive verbs. When a personal pronoun is the object of a verb, the pronoun must be in the objective case. In the following sentences, the pronouns in the objective case are underlined.
e.g. They need me.
We like you.
They understand him.
I wanted her to help them.
We mended it yesterday.

As shown in the following table, each personal pronoun in the subjective case has a corresponding form in the objective case.

Personal pronouns in the subjective and objective cases

Subjective Case	Objective Case
I	me
you	you
he	him
she	her
it	it
we	us
they	them

It can be seen that only the personal pronouns **you** and **it** have the same form in the objective case as in the subjective case.

When a personal pronoun is the subject of a verb, the subjective form of the pronoun must be used.
e.g. I understand what you mean.
He saw the comet.
In these sentences, the underlined pronouns are the subjects of the verbs **understand** and **saw**; therefore, the subjective forms **I** and **he** must be used.

When a personal pronoun is the object of a verb, the objective form of the pronoun must be used.
e.g. My friends understand me.
We saw him last night.
In these sentences, the underlined pronouns are the objects of the verbs **understand** and **saw**; therefore, the objective forms **me** and **him** must be used.

The rules for the agreement of pronouns with their antecedents are the same for pronouns in the objective case as for the corresponding pronouns in the subjective case.
e.g. When your son won the prize, we congratulated him.
Your daughter thinks we have not noticed her.
When the letter arrived, we answered it immediately.
He and I were right, but no one believed us.
Because the boats were barely moving, we overtook them easily.
In the preceding sentences, the pronouns **him**, **her**, **it**, **us** and **them** agree with the antecedents **son**, **daughter**, **letter**, **he and I** and **boats**, respectively.

See Exercises 5, 6 and 7.

It should be noted that the verb **to be** does not take an object. In formal, written English, when the verb **to be** is immediately followed by a personal pronoun, the pronoun must usually be in the subjective case. In the following examples, the pronouns following the verb **to be** are in the subjective case.
e.g. It is I.
That was he.
This is she.
Those are they.

However, in informal English, this rule is usually ignored. In informal English, when a pronoun immediately follows any verb, including the verb **to be**, the objective form of the pronoun is usually used. Thus, in informal English the sentence **It is I** would usually be expressed **It is me**, and the sentence **That was he** would usually be expressed **That was him**.

See Exercise 8.

As well as being used as the objects of verbs, personal pronouns in the objective case are used as objects of prepositions. **Prepositions** are words such as **at**, **in**, **on**, **to** and **with**. A preposition links the words immediately following it to the rest of the sentence.

A noun or pronoun which forms part of a prepositional phrase is said to be the **object** of the preposition. For instance, the underlined pronouns in the following examples are

objects of prepositions.
e.g. Please give the book to me.
We have heard a great deal about you.
They went with him.
I bought a present for her.
He walked across it.
The cake was made by us.
Here is a letter from them.
In the preceding examples, the underlined pronouns are the objects of the prepositions **to**, **about**, **with**, **for**, **across**, **by** and **from**.

See Exercises 9 and 10.

5. Possessive personal pronouns

Each of the personal pronouns has forms which indicate possession. For instance, in the following sentences, the underlined words are the possessive forms of personal pronouns.
e.g. This is your book.
This book is yours.
His apartment is large, but mine is small.
Their marks are higher than ours.

The subjective, objective and possessive forms of the English personal pronouns are shown in the following table.

Subjective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Form used before a Noun	Possessive Form used Independently
I	me	my	mine
you	you	your	yours
he	him	his	his
she	her	her	hers
it	it	its	[its]
we	us	our	ours
they	them	their	theirs

a. Possessive adjectives
As shown in the preceding table, the personal pronouns have two possessive forms. One form shows possession by preceding a noun. A personal pronoun in this form may be referred to as a **possessive adjective**, since, like an adjective, it describes the thing to which the noun refers.

In the following sentences, the possessive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. My bicycle is new.
Does your uncle play hockey?
His answer was correct.
Her father is not here.

The tree has lost two of its branches.
He is our friend.
Their house is one block from the school.

The rules for the agreement of personal pronouns with their antecedents also apply to the corresponding possessive adjectives. In languages such as French and Spanish, possessive adjectives agree with the nouns they precede. However, in English, possessive adjectives agree with their antecedents, as illustrated in the following table.

Agreement of English Possessive Adjectives with their Antecedents

Antecedent	Possessive Adjective	Example
boy	his	The boy obeys **his** mother.
girl	her	The girl likes **her** brothers.
bird	its	The bird sat on **its** nest.
cows	their	The cows have lost **their** way.

In the preceding examples, the antecedents are underlined, and the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.

See Exercise 11.

i. Possessive adjectives used with gerunds
In formal English, when a gerund is preceded by a personal pronoun, the pronoun must usually be in the form of a possessive adjective. In the following examples, the gerunds are underlined, and the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.
e.g. The boy said that **his** skating had improved.
The girl entertained the guests with **her** singing.
We think **our** lobbying for new street lights will be effective.

See Exercise 12.

b. Possessive pronouns
The possessive form of a personal pronoun which can be used independently can be referred to as a **possessive pronoun**, since it can be used in the place of a noun. In the following sentences, the possessive pronouns are underlined.
e.g. He did not bring his coat, but I brought mine.
Our mail has been delivered, but theirs has not.
In the above examples, **mine** stands for **my coat**, and **theirs** stands for **their mail**.

The following table compares the possessive pronouns with the possessive adjectives. It can be seen that only **his** and **its** have the same form when used as pronouns as when used as adjectives. The possessive pronoun **its** is seldom used.

Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
my	mine
your	yours
his	his
her	hers

its	[its]
our	ours
their	theirs

Except for the pronoun **mine**, all of the possessive pronouns end in **s**. However, it should be noted that, unlike possessive nouns, the possessive personal pronouns are not spelled with an apostrophe. Care should be taken not to confuse the possessive form **its** with the contraction **it's**, which stands for **it is** or **it has**.

In the following sentences, the possessive personal pronouns are underlined.
e.g. That book is mine.
Are these gloves yours?
The red bicycle is his.
Because I forgot my umbrella, she lent me hers.
Their teacher is stricter than ours.
Our teacher is relaxed, but theirs is short-tempered.

See Exercises 13 and 14.

6. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are often used when the action described by the verb is directed toward the thing referred to by the subject of the verb. This use of reflexive pronouns is illustrated in the following examples. The reflexive pronouns are underlined.
e.g. I washed myself thoroughly before putting on clean clothes.
Did you hurt yourself?

Reflexive pronouns can also be used when it is desired to emphasize a personal pronoun. The reflexive pronouns in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. I myself saw what happened.
Did he solve the problem himself?
She did the work herself.
In these examples, the reflexive pronouns **myself**, **himself** and **herself** are used to emphasize the personal pronouns **I**, **he** and **she**.

The reflexive personal pronouns are listed below.

Subjective Case	Reflexive Pronoun
I	myself
you	yourself
he	himself
she	herself
it	itself
we	ourselves
you	yourselves
they	themselves

It can be seen that in the second person, a differentiation is made between **yourself**,

which agrees with singular antecedents, and **yourselves**, which agrees with plural antecedents.

It should be noted that the first and second person reflexive pronouns are formed from the corresponding possessive adjectives, whereas the third person reflexive pronouns are formed from the corresponding pronouns in the objective case. This is illustrated in the following table.

Objective Case	Possessive Adjective	Reflexive Pronoun
me	**my**	**my**self
you	**your**	**your**self
him	his	**him**self
her	hers	**her**self
it	its	**it**self
us	**our**	**our**selves
you	**your**	**your**selves
them	their	**them**selves

EXERCISES for Chapter 18

1. In the sentences below, fill in the blanks with the personal pronouns which agree with the underlined antecedents. For example:

The man walked slowly, because __ was carrying a heavy parcel.
The man walked slowly, because he was carrying a heavy parcel.

Although ___ knew it was dangerous, the girl wanted to ride the horse.
Although she knew it was dangerous, the girl wanted to ride the horse.

The tree is very tall, but __ does not give much shade.
The tree is very tall, but it does not give much shade.

She and I are not coming, because __ are too busy.
She and I are not coming, because we are too busy.

Doughnuts taste best when ____ are fresh.
Doughnuts taste best when they are fresh.

1. The children are happy because _____ have a holiday today.
2. My father and I had planned to visit the park, but since it was raining _____ decided not to go.
3. This chair is valuable because _____ is so old.
4. The woman is pleased because _____ has found work.
5. Until _____ retired, their father managed a business.
6. After the apples have been cut up, _____ should be sprinkled with cinnamon.
7. Because her husband used to study music, _____ knows how to play several musical instruments.
8. My neighbor and I like to go shopping together, so that _____ can help each other choose what to buy.
9. Her daughter likes to study, because _____ finds the work interesting.
10. The car is in good condition, but _____ needs a new muffler.

Answers

2. Paying attention to the meanings of the sentences below, fill in each blank with **he**, **she**, **it**, **we** or **they**, and underline the antecedent of the pronoun. For example:

My grandfather does not want to retire, because __ likes his work.
My grandfather does not want to retire, because he likes his work.

His wife will be there if __ can find a baby-sitter.
His wife will be there if she can find a baby-sitter.

The bicycle must be repaired before __ can be ridden again.
The bicycle must be repaired before it can be ridden again.

My cousin and I live in different towns, but __ write to each other often.
My cousin and I live in different towns, but we write to each other often.

The bananas are quite soft, but ___ can be used in banana cake.
The bananas are quite soft, but they can be used in banana cake.

1. When the moon is full, _____ rises just as the sun sets.
2. Tracy and I like spending time together, because _____ share many interests.
3. When my uncle was young, _____ enjoyed playing soccer.
4. The students worked hard, because _____ were anxious to complete the assignment.
5. When the lady entered the hotel, _____ asked to speak with the manager.
6. The man was surprised when _____ heard the news.
7. My friend and I had to leave early so that _____ could catch the bus.
8. I liked the picture so much that I had _____ framed.
9. Your grandmother is old, but _____ is still beautiful.
10. The boats look picturesque when _____ are tied up in the harbor.

Answers

3. The underlined pronouns in the following sentences are ambiguous, since it is not obvious to which antecedents they refer. For each sentence, first underline the two possible antecedents of the pronoun. Then make the sentence unambiguous by choosing one of the antecedents and repeating it, instead of using the pronoun. When repeating the antecedent, it is also necessary to repeat any words which modify it. For example:

I invited the woman and her sister, but she could not come.
I invited the woman and her sister, but her sister could not come.
or I invited the woman and her sister, but the woman could not come.

George gave Tom a book. Then he went home.
George gave Tom a book. Then Tom went home.
or George gave Tom a book. Then George went home.

The boys challenged the girls to a game, but they did not play well.
The boys challenged the girls to a game, but the boys did not play well.
or The boys challenged the girls to a game, but the girls did not play well.

1. I used your pen to finish the assignment, but then I lost it.

2. My father told my uncle the story, but he did not believe it.
3. When the students met the teachers for the first time, they were not sure what to expect.
4. The girl was dressed like her mother, except that she was not wearing a hat.
5. The man had arranged to meet his son at four o'clock, but he was late.
6. The box was the same size as the trunk, but it was much heavier.
7. The lady wanted to visit my aunt, but she had to leave town unexpectedly.
8. The riders slowed down their horses because they were growing tired.
9. The butterfly was sitting close to the flower, but it could not be seen in the photograph.
10. The cups were supposed to match the saucers, but they were a lighter shade of blue.

Answers

4. Rewrite each of the following sentences, using the construction with the pronoun **it**, followed by the verb, followed by an infinitive. For example:

Traveling by ship was quite relaxing.
It was quite relaxing to travel by ship.

Finding the right path could take a long time.
It could take a long time to find the right path.

1. Paying close attention can be crucial.
2. Crossing the mountains would be very difficult.
3. Learning everything was not easy.
4. Skiing down the mountain was exciting.
5. Walking on a glacier can be dangerous.
6. Visiting Rome was a wonderful experience.

Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the personal pronoun which agrees with the underlined word. The objective case must be used, since the pronouns in these sentences are the objects of verbs. For example:

I am looking for the post office. Can you help __?
I am looking for the post office. Can you help me?

Since you are new here, I will show ___ the way.
Since you are new here, I will show you the way.

If my father is at home, I will ask ___ what to do.
If my father is at home, I will ask him what to do.

My aunt and uncle invited me to visit ___.
My aunt and uncle invited me to visit them.

1. Because she is your friend, I offered to help _____.
2. I wish someone would tell _____ the answer.
3. They look familiar. I am sure we have met _____ before.
4. If you are ready, we will drive _____ home.
5. We would like you to call _____.

6. He is our neighbor. We have known _____ for years.
7. This is the book I need. May I borrow _____ ?
8. If you like, I will call _____ when we arrive.
9. We were surprised they remembered _____.
10. That man waved to us, but I do not recognize _____.
11. I think they expect _____ to come.
12. The piano is out of tune, but I am having _____ tuned tomorrow.
13. Will she mind if I ask _____ a question?
14. The beans will grow faster if you water _____.
Answers

6. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the personal pronoun which agrees with the underlined word. Use the subjective case if the pronoun is the subject of a verb, and use the objective case if the pronoun is the object of a verb. For example:

They invited me to come, but __ did not have time.
They invited me to come, but I did not have time.

Just after we had mailed you the letter, ___ called us.
Just after we had mailed you the letter, you called us.

That boy is quite friendly. I like ___.
That boy is quite friendly. I like him.

He offered to lend me two books, but I had read ___ already.
He offered to lend me two books, but I had read them already.

1. I saw your brother after school. _____ lent me his bicycle.
2. Would you like me to help _____ ?
3. My friend and I expect the woman to call _____.
4. If I am ready in time, _____ will meet you there.
5. This woman is one of our relatives, _____ is my husband's cousin.
6. Her grandfather is a wise man. Everybody respects _____.
7. The chimney is old. _____ needs to be repaired.
8. My sister likes sports. We should invite _____ to join us.
9. Those people are your new neighbors. Have you met _____ yet?
10. She and I will call you if _____ are late.
11. I waited for you for twenty minutes, but _____ did not come.
12. The camera was heavy, but he carried _____ everywhere he went.
13. Some ducks swim underwater when _____ are searching for food.
14. I waved to you. Did you see _____ ?
Answers

7. Paying attention to the case of the personal pronouns, rewrite each of the following sentences so that the meaning is reversed. For example:

We gave them the pen.
They gave us the pen.

I like you.
You like me.

1. She helped us.
2. He asked them to come.
3. I recognized her.
4. You warned me.
5. We reminded them to call.
6. They told him the truth.
7. She invited us for tea.
8. He offered me a sandwich.

Answers

8. Fill in each blank with either the subjective case or the objective case of the pronoun given in brackets. Use the subjective case if the pronoun follows the verb **to be**. Otherwise, use the objective case. For example:

That is __. (he)
That is he.

We remember ___. (he)
We remember him.

It was __ who did it. (we)
It was we who did it.

He threw __ the ball. (we)
He threw us the ball.

1. It was _____. (I)
2. Please hand _____ the book. (I)
3. I told _____ the secret. (she)
4. It was _____ who was here. (she)
5. It was _____ who knew the answer. (they)
6. Let _____ go. (they)
7. This is _____. (he)
8. I knew _____ before. (he)
9. Those were _____. (they)
10. It is _____ who will be there. (we)

Answers

9. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the personal pronoun which agrees with the underlined word. The objective case must be used, since the pronouns in these sentences are the objects of prepositions. For example:

I want you to address the letter to __.
I want you to address the letter to me.

This jar is the largest. Rice was stored in __.
This jar is the largest. Rice was stored in it.

The girl was shy, but we had an enjoyable conversation with ___.
The girl was shy, but we had an enjoyable conversation with her.

We went to the post office, but there was no mail for __.
We went to the post office, but there was no mail for us.

1. They want us to go with _____.
2. I would like you to wrap this gift for _____.
3. She thinks we are talking about _____.
4. The wall was so high that I could not see over _____.
5. Your nephew wants us to write to _____.
6. You should ask them to send it to _____.
7. Nancy and I would like you to come with _____.
8. He asked us to wait for _____.
9. I would be grateful if you would explain this to _____.
10. Because you were late, we saved some food for _____.
11. We told you that the costumes were designed by _____.
12. The swans were so beautiful that we wrote a song about _____.
13. The car is worth more than you paid for _____.
14. Your daughter wants me to read to _____.

Answers

10. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the personal pronoun which agrees with the underlined word. Use the subjective case if the pronoun is the subject of a verb, and use the objective case if the pronoun is the object of a verb or the object of a preposition. For example:

They looked at me, but __ did not recognize them.
They looked at me, but I did not recognize them.

We told you what would happen, but ___ did not listen.
We told you what would happen, but you did not listen.

We saw them, but they did not see __.
We saw them, but they did not see us.

They asked us a question, but we could not tell ____ the answer.
They asked us a question, but we could not tell them the answer.

Their son did not know the way, but we pointed it out to ___.
Their son did not know the way, but we pointed it out to him.

The girl is so mischievous, we do not know what to do with ___.
The girl is so mischievous, we do not know what to do with her.

1. His father works hard. _____ is a doctor.
2. Because the woman seemed friendly, we asked _____ for directions.
3. The cupboards are so full, we cannot put anything else into _____.
4. You will be surprised if we beat _____ in the race.
5. Have you been looking for me? _____ had to run an errand.
6. My niece wants us to send the photographs to _____.
7. We have invited them to visit _____.
8. The store was open, but we did not have time to go into _____.
9. She will be angry if we make fun of _____.

10. You and I are good friends, _____ hardly ever argue.
11. Your son-in-law asked us to describe it to _____.
12. The windows are very stiff. We open _____ only in the summer.
13. The basket is heavy. _____ is full of oranges.
14. Your husband does not like anyone to contradict _____.
15. I hope you were not anxious about _____.
16. Would you like me to mail the information to _____
17. The leaves rustled in the breeze, _____ were already starting to change color.
18. The road was long, but we followed _____ to the end.
19. I asked him to tell _____ the time.
20. You will enjoy yourself if _____ come to the concert.
21. We want you to wait for _____.

Answers

11. Fill in each blank with the possessive adjective which agrees with the underlined antecedent. For example:

I am looking for __ keys.
I am looking for my keys.

The lady left ___ gloves on the counter.
The lady left her gloves on the counter.

Personal pronouns must agree with _____ antecedents.
Personal pronouns must agree with their antecedents.

1. I opened _____ book.
2. Did the man finish _____ work?
3. The bear is licking _____ paws.
4. Please show us to _____ seats.
5. She has already purchased _____ ticket.
6. Have you heard from _____ friends recently?
7. The students live near _____ school.
8. The gentleman would like to have _____ watch repaired.
9. We eat _____ breakfast at the same time every morning.
10. That woman always walks _____ dog in the park.
11. I would like to renew _____ subscription.
12. The eagle was holding something in _____ claws.
13. Will you give me _____ address?
14. The gymnasts asked _____ coach for advice.

Answers

12. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the possessive adjective which agrees with the noun or pronoun shown in brackets. For example:

___ barking kept us awake. (the dog)
Its barking kept us awake.

___ arriving on time was fortunate. (we)
Our arriving on time was fortunate.

_____ swooping and darting was a sign that it would rain. (the swallows)

Their swooping and darting was a sign that it would rain.

1. _____ following the guidelines was a good idea. (you)
2. _____ agreeing to forward the mail was helpful. (the students)
3. _____ answering the questions so easily was unexpected. (he)
4. _____ driving the car saved a great deal of time. (I)
5. _____ speaking so forcefully impressed the audience. (the woman)
6. _____ entering the race was intended as a gesture of goodwill. (we)
7. _____ chiming told us the time. (the clock)

Answers

13. Fill in each blank with the possessive pronoun which agrees with the underlined antecedent. For example:

If you cannot find your pen, I will lend you ____.
If you cannot find your pen, I will lend you mine.

I failed my exams, but my brother passed ___.
I failed my exams, but my brother passed his.

Their umbrellas are rather tattered, but we have mended ____.
Their umbrellas are rather tattered, but we have mended ours.

1. Your coat may be warm, but I think _____ is more elegant.
2. Because I had no gloves, my niece offered me _____.
3. I forgot to bring my camera. Did you bring _____.
4. When I lost my map, your son lent me _____.
5. They discarded their old telephone directories, but we kept _____.
6. We have not planted our peas yet, but the farmers have planted _____ already.
7. I never cut my hair, but my sister cuts _____ once a month.
8. The neighbors' children are very independent, but we have to help _____.
9. We store our bicycles in the shed, but they leave _____ outside.
10. I water my plants every day, but you never water _____.
11. Although she likes her school, I prefer _____.
12. My niece studies for all her tests, but my nephew refuses to study for _____.

Answers

14. Fill in each blank with either the possessive adjective or the possessive pronoun which agrees with the underlined antecedent. Remember that the possessive adjective must precede a noun or gerund, whereas the possessive pronoun is used independently. For example:

Last night I wrote to __ sister.
Last night I wrote to my sister.

I thought the book was yours, but in fact, it was ____.
I thought the book was yours, but in fact, it was mine.

She has ordered ___ tickets in advance.
She has ordered her tickets in advance.

Although they do not know it yet, the prize is _____.

Although they do not know it yet, the prize is theirs.

The rain continued ___ pattering on the roof.
The rain continued its pattering on the roof.

1. I always enjoy _____ vacation.
2. I mailed my letter. Did you mail _____?
3. He is eager to try out _____ skis.
4. I am sure _____ handling of the situation was correct.
5. I rarely use a car, but they drive _____ everywhere.
6. My aunt visits _____ cousins once a year.
7. We are proud of _____ record.
8. I have never met your children. Have you met _____?
9. The gate swung noiselessly on _____ hinges.
10. I have received my diploma, but she has not yet received _____.
11. Have you filled out _____ application?
12. The bird continued _____ twittering long after dusk.
13. They are going to sublet _____ apartment.
14. I got my driver's license last month, but he got _____ a year ago.
15. Most businesses try to expand, but we have kept _____ small.
16. They saw _____ friend on television.
17. I finished my assignment yesterday. Have you finished _____?

Answers

15. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the reflexive pronoun which agrees with the underlined word. For example:

I found _____ in a difficult situation.
I found myself in a difficult situation.

The children warmed _____ in front of the fire.
The children warmed themselves in front of the fire.

1. He should take better care of _____.
2. You may help _____.
3. I saw it _____.
4. She likes to involve _____ in community affairs.
5. We could see _____ reflected in the mirror.
6. The bird perched _____ on the window sill.
7. The students found the solution _____.
8. You _____ must decide what to do.
9. The teenagers amused _____ by telephoning their friends.
10. We _____ were surprised at the news.
11. He likes to hear _____ talk.
12. She prides _____ on her ability to speak French.
13. I told _____ not to lose hope.
14. The fox hid _____ under a bush.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 18

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. they 2. we 3. it 4. she 5. he 6. they 7. he 8. we 9. she 10. it

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. it 2. we 3. he 4. they 5. she 6. he 7. we 8. it 9. she 10. they

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. your pen **or** the assignment 2. my father **or** my uncle 3. the students **or** the teachers 4. the girl **or** her mother 5. the man **or** his son 6. the box **or** the trunk 7. the lady or my aunt 8. the riders **or** their horses 9. the butterfly **or** the flower 10. the cups **or** the saucers

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. It can be crucial to pay close attention. 2. It would be very difficult to cross the mountains. 3. It was not easy to learn everything. 4. It was exciting to ski down the mountain. 5. It can be dangerous to walk on a glacier. 6. It was a wonderful experience to visit Rome.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. her 2. me 3. them 4. you 5. us 6. him 7. it 8. you 9. us 10. him 11. me 12. it 13. her 14. them

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. He 2. you 3. us 4. I 5. She 6. him 7. It 8. her 9. them 10. we 11. you 12. it 13. they 14. me

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. We helped her. 2. They asked him to come. 3. She recognized me. 4. I warned you. 5. They reminded us to call. 6. He told them the truth. 7. We invited her for tea. 8. I offered him a sandwich.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. I 2. me 3. her 4. she 5. they 6. them 7. he 8. him 9. they 10. we

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. them 2. me 3. her 4. it 5. him 6. you 7. us 8. him 9. me 10. you 11. us 12. them 13. it 14. her

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. He 2. her 3. them 4. you 5. I 6. her 7. us 8. it 9. her 10. We 11. him 12. them 13. It 14. him 15. me 16. you 17. They 18. it 19. me 20. you 21. us

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. my 2. his 3. its 4. our 5. her 6. your 7. their 8. his 9. our 10. her 11. my 12. its 13. your 14. their

Answers to Exercise 12:

1. Your 2. Their 3. His 4. My 5. Her 6. Our 7. Its

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. mine 2. hers 3. yours 4. his 5. ours 6. theirs 7. hers 8. ours 9. theirs 10. yours 11. mine 12. his

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. my 2. yours 3. his 4. my 5. theirs 6. her 7. our 8. mine 9. its 10. hers 11. your 12. its 13. their 14. his 15. ours 16. their 17. yours

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. himself 2. yourself **or** yourselves 3. myself 4. herself 5. ourselves 6. itself 7. themselves 8. yourself **or** yourselves 9. themselves 10. ourselves 11. himself 12. herself 13. myself 14. itself

CHAPTER 19. OTHER PRONOUNS

1. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns may be used without antecedents. The indefinite pronouns in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. One cannot believe everything one hears.
I will try to think of something.
Nobody will believe it!
Is there anyone here by the name of Smith?

The following are examples of indefinite pronouns:

one		
anyone	anybody	anything
everyone	everybody	everything
[no one]	nobody	nothing
someone	somebody	something

All of the pronouns listed above take verbs in the third person singular. The phrase **no one** is used like the other indefinite pronouns, but is spelled as two separate words.

The pronoun **one** can refer to persons or things.
e.g. One of the boys will help you.
Please hand me one of the boxes.

However, when used in a general sense, the pronoun **one** is usually understood as referring to persons.
e.g. One should always look both ways before crossing the street.

In addition, the other indefinite pronouns ending in **one**, and the indefinite pronouns ending in **body**, generally refer to persons. The indefinite pronouns ending in **thing** generally refer to things.

Unlike most of the personal pronouns, the indefinite pronouns have the same form in

the objective case as in the subjective case. As shown in the following table, the indefinite pronouns which refer to persons form possessive adjectives by adding **'s**.

Indefinite Pronoun	Possessive Adjective
one	one's
anyone	anyone's
everyone	everyone's
no one	no one's
someone	someone's
anybody	anybody's
everybody	everybody's
nobody	nobody's
somebody	somebody's

The indefinite pronouns which refer to things usually do not form possessive adjectives.

a. The use of One in general statements
The indefinite pronoun **one** is used in formal English to make general statements.
e.g. By working systematically, one may achieve the results one desires.
In legal matters, one must always make sure of one's facts.

When used in this way, **one** refers to persons in general, and has the reflexive form **oneself**.
e.g. One should prepare oneself to deal with any emergency.

In informal English, the personal pronoun **you** is usually used in making general statements. Thus, in informal English, the ideas in the above sentences might be expressed:
e.g. By working systematically, you may achieve the results you desire.
In legal matters, you must always make sure of your facts.
You should prepare yourself to deal with any emergency.

Occasionally, the pronoun **we** is used in general statements. This use of the pronoun **we** is most likely to occur in formal speeches.
e.g. By working systematically, we may achieve the results we desire.
In legal matters, we must always make sure of our facts.
We should prepare ourselves to deal with any emergency.

It is considered grammatically incorrect to use more than one type of pronoun in a general statement such as those given above. For instance, if a general statement is begun using the pronoun **one**, the pronoun **one** must be used throughout the statement. As shown above, the possessive adjectives and reflexive pronouns in a general statement must agree with their antecedents.

The following table summarizes the forms of the personal pronouns and the indefinite pronoun **one**.

Summary of the Forms of the Personal Pronouns and One

Subjective	Objective	Possessive	Possessive	Reflexive

Case	Case	Adjective	Pronoun	Pronoun
I	we	my	mine	myself
you	you	your	yours	yourself
he	him	his	his	himself
she	her	her	hers	herself
it	it	its	[its]	itself
we	us	our	ours	ourselves
you	you	your	yours	yourselves
they	them	their	theirs	themselves
one	one	one's		oneself

See Exercise 1.

In formal English, it is considered grammatically correct to use the adjective **his** to agree with indefinite pronouns such as **anyone** and **everyone**.
e.g. Everyone took his seat.

However, it is considered less discriminatory to use a phrase such as **his or her** to agree with such pronouns.
e.g. Everyone took his or her seat.

In informal English, the problem of gender is often avoided by the use of the plural adjective **their**.
e.g. Everyone took their seat.
However, this use of **their** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

2. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns refer to persons or things which are acting on each other. In English, the following two phrases are used as reciprocal pronouns:

each other
one another

Both phrases may be used to refer to either persons or things.
e.g. You and I saw each other last week.
The houses faced each other.

The two friends helped one another with their work.
The wires were touching one another.

3. Demonstrative pronouns

The words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** are used to indicate specific persons or things. In the following examples, the words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** are used independently,

and can be referred to as **demonstrative pronouns**.
e.g. This is an apple pie.
That is a good idea.
These are my friends.
Those are maple trees.

The words **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** can also be used immediately preceding a noun, in which case they can be referred to as **demonstrative adjectives**.
e.g. This pie is made with apples.
That idea seems practical.
These people are my friends.
Those trees are maples.
In the preceding examples, **this**, **that**, **these** and **those** act as adjectives, modifying the nouns **pie**, **idea**, **people** and **trees**, respectively.

This and **these** are used to indicate persons or things that are close to the speaker or writer. **This** takes a singular verb, and is used when referring to a single person or thing.
e.g. This is my brother.
This book belongs to him.

These takes a plural verb, and is used when referring to more than one person or thing.
e.g. These are my brothers.
These books belong to him.

See Exercise 2.

That and **those** are used to indicate persons or things that are at a distance from the speaker or writer. **That** takes a singular verb, and is used when referring to a single person or thing.
e.g. That is a computer.
That woman is a professor.

Those takes a plural verb, and is used when referring to more than one person or thing.
e.g. Those are computers.
Those women are professors.

See Exercise 3.

The use of **this**, **these**, **that** and **those** is summarized in the following table.

	Location Indicated	Singular or Plural
This	Close to speaker or writer	Singular
These	Close to speaker or writer	Plural
That	Distant from speaker or writer	Singular
Those	Distant from speaker or writer	Plural

See Exercises 4 and 5.

4. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions. The pronouns **who**, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative pronouns.
e.g. Who telephoned?
What did you say?
Which is your brother?

a. Direct questions

Interrogative pronouns can be placed at the beginning of a sentence in order to ask a question. Such questions can be referred to as **direct questions**.

In a direct question, when the interrogative pronoun is the subject of a verb, the verb follows the subject. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined, and the subjects of the verbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. **What** has happened?
Who has been invited?
In these examples, **what** is the subject of the verb **has happened**, and **who** is the subject of the verb **has been invited**. The presence of the interrogative pronoun transforms the statement into a question, and a question mark must be used.

When the interrogative pronoun is the object of the verb or the object of a preposition, inverted word order must be used, with the first auxiliary preceding the subject of the verb. In the case of verbs in the Simple Present or Simple Past, the auxiliary **do** or **did** must be used.
e.g. What do **you** mean?
Which did **she** choose?
What is **he** doing?
To what can **one** attribute their success?

In the preceding examples, the subjects **you**, **she**, **he** and **one** are preceded by the auxiliaries **do**, **did**, **is** and **can**. In the first three examples, **what** and **which** are the objects of the verbs. In the fourth example, **what** is the object of the preposition **to**.

See Exercise 6.

b. The pronoun Who

The pronoun **who** usually refers only to persons. Unlike the other interrogative pronouns, **who** changes its form depending on the case, as shown in the following table.

Subjective Case	Objective Case	Possessive Case
who	whom	whose

i. Who

When **who** is the subject of a verb, the subjective case must be used.
e.g. **Who** opened the door?
Who will help me?

It should be noted that when **who** is used with the verb **to be**, or with verbs in the Passive Voice, the subjective case must usually be used, since such verbs cannot take an object.
e.g. **Who** is it?
Who was the fastest runner?
Who will be there?
Who has been elected?
The first three examples above illustrate the use of **who** with the verb **to be**. The fourth example illustrates the use of **who** with a verb in the Passive Voice.

ii. Whom
In formal English, when the pronoun **who** is the object of a verb or the object of a preposition, the objective form **whom** must be used.
e.g. Whom did you see downtown?
To whom did you send the invitations?
In the first example, **whom** is the object of the verb **see**. In the second example, **whom** is the object of the preposition **to**.

In informal English, the form **who** is often used for the objective as well as for the subjective case. For instance, in informal English, the preceding examples might be expressed **Who did you see downtown?** and **Who did you send the invitations to?** However, this use of **who** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

See Exercise 7.

iii. Whose
The form **whose** can be used either as a possessive adjective followed by a noun, or as a possessive pronoun.
e.g. Whose books are these?
Whose are these?
In the first example, **whose** is used as a possessive adjective, followed by the noun **books**. In the second example, **whose** is used as a possessive pronoun.

The possessive form **whose** expresses the idea of **belonging to**. For instance, the idea expressed in the sentence: **Whose books are these?** could also be expressed by the sentence: **To whom do these books belong?**

See Exercise 8.

c. What and Which
What and **which** can be used either as interrogative pronouns, or as interrogative adjectives followed by nouns.
e.g. What is that?
Which is his sister?
What time is it?
Which woman is his sister?
In the first two examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative pronouns. In the last two examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative adjectives preceding the nouns **time** and **woman**.

When used as adjectives or as interrogative pronouns, **what** and **which** can refer to either persons or things. In the following examples, **what** and **which** are used as interrogative adjectives referring to persons and things.
e.g. What girl would not like to own a horse?
What color are the apples?
Which boy is the best horseback rider?
Which road leads to Chicago?

However, it should be noted that when used as a relative pronoun, **which** can refer only to things. Relative pronouns will be discussed later in this chapter.

Which as an adjective or interrogative pronoun usually implies a choice of one or more things from a limited number of alternatives.
e.g. Which apple would you like?
Which children were ready on time?
The first example implies a choice of one apple from two or more apples. The second example implies that an answer is expected which will indicate certain children from a limited group of children.

In contrast, **what** as an adjective or interrogative pronoun is usually used in order to ask for general information.
e.g. What time is it?
What does he want?

What can also be used in exclamations. For instance, the exclamation **What!** can be used to express surprise or disbelief. The following are other examples of the use of **what** in exclamations.
e.g. What nonsense!
What a shame!
What a beautiful day!
In written English, an exclamation must be followed by an exclamation mark: **!** It should be noted that exclamations often do not contain verbs.

As illustrated above, when an exclamatory **what** precedes a singular, countable noun, the word **what** must be followed by **a** or **an**.
e.g. What a coincidence!
What an elegant dress!

See Exercise 9.

d. Indirect questions
As well as being used at the beginning of direct questions, interrogative pronouns and adjectives can also be used at the beginning of **indirect** questions.

Whereas a direct question forms a complete sentence in itself, an indirect question is part of a longer sentence. The following examples show the difference between a direct question and an indirect question.
e.g. Who is there?
He wants to know who is there.
Will you tell me who is there?

In the first example, **Who is there?** is a direct question. In the second example, **who is there** is an indirect question which is part of a longer statement. In the third example, **who is there** is an indirect question which is part of a longer question.

i. Interrogative word as the subject
When the interrogative word is the subject of a verb, or modifies the subject of a verb, the word order of an indirect question is usually the same as that of a direct question. In the following examples, the verbs of the direct and indirect questions are underlined, and their subjects are printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: **What** has happened?
Indirect Question: We shall ask **what** has happened.

Direct Question: Which **child** won the race?
Indirect Question: They will ask which **child** won the race.

In the first pair of examples, the interrogative pronoun **what** is the subject of the verb **has happened**. In the second pair of examples, the interrogative adjective **which** modifies **child**, the subject of the verb **won**. In both pairs of examples, the word order of the indirect questions is the same as that of the direct questions.

ii. Interrogative word as the object of a verb or preposition
When the interrogative word is the object of a verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition, the word order of an indirect question differs from that of a direct question. In a direct question, the first auxiliary precedes the subject, and the auxiliary **to do** must be used for verbs in the Simple Present and Simple Past. In an indirect question, the subject precedes the verb, and the auxiliary **to do** is not used. Thus, in an indirect question, the word order used is the same as that used for an affirmative statement.

This difference in word order is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. Direct Question: What is **he** doing?
Indirect Question: I will ask what **he** is doing.

Direct Question: What story did **they** tell you?
Indirect Question: I wonder what story **they** told you.

Direct Question: Which does **she** prefer?
Indirect Question: We asked which **she** prefers.

Direct Question: Whom did **he** meet?
Indirect Question: Tell me whom **he** met.

Direct Question: To whom has **she** sent the invitations?
Indirect Question: They will ask to whom **she** has sent the invitations.

Direct Question: For which friend did **they** make the arrangements?
Indirect Question: Do you know for which friend **they** made the arrangements?

As illustrated in the preceding examples, when the interrogative word is the object of a

verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition, the first auxiliary precedes the subject in a direct question, but the subject precedes the verb in an indirect question.

See Exercise 10.

iii. The verb To Be with a noun or pronoun complement
A noun, noun phrase or pronoun which follows the verb **to be** is said to be the **complement** of the verb. When **what** or **who** is followed by both the verb **to be** and a noun or pronoun complement of the verb, the word order of an indirect question usually differs from that of a direct question. As illustrated in the following examples, in a direct question, the verb **to be** is followed by its complement; whereas in an indirect question, the verb **to be** is usually preceded by its complement.

In each of the following examples, the verb **to be** is underlined, and its noun or pronoun complement is printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: What is **that**?
Indirect question: Can you tell me what **that** is?

Direct Question: What was **that noise**?
Indirect Question: I wonder what **that noise** was.

Direct Question: What time is **it**?
Indirect Question: Ask him what time **it** is.

Direct Question: Who is **she**?
Indirect Question: Do you know who **she** is?

Direct question: Who was **that man**?
Indirect Question: I will ask who **that man** was.

Direct Question: Whose shoes are **these**?
Indirect Question: I wonder whose shoes **these** are.

Similarly, when **which** is followed by the verb **to be**, followed by a pronoun, the pronoun complement generally precedes the verb in an indirect question.
e.g. Direct question: Which was **it**?
Indirect Question: I want to know which **it** was.

Direct Question: Which organization is **that**?
Indirect Question: Please ask which organization **that** is.

However, when **which** is followed by the verb **to be** followed by a noun or noun phrase, the noun complement often follows the verb in an indirect question.
e.g. Direct Question: Which is **the right road**?
Indirect Question: Please tell me which is **the right road**.

Direct Question: Which insects are **predators**?
Indirect Question: He wants to know which insects are **predators**.

It should be noted that in sentences with the verb **to be**, the word order of indirect questions differs from that of direct questions only when the verb is accompanied by a noun or pronoun complement.

If the verb **to be** is accompanied by an adjective, the word order of direct and indirect questions is the same. In each of the following examples, the verb **to be** is underlined, and the accompanying adjective is printed in bold type.
e.g. Direct Question: Who is **here**?
Indirect Question: I will ask who is **here**.

Direct Question: Who was **successful**?
Indirect Question: Tell me who was **successful**.

Direct Question: Which answer is **correct**?
Indirect Question: Please tell us which answer is **correct**.

See Exercise 11.

The following table summarizes the variations in word order which occur in direct and indirect questions. The examples of direct questions should be compared with the corresponding examples of indirect questions.

Word order of Direct and Indirect Questions beginning with What, Which and Who

Direct Questions

Type of Question	Word Order
The interrogative word is the **subject** of the verb, or modifies the subject of the verb	Subject precedes verb. Examples: **Who** told her? Which **boy** did it?
The interrogative word is the **object** of a verb or preposition, or modifies the object of a verb or preposition	Subject follows the first auxiliary: What has **he** done? To whom shall **we** send it? Which questions did **she** answer? For which child did **you** buy it?
The verb **to be** is accompanied by a **noun** or **pronoun complement**	The verb **to be** precedes its complement: Who are **their friends**? What was **that**? What time is **it**? Which book was **it**? Which is **the right answer**?

Indirect Questions

Type of Question	Word Order
In **all cases**	Subject precedes verb. Examples: I wonder **who** told her.

	You asked which **boy** did it. She wants to know what **he** has done. He wonders to whom **we** shall send it. I wonder which questions **she** answered. Please tell me for which child **you** bought it.
The verb **to be** is accompanied by a **noun** or **pronoun complement**	The verb **to be** usually follows its complement. Examples: He will ask who **their friends** are. I wonder what **that** was. Do you know what time **it** is? Please tell me which book **it** was. However, in the case of **which**, the verb **to be** often precedes a noun complement. For example: I wonder which is **the right answer**.

See Exercise 12.

5. Relative pronouns

A pronoun which is used to begin a subordinate clause can be referred to as a **relative pronoun**, since it indicates the relationship of the subordinate clause to the rest of the sentence.

For instance, the underlined words in the following sentences are relative pronouns.
e.g. The woman who is standing near the window is a doctor.
The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.
Have you found the book that was missing?
A subordinate clause which is introduced by a relative pronoun is often referred to as a **relative clause**.

a. Defining and non-defining relative clauses
Relative clauses can be divided into two types: those which merely give a description of the object to which they refer, and those which define or identify the object to which they refer.

i. Non-defining relative clauses
When a relative clause merely describes an object without having the function of defining or identifying to which object the speaker or writer is referring, the clause must be placed between commas. Such a clause can be called a **non-defining** or **non-limiting** relative clause.

For instance, in the example:
The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.

the commas indicate that the clause **which was bright red** is a non-defining relative clause. In other words, this sentence implies that it has already been made clear to which door the speaker or writer is referring, and the clause **which was bright red** merely provides additional, descriptive information about the door.

Whereas in written English the presence of a non-defining relative clause is indicated by the use of commas, in spoken English the presence of such a clause is indicated by slightly emphasizing the word immediately preceding the clause, and the last word of the clause. In the following example, the emphasized words are underlined.
e.g. The door, which was bright red, was very conspicuous.

It should be noted that when material written in English is read aloud, the presence of a comma is usually indicated by a slight pause.

ii. Defining relative clauses
When a relative clause has the function of defining or identifying the object being referred to, the clause is not placed between commas. Such a clause can be called a **defining** or **limiting** relative clause.

For instance, in the example:
The woman who is standing near the window is a doctor.
the absence of commas indicates that the clause **who is standing near the window** is a defining relative clause. In other words, the clause has the function of identifying to which woman the speaker or writer is referring.

See Exercise 13.

b. That
When used as a relative pronoun, **that** can refer to either persons or things. The relative pronoun **that** is generally used only in defining relative clauses. In the following examples, the relative clauses are underlined.
e.g. The people that were here yesterday will return in a month.
The newspaper that was on the steps belongs to our neighbor.
In these examples, **that** has the antecedents **people** and **newspaper**, and introduces the defining relative clauses **that were here yesterday** and **that was on the steps**.

In the preceding examples, **that** acts as the subject of the verbs **were** and **was**. When it acts as the object of a verb or preposition, the relative pronoun **that** can usually be omitted.
e.g. The books that we bought are heavy.
The town that this road leads to is five miles away.

In the first sentence, **that** acts as the object of the verb **bought**. In the second sentence, **that** acts as the object of the preposition **to**. The following examples show how the above sentences can be rewritten without the use of **that**.
The books we bought are heavy.
The town this road leads to is five miles away.

c. Which
As was pointed out in an earlier section, when used as an adjective or interrogative

pronoun, **which** can refer to either persons or things. However, it is important to note that when used as a relative pronoun, **which** can refer only to things.

The relative pronoun **which** can be used in either defining or non-defining relative clauses.
e.g. The suitcase which we purchased last week is very strong.
The sack, which was full of rocks, was too heavy to lift.
In the first example, **which** has the antecedent **suitcase**, and introduces the defining relative clause **which we purchased last week**. In the second example, **which** has the antecedent **sack**, and introduces the non-defining relative clause **which was full of rocks**.

d. Who, Whom and Whose
The use of **who**, **whom** and **whose** as relative pronouns is similar to their use as interrogative pronouns. **Who** is used as the subject of a verb, **whom** is used as the object of a verb or the object of a preposition, and **whose** is used as an adjective indicating possession. The relative pronouns **who**, **whom** and **whose** can generally refer only to persons, and can be used either in defining or non-defining relative clauses.

In the following examples, **who** introduces the defining relative clause **who runs the fastest** and the non-defining relative clause **who is studying German**.
e.g. The child who runs the fastest will receive a prize.
My sister, who is studying German, wants to travel to Switzerland.
In these examples, **who** has the antecedents **child** and **sister**, and acts as the subject of the verbs **runs** and **is studying**.

In the following examples, **whom** introduces the defining relative clause **whom we visited** and the non-defining relative clause **whom we will meet tomorrow**.
e.g. The boy whom we visited is her nephew.
Mr. Henry, whom we will meet tomorrow, will be our guide.
In these examples, **whom** has the antecedents **boy** and **Mr. Henry**, and acts as the object of the verbs **visited** and **will meet**.

In the following examples, **to whom** introduces the defining relative clause **to whom you sold your skis** and the non-defining relative clause **to whom we send a birthday card every year**.
e.g. The girl to whom you sold your skis lives in the next block.
His uncle, to whom we send a birthday card every year, is ninety-one years old.
In these examples, **whom** has the antecedents **girl** and **uncle**, and is the object of the preposition **to**.

In the following examples, **whose** introduces the defining relative clause **whose house was sold** and the non-defining relative clause **whose family lives in Europe**.
e.g. The woman whose house was sold will retire to the country.
My cousin, whose family lives in Europe, will visit us for a few weeks.
In these examples, **whose** has the antecedents **woman** and **cousin**, and modifies the nouns **house** and **family**. In the case of **whose**, it should be noted that it is the antecedent which must be a person; the noun being modified may be a person or a thing.

See Exercises 14 and 15.

In informal English, **whose** at the beginning of a clause is occasionally used to refer not only to persons, but also to things, in order to make a simpler sentence. For example, the following sentence is considered grammatically correct in formal English.
e.g. The tree, the branches of which overhung the street, was covered with blossoms.
In informal English, the phrase **the branches of which** might be replaced by **whose branches**, as illustrated in the following example.
e.g. The tree, whose branches overhung the street, was covered with blossoms.
However, this use of **whose** is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

e. Comparison of the use of That, Which and Who
The use of the relative pronouns **that**, **which** and **who** is summarized in the following table.

Relative Pronoun	Type of Clause	Type of Antecedent
that	defining clause only	persons or things
which	defining or non-defining	things only
who/whom/whose	defining or non-defining	persons only

From the preceding table it can be inferred that in the case of defining relative clauses, **that** may be used to replace **who**, **whom** or **which**. For instance, the following sentences:

The boy whom we saw is her brother.
The hat which you are wearing is rather large.

could be rewritten:

The boy that we saw is her brother.
The hat that you are wearing is rather large.

Like the relative pronoun **that**, **whom** and **which** can generally be omitted when they act as the object of the verb in a relative clause. Thus, the preceding sentences could also be rewritten:

The boy we saw is her brother.
The hat you are wearing is rather large.

It should be noted that when **whom** or **which** is the object of a preposition, the preposition immediately precedes the relative pronoun.
e.g. The boy to whom we sent the message was excited.
The room to which you will be conducted has beautiful furniture.
In these examples, **whom** and **which** are immediately preceded by the preposition **to**.

However, when the relative pronoun **that** is the object of a preposition, the preposition is normally placed at the end of the relative clause. For instance, if **that** is used, the second example must be rewritten as follows:

The room that you will be conducted to has beautiful furniture.

f. Other relative pronouns
Relative pronouns such as **what**, **whatever** and **whoever** are normally used without

antecedents. When used as a relative pronoun, **what** has the meaning **the thing or things that**.
e.g. What you say is true.
What he did was wrong.
In these examples, the relative pronoun **what** introduces the clauses **what you say** and **what he did**. Such clauses are often referred to as **noun clauses**, since they can serve some of the functions of a noun. For instance, in the preceding sentences, the clause **what you say** acts as the subject of the verb **is**, and the clause **what he did** acts as the subject of the verb **was**.

Whatever has the meaning **no matter what**, or **anything which**. **Whoever** has the meaning **no matter who**, or **anyone who**.
e.g. You can tell me whatever you like.
Let in whoever comes to the door.
In these examples, the noun clauses **whatever you like** and **whoever comes to the door** act as the objects of the verbs in the main clauses.

EXERCISES for Chapter 19

1. For each of the following general statements, change all of the pronouns and possessive adjectives to agree with the pronoun given in brackets. For example:
We must work to keep our environment healthy. (you)
You must work to keep your environment healthy.

You should always pay your income tax before the deadline. (one)
One should always pay one's income tax before the deadline.

One should not think only of oneself. (we)
We should not think only of ourselves.

1. We should work in order to realize our ambitions. (one)
2. When you are overworked, you should try to give yourself time to relax. (we)
3. One can never be sure whether one's intuitions are correct. (you)
4. If one organizes one's time properly, one can accomplish a great deal. (we)
5. If you own property, you should protect yourself with a good insurance policy. (one)
6. We should never be afraid to state our views. (you)
7. One should try to educate oneself as well as possible. (you)
8. We should try to teach our children a sense of responsibility. (one)
9. One can choose one's friends, but one cannot choose one's relatives. (we)
10. We become mature when we learn to trust our own judgement. (you)
11. You learn from your mistakes. (we)
12. You should always treat your friends well. (one)

Answers

2. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **this** or **these**. Use **this** to refer to a single person or thing, and use **these** to refer to more than one person or thing. For example:
____ is her bicycle.
This is her bicycle.

Is ____ jacket too large?
Is this jacket too large?

_____ are our books.
These are our books.

_____ boots are warm.
These boots are warm.

1. Does _____ bus go downtown?
2. _____ are their suitcases.
3. _____ is his camera.
4. _____ trees are over one hundred years old.
5. Is _____ flower a daffodil?
6. _____ women will perform the skit.
7. _____ is the main entrance.
8. _____ lakes are very deep.
9. _____ is their school.
10. Are _____ radishes?

Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **that** or **those**. Use **that** to refer to a single person or thing, and use **those** to refer to more than one person or thing. For example:

____ is a hovercraft.
That is a hovercraft.

____ plane flies to Geneva.
That plane flies to Geneva.

_____ are peacocks.
Those are peacocks.

Are _____ children on vacation?
Are those children on vacation?

1. _____ is his pen.
2. _____ girls are Australian.
3. Has _____ chair been painted?
4. _____ watches are not expensive.
5. Does _____ train usually arrive on time?
6. Was _____ your friend?
7. _____ are my cousins.
8. _____ is a swan.
9. Do _____ notebooks belong to you?
10. _____ are the places we will visit.

Answers

4. Rewrite the following sentences, changing the subjects and verbs from the singular to the plural. For example:

Is this ready?
Are these ready?

This towel is fluffy.
These towels are fluffy.

That measures the temperature.
Those measure the temperature.

That pail is made of aluminum.
Those pails are made of aluminum.

1. This was finished last week.
2. Is that radiator working?
3. This picture is ours.
4. That has been completed.
5. This was designed by his aunt.
6. That does not need to be altered.
7. This table is made of wood.
8. Has that student seen the play?
9. This umbrella is new.
10. That river flows through the mountains.

Answers

5. Rewrite the following sentences, changing the subjects and verbs from the plural to the singular. For example:

These were on sale.
This was on sale.

Are these books interesting?
Is this book interesting?

Those have been useful.
That has been useful.

Those plays were popular.
That play was popular.

1. These were necessary.
2. Those colors are beautiful.
3. Are these bells too loud?
4. Have those been polished?
5. These shirts are clean.
6. Those windows are on the west side of the house.
7. Are these correct?
8. These boys like to play soccer.
9. Those are sufficient.
10. Those curtains are crimson.

Answers

6. Paying attention to correct word order, arrange each of the following sets of words to form questions beginning with interrogative pronouns which are the objects of the verbs. If necessary, add the auxiliary **do**, **does** or **did**. For example:

you, prefer, which
Which do you prefer?

they, heard, what
What did they hear?

we, have found, what
What have we found?

I, should choose, which
Which should I choose?

1. they, have decided, what
2. you, want, which
3. I, should wear, what
4. she, said, what
5. he, likes, what
6. you, are reading, what
7. one, can do, what
8. they, bought, which
9. he, will be studying, what
10. I, saw, which
11. she, expects, what
12. they, had discovered, what
13. it, costs, what
14. you, would have done, what
15. he, will submit, which
16. she, received, what

Answers

7. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the interrogative pronoun **who** or **whom**. Use **who** if the pronoun is the subject of the verb, and use **whom** if the pronoun is the object of the verb or the object of a preposition. For example:

___ is there?
Who is there?

___ has been notified?
Who has been notified?

____ are we expecting?
Whom are we expecting?

For ____ did you buy the flowers?
For whom did you buy the flowers?

1. _____ has read the book?
2. To _____ did he give the letter?

3. _____ is at the door?
4. _____ was awarded the prize?
5. _____ did he tell?
6. _____ answered the question correctly?
7. _____ does she like the best?
8. _____ would be the most suitable person for the job?
9. For _____ are they waiting?
10. _____ has been informed of the situation?
11. _____ can we ask?
12. _____ will be ready by eight o'clock?
13. _____ is watering the flowers?
14. _____ did you photograph?
15. _____ attended the meeting?
16. _____ was at the party?
17. _____ could be heard most easily?
18. _____ do you believe?
19. To _____ did you sell your car?
20. _____ will be waiting for us?

Answers

8. Paying attention to grammatically correct usage, for each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **who**, **whom** or **whose**. In these sentences, use **whose** only as a possessive adjective, preceding a noun. For example:

___ is raking the leaves?
Who is raking the leaves?

____ did you call?
Whom did you call?

To ____ was he speaking?
To whom was he speaking?

_____ bicycle is leaning against the steps?
Whose bicycle is leaning against the steps?

1. By _____ was this written?
2. _____ gloves are lying on the table?
3. _____ lives here?
4. _____ did they help?
5. _____ child is this?
6. _____ was allowed to enter the competition?
7. _____ handwriting is the most legible?
8. With _____ was she speaking?
9. _____ sang the song?
10. _____ does she know?
11. _____ shoes are these?
12. _____ will make the cake?
13. _____ was present?
14. _____ curiosity would not be aroused by such a tale?
15. _____ will he teach?

Answers

9. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with either **what** or **which**. For example:

____ is happening?
What is happening?

_____ of my coats do you like the best?
Which of my coats do you like the best?

____ a surprise!
What a surprise!

1. _____ time does the train leave?
2. _____ of the three schools do you attend?
3. _____ is your name?
4. _____ a wonderful idea!
5. _____ planet is larger, Jupiter or Saturn?
6. _____ of your children is the cleverest?
7. _____ a mess!
8. _____ is your favorite dessert?
9. _____ would you prefer, tea or coffee?
10. _____ of these bicycles is yours?

Answers

10. Using the introductory phrase **Please tell me**, rewrite the following direct questions as indirect questions. Make sure that the subjects precede the verbs in the indirect questions. For example:

Who will choose the winners?
Please tell me who will choose the winners.

Whom did they choose?
Please tell me whom they chose.

For whom had you bought the present?
Please tell me for whom you had bought the present.

1. Who was selected?
2. Whom have you consulted?
3. To whom will she address the letter?
4. What did you accomplish?
5. Which boy opened the door?
6. To which cities has he traveled?
7. Which music did the orchestra perform?
8. For whose sake has he come?
9. What caused the delay?
10. Whose house did they visit?
11. Whose dog chased the cat?
12. Which books have you read?

Answers

11. Using the introductory phrase **We will ask**, and paying attention to the correct word order, rewrite the following direct questions as indirect questions. For example:

Who is that?
We will ask who that is.

What was that noise?
We will ask what that noise was.

Who is here?
We will ask who is here.

1. What is this?
2. Who was there?
3. Who was first?
4. Which was it?
5. Which is ready?
6. Who is she?
7. Whose book is this?
8. Whose work is ready?
9. Who was right?
10. Who was that singer?
11. Which students are here?
12. Who were they?

Answers

12. Paying attention to correct word order, use the phrases given in brackets to rewrite the following direct questions as indirect questions. For example:

Who baked the cake? (They will ask)
They will ask who baked the cake.

Whom did you tell? (We want to know)
We want to know whom you told.

To which student had she given the prize? (Did you find out)
Did you find out to which student she had given the prize?

Who was that? (Please tell me)
Please tell me who that was.

1. Who are you? (I want to know)
2. Who swept the floor? (We will ask)
3. For whom did you organize the party? (Tell me)
4. Whom had they met? (I asked)
5. At what time will you reach the station? (I need to know)
6. Which horse won the race? (They will ask)
7. Whose answer is correct? (I wonder)
8. Which hill did they climb? (We will ask)
9. What do you mean? (Please tell us)
10. What made that noise? (I wonder)

11. Which students are ready? (Will you tell me)
12. For what purpose has he called the meeting? (Ask him)
13. Whom can we trust? (I am not sure)
14. Whose work was chosen? (They will ask)
15. Which book has she ordered? (We will find out)
16. Who am I? (Do you know)
Answers

13. For each of the following sentences, underline the relative clause, and indicate whether the clause is defining or non-defining. For example:

The sky, which was perfectly clear, was covered with stars.
The sky, which was perfectly clear, was covered with stars. [Non-defining]

The shoes which are by the bed are mine.
The shoes which are by the bed are mine. [Defining]

1. The new appliances, which are quite expensive, will be on sale next week.
2. The picture which is hanging on the wall was painted by our friend.
3. The people who own the hotel have a great deal of business experience.
4. His uncle, who sings in the choir, is a friend of my father.
5. The building, which is in excellent repair, is over two hundred years old.
6. The door that is open leads to the study.
7. My friend, who is coming for a visit, is anxious to meet you.
8. Did you see the exhibition which was held here last week?
Answers

14. Paying attention to grammatically correct usage, for each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **who**, **whom** or **whose**. For example:

The person ___ owns the bookstore is my friend.
The person who owns the bookstore is my friend.

The singer to ____ we gave the bouquet will be performing again tonight.
The singer to whom we gave the bouquet will be performing again tonight.

The contestants _____ names were announced should prepare to start.
The contestants whose names were announced should prepare to start.

1. My best friend, _____ I see every day, always has something new to tell me.
2. Most students _____ live in residence find it easy to make friends.
3. Our neighbors, to _____ we lent our lawnmower, are conscientious and considerate.
4. The volunteers, _____ enthusiasm was obvious, finished the work quickly.
5. The musicians _____ we heard yesterday have played together for many years.
6. Parents _____ children do well in school usually consider themselves fortunate.
7. Children _____ like music are often good at mathematics.
8. The student to _____ the prize was awarded had an impressive record.
9. My friend, _____ I visited last week, is taking a holiday soon.
10. The class treasurer, to _____ we gave the money, announced the balance of the account.
11. The engineers _____ designed the building received an award.

12. The townspeople, _____ pride in their community is well-known, raised enough money to build a new town hail.
Answers

15. Paying attention to grammatically correct usage, for each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **who**, **whom** or **which**. Use **who** or **whom** for antecedents which refer to persons, and use **which** for antecedents which refer to things. For example:

The woman ___ borrowed the books is a librarian.
The woman who borrowed the books is a librarian.

The key _____ opens this door is difficult to turn.
The key which opens this door is difficult to turn.

The children ____ we met are well-behaved.
The children whom we met are well-behaved.

The story _____ you heard is true.
The story which you heard is true.

The man to ____ you told the news is my brother.
The man to whom you told the news is my brother.

I have not yet received the letter to _____ you refer.
I have not yet received the letter to which you refer.

1. The window _____ is open is the kitchen window.
2. The girl _____ recited the poem is my niece.
3. The woman to _____ we were introduced was quite helpful.
4. The opportunity to _____ she owed her success came unexpectedly.
5. The man _____ they trusted was unreliable.
6. The book _____ you read is the best book by that author.
7. The Pacific Ocean, _____ may have been crossed by raft during the Stone Age, is the world's largest ocean.
8. His mother, _____ he visited frequently, ran her own business.
9. The boy, _____ was friendly and intelligent, soon found work.
10. Her husband, to _____ she told the story, was just as surprised as I was.
11. The pictures, _____ were taken in Algeria, were very striking.
12. The newspaper to _____ we subscribe is delivered regularly.
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 19

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. One should work in order to realize one's ambitions. 2. When we are overworked we should try to give ourselves time to relax. 3. You can never be sure whether your intuitions are correct. 4. If we organize our time properly, we can accomplish a great deal. 5. If one owns property, one should protect oneself with a good insurance policy.

6. You should never be afraid to state your views. 7. You should try to educate yourself as well as possible. 8. One should try to teach one's children a sense of responsibility. 9. We can choose our friends, but we cannot choose our relatives. 10. You become mature when you learn to trust your own judgement. 11. We learn from our mistakes. 12. One should always treat one's friends well.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. this 2. These 3. This 4. These 5. this 6. These 7. This 8. These 9. This 10. these

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. That 2. Those 3. that 4. Those 5. that 6. that 7. Those 8. That 9. those 10. Those

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. These were finished last week. 2. Are those radiators working? 3. These pictures are ours. 4. Those have been completed. 5. These were designed by his aunt. 6. Those do not need to be altered. 7. These tables are made of wood. 8. Have those students seen the play? 9. These umbrellas are new. 10. Those rivers flow through the mountains.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. This was necessary. 2. That color is beautiful. 3. Is this bell too loud? 4. Has that been polished? 5. This shirt is clean. 6. That window is on the west side of the house. 7. Is this correct? 8. This boy likes to play soccer. 9. That is sufficient. 10. That curtain is crimson.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. What have they decided? 2. Which do you want? 3. What should I wear? 4. What did she say? 5. What does he like? 6. What are you reading? 7. What can one do? 8. Which did they buy? 9. What will he be studying? 10. Which did I see? 11. What does she expect? 12. What had they discovered? 13. What does it cost? 14. What would you have done? 15. Which will he submit? 16. What did she receive?

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Who 2. whom 3. Who 4. Who 5. Whom 6. Who 7. Whom 8. Who 9. whom 10. Who 11. Whom 12. Who 13. Who 14. Whom 15. Who 16. Who 17. Who 18. Whom 19. whom 20. Who

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. whom 2. Whose 3. Who 4. Whom 5. Whose 6. Who 7. Whose 8. whom 9. Who 10. Whom 11. Whose 12. Who 13. Who 14. Whose 15. Whom

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. What 2. Which 3. What 4. What 5. Which 6. Which 7. What 8. What 9. Which 10. Which

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. Please tell me who was selected. 2. Please tell me whom you have consulted. 3. Please tell me to whom she will address the letter. 4. Please tell me what you accomplished. 5. Please tell me which boy opened the door. 6. Please tell me to which cities he has traveled. 7. Please tell me which music the orchestra performed. 8. Please tell me for whose sake he has come. 9. Please tell me what caused the delay. 10.

Please tell me whose house they visited. 11. Please tell me whose dog chased the cat. 12. Please tell me which books you have read.

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. We will ask what this is. 2. We will ask who was there. 3. We will ask who was first. 4. We will ask which it was. 5. We will ask which is ready. 6. We will ask who she is. 7. We will ask whose book this is. 8. We will ask whose work is ready. 9. We will ask who was right. 10. We will ask who that singer was. 11. We will ask which students are here. 12. We will ask who they were.

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. I want to know who you are. 2. We will ask who swept the floor. 3. Tell me for whom you organized the party. 4. I asked whom they had met. 5. I need to know at what time you will reach the station. 6. They will ask which horse won the race. 7. I wonder whose answer is correct. 8. We will ask which hill they climbed. 9. Please tell us what you mean. 10. I wonder what made that noise. 11. Will you tell me which students are ready? 12. Ask him for what purpose he has called the meeting. 13. I am not sure whom we can trust. 14. They will ask whose work was chosen. 15. We will find out which book she has ordered. 16. Do you know who I am?

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. The new appliances, which are quite expensive, will be on sale next week. [Non-defining] 2. The picture which is hanging on the wall was painted by our friend. [Defining] 3. The people who own the hotel have a great deal of business experience. [Defining] 4. His uncle, who sings in the choir, is a friend of my father. [Non-defining] 5. The building, which is in excellent repair, is over two hundred years old. [Non-defining] 6. The door that is open leads to the study. [Defining] 7. My friend, who is coming for a visit, is anxious to meet you. [Non-defining] 8. Did you see the exhibition which was held here last week? [Defining]

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. whom 2. who 3. whom 4. whose 5. whom 6. whose 7. who 8. whom 9. whom 10. whom 11. who 12. whose

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. which 2. who 3. whom 4. which 5. whom 6. which 7. which 8. whom 9. who 10. whom 11. which 12. which

CHAPTER 20. DETERMINERS

As indicated in the tables below, many determiners can be used either as adjectives or as pronouns. As will be pointed out in the next chapter, when a determiner is used as an adjective modifying a noun, the determiner usually precedes any other adjectives modifying the same noun.

The use of the following determiners has already been discussed in previous chapters: **a**, **an**, **the**, **this**, **that**, these and **those**. The possessive adjectives **my**, **your**, **his**, **her**, **our** and **their** can also be classified as determiners.

As indicated below, many determiners may be used only with certain types of noun. In the following tables, the abbreviation **CN** stands for **Countable Noun**, and the abbreviation **UN** stands for **Uncountable Noun**. In these tables, the noun **tree** is used as an example of a countable noun, and the noun **grass** is used as an example of an uncountable noun.

Determiners used as Adjectives

Determiner	Used With	Example	Meaning
all	plural CN	all trees	trees in general
	UN	all grass	grass in general
another	singular CN	another tree	one additional or different tree
any	singular CN	any tree	refers to one tree, without specifying which, of a group of more than 2 trees
	plural CN	any trees	refers to 2 or more trees, without specifying which
	UN	any grass	refers to some grass, without specifying which
both	plural CN	both trees	refers to 2 trees of a group of 2
each	singular CN	each tree	refers to every tree, considered individually, of a group of 2 or more
either	singular CN	either tree	refers to 1 of 2 trees, without specifying which
enough	plural CN	enough trees	a sufficient number of trees
	UN	enough grass	a sufficient amount of grass
every	singular CN	every tree	all trees, without exception, of a group of more than 2 trees
few	plural CN	few trees	a small number of trees
fewer	plural CN	fewer trees	a smaller number of trees
less	UN	less grass	a smaller amount of grass
little	UN	little grass	a small amount of grass
many	plural CN	many trees	a large number of trees
more	plural CN	more trees	an additional number of trees
	UN	more grass	an additional amount of grass

most	plural CN	most trees	nearly all trees
	UN	most grass	nearly all grass
much	UN	much grass	a large amount of grass
neither	singular CN	neither tree	no tree of a group of 2 trees
no	singular CN	no tree	not any tree
	plural CN	no trees	not any trees
	UN	no grass	not any grass
one	singular CN	one tree	a single tree
only	plural CN	only trees	nothing except trees
	UN	only grass	nothing except grass
other	plural CN	other trees	different trees
	UN	other grass	different grass
several	plural CN	several trees	more than 2 trees, but not a large number of trees
some	singular CN	some tree	an unspecified tree
	plural CN	some trees	unspecified trees
	UN	some grass	unspecified grass
such	singular CN	such a tree	a tree of a certain kind
	plural CN	such trees	trees of a certain kind
	UN	such grass	grass of a certain kind
that	singular CN	that tree	a particular tree, which is not nearby
	UN	that grass	particular grass, which is not nearby
these	plural CN	these trees	particular trees, which are nearby
this	singular CN	this tree	a particular tree, which is nearby
	UN	this grass	particular grass, which is nearby
those	plural CN	those trees	particular trees, which are not nearby
what	singular CN	what tree	asks in general for one tree to be specified
	plural CN	what trees	asks in general for particular

			trees to be specified
	UN	what grass	asks in general for particular grass to be specified
which	singular CN	which tree	asks for one tree to be specified from a certain group of trees
	plural CN	which trees	asks for trees to be specified from a certain group of trees
	UN	which grass	asks for some of certain grass to be specified

The following determiners can be used independently, as pronouns:

Determiners used as Pronouns

Determiner	Used With	Example	Meaning
all	plural CN	all (of) the trees	refers to every tree in a group of more than 2 trees
	UN	all (of) the grass	refers to the whole amount of certain specified grass
another	plural CN	another of the trees	one more of certain specified trees
any	plural CN	any of the trees	refers to 1 or more unspecified trees from a group of more than 2
	UN	any of the grass	refers to some of certain specified grass
both	plural CN	both of the trees	refers to 2 trees of a group of 2
each	plural CN	each of the trees	refers to every tree, considered individually, of a group of 2 or more
either	plural CN	either of the trees	refers to 1 of 2 trees, without specifying which
enough	singular CN	enough of the tree	a sufficient amount of a specified tree
	plural CN	enough of the trees	a sufficient number of certain specified trees
	UN	enough of the grass	a sufficient amount of certain specified grass

few	plural CN	few of the trees	a small number from a specified group of trees
fewer	plural CN	fewer of the trees	a smaller number from a specified group of trees
less	UN	less of the grass	a smaller amount of certain specified grass
little	UN	little of the grass	a small amount of certain specified grass
many	plural CN	many of the trees	a large number of certain specified trees
more	plural CN	more of the trees	an additional number of certain specified trees
	UN	more of the grass	an additional amount of certain specified grass
most	plural CN	most of the trees	nearly all of certain specified trees
	UN	most of the grass	nearly all of certain specified grass
much	UN	much of the grass	a large proportion of certain specified grass
neither	plural CN	neither of the trees	no tree of a group of 2 trees
none	plural CN	none of the trees	no tree of certain specified trees
	UN	none of the grass	no grass of certain specified grass
one	plural CN	one of the trees	a single tree of certain specified trees
others	plural CN	others of the trees	different trees, from a particular group of trees
several	plural CN	several of the trees	more than 2, but not a large number, of certain specified trees
some	singular CN	some of the tree	an unspecified portion of a particular tree
	plural CN	some of the trees	unspecified trees from a particular group of trees
	UN	some of the grass	an unspecified portion

			of particular grass
such	plural CN	such of the trees	trees of a certain kind, from a certain specified group of trees
	UN	such of the grass	grass of a certain kind, from certain specified grass
those	plural CN	those of the trees	particular trees, from a certain specified group of trees
which	plural CN	which of the trees	asks for one or more trees to be specified, from a particular group of trees

1. Determiners used to refer to groups of two persons or things

In Old English, there were singular forms, plural forms and dual forms. Dual forms are used to refer to two persons or things. In modern English, a few words still remain which refer to two persons or things.
For example, the determiners **both**, **either** and **neither** are used when referring to groups of two. **Both** refers to two things of a group of two, **either** refers to one thing of a group of two, and **neither** refers to zero things of a group of two.
e.g. I have two brothers. **Both** of them are engineers.
I had two maps of the city, but I cannot find **either** of them.
There are two textbooks for the course. **Neither** of them is expensive.

In contrast, the determiners **all**, **any** and **none** may be used when referring to groups with more than two members. **All** may refer to every member of a group of three or more, **any** may refer to one member of a group of three or more, and **none** may refer to zero members of a group of three or more.
e.g. I have three brothers. **All** of them are engineers.
I had four maps of the city, but I cannot find **any** of them.
There are six textbooks for the course. **None** of them is expensive.

See Exercise 1.

The following rules for the use of **either** and **neither** should be noted.

If it is desired to change a clause beginning with **either** so as to express a negative meaning, **either** must be changed to **neither**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Either** of the alternatives is acceptable.
Negative Meaning: **Neither** of the alternatives is acceptable.

Affirmative Meaning: **Either** hotel will offer you its best room.
Negative Meaning: **Neither** hotel will offer you its best room.

A sentence which contains the word **either**, in which **either** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning either by using the word **not**, or by changing **either** to neither.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: You may borrow **either** of the books.
Negative Meaning: You may **not** borrow **either** of the books.
Negative Meaning: You may borrow **neither** of the books.

Affirmative Meaning: I might give the message to **either** boy.
Negative Meaning: I might **not** give the message to **either** boy.
Negative Meaning: I might give the message to **neither** boy.

It should be noted that in modern English, the determiner **neither** is most often used only at the beginning of a clause. Otherwise, the meaning of **neither** is usually expressed by the combination **not ... either**.

In addition to being used as determiners, the words **both**, **either** and **neither** can also be used as conjunctions. Conjunctions will be discussed in Chapter 28.

2. Determiners used as singular or plural pronouns

In formal English, the pronouns **another**, **each**, **either**, **neither** and **one** always take singular verbs.
e.g. **Each** of the children wants to win the prize.
Either of the alternatives is acceptable.
Neither of the books has good illustrations.
Every **one** of the students was ready on time.
In these examples, the singular verbs **wants**, **is**, **has**, and **was** are used with the pronouns **each**, **either**, **neither** and **one**.

In informal English, plural verbs are sometimes used with pronouns such as **each**, **either** and **neither**.
e.g. **Neither** of the books have good illustrations.
However, this use of the plural verb is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

It should also be noted that in formal English, when the words **another**, **each**, **every**, **either**, **neither** and **one** are used in combination with personal pronouns or possessive adjectives, singular forms are always used. As mentioned previously, in formal English, the adjective **his** or the phrase **his or her** may be used when referring to a group containing both male and female members.
e.g. **Each** of the children waited impatiently for **his** turn.
Every student raised **his or her** hand.
Neither of the girls has finished **her** homework.
Either of the hotels will offer you **its** best room.
In these examples, **each**, **every**, **neither** and **either** are used in combination with the singular forms **his**, **his or her**, **her** and **its**.

In informal English, plural possessive adjectives are often used in this type of sentence.
e.g. **Neither** of the girls finished **their** homework.
However, this use of the plural possessive adjective is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

It should be noted that in both formal and informal English, **none** is used sometimes with singular, and sometimes with plural verbs.
e.g. None of them is here. **or**
None of them are here.

In contrast, the pronouns **both**, **few**, **many** and **several** are always plural. They take plural verbs, and are used in combination with plural personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. In addition, the pronoun **all** is always plural when used with countable nouns.
e.g. **Both** of the boys have completed **their** essays.
Several of the musicians are giving **their** first performances tonight.
All of the girls have finished **their** homework.

In these examples, the pronouns **both**, **several** and **all** take the plural verbs **have completed**, **are giving** and **have finished**, and are used in combination with the plural possessive adjective **their**.

See Exercise 2.

3. The use of All, Both and Each

In addition to being used as attributive adjectives and as pronouns followed by **of**, the words **all**, **both** and **each** can also be used in **apposition**. A word used in apposition immediately follows the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb or preposition, and refers to the same thing as the subject or object. In the following examples, the words in apposition are printed in bold type.
e.g. We **both** wondered what would happen next.
The boys **all** looked forward to seeing the circus.
I sent them **each** an invitation.

In the first two examples, **both** and **all** are used in apposition to the subjects **we** and **the boys**. In the third example, **each** is used in apposition to the object **them**.

Words used in apposition can be referred to as **appositives**. Like relative clauses, appositives can be defining or non-defining. Non-defining appositives must be preceded and followed by commas.
e.g. Our leader, **Tom Smith**, was prepared for any emergency.
In this example **Tom Smith** is a non-defining appositive, in apposition to **our leader**.

Defining appositives such as **all**, **both** and **each** are not preceded and followed by commas.

e.g. We **each** have our own ideas.
In this example, the defining appositive **each** is in apposition to **we**. It should be noted that although **each** is singular, the verb **have** must be plural to agree with the subject **we**.

When used in clauses with auxiliary verbs or with the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, **all**, **both** and **each** generally follow the first auxiliary or the verb **to be**, rather than being used in apposition to the subject of the verb.
e.g. The boys had **all** been looking forward to seeing the circus.
We are **both** very happy to see you.
In the first example, **all** follows the first auxiliary **had**. In the second example, **both** follows the Simple Present of the verb **to be**.

4. The use of No, None and Not

The words **no**, **none** and **not** have similar meanings, but different grammatical functions.

The determiner **no** can be used as an adjective, but not as a pronoun; whereas **none** can be used as a pronoun, but not as an adjective.
e.g. He has **no** books.
None of the books are his.
In the first example, **no** is used as an adjective modifying the noun **books**. In the second example, **none** functions as a pronoun.

As has already been pointed out, the adverb **not** may be placed after the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, or after the first auxiliary of other verbs, in order to form a negative sentence or clause.
e.g. You are **not** late.
I have **not** forgotten what you said.

See Exercise 3.

Just as **neither** can be said to be equivalent to the combination **not ... either**, **none** can be said to be equivalent to **not ... any**. For instance, the following sentence:
He will have **no** difficulty.
could also be written:
He will **not** have **any** difficulty.

5. The use of Some and Any

The determiners **some** and **any** have slightly different meanings. The use of the word **some** generally implies a belief in the existence of the object or objects under consideration, whereas the use of the word **any** may imply a doubt about the existence of the object or objects under consideration.

The words **some**, **somebody**, **someone**, **something** and **somewhere** are used in affirmative statements, as well as in polite questions and questions expecting an affirmative reply.
e.g. Affirmative Statement: I saw **some** birds in the park.
Polite Question: Would you like **some** tea?
Affirmative Reply Expected: You seem worried. Is **something** wrong?

In contrast, the words **any**, **anybody**, **anyone**, **anything** and **anywhere** are used in questions and negative statements, as well as in affirmative statements referring in an indefinite way to a type of object, without specifying a particular object.
e.g. Question: Did you see **any** birds in the park?
Negative Statement: I do not know **anyone** here.
Indefinite Reference: **Any** drug store can supply you with aspirin.

The words **some**, **somebody**, **someone**, **something** and **somewhere** usually cannot be used in a negative statement. If it is desired to change a clause beginning with the word **some** so that it expresses a negative meaning, **some** may be changed to **no** or **none**, depending on whether an adjective or pronoun is required.

In the following example, **some** is used as an adjective modifying the noun **books**. In order to change the sentence to express a negative meaning, **some** is replaced by the adjective **no**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Some** books were left on the shelf.
Negative Meaning: **No** books were left on the shelf.

In the following example, **some** is used as a pronoun. In order to change the sentence to express a negative meaning, **some** is replaced by the pronoun **none**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Some** of the visitors arrived late.
Negative Meaning: **None** of the visitors arrived late.

Similarly, if it is desired to change a clause beginning with **somebody**, **someone**, **something** or **somewhere** so that it expresses a negative meaning, these words may be replaced by **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** and **nowhere**, respectively.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: **Someone** left a message.
Negative Meaning: **No one** left a message.

Affirmative Meaning: **Something** has happened.
Negative Meaning: **Nothing** has happened.

A sentence containing the word **some**, in which **some** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning by changing the sentence to a negative statement using **not**, and by changing **some** to **any**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: I bought **some** potatoes.
Negative Meaning: I did **not** buy **any** potatoes.

Affirmative Meaning: We will copy **some** of the recipes.
Negative Meaning: We will **not** copy **any** of the recipes.

It is possible to use **no** or **none** in such sentences instead of the construction with **not ... any**.

e.g. I bought **no** potatoes.
We will copy **none** of the recipes.
However, in modern English, the construction with **not ... any** is more often used than the construction with **no** or **none**.

See Exercise 4.

Similarly, a sentence containing the word **somebody**, **someone**, **something** or **somewhere**, in which the word beginning with **some** does not occur at the beginning of a clause, can be changed to express a negative meaning by changing the sentence to a negative statement using **not**, and by changing the word beginning with **some** to the corresponding word beginning with **any**.
e.g. Affirmative Meaning: I met **someone** I used to know.
Negative Meaning: I did **not** meet **anyone** I used to know.

Affirmative Meaning: We will buy **something**.
Negative Meaning: We will **not** buy **anything**.

In such sentences, **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** or **nowhere** may be used instead of a negative statement with **not** and the word **anybody**, **anyone**, **anything** or **anywhere**.
e.g. I met **no one** I used to know.
We will buy **nothing**.
However, the construction with **not** is more often used.

See Exercise 5.

6. The use of Another, Other, Others and Else

The words **another**, **other**, **others** and **else** are used to indicate one or more additional or different things.

Another is formed from a combination of the words **an** and **other**, and has a meaning similar to **one other**. When used as an adjective, **another** can precede only a singular countable noun. When used as a pronoun, **another** takes a singular verb.
e.g. Please bring me **another** knife.
Another of her uncles lives in Montreal.
In the first example, **another** modifies the singular noun **knife**. In the second example, the pronoun **another** is the subject of the singular verb **lives**.

Other can be used with singular countable, plural countable or uncountable nouns.
e.g. The **other** door is open.
The **other** streets are paved.
Do you have any **other** luggage?
In these examples, **other** modifies the singular countable noun **door**, the plural countable noun **streets**, and the uncountable noun **luggage**.

Another usually cannot be immediately preceded by a determiner. In contrast, when used before a singular countable noun, **other** usually must be preceded by a determiner.

e.g. Please pass me the **other** cup.
I do not know any **other** way to do it.
There must be some **other** explanation.
In these examples, **other** is used with the singular countable nouns **cup**, **way** and **explanation**, and is preceded by the determiners **the**, **any** and **some**.

When **other** modifies a singular countable noun, the noun is sometimes omitted, particularly in the expression **one ... the other**.
e.g. I have two pens. **One** is green and the **other** is blue.
One of my parents is a teacher; the **other** is a doctor.

In these examples, the nouns following the word **other** are understood, rather than expressed. In the following sentences, the nouns which are understood are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. I have two pens. **One** is green and the **other** [pen] is blue.
One of my parents is a teacher; the **other** [parent] is a doctor.

Others is a pronoun. **Others** can be used to take the place of the word **other**, followed by a plural countable noun.
e.g. Those trees are hemlocks; the **others** are pines.
Ten people belong to the group, and five **others** are planning to join.
In the first example, **others** takes the place of the words **other trees**. In the second example, **others** takes the place of the words **other people**.

Others is often used in the expression **some ... others**.
e.g. **Some** books are easy to read, but **others** are quite difficult.
Some people like classical music, while **others** prefer jazz.

The word **else** has a meaning similar to **other**. However, rather than being used as an adjective preceding a noun, **else** usually follows interrogative pronouns such as **who** and **what**, and indefinite pronouns such as **anyone** and **someone**.
e.g. Who **else** was at the meeting?
What **else** is on the agenda?
Has anyone **else** solved the problem?
Someone **else** may be able to help you.

See Exercise 6.

7. The use of Only

In addition to being used as a determiner, the word **only** can be used to modify almost any part of a sentence. In general, the word **only** immediately precedes the part of the sentence which it modifies.

The following examples illustrate how changing the position of the word **only** can change the meaning of a sentence.
e.g. **Only** the trees were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: Nothing except the trees was somewhat damaged by last year's storm.

The **only** trees were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: The few trees which existed were somewhat damaged by last year's storm.

The trees were **only** somewhat damaged by last year's storm.
Meaning: The trees were not completely damaged by last year's storm.

The trees were somewhat damaged **only** by last year's storm.
Meaning: The trees were somewhat damaged by nothing except last year's storm.

The trees were somewhat damaged by last year's **only** storm.
Meaning: The trees were somewhat damaged by the one storm which occurred last year.

See Exercise 7.

8. The use of Few, Little and Several

The use of the word **a** with the determiners **few** and **little** somewhat changes the meaning which is expressed.

The expressions **a few** and **a little** merely refer to a small quantity of something.
e.g. **A few** of his friends came to the party.
Meaning: Some of his friends came to the party.

I had **a little** time to consider the situation.
Meaning: I had a small amount of time to consider the situation.

In contrast, **few** and **little** not only refer to a small quantity of something, but also imply that the quantity is remarkably, or undesirably small.
e.g. **Few** of his friends came to the party.
Meaning: Only a very small number of his friends came to the party.

I had **little** time to consider the situation.
Meaning: I had almost no time to consider the situation.

See Exercise 8.

The expressions **a few** and **several** can both be used to refer to three or more things. However, there is a slight difference in meaning. The expression **a few** generally emphasizes that the quantity referred to is relatively small, while the expression **several** generally emphasizes that the quantity referred to is relatively large.

For instance, the following sentences could both refer to an event which occurred four or five times.
e.g. I saw him **a few** times.
Meaning: I saw him, but I did not see him often.

I saw him **several** times.
Meaning: I saw him more than once or twice.

9. The expressions Such ... That, So ... That, and Too

a. Such ... That
The determiner **such** is often used in combination with a clause beginning with **that**, in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship.
e.g. There was **such** a strong wind **that** we decided to stay indoors.
He has **such** high marks **that** he has applied for a scholarship.

In the first example, **a strong wind** refers to the cause, and **we decided to stay indoors** refers to the effect. In the second example, **high marks** refers to the cause, and **he has applied for a scholarship** refers to the effect.

It should be noted that when **such** is used as an adjective modifying a singular countable noun, the word **a** or **an** usually follows the word **such**.
e.g. **such** a strong wind
such an unusual event

The construction usually used with the expression **such ... that** is summarized below, followed by examples.

such a **such an** + or **such**	adjective +	noun +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation described in the main clause
She is such a	hard	worker	that she is sure to succeed.
That is such an	interesting	book	that I read it three times.
He has such	good	ideas	that he may be promoted.

b. So ... That
The word **so** combined with a clause beginning with **that** can also be used in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship.

Whereas **such** usually modifies a noun, in this construction **so** is used as an intensifier modifying an adjective or adverb. Intensifiers will be discussed in a later chapter.
e.g. The wind was **so** strong **that** we decided to stay indoors.
His marks are **so** high **that** he has applied for a scholarship.
The wind blew **so** fiercely **that** we decided to stay indoors.
In the first two examples, **so** modifies the adjectives **strong** and **high**. In the last example, **so** modifies the adverb **fiercely**.

This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

subject +	verb +	**so** +	adverb or adjective +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation

				described in the main clause
She	sang	so	well	that she had to sing an encore.
The moon	was	so	bright	that we could see for miles.

In informal English, the word **that** in the expressions **such ... that** and **so ... that** is often omitted.
e.g. There was **such** a strong wind, we decided to stay indoors.
The moon was **so** bright, we could see for miles.

So can also be followed by **many**, **much**, **few** or **little**, followed by a noun, followed by a clause beginning with **that**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	so +	**many** **much**, **few** or **little** +	noun +	**that** clause stating the effect of the situation described in the main clause
There were	so	many	spectators	that there was standing room only.
I did	so	much	swimming	that I became very strong.
He knew	so	few	people	that he often felt lonely.
There was	so	little	snow	that we could not go skiing.

c. Too
The intensifier **too** used in combination with an infinitive can also be used to indicate a cause and effect relationship. In the following examples, the word **too** is printed in bold type, and the infinitives are underlined.
e.g. It is **too** windy for us <u>to go</u> outside.
He is **too** poor <u>to continue</u> studying without a scholarship.
It was raining **too** hard for us <u>to leave</u> the house.
In the first two examples, **too** modifies the adjectives **windy** and **poor**. In the last example, **too** modifies the adverb **hard**.

The construction usually used with **too** in combination with an infinitive is summarized below, followed by examples.

subject +	verb +	**too** +	adverb or adjective +	phrase containing an infinitive, indicating the effect of the situation described using **too**
They	walked	too	quickly	for me to overtake them.
The writing	was	too	difficult	to read.

EXERCISES for Chapter 20

1. Paying attention to whether reference is being made to a group of two objects, or a group of more than two objects, for each of the following sentences fill in the blank with the correct word chosen from the pair given in brackets. For example:

There are two trees on the lawn. ____ of them are spruce trees. (All, Both)
There are two trees on the lawn. Both of them are spruce trees.

I had three pencils. Have you seen ___ of them? (any, either)
I had three pencils. Have you seen any of them? (any, either)

There are four bushes in the garden, but ____ of them are rhododendrons. (neither, none)
There are four bushes in the garden, but none of them are rhododendrons.

1. I have three winter coats, but _____ of them are new. (neither, none)
2. There are two umbrellas here, but _____ of them is mine. (neither, none)
3. He owns twelve cows. _____ of them are Jerseys. (All, Both)
4. She has painted dozens of pictures. Have you seen _____ of them? (any, either)
5. Amy and Beth are twins. They _____ play the guitar. (all, both)
6. Two people said "Hello" to me, but I did not recognize _____ of them. (any, either)
7. My wife and I _____ enjoy classical music. (all, both)
8. I found all of the questions difficult. Did you answer _____ of them correctly? (any, either)
9. I asked six different people, but _____ of them knew where Walnut Street was. (neither, none)
10. My friends and I would like to thank you for your hospitality. We _____ enjoyed ourselves very much. (all, both)
11. There are two public libraries in the city, but _____ of them is located close to where I live. (neither, none)
12. Two wrist watches were left here. Is _____ of them yours? (any, either)
13. He has three nephews. _____ of them have graduated from university. (All, Both)
14. I have two violins. You are welcome to use _____ of them. (any, either)
15. My aunt and uncle are _____ coming for a visit. (all, both)
16. George and Tom like playing chess together, but _____ of them likes to lose a game. (neither, none)
17. The bush is covered with blueberries. Are _____ of them ripe yet? (any, either)
18. I have read five books on the subject, but _____ of them were very helpful. (neither, none)

Answers

2. Paying attention to whether the singular or the plural form is correct, fill in the blanks with the correct words chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:
Several of my friends ____ present. (was, were)
Several of my friends were present.

One of his friends ___ absent. (was, were)
One of his friends was absent.

Each of the dogs pricked up ___ ears. (its, their)
Each of the dogs pricked up its ears.

All of the dogs pricked up _____ ears. (its, their)

All of the dogs pricked up their ears.

1. Each of her friends _____ a university degree. (has, have)
2. Many of the birds in this park _____ here throughout the year. (live, lives)
3. Both of the children wanted to finish _____ work early. (his, their)
4. Every writer should learn from _____ own experiences. (his or her, their)
5. Either of my daughters can lend you _____ skis. (her, their)
6. Few of her ideas _____ as intriguing as this one. (are, is)
7. All of the visitors expressed _____ thanks. (his or her, their)
8. Each of our customers _____ important. (are, is)
9. One of the canaries ate only half _____ food. (its, their)
10. Either of the routes _____ a good choice. (are, is)
11. Neither of the boys forgot _____ books. (his, their)
12. Both of the drawings _____ beautiful. (are, is)
13. Neither of my uncles _____ to us often. (write, writes)
14. Every girl clapped _____ hands. (her, their)

Answers

3. Paying attention to whether an adjective, pronoun or adverb is required, complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with **no**, **none** or **not**, as appropriate. For example:

There is __ danger.
There is no danger.

____ of the trees are evergreens.
None of the trees are evergreens.

It was ___ raining when I left home.
It was not raining when I left home.

1. There is _____ wind this morning.
2. I have _____ finished reading the book.
3. _____ of the children were late for school.
4. We did _____ tell anyone the secret.
5. I have _____ idea what time it is.
6. _____ of the streets have been plowed.
7. _____ bicycles are allowed on the grass.
8. He is _____ ready.
9. _____ harm was done.
10. There is _____ time to lose.
11. She is _____ expected to arrive until tomorrow.
12. _____ of the stores are open.

Answers

4. Rewrite the following sentences as negative statements, in which the word **some** is replaced by the word **any**. For example:

He has sold some apples.
He has not sold any apples.

I need to buy some shoes.

I do not need to buy any shoes.

1. I will make some salad.
2. We need some onions.
3. I have met some of your friends.
4. He has photographed some of the most beautiful parts of the city.
5. She wants to take some courses in Archaeology.
6. I recognized some of the students.
7. We have visited some of the offshore islands.
8. I have read some books by that author.
9. There is some danger involved.
10. I have some reservations about your plan.
11. They have interviewed some of the contestants.
12. She bought some of the books second-hand.

Answers

5. Rewrite each of the following sentences to express a negative meaning. Each sentence contains a word beginning with **some**. If the word beginning with **some** occurs at the beginning of the sentence, change the word beginning with **some** to the appropriate word or phrase beginning with **no**. For example:

Some of the coats are expensive.
None of the coats are expensive.

Someone is at home.
No one is at home.

If the word beginning with **some** occurs later in the sentence, change the sentence to a negative statement, and change the word beginning with **some** to the appropriate word beginning with **any**. For example:

I have **some** paper.
I do not have any paper.

I saw your glasses **somewhere**.
I did not see your glasses anywhere.

1. He has some relatives in the city.
2. I know someone here.
3. Some of us were surprised by the announcement.
4. I plan to go somewhere on my vacation.
5. Some tickets were sold this morning.
6. I heard someone playing the bagpipes.
7. I gave her some advice.
8. Something is wrong.
9. We bought something at the flea market.
10. They had some exciting adventures.
11. Someone offered to help me.
12. She knows someone working at the Library.
13. He lives somewhere near here.
14. Somebody left early.
15. I saw someone arriving by taxi.

16. Some books are missing.
17. I have something to do this afternoon.
18. Some of the magazines are worth reading.
Answers

6. Paying attention to the grammatical structure, complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with **another**, **other**, **others** or **else**, as appropriate. For example:

Would you like _____ cup of tea?
Would you like another cup of tea?

The _____ guests have already arrived.
The other guests have already arrived.

Five of the books were returned on time , but three _____ were overdue.
Five of the books were returned on time, but three others were overdue.

Who ____ was at the party?
Who else was at the party?

1. I want to borrow _____ book from the library.
2. Three people moved out, and two _____ moved in.
3. Who _____ knows the secret?
4. There are several _____ possibilities.
5. Where _____ should I look?
6. Some students enjoyed the film, but _____ did not.
7. He lives on the _____ side of the lake.
8. I have _____ idea.
9. _____ people soon followed her example.
10. Do you know anyone _____ here?
11. We are going to move to _____ city.
12. Some birds feed on insects, while _____ eat berries.
13. Somebody _____ should have a turn now.
14. Few _____ people attended the ceremony.
15. You may borrow this eraser. I have several _____
16. What _____ have you decided?
Answers

7. The following five sentences, labelled **A** to **E**, are identical except for the position of the word **only**:

A. My only friend drew the picture of the child yesterday.
B. My friend drew only the picture of the child yesterday.
C. My friend drew the only picture of the child yesterday.
D. My friend drew the picture of the only child yesterday.
E. My friend drew the picture of the child only yesterday.

The meanings of the preceding five sentences are given in the five sentences below. For each sentence, fill in the blank with the letter (**A** to **E**) which corresponds to the sentence above which has the same meaning.

1. ___ My friend drew the one existing picture of the child yesterday.
2. ___ My friend drew nothing except the picture of the child yesterday.
3. ___ My friend drew the picture of the child as short a time ago as yesterday.
4. ___ The one friend that I have drew the picture of the child yesterday.
5. ___ My friend drew the picture of the one child in the family yesterday.
Answers

8. Explain the differences in meaning of the sentences in the following pairs.

1. There is a little butter left.
2. There is little butter left.

3. We encountered a few difficulties.
4. We encountered few difficulties.
Answers

9. Paying attention to the grammatical structure, for each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **such**, **so** or **too**, as appropriate. In some of the sentences, the word **that** has been omitted. For example:

I saw ____ beautiful flowers, I wished I had brought my camera with me.
I saw such beautiful flowers, I wished I had brought my camera with me.

The sun was __ bright that we had to wear sunglasses.
The sun was so bright that we had to wear sunglasses.

I saw __ many flowers that I could not identify them all.
I saw **so** many flowers that I could not identify them all.

By the time I received your message, it was ___ late to call you.
By the time I received your message, it was too late to call you.

1. She sang _____ soothing lullabies that the baby was soon asleep.
2. He owned _____ many books that his walls were lined with bookcases.
3. The boys were _____ excited to sit still.
4. He has _____ varied interests, one never knows what he will do next.
5. They have _____ few enemies, they are accepted wherever they go.
6. The snow was _____ deep for us to walk across the field.
7. Yesterday I walked _____ far that I fell asleep immediately after supper.
8. I had _____ a good time at the party, I did not want to leave.
9. I see her _____ often that I feel I know her quite well.
10. The visibility was _____ poor for the mountains to be seen.
11. This is _____ an interesting book, I stayed up all night to read it.
12. This puzzle is _____ easy that a child could do it.
13. There was _____ much traffic, I could not cross the street.
14. She was _____ tired to watch the video.
15. They have _____ little furniture, it will be easy for them to move.
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 20

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. none 2. neither 3. All 4. any 5. both 6. either 7. both 8. any 9. none 10. all 11. neither 12. either 13. All 14. either 15. both 16. neither 17. any 18. none

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. has 2. live 3. their 4. his or her 5. her 6. are 7. their 8. is 9. its 10. is 11. his 12. are 13. writes 14. her

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. no 2. not 3. None 4. not 5. no 6. None 7. No 8. not 9. No 10. no 11. not 12. None

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. I will not make any salad. 2. We do not need any onions. 3. I have not met any of your friends. 4. He has not photographed any of the most beautiful parts of the city. 5. She does not want to take any courses in Archaeology. 6. I did not recognize any of the students. 7. We have not visited any of the offshore islands. 8. I have not read any books by that author. 9. There is not any danger involved. 10. I do not have any reservations about your plan. 11. They have not interviewed any of the contestants. 12. She did not buy any of the books second-hand.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. He does not have any relatives in the city. 2. I do not know anyone here. 3. None of us were surprised by the announcement. 4. I do not plan to go anywhere on my vacation. 5. No tickets were sold this morning. 6. I did not hear anyone playing the bagpipes. 7. I did not give her any advice. 8. Nothing is wrong. 9. We did not buy anything at the flea market. 10. They did not have any exciting adventures. 11. No one offered to help me. 12. She does not know anyone working at the Library. 13. He does not live anywhere near here. 14. Nobody left early. 15. I did not see anyone arriving by taxi.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. another 2. others 3. else 4. other 5. else 6. others 7. other 8. another 9. Other 10. else 11. another 12. others 13. else 14. other 15. others 16. else

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. C 2. B 3. E 4. A 5. D

Answers to Exercise 8:
Meanings:
1. There is some butter left. 2. There is a very small amount of butter left. 3. We encountered some difficulties. 4. We encountered a very small number of difficulties. [The phrase "few difficulties" implies that the difficulties were unimportant.]

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. such 2. so 3. too 4. such 5. so 6. too 7. so 8. such 9. so 10. too 11. such 12. so 13. so 14. too 15. so

CHAPTER 21. ADJECTIVES: POSITION IN A SENTENCE

Words which are used to modify nouns or pronouns are usually referred to as **adjectives**. For instance, the adjectives in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. Large trees could be seen.
They are happy.
In the preceding examples, the adjective **large** modifies the noun **trees**, and the adjective **happy** modifies the pronoun **they**.

It should be noted that adjectives can be formed from two or more words combined by the use of hyphens.
e.g. the three-month-old baby
a ninety-dollar jacket
a two-hour trip
As illustrated in these examples, the nouns in such hyphenated expressions are generally in the singular. Thus, the singular forms of the nouns **month**, **dollar** and **hour** are used.

Most English adjectives have the same form for the singular as for the plural. The only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives **this** and **that**, discussed Chapter 19.

1. Proper adjectives

Proper adjectives are adjectives derived from proper nouns. In English, proper adjectives must begin with a capital letter. The proper adjectives in the following sentences are underlined.
e.g. The French town has an interesting history.
Many of my friends are American.
This house is a fine example of Victorian architecture.

The derivation of proper adjectives from proper nouns is somewhat irregular. For instance, the spelling of the following proper nouns and proper adjectives can be compared.

Proper Noun	Proper Adjective
America	American
Canada	Canadian
Germany	German
Mexico	Mexican
George	Georgian
Victoria	Victorian

Many proper adjectives end with **an** or **ian**. However, other endings are also used, as indicated below.

Proper Noun	Proper Adjective

England	English
France	French
China	Chinese

2. Attributive adjectives

Adjectives which precede the noun they modify are usually referred to as **attributive** adjectives. For instance, in the following examples, the attributive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Heavy rain is expected.
We saw white swans on the river.

In these examples, **heavy** is an attributive adjective modifying the noun **rain**, and **white** is an attributive adjective modifying the noun **swans**.

a. Order of attributive adjectives
It is possible for a noun to be preceded by many different types of attributive adjective. In the following example, the attributive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Two large red cardboard milk cartons stood on the steps.

In this example, **two** is a cardinal number, **large** is an adjective indicating size, **red** is an adjective indicating color, **cardboard** is an adjective indicating a type of material, and **milk** is a defining adjective indicating purpose.

When a noun is preceded by more than one type of attributive adjective, the different types of adjective are usually arranged in a particular order. For instance, the following example contains eleven different types of attributive adjective.
e.g. a small, heavy, snug, warm, 100-year-old, round-bellied black iron Norwegian wood stove

In this example, **a** is an article, **small** is an adjective indicating size, **heavy** is an adjective indicating weight, **snug** is a general descriptive adjective, **warm** is an adjective indicating temperature, **100-year-old** is an adjective indicating age, **round-bellied** is an adjective indicating shape, **black** is an adjective indicating color, **iron** is an adjective indicating a type of material, **Norwegian** is a proper adjective, and **wood** is a defining adjective indicating a method of operation.

The different types of attributive adjective are usually arranged In the order shown in the following table.

Usual Order of Attributive Adjectives

1) certain determiners such as **all**, **both** and **half**
2) determiners including the articles **a**, **and** and **the**;
possessive adjectives e.g. **my**, **his**, **her**, **our** and **their**;
demonstrative adjectives e.g. **that**, **these**, **this**, and **those**; and

certain other determiners such as **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **every**, **neither**, **no**, **some**, **what** and **which**

3) cardinal numbers e.g. **one**, **two**, **three**; and
certain other determiners such as **few**, **many** and **several**

4) determiners such as **fewer**, **fewest**, **least**, **less**, **more** and **most**

5) general descriptive adjectives, often in the following order:
- **a)** adjectives indicating size e.g. **large**, **long**, **narrow**
- **b)** adjectives indicating weight e.g. **heavy**, **light**
- **c)** participles and other adjectives e.g. **clever**, **excited**, **interesting**
- **d)** adjectives indicating temperature e.g. **cold**, **hot**, **warm**
- **e)** adjectives indicating humidity e.g. **dry**, **damp**, **wet**
- **f)** adjectives indicating age e.g. **new**, **six-month-old**, **young**
- **g)** adjectives indicating shape e.g. **barrel-shaped**, **round**, **square**

6) adjectives indicating color e.g. **blue**, **grey**, **white**

7) adjectives indicating materials e.g. **cloth**, **leather**, **metal**

8) proper adjectives e.g. **American**, **Victorian**

9) defining adjectives, usually indicating purpose, method of operation, location, time or categories of people

i. Determiners

The usual order of different types of determiner is indicated in the first four categories of the table above.

1) The determiners in the first category, **all**, **both** and **half**, usually precede other attributive adjectives.

e.g. <u>all</u> three tables
<u>both</u> the students
<u>half</u> the red roses

Alternatively, before the article **the**, the words **all**, **both** and **half** may be used as pronouns, followed by the word **of**.

e.g. <u>all of</u> the tables
<u>both of</u> the students
<u>half of</u> the red roses

2) The determiners in the second category of the table above include articles, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, and the determiners **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **every**, **neither**, **no**, **some**, **what** and **which**. A noun can usually be modified by only <u>one</u> of the attributive adjectives in this category.

If it is desired to convey the idea expressed by a possessive adjective combined with another adjective in this category, the possessive adjective must be changed to the corresponding possessive pronoun preceded by **of**, and must follow the noun.

For instance, the ideas expressed by the phrase **this black horse**, combined with the possessive adjective **my**; and the phrase **a book** combined with the possessive adjective **your** may be conveyed as follows:

e.g. this black horse <u>of mine</u>
a book <u>of yours</u>

In a somewhat similar way, the determiners **another**, **any**, **each**, **either**, **enough**, **neither**, **some** and **which** may be combined with other members of the second category of adjective by being used as pronouns followed by **of**.

For instance, the ideas expressed by the phrase **my dresses**, combined with the determiner **any**; and the phrase **these white flowers**, combined with the determiner **either** may be conveyed as follows:
e.g. <u>any of</u> my dresses
<u>either of</u> these white flowers

Since the determiners **every** and **no** cannot be used as pronouns, the expressions **every one** and **none** must be used. For instance, the ideas expressed in the phrase **these children**, combined with the determiner **every**; and the phrase **their opinions**, combined with the determiner **no** may be conveyed as follows:
e.g. <u>every one of</u> these children
<u>none of</u> their opinions

See Exercise 1.

3) The determiners in the third category of the table above include the cardinal numbers, and the determiners **few**, **many** and **several**. As illustrated in the following examples, the determiners in this category usually follow determiners in the previous two categories, and precede other attributive adjectives.
e.g. all <u>twelve</u> red roses
their <u>many</u> exciting adventures

It should be noted that **other** usually precedes a cardinal number when an article or possessive adjective is present, but usually follows a cardinal number when no article or possessive adjective is present.
e.g. the <u>other</u> <u>three</u> chairs
my <u>other</u> <u>two</u> cousins

<u>three</u> <u>other</u> chairs
<u>two</u> <u>other</u> cousins

In the first two examples, the article **the** and the possessive article **my** are present, and **other** precedes the cardinal numbers **three** and **two**. In the second two examples, no article or possessive adjective is present, and **other** follows the cardinal numbers **three** and **two**.

4) The determiners **fewer**, **fewest**, **least**, **less**, **more** and **most** usually follow other determiners.
e.g. the <u>fewest</u> mistakes
two <u>more</u> children
In the first example, **fewest** follows the determiner **the**. In the second example, **more** follows the determiner **two**.

See Exercise 2.

ii. General descriptive adjectives

As indicated in the preceding table, general descriptive adjectives usually follow determiners and precede other types of attributive adjective. As shown in the table, there are several types of general descriptive adjective, which often occur in a certain order. However, the order of different types of general descriptive adjective is more flexible than the order of other types of attributive adjective.

a) Attributive adjectives indicating size usually follow any determiners, but precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following phrases, the adjectives indicating size are underlined.
e.g. three large, level platforms
her two tiny brown lap dogs
that enormous English dictionary

Below are pairs of adjectives with opposite meanings, indicating size:

deep	shallow
enormous	tiny
large	small
long	short
wide	narrow
thick	thin

b) Adjectives indicating weight usually follow adjectives indicating size, but precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following phrases, the adjectives indicating weight are underlined.
e.g. a small, heavy parcel
two light nylon knapsacks

The following are examples of adjectives indicating weight:

heavy
light
5-kilogram
2-ton

See Exercise 3.

c) Participles and other general descriptive adjectives which do not fall into any of the other categories usually follow adjectives indicating size and weight, and precede other types of attributive adjective. In the following examples, the adjective **alert**, and the participles **twittering** and **excited** are underlined.
e.g. two large, alert black cats
eleven tiny, twittering birds
many excited children

d) to **g)** The order of adjectives indicating temperature, humidity, age and shape is not as predictable as the order of other attributive adjectives. For instance, adjectives indicating temperature occur sometimes before and sometimes after general descriptive adjectives such as **clear** and **hard**.

e.g. clear, cold water
cold, hard ice

It should be noted that the position of attributive adjectives indicating age may be altered to change the emphasis.
e.g. a new, efficient method
an efficient, new method
In the first example, the adjective **new** is emphasized. In the second example, the adjective **efficient** is emphasized.

However, the most usual order of adjectives indicating temperature, humidity, age and shape is that indicated in the table. For instance, adjectives indicating temperature usually precede adjectives indicating humidity.
e.g. a hot, dry wind
a cold, wet dog
In these examples, the adjectives **hot** and **cold**, indicating temperature, precede the adjectives **dry** and **wet**, indicating humidity.

As can be seen in the preceding examples, general descriptive adjectives are usually separated from one another by commas. This is illustrated In the following examples, in which the general descriptive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. a small, triangular wooden boat
those five thick, strong, two-hundred-year-old oak trees

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate temperature, humidity, age and shape.

Temperature	Humidity	Age	Shape
hot	wet	new	square
cold	dry	old	round
warm	damp	young	triangular
cool	humid	six-week-old	octagonal
	moist	two-year-old	spherical

See Exercise 4.

iii. Adjectives indicating color
Adjectives indicating color usually precede adjectives indicating materials, proper adjectives, and defining adjectives, but follow other types of attributive adjective.

In the following examples, the adjectives indicating color are underlined.
e.g. threatening black clouds
her new red leather jacket
a square brown mahogany table

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate color:

red	black	pink
orange	white	magenta

yellow	brown	scarlet
green	beige	crimson
blue	silver	fox-red
violet	golden	olive-green
purple	turquoise	sky-blue, etc.

iv. Adjectives indicating materials
Attributive adjectives indicating the materials from which objects are made usually follow any adjectives indicating color and precede any proper or defining adjectives. In the following examples, adjectives indicating materials are underlined.
e.g. a beautiful grey silk scarf
ten black plastic coat hangers
the clean wooden floor

In modern English, most adjectives indicating the materials from which objects are made have the same form as the corresponding nouns. For Instance, the words **silk** and **plastic** can be used either as nouns or as adjectives. One of the few exceptions is the adjective **wooden**, which corresponds to the noun **wood**.

Below are examples of adjectives which indicate materials:

wooden	cotton	metal
paper	wool	iron
cardboard	silk	steel
plastic	satin	brass
rock	corduroy	gold
stone	velvet	silver
brick	flannel	copper
concrete	denim	lead
glass	nylon	tin
leather	polyester	aluminum

v. The position of proper adjectives
Proper adjectives usually follow all other types of attributive adjective except defining adjectives.

Proper adjectives are usually derived from proper nouns referring to places or persons. In the following examples, the proper adjectives are underlined.
e.g. sparkling French wine
three red brick Georgian manor houses

In the first example, the proper adjective **French** is derived from the place name **France**, and indicates the place of origin of the wine. In the second example, the proper adjective **Georgian** is derived from **George**, the name of an English king, and indicates that the houses are built in a style developed during the reign of that king.

It should be noted that proper adjectives may sometimes precede adjectives indicating materials, as in the following examples. This occurs when the adjective indicating a

material is used as a type of defining adjective, to help identify what type of object is being described.
e.g. Mexican straw hats
an American pearl necklace

See Exercises 5 and 6.

vi. Defining adjectives
When a word preceding a noun does not merely describe the object being referred to, but helps to define or identify the type of object meant, the word preceding the noun can be called a **defining** adjective. The defining adjectives in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. an enjoyable birthday party
a fine young man
the new telephone directory

Defining adjectives are combined with nouns to form fixed expressions, in order to refer to certain types of things. In the above examples, **birthday party**, **young man** and **telephone directory** are fixed expressions which are commonly used to refer to certain types of things.

In many such expressions, the defining adjectives are words which are usually used as nouns. For instance, in the above examples, **birthday**, and **telephone** are words which are usually used as nouns. In such cases, the fixed expressions are sometimes thought of as **compound nouns**.

Many words which are used as gerunds can also be used as defining adjectives, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. black hiking boots
our drinking water

In this type of fixed expression, it is also possible for two words to be used together as defining adjectives. In the following examples, the words used as defining adjectives are underlined.
e.g. a roller skating rink
a hot water bottle

Defining adjectives usually immediately precede the nouns they modify. Many defining adjectives indicate the purpose for which the object being referred to is used. In the following examples, the defining adjectives are underlined.
e.g. an egg carton
a coat hanger
a dish cloth
An **egg carton** is a carton used for storing eggs, a **coat hanger** is an object used for hanging up coats, and a **dish cloth** is a cloth used for washing dishes.

As can be seen in these examples, when a word usually used as a countable noun is used as a defining adjective, it is normally the singular form of the word which is used. Thus, in the preceding examples, the singular forms **egg**, **coat** and **dish** are used.

See Exercise 7.

Defining adjectives can also indicate the method of operation of an object. This is the case in the following examples.
e.g. a steam iron
a ten-speed bicycle
an electric light

Defining adjectives sometimes help to define the object being referred to by indicating time or location.
e.g. the morning star
the winter term
the front door
the kitchen window
In these examples the adjectives **morning** and **winter** indicate time, and the adjectives **front** and **kitchen** indicate location.

Defining adjectives are also used in fixed expressions which refer to certain categories of people.
e.g. a little girl
a baby boy
an old woman

See Exercise 8.

vii. Ordinal adjectives
Attributive adjectives such as **next**, **last**, **first**, **second**, **third** and so on, are sometimes referred to as **ordinal** adjectives, since they indicate the order in which things occur.

When they are not followed by commas, ordinal adjectives have the property of modifying any following attributive adjectives together with the accompanying noun. For this reason, the position of an ordinal adjective relative to other attributive adjectives can affect the meaning of a phrase.
e.g. the first reluctant witness
the reluctant first witness

The two preceding examples have different meanings. In the phrase **the first reluctant witness**, the adjective **first** modifies the following adjective **reluctant** together with the noun **witness**. This means that although there may have been previous witnesses, the phrase refers to the first witness who was reluctant.

However, in the phrase **the reluctant first witness**, the adjective **first** modifies only the noun **witness**. This means that there were no previous witnesses. The phrase refers to the first witness, indicating that this witness was reluctant.

Below is a similar example, giving two phrases with different meanings.
e.g. the second unpredictable year
the unpredictable second year

In the phrase **the second unpredictable year**, the adjective **second** modifies the

following adjective **unpredictable** together with the noun **year**. This means that although there may have been more than one previous year, the phrase refers to the second year which was unpredictable.

However, in the phrase **the unpredictable second year**, the adjective **second** modifies only the noun **year**. This means that there was only one previous year. The phrase refers to the second year, indicating that this year was unpredictable.

As illustrated in the preceding examples, the position of ordinal attributive adjectives varies depending upon what meaning is to be conveyed.

See Exercise 9.

b. Punctuation used with attributive adjectives
As already indicated, general descriptive adjectives, including adjectives indicating size, weight, temperature, humidity, age and shape are usually separated from one another by commas.
e.g. the long, winding road
a heavy, awkward box
a cold, wet mist
a small, square room

In contrast, determiners, possessive adjectives, adjectives representing cardinal numbers, and ordinal adjectives are usually not followed by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. <u>those</u> large chairs
<u>my</u> new shirts
<u>two</u> narrow paths
<u>the</u> <u>first</u> tall building

In addition, defining adjectives, proper adjectives, and adjectives indicating color and materials are usually not preceded by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. a large <u>egg</u> carton
a beautiful <u>Chinese</u> vase
elegant <u>black</u> boots
a dilapidated <u>stone</u> building

However, it should be noted that in some cases, proper adjectives and adjectives indicating shape, color and materials may or may not be preceded by commas. In the following examples, adjectives of these types are underlined.
e.g. a beautiful <u>Japanese</u> necklace **or** a beautiful, <u>Japanese</u> necklace
a small <u>square</u> tower **or** a small, <u>square</u> tower
a thin <u>grey</u> cat **or** a thin, <u>grey</u> cat
a black <u>leather</u> briefcase **or** a black, <u>leather</u> briefcase

When such adjectives are **not** preceded by commas, there is an implication that the adjectives are used to help identify the object being described. However, when such adjectives **are** preceded by commas, there is an implication that the adjectives are provided only for purposes of description, and are not being used to help identify the

object being described.

For example, in the phrase **a small square tower**, there is the implication that the shape of the tower helps to identify which tower is meant. However, in the phrase **a small, square tower** there is the implication that the adjective **square** is provided only for purposes of description, and is not being used to help identify which tower is meant.

See Exercise 10.

There is also a distinction in meaning associated with the presence or absence of commas following ordinal adjectives. When followed by commas, ordinal adjectives function similarly to general descriptive adjectives, and modify only the accompanying noun.
e.g. the last, lonely outpost
the first, faint morning light
In the first example, the adjective **last** modifies the noun **outpost**. In the second example, the adjective **first** modifies the noun **light**.

However, as explained in the section on ordinal adjectives, when they are not followed by commas, ordinal adjectives have the property of modifying any following attributive adjectives together with the accompanying noun.

c. Stress used with attributive adjectives
In speaking, nouns are usually pronounced with more stress than the preceding attributive adjectives. In the following examples, the words which are pronounced with the heaviest stress are underlined.
e.g. a small, green cucumber
an old, rectangular courtyard
In these examples, the nouns **cucumber** and **courtyard** are pronounced with slightly more emphasis than the preceding adjectives.

i. Adjectives indicating materials
However, there are several exceptions to the rule that the noun has the most emphasis. For instance, when a noun is immediately preceded by an adjective naming a material, the adjective is usually pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the noun.
e.g. a leather belt
a silver spoon
In these examples, the adjectives **leather** and **silver** are pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the nouns **belt** and **spoon**.

ii. Defining adjectives indicating location or time
Also, when a noun is preceded by a defining adjective indicating location or time, the adjective is usually pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the noun.
e.g. the front door
the fall term
In these examples, the defining adjectives **front**, indicating location, and **fall**, indicating time, are pronounced with the same degree of emphasis as the nouns **door** and **term**.

iii. Defining adjectives indicating purpose

However, when a defining adjective indicates the purpose of the object being described, the defining adjective usually has a strong emphasis, while the noun which follows it has a weak emphasis.
e.g. brown hiking boots
a red milk carton
In these examples, the defining adjectives **hiking** and **milk** receive a stronger emphasis than either the succeeding nouns **boots** and **carton**, or the preceding attributive adjectives.

See Exercise 11.

3. Predicate adjectives

a. Attributive adjectives which can be used as predicate adjectives
An adjective which is separated from the noun or pronoun it modifies by a verb is often referred to as a **predicate** adjective. The predicate adjectives in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. The horse is black.
The streets are long and narrow.
It is large, heavy and awkward.

In these examples, the adjective **black** modifies the noun **horse**. the adjectives **long** and **narrow** modify the noun **streets**, and the adjectives **large**, **heavy** and **awkward** modify the pronoun **it**.

Most general descriptive adjectives, as well as adjectives indicating color, can be used as predicate adjectives. In the following examples, the predicate adjectives are underlined.
e.g. The answer is puzzling.
These envelopes are small.
The bucket was heavy.
The weather will be cool and dry.
That child is young.
The cake is round.
The leaves are red, yellow and orange.

However, there are a few general descriptive adjectives which cannot be used as predicate adjectives. For example, the adjectives listed below are normally used only as attributive adjectives.

Adjectives used only Attributively
chief
main
principal
sheer
utter

It should be noted that although they cannot be used with attributive adjectives,

pronouns can be used with predicate adjectives.
e.g. He is happy.
She is proud.
We are careful.
They are successful.

Proper adjectives are sometimes used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. That car is American.
This one is Japanese.

It should be noted that hyphenated adjectives containing nouns often cannot be used as predicate adjectives. When such an expression follows the verb, the hyphens are omitted and the noun assumes a plural form, if required. In the following examples, the nouns contained in the hyphenated adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the two-year-old child
the one-hour program
forty-dollar shoes

When placed after the verb, the hyphenated adjectives must be changed as follows:
e.g. The child is two years old.
The length of the program is one hour.
The price of the shoes is forty dollars.

However, hyphenated adjectives which do not contain nouns can often be used as predicate adjectives. For instance, in the following examples, the hyphenated adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the long-winded orator
the wide-spread belief

These adjectives contain past participles. Hyphenated adjectives containing past participles are frequently used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. The orator was long-winded.
The belief is wide-spread.

i. Order
The order of predicate adjectives relative to one another is generally the same as the order of attributive adjectives relative to one another. The following examples illustrate the order of predicate adjectives.
e.g. The package is small and light.
The weather is clear, cold and dry.
The footstool is round and black.

In the first example, the adjective **small**, indicating size, precedes the adjective **light**, indicating weight. In the second example, the general descriptive adjective **clear** precedes the adjective **cold**, indicating temperature, which precedes the adjective **dry**, indicating humidity. In the third example, the adjective **round**, indicating shape, precedes the adjective **black**, indicating color.

ii. Punctuation
As can be seen in these examples, the last two adjectives in a list of predicate

adjectives are usually separated from each another by the word **and**, and any preceding adjectives are usually separated from one another by commas.
e.g. The clothes were clean **and** dry.
The dancers were tall, slender **and** graceful.

In a list of three or more predicate adjectives, an additional comma is sometimes placed before the word **and**.
e.g. The dancers were tall, slender**, and** graceful.
However, this additional comma is usually considered unnecessary.

See Exercise 12.

b. Adjectives which can be used only as predicate adjectives
The following are examples of adjectives with the prefix **a** which can be used only as predicate adjectives, not as attributive adjectives. The prefix **a** was formerly a preposition meaning **on**.

Adjectives used only Predicatively
afloat
afraid
aglow
alive
alone
asleep

In some cases, related words can be used as attributive adjectives. In the following examples, words used only as predicate adjectives and related words used as attributive adjectives are underlined.

Predicate Adjectives	Attributive Adjectives
The boat is afloat.	the floating boat
The child is afraid.	the frightened child
The sky is aglow.	the glowing sky
The animal is alive.	the live animal
The boy is asleep.	the sleeping boy

As illustrated below, the words **here**, **there** and **ready** can be used as predicate adjectives.
e.g. The children are here.
The records were there.
I am ready.

The words **here** and **there** are often used as adverbs, and cannot be used as attributive adjectives. The word **ready** is used as an attributive adjective only in certain expressions such as **ready money** and **a ready answer**.

As illustrated in the following examples, a few adjectives differ in meaning, depending upon whether they are used as predicate adjectives or attributive adjectives.
e.g. The treasurer was present.
the present treasurer

Robin Harris was late.
the late Robin Harris

My friend is poor.
my poor friend

In the sentence **the treasurer was present**, the predicate adjective **present** indicates that the treasurer was not absent. However, in the phrase **the present treasurer**, the attributive adjective **present** indicates that the person referred to holds the position of treasurer at the present time.

In the sentence **Robin Harris was late**, the predicate adjective **late** indicates that Robin Harris did not arrive on time. However, in the phrase **the late Robin Harris**, the attributive adjective **late** indicates that Robin Harris is no longer alive.

In the sentence **my friend is poor**, the predicate adjective **poor** indicates that my friend has little money. However, in the phrase **my poor friend**, the attributive adjective **poor** indicates that my friend is in an unfortunate situation.

See Exercise 13.

c. Linking verbs
In addition to the verb **to be**, certain other verbs can be followed by predicate adjectives. Such verbs are sometimes referred to as **linking** verbs, since they can link nouns or pronouns to modifying adjectives. For instance, the following verbs can be used as linking verbs.

Linking Verb	Linking Verb used with Predicate Adjective
to become	The wind became stronger.
to feel	The blanket feels soft, warm and comfortable.
to grow	The weather is growing cold.
to look	The sky looked grey and overcast.
to seem	His reasoning seems logical.
to smell	The soup smelled good.
to sound	The story sounds interesting.
to taste	The carrots tasted sweet.
to turn	The leaves turned scarlet.

In the above examples, the linking verbs link noun subjects with predicate adjectives.

When a verb is used as a linking verb, it is intransitive, since it does not take an object. It should be noted that many of the verbs listed above can also be used transitively.
e.g. The child felt the blankets.
We smelled the soup.
In these examples, the verbs **to feel** and **to smell** are used transitively, taking the objects **blankets** and **soup** respectively.

See Exercise 14.

4. Interpolated adjectives

As well as being used as attributive or predicate adjectives, general descriptive adjectives and adjectives indicating color can also be placed elsewhere in a sentence. When used in this way, adjectives can be said to be **interpolated** into a sentence. In the following sentences, the interpolated adjectives are underlined.

e.g. The child, happy and excited, ran along the beach.
Startled, the small yellow bird stopped singing.
Tense, expectant and alert, we waited to see what would happen.

Since the use of interpolated adjectives is somewhat uncommon, the use of interpolation can serve to emphasize the adjectives. Interpolated adjectives are most often placed immediately after a noun, as shown in the first example; or before a noun or pronoun at the beginning of a sentence, as shown in the second and third examples.

As illustrated above, a noun can be modified simultaneously by both interpolated and attributive adjectives. For instance, in the second example, the noun **bird** is modified by both the interpolated adjective **startled** and the attributive adjectives **the small yellow**.

Care must be taken in the positioning of interpolated adjectives, since the reader or listener will usually assume that the adjectives modify the nearest noun or pronoun.

As can be seen from the examples, the punctuation of interpolated adjectives is similar to that of predicate adjectives. When more than one adjective is used, the last two adjectives are separated from one another by the word **and**, and previous adjectives are separated from one another by commas.

However, unlike predicate adjectives, interpolated adjectives must also be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. For instance, in the first example above, the interpolated adjectives **happy and excited** are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma before the word **happy**, and a comma following the word **excited**. Likewise, in the second example, the interpolated adjective **startled** is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; and in the third example, the interpolated adjectives **tense, expectant and alert** are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma following the word **alert**.

Interpolated adjectives are used more often in written English than in spoken English.

See Exercise 15.

5. Adjectival phrases and clauses

Nouns and pronouns can be modified not only by adjectives, but also by adjectival phrases and clauses. In the following examples, the adjectival phrases and clauses are underlined.

e.g. The table near the door is made of oak.
The one on the desk is mine.
The chair, which was placed in front of the window, was an heirloom.
Those who decide to come will not be disappointed.

In the first example, the noun **table** is modified by the adjectival phrase **near the door**. In the second example, the pronoun **one** is modified by the adjectival phrase **on the desk**. In the third example, the noun **chair** is modified by the adjectival clause **which was placed in front of the window**. In the fourth example, the pronoun **those** is modified by the adjectival clause **who decide to come**.

It should be noted that phrases do not contain verbs, whereas clauses do contain verbs. Phrases and clauses will be discussed further in the chapters dealing with prepositions and conjunctions. As illustrated in the preceding examples, an adjectival phrase or clause usually immediately follows the noun or pronoun being modified.

6. Participles used as adjectives

As has already been mentioned, present and past participles of verbs can be used as adjectives.

a. Present participles
Present participles used as adjectives refer to actions being performed **by** the things being described. In the following examples the present participles used as adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the falling star
the barking dog
The first example indicates that the star is performing the action of falling. The second example indicates that the dog is performing the action of barking.

b. Past participles
Past participles used as adjectives refer to actions which have been performed **on** the things being described. In the following examples, the past participles used as adjectives are underlined.
e.g. the scattered leaves
the broken drum
The first example indicates that something has scattered the leaves. The second example indicates that something has broken the drum.

See Exercise 16.

c. Dangling participles
As well as being used as attributive and predicate adjectives, past and present participles can also be used at the beginning of adjectival phrases interpolated into a sentence. In the following sentences, the interpolated adjectival phrases are underlined. As illustrated by the examples, an interpolated phrase must be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.
e.g. Feeling hungry, the child ate an apple.

Disconcerted by the news, we headed for the nearest farmhouse.

In the first example, the present participle **feeling** begins the adjectival phrase **feeling hungry**, which modifies the noun **child**. In the second example, the past participle **disconcerted** begins the adjectival phrase **disconcerted by the news**, which modifies the pronoun **we**.

Since the listener or reader tends to assume that an interpolated adjectival phrase is meant to modify the nearest noun or pronoun, care must be taken to make sure that such a phrase is positioned close to the noun or pronoun to be modified. A participle that begins an interpolated phrase that is not sufficiently close to the noun or pronoun to be modified is usually referred to as a **dangling** participle. Dangling participles can result in ambiguity, or in sentences which do not make sense.

In the following sentences, the phrases beginning with dangling participles are underlined.
e.g. The photographer focused the camera, holding his breath.
Running across the road, his hat blew off.

In the first example, the noun to be modified is **photographer**. However, the phrase **holding his breath** is separated from the noun to be modified by the noun **camera**. Thus, the phrase **holding his breath** seems to modify the noun **camera**. In the second example, the noun or pronoun to be modified is missing from the sentence, and the phrase **running across the road** seems to modify the noun **hat**.

These example illustrate two basic types of dangling participle. In one type, the participle begins an adjectival phrase which is separated from the noun or pronoun to be modified by another noun or pronoun. In the other type, the participle begins an adjectival phrase that is meant to modify a noun or pronoun which in fact is not present in the sentence.

When an adjectival phrase is separated from the noun or pronoun to be modified by another noun or pronoun, the sentence can be corrected by positioning the adjectival phrase next to the noun or pronoun to be modified. This can often be accomplished by moving the phrase from one end of the sentence to the other.

For instance, in the sentences below, the nouns to be modified and the phrases containing dangling participles are underlined.
e.g. The photographer focused the camera, holding his breath.
Working as quickly as possible, our car was repaired by a mechanic.
Lost for over thirty years, she was overjoyed to find the diaries.
In these examples, **holding his breath** seems to modify the noun **camera**, **working as quickly as possible** seems to modify the noun **car**, and **lost for over thirty years** seems to modify the pronoun **she**.

These sentences can be corrected as follows.
e.g. Holding his breath, the photographer focused the camera.
Our car was repaired by a mechanic, working as quickly as possible.
She was overjoyed to find the diaries, lost for over thirty years.
In the corrected sentences, the adjectival phrases are correctly positioned near the

nouns to be modified.

See Exercise 17.

When an adjectival phrase is meant to modify a noun or pronoun which in fact is not present in the sentence, the sentence can be corrected by rewriting either the adjectival phrase or the rest of the sentence, so that the missing noun or pronoun is supplied. For instance, in the sentences below, the phrases containing dangling participles are underlined.

e.g. Running across the road, his hat blew off.
Sitting lost in thought, the book slipped from her hand.
Determined not to be late, our watches were set ten minutes fast.

These sentences can be corrected as follows. In the corrected sentences, the noun or pronoun which was missing from the original sentence is underlined. Two corrected versions are given for each of the preceding sentences.

e.g. As he ran across the road, his hat blew off.
Running across the road, he lost his hat.

As she sat lost in thought, the book slipped from her hand.
Sitting lost in thought, she let the book slip from her hand.

Because we were determined not to be late, our watches were set ten minutes fast.
Determined not to be late, we set our watches ten minutes fast.

In the first corrected version of each of the preceding sentences, the adjectival phrase has been changed to an adjectival clause containing the pronoun which was missing from the original sentence. Thus, the interpolated phrase **running across the road** has been changed to the subordinate clause **as he ran across the road**, the interpolated phrase **sitting lost in thought** has been changed to the subordinate clause **as she sat lost in thought**, and the interpolated phrase **determined not to be late** has been changed to the subordinate clause **because we were determined not to be late**.

In the second corrected version of each of the sentences, the main clause of the sentence has been rewritten so that the pronoun which was missing from the original sentence is positioned next to the adjectival phrase which is meant to modify the pronoun. Thus, whereas in the incorrect sentences, the underlined adjectival phrases seem to modify the adjacent nouns **hat**, **book** and **watches**; in the corrected sentences, the adjectival phrases correctly modify the pronouns **he**, **she** and **we**.

See Exercise 18.

d. Past participles which follow the verb To Be

In English, the verb **to be** followed by a past participle used as a predicate adjective has the same form as a verb in the Passive Voice. This feature of the language can result in ambiguity. For instance, the following examples each have more than one possible meaning.

e.g. The doors will be closed at nine o'clock.
The train was stopped at midnight.

In the first example, **will be closed** could be the Simple Future of the verb **to be**, followed by the predicate adjective **closed**. In this case, the sentence would have the meaning that at nine o'clock, the doors will not be open. On the other hand, **will be closed** could be the Simple Future Passive of the verb **to close**. In this case, the sentence would imply that at nine o'clock, someone will close the doors.

Similarly, in the second example, **was stopped** could be the Simple Past of the verb **to be**, followed by the predicate adjective **stopped**. In this case, the sentence would indicate that at midnight, the train was not moving. On the other hand, **was stopped** could be the Simple Past Passive of the verb **to stop**. In this case, the sentence would imply that at midnight, someone stopped the train.

EXERCISES for Chapter 21

1. Combine each of the following phrases with the adjective given in brackets by changing the adjective to a pronoun, and using the word **of**. For example:

an original recipe (our)
an original recipe <u>of ours</u>

these red scarves (either)
<u>either of</u> these red scarves

the old movies (no)
<u>none of</u> the old movies

1. that new bicycle (my)
2. the students (each)
3. those leather briefcases (neither)
4. these two books (your)
5. her latest inventions (some)
6. that second-hand typewriter (his)
7. their unusual experiences (another)
8. these rubber boots (no)
9. that velvet dress (her)
10. those black shoes (any)

Answers

2. Place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying nouns, arranging the adjectives in the correct order. For example:

cats (two, my)
my two cats

apples (these, three)
these three apples

people (other, four)
four other people

chairs (more, seven)
seven more chairs

1. maps (our, ten)
2. cows (twenty-five, all)
3. book (one, that)
4. socks (other, six)
5. lamps (those, twenty)
6. icicles (two, the)
7. manuscripts (her, three)
8. folders (twelve, these)
9. mistakes (other, seven)
10. pencils (more, two)
11. questions (another, five)
12. children (three, which)

Answers

3. Place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying nouns, arranging the adjectives in the correct order. For example:

bags (heavy, three)
three heavy bags

windows (two, large, the)
the two large windows

1. envelopes (large, four, her)
2. tables (small, both, the)
3. birds (tiny, those, three)
4. brothers (tall, two, her)
5. quilts (six, thick, all)
6. coats (heavy, his, two)
7. rooms (these, four, huge)
8. pumpkins (ten, his, medium-sized)

Answers

4. Place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying nouns, arranging the adjectives in the correct order. Make sure that the general descriptive adjectives are separated from one another by commas. For example:

mirror (small, octagonal, the, highly-polished)
the small, highly-polished, octagonal mirror

horses (frisky, their, young, three)
their three frisky, young horses

1. jacket (light, your, short-sleeved)
2. lenses (curved, small, three)
3. puppy (four-week-old, our, damp, warm)
4. discoveries (two, unexpected)
5. carpet (heavy, a, round, thick)
6. climate (humid, hot, the)
7. blankets (dry, warm)
8. table (low, oval, their)

Answers

5. Place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying nouns, arranging the adjectives in the correct order. For example:

cloth (cotton, purple)
purple cotton cloth

vases (Chinese, blue)
blue Chinese vases

1. tents (canvas, green)
2. houses (Victorian, crimson)
3. curtains (white, lace)
4. cheese (Swiss, yellow)
5. ladders (wooden, brown)
6. blinds (pink, Venetian)
7. hats (felt, black)
8. cabinets (Renaissance, red)

Answers

6. Place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying nouns, arranging the adjectives in the correct order. Make sure that the general descriptive adjectives are separated from one another by commas. For example:

skirt (beautiful, black, new, velvet, a)
a beautiful, new black velvet skirt

fossils (Devonian, three, white, small)
three small white Devonian fossils

box (brass, her, square, heavy)
her heavy, square brass box

1. belt (green, beautiful, leather, a)
2. hood (dry, his, warm)
3. actors (old, two, Shakespearian, famous)
4. beads (glass, round, blue, tiny)
5. baby (lively, her, six-month-old)
6. dress (satin, a, white, long)
7. steps (narrow, cement, ten)
8. basement (cool, damp, the)
9. wolfhounds (Russian, two, grey, huge)
10. carvings (delicate, sandalwood, three)

Answers

7. Rewrite the following phrases, changing the underlined words to defining adjectives. For example:

black boots used for <u>hiking</u>
black <u>hiking</u> boots

a plastic cup used for holding <u>eggs</u>

a plastic egg cup

a green carton used for storing milk
a green milk carton

1. a new beater used for beating eggs
2. a wooden ladle used for serving soup
3. a large tin used for storing cookies
4. an old brush used for scrubbing
5. a glass plate used for baking pies
6. a light shovel used for shoveling snow
7. a metal rack used for storing hats
8. leather shoes used for jogging
9. a small house used for storing boats
10. a wicker basket used for holding bread

Answers

8. Paying attention to the usual order of attributive adjectives, place the adjectives given in brackets before the accompanying fixed expressions. Insert commas between the adjectives where appropriate. For example:

cuckoo clock (brown, a, Swiss, small)
a small brown Swiss cuckoo clock

life jackets (foam, thick, orange, three, new)
three thick, new orange foam life jackets

1. watering can (round, a, heavy, metal)
2. salt shaker (white, beautiful, porcelain, her)
3. computer games (Nintendo, new, two, exciting)
4. rose bush (prickly, small, two-year-old, this)
5. table cloths (cotton, these, pink)
6. willow branches (green, trailing, long)
7. fire engines (medium-sized, red, two)
8. coffee cup (his, yellow, heavy)
9. flower beds (heart-shaped, five, beautifully-designed)
10. front door (imposing, the, blue)
11. flower pot (green, big, plastic, that)
12. bath towel (damp, a, white, warm, flannel)
13. city buses (beige, ten, efficient, large)
14. watch dog (one-year-old, fierce, small, their)

Answers

9. Explain how the following expressions differ in meaning:

the last interesting chapter
the interesting last chapter

Answers

10. Underline the attributive adjectives in the following paragraph, and insert commas where necessary.

At one end of the large old rectangular room was a long low sofa covered with an orange cotton cloth. Against the two wooden arms of the sofa rested red velvet cushions with beautiful long dangling silk tassels. Near the sofa was a small intricately-woven Persian carpet with a fascinating design. Two proud elegant peacocks with shimmering turquoise feathers were depicted against a background of short lush grass, clear reflecting pools, and white marble statues in a delightful palace garden.
Answers

11. Paying attention to the types of adjectives which immediately precede the nouns, for each of the following phrases, underline the word or words which receive the most stress in spoken English. For example:

a big black box
a big black box

a yellow straw hat
a yellow straw hat

convenient downtown shopping
convenient downtown shopping

an ordinary Monday morning
an ordinary Monday morning

a towel rack
a towel rack

1. soup bowls
2. a convenient cupboard
3. underwater photography
4. the telephone directory
5. rubber gloves
6. a bread board
7. a sunny day
8. a new kitchen sink
9. long green grass
10. a fine Sunday afternoon
11. a red pencil sharpener
12. the back door
13. a prancing horse
14. an egg beater
15. a gold watch
16. a glass jar
17. a library card
18. the evening star
19. a thick carpet
20. a butter dish

Answers

12. Using the Simple Present of the verb **to be**, rewrite the following phrases as

sentences, changing the attributive adjectives to predicate adjectives, and making any other changes that are required. For example:

the strong wind
The wind is strong.

the thick, warm shirts
The shirts are thick and warm.

the lively, interesting, entertaining festivals
The festivals are lively, interesting and entertaining.

the long, broad, well-managed, intensively-cultivated estate
The estate is long, broad, well-managed and intensively-cultivated.

the three-day-old colts
The colts are three days old.

1. the hot water
2. the large, threatening grey clouds
3. the thin blue book
4. the Spanish recipe
5. the one-year-old park
6. the collapsible umbrellas
7. the large white basins
8. the detailed, colorful, captivating painting
9. the two-year-old child
10. the purple cloth
11. the fast, efficient service
12. the ten-month-old houses
13. the intelligent, hard-working, responsible, reliable student
14. the long, well-written, informative letters

Answers

13. Paying attention to which adjectives are normally used only attributively and which are normally used only predicatively, write phrases or sentences in which the adjectives shown in brackets modify the accompanying nouns. Write a phrase if the adjective can be used only attributively, and write a sentence if the adjective can be used only predicatively. For example:

nonsense (utter)
utter nonsense

the bird (alive)
The bird is alive.

1. the children (asleep)
2. the street (main)
3. our friends (here)
4. their assistant (afraid)
5. the consideration (principal)
6. her brother (alone)

7. the performers (ready)
8. the cliffs (sheer)
9. the house (there)
10. the reason (chief)
Answers

14. Using the Simple Past tense of the verbs shown in brackets, change the following phrases into sentences in which the adjectives are used as predicate adjectives. For example:

the beautiful music (to sound)
The music sounded beautiful.

the delicious stew (to smell)
The stew smelled delicious.

1. the sour lemon (to taste)
2. the rough surface (to feel)
3. the excited child (to grow)
4. the relieved students (to seem)
5. the awkward silence (to become)
6. the sweet roses (to smell)
7. the golden wheat (to turn)
8. the confident singer (to look)
Answers

15. For each of the following sentences, insert commas where appropriate, in order to separate the interpolated adjectives from the rest of the sentence. For example:

The marshes broad and windy stretched as far as the eye could see.
The marshes, broad and windy, stretched as far as the eye could see.

Delighted and encouraged the researchers continued their efforts.
Delighted and encouraged, the researchers continued their efforts.

1. Leaping and dancing the flames lit up the lakeshore.
2. The bells deep and resonant could be heard a mile away.
3. The flowers sweet-smelling and colorful attracted many bees.
4. Sunny and warm the climate was ideal for tourists.
5. The shears heavy and awkward were difficult to use.
6. Beautiful and delicate the flowers could be found only in the high mountains.
7. Twittering and chirping the birds circled overhead.
8. The children silent and attentive watched the magician closely.
Answers

16. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with either the present participle or the past participle of the verb shown in brackets. Use a present participle to refer to something being done by the thing being described; and use a past participle to refer to something which has been done to the thing being described. For example:

The evidence is _____. (to convince)
The evidence is <u>convincing</u>.

The _____ treasure was discovered accidentally. (to hide)
The hidden treasure was discovered accidentally.

1. Yesterday she heard _____ news. (to surprise)
2. The _____ tools must be returned by five o'clock. (to rent)
3. The _____ rabbit stayed perfectly still. (to frighten)
4. We had a _____ experience. (to frighten)
5. The play is _____. (to entertain)
6. The _____ picture hung on the wall. (to complete)
7. That is an _____ story. (to interest)
8. The king sat on a _____ chair. (to raise)
9. The situation is _____. (to alarm)
10. An _____ bowl covered the cake. (to invert)
11. The _____ lullaby sent the infant to sleep. (to soothe)
12. A _____ walkway joined the two buildings. (to cover)
13. They laid the _____ clothes on the bed. (to fold)
14. _____ smells floated out of the kitchen. (to entice)
15. He stacked the _____ wood near the fireplace. (to chop)

Answers

17. Each of the following sentences contains an interpolated adjectival phrase which is separated from the noun or pronoun to be modified by another noun or pronoun. For each sentence, underline the word to be modified, and correct the sentence by moving the adjectival phrase so that it is positioned close to the word to be modified. For example:

The bird perched in the tree, folding its wings.
Folding its wings, the bird perched in the tree.

Lighting a cigarette, the door was opened by a young woman.
The door was opened by a young woman, lighting a cigarette.

He searched for his keys, tired from the journey.
Tired from the journey, he searched for his keys.

1. Wanting to entertain us, the story was told to us by a nurse.
2. She decided to apply for the position, attracted by the advertisement.
3. Driving a brightly colored van, the parcel was delivered by a courier.
4. He looked through the book, glancing from time to time at his watch.
5. Wilted from the sun, we replaced the flowers.
6. The fire delighted the children, crackling and throwing off sparks.
7. Our friend made us a cake, wishing to do us a favor.
8. Anticipating an entertaining evening, the arena was soon filled with eager spectators.

Answers

18. This exercise contains sentences in which the noun or pronoun to be modified by the interpolated adjectival phrase is missing. Below each sentence is a rewritten, partially corrected version of the sentence. Study the corrections which have already been made, and complete the sentences with personal pronouns which make sense in the sentences. For example:

Incorrect: Following in his footsteps, our destination was soon reached.
Corrected: Following in his footsteps, __ soon reached our destination.
Following in his footsteps, we soon reached our destination.

Incorrect: Finding no one at home, his plans had to be changed.
Corrected: Finding no one at home, __ had to change his plans.
Finding no one at home, he had to change his plans.

1. Incorrect: Anxiously waiting for her guests to appear, the hands of the clock seemed to stand still.
Corrected: As _____ anxiously waited for her guests to appear, the hands of the clock seemed to stand still.

2. Incorrect: Wanting to make a good impression, his hair was carefully combed.
Corrected: Wanting to make a good impression, _____ carefully combed his hair.

3. Incorrect: Knowing what we did, the message was easy to interpret.
Corrected: Knowing what we did, _____ easily interpreted the message.

4. Incorrect: Quickly opening her presents, wrapping paper was scattered all over the floor.
Corrected: Quickly opening her presents, _____ scattered wrapping paper all over the floor.

5. Incorrect: Attempting to dry the dishes, one of the plates slipped out of his hand.
Corrected: As _____ attempted to dry the dishes, one of the plates slipped out of his hand.

6. Incorrect: Having been elected president, her plans could now be carried out.
Corrected: Having been elected president, _____ could now carry out her plans.

7. Incorrect: Wondering what had happened, our questions remained unanswered.
Corrected: Although _____ wondered what had happened, our questions remained unanswered.

8. Incorrect: Entering the room, all eyes were turned in her direction.
Corrected: As _____ entered the room, all eyes were turned in her direction.

9. Incorrect: Rearranging her papers, her notes fell onto the floor.
Corrected: As _____ rearranged her papers, her notes fell onto the floor.

10. Incorrect: Pretending not to mind, their disappointment was obvious.
Corrected: Although _____ pretended not to mind, their disappointment was obvious.
Answers

19. Explain the two possible meanings of each of the following sentences.

The flag was lowered at noon.
The work was finished yesterday evening.

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 21

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. that new bicycle of mine 2. each of the students 3. neither of those leather briefcases 4. these two books of yours 5. some of her latest inventions 6. that second-hand typewriter of his 7. another of their unusual experiences 8. none of these rubber boots 9. that velvet dress of hers 10. any of those black shoes

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. our ten maps 2. all twenty-five cows 3. that one book 4. six other socks 5. those twenty lamps 6. the two icicles 7. her three manuscripts 8. these twelve folders 9. seven other mistakes 10. two more pencils 11. another five questions 12. which three children

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. her four large envelopes 2. both the small tables 3. those three tiny birds 4. her two tall brothers 5. all six thick quilts 6. his two heavy coats 7. these four huge rooms 8. his ten medium-sized pumpkins

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. your light, short-sleeved jacket 2. three small, curved lenses 3. our warm, damp, four-week-old puppy 4. two unexpected discoveries 5. a thick, heavy, round carpet 6. the hot, humid climate 7. warm, dry blankets 8. their low, oval table

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. green canvas tents 2. crimson Victorian houses 3. white lace curtains 4. yellow Swiss cheese 5. brown wooden ladders 6. pink Venetian blinds 7. black felt hats 8. red Renaissance cabinets

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. a beautiful green leather belt 2. his warm, dry hood 3. two famous, old Shakespearian actors 4. tin, round blue glass beads 5. her lively, six-month-old baby 6. a long white satin dress 7. ten narrow cement steps 8. the cool, damp basement 9. two huge grey Russian wolfhounds 10. three delicate sandalwood carvings

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. a new egg beater 2. a wooden soup ladle 3. a large cookie tin 4. an old scrubbing brush 5. a glass pie plate 6. a light snow shovel 7. a metal hat rack 8. leather jogging shoes 9. a small boat house 10. a wicker bread basket

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. a heavy, round metal watering can 2. her beautiful white porcelain salt shaker 3. two exciting, new Nintendo computer games 4. this small, prickly, two-year-old rose bush 5. these pink cotton table cloths 6. long, trailing green willow branches 7. two medium-sized red fire engines 8. his heavy yellow coffee cup 9. five beautifully-designed, heart-shaped flower beds 10. the broad, imposing blue front door 11. that big green plastic

flower pot 12. a warm, damp white flannel bath towel 13. ten large, efficient beige city buses 14. their small, fierce, one-year-old watch dog

Answers to Exercise 9:
"The last interesting chapter" means that this chapter is interesting, but none of the following chapters are interesting.
"The interesting last chapter" means that this is the last chapter, and it is interesting.

Answers to Exercise 10:
At one end of the large, old, rectangular room was a long, low sofa covered with an orange cotton cloth. Against the two wooden arms of the sofa rested red velvet cushions with beautiful, long, dangling silk tassels. Near the sofa was a small, intricately-woven Persian carpet with a fascinating design. Two proud, elegant peacocks with shimmering turquoise feathers were depicted against a background of short, lush grass; clear, reflecting pools and white marble statues in a delightful palace garden.

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. soup bowls 2. a convenient cupboard 3. underwater photography 4. the telephone directory 5. rubber gloves 6. a bread board 7. a sunny day 8. a new kitchen sink 9. long green grass 10. a fine Sunday afternoon 11. a red pencil sharpener 12. the back door 13. a prancing horse 14. an egg beater 15. a gold watch 16. a glass jar 17. a library card 18. the evening star 19. a thick carpet 20. a butter dish

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. The water Is hot. 2. The clouds are large, threatening and grey. 3. The book is thin and blue. 4. The recipe is Spanish. 5. The park is one year old. 6. The umbrellas are collapsible. 7. The basins are large and white. 8. The painting is detailed, colorful and captivating. 9. The child is two years old. 10. The cloth is purple. 11. The service is fast and efficient. 12. The houses are ten months old. 13. The student is intelligent, hard-working, responsible and reliable. 14. The letters are long, well-written and informative.

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. The children are asleep. 2. the main street 3. Our friends are here. 4. Their assistant is afraid. 5. the principal consideration 6. Her brother is alone. 7. The performers are ready. 8. the sheer cliffs 9. The house is there. 10. the chief reason

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. The lemon tasted sour. 2. The surface felt rough. 3. The child grew excited. 4. The students seemed relieved. 5. The silence became awkward. 6. The roses smelled sweet. 7. The wheat turned golden. 8. The singer looked confident.

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. Leaping and dancing, the flames lit up the lakeshore. 2. The bells, deep and resonant, could be heard a mile away. 3. The flowers, sweet-smelling and colorful, attracted many bees. 4. Sunny and warm, the climate was ideal for tourists. 5. The shears, heavy and awkward, were difficult to use. 6. Beautiful and delicate, the flowers could be found only in the high mountains. 7. Twittering and chirping, the birds circled overhead. 8. The children, silent and attentive, watched the magician closely.

Answers to Exercise 16:
1. surprising 2. rented 3. frightened 4. frightening 5. entertaining 6. completed 7. interesting 8. raised 9. alarming 10. inverted 11. soothing 12. covered 13. folded 14. Enticing 15. chopped

Answers to Exercise 17:
1. The story was told to us by a nurse, wanting to entertain us. 2. Attracted by the advertisement, she decided to apply for the position. 3. The parcel was delivered by a courier driving a brightly colored van. 4. Glancing from time to time at his watch, he looked through the book. 5. We replaced the flowers, wilted from the sun. 6. Crackling and throwing off sparks, the fire delighted the children. 7. Wishing to do us a favor, our friend made us a cake. 8. The arena was soon filled with eager spectators, anticipating an entertaining evening.

Answers to Exercise 18:
1. she 2. he 3. we 4. she 5. he 6. she 7. we 8. she 9. she 10. they

Answers to Exercise 19:
"The flag was lowered at noon" can mean: 1) At noon, the flag was already down, **or** 2) At noon, someone lowered the flag.
"The work was finished yesterday evening" can mean: 1) Yesterday evening, the work was already complete, **or** 2) Yesterday evening, someone finished the work.

CHAPTER 22. ADJECTIVES USED IN COMPARISONS: PART 1

As well as being used to describe persons and things, adjectives which refer to qualities can also be used to compare two or more different persons or things. For instance, in the following sentences, the adjectives used in comparisons are underlined.
e.g. He is as tall as his brother.
She is older than her sister.
They are the youngest students in the class.

1. Positive forms of adjectives preceded and followed by As

The unaltered form of an adjective is often referred to as the **positive** form of the adjective. In the preceding chapter, only the positive form of adjectives was used.

The positive forms of adjectives referring to qualities can be used in making certain types of comparisons. For example, in the following sentences, the positive forms of the adjectives **proud** and **intelligent** are combined with the word **as** in order to make comparisons.
e.g. She is as proud as a peacock.
They are as intelligent as I am.

When used in making comparisons, the positive form of an adjective is usually employed

as a predicate adjective, preceded and followed by the word **as**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	**as**	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
Swans		are		as		white		as		snow.
Tom		is		as		tall		as		his father.

This type of construction can be used to indicate that the things being compared are equal in some respect. For instance, the first example indicates that swans and snow are equally white. The second example indicates that Tom and his father are equally tall.

The sentence **She is as proud as a peacock** gives an example of a traditional English saying which compares a person having a certain quality to an animal which is noted for possessing that quality. In the following sentences, the traditional expressions are underlined.

e.g. He is <u>as clever as a monkey</u>.
She is <u>as wise as an owl</u>.
My sister looks <u>as pretty as a princess</u>.

The use of this construction with **as** to compare two different types of thing, such as a person and an animal, results in a type of comparison referred to as a **simile**.

See Exercise 1.

The meaning of an expression using **as**, followed by an adjective, followed by **as** can be qualified by adverbs such as **not**, **almost**, **twice**, **three times**, **half**, **one-third** and so on. The adverbs in the following sentences are underlined.

e.g. He is <u>not</u> as hard-working as his brother.
She is <u>almost</u> as tall as he is.
Her sister is <u>twice</u> as old as I am.
A millimeter is <u>one-tenth</u> as long as a centimeter.

As shown below, in such a construction, the adverb is placed before the first occurrence of the word **as**.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	<u>adverb</u>	+	**as**	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
He		is		<u>nearly</u>		as		clever		as		his uncle.
The trees		are		<u>not</u>		as		tall		as		the house.

See Exercise 2.

a. The positive form combined with a noun
The construction **as**, followed by an adjective, followed by **as** can also be combined with a noun, as shown in the following examples.
e.g. Gail is as strong a swimmer as Beth.
Mabel is as clever an administrator as Robin.
The girls are as good students as the boys.

In the first example, Gail is being compared as a swimmer to Beth. In the second example, Mabel is being compared as an administrator to Robin. In the third example, the girls are being compared as students to the boys.

As illustrated in these examples, if the noun following the adjective is a singular countable noun, it must be separated from the adjective by the indefinite article **a** or **an**. The position of **a** or **an** is indicated in the summary below.

	as +	positive form of adjective +	**a** or **an** +	noun +	**as**	
He is	as	fine	a	man	as	his father.
She is	as	good	an	instructor	as	her colleague.

In the case of plural nouns, no article is required.
e.g. The boys are as reliable workers as one can find.
They are as powerful athletes as their competitors.

See Exercise 3.

b. The use of ellipsis
The construction **as** followed by an adjective, followed by **as**, can also be combined with longer phrases and clauses, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. New York is as distant from San Francisco as Boston is from London.
Music is as important to Cora as literature is to her brother.

In the first example, the distance of New York from San Francisco is being compared to the distance of Boston from London. In the second example, the importance of music to Cora is being compared to the importance of literature to her brother.

The preceding examples illustrate the use of ellipsis. The sentences could also be written as follows. The words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. New York is as distant from San Francisco as Boston is [distant] from London.
Music is as important to Cora as literature is [important] to her brother.
In such sentences, the adjective in the second part of the sentence is usually omitted, in order to make the sentence less awkward.

Ellipsis is also commonly used following a noun representing the second thing being compared. For instance, in the following sentences, the final verbs are omitted.

e.g. He is as tall as his brother.
I am as good a swimmer as her sisters.

These sentences could also be written:
e.g. He is as tall as his brother is.
I am as good a swimmer as her sisters are.

In informal English, the final verb is usually not omitted following a personal pronoun representing the second thing being compared.
e.g. I am as tall as he is.
She is as good a swimmer as I am.

However, in formal English, the final verb following a personal pronoun representing the second thing being compared is sometimes omitted.
e.g. I am as tall as he.
She is as good a swimmer as I.

c. The use of the subjective case
As shown above, when a personal pronoun is used in a comparison to represent the second thing being compared, the subjective case of the pronoun should be used. The reason for this is that the pronoun is the subject of a verb, even when the verb is omitted by means of ellipsis.

In informal English, the objective case of such personal pronouns is sometimes used.
e.g. I am as tall as him.
She is as good as swimmer as me.
However, this use of the objective case is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 4.

2. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which use endings

As pointed out in the discussion on the possessive forms of nouns, some elements of English grammar are derived from Teutonic languages, such as German, while other elements are derived from Romance languages, particularly French.

Many English adjectives follow the model of French adjectives. These adjectives are combined with adverbs in order to express different types of comparison. In the following examples, the adjectives **careful** and **excitable** are combined with the adverbs **more** and **most**.
e.g. She is more careful than I am.
He is the most excitable boy in the class.

However, in general, the shortest and most commonly used English adjectives follow the model of languages such as German. These adjectives use endings in order to express different types of comparison.
e.g. She is taller than I am.
He is the oldest boy in the class.

The adjectives which use endings in order to express different types of comparison include most one-syllable adjectives, and two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**. For example:

brave
tall
easy
happy

In the above examples, **brave** and **tall** are one-syllable adjectives, while **easy** and **happy** are two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**.

A few other two-syllable adjectives are also sometimes used with endings. For example:

able
simple
clever
quiet
narrow
shallow

It should be noted that one-syllable past participles used as adjectives are usually not used with endings.

a. Comparative forms of adjectives which use endings

The comparative form of an adjective is most often used to compare things which differ in some respect. In the following examples, the comparative forms of adjectives are underlined.

e.g. Louis is <u>younger</u> than Mark.
You are a <u>better</u> actor than he is.

The comparative form of adjectives which use endings is formed with the ending **er**. As illustrated below, the spelling rules which apply when adding the ending **er** to an adjective are the same as those which apply when adding the ending **ed** to a verb.

i. Spelling Rules

In most cases, the ending **er** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
fast	faster
strong	stronger
tall	taller
young	younger

However, when an adjective ends in a silent **e**, the silent **e** is dropped before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
brave	braver
close	closer

late	later

When an adjective ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, the **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
dry	drier
early	earlier
easy	easier

When an adjective ends in a single consonant other than **w**, **x** or **y**, following a single stressed vowel, the final consonant is doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
big	bigger
hot	hotter
sad	sadder

When an adjective ends in **w**, **x** or **y**, following a single stressed vowel, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
slow	slower
lax	laxer
grey	greyer

It should be kept in mind that when an adjective ends in a single consonant following two vowels, the final consonant is not doubled before the ending **er** is added. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form
loud	louder
neat	neater
soon	sooner

See Exercise 5.

ii. Irregular adjectives

A few of the adjectives which are used with endings have irregular comparative forms. The comparative forms of the irregular English adjectives are as follows.

Positive Form	Comparative Form
bad	worse
far	farther **or** further
good	better
little	less
many	more
much	more

As shown above, the adjective **far** has two comparative forms. The distinction is sometimes made that **farther** is used to refer to physical distances, while **further** is used to refer to figurative distances. For example:

The farther side of the river is more picturesque than this side.
Nothing could have been further from my mind.

It should be noted that the adjectives **many** and **much** both have the same comparative form, **more**.

See Exercise 6.

iii. The comparative form followed by Than

When used in comparisons, the comparative forms of adjectives are usually followed by the word **than**. For instance, the way in which two things differ in some respect can be expressed by using the comparative form of an adjective as a predicate adjective followed by **than**.

e.g. Paul is wiser than Greg.
The tree is taller than the house.

The first sentence indicates that Paul possesses greater wisdom than Greg. The second sentence indicates that the tree possesses greater height than the house.

This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	+	**to be** or other linking verb	+	comparative form of adjective	+	**than**	+	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
Jill		is		shorter		than		Maureen.
Ice		feels		colder		than		snow.
Driving a car		is		easier		than		riding a horse.

See Exercise 7.

iv. The comparative form followed by a noun, followed by Than

The comparative form of an adjective followed by **than** can also be combined with a noun.

e.g. She is a better cook than her sister.
He has wiser ideas than they do.

It should be noted that in this type of construction, when a singular countable noun is used after the adjective, the comparative form of the adjective follows the indefinite article **a** or **an**. This position of **a** or **an** is indicated in the summary below.

verb	+	**a** or **an**	+	comparative form of adjective	+	noun	+	**than**

Kate	is	a	braver	person	than	you are.
Steel	is	a	stronger	material	than	iron.
He	has	a	busier	schedule	than	I do.

It should be noted that this position of **a** or **an** is in contrast to the word order found in the construction with **as**. For instance, in the following examples, the adjectives are underlined and the indefinite article **a** is printed in bold type.
e.g. Kate is as brave **a** person as Robin.
Kate is **a** braver person than I am.

In the case of nouns which are uncountable or plural, no article is required. In the following examples, the uncountable or plural nouns preceding the word **than** are underlined.
e.g. We produce sweeter honey than they do.
They are better actors than we are.
She has warmer gloves than her friend does.

See Exercise 8.

The comparative form of an adjective followed by **than** can also be combined with longer phrases and clauses, as illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. The air is fresher in the mountains **than** in the valleys.
The work seems easier once one becomes familiar with it **than** it does at first.

v. The use of ellipsis
In comparisons using the comparative form of an adjective, the second half of the comparison is often omitted completely, when it is considered obvious what is meant. In each of the following examples, the part of the comparison which might normally be omitted is enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. Things could get worse [than they are now].
I do not want to walk much further [than this].
Would you like more milk [than you already have]?

vi. The use of the subjective case
In comparisons using **than**, personal pronouns following **than** should be in the subjective case.
e.g. I am taller than he is.
She is a better student than I am.

In formal English, the final verb of such sentences is sometimes omitted.
e.g. I am taller than he.
She is a better student than I.

In informal English, the objective case of a personal pronoun is often used after **than**.
e.g. I am taller than him.
She is a better student than me.
However, this use of the objective case is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 9.

vii. Progressive comparisons
As well as being used in combination with **than** to compare objects which differ in some respect, the comparative form of an adjective can also be used to describe a characteristic which is becoming progressively more pronounced.
e.g. The waves are growing rougher and rougher.
The sounds became fainter and fainter.

The first example indicates that the waves are growing progressively rougher than they were before. The second example indicates that the sounds became progressively fainter than they were before. The meaning expressed in these two examples can also be expressed as follows.
e.g. The waves are growing increasingly rough.
The sounds became increasingly faint.

In this type of construction, the comparative form of an adjective is used as a predicate adjective, and is repeated. The two occurrences of the adjective are connected by the word **and**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	comparative form of adjective	+	**and**	+	comparative form of adjective
The noise		is becoming		louder		and		louder.
The lights		grew		brighter		and		brighter.

In informal English, the verb **to get** is often used in this type of construction.
e.g. The noise is getting louder and louder.
The lights got brighter and brighter.

See Exercise 10.

b. Superlative forms of adjectives which use endings
The superlative form of an adjective is used to describe something which possesses a characteristic in the greatest degree. In the following examples, the superlative forms of the adjectives are underlined.
e.g. Louis is the youngest boy in our class.
She is the best actress I have ever seen.

i. Spelling rules
The superlative form of adjectives which use endings is formed with the ending **est**. As illustrated in the following table, the spelling rules for adding the ending **est** to the positive form of an adjective are the same as those which apply when adding the ending **er**.

Illustration of Spelling Rules for Adjectives which use Endings

Final Letter(s) of Positive Form of Adjective	Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form

two consonants (other than **y**)	fast	faster	fastest
y preceded by a consonant	dry	drier	driest
silent **e**	brave	braver	bravest
one consonant preceded by 2 vowels	loud	louder	loudest
w, **x** or **y** preceded by a vowel	new	newer	newest
one consonant (other than **w**, **x** or **y**), preceded by a single stressed vowel	fat	fatter	fattest

See Exercise 11.

ii. Irregular adjectives
As can be seen from the following table, the superlative forms of the English irregular adjectives are closely related to the comparative forms of these adjectives.

English Irregular Adjectives

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
bad	worse	worst
far	farther **or** further	farthest **or** furthest
good	better	best
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most

It should be noted that the adjective **far** has two superlative forms, **farthest** and **furthest**, corresponding to the two comparative forms **farther** and **further**; and also that the adjectives **many** and **much** share the same superlative form, **most**, corresponding to the comparative form **more**.

See Exercise 12.

iii. The superlative form preceded by The
The superlative forms of adjectives are usually preceded by **the**, and followed by the nouns they modify. For example, in the following sentences, the superlative forms **tallest** and **fastest** are preceded by **the** and followed by the nouns **boy** and **runner**.
e.g. Frank is the tallest boy in the class.
Nancy is the fastest runner on the team.
The first example indicates that no other boy in the class is as tall as Frank. The second example indicates that no one else on the team is as fast a runner as Nancy.

This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	the +	superlative form of adjective +	noun	
This is	the	newest	building	in the city.
They are	the	best	students	I have met.

It should be noted that this use of **the** is consistent with the previously discussed use of **the** to refer to things which are considered unique in some way.

See Exercises 13 and 14.

It should also be noted that the superlative forms of adjectives can be preceded by possessive adjectives, instead of by the definite article **the**. In the following examples, the possessive adjectives are underlined.
e.g. My worst suspicions were aroused.
He promised to give it his closest attention.
Jack's best friend is a member of the hockey team.

iv. The use of ellipsis
When the superlative forms of adjectives are employed to make comparisons, ellipsis is commonly used in the second part of the comparisons. The following are examples of the use of ellipsis in this type of comparison.
e.g. She is the best doctor I know.
This is the worst thing that could have happened.

These two sentences could also be written as follows. The words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. She is the best doctor [of all the doctors that] I know.
This is the worst thing [of all the things] that could have happened.

It should be noted that the noun following the superlative form of an adjective is often omitted, when it is obvious what is meant. This is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. That star is the brightest.
These cookies are the best.

These sentences could also be written as follows. The nouns which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. That star is the brightest [star].
These cookies are the best [cookies].

v. The comparison of one or more things with a group
When one or more things are compared with a group to which they do not belong, the comparative form of an adjective is normally used.
e.g. Alan is younger than all the other boys in the class.
In this example, Alan is being compared with all the **other** boys in the class. Thus, he is being compared with a group to which he does not belong, and the comparative form **younger** is used.

In general, the presence of the word **other** in the second half of a comparison usually indicates that one or more things are being compared with a group to which they do not belong.

In contrast, when one or more things are compared with members of a group to which they belong, the superlative form of an adjective is normally used.
e.g. Alan is the youngest of all the boys in the class.

In this example, Alan is being compared with members of the group identified as **all the boys** in the class. This is a group to which he belongs. Therefore, the superlative form **youngest** is used.

The following examples provide a further illustration of the difference between the two types of comparison.
e.g. The girls are neater than the boys.
The girls are the best students in the school.

In the first example, the girls are being compared with **the boys**, a group to which they do not belong. Therefore, the comparative form **neater** is used.

In the second example, the girls are being compared with members of a group consisting of all the students in the school, a group to which the girls belong. Therefore, the superlative form **best** is used.

EXERCISES for Chapter 22

1. Make up your own comparisons, using the pronouns **he**, **she** and **I** with the adjectives given below. For example:

brave
She is as brave as a lion.

stubborn
He was as stubborn as a mule.

1. strong
2. beautiful
3. slow
4. frightened
5. busy
6. happy

Answers

2. The following table gives the ages of five children:

Child's Name	Age (years)
Ruth	18
Angela	12
Tom	6
May	3
Joe	1

Write sentences comparing the ages of the children in each of the pairs indicated below. Use expressions such as **twice**, **three times**, **four times**, **five times**, **one-half**, **one-third** and **one-quarter**. For example:

Ruth and Tom
Ruth is three times as old as Tom.

Angela and Tom
Angela is twice as old as Tom

May and Angela
May is one-quarter as old as Angela.

1. Angela and May
2. Tom and May
3. Tom and Angela
4. Ruth and May
5. Tom and Ruth
6. Tom and Joe
7. May and Tom
8. Angela and Joe
9. Joe and May
10. May and Joe

Answers

3. Rewrite each of the following sentences as a comparison, using the word or words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

He has a heavy workload. (Tom)
He has as heavy a workload as Tom.

She was a good actress. (her cousin)
She was as good an actress as her cousin.

They are talented musicians. (their parents)
They are as talented musicians as their parents.

1. She is a skilled carpenter. (her father)
2. Terry is an efficient manager. (Kay)
3. They are wonderful performers. (their predecessors)
4. He won a prestigious prize. (his competitor)
5. The white hens are good layers. (the brown ones)
6. Rupert is an able administrator. (his boss)
7. She is carrying a heavy parcel. (you)
8. He is a brilliant engineer. (we had been told)
9. She found an important clue. (anyone)
10. They are experienced directors. (one could wish)

Answers

4. Complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with the subjective case of the personal pronoun indicated in brackets, followed by the form of the Simple Present of the verb **to be** which agrees with the pronoun. For example:

I am as clever as _____. (he, him)
I am as clever as <u>he is</u>.

They are as curious as _____. (us, we)
They are as curious as <u>we are</u>.

1. We are as proud as _____. (they, them)
2. Henrietta is as silly as _____. (your, you)
3. They are as confident as _____. (her, she)
4. Amanda is as surprised as _____. (I, me)
5. I am not as patient as _____. (he, him)
6. Ray is as old as _____. (them, they)
7. Dan is as eager to attend the concert as _____. (we, us)
8. You are as quick-witted as _____. (she, her)
9. She is almost as shy as _____. (him, he)
10. Leonora is just as beautiful as _____. (me, I)

Answers

5. Paying attention to the correct spelling, complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the comparative forms of the adjectives shown in brackets. For example:

This room is _____ than that one. (warm)
This room is warmer than that one.

This sand is _____ than that sand. (fine)
This sand is finer than that sand.

My towel is _____ than yours. (dry)
My towel is drier than yours.

The grass is _____ than it was yesterday. (wet)
The grass is wetter than it was yesterday.

There are _____ people here than I expected. (few)
There are fewer people here than I expected.

Her room is _____ than mine. (neat)
Her room is neater than mine.

1. The village is _____ than the city. (pretty)
2. This building is _____ than the one next to it. (big)
3. Your watch is _____ than mine. (slow)
4. Her roses smell _____ than ours. (sweet)
5. The corner store is _____ than the supermarket. (close)
6. The temperature is _____ today than it was yesterday. (high)
7. His cat is _____ than yours. (fat)
8. We arrived _____ than she had expected. (soon)
9. It is _____ on this side of the valley. (sunny)
10. She is _____ than her sister. (young)
11. The afternoon is usually _____ than the morning. (hot)
12. He is _____ than you are. (weak)
13. The table is _____ at this end. (low)
14. This book is _____ than that one. (thin)
15. The bag is _____ than the suitcase. (heavy)

Answers

6. Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the comparative forms of the irregular adjectives given in brackets. For example:

Pam is a _____ student than Roger. (good)
Pam is a better student than Roger.

His cough is _____ than yours. (bad)
His cough is worse than yours.

1. I have _____ eggs than I need. (many)
2. The bread tastes even _____ than the rolls. (good)
3. She does not want to travel _____ than necessary. (far)
4. Alice drinks _____ coffee than Jerry does. (little)
5. We have _____ honey than we need. (much)
6. Things may be _____ than you think. (bad)
7. Business is _____ this year than it was last year. (good)
8. Alan has _____ money than Ben. (little)
9. She has _____ self-confidence than I do. (much)
10. The weather was _____ yesterday than it is today. (bad)

Answers

7. The following table gives the ages and heights of five children:

Child's Name	Age (years)	Height (centimeters)
Nancy	16	150
Dick	15	160
Lorne	12	140
Sara	8	110
Barbara	7	115

Following the model of the examples, write sentences comparing the age or height of the children in each of the following pairs. For example:

Dick and Lorne (age)
Dick is older than Lorne.

Lorne and Dick. (height)
Lorne is shorter than Dick.

Sara and Dick (age)
Sara is younger than Dick.

Dick and Sara (height)
Dick is taller than Sara.

1. Nancy and Dick (age)
2. Dick and Nancy (height)
3. Nancy and Lorne (age)
4. Lorne and Nancy (height)
5. Sara and Lorne (age)
6. Lorne and Sara (height)

7. Sara and Barbara (age)
8. Sara and Barbara (height)
9. Barbara and Sara (age)
10. Barbara and Sara (height)
Answers

8. Rewrite the following sentences as comparisons, using the comparative form of the adjective, and the word **than**. For each sentence, use the word or words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

Tracy is a fast worker. (I am)
Tracy is a faster worker than I am.

He is a kind person. (his brother is)
He is a kinder person than his brother is.

Bob is a good student. (Tom)
Bob is a better student than Tom.

1. She is a fine musician. (her cousin is)
2. He has a strong voice. (he used to have)
3. This chair has short legs. (that one does)
4. We are having a hot summer. (you are)
5. She is a good doctor. (her friend is)
6. He has a big book. (you do)
7. They have new boots. (we do)
8. He took an early train. (I did)
9. She is a bad typist. (her colleague is)
10. We order a sweet dessert. (Susan did)
Answers

9. Complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with the subjective case of the personal pronoun indicated in brackets, followed by the form of the Simple Present of the verb **to be** which agrees with the pronoun. For example:

She is luckier than ____. (I, me)
She is luckier than I am.

We are faster than _____. (them, they)
We are faster than they are.

1. She is older than _____. (we, us)
2. They are slower than _____. (him, he)
3. He is fatter than _____. (me, I)
4. You are stronger than _____. (they, them)
5. We are younger than _____. (her, she)
6. I am taller than _____. (he, him)
7. She is shorter than _____. (I, me)
8. He is happier than _____. (them, they)
9. They are no better than . (us, we)
10. I am thinner than _____.(she, her)
Answers

10. Rewrite each of the following sentences, using the construction in which the comparative form of the adjective is repeated. For example:

The wind is becoming increasingly strong.
The wind is becoming stronger and stronger.

The bag seemed to grow increasingly heavy.
The bag seemed to grow heavier and heavier.

1. The sky is growing increasingly dark.
2. The grass is becoming increasingly green.
3. Our hands became increasingly dirty.
4. The situation is growing increasingly bad.
5. Their opponents are growing increasingly weak.
6. The mist became increasingly thick.
7. His singing is becoming increasingly good.
8. The trees are growing increasingly tall.
9. The soil is becoming increasingly dry.
10. The time remaining grew increasingly short.

Answers

11. Paying attention to the correct spelling, complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the superlative forms of the adjectives shown in brackets. For example:

He is the _____ runner on the team. (fast)
He is the fastest runner on the team.

Have you heard the _____ news? (late)
Have you heard the latest news?

They are the _____ people I know. (lazy)
They are the laziest people I know.

This is the _____ part of the day. (hot)
This is the hottest part of the day.

The black horse was the _____ horse in the race. (slow)
The black horse was the slowest horse in the race.

She is the _____ student in the class. (poor)
She is the poorest student in the class.

1. This is the _____ highway in the country. (wide)
2. That was the _____ sunset I have ever seen. (red)
3. Yesterday was the _____ day of the year. (cold)
4. This is the _____ way to do it. (easy)
5. The kitchen is the _____ room in the house. (clean)
6. This is the _____ model currently available. (new)
7. This is the _____ cake I have ever eaten. (sweet)
8. The third act is the _____ part of the play. (sad)

9. The _____ temperature on record was minus forty degrees. (low)
10. That is probably the _____ thing to do. (wise)
11. This is the _____ route into town. (short)
12. She is the _____ girl I know. (lucky)
Answers

12. Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the superlative forms of the irregular adjectives shown in brackets. For example:

Pam is the ____ student in the class. (good)
Pam is the best student in the class.

That is the _____ essay I have ever read. (bad)
That is the worst essay I have ever read.

1. This is the _____ we have ever traveled in one day. (far)
2. Their farm has produced the _____ tomatoes. (many)
3. Our strawberries have the _____ flavor. (good)
4. He ate the _____ jam. (little)
5. That is the _____ news I have heard yet. (bad)
6. She has the _____ cheese. (much)
7. They have eaten the _____ pancakes. (many)
8. That is the _____ thing that could happen. (bad)
9. We have used the _____ honey. (much)
10. That is the _____ suggestion we have heard yet. (good)
11. This is the _____ stretch of road. (bad)
12. They produced the _____ butter this year. (little)
Answers

13. The following table gives the age, height, and weight of each child in a group of eight children, together with the amount of money possessed by each child. The highest and lowest numbers in each column have been underlined.

Child's Name	Age (years)	Height (cm)	Weight (kg)	Money (dollars)
Denise	12	140	40	90
Ted	11	154	43	70
Ray	10	135	45	25
Bev	9	130	42	100
Carl	8	125	35	10
Amber	7	115	28	30
Victor	6	110	32	20
Sally	5	112	29	15

Following the model of the examples, complete the rest of the sentences, indicating which is the youngest, shortest, heaviest, lightest, richest, and poorest child in the group. For example:

Denise is
Denise is the oldest child in the group.

Ted is

Ted is the tallest child in the group.

1. Ray is
2. Bev is
3. Sally is
4. Victor is
5. Amber is
6. Carl is

Answers

14. Rewrite each of the following sentences, changing the positive form of the adjective to the superlative form, and using the definite article **the**. Use the words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

This is a cold room. (in the house)
This is the coldest room in the house.

That is a good example. (he could find)
That is the best example he could find.

1. This is an old house. (on the street)
2. That is a large store. (in the city)
3. This is a cool evening. (we have had this week)
4. He is a kind man. (I know)
5. This is a fine view. (in the area)
6. That is a new building. (in town)
7. This is a dusty road. (I have ever walked along)
8. That was a bad storm. (we have had for ten years)
9. This is a long river. (in the country)
10. That is a funny story. (you have ever told)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 22

Answers to Exercise 1:
Examples:
1. He is as strong as an ox. 2. She is as beautiful as a butterfly. 3. He is as slow as a tortoise. 4. She is as frightened as a rabbit. 5. I am as busy as a bee. 6. He is as happy as a lark.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. Angela is four times as old as May. 2. Tom is twice as old as May. 3. Tom is half as old as Angela. 4. Ruth is six times as old as May. 5. Tom is one-third as old as Ruth. 6. Tom is six times as old as Joe. 7. May is half as old as Tom. 8. Angela is twelve times as old as Joe. 9. Joe is one-third as old as May. 10. May is three times as old as Joe.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. She is as skilled a carpenter as her father. 2. Terry is as efficient a manager as Kay. 3. They are as wonderful performers as their predecessors. 4. He won as prestigious a prize as his competitor. 5. The white hens are as good layers as the brown ones. 6.

Rupert is as able an administrator as his boss. 7. She is carrying as heavy a parcel as you. 8. He is as brilliant an engineer as we had been told. 9. She found as important a clue as anyone. 10. They are as experienced directors as one could wish.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. they are 2. you are 3. she is 4. I am 5. he is 6. they are 7. we are 8. she is 9. he is 10. I am

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. prettier 2. bigger 3. slower 4. sweeter 5. closer 6. higher 7. fatter 8. sooner 9. sunnier 10. younger 11. hotter 12. weaker 13. lower 14. thinner 15. heavier

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. more 2. better 3. farther 4. less 5. more 6. worse 7. better 8. less 9. more 10. worse

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Nancy is older than Dick. 2. Dick is taller than Nancy. 3. Nancy is older than Lorne. 4. Lorne is shorter than Nancy. 5. Sara is younger than Lorne. 6. Lorne is taller than Sara. 7. Sara is older than Barbara. 8. Sara is shorter than Barbara. 9. Barbara is younger than Sara. 10. Barbara is taller than Sara.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. She is a finer musician than her cousin is. 2. He has a stronger voice than he used to have. 3. This chair has shorter legs than that one does. 4. We are having a hotter summer than you are. 5. She is a better doctor than her friend is. 6. He has a bigger book than you do. 7. They have newer boots than we do. 8. He took an earlier train than I did. 9. She is a worse typist than her colleague is.. 10. We ordered a sweeter dessert than Susan did.

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. we are 2. he is 3. I am 4. they are 5. she is 6. he is 7. I am 8. they are 9. we are 10. she is

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. The sky is growing darker and darker. 2. The grass is becoming greener and greener. 3. Our hands became dirtier and dirtier. 4. The situation is growing worse and worse. 5. Their opponents are growing weaker and weaker. 6. The mist became thicker and thicker. 7. His singing is becoming better and better. 8. The trees are growing taller and taller. 9. The soil is becoming drier and drier. 10. The time remaining grew shorter and shorter.

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. widest 2. reddest 3. coldest 4. easiest 5. cleanest 6. newest 7. sweetest 8. saddest 9. lowest 10. wisest 11. shortest 12. luckiest

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. farthest 2. most 3. best 4. least 5. worst 6. most 7. most 8. worst 9. most 10. best 11. worst 12. least

Answers to Exercise 13:

1. Ray is the heaviest child in the group. 2. Bev is the richest child in the group. 3. Sally is the youngest child in the group. 4. Victor is the shortest child in the group. 5. Amber is the lightest child in the group. 6. Carl is the poorest child in the group.

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. This is the oldest house on the street. 2. That is the largest store in the city. 3. This is the coolest evening we have had this week. 4. He is the kindest man I know. 5. This is the finest view in the area. 6. That is the newest building in town. 7. This is the dustiest road I have ever walked along. 8. That was the worst storm we have had for ten years. 9. This is the longest river in the country. 10. That is the funniest story you have ever told.

CHAPTER 23. ADJECTIVES USED IN COMPARISONS: PART 2

1. Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which do not use endings

Adjectives which follow the model of the French language do not use the endings **er** and **est**. Instead, the adjectives are preceded by the adverbs **more** and **most**.

a. Comparative forms: The use of More
The comparative form of an adjective which does not take endings is formed by placing the word **more** before the positive form of the adjective.
e.g. She is more intelligent than her sister.
He is more determined than his brother.
In these examples, the comparative forms of the adjectives **intelligent** and **determined** have been formed by placing the word **more** before the positive forms of the adjectives.

See Exercise 1.

With the exception of two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**, most adjectives of more than one syllable form the comparative with the adverb **more**.

In addition, a few one-syllable adjectives, including one-syllable past participles used as adjectives, form the comparative with the adverb **more**.
e.g. This nail is more bent than that one.
He is more skilled than his brother.
She is more spoiled than her cousin.

The following table summarizes the formation of the comparative forms of English adjectives.

The Comparative forms of English Adjectives

Adjectives which take Endings	Adjectives used with More
Most one-syllable adjectives, e.g. strong, stronger	A few one-syllable adjectives, e.g. bent, more bent
Two-syllable adjectives ending in **y**, e.g. easy, easier,	Most adjectives of more than one syllable, e.g. graceful, more graceful

and a few other two-syllable
adjectives, e.g. quiet, quieter

i. The comparative form followed by Than
Adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** are used in the same constructions as adjectives which form the comparative with the ending **er**.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form followed by **than**.
e.g. Tom is wiser **than** Ned.
Tom is more intelligent **than** Ned.

Parchment is stronger **than** paper.
Parchment is more durable **than** paper.

See Exercise 2.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form followed by a noun, followed by **than**.
e.g. Kirby is a finer musician **than** Tim.
Kirby is a more confident musician **than** Tim.

Rubber is a tougher material **than** leather.
Rubber is a more waterproof material **than** leather.

She has better tools **than** we do.
She has more expensive tools **than** we do.

See Exercise 3.

ii. Progressive comparisons
Like adjectives which take endings, adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** can be used in progressive comparisons.

In the case of an adjective which takes endings, the comparative form of the adjective is repeated in a progressive comparison. However, in the case of an adjective which forms the comparative with **more**, only the word **more** is repeated. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	**more**	+	**and**	+	**more**	+	positive form of adjective
The park		is becoming		more		and		more		beautiful.
The horses		grew		more		and		more		restless.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of comparative form in progressive comparisons.
e.g. Tom became angrier and angrier.

Tom became more and more anxious.

The stars grew brighter and brighter.
The stars grew more and more brilliant.

See Exercise 4.

b. The use of Less
Adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** may also be used in a similar way with the adverb **less**. **Less** and **more** have opposite meanings.

i. The construction Less ... Than
The following examples illustrate the use of adjectives preceded by **less** and followed by **than**.
e.g. Arnold is less confident **than** Charles is.
The red bicycle is less expensive **than** the blue one.
The first example indicates that Arnold possesses a smaller degree of confidence than Charles does. The second example indicates that the red bicycle has a lower cost than the blue one.

See Exercise 5.

The following examples illustrate the use of adjectives preceded by **less**, and followed by a noun, followed by **than**.
e.g. He is a less well-known performer **than** his brother is.
They found themselves in a less fortunate situation **than** they had expected.
In these examples, the adjectives **well-known** and **fortunate** are followed by the nouns **performer** and **situation**.

ii. The construction Not As ... As
In informal English, the following construction is often used:

	not as	+	positive form of adjective	+	**as**	
e.g. He is	not as		reliable		as	his brother.

For adjectives which form the comparative with **more**, either the construction **less ... than** or the construction **not as ... as** may be used. The construction **not as ... as** is somewhat less formal than the construction **less ... than**.

For instance, the two sentences in each of the following pairs have the same meaning.
e.g. Formal: The red bicycle is less expensive **than** the blue one.
Informal: The red bicycle is **not as** expensive **as** the blue one.

Formal: Arnold is less confident **than** Charles is.
Informal: Arnold is **not as** confident **as** Charles is.

For adjectives which form the comparative with the ending **er**, either the construction **not as ... as**, or the comparative form of an adjective of opposite meaning may be used.

For instance, the two sentences in each of the following pairs have similar meanings.
e.g. This chair is **not as** soft **as** that one.
This chair is harder **than** that one.

He is **not as** old **as** his sister.
He is younger **than** his sister.

iii. The construction Less and Less
Both adjectives which take endings and adjectives which form the comparative with the adverb **more** can be used with the idiom **less and less**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

noun, pronoun or other expression representing thing being described	+	linking verb, such as **to grow** or **to become**	+	**less**	+	**and**	+	**less**	+	positive form of adjective
The water		is becoming		less		and		less		rough.
The situation		grew		less		and		less		predictable.

The meaning of these two examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. The water is becoming decreasingly rough.
The situation grew decreasingly predictable.

See Exercise 6.

It should be noted that an adjective in a progressive comparison does not express exactly the same meaning as an adjective of opposite meaning used with the idiom **less and less**.

For instance, the following two sentences have somewhat different meanings.
e.g. The water is becoming less and less rough.
The water is becoming calmer and calmer.

The adjectives **rough** and **calm** have opposite meanings. The first example implies that the water is still quite rough, but that it is becoming decreasingly rough. The second example implies that the water is already quite calm, but that it is becoming increasingly calm.

c. Superlative Forms
As illustrated in the following table, the superlative form of adjectives which do not use endings is formed by placing the word **most** before the positive form of the adjective.

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
dangerous	more dangerous	most dangerous

intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
interesting	more interesting	most interesting

For example:
She is the most intelligent child in the family.
This is the most interesting book I have ever read.

Adjectives which form the superlative with the adverb **most** are used in the same constructions as adjectives which form the superlative with the ending **est**.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of superlative form preceded by the word **the** and followed by a noun.
e.g. Quebec is one of **the** oldest cities in Canada.
Quebec is one of **the** most attractive cities in Canada.

This is **the** hardest question on the test.
This is **the** most difficult question on the test.

The following examples illustrate the use of the two types of superlative form preceded by a possessive adjective and followed by a noun.
e.g. This is **his** newest invention.
This is **his** most recent invention.

She is **my** closest friend.
She is **my** most trusted friend.

See Exercise 7.

Adjectives which form the superlative with the adverb **most** may also be used in a similar way with the adverb **least**. **Least** and **most** have opposite meanings.
e.g. This is **the** least interesting book I have ever read.
This is **the** least difficult question on the test.

2. The adjectives Many, Much, Few and Little used to compare quantities

a. The use of Many, Much, Few and Little with countable and uncountable nouns
The adjectives **many** and **much** have the same meaning, except that **many** is used with plural countable nouns, and **much** is used with uncountable nouns.
e.g. He has written many books.
How much snow has fallen?
In these examples, **books** is a plural countable noun modified by **many**, and **snow** is an uncountable noun modified by **much**.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, the two adjectives **many** and **much** have the same comparative form, **more**, and the same superlative form, **most**. **More** and **most** can be used to modify both countable and uncountable nouns.

Similarly, the adjectives **few** and **little** have the same meaning, except that **few** is used

with plural countable nouns, and **little** is used with uncountable nouns.
e.g. I made few mistakes.
They have little hope of success.
In these examples, **mistakes** is a plural countable noun modified by **few**, and **hope** is an uncountable noun modified by **little**.

The comparative and superlative forms of **few** and **little** follow the same rules as the positive forms. Thus, the adjectives **fewer** and **fewest** are used to modify plural countable nouns, and the adjectives **less** and **least** are used to modify uncountable nouns.
e.g. This recipe requires fewer eggs **than** that recipe.
This street has less traffic **than** that street.

This recipe requires **the** fewest eggs.
This street has **the** least traffic.

In these examples **eggs** is a plural countable noun modified by **fewer** and **fewest**, and **traffic** is an uncountable noun modified by **less** and **least**.

The use of these adjectives with countable and uncountable nouns is summarized below. The adjectives in the left-hand column are used to compare quantities of things which can be counted, while those in the right-hand column are used to compare amounts of things which are considered as substances.

Used with Countable Nouns	Used with Uncountable Nouns
many	much
more	more
most	most
few	little
fewer	less
fewest	least

See Exercise 8.

b. Synonyms for Many and Much
In questions and negative statements, the adjectives **many** and **much** are commonly used in both formal and informal English.
e.g. Question: How many museums have you visited?
Negative Statement: He does not have much confidence.

In affirmative statements, the adjectives **many** and **much** are commonly used in combination with words such as **as**, **so** and **too**.
e.g. I have read twice as many books as you have.
He has so much money he can buy whatever he likes.
There are too many possibilities to consider.

However, in affirmative statements not containing words such as **as**, **so** and **too**, the

adjective **much** is rarely used in either formal or informal English, and the adjective **many** is rarely used in informal English. Instead, synonyms are used.

The phrases **a great deal of**, **a lot of**, and **lots of** are used as synonyms for **much**. The phrase **a great deal of** may be used in formal English, and the phrases **a lot of** and **lots of** may be used in informal English. The phrase **lots of** is more informal than the phrase **a lot of**.
e.g. Formal: He has a great deal of confidence.
Informal: He has a lot of confidence.
More Informal: He has lots of confidence.

In informal English, the phrases **a lot of** and **lots of** are used as synonyms for **many**. The phrase **lots of** is more informal than the phrase **a lot of**.
e.g. Formal: There are many possibilities.
Informal: There are a lot of possibilities.
More Informal: There are lots of possibilities.

c. Positive forms used in comparisons
In order to indicate that the things being compared are equal in some respect, the positive forms **many**, **much**, **few** and **little** can be used as follows:

	as +	positive form +	noun +	**as**	
e.g. She has	as	many	brothers	as	sisters.
He has	as	much	courage	as	you do.
They take	as	few	risks	as	possible.
He knows	as	little	English	as	they do.

It is possible to modify such expressions by placing an adverb before the first occurrence of **as**, as illustrated below.

	adverb +	**as** +	positive form +	noun +	**as**	
e.g. She has	twice	as	many	brothers	as	sisters.
He has	nearly	as	much	courage	as	you do.
He knows	almost	as	little	English	as	they do.

See Exercise 9.

The positive forms **many**, **much**, **few** and **little** can also be combined with expressions referring to a quantity of something. This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	as +	positive form +	**as** +	expression indicating a quantity of something
The course includes	as	many	as	ten tests.

Yesterday he drank	as	much	as	three liters of milk.
The game requires	as	few	as	two players.
The magazines cost	as	little	as	fifteen cents.

It should be noted that when a noun names a unit of currency or a unit of measurement, the amount referred to is usually considered as a whole. When this is the case, the noun acts as an uncountable noun, in that it may be modified by the adjectives **much**, **little** and **less**.

For instance, in the examples:
Yesterday he drank as much as three **liters** of milk.
The magazines cost as little as fifteen **cents**.
the noun **liters** names a unit of measurement, and the noun **cents** names a unit of currency. Since the amounts referred to are each considered as a whole, the adjectives **much** and **little** are used.

Likewise, in the following examples, the noun **dollars** names a unit of currency, and the nouns **ounces** and **degrees** name units of measurement.
e.g. We saved as much as fifteen **dollars**.
The kittens weighed as little as three **ounces** each.
The temperature this morning was less than five **degrees**.
In these examples, the nouns printed in bold type refer to amounts considered as a whole, and the adjectives **much**, **little** and **less** are used.

d. Comparative forms used in comparisons
The comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** are often employed in comparisons using the following construction:

	comparative form +	noun +	**than**	
e.g. I bought	more	apples	than	I needed.
We eat	more	rice	than	they do.
The class has	fewer	boys	than	girls.
They ate	less	cake	than	we did.

This type of construction can also be combined with phrases or clauses. When two phrases or clauses are used to distinguish the things being compared, the word **than** may be placed before the second phrase or clause.
e.g. There is more wood in the park **than** on the island.
We have more fun when we go out **than** when we stay at home.

In the first example two locations are distinguished by the phrases **in the park** and **on the island**, and the second phrase, **on the island**, is preceded by the word **than**. In the second example two situations are distinguished by the clauses **when we go out** and **when we stay at home**, and the second clause, **when we stay at home**, is preceded by the word **than**.

See Exercise 10.

The comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** can also be used in comparisons referring to a quantity of something. The type of construction used is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form +	**than** +	expression indicating a quantity of something
The bicycle costs	more	than	twenty dollars.
The class has	fewer	than	ten students.
The book costs	less	than	five dollars.

In addition, the comparative forms **more**, **fewer** and **less** can be combined with nouns to form comparisons similar to progressive comparisons. The type of construction used is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form +	**and** +	comparative form +	noun
The baby is drinking	more	and	more	milk.
The student made	fewer	and	fewer	mistakes.
The boy is spending	less	and	less	money.

The first example indicates that the baby is drinking an increasing quantity of milk. The second example indicates that the student made a decreasing number of mistakes. The third example indicates that the boy is spending a decreasing amount of money.

See Exercise 11.

e. Superlative forms used in comparisons
The superlative forms **most**, **fewest** and **least** can be used in the following construction:

	the +	superlative form +	noun
e.g. She scored	the	most	points.
He made	the	fewest	mistakes.
This room has	the	least	furniture.

3. The adjectives Similar, Different and Same used in comparisons

The idioms **similar to**, **different from** and **the same as** can each be used in the following construction:

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared +	**to be** or other linking verb +	**different from**, **similar to**, or **the same as** +	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared

e.g. Her bicycle	looks	similar to	mine.
The result	was	different from	what I had expected.
His timetable	is	the same as	yours.

See Exercise 12.

The adjective **similar** followed by the preposition **to** can be used in comparing things which have characteristics in common.
e.g. The landscape of Maine is similar to that of Scandinavia.
His background is similar to yours.

The adjective **different** followed by the preposition **from** can be used in comparing things which have differing characteristics.
e.g. His ideas are different from mine.
Fish that live in the ocean are different from fish that live in rivers and lakes.

The verb **differ** followed by the preposition **from** can also be used in comparing things which have differing characteristics.
e.g. His ideas differ from mine.
Fish that live in the ocean differ from fish that live in rivers and lakes.

The phrase **the same** followed by **as** can be used in comparing things which are identical in some respect.
e.g. Your shoes look the same as mine.
The temperature of the water is the same as the temperature of the air.

It should be noted that the phrase **the same** can also be followed by a noun or other expression, as indicated below:

noun, pronoun or other expression representing 1st thing being compared	verb	**the same**	expression stating what aspect is being compared	**as**	noun, pronoun or other expression representing 2nd thing being compared
+	+	+	+	+	
e.g. My coat	is	the same	color	as	hers.
She	has	the same	postal code	as	you do.

If desired, adverbs may be used before the expressions **similar to**, **different from** and **the same**, in order to modify these types of comparisons. The adverbs in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. Her bicycle looks quite similar to mine.
The result was somewhat different from what I had expected.
His timetable is almost the same as yours.
My coat is nearly the same color as hers.

It is also possible for the expressions **similar**, **different** and **the same** to be used at the

end of a sentence. This type of construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

expression representing the objects being compared	+	linking verb	+	**different**, **similar** or **the same**
The flavors of strawberries and kiwi fruit		are		similar.
My conclusion and your conclusion		are		different.
The two sweaters		look		the same.

See Exercise 13.

4. Making logical comparisons

If complex sentences containing phrases or clauses are used to make comparisons, care must be taken, particularly in formal English, to ensure that the comparisons are logical and that the appropriate objects are in fact being compared.

For example, the following sentence is logically incorrect, because it compares **life in the country** to **the city**.
e.g. Life in the country is different from the city.

In order to be logically correct, the sentence must be changed so that similar types of things are being compared.
e.g. Life in the country is different from life in the city.
This sentence is logically correct, since it compares **life in the country** to **life in the city**.

Similarly, the following sentence is logically incorrect, because it compares **the vowel sounds of English** to **Spanish**.
e.g. The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than Spanish.

In order to be logically correct, the sentence must be changed so that similar types of things are being compared. Thus, the sentence may be corrected as follows:
e.g. The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than the vowel sounds of Spanish.

See Exercise 14.

In such sentences, the noun or phrase which is repeated in the second part of the comparison may be replaced by **that** or **those**. **That** is used if the noun being replaced is singular, and **those** is used if the noun being replaced is plural.
e.g. Life in the country is different from that in the city.
The vowel sounds of English are more numerous than those of Spanish.

In the first example, **that** is used to replace the singular noun **life**. In the second

example, **those** is used to replace the phrase **the vowel sounds**. The form **those** must be used, since the noun **sounds** is plural.

EXERCISES for Chapter 23

1. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the comparative form of the adjective indicated in brackets. For example:

They are _____ than they used to be. (careful)
They are more careful than they used to be.

1. Wool is _____ than cotton. (resilient)
2. He is _____ than I had expected. (excited)
3. She is a _____ scholar than her sister is. (diligent)
4. Bev is a _____ engineer than Pat. (experienced)
5. Russian is a _____ language to learn than English is. (difficult)
6. This book is _____ than that one. (interesting)

Answers

2. Paying attention to which adjectives form the comparative with the adverb **more** and which form the comparative with the ending **er**, fill in the blanks with the comparative forms of the adjectives indicated in brackets. For example:

The clothes are _____ than I had expected. (dry)
The clothes are drier than I had expected.

Walter Scott is _____ than Walter Brooks. (famous)
Walter Scott is more famous than Walter Brooks.

1. The pears are _____ than the plums. (hard)
2. The roses are _____ than the nasturtiums. (beautiful)
3. The tomatoes are _____ than the apples. (expensive)
4. My bicycle is _____ than yours. (new)
5. Cold lemonade is _____ than water. (refreshing)
6. The front yard is _____ than the back yard. (big)
7. This map is _____ than that one. (good)
8. Spinach is _____ than Swiss chard. (delicate)
9. His room is _____ than yours. (tidy)
10. Her report is _____ than ours. (accurate)

Answers

3. Paying attention to which adjectives form the comparative with the adverb **more** and which form the comparative with the ending **er**, rewrite the following sentences as comparisons, in the manner indicated by the examples. Use the words given in brackets as the second parts of the comparisons. For example:

Collies have long hair. (dalmations do)
Collies have longer hair than dalmations do.

He is an experienced architect. (we thought)
He is a more experienced architect than we thought.

1. Terry is a good cook. (I am)

2. That is a complex question. (you realize)
3. My puppy has big feet. (yours does)
4. It was a difficult decision. (you might think)
5. That is a sandy part of the beach. (this is)
6. He runs a successful business. (his father did)
7. Cliff has a bad temper. (his brother does)
8. This rose bush has small flowers. (that one does)
9. They own expensive bicycles. (we do)
10. Robin proved to be a courageous leader. (anyone had expected)
11. The school has a large auditorium. (the city library does)
12. That car has an efficient engine. (this one does)
Answers

4. Paying attention to which adjectives form the comparative with the ending **er** and which form the comparative with the adverb **more**, rewrite each of the following sentences, using the construction in which the word **more** or the comparative form of the adjective is repeated. For example:

The water grew increasingly warm.
The water grew warmer and warmer.

I became increasingly impatient.
I became more and more impatient.

1. The rain became increasingly heavy.
2. The crowd grew increasingly enthusiastic.
3. We became increasingly uneasy.
4. Manufacturing companies were becoming increasingly large.
5. The weather grew increasingly bad.
6. The compilation of accurate statistics is becoming increasingly necessary.
7. Methods of diagnosis are becoming increasingly accurate.
8. Their contribution to the project became increasingly important.
9. Standards are becoming increasingly high.
10. They became increasingly optimistic.
Answers

5. Rewrite each of the following sentences as comparisons, using the form of the adjective with **less** and the word **than**. For each sentence, use the words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

The plot of the movie was predictable. (we expected)
The plot of the movie was less predictable than we expected.

The second explanation was confusing. (the first)
The second explanation was less confusing than the first.

1. The issue is important. (I thought)
2. The train is punctual. (it used to be)
3. The spoons are valuable. (the candlesticks)
4. Nora is excited. (Karen is)
5. The bus is crowded. (the subway)
6. This movie is entertaining. (the one we saw last night)

Answers

6. Rewrite each of the following sentences, using the construction in which the word **less** is repeated. For example:

The idea became decreasingly attractive.
The idea became less and less attractive.

1. The wind grew decreasingly fierce.
2. The tune became decreasingly recognizable.
3. Word processors are becoming decreasingly expensive.
4. The rainbow grew decreasingly bright.
5. The children became decreasingly alert.
6. The service became decreasingly convenient.

Answers

7. Paying attention to which adjectives form the superlative with the adverb **most** and which form the superlative with the ending **est**, fill in the blanks with the superlative forms of the adjectives indicated in brackets. For example:

The first question is the _____. (difficult)
The first question is the most difficult.

The last question is the _____. (easy)
The last question is the easiest.

1. Sarah is the _____ girl in the class. (intelligent)
2. He is the _____ boy in the school. (lucky)
3. This is the _____ book I have ever read. (good)
4. That is the _____ painting in the museum. (valuable)
5. Yesterday was the _____ day of the year. (hot)
6. She is the _____ student in the school. (new)
7. This movie is the _____. (entertaining)
8. He is the _____ man in the village. (brave)
9. Summer is usually the _____ time of the year. (dry)
10. He is the _____ player on the team. (talented)
11. This is the _____ route into town. (direct)
12. The library is the _____ building on the street. (old)

Answers

8. Paying attention to whether the noun to be modified is countable or uncountable, complete each of the following sentences by filling in the blank with the correct adjective chosen from the pair given in brackets. For example:

____ schools were closed because of the snowstorm. (many, much)
Many schools were closed because of the snowstorm.

____ time could have been saved. (many, much)
Much time could have been saved.

There are ___ buildings as beautiful as the Taj Mahal. (few, little)
There are few buildings as beautiful as the Taj Mahal.

There was _____ furniture in the room. (few, little)
There was little furniture in the room.

The storm caused ____ damage than had been expected. (fewer, less)
The storm caused less damage than had been expected.

1. There are _____ ducks in the park. (many, much)
2. _____ water is left in the pond. (few, little)
3. _____ authors are as famous as Shakespeare. (few, little)
4. How _____ rice do you have? (many, much)
5. There are _____ books on the subject which she has not read. (few, little)
6. _____ attention has been paid to the importance of the mass media. (many, much)
7. _____ people prefer soccer to football. (many, much)
8. There are _____ stores downtown than there are in the suburbs. (fewer, less)
9. _____ information was available. (few, little)
10. _____ sports are as fast-paced as hockey. (few, little)
11. She made the _____ mistakes of all the children in the class. (fewest, least)
12. _____ work remains to be done. (few, little)
13. There is often _____ wind in the evening than there is at midday. (fewer, less)
14. He does not have _____ money. (many, much)
15. He did the _____ work of all the boys in the class. (fewest, least)
16. She told _____ stories to amuse the children. (many, much)

Answers

9. The following table shows the number of books and amount of money possessed by each of eight children.

Child's Name	Number of Books	Amount of Money ($)
Debbie	12	20
Penny	6	30
Alex	4	10
Tim	24	5
Chris	8	2
Lisa	3	15
Terry	16	6
Helen	2	3

Following the model of the examples, use the adjectives **much** and **many** to write sentences comparing the number of books or the amount of money possessed by the children in each of the following pairs. For example:

Debbie and Penny (books)
Debbie has twice as many books as Penny.

Alex and Debbie (money)
Alex has half as much money as Debbie.

Lisa and Helen (money)
Lisa has five times as much money as Helen.

1. Penny and Alex (money)
2. Chris and Terry (books)
3. Penny and Lisa (books)
4. Debbie and Tim (money)
5. Tim and Alex (money)
6. Penny and Tim (books)
7. Terry and Helen (money)
8. Terry and Helen (books)
9. Tim and Chris (books)
10. Penny and Tim (money)

Answers

10. Rewrite each of the following sentences as a comparison, using the comparative form of the underlined adjective, and the word **than**. Note that the phrase **a great deal of** is used instead of the adjective **much**. For each sentence, use the word or words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

We took many photographs. (he did)
We took more photographs than he did.

He drinks a great deal of coffee. (tea)
He drinks more coffee than tea.

She has few responsibilities. (I do)
She has fewer responsibilities than I do.

There is little danger. (you think)
There is less danger than you think.

1. She reads many books. (I do)
2. They have had little success. (you have)
3. We bought a great deal of rice. (flour)
4. We had few accidents, we had expected)
5. The proposal has many advantages. (disadvantages)
6. She uses a great deal of honey. (sugar)
7. We eat little cheese. (meat)
8. They entertain few visitors. (we do)
9. He can speak many languages. (anyone else I know)
10. They have few customers. (they would like)
11. The project will take a great deal of time. (you think)
12. This stove requires little fuel. (one would expect)

Answers

11. Rewrite each of the following sentences as a progressive comparison using the comparative form of the underlined adjective. For example:

Many ducks flew overhead.
More and more ducks flew overhead.

Few leaves were falling.
Fewer and fewer leaves were falling.

1. We had many adventures.
2. Few visitors remained.
3. There was little danger that we would lose our way.
4. Few trees were planted.
5. Many tourists visit our city each year.
6. I saw few cars on the road.
7. The weather caused little difficulty.
8. They met many people.
Answers

12. Write three sentences of your own, using the phrases **similar to**, **different from** and **the same as**.

13. Rewrite each of the following sentences, keeping the meaning of the sentence, but using one of the phrases **similar to**, **different from** or **the same as**, as appropriate. Make sure that the verb of the rewritten sentence agrees with the subject of the sentence. For example:

My essay and your essay are similar.
My essay is similar to your essay.

Their results and our results are different.
Their results are different from our results.

The price of the scarf and the price of the gloves are the same.
The price of the scarf is the same as the price of the gloves.

1. My skates and his skates look similar.
2. This book and that book are different.
3. The child's height and the height of the table are the same.
4. This story and that story seem similar.
5. The date of the concert and the date of the play are the same.
6. The view from the window and the view from the door are different.
7. My sister and my cousin look similar.
8. This cake and that cake taste the same.
9. My experiences and your experiences are different.
10. His schedule and your schedule are the same.
Answers

14. Each of the following sentences contains a comparison which is logically incorrect. Rewrite the sentences, adding whatever nouns or phrases are necessary in order to make the comparisons logically correct. For example:

The price of honey was higher than sugar.
The price of honey was higher than the price of sugar.

The average rainfall for September is the same as February.
The average rainfall for September is the same as the average rainfall for February.

1. The vegetation of Europe differs from North America.

2. The taxes in Singapore are lower than Canada.
3. The invention of the clarinet occurred more recently than the flute.
4. The speed limit in residential areas is lower than uninhabited areas.
5. The grammar of English is simpler than Arabic.
6. The climate of California is somewhat similar to Greece.
7. The boiling point of oil is higher than water.
8. The geometry of a pentagon is more complex than a square.
9. The density of water is greater than ice.
10. The location of the library is more convenient than the post office.
Answers

15. Simplify each of the following sentences by using **that** or **those** to replace the noun or phrase which is repeated in the second part of the comparison. For example:

The song of the chickadee is more melodious than the song of the nuthatch.
The song of the chickadee is more melodious than that of the nuthatch.

The landforms of eastern Canada are similar to the landforms of Finland.
The landforms of eastern Canada are similar to those of Finland.

1. The cuisine of France is more famous than the cuisine of England.
2. The fruits of the tropics are more varied than the fruits of temperate regions.
3. The growth form of the strawberry differs from the growth form of the raspberry.
4. The freezing point of salt water is lower than the freezing point of fresh water.
5. The traditions of Austria are as fascinating as the traditions of Greece.
6. The nutritional value of whole grain flour is greater than the nutritional value of refined flour.
7. The mountains of Nepal are higher than the mountains of Europe.
8. The teaching methods of today differ from the teaching methods of one hundred years ago.
9. The tone of an old violin is often more beautiful than the tone of a new violin.
10. The flowers of alpine pastures are more colorful than the flowers of the lowlands.
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 23

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. more resilient 2. more excited 3. more diligent 4. more experienced 5. more difficult 6. more interesting

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. harder 2. more beautiful 3. more expensive 4. newer 5. more refreshing 6. bigger 7. better 8. more delicate 9. tidier 10. more accurate

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. Terry is a better cook than I am. 2. That is a more complex question than you realize. 3. My puppy has bigger feet than yours does. 4. It was a more difficult decision than you might think. 5. That is a sandier part of the beach than this is. 6. He runs a more successful business than his father did. 7. Cliff has a worse temper than his brother does. 8. This rose bush has smaller flowers than that one does. 9. They own

more expensive bicycles than we do. 10. Robin proved to be a more courageous leader than anyone had expected. 11. The school has a larger auditorium than the city library does. 12. That car has a more efficient engine than this one does.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. The rain became heavier and heavier. 2. The crowd grew more and more enthusiastic. 3. We became more and more uneasy. 4. Manufacturing companies were becoming larger and larger. 5. The weather grew worse and worse. 6. The compilation of accurate statistics is becoming more and more necessary. 7. Methods of diagnosis are becoming more and more accurate. 8. Their contribution to the project became more and more important. 9. Standards are becoming higher and higher. 10. They became more and more optimistic.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. The issue is less important than I thought. 2. The train is less punctual than it used to be. 3. The spoons are less valuable than the candlesticks. 4. Nora is less excited than Karen is. 5. The bus is less crowded than the subway. 6. This movie is less entertaining than the one we saw last night.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The wind grew less and less fierce. 2. The tune became less and less recognizable. 3. Word processors are becoming less and less expensive. 4. The rainbow grew less and less bright. 5. The children became less and less alert. 6. The service became less and less convenient.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. most intelligent 2. luckiest 3. best 4. most valuable 5. hottest 6. newest 7. most entertaining 8. bravest 9. driest 10. most talented 11. most direct 12. oldest

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. many 2. Little 3. Few 4. much 5. few 6. Much 7. Many 8. fewer 9. Little 10. Few 11. fewest 12. Little 13. less 14. much 15. least 16. many

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. Penny has three times as much money as Alex. 2. Chris has half as many books as Terry. 3. Penny has twice as many books as Lisa. 4. Debbie has four times as much money as Tim. 5. Tim has half as much money as Alex. 6. Penny has one-quarter as many books as Tim. 7. Terry has twice as much money as Helen. 8. Terry has eight times as many books as Helen. 9. Tim has three times as many books as Chris. 10. Penny has six times as much money as Tim.

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. She reads more books than I do. 2. They have had less success than you have. 3. We bought more rice than flour. 4. We had fewer accidents than we had expected. 5. The proposal has more advantages than disadvantages. 6. She uses more honey than sugar. 7. We eat less cheese than meat. 8. They entertain fewer visitors than we do. 9. He can speak more languages than anyone else I know. 10. They have fewer customers than they would like. 11. The project will take more time than you think. 12. This stove requires less fuel than one would expect.

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. We had more and more adventures. 2. Fewer and fewer visitors remained. 3. There was less and less danger that we would lose our way. 4. Fewer and fewer trees were planted. 5. More and more tourists visit our city each year. 6. I saw fewer and fewer cars on the road. 7. The weather caused us less and less difficulty. 8. They met more and more people.

Answers to Exercise 13:
1. My skates look similar to his skates. 2. This book is different from that book. 3. The child's height is the same as the height of the table. 4. This story seems similar to that story. 5. The date of the concert is the same as the date of the play. 6. The view from the window is different from the view from the door. 7. My sister looks similar to my cousin. 8. This cake tastes the same as that cake. 9. My experiences are different from your experiences. 10. His schedule is the same as your schedule.

Answers to Exercise 14:
1. The vegetation of Europe differs from the vegetation of North America. 2. The taxes in Singapore are lower than the taxes in Canada. 3. The invention of the clarinet occurred more recently than the invention of the flute. 4. The speed limit in residential areas is lower than the speed limit in uninhabited areas. 5. The grammar of English is simpler than the grammar of Arabic. 6. The climate of California is somewhat similar to the climate of Greece. 7. The boiling point of oil is higher than the boiling point of water. 8. The geometry of a pentagon is more complex than the geometry of a square. 9. The density of water is greater than the density of ice. 10. The location of the library is more convenient than the location of the post office.

Answers to Exercise 15:
1. The cuisine of France is more famous than that of England. 2. The fruits of the tropics are more varied than those of temperate regions. 3. The growth form of the strawberry differs from than of the raspberry. 4. The freezing point of salt water is lower than that of fresh water. 5. The traditions of Austria are as fascinating as those of Greece. 6. The nutritional value of whole grain flour is greater than that of refined flour. 7. The mountains of Nepal are higher than those of Europe. 8. The teaching methods of today differ from those of one hundred years ago. 9. The tone of an old violin is often more beautiful than that of a new violin. 10. The flowers of alpine pastures are more colorful than those of the lowlands.

CHAPTER 24. ADVERBS: POSITION IN A SENTENCE

Words which are used to modify verbs or adjectives are usually referred to as **adverbs**. For instance, the adverbs in the following sentences are printed in bold type, and the words they modify are underlined.
e.g. I **often** visit the library.
It is **surprisingly** hot today.
In the first example, the adverb **often** modifies the verb **visit**. In the second example, the adverb **surprisingly** modifies the adjective **hot**.

Words which are used to modify adverbs can also be referred to as **adverbs**.

e.g. The train travels **very** quickly.
In this example, the adverb **very** modifies the adverb **quickly**.

1. Adverbs which modify adjectives and other adverbs

Adverbs which modify adjectives or other adverbs usually immediately precede the words they modify.
e.g. The package is **extremely** large.
We experienced **relatively** few difficulties.
Buses depart **quite** regularly.
In these examples, the underlined adverbs immediately precede the words they modify. **Extremely** modifies the adjective **large**, relatively modifies the adjective **few**, and **quite** modifies the adverb **regularly**.

The adverbs **ago** and **enough** are exceptional, since they usually follow the adjectives or adverbs they modify.
e.g. That happened long **ago**.
He is old **enough** to make his own decisions.
We ran fast **enough** to catch the bus.
In these examples, the adverbs **ago** and **enough** follow the words they modify. **Ago** modifies the adverb **long**, and **enough** modifies the adjective **old** and the adverb **fast**.

It should be noted that in modern English, when **enough** is used as an adjective modifying a noun, it precedes the noun. For instance, in the following example, the adjective **enough** precedes the noun **apples**.
e.g. Do we have **enough** apples to make a pie?

However, when **ago** is used with a noun, it follows the noun. For instance, in the following example, **ago** follows the noun **months**.
e.g. That happened six months **ago**.
The reason for this may be found in the history of the word. **Ago**, formerly spelled **agone**, was originally a past participle.

a. Intensifiers
An adverb which is used to modify adjectives and adverbs, but which is not usually used to modify verbs, can be referred to as an **intensifier**. In the following examples, the intensifiers are printed in bold type.
e.g. I am **very** happy.
The film was **quite** good.
You did that **rather** well.
Must you leave **so** soon?
In these examples, **very** modifies the adjective **happy**, **quite** modifies the adjective **good**, **rather** modifies the adverb **well**, and **so** modifies the adverb **soon**.

The following words are commonly used as intensifiers:

fairly
quite

rather
so
too
very

In addition, the word **really** is often used as an intensifier in informal English.
e.g. The film was **really** good.
You did that **really** well.

2. Adverbs which modify verbs

The following table gives examples of six different types of adverb which can be used to modify verbs.

Adverbs of Frequency	Adverbs of Manner	Adverbs of Location	Adverbs of Time	Connecting Adverbs	Negative Adverbs
always	carefully	ahead	again	also	barely
ever	correctly	back	early	consequently	hardly
frequently	eagerly	forward	late	furthermore	little
generally	easily	here	now	hence	never
never	fast	high	sometime	however	not
often	loudly	low	then	moreover	nowhere
rarely	patiently	near	today	nevertheless	rarely
seldom	quickly	outside	tomorrow	otherwise	scarcely
sometimes	quietly	somewhere	tonight	therefore	seldom
usually	well	there	yesterday	thus	

a. Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency answer the question **How often?**

An adverb which modifies a verb may occupy one of three main positions in a clause. These positions may be referred to as the beginning position, the middle position, and the end position. Adverbs of frequency may occupy any of these positions. In the following examples, the adverbs of frequency are printed in bold type.

An adverb in the beginning position is located at the beginning of a clause. For example:
Often the wind blows less strongly at night.
In this example, the adverb of frequency **often** is located at the beginning of the clause.

Most adverbs can occupy the beginning position in a clause. The use of this position tends to emphasize the adverb.

An adverb in the end position occurs after an intransitive verb, or after the direct object of a transitive verb.
e.g. He speaks **seldom**.
I visit her **frequently**.

In the first example, **seldom** follows the intransitive verb **speaks**. In the second example, **frequently** follows the direct object **her** of the transitive verb **visit**.

Usually only one adverb at a time can occupy the beginning position or the middle position in a clause. However, more than one adverb at a time can occupy the end position in a clause.

When more than one adverb occurs in the end position, the different types of adverb are usually placed in a certain order. For instance, in the end position, adverbs of frequency usually follow adverbs of manner and adverbs of location, and precede adverbs of time and adverbs of purpose.

Adverbs of frequency which consist of single words most often occupy the middle position of a clause. The location of adverbs in the middle position varies depending on the type of verb used. Adverbs in the middle position occupy the locations indicated below:

1) They follow the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**.
2) They precede the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**.
3) They follow the first auxiliary, in tenses which have auxiliaries.
4) They precede the first auxiliary, or the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, in short answers.

The following examples illustrate the use of adverbs of frequency in the middle position of a clause. The relevant verbs are underlined.
1) We are **always** on time.
2) He **rarely** makes a mistake.
3) I have **often** wondered about that.
4) Have you seen this movie before? No, I **never** have.
In the preceding examples, **always** follows **are**, the Simple Present of the verb **to be**; **rarely** precedes **makes**, the Simple Present of a verb other than the verb **to be**; **often** follows the first auxiliary **have** of the verb **have wondered**; and **never** precedes the auxiliary **have** in the short answer **I never have**.

See Exercise 1.

In negative statements, and negative questions with **not**, adverbs in the middle position of a clause usually follow the word **not**.
e.g. Negative Statement: They do not **often** miss the bus.
Question with **Not**: Does he not **usually** know the answers?
In these examples, the adverbs **often** and **usually** follow the word **not**.

In affirmative questions, and negative questions with **n't**, adverbs in the middle position of a clause usually follow the subject of the clause. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. Affirmative Question: Is it **always** this cold in February?
Question with **n't**: Doesn't he **usually** know the answers?
In the first example, the adverb **always** follows the subject **it**. In the second example, the adverb **usually** follows the subject **he**.

It should be noted that the adverbs **daily**, **weekly**, **monthly**, **yearly** and **annually** usually do not occupy the middle position of a clause.

See Exercise 2.

Verbs may be modified not only by single-word adverbs, but also by adverb phrases and clauses. Like adverbs of frequency, adverb phrases and clauses of frequency answer the question **How often?**

Adverb phrases and clauses of frequency usually occupy either the beginning or end position of a clause.
e.g. Once in a while, I like to try something new.
We visited the museum as often as we could.
In the first example, the adverb phrase of frequency **once in a while** occupies the beginning position of the clause **I like to try something new**. In the second example, the adverb clause of frequency **as often as we could** occupies the end position of the clause **We visited the museum**.

It should be noted that except in the case of commonly used adverbs such as **now**, **then** , **today**, **tomorrow**, **sometimes**, **usually**, **maybe** and **perhaps**, adverbs and adverb phrases at the beginning of a clause must usually be followed by commas. In the following examples, the commas are underlined.
e.g. Unfortunately, it began to rain.
As often as possible, we went outside for a walk.

b. Adverbs of time
Adverbs of time answer the question **When?**

Adverbs of time usually occupy either the beginning position or the end position of a clause. In the following examples, the adverbs of time are printed in bold type.
e.g. **Today** I will go to the library.
I will go to the post office **tomorrow**.
In the first example, **today** occupies the beginning position of a clause. In the second example, **tomorrow** occupies the end position of a clause.

In the end position, adverbs of time usually follow adverbs of manner and adverbs of location.

With a few exceptions, such as **now**, **then** and **once**, most adverbs of time may not occupy the middle position of a clause.

The adverbs **now**, **then** and **once** may occupy any of the three positions in a clause. For instance, in the following examples, **now** occupies the first position, the middle position, and the end position of a clause.
e.g. **Now** it is time to leave.
It is **now** time to leave.
It is time to leave **now**.

It should be noted that **sometimes** is an adverb of frequency, whereas **sometime** is an

adverb of time.
e.g. I **sometimes** see him in the park.
I would like to read that book **sometime**.
In the first example, the adverb of frequency **sometimes** occupies the middle position of a clause. In the second example, the adverb of time **sometime** occupies the end position of a clause.

Adverb phrases and clauses of time usually occupy either the beginning or end position of a clause.
e.g. At nine o'clock, the train will leave.
I will call you when I am ready.
In the first example, the adverb phrase **at nine o'clock** occupies the beginning position of the clause **the train will leave**. In the second example, the adverb clause **when I am ready** occupies the end position of the clause **I will call you**.

c. Adverbs of manner
Adverbs of manner answer the question **How?** Many adverbs of manner have the ending **ly**. The formation and use of adverbs of manner will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Adverbs of manner most often occupy the end position of a clause, where they follow an intransitive verb, or the direct object of a transitive verb.
e.g. We waited **patiently** for the play to begin.
I sold the strawberries **quickly**.
In the first example, the adverb of manner **patiently** follows the intransitive verb **waited**. In the second example, the adverb of manner **quickly** follows the direct object **strawberries** of the transitive verb **sold**.

An adverb of manner may be placed at the beginning of a clause, in order to emphasize the idea expressed by the adverb.
e.g. **Patiently**, we waited for the show to begin.
Quickly, I sold the strawberries.
In these examples, the ideas expressed by **patiently** and **quickly** are emphasized.

Adverbs of manner are often placed in the middle position of a clause, particularly when the clause contains no adverb of frequency.
e.g. I **slowly** opened the door.
I have **carefully** considered all of the possibilities.
In the first example, the adverb of manner **slowly** precedes **opened**, a verb in the Simple Past. In the second example, the adverb of manner **carefully** follows the auxiliary **have** of the verb **have considered**.

In informal English, adverbs of manner are often placed immediately after the word **to** of an infinitive. When this is done, the infinitive is referred to as a **split infinitive**.
e.g. I wanted to **carefully** consider the situation.
In this example, the infinitive **to consider** is split by the adverb **carefully**.

However, in formal English, it is considered preferable not to use split infinitives. In formal English, the above example could be written:
I wanted to consider the situation **carefully**.

Adverb phrases and clauses of manner usually occupy the end position of a clause.
e.g. We arrived on foot.
We finished the work as quickly as we could.
In the first example, the adverb phrase of manner **on foot** follows the intransitive verb **arrived**. In the second example, the adverb clause of manner **as quickly as we could** follows the direct object **work** of the transitive verb **finished**.

Adverb phrases and clauses of manner are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis. For example:
As quickly as we could, we finished the work.
In this example, the adverb clause **as quickly as we could** is emphasized.

d. Connecting adverbs
Adverbs such as **however**, **nevertheless** and **therefore** are often used to connect the ideas expressed by the clauses in which they occur to ideas expressed in previous clauses. In the following examples, the connecting adverbs are printed in bold type.

Connecting adverbs are often placed at the beginning of a clause.
e.g. I would like to go skiing. **However**, I have too much work to do.
She was very busy; **nevertheless**, she found time to go swimming.

In the first example, the adverb **however**, which occurs at the beginning of the clause **I have too much work to do**, connects the idea expressed in this clause with the idea expressed in the previous clause, **I would like to go skiing**. In the second example, the adverb **nevertheless**, which occurs at the beginning of the clause **she found time to go swimming**, connects the idea expressed in this clause with the idea expressed in the previous clause, **she was very busy**.

Many connecting adverbs may be placed in the middle position of a clause. This is often done when the clause contains no adverb of frequency.
e.g. I am, **nevertheless**, anxious to continue.
We **thus** had no difficulty finding the motel.
We have, **therefore**, decided to do it.

In the first example, **nevertheless** follows **am**, the Simple Present of the verb **to be**. In the second example, **thus** precedes **had**, the Simple Past of a verb other than the verb **to be**. In the third example, **therefore** follows the auxiliary **have** of the verb **have decided**.

The adverb **however** may occupy any of the three positions in a clause. As illustrated in the following examples, a connecting adverb is usually separated by commas from the rest of the sentence.
e.g. **However**, it has stopped snowing.
It has, **however**, stopped snowing.
It has stopped snowing, **however**.

It should be noted that the adverb **instead** is often placed at the end of a clause.
e.g. Because there was no meat, I bought fish **instead**.

Connecting adverb phrases are most often placed at the beginning of a clause. For example:

As a result, I decided to study hard.

In this example, the phrase **as a result** is placed at the beginning of the clause **I decided to study hard**.

The following table summarizes the most commonly used positions for the four different types of adverb discussed above.

Type of Adverb	Most commonly used Position in Clause
Adverb of frequency	Middle position
Adverb of time	End position, following adverbs of manner and location
Adverb of manner	End position, preceding other adverbs
Connecting adverb	Beginning position

See Exercise 3.

e. Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose

Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose answer the question **Why?** This question is usually answered by a phrase or clause, rather than by a single-word adverb. In the following examples, the adverb phrases and clauses of purpose are underlined.

Adverb phrases and clauses of purpose usually occupy the end position of a clause, and follow any other adverbs, or adverb phrases or clauses.

e.g. I went to the store yesterday to buy a coat.

I need to buy a new coat soon because my old one is worn out.

In the first example, the adverb phrase of purpose **to buy a coat** occupies the end position of a clause, following the adverb of time **yesterday**. In the second example, the adverb clause of purpose **because my old one is worn out** occupies the end position of a clause, following the adverb of time **soon**.

Adverb phrases or clauses of purpose are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis.

e.g. To reach the airport on time, we had to complete the trip in two hours.

Because it was such a beautiful day, I decided to go for a walk.

In the first example, the adverb phrase of purpose **to reach the airport on time** is placed at the beginning of the clause **we had to complete the trip in two hours**. In the second example, the adverb clause **because it was such a beautiful day** is placed at the beginning of the clause **I decided to go for a walk**.

f. Adverbs of location

Adverbs of location answer the question **Where?**

Adverbs of location, and adverb phrases and clauses of location, most often occupy the end position of a clause, where they precede adverbs of time and adverbs of purpose. In the following examples, the adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location are underlined.

e.g. I am going there tomorrow.

He left his bicycle in the driveway last night.
I know the office where she works.

In the first example, the adverb of location **there** follows the verb **am going**, and precedes the adverb of time **tomorrow**. In the second example, the adverb phrase of location **in the driveway** follows the object **bicycle** of the verb **left**, and precedes the adverb phrase of time **last night**. In the third example, the adverb clause of location **where she works** follows the object **office** of the verb **know**.

It should be noted that the position of adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location relative to other types of adverb is affected by whether or not the verb being modified is a **verb of motion**.

A verb of motion is a verb which describes some type of movement. The verbs **come**, **go**, **arrive**, **leave**, **walk**, **run** and **fly** are examples of verbs of motion.

If the verb of a clause is not a verb of motion, the most usual order of the different types of adverb in the end position of a clause is as follows:

Adverb of Manner
Adverb of Location
Adverb of Time
Adverb of Purpose

The following example illustrates this order:

We waited	patiently	outside the theater	all afternoon	to buy tickets.
Type of Phrase:	Manner	Location	Time	Purpose

See Exercise 4.

The order may be varied if it is desired to emphasize one of the adverb phrases. For instance, the adverb phrase of time **all afternoon** could be given more emphasis by placing it immediately after the adverb **patiently**, as follows:
We waited patiently all afternoon outside the theater to buy tickets.

When the verb of a clause is a verb of motion, any adverb of location, or adverb phrase or clause of location, is usually placed immediately after the verb. The following table compares the position of adverbs following verbs of motion with the position of adverbs following other verbs.

The most usual Position of Adverbs following a Verb

Order of Adverbs following a Verb of Motion	Order of Adverbs following a Verb which is not a Verb of Motion
Adverb of Location	Adverb of Manner
Adverb of Manner	Adverb of Location
Adverb of Time	Adverb of Time
Adverb of Purpose	Adverb of Purpose

It can be seen that the order of the adverbs following the two types of verb is the same except for the relative order of the adverb of location and the adverb of manner.

The following example illustrates the most usual order of the four different types of adverb phrase following a verb of motion:

I will go	to the library	by bus	tomorrow	to return the book.
Type of Phrase:	Location	Manner	Time	Purpose

See Exercise 5.
Adverbs and adverb phrases and clauses of location are sometimes placed at the beginning of a clause, for emphasis.
e.g. Here, the glacier deposited soil and rocks.
On the way to school, she saw a robin building its nest.
Wherever I look, I see signs of spring.
In these examples, the adverb **here**, the adverb phrase **on the way to school** and the adverb clause **wherever I look** are each placed at the beginning of a clause.

Adverbs of location usually cannot be placed in the middle position of a clause.

i. Here and There
The words **here** and **there**, indicating location, are often used at the beginning of a clause, followed by the verb **to be**.

In this construction, if the subject of the verb is a noun, the subject follows the verb.
e.g. **Here** are the tickets.
There was our bus.
In these examples, the noun subjects **tickets** and **bus** follow the verbs **are** and **was**.

However, if the subject of the verb is a personal pronoun, the subject precedes the verb.
e.g. **Here** they are.
There it was.
In these examples, the personal pronoun subjects **they** and **it** precede the verbs **are** and **was**.

When the subject follows the verb, care must be taken to make sure that the verb agrees with its subject.
e.g. **Here** is one of the examples.
There are his aunt and uncle.
In the first example, the verb **is** is singular to agree with the singular subject **one**. In the second example, the verb **are** is plural to agree with the plural subject **his aunt and uncle**.

See Exercise 6.

ii. There used as an introductory word
In addition to being used to indicate location, **there** can also be used as an introductory

word, in clauses indicating the existence of something. **There** as an introductory word is often used with verbs such as **to be**, **to appear** and **to seem**. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. **There** is a public holiday on Monday.
There are three universities in the city.
There seem to be two possible answers to this question.

In affirmative statements using this construction, the subject follows the verb. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. **There** are only twenty-four hours in a day.
There seems to be a message for you.
In the first example, the verb **are** is plural, to agree with the plural subject **hours**. In the second example, the verb **seems** is singular, to agree with the singular subject **message**.

In questions using this construction, **there** follows the verb in the case of the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**; otherwise, **there** follows the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. In the following examples, the verbs are underlined.
e.g. Is **there** a post office near here?
Were **there** many people on the train?
Can **there** be any doubt about it?
Do **there** seem to be any maple trees in this forest?
In the first two examples, **there** follows **is** and **were**, the Simple Present and Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the last two examples, **there** follows the first auxiliaries **can** and **do**.

iii. Inverted word order
When used with a verb of motion, an adverb or adverb phrase of location may be placed at the beginning of a clause, followed immediately by the verb, followed by the noun subject of the verb. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

adverb phrase of location +	verb of motion +	noun subject
Up the hill	trundled	the train.
Here	come	our friends.

If the subject of the verb is a personal pronoun, the subject must precede the verb, as illustrated below:

adverb phrase of location +	pronoun subject +	verb of motion
Up the hill	it	trundled.
Here	they	come.

See Exercise 7.

g. Negative adverbs
Negative adverbs include adverbs with an explicit negative meaning, such as **never**, **not** and **nowhere**, as well as adverbs with an implied negative meaning, such as **hardly**, **scarcely** and **seldom**.

i. Double negatives
In modern English, there is a rule that a clause containing one negative word expresses a negative meaning, but a clause containing two negative words expressed an affirmative meaning. In the case of a clause with two negative words, it is considered that one of these words negates the other, so that an affirmative meaning results. The presence of two negative words in a clause is referred to as a **double negative**.

In some dialects of English, clauses containing two negative words may be used to express a negative meaning.
e.g. I'm not saying nothing about it.
He never told nobody the secret.
However, this use of the double negative is considered to be grammatically incorrect in standard English.

For each of the above examples, the double negative can be eliminated by omitting or altering one of the negative words. Thus, the meaning of the first example could be correctly expressed by either of the following sentences:
I'm saying **nothing** about it. **or**
I'm **not** saying **anything** about it.

Similarly, the meaning of the second example could be correctly expressed by either of the following sentences:
He told **nobody** the secret. **or**
He **never** told **anybody** the secret.

See Exercise 8.

ii. Inverted word order
If a clause begins with a negative adverb, inverted word order must usually be used, with the subject following the Simple Present or Simple Past of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present or Simple Past of any verb other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

negative adverb or adverb phrase	+	Simple form of verb **to be** or first auxiliary	+	subject	
Never before		was		I	so eager to reach home.
Little		did		we	think we would meet again.
Seldom		had		they	tasted such a delicacy.

Following are other examples of this type of construction. The negative adverbs and adverb phrases are printed in bold type, and the subjects of the verbs are underlined.
e.g. **Seldom** was he at a loss for words.

Scarcely had we left the house, when it began to rain.
Not for many years was the true story known.
No sooner did the bell ring than the children ran out of the school.
In the first example, the subject **he** follows **was**, the Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the succeeding examples, the subjects **we**, **story** and **bell** follow the auxiliaries **had**, **was** and **did**, respectively.

See Exercise 9.

In this type of inverted construction, if **there** is used as an introductory word, **there** follows the Simple Past or Simple Present of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary.
e.g. **Seldom** were there more than five ducks on the pond.
Rarely had there been more swans on the lake than there were that day.
In the first example, **there** follows **were**, the Simple Past of the verb **to be**. In the second example, **there** follows the auxiliary **had**, of the verb **had been**.

It should be noted that the expression **so ... that** can also be used with inverted word order.
e.g. **So** exhausted were we **that** we fell asleep at the table.
In this example, the subject **we** follows the verb **were**.

3. Interrogative adverbs

The adverbs **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can be used as interrogative adverbs at the beginning of direct questions. The interrogative adverbs in the following direct questions are printed in bold type.
e.g. **How** are you?
When is he coming?
Where were you?
Why did you say that?

As shown in these examples, inverted word order must be used, with the subject following the Simple Past or Simple Present of the verb **to be**, or the first auxiliary. In the case of the Simple Present and Simple Past of verbs other than the verb **to be**, the auxiliary **to do** must be used. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. **How** is your sister?
When did you see him?
Where is she going?
Why has he changed his mind?

In these examples, the subject **sister** follows the verb **is**, and the subjects **you**, **she** and **he** follow the auxiliaries **did**, **is** and **has**, respectively.

See Exercise 10.

As well as being used as interrogative adjectives at the beginning of direct questions, **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can also be used at the beginning of subordinate clauses.

In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. Be ready to start when you hear the signal.
He camped close to where the brook flows into the lake.
In the first example, **when you hear the signal** is an adverb clause of time. In the second example, **where the brook flows into the lake** is an adverb clause of location.

In addition to being used at the beginning of adverb clauses, **how**, **when**, **where** and **why** can also be used at the beginning of indirect questions. In the following examples, the indirect questions are underlined.
e.g. I want to know how he did that.
I wonder when they will arrive.
Please tell me where the school is.
I will ask why she left early.

As pointed out previously, inverted word order is not used in indirect questions. Thus, the subject of an indirect question precedes the verb. In the following examples, the subjects are underlined.
e.g. We should find out **how** the information was transmitted.
Ask her **when** she will be here.
I wonder **where** they are.
Please find out **why** he could not come with us.
In these examples, the subjects **information**, **she**, **they** and **he** precede the verbs **was transmitted**, **will be**, **are** and **could come**.

EXERCISES for Chapter 24

1. Rewrite each of the following sentences, placing the adverb of frequency given in brackets in the middle position of the main clause. For example:
She is late for work. (rarely)
She is rarely late for work.

We visit him on Sundays. (sometimes)
We sometimes visit him on Sundays.

I have read that book before. (never)
I have never read that book before.

Yes, I do. (usually)
Yes, I usually do.

1. I had wanted to see the ocean. (always)
2. They do. (frequently)
3. She is very friendly. (usually)
4. They have the opportunity to travel. (seldom)
5. I am at home in the mornings. (generally)
6. He has. (always)
7. We were given free transportation to the school. (frequently)
8. Birds return to the place where they were born to build their nests. (often)
9. Albatrosses are seen close to shore. (seldom)
10. We would. (never)

11. They follow the news. (rarely)
12. Maple wood is used to make violins. (sometimes)
Answers

2. Rewrite each of the following sentences, placing the adverb of frequency given in brackets in the middle position of the main clause. For example:

Have you visited New York? (ever)
Have you ever visited New York?

I do not go to the library on the weekend. (always)
I do not always go to the library on the weekend.

1. He did not arrive on time. (ever)
2. Do you visit Boston? (often)
3. Are they surprised at the results? (frequently)
4. The children do not follow our instructions. (always)
5. Do you wonder what will happen next? (sometimes)
6. Did they find the missing information? (ever)
7. We do not stay out after dark. (usually)
8. The facts are not known. (generally)
Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, place the adverbs given in brackets in their most usual positions in the sentence. Place connecting adverbs in the beginning position, place adverbs of frequency in the middle position, and place adverbs of manner and adverbs of time in the end position. Adverbs of manner should precede adverbs of time. For example:

They left. (early, usually)
They usually left early.

We proceeded. (cautiously, therefore)
Therefore, we proceeded cautiously.

We will review our options. (tomorrow, carefully)
We will review our options carefully tomorrow.

1. We pick the flowers. (carefully, usually)
2. She answers. (correctly, rarely)
3. He is wrong. (however, seldom)
4. We will attend the concert. (therefore, tonight)
5. We found the hotel. (easily, nevertheless)
6. They left. (quietly, this morning)
7. She wins first prize. (always, furthermore)
8. He finished. (late, often)
9. We reached the station. (quickly, consequently)
10. You speak. (loudly, never)
11. We would have gone to the beach. (otherwise, yesterday)
12. They worked. (quickly, today)
13. I want to analyze the book. (carefully, sometime)
14. We arrive. (early, sometimes)

Answers

4. The following sentences do not contain verbs of motion. Complete each sentence by placing the adverbs and adverb phrases given in brackets in the end position, in the following order:

Adverb of Manner
Adverb of Location
Adverb of Time
Adverb of Purpose

For example:

The tickets sold. (at the box office, quickly, this afternoon)
The tickets sold quickly at the box office this afternoon.

I bought some film. (to photograph the parade, at the store, yesterday)
I bought some film at the store yesterday to photograph the parade.

1. We ate. (at the restaurant, well, yesterday evening)
2. They will be. (next month, on business, in France)
3. The children whispered. (on Christmas Eve, excitedly, in front of the tree)
4. We hung the picture. (on the wall, carefully)
5. The birds twittered. (this morning, outside the window, loudly)
6. The boys and girls waited. (for the parade to pass by, impatiently)
7. We slept. (all afternoon, on the grass, soundly)
8. The choir sang. (last week, beautifully, at the competition)
9. We watched the skaters. (to determine who might win the competition, avidly, this morning)
10. The moon shone. (over the water, long after the sun had set, brilliantly)

Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to whether or not the sentence contains a verb of motion, place the adverbs and adverb phrases given in brackets in the correct order in the end position of the sentence. For example:

He lived. (for six years, happily, in Copenhagen)
He lived happily in Copenhagen for six years.

They returned. (from Holland, last week, unexpectedly)
They returned from Holland unexpectedly last week.

1. They stood. (at the bus stop, for twenty minutes, patiently)
2. We arrived. (here, last night, on foot)
3. The young child walked. (by herself, this morning, to school)
4. They were waiting. (at seven o'clock, eagerly, outside the fairgrounds)
5. She arrived. (in a black limousine, at the hotel)
6. Chickadees build their nests. (in dense evergreens, in the early spring, secretively)
7. The waves crashed. (against the shore, loudly)
8. I walked. (in the rain, to work, yesterday)
9. He sat. (until the announcements were finished, on the edge of his chair, expectantly)
10. We left. (this morning, home, in a hurry)

11. She went. (by bus, downtown, today)
12. They talked. (for an hour, animatedly, on the front lawn)
Answers

6. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with **is** or **are**, as appropriate. For example:

Here __ one of the computations.
Here is one of the computations.

There ___ all of the results.
There are all of the results.

1. There _____ his brother and sister.
2. Here _____ the news.
3. There _____ several of her classmates.
4. Here _____ both of the disks.
5. There _____ a pair of pliers.
6. Here _____ a few chocolates.
7. Here _____ a box of eggs.
8. There _____ two of the books.
9. Here _____ another of the magazines.
10. Here _____ some of the answers.
ii. There _____ one of his brothers.
12. Here _____ the essays.
Answers

7. Rewrite the following sentences, replacing the underlined phrases with personal pronouns, and changing the word order as necessary. For example:

Over the treetops sailed the kite.
Over the treetops it sailed.

Here comes our teacher.
Here he comes.

1. Up the stairs dashed the reporter.
2. Onto the stage glided the ballerina.
3. Here is the butter.
4. There go the geese.
5. To and fro rode the girl on the horse.
6. Here come the children.
7. High in the heavens shone the lights of a million stars.
8. There goes the train.
9. Into the hotel darted the boy.
10. Here are your keys.
11. Over the grass rolled the ball.
12. There is my aunt.
Answers

8. The following sentences are incorrect, because each contains a double negative. Each sentence can be corrected by omitting or altering one of the negative expressions.

Write two corrected versions for each sentence. For example:

We have not got no sugar.
We have got no sugar.
or We have not got any sugar.

I have never seen nothing like it before.
I have seen nothing like it before.
or I have never seen anything like it before.

1. He does not need no advice.
2. We never go nowhere interesting.
3. I did not get none of the answers right.
4. She does not know nothing.
5. We had not met neither of the boys before.
6. They did not do no harm.
7. He never speaks to nobody.
8. You do not have no reason to behave like that.
9. I do not know nothing about it.
10. I do not have no time for such things.

Answers

9. For each of the following sentences, add the negative expression shown in brackets at the beginning of the sentence, and make any other changes that are necessary. For example:

I had reached home when I remembered the message. (hardly)
Hardly had I reached home when I remembered the message.

We had the opportunity to do whatever we wanted. (seldom)
Seldom did we have the opportunity to do whatever we wanted.

1. We had entered the room when the telephone rang. (scarcely)
2. I have seen a more beautiful ballet than that one. (never)
3. We realized that a dangerous stretch of road lay ahead of us. (little)
4. I have worked as hard as I could. (never before)
5. A writer can express his exact feelings in words. (rarely)
6. We perceive everything that is around us. (hardly ever)
7. One can find a more striking example of erosion than the Grand Canyon. (nowhere)
8. They guessed what was about to happen. (little)
9. I am entirely satisfied with my situation. (seldom)
10. One comprehends a complex situation immediately. (rarely)

Answers

10. Paying attention to the correct word order, rewrite the underlined indirect questions as direct questions. For example:

I would like to know why you are here.
Why are you here?

I wonder how often he comes here.
How often does he come here?

Tell me where you have been.
Where have you been?

1. I want to know how much money you collected.
2. I wonder where they were.
3. Tell me why I should attend the meeting.
4. I would like to know when he finds time for his hobbies.
5. Do you know why she left school?
6. I am curious to know how many times you have seen this movie.
7. Will you tell me when you completed the assignment?
8. He will ask how long it will take.
9. Tell me where you are.
10. I wonder why she did not reply.
11. Find out when the bank opens.
12. Can you tell me where she is staying?

Answers

11. Paying attention to the correct word order, use the phrases given in brackets to rewrite the following direct questions as indirect questions. For example:

Where is the nearest store? (Please find out)
Please find out where the nearest store is.

How many boxes of paper did he order? (We need to know)
We need to know how many boxes of paper he ordered.

Why has she not finished the assignment? (I will ask her)
I will ask her why she has not finished the assignment.

1. Why is the information not here? (Please tell me)
2. When will they finish work? (Did you ask)
3. Where has she studied? (I wonder)
4. How many pounds of cherries did you sell? (Tell us)
5. Why was the meeting cancelled? (Will you tell me)
6. How long will the trip take? (I wonder)
7. How is he? (Did you hear)
8. Why do they have difficulty with the work? (I wonder)
9. When does she plan to leave? (Ask her)
10. How much time do you have? (Please let me know)
11. Where is the post office? (I am not sure)
12. Where did you buy that book? (Tell me)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 24

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. I had always wanted to see the ocean. 2. They frequently do. 3. She is usually very friendly. 4. They seldom have the opportunity to travel. 5. I am generally at home in the mornings. 6. He always has. 7. We were frequently given free transportation to the

school. 8. Birds often return to the place where they were born to build their nests. 9. Albatrosses are seldom seen close to shore. 10. We never would. 11. They rarely follow the news. 12. Maple wood is sometimes used to make violins.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. He did not ever arrive on time. 2. Do you often visit Boston? 3. Are they frequently surprised at the results? 4. The children do not always follow our instructions. 5. Do you sometimes wonder what will happen next? 6. Did they ever find the missing information? 7. We do not usually stay out after dark. 8. The facts are not generally known.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. We usually pick the flowers carefully. 2. She rarely answers correctly. 3. However, he is seldom wrong. 4. Therefore, we will attend the concert tonight. 5. Nevertheless, we found the hotel easily. 6. They left quietly this morning. 7. Furthermore, she always wins first prize. 8. He often finished late. 9. Consequently, we reached the station quickly. 10. You never speak loudly. 11. Otherwise, we would have gone to the beach yesterday. 12. They worked quickly today. 13. I want to analyze the book carefully sometime. 14. We sometimes arrive early.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. We ate well at the restaurant yesterday evening. 2. They will be in France next month on business. 3. The children whispered excitedly in front of the tree on Christmas Eve. 4. We hung the picture carefully on the wall. 5. The birds twittered loudly outside the window this morning. 6. The boys and girls waited impatiently for the parade to pass by. 7. We slept soundly on the grass all afternoon. 8. The choir sang beautifully at the competition last week. 9. We watched the skaters avidly this morning, to determine who might win the competition. 10. The moon shone brilliantly over the water long after the sun had set.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. They stood patiently at the bus stop for twenty minutes. 2. We arrived here on foot last night. 3. The young child walked to school by herself this morning. 4. They were waiting eagerly outside the fairgrounds at seven o'clock. 5. She arrived at the hotel in a black limousine. 6. Chickadees build their nests secretively in dense evergreens in the early spring. 7. The waves crashed loudly against the shore. 8. I walked to work in the rain yesterday. 9. He sat expectantly on the edge of his chair until the announcements were finished. 10. We left home in a hurry this morning. 11. She went downtown by bus today. 12. They talked animatedly on the front lawn for an hour.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. are 2. is 3. are 4. are 5. is 6. are 7. is 8. are 9. is 10. are 11. is 12. are

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. Up the stairs he (**or** she) dashed. 2. Onto the stage she glided. 3. Here it is. 4. There they go. 5. To and fro she rode. 6. Here they come. 7. High in the heavens they shone. 8. There it goes. 9. Into the hotel he darted. 10. Here they are. 11. Over the grass it rolled. 12. There she is.

Answers to Exercise 8:

1. He needs no advice. **or** He does not need any advice. 2. We go nowhere interesting. **or** We never go anywhere interesting. 3. I got none of the answers right. **or** I did not get any of the answers right. 4. She knows nothing. **or** She does not know anything. 5. We had met neither of the boys before. **or** We had not met either of the boys before. 6. They did no harm. **or** They did not do any harm. 7. He speaks to nobody. **or** He never speaks to anybody. 8. You have no reason to behave like that. **or** You do not have any reason to behave like that. 9. I know nothing about it. **or** I do not know anything about it. 10. I have no time for such things. **or** I do not have any time for such things.

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. Scarcely had we entered the room when the telephone rang. 2. Never have I seen a more beautiful ballet than that one. 3. Little did we realize that a dangerous stretch of road lay ahead of us. 4. Never before have I worked as hard as I could. 5. Rarely can a writer express his exact feelings in words. 6. Hardly ever do we perceive everything that is around us. 7. Nowhere can one find a more striking example of erosion than the Grand Canyon. 8. Little did they guess what was about to happen. 9. Seldom am I entirely satisfied with my situation. 10. Rarely does one comprehend a complex situation immediately.

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. How much money did you collect? 2. Where were they? 3. Why should I attend the meeting? 4. When does he find time for his hobbies? 5. Why did she leave school? 6. How many times have you seen this movie? 7. When did you complete the assignment? 8. How long will it take? 9. Where are you? 10. Why did she not reply? 11. When does the bank open? 12. Where is she staying?

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. Please tell me why the information is not here. 2. Did you ask when they will finish work? 3. I wonder where she has studied. 4. Tell us how many pounds of cherries you sold. 5. Will you tell me why the meeting was cancelled? 6. I wonder how long the trip will take. 7. Did you hear how he is? 8. I wonder why they have difficulty with the work. 9. Ask her when she plans to leave. 10. Please let me know how much time you have. 11. I am not sure where the post office is. 12. Tell me where you bought that book.

CHAPTER 25. ADVERBS OF MANNER AND ADVERBS USED IN COMPARISONS

1. Adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner are the largest group of adverbs. Most adverbs of manner are closely related to corresponding adjectives. Although some words can be used as either adjectives or adverbs, in most cases, adverbs of manner are formed by adding **ly** to the corresponding adjectives.

a. Spelling rules for adding ly
In most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
bad	badly
complete	completely
normal	normally

surprising	surprisingly

i. Adjectives ending in ic
However, when the adjective ends in **ic**, the syllable **al** is usually added before the **ly** ending. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
dramatic	dramatically
scientific	scientifically
specific	specifically

ii. Adjectives ending in le
When the adjective ends in **le** preceded by a consonant, the final **e** is usually changed to **y**, to form the **ly** ending. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
favorable	favorably
humble	humbly
simple	simply

When the adjective ends in **le** preceded by a vowel, in most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
agile	agilely
sole	solely

However, in the case of the adjective **whole**, the final **e** is removed before the ending **ly** is added:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
whole	wholly

iii. Adjectives ending in ll
When the adjective ends in **ll**, only **y** is added. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
dull	dully
full	fully
shrill	shrilly

iv. Adjectives ending in ue
When the adjective ends in **ue**, the final **e** is usually omitted before the ending **ly** is added. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
due	duly
true	truly

v. Adjectives ending in y
When the adjective ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, the **y** is usually changed to **i** before the ending **ly** is added. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
busy	busily
easy	easily
happy	happily

However, in the case of the adjectives **shy** and **sly**, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
shy	shyly
sly	slyly

When the adjective ends in **y** preceded by a vowel, in most cases, **ly** is simply added to the positive form of the adjective. For example:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
coy	coyly
grey	greyly

However, in the case of the adjective **gay**, **y** is changed to **i** before the ending **ly** is added:

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
gay	gaily

See Exercise 1.

It should be noted that while most adverbs which end in **ly** are adverbs of manner, other types of adverb may also end in **ly**. For instance, **consequently** and **subsequently** are connecting adverbs. The following are adverbs of frequency which are formed by adding **ly** to the corresponding adjectives.

Adjective	Adverb of Frequency
frequent	frequently
rare	rarely
usual	usually

b. Adverbs which do not use the ending ly
The adverb of manner **well** appears unrelated to the corresponding adjective, **good**. **Good** and **well** both have the comparative form **better** and the superlative form **best**.

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
good	well

It should be noted that in addition to being used as an adverb, the word **well** can also be used as an adjective with the meaning **healthy**. The adjective **well** is most often used as a predicate adjective.
e.g. **Well** used as an Adjective: I hope you are **well**.
Well used as an Adverb: He did **well** on the examination.
In the first example, **well** is a predicate adjective, modifying the pronoun **you**. In the second example, **well** is an adverb of manner, modifying the verb **did**.

The following table gives examples of adverbs of manner, location, time and frequency which have the same forms as the corresponding adjectives.

Adjective	Adverb of Manner
fast	fast
hard	hard
little	little
loud	loud **or** loudly
much	much
straight	straight

Adjective	Adverb of Location
far	far
high	high
low	low
near	near
wide	wide

Adjective	Adverb of Time
early	early
first	first
late	late
long	long

Adjective	Adverb of Frequency
daily	daily
monthly	monthly
weekly	weekly
yearly	yearly

See Exercise 2.

It should also be noted that there are several adjectives ending in **ly** which have no corresponding adverbs:

friendly
likely
lively
lonely
silly

ugly

When it is desired to use one of these words to modify a verb, an adverb phrase of manner may be used. In the following examples, the adverb phrases are underlined.
e.g. He behaved in a friendly manner.
They acted in a silly way.

The following table gives examples of pairs of adverbs which are closely related, but which have different meanings.

Adverbs With and Without ly Endings

Adverb	Meaning	Adverb	Meaning
hard	with effort	**hardly**	scarcely
high	opposite of **low**	**highly**	very; very well
late	opposite of **early**	**lately**	recently
near	opposite of **far**	**nearly**	almost
wide	opposite of **narrow**	**widely**	commonly

The meanings of these adverbs are illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. I worked **hard**.
I have **hardly** enough time to finish.

He threw the ball **high** into the air.
He is **highly** successful in what he does.

The class began **late**.
The weather has been cold **lately**.

I held my breath as the squirrel crept **near** to get the nuts.
I have **nearly** finished reading the book.

I opened the door **wide**.
That theory is **widely** believed.

c. The differing functions of adjectives and adverbs
When an adverb differs in form from a corresponding adjective, it is necessary to distinguish between the functions of adjectives and adverbs in order to determine which form should be used in a given situation.

Whereas adjectives modify nouns, pronouns, and expressions which serve the same grammatical functions as nouns; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

i. Adjectives which modify nouns compared with adverbs which modify verbs
The following examples illustrate the distinction which must be made between adjectives which modify nouns and adverbs which modify verbs. The adjectives and adverbs are printed in bold type, and the words which are modified are underlined.
e.g. Adjective: It has been a **quiet** afternoon.
Adverb: The afternoon passed **quietly**.

Adjective: She is a **good** musician.
Adverb: She plays the flute very **well**.

In the first pair of sentences, the adjective **quiet** modifies the noun **afternoon**, whereas the adverb **quietly** modifies the verb **passed**. In the second pair of sentences, the adjective **good** modifies the noun **musician**, whereas the adverb **well** modifies the verb **plays**.

In informal English, adjectives are sometimes used to modify verbs.
e.g. She plays good.
In this example, the adjective **good** is used to modify the verb **plays**. However, this use of adjectives is considered to be grammatically incorrect.

See Exercise 3.

ii. Adjectives which modify nouns compared with adverbs which modify adjectives
The following examples illustrate the distinction which must be made between adjectives which modify nouns and adverbs which modify adjectives.
e.g. Adjective: a **large** wooden building
Adverb: a **largely** wooden building

Adjective: **conspicuous** dark clouds
Adverb: **conspicuously** dark clouds

In the first pair of phrases, the adjective **large** modifies the noun **building**, and the adverb **largely** modifies the adjective **wooden**. Thus, the phrase **a large wooden building** has the meaning **a big wooden building**, whereas the phrase **a largely wooden building** has the meaning **a building mostly made of wood**.

In the second pair of phrases, the adjective **conspicuous** modifies the noun **clouds**, and the adverb **conspicuously** modifies the adjective **dark**. Thus, the phrase **conspicuous dark clouds** means that the clouds themselves are noticeable; whereas the phrase **conspicuously dark clouds** means that the darkness of the clouds is noticeable.

See Exercise 4.

iii. Predicate adjectives which modify the subjects of verbs compared with adverbs which modify verbs
As pointed out previously, certain verbs, called **linking verbs**, can be followed by predicate adjectives. A distinction must be made between predicate adjectives which modify the subjects of linking verbs, and adverbs which modify verbs.

A few linking verbs, such as the verb **to be**, can be followed by predicate adjectives, but cannot be modified by adverbs of manner. In the following examples using the verb **to be**, the nouns which are modified are underlined.
e.g. He is **happy**.
The wind was **strong**.
In these examples, the predicate adjectives **happy** and **strong** modify the subjects **he** and **wind**.

However, there are several verbs which can be used either as linking verbs followed by predicate adjectives, or as non-linking verbs modified by adverbs of manner. The following examples illustrate the use of the verb **to appear** as a linking verb and as a non-linking verb.
e.g. Linking Verb: His uncle appeared **kind**.
Non-linking Verb: His uncle appeared **punctually** at ten o'clock.

In the first example, **kind** is a predicate adjective which modifies the noun **uncle**. In the second example, **punctually** is an adverb of manner which modifies the verb **appeared**.

The verbs below can be used either as linking or non-linking verbs:

to appear	to become
to feel	to grow
to look	to remain
to smell	to sound
to taste	to turn

If the subject of the verb is to be modified, a predicate adjective is required after such verbs; whereas if the verb is to be modified, an adverb is required. In the pairs of examples below, the verbs **to grow**, **to look** and **to turn** are used first as linking verbs followed by adjectives, and then as non-linking verbs modified by adverbs. The adjectives and adverbs are printed in bold type, and the words which are modified are underlined.

e.g. Adjective: As he became old, he grew **slow** at remembering dates.
Adverb: The tree grew **slowly**.

Adjective: They looked **anxious**.
Adverb: We looked **anxiously** up the street.

Adjective: The weather turned **cold**.
Adverb: She turned **coldly** away from the salesman.

In these examples, the predicate adjectives **slow**, **anxious** and **cold** modify the subjects **he**, **they** and **weather**; whereas the adverbs of manner **slowly**, **anxiously** and **coldly** modify the verbs **grew**, **looked** and **turned**.

See Exercise 5.

2. Adverbs used in comparisons

a. The formation of comparative and superlative forms of adverbs
It should be noted that many adverbs, such as **sometimes**, **never**, **here**, **there**, **now**, **then**, **first**, **again**, **yesterday** and **daily** have no comparative or superlative forms.

i. Adverbs used with More and Most
Most adverbs used in comparisons, including those formed from corresponding adjectives by adding the ending **ly**, form the comparative with the word **more**, and the superlative with the word **most**. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
carefully	more carefully	most carefully
easily	more easily	most easily
frequently	more frequently	most frequently
slowly	more slowly	most slowly
softly	more softly	most softly

ii. Adverbs used with the endings er and est
Adverbs which have the same positive forms as corresponding adjectives generally also have the same comparative and superlative forms as the corresponding adjectives. For example:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
early	earlier	earliest
fast	faster	fastest
hard	harder	hardest
high	higher	highest
late	later	latest
long	longer	longest
low	lower	lowest
near	nearer	nearest
straight	straighter	straightest

The adverb of time **soon** also uses the endings **er** and **est**:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
soon	sooner	soonest

It should be noted that adverbs formed by adding **ly** to one-syllable adjectives are sometimes used with the endings **er** and **est**.
e.g. We walked slower and slower.
They sang the softest.

However, in modern English, it is generally considered to be more correct to write:
We walked more and more slowly.
They sang the most softly.

iii. Irregular adverbs
The irregular adverbs have the same comparative and superlative forms as the corresponding irregular adjectives:

Positive Form	Comparative Form	Superlative Form
badly	worse	worst
far	farther **or** further	farthest **or** furthest

little	less	least
much	more	most
well	better	best

b. Positive forms of adverbs used in comparisons
The constructions employed when adverbs are used in comparisons are very similar to those employed when adjectives are used in comparisons.

i. The construction with As ... As
When used in making comparisons, the positive form of an adverb is usually preceded and followed by **as**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	as +	positive form of adverb +	**as**	
I can run	as	fast	as	you can.
He moves	as	slowly	as	a snail.
Her eyes shone	as	brightly	as	stars.

If desired, an adverb may be placed before the first occurrence of **as**:

	adverb +	**as** +	positive form of adverb +	**as**	
I can run	twice	as	fast	as	you can.
Her eyes shone	almost	as	brightly	as	stars.

ii. Ellipsis
Ellipsis is often employed in comparisons using adverbs. For instance, in the second half of such comparisons, instead of repeating the verb, the first auxiliary may be used, or the verb may be omitted entirely. In the following examples, the words which would usually be omitted are enclosed in square brackets.
e.g. I can run as fast as you can [run].
He moves as slowly as a snail [moves].
Her eyes shone as brightly as stars [shine].

c. Comparative forms of adverbs used in comparisons

i. The construction with Than
When used in making comparisons, the comparative form of an adverb is usually followed by **than**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	comparative form of adverb +	**than**	
He can swim	farther	than	I can.
She sings	more beautifully	than	her sister does.

As is the case with comparisons using adjectives, comparisons using adverbs can be combined with phrases or clauses.
e.g. She performs **better** in front of an audience **than** she does in rehearsal.
They walked **faster** when they were on their way to school **than** they did when they were on their way home.

In the first example, the two situations being compared are distinguished by the phrases **in front of an audience** and **in rehearsal**. In the second example, the two situations being compared are distinguished by the clauses **when they were on their way to school** and **when they were on their way home**. The use of ellipsis should be noted. In the first example, the auxiliary **does** is used instead of repeating the verb **performs**. In the second example, the auxiliary **did** is used instead of repeating the verb **walked**.

See Exercise 6.

ii. Progressive comparisons
The comparative forms of adverbs can be used in progressive comparisons. For adverbs with the ending **er**, the following construction is used:

	comparative form of adverb	+	**and**	+	comparative form of adverb
e.g. The plane flew	higher		and		higher.
The team performed	better		and		better.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. The plane flew increasingly high.
The team performed increasingly well.

For adverbs which form the comparative with **more**, the following construction is used:

	more	+	**and**	+	**more**	+	positive form of adverb
He solved the problems	more		and		more		easily.
We visited them	more		and		more		frequently.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. He solved the problems increasingly easily.
We visited them increasingly frequently.

iii. The construction with Less and Less
A similar construction, employing the expression **less and less**, can also be used. The expressions **less and less** and **more and more** have opposite meanings.

	less	+	**and**	+	**less**	+	positive form of adverb
He solved the problems	less		and		less		easily.

We visited them	less	and	less	frequently.

The meanings expressed in these examples can also be expressed as follows:
e.g. He solved the problems decreasingly easily.
We visited them decreasingly frequently.

See Exercise 7.

iv. The construction with The ..., the ...
Two clauses, each beginning with **the**, and each containing a comparative form of an adjective or adverb, can be used together in order to indicate a cause and effect relationship between two different things or events. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

The +	comparative form of adverb + or adjective	1st part of comparison, +	**the** +	comparative form of adverb + or adjective	2nd part of comparison
The	more	they eat,	the	fatter	they get.
The	faster	we skated,	the	warmer	we felt.

The following are further examples of the use of this type of construction. In these examples, the comparative forms are underlined.
e.g. **The** <u>more cleverly</u> we hid the Easter eggs, **the** <u>more enthusiastically</u> the children searched for them.
The <u>more</u> I scold her, **the** <u>worse</u> she behaves.
As shown in the examples, in this type of construction the two clauses beginning with **the** must be separated by a comma.

d. Superlative forms of adverbs used in comparisons

i. The construction with The
When used in making comparisons, the superlative form of an adverb is usually preceded by **the**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples.

	the +	superlative form of adverb	
He jumped	the	highest	of all the boys in the class.
Our team plays	the	best	of all the teams in the league.
They sing	the	most sweetly	of all the choirs I have heard.

See Exercises 8 and 9.

In the case of adverbs which form the superlative with the ending **est**, the superlative is sometimes preceded by a possessive adjective, instead of by the definite article, **the**.
In the following examples, the possessive adjectives are printed in bold type.
e.g. He ran **his** fastest.
I did **my** best.

ii. The construction with The Least

Adverbs may also be preceded by the expression **the least**. This construction is summarized below, followed by examples. The words **least** and **most** have opposite meanings.

	the +	**least** +	positive form of adverb	
She speaks	the	least	loudly	of all the children.
This bus runs	the	least	often.	

EXERCISES for Chapter 25

1. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the adverb which corresponds to the adjective given in brackets. For example:

The letter was _____ legible. (scarce)
The letter was <u>scarcely</u> legible.

He did the work as _____ as possible. (careful)
He did the work as <u>carefully</u> as possible.

They won the game _____. (easy)
They won the game <u>easily</u>.

She handled the situation very _____. (capable)
She handled the situation very <u>capably</u>.

I _____ expected that to happen. (full)
I <u>fully</u> expected that to happen.

The view was _____ magnificent. (true)
The view was <u>truly</u> magnificent.

The theory has never been _____ proved. (scientific)
The theory has never been <u>scientifically</u> proved.

1. I was _____ impressed by their courage. (due)
2. The children chattered _____. (noisy)
3 The sun shone _____ behind the clouds. (pale)
4. They have settled in _____. (comfortable)
5. He _____ maintained his point of view. (dogmatic)
6. Everything is proceeding _____. (normal)
7. Please drive _____. (slow)
8. She worked _____ until nine o'clock. (steady)
9. The cost of fuel has risen _____. (dramatic)
10. He _____ scrambled up the slope. (agile)
ii. Everything was explained clearly and _____. (simple)
12. The train whistle blew _____ at the crossing. (shrill)
13. _____ , it stopped raining before we had to leave. (lucky)

14. She was signaling _____. (frantic)
15. That was _____ unexpected. (whole)
16. We arrived _____. (punctual)
17. England is a _____ populated country. (dense)
18. They are _____ dependent on coal for fuel. (sole)
19. The material was produced _____. (synthetic)
20. They _____ agreed to the proposal. (ready)
Answers

2. For each of the following sentences, fill in the blank with the adverb which corresponds to the adjective given in brackets. For example:

He hit the ball ____. (hard)
He hit the ball hard.

The newspaper is delivered _____. (daily)
The newspaper is delivered daily.

She did ____ in the competition. (good)
She did well in the competition.

Please close the door _____. (quiet)
Please close the door quietly.

1. I drove _____ home. (straight)
2. We came to work _____. (early)
3. She _____ filled in the answers. (quick)
4. He like to drive _____. (fast)
5. We proceeded _____. (cautious)
6. He threw the ball _____ into the air. (high)
7. How _____ do you know her? (good)
8. We arrived _____. (late)
9. They did the work _____. (bad)
10. He spoke _____. (little)
ii. The gathering is held . (annual)
12. They replied _____. (immediate)
13. The workers met _____. (weekly)
14. I will deal with that problem _____. (first)
15. They were _____ dressed for the occasion. (suitable)
Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, pay attention to whether the word to be placed in the blank modifies a noun or a verb, and complete the sentence with either the adjective given in brackets or the corresponding adverb, as appropriate. For example:

It is necessary to wear _____ clothes in the winter. (thick)
It is necessary to wear thick clothes in the winter.

Snow fell _____ on the ground. (thick)
Snow fell thickly on the ground.

1. We _____ concluded the deal. (successful)

2. He is a _____ businessman. (successful)
3. There was a _____ rain in the morning. (light)
4. She ran _____ up the steps. (light)
5. The path was _____ marked. (clear)
6. We gave him a _____ signal to continue. (clear)
7. I _____ disagree with you. (strong)
8. There is a _____ wind from the north. (strong)
9. She waved _____. (cheerful)
10. I gazed at the _____ water of the lake. (tranquil)
11. The engine operates as _____ as possible. (efficient)
12. Is that a _____ decision? (recent)
13. He has behaved very _____. (responsible)
14. _____ snow is forecast for tomorrow. (heavy)
15. I opened the door _____ and stepped outside. (quiet)
16. Icicles hung from the _____ needles of the pine trees. (dark)
Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, pay attention to whether the word to be placed in the blank modifies a noun or an adjective, and complete the sentence with either the adjective given in brackets or the corresponding adverb, as appropriate. For example:

A ____ wooden fence surrounded the playground. (high)
A high wooden fence surrounded the playground.

A _____ skilled worker will be required for this job. (high)
A highly skilled worker will be required for this job.

1. They have a _____ front lawn. (wide)
2. He has challenged a _____ held theory. (wide)
3. Every author likes to receive _____ book reviews. (favorable)
4. _____ situated farms often produce higher yields than other farms. (favorable)
5. Many _____ incomprehensible phenomena have been explained with the help of modern science. (previous)
6. Many _____ city councils have succeeded in balancing the budget. (previous)
7. _____ weather conditions have prevailed for the past ten days. (unusual)
8. An _____ large number of variables must be taken into account. (extreme)
9. _____ few people understand the situation. (relative)
10. She wrote a _____ short story. (humorous)
11. That was a _____ occurring event. (frequent)
12. Our city boasts a _____ bus service. (frequent)
13. It was a _____ Easter Sunday. (hot)
14. It was a _____ debated issue. (hot)
Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, pay attention to whether the word to be placed in the blank modifies the verb or the subject of the verb, and complete the sentence with either the adjective given in brackets or the corresponding adverb, as appropriate. For example:

We tasted the soup _____. (suspicious)
We tasted the soup suspiciously.

The meal tasted _____. (delicious)
The meal tasted delicious.

1. The moon appeared _____ between the clouds. (brief)
2. He looked _____. (happy)
3. He looked _____ at the timetable. (attentive)
4. We felt _____ after supper. (sleepy)
5. After the lights went out, we felt our way _____ to our rooms. (sleepy)
6. The maple tree grew _____. (quick)
7. The sky grew _____. (dark)
8. He became _____ at the thought of giving a speech. (excited)
9. She became a teacher _____ after graduating. (immediate)
10. The pastries smelled _____. (sweet)
11. We _____ smelled the aroma of fresh bread. (eager)

Answers

6. Rewrite the following sentences as comparisons, using the comparative form of the adverb, and the word **than**. For each sentence, use the word or words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

The living room was furnished elegantly. (the study)
The living room was furnished more elegantly than the study.

Because they were nervous, they performed badly. (they should have)
Because they were nervous, they performed worse than they should have.

1. The train travels fast. (the bus)
2. In the morning, the sun shone brightly. (in the afternoon)
3. The footpath runs straight. (the road)
4. Joe sings badly. (Rick)
5. I got up early. (you did)
6. The wild deer came near. (I had expected)
7. Her son plays the violin well. (her daughter does)
8. Captain Cook sailed far. (Columbus did)
9. You are late. (the others)
10. The stream flows swiftly. (the river)
11. She studies hard. (her classmates)
12. The project was completed successfully. (we had anticipated)

Answers

7. Rewrite the following sentences, using progressive comparisons instead of the adverb **increasingly**, and using the expression **less and less** instead of the adverb **decreasingly**. For example:

The rain fell increasingly heavily.
The rain fell more and more heavily.

The wind blew increasingly hard.
The wind blew harder and harder.

Finally, the rain drummed decreasingly loudly on the roof.
Finally, the rain drummed less and less loudly on the roof.

1. As the evening wore on, we spoke decreasingly animatedly.
2. The spectators cheered increasingly loudly.
3. The chirping of the crickets disturbed us increasingly little.
4. As he grew older, he walked increasingly far.
5. The new shuttle service functioned increasingly reliably.
6. The sun shone decreasingly intensely.
7. As I became tired, I wrote increasingly slowly.
8. The boy learned to read increasingly well.

Answers

8. Rewrite each of the following sentences, changing the positive form of the adverb to the superlative form, and using the definite article **the**. Use the words given in brackets as the second part of the comparison. For example:

This window opens easily. (of all the windows in the room)
This window opens the most easily of all the windows in the room.

He plays this piece well. (of anyone in the band)
He plays this piece the best of anyone in the band.

1. She understood the lesson readily. (of all the pupils in the class)
2. This kite flies badly. (of all the kites I have ever made)
3. That train leaves early. (of all the trains departing from this station)
4. Last night it snowed hard. (of any night in the year)
5. The potato field produces little. (of all the fields on the farm)
6. This highway runs straight. (of all the highways in the country)
7. She speaks quietly. (of all the people I know)
8. The bass sings low. (of all the singers)
9. Eagles fly high. (of all the birds which live in the mountains)
10. She prepares meals well. (of all the students in the class)
11. They regard his proposal favorably. (of all the proposals they have received)
12. Bill ran far. (of all the boys)
13. His arrow came near. (to the center of the target)
14. This bus travels slowly. (of all the buses)

Answers

9. Paying attention to the sentence structure, complete each of the following sentences correctly by filling in the blank with the positive, comparative, or superlative form of the adverb given in brackets. For example:

We clapped as _____ as we could. (loudly)
We clapped as loudly as we could.

They arrived _____ than they had expected. (promptly)
They arrived more promptly than we had expected.

She swam the _____ of all the girls in the school. (far)
She swam the farthest of all the girls in the school.

The more you study, the _____ you will do on the test. (well)
The more you study, the better you will do on the test.

1. Cheetahs run the _____ of all mammals. (fast)
2. We described our experiences as _____ as we could. (vividly)
3. The more encores she sings, the _____ the audience applauds. (enthusiastically)
4. He practises the _____ of all the members of the team. (diligently)
5. The _____ you study, the poorer your marks will be. (little)
6. He explains his ideas _____ than you do. (convincingly)
7. They wrote as _____ as possible. (intelligibly)
8. Seagulls fly _____ than ducks do. (well)
9. Birds of prey soar the _____ of all birds. (impressively)
10. The _____ you exercise, the stronger you will become. (much)
11. They have traveled as _____ as possible. (widely)
12. She examined the material _____ than I did. (thoroughly)
13. He explains the subject the _____ of all the teachers in the school. (well)
14. Advanced skiers complete the course twice as _____ as beginners. (rapidly)
15. I have written out the assignment _____ than you have. (neatly)
16. The _____ I walk, the more refreshed I feel. (far)

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 25

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. duly 2. noisily 3. palely 4. comfortably 5. dogmatically 6. normally 7. slowly 8. steadily 9. dramatically 10. agilely 11. simply 12. shrilly 13. luckily 14. frantically 15. wholly 16. punctually 17. densely 18. solely 19. synthetically 20. readily

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. straight 2. early 3. quickly 4. fast 5. cautiously 6. high 7. well 8. late 9. badly 10. little 11. annually 12. immediately 13. weekly 14. first 15. suitably

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. successfully 2. successful 3. light 4. lightly 5. clearly 6. clear 7. strongly 8. strong 9. cheerfully 10. tranquil 11. efficiently 12. recent 13. responsibly 14. Heavy 15. quietly 16. dark

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. wide 2. widely 3. favorable 4. Favorably 5. previously 6. previous 7. Unusual 8. extremely 9. Relatively 10. humorous 11. frequently 12. frequent 13. hot 14. hotly

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. briefly 2. happy 3. attentively 4. sleepy 5. sleepily 6. quickly 7. dark 8. excited 9. immediately 10. sweet 11. eagerly

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. The train travels faster than the bus. 2. In the morning, the sun shone more brightly than in the afternoon. 3. The footpath runs straighter than the road. 4. Joe sings worse than Rick. 5. I got up earlier than you did. 6. The wild deer came nearer than I had expected. 7. Her son plays the violin better than her daughter does. 8. Captain Cook sailed farther than Columbus did. 9. You are later than the others. 10. The stream flows more swiftly than the river. 11. She studies harder than her classmates. 12. The project was completed more successfully than we had anticipated.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. As the evening wore on, we spoke less and less animatedly. 2. The spectators cheered more and more loudly. 3. The chirping of the crickets disturbed us less and less. 4. As he grew older, he walked farther and farther. 5. The new shuttle service functioned more and more reliably. 6. The sun shone less and less intensely. 7. As I became tired, I wrote more and more slowly. 8. The boy learned to read better and better.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. She understood the lesson the most readily of all the pupils in the class. 2. This kite flies the worst of all the kites I have ever made. 3. That train leaves the earliest of all the trains departing from this station. 4. Last night it snowed the hardest of any night in the year. 5. The potato field produces the least of all the fields on the farm. 6. This highway runs the straightest of all the highways in the country. 7. She speaks the most quietly of all the people I know. 8. The bass sings the lowest of all the singers. 9. Eagles fly the highest of all the birds which live in the mountains. 10. She prepares meals the best of all the students in the class. 11. They regard his proposal the most favorably of all the proposals they have received. 12. Bill ran the farthest of all the boys. 13. His arrow came the nearest to the center of the target. 14. This bus travels the most slowly of all the buses.

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. fastest 2. vividly 3. more enthusiastically 4. most diligently 5. less 6. more convincingly 7. intelligibly 8. better 9. most impressively 10. more 11. widely 12. more thoroughly 13. best 14. rapidly 15. more neatly 16. farther

CHAPTER 26. PREPOSITIONS

The words **at**, **in**, **of**, **on** and **to** are examples of prepositions. A word such as a noun, pronoun or gerund following a preposition is said to be the **object** of the preposition. As pointed out previously, a personal pronoun following a preposition must be in the objective case.

A phrase beginning with a preposition can be referred to as a **prepositional phrase**. The prepositional phrases in the following examples are underlined.
e.g. He owns the house <u>on the corner</u>.
We are waiting <u>for her</u>.
She has read many books <u>about flying</u>.

In the first example, the noun **corner** is the object of the preposition **on**. In the second example, the personal pronoun **her** is the object of the preposition **for**. It can be seen that the personal pronoun **her** is in the objective case. In the third example, the gerund **flying** is the object of the preposition **about**.

A preposition serves to connect its object with the rest of a sentence. In doing so, a preposition indicates the relationship of the idea expressed in the prepositional phrase to the ideas expressed In the rest of the sentence.

For instance in the sentence **He owns the house on the corner**, the preposition **on** indicates that the words **the corner** express the location of the house referred to in the rest of the sentence. Similarly, in the sentence **We are waiting for her**, the preposition **for** indicates that the word **her** expresses the reason for the action of waiting referred to in the rest of the sentence.

Although there are fewer than one hundred English prepositions, although prepositions do not take endings, and although the structure of most prepositional phrases is simple, the use of English prepositions is very complex. The reasons for this are that most prepositions have more than one meaning, many prepositions can also be used as adverbs, prepositions are used in hundreds of idioms, many adjectives, nouns, and verbs must usually be followed by certain prepositions, and there are hundreds of phrasal verbs formed from combinations of verbs with adverbs and prepositions.

It should also be noted that the use of prepositions varies somewhat among the different dialects of English. For instance, as illustrated in the following example, there are some differences between British and North American English in the use of prepositions.
e.g. British Usage: There is a fence **about** the garden.
American Usage: There is a fence **around** the garden.

The discussion below emphasizes the North American usage of English prepositions.

1. The meanings of prepositions

The table below gives the most usual meanings of English prepositions. Each meaning is illustrated by an example.

About
1. On the subject of: This is a story **about** elephants.
2. Approximately: He is **about** ten years old.

Above
1. Higher than; over: The plane flew **above** the clouds.
2. Earlier on a page: There is a heading **above** each diagram.

Across
1. From one side to the other: We walked **across** the field.

2. On the other side of: There is a store **across** the street.

After
1. Later in time: **after** ten o'clock; **after** lunch
2. Later in a series: Q comes **after** P in the alphabet.
3. In pursuit of: The dog ran **after** the cat.

Against
1. In opposition to: Theft is **against** the law.
2. Touching; supported by: I leaned my bicycle **against** the wall.

Along
1. Following the length of: We walked **along** the road.

Among
1. Within a group: The money was shared **among** three people.

Note: In formal English, **among** is usually used only when referring to more than two persons or things. In contrast, **between** is used when referring to two persons or things.

Around
1. Circling something: We walked **around** the block.
2. Surrounding: There is a fence **around** the garden.
3. In different parts of: I looked **around** the house for the keys.
4. In the other direction: We turned **around** and went back home.
5. Approximately: He is **around** six feet tall.

At
1. A specific location: **at** 23 Chestnut Street; **at** the park
2. A point in time: **at** 5 o'clock; **at** Christmas
3. A condition: **at** peace; **at** war; **at** rest
4. An activity: **at** work; **at** school; **at** play
5. Towards: Look **at** someone; wave **at** someone

Note: When referring to a specific location or to a point in time, **at** is usually used. When referring to a certain street or a certain day, **on** is usually used. When referring to a location as an area, or when referring to a unit of time longer than a day, **in** is usually used.
e.g. **at** Christmas; **on** Christmas day; **in** the Christmas holidays

Before
1. Earlier in time: **before** two o'clock; **before** Christmas
2. Earlier in a series: S comes **before** T in the alphabet.

Behind
1. At the back of: The little girl hid **behind** her mother.
2. Late: I am **behind** in my work.
3. Cause; origin: Who was **behind** that idea?

Below

1. Lower than; under: **below** freezing; **below** sea level
2. Later on a page: Footnotes are provided **below** the text.

Beneath
1. Lower than; below: **beneath** the earth

Beside
1. Next to; at the side of: I sit **beside** her in class.

Besides
1. Also; as well as: We study other languages **besides** English.

Note the differing meanings of **beside** and **besides**. **Beside** is usually used with reference to a physical location.

Between
1. An intermediate location: Toronto lies **between** Montreal and Vancouver.
2. An intermediate time: **between** Christmas and New Year's Day
3. Intermediate in a series: B comes **between** A and C in the alphabet.
4. An intermediate amount: **between** five and ten people
5. Within a group of two: The money was shared **between** two people.

Beyond
1. Farther than: The mountains lie **beyond** the horizon.
2. Further than; exceeding: That was **beyond** my expectations.

But
1. Except: I have read all **but** the last chapter.

Note: But is used more often as a conjunction than as a preposition.

By
1. Near: a house **by** the sea
2. Past: He waved as he drove **by** the house.
3. Not later than: Try to finish the work **by** next week.
4. In units of: cheaper **by** the dozen; sold **by** weight
5. Through the means of: travel **by** plane; written **by** him

Note: By is often used in combination with verbs in the Passive Voice.

Concerning
1. Connected with; about: He studies everything **concerning** trees.

Despite
1. In spite of: We walked downtown **despite** the rain.

Down
1. To a lower position: The ball rolled **down** the hill.
2. Further along: He lives **down** the street.

During

1. Throughout a period: She works **during** the day.
2. Sometime within a period: An accident occurred **during** the night.

Except

1. Not including: I have visited everyone **except** him.

For

1. Duration of time: We walked **for** two hours.
2. Distance: I walked **for** five kilometers.
3. Purpose: I bought this jacket **for** you.
4. In the direction of: She left **for** New York.
5. In favor of: We are **for** the proposal.
6. Considering: The boy is clever **for** his age.

From

1. Place of origin: We left **from** Boston; he comes **from** Mexico
2. Start of a period of time: **from** now on; **from** yesterday until today
3. Start of a range: **From** 20 to 30 people were present.
4. Cause: He suffers **from** nervousness.
5. Source: I first heard the story **from** you.

In

1. Place thought of as an area: **in** London; **in** Europe
2. Within a location: **in** the room; **in** the building
3. Large units of time: That happened **in** March, **in** 1992.
4. Within a certain time: I will return **in** an hour.
5. By means of: write **in** pencil; speak in English
6. Condition: **in** doubt; **in** a hurry; **in** secret
7. A member of: He is **in** the orchestra; **in** the navy
8. Wearing: the boy **in** the blue shirt
9. With reference to: lacking **in** ideas; rich **in** oil

Inside

1. Within: They are **inside** the house.

Into

1. To the inside of: We stepped **into** the room.
2. Change of condition: The boy changed **into** a man.

Like

1. Resembling: That looks **like** him.
2. Appearing possible: It looks **like** rain.
3. Be in a suitable mood for: I feel **like** going swimming.

Minus

1. Less: Three **minus** two equals one.

Near

1. Close to: **near** the school; **near** the ocean

Of

1. Location: east **of** here; the middle **of** the road
2. Possession: a friend **of** mine; the sound **of** music
3. Part of a group: one **of** us; a member **of** the team
4. Measurement: a cup **of** milk; two meters **of** snow

Off

1. Not on; away from: Please keep **off** the grass.
2. At some distance from: There are islands **off** the coast.

On

1. Touching the surface of: **on** the table; **on** the wall
2. A certain day: That happened **on** Sunday, **on** the 6th of June.
3. A certain street: **on** South Street
4. About: a book **on** engineering
5. A state or condition: **on** strike; **on** fire; **on** holiday
6. By means of: live **on** a pension; shown **on** television

Onto

1. To a position on: The child climbed **onto** the table.

Opposite

1. Facing: The library is **opposite** the fire station.

Out of

1. To the outside of: She went **out of** the room.
2. From among: We won two games **out of** three.
3. Motive: We spoke to them **out of** politeness.
4. Material: The bridge is made **out of** steel.
5. Beyond: **out of** control; **out of** danger

Outside

1. On the outer side of: **outside** the house
2. Beyond the limits of: **outside** my experience

Over

1. Above; higher than: There are cupboards **over** the sink.
2. Covering: We spread an extra blanket **over** the bed.
3. Across: I jumped **over** a puddle.
4. More than: It cost **over** ten dollars; it took **over** an hour
5. During: I saw him several times **over** the past week.
6. By means of: We made plans **over** the telephone.

Past

1. Up to and beyond: I walked **past** the house.
2. After (in time): It was **past** 2 o'clock; half **past** two
3. Beyond: **past** belief

Per

1. For each: 60 kilometers **per** hour; price **per** liter

Plus
1. With the addition of: Six **plus** four equals ten.

Since
1. From a specific time in the past: I had been waiting **since** two o'clock.
2. From a past time until now: I have been waiting here **since** noon.

Note: Because of its meaning, the preposition **since** is usually used in combination with a perfect tense. It should be noted that the preposition **for** can also be used with a perfect tense. However, when used with reference to time, **for** is usually followed by a phrase referring to a **period** of time; whereas **since** is usually followed by a phrase referring to a **specific** time.
e.g. I have known him **for** six months.
I have known him **since** January.
In the first example, **for** is followed by **six months**, which refers to a period of time. In the second example, **since** is followed by **January**, which refers to a specific time.

Through
1. Across; from end to end of: the main road **through** town
2. For the whole of a period: I slept **through** the night.
3. By means of: Skill improves **through** practice.

Throughout
1. In every part of: **throughout** the world
2. For the whole of a period: **throughout** the winter

Till
Note: Till can be used instead of **until**. However, at the beginning of a sentence, **until** is usually used.

To
1. In the direction of: Turn **to** the right.
2. Destination: I am going **to** Rome.
3. Until: from Monday **to** Friday; five minutes **to** ten
4. Compared with: They prefer hockey **to** soccer.
5. With indirect object: Please give it **to** me.
6. As part of infinitive: I like **to** ski; he wants **to** help.
7. In order to: We went to the store **to** buy soap.

Toward (or **Towards**)
1. In the direction of: We walked **toward** the center of town.
2. Near; just before (time): It rained **towards** evening.

Under
1. Beneath: **under** the desk; **under** the trees
2. Less than: **Under** 100 people were present.
3. In circumstances of: **under** repair; **under** way; **under** discussion

Underneath

1. Below, under: **underneath** the carpet

Until

1. Up to a certain time: She will stay **until** Friday; **until** 5 p.m.

Upon

Note: On and **upon** have similar meanings. **Upon** may be used in certain expressions, as in **once upon a time**, and following certain verbs, as in to **rely upon** someone.

Up

1. To a higher place: We went **up** the stairs.
2. In a higher place: She lives **up** the hill.

Up to

1. As far as: **up to** now; I have read **up to** page 100.
2. Depending on: The decision is **up to** you.
3. As good as; ready for: His work is **up to** standard.

Versus

1. Against (sports, legal): The next game is England **versus** Australia.

Via

1. By way of: He went to Los Angeles **via** San Francisco.

With

1. Accompanying: He came **with** her; I have my keys **with** me.
2. Having; containing: Here is a book **with** a map of the island.
3. By means of; using: I repaired the shoes **with** glue.
4. Manner: **with** pleasure; **with** ease; **with** difficulty
5. Because of: We were paralyzed **with** fear.

Within

1. Inside of: **within** twenty minutes; **within** one kilometer

Without

1. Not having: Do not leave **without** your coat; **without** money

See Exercises 1 and 2.

2. Prepositions used in idioms

Below are examples of idioms consisting of prepositional phrases. The following selection of idioms emphasizes those used in North American English. The meaning of each idiom is indicated after the colon.

At

not **at** all: not in any way
at all times: always
at any rate: whatever happens
keep someone **at** arm's length: avoid becoming closely involved with someone
at close quarters: very near
at one's disposal: to be used as one wishes
at a distance: not near
at fault: causing something wrong
at first: at the beginning
see **at** a glance: see immediately
at hand: near; readily available
at last: finally, after some delay
at a loss: uncertain what to do or say
at the mercy of: without defense against
at the moment: now
at once: immediately
at present: now
at rest: not moving
at risk: threatened by danger or loss
at short notice: with little warning
at stake: to be won or lost
at a stretch: continuously
at that rate: under those circumstances
at this point: at this place; at this moment
at the wheel: in control

Behind
behind the scenes: (of persons) influencing events secretly; (in a theater) behind the stage
behind schedule: not on time

Beside
be **beside** oneself: lose one's self-control
beside the point: irrelevant

Between
read **between** the lines: deduce a meaning that is not actually expressed

Beyond
beyond help: unable to be helped
beyond a joke: too annoying to be amusing
beyond reproach: perfect; blameless

By
by accident: not deliberately
by all means: by any possible method
bit **by** bit: gradually
by chance: by accident; without planning
by courtesy of: with the help or permission of
win **by** default: win because of lack of competition

by degrees: gradually
perform **by** ear: perform (music) by listening to the sound, without referring to written music
by hand: without the use of machinery
by heart: from memory
little **by** little: gradually
by means of: by using
by mistake: accidentally
by no means: not at all
one **by** one: one at a time
by oneself: alone
side **by** side: beside one another
by the way: incidentally (used to introduce an unrelated topic of conversation)
by word of mouth: orally

For
once and **for** all: for the last time (e.g. used when giving someone a final warning)
for certain: definitely; without doubt
for a change: for the sake of variety
for example: as an illustration
for fun: for the sake of enjoyment
for good: permanently
for good measure: in addition to the necessary amount
for instance: for example; as an illustration
for keeps: (colloquial) permanently
for a living: as a profession
for now: temporarily
run **for** office: compete for an elected position
for one thing: because of one reason (out of several)
for the sake of: for the benefit of; for the purpose of
for sale: intended to be sold
for sure: definitely (more colloquial than **for certain**)
food **for** thought: something which makes one think
play **for** time: delay doing something in the hope that the situation will improve
for the time being: until some other arrangement is made
ask **for** trouble: act in a dangerous or foolish way
for a while: for a period of time
word **for** word: exactly as said or written

From
from afar: from a distance
from all sides: from all directions
from head to foot: (of a person) completely; all over
from scratch: from the beginning
from time to time: occasionally

In
in addition to: as well as
in advance: before
be **in** agreement with: have the same opinion as

in any case: whatever happens
in brief: in a few words
in bulk: (of goods) in large amounts; not in packages
be **in** charge of: have responsibility for
in common: shared by all members of a group
in control: having the power to direct something
in the course of: during
in danger: likely to be harmed
in a daze: unable to think clearly; confused
in debt: owing money
in demand: (of goods or persons) desired by many people
in depth: (investigate something) thoroughly
in detail: (explain something) thoroughly
in disgrace: regarded with disapproval because of having done something wrong
in the distance: far away
in doubt: uncertain
in duplicate: so that there are two identical copies (of a document)
in earnest: seriously; in a determined way
in effect: (of rules) operating
in the end: finally
in fact: in reality; really
in fashion: fashionable; accepted as being the most desirable and up to date
in favor of: supporting (an idea)
in flames: burning, with visible flames
in a flash: very quickly; suddenly
in full: without omitting anything
in general: usually; as a whole
hand **in** hand: (of persons) holding hands; (of related situations) occurring together
in a hurry: trying to accomplish something quickly
in jest: as a joke
in kind: (payment) in goods rather than in money
in itself: without reference to anything else
in league with: (of persons) joined together with (usually for a dishonest purpose)
be **in** the limelight: be the focus of attention; receive great publicity
in the long run: in the end; eventually
in the long term: looking ahead to the distant future
leave someone **in** the lurch: abandon someone who is in a difficult situation
be **in** the minority: be in the smaller of two groups
in mint condition: (of manufactured goods) perfect; brand-new
in a minute: soon
in a moment: soon; quickly
set something **in** motion: start something going
nip something **in** the bud: put an end to something before it gets properly started
in no time: very soon; very quickly
in order of: arranged according to
in order to: for the purpose of
in part: to some degree
in particular: especially
in power: (of a political party) holding office
in practice: able to do something well because of recent practice; in reality

(opposite of **in** theory)
in print: (of a book) printed and available from the publisher
in private: not in front of other people
in public: openly; not in private
in reality: really
in reserve: saved for later use
in retrospect: looking back over past events
in return for: as repayment for
be **in** the right: be correct
in season: (of fruit or vegetables) readily available at that time of year
in a second: soon; quickly
in short supply: scarce; not easily obtainable
in sight: able to be seen
in stock: (of goods at a store) present and available
in that case: if that is true
in theory: ideally; according to theoretical considerations
be **in** time: not be late
in touch with in: communication with; informed about
in triplicate: so that there are three identical copies (of a document)
be **in** trouble: be in a difficult situation; be blamed or punished for doing something wrong
in tune: at the correct pitch
act **in** unison: act together
in vain: without success
in the vicinity of: near
once **in** a while: occasionally
in words of one syllable: (explain something) clearly and simply
in working order: able to function properly
in the wrong: responsible for an error; guilty

Inside
inside out: with the inner side out; thoroughly

Into
paint oneself **into** a corner: take a course of action which greatly narrows one's future choices of action
go **into** hiding: hide oneself
get **into** a rut: get into a fixed and uninteresting way of life
get **into** trouble: get into a difficult situation; do something deserving blame or punishment

Of
of course: certainly; as one would expect; as everyone knows
hard **of** hearing: somewhat deaf
next **of** kin: nearest relative or relatives
of one's own accord: voluntarily; on one's own initiative
of one's own free will: voluntarily; by choice
one's point **of** view: one's opinion about something
right **of** way: public right to use a path or road; (of road traffic) right to proceed before others

rule **of** thumb: a simple way to calculate what procedure to follow, based on extensive experience, rather than on theoretical considerations

Off

go **off** the air: (of radio or television) stop broadcasting
off duty: not engaged in one's regular work
off one's hands: no longer one's responsibility
off and on: from time to time
off the record: say something privately, that is not to be officially recorded
off the track: following a wrong line of thought or action

On

on account of: because of
be **on** the air: (of radio or television) be in the process of broadcasting
on the alert: ready to act
be **on** all fours: (of a person) be on hands and knees
on the average: usually; normally
on behalf of: for; in the interests of
on board: on a ship or airplane
on business: as part of one's work
on condition that: only if; provided that
on demand: when asked for
on display: being exhibited
on duty: engaged in one's regular work
on fire: burning
to go **on** foot: to walk
be **on** one's guard: be alert and ready to meet an attack
on hand: available
on loan: lent and not yet returned
shoot **on** location: (of a movie) film in natural surroundings, not in a studio
on the lookout: watchful
put something **on** the map: cause something to become well-known
get **on** one's nerves: annoy; irritate
on no account: absolutely not
on the one hand: (used to introduce one side of an argument)
on one's own: alone; without help
act **on** one's own initiative: act independently, without orders from anyone else
on order: requested but not yet delivered
on the other hand: (used to introduce a contrasting side of an argument)
act **on** principle: do something to support a policy
on purpose: deliberately
go **on** record: say something which is to be officially recorded
on sale: being sold at a lower price than usual
on schedule: at the correct time; as planned or predicted
on second thoughts: after thinking further about something
on a shoestring: with a very small amount of money
be **on** the spot: be where important events are taking place; be placed in an awkward situation
on the spur of the moment: on a sudden impulse
go off **on** a tangent: change suddenly to a new line of thought or action

on time: at the correct time
walk **on** tiptoe: walk on the toes and balls of the feet
accept something **on** trust: accept something without proof
on the verge of: very close to; about to
on the whole: taking everything into consideration

Out of

out of the blue: unexpectedly
out of breath: (after running) panting from a shortage of oxygen
out of character: unlike a person's known character
out of control: not able to be regulated or guided
out of danger: safe
out of date: no longer used; old-fashioned; (of news) no longer true
out of debt: having paid one's debts
be **out of** one's depth: be unable to handle a situation because of lack of experience
out of doors: in the open air; not in a building
out of fashion: not fashionable; not presently in common use
out of hand: not under control
out of harm's way: safe
out of line with: in disagreement with
be **out of** one's mind: be insane
out of order: not functioning properly; (at a formal meeting) not behaving according to the rules
out of the ordinary: unusual
out of place: unsuitable
out of practice: unable to do something as well as one has in past, because of lack of recent practice
out of print: (of a book) no longer available from the publisher
out of proportion: too big or too small; not having the appropriate relationship to something
out of the question: impossible; not to be considered
out of season: (of fruit or vegetables) not readily available at that time of year
out of shape: (of persons) not in top condition because of lack of exercise
out of sight: hidden, not able to be seen
out of stock: (of goods at a store) temporarily unavailable
out of style: not fashionable
out of touch: with not in communication with; not informed about
out of town: having temporarily left town
out of trouble: not in trouble
out of tune: not at the correct pitch
out of work: no longer having employment

To

to all intents and purposes: in all important ways
to a certain extent: partly
to date: so far; until now
up **to** date: current; modern
see eye **to** eye with: agree entirely with
take something **to** heart: be much affected by something
made **to** measure: exactly suitable; (of clothes) made for a certain person

keep something **to** oneself: not tell anyone
to the point: relevant

Under
under age: below the age of being legally permitted to do something
be **under** arrest: be held prisoner and charged with wrongdoing
under the auspices of: with the patronage of; supported by
under one's breath: in a whisper
under the circumstances: because this is true
under consideration: being thought about
under control: able to be regulated or guided
under cover of: protected by; undetected because of
under fire: being shot at; being criticized
under the impression that: having the idea that
be **under** the influence of: be affected by
be **under** oath: have sworn to tell the truth
under observation: being watched carefully
under restraint: prevented from doing something

Up
have something **up** one's sleeve: have a secret idea or plan in reserve

With
with impunity: without risk of injury or punishment
with the naked eye: without using a magnifying lens
with no strings attached: (of help given) with no conditions; to be used freely
take **with** a pinch of salt: not believe completely
with regard to: concerning; about
with respect to: concerning; about
tarred **with** the same brush: having the same faults
with a vengeance: very much; more than usual

Within
within limits: to a certain extent; not too much
within living memory: within the memory of people now alive

Without
go **without** saying: be obvious

See Exercises 3 and 4.

3. Nouns followed by prepositions

The following are examples of nouns which are usually followed by certain prepositions. In the case of phrases which are idioms, the meanings of the phrases are indicated in brackets.

Against
take precautions against

For
have affection for
have compassion for
a reason for
have respect for
have a talent for
pave the way for (prepare for)
make allowances for
an excuse for
have a reputation for
have sympathy for
lie in wait for (ambush)

From
absence from

In
have confidence in
have an interest in
make progress in
have faith in
take part in

Into
have insight into

Of
have an abhorrence of
take advantage of
take command of
an example of
make a fool of
have an impression of
neglect of
a pair of
a possibility of
a proof of
recognition of
a result of
catch sight of (see suddenly)
a survey of
a symptom of
make use of
wash one's hands of (stop caring about and dealing with)
an acknowledgement of
take care of
evidence of
an excess of
make fun of (ridicule)
a lack of
a number of
be part of
make a practice of (do often)
a quantity of
a recollection of
run the risk of (risk)
a sign of
a symbol of
a token of
a way of

On
an attack on
make an impression on
shed light on (explain)
dependence on
play a joke on
have pity on

To
have access to
an objection to
pay attention to
a reply to

a response to
shut one's eyes to (deliberately ignore a problem)
lay siege to (besiege)

Toward or **Towards**
animosity toward(s)
an attitude toward(s)

With
have a connection with
fall in love with
find fault with (criticize)
change places with

See Exercise 5.

4. Adjectives and verbs in the passive voice followed by prepositions

In some cases different prepositions can be used without causing a change in meaning. For instance, the following examples both have the same meaning.
e.g. I was angry **at** them.
I was angry **with** them.

However, in many cases, the use of different prepositions causes a change in meaning. For instance, the past participle **protected** is typically followed by the preposition **from**. However, like many other past participles, **protected** may also be followed by the preposition **by**, where **by** serves to introduce the performer of the action expressed by the past participle.
e.g. The city is protected **from** the soldiers.
The city is protected **by** the soldiers.
The first example indicates that the soldiers are a threat to the city; whereas the second example indicates that the soldiers are protecting the city.

The following are examples of predicate adjectives and past participles of verbs in the Passive Voice which are usually followed by certain prepositions. In addition, it should be kept in mind that most verbs in the Passive Voice can be followed by a phrase beginning with the preposition **by**.

About
anxious about
curious about
doubtful about
excited about
pleased about
worried about
concerned about
depressed about
enthusiastic about
happy about
wrong about

At
adept at
amazed at
shocked at
alarmed at
overjoyed at
surprised at

Between

torn between

By

accompanied by
guided by
obsessed by
caused by
manufactured by
written by

For

blamed for
famous for
known for
noted for
punished for
ready for
ripe for
suitable for
eligible for
fit for
late for
praised for
qualified for
responsible for
sorry for

From

absent from
derived from
detached from
distinct from
far from
omitted from
removed from
separated from
apart from
descended from
different from
exempt from
isolated from
protected from
safe from

In

absorbed in
engaged in
interested in
disappointed in
immersed in
involved in

Of

accused of
ashamed of
capable of
composed of
convinced of
devoid of
ignorant of
jealous of
regardless of
sure of
suspected of
tired of
afraid of
aware of
certain of
conscious of
deprived of
fond of
independent of
proud of
reminded of
suspicious of
terrified of
worthy of

On

based on
intent on
dependent on

To

acceptable to
accessible to
accustomed to
adapted to
addicted to
adjacent to
attached to
attributable to
close to
committed to
comparable to
dedicated to
detrimental to
devoted to
due to
equal to
equivalent to
essential to
exposed to
faithful to
favorable to
foreign to
impervious to
indifferent to
indispensable to
inferior to
kind to
loyal to
next to
obedient to
obliged to
oblivious to
opposed to
parallel to
partial to
peculiar to
preferable to
prior to
proportional to
reconciled to
reduced to
related to
relative to
relevant to
resigned to
resistant to
restricted to
senior to
sensitive to
similar to
subject to
subordinate to
suited to
superior to
susceptible to
tied to

Toward or **Towards**

protective toward(s)

With

acquainted with
affiliated with
associated with
besieged with
compared with
compatible with
confronted with
consistent with
covered with
cursed with
exasperated with
familiar with
finished with
identified with
infatuated with
patient with
pleased with
satisfied with
synonymous with
threatened with

See Exercise 6.

5. Verbs followed by prepositions

The following are examples of verbs which are often followed by certain prepositions.

About

care about
forget about
reminisce about
think about
worry about
complain about
lie about (tell a lie)
talk about
wonder about

Against

discriminate against
react against
turn against
protest against
rebel against

At

aim at
connive at
gaze at
growl at
look at
shoot at
snap at
stare at
wink at
bark at
frown at
glare at
hint at
point at
smile at
sneer at
wave at

For

apply for
beg for
budget for
long for
mourn for
plead for
pray for
press for
search for
substitute for
wait for
apologize for
blame for
hope for
look for
pay for
pose for
prepare for
register for
shop for
vouch for
wish for

From

abstain from
deduct from
desist from
detract from
differ from
escape from
flee from
profit from
quote from
benefit from
derive from
deter from
deviate from
divert from
extricate from
infer from
protect from
radiate from

recoil from
refrain from
stem from
recover from
shrink from
suffer from

In

believe in
indulge in
invest in
persist in
engage in
intervene in
participate in
succeed in

Into

change into
delve into
develop into
fall into
plunge into
sink into
convert into
dip into
divide into
merge into
pry into
transform into

Of

approve of
conceive of
deprive of
disapprove of
beware of
consist of
die of
smell of

On

blame on
depend on
impose on
intrude on
reflect on
report on
subsist on
concentrate on
impinge on
insist on
pounce on
rely on
spy on
thrive on

Over

preside over
trip over

To

adapt to
adjust to
belong to
contribute to
listen to
pertain to
refer to
respond to
revert to
subscribe to
surrender to
adhere to
amount to
conform to
correspond to
object to
prefer to
relate to
resort to
submit to
succumb to
yield to

With

agree with	associate with
collaborate with	combine with
communicate with	comply with
concur with	consort with
contend with	cooperate with
cope with	correspond with
flirt with	mingle with
share with	sympathize with

EXERCISES for Chapter 26

1. Paying attention to the meanings of the prepositions, fill in the blanks with the most appropriate prepositions chosen from those given in brackets. For example:

She made a speech _____ the future of the school. (about, around)
She made a speech <u>about</u> the future of the school.

D comes _____ **C** and **E** in the alphabet. (between, beyond)
D comes <u>between</u> **C** and **E** in the alphabet.

1. This train travels from London _____ Paris. (at, to)
2. We stood at the back _____ the theater. (of, on)
3. She went to Rome _____ France. (versus, via)
4. The store is open daily _____ Monday to Friday. (for, from)
5. I took my hat _____ the table. (of, off)
6. He looks _____ his brother. (despite, like)
7. The children ran _____ the school. (of, out of)
8. He opened the box _____ a screwdriver. (at, with)
9. I will work _____ five o'clock. (until, up)
10. We walked _____ the restaurant. (despite, past)
11. At three o'clock we reached the top _____ the hill. (of, off)
12. You have delivered all of the papers _____ this one. (between, but)
13. The bank is _____ the school. (opposite, out of)
14. _____ the danger, he decided to climb the mountain. (despite, except)
15. The treasure was hidden _____ the earth. (under, up to)
16. **A** comes _____ **B** in the alphabet. (before, behind)
17. I went to work _____ my umbrella. (out of, without)
18. When it is heated, water changes _____ steam. (in, into)
19. Nocturnal animals usually sleep _____ the day. (during, underneath)
20. The squirrel ran _____ the wall. (along, among)

Answers

2. Paying attention to the uses of the prepositions **among**, **at**, **beside**, **besides**, **between**, **for**, **in**, **on** and **since**, fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions chosen from those given in brackets. For example:

They live __ 359 Southdale Avenue. (at, on)
They live <u>at</u> 359 Southdale Avenue.

The meeting will take place __ Tuesday. (at, on)
The meeting will take place <u>on</u> Tuesday.

We have been traveling ___ several days. (for, since)
We have been traveling for several days.

She has been working _____ six o'clock this morning. (for, since)
She has been working since six o'clock this morning.

1. He lives _____ 19 Tower Road. (at, on)
2. We will be gone _____ two days. (for, since)
3. Tom and his friend will divide the money _____ themselves. (among, between)
4. They will be returning _____ November. (in, on)
5. I have known him _____ three years. (for, since)
6. Many foods _____ milk contain calcium. (beside, besides)
7. I will arrive _____ six o'clock. (at, in)
8. He has been gone _____ Friday. (for, since)
9. The store is located _____ North Street. (at, on)
10. She is leaving _____ five minutes. (at, in)
11. Bridget, Leslie and Sarah will discuss the matter _____ themselves. (among, between)
12. I have known her _____ last year. (for, since)
13. We expect them _____ Wednesday. (in, on)
14. The cat was sitting _____ the stove. (beside, besides)
15. The play begins _____ seven thirty. (at, on)
16. We waited _____ fifteen minutes. (for, since)
17. Columbus crossed the Atlantic _____ 1492. (at, in)
18. There are many possibilities _____ the ones I have mentioned. (beside, besides)
19. She will call us _____ half an hour. (at, in)
20. His birthday is _____ the 8th of January. (in, on)

Answers

3. Fill in the blanks with the missing prepositions. For example:
She wants to leave __ once.
She wants to leave at once.

I brought the wrong book __ mistake.
I brought the wrong book by mistake.

1. Since the restaurant is usually crowded, it is advisable to make reservations _____ advance.
2. Because we have no car, we go everywhere _____ foot.
3. I was _____ breath after running up the long flight of stairs.
4. We walked out of the room _____ tiptoe, so as not to disturb the sleeping baby.
5. Inside your passport, you should write the name of your next _____ kin.
6. We made out the report _____ triplicate.
7. Citrus fruits, _____ example oranges and lemons, require a long growing season.
8. The movie seemed to go on forever, but _____ last it was over.
9. She is so busy, she always seems to be _____ a hurry.
10. Many people believe birds are incapable of reasoning, but _____ fact, some birds

are quite intelligent.
11. Since he is not very trustworthy, I advise you to take what he says _____ a pinch of salt.
12. I went to the library, but the book I wanted was out _____ loan.
13. To save money, we usually buy flour and rice _____ bulk.
14. Since he could offer us no proof, we had to take his story _____ trust.
15. She knows hundreds of poems _____ heart.
16. Since we cannot find a place to live, _____ the time being, we are staying at a cheap hotel.
17. Little _____ little, the clouds dispersed and the sun became brighter.
18. Because of its importance, we studied the report _____ detail.
19. All of the clothes sold in this store were made _____ hand.
20. At an intersection, pedestrians usually have the right _____ way.
Answers

4. For each underlined word or phrase, substitute an idiom containing the preposition indicated in brackets. For example:

She came punctually. (on)
She came on time.

His remarks were brief and relevant. (to)
His remarks were brief and to the point.

1. Incidentally, I heard that there is a sale at the bookstore. (by)
2. What do you do as a profession? (for)
3. The boy left his books at school deliberately. (on)
4. There is a great deal to be won or lost. (at)
5. Before long, the ship had cast off and was moving. (under)
6. The violin strings are not at the correct pitch. (out of)
7. Her paintings are being exhibited at the library. (on)
8. The university operates with a very small amount of money. (on)
9. Occasionally we have a picnic by the river. (in)
10. There are no job openings in the company now. (at)
11. We have a large variety of produce available. (on)
12. I want to speak to you not in front of other people. (in)
13. Under those circumstances, we should proceed cautiously. (at)
14. Gradually, we began to unravel the mystery. (by)
15. At the beginning, it was not obvious what to do. (at)
16. When looking back over past events, we can see that important changes have taken place. (in)
17. The two friends sat beside one another. (by)
18. I could see immediately that something was wrong. (at)
19. I see her occasionally. (from)
20. Does the store have any paint brushes available? (in)
Answers

5. Paying attention to the nouns which are usually followed by certain prepositions, fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:

Do you have any objection ___ my plan? (on, to)

Do you have any objection to my plan?

She has a good attitude _____ her job. (of, toward)
She has a good attitude toward her job.

1. We played a joke _____ him. (of, on)
2. Who else has access _____ the computer files? (of, to)
3. I have no recollection _____ the event. (of, on)
4. Missing the bus is no excuse _____ being late. (for, of)
5. I have confidence _____ his ability. (for, in)
6. That is only one example _____ what I mean. (in, of)
7. Pay close attention _____ the traffic signals. (for, to)
8. She takes an active interest _____ community events. (in, of)
9. Do you have any proof _____ that? (of, to)
10. You should make allowances _____ their lack of experience. (for, on)
11. There is a lack _____ information on this subject. (for, of)
12. The report should shed some light _____ the situation. (for, on)
13. He has a talent _____ putting people at ease. (for, with)
14. I received no reply _____ my letter. (on, to)
15. We soon took command _____ the situation. (of, with)
16. They are constantly finding fault _____ other people. (of, with)
17. I have faith _____ their good intentions. (in, to)
18. She has a reputation _____ having the ability to deal with any situation. (for, of)
19. People often make fun _____ what they do not understand. (of, to)
20. We will take a survey _____ the participants. (of, on)

Answers

6. Paying attention to the adjectives which are usually followed by certain prepositions, fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:

We were curious _____ what they were doing. (about, for)
We were curious about what they were doing. (about, for)

The design of most computers is based __ binary arithmetic. (for, on)
The design of most computers is based on binary arithmetic.

1. We are ready _____ anything. (for, to)
2. I was anxious _____ her. (about, to)
3. Photographic film is sensitive _____ light. (of, to)
4. Seals are adapted _____ life in the water. (at, to)
5. He is descended _____ Mary, Queen of Scots. (from, of)
6. Cotton is more resistant _____ fire than nylon is. (for, to)
7. After the show, the radio station was besieged _____ telephone calls. (from, with)
8. She was praised _____ her achievements. (for, to)
9. The public library is accessible _____ everyone. (to, with)
10. Are you familiar _____ the procedures? (for, with)
11. They were overjoyed _____ the news. (at, to)
12. We are proud _____ our accomplishments. (for, of)
13. I was pleased _____ the results. (of, with)

14. Are you aware _____ the risks involved? (of, with)
15. Lack of exercise can be detrimental _____ one's health. (of, to)
16. We are satisfied _____ the arrangement. (for, with)
17. She is interested _____ animals. (for, in)
18. He is well qualified _____ the job. (for, to)
19. Young children are often suspicious _____ strangers. (of, to)
20. A knowledge of mathematics is essential _____ an engineer. (to, with)
Answers

7. Paying attention to the verbs which are usually followed by certain prepositions, fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:

He likes listening __ music. (on, to)
He likes listening to music.

They cooperated ____ one another. (of, with)
They cooperated with one another.

1. Heat and light radiate _____ the sun. (from, of)
2. Where the event will be held depends _____ the weather. (of, on)
3. She loves to quote _____ Shakespeare's plays. (from, to)
4. You need to concentrate _____ what you are doing. (into, on)
5. The students protested _____ the high student fees. (against, from)
6. A balanced meal consists _____ vitamins, minerals, proteins and carbohydrates. (of, with)
7. Twenty people applied _____ the job. (for, with)
8. She likes to participate _____ extracurricular activities. (in, with)
9. He paid _____ the meal. (for, on)
10. We do not approve _____ that type of behavior. (of, in)
11. He subscribes _____ four magazines. (of, to)
12. The dog barked _____ the mailman. (at, to)
13. Please refrain _____ smoking. (from, to)
14. Do you concur _____ my conclusions? (for, with)
15. The problem stems _____ a lack of proper training. (for, from)
16. We apologized _____ our absence. (for, to)
17. He is engaged _____ starting a business. (in, on)
18. The two children stared _____ each other. (at, to)
19. They registered _____ the course. (for, of)
20. We rely _____ the city bus service. (on, with)
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 26

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. to 2. of 3. via 4. from 5. off 6. like 7. out of 8. with 9. until 10. past 11. of 12. but 13. opposite 14. Despite 15. under 16. before 17. without 18. into 19. during 20. along

Answers to Exercise 2:

1. at 2. for 3. between 4. in 5. for 6. besides 7. at 8. since 9. on 10. in 11. among 12. since 13. on 14. beside 15. at 16. for 17. in 18. besides 19. in 20. on

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. in 2. on 3. out of 4. on 5. of 6. in 7. for 8. at 9. in 10. in 11. with 12. on 13. in 14. on 15. by 16. for 17. by 18. in 19. by 20. of

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. By the way, 2. for a living. 3. on purpose. 4. at stake. 5. under way. 6. out of tune. 7. on display 8. on a shoestring. 9. Once in a while 10. at the moment. **or** at present. 11. on hand. 12. in private. 13. At that rate, 14. Bit by bit **or** By degrees **or** Little by little, 15. At first 16. In retrospect, 17. side by side. 18. see at a glance. 19. from time to time. 20. in stock?

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. on 2. to 3. of 4. for 5. in 6. of 7. to 8. in 9. of 10. for 11. of 12. on 13. for 14. to 15. of 16. with 17. in 18. for 19. of 20. of

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. for 2. about 3. to 4. to 5. from 6. to 7. with 8. for 9. to 10. with 11. at 12. of 13. with 14. of 15. to 16. with 17. in 18. for 19. of 20. to

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. from 2. on 3. from 4. on 5. against 6. of 7. for 8. in 9. for 10. of 11. to 12. at 13. from 14. with 15. from 16. for 17. in 18. at 19. for 20. on

CHAPTER 27. PHRASAL VERBS

A phrasal verb is an idiom which consists of a verb followed by a preposition, a verb followed by an adverb, or a verb followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. The phrasal verbs in the following examples are printed in bold type.
e.g. I **ran into** an old friend.
We **put off** washing the dishes.
They all **look up to** him.

In these examples, the phrasal verb **to run into** consists of the verb **to run** followed by the preposition **into**, the phrasal verb **to put off** consists of the verb **to put** followed by the adverb **off**, and the phrasal verb **to look up to** consists of the verb **to look** followed by the adverb **up**, followed by the preposition **to**.

Many phrasal verbs are used more often in informal English than in formal English. In most cases, the ideas expressed by such phrasal verbs may also be expressed by other phrases which are more likely to be used in formal English.

For instance in the table below, the phrasal verbs used in the preceding examples are listed in the left-hand column and other phrases with the same meanings are listed in the right-hand column.

Informal	Formal

to run into	to meet unexpectedly
to put off	to postpone
to look up to	to admire

It should be noted that the use of many phrasal verbs varies among the different dialects of English. For instance, in order to express the idea of contacting someone by means of the telephone, the expression **to ring someone up** is frequently used in British English; whereas the expression **to call someone** is frequently used in American English.

Because of differences in dialect, the forms of the verbs and the meanings given may vary from one dictionary to another. In addition, some phrasal verbs have more than one meaning. The meanings provided in this chapter are samples of meanings which are used in North American English.

1. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition

Some phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by a preposition. As has been seen in previous chapters, it is very common for English verbs to be followed by prepositions. However, in the case of a phrasal verb, the verb followed by the preposition forms an expression with an idiomatic meaning.

For instance, the phrasal verb **to come across** is an idiomatic expression with the meaning **to find**. Similarly, the phrasal verb **to frown on** is an idiomatic expression with the meaning **to disapprove of**.
e.g. We **came across** an old diary while we were cleaning out the attic.
The workers **frowned on** the practice of smoking in the office.

It should be noted that some phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition can be used in the Passive Voice.
e.g. The practice of smoking in the office **was frowned on** by the workers.
The children **were looked after** by their aunt.
In these examples, the phrasal verbs **to frown on** and **to look after** are used in the Passive Voice.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by a preposition. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Verbs Followed by Prepositions

abide by: adhere to	We **abided by** the rules.
account for: explain	He **accounted for** the discrepancy.
ask for: request	They **asked for** an extension.
bank on: depend on	We are **banking on** good weather tomorrow.
bear with: be patient with	Please **bear with** the delay.
border on: be near, be next to	Their excitement **bordered on** hysteria.
break into: enter by force	Thieves **broke into** the store.

build on: develop from — We want to **build on** our success.
burst into: suddenly enter — He **burst into** the room.
call for: demand — This **calls for** an investigation.
call on: ask, order — We will **call on** you to give a speech.
come across: find accidentally — She **came across** some old papers.
come upon: discover — We **came upon** a small lake.
confide in: share a secret — The two friends **confided in** each other.
count on: depend on — We are **counting on** you.
cut across: use a short route — I **cut across** the parking lot.
dawn on: realize — Finally the truth **dawned on** him.
deal in: stock, sell — He **deals in** gold and jewels.
deal with: handle successfully — She can **deal with** any situation.
decide on: settle on — They **decided on** a course of action.
dispense with: proceed without — The chairman **dispensed with** formalities.
dispose of: get rid of — If he moves, he will have to **dispose of** his furniture.
dwell on: emphasize — He **dwelt on** the risks involved.
enlarge on: say more about — Please **enlarge on** your proposal.
enter into: begin, commence — The brothers **entered into** an agreement.
expand on: say more about — Please **expand on** what you said before.
frown on: disapprove of — Absenteeism is **frowned on**.
get at: reach — The store was so crowded, it was hard to **get at** the food.
get into: become involved with — I don't want to **get into** an argument.
get over: recover from — Have you **got over** the flu yet?
get through: survive, finish — I don't know how I can **get through** all this work.
go against: oppose — Don't **go against** the rules.
go over: review — I would like to **go over** the report again.
go through: examine in detail — Have you **gone through** the evidence?
go with: look good with — Those shoes don't **go with** that outfit.
grow on: become more attractive to — I'm sure the idea will **grow on** you.
guard against: take precautions — We must **guard against** possible attack.
hinge on: depend on — Everything **hinges on** her decision.
inquire into: investigate — Please **inquire into** the alternatives.
keep to: adhere to — The train will **keep to** the schedule.
laugh at: mock, make fun of — Don't **laugh at** me!
launch into: start — He **launched into** an explanation.
leaf through: turn the pages — She **leafed** idly **through** the book.
live on: survive using — What did you **live on**?
look after: take care of — I will **look after** the children.
look into: investigate — He will **look into** the situation.
look through: examine quickly — We **looked through** the magazines while we were waiting.
part with: give up reluctantly — She refused to **part with** her necklace.
pick on: be unkind to — Because he was the youngest, the other boys **picked on** him.

prey on: hunt and eat; disturb	Ospreys **prey on** fish; the idea **preys on** my mind.
provide for: prepare for	We have **provided for** any emergency.
reason with: try to persuade	It is hard to **reason with** an angry person.
reckon on: calculate on	I hadn't **reckoned on** being the center of attention.
rise above: be superior to	He **rose above** his circumstances and managed to succeed.
run across: find accidentally	They **ran across** some interesting information.
run into: meet accidentally	I **ran into** my cousin downtown.
run over: injured by a vehicle	Children must be careful not to be **run over** by cars.
see through: not be deceived by	I instantly **saw through** the disguise.
send for: ask to be sent	You will have to **send for** your transcripts.
settle for: reluctantly accept	Since there was no kale, we had to **settle for** cabbage.
side with: support in a dispute	Why did you **side with** him?
sit through: sit and endure	It was all I could do to **sit through** the lecture without falling asleep.
stand by: support	I hope you will **stand by** me.
stand for: represent	What does the abbreviation <u>etc.</u> **stand for**?
stick to: adhere to	We shall **stick to** the original plan.
stumble across: find accidentally	He **stumbled across** an interesting fossil.
survive on: survive using	During the winter, we had to **survive on** turnips and parsnips.
take after: resemble an ancestor	He **takes after** his grandfather.
tamper with: interfere with	Someone has **tampered with** the lock.
touch on: mention	She **touched on** many important subjects.
verge on: approach	His behavior **verges on** rudeness.
wade through: slowly peruse	We had to **wade through** a pile of documents.
watch over: guard	The shepherd **watched over** the sheep.

See Exercise 1.

a. The position of the object of the preposition
The object of a preposition usually follows the preposition, whether the object is a noun or a pronoun. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.
e.g. We have **launched into** a new <u>project</u>.
We have **launched into** <u>it</u>.

In these examples, the noun **project** and the pronoun **it** are the objects of the preposition **into** of the phrasal verb **to launch into**. Both the noun object and the pronoun object follow the preposition.

See Exercise 2.

b. The position of an adverb of manner modifying the verb
If a verb is followed by a preposition, an adverb of manner may be placed between the verb and the preposition. In the following examples, the adverbs of manner are

underlined.
e.g. We **reasoned** patiently **with** the little girl.
I **leafed** quickly **through** the book.

In the first example, the adverb of manner **patiently** is placed between the verb **reasoned** and the preposition **with** of the phrasal verb **to reason with**. In the second example, the adverb of manner **quickly** is placed between the verb **leafed** and the preposition **through** of the phrasal verb **to leaf through**.

See Exercise 3.

c. Stress in spoken English
When a verb followed by a preposition occurs at the end of a clause, it is usually the verb which is stressed in spoken English. In the following examples, the words which are stressed are printed in bold type.
e.g. No one likes to be **laughed** at.
I need someone to **confide** in.

In the first example, the verb **laughed** followed by the preposition **at** occurs at the end of a clause, and the verb **laughed** is stressed. In the second example, the verb **confide** followed by the preposition **in** occurs at the end of a clause, and the verb **confide** is stressed.

It should be noted that, when used in a phrasal verb at the end of a clause, the prepositions **after**, **into** and **over** are often pronounced with somewhat greater emphasis than the verb. In this case, both the verb and the preposition are stressed. For example:
The twins are easy to **look after**.
The building would be difficult to **break into**.
You'll never guess whom I **ran into**.
I heard that someone was **run over**.

The prepositions **above**, **across** and **through** are also occasionally emphasized in this way. For example:
The research papers were difficult to **wade through**.

d. Expressions in which the verb has an object
In the case of some phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition, the verb and the preposition may each have an object. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.
e.g. I can **make** nothing **of** the situation.
We **talked** my sister **into** agreeing.

In the first example, the verb **make** of the phrasal verb **to make of** has the object **nothing**, and the preposition **of** has the object **situation**. In the second example, the verb **talked** of the phrasal verb **to talk into** has the object **sister**, and the preposition **into** has the object **agreeing**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. The objects of the verbs are underlined. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. The last example illustrates the use of the Passive Voice.

Verbs followed by Objects followed by Prepositions

drag into: involve unwillingly	Don't **drag** me **into** this discussion!
draw into: involve gradually	We managed to **draw** her **into** the conversation.
drum into: teach by repetition	We **drummed** the safety rules **into** the children.
frighten into: control by fear	The little girl **frightened** her brother **into** obeying her.
hold against: blame for	Please don't **hold** my mistakes **against** me.
lay before: present to	We will **lay** the evidence **before** the court.
let into: allow to share	Shall we **let** her **into** the secret?
make of: understand	Can you **make** anything **of** this message?
read into: find other meanings	You are **reading** too much **into** her remarks.
set against: make antagonistic	She likes to **set** people **against** one another.
set on: order to attack	We will **set** our dogs **on** any intruders.
talk into: persuade	Can you **talk** him **into** changing his mind?
thrust upon: force upon	We **thrust** the responsibility **upon** the treasurer.
write into: add to in writing	The terms were **written into** the lease.

2. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb

Many phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Some of these phrasal verbs are intransitive and some are transitive.

For instance, the intransitive phrasal verb **to show up** is formed from the verb **to show** followed by the adverb **up**. In the following example, the phrasal verb does not have an object.

At ten o'clock, her brother **showed up**.

The following are examples of intransitive phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Intransitive Verbs followed by Adverbs

blow over: pass	I wonder when the trouble will **blow over**.
boil away: disappear by boiling	If the water **boils away**, the stew will burn.
boil over: overflow by boiling	The soup **boiled over**.
bounce back: recover	He **bounced back** from his previous defeat.
buckle down: work seriously	You may fail your courses if you don't **buckle down** to work.
catch on: be widely accepted	Do you think the idea will **catch on**?
cloud over: become overcast	Although it **clouded over** in the afternoon, the

	rain held off.
die down: become less	After a few days, the excitement **died down**.
double up: bend over	We were **doubled up** with laughter.
drop in: visit	Please **drop in** any time.
fade away: become less	The sound gradually **faded away**.
fall off: become less	Attendance at the concerts has **fallen off**.
get away: escape	I hooked a fish, but it **got away**.
get by: barely succeed	She studied just hard enough to **get by**.
give in: admit defeat	I will never **give in**!
go on: continue	Please **go on**. Don't let me interrupt you.
grow up: become an adult	What do you want to do when you **grow up**?
keep on: persist in	He **kept on** changing the subject.
level off: stop rising	Prices finally **leveled off**.
log on: contact a computer	Do you know how to **log on**?
log off: break contact with a computer system	The system was overloaded, so I had to **log off**.
move in: take possession of living quarters	When are you **moving in**?
move out: give up possession of living quarters	He **moved out** yesterday.
nod off: go to sleep	Half the bus passengers **nodded off**.
pass out: faint	It was so hot, I almost **passed out**.
pitch in: help	If everyone **pitches in**, the work will be done in a few minutes.
play along: pretend to agree	Let's **play along** until we find out what his plans are.
pull in: arrive (of vehicles)	The bus **pulled in** next to the curb.
pull out: leave (of vehicles)	The train **pulled out** at ten o'clock.
set off: leave	They **set off** at six o'clock in the morning.
settle down: become peaceful	After the excitement, the students found it difficult to **settle down**.
settle in: become used to	How are you **settling in** to your new job?
show up: arrive	She **showed up** at noon.
stay up: not go to bed	We **stayed up** until midnight.
step down: resign	He **stepped down** for health reasons.
step in: intervene	The government had to **step in** to save the business.
take off: leave the ground	The plane **took off** on time.
touch down: land (of planes)	The plane **touched down**.
tune in: find a station on the radio	We **tuned in** to listen to the hockey game.
watch out: beware	**Watch out**! The roads are icy.
wear off: gradually disappear	The feeling of excitement gradually **wore off**.

See Exercise 4.

The transitive phrasal verb **to sort out** is formed from the verb **to sort** followed by the adverb **out**. For example:

We **sorted out** the papers.

In this example, the phrasal verb **sorted out** has the object **papers**.

The following are examples of transitive phrasal verbs which consist of a verb followed by an adverb. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Transitive Verbs followed by Adverbs

back up: support	I will **back up** your story.
bail out: rescue	If you run into difficulties, who will **bail** you **out**?
break in: make something new fit for use	I **broke in** my new hiking boots.
breathe in: inhale	We **breathed in** the fresh air.
breathe out: exhale	I **breathed out** a sigh of relief.
bring back: return	She **brought back** her library books.
bring around: persuade	We gradually **brought** her **around** to our point of view.
bring up: raise	**Bringing up** children is never easy.
butter up: flatter	We **buttered** him **up**, hoping that he would agree to our proposal.
call in: ask to assist	I think it is time we **called in** an expert.
call off: cancel	We **called off** the meeting.
call up: telephone	Why don't you **call** him **up**?
cheer on: cheer, encourage	I will be there to **cheer** you **on**.
chop down: fell	They **chopped down** the dead tree.
clean up: tidy	The mayor asked everyone to help **clean up** the city streets.
fend off: repel	The goalie **fended off** every attack.
ferret out: find with difficulty	We managed to **ferret out** the information.
figure out: solve, understand	I can't **figure out** what happened.
fill in: complete	Please **fill in** this form.
fill out: complete	I **filled out** the form.
fill up: make full	We **filled up** the glasses with water.
give back: return	I **gave back** the bicycle I had borrowed.
give off: send out	Skunk cabbage **gives off** an unpleasant odor.
hand down: give to someone younger	The tradition **was handed down** from father to son.
hand in: give to person in authority	The students **handed** their assignments **in** to the teacher.
hand on: give to another person	I am not sorry to **hand** the responsibility **on** to you.
hand over: transfer	We had to **hand** the evidence **over** to the police.
hang up: break a telephone connection	After receiving a busy signal, I **hung up** the phone.
hold back: restrain, delay	He is so enthusiastic, it is hard to **hold** him **back**.
iron out: remove	I am sure we can **iron out** every difficulty.
knock out: make unconscious	Boxers **are** often **knocked out**.
lap up: accept eagerly	The public **lapped up** the story.
lay off: put out of work	The company **laid off** seventy workers.
leave behind: leave, not bring	I accidentally **left** my umbrella **behind**.
leave out: omit	Tell me what happened. Don't **leave** anything **out**!
let down: disappoint	We will **let** him **down** if we don't arrive on time.
live down: live so that past faults	This will be hard to **live down**!

are forgotten

look up: find (information) — We **looked up** the word in a dictionary.

make up: invent — She likes to **make up** stories.

pass up: not take advantage — I couldn't **pass up** such an opportunity.

pension off: dismiss with a pension — He was **pensioned off** at the age of sixty.

phase in: introduce gradually — The new program will be **phased in** over the next six months.

phase out: cease gradually — The practice will gradually be **phased out**.

pick up: collect — You may **pick up** the papers at the office.

pin down: get a commitment — When the guest speaker is **pinned down**, we can set a date for the conference.

play down: de-emphasize — He **played down** the importance of the news.

point out: draw attention to — She **pointed out** the advantages of the proposal.

polish off: finish — We **polished off** the rest of the apple pie.

pull down: demolish — Many old buildings are **pulled down** to make way for new ones.

pull off: succeed — Do you think she can **pull off** her plan?

put away: put in proper place — It is time to **put** the toys **away**.

put back: return to original location — Please **put** the book **back** on the shelf.

put off: postpone — We cannot **put off** the meeting again.

reel off: recite a long list — She **reeled off** a long list of names.

rope in: persuade to help — We **roped in** everyone we could to help with the work.

rub out: erase — Be sure to **rub out** all the pencil marks.

rule out: remove from consideration — None of the possibilities can be **ruled out** yet.

scale down: reduce — Because of lack of funds, we had to **scale down** our plans.

sell off: dispose of by selling — We **sold off** all the books and furniture.

set back: delay — This could **set back** the project by several years.

shout down: stop from speaking by shouting — The crowd **shouted down** the speaker.

shrug off: dismiss as unimportant — He attempted to **shrug off** the mistake.

single out: select from others — You have been **singled out** for special attention.

size up: assess — I quickly **sized up** the situation.

sort out: organize — It will take some time to **sort out** this mess.

sound out: talk with to learn the opinion of — We attempted to **sound** him **out**.

stammer out: stammer — They **stammered out** their apologies.

sum up: summarize — He **summed up** the discussion in a few well-chosen words.

summon up: gather — I attempted to **summon up** my courage.

take in: absorb — We tried to **take in** the new information.

take out: invite to a restaurant — May I **take** you **out** for supper?

take over: assume control — They will **take over** at the beginning of June.

talk over: discuss — Let us **talk** it **over** before we decide.

tear up: destroy by tearing — She **tore up** the letter.

think over: consider — I need some time to **think** it **over**.

think up: invent	What will they **think up** next?
track down: search for and find	We finally **tracked** him **down** at the bookstore.
trade in: give as part payment	Why don't you **trade in** your old vacuum cleaner for a new one?
try on: test clothes by putting them on	I **tried on** the new suit, but it didn't fit me.
try out: test by using	Would you like to **try out** my fountain pen?
turn away: refuse admission	The event was so popular that many people had to be **turned away**.
turn back: reverse direction	Every fall the clocks must be **turned back** by one hour.
turn off: deactivate by using a switch	I **turned off** the radio.
turn on: activate by using a switch	Please **turn on** the light.
water down: dilute	The soup has been **watered down**.
wear out: gradually destroy by wearing or using	My jacket is **wearing out**, although it is only a year old.
write down: make a note	I **wrote down** the instructions.
write off: cancel, regard as	They were forced to **write off** several irretrievable debts.
write up: compose in writing	I used my notes to **write up** the report.

See Exercise 5.

a. The position of the object of the verb

In the case of transitive phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, if the object of the verb is a noun, the object can usually either follow or precede the adverb. In the following examples, the objects are underlined.

e.g. I **called off** the meeting.
I **called** the meeting **off**.

In the first example the object **meeting** follows the adverb **off**, while in the second example the object **meeting** precedes the adverb **off**.

However, in the case of a few phrasal verbs, a noun object must usually follow the adverb.

e.g. We attempted to **smooth over** the disagreement.

In this example, the phrasal verb **to smooth over** is followed by the noun object **disagreement**. In this case, the object **disagreement** cannot be placed before the adverb **over**.

The following are examples of transitive phrasal verbs where a noun object must usually follow the adverb. Each phrasal verb is accompanied by its meaning and an example of its use. The objects of the verbs are underlined.

Verbs followed by Adverbs followed by Noun Objects

drum up: raise	She has **drummed up** support for the plan.
paper over: repair superficially	They attempted to **paper over** their differences.

smooth over: improve We tried to **smooth over** the situation.

In the case of transitive phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, if the object of the verb is a pronoun, the object must usually precede the adverb. In the following examples, the pronoun objects are underlined.
e.g. I **called** it **off**.
We attempted to **smooth** it **over**.
In these examples, the pronoun object **it** precedes the adverbs **off** and **over**.

See Exercise 6.

Most transitive phrasal verbs may be used in the Passive Voice.
e.g. The meeting was **called off** by me.
The disagreement was **smoothed over**.
In these examples, the phrasal verbs **to call off** and **to smooth over** are used in the Passive Voice.

b. The position of an adverb of manner modifying the verb
In the case of a phrasal verb consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, the verb and the adverb usually may not be separated by an adverb of manner. In the following example, the adverb of manner is underlined.
e.g. I hurriedly **called off** the meeting.
In this example, the adverb of manner **hurriedly** precedes the phrasal verb **called off**. The adverb **hurriedly** may also be placed at the beginning or the end of the sentence, but may not be placed between the verb **called** and the adverb **off**.

c. Stress in spoken English
When a phrasal verb consisting of a verb followed by an adverb occurs at the end of a clause, it is usually the adverb which is stressed in spoken English. In the following examples, the words which are stressed are printed ion bold type.
e.g. How did that come **about**?
Please drop **in** whenever you have time.
In the first example, the verb **come** followed by the adverb **about** occurs at the end of a clause, and the adverb **about** is stressed. In the second example, the verb **drop** followed by the adverb **in** occurs at the end of a clause, and the adverb **in** is stressed.

d. Ergative verbs
It should be noted that there are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb, which have the same meaning whether they are used transitively or intransitively. For example:
The engineer **slowed down** the train.
The train **slowed down**.

In the first example, the phrasal verb **to slow down** is used transitively, with the object **train**. In the second example, the phrasal verb **to slow down** is used intransitively, without naming the originator of the action. In these two examples, it can be seen that the object of the transitive verb is the subject of the intransitive verb. However, the general meaning of the two sentences is the same. Verbs which can be used in this way may be referred to as **ergative verbs**.

The following are examples of expressions which can function as ergative phrasal verbs. Each ergative phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use.

Ergative Phrasal Verbs

blare out: make a loud sound	The loudspeakers **blared out** the music. The music **blared out**.
blow up: destroy by an explosion	Troops **blew up** the bridge. The bridge **blew up**.
break up: break into pieces	The icebreaker **broke up** the ice. The ice **broke up**.
burn down: destroy by fire	We **burned down** the old barn. The old barn **burned down**.
calm down: become calm	I **calmed down** the child. The child **calmed down**.
dry out: become dry	The sun **dried out** the earth. The earth **dried out**.
get across: transmit	We **got** our point **across** to the audience. Our point **got across** to the audience.
liven up: become lively	He **livened up** the party. The party **livened up**.
pull through: recover from, survive	The doctor **pulled** her **through** the illness. She **pulled through** the illness.
roll up: wrap into a cylinder	I **rolled up** the window blind. The window blind **rolled up**.
shut down: close, stop working	They **shut down** the factory. The factory **shut down**.
wake up: stop sleeping	I **woke** her **up**. She **woke up**.
wash out: remove by washing	We **washed out** the dye. The dye **washed out**.
wear away: gradually remove	Water **wore away** the rock. The rock **wore away**.
wear out: gradually destroy by using	I **wore out** the sweater. The sweater **wore out**.

3. Distinguishing between verbs followed by prepositions and verbs followed by adverbs

It has been seen that the position of pronoun objects, adverbs of manner and stress in spoken English varies according to whether a verb is followed by a preposition or by an adverb.

These differences are summarized in the following table. The verbs **to sit** and **to turn** are used as examples. The verb **to sit** is followed by **on** used as a preposition, whereas the verb **to turn** is followed by **on** used as an adverb.

Verb followed by Preposition	Verb followed by Adverb

Pronoun object is placed after the preposition: I sat on **it**.	Pronoun object is placed before the adverb: I turned **it** on.
Adverb of manner may be placed between verb and preposition: I sat **quietly** on it.	Adverb of manner may not be placed between verb and adverb: I **quietly** turned it on.
Verb is stressed: This is what I **sat** on.	Adverb is stressed: This is what I turned **on**.

Because of the differences summarized above, it is important to be able to distinguish between a verb followed by a preposition, and a verb followed by an adverb.

a. Adverb phrases of location compared with phrasal verbs followed by objects
In many cases, it is necessary to distinguish between an ordinary verb followed by an adverb phrase of location, and a phrasal verb followed by an object.
e.g. I turned up the street.
I turned up the volume.

In the first example, the verb **turned** is followed by the adverb phrase of location **up the street**. In the second example, the phrasal verb **turned up** is followed by the object **volume**. In this example, the phrasal verb **turned up** has the meaning **increased**.

In the first example, **street** is the object of the preposition **up**. If the object is changed to a pronoun, the pronoun must follow the preposition:
I turned up the street.
I turned up it.

In the second example, **volume** is the object of the phrasal verb **turned up**. If the object is changed to a pronoun, the pronoun must precede the adverb **up**.
I turned up the volume.
I turned it up.

In the first example, if the verb is modified by an adverb of manner, the adverb of manner may precede the adverb phrase of location:
I turned up the street.
I turned quickly up the street.

In the second example, if the verb is modified by an adverb of manner, the adverb of manner may not be placed between the two parts of the phrasal verb:
I turned up the volume.
I quickly turned up the volume.

See Exercises 7 and 8.

b. Words used as prepositions or adverbs
It is also necessary to be able to distinguish between a phrasal verb consisting of a verb

followed by a preposition, and a phrasal verb consisting of a transitive verb followed by an adverb. In many cases it is possible to make the distinction by means of the preposition or adverb following the verb.

For example, the following words are used in phrasal verbs as prepositions, but are not usually used in phrasal verbs as adverbs following transitive verbs:

after	against
at	before
by	for
from	into
of	to
toward	with
without	

In contrast, the following words are used in phrasal verbs as adverbs following transitive verbs, but are not usually used in phrasal verbs as prepositions:

along	aside
away	back
behind	down
forward	out
together	up

It should be noted that of these words, **aside**, **away**, **back**, **forward**, **out** and **together** are usually never used as prepositions. In contrast, the words **along**, **behind**, **down** and **up** are often used as prepositions, but are not usually used as prepositions in phrasal verbs.

See Exercises 9 and 10.

The following words present more difficulty, since they can be used in phrasal verbs both as prepositions and as adverbs following transitive verbs:

across	around **or** round
in	off
on **or** upon	over
through	

Thus, it is advisable to study which phrasal verbs use these words as prepositions, and which phrasal verbs use these words as adverbs. The following table gives examples of phrasal verbs containing each of these words. The left-hand column gives phrasal verbs consisting of verbs followed by prepositions, while the right-hand column gives phrasal verbs consisting of transitive verbs followed by adverbs.

Words used as Prepositions or Adverbs

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
come **across**	get **across** (an idea)
cut **across**	put **across** (an idea)

run **across**
stumble **across**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
hang **around**	bring **round**
lounge **around**	
mill **around**	
pass **around**	
rally **round**	
show **around**	

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
confide **in**	break **in**
deal **in**	breathe **in**
join **in**	call **in**
	fill **in**
	hand **in**
	phase **in**
	rope **in**
	take **in**
	trade **in**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
glance **off**	call **off**
keep **off**	fend **off**
warn **off**	give **off**
	lay **off**
	pair **off**
	pension **off**
	polish **off**
	pull **off**
	put **off**
	reel **off**
	sell **off**
	shrug **off**
	turn **off**
	write **off**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
bank **on**	cheer **on**
border **on**	hand **on**
build **on**	try **on**
call **on**	turn **on**
come **upon**	
count **on**	
dawn **on**	
decide **on**	
dwell **on**	
enlarge **on**	
expand **on**	

frown **on**
grow **on**
hinge **on**
live **on**
pick **on**
prey **on**
reckon **on**
survive **on**
thrust upon
touch **on**
verge **on**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
get **over**	take **over**
go **over**	talk **over**
run **over**	think **over**
watch **over**	paper **over**
	smooth **over**

Verb + Preposition	Transitive Verb + Adverb
break **through**	pull **through**
get **through**	
go **through**	
leaf **through**	
look **through**	
sail **through**	
scrape **through**	
see **through**	
sit **through**	
wade **through**	

See Exercise 11.

4. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition

Some phrasal verbs consist of an intransitive verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition. For example:

We **passed by**.
We **passed by** the library.

In the first example, the word **by** of the phrasal verb **passed by** functions as an adverb. In the second example, the word **by** of the phrasal verb **passed by** functions as a preposition which has the object **library**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs which contain words which may function either as adverbs or as prepositions. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use. The objects of the prepositions are underlined.

Intransitive Verbs followed by words which may function either as Adverbs or Prepositions

break through: appear	The sun **broke through**. The sun **broke through** the clouds.
do without: survive without	We had to **do without**. We had to **do without** electricity.
glance off: hit and bounce off	The ball **glanced off**. The ball **glanced off** the wall.
go without: not have	They **went without**. They **went without** food.
hang around: stay near	We **hung around**. We **hung around** the movie theater.
join in: become involved in	I **joined in**. I **joined in** the game.
lounge around: relax in	We **lounged around**. We **lounged around** the living room.
mill around: (of a crowd) move randomly	The students **milled around**. The students **milled around** the lobby.
pass by: pass	I **passed by**. I **passed by** the house.
rally round: gather to give support	We **rallied round**. We **rallied round** our class president.
sail through: succeed easily	She **sailed through**. She **sailed through** the exam.
scrape through: barely succeed	They **scraped through**. They **scraped through** the course.
turn off: leave a road	We **turned off**. We **turned off** the main highway.

a. Expressions in which the verb has an object

There are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition, where the verb may have an object. In the following examples the objects are underlined.

e.g. We **passed** the candies **around**.
We **passed** the candies **around** the class.

In each of these examples, the verb **passed** of the phrasal verb **to pass around** has the object **candies**. In the first example, the word **around** functions as an adverb, while in the second example, the word **around** functions as a preposition with the object **class**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by a word which may function either as an adverb or as a preposition, where the verb may have an object. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and examples of its use. The objects of the verbs and prepositions are underlined. The last example illustrates the use of the Passive Voice.

Verbs followed by objects followed by words which may function either as Adverbs or Prepositions

cross off: put a line through	I **crossed** his name **off**.

	I **crossed** his name **off** the list.
pass around: distribute	I **passed** the papers **around**.
	I **passed** the papers **around** the class.
show around: conduct on a tour	We **showed** the visitors **around**.
	We **showed** the visitors **around** the city.
tide over: provide for temporarily	This money will **tide** me **over**.
	This money will **tide** me **over** the weekend.
warn off: warn to leave	We were **warned off**.
	We were **warned off** the premises.

5. Phrasal verbs consisting of a verb followed by an adverb followed by a preposition

There are several commonly used phrasal verbs which consist of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. For example:

I **went along with** the idea.

In this example, the phrasal verb **went along with** consists of the verb **to go**, followed by the adverb **along**, followed by the preposition **with** which has the object **idea**.

The following table gives examples of phrasal verbs which consist of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Verbs followed by Adverbs followed by Prepositions

add up to: amount to	It is hard to see what that **adds up to**.
back down from: withdraw, avoid	She never **backs down from** a challenge.
back out of: not fulfill	I wish I could **back out of** the agreement.
boil down to: can be reduced to	All his arguments **boil down to** a belief in the supernatural.
bow out of: withdraw	He **bowed out of** the race.
brush up on: refresh knowledge of	I must **brush up on** my English.
carry on with: continue with	We **carried on with** our conversation.
catch up to: overtake	The boy ran quickly to **catch up with** his friends.
clean up after: tidy for	She spent half her time **cleaning up after** the children.
come down to: can be reduced to	Your choices **come down to** these.
come down with: become ill with	She **came down with** a cold.
come out in: develop	He **came out in** a rash.
come up against: meet an obstacle	They **came up against** many difficulties.
come up with: produce	She **came up with** a solution to the problem.
creep up on: approach undetected	Old age tends to **creep up on** one.
cry out for: urgently require	The education system is **crying out for** improvement.
cut back on: reduce	The government has **cut back on** spending.
do away with: abolish	We want to **do away with** delays.
face up to: accept and deal with	It is best to **face up to** one's problems.
fall back on: turn to for help	Because of unexpected expenses, we had to **fall back on** our savings.

fit in with: be suited to — You don't **fit in with** this group.
fool around with: not be serious, have as a hobby — He likes to **fool around with** computers.
get away with: not be punished — He **got away with** being late for school.
get down to: begin dealing seriously with — It is time to **get down to** business.
get in on: manage to participate in — I want to **get in on** the planning for the new school.
give up on: stop trying — I've **given up on** the situation.
go along with: agree, not resist — I'm willing to **go along with** your idea.
go back on: break a promise — He never **goes back on** his word.
go through with: fulfill, carry out — Are you going to **go through with** your plan to conduct a survey?
grow out of: become too big for — My son has **grown out of** most of his clothes.
hold out for: not compromise — We want to **hold out for** better conditions.
keep up with: be on the same level as — She has a hard time **keeping up with** her brother.
lead up to: be a preparation for — The first thirty chapters of the book **lead up to** the dramatic conclusion.
live up to: maintain a standard — She has **lived up to** her reputation as a great singer.
log on to: contact a computer — She **logged on to** the new system.
look down on: regard as inferior — He **looks down on** his classmates.
look forward to: anticipate — I'm **looking forward to** the holidays.
look out for: watch for — **Look out for** fallen branches.
look up to: admire — We **looked up to** her.
make up for: compensate for — She tried to **make up for** her past mistakes.
pull out of: leave (of vehicles) — The train **pulled out of** the station.
push on with: go ahead, continue — I must **push on with** my work.
put up with: endure, tolerate — Bus passengers must often **put up with** crowded conditions.
read up on: read about — Whenever I travel, I like to **read up on** the place I am going to visit.
rub off on: acquire from someone — Some of his enthusiasm has **rubbed off on** me.
run up against: meet — One **runs up against** many different kinds of people.
send away for: order by mail — We **sent away for** warm winter boots.
stick up for: defend, support — Will you **stick up for** me?
stock up on: lay in supplies — We should **stock up on** bananas.
talk down to: speak patronizingly — He always **talks down to** people younger than he is.
walk away with: win easily — They **walked away with** all the prizes.
watch out for: beware of — **Watch out for** snakes.
wriggle out of: avoid — She always tries to **wriggle out of** her responsibilities.
zero in on: focus on — Let us **zero in on** the heart of the problem.

See Exercise 12.

a. Expressions in which the verb has an object
There are a few phrasal verbs consisting of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. In the following example, the objects are underlined.
e.g. We **played** them **off against** each other.
In this example, the verb **played** of the phrasal verb **to play off against** has the object **them**, while the preposition **against** has the object **each other**.

The following are examples of phrasal verbs consisting of a verb, followed by an adverb, followed by a preposition, where the verb may have an object. Each phrasal verb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. The objects of the phrasal verbs are underlined.

Verbs followed by Objects followed by Adverbs followed by Prepositions

get over with: undergo, finish	If I must visit the dentist, I prefer to **get** it **over with** as soon as possible.
let in on: allow to share	We **let** them **in on** the secret.
play off against: encourage to fight	In the last century, the British weakened their enemies by **playing** them **off against** one another.
put down to: attribute to	We **put** his bad temper **down to** fatigue.
put up to: urge to do wrong	She **put** me **up to** playing a trick on the teacher.
take out on: vent bad feelings on	She **took** her dissatisfaction with her job **out on** her neighbors.
take up on: accept an offer	I would like to **take** you **up on** your offer.
talk out of: dissuade from	We tried to **talk** him **out of** retiring.

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EXERCISES for Chapter 27

1. For each of the following sentences, substitute the appropriate phrasal verb given in brackets for the underlined word or phrase. For example:
   I will request a bus schedule. (ask for, stand for)
   I will ask for a bus schedule.

   Don't worry. They won't make fun of you. (call on, laugh at)
   Don't worry. They won't laugh at you.

1. She resembles her mother. (looks after, takes after)
2. We perused the report. (sided with, waded through)
3. I will adhere to what I said before. (burst into, stick to)
4. We will demand a review of the situation. (call for, guard against)
5. His parents disapprove of his participating in so many extracurricular activities. (bank on, frown on)
6. Without hesitating, she started her speech. (launched into, hinged on)
7. I am depending on your support. (counting on, picking on)

8. He will take care of everything. (look after, settle for)
9. What do these initials represent? (provide for, stand for)
10. All of our plans depend on the availability of transportation. (hinge on, touch on)
Answers

2. Rewrite the following sentences, changing the object of the preposition to a pronoun. For example:

He lived on a small allowance.
He lived on it.

I sided with my brother.
I sided with him.

1. We are counting on our friends.
2. Will you stick to the agreement?
3. She takes after her grandmother.
4. No one has tampered with the letters.
5. Yesterday I ran into your uncle.
6. They saw through the plot.
7. He cut across the vacant lot.
8. I confided in my niece.
Answers

3. For each of the following sentences, place the adverb of manner given in brackets between the verb and the preposition. For example:

He deals in rare stamps. (exclusively)
He deals exclusively in rare stamps.

The introduction touches on the main points. (briefly)
The introduction touches briefly on the main points.

1. He dealt with every objection to his plan. (confidently)
2. She sided with her friend. (unhesitatingly)
3. We cut across the lawn. (quickly)
4. Since we were very hungry, we settled for bread and potatoes. (uncomplainingly)
5. I leafed through the material. (rapidly)
6. They watched over the children. (patiently)
7. You cannot survive on tea and biscuits. (solely)
8. We entered into the discussion. (eagerly)
Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, substitute the appropriate phrasal verb given in brackets for the underlined word or phrase. For example:

He will leave tomorrow morning. (level off, set off)
He will set off tomorrow morning.

The storm will soon pass. (blow over, boil over)
The storm will soon blow over.

1. I hope she arrives soon. (stays up, shows up)

2. He usually sleeps after lunch. (buckles down, nods off)
3. We saw the plane land. (settle down, touch down)
4. I told her to beware. (pass out, watch out)
5. Someone should intervene before the situation gets worse. (pull in, step in)
6. They waited until the train left. (logged off, pulled out)
7. Don't let them escape. (get away, wear off)
8. We were worried when she fainted. (moved out, passed out)
9. The barometric pressure has stopped rising. (leveled off, settled in)
10. I hope you will all help. (give in, pitch in)
Answers

5. For each of the following sentences, substitute the appropriate phrasal verb given in brackets for the underlined word or phrase. For example:

He refused to support what I had said. (back up, hold back)
He refused to back up what I had said.

The game was canceled because of the rain. (called off, phased out)
The game was called off because of the rain.

1. He raised a difficult question. (brought up, filled up)
2. She is good at assessing people. (buttering up, sizing up)
3. We should de-emphasize the dangers of the situation. (hand down, play down)
4. I am returning the raincoat I borrowed. (backing up, giving back)
5. The wine had been diluted. (played down, watered down)
6. I want to organize my photographs. (sort out, try out)
7. We discussed the situation. (shouted down, talked over)
8. May I test your bicycle? (point out, try out)
9. You can collect the tickets at the box office. (fill up, pick up)
10. I erased the notes in the margins of the book. (bailed out, rubbed out)
ii. Do you think they invented the whole story? (hung up, made up)
12. She summarized what we had learned so far. (sounded out, summed up)
Answers

6. The following sentences contain transitive phrasal verbs which consist of verbs followed by adverbs. Rewrite each sentence, changing the object of the verb to a pronoun, and placing the pronoun object in the correct position in the sentence. For example:

I picked up the clothes.
I picked them up.

1. We ironed out the difficulties.
2. She called up her sister.
3. We sent back the material.
4. He sent out the invitations.
5. I gave away the bicycle.
6. She brought along her younger brother.
7. We wrote down the answer.
8. She let in the cats.
9. He turned over the stone.
10. We emptied out the baskets.

Answers

7. For each of the following sentences, determine whether the underlined object indicates where the action took place, or what was acted upon, and fill in the blank with **where** or **what**, as appropriate. Then rewrite the sentence, changing the object to a pronoun, and placing the pronoun object in the correct position in the sentence.
If the object indicates **where**, place the pronoun object after the preposition; however, if the object indicates **what**, place the pronoun object before the adverb. For example:

I looked up the staircase. _____
I looked up the staircase. where
I looked up it.

I looked up the word. ____
I looked up the word. what
I looked it up.

1. I turned off the light. _____
2. She walked into the room. _____
3. He climbed up the ladder. _____
4. They sent in the report. _____
5. Children should not play on the road. _____
6. We set off the fireworks. _____
7. Please put on some music. _____
8. We turned off the main road. _____
9. I cut up the cake. _____
10. The plane flew over the lake. _____
11. She lives down the street. _____
12. Please pass on the information. _____
13. He put down the box. _____
14. They work in this building. _____
15. The ball rolled down the hill. _____
16. We handed over the document. _____
17. He walked off the stage. _____
18. She turned down the offer. _____
19. They sat on the floor. _____
20. I wound up the clock. _____

Answers

8. Following the instructions for the previous exercise, fill in each blank with **where** or **what**. Then rewrite each sentence to include the adverb of manner given in brackets. If the object indicates **where**, place the adverb of manner between the verb and the preposition; however, if the object indicates **what**, place the adverb of manner before the verb. For example:

I walked across the bridge. _____ (quickly)
I walked across the bridge. where
I walked quickly across the bridge.

We tidied up the papers. ____ (hurriedly)
We tidied up the papers. what
We hurriedly tidied up the papers.

1. The car slipped off the road. _____ (suddenly)
2. We lifted up the buckets. _____ (wearily)
3. The cable cars moved up the hill. _____ (slowly)
4. She let down the dress. _____ (carefully)
5. The book had been placed on the table. _____ (neatly)
6. He was leaning against the wall. _____ (idly)
7. She filed away the new material. _____ (methodically)
8. We shut off the power. _____ (hastily)
9. They closed up the cottage. _____ (sadly)
10. The swallows flew over our house. _____ (swiftly)

Answers

9. Paying attention to whether the last word in the clause is a preposition or an adverb, for each of the following sentences, underline the word which would usually be stressed in spoken English. For example:

Why did you go out?
Why did you go out?

This is what you asked for.
This is what you asked for.

1. What time did you get up?
2. What are you looking at?
3. The following idea has been put forward.
4. Which group did you come with?
5. What are they searching for?
6. Is he moving away?
7. What kind of music do you like to listen to?
8. When did you get back?
9. How did he find out?
10. When you look at this picture, what are you reminded of?
11. Which diving board did she jump from?
12. Why did you jump back?

Answers

10. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to whether the word following the verb is usually used as a preposition or as an adverb in a phrasal verb, change the object to a pronoun object and place it in the correct position in the sentence. For example:

How did you deal with the situation?
How did you deal with it?

We put away the books.
We put them away.

1. Let us look into the possibility.
2. Who brought up the question?
3. Remember to rub out the mistakes.
4. Perhaps we can reason with your uncle.

5. They had to turn away twenty people.
6. We have scaled down our operation.
7. She looked after the baby girl.
8. Remember to stick to the plan.
9. Did you give back the dictionary?
10. How did you dispose of their objections?
11. We confided in her sister.
12. Have you figured out the answer?
Answers

11. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to whether the phrasal verb consists of a verb followed by a preposition or a verb followed by an adverb, change the object to a pronoun, and place it in the correct position in the sentence. For example:

Squirrels can survive on nuts.
Squirrels can survive on them.

Did you try on the new shoes?
Did you try them on?

1. I know I can count on my friends.
2. They put off the rehearsal.
3. I stumbled across an interesting story.
4. He is good at putting across his ideas.
5. We watched over the children.
6. She hung around the museum.
7. I would like to hand on the responsibility.
8. She leafed through the exercises.
9. I came across a city map.
10. Would you like to think over the proposal?
11. Are you going to trade in your old machine?
12. All our plans hinge on the weather.
Answers

12. For each of the following sentences, substitute the appropriate phrasal verb given in brackets for the underlined word or phrase. For example:

Don't try to avoid it. (walk away with, wriggle out of)
Don't try to wriggle out of it.

1. What does that amount to? (add up to, lead up to)
2. He is trying to compensate for the time he lost. (look out for, make up for)
3. I want to continue my studies. (carry on with, get in on)
4. We want to focus on new developments. (fall back on, zero in on)
5. Do you think you can overtake the others? (catch up with, look down on)
6. We want to abolish the waiting period. (come down to, do away with)
7. The tenants had to tolerate noisy conditions. (get away with, put up with)
8. I developed spots after walking through a patch of poison ivy. (brushed up on, came out in)
9. He admires his older brother. (looks up to, sticks up for)
10. You should reduce the number of cigarettes you smoke per day. (cut back on, zero in on)

11. The problem urgently requires a solution. (adds up to, cries out for)
12. She always defends her friends. (holds out for, sticks up for)
Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 27

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. She takes after her mother. 2. We waded through the report. 3. I will stick to what I said before. 4. We will call for a review of the situation. 5. His parents frown on his participating in so many extracurricular activities. 6. Without hesitating, she launched into her speech. 7. I am counting on your support. 8. He will look after everything. 9. What do these initials stand for? 10. All of our plans hinge on the availability of transportation.

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. We are counting on them. 2. Will you stick to it? 3. She takes after her. 4. No one has tampered with them. 5. Yesterday I ran into him. 6. They saw through it. 7. He cut across it. 8. I confided in her.

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. He dealt confidently with every objection to his plan. 2. She sided unhesitatingly with her friend. 3. We cut quickly across the lawn. 4. Since we were very hungry, we settled uncomplainingly for bread and potatoes. 5. I leafed rapidly through the material. 6. They watched patiently over the children. 7. You cannot survive solely on tea and biscuits. 8. We entered eagerly into the discussion.

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. I hope she shows up soon. 2. He usually nods off after lunch. 3. We saw the plane touch down. 4. I told her to watch out. 5. Someone should step in before the situation gets worse. 6. They waited until the train pulled out. 7. Don't let them get away. 8. We were worried when she passed out. 9. The barometric pressure has leveled off. 10. I hope you will all pitch in.

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. He brought up a difficult question. 2. She is good at sizing up people. 3. We should play down the dangers of the situation. 4. I am giving back the raincoat I borrowed. 5. The wine has been watered down. 6. I want to sort out my photographs. 7. We talked over the situation. 8. May I try out your bicycle? 9. You can pick up the tickets at the box office. 10. I rubbed out the notes in the margins of the book. 11. Do you think they made up the whole story? 12. She summed up what we had learned so far.

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. We ironed them out. 2. She called her up. 3. We sent it back. 4. He sent them out. 5. I gave it away. 6. She brought him along. 7. We wrote it down. 8. She let them in. 9. He turned it over. 10. We emptied them out.

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. what: I turned it off. 2. where: She walked into it. 3. where: He climbed up it. 4.

what: They sent it in. 5. where: Children should not play on it. 6. what: We set them off. 7. what: Please put it on. 8. where: We turned off it. 9. what: I cut it up. 10. where: The plane flew over it. 11. where: She lived down it. 12. what: Please pass it on. 13. what: He put it down. 14. where: They work in it. 15. where: The ball rolled down it. 16. what: We handed it over. 17. where: He walked off it. 18. what: She turned it down. 19. where: They sat on it. 20. what: I wound it up.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. where: The car slipped suddenly off the road. 2. what: We wearily lifted up the buckets. 3. where: The cable cars moved slowly up the hill. 4. what: She carefully let down the dress. 5. where: The book had been placed neatly on the table. 6. where: He was leaning idly against the wall. 7. what: She methodically filed away the new material. 8. what: We hastily shut off the power. 9. what: They sadly closed up the cottage. 10. where: The swallows flew swiftly over our house.

Answers to Exercise 9:
1. What time did you get up? 2. What are you looking at? 3. The following idea has been put forward. 4. Which group did you come with? 5. What are they searching for? 6. Is he moving away? 7. What kind of music do you like to listen to? 8. When did you get back? 9. How did he find out? 10. When you look at this picture, what are you reminded of? 11. Which diving board did she jump from? 12. Why did you jump back?

Answers to Exercise 10:
1. Let us look into it. 2. Who brought it up? 3. Remember to rub them out. 4. Perhaps we can reason with him. 5. They had to turn them away. 6. We have scaled it down. 7. She looked after her. 8. Remember to stick to it. 9. Did you give it back? 10. How did you dispose of them? 11. We confided in her. 12. Have you figured it out?

Answers to Exercise 11:
1. I know I can count on them. 2. They put it off. 3. I stumbled across it. 4. He is good at putting them across. 5. We watched over them. 6. She hung around it. 7. 1 would like to hand it on. 8. She leafed through them. 9. I came across it. 10. Would you like to think it over? 11. Are you going to trade it in? 12. All our plans hinge on it.

Answers to Exercise 12:
1. What does that add up to? 2. He is trying to make up for the time he lost. 3. I want to carry on with my studies. 4. We want to zero in on new developments. 5. Do you think you can catch up with the others? 6. We want to do away with the waiting period. 7. The tenants had to put up with noisy conditions. 8. I came out in spots after walking through a patch of poison ivy. 9. He looks up to his older brother. 10. You should cut back on the number of cigarettes you smoke per day. 11. The problem cries out for a solution. 12. She always sticks up for her friends.

CHAPTER 28. CONJUNCTIONS

A conjunction may be used to indicate the relationship between the ideas expressed in a clause and the ideas expressed in the rest of a sentence. The conjunctions in the following examples are printed in bold type.
e.g. We could go to the library, **or** we could go to the park.

He **neither** finished his homework **nor** studied for the test.
I went out **because** the sun was shining.

1. Coordinate conjunctions

Coordinate conjunctions are used to join two similar grammatical constructions; for instance, two words, two phrases or two clauses.
e.g. My friend **and** I will attend the meeting.
Austria is famous for the beauty of its landscape **and** the hospitality of its people.
The sun rose **and** the birds began to sing.

In these examples, the coordinate conjunction **and** is used to join the two words **friend** and **I**, the two phrases **the beauty of its landscape** and **the hospitality of its people**, and the two clauses **the sun rose** and **the birds began to sing**.

The most commonly used coordinate conjunctions are **and**, **but** and **or**. In addition, the words **nor** and **yet** may be used as coordinate conjunctions. In the following table, each coordinate conjunction is followed by its meaning and an example of its use. Note the use of inverted word order in the clause beginning with **nor**.

Coordinate Conjunctions

and: in addition	She tried **and** succeeded.
but: however	They tried **but** did not succeed.
or: alternatively	Did you go out **or** stay at home?
nor: and neither	I did not see it, **nor** did they.
yet: however	The sun is warm, **yet** the air is cool.

As illustrated above, when a coordinate conjunction joins two verbs which have the same subject, the subject need not be repeated. For instance, in the example **she tried and succeeded**, the pronoun **she** acts as the subject for both the verb **tried** and the verb **succeeded**. It should also be noted that when a coordinate conjunction joins two verbs which do not have the same subject, the two coordinate clauses may be separated by a comma or semicolon, in order to make the meaning clear.

See Exercise 1.

2. Correlative conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are used in pairs, in order to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in different parts of a sentence. For instance, in the following example, the expression **either ... or** is used to indicate that the ideas expressed in the two clauses represent two alternative choices of action.
e.g. **Either** you should study harder, **or** you should take a different course.

The most commonly used correlative conjunctions are **both ... and**, **either ... or** and **neither ... nor**. In the table below, each pair of correlative conjunctions is accompanied by an example of its use. Note that in the construction **if ... then**, the word **then** can usually be omitted.

Correlative Conjunctions

both ... and	He is **both** intelligent **and** good-natured.
either ... or	I will **either** go for a walk **or** read a book.
neither ... nor	He is **neither** rich **nor** famous.
hardly ... when	He had **hardly** begun to work, **when** he was interrupted.
if ... then	**If** that is true, **then** what happened is not surprising.
no sooner ... than	**No sooner** had I reached the corner, **than** the bus came.
not only ... but also	She is **not only** clever, **but also** hard-working.
rather ... than	I would **rather** go swimming **than** go to the library.
scarcely ... when	**Scarcely** had we left home, **when** it started to rain.
what with ... and	**What with** all her aunts, uncles **and** cousins, she has many relatives.
whether ... or	Have you decided **whether** you will come **or** not?

See Exercise 2.

3. Subordinate conjunctions

As has been seen in previous chapters, subordinate clauses may begin with relative pronouns such as **that**, **what**, **whatever**, **which**, **who** and **whom**, as well as with words such as **how**, **when**, **where**, **wherever** and **why**. In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined.
e.g. The house, <u>which stood on a hill</u>, could be seen for miles.
I wonder <u>how he did that</u>.

In addition, subordinate clauses may also begin with words which are commonly referred to as **subordinate conjunctions**. In the following examples, the subordinate conjunctions are printed in bold type.
e.g. **Because** it was cold, I wore my winter coat.
Let us wait **until** the rain stops.

The subordinate conjunctions below are accompanied by their meanings and examples of use.

Subordinate Conjunctions

As

1. because: **As** he is my friend, I will help him.
2. when: We watched **as** the plane took off.

After

1. later in time: **After** the train left, we went home.

Although or **though**
1. in spite of the fact that: **Although** it was after midnight, we did not feel tired.

Before
1. earlier than: I arrived **before** the stores were open.

Because
1. for the reason that: We had to wait, **because** we arrived early.

For
1. for, because: He is happy, **for** he enjoys his work.

If
1. on condition that: **If** she is here, we will see her.

Lest
1. for fear that: I watched closely, **lest** he make a mistake.

Note the use of the Subjunctive Mood in the clause with **lest**.

Providing or **provided**
1. on condition that: All will be well, **providing** you are careful.

Since
1. from a past time: I have been here **since** the sun rose.
2. as, because: **Since** you are here, you can help me.

So or **so that**
1. consequently: It was raining, **so** we did not go out.
2. in order that: I am saving money **so** I can buy a bicycle.

Note: When used with the meaning **in order that**, **so** is usually followed by **that** in formal English.
e.g. I am saving money **so that** I can buy a bicycle.

Supposing
1. if: **Supposing** that happens, what will you do?

Than
1. used in comparisons: He is taller **than** you are.

Unless
1. except when, if not: **Unless** he helps us, we cannot succeed.

Until or **till**
1. up to the time when: I will wait **until** I hear from you.

Whereas
1. because: **Whereas** this is a public building, it is open to everyone.
2. on the other hand: He is short, **whereas** you are tall.

Whether
1. if: I do not know **whether** she was invited.

While
1. at the time when: **While** it was snowing, we played cards.
2. on the other hand: He is rich, **while** his friend is poor.
3. although: **While** I am not an expert, I will do my best.

In addition, the following phrases are often used at the beginning of subordinate clauses.

As if
1. in a similar way: She talks **as if** she knows everything.

As long as
1. if: **As long as** we cooperate, we can finish the work easily.
2. while: He has lived there **as long as** I have known him.

As soon as
1. immediately when: Write to me **as soon as** you can.

As though
1. in a similar way: It looks **as though** there will be a storm.

Even if
1. in spite of a possibility: I am going out **even if** it rains.

In case
1. because of a possibility: Take a sweater **in case** it gets cold.

Or else
1. otherwise: Please be careful, **or else** you may have an accident.

So as to
1. in order to: I hurried **so as to** be on time.

See Exercise 3.

Certain words, such as **after**, **before**, **since** and **until** may function either as prepositions or subordinate conjunctions. However it should be noted that in some cases different words must be used as prepositions and subordinate conjunctions, in order to express similar meanings. This is illustrated in the table below.

Differing Prepositions and Conjunctions

Meaning	Preposition	Conjunction
for this reason	because of	because

in spite of this	despite	although
at the time when	during	while
in a similar way	like	as if

In the following examples, the objects of the prepositions, and the verbs of the subordinate clauses are underlined.

Preposition: They were upset **because of** the delay.
Conjunction: They were upset **because** they were delayed.

Preposition: **Despite** the rain, we enjoyed ourselves.
Conjunction: **Although** it rained, we enjoyed ourselves.

Preposition: We stayed indoors **during** the storm.
Conjunction: We stayed indoors **while** the storm raged.

Preposition: It looks **like** rain.
Conjunction: It looks **as if** it will rain.

In the above examples, it can be seen that the prepositions **because of**, **despite**, **during** and **like** have the noun objects **delay**, **rain** and **storm**; whereas the subordinate conjunctions **because**, **although**, **while** and **as if** introduce subordinate clauses containing the verbs **were delayed**, **rained**, **raged** and **will rain**.

It should be noted that **like** is sometimes used as a subordinate conjunction in informal English.
e.g. It looks like it will rain.
However, this use of **like** is considered incorrect in formal English.

See Exercise 4.

4. Connecting adverbs

Connecting adverbs are often used to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in a clause and the ideas expressed in a preceding clause, sentence or paragraph. In the following examples, the connecting adverbs are printed in bold type.
e.g. I wanted to study; **however**, I was too tired.
We knew what to expect. **Therefore**, we were not surprised at what happened.

In the first example, the connecting adverb **however** shows that there is a conflict between the idea expressed in the clause **I was too tired** and the idea expressed in the preceding clause **I wanted to study**. In the second example, the connecting adverb **therefore** shows that there is a cause and effect relationship between the idea expressed in the sentence **we knew what to expect**, and the clause **we were not surprised at what happened**.

Connecting adverbs are similar to conjunctions in that both may be used to introduce clauses. However, the use of connecting adverbs differs from that of conjunctions in the ways indicated below.

a. Stress and punctuation
In spoken English, a connecting adverb is usually given more stress than a conjunction. Correspondingly, in formal written English a connecting adverb is usually separated from the rest of a clause by commas, whereas a conjunction is usually not separated from the rest of a clause by commas.

In addition, in formal written English a clause containing a connecting adverb is often separated from a preceding clause by a semicolon; whereas a clause beginning with a conjunction is usually not separated from a preceding clause by a semicolon.
e.g. I wanted to study; **however**, I was too tired.
I wanted to study, **but** I was too tired.
In the first example, the connecting adverb **however** is preceded by a semicolon, and is separated from **I was too tired** by a comma. In the second example, the conjunction **but** is preceded by a comma rather than by a semicolon, and is not separated from **I was too tired** by a comma.

It should be noted that when no conjunction is present, a semicolon may be used to connect two main clauses. For example:
The clouds dispersed; the moon rose.
In this example, the two main clauses **the clouds dispersed** and **the moon rose** are connected by a semicolon rather than by a conjunction.

b. Connecting adverbs used to connect sentences
Unlike conjunctions, connecting adverbs may be used in formal English to show the relationship between ideas expressed in separate sentences. For example:
The wind was strong. **Thus**, I felt very cold.
In this example, the connecting adverb **thus** shows that there is a cause and effect relationship between the ideas expressed by the two sentences **the wind was strong** and **I felt very cold**.

In informal English, coordinate conjunctions are sometimes used to show the relationship between the ideas expressed in separate sentences. For example:
The wind was strong. And I felt very cold.
However, this use of coordinate conjunctions is considered to be grammatically incorrect in formal English.

c. Position in a clause
A subordinate conjunction must usually be placed at the beginning of a clause. However, as was seen in the discussion on adverbs, a connecting adverb may be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of a clause. This is illustrated below.
e.g. His visit was unexpected. **Nevertheless**, I was pleased to see him.
His visit was unexpected. I was, **nevertheless**, pleased to see him.
His visit was unexpected. I was pleased to see him, **nevertheless**.

d. Examples of connecting adverbs
The following are examples of words which may be used as connecting adverbs. Each connecting adverb is followed by its meaning and an example of its use.

Connecting Adverbs

accordingly: so	He was very persuasive; **accordingly**, I did what he asked.
also: in addition	She is my neighbor; she is **also** my best friend.
besides: in addition	I like the job. **Besides**, I need the money.
consequently: so	She had a fever; **consequently**, she stayed at home.
furthermore: in addition	You should stop smoking. **Furthermore**, you should do it at once!
hence: for that reason	He is a good friend. **Hence**, I was not embarrassed to ask him for help.
however: but	We wanted to arrive on time; **however**, we were delayed by traffic.
likewise: in addition	The region is beautiful. **Likewise**, the climate is excellent.
moreover: in addition	She is very intelligent; **moreover**, she is very ambitious.
nevertheless: but	They are proud. **Nevertheless**, I like them.
nonetheless: but	The ascent was dangerous. **Nonetheless**, he decided to attempt it.
otherwise: if not, or else	We should consult them; **otherwise**, they may be upset.
still: but	It is a long way to the beach. **Still**, it is a fine day to go swimming.
then: 1. next, afterwards	We went shopping, **then** we had lunch.
2. so	If you are sure, **then** I must believe you.
therefore: for that reason	I was nervous; **therefore**, I could not do my best.
thus: so, in this way	He travelled as quickly as possible. **Thus**, he reached Boston the next day.

As indicated in the following table, several connecting adverbs have meanings similar to those of the conjunctions **and**, **but** or **so**.

Connecting Adverbs with meanings similar to And, But and So

Similar to And	Similar to But	Similar to So
also	however	accordingly
besides	nevertheless	consequently
furthermore	nonetheless	hence
likewise	still	therefore
moreover		thus

See Exercises 5 and 6.

5. Parallel construction

The repetition of a particular grammatical construction is often referred to as **parallel construction**. This is illustrated in the following examples.
e.g. I am **neither** angry **nor** excited.
The resort contains tennis courts, swimming pools and a snack bar.

In the first example, the two phrases **neither angry** and **nor excited** exhibit parallel construction. In the second example, the three phrases **tennis courts**, **swimming pools** and **a snack bar** exhibit parallel construction.

In English, it is considered preferable to use parallel construction whenever parallel ideas are expressed.

Thus, whenever possible, parallel construction should be employed when correlative conjunctions are used. In the following example, the correlative conjunctions are printed in bold type.
e.g. Incorrect: He has **both** a good education, **and** he has good work habits.
Corrected: He has **both** a good education **and** good work habits.
The first sentence is incorrect, since **both** and **and** are followed by different grammatical constructions. **Both** is followed by the phrase **a good education**; whereas **and** is followed by the clause **he has good work habits**. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the clause **he has good work habits** into the phrase **good work habits**.

The following example illustrates the use of parallel construction with the correlative conjunctions **neither ... nor**.
e.g. Incorrect: She turned **neither** right **nor** to the left.
Corrected: She turned **neither** right **nor** left.
or Corrected: She turned **neither** to the right **nor** to the left.
The first sentence is incorrect, since **neither** is followed by a single word; whereas **nor** is followed by a prepositional phrase. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the phrase **to the left** to the word **left**. Alternatively, as shown in the third sentence, two prepositional phrases can be used.

See Exercise 7.

Parallel construction should also be used when listing a series of ideas. For example:
Incorrect: The hotel is charming, well-situated and is not expensive.
Corrected: The hotel is charming, well-situated and inexpensive.
The first sentence is incorrect, since the first two items in the series, **charming** and **well-situated**, are adjectives, whereas the last item, **is not expensive**, contains a verb. The second sentence has been corrected by changing **is not expensive** to the adjective **inexpensive**.

The following is another example of the use of parallel construction when listing a series of ideas.
e.g. Incorrect: I like to ski, skating and swimming.
Corrected: I like skiing, skating and swimming.
The first sentence is incorrect, since the first item in the series, **to ski**, is an infinitive, whereas the second and third items, **skating** and **swimming**, are gerunds. The second sentence has been corrected by changing the infinitive **to ski** to the gerund **skiing**.

EXERCISES for Chapter 28

1. Paying attention to the meanings of the sentences, and to the presence of inverted word order, fill in the blanks with the correct coordinate conjunctions chosen from the

pairs given in brackets. For example:

I would like to come, ___ I do not have time. (but, nor)
I would like to come, but I do not have time.

He has not written, ___ has he called me. (but, nor)
He has not written, nor has he called me.

1. I opened the door _____ looked out. (and, yet)
2. She was not in the back yard, _____ was she upstairs. (or, nor)
3. The sun had set, _____ it was still light outside. (or, yet)
4. Do you know his address _____ telephone number? (but, or)
5. He has not arrived yet, _____ have they. (and, nor)
6. I read the book, _____ did not understand it. (but, or)
7. We searched diligently, _____ found nothing. (or, yet)
8. I invited him _____ his friends. (and, but)

Answers

2. Paying attention to the expressions used in the following sentences, fill in the blanks with the words **and**, **but also**, **nor**, **or**, **than**, **then** and **when**, as appropriate. For example:

We should either walk quickly __ take the bus.
We should either walk quickly or take the bus.

I had scarcely sat down ____ the telephone rang.
I had scarcely sat down when the telephone rang.

1. I have both respect _____ admiration for them.
2. Hardly had I finished reading over the problem, _____ the answer leapt to my mind.
3. It will rain either today _____ tomorrow.
4. He could not decide whether to tell the truth _____ keep silent.
5. It was not only a beautiful day, _____ the first day of Spring.
6. If you follow the instructions, _____ you should have no difficulty.
7. He is neither proud _____ condescending.
8. What with one thing _____ another, it was very late by the time we left the house.
9. No sooner had I opened my eyes, _____ I remembered where I was.
10. Scarcely had I heard the news, _____ my friend arrived.
11. I do not know whether he has seen the movie before _____ not.
12. I would rather wait here _____ risk missing the bus.
13. She could find the book neither at the Library, _____ at the bookstore.
14. No sooner had I opened the window, _____ a butterfly flew into the room.
15. The crowd was both large _____ enthusiastic.

Answers

3. Paying attention to the meanings of the sentences, fill in the blanks with the correct subordinate conjunctions or similar expressions chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:

I went for a walk _____ the sun was shining. (because, otherwise)
I went for a walk because the sun was shining.

Do you know _____ the stores are open today? (as if, whether)
Do you know whether the stores are open today?

1. We recognized her at once, _____ we had not seen her for years. (although, in case)
2. He kept reading _____ he fell asleep. (for, until)
3. The moon will rise _____ the sun sets. (as soon as, than)
4. It looks _____ the train will be late. (while, as though)
5. _____ she got her degree, she became a teacher. (After, Than)
6. We will not go skiing _____ the weather is good. (as if, unless)
7. _____ he left, he made sure he had his keys with him. (Before, For)
8. _____ I told the truth, you would not believe me. (Even if, So that)
9. They have known her _____ she was a child. (until, since)
10. I must leave now, _____ I have a great deal of work to do. (as, than)
11. What shall we do _____ it rains? (or else, supposing)
12. _____ you read this book, you would be sure to enjoy it. (If, Until)
13. The door was open, _____ we could hear everything. (in case, so)
14. I studied more _____ he did. (than, whereas)
15. We packed a lunch, _____ we knew we would soon be hungry. (lest, for)
16. I will join you, _____ the weather is fine. (providing, than)
17. _____ he is very busy, he is seldom at home. (Or else, Because)
18. We must hurry, _____ we will be late. (so that, or else)

Answers

4. For each of the following sentences, paying attention to the structure of the sentence, fill in the blank with either the conjunction or the preposition given in brackets. For example:

_____ my warning, they went ahead with their plan. (Although, Despite)
Despite my warning, they went ahead with their plan.

_____ the sun was shining, the water was cold. (Although, Despite)
Although the sun was shining, the water was cold.

The price of oranges is high, _____ frost damage. (because, because of)
The price of oranges is high, because of frost damage. (because, because of)

I went to see the play, _____ it had good reviews. (because, because of)
I went to see the play, because it had good reviews. (because, because of)

1. We stayed up late, _____ we were tired. (although, despite)
2. They went swimming, _____ the coldness of the water. (although, despite)
3. I enjoy the course, _____ the professor is a good teacher. (because, because of)
4. She looks _____ your sister. (as if, like)
5. Please wait _____ I make a phone call. (during, while)
6. Did you hear any noises _____ the night? (during, while)
7. It looked _____ we would not be able to leave until the next day. (as if, like)
8. We all felt tired _____ the hot weather. (because, because of)
9. I read a book _____ I was waiting. (during, while)

10. Her eyes shone _____ stars. (as if, like)
11. They managed to work together, _____ their differences of opinion. (although, despite)
12. I left home early, _____ I had to do several errands. (because, because of)
13. He speaks about the subject _____ he were an expert. (as if, like)
14. We rested _____ the hottest part of the day. (during, while)
15. _____ she lost her way twice, she arrived safely. (Although, Despite)
16. _____ their interest in comets, they decided to study astronomy. (Because, Because of)
Answers

5. Paying attention to the meanings of the sentences, fill in the blanks with the correct connecting adverbs chosen from the pairs given in brackets. For example:

Will you come with me? _____ I shall have to go alone. (Also, Otherwise)
Will you come with me? Otherwise I shall have to go alone.

She is kind. _____, she is rather forgetful. (However, Consequently)
She is kind. However, she is rather forgetful.

1. The work was new to me. _____, it did not seem difficult. (Consequently, Nevertheless)
2. Continue along Queen Street. _____ turn left. (Then, Therefore)
3. It was very misty. _____, we could not get a clear view of the mountain. (Hence, However)
4. We had walked several miles. _____, we did not feel tired. (Accordingly, Still)
5. She is a talented actress. _____, she is very beautiful. (Moreover, Thus)
6. We take the bus every day. _____, we are familiar with the bus route. (Nevertheless, Thus)
7. The child was sleepy. _____, we went home early. (Otherwise, Therefore)
8. The food was delicious. _____, the service was excellent. (Likewise, Nevertheless)
9. We looked everywhere. _____, we could not find the keys. (However, Thus)
10. The book is long. _____, the vocabulary is difficult. (Consequently, Furthermore)
11. Luckily, the moon was bright. _____, we could not have seen the path. (Accordingly, Otherwise)
12. He is old. _____, his mind is still active. (Nonetheless, Therefore)
Answers

6. Paying attention to the structure of the sentences, fill in the blanks with the conjunctions or connecting adverbs given in brackets. Make sure that the sentences conform to the rules of correct formal English. For example:

It was very hot. _____, we decided to go swimming. (Consequently, So)
It was very hot. Consequently, we decided to go swimming.

It was very hot, __ we decided to go swimming. (Consequently, So)
It was very hot, so we decided to go swimming.

1. I have invited him. _____, I have invited his sister. (Also, And)

2. He walked up to the door _____ knocked. (and, likewise)
3. The bus fare is expensive; _____, I prefer to walk. (so, therefore)
4. She is well-educated. _____, she has very good manners. (And, Besides)
5. I would rather travel by train, _____ the bus leaves earlier. (but, however)
6. We were born in this village; _____, we know everyone here. (hence, so that)
7. Put less wood on the fire, _____ it will be too smoky. (or, otherwise)
8. They got off the train. _____ they began to search for a hotel. (And, Then)
9. She studied for many months; _____, she knew the material thoroughly. (consequently, so that)
10. The weather was hot; _____, the air was humid. (and, moreover)
11. Please come with us, _____ I can introduce you to my friends. (thus, so that)
12. The sun was warm, _____ a cool breeze blew in from the sea. (but, however)
13. I have read this book before; _____, I do not remember the plot. (but, however)
14. They were hot _____ tired. (also, and)
15. The door was locked; _____, we would have waited inside. (or, otherwise)
16. I have known her for many years; _____, I understand her character well. (so that, thus)
17. We opened the window _____ fresh air would blow into the room. (consequently, so that)
18. He is ignorant; _____, he is lazy. (and, furthermore)
19. They visited many stores; _____, they could not find what they were looking for. (but, however)
20. You should go to sleep now, _____ you will be tired tomorrow. (or, otherwise)
21. I was worried; _____, I was determined not to show it. (but, nevertheless)

Answers

7. The following sentences are incorrect, because they contain correlative conjunctions, but do not use parallel construction. Rewrite the sentences correctly, using parallel construction. For example:

He owns both a typewriter and he has a word processor.
Corrected: He owns both a typewriter and a word processor.

I prefer either to read or going hiking.
Corrected: I prefer either to read or to go hiking.

1. The train proceeded neither quickly nor was it smooth.
2. They will leave either today or they will go tomorrow.
3. The child hates both getting up in the morning and to go to bed at night.
4. She is neither kind nor has patience.
5. He is not only talented, but also he has charm.
6. The street is lined with both oak trees and there are elm trees.
7. The lecture was not only very long but also it was very dull.
8. You should either eat less, or should exercise more.
9. I am not only proud to be here, but also feel happy to meet you.
10. The town is both historical and it is picturesque.

Answers

8. The following sentences are incorrect, because they present lists of ideas, but do not use parallel construction. Rewrite the sentences correctly, using parallel construction. For example:

The air was cool, dry, and was clear.
Corrected: The air was cool, dry, and clear.

He has started making kites and to fly them.
Corrected: He has started making kites and flying them.

1. We walked out of the door, down the steps and went across the street.
2. She loves singing, dancing and to play the piano.
3. The wind moaned, shrieked and was howling.
4. The music was fast, brilliant and sounded exciting.
5. He proposes to borrow money, open a store and going into business.
6. The town boasts four libraries, two theaters and there are many schools.
7. The clouds were thick, black and looked threatening.
8. He likes running, jumping and to ride a bicycle.
9. They worked carefully, quickly and were quiet.
10. The vegetables were fresh, tender and tasted delicious.

Answers

ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISES for Chapter 28

Answers to Exercise 1:
1. and 2. nor 3. yet 4. or 5. nor 6. but 7. yet 8. and

Answers to Exercise 2:
1. and 2. when 3. or 4. or 5. but also 6. then 7. nor 8. and 9. than 10. when 11. or 12. than 13. nor 14. than 15. and

Answers to Exercise 3:
1. although 2. until 3. as soon as 4. as though 5. After 6. unless 7. Before 8. Even if 9. since 10. as 11. supposing 12. If 13. so 14. than 15. for 16. providing 17. Because 18. or else

Answers to Exercise 4:
1. although 2. despite 3. because 4. like 5. while 6. during 7. as if 8. because of 9. while 10. like 11. despite 12. because 13. as if 14. during 15. Although 16. Because of

Answers to Exercise 5:
1. Nevertheless 2. Then 3. Hence 4. Still 5. Moreover 6. Thus 7. Therefore 8. Likewise 9. However 10. Furthermore 11. Otherwise 12. Nonetheless

Answers to Exercise 6:
1. Also 2. and 3. therefore 4. Besides 5. but 6. hence 7. or 8. Then 9. consequently 10. moreover 11. so that 12. but 13. however 14. and 15. otherwise 16. thus 17. so that 18.

furthermore 19. however 20. or 21. nevertheless

Answers to Exercise 7:
1. The train proceeded neither quickly nor smoothly. 2. They will leave either today or tomorrow. 3. The child hates both getting up in the morning and going to bed at night. 4. She is neither kind nor patient. 5. He is not only talented, but also charming. 6. The street is lined with both oak trees and elm trees. 7. The lecture was not only very long but also very dull. 8. You should either eat less, or exercise more. 9. I am not only proud to be here, but also happy to meet you. 10. The town is both historical and picturesque.

Answers to Exercise 8:
1. We walked out of the door, down the steps and across the street. 2. She loves singing, dancing and playing the piano. 3. The wind moaned, shrieked and howled. 4. The music was fast, brilliant and exciting. 5. He proposes to borrow money, open a store and go into business. 6. The town boasts four libraries, two theaters and many schools. 7. The clouds were thick, black and threatening. 8. He likes running, jumping and riding a bicycle. 9. They worked carefully, quickly and quietly. 10. The vegetables were fresh, tender and delicious.

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you're
you've
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your
yours
yourself
yourselves

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN USE

A self-study reference and practice book for intermediate learners of English

with answers

Fifth Edition

Raymond Murphy

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Thanks

This is the fifth edition of *English Grammar in Use*. I wrote the original edition when I was a teacher at the Swan School of English, Oxford. I would like to repeat my thanks to my former colleagues and students at the school for their help, encouragement and interest at that time.

Regarding the production of this fifth edition, I would like to thank Rebecca Winthrop and Chris Capper.

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To the student

This book is for students who want help with English grammar. It is written for you to use without a teacher.

The book will be useful for you if you are not sure of the answers to questions like these:

- What is the difference between *I did* and *I have done*?
- When do we use *will* for the future?
- What is the structure after *I wish*?
- When do we say *used to do* and when do we say *used to doing*?
- When do we use *the*?
- What is the difference between *like* and *as*?

These and many other points of English grammar are explained in the book, and there are exercises on each point.

Level

The book is intended mainly for *intermediate* students (students who have already studied the basic grammar of English). It concentrates on those structures that intermediate students want to use, but that often cause difficulty. Some advanced students who have problems with grammar will also find the book useful.

The book is *not* suitable for elementary learners.

How the book is organised

There are 145 units in the book. Each unit concentrates on a particular point of grammar. Some problems (for example, the present perfect or the use of *the*) are covered in more than one unit. For a list of units, see the *Contents* at the beginning of the book.

Each unit consists of two facing pages. On the left there are explanations and examples; on the right there are exercises. At the back of the book there is an Answer Key for you to check your answers to the exercises (page 336).

There are also seven *Appendices* at the back of the book (pages 292–301). These include irregular verbs, summaries of verb forms, spelling, and American English.

Finally, there is a detailed *Index* at the back of the book (page 373).

How to use the book

The units are not in order of difficulty, so it is not intended that you work through the book from beginning to end. Every learner has different problems, and you should use this book to help you with the grammar that *you* find difficult.

It is suggested that you work in this way:

- Use the *Contents* and/or *Index* to find which unit deals with the point you are interested in.
- If you are not sure which units you need to study, use the *Study guide* on page 326.
- Study the explanations and examples on the left-hand page of the unit you have chosen.
- Do the exercises on the right-hand page.
- Check your answers with the *Key*.
- If your answers are not correct, study the left-hand page again to see what went wrong.

You can, of course, use the book simply as a reference book without doing the exercises.

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Additional exercises

At the back of the book there are *Additional exercises* (pages 302–325). These exercises bring together some of the grammar points from a number of different units. For example, Exercise 16 brings together grammar points from Units 26–36. You can use these exercises for extra practice after you have studied and practised the grammar in the units concerned.

ebook

An ebook version of *English Grammar in Use* is also available to buy.

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To the teacher

English Grammar in Use was written as a self-study grammar book, but teachers may also find it useful as additional course material in cases where further work on grammar is necessary.

The book will probably be most useful at middle- and upper-intermediate levels (where all or nearly all of the material will be relevant), and can serve both as a basis for revision and as a means for practising new structures. It will also be useful for some more advanced students who have problems with grammar and need a book for reference and practice. The book is not intended to be used by elementary learners.

The units are organised in grammatical categories (*Present and past*, *Articles and nouns*, *Prepositions* etc.). They are not ordered according to level of difficulty, so the book should not be worked through from beginning to end. It should be used selectively and flexibly in accordance with the grammar syllabus being used and the difficulties students are having.

The book can be used for immediate consolidation or for later revision or remedial work. It might be used by the whole class or by individual students needing extra help. The left-hand pages (explanations and examples) are written for the student to use individually, but they may of course be used by the teacher as a source of ideas and information on which to base a lesson. The student then has the left-hand page as a record of what has been taught and can refer to it in the future. The exercises can be done individually, in class or as homework. Alternatively (and additionally), individual students can be directed to study certain units of the book by themselves if they have particular difficulties not shared by other students in their class. Don't forget the *Additional exercises* at the back of the book (see **To the student**).

English Grammar in Use Fifth Edition

This is a new edition of English Grammar in Use. The differences between this edition and the fourth edition are:

- Much of the material has been revised or reorganised, and in most units there are changes in the examples, explanations and exercises.
- The book has been redesigned with new, updated illustrations.
- There is a new ebook available with all the contents of the book as well as audio, access to a dictionary and more.

An edition of English Grammar in Use without the Key is also available. Some teachers may prefer to use this with their students.

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Unit 1

Present continuous (**I am doing**)

A Study this example situation:

Sarah is in her car. She is on her way to work.
She**'s driving** to work. (= She **is driving** . . .)

This means: she is driving *now*, at the time of speaking.
The action is not finished.

am/**is**/**are + -ing** is the *present continuous*:

I	**am**	(= I**'m**)	**driving**
he/she/it	**is**	(= he**'s** etc.)	**working**
we/you/they	**are**	(= we**'re** etc.)	**doing** etc.

B **I am doing** something = I started doing it and I haven't finished; I'm in the middle of doing it.

- Please don't make so much noise. I**'m trying** to work. (*not* I try)
- 'Where's Mark?' 'He**'s having** a shower.' (*not* He has a shower)
- Let's go out now. It **isn't raining** any more. (*not* It doesn't rain)
- How's your new job? **Are** you **enjoying** it?
- What's all that noise? What**'s going** on? *or* What**'s happening**?

Sometimes the action is not happening at the time of speaking. For example:

Steve is talking to a friend on the phone. He says:

Steve says '**I'm reading** . . .' but he is *not* reading the book at the time of speaking.
He means that he has started reading the book, but has not finished it yet. He is in the middle of reading it.

Some more examples:

- Kate wants to work in Italy, so she**'s learning** Italian.
  (but perhaps she isn't learning Italian at the time of speaking)
- Some friends of mine **are building** their own house. They hope to finish it next summer.

C You can use the present continuous with **today** / **this week** / **this year** etc. (periods around now):

- A: You**'re working** hard **today**. (*not* You work hard today)
  B: Yes, I have a lot to do.
- The company I work for **isn't doing** so well **this year**.

D We use the present continuous when we talk about a change that has started to happen. We often use these verbs in this way:

getting, **becoming** **changing**, **improving**
starting, **beginning** **increasing**, **rising**, **falling**, **growing**

- Is your English **getting** better? (*not* Does your English get better)
- The population of the world **is increasing** very fast. (*not* increases)
- At first I didn't like my job, but I**'m starting** to enjoy it now. (*not* I start)

>> Present continuous and present simple ➜ **Units 3–4** Present tenses for the future ➜ **Unit 19**

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Exercises

1.1 **What's happening in the pictures? Choose from these verbs:**

cross hide scratch ~~take~~ tie wave

1 She's taking a picture.
2 He ..... a shoelace.
3 ..... the road.
4 ..... his head.
5 ..... behind a tree.
6 ..... to somebody.

1.2 **The sentences on the right follow those on the left. Which sentence goes with which?**

1 Please don't make so much noise.	a I'm getting hungry.	1 f
2 We need to leave soon.	b They're lying.	2 .....
3 I don't have anywhere to live right now.	c It's starting to rain.	3 .....
4 I need to eat something soon.	d They're trying to sell it.	4 .....
5 They don't need their car any more.	e It's getting late.	5 .....
6 Things are not so good at work.	f ~~I'm trying to work.~~	6 .....
7 It isn't true what they say.	g I'm staying with friends.	7 .....
8 We're going to get wet.	h The company is losing money.	8 .....

1.3 **Write questions. Use the present continuous.**

1 What's all that noise? What's happening? (what / happen?)
2 What's the matter? ..... (why / you / cry?)
3 Where's your mother? ..... (she / work / today?)
4 I haven't seen you for ages. ..... (what / you / do / these days?)
5 Amy is a student. ..... (what / she / study?)
6 Who are those people? ..... (what / they / do?)
7 I heard you started a new job. ..... (you / enjoy / it?)
8 We're not in a hurry. ..... (why / you / walk / so fast?)

1.4 **Put the verb into the correct form, positive (I'm doing etc.) or negative (I'm not doing etc.).**

1 Please don't make so much noise. I'm trying (I / try) to work.
2 Let's go out now. It isn't raining (it / rain) any more.
3 You can turn off the radio. ..... (I / listen) to it.
4 Kate phoned last night. She's on holiday with friends. ..... (She / have) a great time and doesn't want to come back.
5 Andrew started evening classes recently. ..... (He / learn) Japanese.
6 Paul and Sarah have had an argument and now ..... (they / speak) to one another.
7 The situation is already very bad and now ..... (it / get) worse.
8 Tim ..... (work) today. He's taken the day off.
9 ..... (I / look) for Sophie. Do you know where she is?
10 The washing machine has been repaired. ..... (It / work) now.
11 ..... (They / build) a new hospital. It will be finished next year.
12 Ben is a student, but he's not very happy. ..... (He / enjoy) his course.
13 ..... (The weather / change). Look at those clouds. I think it's going to rain.
14 Dan has been in the same job for a long time. ..... (He / start) to get bored with it.

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Unit 2

Present simple (**I do**)

A Study this example situation:

Alex is a bus driver, but now he is in bed asleep.
He is not driving a bus. (He is asleep.)

but He **drives** a bus. He is a bus driver.

drive(**s**), **work**(**s**), **do**(**es**) etc. is the *present simple*:

I/we/you/they	**drive**/**work**/**do** etc.
he/she/it	**drives**/**works**/**does** etc.

B We use the present simple to talk about things in general. We use it to say that something happens all the time or repeatedly, or that something is true in general:

- Nurses **look** after patients in hospitals.
- I usually **go** away at weekends.
- The earth **goes** round the sun.
- The cafe **opens** at 7.30 in the morning.

We say:

I **work**	*but*	he **works**	you **go**	*but*	it **goes**
they **teach**	*but*	my sister **teaches**	I **have**	*but*	he **has**

For spelling (-**s** or -**es**), see Appendix 6.

C We use **do**/**does** to make questions and negative sentences:

do / **does**	I/we/you/they / he/she/it	**work**? / **drive**? / **do**?

I/we/you/they / he/she/it	**don't** / **doesn't**	**work** / **drive** / **do**

- I come from Canada. Where **do** you **come** from?
- I **don't go** away very often.
- What **does** this word **mean**? (*not* What means this word?)
- Rice **doesn't grow** in cold climates.

In the following examples, **do** is also the main verb (do you **do** / doesn't **do** etc.):

- 'What **do** you **do**?' 'I work in a shop.'
- He's always so lazy. He **doesn't do** anything to help.

D We use the present simple to say how often we do things:

- **I get** up at 8 o'clock **every morning**.
- **How often do** you **go** to the dentist?
- Julie **doesn't drink** tea **very often**.
- Robert usually **goes** away **two or three times a year**.

E **I promise** / **I apologise** etc.

Sometimes we do things by saying something. For example, when you promise to do something, you can say '**I promise** ...'; when you suggest something, you can say '**I suggest** ...':

- **I promise** I won't be late. (*not* I'm promising)
- 'What do **you suggest** I do?' '**I suggest** that you ...'

In the same way we say: **I apologise** ... / **I advise** ... / **I insist** ... / **I agree** ... / **I refuse** ... etc.

>> Present simple and present continuous ➜ **Units 3–4** Present tenses for the future ➜ **Unit 19**

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Exercises

2.1 Complete the sentences using the following verbs:

cause(s) close(s) connect(s) go(es) live(s) ~~speak(s)~~ take(s)

1 Tanya ....speaks.... German very well.
2 Ben and Jack ..... to the same school.
3 Bad driving ..... many accidents.
4 The museum ..... at 4 o'clock on Sundays.
5 My parents ..... in a very small flat.
6 The Olympic Games ..... place every four years.
7 The Panama Canal ..... the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

2.2 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 Julia ....doesn't drink.... (not / drink) tea very often.
2 What time ..... (the banks / close) here?
3 I have a car, but I ..... (not / use) it much.
4 Where ..... (Maria / come) from? Is she Spanish?
5 'What ..... (you / do)?' 'I'm an electrician.'
6 Look at this sentence. What ..... (this word / mean)?
7 David isn't very fit. He ..... (not / do) any sport.
8 It ..... (take) me an hour to get to work in the morning. How long ..... (it / take) you?

2.3 Complete the sentences using these verbs. Sometimes you need the negative.

believe eat flow ~~go~~ ~~grow~~ make rise tell translate

1 The earth ....goes.... round the sun.
2 Rice ....doesn't grow.... in cold climates.
3 The sun ..... in the east.
4 Bees ..... honey.
5 Vegetarians ..... meat.
6 An atheist ..... in God.
7 An interpreter ..... from one language into another.
8 Liars are people who ..... the truth.
9 The River Amazon ..... into the Atlantic Ocean.

2.4 You ask Lisa questions about herself and her family. Write the questions.

1 You know that Lisa plays tennis. You want to know how often. Ask her.
How often ....do you play tennis.... ?
2 Perhaps Lisa's sister plays tennis too. You want to know. Ask Lisa.
..... your sister ..... ?
3 You know that Lisa goes to the cinema a lot. You want to know how often. Ask her.
..... ?
4 You know that Lisa's brother works. You want to know what he does. Ask Lisa.
..... ?
5 You're not sure whether Lisa speaks Spanish. You want to know. Ask her.
..... ?
6 You don't know where Lisa's grandparents live. You want to know. Ask Lisa.
..... ?

2.5 Complete using the following:

I agree I apologise I insist I promise I recommend ~~I suggest~~

1 Mr Evans is not in the office today. ....I suggest.... you try calling him tomorrow.
2 I won't tell anybody what you said. ..... .
3 *(in a restaurant)* You must let me pay for the meal. ..... .
4 ..... for what I said. I shouldn't have said it.
5 The new restaurant in Baker Street is very good. ..... it.
6 I think you're absolutely right. ..... with you.

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Unit 3 Present continuous and present simple 1 (**I am doing** and **I do**)

A

Compare:

present continuous (**I am doing**)

We use the continuous for things happening at or around the time of speaking.
The action is not complete.

I am doing

past — *now* — *future*

- The water **is boiling**. Be careful.
- Listen to those people. What language **are** they **speaking**?
- Let's go out. It **isn't raining** now.
- 'I'm busy.' 'What **are** you **doing**?'
- I'**m getting** hungry. Let's go and eat.
- Kate wants to work in Italy, so she'**s learning** Italian.
- The population of the world **is increasing** very fast.

We use the continuous for *temporary* situations (things that continue for a short time):

- I'**m living** with some friends until I find a place of my own.
- A: You'**re working** hard today.
  B: Yes, I have a lot to do.

See Unit 1 for more information.

present simple (**I do**)

We use the simple for things in general or things that happen repeatedly.

I do

past — *now* — *future*

- Water **boils** at 100 degrees Celsius.
- Excuse me, **do** you **speak** English?

- It **doesn't rain** very much in summer.
- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?
- I always **get** hungry in the afternoon.
- Most people **learn** to swim when they are children.
- Every day the population of the world **increases** by about 200,000 people.

We use the simple for *permanent* situations (things that continue for a long time):

- My parents **live** in London. They have lived there all their lives.
- Joe isn't lazy. He **works** hard most of the time.

See Unit 2 for more information.

B

I always do and **I'm always doing**

I **always do** something = I do it every time:

- I **always go** to work by car. (*not* I'm always going)

I'**m always doing** something = I do it too often or more often than normal.
For example:

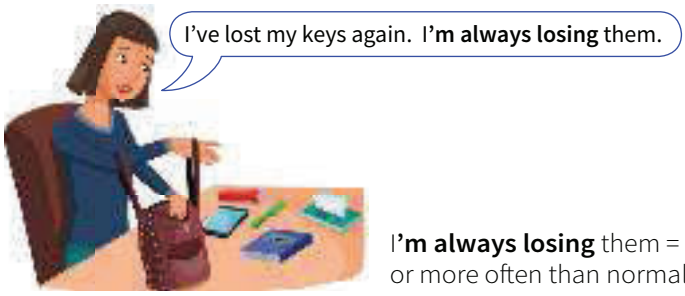

I'**m always losing** them = I lose them too often, or more often than normal.

- Paul is never satisfied. He'**s always complaining**. (= he complains too much)
- You'**re always looking** at your phone. Don't you have anything else to do?

>> Present continuous and simple 2 ➜ **Unit 4** Present tenses for the future ➜ **Unit 19**

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Exercises

3.1 **Are the underlined verbs OK? Correct them where necessary.**

1 Water boils at 100 degrees Celsius. OK
2 How often are you going to the cinema? do you go
3 Ben tries to find a job, but he hasn't had any luck yet. .....
4 Martina is phoning her mother every day. .....
5 The moon goes round the earth in about 27 days. .....
6 Can you hear those people? What do they talk about? .....
7 What do you do in your spare time? .....
8 Sarah is a vegetarian. She doesn't eat meat. .....
9 I must go now. It gets late. .....
10 'Come on! It's time to leave.' 'OK, I come.' .....
11 Paul is never late. He's always starting work on time. .....
12 They don't get on well. They're always arguing. .....

3.2 **Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.**

1 a I usually get (I / usually / get) hungry in the afternoon.
b I'm getting (I / get) hungry. Let's go and eat something.
2 a '.....(you / listen) to the radio?' 'No, you can turn it off.'
b '.....(you / listen) to the radio a lot?' 'No, not very often.'
3 a The River Nile .....(flow) into the Mediterranean.
b The river .....(flow) very fast today – much faster than usual.
4 a I'm not very active. .....(I / not / do) any sport.
b What .....(you / usually / do) at weekends?
5 a Rachel is in New York right now. .....(She / stay) at the Park Hotel.
b .....(She / always / stay) there when she's in New York.

3.3 **Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.**

1 Why are all these people here? What's happening (What / happen)?
2 Julia is good at languages. .....(She / speak) four languages very well.
3 Are you ready yet? .....(Everybody / wait) for you.
4 I've never heard this word. How .....(you / pronounce) it?
5 Kate .....(not / work) this week. She's on holiday.
6 I think my English .....(improve) slowly. It's better than it was.
7 Nicola .....(live) in Manchester. She has never lived anywhere else.
8 Can we stop walking soon? .....(I / start) to get tired.
9 Sam and Tina are in Madrid right now. .....(They / visit) a friend of theirs.
10 'What .....(your father / do)?' 'He's an architect.'
11 It took me an hour to get to work this morning. Most days .....
(it / not / take) so long.
12 I .....(I / learn) to drive. My driving test is next month. My father
.....(teach) me.

3.4 **Finish B's sentences. Use always -ing.**

1 A: I've lost my keys again.
B: Not again! You're always losing your keys.
2 A: The car has broken down again.
B: That car is useless. It .....
3 A: Look! You've made the same mistake again.
B: Oh no, not again! I .....
4 A: Oh, I've left my phone at home again.
B: Typical! .....

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Unit 4

Present continuous and present simple 2 (**I am doing** and **I do**)

A

We use continuous forms (**I'm waiting**, it**'s raining** etc.) for actions and happenings that have started but not finished.
Some verbs (for example, **know** and **like**) are not normally used in this way. We don't say 'I am knowing', 'they are liking'. We say 'I **know**', 'they **like**'.

The following verbs are not normally used in the present continuous:

like	**want**	**need**	**prefer**	
know	**realise**	**understand**	**recognise**	
believe	**suppose**	**remember**	**mean**	
belong	**fit**	**contain**	**consist**	**seem**

- I'm hungry. I **want** something to eat. (*not* I'm wanting)
- **Do** you **understand** what I **mean**?
- Anna **doesn't seem** very happy right now.

B

think

When **think** means 'believe' or 'have an opinion', we do not use the continuous:
- I **think** Mary is Canadian, but I'm not sure. (*not* I'm thinking)
- What **do** you **think** of my idea? (= what is your opinion?)

When **think** means 'consider', the continuous is possible:
- I'**m thinking** about what happened. I often **think** about it.
- Nicky **is thinking** of giving up her job. (= she is considering it)

C

see **hear** **smell** **taste** **look** **feel**

We normally use the present simple (not continuous) with **see**/**hear**/**smell**/**taste**:
- **Do** you **see** that man over there? (*not* are you seeing)
- The room **smells**. Let's open a window.
- This soup **doesn't taste** very good.

You can use the present simple or continuous to say how somebody **looks** or **feels** now:
- You **look** well today. *or* You**'re looking** well today.
- How **do** you **feel** now? *or* How **are** you **feeling** now?

but

- I usually **feel** tired in the morning. (*not* I'm usually feeling)

D

am/**is**/**are being**

You can say **he's being** . . . , **you're being** . . . etc. to say how somebody is behaving *now*:
- I can't understand why he**'s being** so selfish. He isn't usually like that.
  (**being** selfish = behaving selfishly now)
- 'The path is icy. Don't slip.' 'Don't worry. I**'m being** very careful.'

Compare:
- He never thinks about other people. He**'s** very selfish.
  (= he is selfish generally, not only now)
- I don't like to take risks. I**'m** a very careful person.

We use **am**/**is**/**are being** to say how a person is *behaving* (= doing something they can control) now.
It is not usually possible in other situations:
- Sam **is** ill. (*not* is being ill)
- **Are** you tired? (*not* are you being tired)

Present continuous and simple 1 ➜ **Unit 3** **have** ➜ **Unit 17** Present tenses for the future ➜ **Unit 19**

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Exercises

4.1 Put the verb into the correct form, present continuous or present simple.

1 Are you hungry? Do you want (you / want) something to eat?
2 Alan says he's 90 years old, but nobody ..... (believe) him.
3 She told me her name, but ..... (I / not / remember) it now.
4 Don't put the dictionary away. ..... (I / use) it.
5 Don't put the dictionary away. ..... (I / need) it.
6 Air ..... (consist) mainly of nitrogen and oxygen.
7 Who is that man? What ..... (he / want)?
8 Who is that man? Why ..... (he / look) at us?
9 Who is that man? ..... (you / recognise) him?
10 ..... (I / think) of selling my car. Would you be interested in buying it?
11 I can't make up my mind. What ..... (you / think) I should do?
12 Gary wasn't well earlier, but ..... (he / seem) OK now.

4.2 Use the words in brackets to make sentences.

4.3 Are the underlined verbs OK? Correct them where necessary.

1 Nicky is thinking of giving up her job. OK
2 It's not true. I'm not believing it. I don't believe it.
3 I'm feeling hungry. Is there anything to eat? .....
4 I've never eaten that fruit. What is it tasting like? .....
5 I'm not sure what she does. I think she works in a shop. .....
6 Look over there. What are you seeing? .....
7 You're very quiet. What are you thinking about? .....

4.4 Complete the sentences. Use is/are being (continuous) or is/are (simple).

1 I can't understand why he's being so selfish. He isn't usually like that.
2 You'll like Sophie when you meet her. She ..... very nice.
3 Sarah ..... very nice to me at the moment. I wonder why.
4 They ..... very happy. They've just got married.
5 You're normally very patient, so why ..... so unreasonable about waiting ten more minutes?
6 Would you like something to eat? ..... hungry?

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Unit 5

Past simple (**I did**)

A Study this example:

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart **was** an Austrian musician and composer. He **lived** from 1756 to 1791. He **started** composing at the age of five and **wrote** more than 600 pieces of music. He **was** only 35 years old when he **died**.

lived/**started**/**wrote**/**was**/**died** are all *past simple*

B Very often the past simple ends in **-ed** (*regular* verbs):

- I work in a travel agency now. Before that I **worked** in a department store.
- They **invited** us to their party, but we **decided** not to go.
- The police **stopped** me on my way home last night.
- Laura **passed** her exam because she **studied** very hard.

For spelling (sto**pp**ed, stud**ied** etc.), see Appendix 6.

But many verbs are *irregular*. The past simple does *not* end in **-ed**. For example:

write → **wrote**	Mozart **wrote** more than 600 pieces of music.
see → **saw**	We **saw** Alice in town a few days ago.
go → **went**	I **went** to the cinema three times last week.
shut → **shut**	It was cold, so I **shut** the window.

For a list of irregular verbs, see Appendix 1.

C In questions and negative sentences we use **did**/**didn't** + infinitive (**enjoy**/**see**/**go** etc.):

I	enjoy**ed**		you	**enjoy**?	I		**enjoy**
she	**saw**	**did**	she	**see**?	she	**didn't**	**see**
they	**went**		they	**go**?	they		**go**

- I enjoyed the party a lot. **Did** you **enjoy** it?
- How many people **did** they **invite** to the wedding?
- I **didn't buy** anything because I **didn't have** any money.
- '**Did** you **go** out?' 'No, I **didn't**.'

Sometimes **do** is the main verb in the sentence (did you **do**?, I didn't **do**):

- What **did** you **do** at the weekend? (*not* What did you at the weekend?)
- I **didn't do** anything. (*not* I didn't anything)

D The past of **be** (**am**/**is**/**are**) is **was**/**were**:

I/he/she/it	**was**/**wasn't**	**was**	I/he/she/it?
we/you/they	**were**/**weren't**	**were**	we/you/they?

- **I was** annoyed because **they were** late.
- **Was the weather** good when **you were** on holiday?
- **They weren't** able to come because **they were** so busy.
- **I wasn't** hungry, so I didn't eat anything.
- Did you go out last night or **were you** too tired?

>> Past simple and past continuous ➜ **Unit 6** Past simple and present perfect ➜ **Units 12–14**

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Exercises

5.1 **Read what Laura says about a typical working day:**

I usually get up at 7 o'clock and have a big breakfast. I walk to work, which takes me about half an hour. I start work at 8.45. I never have lunch. I finish work at 5 o'clock. I'm always tired when I get home. I usually cook a meal in the evening. I don't usually go out. I go to bed at about 11 o'clock, and I always sleep well.

Yesterday was a typical working day for Laura. Write what she did or didn't do yesterday.

1 She got up ..... at 7 o'clock.
2 She ..... a big breakfast.
3 She ..... .
4 It ..... to get to work.
5 ..... at 8.45.
6 ..... lunch.
7 ..... at 5 o'clock.
8 ..... tired when ..... home.
9 ..... a meal yesterday evening.
10 ..... out yesterday evening.
11 ..... at 11 o'clock.
12 ..... well last night.

5.2 **Complete the sentences using the following verbs in the correct form:**

buy **catch** **cost** **fall** **hurt** **sell** **spend** **teach** **throw** ~~**write**~~

1 Mozart ..... wrote ..... more than 600 pieces of music.
2 'How did you learn to drive?' 'My father ..... me.'
3 We couldn't afford to keep our car, so we ..... it.
4 Dave ..... down the stairs this morning and ..... his leg.
5 Joe ..... the ball to Sue, who ..... it.
6 Kate ..... a lot of money yesterday. She ..... a dress which ..... £100.

5.3 **You ask James about his holiday in the US. Write your questions.**

1 YOU: Where ..... did you go ..... ?
JAMES: To the US. We went on a trip from San Francisco to Denver.
2 YOU: How ..... ? By car?
JAMES: Yes, we hired a car in San Francisco.
3 YOU: It's a long way to drive. How long ..... ?
JAMES: Two weeks. We stopped at a lot of places along the way.
4 YOU: Where ..... ? In hotels?
JAMES: Yes, small hotels or motels.
5 YOU: ..... good?
JAMES: Yes, but it was very hot – sometimes too hot.
6 YOU: ..... the Grand Canyon?
JAMES: Of course. It was wonderful.

5.4 **Complete the sentences. Put the verb into the correct form, positive or negative.**

1 It was warm, so I ..... took ..... off my coat. (take)
2 The film wasn't very good. I ..... didn't enjoy ..... it much. (enjoy)
3 I knew Sarah was busy, so I ..... her. (disturb)
4 We were very tired, so we ..... the party early. (leave)
5 It was hard carrying the bags. They ..... really heavy. (be)
6 The bed was very uncomfortable. I ..... well. (sleep)
7 This watch wasn't expensive. It ..... much. (cost)
8 The window was open and a bird ..... into the room. (fly)
9 I was in a hurry, so I ..... time to call you. (have)
10 I didn't like the hotel. The room ..... very clean. (be)

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Unit 6

Past continuous (**I was doing**)

A Study this example situation:

Yesterday Karen and Joe played tennis. They started at 10 o'clock and finished at 11.30.
So, at 10.30 they **were playing** tennis.

they **were playing** =
they were in the middle of playing, they had not finished

was/**were + -ing** is the past continuous:

he/she/it	**was**	**playing** **doing** **working** etc.
we/you/they	**were**	

B I **was doing** something = I was in the middle of doing it at a certain time. The action or situation started before this time, but had not finished:

I started doing — **I was doing** — **I finished doing**

past — *past* — *now*

- This time last year I **was living** in Hong Kong.
- What **were** you **doing** at 10 o'clock last night?
- I waved to Helen, but she **wasn't looking**.

C Compare I **was doing** (*past continuous*) and I **did** (*past simple*):

I **was doing** (= in the middle of an action)

- We were **walking** home when I met Dan. (in the middle of walking home)
- Kate **was watching** TV when we arrived.

I **did** (= complete action)

- We **walked** home after the party last night. (= all the way, completely)
- Kate **watched** TV a lot when she was ill last year.

D You can say that something **happened** (past simple) in the middle of something else (past continuous):

- Matt **phoned** while we **were having** dinner.
- It **was raining** when I **got** up.
- I **saw** you in the park yesterday. You **were sitting** on the grass and **reading** a book.
- I **hurt** my back while I **was working** in the garden.

But we use the past simple to say that one thing happened *after* another:

- I **was walking** along the road when I **saw** Dan. So I **stopped**, and we **talked** for a while.

Compare:

- When Karen arrived, we **were having** dinner. (= we had already started before she arrived)
- When Karen arrived, we **had** dinner. (= Karen arrived, and then we had dinner)

E Some verbs (for example, **know** and **want**) are not normally used in continuous forms (**is** + **-ing**, **was** + **-ing** etc.). See Unit 4A for a list of these verbs.

- We were good friends. We **knew** each other well. (*not* we were knowing)
- I was enjoying the party, but Chris **wanted** to go home. (*not* was wanting)

>> Past simple (**I did**) ➜ **Unit 5**

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Exercises

6.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

was looking	~~was wearing~~	wasn't listening	weren't looking
was snowing	was working	were sitting	were you going

1 Today Helen is wearing a skirt. Yesterday she ...was wearing... trousers.
2 'What did he say?' 'I don't know. I .....'
3 We ..... at the back of the theatre. We couldn't hear very well.
4 This time last year Steve ..... on a farm.
5 They didn't see me. They ..... in my direction.
6 The weather was bad. It was very cold and it .....
7 I saw you in your car. Where .....?
8 I saw Kate a few minutes ago. She ..... for you.

6.2 Which goes with which?

1 When I got to the cafe	a when she was living in Rome.	1 ...f...
2 We fell asleep	b she was working in a clothes shop.	2 .....
3 Amy learnt Italian	c when I was driving home.	3 .....
4 Tom didn't come out with us	d but nobody was watching it.	4 .....
5 The car began to make a strange noise	e while we were watching a film.	5 .....
6 The TV was on	f ~~my friends were waiting for me.~~	6 .....
7 When I first met Jessica	g because he wasn't feeling well.	7 .....

6.3 Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

I ...saw... (see) Sue in town yesterday, but she ..... (not/see) me. She ..... (look) the other way.

I ..... (cycle) home yesterday when a man ..... (step) out into the road in front of me. I ..... (go) quite fast, but luckily I ..... (manage) to stop in time, and I ..... (not/hit) him.

6.4 Put the verb into the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

1 Jenny ...was waiting... (wait) for me when I ...arrived... (arrive).
2 'What ..... (you / do) at this time yesterday?' 'I was asleep.'
3 '..... (you / go) out last night?' 'No, I was too tired.'
4 How fast ..... (you / drive) when the accident ..... (happen)?
5 Sam ..... (take) a picture of me while I ..... (not / look).
6 We were in a very difficult position. We ..... (not / know) what to do, so we ..... (do) nothing.
7 I haven't seen Alan for ages. When I last ..... (see) him, he ..... (try) to find a job.
8 I ..... (walk) along the street when suddenly I ..... (hear) something behind me. Somebody ..... (follow) me. I was scared and I ..... (start) to run.
9 When I was young, I ..... (want) to be a pilot. Later I ..... (change) my mind.
10 Last night I ..... (drop) a plate when I ..... (do) the washing up. Fortunately it ..... (not / break).

➜ **Additional exercise 1** (page 302)

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Unit 7

Present perfect 1 (**I have done**)

A Study this example situation:

Tom can't find his key.
He**'s lost** his key. (= He **has lost** . . .)

he **has lost** his key =
he lost it and he doesn't have it now

have lost / **has lost** is the *present perfect simple*:

I/we/they/you	**have** (= I**'ve** etc.)	**finished** **lost** **done** **been** etc.
he/she/it	**has** (= he**'s** etc.)	

The present perfect simple is **have**/**has** + *past participle*. The past participle often ends in -**ed** (finish**ed**/decid**ed** etc.), but many verbs are *irregular* (**lost**/**done**/**written** etc.).

For a list of irregular verbs, see Appendix 1.

B When we say 'something **has happened**', this is usually new information:

- Ow! I**'ve cut** my finger.
- The road is closed. There**'s been** an accident. (= There **has been** . . .)
- Police **have arrested** two men in connection with the robbery.

When we use the present perfect, there is a connection with *now*. The action in the past has a result *now*:

- Tom **has lost** his key. (= he doesn't have it *now*)
- He told me his name, but I**'ve forgotten** it. (= I can't remember it *now*)
- Sally is still here. She **hasn't gone** out. (= she is here *now*)
- I can't find my bag. **Have** you **seen** it? (= do you know where it is *now*?)

Compare **gone** (**to**) and **been** (**to**):

- James is on holiday. He **has gone to** Italy. (= he is there now or on his way there)
- Amy is back home now. She **has been** to Italy. (= she has now come back)

C You can use the present perfect with **just**, **already** and **yet**.

Just = a short time ago:

- 'Are you hungry?' 'No, I**'ve just had** lunch.'
- Hello. **Have** you **just arrived**?

Already = sooner than expected:

- 'Don't forget to pay the bill.' 'I**'ve already paid** it.'
- 'What time is Mark leaving?' 'He**'s already left**.'

Yet = until now. We use **yet** to show that we are expecting something to happen.
We use **yet** in questions and negative sentences:

- **Has** it **stopped** raining **yet**?
- I've written the email, but I **haven't sent** it **yet**.

D You can also use the past simple (**did**, **went**, **had** etc.) in the examples on this page. So you can say:

- Ben isn't here. He**'s gone** out. *or* He **went** out.
- 'Are you hungry?' 'No, I**'ve** just **had** lunch.' *or* 'No, I just **had** lunch.'

>> Present perfect ➜ **Units 8, 11** **been to** ➜ **Units 8A, 126A** Present perfect continuous ➜ **Units 9–10**
Present perfect and past ➜ **Units 12–14** **yet** and **already** ➜ **Unit 111** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

7.1 **Read the situations and complete the sentences using the present perfect. Choose from these verbs:**

break **disappear** **go up** **grow** **improve** **~~lose~~** **shrink** **stop**

1 Tom is looking for his key. He can't find it. — Tom ...has lost his key.
2 Maria's English wasn't very good. Now it is better. — Her English ....
3 My bag was here, but it isn't here any more. — My bag ....
4 Lisa can't walk and her leg is in plaster. — Lisa ....
5 Last week the bus fare was £1.80. Now it is £2. — The bus fare ....
6 Dan didn't have a beard before. Now he has a beard. — Dan ....
7 It was raining ten minutes ago. It isn't raining now. — It ....
8 I washed my sweater, and now it's too small for me. — My sweater ....

7.2 **Put in been or gone.**

1 My parents are on holiday. They've ...gone... to Italy.
2 Hello! I've just ..... to the shops. I've bought lots of things.
3 Tom has just ..... out. He'll be back in about an hour.
4 Alice isn't here at the moment. I don't know where she's ..... .
5 You're very late. Where have you .....?

7.3 **Complete the sentences using the present perfect.**

1 Sally is still here. ...She hasn't gone... (she / not / go) out.
2 I can't find my bag. ..... (you / see / it) anywhere?
3 I can't log on to the website. ..... (I / forget) my password.
4 I sent Joe an email this morning, but ..... (he / not / reply).
5 Is the meeting still going on, or ..... (it / finish)?
6 ..... (the weather / change). It's colder now.
7 ..... (you / not / sign) the form. Could you sign it now, please?
8 Are your friends still here, or ..... (they / go) home?
9 Paul doesn't know what he's going to do. .....
(he / not / decide / yet).
10 'Do you know where Julia is?' 'Yes, ... (I / just / see / her).'
11 'When is David going away?' '..... (he / already / go).'
12 A: ..... (your course / start / yet)?
B: Not yet. It starts next week.

7.4 **Read the situations and write sentences with just, already or yet.**

1 After lunch you go to see a friend at her house. She says, 'Would you like something to eat?'
You say: No thank you. ...I've just had lunch... . (have lunch)
2 Joe goes out. Five minutes later, the phone rings and the caller says, 'Can I speak to Joe?'
You say: I'm afraid ..... . (go out)
3 You are eating in a restaurant. The waiter thinks you have finished and starts to take your plate away.
You say: Wait a minute! ..... . (not / finish)
4 You plan to eat at a restaurant tonight. You phone to reserve a table. Later your friend says,
'Shall I phone to reserve a table?' You say: No, ... (do it)
5 You know that Lisa is looking for a place to live. Perhaps she has been successful.
You ask her: ..... ? (find)
6 You are still thinking about where to go for your holiday. A friend asks, 'Where are you going
for your holiday?' You say: ..... . (not / decide)
7 Laura went out, but a few minutes ago she returned. Somebody asks, 'Is Laura still out?'
You say: No, ... (come back)

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Unit 8

Present perfect 2 (**I have done**)

A Study this example conversation:

DAVE: **Have** you **travelled** a lot, Jane?
JANE: Yes, I**'ve been** to lots of places.
DAVE: Really? **Have** you ever **been** to China?
JANE: Yes, I**'ve been** to China twice.
DAVE: What about India?
JANE: No, I **haven't been** to India.

When we talk about a period of time that continues from the past until now, we use the *present perfect* (**have been** / **have travelled** etc.). Here, Dave and Jane are talking about the places Jane **has visited** in her life, which is a period that continues until now.

In the same way we say:

- **Have** you **ever eaten** caviar?
- We**'ve** never **had** a car.
- I don't know what the film is about. I **haven't seen** it.
- Susan really loves that book. She**'s read** it three times. (She**'s** = She **has**)
- It's a really boring movie. It's the most boring movie I**'ve ever seen**.

been (**to**) = visited:

- I**'ve** never **been to** Canada. Have you **been** there?

B In the following examples too, the speakers are talking about a period that continues until now (**recently**, **in the last few days**, **so far**, **since I arrived** etc.):

- **Have** you **heard** anything from Ben **recently**?
- I**'ve met** a lot of people **in the last few days**.
- Everything is going well. There **haven't been** any problems **so far**.
- The weather is bad here. It**'s** (= It **has**) **rained** every day **since I arrived**. (= from when I arrived until now)
- It's good to see you again. We **haven't seen** each other **for a long time**.

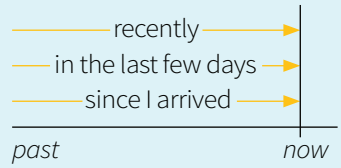

In the same way we use the present perfect with **today**, **this evening**, **this year** etc. when these periods are not finished at the time of speaking:

- I**'ve drunk** four cups of coffee **today**.
- **Have** you **had** a holiday **this year**?
- I **haven't seen** Tom **this morning**. **Have** you?

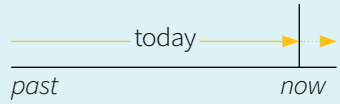

C We say 'It's the (first) time something **has happened**'. For example:

Don is having a driving lesson. It's his first lesson.
We can say:

- It's the first time he **has driven** a car. (*not* drives)

or He **hasn't driven** a car **before**.
or He **has never driven** a car **before**.

In the same way we say:

- Sarah has lost her passport again. This is the second time this **has happened**. (*not* happens)
- Andy is phoning his girlfriend again. It's the third time he**'s phoned** her **this evening**.

Present perfect 1 ➜ **Unit 7** Present perfect + **for/since** ➜ **Units 11–12** Present perfect and past ➜ **Units 12–14**

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Exercises

8.1 **You ask people about things they have done. Write questions with ever.**

1 (ride / horse?) Have you ever ridden a horse?
2 (be / California?) Have .....
3 (run / marathon?) .....
4 (speak / famous person?) .....
5 (most beautiful place / visit?) What's .....

8.2 **Complete B's answers. Some sentences are positive and some negative. Use these verbs:**

be be eat happen ~~have~~ have ~~meet~~ play read see try

	A	B
1	What's Mark's sister like?	I've no idea. I've never met her.
2	Is everything going well?	Yes, we haven't had any problems so far.
3	Are you hungry?	Yes. I ..... much today.
4	Can you play chess?	Yes, but ..... for ages.
5	Are you enjoying your holiday?	Yes, it's the best holiday ..... for a long time.
6	What's that book about?	I don't know. ..... it.
7	Is Brussels an interesting place?	I've no idea. ..... there.
8	I hear your car broke down again yesterday.	Yes, it's the second time ..... this month.
9	Do you like caviar?	I don't know. ..... it.
10	Mike was late for work again today.	Again? He ..... late every day this week.
11	Who's that woman by the door?	I don't know. ..... her before.

8.3 **Write four sentences about yourself. Use I haven't and choose from the boxes.**

used a computer	travelled by bus	eaten any fruit
been to the cinema	read a book	lost anything

today
this week
recently
for ages
since ...
this year

1 I haven't used a computer today.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

8.4 **Read the situations and complete the sentences.**

1 Jack is driving a car for the first time. He's very nervous and not sure what to do.
It's the first time he's driven a car.
2 Some children at the zoo are looking at a giraffe. They've never seen one before.
It's the first time ..... a giraffe.
3 Sue is riding a horse. She doesn't look very confident or comfortable.
She ..... before.
4 Joe and Lisa are on holiday in Japan. They've been to Japan once before.
This is the second time ..... .
5 Emily is staying at the Prince Hotel. She stayed there a few years ago.
It's not the first ..... this hotel.
6 Ben is playing tennis for the first time. He's a complete beginner.
..... before.

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Unit 9

Present perfect continuous (**I have been doing**)

A It's been raining.

Study this example situation:

Is it raining?
No, but the ground is wet.
It's been raining. (= It **has** been . . .)

have/**has been** + **-ing** is the *present perfect continuous*:

I/we/they/you he/she/it	**have** **has**	(= I**'ve** etc.) (= he**'s** etc.)	**been**	**doing** **working** **learning** etc.

We use the present perfect continuous for an activity that has recently stopped or just stopped:

- Why are you out of breath? **Have** you **been running**?
- Paul is very tired. He**'s been working** hard.
- Why are you so tired? What **have** you **been doing**?
- I'**ve been talking** to Amanda and she agrees with me.
- Where have you been? I'**ve been looking** for you.

have/**has been + -ing**
present perfect continuous
now

B It's been raining for two hours.

Study this example situation:

It began raining two hours ago and it is still raining.

How long **has** it **been raining**?
It**'s been raining** for two hours. (= It **has** been . . .)

We use the present perfect continuous in this way, especially with **how long**, **for** . . . and **since** . . . . The activity is still happening (as in this example) or has just stopped.

- **How long have** you **been learning** English? (= you're still learning English)
- Ben is watching TV. He**'s been watching** TV **all day**.
- Where have you been? I'**ve been looking** for you **for the last half hour**.
- Chris **hasn't been feeling** well **recently**.

You can use the present perfect continuous for repeated actions:

- Silvia is a very good tennis player. She**'s been playing since she was eight**.
- Every morning they meet in the same cafe. They**'ve been going** there **for years**.

C

Compare **I am doing** and **I have been doing**:

I am doing
present continuous
now

- Don't disturb me now. I**'m working.**
- We need an umbrella. It**'s raining.**
- Hurry up! We**'re waiting.**

I have been doing
present perfect continuous
now

- I'**ve been working** hard. Now I'm going to have a break.
- The ground is wet. It**'s been raining**.
- We'**ve been waiting** for an hour.

Present perfect continuous and simple ➜ **Units 10–11** Present perfect + **for**/**since** ➜ **Units 11–12**

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Exercises

9.1 What have these people been doing or what has been happening?

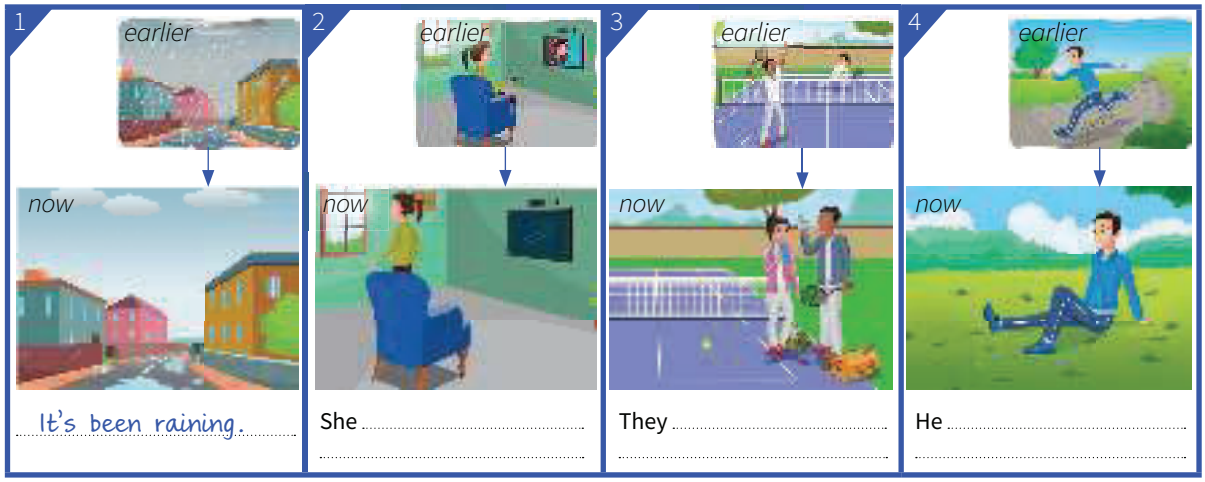

1 It's been raining.
2 She .....
3 They .....
4 He .....

9.2 Write a question for each situation.

1 You meet Kate as she is leaving the swimming pool. You say:
Hi, Kate. (you / swim?) Have you been swimming?
2 You have arrived a little late to meet Ben who is waiting for you. You say:
I'm sorry I'm late, Ben. (you / wait / long?) .....
3 Jane's little boy comes into the house with a very dirty face and dirty hands. His mother says:
Why are you so dirty? (what / you / do?) .....
4 You are in a shop and see Anna. You didn't know she worked there. You say:
Hi, Anna. (how long / you / work / here?) .....
5 A friend tells you about his job – he sells phones. You say:
You sell phones? (how long / you / do / that?) .....

9.3 Read the situations and complete the sentences.

1 It's raining. The rain started two hours ago.
It 's been raining for two hours.
2 We are waiting for the bus. We started waiting 20 minutes ago.
We ..... for 20 minutes.
3 I'm learning Japanese. I started classes in December.
I ..... since December.
4 Jessica is working in a hotel. She started working there on 18 January.
..... since 18 January.
5 Our friends always go to Italy for their holidays. The first time was years ago.
..... for years.

9.4 Put the verb into the present continuous (am/is/are + -ing) or present perfect continuous (have/has been + -ing).

1 Maria has been learning (Maria / learn) English for two years.
2 Hi, Tom. ..... (I / look) for you. I need to ask you something.
3 Why ..... (you / look) at me like that? Stop it!
4 Rachel is a teacher. ..... (she / teach) for ten years.
5 ..... (I / think) about what you said and I've decided to take your advice.
6 'Is Paul on holiday this week?' 'No, ... (he / work).'
7 Sarah is very tired. ..... (she / work) very hard recently.
8 It's dangerous to use your phone when ..... (you / drive).
9 Laura ..... (travel) in South America for the last three months.

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Unit 10

Present perfect continuous and simple (**I have been doing** and **I have done**)

A Compare these two situations:

There is paint on Kate's clothes.
She **has been painting** her bedroom.

has been painting is the *present perfect continuous.*

We are thinking of the activity. It does not matter whether it has been finished or not. In this example, the activity (painting the bedroom) has not been finished.

The bedroom was green. Now it is yellow.
She **has painted** her bedroom.

has painted is the *present perfect simple.*

Here, the important thing is that something has been finished. 'She **has painted**' is a completed action. We are thinking about the *result* of the activity (the painted bedroom), not the activity itself.

B Compare these examples:

- My hands are very dirty. I**'ve been repairing** my bike.
- Joe **has been eating** too much recently. He should eat less.
- It's nice to see you again. What **have** you **been doing** since we last met?
- Where have you been? **Have** you **been playing** tennis?

- My bike is OK again now. I**'ve repaired it**. (= I've finished repairing it)
- Somebody **has eaten** all the chocolates. The box is empty.
- Where's the book I gave you? What **have** you **done** with it?
- **Have** you ever **played** tennis?

C

We use the continuous to say *how long* (for something that is still happening):

- How long **have** you **been reading** that book?
- Amy is writing emails. She**'s been writing** emails all morning.
- They**'ve been playing** tennis since 2 o'clock.
- I'm learning Arabic, but I **haven't been learning** it very long.

We use the simple to say *how much, how many* or *how many times* (for completed actions):

- How many pages of that book **have** you **read**?
- Amy **has sent** lots of emails this morning.
- They**'ve played** tennis three times this week.
- I'm learning Arabic, but I **haven't learnt** very much yet.

D Some verbs (for example, **know**) are not normally used in continuous forms (**be** + **-ing**):

- I**'ve known** about the problem for a long time. (*not* I've been knowing)
- How long **have** you **had** that camera? (*not* have you been having)

For a list of these verbs, see Unit 4A. For **have**, see Unit 17.
But note that you *can* use **want** and **mean** in the present perfect continuous (**have**/**has been** + **-ing**):

- I**'ve been meaning** to phone Anna, but I keep forgetting.

>> Present perfect simple ➜ **Units 7–8** Present perfect continuous ➜ **Unit 9**
Present perfect + **for**/**since** ➜ **Units 11–12**

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Exercises

10.1 Read the situation and complete the sentences. Use the verbs in brackets.

1 Tom started reading a book two hours ago. He is still reading it and now he is on page 53.
He has been reading for two hours. (read)
He has read 53 pages so far. (read)

2 Rachel is from Australia. She is travelling round Europe. She began her trip three months ago.
She ..... for three months. (travel)
..... six countries so far. (visit)

3 Patrick is a tennis player. He began playing tennis when he was 10 years old. This year he won the national championship again – for the fourth time.
..... the national championship four times. (win)
..... since he was ten. (play)

4 When they left college, Lisa and Sue started making films together. They still make films.
They ..... films since they left college. (make)
..... five films since they left college. (make)

10.2 Ask questions using the words in brackets. Use the present perfect simple (have/has done) or continuous (have/has been doing).

1 You have a friend who is learning Arabic. You ask:
(how long / learn / Arabic?) How long have you been learning Arabic?

2 You have just arrived to meet a friend. She is waiting for you. You ask:
(wait / long?) Have .....

3 You see somebody fishing by the river. You ask:
(catch / any fish?) .....

4 Some friends of yours are having a party next week. You ask:
(how many people / invite?) .....

5 A friend of yours is a teacher. You ask:
(how long / teach?) .....

6 You meet somebody who is a writer. You ask:
(how many books / write?) .....
(how long / write / books?) .....

7 A friend of yours is saving money to go on a world trip. You ask:
(how long / save?) .....
(how much money / save?) .....

10.3 Put the verb into the present perfect simple or continuous.

1 Where have you been? Have you been playing (you / play) tennis?
2 Look! ..... (somebody / break) that window.
3 You look tired. ..... (you / work) hard?
4 '..... (you / ever / work) in a factory?' 'No, never.'
5 Where's Lisa? Where ..... (she / go)?
6 This is a very old book. ..... (I / have) it since I was a child.
7 'Have you been busy?' 'No, ... (I / watch) TV.'
8 My brother is an actor. ..... (he / appear) in several films.
9 'Sorry I'm late.' 'That's all right. ..... (I / not / wait) long.'
10 Are you OK? You look as if ..... (you / cry).
11 'Is it still raining?' 'No, ... (it / stop).'
12 The children are tired now. ..... (they / play) in the garden.
13 ..... (I / lose) my phone. ..... (you / see) it?
14 ..... (I / read) the book you lent me, but .....
..... (I / not / finish) it yet. It's really interesting.
15 ..... (I / read) the book you lent me, so you can have it back now.

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Unit 11

how long have you (been) . . . ?

A Study this example situation:

Dan and Kate are married. They got married exactly 20 years ago, so today is their 20th wedding anniversary.

They **have been** married **for 20 years**.

We say: They **are** married. *(present)*

but How long have they **been** married?
(*not* How long are they married?)
They **have been** married **for 20 years**.
(*not* They are married for 20 years)
(present perfect)

We use the *present perfect* to talk about something that began in the past and still continues now.
Compare the *present* and *present perfect*:

- Paul is in hospital.
  but He**'s been** in hospital **since Monday**. (= He **has** been . . .)
  (*not* Paul is in hospital since Monday)
- We **know** each other very well.
  but We**'ve known** each other **for a long time**.
  (*not* We know)
- **Do** they **have** a car?
  but **How long have** they **had** their car?
- She**'s waiting** for somebody.
  but She **hasn't been waiting very long**.

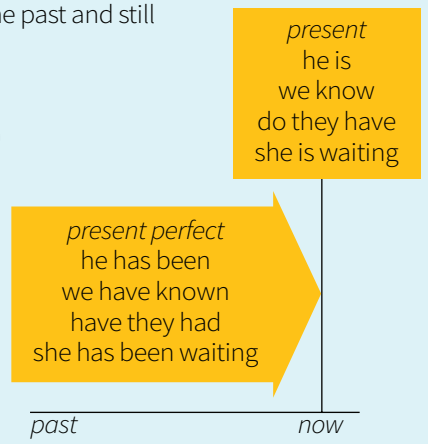

B **I've known** / **I've had** / **I've lived** etc. is the *present perfect simple*.
I've been learning / **I've been waiting** etc. is the *present perfect continuous*.

When we ask or say 'how long', the continuous is more usual (see Unit 10):

- I**'ve been learning** English **since January**.
- It**'s been raining all morning**.
- Richard **has been doing** the same job **for 20 years**.
- '**How long have** you **been driving**?' 'Since I was 17.'

Some verbs (for example, **know** and **like**) are not normally used in the continuous:

- How long **have** you **known** Jane? (*not* have you been knowing)
- I**'ve had** these shoes for ages. (*not* I've been having)

See also Units 4A and 10C. For **have**, see Unit 17.

C You can use either the continuous or simple with **live** and **work**:

- Julia **has been living** in this house for a long time. *or* Julia **has lived** . . .
- How long **have** you **been working** here? *or* How long **have** you **worked** here?

But we use the simple (**have lived** etc.) with **always**:

- I**'ve always lived** in the country. (*not* always been living)

D We say '**I haven't** (done something) **since**/**for** . . .' *(present perfect simple)*:

- I **haven't seen** Tom since Monday. (= Monday was the last time I saw him)
- Sarah **hasn't phoned** for ages. (= the last time she phoned was ages ago)

>> **I haven't . . . since/for → Unit 8B** Present perfect continuous **→ Units 9–10** **for** and **since → Unit 12A**

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Exercises

11.1 Which is right?

1 Ben is a friend of mine. I know / ~~I've known~~ him very well. (I know *is correct*)
2 I like your house. How long do you live / have you lived here?
3 You'll need an umbrella if you go out now. It's raining / It's been raining.
4 The weather is / has been awful since I arrived here.
5 I'm sorry I'm late. Are you waiting / Have you been waiting long?
6 We've moved. We're living / We've been living in New Street now.
7 I met Maria only recently. I don't know / I haven't known her very long.
8 Lisa is in Germany. She's / She's been there on a business trip.
9 That's a very old bike. How long do you have / have you had it?
10 I'm not feeling good. I'm feeling / I've been feeling ill all day.

11.2 Read the situations and write questions using the words in brackets.

1 A friend tells you that Paul is in hospital. You ask him:
(how long / Paul / hospital?) How long has Paul been in hospital?
2 You know that Jane is a good friend of Katherine's. You ask Jane:
(how long / you / know / Katherine?) .....
3 Your friend's sister went to Australia some time ago and she's still there. You ask your friend:
(how long / sister / in Australia?) .....
4 You meet a woman who tells you that she teaches English. You ask her:
(how long / you / teach / English?)
.....
5 Tom always wears the same jacket. It's very old. You ask him:
(how long / you / have / that jacket?) .....
6 You are talking to a friend about Joe, who now works at the airport. You ask your friend:
(how long / Joe / work / airport?)
.....
7 You meet somebody on a plane. She says that she lives in Chicago. You ask her:
(you / always / live / in Chicago?) .....

11.3 Complete B's answers to A's questions.

	A	B
1	Paul is in hospital, isn't he?	Yes, he has been in hospital since Monday.
2	Do you see Lisa very often?	No, I haven't seen her for three months.
3	Is Paul married?	Yes, he ..... married for ten years.
4	Is Amy married?	Yes, she ..... married to a German guy.
5	Do you still play tennis?	No, I ..... tennis for years.
6	Are you waiting for the bus?	Yes, I ..... for about 20 minutes.
7	You know Mel, don't you?	Yes, we ..... each other a long time.
8	Jack is never ill, is he?	No, he ..... ill since I've known him.
9	Martin lives in Italy, doesn't he?	Yes, he ..... in Milan.
10	Sue lives in Berlin, doesn't she?	Yes, she ..... in Berlin for many years.
11	Is Joe watching TV?	Yes, he ..... TV all evening.
12	Do you watch TV a lot?	No, I ..... TV since last weekend.
13	Do you have a headache?	Yes, I ..... a headache all morning.
14	Do you go to the cinema a lot?	No, I ..... to the cinema for ages.
15	Would you like to go to New York one day?	Yes, I ..... to go to New York. (*use* **always** / **want**)

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Unit 12 for and since when … ? and how long … ?

A

We use **for** and **since** to say how long something has been happening.

We use **for** + a period of time:

- We've been waiting **for two hours**.

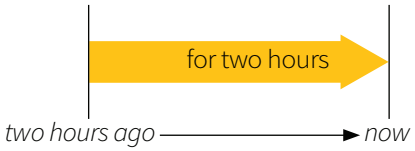

for		
two hours	a long time	a week
20 minutes	six months	ages
five days	50 years	years

- Sally has been working here **for six months**. (*not* since six months)
- I haven't seen Tom **for three days**.

We use **since** + the start of a period:

- We've been waiting **since 8 o'clock**.

since		
8 o'clock	April	lunchtime
Monday	2001	we arrived
12 May	Christmas	I got up

- Sally has been working here **since April**. (= from April until now)
- I haven't seen Tom **since Monday**.

B

We often leave out **for** (but not usually in negative sentences):

- They've been married **for ten years**. *or* They've been married **ten years**.
- They **haven't had** a holiday **for** ten years. (you need **for**)

You can use **in** instead of **for** in negative sentences (**I haven't** … etc.):

- They **haven't had** a holiday **in ten years**. (= **for** ten years)

We do *not* use **for** + **all** … (**all day** / **all my life** etc.):

- I've lived here **all my life**. (*not* for all my life)

C

Compare **when** … ? (+ *past simple*) and **how long** … ? (+ *present perfect*):

A: **When** did it start raining?
B: It started raining **an hour ago** / **at 1 o'clock**.

A: **How long** has it been raining?
B: It's been raining **for an hour** / **since 1 o'clock**.

A: **When** did Joe and Kate first meet?
B: They first met { **a long time ago**. / **when they were at school**.
A: **How long** have they known each other?
B: They've known each other { **for a long time**. / **since they were at school**.

D

We say:

it's (= it **is**) *or* **it's been** (= it **has been**)	a long time six months (*etc.*)	since something happened

- **It's two years since** I last saw Joe. *or* **It's been two years since** …
  (= I **haven't seen** Joe for two years)
- **It's ages since** we went to the cinema. *or* **It's been ages since** …
  (= We **haven't been** to the cinema for ages)
- **How long is it since** Mrs Hill died? *or* **How long has it been since** …
  (= when did she die?)

>> How long have you (been) … ? ➜ Unit 11

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Exercises

12.1 Write for or since.

1 It's been raining ...since... lunchtime.
2 Paul has lived in Brazil ..... ten years.
3 I'm tired of waiting. We've been sitting here ..... an hour.
4 Kevin has been looking for a job ..... he left school.
5 I haven't been to a party ..... ages.
6 I wonder where Joe is. I haven't seen him ..... last week.
7 Jane is away on holiday. She's been away ..... Friday.
8 The weather is dry. It hasn't rained ..... a few weeks.

12.2 Look at each answer and choose the right question.

1 ~~How long have they been married~~? / When did they get married? — Ten years ago.

(When did they get married? *is correct*)

2 How long have you had this car? / When did you buy this car? — About five years.

3 How long have you been waiting? / When did you get here? — Only a few minutes.

4 How long have you been doing your course? / When did your course start? — September.

5 How long has Anna been in London? / When did Anna arrive in London? — Last week.

6 How long have you known each other? / When did you first meet each other? — A long time.

12.3 Read the situations and complete the sentences.

1 It's raining. It's been raining since lunchtime. It ...started raining... at lunchtime.
2 Ann and Jess are friends. They first met years ago. They've ...known each other for... years.
3 Mark is unwell. He became ill on Sunday. He has ..... Sunday.
4 Sarah is married. She's been married for a year. She got .....
5 You have a headache. It started when you woke up.
I've ..... I woke up.
6 Sue is in a meeting at work. It's been going on since 9 o'clock.
The meeting ..... at 9 o'clock.
7 You're working in a hotel. You started working there six months ago.
I've been .....
8 Kate is learning Japanese. She's been doing this for a long time.
Kate started .....

12.4 Complete B's sentences.

	A	B
1	Do you often go on holiday?	No, I ...haven't had a holiday for... five years.
2	Have you seen Lisa recently?	No, I ..... about a month.
3	Do you still go swimming regularly?	No, I ..... a long time.
4	Do you still ride a bike these days?	No, I ..... ages.

Now write B's answers again. This time use It's . . . since . . . .

5 (1) No, ...it's five years since I last had a holiday.
6 (2) No, it's .....
7 (3) No, ...
8 (4) .....

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Unit 13

Present perfect and past 1 (**I have done** and **I did**)

A Study this example situation:

Tom is looking for his key. He can't find it.

He **has lost** his key. *(present perfect)*

This means that he doesn't have his key *now*.

Ten minutes later:

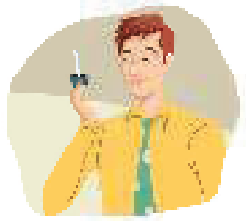

Now Tom **has found** his key. He has it now.

Has he **lost** his key? No, he **has found** it.
Did he **lose** his key? Yes, he **did**.

He **lost** his key *(past simple)*
but now he **has found** it. *(present perfect)*

The *present perfect* (something **has happened**) is a *present* tense. It tells us about the situation *now*. 'Tom **has lost** his key' = he doesn't have his key *now* (see Unit 7).

The *past simple* (something **happened**) tells us only about the *past*. If somebody says 'Tom **lost** his key', we don't know whether he has the key now or not. We know only that he lost it at some time in the past.

Compare *present perfect* and *past simple*:

- They**'ve gone** away. They'll be back on Friday. (they are away *now*)
- They **went** away, but I think they're back at home now. (*not* They've gone away)
- It **has stopped** raining now, so we don't need the umbrella. (it isn't raining *now*)
- It **stopped** raining for a while, but now it's raining again. (*not* It has stopped)

B You can use the present perfect for new or recent happenings:

- I**'ve repaired** the washing machine. It's working OK now.
- 'Hannah **has had** a baby! It's a boy.' 'That's great news.'

Usually, you can also use the past simple:

- I **repaired** the washing machine. It's working OK now.

Use the past simple (*not* the present perfect) for things that are not recent or new:

- Mozart **was** a composer. He **wrote** more than 600 pieces of music.
  (*not* has been . . . has written)
- My mother **grew** up in Italy. (*not* has grown)

Compare:

Somebody **has invented** a new type of washing machine.
Who **invented** the telephone? (*not* has invented)

C We use the present perfect to give new information (see Unit 7). But if we continue to talk about it, we normally use the past simple:

- A: Ow! I**'ve burnt** myself.
  B: How **did** you **do** that? (*not* have you done)
  A: I **picked** up a hot dish. (*not* have picked)
- A: Look! Somebody **has spilt** something on the sofa.
  B: Well, it **wasn't** me. I **didn't do** it. (*not* hasn't been . . . haven't done)

>> Past simple ➜ **Unit 5** Present perfect ➜ **Units 7–8** Present perfect and past 2 ➜ **Unit 14**
American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

13.1 **Complete the sentences. Use the present perfect where possible. Otherwise use the past simple.**

13.2 **Are the underlined parts of these sentences OK? Correct them where necessary.**

1 Did you hear about Sophie? She's given up her job. ....OK....
2 My mother has grown up in Italy. ....My mother grew up....
3 How many plays has William Shakespeare written? .....
4 I've forgotten his name. Is it Joe or Jack? .....
5 Who has invented paper? .....
6 Drugs have become a big problem everywhere. .....
7 We've washed the car, but now it's dirty again. .....
8 Where have you been born? .....
9 Ellie has gone shopping. She'll be back in about an hour. .....
10 Albert Einstein has been the scientist who has developed the theory of relativity. .....

13.3 **Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect or past simple.**

1 ....It stopped.... raining for a while, but now it's raining again. (it / stop)
2 The town where I live is very different now. ....It has changed.... a lot. (it / change)
3 I studied German at school, but ..... most of it now. (I / forget)
4 The police ..... three people, but later they let them go. (arrest)
5 What do you think of my English? Do you think .....? (it / improve)
6 Are you ready to go? ..... your coffee? (you / finish)
7 ..... for a job as a tour guide, but I wasn't successful. (I / apply)
8 Where's my bike? ..... outside the house, but it's not there now. (it / be)
9 Quick! We need to call an ambulance. ..... an accident. (there / be)
10 A: I've found my phone.
B: Oh, good. Where ..... it? (you / find)
A: ..... at the bottom of my bag. (It / be)
11 A: Ben won't be able to play tennis for a while. ..... his arm. (He / break)
B: Oh. How .....? (that / happen)
A: ..... off a ladder. (He / fall)

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Unit 14

Present perfect and past 2 (**I have done** and **I did**)

A

We do not use the present perfect (**I have done**) when we talk about a *finished* time (for example, **yesterday** / **last year** / **ten minutes ago** etc.). We use a past tense:

- It **was** very cold **yesterday**. (*not* has been)
- Paul and Lucy **arrived ten minutes ago**. (*not* have arrived)
- **Did** you **eat** a lot of sweets **when you were a child**? (*not* have you eaten)
- I **got** home late **last night**. I **was** very tired and **went** straight to bed.

Use the past to ask **When** . . . ? *or* **What time** . . . ? :

- **When did** your friends **arrive**? (*not* have . . . arrived)
- **What time did** you **finish** work?

Compare:

Present perfect

- Tom **has lost** his key. He can't get into the house.
- Is Carla here or **has** she **left**?

Past simple

- Tom **lost** his key **yesterday**. He couldn't get into the house.
- **When did** Carla **leave**?

B

Compare:

Present perfect (**have done**)

- I**'ve done** a lot of work **today**.

We use the present perfect for a period of time that continues *until now*. For example: **today** / **this week** / **since 2010**.

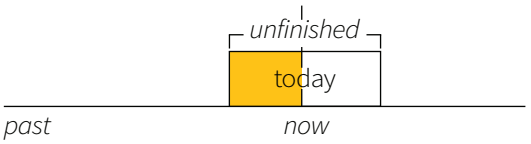

- It **hasn't rained this week**.
- **Have** you **seen** Anna **this morning**? (it is still morning now)
- **Have** you **seen** Ben **recently**? (in the last few days or weeks)
- I**'ve been working** here **since 2010**. (I still work here now)
- I don't know where Lisa is. I **haven't seen** her. (= I haven't seen her recently)
- We**'ve been waiting** for an hour. (we are still waiting now)
- Jack lives in Los Angeles. He **has lived** there for seven years.
- I**'ve never ridden** a horse. (in my life)
- *It's the last day of your holiday. You say*: It**'s been** a really good holiday. I**'ve** really **enjoyed** it.

Past simple (**did**)

- I **did** a lot of work **yesterday**.

We use the past simple for a *finished* time in the past. For example: **yesterday** / **last week** / **from 2010 to 2014**.

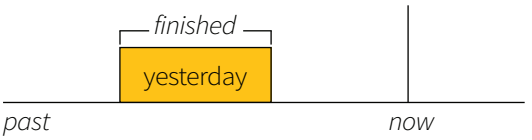

- It **didn't rain last week**.
- **Did** you **see** Anna **this morning**? (it is now afternoon or evening)
- **Did** you **see** Ben **on Sunday**?
- I **worked** here **from 2010 to 2014**. (I don't work here now)
- A: **Was** Lisa at the party **on Sunday**?
  B: I don't think so. I **didn't see** her.
- We **waited** (*or* **were waiting**) for an hour. (we are no longer waiting)
- Jack **lived** in New York for ten years. Now he lives in Los Angeles.
- I **never rode** a bike **when I was a child**.
- *After you come back from holiday you say*: It **was** a really good holiday. I really **enjoyed** it.

>> Past simple ➜ **Unit 5** Present perfect ➜ **Units 7–8** Present perfect and past 1 ➜ **Unit 13**

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Exercises

14.1 **Are the underlined parts of these sentences OK? Correct them where necessary.**

1 I've lost my key. I can't find it anywhere. OK
2 Have you eaten a lot of sweets when you were a child? Did you eat
3 I've bought a new car. You must come and see it. .....
4 I've bought a new car last week. .....
5 Where have you been yesterday evening? .....
6 Maria has left school in 1999. .....
7 I'm looking for Mike. Have you seen him? .....
8 'Have you been to Paris?' 'Yes, many times.' .....
9 I'm very hungry. I haven't eaten much today. .....
10 When has this bridge been built? .....

14.2 **Make sentences from the words in brackets. Use the present perfect or past simple.**

1 (it / not / rain / this week) It hasn't rained this week.
2 (the weather / be / cold / recently) The weather .....
3 (it / cold / last week) It .....
4 (I / not / eat / any fruit yesterday) I .....
5 (I / not / eat / any fruit today) .....
6 (Emily / earn / a lot of money / this year) .....
7 (she / not / earn / so much / last year) .....
8 (you / have / a holiday recently?) .....

14.3 **Put the verb into the correct form, present perfect or past simple.**

1 I haven't been (I / not / be) to Canada, but I'd like to go there.
2 Paul and Lucy arrived (arrive) about ten minutes ago.
3 I'm tired. ..... (I / not / sleep) well last night.
4 ..... (There / be) a bus drivers' strike last week, so ..... (there / be) no buses.
5 Edward ..... (work) in a bank for 15 years. Then ..... (he / give) it up. Now he works as a gardener.
6 Mary lives in Dublin. ..... (She / live) there all her life.
7 My grandfather ..... (die) before I was born. ..... (I / never / meet) him.
8 I don't know Karen's husband. ..... (I / never / meet) him.
9 It's nearly lunchtime, and ..... (I / not / see) Martin all morning. I wonder where he is.
10 A: ..... (you / go) to the cinema last night?
B: Yes, but the movie ..... (be) awful.
11 A: ..... (It / be) very warm here since we arrived.
B: Yes, ... (it / be) 35 degrees yesterday.
12 A: Where do you live? B: In Boston.
A: How long ..... (you / live) there? B: Five years.
A: Where ..... (you / live) before that? B: In Chicago.
A: And how long ..... (you / live) in Chicago? B: Two years.

14.4 **Write sentences about yourself using the ideas in brackets.**

1 (something you haven't done today) I haven't eaten any fruit today.
2 (something you haven't done today) .....
3 (something you didn't do yesterday) .....
4 (something you did yesterday evening) .....
5 (something you haven't done recently) .....
6 (something you've done a lot recently) .....

➜ **Additional exercises 2–4** (pages 303–04), **14–15** (pages 310–11)

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Unit 15

Past perfect (**I had done**)

A Study this example situation:

Sarah and Paul went to the same party last week, but they didn't see each other. Paul left the party at 10.30 and Sarah arrived at 11 o'clock.

So when Sarah arrived at the party, Paul wasn't there.

He **had gone** home.

had gone is the *past perfect*:

I/we/they/you he/she/it	**had**	(= I'**d** etc.) (= he'**d** etc.)	**gone** **seen** **finished** etc.

The past perfect (simple) is **had** + *past participle* (**gone**/**seen**/**finished** etc.).

Sometimes we talk about something that happened in the past:

- Sarah **arrived** at the party.

This is the starting point of the story. Then, if we want to talk about things that happened *before* this time, we use the past perfect (**had** . . .):

- **When Sarah arrived** at the party, Paul **had** already **gone** home.

Some more examples:

- When we got home last night, we found that somebody **had broken** into the flat.
- Karen didn't come to the cinema with us. She'**d** already **seen** the movie.
- At first I thought I'**d done** the right thing, but I soon realised that I'**d made** a big mistake.
- The people sitting next to me on the plane were nervous. They **hadn't flown** before.
  or They'**d** never **flown** before.

B Compare *present perfect* (**have seen** etc.) and *past perfect* (**had seen** etc.):

Present perfect

- Who is that woman? I'**ve seen** her before, but I can't remember where.
- We aren't hungry. We'**ve** just **had** lunch.
- The house is dirty. They **haven't cleaned** it for weeks.

Past perfect

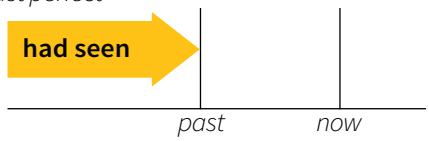

- I wasn't sure who she was. I'**d seen** her before, but I couldn't remember where.
- We weren't hungry. We'**d** just **had** lunch.
- The house was dirty. They **hadn't cleaned** it for weeks.

C Compare *past simple* (**left**, **was** etc.) and *past perfect* (**had left**, **had been** etc.):

Past simple

- A: Was Tom there when you arrived?
  B: Yes, but he **left** soon afterwards.
- Kate **wasn't** at home when I phoned. She **was** at her mother's house.

Past perfect

- A: Was Tom there when you arrived?
  B: No, he'**d** already **left**.
- Kate **had** just **got** home when I phoned. She'**d been** at her mother's house.

>> Past perfect continuous ➜ **Unit 16** Irregular verbs (**gone**/**seen** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 1**

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Exercises

15.1 Read the situations and write sentences using the words in brackets.

1 There was a picture lying on the floor.
(It / fall / off the wall) It had fallen off the wall.
2 The people sitting next to you on the plane were nervous. It was their first flight.
(They / not / fly / before) They hadn't flown before.
3 You went back to your home town recently after many years. It wasn't the same as before.
(It / change / a lot) It .....
4 Somebody sang a song. You didn't know it.
(I / not / hear / it / before) I .....
5 I invited Rachel to the party, but she couldn't come.
(She / arrange / to do something else) .....
6 You went to the cinema last night. You got to the cinema late.
(The film / already / start) .....
7 Last year we went to Mexico. It was our first time there.
(We / not / be / there / before) We .....
8 I met Daniel last week. It was good to see him again after such a long time.
(I / not / see / him for five years) .....
9 I offered my friends something to eat, but they weren't hungry.
(They / just / have / lunch) .....
10 Sam played tennis yesterday. He wasn't very good at it because it was his first game ever.
(He / never / play / before) .....

15.2 Use the sentences on the left to complete the paragraphs on the right. These sentences are in the order in which they happened – so (a) happened before (b), (b) before (c) etc. But your paragraph begins with the <u>underlined</u> sentence, so sometimes you need the past perfect.

1 (a) Somebody broke into the office during the night.
(b) <u>We arrived at work in the morning</u>.
(c) We called the police.

We arrived at work in the morning and found that somebody had broken into the office during the night. So we called the police.

2 (a) Laura went out this morning.
(b) <u>I rang her doorbell</u>.
(c) There was no answer.

I went to Laura's house this morning and rang her doorbell, but ..... no answer.
..... out.

3 (a) Joe came back from holiday a few days ago.
(b) <u>I met him the same day</u>.
(c) He looked very well.

I met Joe a few days ago. ..... just
..... holiday.
..... very well.

4 (a) James sent Amy lots of emails.
(b) She never replied to them.
(c) <u>Yesterday he got a phone call from her.</u>
(d) He was surprised.

Yesterday James .....
from Amy. ..... surprised.
..... lots of emails,
but ..... .

15.3 Put the verb into the correct form, past perfect (I had done) or past simple (I did).

1 Paul wasn't at the party when I arrived. He'd gone (He / go) home.
2 I felt very tired when I got home, so ..... (I / go) straight to bed.
3 The house was very quiet when I got home. Everybody ..... (go) to bed.
4 Mark travels a lot. When I first met him, ... (he / already / travel) round the world.
5 Sorry I'm late. The car ..... (break) down on my way here.
6 We were driving along the road when ..... (we / see) a car which ..... (break) down, so ..... (we / stop) to help.

➜ **Additional exercises 5–8** (pages 304–07)

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Unit 16

Past perfect continuous (**I had been doing**)

A Study this example situation:

yesterday morning

Yesterday morning I got up and looked out of the window. The sun was shining, but the ground was very wet.

It **had been raining**.

It was *not* raining when I looked out of the window. The sun was shining. But it **had been raining** before.

had been -ing is the *past perfect continuous*:

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**had**	(= I**'d** etc.) (= he**'d** etc.)	**been**	do**ing** work**ing** play**ing** etc.

Some more examples:

- My hands were dirty because I**'d been repairing** my bike.
- Tom was tired when he got home. He**'d been working** hard all day.
- I went to Madrid a few years ago and stayed with a friend of mine. **She hadn't been living** there very long, but she knew the city very well.

You can say that something **had been happening** before something else happened:

- We**'d been playing** tennis for about half an hour when it **started** to rain heavily.

B Compare **have been -ing** (*present perfect continuous*) and **had been -ing** (*past perfect continuous*):

Present perfect continuous

- I hope the bus comes soon. I**'ve been waiting** for 20 minutes. (*before now*)
- James **is** out of breath. He**'s been running**. (= he **has** been …)

Past perfect continuous

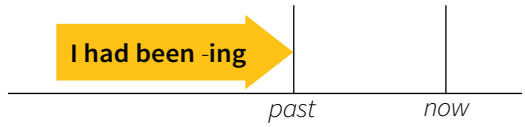

- At last the bus came. I**'d been waiting** for 20 minutes. (*before the bus came*)
- James **was** out of breath. He**'d been running**. (= he **had** been …)

C Compare **was -ing** (*past continuous*) and **had been -ing**:

- It **wasn't raining** when we went out. The sun **was shining**. But it **had been raining**, so the ground was wet.
- Katherine **was lying** on the sofa. She was tired because she**'d been working** hard.

D Some verbs (for example, **know**) are not normally used in *continuous* forms (**be** + **-ing**):

- We were good friends. We **had known** each other for years. (*not* had been knowing)
- A few years ago Lisa cut her hair really short. I was surprised because she**'d** always **had** long hair. (*not* she'd been having)

For a list of these verbs, see **Unit 4A**. For **have**, see **Unit 17**

>> Present perfect continuous ➜ **Units 9–10** Past perfect simple ➜ **Unit 15**

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Exercises

16.1 Read the situations and make sentences using the words in brackets.

1 Tom was very tired when he got home.
(He / work / hard all day) He'd been working hard all day.
2 The children came into the house. They had a football and they were both very tired.
(They / play / football) .....
3 I was disappointed when I had to cancel my holiday.
(I / look / forward to it) .....
4 Anna woke up in the middle of the night. She was frightened and didn't know where she was.
(She / have / a bad dream) .....
5 When I got home, Mark was sitting in front of the TV. He had just turned it off.
(He / watch / a film) .....
6 The people waiting at the bus stop were getting impatient. The bus was very late.
(They / wait / a long time) .....

16.2 Read the situations and complete the sentences.

1 We played tennis yesterday. We didn't finish our game.
We'd been playing (We / play) for half an hour when it started (it / start) to rain.
2 I had arranged to meet Tom in a restaurant. I arrived and waited for him to come.
..... (I / wait) for 20 minutes when .....
(I / realise) that ..... (I / be) in the wrong restaurant.
3 Sarah worked in a company for a long time. The company no longer exists.
At the time the company ..... (go) out of business, Sarah
..... (work) there for twelve years.
4 I went to a concert. Soon after the orchestra began playing, something strange happened.
The orchestra ..... (play) for about ten minutes when a man in
the audience suddenly ..... (start) shouting.

Now make your own sentence:

5 I began walking along the road. I .....
when .....

16.3 Which is right?

1 It was noisy next door last night. Our neighbours were having / ~~had been having~~ a party.
(were having *is correct*)
2 At the end of our journey we were extremely tired. We were travelling / We'd been travelling for more than 24 hours.
3 James was on his hands and knees on the floor. He was looking / He'd been looking for his contact lens.
4 Sue was sitting on the ground. She was out of breath. She was running / She'd been running.
5 John and I went for a walk. He was walking / He'd been walking very fast and I had difficulty keeping up with him.
6 I was sad when I sold my car. I've had it / I'd had it for a very long time.
7 I was sad when my local cafe closed. I was going / I'd been going there for many years.
8 I'm running a marathon next month. I've been training / I'd been training for it every day.
9 I had arranged to meet Kate, but I was late. When I finally arrived, she was waiting / she'd been waiting for me. She was annoyed because she was waiting / she'd been waiting such a long time.
10a Joe and I work for the same company. He joined the company before me. When I started a few years ago, he was already working / he'd already been working there.
10b I started working at the company a few years ago. At the time I started, Joe was already working / had already been working there for two years.
10c Joe still works for the company. He's been working / He'd been working there a long time now.

➜ **Additional exercises 5–8** (pages 304–07)

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Unit 17

have and **have got**

A

have and **have got** (= for possession, relationships, illnesses, appointments etc.)

You can use **have** or **have got**. There is no difference in meaning. You can say:

- They **have** a new car. *or* They**'ve got** a new car.
- Lisa **has** two brothers. *or* Lisa **has got** two brothers.
- I **have** a headache. *or* I**'ve got** a headache.
- Our house **has** a small garden. *or* Our house **has got** a small garden.
- He **has** a few problems. *or* He**'s got** a few problems.
- I **have** a driving lesson tomorrow. *or* I**'ve got** a driving lesson tomorrow.

With these meanings (possession etc.), we do not use continuous forms (**I'm having** etc.):

- We're enjoying our holiday. We **have** / We**'ve got** a nice room in the hotel.
  (*not* We're having a nice room)

For the past we use **had** (usually without **got**):

- Lisa **had** long hair when she was a child. (*not* Lisa had got)

B

In questions and negative sentences there are three possible forms:

Do you have any questions? *or* **Have you got** any questions? *or* **Have you** any questions? *(less usual)*	I **don't have** any questions. *or* I **haven't got** any questions. *or* I **haven't** any questions. *(less usual)*
Does she have a car? *or* **Has she got** a car? *or* **Has she** a car? *(less usual)*	She **doesn't have** a car. *or* She **hasn't got** a car. *or* She **hasn't** a car. *(less usual)*

In past questions and negative sentences, we use **did**/**didn't**:

- **Did** you **have** a car when you were living in Paris?
- I **didn't have** my phone, so I couldn't call you.
- Lisa **had** long hair, **didn't** she?

C

have breakfast / **have a shower** / **have a good time** etc.

We also use **have** (*but not* have got) for things we do or experience. For example:

have	**breakfast** / **dinner** / **a cup of coffee** / **something to eat** etc. **a bath** / **a shower** / **a swim** / **a break** / **a rest** / **a party** / **a holiday** **an accident** / **an experience** / **a dream** **a look** (at something) **a chat** / **a discussion** / **a conversation** (with somebody) **trouble** / **difficulty** / **fun** / **a good time** etc. **a baby** (= give birth to a baby)

Have got is *not* possible in these expressions. Compare:

- Sometimes I **have** (= eat) a sandwich for my lunch. (*not* I've got)

but I**'ve got** / I **have** some sandwiches. Would you like one?

You can use continuous forms (I**'m having** etc.) with these expressions:

- We're enjoying our holiday. We**'re having** a great time.
- 'Where's Mark?' 'He**'s having** a shower.'

In questions and negative sentences we use **do**/**does**/**did**:

- I **don't** usually **have** a big breakfast. (*not* I usually haven't)
- Where **does** Chris usually **have** lunch?
- **Did** you **have** trouble finding somewhere to stay? (*not* Had you)

>> **have (got) to** … ➜ **Unit 31** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

17.1 Which goes with which?

1 I'm not free tomorrow morning.	a She's got a degree in physics.	1 d
2 Rachel is an only child.	b I've got a sore throat.	2 .....
3 We've got plenty of time.	c There's no need to hurry.	3 .....
4 You've got a really good voice.	d ~~I've got a driving lesson.~~	4 .....
5 I don't feel very well this morning.	e Maybe you can answer it.	5 .....
6 Laura studied at university.	f I think he should get the job.	6 .....
7 I've got a question.	g I wish I could sing as well as you.	7 .....
8 James has got a lot of experience.	h She's got no brothers or sisters.	8 .....

17.2 Complete the sentences using have.

1 She couldn't get into the house. She didn't have a key.
2 Is there anything you'd like to ask? Do you have any questions?
3 They can't pay their bills. They ..... any money.
4 We got wet in the rain yesterday. We ..... an umbrella.
5 Jack ..... a car. He can't afford one and he can't drive anyway.
6 'Excuse me, ... a pen I could borrow?' 'Yes, sure. Here you are.'
7 I was very busy yesterday. I ..... time to go shopping.
8 'Tell me about Jack. ..... a job?' 'Yes, he works at the hospital.'
9 When you worked in your last job, ... your own office?
10 'Where's the remote control?' 'I don't know. I ..... it.'
11 'Tom ..... a motorbike, ... he?' 'Yes, that's right. A long time ago.'

17.3 Are the underlined words OK? Change them where necessary.

1 I'm not free tomorrow morning. I've got a driving lesson. — OK
2 Lisa had got long hair when she was a child. — Lisa had long hair
3 I couldn't contact you because I hadn't my phone. — .....
4 'Are you feeling OK?' 'No, I'm having a cold.' — .....
5 I'm not working right now. I'm having a break. — .....
6 I felt really tired. I hadn't any energy. — .....
7 It's a small town. It doesn't have many shops. — .....
8 Was your trip OK? Had you any problems? — .....
9 My friend called me when I was having breakfast. — .....
10 The last time I saw Steve, he was having a beard. — .....
11 We don't need to hurry. We have plenty of time. — .....
12 How often have you a shower? — .....

17.4 Complete the sentences. Use an expression with have in the correct form. Choose from:

have a baby	**have a break**	**have a chat**	**have trouble**	**have a shower**
have a look	~~**have lunch**~~	**have a party**	**have a nice time**	**have a holiday**

1 I don't eat much during the day. I never have lunch.
2 David starts work at 8 o'clock and ..... at 10.30.
3 We ..... last week. We invited lots of people.
4 There's something wrong with my bike. Can you ..... at it for me?
5 Joe is away on holiday at the moment. I hope he ..... .
6 I met some friends in the supermarket yesterday. We stopped and ..... .
7 '..... finding the book you wanted?' 'No, I found it OK.'
8 Suzanne ..... a few weeks ago. It's her second child.
9 I ..... when the light went out suddenly.
10 I'd like to go away somewhere. I ..... for a long time.

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Unit 18

used to (do)

A Study this example situation:

Nicola doesn't travel much these days.
She prefers to stay at home.

But she **used to travel** a lot.
She **used to go** away two or three times a year.

She **used to travel** a lot = she travelled often in the past, but she doesn't do this any more.

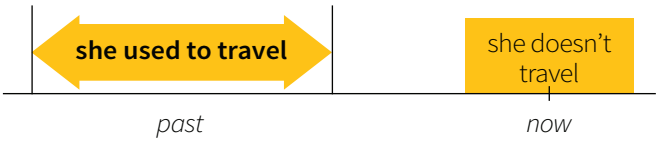

B I **used to** do something = I did it often in the past, but not any more:

- I **used to play** tennis a lot, but I don't play very much now.
- David **used to spend** a lot of money on clothes. These days he can't afford it.
- 'Do you go to the cinema much?' 'Not now, but I **used to**.' (= I used to go)

We also use **used to** … for things that were true, but are not true any more:

- This building is now a furniture shop. It **used to be** a cinema.
- I **used to think** Mark was unfriendly, but now I realise he's a very nice person.
- I've started drinking coffee recently. I never **used to like** it before.
- Lisa **used to have** very long hair when she was a child.

C '**I used to** do something' is past. There is no present. You cannot say 'I use to do'.
To talk about the present, we use the present simple (**I do**).

Compare:

past	he **used to play**	we **used to live**	there **used to be**
present	he **plays**	we **live**	there **is**

- We **used to live** in a small village, but now we **live** in a city.
- There **used to be** four cinemas in the town. Now there **is** only one.

D The normal question form is **did** (you) **use to** … ? :

- **Did** you **use to eat** a lot of sweets when you were a child? (= did you do this often?)

The negative form is **didn't use to** … (**used not to** … is also possible):

- I **didn't use to like** him. (*or* I **used not to like** him.)

E Compare **I used to do** and **I was doing**:

- I **used to watch** TV a lot. (= I watched TV often in the past, but I don't do this any more)
- I **was watching** TV when Rob called. (= I was in the middle of watching TV)

F Do not confuse **I used to do** and **I am used to doing** (see Unit 61). The structures and meanings are different:

- I **used to live** alone. (= I lived alone in the past, but I no longer live alone.)
- I **am used to living** alone. (= I live alone, and it's not a problem for me because I've lived alone for some time.)

>> Past continuous (**I was doing**) ➜ **Unit 6** **would** (= **used to**) ➜ **Unit 36**
be/get used to (**doing** something) ➜ **Unit 61**

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Exercises

18.1 **Complete the sentences with used to + a suitable verb.**

1 Nicola ...used to travel... a lot, but she doesn't go away much these days.
2 Sophie ..... a motorbike, but last year she sold it and bought a car.
3 Our friends moved to Spain a few years ago. They ..... in Paris.
4 Jackie ..... my best friend, but we aren't friends any more.
5 I rarely eat ice cream now, but I ..... it when I was a child.
6 It only takes me about 40 minutes to get to work now that the new road is open. It ..... more than an hour.
7 There ..... a hotel near the airport, but it closed a long time ago.
8 I ..... in a factory. It wasn't my favourite job.

18.2 **Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.**

1 Lisa ...used to have... very long hair when she was a child.
2 We ..... to watch TV a lot, but we don't have a TV any more.
3 Lisa works in a shop now. She ..... a receptionist in a hotel.
4 What games ..... you use to play when you were a child?
5 I ..... like big cities, but now I prefer the countryside.
6 In your last job, how many hours a day did you ..... to work?
7 I don't travel very much these days, but I used ..... .
8 I used to ..... to run ten kilometres, but I can't run that far now.
9 These days I eat more than before. I ..... use to eat as much.

did
didn't
to
use
used
used to
used to be
~~**used to have**~~
be able

18.3 **Compare what Karen said ten years ago and what she says today:**

Now write about how Karen has changed. Use used to / didn't use to / never used to in the first part of your sentence.

1 ...She used to travel a lot,... but ...she doesn't go away much these days.
2 She used ..... but .....
3 ..... but .....
4 ..... but .....
5 ..... but .....
6 ..... but .....

18.4 **Write sentences about yourself. Begin I used to ... (I used to be/work/like/play etc.)**

1 ...I used to live in a small village, but now I live in a city.
2 ...I used to play tennis a lot, but I don't play any more.
3 I used ....., but .....
4 I .....
5 .....

Now begin with I didn't use to ... .

6 ...I didn't use to read a lot, but I do now.
7 I didn't .....
8 .....

➜ **Additional exercise 9** (page 307)

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Unit 19

Present tenses (**I am doing** / **I do**) for the future

A *Present continuous* (**I am doing**) with a future meaning

This is Ben's diary for next week.

He **is playing** tennis on Monday afternoon.
He **is going** to the dentist on Tuesday morning.
He **is meeting** Kate on Friday.

In all these examples, Ben has already decided and arranged to do these things.

I'm doing something (tomorrow etc.) = I have already decided and arranged to do it:

- A: What **are** you **doing** on Saturday evening? (*not* What do you do)
  B: I**'m going** to the cinema. (*not* I go)
- A: What time **is** Katherine **arriving** tomorrow?
  B: Half past ten. We**'re meeting** her at the station.
- I**'m not working** tomorrow, so we can go out somewhere.
- Steve **isn't playing** football next Saturday. He's hurt his leg.

We do not normally use **will** to talk about what we have arranged to do:

- What **are** you **doing** tonight? (*not* What will you do)
- Alex **is getting** married next month. (*not* will get)

We also use the present continuous for an action *just before you start to do it*. This happens especially with verbs of movement (**go**/**come**/**leave** etc.):

- I'm tired. I**'m going** to bed now. Goodnight. (*not* I go to bed now)
- 'Tina, are you ready yet?' 'Yes, I**'m coming**.' (*not* I come)

B *Present simple* (**I do**) with a future meaning

We use the present simple when we talk about timetables and programmes (for example, transport or cinema times):

- I have to go. My train **leaves** at 11.30.
- What time **does** the film **start** tonight?
- The meeting **is** at nine o'clock tomorrow.

You can use the present simple to talk about people if their plans are fixed like a timetable:

- I **start** my new job on Monday.
- What time **do** you **finish** work tomorrow?

But the continuous is more usual for other personal arrangements:

- What time **are** you **meeting** Kate tomorrow? (*not* do you meet)

Compare:

Present continuous	*Present simple*
What time **are** you **arriving**?	What time **does** the train **arrive**?
I**'m going** to the cinema this evening.	The film **starts** at 8.15.

When you talk about appointments, lessons, exams etc., you can use **I have** or **I've got**:

- **I have** an exam next week. *or* **I've got** an exam next week.

>> **I'm going to → Units 20, 23** **will → Units 21–22** Present simple after **when** and **if → Unit 25**

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Exercises

ANNA

19.1 **Ask Anna about her holiday plans.**

1 (where / go?) Where are you going?
2 (how long / go for?) .....
3 (when / leave?) .....
4 (go / alone?) .....
5 (travel / by car?) .....
6 (where / stay?) .....

Scotland.
Ten days.
Next Friday.
No, with a friend.
No, by train.
In a hotel.

19.2 **Complete the sentences.**

1 Steve isn't playing (not / play) football on Saturday. He's hurt his leg.
2 ..... (We / have) a party next week. We've invited all our friends.
3 ..... (I / not / work) tomorrow. It's a public holiday.
4 ..... (I / leave) now. I've come to say goodbye.
5 'What time ..... (you / go) out this evening?' 'Seven o'clock.'
6 ..... (Laura / not / come) to the party tomorrow. She isn't well.
7 I love New York. ..... (I / go) there soon.
8 Ben can't meet us on Monday. ..... (He / work) late.

19.3 **Have you arranged to do anything at these times? Write sentences about yourself.**

1 (this evening) I'm not doing anything this evening.
2 (tomorrow morning) I .....
3 (tomorrow evening) I .....
4 (next Sunday) I .....
5 (*another day or time*) .....

19.4 **Complete the sentences. Use the present continuous or present simple.**

1 A: Tina, are you ready yet?
B: Yes, I'm coming (I / come).
2 A: ..... (you / go) to Sam's party on Saturday?
B: No, I haven't been invited.
3 A: Has Jack moved into his new apartment yet?
B: Not yet, but ..... (he / move) soon – probably at the end of the month.
4 A: ..... (I / go) to a concert tonight.
B: That's nice. What time ..... (it / start)?
5 A: Have you seen Chris recently?
B: No, but ..... (we / meet) for lunch next week.
6 A: ..... (you / do) anything tomorrow morning?
B: No, I'm free. Why?
7 A: When ..... (this term / end)?
B: Next Friday. And next term ..... (start) four weeks after that.
8 A: ..... (We / go) to a wedding at the weekend.
B: Really? ..... (Who / get) married?
9 A: There's football on TV later tonight. ..... (you / watch) it?
B: No, I'm not interested.
10 A: What time is your train tomorrow?
B: It ..... (leave) at 9.35 and ..... (arrive) at 12.47.
11 A: I'd like to go and see the exhibition at the museum. How long is it on for?
B: ..... (It / finish) next week.
12 A: Do you need the car this evening?
B: No, you can have it. ..... (I / not / use) it.

➜ **Additional exercises 10–13** (pages 308–10)
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Unit 20

I'm going to (do)

A

I **am going to do** something = I have already decided to do it, I intend to do it:

- '**Are** you **going to eat** anything?' 'No, I'm not hungry.'
- A: I hear Sarah won the lottery. What **is** she **going to do** with the money?
  B: She**'s going to buy** a new car.
- I**'m** just **going to make** a quick phone call. Can you wait for me?
- This cheese smells horrible. I**'m not going to eat** it.

B

I am doing and **I am going to do**

I am doing = it is *already fixed or arranged*. For example, you have arranged to go somewhere or meet somebody:

- I**'m leaving** next week. I've booked my flight.
- What time **are** you **meeting** Emily this evening?

I **am going to do** something = I've decided to do it. Maybe I've arranged to do it, maybe not.

- A: Your shoes are dirty.
  B: Yes, I know. I**'m going to clean** them.
  (= I've *decided* to clean them, but I haven't arranged this with anybody)
- I don't want to stay here. Tomorrow I**'m going to look** for somewhere else to stay.

Compare:

- I don't know what I**'m doing** tomorrow. (= I don't know my schedule or plans)
- I don't know what I**'m going to do** about the problem. (= I haven't decided what to do)

Often the difference is small and either form is possible.

C

You can also say that 'something **is going to happen**' in the future. For example:

The man isn't looking where he is going.

He **is going to walk** into the wall.

When we say that 'something **is going to happen**', the situation *now* makes this clear.
The man is walking towards the wall now, so we can see that he **is going to walk** into it.

now *future*

Some more examples:

- Look at those black clouds! It**'s going to rain**. (we can see the clouds *now*)
- I feel terrible. I think I**'m going to be** sick. (I feel terrible *now*)
- The economic situation is bad now and things **are going to get** worse.

D

I **was going to** do something = I intended to do it, but didn't do it:

- We **were going to travel** by train, but then we decided to drive instead.
- I **was** just **going to cross** the road when somebody shouted 'Stop!'

You can say that 'something **was going to happen**' (but didn't happen):

- I thought it **was going to rain**, but it didn't.

>> **I am doing** (future) ➜ **Unit 19A** **I will** and **I'm going to** ➜ **Unit 23**

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Exercises

20.1 Write questions with going to.

1 Your friend has won some money. You ask:
(what / do?) What are you going to do with it?
2 Your friend is going to a wedding next week. You ask:
(what / wear?) .....
3 Your friend has just bought a new table. You ask:
(where / put?) .....
4 Your friend has decided to have a party. You ask:
(who / invite?) .....
5 Your friend has bought some fish for dinner. You ask:
(how / cook?) .....

20.2 Complete the sentences using I'm going to ... / I'm not going to ... . Choose from:

complain **learn** **run** **say** **try** **wash** **not/accept** ~~**not/eat**~~ **not/tell**

1 This cheese smells horrible. I'm not going to eat it.
2 I haven't been trying hard enough. From now on ..... harder.
3 I have to make a speech tomorrow, but I don't know what ..... .
4 'The car is very dirty.' 'I know. ..... it.'
5 I've been offered a job, but ..... it. The pay is too low.
6 ..... a language, but I haven't decided yet which one.
7 One day ..... in a marathon. It's my ambition.
8 The food in this restaurant is awful. ..... .
9 Ben doesn't need to know what happened, so ..... him.

20.3 What is going to happen in these situations? Use the words in brackets.

1 There are a lot of black clouds in the sky.
(rain) It's going to rain.
2 It is 8.30. Tom is leaving home. He has to be at work at 8.45, but the journey takes 30 minutes.
(late) He .....
3 There is a hole in the bottom of the boat. A lot of water is coming in through the hole.
(sink) The boat .....
4 Amy and Ben are driving. The tank is nearly empty. It's a long way to the nearest petrol station.
(run out) They .....
5 Sarah's car was badly damaged in an accident. Now it has to be repaired.
(cost a lot) It ..... to repair the car.

20.4 Complete the sentences with was/were going to. Choose from:

be **buy** **give up** **phone** **play** **say** ~~**travel**~~

1 We were going to travel by train, but then we decided to go by car instead.
2 I ..... some new clothes yesterday, but I didn't have time to go to the shops.
3 Tom and I ..... tennis last week, but he'd hurt his knee and had to cancel.
4 I ..... Jane, but I sent her an email instead.
5 I thought the exam ..... hard, but it was easier than I expected.
6 Peter ..... his job, but in the end he decided to stay where he was.
7 I'm sorry I interrupted you. What ..... you ..... ?

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Unit 21

will and **shall** 1

A

We use **I'll** . . . (= **I will**) when we've just decided to do something. When we say '**I'll** do something', we announce our decision:

- Oh, I left the door open. **I'll go** and shut it.
- 'What would you like to drink?' '**I'll have** orange juice, please.'
- 'Did you call Max?' 'Oh no, I forgot. **I'll call** him now.'

We do not use the *present simple* (**I do** / **I go** etc.) in these sentences:

- **I'll phone** him now. (*not* I phone him now)

We often use **I think I'll** . . . / **I don't think I'll** . . . :

- I'm a little hungry. **I think I'll have** something to eat.
- **I don't think I'll go** out tonight. I'm too tired.

In spoken English **will not** is usually **won't**:

- I can see you're busy, so **I won't stay** long. (= I will not stay long)

B

We often use **I'll** in these situations:

Offering to do something

- That bag looks heavy. **I'll help** you with it. (*not* I help)

Agreeing to do something

- A: Can you give Tom this book?
  B: Sure, **I'll give** it to him when I see him this afternoon.

Promising to do something

- Thanks for lending me the money. **I'll pay** you back on Friday.
- I **won't tell** anyone what happened. I promise.

We use **won't** to say that somebody refuses to do something:

- I've tried to give her advice, but she **won't listen**.
- The car **won't start**. (= the car 'refuses' to start)

Will you (do something)? = please do it:

- **Will you** please turn the music down? It's too loud.

C

We do *not* use **will** to talk about what has been decided or arranged before:

- **I'm going** on holiday next Saturday. (*not* I'll go)

Compare:

- I'**m meeting** Kate tomorrow morning. (decided before)
- A: **I'll meet** you at half past ten, OK?
  B: Fine. See you then. (decided now)

D

We use **shall** mostly in the questions **shall I** . . . ? / **shall we** . . . ?

We use **shall I** . . . ? / **shall we** . . . ? to ask if it's OK to do something or to ask for a suggestion:

- **Shall I** open the window? (= do you want me to open it?)
- I've got no money. What **shall I** do? (= what do you suggest?)
- '**Shall we** go?' 'Just a minute. I'm not ready yet.'
- 'Where **shall we** have lunch?' 'Let's go to Marino's.'

Compare **shall I** . . . ? and **will you** . . . ? :

- **Shall I** shut the door? (= do you want me to shut it?)
- **Will you** shut the door? (= I want you to shut it)

>> **I am doing** (future) ➜ **Unit 19** **will** and **shall** 2 ➜ **Unit 22** **I will** and **I'm going to** ➜ **Unit 23**
American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

21.1 Complete the sentences with I'll + a suitable verb.

1 'How are you going to get home?' 'I think I'll take a taxi.'
2 'It's cold in this room.' 'Is it? ..... on the heating then.'
3 'Are you free next Friday?' 'Let me see. ..... my diary.'
4 'Shall I do the washing-up?' 'No, it's all right. ..... it later.'
5 'I don't know how to use this phone.' 'OK, ... you.'
6 'Would you like tea or coffee?' '..... coffee, please.'
7 'Are you coming with us?' 'No, I think ..... here.'
8 'Can you finish this report today?' 'Well, ..., but I can't promise.'

21.2 Read the situations and write sentences with I think I'll ... or I don't think I'll ... .

1 It's a bit cold. The window is open and you decide to close it. You say:
It's cold with the window open. I think I'll close it.
2 You are feeling tired and it's getting late. You decide to go to bed. You say:
I'm tired, so ..... . Goodnight!
3 The weather is nice and you need some exercise. You decide to go for a walk. You say:
It's a lovely morning. ..... . Do you want to come too?
4 You were going to have lunch. Now you decide you don't want to eat anything. You say:
I don't feel hungry any more. ..... lunch.
5 You planned to go swimming today. Now you decide not to go. You say:
I've got a lot to do, so ..... today.

21.3 Which is correct?

1 'Did you call Max?' 'Oh no, I forgot. ~~I call~~ / I'll call him now.' (I'll call *is correct*)
2 I can't meet you tomorrow morning. I'm playing / ~~I'll play~~ tennis. (I'm playing *is correct*)
3 'I meet / I'll meet you outside the hotel at 10.30, OK?' 'Yes, that's fine.'
4 'Please don't go yet.' 'OK, I'm staying / I'll stay a little longer, but I have to go soon.'
5 I'm having / I'll have a party next Saturday. I hope you can come.
6 'Remember to lock the door when you go out.' 'OK. I don't forget / I won't forget.'
7 'Do you have any plans for the weekend?' 'Yes, we're going / we'll go to a wedding.'
8 'Are you doing / Will you do anything tomorrow evening?' 'No, I'm free. Why?'
9 'Do you do / Will you do something for me?' 'It depends. What do you want me to do?'
10 'Do you go / Will you go to work by car?' 'Not usually. I prefer to walk.'
11 I asked Sue what happened, but she doesn't tell / won't tell me.
12 I don't know if I can win the race tomorrow, but I'm doing / I'll do my best.

21.4 What do you say in these situations? Write sentences with shall I ... ? or shall we ... ?

1 You and a friend want to do something this evening, but you don't know what.
You say: What shall we do this evening? Do you want to go somewhere?
2 You and a friend are going on holiday together, but you have to decide where.
You ask your friend: .....?
3 You try on a jacket in a shop. You are not sure whether to buy it or not.
You ask a friend for advice: .....? What do you think?
4 You and a friend are going out. You have to decide whether to get a taxi or to walk.
You ask your friend: ..... or .....?
5 It's Helen's birthday soon. You want to give her a present, but what?
You ask a friend: What .....? Any ideas?
6 You're meeting a friend tomorrow, but you have to decide what time.
You say: .....? Is 10.30 OK for you?

➜ **Additional exercises 10–13** (pages 308–10)
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Unit 22

will and shall 2

A

We do *not* use **will** to say what somebody has *already arranged* or *decided* to do:

- Lisa **is working** next week. (*not* Lisa will work)
- **Are** you **going to watch** TV this evening? (*not* will you watch)

See Units 19–20.

We use **will** to say what we know or believe about the future (not what someone has already decided). For example:

Kate has her driving test next week.
Chris and Joe are talking about it.

Joe believes that Kate **will pass** the driving test.
He is *predicting* the future.

When we predict a future happening or situation, we use **will**/**won't**.

Some more examples:

- They've been away a long time. When they return, they**'ll find** a lot of changes here.
- 'Where **will** you **be** this time next year?' 'I**'ll be** in Japan.'
- That plate is hot. If you touch it, you**'ll burn** yourself.
- Anna looks completely different now. You **won't recognise** her.
- When **will** you **get** your exam results?

Compare:

- I think James **is going** to the party on Friday. (= I think he has already decided to go)
- I think James **will go** to the party on Friday. (= I think he will decide to go)

B

We often use **will** (**'ll**) with:

probably	I**'ll probably** be home late tonight.
I'm sure	Don't worry about the exam. **I'm sure** you**'ll** pass.
I think	Do you **think** Sarah **will** like the present we bought her?
I don't think	I **don't think** the exam **will** be very difficult.
I wonder	I **wonder** what **will** happen.

After **I hope**, we generally use the present:

- I hope Kate **passes** the driving test.
- I hope it **doesn't rain** tomorrow.

C

Generally we use **will** to talk about *the future*, but sometimes we use **will** to talk about *now*:

- Don't phone Amy now. She**'ll be** busy. (= she'll be busy *now*)

D

Normally we use **shall** only with **I** and **we**. You can say:
I shall *or* **I will** (**I'll**) **we shall** *or* **we will** (**we'll**)

- **I shall** be late this evening. (*or* **I will** be)
- **We shall** probably go to France in June. (*or* **We will** probably go)

In spoken English we normally use **I'll** and **we'll**:

- **We'll** probably go to France.

The negative of **shall** is **shall not** or **shan't**:

- I **shan't** be here tomorrow. (*or* I **won't** be)

We do not normally use **shall** with **he**/**she**/**it**/**you**/**they**:

- She **will** be very angry. (*not* She shall be)

>> **will** and **shall** 1 ➜ **Unit 21** **I will** and **I'm going to** ➜ **Unit 23** **will be doing** and **will have done** ➜ **Unit 24**
will have to ➜ **Unit 31A** The future ➜ **Appendix 3** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

22.1 Put in will ('ll) or won't.

1 Can you wait for me? I ...won't... be long.
2 There's no point in asking Amanda for advice. She ..... know what to do.
3 I'm glad I'm meeting Emma tomorrow. It ..... be good to see her again.
4 I'm sorry about what happened yesterday. It ..... happen again.
5 You don't need to take an umbrella with you. I don't think it ..... rain.
6 I've got some incredible news! You ..... believe it.

22.2 Complete the sentences using will ('ll). Choose from the following:

it/be	she/come	you/get	you/like	you/enjoy
people/live	it/look	we/meet	~~you/pass~~	she/mind

1 Don't worry about your exam. I'm sure ...you'll pass... .
2 Why don't you try on this jacket? ..... nice on you.
3 You must meet Max sometime. I think ..... him.
4 It's a very nice hotel. ..... your stay there.
5 It's raining hard. Don't go out. ..... very wet.
6 Do you think ..... longer in the future?
7 Goodbye! I'm sure ..... again before long.
8 I've invited Anna to the party, but I don't think ..... .
9 You can borrow Amy's umbrella. I don't think ..... .
10 It takes me an hour to get to work at the moment. When the new road is finished, ... much quicker.

22.3 Write questions using do you think ... will ... ? + the following:

be back	cost	end	get married	happen	~~like~~	rain

1 I've bought this picture for Karen. ...Do you think she'll like it... ?
2 The weather doesn't look very good. Do you ..... ?
3 The meeting is still going on. When do you ..... ?
4 My car needs to be repaired. How much ..... ?
5 Sally and David are in love. Do ..... ?
6 'I'm going out now.' 'OK. What time ..... ?'
7 The future situation is uncertain. What ..... ?

22.4 Where do you think you will be at these times? Write sentences about yourself. Use:

I'll be ... *or* **I'll probably be ...** *or* **I don't know where ...**

1 (next Monday evening at 7.45) ...I'll probably be at home.....
2 (at 3 am tomorrow) .....
3 (at 10.30 tomorrow morning) .....
4 (next Friday afternoon at 4.15) .....
5 (this time next year) .....

22.5 Which is better in these sentences?

1 Lisa isn't free on Saturday. ~~She'll work~~ / She's working. (She's working *is correct*)
2 It was an amazing experience. I never forget it. / I'll never forget it.
3 Something very funny happened. You're laughing / You'll laugh when I tell you about it.
4 I'll go / I'm going to a party tomorrow night. Would you like to come too?
5 Who do you think will win / is winning the game tomorrow?
6 I can't meet you this evening. A friend of mine will come / is coming to see me.
7 Don't be afraid of the dog. It won't hurt / It isn't hurting you.
8 What's happening / What will happen if I press this button?
9 A: Have you decided where to go for your holidays?
B: Yes, we'll go / we're going to Italy.

➜ **Additional exercises 10–13** (pages 308–10)
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Unit 23

I will and I'm going to

A Future actions

Compare **will** and (**be**) **going to**:

Sarah is talking to Helen:

will (We**'ll invite** . . .)

We use **will** (We**'ll** invite . . .) to announce a new decision. The party is a new idea.

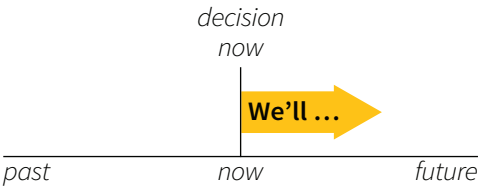

Later that day, Helen meets Max:

(**be**) **going to** (We**'re going to** invite . . .)

We use (**be**) **going to** when we have *already decided* to do something.
Helen had already decided to invite lots of people *before* she spoke to Max.

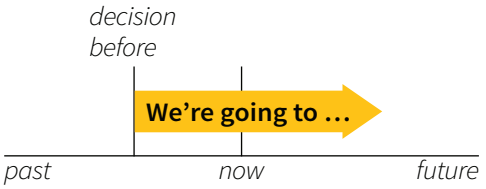

Compare:

- 'Gary has been trying to contact you.' 'Has he? OK, I**'ll call** him.'
  'Gary has been trying to contact you.' 'Yes, I know. I**'m going to call** him.'
- 'Anna is in hospital.' 'Really? I didn't know. I**'ll go** and visit her.'
  'Anna is in hospital.' 'Yes, I know. I**'m going to visit** her this evening.'

B Future happenings and situations (predicting the future)

We use both **will** and **going to** for future happenings and situations. So you can say:

- I think the weather **will be** nice later. *or*
  I think the weather **is going to be** nice later.
- Those shoes are well-made. They**'ll last** a long time. *or*
  Those shoes are well-made. They**'re going to last** a long time.

When we say something **is going to** happen, we believe this because of the situation *now*. What is happening *now* shows that something **is going to** happen in the future. For example:

- Look at those black clouds. It**'s going to rain**. (*not* it will rain)
  (we can see that it **is going to rain** – the black clouds are in the sky *now*)

Compare:

- We**'re going to be** late. The meeting starts in five minutes and it takes 15 minutes to get there.
  (it is clear *now* that we don't have enough time to get there)
- Jane **will be** late for the meeting. She's always late.
  (I believe this because I know what Jane is like)

>> I'm going to ➜ Unit 20 will ➜ Units 21–22 The future ➜ Appendix 3

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Exercises

23.1 Complete the sentences using will ('ll) or (be) going to.

1 A: Why are you turning on the TV?
B: I'm going to watch the news. (I / watch)
2 A: I forgot my wallet. I don't have any money.
B: Not to worry. ..... you some. (I / lend)
3 A: Why are you filling that bucket with water?
B: ..... the car. (I / wash)
4 A: I don't know how to use the washing machine.
B: It's easy. ..... you. (I / show)
5 A: I've decided to paint this room.
B: That's nice. What colour ..... it? (you / paint)
6 A: Where are you going? Are you going shopping?
B: Yes, ... some things for dinner tonight. (I / buy)
7 A: What would you like to eat?
B: ..... a pizza, please. (I / have)
8 A: This food doesn't taste very good, does it?
B: No, it's horrible. ..... it. (I / not / finish)
9 A: Tom is starting an evening class next month.
B: Is he? What ..... ? (he / study)
10 A: Did you call Lisa?
B: Oh, no. I completely forgot. ..... her now. (I / call)
11 A: Has Dan decided what to do when he leaves school?
B: Yes. Everything is planned.
First ..... a holiday for a few weeks. (he / have)
Then ..... a management training course. (he / do)

23.2 Read the situations and complete the sentences using will ('ll) or (be) going to.

1 You want some coffee. You go to the kitchen to make some.
You say (to your friend): I'm going to make some coffee. Would you like some?
2 You're speaking to a friend and arranging to meet. You suggest a time and place.
You say: ..... you at 10.30 in the hotel lobby, OK? (I/see)
3 You have decided to sell your car. You tell a friend of yours.
You say: I don't need my car any more. ..... it. (I/sell)
4 Your friend is worried because she has lost her driving licence.
You say: Don't worry. I'm sure ..... it. (you/find)
5a You have an old camera that is broken. You have decided to throw it away. You tell your friend.
You say: This camera is broken. ..... it away. (I/throw)
5b Your friend loves and collects old cameras. He doesn't want you to throw it away.
He says: Don't throw it away! ..... it. (I/have)
6a Joe has to go to the airport tomorrow. He doesn't know how to get there. Amy offers to take him.
Amy says: Don't worry about getting to the airport, Joe. ..... you. (I/take)
6b Later that day, Paul offers to take Joe to the airport. Joe tells him that it's not necessary.
Joe says: Thanks, Paul, but ..... me. (Amy/take)

23.3 Which goes with which?

1	Why don't you come to the party with us?	a	He'll get what he wants.	1	f
2	That ceiling looks dangerous.	b	He probably won't remember me.	2	
3	He's looking very tired.	c	It's going to be a nice day.	3	
4	This table is too big.	d	It looks as if it's going to fall down.	4	
5	The weather forecast is good.	e	It's going to be 200 metres high.	5	
6	Jack is very determined.	f	~~You'll enjoy it.~~	6	
7	They are building a new skyscraper here.	g	I don't think it will fit in the room.	7	
8	I haven't seen Ben for ages.	h	I think he's going to fall asleep.	8	

➜ Additional exercises 10–13 (pages 308–10)
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Unit 24

will be doing and will have done

A Study this example situation:

These people are standing in a queue to get into the cinema.

now

Half an hour from now, the cinema will be full. Everyone **will be watching** the film.

half an hour from now

Three hours from now, the cinema will be empty. The film **will have finished**. Everyone **will have gone** home.

three hours from now

B I **will be doing** something (*future continuous*) = I will be in the middle of doing it:

- This time next week I'll be on holiday. I**'ll be lying** on the beach or **swimming** in the sea.
- You have no chance of getting the job. You**'ll be wasting** your time if you apply.

Compare **will be** (do)**ing** and **will** (do):

- Don't phone between 7 and 8. We**'ll be eating**.
- Let's wait for Liz to arrive and then we**'ll eat**.

Compare:

- At 10 o'clock yesterday, Tina **was** in her office. She **was working**. *(past continuous)*
  It's 10 o'clock now. She **is** in her office. She **is working**. *(present continuous)*
  At 10 o'clock tomorrow, she **will be** in her office. She **will be working**. *(future continuous)*

C We also use **will be -ing** to talk about complete actions in the future. For example:

- The government **will be making** a statement about the crisis later today.
- Later in the programme, I**'ll be talking** to the Minister of Education.
- The team's star player is injured and **won't be playing** in the game on Saturday.

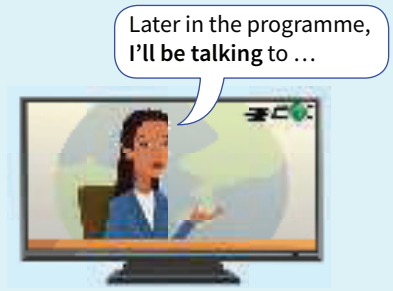

When we use it in this way, **will be** (**doing**) is similar to **will** (**do**) and **going to** (**do**).

D I **will have done** something (*future perfect*) = it will be complete before a time in the future. For example:

- Sally always leaves for work at 8.30 in the morning. She won't be at home at 9 o'clock – she**'ll have gone** to work.
- We're late. The film **will** already **have started** by the time we get to the cinema.

Compare:

- Ted and Amy **have been** married for 24 years. *(present perfect)*
  Next year they **will have been** married for 25 years. *(future perfect)*
  When their son was born, they **had been** married for three years. *(past perfect)*

>> **will → Units 21–22** **by then / by the time → Unit 120** The future **→ Appendix 3**

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Exercises

24.1 **Read about Andy. Then tick (✓) the sentences which are true. In each group of sentences at least one is true.**

Andy goes to work every day. He leaves home at 8 o'clock and arrives at work at about 8.45. He starts work immediately and continues until 12.30 when he has lunch (which takes about half an hour). He starts work again at 1.15 and goes home at exactly 4.30. Every day he follows the same routine and tomorrow will be no exception.

1

At 7.45
a he'll be leaving the house
b he'll have left the house
c he'll be at home ✓
d he'll be having breakfast ✓

2

At 8.15
a he'll be leaving the house
b he'll have left the house
c he'll have arrived at work
d he'll be arriving at work

3

At 9.15
a he'll be working
b he'll start work
c he'll have started work
d he'll be arriving at work

4

At 12.45
a he'll have lunch
b he'll be having lunch
c he'll have finished his lunch
d he'll have started his lunch

5

At 4 o'clock
a he'll have finished work
b he'll finish work
c he'll be working
d he won't have finished work

6

At 4.45
a he'll leave work
b he'll be leaving work
c he'll have left work
d he'll have arrived home

24.2 **Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.**

1 There's an election next week. Who ...will you be voting... for?
2 I'll ..... shopping later. Can I get you anything?
3 Emily is not well, so she ..... volleyball tomorrow.
4 Little Emma ..... school soon. She's growing up fast.
5 The match is on TV tonight. Will you ..... it?
6 What ..... in your new job? The same as before?
7 I ..... to the wedding. I'll be away on holiday.
8 Please fasten your seat belts. The plane ..... in ten minutes.

be watching
will be landing
won't be playing
will be starting
~~**will you be voting**~~
won't be going
be going
will you be doing

24.3 **Put the verb into the correct form, will be (do)ing or will have (done).**

1 Don't phone between 7 and 8. ...We'll be eating... then. (we / eat)
2 Tomorrow afternoon we're going to play tennis from 3 o'clock until 4.30. So at 4 o'clock, ... tennis. (we / play)
3 Sarah will meet you at the station. ..... for you when you arrive. (she / wait)
4 The meeting starts at 9.30 and won't last longer than an hour. You can be sure that ..... by 11 o'clock. (it / finish)
5 Do you think ..... in the same place in ten years' time? (you / still / live)
6 Lisa is travelling in Europe and so far she has travelled about 1,000 miles. By the end of the trip, ... more than 3,000 miles. (she / travel)
7 If you need to contact me, ... at the Lion Hotel until Friday. (I / stay)
8 Ben is on holiday and is spending his money very quickly. If he continues like this, ... all his money before the end of his holiday. (he / spend)
9 I'm fed up with my job. I hope ..... it much longer. (I / not / do)

➜ **Additional exercises 12–13** (pages 309–10)

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Unit 25

when I do and when I've done if and when

A

Study this example:

Amy is on a train. She's calling a friend.

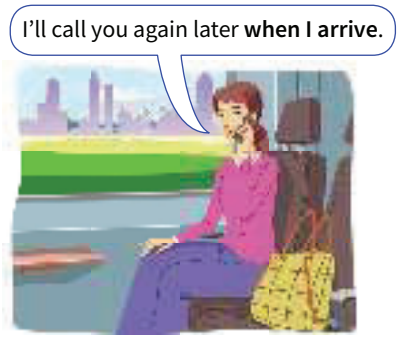

'I'll call you again later when I arrive' is a sentence with two parts:

the main part: I'll call you again later
and **when** . . .: when I arrive

The time is *future* ('later'), but Amy says:
. . . **when I arrive** (*not* when I will arrive)

We say
when I **do** something (*not* will do)
when something **happens** (*not* will happen)

Some more examples:

- We'll go out **when** it **stops** raining. (*not* when it will stop)
- **When** you **are** here again, you must come and see us. (*not* When you will be)
- Don't forget to lock the door **when** you **go** out. (*not* will go)

The same thing happens after **while** / **before** / **after** / **as soon as** / **until**:

- What are you going to do **while** I'**m** away? (*not* while I will be)
- **Before** you **go**, there's something I want to ask you.
- Wait here **until** I **come** back. *or* . . . **till** I **come** back.

B

You can also use the *present perfect* (**have done**) after **when** / **after** / **until** / **as soon as**:

- Can I have the newspaper **when** you'**ve finished** with it?
- Don't say anything while Ian is here. Wait **until** he **has gone**.

We use the present perfect to show that one thing is complete *before* the other. The two things do *not* happen together:

- **When** I'**ve phoned** Kate, we can go out.
  (= first I'll phone Kate and *after that* we can go out)

Do not use the present perfect if the two things happen together:

- **When** I **phone** Kate, I'll ask her about the party. (*not* when I've phoned)

It is often possible to use either the present simple or the present perfect:

- I'll come **as soon as I finish**. *or* I'll come **as soon as I've finished**.
- You'll feel better **after** you **have** something to eat. *or* You'll feel better **after** you'**ve had** something to eat.

C

if and **when**

After **if**, we normally use the present (**if** I **do** / **if** I **see** etc.) for the future:

- I'll be angry **if** it **happens** again. (*not* if it will happen)
- Hurry up! **If** we **don't** hurry, we'll be late.

We use **if** (*not* when) for things that will *possibly* happen (or not happen):

- **If** it is raining this evening, I won't go out. (*not* when it is raining)
- Don't worry **if** I'm late tonight. (*not* when I'm late)
- **If** they don't come soon, I'm not going to wait for them.

We use **when** for things which are *sure* to happen. Compare:

- I might go out later. *(it's possible)* **If** I go out, I'll get some bread.
- I'm going out later. *(for sure)* **When** I go out, I'll get some bread.

>> if → Units 38–40 even if / even when → Unit 112D unless → Unit 115

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Exercises

25.1 Which is correct?

1 Don't forget to lock the door when you go out / ~~you'll go out~~. (you go out *is correct*)
2 As soon as we get any more information, we let / we'll let you know.
3 I want to get to the cinema before the film starts / will start.
4 Don't drive through a red light. Wait until it changes / it will change to green.
5 Sarah will be here soon. I make / I'll make some coffee when she comes.
6 I'm 20 now. I wonder where I'll be when I'm 40 / I'll be 40.
7 I wait / I'll wait for you until you're ready, but don't be long.
8 Oliver is five years old. He wants to be a TV presenter when he grows up / he'll grow up.
9 We could meet for coffee tomorrow morning if you're / you will be free.
10 If the weather is / will be nice tomorrow, we're going to the beach.
11 Vicky is / will be very disappointed if she doesn't get a place at university.
12 You'll feel better after you've had / you'll have something to eat.

25.2 Complete the sentences using the verbs in brackets. Use will/won't or the present (see/plays/are etc.).

1 When ....you are.... (you / be) here again, you must come and see us.
2 I want to see Sophie before ..... (she / go) away next week.
3 Call me when ..... (you / know) what time you're going to get here.
4 There's no need to hurry. ..... (I / wait) for you until ..... (you / be) ready.
5 I'm going out for about an hour. ..... (you / still / be) here when ..... (I / get) back?
6 I think everything will be fine, but if ..... (there / be) any problems, ... (I / let) you know, OK?
7 Kate looks completely different now. ..... (you / not / recognise) her when ..... (you / see) her again.
8 I'm going to be away for a few days. If ..... (you / need) to contact me while ..... (I / be) away, you can call me.

25.3 Read the situations and complete the sentences.

1 You and a friend want to go out, but it's raining hard. You don't want to get wet.
You say: Let's wait until ....it stops raining.....
2 You're visiting a friend. It's going to get dark soon, and you want to leave before that.
You ask: I'd better go now before .....
3 You want to sell your car. Mark is interested in buying it, but he hasn't decided yet.
You ask: Let me know as soon as .....
4 Your friends are going to Hong Kong soon. You want to know where they're going to stay.
You ask: Where are you going to stay when .....?
5 The traffic is bad in your town, but they are going to build a new road.
You say: I think things will be better when they .....
6 Someone you know has been very rude to you. You want her to apologise.
You say (to someone else): I won't speak to her until .....

25.4 Put in when or if.

1 Don't worry ....if.... I'm late tonight.
2 Be careful. You'll hurt yourself ..... you fall.
3 I'm going shopping. ..... you want anything, I can get it for you.
4 I'm going away for a few days. I'll call you ..... I get back.
5 ..... I don't see you tomorrow, when will I see you again?
6 I'm watching a programme on TV right now. ..... it finishes, I'm going to bed.
7 We can eat at home or, ... you prefer, we can go to a restaurant.
8 I hope Sarah can come to the party. It will be a shame ..... she can't come.

➜ Additional exercises 12–15 (pages 309–11), 32 (page 321)
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Unit 26

can, could and (be) able to

A

We use **can** to say that something is possible or allowed, or that somebody has the ability to do something. We use **can** + *infinitive* (**can do** / **can see** etc.):

- We **can see** the lake from our hotel.
- 'I don't have a pen.' 'You **can use** mine.'
- **Can** you **speak** any foreign languages?
- I **can come** and see you tomorrow if you like.
- The word 'dream' **can be** a noun or a verb.

The negative is **can't** (= **cannot**):

- I'm afraid I **can't come** to the party on Friday.

B

You can say that somebody **is able to** do something, but **can** is more usual:

- We **are able to see** the lake from our hotel.

But **can** has only two forms: **can** *(present)* and **could** *(past)*. So sometimes it is necessary to use (**be**) **able to**. Compare:

- I **can't** sleep.
- Tom **can** come tomorrow.
- Maria **can** speak French, Spanish and English.

- I **haven't been able to** sleep recently.
- Tom **might be able to** come tomorrow.
- Applicants for the job **must be able to** speak two foreign languages.

C

Sometimes **could** is the past of **can**. We use **could** especially with:

see **hear** **smell** **taste** **feel** **remember** **understand**

- We had a lovely room in the hotel. We **could see** the lake.
- As soon as I walked into the room, I **could smell** gas.
- I was sitting at the back of the theatre and **couldn't hear** very well.

We also use **could** to say that somebody had the ability to do something, or was allowed to do something:

- My grandfather **could speak** five languages.
- We were totally free. We **could do** what we wanted. (= we were allowed to do)

D

could and **was able to**

We use **could** for *general* ability and with **see**, **hear** etc. :

- My grandfather **could speak** five languages.
- I **could see** them, but not very clearly.

But to say that somebody succeeded in doing something in a specific situation, we normally use **was**/**were able to** or **managed to** (*not* **could**):

- The fire spread quickly, but everybody **was able to escape**. (*not* could escape)
- I didn't know where Max was, but I **managed to find** him in the end. (*not* could find)

Compare:

- Jack was an excellent tennis player when he was younger. He **could beat** anybody.
  (= he was good enough to beat anybody, he had the ability)

but Jack and Andy played a match yesterday. Andy played well, but Jack **managed to beat** him.
(= he succeeded in beating him this time)

The negative **couldn't** (**could not**) is possible in all situations:

- My grandfather **couldn't swim**.
- I looked for Max everywhere, but I **couldn't find** him.
- Andy played well, but he **couldn't beat** Jack.

>> **could** (**do**) and **could have** (**done**) ➜ **Unit 27** **must** and **can't** ➜ **Unit 28** **can**/**could you** . . . ? ➜ **Unit 37**

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Exercises

26.1 Complete the sentences using can or (be) able to. If can is not possible, use (be) able to.

1 Gary has travelled a lot. He ....can.... speak five languages.
2 I haven't ....been able to.... sleep very well recently.
3 Nicole ..... drive, but she doesn't have a car.
4 I used to ..... stand on my head, but I can't do it any more.
5 I can't understand Mark. I've never ..... understand him.
6 I can't see you on Friday, but I ..... meet you on Saturday morning.
7 Ask Katherine about your problem. She might ..... help you.
8 You have to be careful in this part of the city. It ..... be dangerous.
9 Michael has lived in Italy a long time, so he should ..... speak Italian.

26.2 Write sentences about yourself using the ideas in brackets.

1 (something you used to be able to do)
....I used to be able to sing well.....
2 (something you used to be able to do)
I used .....
3 (something you would like to be able to do)
I'd .....
4 (something you have never been able to do)
I've .....

26.3 Complete the sentences with can/can't/could/couldn't + the following:

believe **~~come~~** **hear** **run** **sleep** **wait**

1 I'm afraid I ....can't come.... to your party next week.
2 When Dan was 16, he ..... 100 metres in 11 seconds.
3 'Are you in a hurry?' 'No, I've got plenty of time. I .....'
4 I don't feel good this morning. I ..... last night.
5 Can you speak a little louder? I ..... you very well.
6 I was amazed when I heard the news. I ..... it.

26.4 Complete the answers to the questions with was/were able to ... .

1 A: Did everybody escape from the fire?
B: Yes. The fire spread quickly, but everybody ....was able to escape.....
2 A: Did you finish your work this afternoon?
B: Yes, there was nobody to disturb me, so I .....
3 A: Did you solve the problem?
B: Yes, we did. It wasn't easy, but we .....
4 A: Did the thief get away?
B: Yes. No-one realised what was happening and the thief .....

26.5 Complete the sentences using could, couldn't or managed to.

1 My grandfather travelled a lot. He ....could.... speak five languages.
2 I looked everywhere for the book, but I ....couldn't.... find it.
3 They didn't want to come with us at first, but we ....managed to.... persuade them.
4 Jessica had hurt her foot and ..... walk very well.
5 There was a small fire in the kitchen, but fortunately I ..... put it out.
6 The walls were thin and I ..... hear people talking in the next room.
7 I ran my first marathon recently. It was very hard, but I ..... finish.
8 My grandmother loved music. She ..... play the piano very well.
9 We wanted to go to the concert, but we ..... get tickets.
10 A girl fell into the river, but some people ..... pull her out. She's all right now.

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Unit 27

could (do) and could have (done)

A

Sometimes **could** is the past of **can** (see Unit 26):

- Listen. I **can hear** something. *(now)*
- I listened. I **could hear** something. *(past)*

But **could** is not always past. We also use **could** for possible actions now or in the future, especially to make suggestions. For example:

- A: What shall we do tonight?
  B: We **could go** to the cinema.
- A: When you go to Paris next month, you **could stay** with Sarah.
  B: Yes, I suppose I **could**.

Can is also possible in these sentences ('We can go to the cinema.' etc.). **Could** is less sure than **can**.

B

We also use **could** (*not* **can**) for actions that are not realistic. For example:

- I'm so tired, I **could sleep** for a week. (*not* I can sleep for a week)

Compare **can** and **could**:

- I **can stay** with Sarah when I go to Paris. (realistic)
- Maybe I **could stay** with Sarah when I go to Paris. (possible, but less sure)
- This is a wonderful place. I **could stay** here for ever. (unrealistic)

C

We also use **could** (*not* **can**) to say that something is possible now or in the future:

- The story **could be** true, but I don't think it is. (*not* can be true)
- I don't know what time Lisa is coming. She **could get** here at any time.

Compare **can** and **could**:

- The weather **can** change very quickly in the mountains. (in general)
- The weather is nice now, but it **could** change later. (the weather now, not in general)

D

We use **could have** (done) to talk about the past. Compare:

- I'm so tired, I **could sleep** for a week. *(now)*
  I was so tired, I **could have slept** for a week. *(past)*
- The situation is bad, but it **could be** worse. *(now)*
  The situation was bad, but it **could have been** worse. *(past)*

Something **could have** happened = it was possible, but did *not* happen:

- Why did you stay at a hotel? You **could have stayed** with me.
- David was lucky. He **could have hurt** himself when he fell, but he's all right.

E

I couldn't do something = it would not be possible:

- I **couldn't live** in a big city. I'd hate it. (= it wouldn't be possible for me)
- Everything is fine right now. Things **couldn't be** better.

For the past we use **couldn't have** . . . (= would not have been possible):

- We had a really good holiday. It **couldn't have been** better.

Note that 'I **couldn't do** something' has two meanings:
(1) I **couldn't** = it would not be possible now, I would not be able:

- I **couldn't run** ten kilometres now. I'm not fit enough. (= I would not be able)

(2) I **couldn't** = I was not able (past)

- I **couldn't run** yesterday because I'd hurt my leg. (= I was not able)

>> **can** and **could** ➜ **Unit 26** **couldn't have** (**done**) ➜ **Unit 28B** **could** and **might** ➜ **Unit 29C**
could I/you . . . ? ➜ **Unit 37** **could** with **if** ➜ **Units 38C, 39E, 40D** Modal verbs (**can**/**will** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4**

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Exercises

27.1 Which goes with which?

1	What shall we eat tonight?	a	We could go away somewhere.	1	c
2	I need to phone Vicky sometime.	b	You could give her a book.	2	
3	What shall I get Ann for her birthday?	c	~~We could have fish.~~	3	
4	Where shall we put this picture?	d	You could wear your brown suit.	4	
5	What would you like to do at the weekend?	e	You could do it now.	5	
6	I don't know what to wear to the wedding.	f	We could hang it in the kitchen.	6	

27.2 Put in can or could.

1 This is a wonderful place. I ....could.... stay here forever.
2 I'm so angry with him. I ..... kill him!
3 I ..... hear a strange noise. What is it?
4 It's so nice here. I ..... sit here all day but unfortunately I have to go.
5 I ..... understand your point of view, but I don't agree with you.
6 Peter is a keen musician. He plays the flute and he ..... also play the piano.
7 The company Amy works for isn't doing well. She ..... lose her job.
8 Some people are unlucky. Life ..... be very unfair.
9 I've been really stupid. I ..... kick myself.
10 Be careful climbing that tree. You ..... fall.

27.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

gone	**could be**	**could come**	**~~could sleep~~**
have moved	**could have**	**could have come**	**could have been**

1 A: Are you tired?
B: Yes, very tired. I feel as if I ....could sleep.... for a week.
2 A: I spent a very boring evening at home yesterday.
B: Why did you stay at home? You ..... out with us.
3 A: Shall I open this letter?
B: Yes. It ..... important.
4 A: How was your exam? Was it difficult?
B: It wasn't so bad. It ..... worse.
5 A: I got very wet walking home in the rain.
B: Why did you walk? You ..... taken a taxi.
6 A: Where shall we meet tomorrow?
B: Well, I ..... to your office if you like.
7 A: Does Tom still live in the same place?
B: I'm not sure. He could ..... .
8 A: Did you go to university?
B: No. I could have ..... , but I didn't want to.

27.4 Complete the sentences. Use couldn't or couldn't have + these verbs (in the correct form):

afford	**be**	**~~be~~**	**~~live~~**	**manage**	**stand**	**study**	**wear**

1 I ....couldn't live.... in a big city. I'd hate it.
2 We had a really good holiday. It ....couldn't have been.... better.
3 I ..... that hat. People would laugh at me.
4 You helped me a lot. I ..... without you.
5 The staff at the hotel were really good. They ..... more helpful.
6 There's no way we could buy a car now. We ..... it.
7 Jack prepared for the exam as well as he could. He ..... harder.
8 I wouldn't like to live near the motorway. I ..... the noise of the traffic.

➜ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 311–13)
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Unit 28

must and can't

A

Study this example:

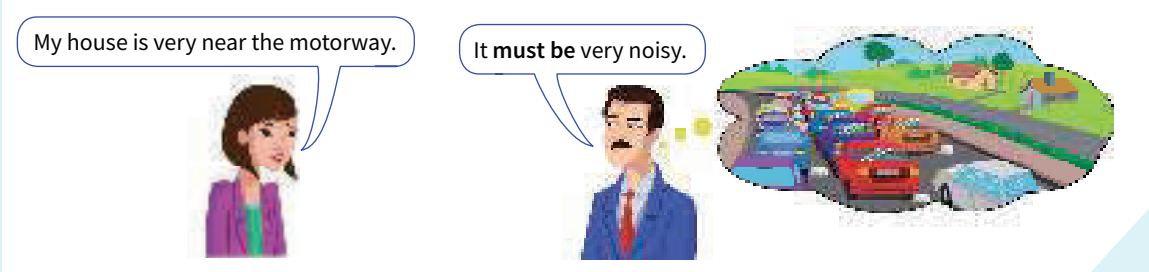

We use **must** to say that we believe something is certain:

- You've been travelling all day. You **must be** tired.
  (travelling is tiring and you've been travelling all day, so you **must** be tired)
- 'Joe is a hard worker.' 'Joe? You **must be joking**. He doesn't do anything.'
- Louise **must get** very bored in her job. She does the same thing every day.

We use **can't** to say that we believe something is not possible:

- You've just had lunch. You **can't be** hungry already.
  (we don't expect people to be hungry immediately after a meal)
- They haven't lived here for very long. They **can't know** many people.

The structure is:

you/she/they (etc.)	**must** **can't**	**be** (tired / hungry / at work etc.) **be -ing** (doing / going / joking etc.) **get** / **know** / **have** etc.

B

Study this example:

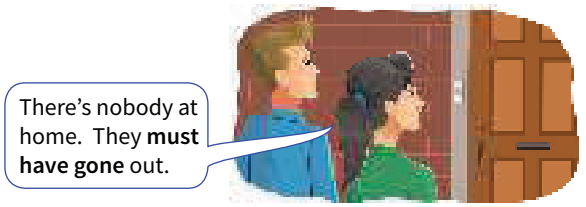

Martin and Lucy expected their friends to be at home.
They rang the doorbell twice, but nobody has answered. Lucy says:

They **must have gone** out.
(= there is no other possibility)

For the past we use **must have** ... and **can't have** ... :

- I lost one of my gloves. I **must have dropped** it somewhere.
  (that's the only explanation I can think of)
- 'We used to live very near the motorway.' 'Did you? It **must have been** noisy.'
- Sarah hasn't contacted me. She **can't have got** my message.
- Max walked into a wall. He **can't have been looking** where he was going.

The structure is:

I/you/he (etc.)	**must** **can't**	**have**	**been** (asleep / at work etc.) **been -ing** (doing / looking etc.) **gone** / **got** / **known** etc.

You can use **couldn't have** instead of **can't have**:

- Sarah **couldn't have got** my message.
- Max **couldn't have been looking** where he was going.

>> **can't** ('I can't swim' etc.) ➜ **Unit 26** **must** ('I must go' etc.) ➜ **Units 31–32**
Modal verbs (**can**/**will** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

28.1 Put in must or can't.

1 You've been travelling all day. You ....must.... be tired.
2 That restaurant ..... be very good. It's always full of people.
3 That restaurant ..... be very good. It's always empty.
4 I'm sure Kate gave me her address. I ..... have it somewhere.
5 I often see that man in this street. He ..... live near here.
6 It rained every day during their holiday. It ..... have been very nice for them.
7 Congratulations on passing your exam. You ..... be very pleased.
8 This bill ..... be correct. It's much too high.
9 You got here very quickly. You ..... have driven very fast.
10 Bill and Sue always stay at five-star hotels. They ..... be short of money.
11 Karen hasn't left the office yet. She ..... be working late tonight.

28.2 Complete each sentence with a verb (one or two words).

1 I've lost one of my gloves. I must ....have dropped.... it somewhere.
2 Their house is very near the motorway. It must ....be.... very noisy.
3 You've lived in this village a long time. You must ..... everybody who lives here.
4 I don't seem to have my wallet with me. I must ..... it at home.
5 'How old is Ed?' 'He's older than me. He must ..... at least 40.'
6 I didn't hear my phone. I must ..... asleep.
7 'You're going on holiday soon. You must ..... forward to it.' 'Yes, I am.'
8 I'm sure you know this song. You must ..... it before.
9 The road is closed, so we have to go another way. There must ..... an accident.
10 'Do you have a car?' 'You must ..... ! How could I afford to have a car?'
11 David is the managing director of a large company, so he must ..... quite a high salary.

28.3 Use the words in brackets to write sentences with must have and can't have.

1 We went to our friends' house and rang the doorbell, but nobody answered. (they / go out)
....They must have gone out.....
2 Sarah hasn't contacted me. (she / get / my message)
....She can't have got my message.....
3 The jacket you bought is very good quality. (it / be / very expensive)
.....
4 I haven't seen our neighbours for the last few days. (they / go away)
.....
5 I can't find my umbrella. (I / leave / it in the restaurant last night)
.....
6 Amy was in a very difficult situation when she lost her job. (it / be / easy for her)
.....
7 There was a man standing outside the cafe. He was there a long time. (he / wait / for somebody)
.....
8 Rachel did the opposite of what I asked her to do. (she / understand / what I said)
.....
9 When I got back to my car, it was unlocked. (I / forget / to lock it)
.....
10 My neighbours were making a lot of noise in the night. It woke me up. (they / have / a party)
.....
11 The light was red, but the car didn't stop. (the driver / see / the red light)
.....
12 Paul has had these shoes for years, but they still look new. (he / wear / them much)
.....

➜ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 311–13)
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Unit 29 may and might 1

A Study this example situation:

You are looking for Ben. Nobody is sure where he is, but you get some suggestions.

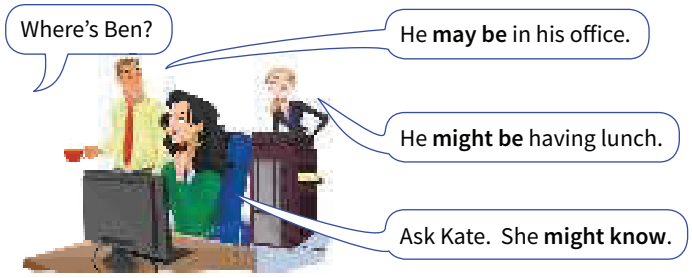

(= perhaps he is in his office)

(= perhaps he is having lunch)

(= perhaps she knows)

We use **may** or **might** to say that something is possible. You can use **may** or **might**:

- It **may** be true. *or* It **might** be true. (= perhaps it is true)
- She **might** know. *or* She **may** know.

The negative forms are **may not** and **might not**:

- It **may not** be true. (= perhaps it isn't true)
- She **might not** know. (= perhaps she doesn't know)

I/you/he (etc.)	**may** **might**	(**not**)	**be** (true / in his office etc.) **be -ing** (doing / working / having etc.) **know** / **work** / **want** etc.

Note the difference between **may be** (2 words) and **maybe** (1 word):

- It **may be** true. (**may** + verb)
- 'Is it true?' 'Maybe. I'm not sure.' (**maybe** = it's possible, perhaps)

B For the past we use **may have** . . . or **might have** . . . :

- A: I wonder why Kate didn't answer her phone.
  B: She **may have been** asleep. (= perhaps she was asleep)
- A: I can't find my phone anywhere.
  B: You **might have left** it at work. (= perhaps you left it at work)
- A: Why wasn't Amy at the meeting yesterday?
  B: She **might not have known** about it. (= perhaps she didn't know)
- A: I wonder why David was in such a bad mood yesterday.
  B: He **may not have been feeling** well. (= perhaps he wasn't feeling well)

I/you/he (etc.)	**may** **might**	(**not**) **have**	**been** (asleep / at home etc.) **been -ing** (doing / working / feeling etc.) **known** / **had** / **wanted** / **left** etc.

C **could** is similar to **may** and **might**:

- It's a strange story, but it **could be** true. (= it is possible that it's true)
- You **could have left** your phone at work. (= it's possible that you left it there)

But **couldn't** (*negative*) is different from **may not** and **might not**. Compare:

- Sarah **couldn't have received** my message. Otherwise she would have replied.
  (= it is not possible that she got my message)
- Why hasn't Sarah replied to my message? I suppose she **might not have received** it.
  (= it's possible that she didn't receive it – perhaps she did, perhaps she didn't)

>> **could** ➜ **Unit 27** **may/might** 2 ➜ **Unit 30** **may I . . . ?** ➜ **Unit 37C**
might with **if** ➜ **Units 30B, 38C, 40D** Modal verbs (**can/will** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4**

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Exercises

29.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 A: Do you know where Helen is?
B: I'm not sure. She ..... might be in her room .....
2 A: Is there a bookshop near here?
B: I'm not sure, but ask Anna. She .....
3 A: Where are those people from?
B: I don't know. They .....
4 A: I hope you can help me.
B: I'll try, but it .....
5 A: Whose phone is this?
B: It's not mine. It .....
6 A: Why doesn't George answer his phone?
B: He .....
7 A: Do you know anyone who has a key to this cupboard?
B: Rachel ....., but I'm not sure.
8 A: Gary is in a strange mood today.
B: Yes, he is. He .....

may be Tom's
may not be feeling well
may not be possible
~~might be in her room~~
might be Brazilian
might be driving
might have one
might know

29.2 Complete each sentence using the verb in brackets.

1 A: Where's Ben?
B: I'm not sure. He might ..... be having ..... lunch. (have)
2 A: Who was the guy we saw with Anna yesterday?
B: I'm not sure. It may ..... her brother. (be)
3 A: Is Ellie here?
B: I can't see her. She may not ..... yet. (arrive)
4 A: Gary said he would meet us in the cafe, but he isn't here.
B: He might ..... outside. I'll go and look. (wait)
5 A: How did John know that I'd lost my job?
B: I don't know. I suppose Sam may ..... him. (tell)
6 A: Do you know where Jeff is? Is he still in the office?
B: He was here earlier, but he might ..... home. (go)
7 A: Where's Emma? What's she doing?
B: I'm not sure. She might ..... TV. (watch)
8 A: Does Max have any brothers or sisters?
B: I'm not sure. I think he may ..... a younger sister. (have)
9 A: I can't find my umbrella. Have you seen it?
B: You may ..... it in the restaurant last night. (leave)
10 A: I rang Dan's doorbell, but he didn't answer. I'm sure he was there.
B: He might not ..... the doorbell. (hear)
11 A: Hannah is supposed to meet us here, and she's already 20 minutes late.
B: She may ..... . She's always forgetting things. (forget)

29.3 Complete the sentences using might not have … or couldn't have … .

1 A: I was surprised Amy wasn't at the meeting. Perhaps she didn't know about it.
B: Maybe. ..... She might not have known ..... about it.
2 A: I wonder why Tom didn't come to the party. Perhaps he didn't want to come.
B: It's possible. He ..... to come.
3 A: I wonder how the fire started. Was it an accident?
B: No, the police say it ..... an accident. It was deliberate.
4 A: Mike says he needs to see you. He tried to find you yesterday.
B: Well, he ..... very hard. I was in my office all day.
5 A: The man you spoke to – are you sure he was American?
B: No, I'm not sure. He ..... .

➜ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 311–13)
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Unit 30

may and **might** 2

A

We use **may** and **might** to talk about possible actions or happenings in the future:

- I haven't decided where to go on holiday. I **may go** to Ireland. (= perhaps I will go there)
- Take an umbrella with you. It **might rain** later. (= perhaps it will rain)
- The bus isn't always on time. We **might have** to wait a few minutes. (= perhaps we will have to wait)

The negative forms are **may not** and **might not** (**mightn't**):

- Amy **may not go** out tonight. She isn't feeling well. (= perhaps she will not go out)
- There **might not be** enough time to discuss everything at the meeting. (= perhaps there will not be enough time)

Compare:

- I**'m going** to buy a car. (for sure)
- I **may buy** a car. *or* I **might buy** a car. (possible)

B

Usually you can use **may** or **might**. So you can say:

- I **may go** to Ireland. *or* I **might go** to Ireland.
- Jane **might be** able to help you. *or* Jane **may be** able to help you.

But we use **might** (*not* **may**) when the situation is *not real*:

- If they paid me better, I **might** work harder. (*not* I may work)

This situation (**If they paid** me better) is not real. They do *not* pay me well, so I'm not going to work harder.

C

Compare **may**/**might be -ing** and **will be -ing**:

- Don't phone at 8.30. I**'ll be watching** the football on TV.
- Don't phone at 8.30. I **might be watching** the football on TV. (= perhaps I'll be watching it)

We also use **may**/**might be -ing** for possible plans. Compare:

- I**'m going** to Ireland soon. (for sure)
- I **might be going** (*or* I **may be going**) to Ireland soon. (possible)

D

might as well

Helen and Clare have just missed the bus.
The buses run every hour.

What shall we do? Shall we walk?

We **might as well**. It's a nice day and I don't want to wait here for an hour.

We **might as well** do something = we should do it because there is no better alternative. There is no reason not to do it.

You can also use **may as well**.

- A: What time are you going out?
  B: Well, I'm ready, so I **might as well go** now. *or* ... I **may as well go** now.
- Buses are so expensive these days, you **might as well get** a taxi. (= taxis are as good, no more expensive than buses)

>> **will be -ing ➜ Unit 24** **may/might 1 ➜ Unit 29** **may I ... ? ➜ Unit 37**
might with **if ➜ Units 38C, 40D**

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Exercises

30.1 Which alternative makes sense?

1 A: Where are you going for your holidays?
B: I haven't decided yet. I might go / ~~I'm going~~ to Ireland. (I might go *makes sense*)
2 A: Have you decided what sort of car you want to buy?
B: Yes, I might get / I'm going to get a sports car.
3 A: When is Tom coming to see us?
B: He hasn't said yet. He might come / He's coming on Sunday.
4 A: Where are you going to put that picture?
B: I don't know yet. I might hang / I'm going to hang it in the bedroom.
5 A: What's Tanya going to do when she leaves school? Does she know yet?
B: Yes, she's decided. She might go / She's going to university.
6 A: Do you have plans for the weekend?
B: Nothing fixed. I might go away / I'm going away.

30.2 Complete the sentences using might + a verb from the box:

1 Take an umbrella with you when you go out. It ...might rain... later.
2 Don't make too much noise. You ..... the baby.
3 Be careful with your coffee. You ..... it.
4 Don't forget your phone. You ..... it.
5 It's better if we don't talk so loud. Somebody ..... us.
6 Be careful. This footpath is icy. You ..... .

hear
need
~~rain~~
slip
spill
wake

30.3 Complete the sentences. Use might be able to or might have to + one of these verbs:

fix **~~help~~** **leave** **meet** **pay** **wait**

1 Tell me about your problem. I ...might be able to help... you.
2 I can come to the meeting, but I ..... before the end.
3 I'm not free this evening, but I ..... you tomorrow evening.
4 I'm not sure whether this car park is free or not. We ..... .
5 There's a long queue. We ..... a long time.
6 'I've got a problem with my bike.' 'Let me have a look. I ..... it.'

30.4 Write sentences with might not.

1 Lisa's not feeling very well. I'm not sure that she will go to the party.
...Lisa might not come to the party.....
2 I haven't seen him for a long time. I don't know if I will recognise him or not.
I might ..... him.
3 We want to go to the game, but I don't know whether we'll be able to get tickets.
We ..... for the game.
4 I said I'd do the shopping, but it's possible I won't have time.
I ..... to do the shopping.
5 I've been invited to the wedding, but I'm not sure that I'll be able to go.
I ..... .

30.5 Read the situations and write sentences with might as well.

1 You and a friend have just missed the bus. The buses run every hour.
You say: We'll have to wait an hour for the next bus. ...We might as well walk... .
2 Your computer doesn't work any more. It will cost a lot to repair.
You say: It's not worth repairing. I ..... a new one.
3 You've painted the kitchen. You still have a lot of paint, so why not paint the bathroom too?
You say: I ..... too. There's plenty of paint left.
4 You and a friend are at home. You're bored. There's a film on TV starting in a few minutes.
You say: We ..... it. There's nothing else to do.

➜ Additional exercises 16–18 (pages 311–13)
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Unit 31

have to and **must**

A

I **have to** do something = it is necessary to do it, I am obliged to do it:

- You can't turn right here. You **have to turn** left.
- I **have to wear** glasses for reading.
- Robert can't come out with us this evening.
  He **has to work** late.
- Last week Tina broke her arm and **had to go** to hospital.
- I haven't **had to go** to the doctor for ages.

We use **do**/**does**/**did** in questions and negative sentences (for the present and past simple):

- What **do** I **have to do** to get a new driving licence? (*not* What have I to do?)
- Karen **doesn't have to work** Saturdays. (*not* Karen hasn't to)
- '**Did** you **have to wait** a long time for a bus?' 'No, only ten minutes.'

You can say **I'll have to** . . . , **I'm going to have to** . . . , **I might have to** . . . , **I may have to** . . . :

- They can't repair my computer, so I'**ll have to buy** a new one. *or*
  . . . I'**m going to have to buy** a new one.
- We **might have to change** our plans. *or* We **may have to change** . . .
  (= it's possible that we will have to change them)

B

Must is similar to **have to**. You can say:

- It's later than I thought. I **must go**. *or* I **have to go**.

You can use **must** or **have to** when you give your own opinion (for example, to say what *you* think is necessary, or to recommend someone to do something):

- I haven't spoken to Sue for ages. I **must phone** her. / I **have to phone** her.
  (= I say this is necessary)
- Mark is a really nice person. You **must meet** him. / You **have to meet** him.
  (= I recommend this)

We use **have to** (*not usually* **must**) to say what someone is *obliged* to do. This is a *fact*, not the speaker's own opinion:

- I **have to work** from 8.30 to 5.30 every day. (a fact, not an opinion)
- Jane **has to travel** a lot for her work.

But we use **must** in written rules and instructions:

- Applications for the job **must be received** by 18 May.
- Seat belts **must be worn**.

We use **had to** (*not* **must**) to talk about the past:

- I went to the meeting yesterday, but I **had** to leave early. (*not* I must)

C

Mustn't and **don't have to** are completely different:

You **mustn't** do something = *don't* do it:

- You **must keep** this a secret. You **mustn't tell** anyone. (= don't tell anyone)
- I promised I would be on time. I **mustn't be** late. (= I must be on time)

You **don't have to** do something = you don't need to do it (but you can if you want):

- You **don't have to come** with me. I can go alone.
- I **don't have to be** at the meeting, but I'm going anyway.

D

You can use **have got to** instead of **have to**. You can say:

- I'**ve got to** work tomorrow. *or* I **have to** work tomorrow.
- When **has** Helen **got to** go? *or* When **does** Helen **have to** go?

>> **must** ('You must be tired') ➜ **Unit 28** **must/mustn't/needn't** ➜ **Unit 32**

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Exercises

31.1 Complete the sentences using have/has/had to … . Use the verbs in brackets.

1 Robert can't come out with us this evening. He has to work late. (he / work)
2 'The bus was late this morning.' 'How long did you have to wait?' (you / wait)
3 I don't have much time. ..... in ten minutes. (I / go)
4 'I'm afraid I can't stay long.' 'What time ..... ?' (you / go)
5 Joe starts work at 5 am every day, which means ..... at four. (he / get up)
6 We nearly missed the bus this morning. ..... to catch it. (we / run)
7 Is Lisa usually free on Saturdays or ..... ? (she / work)
8 There was nobody to help me. ..... everything by myself. (I / do)
9 How old ..... to have a driving licence? (you / be)
10 There was a lot of noise from the street. ..... the window. (we / close)
11 Was the exhibition free, or ..... to go in? (you / pay)

31.2 Complete the sentences using have/has/had to + the verbs in the list. Some sentences are negative (I don't have to … etc.):

ask decide drive ~~get up~~ go make make pay ~~show~~ stand

1 I'm not working tomorrow, so I don't have to get up early.
2 Steve didn't know how to change the settings on his phone. I had to show him.
3 Excuse me a moment – I ..... a phone call. I won't be long.
4 You can let me know later what you want to do. You ..... now.
5 I couldn't find the street I wanted. I ..... somebody for directions.
6 This car park is free. You ..... .
7 A man was slightly injured in the accident, but he ..... to hospital.
8 Jane has a senior position in the company. She ..... important decisions.
9 The train was very full and there were no seats free. We ..... all the way.
10 When Patrick starts his new job next month, he ..... 50 miles to work every day.

31.3 In some of these sentences, must is wrong or unnatural. Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 It's later than I thought. I must go. OK (I have to go *is also correct*)
2 I must start work every day at 8.30. I have to start work
3 I must remember to call Sarah tomorrow. .....
4 I couldn't get a taxi last night. I must walk home. .....
5 You must come and see us again soon. .....
6 Tom isn't going out this evening. He must study for his exam. .....
7 We can't go the usual way because the road is closed. We must go another way. .....
8 Julia wears glasses. She must wear glasses since she was very young. .....

31.4 Complete the sentences with mustn't, don't have to or doesn't have to.

1 I don't want anyone to know about our plan. You mustn't tell anyone.
2 Richard doesn't have to wear a suit to work, but he usually does.
3 There's a lift in the building, so we ..... climb the stairs.
4 I promised Kate I'd call her tomorrow. I ..... forget.
5 I'm not very busy. I have a few things to do, but I ..... do them now.
6 Sophie likes weekends because she ..... get up early.
7 You ..... be a good player to enjoy a game of tennis.
8 You should keep trying to find a job. You ..... give up.
9 I ..... eat too much. I'm supposed to be on a diet.
10 We have plenty of time before our flight. We ..... check in yet.

➜ **Additional exercise 16** (page 311)

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Unit 32

must mustn't needn't

A must and mustn't

You **must** do something = it is necessary that you do it:

- Don't tell anybody what I said. You **must keep** it a secret.
- We don't have much time. We **must hurry**.

You **mustn't** do something = don't do it:

- You **must** keep it a secret. You **mustn't** tell anyone. (= don't tell anyone)
- We **must** be very quiet. We **mustn't** make any noise.

B needn't and don't need to

You **needn't** do something = it's not necessary to do it (but you can if you want):

- We have plenty of time. We **needn't hurry**. (= it is not necessary to hurry)
- Joe can stay here. He **needn't come** with us. (= it is not necessary for him to come)

You can also use **don't**/**doesn't need to**:

- We **don't need to** hurry.

Note that we say '**don't need to** do', but '**needn't do**' (*without* **to**).

Compare **needn't** and **mustn't**:

- You **needn't** tell Steve. I can tell him myself. (= it is not necessary)
- You **mustn't** tell Steve. I don't want him to know. (= don't tell him)

C needn't have (done)

Study this example situation:

Paul and Sarah reserved a table at a restaurant.

But when they went to the restaurant, it was almost empty.

They **needn't have reserved** a table.

This means: they reserved a table, but now they know this was not necessary.

Compare **needn't** (do) and **needn't have** (done):

- Everything will be OK. You **needn't worry**. (it is not necessary)
- Everything was OK. You **needn't have worried**. (you worried, but it was not necessary)

D needn't have (done) and didn't need to (do)

He **needn't have done** something = he did it, but now we know that it was not necessary:

- Why did he get up at 5 o'clock? He **needn't have got** up so early. He could have stayed in bed longer.

He **didn't need to do** something = it was not necessary to do it. It doesn't matter whether he did it or not:

- He **didn't need to get** up early, so he didn't.
- He **didn't need to get** up early, but it was a beautiful morning, so he did.

You can also say 'He **didn't have to** get up' in these examples.

>> **must** ('You must be tired') ➜ **Unit 28** **have to** and **must** ➜ **Unit 31**
Modal verbs (**can**/**could**/**will**/**would** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

32.1 Which goes with which? Find the sentences with a similar meaning.

1 You must be very quiet.	a You mustn't stay here.	1 f
2 You must remember your password.	b You mustn't be afraid.	2 .....
3 You must be brave.	c You mustn't think about it.	3 .....
4 You must be on time.	d You mustn't forget it.	4 .....
5 You must leave the furniture as it is.	e You mustn't be late.	5 .....
6 You must go away.	f ~~You mustn't make any noise.~~	6 .....
7 You must forget what happened.	g You mustn't move anything.	7 .....

32.2 Which is correct?

1 We have plenty of time. We ~~mustn't~~ / needn't hurry. (needn't *is correct*)
2 I have to talk to Gary. I must / mustn't remember to call him.
3 I have to talk to Gary. I mustn't / needn't forget to call him.
4 There's plenty of time for you to decide. You mustn't / don't need to decide now.
5 These are important documents. We mustn't / needn't lose them.
6 You mustn't / needn't wait for me. You go on and I'll join you later.
7 This is a dangerous situation and we need to be careful. We mustn't / needn't do anything stupid.
8 I understand the situation perfectly. You mustn't / don't need to explain further.
9 A: What sort of house do you want to buy? Something big?
B: It mustn't / needn't be big – that's not so important. But it must / mustn't have a nice garden.

32.3 Complete the sentences. Use needn't + verb. Choose from:

come **keep** ~~**leave**~~ **walk** **worry**

1 We have plenty of time. We needn't leave yet.
2 I can manage the shopping alone. You ..... with me.
3 We ..... all the way home. We can get a taxi.
4 You can delete these emails. You ..... them.
5 I'll be all right. You ..... about me.

32.4 Write two sentences for each situation. Use needn't have in the first sentence and could have in the second (as in the example). For could have, see Unit 27.

1 Why did you rush? Why didn't you take your time?
You needn't have rushed. You could have taken your time.
2 Why did you walk home? Why didn't you take a taxi?
.....
3 Why did they stay at a hotel? Why didn't they stay with us?
.....
4 Why did she phone me at 3 am? Why didn't she wait until the morning?
.....
5 Why did you shout at me? Why weren't you more patient?
.....

32.5 Are these sentences OK? Change them where necessary.

1 We have plenty of time. We don't need hurry. — We don't need to hurry
2 Keep it a secret. You mustn't tell anybody. — OK
3 You needn't to shout. I can hear you perfectly. — .....
4 I needn't have gone out, so I stayed at home. — .....
5 This train is direct. You don't need to change. — .....
6 You mustn't lock the door. It's OK to leave it unlocked. — .....
7 I needn't have said anything, so I kept quiet. — .....
8 I needn't have said anything. I should have kept quiet. — .....

➜ Additional exercises 16–17 (pages 311–12)
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Unit 33

should 1

A

You **should do** something = it is a good thing to do or the right thing to do.
You can use **should** to give advice or to give an opinion:

- You look tired. You **should go** to bed.
- The government **should do** more to improve schools.
- A: **Should** we **invite** Stephanie to the party?
  B: Yes, I think we **should**.
- The man on the motorbike **should be wearing** a helmet.

You **shouldn't** do something = it isn't a good thing to do:

- You **shouldn't believe** everything you read in newspapers.

We often use **should** with **I think** / **I don't think** / **Do you think** . . . ? :

- **I think** the government **should do** more to improve schools.
- **I don't think** you **should work** so hard.
- A: **Do you think** I **should apply** for this job?
  B: Yes, **I think** you **should**.

Should is not as strong as **must** or **have to**:

- You **should** apologise. (= it would be a good thing to do)
- You **must** apologise. / You **have to** apologise. (= you have no alternative)

B

We use **should** when something is not right or what we expect:

- Where's Tina? She **should be** here by now.
  (= she isn't here yet, and this is not normal)
- The price on this packet is wrong. It **should be** £2.50, not £3.50.

We also use **should** to say that we expect something to happen:

- Helen has been studying hard for the exam, so she **should pass**.
  (= I expect her to pass)
- There are plenty of hotels in the town. It **shouldn't be** hard to find a place to stay.
  (= I don't expect it to be hard)

C

You **should have done** something = you didn't do it, but it would have been a good thing to do:

- You missed a great party last night. You **should have come**. Why didn't you?
  (= you didn't come, but it would have been good to come)
- I wonder why they're so late. They **should have been** here long ago.

You **shouldn't have done** something = you did it, but it wasn't a good thing to do:

- I'm feeling sick. I **shouldn't have eaten** so much. (= I ate too much)
- She **shouldn't have been listening** to our conversation. It was private.
  (= she was listening)

Compare **should** (do) and **should have** (done):

- You look tired. You **should go** to bed now.
- You went to bed very late last night. You **should have gone** to bed earlier.

D

ought to . . .

You can use **ought to** instead of **should** in the sentences on this page.
We say 'ought **to** do' (with **to**):

- Do you think I **ought to apply** for this job? (= Do you think I **should apply** . . . ?)
- Jack **ought not to go** to bed so late. (= Jack **shouldn't go** . . .)
- It was a great party last night. You **ought to have come**. (= You **should have come**)

>> **should** 2 ➜ **Unit 34** **should** and **had better** ➜ **Unit 35B**
Modal verbs (**can**/**could**/**will**/**would** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4**

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Exercises

33.1 **For each situation, write a sentence with should or shouldn't + one of the following:**

~~go away for a few days~~	stay up so late	look for another job
put some pictures on the walls	take a picture	worry so much

1 Anna needs a change. She should go away for a few days.
2 Your salary is very low. You .....
3 Jack always finds it hard to get up. He .....
4 What a beautiful view! You .....
5 Laura is always anxious. She .....
6 Dan's room isn't very nice. .....

33.2 **Complete the sentences. Choose from:**

should solve	should be working OK	shouldn't cost more	shouldn't take long
should receive	~~should pass the exam~~	should be much warmer	should be here soon

1 Helen has been studying hard, so she should pass the exam.
2 Joe hasn't arrived yet, but he .....
3 The TV has been repaired. It ..... now.
4 It ..... to get to the hotel. About 20 minutes.
5 I sent the documents to you today, so you ..... them tomorrow.
6 The weather is unusually cold. It ..... at this time of year.
7 The best way to get to the airport is by taxi. It ..... than ten pounds.
8 If you have a problem with the computer, try restarting it. That ..... the problem.

33.3 **Complete the sentences. Use should ... or should have ... + the verb in brackets.**

1 You look tired. You should go ..... to bed. (go)
2 You missed a great party last night. You should have come. (come)
3 I'm in a difficult position. What do you think I ..... now? (do)
4 I'm sorry that I didn't take your advice. I ..... what you said. (do)
5 We lost the game, but we were the better team. We ..... (win)
6 We don't see you enough. You ..... and see us more often. (come)
7 We went the wrong way and got lost. We ..... right, not left. (turn)
8 My exam results weren't good. I ..... better. (do)

33.4 **Read the situations and write sentences with should / should have / shouldn't / shouldn't have.**

1 I'm feeling sick. I ate too much.
I shouldn't have eaten so much.
2 When we got to the restaurant, there were no free tables. We hadn't reserved one.
We .....
3 Laura told me her address, but I didn't write it down. Now I can't remember the house number.
I .....
4 The shop is open every day from 8.30. It is 9 o'clock now, but the shop isn't open yet.
.....
5 I was looking at my phone. I wasn't looking where I was going. I walked into a wall.
.....
6 Kate is driving. The speed limit is 30 miles an hour, but Kate is doing 50.
She .....
7 I wasn't feeling well yesterday, but I went to work. That was a mistake. Now I feel worse.
.....
8 Tomorrow there is a football match between Team A and Team B. Team A are much better.
.....
9 I was driving. The car in front stopped suddenly and I drove into it. It wasn't my fault.
The driver in front .....

➜ Additional exercises 16–18 (pages 311–13)
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Unit 34

should 2

A

You can use **should** after:

insist **demand** **recommend** **suggest** **propose**

- I **insisted** that he **should apologise**.
- Doctors **recommend** that everyone **should eat** plenty of fruit.
- What do you **suggest** we **should do**?
- Many people are **demanding** that something **should be done** about the problem.

also
It's important/vital/necessary/essential that … **should** … :

- **It's essential** that everyone **should be** here on time.

B

You can also leave out **should** in the sentences in section A. So you can say:

- **It's essential** that everyone **be** here on time. (= … that everyone **should be** here …)
- I **insisted** that he **apologise**. (= … that he **should apologise**)
- What do you **suggest** we **do**?
- Many people are **demanding** that something **be done** about the problem.

This form (**be/do/apologise** etc.) is called the *subjunctive*. It is the same as the *infinitive* (without **to**).
You can also use normal present and past forms:

- It's **essential** that everyone **is** here on time.
- I **insisted** that he **apologised**.

C

We do not use **to** … with **suggest**. You can say:

- What do you **suggest we should do**?

or What do you **suggest we do**? (*but not* What do you suggest us to do?)

- Jane won the lottery.
  I **suggested** that she **should buy** a car with the money she won.

or I **suggested** that she **buy** a car.
or I **suggested** that she **bought** a car. (*but not* I suggested her to buy)

You can also use **-ing** after **suggest** (What do you **suggest doing**?). See Unit 53.

D

You can use **should** after some adjectives, especially:

strange **odd** **funny** **typical** **natural** **interesting** **surprised** **surprising**

- It's **strange** that he **should be** late. He's usually on time.
- I was **surprised** that he **should say** such a thing.

E

You can say '**if** something **should** happen …'. For example:

- We have no jobs at present, but **if** the situation **should change**, we will contact you.

You can also begin with **should** (**Should** something happen …):

- **Should** the situation **change**, we will contact you.

This means the same as '**If** the situation **changes**, …'. With **should**, the speaker feels that the possibility is smaller.

F

You can use **I should** … / **I shouldn't** … to give advice. For example:

- 'Shall I leave now?' 'No, **I should wait** a bit.' (= I advise you to wait)

Here, **I should** … = 'I would … if I were you', 'I advise you to …'. Two more examples:

- 'I'm going out now. Is it cold outside?' 'Yes, **I should wear** a coat.'
- **I shouldn't stay** up too late. You have to be up early tomorrow.

>> **should** 1 ➜ **Unit 33** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

34.1 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.

1 'It would be a good idea to eat more fruit,' the doctor said to me.
The doctor recommended that I should eat more fruit.
2 'You really must stay a little longer,' she said to me.
She insisted that I .....
3 'Why don't you visit the museum after lunch?' I said to them.
I suggested that .....
4 'You must pay the rent by Friday,' the landlord said to us.
The landlord demanded that .....
5 'Let's go to the cinema,' Chris said to me.
Chris suggested that .....

34.2 Two of these sentences are not correct. Change the two that are not correct.

1 Tom suggested that I look for another job. OK
2 I called Tina and suggested that we meet for coffee. .....
3 What do you suggest me to do? .....
4 What sort of car do you suggest I should buy? .....
5 I suggest you to read this book. .....
6 I suggested that Anna learn to drive. .....

34.3 Complete the sentences using should + verb. Choose from:

ask **~~be~~** **be done** **leave** **say** **vote** **worry**

1 It's strange that he should be late. He's usually on time.
2 It's funny that you ..... that. I was thinking the same thing.
3 It's only natural that parents ..... about their children.
4 Isn't it typical of Joe that he ..... without saying goodbye to anybody?
5 I was surprised that they ..... me for advice. What advice could I give them?
6 This is a democratic election, and it's important that you .....
7 The bridge needs to be repaired. It's essential that the work ..... as soon as possible.

34.4 Complete the sentences using If ... should ... . Choose from:

anyone / ask **~~the situation / change~~** **it / rain** **there / any problems**

1 We have no jobs at present. If the situation should change, we'll let you know.
2 I've hung out the washing to dry on the balcony. If ....., can you bring it inside?
3 I think everything will be OK. ....., I'm sure we'll be able to solve them.
4 I don't want anyone to know where I'm going. ....., say you don't know.

Now complete the same sentences beginning with Should ... .

5 Should the situation change, we'll let you know.
6 ....., can you bring the washing inside?
7 ....., I'm sure we'll be able to solve them.
8 ..... where I'm going, say you don't know.

34.5 Complete the sentences using I should. Choose from:

call **get** **keep** **~~wait~~**

1 'Shall I leave now?' 'No, I should wait a bit.'
2 'Shall I throw these things away?' 'No, ... them. You may need them.'
3 'Shall I go and see Paul?' 'Yes, but ..... him first.'
4 'Is it worth getting this computer repaired?' 'No, ... a new one.'

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Unit 35

I'd better … it's time …

A had better (I'd better / you'd better etc.)

I'd better do something = it is advisable to do it. If I don't do it, there will be a problem or a danger:

- I have to meet Amy in ten minutes. **I'd better go** now or I'll be late.
- 'Shall I take an umbrella?' 'Yes, **you'd better**. It might rain.'
- **We'd better stop** for petrol soon. The tank is almost empty.

The negative is **I'd better not** (= I **had** better not):

- A: That jacket looks good on you. Are you going to buy it?
  B: **I'd better not**. It's very expensive.
- You don't look very well. **You'd better not go** out tonight.

Remember that:

I'd better = **I had** better, **you'd** better = you **had** better etc.

- I**'d better** phone Chris, **hadn't** I?
- We **had better** go now.

Had is normally past, but we use **had better** for the present or future, *not* past.

- I'd better go **now** / **tomorrow**.

We say 'I'd better **do**' (*not* to do).

- It might rain. We'd better **take** an umbrella. (*not* We'd better to take)

B had better and should

Had better is similar to **should** but not exactly the same. We use **had better** only for a specific situation, not for things in general. You can use **should** in all types of situations to give an opinion or give advice:

- It's late. You**'d better go**. *or* You **should go**. (a specific situation)
- You're always at home. You **should go** out more often. (in general – *not* 'had better go')

Also, with **had better**, there is always a danger or a problem if you don't follow the advice.
Should means only 'it is a good thing to do'. Compare:

- It's a great film. You **should** go and see it. (but no problem if you don't)
- The film starts at 8.30. You**'d better** go now or you'll miss the beginning.

C it's time …

You can say **It's time** (for somebody) **to** … :

- It's time **to go** home. / It's time for us **to go** home.

But you can also say:

- It's late. It's time **we went** home.

When we use **it's time** + past ('it's time we **went**' etc.), the meaning is present, *not* past:

- **It's time** they **were** here. Why are they so late? (*not* It's time they are here)

It's time somebody **did** something = they should have already done it or started it.
We often use this structure to criticise or to complain:

- This situation can't continue. **It's time** you **did** something about it.
- He's very selfish. **It's time he realised** that he isn't the most important person in the world.

You can also say **It's about time** … :

- Jack is a great talker, but **it's about time** he **did** something instead of just talking.

>> should 1 → Unit 33

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Exercises

35.1 Read the situations and write sentences with 'd better or 'd better not. Choose a verb from:

check **disturb** **go** **put** **reserve** **take**

1 You're going out for a walk with a friend. It looks as if it might rain.
You say: We'd better take an umbrella.
2 You and Kate plan to go to a restaurant tonight. It will be busy.
You say to Kate: We ..... a table.
3 Oliver has just cut himself. It's bleeding and he'll need a plaster on it.
You say to him: You ..... on it.
4 Rebecca doesn't look well this morning – not well enough to go to work.
You say to her: ..... this morning.
5 You're going to the cinema, but you're not sure what time the film starts.
You say: ..... the film starts.
6 You need to talk to your boss, but she's very busy right now.
You say to a colleague: ..... right now.

35.2 Is had better OK in these sentences? Change to should where necessary.

1 I have an appointment in ten minutes. I'd better go now or I'll be late. OK
2 You'd better set your alarm. You have to get up early tomorrow. .....
3 I'm glad you came to see us. You'd better come more often. .....
4 She'll be sad if we don't invite her to the party, so we'd better invite her. .....
5 It's nearly time to go out. I'd better get ready. .....
6 I think everybody had better learn a foreign language. .....
7 We've just missed the last bus. We'd better get a taxi. .....

35.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 It might rain. We'd better take an umbrella.
2 Ben needs to know what happened. Somebody ..... better tell him.
3 We'd better ..... park the car here. The road is too narrow.
4 You ..... brush your teeth at least twice a day.
5 What are we going to do? It's time ..... decide.
6 ..... better not be late. It's an important meeting.
7 It's time they ..... here. They promised they wouldn't be late.
8 The window is open. You'd ..... close it before you go out.
9 We'd better leave as soon as possible, ... we?
10 The government should ..... something about the problem.
11 It's time the government ..... something about the problem.
12 It's time something ..... done about the problem.

better **do** **did** **had** **hadn't** **I'd** **not** **to** **take** **should** **was** **were**

35.4 Read the situations and write sentences with It's time (somebody did something).

1 You're at a friend's house. You planned to go home at 11 o'clock. It's already 11 o'clock now.
(I / go) It's time I went home.
2 You haven't had a holiday for a very long time. You need one now.
(I / holiday) It's time .....
3 It's 10 o'clock. It's after the children's bedtime. You think they should be in bed.
(children / bed) .....
4 You didn't realise it was so late. You need to start cooking dinner.
(start / cook) ..... dinner.
5 Kate is always complaining about everything. You think she complains too much.
(stop / complaining) ..... about everything.
6 The company you work for has been badly managed for a long time. You think some changes should be made.
(changes / make) ..... in the way the company is run.

➜ Additional exercise 16 (page 311)

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Unit 36 would

A

We use **would** (**'d**) / **wouldn't** when we *imagine* a situation or action (= we think of something that is not real):

- It **would be** nice to buy a new car, but we can't afford it.
- I**'d love** to live by the sea.
- A: Shall I tell Chris what happened?
  B: No, I **wouldn't say** anything.
  (= I wouldn't say anything in your situation)

We use **would have** (**done**) when we imagine something that didn't happen in the past:

- They helped us a lot. I don't know what we**'d have done** without their help.
  (we**'d** have done = we **would** have done)
- It's a shame you didn't see the film. You **would have liked** it.
- I didn't tell Sam what happened. He **wouldn't have been** pleased.

Compare **would** (**do**) and **would have** (**done**):

- I **would call** Lisa, but I don't have her number. *(now)*
  I **would have called** Lisa, but I didn't have her number. *(past)*
- I'm not going to invite them to the party. They **wouldn't come** anyway.
  I didn't invite them to the party. They **wouldn't have come** anyway.

We often use **would** in sentences with **if** (see Units 38–40):

- I **would call** Lisa **if** I had her number.
- I **would have called** Lisa **if** I'd had her number.

B

Compare **will** (**'ll**) and **would** (**'d**):

- I**'ll stay** a little longer. I've got plenty of time.
  I**'d stay** a little longer, but I really have to go now. (so I can't stay longer)
- I**'ll call** Lisa. I have her number.
  I**'d call** Lisa, but I don't have her number. (so I can't call her)

Sometimes **would**/**wouldn't** is the past of **will**/**won't**.
Compare:

	present		*past*
○	TOM: I**'ll call** you on Sunday.	→	Tom said he**'d** call me on Sunday.
○	AMY: I promise I **won't be** late.	→	Amy promised that she **wouldn't be** late.
○	LISA: Oh, no! The car **won't start**.	→	Lisa was annoyed because her car **wouldn't start**.

Somebody **wouldn't do** something = he/she refused to do it:

- I tried to warn him, but he **wouldn't listen** to me. (= he refused to listen)
- The car **wouldn't start**. (= it 'refused' to start)

C

You can also use **would** to talk about things that happened regularly in the past:

- When we were children, we lived by the sea. In summer, if the weather was fine, we **would** all get up early and go for a swim. (= we did this regularly)
- Whenever Richard was angry, he **would** walk out of the room.

With this meaning, **would** is similar to **used to** (see Unit 18):

- Whenever Richard was angry, he **used to walk** out of the room.

>> **will → Units 21–22** **would … if → Units 38–40** **wish … would → Unit 41** **would like → Units 37D, 58**
would prefer / would rather → Unit 59 Modal verbs **→ Appendix 4**

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Exercises

36.1 **Write sentences about yourself. Imagine things you would like or wouldn't like.**

1 (a place you'd love to live) I'd love to live by the sea.
2 (a job you wouldn't like to do) .....
3 (something you would love to do) .....
4 (something that would be nice to have) .....
5 (a place you'd like to go to) .....

36.2 **Complete the sentences using would + the following verbs (in the correct form):**

be **be** ~~do~~ **do** **enjoy** **enjoy** **have** **stop**

1 They helped us a lot. I don't know what we would have done without their help.
2 You should go and see the film. I think you ..... it.
3 It's a pity you couldn't come to the party last night. You ..... it.
4 Shall I apply for the job or not? What ..... you ..... in my position?
5 I was in a hurry when I saw you. Otherwise I ..... to talk.
6 We took a taxi home last night, but got stuck in the traffic. It ..... quicker to walk.
7 Why don't you go and see Clare? She ..... very pleased to see you.
8 In an ideal world, everybody ..... enough to eat.

36.3 **Each sentence on the right follows a sentence on the left. Which follows which?**

1 I'd like to go to Australia one day.	a It wouldn't have been very nice.	1 c
2 I wouldn't like to live on a busy road.	b It would have been fun.	2 .....
3 I'm sorry your trip was cancelled.	c ~~It would be nice.~~	3 .....
4 I'm looking forward to going out tonight.	d It won't be much fun.	4 .....
5 I'm glad we didn't go out in the rain.	e It wouldn't be very nice.	5 .....
6 I'm not looking forward to the trip.	f It will be fun.	6 .....

36.4 **Write sentences using promised + would/wouldn't.**

1 I wonder why Laura is late. She promised she wouldn't be late.
2 I wonder why Steve hasn't called me. He promised .....
3 Why did you tell Amy what I said? You .....
4 I'm surprised they didn't wait for us. They .....

36.5 **Complete the sentences. Use wouldn't + a suitable verb.**

1 I tried to warn him, but he wouldn't listen to me.
2 I asked Amanda what had happened, but she ..... me.
3 Paul was angry about what I'd said and he ..... to me for two weeks.
4 Martina insisted on carrying all her luggage. She ..... me help her.

36.6 **Complete the sentences using would (section C). Choose from these verbs:**

forget **shake** **share** **smile** **stay** ~~walk~~

1 Whenever Richard was angry, he would walk out of the room.
2 We used to live next to a railway line. Every time a train went past, the house ..... .
3 Katherine was always very generous. She didn't have much, but she ..... what she had with everyone else.
4 You could never rely on Joe. It didn't matter how many times you reminded him to do something, he ..... always ..... .
5 When we were children, we used to go to the beach a lot. We ..... there all day playing in the sand and swimming in the sea.
6 Lucy was always friendly. Whenever I saw her, she ..... always ..... and say hello.

➜ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 311–13)
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Unit 37

can/could/would you … ? etc. (Requests, offers, permission and invitations)

A Asking people to do things (requests)

We use **can** or **could** to ask people to do things:

- **Can you** wait a moment, please?

or **Could you** wait a moment, please?

- Helen, **can you** do me a favour?
- Excuse me, **could you** tell me how to get to the bus station?

You can say **Do you think** you **could** … ? :

- **Do you think you could** take me to the airport?
  (*not* Do you think you can)

B Asking for things

To ask for something, we use **Can** (I) **have** … ? / **Could** (I) **have** … ? or **Can** (I) **get** …?:

- *(in a shop)*
  Can I **have** these postcards, please? *or* **Can** I **get** these postcards, please?
- *(in a restaurant)*
  Could we **have** the menu, please? *or* **Can** we **have** the menu, please?

May I **have** … ? is also possible:

- **May** I **have** these postcards, please?

C Asking to do things

We use **can I** or **could I** to ask to do something:

- *(on the phone)* Hello, **can I** speak to Steve, please?
- '**Could I** use your phone charger?' 'Sure.'
- **Do you think I could** borrow your bike?

May is also possible:

- **May** I **ask you a question**?

May is more formal than **can** or **could**.

You can also say:

Do you mind if I … ?
Is it all right if I …? / **Is it OK if I** … ?

- **Do you mind if I** use your phone charger?
- '**Is it all right if I** sit here?' 'Yes, of course.'

D Offering and inviting

You can use **Can I** … ? to offer to do something:

- '**Can I** help you?' 'No, it's OK. I can manage, thanks.'
- '**Can I** get you some coffee?' 'That would be nice.'

To offer or to invite, we use **Would you like** … ? (*not* Do you like):

- '**Would you like** some coffee?' 'No, thanks.'
- '**Would you like** to eat with us tonight?' 'That would be great.'

I'd like … (= I **would** like) is a polite way to say what you want:

- *(at a tourist information office)* **I'd like** some information about hotels, please.
- *(in a shop)* **I'd like** to try on this jacket, please.

>> **can** and **could** ➜ **Units 26–27** **mind -ing** ➜ **Unit 53** **would like** ➜ **Units 55A, 58B**
Modal verbs (**can**/**could**/**will**/**would** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 4**

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Exercises

37.1 Which goes with which?

1 Could you pass the sugar?	a It depends what you want me to do.	1 e
2 Would you like to go to the cinema?	b No, that's fine.	2 .....
3 Can I use your toilet?	c Me too. Let's go out for a walk.	3 .....
4 Do you mind if I leave work early?	d Sure. It's the door on the left.	4 .....
5 Can you do me a favour?	e ~~Yes, here you are.~~	5 .....
6 Would you like something to eat?	f No, it's all right. I can manage, thanks.	6 .....
7 Can I give you a hand?	g Maybe. What's on?	7 .....
8 I'd like some fresh air.	h No, thanks. I'm not hungry.	8 .....

37.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

I'd like	**Would you like to try**	**Do you mind**	**Can I take**
~~Can I give~~	**Would you like to come**	**Would you like**	**I'd like to**

1 You're driving and you see a friend walking along the road. You stop and say:
Hi Joe. Can I give you a lift?
2 You're making a cold drink for your friend. Perhaps he wants ice. You ask:
..... ice in your drink?
3 You're ordering something to eat in a cafe. You say:
..... a chicken salad, please.
4 You have an extra ticket for a concert. Maybe your friend will come. You ask:
..... to a concert tomorrow night?
5 You answer the phone. The caller wants to speak to Lisa. You say:
Lisa's not here. ..... a message?
6 You need to see a dentist. You phone for an appointment. You say:
Hello. ..... make an appointment, please.
7 You work in a shoe shop. A customer asks you about some shoes. You ask:
..... them on?
8 You go into a cafe and see some people you know. You ask:
..... if I join you?

37.3 What would you say in these situations?

1 You're carrying a lot of things. You can't open the door yourself. There's a man near the door.
You say to him: Could you open the door, please?
2 You've finished your meal in a restaurant and now you want the bill.
You ask the waiter: .....
3 You've filled in some forms in English. You want your friend to check them for you.
You ask your friend: .....
4 The woman in the next room is playing music. It's very loud. You want her to turn it down.
You say to her: .....
5 You're on a train. The window is open and you're cold. You'd like to close it.
You ask the man next to you: .....
6 You're on a bus. You have a seat, but an elderly man is standing. You offer him your seat.
You say to him: .....
7 You're a tourist. You want to go to the station, but you don't know how to get there.
You ask at your hotel: .....
8 You are in a clothes shop. You see some trousers you like and you want to try them on.
You say to the shop assistant: .....
9 You meet a very famous person. You want to get his/her autograph.
You ask: .....

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Unit 38

if I do … and if I did …

A

Compare these examples:

(1) LISA: Shall we take the bus or the train?
JESS: **If we take** the bus, it **will** be cheaper.

For Jess, it is possible that they will take the bus, so she says:
If we **take** the bus, it **will** be …

(2) Lisa and Jess decide to take the train. Later, Jess talks to Joe.

JOE: How are you going to travel?
JESS: We're going to take the train. **If we took** the bus, it **would** be cheaper, but the train is quicker.

Now Jess knows they are *not* going to take the bus, so she says:
If we **took** the bus, it **would** be …

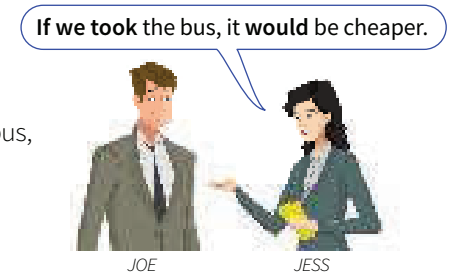

B

When we talk about something that will not happen, or we don't expect that it will happen, we use **if** + *past* (**if** we **went** / **if** there **was** etc.).
But the meaning is *not* past:

- What would you do **if** you **won** a lot of money?
  (I don't really expect this to happen)
- **If** there **was** an election tomorrow, who would you vote for?
  (there will not be an election tomorrow)
- I'd be surprised **if** they **didn't come** to the party.
  (I expect them to come)

Compare **if I find** and **if I found**:

- I think I left my watch at your house. **If you find** it, can you call me?

but

- **If you found** a wallet in the street, what would you do with it?

C

We do not normally use **would** in the **if**-part of the sentence:

- I'd be very scared **if** somebody **pointed** a gun at me. (*not* if somebody would point)
- **If** we **went** by bus, it would be cheaper. (*not* If we would go)

In the other part of the sentence (not the **if**-part) we use **would** (**'d**) / **wouldn't**:

- I**'d be** (= I **would** be) scared if somebody pointed a gun at me.
- I'm not going to bed yet. I'm not tired. If I went to bed now, I **wouldn't sleep**.
- What **would** you **do** if you were bitten by a snake?

Could and **might** are also possible:

- If I won a lot of money, I **might** buy a house.
  (= it is possible that I would buy a house)
- If it stopped raining, we **could go** out.
  (= we would be able to go out)

>> **will → Units 21–22** **if** and **when → Unit 25D** **would → Unit 36** **if I knew → Unit 39**
if … was/were → Unit 39C **if I had known → Unit 40**

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Exercises

38.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

did **dropped** **found** **happened** **lost** **was** **went**

1 If you ....found.... a wallet in the street, what would you do with it?
2 Be careful with that vase. If you ..... it, it would break into small pieces.
3 This notebook is very important to me. I'd be very upset if I ..... it.
4 I don't expect to lose my job but if that ....., I'd have to find another one.
5 We're thinking about our holiday for next year. If we ..... to Italy, would you come with us?
6 I don't think he'll fail the exam. I'd be very surprised if he ..... .
7 If there ..... a fire in the building, would you know how to put the fire out?

38.2 What do you say in these situations?

1 Of course you don't expect to win the lottery. Which do you say?
  a If I win the lottery, I'll buy a big house. ☐
  b If I won the lottery, I'd buy a big house. ☑ (b *is correct*)
2 You're not going to sell your car because it's old and not worth much. Which do you say?
  a If I sell my car, I won't get much money for it. ☐
  b If I sold my car, I wouldn't get much money for it. ☐
3 You often see Sarah. A friend of yours wants to contact her. Which do you say?
  a If I see Sarah, I'll tell her to call you. ☐
  b If I saw Sarah, I'd tell her to call you. ☐
4 You don't expect that there will be a fire in the building. Which do you say?
  a What will you do if there is a fire in the building? ☐
  b What would you do if there was a fire in the building? ☐
5 You've never lost your passport. You can only imagine it.
  a I don't know what I'll do if I lose my passport. ☐
  b I don't know what I'd do if I lost my passport. ☐
6 Somebody stops you and asks the way to a bank. Which do you say?
  a If you go right at the end of this street, you'll see a bank on your left. ☐
  b If you went right at the end of this street, you'd see a bank on your left. ☐
7 You're in a lift. There is an emergency button. Nobody is going to press it. Which do you say?
  a What will happen if somebody presses that button? ☐
  b What would happen if somebody pressed that button? ☐

38.3 Complete the sentences.

1 I'd be very scared if ....somebody pointed.... (somebody / point) a gun at me.
2 I can't afford to buy a car. If ..... (I / buy) a car, I'd have to borrow the money.
3 If you had a party, who ..... (you / invite)?
4 Don't lend James your car. If ..... (he / ask) me, I wouldn't lend him mine.
5 I don't think Gary and Emma will get married. ..... (I / be) amazed if they did.
6 If ..... (somebody / give) me $20,000, ... (I / have) a long holiday.
7 ..... (you / be) nervous if ..... (you / meet) a famous person?
8 What ..... (you / do) if ..... (you / be) in a lift and ..... (it / stop) between floors?

38.4 Write sentences beginning If ... .

1 We're not going to take the 10.30 train. (we / arrive too early)
  ....If we took the 10.30 train, we'd arrive too early.....
2 We're not going to stay at a hotel. (it / cost too much)
  If we ....., it .....
3 There's no point in telling you what happened. (you / not / believe)
  If I .....
4 Sally has no plans to leave her job. (it / hard to find another one)
  If she .....
5 Kevin is not going to apply for the job. (he / not / get it).
  .....

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Unit 39

if I knew … I wish I knew …

A Study this example situation:

Sarah wants to phone Paul, but she can't do this because she doesn't know his number. She says:

I'd phone him **if** I **knew** his number.
(I'd phone = I **would** phone)

Sarah *doesn't* know Paul's number, so she says 'if I **knew**'.
She *imagines* what she **would** do **if** she **knew** his number.

When we imagine a situation like this, we use **if** + *past* (**if** I **knew** / **if** you **were** / **if** we **didn't** etc.).
But the meaning is present, *not* past:

- There are many things I'd like to do **if** I **had** more time. (but I don't have time)
- **If** I **didn't** want to go to the party, I wouldn't go. (but I want to go)
- **If** you **were** in my position, what would you do?
- It's a pity he can't drive. It would be useful **if** he **could**.

B We use the past in the same way after **wish** (I **wish** I **knew** / I **wish** you **were** etc.).
We use **wish** to say that we regret something, that something is not as we would like it to be:

- I **wish** I **knew** Paul's phone number.
  (= I don't know it and I regret this)
- Do you ever **wish** you **could** fly?
  (you can't fly)
- It's very crowded here. I **wish** there **weren't** so many people. (there are a lot of people)
- I **wish** I **didn't** have to work tomorrow, but unfortunately I do.

Compare:

- I'**m glad** I **live** here. (I live here and that's good)
- I **wish** I **lived** here. (I don't live here unfortunately)

C After **if** and **wish**, you can use **were** instead of **was** (**if I were** / I **wish it were** etc.).
You can also use **was**. So you can say:

- **If I were** you, I wouldn't buy that coat. *or* **If I was** you, …
- I'd go for a walk **if it weren't** so cold. *or* … **if it wasn't** so cold.
- I **wish Anna were** here. *or* I **wish Anna was** here.

D We do not usually say 'if … would'. We use **would** (**'d**) in the other part of the sentence:

- **If** I **were** rich, I **would** travel a lot. (*not* If I would be rich)
- Who **would** you ask **if** you **needed** help? (*not* if you would need)

In the same way we say:

- I **wish** I **had** something to read. (*not* I wish I would have)
- I **wish** she **were** here now. (*not* I wish she would be)

For '**I wish** … **would** …' see Unit 41.

E **Could** sometimes means 'would be able to' and sometimes 'was/were able to':

- She **could get** a better job (she **could get** = she **would be able** to get)
  if she **could speak** another language. (if she **could speak** = if she **was able** to speak)
- I wish I **could** help you. (I wish I **could** = I wish I **was able**)

>> **could → Units 26–27** **if I do / if I did → Unit 38**
if I had known / I wish I had known → Unit 40 **wish → Unit 41**

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Exercises

39.1 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 If I knew (I / know) his number, I would phone him.
2 I wouldn't buy (I / not / buy) that coat if I were you.
3 ..... (I / help) you if I could, but I'm afraid I can't.
4 This soup isn't very nice. ..... (it / taste) better if it wasn't so salty.
5 We live in a city and don't need a car, but we would need one if ..... (we / live) in the country.
6 If we had the choice, ... (we / live) in the country.
7 I'd make a lot of changes if ..... (I / be) the manager of the company.
8 I wouldn't call someone in the middle of the night if ..... (it / not / be) important.
9 If I were you, ... (I / not / wait). ..... (I / go) now.
10 You're always tired because you go to bed so late. If ..... (you / not / go) to bed so late every night, ... (you / not / be) tired all the time.
11 I think there are too many cars. If ..... (there / not / be) so many cars, ... (there / not / be) so much pollution.
12 We all need jobs and money, but what ..... (you / do) if ..... (you / not / have) to work?

39.2 Write a sentence with if ... for each situation.

1 We don't see you very often because you live so far away.
If you didn't live so far away, we'd see you more often.
2 I like these shoes but they're too expensive, so I'm not going to buy them.
I ..... them if ..... so .....
3 We'd like to go on holiday, but we can't afford it.
We ..... if .....
4 It would be nice to have lunch outside but it's raining, so we can't.
We .....
5 I don't want his advice, and that's why I'm not going to ask for it.
If .....

39.3 Write sentences beginning I wish ... .

1 I don't know many people (and I'm lonely). I wish I knew more people.
2 I don't have much free time (and I need more). I wish .....
3 Helen isn't here (and I need to see her). .....
4 It's cold (and I hate cold weather). .....
5 I live in a big city (and I don't like it). .....
6 I can't find my phone (which is a problem). .....
7 I'm not feeling well (which isn't good). .....
8 I have to get up early tomorrow (but I'd prefer to sleep late).
.....
9 I don't know much about science (and I should know more).
.....

39.4 Write your own sentences beginning I wish ... .

1 (somewhere you'd like to be now – on the beach, in New York, in bed etc.)
I wish I .....
2 (something you'd like to have – a motorbike, more friends, lots of money etc.)
.....
3 (something you'd like to be able to do – sing, travel more, cook etc.)
.....
4 (something you'd like to be – famous, more intelligent, good at sport etc.)
.....

➜ **Additional exercises 19–21** (pages 313–14)
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Unit 40

if I had known … I wish I had known …

A Study this example situation:

Last month Gary was in hospital for a few days. Rachel didn't know this.
A few days ago they met by chance. Rachel said:

If I'd known you were in hospital, **I would have gone** to visit you.
(= I didn't know, so I didn't go to visit you)

If I'd known = If I **had** known. This tells us that she *didn't* know before.

We use **if** + **had** (**'d**) … to talk about the past (**if I'd known** / **if you'd done** etc.):

- I didn't see you when you passed me in the street. **If** I**'d seen** you, I would have said hello.
- They didn't go out last night. They would have gone out **if** they **hadn't been** so tired. (but they were tired)
- **If** you**'d been looking** where you were going, you wouldn't have walked into the wall. (but you weren't looking)
- The view was wonderful. I would have taken some pictures **if** I**'d had** (= if I **had had**) a camera with me. (but I didn't have a camera)

Compare:

- I'm not hungry. **If** I **was** hungry, I would eat something. *(now)*
- I wasn't hungry. **If** I **had been** hungry, I would have eaten something. *(past)*

B We do *not* say 'if something would have happened'. We use **would** in the other part of the sentence:

- **If** I **had seen** you, I **would have said** hello. (*not* If I would have seen you)

The short form **'d** can be **would** or **had**:

- If I**'d seen** you, (I**'d** seen = I **had** seen)
  I**'d have said** hello. (I**'d** have said = I **would** have said)

C We use **had done**/**known**/**been** etc. in the same way after **wish**.

I **wish** something **had happened** = I am sorry that it didn't happen
I **wish** something **hadn't happened** = I am sorry that it happened

- I **wish** I**'d known** that Gary was ill. I would have gone to see him. (but I didn't know)
- I feel sick. I **wish** I **hadn't eaten** so much. (I ate too much)
- Do you **wish** you**'d studied** science instead of languages? (you didn't study science)

Compare:

- **I'm glad I saw** him. (= I **saw** him)
- **I wish I'd seen** him. (= I **didn't see** him)

We do *not* say 'wish … would have …'.

- The weather was cold. I wish it **had been** warmer. (*not* I wish it would have been)

D Compare **would** (**do**) and **would have** (**done**):

- If I'd gone to the party last night, I **would be** tired now. (I am not tired now – *present*)
- If I'd gone to the party last night, I **would have met** lots of people. (I didn't meet lots of people – *past*)

Compare **would have**, **could have** and **might have**:

- If the weather hadn't been so bad, we **would have gone** out.
  we **could have gone** out.
  (= we would have been able to go out)
  we **might have gone** out.
  (= maybe we would have gone out)

>> had done → Unit 15 if I do / if I did → Unit 38 if I knew / I wish I knew → Unit 39 wish → Unit 41

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Exercises

40.1 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 I didn't see you. If I'd seen (I / see) you, I would have said (I / say) hello.
2 Sarah got to the station just in time to catch her train to the airport. If ..... (she / miss) the train, ... (she / miss) her flight too.
3 Thanks for reminding me about Lisa's birthday. ..... (I / forget) if ..... (you / not / remind) me.
4 I didn't have your email address, so I couldn't contact you. If ..... (I / have) your email address, ... (I / send) you an email.
5 Their trip was OK, but ..... (they / enjoy) it more if the weather ..... (be) better.
6 Sorry we're late. Our taxi got stuck in the traffic. ..... (it / be) quicker if ..... (we / walk).
7 Why didn't you tell me about your problem? If ..... (you / tell) me, ... (I / try) to help you.
8 I'm not tired. If ..... (I / be) tired, I'd go home now.
9 I wasn't tired last night. If ..... (I / be) tired, I would have gone home earlier.

40.2 For each situation, write a sentence beginning with If.

1 I wasn't hungry, so I didn't eat anything.
If I'd been hungry, I would have eaten something.
2 The accident happened because the road was icy.
If the road .....
3 I didn't know that you had to get up early, so I didn't wake you up.
If I .....
4 Unfortunately I lost my phone, so I couldn't call you.
.....
5 Karen wasn't injured in the crash, because fortunately she was wearing a seat belt.
.....
6 You didn't have any breakfast – that's why you're hungry now.
.....
7 I didn't get a taxi because I didn't have enough money.
.....
8 Dan didn't do well at school, so he couldn't go to university.
.....

40.3 Imagine that you are in these situations. For each situation, write a sentence with I wish.

1 You've eaten too much and now you feel sick.
You say: I wish I hadn't eaten so much.
2 When you were younger, you never learned to play a musical instrument. Now you regret this.
You say: .....
3 You've painted the gate red. Now you think it doesn't look good. Red was the wrong colour.
You say: .....
4 You decided to travel by car, but the journey was long and tiring. Going by train would have been better.
You say: I wish we .....
5 Last year you went to New York with a friend. You didn't have time to do all the things you wanted to do.
You say: .....
6 You moved to a new flat a few months ago. Now you don't like your new flat. You think that moving was a bad idea.
You say: .....

➜ **Additional exercises 19–21** (pages 313–14)
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Unit 41 wish

A

We say '**wish** somebody **luck** / **all the best** / **success**' etc. :

- **I wish you all the best** in the future.
- I saw Mark before the exam and **he wished me luck**.

We say 'wish somebody *something*' (**luck**, **happiness** etc.), but we do not say 'I wish something *happens*'. We use **hope** in this situation:

- I'm sorry you're not well. I **hope** you **feel** better soon. (*not* I wish you feel)

Compare **I wish** and **I hope**:

- **I wish** you **a pleasant stay** at this hotel.
- **I hope** you **enjoy** your stay at this hotel. (*not* I wish you enjoy)

B

We also use **wish** to say that we regret something, that something is not as we would like it. When we use **wish** in this way, we use the *past* (**knew**/**lived** etc.), but the meaning is *present*:

- I **wish** I **knew** what to do about the problem. (but I don't know)
- I **wish** you **didn't** have to go so soon. (but you have to go)
- Do you **wish** you **lived** near the sea? (you don't live near the sea)
- Jack's going on a trip to Mexico soon. I **wish** I **was** going too. (but I'm not going)

To say that we regret something that happened before, we use **wish** + **had** known / **had** said etc. :

- I **wish** I'**d known** about the party. I'd have gone if I'd known. (but I didn't know)
- It was a stupid thing to say. I **wish** I **hadn't said** it. (but I said it)

See also Units 39 and 40.

C

I wish I could (**do** something) = I regret that I cannot do it:

- I'm sorry you have to go. I **wish** you **could stay** longer. (but you can't)
- I've met that man before. I **wish** I **could remember** his name. (but I can't)

I wish I could have (**done** something) = I regret that I could not do it:

- I hear the party was great. I **wish** I **could have gone**. (but I couldn't go)

D

You can say '**I wish** something **would** happen'. For example:

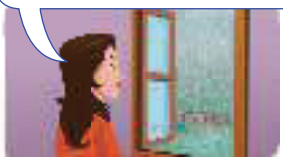

It's been raining all day. Tanya doesn't like it. She says:
I wish it **would stop** raining.

Tanya would like the rain to stop, but this will probably not happen.

We use **I wish** … **would** when we would like something to happen or change.

We often use **I wish** … **would** to complain about a situation:

- The phone has been ringing for five minutes. **I wish** somebody **would answer** it.
- **I wish** you'**d do** (= you **would** do) something instead of just sitting and doing nothing.

You can use **I wish** … **wouldn't** … to complain about things that people do repeatedly:

- **I wish** you **wouldn't keep** interrupting me. (= please stop interrupting me)

E

We use **I wish** … **would** … to say that we want something *to happen*. We do not use **I wish** … **would** … to say how we would like things *to be*. Compare:

- I **wish** Sarah **would** come. (= I want her to come)

but I **wish** Sarah **was** (*or* **were**) here now. (*not* I wish Sarah would be)

- I **wish** somebody **would buy** me a car.

but I **wish** I **had** a car. (*not* I wish I would have)

>> **would → Unit 36** **I wish I knew → Unit 39** **I wish I was / I wish I were → Unit 39C**
I wish I had known → Unit 40

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Exercises

41.1 Put in wish(ed) or hope(d).

1 I ....wish.... you a pleasant stay at this hotel.
2 Enjoy your holiday. I ..... you have a great time.
3 Goodbye. I ..... you all the best for the future.
4 We said goodbye to each other and ..... each other luck.
5 We're going to have a picnic tomorrow, so I ..... the weather is nice.
6 Congratulations on your new job. I ..... you every success.
7 Good luck in your new job. I ..... it works out well for you.

41.2 Complete the sentences.

1 Jack is going on a trip to Mexico soon. I wish I ....was going.... too.
2 I'm very tired and I have so much to do. I wish I ..... so tired.
3 You didn't tell me you were ill. Why not? I wish you ..... me.
4 I don't have enough free time. I wish I ..... more free time.
5 I can't make up my mind what to do. I wish I ..... decide.
6 I bought these shoes, but now I don't like them. I wish I ..... them.
7 We have to go out now and I don't want to go. I wish we ..... to go out now.
8 Unfortunately I couldn't go to the wedding last month. I wish I could ..... .

41.3 What do you say in these situations? Write sentences with I wish ... would ... .

1 It's raining. You want to go out, but not in the rain.
You say: ....I wish it would stop raining.....
2 You're waiting for Jane. She's late and you're getting impatient.
You say to yourself: I wish she .....
3 You're looking for a job – so far without success. Nobody will give you a job.
You say: I wish somebody .....
4 You can hear a dog barking. It's been barking a long time and you're trying to study.
You say: .....

For the following situations, write sentences with I wish ... wouldn't ... .

5 Your friend is driving very fast. She always drives fast and you don't like this.
You say to her: I wish you .....
6 Joe leaves the door open all the time. This annoys you.
You say to Joe: ..... .
7 A lot of people drop litter in the street. You don't like this.
You say: I wish people .....

41.4 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 It was a stupid thing to say. I wish ....I hadn't said.... it. (I / not / say)
2 I'm fed up with this rain. I wish ....it would stop.... . (it / stop)
3 It's a difficult question. I wish ..... the answer. (I / know)
4 I really didn't enjoy the party. I wish ..... . (we / not / go)
5 I wish ..... . We've been waiting for 20 minutes. (the bus / come)
6 You're lucky to be going away. I wish ..... with you. (I / can / come)
7 Our flat is rather small. I wish ..... a bit bigger. (it / be)
8 I should have listened to you. I wish ..... your advice. (I / take)
9 You keep interrupting me! I wish ..... . (you / listen)
10 You're always complaining. I wish ..... all the time.
(you / not / complain)
11 It's freezing today. I wish ..... so cold. I hate cold weather. (it / not / be)
12 I wish ..... . It's horrible! (the weather / change)
13 I wish ..... a piano. I'd love to have one. (I / have)
14 When we were in London last year, we didn't have time to see all the things we wanted to see.
I wish ..... there longer. (we / can / stay)

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Unit 42

Passive 1 (**is done** / **was done**)

A Study this example:

This house **was built** in 1981.

'This house **was built**' is *passive*.

Compare active and passive:

Somebody **built** this house in 1981. *(active)*
subject *object*

This house **was built** in 1981. *(passive)*
subject

When we use an *active* verb, we say *what the subject does*:

- My grandfather was a builder. **He built** this house in 1981.
- It's a big company. **It employs** two hundred people.

When we use a *passive* verb, we say *what happens to the subject*:

- 'How old is this house?' '**It was built** in 1981.'
- **Two hundred people are employed** by the company.

B When we use the passive, who or what causes the action is often unknown or unimportant:

- A lot of money **was stolen** in the robbery. (somebody stole it, but we don't know who)
- **Is** this room **cleaned** every day? (does somebody clean it? – it's not important who)

If we want to say who does or what causes the action, we use **by**:

- This house was built **by my grandfather**.
- Two hundred people are employed **by the company**.

C The passive is **be** (**is**/**was** etc.) + *past participle* (**done**/**cleaned**/**seen** etc.):
(**be**) **done** (**be**) **cleaned** (**be**) **damaged** (**be**) **built** (**be**) **seen** etc.

The *past participle* often ends in -**ed** (clean**ed**/damag**ed** etc.), but many important verbs are *irregular* (**built**/**done**/**stolen** etc.). See Appendix 1.

Compare active and passive, *present simple* and *past simple*:

Present simple

active: **clean**(**s**) / **see**(**s**) etc.

passive: **am**/**is**/**are** + **cleaned**/**seen** etc.

Somebody **cleans** this room every day.

This room **is cleaned** every day.

- Many accidents **are caused** by careless driving.
- I'**m not invited** to parties very often.
- How **is** this word **pronounced**?

Past simple

active: **cleaned**/**saw** etc.

passive: **was**/**were** + **cleaned**/**seen** etc.

Somebody **cleaned** this room yesterday.

This room **was cleaned** yesterday.

- We **were woken** up by a loud noise during the night.
- 'Did you go to the party?' 'No, I **wasn't invited**.'
- How much money **was stolen** in the robbery?

Passive 2–3 → **Units 43–44** **by** → **Unit 128**

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Exercises

42.1 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs in the correct form, present or past:

~~cause~~	damage	find	hold	injure	invite
make	overtake	own	send	show	surround

1 Many accidents ....are caused.... by careless driving.
2 Cheese ..... from milk.
3 The roof of the building ..... in a storm a few days ago.
4 A cinema is a place where films ..... .
5 You ..... to the party. Why didn't you go?
6 This plant is very rare. It ..... in very few places.
7 Although we were driving fast, we ..... by a lot of other cars.
8 In the US, elections for president ..... every four years.
9 There was an accident last night, but fortunately nobody ..... .
10 You can't see the house from the road. It ..... by trees.
11 I never received the letter. It ..... to the wrong address.
12 The company I work for ..... by a much larger company.

42.2 Write questions using the passive. Some are present and some are past.

1 Ask about glass. (how / make?) ....How is glass made?....
2 Ask about television. (when / invent?) When .....
3 Ask about mountains. (how / form?) .....
4 Ask about DNA. (when / discover?) .....
5 Ask about silver. (what / use for?) .....

42.3 Put the verb into the correct form, present or past, active or passive.

1 a Two hundred people ....are employed.... (employ) by the company.
b The company ....employs.... (employ) 200 people.
2 a Water ..... (cover) most of the earth's surface.
b How much of the earth's surface ..... (cover) by water?
3 a While I was on holiday, my camera ..... (steal) from my hotel room.
b While I was on holiday, my camera ..... (disappear) from my hotel room.
4 a Robert's parents ..... (die) when he was very young.
b Robert and his sister ..... (bring up) by their grandparents.
5 a The boat hit a rock and ..... (sink) quickly.
b Fortunately everybody ..... (rescue).
6 a Bill ..... (fire) from his job. He wasn't very good at it.
b Sue ..... (resign) from her job because she didn't enjoy it any more.
7 a It can be noisy living here, but it ..... (not / bother) me.
b It can be noisy living here, but I ..... (not / bother) by it.
8 a Maria had an accident. She ..... (knock) off her bike.
b Maria had an accident. She ..... (fall) off her bike.
9 a I haven't seen these flowers before. What ..... (they / call)?
b I haven't seen these flowers before. What ..... (you / call) them?

42.4 Instead of using somebody, they, people etc., write a passive sentence.

1 Somebody cleans the room every day. ....The room is cleaned every day.....
2 They cancelled all flights because of fog. All ..... .
3 Somebody accused me of stealing money. ..... money.
4 How do you use this word? How ..... used?
5 The price includes all taxes. All ..... in the price.
6 People warned us not to go out alone. We ..... .
7 We don't use this office any more. This ..... .
8 They invited five hundred people to the wedding. Five hundred ..... .

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Unit 43

Passive 2 (be done / been done / being done)

A

Infinitive

active: (to) **do**/**clean**/**see** etc. — Somebody **will clean** this room later.

passive: (to) **be** + **done**/**cleaned**/**seen** etc. — This room **will be cleaned** later.

- The situation is serious. Something must **be done** before it's too late.
- A mystery is something that can't **be explained**.
- The music was very loud and could **be heard** from a long way away.
- A new supermarket is going **to be built** next year.
- Please go away. I want **to be left** alone.

B

Perfect infinitive

active: (to) **have** + **done**/**cleaned**/**seen** etc. — Somebody **should have cleaned** the room.

passive: (to) **have been** + **done**/**cleaned**/**seen** etc. — The room **should have been cleaned**.

- I haven't received the letter yet. It might **have been sent** to the wrong address.
- If you had locked the car, it wouldn't **have been stolen**.
- There were some problems at first, but they seem **to have been solved**.

C

Present perfect

active: **have**/**has** + **done** etc. — The room looks nice. Somebody **has cleaned** it.

passive: **have**/**has been** + **done** etc. — The room looks nice. It **has been cleaned**.

- Have you heard? The trip **has been cancelled**.
- **Have** you ever **been bitten** by a dog?
- 'Are you going to the party?' 'No, I **haven't been invited**.'

Past perfect

active: **had** + **done** etc. — The room looked nice. Somebody **had cleaned** it.

passive: **had been** + **done** etc. — The room looked nice. It **had been cleaned**.

- The vegetables didn't taste good. They **had been cooked** too long.
- The car was three years old, but **hadn't been used** very much.

D

Present continuous

active: **am**/**is**/**are** + (**do**)**ing** — Somebody **is cleaning** the room at the moment.

passive: **am**/**is**/**are** + **being** (**done**) — The room **is being cleaned** at the moment.

- There's somebody walking behind us. I think we **are being followed**.
- A new bridge **is being built** across the river. It will be finished next year.

Past continuous

active: **was**/**were** + (**do**)**ing** — Somebody **was cleaning** the room when I arrived.

passive: **was**/**were** + **being** (**done**) — The room **was being cleaned** when I arrived.

- There was somebody walking behind us. I think we **were being followed**.

>> Passive 1, 3 ➜ **Units 42, 44**

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Exercises

43.1 **Complete these sentences. Use the following verbs in the passive:**

arrest carry cause delay ~~do~~ forget keep knock know make repair ~~send~~

Sometimes you need have (might have, would have etc.).

1 The situation is serious. Something must be done before it's too late.
2 I haven't received the letter yet. It might have been sent to the wrong address.
3 A decision will not ..... until the next meeting.
4 These documents are important. They should always ..... in a safe place.
5 This road is in bad condition. It should ..... a long time ago.
6 The injured man couldn't walk and had to ..... .
7 If you hadn't shouted at the policeman, you wouldn't ..... .
8 I'm not sure what time I'll arrive tomorrow. I may ..... .
9 It's not certain how the fire started. It might ..... by an electrical fault.
10 A new school is being built. The old one is going to ..... down.
11 The election is next Sunday. The full results will ..... on Tuesday.
12 Last week they weren't speaking to one another. Now they're happy again. The problem seems to ..... .

43.2 **Make sentences from the words in brackets. Sometimes the verb is active, sometimes passive.**

1 There's somebody behind us. (We / follow) We're being followed.
2 This door is a different colour, isn't it? (you / paint?) Have you painted it?
3 My bike has disappeared. (It / steal!) It .....
4 My umbrella has disappeared. (Somebody / take) Somebody ..... .
5 A neighbour of mine disappeared six months ago.
(He / not / see / since then) He .....
6 I wonder how Jessica is these days.
(I / not / see / for ages) I .....
7 A friend of mine was stung by a bee recently.
(you / ever / sting / bee?) ..... you .....
8 The bridge was damaged recently.
(It / repair / at the moment) It .....
9 Tom's car was stolen recently.
(It / not / find / yet) ..... .
10 I went into the room and saw that the table and chairs were not in the same place.
(The furniture / move) The .....

43.3 **Instead of using 'somebody', 'they' etc., write a passive sentence.**

1 Somebody has cleaned the room. The room has been cleaned.
2 They are building a new road around the city.
A ..... around the city.
3 They have built two new hotels near the airport.
Two ..... near the airport.
4 When I last visited, they were building some new houses here.
When I last visited, some ..... .
5 The meeting is now on 15 April. They have changed the date.
The date of ..... .
6 I didn't know that somebody was recording our conversation.
I didn't know that our ..... .
7 Is anyone doing anything about the problem?
..... anything ..... the problem?
8 The windows were very dirty. Nobody had cleaned them for ages.
The windows were very dirty. They ..... .

➜ **Additional exercises 22–24** (pages 314–15)
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Unit 44

Passive 3

A

I was offered . . . / **we were given** . . . etc.

Some verbs can have two objects. For example, **give**:

- My grandfather gave **me** (*object 1*) **this watch** (*object 2*).

It is possible to make two passive sentences:

- **I was given** this watch (by my grandfather). *or*
  This watch was given to me (by my grandfather).

Other verbs which can have two objects are:

ask **offer** **pay** **show** **tell**

When we use these verbs in the passive, most often we begin with the *person*:

- **I've been offered** the job, but I don't think I want it. (= somebody has offered me the job)
- **You will be given** plenty of time to decide. (= we will give you plenty of time)
- I didn't see the original document, but **I was shown** a copy. (= somebody showed me a copy)
- Tim has an easy job – **he's paid a lot of money** to do very little. (= somebody pays him a lot)

B

I don't like being . . .

The passive of **doing**/**seeing** etc. is **being done** / **being seen** etc. Compare:

active: I don't like **people telling me** what to do.
passive: I don't like **being told** what to do.

- I remember **being taken** to the zoo when I was a child.
  (= I remember **somebody taking** me to the zoo)
- Steve hates **being kept** waiting. (= he hates **people keeping** him waiting)
- We climbed over the wall without **being seen**. (= without **anybody seeing** us)

C

I was born . . .

We say '**I was** born . . .' (*not* I am born):

- I was born in Chicago. } *past*
- Where **were** you **born**? (*not* Where are you born?) } *past*

but

- How many babies **are born** every day? *present*

D

get

You can use **get** for the passive:

- There was a fight, but nobody **got hurt**. (= nobody **was** hurt)
- I don't **get invited** to many parties. (= I**'m** not invited)
- I'm surprised Liz **didn't get offered** the job. (= Liz **wasn't offered** the job)

We use **get** only when things *happen*. For example, you cannot use **get** in these sentences:

- Jessica **is liked** by everybody. (*not* gets liked – this is not a 'happening')
- Peter was a mystery man. Very little **was known** about him. (*not* got known)

We use **get** mainly in informal spoken English. You can use **be** in all situations.

We also use **get** in the following expressions (which are not passive in meaning):

get married, **get divorced** **get dressed** (= put on your clothes)
get lost (= not know where you are) **get changed** (= change your clothes)

>> Passive 1–2 ➜ **Units 42–43**

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Exercises

44.1 Complete the sentences using the correct form of the verb.

1 I tried to contact Tom.
I called his office but I ....was told.... (tell) that he was in a meeting.
2 Amy retired from her job recently.
She ..... (give) a present by her colleagues.
3 I didn't know there was a meeting yesterday.
I ..... (not / tell) about it.
4 Sarah's salary is very low.
I don't understand why she ..... (pay) so little.
5 You will need to use this machine.
Have you ..... (show) how it works?
6 I had an interview for a job recently. It wasn't easy.
I ..... (ask) some questions that were very hard for me to answer.
7 They didn't tell us much about the project.
We ..... (not / give) enough information.
8 I was surprised to get the job I applied for.
I didn't expect ..... (offer) it.

44.2 Complete the sentences using being + the following verbs (in the correct form):

bite **give** **invite** ~~**keep**~~ **knock down** **stick** **treat**

1 Steve hates ....being kept.... waiting.
2 We went to the wedding without ..... .
3 I like giving presents and I also like ..... them.
4 It's a busy road and I don't like crossing it. I'm afraid of ..... .
5 How do you avoid ..... by mosquitoes?
6 I'm an adult. I don't like ..... like a child.
7 You can't do anything about ..... in a traffic jam.

44.3 Complete the sentences using get or got + the following verbs (in the correct form):

ask **break** ~~**hurt**~~ **pay** **steal** **sting** **stop** **use**

1 There was a fight, but nobody ....got hurt.... .
2 Alex ..... by a bee while he was sitting in the garden.
3 These tennis courts don't ..... very often. Not many people want to play here.
4 I used to have a bike, but it ..... a few months ago.
5 Rachel works hard, but she doesn't ..... very much.
6 Please pack these things very carefully. I don't want anything to ..... .
7 People often want to know what my job is. I ..... that question a lot.
8 Last night I ..... by the police as I was driving home. One of the lights on my car wasn't working.

44.4 Complete the sentences.

1 I've been ....offered.... the job, but I don't think I'll accept it.
2 I ....don't.... get invited to many parties.
3 Which year ..... you born in?
4 I haven't been ..... any information yet.
5 I didn't know the way, so I got ..... .
6 He doesn't like ..... interrupted when he's speaking.
7 How did the window ..... broken? What happened?
8 She's a voluntary worker. She ..... get paid.
9 I ..... born in a small town in the north of the country.
10 We had to do what we did. We ..... given any choice.

➜ **Additional exercises 22–24** (pages 314–15)
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Unit 45

it is said that … he is said to … he is supposed to …

A Study this example situation:

George is very old. Nobody knows exactly how old he is, but:

It is said that he is 108 years old.

or He **is said to be** 108 years old.

Both these sentences mean: 'People say that he is 108 years old.'

You can use these structures with a number of other verbs, especially:

alleged believed considered expected known reported thought understood

- Cathy loves running.
  It is said that she runs 10 miles a day. *or* **She is said to** run 10 miles a day.
- The police are looking for a missing boy.
  It is believed that the boy is wearing a white sweater and blue jeans. *or* **The boy is believed to** be wearing a white sweater and blue jeans.
- The strike started three weeks ago.
  It is expected that it will end soon. *or* **The strike is expected to** end soon.
- A friend of mine has been arrested.
  It is alleged that he stole a car. *or* **He is alleged to** have stolen a car.
- The two houses belong to the same family.
  It is said that there is a secret tunnel between them. *or* **There is said to** be a secret tunnel between them.

These structures are often used in news reports. For example, in a report about an accident:

- **It is reported that** two people were injured in the explosion. *or* **Two people are reported to** have been injured in the explosion.

B **supposed to** …

You can use **supposed to** … in the same way as **said to** … :

- I want to see that film. It**'s supposed to be** good. (= people say it's good)
- There are many stories about Joe. He**'s supposed to have robbed** a bank many years ago.
- Fireworks **are supposed to have been invented** in China. Is it true?

Sometimes **supposed to** … has a different meaning. We use **supposed to** to say what is intended, arranged or expected. Often this is different from the real situation:

- The plan **is supposed to be** a secret, but everybody seems to know about it.
  (= the plan is intended to be a secret)
- What are you doing at work? You**'re supposed to be** on holiday.
  (= you arranged to be on holiday)
- Our guests **were supposed to come** at 7.30, but they were late.
- Jane **was supposed to phone** me last night, but she didn't.
- I'd better hurry. I**'m supposed to be meeting** Chris in ten minutes.

You're not supposed to do something = it is not allowed or advised:

- **You're not supposed to park** your car here. It's private parking only.
- Joe is much better after his illness, but **he's not supposed to exercise** too hard.

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Exercises

45.1 **Write these sentences in another way, beginning as shown. Use the underlined word each time.**

1 It is expected that the strike will end soon.
The strike is expected to end soon.
2 It is reported that many people are homeless after the floods.
Many people .....
3 It is thought that the thieves got in through a window in the roof.
The thieves .....
4 It is alleged that the driver of the car was driving at 110 miles an hour.
The driver .....
5 It is reported that the building has been badly damaged by the fire.
The building .....
6 It is said that the company is losing a lot of money.
The company .....
7 It is believed that the company lost a lot of money last year.
The company .....
8 It is expected that the company will make a loss this year.
The company .....

45.2 **Complete the sentences. Use the words in brackets and any other necessary words.**

1 A: What's the City Hotel like? Can you recommend it?
B: I've never stayed there, but it's supposed to be (it / supposed) very good.
2 A: How much are these paintings worth?
B: I'm not sure, but ..... (they / supposed) very valuable.
3 A: This looks an interesting building.
B: Yes, ... (it / supposed) a prison a long time ago.
4 A: Is it true that your neighbours were lucky in the lottery?
B: Yes, ... (they / supposed / win) a lot of money.
5 A: Is it possible to climb to the top of the tower?
B: Yes, ... (the view / supposed) very nice.
6 A: I heard that Laura has gone away.
B: Yes, ... (she / supposed / living) in London now.

45.3 **Write sentences using supposed to be + the following:**

on a diet **a flower** **my friend** **a joke** **open every day** ~~**a secret**~~ **working**

1 How is it that everybody knows about the plan? It's supposed to be a secret.
2 You shouldn't criticise me all the time. You .....
3 I shouldn't be eating this cake really. I .....
4 I'm sorry for what I said. I was trying to be funny. It .....
5 What's this drawing? Is it a tree? Or maybe it .....
6 You shouldn't be playing a game now. .....
7 That's strange. The museum seems to be closed. .....

45.4 **Write sentences with supposed to ... or not supposed to ... . Choose from the following verbs:**

depart **lift** ~~**park**~~ **phone** **put** **start**

1 You're not supposed to park your car here. It's private parking only.
2 We ..... work at 8.15, but we rarely do anything before 8.30.
3 I ..... Helen last night, but I completely forgot.
4 This door is a fire exit. We ..... anything in front of it.
5 My flight ..... at 10.15, but it didn't leave until 11.30.
6 Jonathan has a problem with his back. He ..... anything heavy.

➜ **Additional exercises 22–24** (pages 314–15)
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Unit 46

have something **done**

A

Study this example situation:

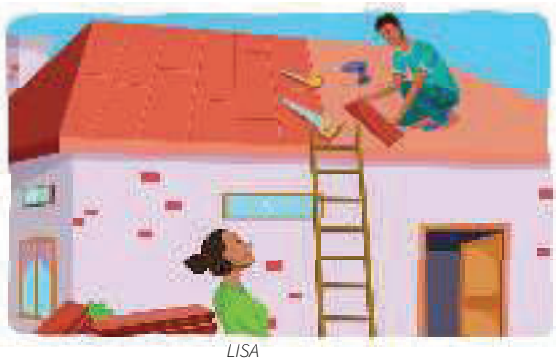

LISA

The roof of Lisa's house was damaged.
So she called a builder, and yesterday he came and repaired it.

Lisa **had** the roof **repaired** yesterday.

This means: Lisa arranged for somebody else to repair the roof. She didn't repair it herself.

If you **have something done**, you arrange for somebody to do it for you.
Compare:

- Lisa **repaired** the roof. (= she repaired it herself)
  Lisa **had** the roof **repaired**. (= she arranged for somebody else to repair it)
- A: Did you **make** those curtains yourself?
  B: Yes, I like making things.
  A: Did you **have** those curtains **made**?
  B: No, I made them myself.

B

Study the word order:

have	*object*	*past participle*
Lisa **had**	the roof	**repaired**.
Where did you **have**	your hair	**cut**?
We are **having**	the house	**painted**.
I think you should **have**	that coat	**cleaned**.
I don't like **having**	my picture	**taken**.

We say:

- How often do you **have your car serviced**? (*not* have serviced your car)
- Our neighbour is **having a garage built**. (*not* having built a garage)
- Your hair looks nice. Did you **have it cut**?

C

get something done

You can say '**get** something done' instead of '**have** something done':

- When are you going to **get the roof repaired**? (= have the roof repaired)
- I think you should **get your hair cut** really short.

D

We also use **have something done** with a different meaning. For example:

- Paul and Karen **had their bags stolen** while they were travelling.

This does not mean that they arranged for somebody to steal their bags. 'They **had their bags stolen**' means only: 'Their bags were stolen'.

With this meaning, we use **have something done** to say that something happens to somebody or their belongings:

- Gary **had** his nose **broken** in a fight. (= his nose was broken)
- Have you ever **had** your bike **stolen**?

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Exercises

46.1 **Tick (✓) the correct sentence, (a) or (b), for each picture.**

1

SARAH
(a) Sarah is cutting her hair.
(b) Sarah is having her hair cut.

2

DAN
(a) Dan is cutting his hair.
(b) Dan is having his hair cut.

3
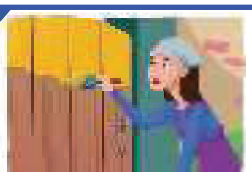
KATE
(a) Kate is painting the gate.
(b) Kate is having the gate painted.

4
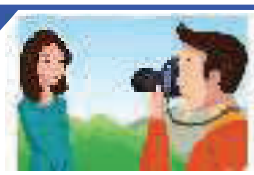
SUE
(a) Sue is taking a picture.
(b) Sue is having her picture taken.

46.2 **Put the words in the correct order.**

1 (painted / had / a few weeks ago / the house)
We had the house painted a few weeks ago.
2 (serviced / car / once a year / her / has)
Sarah .....
3 (had / your / recently / tested / eyes / you?)
Have .....
4 (like / cut / my / having / don't / hair)
I .....
5 (fifteen pounds / have / cleaned / my suit / cost / to)
It .....
6 (as soon as possible / need / translated / to get / this document)
You .....

46.3 **Write sentences in the way shown.**

1 Lisa didn't repair the roof herself. She had it repaired.
2 I didn't cut my hair myself. I .....
3 We didn't clean the carpets ourselves. We .....
4 Ben didn't build that wall himself. He .....
5 I didn't deliver the flowers myself. I .....
6 Sarah didn't repair her shoes herself. She .....

46.4 **Which goes with which?**

1 My hair is getting long.	a I need to get it fixed.	1 d
2 I really like this picture.	b I'll have to get a new one made.	2 .....
3 The washing machine is broken.	c I need to get my teeth checked.	3 .....
4 I want to wear earrings.	d ~~I should get it cut.~~	4 .....
5 Can you recommend a dentist?	e I'm going to get my ears pierced.	5 .....
6 I've lost my key.	f I'm going to get it framed.	6 .....

46.5 **Use the words in brackets to complete the sentences.**

1 Did I tell you about Paul and Karen?
(They / their bags / steal) They had their bags stolen.
2 Security at the airport was strict.
(We / our bags / search) .....
3 I've had some good news!
(I / my salary / increase) I .....
4 Joe can't get a visa.
(He / his application / refuse) .....

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Unit 47

Reported speech 1 (**he said that …**)

A Study this example situation:

You saw Paul yesterday and you want to tell somebody what he said.
There are two ways of doing this:

You can repeat Paul's words (direct speech):
Paul said, '**I'm feeling ill**.'

Or you can use reported speech:
Paul said **that he was feeling ill**.

Compare:

direct	Paul said, '	I	am	feeling ill.'	
reported	Paul said that	**he**	**was**	feeling ill.	

In writing we use these quotation marks to show direct speech.

B When we use reported speech, the main verb of the sentence is usually past (Paul **said** that … / I **told** her that … etc.). The rest of the sentence is usually past too:

- Paul **said** that he **was feeling** ill.
- I **told** Lisa that I **didn't have** any money.

You can leave out **that**. So you can say:

- Paul **said that** he was feeling ill. *or* Paul **said** he was feeling ill.

In general, the *present* in direct speech changes to the *past* in reported speech:

am/is → **was**	do/does → **did**	will → **would**
are → **were**	have/has → **had**	can → **could**

want/like/know/go etc. → **wanted**/**liked**/**knew**/**went** etc.

See also Unit 48A.

Compare direct and reported speech:

You met Anna. Here are some of the things she said in *direct* speech:

I'**ve** lost my phone.
I **want** to buy a car.
I **can't** come to the party on Friday.
I **don't** have much free time.
My parents **are** fine.
I'**m** going away for a few days.
I'**ll** phone you when I **get** back.

ANNA

Later you tell somebody what Anna said.
You use *reported* speech:

- Anna said that she **had** lost her phone.
- She said that she **wanted** to buy a car.
- She said that she **couldn't** come to the party on Friday.
- She said that she **didn't** have much free time.
- She said that her parents **were** fine.
- She said that she **was** going away for a few days and **would** phone me when she **got** back.

C The *past simple* (**did**/**saw**/**knew** etc.) can stay the same in reported speech, or you can change it to the *past perfect* (**had done** / **had seen** / **had known** etc.):

- *direct* Paul said: 'I **woke** up feeling ill, so I **didn't go** to work.'
  reported Paul said (that) he **woke** up feeling ill, so he **didn't go** to work. *or*
  Paul said (that) he **had woken** up feeling ill, so he **hadn't gone** to work.

>> Reported speech 2 → **Unit 48** Reported questions → **Unit 50B**

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Exercises

47.1 **You talked to some friends of yours (Paul, Tom, Anna etc.). Read what they said on the left (direct speech). Later (the same day) you tell another friend what they said (reported speech). Complete the sentences.**

	direct speech	*reported speech*
1 YOU: PAUL:	Are you going to work today, Paul? No, I'm feeling ill.	Paul didn't go to work today. He said he was feeling ill.
2 YOU: TOM:	Shall we walk to the station? No, it's too far. Let's get a taxi.	I wanted to walk to the station, but Tom said ..... far.
3 YOU: ANNA:	Have you been invited to the party? Yes, but I don't want to go.	Anna has been invited to the party but she told me ..... to go.
4 YOU: DAN:	When are you going away, Dan? I'll let you know next week.	I asked Dan about his travel plans. He said ..... next week.
5 YOU: BEN:	Do you ever see Rachel these days? I haven't seen her for a while.	I asked Ben about Rachel, but he told me ..... for a while.
6 YOU: KATE:	Where can I borrow a guitar? You can borrow mine.	I needed to borrow a guitar and Kate said ..... .
7 YOU: SUE:	How's your job, Sue? I'm not enjoying it very much.	I asked Sue about her job. She said ..... very much.
8 YOU: JAMES:	Do you still have your car? No, I sold it a few months ago.	I asked James about his car. He told me ..... a few months ago.
9 YOU: SARAH:	What's the name of the cafe we went to? I don't know.	I asked Sarah the name of the cafe we went to but she said ..... .
10 YOU: AMY:	How many students are there in your class, Amy? Twenty.	I asked Amy about her school and she told me .... class.

47.2 **Somebody says something to you which is not what you expected. Use your own ideas to complete your answers.**

1 A: It's quite a long way from the hotel to the city centre.
B: Is it? The man on the reception desk said it was only five minutes' walk.
2 A: Sue is coming to the party tonight.
B: Is she? I saw her a few days ago and she said she ..... .
3 A: Sarah gets on fine with Paul.
B: Does she? Last week you said ..... each other.
4 A: Joe knows lots of people.
B: That's not what he told me. He said ..... anyone.
5 A: Jane will be here next week.
B: Oh, really? When I spoke to her, she said ..... away.
6 A: I'm going out tonight.
B: Are you? I thought you said ..... at home.
7 A: I speak French quite well.
B: Do you? But earlier you said ..... any other languages.
8 A: I haven't seen Ben recently.
B: That's strange. He told me ..... last weekend.

➜ **Additional exercise 25** (page 316)

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Unit 48

Reported speech 2

A

We do not always change the verb in reported speech. If the situation *is still the same*, it is not necessary to change the verb to the past. For example:

- *direct* Paul said, '**My** new job **is** boring.'
  reported Paul said that **his** new job **is** boring.
  (The situation is still the same. His job is still boring now.)
- *direct* Helen said, '**I want** to go to Canada next year.'
  reported Helen told me that **she wants** to go to Canada next year.
  (Helen still wants to go to Canada next year.)

You can also change the verb to the past:

- Paul said that his new job **was** boring.
- Helen told me that she **wanted** to go to Canada next year.

But if the situation has *changed* or *finished*, you need to use a past verb. Compare:

- Paul left the room suddenly. He said '**I have to go**.' *(direct speech)*
  Paul left the room suddenly. He said (that) **he had to go**. (*not* has to go)

B

You need to use the past in reported speech when what was said is different from what is really true. For example:

You met Rachel a few days ago. She said:

- Have you heard? **Joe is in hospital**.

Later that day you meet Joe in the street. You say:

- Joe, this is a surprise. Rachel said you **were** in hospital.
  (*not* 'you are in hospital' – it's clear that he isn't)

C

say and **tell**

If you say *who* somebody is talking to, use **tell**:

- Rachel **told me** that you were in hospital. (*not* Rachel said me)
- What did you **tell the police**? (*not* say the police)

Otherwise use **say**:

- Rachel **said** that you were in hospital.
  (*not* Rachel told that . . .)
- What did you **say**?

You can '**say** something **to** somebody':

- Anna **said** goodbye **to** me and left. (*not* Anna said me goodbye)
- What did you **say to** the police?

D

We say '**tell** somebody **to** . . .' and '**ask** somebody **to** . . .'.

Compare direct and reported speech:

- *direct* '**Drink** plenty of water,' the doctor said to me.
  reported The doctor **told me to drink** plenty of water.
- *direct* '**Don't work** too hard,' I said to Joe.
  reported I **told Joe not to work** too hard.
- *direct* 'Can you help me, please,' Jackie said to me.
  reported Jackie **asked me to help** her.

You can also say 'Somebody **said** (**not**) **to** do something':

- Paul **said not to worry** about him. (*but not* Paul said me)

>> Reported speech 1 ➜ Unit 47 Reported questions ➜ Unit 50B

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Exercises

48.1 **Here are some things that Sarah said to you earlier:**

I've never been to the United States.

I don't have any brothers or sisters.

I can't drive.

I don't like fish.

Jane has a very well-paid job.

I'm working tomorrow evening.

Jane is a friend of mine.

~~Dave is lazy.~~

But later Sarah says something different to you. What do you say?

	Sarah	You
1	Dave works very hard.	But you said he was lazy.
2	Let's have fish for dinner.	But .....
3	I'm going to buy a car.	.....
4	Jane is always short of money.	.....
5	My sister lives in Paris.	.....
6	I think New York is a great place.	.....
7	Let's go out tomorrow evening.	.....
8	I've never spoken to Jane.	.....

48.2 **Complete the sentences with say or tell (in the correct form). Use only one word each time.**

1 Anna ...said... goodbye to me and left.
2 ..... us about your holiday. Did you have a nice time?
3 Don't just stand there! ..... something!
4 I wonder where Sue is. She ..... she would be here at 8 o'clock.
5 Dan ..... me that he was bored with his job.
6 The doctor ..... that I should rest for at least a week.
7 Gary couldn't help me. He ..... me to ask Chris.
8 Gary couldn't help me. He ..... to ask Chris.
9 Don't ..... anybody what I ..... It's a secret just between us.
10 'Did Kate ..... you what happened?' 'No, she didn't ..... anything to me.'

48.3 **The following sentences are direct speech:**

Don't wait for me if I'm late.

Mind your own business.

Please slow down!

Can you open your bag, please?

Don't worry, Sue.

~~Hurry up!~~

Will you marry me?

Do you think you could give me a hand, Tom?

Now choose one of these to complete each of the sentences below. Use reported speech.

1 Will was taking a long time to get ready, so I ...told him to hurry up...
2 Sarah was driving too fast, so I asked .....
3 Sue was nervous about the situation. I told .....
4 I couldn't move the piano alone, so I .....
5 The security guard looked at me suspiciously and .....
6 The man started asking me personal questions, so I .....
7 Carl was in love with Maria, so he .....
8 I didn't want to delay Helen, so I .....

➜ **Additional exercise 25** (page 316)

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Unit 49 Questions 1

A

In questions the subject is usually after the first verb:

subject	+ *verb*		*verb*	+ *subject*
Tom	will	→	will	Tom?
you	have	→	have	you?
the house	was	→	was	the house?

- **Will Tom** be here tomorrow?
- **Have you** been working hard?
- When **was the house** built?

The subject is after the *first* verb:

- **Is Katherine** working today? (*not* Is working Katherine)

B

In *present simple* questions, we use **do**/**does**:

you	live	→	**do**	you **live**?
the film	starts	→	**does**	the film **start**?

- **Do** you **live** near here?
- What time **does** the film **start**?

In *past simple* questions, we use **did**:

you	sold	→	**did**	you **sell**?
the train	stopped	→	**did**	the train **stop**?

- **Did** you **sell** your car?
- Why **did** the train **stop**?

But do not use **do**/**does**/**did** if **who**/**what** etc. is the subject of the sentence. Compare:

who *object*

Emma phoned somebody.

object

Who **did** Emma **phone**?

who *subject*

Somebody phoned Emma.

subject

Who **phoned** Emma?

In these examples, **who**/**what** etc. is the *subject*:

- **Who wants** something to eat? (*not* Who does want)
- **What happened** to you last night? (*not* What did happen)
- **How many people came** to the party? (*not* did come)
- **Which bus goes** to the centre? (*not* does go)

C

In questions beginning **who**/**what**/**which**/**where**, prepositions (**in**, **for** etc.) usually go at the end:

- **Where** are you **from**?
- **Who** do you want to speak **to**?
- **What** was the weather **like**?
- **Which** job has Tina applied **for**?

You can use *preposition* + **whom** in formal style:

- **To whom** do you wish to speak?

D

isn't it . . . ? / **didn't you** . . . ? etc. (negative questions)

We use negative questions especially to show surprise:

- **Didn't you** hear the doorbell? I rang it three times.

or when we expect the listener to agree with us:

- '**Haven't we** met before?' 'Yes, I think we have.'

Note the meaning of **yes** and **no** in answers to negative questions:

- '**Don't you** want to go?' { '**Yes**.' (= Yes, I want to go) / '**No**.' (= No, I don't want to go) }

We often use negative questions with **Why** . . . ? :

- **Why don't we** eat out tonight? (*not* Why we don't eat)
- **Why wasn't Emma** at work yesterday? (*not* Why Emma wasn't)

>> Questions 2 → **Unit 50** Question tags (**do you**? **isn't it**? etc.) → **Unit 52**

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Exercises

JOE

49.1 **Ask Joe questions.**

1	(where / live) Where do you live?	In Manchester.
2	(born there?)	No, I was born in London.
3	(married?)	Yes.
4	(how long?)	17 years.
5	(what / do?)	I'm a journalist.
6	(what wife / do?)	She's a doctor.
7	(children?)	Yes, two boys.
8	(how old?)	12 and 15.

49.2 **Make questions with who or what.**

1	Somebody hit me.	Who hit you?
2	I hit somebody.	Who did you hit?
3	Somebody paid the bill.	Who .....
4	I'm worried about something.	What .....
5	Something happened.	.....
6	Diane said something.	.....
7	This book belongs to somebody.	.....
8	Somebody lives in that house.	.....
9	I fell over something.	.....
10	Something fell off the shelf.	.....
11	This word means something.	.....
12	Sarah was with somebody.	.....
13	I'm looking for something.	.....
14	Emma reminds me of somebody.	.....

49.3 **Put the words in brackets in the correct order.**

1 (when / was / built / this house?) When was this house built?
2 (how / cheese / is / made?) .....
3 (why / Sue / working / isn't / today?) .....
4 (what time / arriving / your friends / are?) .....
5 (why / was / cancelled / the meeting?) .....
6 (when / invented / paper / was?) .....
7 (where / your parents / were / born?) .....
8 (why / you / to the party / didn't / come?) .....
9 (how / the accident / did / happen?) .....
10 (why / happy / you / aren't?) .....
11 (how many / speak / can / languages / you?) .....

49.4 **Write negative questions from the words in brackets. In each situation you are surprised.**

1 A: We won't see Lisa this evening.
B: Why not? (she / not / come / out with us?) Isn't she coming out with us?
2 A: I hope we don't meet Luke tonight.
B: Why? (you / not / like / him?) .....
3 A: Don't go and see that film.
B: Why not? (it / not / good?) .....
4 A: I'll have to borrow some money.
B: Why? (you / not / have / any?) .....

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Unit 50

Questions 2 (**do you know where . . . ? / he asked me where . . .**)

A

Do you **know where** . . . ? / **I don't know why** . . . / **Could you tell me what** . . . ? etc.

We say: Where **has Tom** gone?

but **Do you know** where **Tom has** gone? (*not* has Tom gone)

When the question (**Where has Tom gone?**) is part of a longer sentence (**Do you know** . . . ? / **I don't know** . . . / **Can you tell me** . . . ? etc.), the word order changes. We say:

What time **is it**?	*but*	**Do you know** what time **it is**?
Who **are those people**?		**I don't know** who **those people are**.
Where **can I** find Louise?		**Can you tell me** where **I can** find Louise?
How much **will it** cost?		**Do you have any idea** how much **it will** cost?

Be careful with **do**/**does**/**did** questions. We say:

What time **does the film start**?	*but*	**Do you know** what time **the film starts**? (*not* does the film start)
What **do you mean**?		**Please explain** what **you mean**.
Why **did she leave** early?		I **wonder** why **she left** early.

Use **if** or **whether** where there is no other question word (**what**, **why** etc.):

Did anybody see you?	*but*	I don't know **if** anybody saw me. *or* . . . **whether** anybody saw me.

B

He asked me where . . .

The same changes in word order happen in questions in reported speech. Compare:

direct	The police officer said to us 'Where **are you going** ?'
reported	The police officer asked us where **we were going** .
direct	Clare asked 'What time **do the shops close** ?'
reported	Clare wanted to know what time **the shops closed** .

In reported speech the verb usually changes to the past (**were**, **closed** etc.). See Unit 47.

Study these examples. You had a job interview and the interviewer asked you these questions:

Are you willing to travel?

What **do you do** in your spare time?

How long **have you been working in** your present job?

Why **did you apply** for the job?

Can you speak any other languages?

Do you have a driving licence?

Later you tell a friend what the interviewer asked you. You use *reported* speech:

- She asked if (*or* whether) **I was** willing to travel.
- She wanted to know what **I did** in my spare time.
- She asked how long **I had been working** in my present job.
- She asked why **I had applied** for the job. *or* . . . why I **applied** . . .
- She wanted to know if (*or* whether) **I could** speak any other languages.
- She asked if (*or* whether) **I had** a driving licence.

Reported speech ➜ Units 47–48

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Exercises

50.1 Which is right? Tick (✓) the correct alternative.

1 a Do you know what time the film starts? ✓
b Do you know what time does the film start?
c Do you know what time starts the film?

2 a Why Amy does get up so early every day?
b Why Amy gets up so early every day?
c Why does Amy get up so early every day?

3 a I want to know what this word means.
b I want to know what does this word mean.
c I want to know what means this word.

4 a I can't remember where did I park the car.
b I can't remember where I parked the car.
c I can't remember where I did park the car.

5 a Why you didn't phone me yesterday?
b Why didn't you phone me yesterday?
c Why you not phoned me yesterday?

6 a Do you know where does Helen work?
b Do you know where Helen does work?
c Do you know where Helen works?

7 a How much it costs to park here?
b How much does it cost to park here?
c How much it does cost to park here?

8 a Tell me what you want.
b Tell me what you do want.
c Tell me what do you want.

50.2 Put the words in the correct order.

1 (it / you / what time / know / is) Do you know what time it is?
2 (is / to the airport / far / it) How .....?
3 (wonder / is / how / old / Tom) I .....
4 (they / married / been / have) How long .....?
5 (they / married / how long / been / have / know)
Do you .....?
6 (tell / the station / you / me / is / where)
Could .....?
7 (in the accident / injured / anyone / don't / whether / know / was)
I .....
8 (what / tomorrow / know / time / will / arrive / you / you)
Do .....?

50.3 You were visiting London. You met a lot of people who asked you a lot of questions:

1 Where are you from?

2 How long have you been in London?

3 Have you been to London before?

4 Do you like London?

5 Where are you staying?

6 How long are you going to stay?

7 Do you think London is expensive?

8 Why did you come to London?

Now you tell a friend what people asked you. Use reported speech.

1 He asked me where I was from.
2 She asked me .....
3 They .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

➜ **Additional exercise 25** (page 316)

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Unit 51

Auxiliary verbs (**have**/**do**/**can** etc.) **I think so** / **I hope so** etc.

A

In these sentences there is an *auxiliary* verb and a *main* verb:

	auxiliary	*main*	
I	**have**	**lost**	my keys.
She	**can't**	**come**	to the party.
The hotel	**was**	**built**	ten years ago.
Why	**do** you	**want**	to go home?

In these examples **have**/**can't**/**was**/**do** are *auxiliary* (= helping) verbs.

You can use an auxiliary verb when you don't want to repeat something:

- 'Have you locked the door?' 'Yes, I **have**.' (= I have *locked the door*)
- Gary wasn't working, but Laura **was**. (= Laura was *working*)
- Jessica could lend me the money, but she **won't**. (= she won't *lend me the money*)

We use **do**/**does**/**did** for the present and past simple:

- 'Do you like onions?' 'Yes, I **do**.' (= I *like onions*)
- 'Does Simon live in London?' 'He **did**, but he **doesn't** any more.'

You can use auxiliary verbs to deny what somebody says (= say it is not true):

- 'You're sitting in my place.' 'No, I**'m not**.' (= I'm not *sitting in your place*)
- 'You didn't lock the door before you left.' 'Yes, I **did**.' (= I *locked the door*)

B

We use **have you**? / **isn't she**? / **are they**? etc. to show that we are interested in what somebody has said, or to show surprise:

- 'I've just seen Steven.' 'Oh, **have you**? How is he?'
- 'Lisa isn't very well today.' '**Isn't she**? What's wrong with her?'
- 'It rained every day during our holiday.' '**Did it**? What a shame!'
- 'James and Tanya are getting married.' '**Are they**? Really?'

C

We use auxiliary verbs with **so** and **neither**:

- 'I'm tired.' '**So am I**.' (= I'm tired too)
- 'I never read newspapers.' '**Neither do I**.' (= I never read newspapers either)
- Sarah can't drive and **neither can Mark**.

Note the word order after **so** and **neither** (verb before subject):

- I passed the exam and **so did Paul**. (*not* so Paul did)

Instead of **neither**, you can use **nor**. You can also use **not** … **either**:

- 'I don't know.' '**Neither** do I.' *or* '**Nor** do I.' *or* 'I don**'t either**.'

D

I think so / **I suppose so** etc.

You can say **I think so** / **I suppose so** etc. when we don't want to repeat something:

- 'Are those people Korean?' '**I think so**.' (= I think *they are Korean*)
- 'Is Kate working tomorrow?' '**I suppose so**.' (= I suppose *she is working tomorrow*)
- 'Will you be at home this evening?' '**I expect so**.' (= I expect *I'll be at home* …)

In the same way we say: **I hope so**, **I guess so** and **I'm afraid so**.

The usual negative forms are:

I think so / I expect so → I **don't think so** / I **don't expect so**
I hope so / I'm afraid so → I **hope not** / I**'m afraid not**
I guess so / I suppose so → I **guess not** / I **suppose not**

- 'Is that woman American?' '**I think so**. / **I don't think so**.'
- 'Do you think it will rain?' '**I hope so**. / **I hope not**.' (*not* I don't hope so)

American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

51.1 **Complete each sentence with an auxiliary verb (do/was/could/might etc.). Sometimes the verb must be negative (don't/wasn't etc.).**

1 I wasn't tired, but my friends ....were.... .
2 I like hot weather, but Ann ..... .
3 'Is Andy here?' 'He ..... five minutes ago, but I think he's gone home now.'
4 I haven't travelled much, but Gary ..... .
5 Lisa said she might come and see us tomorrow, but I don't think she ..... .
6 I don't know whether to apply for the job or not. Do you think I .....?
7 'Please don't tell anybody what happened.' 'Don't worry. I .....'
8 'You never listen to me.' 'Yes, I .....!'
9 I usually work on Saturdays, but last Saturday I ..... .
10 'Do you think it's going to rain?' 'It ..... . Take an umbrella in case.'
11 'Are you and Chris going to the party?' 'I ....., but Chris .....'
12 'Please help me.' 'I'm sorry. I ..... if I ....., but I .....'

51.2 **You never agree with Amy. Answer in the way shown.**

AMY

1 I'm hungry.
2 I don't like driving.
3 I like football.
4 I didn't enjoy the film.
5 I'm not tired.
6 I thought the exam was easy.

YOU
....Are you? I'm not....
....Don't you? I do....
.....
.....
.....
.....

51.3 **Tina tells you something. If the same is true for you, answer with So ... or Neither ... (as in the first example). Otherwise, ask Tina questions (as in the second example).**

TINA

1 I'm not tired.
2 I work hard.
3 I watched TV last night.
4 I won't be at home tomorrow.
5 I like reading.
6 I'd like to live somewhere else.
7 I can't go out tonight.
8 I'm looking forward to the weekend.

YOU
....Neither am I....
....Do you? What do you do?....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

51.4 **What do you say to Sam? Use I think so, I hope not etc.**

1 (You don't like rain.) SAM: Is it going to rain? YOU: ....I hope not.... (hope)	5 (Jane has lived in Italy for many years.) SAM: Does Jane speak Italian? YOU: ..... (suppose)
2 (You need more money.) SAM: Do you think you'll get a pay rise? YOU: ..... (hope)	6 (You have to leave Sam's party early.) SAM: Do you have to leave already? YOU: ..... (afraid)
3 (You're going to a party. You can't stand John.) SAM: Will John be at the party? YOU: ..... (hope)	7 (You're not sure what time the film begins, but it's probably 7.30.) SAM: What time is the film? 7.30? YOU: ..... (think)
4 (You're not sure whether Amy is married, but she probably isn't.) SAM: Is Amy married? YOU: ..... (think)	8 (You are the receptionist at a hotel. The hotel is full.) SAM: Do you have a room for tonight? YOU: ..... (afraid)

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Unit 52

Question tags (**do you**? **isn't it**? etc.)

A Study these examples:

Have you? and **wasn't it**? are *question tags.* These are mini-questions that you can put on the end of a sentence.
In question tags, we use an auxiliary verb (**have**/**was**/**will** etc.).

We use **do**/**does**/**did** for the present and past simple (see Unit 51):
- ‘Karen plays the piano, **does**n't she?’ ‘Well, yes, but not very well.’
- ‘You didn't lock the door, **did** you?’ ‘No, I forgot.’

B Normally we use a *negative* question tag after a *positive* sentence:

positive sentence	+ *negative tag*
Kate **will** be here soon,	**won't she**?
There **was** a lot of traffic,	**wasn't there**?
Joe **should** pass the exam,	**shouldn't he**?

. . . and a *positive* question tag after a *negative* sentence:

negative sentence	+ *positive tag*
Kate **won't** be late,	**will she**?
They **don't** like us,	**do they**?
You **haven't** eaten yet,	**have you**?

Notice the meaning of **yes** and **no** in answer to a negative sentence:
- ‘You're **not** going out this morning, **are you**?’ { ‘**Yes.**’ (= Yes, I am going out) / ‘**No.**’ (= No, I am not going out) }

C The meaning of a question tag depends on how you say it. If your voice goes *down*, you are not really asking a question. You expect the listener to agree with you:
- ‘It's a nice day, **isn't it**?’ ‘Yes, beautiful.’
- ‘Paul doesn't look well today, **does he**?’ ‘No, he looks very tired.’
- ‘Lisa's very funny. She's got a great sense of humour, **hasn't she**?’ ‘Yes, she has.’

But if the voice goes *up*, it is a real question:
- ‘You haven't seen Kate today, **have you**?’ ‘No, I haven't.’
  (= Have you seen Kate today?)

You can use a *negative sentence* + *positive tag* to ask for things or information, or to ask somebody to do something. The voice goes *up* at the end of the tag:
- ‘You couldn't do me a favour, **could you**?’ ‘It depends what it is.’
- ‘You don't know where Karen is, **do you**?’ ‘Sorry, I have no idea.’

D After **Let's** . . . (= **Let us**) the question tag is **shall we**:
- **Let's** go for a walk, **shall we**? (the voice goes *up*)

After **Don't** . . . , the question tag is **will you**:
- **Don't** be late, **will you**? (the voice goes *down*)

After **I'm** . . . , the negative question tag is **aren't I**? (= am I not?):
- ‘I'm right, **aren't I**?’ ‘Yes, you are.’

>> Auxiliary verbs (**have**/**do**/**can** etc.) ➜ **Unit 51**

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Exercises

52.1 Complete these sentences with a question tag.

1	Kate won't be late,	will she ?	No, she's never late.
2	You're tired,	aren't you ?	Yes, a little.
3	You travel a lot,	?	Yes, I love travelling.
4	You weren't listening,	?	Yes, I was!
5	Sarah doesn't know Ann,	?	No, they've never met.
6	Jack's on holiday,	?	Yes, he's in Australia.
7	It didn't take long to get here,	?	No, just ten minutes.
8	You can speak German,	?	Yes, but not fluently.
9	They won't mind if I take a picture,	?	No, of course they won't.
10	There are a lot of people here,	?	Yes, more than I expected.
11	Let's go and have coffee,	?	Yes, let's do that.
12	This isn't very interesting	?	No, not really.
13	I'm too impatient	?	Yes, you are sometimes.
14	You wouldn't tell anyone,	?	No, of course not.
15	Helen has lived here a long time,	?	Yes, 20 years.
16	I shouldn't have lost my temper,	?	No, but that's all right.
17	He'd never met her before,	?	No, that was the first time.
18	Don't forget to call me,	?	No, I won't forget.

52.2 In these situations you expect your friend to agree with you. Use a question tag in your sentences.

1 You look out of the window. The sky is blue and the sun is shining. You say to your friend:
(beautiful day) It's a beautiful day, isn't it?

2 You're with a friend outside a restaurant. You're looking at the prices, which are very high.
You say: (expensive) It .....

3 You and a colleague have just finished a training course. You really enjoyed it. You say to your colleague: (great) The course .....

4 Your friend's hair is much shorter than when you last met. You say to her/him:
(have / your hair / cut) You .....

5 You're listening to a woman singing. You like her voice very much. You say to your friend:
(a good voice) She .....

6 You're trying on a jacket in a shop. You look in the mirror and you don't like what you see.
You say to your friend:
(not / look / right) It .....

7 You and a friend are walking over a small wooden bridge. The bridge is old and some parts are broken. You say:
(not / very safe) This bridge .....

52.3 In these situations you are asking for information, asking people to do things etc.

1 You need a pen. Perhaps Jane has one. Ask her.
Jane, you don't have a pen I could borrow, do you?

2 You have to move a heavy table. You want Joe to help you with it. Ask him.
Joe, you .....

3 You're looking for Sarah. Perhaps Lisa knows where she is. Ask her.
Lisa, you .....

4 You want to borrow a tennis racket. Perhaps Helen has one. Ask her.
Helen, ...

5 Anna has a car and you need a lift to the station. Perhaps she'll take you. Ask her.
Anna, ...

6 You're looking for your keys. Perhaps Robert has seen them. Ask him.
Robert, ...

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Unit 53 Verb + -ing (enjoy doing / stop doing etc.)

A

We say:

- I **enjoy reading**. (*not* I enjoy to read)
- Would you **mind closing** the door? (*not* mind to close)
- Chris **suggested going** to the cinema. (*not* suggested to go)

After **enjoy**, **mind** and **suggest**, we use **-ing** (*not* **to** ...).

Some more verbs that are followed by **-ing**:

stop	**recommend**	**admit**	**avoid**	**imagine**
finish	**consider**	**deny**	**risk**	**fancy**

- Suddenly everybody **stopped talking**. There was silence.
- I'll do the shopping when I've **finished cleaning** the flat.
- He tried to **avoid answering** my question.
- I don't **fancy going** out this evening. (= I'm not enthusiastic about it)
- Have you ever **considered going** to live in another country?
- They said they were innocent. They **denied doing** anything wrong.

The negative form is **not -ing**:

- When I'm on holiday, I enjoy **not having** to get up early.

B

We also use **-ing** after:

give up (= stop)
put off (= delay until later)
go on *or* **carry on** (= continue)
keep *or* **keep on** (= do something continuously or repeatedly)

- I've **given up buying** newspapers. I don't read them any more.
- You shouldn't **put off telling** him what happened. You need to tell him now.
- Katherine doesn't want to retire. She wants to **go on working**. *or* ... to **carry on working**.
- You **keep interrupting** when I'm talking. *or* You **keep on interrupting** ...

C

With some verbs you can use the structure *verb* + somebody + **-ing**:

- You can't **stop people doing** what they want.
- I can't **imagine George riding** a motorbike.
- Did she really say that? I don't **remember her saying** that.
- Sorry to **keep you waiting** so long.

D

When you talk about finished actions, you can say **having done**/**stolen**/**said** etc. :

- They admitted **having stolen** the money.

But it is not necessary to use **having** (done). You can say:

- They admitted **stealing** the money.
- I now regret **saying** that. *or* I now regret **having said** that.

E

Other structures are possible with **admit**, **deny**, **suggest** and **recommend**. For example, you can say:

- They **denied** (that) **they had done** anything wrong. (= They **denied doing** ...)
- Chris **suggested** (that) **we go** to the cinema. (= Chris **suggested going** ...)
- I **recommend** (that) **you travel** by train. (= I **recommend travelling** ...)

>> **suggest** ➜ **Unit 34** **being done** (passive) ➜ **Unit 44B** Verb + **to** ... ➜ **Unit 54**
Verb **+ to** ... and **-ing** ➜ **Units 55C, 56–58** **remember** / **regret** / **go on** ➜ **Unit 56B**
go on / **carry on** / **keep on** ➜ **Unit 141A**

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Exercises

53.1 Complete the sentences for each situation. Use -ing.

1 What shall we do? / We could go to the zoo.
She suggested going to the zoo.

2 Do you want to play tennis? / No, not really.
He didn't fancy .....

3 Let's go for a walk. / Good idea!
She suggested .....

4 You caused the accident. / No, I didn't.
He denied .....

5 Can you wait a few minutes? / Sure, no problem.
They didn't mind .....

6 You didn't tell the truth. / That's right. I didn't.
She admitted .....

53.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from these verbs (in the correct form):

~~answer~~	apply	forget	interrupt	listen	live
lose	make	pay	read	travel	try

1 He tried to avoid answering my question.
2 I'm trying to concentrate. Please stop ..... so much noise!
3 I enjoy ..... to music.
4 I considered ..... for the job, but in the end I decided against it.
5 Have you finished ..... the newspaper yet?
6 We need to change our routine. We can't go on ..... like this.
7 It's better to avoid ..... during the rush hour.
8 My memory is getting worse. I keep ..... things.
9 I've put off ..... this bill so many times. I really must do it today.
10 I've given up ..... to learn Japanese. I was making no progress.
11 If you gamble, you risk ..... your money.
12 Would you mind not ..... me all the time? Let me speak!

53.3 Put the words in the right order.

1 Did she really say that? I (that / remember / her / saying / don't).
I don't remember her saying that.
2 It's OK if you want to drive my car. I (driving / don't / it / you / mind).
I .....
3 What a stupid thing to do! Can (imagine / so stupid / being / you / anybody)?
Can .....
4 We can't control the weather. We (raining / stop / it / can't).
We .....
5 I'll be as quick as I can. I (waiting / want / keep / you / don't / to).
I .....

53.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences. Use -ing.

1 She's a very interesting person. I always enjoy talking to her.
2 I'm not feeling very well. I don't fancy .....
3 I'm afraid there aren't any chairs. I hope you don't mind .....
4 It was a beautiful day, so I suggested .....
5 The movie was very funny. I couldn't stop .....
6 My car is unreliable. It keeps .....

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Unit 54 Verb + **to** … (**decide to** … / **forget to** … etc.)

A

After these verbs you can use **to** … *(infinitive)*:

offer	**plan**	**manage**	**deserve**
agree	**arrange**	**fail**	**afford**
refuse	**hope**	**promise**	**learn**
decide	**forget**	**threaten**	**tend**

- It was a long way to walk, so we **decided to take** a taxi home.
- Simon was in a difficult situation, so I **agreed to help** him.
- I waved to Karen, but **failed to attract** her attention.
- I like Dan, but I think he **tends to talk** too much.
- How old were you when you **learnt to drive**?
  or … learnt **how** to drive?

Dan **tends to talk** too much.

The negative is **not to** … :
- We **decided not to go** out because of the weather.
- I **promised not to be** late.

After some verbs, we use **-ing** (*not* **to** …). For example, **enjoy**/**think**/**suggest**:
- I **enjoy reading**. (*not* enjoy to read)
- Andy **suggested meeting** for coffee. (*not* suggested to meet)
- Are you **thinking of buying** a car? (*not* thinking to buy)

For verb + **-ing**, see Units 53 and 62.

B

After **dare** you can use the infinitive with or without **to**:
- I didn't **dare to tell** him. *or* I didn't **dare tell** him.

But after **dare not** (*or* **daren't**), we do not use **to**:
- I **daren't tell** him what happened. (*not* I daren't to tell him)

C

We also use **to** … after **seem**, **appear**, **pretend** and **claim**. For example:
- They **seem to have** plenty of money.
- Ann **pretended not to see** me when she passed me in the street.

You can also use **to be -ing** (*continuous* infinitive) and **to have** (**done**) (*perfect* infinitive):
- I **pretended to be reading** the newspaper. (= I pretended that I **was reading**)
- Have you seen my keys? I **seem to have lost** them. (= it seems that I **have lost** them)
- She **claimed not to have seen** me. (= she claimed that she **hadn't seen** me)

D

After these verbs you can use a question word (**what**/**how** etc.) + **to** … .

ask **know** **decide** **remember** **forget** **learn** **explain** **understand** **wonder**

For example:

We **asked**	**how**	**to get**	to the station.
Have you **decided**	**where**	**to go**	on holiday?
I don't **know**	**whether**	**to apply**	for the job or not.
Do you **understand**	**what**	**to do?**	

also
show/**tell**/**ask**/**advise**/**teach** somebody **what**/**how**/**where** to do something:
- Can somebody **show me how to use** this camera?
- Ask Jack. He'll **tell you what to do**.

>> Verb + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 53** Verb + object + **to** … (**want** etc.) ➜ **Unit 55**
Verb + **to** … and **-ing** ➜ **Units 55C, 56–58**

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Exercises

54.1 Complete the sentences for these situations.

1 Shall we get married? — Yes, let's.
They decided to get married.

2 Please help me. — OK.
She agreed .....

3 Can I carry your bag for you? — No, thanks. I can manage.
He offered .....

4 Let's meet at 8 o'clock. — OK, fine.
They arranged .....

5 What's your name? — I'm not going to tell you.
She refused .....

6 Please don't tell anyone. — I won't. I promise.
She promised .....

54.2 Complete the sentences. Use a suitable verb.

1 Don't forget to lock the door when you go out.
2 There was a lot of traffic, but we managed ..... to the airport in time.
3 We couldn't afford ..... in London. It's too expensive.
4 I can't play a musical instrument, but I'd like to learn ..... the guitar.
5 I don't want Mark to know what happened. I decided not ..... him.
6 We were all afraid to speak. Nobody dared ..... anything.

54.3 Put the verb into the correct form, to ... or -ing. (See Unit 53 for verbs + -ing.)

1 When I'm tired, I enjoy watching TV. It's relaxing. (watch)
2 I've decided ..... for another job. I need a change. (look)
3 I'm not going anywhere! I refuse ..... . (move)
4 I'm not in a hurry. I don't mind ..... . (wait)
5 Tina ran in a marathon last week, but she failed ..... . (finish)
6 I wish that dog would stop ..... . It's driving me crazy. (bark)
7 They didn't know I was listening to them. I pretended ..... asleep. (be)
8 We were hungry, so I suggested ..... dinner early. (have)
9 Hurry up! I don't want to risk ..... the train. (miss)
10 David is very quiet. He tends not ..... much. (say)

54.4 Make a new sentence using the verb in brackets.

1 I've lost my keys. (seem) I seem to have lost my keys.
2 Tom is worried about something. (appear) Tom appears .....
3 You know a lot of people. (seem) You .....
4 My English is getting better. (seem) .....
5 That car has broken down. (appear) .....
6 Rachel is enjoying her job. (seem) .....
7 They have solved the problem. (claim) .....

54.5 Complete each sentence using what/how/where/whether + these verbs:

do ~~get~~ go put ride use

1 Do you know how to get to the airport from here?
2 Would you know ..... if there was a fire in the building?
3 You'll never forget ..... a bike once you've learnt.
4 I've been invited to the party, but I haven't decided ..... or not.
5 My room is very untidy. I've got so many things and I don't know ..... them.
6 I have some clothes to wash. Can you show me ..... the washing machine?

➜ Additional exercises 26–28 (pages 317–19)
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Unit 55 Verb (+ object) + **to** … (**I want you to** …)

A

We say:

verb + **to** …			*verb* + *object* + **to** …		
want **expect** **ask** **help** **would like** **would prefer**	**to go** **to be** **to work** etc.	*and*	**want** **expect** **ask** **help** **would like** **would prefer**	somebody something	**to go** **to be** **to work** etc.

- We **expected to be** late.
- Would you **like to go** now?
- He doesn't **want to know**.
- We expected **Dan to be** late.
- Would you like **me to go** now?
- He doesn't want **anybody to know**.

We do not usually say 'want that':

- Do you **want me to come** with you? (*not* want that I come)

You can use **help** with or without **to**. You can say:

- Can you help me **to move** this table? *or* Can you help me **move** this table?

B

These verbs have the structure *verb* + *object* + **to** … :

verb +	*object* +	**to** …
tell **advise** **remind** **warn** **invite** **encourage** **persuade** **get** **force** **teach** **allow** **enable**	somebody	**to do** **to be** **to work** etc.

- It's not a nice hotel. I wouldn't **advise you to stay** there.
- Can you **remind me to call** Sam tomorrow?
- Joe said the switch was dangerous and **warned me not to touch** it.
- I didn't move the piano by myself. I **got somebody to help** me.
- Who **taught you to drive**?
- They don't **allow people to park** in front of the building.

In these examples, the verb is *passive* (**I was warned** / **we are allowed** etc.):

- **I was warned not to touch** the switch.
- **Are we allowed to park** here?

We do not use **suggest** with **to** … :

- Jane **suggested that I ask** you for advice. (*not* Jane suggested me to ask)

C

We say '**make** somebody **do** something', '**let** somebody **do** something' (without **to**):

- I **made him promise** that he wouldn't tell anybody what happened. (*not* made him to promise)
- Hot weather **makes me feel** tired. (= causes me to feel tired)
- Her parents wouldn't **let her go** out alone. (= wouldn't allow her to go out)
- **Let me carry** your bag for you.

We say '**make** somebody **do**', but in the *passive* we say '(be) **made to** do' (with **to**):

- **We were made to wait** for two hours. (= They **made us wait** …)

>> **suggest** ➜ **Units 34, 53** **tell**/**ask** somebody **to** … ➜ **Unit 48D** Verb + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 53**
Verb + **to** … ➜ **Unit 54** Verb + **to** … and **-ing** ➜ **Units 56–58** **help** ➜ **Unit 57C**

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Exercises

55.1 **Complete the questions. Use do you want me to … ? or would you like me to … ? with these verbs (and any other necessary words):**

~~come~~ lend repeat show shut wait

1 Do you want to go alone, or do you want me to come with you ?
2 Do you have enough money, or do you want ?
3 Shall I leave the window open, or would you ?
4 Do you know how to use the printer, or would ?
5 Did you hear what I said, or do ?
6 Can I go now, or do ?

55.2 **Complete the sentences for these situations.**

1 Meet me at the station. — OK.
She told him to meet her at the station.

2 Why don't you come and stay with us? — That would be nice.
They invited him .....

3 Don't forget to call Joe. — No, I won't forget.
He reminded her .....

4 Be careful. — Don't worry. I will.
She warned .....

5 Can you give me a hand? — Sure.
He asked .....

55.3 **Complete the second sentence so that the meaning is similar to the first sentence.**

1 My father said I could use his car.
My father allowed me to use his car.
2 I was surprised that it rained.
I didn't expect .....
3 Don't stop him doing what he wants.
Let .....
4 Tom looks older when he wears glasses.
Tom's glasses make .....
5 I think you should know the truth.
I want .....
6 At first I didn't want to apply for the job, but Sarah persuaded me.
Sarah persuaded .....
7 My lawyer said I shouldn't say anything to the police.
My lawyer advised .....
8 I was told that I shouldn't believe everything he says.
I was warned .....
9 If you've got a car, you are able to get around more easily.
Having a car enables .....

55.4 **Which is right?**

1 You aren't allowed ~~take~~ / to take pictures here. (to take *is correct*)
2 I'm in a difficult position. What do you advise me do / to do?
3 The film was very sad. It made me cry / to cry.
4 Lisa's parents always encouraged her study / to study hard at school.
5 Please don't interrupt me. Let me finish / to finish.
6 You can't make people do / to do things they don't want to do.
7 You can't force people do / to do things they don't want to do.
8 Sarah won't let me drive / to drive her car. She doesn't trust me.
9 Why did you change your decision? What made you change / to change your mind?
10 If you enter a country with a tourist visa, you are not allowed work / to work there.

➜ **Additional exercises 26–28** (pages 317–19)
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Unit 56 Verb + -ing or to … 1 (remember, regret etc.)

A

Some verbs are followed by **-ing** and some are followed by **to** … .

Verbs that you can use with **-ing** (*not* **to** …):

admit	**fancy**	**postpone**
avoid	**finish**	**risk**
consider	**imagine**	**stop**
deny	**keep** (**on**)	**suggest**
enjoy	**mind**	

For examples, see Unit 53.

Verbs that you can use with **to** … :

afford	**fail**	**offer**
agree	**forget**	**plan**
arrange	**hope**	**promise**
decide	**learn**	**refuse**
deserve	**manage**	**tend**

For examples, see Unit 54.

B

Some verbs can be followed by **-ing** or **to** … with a difference of meaning:

remember

I **remember doing** something = I did it and now I remember this.
You **remember doing** something *after* you have done it.

- I know I locked the door. I clearly **remember locking** it.
  (= I locked it, and now I remember this)
- He could **remember driving** along the road just before the accident, but he couldn't remember the accident itself.

I **remembered to do** something = I remembered that I had to do it, so I did it.
You **remember to do** something *before* you do it.

- I **remembered to lock** the door, but I forgot to shut the windows.
  (= I remembered that I had to lock it, and so I locked it)
- **Remember to buy** some bananas.
  (= Don't forget to buy them)

regret

I **regret doing** something = I did it and now I am sorry about it:

- I now **regret saying** what I said. I shouldn't have said it.
- Do you **regret not** going to college?

I **regret to say** / **to tell** you / **to inform** you = I am sorry that I have to say:

- *(from a formal letter)* I **regret to say** that we are unable to accept your offer.

go on

go on doing something = continue doing the same thing:

- The president paused for a moment and then **went on talking**.
- We need to change. We can't **go on living** like this.

go on to do something = do or say something new:

- After discussing the economy, the president **went on to talk** about foreign policy.

C

We use the following verbs with **-ing** or **to** … with no difference of meaning:

begin **start** **continue** **intend** **bother**

So you can say:

- It **started raining**. *or* It **started to rain**.
- Andy **intends buying** a house. *or* Andy **intends to buy** …
- Don't **bother locking** the door. *or* Don't **bother to lock** …

Normally we do not use **-ing** after **-ing**:

- It's **starting to rain**. (*not usually* It's starting raining)

>> Verb + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 53** Verb + **to** … ➜ **Units 54–55** Other verbs + **-ing** or **to** … ➜ **Units 57–58**

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Exercises

56.1 Put the verb into the correct form, -ing or to ... .

1 They denied stealing the money. (steal)
2 I don't enjoy ..... very much. (drive)
3 I can't afford ..... away. I don't have enough money. (go)
4 Have you ever considered ..... to live in another country? (go)
5 We were unlucky to lose the game. We played well and deserved ..... . (win)
6 Why do you keep ..... me questions? Leave me alone! (ask)
7 Please stop ..... me questions! (ask)
8 I refuse ..... any more questions. (answer)
9 The driver of one of the cars admitted ..... the accident. (cause)
10 Mark needed our help, and we promised ..... what we could. (do)
11 I don't mind ..... alone, but I'd rather be with other people. (be)
12 The wall was quite high, but I managed ..... over it. (climb)
13 Sarah doesn't know about the meeting. I forgot ..... her. (tell)
14 I've enjoyed ..... to you. I hope ..... you again soon. (talk, see)

56.2 Tom can remember some things about his childhood, but he can't remember others. Write sentences with He remembers ... or He doesn't remember ... .

1 He was in hospital when he was a small child. He can still remember this.
He remembers being in hospital ..... when he was a small child.
2 He cried on his first day at school. He doesn't remember this.
He doesn't ..... on his first day at school.
3 Once he fell into the river. He remembers this.
He ..... .
4 He said he wanted to be a doctor. He doesn't remember this.
..... to be a doctor.
5 Once he was bitten by a dog. He doesn't remember this.
..... a dog.
6 His sister was born when he was four. He remembers this.
..... .

56.3 Complete the sentences with a suitable verb in the correct form, -ing or to ... .

1 a Please remember to lock the door when you go out.
b He says we've met before, but I don't remember ..... him.
c Someone must have taken my bag. I clearly remember ..... it by the window and now it isn't there.
d When you see Steve, remember ..... hello to him from me.
e A: You lent me some money a few months ago.
B: Did I? Are you sure? I don't remember ..... you any money.
f A: Did you remember ..... your sister?
B: No, I forgot. I'll phone her tomorrow.
2 a The course I did wasn't very good, but I don't regret ..... it.
b I knew they were in trouble, but I regret ..... I did nothing to help them.
c It started to get cold, and he regretted not ..... his coat.
d I now regret ..... my job. It was a big mistake.
3 a Ben joined the company nine years ago. He became assistant manager after two years, and a few years later he went on ..... manager of the company.
b I can't go on ..... here any more. I want a different job.
c When I came into the room, Lisa was reading a book. She looked up and said hello, and then went on ..... her book.
d Food prices have gone up again. How are we going to manage if prices go on ..... ?

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Unit 57 Verb + -ing or to … 2 (try, need, help)

A try to … and try -ing

try to do = attempt to do, make an effort to do:
- I was very tired. I **tried to keep** my eyes open, but I couldn't.
- Please **try to be** quiet when you come home. Everyone will be asleep.

try something or **try doing something** = do it as an experiment or test:
- These cakes are delicious. You should **try one**. (= have one to see if you like it)
- We couldn't find anywhere to stay. We **tried every hotel** in the town, but they were all full. (= we went to every hotel to see if they had a room)
- A: The photocopier doesn't seem to be working.
  B: **Try pressing** the green button.
  (= press the green button – perhaps this will help to solve the problem)

Compare:
- I **tried to move** the table, but it was too heavy. (so I couldn't move it)
- I didn't like the way the furniture was arranged, so I **tried moving** the table to the other side of the room. But it didn't look right, so I moved it back again.
  (I **tried moving** it = I moved it to see if it looked better)

B need to … and need -ing

I need to do something = it is necessary for me to do it:
- He **needs to work** harder if he wants to make progress.
- I don't **need to come** to the meeting, do I?

You can say that something **needs -ing**:
- My phone **needs charging**. (= it **needs to be charged**)
- Does your suit **need cleaning**? (= … **need to be cleaned**)
- It's a difficult problem. It **needs thinking about** carefully.
  (= it **needs to be thought about** carefully)

Compare:
- **I** need **to charge** my phone.

but **My phone** needs **charging**.

C help and can't help

You can say **help to do** or **help do** (with or without **to**):
- Everybody **helped to clean** up after the party. *or*
  Everybody **helped clean** up …
- Can you **help** me **move** this table? *or*
  Can you **help** me **to move** …

I can't help doing something = I can't stop myself doing it:
- I don't like him, but he has a lot of problems.
  I **can't help feeling** sorry for him.
- She tried to be serious, but she **couldn't help laughing**.
  (= she couldn't stop herself laughing)
- I'm sorry I'm so nervous. I **can't help it**.
  (= I can't help **being** nervous)

She **couldn't help laughing**.

>> Verb + -ing ➜ Unit 53 Verb + to … ➜ Units 54–55 Other verbs + -ing or to … ➜ Units 56, 58

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Exercises

57.1 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 I was very tired. I tried ....to keep.... my eyes open, but I couldn't. (keep)
2 I tried ..... the shelf, but I wasn't tall enough. (reach)
3 I rang the doorbell, but there was no answer. Then I tried ..... on the window, but there was still no answer. (knock)
4 We tried ..... the fire out, but without success. We had to call the fire brigade. (put)
5 Please leave me alone. I'm trying ..... . (concentrate)
6 Sue needed to borrow some money. She tried ..... Carl, but he didn't have any. (ask)
7 Mr Bennett isn't here right now. Please try ..... later. (call)
8 The woman's face was familiar. I tried ..... where I'd seen her before. (remember)
9 If you have a problem with the computer, try ..... it. (restart)

57.2 For each picture, write a sentence with need(s) + one of the following verbs:

clean **cut** **empty** ~~**paint**~~ **tighten**

1 This room isn't very nice. ....It needs painting.... .
2 The grass is very long. It ..... .
3 The windows are dirty. They ..... .
4 The screws are loose. ..... .
5 The bin is full. ..... .

57.3 Which is right?

1 We spend too much time sitting down. We need ~~getting~~ / to get more exercise. (to get *is correct*)
2 These clothes are dirty. They all need washing / to wash.
3 My grandmother isn't able to look after herself any more. She needs looking / to look after.
4 I can't make a decision right now. I need thinking / to think about it.
5 Your hair is getting very long. It will need cutting / to cut soon.
6 I need a change. I need going / to go away for a while.
7 That shirt looks fine. You don't need ironing / to iron it.
8 That shirt looks fine. It doesn't need ironing / to iron.

57.4 Put the verb into the correct form.

1 I don't like him, but I can't help ....feeling.... sorry for him. (feel)
2 I've lost my phone. Can you help me ..... for it? (look)
3 They were talking very loudly. We couldn't help ..... what they said. (overhear)
4 He looks so funny. Whenever I see him, I can't help ..... . (smile)
5 The fine weather helped ..... it a really nice holiday. (make)
6 Did you help ..... the meeting? (organise)
7 I think about what happened all the time. I can't help ..... about it. (think)
8 I can't help you ..... a job. You have to find one yourself. (get)

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Unit 58

Verb + -ing or to … 3 (like / would like etc.)

A like / love / hate

When you talk about repeated actions, you can use **-ing** or **to** … after these verbs.
So you can say:

- Do you **like getting** up early? *or* Do you **like to get** up early?
- Stephanie **hates flying**. *or* Stephanie **hates to fly**.
- I **love meeting** people. *or* I **love to meet** people.
- I don't **like being** kept waiting. *or* … **like to be** kept waiting.
- I don't **like** friends **calling** me at work. *or* … friends **to call** me at work.

but
(1) We use **-ing** (*not* **to** …) when we talk about a situation that already exists (or existed).
For example:

- Paul lives in Berlin now. He **likes living** there.
  (he lives there now and he likes it)
- Do you **like being** a student? (you are a student – do you like it?)
- The office I worked in was horrible. I **hated working** there. (I worked there and I hated it)

(2) There is sometimes a difference between **I like to do** and **I like doing**:

I like doing something = I do it and I enjoy it:

- I **like cleaning** the kitchen. (= I enjoy it.)

I **like to do** something = I choose to do it (but maybe I don't enjoy it):

- It's not my favourite job, but I **like to clean** the kitchen as often as possible.

Note that we use **-ing** (*not* **to** …) with **enjoy** and **mind**:

- I **enjoy cleaning** the kitchen. (*not* I enjoy to clean)
- I **don't mind cleaning** the kitchen. (*not* I don't mind to clean)

B would like / would love / would hate / would prefer

Would like / **would love** etc. are usually followed by **to** … :

- I**'d like** (= I **would** like) to go away for a few days.
- What **would** you **like to do** this evening?
- I **wouldn't like to go** on holiday alone.
- I**'d love to meet** your family.
- **Would** you **prefer to eat** now or later?

Compare **I like** and **I would like** (**I'd** like):

- I **like playing** tennis. / I **like to play** tennis. (= I like it in general)
- I**'d like to play** tennis today. (= I want to play today)

Would mind is followed by **-ing**:

- **Would** you **mind closing** the door, please? (*not* mind to close)

C I would like to have (done something)

I would like **to have done** something = I regret now that I didn't or couldn't do it:

- It's a shame we didn't see Anna. I **would like to have seen** her again.
- We**'d like to have gone** away, but we were too busy at home.

We use the same structure after **would love** / **would hate** / **would prefer**:

- Poor David! I **would hate to have been** in his position.
- I**'d love to have gone** to the party, but it was impossible.

>> enjoy/mind → Unit 53 would like → Units 37E, 55A prefer → Unit 59

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Exercises

58.1 **Write sentences about yourself. Do you like these activities? Choose from these verbs:**

like / don't like **love** **hate** **enjoy** **don't mind**

1 (flying) I don't like flying. or I don't like to fly.
2 (playing cards) .....
3 (being alone) .....
4 (going to museums) .....
5 (cooking) .....
6 (getting up early) .....

58.2 **Make sentences using -ing or to ... . Sometimes either form is possible.**

1 Paul lives in Berlin now. It's nice. He likes it.
(He / like / live / there) He likes living there.
2 Jane is a biology teacher. She likes her job
(She / like / teach / biology) She .....
3 Joe always has his camera with him and takes a lot of pictures.
(He / like / take / pictures) .....
4 I used to work in a supermarket. I didn't like it much.
(I / not / like / work / there) .....
5 Rachel is studying medicine. She likes it.
(She / like / study / medicine) .....
6 Dan is famous, but he doesn't like it.
(He / not / like / be / famous) .....
7 Jennifer is a very careful person. She doesn't take many risks.
(She / not / like / take / risks) .....
8 I don't like surprises.
(I / like / know / things / in advance) .....

58.3 **Complete the sentences with a verb in the correct form, -ing or to ... . In two sentences either form is possible.**

1 It's fun to go to new places – I enjoy travelling.
2 'Would you like ..... down?' 'No, thanks. I'll stand.'
3 The music is very loud. Would you mind ..... it down?
4 How do you relax? What do you like ..... in your spare time?
5 When I have to take a train, I'm always worried that I'll miss it. So I like .....
to the station in plenty of time.
6 I enjoy ..... busy. I don't like it when there's nothing to do.
7 I would love ..... to your wedding, but I'm afraid I'll be away.
8 I don't like ..... in this part of town. I want to move somewhere else.
9 Do you have a minute? I'd like ..... to you about something.
10 If there's bad news and good news, I like ..... the bad news first.
11 Shall we leave now, or would you prefer ..... a little?
12 Steve wants to win every time. He hates .....

58.4 **Write sentences using would ... to have (done). Use the verbs in brackets.**

1 It's a shame I couldn't go to the party. (like) I would like to have gone to the party.
2 It's a shame I didn't see the programme. (like) .....
3 I'm glad I didn't lose my watch. (hate) .....
4 It's too bad I didn't meet your parents. (love) .....
5 I'm glad I wasn't alone. (not / like) .....
6 We should have travelled by train. (prefer) .....

➜ **Additional exercises 26–28** (pages 317–19)
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Unit 59 prefer and would rather

A prefer to … and prefer -ing

When you say what you prefer in general, you can use **prefer to** … or **prefer -ing**:

- I don't like cities. I **prefer to live** in the country. *or* I **prefer living** in the country.

You can say:

prefer something	**to** something else
prefer doing something	**to doing** something else **rather than** (**doing**) something else
prefer to do something	**rather than** (**do**) something else

- I **prefer** this coat **to** the other one.
- I **prefer driving to travelling** by train. *or*
  I **prefer driving rather than travelling** by train.
- I **prefer to drive rather than travel** by train.
- Sarah **prefers to live** in the country **rather than** in a city.

B would prefer (I'd prefer …)

We use **would prefer** to say what somebody wants in a specific situation (not in general):

- '**Would** you **prefer** tea or coffee?' 'Coffee, please.'

We say 'would prefer **to do** something' (*not usually* would prefer doing):

- 'Shall we go by train?' 'I**'d prefer to drive**.' (= I **would** prefer …)
- I**'d prefer to stay** at home tonight **rather than go** to the cinema.

C would rather (I'd rather …)

I'd rather = I **would** rather. **I'd rather do** something = **I'd prefer to do** it.
We say **I'd rather** do (*not* to do). Compare:

- 'Shall we go by train?' { 'I**'d rather drive**.' (*not* to drive) / 'I**'d prefer to drive**.' }
- Which **would** you **rather do**, / Which **would** you **prefer to do**, } go to the cinema or go shopping?

The negative is 'I**'d rather not** …' :

- I'm tired. I**'d rather not go** out this evening, if you don't mind.
- 'Do you want to go out this evening?' 'I**'d rather not**.'

We say '**I'd rather do** one thing **than do** another':

- I**'d rather stay** at home tonight **than go** to the cinema.

D I'd rather somebody did something

We say '**I'd rather** you **did** something' (*not* I'd rather you do):

- 'Who's going to drive, you or me?' 'I**'d rather** you **drove**.' (= I would prefer this)
- 'Jack says he'll repair your bike tomorrow, OK?' 'I**'d rather** he **did** it today.'
- Are you going to tell Anna what happened, or **would** you **rather** I **told** her?

We use the *past* (**drove**, **did** etc.) here, but the meaning is present *not* past. Compare:

- I'd rather **make** dinner now.
  I'd rather **you made** dinner now. (*not* I'd rather you make)

I'd rather **you didn't** (do something) = I'd prefer you not to do it:

- I**'d rather you didn't tell** anyone what I said.
- 'Shall I tell Anna what happened?' 'I**'d rather you didn't**.'
- 'Are you going to tell Anna what happened?' 'No. I**'d rather** she **didn't** know.'

>> **would prefer** ➜ **Unit 58B** **prefer** (one thing) **to** (another) ➜ **Unit 136D**

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Exercises

59.1 Which do you prefer? Write sentences using 'I prefer (something) to (something else)'.

1 (driving / travelling by train)
I prefer driving to travelling by train.
2 (basketball / football)
I prefer .....
3 (going to the cinema / watching movies at home)
I ..... to .....
4 (being very busy / having nothing to do)
I .....

Now rewrite sentences 3 and 4 using rather than:

5 (1) I prefer to drive rather than travel by train.
or I prefer driving rather than travelling by train.
6 (3) I prefer .....
7 (4) .....

59.2 Complete the sentences. Sometimes you need one word, sometimes more.

	A	B
1	Shall we walk home?	I'd rather get a taxi.
2	Do you want to eat now?	I'd prefer to wait till later.
3	Would you like to watch TV?	I'd ..... to listen to some music.
4	Do you want to go to a restaurant?	I'd rather ..... at home.
5	Let's go now.	..... wait a few minutes.
6	What about a game of tennis?	I'd prefer ..... for a swim.
7	I think we should decide now.	I'd ..... think about it for a while.
8	Would you like to sit down?	..... to stand.
9	Do you want me to come with you?	I'd rather ..... alone.

Now use the same ideas to complete these sentences using than and rather than.

10 (1) I'd rather get a taxi than wait for a bus.
11 (3) I'd rather ..... some music .....
12 (4) I'd prefer ..... at home .....
13 (6) I'd rather ..... for a swim .....
14 (7) I'd prefer ..... about it for a while .....

59.3 Complete the sentences using would you rather I ... .

1 Are you going to make dinner or would you rather I made it ?
2 Are you going to pay the bill or would you rather ..... ?
3 Are you going to do the shopping or ..... ?
4 Are you going to phone Tina or ..... ?

59.4 Use your own ideas (one or two words) to complete these sentences.

1 'Shall I tell Anna what happened?' 'No, I'd rather she didn't know.'
2 You can stay here if you want to, but I'd rather you ..... with us.
3 I don't like this programme. I'd rather not ..... it.
4 I'd rather work outdoors ..... work in an office.
5 This is a private matter. I'd rather you ..... tell anybody else.
6 The weather here isn't bad, but I'd rather it ..... a little warmer.
7 I don't want to go to the match. I'd prefer ..... it on TV.
8 'Do you mind if I open the window?' 'I'd rather you ..... . I'm feeling cold.'
9 I hate doing the shopping. I'd rather somebody else ..... it.
10 I'd prefer to go to the beach ..... go shopping.

➜ Additional exercises 27–28 (pages 318–19)
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Unit 60

Preposition (**in**/**for**/**about** etc.) + **-ing**

A

If a preposition (**in**/**for**/**about** etc.) is followed by a verb, the verb ends in **-ing**:

	preposition	*verb* (**-ing**)	
Are you interested	**in**	**working**	for us?
I'm not good	**at**	**learning**	languages.
Kate must be fed up	**with**	**studying**.	
What are the advantages	**of**	**having**	a car?
Thanks very much	**for**	**inviting**	me to your party.
How	**about**	**meeting**	for lunch tomorrow?
Why don't you go out	**instead of**	**sitting**	at home all the time?
Amy went to work	**in spite of**	**feeling**	ill.

You can also say 'instead of **somebody** doing something', 'fed up with **people** doing something' etc. :

- I'm fed up with **people** telling me what to do.

B

We say:

before -ing, **after -ing**:

- **Before going** out, I phoned Sarah. (*not* Before to go out)
- What did you do **after leaving** school?

You can also say '**Before I went** out . . .' and '. . . **after you left** school'.

by -ing (to say *how* something happens):

- You can improve your English **by reading** more.
- She made herself ill **by** not **eating** properly.
- Many accidents are caused **by** people **driving** too fast.
- The burglars got into the house **by breaking** a window and **climbing** in.

without -ing:

- We ran ten kilometres **without stopping**.
- It was a stupid thing to say. I said it **without thinking**.
- She needs to work **without** people **disturbing** her. *or* . . . **without being** disturbed.
- I have enough problems of my own **without having** to worry about yours.

C

to + -ing (look forward **to doing** something etc.)

We often use **to** + *infinitive* (**to do** / **to see** etc.):

- We decided **to travel** by train.
- Would you like **to meet** for lunch tomorrow?

But **to** is also a *preposition* (like **in**/**for**/**about**/**with** etc.). For example:

- We went from Paris **to Geneva**.
- I prefer tea **to coffee**.
- Are you looking forward **to the weekend**?

If we use a *preposition* + *verb*, the verb ends in **-ing**:

- I'm fed up **with travelling** by train.
- How **about going** away this weekend?

So, when **to** is a preposition and it is followed by a verb, we use **to -ing**:

- I prefer driving **to travelling** by train. (*not* to travel)
- Are you looking forward **to going** on holiday? (*not* looking forward to go)

>> **be**/**get used to -ing** ➜ **Unit 61** Verb + preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 62** **while**/**when -ing** ➜ **Unit 68B**
in spite of ➜ **Unit 113** Prepositions ➜ **Units 121–136**

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Exercises

60.1 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.

1 Why is it useful to have a car?
What are the advantages of having a car ?
2 I don't intend to apply for the job.
I have no intention of .....
3 Helen has a good memory for names.
Helen is good at .....
4 You probably won't win the lottery. You have little chance.
You have little chance of .....
5 Did you get into trouble because you were late?
Did you get into trouble for .....?
6 We didn't eat at home. We went to a restaurant instead.
We went to a restaurant instead of .....
7 We got into the exhibition. We didn't have to queue.
We got into the exhibition without .....
8 Amy is 90 years old, but she's fit and healthy.
Amy is fit and healthy despite .....

60.2 Complete the sentences using by -ing. Choose from these verbs:

borrow **~~break~~** **drive** **press** **put** **stand**

1 The burglars got into the house by breaking a window.
2 I was able to reach the top shelf ..... on a chair.
3 You turn on the computer ..... the button at the back.
4 Kevin got himself into financial trouble ..... too much money.
5 You can put people's lives in danger ..... too fast.
6 We made the room look nicer ..... some pictures on the walls.

60.3 Complete the sentences with a suitable word. Use only one word each time.

1 We ran ten kilometres without stopping .
2 Dan left the hotel without ..... his bill.
3 It's a nice morning. How about ..... for a walk?
4 You need to think carefully before ..... an important decision.
5 It was a long trip. We were tired after ..... on a train for 36 hours.
6 I'm not looking forward to ..... away. I'd prefer to stay here.
7 I was annoyed because the decision was made without anybody ..... me.
8 After ..... the same job for ten years, Ellie felt she needed a change.
9 We got lost because we went straight on instead of ..... left.
10 I like these pictures you took. You're good at ..... pictures.
11 Can you touch your toes without ..... your knees?
12 We've decided to sell our car. Are you interested in ..... it?

60.4 For each situation, write a sentence with I'm (not) looking forward to.

1 You are going on holiday next week. How do you feel?
I'm looking forward to going on holiday.
2 A good friend of yours is coming to visit you soon. It will be good to see her again. How do you feel?
I'm .....
3 You're going to the dentist tomorrow. You don't enjoy visits to the dentist. How do you feel?
I'm not .....
4 Rachel doesn't like school, but she's leaving next summer. How does she feel?
.....
5 Joe and Helen are moving to a new apartment soon. It's much nicer than where they live now.
How do they feel? .....

➜ **Additional exercises 26–28** (pages 317–19)
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Unit 61

be/get used to … (I'm used to …)

A Study this example situation:

Lisa is American, but she lives in Britain.
When she first drove a car in Britain, driving on the left was a problem for her because:

She **wasn't used to it**.
She **wasn't used to driving** on the left.
(because Americans drive on the right)

But after some time, driving on the left became easier.
She **got used to driving** on the left.

Now it's no problem for Lisa:
She **is used to driving** on the left.

B I**'m used to** something = it is not new or strange for me

You can say:

be **get**	**used to**	something *or* **doing** something

- Paul lives alone. He has lived alone for a long time, so it is not strange for him. He**'s used to it**. He **is used to living** alone.
- I bought some new shoes. They felt a little strange at first because I **wasn't used to them**.
- Our new apartment is on a busy street. I expect we**'ll get used to the noise**, but at the moment it's very disturbing.
- Helen has a new job. She has to get up much earlier now than before – at 6.30. She finds this difficult because she **isn't used to getting** up so early.
- Katherine's husband is often away from home. She doesn't mind this. She**'s used to him being** away.

C We say 'be/get used **to doing** something' (*not* I'm used to do).

- Lisa is used **to driving** on the left. (*not* is used to drive)
- I'm used **to living** alone. (*not* I'm used to live)

When we say '**I am used to** …', **to** is a *preposition*:

- We're not used **to** { **the noise**. / **it**. / **living here**. (*not* live here)

Compare **to** + *infinitive* (**to do**, **to live** etc.):

- We don't want **to live** here.

D Compare **I am used to doing** and **I used to do**:

I **am** used **to** (**doing**) something = it isn't strange or new for me:

- I**'m** used **to the weather** here.
- I**'m** used **to driving** on the left because I've lived in Britain a long time.

I **used to do** something = I did it regularly in the past but no longer do it. We use this only for the past (I **used** …), not for the present. See Unit 18.

- I **used to drive** to work every day, but these days I usually go by bike.
- We **used to live** just outside the town, but now we live near the centre.

>> used to (do) ➜ Unit 18 to + -ing ➜ Unit 60C

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Exercises

61.1 Complete the sentences using used to + a suitable verb.

1 I'm not lonely. I don't need other people. I'm ....used to being.... on my own.
2 I don't feel good. I stayed up until 3 am. I'm not ..... to bed so late.
3 Tomorrow I start a new job. I'll have to get ..... with new people.
4 My feet hurt. I can't go any further. I'm not ..... so far.
5 I like this part of town. I've been here a long time, so I'm ..... here.

61.2 Read about Sarah and Jack. Complete the sentences using used to.

1 Sarah is a nurse. A year ago she started working nights. At first it was hard for her.
Sarah ....wasn't used to working.... nights. It took her a few months to ..... it.
Now, after a year, it's normal for her. She ..... nights.

2 Jack has to drive two hours to work every morning. Many years ago, when he first had to do this, it was hard for him and he didn't like it.
When Jack started working in this job, he ..... driving two hours to work every morning, but after some time he ..... it. Now it's no problem for him. He ..... two hours every morning.

61.3 What do you say in these situations? Use I'm (not) used to ... .

1 You live alone. You don't mind this. You have always lived alone.
FRIEND: Do you get lonely sometimes?
YOU: No, ...I'm used to living alone.....
2 You sleep on the floor. It's OK for you. You have always slept on the floor.
FRIEND: Wouldn't you prefer to sleep in a bed?
YOU: No, I .....
3 You have to work long hours in your job. This is not a problem. You have always done this.
FRIEND: You have to work long hours in your job, don't you?
YOU: Yes, but I don't mind that. I .....
4 You've just moved from a village to a big city. It's busy and you don't like the crowds of people.
FRIEND: How do you like living here now?
YOU: It's different from living in a village. I .....

61.4 Read the situations and complete the sentences using get/got used to.

1 Some friends of yours have just moved into an apartment on a busy street. It is very noisy.
They'll have to ....get used to the noise.....
2 The children got a new teacher. She was different from the teacher before her, but this wasn't a problem for the children. They soon .....
3 Kate moved from a big house to a much smaller one. She found it strange at first. She had to ..... in a much smaller house.
4 Anna has lived in Britain for ten years. She didn't like the weather when she first came, and she still doesn't like it. She can't .....
5 Lee got a new job, but his new salary was much less. So he had less money.
He had to .....

61.5 Complete the sentences using only one word each time.

1 Lisa had to get used to ....driving.... on the left.
2 Daniel used to ..... a lot of coffee. Now he prefers tea.
3 I feel very full after that meal. I'm not used to ..... so much.
4 I wouldn't like to share a room. I'm used to ..... my own room.
5 I used to ..... a car, but I sold it a few months ago.
6 When we were children, we used to ..... swimming very often.
7 There used to ..... a school here, but it was knocked down a few years ago.
8 I'm the boss here! I'm not used to ..... told what to do.

➜ Additional exercises 26–28 (pages 317–19)
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Unit 62

Verb + preposition + -ing (succeed in -ing / insist on -ing etc.)

A

We use some verbs + *preposition* + *object*. For example:

verb	+ *preposition*	+ *object*
We **talked**	**about**	the problem.
I **apologised**	**for**	what I said.

If the *object* is another verb, we use **-ing**:

verb	+ *preposition*	+ **-ing**
We **talked**	**about**	**going** to South America.
You should **apologise**	**for**	not **telling** the truth.

You can use these verbs in the same way:

approve of	He doesn't **approve**	**of**	**swearing**.
decide against	We have **decided**	**against**	**moving** to London.
dream of	I wouldn't **dream**	**of**	**asking** them for money.
feel like	I don't **feel**	**like**	**going** out tonight.
insist on	They **insisted**	**on**	**paying** for the meal.
look forward to	Are you **looking forward**	**to**	**going** away?
succeed in	Has Paul **succeeded**	**in**	**finding** a job yet?
think of/about	I'm **thinking**	**of/about**	**buying** a house.

You can also say 'approve of **somebody** doing something', 'look forward to **somebody** doing something' etc. :

- I don't approve **of people killing** animals as a sport.
- We are all looking forward **to Andy coming** home next week.

B

Some verbs can have the structure *verb* + *object* + *preposition* + **-ing**.
For example:

	verb	+ *object*	+ *preposition*	+ **-ing**
accuse . . . of	He **accused**	me	**of**	**telling** lies.
congratulate . . . on	We **congratulated**	Lisa	**on**	**winning** the first prize.
prevent . . . from	What **prevented**	you	**from**	**coming** to see us?
stop . . . from	The rain didn't **stop**	us	**from**	**enjoying** our holiday.
suspect . . . of	Nobody **suspected**	the general	**of**	**being** a spy.
thank . . . for	I **thanked**	everyone	**for**	**helping** me.

You can say '**stop** somebody **doing**' or '**stop** somebody **from doing**':

- You can't **stop** me **doing** what I want. *or* You can't **stop** me **from doing** . . .

Note this example with **not -ing**:

- He accused me of **not telling** the truth.

Some of these verbs are often used in the *passive*. For example:

- We **were accused of telling** lies. (*or* . . . **accused of lying**.)
- The general **was suspected of being** a spy.

Note that we say 'apologise **to somebody** for . . .' :

- I apologised **to them** for keeping them waiting. (*not* I apologised them)

>> **decide to . . . ➜ Unit 54A** Preposition + **-ing ➜ Unit 60** Verb + preposition **➜ Units 132–136**

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Exercises

62.1 **Complete the sentences. Use only one word each time.**

1 Our neighbours apologised for ....making.... so much noise.
2 I feel lazy. I don't feel like ..... any work.
3 I wanted to go out alone, but Joe insisted on ..... with me.
4 I'm fed up with my job. I'm thinking of ..... something else.
5 We can't afford a car right now, so we've decided against ..... one.
6 It took us a long time, but we finally succeeded in ..... the problem.
7 I've always dreamed of ..... a small house by the sea.
8 It's great that Amy and Sam are coming to visit us. I'm looking forward to ..... them again.

62.2 **Complete the sentences. Use a preposition + one of these verbs (in the correct form):**

be	**eat**	**get**	**go out**	**invite**	**steal**
take off	**tell**	**try**	**use**	**walk**	

1 I don't feel ....like going out.... this evening. I'm too tired.
2 The police stopped the car because they suspected the driver ..... it.
3 Our flight was delayed. Bad weather prevented the plane ..... .
4 My phone is very old. I'm thinking ..... a new one.
5 I didn't want to hear the story but Dan insisted ..... me anyway.
6 I'm getting hungry. I'm really looking forward ..... something.
7 I think you should apologise to Sarah ..... so rude.
8 There's a fence around the lawn to stop people ..... on the grass.
9 I'm sorry I can't come to your party, but thank you very much ..... me.
10 The man who has been arrested is suspected ..... a false passport.
11 I did my best. Nobody can accuse me ..... not ..... .

62.3 **Complete the sentences on the right.**

1 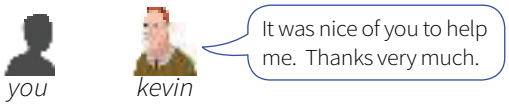

Kevin thanked ....me for helping him.... .

2

Tom insisted ..... Ann
..... .

3

Dan congratulated me .....
.....

4 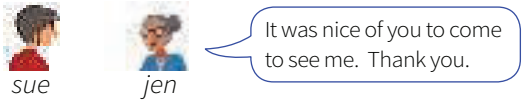

Jen thanked .....
.....

5

Kate apologised .....
.....

6 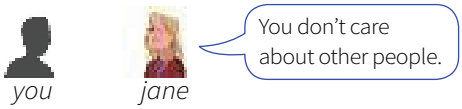

Jane accused .....
.....

➜ **Additional exercises 27–28** (pages 318–19)

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Unit 63

there's no point in -ing, it's worth -ing etc.

A

We say:

there's no point in **it's no use** **it's no good**	**doing** something

- **There's no point in having** a car if you never use it.
- **There was no point in waiting** any longer, so we left.
- **It's no use worrying** about what happened. There's nothing you can do about it.
- **It's no good trying** to persuade me. You won't succeed.

We say '**no point in** …' but '**the point of** …' :

- There's **no point in** having a car.
- What's **the point of** having a car if you never use it?

B

We say:

it's worth **it's not worth**	**doing** something

- It's a nice town. **It's worth spending** a few days there.
- Our flight was very early in the morning, so **it wasn't worth going** to bed.

You can say that something is **worth it** or **not worth it**:

- You should spend a couple of days here. **It's worth it**.
- We didn't go to bed. **It wasn't worth it**.

You can also say that something is **worth doing**, a movie is **worth seeing** etc. :

- It's a great movie. It's **worth seeing**.
- Thieves broke into the house, but didn't take anything. There was nothing **worth stealing**.
- It's an interesting idea. It's **worth thinking** about.

C

We say:

have	**trouble** **difficulty** **a problem**	**doing** something

- I had no **trouble finding** a place to stay. (*not* trouble to find)
- Did you have **a problem getting** a visa?
- People sometimes have **difficulty reading** my writing.

D

We say:

spend **waste**	(time)	**doing** something

- He **spent** hours **trying** to repair the clock.
- I **waste** a lot of time **doing** nothing.

We also say '(be) **busy doing** something':

- She said she couldn't meet me. She was too **busy doing** other things.

E

We use **go -ing** for sports and other activities. For example:

go sailing	**go swimming**	**go fishing**	**go riding**	**go hiking**
go surfing	**go scuba diving**	**go skiing**	**go jogging**	**go camping**

- How often do you **go swimming**?
- We **went skiing** last year.
- Tom isn't here. He's **gone shopping**.
- I've never **been sailing**.

>> **gone** and **been** … ➜ **Unit 7B**

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Exercises

63.1 Which goes with which?

1 It's a nice town.	a I don't believe you're sorry.	1 f
2 It's an interesting idea.	b We'll never find him.	2 .....
3 It's no use standing here talking.	c It's not worth getting a taxi.	3 .....
4 It's not important.	d We have to do something.	4 .....
5 There's no point in looking for him.	e He won't change his opinion.	5 .....
6 It's no good apologising to me.	f ~~It's worth spending a few days here.~~	6 .....
7 It's not worth arguing with him.	g It's not worth worrying about.	7 .....
8 The hotel is a short walk from here.	h It's worth considering.	8 .....

63.2 Write sentences beginning There's no point ... .

1 Why have a car if you never use it?
There's no point in having a car if you never use it.
2 Why work if you don't need money?
.....
3 Don't try to study if you feel tired.
.....
4 Why hurry if you have plenty of time?
.....

63.3 Complete the sentences.

1 I managed to get a visa, but it was difficult.
I had a problem getting a visa.
2 I find it hard to remember people's names.
I have a problem .....
3 Lucy found a job easily. It wasn't a problem.
She had no trouble .....
4 It will be easy to get a ticket for the game.
You won't have any problems .....
5 It was easy for us to understand one another.
We had no difficulty .....

63.4 Complete the sentences. Use only one word each time.

1 I waste a lot of time doing nothing.
2 How much time do you spend ..... to and from work every day?
3 Karen is going on holiday tomorrow, so she's busy ..... her things ready.
4 I waste too much time ..... TV.
5 There was a beautiful view from the hill. It was worth ..... to the top.
6 We need to stay calm. There's no point in ..... angry.
7 Amy is learning to play the guitar. She spends a lot of time ..... .
8 Gary is enjoying his new job. He's busy ..... on a new project.
9 I decided it wasn't worth ..... for the job. I had no chance of getting it.
10 It's no good ..... to escape. You won't be able to get out of here.

63.5 Complete these sentences. Choose from the following and put the verb in the correct form.

go riding | ~~go sailing~~ | go shopping | go skiing | go swimming

1 Ben lives by the sea and he's got a boat, so he often goes sailing.
2 It was a very hot day, so we ..... in the lake.
3 There's plenty of snow in the mountains, so we'll be able to ..... .
4 Helen has two horses. She ..... regularly.
5 Dan isn't here. He ..... . There were a few things he needed to buy.

➜ Additional exercises 27–28 (pages 318–19)
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Unit 64

to … , for … and so that …

A

We say:

- I called the restaurant **to reserve** a table.
- What do you need **to make** bread?
- We shouted **to warn** everybody of the danger.
- This letter is **to confirm** the decisions we made at our meeting last week.
- The president has a team of bodyguards **to protect** him.

In these examples **to** … (**to reserve** … / **to make** … etc.) tells us the *purpose* of something: why somebody does something, has something, needs something etc., or why something exists.

B

We say 'a place **to park**', 'something **to eat**', 'work **to do**' etc. :

- It's hard to find **a place to park** in the city centre. (= a place where you can park)
- Would you like **something to eat**? (= something that you can eat)
- Do you have **much work to do**? (= work that you must do)

Sometimes there is a preposition (**on**, **with** etc.) after the verb:

- Is there **a chair to sit on**? (= a chair that I can sit on)
- I get lonely if there's **nobody to talk to**.
- I need **something to open** this bottle **with**.

We also say **money**/**time**/**chance**/**opportunity**/**energy**/**courage** (etc.) **to** do something:

- They gave us **money to buy** food.
- Do you have **much opportunity to practise** your English?
- I need **a few days to think** about your proposal.

C

Compare **for** … and **to** …

for + *noun*

- We stopped **for petrol**.
- I had to run **for the bus**.

to + verb

- We stopped **to get** petrol.
- I had to run **to catch the bus**.

You can say '**for** somebody **to do** something':

- There weren't any chairs **for us to sit on**, so we sat on the floor.

We use **for** (do)**ing** to say what something is used for:

- This brush is **for washing** the dishes.

But we do not use **for** -**ing** to say why somebody does something:

- I went into the kitchen **to wash** the dishes. (*not* for washing)

You can use **What** … **for**? to ask about purpose:

- **What** is this switch **for**? (= what is it used for?)
- **What** did you do that **for**? (= why did you do that?)

D

so that

We use **so that** (*not* **to** …) especially with **can**/**could** and **will**/**would**:

- She's learning English **so that** she **can** study in Canada.
- We moved to London **so that** we **could** see our friends more often.
- I hurried **so that** I **wouldn't** be late.
  (= because I didn't want to be late)

You can leave out **that**. So you can say:

- I hurried **so that** I wouldn't be late. *or* I hurried **so** I wouldn't be late.

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Exercises

64.1 Choose from Box A and Box B to make sentences with to ... .

A

1 I shouted
2 I opened the box
3 I moved to a new apartment
4 I couldn't find a knife
5 I called the police
6 I called the hotel
7 I employed an assistant

B

I wanted to be nearer my friends
I wanted someone to help me with my work
I wanted to report the accident
~~I wanted to warn people of the danger~~
I wanted to see what was in it
I wanted to chop the onions
I wanted to find out if they had any rooms free

1 I shouted to warn people of the danger.
2 I opened the box .....
3 I .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....

64.2 Complete these sentences using to + a suitable verb.

1 The president has a team of bodyguards ....to protect.... him.
2 I don't have enough time ..... all the things I have to do.
3 I came home by taxi. I didn't have the energy ..... .
4 Would you like something ..... ? Coffee? Tea?
5 Can you give me a bag ..... these things in?
6 There will be a meeting next week ..... the problem.
7 Do you need a visa ..... to the United States?
8 I saw Helen at the party, but I didn't have a chance ..... to her.
9 I need some new clothes. I don't have anything nice ..... .
10 They've passed their exams. They're going to have a party ..... .
11 I can't do all this work alone. I need somebody ..... me.
12 Why are you so scared? There's nothing ..... afraid of.

64.3 Put in to or for.

1 We stopped ....for.... petrol.
2 We'll need time ..... make a decision.
3 I went to the dentist ..... a check-up.
4 He's very old. He needs somebody ..... take care of him.
5 Can you lend me money ..... a taxi?
6 Do you wear glasses ..... reading?
7 I put on my glasses ..... read the letter.
8 I wish we had a garden ..... the children ..... play in.

64.4 Make one sentence from two, using so that.

1 I hurried. I didn't want to be late.
I hurried ....so that I wouldn't be late.....
2 I wore warm clothes. I didn't want to get cold.
I wore warm clothes .....
3 I gave Mark my phone number. I wanted him to be able to contact me.
I gave Mark my phone number .....
4 We spoke very quietly. We didn't want anybody else to hear us.
We spoke very quietly ..... nobody else .....
5 Please arrive early. We want to be able to start the meeting on time.
Please arrive early .....
6 We made a list of things to do. We didn't want to forget anything.
We made a list of things to do .....
7 I slowed down. I wanted the car behind me to be able to overtake.
I slowed down .....

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Unit 65 Adjective + **to** …

A **hard to understand**, **interesting to talk to** etc.

Compare sentences (a) and (b):

James doesn't speak clearly. { (a) **It** is hard to **understand him**. / (b) **He** is hard to **understand**.

Sentences (a) and (b) have the same meaning. Note that we say:
- He is hard **to understand**. (*not* He is hard to understand him)

We use other adjectives in the same way. For example:

easy **nice** **safe** **cheap** **exciting** **impossible**
difficult **good** **dangerous** **expensive** **interesting**

- Do you think it is **safe to drink this water**?
  Do you think this water is **safe to drink**? (*not* to drink it)
- The exam questions were very hard. It was **impossible to answer them**.
  The exam questions were very hard. They were **impossible to answer**.
  (*not* to answer them)
- Nicola has lots of interesting ideas. It's **interesting to talk** to her.
  Nicola is **interesting to talk to**. (*not* to talk to her)

We also use this structure with *adjective* + *noun*:
- This is a **difficult question to answer**. (*not* to answer it)

B **nice of** (**you**) **to** …

We say 'It's **nice of** somebody **to** …':
- It was **nice of** you **to take** me to the airport. Thank you very much.

We use other adjectives in the same way. For example:

kind **generous** **careless** **silly** **stupid** **inconsiderate** **unfair** **typical**

- It's **silly of Ruth to give** up her job when she needs the money.
- I think it was **unfair of him to criticise** me.

C **sorry to** … / **surprised to** … etc.

You can use *adjective* + **to** … to say how somebody reacts to something:
- I'm **sorry to hear** that your mother isn't well.

We use other adjectives in the same way. For example:

glad **pleased** **relieved** **surprised** **amazed** **sad** **disappointed**

- Was Julia **surprised to see** you?
- It was a long and tiring journey. We were **glad to get** home.

D

You can use **to** … after **the next** / **the last** / **the only** / **the first** / **the second** (etc.):
- **The next** train **to arrive** at platform 4 will be the 10.50 to Liverpool.
- Everybody was late except me. I was **the only** one **to arrive** on time.
- If I have any more news, you will be **the first to know**. (= the first person to know.)

E

You can say that something is **sure**/**likely**/**bound to** happen:
- Carla is a very good student. She's **bound to pass** the exam. (= she is sure to pass)
- It's possible I'll win the lottery one day, but it's not **likely to happen**. (= it's not probable)

>> **afraid**/**interested**/**sorry** ➜ **Unit 66** **it** … ➜ **Unit 84C** **enough** and **too** + adjective ➜ **Unit 103**

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Exercises

65.1 Write these sentences in another way, beginning as shown.

1 It's hard to understand some things. Some things are hard to understand.
2 It was difficult to open the window. The window .....
3 It's impossible to translate some words. Some words .....
4 It's expensive to maintain a car. A .....
5 It's not safe to eat this meat. This .....
6 It's easy to get to my house from here. My .....

65.2 Make sentences from the words in brackets.

1 I couldn't answer the question.
(difficult question / answer) It was a difficult question to answer.
2 It's a very common mistake.
(easy mistake / make) It's .....
3 I like living in this town.
(great place / live) .....
4 I wonder why she said that.
(strange thing / say) .....

65.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 It's nice of Dan and Kate to invite me to their party.
2 I've been travelling a long time. Now I'm ..... to be back home.
3 I heard about Tom's accident. I was relieved ..... that he's OK.
4 It was nice ..... to remember my birthday.
5 Let me know if you need any assistance. I'd be very pleased ..... you.
6 I thought James was about 25. I was ..... to discover he was 40.
7 It was inconsiderate of our neighbours ..... so much noise.
8 My interview went well. I was disappointed ..... to be offered the job.
9 It's ..... of me to worry so much about things that are not important.

to hear
to help
~~to invite~~
to make
not
of you
silly
amazed
glad

65.4 Complete the sentences. Use: the first the second the last the only

1 Nobody spoke before me. I was the first person to speak.
2 Everybody else arrived before Paul.
Paul was .....
3 Emily passed the exam. All the other students failed.
Emily .....
4 I complained to the manager. Another customer had already complained.
I .....
5 Neil Armstrong walked on the moon in 1969. Nobody had done this before him.
Neil Armstrong .....

65.5 Complete the sentences using the words in brackets and a suitable verb.

1 Carla is a very good student.
(she / bound / pass) She's bound to pass the exam.
2 I'm not surprised you're tired after your trip.
(you / bound / tired) ..... after such a long journey.
3 Andy has a very bad memory.
(he / sure / forget) ..... anything you tell him.
4 I don't think you'll need an umbrella.
(it / not / likely / rain) .....
5 The holidays begin this weekend.
(there / sure / be) ..... a lot of traffic on the roads.

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Unit 66 to … (afraid **to do**) and preposition + **-ing** (afraid **of -ing**)

A **afraid to** (do) and **afraid of** (do)**ing**

I am **afraid to do** something =
I don't want to do it because it is dangerous or the result could be bad.

- This part of town is dangerous. People are **afraid to walk** here at night.
  (= they don't walk here at night because it is dangerous)
- James was **afraid to tell** his parents what had happened.
  (= he didn't tell them because he thought they would be angry)

I am **afraid of** something **happening** =
I am afraid that something bad will happen.

- The path was icy, so we walked very carefully. We were **afraid of falling**.
  (= we were afraid that we would fall – *not* afraid to fall)
- I don't like dogs. I'm always **afraid of being** bitten.
  (= I'm afraid that I will be bitten – *not* afraid to be bitten)

So, you are **afraid to do something** because you are **afraid of something happening** as a result:

- I was **afraid to go** near the dog because I was **afraid of being** bitten.

B **interested in** (do)**ing** and **interested to** (do)

I'm **interested in doing** something = I'm thinking of doing it, I would like to do it:

- Let me know if you're **interested in joining** the club. (*not* to join)
- I tried to sell my car, but nobody was **interested in buying** it. (*not* to buy)

I was **interested to hear**/**see**/**know** something = it was interesting for me. For example:

- I was **interested to hear** that Tanya left her job.
  (= I heard this and it was interesting for me)
- I'll ask Mike for his opinion. I would be **interested to know** what he thinks.
  (= it would be interesting for me to know what he thinks)

This structure is the same as **surprised to** … / **glad to** … etc. (see Unit 65C):

- I was **surprised to hear** that Tanya left her job.

C **sorry for** … and **sorry to** …

We use **sorry for** (doing) to apologise for something:

- I'm **sorry for shouting** at you yesterday. (*not* sorry to shout)

You can also say:

- I'm **sorry I shouted** at you yesterday.

We use **sorry to** … to say that we regret something that happens:

- I'm **sorry to hear** that Nicky lost her job. (*not* sorry for)
- I've enjoyed my stay here. I'll be **sorry to leave**.

We also say '**I'm sorry to** …' to apologise at the time we do something:

- I'm **sorry to bother** you, but I need to ask you a question.

D

We say:

I **want to** (do), I**'d like to** (do)	*but*	I'm **thinking of** (do)**ing**
I **hope to** (do)		I **dream of** (do)**ing**
I **failed to** (do)		I **succeeded in** (do)**ing**
I **allowed** them **to** (do)		I **prevented** them **from** (do)**ing**
I **plan to** (do)		I'm **looking forward to** (do)**ing**
I **promised to** (do)		I **insisted on** (do)**ing**

>> Verb + **to** … ➜ **Units 54–55** Verb + preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 62** **sorry to** … ➜ **Unit 65C**
Adjective + preposition ➜ **Units 130–131** **sorry about**/**for** ➜ **Unit 130**

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Exercises

66.1 Write sentences using afraid to ... or afraid of -ing.

1 The streets here are not safe at night.
(a lot of people / afraid / go / out) A lot of people are afraid to go out.
2 We walked very carefully along the icy path.
(we / afraid / fall) We were afraid of falling.
3 I don't usually carry my passport with me.
(I / afraid / lose / it) .....
4 I thought she would be angry if I told her what had happened.
(I / afraid / tell / her) .....
5 We ran to the station.
(we / afraid / miss / our train) .....
6 In the middle of the film there was a very horrifying scene.
(we / afraid / look) .....
7 The vase was very valuable, so I held it carefully.
(I / afraid / drop / it) .....
8 If there's anything you want to know, you can ask me.
(don't / afraid / ask) .....
9 I was worried because we didn't have much petrol.
(I / afraid / run out of petrol) .....

66.2 Complete the sentences using interested in ... or interested to ... . Choose from these verbs:

buy hear know look start study

1 I'm trying to sell my car, but nobody is interested in buying it.
2 Nicola is ..... her own business.
3 I saw Joe recently. You'll be ..... that he's getting married soon.
4 I didn't enjoy school. I wasn't ..... .
5 I went to a public meeting to discuss the plans for a new road. I was ..... how people felt about the project.
6 Paul doesn't enjoy sightseeing. He's not ..... at old buildings.

66.3 Complete the sentences using sorry for ... or sorry to ... . Use the verb in brackets.

1 I'm sorry to bother you, but I need to ask you something. (bother)
2 We were ..... that you can't come to the wedding. (hear)
3 I'm ..... bad things about you. I didn't mean what I said. (say)
4 It's a shame Alan is leaving the company. I'll be ..... him go. (see)
5 I'm ..... so much noise last night. (make)

66.4 Complete the sentences in each group using the verb in brackets.

1 a We wanted to leave the building.
b We weren't allowed ..... the building.
c We were prevented ..... the building. } (leave)
2 a Sam and Chris hoped ..... the problem.
b Sam failed ..... the problem.
c Chris succeeded ..... the problem. } (solve)
3 a I'm thinking ..... away next week.
b I'm planning ..... away next week.
c I'd like ..... away next week.
d I'm looking forward ..... away next week. } (go)
4 a Helen wanted ..... me lunch.
b Helen insisted ..... me lunch.
c Helen promised ..... me lunch.
d Helen wouldn't dream ..... me lunch. } (buy)

➜ Additional exercise 27 (page 318)

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Unit 67

see somebody do and see somebody doing

A Study this example situation:

Tom got into his car and drove off. You saw this.
You can say:

- I saw Tom **get** into his car and **drive** off.

We say 'I saw him **do** something' (= he did it and I saw this). In the same way, you can say:

hear **listen to** **watch** **feel**	somebody **do** something something **happen**

- I didn't **hear** you **come** in. (you came in – I didn't hear this)
- Lisa suddenly **felt** somebody **touch** her on the shoulder.

B Study this example situation:

Yesterday you saw Kate. She was waiting for a bus.
You can say:

- I saw Kate **waiting** for a bus.

We say 'I saw her **doing** something' (= she was doing it and I saw this). In the same way, you can say:

hear **listen to** **watch** **feel** **smell** **find**	somebody **doing** something something **happening**

- I could **hear** it **raining**. (it was raining – I could hear it)
- **Listen to** the birds **singing**!
- Can you **smell** something **burning**?
- We looked for Paul and finally we **found** him **sitting** under a tree **eating** an apple.

C Study the difference in meaning:

I **saw him do** something = he **did** something and I saw this.
I saw the complete action from start to finish:

- He **jumped** over the wall and **ran** away. I saw this.
  → I **saw** him **jump** over the wall and **run** away.
- They **went** out. I heard this. → I **heard** them **go** out.

I **saw him doing** something = he **was doing** something and I saw this.
I saw him *in the middle* of doing something (not from start to finish):

- I saw Tom as I drove past in my car. He **was walking** along the street.
  → I **saw** Tom **walking** along the street.
- I heard them. They **were talking**. → I **heard** them **talking**.

Sometimes the difference is not important and you can use either form:

- I've never seen her **dance**. *or* I've never seen her **dancing**.

>> Past simple (**I did**) ➜ **Unit 5** Past continuous (**I was doing**) ➜ **Unit 6**

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Exercises

67.1 Complete the sentences with the verb in the correct form:

1 a Tom doesn't have the keys. He ....gave.... them to Lisa. (give)
  b Tom doesn't have the keys. I saw him ..... them to Lisa. (give)
2 a A car ..... outside our house, and then it drove off again. (stop)
  b We heard a car ..... outside our house, and then it drove off again. (stop)
3 a Ben gave me the envelope and watched me ..... it. (open)
  b Ben gave me the envelope and I ..... it. (open)
4 a Sarah is Canadian. I heard her ..... she's from Toronto. (say)
  b Sarah is Canadian. She ..... she's from Toronto. (say)
5 a A man ..... over in the street, so we went to help him. (fall)
  b We saw a man ..... over in the street, so we went to help him. (fall)

67.2 You and a friend saw, heard or smelt something. Complete the sentences.

1 ....We saw Kate waiting for a bus....
2 We saw Clare ..... in a restaurant.
3 We saw David and Helen .....
4 We could smell something .....
5 We could hear.....
6 .....

67.3 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs (in the correct form):

crawl cry explode ~~get~~ happen lie put ride say slam ~~stand~~ tell

1 The bus stopped at the bus stop but I didn't see anybody ....get.... off.
2 I saw two people ....standing.... outside your house. I don't know who they were.
3 I thought I heard somebody ..... 'Hi', so I turned round.
4 There was an accident outside my house, but I didn't see it ..... .
5 Listen. Can you hear a baby ..... ?
6 I know you took the key. I saw you ..... it in your pocket.
7 We listened to the old man ..... his story from beginning to end.
8 Everybody heard the bomb ..... . It was a tremendous noise.
9 Oh! I can feel something ..... up my leg. It must be an insect.
10 I looked out of the window and saw Dan ..... his bike along the road.
11 I heard somebody ..... a door in the middle of the night. It woke me up.
12 When I got home, I found a cat ..... on the kitchen table.

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Unit 68

-ing clauses (He hurt his knee **playing football**.)

A Study this example:

Kate is in the kitchen. She's making coffee.
You can say:

- Kate is in the kitchen **making coffee**.
  -ing *clause*

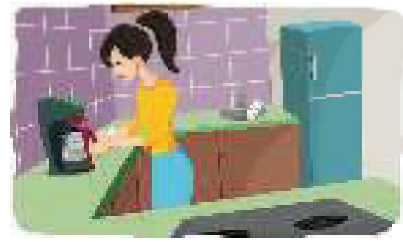

You can use **-ing** in this way when two things happen at the same time:

- A man ran out of the house **shouting**.
  (= he ran out of the house *and* he was shouting)
- Do something! Don't just stand there **doing nothing**!
- Be careful **crossing the road**.

We also use **-ing** when one action happens during another action:

- Joe hurt his knee **playing football**. (= while he was playing)
- Did you cut yourself **shaving**? (= while you were shaving)

You can also say '**while doing** something' and '**when doing** something':

- Joe hurt his knee **while playing** football.
- Be careful **when crossing** the road. (= when you are crossing)

B When one action happens before something else, we use **having** (**done**) for the first action:

- **Having found** a hotel, we looked for somewhere to eat.
- **Having finished** her work, she went home.

You can also say **after -ing**:

- **After finishing** her work, she went home.

These structures are used more in written English than in spoken English.
When we begin a sentence with '**Having** (done something)' or '**After** (doing something)', we write a comma (**,**) after this part of the sentence:

- **Having finished her work,** she went home.
  comma

C You can also use **-ing** to explain something, or to say why somebody does something.
The sentence usually begins with **-ing**:

- **Feeling tired**, I went to bed early. (= because I felt tired)
  -ing *clause*
- **Being** unemployed, he doesn't have much money. (= because he is unemployed)
- **Not having** a car, she finds it difficult to get around.
  (= because she doesn't have a car)

We use **having** (**done**) for something that is complete before something else:

- **Having seen** the film twice, I didn't want to see it again.
  (= because I had seen it twice)

These structures are used more in written English than in spoken English.
When we begin a sentence with **-ing** (**Feeling tired** . . . / **Not knowing** . . . / **Having seen** . . . etc.), we write a comma (**,**) after this part of the sentence.

- **Not knowing what to do,** I called my friend to ask her advice.

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Exercises

68.1 Choose from Box A and Box B to make sentences. Use -ing.

A

1 ~~Kate was in the kitchen.~~
2 Amy was sitting in an armchair.
3 Nicola opened the door carefully.
4 Sarah went out.
5 Lisa worked in Rome for two years.
6 Anna walked around the town.

B

She was trying not to make a noise.
She looked at the sights and took pictures.
She said she would be back in an hour.
She was reading a book.
~~She was making coffee.~~
She was teaching English.

1 Kate was in the kitchen making coffee.
2 Amy was sitting in an armchair .....
3 Nicola .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

68.2 Put the words in the right order.

1 Joe (knee / football / his / hurt / playing) Joe hurt his knee playing football.
2 I (in the rain / wet / got / very / walking)
I .....
3 Laura (to work / had / driving / an accident)
Laura .....
4 My friend (off / slipped / a bus / getting / and fell)
My friend .....
5 Emily (trying / her back / a heavy box / to lift / hurt)
Emily .....
6 Two people were (to put out / by smoke / the fire / overcome / trying)
Two people were .....

68.3 Complete the sentences. Use Having + a suitable verb.

1 Having finished her work, Katherine left the office and went home.
2 ..... our tickets, we went into the theatre and took our seats.
3 ..... the problem, I think we'll be able to find a solution.
4 ..... he was hungry, Joe now says he doesn't want to eat anything.
5 ..... his job recently, James is now unemployed.
6 ..... most of his life in London, Sam has now gone to live in a small village in the country.

68.4 Make one sentence from two. Begin with -ing or Not -ing. Sometimes you need to begin with Having ... . Don't forget the comma (,).

1 I felt tired. So I went to bed early.
Feeling tired, I went to bed early.
2 I thought they might be hungry. So I offered them something to eat.
..... I offered them something to eat.
3 Robert is a vegetarian. So he doesn't eat any kind of meat.
..... Robert doesn't eat any kind of meat.
4 I didn't have a phone. So I had no way of contacting anyone.
..... I had no way of contacting anyone.
5 Sarah has travelled a lot. So she knows a lot about other countries.
..... Sarah knows a lot about other countries.
6 I wasn't able to speak the local language. So I had trouble communicating.
..... I had trouble communicating.
7 We had spent nearly all our money. So we couldn't afford to stay at a hotel.
..... we couldn't afford to stay at a hotel.

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Unit 69

Countable and uncountable 1

A

A noun can be *countable* or *uncountable*:

Countable

- I eat **a banana** every day.
- I like **bananas**.

Banana is a *countable* noun.

A countable noun can be singular (**banana**) or plural (**bananas**).

We can use numbers with countable nouns. So we can say **one banana**, **two bananas** etc.

Examples of nouns usually countable:

- Kate was singing **a song**.
- There's **a** nice **beach** near here.
- Do you have **a** ten-pound **note**?
- It wasn't your fault. It was **an accident**.
- There are no **batteries** in the radio.
- We don't have enough **cups**.

Uncountable

- I eat **rice** every day.
- I like **rice**.

Rice is an *uncountable* noun.

An uncountable noun has only one form (**rice**). There is no plural.

We cannot use numbers with uncountable nouns. We cannot say 'one rice', 'two rices' etc.

Examples of nouns usually uncountable:

- Kate was listening to **music**.
- There's **sand** in my shoes.
- Do you have any **money**?
- It wasn't your fault. It was bad **luck**.
- There is no **electricity** in this house.
- We don't have enough **water**.

B

You can use **a**/**an** with singular countable nouns:

a beach **a student** **an umbrella**

You cannot use singular countable nouns alone (without **a**/**the**/**my** etc.):

- Do you want **a banana**?
  (*not* want banana)
- There's been **an accident**.
  (*not* There's been accident)

You can use *plural* countable nouns alone:

- I like **bananas**. (= bananas in general)
- **Accidents** can be prevented.

We do not use **a**/**an** with uncountable nouns. We do not say 'a sand', 'a music', 'a rice'.

But you can often use **a** . . . **of**. For example:
a bowl / **a packet** / **a grain** of rice

You can use uncountable nouns alone (without **the**/**my**/**some** etc.):

- I eat **rice** every day.
- There's **blood** on your shirt.
- Can you hear **music**?

C

You can use **some** and **any** with plural countable nouns:

- We sang **some songs**.
- Did you buy **any apples**?

We use **many** and **few** with plural countable nouns:

- We didn't take **many pictures**.
- I have a **few things** to do.

You can use **some** and **any** with uncountable nouns:

- We listened to **some music**.
- Did you buy **any** apple **juice**?

We use **much** and **little** with uncountable nouns:

- We didn't do **much shopping**.
- I have a **little work** to do.

>> Countable and uncountable 2 ➜ **Unit 70** **children** / **the children** ➜ **Unit 75** **some** and **any** ➜ **Unit 85**
many/**much**/**few**/**little** ➜ **Unit 87**

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Exercises

69.1 **Some of these sentences need a/an. Correct the sentences where necessary.**

1 Joe goes everywhere by bike. He doesn't have car. ..... He doesn't have a car. .....
2 Helen was listening to music when I arrived. ..... OK .....
3 We went to very nice restaurant last weekend. .....
4 I brush my teeth with toothpaste. .....
5 I use toothbrush to brush my teeth. .....
6 Can you tell me if there's bank near here? .....
7 My brother works for insurance company. .....
8 I don't like violence. .....
9 When we were in Rome, we stayed in big hotel. .....
10 If you have problem, I'll try and help you. .....
11 I like your suggestion. It's interesting idea. .....
12 Can you smell paint? .....
13 I like volleyball. It's good game. .....
14 Lisa doesn't usually wear jewellery. .....
15 Jane was wearing beautiful necklace. .....
16 Does this city have airport? .....

69.2 **Complete the sentences using the following words. Use a/an where necessary.**

~~accident~~	biscuit	blood	coat	decision	electricity
ice	interview	key	moment	~~music~~	question

1 The road is closed. There's been ....an accident.... .
2 Listen! Can you hear ....music.... ?
3 I couldn't get into the house. I didn't have ..... .
4 It's very warm today. Why are you wearing ..... ?
5 Would you like ..... in your drink?
6 Are you hungry? Have ..... !
7 Our lives would be very difficult without ..... .
8 Excuse me, can I ask you ..... ?
9 I'm not ready yet. Can you wait ....., please?
10 The heart pumps ..... through the body.
11 We can't delay much longer. We have to make ..... soon.
12 I had ..... for a job yesterday. It went quite well.

69.3 **Complete the sentences using the following words:**

air	day	friend	joke	language	meat
patience	people	~~picture~~	queue	space	umbrella

Sometimes the word needs to be plural (-s), and sometimes you need to use a/an.

1 I had a camera with me, but I didn't take any ....pictures.... .
2 There are seven ..... in a week.
3 A vegetarian is a person who doesn't eat ..... .
4 Outside the cinema there was ..... of people waiting to see the film.
5 I'm not good at telling ..... .
6 Last night I went out with some ..... of mine.
7 There were very few ..... in town today. The streets were almost empty.
8 I'm going out for a walk. I need some fresh ..... .
9 Paul always wants things quickly. He doesn't have much ..... .
10 I think it's going to rain. Do you have ..... I could borrow?
11 How many ..... can you speak?
12 Our flat is very small. We don't have much ..... .

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Unit 70

Countable and uncountable 2

A

Many nouns are sometimes countable, and sometimes uncountable. Usually there is a difference in meaning. Compare:

Countable

- Did you hear **a noise** just now? (= a specific noise)
- I bought **a paper** to read. (= a newspaper)
- There's **a hair** in my soup! (= one single hair)
- This is **a** nice **room**. (= a room in a house)
- I had some interesting **experiences** while I was travelling. (= things that happened to me)
- Enjoy your trip. Have **a** great **time**!

Uncountable

- I can't work here. There's too much **noise**. (= noise in general)
- I need **some paper** to write on. (= material for writing on)
- You've got very long **hair**. (*not* hairs) (= all the hair on your head)
- You can't sit here. There isn't **room**. (= space)
- I was offered the job because I had a lot of **experience**. (*not* experiences) (= experience of that type of job)
- I can't wait. I don't have **time**.

Coffee/**tea**/**juice**/**beer** etc. (drinks) are normally uncountable:

- I don't like **coffee** very much.

But you can say **a coffee** (= a cup of coffee), **two coffees** (= two cups) etc. :

- **Two coffees** and **an orange juice**, please.

B

These nouns are usually uncountable:

accommodation	**behaviour**	**damage**	**luck**	**permission**	**traffic**
advice	**bread**	**furniture**	**luggage**	**progress**	**weather**
baggage	**chaos**	**information**	**news**	**scenery**	**work**

We do not normally use **a**/**an** with these nouns:

- I'm going to buy **some bread**. *or* ... **a loaf of bread**. (*not* a bread)
- Enjoy your holiday! I hope you have good **weather**. (*not* a good weather)

These nouns are not usually plural (so we do not say 'breads', 'furnitures' etc.):

- Where are you going to put all your **furniture**? (*not* furnitures)
- Let me know if you need more **information**. (*not* informations)

News is uncountable, not plural:

- The **news was** unexpected. (*not* The news were)

Travel (*noun*) means 'travelling in general' (uncountable). We do not say 'a travel' to mean **a trip** or **a journey**:

- They spend a lot of money on **travel**.
- We had a very good **trip**/**journey**. (*not* a good travel)

Compare these countable and uncountable nouns:

Countable

- I'm looking for **a job**.
- What **a** beautiful **view**!
- It's **a** nice **day** today.
- We had a lot of **bags**.
- **These chairs** are mine.
- That's **a** good **suggestion**.
- There were a lot of **cars**.

Uncountable

- I'm looking for **work**. (*not* a work)
- What beautiful **scenery**!
- It's nice **weather** today.
- We had a lot of **baggage**/**luggage**.
- **This furniture** is mine.
- That's good **advice**.
- There **was** a lot of **traffic**.

Countable and uncountable 1 ➜ **Unit 69** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

70.1 Which is correct?

1 a The engine is making ~~strange noise~~ / a strange noise. What is it? (a strange noise *is correct*)
  b We live near a busy road so there's a lot of noise / there are a lot of noises.
2 a Light / A light comes from the sun.
  b I thought there was somebody in the house because there was light / a light on inside.
3 a I was in a hurry this morning. I didn't have time / a time for breakfast.
  b We really enjoyed our holiday. We had great time / a great time.
4 a Can I have glass of water / a glass of water, please?
  b Be careful. The window has been broken and there's broken glass / a broken glass on the floor.
5 a We stayed at a hotel. We had very nice room / a very nice room.
  b We have a big garage. There's room / a room for two cars.

70.2 Which is correct?

1 Did you have nice weather / ~~a nice weather~~ when you were away? (nice weather *is correct*)
2 We were very unfortunate. We had bad luck / a bad luck.
3 Our travel / journey from Paris to Moscow by train was very tiring.
4 When the fire alarm rang, there was complete chaos / a complete chaos.
5 Bad news don't / doesn't make people happy.
6 There's some lovely scenery / a lovely scenery in this part of the country.
7 I like my job, but it's very hard work / a very hard work.
8 I want to print some documents, but the printer is out of paper / papers.
9 The trip took a long time. There was heavy traffic / a heavy traffic.
10 Your hair is / Your hairs are too long. You should have it / them cut.

70.3 Complete the sentences using the following words. Use the plural (-s) where necessary.

advice	**chair**	**damage**	**experience**	**experience**
furniture	**hair**	**~~luggage~~**	**permission**	**progress**

1 We didn't have much ...luggage... – just two small bags.
2 We have no ....., not even a bed or a table.
3 There is room for everybody to sit down. There are plenty of ..... .
4 Who is that woman with short .....? Do you know her?
5 Carla's English is better than it was. She's made good ..... .
6 If you want to take pictures here, you need to ask for ..... .
7 I didn't know what I should do, so I asked Chris for ..... .
8 I don't think Dan should get the job. He doesn't have enough ..... .
9 Kate has done many interesting things. She could write a book about her ..... .
10 The ..... caused by the storm will cost a lot to repair.

70.4 What do you say in these situations? Use the word in brackets in your sentence.

1 Your friends have just arrived at the station. You can't see any cases or bags. You ask:
(luggage) Do ...you have any luggage..... ?
2 You go to a tourist office. You want to know about places to visit in the town.
(information) I'd like ..... .
3 You are a student. You want your teacher to advise you about which courses to do. You say:
(advice) Can you give .....?
4 You applied for a job and you've just heard that you were successful. You call Tom and say:
(good news) Hi, Tom. I ..... . I got the job!
5 You are at the top of a mountain. You can see a very long way. It's beautiful. You say:
(view) It ....., isn't it?
6 You look out of the window. The weather is horrible: cold, wet and windy. You say:
(weather) What .....!

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Unit 71

Countable nouns with **a/an** and **some**

A

Countable nouns can be *singular* or *plural*:

a **dog**	a **child**	the **evening**	this **party**	an **umbrella**
dogs	some **children**	the **evenings**	these **parties**	two **umbrellas**

Before singular countable nouns you can use **a/an**:

- Bye! Have **a** nice **evening**.
- Do you need **an umbrella**?

You cannot use singular countable nouns alone (without **a/the/my** etc.):

- She never wears **a hat**. (*not* wears hat)
- Be careful of **the dog**.
- What **a** beautiful **day**!
- Did you hurt **your leg**?

B

We use **a/an** . . . to say what kind of thing something is, or what kind of person somebody is:

- That's a **nice table**.

In the plural we use the noun alone (*not* some . . .):

- Those are **nice chairs**. (*not* some nice chairs)

Compare singular and plural:

- A dog is **an animal**.
- I'm **an optimist**.
- My father is **a doctor**.
- Jane is **a really nice person**.
- What **a lovely dress**!

- Dogs are **animals**.
- We're **optimists**.
- My parents are both **doctors**.
- Jane and Ben are **really nice people**.
- What **awful shoes**!

We say that somebody has **a long nose** / **a nice face** / **blue eyes** / **long fingers** etc. :

- Jack has a long **nose**. (*not* the long nose)
- Jack has **blue eyes**. (*not* the blue eyes)

We use **a/an** when we say what somebody's job is:

- Sandra is **a nurse**. (*not* Sandra is nurse)
- Would you like to be **an English teacher**?

C

You can use **some** with plural countable nouns. We use **some** in two ways.

(1) **some** = a number (of) / a few (of) / a pair (of):

- I've seen **some** good **movies** recently. (*not* I've seen good movies)
- **Some friends** of mine are coming to stay at the weekend.
- I need **some** new **sunglasses**. (= a new pair of sunglasses)

Often you can say the same thing with or without **some**. For example:

- I need (**some**) **new clothes**.
- The room was empty apart from a table and (**some**) **chairs**.

Do not use **some** when you are talking about things in general (see Unit 75):

- I love **bananas**. (*not* some bananas)
- My aunt is a writer. She writes **books**. (*not* some books)

(2) **some** = some but not all:

- **Some children** learn very quickly. (but not all children)
- Tomorrow there will be rain in **some places**, but most of the country will be dry.

Countable and uncountable ➜ **Units 69–70** **a/an** and **the** ➜ **Unit 72** **some** and **any** ➜ **Unit 85**

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Exercises

71.1 What are these things? Choose from the box and write a sentence.

1 an eagle ..... It's a bird. .....
2 a pigeon, a duck and a penguin ..... They're birds. .....
3 carrots and onions .....
4 a tulip .....
5 Earth, Mars and Jupiter .....
6 chess .....
7 a hammer, a saw and a screwdriver .....
8 the Nile, the Rhine and the Mekong .....
9 a mosquito .....
10 Hindi, Arabic and Swahili .....

~~bird(s)~~
flower(s)
game(s)
insect(s)
language(s)
planet(s)
river(s)
tool(s)
vegetable(s)

71.2 Read about what these people do. What are their jobs? Choose from:

chef interpreter journalist ~~nurse~~ plumber surgeon tour guide waiter

1 Sarah looks after patients in hospital. ..... She's a nurse. .....
2 Gary works in a restaurant. He brings the food to the tables. He .....
3 Jane writes articles for a newspaper. .....
4 Kevin works in a hospital. He operates on people. .....
5 Jonathan cooks in a restaurant. .....
6 Dave installs and repairs water pipes. .....
7 Anna shows visitors round her city and tells them about it. .....
8 Lisa translates what people are saying from one language into another, so that they can understand each other. .....

71.3 Which is right?

1 Most of my friends are students / ~~some students~~. (students *is correct*)
2 Are you careful driver / a careful driver?
3 I went to the library and borrowed books / some books.
4 Mark works in a bookshop. He sells books / some books.
5 I've been walking for hours. I've got sore feet / some sore feet.
6 I don't feel very well. I've got sore throat / a sore throat.
7 What lovely present / a lovely present! Thank you very much.
8 I met students / some students in a cafe yesterday. They were from China.
9 It might rain. Don't go out without umbrella / without an umbrella.
10 People / Some people learn languages more easily than others.

71.4 Put in a/an or some where necessary. If no word is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 I've seen ..... some ..... good movies recently.
2 Are you feeling all right? Do you have ..... a ..... headache?
3 I know lots of people. Most of them are ..... – ..... students.
4 When I was ..... child, I used to be very shy.
5 ..... birds, for example the penguin, cannot fly.
6 Would you like to be ..... actor?
7 Questions, questions, questions! You're always asking ..... questions!
8 I didn't expect to see you. What ..... surprise!
9 Do you like staying in ..... hotels?
10 Tomorrow is a holiday. ..... shops will be open, but most of them will be closed.
11 Those are ..... nice shoes. Where did you get them?
12 You need ..... visa to visit ..... countries, but not all of them.
13 Kate is ..... teacher. Her parents were ..... teachers too.
14 I don't believe him. He's ..... liar. He's always telling ..... lies.

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Unit 72 a/an and the

A Study this example:

I had **a sandwich** and **an apple** for lunch.

The sandwich wasn't very good, but **the apple** was nice.

JOE

Joe says '**a** sandwich', '**an** apple' because this is the first time he talks about them.

Joe now says '**the** sandwich', '**the** apple' because we know which sandwich and which apple he means – **the** sandwich and **the** apple he had for lunch.

Compare **a** and **the** in these examples:

- **A man** and **a woman** were sitting opposite me. **The man** was American, but I think **the woman** was British.
- When we were on holiday, we stayed at **a hotel**. Sometimes we ate at **the hotel** and sometimes we went to **a restaurant**.

B We use **the** when we are thinking of a specific thing. Compare **a**/**an** and **the**:

- Tim sat down on **a chair**. (maybe one of many chairs in the room)
  Tim sat down on **the chair nearest the door**. (a specific chair)
- Do you have **a car**? (not a specific car)
  I cleaned **the car** yesterday. (= my car)

We use **a**/**an** when we say what kind of thing or person we mean. Compare:

- We stayed at **a very cheap hotel**. (a type of hotel)
  The hotel where we stayed was very cheap. (a specific hotel)

C We use **the** when it is clear which thing or person we mean. For example, in a room we talk about **the light** / **the floor** / **the ceiling** / **the door** / **the carpet** etc. :

- Can you turn off **the light**, please? (= the light in this room)
- I took a taxi to **the station**. (= the station in that town)
- *(in a shop)* I'd like to speak to **the manager**, please. (= the manager of this shop)

We also say '(go to) **the bank** / **the post office**':

- I have to go to **the bank** and then I'm going to **the post office**.
  (The speaker is usually thinking of a specific bank or post office.)

and '(go to) **the doctor** / **the dentist**':

- Clare isn't well. She's gone to **the doctor**.
- I don't like going to **the dentist**.

Compare **the** and **a**:

- I have to go to **the bank** today.
  Is there **a bank** near here?
- I don't like going to **the dentist**.
  My sister is **a dentist**.

D We say 'once **a week** / three times **a day** / £1.50 **a kilo**' etc. :

- I go to the cinema about once **a month**.
- 'How much are those potatoes?' '£1.50 **a kilo**.'
- Helen works eight hours **a day**, six days **a week**.

>> a/an → Unit 71 the → Units 73–78

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Exercises

72.1 Put in a/an or the.

1 This morning I bought ...a... book and ..... magazine. ..... book is in my bag, but I can't remember where I put ..... magazine.
2 I saw ..... accident this morning. ..... car crashed into ..... tree. ..... driver of ..... car wasn't hurt, but ..... car was badly damaged.
3 There are two cars parked outside: ..... blue one and ..... grey one. ..... blue one belongs to my neighbours. I don't know who ..... owner of ..... grey one is.
4 My friends live in ..... old house in ..... small village. There is ..... beautiful garden behind ..... house. I would like to have ..... garden like that.

72.2 Put in a/an or the.

1 a This house is very nice. Does it have ..... garden?
  b It's a beautiful day. Let's sit in ..... garden.
  c I like living in this house, but it's a shame that ..... garden is so small.
2 a Can you recommend ..... good restaurant?
  b We had dinner in ..... very nice restaurant.
  c We had dinner in ..... best restaurant in town.
3 a What's ..... name of that man we met yesterday?
  b We stayed at a very nice hotel – I can't remember ..... name now.
  c My neighbour has ..... French name, but in fact she's English, not French.
4 a Did Paula get ..... job she applied for?
  b It's not easy to get ..... job at the moment.
  c Do you enjoy your work? Is it ..... interesting job?
5 a 'Are you going away next week?' 'No, ... week after next.'
  b I'm going away for ..... week in September.
  c Gary has a part-time job. He works three mornings ..... week.

72.3 Put in a/an or the where necessary.

1 Would you like apple? ...Would you like an apple?...
2 How often do you go to dentist? .....
3 Can you close door, please? .....
4 I have problem. I need your help. .....
5 How far is it from here to station? .....
6 I'm going to post office. I won't be long. .....
7 Paul plays tennis. He's very good player. .....
8 There isn't airport near where I live. .....
9 Nearest airport is 70 miles away. .....
10 There were no chairs, so we sat on floor. .....
11 Have you finished with book I lent you? .....
12 Chris has just got job in bank in Zurich. .....
13 We live in small apartment in city centre. .....
14 There's shop at end of street I live in. .....

72.4 Answer these questions. Where possible, use once a week / three times a day etc.

1 How often do you go to the cinema? ...Three or four times a year.....
2 How often do you go to the dentist? .....
3 How often do you go away on holiday? .....
4 How long do you usually sleep? .....
5 How often do you go out in the evening? .....
6 How many hours of TV do you watch (on average)? .....
7 What's the usual speed limit in towns in your country? .....

➜ **Additional exercise 29** (page 319)

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Unit 73 the 1

A

We use **the** when there is only one of something:

- Have you ever crossed **the equator**? (there is only one equator)
- Our apartment is on **the tenth floor**.
- Buenos Aires is **the capital of Argentina**.
- I'm going away at **the end of this month**.

We use **the** + *superlative* (**best**, **oldest** etc.):

- What's **the longest river in Europe**?

Compare **the** and **a**/**an** (see also Units 71–72):

- **The sun** is **a star**. (= one of many stars)
- **The hotel** where we stayed was **a very old hotel**.
- We live in **an apartment** on **the tenth floor**.
- What's **the best way** to learn **a language**?

B

We say '**the same**':

- Your sweater is **the same** colour as mine. (*not* is same colour)
- 'Are these keys **the same**?' 'No, they're different.'

C

We say: **the world** **the universe** **the sun** **the moon** **the earth**
the sky **the sea** **the ground** **the country** (= not a town)

- I love to look at the stars in **the sky**. (*not* in sky)
- Do you live in a town or in **the country**?
- **The earth** goes round **the sun**, and **the moon** goes round **the earth**.

We also use **Earth** (without **the**) when we think of it as a planet in space (like **Mars**, **Jupiter** etc.).

- Which is the planet nearest **Earth**?

We say **space** (without **the**) when we mean 'space in the universe'. Compare:

- There are millions of stars **in space**. (*not* in the space)
- I tried to park my car, but **the space** was too small.

D

We say:
(go to) **the cinema**, **the theatre**

- I go to **the cinema** a lot, but I haven't been to **the theatre** for ages.

TV / **television** (without **the**), but **the radio**

- I watch **TV** a lot, but I don't listen to **the radio** much.

but Can you turn off **the television**, please? (**the** television = the TV set)

the internet

- **The internet** has changed the way we live.

E

We usually say **breakfast**/**lunch**/**dinner** (without **the**):

- What did you have for **breakfast**?
- We had **lunch** in a very nice restaurant.

But we say '**a big** lunch', '**a wonderful** dinner', '**an early** breakfast' etc.

- We had **a** very **nice lunch**. (*not* We had very nice lunch)

F

We say: **size 43**, **platform 5** etc. (without **the**)

- Our train leaves from **platform 5**. (*not* the platform 5)
- Do you have these shoes in **size 43**? (*not* the size 43)

In the same way, we say: **room 126**, **page 29**, **vitamin A**, **section B** etc.

>> **a**/**an** ➜ **Unit 71** **a**/**an** and **the** ➜ **Unit 72** **the** 2–4 ➜ **Units 74–76**
Names with and without **the** ➜ **Units 77–78**

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Exercises

73.1 Put in the or a where necessary. If no word is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 A: Our apartment is on ...the... tenth floor.
B: Is it? I hope there's ..... lift.
2 A: Did you have ..... nice holiday?
B: Yes, it was ..... best holiday I've ever had.
3 A: Where's ..... nearest shop?
B: There's one at ..... end of this street.
4 A: It's ..... lovely day, isn't it?
B: Yes, there isn't ..... cloud in ..... sky.
5 A: We spent all our money because we stayed at ..... most expensive hotel in town.
B: Why didn't you stay at ..... cheaper hotel?
6 A: Would you like to travel in ..... space?
B: Yes, I'd love to go to ..... moon.
7 A: What did you think of ..... movie last night?
B: It was OK, but I thought ..... ending was a bit strange.
8 A: What's Jupiter? Is it ..... star?
B: No, it's ..... planet. It's ..... largest planet in ..... solar system.

73.2 Which is right? (For the, see also Unit 72.)

1 I haven't been to ~~cinema~~ / the cinema for ages. (the cinema *is correct*)
2 Sarah spends most of her free time watching TV / the TV.
3 Do you ever listen to radio / the radio?
4 Television / The television was on, but nobody was watching it.
5 Have you had dinner / the dinner yet?
6 It's confusing when two people have same name / the same name.
7 What do you want for breakfast / for the breakfast?
8 Fruit is an important source of vitamin C / the vitamin C.
9 This computer is not connected to internet / the internet.
10 I lay down on ground / the ground and looked up at sky / the sky.
11 Next train / The next train to London leaves from platform 3 / the platform 3.

73.3 Put in the or a where necessary. (For a and the see also Units 71–72.)

1 Sun is star. ...The sun is a star.....
2 I'm fed up with doing same thing every day. .....
3 Room 25 is on second floor. .....
4 It was very hot day. It was hottest day of year. .....
5 We had lunch in nice restaurant by sea. .....
6 What's on at cinema this week? .....
7 I had big breakfast this morning. .....
8 You'll find information you need at top of page 15. .....

73.4 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and use the where necessary.

breakfast	cinema	gate	Gate 24	~~lunch~~	question	question 3	sea

1 I'm hungry. It's time for ...lunch... .
2 There was no wind, so ..... was very calm.
3 Most of the questions in the test were OK, but I couldn't answer ..... .
4 'I'm going to ..... tonight.' 'Are you? What are you going to see?'
5 I'm sorry, but could you repeat ....., please?
6 I didn't have ..... this morning because I was in a hurry.
7 *(airport announcement)* Flight AB123 to Rome is now boarding at ..... .
8 I forgot to shut ..... . Can you shut it for me?

➜ **Additional exercise 29** (page 319)

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Unit 74

the 2 (school / the school etc.)

A Compare **school** and **the school**:

Ellie is ten years old. Every day she goes **to school**. She's **at school** now. **School** starts at 9 and finishes at 3.

We say a child goes **to school** or is **at school** (as a student). We are not thinking of a specific school. We are thinking of **school** as a *general* idea – children learning in a classroom.

Today Ellie's mother wants to speak to her daughter's teacher. So she has gone to **the school** to see her. She's at **the school** now.

Ellie's mother is not a student. She is not 'at school', she doesn't 'go to school'. If she wants to see Ellie's teacher, she goes to **the school** (= Ellie's school, a specific building).

B We use **prison** (or **jail**), **hospital**, **university**, **college** and **church** in a similar way. We do not use **the** when we are thinking of the general idea of these places and what they are used for.
Compare:

- When I leave school, I plan to go **to university** / go **to college**. (as a student)
- Joe had an accident last week. He was taken **to hospital**. He's still **in hospital** now. (as a patient)
- Ken's brother is **in prison** for robbery. (He is a prisoner. We are not thinking of a specific prison.)
- Sarah's father goes **to church** every Sunday. (for a religious service)

- I went to **the university** to meet Professor Thomas. (as a visitor, not as a student)
- Jane has gone to **the hospital** to visit Joe. She's at **the hospital** now. (as a visitor, not as a patient)
- Ken went to **the prison** to visit his brother. (He went as a visitor, not as a prisoner.)
- Some workmen went to **the church** to repair the roof. (a specific building)

With most other places, you need **the**. For example, **the station**, **the cinema** (see Units 72C and 73D).

C We say **go to bed** / **be in bed** etc. (*not* the bed):

- I'm going **to bed** now. Goodnight.
- Do you ever have breakfast **in bed**?

but

- I sat down on **the bed**. (a specific piece of furniture)

go to work / **be at work** / **start work** / **finish work** etc. (*not* the work):

- Chris didn't go to **work** yesterday.
- What time do you usually finish **work**?

go home / **come home** / **arrive home** / **get home** / **be** (**at**) **home** / do something **at home** etc. :

- It's late. Let's **go home**.
- I don't go out to work. I work **at home**.

>> **the → Units 72–73, 75–78** Prepositions (**at school** / **in hospital** etc.) **→ Units 123–125**
home → Unit 126C American English **→ Appendix 7**

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Exercises

74.1 Complete the sentences with school or the school.

1 Why aren't your children at school today? Are they ill?
2 When he was younger, Ben hated ..... , but he enjoys it now.
3 There were some parents waiting outside ..... to meet their children.
4 What time does ..... start in the morning?
5 How do your children get to and from ..... ? Do you take them?
6 What was the name of ..... you attended?
7 What does Emily want to do when she leaves ..... ?
8 My children walk to .... isn't very far.

74.2 Which is right?

1 a Where is ~~university~~ / the university? Is it near here? (the university *is correct*)
b Neil left school and got a job. He didn't want to go to university / the university.
c In your country, what proportion of the population study at university / the university?
d This is a small town, but university / the university is the biggest in the country.

2 a My brother has always been healthy. He's never been in hospital / the hospital.
b When my friend was ill, I went to hospital / the hospital to see her.
c When I was visiting my friend, I met Lisa, who is a nurse at hospital / the hospital.
d I saw an accident. A woman was injured and was taken to hospital / the hospital.

3 a Why is she in prison / the prison? What crime did she commit?
b There was a fire at prison / the prison. Firefighters were called to put it out.
c Do you think too many people are sent to prison / the prison?

4 a John's mother is a regular churchgoer. She goes to church / the church every Sunday.
b John himself doesn't go to church / the church.
c The village is very nice. You should visit church / the church. It's interesting.

74.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 How did you get home after the party?
2 How do you usually go ..... in the morning? By bus?
3 Sam likes to go to ..... early and get up early.
4 I don't have my phone. I left it ..... .
5 'Have you seen my keys?' 'Yes, they're on ..... .'
6 Shall we meet ..... tomorrow evening?
7 I like to read ..... before going to sleep.
8 It was a long tiring journey. We arrived ..... very late.
9 Tom usually finishes ..... at five o'clock.
10 It's nice to travel around, but there's no place ..... .

bed
the bed
in bed
~~**home**~~
home
at home
like home
work
to work
after work

74.4 Complete the sentences. Choose at/in/to + hospital, school etc.

bed **home** ~~**hospital**~~ **hospital** **prison** **school** **university** **work**

1 Kate's mother has to have an operation. She'll be in hospital for a few days.
2 In your country, from what age do children have to go ..... ?
3 Mark didn't go out last night. He stayed ..... .
4 There is a lot of traffic in the morning when people are going ..... .
5 When Sophie leaves school, she wants to study psychology ..... .
6 Ben never gets up before 9 o'clock. It's 8.30 now, so he is still ..... .
7 The accident wasn't serious. Nobody had to go ..... .
8 If people commit crimes, they may end up ..... .

➜ **Additional exercise 29** (page 319)

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Unit 75

the 3 (children / the children)

A When we are talking about things or people in general, we do *not* use **the**:

- I'm afraid of **dogs**. (*not* the dogs)
  (**dogs** = dogs in general, not a specific group of dogs)
- **Doctors** are usually paid more than **teachers**.
- Do you know anybody who collects **stamps**?
- **Life** has changed a lot in the last thirty years.
- Do you like **classical music** / **Chinese food** / **fast cars**?
- My favourite sport is **football**/**skiing**/**athletics**.
- My favourite subject at school was **history**/**physics**/**English**.

We say '**most** people / **most** shops / **most** big cities' etc. (*not* the most . . .):

- **Most shops** accept credit cards. (*not* The most shops)

B We use **the** when we mean specific things or people.
Compare:

In general (without **the**)	*Specific people or things* (with **the**)
Children learn from playing. (= children in general)	We took **the children** to the zoo. (= a specific group, perhaps the speaker's children)
I couldn't live without **music**.	The film wasn't very good, but I liked **the music**. (= the music in the film)
All **cars** have wheels.	All **the cars in this car park** belong to people who work here.
Sugar isn't very good for you.	Can you pass **the sugar**, please? (= the sugar on the table)
English people drink a lot of tea. (= English people in general)	**The English people I know** drink a lot of tea. (= only the English people I know, not English people in general)

C The difference between 'something in general' and 'something specific' is not always very clear.
Compare:

In general (without **the**)	*Specific people or things* (with **the**)
I like working with **people**. (= people in general)	I like **the people I work with**. (= a specific group of people)
I like working with **people who say what they think**. (not all people, but 'people who say what they think' is still a general idea)	
Do you like **coffee**? (= coffee in general)	
Do you like **strong black coffee**? (not all coffee, but 'strong black coffee' is still a general idea)	**The coffee we had after dinner** wasn't very good. (= specific coffee)

>> **the** 1–2 ➜ **Units 73–74** **the** + adjective (**the young** / **the English** etc.) ➜ **Unit 76**

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Exercises

75.1 **Choose four of these things and write what you think about them:**

bananas	boxing	cats	crowds	fast food	horror movies
~~hot weather~~	maths	opera	snow	supermarkets	zoos

Use: **I like … / I don't like …** **I think … is/are …** **I don't mind …**
I love … / I hate … **I'm (not) interested in …**

1 I don't like hot weather very much.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

75.2 **Which is right?**

1 a Apples / ~~The apples~~ are good for you. (Apples *is correct*)
  b Look at apples / the apples on that tree. They're very big.
2 a Who are people / the people in this picture?
  b It annoys me when people / the people throw rubbish on the ground.
3 a My memory isn't good. I'm not good at remembering names / the names.
  b What were names / the names of those people we met last night?
4 a First World War / The First World War began in 1914 and ended in 1918.
  b A pacifist is somebody who is against war / the war.
5 a He's lazy. He doesn't like hard work / the hard work.
  b Did you finish work / the work you were doing yesterday?

75.3 **Complete the sentences using the following. Use the where necessary.**

~~(the)~~ **basketball**	(the) **grass**	(the) **patience**	(the) **people**
(the) **questions**	(the) **meat**	~~(the)~~ **information**	(the) **hotels**
(the) **biology**	(the) **water**	(the) **spiders**	(the) **lies**

1 My favourite sport is basketball.
2 The information we were given wasn't correct.
3 Some people are afraid of .....
4 A vegetarian is somebody who doesn't eat .....
5 The test wasn't hard. I answered ..... without difficulty.
6 Do you know ..... who live in the flat next to yours?
7 ..... is the study of plants and animals.
8 It's better to tell the truth. Telling ..... often causes problems.
9 We couldn't find anywhere to stay in the town. ..... were all full.
10 Don't swim in this pool. ..... doesn't look very clean.
11 Don't sit on ..... It's wet after the rain.
12 You need ..... to teach young children.

75.4 **Which is right?**

1 Steve is very good at telling stories / the stories.
2 I can't sing this song. I don't know words / the words.
3 Don't stay in that hotel. It's noisy and rooms / the rooms are very small.
4 I don't have a car, so I use public transport / the public transport most of the time.
5 All books / All the books on the top shelf belong to me.
6 Life / The life is strange sometimes. Some very strange things happen.
7 We enjoyed our holiday. Weather / The weather was good.
8 Everybody needs water / the water to live.
9 I don't like films / the films with unhappy endings.

➜ **Additional exercise 29** (page 319)

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Unit 76

the 4 (the giraffe / the telephone / the old etc.)

A

Study these sentences:

- **The giraffe** is the tallest of all animals.
- **The bicycle** is an excellent means of transport.
- When was **the camera** invented?
- **The dollar** is the currency of the United States.

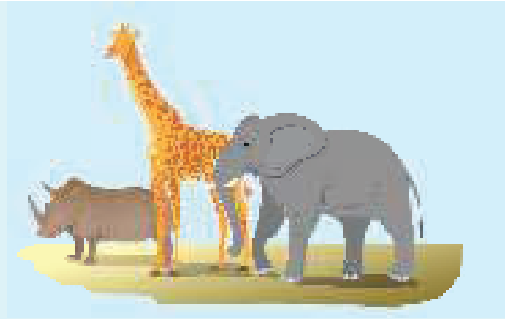

In these examples, **the** … does not mean one specific thing. **The giraffe** = a specific type of animal, not a specific giraffe. We use **the** … in this way to talk about a type of animal, machine etc.

In the same way we use **the** for musical instruments:

- Can you play **the** guitar?
- **The** piano is my favourite instrument.

Compare **a** and **the**:

- I'd like to have **a piano**. *but* I can't play **the piano**.
- We saw **a giraffe** at the zoo. *but* **The giraffe** is my favourite animal.

Note that **man** (without **the**) = human beings in general, the human race:

- What do you know about the origins of **man**? (*not* the man)

B

the old, **the rich** etc.

We use **the** + *adjective* (without a noun) to talk about groups of people. For example:

the old	**the rich**	**the homeless**	**the sick**
the elderly	**the poor**	**the unemployed**	**the injured**

the old = old people, **the rich** = rich people etc. :

- Do you think **the rich** should pay higher taxes?
- We need to do more to help **the homeless**.

Note that we say: the **old** (*not* the olds), the **poor** (*not* the poors) etc.

The rich, **the homeless** etc. are *plural*. For one person, we say:
a rich **man** (*not* a rich) **a** homeless **person** (*not* a homeless)

C

the French, **the Chinese** etc.

We use **the** + a few nationality adjectives that end in **-ch** or **-sh**. For example:
the French **the Dutch** **the British** **the English** **the Spanish**

The meaning is *plural* – the people of that country.

- **The French** are famous for their food. (*not* French are …)

We do not say 'a French' or 'an English' (*singular*). For example, we say:

- I met **a** French **woman** / **an** English **guy**.

We also use **the** + nationality words ending in **-ese** or **-ss**. For example:
the Chinese **the Portuguese** **the Swiss**
These words can also be singular (**a Chinese**, **a Swiss** etc.).

With other nationality words, the plural ends in **-s** (usually without **the**). For example:
an Italian → **Italians** a Mexican → **Mexicans** a Thai → **Thais**

- **Italians** / **Mexicans** / **Thais** are very friendly.

In all cases you can use *adjective* + **people**. For example, you can say:

- **French** / **Chinese** / **Mexican** people are very friendly.

>> **a/an** and **the** ➜ **Unit 72** **the** ➜ **Units 73–75** Names with and without **the** ➜ **Units 77–78**

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Exercises

76.1 **Answer the questions. Choose the right answer from the box. Don't forget the.**

1	2	3	4
animals	*birds*	*inventions*	*currencies*
tiger, elephant	eagle, penguin	telephone, wheel	dollar, peso
rabbit, cheetah	swan, owl	telescope, laser	euro, rupee
giraffe, kangaroo	parrot, pigeon	helicopter, typewriter	rouble, yen

1 a Which of the animals is the tallest? the giraffe
b Which animal can run the fastest? .....
c Which of these animals is found in Australia? .....
2 a Which of these birds has a long neck? .....
b Which of these birds cannot fly? .....
c Which bird flies at night? .....
3 a Which of these inventions is the oldest? .....
b Which one is the most recent? .....
c Which one was especially important for astronomy? .....
4 a What is the currency of India? .....
b What is the currency of Canada? .....
c And the currency of your country? .....

76.2 **Put in the or a.**

1 When was the telephone invented?
2 Can you play ..... musical instrument?
3 Jessica plays ..... violin in an orchestra.
4 There was ..... piano in the corner of the room.
5 I wish I could play ..... piano.
6 Our society is based on ..... family.
7 Martin comes from ..... large family.
8 ..... computer has changed the way we live.
9 When was ..... bicycle invented?
10 Do you have ..... car?

76.3 **Complete these sentences. Use the + adjective. Choose from:**

elderly **injured** **rich** **sick** **unemployed** ~~**young**~~

1 The young have the future in their hands.
2 Helen is a nurse. She's spent her life caring for ..... .
3 Life is all right if you have a job, but things are hard for ..... .
4 Ambulances arrived at the scene of the accident and took ..... to hospital.
5 More and more people are living longer. How are we going to care for ..... ?
6 It's nice to have lots of money, but ..... have their problems too.

76.4 **What do you call the people of these countries?**

	one person (**a**/**an** . . .)	*the people in general*
1 Canada	a Canadian	Canadians
2 Germany	.....	.....
3 France	.....	.....
4 Russia	.....	.....
5 Japan	.....	.....
6 Brazil	.....	.....
7 England	.....	.....
8 and your country	.....	.....

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Unit 77

Names with and without **the** 1

A

We do *not* use **the** with names of people ('Helen', 'Helen Taylor' etc.). In the same way, we do *not* use **the** with most names of places. For example:

continents	**Africa** (*not* the Africa), **South America**
countries, states etc.	**France** (*not* the France), **Japan**, **Texas**
islands	**Sicily**, **Tasmania**
cities, towns etc.	**Cairo**, **Bangkok**
mountains	**Everest**, **Kilimanjaro**

But we normally use **the** in names with **Republic**, **Kingdom**, **States** etc. :

the Czech **Republic** **the** United **Kingdom** (**the** UK)
the Dominican **Republic** **the** United **States** of America (**the** USA)

Compare:

- Have you been to **Canada** or **the United States**?

B

When we use **Mr**/**Ms**/**Captain**/**Doctor** etc. + a name, we do not use **the**. So we say:

Mr Johnson / **Doctor** Johnson / **Captain** Johnson / **President** Johnson etc. (*not* the . . .)
Uncle Robert / **Saint** Catherine / **Queen** Catherine etc. (*not* the . . .)

Compare:

- We called **the doctor**.
  We called **Doctor** Johnson. (*not* the Doctor Johnson)

We use **Mount** (= mountain) and **Lake** before a name in the same way (without **the**):

Mount Everest (*not* the . . .) **Mount** Etna **Lake** Superior **Lake** Victoria

- They live near **the lake**.
  They live near **Lake Superior**. (*not* the Lake Superior)

C

We use **the** with the names of oceans, seas, rivers and canals:

the Atlantic (Ocean)
the Indian Ocean
the Mediterranean (Sea)
the Red Sea
the Channel (between France and Britain)
the Amazon
the Nile
the Suez Canal

We use **the** with the names of deserts:

the Sahara (Desert) **the** Gobi Desert

D

We use **the** with *plural* names of people and places:

people	**the** Taylor**s** (= the Taylor family), **the** Johnson**s**
countries	**the** Netherland**s**, **the** Philippine**s**, **the** United State**s**
groups of islands	**the** Canarie**s** (*or* **the** Canary Island**s**), **the** Bahama**s**
mountain ranges	**the** Ande**s**, **the** Alp**s**, **the** Ural**s**

- The highest mountain in **the Andes** is (**Mount**) **Aconcagua**.

E

We say:

the north (of Brazil) *but* **northern** Brazil (*without* the)
the southeast (of Spain) *but* **southeastern** Spain

Compare:

- Sweden is in **northern Europe**; Spain is in **the south**.

We also use **north**/**south** etc. (*without* **the**) in the names of some regions and countries:

North America **South Africa** **southeast Asia**

Note that on maps, **the** is not usually included in the name.

>> Names with and without **the** 2 ➜ **Unit 78**

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Exercises

77.1 Which is right?

1 Who is Doctor Johnson / ~~the Doctor Johnson~~? (Doctor Johnson *is correct*)
2 I was ill. Doctor / The doctor told me to rest for a few days.
3 Doctor Thomas / The Doctor Thomas is an expert on heart disease.
4 I'm looking for Professor Brown / the Professor Brown. Do you know where she is?
5 In the United States, President / the President is elected for four years.
6 President Kennedy / The President Kennedy was assassinated in 1963.
7 The officer I spoke to at the police station was Inspector Roberts / the Inspector Roberts.
8 Do you know Wilsons / the Wilsons? They're a very nice couple.
9 Julia spent three years as a student in United States / the United States.
10 France / The France has a population of about 66 million.

77.2 Some of these sentences are OK, but some need the (sometimes more than once). Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 Everest was first climbed in 1953. OK
2 Milan and Turin are cities in north of Italy. in the north of Italy
3 Africa is much larger than Europe. .....
4 Last year I visited Mexico and United States. .....
5 Southern England is warmer than north. .....
6 Thailand and Cambodia are in southeast Asia. .....
7 Chicago is on Lake Michigan. .....
8 Next year we're going skiing in Swiss Alps. .....
9 UK consists of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. .....
10 Seychelles are a group of islands in Indian Ocean. .....
11 I've never been to South Africa. .....
12 River Volga flows into Caspian Sea. .....

77.3 Here are some geography questions. Choose the right answer from one of the boxes and use the if necessary. You do not need all the names in the boxes.

continents	*countries*	*oceans and seas*	*mountains*	*rivers and canals*	
Africa	Canada	~~Atlantic~~	Alps	Amazon	Rhine
Asia	Denmark	Indian Ocean	Andes	Danube	Thames
Australia	Indonesia	Pacific	Himalayas	Nile	Volga
Europe	Sweden	Black Sea	Rockies	Suez Canal	
North America	Thailand	Mediterranean	Urals	Panama Canal	
South America	United States	Red Sea			

1 What do you have to cross to travel from Europe to America? the Atlantic
2 Where is Argentina? .....
3 Which is the longest river in Africa? .....
4 Of which country is Stockholm the capital? .....
5 Of which country is Washington the capital? .....
6 What is the name of the mountain range in the west of North America? .....
7 What is the name of the sea between Africa and Europe? .....
8 Which is the smallest continent in the world? .....
9 What is the name of the ocean between North America and Asia? .....
10 What is the name of the ocean between Africa and Australia? .....
11 Which river flows through London? .....
12 Which river flows through Vienna, Budapest and Belgrade? .....
13 Of which country is Bangkok the capital? .....
14 What joins the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans? .....
15 Which is the longest river in South America? .....

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Unit 78

Names with and without **the** 2

A Names without **the**

We do not use **the** with names of most city streets/roads/squares/parks etc. :

Union Street (*not* the . . .) **Fifth Avenue** **Hyde Park**
Abbey Road **Broadway** **Times Square**

Names of many public buildings and institutions (airports, stations, universities etc.), and also some geographical names, are two words:

Manchester Airport **Harvard University**

The first word is the name of a place ('Manchester') or a person ('Harvard'). These names are usually without **the**. In the same way, we say:

Victoria Station (*not* the . . .) **Canterbury Cathedral** **Edinburgh Castle**
Buckingham Palace **Cambridge University** **Sydney Harbour**

Compare:

Buckingham Palace (*not* the . . .) *but* **the Royal Palace**
('Royal' is an adjective – it is not a name like 'Buckingham'.)

B

Most other buildings have names with **the**. For example:

hotels	**the** Sheraton Hotel, **the** Holiday Inn
theatres/cinemas	**the** Palace Theatre, **the** Odeon (cinema)
museums	**the** Guggenheim Museum, **the** National Gallery
other buildings	**the** Empire State (Building), **the** White House, **the** Eiffel Tower

We often leave out the noun:

the Sheraton (Hotel) **the Palace** (Theatre) **the Guggenheim** (Museum)

Some names are only **the** + *noun*, for example:

the Acropolis **the Kremlin** **the Pentagon**

C

Names with **of** usually have **the**. For example:

the Bank **of** England **the** Museum **of** Modern Art
the Great Wall **of** China **the** Tower **of** London

Note that we say:

the University **of** Cambridge *but* **Cambridge University** (*without* **the**)

D

Many shops, restaurants, hotels etc. are named after people. These names end in -**'s** or -**s**. We do not use **the** with these names:

McDonald's (*not* the . . .) **Barclays** (bank)
Joe's Diner (restaurant) **Macy's** (department store)

Churches are often named after saints (St = Saint):

St John's Church (*not* the . . .) **St Patrick's Cathedral**

E

Most newspapers and many organisations have names with **the**:

the Washington Post **the** Financial Times **the** Sun (newspaper)
the European Union **the** BBC **the** Red Cross

Names of companies, airlines etc. are usually without **the**:

Fiat (*not* the Fiat) **Sony** **Singapore Airlines**
Kodak **IBM** **Yale University Press**

>> Names with and without **the** 1 ➜ **Unit 77**

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Exercises

78.1 **Use the map to answer the questions. Write the name of the place and the street it is in. Use the if necessary. (Remember that on maps we do not normally use the.)**

1	Is there a cinema near here?	Yes, the Odeon in Market Street.
2	Is there a supermarket near here?	Yes, ... in ..... .
3	Is there a hotel near here?	Yes, ... in ..... .
4	Is there a church near here?	Yes, ...
5	Is there a museum near here?	Yes, ...
6	Is there a bookshop near here?	Yes, ...
7	Is there a restaurant near here?	Yes, ...
8	Is there a park near here?	Yes, ... at the end of ..... .

78.2 **Where are the following? Use the where necessary.**

Acropolis	**Broadway**	**Buckingham Palace**	**Eiffel Tower**
Kremlin	**White House**	**Gatwick Airport**	~~**Times Square**~~

1 Times Square is in New York.
2 ..... is in Paris.
3 ..... is in London.
4 ..... is in Washington.
5 ..... is in Moscow.
6 ..... is in New York.
7 ..... is in Athens.
8 ..... is near London.

78.3 **Which is right?**

1 Have you ever been to ~~Science Museum~~ / the Science Museum? (the Science Museum *is correct*)
2 Many tourists in London visit St Paul's Cathedral / the St Paul's Cathedral.
3 The biggest park in New York is Central Park / The Central Park.
4 I'd like to go to China and see Great Wall / the Great Wall.
5 Dublin Airport / The Dublin Airport is situated about 12 kilometres from the city centre.
6 'Which cinema are we going to this evening?' 'Classic / The Classic.'
7 Jack is a student at Liverpool University / the Liverpool University.
8 You should go to National Museum / the National Museum. It's very interesting.
9 If you're looking for a department store, I would recommend Harrison's / the Harrison's.
10 Andy is a flight attendant. He works for Cathay Pacific / the Cathay Pacific.
11 'Which newspaper do you want?' 'Morning News / The Morning News.'
12 We went to Italy and saw Leaning Tower / the Leaning Tower of Pisa.
13 This book is published by Cambridge University Press / the Cambridge University Press.
14 The building across the street is College of Art / the College of Art.
15 Imperial Hotel / The Imperial Hotel is in Baker Street / the Baker Street.
16 Statue of Liberty / The Statue of Liberty is at the entrance to New York Harbor / the New York Harbor.

➜ **Additional exercise 29** (page 319)

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Unit 79

Singular and plural

A Sometimes we use a *plural* noun for one thing that has two parts. For example:

trousers *(two legs)*
also **jeans**/**tights**/**shorts**/**pants**

pyjamas
(top and bottom)

glasses

binoculars

scissors

These words are plural, so they take a plural verb:
- My trousers **are** too long. (*not* My trousers is)

You can also use **a pair of** + these words:
- **Those are** nice **jeans**. *or* That**'s a** nice **pair of** jeans. (*not* a nice jeans)
- I need **some** new **glasses**. *or* I need **a** new **pair of** glasses.

B Some nouns end in **-ics**, but are not usually plural. For example:

athletics **gymnastics** **economics** **politics**
physics **electronics** **maths** (= mathematics)

- **Gymnastics is** my favourite sport. (*not* Gymnastics are)

News is not plural (see Unit 70B):
- I have **some news** for you. **It's** good news!

Some words that end in **-s** can be singular or plural. For example:

means	**a means** of transport	**many means** of transport
series	**a** TV **series**	**two** TV **series**
species	**a species** of fish	**200 species** of fish

C Some singular nouns are often used with a plural verb. For example:

audience **committee** **company** **family** **firm** **government** **staff** **team**

These nouns are all groups of people. We often think of them as a number of people (= they), not as one thing (= it). So we often use a plural verb:
- **The government** (= they) **have decided** to increase taxes.
- **The staff** at the company (= they) **are** not happy with **their** working conditions.

In the same way, we often use a plural verb after the name of a company or a sports team:
- **Shell have** increased the price of petrol.
- **Italy are** playing Brazil next Sunday (in a football match).

You can also use a singular verb (The government **wants** . . . / Shell **has** . . . etc.).

We use a plural verb with **police**:
- **The police are** investigating the crime, but **haven't** arrested anyone yet. (*not* The police is . . . hasn't)

Note that we say **a police officer** / **a policeman** / **a policewoman** (*not* a police).

D We do not often use the plural of **person** ('persons'). We normally use **people** (a *plural* word):
- He's **a** nice **person**. *but* They are nice **people**. (*not* nice persons)
- **Many people don't** have enough to eat. (*not* Many people doesn't)

E We think of a sum of money, a period of time, a distance etc. as *one* thing. So we use a singular verb:
- **Fifty thousand pounds** (= it) **was** stolen in the robbery. (*not* were stolen)
- **Three years** (= it) **is** a long time to be without a job. (*not* Three years are)
- **Two miles isn't** very far to walk.

American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

79.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 My eyesight is getting worse. I need ...glasses... .
2 The trousers you bought for me ..... fit me.
3 The jacket you bought for me ..... fit me.
4 I need ..... scissors to cut this piece of material.
5 I can't find my binoculars. Have you seen .....?
6 I went shopping and bought a ..... of jeans.
7 Where ..... my sunglasses?
8 I went shopping and bought ..... pair of pyjamas.
9 I don't know much about politics. I'm not interested in ..... .

a
are
them
doesn't
pair
it
~~**glasses**~~
some
don't

79.2 Complete the sentences. Use a word from section B (news, series etc.).

1 'Have you heard the ...news...?' 'No. What's happened?'
2 The bicycle is a ..... of transport.
3 A lot of American TV ..... are shown in other countries.
4 The tiger is an endangered ..... .
5 There will be a ..... of meetings to discuss the problem.
6 Fortunately the ..... wasn't as bad as we expected.
7 How many ..... of bird are there in the world?
8 I didn't have my phone, so I had no ..... of contacting you.

79.3 Choose the correct form of the verb, singular or plural. In three sentences either the singular or plural verb is possible.

1 Gymnastics is / ~~are~~ my favourite sport. (is *is correct*)
2 My new glasses doesn't / don't fit very well.
3 The police want / wants to interview two men about the robbery.
4 Physics was / were my favourite subject at school.
5 It's a nice place to visit. The people is / are very friendly.
6 Germany is / are playing Spain tomorrow night. Are you going to watch it?
7 Does / Do the police know how the accident happened?
8 Where do / does your family live?
9 Most people enjoy / enjoys music.
10 I like this cafe. The staff here is / are really friendly and efficient.

79.4 Complete the sentences. Use is or isn't, and choose from the box.

1 Three years ...is a long time... to be without a job.
2 Thirty degrees ..... for Tom. He doesn't like hot weather.
3 Ten dollars ..... . We need more than that.
4 Four days ..... for a holiday. You need at least a week.
5 Twenty kilos ..... . Are you sure you can manage?

a lot to carry
enough money
too hot
long enough
~~**a long time**~~

79.5 Are these sentences OK? Correct them where necessary.

1 Three years are a long time to be without a job. ...Three years is a long time...
2 The committee want to change the rules of the club. ...OK (wants *is also correct*)...
3 Susan was wearing a black jeans. .....
4 I like Martin and Jane. They're very nice persons. .....
5 I'm going to buy some new pyjamas. .....
6 There was a police directing traffic in the street. .....
7 This scissors isn't very sharp. .....
8 The company have decided to open a new factory. .....
9 This plant is very rare species. .....
10 Twelve hours are a long time to be on a plane. .....

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Unit 80

Noun + noun (a **bus driver** / a **headache**)

A

You can use two nouns together (*noun* + *noun*) to mean *one* thing/person/idea etc. :

a **bus driver** **income tax** the **city centre** an **apple tree**

The first noun is like an adjective. It tells us what kind of thing/person/idea etc. :

a **bus driver** = the driver of a bus
income tax = tax that you pay on your income
the **city centre** = the centre of the city
an **apple tree** = a tree that has apples
a **Paris hotel** = a hotel in Paris
my **life story** = the story of my life

So you can say:

a **television** camera a **television** programme a **television** studio a **television** producer
(things or people to do with television)
language **problems** marriage **problems** health **problems** work **problems**
(different kinds of problems)

Sometimes the first word ends in -**ing**:

a **frying** pan (= a pan for frying)
a **washing** machine
a **swimming** pool

B

Sometimes there are more than two nouns together:

- I waited at the **hotel reception desk**.
- We watched the **World Swimming Championships** on TV.
- If you want to play table tennis (= a game), you need **a table tennis table** (= a table).

C

When two nouns are together like this, sometimes we write them as one word and sometimes as two separate words. For example:

a **headache** **toothpaste** a **weekend** a **car park** a **road sign**

There are no clear rules for this. If you are not sure, write two words.

D

Note the difference between:

a **coffee cup** (maybe empty) and a **cup of coffee** (= a cup with coffee in it)
a **shopping bag** (maybe empty) and a **bag of shopping** (= a bag full of shopping)

E

When we use *noun* + *noun*, the first noun is like an *adjective*. It is normally singular, but the meaning is often plural.
For example: a **car park** is a place to park **cars**, an **apple tree** is a tree that has **apples**.

In the same way we say:

a **three-hour** journey (= a journey that takes three **hours**)
a **ten-pound** note (= a note with the value of ten **pounds**)
a **four-week** course
a **six-mile** walk
two **14-year**-old girls

Compare:

- It was **a** four-**week** course. (*not* a four weeks course)

but The course lasted four **weeks**.

>> **-'s** and **of** … ➜ **Unit 81** **a week's holiday** / **three weeks' holiday** etc. ➜ **Unit 81E**

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Exercises

80.1 What do we call these things and people?

1 Someone who drives a bus is a bus driver.
2 Problems concerning health are health problems.
3 A ticket to travel by train is a ....
4 A machine you use to get a ticket is a ....
5 The staff at a hotel are the ....
6 The results of your exams are your ....
7 A horse that runs in races is a ....
8 A race for horses is a ....
9 Shoes for running are ....
10 A shop that sells shoes is a ....
11 The window of a shop is a ....
12 A person who cleans windows is a ....
13 A scandal involving a construction company is ....
14 Workers at a car factory are ....
15 A scheme for the improvement of a road is a ....
16 A department store in New York is a ....

80.2 Answer the questions using two of the following words each time:

~~accident~~	belt	birthday	card	credit	driver
forecast	machine	number	party	ring	~~road~~
room	seat	truck	washing	weather	wedding

1 This could be caused by bad driving. a road accident
2 You should wear this when you're driving. a ....
3 You can use this to pay for things. a ....
4 This will tell you if it's going to rain or not. the ....
5 This is useful if you have a lot of dirty clothes. a ....
6 This is something you might wear if you're married. a ....
7 If you're staying at a hotel, you need to remember this. your ....
8 This is a way to celebrate getting older. a ....
9 This person transports things by road. a ....

80.3 Put the words in the right order.

1 I spilt coffee on the living room carpet. (room / carpet / living)
2 Jack likes sport. He plays for his .... (team / school / football)
3 Anna works for a .... (company / production / film)
4 Many people invest in a .... (life / policy / insurance)
5 You can get a map at the .... (information / office / tourist)

80.4 Which is correct?

1 It's quite a big book. There are more than ~~500 page~~ / 500 pages. (500 pages *is correct*)
2 It's only a two-hour / two hours flight from London to Madrid.
3 It took only two hour / two hours to fly to Madrid.
4 I don't have any change. I only have a twenty-pound / twenty pounds note.
5 I looked down and there were two ten-pound / ten pounds notes on the ground.
6 At work in the morning we usually have a 15-minute / 15 minutes break for coffee.
7 There are 60-minute / 60 minutes in an hour.
8 My office is on the tenth floor of a twelve-storey / twelve storeys building.
9 I work five-day / five days a week. Saturday and Sunday are free.
10 Five-star / Five stars hotels are the most expensive.
11 Sam's daughter is six-year-old / six years old.
12 Sam has a six-year-old / six-years-old daughter.

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Unit 81

-'s (your sister's name) and of ... (the name of the book)

A

We use -**'s** (*apostrophe* + **s**) mostly for people or animals:

- **Tom's** computer isn't working. (*not* the computer of Tom)
- How old are **Chris's** children? (*not* the children of Chris)
- What's (= What is) **your sister's** name?
- What's **Tom's sister's** name?
- Be careful. Don't step on **the cat's** tail.

You can use -**'s** without a noun after it:

- This isn't my book. It's **my sister's**. (= my sister's book)

We do not use -**'s** after a long group of words. So we say:

my friend's mother
but the mother **of the man we met yesterday** (*not* the man we met yesterday's mother)

Note that we say **a woman's hat** (= a hat for a woman), **a boy's name** (= a name for a boy), **a bird's egg** (= an egg laid by a bird) etc.

B

With a *singular* noun we use -**'s**:

my **sister's** room (= **her** room – *one sister*)
Mr Carter's house (= **his** house)

With a *plural* noun (sister**s**, friend**s** etc.) we put an apostrophe (**'**) after **s**:

my sisters' room (= **their** room – *two or more* sisters)
the Carters' house (= **their** house – *Mr and Mrs Carter*)

If a plural noun does not end in -**s** (for example **men**/**women**/**children**/**people**) we use -**'s**:

the **men's** changing room a **children's** book (= a book for children)

You can use -**'s** after more than one noun:

Jack and Karen's children **Mr and Mrs Carter's** house

C

For things, ideas etc., we normally use **of**:

the temperature **of the water** (*not* the water's temperature)
the name **of the book** the owner **of the restaurant**

We say **the beginning**/**end**/**middle of** ... / **the top**/**bottom of** ... / **the front**/**back**/**side of** ... :

the beginning of the month (*not* the month's beginning)
the top of the hill **the back of** the car

D

You can usually use -**'s** or **of** ... for an organisation (= a group of people). So you can say:

the government's decision *or* the decision **of the government**
the company's success *or* the success **of the company**

We also use -**'s** for places. So you can say:

the city's streets **the world's** population **Italy's** prime minister

E

We use -**'s** with time words (**yesterday** / **next week** etc.):

- Do you still have **yesterday's** newspaper?
- **Next week's** meeting has been cancelled.

In the same way, you can say **today's** / **tomorrow's** / **this evening's** / **Monday's** etc.

We also use -**'s** (or -**s'** with plural words) with periods of time:

- I've got **a week's holiday** starting on Monday.
- Julia has got **three weeks' holiday**.
- I live near the station – it's only **ten minutes' walk**.

>> Noun + noun (a **bus driver**) ➜ **Unit 80** a **three-hour** journey, a **ten-pound** note ➜ **Unit 80E**
-**'s** (= **is** or **has**) in short forms ➜ **Appendix 5.2**

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Exercises

81.1 In some of these sentences, it is more natural to use -'s or -'. Change the underlined parts where necessary.

1 Who is the owner of this restaurant? ....OK....
2 How old are the children of Chris? ....Chris's children....
3 Is this the umbrella of your friend? .....
4 Write your name at the top of the page. .....
5 I've never met the daughter of James. .....
6 How old is the son of Helen and Andy? .....
7 We don't know the cause of the problem. .....
8 I don't know the words of this song. .....
9 The friends of your children are here. .....
10 What is the cost of a new washing machine? .....
11 The garden of our neighbours is very small. .....
12 The hair of David is very long. .....
13 I work on the ground floor of the building. .....
14 I couldn't go to the party of my best friend. .....
15 George is the brother of somebody I knew at college. .....
16 Have you seen the car of the parents of Ben? .....
17 What is the meaning of this expression? .....
18 Do you agree with the policy of the government? .....

81.2 Which is right?

1 Don't step on the ....cat's.... tail. (cat / cat's / cats')
2 It's my ..... birthday tomorrow. (father / father's / fathers')
3 Those ..... look nice. Shall we buy some? (apples / apple's / apples')
4 ..... clothes are expensive. (Children / Children's / Childrens')
5 Zurich is ..... largest city. (Switzerland / Switzerland's / Switzerlands')
6 Your ..... parents are your grandparents. (parents / parent's / parents')
7 I took a lot of ..... when I was on holiday. (photos / photo's / photos')
8 This isn't my coat. It's ..... . (someone else / someone else's / someone elses')
9 Have you read any of ..... poems? (Shakespeare / Shakespeare's / Shakespeares')

81.3 Read each sentence and write a new sentence beginning with the underlined words.

1 The meeting tomorrow has been cancelled.
....Tomorrow's meeting has been cancelled.....
2 The storm last week caused a lot of damage.
Last .....
3 The only cinema in the town has closed down.
The .....
4 The weather in Britain is very changeable.
.....
5 Tourism is the main industry in the region.
.....

81.4 Use the information given to complete the sentences.

1 If I leave my house at 9 o'clock and drive to the airport, I arrive at about 11.
So it's about ....two hours' drive.... from my house to the airport. (drive)
2 If I leave my house at 8.40 and walk to the centre, I get there at 9 o'clock.
So it's ..... from my house to the centre. (walk)
3 I'm going on holiday on the 12th. I have to be back at work on the 26th.
So I've got ..... . (holiday)
4 I went to sleep at 3 o'clock this morning and woke up an hour later. After that I couldn't sleep.
So last night I only had ..... . (sleep)

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Unit 82

myself/yourself/themselves etc.

A Study this example:

Steve **introduced himself** to the other guests.

We use **myself**/**yourself**/**himself** etc. (*reflexive pronouns*) when the *subject* and *object* are the same:

Steve introduced himself
subject *object*

The reflexive pronouns are:

singular (-**self**)	my**self**	your**self** *(one person)*	him**self**/her**self**/it**self**
plural (-**selves**)	our**selves**	your**selves** *(more than one)*	them**selves**

- I don't want you to pay for me. **I**'ll pay for **myself**. (*not* I'll pay for me)
- Amy had a great holiday. **She** really enjoyed **herself**.
- Do **you** talk to **yourself** sometimes? *(said to one person)*
- If you want more to eat, help **yourselves**. *(said to more than one person)*

Compare:
- **Lisa** introduced **me** to the other guests.
- **I** introduced **myself** to the other guests.

B We do not use **myself** etc. after **feel**/**relax**/**concentrate**/**meet**:
- I **feel** nervous. I can't **relax**.
- You need to **concentrate**. (*not* concentrate yourself)
- What time shall we **meet** tomorrow?

Normally we do not use **myself** etc. after **wash**/**shave**/**dress**:
- He got up, **washed**, **shaved** and **dressed**. (*not* washed himself etc.)

You can also say **get dressed** (He **got dressed**).

C Compare -**selves** and **each other**:
- Kate and Joe stood in front of the mirror and looked at **themselves**.
  (= *Kate and Joe together* looked at *Kate and Joe*)
- Kate looked at Joe, and Joe looked at Kate. They looked at **each other**.

themselves

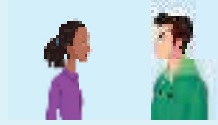
each other

You can use **one another** instead of **each other**:
- How long have you and Ben known **each other**? *or* ... known **one another**?
- Sue and Alice don't like **each other**. *or* ... don't like **one another**.
- Do they live near **each other**? *or* ... near **one another**?

D We also use **myself**/**yourself** etc. in another way. For example:
- 'Who repaired your bike?' '**I** repaired it **myself**.'

I repaired it myself = I repaired it, not another person. Here, **myself** is used to emphasise 'I' (= it makes it stronger). Some more examples:
- I'm not going to do your work for you. **You** can do it **yourself**. (= you, not me)
- **Let's** paint the house **ourselves**. It will be much cheaper.
- **The film itself** wasn't very good, but I loved the music.
- I don't think Lisa will get the job she applied for. **Lisa** doesn't think so **herself**. *or* **Lisa herself** doesn't think so.

>> **get dressed** / **get married** etc. ➜ **Unit 44D** **by myself** / **by yourself** etc. ➜ **Unit 83D**

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Exercises

82.1 **Complete the sentences using myself/yourself etc. + these verbs (in the correct form):**

blame burn enjoy express hurt ~~introduce~~ put

1 Steve ...introduced himself... to the other guests at the party.
2 Ben fell down some steps, but fortunately he didn't .....
3 It isn't Sue's fault. She really shouldn't .....
4 Please try and understand how I feel. You have to ..... in my position.
5 The children had a great time at the beach. They really .....
6 Be careful! That pan is hot. Don't .....
7 Sometimes I can't say exactly what I mean. I wish I could ..... better.

82.2 **Put in myself/yourself/ourselves etc. or me/you/us etc.**

1 Amy had a great holiday. She enjoyed ...herself... .
2 It's not my fault. You can't blame ..... .
3 What I did was really bad. I'm ashamed of ..... .
4 We have a problem. I hope you can help ..... .
5 'Can I take another biscuit?' 'Of course. Help .....!'
6 I want you to meet Sarah. I'll introduce ..... to her.
7 Don't worry about us. We can take care of ..... .
8 Don't worry about the children. I'll take care of ..... .
9 I gave them a key to our house so that they could let ..... in.

82.3 **Complete these sentences. Use myself/yourself etc. where necessary. Choose from:**

concentrate defend dry ~~enjoy~~ feel meet relax ~~shave~~

1 Neil grew a beard because he was fed up with ...shaving... .
2 Amy had a great holiday. She ...enjoyed herself... .
3 I wasn't very well yesterday, but I ..... much better today.
4 I climbed out of the swimming pool and ..... with a towel.
5 I tried to study, but I couldn't ..... .
6 If somebody attacks you, you have the right to ..... .
7 I'm going out with Chris this evening. We're ..... at 7.30.
8 You're always rushing. Why don't you sit down and .....?

82.4 **Complete the sentences with ourselves/themselves or each other.**

1 How long have you and Ben known ...each other... ?
2 If people work too hard, they can make ..... ill.
3 I need you and you need me. We need ..... .
4 In Britain friends often give ..... presents at Christmas.
5 Some people are selfish. They only think of ..... .
6 Tracy and I don't see ..... very often these days.
7 We couldn't get back into the house. We had locked ..... out.
8 They've had an argument. Now they're not speaking to ..... .
9 We'd never met before, so we introduced ..... to ..... .

82.5 **Complete the sentences using myself/yourself etc. Use the verb in brackets.**

1 'Who repaired the bike for you?' 'Nobody. I ...repaired it myself...' (repair)
2 I didn't buy this cake from a shop. I ..... (make)
3 'Who told you Laura was going away?' 'Laura .....' (tell)
4 I don't know what they're going to do. I don't think they ..... (know)
5 'Who cuts Paul's hair for him?' 'Nobody. He .....' (cut)
6 'Can you phone Sam for me?' 'Why can't you .....?' (do)

➜ **Additional exercise 30** (page 320)

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Unit 83

a friend **of mine** **my own** house **on my own / by myself**

A **a friend of mine** / **a friend of yours** etc.

We say '(a friend) **of mine**/**yours**/**his**/**hers**/**ours**/**theirs**'.
A friend of mine = one of my friends:

- I'm going to a wedding on Saturday. **A friend of mine** is getting married. (*not* a friend of me)
- We went on holiday with **some friends of ours**. (*not* some friends of us)
- Harry had an argument with **a neighbour of his**.
- It was **a good idea of yours** to go to the cinema.

In the same way we say '(a friend) **of my sister's** / (a friend) **of Tom's**' etc. :

- That woman over there is **a friend of my sister's**. (= one of my sister's friends)
- It was **a good idea of Tom's** to go to the cinema.

B **my own** . . . / **your own** . . . etc.

We say **my own** / **your own** / **her own** . . . etc. :
my own house **your own** car **her own** room
(*not* an own house, an own car etc.)

my own . . . / **your own** . . . etc. = something that is only mine/yours, not shared or borrowed:

- I don't want to share a room with anybody. I want **my own room**.
- Vicky and Gary would like to have **their own house**.
- It's a shame that the apartment hasn't got **its own parking space**.
- It's **my own fault** that I have no money. I buy too many things I don't need.
- Why do you want to borrow my car? Why don't you use **your own**? (= your own car)

You can also say 'a room **of my own**', 'a house **of your own**', 'problems **of his own**' etc. :

- I'd like to have a room **of my own**.
- He won't be able to help you with your problems. He has too many problems **of his own**.

C He cuts **his own** hair

We also use **own** to say that we do something ourselves instead of somebody else doing it for us. For example:

- Paul usually cuts **his own hair**.
  (= he cuts it himself)
- I'd like to have a garden so that I could grow **my own vegetables**.
  (= grow them myself instead of buying them from shops)

D **on my own** / **by myself**

On my own and **by myself** both mean 'alone'. So you can say:

on { my / your / his / her / its / our / their } **own** *or* **by** { myself / yourself *(singular)* / himself / herself / itself / ourselves / yourselves *(plural)* / themselves }

- I like living **on my own**. *or* I like living **by myself**.
- Some people prefer to live **on their own**. *or* . . . live **by themselves**.
- Jack was sitting **on his own** in a corner of the cafe. *or* Jack was sitting **by himself** . . .
- Did you go on holiday **on your own**? *or* Did you go on holiday **by yourself**?

>> **myself/yourself/themselves** etc. ➜ **Unit 82**

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Exercises

83.1 **Change the underlined words and use the structure ... of mine/yours etc.**

1 I'm meeting one of my friends tonight. — I'm meeting a friend of mine tonight.
2 We met one of your relatives. — We met a .....
3 Jason borrowed one of my books. — Jason borrowed .....
4 I met Lisa and some of her friends. — I met Lisa and .....
5 We had dinner with one of our neighbours. — We had dinner with .....
6 I went on holiday with two of my friends. — I went on holiday with .....
7 I met one of Amy's friends at the party. — I met ..... at the party.
8 It's always been one of my ambitions to travel round the world. — It's always been ..... to travel round the world.

83.2 **Complete the sentences using my own / our own etc. + the following:**

~~bathroom~~ business opinions private beach words

1 I share a kitchen, but I have my own bathroom.
2 Gary doesn't think like me. He has .....
3 Julia doesn't want to work for other people. She wants to start .....
4 In the test we had to read a story, and then write it in .....
5 We stayed at a luxury hotel by the sea. The hotel had .....

83.3 **Complete the sentences using my own / your own etc.**

1 Why do you need to borrow my car? Why don't you use your own car?
2 How can you blame me? It's not my fault. It's .....
3 She's always using my ideas. Why can't she use .....?
4 Please don't worry about my problems. I'm sure you have .....
5 I can't make his decisions for him. He has to make .....

83.4 **Complete the sentences using my own / your own etc. Use the verbs in brackets.**

1 Paul never goes to a barber. He cuts his own hair. (cut)
2 Helen doesn't often buy clothes. She likes to ..... (make)
3 I'm not going to clean your shoes. You can ..... (clean)
4 We don't often buy bread. We usually ..... (bake)
5 Jack and Joe are singers. They sing songs written by other people, but they also ..... (write)

83.5 **Complete the sentences using my own / your own etc. or myself/yourself etc.**

1 Did you go on holiday on your own?
2 The box was too heavy for me to lift by .....
3 We had no help decorating the apartment. We did it completely on .....
4 Very young children should not go swimming by .....
5 'Who was Tom with when you saw him?' 'Nobody. He was by .....'
6 I don't like strawberries with cream. I like them on .....
7 Do you like working with other people or do you prefer working by .....?
8 I went out with Sally because she didn't want to go out on .....

83.6 **Are these sentences OK? Correct them where necessary.**

1 Katherine would like to have the own house. — ... to have her own house.
2 Sam and Chris are colleagues of me. — .....
3 I was scared. I didn't want to go out by my own. — .....
4 In my last job I had own office. — .....
5 He must be lonely. He's always with himself. — .....
6 My parents have gone away with some friends of them. — .....
7 Are there any countries that produce all own food? — .....

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Unit 84

there … and it …

A Study this example:

We use **there** … when we talk about something for the first time, to say that it exists:

- **There's** a new restaurant in Hill Street.
- I'm sorry I'm late. **There was** a lot of traffic. (*not* It was a lot of traffic)
- Things are very expensive now. **There has been** a big rise in the cost of living.

It = a specific thing, place, fact, situation etc. :

- We went to the new restaurant. **It's** very good. (**It** = the restaurant)
- I wasn't expecting her to call me. **It** was a complete surprise. (**It** = that she called)

Compare **there** and **it**:

- I like this town. **There**'s a lot to do here. **It**'s an interesting place.

There also means 'to/at/in that place':

- The house is unoccupied. There's nobody living **there**. (= in the house)

B You can say:

there will be **there must be** **there might be** etc.	**there must have been** **there should have been** **there would have been** etc.	**there is sure to be** **there is bound to be** **there is going to be**	**there is likely to be** **there is supposed to be** **there used to be**

- '**Is there** a flight to Rome tonight?' '**There might be**. I'll check online.'
- If people drove more carefully, **there wouldn't be** so many accidents.
- I could hear music coming from the house. **There must have been** somebody at home.
- **There's bound to be** a cafe somewhere near here. (= There's **sure** to be …)

Compare **there** and **it**:

- They live on a busy road. **There must be** a lot of noise from the traffic.
  They live on a busy road. **It must be** very noisy. (**It** = living on a busy road)
- **There used to be** a cinema here, but it closed a few years ago.
  That building is now a supermarket. **It used to be** a cinema. (**It** = that building)
- **There's sure to be** a flight to Rome tonight.
  There's a flight to Rome tonight, but **it's sure to be** full. (**it** = the flight)

C We say:

- **It**'s dangerous **to walk in the road**. (*not* To walk in the road is dangerous)

Normally we use **It** … at the beginning of sentences like this. Some more examples:

- **It** didn't take us long **to get** here.
- **It**'s a shame (**that**) **you can't come to the party**.
- **It**'s not worth **waiting any longer**. Let's go.

We also use **it** to talk about distance, time and weather:

- **How far is it** from here to the airport?
- **It's a long time** since we last saw you.

Compare **it** and **there**:

- **It** was **windy**. *but* **There** was **a cold wind**.

>> **supposed to** … ➜ **Unit 45B** **it's worth** / **it's no use** / **there's no point** ➜ **Unit 63A**
sure to / **bound to** … etc. ➜ **Unit 65E** **there is** + **-ing**/**-ed** ➜ **Unit 97**

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Exercises

84.1 **Put in there is/was or it is/was. Some sentences are questions (is there … ? / was it … ? etc.) and some are negative (there isn't / it wasn't etc.).**

1 The journey took a long time. There was a lot of traffic.
2 What's the new restaurant like? Is it good?
3 ..... something wrong with the washing machine. It's not working properly.
4 I wanted to visit the museum yesterday, but ..... enough time.
5 What's that new building over there? ..... a hotel?
6 How can we get across the river? ..... a bridge?
7 A few days ago ..... a big storm, which caused a lot of damage.
8 I can't find my phone. ..... in my bag – I just looked.
9 ..... anything interesting on TV, so I turned it off.
10 ..... often very cold here, but ..... much snow.
11 I couldn't see anything. ..... completely dark.
12 '..... a bookshop near here?' 'Yes, ... one in Hudson Street.'
13 ..... difficult to get a job right now. ..... a lot of unemployment.
14 When we got to the cinema, ... a queue outside. ..... a very long queue, so we decided not to wait.

84.2 **Read the first sentence and then write a sentence beginning There … .**

1 The roads were busy yesterday. There was a lot of traffic.
2 This soup is very salty. There ..... in the soup.
3 The box was empty. ..... in the box.
4 About 50 people came to the meeting. ..... at the meeting.
5 The film is very violent. .....
6 I like this town – it's lively. .....

84.3 **Complete the sentences. Use there would be, there used to be etc. Choose from:**

won't **may** ~~**would**~~ **wouldn't** **should** **used to** **is going to**

1 If people drove more carefully, there would be fewer accidents.
2 'Do we have any eggs?' 'I'm not sure. ..... some in the fridge.'
3 I think everything will be OK. ..... any problems.
4 Look at those clouds. ..... a storm. I'm sure of it.
5 There isn't a school in the village. ..... one, but it closed a few years ago.
6 People drive too fast on this road. I think ..... a speed limit.
7 If people weren't so aggressive, ... any wars.

84.4 **Are these sentences OK? Change it to there where necessary.**

1 They live on a busy road. It must be a lot of noise. There must be a lot of noise.
2 It's a long way from my house to the nearest shop. OK
3 After the lecture it will be an opportunity to ask questions. .....
4 Why was she so unfriendly? It must have been a reason. .....
5 I like where I live, but it would be nicer to live by the sea. .....
6 How long is it since you last went to the theatre? .....
7 It used to be a lot of tourists here, but not many come now. .....
8 My phone won't work here. It's no signal. .....
9 It was Ken's birthday yesterday. We had a party. .....
10 We won't have any problem parking the car. It's sure to be a car park somewhere. .....
11 I'm sorry about what happened. It was my fault. .....
12 I was told that it would be somebody to meet me at the station, but it wasn't anybody. .....

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Unit 85

some and any

A

In general we use **some** (*also* **somebody**/**someone**/**something**) in positive sentences and **any** (*also* **anybody** etc.) in negative sentences:

some	**any**
We **bought some** flowers.	We **didn't** buy **any** flowers.
He's busy. He **has some** work to do.	He's lazy. He **never** does **any** work.
There**'s somebody** at the door.	There **isn't anybody** at the door.
I **want something** to eat.	I **don't** want **anything** to eat.

We use **any** in the following sentences because the meaning is negative:

- She went out **without any** money. (she **didn't** take **any** money with her)
- He **refused** to eat **anything**. (he **didn't** eat **anything**)
- It's a very easy exam. **Hardly anybody** fails. (= almost **nobody** fails)

B

We use both **some** and **any** in questions. We use **some**/**somebody**/**something** to talk about a person or thing that we know exists, or we think exists:

- Are you waiting for **somebody**? (I think you are waiting for somebody)

We use **some** in questions when we ask for or offer things:

- Can I have **some** sugar, please? (there is probably some sugar that I can have)
- Would you like **something** to eat? (there is something to eat)

But in most questions, we use **any**. We do not know if the thing or person exists:

- Do you have **any** luggage? (maybe you do, maybe not)
- Is there **anybody** in the house? (maybe there is, maybe not)

C

You can use **if** + **any**:

- Let me know **if** you need **anything**.
- **If anyone** has **any** questions, I'll be pleased to answer them.

The following sentences have the idea of **if**:

- I'm sorry for **any** trouble I've caused. (= **if** I have caused **any** trouble)
- The police want to speak to **anyone** who saw the accident. (= **if** there is **anyone**)

D

We also use **any** with the meaning 'it doesn't matter which':

- You can take **any** bus. They all go to the centre. (= it doesn't matter which bus you take)
- Come and see me **any** time you want.

We use **anybody**/**anyone**/**anything**/**anywhere** in the same way:

- We forgot to lock the door. **Anybody** could have come in.

Compare **some**- and **any**-:

- A: I'm hungry. I want **something** to eat.
  B: What would you like?
  A: I don't mind. **Anything**. (= it doesn't matter what)
- B: Let's go out **somewhere**.
  A: Where shall we go?
  B: **Anywhere**. I just want to go out.

E

Somebody/**someone**/**anybody**/**anyone** are singular words:

- **Someone** is here to see you.

But we use **they**/**them**/**their** after these words:

- **Someone** has forgotten **their** umbrella. (= his or her umbrella)
- If **anybody** wants to leave early, **they** can. (= he or she can)

>> not … any ➜ Unit 86 some of / any of … ➜ Unit 88 hardly any ➜ Unit 101C

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Exercises

85.1 Put in some or any.

1 We didn't buy ....any.... flowers.
2 Tonight I'm going out with ..... friends of mine.
3 Have you seen ..... good movies recently?
4 I'd like ..... information about what there is to see in this town.
5 I didn't have ..... money. I had to borrow ..... .
6 You can use your card to withdraw money at ..... cash machine.
7 Those apples look nice. Shall we get ..... ?
8 With the special tourist train ticket, you can travel on ..... train you like.
9 'Can I have ..... more coffee, please?' 'Sure. Help yourself.'
10 If there are ..... words you don't understand, look them up in a dictionary.
11 We wanted to buy ..... grapes, but they didn't have ..... in the shop.

85.2 Complete the sentences with some- or any- + -body/-thing/-where.

1 I was too surprised to say ....anything.... .
2 There's ..... at the door. Can you go and see who it is?
3 Does ..... mind if I open the window?
4 I can't drive and I don't know ..... about cars.
5 You must be hungry. Why don't I get you ..... to eat?
6 Emma is very tolerant. She never complains about ..... .
7 There was hardly ..... on the beach. It was almost deserted.
8 Let's go away. Let's go ..... warm and sunny.
9 I'm going out now. If ..... asks where I am, tell them you don't know.
10 Why are you looking under the bed? Have you lost ..... ?
11 This is a no-parking area. ..... who parks their car here will have to pay a fine.
12 Quick, let's go! There's ..... coming and I don't want ..... to see us.
13 They stay at home all the time. They never seem to go ..... .
14 Jonathan stood up and left the room without saying ..... .
15 'Can I ask you ..... ?' 'Sure. What do you want to ask?'
16 Sarah was upset about ..... and refused to talk to ..... .
17 I need ..... to translate. Is there ..... here who speaks English?
18 Sue is very secretive. She never tells .... (*2 words*)

85.3 Complete the sentences. Use any (+ noun) or anybody/anything/anywhere.

1 Which bus do I have to take? ....Any bus.... . They all go to the centre.

2 When shall we meet? Monday? I don't mind. ..... next week will be OK for me.

3 What do you want to eat? ..... . I don't mind. Whatever you have.

4 Who shall I invite to the party? It's your party. You can invite ..... you want.

5 What sort of job are you looking for? ..... . It doesn't matter what it is.

6 Where shall I sit? It's up to you. You can sit ..... you like.

7 Is this machine difficult to use? No, it's easy. ..... can learn to use it very quickly.

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Unit 86 no/none/any nothing/nobody etc.

A **no** and **none**

We use **no** + *noun* (**no bus**, **no shops** etc.).
no = **not a** or **not any**:

- We had to walk home. There was **no bus**. (= There **wasn't a** bus.)
- Sarah will have **no trouble** finding a job. (= Sarah **won't** have **any** trouble . . .)
- There were **no shops** open. (= There **weren't any** shops open.)

You can use **no** + *noun* at the beginning of a sentence:

- **No reason** was given for the change of plan.

We use **none** *without* a noun:

- 'How much money do you have?' '**None**.' (= no money)
- All the tickets have been sold. There are **none** left. (= no tickets left)

Or we use **none of** . . . :

- This money is all yours. **None of it** is mine.

Compare **no**, **none** and **any**:

- I have **no luggage**.
- 'How much luggage do you have?' '**None**.' *or* 'I **don't** have **any**.'

After **none of** + *plural* (none of **the students**, none of **them** etc.) the verb can be singular or plural:

- None of the students **were** happy. *or* None of the students **was** happy.

B **nothing** **nobody**/**no-one** **nowhere**

You can use these words at the beginning of a sentence or alone (as answers to questions):

- 'What's going to happen?' '**Nobody** knows. / **No-one** knows.'
- 'What happened?' '**Nothing**.'
- 'Where are you going?' '**Nowhere**. I'm staying here.'

You can also use these words after a verb, especially after **be** and **have**:

- The house is empty. There**'s nobody** living there.
- We **had nothing** to eat.

nothing/**nobody** etc. = **not** + **anything**/**anybody** etc. :

- I said **nothing**. = I **didn't** say **anything**.
- Jane told **nobody** about her plans. = Jane **didn't** tell **anybody** about her plans.
- They have **nowhere** to live. = They **don't** have **anywhere** to live.

With **nothing**/**nobody** etc., we do *not* use a negative verb (**isn't**, **didn't** etc.):

- I **said** nothing. (*not* I didn't say nothing)

C

After **nobody**/**no-one** you can use **they**/**them**/**their** (see also Unit 85E):

- **Nobody** is perfect, are **they**? (= is he or she perfect?)
- **No-one** did what I asked **them** to do. (= him or her)
- **Nobody** in the class did **their** homework. (= his or her homework)

D

Sometimes **any**/**anything**/**anybody** etc. means 'it doesn't matter which/what/who' (see Unit 85D).
Compare **no**- and **any**-:

- There was **no** bus, so we walked home.
  You can take **any** bus. They all go to the centre. (= it doesn't matter which bus)
- 'What do you want to eat?' '**Nothing**. I'm not hungry.'
  I'm so hungry. I could eat **anything**. (= it doesn't matter what)
- It's a difficult job. **Nobody** wants to do it.
  It's a very easy job. **Anybody** can do it. (= it doesn't matter who)

>> **some** and **any** ➜ **Unit 85** **none of** . . . ➜ **Unit 88** **any bigger** / **no better** etc. ➜ **Unit 106B**

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Exercises

86.1 Complete these sentences with no, none or any.

1 It was a public holiday, so there were ....no.... shops open.
2 I don't have ....any.... money. Can you lend me some?
3 We had to walk home. There were ..... taxis.
4 We had to walk home. There weren't ..... taxis.
5 'How many eggs do we have?' '..... . Shall I get some?'
6 There's nowhere to cross the river. There's ..... bridge.
7 We took a few pictures, but ..... of them were very good.
8 'Did you take lots of pictures?' 'No, I didn't take ..... .'
9 I had to do what I did. I had ..... alternative.
10 I don't like ..... of this furniture. It's horrible.
11 We cancelled the party because ..... of the people we invited were able to come.
12 Everyone knows they are getting married. It's ..... secret.
13 The two books are exactly the same. There isn't ..... difference.
14 'Do you know where Chris is?' 'I'm sorry. I have ..... idea.'

86.2 Answer these questions using none/nobody/nothing/nowhere.

1	What did you do at the weekend?	....Nothing.... . It was very boring.
2	Who are you waiting for?	..... . I'm just standing here.
3	How much bread did you buy?	..... . We already have enough.
4	Where are you going?	..... . I'm staying here.
5	How many books have you read this year?	..... . I don't read books.
6	How much does it cost to get into the museum?	..... . It's free.

Now answer the same questions using any/anybody/anything/anywhere.

7 (1) ....I didn't do anything.....
8 (2) I'm .....
9 (3) I .....
10 (4) .....
11 (5) .....
12 (6) .....

86.3 Complete these sentences with no- or any- + -body/-thing/-where.

1 I don't want ....anything.... to drink. I'm not thirsty.
2 The bus was completely empty. There was ..... on it.
3 'Where did you go for your holidays?' '..... . I didn't go away.'
4 'Can you smell gas?' 'No, I can't smell ..... .'
5 Everybody seemed satisfied. ..... complained.
6 Let's go away. We can go ..... you like.
7 The town is still the same as it was years ago. ..... has changed.
8 'What did you buy?' '..... . I couldn't find ..... I wanted.'
9 There was complete silence in the room. ..... said ..... .

86.4 Which is right?

1 She didn't tell ~~nobody~~ / anybody about her plans. (anybody *is correct*)
2 The accident looked bad, but fortunately nobody / anybody was seriously injured.
3 I looked out of the window, but I couldn't see no-one / anyone.
4 The exam is very easy. Nobody / Anybody can pass it.
5 'What's in that box?' 'Nothing / Anything. It's empty.'
6 The future is uncertain. Nothing / Anything is possible.
7 I don't know nothing / anything about economics.
8 I'll try and answer no / any questions you ask me.
9 'Who were you talking to just now?' 'No-one / Anyone. I wasn't talking to no-one / anyone.'

➜ **Additional exercise 30** (page 320)

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Unit 87

much, many, little, few, a lot, plenty

A

We use **much** and **little** with *uncountable* nouns:

much luck **much time** **little energy** **little money**

We use **many** and **few** with *plural* nouns:

many friends **many people** **few cars** **few children**

We use **a lot of** / **lots of** / **plenty of** with both *uncountable* and *plural* nouns:

a lot of luck **lots of time** **plenty of money**
a lot of friends **lots of people** **plenty of ideas**

plenty = more than enough:

- There's no need to hurry. We've got **plenty of time**.
- There's **plenty to do** in this town.

B

Much is unusual in positive sentences (especially in spoken English). Compare:

- We **didn't** spend **much** money. *but* We **spent a lot of** money.
- **Do** you **see** David **much**? *but* I **see** David **a lot**.

But we use **too much** / **so much** / **as much** in positive sentences:

- We **spent too much** money.

We use **many** and **a lot of** in all kinds of sentences:

- **Many** people drive too fast. *or* **A lot of** people drive too fast.
- Do you know **many** people? *or* Do you know **a lot of** people?
- There aren't **many** tourists here. *or* There aren't **a lot of** tourists here.

Note that we say **many years** / **many weeks** / **many days**:

- We've lived here for **many years**. (*not usually* a lot of years)

C

little = not much, **few** = not many:

- Gary is very busy with his job. He has **little time** for other things.
  (= not much time, less time than he would like)
- Vicky doesn't like living in London. She has **few friends** there.
  (= not many friends, not as many as she would like)

We often use **very little** and **very few**:

- Gary has **very little time** for other things.
- Vicky has **very few friends** in London.

D

a little = some, a small amount:

- Let's go and have coffee. We have **a little** time before the train leaves.
  (**a little time** = some time, enough time to have a coffee)
- 'Do you speak English?' '**A little**.' (so we can talk a bit)

a few = some, a small number:

- I enjoy my life here. I have **a few friends** and we meet quite often.
  (**a few friends** = not many, but enough to have a good time)
- 'When was the last time you saw Clare?' '**A few days** ago.' (= 3 or 4 days ago)

E

Compare **little** and **a little**, **few** and **a few**:

- He spoke **little English**, so it was difficult to communicate with him.
  He spoke **a little English**, so we were able to communicate with him.
- She's lucky. She has **few problems**. (= not many problems)
  Things are not going so well for her. She has **a few problems**. (= some problems)

We say **only a little** (*not* only little) and **only a few** (*not* only few):

- Hurry! We **only** have **a little** time. (= some, but not much time)
- The village was small. There were **only a few** houses. (= some but not many houses)

>> Countable and uncountable ➜ **Units 69–70**

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Exercises

87.1 **In some of these sentences much is incorrect or unnatural. Change much to many or a lot (of) where necessary. Write 'OK' if the sentence is correct.**

1 We didn't eat much. OK
2 My mother drinks much tea. My mother drinks a lot of tea.
3 Be quick. We don't have much time. .....
4 It cost much to repair the car. .....
5 Did it cost much to repair the car? .....
6 You have much luggage. Let me help you. .....
7 There wasn't much traffic this morning. .....
8 I don't know much people in this town. .....
9 Do you eat much fruit? .....
10 Mike likes travelling. He travels much. .....

87.2 **Complete the sentences using plenty of ... or plenty to ... . Choose from:**

hotels **learn** **money** **room** **see** ~~**time**~~

1 There's no need to hurry. There's plenty of time.
2 He has no financial problems. He has .....
3 Come and sit with us. There's .....
4 She knows a lot, but she still has .....
5 It's an interesting town to visit. There .....
6 I'm sure we'll find somewhere to stay. .....

87.3 **Put in much/many/little/few (one word only).**

1 She isn't popular. She has few friends.
2 Anna is very busy these days. She has ..... free time.
3 Did you take ..... pictures at the wedding?
4 This is a modern city. There are ..... old buildings.
5 The weather has been very dry recently. We've had ..... rain.
6 I don't know London well. I haven't been there for ..... years.
7 The two cars are similar. There is ..... difference between them.
8 I'm not very busy today. I don't have ..... to do.
9 It's a wonderful place to live. There are ..... better places to be.

87.4 **Which is right?**

1 She's lucky. She has few problems / ~~a few problems~~. (few problems *is correct*)
2 Can you lend me few dollars / a few dollars?
3 It was the middle of the night, so there was little traffic / a little traffic.
4 They got married few years ago / a few years ago.
5 I can't give you a decision yet. I need little time / a little time to think.
6 I don't know much Russian – only few words / only a few words.
7 It was a surprise that he won the game. Few people / A few people expected him to win.

87.5 **Put in little / a little / few / a few.**

1 Gary is very busy with his job. He has little time for other things.
2 Listen carefully. I'm going to give you ..... advice.
3 Do you mind if I ask you ..... questions?
4 It's not a very interesting place, so ..... tourists visit.
5 I don't think Amy would be a good teacher. She has ..... patience.
6 'Would you like milk in your coffee?' 'Yes, ..., please.'
7 This is a boring place to live. There's ..... to do.
8 I know Hong Kong quite well. I've been there ..... times.
9 There were only ..... people at the meeting.
10 'Did you do all this work on your own?' 'No, I had ..... help from my friends.'

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Unit 88

all / all of most / most of no / none of etc.

A

all	some	any	most	much	many	(a) little	(a) few	no

You can use these words with a noun (**some food** / **few books** etc.):

- **All cars** have wheels.
- **Some cars** can go faster than others.
- **Many people** drive too fast.
- I go away **most weekends**.
- I feel really tired. I've got **no energy**.

We do not say 'all of cars', 'some of people' etc. (see Section B):

- **Some people** learn more easily than others. (*not* Some of people)

B

all	half	some	any	most	much	many	(a) little	(a) few	none

You can use these words with **of** (**some of** / **most of** etc.):

some of	+	**the** …	**my** …
most of		**this** …	**these** …
none of etc.		**that** …	**those** … etc.

So you can say:

some **of the people**, some **of those people** (*but not* some of people)
most **of my time**, most **of the time** (*but not* most of time)

- **Some of the people I work with** are very strange.
- **None of this money** is mine.
- Have you read **any of these books**?
- I was ill yesterday. I spent **most of the day** in bed.

You don't need **of** after **all** or **half**. So you can say:

- **All my friends** live near here. *or* All **of** my friends …
- **Half this money** is mine. *or* Half **of** this money …

Compare:

- **All flowers** are beautiful. (= all flowers in general)
  All (**of**) **these flowers** are beautiful. (= a specific group of flowers)
- **Most problems** have a solution. (= most problems in general)
  We were able to solve **most of the problems we had**. (= a specific group of problems)

C

You can use **all of** / **some of** / **none of** etc. + **it**/**us**/**you**/**them**:

all of	+	**it**
some of		**us**
any of		**you**
most of		**them**
none of etc.		

- A: Do you like this music?
  B: **Some of it**. Not **all of it**.
- A: How many of these people do you know?
  B: **None of them**. / **A few of them**.
- Do **any of you** want to come to a party tonight?
  (said to more than 2 people)

We say: **all of us** / **all of you** / **half of it** / **half of them** etc. You need **of** before **it**/**us**/**you**/**them**:

- **All of us** were late. (*not* all us)
- I haven't finished the book yet. I've only read **half of it**. (*not* half it)

D

We also use **some**/**most** etc. alone, *without* a noun:

- Some cars have four doors and **some** have two.
- A few of the shops were open, but **most** (of them) were closed.
- Half this money is mine, and **half** (of it) is yours. (*not* the half)

>> **all** ➜ **Unit 75B, 90, 110D** **some** and **any** ➜ **Unit 85** **no** and **none** ➜ **Unit 86**
much/**many**/**little**/**few** ➜ **Unit 87** **all of whom** / **most of which** etc. ➜ **Unit 96B**

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Exercises

88.1 Put in of where necessary. Leave the space empty if the sentence is already complete.

1 All ...–... cars have wheels. *(the sentence is already complete)*
2 None ...of... this money is mine.
3 There were problems at the airport and some ..... flights were cancelled.
4 Some ..... the films I've seen recently have been very violent.
5 Joe never goes to museums. He says that all ..... museums are boring.
6 I think some ..... people watch too much TV.
7 Do you want any ..... these magazines or can I throw them away?
8 Kate has lived in London most ..... her life.
9 Joe has lived in Chicago all ..... his life.
10 Most ..... days I get up before 7 o'clock.
11 I usually have a little ..... sugar in my coffee.
12 They won the lottery a few years ago, but they've spent most ..... the money.

88.2 Choose from the list and complete the sentences. Use of (some of / most of etc.) where necessary.

accidents	**European countries**	**my dinner**	**the players**
birds	**her friends**	**my spare time**	**the population**
~~cars~~	**her opinions**	**the buildings**	**~~these books~~**

1 I haven't read many ...of these books... .
2 All ...cars... have wheels.
3 I spend much ..... gardening.
4 Many ..... are caused by bad driving.
5 It's a historic town. Many ..... are over 400 years old.
6 When Emily got married, she kept it a secret. She didn't tell any ..... .
7 Not many people live in the north of the country. Most ..... live in the south.
8 Not all ..... can fly. For example, the penguin can't fly.
9 Our team played badly and lost the game. None ..... played well.
10 Emma and I have different ideas. I don't agree with many ..... .
11 Sarah travels a lot in Europe. She has been to most ..... .
12 I had no appetite. I could only eat half ..... .

88.3 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 The building was damaged in the explosion. All ...the windows... were broken.
2 We argue sometimes, but get on well most of ..... .
3 I went to the cinema by myself. None of ..... wanted to come.
4 The test was hard. I could only answer half ..... .
5 Some of ..... you took at the wedding were really good.
6 'Did you spend all ..... I gave you?' 'No, there's some left.'

88.4 Complete the sentences. Use:

all of / some of / none of + it/them/us (all of it / some of them etc.)

1 These books are all Sarah's. ...None of them... belong to me.
2 'How many of these books have you read?' '..... . Every one.'
3 We all got wet in the rain because ..... had an umbrella.
4 Some of this money is yours and ..... is mine.
5 Many of my friends have travelled a lot, but ..... has ever been to Africa.
6 Not all the tourists in the group were Spanish. ..... were French.
7 I watched most of the film, but not ..... .
8 He told us his life story, but ..... was true. It was all invented.

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Unit 89

both / both of neither / neither of either / either of

A

We use **both**/**neither**/**either** for *two* things.
You can use these words with a *noun* (**both books**, **neither book** etc.).

For example, you are going out to eat. There are two possible restaurants. You say:

- **Both restaurants** are good. (*not* the both restaurants)
- **Neither restaurant** is expensive.
- We can go to **either restaurant**. I don't mind. (= one or the other, it doesn't matter which)
- I haven't been to **either restaurant** before. (= not one or the other)

You can also use **both**/**neither**/**either** without a noun:

- 'Which do you prefer, basketball or tennis?' 'It's hard to say. I like **both**.'
- 'Is your friend British or American?' '**Neither**. She's Australian.'
- 'Do you want tea or coffee?' '**Either**. I don't mind.'

B

both of … / **neither of** … / **either of** …

We use **both of** / **neither of** / **either of** + **the**/**these**/**my**/**Tom's** … etc. So we say 'both of **the** restaurants', 'both of **those** restaurants' etc. (*but not* both of restaurants):

- **Both of these** restaurants are good.
- **Neither of the** restaurants we went to was expensive.
- I haven't been to **either of those** restaurants.

You don't need **of** after **both**. So you can say:

- **Both of these** restaurants are good. *or* **Both these** restaurants are good.

We also use **both of** / **neither of** / **either of** + **us**/**you**/**them**:

- *(talking to two people)* Can **either of you** speak Russian?
- I asked two people how to get to the station, but **neither of them** knew.

We say 'both **of**' before **us**/**you**/**them** (you need to use **of**):

- **Both of us** were tired. (*not* Both us were …)

After **neither of** … a verb can be singular or plural:

- Neither of them **is** at home. *or* Neither of them **are** at home.

C

You can say:

both … **and** …	**Both** Chris **and** Paul were late. I was **both** tired **and** hungry when I arrived home.
neither … **nor** …	**Neither** Chris **nor** Paul came to the party. There was an accident outside our house, but we **neither** saw **nor** heard anything.
either … **or** …	I'm not sure where Maria's from. She's **either** Spanish **or** Italian. **Either** you apologise, **or** I'll never speak to you again.

D

Compare **either**/**neither**/**both** (two things) and **any**/**none**/**all** (more than two):

- There are **two** good hotels here.
  You could stay at **either** of them.
- We tried **two** hotels.
  { **Neither** of them had a room.
  { **Both** of them were full.

- There are **many** good hotels here.
  You could stay at **any** of them.
- We tried **a lot of** hotels.
  { **None** of them had a room.
  { **All** of them were full.

>> neither do I / I don't either ➜ Unit 51C any ➜ Units 85–86 none ➜ Units 86A, 88 all ➜ Unit 88
both of whom / neither of which ➜ Unit 96B both ➜ Unit 110D

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Exercises

89.1 Complete the sentences with both/neither/either.

1 'Do you want tea or coffee?' '...Either...'. I really don't mind.'
2 'What day is it today – the 18th or the 19th?' '.....'. It's the 20th.'
3 A: Where did you go on your trip – Korea or Japan?
B: We went to .....'. A week in Korea and a week in Japan.
4 'Shall we sit in the corner or by the window?' '.....'. I don't mind.'
5 'Where's Lisa? Is she at work or at home?' '.....'. She's away on holiday.'
6 'Is it true that Kate speaks Spanish and Arabic?' 'Yes, she speaks ..... fluently.'

89.2 Complete the sentences with both/neither/either. Use of where necessary.

1 ...Both... my parents are from Egypt.
2 To get to the town centre, you can walk along the river or you can go along the road.
You can go ..... way.
3 I went to Carl's house twice, but ..... times he wasn't at home.
4 ..... Tom's parents is English. His father is Polish and his mother is Italian.
5 I saw an accident this morning. One car drove into the back of another. Fortunately
..... driver was injured, but ..... cars were badly damaged.
6 I have two sisters and a brother. My brother is working, but ..... my sisters are still at school.

89.3 Complete the sentences with both/neither/either + of us / of them.

1 I asked two people how to get to the station, but ...neither of them... knew.
2 I was invited to two parties last week, but I couldn't go to .....
3 There were two windows in the room. It was very warm, so I opened .....
4 Sam and I often play tennis, but we're not very good. ..... can play well.
5 I tried two bookshops for the book I wanted to buy, but ..... had it.

89.4 Write sentences with both ... and ... / neither ... nor ... / either ... or ... .

1 Chris was late. So was Pat. ...Both Chris and Pat were late.
2 He didn't say hello, and he didn't smile. ...He neither said hello nor smiled.
3 It was a boring movie. It was long too.
The movie .....
4 Joe doesn't have a car. Sam doesn't have one either.
.....
5 Emily speaks German and she speaks Russian too.
.....
6 Ben doesn't watch TV and he doesn't read newspapers.
Ben .....
7 Is that man's name Richard? Or is it Robert? It's one of the two.
That man's name .....
8 I don't have time to go on holiday. And I don't have the money.
I have .....
9 We can leave today or we can leave tomorrow – whichever you prefer.
We .....

89.5 Complete the sentences with neither/either/none/any.

1 We tried a lot of hotels, but ...none... of them had a room.
2 Sam has two sisters, but I haven't met ..... of them.
3 Emily has four brothers, but I haven't met ..... of them.
4 There were a few shops in the street, but ..... of them was open.
5 Spain, Italy, Greece, Turkey – have you been to ..... of these countries?
6 I could meet you next Monday or Thursday. Would ..... of those days suit you?
7 Mark and I couldn't get into the house because ..... of us had a key.

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Unit 90

all every whole

A everybody/everyone/everything and all

We say:

- **Everybody** was happy. *or* **Everyone** was happy. (*not* all were happy)
- He thinks he knows **everything**. (*not* knows all)
- Our holiday was a disaster. **Everything** went wrong. (*not* all went wrong)

We do not often use **all** *alone* in this way. We do not say 'all were happy', 'he knows all' etc.

We use **all** in the following ways:

all + noun (**all cars**, **all my money** etc.)	**All my friends** were happy.
all of + **us**/**you**/**them**	**All of us** were happy.
we/**you**/**they** … **all** … (see also Unit 110D)	**We** were **all** happy.
all about …	He knows **all about computers**.
all … = the only thing(s)	**All I've eaten today** is a banana. (= the only thing I've eaten today)

B whole and all

Whole = complete, entire. We use **whole** mostly with *singular* nouns:

- Did you read **the whole book**? (= all the book, not just a part of it)
- Emily has lived **her whole life** in the same town.
- I was so hungry, I ate **a whole packet** of biscuits. (= a complete packet)

We do not normally use **whole** with *uncountable* nouns (**water**, **food**, **money** etc.).
We say:

- Did you spend **all the money** I gave you? (*not* the whole money)
- I read **all the information** carefully. (*not* the whole information)

We use **the**/**my**/**a** etc. before **whole**. Compare **whole** and **all**:

- I read **the whole** book. *but* I read **all the** information.

C every day / all day / the whole day

We use **every** to say how often something happens (**every day** / **every ten minutes** etc.):

- When we were on holiday, we went to the beach **every day**. (*not* all days)
- The bus service is excellent. There's a bus **every ten minutes**.
- We don't see each other very often – about **every six months**.

All day *or* **the whole day** = the complete day from beginning to end:

- We spent **all day** on the beach. *or* We spent **the whole day** …
- Dan was very quiet. He didn't say a word **all evening**. *or* … **the whole evening**.

Note that we say **all day** (*not* all the day), **all week** (*not* all the week) etc.

Compare **all the time** and **every time**:

- They never go out. They are at home **all the time**. (= always, continuously)
- **Every time** I see you, you look different. (= each time, on every occasion)

D

Every/**everybody**/**everyone**/**everything** are *singular* words, so we use a *singular* verb:

- **Every seat** in the theatre **was** taken.
- **Everybody has** arrived. (*not* have arrived)

But we use **they**/**them**/**their** after **everybody**/**everyone**:

- **Everybody** said **they** enjoyed **themselves**. (= everybody enjoyed himself or herself)

>> Countable and uncountable ➜ **Units 69–70** **all** / **all of** ➜ **Unit 88** **each** and **every** ➜ **Unit 91**
every one ➜ **Unit 91D** **all** ➜ **Unit 110C**

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Exercises

90.1 Complete these sentences with all, everything or everybody/everyone.

1 It was a good party. Everybody had a great time.
2 All I've eaten today is a banana.
3 ..... has their faults. Nobody is perfect.
4 Nothing has changed. ..... is the same as it was.
5 Kate told me ..... about her new job. It sounds interesting.
6 Can ..... write their names on a piece of paper, please?
7 Why are you always thinking about money? Money isn't ..... .
8 I'm really exhausted. ..... I want to do is sleep.
9 When the fire alarm rang, ... left the building immediately.
10 Amy didn't say where she was going. ..... she said was that she was going away.
11 We have completely different opinions. I disagree with ..... she says.
12 We all did well in the exam. ..... in our class passed.
13 We all did well in the exam. ..... of us passed.
14 Why are you so lazy? Why do you expect me to do ..... for you?

90.2 Write sentences with whole.

1 I read the book from beginning to end. I read the whole book.
2 Everyone in the team played well.
The .....
3 Paul opened a box of chocolates. He started eating. When he finished, there were no chocolates left in the box. He ate .....
4 The police came to the house. They were looking for something. They searched everywhere, every room. They ..... .
5 Everyone in Ed and Jane's family plays tennis. Ed and Jane play, and so do all their children.
The .....
6 Sarah worked from early in the morning until late in the evening.
.....
7 Jack and Lisa had a week's holiday by the sea. It rained from the beginning of the week to the end of the week. It ..... .

Now write sentences 6 and 7 again using all instead of whole.

8 (6) Sarah .....
9 (7) .....

90.3 Complete these sentences using every with the following:

five minutes **~~ten minutes~~** **four hours** **six months** **four years**

1 The bus service is very good. There's a bus every ten minutes .
2 Tom is ill. He has some medicine. He has to take it ..... .
3 The Olympic Games take place ..... .
4 We live near a busy airport. A plane flies over our house ..... .
5 Martin goes to the dentist for a check-up ..... .

90.4 Which is right?

1 Did you spend ~~the whole money~~ / all the money I gave you? (all the money *is correct*)
2 Eve works every day / all days except Sunday.
3 I'm tired. I've been working hard all the day / all day.
4 It was a terrible fire. Whole building / The whole building was destroyed.
5 It's a very sad song. Every time / All the time I hear it, it makes me cry.
6 I don't like the weather here. It rains every time / all the time.
7 When I was on holiday, all my luggage / my whole luggage was stolen.

➜ **Additional exercise 30** (page 320)

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Unit 91

each and every

A

Each and **every** are similar. Often it is possible to use **each** or **every**:

- **Each** time I see you, you look different. *or* **Every** time I see you . . .

But **each** and **every** are not exactly the same.

We use **each** when we think of things separately, one by one.

- Study **each sentence** carefully. (= study the sentences one by one)

each = X + X + X + X

Each is more usual for a small number:

- There were four books on the table. **Each book** was a different colour.
- *(in a card game)* At the beginning of the game, **each player** has three cards.

We use **every** when we think of things as a group. The meaning is similar to **all**.

- **Every window** in the house was open. (= all the windows in the house)

every =

Every is more usual for a large number:

- Kate loves reading. She has read **every book** in the library. (= all the books)
- I'd like to visit **every country** in the world. (= all the countries)

Each (but not **every**) can be used for two things:

- In football, **each team** has eleven players. (*not* every team)

We use **every** (not **each**) to say how often something happens:

- 'How often do you use your car?' '**Every day**.' (*not* Each day)
- There's a bus **every ten minutes**. (*not* each ten minutes)

B

Compare the structures we use with **each** and **every**.

We use **each** with or without a noun:

- None of the rooms are the same. **Each room** is different. *or* **Each** is different.

Or you can use **each one**:

- **Each one** is different.

We say **each of** (**the**/**these**/**them** . . . etc.):

- **Each of the** books was a different colour. (*not* each of books)
- **Each of them** was a different colour.
- Read **each of these** sentences carefully.

We use **every** with a noun:

- She's read **every book** in the library.

We don't use **every** alone, but you can say **every one**:

- A: Have you read all these books?
  B: Yes, **every one**.

We say **every one of** . . . (*but not* every of):

- I've read **every one of those** books. (*not* every of those books)
- I've read **every one of them**.

C

We also use **each** in the middle of a sentence. For example:

- The students were **each** given a book. (= Each student was given a book.)

We say **a dollar each**, **ten pounds each** etc. :

- These oranges are **40 pence each**. (**each** = for one orange)

D

everyone and **every one**

Everyone (one word) is only for people (= everybody).

- **Everyone** enjoyed the party. (= **Everybody** . . .)

Every one (two words) is for things or people:

- Sarah is invited to lots of parties and she goes to **every one**. (= to **every party**)

>> each other → Unit 82C all and every → Unit 90

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Exercises

91.1 **Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with each or every.**

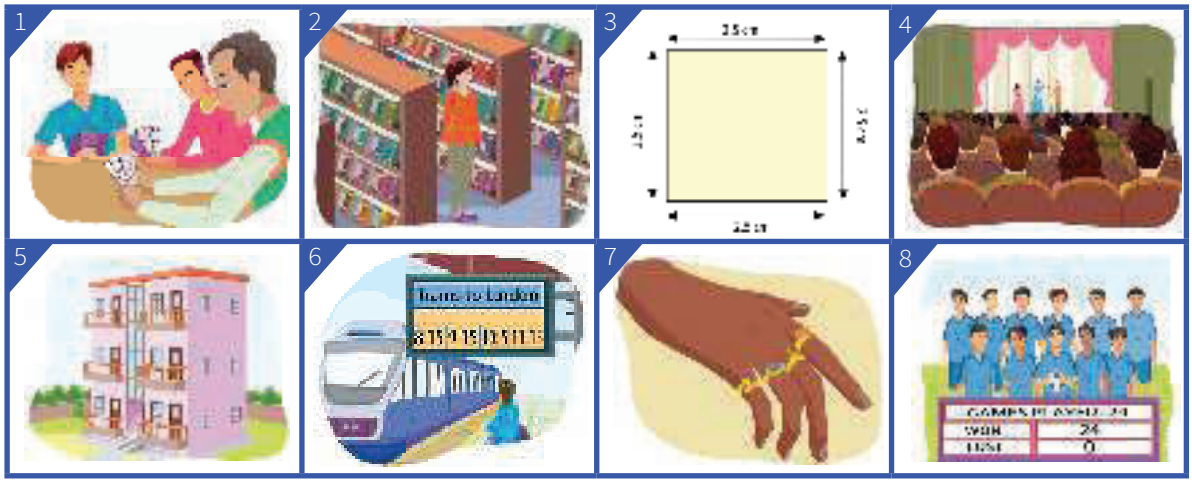

1 ....Each.... player has three cards.
2 Kate has read ....every.... book in the library.
3 ..... side of a square is the same length.
4 ..... seat in the theatre was taken.
5 There are six apartments in the building. ..... one has a balcony.
6 There's a train to London ..... hour.
7 She was wearing four rings – one on ..... finger.
8 Our football team is playing well. We've won ..... game this season.

91.2 **Put in each, each of or every.**

1 There were four books on the table. ....Each.... book was a different colour.
2 The Olympic Games are held ....every.... four years.
3 ..... parent worries about their children.
4 In a game of tennis there are two or four players. ..... player has a racket.
5 Nicola plays volleyball ..... Thursday evening.
6 I understood most of what they said but not ..... word.
7 The book is divided into five parts and ..... these has three sections.
8 I get paid ..... four weeks.
9 I called the office two or three times, but ..... time it was closed.
10 Car seat belts save lives. ..... driver should wear one.
11 A friend of mine has three children. I always give ..... them a present at Christmas.
12 *(from an exam)* Answer all five questions. Write your answer to ..... question on a separate sheet of paper.

91.3 **Complete the sentences using each.**

1 The price of one of those oranges is 40 pence. ....Those oranges are 40 pence each.....
2 I had ten pounds and so did Sonia. Sonia and I .....
3 One of those postcards costs a pound. Those .....
4 The hotel was expensive. I paid 200 dollars and so did you. We .....

91.4 **Put in everyone (1 word) or every one (2 words).**

1 Sarah is invited to a lot of parties and she goes to ....every one.... .
2 I remember school very clearly. I remember ..... in my class.
3 I asked her lots of questions and she answered ..... correctly.
4 Amy is very popular. ..... likes her.
5 I dropped a tray of glasses. Unfortunately ..... broke.

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Unit 92

Relative clauses 1: clauses with **who/that/which**

A

Study this example situation:

Last week we had a party and a lot of people came. Everybody enjoyed it.

Everybody **who came to the party** enjoyed it.
relative clause

A *clause* is a part of a sentence. A *relative clause* tells us which person or thing (or what kind of person or thing) the speaker means:

the woman **who lives next door to me**
('who lives next door to me' tells us which woman)
people **who complain all the time**
('who complain all the time' tells us what kind of people)

We use **who** in a relative clause for people (not things):

- **The woman who** lives next door to me is a doctor.
- I don't like **people who** complain all the time.
- An architect is **someone who** designs buildings.
- What was the name of **the person who** called?
- Do you know **anyone who** wants to buy a car?

We also use **that** for people, but not **which**:

- The woman **that lives next door to me** is a doctor. (*not* the woman which)

Sometimes you must use **who** (*not* that) for people – see Unit 95.

B

When we are talking about things, we use **that** or **which** (*not* who) in a relative clause:

- I don't like **stories that** have unhappy endings.
  or ... **stories which** have unhappy endings.
- Grace works for **a company that** makes furniture.
  or ... **a company which** makes furniture.
- **The machine that** broke down is working again now.
  or **The machine which** broke down ...

In these examples **that** is more usual than **which**, but sometimes you must use **which**. See Unit 95.

C

In relative clauses we use **who**/**that**/**which**, not **he**/**she**/**they**/**it**.
Compare:

- I met a Canadian woman at the party. **She** is an English teacher. *(2 sentences)*
  I met **a Canadian woman who** is an English teacher. *(1 sentence)*
- I can't find the keys. **They** were on the table.
  Where are **the keys that** were on the table? (*not* the keys they were)

D

What = the thing(s) that

Compare **what** and **that**:

- **What happened** was my fault. (= the thing that happened)

but

- Everything **that happened** was my fault.
  (*not* Everything what happened)
- The machine **that broke down** is now working again.
  (*not* The machine what broke down)

>> Relative clauses 2–5 ➜ **Units 93–96**

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Exercises

92.1 **What do these words mean? Choose from the box and write sentences with who.**

steals from a shop	buys something from a shop
~~designs buildings~~	pays rent to live somewhere
doesn't tell the truth	breaks into a house to steal things
is not brave	expects the worst to happen

1 (an architect) An architect is someone who designs buildings.
2 (a customer) .....
3 (a burglar) .....
4 (a coward) .....
5 (a tenant) .....
6 (a shoplifter) .....
7 (a liar) .....
8 (a pessimist) .....

92.2 **Make one sentence from two. Use who/that/which.**

1 A girl was injured in the accident. She is now in hospital.
The girl who was injured in the accident is now in hospital.
2 A waiter served us. He was impolite and impatient.
The .....
3 A building was destroyed in the fire. It has now been rebuilt.
The .....
4 Some people were arrested. They have now been released.
The .....
5 A bus goes to the airport. It runs every half hour.
The .....

92.3 **Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and use who/that/which.**

happened in the past	~~makes furniture~~
runs away from home	can support life
cannot be explained	has stayed there
developed the theory of relativity	were hanging on the wall

1 Helen works for a company that makes furniture.
2 The movie is about a girl .....
3 What happened to the pictures .....?
4 A mystery is something .....
5 I've heard it's a good hotel, but I don't know anyone .....
6 History is the study of things .....
7 Albert Einstein was the scientist .....
8 It seems that Earth is the only planet .....

92.4 **Are these sentences right or wrong? Correct them where necessary.**

1 I don't like stories who have unhappy endings. stories that have
2 What was the name of the person who phoned? OK
3 Where's the nearest shop who sells bread? .....
4 Dan said some things about me they were not true. .....
5 The driver which caused the accident was fined £500. .....
6 Do you know the person that took these pictures? .....
7 We live in a world what is changing all the time. .....
8 Gary apologised for what he said. .....
9 What was the name of the horse what won the race? .....

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Unit 93

Relative clauses 2: clauses with and without **who/that/which**

A

Look at these example sentences from Unit 92:

- **The woman who lives** next door to me is a doctor. (*or* The woman **that** lives . . .)

  The woman lives next door to me — **who** (= the woman) is the *subject*

- Where are **the keys that were** on the table? (*or* . . . the keys **which** were . . .)

  The keys were on the table — **that** (= the keys) is the *subject*

You must use **who/that/which** when it is the *subject* of the relative clause. You cannot leave out **who/that/which** in these examples.

B

Sometimes **who/that/which** is the *object* of the verb. For example:

- **The woman who I wanted to see** was away on holiday.

  I wanted to see the woman — **who** (= the woman) is the *object*; **I** is the *subject*

- Did you find **the keys that you lost**?

  you lost the keys — **that** (= the keys) is the *object*; **you** is the *subject*

When **who/that/which** is the object, you can leave it out. So you can say:

- **The woman I wanted to see** was away. *or* The woman **who** I wanted to see . . .
- Did you find **the keys you lost**? *or* . . . the keys **that** you lost?
- **The dress Lisa bought** doesn't fit her very well. *or* The dress **that** Lisa bought . . .
- Is there **anything I can do**? *or* . . . anything **that** I can do?

Note that we say:

the keys you lost (*not* the keys you lost them)
the dress Lisa bought (*not* the dress Lisa bought it)

C

Note the position of prepositions (**to/in/for** etc.) in relative clauses:

Tom is talking to a woman. Do you know her? *(2 sentences)*

→ Do you know the woman Tom is **talking to**? (*or* . . . the woman **who/that** Tom is talking to)

I slept in a bed. It wasn't comfortable. *(2 sentences)*

→ The bed I **slept in** wasn't comfortable. (*or* The bed **that/which** I slept in . . .)

- Are these **the books you were looking for**? *or*
  Are these the books **that/which** you were . . .
- **The man I was sitting next to on the plane** talked all the time. *or*
  The man **who/that** I was sitting next to . . .

Note that we say:

the books **you were looking for** (*not* the books you were looking for them)
the man **I was sitting next to** (*not* the man I was sitting next to him)

D

We say:

- **Everything** (that) **they said** was true. (*not* Everything what they said)
- I gave her **all the money** (that) **I had**. (*not* all the money what I had)

What = the thing(s) that:

- **What they said** was true. (= The things that they said)

>> Relative clauses 1 → **Unit 92** Relative clauses 3–5 → **Units 94–96** **whom** → **Unit 94B**

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Exercises

93.1 In some of these sentences you need who or that. Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 The woman lives next door is a doctor. ...The woman who lives next door...
2 Did you find the keys you lost? ...OK...
3 The people we met last night were very friendly. .....
4 The people work in the office are very friendly. .....
5 I like the people I work with. .....
6 What have you done with the money I gave you? .....
7 What happened to the money was on the table? .....
8 What's the worst film you've ever seen? .....
9 What's the best thing it has ever happened to you? .....

93.2 What do you say in these situations? Complete each sentence with a relative clause.

1 Your friend lost some keys. You want to know if he found them. You say:
Did you find ...the keys you lost...?
2 A friend is wearing a dress. You like it. You tell her:
I like the dress .....
3 A friend is going to the cinema. You want to know the name of the film. You say:
What's the name of the film .....?
4 You wanted to visit a museum, but it was shut. You tell a friend:
The museum ..... was shut.
5 You invited people to your party. Some of them couldn't come. You tell someone:
Some of the people ..... couldn't come.
6 Your friend had to do some work. You want to know if she has finished. You say:
Have you finished the work .....?
7 You rented a car. It broke down after a few miles. You tell a friend:
Unfortunately the car ..... broke down after a few miles.

93.3 These sentences all have a relative clause with a preposition. Put the words in the correct order.

1 Did you find (looking / for / you / the books / were)?
Did you find ...the books you were looking for...?
2 We couldn't go to (we / invited / to / were / the wedding).
We couldn't go to .....
3 What's the name of (the hotel / about / me / told / you)?
What's the name of .....?
4 Unfortunately I didn't get (applied / I / the job / for).
Unfortunately I didn't get .....
5 Did you enjoy (you / the concert / to / went)?
Did you enjoy .....?
6 Gary is a good person to know. He's (on / rely / can / somebody / you).
Gary is a good person to know. He's .....
7 Who were (the people / with / were / you) in the restaurant yesterday?
Who were ..... in the restaurant yesterday?

93.4 Put in that or what where necessary. If the sentence is already complete, leave the space empty.

1 I gave her all the money ...–... I had. (all the money **that** I had *is also correct*)
2 Did you hear ...what... they said?
3 She gives her children everything ..... they want.
4 Tell me ..... you want and I'll try to get it for you.
5 Why do you blame me for everything ..... goes wrong?
6 I won't be able to do much, but I'll do ..... I can.
7 I won't be able to do much, but I'll do the best ..... I can.
8 I don't agree with ..... you said.
9 I don't trust him. I don't believe anything ..... he says.

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Unit 94

Relative clauses 3: **whose/whom/where**

A whose

Study this example situation:

When we were driving home, we saw some people standing by the road. Their car had broken down, so we stopped to help them.

We helped some people **whose** car had broken down.
(= **their** car had broken down)

We use **whose** mostly for people:

- A widow is a woman **whose husband is dead**.
  (**her** husband is dead)
- I met someone **whose brother I went to school with**.
  (I went to school with **his**/**her** brother)

Compare **who** and **whose**:

- I met a man **who** knows you. (**he** knows you)
- I met a man **whose sister** knows you. (**his sister** knows you)

Do not confuse **whose** and **who's**. The pronunciation is the same, but **who's** = who **is** or who **has**:

- I have a friend **who's learning** Arabic. (**who's** = who **is**)
- I have a friend **who's** just **started** learning Arabic. (**who's** = who **has**)
- I have a friend **whose** sister is learning Arabic.

B whom

Whom is possible instead of **who** when it is the *object* of the verb (see Unit 93B):

- George is a person **whom I admire** very much. (I admire **him**)

You can also use a preposition + **whom** (**to whom** / **from whom** / **with whom** etc.):

- It's important to have friends **with whom** you can relax. (you can relax **with them**)

Whom is a formal word and we do not often use it in spoken English. We usually prefer to say:

- **a person I admire** a lot *or* a person **who**/**that** I admire a lot
- **friends you can relax with** *or* friends **who**/**that** you can relax with

C where

We use **where** in a relative clause to talk about a place:

- I recently went back to **the town where** I grew up. (I grew up **there**)
- **The restaurant where** we had lunch was near the airport.
- I would like to live in **a place where** there is plenty of sunshine.

D the day, the time, the reason . . .

We say '**the day** we got married', '**the year** I was born', '**the last** time they met' etc. :

- I can't meet you on Friday. That's **the day I'm going away**.
- **The last time I saw her**, she looked great.

You can also use **that**:

- The last time **that** I saw her, she looked great.

We say '**the reason** I'm calling you', '**the reason** she didn't get the job' etc.

- **The reason I'm calling you** is to ask your advice.

You can also use **that**:

- The reason **that** I'm calling you . . . *or* The reason **why** I'm calling you . . .

>> Relative clauses 1–2 ➜ **Units 92–93** Relative clauses 4–5 ➜ **Units 95–96** **whom** ➜ **Unit 96**

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Exercises

94.1 **You met these people at a party:**

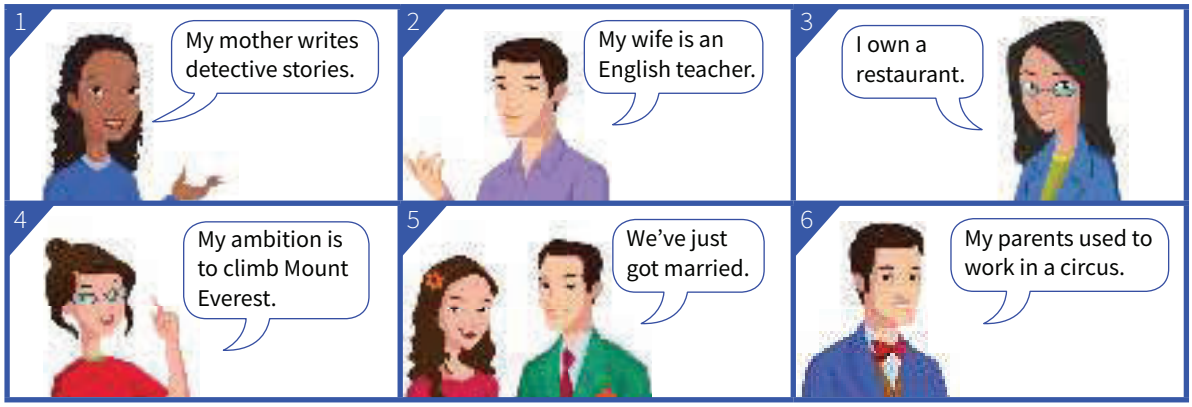

The next day you tell a friend about these people. Complete the sentences using who or whose.

1 I met somebody ...whose mother writes detective stories...
2 I met a man .....
3 I met a woman .....
4 I met somebody .....
5 I met a couple .....
6 I met somebody .....

94.2 **For each situation write a sentence with whom (more formal) and without whom (less formal).**

1 You met a friend. You hadn't seen him for years.
more formal I met a friend ...whom I hadn't seen for years...
less formal I met a friend ...I hadn't seen for years...
2 You needed a lawyer. A friend of yours recommended one.
more formal I went to see a lawyer .....
less formal I went to see a lawyer .....
3 You called your bank with a problem. You spoke to somebody, but he wasn't very helpful.
more formal The person ..... wasn't very helpful.
less formal The person .....
4 Tom was in love with a woman, but she wasn't in love with Tom.
more formal The woman ..... wasn't in love with him.
less formal The woman ..... wasn't in love with him.

94.3 **Complete the sentences using who/whom/whose/where.**

1 We helped some people ...whose... car had broken down.
2 A cemetery is a place ..... people are buried.
3 A pacifist is a person ..... believes that all wars are wrong.
4 An orphan is a child ..... parents are dead.
5 What's the name of the hotel ..... your parents are staying?
6 This school is only for children ..... first language is not English.
7 The person from ..... I bought my car is a friend of my father's.
8 I live in a friendly village ..... everybody knows everybody else.

94.4 **Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.**

1 I can't meet you on Friday. That's the day ...I'm going away...
2 The reason ..... was that the salary was too low.
3 I'll never forget the time .....
4 ..... was the year .....
5 The reason ..... is that neither of them can drive.
6 The last time I ..... was .....
7 Do you remember the day .....?

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Unit 95

Relative clauses 4: extra information clauses (1)

A

There are two types of relative clause. In these examples, the relative clauses are underlined. Compare:

Type 1

- The woman who lives next door to me is a doctor.
- Grace works for a company that makes furniture.
- We stayed at the hotel (that) you recommended.

In these examples, the relative clauses tell you which person or thing (or what kind of person or thing) the speaker means:

'The woman **who lives next door to me**' tells us *which* woman.
'A company **that makes furniture**' tells us *what kind* of company.
'The hotel (**that**) **you recommended**' tells us *which* hotel.

We do not use commas (,) with these clauses:

- We know a lot of people who live in London.

Type 2

- My brother Ben, who lives in Hong Kong, is an architect.
- Anna told me about her new job, which she's enjoying a lot.
- We stayed at the Park Hotel, which a friend of ours recommended.

In these examples, the relative clauses do not tell you which person or thing the speaker means. We already know which thing or person is meant: 'My brother Ben', 'Anna's new job' and 'the Park Hotel'.

The relative clauses in these sentences give us *extra information* about the person or thing.

We use commas (,) with these clauses:

- My brother Ben, who lives in Hong Kong, is an architect.

B

In both types of relative clause we use **who** for people and **which** for things. But:

Type 1

You can use **that**:

- Do you know anyone **who**/**that** speaks French and Italian?
- Grace works for a company **which**/**that** makes furniture.

You can leave out **who**/**which**/**that** when it is the object (see Unit 93):

- We stayed at **the hotel** (that/which) **you recommended**.
- This morning I met **somebody** (who/that) **I hadn't seen for ages**.

We do not often use **whom** in this type of clause (see Unit 94B).

Type 2

You cannot use **that**:

- John, **who** speaks French and Italian, works as a tour guide. (*not* that speaks)
- Anna told me about her new job, **which** she's enjoying a lot.

You cannot leave out **who** or **which**:

- We stayed at the Park Hotel, **which** a friend of ours recommended.
- This morning I met Chris, **who** I hadn't seen for ages.

You can use **whom** for people (when it is the object):

- This morning I met Chris, **whom** I hadn't seen for ages.

C

In both types of relative clause you can use **whose** and **where**:

- We helped some people **whose** car had broken down.
- What's the name of the place **where** you went on holiday?
- Lisa, **whose** car had broken down, was in a very bad mood.
- Kate has just been to Sweden, **where** her daughter lives.

Relative clauses (Type 1) ➜ **Units 92–94** Relative clauses (Type 2) ➜ **Unit 96**

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Exercises

95.1 **Make one sentence from two. Use the information in brackets to make a relative clause (Type 2). You will need to use who/whom/whose/which/where.**

1 Catherine is very friendly. (She lives next door to us.)
Catherine, who lives next door to us, is very friendly.

2 We stayed at the Park Hotel. (A friend of ours recommended this hotel.)
We stayed at the Park Hotel, which a friend of ours recommended.

3 We drove to the airport. (The airport was not far from the city.)
We drove to the airport, ...

4 Kate's husband is an airline pilot. (I have never met Kate's husband.)
Kate's ..... pilot.

5 Lisa is away from home a lot. (Lisa's job involves a lot of travelling.)
Lisa .....

6 Paul and Emily have a daughter, Alice. (Alice has just started school.)
Paul and Emily have .....

7 The new stadium will hold 90,000 spectators. (The stadium will be finished next month.)
.....

8 My brother lives in Alaska. (Alaska is the largest state in the US.)
.....

9 Our teacher was very kind. (I have forgotten her name.)
.....

10 We enjoyed our visit to the museum. (We saw a lot of interesting things in the museum.)
.....

95.2 **Read the information and complete the sentences. Use a relative clause of Type 1 or Type 2. Use commas where necessary.**

1 My brother is an architect. (He lives in Hong Kong.)
My brother, who lives in Hong Kong, is an architect.

2 The strike at the factory has now ended. (The strike began ten days ago.)
The strike at the factory .....

3 I was looking for a book this morning. (I've found it now.)
I've found .....

4 I've had my car for 15 years. (This car has never broken down.)
My car .....

5 A lot of people applied for the job. (Few of them had the necessary qualifications.)
Few of .....

6 Amy showed me a picture of her son. (Her son is a police officer.)
Amy showed me .....

95.3 **Are these sentences OK? Correct them (and put in commas) where necessary. If the sentence is correct, write 'OK'.**

1 Anna told me about her new job that she's enjoying very much.
Anna told me about her new job, which she's enjoying very much.

2 My office that is on the second floor is very small.
.....

3 The office that I'm using at the moment is very small.
.....

4 Sarah's father that used to be in the army now works for a TV company.
.....

5 The doctor that examined me couldn't find anything wrong.
.....

6 The sun that is one of millions of stars in the universe provides us with heat and light.
.....

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Unit 96

Relative clauses 5: extra information clauses (2)

A *preposition* + **whom**/**which**

You can use a *preposition* + **whom** (for people) and **which** (for things).
So you can say:

to whom	**with whom**	**about whom**	*etc.*
of which	**without which**	**from which**	*etc.*

- Mr Lee, **to whom I spoke** at the meeting, is interested in our proposal.
- Fortunately we had a good map, **without which** we would have got lost.

In spoken English we often keep the preposition after the verb in the relative clause:

- Katherine told me she works for a company called 'Latoma', **which** I'd never **heard of** before.

We do not use **whom** when the preposition is in this position:

- Mr Lee, **who I spoke to** at the meeting, is interested in our proposal.
  (*not* Mr Lee, whom I spoke to . . .)

For prepositions in relative clauses, see also Unit 93C.

B **all of** / **most of** etc. + **whom**/**which**

You can say:

- Helen has three brothers, **all of whom** are married.
- They asked me a lot of questions, **most of which** I couldn't answer.

In the same way you can say:

many of whom	**some of whom**	**neither of whom**	*etc.*	(for people)
none of which	**both of which**	**one of which**	*etc.*	(for things)

- Martin tried on three jackets, **none of which** fitted him.
- Two men, **neither of whom** I had seen before, came into the office.
- They have three cars, **two of which** they rarely use.
- Sue has a lot of friends, **many of whom** she was at school with.

You can also say:

the cause of which **the name of which** *etc.*

- The house was damaged in a fire, **the cause of which** was never established.
- We stayed at a beautiful hotel, **the name of which** I don't remember now.

C **which** (*not* what)

Study this example:

Joe got the job. This surprised everybody. *(2 sentences)*

Joe got the job, which surprised everybody. *(1 sentence)*
relative clause

In this example, **which** = 'the fact that Joe got the job'. We use **which** (*not* what) in sentences like these:

- Sarah couldn't meet us, **which** was a shame. (*not* what was a shame)
- The weather was good, **which** we hadn't expected. (*not* what we hadn't expected)

For **what** and **that**, see Units 92D and 93D.

>> **all of** / **most of** etc. ➜ **Unit 88** **both of** etc. ➜ **Unit 89** Relative clauses 1–4 ➜ **Units 92–95**

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Exercises

96.1 **Complete the sentences. Use a preposition + whom or which. Choose a preposition from:**

after for in of of to with ~~without~~

1 Fortunately we had a good map, without which we would have got lost.
2 The accident, ... two people were injured, happened late last night.
3 I share an office with my boss, ... I get on really well.
4 The wedding, ... only family members were invited, was a lovely occasion.
5 Ben showed me his new car, ... he's very proud.
6 Sarah showed us a picture of her son, ... she's very proud.
7 Laura bought a very nice leather bag, ... she paid twenty pounds.
8 We had lunch, ... we went for a long walk.

96.2 **Use the information in the first sentence to complete the second one. Use all of / most of etc.**

1 All of Helen's brothers are married.
Helen has three brothers, all of whom are married.
2 Most of the information we were given was useless.
We were given a lot of information, ...
3 None of the ten people who applied for the job was suitable.
Ten people applied for the job, ...
4 My neighbours have two cars. They never use one of them.
My neighbours have two cars, ...
5 James won a lot of money. He gave half of it to his parents.
James won £100,000, ...
6 Both of Julia's sisters are lawyers.
Julia has two sisters, ...
7 Jane replied to neither of the emails I sent her.
I sent Jane two emails, ...
8 I went to a party – I knew only a few of the people there.
There were a lot of people at the party, ...

Now use the ... of which ... .

9 You stayed in a hotel when you were on holiday but you don't remember the name.
We stayed at a very nice hotel, the name of which I don't remember.
10 We drove along the road. The sides of the road were lined with trees.
We drove along the road, the ..... .
11 The aim of the company's new business plan is to save money.
The company has a new business plan, ...

96.3 **Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and use which.**

This is good news.	This makes it hard to contact her.
~~This was a shame.~~	This means we can't go away tomorrow.
She apologised for this	This makes it difficult to sleep sometimes.
This was very kind of her.	This meant I had to wait two hours at the airport.

1 Laura couldn't come to the party, which was a shame.
2 The street I live in is noisy at night, ...
3 Kate let me stay at her house, ...
4 Jane doesn't have a phone, ...
5 Alex passed his exams, ...
6 My flight was delayed, ...
7 Our car has broken down, ...
8 Amy was twenty minutes late, ...

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Unit 97 -ing and -ed clauses (the woman **talking to Tom**, the boy **injured in the accident**)

A A *clause* is a part of a sentence. Some clauses begin with **-ing**. For example:

Who is the woman **talking to Tom**?
-ing *clause*

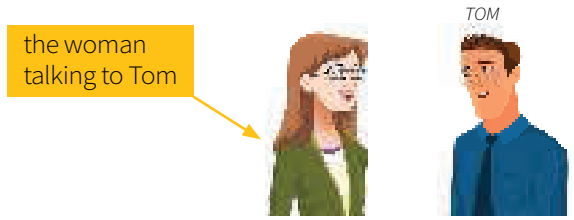

We use **-ing** clauses to say what somebody (or something) is (or was) doing at a particular time:

- Who is the woman **talking to Tom**? (the woman **is talking** to Tom)
- Police **investigating the crime** are looking for three men. (police **are investigating** the crime)
- Who were those people **waiting outside**? (they **were waiting**)
- I was woken up by a bell **ringing**. (a bell **was ringing**)

You can also use an **-ing** clause to say what happens all the time, not just at a particular time:

- The road **connecting the two villages** is very narrow. (the road **connects** the two villages)
- I have a large room **overlooking the garden**. (the room **overlooks** the garden)
- Can you think of the name of a flower **beginning with T**? (the name **begins** with T)

B Some clauses begin with **-ed** (**injured**, **painted** etc.). For example:

The boy **injured in the accident** was taken to hospital.
-ed *clause*

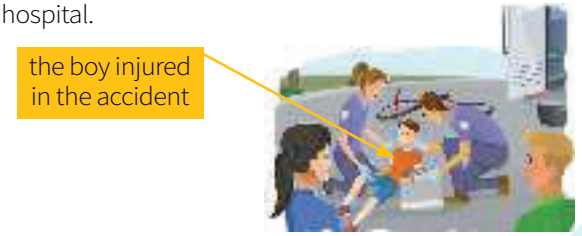

-ed clauses have a *passive* meaning:

- The boy **injured in the accident** was taken to hospital.
  (he **was injured** in the accident)
- George showed me some pictures **painted by his father**.
  (they **were painted** by his father)
- The gun **used in the robbery** has been found.
  (the gun **was used** in the robbery)

Injured/**painted**/**used** are *past participles*. Most past participles end in **-ed**, but many are irregular (**stolen**/**made**/**built** etc.):

- The police never found the money **stolen in the robbery**.
- Most of the goods **made in this factory** are exported.

C You can use **there is** / **there was** (etc.) + **-ing** and **-ed** clauses:

- **There were** some children **swimming** in the river.
- **Is there** anybody **waiting**?
- **There was** a big red car **parked** outside the house.

We use **left** in this way, with the meaning 'not used, still there':

- We've eaten nearly all the chocolates. **There are** only a few **left**.

>> **see**/**hear** somebody **doing** something ➜ **Unit 67** **-ing** clauses ➜ **Unit 68** **there** (**is**) ➜ **Unit 84**
Irregular past participles (**made**/**stolen** etc.) ➜ **Appendix 1**

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Exercises

97.1 Make one sentence from two. Complete the sentence using an -ing clause.

1 A bell was ringing. I was woken up by it.
I was woken up by a bell ringing.
2 A taxi was taking us to the airport. It broke down.
The ..... broke down.
3 There's a path at the end of this street. The path leads to the river.
At the end of the street there's .....
4 A factory has just opened in the town. It employs 500 people.
..... has just opened in the town.
5 A man was sitting next to me on the plane. He was asleep most of the time.
The ..... was asleep most of the time.
6 The company sent me a brochure. It contained the information I needed.
The company sent me a .....

97.2 Complete the sentence with an -ed clause. Choose from:

damaged in the storm	**made at the meeting**	**~~injured in the accident~~**
involved in the project	**stolen from the museum**	**surrounded by trees**

1 The boy injured in the accident was taken to hospital.
2 The paintings ..... haven't been found yet.
3 We've repaired the gate .....
4 Most of the suggestions ..... were not practical.
5 Our friends live in a beautiful house .....
6 Everybody ..... worked very well.

97.3 Complete the sentences. Use the following verbs in the correct form:

blow call cause invite live offer ~~paint~~ read ~~ring~~ sit study work

1 I was woken up by a bell ringing.
2 George showed me some pictures painted by his father.
3 Some of the people ..... to the party can't come.
4 Somebody ..... Jack phoned while you were out.
5 Life must be very unpleasant for people ..... near busy airports.
6 A few days after the interview, I received an email ..... me the job.
7 The building was badly damaged in a fire ..... by an electrical fault.
8 Did you see the picture of the trees ..... down in the storm?
9 The waiting room was empty except for an old man ..... in the corner
..... a magazine.
10 Ian has a brother ..... in a bank in London and a sister .....
economics at university in Manchester.

97.4 Use the words in brackets to make sentences with There is / There was etc.

1 That house is empty. (nobody / live / in it) There's nobody living in it.
2 The accident wasn't serious. (nobody / injure) There was nobody injured.
3 I can hear footsteps. (somebody / come) There .....
4 I've spent all the money I had. (nothing / leave) There .....
5 The train was full. (a lot of people / travel)
.....
6 We were the only guests at the hotel. (nobody else / stay there)
.....
7 The piece of paper was blank. (nothing / write / on it)
.....
8 The college offers English courses in the evening. (a course / begin / next Monday)
.....

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Unit 98

Adjectives ending in -ing and -ed (boring/bored etc.)

A

Many adjectives end in **-ing** and **-ed**, for example: **boring** and **bored**.
Study this example situation:

Jane has been doing the same job for a very long time. Every day she does exactly the same thing again and again. She doesn't enjoy her job any more and would like to do something different.

Jane's job is **boring**.

Jane is **bored** with her job.

Somebody is **bored** or gets **bored** if something (or somebody else) is **boring**.
If something is **boring**, you get **bored** with it.
So:

- Jane is **bored** because her job is **boring**.
- Jane's job is **boring**, so Jane is **bored**. (*not* Jane is boring)

If a person is **boring**, this means that they make other people **bored**:

- Paul always talks about the same things. He's really **boring**.

B

Compare adjectives ending in **-ing** and **-ed**:

- My job is { **boring**, **interesting**, **tiring**, **satisfying**, **depressing** (etc.)

In these examples, the **-ing** adjective tells you about the job

- I'm **bored** with my job.
- I'm not **interested** in my job any more.
- I get very **tired** doing my job.
- I'm not **satisfied** with my job.
- My job makes me **depressed**. (etc.)

In these examples, the **-ed** adjective tells you how somebody feels (about the job).

Compare these examples:

interesting
- Julia thinks politics is **interesting**.
- Did you meet anyone **interesting** at the party?

surprising
- It was **surprising** that he passed the exam.

disappointing
- The movie was **disappointing**. We expected it to be better.

shocking
- The news was **shocking**.

interested
- Julia is **interested** in politics. (*not* interesting in politics)
- Are you **interested** in buying a car? I'm trying to sell mine.

surprised
- Everybody was **surprised** that he passed the exam.

disappointed
- We were **disappointed** with the movie. We expected it to be better.

shocked
- I was **shocked** when I heard the news.

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Exercises

98.1 Complete the sentences for each situation. Use the word in brackets + -ing or -ed.

1 The movie wasn't as good as we had expected. (**disappoint**...)
  a The movie was disappointing.
  b We were disappointed with the movie.
2 Donna teaches young children. It's a very hard job, but she enjoys it. (**exhaust**...)
  a She enjoys her job, but it's often ....
  b At the end of a day's work, she is often ....
3 It's been raining all day. I hate this weather. (**depress**...)
  a This weather is ....
  b This weather makes me ....
  c It's silly to get .... because of the weather.
4 Clare is going to Mexico next month. She's never been there before. (**excit**...)
  a It will be an .... experience for her.
  b Going to new places is always ....
  c She is really .... about going to Mexico.

98.2 Choose the correct word.

1 I was ~~disappointing~~ / disappointed with the movie. I had expected it to be better. (disappointed *is correct*)
2 I'm not particularly interesting / interested in football.
3 The new project sounds exciting / excited. I'm looking forward to working on it.
4 It can be embarrassing / embarrassed when you have to ask people for money.
5 Do you easily get embarrassing / embarrassed?
6 I'd never expected to get the job. I was amazing / amazed when I was offered it.
7 She's learnt very fast. She's made amazing / amazed progress.
8 I didn't find the situation funny. I was not amusing / amused.
9 I'm interesting / interested in joining the club. How much does it cost?
10 It was a really terrifying / terrified experience. Everybody was very shocking / shocked.
11 Why do you always look so boring / bored? Is your life really so boring / bored?
12 He's one of the most boring / bored people I've ever met. He never stops talking and he never says anything interesting / interested.

98.3 Complete each sentence using a word from the box.

amusing/amused	**annoying/annoyed**	**boring/bored**
confusing/confused	**disgusting/disgusted**	**exciting/excited**
exhausting/exhausted	**interesting/interested**	**~~surprising~~/surprised**

1 You work very hard. It's not surprising that you're always tired.
2 Some people get .... very easily. They always need something new.
3 The teacher's explanation was .... Nobody understood it.
4 The kitchen hadn't been cleaned for ages. It was really ....
5 I don't go to art galleries very often. I'm not very .... in art.
6 There's no need to get .... just because I'm a few minutes late.
7 The lecture was .... I fell asleep.
8 I've been working very hard all day and now I'm ....
9 I'm starting a new job next week. I'm very .... about it.
10 Steve is good at telling funny stories. He can be very ....
11 Helen is a very .... person. She knows a lot, she's travelled a lot and she's done lots of different things.

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Unit 99

Adjectives: a **nice new** house, you look **tired**

A

Sometimes we use two or more adjectives together:

- My brother lives in a **nice new** house.
- In the kitchen there was a **beautiful large round wooden** table.

Adjectives like **new**/**large**/**round**/**wooden** are *fact* adjectives. They give us information about age, size, colour etc.

Adjectives like **nice**/**beautiful** are *opinion* adjectives. They tell us what the speaker thinks of something or somebody.
Opinion adjectives usually go before fact adjectives.

	opinion	*fact*	
a	**nice**	**long**	summer holiday
an	**interesting**	**young**	man
	delicious	**hot**	vegetable soup
a	**beautiful**	**large round wooden**	table

B

Sometimes we use two or more fact adjectives together. Usually (not always) we put fact adjectives in this order:

1 how big?	→	2 how old?	→	3 what colour?	→	4 where from?	→	5 what is it made of?	→	NOUN

a **tall young** man (1 → 2)
big blue eyes (1 → 3)
a **small black plastic** bag (1 → 3 → 5)
a **large wooden** table (1 → 5)
an **old Russian** song (2 → 4)
an **old white cotton** shirt (2 → 3 → 5)

Adjectives of size and length (**big**/**small**/**tall**/**short**/**long** etc.) usually go before adjectives of shape and width (**round**/**fat**/**thin**/**slim**/**wide** etc.):
a **large round** table a **tall thin** girl a **long narrow** street

When there are two or more colour adjectives, we use **and**:
a **black and white** dress a **red**, **white and green** flag
This does not usually happen with other adjectives before a noun:
a **long black** dress (*not* a long and black dress)

C

We use adjectives after **be**/**get**/**become**/**seem**:

- **Be careful**!
- I**'m tired** and I**'m getting hungry**.
- As the film went on, it **became** more and more **boring**.
- Your friend **seems** very **nice**.

We also use adjectives to say how somebody/something looks, feels, sounds, tastes or smells:

- You **look tired**. / I **feel tired**. / She **sounds tired**.
- The dinner **smells good**.
- This tea **tastes** a bit **strange**.

But to say *how* somebody *does something* you must use an *adverb* (see Units 100–101):

- Drive **carefully**! (*not* Drive careful)
- Suzanne plays the piano very **well**. (*not* plays . . . very good)

D

We say 'the **first two** days', 'the **next few** weeks', 'the **last ten** minutes' etc. :

- I didn't enjoy the **first two** days of the course. (*not* the two first days)
- They'll be away for the **next few** weeks. (*not* the few next weeks)

>> Adverbs ➜ **Units 100–101** Comparative (**cheaper** etc.) ➜ **Units 105–107**
Superlative (**cheapest** etc.) ➜ **Unit 108**

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Exercises

99.1 Put the adjectives in brackets in the correct position.

1 a beautiful table (wooden / round) a beautiful round wooden table
2 an unusual ring (gold) .....
3 an old house (beautiful) .....
4 red gloves (leather) .....
5 an American film (old) .....
6 pink flowers (tiny) .....
7 a long face (thin) .....
8 big clouds (black) .....
9 a sunny day (lovely) .....
10 an ugly dress (yellow) .....
11 a wide avenue (long) .....
12 important ideas (new) .....
13 a new sweater (green / nice) .....
14 a metal box (black / small) .....
15 long hair (black / beautiful) .....
16 an old painting (interesting / French) .....
17 a large umbrella (red / yellow) .....
18 a big cat (black / white / fat) .....

99.2 Complete each sentence with a verb (in the correct form) and an adjective from the boxes.

feel	**look**	**~~seem~~**	**awful**	**nervous**	**interesting**
smell	**sound**	**taste**	**nice**	**~~upset~~**	**wet**

1 Helen seemed upset this morning. Do you know what was wrong?
2 I can't eat this. I've just tried it and it ..... .
3 It's normal to ..... before an exam or an interview.
4 What beautiful flowers! They ..... too.
5 You ..... . Have you been out in the rain?
6 James told me about his new job. It ..... – much better than his old job.

99.3 Put in the correct word.

1 This tea tastes a bit strange . (strange / strangely)
2 I usually feel ..... when the sun is shining. (happy / happily)
3 The children were playing ..... in the garden. (happy / happily)
4 You look ..... ! Are you all right? (terrible / terribly)
5 There's no point in doing a job if you don't do it ..... . (proper / properly)
6 The soup tastes ..... . Can you give me the recipe? (good / well)
7 Please hurry up! You're always so ..... . (slow / slowly)
8 A customer in the restaurant was behaving ..... . (bad / badly)
9 The customer became ..... when the manager asked him to leave. (violent / violently)

99.4 Write the following in another way using the first ... / the next ... / the last ... .

1 the first day and the second day of the course the first two days of the course
2 next week and the week after the next two weeks
3 yesterday and the day before yesterday .....
4 the first week and the second week of May .....
5 tomorrow and a few days after that .....
6 questions 1, 2 and 3 in the exam .....
7 next year and the year after .....
8 the last day of our holiday and the two days before that .....

➜ **Additional exercise 31** (page 320)

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Unit 100

Adjectives and adverbs 1 (**quick**/**quickly**)

A

You can say:

- Our holiday was too short – the time passed very **quickly**.
- Two people were **seriously** injured in the accident.

Quickly and **seriously** are *adverbs*. Many adverbs are *adjective* + **-ly**:

adjective	quick	serious	careful	bad	heavy	terrible
adverb	**quickly**	**seriously**	**carefully**	**badly**	**heavily**	**terribly**

For spelling, see Appendix 6.

Not all words ending in **-ly** are adverbs. Some *adjectives* end in **-ly** too, for example:

friendly **lively** **elderly** **lonely** **lovely**

- It was a **lovely** day.

B

Adjective or adverb?

Adjectives (**quick**/**careful** etc.) tell us about a *noun* (somebody or something). We use adjectives before nouns:

- Sam is a **careful driver**. (*not* a carefully driver)
- We didn't go out because of the **heavy rain**.

Adverbs (**quickly**/**carefully** etc.) tell us about a *verb* (*how* somebody does something or *how* something happens):

- Sam **drove carefully** along the narrow road. (*not* drove careful)
- We didn't go out because it was **raining heavily**. (*not* raining heavy)

Compare:

- She speaks **perfect English**.
  adjective + noun
- She **speaks** English **perfectly**.
  verb + noun + adverb

C

We use adjectives after some verbs, especially **be**, and also **look**/**feel**/**sound** etc.
Compare:

- Please **be quiet**.
- My exam results **were** really **bad**.
- Why do you always **look** so **serious**?
- I **feel happy**.

- Please **speak quietly**.
- I **did** really **badly** in the exam.
- Why do you never **take** me **seriously**?
- The children were **playing happily**.

D

You can also use adverbs before *adjectives* and *other adverbs*. For example:

reasonably cheap (*adverb + adjective*)
terribly sorry (*adverb + adjective*)
incredibly quickly (*adverb + adverb*)

- It's a **reasonably cheap** restaurant and the food is **extremely good**.
- I'm **terribly sorry**. I didn't mean to push you.
- Maria learns languages **incredibly quickly**.
- The exam was **surprisingly easy**.

You can also use an adverb before a *past participle* (**injured**/**organised**/**written** etc.):

- Two people were **seriously injured** in the accident. (*not* serious injured)
- The conference was **badly organised**.

>> Adjectives after **be**/**look**/**feel** etc. ➜ **Unit 99C** Adjectives and adverbs 2 ➜ **Unit 101**

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Exercises

100.1 Complete each sentence with an adverb. The first letters of the adverb are given.

1 We didn't go out because it was raining he avily.
2 I had no problem finding a place to live. I found a flat quite ea.....
3 We had to wait a long time, but we didn't complain. We waited pat.....
4 Nobody knew that Simon was coming to see us. He arrived unex.....
5 Mike keeps fit by playing tennis reg.....
6 I don't speak French very well, but I can understand per..... if people speak sl..... and cl.....

100.2 Put in the correct word.

1 Sam drove carefully along the narrow road. (careful / carefully)
2 I think you behaved very ..... (selfish / selfishly)
3 The weather changed ..... (sudden / suddenly)
4 There was a ..... change in the weather. (sudden / suddenly)
5 Liz fell and hurt herself really ..... (bad / badly)
6 I think I have flu. I feel ..... (awful / awfully)
7 Tanya is ..... upset about losing her job. (terrible / terribly)
8 I could sit in this chair all day. It's very ..... (comfortable / comfortably)
9 I explained everything as ..... as I could. (clear / clearly)
10 Be careful on that ladder. It doesn't look very ..... (safe / safely)
11 Have a good trip and I hope you have a ..... journey. (safe / safely)
12 I'm glad you had a good trip and got home ..... (safe / safely)

100.3 Complete each sentence using a word from the box. Sometimes you need the adjective (careful etc.) and sometimes the adverb (carefully etc.).

~~careful(ly)~~	complete(ly)	dangerous(ly)	financial(ly)	fluent(ly)
frequent(ly)	nervous(ly)	perfect(ly)	permanent(ly)	special(ly)

1 Sam doesn't take risks when he's driving. He's always careful.
2 He's late sometimes, but it doesn't happen .....
3 Maria's English is very ..... although she makes quite a lot of mistakes.
4 I cooked this meal ..... for you, so I hope you like it.
5 Everything was very quiet. There was ..... silence.
6 I tried on the shoes and they fitted me .....
7 I'd like to buy a car, but it's ..... impossible for me at the moment.
8 I'm staying here only a few weeks. I won't be living here .....
9 Do you usually feel ..... before exams?
10 Dan likes to take risks. He lives .....

100.4 Choose two words (one from each box) to complete each sentence.

absolutely	badly	completely	changed	~~cheap~~	damaged
happily	~~reasonably~~	seriously	enormous	ill	long
slightly	unnecessarily	unusually	married	planned	quiet

1 I thought the restaurant would be expensive, but it was reasonably cheap.
2 Will's mother is ..... in hospital.
3 This house is so big! It's .....
4 It wasn't a serious accident. The car was only .....
5 Our children are normally very lively, but they're ..... today.
6 When I returned home after 20 years, everything had .....
7 The movie was ..... It could have been much shorter.
8 I'm surprised Amy and Joe have separated. I thought they were .....
9 A lot went wrong during our holiday because it was .....

➜ **Additional exercise 31** (page 320)

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Unit 101 Adjectives and adverbs 2 (well, fast, late, hard/hardly)

A good and well

Good is an *adjective*. The *adverb* is **well**:

- Your English is **good**. *but* You **speak** English **well**.
- Sophie is a **good** pianist. *but* Sophie **plays** the piano **well**.

We use **well** (*not* good) with *past participles* (**known**/**educated** etc.). For example:

well-known **well-educated** **well-paid** **well-behaved**

- Sophie's father is a **well-known** writer.

Well is also an adjective meaning 'in good health':

- 'How are you today?' 'I'm very **well**, thanks.'

B fast, hard and late

These words are both adjectives and adverbs:

adjective	*adverb*
Darren **is** a **fast runner**.	Darren can **run fast**.
It**'s hard** to find a job right now.	Kate **works hard**. (*not* works hardly)
Sorry I**'m late**.	I **got up late**.

lately = recently:

- Have you seen Kate **lately**?

C hardly

hardly = very little, almost not:

- Sarah wasn't very friendly at the party. She **hardly** spoke to me. (= she spoke to me very little)
- We've only met once or twice. We **hardly** know each other.

Compare **hard** and **hardly**:

- He tried **hard** to find a job, but he had no luck. (= he tried a lot, with a lot of effort)
- I'm not surprised he didn't find a job. He **hardly** tried. (= he tried very little)

Hardly goes before the verb:

- We **hardly know** each other. (*not* We know each other hardly)

I **can hardly** do something = it's very difficult for me, almost impossible:

- Your writing is terrible. I **can hardly** read it. (= it is almost impossible to read it)
- My leg was hurting. I **could hardly** walk.

D

You can use **hardly** + **any**/**anybody**/**anyone**/**anything**/**anywhere**:

- A: How much money do we have?
  B: **Hardly any**. (= very little, almost none)
- These two cameras are very similar. There's **hardly any** difference between them.
- The exam results were bad. **Hardly anybody** in our class passed. (= very few students passed)
- She was very quiet. She said **hardly anything**. *or* She **hardly** said **anything**.

hardly ever = almost never:

- I'm nearly always at home in the evenings. I **hardly ever** go out.

Hardly also means 'certainly not'. For example:

- It's **hardly surprising** that you're tired. You haven't slept for three days. (= it's certainly not surprising)
- The situation is serious, but it's **hardly a crisis**. (= it's certainly not a crisis)

>> Adjectives after verbs ('**You look tired**' etc.) ➜ **Unit 99C** Adjectives and adverbs 1 ➜ **Unit 100**

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Exercises

101.1 Put in good or well.

1 I play tennis but I'm not very ....good.... .
2 Joe's exam results were very .... .
3 Joe did .... in his exams.
4 I didn't sleep .... last night.
5 I like your hat. It looks .... on you.
6 Can you speak up? I can't hear you very .... .
7 I've met her a few times, but I don't know her .... .
8 Lucy speaks German .... . She's .... at languages.

101.2 Complete these sentences using well + the following words:

~~behaved~~ informed kept known paid written

1 The children were very good. They were ....well-behaved.... .
2 I'm surprised you haven't heard of her. She is quite .... .
3 Our neighbours' garden is neat and tidy. It is very .... .
4 I enjoyed the book. It's a great story and it's very .... .
5 Tanya knows about everything. She is very .... .
6 Jane works very hard in her job, but she isn't very .... .

101.3 Which is right?

1 I'm tired because I've been working hard / ~~hardly~~. (hard *is correct*)
2 I wasn't in a hurry, so I was walking slow / slowly.
3 I haven't been to the cinema late / lately.
4 Slow down! You're walking too fast / quick for me.
5 I tried hard / hardly to remember her name, but I couldn't.
6 This coat is practically unused. I've hard / hardly worn it.
7 Laura is a good tennis player. She hits the ball very hard / hardly.
8 It's really dark in here. I can hardly see / see hardly.
9 Ben is going to run a marathon. He's been training hard / hardly.

101.4 Complete the sentences. Use hardly + the following verbs (in the correct form):

change hear ~~know~~ recognise say sleep speak

1 Scott and Tracy have only met once before. They ....hardly know.... each other.
2 You're speaking very quietly. I can .... you.
3 I don't feel good this morning. I .... last night.
4 We were so shocked when we heard the news, we could .... .
5 Kate was very quiet this evening. She .... anything.
6 Gary looks just like he looked 15 years ago. He has .... .
7 David looked different without his beard. I .... him.

101.5 Complete these sentences with hardly + any/anybody/anything/anywhere/ever.

1 I'll have to go shopping. There's ....hardly anything.... to eat.
2 It was a very warm day and there was .... wind.
3 'Do you know much about computers?' 'No, ...'
4 The hotel was almost empty. There was .... staying there.
5 I listen to the radio a lot, but I .... watch TV.
6 It was very crowded in the room. There was .... to sit.
7 We used to be good friends, but we .... see each other now.
8 We invited lots of people to the party, but .... came.
9 It didn't take us long to drive there. There was .... traffic.
10 There isn't much to do in this town. There's .... to go.

➜ **Additional exercise 31** (page 320)

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Unit 102 so and such

A

Compare **so** and **such**:

We use **so** + *adjective/adverb*:
so stupid **so quick**
so nice **so quickly**

- I didn't like the book. The story was **so stupid**.
- Everything happened **so quickly**.

We use **such** + *noun*:
such a story **such people**
We also use **such** + *adjective* + *noun*:
such a stupid **story** **such** nice **people**

- I didn't like the book. It was **such** a stupid **story**. (*not* a so stupid story)
- I like Liz and Joe. They are **such nice people**. (*not* so nice people)

We say **such a** … (*not* a such):
such a big **dog**

B

So and **such** make the meaning stronger:

- I've had a busy day. I'm **so tired**. (= really tired)
- It's difficult to understand him. He talks **so quietly**.

You can use **so** … **that**:
- I was **so tired that** I fell asleep in the armchair.

We usually leave out **that**:
- I was **so tired** I fell asleep.

- We had a great trip. We had **such a good time**. (= a really good time)
- You always think good things are going to happen. You're **such an optimist**.

You can use **such** … **that**:
- It was **such nice weather that** we spent the whole day on the beach.

We usually leave out **that**:
- It was **such nice weather** we spent …

C

So and **such** also mean 'like this':

- Somebody told me the house was built 100 years ago. I didn't realise it was **so old**. (= as old as it is)
- I'm tired because I got up at six. I don't usually get up **so early**.
- I expected the weather to be cooler. I'm surprised it is **so warm**.

- I didn't realise it was **such an old house**.
- You know it's not true. How can you say **such a thing**? (= a thing like this)

Note the expression **no such** … :
- You won't find the word 'blid' in the dictionary. There's **no such word**. (= this word does not exist)

D

Compare:

so long
- I haven't seen her for **so long** I've forgotten what she looks like.

such a long time
- I haven't seen her for **such a long time**. (*not* so long time)

so far
- I didn't know it was **so far**.

such a long way
- I didn't know it was **such a long way**.

so much, so many
- I'm sorry I'm late – there was **so much** traffic.

such a lot (of)
- I'm sorry I'm late – there was **such a lot** of traffic.

>> not so … as → Unit 107A such as → Unit 117A

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Exercises

102.1 Put in so, such or such a.

1 It was a great holiday. We had ....such a.... good time.
2 Everything is ..... expensive these days, isn't it?
3 He always looks good. He wears ..... nice clothes.
4 I couldn't believe the news. It was ..... shock.
5 What a nice garden! These are ..... lovely flowers.
6 The party was great. It was ..... shame you couldn't come.
7 I was glad to see that he looked ..... well after his recent illness.
8 I have to go. I didn't realise it was ..... late.
9 Why does it always take you ..... long time to get ready?
10 Everything went wrong. We had ..... bad luck.

102.2 Make one sentence from two. Choose from the box, and then complete the sentences using so or such.

The music was loud.	**It was horrible weather.**	**I've got a lot to do.**
I had a big breakfast.	**~~It was a beautiful day.~~**	**Her English is good.**
The bag was heavy.	**I was surprised.**	**The hotel was a long way.**

1 ....It was such a beautiful day...., we decided to go to the beach.
2 ....., she couldn't lift it.
3 ....., I don't know where to begin.
4 ....., I didn't know what to say.
5 ....., it could be heard from miles away.
6 ....., we spent the whole day indoors.
7 ....., you would think it was her native language.
8 ....., it took us ages to get there.
9 ....., I didn't eat anything for the rest of the day.

102.3 Put the words in the right order.

1 I got up at six this morning. I ....don't usually get up so early.... .
(get up / early / usually / so / don't)
2 Why .....? There's plenty of time.
(a / such / hurry / you / in / are)
3 It took us an hour to get here. I'm ..... .
(long / it / surprised / so / took)
4 He said he worked for a company called Elcron, but ..... .
(such / there's / company / no)
5 I regret what I did. I don't know why ..... .
(such / thing / I / did / a / stupid)
6 Why .....? Can't you drive faster?
(driving / so / you / slowly / are)
7 Two months? How did you .....?
(English / time / learn / short / a / such / in)
8 Why .....? You could have got a cheaper one.
(expensive / you / an / phone / did / such / buy)

102.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 We enjoyed our holiday. We had such ....a good time.... .
2 I like Kate. She's so ..... .
3 I like Kate. She's such ..... .
4 It's good to see you again! I haven't seen you for so ..... .
5 I thought the airport was near the city. I didn't realise it was such ..... .
6 The streets were crowded. There were so ..... .

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Unit 103

enough and **too**

A **enough**

Enough goes *after* adjectives and adverbs:

- I can't run very far. I'm not **fit enough**. (*not* enough fit)
- Let's go. We've waited **long enough**.

Enough normally goes *before* nouns:

- We have **enough money**. We don't need any more.
- There weren't **enough chairs**. Some of us had to sit on the floor.

We also use **enough** alone (without a noun or adjective):

- We don't need more money. We have **enough**.

B **too** and **enough**

Compare **too** … and **not** … **enough**:

- You never stop working. You work **too hard**. (= more than is necessary)
- You're lazy. You **don't** work **hard enough**. (= less than is necessary)

Compare **too much**/**many** and **enough**:

- There's **too much furniture** in this room. There's not **enough space**.
- There were **too many people** and not **enough chairs**.

C **enough**/**too** + **for** … and **to** …

We say **enough**/**too** … **for** somebody/something:

- Does Joe have enough experience **for the job**?
- This bag isn't big enough **for all my clothes**.
- That shirt is too small **for you**. You need a larger size.

We say **enough**/**too** … **to** do something. For example:

- Does Joe have enough experience **to do** the job?
- Let's get a taxi. It's too far **to walk** home from here.
- She's not old enough **to have** a driving licence.

The next example has both **for** … and **to** … :

- The bridge is just wide enough **for two cars to pass** one another.

D **too hot to eat** etc.

We say:

> The food was very hot. We couldn't eat **it**.
> *and*
> The food was so hot that we couldn't eat **it**.
> *but*
> The food was **too hot to eat**. (*not* to eat it)

In the same way we say:

- These boxes are **too heavy to carry**. (*not* to carry them)
- The wallet was **too big to put in my pocket**. (*not* to put it)
- This chair isn't **strong enough to stand on**. (*not* to stand on it)

>> **to** … and **for** … (purpose) ➜ **Unit 64** Adjective + **to** … (**difficult to understand** etc.) ➜ **Unit 65**

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Exercises

103.1 Complete the sentences using enough + the following words:

buses ~~chairs~~ cups ~~hard~~ room tall time vegetables warm wide

1 You're lazy. You don't work hard enough.
2 Some of us had to sit on the floor. There weren't enough chairs.
3 Public transport isn't good here. There aren't .....
4 I can't park the car here. The space isn't .....
5 I always have to rush. There's never .....
6 You need to change your diet. You don't eat .....
7 I'm not good at basketball. I'm not .....
8 The car is quite small. Do you think there's ..... for five of us?
9 Are you .....? Or shall I switch on the heating?
10 We can't all have coffee at the same time. We don't have .....

103.2 Complete the answers to the questions. Use too or enough + the word(s) in brackets.

1	Does Sophie have a driving licence?	(old)	No, she's not old enough to have a driving licence.
2	I need to talk to you about something.	(busy)	Well, I'm afraid I'm ..... to you now.
3	Let's go to the cinema.	(late)	No, it's ..... to the cinema.
4	Why don't we sit outside?	(warm)	It's not ..... outside.
5	Would you like to be a politician?	(shy)	No, I'm ..... a politician.
6	Would you like to be a teacher?	(patience)	No, I don't have ..... a teacher.
7	Did you hear what he was saying?	(far away)	No, we were ..... what he was saying.
8	Can he read a newspaper in English?	(English)	No, he doesn't know ..... a newspaper.

103.3 Make one sentence from two. Complete the new sentence using too or enough + to ... .

1 We couldn't carry the boxes. They were too heavy.
The boxes were too heavy to carry.
2 I can't drink this coffee. It's too hot.
This coffee is .....
3 Nobody could move the piano. It was too heavy.
The piano .....
4 Don't eat these apples. They're not ripe enough.
These apples .....
5 I can't explain the situation. It is too complicated.
The situation .....
6 We couldn't climb over the wall. It was too high.
The wall .....
7 Three people can't sit on this sofa. It isn't big enough.
This sofa .....
8 You can't see some things without a microscope. They are too small.
Some .....

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Unit 104

quite, pretty, rather and fairly

A

Quite and **pretty** are similar in meaning (= less than 'very', but more than 'a little'):

- I'm surprised you haven't heard of her. She's **quite famous**. *or* She's **pretty famous**.
  (= less than 'very famous', but more than 'a little famous')
- Anna lives **quite near** me, so we see each other **pretty often**.

Pretty is an informal word and is used mainly in spoken English.

Quite goes before **a**/**an**:

- We live in **quite an old house**. (*not* a quite old house)

Compare:

- Sarah has **quite a** good job.
  Sarah has **a pretty** good job.

You can also use **quite** (but not **pretty**) in the following ways:

quite a/**an** + *noun* (without an adjective):

- I didn't expect to see them. It was **quite a surprise**. (= quite a big surprise)

quite a lot (**of** . . .):

- There were **quite a lot of** guests at the wedding.

quite + verb, especially **like** and **enjoy**:

- I **quite like** tennis, but it's not my favourite sport.

B

Rather is similar to **quite** and **pretty**. We often use **rather** for negative ideas (things we think are not good):

- The weather isn't so good. It's **rather cloudy**.
- Paul is **rather shy**. He doesn't talk very much.

Quite is also possible in these examples.

When we use **rather** for positive ideas (**good**/**nice** etc.), it means 'unusually' or 'surprisingly':

- These oranges are **rather good**. Where did you get them?

C

Fairly is weaker than **quite**/**rather**/**pretty**. For example, if something is **fairly good**, it is not very good and it could be better:

- My room is **fairly big**, but I'd prefer a bigger one.
- We see each other **fairly often**, but not as often as we used to.

D

Quite also means 'completely'. For example:

- 'Are you sure?' 'Yes, **quite sure**.' (= completely sure)

Quite means 'completely' with a number of adjectives, especially:

sure	**right**	**true**	**clear**	**different**	**incredible**	**amazing**
certain	**wrong**	**safe**	**obvious**	**unnecessary**	**extraordinary**	**impossible**

- She was **quite different** from what I expected. (= completely different)
- Everything they said was **quite true**. (= completely true)

We also use **quite** (= completely) with some verbs. For example:

- I **quite agree** with you. (= I completely agree)

not quite = not completely:

- **I don't quite understand** what you mean.
- 'Are you ready yet?' '**Not quite**.' (= not completely)

Compare the two meanings of **quite**:

- The story is **quite interesting**. (= less than 'very interesting')
- The story is **quite true**. (= completely true)

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Exercises

104.1 Complete the sentences using quite ... . Choose from:

~~famous~~ hungry late noisy often old surprised

1 I'm surprised you haven't heard of her. She's quite famous.
2 I'm ..... . Is there anything to eat?
3 We go to the cinema ..... – maybe once a month.
4 We live near a very busy road, so it's often ..... .
5 I didn't expect Lisa to contact me. I was ..... when she phoned.
6 I went to bed ..... last night, so I'm a bit tired this morning.
7 I don't know exactly when this house was built, but it's ..... .

104.2 Put the words in the right order to complete the sentences.

1 The weather was better than we had expected.
It was quite a nice day (a / nice / quite / day).
2 Tom likes to sing.
He has ..... (voice / quite / good / a).
3 The bus stop wasn't near the hotel.
We had to walk ..... (quite / way / a / long).
4 It's not so warm today.
There's ..... (a / wind / cold / pretty).
5 The roads were busy.
There was ..... (lot / traffic / a / of / quite).
6 I'm tired.
I've had ..... (pretty / day / a / busy).
7 Sarah hasn't been working here long.
She ..... (fairly / started / recently).

104.3 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences. Use rather + adjective.

1 The weather isn't so good. It's rather cloudy.
2 I enjoyed the film, but it was ..... .
3 Chris went away without telling anybody, which was ..... .
4 Lucy doesn't like having to wait. Sometimes she's ..... .
5 They have some lovely things in this shop, but it's ..... .

104.4 What does quite mean in these sentences? Tick (✓) the right meaning.

	more than 'a little', less than 'very' (Section A)	*'completely' (Section D)*
1 It's quite cold. You need a coat.	✓	
2 'Are you sure?' 'Yes, quite sure.'		✓
3 Anna's English is quite good.		
4 I couldn't believe it. It was quite incredible.		
5 My bedroom is quite big.		
6 I'm quite tired. I think I'll go to bed.		
7 I quite agree with you.		

104.5 Complete these sentences using quite ... . Choose from:

different impossible right safe sure ~~true~~

1 I didn't believe her at first, but in fact what she said was quite true.
2 You won't fall. The ladder is ..... .
3 I'm afraid I can't do what you ask. It's ..... .
4 I completely agree with you. You are ..... .
5 You can't compare the two things. They are ..... .
6 I think I saw them go out, but I'm not ..... .

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Unit 105

Comparative 1 (**cheaper, more expensive** etc.)

A Look at these examples:

How shall we travel? Shall we drive or go by train?

Let's drive. It's **cheaper**.
Don't go by train. It's **more expensive**.

Cheaper and **more expensive** are *comparative* forms.

After comparatives you can use **than** (see Unit 107):

- It's **cheaper** to drive **than** go by train.
- Going by train is **more expensive than** driving.

B The comparative form is -**er** or **more** . . . .

We use -**er** for short words (one syllable):

cheap → cheap**er** **fast** → fast**er**
large → larg**er** **thin** → thinn**er**

We also use -**er** for two-syllable words that end in -**y** (-**y** → -**ier**):

luck**y** → luck**ier** early → earl**ier**
eas**y** → eas**ier** pretty → prett**ier**

For spelling, see Appendix 6.

We use **more** . . . for longer words (two syllables or more):

more serious **more expensive**
more often **more comfortable**

We also use **more** . . . for adverbs that end in -**ly**:

more slowly **more seriously**
more easily **more quietly**

Compare these examples:

- You're **older** than me.
- The exam was quite easy – **easier** than I expected.
- Can you walk a bit **faster**?
- I'd like to have a **bigger** car.
- Last night I went to bed **earlier** than usual.

- You're **more patient** than me.
- The exam was quite difficult – **more difficult** than I expected.
- Can you walk a bit **more slowly**?
- I'd like to have a **more reliable** car.
- I don't play tennis much these days. I used to play **more often**.

We use both -**er** *or* **more** . . . with some two-syllable adjectives, especially:

clever **narrow** **quiet** **shallow** **simple**

- It's too noisy here. Can we go somewhere **quieter**? *or* . . . somewhere **more quiet**?

C A few adjectives and adverbs have irregular comparative forms:

good/well → better

- The garden looks **better** since you tidied it up.
- I know him well – probably **better** than anybody else knows him.

bad/badly → worse

- 'How's your headache? Better?' 'No, it's **worse**.'
- He did very badly in the exam – **worse** than expected.

far → further (*or* **farther**)

- It's a long walk from here to the park – **further** than I thought. (*or* **farther** than)

Note that **further** (*but not* farther) also means 'more' or 'additional':

- Let me know if you hear any **further** news. (= any more news)

>> Comparative 2–3 ➜ **Units 106–107** Superlative (**cheapest** / **most expensive** etc.) ➜ **Unit 108**

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Exercises

105.1 Complete the sentences using a comparative form (older / more important etc.).

1 This restaurant is very expensive. Let's go somewhere ....cheaper....
2 This coffee is very weak. I like it .....
3 The town was surprisingly big. I expected it to be .....
4 The hotel was surprisingly cheap. I expected it to be .....
5 The weather is too cold here. I'd like to live somewhere .....
6 Sometimes my job is a bit boring. I'd like to do something .....
7 It's a shame you live so far away. I wish you lived .....
8 It was quite easy to find a place to live. I thought it would be .....
9 Your work isn't very good. I'm sure you can do .....
10 Don't worry. The situation isn't so bad. It could be .....
11 You hardly ever call me. Why don't you call me .....?
12 You're too near the camera. Can you move a bit ..... away?

105.2 Complete the sentences. Use the comparative forms of the words in the box. Use than where necessary.

big ~~early~~ high important interested peaceful ~~reliable~~ serious slowly thin

1 I was feeling tired last night, so I went to bed ....earlier than.... usual.
2 I'd like to have a ....more reliable.... car. The one I have keeps breaking down.
3 Unfortunately the problem was ..... we thought at first.
4 You look ..... Have you lost weight?
5 We don't have enough space here. We need a ..... apartment.
6 James doesn't study very hard. He's ..... in having a good time.
7 Health and happiness are ..... money.
8 I like living in the country. It's ..... living in a town.
9 I'm sorry I don't understand. Can you speak ....., please?
10 In some parts of the country, prices are ..... in others.

105.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

than more worse quietly ~~longer~~ better careful frequent

1 Getting a visa was complicated. It took ....longer.... than I expected.
2 Sorry about my mistake. I'll try and be more ..... in future.
3 Your English has improved. It's ..... than it was.
4 You can travel by bus or by train. The buses are more ..... than the trains.
5 You can't always have things immediately. You have to be ..... patient.
6 I'm a pessimist. I always think things are going to get ..... .
7 We were busier ..... usual in the office today. It's not usually so busy.
8 You're talking very loudly. Can you speak more .....?

105.4 Read the situations and complete the sentences. Use a comparative form (-er or more ...).

1 Yesterday the temperature was six degrees. Today it's only three degrees.
It's ....colder today than.... it was yesterday.
2 Dan and I went for a run. I ran ten kilometres. Dan stopped after eight kilometres.
I ran ..... Dan.
3 The journey takes four hours by car and five hours by train.
The journey takes ..... train ..... car.
4 I expected my friends to arrive at about 4 o'clock. In fact they arrived at 2.30.
My friends ..... I expected.
5 There is always a lot of traffic here, but today the traffic is really bad.
The traffic today ..... usual.

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Unit 106 Comparative 2 (**much better** / **any better** etc.)

A **much** / **a lot** etc. + *comparative*

Before comparatives you can use:

much **a lot** **far** (= a lot) **a bit** **a little** **slightly** (= a little)

- I felt ill earlier, but I feel **much better** now. (*or* **a lot better**)
- Don't go by train. It's **a lot more expensive**. (*or* **much more expensive**)
- Could you speak **a bit more slowly**? (*or* **a little more slowly**)
- This bag is **slightly heavier** than the other one.
- The problem is **far more serious** than we thought at first.

B **any** / **no** + *comparative*

You can use **any** and **no** + comparative (**any longer** / **no bigger** etc.):

- I've waited long enough. I'm not waiting **any longer**. (= not even a little longer)
- We expected their apartment to be very big, but it's **no bigger** than ours.
  or . . . it is**n't any bigger** than ours. (= not even a little bigger)
- How do you feel now? Do you feel **any better**?
- This hotel is better than the other one, and it's **no more expensive**.

C **better and better**, **more and more** etc.

We repeat comparatives (**better and better** etc.) to say that something changes continuously:

- Your English is improving. It's getting **better and better**.
- The city has grown fast in recent years. It's got **bigger and bigger**.
- As I listened to his story, I became **more and more convinced** that he was lying.
- **More and more tourists** are visiting this part of the country.

D **the** . . . **the** . . .

You can say **the sooner the better**, **the more the better** etc. :

- A: What time shall we leave?
  B: **The sooner the better**. (= as soon as possible)
- A: What sort of bag do you want? A big one?
  B: Yes, **the bigger the better**. (= as big as possible)
- When you're travelling, **the less luggage** you have **the better**.

We also use **the** . . . **the** . . . to say that one thing depends on another thing:

- **The sooner** we leave, **the earlier** we'll arrive. (= if we leave sooner, we'll arrive earlier)
- **The younger** you are, **the easier** it is to learn.
- **The more expensive** the hotel, **the better** the service.
- **The more** I thought about the plan, **the less** I liked it.

E **older** and **elder**

The comparative of **old** is **older**:

- David looks **older** than he really is. (*not* looks elder)

We use **elder** only when we talk about people in a family (**my elder sister**, **their elder son** etc.).
You can also use **older**:

- **My elder sister** is a TV producer. (*or* My **older** sister . . .)

But we do not say that 'somebody is elder':

- My sister is **older** than me. (*not* elder than me)

>> **any/no → Unit 86** Comparative 1, 3 **→ Units 105, 107** **eldest → Unit 108C**
even + comparative **→ Unit 112C**

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Exercises

106.1 Use the words in brackets to complete the sentences. Use much / a bit etc. + a comparative form. Use than where necessary.

1 The problem is ....much more serious than.... we thought at first. (much / serious)
2 This bag is too small. I need something ..... (much / big)
3 I liked the museum. It was ..... I expected. (a lot / interesting)
4 It was very hot yesterday. Today it's ..... (a little / cool)
5 I'm afraid the problem is ..... it seems. (far / complicated)
6 You're driving too fast. Can you drive .....? (a bit / slowly)
7 I thought he was younger than me, but in fact he's ..... (slightly / old)

106.2 Complete the sentences using any/no + comparative. Use than where necessary.

1 I've waited long enough. I'm not waiting ....any longer.... .
2 I'm sorry I'm a bit late, but I couldn't get here ..... .
3 This shop isn't expensive. The prices are ..... anywhere else.
4 I need to stop for a rest. I can't walk ..... .
5 The traffic isn't especially bad today. It's ..... usual.

106.3 Complete the sentences using ... and ... (see Section C).

1 It's getting ....more and more difficult.... to find a job. (difficult)
2 That hole in your sweater is getting ..... (big)
3 I waited for my interview and became ..... (nervous)
4 As the day went on, the weather got ..... (bad)
5 Health care is becoming ..... (expensive)
6 Since Anna went to Canada, her English has got ..... (good)
7 These days I travel a lot. I'm spending ..... away from home. (time)

106.4 Complete the sentences using the ... the ... .

1 You learn things more easily when you're young.
The ....younger you are.... , the easier it is to learn.
2 It's hard to concentrate when you're tired.
The more tired you are, the ..... .
3 We should decide what to do as soon as possible.
The ..... , the better.
4 I know more, but I understand less.
The ..... , the less I understand.
5 If you use more electricity, your bill will be higher.
The more electricity you use, ...
6 Kate had to wait a long time and became more and more impatient.
The ..... , the more ..... .

106.5 Use the words on the right to complete the sentences.

1 I like to travel light. The ....less.... luggage, the better.
2 The problem is getting ..... and more serious.
3 The more time I have, the ..... it takes me to do things.
4 I'm walking as fast as I can. I can't walk ..... faster.
5 The higher your income, ... more tax you have to pay.
6 I'm surprised Anna is only 25. I thought she was ..... .
7 Jane's ..... sister is a nurse.
8 I was a little late. The journey took ..... longer than I expected.
9 Applications for the job must be received ..... later than 15 April.
10 Don't tell him anything. The ..... he knows, the ..... .

any
better
elder
~~less~~
less
longer
more
no
older
slightly
the

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Unit 107

Comparative 3 (**as … as** / **than**)

A Study this example situation:

Sarah, Joe and David are all very rich.
Sarah has $20 million, Joe has $15 million and David has $10 million. So:

Joe is rich.

He is **richer than** David.

But he **isn't as rich as** Sarah.
(= Sarah is **richer than** he is)

Some more examples of **not as** … (**as**):

- Jack **isn't as old as** he looks. (= he looks **older than** he is)
- The town centre **wasn't as crowded as** usual. (= it is usually **more crowded**)
- Lisa **didn't** do **as well** in the exam **as** she had hoped. (= she had hoped to do **better**)
- The weather is better today. It's **not as cold**. (= yesterday was **colder than** today)
- **I don't** know **as many** people **as** you do. (= you know **more** people **than** me)
- 'How much was it? Fifty dollars?' 'No, **not as much** as that.' (= **less than** fifty dollars)

You can also say **not so** … (**as**):

- It's not warm, but it's **not so** cold **as** yesterday. (= it's not **as** cold **as** …)

Less than is similar to **not as** … **as**:

- I spent **less** money **than** you. (= I **didn't** spend **as** much money **as** you)
- The city centre was **less** crowded **than** usual. (= it **wasn't as** crowded **as** usual)
- I play tennis **less than** I used to. (= I **don't** play **as** much **as** I used to)

B We also use **as** … **as** (*but not* so … as) in positive sentences and in questions:

- I'm sorry I'm late. I got here **as fast as** I could.
- There's plenty of food. You can have **as much as** you want.
- Can you send me the information **as soon as** possible, please?
- Let's walk. It's just **as quick as** taking the bus.

also **twice as** … **as**, **three times as** … **as** etc. :

- Petrol is **twice as expensive as** it was a few years ago.
- Their house is about **three times as big as** ours.
  (*or* … **three times the size of** ours)

C We say **the same as** (*not* the same like):

- Laura's salary is **the same as** mine. *or* Laura gets **the same** salary **as** me.
- David is **the same** age **as** James.
- Sarah hasn't changed. She still looks **the same as** she did ten years ago.

D **than me** / **than I am** etc.

You can say:

- You're taller **than me**. *or* You're taller **than I am**.
  (*not usually* You're taller than I)
- He's not as clever **as her**. *or* He's not as clever **as she is**.
- They have more money **than us**. *or* They have more money **than we have**.
- I can't run as fast **as him**. *or* I can't run as fast **as he can**.

Comparative 1–2 ➜ **Units 105–106** **as long as** ➜ **Unit 115B** **as** and **like** ➜ **Unit 117**

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Exercises

107.1 Complete the sentences using as … as.

1 I'm tall, but you are taller. I'm not as tall as you.
2 My salary is high, but yours is higher. My salary isn't ....
3 You know a bit about cars, but I know more.
You don't ....
4 We are busy today, but we were busier yesterday.
We aren't ....
5 I still feel bad, but I felt a lot worse earlier.
I don't ....
6 Our neighbours have lived here for quite a long time, but we've lived here longer.
Our neighbours haven't ....
7 I was a little nervous before the interview, but usually I'm a lot more nervous.
I wasn't ....

107.2 Write a new sentence with the same meaning.

1 Jack is younger than he looks. Jack isn't as old as he looks.
2 I didn't spend as much money as you. You spent more money than me.
3 The station was nearer than I thought. The station wasn't ....
4 The meal didn't cost as much as I expected. The meal cost ....
5 I watch TV less than I used to. I don't ....
6 Karen's hair isn't as long as it used to be. Karen used to ....
7 I know them better than you do. You don't ....
8 There are fewer students in this class than in the other one.
There aren't ....

107.3 Complete the sentences using as … as. Choose from:

~~fast~~ hard long often quietly soon well

1 I'm sorry I'm late. I got here as fast as I could.
2 It was a difficult question. I answered it .... I could.
3 'How long can I stay with you?' 'You can stay .... you like.'
4 I need the information quickly, so let me know .... possible.
5 I like to keep fit, so I go swimming .... I can.
6 I didn't want to wake anybody, so I came in .... I could.
7 You always say how tiring your job is, but I work just .... you.

107.4 Write sentences using the same as.

1 David and James are both 22 years old. David is the same age as James.
2 You and I both have dark brown hair. Your hair .... mine.
3 I arrived at 10.25 and so did you. I arrived .... you.
4 My birthday is 5 April. It's Tom's birthday too. My birthday .... Tom's.

107.5 Complete the sentences. Choose from:

as him is less me much ~~soon~~ than twice

1 I'll let you know as soon as I have any more news.
2 My friends arrived earlier .... I expected.
3 I live in the same street .... Katherine. We're neighbours.
4 He doesn't know much. I know more than ....
5 This morning there was .... traffic than usual.
6 I don't watch TV as .... as I used to.
7 Your bag is quite light. Mine is .... as heavy as yours.
8 We were born in the same year. I'm a little older than she ....
9 I was really surprised. Nobody was more surprised than ....

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Unit 108

Superlative (**the longest** / **the most enjoyable** etc.)

A

Look at these examples:

What is **the longest** river in the world?
What was **the most enjoyable** holiday you've ever had?

Longest and **most enjoyable** are *superlative* forms.

The superlative form is **-est** or **most** . . . . In general, we use **-est** for short words and **most** . . . for longer words.

	long → long**est**	**hot** → hott**est**	**easy** → easi**est**	**hard** → hard**est**
but	**most** famous	**most** boring	**most** enjoyable	**most** difficult

A few superlative forms are irregular:
good → **best** bad → **worst** **far** → **furthest** *or* **farthest**

The rules are the same as those for the comparative – see Unit 105.
For spelling, see Appendix 6.

B

We normally use **the** (or **my**/**your** etc.) with a superlative:
- Yesterday was **the hottest** day of the year.
- The Louvre in Paris is one of **the most famous** museums in the world.
- She is really nice – one of **the nicest** people I know.
- What's **the best** movie you've ever seen, and what's **the worst**?
- How old is **your youngest** child?

Compare the superlative and the comparative:
- This hotel is **the cheapest** in town. *(superlative)*
  It's **cheaper** than all the others in town. *(comparative)*
- He's **the most patient** person I've ever met.
  He's much **more patient** than I am.

C

oldest and **eldest**

The superlative of **old** is **oldest**:
- That church is **the oldest** building in the town. (*not* the eldest)

We use **eldest** only when we talk about people in a family (you can also use **oldest**):
- **Their eldest son** is 13 years old. (*or* Their **oldest** son)
- Are you **the eldest** in your family? (*or* the **oldest**)

D

After superlatives we normally use **in** with places:
- What's the longest river **in the world**? (*not* of the world)
- We had a nice room. It was one of the best **in the hotel**. (*not* of the hotel)

We also use **in** for organisations and groups of people (a class / a company etc.):
- Who is the youngest student **in the class**? (*not* of the class)

For a period of time (**day**, **year** etc.), we normally use **of**:
- Yesterday was the hottest day **of the year**.
- What was the happiest day **of your life**?

E

We often use the *present perfect* (I **have done**) after a superlative (see also Unit 8A):
- What's **the most important** decision **you've** ever **made**?
- That was **the best** holiday **I've had** for a long time.

>> Comparative (**cheaper** / **more expensive** etc.) ➜ **Units 105–107** **elder** ➜ **Unit 106E**

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Exercises

108.1 Complete the sentences. Use the superlative forms (-est or most ...) of the words in the box.

bad ~~cheap~~ good honest popular short tall

1 We didn't have much money, so we stayed at the cheapest hotel in the town.
2 This building is 250 metres high, but it's not ..... in the city.
3 It was an awful day. It was ..... day of my life.
4 What is ..... sport in your country?
5 I like the morning. For me it's ..... part of the day.
6 Sarah always tells the truth. She's one of ..... people I know.
7 A straight line is ..... distance between two points.

108.2 Complete the sentences. Use a superlative (-est or most ...) or a comparative (-er or more ...).

1 We stayed at the cheapest hotel in the town. (cheap)
2 Our hotel was cheaper than all the others in the town. (cheap)
3 I wasn't feeling well yesterday, but I feel a bit ..... today. (good)
4 What's ..... thing you've ever bought? (expensive)
5 I prefer this chair to the other one. It's ..... . (comfortable)
6 Amy and Ben have three daughters. ..... is 14 years old. (old)
7 Who is the ..... person you know? (old)
8 What's ..... way to get to the station? (quick)
9 Which is ..... – the bus or the train? (quick)
10 I can remember when I was three years old. It's ..... memory. (early)
11 Everest is ..... mountain in the world. It is ..... than any other mountain. (high)
12 A: This knife isn't very sharp. Do you have a ..... one?
B: No, it's ..... one I have. (sharp)

108.3 Complete the sentences. Use a superlative (-est or most ...) + a preposition (of or in).

1 It's a very good room. It's the best room in the hotel.
2 Brazil is a very large country. It's ..... South America.
3 It was a very happy day. It was ..... my life.
4 This is a very valuable painting. It's ..... the museum.
5 Spring is a very busy time for me. It's ..... the year.

In the following sentences use one of + a superlative + a preposition.

6 It's a very good room. It's one of the best rooms in the hotel.
7 He's a very rich man. He's one ..... the country.
8 She's a very good student. She's ..... the class.
9 It was a very bad experience. It was ..... my life.
10 It's a very famous university. It's ..... the world.

108.4 What do you say in these situations? Use a superlative + ever.

1 You've just been to the cinema. The movie was extremely boring. You tell your friend:
(boring / movie / ever / see) That's the most boring movie I've ever seen.
2 Someone has just told you a joke which you think is very funny. You say:
(funny / joke / ever / hear) That's ..... .
3 You're drinking coffee with a friend. It's really good coffee. You say:
(good / coffee / ever / taste) This ..... .
4 You have just run ten kilometres. You've never run further than this. You say:
(far / ever / run) That ..... .
5 You gave up your job. Now you think this was a very bad mistake. You say:
(bad / mistake / ever / make) It ..... .
6 Your friend meets a lot of people, some of them famous. You ask your friend:
(famous / person / ever / meet?) Who ..... ?

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Unit 109

Word order 1: verb + object; place and time

A Verb + object

The *verb* and the *object* normally go together. We do not usually put other words between them:

	verb	*object*		
I	**like**	**my job**	very much.	(*not* I like very much)
Our guide	**spoke**	**English**	fluently.	(*not* spoke fluently English)
I didn't	**use**	**my phone**	yesterday.	
Do you	**eat**	**meat**	every day?	

Two more examples:

- I lost all my money and I also **lost my passport**.
  (*not* I lost also my passport)
- At the end of this street you'll **see a supermarket** on your left.
  (*not* see on your left a supermarket)

B Place

The *verb* and *place* (where?) normally go together:

go home **live in a city** **walk to work** etc.

If the verb has an *object*, the order is:

	verb	*object*	*place*	
We	**took**	**the children**	**to the zoo**.	(*not* took to the zoo the children)
Don't	**put**	**anything**	**on the table**.	
Did you	**learn**	**English**	**at school**?	

C Time

Normally *time* (when? / how often? / how long?) goes after *place*:

	place	*time*	
Ben walks	**to work**	**every morning**.	(*not* every morning to work)
I'm going	**to Paris**	**on Monday**.	
They've lived	**in the same house**	**for a long time**.	
We need to be	**at the airport**	**by 8 o'clock**.	
Sarah gave me a lift	**home**	**after the party**.	
You really shouldn't go	**to bed**	**so late**.	

Sometimes we put *time* at the beginning of the sentence:

- **On Monday** I'm going to Paris.
- **After the party** Sarah gave me a lift home.

Some time words (for example, **always**/**never**/**usually**) go with the verb in the middle of the sentence. See Unit 110.

>> Word order in questions ➜ **Units 49–50** Adjective order ➜ **Unit 99** Word order 2 ➜ **Unit 110**

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Exercises

109.1 Is the word order OK or not? Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 Did you see your friends yesterday? OK
2 Ben walks every morning to work. Ben walks to work every morning.
3 Joe doesn't like very much football. .....
4 Dan won easily the race. .....
5 Tanya speaks German quite well. .....
6 Have you seen recently Chris? .....
7 I borrowed from a friend some money. .....
8 Please don't ask that question again. .....
9 I ate quickly my breakfast and went out. .....
10 Did you invite to the party a lot of people? .....
11 Sam watches all the time TV. .....
12 Does Kevin play football every weekend? .....

109.2 Complete the sentences. Put the parts in the correct order.

1 We (the children / to the zoo / took). We took the children to the zoo.
2 I (a friend of mine / on my way home / met). I .....
3 I (to put / on the envelope / a stamp / forgot). I .....
4 We (a lot of fruit / bought / in the market). We .....
5 They (opposite the park / a new hotel / built). They .....
6 Did you (at school / today / a lot of things / learn)?
Did you .....?
7 We (some interesting books / found / in the library).
We .....
8 Please (at the top / write / of the page / your name).
Please .....

109.3 Complete the sentences. Put the parts in the correct order.

1 They (for a long time / have lived / in the same house).
They have lived in the same house for a long time.
2 I (to the supermarket / every Friday / go).
I .....
3 Why (home / did you come / so late)?
Why .....?
4 Sarah (her children / takes / every day / to school).
Sarah .....
5 I haven't (been / recently / to the cinema).
I haven't .....
6 I (her name / after a few minutes / remembered).
I .....
7 We (around the town / all morning / walked).
We .....
8 My brother (has been / since April / in Canada).
My brother .....
9 I (on Saturday night / didn't see you / at the party).
I .....
10 Lisa (her umbrella / last night / in a restaurant / left).
Lisa .....
11 The moon (round the earth / every 27 days / goes).
The moon .....
12 Anna (Italian / for the last three years / has been teaching / in London).
Anna .....

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Unit 110

Word order 2: adverbs with the verb

A

Some adverbs (for example, **always**, **also**, **probably**) go with the verb in the middle of a sentence:

- Emily **always drives** to work.
- We were feeling very tired and we **were also** hungry.
- The meeting **will probably be cancelled**.

B

If the verb is one word (**drives**/**cooked** etc.), the adverb goes *before* the verb:

	adverb	*verb*	
Emily	**always**	**drives**	to work.
I	**almost**	**fell**	as I was going down the stairs.

- I cleaned the house and **also cooked** the dinner. (*not* cooked also)
- Laura **hardly ever watches** television and **rarely reads** newspapers.
- 'Shall I give you my address?' 'No, I **already have** it.'

Note that these adverbs (**always**/**usually**/**also** etc.) go before **have to** . . . :

- Joe never phones me. I **always have to** phone him. (*not* I have always to phone)

But adverbs go *after* **am**/**is**/**are**/**was**/**were**:

- We were feeling very tired and we **were also** hungry. (*not* also were)
- You**'re always** late. You**'re never** on time.
- The traffic **isn't usually** as bad as it was this morning.

C

If the verb is two or more words (for example, **can remember** / **will be cancelled**), the adverb usually goes *after the first verb* (**can**/**doesn't**/**will** etc.):

	verb 1	*adverb*	*verb 2*	
I	**can**	**never**	**remember**	her name.
Clare	**doesn't**	**usually**	**drive**	to work.
	Are you	**definitely**	**going**	away next week?
The meeting	**will**	**probably**	**be**	cancelled.

- You**'ve always been** very kind to me.
- Jack can't cook. He **can't even boil** an egg.
- **Do** you **still work** for the same company?
- The house **was only built** a year ago and it**'s already falling** down.

Note that **probably** goes before a negative (**isn't**/**won't** etc.). So we say:

- I **probably won't see** you. *or*
  I'll **probably not** see you. (*but not* I won't probably)

D

We also use **all** and **both** with the verb in the middle of a sentence:

- We **all felt** ill after the meal. (*not* felt all ill)
- My parents **are both** teachers.
- Sarah and Jane **have both applied** for the job.
- My friends **are all going** out tonight.

E

Sometimes we use **is**/**will**/**did** etc. instead of repeating part of a sentence (see Unit 51):

- Tom says he isn't clever, but I think he **is**. (= he **is clever**)

When we do this, we put **always**/**never** etc. *before* the verb:

- He always says he won't be late, but he **always is**. (= he **is always** late)
- I've never done it and I **never will**. (= I **will never** do it)

>> Word order 1 ➜ **Unit 109**

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Exercises

110.1 Is the word order OK or not? Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 Helen drives always to work. Helen always drives to work.
2 I cleaned the house and also cooked the dinner. OK
3 I have usually a shower in the morning. .....
4 I'm usually hungry when I get home from work. .....
5 Steve gets hardly ever angry. .....
6 I called him and I sent also an email. .....
7 You don't listen! I have always to repeat things. .....
8 I never have worked in a factory. .....
9 I never have enough time. I'm always busy. .....
10 When I arrived, my friends already were there. .....

110.2 Rewrite the sentences to include the word in brackets.

1 Clare doesn't drive to work. (usually) Clare doesn't usually drive to work.
2 Katherine is very generous. (always) .....
3 I don't have to work on Sundays. (usually) .....
4 Do you watch TV in the evenings? (always) .....
5 Martin is learning Spanish, and he is learning Japanese. (also)
Martin is learning Spanish and he .....
6 a We were on holiday in Spain. (all) .....
b We were staying at the same hotel. (all) .....
c We had a great time. (all) .....
7 a The new hotel is expensive. (probably) .....
b It costs a lot to stay there. (probably) .....
8 a I can help you. (probably) .....
b I can't help you. (probably) .....

110.3 Complete the sentences. Use the words in brackets in the correct order.

1 What's her name again? I can never remember (remember / I / never / can) it.
2 Our cat ..... (usually / sleeps) under the bed.
3 There are plenty of hotels here. ..... (usually / it / easy / is) to find a place to stay.
4 Mark and Amy ..... (both / were / born) in Manchester.
5 Lisa is a good pianist. ..... (sing / she / also / can) very well.
6 How do you go to work? ..... (usually / you / do / go) by bus?
7 I see them every day, but ..... (never / I / have / spoken) to them.
8 We haven't moved. ..... (we / still / are / living) in the same place.
9 This shop is always busy. ..... (have / you / always / to wait) a long time to be served.
10 This could be the last time I see you. ..... (meet / never / we / might) again.
11 Thanks for the invitation, but ..... (probably / I / be / won't) able to come to the party.
12 I'm going out for an hour. ..... (still / be / you / will) here when I get back?
13 Helen goes away a lot. ..... (is / hardly ever / she) at home.
14 If we hadn't taken the same train, ... (never / met / we / would / have) each other.
15 The journey took a long time today. ..... (doesn't / take / it / always) so long.
16 ..... (all / were / we) tired, so ..... (all / we / fell) asleep.
17 Tanya ..... (says / always) that she'll phone me, but ..... (does / she / never).

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Unit 111

still any more yet already

A

We use **still** to say that a situation or action is continuing. It hasn't changed or stopped:

- It's ten o'clock and Joe is **still** in bed.
- When I went to bed, Chris was **still** working.
- Do you **still** want to go away or have you changed your mind?

Still also means 'in spite of this'. For example:

- He has everything he needs, but he's **still** unhappy.

Still usually goes in the middle of the sentence with the verb. See Unit 110.

B

We use **not** … **any more** or **not** … **any longer** to say that a situation has changed.
Any more and **any longer** go at the end of a sentence:

- Lucy **doesn't** work here **any more**. She left last month. *or*
  Lucy **doesn't** work here **any longer**.
- We used to be good friends, but we **aren't any more**. *or* … we aren't **any longer**.

You can write **any more** (2 words) or **anymore** (1 word).

You can also use **no longer**. **No longer** goes in the middle of the sentence:

- Lucy **no longer** works here.

We do not normally use **no more** in this way:

- We are **no longer** friends. (*not* we are no more friends)

Compare **still** and **not** … **any more**:

- Sally **still** works here, but Lucy **doesn't** work here **any more**.

C

We use **yet** mainly in negative sentences (**He isn't** here **yet**) and questions (**Is he** here **yet**?).
Yet (= until now) shows that the speaker expects something to happen.

Yet usually goes at the end of a sentence:

- It's 10 o'clock and Joe **isn't** here **yet**.
- **Have** you **decided** what to do **yet**?
- 'Where are you going on holiday?' 'We **don't** know **yet**.'

We often use **yet** with the *present perfect* ('**Have** you **decided** … **yet**?'). See Unit 7C.

Compare **yet** and **still**:

- Mike lost his job six months ago and **is still** unemployed.
  Mike lost his job six months ago and **hasn't found** another job **yet**.
- **Is** it **still** raining?
  Has it **stopped** raining **yet**?

Still is also possible in *negative* sentences (before the negative):

- She said she would be here an hour ago and she **still hasn't** come.

This is similar to 'she hasn't come **yet**'. But **still** … **not** shows a stronger feeling of surprise or impatience. Compare:

- I sent him an invitation last week. He **hasn't** replied **yet**. (but I expect he will reply soon)
- I sent him an invitation weeks ago and he **still hasn't** replied. (he should have replied before now)

D

We use **already** to say that something happened sooner than expected.

- 'What time is Sue leaving?' 'She has **already** left.' (= sooner than you expected)
- Shall I tell Joe what happened or does he **already** know?
- I've just had lunch and I'm **already** hungry.

Already usually goes in the middle of a sentence (see Unit 110) or at the end:

- She's **already** left. *or* She's left **already**.

>> Present perfect + **already**/**yet** ➜ **Unit 7C** Word order ➜ **Unit 110**

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Exercises

111.1 **Compare what Paul said a few years ago with what he says now. Some things are the same as before and some things have changed. Write sentences with still and any more.**

Paul a few years ago

I travel a lot.
I work in a shop.
I write poems.
I want to be a teacher.
I'm interested in politics.
I'm single.
I go fishing a lot.

Paul now

I travel a lot.
I work in a hospital.
I gave up writing poems.
I want to be a teacher.
I'm not interested in politics.
I'm single.
I haven't been fishing for years.

1 (travel) He still travels a lot.
2 (shop) He doesn't work in a shop any more.
3 (poems) He .....
4 (teacher) .....
5 (politics) .....
.....
6 (single) .....
7 (fishing) .....
8 (beard) .....

Now write three sentences about Paul using no longer.

9 He no longer works in a shop.
10 .....
11 .....
12 .....

111.2 **For each sentence (with still) write a sentence with a similar meaning using not ... yet. Choose from these verbs:**

decide **find** **finish** **go** **~~stop~~** **take off** **wake up**

1 It's still raining. It hasn't stopped raining yet.
2 Gary is still here. He .....
3 They're still repairing the road. They .....
4 The children are still asleep. They .....
5 Kate is still looking for a job. She .....
6 I'm still wondering what to do. I .....
7 The plane is still waiting on the runway. It .....

111.3 **Put in still, yet, already or any more.**

1 Mike lost his job a year ago and he is still unemployed.
2 Shall I tell Joe what happened or does he already know?
3 Do you ..... live in the same place or have you moved?
4 I'm hungry. Is dinner ready ..... ?
5 I was hungry earlier, but I don't feel hungry ..... .
6 Can we wait a few minutes? I don't want to go out ..... .
7 Amy used to work at the airport, but she doesn't work there ..... .
8 I used to live in Amsterdam. I ..... have a lot of friends there.
9 There's no need to introduce me to Joe. We've ..... met.
10 John is 80 years old, but he's ..... very fit and healthy.
11 Would you like something to eat, or have you ..... eaten?
12 'Where's Helen?' 'She's not here ..... . She'll be here soon.'
13 Mark said he'd be here at 8.30. It's 9 o'clock now and he ..... isn't here.
14 Do you want to join the club or are you ..... a member?
15 It happened a long time ago, but I ..... remember it very clearly.
16 I've put on weight. These trousers don't fit me ..... .

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Unit 112 even

A Study this example situation:

Tina loves watching TV.

She has a television in every room of the house, **even the bathroom**.

We use **even** to say that something is unusual or surprising. It is not usual to have a television in the bathroom.

Some more examples:

- These pictures are really awful. **Even I** take better pictures than these. (and I'm certainly not a good photographer)
- He always wears a coat, **even in hot weather**.
- The print was very small. I couldn't read it, **even with glasses**.
- Nobody would help her, **not even her best friend**. *or* **Not even** her best friend would help her.

B You can use **even** with the verb in the middle of a sentence (see Unit 110):

- Laura has travelled all over the world. She's **even** been to the Antarctic.
- They are very rich. They **even** have their own private jet.

You can use **even** with a negative (**not even**, **can't even**, **don't even** etc.):

- I can't cook. I **can't even** boil an egg. (and boiling an egg is very easy)
- They weren't very friendly to us. They **didn't even** say hello.
- Jessica is very fit. She's been running quite fast and she's **not even** out of breath.

C You can use **even** + *comparative* (**cheaper** / **more expensive** etc.):

- I got up very early, but Jack got up **even earlier**.
- I knew I didn't have much money, but I have **even less** than I thought.
- We were very surprised to get an email from her. We were **even more surprised** when she came to see us a few days later.

D **even though** / **even when** / **even if**

We use **even though** / **even when** / **even if** + *subject* + *verb*:

- **Even though Tina can't** drive, she has a car.
  subject + verb
- He never shouts, **even when he's** angry.
- This river is dangerous. It's dangerous to swim in it, **even if you're** a strong swimmer.

We do not use **even** + *subject* + *verb*. We say:

- **Even though she can't** drive, she has a car. (*not* even she can't drive)
- I can't reach the shelf **even if I stand** on a chair. (*not* even I stand)

Compare **even if** and **even** (without **if**):

- It's dangerous to swim here **even if you're** a strong swimmer. (*not* even you are)
- The river is dangerous, **even for strong swimmers**.

Compare **even if** and **if**:

- We're going to the beach tomorrow. It doesn't matter what the weather is like. We're going **even if** the weather is bad.
- We want to go to the beach tomorrow, but we won't go **if** the weather is bad.

>> **if** and **when** ➜ **Unit 25D** **though** / **even though** ➜ **Unit 113E**

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Exercises

112.1 **Amy, Kate and Lisa are three friends who went on holiday together. Use the information given about them to complete the sentences using even or not even.**

AMY	KATE	LISA
is usually happy	isn't very keen on art	is almost always late
is usually on time	is usually miserable	is a keen photographer
likes to get up early	usually hates hotels	loves staying in hotels
is very interested in art	doesn't use her camera much	isn't very good at getting up

1 They stayed at a hotel. Everybody liked it, even Kate.
2 They arranged to meet. They all arrived on time, ...
3 They went to an art gallery. Nobody enjoyed it, ...
4 Yesterday they had to get up early. They all managed to do this, ...
5 They were together yesterday. They were all in a good mood, ...
6 None of them took any pictures, ...

112.2 **Make sentences with even. Use the words in brackets.**

1 Laura has been all over the world. (the Antarctic) She has even been to the Antarctic.
2 We painted the whole room. (the floor) We .....
3 Rachel has met lots of famous people. (the prime minister)
She .....
4 You could hear the noise from a long way away. (from the next street)
You .....

Now make sentences with a negative + even (didn't even, can't even etc.).

5 They didn't say anything to us. (hello) They didn't even say hello.
6 I can't remember anything about her. (her name)
I .....
7 There isn't anything to do in this town. (a cinema)
.....
8 He didn't tell anybody where he was going. (his wife)
.....
9 I don't know anyone in our street. (my neighbours)
.....

112.3 **Complete the sentences using even + comparative.**

1 It was very hot yesterday, but today it's even hotter.
2 The church is 700 years old, but the house next to it is .....
3 That's a very good idea, but I've got an ..... one.
4 The first question was very difficult to answer. The second one was .....
5 I did very badly in the exam, but most of my friends did .....
6 Neither of us was hungry. I ate very little and my friend ate .....

112.4 **Complete the sentences. Choose from: if even even if even though**

1 Even though she can't drive, she has a car.
2 The bus leaves in five minutes, but we can still catch it ..... we run.
3 The bus leaves in two minutes. We won't catch it now ..... we run.
4 Mark's Spanish isn't very good, ... after three years in Spain.
5 Mark's Spanish isn't very good, ... he lived in Spain for three years.
6 ..... with the heating on, it was cold in the house.
7 I couldn't sleep ..... I was very tired.
8 I won't forgive them for what they did, ... they apologise.
9 ..... I hadn't eaten anything for 24 hours, I wasn't hungry.

➜ **Additional exercise 32** (page 321)

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Unit 113

although though even though in spite of despite

A Study this example situation:

Last year Paul and Sarah had a holiday by the sea.
It rained a lot, but they had a good time.

You can say:

Although it rained a lot, they had a good time.
(= It rained a lot, but they . . .)
or
In spite of / **Despite** } **the rain**, they had a good time.

B After **although** we use a *subject* + *verb*:

- **Although it rained** a lot, they had a good time.
- I didn't apply for the job **although I had** the necessary qualifications.

Compare the meaning of **although** and **because**:

- We went out **although** it was raining heavily.
- We didn't go out **because** it was raining heavily.

C After **in spite of** or **despite**, we use a *noun*, a *pronoun* (**this**/**that**/**what** etc.) or **-ing**:

- **In spite of the rain**, we had a good time.
- She wasn't well, but **in spite of this** she continued working.
- **In spite of what** I said yesterday, I still love you.
- I didn't apply for the job **in spite of having** the necessary qualifications.

Despite is the same as **in spite of**. We say **in spite of**, but **despite** (*without* of):

- She wasn't well, but **despite this** she continued working. (*not* despite of this)

You can say '**in spite of the fact** (that) . . .' and '**despite the fact** (that) . . .':

- I didn't apply for the job { **in spite of the fact** (that) / **despite the fact** (that) } I had the necessary qualifications.

Compare **in spite of** and **because of**:

- We went out **in spite of the rain**. (*or* . . . **despite the rain**.)
- We didn't go out **because of the rain**.

D Compare **although** and **in spite of** / **despite**:

- **Although the traffic was** bad, / **In spite of the traffic**, } we arrived on time. (*not* in spite of the traffic was bad)
- I couldn't sleep { **although I was** very tired. / **despite being** very tired. (*not* despite I was tired)

E **though** = **although**:

- I didn't apply for the job **though** I had the necessary qualifications.

In spoken English we often use **though** at the end of a sentence:

- The house isn't so nice. I like the garden **though**. (= but I like the garden)
- I see them every day. I've never spoken to them **though**. (= but I've never spoken to them)

Even though (*but not* 'even' alone) is similar to **although**:

- **Even though** I was really tired, I couldn't sleep. (*not* even I was really tired)

>> even → Unit 112

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Exercises

113.1 Complete the sentences. Use although + a sentence from the box.

I didn't speak the language well	~~she has a very important job~~
I had never seen her before	we don't like them very much
it was quite cold	the heating was on
I'd met her twice before	we've known each other a long time

1 Although she has a very important job, she isn't well-paid.
2 ....., I recognised her from a photo.
3 Sarah wasn't wearing a coat .....
4 We decided to invite them to the party .....
5 ....., I managed to make myself understood.
6 ....., the room wasn't warm.
7 I didn't recognise her .....
8 We're not close friends .....

113.2 Complete the sentences with although / in spite of / because / because of.

1 Although it rained a lot, we had a good time.
2 a ..... all our careful plans, a lot of things went wrong.
  b ..... we'd planned everything carefully, a lot of things went wrong.
3 a I went home early ..... I was feeling unwell.
  b I went to work the next day ..... I was still feeling unwell.
4 a Chris only accepted the job ..... the salary, which was very high.
  b Sam accepted the job ..... the salary, which was rather low.
5 a ..... there was a lot of noise, I slept quite well.
  b I couldn't get to sleep ..... the noise.

Use your own ideas to complete the following sentences:

6 a He passed the exam although .....
  b He passed the exam because .....
7 a I didn't eat much although .....
  b I didn't eat much in spite of .....

113.3 Make one sentence from two. Use the word(s) in brackets in your sentences.

1 I couldn't sleep. I was very tired. (despite)
  I couldn't sleep despite being very tired.
2 We played quite well. We lost the game. (in spite of)
  In spite .....
3 I'd hurt my foot. I managed to walk home. (although)
  .....
4 I enjoyed the film. The story was silly. (in spite of)
  .....
5 We live in the same building. We hardly ever see each other. (despite)
  .....
6 They came to the party. They hadn't been invited. (even though)
  .....

113.4 Use the words in brackets to make a sentence with though at the end.

1 The house isn't very nice. (like / garden) I like the garden though.
2 I enjoyed reading the book. (very long) .....
3 We didn't like the food. (ate) .....
4 Laura is very nice. (don't like / husband) I .....

➜ Additional exercise 32 (page 321)

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Unit 114

in case

A Study this example situation:

Your car should have a spare wheel **in case** you have a puncture.
(= because it is possible you will have a puncture)

in case something happens =
because it is possible it will happen

Some more examples of **in case**:

- I'd better write down my password **in case I forget it**.
  (= because it is possible I will forget it)
- Shall I draw a map for you **in case you have a problem** finding our house?
  (= because it is possible you will have problems finding it)
- I'll remind them about the meeting **in case they've forgotten**.
  (= because it is possible they have forgotten)

We use **just in case** for a smaller possibility:

- I don't think it will rain, but I'll take an umbrella **just in case**. (= **just in case** it rains)

We do not use **will** after **in case** (see also Unit 25):

- I'll write down my password **in case** I **forget** it. (*not* in case I will forget)

B **In case** and **if** are not the same. We use **in case** to say *why* somebody does (or doesn't do) something. You do something *now* **in case** something happens *later*.

Compare:

in case

- We'll buy some more food **in case** Tom comes.
  (= Maybe Tom will come. We'll buy some more food now, whether he comes or not. Then we'll *already* have the food *if* he comes.)
- I'll give you my phone number **in case** you need to contact me.
- You should insure your bike **in case** it is stolen.

if

- We'll buy some more food **if** Tom comes.
  (= Maybe Tom will come. If he comes, we'll buy some more food. If he doesn't come, we won't buy any more food.)
- You can call me on this number **if** you need to contact me.
- You should inform the police **if** your bike is stolen.

C You can use **in case** + *past* to say why somebody did something:

- I gave him my phone number **in case he needed** to contact me.
  (= because it was possible that he would need to contact me)
- I drew a map for Sarah **in case she had** a problem finding our house.
- We rang the doorbell again **in case they hadn't heard** it the first time.

D **in case of** = if there is . . . (especially on notices, instructions etc.):

- **In case of fire**, please leave the building as quickly as possible. (= if there is a fire)
- **In case of emergency**, call this number. (= if there is an emergency)

>> if → Units 25, 38–40

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Exercises

114.1 **Sophie is going for a long walk in the country. You're worried about her because:**

perhaps she'll be thirsty	**she might need to call somebody**	**maybe she'll get lonely**
~~**it's possible she'll get lost**~~	**perhaps she'll get hungry**	**maybe it will rain**

You advise her to take some things with her. Complete the sentences using in case.

1 Take a map ...in case you get lost...
2 You should take some chocolate .....
3 You'll need an anorak .....
4 Take plenty of water .....
5 Don't forget your phone .....
6 Shall I come with you .....?

114.2 **What do you say in these situations? Use in case.**

1 It's possible that Jane will need to contact you, so you give her your phone number.
You say: I'll give you my phone number ...in case you need to contact me...

2 A friend of yours is going away for a long time. Maybe you won't see her again before she goes, so you decide to say goodbye now.
You say: I'll say goodbye now .....

3 You are buying food in a supermarket with a friend. You think you have everything you need, but maybe you've forgotten something. Your friend has the list. You ask her to check it.
You say: Can you .....?

4 You're shopping with a friend. She's just bought some jeans, but she didn't try them on. Maybe they won't fit her, so you advise her to keep the receipt.
You say: Keep .....

114.3 **Complete the sentences using in case.**

1 It was possible that it would rain, so I took an umbrella.
I took an umbrella ...in case it rained...
2 I thought that I might forget the name of the book. So I wrote it down.
I wrote down the name of the book .....
3 I thought my parents might be worried about me. So I phoned them.
I phoned my parents .....
4 I sent an email to Lisa, but she didn't reply. So I sent another email because maybe she didn't get the first one.
I sent her another email .....
5 I met some people when I was on holiday in France. They said they might come to London one day. I live in London, so I gave them my phone number.
I gave them my phone number .....

114.4 **Put in in case or if.**

1 I'll draw a map for you ...in case... you have a problem finding our house.
2 You should tell the police ...if... you have any information about the crime.
3 I hope you'll come to Australia sometime. ..... you come, you must visit us.
4 I made a copy of the document ..... something happens to the original.
5 This book belongs to Kate. Can you give it to her ..... you see her?
6 Write your name and phone number on your bag ..... you lose it.
7 Go to the lost property office ..... you lose your bag.
8 The burglar alarm will ring ..... somebody tries to break into the house.
9 You should lock your bike to something ..... somebody tries to steal it.
10 I was advised to get insurance ..... I needed medical treatment while I was abroad.

➜ **Additional exercise 32** (page 321)

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Unit 115

unless as long as provided

A unless

Study this example situation:

The club is for members only.

You can't go in **unless you are a member**.

This means:
You can't go in *except if* you are a member.
You can go in *only if* you are a member.

unless = except if

Some more examples of **unless**:

- I'll see you tomorrow **unless I have to work late**.
  (= except if I have to work late)
- There are no buses to the beach. **Unless you have a car**, it's difficult to get there.
  (= except if you have a car)
- A: Shall I tell Lisa what happened?
  B: **Not unless** she asks you. (= tell her only if she asks you)
- Ben hates to complain. He wouldn't complain about something **unless it was really bad**.
  (= except if it was really bad)
- We can take a taxi to the restaurant – **unless you'd prefer to walk**. (= except if you'd prefer to walk)

Instead of **unless** it is often possible to say **if** . . . **not**:

- **Unless we leave now**, we'll be late. *or* **If we don't leave now**, we'll . . .

B as long as / so long as and provided / providing

You can say **as long as** or **so long as** (= if, on condition that):

- You can borrow my car { **as long as** / **so long as** } you promise not to drive too fast.
  (= You can borrow my car, but you must promise not to drive too fast. This is a condition.)

You can also say **provided** (**that**) or **providing** (**that**):

- Travelling by car is convenient { **provided** (**that**) / **providing** (**that**) } you have somewhere to park.
  (= It's convenient but only if you have somewhere to park.)
- { **Providing** (**that**) / **Provided** (**that**) } the room is clean, I don't mind which hotel we stay at.
  (= The room must be clean, but otherwise I don't mind.)

C unless / as long as etc. for the future

When we are talking about the future, we do *not* use **will** after **unless** / **as long as** / **so long as** / **provided** / **providing**. We use a *present* tense (see Unit 25):

- I'm not going out **unless** it **stops** raining. (*not* unless it will stop)
- **Providing** the weather **is** good, we're going to have a picnic tomorrow.
  (*not* providing the weather will be good)

>> if → Units 25, 38–40

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Exercises

115.1 Write a new sentence with the same meaning. Use unless in your sentence.

1 You must try a bit harder, or you won't pass the exam.
You won't pass the exam unless you try a bit harder.
2 Listen carefully, or you won't know what to do.
You won't know what to do .....
3 She must apologise to me, or I'll never speak to her again.
.....
4 You have to speak very slowly, or he won't understand you.
.....
5 Business must improve soon, or the company will have to close.
.....
6 We need to do something soon, or the problem will get worse.
.....

115.2 Write sentences with unless.

1 The club isn't open to everyone. You're allowed in only if you're a member.
You aren't allowed in the club unless you're a member.
2 I don't want to go to the party alone. I'm going only if you go too.
I'm not going .....
3 Don't worry about the dog. It will chase you only if you move suddenly.
The dog .....
4 Ben isn't very talkative. He'll speak to you only if you ask him something.
Ben .....
5 Today is a public holiday. The doctor will see you only if it's an emergency.
The doctor .....

115.3 Which is correct?

1 You can borrow my car ~~unless~~ / as long as you promise not to drive too fast.
(as long as *is correct*)
2 We're going to the beach tomorrow unless / providing the weather is bad.
3 We're going to the beach tomorrow unless / providing the weather is good.
4 I don't mind if you come home late unless / as long as you come in quietly.
5 I'm going now unless / provided you want me to stay.
6 I don't watch TV unless / as long as I have nothing else to do.
7 Children are allowed to use the swimming pool unless / provided they are with an adult.
8 Unless / Provided they are with an adult, children are not allowed to use the swimming pool.
9 We can sit here in the corner unless / as long as you'd rather sit by the window.
10 A: Our holiday cost a lot of money.
B: Did it? Well, that doesn't matter unless / as long as you enjoyed yourselves.

115.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 We'll be late unless we take a taxi.
2 I like hot weather as long as .....
3 It takes 20 minutes to drive to the airport provided .....
4 I don't mind walking home as long as .....
5 I like to walk to work in the morning unless .....
6 We can meet tomorrow unless .....
7 I'll lend you the money providing .....
8 I'll tell you a secret as long as .....
9 You won't achieve anything unless .....

➜ **Additional exercise 32** (page 321)

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Unit 116

as (as I walked … / as I was … etc.)

A

as = at the same time as

You can use **as** when two things happen together at the same time:

- We all waved goodbye to Liz **as she drove away**.
  (we **waved** and she **drove** away at the same time)
- **As I walked along the street**, I looked in the shop windows.
- Can you turn off the light **as you go out**, please?

Or you can say that something happened **as you were doing** something else (in the middle of doing something else):

- Kate slipped **as she was getting off the bus**.
- We met Paul **as we were leaving the hotel**.

For the *past continuous* (**was getting** / **were going** etc.), see Unit 6.

You can also use **just as** (= exactly at that moment):

- **Just as I sat down**, the doorbell rang.
- I had to leave **just as** the conversation was getting interesting.

We also use **as** when two things happen together in a longer period of time:

- **As the day went on**, the weather got worse.
- I began to enjoy the job more **as I got used to it**.

the day went on

the weather got worse

Compare **as** and **when**:

We use **as** only if two things happen at the same time.	Use **when** (*not* as) if one thing happens after another.
As I drove home, I listened to music. (= at the same time)	**When I got home**, I had something to eat. (*not* as I got home)

B

as = because

As also means 'because':

- **As I was hungry**, I decided to find somewhere to eat.
  (= because I was hungry)
- **As it's late and we're tired**, let's get a taxi home. (= because it's late …)
- We watched TV all evening **as we didn't have anything better to do**.
- **As I don't watch TV any more**, I gave my television to a friend of mine.

You can also use **since** in this way:

- **Since** it's late and we're tired, let's get a taxi home.

Compare **as** (= because) and **when**:

David wasn't in the office **as he was on holiday**. (= because he was on holiday)	David lost his passport **when he was on holiday**. (= during the time he was away)
As they lived near us, we used to see them quite often. (= because they lived near us)	**When they lived near us**, we used to see them quite often. (= at the time they lived near us)

>> as … as → Unit 107 like and as → Unit 117 as if → Unit 118

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Exercises

116.1 **In this exercise as means 'at the same time as'. Use as to join sentences from the boxes.**

1 ~~We all waved goodbye to Liz~~	we were driving along the road.
2 I listened	I was taking a hot dish out of the oven.
3 I burnt myself	~~she drove away.~~
4 The spectators cheered	she told me her story.
5 A dog ran out in front of the car	the two teams came onto the field.

1 We all waved goodbye to Liz as she drove away.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

116.2 **In this exercise as means 'because'. Join sentences from the boxes beginning with as.**

1 ~~I was hungry~~	we went for a walk by the canal
2 today is a public holiday	I tried to be very quiet
3 I didn't want to disturb anybody	~~I decided to find somewhere to eat~~
4 I can't go to the concert	all government offices are shut
5 it was a nice day	you can have my ticket

1 As I was hungry, I decided to find somewhere to eat.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

116.3 **What does as mean in these sentences?**

	because	*at the same time as*
1 **As** they lived near us, we used to see them quite often.	✓	
2 Kate slipped **as** she was getting off the bus.		✓
3 **As** I was tired, I went to bed early.		
4 Unfortunately, **as** I was parking the car, I hit the car behind me.		
5 **As** we climbed the hill, we got more and more tired.		
6 We decided to go out to eat **as** we had no food at home.		
7 **As** we don't use the car very often, we've decided to sell it.		

116.4 **In some of these sentences, as is not correct. Correct the sentences where necessary.**

1 Julia got married as she was 22. — when she was 22
2 As the day went on, the weather got worse. — OK
3 He dropped the glass as he was taking it out of the cupboard. — .....
4 I lost my phone as I was in London. — .....
5 As I left school, I didn't know what to do. — .....
6 The train slowed down as it approached the station. — .....
7 I used to live near the sea as I was a child. — .....
8 We can walk to the hotel as it isn't far from here. — .....

116.5 **Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.**

1 Just as I sat down, the doorbell rang.
2 I saw you as .....
3 It started to rain just as .....
4 As she doesn't have a phone, ...
5 Just as I took the picture, ...

➜ **Additional exercise 32** (page 321)

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Unit 117 like and as

A

Like = similar to, the same as:

- What a beautiful house! It's **like a palace**. (*not* as a palace)
- Be careful! The floor has been polished. It's **like walking on ice**. (*not* as walking)
- It's raining again. I hate weather **like this**. (*not* as this)
- 'What's that noise?' 'It sounds **like a baby crying**.' (*not* as a baby crying)

In these examples, **like** is a *preposition*. So it is followed by a *noun* (like **a palace**), a *pronoun* (like **this**) or **-ing** (like walk**ing**).

Sometimes **like** = for example. You can also use **such as**:

- I enjoy water sports, **like** surfing, scuba diving and water-skiing. *or* I enjoy water sports, **such as** surfing . . .

B

As = in the same way as, in the same condition as.
We use **as** with *subject (S) + verb (V)*:

- I didn't move anything. I left everything **as it was**.
- You should have done it **as I showed** you.

	S + V	
as	**it**	**was**
as	**I**	**showed**

We also use **like** in this way (+ *subject* + *verb*):

- I left everything **like it was**.

Compare **as** and **like**. You can say:

- You should have done it **as I showed you**. *or* . . . **like I showed you**.

but You should have done it **like this**. (*not* as this)

We say **as usual** / **as always**:

- You're late **as usual**.
- **As always**, Nick was the first to complain.

We say **the same as** . . . :

- Your phone is **the same as** mine. (*not* the same like)

C

Sometimes **as** (+ *subject* + *verb*) has other meanings. For example, after **do**:

- You can do **as you like**. (= do what you like)
- They did **as they promised**. (= They did what they promised.)

We also say **as you know** / **as I said** / **as she expected** / **as I thought** etc. :

- **As you know**, it's Emma's birthday next week. (= you know this already)
- Andy failed his driving test, **as he expected**. (= he expected this before)

Like is not usual in these expressions, except with **say** (**like I said**):

- **As I said** yesterday, I'm sure we can solve the problem. *or* **Like I said** yesterday . . .

D

As can also be a *preposition* (**as** + *noun*), but the meaning is different from **like**.
Compare:

- **As a taxi driver**, I spend most of my working life in a car. (I am a taxi driver, it's my job.)
- Everyone in the family wants me to drive them to places. I'm **like a taxi driver**. (I'm not a taxi driver, but I'm like one.)

As (*preposition*) = in the position of, in the form of etc. :

- Many years ago I worked **as a photographer**. (I was a photographer)
- Many words, for example 'work' and 'rain', can be used **as verbs or nouns**.
- London is fine **as a place to visit**, but I wouldn't like to live there.
- The news of the tragedy came **as a great shock**.

>> **as . . . as** ➜ **Unit 107** **as** (= at the same time as / because) ➜ **Unit 116** **as if** ➜ **Unit 118**

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Exercises

117.1 In some of these sentences, you need like (not as). Correct the sentences where necessary. Write '*OK*' if the sentence is correct.

1 It's raining again. I hate weather as this. — I hate weather like this.
2 You should have done it as I showed you. — OK
3 Do you think James looks as his father? ....
4 He gets on my nerves. I can't stand people as him. ....
5 Why didn't you do it as I told you to do it? ....
6 As her mother, Katherine has a very good voice. ....
7 You never listen. Talking to you is as talking to the wall. ....
8 I prefer the room as it was, before we decorated it. ....
9 I'll phone you tomorrow as usual, OK? ....
10 She's a very good swimmer. She swims as a fish. ....

117.2 Which goes with which?

1 I won't be able to come to the party.	a It was full, as I expected.	1 c
2 I like Tom's idea.	b As I've told you before, it's boring.	2 ....
3 I'm fed up with my job.	c ~~As you know, I'll be away.~~	3 ....
4 You drive too fast.	d You can do as you like.	4 ....
5 You don't have to take my advice.	e Let's do as he suggests.	5 ....
6 I couldn't get a seat on the train.	f You should take more care, as I keep telling you.	6 ....

117.3 Complete the sentences using like or as + the following:

a beginner	**blocks of ice**	**~~a palace~~**	**a birthday present**
a child	**a theatre**	**winter**	**a tour guide**

1 This house is beautiful. It's like a palace.
2 My feet are really cold. They're ....
3 I've been playing tennis for years, but I still play ....
4 Marion once had a part-time job ....
5 I wonder what that building is. It looks ....
6 My brother gave me this watch .... a long time ago.
7 It's very cold for the middle of summer. It's ....
8 He's 22 years old, but he sometimes behaves ....

117.4 Put in like or as. Sometimes either word is possible.

1 We heard a noise like a baby crying.
2 I wish I had a car .... yours.
3 Hannah has been working .... a waitress for the last two months.
4 We saw Kevin last night. He was very cheerful, ... always.
5 You waste a lot of time doing things .... sitting in cafes all day.
6 .... you can imagine, we were very tired after such a long journey.
7 Tom showed me some photos of the city .... it was thirty years ago.
8 My neighbour's house is full of interesting things. It's .... a museum.
9 In some countries in Asia, ... Japan, Indonesia and Thailand, traffic drives on the left.
10 The weather hasn't changed. It's the same .... yesterday.
11 You're different from the other people I know. I don't know anyone else .... you.
12 The news that they are getting married came .... a complete surprise to me.
13 This tea is awful. It tastes .... water.
14 Suddenly there was a terrible noise. It was .... a bomb exploding.
15 Right now I'm working in a shop. It's not great, but it's OK .... a temporary job.
16 Brian is a student, ... most of his friends.

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Unit 118

like as if

A

We use **like** or **as if** to say how somebody/something looks, sounds or feels:

- That house **looks like** it's going to fall down. *or* That house **looks as if** it's going to fall down.
- Amy **sounded like** she had a cold, didn't she? *or* Amy **sounded as if** she had a cold, didn't she?
- I've just had a holiday, but I feel very tired. I don't **feel like** I've had a holiday. *or* I don't **feel as if** I've had a holiday.

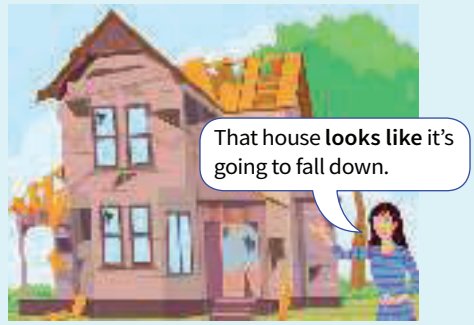

You can also use **as though** in these examples:

- I don't **feel as though** I've had a holiday.

Compare:

- You **look tired**. (**look** + *adjective*)
- You **look like you haven't slept**. / You **look as if you haven't slept**. } (**look like** / **as if** + *subject* + *verb*)

B

We say: **it looks like** … *or* **it looks as if** …
it sounds like … *or* **it sounds as if** …

- Sarah is very late. **It looks like** she isn't coming. *or* **It looks as if** she isn't coming.
- **It looked like** it was going to rain, so we took an umbrella. *or* **It looked as if** it was going to rain …
- The noise is very loud next door. **It sounds like** they're having a party. *or* **It sounds as if** they're …

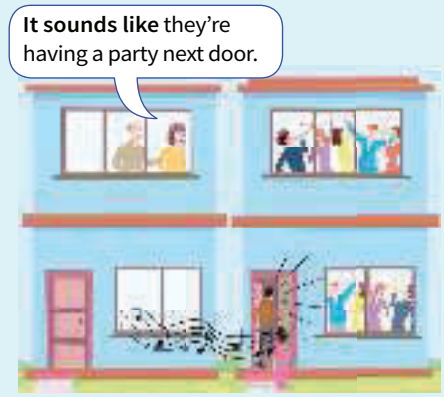

You can also use **as though**:

- **It sounds as though** they're having a party.

C

You can use **like** / **as if** / **as though** with other verbs to say how somebody does something:

- He ran **like he was running for his life**.
- After the interruption, the speaker went on talking **as if nothing had happened**.
- When I told them my plan, they looked at me **as though I was mad**.

D

After **as if**, we sometimes use the *past* when we are talking about the *present*.
For example:

- I don't like him. He talks **as if** he **knew** everything.

The meaning is not past. We use the past (as if he **knew**) because the idea is not real: he does *not* know everything. We use the past in the same way with **if** and **wish** (see Unit 39).
We do not normally use **like** in this way.

Some more examples:

- She's always asking me to do things for her – **as if I didn't** have enough to do already. (I *have* enough to do already)
- Joe's only 40. Why do you talk about him **as if he was** an old man? (he *isn't* an old man)

When you use the past in this way, you can use **were** instead of **was**:

- Why do you talk about him **as if he were** an old man?
- They treat me **as if I were** their own son. *or* … **as if I was** their own son. (I'm *not* their son)

>> **if I was/were → Unit 39C** **look/sound** etc. + adjective **→ Unit 99C** **like** and **as → Unit 117**

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Exercises

118.1 What do you say in these situations? Use the words in brackets to make your sentence.

1 You meet Bill. He has a black eye and blood on his face. (look / like / be / a fight)
You say to him: You look like you've been in a fight.
2 Claire comes into the room. She looks absolutely terrified. (look / as if / see / a ghost)
You say to her: What's the matter? You .....
3 You have just run one kilometre, but you are exhausted. (feel / like / run / a marathon)
You say: I .....
4 Joe is on holiday. He's talking to you on the phone and sounds happy.
(sound / as if / have / a good time)
You say to him: You .....

118.2 Make sentences beginning It looks like ... or It sounds like ... .

you should see a doctor	**there's been an accident**	**they're having an argument**
it's going to rain	**~~she isn't coming~~**	**they don't have any**

1 Sarah said she would be here an hour ago.
You say: It looks like she isn't coming.
2 The sky is full of black clouds.
You say: It .....
3 You hear two people shouting at each other next door.
You say: .....
4 You see an ambulance, some policemen and two damaged cars at the side of the road.
You say: .....
5 You and a friend are in a supermarket. You're looking for bananas, but without success.
You say: .....
6 Dave isn't feeling well. He tells you all about it.
You say: .....

118.3 Complete the sentences with as if. Choose from the box, putting the verbs in the correct form.

she / enjoy / it	**I / be / crazy**	**he / not / eat / for a week**
~~he / need / a good rest~~	**she / hurt / her leg**	**he / mean / what he / say**
I / not / exist	**she / not / want / come**	

1 Mark looks very tired. He looks as if he needs a good rest.
2 I don't think Paul was joking. He looked .....
3 What's the matter with Lisa? She's walking .....
4 Paul was extremely hungry and ate his dinner very quickly.
He ate .....
5 I looked at Sarah during the movie. She had a bored expression on her face.
She didn't look .....
6 I told my friends about my plan. They were amazed.
They looked at me .....
7 I phoned Kate and invited her to the party, but she wasn't very enthusiastic.
She sounded .....
8 I went into the office, but nobody spoke to me or looked at me.
Everybody ignored me .....

118.4 These sentences are like the ones in Section D. Complete each sentence using as if.

1 Andy is a terrible driver. He drives as if he were the only driver on the road.
2 I'm 20 years old, so please don't talk to me ..... a child.
3 Steve has never met Nicola, but he talks about her ..... his best friend.
4 We first met a long time ago, but I remember it ..... yesterday.

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Unit 119

during for while

A during

during = at a time between the start and end of something:

- I fell asleep **during the movie**. (= at a time between the start and end of the movie)
- We met some really nice people **during our holiday**.
- The ground is wet. It must have rained **during the night**.

With 'time words' (**the morning**, **the night**, **the summer** etc.), you can usually say **in** or **during**:

- It rained **in the night**. *or* ... **during the night**.
- It's lovely here **during the summer**. *or* ... **in the summer**.

I fell asleep **during the movie**.

B for and during

We use **for** (+ a period of time) to say how long something goes on:

- We watched TV **for two hours** last night.
- Jess is going away **for a week** in September.
- How are you? I haven't seen you **for ages**.
- Are you going away **for the weekend**?

We do not use **during** to say *how long* something goes on. We do not say 'during two hours', 'during five years' etc. :

- It rained **for** three days without stopping. (*not* during three days)

We use **during** to say *when* something happens (*not* how long). Compare **during** and **for**:

- '**When** did you fall asleep?' '**During the movie**.'
- '**How long** were you asleep?' '**For half an hour**.'

C during and while

Compare:

We use **during** + *noun*:

- I fell asleep **during the movie**. (*noun*)
- We met a lot of interesting people **during our holiday**.
- Robert suddenly began to feel ill **during the exam**.

We use **while** + *subject* + *verb*:

- I fell asleep **while I was watching** TV. (*subject + verb*)
- We met a lot of interesting people **while we were on holiday**.
- Robert suddenly began to feel ill **while he was doing the exam**.

Some more examples of **while**:

- We saw Clare **while we were waiting** for the bus.
- **While you were** out, there was a phone call for you.
- Alex read a book **while** Amy **watched** TV.

When we are talking about the future, we use the *present* after **while**. Do not use 'will' (see Unit 25):

- I'm going to Moscow next week. I hope the weather will be good **while I'm** there. (*not* while I will be)
- What are you going to do **while you're** waiting? (*not* while you'll be waiting)

Alex read a book **while Amy watched** TV.

>> **for** and **since** ➜ **Unit 12A** **while** + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 68B**

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Exercises

119.1 Put in for or during.

1 It rained ....for.... three days without stopping.
2 I fell asleep ....during.... the movie.
3 I went to the theatre last night. I met Sue ..... the interval.
4 I felt really ill last week. I could hardly eat anything ..... three days.
5 The traffic was bad. We were stuck in a traffic jam ..... two hours.
6 Production at the factory was seriously affected ..... the strike.
7 Sarah was very angry with me. She didn't speak to me ..... a week.
8 I don't have much free time ..... the week, but I relax at weekends.
9 I need a break. I think I'll go away ..... a few days.
10 The president gave a short speech. She spoke ..... only ten minutes.
11 We were hungry when we arrived. We hadn't eaten anything ..... the journey.
12 We were hungry when we arrived. We hadn't eaten anything ..... eight hours.

119.2 Put in during or while.

1 We met a lot of interesting people ....while.... we were on holiday.
2 We met a lot of interesting people ....during.... our holiday.
3 I met Mike ..... I was shopping.
4 ..... I was on holiday, I didn't use my phone at all.
5 I learnt a lot ..... the course. The teachers were very good.
6 There was a lot of noise ..... the night. What was it?
7 I'd been away for many years. Many things had changed ..... that time.
8 What did they say about me ..... I was out of the room?
9 When I fly anywhere, I never eat anything ..... the flight.
10 Please don't interrupt me ..... I'm speaking.
11 ..... the festival, it's almost impossible to find a hotel room here.
12 We were hungry when we arrived. We hadn't eaten anything ..... we were travelling.

119.3 Put in during, for or while.

1 I used to live in Berlin. I lived there ..... five years.
2 One of the runners fell ..... the race but managed to get up and continue.
3 Nobody came to see me ..... I was in hospital.
4 Try to avoid travelling ..... the busy periods of the day.
5 I was very tired. I slept ..... ten hours.
6 Can you hold my bag ..... I try on this jacket?
7 I'm not sure when we'll arrive, but it will be sometime ..... the afternoon.
8 I wasn't well last week. I hardly ate anything ..... three days.
9 My phone rang ..... we were having dinner.
10 Nobody knows how many people were killed ..... the war.

119.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 I fell asleep while ....I was watching TV.....
2 I fell asleep during ....the movie.....
3 Can you wait for me while .....
4 Most of the students looked bored during .....
5 I was asked a lot of questions during .....
6 Don't open the car door while .....
7 The lights suddenly went out while .....
8 What are you going to do while .....
9 It started to rain during .....
10 It started to rain while .....

➜ **Additional exercise 33** (page 321)

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Unit 120 by and until by the time …

A

by … = not later than:

- I sent the documents today, so they should arrive **by Monday**.
  (= on or before Monday, not later than Monday)
- We'd better hurry. We have to be home **by 5 o'clock**.
  (= at or before 5 o'clock, not later than 5 o'clock)
- Where's Sarah? She should be here **by now**.
  (= now or before now – so she should already be here)

This milk has to be used **by 14 August**.

B

We use **until** (*or* **till**) to say *how long* a situation continues:

- A: Shall we go now?
  B: No, let's **wait until** it stops raining. *or* … **till** it stops raining.
- I was very tired this morning. { I **stayed in bed until** half past ten. / I **didn't get up until** half past ten. }

Compare **until** and **by**:

Something *continues* **until** a time in the future:
- Joe **will be away until** Monday.
  (so he'll be back *on* Monday)
- I**'ll be working until** 11.30.
  (so I'll stop working *at* 11.30)

Something *happens* **by** a time in the future:
- Joe **will be back by** Monday.
  (= not later than Monday)
- I**'ll have finished my work by** 11.30.
  (= I'll finish it not later than 11.30)

C

You can say '**by the time** something happens':

- It's too late to go to the bank now. **By the time we get there**, it will be closed.
  (= it will close between now and the time we get there)
- You'll need plenty of time at the airport. **By the time you check in and go through security**, it will be time for your flight.
  (= check-in and security will take a long time)
- Hurry up! **By the time we get to the cinema**, the film will already have started.

You can say '**by the time** something happened' (for the past):

- Karen's car broke down on the way to the party last night. **By the time she arrived**, most of the other guests had left.
  (= it took her a long time to get there and most of the guests left during this time)
- I had a lot of work to do yesterday evening. I was very tired **by the time I finished**.
  (= it took me a long time to do the work, and I became more and more tired)
- We went to the cinema last night. It took us a long time to find somewhere to park the car. **By the time we got to the cinema**, the film had already started.

You can say **by then** *or* **by that time**:

- Karen finally got to the party at midnight, but **by then** most of the other guests had left.
  or … but **by that time**, most of the other guests had left.

>> **will be doing** and **will have done** ➜ **Unit 24** **by** (other uses) ➜ **Units 42B, 60B, 128**

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Exercises

120.1 Complete the sentences with by.

1 We have to be home not later than 5 o'clock.
We have to be home by 5 o'clock.
2 I have to be at the airport not later than 8.30.
I have to be at the airport .....
3 Let me know not later than Saturday whether you can come to the party.
..... whether you can come to the party.
4 Please make sure that you're here not later than 2 o'clock.
Please make sure that .....
5 If we leave now, we should arrive not later than lunchtime.
If we leave now, ...

120.2 Put in by or until.

1 Steve has gone away. He'll be away until Monday.
2 Sorry, but I must go. I have to be home ..... 5 o'clock.
3 According to the forecast, the bad weather will continue ..... the weekend.
4 I don't know whether to apply for the job or not. I have to decide ..... Friday.
5 I think I'll wait ..... Thursday before making a decision.
6 I'm still waiting for Tom to call me. He should have called me ..... now.
7 I need to pay this bill. It has to be paid ..... tomorrow.
8 Don't pay the bill today. Wait ..... tomorrow.
9 We haven't finished painting the house yet. We hope to finish ..... Tuesday.
10 'Will you still be in the office at 6.30?' 'No, I'll have gone home ..... then.'
11 I'm moving into my new flat next week. I'm staying with a friend ..... then.
12 I've got a lot of work to do. ..... the time I finish, it will be time to go to bed.
13 We have plenty of time. The film doesn't start ..... 8.30.
14 It is hoped that the new bridge will be completed ..... the end of the year.

120.3 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences. Use by or until.

1 David is away at the moment. He'll be away until Monday.
2 David is away at the moment. He'll be back by Monday.
3 I'm just going out. I won't be long. Wait here .....
4 I'm just going out. It's 4.30 now. I won't be long. I'll be back .....
5 If you want to apply for the job, your application must be received .....
6 My passport is valid .....
7 I missed the last bus and had to walk home. I didn't get home .....

120.4 Read the situations and complete the sentences using By the time ... .

1 I was invited to a party, but I got there much later than I intended.
By the time I got to the party, most of the other guests had left.
2 I intended to catch a train, but it took me longer than expected to get to the station.
....., my train had already left.
3 I wanted to go shopping after work. But I finished work much later than expected.
....., it was too late to go shopping.
4 I saw two men who looked as if they were trying to steal a car. I called the police, but it was some time before they arrived.
....., the two men had disappeared.
5 We climbed a mountain and it took us a long time to get to the top. There wasn't much time to enjoy the view.
....., we had to come down again.

➜ **Additional exercise 33** (page 321)

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Unit 121

at/on/in (time)

A

Compare **at**, **on** and **in**:

- They arrived **at 5 o'clock**.
- They arrived **on Friday**.
- They arrived **in June**. / They arrived **in 2012**.

We use:

at for the time of day
at five o'clock **at 11.45** **at midnight** **at lunchtime** **at sunset** etc.

on for days and dates
on Friday / **on Fridays** **on 16 May 2012** **on New Year's Day** **on my birthday**

in for longer periods (months/years/seasons etc.)
in June **in 2012** **in the 1990s** **in the 20th century** **in the past** **in winter**

B

We say:

at the moment / **at the minute** / **at present** / **at this time** (= now):

- Can we talk later? I'm busy **at the moment**.

at the same time

- Kate and I arrived **at the same time**.

at the weekends / **at weekends** (*or* **on the weekend** / **on weekends** in American English):

- Will you be here **at the weekend**? (*or* … **on** the weekend)

at Christmas (*but* **on Christmas Day**)

- Do you give each other presents **at Christmas**?

at night (= during nights in general), **in the night** (= during a particular night):

- I don't like working **at night**. *but* I was woken up by a noise **in the night**.

C

We say:

in the morning(**s**)	*but*	**on Friday morning**(**s**)
in the afternoon(**s**)		**on Sunday afternoon**(**s**)
in the evening(**s**)		**on Monday evening**(**s**) etc.

- I'll see you **in the morning**.
- Do you work **in the evenings**?

- I'll see you **on Friday morning**.
- Do you work **on Saturday evenings**?

D

We do not use **at**/**on**/**in** before **last**/**next**/**this**/**every**:

- I'll see you **next Friday**. (*not* on next Friday)
- They got married **last June**.

We often leave out **on** before days. So you can say:

- I'll see you **on Friday**. *or* I'll see you **Friday**.
- I don't work **on Monday mornings**. *or* I don't work **Monday mornings**.

E

We say that something will happen **in a few minutes** / **in six months** etc. :

- The train will be leaving **in a few minutes**. (= a few minutes from now)
- Andy has gone away. He'll be back **in a week**. (= a week from now)
- They'll be here **in a moment**. (= a moment from now, very soon)

We also use **in** … to say how long it takes to do something:

- I learnt to drive **in four weeks**. (= it took me four weeks to learn)

>> **on/in time, at/in the end ➜ Unit 122** **in/at/on** (position) **➜ Units 123–125** **in/at/on** (other uses) **➜ Unit 127**
American English **➜ Appendix 7**

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Exercises

121.1 Put in at, on or in.

1 Mozart was born in Salzburg ....in.... 1756.
2 I've been invited to a wedding ..... 14 February.
3 Amy's birthday is ..... May, but I don't know which date.
4 This park is popular and gets very busy ..... weekends.
5 I haven't seen Kate for a few days. I last saw her ..... Tuesday.
6 Jonathan is 63. He'll be retiring from his job ..... two years.
7 I'm busy right now. I'll be with you ..... a moment.
8 Sam isn't here ..... the moment, but he'll be here this afternoon.
9 There are usually a lot of parties ..... New Year's Eve.
10 I don't like the dark. I try to avoid going out ..... night.
11 It rained very hard ..... the night. Did you hear it?
12 My car is being repaired at the garage. It will be ready ..... two hours.
13 The bus station was busy. A lot of buses were leaving ..... the same time.
14 Helen and David always go out for dinner ..... their wedding anniversary.
15 It was a short book and easy to read. I read it ..... a day.
16 ..... midday, the sun is at its highest point in the sky.
17 This building is very old. It was built ..... the fifteenth century.
18 The office is closed ..... Wednesday afternoons.
19 In the UK many people go home to see their families ..... Christmas.
20 My flight arrives ..... 5 o'clock ..... the morning.
21 The course begins ..... 7 January and ends sometime ..... April.
22 I might not be at home ..... Tuesday morning, but I'll be there ..... the afternoon.

121.2 Complete the sentences. Use at, on or in + the following:

the evening	**about 20 minutes**	**~~1756~~**	**the same time**	**the 1920s**
the moment	**21 July 1969**	**night**	**Saturdays**	**11 seconds**

1 Mozart was born ....in 1756....
2 If the sky is clear, you can see the stars .....
3 After working hard during the day, I like to relax .....
4 Neil Armstrong was the first man to walk on the moon .....
5 It's difficult to listen if everyone is speaking .....
6 Jazz became popular in the United States .....
7 I'm just going out to the shop. I'll be back .....
8 I don't think we need an umbrella. It's not raining .....
9 Ben is a very fast runner. He can run 100 metres .....
10 Lisa works from Monday to Friday. Sometimes she also works .....

121.3 Which is correct: a, b, or both of them?

1	a I'll see you on Friday.	b I'll see you Friday.	....both....
2	a I'll see you on next Friday.	b I'll see you next Friday.	....b....
3	a Paul got married in April.	b Paul got married April.	.....
4	a I play tennis on Sunday mornings.	b I play tennis Sunday mornings.	.....
5	a We were ill at the same time.	b We were ill in the same time.	.....
6	a What are you doing at the weekend?	b What are you doing on the weekend?	.....
7	a Oliver was born at 10 May 1993.	b Oliver was born on 10 May 1993.	.....
8	a He left school last June.	b He left school in last June.	.....
9	a Will you be here on Tuesday?	b Will you be here Tuesday?	.....
10	a I don't like driving in night.	b I don't like driving at night.	.....

➜ **Additional exercise 33** (page 321)

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Unit 122

on time and in time at the end and in the end

A on time and in time

on time = punctual, not late

If something happens **on time**, it happens at the time that was planned:

- The 11.45 train left **on time**. (= it left at 11.45)
- Please be **on time**. Don't be late.
- The conference was well-organised. Everything began and finished **on time**.

in time (for something / to do something) = soon enough

- Will you be home **in time for dinner**? (= soon enough for dinner)
- I sent Amy a birthday present. I hope it arrives **in time**. (= on or before her birthday)
- I'm in a hurry. I want to get home **in time to watch** the game on TV. (= soon enough to see the game)

The opposite of **in time** is **too late**:

- I got home **too late** to watch the game on TV.

You can say **just in time** (= almost too late):

- We got to the station **just in time** for our train.
- A child ran into the road in front of the car, but I managed to stop **just in time**.

B at the end and in the end

at the end (of something) = at the time when something ends

For example:

at the end of the month	**at the end of January**	**at the end of the game**
at the end of the film	**at the end of the course**	**at the end of the concert**

- I'm going away **at the end of January** / **at the end of the month**.
- **At the end of the concert**, everyone applauded.
- The players shook hands **at the end of the game**.

We do not say '**in** the end of . . .'. For example, we do not say 'in the end of January'.

The opposite of **at the end** is **at the beginning**:

- I'm going away **at the beginning of January**. (*not* in the beginning)

in the end = finally

We use **in the end** when we say what the final result of a situation was:

- We had a lot of problems with our car. We sold it **in the end**. (= finally we sold it)
- He got more and more angry. **In the end** he just walked out of the room.
- Alan couldn't decide where to go for his holidays. He didn't go anywhere **in the end**. (*not* at the end)

The opposite of **in the end** is **at first**:

- **At first** we didn't get on very well, but **in the end** we became good friends.

>> at/on/in (time) ➜ Unit 121

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Exercises

122.1 Complete the sentences with on time or in time.

1 The bus is usually ....on time...., but it was late this morning.
2 The film was supposed to start at 8.30, but it didn't begin ..... .
3 The train service isn't very good. The trains are rarely ..... .
4 We nearly missed our train. We got to the station just ..... .
5 We want to start the meeting ....., so please don't be late.
6 I've just washed this shirt. I want to wear it this evening, so I hope it will be dry ..... .
7 I almost forgot that it was Joe's birthday. Fortunately I remembered ..... .
8 Why are you never .....? You always keep everybody waiting.
9 It is hoped that the new stadium will be ready ..... for the tournament later this year.

122.2 Read the situations and make sentences using just in time.

1 A child ran into the road in front of your car. You saw the child at the last moment.
(manage / stop) ....I managed to stop just in time.....
2 You were walking home. Just after you got home, it started to rain very heavily.
(get / home) I .....
3 Your friend was going to sit on the chair you had just painted. You said, 'Don't sit on that chair!', so he didn't. (stop / him) I .....
4 You and a friend went to the cinema. You were late, and you thought you would miss the beginning of the film. But the film began just as you sat down in the cinema.
(get / cinema / beginning / film)
We .....

122.3 Complete the sentences using at the end + the following:

the course ~~the game~~ the interview the month the race

1 The players shook hands ....at the end of the game..... .
2 I get paid ..... .
3 The students had a party ..... .
4 Two of the runners collapsed ..... .
5 I was surprised when I was offered the job ..... .

122.4 Write sentences with in the end. Use the verb in brackets.

1 We had a lot of problems with our car. (sell) ....In the end we sold it.....
2 Anna got more and more fed up with her job.
(resign) .....
3 I tried to learn Japanese, but I found it too difficult.
(give up) .....
4 We couldn't decide whether to go to the party or not.
(not / go) .....

122.5 Put in at or in.

1 I'm going away ....at.... the end of the month.
2 It took Gary a long time to find work. ..... the end he got a job as a bus driver.
3 I couldn't decide what to buy Amy for her birthday. I didn't buy her anything ..... the end.
4 I'm going away ..... the end of this week.
5 We waited ages for a bus. ..... the end we had to get a taxi.
6 ..... the end of the lesson, all the students left the classroom.
7 We had a few problems at first, but ..... the end everything was OK.
8 You were in a difficult position. What did you do ..... the end?
9 The journey took a very long time, but we got there ..... the end.
10 Are you going away ..... the beginning of August or ..... the end?

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Unit 123

in/at/on (position) 1

A in

in a room
in a building
in a box
etc.

in a garden
in a town
in the city centre
etc.

in a pool
in the sea
in a river
etc.

- There's no-one **in the room** / **in the building** / **in the garden**.
- What do you have **in your hand** / **in your mouth**?
- When we were **in Italy**, we spent a few days **in Venice**.
- I have a friend who lives **in a small village in the mountains**.
- There were some people swimming **in the pool** / **in the sea** / **in the river**.

B at

at the bus stop

at the door

at the roundabout

at her desk

- Who is that man standing **at the bus stop** / **at the door** / **at the window**?
- Turn left **at the traffic lights** / **at the next junction** / **at the roundabout** / **at the church**.
- We have to get off the bus **at the next stop**.
- When you leave the hotel, please leave your key **at reception**. (= at the reception desk)

Compare **in** and **at**:

- There were a lot of people **in the shop**. It was crowded.
  Go along this road, then turn left **at the shop**.
- I'll meet you **in the hotel lobby**. (= in the building)
  I'll meet you **at the entrance to the hotel**. (= outside the building)

C on

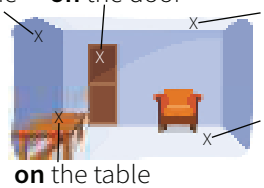

on the wall
on the door
on the ceiling
on the floor
on the table

on her nose

on a page

on an island

- I sat **on the floor** / **on the ground** / **on the grass** / **on the beach** / **on a chair**.
- There's a dirty mark **on the ceiling** / **on your nose** / **on your shirt**.
- Did you see the notice **on the wall** / **on the door**?
- You'll find details of TV programmes **on page seven** of the newspaper.
- The hotel is **on a small island** in the middle of a lake.

Compare **in** and **on**:

- There is some water **in the bottle**.
  There is a label **on the bottle**.

in the bottle
on the bottle

Compare **at** and **on**:

- There is somebody **at the door**. Shall I go and see who it is?
  There is a notice **on the door**. It says 'Do not disturb'.

>> in/at/on (position) 2–3 ➜ Units 124–125

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Exercises

123.1 **Answer the questions about the pictures. Use in, at or on with the words below the pictures.**

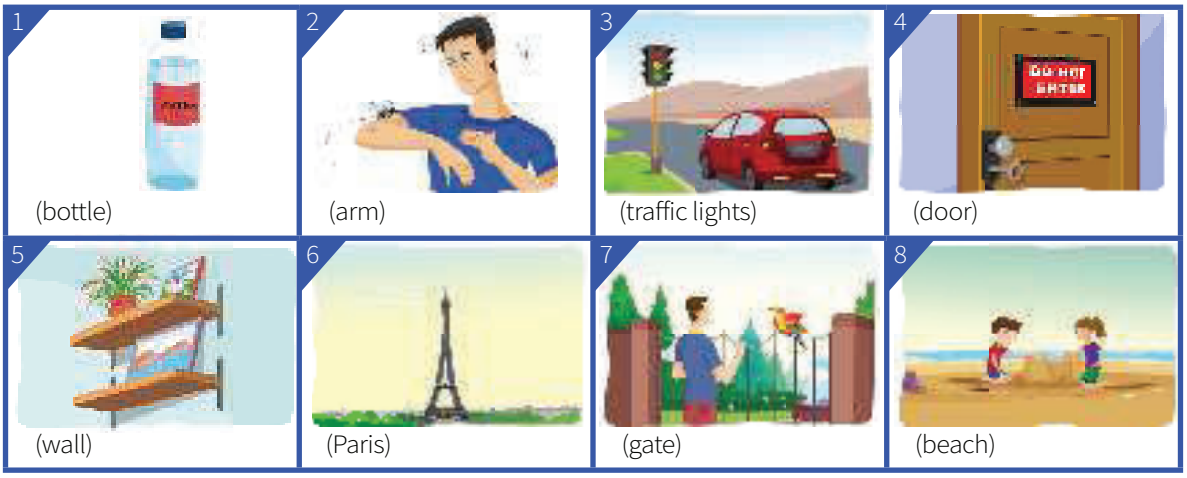

1 Where's the label? On the bottle.
2 Where's the fly? .....
3 Where's the car waiting? .....
4 Where's the notice? ..... Where's the key? .....
5 Where are the shelves? .....
6 Where's the Eiffel Tower? .....
7 Where's the man standing? ..... Where's the bird? .....
8 Where are the children playing? .....

123.2 **Complete the sentences. Use in, at or on + the following:**

the window	**his hand**	**the mountains**	**that tree**
my guitar	**~~the river~~**	**the island**	**junction 14**

1 There were some people swimming in the river.
2 One of the strings ..... is broken.
3 Leave the motorway ..... and then turn left.
4 He was holding something ....., but I couldn't see what it was.
5 The leaves ..... are a beautiful colour.
6 You can go skiing ..... near here. There's plenty of snow.
7 There's nobody living ..... . It's uninhabited.
8 He spends most of the day sitting ..... and looking outside.

123.3 **Complete the sentences with in, at or on.**

1 There was a long queue of people at the bus stop.
2 Nicola was wearing a silver ring ..... her little finger.
3 There was a security guard standing ..... the entrance to the building.
4 I wasn't sure whether I had come to the right office. There was no name ..... the door.
5 There are plenty of shops and restaurants ..... the town centre.
6 You'll find the weather forecast ..... the back page of the newspaper.
7 The headquarters of the company are ..... California.
8 I wouldn't like an office job. I couldn't spend the whole day sitting ..... a desk.
9 The man the police are looking for has a scar ..... his right cheek.
10 If you come here by bus, get off ..... the stop after the traffic lights.
11 Have you ever been camping? Have you ever slept ..... a tent?
12 Emily was sitting ..... the balcony reading a book.
13 My brother lives ..... a small village ..... the south-west of England.
14 I like that picture hanging ..... the wall ..... the kitchen.

➜ **Additional exercise 34** (page 322)

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Unit 124

in/at/on (position) 2

A

We say that somebody/something is:

in a line, **in a row**, **in a queue**	**in an office**, **in a department**
in a picture, **in a photo**(**graph**)	**in the sky**, **in the world**
in a newspaper, **in a magazine**, **in a book**	**in the country** (= not in a town)

- When I go to the cinema, I like to sit **in the front row**.
- Amy works **in the sales department**.
- Who is the woman **in that picture**?
- Do you live in a city or **in the country**?
- It's a lovely day. There isn't a cloud **in the sky**.

They're standing **in a row**.

B

We say that somebody/something is:

on the left, **on the right** (*or* **on the left-hand side**, **on the right-hand side**)
- Do you drive **on the left** or **on the right** in your country?

on the ground floor, **on the first floor**, **on the second floor** etc.
- Our apartment is **on the second floor** of the building.

on a map, **on a menu**, **on a list**, **on a page**, **on a website**
- Here's the shopping list. Don't buy anything that's not **on the list**.
- You'll find the information you need **on our website**.

We say that a place is **on a river** / **on a road** / **on the coast**:
- Vienna is **on the** (river) **Danube**.
- The town where you live – is it **on the coast** or is it inland?

We say **on the way** (from one place to another):
- We stopped at a shop **on the way** home.

C

We say:
at the top (of . . .), **at the bottom** (of . . .), **at the end** (of . . .)
- Write your name **at the top of the page**.
- Jane lives **at the other end of the street**.

D

We say:
in the front, **in the back** of a car
- I was **in the back** (of the car) when we had the accident.

at the front, **at the back** of a building / theatre / group of people etc.
- The garden is **at the back of the house**.
- Let's sit **at the front** (of the cinema).
- We were **at the back**, so we couldn't see very well.

on the front, **on the back** of an envelope / a piece of paper etc.
- I wrote the date **on the back of the photo**.

E

We say:
in the corner of a room
- The TV is **in the corner** of the room.

at the corner *or* **on the corner** of a street
- There is a small shop **at the corner** (of the street).
  or . . . **on the corner** (of the street).

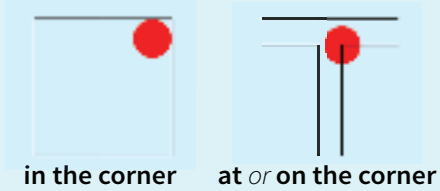

in the world ➜ **Unit 108D** **in/at/on** (position) ➜ **Units 123, 125** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

124.1 Answer the questions about the pictures. Use in, at or on with the words below the pictures.

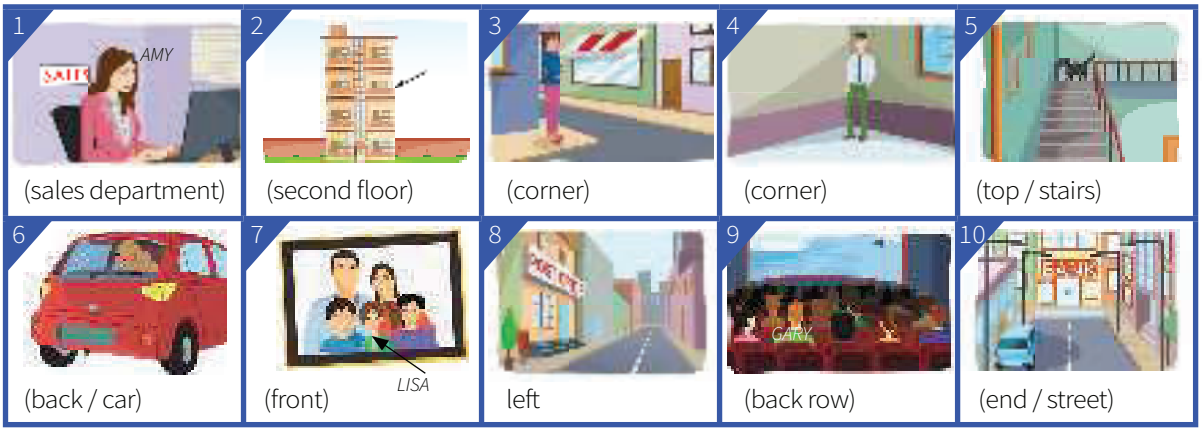

1 Where does Amy work? In the sales department.
2 Amy lives in this building. Where's her flat exactly? .....
3 Where is the woman standing? .....
4 Where is the man standing? .....
5 Where's the cat? .....
6 Where's the dog? .....
7 Lisa is in this group of people. Where is she? .....
8 Where's the post office? .....
9 Gary is at the cinema. Where is he sitting? .....
10 Where is the bank? .....

124.2 Complete the sentences. Use in, at or on + the following:

the west coast	**the world**	**the back of the class**	~~**the sky**~~
the front row	**the right**	**the back of this card**	**the way to work**

1 It's a lovely day. There isn't a cloud in the sky.
2 In most countries people drive .....
3 What is the tallest building .....?
4 I met a friend of mine ..... this morning.
5 San Francisco is ..... of the United States.
6 We went to the theatre last night. We had seats .....
7 I couldn't hear the teacher. She spoke quietly and I was sitting .....
8 I don't have your address. Could you write it .....?

124.3 Complete the sentences with in, at or on.

1 Write your name at the top of the page.
2 Is your sister ..... this photo? I don't recognise her.
3 They live in a small house ..... the bottom of the hill.
4 We normally use the front entrance to the building, but there's another one ..... the back.
5 We had to wait ..... a queue for an hour to check in at the airport.
6 There was a list of names, but my name wasn't ..... the list.
7 Is there anything interesting ..... today's newspaper?
8 I love to look up at the stars ..... the sky at night.
9 When I'm a passenger in a car, I prefer to sit ..... the front.
10 I live in a very small village. You probably won't find it ..... your map.
11 Joe works ..... the furniture department of a large store.
12 Paris is ..... the (river) Seine.
13 I don't like cities. I'd much prefer to live ..... the country.
14 My office is ..... the top floor. It's ..... your left as you come out of the lift.

➜ **Additional exercise 34** (page 322)

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Unit 125 in/at/on (position) 3

A in hospital / at work etc.

We say that somebody is **in bed** / **in hospital** / **in prison**:
- James isn't up yet. He's still **in bed**.
- Anna's mother is **in hospital**.

We say that somebody is **at home** / **at work** / **at school** / **at university** / **at college**:
- I'll be **at work** until 5.30.
- My sister is **at university**. My brother is still **at school**.

We say **be at home** or **be home** (with or without **at**), but **do something at home** (with **at**):
- I'll **be home** all evening. *or* I'll **be at home** all evening.
- Shall we go to a restaurant or **eat at home**?

B at a party / at a concert etc.

We say that somebody is **at** an event (**at a party**, **at a conference** etc.):
- Were there many people **at the party** / **at the meeting** / **at the wedding**?
- I saw Steve **at a conference** / **at a concert** on Saturday.

C in and at for buildings

You can often use **in** or **at** with buildings. For example, you can eat **in a restaurant** or **at a restaurant**; you can buy food **in a supermarket** or **at a supermarket**.
We usually say **at** when we say where an event takes place (a concert, a party, a meeting etc.):
- We went to a concert **at the National Concert Hall**.
- The meeting took place **at the company's head office** in Frankfurt.
- There was a robbery **at the supermarket**.

We say **at** somebody's house:
- I was **at Helen's house** last night. *or* I was **at Helen's** last night.

In the same way we say **at the doctor's**, **at the hairdresser's** etc.

We use **in** when we are thinking about the building itself. Compare **at** and **in**:
- I was **at Helen's** (house) last night.
  It's always cold **in Helen's house**. The heating doesn't work well. (*not* at Helen's house)
- We had dinner **at the hotel**.
  All the rooms **in the hotel** have air conditioning. (*not* at the hotel)

We say **at the station** / **at the airport**:
- There's no need to meet me **at the station**. I can get a taxi.

D in and at for towns etc.

We normally use **in** with cities, towns and villages:
- The Louvre is a famous art museum **in Paris**. (*not* at Paris)
- Sam's parents live **in a village** in the south of France. (*not* at a village)

We use **at** when we think of the place as a point or station on a journey:
- Does this train stop **at Oxford**? (= at Oxford station)

E on a bus / in a car etc.

We usually say **on a bus** / **on a train** / **on a plane** / **on a ship** *but* **in a car** / **in a taxi**:
- **The bus** was very full. There were too many people **on it**.
- Laura arrived **in a taxi**.

We say **on a bike** (= bicycle) / **on a motorbike** / **on a horse**:
- Jane passed me **on her bike**.

>> **at school** / **in hospital** etc. ➜ **Unit 74** **in/at/on** (position) ➜ **Units 123–124** **to/at/in/into** ➜ **Unit 126**
by car / **by bike** etc. ➜ **Unit 128B**

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Exercises

125.1 Complete the sentences about the pictures. Use in, at or on with the words below the pictures.

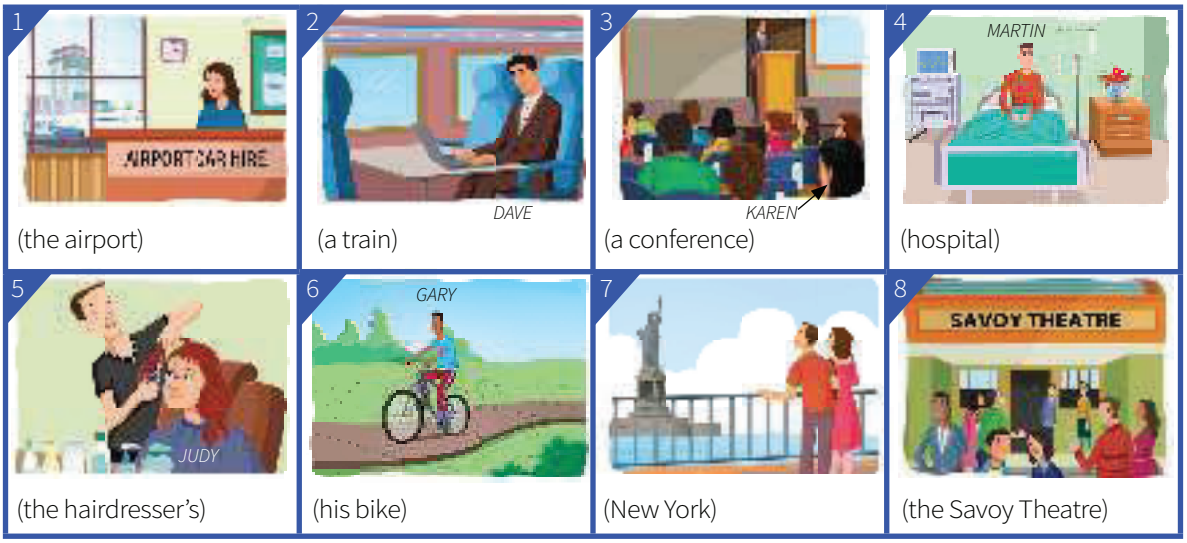

1 You can hire a car ...at the airport...
2 Dave is .....
3 Karen is .....
4 Martin .....
5 Judy is .....
6 I saw Gary .....
7 We spent a few days .....
8 We went to a show .....

125.2 Complete the sentences. Use in, at or on + the following:

the plane	**the station**	**a taxi**	**the art gallery**
Tokyo	**school**	**~~prison~~**	**the sports centre**

1 Some people are ...in prison... for crimes that they did not commit.
2 We can get coffee ..... while we're waiting for our train.
3 We walked to the restaurant, but we went home .....
4 I play basketball ..... on Friday evenings.
5 I enjoyed the flight, but the food ..... was awful.
6 Vicky has gone to Japan. She's living .....
7 'Does your sister have a job?' 'No, she's only 16. She's still .....'
8 There's a new exhibition of paintings ..... Let's go and see it.

125.3 Complete these sentences with in, at or on.

1 We went to a concert ...at... the National Concert Hall.
2 There isn't a shop ..... the village where I live. It's very small.
3 Joe wasn't ..... the party. I don't know why he didn't go.
4 There were about ten tables ..... the restaurant, and four tables outside.
5 I don't know where my umbrella is. Perhaps I left it ..... the bus.
6 What do you want to study ..... university?
7 I didn't feel well when I woke up, so I stayed ..... bed.
8 We were ..... Sarah's house last night. She invited us to dinner.
9 It was a very slow train. It stopped ..... every station.
10 Shall we travel ..... your car or mine?
11 We took a taxi and Ben followed ..... his motorbike.
12 I'd like to see a movie. What's on ..... the cinema this week?
13 We went to see a movie last night. It was really cold ..... the cinema.
14 Two people were injured in the accident and are still ..... hospital.
15 Our flight was delayed. We had to wait ..... the airport for three hours.
16 I didn't expect you to be ..... home. I thought you'd be ..... work.

➜ **Additional exercise 34** (page 322)

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Unit 126 to, at, in and into

A

We say **go**/**come**/**travel** (etc.) **to** a place or event. For example:

go to China	**go to** work	**come to** my house
go back to Italy	**go to** the bank	**drive to** the airport
return to London	**go to** a party	**be taken to** hospital

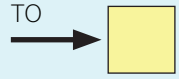

- When are your friends **going back to Italy**? (*not* going back in Italy)
- Three people were injured in the accident and **taken to hospital**.

In the same way we say **Welcome to** . . . , a **trip to** . . . , a **visit to** . . . , on **my way to** . . . etc. :

- **Welcome to our country**! (*not* Welcome in)
- We had to cancel **our trip to Paris**.

Compare **to** (for *movement*) and **in**/**at** (for *position*):

- They are **going to** France. *but* They **live in** France.
- Can you **come to** the party? *but* I'll **see you at** the party.

We say '(I've) **been to**' a place or an event:

- I've **been to Italy** four times, but I've never **been to Rome**.
- Amanda has never **been to a football match** in her life.

B

get and **arrive**

We say **get to** a place:

- They **got to the hotel** at midnight.
- What time did you **get to the party**?

We say **arrive in** . . . or **arrive at** . . . (*not* arrive to).
We say **arrive in** a town or country:

- They **arrived in Madrid** / **in Spain** a week ago.

For other places (buildings etc.) or events, we say **arrive at**:

- What time did you **arrive at the hotel** / **at the airport** / **at the party**?

C

home

We say: **go home**, **come home**, **get home**, **arrive home**, **on the way home** etc. (no preposition).
We do not say 'to home':

- What time did you **get home**? (*not* get to home)
- I met Lisa **on my way home**.

D

into

go into, **get into** . . . etc. = enter (a room / a building / a car etc.):

- I opened the door, **went into the room** and sat down.
- A bird **flew into the kitchen** through the window.
- Every month my salary **is paid** directly **into my bank account**.

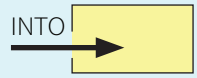

With some verbs (especially **go**/**get**/**put**) we often use **in** (instead of **into**):

- She **got in the car** and drove away. *or* She **got into** the car . . .
- I read the letter and **put it** back **in the envelope**.

The opposite of **into** is **out of**:

- She **got out of** the car and **went into** a shop.

For buses, trains and planes, we usually say **get on** and **get off**:

- She **got on the bus** and I never saw her again.
- You need to **get off** (the train) at the next station.

>> **been to** ➜ **Units 7–8** **in**/**at**/**on** (position) ➜ **Units 123–125** **at home** ➜ **Unit 125A**
into and **in** ➜ **Unit 138A**

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Exercises

126.1 Put in to/at/in/into where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 Three people were taken ....to.... hospital after the accident.
2 I'm tired. Let's go ....–.... home now. *(no preposition)*
3 We left our luggage ..... the station and went to find something to eat.
4 Shall we take a taxi ..... the station or shall we walk?
5 I have to go ..... the bank today. What time does it open?
6 The Amazon flows ..... the Atlantic Ocean.
7 I missed the bus, so I walked ..... home.
8 Have you ever been ..... Canada?
9 I lost my key, but I managed to climb ..... the house through a window.
10 We got stuck in a traffic jam on our way ..... the airport.
11 We had lunch ..... the airport while we were waiting for our plane.
12 It took us four hours to get ..... the top of the mountain.
13 Welcome ..... the hotel. We hope you enjoy your stay here.
14 We drove along the main road and then turned ..... a narrow side street.
15 Did you enjoy your visit ..... the zoo?
16 I did some shopping on my way ..... home.
17 Marcel is French. He has just returned ..... France after two years ..... Brazil.
18 Carl was born ..... Chicago, but his family moved ..... Boston when he was three.

126.2 Write sentences about places you have been to. Use I've been to / I've never been to + the words in brackets.

1 (never) ....I've never been to Egypt.....
2 (once) .....
3 (never) .....
4 (a few times) .....
5 (many times) .....

126.3 Put in to/at/in where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 What time does this train get ....to.... London?
2 They arrived ..... Barcelona a few days ago.
3 What time did you get ..... home last night?
4 What time do you usually arrive ..... work in the morning?
5 When we got ..... the cinema, there was a long queue outside.
6 We were delayed and arrived ..... home very late.

126.4 Write sentences using got + into / out of / on / off.

1 You were walking home. A friend passed you in her car. She saw you, stopped and offered you a lift. She opened the door. What did you do? ....I got into the car.....
2 You were waiting at the bus stop. At last your bus came and stopped. The doors opened. What did you do then? I ..... the bus.
3 You drove home in your car. You stopped outside your house and parked the car. What did you do then? .....
4 You were travelling by train to Manchester. When the train got to Manchester, what did you do? .....
5 You needed a taxi. After a few minutes a taxi stopped for you. You opened the door. What did you do then? .....
6 You were travelling by plane. At the end of your flight, your plane landed at the airport and stopped. The doors were opened, you took your bag and stood up. What did you do then? .....

➜ Additional exercise 34 (page 322)

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Unit 127

in/on/at (other uses)

A in

in the rain / **in the sun** / **in the shade** / **in the dark** / **in bad weather** etc.

- We sat **in the shade**. It was too hot to sit **in the sun**.
- Don't go out **in the rain**. Wait until it stops.

in a language / **in** a currency etc.

- How do you say 'thank you' **in Russian**?
- How much is a hundred pounds **in dollars**?

(be/fall) **in love** (**with** somebody)

- They're very happy together. They're **in love**.

in a (good/bad) **mood**

- You seem to be **in a bad mood**. What's the matter?

in (my) **opinion**

- **In my opinion** the movie wasn't very good.

in the shade

B on

on TV / **on television**	I didn't see the news **on TV**.
on the radio	I heard the weather forecast **on the radio**.
on the phone	I've never met her, but I've spoken to her **on the phone**.
on fire	Look! That car is **on fire**.
on purpose (= intentionally)	I'm sorry. I didn't mean to hurt you. I didn't do it **on purpose**.
on the whole (= in general)	Sometimes I have problems at work, but **on the whole** I enjoy my job.

C on holiday / on a trip etc.

(be/go) **on holiday** / **on vacation**	I'm going **on holiday** next week.
(be/go) **on a trip** / **on a tour** / **on a cruise** etc.	One day I'd like to go **on a world tour**.
(be/go to a place) **on business**	Emma's away **on business** at the moment.
(be/go) **on strike**	There are no trains today. The drivers are **on strike**.
(be/go) **on a diet**	I've put on weight. I'll have to go **on a diet**.

We also say 'go somewhere **for a** holiday':

- Steve has gone to France **for a holiday**.

D at the age of ... etc.

at the age of 16 / **at 90 miles an hour** / **at 100 degrees** etc. :

- Tracy left school **at 16**. *or* Tracy left school **at the age of 16**.
- The train was travelling **at 120 miles an hour**.
- Water boils **at 100 degrees Celsius**.

We are now flying **at a speed** of 800 kilometres an hour and **at an altitude** of 9,000 metres.

>> **in/at/on** (time) ➜ **Unit 121** **in/at/on** (position) ➜ **Units 123–125**

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Exercises

127.1 Complete the sentences using in + the following:

the mood	cold weather	love	my opinion
French	~~the rain~~	kilometres	the shade

1 Don't go out ...in the rain... . Wait until it stops.
2 Matt likes to keep warm, so he doesn't go out much ..... .
3 The movie was ..... with English subtitles.
4 They fell ..... almost immediately and were married in a few weeks.
5 I don't feel like going to a party tonight. I'm not ..... .
6 It's too hot here. I'm going to sit ..... under that tree.
7 Amanda thought the restaurant was OK, but ..... it wasn't very good.
8 Fifty miles? What's that ..... ?

127.2 Complete the sentences using on + the following:

business	a cruise	a diet	fire	holiday	her phone
~~the radio~~	purpose	strike	TV	a tour	the whole

1 I heard the weather forecast ...on the radio... . It's going to get warmer.
2 Workers at the company have gone ..... for better pay and conditions.
3 Don't go ..... if you don't like being at sea.
4 There was panic when people realised that the building was ..... .
5 Soon after we arrived, we were taken ..... of the city.
6 Emma has lots of useful apps ..... .
7 I feel lazy this evening. Is there anything worth watching ..... ?
8 I'm sorry. It was an accident. I didn't do it ..... .
9 If you are ....., there are certain things you're not allowed to eat.
10 We'll be ..... from Friday. We're going to the mountains.
11 Jane's job involves a lot of travelling. She often has to go away ..... .
12 Some of the exam questions were hard, but ..... it was OK.

127.3 Complete the sentences with in, on or at.

1 Water boils ...at... 100 degrees Celsius.
2 When I was 14, I went ..... a trip to France organised by my school.
3 Julia's grandmother died recently ..... the age of 90.
4 Can you turn the light on, please? I don't want to sit ..... the dark.
5 We didn't go ..... holiday last year. We stayed at home.
6 I hate driving ..... fog. You can't see anything.
7 Technology has developed ..... great speed.
8 David got married ..... 19, which is rather young to get married.
9 I listened to an interesting programme ..... the radio this morning.
10 I wouldn't like to go ..... a cruise. I think I'd get bored.
11 The earth travels round the sun ..... 107,000 kilometres an hour.
12 I shouldn't eat too much. I'm supposed to be ..... a diet.
13 A lot of houses were damaged ..... the storm last week.
14 I won't be here next week. I'll be ..... holiday.
15 I wouldn't like his job. He spends most of his time talking ..... the phone.
16 'Did you enjoy your holiday?' 'Not every minute, but ..... the whole, yes.'
17 ..... your opinion, what should I do?
18 Ben is a happy sort of person. He always seems to be ..... a good mood.
19 I don't think violent films should be shown ..... TV.
20 The museum guidebook is available ..... several languages.

➜ **Additional exercise 34** (page 322)

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Unit 128 by

A

You can say that something happens **by mistake** / **by accident** / **by chance**:

- We hadn't arranged to meet. We met **by chance**.

But we say 'do something **on purpose**' (= you mean to do it):

- I didn't do it **on purpose**. It was an accident.

Note that we say **by chance**, **by accident** etc. (*not* by the chance / by an accident).
In these expressions we use **by** + *noun* without **the** or **a**.

B

We use **by** . . . to say how somebody travels. For example, you can travel:

by car **by train** **by plane** **by boat** **by ship** **by bus** **by bike** etc.

- Jess usually goes to work **by bus** / **by bike** / **by car**.

We do not use **by** if we say **my car** / **the train** / **a taxi** etc. We say:

by car *but* **in my** car (*not* by my car)
by train *but* **on the** train (*not* by the train)

We use **in** for cars and taxis:

- They didn't come **in their car**. They came **in a taxi**.

We use **on** for bikes and public transport (buses, trains etc.):

- We travelled **on the 6.45 train**, which arrived at 8.30.

Note that we usually say **on foot** (*not usually* by foot):

- Did you come here **by car** or **on foot**?

We also use **by** to say how we do other things. For example, you can:

send something **by post** pay **by card** / **by cheque** do something **by hand**

- Can I pay **by credit card**?

But note that we say **pay cash** or **pay in cash** (*not usually* by cash).

C

We say that 'something is done **by** . . .' *(passive)*:

- Have you ever been bitten **by a dog**?
- The programme was watched **by millions of people**.

Compare **by** and **with**:

- The door must have been opened **with a key**. (*not* by a key)
  (= somebody used a key to open it)
- The door must have been opened **by somebody** with a key.

We say: a play **by Shakespeare**, a painting **by Rembrandt**, a novel **by Tolstoy** etc.

- Have you read any poems **by Shakespeare**?
- '**Who** is this painting **by**? Picasso?' 'I have no idea.'

D

By also means 'next to / beside':

- The light switch is **by the door**.
- Come and sit **by me**. (= next to me)

LIGHT SWITCH →

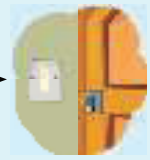

E

You can also use **by**. . . to show the difference between two things:

- Clare's salary has increased **by ten per cent**.
  (= it's now ten per cent more than before)
- Carl won the race **by five metres**.
  (= he was five metres in front of the other runners)

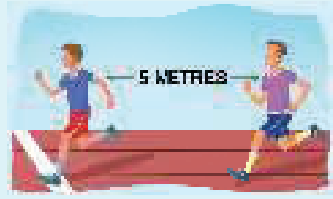

CARL

>> Passive + **by** ➜ **Unit 42B** **by** + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 60B** **by myself** ➜ **Unit 83C** **by** (time) ➜ **Unit 120**

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Exercises

128.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1 We don't need cash. We can pay by credit card.
2 Kate and James keep in touch with one another mainly .....
3 I didn't intend to take your umbrella. I took it .....
4 I think he arrived late ..... He wanted to keep us waiting.
5 Some things are planned. Other things happen .....
6 Don't put my sweater in the washing machine. It has to be washed .....

by mistake
by hand
~~**by credit card**~~
by chance
by email
on purpose

128.2 Put in by, in or on.

1 Jess usually goes to work by bus.
2 I saw Jane this morning. She was ..... the bus.
3 How did you get here? Did you come ..... train?
4 I couldn't find a seat ..... the train. It was full.
5 How much will it cost to the airport ..... taxi?
6 Did you come here ..... Sarah's car or yours?
7 The injured man was taken to hospital ..... ambulance.
8 How long does it take to cross the Atlantic ..... ship?
9 He doesn't drive much. He goes everywhere ..... bike or ..... foot.

128.3 Complete these sentences about books, paintings etc. Choose from the box.

1 I was woken up in the night by a strange noise.
2 These pictures were taken .....
3 I hate getting bitten .....
4 'Mona Lisa' is a famous painting .....
5 We lost the game because of a mistake .....
6 The plane was damaged ....., but landed safely.
7 This music is ....., but I can't remember what it's called.

by mosquitoes
by one of our players
by lightning
by Beethoven
~~**by a strange noise**~~
by Leonardo da Vinci
by a professional photographer

128.4 Put in by, in, on or with.

1 Have you ever been bitten by a dog?
2 We managed to put the fire out ..... a fire extinguisher.
3 Who's that man standing ..... the window?
4 Do you travel much ..... bus?
5 We travelled ..... my friend's car because it is larger and more comfortable than mine.
6 It was only ..... accident that I discovered the error.
7 These pictures were taken ..... a very good camera.
8 My friends live in a beautiful house ..... the sea.
9 There were only a few people ..... the plane. It was almost empty.
10 The new railway line will reduce the journey time ..... two hours (from five hours to three).
11 There was a small table ..... the bed ..... a lamp and a clock ..... it.

128.5 Complete the sentences using by.

1 Carl won the race. He was five metres in front of the other runners.
Carl won by five metres.
2 Ten years ago the population of the country was 50 million. Now it is 56 million.
In the last ten years the population has .....
3 There was an election. Helen won. She got 25 votes and James got 23.
Helen won .....
4 I went to Kate's office to see her, but she had left work five minutes before I arrived.
I missed .....

➜ **Additional exercise 34** (page 322)

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Unit 129

Noun + preposition (**reason for, cause of** etc.)

A

noun + **for** . . .

a **demand** / a **need FOR** . . .
- The company went out of business. There was no **demand for** its product any more.
- There's no excuse for behaviour like that. There's no **need for** it.

a **reason FOR** . . .
- The train was late, but nobody knew the **reason for** the delay. (*not* reason of)

B

noun + **of** . . .

a **cause OF** . . .
- The **cause of** the explosion is unknown.

a **picture** / a **photo** / a **photograph** / a **map** / a **plan** / a **drawing** (etc.) **OF** . . .
- Rachel showed me some **pictures of** her family.
- I had a **map of** the town, so I was able to find my way around.

an **advantage** / a **disadvantage OF** . . .
- The **advantage of living alone** is that you can do what you like.

but
there is an advantage **IN** doing something *or* **TO** doing something:
- **There are** many advantages **in** living alone. *or* . . . many advantages **to** living alone.

C

noun + **in** . . .

an **increase** / a **decrease** / a **rise** / a **fall IN** (prices etc.)
- There has been an **increase in** the number of road accidents recently.
- Last year was a bad one for the company. There was a big **fall in** sales.

D

noun + **to** . . .

damage TO . . .
- The accident was my fault, so I had to pay for the **damage to** the other car.

an **invitation TO** . . . (a party / a wedding etc.)
- Did you get an **invitation to** the wedding?

a **solution TO** a problem / a **key TO** a door / an **answer TO** a question / a **reply TO** a letter / a **reaction TO** something
- I hope we find a **solution to** the problem. (*not* a solution of the problem)
- I was surprised at her **reaction to** my suggestion.

an **attitude TO** . . . *or* an **attitude TOWARDS** . . .
- His **attitude to** his job is very negative. *or* His **attitude towards** his job . . .

E

noun + **with** . . . / **between** . . .

a **relationship** / a **connection** / **contact WITH** . . .
- Do you have a good **relationship with** your parents?
- The police want to question a man in **connection with** the robbery.

a **relationship** / a **connection** / **contact** / a **difference BETWEEN** two things or people
- The police believe that there is no **connection between** the two crimes.
- There are some **differences between** British and American English.

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Exercises

129.1 Complete the second sentence so that it has the same meaning as the first.

1 What caused the explosion?
What was the cause of the explosion?
2 We're trying to solve the problem.
We're trying to find a solution .....
3 Sue gets on well with her brother.
Sue has a good relationship .....
4 The cost of living has gone up a lot.
There has been a big increase .....
5 I don't know how to answer your question.
I can't think of an answer .....
6 I don't think that a new road is necessary.
I don't think there is any need .....
7 I think that living in a big city has many advantages.
I think that there are many advantages .....
8 Food prices fell last month.
Last month there was a fall .....
9 Nobody wants shoes like these any more.
There is no demand .....
10 In what way is your job different from mine?
What is the difference .....?

129.2 Complete the sentences using these nouns + a preposition:

cause	**connection**	**contact**	**damage**	**invitation**
key	~~**map**~~	**photos**	**reason**	**reply**

1 On the classroom wall there were some pictures and a map of the world.
2 Thank you for the ..... your birthday party.
3 Anna has little ..... her family these days. She rarely sees them.
4 I can't open this door. Do you have a ..... the other door?
5 The ..... the fire at the hotel is still unknown.
6 Did you get a ..... the email you sent?
7 The two companies are separate. There is no ..... them.
8 Jane showed me some ..... the city as it looked 100 years ago.
9 Emily has decided to give up her job. I don't know her ..... doing this.
10 It wasn't a bad accident. The ..... the car wasn't serious.

129.3 Complete the sentences with the correct preposition.

1 There are some differences between British and American English.
2 Money isn't the solution ..... every problem.
3 There has been an increase ..... the amount of traffic using this road.
4 The advantage ..... having a car is that you don't have to rely on public transport.
5 There are many advantages ..... being able to speak a foreign language.
6 Everything can be explained. There's a reason ..... everything.
7 When Paul left home, his attitude ..... many things seemed to change.
8 Ben and I used to be good friends, but I don't have much contact ..... him now.
9 James did a very good drawing ..... his father. It looks just like him.
10 What was Sarah's reaction ..... the news?
11 Nicola took a picture ..... me holding the baby.
12 The show is very popular and there has been a great demand ..... tickets.
13 There has been a lot of debate about the causes ..... climate change.
14 The fact that Jane was offered a job in the company has no connection ..... the fact that she is a friend of the managing director.

➜ **Additional exercise 35** (page 322)

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Unit 130

Adjective + preposition 1

A nice of you, nice to me

nice / **kind** / **good** / **generous** / **polite** / **honest** / **stupid** / **silly** etc. **OF** somebody (to do something)

- Thank you. It was very **nice of** you to help me.
- It was **stupid of** me to go out without a coat in such cold weather.

(be) **nice** / **kind** / **good** / **generous** / **polite** / **rude** / **friendly** / **cruel** etc. **TO** somebody

- They have always been very **nice to** me. (*not* with me)
- Why were you so **unfriendly to** Lucy?

B *adjective* + about / with

angry / **annoyed** / **furious** / **upset** { **ABOUT** something / **WITH** somebody **FOR** doing something

- There's no point in getting **angry about** things that don't matter.
- Are you **annoyed with** me **for** being late?
- Lisa is **upset about** not being invited to the party.

excited / **worried** / **nervous** / **happy** etc. **ABOUT** something

- Are you **nervous about** the exam?

pleased / **satisfied** / **happy** / **delighted** / **disappointed WITH** something you get or experience

- They were **delighted with** the present I gave them.
- Were you **happy with** your exam results?

C *adjective* + at / by / with / of

surprised / **shocked** / **amazed** / **astonished** / **upset AT** / **BY** something

- Everybody was **surprised at** the news. *or* ... **by** the news.
- I hope you weren't **shocked by** what I said. *or* ... **at** what I said.

impressed WITH / **BY** somebody/something

- I'm very **impressed with** (*or* **by**) her English. It's very good.

fed up / **bored WITH** something

- I don't enjoy my job any more. I'm **fed up with** it. / I'm **bored with** it.

tired OF something

- Come on, let's go! I'm **tired of** waiting.

D sorry about / for

sorry ABOUT a situation or something that happened

- I'm **sorry about** the mess. I'll clear it up later.
- **Sorry about** last night. (= Sorry about something that happened last night)

sorry FOR / **ABOUT** something you did or caused

- I'm **sorry for** shouting at you yesterday. (*or* **sorry about** shouting)
- **Sorry for** the delay. (*or* **Sorry about** the delay)

You can also say 'I'm sorry I (did something)':

- I'm **sorry I shouted** at you yesterday.

feel / **be sorry FOR** somebody in a bad situation

- I **feel sorry for** Mark. He's had a lot of bad luck. (*not* I feel sorry about Mark)

>> Preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 60** Adjective + **to** ... ➜ **Unit 65** **sorry to** / **sorry for** ... ➜ **Unit 66C**
Adjective + preposition 2 ➜ **Unit 131**

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Exercises

130.1 Complete the sentences using nice of …, kind of … etc.

1	Tom offered to drive me to the airport.	(nice) That was nice of him.
2	I needed money and Lisa gave me some.	(generous) That ..... her.
3	They didn't invite us to their party.	(not very nice) That wasn't .....
4	Can I help you with your luggage?	(very kind) That's .....
5	Kevin never says 'thank you'.	(not very polite) That isn't .....
6	They've had an argument and now they refuse to speak to each other.	(a bit childish) That's a bit .....

130.2 Complete the sentences using an adjective + preposition. Choose from:

amazed **angry** **bored** **careless** **excited** **impressed** **kind** ~~**nervous**~~

1 Are you nervous about the exam?
2 Thank you for all you've done. You've been very ..... me.
3 What have I done wrong? Why are you ..... me?
4 You must be very ..... your trip next week. It sounds really great.
5 I wasn't ..... the service in the restaurant. We had to wait ages.
6 Ben isn't very happy at college. He says he's ..... the course he's doing.
7 I'd never seen so many people before. I was ..... the crowds.
8 It was ..... you to leave the car unlocked while you were shopping.

130.3 Put in the correct preposition.

1 They were delighted with the present I gave them.
2 It was nice ..... you to come and see me when I was ill.
3 Why are you always so rude ..... people? Why can't you be more polite?
4 We always have the same food every day. I'm fed up ..... it.
5 We had a good holiday, but we were disappointed ..... the hotel.
6 I can't understand people who are cruel ..... animals.
7 I was surprised ..... the way he behaved. It was completely out of character.
8 I've been trying to learn Japanese, but I'm not very satisfied ..... my progress.
9 Tanya doesn't look very well. I'm worried ..... her.
10 I'm sorry ..... yesterday. I completely forgot we'd arranged to meet.
11 There's no point in feeling sorry ..... yourself. It won't help you.
12 Are you still upset ..... what I said to you yesterday?
13 Some people say Kate is unfriendly, but she's always been very nice ..... me.
14 I'm tired ..... doing the same thing every day. I need a change.
15 We interviewed ten people for the job, and we weren't impressed ..... any of them.
16 Vicky is annoyed ..... me because I didn't agree with her.
17 I'm sorry ..... the smell in this room. I've just finished painting it.
18 I was shocked ..... what I saw. I'd never seen anything like it before.
19 Jack is sorry ..... what he did. He won't do it again.
20 The hotel was incredibly expensive. I was amazed ..... the price of a room.
21 Paul made the wrong decision. It was honest ..... him to admit it.
22 You've been very generous ..... me. You've helped me a lot.
23 Our neighbours were very angry ..... the noise we made.
24 Our neighbours were furious ..... us ..... making so much noise.

➜ **Additional exercise 35** (page 322)

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Unit 131

Adjective + preposition 2

A *adjective* + **of**

afraid / **scared** / **frightened** / **terrified OF** . . .
- ‘Are you **afraid of** spiders?’ ‘Yes, I’m **terrified of** them.’

fond / **proud** / **ashamed** / **jealous** / **envious OF** . . .
- Why is he so **jealous of** other people?

suspicious / **critical** / **tolerant OF** . . .
- They didn’t trust me. They were **suspicious of** my motives.

aware / **conscious OF** . . .
- ‘Did you know he was married?’ ‘No, I wasn’t **aware of** that.’

capable / **incapable OF** . . .
- I’m sure you are **capable of** doing the job well.

full / **short OF** . . .
- Amy is a very active person. She’s always **full of** energy.
- I’m a bit **short of** money. Can you lend me some?

typical OF . . .
- He’s late again. It’s **typical of** him to keep everybody waiting.

certain / **sure OF** *or* **ABOUT** . . .
- I think she’s arriving this evening, but I’m not **sure of** that. *or* . . . not **sure about** that.

B *adjective* + **at** / **to** / **from** / **in** / **on** / **with** / **for**

good / **bad** / **brilliant** / **better** / **hopeless** etc. **AT** . . .
- I’m not very **good at** repairing things. (*not* good in repairing things)

married / **engaged TO** . . .
- Louise is **married to** an American. (*not* married with)

but Louise is married **with three children**. (= she is married and has three children)

similar TO . . .
- Your handwriting is **similar to** mine.

different FROM *or* **different TO** . . .
- The film was **different from** what I’d expected. *or* . . . **different to** what I’d expected.

interested IN . . .
- Are you **interested in** art?

keen ON . . .
- We stayed at home. Chris wasn’t **keen on** going out.

dependent ON . . . (*but* **independent OF** . . .)
- I don’t want to be **dependent on** anybody.

crowded WITH (people etc.)
- The streets were **crowded with** tourists. (*but* . . . **full of** tourists)

famous FOR . . .
- The Italian city of Florence is **famous for** its art treasures.

responsible FOR . . .
- Who was **responsible for** all that noise last night?

>> Preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 60** **afraid of/to** . . . ➜ **Unit 66A** Adjective + preposition 1 ➜ **Unit 130**
American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

131.1 Complete the sentences using an adjective + of. Choose from:

ashamed aware capable envious proud scared ~~short~~ typical

1 I'm a bit short of money. Can you lend me some?
2 My children have done very well. I'm ..... them.
3 What I did was very bad. I'm ..... myself.
4 She always behaves like that. It's ..... her.
5 He wouldn't be able to run his own business. He's not ..... it.
6 I don't like going up ladders. I'm ..... heights.
7 Nobody told me she was ill. I wasn't ..... it.
8 I wish I had what Sarah has. I'm ..... her.

131.2 Write sentences about yourself. Are you good at these things or not? You can use:

good pretty good not very good hopeless

1 (repairing things) I'm not very good at repairing things.
2 (telling jokes) .....
3 (maths) .....
4 (remembering names) .....
5 (making decisions) .....

131.3 Complete the sentences using an adjective + preposition. Choose from:

afraid capable different interested proud responsible similar ~~sure~~

1 I think she's arriving this evening, but I'm not sure of that.
2 Your camera is ..... mine, but it isn't exactly the same.
3 Don't worry. I'll look after you. There's nothing to be .....
4 I never watch the news on TV. I'm not ..... the news.
5 The editor is the person who is ..... what appears in a newspaper.
6 Sarah is a keen gardener and is very ..... her garden.
7 I was surprised when I first met Tina. She was ..... what I expected.
8 Ben could become world champion one day. He's ..... it.

131.4 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.

1 There were lots of tourists in the streets.	The streets were crowded with tourists.
2 There was a lot of furniture in the room.	The room was full .....
3 I don't like sport very much.	I'm not very keen .....
4 We don't have enough time.	We're short .....
5 Helen does her job very well	Helen is very good .....
6 Steven's wife is a doctor.	Steven is married .....
7 I don't trust Robert.	I'm suspicious .....
8 My problem is not the same as yours.	My problem is different .....

131.5 Put in the correct preposition.

1 Amy is always full of energy.
2 My home town is not a very interesting place. It's not famous ..... anything.
3 Kate is very fond ..... her younger brother.
4 You look bored. You don't seem interested ..... what I'm saying.
5 'Our flight departs at 10.35.' 'Are you sure ..... that?'
6 I wanted to go out for a meal, but nobody else was keen ..... the idea.
7 These days everybody is aware ..... the dangers of smoking.
8 The station platform was crowded ..... people waiting for the train.
9 Mark has no money of his own. He's completely dependent ..... his parents.
10 We're short ..... staff in our office right now. We need more people to do the work.

➜ Additional exercise 35 (page 322)

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Unit 132

Verb + preposition 1 **to** and **at**

A *verb* + **to**

talk / **speak TO** somebody (**talk**/**speak with** is also possible)
- Who were you **talking to**?

listen TO …
- When I'm driving, I like to **listen to** the radio. (*not* listen the radio)

apologise TO somebody (for …)
- They **apologised to me** for their mistake. (*not* apologised me)

explain something **TO** somebody
- Can you **explain** this word **to me**? (*not* explain me this word)

explain / **describe** (**to** somebody) what/how/why …
- I **explained to them** why I was worried. (*not* I explained them)
- Let me **describe to you** what I saw. (*not* Let me describe you)

B **phone** somebody, **ask** somebody etc. (*without* **to**)

phone / **call** / **email** / **text** somebody
- I **called the airline** to cancel my flight. (*not* called to the airline)

But we say '**write** (a letter) **to** somebody'.

answer somebody/something
- You didn't **answer my email**. (*not* answer to my email)

But we say **reply to** (an email / a letter etc.).

ask somebody (a question)
- If there's anything you want to know, you can **ask me**. (*not* ask to me)

thank somebody (**for** …)
- He **thanked me** for helping him. (*not* He thanked to me)

C *verb* + **at**

look / **stare** / **glance AT** …, **have a look** / **take a look AT** …
- Why are you **looking at** me like that?

laugh AT …
- I look stupid with this haircut. Everybody will **laugh at** me.

aim / **point** (something) **AT** …, **shoot** / **fire** (a gun) **AT** …
- Don't **point** that knife **at** me. It's dangerous.
- We saw someone with a gun **shooting at** birds, but he didn't hit any.

D Some verbs can be followed by **at** or **to**, with a difference in meaning. For example:

shout AT somebody (when you are angry or aggressive)
- He got very angry and started **shouting at** me.

shout TO somebody (so that they can hear you)
- He **shouted to** me from the other side of the street.

throw something **AT** somebody/something (to hit them)
- Somebody **threw** an egg **at** the politician.

throw something **TO** somebody (for somebody to catch)
- Lisa shouted 'Catch!' and **threw** the keys **to** me from the window.

>> Verb + preposition 2–5 ➜ **Units 133–136** **ask for ➜ Unit 133B**
apologise for / **thank somebody for ➜ Unit 135B** Other verbs + **to ➜ Unit 136D**

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Exercises

132.1 Which is correct?

1 a Can you explain this word to me? (a *is correct*)
  b ~~Can you explain me this word?~~
2 a I got angry with Mark. Afterwards, I apologised to him.
  b I got angry with Mark. Afterwards, I apologised him.
3 a Amy won't be able to help you. There's no point in asking to her.
  b Amy won't be able to help you. There's no point in asking her.
4 a I need somebody to explain me what I have to do.
  b I need somebody to explain to me what I have to do.
5 a They didn't understand the system, so I explained it to them.
  b They didn't understand the system, so I explained it them.
6 a I like to sit on the beach and listen to the sound of the sea.
  b I like to sit on the beach and listen the sound of the sea.
7 a I asked them to describe me exactly what happened.
  b I asked them to describe to me exactly what happened.
8 a We'd better phone the restaurant to reserve a table.
  b We'd better phone to the restaurant to reserve a table.
9 a It was a difficult question. I couldn't answer to it.
  b It was a difficult question. I couldn't answer it.
10 a I explained everybody the reasons for my decision.
  b I explained to everybody the reasons for my decision.
11 a I thanked everybody for all the help they had given me.
  b I thanked to everybody for all the help they had given me.
12 a My friend texted to me to let me know she was going to be late.
  b My friend texted me to let me know she was going to be late.

132.2 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs + the correct preposition:

~~explain~~ ~~laugh~~ listen look point reply speak throw throw

1 I look stupid with this haircut. Everybody will ...laugh at... me.
2 I don't understand this. Can you ...explain... it ...to... me?
3 We live in the same building, but we've never ..... one another.
4 Be careful with those scissors! Don't ..... them ..... me!
5 You shouldn't ..... directly ..... the sun. You'll damage your eyes.
6 Please ..... me! I've got something important to tell you.
7 Don't ..... stones ..... the birds!
8 If you don't want that sandwich, ... it ..... the birds. They'll eat it.
9 I tried to contact Tina, but she didn't ..... my emails.

132.3 Put in to or at.

1 They apologised ...to... me for what happened.
2 I glanced ..... my watch to see what time it was.
3 Please don't shout ..... me! Try to calm down.
4 I saw Lisa and shouted ..... her, but she didn't hear me.
5 Don't listen ..... what he says. He doesn't know what he's talking about.
6 What's so funny? What are you laughing ..... ?
7 Is it all right if I have a look ..... your magazine?
8 I'm lonely. I need somebody to talk ..... .
9 She was so angry she threw a book ..... the wall.
10 The woman sitting opposite me on the train kept staring ..... me.
11 Do you have a moment? I need to speak ..... you.

➜ **Additional exercise 36** (page 323)

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Unit 133

Verb + preposition 2 **about/for/of/after**

A *verb* + **about**

talk / **read** / **know ABOUT** . . .
- We **talked about** a lot of things at the meeting.

have a discussion ABOUT something
- We had **a discussion about** what we should do.

But we say '**discuss** something' (no preposition):
- We **discussed** what we should do. (*not* discussed about)

do something/nothing **ABOUT** something = *do something/nothing to improve a situation*
- If you're worried about the problem, you should **do** something **about** it.

B *verb* + **for**

ask (somebody) **FOR** . . .
- I sent an email to the company **asking** them **for** more information about the job.

But we say 'ask somebody **the way** / **the time**' etc. (no preposition):
- I **asked** somebody **the way to the station**.

apply (**TO** a company etc.) **FOR** a job etc.
- I think you could do this job. Why don't you **apply for** it?

wait FOR somebody, **wait FOR** something (to happen)
- Don't **wait for** me. I'll join you later.
- I'm not going out yet. I'm **waiting for** the rain to stop.

search (a person / a place / a bag etc.) **FOR** . . .
- I've **searched** the house **for** my keys, but I still can't find them.

leave (a place) **FOR** another place
- I haven't seen her since she **left** (home) **for** work. (*not* left to work)

C **take care of**, **care for** and **care about**

take care OF . . . = *look after, keep safe, take responsibility for*
- Don't worry about me. I can **take care of** myself.
- I'll **take care of** the travel arrangements. You don't need to do anything.

care FOR somebody = *take care of them, keep them safe*
- Alan is 85 and lives alone. He needs somebody to **care for** him.

I don't **care FOR** something = *I don't like it*
- I don't **care for** hot weather. (= I don't like . . .)

care ABOUT . . . = *think that somebody/something is important*
- He's very selfish. He doesn't **care about** other people.

care what/where/how . . . etc. (*without* **about**)
- You can do what you like. I don't **care what** you do.

D **look for** and **look after**

look FOR . . . = *search for, try to find*
- I've lost my keys. Can you help me to **look for** them?

look AFTER . . . = *take care of, keep safe or in good condition*
- Alan is 85 and lives alone. He needs somebody to **look after** him. (*not* look for)
- You can borrow this book, but please **look after** it.

>> Verbs + **about/of** (**think/hear** etc.) ➜ **Unit 134** Other verbs + **for** ➜ **Unit 135B**

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Exercises

133.1 Which is right?

1 We ~~searched everywhere Joe~~ / searched everywhere for Joe, but we couldn't find him. (searched everywhere for Joe *is correct*)
2 I sent her an email. Now I'm waiting for her to reply / waiting her to reply.
3 A security guard searched my bag / searched for my bag as I entered the building.
4 I paid the taxi driver and asked him a receipt / asked him for a receipt.
5 I wanted to get to the city centre, so I stopped a man to ask the way / to ask for the way.
6 We discussed about the problem / discussed the problem, but we didn't reach a decision.
7 There are many problems, but the government does nothing for them / nothing about them.
8 My flight is at 9.30. What time do I need to leave the hotel to the airport / for the airport?

133.2 Put in the correct preposition. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 I'm not going out yet. I'm waiting ....for.... the rain to stop.
2 I've applied ..... three universities. I hope one of them accepts me.
3 If you don't want the job, there's no point in applying ..... it.
4 I don't want to talk ..... what happened last night. Let's forget it.
5 I don't want to discuss ..... what happened last night. Let's forget it.
6 We had an interesting discussion ..... the problem, but we didn't reach a decision.
7 My friends are in Italy. They're in Rome now and tomorrow they leave ..... Milan.
8 The roof of the house is in bad condition. We need to do something ..... it.

133.3 Put in the correct preposition after care. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 He's very selfish. He doesn't care ....about.... other people.
2 Who's going to take care ..... you when you are old?
3 She doesn't care ..... the exam. She doesn't care whether she passes or fails.
4 I don't like this coat very much. I don't care ..... the colour.
5 Don't worry about the shopping. I'll take care ..... that.
6 He gave up his job to care ..... his elderly father.
7 I want to have a good holiday. I don't care ..... the cost.
8 I want to have a good holiday. I don't care ..... how much it costs.

133.4 Complete the sentences with look for or look after. Use the correct form of look (looks/looked/looking).

1 I ....looked for.... my keys, but I couldn't find them anywhere.
2 Kate is ..... a job. I hope she finds one soon.
3 Who ..... you when you were ill?
4 The car park was full, so we had to ..... somewhere else to park.
5 A child minder is somebody who ..... other people's children.
6 I'm ..... Lisa. I need to ask her something. Have you seen her?

133.5 Complete the sentences with these verbs (in the correct form) + a preposition:

apply ask do leave look ~~search~~ talk wait

1 Police are ....searching for.... a man who escaped from prison.
2 Sarah wasn't ready. We had to ..... her.
3 I think Amy likes her job, but she doesn't ..... it much.
4 Don't ..... me ..... money. I don't have any.
5 Ben is unemployed. He has ..... several jobs, but hasn't had any luck.
6 If something is wrong, why don't you ..... something ..... it?
7 Helen's car is very old, but she ..... it. It's in excellent condition.
8 Diane is from Boston, but now she lives in Paris. She ..... Boston ..... Paris when she was 19.

➜ **Additional exercise 36** (page 323)

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Unit 134

Verb + preposition 3 **about** and **of**

A

hear ABOUT … = *be told about something*
- Did you **hear about** the fire at the hotel?

hear OF … = *know that somebody/something exists*
- A: Who is Tom Hart?
  B: I have no idea. I've never **heard of** him. (*not* heard from him)

hear FROM … = *be in contact with somebody*
- A: Have you **heard from** Jane recently?
  B: Yes, she called me a few days ago.

B

think ABOUT something = consider it, concentrate your mind on it:
- I've **thought about** what you said and I've decided to take your advice.
- A: Will you lend me the money?
  B: I'll **think about** it. (*not* think of it)

think OF something = produce an idea:
- It was my idea. I **thought of** it first. (*not* thought about it)
- I felt embarrassed. I couldn't **think of** anything to say. (*not* think about anything)

We also use **think of** when we ask for or give an opinion:
- A: What did you **think of** the movie?
  B: I didn't **think** much **of** it. (= I didn't like it much)

Sometimes the difference is very small and you can use **of** or **about**:
- When I'm alone, I often **think of** you. *or* … **think about** you.

You can say **think of** *or* **think about** doing something (for possible future actions):
- My sister is **thinking of** going to Canada. *or* … **thinking about** going …

C

dream ABOUT … (when you are asleep)
- I **dreamt about** you last night.

dream OF/ABOUT being something / doing something = *imagine*
- Do you **dream of** being rich and famous? *or* … **dream about** being rich …

I **wouldn't dream OF** doing something = *I would never do it*
- 'Don't tell anyone what I said.' 'No, I **wouldn't dream of** it.'

D

complain (**TO** somebody) **ABOUT** … = *say that you are not satisfied*
- We **complained to** the manager of the restaurant **about** the food.

complain OF a pain, an illness etc. = *say that you have a pain etc.*
- We called the doctor because George was **complaining of** a pain in his stomach.

E

remind somebody **ABOUT** … = *tell somebody not to forget*
- It's good you **reminded** me **about** the meeting. I'd completely forgotten about it.

remind somebody **OF** … = *cause somebody to remember*
- This house **reminds** me **of** the one I lived in when I was a child.
- Look at this photograph of Richard. Who does he **remind** you **of**?

>> **remind** somebody **to** … ➜ **Unit 55B**

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Exercises

134.1 Complete the sentences using hear or heard + a preposition (about/of/from).

1 I'm surprised you haven't ....heard of.... her. She's quite famous.
2 'Did you ..... the accident last night?' 'No, what happened?'
3 Sarah used to call me quite often, but I haven't ..... her for a long time now.
4 'Have you ..... William Hudson?' 'No. Who is he?'
5 Thanks for your email. It was good to ..... you.
6 'Do you want to ..... our trip?' 'Not now. Tell me later.'
7 I live in a very small town. You've probably never ..... it.

134.2 Complete the sentences using think about or think of. Sometimes both about and of are possible. Use the correct form of think (think/thinking/thought).

1 I've ....thought about.... what you said and I've decided to take your advice.
2 I need time to make decisions. I like to ..... things carefully.
3 You look serious. What are you ..... ?
4 That's a good idea. Why didn't I ..... that?
5 I don't really want to meet Tom tonight. I'll have to ..... an excuse.
6 I'm ..... buying a new car. What would you advise me to buy?
7 When I was offered the job, I didn't accept immediately. I went away and ..... it for a while. In the end I decided to take the job.
8 A: I've just finished reading the book you lent me.
B: What did you ..... it? Did you like it?
9 A: Will you be able to help me?
B: I'm not sure. I'll ..... it.
10 I don't ..... much ..... this coffee. It's like water.
11 Katherine is homesick. She's always ..... her family back home.
12 A: Do you think I should apply to do the course?
B: I can't ..... any reason why not.

134.3 Put in the correct preposition.

1 Did you hear ....about.... the fire at the hotel yesterday?
2 I love living here. I wouldn't dream ..... going anywhere else.
3 A: I had a strange dream last night.
B: Did you? What did you dream ..... ?
4 I love this music. It reminds me ..... a warm day in spring.
5 A: We've got no money. What are we going to do?
B: Don't worry. I'll think ..... something.
6 Our neighbours complained ..... us ..... the noise we made.
7 Paul was complaining ..... pains in his chest, so he went to the doctor.
8 He loves his job. He thinks ..... it all the time, he dreams ..... it, he talks ..... it and I'm fed up with hearing ..... it.

134.4 Complete the sentences using these verbs (in the correct form) + a preposition:

complain dream hear remind remind ~~think~~ think

1 It was my idea. I ....thought of.... it first.
2 Ben is never satisfied. He's always ..... something.
3 I can't make a decision yet. I need time to ..... your proposal.
4 He's not a well-known singer. Not many people have ..... him.
5 A: You wouldn't go away without telling me, would you?
B: Of course not. I wouldn't ..... it.
6 I would have forgotten my appointment if you hadn't ..... me ..... it.
7 Do you see that man over there? Does he ..... you ..... anybody you know?

➜ **Additional exercise 36** (page 323)

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Unit 135

Verb + preposition 4 **of/for/from/on**

A *verb* + **of**

accuse / **suspect** somebody **OF** . . .
- Tina **accused** me **of** being selfish.
- Some students were **suspected of** cheating in the exam.

approve / **disapprove OF** . . .
- His parents don't **approve of** what he does, but they can't stop him.

die OF *or* **die FROM** an illness etc.
- 'What did he **die of**?' 'A heart attack.'

consist OF . . .
- We had an enormous meal. It **consisted of** seven courses.

B *verb* + **for**

pay (somebody) **FOR** . . .
- We didn't have enough money to **pay for** the meal. (*not* pay the meal)

But we say '**pay** a bill / a fine / a fee / tax / rent / a sum of money' etc. (no preposition)
- We didn't have enough money to **pay the rent**.

thank / **forgive** somebody **FOR** . . .
- I'll never **forgive** them **for** what they did.

apologise (**TO** somebody) **FOR** . . .
- When I realised I was wrong, I **apologised** (**to** them) **for** my mistake.

blame somebody/something **FOR** . . . , somebody is **to blame FOR** . . .
- Everybody **blamed** me **for** the accident.
- Everybody said that I was **to blame for** the accident.

blame (a problem etc.) **ON** . . .
- It wasn't my fault. Don't **blame** it **on** me.

C *verb* + **from**

suffer FROM an illness etc.
- There's been an increase in the number of people **suffering from** heart disease.

protect somebody/something **FROM** . . .
- Sun cream **protects** the skin **from** the sun.

D *verb* + **on**

depend ON . . . , **rely ON** . . .
- I don't know what time we'll arrive. It **depends on** the traffic.
- You can **rely on** Anna. She always keeps her promises.

You can use **depend** + **when**/**where**/**how** etc. with or without **on**:
- 'Are you going to buy it?' 'It **depends how much** it is.' (*or* 'It depends **on** how much . . .')

live ON money/food
- Michael's salary is very low. It isn't enough to **live on**.

congratulate / **compliment** somebody **ON** . . .
- I **congratulated** her **on** doing so well in her exams.
- The meal was really good. I **complimented** Mark **on** his cooking skills.

>> Verb + preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 62** Other verbs + **for** ➜ **Unit 133** Other verbs + **on** ➜ **Unit 136E**

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Exercises

135.1 Put in the correct preposition. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 Some students were suspected ....of.... cheating in the exam.
2 Are you going to apologise ..... what you did?
3 The apartment consists ..... three rooms, a kitchen and bathroom.
4 I was accused ..... lying, but I was telling the truth.
5 We finished our meal, paid ..... the bill, and left the restaurant.
6 The accident was my fault, so I had to pay ..... the repairs.
7 Some people are dying ..... hunger, while others eat too much.
8 I called Helen to thank her ..... the present she sent me.
9 The government is popular. Most people approve ..... its policies.
10 Do you blame the government ..... our economic problems?
11 When something goes wrong, you always blame it ..... other people.
12 Forgive me ..... interrupting, but I'd like to ask you something.

135.2 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.

1 Sue said that I was selfish.
Sue accused me ....of being selfish.....
2 The misunderstanding was my fault, so I apologised.
I apologised .....
3 Jane won the tournament, so I congratulated her.
I congratulated .....
4 He has enemies, and he has a bodyguard to protect him.
He has a bodyguard to protect .....
5 Sandra eats only bread and eggs.
Sandra lives .....
6 You can't say that the bad weather is my fault.
You can't blame .....
7 The police thought my friend had stolen a car.
The police suspected .....

135.3 Complete the sentences using these verbs (in the correct form) + a preposition:

accuse **apologise** **~~approve~~** **congratulate** **depend** **live** **pay** **suffer**

1 His parents don't ....approve of.... what he does, but they can't stop him.
2 When you went to the theatre with Paul, who ..... the tickets?
3 It's not pleasant when you are ..... something you didn't do.
4 We hope to go to the beach tomorrow, but it ..... the weather.
5 Things are cheap there. You can ..... very little money.
6 You were rude to Lisa. I think you should ..... her.
7 Alex ..... back pain. He spends too much time working at his desk.
8 I called Jack to ..... him ..... passing his driving test.

135.4 Put in the correct preposition. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.

1 I'll never forgive them ....for.... what they did.
2 Vaccinations may protect you ..... a number of diseases.
3 You know you can always rely ..... me if you need any help.
4 Sophie will have to borrow money to pay ..... her college fees.
5 She's often unwell. She suffers ..... very bad headaches.
6 I don't know whether I'll go out tonight. It depends ..... how I feel.
7 Anna doesn't have a job. She depends ..... her parents for money.
8 My usual breakfast consists ..... fruit, cereal and coffee.
9 I complimented her ..... her English. It was really good.

➜ **Additional exercise 36** (page 323)

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Unit 136

Verb + preposition 5 **in/into/with/to/on**

A *verb* + **in**

believe IN … = *believe that something exists, believe that it's good to do something*
- Do you **believe in** God? (= do you believe that God exists?)
- I **believe in** saying what I think. (= I believe it is right to say what I think)

but '**believe** something' (= believe that it is true), '**believe** somebody' (= believe what they say):
- The story can't be true. I don't **believe it**. (*not* believe in it)

specialise IN …
- Helen is a lawyer. She **specialises in** company law.

succeed IN …
- I hope you **succeed in** finding the job you want.

B *verb* + **into**

break INTO …
- Our house was **broken into** a few days ago, but nothing was stolen.

crash / **drive** / **bump** / **run INTO** …
- He lost control of the car and **crashed into** a wall.

divide / **cut** / **split** something **INTO** two or more parts
- The book is **divided into** three parts.

translate a book etc. **FROM** one language **INTO** another
- She's a famous writer. Her books have been **translated into** many languages.

C *verb* + **with**

collide WITH …
- There was an accident this morning. A bus **collided with** a car.

fill something **WITH** … (*but* **full of** – see Unit 131A)
- Take this saucepan and **fill** it **with** water.

provide / **supply** somebody **WITH** …
- The school **provides** all its students **with** books.

D *verb* + **to**

happen TO …
- What **happened to** that gold watch you used to have? (= where is it now?)

invite somebody **TO** a party / a wedding etc.
- They only **invited** a few people **to** their wedding.

prefer one thing **TO** another
- I **prefer** tea **to** coffee.

E *verb* + **on**

concentrate ON …
- I tried to **concentrate on** my work, but I kept thinking about other things.

insist ON …
- I wanted to go alone, but some friends of mine **insisted on** coming with me.

spend (money) **ON** …
- How much do you **spend on** food each week?

>> Verb + preposition + **-ing** ➜ **Unit 62** Other verbs + **to** ➜ **Unit 132** Other verbs + **on** ➜ **Unit 135D**

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Exercises

136.1 Complete the sentences using these verbs (in the correct form) + a preposition:

believe break concentrate divide drive fill happen ~~insist~~ invite succeed

1 I wanted to go alone, but my friends ....insisted on.... coming with me.
2 I haven't seen Mike for ages. I wonder what has ..... him.
3 It's a very large house. It's ..... four apartments.
4 We've been ..... the party, but unfortunately we can't go.
5 I don't ..... ghosts. I think people imagine that they see them.
6 Steve gave me an empty bucket and told me to ..... it ..... water.
7 A burglar is someone who ..... a house to steal things.
8 Don't try and do two things together. ..... one thing at a time.
9 It wasn't easy, but in the end we ..... finding a solution to the problem.
10 The car in front of me stopped suddenly. Unfortunately I couldn't stop in time and ..... the back of it.

136.2 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first.

1 There was a collision between a bus and a car.
A bus collided ....with a car.....
2 I don't mind big cities, but I prefer small towns.
I prefer .....
3 I got all the information I needed from the company.
The company provided me .....
4 This morning I bought a pair of shoes, which cost eighty pounds.
This morning I spent .....
5 There are ten districts in the city.
The city is divided .....

136.3 Put in the correct preposition. If the sentence is already complete, leave the space empty.

1 The school provides all its students ....with.... books.
2 A strange thing happened ..... me a few days ago.
3 Mark decided to give up sport to concentrate ..... his studies.
4 Money should be used well. I don't believe ..... wasting it.
5 My present job isn't wonderful, but I prefer it ..... what I did before.
6 I hope you succeed ..... getting what you want.
7 Ben was injured playing football when he collided ..... another player.
8 There was an awful noise as the car crashed ..... a tree.
9 Patrick is a photographer. He specialises ..... sports photography.
10 Joe doesn't spend much money ..... clothes.
11 I was amazed when I heard the news. I couldn't believe ..... it.
12 Somebody broke ..... my car and stole my bag.
13 I was quite cold, but Tom insisted ..... having the window open.
14 The teacher decided to split the class ..... four groups.
15 I filled the tank, but unfortunately I filled it ..... the wrong kind of fuel.
16 Some things are difficult to translate ..... one language ..... another.

136.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences. Use a preposition.

1 I wanted to go out alone, but my friend insisted ....on coming with me.....
2 I spend a lot of money .....
3 I saw an accident. A car crashed .....
4 Chris prefers basketball .....
5 The restaurant we went to specialises .....
6 Shakespeare's plays have been translated .....

➜ **Additional exercise 36** (page 323)

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Unit 137 Phrasal verbs 1 Introduction

A

We often use verbs with:

in	**on**	**up**	**away**	**by**	**about**	**over**	**round** *or* **around**
out	**off**	**down**	**back**	**through**	**along**	**forward**	

So you can say **look out** / **get on** / **take off** / **run away** etc. These are *phrasal verbs*.

We often use **on**/**off**/**out** etc. with verbs of movement. For example:

get on	The bus was full. We couldn't **get on**.
drive off	A woman got into the car and **drove off**.
come back	Sarah is leaving tomorrow and **coming back** on Saturday.
turn round	When I touched him on the shoulder, he **turned round**.

B

Often the second word (**on**/**off**/**out** etc.) gives a special meaning to the verb. For example:

break down	Sorry I'm late. The car **broke down**. (= the engine stopped working)
find out	I never **found out** who sent me the flowers. (= I never discovered)
take off	It was my first flight. I was nervous as the plane **took off**. (= went into the air)
give up	I tried many times to contact her. In the end I **gave up**. (= stopped trying)
get on	How was the exam? How did you **get on**? (= How did you do?)
get by	My French isn't good, but it's enough to **get by**. (= enough to manage)

For more phrasal verbs, see Units 138–145.

C

Sometimes a phrasal verb is followed by a *preposition*. For example:

phrasal verb	*preposition*	
look up	**at**	We **looked up at** the plane as it flew above us.
run away	**from**	Why did you **run away from** me?
keep up	**with**	You're walking too fast. I can't **keep up with** you.
look forward	**to**	Are you **looking forward to** your trip?

D

Sometimes a phrasal verb has an *object*. For example:

I turned on **the light**. (**the light** is the *object*)

Usually there are two possible positions for the object. You can say:

I **turned on** the light. *or* I **turned** the light **on**.
object *object*

But if the object is a *pronoun* (**it**/**them**/**me**/**him** etc.), only one position is possible:

I turned **it** on. (*not* I turned on it)

In the same way, you can say:

I'm going to { **take off** my shoes. / **take** my shoes **off**.

but These shoes are uncomfortable. I'm going to **take them off**. (*not* take off them)

Don't { **wake up** the baby. / **wake** the baby **up**.

but The baby is asleep. Don't **wake her up**. (*not* wake up her)

Don't { **throw away** this box. / **throw** this box **away**.

but I want to keep this box, so don't **throw it away**. (*not* throw away it)

Phrasal verbs 2–9 ➜ **Units 138–145** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

137.1 Complete each sentence using a verb from A (in the correct form) + a word from B.

A				B			
be	get	fly	sit	away	by	on	round
break	get	go	speak	~~back~~	down	off	up
~~come~~	get	look	take	back	down	out	up

1 Sarah is leaving tomorrow and ...coming back... on Saturday.
2 I've been standing a long time. I'm going to ..... for a bit.
3 It's a very busy airport. There are planes landing and ..... all the time.
4 A cat tried to catch the bird, but it ..... just in time.
5 We were trapped in the building. We couldn't ..... .
6 I can't hear you very well. Can you ..... a little?
7 Ben's salary is very low, but it's enough to ..... .
8 Everything is so expensive now. Prices have ..... a lot.
9 I heard a noise behind me, so I ..... to see what it was.
10 I'm going out now to do some shopping. I'll ..... in about an hour.
11 Our car ..... on the motorway and we had to call for help.
12 How is your new job? How are you ..... ?

137.2 Complete each sentence using a word from A and a word from B.

A				B			
away	in	~~up~~	back	at	to	~~with~~	about
out	up	up	forward	at	to	with	through

1 You're walking too fast. I can't keep ...up with... you.
2 My holidays are nearly over. Next week I'll be ..... work.
3 We went ..... the top floor of the building to admire the view.
4 The meeting tomorrow is going to be difficult. I'm not looking ..... it.
5 There was a bank robbery last week. The robbers got ..... £50,000.
6 I love to look ..... the stars in the night sky.
7 I was sitting in the kitchen when a bird flew ..... the open window.
8 How do you know about the plan? How did you find ..... it?

137.3 Complete the sentences. Use these phrasal verbs + it/them/me:

get out | give back | switch on | take off | ~~throw away~~ | wake up

1 I want to keep this box. Don't ...throw it away... .
2 I'm going to bed now. Can you ..... at 6.30?
3 I've got something in my eye and I can't ..... .
4 I don't like it when people borrow things and don't ..... .
5 I want to use the hair dryer. How do I ..... ?
6 My shoes are dirty. I'd better ..... before going into the house.

137.4 Complete the sentences. Use the word in brackets.

1 Don't throw ...away this box... . I want to keep it. (away)
2 I don't want this newspaper. You can throw ...it away... . (away)
3 These books are Lisa's. I have to give ..... to her. (back)
4 We can turn ..... . Nobody is watching it. (off)
5 Shh! My mother is asleep. I don't want to wake ..... . (up)
6 It's cold today. You should put ..... if you go out. (on)
7 It was only a small fire. I was able to put ..... easily. (out)
8 It's a bit dark in this room. Shall I turn ..... ? (on)
9 A: The hotel is more expensive than when we stayed here last year.
B: Yes, they've put ..... . (up)
10 A: How did the vase get broken?
B: I'm afraid I knocked ..... while I was cleaning. (over)

➜ Additional exercises 37–41 (pages 323–25)
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Unit 138

Phrasal verbs 2 **in/out**

A

Compare **in** and **out**:

in = into a room, a building, a car etc.

- How did the thieves **get in**?
- Here's a key, so you can **let yourself in**.
- Lisa walked up to the edge of the pool and **dived in**. (= into the water)
- I've got a new apartment. I'm **moving in** on Friday.
- As soon as I got to the airport, I **checked in**.

In the same way you can say **go in**, **come in**, **walk in**, **break in** etc.

Compare **in** and **into**:

- I'm moving **in** on Friday.
- I'm moving **into my new flat** on Friday

out = out of a room, a building, a car etc.

- Stay in the car. Don't **get out**.
- I had no key, so I was **locked out**.
- She swam up and down the pool, and then **climbed out**.
- Andy opened the window and **looked out**.
- We paid the hotel bill and **checked out**.

In the same way you can say **go out**, **get out**, **move out**, **let** somebody **out** etc.

Compare **out** and **out of**:

- She climbed **out**.
- She climbed **out of the pool**.

B

Other verbs + **in**

drop in = *visit somebody at home without arranging to do this*

- I **dropped in** to see Chris on my way home.

join in = *take part in something that is already going on*

- They were playing cards, so I **joined in**.

plug in an electrical machine = *connect it to the electricity supply*

- The fridge isn't working because you haven't **plugged** it **in**.

PLUG IN

take somebody **in** = *deceive somebody*

- The man said he was a policeman and I believed him. I was completely **taken in**.

fill in or **fill out** a form, a questionnaire etc. = *write the necessary information on a form*

- Please **fill in** the application form and send it to us by 28 February. *or*
  Please **fill out** the application form . . .

C

Other verbs + **out**

eat out = *eat at a restaurant, not at home*

- There wasn't anything to eat at home, so we decided to **eat out**.

drop out of college / university / a course / a race = *stop before you have completely finished*

- Gary went to university but **dropped out** after a year.

get out of something that you arranged to do = *avoid doing it*

- I promised I'd go to the wedding. I don't want to go, but I can't **get out** of it now.

leave something **out** = *omit it, not include it*

- In the sentence 'She said that she was ill', you can **leave out** the word 'that'.

cross something **out** = *write a line through something*

- Some of the names on the list had been **crossed out**.

~~Sarah~~ *CROSS OUT*

Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **out** ➜ **Unit 139**

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Exercises

138.1 Complete the sentences.

1 Here's a key so that you can ....let.... yourself in.
2 Lisa doesn't like cooking, so she ..... out a lot.
3 If you're in our part of town, you should ..... in and say hello.
4 Could you ..... in this questionnaire? It will only take five minutes.
5 Amy isn't living in this house any more. She ..... out a few weeks ago.
6 After breakfast, we ..... out of the hotel and got a taxi to the airport.
7 I wanted to charge my phone, but there was nowhere to ..... the charger in.
8 Paul started doing a Spanish course, but he ..... out after a few weeks.
9 Be careful! The water isn't very deep here, so don't ..... in.

138.2 Complete the sentences with in, into, out or out of.

1 I've got a new flat. I'm moving ....in.... on Friday.
2 We arrived at the hotel and checked ..... .
3 When are you moving ..... your new flat?
4 The car stopped and the driver got ..... .
5 Thieves broke ..... the house and stole some jewellery.
6 How did the thieves break ..... ? Through a window?
7 He opened his wallet and something fell ..... .
8 Kate was angry and walked ..... the meeting.

138.3 Complete the sentences using a verb + in or out (of).

1 Lisa walked to the edge of the pool, ...dived in.... and swam to the other end.
2 Not all the runners finished the race. Three of them ..... .
3 I went to see Joe and Sophie in their new house. They ..... last week.
4 I've told you everything you need to know. I don't think I've ..... anything.
5 Some people in the crowd started singing. Then a few more people ..... and soon everybody was singing.
6 Don't be ..... by him. If I were you, I wouldn't believe anything he says.
7 I ..... to see Laura a few days ago. She was fine.

138.4 Complete the sentences. Use the word in brackets in the correct form.

1 A: The fridge isn't working.
B: That's because you haven't ....plugged it in.... . (plug)
2 A: What do I have to do with these forms?
B: ..... and send them to this address. (fill)
3 A: I've made a mistake on this form.
B: That's OK. Just ..... and correct it. (cross)
4 A: Have you been to the new club I told you about?
B: No. We went there, but they wouldn't ..... because we weren't members. (let)
5 A: Can we meet tomorrow at ten?
B: Probably. I have another meeting, but I think I can ..... . (get)

138.5 Complete the second sentence so that it means the same as the first. Use a verb from Sections B or C.

1 Let's go to a restaurant tonight.	Let's ....eat out.... tonight.
2 Why didn't you finish college?	Why did you ..... ?
3 Please complete the application form.	Please ..... form .
4 I can't avoid going to the party.	I can't ..... to the party.
5 I thought the email was genuine, but it wasn't.	I was completely ..... the email .
6 You must come and see us sometime.	You must ..... sometime.
7 Steve was upset because he wasn't chosen for the team.	Steve was upset because he ..... the team.

➜ Additional exercises 37–41 (pages 323–25)
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Unit 139

Phrasal verbs 3 **out**

A

out = not burning, not shining

go out
put out a fire / a cigarette / a light
turn out a light
blow out a candle

- Suddenly all the lights in the building **went out**.
- I **put** the fire **out** with a fire extinguisher.
- I **turned** the lights **out** before leaving.
- We don't need the candle. You can **blow** it **out**.

B

work out

work out = *do physical exercises*
- Rachel **works out** at the gym three times a week.

work out = *develop, progress*
- Good luck for the future. I hope everything **works out** well for you.
- A: Why did James leave the company?
  B: Things didn't **work out**. (= things didn't work out well)

work out (for calculations):
- The total bill for three people is £97.35. That **works out** at £32.45 each.

work (something) **out** = *calculate*
- 345 × 76? I need a calculator. I can't **work** it **out** in my head.

work out *or* **figure out** = *understand, think about a problem and find an answer*
- Investigators are trying to **work out** what caused the accident. *or*
  Investigators are trying to **figure out** what caused the accident.

C

Other verbs + **out**

carry out an order / an experiment / a survey / an investigation / a plan etc.
- Soldiers are expected to **carry out** orders.
- An investigation into the accident will be **carried out**.

find out that/what/when (etc.) . . . , **find out about** . . . = *get information about*
- The police never **found out** who committed the crime.
- I just **found out** that it's Helen's birthday today.
- I checked a few websites to **find out** about hotels in the town.

give/**hand** things **out** = *give to each person*
- At the end of the lecture, the speaker **gave out** information sheets to the audience.

point something **out** (**to** somebody) = *draw attention to it*
- As we drove through the city, the tour guide **pointed out** all the sights.
- I didn't realise I'd made a mistake until somebody **pointed** it **out to** me.

run out (of something)
- We **ran out of** petrol on the motorway. (= we used all our petrol)

sort something **out** = *find a solution to, put in order*
- There are a few problems we need to **sort out**.
- All these papers are mixed up. I'll have to **sort** them **out**.

turn out to be . . . / **turn out** good/nice etc. / **turn out** that . . .
- Nobody believed Paul at first, but he **turned out** to be right. (= it became clear in the end that he was right)
- The weather wasn't so good in the morning, but it **turned out** nice later.
- I thought they knew each other, but it **turned out** that they'd never met.

try out a machine, a system, a new idea etc. = *test it to see if it is OK*
- The company is **trying out** some new software at the moment.

Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **out** ➜ **Unit 138**

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Exercises

139.1 Which words can go together? Choose from the list.

a candle **a fire** ~~**a light**~~ **a new product** **an order** **a problem**

1 turn out a light
2 blow out .....
3 carry out .....
4 put out .....
5 try out .....
6 sort out .....

139.2 Complete the sentences using a verb + out.

1 The company is trying out a new computer system at the moment.
2 Steve is very fit. He does a lot of sport and ..... regularly.
3 The road will be closed for two days while building work is ..... .
4 We didn't manage to discuss everything at the meeting. We ..... of time.
5 You have to ..... the problem yourself. I can't do it for you.
6 I need to ..... what happened exactly. It's not clear at the moment.
7 The new drug will be ..... on a small group of patients.
8 I thought the two books were the same until someone ..... the difference.
9 They got married a few years ago, but it didn't ..... and they separated.
10 There was a power cut and all the lights ..... .
11 We thought she was American at first, but she ..... to be Swedish.
12 Sometimes it ..... cheaper to eat in a restaurant than to cook at home.
13 How did you ..... about the project? Did somebody tell you?
14 It took firefighters two hours to ..... the fire.
15 I can't ..... how the water is getting into the house.

139.3 For each picture, complete the sentence using a verb + out.

1
They've run out of petrol.

2
The man with the beard is ..... leaflets.

3
earlier now
The weather has ..... .

4
KIM SALLY
Sally and Kim are ..... at the gym.

5
Joe has ..... water.

6
LISA
Lisa is trying to ..... how ..... .

139.4 Complete the sentences. Each time use a verb + out.

1 A: Was the fire serious?
B: No, we were able to put it out.
2 A: This recipe looks interesting.
B: Yes, let's ..... .
3 A: How much money do I owe you exactly?
B: Just a moment. I'll have to ..... .
4 A: What happened about your problem with your bank?
B: It's OK now. I went to see them and we ..... .
5 A: You've written the wrong date on this form.
B: Oh, so I have. Thanks for ..... .

➜ Additional exercises 37–41 (pages 323–25)
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Unit 140

Phrasal verbs 4 **on/off** (1)

A **on** and **off** for lights, machines etc.

We say:
the light **is on** / **put** the light **on** / **leave** the light **on** etc.
turn the light **on**/**off** *or* **switch** the light **on**/**off**

- Shall I **leave** the lights **on** or **turn** them **off**?
- '**Is** the heating **on**?' 'No, I **switched** it **off**.'

also
put (music, a song) **on**, **put** the kettle **on**:

- Let's **put** some music **on**. What would you like to hear?
- We need boiling water, so I'll **put** the kettle **on**.

B **on** and **off** for events etc.

go on = *happen*

- What's all that noise? What's **going on**? (= what's happening)

call something **off** = *cancel it*

- The concert in the park had to be **called off** because of the weather.

put something **off**, **put off** doing something = *delay it*

- The election has been **put off** until January.
- We can't **put off** making a decision. We have to decide now.

C **on** and **off** for clothes etc.

put on clothes, glasses, make-up, a seat belt etc.

- My hands were cold, so I **put** my gloves **on**.

put on weight = *get heavier*

- I've **put on** two kilos in the last month.

try on clothes (to see if they fit)

- I **tried on** a jacket in the shop, but it didn't look right.

take off clothes, glasses etc.

- It was warm, so I **took off** my coat.

D **off** = away from a person or place

be off (to a place)

- Tomorrow I'**m off** to Paris. / I'**m off** on holiday.
  (= I'm going to Paris / I'm going on holiday)

walk off / **run off** / **drive off** / **ride off** / **go off** (similar to **walk away** / **run away** etc.)

- Anna got on her bike and **rode off**.
- Mark left home at the age of eighteen and **went off** to Canada.

set off = *start a journey*

- We **set off** early to avoid the traffic. (= We left early)

take off = *leave the ground (for planes)*

- After a long delay, the plane finally **took off**.

see somebody **off** = *go with them to the airport/station to say goodbye*

- Helen was going away. We went to the station with her to **see her off**.

>> Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **on**/**off** ➜ **Unit 141**

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Exercises

140.1 Complete the sentences using put on + the following:

some music | the heating | the kettle | ~~the light~~ | the oven

1 It was getting dark, so I put the light on.
2 It was getting cold, so I ..... .
3 I wanted to bake a cake, so I ..... .
4 I wanted to make some tea, so I ..... .
5 I wanted to relax, so I ..... .

140.2 Complete the sentences. Use a verb + on or off.

1 It was hot in the cinema, so I took off my jacket.
2 What are all these people doing? What's ..... ?
3 The weather was too bad for the plane to ....., so the flight was delayed.
4 Rachel got into her car and ..... at high speed.
5 Tim is too thin. He needs to ..... weight.
6 We spent the whole day walking. We ..... at 8 am and walked for ten hours.
7 Don't ..... until tomorrow what you can do today.
8 They've changed their minds about getting married. The wedding has been ..... .
9 Are you cold? Shall I get you a sweater to ..... ?
10 I ..... some jeans in the shop, but they were too tight.
11 When I go away, I prefer to be alone at the station or airport. I don't like it when people come to ..... me ..... .
12 I need to make an appointment to see the dentist, but I keep ..... it ..... .

140.3 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1

Her hands were cold, so she put her gloves on.

2

The plane ..... at 10.55.

3

Maria ....., but it was too big for her.

4

The match ..... because of the weather.

5

Mark's parents went to the airport to ..... .

6

He took his sunglasses out of his pocket and ..... .

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Unit 141

Phrasal verbs 5 **on/off** (2)

A *verb* + **on** = continue doing something

go on = *continue*
- The party **went on** until 4 o'clock in the morning.

go on / **carry on** doing something = *continue doing it*
- We can't **go on** spending money like this. We'll have nothing left soon.
- I don't want to **carry on** working here. I'm going to look for another job.

go on with / **carry on with** something = *continue it*
- Don't let me disturb you. Please **carry on with** what you're doing.

keep on doing (*or* **keep** doing) something = *do it continuously or repeatedly*
- He **keeps on** criticising me. It's not fair! (*or* He **keeps** criticising me.)

drive on / **walk on** / **play on** = *continue driving/walking/playing etc.*
- Shall we stop at this petrol station or shall we **drive on** to the next one?

B **get on**

get on = *progress*
- How are you **getting on** in your new job? (= How is it going?)

get on (**with** somebody) = *have a good relationship*
- Joanne and Karen don't **get on**. They're always arguing.
- Richard **gets on** well **with** his neighbours. They're all very friendly.

get on with something = *continue something you have to do, usually after an interruption*
- I must **get on with** my work. I have a lot to do.

C *verb* + **off**

doze off / **drop off** / **nod off** = *fall asleep*
- I **dozed off** during the lecture. It was very boring.

finish something **off** = *do the last part of it*
- A: Have you finished painting the kitchen?
  B: Nearly. I'll **finish** it **off** tomorrow.

go off = *make an alarm sound*
- Did you hear the alarm **go off**?

put somebody **off** (doing) something *so that they don't want it or want to do it any more*
- We wanted to go to the exhibition, but we were **put off** by the long queue.
  (= we didn't go because of the long queue)
- What **put** you **off** applying for the job? Was the salary too low?

rip somebody **off** / be **ripped off** = *cheat somebody / be cheated*
- Did you really pay £2,000 for that painting? I think you were **ripped off**.
  (= you paid too much)

show off = *try to impress people with your ability, your knowledge etc.*
- Look at that boy on the bike riding with no hands. He's just **showing off**.

tell somebody **off** = *speak angrily to somebody because they did something wrong*
- Clare's mother **told** her **off** for wearing dirty shoes in the house.

>> **go on** / **carry on** / **keep on** ➜ **Unit 53B** Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137**
More verbs + **on/off** ➜ **Unit 140** American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

141.1 What do these sentences mean?

1 I carried on studying.
a ~~I started studying.~~ b I continued studying. c ~~I put off studying.~~ (b *is correct*)
2 I nodded off.
a I agreed. b I felt sick. c I fell asleep.
3 We were ripped off.
a We were attacked. b We paid too much. c Our clothes were torn.
4 I told them off.
a I criticised them. b I was satisfied with them. c I told them to go away.
5 They don't get on.
a They don't like each other much. b They are lazy. c They don't know each other.
6 He was showing off.
a He was joking. b He was trying to impress us. c He wasn't telling the truth.

141.2 Complete each sentence using a verb + on or off.

1 We can't ...go on... spending money like this. We'll have nothing left soon.
2 I'm not ready to go home yet. I have a few things to ..... .
3 'Shall I stop the car here?' 'No, ... a bit further.'
4 Dan paid too much for the car he bought. I think he was ..... .
5 Emma is enjoying her course at university. She's ..... very well.
6 The fire alarm ..... and everybody had to leave the building.
7 Ben was ..... by his boss for being late for work repeatedly.
8 The meeting has only just finished. It ..... longer than expected.
9 I really like working with my colleagues. We all ..... really well together.
10 I ..... making the same mistake. It's very frustrating.
11 I've just had a coffee break, and now I must ..... with my work.
12 Peter likes people to know how clever he is. He's always ..... .
13 We decided not to go to the concert. We were ..... by the cost of tickets.
14 Jack paused for a moment and then ..... with his story.
15 I was so tired at work today. I nearly ..... at my desk a couple of times.

141.3 Complete the sentences. Use a verb (in the correct form) + on or off. Sometimes you will need other words as well. Choose from:

carry finish ~~get~~ get go keep rip tell

1 A: How ...are you getting on... in your new job?
B: Fine, thanks. It's going very well.
2 A: What's Tanya like?
B: She's very nice and easy-going. She ..... everybody.
3 A: Is Gary going to retire soon?
B: No, he likes his job and wants to ..... working.
4 A: Have you written the letter you had to write?
B: I've started it. I'll ..... tomorrow.
5 A: We took a taxi to the airport. It cost £40.
B: £40! Normally it costs about £20. You ..... .
6 A: Why were you late for work this morning?
B: I overslept. My alarm clock didn't ..... .
7 A: Some children at the next table in the restaurant were behaving very badly.
B: Why didn't their parents ..... ?
8 A: Is Kate good at making decisions?
B: No, she isn't. ..... changing her mind.

➜ **Additional exercises 37–41** (pages 323–25)
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Unit 142

Phrasal verbs 6 **up/down**

A

Compare **up** and **down**:

put something **up** (on a wall etc.)
- I **put** a picture **up** on the wall.

pick something **up**
- There was a letter on the floor. I **picked** it **up** and looked at it.

stand up
- Alan **stood up** and walked out.

turn something **up**
- I can't hear the TV. Can you **turn** it **up** a bit?

take something **down** (from a wall etc.)
- I didn't like the picture, so I **took** it **down**.

put something **down**
- I stopped writing and **put down** my pen.

sit down / **bend down** / **lie down**
- I **bent down** to tie my shoelace.

turn something **down**
- The oven is too hot. **Turn** it **down** to 150 degrees.

B

knock down, **cut down** etc.

knock down a building / **blow** something **down** / **cut** something **down** etc.
- Some old houses were **knocked down** to make way for the new shopping centre.
- Why did you **cut down** the tree in your garden?

be **knocked down** (by a car etc.)
- A man was **knocked down** by a car and taken to hospital.

burn down = *be destroyed by fire*
- They were able to put out the fire before the house **burnt down**.

C

down = getting less

slow down = *go more slowly*
- You're driving too fast. **Slow down**.

calm (somebody) **down** = *become calmer, make somebody calmer*
- **Calm down**. There's no point in getting angry.

cut down (**on** something) = *eat, drink or do something less often*
- I'm trying to **cut down on** coffee. I drink too much of it.

D

Other verbs + **down**

break down = *stop working (for machines, cars, relationships etc.)*
- The car **broke down** and I had to phone for help.
- Their marriage **broke down** after only a few months.

close down / **shut down** = *stop doing business*
- There used to be a shop at the end of the street. It **closed down** a few years ago.

let somebody **down** = *disappoint them because you didn't do what they hoped*
- You can always rely on Paul. He'll never **let** you **down**.

turn somebody/something **down** = *refuse an application, an offer etc.*
- I applied for several jobs, but I was **turned down** for all of them.
- Rachel was offered the job, but she decided to **turn** it **down**.

write something **down** = *write something on paper because you may need the information later*
- I can't remember Ben's address. I **wrote** it **down**, but I can't find it.

Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **up** ➜ **Units 143–144**

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Exercises

142.1 Complete the sentences. Use a verb + up or down.

1 There used to be a tree next to the house, but we cut it down.
2 There used to be some shelves on the wall, but I ..... .
3 The ceiling was so low, he couldn't ..... straight.
4 She couldn't hear the radio very well, so she ..... .
5 While they were waiting for the bus, they ..... on the ground.
6 A few trees ..... in the storm last week.
7 We've got some new curtains, but we haven't ..... yet.
8 Lisa dropped her keys, so she ..... and ..... .

142.2 Complete the sentences. Use a verb (in the correct form) + down. Choose from:

calm **cut** **let** ~~**take**~~ **turn** **write**

1 I don't like this picture on the wall. I'm going to take it down.
2 The music was too loud, so I ..... .
3 David was very angry. I tried to ..... .
4 I promised I would help Anna. I don't want to ..... .
5 I've forgotten my password. I should have ..... .
6 Those trees are beautiful. Please don't ..... .

142.3 Complete the sentences. Use a verb + down.

1 I stopped writing and put down my pen.
2 I was really angry. It took me a long time to ..... .
3 The train ..... as it approached the station.
4 Sarah applied to study medicine at university, but she ..... .
5 Our car is very reliable. It has never ..... .
6 I spend too much money. I'm going to ..... on things I don't need.
7 I didn't play well. I felt that I had ..... the other players in the team.
8 The shop ..... because it was losing money.
9 It's a very ugly building. Many people would like it to ..... .
10 I can't understand why you ..... the chance of working in another country for a year. It would have been a great experience for you.
11 I didn't see the accident. Someone told me that a boy ..... as he was crossing the road.
12 Peter got married when he was 20, but unfortunately the marriage ..... a few years later.

➜ **Additional exercises 37–41** (pages 323–25)
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Unit 143

Phrasal verbs 7 **up** (1)

A

go up, **come up**, **walk up** (**to** . . .) = *approach*
- A man **came up to** me in the street and asked me for money.

catch up (**with** somebody), **catch** somebody **up** = *move faster than people in front of you so that you reach them*
- I'm not ready to go yet. You go on and I'll **catch up with** you / I'll **catch** you **up**.

keep up (**with** somebody) = *continue at the same speed or level*
- You're walking too fast. I can't **keep up** (**with** you).
- You're doing well. **Keep** it **up**!

B

set up an organisation, a company, a business, a system, a website etc. = *start it*
- The government has **set up** a committee to investigate the problem.

take up a hobby, a sport, an activity etc. = *start doing it*
- Laura **took up** photography a few years ago. She takes really good pictures.

fix up a meeting etc. = *arrange it*
- We've **fixed up** a meeting for next Monday.

C

grow up = *become an adult*
- Amy was born in Hong Kong but **grew up** in Australia.

bring up a child = *raise, look after a child*
- Her parents died when she was a child and she was **brought up** by her grandparents.

D

clean up, **clear up**, **tidy up** = *make something clean, tidy etc.*
- Look at this mess! Who's going to **tidy up**? (*or* . . . to **tidy** it **up**)

wash up = *wash the plates, dishes etc. after a meal*
- I hate **washing up**. (*or* I hate **doing the washing-up**.)

E

end up somewhere, **end up** doing something etc.
- There was a fight in the street and three men **ended up** in hospital.
  (= that's what happened to these men in the end)
- I couldn't find a hotel and **ended up** sleeping on a bench at the station.
  (= that's what happened to me in the end)

give up = *stop trying*, **give** something **up** = *stop doing it*
- Don't **give up**. Keep trying!
- Sue got bored with her job and decided to **give** it **up**. (= stop doing it)

make up something, be **made up of** something
- Children under 16 **make up** half the population of the city.
  (= half the population are children under 16)
- Air is **made up** mainly **of** nitrogen and oxygen. (= Air consists of . . .)

take up space or time = *use space or time*
- Most of the space in the room was **taken up** by a large table.

turn up, **show up** = *arrive, appear*
- We arranged to meet David last night, but he didn't **turn up**.

use something **up** = *use all of it so that nothing is left*
- I'm going to make soup. We have a lot of vegetables and I want to **use them up**.

>> Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **up** ➜ **Units 142, 144**

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Exercises

143.1 **Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use three words each time, including a verb from Section A.**

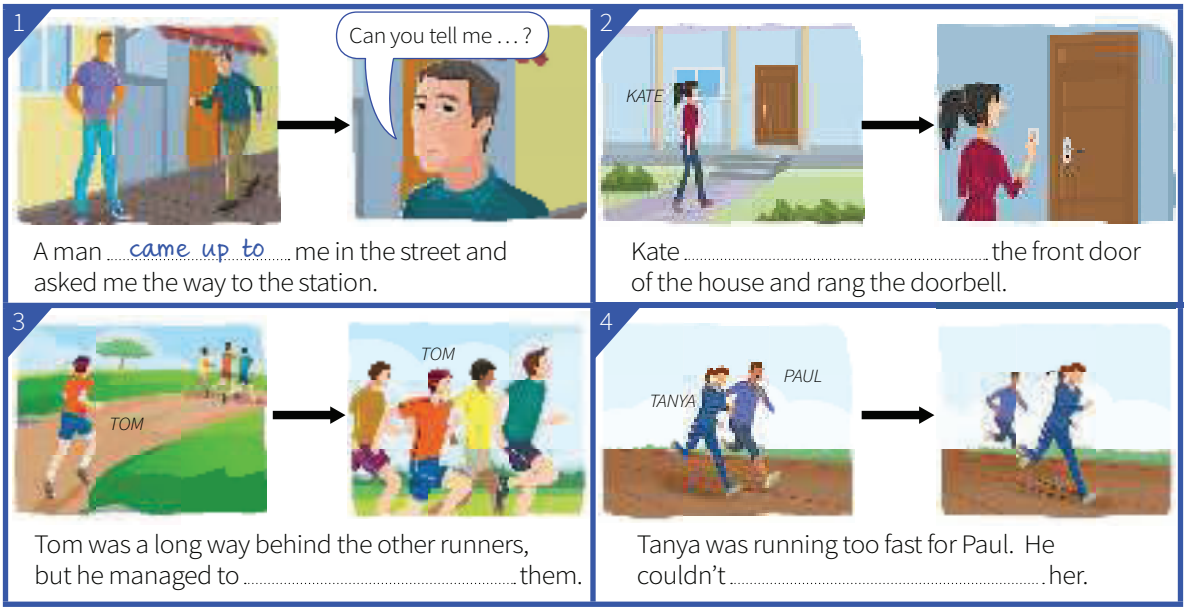

1 A man ..came up to.. me in the street and asked me the way to the station.

2 Kate ..... the front door of the house and rang the doorbell.

3 Tom was a long way behind the other runners, but he managed to ..... them.

4 Tanya was running too fast for Paul. He couldn't ..... her.

143.2 **Complete the sentences. Use a verb (in the correct form) + up. Choose from:**

~~end~~ end give give grow make take take turn use wash

1 I couldn't find a hotel and ..ended up.. sleeping on a bench at the station.
2 I'm feeling very tired now. I've ..... all my energy.
3 After dinner I ..... and put the dishes away.
4 People often ask children what they want to be when they ..... .
5 We arranged to meet Tom, but he didn't ..... .
6 Two years ago James ..... his studies to be a professional footballer.
7 I don't do any sports right now, but I'm thinking of ..... tennis.
8 You don't have enough determination. You ..... too easily.
9 Karen travelled a lot for a few years and ..... in Canada, where she still lives.
10 I do a lot of gardening. It ..... most of my free time.
11 There are two universities in the city. Students ..... 20 per cent of the population.

143.3 **Complete the sentences. Use a verb + up (with any other necessary words). Choose from:**

bring ~~catch~~ fix ~~give~~ give go keep keep make set tidy

1 Sue got bored with her job and decided to ..give it up.. .
2 I'm not ready yet. You go on and I'll ..catch up with.. you.
3 The room is in a mess. I'd better ..... .
4 We expect to go away on holiday in July, but we haven't ..... yet.
5 Steven is having problems at school. He can't ..... the rest of the class.
6 I ..... in the country, but I have always preferred cities.
7 Our team lost the game. We started well, but we couldn't ..... .
8 I saw Mike at the party, so I ..... him and said hello.
9 Helen has her own website. A friend of hers helped her to ..... .
10 Ben was learning to play the guitar, but he found it hard and in the end he ..... .
11 When I was on holiday, I joined a tour group. The group ..... two Americans, three Japanese, five Germans and myself.

➜ **Additional exercises 37–41** (pages 323–25)

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Unit 144

Phrasal verbs 8 **up** (2)

A

bring up a topic etc. = *introduce it in a conversation*
- I don't want to hear any more about this. Please don't **bring** it **up** again.

come up = *be introduced in a conversation*
- Some interesting things **came up** in our discussion yesterday.

come up with an idea, a suggestion etc. = *produce an idea*
- Sarah is very creative. She's always **coming up with** new ideas.

make something **up** = *invent something that is not true*
- What Kevin told you about himself wasn't true. He **made** it all **up**.

B

cheer up = *be happier*, **cheer** somebody **up** = *make somebody feel happier*
- You look so sad! **Cheer up**!
- Helen is depressed. What can we do to **cheer** her **up**?

save up for something / to do something = *save money to buy something*
- Dan is **saving up** for a trip to New Zealand.

clear up = *become bright (for weather)*
- It was raining when I got up, but it **cleared up** later.

C

blow up = *explode*, **blow** something **up** = *destroy it with a bomb etc.*
- The engine caught fire and **blew up**.
- The bridge was **blown up** during the war.

tear something **up** = *tear it into pieces*
- I didn't read the letter. I just **tore** it **up** and threw it away.

beat somebody **up** = *hit someone repeatedly so that they are badly hurt*
- A friend of mine was attacked and **beaten up**. He had to go to hospital.

D

break up, **split up** (**with** somebody) = *separate*
- I'm surprised to hear that Kate and Paul have **split up**. They seemed very happy together.

do up a coat, a shoelace, buttons etc. = *fasten, tie etc.*
- It's quite cold. **Do up** your coat before you go out.

do up a building, a room etc. = *repair and improve it*
- The kitchen looks great now that it has been **done up**.

look something **up** in a dictionary/encyclopaedia etc.
- If you don't know the meaning of a word, you can **look** it **up** (in a dictionary).

put up with something = *tolerate a difficult situation or person*
- We live on a busy road, so we have to **put up with** a lot of noise from the traffic.

hold up a person, a plan etc. = *delay*
- Don't wait for me. I don't want to **hold** you **up**.
- Plans to build a new factory have been **held up** because of financial problems.

mix up people/things, **get** people/things **mixed up** = *you think one is the other*
- The two brothers look very similar. People often **mix** them **up**.
  or . . . People often **get** them **mixed up**.

>> Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ **Unit 137** More verbs + **up** ➜ **Units 142–143**
American English ➜ **Appendix 7**

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Exercises

144.1 Which goes with which?

1 He was angry and tore up	a a motorbike	1 f
2 Jane came up with	b a lot of bad weather	2 .....
3 Paul is always making up	c your jacket	3 .....
4 I think you should do up	d a good suggestion	4 .....
5 I don't think you should bring up	e excuses	5 .....
6 I'm saving up for	f ~~the letter~~	6 .....
7 We had to put up with	g that subject	7 .....

144.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. You will need two or three words each time.

1

The weather was horrible this morning, but it's cleared up now.

2

Lisa was late because she was ..... in the traffic.

3

They bought an old house and .... It's really nice now.

4
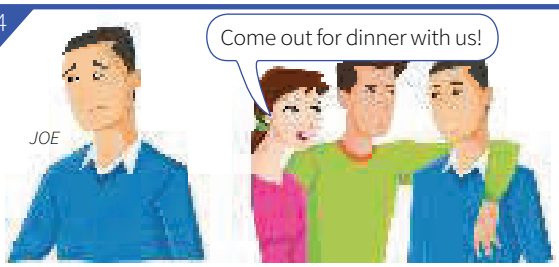

Joe was really depressed. We took him out for a meal to .....

144.3 Complete the sentences using a verb + up. Sometimes you will need other words as well.

1 Some interesting things came up in our discussion yesterday.
2 The ship ..... and sank. The cause of the explosion was never discovered.
3 James was attacked and ..... by three men he'd never seen before.
4 Robert and Tina aren't together any more. They've ..... .
5 My hands were so cold, I found it hard to ..... my shoelaces.
6 It's been raining all morning. Let's hope it ..... this afternoon.
7 I turned up for the party on the wrong day. I got the dates ..... .

144.4 Complete the sentences using a verb + up. You will need other words as well.

1 Don't wait for me. I don't want to hold you up .
2 I don't know what this word means. I'll have to ..... .
3 I'm fed up with the way my boss treats me. I don't see why I should ..... it.
4 I don't believe the story you're telling me. I think you're ..... .
5 The problem was complicated, but we managed to ..... a solution.
6 Before you throw these documents away, you should ..... .
7 I'm trying to spend less money at the moment. I'm ..... a holiday.
8 Tina doesn't like talking about the accident, so it's better not to ..... .
9 The words 'there' and 'their' sound the same, so it's easy to ..... .

➜ **Additional exercises 37–41** (pages 323–25)
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Unit 145

Phrasal verbs 9 **away/back**

A

Compare **away** and **back**:

away = away from home
- We're **going away** on holiday today.

away = away from a place, a person etc.
- Sarah got into her car, started the engine and **drove away**.
- I tried to take a picture of the bird, but it **flew away**.
- I dropped the ticket, and it **blew away** in the wind.
- The police searched the house and **took away** a computer.

In the same way you can say:
walk away, **run away**, **look away** etc.

back = back home
- We'll **be back** in three weeks.

back = back to a place, a person etc.
- A: I'm going out now.
  B: What time will you **be back**?
- After eating at a restaurant, we **walked back** to our hotel.
- I've still got Jane's keys. I forgot to **give** them **back** to her.
- When you've finished with that book, can you **put** it **back** on the shelf?

In the same way you can say:
go back, **come back**, **get back**, **take** something **back** etc.

B

Other verbs + **away**

get away = *escape, leave with difficulty*
- We tried to catch the thief, but she **got away**.

get away with something = *do something wrong without being caught*
- I parked in a no-parking zone, but I **got away with** it. I didn't have to pay a fine.

keep away (**from** …) = *don't go near*
- **Keep away from** the edge of the pool. You might fall in.

give something **away** = *give it to somebody else because you don't want it any more*
- 'Did you sell your bike?' 'No, I **gave** it **away to a friend**.'

put something **away** = *put it in the place where it is usually kept*
- When the children finished playing with their toys, they **put** them **away**.

throw something **away** = *put it in the rubbish*
- I kept the letter, but I **threw away** the envelope.

C

Other verbs + **back**

wave back / **smile back** / **shout back** / **hit** somebody **back**
- I waved to her, and she **waved back**.

call/**phone**/**ring** (somebody) **back** = *return a phone call*
- I can't talk to you now. I'll **call** you **back** in ten minutes.

get back to somebody = *reply to them by phone etc.*
- I sent him an email, but he never **got back to** me.

look back (**on** something) = *think about what happened in the past*
- My first job was in a travel agency. I didn't like it much at the time but, **looking back on** it, I learnt a lot and it was a useful experience.

pay back money, **pay** somebody **back**
- If you borrow money, you have to **pay** it **back**.
- Thanks for lending me the money. I'll **pay** you **back** next week.

>> Phrasal verbs 1 (Introduction) ➜ Unit 137

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Exercises

145.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1

She waved to him and he ...waved back... .

2
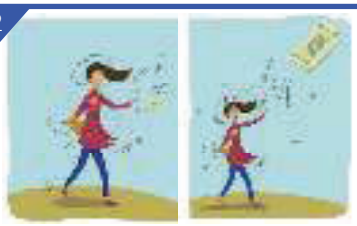
It was windy. I dropped a £20 note and it ..... .

3

She opened the letter, read it and ..... in the envelope.

4

He tried to talk to her, but she just ..... .

5
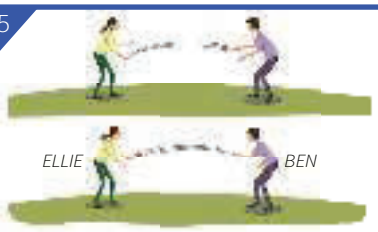

Ellie threw the ball to Ben and he ..... .

6
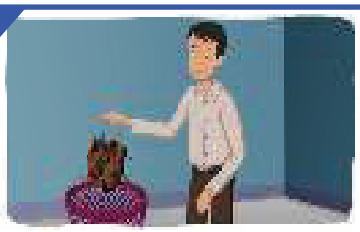
His shoes were worn out, so he ..... .

145.2 Complete the sentences. Use a verb + away or back.

1 I was away all day yesterday. I ...got back... very late.
2 I haven't seen our neighbours for a while. I think they must ..... .
3 'I'm going out now.' 'OK. What time will you ..... ?'
4 I saw a man trying to break into a car. When he saw me, he ..... .
5 If you cheat in the exam, you might ..... with it or you might get caught.
6 Be careful! That's an electric fence. Make sure you ..... from it.
7 He wasn't very friendly. I smiled at him, but he didn't ..... .

145.3 Complete the sentences. Use only one word each time.

1 The woman got into her car, started the engine and ...drove... away.
2 This box could be useful, so I won't ..... it away.
3 Jane doesn't do anything at work. I don't know how she ..... away with it.
4 I'm going out now. I'll ..... back in about an hour.
5 You should think more about the future. Don't ..... back all the time.
6 Gary is very generous. He won some money in the lottery and ..... it all away.
7 I'll ..... back to you as soon as I have the information you need.
8 I washed the dishes, dried them and ..... them away.

145.4 Complete the sentences. Use the verb in brackets + away or back.

1 A: Do you still have my keys?
B: No. Don't you remember? I ...gave them back... to you yesterday. (give)
2 A: Do you want this magazine?
B: No, I've finished with it. You can ..... . (throw)
3 A: How are your new jeans? Do they fit you OK?
B: No, they're too tight. I'm going to ..... to the shop. (take)
4 A: Here's the money you asked me to lend you.
B: Thanks. I'll ..... as soon as I can. (pay)
5 A: What happened to all the books you used to have?
B: I didn't want them any more, so I ..... . (give)
6 A: Did you phone Sarah?
B: Yes, I left a message for her, but she hasn't ..... . (call)

➜ Additional exercises 37–41 (pages 323–25)
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Appendix 1
Regular and irregular verbs

1.1 *Regular verbs*

If a verb is regular, the past simple and past participle end in **-ed**. For example:

infinitive	**clean**	**finish**	**use**	**paint**	**stop**	**carry**
past simple / *past participle*	**cleaned**	**finished**	**used**	**painted**	**stopped**	**carried**

For spelling rules, see Appendix 6.

For the *past simple* (I **cleaned** / they **finished** / she **carried** etc.), see Unit 5.

We use the *past participle* to make the perfect tenses and all the passive forms.
Perfect tenses (**have**/**has**/**had** cleaned):

- I **have cleaned** the windows. (*present perfect* – see Units 7–8)
- They were still working. They **had**n't **finished**. (*past perfect* – see Unit 15)

Passive (**is** clean**ed** / **was** clean**ed** etc.):

- **He was carried** out of the room. *(past simple passive)*
- This gate has just **been painted**. *(present perfect passive)*

} see Units 42–44

1.2 *Irregular verbs*

When the past simple and past participle do *not* end in **-ed** (for example, **I saw** / **I have seen**), the verb is *irregular*.
With some irregular verbs, all three forms (*infinitive*, *past simple* and *past participle*) are the same.
For example, **hit**:

- Don't **hit** me. *(infinitive)*
- Somebody **hit** me as I came into the room. *(past simple)*
- I've never **hit** anybody in my life. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- George was **hit** on the head by a stone. *(past participle – passive)*

With other irregular verbs, the past simple is the same as the past participle (but different from the infinitive). For example, **tell** → **told**:

- Can you **tell** me what to do? *(infinitive)*
- She **told** me to come back the next day. *(past simple)*
- Have you **told** anybody about your new job? *(past participle – present perfect)*
- I was **told** to come back the next day. *(past participle – passive)*

With other irregular verbs, all three forms are different. For example, **wake** → **woke**/**woken**:

- I'll **wake** you up. *(infinitive)*
- I **woke** up in the middle of the night. *(past simple)*
- The baby has **woken** up. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- I was **woken** up by a loud noise. *(past participle – passive)*

1.3 The following verbs can be regular or irregular:

burn → burn**ed**	*or*	burn**t**	**smell** → smell**ed**	*or*	smel**t**
dream → dream**ed**	*or*	dream**t** [dremt]*	**spell** → spell**ed**	*or*	spel**t**
lean → lean**ed**	*or*	lean**t** [lent]*	**spill** → spill**ed**	*or*	spil**t**
learn → learn**ed**	*or*	learn**t**	**spoil** → spoil**ed**	*or*	spoil**t**

* *pronunciation*

So you can say:

- I **leant** out of the window. *or* I **leaned** out of the window.
- The dinner has been **spoiled**. *or* The dinner has been **spoilt**.

In British English the irregular form (**burnt**/**learnt** etc.) is more usual. For American English, see Appendix 7.

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1.4 List of irregular verbs

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
be	was/were	been
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet	bet
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got/gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
light	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
read	read [red]*	read [red]*
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewn/sewed
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown/showed
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
spit	spat	spat
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
strike	struck	struck
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

* *pronunciation*

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Appendix 2
Present and past tenses

	simple	*continuous*
present	I **do** *present simple* (→ Units 2–4) Anna often **plays** tennis. I **work** in a bank, but I **don't enjoy** it much. **Do** you **like** parties? It **doesn't rain** so much in summer.	I **am doing** *present continuous* (→ Units 1, 3–4) 'Where's Anna?' 'She**'s playing** tennis.' Please don't disturb me now. I**'m working**. Hello! **Are** you **enjoying** the party? It **isn't raining** at the moment.
present perfect	I **have done** *present perfect simple* (→ Units 7–8, 10–14) Anna **has played** tennis many times. I**'ve lost** my key. **Have** you **seen** it anywhere? How long **have** you and Sam **known** each other? A: Is it still raining? B: No, it **has stopped**. The house is dirty. I **haven't cleaned** it for weeks.	I **have been doing** *present perfect continuous* (→ Units 9–11) Anna is tired. She **has been playing** tennis. You're out of breath. **Have** you **been running**? How long **have** you **been learning** English? It's still raining. It **has been raining** all day. I **haven't been feeling** well recently. Perhaps I should go to the doctor.
past	I **did** *past simple* (→ Units 5–6, 13–14) Anna **played** tennis yesterday afternoon. I **lost** my key a few days ago. There was a film on TV last night, but we **didn't watch** it. What **did** you **do** when you finished work yesterday?	I **was doing** *past continuous* (→ Unit 6) I saw Anna at the sports centre yesterday. She **was playing** tennis. I dropped my key when I **was trying** to open the door. The TV was on, but we **weren't watching** it. What **were** you **doing** at this time yesterday?
past perfect	I **had done** *past perfect* (→ Unit 15) It wasn't her first game of tennis. She **had played** many times before. They couldn't get into the house because they **had lost** the key. The house was dirty because I **hadn't cleaned** it for weeks.	I **had been doing** *past perfect continuous* (→ Unit 16) Anna was tired yesterday evening because she **had been playing** tennis in the afternoon. James decided to go to the doctor because he **hadn't been feeling** well.

For the passive, see Units 42–44.

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Appendix 3
The future

3.1 *List of future forms:*

I**'m leaving** tomorrow.	*present continuous*	(→ Unit 19A)
My train **leaves** at 9.30.	*present simple*	(→ Unit 19B)
I**'m going to leave** tomorrow.	(be) **going to**	(→ Units 20, 23)
I**'ll leave** tomorrow.	**will**	(→ Units 21–23)
I**'ll be leaving** tomorrow.	*future continuous*	(→ Unit 24)
I**'ll have left** by this time tomorrow.	*future perfect*	(→ Unit 24)
I hope to see you before I **leave** tomorrow.	*present simple*	(→ Unit 25)

3.2 *Future actions*

We use the present continuous (**I'm doing**) for arrangements:

- I**'m leaving** tomorrow. I've got my plane ticket. (already planned and arranged)
- 'When **are** they **getting** married?' 'On 24 July.'

We use the present simple (**I leave** / it **leaves** etc.) for timetables, programmes etc. :

- My train **leaves** at 11.30. (according to the timetable)
- What time **does** the film **begin**?

We use (**be**) **going to** . . . to say what somebody has already decided to do:

- I've decided not to stay here any longer. I**'m going to leave** tomorrow. (*or* I**'m leaving** tomorrow.)
- 'Your shoes are dirty.' 'Yes, I know. I**'m going to clean** them.'

We use **will** ('**ll**) when we decide or agree to do something at the time of speaking:

- A: I don't want you to stay here any longer.
  B: OK. I**'ll leave** tomorrow. (B decides this at the time of speaking)
- That bag looks heavy. I**'ll help** you with it.
- I **won't tell** anybody what happened. I promise. (**won't** = **will not**)

3.3 *Future happenings and situations*

Most often we use **will** to talk about future happenings ('something **will happen**') or situations ('something **will be**'):

- I don't think John is happy at work. I think he**'ll leave** soon.
- This time next year I**'ll be** in Japan. Where **will** you **be**?

We use (**be**) **going to** when the situation *now* shows what **is going to happen** *in the future*:

- Look at those black clouds. It**'s going to rain**. (you can see the clouds *now*)

3.4 *Future continuous and future perfect*

Will be (do)**ing** = will be in the middle of (doing something):

- This time next week I'll be on holiday. I**'ll be lying** on a beach or **swimming** in the sea.

We also use **will be -ing** for future actions (see Unit 24C):

- What time **will** you **be leaving** tomorrow?

We use **will have** (**done**) to say that something will already be complete before a time in the future:

- I won't be here this time tomorrow. I**'ll have** already **left**.

3.5 We use the *present* (*not* will) after **when**/**if**/**while**/**before** etc. (see Unit 25):

- I hope to see you **before I leave** tomorrow. (*not* before I will leave)
- **When** you **are** in London again, come and see us. (*not* When you will be)
- **If** we **don't hurry**, we'll be late.

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Appendix 4
Modal verbs (**can**/**could**/**will**/**would** etc.)

This appendix is a summary of modal verbs. For more information, see Units 21–41.

4.1 Compare **can**/**could** etc. for actions:

can	I **can go** out tonight. (= there is nothing to stop me)
	I **can't go** out tonight.
could	I **could go** out tonight, but I'm not very keen.
	I **couldn't go** out last night. (= I wasn't able)
can *or* **may**	**Can** / **May** I **go** out tonight? (= do you allow me?)
will/won't	I think I**'ll go** out tonight.
	I promise I **won't go** out.
would	I **would go** out tonight, but I have too much to do.
	I promised I **wouldn't go** out.
shall	**Shall I go** out tonight? (= do you think it is a good idea?)
should *or* **ought to**	I **should** / **ought to** **go** out tonight. (= it would be a good thing to do)
must	I **must go** out tonight. (= it is necessary)
	I **mustn't go** out tonight. (= it is necessary that I do *not* go out)
needn't	I **needn't go** out tonight. (= it is not necessary)

Compare **could have** … / **would have** … etc. :

could	I **could have gone** out last night, but I decided to stay at home.
would	I **would have gone** out last night, but I had too much to do.
should *or* **ought to**	I **should** / **ought to** **have gone** out last night. I'm sorry I didn't.
needn't	I **needn't have gone** out last night. (= I went out, but it was not necessary)

4.2 We use **will**/**would**/**may** etc. to say whether something is possible, impossible, probable, certain etc. Compare:

will	'What time **will** she **be** here?' 'She**'ll be** here soon.'
would	She **would be** here now, but she's been delayed.
should *or* **ought to**	She **should** / **ought to** **be** here soon. (= I expect she will be here soon)
may *or* **might** *or* **could**	She **may** / **might** / **could** **be** here now. I'm not sure. (= it's possible that she is here)
must	She **must be** here. I saw her come in.
can't	She **can't** possibly **be** here. I know for certain that she's away on holiday.

Compare **would have** … / **should have** … etc. :

will	She **will have arrived** by now. (= before now)
would	She **would have arrived** earlier, but she was delayed.
should *or* **ought to**	I wonder where she is. She **should** / **ought to** **have arrived** by now.
may *or* **might** *or* **could**	She **may** / **might** / **could** **have arrived**. I'm not sure. (= it's possible that she has arrived)
must	She **must have arrived** by now. (= I'm sure – there is no other possibility)
can't	She **can't** possibly **have arrived** yet. It's much too early. (= it's impossible)

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Appendix 5
Short forms (**I'm** / **you've** / **didn't** etc.)

5.1 In spoken English we usually say **I'm** / **you've** / **didn't** etc. *(short forms* or *contractions)* rather than **I am** / **you have** / **did not** etc. We also use these short forms in informal writing (for example, a letter or message to a friend).

When we write short forms, we use an *apostrophe* (') for the missing letter(s):

I'm = I am you've = you have didn't = did not

5.2 List of short forms:

'm = am	I**'m**						
's = is *or* has		he**'s**	she**'s**	it**'s**			
're = are					you**'re**	we**'re**	they**'re**
've = have	I**'ve**				you**'ve**	we**'ve**	they**'ve**
'll = will	I**'ll**	he**'ll**	she**'ll**		you**'ll**	we**'ll**	they**'ll**
'd = would *or* had	I**'d**	he**'d**	she**'d**		you**'d**	we**'d**	they**'d**

's can be **is** or **has**:

- She**'s** ill. (= She **is** ill.)
- She**'s** gone away. (= She **has** gone)

but **let's** = let **us**:

- Let**'s** go now. (= Let **us** go)

'd can be **would** or **had**:

- I**'d** see a doctor if I were you. (= I **would** see)
- I**'d** never seen her before. (= I **had** never seen)

We use some of these short forms (especially **'s**) after question words (**who**/**what** etc.) and after **that**/**there**/**here**:

who**'s** what**'s** where**'s** how**'s** that**'s** there**'s** here**'s** who**'ll** there**'ll** who**'d**

- **Who's** that woman over there? (= who **is**)
- **What's** happened? (= what **has**)
- Do you think **there'll** be many people at the party? (= there **will**)

We also use short forms (especially **'s**) after a noun:

- **Katherine's** going out tonight. (= Katherine **is**)
- **My best friend's** just got married. (= My best friend **has**)

You cannot use **'m** / **'s** / **'re** / **'ve** / **'ll** / **'d** at the end of a sentence (because the verb is stressed in this position):

- 'Are you tired?' 'Yes, I **am**.' (*not* Yes, I'm.)
- Do you know where she **is**? (*not* Do you know where she's?)

5.3 Negative short forms

isn't	(= is not)	**don't**	(= do not)	**haven't**	(= have not)
aren't	(= are not)	**doesn't**	(= does not)	**hasn't**	(= has not)
wasn't	(= was not)	**didn't**	(= did not)	**hadn't**	(= had not)
weren't	(= were not)				
can't	(= cannot)	**couldn't**	(= could not)	**mustn't**	(= must not)
won't	(= will not)	**wouldn't**	(= would not)	**needn't**	(= need not)
shan't	(= shall not)	**shouldn't**	(= should not)	**daren't**	(= dare not)

Negative short forms for **is** and **are** can be:

he **isn't** / she **isn't** / it **isn't** *or* he**'s not** / she**'s not** / it**'s not**

you **aren't** / we **aren't** / they **aren't** *or* you**'re not** / we**'re not** / they**'re not**

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Appendix 6
Spelling

6.1 Nouns, verbs and adjectives can have the following endings:

noun + -**s**/-**es** *(plural)*	book**s**	idea**s**	match**es**
verb + -**s**/-**es** (after **he**/**she**/**it**)	work**s**	enjoy**s**	wash**es**
verb + -**ing**	work**ing**	enjoy**ing**	wash**ing**
verb + -**ed**	work**ed**	enjoy**ed**	wash**ed**
adjective + -**er** *(comparative)*	cheap**er**	quick**er**	bright**er**
adjective + -**est** *(superlative)*	cheap**est**	quick**est**	bright**est**
adjective + -**ly** *(adverb)*	cheap**ly**	quick**ly**	bright**ly**

When we use these endings, there are sometimes changes in spelling. These changes are listed below.

6.2 Nouns and verbs + -**s**/-**es**

The ending is -**es** when the word ends in -**s**/-**ss**/-**sh**/-**ch**/-**x**:

bu**s**/bus**es** mi**ss**/mis**ses** wa**sh**/wash**es**
mat**ch**/match**es** sear**ch**/search**es** bo**x**/box**es**

Note also:

potato/potato**es** tomato/tomato**es**
do/do**es** go/go**es**

6.3 Words ending in -**y** (baby, carry, easy etc.)

If a word ends in a *consonant** + **y** (-**by**/-**ry**/-**sy**/-**vy** etc.)

y changes to **ie** before the ending -**s**:

baby/babies story/stories country/countries secretary/secretaries
hurry/hurries study/studies apply/applies try/tries

y changes to **i** before the ending -**ed**:

hurry/hurried study/studied apply/applied try/tried

y changes to **i** before the endings -**er** and -**est**:

easy/easier/easiest heavy/heavier/heaviest lucky/luckier/luckiest

y changes to **i** before the ending -**ly**:

easy/easily heavy/heavily temporary/temporarily

y does *not* change before -**ing**:

hurrying studying applying trying

y does *not* change if the word ends in a *vowel** + **y** (-**ay**/-**ey**/-**oy**/-**uy**):

play/plays/played monkey/monkeys enjoy/enjoys/enjoyed buy/buys

An exception is: day/daily
Note also: pay/paid lay/laid say/said

6.4 Verbs ending in -**ie** (die, lie, tie)

If a verb ends in -**ie**, **ie** changes to **y** before the ending -**ing**:

die/dying lie/lying tie/tying

---

* **a e i o u** are *vowel* letters.
The other letters (**b c d f g** etc.) are *consonant* letters.

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6.5 Words ending in -**e** (hop**e**, danc**e**, wid**e** etc.)

Verbs

If a verb ends in -**e**, we leave out **e** before the ending -**ing**:

hop**e**/hop**ing** smil**e**/smil**ing** danc**e**/danc**ing** confus**e**/confus**ing**

Exceptions are **be**/**being** *and* verbs ending in -**ee**:

s**ee**/see**ing** agr**ee**/agree**ing**

If a verb ends in -**e**, we add -**d** for the past (of regular verbs):

hop**e**/hop**ed** smil**e**/smil**ed** danc**e**/danc**ed** confus**e**/confus**ed**

Adjectives and adverbs

If an adjective ends in -**e**, we add -**r** and -**st** for the comparative and superlative:

wid**e**/wid**er**/wid**est** lat**e**/lat**er**/lat**est** larg**e**/larg**er**/larg**est**

If an adjective ends in -**e**, we *keep* **e** before -**ly** in the adverb:

polit**e**/polit**ely** extrem**e**/extrem**ely** absolut**e**/absolut**ely**

If an adjective ends in -**le** (simp**le**, terrib**le** etc.), the adverb ending is -**ply**, -**bly** etc. :

simp**le**/simp**ly** terrib**le**/terrib**ly** reasonab**le**/reasonab**ly**

6.6 Doubling consonants (**stop**/**stopping**/**stopped**, **wet**/**wetter**/**wettest** etc.)

Sometimes a word ends in *vowel + consonant.* For example:

st**op** pl**an** r**ub** b**ig** w**et** th**in** pref**er** regr**et**

Before the endings -**ing**/-**ed**/-**er**/-**est**, we double the consonant at the end. So **p** → **pp**, **n** → **nn** etc. For example:

sto**p**	p → **pp**	sto**pp**ing	sto**pp**ed
pla**n**	n → **nn**	pla**nn**ing	pla**nn**ed
ru**b**	b → **bb**	ru**bb**ing	ru**bb**ed
bi**g**	g → **gg**	bi**gg**er	bi**gg**est
we**t**	t → **tt**	we**tt**er	we**tt**est
thi**n**	n → **nn**	thi**nn**er	thi**nn**est

If the word has more than one syllable (**prefer**, **begin** etc.), we double the consonant at the end *only if the final syllable is stressed*:

preFER / prefe**rr**ing / prefe**rr**ed perMIT / permi**tt**ing / permi**tt**ed
reGRET / regre**tt**ing / regre**tt**ed beGIN / begi**nn**ing

If the final syllable is not stressed, we do *not* double the final consonant:

VISit / visi**t**ing / visi**t**ed deVELop / develo**p**ing / develo**p**ed
HAPpen / happe**n**ing / happe**n**ed reMEMber / remembe**r**ing / remembe**r**ed

In British English, verbs ending in -**l** have -**ll**- before -**ing** and -**ed** whether the final syllable is stressed or not:

trave**l** / trave**ll**ing / trave**ll**ed cance**l** / cance**ll**ing / cance**ll**ed

For American spelling, see Appendix 7.

Note that

we do *not* double the final consonant if the word ends in *two* consonants (-**rt**, -**lp**, -**ng** etc.):

sta**rt** / sta**rt**ing / sta**rt**ed he**lp** / he**lp**ing / he**lp**ed lo**ng** / lo**ng**er / lo**ng**est

we do *not* double the final consonant if there are *two* vowel letters before it (-**oil**, -**eed** etc.):

b**oil** / boiling / boiled n**eed** / nee**d**ing / nee**d**ed expl**ain** / explaining / explained
ch**eap** / cheaper / cheapest l**oud** / lou**d**er / lou**d**est qu**iet** / quieter / quietest

we do *not* double **y** or **w** at the end of words. (At the end of words **y** and **w** are not consonants.)

sta**y** / sta**y**ing / sta**y**ed gro**w** / gro**w**ing ne**w** / ne**w**er / ne**w**est

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Appendix 7
American English

There are a few grammatical differences between British English and American English:

Unit	BRITISH	AMERICAN
7A–B and 13A	The *present perfect* is often used for new or recent happenings: ▢ I**'ve lost** my key. **Have** you **seen** it? ▢ Sally isn't here. She**'s gone** out. The *present perfect* is used with **just** and **already**: ▢ I'm not hungry. I**'ve just had** lunch. ▢ A: What time is Mark leaving? B: He**'s already left**.	The *past simple* is more common for new or recent happenings: ▢ I **lost** my key. **Did** you **see** it? ▢ Sally isn't here. **She went out**. The *past simple* is more common with **just** and **already**: ▢ I'm not hungry. I **just had** lunch. ▢ A: What time is Mark leaving? B: He **already left**.
17C	**have** a bath, **have** a shower **have** a break, **have** a holiday	**take** a bath, **take** a shower **take** a break, **take** a vacation
21D and 22D	**Will** or **shall** can be used with **I**/**we**: ▢ I **will**/**shall** be late this evening. **Shall I** . . . **?** and **shall we** . . . **?** are used to ask for advice etc. : ▢ Which way **shall we** go?	**Shall** is unusual: ▢ I **will** be late this evening. **Should I** . . . **?** and **should we** . . . **?** are used to ask for advice etc. : ▢ Which way **should we** go?
28	British speakers use **can't** to say they believe something is not probable: ▢ Sarah hasn't contacted me. She **can't have got** my message.	American speakers use **must not** in this situation: ▢ Sarah hasn't contacted me. She **must not have gotten** my message.
32	You can use **needn't** or **don't need to**: ▢ We **needn't** hurry. *or* We **don't need to** hurry.	**Needn't** is unusual. The usual form is **don't need to**: ▢ We **don't need to** hurry.
34A–B	**insist**, **demand** etc. + **should** ▢ I insisted that he **should apologise**. ▢ We demanded that something **should be** done about the problem.	**insist**, **demand** etc. + *subjunctive* (see Unit 34B) ▢ I insisted that he **apologize**.* ▢ We demanded that something **be done** about the problem.
51B	**Have you?** / **Isn't she?** etc. ▢ A: Lisa isn't very well today. B: **Isn't she?** What's wrong with her?	**You have?** / **She isn't?** etc. ▢ A: Lisa isn't very well today. B: **She isn't?** What's wrong with her?
59D	I**'d rather** you **did** something ▢ Are you going to tell Anna, or **would** you **rather** I **told** her?	I**'d rather** you **do** something ▢ Are you going to tell Anna, or **would** you **rather** I **tell** her?
70B	**Accommodation** is usually uncountable: ▢ There **is** plenty of excellent **accommodation** in the city.	**Accommodation** can be countable: ▢ There **are** plenty of excellent **accommodations** in the city.
74B	to/in **hospital** (without **the**) ▢ Joe had an accident and was taken to **hospital**.	to/in **the hospital** ▢ Joe had an accident and was taken to **the hospital**.

* Many verbs ending in **-ise** in British English (apolog**ise**/organ**ise**/special**ise** etc.) are spelt with **-ize** (apolog**ize**/organ**ize**/special**ize** etc.) in American English.

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Unit	BRITISH	AMERICAN
79C	Nouns like **government**/**team**/**family** etc. can have a singular or plural verb: ▢ The team **is**/**are** playing well.	These nouns normally take a singular verb in American English: ▢ The team **is** playing well.
121B	**at the weekend** / **at weekends** ▢ Will you be here **at the weekend**?	**on the weekend** / **on weekends** ▢ Will you be here **on the weekend**?
124D	**at** the front / **at** the back (of a group etc.) ▢ *(in a theatre)* Let's sit **at the front**.	**in** the front / **in** the back (of a group etc.) ▢ *(in a theater)* Let's sit **in the front**.
131C	**different from** or **different to** ▢ The film was **different from**/**to** what I'd expected.	**different from** or **different than** ▢ The movie was **different from**/ **than** what I'd expected.
137A	**round** or **around** ▢ He turned **round**. *or* He turned **around**.	**around** (*not usually* round) ▢ He turned **around**.
137C	**fill in** or **fill out** (a form etc.) ▢ Please **fill in** this form. *or* Please **fill out** this form.	**fill out** (**a form**) ▢ Please **fill out** this form.
141B	**get on** (with somebody) ▢ Richard **gets on** well with his neighbours.	**get along** (with somebody) ▢ Richard **gets along** well with his neighbors.
142B	**knock down** (a building) ▢ Some old houses were **knocked down** to make way for a new shopping centre.	**tear down** a building ▢ Some old houses were **torn down** to make way for a new shopping mall.
144D	**do up** a house etc. ▢ That old house looks great now that it has been **done up**.	**fix up** a house etc. ▢ That old house looks great now that it has been **fixed up**.

Appendix	BRITISH	AMERICAN
1.3	**Burn**, **spell** etc. can be regular or irregular (**burned** *or* **burnt**, **spelled** *or* **spelt** etc.). The past participle of **get** is **got**: ▢ Your English has **got** much better. (= has become much better) **Have got** is also an alternative to **have**: ▢ **I've got** a car. (= **I have** a car)	**Burn**, **spell** etc. are normally regular (**burned**, **spelled** etc.). The past participle of **get** is **gotten**: ▢ Your English has **gotten** much better. **Have got** = have (as in British English): ▢ I'**ve got** a car.
6.6	British spelling: travel → travelling / travelled cancel → cancelling / cancelled	American spelling: travel → traveling / traveled cancel → canceling / canceled

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Additional exercises

These exercises are divided into the following sections:

Present and past (Units 1–6)	Exercise 1
Present and past (Units 1–14)	Exercises 2–4
Present and past (Units 1–17)	Exercises 5–8
Past continuous and **used to** (Units 6, 18)	Exercise 9
The future (Units 19–25)	Exercises 10–13
Past, present and future (Units 1–25)	Exercises 14–15
Modal verbs (**can**/**must**/**would** etc.) (Units 26–36)	Exercises 16–18
if (conditional) (Units 25, 38–40)	Exercises 19–21
Passive (Units 42–45)	Exercises 22–24
Reported speech (Units 47–48, 50)	Exercise 25
-**ing** and **to** … (Units 53–66)	Exercises 26–28
a/**an** and **the** (Units 69–78)	Exercise 29
Pronouns and determiners (Units 82–91)	Exercise 30
Adjectives and adverbs (Units 98–108)	Exercise 31
Conjunctions (Units 25, 38, 112–118)	Exercise 32
Prepositions (time) (Units 12, 119–122)	Exercise 33
Prepositions (position etc.) (Units 123–128)	Exercise 34
Noun/adjective + preposition (Units 129–131)	Exercise 35
Verb + preposition (Units 132–136)	Exercise 36
Phrasal verbs (Units 137–145)	Exercises 37–41

Present and past

Units 1–6, Appendix 2

1 **Put the verb into the correct form: present simple (I do), present continuous (I am doing), past simple (I did) or past continuous (I was doing).**

1 We can go out now. It isn't raining (it / not / rain) any more.
2 Katherine was waiting (wait) for me when I arrived (I / arrive).
3 ..... (I / get) hungry. Let's go and have something to eat.
4 What ..... (you / do) in your spare time? Do you have any hobbies?
5 The weather was horrible when ..... (we / arrive). It was cold and ..... (it / rain) hard.
6 Louise usually ..... (phone) me on Fridays, but ..... (she / not / phone) last Friday.
7 A: When I last saw you, ... (you / think) of moving to a new flat.
B: That's right, but in the end ..... (I / decide) to stay where I was.
8 Why ..... (you / look) at me like that? What's the matter?
9 It's usually dry here at this time of the year. ..... (it / not / rain) much.
10 I waved to Ben, but he didn't see me. ..... (he / not / look) in my direction.
11 Lisa was busy when ..... (we / go) to see her yesterday. She had an exam today and ..... (she / prepare) for it. ..... (we / not / want) to disturb her, so ..... (we / not / stay) very long.
12 When I first ..... (tell) Tom what happened, ... (he / not / believe) me. ..... (he / think) that ..... (I / joke).

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Present and past

Units 1–14, Appendix 2

2 Which is correct?

1 Everything is going well. We ~~didn't have~~ / haven't had any problems so far.
(haven't had *is correct*)
2 Lisa didn't go / hasn't gone to work yesterday. She wasn't feeling well.
3 Look! That man over there wears / is wearing the same sweater as you.
4 I went / have been to New Zealand last year.
5 I didn't hear / haven't heard from Jess recently. I hope she's OK.
6 I wonder why James is / is being so nice to me today. He isn't usually like that.
7 Jane had a book open in front of her, but she didn't read / wasn't reading it.
8 I wasn't very busy. I didn't have / wasn't having much to do.
9 It begins / It's beginning to get dark. Shall I turn on the light?
10 After leaving school, Mark worked / has worked in a hotel for a while.
11 When Sue heard the news, she wasn't / hasn't been very pleased.
12 This is a nice hotel, isn't it? Is this the first time you stay / you've stayed here?
13 I need a new job. I'm doing / I've been doing the same job for too long.
14 'Anna has gone out.' 'Oh, has she? What time did she go / has she gone?'
15 'You look tired.' 'Yes, I've played / I've been playing basketball.'
16 Where are you coming / do you come from? Are you American?
17 I'd like to see Tina again. It's a long time since I saw her / that I didn't see her.
18 Robert and Maria have been married since 20 years / for 20 years.

3 Complete each question using a suitable verb.

1 A: I'm looking for Paul. Have you seen him?
B: Yes, he was here a moment ago.

2 A: Why did you go to bed so early last night?
B: I was feeling very tired.

3 A: Where .....?
B: Just to the shop at the end of the street. I'll only be ten minutes.

4 A: ..... TV every day?
B: No, only if there's something special on.

5 A: Your house is lovely. How long ..... here?
B: Nearly ten years.

6 A: How was your parents' holiday? ..... a nice time?
B: Yes, they really enjoyed it.

7 A: ..... Sarah recently?
B: Yes, we had lunch together a few days ago.

8 A: Can you describe the woman you saw? What .....?
B: A red sweater and black jeans.

9 A: I'm sorry to keep you waiting. ..... long?
B: No, only about ten minutes.

10 A: How long ..... to get from here to the airport?
B: Usually about 45 minutes. It depends on the traffic.

11 A: ..... this song before?
B: No, this is the first time. I like it.

12 A: ..... to the United States?
B: No, never, but I went to Canada a few years ago.

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4 **Use your own ideas to complete B's sentences.**

1 A: What's Chicago like? Is it a good place to visit?
B: I've no idea. I've never been ..... there.
2 A: How well do you know Ben?
B: Very well. We ..... since we were children.
3 A: Did you enjoy your holiday?
B: Yes, it was really good. It's the best holiday ..... .
4 A: Is David still here?
B: No, I'm afraid he isn't. ..... about ten minutes ago.
5 A: I like your suit. I haven't seen it before.
B: It's new. It's the first time ..... .
6 A: How did you cut your knee?
B: I slipped and fell when ..... tennis.
7 A: Do you ever go swimming?
B: Not these days. I haven't ..... a long time.
8 A: How often do you go to the cinema?
B: Very rarely. It's nearly a year ..... to the cinema.
9 A: I bought some new shoes. Do you like them?
B: Yes, they're very nice. Where ..... them?

Present and past

Units 1–17, 110, Appendix 2

5 **Put the verb into the correct form: past simple (I did), past continuous (I was doing), past perfect (I had done) or past perfect continuous (I had been doing).**

1

Yesterday afternoon Sarah went (go) to the station to meet Paul. When she ..... (get) there, Paul ..... (already / wait) for her. His train ..... (arrive) early.

2

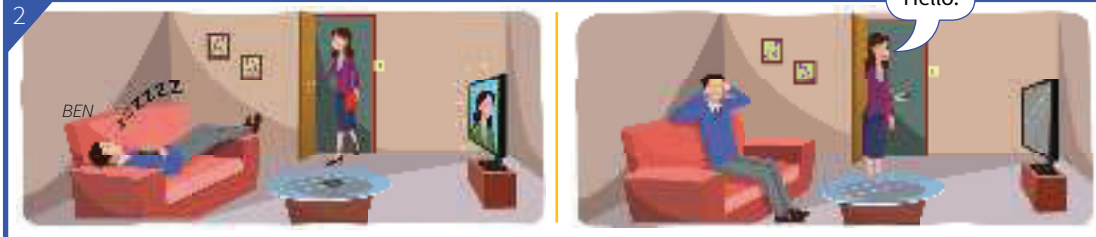

When I got home, Ben ..... (lie) on the sofa. The TV was on, but he ..... (not / watch) it. He ..... (fall) asleep and ..... (snore) loudly. I ..... (turn) the TV off and just then he ..... (wake) up.

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3

Last night I ..... (just / go) to bed and ..... (read) a book when suddenly I ..... (hear) a noise. I ..... (get) up to see what it was, but I ..... (not / see) anything, so I ..... (go) back to bed.

4

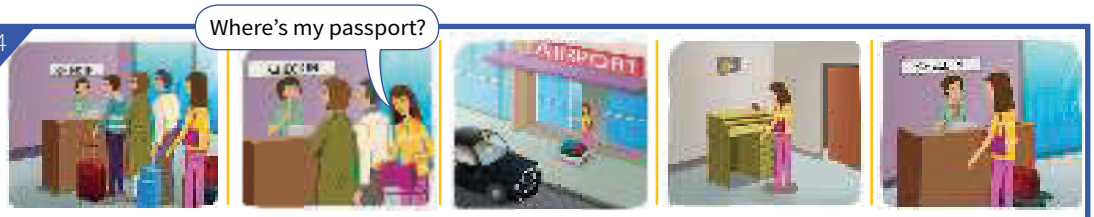

Lisa had to go to New York last week, but she almost ..... (miss) the plane. She ..... (stand) in the queue at the check-in desk when she suddenly ..... (realise) that she ..... (leave) her passport at home. Fortunately she lives near the airport, so she ..... (have) time to take a taxi home to get it. She ..... (get) back to the airport just in time for her flight.

5

I ..... (meet) Peter and Lucy yesterday as I ..... (walk) through the park. They ..... (be) to the Sports Centre where they ..... (play) tennis. They ..... (go) to a cafe and ..... (invite) me to join them, but I ..... (arrange) to meet another friend and ..... (not / have) time.

6 **Make sentences from the words in brackets. Put the verb into the correct form: present perfect (I have done), present perfect continuous (I have been doing), past perfect (I had done) or past perfect continuous (I had been doing).**

1 Amanda is sitting on the ground. She's out of breath.
(she / run) She has been running.

2 Where's my bag? I left it under this chair.
(somebody / take / it) .....

3 We were all surprised when Jess and Nick got married last year.
(they / only / know / each other / a few weeks)
.....

4 It's still raining. I wish it would stop.
(it / rain / all day) .....

5 Suddenly I woke up. I was confused and didn't know where I was.
(I / dream) .....

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6 It was lunchtime, but I wasn't hungry. I didn't want to eat anything.
(I / have / a big breakfast) .....

7 Every year Robert and Tina spend a few days at the same hotel by the sea.
(they / go / there for years) .....

8 I've got a headache.
(I / have / it / since I got up) .....

9 Next month Gary is going to run in a marathon.
(he / train / very hard for it) .....

7 Put the verb into the correct form.

Sarah and Joe are old friends. They meet by chance at a train station.

SARAH: Hello, Joe. (1) ..... (I / not / see) you for ages. How are you?
JOE: I'm fine. How about you?
(2) ..... (you / look) good.
SARAH: Thanks. You too.
So, (3) ..... (you / go) somewhere or
(4) ..... (you / meet) somebody?
JOE: (5) ..... (I / go) to London for a business meeting.
SARAH: Oh. (6) ..... (you / often / go) away on business?
JOE: Quite often, yes. And you? Where (7) ..... (you / go)?
SARAH: Nowhere. (8) ..... (I / meet) a friend. Unfortunately her train (9) ..... (be) delayed –
(10) ..... (I / wait) here for nearly an hour.
JOE: How are your children?
SARAH: They're all fine, thanks. The youngest (11) ..... (just / start) school.
JOE: How (12) ..... (she / get) on?
(13) ..... (she / like) it?
SARAH: Yes, (14) ..... (she / think) it's great.
JOE: (15) ..... (you / work) at the moment? The last time I
(16) ..... (speak) to you, (17) .....
(you / work) for an insurance company.
SARAH: That's right. Unfortunately the company (18) ..... (go) out of business a couple of months after (19) ..... (I / start) work there, so (20) ..... (I / lose) my job.
JOE: And (21) ..... (you / not / have) a job since then?
SARAH: Not a permanent job. (22) ..... (I / have) a few temporary jobs. By the way, (23) ..... (you / see) Matt recently?
JOE: Matt? He's in Canada.
SARAH: Really? How long (24) ..... (he / be) in Canada?
JOE: About a year now. (25) ..... (I / see) him a few days before
(26) ..... (he / go). (27) ..... (he / be) unemployed for months, so (28) ..... (he / decide) to try his luck somewhere else. (29) ..... (he / really / look forward) to going.
SARAH: So, what (30) ..... (he / do) there?
JOE: I have no idea. (31) ..... (I / not / hear) from him since
(32) ..... (he / leave). Anyway, I have to go and catch my train. It was really good to see you again.
SARAH: You too. Bye! Have a good trip!
JOE: Thanks. Bye.

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8 **Put the verb into the most suitable form.**

1 Who ..... (invent) the bicycle?
2 'Do you still have a headache?' 'No, ... (it / go). I'm OK now.'
3 I was the last to leave the office last night. Everybody else ..... (go) home when I ..... (leave).
4 What ..... (you / do) last weekend? ..... (you / go) anywhere?
5 I like your car. How long ..... (you / have) it?
6 It's a shame the trip was cancelled. I ..... (look) forward to it.
7 Jane is an experienced teacher and loves her job. ..... (she / teach) for 15 years.
8 Emily ..... (buy) a new dress last week, but ..... (she / not / wear) it yet.
9 A few days ago ..... (I / meet) a man at a party whose face ..... (be) very familiar. At first I couldn't think where ..... (I / see) him before. Then suddenly ..... (I / remember) who ..... (he / be).
10 ..... (you / hear) of Agatha Christie? ..... (she / be) a writer who ..... (die) in 1976. ..... (she / write) more than 70 detective novels, but ..... (I / not / read) any of them.
11 A: What ..... (this word / mean)?
B: I've no idea. ..... (I / never / see) it before. Look it up in the dictionary.
12 A: ..... (you / get) to the theatre in time for the play last night?
B: No, we were late. By the time we got there, ... (it / already / start).
13 I went to Sarah's room and ..... (knock) on the door, but there ..... (be) no answer. Either ..... (she / go) out or ..... (she / not / want) to see anyone.
14 Dan asked me how to use the photocopier. ..... (he / never / use) it before, so ..... (he / not / know) what to do.
15 Lisa ..... (go) for a swim after work yesterday. ..... (she / need) some exercise because ..... (she / sit) in an office all day in front of a computer.

Past continuous and *used to*

Units 6, 18

9 **Complete the sentences using the past continuous (was/were -ing) or used to ... . Use the verb in brackets.**

1 I haven't been to the cinema for ages now. We ...used to go... a lot. (go)
2 Ann didn't see me wave to her. She ...was looking... in the other direction. (look)
3 I ..... a lot, but I don't use my car very much these days. (drive)
4 I asked the taxi driver to slow down. She ..... too fast. (drive)
5 Rosemary and Jonathan met for the first time when they ..... in the same bank. (work)
6 When I was a child, I ..... a lot of bad dreams. (have)
7 I wonder what Joe is doing these days. He ..... in Spain when I last heard from him. (live)
8 'Where were you yesterday afternoon?' 'I ..... volleyball.' (play)
9 'Do you do any sports?' 'Not these days, but I ..... volleyball.' (play)
10 George looked very smart at the party. He ..... a very nice suit. (wear)

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The future

Units 19–25, Appendix 3

10 **What do you say to Joe in these situations? Use the words given in brackets. Use the present continuous (I am doing), going to or will (I'll).**

1 You have made all your holiday arrangements. Your destination is Jamaica.
JOE: Have you decided where to go for your holiday yet?
YOU: I'm going to Jamaica. (I / go)

2 You have made an appointment with the dentist for Friday morning.
JOE: Shall we meet on Friday morning?
YOU: I can't on Friday. ..... (I / go)

3 You and some friends are planning a holiday in Spain. You have decided to rent a car, but you haven't arranged this yet.
JOE: How do you plan to travel round Spain? By train?
YOU: No, ... (we / rent)

4 Joe reminds you that you have to call your sister. You completely forgot.
JOE: Did you call your sister?
YOU: No, I forgot. Thanks for reminding me. ..... (I / call / now)

5 You have already arranged to have lunch with Sue tomorrow.
JOE: Are you free at lunchtime tomorrow?
YOU: No, ... (have lunch)

6 You are in a restaurant. You and Joe are looking at the menu. Maybe Joe has decided what to have. You ask him.
YOU: What ..... ? (you / have)
JOE: I don't know. I can't make up my mind.

7 Joe is reading, but it's getting dark. He's having trouble reading. You turn on the light.
JOE: It's getting dark and it's hard to read.
YOU: Yes, ... (I / turn on)

8 You and Joe are sitting in a room with the window open. It's getting cold. You decide to close the window. You stand up and walk towards it.
JOE: What are you doing?
YOU: ..... (I / close)

11 **Choose the best alternative.**

1 '..... anything tomorrow evening?' 'No, why?'
A Do you do **B** Are you doing **C** Will you do (**B** *is the best alternative*)

2 'I can't open this bottle.' 'Give it to me. ..... it.'
A I open **B** I'll open **C** I'm going to open

3 'Is Emily here yet?' 'Not yet. I'll let you know as soon as ..... .'
A she arrives **B** she's arriving **C** she'll arrive

4 'Are you free tomorrow afternoon?' 'No, ...'
A I work **B** I'm working **C** I'll work

5 'What time is the film tonight?' '..... at 8.40.'
A It starts **B** It's going to start **C** It will start

6 'Are you going to the beach tomorrow?' 'Yes, if the weather ..... good.'
A is going to be **B** will be **C** is

7 'What time ..... tomorrow?' 'How about 8.30?'
A do we meet **B** are we meeting **C** shall we meet

8 'When ..... ?' 'Tomorrow.'
A does the festival finish **B** is the festival finished **C** is the festival finishing

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12 **Put the verb into the most suitable form. Sometimes there is more than one possibility.**

1 *A has decided to learn a language.*

A: I've decided to try and learn a foreign language.

B: Have you? Which language (1) are you going to learn (you / learn)?

A: Spanish.

B: (2) ..... (you / do) a course?

A: Yes, (3) ..... (it / start) next week.

B: That's great. I'm sure (4) ..... (you / enjoy) it.

A: I hope so. But I think (5) ..... (it / be) difficult.

2 *A wants to know about B's holiday plans.*

A: I hear (1) ..... (you / go) on holiday soon.

B: That's right. (2) ..... (we / go) to Finland.

A: I hope (3) ..... (you / have) a nice time.

B: Thanks. (4) ..... (I / get) in touch with you when (5) ..... (I / get) back and maybe we can meet sometime.

3 *A invites B to a party.*

A: (1) ..... (I / have) a party next Saturday. Can you come?

B: On Saturday? I'm not sure. Some friends of mine (2) ..... (come) to stay with me next week, but I think (3) ..... (they / leave) by Saturday. But if (4) ..... (they / be) still here, (5) ..... (I / not / be) able to come to the party.

A: OK. Well, tell me as soon as (6) ..... (you / know).

B: Right. (7) ..... (I / call) you during the week.

4 *A and B are two secret agents arranging a meeting. They are talking on the phone.*

A: Well, what time (1) ..... (we / meet)?

B: Come to the cafe by the station at 4 o'clock. (2) ..... (I / wait) for you when (3) ..... (you / arrive). (4) ..... (I / sit) by the window and (5) ..... (I / wear) a bright green sweater.

A: OK. (6) ..... (Agent 307 / come) too?

B: No, she can't be there.

A: Oh. (7) ..... (I / bring) the documents?

B: Yes. (8) ..... (I / explain) everything when (9) ..... (I / see) you. And don't be late.

A: OK. (10) ..... (I / try) to be on time.

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13 **Put the verb into the correct form. Choose from the following:**

present continuous (**I am doing**) **will** (**'ll**) / **won't**
present simple (**I do**) **will be doing**
going to (**I'm going to do**) **shall**

1 I feel a bit hungry. I think ..... (I / have) something to eat.
2 Why are you putting on your coat? ..... (you / go) somewhere?
3 What time ..... (I / phone) you tomorrow? About 10.30?
4 Look! That plane is flying towards the airport. ..... (it / land).
5 We must do something soon, before ..... (it / be) too late.
6 I'm sorry you've decided to leave the company. ..... (I / miss) you when ..... (you / go).
7 ..... (I / give) you my phone number? If ..... (I / give) you my number, ... (you / call) me?
8 Are you still watching that programme? What time ..... (it / finish)?
9 ..... (I / go) to a wedding next weekend. My cousin ..... (get) married.
10 I'm not ready yet. ..... (I / tell) you when ..... (I / be) ready. I promise ..... (I / not / be) very long.
11 ..... (I / have) my hair cut tomorrow. I've just made an appointment.
12 She was very rude to me. I won't speak to her again until ..... (she / apologise).
13 I wonder where ..... (we / live) ten years from now.
14 What are you planning to do when ..... (you / finish) your course at college?

Past, present and future

Units 1–25

14 **Use your own ideas to complete B's sentences.**

1 A: How did the accident happen?
B: I ....was going.... too fast and couldn't stop in time.
2 A: Is that a new coat?
B: No, I ..... it a long time.
3 A: Is that a new phone?
B: Yes, I ..... it a few weeks ago.
4 A: I can't talk to you right now. You can see I'm very busy.
B: OK. I ..... back in about half an hour.
5 A: This is a nice restaurant. Do you come here often?
B: No, it's the first time I ..... here.
6 A: Do you do any sport?
B: No, I ..... football, but I gave it up.
7 A: I'm sorry I'm late.
B: That's OK. I ..... long.
8 A: When you went to the US last year, was it your first visit?
B: No, I ..... there twice before.
9 A: Do you have any plans for the weekend?
B: Yes, I ..... to a party on Saturday night.
10 A: Do you know what Steve's doing these days?
B: No, I ..... him for ages.
11 A: Will you still be here by the time I get back?
B: No, I ..... by then.

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15 **Robert is travelling in North America. He sends an email to a friend in Winnipeg (Canada). Put the verb into the most suitable form.**

Hi

(1) I've just arrived (I / just / arrive) in Minneapolis. (2) ..... (I / travel) for more than a month now, and (3) ..... (I / begin) to think about coming home. Everything (4) ..... (I / see) so far (5) ..... (be) really interesting, and (6) ..... (I / meet) some really kind people.

(7) ..... (I / leave) Kansas City a week ago. (8) ..... (I / stay) there with Emily, the aunt of a friend from college. She was really helpful and hospitable and although (9) ..... (I / plan) to stay only a couple of days, (10) ..... (I / end up) staying more than a week. (11) ..... (I / enjoy) the journey from Kansas City to here. (12) ..... (I / take) the Greyhound bus and (13) ..... (meet) some really interesting people – everybody was really friendly.

So now I'm here, and (14) ..... (I / stay) here for a few days before (15) ..... (I / continue) up to Canada. I'm not sure exactly when (16) ..... (I / get) to Winnipeg – it depends what happens while (17) ..... (I / be) here. But (18) ..... (I / let) you know as soon as (19) ..... (I / know) myself.

(20) ..... (I / stay) with a family here – they're friends of some people I know at home. Tomorrow (21) ..... (we / visit) some people they know who (22) ..... (build) a house by a lake. It isn't finished yet, but (23) ..... (it / be) interesting to see what it's like. Anyway, that's all for now. (24) ..... (I / be) in touch again soon.

Robert

Modal verbs (*can*/*must*/*would* etc.)

Units 26–36, Appendix 4

16 **Which alternatives are correct? Sometimes only one alternative is correct, and sometimes two of the alternatives are possible.**

1 'What time will you be home tonight?' 'I'm not sure. I ..... A or B ..... late.'
A may be **B** might be **C** can be *(both* A *and* B *are correct)*

2 I can't find the theatre tickets. They ..... out of my pocket.
A must have fallen **B** should have fallen **C** had to fall

3 Somebody ran in front of the car as I was driving. Luckily, I ..... just in time.
A could stop **B** could have stopped **C** managed to stop

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4 We have plenty of time. We ..... yet.
A mustn't go **B** don't have to go **C** don't need to go
5 I didn't go out yesterday. I ..... with my friends, but I didn't feel like it.
A could go **B** could have gone **C** must have gone
6 I looked everywhere for Helen, but I ..... her.
A couldn't find **B** couldn't have found **C** wasn't able to find
7 'What do you think of my theory?' 'You ..... right, but I'm not sure.'
A could be **B** must be **C** might be
8 Our flight was delayed. We ..... for two hours.
A must wait **B** must have waited **C** had to wait
9 I'm not sure whether I'll be free on Saturday. I ..... .
A must have to work **B** may have to work **C** might have to work
10 At first they didn't believe me when I told them what had happened, but in the end I ..... them that I was telling the truth.
A was able to convince **B** managed to convince **C** could convince
11 I promised I'd call Amy this evening. I .....
A mustn't forget **B** needn't forget **C** don't have to forget
12 Why did you leave without me? You ..... for me.
A must have waited **B** had to wait **C** should have waited
13 Lisa called me this morning. She suggested ..... lunch together.
A we have **B** we should have **C** to have
14 That jacket looks good on you. ..... it more often.
A You'd better wear **B** You should wear **C** You ought to wear
15 Do you think I should buy a car? What ..... in my position?
A will you do **B** would you do **C** should you do

17 Complete the sentences using the words in brackets.

1 Don't phone them now. (might / have)
They ..... might be having ..... lunch.
2 I ate too much and now I feel sick. (shouldn't / eat)
I ..... so much.
3 I wonder why Tom didn't call me. (must / forget)
He ..... .
4 Why did you go home so early? (needn't / go)
You ..... home so early.
5 You've signed the contract. (can't / change)
It ..... now.
6 I'm not sure where the children are. (may / watch)
They ..... TV.
7 I saw Laura standing outside the cinema. (must / wait)
She ..... for somebody.
8 He was in prison at the time that the crime was committed. (couldn't / do)
He ..... it.
9 Why are you so late? (should / be)
You ..... here an hour ago.
10 Why didn't you contact me? (could / phone)
You ..... me.
11 I'm surprised you weren't told that the road was dangerous. (should / warn)
You ..... about it.
12 We had a great day at the beach yesterday. (ought / come)
You ..... with us.

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18 **Complete B's sentences using can/could/might/must/should/would + the verb in brackets. In some sentences you need to use have: must have … / should have … etc. In some sentences you need the negative (can't/couldn't etc.).**

1 A: I'm hungry.
B: But you've just had lunch. You can't be hungry already. (be)
2 A: I haven't seen our neighbours for ages.
B: No. They must have gone away. (go)
3 A: What's the weather like? Is it raining?
B: Not at the moment, but it ..... later. (rain)
4 A: Where's Julia?
B: I'm not sure. She ..... out. (go)
5 A: I didn't see you at Michael's party last week.
B: No, I had to work that night, so I ..... . (go)
6 A: I think I saw Ben in town this morning.
B: No, you ..... him this morning. He's away on holiday. (see)
7 A: What time will we get to Sue's house?
B: Well, it takes about one and a half hours, so if we leave at 3 o'clock, we ..... there by 4.30. (get)
8 A: When was the last time you saw Max?
B: Years ago. I ..... him if I saw him now. (recognise)
9 A: Did you hear the explosion?
B: What explosion?
A: There was a loud explosion about an hour ago. You ..... it. (hear)
10 A: We weren't sure which way to go. In the end we turned right.
B: You went the wrong way. You ..... left. (turn)

if (conditional)

Units 25, 38–40

19 **Put the verb into the correct form.**

1 If you found a wallet in the street, what would you do with it? (you / find)
2 I'd better hurry. My friend will be annoyed if I'm not on time. (I / not / be)
3 I didn't realise that Gary was in hospital. If I'd known he was in hospital, I would have gone to visit him. (I / know)
4 If the doorbell ....., don't answer it. (ring)
5 I can't decide what to do. What would you do if ..... me? (you / be)
6 A: What shall we do tomorrow?
B: Well, if ..... a nice day, we can go to the beach. (it / be)
7 A: Let's go to the beach.
B: No, it's not warm enough. If ..... warmer, I'd go. (it / be)
8 A: Did you go to the beach yesterday?
B: No, it was too cold. If ..... warmer, we might have gone. (it / be)
9 If ..... enough money to go anywhere in the world, where would you go? (you / have)
10 I didn't have my phone with me, so I couldn't call you. I would have called you if ..... my phone. (I / have)
11 The accident was your fault. If you'd been driving more carefully, ... (it / not / happen).
12 A: Why do you watch the news every day?
B: Well, if ..... it, I wouldn't know what was happening in the world. (I / not / watch)

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20 **Complete the sentences.**

1 Lisa is tired all the time. She shouldn't go to bed so late.
If Lisa ....didn't go.... to bed so late, she ....wouldn't be.... tired all the time.
2 It's getting late. I don't think Sarah will call me now.
I'd be surprised if Sarah ..... now.
3 I'm sorry I disturbed you. I didn't know you were busy.
If ..... you were busy, I ..... you.
4 There are a lot of accidents on this road. There is no speed limit.
There ..... so many accidents if ..... a speed limit.
5 You didn't tell me about the problem, so I didn't try to help you.
If ..... the problem, ... you.
6 It started to rain, but fortunately I had an umbrella.
I ..... very wet if ..... an umbrella.
7 Mark failed his driving test. He was very nervous and that's why he failed.
If he ..... so nervous, he ..... the test.

21 **Use your own ideas to complete the sentences.**

1 I'd go out tonight if ..... .
2 I'd have gone out last night if ..... .
3 If you hadn't reminded me, ...
4 If I had more free time, ...
5 If you give me the camera, ...
6 Who would you phone if ..... ?
7 We wouldn't have been late if ..... .
8 If I'd been able to get a ticket, ...
9 If I'd done better at the interview, ...
10 You wouldn't be hungry now if ..... .
11 Cities would be nicer places if ..... .
12 If there was no internet, ...

Passive

Units 42–45

22 **Put the verb into the most suitable passive form.**

1 There's somebody behind us. I think ....we're being followed.... (we / follow).
2 A mystery is something that ....can't be explained.... (can't / explain).
3 We didn't play football yesterday. The game ..... (cancel).
4 The TV ..... (repair). It's working again now.
5 The village church ..... (restore) at the moment. The work is almost finished.
6 The tower is the oldest part of the church. ..... (it / believe) to be over 600 years old.
7 If I didn't do my job properly, ... (I / would / fire).
8 A: I left a newspaper on the desk last night and it isn't there now.
B: ..... (it / might / throw) away.
9 Joe learnt to swim when he was very young. ..... (he / teach) by his mother.
10 After ..... (arrest), I was taken to the police station.
11 '..... (you / ever / arrest)?' 'No, never.'
12 Two people ..... (report) to ..... (injure) in an accident at a factory in Birmingham early this morning.

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23 **Put the verb into the correct form, active or passive.**

1 This house is quite old. It ....was built.... (build) over 100 years ago.
2 My grandfather was a builder. He ....built.... (build) this house many years ago.
3 'Is your car still for sale?' 'No, I ..... (sell) it.'
4 A: Is the house at the end of the street still for sale?
B: No, it ..... (sell).
5 Sometimes mistakes ..... (make). It's inevitable.
6 It's not a good idea to leave your car unlocked. It ..... (might / steal).
7 My bag has disappeared. It ..... (must / steal).
8 I can't find my umbrella. Somebody ..... (must / take) it by mistake.
9 It's a serious problem. I don't know how it ..... (can / solve).
10 We didn't leave early enough. We ..... (should / leave) earlier.
11 Very often when I travel by plane, my flight ..... (delay).
12 A new bridge ..... (build) across the river. Work started last year and the bridge ..... (expect) to open next year.

24 **Read these newspaper reports and put the verbs into the most suitable form.**

1

Castle Fire

Winton Castle (1) ....was damaged.... (damage) in a fire last night. The fire, which (2) ..... (discover) at about 9 o'clock, spread very quickly. Nobody (3) ..... (injure), but two people had to (4) ..... (rescue) from an upstairs room. A number of paintings (5) ..... (believe / destroy). It (6) ..... (not / know) how the fire started.

2

Shop Robbery

In Paxham yesterday a shop assistant (1) ..... (force) to hand over £500 after (2) ..... (threaten) by a man with a knife. The man escaped in a car which (3) ..... (steal) earlier in the day. The car (4) ..... (later / find) in a car park where it (5) ..... (abandon) by the thief. A man (6) ..... (arrest) in connection with the robbery and (7) ..... (still / question) by the police.

3

Road Delays

Repair work started yesterday on the Paxham–Longworth road. The road (1) ..... (resurface) and there will be long delays. Drivers (2) ..... (ask) to use an alternative route if possible. The work (3) ..... (expect) to last two weeks. Next Sunday the road (4) ..... (close), and traffic (5) ..... (divert).

4

Accident

A woman (1) ..... (take) to hospital after her car collided with a lorry near Norstock yesterday. She (2) ..... (allow) home later after treatment. The road (3) ..... (block) for an hour after the accident, and traffic had to (4) ..... (divert). A police inspector said afterwards: 'The woman was lucky. She could (5) ..... (kill).'

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Reported speech

Units 47–48, 50

25 **Complete the sentences using reported speech.**

1

Can I speak to Paul, please?

I'll try again later.

Paul has gone out. I don't know when he'll be back. Do you want to leave a message?

YOU

A woman phoned at lunchtime yesterday and asked if she could speak to Paul. I told ..... and ..... . I asked ..... , but she said ..... later. But she never did.

2

We have no record of a reservation in your name.

We're sorry, but the hotel is full.

Do you have any rooms free anyway?

I went to London recently, but my visit didn't begin well. I had reserved a hotel room, but when I got to the hotel they told ..... . When I asked ..... , they said ..... , but ..... . There was nothing I could do. I just had to look for somewhere else to stay.

3

Why are you visiting the country?

How long do you intend to stay?

Where will you be staying during your visit?

We're on holiday.

After getting off the plane, we had to queue for an hour to get through immigration. Finally, it was our turn. The immigration officer asked us ..... , and we told ..... . Then he wanted to know ..... and ..... . He seemed satisfied with our answers, checked our passports and wished us a pleasant stay.

4

I'll phone you from the airport when I arrive.

SUE

Don't come to the airport. I'll take the bus.

A: What time is Sue arriving this afternoon?
B: About three. She said ..... .
A: Aren't you going to meet her?
B: No, she said not ..... . She said that ..... .

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5

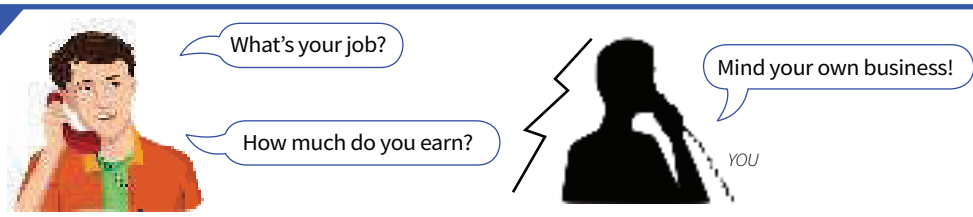

A few days ago a man phoned from a marketing company and started asking me questions. He wanted to know ..... and asked .... I don't like people phoning and asking questions like that, so I told ..... and ended the call.

6

Sarah and Louise are in a restaurant waiting for Paul.

SARAH: I wonder where Paul is. He said ..... .
LOUISE: Maybe he got lost.
SARAH: I don't think so. He said ..... .
And I told ..... .

7

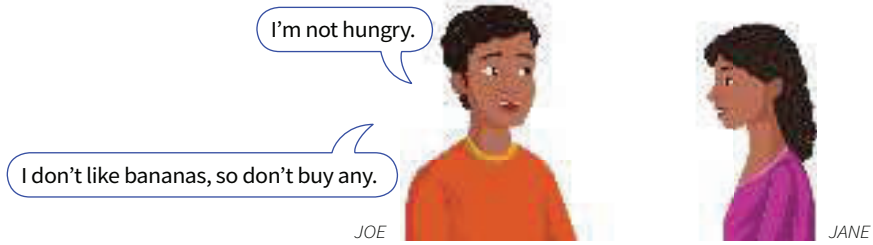

Five minutes later

JOE: Is there anything to eat?
JANE: You just said ..... .
JOE: Well, I am now. I'd love a banana.
JANE: A banana? But you said ..... .
You told ..... .

-ing and *to* ...

Units 53–66

26 **Put the verbs into the correct form.**

1 How old were you when you learnt ....to drive.... ? (drive)
2 I don't mind ....walking.... home, but I'd rather ....get.... a taxi. (walk, get)
3 I can't make a decision. I keep ..... my mind. (change)
4 He had made his decision and refused ..... his mind. (change)
5 Why did you change your decision? What made you ..... your mind? (change)
6 It was a really good holiday. I really enjoyed ..... by the sea again. (be)

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7 Did I really tell you I was unhappy? I don't remember ..... that. (say)
8 'Remember ..... Tom tomorrow.' 'OK. I won't forget.' (call)
9 The water here is not very good. I'd avoid ..... it if I were you. (drink)
10 I pretended ..... interested in the conversation, but really it was very boring. (be)
11 I got up and looked out of the window ..... what the weather was like. (see)
12 I don't have far to go. It's not worth ..... a taxi. (take)
13 I have a friend who claims ..... able to speak five languages. (be)
14 I like ..... carefully about things before ..... a decision. (think, make)
15 I had a flat in the centre of town but I didn't like ..... there, so I decided ..... . (live, move)
16 Steve used ..... a footballer. He had to stop ..... because of an injury. (be, play)
17 After ..... by the police, the man admitted ..... the car but denied ..... at 100 miles an hour. (stop, steal, drive)
18 A: How do you make this machine ..... ? (work)
B: I'm not sure. Try ..... that button and see what happens. (press)

27 Make sentences from the words in brackets.

1 I can't find the tickets. (I / seem / lose / them)
I seem to have lost them.

2 I don't have far to go. (it / not / worth / take / a taxi)
It's not worth taking a taxi.

3 I'm feeling a bit tired. (I / not / fancy / go / out)
.....

4 James isn't very reliable. (he / tend / forget / things)
.....

5 I've got a lot of luggage. (you / mind / help / me?)
.....

6 There's nobody at home. (everybody / seem / go out)
.....

7 We don't like our apartment. (we / think / move)
.....

8 The vase was very valuable. (I / afraid / touch / it)
.....

9 I wanted to get to the station in plenty of time. (I / afraid / miss / my train)
.....

10 I don't recommend the movie. (it / not / worth / see)
.....

11 I'm very tired after that long walk. (I / not / used / walk / so far)
.....

12 Sue is on holiday. She called me yesterday and sounded happy. (she / seem / enjoy / herself)
.....

13 Dan took lots of pictures while he was on holiday. (he / insist / show / them to me)
.....

14 I don't want to do the shopping. (I'd rather / somebody else / do / it)
.....

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28 **Complete the second sentence so that the meaning is similar to the first.**

1 I was surprised I passed the exam.
I didn't expect ...to pass the exam... .
2 Did you manage to solve the problem?
Did you succeed ...in solving the problem... ?
3 I don't read newspapers any more.
I've given up ..... .
4 I'd prefer not to go out tonight.
I'd rather ..... .
5 He finds it difficult to sleep at night.
He has trouble ..... .
6 Shall I phone you this evening?
Do you want ..... ?
7 Nobody saw me come in.
I came in without ..... .
8 Some people said I was a cheat.
I was accused ..... .
9 It will be good to see them again.
I'm looking forward ..... .
10 What do you think I should do?
What do you advise me ..... ?
11 It's a pity I couldn't go out with you last night.
I'd like ..... .
12 I wish I'd taken your advice.
I regret ..... .

a/an and *the*

Units 69–78

29 **Put in a/an or the where necessary. Leave the space empty if the sentence is already complete.**

1 I don't usually like staying at ...–... hotels, but last summer we spent two weeks at ...a... very nice hotel by ...the... sea.

2 If you go to live in ..... foreign country, you should try and learn ..... language.

3 Helen is ..... economist. She lives in ..... United States and works for ..... investment company.

4 I love ..... sport, especially ..... tennis. I play two or three times ..... week if I can, but I'm not ..... very good player.

5 I won't be home for ..... dinner this evening. I'm meeting some friends after ..... work and we're going to ..... cinema.

6 When ..... unemployment is high, it's difficult for ..... people to find ..... work. It's ..... big problem.

7 There was ..... accident as I was going ..... home last night. Two people were taken to ..... hospital. I think ..... most accidents are caused by ..... people driving too fast.

8 A: What's ..... name of ..... hotel where you're staying?
B: ..... Ambassador. It's in ..... Queen Street in ..... city centre. It's near ..... station.

9 I have two brothers. ..... older one is training to be ..... pilot. ..... younger one is still at ..... school. When he leaves ..... school, he wants to go to ..... university to study ..... law.

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Pronouns and determiners

Units 82–91

30 **Which alternatives are correct? Sometimes only one alternative is correct, and sometimes two alternatives are possible.**

1 I don't remember ....A.... about the accident. (A *is correct*)
A anything **B** something **C** nothing

2 Chris and I have known ..... for quite a long time.
A us **B** each other **C** ourselves

3 'How often do the buses run?' '..... twenty minutes.'
A All **B** Each **C** Every

4 I shouted for help, but ..... came.
A nobody **B** no-one **C** anybody

5 Last night we went out with some friends of ..... .
A us **B** our **C** ours

6 It didn't take us a long time to get here. ..... traffic.
A It wasn't much **B** There wasn't much **C** It wasn't a lot

7 Can I have ..... milk in my coffee, please?
A a little **B** any **C** some

8 Sometimes I find it difficult to ..... .
A concentrate **B** concentrate me **C** concentrate myself

9 There's ..... on at the cinema that I want to see, so there's no point in going.
A something **B** anything **C** nothing

10 I drink ..... water every day.
A much **B** a lot of **C** lots of

11 ..... in the city centre are open on Sunday.
A Most of shops **B** Most of the shops **C** The most of the shops

12 There were about twenty people in the photo. I didn't recognise ..... of them.
A any **B** none **C** either

13 I've been waiting ..... for Sarah to phone.
A all morning **B** the whole morning **C** all the morning

14 I can't afford to buy anything in this shop. ..... so expensive.
A All is **B** Everything is **C** All are

Adjectives and adverbs

Units 98–108

31 **There are mistakes in some of these sentences. Correct the sentences where necessary. Write 'OK' if the sentence is already correct.**

1 The building was total destroyed in the fire. ....totally destroyed....
2 I didn't like the book. It was such a stupid story. ....OK....
3 The city is very polluted. It's the more polluted place I've ever been to. .....
4 I was disappointing that I didn't get the job. I was well-qualified and the interview went well. .....
5 It's warm today, but there's quite a strong wind. .....
6 Joe works hardly, but he doesn't get paid very much. .....
7 The company's offices are in a modern large building. .....

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8 Dan is a very fast runner. I wish I could run as fast as him. .....
9 I missed the three last days of the course because I was ill. .....
10 You don't look happy. What's the matter? .....
11 The weather has been unusual cold for the time of the year. .....
12 The water in the pool was too dirty to swim in it. .....
13 I got impatient because we had to wait so long time. .....
14 Is this box big enough or do you need a bigger one? .....
15 This morning I got up more early than usual. .....

Conjunctions

Units 25, 38, 112–118

32 Which is correct?

1 I'll try to be on time, but don't worry if / ~~when~~ I'm late. (if *is correct*)
2 Don't throw that bag away. If / When you don't want it, I'll have it.
3 Please report to reception if / when you arrive at the hotel.
4 We've arranged to go to the beach tomorrow, but we won't go if / when it's raining.
5 Tanya is in her final year at school. She still doesn't know what she's going to do if / when she leaves.
6 What would you do if / when you lost your keys?
7 I hope I'll be able to come to the party, but I'll let you know if / unless I can't.
8 I don't want to be disturbed, so don't phone me if / unless it's something important.
9 Please sign the contract if / unless you're happy with the conditions.
10 I like travelling by ship as long as / unless the sea is not rough.
11 You might not remember the name of the hotel, so write it down if / in case you forget it.
12 It's not cold now, but take your coat with you if / in case it gets cold later.
13 Take your coat with you and then you can put it on if / in case it gets cold later.
14 They always have the TV on, even if / if nobody is watching it.
15 Even / Although I left home early, I got to work late.
16 Despite / Although we've known each other a long time, we're not particularly close friends.
17 'When did you leave school?' 'As / When I was 17.'
18 I think Amy will be very pleased as / when she hears the news.

Prepositions (time)

Units 12, 119–122

33 Put in one of the following: at on in during for since by until

1 Jack has gone away. He'll be back ...in... a week.
2 We're having a party ..... Saturday. Can you come?
3 I've got an interview next week. It's ..... Tuesday morning ..... 9.30.
4 Sue isn't usually here ..... weekends. She goes away.
5 The train service is very good. The trains are nearly always ..... time.
6 It was a confusing situation. Many things were happening ..... the same time.
7 I couldn't decide whether or not to buy the sweater. ..... the end I decided not to.
8 The road is busy all the time, even ..... night.
9 I met a lot of nice people ..... my stay in New York.
10 I saw Helen ..... Friday, but I haven't seen her ..... then.
11 Robert has been doing the same job ..... five years.
12 Lisa's birthday is ..... the end of March. I'm not sure exactly which day it is.
13 We have friends staying with us ..... the moment. They're staying ..... Friday.
14 If you're interested in applying for the job, your application must be received ..... Friday.
15 I'm just going out. I won't be long – I'll be back ..... ten minutes.

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Prepositions (position and other uses)

Units 123–128

34 **Put in the missing preposition.**

1 I'd love to be able to visit every country ..... the world.
2 Jessica White is my favourite author. Have you read anything ..... her?
3 There's a small shop ..... the end of this road.
4 Tom is away at the moment. He's ..... holiday.
5 We live ..... the country, a long way from the nearest town.
6 I've got a stain ..... my jacket. I'll have to have it cleaned.
7 We went ..... a party ..... Lisa's house on Saturday.
8 Boston is ..... the east coast of the United States.
9 Look at the leaves ..... that tree. They're a beautiful colour.
10 I've never been ..... Japan, but I'd like to go very much.
11 Mozart died ..... Vienna in 1791 ..... the age of 35.
12 'Are you ..... this photo?' 'Yes, that's me, ... the left.'
13 We went ..... the theatre last night. We had seats ..... the front row.
14 If you want to turn the light on, the switch is ..... the wall ..... the door.
15 It was late when we arrived ..... the hotel.
16 I couldn't decide what to eat. There was nothing ..... the menu that I liked.
17 We live ..... a tower block. Our apartment is ..... the fifteenth floor.
18 Some parts of the film were a bit stupid, but ..... the whole I enjoyed it.
19 'When you paid the restaurant bill, did you pay cash?' 'No, I paid ..... credit card.'
20 'How did you get here? Did you come ..... the bus?' 'No, ... car.'
21 I watched a really interesting programme ..... TV last night.
22 Helen works for a large company. She works ..... the customer services department.
23 Anna spent two years working ..... London before returning ..... Italy.
24 How was your trip ..... the beach? Did you have a good day?
25 On our first day in Paris, we went ..... a trip round the city.

Noun/adjective + preposition

Units 129–131

35 **Put in the missing preposition.**

1 The plan has been changed, but nobody seems to know the reason ..... this.
2 Don't ask me to decide. I'm not very good ..... making decisions.
3 Some people say that Sue is unfriendly, but she's always very nice ..... me.
4 What do you think is the best solution ..... the problem?
5 Recently there has been a big increase ..... the number of tourists visiting the city.
6 He lives a rather lonely life. He doesn't have much contact ..... other people.
7 Paul is a keen photographer. He likes taking pictures ..... people.
8 Michael got married ..... a woman he met when he was studying at college.
9 He's very brave. He's not scared ..... anything.
10 I'm surprised ..... the traffic today. I didn't think it would be so busy.
11 Thank you for lending me the guidebook. It was full ..... useful information.
12 I'm afraid I've had to change my plans, so I can't meet you tomorrow. I'm sorry ..... that.

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Verb + preposition

Units 132–136

36 **Complete each sentence with a preposition where necessary. If no preposition is necessary, leave the space empty.**

1 She works quite hard. You can't accuse her ..... being lazy.
2 Who's going to look ..... your children while you're at work?
3 The problem is becoming serious. We have to discuss ..... it.
4 The problem is becoming serious. We have to do something ..... it.
5 I prefer this chair ..... the other one. It's more comfortable.
6 I need to call ..... the office to tell them I won't be at work today.
7 The river divides the city ..... two parts.
8 'What do you think ..... your new boss?' 'She's all right, I suppose.'
9 Can somebody please explain ..... me what I have to do?
10 I said hello to her, but she didn't answer ..... me.
11 'Do you like staying at hotels?' 'It depends ..... the hotel.'
12 'Have you ever been to Borla?' 'No, I've never heard ..... it. Where is it?'
13 You remind me ..... somebody I knew a long time ago. You look just like her.
14 This is wonderful news! I can't believe ..... it.
15 George is not an idealist – he believes ..... being practical.
16 What's funny? What are you laughing ..... ?
17 What did you do with all the money you had? What did you spend it ..... ?
18 If Alex asks ..... you ..... money, don't give him any.
19 I apologised ..... Sarah ..... keeping her waiting so long.
20 Lisa was very helpful. I thanked ..... her ..... everything she'd done.

Phrasal verbs

Units 137–145

37 **A says something and B replies. Which goes with which?**

A

1 ~~I've made a mistake on this form.~~
2 I'm too warm with my coat on.
3 This jacket looks nice.
4 Your reference number is 318044BK.
5 This room is in a mess.
6 What's 45 euros in dollars?
7 How was the mistake discovered?
8 I'm not sure whether to accept their offer or not.
9 I need a place to stay when I'm in London.
10 It's a subject he doesn't like to talk about.
11 I don't know what this word means.

B

a Don't worry. I'll clear it up.
b That won't be a problem. I can fix it up.
c Kate pointed it out.
d ~~That's OK. Cross it out and correct it.~~
e Yes, why don't you try it on?
f OK, I won't bring it up.
g Just a minute. I'll write it down.
h Why don't you take it off then?
i You can look it up.
j I think you should turn it down.
k Give me a moment. I'll work it out.

1 d
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....
9 .....
10 .....
11 .....

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38 **Only one alternative is correct. Which is it?**

1 Nobody believed Paul at first but he ...B... to be right. (B *is correct*)
A came out **B** turned out **C** worked out **D** carried out

2 Here's some good news. It will ..... .
A turn you up **B** put you up **C** blow you up **D** cheer you up

3 The children were behaving badly, so I ..... .
A told them up **B** told them off **C** told them out **D** told them over

4 The club committee is ..... of the president, the secretary and seven other members.
A set up **B** made up **C** set out **D** made out

5 Why did you decide not to apply for the job? What ..... ?
A put you off **B** put you out **C** turned you off **D** turned you away

6 I had no idea that he was lying to me. I was completely ..... .
A taken in **B** taken down **C** taken off **D** taken over

7 Helen started a course at college, but she ..... after six months.
A went out **B** fell out **C** turned out **D** dropped out

8 You can't predict everything. Often things don't ..... as you expect.
A make out **B** break out **C** turn out **D** get out

9 What's all this noise? What's ..... ?
A going off **B** getting off **C** going on **D** getting on

10 It's a very busy airport. There are planes ..... or landing every few minutes.
A going up **B** taking off **C** getting up **D** driving off

11 The road was blocked by a bus that had ..... .
A broken down **B** dropped out **C** driven off **D** held up

12 How are you ..... in your new job? Are you enjoying it?
A keeping on **B** going on **C** carrying on **D** getting on

39 **Complete the sentences. Use two words each time.**

1 Keep ...away from... the edge of the pool. You might fall in.
2 I didn't notice that the two pictures were different until Amy pointed it ..... me.
3 I asked Max if he had any suggestions about what we should do, but he didn't come ..... anything.
4 I'm glad Sarah is coming to the party. I'm really looking ..... seeing her again.
5 Things are changing all the time. It's difficult to keep ..... all these changes.
6 I don't want to run ..... food for the party. Are you sure we have enough?
7 We had a short break and then carried ..... our work.
8 I've had enough of being treated like this. I'm not going to put ..... it any more.
9 I didn't enjoy the trip very much at the time, but when I look ..... it now, I realise it was a good experience and I'm glad I went on it.
10 The wedding was supposed to be a secret, so how did you find ..... it? Who told you?
11 There is a very nice atmosphere in the office where I work. Everybody gets ..... everybody else.

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40 **Complete each sentence using a phrasal verb that has a similar meaning to the words in brackets.**

1 The concert in the park had to be ....called off.... because of the weather. (cancelled)
2 The story Kate told wasn't true. She ....made it up.... . (invented it)
3 Paul finally ..... an hour late. (arrived)
4 Here's an application form. Can you ..... and sign it, please? (complete it)
5 Some houses will have to be ..... to make way for the new road. (demolished)
6 Be positive! You must never ..... ! (stop trying)
7 I was very tired and ..... in front of the TV. (fell asleep)
8 After eight years together, they've decided to ..... . (separate)
9 The noise is terrible. I can't ..... any longer. (tolerate it)
10 We don't have a lot of money, but we have enough to ..... . (manage)
11 I'm sorry I'm late. The meeting ..... longer than I expected. (continued)
12 We need to make a decision today at the latest. We can't ..... any longer. (delay it)

41 **Complete the sentences. Use one word each time.**

1 You're driving too fast. Please ....slow.... down.
2 It was only a small fire and I managed to ..... it out with a bucket of water.
3 The house is empty right now, but I think the new tenants are ..... in next week.
4 I've ..... on weight. My clothes don't fit any more.
5 Their house is really nice now. They've ..... it up really well.
6 I was talking to the woman next to me on the plane, and it ..... out that she works for the same company as my brother.
7 I don't know what happened yet, but I'm going to ..... out.
8 There's no need to get angry. ..... down!
9 If you're going on a long walk, plan your route carefully before you ..... off.
10 Sarah has just phoned to say that she'll be late. She's been ..... up.
11 You've written my name wrong. It's Martin, not Marin – you ..... out the T.
12 Three days at £45 a day – that ..... out at £135.
13 We had a really interesting discussion, but Jane didn't ..... in. She just listened.
14 Jonathan is pretty fit. He ..... out in the gym every day.
15 Come and see us more often. You can ..... in any time you like.
16 We are still discussing the contract. There are still a couple of things to ..... out.
17 My alarm clock ..... off in the middle of the night and ..... me up.

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Study guide

This guide is to help you decide which units you need to study. The sentences in the guide are grouped together (*Present and past*, *Articles and nouns* etc.) in the same way as the units in the *Contents* (pages iii–vi).

Each sentence can be completed using one or more of the alternatives (A, B, C etc.). There are between two and five alternatives each time. IN SOME SENTENCES MORE THAN ONE ALTERNATIVE IS POSSIBLE.

If you don't know or if you are not sure which alternatives are correct, then you probably need to study the unit(s) in the list on the right. You will also find the correct sentence in this unit. (If two or three units are listed, you will find the correct sentence in the first one.)

There is a key to this study guide on page 372.

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Present and past	
1.1 At first I didn't like my job, but ..... to enjoy it now. **A** I'm starting **B** I start	**1, 3**
1.2 I don't understand this sentence. What ..... ? **A** does mean this word **B** does this word mean **C** means this word	**2, 49**
1.3 Robert ..... away two or three times a year. **A** is going usually **B** is usually going **C** usually goes **D** goes usually	**2,3,110**
1.4 How ..... now? Better than before? **A** you are feeling **B** do you feel **C** are you feeling	**4**
1.5 It was a boring weekend. ..... anything. **A** I didn't **B** I don't do **C** I didn't do	**5**
1.6 Matt ..... while we were having dinner. **A** phoned **B** was phoning **C** has phoned	**6, 14**
Present perfect and past	
2.1 James is on holiday. He ..... to Italy. **A** is gone **B** has gone **C** has been	**7**
2.2 Everything is going well. There ..... any problems so far. **A** weren't **B** have been **C** haven't been	**8**
2.3 Sarah has lost her passport again. This is the second time this ..... . **A** has happened **B** happens **C** happened **D** is happening	**8**
2.4 Why are you out of breath? ..... ? **A** Are you running **B** Have you run **C** Have you been running	**9**
2.5 Where's the book I gave you? What ..... with it? **A** have you done **B** have you been doing **C** are you doing	**10**
2.6 'How long ..... Jane?' 'A long time. Since we were at school.' **A** do you know **B** have you known **C** have you been knowing	**11, 10**
2.7 Sally has been working here ..... . **A** for six months **B** since six months **C** six months ago **D** six months	**12**

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
2.8	It's two years ..... Joe. **A** that I don't see **B** that I haven't seen **C** since I didn't see **D** since I last saw	**12**
2.9	It ..... raining for a while, but now it's raining again. **A** stopped **B** has stopped **C** was stopped	**13**
2.10	My mother ..... in Italy. **A** grew up **B** has grown up **C** had grown up	**13**
2.11	..... a lot of sweets when you were a child? **A** Have you eaten **B** Had you eaten **C** Did you eat	**14**
2.12	Jack ..... in New York for ten years. Now he lives in Los Angeles. **A** lived **B** has lived **C** has been living	**14, 11**
2.13	The people sitting next to me on the plane were nervous. ..... before. **A** They haven't flown **B** They didn't fly **C** They hadn't flown **D** They'd never flown **E** They weren't flying	**15**
2.14	Katherine was lying on the sofa. She was tired because ..... very hard. **A** she was working **B** she's been working **C** she'd been working	**16**
2.15	..... a car when you were living in Paris? **A** Had you **B** Were you having **C** Have you had **D** Did you have	**17, 14**
2.16	I ..... tennis a lot, but I don't play very much now. **A** was playing **B** was used to play **C** used to play	**18**
Future		
3.1	I'm tired. ..... to bed now. Goodnight. **A** I go **B** I'm going	**19**
3.2	..... tomorrow, so we can go out somewhere. **A** I'm not working **B** I don't work **C** I won't work	**19, 21**
3.3	That bag looks heavy. ..... you with it. **A** I'm helping **B** I help **C** I'll help	**21**
3.4	I think the weather ..... nice later. **A** will be **B** is **C** is going to be **D** shall be	**23, 22**
3.5	'Anna is in hospital.' 'Yes, I know. ..... her this evening.' **A** I visit **B** I'm going to visit **C** I'll visit	**23, 20**
3.6	We're late. The film ..... by the time we get to the cinema. **A** will already start **B** will be already started **C** will already have started	**24**
3.7	Don't worry ..... late tonight. **A** if I'm **B** when I'm **C** when I'll be **D** if I'll be	**25**

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
Modals		
4.1	The fire spread quickly, but everybody ..... from the building. **A** was able to escape **B** managed to escape **C** could escape	**26**
4.2	I'm so tired I ..... for a week. **A** can sleep **B** could sleep **C** could have slept	**27**
4.3	The story ..... be true, but I don't think it is. **A** might **B** can **C** could **D** may	**27, 29**
4.4	Why did you stay at a hotel? You ..... with me. **A** can stay **B** could stay **C** could have stayed	**27**
4.5	I lost one of my gloves. I ..... it somewhere. **A** must drop **B** must have dropped **C** must be dropping **D** must have been dropping	**28**
4.6	'Why wasn't Amy at the meeting yesterday?' 'She ..... about it.' **A** might not know **B** may not know **C** might not have known **D** may not have known	**29**
4.7	What ..... to get a new driving licence? **A** have I to do **B** do I have to do **C** I must do **D** I have to	**31**
4.8	We have plenty of time. We ..... hurry. **A** don't need to **B** mustn't **C** needn't	**32**
4.9	You missed a great party last night. You ..... . Why didn't you? **A** must have come **B** should have come **C** ought to have come **D** had to come	**33**
4.10	Jane won the lottery. I suggested ..... a car with the money she won. **A** that she buy **B** that she should buy **C** her to buy **D** that she bought	**34**
4.11	You're always at home. You ..... out more often. **A** should go **B** had better go **C** had better to go	**35**
4.12	It's late. It's time ..... home. **A** we go **B** we must go **C** we should go **D** we went **E** to go	**35**
4.13	..... a little longer, but I really have to go now. **A** I'd stay **B** I'll stay **C** I can stay **D** I'd have stayed	**36**
if and wish		
5.1	I'm not tired enough to go to bed. If I ..... to bed now, I wouldn't sleep. **A** go **B** went **C** had gone **D** would go	**38, 39**
5.2	If I were rich, ... a lot. **A** I'll travel **B** I can travel **C** I would travel **D** I travelled	**39**
5.3	I wish I ..... have to work tomorrow, but unfortunately I do. **A** don't **B** didn't **C** wouldn't **D** won't	**39, 41**

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
5.4 The view was wonderful. I would have taken some pictures if ..... a camera with me. **A** I had **B** I would have **C** I would have had **D** I'd had	**40**
5.5 The weather is horrible. I wish it ..... raining. **A** would stop **B** stopped **C** stops **D** will stop	**41**
Passive	
6.1 We ..... by a loud noise during the night. **A** woke up **B** are woken up **C** were woken up **D** were waking up	**42**
6.2 A new supermarket is going to ..... next year. **A** build **B** be built **C** be building **D** building	**43**
6.3 There's somebody walking behind us. I think ..... . **A** we are following **B** we are being following **C** we are followed **D** we are being followed	**43**
6.4 'Where ..... ?' 'In Chicago.' **A** were you born **B** are you born **C** have you been born **D** did you born	**44**
6.5 There was a fight, but nobody ..... . **A** was hurt **B** got hurt **C** hurt	**44**
6.6 Jane ..... to phone me last night, but she didn't. **A** supposed **B** is supposed **C** was supposed	**45**
6.7 Where ..... ? Which hairdresser did you go to? **A** did you cut your hair **B** have you cut your hair **C** did you have cut your hair **D** did you have your hair cut	**46**
Reported speech	
7.1 Paul left the room suddenly. He said he ..... to go. **A** had **B** has **C** have	**48, 47**
7.2 (*You meet Joe in the street.*) Joe, this is a surprise. Rachel said you ..... in hospital. **A** are **B** were **C** was	**48, 47**
7.3 Anna ..... and left. **A** said goodbye to me **B** said me goodbye **C** told me goodbye	**48**
Questions and auxiliary verbs	
8.1 'What time ..... ?' 'At 8.30.' **A** starts the film **B** does start the film **C** does the film start	**49**
8.2 'Do you know where ..... ?' 'No, he didn't say.' **A** Tom has gone **B** has Tom gone **C** has gone Tom	**50**
8.3 The police officer stopped us and asked us where ..... . **A** were we going **B** are we going **C** we are going **D** we were going	**50**

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
8.4	'Do you think it will rain?' '.....' **A** I hope not **B** I don't hope **C** I don't hope so	51
8.5	'You don't know where Karen is, ...?' 'Sorry, I have no idea.' **A** don't you **B** do you **C** is she **D** are you	52
-ing and **to ...**		
9.1	You can't stop people ..... what they want. **A** doing **B** do **C** to do **D** from doing	53, 62
9.2	I'd better go now. I promised ..... late. **A** not being **B** not to be **C** to not be **D** I wouldn't be	54, 36
9.3	Do you want ..... with you or do you want to go alone? **A** me coming **B** me to come **C** that I come **D** that I will come	55
9.4	I know I locked the door. I clearly remember ..... it. **A** locking **B** to lock **C** to have locked	56
9.5	She tried to be serious, but she couldn't help ..... . **A** laughing **B** to laugh **C** that she laughed **D** laugh	57
9.6	Paul lives in Berlin now. He likes ..... there. **A** living **B** to live	58
9.7	It's not my favourite job, but I like ..... the kitchen as often as possible. **A** cleaning **B** clean **C** to clean **D** that I clean	58
9.8	I'm tired. I'd rather ..... out this evening, if you don't mind. **A** not going **B** not to go **C** don't go **D** not go	59
9.9	I'd rather ..... anyone what I said. **A** you don't tell **B** not you tell **C** you didn't tell **D** you wouldn't tell	59
9.10	Are you looking forward ..... on holiday? **A** going **B** to go **C** to going **D** that you go	60, 62
9.11	When Lisa first came to Britain, she wasn't used ..... on the left. **A** driving **B** to driving **C** to drive **D** drive	61
9.12	I'm thinking ..... a house. Do you think that's a good idea? **A** to buy **B** of to buy **C** of buying **D** about buying	62, 66
9.13	I had no trouble ..... a place to stay. In fact it was surprisingly easy. **A** find **B** found **C** to find **D** finding	63
9.14	I called the restaurant ..... a table. **A** for reserve **B** to reserve **C** for reserving **D** for to reserve	64
9.15	James doesn't speak clearly. ..... . **A** It is hard to understand him **B** He is hard to understand **C** He is hard to understand him	65

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
9.16 The path was icy, so we walked very carefully. We were afraid ..... **A** of falling **B** from falling **C** to fall **D** to falling	66
9.17 I didn't hear you ..... in. You must have been very quiet. **A** come **B** to come **C** came	67
9.18 ..... a hotel, we looked for somewhere to eat. **A** Finding **B** After finding **C** Having found **D** We found	68
Articles and nouns	
10.1 It wasn't your fault. It was ..... **A** accident **B** an accident **C** some accident	69
10.2 Where are you going to put all your ..... ? **A** furniture **B** furnitures	70
10.3 'Where are you going?' 'I'm going to buy.....' **A** a bread **B** some bread **C** a loaf of bread	70
10.4 Sandra is ..... . She works at a large hospital. **A** nurse **B** a nurse **C** the nurse	71, 72
10.5 Helen works six days ..... week. **A** in **B** for **C** a **D** the	72
10.6 There are millions of stars in ..... . **A** space **B** a space **C** the space	73
10.7 Every day ..... starts at 9 and finishes at 3. **A** school **B** a school **C** the school	74
10.8 ..... changed a lot in the last thirty years. **A** Life has **B** The life has **C** The lives have	75
10.9 When ..... invented? **A** was camera **B** were cameras **C** were the cameras **D** was the camera	76
10.10 Have you been to ..... ? **A** Canada or United States **B** the Canada or the United States **C** Canada or the United States **D** the Canada or United States	77
10.11 On our first day in Moscow, we visited ..... . **A** Kremlin **B** a Kremlin **C** the Kremlin	78
10.12 I have some news for you. ..... . **A** It's good news **B** They are good news **C** It's a good news	79, 70
10.13 It took us quite a long time to get here. It was ..... journey. **A** three hour **B** a three-hours **C** a three-hour	80
10.14 This isn't my book. It's ..... . **A** my sister **B** my sister's **C** from my sister **D** of my sister **E** of my sister's	81

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
Pronouns and determiners		
11.1	What time shall we ..... tomorrow? **A** meet **B** meet us **C** meet ourselves	82
11.2	I'm going to a wedding on Saturday. ..... is getting married. **A** A friend of me **B** A friend of mine **C** One my friends	83
11.3	They live on a busy road. ..... a lot of noise from the traffic. **A** It must be **B** It must have **C** There must have **D** There must be	84
11.4	He's lazy. He never does ..... work. **A** some **B** any **C** no	85
11.5	'What would you like to eat?' 'I don't mind. ..... – whatever you have.' **A** Something **B** Anything **C** Nothing	85
11.6	The course didn't go well. ..... of the students were happy. **A** All **B** No-one **C** None **D** Nobody	86
11.7	We went shopping and spent ..... money. **A** a lot of **B** much **C** lots of **D** many	87
11.8	I was ill yesterday. I spent ..... in bed. **A** the most of day **B** most of day **C** the most of the day **D** most of the day	88
11.9	I asked two people how to get to the station, but ..... of them knew. **A** none **B** either **C** both **D** neither	89
11.10	Our holiday was a disaster. ..... went wrong. **A** Everything **B** All **C** All things **D** All of things	90
11.11	The bus service is excellent. There's a bus ..... ten minutes. **A** each **B** every **C** all	90, 91
11.12	There were four books on the table. ..... a different colour. **A** Each of books was **B** Each of the books was **C** Each book was	91
Relative clauses		
12.1	I don't like stories ..... have unhappy endings. **A** that **B** they **C** which **D** who	92
12.2	I didn't believe them at first, but in fact everything ..... was true. **A** they said **B** that they said **C** what they said	93
12.3	We helped some people ..... . **A** their car had broken down **B** which car had broken down **C** whose car had broken down **D** that their car had broken down	94
12.4	Anna told me about her new job, ... a lot. **A** that she's enjoying **B** which she's enjoying **C** she's enjoying **D** she's enjoying it	95
12.5	Sarah couldn't meet us, ... was a shame. **A** that **B** it **C** what **D** which	96
12.6	George showed me some pictures ..... by his father. **A** painting **B** painted **C** that were painted **D** they were painted	97, 92

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT

Adjectives and adverbs

13.1	Jane doesn't enjoy her job any more. She's ..... because every day she does exactly the same thing. **A** boring **B** bored	98
13.2	Lisa was carrying a ..... bag. **A** black small plastic **B** small and black plastic **C** small black plastic **D** plastic small black	99
13.3	Maria's English is excellent. She speaks ..... . **A** perfectly English **B** English perfectly **C** perfect English **D** English perfect	100
13.4	He ..... to find a job, but he had no luck. **A** tried hard **B** tried hardly **C** hardly tried	101
13.5	I haven't seen her for ....., I've forgotten what she looks like. **A** so long **B** so long time **C** a such long time **D** such a long time	102
13.6	Don't stand on that chair. It isn't ..... . **A** enough strong to stand on **B** strong enough to stand on it **C** strong enough to stand on **D** strong enough for stand on	103
13.7	Sarah is doing OK at the moment. She has..... . **A** a quite good job **B** quite a good job **C** a pretty good job	104
13.8	The exam was quite easy – ..... I expected. **A** more easy that **B** more easy than **C** easier than **D** easier as	105
13.9	The more expensive the hotel, ... **A** the service will be better **B** will be better the service **C** the better the service **D** better the service will be	106
13.10	Patrick is a fast runner. I can't run as fast as ..... . **A** he **B** him **C** he can	107
13.11	What's ..... you've ever made? **A** most important decision **B** the more important decision **C** the decision more important **D** the most important decision	108
13.12	Ben likes walking. ..... . **A** Every morning he walks to work **B** He walks to work every morning **C** He walks every morning to work **D** He every morning walks to work	109
13.13	Joe never phones me. ..... . **A** Always I have to phone him **B** I always have to phone him **C** I have always to phone him **D** I have to phone always him	110
13.14	Lucy ..... . She left last month. **A** still doesn't work here **B** doesn't still work here **C** no more works here **D** doesn't work here any more **E** no longer works here	111
13.15	..... she can't drive, she has a car. **A** Even **B** Even when **C** Even if **D** Even though	112, 113

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
Conjunctions and prepositions		
14.1	I couldn't sleep ..... very tired. **A** although I was **B** despite I was **C** despite of being **D** in spite of being	**113**
14.2	You should insure your bike ..... stolen. **A** in case it will be **B** if it will be **C** in case it is **D** if it is	**114**
14.3	The club is for members only. You ..... you're a member. **A** can't go in if **B** can go in only if **C** can't go in unless **D** can go in unless	**115**
14.4	Yesterday we watched TV all evening ..... we didn't have anything better to do. **A** when **B** as **C** while **D** since	**116**
14.5	'What's that noise?' 'It sounds ..... a baby crying.' **A** as **B** like **C** as if **D** as though	**117, 118**
14.6	They are very kind to me. They treat me ..... their own son. **A** like I'm **B** as if I'm **C** as if I was **D** as if I were	**118**
14.7	I'm going to be in Moscow next week. I hope the weather will be good ..... . **A** while I'll be there **B** while I'm there **C** during my visit **D** during I'm there	**119**
14.8	Joe is away at the moment. I don't know exactly when he's coming back, but I'm sure he'll be back ..... Monday. **A** by **B** until	**120**
Prepositions		
15.1	Bye! I'll see you ..... . **A** at Friday morning **B** on Friday morning **C** in Friday morning **D** Friday morning	**121**
15.2	I'm going away ..... the end of January. **A** at **B** on **C** in	**122**
15.3	When we were in Italy, we spent a few days ..... Venice. **A** at **B** to **C** in	**123, 125**
15.4	Our apartment is ..... the second floor of the building. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	**124**
15.5	I saw Steve ..... a conference on Saturday. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	**125**
15.6	What time did you ..... the hotel? **A** arrive to **B** arrive at **C** arrive in **D** get to **E** get in	**126**
15.7	I'm going ..... holiday next week. I'll be away for two weeks. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** for	**127**
15.8	We travelled ..... 6.45 train, which arrived at 8.30. **A** in the **B** on the **C** by the **D** by	**128**
15.9	'Who is this painting ..... ? Picasso?' 'I have no idea.' **A** of **B** from **C** by	**128**

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IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
15.10 The accident was my fault, so I had to pay for the damage ..... the other car. **A** of **B** for **C** to **D** on **E** at	129
15.11 I like them very much. They have always been very nice ..... me. **A** of **B** for **C** to **D** with	130
15.12 I'm not very good ..... repairing things. **A** at **B** for **C** in **D** about	131
15.13 I don't understand this sentence. Can you ..... ? **A** explain to me this word **B** explain me this word **C** explain this word to me	132
15.14 If you're worried about the problem, you should do something ..... it. **A** for **B** about **C** against **D** with	133
15.15 'Who is Tom Hart?' 'I have no idea. I've never heard ..... him.' **A** about **B** from **C** after **D** of	134
15.16 I don't know what time we'll arrive. It depends ..... the traffic. **A** of **B** for **C** from **D** on	135
15.17 I prefer tea ..... coffee. **A** to **B** than **C** against **D** over	136, 59
Phrasal verbs	
16.1 These shoes are uncomfortable. I'm going to ..... . **A** take off **B** take them off **C** take off them	137
16.2 They were playing cards, so I ..... . **A** joined in **B** came in **C** got in **D** broke in	138
16.3 Nobody believed Paul at first, but he ..... to be right. **A** worked out **B** came out **C** found out **D** turned out	139
16.4 We can't ..... making a decision. We have to decide now. **A** put away **B** put over **C** put off **D** put out	140
16.5 'Have you finished painting the kitchen?' 'Nearly. I'll ..... tomorrow.' **A** finish it up **B** finish it over **C** finish it off	141
16.6 You can always rely on Paul. He'll never ..... . **A** put you up **B** let you down **C** take you over **D** see you off	142
16.7 Children under 16 ..... half the population of the city. **A** make up **B** put up **C** take up **D** bring up	143
16.8 I'm surprised to hear that Kate and Paul have ..... . They seemed very happy together. **A** broken up **B** ended up **C** finished up **D** split up	144
16.9 I parked in a no-parking zone, but I ..... it. **A** came up with **B** got away with **C** made off with **D** got on with	145

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Key to Exercises

In some of the exercises you have to use your own ideas to write sentences. Example answers are given in the Key. If possible, check your answers with somebody who speaks English well.

UNIT 1

1.1
2 He's tying / He is tying
3 They're crossing / They are crossing
4 He's scratching / He is scratching
5 She's hiding / She is hiding
6 They're waving / They are waving

1.2
2 e
3 g
4 a
5 d
6 h
7 b
8 c

1.3
2 Why are you crying?
3 Is she working today?
4 What are you doing these days?
5 What is she studying? / What's she studying?
6 What are they doing?
7 Are you enjoying it?
8 Why are you walking so fast?

1.4
3 I'm not listening / I am not listening
4 She's having / She is having
5 He's learning / He is learning
6 they aren't speaking / they're not speaking / they are not speaking
7 it's getting / it is getting
8 isn't working / 's not working / is not working
9 I'm looking / I am looking
10 It's working / It is working
11 They're building / They are building
12 He's not enjoying / He is not enjoying
13 The weather's changing / The weather is changing
14 He's starting / He is starting

UNIT 2

2.1
2 go
3 causes
4 closes
5 live
6 take
7 connects

2.2
2 do the banks close
3 don't use
4 does Maria come
5 do you do
6 does this word mean
7 doesn't do
8 takes … does it take

2.3
3 rises
4 make
5 don't eat
6 doesn't believe
7 translates
8 don't tell
9 flows

2.4
2 Does your sister play tennis?
3 How often do you go to the cinema?
4 What does your brother do?
5 Do you speak Spanish?
6 Where do your grandparents live?

2.5
2 I promise
3 I insist
4 I apologise
5 I recommend
6 I agree

UNIT 3

3.1
3 is trying
4 phones
5 *OK*
6 are they talking
7 *OK*
8 *OK*
9 It's getting / It is getting
10 I'm coming / I am coming
11 He always starts
12 *OK*

3.2
2 a Are you listening
b Do you listen
3 a flows
b is flowing / 's flowing
4 a I don't do
b do you usually do
5 a She's staying / She is staying
b She always stays

3.3
2 She speaks
3 Everybody's waiting / Everybody is waiting
4 do you pronounce
5 isn't working / is not working / 's not working
6 is improving
7 lives
8 I'm starting / I am starting
9 They're visiting / They are visiting
10 does your father do
11 it doesn't take
12 I'm learning / I am learning … is teaching / 's teaching

3.4
2 It's always breaking down.
3 I'm always making the same mistake. / … that mistake.
4 You're always leaving your phone at home.

UNIT 4

4.1
2 believes
3 I don't remember / I do not remember *or* I can't remember
4 I'm using / I am using
5 I need
6 consists
7 does he want
8 is he looking
9 Do you recognise
10 I'm thinking / I am thinking
11 do you think
12 he seems

4.2
2 I'm thinking.
3 Who does this umbrella belong to?
4 This smells good.
5 Is anybody sitting there?
6 These gloves don't fit me.

4.3
3 *OK* (I feel *is also correct*)
4 does it taste
5 *OK*
6 do you see
7 *OK*

4.4
2 's / is
3 's being / is being
4 're / are
5 are you being
6 Are you

UNIT 5

5.1
2 had
3 She walked to work
4 It took her (about) half an hour
5 She started work
6 She didn't have (any) lunch. / … eat (any) lunch.
7 She finished work
8 She was tired when she got home.
9 She cooked / She made
10 She didn't go
11 She went to bed
12 She slept

5.2
2 taught
3 sold
4 fell … hurt
5 threw … caught
6 spent … bought … cost

5.3
2 did you travel / did you go
3 did it take (you) / was your trip / were you there
4 did you stay
5 Was the weather
6 Did you go to / Did you see / Did you visit

5.4
3 didn't disturb
4 left
5 were
6 didn't sleep
7 didn't cost
8 flew
9 didn't have
10 wasn't

UNIT 6

6.1
2 wasn't listening
3 were sitting
4 was working
5 weren't looking
6 was snowing
7 were you going
8 was looking

6.2
2 e
3 a
4 g
5 c
6 d
7 b

6.3
1 didn't see … was looking
2 was cycling … stepped … was going … managed … didn't hit

6.4
2 were you doing
3 Did you go
4 were you driving … happened
5 took … wasn't looking
6 didn't know … did
7 saw … was trying
8 was walking … heard … was following … started
9 wanted … changed
10 dropped … was doing … didn't break

UNIT 7

7.1
2 Her English has improved.
3 My bag has disappeared.
4 Lisa has broken her leg.
5 The bus fare has gone up.
6 Dan has grown a beard.
7 It's stopped raining. / It has stopped raining.
8 My sweater has shrunk. / My sweater's shrunk.

7.2
2 been
3 gone
4 gone
5 been

7.3
2 Have you seen it
3 I've forgotten / I have forgotten
4 he hasn't replied
5 has it finished
6 The weather has changed
7 You haven't signed
8 have they gone
9 He hasn't decided yet
10 I've just seen her / I have just seen her
11 He's already gone / He has already gone
12 Has your course started yet
You can also use the past simple (**Did** you **see**, he **didn't reply** *etc.*) *in this exercise.*

7.4
2 he's just gone out / he has just gone out *or* he just went out
3 I haven't finished yet. *or* I didn't finish yet.
4 I've already done it. / I have already done it. *or* I already did it. / I did it already.
5 Have you found a place to live yet? *or* Did you find a place …?
6 I haven't decided yet. *or* I didn't decide yet.
7 she's just come back / she has just come back *or* she just came back

UNIT 8

8.1
2 Have you ever been to California?
3 Have you ever run a marathon?
4 Have you ever spoken to a famous person?
5 What's the most beautiful place you've ever visited? / … you have ever visited?

8.2
3 haven't eaten
4 I haven't played (it)
5 I've had / I have had
6 I haven't read
7 I've never been / I haven't been
8 it's happened / it has happened *or* that's happened / that has happened
9 I've never tried / I haven't tried *or* I've never eaten / I haven't eaten
10 's been / has been
11 I've never seen / I haven't seen

8.3
Example answers:
2 I haven't travelled by bus this week.
3 I haven't been to the cinema recently.
4 I haven't read a book for ages.
5 I haven't lost anything today.

8.4
2 It's the first time they've seen a giraffe. / … they have seen …
3 She's / She has never ridden a horse before.
4 This is the second time they've been to Japan. / … they have been to Japan.
5 It's not the first time she's / she has / Emily has stayed at this hotel.
6 He's / He has / Ben has never played tennis before. *or* He/Ben hasn't played tennis before.

UNIT 9

9.1
2 's been watching TV / has been watching TV *or* … watching television
3 've been playing tennis / have been playing tennis
4 's been running / has been running

9.2
2 Have you been waiting long?
3 What have you been doing?
4 How long have you been working here?
5 How long have you been doing that?

9.3
2 've been waiting / have been waiting
3 've been learning Japanese / have been learning Japanese
4 She's been working there / She has been working there
5 They've been going there / They have been going there *or* … going to Italy

9.4
2 I've been looking / I have been looking
3 are you looking
4 She's been teaching / She has been teaching
5 I've been thinking / I have been thinking
6 he's working / he is working
7 She's been working / She has been working
8 you're driving / you are driving
9 has been travelling

UNIT 10

10.1
2 She's been travelling / She has been travelling …
She's visited / She has visited …
3 He's won / He has won …
He's been playing tennis / He has been playing …
4 They've been making / They have been making …
They've made / They have made …

10.2
2 Have you been waiting long?
3 Have you caught any fish?
4 How many people have you invited?
5 How long have you been teaching?
6 How many books have you written?
How long have you been writing books?
7 How long have you been saving (money)?
How much money have you saved?

10.3
2 Somebody's broken / Somebody has broken
3 Have you been working
4 Have you ever worked
5 has she gone
6 I've had / I have had
7 I've been watching / I have been watching
8 He's appeared / He has appeared
9 I haven't been waiting
10 you've been crying / you have been crying
11 it's stopped / it has stopped
12 They've been playing / They have been playing
13 I've lost / I have lost … Have you seen
14 I've been reading / I have been reading … I haven't finished
15 I've read / I have read

UNIT 11

11.1
2 have you lived
3 It's raining
4 has been
5 Have you been waiting
6 We're living
7 I haven't known
8 She's
9 have you had
10 I've been feeling

11.2
2 How long have you known Katherine?
3 How long has your sister been in Australia?
4 How long have you been teaching English? / How long have you taught English?
5 How long have you had that jacket?
6 How long has Joe been working at the airport? / How long has Joe worked at the airport?
7 Have you always lived in Chicago?

11.3
3 's been / has been
4 's / is
5 haven't played
6 've been waiting / have been waiting
7 've known / have known
8 hasn't been
9 lives *or* 's living / is living
10 's lived / has lived *or* 's been living / has been living
11 's been watching / has been watching
12 haven't watched
13 've had / have had
14 haven't been
15 've always wanted / have always wanted

UNIT 12

12.1
2 for (*also correct without* for)
3 for (*also correct without* for)
4 since
5 for
6 since
7 since
8 for

12.2
2 How long have you had this car?
3 How long have you been waiting?
4 When did your course start?
5 When did Anna arrive in London?
6 How long have you known each other?

12.3
3 He has been ill/unwell since Sunday.
4 She got married a year ago.
5 I've had a headache since I woke up.
6 The meeting started/began at 9 o'clock.
7 I've been working in a hotel for six months. / I've been working there …
8 Kate started learning Japanese a long time ago.

12.4
2 No, I haven't seen Lisa/her for about a month.
3 No, I haven't been swimming for a long time.
4 No, I haven't ridden a bike for ages.
6 No, it's about a month since I (last) saw Lisa/her. *or*
No, it's been about a month since …
7 No, it's a long time since I (last) went swimming. *or*
No, it's been a long time since …
8 No, it's ages since I (last) rode a bike. *or* No, it's been ages since …

UNIT 13

13.1
2 has gone
3 forgot
4 went
5 had
6 has broken

13.2
3 did William Shakespeare write
4 *OK*
5 Who invented
6 *OK*
7 We washed
8 Where were you born?
9 *OK*
10 Albert Einstein was the scientist who developed

13.3
3 I've forgotten / I have forgotten
4 arrested
5 it's improved / it has improved
6 Have you finished
7 I applied
8 It was
9 There's been / There has been
10 did you find … It was
11 He's / He has broken … *or* He broke … did that happen … He fell

UNIT 14

14.1
3 *OK*
4 I bought
5 Where were you
6 Maria left school
7 *OK*
8 *OK*
9 *OK*
10 When was this bridge built?

14.2
2 The weather has been cold recently.
3 It was cold last week.
4 I didn't eat any fruit yesterday.
5 I haven't eaten any fruit today.
6 Emily has earned a lot of money this year.
7 She didn't earn so much last year.
8 Have you had a holiday recently?

14.3
3 I didn't sleep
4 There was … there were
5 worked … he gave
6 She's lived / She has lived
7 died … I never met
8 I've never met / I have never met
9 I haven't seen
10 Did you go … was
11 It's been / It has been … it was
12 have you lived / have you been living … did you live … did you live

14.4
Example answers:
2 I haven't bought anything today.
3 I didn't watch TV yesterday.
4 I went out with some friends yesterday evening.
5 I haven't been to the cinema recently.
6 I've read a lot of books recently.

UNIT 15

15.1
3 It had changed a lot.
4 I hadn't heard it before.
5 She'd arranged to do something else. / She had arranged …
6 The film had already started.
7 We hadn't been there before.
8 I hadn't seen him for five years.
9 They'd just had lunch. / They had just had …
10 He'd never played before. / He had never played …

15.2
2 there was …
She'd gone / She had gone
3 He'd just come back from /
He had just come back from
… He looked
4 got a phone call
He was
He'd sent her / He had sent her …
she'd never replied (to them) / she had never replied (to them)

15.3
2 I went
3 had gone
4 he'd already travelled / he had already travelled
5 broke
6 we saw … had broken … we stopped

UNIT 16

16.1
2 They'd been playing football. / They had been playing …
3 I'd been looking forward to it. / I had been looking forward …
4 She'd been having a bad dream. / She had been having …
5 He'd been watching a film. / He had been watching …
6 They'd been waiting a long time. / They had been waiting …

16.2
2 I'd been waiting / I had been waiting … I realised (that) I was (in …)
3 went … had been working *or* had worked
4 had been playing … started
5 *Example answer*:
I'd been walking for about ten minutes when a car suddenly stopped just behind me.

16.3
2 We'd been travelling
3 He was looking
4 She'd been running
5 He was walking
6 I'd had it
7 I'd been going
8 I've been training
9 (When I finally arrived,) she was waiting … she'd been waiting (such a long time)
10 a he was already working
b had already been working
c He's been working

UNIT 17

17.1
2 h
3 c
4 g
5 b
6 a
7 e
8 f

17.2
3 don't have / haven't got (haven't *is less usual*)
4 didn't have
5 doesn't have / hasn't got (hasn't *is less usual*)
6 do you have / have you got (have you *is less usual*)
7 didn't have
8 Does he have / Has he got (Has he *is less usual*)
9 did you have
10 don't have / haven't got
11 had … didn't

17.3
3 I didn't have / hadn't got my phone
4 I have a cold *or* I've got a cold
5 *OK*
6 I didn't have any energy
7 *OK* (*or* It hasn't got many shops.)
8 Did you have (Had you *is unusual*)
9 *OK*
10 he had a beard
11 *OK* (*or* We've got plenty of time.)
12 do you have a shower

17.4
2 has a break
3 had a party
4 have a look
5 's having / is having a nice time
6 had a chat
7 Did you have trouble
8 had a baby
9 was having a shower
10 haven't had a holiday / haven't had a break

UNIT 18

18.1
2 used to have/ride
3 used to live
4 used to be
5 used to eat/like/love
6 used to take
7 used to be
8 used to work

18.2
2 used
3 used to be
4 did
5 used to
6 use
7 to
8 be able
9 didn't

18.3
2–6
- She used to be very lazy, but she works very hard these days.
- She didn't use to like cheese, but she eats lots of cheese now. *or* She used not to like cheese, but …
- She used to play the piano, but she hasn't played the piano for a long time. / … played it for a long time.
- She didn't use to drink tea, but she likes it now. *or* She used not to drink tea, but …
- She used to have a dog, but it died two years ago.

18.4
Example answers:
3 I used to be a vegetarian, but now I eat meat sometimes.
4 I used to watch TV a lot, but I don't watch it much now.
5 I used to hate getting up early, but now it's no problem.
7 I didn't use to drink coffee, but I drink it every day now.
8 I didn't use to like hot weather, but now I love it.

UNIT 19

19.1
2 How long are you going for?
3 When are you leaving?
4 Are you going alone?
5 Are you travelling by car?
6 Where are you staying?

19.2
2 We're having
3 I'm not working
4 I'm leaving
5 are you going
6 Laura isn't coming / Laura's not coming
7 I'm going
8 He's working / He is working

19.3
Example answers:
2 I'm working tomorrow morning.
3 I'm not doing anything tomorrow evening.
4 I'm going swimming next Sunday.
5 I'm going to a party this evening.

19.4
2 Are you going
3 he's moving / he is moving
4 I'm going / I am going … does it start
5 we're meeting / we are meeting
6 Are you doing
7 does this term end … starts
8 We're going / We are going … Who's getting / Who is getting
9 Are you watching
10 leaves … arrives
11 It finishes
12 I'm not using / I am not using

UNIT 20

20.1
2 What are you going to wear?
3 Where are you going to put it?
4 Who are you going to invite?
5 How are you going to cook it?

20.2
2 I'm going to try
3 I'm going to say
4 I'm going to wash
5 I'm not going to accept
6 I'm going to learn
7 I'm going to run
8 I'm going to complain
9 I'm not going to tell

20.3
2 He's going to be late.
3 The boat is going to sink.
4 They're going to run out of petrol.
5 It's going to cost a lot (of money) to repair the car.

20.4
2 was going to buy
3 were going to play
4 was going to phone
5 was going to be
6 was going to give up
7 were you going to say

UNIT 21

21.1
2 I'll turn / I'll switch / I'll put
3 I'll check
4 I'll do
5 I'll show
6 I'll have
7 I'll stay / I'll wait
8 I'll try

21.2
2 I think I'll go to bed.
3 I think I'll go for a walk.
4 I don't think I'll have (any) lunch.
5 I don't think I'll go swimming today.

21.3
3 I'll meet
4 I'll stay
5 I'm having
6 I won't forget
7 we're going
8 Are you doing
9 Will you do
10 Do you go
11 won't tell
12 I'll do

21.4
2 Where shall we go (on holiday)?
3 Shall I buy it?
4 Shall we get a taxi (or) (shall we) walk?
5 What shall I give/buy/get Helen (for her birthday)?
6 What time shall we meet?

UNIT 22

22.1
2 won't
3 'll / will
4 won't
5 'll / will
6 won't

22.2
2 It will look
3 you'll like / you will like
4 You'll enjoy / You will enjoy
5 You'll get / You will get
6 people will live
7 we'll meet / we will meet
8 she'll come / she will come
9 she'll mind
10 it will be

22.3
2 Do you think it will rain?
3 When do you think it will end?
4 How much do you think it will cost?
5 Do you think they'll get married? / … they will get married?
6 What time do you think you'll be back? / … you will be back?
7 What do you think will happen?

22.4
Example answers:
2 I'll be in bed.
3 I'll be at work.
4 I'll probably be at home.
5 I don't know where I'll be.

22.5
2 I'll never forget it.
3 You'll laugh
4 I'm going
5 will win
6 is coming
7 It won't hurt
8 What will happen
9 we're going

UNIT 23

23.1
2 I'll lend
3 I'm going to wash
4 I'll show
5 are you going to paint
6 I'm going to buy
7 I'll have
8 I'm not going to finish
9 (What) is he going to study / (What)'s he going to study
10 I'll call
11 he's going to have … he's going to do

23.2
2 I'll see
3 I'm going to sell
4 you'll find (you're going to find *is also possible*)
5 a I'm going to throw
5 b I'll have it.
6 a I'll take
6 b Amy is going to take (*or* Amy is taking)

23.3
2 d
3 h
4 g
5 c
6 a
7 e
8 b

UNIT 24

24.1
2 b *is true*
3 a *and* c *are true*
4 b *and* d *are true*
5 c *and* d *are true*
6 c *is true*

24.2
2 be going
3 won't be playing
4 will be starting
5 be watching
6 will you be doing
7 won't be going
8 will be landing

24.3
2 we'll be playing / we will be playing
3 She'll be waiting / She will be waiting
4 it will have finished (*or* it will be finished)
5 you'll still be living / you will still be living
6 she'll have travelled / she will have travelled
7 I'll be staying / I will be staying
8 he'll have spent / he will have spent
9 I won't be doing / I will not be doing

UNIT 25

25.1
2 we'll let
3 starts
4 it changes
5 I'll make
6 I'm 40
7 I'll wait
8 he grows up
9 you're
10 is
11 will be
12 you've had

25.2
2 she goes
3 you know
4 I'll wait / I will wait … you're / you are
5 Will you still be … I get
6 there are … I'll let / I will let
7 You won't recognise / You will not recognise … you see
8 you need … I'm / I am

25.3
2 it gets dark
3 you decide *or* you've decided / you have decided
4 you're in Hong Kong / you go to Hong Kong
5 build the new road *or* 've built the new road / have built the new road
6 she apologises *or* she's apologised / she has apologised

25.4
2 if
3 If
4 when
5 If
6 When
7 if
8 if

UNIT 26

26.1
3 can
4 be able to
5 been able to
6 can (*or* will be able to)
7 be able to
8 can
9 be able to

26.2
Example answers:
2 I used to be able to run fast.
3 I'd like to be able to play the piano.
4 I've never been able to get up early.

26.3
2 could run
3 can wait
4 couldn't sleep
5 can't hear
6 couldn't believe

26.4
2 was able to finish it
3 were able to solve it
4 was able to get away

26.5
4 couldn't
5 managed to
6 could
7 managed to
8 could
9 couldn't
10 managed to

UNIT 27

27.1
2 e
3 b
4 f
5 a
6 d

27.2
2 could
3 can
4 could
5 can
6 can
7 could
8 can
9 could
10 could

27.3
2 could have come
3 could be
4 could have been
5 could have
6 could come
7 have moved
8 gone

27.4
3 couldn't wear
4 couldn't have managed
5 couldn't have been
6 couldn't afford (*or* couldn't manage)
7 couldn't have studied
8 couldn't stand

UNIT 28

28.1
2 must
3 can't
4 must
5 must
6 can't
7 must
8 can't
9 must
10 can't
11 must

28.2
3 know
4 have left
5 be
6 have been
7 be looking
8 have heard
9 have been
10 be joking
11 get / be getting *or* have

28.3
3 It must have been very expensive.
4 They must have gone away.
5 I must have left it in the restaurant last night.
6 It can't have been easy for her.
7 He must have been waiting for somebody.
8 She can't have understood what I said. *or* She couldn't have understood what I said.
9 I must have forgotten to lock it.
10 They must have been having a party.
11 The driver can't have seen the red light. *or* The driver couldn't have seen …
12 He can't have worn them much.

UNIT 29

29.1
2 might know
3 might be Brazilian
4 may not be possible
5 may be Tom's
6 might be driving
7 might have one
8 may not be feeling well

29.2
2 have been
3 have arrived
4 be waiting
5 have told
6 have gone
7 be watching
8 have
9 have left
10 have heard
11 have forgotten

29.3
2 might not have wanted
3 couldn't have been
4 couldn't have tried
5 might not have been American

UNIT 30

30.1
2 I'm going to get
3 He might come
4 I might hang
5 She's going
6 I might go away

30.2
2 might wake
3 might spill
4 might need
5 might hear
6 might slip

30.3
2 might have to leave
3 might be able to meet
4 might have to pay
5 might have to wait
6 might be able to fix

30.4
2 I might not recognise him.
3 We might not be able to get tickets for the game.
4 I might not have time to do the shopping.
5 I might not be able to go to the wedding.

30.5
2 I might as well buy a new one.
3 I might as well paint the bathroom too.
4 We might as well watch it.

UNIT 31

31.1
3 I have to go / I'll have to go
4 do you have to go / will you have to go
5 he has to get up
6 We had to run
7 does she have to work
8 I had to do
9 do you have to be
10 We had to close
11 did you have to pay

31.2
3 have to make
4 don't have to decide
5 had to ask
6 don't have to pay
7 didn't have to go
8 has to make
9 had to stand
10 will have to drive / 'll have to drive / is going to have to drive

31.3
3 *OK* (I **have to** remember *is also correct*)
4 I **had to** walk home.
5 *OK* (You **have to** come *is also correct*)
6 He **has to** study
7 We **have to** go
8 She **has had to** wear glasses since . . .
For the present perfect (**has had**) *with* **since**, *see Units 11–12*.

31.4
3 don't have to
4 mustn't
5 don't have to
6 doesn't have to
7 don't have to
8 mustn't
9 mustn't
10 don't have to

UNIT 32

32.1
2 d
3 b
4 e
5 g
6 a
7 c

32.2
2 must
3 mustn't
4 don't need to
5 mustn't
6 needn't
7 mustn't
8 don't need to
9 needn't . . . must

32.3
2 needn't come
3 needn't walk
4 needn't keep
5 needn't worry

32.4
2 You needn't have walked home. You could have taken a taxi.
3 They needn't have stayed at a hotel. They could have stayed with us.
4 She needn't have phoned me at 3 am. She could have waited until the morning.
5 You needn't have shouted at me. You could have been more patient.

32.5
3 You **needn't shout**. / You **don't need to** shout. / You **don't have to** shout.
4 I **didn't need to go** out. / I **didn't have to go** out.
5 *OK*
6 You **needn't** lock the door. / You **don't need to** lock the door. / You **don't have to** lock the door.
7 I **didn't need to say** anything. / I **didn't have to say** anything.
8 *OK*

UNIT 33

33.1
2 You should look for another job.
3 He shouldn't stay up so late.
4 You should take a picture.
5 She shouldn't worry so much.
6 He should put some pictures on the walls.

33.2
2 should be here soon
3 should be working OK
4 shouldn't take long
5 should receive
6 should be much warmer
7 shouldn't cost more
8 should solve

33.3
3 should do
4 should have done
5 should have won
6 should come
7 should have turned
8 should have done

33.4
2 We should have reserved a table.
3 I should have written down her address. / I should have written her address down. *or* I should have written it down.
4 The shop should be open (now / by now). / The shop should have opened by now. *or* It should . . .
5 I shouldn't have been looking at my phone. *or*
I should have looked / been looking where I was going.
6 She shouldn't be doing 50. / She shouldn't be driving so fast. / She should be driving more slowly.
7 I shouldn't have gone to work (yesterday).
8 Team A should win (the match).
9 The driver in front shouldn't have stopped without warning. / . . . shouldn't have stopped so suddenly.

UNIT 34

34.1
2 I should stay / I stay / I stayed a little longer
3 they should visit / they visit / they visited the museum after lunch
4 we should pay / we pay / we paid the rent by Friday
5 we should go / we go / we went to the cinema

34.2
2 *OK* ('suggested that we should meet' *is also correct*)
3 What do you suggest I do / I should do
4 *OK* ('suggest I buy' *is also correct*)
5 I suggest you read / you should read …
6 *OK* ('suggested that Anna should learn', 'suggested that Anna learns' *and* 'suggested that Anna learnt/learned' *are also correct*)

34.3
2 should say
3 should worry
4 should leave
5 should ask
6 should vote
7 should be done

34.4
2 If it should rain
3 If there should be any problems
4 If anyone should ask
6 Should it rain
7 Should there be any problems
8 Should anyone ask

34.5
2 I should keep
3 I should call
4 I should get

UNIT 35

35.1
2 We'd better reserve a table.
3 You'd better put a plaster on it.
4 You'd better not go to work this morning.
5 I'd/We'd better check what time the film starts.
6 I'd better not disturb her right now.

35.2
2 *OK*
3 You **should** come more often.
4 *OK*
5 *OK*
6 everybody **should** learn a foreign language
7 *OK*

35.3
2 had
3 not
4 should
5 to
6 I'd
7 were
8 better
9 hadn't
10 do
11 did
12 was

35.4
2 It's time I had a holiday.
3 It's time the children were in bed. / … went to bed.
4 It's time I started cooking (the) dinner.
5 It's time she/Kate stopped complaining about everything.
6 It's time (some) changes were made

UNIT 36

36.1
Example answers:
2 I wouldn't like to be a teacher.
3 I'd love to learn to fly a plane.
4 It would be nice to have a big garden.
5 I'd like to go to Mexico.

36.2
2 'd enjoy / would enjoy
3 'd have enjoyed / would have enjoyed
4 would you do
5 'd have stopped / would have stopped
6 would have been
7 'd be / would be
8 would have

36.3
2 e
3 b
4 f
5 a
6 d

36.4
2 He promised he'd call. / … he would call.
3 You promised you wouldn't tell her. *or* … wouldn't tell anyone/ anybody.
4 They promised they'd wait (for us). / … they would wait.

36.5
2 wouldn't tell
3 wouldn't speak
4 wouldn't let

36.6
2 would shake
3 would share
4 would always forget
5 would stay
6 would always smile

UNIT 37

37.1
2 g
3 d
4 b
5 a
6 h
7 f
8 c

37.2
2 Would you like
3 I'd like
4 Would you like to come
5 Can I take
6 I'd like to
7 Would you like to try
8 Do you mind

37.3
2 Can/Could I/we have the bill, please? *or* … get the bill?
3 Can/Could you check these forms (for me)? *or* Do you think you could check …?
4 Can/Could you turn the music down, please? / … turn it down? *or* Do you think you could turn …?
5 Is it OK if I close the window? *or* Is it all right if …? *or* Can I close …? *or* Do you mind if I close …?
6 Would you like to sit down? *or* Would you like a seat? *or* Can I offer you a seat?
7 Can/Could you tell me how to get to the station? *or* … the way to the station? *or* … where the station is?
8 Can/Could I try on these trousers? *or* Can/Could I try these (trousers) on? *or* I'd like to try on these trousers. *or* Is it OK if I try …
9 Can/Could I get your autograph? / … have your autograph? *or* Do you think I could get/have your autograph?

UNIT 38

38.1
2 dropped
3 lost
4 happened
5 went
6 did
7 was

38.2
2 b
3 a
4 b
5 b
6 a
7 b

38.3
2 I bought
3 would you invite
4 he asked
5 I'd be / I would be
6 somebody gave … I'd have / I would have
7 Would you be … you met
8 would you do … you were … it stopped

38.4
2 If we stayed at a hotel, it would cost too much.
3 If I told you what happened, you wouldn't believe me. *or* … believe it.
4 If she left her job, it would be hard to find another one.
5 If he applied for the job, he wouldn't get it.

UNIT 39

39.1
3 I'd help / I would help
4 It would taste
5 we lived
6 we'd live / we would live
7 I was / I were
8 it wasn't / it weren't
9 I wouldn't wait … I'd go / I would go
10 you didn't go … you wouldn't be
11 there weren't … there wouldn't be
12 would you do if you didn't have

39.2
2 I'd / I would buy them if they weren't so expensive.
3 We'd / We would go on holiday if we could afford it.
4 We could have lunch outside if it weren't/wasn't raining.
5 If I wanted his advice, I'd / I would ask for it.

39.3
2 I wish I had more free time.
3 I wish Helen were/was here.
4 I wish it weren't/wasn't (so) cold.
5 I wish I didn't live in a big city.
6 I wish I could find my phone.
7 I wish I was/were feeling well/better.
8 I wish I didn't have to get up early tomorrow.
9 I wish I knew more about science.

39.4
Example answers:
1 I wish I was at home.
2 I wish I had a big garden.
3 I wish I could tell jokes.
4 I wish I was taller.

UNIT 40

40.1
2 If she'd missed / she had missed (the train), she'd have missed / she would have missed (her flight too).
3 I'd have forgotten / I would have forgotten (if) you hadn't reminded
4 I'd had / I had had (your email address) I'd have sent / I would have sent (you an email)
5 they'd have enjoyed / they would have enjoyed (it more if the weather) had been (better)
6 It would have been (quicker if) we'd walked / we had walked
7 you'd told / you had told (me) I'd have tried / I would have tried
8 I were / I was
9 I'd been / I had been

40.2
2 If the road hadn't been icy, the accident wouldn't have happened.
3 If I'd known / If I had known (that you had to get up early), I'd have woken / I would have woken you up.
4 If I hadn't lost my phone (*or* If I'd had my phone), I'd have called you. *or* … I would have called you. *or* … I could have called you.
5 If Karen hadn't been wearing a seat belt, she'd have been injured / she would have been injured (in the crash). *or* … she might have been injured *or* … she could have been injured
6 If you'd had / If you had had (some) breakfast, you wouldn't be hungry now.
7 If I'd had / If I had had enough money, I'd have got / I would have got a taxi. (*or* … taken a taxi)
8 If Dan had done well/better at school, he could/would have gone to university.

40.3
2 I wish I'd learned / I wish I had learned to play a musical instrument (when I was younger). *or* I wish I could play … / I wish I was able to play …
3 I wish I hadn't painted it red. *or* … the gate red. *or* I wish I had painted it a different colour.
4 I wish we'd gone / I wish we had gone by train. *or* I wish we hadn't gone by car.
5 I wish we'd had / I wish we had had more time (to do all the things we wanted to do).
6 I wish I hadn't moved (to my new flat). *or* I wish I'd stayed where I was. / … stayed in my old flat.

UNIT 41

41.1
2 hope
3 wish
4 wished
5 hope
6 wish
7 hope

41.2
2 wasn't/weren't
3 'd told / had told
4 had / could have
5 could
6 hadn't bought
7 didn't have
8 have gone

41.3
2 I wish she would come. *or* … would hurry up.
3 I wish somebody would give me a job.
4 I wish the/that dog would stop barking.
5 I wish you wouldn't drive so fast.
6 I wish you wouldn't leave the door open (all the time).
7 I wish people wouldn't drop litter in the street.

41.4
3 I knew
4 we hadn't gone
5 the bus would come
6 I could come
7 it was/were
8 I'd taken / I had taken
9 you'd listen / you would listen
10 you wouldn't complain *or* you didn't complain
11 it wasn't/weren't
12 the weather would change
13 I had / I could have
14 we could have stayed

UNIT 42

42.1
2 is made
3 was damaged
4 are shown
5 were invited
6 's/is found
7 were overtaken
8 are held
9 was injured
10 is surrounded
11 was sent
12 is owned

42.2
2 When was television invented?
3 How are mountains formed?
4 When was DNA discovered?
5 What is silver used for?

42.3
2 a covers
b is covered
3 a was stolen
b disappeared
4 a died
b were brought up
5 a sank
b was rescued
6 a was fired
b resigned
7 a doesn't bother
b 'm/am not bothered
8 a was knocked
b fell
9 a are they called
b do you call

42.4
2 All flights were cancelled because of fog.
3 I was accused of stealing money.
4 How is this word used?
5 All taxes are included in the price.
6 We were warned not to go out alone.
7 This office isn't / is not used any more.
8 Five hundred people were invited to the wedding.

UNIT 43

43.1
3 be made
4 be kept
5 have been repaired
6 be carried
7 have been arrested
8 be delayed
9 have been caused
10 be knocked
11 be known
12 have been forgotten

43.2
3 It's been stolen! / It has been stolen!
4 Somebody has taken it. *or* … taken my umbrella.
5 He hasn't been seen since then.
6 I haven't seen her for ages.
7 Have you ever been stung by a bee?
8 It's / It is being repaired at the moment.
9 It hasn't / It has not been found yet.
10 The furniture had been moved.

43.3
2 A new road is being built
3 Two new hotels have been built
4 some new houses were being built
5 The date of the meeting has been changed.
6 I didn't know that our conversation was being recorded.
7 Is anything being done about the problem?
8 They hadn't / had not been cleaned for ages.

UNIT 44

44.1
2 was given
3 wasn't told / was not told
4 's paid / is paid
5 been shown
6 was asked
7 weren't given / were not given
8 to be offered

44.2
2 being invited
3 being given
4 being knocked down
5 being bitten
6 being treated
7 being stuck

44.3
2 got stung
3 get used
4 got stolen
5 get paid
6 get broken
7 get asked
8 got stopped

44.4
3 were
4 given
5 lost
6 being
7 get
8 doesn't
9 was
10 weren't

UNIT 45

45.1
2 Many people are reported to be homeless after the floods.
3 The thieves are thought to have got in through a window in the roof.
4 The driver (of the car) is alleged to have been driving at 110 miles an hour. *or* … to have driven at …
5 The building is reported to have been badly damaged by the fire.
6 The company is said to be losing a lot of money.
7 The company is believed to have lost a lot of money last year.
8 The company is expected to make a loss this year.

45.2
2 they're / they are supposed to be
3 it's / it is supposed to have been
4 they're / they are supposed to have won
5 the view is supposed to be
6 she's / she is supposed to be living

45.3
2 You're / You are supposed to be my friend.
3 I'm / I am supposed to be on a diet.
4 It was supposed to be a joke.
5 Or maybe it's / it is supposed to be a flower.
6 You're / You are supposed to be working.
7 It's supposed to be open every day.

45.4
2 're / are supposed to start
3 was supposed to phone
4 aren't / 're not / are not supposed to put
5 was supposed to depart
6 isn't / 's not / is not supposed to lift

UNIT 46

46.1
1 b
2 a
3 a
4 b

46.2
2 Sarah has her car serviced once a year.
3 Have you had your eyes tested recently?
4 I don't like having my hair cut.
5 It cost fifteen pounds to have my suit cleaned.
6 You need to get this document translated as soon as possible.

46.3
2 I had it cut.
3 We had them cleaned.
4 He had it built.
5 I had them delivered.
6 She had them repaired.

46.4
2 f
3 a
4 e
5 c
6 b

46.5
2 We had our bags searched.
3 I've had my salary increased. *or* I had my salary increased.
4 He's had his application refused. *or* He had his application refused.

UNIT 47

47.1
2 (that) it was too far
3 (that) she didn't want to go
4 (that) he would let me know next week.
5 (that) he hadn't seen her for a while
6 (that) I could borrow hers.
7 (that) she wasn't enjoying it very much
8 (that) he sold it a few months ago *or* he'd sold it … / he had sold it …
9 (that) she didn't know
10 (that) there were twenty students in her class

47.2

Example answers:

2 wasn't coming / was going somewhere else / couldn't come
3 they didn't like each other / they didn't get on with each other / they couldn't stand each other
4 he didn't know anyone
5 she would be away / she was going away
6 you were staying at home
7 you couldn't speak / you didn't speak any other languages
8 he'd seen you / he saw you last weekend

UNIT 48

48.1

2 But you said you didn't like fish.
3 But you said you couldn't drive.
4 But you said she had a very well-paid job.
5 But you said you didn't have any brothers or sisters.
6 But you said you'd / you had never been to the United States.
7 But you said you were working tomorrow evening.
8 But you said she was a friend of yours.

48.2

2 Tell
3 Say
4 said
5 told
6 said
7 told
8 said
9 tell … said
10 tell … say

48.3

2 her to slow down
3 her not to worry
4 asked Tom to give me a hand *or* … to help me
5 asked/told me to open my bag
6 told him to mind his own business
7 asked her to marry him
8 told her not to wait (for me) if I was late

UNIT 49

49.1

2 Were you born there?
3 Are you married?
4 How long have you been married?
5 What do you do?
6 What does your wife do?
7 Do you have (any) children? *or* Have you got (any) children?
8 How old are they?

49.2

3 Who paid the bill? / Who paid it?
4 What are you worried about?
5 What happened?
6 What did she/Diane say?
7 Who does it / this book belong to?
8 Who lives in that house? / Who lives there?
9 What did you fall over?
10 What fell off the shelf?
11 What does it / this word mean?
12 Who was she/Sarah with?
13 What are you looking for?
14 Who does she/Emma remind you of?

49.3

2 How is cheese made?
3 Why isn't Sue working today?
4 What time are your friends arriving?
5 Why was the meeting cancelled?
6 When was paper invented?
7 Where were your parents born?
8 Why didn't you come to the party?
9 How did the accident happen?
10 Why aren't you happy?
11 How many languages can you speak?

49.4

2 Don't you like him?
3 Isn't it good?
4 Don't you have any? *or* Haven't you got any?

UNIT 50

50.1

2 c
3 a
4 b
5 b
6 c
7 b
8 a

50.2

2 How far is it to the airport?
3 I wonder how old Tom is.
4 How long have they been married?
5 Do you know how long they have been married?
6 Could you tell me where the station is?
7 I don't know whether anyone was injured in the accident.
8 Do you know what time you will arrive tomorrow?

50.3

2 She asked me how long I'd been in London. *or* … how long I had been …
3 They asked me if/whether I'd been to London before. *or* … I had been …
4 She asked me if/whether I liked London.
5 He asked me where I was staying.
6 She asked me how long I was going to stay.
7 She asked me if/whether I thought London was expensive. *or* … is expensive.
8 They asked me why I'd come to London. *or* … why I had come … *or* … why I came …

UNIT 51

51.1

2 doesn't
3 was
4 has
5 will
6 should
7 won't
8 do
9 didn't
10 might
11 am … isn't *or* 'm not … is *or* can't … can *or* can't … is
12 would … could … can't

51.2

3 Do you? I don't.
4 Didn't you? I did.
5 Aren't you? I am.
6 Did you? I didn't.

51.3

Example answers:

3 So did I. *or* Did you? What did you watch?
4 Neither will I. *or* Won't you? Where will you be?
5 So do I. *or* Do you? What sort of books do you like?
6 So would I. *or* Would you? Where would you like to live?
7 Neither can I. *or* Can't you? Why not?
8 So am I. *or* Are you? Are you doing something nice?

51.4

2 I hope so.
3 I hope not.
4 I don't think so.
5 I suppose so.
6 I'm afraid so.
7 I think so.
8 I'm afraid not.

UNIT 52

52.1
3 don't you
4 were you
5 does she
6 isn't he
7 did it
8 can't you
9 will they
10 aren't there
11 shall we
12 is it
13 aren't I
14 would you
15 hasn't she
16 should I
17 had he
18 will you

52.2
2 It's (very) expensive, isn't it?
3 The course was great, wasn't it?
4 You've had your hair cut, haven't you? *or*
You had your hair cut, didn't you?
5 She has a good voice, doesn't she? *or* She has a good voice, hasn't she? *or* She's got / She has got a good voice, hasn't she?
6 It doesn't look right, does it?
7 This bridge isn't very safe, is it? *or* … doesn't look very safe, does it?

52.3
2 Joe, you couldn't help me (with this table), could you?
3 Lisa, you don't know where Sarah is, do you? *or*
… you haven't seen Sarah, have you?
4 Helen, you don't have a tennis racket, do you? *or*
… you haven't got a tennis racket, have you?
5 Anna, you couldn't take me to the station, could you? *or*
… you couldn't give me a lift to the station, could you?
6 Robert, you haven't seen my keys, have you?

UNIT 53

53.1
2 playing tennis
3 going for a walk
4 causing the accident
5 waiting a few minutes
6 not telling the truth *or* (She admitted) lying.

53.2
2 making
3 listening
4 applying
5 reading
6 living
7 travelling
8 forgetting
9 paying
10 trying
11 losing
12 interrupting

53.3
2 I don't mind you driving it.
3 Can you imagine anybody being so stupid?
4 We can't stop it raining.
5 I don't want to keep you waiting.

53.4
Example answers:
2 going out
3 sitting on the floor
4 having a picnic
5 laughing
6 breaking down

UNIT 54

54.1
2 to help him
3 to carry her bag (for her)
4 to meet at 8 o'clock
5 to tell him her name / to give him her name
6 not to tell anyone *or* (She promised) she wouldn't tell anyone.

54.2
2 to get
3 to live
4 to play
5 to tell
6 say *or* to say

54.3
2 to look
3 to move
4 waiting
5 to finish
6 barking
7 to be
8 having
9 missing
10 to say

54.4
2 Tom appears to be worried about something.
3 You seem to know a lot of people.
4 My English seems to be getting better.
5 That car appears to have broken down.
6 Rachel seems to be enjoying her job.
7 They claim to have solved the problem.

54.5
2 what to do
3 how to ride
4 whether to go
5 where to put
6 how to use

UNIT 55

55.1
2 or do you want me to lend you some
3 or would you like me to shut it
4 or would you like me to show you
5 or do you want me to repeat it
6 or do you want me to wait

55.2
2 to stay with them
3 to call Joe.
4 him to be careful
5 her to give him a hand

55.3
2 I didn't expect it to rain.
3 Let him do what he wants.
4 Tom's glasses make him look older.
5 I want you to know the truth.
6 Sarah persuaded me to apply for the job.
7 My lawyer advised me not to say anything to the police.
8 I was warned not to believe everything he says.
9 Having a car enables you to get around more easily.

55.4
2 to do
3 cry
4 to study
5 finish
6 do
7 to do
8 drive
9 change
10 to work

UNIT 56

56.1
2 driving
3 to go
4 going
5 to win
6 asking
7 asking
8 to answer
9 causing
10 to do
11 being
12 to climb
13 to tell
14 talking … to see

56.2

2 He doesn't remember crying
3 He remembers falling into the river.
4 He doesn't remember saying he wanted to be a doctor. *or* He doesn't remember wanting to be a doctor.
5 He doesn't remember being bitten by a dog.
6 He remembers his sister being born (when he was four).

56.3

1 b meeting
c leaving/putting
d to say
e lending
f to call/phone
2 a doing
b to say
c wearing / having / taking / putting on
d leaving / giving up
3 a to become
b working
c reading
d going up / rising / increasing

UNIT 57

57.1

2 to reach
3 knocking
4 to put
5 to concentrate
6 asking
7 calling
8 to remember
9 restarting

57.2

2 It needs cutting.
3 They need cleaning.
4 They need tightening.
5 It needs emptying.

57.3

2 washing
3 looking
4 to think
5 cutting
6 to go
7 to iron
8 ironing

57.4

2 look *or* to look
3 overhearing
4 smiling
5 make *or* to make
6 organise *or* to organise
7 thinking
8 get *or* to get

UNIT 58

58.1

Example answers:

2 I don't mind playing cards.
3 I don't like being alone. *or* … to be alone.
4 I enjoy going to museums.
5 I love cooking. *or* I love to cook.
6 I hate getting up early.

58.2

2 She likes teaching biology.
3 He likes taking pictures. *or* He likes to take pictures.
4 I didn't like working there.
5 She likes studying medicine.
6 He doesn't like being famous.
7 She doesn't like taking risks. *or* She doesn't like to take risks.
8 I like to know things in advance.

58.3

2 to sit
3 turning
4 doing *or* to do
5 to get
6 being
7 to come / to go
8 living / being
9 to talk
10 to have / to know / to get / to hear / to be told
11 to wait
12 losing *or* to lose

58.4

2 I would like / I'd like to have seen the programme.
3 I would hate / I'd hate to have lost my watch.
4 I would love / I'd love to have met your parents.
5 I wouldn't like to have been alone.
6 I would prefer / I'd prefer to have travelled by train.

UNIT 59

59.1

Example answers:

2 I prefer basketball to football.
3 I prefer going to the cinema to watching movies at home.
4 I prefer being very busy to having nothing to do.
6 I prefer to go to the cinema rather than watch movies at home. *or* I prefer going to the cinema rather than watching movies at home.
7 I prefer to be very busy rather than have nothing to do. *or* I prefer being very busy to having nothing to do.

59.2

3 prefer
4 eat / stay
5 I'd rather (wait) / I'd prefer to (wait)
6 to go
7 (I'd) rather (think) / (I'd) prefer to (think)
8 I'd prefer
9 go
11 I'd rather listen to some music than watch TV.
12 I'd prefer to eat/stay at home rather than go to a restaurant.
13 I'd rather go for a swim than play tennis. *or* … than have a game of tennis.
14 I'd prefer to think about it for a while rather than decide now.

59.3

2 (would you rather) I paid it
3 would you rather I did it
4 would you rather I phoned her

59.4

2 came
3 watch
4 than
5 didn't
6 was
7 to watch
8 didn't
9 did
10 rather than

UNIT 60

60.1

2 applying for the job
3 remembering names
4 winning the lottery
5 being late
6 eating at home
7 having to queue *or* (without) queuing
8 being 90 years old

60.2

2 by standing
3 by pressing
4 by borrowing
5 by driving
6 by putting

60.3

2 paying/settling
3 going
4 making
5 being/travelling/sitting
6 going
7 asking/telling/consulting/informing
8 doing/having
9 turning/going
10 taking
11 bending
12 buying

60.4

2 I'm looking forward to seeing her (again).
3 I'm not looking forward to going to the dentist (tomorrow).
4 She's looking forward to leaving school (next summer).
5 They're looking forward to moving (to their new apartment).

UNIT 61

61.1

2 used to going
3 used to working / used to being
4 used to walking
5 used to living

61.2

1 It took her a few months to **get used to** it. …
She**'s used to working** nights. / She **is used to working** nights.
2 When Jack started working in this job, he **wasn't used to** driving two hours to work every morning, but after some time he **got used to** it. … He**'s used to driving** two hours every morning. / He **is used to driving** …

61.3

2 No, I'm used to sleeping on the floor.
3 I'm used to working long hours.
4 I'm not used to the crowds (of people).

61.4

2 They soon got used to her. / … to the/their new teacher.
3 She had to get used to living in a much smaller house.
4 She can't get used to the weather.
5 He had to get used to having less money.

61.5

2 drink
3 eating
4 having
5 have/own
6 go
7 be
8 being

UNIT 62

62.1

2 doing
3 coming/going
4 doing/trying
5 buying/having
6 solving
7 buying/having/owning
8 seeing

62.2

2 of stealing
3 from taking off
4 of getting
5 on telling
6 to eating
7 for being
8 from walking (*or* … stop people walking)
9 for inviting
10 of using
11 of (not) trying

62.3

2 on taking Ann to the station
3 on getting married
4 Sue for coming to see her
5 (to me) for being late
6 me of not caring about other people

UNIT 63

63.1

2 h
3 d
4 g
5 b
6 a
7 e
8 c

63.2

2 There's no point in working if you don't need money.
3 There's no point in trying to study if you feel tired. *or* There's no point in studying if …
4 There's no point in hurrying if you have plenty of time.

63.3

2 remembering people's names
3 finding a job / getting a job
4 getting a ticket for the game
5 understanding one another

63.4

2 going / travelling / getting
3 getting
4 watching
5 going / climbing / walking
6 getting / being
7 practising
8 working
9 applying
10 trying

63.5

2 went swimming
3 go skiing
4 goes riding
5 's/has gone shopping *or* went shopping

UNIT 64

64.1

2 I opened the box to see what was in it.
3 I moved to a new apartment to be nearer my friends.
4 I couldn't find a knife to chop the onions. *or* … a knife to chop the onions with.
5 I called the police to report the accident.
6 I called the hotel to find out if they had any rooms free.
7 I employed an assistant to help me with my work.

64.2

2 to do
3 to walk
4 to drink
5 to put / to carry
6 to discuss / to consider / to talk about
7 to go / to travel
8 to talk / to speak
9 to wear / to put on
10 to celebrate
11 to help / to assist
12 to be

64.3

2 to
3 for
4 to
5 for
6 for
7 to
8 for … to

64.4

2 so that I wouldn't get/be cold.
3 so that he could contact me. / … would be able to contact me.
4 so that nobody else would hear us. / so that nobody else could hear us. / … would be able to hear us.
5 so that we can start the meeting on time. / so that we'll be able to start …
6 so that we wouldn't forget anything.
7 so that the car behind me could overtake. / … would be able to overtake.

UNIT 65

65.1

2 The window was difficult to open.
3 Some words are impossible to translate.
4 A car is expensive to maintain.
5 This meat isn't safe to eat.
6 My house is easy to get to from here.

65.2

2 It's an easy mistake to make.
3 It's a great place to live.
4 It was a strange thing to say.

65.3

2 glad
3 to hear
4 of you
5 to help
6 amazed
7 to make
8 not
9 silly

65.4

2 Paul was the last (person) to arrive.
3 Emily was the only student to pass (the exam). / … the only one to pass (the exam).
4 I was the second customer/person to complain.
5 Neil Armstrong was the first person/ man to walk on the moon.

65.5

2 You're / You are bound to be tired
3 He's / He is sure to forget
4 It's / It is not likely to rain *or* It isn't likely to rain
5 There's / There is sure to be

UNIT 66

66.1

3 I'm afraid of losing it.
4 I was afraid to tell her.
5 We were afraid of missing our train.
6 We were afraid to look.
7 I was afraid of dropping it.
8 Don't be afraid to ask.
9 I was afraid of running out of petrol.

66.2

2 interested in starting
3 interested to know / interested to hear
4 interested in studying
5 interested to hear / interested to know (interested in hearing/knowing *is also possible here*)
6 interested in looking

66.3

2 sorry to hear
3 sorry for saying / sorry I said
4 sorry to see
5 sorry for making / sorry I made

66.4

1 b to leave
  c from leaving
2 a to solve
  b to solve
  c in solving
3 a of going / about going
  b to go (*or* on going)
  c to go
  d to going
4 a to buy
  b on buying
  c to buy
  d of buying

UNIT 67

67.1

1 b give
2 a stopped
  b stop
3 a open
  b opened
4 a say
  b said (says *is also possible*)
5 a fell
  b fall

67.2

2 We saw Clare eating/sitting in a restaurant.
3 We saw David and Helen playing tennis.
4 We could smell something burning.
5 We could hear Bill playing his/the guitar.
6 We saw Linda jogging/running.

67.3

3 say
4 happen
5 crying
6 put
7 tell
8 explode
9 crawling
10 riding
11 slam
12 lying

UNIT 68

68.1

2 Amy was sitting in an armchair reading a book.
3 Nicola opened the door carefully trying not to make a noise.
4 Sarah went out saying she would be back in an hour.
5 Lisa worked in Rome for two years teaching English.
6 Anna walked around the town looking at the sights and taking pictures.

68.2

2 I got very wet walking in the rain.
3 Laura had an accident driving to work.
4 My friend slipped and fell getting off a bus.
5 Emily hurt her back trying to lift a heavy box.
6 Two people were overcome by smoke trying to put out the fire.

68.3

Example answers:

2 Having bought our tickets / Having got our tickets
3 Having discussed the problem / Having talked about the problem / Having thought about the problem
4 Having said he was hungry
5 Having lost his job / Having given up his job / Having been fired from his job
6 Having spent most of his life / Having lived (for) most of his life

68.4

2 Thinking they might be hungry, …
3 Being a vegetarian, …
4 Not having a phone, …
5 Having travelled a lot, …
6 Not being able to speak the local language, …
7 Having spent nearly all our money, …

UNIT 69

69.1

3 We went to **a** very nice restaurant …
4 *OK*
5 I use **a** toothbrush …
6 … if there's **a** bank near here?
7 … for **an** insurance company.
8 *OK*
9 … we stayed in **a** big hotel.
10 If you have **a** problem …
11 … It's **an** interesting idea.
12 *OK*
13 … It's **a** good game.
14 *OK*
15 … wearing **a** beautiful necklace.
16 … have **an** airport?

69.2

3 a key
4 a coat
5 ice
6 a biscuit
7 electricity
8 a question
9 a moment
10 blood
11 a decision
12 an interview

69.3

2 days
3 meat
4 a queue
5 jokes
6 friends
7 people
8 air
9 patience
10 an umbrella
11 languages
12 space

UNIT 70

70.1

1 b there's a lot of noise
2 a Light
  b a light
3 a time
  b a great time
4 a a glass of water
  b broken glass
5 a a very nice room
  b room

70.2

2 bad luck
3 journey
4 complete chaos
5 doesn't
6 some lovely scenery
7 very hard work
8 paper
9 heavy traffic
10 Your hair is … it

70.3

2 furniture
3 chair**s**
4 hair
5 progress
6 permission
7 advice
8 experience
9 experience**s**
10 damage

70.4

2 I'd like some information about places to visit (in the town).
3 Can you give me some advice about which courses to do? / … courses I can do?
4 I've (just) got some good news. / I've (just) had some good news. / I (just) got some good news.
5 It's a beautiful view (from here), isn't it?
6 What horrible/awful weather!

UNIT 71

71.1

3 They're vegetables.
4 It's a flower.
5 They're planets.
6 It's a game.
7 They're tools.
8 They're rivers.
9 It's an insect.
10 They're languages.

71.2

2 He's a waiter.
3 She's a journalist.
4 He's a surgeon.
5 He's a chef.
6 He's a plumber.
7 She's a tour guide.
8 She's an interpreter.

71.3

2 a careful driver
3 some books
4 books
5 sore feet
6 a sore throat
7 a lovely present
8 some students
9 without an umbrella
10 Some people

71.4

4 a
5 Some
6 an
7 – (You're always asking questions!)
8 a
9 – (Do you like staying in hotels?)
10 Some
11 – (Those are nice shoes.)
12 You need **a** visa to visit **some** countries
13 Kate is **a** teacher. Her parents were teachers too.
14 He's **a** liar. He's always telling lies.

UNIT 72

72.1

1 … and **a** magazine. **The** book is in my bag, but I can't remember where I put **the** magazine.
2 I saw **an** accident this morning. **A** car crashed into **a** tree. **The** driver of **the** car wasn't hurt, but **the** car was badly damaged.
3 … **a** blue one and **a** grey one. **The** blue one belongs to my neighbours. I don't know who **the** owner of **the** grey one is.
4 My friends live in **an** old house in **a** small village. There is **a** beautiful garden behind **the** house. I would like to have **a** garden like that.

72.2

1 a a
b the
c the
2 a a
b a
c the
3 a the
b the
c a
4 a the
b a
c an
5 a the
b a
c a

72.3

2 **the** dentist
3 **the** door
4 **a** problem
5 **the** station
6 **the** post office
7 **a** very good player
8 **an** airport
9 **The** nearest airport
10 **the** floor
11 **the** book
12 **a** job in **a** bank
13 **a** small apartment in **the** city centre
14 **a** shop at **the** end of **the** street

72.4

Example answers:
2 About once a month.
3 Once or twice a year.
4 About seven hours a night.
5 Two or three times a week.
6 About two hours a day.
7 50 kilometres an hour.

UNIT 73

73.1

1 **a** lift
2 **a** nice holiday … **the** best holiday
3 **the** nearest shop … **the** end of this street
4 **a** lovely day … **a** cloud in **the** sky
5 **the** most expensive hotel … **a** cheaper hotel
6 to travel **in space** … go to **the** moon
7 think of **the** movie … I thought **the** ending …
8 Is it **a** star? No, it's **a** planet. It's **the** largest planet in **the** solar system.

73.2

2 TV
3 the radio
4 The television
5 dinner
6 the same name
7 for breakfast
8 vitamin C
9 the internet
10 the ground … the sky
11 The next train … platform 3

73.3

2 … doing **the** same thing
3 **Room 25** is on **the** second floor.
4 It was **a** very hot day. It was **the** hottest day of **the** year.
5 We had **lunch** in **a** nice restaurant by **the** sea.
6 What's on at **the** cinema …
7 I had **a** big breakfast …
8 You'll find **the** information you need at **the** top of **page 15**.

73.4

2 **the** sea
3 question 3
4 **the** cinema
5 **the** question
6 breakfast
7 Gate 24
8 **the** gate

UNIT 74

74.1

2 school
3 the school
4 school
5 … get to and from school
6 the school
7 school
8 … walk to school. The school isn't …

74.2
1 b university
c university
d the university
2 a hospital
b the hospital
c the hospital
d hospital
3 a prison
b the prison
c prison
4 a church
b church
c the church

74.3
2 to work
3 bed
4 at home
5 the bed
6 after work
7 in bed
8 home
9 work
10 like home

74.4
2 to school
3 at home *or* stayed home (*without* at)
4 to work
5 at university
6 in bed
7 to hospital
8 in prison

UNIT 75

75.1
Example answers:
2–5 I like cats.
I don't like zoos.
I don't mind snow.
I'm not interested in boxing.

75.2
1 b the apples
2 a the people
b people
3 a names
b the names
4 a The First World War
b war
5 a hard work
b the work

75.3
3 spiders
4 meat
5 the questions
6 the people
7 Biology
8 lies
9 The hotels
10 The water
11 the grass
12 patience

75.4
1 stories
2 the words
3 the rooms
4 public transport
5 All the books
6 Life
7 The weather
8 water
9 films ('films with unhappy endings' *in general*)

UNIT 76

76.1
1 b the cheetah
c the kangaroo (and the rabbit)
2 a the swan
b the penguin
c the owl
3 a the wheel
b the laser
c the telescope
4 a the rupee
b the (Canadian) dollar
c the …

76.2
2 a
3 the
4 a
5 the
6 the
7 a
8 The
9 the
10 a

76.3
2 the sick
3 the unemployed
4 the injured
5 the elderly
6 the rich

76.4
2 a German
Germans / German people
3 a Frenchman/Frenchwoman
the French / French people
4 a Russian
Russians / Russian people
5 a Japanese
the Japanese / Japanese people
6 a Brazilian
Brazilians / Brazilian people
7 an Englishman/Englishwoman
the English / English people
8 …

UNIT 77

77.1
2 The doctor
3 Doctor Thomas
4 Professor Brown
5 the President
6 President Kennedy
7 Inspector Roberts
8 the Wilsons
9 the United States
10 France

77.2
3 *OK*
4 … and **the** United States
5 … than **the** north
6 *OK*
7 *OK*
8 … in **the** Swiss Alps
9 **The** UK …
10 **The** Seychelles … in **the** Indian Ocean
11 *OK*
12 **The** River Volga flows into **the** Caspian Sea.

77.3
2 (in) South America
3 **the** Nile
4 Sweden
5 **the** United States
6 **the** Rockies
7 **the** Mediterranean
8 Australia
9 **the** Pacific
10 **the** Indian Ocean
11 **the** Thames
12 **the** Danube
13 Thailand
14 **the** Panama Canal
15 **the** Amazon

UNIT 78

78.1
2 Turner's in Carter Road
3 **the** Crown (Hotel) in Park Road
4 St Peter's in Market Street
5 **the** City Museum in George Street
6 Blackstone's in Forest Avenue
7 Mario's in George Street
8 Victoria Park at the end of Market Street

78.2
2 **The** Eiffel Tower
3 Buckingham Palace
4 **The** White House
5 **The** Kremlin
6 Broadway
7 **The** Acropolis
8 Gatwick Airport

78.3
2 St Paul's Cathedral
3 Central Park
4 **the** Great Wall
5 Dublin Airport
6 **The** Classic
7 Liverpool University
8 **the** National Museum
9 Harrison's
10 Cathay Pacific
11 **The** Morning News
12 **the** Leaning Tower
13 Cambridge University Press
14 **the** College of Art
15 **The** Imperial Hotel is in Baker Street.
16 **The** Statue of Liberty is at the entrance to New York Harbor.

UNIT 79

79.1
2 don't
3 doesn't
4 some
5 them
6 pair
7 are
8 a
9 it

79.2
2 means
3 series
4 species
5 series
6 news
7 species
8 means

79.3
2 don't
3 want
4 was
5 are
6 is *or* are
7 Do
8 do *or* does
9 enjoy
10 is *or* are

79.4
2 **is** too hot
3 **isn't** enough money
4 **isn't** long enough
5 **is** a lot to carry

79.5
3 … wearing black jeans.
4 … very nice **people**.
5 *OK*
6 There was **a police officer** / **a policeman** / **a policewoman** …
7 **These** scissors **aren't** …
8 *OK* (The company **has** *is also correct*)
9 … is **a** very rare species.
10 Twelve hours **is** …

UNIT 80

80.1
3 train ticket
4 ticket machine
5 hotel staff
6 exam results
7 race horse
8 horse race
9 running shoes
10 shoe shop
11 shop window
12 window cleaner
13 a construction company scandal
14 car factory workers
15 road improvement scheme
16 New York department store

80.2
2 seat belt
3 credit card
4 weather forecast
5 washing machine
6 wedding ring
7 room number
8 birthday party
9 truck driver

80.3
2 school football team
3 film production company
4 life insurance policy
5 tourist information office

80.4
2 two-hour
3 two hours
4 twenty-pound
5 ten-pound
6 15-minute
7 60 minutes
8 twelve-storey
9 five days
10 Five-star
11 six years old
12 six-year-old

UNIT 81

81.1
3 your friend's umbrella
4 *OK*
5 James's daughter
6 Helen and Andy's son
7 *OK*
8 *OK*
9 Your children's friends
10 *OK*
11 Our neighbours' garden
12 David's hair
13 *OK*
14 my best friend's party
15 *OK*
16 Ben's parents' car
17 *OK*
18 *OK* (the government's policy *is also OK*)

81.2
2 father's
3 apples
4 Children's
5 Switzerland's
6 parents'
7 photos
8 someone else's
9 Shakespeare's

81.3
2 Last week's storm caused a lot of damage.
3 The town's only cinema has closed down.
4 Britain's weather is very changeable.
5 The region's main industry is tourism.

81.4
2 twenty minutes' walk
3 two weeks' holiday / fourteen days' holiday / a fortnight's holiday
4 an/one hour's sleep

UNIT 82

82.1
2 hurt himself
3 blame herself
4 put yourself
5 enjoyed themselves
6 burn yourself
7 express myself

82.2
2 me
3 myself
4 us
5 yourself
6 you
7 ourselves
8 them
9 themselves

82.3
3 feel
4 dried myself
5 concentrate
6 defend yourself
7 meeting
8 relax

82.4
2 themselves
3 each other
4 each other
5 themselves
6 each other
7 ourselves
8 each other
9 introduced **ourselves** to **each other**

82.5
2 I made it myself
3 Laura told me herself / Laura herself told me
4 know themselves
5 cuts it himself
6 do it yourself?

UNIT 83

83.1
2 We met a **relative of yours**.
3 Jason borrowed **a book of mine**.
4 I met Lisa and **some friends of hers**.
5 We had dinner with **a neighbour of ours**.
6 I went on holiday with **two friends of mine**.
7 I met **a friend of Amy's** at the party.
8 It's always been **an ambition of mine** to travel round the world.

83.2
2 his own opinions
3 her own business
4 our own words
5 its own private beach

83.3
2 your own fault
3 her own ideas
4 your own problems
5 his own decisions

83.4
2 make her own (clothes)
3 clean your own (shoes)
4 bake our own (bread)
5 write their own (songs)

83.5
2 myself
3 our own
4 themselves
5 himself
6 their own
7 yourself
8 her own

83.6
2 Sam and Chris are colleagues of **mine**.
3 I was scared. I didn't want to go out **on** my own.
4 In my last job I had **my** own office.
5 He must be lonely. He's always **by** himself.
6 My parents have gone away with some friends of **theirs**.
7 Are there any countries that produce all **their** own food?

UNIT 84

84.1
3 There's / There is
4 there wasn't
5 Is it
6 Is there
7 there was
8 It isn't / It's not
9 There wasn't
10 It's / It is … there isn't
11 It was
12 Is there … there's / there is
13 It's / It is … There's / There is
14 there was … It was

84.2
2 There's / There is a lot of salt in the soup. *or* … too much salt …
3 There was nothing in the box.
4 There were about 50 people at the meeting.
5 There's / There is a lot of violence in the film.
6 *(example answers)*
There is a lot to do in this town. / … plenty to do in this town. / … a lot happening in this town. *or* There are a lot of places to go in this town.

84.3
2 There may be
3 There won't be
4 There's / There is going to be
5 There used to be
6 there should be
7 there wouldn't be

84.4
3 **there** will be an opportunity
4 **There** must have been a reason.
5 *OK*
6 *OK*
7 **There** used to be a lot of tourists
8 **There**'s no signal.
9 *OK*
10 **There**'s sure to be a car park somewhere.
11 *OK*
12 **there** would be somebody … but **there** wasn't anybody.

UNIT 85

85.1
2 some
3 any
4 some
5 any … some
6 any
7 some
8 any
9 some
10 any
11 some … any

85.2
2 somebody/someone
3 anybody/anyone
4 anything
5 something
6 anything *or* anybody/anyone
7 anybody/anyone
8 somewhere
9 anybody/anyone
10 something
11 Anybody/Anyone
12 somebody/someone … anybody/anyone
13 anywhere
14 anything
15 something
16 something … anybody/anyone
17 somebody/someone … anybody/anyone
18 anybody/anyone anything

85.3
2 Any day
3 Anything
4 anybody/anyone
5 Any job *or* Anything
6 anywhere
7 Anybody/Anyone

UNIT 86

86.1
3 no
4 any
5 None
6 no
7 none
8 any
9 no
10 any
11 none
12 no
13 any
14 no

86.2
2 Nobody/No-one.
3 None.
4 Nowhere.
5 None.
6 Nothing.
8 I'm not waiting for anybody/anyone.
9 I didn't buy any (bread).
10 I'm not going anywhere.
11 I haven't read any (books).
12 It doesn't cost anything.

86.3
2 nobody/no-one
3 Nowhere
4 anything
5 Nobody/No-one
6 anywhere
7 Nothing
8 **Nothing**. I couldn't find **anything** I wanted.
9 **Nobody**/**No-one** said **anything**.

86.4
2 nobody
3 anyone
4 Anybody
5 Nothing
6 Anything
7 anything
8 any
9 No-one … anyone

UNIT 87

87.1
3 *OK*
4 It cost **a lot** to …
5 *OK*
6 You have **a lot of** luggage.
7 *OK*
8 … know **many** people *or* … know **a lot of** people
9 *OK*
10 He travels **a lot**.

87.2
2 He has (got) plenty of money.
3 There's plenty of room.
4 … she still has plenty to learn.
5 There is plenty to see.
6 There are plenty of hotels.

87.3
2 little
3 many
4 few
5 little
6 many
7 little
8 much
9 few

87.4
2 a few dollars
3 little traffic
4 a few years ago
5 a little time
6 only a few words
7 Few people

87.5
2 a little
3 a few
4 few
5 little
6 a little
7 little
8 a few
9 a few
10 a little

UNIT 88

88.1
3 —
4 of
5 —
6 —
7 of
8 of
9 — (**of** *is also correct*)
10 —
11 —
12 of

88.2
3 of my spare time
4 accidents
5 of the buildings
6 of her friends
7 of the population
8 birds
9 of the players
10 of her opinions
11 European countries
12 (of) my dinner

88.3
Example answers:
2 the time
3 my friends
4 (of) the questions
5 the pictures / the photos / the photographs
6 (of) the money

88.4
2 All of them
3 none of us
4 some of it
5 none of them
6 Some of them
7 all of it
8 none of it

UNIT 89

89.1
2 Neither
3 both
4 Either
5 Neither
6 both

89.2
2 either
3 both
4 Neither of
5 **neither** driver … **both** / **both the** / **both of the** cars
6 both / both of

89.3
2 either of them
3 both of them
4 Neither of us
5 neither of them

89.4
3 The movie was both boring and long.
4 Neither Joe nor Sam has a car. *or* … has got a car.
5 Emily speaks both German and Russian.
6 Ben neither watches TV nor reads newspapers.
7 That man's name is either Richard or Robert.
8 I have neither the time nor the money to go on holiday.
9 We can leave either today or tomorrow.

89.5
2 either
3 any
4 none
5 any
6 either
7 neither

UNIT 90

90.1
3 Everybody/Everyone
4 Everything
5 all
6 everybody/everyone
7 everything
8 All
9 everybody/everyone
10 All
11 everything
12 Everybody/Everyone
13 All
14 everything

90.2
2 The whole team played well.
3 He ate the whole box (of chocolates).
4 They searched the whole house.
5 The whole family plays tennis. *or* … play tennis.
6 Sarah/She worked the whole day.
7 It rained the whole week.
8 Sarah worked all day.
9 It rained all week.

90.3
2 every four hours
3 every four years
4 every five minutes
5 every six months

90.4
2 every day
3 all day
4 The whole building
5 Every time
6 all the time
7 all my luggage

UNIT 91

91.1
3 Each
4 Every
5 Each
6 every
7 each
8 every

91.2
3 Every
4 Each
5 every
6 every
7 each of
8 every
9 each
10 Every
11 each of
12 each

91.3
2 Sonia and I had ten pounds each. *or* Sonia and I each had ten pounds.
3 Those postcards cost a pound each / … one pound each. *or* Those postcards are a pound each / … one pound each
4 We paid 200 dollars each. *or* We each paid 200 dollars.

91.4
2 everyone
3 every one *(2 words)*
4 Everyone
5 every one *(2 words)*

UNIT 92

92.1

2 A customer is someone who buys something from a shop.
3 A burglar is someone who breaks into a house to steal things.
4 A coward is someone who is not brave.
5 A tenant is someone who pays rent to live somewhere.
6 A shoplifter is someone who steals from a shop.
7 A liar is someone who doesn't tell the truth.
8 A pessimist is someone who expects the worst to happen.

92.2

2 The waiter who/that served us was impolite and impatient.
3 The building that/which was destroyed in the fire has now been rebuilt.
4 The people who/that were arrested have now been released.
5 The bus that/which goes to the airport runs every half hour.

92.3

2 who/that runs away from home
3 that/which were hanging on the wall
4 that/which cannot be explained
5 who/that has stayed there
6 that/which happened in the past
7 who/that developed the theory of relativity
8 that/which can support life

92.4

3 the nearest shop **that**/**which** sells
4 some things about me **that**/**which** were
5 The driver **who**/**that** caused
6 *OK* (the person **who** took *is also correct*)
7 a world **that**/**which** is changing
8 *OK*
9 the horse **that**/**which** won

UNIT 93

93.1

3 *OK* (the people **who**/**that** we met *is also correct*)
4 The people **who**/**that** work in the office
5 *OK* (the people **who**/**that** I work with *is also correct*)
6 *OK* (the money **that**/**which** I gave you *is also correct*)
7 the money **that**/**which** was on the table
8 *OK* (the worst film **that**/**which** you've ever seen *is also correct*)
9 the best thing **that**/**which** has ever happened to you

93.2

2 you're wearing *or* that/which you're wearing
3 you're going to see *or* that/which you're going to see
4 I/we wanted to visit *or* that/which I/we wanted to visit
5 I/we invited to the party *or* who/whom/that we invited …
6 you had to do *or* that/which you had to do
7 I/we rented *or* that/which I/we rented

93.3

2 the wedding we were invited to
3 the hotel you told me about
4 the job I applied for
5 the concert you went to
6 somebody you can rely on
7 the people you were with

93.4

3 – (that *is also correct*)
4 what
5 that
6 what
7 – (that *is also correct*)
8 what
9 – (that *is also correct*)

UNIT 94

94.1

2 whose wife is an English teacher
3 who owns a restaurant
4 whose ambition is to climb Everest
5 who have just got married
6 whose parents used to work in a circus

94.2

2 *more formal* I went to see a lawyer **whom** a friend of mine (had) recommended.
less formal I went to see a lawyer a friend of mine (had) recommended.
3 *more formal* The person **to whom** I spoke wasn't very helpful.
less formal The person I spoke **to** wasn't very helpful.
4 *more formal* The woman **with whom** Tom was in love wasn't in love with him.
less formal The woman Tom was in love **with** wasn't in love with him.

94.3

2 where
3 who
4 whose
5 where
6 whose
7 whom
8 where

94.4

Example answers:
2 The reason I left my job was that the salary was too low.
3 I'll never forget the time I got stuck in a lift.
4 2009 was the year Amanda got married.
5 The reason they don't have a car is that neither of them can drive.
6 The last time I saw Sam was about six months ago.
7 Do you remember the day we first met?

UNIT 95

95.1

3 We drove to the airport, which was not far from the city.
4 Kate's husband, who I've never met, is an airline pilot. *or* … whom I've never met …
5 Lisa, whose job involves a lot of travelling, is away from home a lot.
6 Paul and Emily have a daughter, Alice, who has just started school.
7 The new stadium, which will be finished next month, will hold 90,000 spectators.
8 My brother lives in Alaska, which is the largest state in the US.
9 Our teacher, whose name I have forgotten, was very kind.
10 We enjoyed our visit to the museum, where we saw a lot of interesting things.

95.2

2 The strike at the factory, which began ten days ago, has now ended.
3 I've found the book I was looking for this morning. *or* … the book that/which I was looking for …
4 My car, which I've had for 15 years, has never broken down.
5 Few of the people who/that applied for the job had the necessary qualifications.
6 Amy showed me a picture of her son, who is a police officer.

95.3

2 My office**, which** is on the second floor**,** is very small.
3 *OK*
(The office I'm using … *and* The office **which** I'm using … *are also correct*)
4 Sarah's father**, who** used to be in the army**,** now works for a TV company.
5 *OK* (The doctor **who** examined me … *is also correct*)
6 The sun**, which** is one of millions of stars in the universe**,** provides us with heat and light.

UNIT 96

96.1
2 in which
3 with whom
4 to which
5 of which
6 of whom
7 for which
8 after which

96.2
2 most of which was useless
3 none of whom was suitable
4 one of which they never use
5 half of which he gave to his parents
6 both of whom are lawyers
7 neither of which she replied to
8 only a few of whom I knew
10 sides of which were lined with trees
11 the aim of which is to save money

96.3
2 which makes it difficult to sleep sometimes.
3 which was very kind of her.
4 which makes it hard to contact her.
5 which is good news.
6 which meant I had to wait two hours at the airport.
7 which means we can't go away tomorrow.
8 which she apologised for *or* for which she apologised

UNIT 97

97.1
2 The taxi taking us to the airport
3 a path leading to the river
4 A factory employing 500 people
5 man sitting next to me on the plane
6 brochure containing the information I needed

97.2
2 stolen from the museum
3 damaged in the storm
4 made at the meeting
5 surrounded by trees
6 involved in the project

97.3
3 invited
4 called
5 living
6 offering
7 caused
8 blown
9 sitting … reading
10 working … studying

97.4
3 There's somebody coming.
4 There's nothing left.
5 There were a lot of people travelling.
6 There was nobody else staying there.
7 There was nothing written on it.
8 There's a course beginning next Monday.

UNIT 98

98.1
2 a exhausting
b exhausted
3 a depressing
b depressed
c depressed
4 a exciting
b exciting
c excited

98.2
2 interested
3 exciting
4 embarrassing
5 embarrassed
6 amazed
7 amazing
8 amused
9 interested
10 terrifying … shocked
11 (look so) bored … (really so) boring
12 boring … interesting

98.3
2 bored
3 confusing
4 disgusting
5 interested
6 annoyed
7 boring
8 exhausted
9 excited
10 amusing
11 interesting

UNIT 99

99.1
2 an unusual gold ring
3 a beautiful old house
4 red leather gloves
5 an old American film
6 tiny pink flowers
7 a long thin face
8 big black clouds
9 a lovely sunny day
10 an ugly yellow dress
11 a long wide avenue
12 important new ideas
13 a nice new green sweater
14 a small black metal box
15 beautiful long black hair
16 an interesting old French painting
17 a large red and yellow umbrella
18 a big fat black and white cat

99.2
2 tastes/tasted awful
3 feel nervous
4 smell nice
5 look wet
6 sounds/sounded interesting

99.3
2 happy
3 happily
4 terrible
5 properly
6 good
7 slow
8 badly
9 violent

99.4
3 the last two days
4 the first two weeks of May
5 the next few days
6 the first three questions (in the exam)
7 the next two years
8 the last three days of our holiday

UNIT 100

100.1
2 easily
3 patiently
4 unexpectedly
5 regularly
6 perfectly … slowly … clearly

100.2
2 selfishly
3 suddenly
4 sudden
5 badly
6 awful
7 terribly
8 comfortable
9 clearly
10 safe
11 safe
12 safely

100.3
2 frequently
3 fluent
4 specially
5 complete
6 perfectly
7 financially *or* completely
8 permanently
9 nervous
10 dangerously

100.4
2 seriously ill
3 absolutely enormous
4 slightly damaged
5 unusually quiet
6 completely changed
7 unnecessarily long
8 happily married
9 badly planned

UNIT 101

101.1
2 good
3 well
4 well
5 good
6 well
7 well
8 well … good

101.2
2 well-known
3 well-kept
4 well-written
5 well-informed
6 well-paid

101.3
2 slowly
3 lately
4 fast
5 hard
6 hardly
7 hard
8 hardly see
9 hard

101.4
2 hardly hear
3 hardly slept
4 hardly speak
5 hardly said
6 hardly changed
7 hardly recognised

101.5
2 hardly any
3 hardly anything
4 hardly anybody/anyone
5 hardly ever
6 hardly anywhere
7 hardly *or* hardly ever
8 hardly anybody/anyone
9 hardly any
10 hardly anywhere

UNIT 102

102.1
2 so
3 such
4 such a
5 such
6 such a
7 so
8 so
9 such a
10 such

102.2
2 The bag was **so** heavy
3 I've got **such** a lot to do
4 I was **so** surprised
5 The music was **so** loud
6 It was **such** horrible weather
7 Her English is **so** good
8 The hotel was **such** a long way
9 I had **such** a big breakfast

102.3
2 Why are you in such a hurry?
3 I'm surprised it took so long.
4 … but there's no such company.
5 … why I did such a stupid thing.
6 Why are you driving so slowly?
7 How did you learn English in such a short time?
8 Why did you buy such an expensive phone?

102.4
Example answers:
2 She's so **friendly**.
3 She's such **a nice person**.
4 I haven't seen you for so **long**.
5 I didn't realise it was such **a long way**.
6 There were so **many people**.

UNIT 103

103.1
3 enough buses
4 wide enough
5 enough time
6 enough vegetables
7 tall enough
8 enough room
9 warm enough
10 enough cups

103.2
2 too busy to talk
3 too late to go
4 warm enough to sit
5 too shy to be
6 enough patience to be
7 too far away to hear
8 enough English to read

103.3
2 This coffee is too hot to drink.
3 The piano was too heavy to move.
4 These apples aren't / are not ripe enough to eat.
5 The situation is too complicated to explain.
6 The wall was too high to climb over.
7 This sofa isn't / is not big enough for three people (to sit on).
8 Some things are too small to see without a microscope. *or* … to be seen without a microscope.

UNIT 104

104.1
2 quite hungry
3 quite often
4 quite noisy
5 quite surprised
6 quite late
7 quite old

104.2
2 quite a good voice
3 quite a long way
4 a pretty cold wind
5 quite a lot of traffic
6 a pretty busy day
7 started fairly recently

104.3
Example answers:
2 rather long
3 rather strange
4 rather impatient
5 rather expensive

104.4
3 more than a little …
4 completely
5 more than a little …
6 more than a little …
7 completely

104.5
2 quite safe
3 quite impossible
4 quite right
5 quite different
6 quite sure

UNIT 105

105.1
2 stronger
3 smaller
4 more expensive
5 warmer / hotter
6 more interesting / more exciting
7 nearer / closer
8 harder / more difficult / more complicated
9 better
10 worse
11 more often
12 further / farther

105.2
3 more serious than
4 thinner
5 bigger
6 more interested
7 more important than
8 more peaceful than
9 more slowly
10 higher than

105.3
2 careful
3 better
4 frequent
5 more
6 worse
7 than
8 quietly

105.4
2 I ran further/farther than Dan.
3 The journey takes longer by train than by car.
4 My friends arrived earlier than I expected.
5 The traffic today is worse than usual.

UNIT 106

106.1
2 much bigger
3 a lot more interesting than
4 a little cooler
5 far more complicated than
6 a bit more slowly
7 slightly older

106.2
2 any sooner / any earlier
3 no higher than / no more expensive than / no worse than
4 any further/farther
5 no worse than

106.3
2 bigger and bigger
3 more and more nervous
4 worse and worse
5 more and more expensive
6 better and better
7 more and more time

106.4
2 The more tired you are, the harder it is to concentrate.
3 The sooner we decide (what to do), the better.
4 The more I know, the less I understand.
5 The more electricity you use, the higher your bill will be.
6 The more / The longer she had to wait, the more impatient she became.

106.5
2 more
3 longer
4 any
5 the
6 older
7 elder *or* older
8 slightly
9 no
10 (The) less (he knows, the) better

UNIT 107

107.1
2 My salary isn't as high as yours.
3 You don't know as much about cars as me. *or* … as I do. *or* … as I know.
4 We aren't as busy today as we were yesterday. *or* … as busy today as yesterday.
5 I don't feel as bad as I did earlier. *or* … as I felt earlier.
6 Our neighbours haven't lived here as long as us. *or* … as long as we have.
7 I wasn't as nervous (before the interview) as I usually am. *or* … as usual.

107.2
3 The station wasn't as far as I thought.
4 The meal cost less than I expected.
5 I don't watch TV as much as I used to. *or* … as often as I used to.
6 Karen used to have longer hair.
7 You don't know them as well as me. *or* … as I do.
8 There aren't as many students in this class as in the other one.

107.3
2 as well as
3 as long as
4 as soon as
5 as often as
6 as quietly as
7 as hard as

107.4
2 Your hair is the same colour as mine.
3 I arrived (at) the same time as you.
4 My birthday is (on) the same day as Tom's. *or* My birthday is the same as Tom's.

107.5
2 than
3 as
4 him
5 less
6 much
7 twice
8 is
9 me

UNIT 108

108.1
2 the tallest
3 the worst
4 the most popular
5 the best
6 the most honest
7 the shortest

108.2
3 better
4 the most expensive
5 more comfortable
6 The eldest *or* The oldest
7 oldest
8 the quickest
9 quicker
10 my earliest
11 … **the highest** mountain in the world … It is **higher** than …
12 Do you have a **sharper** one? No, it's **the sharpest** one I have.

108.3
2 It's the largest country in South America.
3 It was the happiest day of my life.
4 It's the most valuable painting in the museum.
5 It's the busiest time of the year.
7 He's one of the richest men in the country.
8 She's one of the best students in the class.
9 It was one of the worst experiences of my life.
10 It's one of the most famous universities in the world.

108.4
2 That's the funniest joke I've ever heard.
3 This is the best coffee I've ever tasted.
4 That's the furthest/farthest I've ever run.
5 It's the worst mistake I've ever made. *or* It was the worst …
6 Who's the most famous person you've ever met?

UNIT 109

109.1
3 Joe doesn't like football very much.
4 Dan won the race easily.
5 *OK*
6 Have you seen Chris recently?
7 I borrowed some money from a friend.
8 *OK*
9 I ate my breakfast quickly and went out. *or* I quickly ate my breakfast and …
10 Did you invite a lot of people to the party?
11 Sam watches TV all the time.
12 *OK*

109.2
2 I met a friend of mine on my way home.
3 I forgot to put a stamp on the envelope.
4 We bought a lot of fruit in the market.
5 They built a new hotel opposite the park.
6 Did you learn a lot of things at school today?
7 We found some interesting books in the library.
8 Please write your name at the top of the page.

109.3
2 I go to the supermarket every Friday.
3 Why did you come home so late?
4 Sarah takes her children to school every day.
5 I haven't been to the cinema recently.
6 I remembered her name after a few minutes.
7 We walked around the town all morning.
8 My brother has been in Canada since April.
9 I didn't see you at the party on Saturday night.
10 Lisa left her umbrella in a restaurant last night.
11 The moon goes round the earth every 27 days.
12 Anna has been teaching Italian in London for the last three years.

UNIT 110

110.1

3 I usually have …
4 *OK*
5 Steve hardly ever gets angry.
6 … and I also sent an email.
7 I always have to repeat …
8 I've never worked / I have never worked …
9 *OK*
10 … my friends were already there. *or* … my friends were there already.

110.2

2 Katherine is always very generous.
3 I don't usually have to work on Sundays.
4 Do you always watch TV in the evenings?
5 … he is also learning Japanese.
6 a We were all on holiday in Spain.
b We were all staying at the same hotel.
c We all had a great time.
7 a The new hotel is probably expensive.
b It probably costs a lot to stay there.
8 a I can probably help you.
b I probably can't help you.

110.3

2 usually sleeps
3 It's / It is usually easy to … *or* Usually it's / it is easy to …
4 were both born
5 She can also sing
6 Do you usually go …
7 I have / I've never spoken
8 We're / We are still living …
9 You always have to wait …
10 We might never meet
11 I probably won't be
12 Will you still be
13 She's / She is hardly ever
14 We would / We'd never have met
15 It doesn't always take
16 We were all … we all fell
17 always says … she never does

UNIT 111

111.1

3 He doesn't write poems any more.
4 He still wants to be a teacher.
5 He isn't / He's not interested in politics any more.
6 He's still single.
7 He doesn't go fishing any more.
8 He doesn't have a beard any more. *or* He hasn't got …
10–12
He no longer writes poems.
He is / He's no longer interested in politics.
He no longer goes fishing.
He no longer has a beard. / He's no longer got a beard.

111.2

2 He hasn't gone yet.
3 They haven't finished (it) yet. / … finished repairing the road yet.
4 They haven't woken up yet.
5 She hasn't found one yet. / … found a job yet.
6 I haven't decided (what to do) yet.
7 It hasn't taken off yet.

111.3

3 still
4 yet
5 any more
6 yet
7 any more
8 still
9 already
10 still
11 already
12 yet
13 still
14 already
15 still
16 any more

UNIT 112

112.1

2 even Lisa
3 not even Amy
4 even Lisa
5 even Kate
6 not even Lisa

112.2

2 We even painted the floor.
3 She's even met the prime minister.
4 You could even hear it from the next street. / You could even hear the noise from … *or* You could hear it / the noise even from the next street.
6 I can't even remember her name.
7 There isn't even a cinema.
8 He didn't even tell his wife (where he was going).
9 I don't even know my neighbours.

112.3

2 even older
3 even better
4 even more difficult
5 even worse
6 even less

112.4

2 if
3 even if
4 even
5 even though
6 Even
7 even though
8 even if
9 Even though

UNIT 113

113.1

2 Although I had never seen her before
3 although it was quite cold
4 although we don't like them very much
5 Although I didn't speak the language well
6 Although the heating was on
7 although I'd met her twice before
8 although we've known each other a long time

113.2

2 a In spite of (*or* Despite)
b Although
3 a because
b although
4 a because of
b in spite of (*or* despite)
5 a Although
b because of
Example answers:
6 a he hadn't studied very hard
b he had studied very hard
7 a I was hungry
b being hungry / my hunger / the fact (that) I was hungry

113.3

2 In spite of playing quite well, we lost the game. *or* In spite of the fact (that) we played quite well …
3 Although I'd hurt my foot, I managed to walk home. *or* I managed to walk home although I'd …
4 I enjoyed the film in spite of the silly story. / … in spite of the story being silly. / … in spite of the fact (that) the story was silly. *or* In spite of … , I enjoyed the film.
5 Despite living in the same building, we hardly ever see each other. *or* Despite the fact (that) we live in … *or* We hardly ever see each other despite …
6 They came to the party even though they hadn't been invited. *or* Even though they hadn't been invited, they came to the party.

113.4

2 It's very long though.
3 We ate it though.
4 I don't like her husband though.

UNIT 114

114.1

2 in case you get hungry / … you are hungry
3 in case it rains
4 in case you get thirsty / … you are thirsty
5 in case you need to call somebody
6 in case you get lonely / … you are lonely

114.2

2 I'll say goodbye now in case I don't see you again (before you go).
3 Can you check the list in case we've forgotten something? / … in case we forgot something?
4 Keep the receipt in case they don't fit you (and you have to take them back to the shop).

114.3

2 in case I forgot it.
3 in case they were worried (about me).
4 in case she didn't get the first one. / in case she hadn't got …
5 in case they came/come to London (one day).

114.4

3 If
4 in case
5 if
6 in case
7 if
8 if
9 in case
10 in case

UNIT 115

115.1

2 You won't know what to do unless you listen carefully.
3 I'll never speak to her again unless she apologises (to me). *or* Unless she apologises (to me), I'll …
4 He won't understand you unless you speak very slowly. *or* Unless you speak very slowly, he …
5 The company will have to close unless business improves soon. *or* Unless business improves soon, the company …
6 The problem will get worse unless we do something soon. *or* Unless we do something soon, the problem …

115.2

2 I'm not going (to the party) unless you go too. / … unless you're going too.
3 The dog won't chase you unless you move suddenly.
4 Ben won't speak to you unless you ask him something.
5 The doctor won't see you unless it's an emergency. / … unless it's an emergency.

115.3

2 unless
3 providing
4 as long as
5 unless
6 unless
7 provided
8 Unless
9 unless
10 as long as

115.4

Example answers:

2 it's not too hot.
3 there isn't too much traffic.
4 it isn't raining.
5 I'm in a hurry.
6 you have something else to do.
7 you pay it back next week.
8 you don't tell anyone else.
9 you take risks.

UNIT 116

116.1

2 I listened as she told me her story.
3 I burnt myself as I was taking a hot dish out of the oven.
4 The spectators cheered as the two teams came onto the field.
5 A dog ran out in front of the car as we were driving along the road.

116.2

2 As today is a public holiday, all government offices are shut.
3 As I didn't want to disturb anybody, I tried to be very quiet.
4 As I can't go to the concert, you can have my ticket.
5 As it was a nice day, we went for a walk by the canal.

116.3

3 because
4 at the same time as
5 at the same time as
6 because
7 because

116.4

3 *OK*
4 when I was in London
5 When I left school
6 *OK*
7 when I was a child
8 *OK*

116.5

Example answers:

2 I saw you as you were getting into your car.
3 It started to rain just as we started playing tennis.
4 As she doesn't have a phone, it's quite difficult to contact her.
5 Just as I took the picture, somebody walked in front of my phone.

UNIT 117

117.1

3 … like his father
4 … people like him
5 *OK*
6 Like her mother …
7 … like talking to the wall
8 *OK*
9 *OK*
10 like a fish

117.2

2 e
3 b
4 f
5 d
6 a

117.3

2 like blocks of ice
3 like a beginner
4 as a tour guide
5 like a theatre
6 as a birthday present
7 like winter
8 like a child

117.4

2 like
3 as
4 as
5 like
6 As
7 as
8 like
9 like *or* such as
10 as
11 like
12 as
13 like
14 like
15 as
16 like

UNIT 118

118.1

2 You look as if you've seen a ghost. / … as if you saw a ghost.
3 I feel like I've (just) run a marathon. / … like I (just) ran a marathon.
4 You sound as if you're having a good time.

118.2

2 It looks like it's going to rain.
3 It sounds like they're having an argument.
4 It looks like there's been an accident.
5 It looks like they don't have any.
6 It sounds like you should see a doctor.

118.3
2 as if he meant what he said
3 as if she's hurt her leg / as if she hurt her leg
4 as if he hadn't eaten for a week
5 as if she was enjoying it
6 as if I was crazy / as if I were crazy
7 as if she didn't want to come
8 as if I didn't exist

118.4
2 as if I was/were
3 as if she was/were
4 as if it was/were

UNIT 119

119.1
3 during
4 for
5 for
6 during
7 for
8 during (*or* in)
9 for
10 for
11 during
12 for

119.2
3 while
4 While
5 during
6 during (*or* in)
7 during (*or* in)
8 while
9 during
10 while
11 During
12 while

119.3
1 for
2 during
3 while
4 during (*or* in)
5 for
6 while
7 during (*or* in)
8 for
9 while
10 during

119.4
Example answers:
3 Can you wait for me while I make a quick phone call?
4 Most of the students looked bored during the lesson.
5 I was asked a lot of questions during the interview.
6 Don't open the car door while the car is moving.
7 The lights suddenly went out while we were watching TV.
8 What are you going to do while you're on holiday?
9 It started to rain during the game.
10 It started to rain while we were walking home.

UNIT 120

120.1
2 by 8.30
3 Let me know by Saturday
4 you're here by 2 o'clock.
5 we should arrive by lunchtime.

120.2
2 by
3 until
4 by
5 until
6 by
7 by
8 until
9 by
10 by
11 until
12 By
13 until
14 by

120.3
Example answers:
3 until I come back
4 by 5 o'clock
5 by 3 April
6 until 2028
7 until midnight

120.4
2 By the time I got to the station
3 By the time I finished (work)
4 By the time the police arrived
5 By the time we got to the top (of the mountain)

UNIT 121

121.1
2 on
3 in
4 at (*or* **on** *in American English*)
5 on (*or* I last saw her Tuesday.)
6 in
7 in
8 at
9 on (*or* There are usually a lot of parties New Year's Eve.)
10 at
11 in
12 in
13 at
14 on
15 in
16 At
17 in
18 on
19 at
20 **at** 5 o'clock **in** the morning
21 **on** 7 January . . . **in** April
22 **on** Tuesday morning . . . **in** the afternoon *or* at home Tuesday morning . . . **in** the afternoon

121.2
2 at night
3 in the evening
4 on 21 July 1969
5 at the same time
6 in the 1920s
7 in about 20 minutes
8 at the moment
9 in 11 seconds
10 on Saturdays *or* . . . works Saturdays

121.3
3 a
4 *both*
5 a
6 *both*
7 b
8 a
9 *both*
10 b

UNIT 122

122.1
2 on time
3 on time
4 in time
5 on time
6 in time
7 in time
8 on time
9 in time

122.2
2 I got home just in time.
3 I stopped him just in time.
4 We got to the cinema just in time for the beginning of the film. / . . . just in time to see the beginning of the film.

122.3
2 at the end of the month
3 at the end of the course
4 at the end of the race
5 at the end of the interview

122.4
2 In the end she resigned (from her job). *or* She resigned (from her job) in the end.
3 In the end I gave up (trying to learn Japanese / learning Japanese). *or* I gave up (learning Japanese) in the end.
4 In the end we decided not to go (to the party). *or* In the end we didn't go (to the party). *or* We decided not to go (to the party) in the end. *or* We didn't go (to the party) in the end.

122.5

2 In
3 in
4 at
5 In
6 At
7 in
8 in
9 in
10 at … at

UNIT 123

123.1

2 On his arm. *or* On the man's arm.
3 At the traffic lights.
4 On the door. (notice)
In the door. (key)
5 On the wall.
6 In Paris.
7 At the gate. (man)
On the gate. (bird)
8 On the beach.

123.2

2 on my guitar
3 at junction 14
4 in his hand
5 on that tree
6 in the mountains
7 on the island
8 at the window

123.3

2 on
3 at
4 on
5 in
6 on
7 in
8 at
9 on
10 at
11 in
12 on
13 **in** a small village **in** the south-west
14 **on** the wall **in** the kitchen

UNIT 124

124.1

2 On the second floor.
3 On the corner. *or* At the corner.
4 In the corner.
5 At the top of the stairs.
6 In the back of the car.
7 At the front.
8 On the left.
9 In the back row.
10 At the end of the street.

124.2

2 on the right
3 in the world
4 on the way to work
5 on the west coast
6 in the front row
7 at the back of the class
8 on the back of this card

124.3

2 in
3 at
4 at
5 in
6 on
7 in
8 in
9 in
10 on
11 in
12 on
13 in
14 on … on

UNIT 125

125.1

2 on a train
3 at a conference
4 is in hospital / in the hospital
5 at the hairdresser's
6 on his bike
7 in New York
8 at the Savoy Theatre

125.2

2 at the station
3 in a taxi
4 at the sports centre
5 on the plane
6 in Tokyo
7 at school
8 at the art gallery

125.3

2 in
3 at
4 in
5 on
6 at
7 in
8 at
9 at
10 in
11 on
12 at
13 in
14 in
15 at
16 at … at

UNIT 126

126.1

3 at
4 to
5 to
6 into
7 – *(no preposition)*
8 to
9 into
10 to
11 at
12 to
13 to
14 into
15 to
16 – *(no preposition)*
17 to (France) … in (Brazil)
18 in (Chicago) … to (Boston)

126.2

2 I've been to … once.
3 I've never been to …
4 I've been to … a few times.
5 I've been to … many times.

126.3

2 in
3 – *(no preposition)*
4 at
5 to
6 – *(no preposition)*

126.4

2 I got on
3 I got out (of the/my car).
4 I got off (the train).
5 I got into the taxi. *or*
I got in the taxi. *or*
I got in.
6 I got off (the plane).

UNIT 127

127.1

2 in cold weather
3 in French
4 in love
5 in the mood
6 in the shade
7 in my opinion
8 in kilometres

127.2

2 on strike
3 on a cruise
4 on fire
5 on a tour
6 on her phone
7 on TV
8 on purpose
9 on a diet
10 on holiday
11 on business
12 on the whole

127.3

2 on
3 at
4 in
5 on
6 in
7 at
8 at
9 on
10 on
11 at
12 on
13 in
14 on
15 on
16 on
17 In
18 in
19 on
20 in

UNIT 128

128.1
2 by email
3 by mistake
4 on purpose
5 by chance
6 by hand

128.2
2 on
3 by
4 on
5 by
6 in
7 by
8 by
9 **by** bike (*or* **on his** bike) … **on** foot

128.3
2 by a professional photographer
3 by mosquitoes
4 by Leonardo da Vinci
5 by one of our players
6 by lightning
7 by Beethoven

128.4
2 with
3 by
4 by
5 in
6 by
7 with
8 by
9 on
10 by
11 **by** the bed **with** a lamp and a clock **on** it

128.5
2 In the last ten years the population has gone up / increased / grown / risen by 6 million.
3 Helen won (the election) by two votes.
4 I missed her/Kate by five minutes.

UNIT 129

129.1
2 to the problem
3 with her brother
4 in the cost of living
5 to your question
6 for a new road
7 in/to living in a big city
8 in food prices
9 for shoes like these any more
10 between your job and mine

129.2
2 invitation to
3 contact with
4 key to (key for *is also possible*)
5 cause of
6 reply to
7 connection between
8 photos of
9 reason for
10 damage to

129.3
2 to
3 in
4 of
5 in *or* to
6 for
7 to *or* towards
8 with
9 of
10 to
11 of
12 for
13 of
14 with

UNIT 130

130.1
2 That was generous of her.
3 That wasn't very nice of them.
4 That's very kind of you.
5 That isn't very polite of him.
6 That's a bit childish of them.

130.2
2 kind to
3 angry with
4 excited about
5 impressed by / impressed with
6 bored with (bored by *is also possible*)
7 amazed at / amazed by
8 careless of

130.3
2 of
3 to
4 with
5 with (by *or* in *are also possible*)
6 to
7 at/by
8 with
9 about
10 about
11 for
12 about/by/at
13 to
14 of
15 by/with
16 with
17 about
18 at/by
19 for/about
20 at/by
21 of
22 to
23 about
24 furious **with** us **for** making

UNIT 131

131.1
2 proud of
3 ashamed of
4 typical of
5 capable of
6 scared of
7 aware of
8 envious of

131.2
Example answers:
2 I'm hopeless at telling jokes.
3 I'm not very good at maths.
4 I'm pretty good at remembering names.
5 I'm good at making decisions.

131.3
2 similar to
3 afraid of
4 interested in
5 responsible for
6 proud of
7 different from / different to (different than *is also correct*)
8 capable of

131.4
2 of furniture
3 on sport
4 of time
5 at her job
6 to a doctor
7 of him / of Robert
8 from yours / from your problem *or* to yours / to your problem (different than *is also correct*)

131.5
2 for
3 of
4 in
5 of
6 on
7 of
8 with
9 on
10 of

UNIT 132

132.1
2 a
3 b
4 b
5 a
6 a
7 b
8 a
9 b
10 b
11 a
12 b

132.2
3 spoken to
4 point (them) at
5 look (directly) at
6 listen to
7 throw (stones) at
8 throw (it) to
9 reply to

132.3
2 at
3 at
4 to
5 to
6 at
7 at
8 to
9 at
10 at
11 to

UNIT 133

133.1
2 waiting for her to reply
3 searched my bag
4 asked him for a receipt
5 to ask the way
6 discussed the problem
7 nothing about them
8 for the airport

133.2
2 to
3 for
4 about
5 – (*no preposition*)
6 about
7 for
8 about

133.3
2 of
3 about
4 for
5 of
6 for
7 about
8 – (*no preposition*)

133.4
2 looking for
3 looked after
4 look for
5 looks after
6 looking for

133.5
2 wait for
3 talk about
4 ask (me) for
5 applied for
6 do (something) about
7 looks after *or* has looked after
8 left (Boston) for

UNIT 134

134.1
2 hear about
3 heard from
4 heard of
5 hear from
6 hear about
7 heard of

134.2
2 think about
3 thinking about
4 think of
5 think of
6 thinking of *or* thinking about
7 thought about
8 think of
9 think about
10 think (much) of
11 thinking about *or* thinking of
12 think of

134.3
2 of
3 about
4 of
5 of
6 to (us) about
7 of
8 about … about … about … about

134.4
2 complaining about
3 think about
4 heard of
5 dream of
6 reminded (me) about
7 remind (you) of

UNIT 135

135.1
2 for
3 of
4 of
5 – (*no preposition*)
6 for
7 of/from
8 for
9 of
10 for
11 on
12 for

135.2
2 for the misunderstanding
3 her on winning the tournament
4 him from his enemies
5 on bread and eggs
6 me for the (bad) weather *or* the (bad) weather on me
7 my friend of stealing a car *or* (that) my friend had stolen a car

135.3
2 paid for
3 accused of
4 depends on
5 live on
6 apologise to
7 suffers from
8 congratulate (him) on

135.4
2 from
3 on
4 – (*no preposition*)
5 from
6 depends how (*no preposition*) *or* depends **on** how
7 on
8 of
9 on

UNIT 136

136.1
2 happened to
3 divided into
4 invited to
5 believe in
6 fill (it) with
7 breaks into
8 Concentrate on
9 succeeded in
10 drove into

136.2
2 I prefer small towns to big cities.
3 The company provided me with all the information I needed.
4 This morning I spent eighty pounds on a pair of shoes.
5 The city is divided into ten districts.

136.3
2 to
3 on
4 in
5 to
6 in
7 with
8 into
9 in
10 on
11 – (*no preposition*)
12 into
13 on
14 into
15 with
16 from (one language) into (another)

136.4
Example answers:
2 on petrol
3 into a wall
4 to volleyball
5 in seafood
6 into many languages

UNIT 137

137.1
2 sit down
3 taking off
4 flew away / flew off
5 get out
6 speak up
7 get by
8 gone up
9 looked round
10 be back
11 broke down
12 getting on

137.2
2 back at
3 up to
4 forward to
5 away with
6 up at
7 in through
8 out about

137.3
2 wake me up
3 get it out
4 give them back
5 switch it on
6 take them off

137.4
3 I have to give **them back** to her.
4 We can turn **the TV/television off**. *or* We can turn **off the TV/television**.
5 I don't want to wake **her up**.
6 (*example answer*) You should put **your coat on** *or* You should put **on your coat**.
7 I was able to put **it out**
8 Shall I turn **the light(s) on**? *or* Shall I turn **on the light(s)**?
9 (*example answer*) they've put **the price(s) up** *or* they've put **up the price(s)**
10 I knocked **it over**

UNIT 138

138.1
2 eats
3 drop
4 fill
5 moved
6 checked
7 plug
8 dropped
9 dive

138.2
2 in
3 into
4 out
5 into
6 in
7 out
8 out of

138.3
2 dropped out
3 moved in
4 left out
5 joined in
6 taken in
7 dropped in

138.4
2 Fill them in *or* Fill them out
3 cross it out
4 let us in
5 get out of it

138.5
2 drop out of college
3 fill in / fill out the application form
4 get out of going to the party
5 taken in by the email
6 drop in (and see us) sometime
7 was left out of the team *or* had been left out …

UNIT 139

139.1
2 a candle
3 an order
4 a fire
5 a new product
6 a problem

139.2
2 works out
3 carried out
4 ran out
5 sort out
6 find out / work out / figure out
7 tried out
8 pointed out
9 work out
10 went out
11 turned out
12 works out / turns out
13 find out
14 put out
15 figure out / work out

139.3
2 giving/handing out
3 turned out nice/fine/sunny
4 working out
5 run out of
6 work out how to use the camera *or* figure out how to …

139.4
2 try it out
3 work it out
4 sorted it out / worked it out
5 pointing it out

UNIT 140

140.1
2 put the heating on
3 put the oven on
4 put the kettle on
5 put some music on

140.2
2 going on
3 take off
4 drove off / went off
5 put on
6 set off
7 put off
8 called off
9 put on
10 tried on
11 see (me) off
12 putting (it) off

140.3
2 took off
3 tried on a/the hat *or* tried a/the hat on
4 was called off
5 see him off
6 put them on

UNIT 141

141.1
2 c
3 b
4 a
5 a
6 b

141.2
2 finish off
3 drive on / carry on / go on
4 ripped off
5 getting on
6 went off
7 told off
8 went on
9 get on
10 keep on / keep
11 get on / carry on
12 showing off
13 put off
14 went on / carried on
15 dozed off / dropped off / nodded off

141.3
2 gets on with
3 carry on / go on / keep / keep on
4 finish it off
5 were ripped off
6 go off
7 tell them off
8 She keeps on / She keeps

UNIT 142

142.1
2 took them down
3 stand up
4 turned it up
5 put their bags down
6 were blown down
7 put them up
8 bent down (and) picked them up

142.2
2 turned it down
3 calm him down
4 let her down
5 written it down
6 cut them down

142.3
2 calm down
3 slowed down
4 was turned down
5 broken down
6 cut down
7 let down
8 closed down / has closed down
9 be knocked down
10 turned down
11 was knocked down
12 broke down

UNIT 143

143.1
2 went up to / walked up to
3 catch up with
4 keep up with

143.2
2 used up
3 washed up
4 grow up
5 turn up / show up
6 gave up
7 taking up
8 give up
9 ended up
10 takes up
11 make up

143.3
3 tidy it up / tidy up
4 fixed it up
5 keep up with
6 was brought up
7 keep it up
8 went up to
9 set it up
10 gave it up / gave up
11 was made up of

UNIT 144

144.1
2 d
3 e
4 c
5 g
6 a
7 b

144.2
2 held up
3 did it up
4 cheer him up

144.3
2 blew up
3 beaten up
4 broken up / split up
5 do up
6 clears up / will clear up
7 mixed up

144.4
2 look it up
3 put up with
4 making it up
5 come up with
6 tear them up
7 saving up for
8 bring it up
9 mix them up / get them mixed up

UNIT 145

145.1
2 blew away
3 put it back
4 walked away
5 threw it back (to her)
6 threw them away

145.2
2 be away / have gone away
3 be back
4 ran away
5 get away
6 keep away / keep back
7 smile back

145.3
2 throw
3 gets
4 be
5 look
6 gave
7 get
8 put

145.4
2 throw it away
3 take them back
4 pay you back / pay it back
5 gave them away
6 called back / called me back

Key to Additional exercises *(see page 302)*

1

3 I'm getting / I am getting
4 do you do
5 we arrived … it was raining
6 phones … she didn't phone
7 you were thinking … I decided
8 are you looking
9 It doesn't rain
10 He wasn't looking
11 we went … she was preparing … We didn't want … we didn't stay
12 told … he didn't believe … He thought … I was joking

2

2 didn't go
3 is wearing
4 went
5 haven't heard
6 is being
7 wasn't reading
8 didn't have
9 It's beginning
10 worked
11 wasn't
12 you've stayed
13 I've been doing
14 did she go
15 I've been playing
16 do you come
17 since I saw her
18 for 20 years

3

3 are you going
4 Do you watch
5 have you lived / have you been living / have you been
6 Did they have
7 Have you seen
8 was she wearing
9 Have you been waiting / Have you been here
10 does it take
11 Have you heard
12 Have you been / Have you ever been

4

2 've known each other / have known each other *or* 've been friends / have been friends
3 I've ever had / I've ever been on / I've had for ages (*etc.*)
4 He went / He went home / He went out / He left
5 I've worn it
6 I was playing
7 been swimming for
8 since I've been / since I went / since I last went
9 did you buy / did you get

5

1 got … was already waiting … had arrived
2 was lying … wasn't watching … 'd fallen / had fallen … was snoring … turned … woke
3 'd just gone / had just gone … was reading … heard … got … didn't see … went
4 missed … was standing … realised … 'd left / had left … had … got
5 met … was walking … 'd been / had been … 'd been playing / had been playing … were going … invited … 'd arranged / had arranged … didn't have

6

2 Somebody has taken it.
3 They'd only known / They had only known each other (for) a few weeks.
4 It's been raining / It has been raining all day. *or* It's rained / It has rained all day.
5 I'd been dreaming. / I had been dreaming.
6 I'd had / I had had a big breakfast.
7 They've been going / They have been going there for years.
8 I've had it / I have had it since I got up.
9 He's been training / He has been training very hard for it.

7

1 I haven't seen
2 You look / You're looking
3 are you going
4 are you meeting
5 I'm going
6 Do you often go
7 are you going
8 I'm meeting
9 has been (delayed) / is (delayed)
10 I've been waiting
11 has just started / just started
12 is she getting
13 Does she like
14 she thinks
15 Are you working
16 spoke
17 you were working
18 went
19 I started / I'd started
20 I lost
21 you haven't had
22 I've had
23 have you seen
24 has he been
25 I saw
26 he went
27 He'd been
28 he decided / he'd decided
29 He was really looking forward
30 is he doing
31 I haven't heard
32 he left

8

1 invented
2 it's gone / it has gone
3 had gone … left
4 did you do … Did you go
5 have you had
6 was looking *or* 'd been looking / had been looking
7 She's been teaching / She has been teaching
8 bought … she hasn't worn *or* she didn't wear
9 I met … was … I'd seen / I had seen … I remembered … he was
10 Have you heard … She was … died … She wrote … I haven't read
11 does this word mean … I've never seen
12 Did you get … it had already started
13 knocked … was … she'd gone / she had gone … she didn't want
14 He'd never used / He had never used … he didn't know
15 went … She needed *or* She'd needed / She had needed … she'd been sitting / she had been sitting

9

3 used to drive
4 was driving
5 were working
6 used to have
7 was living
8 was playing
9 used to play
10 was wearing

10

2 I'm going to the dentist.
3 No, we're going to rent a car.
4 I'll call her now.
5 I'm having lunch with Sue.
6 What are you going to have? / What are you having?
7 I'll turn on the light.
8 I'm going to close the window.

11

2 B
3 A
4 B
5 A
6 C
7 C
8 A

12

1 (2) Are you going to do / Are you doing
(3) it starts
(4) you'll enjoy / you're going to enjoy
(5) it will be / it's going to be
2 (1) you're going
(2) We're going
(3) you have
(4) I'll get
(5) I get
3 (1) I'm having / I'm going to have
(2) are coming
(3) they'll have left
(4) they're
(5) I won't be / I will not be
(6) you know
(7) I'll call
4 (1) shall we meet
(2) I'll be waiting
(3) you arrive
(4) I'll be sitting
(5) I'll be wearing
(6) Is Agent 307 coming / Is Agent 307 going to come / Will Agent 307 be coming
(7) Shall I bring
(8) I'll explain / I'm going to explain
(9) I see
(10) I'll try

13

1 I'll have
2 Are you going
3 shall I phone
4 It's going to land
5 it's / it is
6 I'll miss / I'm going to miss … you go / you've gone
7 Shall I give … I give … will you call
8 does it finish
9 I'm going … is getting
10 I'll tell … I'm … I won't be
11 I'm going to have / I'm having
12 she apologises
13 we'll be living / we'll live
14 you finish / you've finished

14

2 I've had / I have had
3 I bought *or* I got
4 I'll come / I will come *or* I'll be / I will be
5 I've been / I have been *or* I've eaten / I have eaten
6 I used to play
7 I haven't been waiting *or* I haven't been here
8 I'd been / I had been *or* I was
9 I'm going / I am going
10 I haven't seen *or* I haven't heard from
11 I'll have gone / I will have gone *or* I'll have left / I will have left

15

2 I've been travelling
3 I'm beginning
4 I've seen
5 has been
6 I've met
7 I left
8 I stayed *or* I was staying
9 I'd planned *or* I was planning
10 I ended up
11 I enjoyed
12 I took
13 met
14 I'm staying *or* I'm going to stay *or* I'll be staying *or* I'll stay
15 I continue
16 I'll get
17 I'm
18 I'll let
19 I know
20 I'm staying
21 we're going to visit *or* we're visiting
22 are building *or* have been building
23 it will be
24 I'll be

16

2 A
3 C
4 B *or* C
5 B
6 A *or* C
7 A *or* C
8 C
9 B *or* C
10 A *or* B
11 A
12 C
13 A *or* B
14 B *or* C
15 B

17

2 shouldn't have eaten
3 must have forgotten
4 needn't have gone
5 can't be changed
6 may be watching
7 must have been waiting
8 couldn't have done
9 should have been
10 could have phoned
11 should have been warned
12 ought to have come

18

3 could rain / might rain
4 might have gone / could have gone
5 couldn't go
6 couldn't have seen / can't have seen
7 should get
8 wouldn't recognise / might not recognise
9 must have heard
10 should have turned

19

4 rings
5 you were
6 it's / it is
7 it was *or* it were
8 it had been
9 you had
10 I'd had / I had had
11 it wouldn't have happened
12 I didn't watch

20

2 called (me)
3 (If) I'd known / I had known … (I) wouldn't have disturbed (you).
4 (There) wouldn't be (so many accidents if) there was … *or* … (if) there were …
5 (If) you'd told me about (the problem), I would have tried to help / I'd have tried to help (you). *or* … I would have helped / I'd have helped
6 (I) would have got/gotten (very wet if) I hadn't had …
7 (If he) hadn't been / hadn't got / hadn't gotten … (he) wouldn't have failed / would have passed / 'd have passed …

21

Example answers:
1 I wasn't feeling so tired
2 I hadn't had so much to do
3 I would have forgotten Amy's birthday
4 I'd probably waste it
5 I'll take a picture of you
6 you were in trouble
7 you hadn't taken so long to get ready
8 I would have gone to the concert
9 I might have got the job
10 you'd eaten lunch
11 there was less traffic
12 it would be harder to get information

22

3 was cancelled
4 has been repaired
5 is being restored
6 It's believed / It is believed
7 I'd be fired / I would be fired
8 It might have been thrown
9 He was taught
10 being arrested / having been arrested *or* I was arrested
11 Have you ever been arrested
12 are reported … have been injured

23

3 've sold / have sold *or* sold
4 's been sold / has been sold *or* was sold
5 are made
6 might be stolen
7 must have been stolen
8 must have taken
9 can be solved
10 should have left
11 is delayed
12 is being built … is expected

24

1 Castle Fire
2 was discovered
3 was injured
4 be rescued
5 are believed to have been destroyed
6 is not known
2 Shop Robbery
1 was forced
2 being threatened
3 had been stolen
4 was later found
5 had been abandoned
6 has been arrested / was arrested
7 is still being questioned
3 Road Delays
1 is being resurfaced
2 are asked / are being asked / have been asked
3 is expected
4 will be closed / is going to be closed
5 will be diverted / is going to be diverted
4 Accident
1 was taken
2 was allowed
3 was blocked
4 be diverted
5 have been killed

25

1 I told **her** (**that**) **Paul had gone out** and **I didn't know when he'd be back**.
I asked (**her**) **if**/**whether she wanted to leave a message**, but she said (**that**) **she'd try again** later.
2 I had reserved a hotel room, but when I got to the hotel they told **me** (**that**) **they had no record of a reservation in my name**.
When I asked (**them**) **if**/**whether they had any rooms free anyway**, they said (**that**) **they were sorry**, but **the hotel was full**.
3 The immigration officer asked us **why we were visiting the country**, and we told **him** (**that**) **we were on holiday**.
Then he wanted to know **how long we intended to stay** and **where we would be staying during our visit**.
4 She said (**that**) **she'd phone us from the airport when she arrived**. *or* She said (**that**) **she'll phone us from the airport when she arrives**.
No, she said not **to come to the airport**. She said that **she'd take the bus**. *or* She said that **she'll take the bus**.
5 He wanted to know **what my job was** and asked (**me**) **how much I earned**. *or* He wanted to know **what my job is** and asked (**me**) **how much I earn**.
… so I told **him to mind his own business** and ended the call.
6 He said (**that**) **he'd be at the restaurant at 7.30**.
He said (**that**) **he knew where the restaurant was**. And I told **him to phone me if there was a problem**.
7 You just said (**that**) **you weren't hungry**.
But you said (**that**) **you didn't like bananas**. You told **me not to buy any**.

26

3 changing
4 to change
5 change
6 being
7 saying
8 to call
9 drinking
10 to be
11 to see
12 taking
13 to be
14 to think … making
15 living … to move
16 to be … playing
17 being stopped … stealing … driving
18 work … pressing

27

3 I don't fancy going out.
4 He tends to forget things.
5 Would you mind helping me? / Do you mind helping me?
6 Everybody seems to have gone out.
7 We're / We are thinking of moving.
8 I was afraid to touch it.
9 I was afraid of missing my train.
10 It's / It is not worth seeing.
11 I'm not used to walking so far.
12 She seems to be enjoying herself. *or* She seemed …
13 He insisted on showing them to me.
14 I'd rather somebody else did it.

28

3 I've given up reading newspapers.
4 I'd rather not go out tonight. / … stay at home tonight.
5 He has trouble sleeping at night.
6 Do you want me to phone you this evening?
7 I came in without anybody/anyone seeing me. / … without being seen.
8 I was accused of being a cheat. / … of cheating.
9 I'm looking forward to seeing them again.
10 What do you advise me to do?
11 I'd like to have gone out with you last night.
12 I regret not taking your advice. / … that I didn't take your advice.

29

2 **a** foreign country … **the** language
3 **an** economist … in **the** United States … for **an** investment company
4 I love sport, especially tennis … two or three times **a** week … not **a** very good player
5 for dinner … after work … to **the** cinema
6 When unemployment is … for people to find work … **a** big problem
7 **an** accident … going home … taken to hospital / taken to **the** hospital … I think most accidents … by people driving
8 **the** name of **the** hotel … **The** Ambassador … in Queen Street in **the** city centre … near **the** station
9 **The** older one … **a** pilot … **The** younger one … at school … he leaves school …
go to university … study law

30

2 B
3 C
4 A *or* B
5 C
6 B
7 A *or* C
8 A
9 C
10 B *or* C
11 B

12 A
13 A *or* B
14 B

31

3 It's the **most** polluted place …
4 I was **disappointed** that …
5 *OK*
6 Joe works **hard**, but …
7 … in a **large modern** building.
8 *OK* (as fast as he can *is also correct*)
9 I missed the **last three** days …
10 *OK*
11 The weather has been **unusually** cold …
12 The water in the pool was too dirty to swim in.
13 … to wait **such a** long time. *or* to wait so long.
14 *OK*
15 … I got up **earlier** than usual.

32

2 If
3 when
4 if
5 when
6 if
7 if
8 unless
9 if
10 as long as
11 in case
12 in case
13 if
14 even if
15 Although
16 Although
17 When
18 when

33

2 on
3 **on** Tuesday morning **at** 9.30
4 at / on
5 on
6 at
7 In
8 at
9 during
10 **on** Friday … **since** then
11 for
12 at
13 **at** the moment … **until** Friday
14 by
15 in

34

1 in
2 by
3 at
4 on
5 in
6 on
7 **to** a party **at** Lisa's house
8 on
9 on
10 to
11 **in** Vienna … **at** the age of 35
12 **in** this photo … **on** the left
13 **to** the theatre … **in** the front row
14 **on** the wall **by** the door / **next to** the door / **beside** the door
15 at
16 on
17 **in** a tower block … **on** the fifteenth floor
18 on
19 by
20 **on** the bus … **by** car
21 on
22 in
23 **in** London … **to** Italy
24 to
25 on

35

1 for
2 at
3 to
4 to
5 in
6 with
7 of
8 to
9 of
10 at/by
11 of
12 about

36

1 of
2 after
3 – *(no preposition)*
4 about
5 to
6 – *(no preposition)*
7 into
8 of (about *is also possible*)
9 to
10 – *(no preposition)*
11 on
12 of
13 of
14 – *(no preposition)*
15 in
16 at (about *is also possible*)
17 on
18 If Alex **asks you for** money
19 I **apologised to Sarah for** keeping …
20 I **thanked her for** everything …

37

2 h
3 e
4 g
5 a
6 k
7 c
8 j
9 b
10 f
11 i

38

2 D
3 B
4 B
5 A
6 A
7 D
8 C
9 C
10 B
11 A
12 D

39

2 out to
3 up with
4 forward to
5 up with
6 out of
7 on with
8 up with
9 back on
10 out about
11 on with

40

3 turned up / showed up
4 fill it in / fill it out
5 knocked down / pulled down / torn down
6 give up
7 dozed off / dropped off / nodded off
8 split up / break up
9 put up with it
10 get by
11 went on
12 put it off

41

2 put
3 moving
4 put
5 done
6 turned / turns
7 find
8 Calm
9 set
10 held
11 left / 've left / have left *or* missed / 've missed / have missed
12 works
13 join
14 works
15 drop / call
16 sort / work
17 **went** off … **woke** me up

Key to Study guide

Present and past

1.1	A
1.2	B
1.3	C
1.4	B, C
1.5	C
1.6	A

Present perfect and past

2.1	B
2.2	C
2.3	A
2.4	C
2.5	A
2.6	B
2.7	A, D
2.8	D
2.9	A
2.10	A
2.11	C
2.12	A
2.13	C, D
2.14	C
2.15	D
2.16	C

Future

3.1	B
3.2	A
3.3	C
3.4	A, C
3.5	B
3.6	C
3.7	A

Modals

4.1	A, B
4.2	B
4.3	A, C, D
4.4	C
4.5	B
4.6	C, D
4.7	B
4.8	A, C
4.9	B, C
4.10	A, B, D
4.11	A
4.12	D, E
4.13	A

if and wish

5.1	B
5.2	C
5.3	B
5.4	D
5.5	A

Passive

6.1	C
6.2	B
6.3	D
6.4	A
6.5	A, B
6.6	C
6.7	D

Reported speech

7.1	A
7.2	B
7.3	A

Questions and auxiliary verbs

8.1	C
8.2	A
8.3	D
8.4	A
8.5	B

-ing and to …

9.1	A, D
9.2	B, D
9.3	B
9.4	A
9.5	A
9.6	A
9.7	C
9.8	D
9.9	C
9.10	C
9.11	B
9.12	C, D
9.13	D
9.14	B
9.15	A, B
9.16	A
9.17	A
9.18	B, C

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10.4	B
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10.6	A
10.7	A
10.8	A
10.9	D
10.10	C
10.11	C
10.12	A
10.13	C
10.14	B

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11.5	B
11.6	C
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11.9	D
11.10	A
11.11	B
11.12	B, C

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12.4	B
12.5	D
12.6	B, C

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13.7	B, C
13.8	C
13.9	C
13.10	B, C
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13.14	D, E
13.15	D

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14.5	B
14.6	C, D
14.7	B, C
14.8	A

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15.4	B
15.5	A
15.6	B, D
15.7	B
15.8	B
15.9	C
15.10	C
15.11	C
15.12	A
15.13	C
15.14	B
15.15	D
15.16	D
15.17	A

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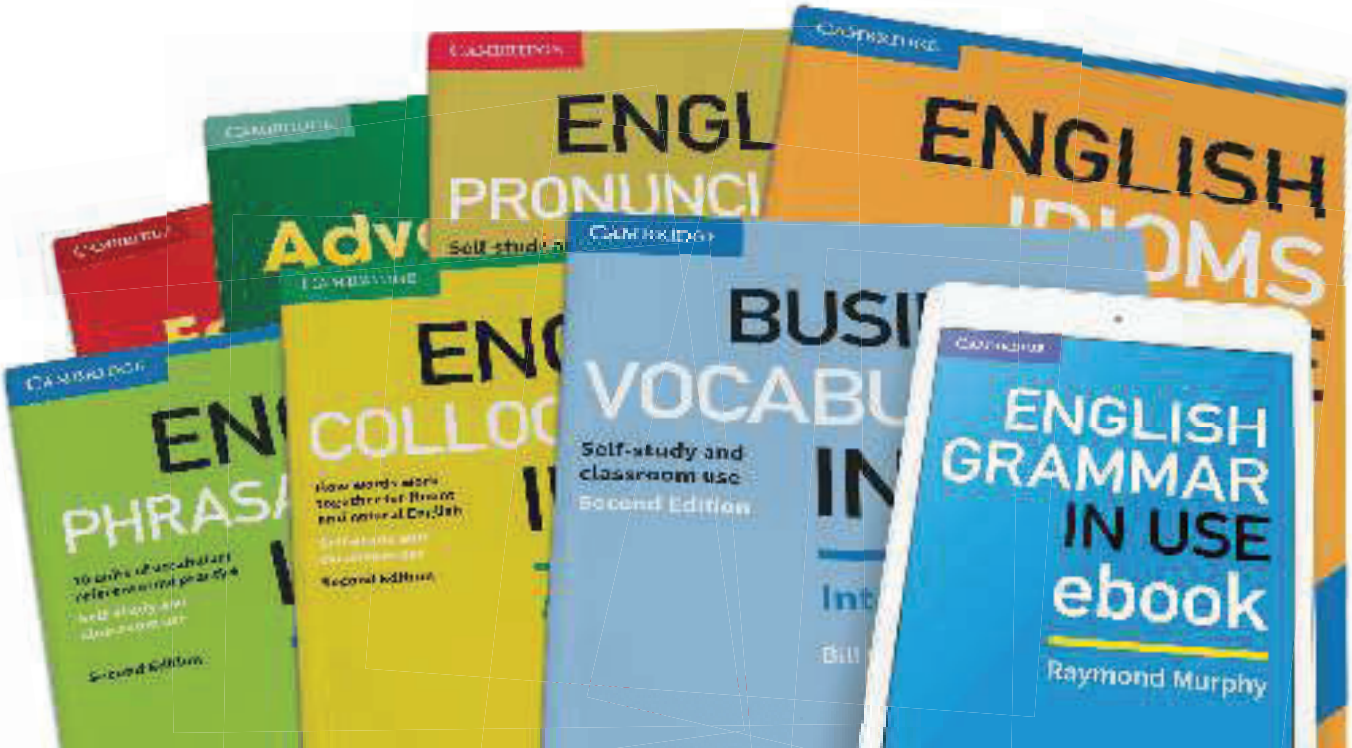

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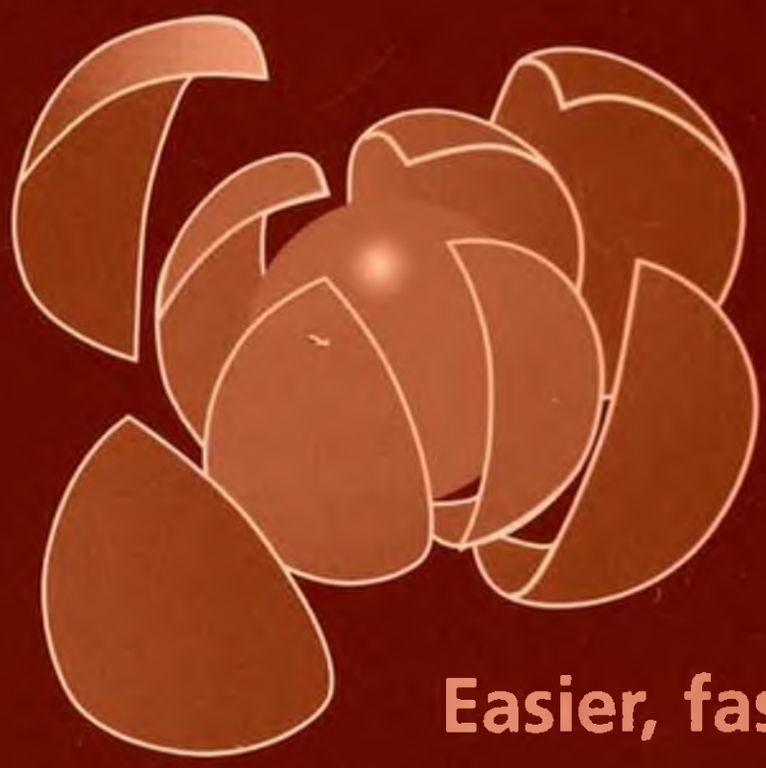

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Dedication

To John Eckersley, who first encouraged my interest in this kind of thing.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to all the people who have helped me with the preparation of this third edition. A large number of teachers in different countries were kind enough to respond to an enquiry asking how they felt *Practical English Usage* could be improved: their feedback was extremely helpful, and I am very much in their debt. I am also greatly indebted to David Baker, whose comments and suggestions have added very significantly to the accuracy and clarity of the book, and to Hideo Hibino and Kenji Kashino, who have contributed valuable advice on specific problems. Many other teachers and students – too many to name – have taken the trouble to suggest ways in which particular entries could be improved; their input has benefited the book considerably. My use of the internet as a source of instances of authentic usage has been greatly facilitated by the kind assistance of Hiroaki Sato, of Senshu University, Japan, who made available his excellent software tool KwiconGugle. I must also reacknowledge my debt to Jonathan Blundell, Norman Coe, Michio Kawakami, Michael Macfarlane, Nigel Middlemiss, Keith Mitchell, Catherine Walter, Gareth Watkins, and the many other consultants and correspondents whose help and advice with the preparation of the first and second editions continue as an important contribution to the third.

Any pedagogic grammarian owes an enormous debt to the academic linguists on whose research he or she is parasitic. There is not enough space to mention all the scholars of the last hundred years or so on whose work I have drawn directly or indirectly, even if I had a complete record of my borrowings. But I must at least pay homage to two monumental reference works of the present generation: the *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1985), and the *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, by Huddleston, Pullum and others (Cambridge University Press 2002). Their authoritative accounts of the facts of English structure and usage constitute an essential source of information for anyone writing pedagogic grammar materials today.

Finally, it is with particular pleasure that I express my gratitude, once again, to the editorial, design and production team at Oxford University Press, whose professional expertise is matched only by their concern to make an author's task as trouble-free as possible.

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Introduction

The purpose of this book

English, like all languages, is full of problems for the foreign learner. Some of these points are easy to explain – for instance, the formation of questions, the difference between *since* and *for*, the meaning of *after all*. Other problems are more tricky, and cause difficulty even for advanced students and teachers. How exactly is the present perfect used? When do we use past tenses to be polite? What are the differences between *at*, *on* and *in* with expressions of place? We can say *a chair leg* – why not **a cat leg*? When can we use the expression *do so*? When is *the* used with superlatives? Is *unless* the same as *if not*? What are the differences between *come* and *go*, between *each* and *every*, between *big*, *large* and *great*, between *fairly*, *quite*, *rather* and *pretty*? Is it correct to say *There's three more bottles in the fridge*? How do you actually say *3 × 4 = 12*? And so on, and so on.

Practical English Usage is a guide to problems of this kind. It deals with over 600 points which regularly cause difficulty to foreign students of English. It will be useful, for example, to a learner who is not sure how to use a particular structure, or who has made a mistake and wants to find out why it is wrong. It will also be helpful to a teacher who is looking for a clear explanation of a difficult language point. There is very full coverage of grammar, as well as explanations of a large number of common vocabulary problems. There are also some entries designed to clarify more general questions (e.g. formality, slang, the nature of standard English and dialects) which students and teachers may find themselves concerned with.

Level

The book is intended for higher level students of English and for teachers. Being a reference book, it contains information at various levels, ranging from relatively simple points to quite advanced problems.

Organisation

Problems are mostly explained in short separate entries: the book is more like a dictionary than a grammar in form. This makes it possible to give a clear complete treatment of each point, and enables the user to concentrate just on the question that he or she needs information about. Entries that deal with related topics (e.g. different uses of a tense) are grouped where this is useful, but can be read separately. In longer entries, basic information is generally given first, followed by more detailed explanations and discussions of less important points. Entries are arranged alphabetically by title and numbered in sequence. A comprehensive Index (pages 624–658) shows where each point can be found (see 'How to find things', page x).

Approach and style

I have tried to make the presentation as practical as possible. Each entry contains an explanation of a problem, examples of correct usage, and (when this is useful) examples of typical mistakes. In some cases, an explanation may be somewhat different from that found in many learners' grammars; this is because

the rules traditionally given for certain points (e.g. conditionals or indirect speech) are not always accurate or helpful. Explanations are, as far as possible, in simple everyday language. Where it has been necessary to use grammatical terminology, I have generally preferred to use traditional terms that are simple and easy to understand, except where this would be seriously misleading. Some of these terms (e.g. future tense) would be regarded as unsatisfactory by academic grammarians, but I am not writing for specialists. There is a dictionary of the terminology used in the book on pages xvii–xxv.

The kind of English described

The explanations deal mainly with standard modern everyday British English, and are illustrated with realistic examples of current usage. Both explanations and examples have been thoroughly checked against large electronic databases ('corpora') of authentic spoken and written English. Stylistic differences (e.g. between formal and informal usage, or spoken and written language) are mentioned where this is appropriate. The few grammatical differences between British and American English are also described, and there is a good deal of information about other British-American differences, but the book is not intended as a systematic guide to American usage.

Correctness

If people say that a form is not 'correct', they can mean several different things. They may for instance be referring to a sentence like **I have seen her yesterday*, which normally only occurs in the English of foreigners. They may be thinking of a usage like *less people* (instead of *fewer people*), which is common in standard English but regarded as wrong by some people. Or they may be talking about forms like **ain't* or 'double negatives', which are used in speech by many British and American people, but which do not occur in the standard dialects and are not usually written. This book is mainly concerned with the first kind of 'correctness': the differences between British or American English and 'foreign' English. However, there is also information about cases of divided usage in standard English, and about a few important dialect forms. (For a discussion of different kinds of English, see 308–309.)

How important is correctness?

If someone makes too many mistakes in a foreign language, he or she can be difficult to understand, so a reasonable level of correctness is important. However, it is quite unnecessary to speak or write a language perfectly in order to communicate effectively (very few adults in fact achieve a perfect command of another language). Learners should aim to avoid serious mistakes (and a book like *Practical English Usage* will help considerably with this); but they should not become obsessed with correctness, or worry every time they make a mistake. Grammar is not the most important thing in the world!

What this book does not do

Practical English Usage is not a complete guide to the English language. As the title suggests, its purpose is practical: to give learners and their teachers the most important information they need in order to deal with common language problems. Within this framework, the explanations are as complete and accurate as I can make them. However it is not always helpful or possible in a book of this kind to deal with all the details of a complex structural point; so readers may well find occasional exceptions to some of the grammatical rules given here. Equally, the book does not aim to replace a dictionary. While it gives information about common problems with the use of a number of words, it does not attempt to describe other meanings or uses of the words beside those points that are selected for attention.

Other reference books

A book like this gives explanations of individual points of usage, but does not show how the separate points 'fit together'. Those who need a systematically organised account of the whole of English grammar should consult a book such as the *Oxford Learner's Grammar*, by John Eastwood (Oxford University Press), *A Student's Grammar of the English Language*, by Greenbaum and Quirk (Longman), or *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* (Collins). For a detailed treatment of English vocabulary, see the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, the *Macmillan English Dictionary* or the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*.

Changes in the third edition

English, like all languages, is changing, and British English is currently being quite strongly influenced by American English. Consequently, some usages which were unusual in standard British English a few decades ago have now become common – for example, the use of *like* as a conjunction (e.g. *like I do*), or the use of *Do you have . . .?* to ask about the immediate present (e.g. *Do you have a light?*). The third edition takes account of a number of changes of this kind, in order to give a fully up-to-date description of contemporary usage.

How to find things

The best way to find information about a particular point is to look in the Index on pages 624–658. (The overview on pages xi–xvi is intended only to give a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents.) Most points are indexed under several different names, so it is not difficult to locate the entry you need. For instance, if you want to know why we say *I'm not used to driving on the left* instead of *I'm not used to drive on the left*, you can find the number of the section where this is explained by looking in the index under 'used', 'be used', 'to' or '-ing forms'. (On the other hand, it would obviously not be helpful to look under 'drive': the rule is a general one about the use of *-ing* forms after *be used to*, not about the verb *drive* in particular.)

Contents Overview

This overview gives a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents. References are to entry numbers. To find information about a particular point, consult the Index on pages 624–658,

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Language terminology

The following words and expressions are used in this book to talk about grammar and other aspects of language.

abstract noun (the opposite of a **concrete noun**) the name of something which we experience as an idea, not by seeing, touching etc. Examples: *doubt*; *height*; *geography*.

active An active verb form is one like *breaks, told, will help* (not like *is broken, was told, will be helped*, which are **passive** verb forms). The subject of an active verb is usually the person or thing that does the action, or that is responsible for what happens.

adjective a word like *green, hungry, impossible*, which is used when we describe people, things, events etc. Adjectives are used in connection with nouns and pronouns. Examples: *a green apple*; *She's hungry*.

adverb a word like *tomorrow, once, badly, there, also*, which is used to say, for example, when, where or how something happens. There are very many kinds of adverbs with different functions: see 22–27.

adverb particle a short adverb like *up, out, off*, often used as part of a phrasal verb (e.g. *clean up, look out, tell off*).

affirmative an affirmative sentence is one that makes a positive statement – not a negative sentence or a question. Compare *I agree* (affirmative); *I don't agree* (negative).

agent In a passive sentence, the agent is the expression that says who or what an action is done by. Example: *This picture was probably painted by a child.*

article *A, an* and *the* are called 'articles'. *A/an* is called the 'indefinite article'; *the* is called the 'definite article'.

aspect Grammarians prefer to talk about progressive and perfective aspect, rather than progressive and perfect tense, since these forms express other ideas besides time (e.g. continuity, completion). However, in this book the term *tense* is often used to include aspect, for the sake of simplicity.

attributive Adjectives placed before nouns are in 'attributive position'. Examples: *a green shirt*; *my noisy son*. See also **predicative**.

auxiliary verb a verb like *be, have, do* which is used with another verb to make tenses, passive forms etc. Examples: *She was writing*; *Where have you put it?* See also **modal auxiliary verb**.

clause a part of a sentence which contains a subject and a verb, usually joined to the rest of a sentence by a conjunction. Example: *Mary said that she was tired.* (The word *clause* is also sometimes used for structures containing participles or infinitives with no subject or conjunction. Example: *Not knowing what to do, I telephoned Robin.*)

cleft sentence a sentence in which special emphasis is given to one part (e.g. the subject or the object) by using a structure with *it* or *what*. Examples: *It was you that caused the accident*; *What I need is a drink.*

collective noun a singular word for a group. Examples: *family*; *team*.

comparative the form of an adjective or adverb made with *-er* (e.g. *older, faster*); also the structure *more* + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. *more useful, more politely*).

complement (1) a part of a sentence that gives more information about the subject (after *be, seem* and some other verbs), or, in some structures, about the object. Examples: *You're the right person to help; She looks very kind; They elected him President.*
(2) a structure or words needed after a noun, adjective, verb or preposition to complete its meaning. Examples: *the intention to travel; full of water; try phoning; down the street.*

compound a compound noun, verb, adjective, preposition etc is one that is made of two or more parts. Examples: *bus driver; get on with; one-eyed.*

concrete noun (the opposite of an **abstract noun**) the name of something which we can experience by seeing, touching etc. Examples: *cloud; petrol; raspberry.*

conditional (1) a verb form made by using the auxiliary *would* (also *should* after *I* and *we*). Examples: *I would run; She would sing; We should think.*
(2) a clause or sentence containing *if* (or a word with a similar meaning), and perhaps containing a conditional verb form. Examples: *If you try you'll understand; I should be surprised if she knew; What would you have done if the train had been late?*

conjunction a word like *and, but, although, because, when, if,* which can be used to join clauses together. Example: *I rang because I was worried.*

consonant for example, the letters *b, c, d, f g* and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also **vowel**.

continuous the same as **progressive**.

contraction a short form in which a subject and an auxiliary verb, or an auxiliary verb and the word *not,* are joined together into one word. Contractions are also made with non-auxiliary *be* and *have.* Examples: *I'm; who've; John'll; can't.*

co-ordinate clause one of two or more main or subordinate clauses of equal 'value' that are connected. Examples: *Shall I come to your place or would you like to come to mine?; It's cooler today and there's a bit of a wind; she said that it was late and that she was tired.* See also **main clause, subordinate clause.**

copular verb the same as **link verb**.

countable noun a noun like *car, dog, idea,* which can have a plural form, and can be used with the indefinite article *a/an.* See also **uncountable noun.**

declarative question a question which has the same grammatical form as a statement. Example: *That's your girlfriend?*

definite article *the.*

defining relative see **identifying relative.**

demonstrative *this, these, that, those.*

determiner one of a group of words that begin noun phrases. Determiners include *a/an, the, my, this, each, either, several, more, both, all.*

direct object see **object.**

direct speech speech reported 'directly', in the words used by the original speaker (more or less), without any changes of tense, pronouns etc. Example: *She looked at me and said 'This is my money'.* See also **indirect speech.**

discourse marker a word or expression which shows the connection between what is being said and the wider context. A discourse marker may, for example, connect a sentence with what comes before or after, or it may show the speaker's attitude to what he/she is saying. Examples: *on the other hand; frankly; as a matter of fact.*

duration how long something lasts. The preposition *for* can be used with an expression of time to indicate duration.

ellipsis leaving out words when their meaning can be understood from the context. Examples: *(It's a) Nice day, isn't it?*; *It was better than I expected (it would be)*.

emphasis giving special importance to one part of a word or sentence (for example by pronouncing it more loudly; by writing it in capital letters; by using *do* in an affirmative clause; by using special word order).

emphatic pronoun reflexive pronoun (*myself, yourself* etc) used to emphasise a noun or pronoun. Examples: *I'll tell him **myself**; I wouldn't sell this to the king **himself**.* See also **reflexive pronoun.**

ending something added to the end of a word, e.g. *-er, -ing, -ed.*

first person see **person.**

formal the style used when talking politely to strangers, on special occasions, in some literary writing, in business letters, etc. For example, *commence* is a more formal word than *start.*

frequency Adverbs of frequency say how often something happens. Examples: *often*; *never*; *daily*; *occasionally.*

fronting moving a part of a clause to the beginning in order to give it special emphasis. Example: ***Jack** I like, but **his wife** I can't stand.*

full verb see **main verb.**

future a verb form made with the auxiliary *shall/will* + infinitive without *to.* Examples; *I **shall** arrive*; *Will it matter?*

future perfect a verb form made with *shall/will* + *have* + past participle. Example: *I **will have finished** by lunchtime.*

future progressive (or **future continuous**) a verb form made with *shall/will* + *be* + . . .*ing.* Example: *I **will be needing** the car this evening.*

gender the use of different grammatical forms to show the difference between masculine, feminine and neuter, or between human and non-human. Examples: *he*; *she*; *it*; *who*; *which.*

gerund the form of a verb ending in *-ing*, used like a noun (for example, as the subject or object of a sentence). Examples: ***Smoking** is bad for you*; *I hate **getting** up early.* See also **present participle.**

gradable *Pretty, hard* or *cold* are gradable adjectives: things can be more or less *pretty, hard* or *cold.* Adverbs of degree (like *rather, very*) can be used with gradable words. *Perfect* or *dead* are not gradable words: we do not usually say that something is *more* or *less perfect*, or *very dead.*

grammar the rules that show how words are combined, arranged or changed to show certain kinds of meaning.

hypothetical Some words and structures (e.g. modal verbs, *if*-clauses) are used for hypothetical situations – that is to say, situations which may not happen, or are imaginary. Example: *What would you do if you had six months free?*

identifying (or **defining**) **relative clause** a relative clause which identifies a noun – which tells us which person or thing is being talked about. Example: *There's the woman **who tried to steal your cat**.* (The relative clause *who tried to steal your cat* identifies the woman – it tells us which woman is meant.) See also **non-identifying relative clause.**

imperative the form of a verb used to give orders, make suggestions, etc. Examples: ***Bring** me a pen*; ***Have** a good holiday.*

indefinite article *a/an.*

indirect object see **object.**

indirect speech a structure in which we report what somebody said by making it part of our own sentence (so that the tenses, word order, and pronouns and other words may be different from those used by the original speaker). Compare: *He said 'I'm tired'* (the original speaker's words are reported in direct speech) and *He said **that he was tired*** (the original speaker's words are reported in indirect speech).

infinitive the 'base' form of a word (usually with *to*), used after another verb, after an adjective or noun, or as the subject or complement of a sentence. Examples: *I want **to go** home; It's easy **to sing**; I've got a plan **to start** a business; **To err** is human, **to forgive** divine.*

informal the style used in ordinary conversation, personal letters etc, when there is no special reason to speak politely or carefully. *I'll* is more informal than *I will*; *get* is used mostly in an informal style; *start* is a more informal word than *commence.*

-ing form the form of a verb ending in *-ing*. Examples: *finding; keeping; running.* See also **gerund, present participle.**

initial at the beginning. *Sometimes* is an adverb that can go in initial position in a sentence. Example: ***Sometimes** I wish I had a different job.*

intensifying making stronger, more emphatic. *Very* and *terribly* are intensifying adverbs.

interrogative Interrogative structures and words are used for asking questions. In an interrogative sentence, there is an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be*) before the subject (e.g. *Can you swim?; Are you ready?*). *What, who* and *where* are interrogative words.

intonation the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls to show meaning, sentence structure or mood.

intransitive An intransitive verb is one that cannot have an object or be used in the passive. Examples: *smile; fall; come; go.*

inversion a structure in which an auxiliary or other verb comes before its subject. Examples: *Never **had she** seen such a mess; Here **comes John**.*

irregular not following the normal rules. or not having the usual form. An irregular verb has a past tense and/or past participle that does not end in *-ed* (e.g. *swam, taken*); *children* is an irregular plural.

link verb (or **copular verb**) *be, seem, feel* and other verbs which link a subject to a complement that describes it. Examples: *My mother **is** in Jersey; He **seems** unhappy; This **feels** soft.*

main clause, subordinate clause Some sentences consist of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause acts like a part of the main clause (e.g. like a subject, or an object, or an adverbial). Examples: ***Where she is** doesn't matter* (the subordinate clause *Where she is* is the subject of the main clause); *I told you **that I didn't care*** (the subordinate clause *that I didn't care* is the direct object in the main clause); *You'll find friends **wherever you go*** (the subordinate clause *wherever you go* acts like an adverb in the main clause: compare *You'll find friends **anywhere***).

main verb (or **full verb**) A verb phrase often contains one or more auxiliary verbs together with a main verb. The main verb is the verb which expresses the central meaning; auxiliary verbs mostly add grammatical information (for instance they may show that a verb is progressive, future, perfect or passive). Examples: *is going*; *will explain*; *has arrived*; *would have been forgotten*.

manner an adverb of manner describes how something happens. Examples: *well*; *suddenly*; *fast*.

mid-position If an adverb is in mid-position in a sentence, it is with the verb. Example: *I have never been to Africa*.

misrelated participle (also called **hanging** or **dangling participle**) a participle which appears to have a subject which is not its own. Example: *Looking out of the window, the mountains appeared very close*. (This seems to say that the mountains were looking out of the window.) The structure is usually avoided in careful writing because of the danger of misunderstanding.

modal auxiliary verb one of the verbs *can, could, may, might, must, will, shall, would, should, ought*.

modify An adjective is said to 'modify' the noun it is with: it adds to or defines its meaning. Examples: *a fine day*; *my new job*. An adverb can modify a verb (e.g. *run fast*), an adjective (e.g. *completely ready*) or other words or expressions. In *sports car*, the first noun modifies the second.

negative a negative sentence is one in which the word *not* is used with the verb. Example: *I didn't know*.

nominal relative clause a relative clause (usually introduced by *what*) which acts as the subject, object or complement of a sentence. Example: *I gave him what he needed*.

non-affirmative (also called **non-assertive**) The words *some, somebody, somewhere* etc are used most often in affirmative sentences. In other kinds of sentence they are often replaced by *any, anybody, anywhere* etc. Words like *any, anybody* etc are called 'non-affirmative' or non-assertive' forms. Other non-affirmative forms are *yet* and *ever*.

non-identifying (or **non-defining**) **relative clause** a relative clause which does not identify the noun it refers to (because we already know which person or thing is meant). Example: *There's Hannah Smith, who tried to steal my cat*. (The relative clause, *who tried to steal my cat*, does not identify the person – she is already identified by the name *Hannah Smith*.) See also **identifying relative clause**.

noun a word like *oil, memory, arm*, which can be used with an article. Nouns are most often the names of people or things. Personal names (e.g. *George*) and place names (e.g. *Birmingham*) are called 'proper nouns'; they are usually used without articles.

noun phrase a group of words (e.g. article + adjective + noun) which acts as the subject, object or complement in a clause. Example: *the last bus*.

number the way in which differences between singular and plural are shown grammatically. The differences between *house* and *houses*, *mouse* and *mice*, *this* and *these* are differences of number.

object a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes after the verb in an active clause. The direct object most often refers to a person or thing (or people or things) affected by the action of the verb. In the sentence *Take the dog for a walk, the dog* is the direct object. The indirect object usually refers to a person (or people) who receive(s) the direct object. In the sentence *Ann gave me a watch*, the indirect object is *me*, and the direct object is *a watch*. See also **subject**.

participle see **present participle** and **past participle**.

participle clause a clause-like structure which contains a participle, not a verb tense. Examples: *Discouraged by his failure, he resigned from his job*; *Having a couple of hours to spare, I went to see a film*.

passive A passive verb form is made with *be* + past participle. Examples: *is broken*; *was told*; *will be helped* (but not *breaks, told, will help*, which are active verb forms). The subject of a passive verb form is usually the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. Compare: *They sent Lucas to prison for five years* (active) and *Lucas was sent to prison for five years* (passive). See also **active**.

past participle a verb form like *broken, gone, stopped*, which can be used to form perfect tenses and passives, or as an adjective. (The meaning is not necessarily past, in spite of the name.)

past perfect a verb form made with *had* + past participle. Examples: *I had forgotten*; *The children had arrived*; *She had been working*; *It had been raining*. The first two examples are simple past perfect; the last two (with *had been* + ...*ing*) are past perfect progressive (or continuous).

past progressive (or continuous) a verb form made with *was/were* + ...*ing*. Examples: *I was going*; *They were stopping*.

past simple see **simple past**.

perfect a verb form made with the auxiliary *have* + past participle. Examples: *I have forgotten*; *She had failed*; *having arrived*; *to have finished*.

perfect conditional *should/would have* + past participle. Examples: *I should/would have agreed*; *He would have known*.

perfect infinitive *(to) have* + past participle. Example: *to have arrived*.

person the way in which, in grammar, we show the difference between the person(s) speaking (*first person*), the person(s) spoken to (*second person*), and the person, people or thing(s) spoken about (*third person*). The differences between *I* and *you*, or between *am, are* and *is*, are differences of person.

personal pronouns the words *I, me, you, he, him* etc.

phrase two or more words that function together as a group. Examples: *dead tired*; *the silly old woman*; *would have been repaired*; *in the country*.

phrasal verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb + adverb particle. Examples: *fill up*; *run over*; *take in*.

plural grammatical form used to refer to more than one person or thing. Examples: *we*; *buses*; *children*; *are*; *many*; *these*. See also **singular**.

possessive a form used to show possession and similar ideas. Examples: *John's*; *our*; *mine*.

possessive pronoun *My, your, his, her* etc are possessive pronouns (they stand for 'the speaker's', 'the hearer's', 'that person's' etc). *Mine, yours, his, hers* etc are also possessive pronouns, for the same reason. *My, your* etc are used before nouns, so they are not only pronouns, but also determiners. (They are often called 'possessive adjectives', but this is not correct.) *Mine, yours* etc are used without following nouns.

postmodifier a word that comes after the word which it modifies, e.g. *invited* in *The people **invited** all came late.* See also **premodifier.**

predicative Adjectives placed after a verb like *be, seem, look* are in predicative position. Examples: *The house is **enormous**; She looks **happy**.* See also **attributive.**

prefix a form like *ex-, anti-* or *un-*, which can be added to the front of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: ***ex-**wife, **anti-**British, **un**happy.* See also **suffix.**

premodifier a word that comes before the word which it modifies, e.g. *invited* in *an **invited** audience.* See also **postmodifier.**

preparatory subject, preparatory object When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive or a clause, we usually put it towards the end of the sentence and use the pronoun *it* as a preparatory subject. Example: *It is important **to get enough sleep**. It* can also be used as a preparatory object in certain structures. Example: *He made **it** clear **that he disagreed**. There* is used as a kind of preparatory subject in *there is* . . . and similar structures. Example: *There is somebody at the door.*

preposition a word like *on, off, of, into*, normally followed by a noun or pronoun.

prepositional verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb form + preposition. Examples: *insist on; care for; listen to.*

present participle the form of a verb ending in *-ing*, used as an adjective, a verb or part of a verb. Examples: *a **crying** baby; **Opening** his newspaper, he started to read; She was **running**.* (The meaning is not necessarily present, in spite of the name.) See also **gerund.**

present perfect a verb form made with *have/has* + past participle. Examples: *I **have forgotten**; The children **have arrived**; I've **been working** all day; It has **been raining**.* The first two examples are simple present perfect; the last two (with *have been* + . . .*ing*) are present perfect progressive (or present perfect continuous).

present progressive (or **continuous**) a verb form made with *am/are/is* + . . .*ing*. Examples: *I **am going**; She **is staying** for two weeks.*

present simple see **simple present.**

progressive (or **continuous**) A verb form made with the auxiliary *be* + . . .*ing*. Examples: *to **be going**; We **were wondering**; I'll **be seeing** you.*

progressive (or **continuous**) **infinitive** a form like *to **be going**; to **be waiting**.*

pronoun a word like *it, yourself, their*, which is used instead of a more precise noun or noun phrase (like *the cat, Peter's self, the family's*). The word *pronoun* can also be used for a determiner when this includes the meaning of a following noun which has been left out. Example: *I'll take **these**.*

proper noun or **proper name** a noun (most often with no article) which is the name of a particular person, place, organisation etc. Examples: *Andrew, Brazil; the European Union.*

quantifier a determiner like *many, few, little, several*, which is used in a noun phrase to show how much or how many we are talking about.

question tag an expression like *do you?* or *isn't it?*, consisting of an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be* or *have*) + pronoun subject, put on to the end of a sentence. Examples: *You don't eat meat, **do you?**; It's a nice day, **isn't it?***

reflexive pronoun *myself yourself, himself* etc. Example: *I cut **myself** shaving this morning.* See also **emphatic pronoun.**

regular following the normal rules or having the usual form. *Hoped* is a regular past tense; *cats* is a regular plural. See also **irregular**.

relative clause a clause which modifies a noun, usually introduced by a relative pronoun like *who* or *which*. Example: *I like people **who** like me.* See also **identifying relative clause**, **non-identifying relative clause**.

relative pronoun a pronoun used to connect a relative clause to its noun. *Who, whom, whose, which* and *that* can be used as relative pronouns, and sometimes also *when, where* and *why*. Examples: *There's the man **who** wants to buy my car; This is the room **which** needs painting; Do you remember the day **when** we met?*

reply question a question (similar in structure to a question tag) used to reply to a statement, for instance to express interest. Example: *I've been invited to spend the weekend in London.~**Have you, dear?***

second person see **person**.

sentence a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.

short answer an answer consisting of a subject and an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be* or *have*). Examples: *Has anybody phoned the police?~**John has.**; Who's ready for more?~**I am.***

simple past (or **past simple**) a past verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: *I **stopped**; You **heard**; We **knew**.*

simple present (or **present simple**) a present verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: *He **goes** there often; I **know**; I **like** chocolate.*

simple a verb form that is not progressive.

singular a grammatical form used to talk about one person, thing, etc, or about an uncountable quantity or mass. Examples: *me; bus; water; is; much; this*. See also plural.

slang a word, expression or special use of language found mainly in very informal speech, often in the usage of particular groups of people. Examples: *thick* (= stupid); *lose one's cool* (= get upset); *sparks* (= electrician).

split infinitive a structure in which an adverb comes between *to* and the rest of the infinitive. Example: *to easily understand*. Some people consider split infinitives 'incorrect', but they are common in standard usage.

standard A standard form of a language is the one that is most generally accepted for use in government, the law, business, education and literature. *I'm not* is standard English; *I ain't* is non-standard.

statement a sentence which gives information; not a question. Examples: *I'm cold; Philip didn't come home last night.*

stress the way in which one or more parts of a word, phrase or sentence are made to sound more important than the rest, by using a louder voice and/or higher pitch. In the word *particular*, the main stress is on the second syllable (*parTIcular*); in the sentence *Where's the new secretary?* there are three stresses (*WHERE'S the NEW SEcretary?*).

strong form, weak form Certain words can be pronounced in two ways: slowly and carefully with the vowel that is written (strong form), or with a quicker pronunciation with the vowel /ə/ or /ɪ/ (weak form). Examples: *can* (/kæn/, /kən/), *was* (/wɒz/, /wəz/), *for* (/fɔ:(r)/, /fə(r)/).

subject a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes before the verb in an affirmative clause. It often says (in an active clause) who or what does the action that the verb refers to. Examples: *Helen gave me a wonderful smile; Oil floats on water.* See also **object**.

subjunctive a verb form (not very common in British English) used in certain structures. Examples: *If I were you . . .; It's important that he be informed immediately; We prefer that he pay in cash.*

subordinate clause a clause which functions as part of another clause, for example as subject, object or adverbial in the main clause of a sentence. Examples: *I thought that you understood; What I need is a drink; I'll follow you wherever you go.* See also **clause, main clause.**

suffix a form like *-ology, -able* or *-ese,* which can be added to the end of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: *climatology; understandable; Chinese.* See also **prefix.**

superlative the form of an adjective or adverb made with the suffix *-est* (e.g. *oldest, fastest*); also the structure *most* + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. *most intelligent, most politely*).

swearword a taboo word used (usually with a change of meaning) to express strong emotion or emphasis. Example: *Fuck!*

syllable The word *cat* has one syllable, *cattle* has two, *cataract* has three and *category* has four. A syllable normally has a vowel, and usually one or more consonants before and/or after it. Sometimes the consonant sounds *l, m* and *n* can act as syllables (for instance in the words *bottle* /ˈbɒtl/, *capitalism* /ˈkæpɪtəlɪzm/, *button* /ˈbʌtn/).

taboo word a word (e.g. *fuck*) connected with a subject (such as sex) which is not talked about freely, so that some of its vocabulary is considered shocking. Taboo words are not used in formal speech or writing, and are avoided altogether by many people. See also **swearword.**

tag a short phrase (e.g. pronoun subject + auxiliary verb) added on to the end of a sentence, especially in speech. Examples: *He likes to talk, John does; You can't swim, can you?; Very noisy, those kids.* See also **question tag.**

tense a verb form that shows the time of an action, event or state. Examples: *will go; is sitting; saw.*

third person see **person.**

transitive a transitive verb is one that can have an object. Examples: *eat (a meal); drive (a car); give (a present).* See also **intransitive.**

uncountable noun a noun which has no plural form and cannot normally be used with the article *a/an.* Examples: *mud; rudeness; furniture.*

verb a word like *ask, wake, play, be, can,* which can be used with a subject to form the basis of a clause. In clauses, verbs often consist of an auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle (e.g. *will go; has spoken*). Most verbs refer to actions, events or states. See also **auxiliary verb, modal auxiliary verb, verb phrase.**

verb phrase a verb that has more than one part. Example: *would have been forgotten.*

vowel the letters *a, e, i, o, u* and their combinations, and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also **consonant.**

weak form see **strong form.**

Don't say it! 130 common mistakes

35 basic mistakes to avoid. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
Look – it rains.	Look – it's raining	461-464
It's often raining here.	It often rains here.	461-464
When I was 20 I was smoking.	When I was 20 I smoked.	422
I have seen Louis yesterday.	I saw Louis yesterday.	456
We're living here since April.	We've been living here since April.	460
I'll phone you when I will arrive.	I'll phone you when I arrive.	212
I'm not believing him.	I don't believe him.	471
I am born in Chicago.	I was born in Chicago.	108
My sister has 15 years.	My sister is 15 (years old).	32
I have cold in this house.	I am cold in this house.	92
I can to swim.	I can swim.	121
I must see the dentist yesterday.	I had to see the dentist yesterday.	358
I want go home.	I want to go home.	613
I came here for study English.	I came here to study English.	289
I drove there without to stop.	I drove there without stopping.	298
Where I can buy stamps?	Where can I buy stamps?	480
Is ready my new office?	Is my new office ready?	480
I'm no asleep.	I'm not asleep.	382
She looked, but she didn't see nothing.	. . . she didn't see anything. / . . . she saw nothing.	370
Where is station?	Where is the station?	62
My sister is photographer.	My sister is a photographer.	62
You speak a very good English.	You speak very good English.	149
The life is difficult.	Life is difficult.	68
I haven't got some free time today.	I haven't got any free time today.	547
Everybody were late.	Everybody was late.	548
It is more cold today.	It is colder today.	137
It's too much hot in this house.	It's too hot in this house.	595
The man which lives here is from Greece.	The man who lives here is from Greece.	494
The people in this town is very friendly.	The people in this town are very friendly.	524
She never listens me.	She never listens to me.	449
We went at the seaside on Sunday.	We went to the seaside on Sunday.	80
I like very much skiing.	I very much like skiing. / I like skiing very much.	611
This soup isn't enough hot.	This soup isn't hot enough.	187
I gave to her my address.	I gave her my address.	610
I have done a mistake.	I have made a mistake.	160

35 mistakes that intermediate students often make. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
I promise I pay you tomorrow.	I promise I'll pay you tomorrow.	217
This is the first time I'm here.	... the first time I've been here.	591
I've been here since three days.	... for three days.	208
If I'll have time, I'll go home.	If I have time, ...	257
If I knew the price, I will tell you.	... I would tell you.	258
He said me that he was Chinese.	He told me that he was Chinese.	504
She told me she has a headache.	She told me she had a headache.	275
There's the man that I work for him.	There's the man that I work for.	494
I've told you all what I know.	... all (that) I know.	494
Although it was late, but she went out.	Although it was late, she went out.	511
You have better to see the doctor.	You had better see the doctor.	230
I use to play tennis at weekends.	I play tennis at weekends.	604
It can rain this evening.	It may/might/could rain ...	345
My parents wanted that I study.	My parents wanted me to study.	283
You must stop to smoke.	... stop smoking.	299
I look forward to see you.	I look forward to seeing you.	298
I'm boring in the lessons.	I'm bored in the lessons.	409
He has much money.	He has a lot of / plenty of money.	357
Most of people agree with me.	Most people ...	356
I looked at me in the mirror.	I looked at myself ...	493
We waited during six hours.	... for six hours.	167
I like eating chocolate milk.	... milk chocolate.	385
Come here and look at that paper.	Come here and look at this paper.	589
We go there every Saturdays.	... every Saturday.	193
Which is the biggest city of the world?	... the biggest city in the world?	139
I'm thinking to change my job.	I'm thinking of changing my job.	588
Can you give me an information?	... some information?	148
He's married with a doctor.	He's married to a doctor.	449
Can you mend this until Tuesday?	... by Tuesday?	602
There's a hotel in front of our house.	... opposite our house.	402
I like warm countries, as Spain.	... warm countries, like Spain.	326
Please explain me what you want.	... explain to me ...	198
When you come, take your bike.	... bring your bike.	112
My brother has got a new work.	... a new job.	148
He's Dutch, or better Belgian.	He's Dutch, or rather Belgian.	157

Even advanced students make mistakes. Here are 35.
Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
I'll ask you in case I need help.	I'll ask you if I need help.	271
I object to tell them my age.	I object to telling them my age.	298
I like the 60s music.	I like 60s music. / the music of the 60s.	69
ten thousand, a hundred and six	ten thousand, one hundred ...	389
'Who's that?' ~ 'He's John.'	... 'It's John.'	428
I don't like to be shouted.	I don't like to be shouted at.	416
It's ages since she's arrived.	It's ages since she arrived.	522
The police is looking for him.	The police are looking ...	524
Prices are surely rising fast.	Prices are certainly rising fast.	573
I have big respect for her ideas.	... great respect ...	106
I don't like nowadays fashions.	... today's/modern fashions.	388
She passed her exam, what surprised everybody.	... which surprised everybody.	494
I've good knowledge of German.	... a good knowledge of German.	149
Finally! Where have you been?	At last! ...	204
I'll be home since 3 o' clock.	... from 3 o' clock.	308
We waited one and a half hour.	... one and a half hours.	231
It's time they go home.	It's time they went home.	306
I'll see you a few days later.	... in a few days.	315
All along the centuries, there have been wars.	All through the centuries ...	45
I want a completely other colour.	... a completely different colour.	54
Let's go and have coffee to Marcel's.	... at Marcel's.	80
That's mine – I saw it at first!	... I saw it first!	84
Switzerland is among Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	... between Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	105
According to me, it's a bad film.	In my opinion / I think ...	8
It was a too good party to miss.	... too good a party ...	14
Whole Paris was celebrating.	The whole of Paris ...	40
I nearly wish I'd stayed at home.	I almost wish ...	43
One speaks Italian in my town.	We/They speak ...	396
The girl wants an own room.	... her own room.	405
Couldn't you help me, please?	Could you ...? / You couldn't ..., could you?	368
I'll try to know when it starts.	I'll try to find out when it starts.	313
I love this so beautiful country.	... this country – it's so beautiful.	538
It's getting winter.	It's getting to be winter.	223
Our flat is decorated this week.	... is being decorated ...	412
The Mont Blanc is 4808m high.	Mont Blanc is ...	70

Even *very* advanced students can make mistakes – nobody's perfect! Here are 25. Do you know why they're wrong? Check in the sections.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
No doubt the world is getting warmer.	There is no doubt that the world is getting warmer.	377
I can't think of anybody whom to invite.	I can't think of anybody to invite.	498
My father, whom we hope will be out of hospital soon, ...	My father, who we hope ...	498
Would you follow me wherever I would go?	... wherever I went?	580
We all have to live in the society.	... in society.	68
The number of the unemployed is going up.	The number of unemployed ...	70
She was showing tiredness signs.	... signs of tiredness.	382
She works the hardest when she's working for her family.	She works hardest ...	141
I'm thankful for your help.	I'm grateful ...	582
We talked about if it was ready.	... about whether it was ready.	453
What live in those little holes?	What lives ...	532
Some people are interested, but the majority doesn't care.	... the majority don't care.	526
It mustn't be the postman at the door. It's only 7 o' clock.	It can't be the postman ...	359
A third of the students is from abroad.	... are from abroad.	389
Except Angie, everybody was there.	Except for Angie ...	194
I wish you felt / would feel better tomorrow.	I hope you feel ...	630
The train may be late, as it happened yesterday.	... as happened yesterday.	581
When I wrote my letters, I did some gardening.	When I had written ...	424
When I had opened the door, the children ran in.	When I opened ...	424
Stefan can never return back to his country.	... return to his country. / ... go back to his country.	87
Will you go and see me when I'm in hospital?	... come and see me ...	134
May you go camping this summer?	Do you think you'll go ...	339
My cousin works for the NATO.	... for NATO.	2
My wife will be angry unless I'm home by 7.00.	... if I'm not home ...	601
We were poured water on.	We had water poured on us. / Water was poured on us.	416

Phonetic alphabet

It is necessary to use a special alphabet to show the pronunciation of English words, because the ordinary English alphabet does not have enough letters to represent all the sounds of the language. The following list contains all the letters of the phonetic alphabet used in this book, with examples of the words in which the sounds they refer to are found.

Vowels and diphthongs (double vowels)

iː seat /siːt/, feel /fiːl/
ɪ sit /sɪt/, in /ɪn/
e set /set/, any /ˈeniː/
æ sat /sæt/, match /mætʃ/
ɑː march /mɑːtʃ/, after /ˈɑːftə(r)/
ɒ pot /pɒt/, gone /gɒn/
ɔː port /pɔːt/, law /lɔː/
ʊ good /gʊd/, could /kʊd/
uː food /fuːd/, group /gruːp/
ʌ much /mʌtʃ/, front /frʌnt/
ɜː turn /tɜːn/, word /wɜːd/
ə away /əˈweɪ/, collect /kəˈlekt/, until /ənˈtɪl/

eɪ take /teɪk/, wait /weɪt/
aɪ mine /maɪn/, light /laɪt/
ɔɪ oil /ɔɪl/, boy /bɔɪ/
əʊ no /nəʊ/, open /ˈəʊpən/
aʊ house /haʊs/, now /naʊ/
ɪə hear /hɪə(r)/, deer /dɪə(r)/
eə air /eə(r)/, where /weə(r)/
ʊə tour /tʊə(r)/, endure /ɪnˈdjʊə(r)/

Consonants

p pull /pʊl/, cup /kʌp/
b bull /bʊl/, rob /rɒb/
f ferry /ˈferiː/, life /laɪf/
v veri /ˈveriː/, live /lɪv/
θ think /θɪŋk/, bath /bɑːθ/
ð then /ðen/, with /wɪð/
t take /teɪk/, set /set/
d day /deɪ/, red /red/
s sing /sɪŋ/, rice /raɪs/
z zoo /zuː/, days /deɪz/
ʃ show /ʃəʊ/, wish /wɪʃ/
ʒ pleasure /ˈpleʒə(r)/, occasion /əˈkeɪʒən/

tʃ cheap /tʃiːp/, catch /kætʃ/
dʒ jail /dʒeɪl/, bridge /brɪdʒ/
k case /keɪs/, take /teɪk/
g go /gəʊ/, rug /rʌg/
m my /maɪ/, come /kʌm/
n no /nəʊ/, on /ɒn/
ŋ sing /sɪŋ/, finger /ˈfɪŋgə(r)/
l love /lʌv/, hole /həʊl/
r round /raʊnd/, carry /ˈkæriː/
w well /wel/
j young/jʌŋ/
h house/haʊs/

The sign (ˈ) shows stress (see 554).

1 abbreviated styles

Some styles of writing and speech have their own special grammar rules, often because of the need to save space or time.

1 advertisements and instructions

Small ads and instructions often leave out articles, subject or object pronouns, forms of *be* and prepositions.

Single man looking for flat Oxford area. Phone 806127 weekends.
Job needed urgently. Will do anything legal. Call 312654.
Pour mixture into large saucepan, heat until boiling, then add three pounds sugar and leave on low heat for 45 minutes.

2 notes

Informal notes, to-do lists, diary entries etc often follow similar rules.

Gone to hairdresser. Back 12.30.
Book tickets phone Ann see Joe 11.00 meeting Sue lunch

The same style is common in postcards, short informal letters and emails (see 147).

Dear Gran
Watching tennis on TV. A good book. Three meals a day. No washing-up. Clean sheets every day. Everything done for me. Yes, you've guessed – in hospital!!
Only went to doctor for cold – landed up in hospital with pneumonia!! If you have time please tell the others – would love some letters to cheer me up. Hope to see you.
Love, Pam

3 commentaries

Commentaries on fast-moving events like football matches also have their own kind of grammar. Auxiliaries and other less important verbs are often left out.

Goal kick . . . And the score still Spurs 3, Arsenal 1 . . . that's Pearce . . . Pearce to Coates . . . good ball . . . Sawyer running wide . . . Billings takes it, through to Matthews, Matthews with a cross, oh, and Billings in beautifully, a good chance there – and it's a goal!

4 titles, notices etc

Titles, labels, headings, notices and slogans usually consist of short phrases, not complete sentences. Articles are often left out, especially in the names of buildings and institutions.

ROYAL HOTEL
INFORMATION OFFICE
MORE MONEY FOR NURSES!

5 headlines

News headlines have their own special grammar and vocabulary. For details, see 240.

RECORD DRUGS HAUL AT AIRPORT: SIX HELD
FOUR DIE IN M6 BLAZE

For other rules about leaving words out ('ellipsis'), see 177–182.

2 abbreviations and acronyms

1 punctuation

We usually write abbreviations without full stops in modern British English. Full stops (AmE 'periods') are normal in American English.

Mr (AmE *Mr.*) = *Mister* (not usually written in full)
kg (AmE *kg.*) = *kilogram* *Ltd* = *limited* (*company*)

2 initial-letter abbreviations

Some abbreviations are made from the first letters of several words. This often happens with the names of organisations.

the BBC = *the British Broadcasting Corporation*

These abbreviations are most often stressed on the last letter.

the BBC /ðə biː biː ˈsiː/ *the USA* /ðə juː es ˈeɪ/

If one of these abbreviations has an article (*a/an* or *the*), the form and pronunciation of the article depend on the pronunciation of the first letter of the abbreviation. Compare:

- ***an** EU country*
  ***a** US diplomat* /ə juː . . ./ (NOT ~~*an US*~~ . . .)
- ***a** BA degree*
  ***an** MP* /ən em . . ./ (NOT ~~*a MP*~~)
- ***the** USA* /ðə juː . . ./ (NOT ~~/ðiː juː~~ . . ./)
  ***the** RSPCA* /ðiː ɑːr . . ./ (NOT ~~/ðə ɑːr~~ . . ./)

3 acronyms

Some initial-letter abbreviations are pronounced like words. These are often called *acronyms*. Articles are usually dropped in acronyms.

UNESCO /juːˈneskəʊ/ (NOT ~~*the UNESCO*~~) = *the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation*

Note that not all initial-letter abbreviations are pronounced as words.

the CIA /siː aɪ ˈeɪ/ (NOT ~~/ˈsɪə~~/) *the IRA* /aɪ ɑːr ˈeɪ/ (NOT ~~/ˈaɪrə~~/)

4 plurals

An apostrophe (') is sometimes used before the *s* in the plurals of abbreviations.

MP's, CD's OR (more often) *MPs, CDs.*

For abbreviations used in text messages (e.g. *hope 2 c u* for *hope to see you*), see 147.
For a list of common abbreviations, see a good dictionary.

3 [be] able

We use *able* especially in the structure ***be able*** + **infinitive**. This often has the same meaning as *can* (see 122). There is a negative form *unable*.

Some people are able to / can walk on their hands.
I am unable to / can't understand what she wants.

Can is preferred in the sense of 'know how to', and in expressions like *can see, can hear* etc (see 125).

***Can** you knit?* (More natural than *Are you able to knit?*)

I can see a ship. (More natural than *I am able to see a ship.*)
Be able is used in cases (e.g. future, present perfect) where *can/could* is not grammatically possible because it has no infinitive or participles (see 121.1d).
One day scientists will be able to find a cure for cancer.
(NOT ... ~~will can find~~ ...)
What have you been able to find out? (NOT ~~What have you could~~ ...?)
I might be able to help you. (NOT ~~I might can~~ ...)
Able is not often followed by passive infinitives.
He can't be understood. (More natural than *He's not able to be understood.*)
For differences between *could* and *was able*, see 122.5, 123.2.

4 about and on

Compare:
– *a book for children about Africa and its peoples*
a textbook on African history
– *a conversation about money*
a lecture on economics
We use *about* to talk about ordinary, more general kinds of communication. *On* suggests that a book, talk etc is more serious, suitable for specialists.

5 about to

***About* + infinitive** (with *to*) means 'going to very soon'; 'just going to'.
Don't go out now – we're about to have lunch.
I was about to go to bed when the telephone rang.
Not about to can mean 'unwilling to'.
I'm not about to pay 100 dollars for that dress.

6 above and over

1 'higher than': above or over

Above and *over* can both mean 'higher than'. *Above* is more common with this meaning.
The water came up above/over our knees.
Can you see the helicopter above/over the palace?

2 'not directly over': above

We use *above* when one thing is not directly over another.
We've got a little house above the lake. (NOT ... ~~over the lake.~~)

3 'covering': over

We prefer *over* when one thing covers and/or touches another.
There is cloud over the South of England.
He put on a coat over his pyjamas.
We use *over* or *across* (see 9) when one thing crosses another.
The plane was flying over/across Denmark.
Electricity cables stretch over/across the fields. ▸

4 measurements: *above*

Above is used in measurements of temperature and height, and in other cases where we think of a vertical scale.

*The temperature is three degrees **above** zero.*
*The summit of Everest is about 8000 metres **above** sea level.*
*She's well **above** average in intelligence.*

5 ages, speeds, 'more than': *over*

We usually use *over*, not *above*, to talk about ages and speeds, and to mean 'more than'.

*You have to be **over** 18 to see this film.*
*The police said she was driving at **over** 110 mph.*
*There were **over** 100,000 people at the festival.*

6 books and papers

In a book or paper, *above* means 'written before'.

*The **above** rules and regulations apply to all students.*
*For prices and delivery charges, see **above**.*

See over means 'look on the next page'.

*There are cheap flights at weekends: see **over**.*

The difference between *below* and *under* is similar. See 100.
For other meanings of these words, see a good dictionary.

7 accept and agree

Before an infinitive, we usually use *agree*, not *accept*.

*I **agreed to meet** them here.* (More normal than *I accepted to meet* . . .)

8 according to

According to X means 'in X's opinion', 'if what X says is true'.

According to Harry, it's a good film.
*The train gets in at 8.27, **according to the timetable**.*

We do not usually give our own opinions with *according to*. Compare:

According to Ann, her boyfriend is brilliant.
(= If what Ann says is true, . . .)
In my opinion, Ann's boyfriend is an idiot. (NOT ~~According to me,~~ . . .)

9 across, over and through

1 on/to the other side of (line): *across* and *over*

Across and *over* can both be used to mean 'on or to the other side of a line, river, road, bridge etc'.

*His village is just **across/over** the border.*
*See if you can jump **across/over** the stream.*

2 high things: *over* preferred

We prefer *over* to say 'on/to the other side of something high'.
Why are you climbing over the wall? (NOT ... ~~*across the wall?*~~)

3 flat areas: *across* preferred

We usually prefer *across* to say 'on/to the other side of a flat area or surface'.
He walked right across the desert.
It took them six hours to row across the lake.

4 the adverb *over (to)*

Note that the adverb *over* has a wider meaning than the preposition *over*. We often use *over (to)* for short journeys.
I'm going over to John's. *Shall we drive over and see your mother?*

5 *across* and *through*

The difference between *across* and *through* is like the difference between *on* and *in*. *Through*, unlike *across*, is used for a movement in a three-dimensional space, with things on all sides. Compare:
- *We walked across the ice.* (We were on the ice.)
  I walked through the wood. (I was in the wood.)
- *We drove across the desert.*
  We drove through several towns.

For *over* and *above*, see 6.
For *across from* (AmE), see 402.1.
For other uses of these words, see a good dictionary.

10 active verb forms

1 future, present and past; simple, progressive and perfect

English verbs can refer to future, present or past time.
future: *She will see you tomorrow.*
present: *I'm watching you.*
past: *Who said that?*
For each kind of time, there are three possibilities with most verbs: simple, progressive (***be*** + ***-ing***) and perfect (***have*** + **past participle**).
simple present: *I start*
present progressive: *I am starting*
present perfect: *I have started*

2 verb forms ('tenses') and time

There is not a direct relationship between verb forms and time. For example, a past verb like *went* is not only used to talk about past events (e.g. *We went to Morocco last January*), but also about unreal or uncertain present or future events (e.g. *It would be better if we went home now*). And present verbs can be used to talk about the future (e.g. *I'm seeing Peter tomorrow*). Also, progressive and perfect forms express ideas that are not simply concerned with time – for example continuation, completion, present importance. ▸

3 progressive forms

Progressive (or 'continuous') forms are used especially when we describe an event as going on or continuing (perhaps at a particular time, or up to a particular time). See 470–472 for more details.

*I can't talk to you now; I'm **working**.*
*When you phoned I **was working** in the garage.*
*I was tired because I **had been working** all day.*

4 perfect forms

Perfect forms are used, for example, when we want to suggest a connection between a past event and the present, or between an earlier and a later past event; or when we want to say that something is/was/will be completed by a particular time. See 427 for more details.

*I **have worked** with children before, so I know what to expect in my new job.*
*After I **had worked** with Jake for a few weeks, I felt I knew him pretty well.*
*I **will have worked** 10 hours by suppertime.*

Perfect progressive forms are also possible.

*I've **been working** all day.*

5 table of active verb forms

This is a list of all the active affirmative forms of an ordinary English verb, with their names, examples, and very brief descriptions of typical uses. For more information about the forms and their uses, see the entries for each one.

NAME	CONSTRUCTION	EXAMPLE	TYPICAL USE
(simple) future	***will*** + infinitive *I/we shall* also possible	*It **will rain** tomorrow.*	information about the future (see 212)
future progressive	***will be . . .ing*** *I/we shall* also possible	*This time tomorrow I'll **be lying** on the beach.*	continuing situation at a particular future time (see 220)
future perfect	***will have*** + past participle *I/we shall* also possible	*I **will have finished** the repairs by this evening.*	completion by a particular future time (see 219)
future perfect progressive	***will have been . . .ing*** *I/we shall* also possible	*In June I **will have been working** here for ten years.*	continuity up to a particular future time (see 219)
simple present	same as infinitive, but *-s* on third person singular (e.g. *I/you/we/they work; he/she works*)	*It **always rains** in November.*	'general' time; permanent situations (see 463)

NAME	CONSTRUCTION	EXAMPLE	TYPICAL USE
present progressive	*am/are/is . . .ing*	*I can't talk to you now; I'm working.*	actions continuing at the moment of speaking (see 464)
present perfect	*have/has* + past participle	*I have worked with children before, so I know what to expect.*	past action with some present connection (see 455)
present perfect progressive	*have/has been . . .ing*	*It has been raining all day.*	continuation up to the present (see 458)
simple past	regular verbs: infinitive + *-(e)d* irregular verbs: various forms	*I worked all last weekend. I saw John yesterday.*	past events (see 421)
past progressive	*was/were . . .ing*	*I saw John when I was coming out of the supermarket.*	action continuing at a particular past time (see 422)
past perfect	*had* + past participle	*I couldn't get in because I had lost my keys.*	action before a particular past time (see 423)
past perfect progressive	*had been . . .ing*	*I was tired because I had been working all day.*	continuation up to a particular past time (see 425)

For irregular past tenses and past participles, see 304.
For question forms, see 480. For negatives, see 367.
For the use of present forms to talk about the future, see 213–216.
For past verbs with present or future meanings, see 426.
For 'conditional' forms (*would* + infinitive), see 633 and 258–259.
For subjunctives (e.g. . . . *that she go*), see 567.
For passive verb forms, see 412.
For infinitives, see 280. For imperatives, see 268.
For *-ing* forms, see 293. For auxiliary verbs, see 85.
For verb forms constructed with modal auxiliary verbs, see 353.

11 actual(ly)

1 meaning and use

Actual means 'real'; *actually* means 'really' or 'in fact'.
They are used to make things clearer, more precise or more definite.

It's over 100 kilos. Let me look. Yes, the ***actual*** *weight is 108 kilos.*
I've got a new job. ***Actually****, they've made me sales manager.*
Did you enjoy your holiday? ~ Very much, ***actually****.*

Actual and *actually* often introduce surprising or unexpected information.

It takes me an hour to drive to work, although the ***actual*** *distance is only 20 miles.* ▸

*She was so angry that she **actually** tore up the letter.*
*How did you get on with my car? ~ Well, **actually**, I'm terribly sorry, I'm afraid I had a crash.*
*He's twelve, but he **actually** still believes in Father Christmas.*
They can be used to correct mistakes or misunderstandings.
*The book says she died aged 47, but her **actual** age was 43.*
*Hello, John. Nice to see you. ~ **Actually**, my name's Andy.*
Actually is more common in British than American English.

2 'false friends'

Actual and *actually* are 'false friends' for people who speak some languages. They do not mean the same as, for example, *actuel(lement)*, *aktuell*, or *attual(ment)e*. We express these ideas with *present, current, up to date; at this moment, now, at present.*
*What's our **current** financial position?*
(NOT ... ~~*our actual financial position?*~~)
*In 1900 the population of London was higher than it is **now**.*
(NOT ... ~~*than it actually is.*~~)

12 adjectives (1): normal position

1 two positions

Most adjectives can go in two main places in a sentence.

a with a noun, usually before it. This is called 'attributive position'.
*The **new** secretary doesn't like me.*
*He's going out with a **rich** businesswoman.*
In older English (see 392), it was quite common to put adjectives after nouns, especially in poetry and songs.
*He came from his palace **grand**.*
In modern English, this only happens in a few cases (see 13).

For adjectives before personal pronouns (e.g. *Poor you!*), see 429.7.

b after *be, seem, look, become* and other 'link verbs' (see 328). This is called 'predicative position'.
*That dress is **new**, isn't it?*
*She looks **rich**.* *I feel **unhappy**.*

2 adjectives used only before nouns

Some adjectives are used only (or mostly) before nouns. After verbs, other words must be used. Common examples:

elder and ***eldest*** Compare:
*My **elder** sister is a pilot.* *She's three years **older** than me.*
live /laɪv/ (meaning 'not dead') Compare:
*a **live** fish* *It's still **alive**.*
old (referring to relationships that have lasted a long time)
*an **old** friend* (not the same as *a friend who is **old***)
little (see 534) Compare:
*a nice **little** house* *The house is quite **small**.*

intensifying (emphasising) adjectives

*He's a **mere** child.* (BUT NOT ~~*That child is mere.*~~)
*It's **sheer** madness.* (BUT NOT ~~*That madness is sheer.*~~)
*You **bloody** fool!* (BUT NOT ~~*That fool is bloody.*~~)

3 adjectives used only after verbs

Some adjectives beginning with *a-*, and a few others, are used mainly after link verbs, especially *be*. Common examples: *afloat, afraid, alight, alike, alive, alone, asleep, awake.* Compare:

– *The baby's **asleep**.*
*a **sleeping** baby* (NOT ~~*an asleep baby*~~)
– *The ship's still **afloat**.*
*a **floating** leaf*

– *He was **afraid**.*
*a **frightened** man*

The adjectives *ill* (see 266) and *well* (see 617) are most common after verbs. Before nouns, many people prefer other words. Compare:

– *He's very **well**.*
*a **healthy/fit** man*

– *You look **ill**.*
*Nurses take care of **sick** people.*

4 verb + object + adjective

Another possible position for adjectives is after the object, in the structure **verb + object + adjective**.

*I'll get the car **ready**.*
*Do I make you **happy**?* *Let's paint the kitchen **yellow**.*

For the order of adjectives and other modifiers before nouns, see 15.
For *and* between adjectives, see 16.
For commas between adjectives, see 15.6.

13 adjectives (2): after nouns and pronouns

Adjectives come immediately after nouns in a few special cases.

1 fixed phrases

Adjectives come after nouns in some fixed phrases.

*Secretary **General***
*court **martial*** (= military court)
*Poet **Laureate***
*President **elect***
*God **Almighty!***
*Attorney **General***

The Secretary General of the United Nations has called for new peace talks.

2 *available, possible* etc.

Some adjectives can be used after nouns in a similar way to relative clauses. This is common with adjectives ending in *-able/-ible*.

*Send all the tickets **available** / **available** tickets.*
(= . . . tickets which are available.)
*It's the only **solution possible** / **possible** solution.*

Some adverbs can also be used like this.

*the woman **upstairs*** *the people **outside***

3 *present, proper*

Before a noun, *present* refers to time; after a noun it means 'here/there', 'not absent'. Compare:

the present members (= those who are members now)
the members present (= those who are/were at the meeting)

Before a noun, *proper* means 'real', 'genuine'. After a noun it refers to the central or main part of something. Compare:

Snowdon's a proper mountain, not a hill.
After two days crossing the foothills, they reached the mountain proper.

For the position and meaning of *opposite*, see 401.

4 expressions of measurement

Adjectives usually follow measurement nouns.

two metres high *ten years older* *two miles long* *six feet deep*

Exception: *worth* (e.g. *worth 100 euros*). See 632.

5 adjectives with complements

When an adjective has its own complement (e.g. *skilled in design*), the whole expression normally comes after a noun..

We are looking for people skilled in design. (NOT . . . ~~*skilled in design people.*~~)

A relative clause is often more natural.

We are looking for people who are skilled in design.

In some cases an adjective can be put before a noun and its complement after it. This happens with *different, similar, the same, next, last, first, second* etc; comparatives and superlatives; and a few other adjectives like *difficult* and *easy*.

a different life from this one *the second train from this platform*
the next house to the Royal Hotel *the best mother in the world*
(OR *the house next to the Royal Hotel*) *a difficult problem to solve*

6 *something, everything* etc

Adjectives come after *something, everything, anything, nothing, somebody, anywhere* and similar words.

Have you read anything interesting lately?
Let's go somewhere quiet.

14 adjectives (3): position after as, how, so, too

After *as, how, so, too* and *this/that* meaning *so*, adjectives go before *a/an*. This structure is common in a formal style.

as/how/so/too/this/that + adjective + *a/an* + noun

I have as good a voice as you. *She is too polite a person to refuse.*
How good a pianist is he? *I couldn't afford that big a car.*
It was so warm a day that I could hardly work.

The structure is not possible without *a/an*.

I like your country – it's so beautiful. (NOT ~~*I like your so beautiful country.*~~)
Those girls are too kind to refuse. (NOT ~~*They are too kind girls to refuse.*~~)

For the structure with adjective + *as* in expressions like *tired as I was . . .*, see 71.

15 adjectives (4): order before nouns

When several adjectives come before a noun (or when nouns are used like adjectives before another noun), they are usually put in a more or less fixed order. For instance, we say *a fat old lady*, NOT ~~*an old fat lady*~~; *a small round black leather handbag*, NOT ~~*a leather black round small handbag*~~. Here are the most important rules.

1 description before classification: *an old political idea*

Words which describe come before words which classify (say what type of thing we are talking about).

	description	classification	noun	
an	*old*	*political*	*idea*	(NOT ~~*a political old idea*~~)
the	*latest*	*educational*	*reform*	(NOT ~~*the educational latest reform*~~)
a	*green*	*wine*	*bottle*	(NOT ~~*a wine green bottle*~~)
	leather	*dancing*	*shoes*	(NOT ~~*dancing leather shoes*~~)

2 opinion before description: *a wonderful old house*

Words which express opinions, attitudes and judgements usually come before words that simply describe. Examples are *lovely, definite, pure, absolute, extreme, perfect, wonderful, silly.*

	opinion	description	noun	
a	*lovely*	*cool*	*drink*	(NOT ~~*a cool lovely drink*~~)
a	*wonderful*	*old*	*house*	(NOT ~~*an old wonderful house*~~)
	beautiful	*green*	*mountains*	(NOT ~~*green beautiful mountains*~~)
that	*silly*	*fat*	*cat*	(NOT ~~*that fat silly cat*~~)

3 order of descriptive words

The order of descriptive words is not completely fixed. Words for origin and material usually come last. Words for size, age, shape and colour often come in that order.

	size	age	shape	colour	origin	material	noun
a	*fat*	*old*		*white*			*horse*
a	*big*			*grey*		*woollen*	*sweater*
		new			*Italian*		*boots*
a	*small*		*round*	*black*		*leather*	*handbag*
an	*enormous*			*brown*	*German*	*glass*	*mug*
a	*little*	*modern*	*square*			*brick*	*house*

4 numbers

Numbers usually go before adjectives.

six large eggs *the second big shock*

First, next and *last* most often go before *one, two, three* etc.

the first three days (More common than *the three first days*)

my last two jobs ▸

5 noun modifiers after adjectives

Note that noun modifiers (which often classify, or refer to material) usually follow adjectives.

a big new car factory *enormous black iron gates*

6 commas

Before nouns, we generally use commas between adjectives (especially in longer sequences) which give similar kinds of information, for example in physical descriptions.

a lovely, long, cool, refreshing drink
an expensive, ill-planned, wasteful project

But commas can be dropped before short common adjectives.

a tall(,) dark(,) handsome cowboy

For *and* with adjectives, see 16. For commas with *and*, see 476.1.

16 adjectives (5): with and

When two or more adjectives (or other modifiers) come together, we sometimes put *and* before the last one and sometimes not. It depends partly on their position in the sentence.

1 after a verb

When adjectives come in predicative position (after *be*, *seem* and similar verbs – see 328), we usually put *and* before the last one.

*He was tall, dark **and** handsome.*
*You're like a winter's day: short, dark **and** dirty.*

In a very literary style, *and* is sometimes left out.

My soul is exotic, mysterious, incomprehensible.

2 before a noun

In attributive position (before a noun), *and* is less common.

an angry young man (NOT ~~*an angry and young man*~~)
a big beautiful garden

However, *and* is possible when the adjectives give similar kinds of information, especially when we are 'piling up' favourable or unfavourable descriptions.

a cruel (and) vicious tyrant *a warm (and) generous personality*
an ill-planned, expensive (and) wasteful project.

And is necessary when two or more adjectives (or other modifiers) refer to different parts of something, or different types of thing.

a yellow and black sports car
a concrete and glass factory
hot and cold drinks (= hot drinks and cold drinks)

We also use *and* when we say that something belongs to two or more different classes.

It's a social and political problem. *She's a musical and artistic genius.*

3 *nice and . . .*

In an informal style, the expression *nice and* is often used before another adjective or an adverb. It means something like 'pleasantly' or 'suitably'.

*It's **nice and warm** in front of the fire.* (= pleasantly warm)
*The work was **nice and easy**.*
*Now just put your gun down **nice and slow**.*

For more information about *and*, see 52
For commas with adjectives, see 15.6.

17 adjectives (6): without nouns

We cannot usually leave out a noun after an adjective.

*Poor **little boy**!* (NOT ~~*Poor little!*~~)
*The most **important thing** is to be happy.* (NOT ~~*The most important is to be happy.*~~)

But there are some exceptions.

1 well-known groups

The + **adjective** is used to talk about certain well-known groups of people who are in a particular physical or social condition. Common expressions:

the blind	*the handicapped*	*the old*	*the unemployed*
the dead	*the jobless*	*the poor*	*the young*
the deaf	*the mentally ill*	*the rich*	

*He's collecting money for **the blind**.*
*The **unemployed** are losing hope.*

The meaning is usually general; occasionally a limited group is referred to.

*After the accident, **the injured** were taken to hospital.*

These expressions are normally plural: *the dead* means 'all dead people' or 'the dead people', but not 'the dead person'.

Note that these expressions cannot be used with a possessive *'s*.

*the problems of **the poor*** OR ***poor people's** problems*
(NOT ~~*the poor's problems*~~)

Adjectives are normally only used in this way with *the* or a determiner like *many* or *more*.

*This government doesn't care about **the poor**.* (NOT . . . *about poor.*)
*There are **more unemployed** than ever before.*

However, adjectives without *the* are sometimes used in paired structures with *both . . . and . . .*

*opportunities for **both rich and poor***

2 adjectives of nationality

A few adjectives of nationality ending in *-sh* or *-ch* (see 364.3) are used after *the* without nouns. They include *Irish, Welsh, English, British, Spanish, Dutch, French.*

*The **Irish** are very proud of their sense of humour.* ▸

These expressions are plural; singular equivalents are for example *an Irishwoman, a Welshman* (NOT ~~*a Welsh*~~).
Where nouns exist, these are preferred to expressions with *the . . . ish*: we say *the Danes* or *the Turks* (NOT ~~*the Danish*~~ OR ~~*the Turkish*~~).

3 singular examples

In a few formal fixed phrases, ***the*** **+ adjective** can have a singular meaning. These include *the accused, the undersigned, the deceased, the former* and *the latter.*

The accused was released on bail.
. . . Mr Gray and Mrs Cook; the latter is a well-known designer.

4 abstract ideas

Adjectives are sometimes used after *the* to refer to general abstract ideas, especially in philosophical writing. (Examples: *the beautiful, the supernatural, the unreal.*) These expressions are singular.

She's interested in the supernatural.

5 choices

We sometimes leave out a noun that has already been mentioned, or which does not need to be mentioned, when thinking about a choice between two or more different kinds of thing.

Have you got any bread?~Do you want white or brown?
I'd like two large packets and one small.

Colour adjectives can sometimes have a plural *-s* in this situation.

Wash the reds and blues separately. (= red and blue clothes)

6 superlatives

Nouns are often left out after superlative adjectives.

I'm the tallest in my family. *We bought the cheapest.*

For other structures in which nouns can be left out, see 180.

18 adjectives (7): pronunciation of aged, naked etc

A few adjectives ending in *-ed* have a special pronunciation: the last syllable is pronounced /ɪd/ instead of /d/ or /t/(see 421.2).

aged /ˈeɪdʒɪd/ (= very old)	*blessed* /ˈblesɪd/
beloved /bɪˈlʌvɪd/	*dogged* /ˈdɒgɪd/
crooked /ˈkrʊkɪd/	*learned* /ˈlɜːnɪd/
cursed /ˈkɜːsɪd/	*sacred* /ˈseɪkrɪd/
naked /ˈneɪkɪd/	*wicked* /ˈwɪkɪd/
ragged /ˈrægɪd/	*wretched* /ˈretʃɪd/
rugged /ˈrʌgɪd/	*one/three/four-legged* /ˈlegɪd/

Note that *aged* is pronounced /eɪdʒd/ when it means 'years old' (as in *He has a daughter aged ten*), or when it is a verb.

19 adjectives (8): what can follow an adjective?

Many adjectives can be followed by 'complements' – words and expressions that 'complete' their meaning. Not all adjectives are followed by the same kind of complement. Some can be followed by **preposition + noun/-*ing*** (see 297).

*I'm **interested in** cookery.* *I'm **interested in** learning to cook.*

Some can be followed by infinitives (see 284).

*You don't look **happy to** see me.* *The soup is **ready to** eat.*

An infinitive may have its own subject, introduced by *for* (see 291).

*I'm anxious **for her to** get a good education.*

(= I'm anxious that she should get . . .)

Some adjectives can be followed by clauses (see 521, 567, 446–447).

*I'm **glad that** you were able to come.*

*It's **important that** everybody should feel comfortable.*

And many adjectives can have more than one kind of complement.

*I'm **pleased about** her promotion.* *I'm **pleased to** see you here.*

*I'm **pleased that** we seem to agree.*

We rarely put **adjective + complement** before a noun (see 13.5).

*He's a **difficult** person **to** understand.*

(NOT ~~*He's a difficult to understand person.*~~)

For the structures that are possible with a particular adjective, see a good dictionary.

20 adverb particles

1 adverb particles and prepositions

Words like *down, in, up* are not always prepositions. Compare:

– *I ran **down** the road.* – *He's **in** his office.*
*Please sit **down**.* *You can go **in**.*
– *Something's climbing **up** my leg.*
*She's not **up** yet.*

In the expressions *down the road, in his office* and *up my leg*, the words *down, in* and *up* are prepositions: they have objects (*the road, his office* and *my leg*). In *sit down, go in* and *She's not up*, the words *down, in* and *up* have no objects. They are adverbs, not prepositions.

Small adverbs like these are usually called 'adverb(ial) particles'. They include *above, about, across, ahead, along, (a)round, aside, away, back, before, behind, below, by, down, forward, in, home, near, off, on, out, over, past, through, under, up*. Many words of this kind can be used as both adverb particles and prepositions, but there are some exceptions: for example *back, away* (only adverb particles); *from, during* (only prepositions).

2 phrasal verbs

Adverb particles often join together with verbs to make two-word verbs, sometimes with completely new meanings (e.g. *break down, put off, work out, give up*). These are often called 'phrasal verbs'. For details of their use, see 599.

▶

3 adverb particles with *be*

Adverb particles are often used, rather like adjectives, as complements of the verb *be*.

Why are all the lights on? *Hello! You're back!*
The match will be over by 4.30.

For inverted word order in sentences beginning with an adverb particle (e.g. *Out walked Sarah*), see 303.

21 adverb position (1): introduction

Different kinds of adverbs go in different positions in a clause. Here are some general rules; for more details, see 22–25.
Note: in the following explanations, the word *adverb* is generally used both for one-word adverbs like *here, often*, and for longer adverb phrases like *in this house, once every six weeks.*

1 verb and object: *She speaks English well*

We do not usually put adverbs between a verb and its object.

adverb + verb + object

I often get headaches. (NOT ~~*I get often headaches.*~~)

verb + object + adverb

She speaks English well. (NOT ~~*She speaks well English.*~~)

But an adverb particle like *on, off, out* can go between a verb and a noun object.

Could you switch off the light?

2 front, mid- and end position

There are three normal positions for adverbs:

a front position (at the beginning of a clause)
Yesterday morning something very strange happened.

b mid-position (with the verb – for exact details see 24)
My brother completely forgot my birthday.
I have never understood her.

c end position (at the end of a clause)
What are you doing tomorrow?

3 what goes where?

Connecting adverbs (which join a clause to what came before) go in front position.

However, not everybody agreed.

Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *always, often*) and adverbs of certainty usually go in mid-position.

My boss often travels to America.
I've definitely decided to change my job.

Adverbs of manner (how), place (where) and time (when) most often go in end position.

*She brushed her hair **slowly**.* *The children are playing **upstairs**.*
*I phoned Alex **this morning**.*

Time adverbs can also go in front position.

Tomorrow I've got a meeting in Cardiff.

For more details about the position of these and other kinds of adverb, see the next four sections.

22 adverb position (2): front position

Adverbs that usually go in front position: connecting adverbs (e.g. *then, next*); comment adverbs (e.g. *fortunately, surprisingly*); *maybe, perhaps*.
Adverbs that can go in front position: some adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *sometimes*); adverbs of place; adverbs of time.

1 connecting adverbs: *then, next, ...*

These adverbs join a clause to what came before.
Examples: *then, next, besides, anyway, suddenly, however.*

*I worked until five o'clock. **Then** I went home.*
Next, I want to say something about the future.
Suddenly the door opened.
Some of us want a new system. However, not everybody agrees.

Other positions are possible.

*I went home **then**.* *Not everybody, **however**, agrees.*

2 comment adverbs: *fortunately, surprisingly, ...*

Adverbs which give the speaker's opinion of an action most often go in front position.

Fortunately, she has decided to help us. *Stupidly, I forgot my keys.*

Mid-position is also possible.

3 indefinite frequency: *usually, normally, ...*

Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and *occasionally* can go in front position (but they are more common in mid-position – see 24.)

Sometimes I think I'd like to live somewhere else.
Usually I get up early.

Always, ever, rarely, seldom and *never* cannot normally go in front position.

I always/never get up early. (NOT ~~*Always/Never I get up early*~~.)

However, *always* and *never* can begin imperative clauses.

Always look in the mirror before starting to drive.
Never ask her about her marriage.

4 certainty: *maybe, perhaps*

Maybe and *perhaps* usually come at the beginning of a clause.

Maybe I'm right and maybe I'm wrong.
Perhaps her train is late.

Other adverbs of certainty (e.g. *probably, definitely, certainly*) usually go in mid-position. ▸

5 place: *at the end of the garden, here, there*

Place adverbs most often go in end position, but front position is possible, especially in literary writing and if the adverb is not the main focus of the message. In this case the verb often comes before the subject (see 303).

At the end of the garden stood a very tall tree.
On the grass sat an enormous frog. *Down came the rain.*

Here and *there* often begin clauses. Note the word order in *Here/There is, Here comes* and *There goes.*

Here comes your bus. (NOT ~~*Here your bus comes.*~~)
There's Alice. *There goes our train!*

Pronoun subjects come directly after *here* and *there.*

Here it comes. (NOT ~~*Here comes it.*~~)
There she is. (NOT ~~*There is she.*~~)

6 time: *today, afterwards, in June, soon, every week*

Front position is common if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

Today I'm going to London. *In June we went to Cornwall.*
Afterwards we sat round and talked. *Soon everything will be different.*

End-position is also common; *soon* can go in mid-position.

Time expressions beginning *every* can go in front position.

Every week she has a new hairstyle.

But other expressions of definite frequency (e.g. *daily, weekly*) normally go in end position.

For *rarely, seldom, never, hardly* and *scarcely* in front position before verb + subject ('inversion'), see 302.7.

23 adverb position (3): end position

Adverbs of manner, place and time usually go in end position, often in that order. Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *occasionally*) sometimes go in end position.

1 adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner say how something happens or is done.

Examples: *angrily, happily, fast, slowly, well, badly, nicely, noisily, quietly, hard, softly.*

He drove off angrily. *She read the letter slowly.*
You speak English well. *John works really hard.*

Adverbs in *-ly* can also go in mid-position if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

She angrily tore up the letter. *I slowly began to feel better again.*

2 adverbs of place

Examples: *upstairs, around, here, to bed, in London, out of the window.*

*The children are playing **upstairs**.* *Come and sit **here**.*

*Don't throw orange peel **out of the window**.*

*She's sitting **at the end of the garden**.*

Front position is also possible, especially in literary writing and if the adverb is not the main focus of the message (see 22.5).

***At the end of the garden** there was a very tall tree.*

Adverbs of direction (movement) come before adverbs of position.

*The children are running **around upstairs**.*

3 adverbs of time and definite frequency

Examples: *today, afterwards, in June, last year, finally, before, eventually, already, soon, still, last, daily, weekly, every year.*

*I'm going to London **today**.* *What did you do **afterwards**?*

*She has a new hairstyle **every week**.*

Front position is also common if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

***Today** I'm going to London.* ***Every week** she has a new hairstyle.*

Finally, eventually, already, soon and *last* can also go in mid-position.

4 manner, place, time

Most often, adverbs of manner, place and time go in that order.

*Put the butter **in the fridge at once**.* (NOT ... ~~*at once in the fridge.*~~)

*Let's go **to bed early**.* (NOT ... ~~*early to bed.*~~)

*I worked **hard yesterday**.*

*She sang **beautifully in the town hall last night**.*

5 adverbs of indefinite frequency: *usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes* and *occasionally*.

These adverbs can go in end position if they are the main focus of the message (but they are more common in mid-position – see 24).

*I go there **occasionally**.* *We see her **quite often**.*

*I get very depressed **sometimes**.*

24 adverb position (4): mid-position

Adverbs that usually go in mid-position: adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *sometimes*), certainty (e.g. *probably*) and completeness (e.g. *almost*). Adverbs that can go in mid-position: focusing adverbs (e.g. *just*), some adverbs of manner (e.g. *angrily*), comment adverbs (e.g. *fortunately*).

1 What exactly is mid-position?

Mid-position adverbs usually go before one-part verbs, after auxiliary verbs, and after *am/are/is/was/were*.

before one-part verbs

*I **always** play tennis on Saturdays.* (NOT ~~*I play always tennis*~~...)

*It **certainly** looks like rain.* *We **nearly** won the match.* ▸

after auxiliary verbs

*She **has never** written to me.* (NOT USUALLY *She never has written to me.*)
*He **was definitely** trying to get into the house.*
*The train **will probably** be late.* *You **can almost** see the sea from here.*

after *am/are/is/was/were*

*She **was always** kind to me.* (NOT USUALLY *She always was kind to me.*)
*It **is probably** too late now.* *I **am obviously** not welcome here.*

When there are two or more auxiliaries, the adverb usually goes after the first.
*You **have definitely been** working too hard.*
*She **would never have been** promoted if she hadn't changed jobs.*
When an auxiliary verb is used alone instead of a complete verb phrase (see 181), a mid-position adverb comes before it.
*Are you working? ~ I **certainly am**.*
*I don't trust politicians. I **never have**, and I **never will**.*
For some more advanced points, see paragraphs 8–11 below.

2 indefinite frequency (how often)

Examples: *always, ever, usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, never.*
*We **usually** go to Scotland in August.*
*It **sometimes** gets very windy here.* *I have **never** seen a whale.*
*You can **always** come and stay with us if you want to.*
*Have you **ever** played American football?*
*My boss is **often** bad-tempered.* *I'm **seldom** late for work.*
*We have **never** been invited to one of their parties.*
*She must **sometimes** have wanted to run away.*
Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and *occasionally* can also go in front or end position (see 22–23).
Sometimes I think I'd like to live somewhere else.
*I see her **occasionally**.*

3 adverbs of certainty

Examples: *probably, certainly, definitely, clearly, obviously.*
*He **probably** thinks you don't like him.*
*It **will certainly** rain this evening.* *There is **clearly** something wrong.*
*I **definitely** feel better today.* *The train has **obviously** been delayed.*
Maybe and *perhaps* usually come at the beginning of a clause (see 22).
Maybe I'm right and maybe I'm wrong.
Perhaps her train is late.

4 adverbs of completeness

Examples: *completely, practically, almost, nearly, quite, rather, partly, sort of, kind of more or less, hardly, scarcely.*
*I have **completely** forgotten your name.* *The house is **partly** ready.*
*Sally can **practically** read.* *I **kind of** hope she wins.*
*It was **almost** dark.* *It **hardly** matters.*

Adverbs of completeness usually follow all auxiliary verbs.

*I **will have completely** finished by next June.*

(NOT ~~*I will completely have finished*~~ . . .)

*Do you think the repair **has been properly** done?*

5 comment adverbs

Adverbs which give the speaker's opinion of an action sometimes go in mid-position.

*I **stupidly** forgot my keys.* *She has **fortunately** decided to help us.*

6 focusing adverbs

These adverbs 'point to' one part of a clause.

Examples: *also* (see 46–47), *just* (see 307), *even* (see 189), *only* (see 398), *mainly, mostly, either* (see 175), *or, neither* (see 374), *nor* (see 374).

*Your bicycle **just** needs some oil – that's all.*

*She **neither** said 'Thank you' **nor** looked at me.*

*He's been everywhere – he's **even** been to Antarctica.*

*We're **only** going for two days.*

*She's my teacher, but she's **also** my friend.*

*The people at the meeting were **mainly** scientists.*

Some of these adverbs can also go in other places in a clause, directly before the words they modify. For details, see the entries on each adverb.

*Only **you** could do a thing like that.* *I feel **really** tired.*

7 adverbs of manner

These adverbs say how something happens or is done.

Examples: *angrily, happily, slowly, suddenly, noisily, quietly, softly.*

Adverbs of manner most often go in end position (see 23), but adverbs ending in *-ly* can often go in mid-position if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

*She **angrily** tore up the letter.* *I **slowly** began to feel better again.*

*We have **suddenly** decided to sell the house.*

*This time next week I'll be **happily** working in my garden.*

Mid-position (after all auxiliary verbs) is especially common with passive verbs.

*The driver **has been seriously** injured.*

8 mid-position (details): adverbs with negative verbs

In negative sentences, adverbs generally come before *not* if they emphasise the negative; otherwise they come after. Compare:

*I **certainly do not** agree.* *I **do not often** have headaches.*

Both positions are possible with some adverbs, often with a difference of meaning. Compare:

*I **don't really** like her.* (mild dislike)

*I **really don't** like her.* (strong dislike)

When adverbs come before *not*, they may also come before the first auxiliary verb; they always come before *do*.

*I **probably will not** be there.* (OR *I **will probably not** be there.*)

*He **probably does not** know.* (NOT ~~*He does probably not know.*~~)

Only one position is possible before a contracted negative.

*I **probably won't** be there.* ▸

9 mid-position (details): adverbs with emphatic verbs

When we emphasise auxiliary verbs or *am/are/is/was/were*, we put most mid-position adverbs before them instead of after. Compare:

– *She **has** certainly made him angry.*
  She certainly HAS made him angry!
– *I'm **really** sorry.*
  I really AM sorry.
– *Polite people **always** say thank-you.*
  ~ *Yes, well, I always DO say thank-you.*

10 mid-position (details): modal auxiliary verbs

When the first part of the verb phrase is a modal auxiliary (see 353), *used to* or *have to*, mid-position adverbs can come before or after the auxiliary.

*They **sometimes must** be bored.* (OR *They **must sometimes** be bored.*)
*She **could have easily** been killed.* (OR *She **could easily have** been killed.*)
*We **always used to** go to the seaside in May.* (OR *We **used always to** go ...* OR *We **used to always** go ...*)

11 mid-position (details): American English

In American English (see 51), mid-position adverbs are often put before auxiliary verbs and *am/are/is/was/were*, even when the verb is not emphasised. Compare:

*He **has probably** arrived by now.* (BrE normal)
*He **probably has** arrived by now.* (AmE normal, BrE emphatic)

As an extreme example, here are four sentences in a journalistic style taken from an American newspaper article on crime in Britain. The most normal British equivalents are given in brackets.

*'Britain **long has been** known as a land of law and order.'*
(BrE *Britain **has long been** known ...*)
*'... but it **probably will** lead to a vote ...'*
(BrE *... but it **will probably** lead ...*)
*'... the Labor Party **often has** criticized police actions.'*
(BrE *... the Labour Party **has often** criticised ...*)
*'... he **ultimately was** responsible for the treatment ...'*
(BrE *... he **was ultimately** responsible ...*)

25 adverb position (5): emphasising adverbs

Examples: *very, extremely, terribly, just* (meaning 'exactly' or 'a short time'), *almost, really, right.*

These adverbs go directly before the words that they emphasise or 'point to'.

*We all thought she sang **very** well.*
*Everybody was **extremely** annoyed with Julian.*
*I'm **terribly** sorry about last night.*
*I'll see you in the pub **just** before eight o'clock.*
*He threw the ball **almost** over the house.*
*I'm **really** tired today.*
*She walked **right** past me.*

Almost can also go in mid-position (see 24.4).

26 adverbs of manner and adjectives

1 adverbs of manner with verbs

Adverbs of manner say how something happens or is done.
Examples: *happily, terribly, fast, badly, well.*
These adverbs should not be confused with adjectives (*happy, terrible* etc). We use adverbs, not adjectives, to modify verbs.

verb + adverb

*She **danced happily** into the room.* (NOT ~~*She danced happy*~~...)
*She **sang badly**.* (NOT ~~*She sang bad.*~~)
*I don't **remember him very well**.* (NOT ...~~*very good.*~~)

But note that adjective forms are sometimes used as adverbs in an informal style, especially in American English (see 27).
*She talks **funny**.*

For the use of adjectives after link verbs like *look* or *seem*, see 328.

2 other uses

These adverbs can also modify adjectives, past participles, other adverbs and adverbial phrases.

adverb + adjective

*It's **terribly cold** today.* (NOT ...~~*terrible cold.*~~)

adverb + past participle

*This steak is very **badly cooked**.* (NOT ...~~*bad cooked.*~~)

adverb + adverb

*They're playing **unusually fast**.* (NOT ...~~*unusual fast.*~~)

adverb + adverbial phrase

*He was **madly in love with her**.* (NOT ...~~*mad in love*~~...)

For adjectives ending in *-ly*, see the next section.
For adverbs and adjectives with the same form, see the next section.
For the adjective *well*, see 617.
For the position of adverbs of manner, see 23.1, 22.7.
For spelling rules, see 557.

27 adverbs or adjectives? confusing cases

1 adjectives ending in *-ly*

Some words ending in *-ly* are adjectives, and not normally adverbs. Common examples: *costly, cowardly, deadly, friendly, likely, lively, lonely, lovely, silly, ugly, unlikely.*

*She gave me a **friendly** smile.*
*Her singing was **lovely**.*

There are no adverbs *friendly/friendlily, lovely/lovelily* etc.

*She smiled **in a friendly** way.* (NOT ~~*She smiled friendly*~~.)
*He gave **a silly laugh**.* (NOT ~~*He laughed silly*~~.)

Daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, early and *leisurely* are both adjectives and adverbs.

*It's a **daily** paper.* *It comes out **daily**.* *an **early** train* *I got up **early**.*

2 adjectives and adverbs with the same form; adverbs with two forms

Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form: for example, a *fast* car goes *fast*; if you do *hard* work, you work *hard*. In other cases, the adverb may have two forms (e.g. *late* and *lately*), one like the adjective and the other with *-ly*. There is usually a difference of meaning or use. Some examples follow; for more detailed information, check in a good dictionary.

bloody Some swearwords (see 575), including *bloody* (BrE), can be used both as adjectives and as adverbs.

*You **bloody** fool. You didn't look where you were going. ~ I **bloody** did.*

clean The adverb *clean* means 'completely' before *forget* (informal) and some expressions of movement.

*Sorry I didn't turn up – I **clean** forgot.*
*The explosion blew the cooker **clean** through the wall.*

dead The adverb *dead* is used in certain expressions to mean 'exactly', 'completely' or 'very'. Examples: *dead ahead, dead certain, dead drunk, dead right, dead slow, dead straight, dead sure, dead tired.*

Note that *deadly* is an adjective, meaning 'fatal', 'causing death'. The adverb for this meaning is *fatally*. Compare:

*Cyanide is a **deadly** poison.* *She was **fatally** injured in the crash.*

direct *Direct* is often used informally as an adverb.

*The plane goes **direct** from London to Houston without stopping.*
*50% cheaper – order **direct** from the factory!*

easy *Easy* is used as an adverb in some informal expressions.

*Go **easy**!* (= Not too fast!) *Take it **easy**!* (= Relax!)
Easy come, easy go. *Easier said than done.*

fair *Fair* is used as an adverb after a verb in some expressions.

*to play **fair*** *to fight **fair*** *to hit something **fair** and square*

For the adverb of degree *fairly*, see 199.

fast *Fast* can mean both 'quick' and 'quickly' (a *fast* car goes *fast*). *Fast* means 'completely' in the expression *fast asleep*, and it means 'tight', 'impossible to remove' in expressions like *hold fast, stick fast, fast colours.*

fine The adverb *fine* (= well) is used in some informal expressions.
That suits me fine. *You're doing fine.*
The adverb *finely* is used to talk about small careful adjustments and similar ideas.
a finely tuned engine *finely chopped onions* (= cut up very small)

flat *Flat* can be used as an adverb in a musical sense (*to sing flat* means 'to sing on a note that is too low'). In most other cases, the adverb is *flatly.*

free The adverb *free* (used after a verb) means 'without payment'; *freely* means 'without limit or restriction'. Compare:
You can eat free in my restaurant whenever you like.
You can speak freely – I won't tell anyone what you say.

hard The adverb *hard* means 'with a lot of force, energetically'.
Hit it hard. *I trained really hard for the marathon.*
Hardly means 'almost not'.
I've hardly got any clean clothes left.
Compare:
Ann works hard. *Her brother hardly works.*

For *hardly . . . when* in clauses of time, see 233.
For *hardly any, ever* etc, see 43.3.

high *High* refers to height; *highly* (rather formal) expresses an extreme degree (it often means 'very much'). Compare:
– *He can jump really high.* – *It's highly amusing.*
Throw it as high as you can. *I can highly recommend it.*

just *Just* is an adverb with several meanings (see 307). There is also an adjective *just*, meaning 'in accordance with justice or the law'; the adverb is *justly.*
He was justly punished for his crimes.

late The adverb *late* has a similar meaning to the adjective *late*; *lately* means 'recently'. Compare:
I hate arriving late. *I haven't been to the theatre much lately.*

loud *Loud* is often used informally as an adverb after a verb.
Don't talk so loud(ly) – you'll wake the whole street.
low *Low* is an adjective and adverb (*a low bridge, a low voice, bend low*).

most *Most* is the superlative of *much*, and is used to form superlative adjectives and adverbs (see 137).
Which part of the concert did you like most?
This is the most extraordinary day of my life.
In a formal style, *most* can be used to mean 'very' (see 356.7).
You're a most unusual person.
Mostly means 'mainly', 'most often' or 'in most cases'.
My friends are mostly non-smokers. ▸

pretty The informal adverb of degree *pretty* is similar to *rather* (see 199). *Prettily* means 'in a pretty way'. Compare:
*I'm getting **pretty** fed up.* *Isn't your little girl dressed **prettily**?*

quick In an informal style, *quick* is often used instead of *quickly*, especially after verbs of movement.
*I'll get back as **quick(ly)** as I can.*

real In informal American English, *real* is often used instead of *really* before adjectives and adverbs.
*That was **real** nice.* *He cooks **real** well.*

right *Right* with adverb phrases means 'just', 'exactly' or 'all the way'.
*She arrived **right** after breakfast.*
*The snowball hit me **right** on the nose.*
*Turn the gas **right** down.*
Right and *rightly* can both be used to mean 'correctly'. *Right* is only used after verbs, and is usually informal. Compare:
*I **rightly** assumed that Henry was not coming.* *You guessed **right**.*
*It serves you **right**.* (. . . *rightly* is not possible.)

sharp *Sharp* can be used as an adverb to mean 'punctually'.
*Can you be there at six o'clock **sharp**?*
It also has a musical sense (*to sing **sharp*** means 'to sing on a note that is too high'), and is used in the expressions *turn **sharp** left* and *turn **sharp** right* (meaning 'with a big change of direction').
In other senses the adverb is *sharply*.
*She looked at him **sharply**.*
*I thought you spoke to her rather **sharply**.*

short *Short* is used as an adverb in the expressions *stop **short*** (= 'stop suddenly') and *cut **short*** (= 'interrupt'). *Shortly* means 'soon'; it can also describe an impatient way of speaking.

slow *Slow* is used as an adverb in road signs (e.g. *SLOW – DANGEROUS BEND*), and informally after *go* and some other verbs. Examples: *go **slow**, drive **slow**.*

sound *Sound* is used as an adverb in the expression *sound asleep*. In other cases, *soundly* is used (e.g. *She's sleeping **soundly***).

straight The adverb and the adjective are the same. A *straight* road goes *straight* from one place to another.

sure *Sure* is often used to mean 'certainly' in an informal style, especially in American English.
*Can I borrow your tennis racket? ~ **Sure**.*
Surely (not) is used to express opinions or surprise (see 573 for details).
Surely house prices will stop rising soon!
*Surely you're **not** going out in that old coat?*

tight After a verb, *tight* can be used instead of *tightly*, especially in an informal style. Typical expressions: *hold **tight**, packed **tight*** (compare *tightly packed*).

well *Well* is an adverb corresponding to the adjective *good* (*a good singer sings well*). *Well* is also an adjective meaning 'in good health' (the opposite of *ill*). For details, see 617.

wide The normal adverb is *wide*; *widely* suggests distance or separation. Compare:
The door was wide open. *She's travelled widely.*
They have widely differing opinions.
Note also the expression *wide awake* (the opposite of *fast asleep*).

wrong *Wrong* can be used informally instead of *wrongly* after a verb. Compare:
I wrongly believed that you wanted to help me.
You guessed wrong.

3 comparatives and superlatives

Informal uses of adjective forms as adverbs are especially common with comparatives and superlatives.
Can you drive a bit slower? *Let's see who can do it quickest.*

4 American English

In informal American English, many other adjective forms can also be used as adverbs of manner.
He looked at me real strange. *Think positive.*

28 afraid

1 *afraid* and *fear*

In an informal style, *be afraid* is more common than *fear*.
Don't be afraid. (NOT ~~*Don't fear*~~) *She's afraid that I might find out.*
Are you afraid of the dark? *I'm not afraid to say what I think.*

2 *I'm afraid* = 'I'm sorry'

I'm afraid (that) often means 'I'm sorry to tell you (that)'. It is used to introduce apologetic refusals and bad news.
I'm afraid (that) I can't help you.
I'm afraid that there's been an accident.
I'm afraid so/not are used as 'short answers'.
Can you lend me a pound? ~ *I'm afraid not.*
It's going to rain. ~ *Yes, I'm afraid so.*

3 not used before a noun

Afraid is one of the adjectives that are not usually used before a noun in 'attributive position' (see 12). Compare:
John's afraid.
John's a frightened man. (NOT . . . ~~*an afraid man.*~~)

For information about *-ing* forms and infinitives after *afraid*, see 299.13.

29 after: adverb

1 *shortly after* etc.

After can be used in adverb phrases like *shortly after, long after, a few days after* etc.

*We had oysters for supper. **Shortly after**, I began to feel ill.*

In more exact expressions of time, *later* is more common.

*They started the job on the 16th and finished **three weeks later**.*

2 *after* not used alone

After is not normally used alone as an adverb. Instead, we use other expressions like *afterwards* (AmE also *afterward*), *then* or *after that*.

*I'm going to do my exams, and **afterwards** I'm going to study medicine.*
(NOT ... ~~*and after, I'm going*~~ ...)

30 after: conjunction

after + clause, + clause
clause + *after* + clause

1 use and position

The conjunction *after* joins one clause to another. *After* and its clause can come either before or after the other clause.

***After** I left school, I went to America.*
*I went to America **after** I left school.*

(In both cases the speaker left school first and then went to America. In the second example, the *after*-clause is given more importance because it comes at the end. Note the comma in the first structure.)

***After** he did military service, he went to university.*
(He did military service first.)
*He did military service **after** he went to university.*
(He went to university first.)

2 present with future meaning

We use *after* with a present tense to talk about the future (see 580).

*I'll telephone you **after** I arrive.* (NOT ... ~~*after I will arrive.*~~)

3 perfect tenses

In clauses with *after*, we often use present and past perfect tenses to show that one thing is completed before another starts.

*I'll telephone you **after** I've seen Jake.*
***After** I had finished school, I went to America.*

4 *after ...ing*

In a formal style, we often use the structure ***after** + **-ing**.*

***After** completing this form, give it to the secretary.*

After having + past participle is also possible when talking about the past.

*He wrote his first book **after** returning / **having** returned from Mongolia.*

31 after all

1 two meanings

After all can mean 'in spite of what was said before' or 'contrary to what was expected'. Position: usually at the end of a clause.

I'm sorry. I know I said I would help you, but I can't after all.
I expected to fail the exam, but I passed after all.

Another meaning is 'we mustn't forget that . . .', introducing an argument or reason which may have been forgotten. Position: at the beginning or end of a clause.

Of course you're tired. After all, you were up all night.
Let's finish the cake. Somebody's got to eat it, after all.

2 not used for 'finally'

After all does not mean 'finally', 'at last', 'in the end'.

After the theatre we had supper and went to a nightclub; then we finally went home. (NOT . . . ~~after all we went home.~~)

32 age

1 use of *be*

We most often talk about people's ages with ***be* + number**

He is thirty. (NOT ~~He has thirty.~~)

or ***be* + number + *years old*** (more formal: . . . *of age*).

He is thirty years old / of age. (NOT . . . ~~thirty years.~~)

We ask *How old are you?*, not normally *What is your age?*

2 *be* + . . . *age*

Note the structure ***be* + . . . *age*** (without a preposition).

When I was your age I was working. (NOT ~~When I was at your age~~ . . .)
The two boys are the same age. *She's the same age as me.*

3 prepositions

In other structures, *at* is common before *age*.

He could read at the age of three. (NOT . . . ~~in the age~~ . . .)
At your age I already had a job.

33 ago

1 word order: *six weeks ago*

Ago follows an expression of time.

I met her six weeks ago. (NOT . . . ~~ago six weeks.~~) *a long time ago*

2 tenses

An expression with *ago* refers to a finished time, and is normally used with a past tense, not a present perfect (see 455.5).

She phoned a few minutes ago. (NOT ~~She has phoned~~ . . .)
Where's Mike? ~ He was working outside ten minutes ago. ▸

3 the difference between *ago* and *for*

Ago says how long before the present something happened; *for* (with a past tense) says how long it lasted. Compare:

*He died **three years ago**.* (= three years before now)
(NOT ~~*He died for three years*~~. OR ...~~*for three years ago*~~.)
*He was ill **for three years** before he died.* (= His illness lasted three years.)

4 *ago* and *before* with time expressions: counting back

We use *ago* with a past tense and a time expression to 'count back' from the present; to say how long before now something happened.
We can use *before* in the same way (with a past perfect tense) to count back from a past moment (see also 96). Compare:

*I met that woman in Scotland **three years ago**.*
(NOT ...~~*three years before*~~ / ~~*before three years*~~.)
*When we got talking, I found out that I had been at school with her husband **ten years before**.* (NOT ...~~*ten years ago*~~.)

ago and *before*

I met her three years ago. I had been at school with her husband ten years before.

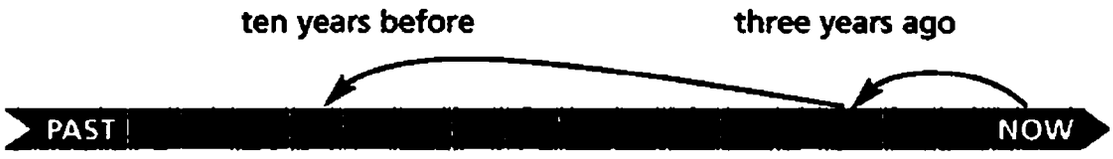

For other uses of *before*, see 97–98.

34 alike

The adjective *alike* means 'like each other'. Compare:

*The two boys are **alike** in looks, but not in personality.*
*He's **like** his brother.* (NOT ~~*He's alike his brother*~~.)

Alike is not often used before a noun (see 12). Compare:

*His two daughters are very much **alike**.*
*He's got two very **similar-looking** daughters.* (NOT ...~~*alike daughters*~~.)

35 all (1): introduction

1 three or more items

All refers to three or more items. Compare:

*I'll take **all** three shirts, please.*
*I'll take **both** shirts.* (NOT ... ~~*all two shirts*~~.)

2 *all (of)* with nouns and pronouns

All modifies nouns or pronouns.

All (of) the people were singing. *I haven't read all of it.*
Give my love to them all.

See 36 for details of word order, and the use of *all of*.

3 with the subject or the verb

When *all* modifies the subject, it can go either with the subject or with the verb.

All the people were singing. *The people were all singing.*

For more examples, see 36–37.

4 *all* without a noun

All can sometimes be used without a noun to mean 'everything' but only in certain structures (see 38).

All that matters is to be happy. *That's all.*

5 *all* with adjectives, adverbs etc

All can be used to emphasise some adjectives, prepositions and adverbs.

You're all wet.
I was all alone.
It's all because of you.
She walked all round the town.
Tell me all about your holiday.
I looked all round, but I couldn't see anything.

All, both and *half* follow similar grammar rules. For *both*, see 110; for *half*, see 231.

36 all (2): all (of) with nouns and pronouns

1 *all* and *all of*

All (of) can modify nouns and pronouns.
Before a noun with a determiner (for example *the, my, this*), *all* and *all of* are both possible. *All* is more common than *all of*.

She's eaten all (of) the cake. *All (of) my friends like riding.*

Before a noun with no determiner, we do not normally use *of*.

All children can be difficult. (NOT ~~*All of children*~~ . . .)

2 *all of* + personal pronoun

With personal pronouns, we use *all of* + *us/you/them*.
All of us/you/them can be a subject or object.

All of us can come tomorrow. (NOT ~~*All we*~~ . . .)
She's invited all of you. *Mary sent all of them her love.*

3 pronoun + *all*

We can put *all* after pronouns used as objects.

She's invited you all. *Mary sent her love to them all.*
I've made us all something to eat.

This does not happen with complement pronouns (after *be*) or in short answers.

*I think that's **all of them**.* (NOT ~~*I think that's them all.*~~)

*Who did she invite? ~**All of us**.* (NOT ~~*Us all.*~~)

All can follow a subject pronoun (e.g. ***They all** went home*), but in this case it belongs grammatically with the verb (see 37) and may be separated from the pronoun (e.g. ***They have all** gone home*).

For the American plural pronoun *you all*, see 429.8.

4 types of noun

All is used mostly before uncountable and plural nouns.

all the water *all my friends*

However, *all* can be used before some singular countable nouns referring to things that can naturally be divided into parts.

all that week *all my family* *all the way*

We can also use *all (of)* before proper nouns (e.g. the names of places or writers).

All (of) London knew about her affairs. *I've read all (of) Shakespeare.*

With other singular countable nouns, it is more natural to use *whole* (e.g. *the whole story*). For details, see 40.

5 leaving out *the*

After *all*, we sometimes leave out *the* before numbers.

all (the) three brothers

And we usually leave out *the* in *all day, all night, all week, all year, all winter* and *all summer*.

*She stayed here **all day**.* (NOT ... ~~*all the day*~~).

6 *not all ...*

It is not very common to use ***all* + noun** as the subject of a negative verb (e.g. *All Americans don't like hamburgers*). We more often use ***not all* + noun + affirmative verb**.

***Not all** Americans like hamburgers.*

Note the difference between *not all* and *no*. Compare:

Not all birds can fly.

No birds can play chess.

37 all (3): with the verb

When *all* refers to the subject of a clause, it can go with the verb, in 'mid-position' (for details of word order, see 24.)

*We can **all** swim.* *Those apples were **all** bad.*

*The guests **have all** arrived.* *My family **all** work in education.*

Note that these meanings can also be expressed by using ***all (of)*** with the subject (see 36).

All of us can swim. *All (of) the guests have arrived.*

38 all (4): all, everybody/everyone and everything

1 *all* and *everybody/everyone*

We do not normally use *all* without a noun to mean 'everybody'. Compare:
All the people stood up.
Everybody/Everyone stood up. (NOT ~~*All stood up.*~~)

2 *all* and *everything*

All can mean 'everything', but usually only in the structure ***all* + relative clause** (*all that* . . .). Compare:
– *All (that) I have is yours.* (NOT ~~*All what I have* . . .~~)
Everything is yours. (NOT ~~*All is yours.*~~)
– *She lost all (that) she owned.*
She lost everything. (NOT ~~*She lost all.*~~)
This structure often has a rather negative meaning, expressing ideas like 'nothing more' or 'the only thing(s)'.
This is all I've got. *All I want is a place to sit down.*
All that happened was that he went to sleep.
Note also *That's all* (= It's finished; There's no more).

3 older English

In older English, *all* could be used alone to mean 'everybody' or 'everything' (e.g. *Tell me all*; *All is lost*; *All are dead*). This only happens regularly in modern English in dramatic contexts like newspaper headlines (e.g. *SPY TELLS ALL*).

39 all and every

All and *every* can both be used to talk about people or things in general, or about all the members of a group. There is little difference of meaning; *every* often suggests 'without exception'. The two words are used in different structures.

1 *every* with singular nouns; *all* with plurals

Every is used with a singular noun. To give the same meaning, *all* is used with a plural noun. Compare:
– *Every child needs love.* (NOT ~~*All child needs love.*~~)
All children need love.
– *Every light was out.*
All (of) the lights were out.

2 *every* not used with determiners

We can use *all (of)*, but not normally *every*, with certain determiners (articles, possessives or demonstratives). Compare:
– *All (of) the plates were broken.*
Every plate was broken. (NOT ~~*Every the plate* / *The every plate* . . .~~)
– *I've written to all (of) my friends.*
I've written to every friend I have. (NOT . . . ~~*every my friend* / *my every friend.*~~)

▶

3 *all* with uncountables

We can use *all*, but not *every*, with uncountable nouns.
*I like **all music**.* (NOT ... ~~*every music*~~.)

4 *all day* and *every day* etc

Note the difference between *all day/week* etc and *every day/week* etc.
*She was here **all day**.* (= from morning to night)
*She was here **every day**.* (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, ...)

For the difference between *every* and *each*, see 170.

40 all and whole

1 pronunciation

all /ɔːl/ whole /həʊl/

2 word order

All (of) and *whole* can both be used with singular nouns to mean 'complete', 'every part of'. The word order is different.

all (of) + determiner + noun
determiner + *whole* + noun

– *Julie spent **all (of) the** summer at home.*
*Julie spent **the whole** summer at home.*

– ***all (of) my** life*
***my whole** life*

3 indefinite reference

All is not generally used before indefinite articles.
*She's eaten **a whole** loaf* (NOT ... ~~*all a loaf*~~.)

4 uncountable nouns

With most uncountable nouns we prefer *all (of)*.
*I've drunk **all (of) the** milk.* (NOT ... ~~*the whole milk*~~.)

5 *the whole of*

Instead of *whole* we can generally use *the whole of*,
*Julie spent **the whole of** the summer at home.*
***the whole of** my life*
Before proper nouns (names) and pronouns we always use *the whole of*, not *whole*. *All (of)* is also possible.
*The **whole of** / **All of** Venice was under water.* (NOT ~~*Whole Venice*~~...)
*I've just read **the whole of** / **all of** 'War and Peace'.*
*I've read **the whole of** / **all of** it.*

6 plural nouns

With plural nouns, *all* and *whole* have different meanings. *All* is like *every*; *whole* means 'complete', 'entire'. Compare:
***All Indian tribes** suffered from white settlement in America.* (= Every Indian tribe suffered ...)
***Whole Indian tribes** were killed off.* (= Complete tribes were killed off; nobody was left alive in these tribes.)

41 all right and alright

The standard spelling is *all right*. *Alright* is common, but some people consider it incorrect.

42 allow, permit and let

1 *allow* and *permit*

These words have similar meanings and uses. *Permit* is more formal. Both words can be followed by **object + infinitive**.

*We do not **allow/permit** people to smoke in the kitchen.*

When there is no personal object, an *-ing* form is used.

*We do not **allow/permit** smoking in the kitchen.*

Passive structures are common; personal subjects and gerund (*-ing* form) subjects are both possible.

*People are not **allowed/permitted** to smoke in the kitchen.*

*Smoking is not **allowed/permitted** in the kitchen.*

The passive structure with *it* is only possible with *permit*.

*It is not **permitted** to smoke in the kitchen.* (BUT NOT ~~*It is not allowed to smoke*~~...)

Allow, but not *permit*, can be used with adverb particles.

*She wouldn't **allow** me in.* *Mary isn't **allowed** out at night.*

2 *let*

Let is the least formal of these three words, and is followed by **object + infinitive** without *to*. Compare:

*Please **allow** me to buy you a drink.* (polite and formal)

*Let me **buy** you a drink.* (friendly and informal)

Let is not usually used in the passive.

*I wasn't **allowed** to pay for the drinks.* (NOT ~~*I wasn't let*~~...)

Let can be used with adverb particles; passives are possible in this case.

*She wouldn't **let** me in.* *I've been **let** down.*

For more about *let*, see 322–323.

43 almost and nearly; practically

1 progress, measurement and counting

Almost and *nearly* can both express ideas connected with progress, measurement or counting. *Nearly* is less common in American English.

*I've **almost/nearly** finished.*

*There were **almost/nearly** a thousand people there.*

Sometimes *almost* is a little 'nearer' than *nearly*. Compare:

*It's **nearly** ten o'clock.* (= perhaps 9.45)

*It's **almost** ten o'clock.* (= perhaps 9.57)

Very and *pretty* can be used with *nearly* but not *almost*.

*I've **very/pretty** nearly finished.* (NOT ...~~*very almost*~~...)

2 other meanings

We can use *almost* to mean 'similar to, but not exactly the same', and to make statements less definite. *Nearly* is not used like this.

*Jake is **almost** like a father to me.*
*Our cat understands everything – he's **almost** human.* (NOT ... ~~*he's nearly human.*~~)
*My aunt's got a strange accent. She **almost** sounds foreign.* (NOT ... ~~*She nearly sounds foreign.*~~)
I almost wish I'd stayed at home. (NOT ~~*I nearly wish*~~ ...)

3 *never, nobody, nothing* etc

We do not usually use *nearly* before negative pronouns or adverbs like *never, nobody, nothing*. Instead, we use *almost*, or we use *hardly* with *ever, anybody, anything* etc.

*She's **almost never / hardly ever** at home.* (NOT ... ~~*nearly never*~~ ...)
*Almost **nobody / hardly anybody** was there.*

4 *everybody, everything, anybody, anything* etc

We also prefer *almost* before *everybody/-one/-thing/-where*, and *almost* is much more common than *nearly* before *anybody/-one/-thing/-where*.

*She likes **almost everybody**.* *Almost **anybody** can do this job.*
*He's been **almost everywhere**.* *He eats **almost anything**.*

5 *practically*

Practically can be used in the same way as *almost*.

*I've **practically** finished.* *Jake is **practically** like a father to me.*
*She's **practically** never at home.*

44 alone, lonely, lonesome and lone

Alone means 'without others around'. *Lonely* (and informal AmE *lonesome*) means 'alone and unhappy because of it'. Compare:

*I like to be **alone** for short periods.*
*But after a few days I start getting **lonely/lonesome**.*

Alone can be emphasised by *all*.

*After her husband died, she was **all alone**.*

Alone is not used before a noun (see 12.3). *Lone* and *solitary* can be used instead; *lone* is rather literary.

*The only green thing was a **lone/solitary** pine tree.*

45 along

The preposition *along* is used with nouns like *road, river, corridor, line*: words that refer to things with a long thin shape.

*I saw her running **along the road**.*
*His office is **along the corridor**.*

To talk about periods or activities, we prefer *through*.
through the centuries (NOT ~~*along the centuries*~~)
all through the journey (NOT ~~*all along the journey*~~)
right through the meal
Note the special use of *along* as an adverb particle in expressions like *Come along* (= Come with me) or *walking along* (= walking on one's way).

46 also, as well and too

1 position

Also, *as well* and *too* have similar meanings, but they do not go in the same position in clauses. *Also* usually goes with the verb, in mid-position (see 24); *as well* and *too* usually go at the end of a clause. *As well* is less common in AmE.
She not only sings; she also plays the piano.
She not only sings; she plays the piano as well.
She not only sings; she plays the piano too.
As well and *too* do not go at the beginning of a clause. *Also* can go at the beginning of a clause to give more importance to a new piece of information.
It's a nice house, but it's very small. Also, it needs a lot of repairs.

2 reference

These words can refer to different parts of a clause, depending on the meaning. Consider the sentence *We work on Saturdays as well.* This can mean three different things:
a (Other people work on Saturdays, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
b (We do other things on Saturdays, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
c (We work on other days, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
When we speak, we show the exact meaning by stressing the word or expression that *also / as well / too* refers to.

3 imperatives and short answers

As well and *too* are used in imperatives and short answers, but not usually *also*.
Give me some bread as well, please. (More natural than *Also give me . . .*)
She's nice. ~ *Her sister is as well.* (More natural than *Her sister is also.*)
I've got a headache. ~ *I have too.* (More natural than *I also have.*)
In very informal speech, we often use *Me too* as a short answer.
I'm going home. ~ *Me too.*
More formal equivalents are *So am I* (see 541) or *I am too*, BUT NOT ~~*I also*~~.

4 *too* in a formal style

In a formal or literary style, *too* can be placed directly after the subject.
I, too, have experienced despair.

For *also, as well, too* and *either* in negative clauses, see 47.
For *also* and *even*, see 189.3.
For *as well as*, see 78.

47 also, as well, too and either in negative clauses

1 negative + negative: *either*

After mentioning a negative idea or fact, we can add another negative point by using *not ... either.*

Peter isn't here today. John isn't here either. (NOT ~~*John isn't here neither.*~~)

Also, as well and *too* are not normally used with *not* in this way.

You can't have an apple, and you can't have an orange either.

(NOT ... ~~*and you can't have an orange also*~~ / ~~*as well*~~ / ~~*too.*~~)

2 affirmative + negative: *also / as well / too*

After mentioning an affirmative (non-negative) fact or idea, we can add a negative point by using *not ... also, not ... as well* or *not ... too.*

You can have an apple, but you can't have an orange too.

He drinks too much, but at least he doesn't smoke as well.

48 alternate(ly) and alternative(ly)

Alternate(ly) means 'every second', 'first one and then the other', 'in turns'.

We spend alternate weekends at our country cottage.

I'm alternately happy and depressed.

Alternative(ly) is similar to 'different', 'instead', 'on the other hand'.

Janet's not free on the 27th. We'll have to find an alternative date.

You could go by air, or alternatively you could drive there.

49 although, though, but and however: contrast

1 *although* and *though*: conjunctions

Both these words can be used as conjunctions, with the same meaning. In informal speech, *though* is more common. They introduce an idea ('A') with which the main clause ('B') is in contrast. When we say '(Al)though A, B', there is something unexpected or surprising about 'B'.

(Al)though (A) I don't like him, (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(B) I'd quite like to go out, (al)though (A) it is a bit late.

2 *but* and *however*

We can give the same meaning by putting *but* or *however* with the contrasting, 'unexpected' clause ('B').

(A) I don't like him, but (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(A) I don't like him. However, (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(A) It is a bit late, but (B) I'd quite like to go out.

(A) It is a bit late; however, (B) I'd quite like to go out.

3 *but* and *however*: the difference

But is a conjunction: it joins two clauses, and comes at the beginning of the second. *However* is an adverb: it does not connect its sentence grammatically

to the one before. This is why it comes after a full stop or a semi-colon in the above examples.
However can go in various positions. It is normally separated from its sentence by one or two commas, depending on its position.

However, the police did not believe him.
The police, however, did not believe him.
The police did not believe him, however.

4 *though* used as an adverb

We can use *though* as an adverb (often at the end of a sentence), to mean 'however'.

Nice day. ~ *Yes. Bit cold, though.*
The strongest argument, though, is economic and not political.

For *as though*, see 74.
For sentences like *Cold though it was, I went out*, see 71.

50 altogether and all together

Altogether means 'completely' or 'considering everything'.

My new house isn't altogether finished.
Altogether, she decided, marriage was a bit of a mistake.

Altogether can also be used to give totals.

That's £4.38 altogether.

All together usually means 'everybody/everything together'.

Come on, everybody sing. All together now ...
They all went to the cinema together.

51 American and British English

These two varieties of English are very similar. There are a few differences of grammar and spelling, and rather more differences of vocabulary and idiom. Modern British English is heavily influenced by American English, so some contrasts are disappearing. Pronunciation is sometimes very different, but most American and British speakers can understand each other easily.

1 grammar

Here are examples of the most important differences. In many cases, two different forms are possible in one variety of English, while only one of the forms is possible or normal in the other variety.

American English	British English
He just went home. (OR *He's just gone home.*)	*He's just gone home.* (See 307.2)
I've never really gotten to know her.	*I've never really got to know her.* (See 223.7.)
I (can) see a car coming.	*I can see* a car coming. (See 125.1.)

American English	British English
*Her feet were sore because her shoes **fit/fitted** badly.*	*Her feet were sore because her shoes **fitted** badly.* (See 304.3.)
*It's important that he **be** told.*	*It's important that he **should be** told.* (See 567.)
*Will you buy it? ~ I **may**.*	*... I **may (do)**.* (See 161.)
*The committee **meets** tomorrow.*	*The committee **meet/meets** tomorrow.* (See 526.1.)
(on the phone) *Hello, **is this** Susan?*	*Hello, **is that** Susan?* (See 589.5.)
*It **looks like** it's going to rain.*	*It **looks as if / like** it's going to rain.* (See 74.3.)
*He looked at me **real strange**.* (very informal) OR *He looked at me **really strangely**.*	*He looked at me **really strangely**.* (See 27.)
*He **probably has** arrived by now.* OR *He **has probably** arrived ...*	*He **has probably** arrived by now.* (see 24.11.)

Besides *get* and *fit*, some other irregular verbs have different forms in British and American English. For details, see 304.3.

For the Southern US second person plural pronoun *you all*, see 429.8.

2 vocabulary

There are very many differences. Sometimes the same word has different meanings (BrE *mad* = crazy; AmE *mad* = angry). And very often, different words are used for the same idea (BrE *lorry* = AmE *truck*). Here are a few examples, with very brief information about the words and their meanings. (A larger list with more complete information, can be found in *The British/American Dictionary* by Norman Moss, published by Hutchinson. This is unfortunately now out of print, but may be obtainable in libraries. A more recently published guide to British-American differences is: *Mighty Fine Words and Smashing Expressions – Making Sense of Transatlantic English*, edited by Orin Hargraves, Oxford University Press.)

American English	British English
airplane	aeroplane
anyplace, anywhere	anywhere
apartment	flat, apartment
area code	dialling code (*phone*)
attorney, lawyer	barrister, solicitor, lawyer
busy	engaged (*phone*)
call collect	reverse the charges (*phone*)
can	tin, can
candy	sweets
check/bill	bill (*in a restaurant*)
coin-purse	purse
cookie, cracker	biscuit
corn	sweet corn, maize
crib	cot

American English	British English
crazy	mad
crosswalk	pedestrian/zebra crossing
cuffs	turn-ups (*on trousers*)
diaper	nappy
doctor's office	doctor's surgery
dumb, stupid	stupid
elevator	lift
eraser	rubber, eraser
fall, autumn	autumn
faucet, tap	tap (*indoors*)
first floor, second floor etc	ground floor, first floor etc
flashlight	torch
flat (tire)	flat tyre, puncture
french fries	chips
garbage, trash	rubbish
garbage can, trashcan	dustbin, rubbish bin
gas(oline)	petrol
gear shift	gear lever (*on a car*)
highway, freeway	main road, motorway
hood	bonnet (*on a car*)
intersection	crossroads
mad	angry
mean	nasty
movie, film	film
one-way (ticket)	single (ticket)
pants, trousers	trousers
parking lot	car park
pavement	road surface
pitcher	jug
pocketbook, purse, handbag	handbag
(potato) chips	crisps
railroad	railway
raise	rise (*in salary*)
rest room, bathroom	(public) toilet
resumé	CV
round trip	return (journey/ticket)
schedule, timetable	timetable
sidewalk	pavement
sneakers	trainers (= *sports shoes*)
spigot, faucet	tap (*outdoors*)
stand in line	queue
stingy	mean (*opposite of 'generous'*)
store, shop	shop
subway	underground
truck	van, lorry
trunk	boot (*of a car*)
two weeks	fortnight, two weeks
vacation	holiday(s)
windshield	windscreen (*on a car*)

▸

American English	British English
zee	zed (*the name of the letter 'z'*)
zipper	zip

Expressions with prepositions and particles

American English	British English
check something (**out**)	check something
different **from**/**than**	different **from**/**to** (see 155)
do something **over**/**again**	do something **again**
in a course	on a course
live **on** X street	live **in** X street
look **around** the church	look (a)round the church (see 60)
meet somebody (*by chance*) / meet **with** somebody (*planned*)	meet somebody
Monday **through**/**to** Friday	Monday to Friday
on a team	**in** a team
on the weekend	at the weekend
ten **after**/**past** four (*time*)	ten past four
ten **to**/**of**/**before**/**till** four	ten to four

3 spelling

A number of words end in *-or* in American English and *-our* in British English (e.g. *color*/*colour*). Some words end in *-er* in American English and *-re* in British English (e.g. *center*/*centre*). Many verbs which end in *-ize* in American English (e.g. *realize*) can be spelt in British English with *-ize* or *-ise* (see 558). Some of the commonest words with different forms are:

American English	British English
aluminum	aluminium
analyze	analyse
catalog(ue)	catalogue
center	centre
check	cheque (*paid by a bank*)
color	colour
defense	defence
enroll	enrol
fulfill	fulfil
honor	honour
jewelry	jewellery
labor	labour
liter	litre
meter (*measure*)	metre
neighbor	neighbour
organize	organise/organize
pajamas	pyjamas
paralyze	paralyse
practice, practise	practise (*verb*)
program	programme
realize	realise/realize

American English	British English
skillful	skilful
theater/theatre	theatre
tire	tyre (*on a wheel*)
trave(l)ler	traveller (see 562)
whiskey	(Scotch) whisky, (Irish) whiskey

4 pronunciation

There are, of course, many different regional accents in both Britain and America. The most important general differences between American and British speech are as follows:

a Certain vowels are nasal (pronounced through the nose and mouth at the same time) in some varieties of American English, but not in most British accents.

b British English has one more vowel than American English. This is the rounded short o (/ɒ/) used in words like *cot, dog, got, gone, off, stop, lost.* In American English these words are pronounced either with /ɑ:/, like the first vowel in *father*, or with /ɔ:/, like the vowel in *caught.* (This vowel is also pronounced rather differently in British and American English.)

c Some words written with ***a*** **+ consonant** (e.g. *fast, after*) have different pronunciations: with /ɑ:/ in standard southern British English, and with /æ/ in American and some other varieties of English.

d The vowel in *home, go, open* is pronounced /əʊ/ in standard southern British English, and /oʊ/ in American English. The two vowels sound very different.

e In standard southern British English, *r* is only pronounced before a vowel sound. In most kinds of American English, (and most other British varieties) *r* is pronounced in all positions where it is written in a word, and it changes the quality of a vowel that comes before it. So words like *car, turn, offer* sound very different in British and American speech.

f In many varieties of American English, *t* and *d* both have a very light voiced pronunciation (/d/) between vowels – so *writer* and *rider*, for example, can sound the same. In British English they are quite different: /'raɪtə(r)/ and /'raɪdə(r)/.

g Some words which are pronounced with /u:/ in most varieties of American English have /ju:/ in British English. These are words in which *th, d, t* or *n* (and sometimes *s* or *l*) are followed by *u* or *ew* in writing.

enthusiastic	AmE /ɪn,θu:zi'æstɪk/	BrE /ɪn,θju:zi'æstɪk/
duty	AmE /'du:ti/	BrE /'dju:ti/
tune	AmE /tu:n/	BrE /tju:n/
new	AmE /nu:/	BrE /nju:/
illuminate	AmE /ɪ'lu:mɪneɪt/	BrE /ɪ'lju:mɪneɪt/

h Words ending in unstressed *-ile* (e.g. *fertile, reptile, missile, senile*) are pronounced with /aɪl/ in British English; some are pronounced with /l/ in American English.
fertile AmE /'fɜ:rtl/ (rhyming with *turtle*)
BrE /'fɜ:taɪl/ (rhyming with *her tile*)

i Some long words ending in *-ary, -ery* or *-ory* are pronounced differently, with one more syllable in American English.
secretary AmE /'sekrəteri/ BrE /'sekrətri/

j *Borough* and *thorough* are pronounced differently.
AmE /'bʌroʊ, 'θʌroʊ/
BrE /'bʌrə, 'θʌrə/

k Words borrowed from French are often stressed differently, especially if their pronunciation ends with a vowel sound. The final vowel is usually stressed in American English but not in British English.
paté AmE /pæ'teɪ/ BrE /'pæteɪ/
ballet AmE /bæ'leɪ/ BrE /'bæleɪ/

52 and

1 use

When we join two or more grammatically similar expressions, we usually put *and* before the last.

*bread **and** cheese*
*We drank, talked **and** danced.*
*I wrote the letters, Peter addressed them, George bought the stamps **and** Alice posted them.*

And is sometimes left out in a very literary or poetic style, but this is unusual.

My dreams are full of darkness, despair, death.

2 fixed expressions

Some common expressions with *and* have a fixed order which cannot be changed. The shortest expression often comes first.

bread and butter (NOT ~~*butter and bread*~~)
hands and knees (NOT ~~*knees and hands*~~)
young and pretty *thunder and lightning*
black and white *cup and saucer* *knife and fork*

Note: *and* is usually pronounced /ənd/, not /ænd/ (see 616).

For *and* with adjectives, see 16.
For rules about the use of commas, see 476.
For ellipsis after *and*, in expressions like *a knife and (a) fork, the bread and (the) butter*, see 178.
For singular and plural verbs after subjects with *and*, see 527.5.
For *and* after *try, wait, go, come* etc, see 53.
For *both . . . and*, see 111.

53 and after try, wait, go etc

1 *try / be sure / wait and ...*

We often use *and* ... instead of *to* after *try / be sure*. This is informal.

*Try **and** eat something – you'll feel better if you do.*
*I'll try **and** phone you tomorrow morning.*
*Be sure **and** ask Uncle Joe about his garden.*

Note also the common expression *Wait and see.*

*What's for lunch? ~ **Wait and** see.*

We only use this structure with the simple base forms *try / be sure / wait*. It is not possible, for example, with *tries, trying, was sure* or *waited*. Compare:

*Try **and** eat something.*
I tried to eat something. (NOT ~~*I tried and ate something*~~.)
We waited to see what would happen. (NOT ~~*We waited and saw*~~ ...)

2 *come/go/etc and ...*

Come and ..., go and ..., run and ..., hurry up and ..., stay and ... are often used informally.

*Come **and** have a drink.*
*Stay **and** have dinner.* *Hurry up **and** open the door.*

With these verbs, the structure is not only used with the base form.

*He often comes **and** spends the evening with us.*
*She stayed **and** played with the children.* *She thought of **going and** getting him.*

3 American English

In informal American English, *and* is sometimes dropped after the base forms *go* and *come*.

*Let's **go** see if Anne's home.*
Go jump in the river. *Come sit on my lap.*

54 another and other(s)

1 spelling of *another*

Another is one word.

*He's bought **another** car.* (NOT ... ~~*an other car*~~.)

2 'additional, extra'

Another can mean 'an additional, extra'. It is used with singular countable nouns.

*Could I have **another** piece of bread?*

Another can be used without a noun, or with *one*, if the meaning is clear from what has come before.

*Those cakes are wonderful. Could I have **another** (one)?*

With uncountable and plural nouns, we normally use *more*, not *other*, with this meaning.

*Would you like some **more** meat?* (NOT ... ~~*other meat?*~~) ▸

Would you like some more peas? (NOT ... ~~*other peas?*~~)
However, we can use *another* before a plural noun in expressions with *few* or a number.
I'm staying for another few weeks. *We need another three chairs.*
For other cases where *a(n)* is followed by a plural, see 532.6.

3 'alternative'

(An)other can also mean '(an) alternative', 'besides / instead of this/these'.
I think we should paint it another colour.
Have you got any other cakes, or are these the only ones?
Other people often means 'people besides oneself'.
Why don't you think more about other people?

4 *other* and *others*

When *other* is used with a noun it has no plural form.
Where are the other photos? (NOT ... ~~*the others photos?*~~)
But used alone, without a noun, it can have a plural form.
I've got one lot of photos. Where are the others?
These are too small. Have you got any others?
Normally, *other(s)* is only used alone if it refers to a noun that has been mentioned before. An exception is the common plural use of *(the) others* to mean *(the) other people.*
He never thinks of others. *Jake's arrived – I must tell the others.*
BUT NOT ~~*On the phone, one cannot see the other*~~ OR ~~*He never listens to another*~~.

5 not used like an adjective

Other is a determiner or pronoun; it is not used exactly like an adjective. So it cannot normally have an adverb before it, or be used after a link verb.
I'd prefer a completely different colour. (NOT ... ~~*a completely other colour.*~~)
You look different with a beard. (NOT ~~*You look other*~~ ...)

For *one another*, see 171.

55 any

1 meaning

Any is a determiner (see 154). It generally suggests an indefinite amount or number, and is used when it is not important to say how much/many we are thinking of. Because of its 'open', non-specific meaning, *any* is often used in questions and negative clauses, and in other cases where there is an idea of doubt or negation.
Have you got any biscuits?
We didn't have any problems going through customs.
You never give me any help.
The noise of the party stopped me getting any sleep.
I suddenly realised I'd come out without any money.Any is common after *if.*
If you find any blackberries, keep some for me.
Sometimes *any* means 'if there is/are any' or 'whatever there is/are'.

Any fog will clear by noon. (= If there is any fog, it will clear by noon.)
*Perhaps you could correct **any** mistakes I've made.*

Any can be used to emphasise the idea of open choice: 'it doesn't matter who/what/which'.

*You can borrow **any** book you like.*

For details of this use, see paragraph 5 below.

2 *any* and *some*

Any often contrasts with *some*, which is most common in affirmative clauses. Compare:

*I need **some** razor blades.* *Have you got **any** razor blades?*
*Sorry, I haven't got **any** razor blades.*

For details of the difference, see 547.

3 *any* and *not any*

Any alone does not have a negative meaning. It is only negative when used with *not*.

*She's unhappy because she hasn't got **any** friends.* (NOT ... ~~*because she has got any friends.*~~)

No (see 376) means the same as *not any*, but is more emphatic.

*She's got **no** friends.*

Not any cannot begin a sentence; *no* is used instead.

No cigarette is harmless. (NOT ~~*Not any cigarette*~~...)
No tourists came to the town that year.

We do not usually use *not any* with singular countable nouns.

*She hasn't got **a job**.* (NOT ~~*She hasn't got any job.*~~)

4 nouns with and without *any*

With an uncountable or plural noun, *any* usually suggests the idea of an indefinite amount or indefinite number. Compare:

- *Is there **any water** in that can?*
  *Is there **water** on the moon?* (The interest is in the existence of water, not its amount.)
- *Dad hasn't got **any hair**.* (He has lost the amount he had.)
  *Birds have feathers, not **hair**.* (No idea of amount.)
- *None of her children have got **any sense**.* (Not even a small amount.)
  *Ann looks like her mother, but she hasn't got **blue eyes**.* (NOT... ~~*she hasn't got any blue eyes*~~ – people have a definite number of eyes: two.)

5 *any* = 'it doesn't matter who/which/what'

Any can be used to emphasise the idea of free choice, with the meaning of 'it doesn't matter who/which/what'. With this meaning, *any* is common in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives, and is often used with singular countable nouns as well as uncountables and plurals. In speech, it is stressed.

*Ask **any** doctor – they'll all tell you that alcohol is a poison.*
*She goes out with **any** boy who asks her.*
*When shall I come? ~ **Any** time.*

We can use *just any* if necessary to make the meaning clear. ▸

I don't do just any work – I choose jobs that interest me.
(*I don't do any work* . . . could be misunderstood.)

Note that we use *either* (see 174), not *any*, to talk about a choice between two alternatives.

I can write with either hand. (NOT . . . ~~*any hand.*~~)

6 at all

At all (see 83) is often used to emphasise the meaning of *(not) any.*

I'll do any job at all – even road-sweeping.
She doesn't speak any English at all.

7 any and any of

Before a determiner (definite article, demonstrative or possessive word) or a pronoun, we use *any of* (see 154.4) Compare:

– *I didn't go to any lectures last term.* (NOT . . . ~~*any of lectures*~~ . . .)
I wasn't interested in any of the lectures. (NOT . . . ~~*any the lectures.*~~)
– *Do any books here belong to you?*
Do any of these books belong to you?
– *I don't think any staff want to work tomorrow.*
I don't think any of us want to work tomorrow.

Note that when *any of* is followed by a plural subject, the verb can be singular or plural. A singular verb is more common in a formal style.

If any of your friends is/are interested, let me know.

8 without a noun

A noun can be dropped after *any*, if the meaning is clear.

Did you get the oil? ~ *No, there wasn't any left.*

Instead of *not any* without a noun, *none* (see 376) can be used. This is often more emphatic.

There was none left.

We don't use *any* or *not any* alone as answers.

What day shall I come? ~ *Any day.* (NOT ~~*Any.*~~)
How much money have you got? ~ *None.* (NOT ~~*Not any.*~~)

9 compounds

Many of the rules given above also apply to the compounds *anybody, anyone, anything* and *anywhere.* For more information about these, see 548.

For the use of *any* and *no* as adverbs, see 57.
For *any* . . . *but*, see 116.
For *any* and *every*, see 56.

56 any and every

Any and *every* can both be used to talk in general about all the members of a class or group.

Any/Every child can learn to swim.

The meaning is not quite the same. *Any* looks at things one at a time: it means 'whichever one you choose', 'this or that or the other'. *Every* looks at things together: its meaning is closer to 'all', 'this and that and the other'. Compare:

Which newspaper would you like?~It doesn't matter. ***Any one.*** (= one or another or another) (NOT ...~~*Every one.*~~)
On the stand there were newspapers and magazines of ***every kind.*** (= one and another and another) (NOT ...~~*magazines of any kind.*~~)

For more information about *any*, see 55.
For *every*, see 193.

57 any and no: adverbs

1 *any* and *no* with comparatives

Any can modify comparatives. This happens mostly in questions and negative sentences, and after *if* (see also 381).
Can you go ***any faster?***
You don't look ***any older*** *than your daughter.* (= You don't look at all older ...)
If I were ***any younger,*** *I'd fall in love with you.*
No can also be used in this way (but not *some*).
I'm afraid the weather's ***no better*** *than yesterday.*

2 *any/no different*

We can also use *any* and *no* with *different*.
This school isn't ***any different*** *from the last one.*
Is John any better?~No ***different.*** *Still very ill.*

3 *any/no good; any/no use*

Note the expressions *any good/use* and *no good/use*.
Was the film ***any good?*** *This watch is* ***no use.*** *It keeps stopping.*

58 appear

1 link verb: 'seem'

Appear can be a link verb (see 328), used to say how things look or seem. It is used in similar ways to *seem* (see 507 for details), but is less frequent, especially in an informal style.
With this meaning, *appear* is followed by adjectives, not adverbs. We can use *appear* or *appear to be*.
He ***appears (to be)*** *very angry today.* (NOT ~~*He appears very angrily today.*~~)
Before nouns we generally use *appear to be*.
It ***appears to be*** *some kind of bomb.*
The boys on the bus ***appeared to be*** *students.*
Structures with preparatory *there* (see 587) or *it* (see 446) are possible.
There appears to be a problem with the oil pressure.
It appears that we may be mistaken.

2 *appear* and *seem*: differences

Seem can be used to talk both about objective facts and about subjective impressions and feelings (see 507 for examples). *Appear* is mostly used to talk about objective facts. Compare:

▶

The baby seems/appears (to be) hungry.
She doesn't want to go on studying. It seems a pity. (NOT ~~*It appears a pity.*~~)
Seem is often used with *like*. This is not normal with *appear*.
It seemed like a good idea. (More natural than *It appeared like a good idea.*)
Seem can be used in a special structure with *can't* (see 507.4). This is not possible with *appear*.
I can't seem to make him understand. (BUT NOT ~~*I can't appear to make him understand.*~~)

3 'come into sight'

Appear can also mean 'come into sight' or 'arrive'. In this case it can be modified by an adverb.
She suddenly appeared in the doorway.

For structures with *look*, see 331.

59 arise and rise

Arise means 'begin', 'appear', 'occur', 'come to one's notice'. It is used mostly with abstract nouns as subjects.
A discussion arose about the best way to pay.
I'm afraid a difficulty has arisen.
Rise usually means 'get higher', 'come/go up'.
Prices keep rising. *What time does the sun rise?*
My hopes are rising.
Note that we usually say that people *get up* in the morning. *Rise* is only used with this meaning in a very formal style.
Arise and *rise* are irregular verbs.
(a)rise – (a)rose – (a)risen

For the difference between *rise* and *raise*, see 304.2.

60 (a)round and about

1 circular movement etc: *(a)round*

We use both *round* and *around* (AmE usually *around*) for movement or position in a circle or a curve.
She walked (a)round the car and looked at the wheels.
I'd like to travel (a)round the world.
Where do you live?~Just (a)round the corner.

2 touring; distribution: *round*

We also use *round* or *around* (AmE usually *around*) to talk about going to all (or most) parts of a place, or giving things to everybody in a group.
We walked (a)round the old part of the town.
Can I look (a)round? *Could you pass the cups (a)round, please?*

3 indefinite movement and position

We use *around* or *about* (AmE usually *around*) to refer to movements or positions that are not very clear or definite: 'here and there', 'in lots of places', 'in different parts of', 'somewhere in' and similar ideas.

*The children were running **around/about** everywhere.*
*Stop standing **around/about** and do some work.*
*Where's John? ~ Somewhere **around/about**.*
*I like doing odd jobs **around/about** the house.*

We also use these words in some common expressions to talk about time-wasting or silly activity.

*Stop **fooling around/about**. We're late.*

4 approximately: *about*

About (less often *around*) can mean 'approximately', 'not exactly'.

*There were **about/around** fifty people there.*
*What time shall I come? ~ **About/Around** eight.*

For other uses of these words, see a good dictionary.

61 articles (1): introduction

1 What are articles?

Articles are small words that are often used at the beginning of noun phrases. There are two: *the* (the 'definite article') and *a/an* (the 'indefinite article'). They belong to a group of words called 'determiners' (see 154).

2 What are articles used for?

Articles can show whether we are talking about things that are known both to the speaker/writer and to the listener/reader ('definite'), or that are not known to them both ('indefinite').

3 How much do articles matter?

The correct use of the articles is one of the most difficult points in English grammar. Fortunately, most article mistakes do not matter too much. Even if we leave all the articles out of a sentence, it can usually be understood.

Please can you lend me pound of butter till end of week?

However, it is better to use the articles correctly if possible. Sections 62–70 give the most important rules and exceptions.

4 speakers of Western European languages

Most languages of Western European origin, and one or two others, have article systems quite like English. However, there are some differences in the way articles are used in English and these other languages. The most important differences are explained in Section 63. Students should read this first if they speak one of the following languages perfectly or very well: French, German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Spanish, Catalan, Italian, Portuguese, Greek, Romanian. There is more detailed information on difficult points in Sections 64–70. ▸

5 speakers of other languages

If a student's language is one (e.g. Russian or Japanese) that is not listed in paragraph 4, he or she may have more difficulty with the correct use of articles. The most important rules are explained in Section 62, and students should read this first. There is more detailed information on difficult points in Sections 64–70.

62 articles (2): basic information (A)

(This Section is for students who speak languages (e.g. Russian or Japanese) that do not have articles like English *a/an* and *the*. Students who speak languages which have articles (e.g. German or Portuguese) should read Section 63.)

1 two basic rules

- To say 'You know which I mean', we put *the* before a noun.
  *I've been to **the doctor**.* (You know which one: my doctor.)
  *Have you fed **the dogs**?* (You know which ones I mean.)
  *Could you pass **the salt**?* (You can see the salt that I want.)
- When we can't say 'You know which I mean', we:
  – put *a/an* before a singular countable noun (see 65).
  *There's **a rat** in the kitchen!* *I need **an envelope**.*
  – put no article with a plural or uncountable noun.
  *She's afraid of **rats**.* *I need **help**.*

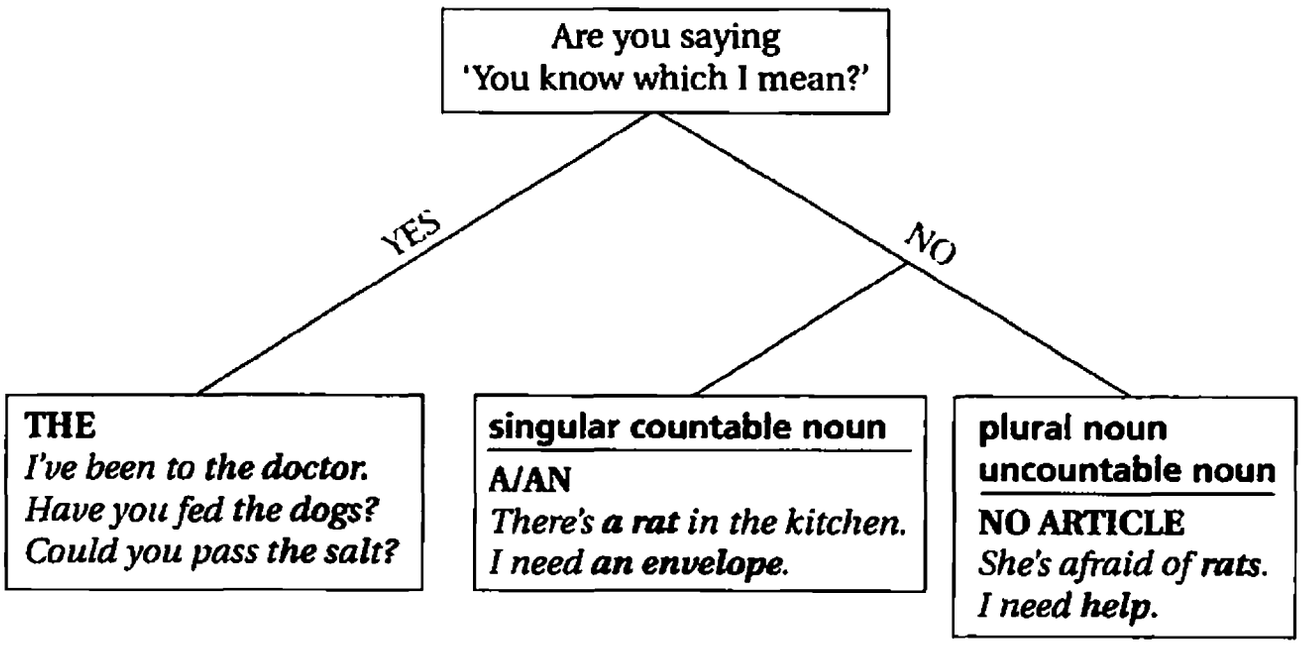

2 four common mistakes to avoid

- Don't use *a/an* with plural or uncountable nouns.
  *John collects **stamps**.* (NOT ... ~~*a stamps*~~.)
  *Our garden needs **water**.* (NOT ... ~~*a water*~~.)

- Don't use *the* to talk about things in general. *The* does not mean 'all'. (For exceptions, see 68.2.)
  Elephants can swim very well. (NOT ~~*The elephants can swim*~~ . . .)
  Petrol is expensive. (NOT ~~*The petrol*~~ . . .)
- Don't use articles together with *my, this,* or other determiners.
  my work (NOT ~~*the my work*~~)
  this problem (NOT ~~*the this problem*~~)
  a friend of mine (NOT ~~*a my friend*~~)
- Don't use singular countable nouns alone, without an article or other determiner. We can say *a cat, the cat, my cat, this cat, any cat, either cat* or *every cat,* but not just *cat.* (For exceptions, see 70.)
  Give it to the cat. (NOT ~~*Give it to cat.*~~)
  Annie is a doctor. (NOT ~~*Annie is doctor.*~~)

For more detailed information about articles, see the following sections.

63 articles (3): basic information (B)

(This Section is for students who speak a language that has articles: e.g. French, German, Swedish, Norwegian, Spanish, Italian, Greek. If you speak a language without articles – for example Russian or Japanese – read Section 62.)

Articles are often used in similar ways in English and other languages, but there are some differences. The most important are as follows.

1 talking in general

In English, when we are talking about people or things in general, we do not usually use *the* with uncountable or plural nouns.
Life is complicated. (NOT ~~*The life is complicated.*~~)
My sister loves horses. (NOT . . . ~~*the horses.*~~)

2 talking about jobs, types etc

In English, we normally put *a/an* with a singular noun that is used for classifying – saying what job somebody has, what class, group or type somebody or something belongs to, what we use something for, etc.
She's a dentist. (NOT ~~*She's dentist.*~~)
I'm looking forward to being a grandmother.
I used my shoe as a hammer.

For more detailed information about articles, see the following Sections.

64 articles (4): more about the

1 *the* = 'you know which one(s)'

The usually means something like 'you know which I mean'. We use *the* before a noun (singular, plural or uncountable) when our listener/reader knows (or can easily see) which particular person(s), thing(s) etc we are talking about. Compare:

– *I'm going to the post office.* (The listener knows which: the usual one.)
  Is there a post office near here? (Any post office.)
– *I didn't like the film.* (The one that the speaker and listener saw.)
  Let's go and see a film. (The speaker doesn't say which one.) ▸

- *She arrived on the 8.15 train.* (The speaker says which train.)
  She arrived in an old taxi. (The speaker doesn't say which taxi.)
- *Did you wash the clothes?* (The listener knows which clothes.)
  I need to buy clothes. (The listener does not know which clothes.)
- *What did you do with the coffee I bought?* (The speaker says which coffee.)
  I don't drink coffee. (Any coffee.)

Our listener/reader may know which one(s) we mean because:

a we have mentioned it/them before
She's got two children: a boy and a girl. The boy's fourteen and the girl's eight.
So what did you do then? ~ Gave the money straight back to the policeman.
(The listener has already heard about the money and the policeman.)

b we say which one(s) we mean
Who are the girls over there with John?
Tell Pat the story about John and Susie. *I'll try the green shirt.*

c it is clear from the situation which one(s) we mean
Could you close the door? (Only one door is open.)
Ann's in the kitchen. *Could you feed the dogs?*
Did you enjoy the party? *What's the time?*

2 *the* = 'the only one(s) around'

The listener may know which one we mean because there is no choice – there is only one (e.g. *the sun, the moon, the earth, the world, the universe, the future*) or there is only one in our part of the world (e.g. *the government*).
I haven't seen the sun for days. *Do you trust the government?*
People used to think the earth was flat.

3 superlatives

We usually use *the* with superlatives (see 141–146) because there is normally only one best, biggest etc individual or group (so it is clear which one(s) we are talking about). For the same reason, we usually use *the* with *first, next, last, same* and *only*.
I'm the oldest in my family. *Can I have the next pancake?*
We went to the same school.

4 *the* meaning 'the well-known'

After a name, an identifying expression with *the* is often used to make it clear that the person referred to is 'the well-known one'.
She married Richard Burton, the actor.
I'd like you to meet Cathy Parker, the novelist.

5 possessives and demonstratives

We do not use *the* with possessives or demonstratives.
This is my uncle. (NOT ... ~~*the my uncle.*~~)
Is that Mary's car? (NOT ... ~~*the Mary's car?*~~)
I like this beer. (NOT ... ~~*the this beer.*~~)

6 proper nouns (names)

We do not usually use *the* with singular proper nouns (there are some exceptions – see 70.17–18).

Mary lives in Switzerland. (NOT ~~*The Mary lives in the Switzerland.*~~)

But note the use of *the* (pronounced /ðiː/) with a person's name to mean 'the well-known'.

My name's James Bond. ~ *What, not the James Bond?*

7 things in general

We usually use no article, not *the*, to talk about things in general – *the* does not mean 'all'. (For details and exceptions, see 68.)

Books are expensive. (NOT ~~*The books are expensive.*~~)

Life is hard. (NOT ~~*The life is hard.*~~)

8 pronunciation

The is normally pronounced /ðiː/ before a vowel and /ðə/ before a consonant. Compare:

the ice /ðiː aɪs/ *the snow* /ðə snəʊ/

The choice between /ðiː/ and /ðə/ depends on pronunciation, not spelling. We pronounce /ðiː/ before a vowel sound, even if it is written as a consonant.

the hour /ðiː 'aʊə(r)/ *the MP* /ðiː em 'piː/

And we pronounce /ðə/ before a consonant sound, even if it is written as a vowel.

the university /ðə juːnɪ'vɜːsəti/

the one-pound coin /ðə 'wʌn 'paʊnd 'kɔm/

We sometimes pronounce a stressed /ðiː/ before a hesitation, or when we want to stress the following word, even if it begins with a consonant.

He's the /ðiː/ *– just a moment – deputy assistant vice-president.*

I've found the /ðiː/ *present for Angela!*

For *the town, the country, the sea, the mountains*, etc, see 69.4.
For *on the bus, at the hairdresser's*, etc, see 69.5.
For other advanced points, see 69.

65 articles (5): more about a/an

1 countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns are the names of separate objects, people, ideas etc which we can count.

a cat – three cats

a secretary – four secretaries

a plan – two plans

Uncountable nouns are the names of materials, liquids and other things which we do not usually see as separate objects.

wool (BUT NOT ~~*a wool, two wools*~~)

water (BUT NOT ~~*a water, three waters*~~)

weather (BUT NOT ~~*a weather, four weathers*~~)

energy (BUT NOT ~~*an energy, several energies*~~)

For more detailed information, see 148–149. ▶

2 *a/an* with singular countable nouns

We normally use *a/an* only with singular countable nouns.

a secretary *an office*
BUT NOT ~~*a salt*~~ OR ~~*an offices*~~

For expressions like *a good two hours*, see 532.6.

3 uses of *a/an*

A/an does not add much to the meaning of a noun – it is like a weak form of 'one'. It has several common uses.

a one person or thing

We can use *a/an* when we talk about one person or thing.

*There's **a police car** outside.*
*My brother's married to **a doctor**.* *Andy lives in **an old house**.*

b any one member of a class.

We can use *a/an* when we talk about **any one member** of a class.

*A **doctor** must like people.* (= any doctor)
*I would like to live in **an old house**.* (= any old house)

c classifying and defining

We can use *a/an* when we classify or define people and things – when we say what they are, what job they do, or what they are used for.

*She's a **doctor**.*
*I'm looking forward to being **a grandmother**.*
*A glider is **a plane** with no engine.*
*Don't use your plate as **an ashtray**.*

d descriptions

A/an is common before nouns that are used in descriptions.

*She's **a nice person**.* *That was **a lovely evening**.*
*He's got **a friendly face**.* *It's **an extremely hot day**.*

4 when *a/an* cannot be left out

We do not normally leave out *a/an* in negative expressions, after prepositions or after fractions.

*Lend me your pen. ~ I haven't got **a pen**.* (NOT ~~*I haven't got pen.*~~)
*You mustn't go out without **a coat**.* (NOT ... ~~*without coat.*~~)
*three-quarters of **a pound*** (NOT ~~*three-quarters of pound*~~)

And we do not leave out *a/an* when we say what jobs people have, or how things are used (see above).

*She's **an engineer**.* (NOT ~~*She's engineer.*~~)
*I used my shoe as **a hammer**.* (NOT ... ~~*as hammer.*~~)

5 when *a/an* is not used: adjectives alone; possessives

A/an cannot normally be used with an adjective alone (without a noun). Compare:

*It's a **good** car.* *It's **good**.* (NOT ~~*It's a good.*~~)

A/an cannot be used together with a possessive. Instead, we can use the structure *a ... of mine/yours* etc (see 443).

*He's **a friend of mine**.* (NOT ~~*He's a my friend*~~.)

6 *a/an* and *the*

Instead of *a/an*, we use *the* when we want to say 'You and I both know which one I mean'. Compare:

*She lives in **a big house**.* (The hearer doesn't know which one.)

*She lives in **the big house** over there.* (The hearer knows which one.)

For details, see 64.

7 *a* and *an*: the difference

We do not normally pronounce the sound /ə/ before a vowel. So before a vowel, the article *a* (/ə/) changes to *an*. Compare:

a rabbit *a lemon* *an elephant* *an orange*

The choice between *a* and *an* depends on pronunciation, not spelling. We use *an* before a vowel sound, even if it is written as a consonant.

an hour /ən 'aʊər/ *an MP* /ən em 'piː/

And we use *a* before a consonant sound, even if it is written as a vowel.

a university /ə juːnɪ'vɜːsəti/ *a one-pound coin* /ə 'wʌn .../

Some people say *an*, not *a*, before words beginning with *h* if the first syllable is unstressed.

an hotel (*a hotel* is more common)

an historic occasion (*a historic* ... is more common)

(BUT NOT ~~*an housewife*~~ – the first syllable is stressed.)

A is sometimes pronounced /eɪ/ before a hesitation, when we want to emphasise the following word, or when we want to make a contrast with *the*.

I think I'll have a /eɪ/ *– chocolate ice cream.*

It's a /eɪ/ *reason – it's not the only reason.*

66 articles (6): no article with plural and uncountable nouns

1 *a/an* not used

Plural and uncountable nouns (e.g. *cats*, *wool* – see 65.1) cannot normally be used with *a/an* (because *a/an* has a similar meaning to 'one'). Instead, we most often use no article.

*There were **cats** in every room.* (NOT ... ~~*a cats*~~ ...)

*Doctors generally work long **hours**.* *He's got very big **ears**.*

*Her coat is made of pure **wool**.*

*What's that? ~ I think it's **pepper**.*

2 confusing nouns

Some nouns that are countable in some other languages are uncountable in English (see 148.3 for a list).

*I need **information** and **advice**.* (NOT ... ~~*an information and an advice*~~)

*You've made very **good progress**.* (NOT ... ~~*a very good progress*~~.) ▸

And note that we never use *a/an* with *weather* or *English*.
*We're having terrible **weather**.* (NOT ... ~~*a terrible weather.*~~)
*She speaks very good **English**.* (NOT ... ~~*a very good English.*~~)

3 *some* and *any*

Instead of no article, we can sometimes use *some* or *any*.
*We met **some** nice French girls on holiday.*
*Have you got **any** matches?*
For details, see 67.

4 *the*

Instead of no article, we use *the* when we want to say 'You and I both know which I mean' (see 64). Compare:
- *I'm working with **children**.* (The hearer doesn't know which ones.)
  *How are **the children**?* (= the hearer's children)
- *We need **salt**.* (= any salt)
  *Could you pass **the salt**?* (The hearer can see the salt that is wanted.)

But we usually use no article, not *the*, to talk about people, things etc in general (see 68).
*Are **dogs** more intelligent than cats?* (NOT ... ~~*the dogs*~~ ... ~~*the cats*~~)
*Everybody likes **music**.* (NOT ... ~~*the music.*~~)

For expressions like *a coffee, a knowledge of Spanish*, see 148.4, 6.

67 articles (7): the difference between some/any and no article

1 use with uncountable and plural nouns

Uncountable and plural nouns can often be used either with *some/any* or with no article. There is not always a great difference of meaning.
*We need (some) **cheese**.* *I didn't buy (any) **eggs**.*
Some is used especially in affirmative sentences; *any* is more common in questions and negatives (for details, see 547).

2 *some/any* or no article?

We prefer *some/any* when we are thinking about limited but rather indefinite numbers or quantities – when we don't know, care or say exactly how much/many. We prefer **no article** when we are thinking about unlimited numbers or quantities, or not thinking about numbers/quantities at all. Compare:
- *We've planted **some roses** in the garden.* (A limited number; the speaker doesn't say how many.)
  *I like **roses**.* (No idea of number.)
- *We got talking to **some students**.* (A limited number.)
  *Our next-door neighbours are **students**.* (The main idea is classification, not number.)
- *I've just bought **some books** on computing.* (A limited number.)
  *There were **books** on the desk, on the floor, on the chairs, ...* (A large number.)

- *Would you like some more rice?* (An indefinite amount – as much as the listener wants.)
  We need rice, sugar, eggs, butter, beer, and toilet paper. (The speaker is thinking just of the things that need to be bought, not of the amounts.)
- *Is there any water in the fridge?* (The speaker wants a limited amount.)
  Is there water on the moon? (The interest is in the existence of water, not the amount.)
- *This engine hardly uses any petrol.* (The interest is in the amount.)
  This engine doesn't use petrol. (The interest is in the type of fuel, not the amount.)

We do not use *some/any* when it is clear exactly how much/many we are talking about. Compare:

- *You've got some great books.*
  You've got pretty toes. (A definite number – ten. *You've got some pretty toes* would suggest that the speaker is not making it clear how many – perhaps six or seven!)

For details of the difference between *some* and *any*, see 547.
For full details of the uses of *some*, see 546; for *any*, see 55.

68 articles (8): talking in general

1 *the* does not mean 'all'

We do not use *the* with uncountable or plural nouns to talk about things in general – to talk about all books, all people or all life, for example. *The* does not mean 'all'. Instead, we use **no article**. Compare:

- *Move the books off that chair and sit down.* (= particular books)
  Books are expensive. (NOT ~~*The books are expensive.*~~)
- *I'm studying the life of Beethoven.* (= one particular life)
  Life is complicated. (NOT ~~*The life*~~ . . .)
- *Where's the cheese?* ~ *I ate it.* – *Why has the light gone out?*
  I love cheese. *Nothing can travel faster than light.*
- *I've joined the local Dramatic Society.*
  It's not always easy to fit in with society.
- *I never really understood the nature of my father's work.*
  She's very interested in nature, especially animals and birds.
- *Write your name in the space at the bottom of the page.*
  Would you like to travel into space?

Note that *most* (meaning 'the majority of') is used without *the*.

Most birds can fly. (NOT ~~*The most*~~ . . .)
Most of the children got very tired. (NOT ~~*The most*~~ . . .)

2 generalisations with singular countable nouns

Sometimes we talk about things in general by using *the* with a singular countable noun.

Schools should concentrate more on the child and less on exams.

This is common with the names of scientific instruments and inventions, and musical instruments.

Life would be quieter without the telephone.
The violin is more difficult than the piano. ▸

We can also generalise by talking about one example of a class, using *a/an* (meaning 'any') with a singular countable noun.

A baby deer can stand as soon as it's born.
A child needs plenty of love.

Note that we cannot use *a/an* in this way when we are generalising about all of the members of a group together.

The tiger is in danger of becoming extinct. (NOT ~~*A tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.*~~ The sentence is about the whole tiger family, not about individuals.)
Do you like horses? (NOT ~~*Do you like a horse?*~~)

For the use of *the* + adjective to generalise about groups (e.g. *the old, the blind*) see 17.

69 articles (9): the (difficult cases)

It is sometimes difficult to know whether or not to use *the*. For example, we use no article to **generalise** with uncountable and plural words (see 68); but we use *the* to show that the listener/reader **knows which** people or things we are talking about (see 64). Sometimes both these meanings come together, and it is difficult to know which form is correct. The grammatical distinctions in this area are not very clear; often the same idea can be expressed both with *the* and with no article. The following notes may help.

1 groups: *nurses* or *the nurses*; *railways* or *the railways*?

When we generalise about **members** of a group, we usually use no article. But if we talk about the group **as a whole** – as if it was a well-known unit – we are more likely to use *the*. Compare:

– *Nurses mostly work very hard.*
The nurses have never gone on strike.
– *Stars vary greatly in size.*
The stars are really bright tonight.
– *Farmers often vote Conservative.*
What has this government done for the farmers?
– *It's difficult for railways to make a profit.* (any railways)
The railways are getting more and more unreliable. (our well-known railways)

This often happens when we talk about nationalities. Compare:

New Zealanders don't like to be mistaken for Australians.
The Australians suffered heavy losses in the First World War.

2 *French painters; the Impressionists*

We are more likely to use *the* if we are talking about a 'closed' group or class with a relatively definite, limited number of members. Compare:

– *French painters* (a large, indefinite group)
the Impressionists (a particular artistic movement; we know more or less who belonged to the group)
– *19th-century poets*
the Romantic poets (Shelley, Keats, Byron, Wordsworth and a few others)
– *British comprehensive schools*
the British 'Public Schools' (a limited group of expensive high-prestige schools)

Specialists are likely to use *the* for groups or classes that they study or know about. Compare:

Metals are mostly shiny.
Next term we're going to study the metals in detail.

3 *1960s music; the music of the 1960s*

Some expressions are 'half-general' – in the middle between general and particular. If we talk about *1960s music, eighteenth-century history* or *poverty in Britain*, we are not talking about all music, history or poverty, but these are still rather general ideas (compared *with the music we heard last night, the history I did at school* or *the poverty I grew up in*). In these 'half-general' expressions, we usually use no article. However, *the* is often used when the noun is followed by a limiting, defining phrase, especially one with *of*. Compare:

– *1960s music*	– *African butterflies*
the music of the 1960s	*the butterflies of Africa*

4 physical environment: *the town, the sea*

The is used with a number of rather general expressions referring to our physical environment – the world around us and its climate. *The* suggests that everybody is familiar with what we are talking about. Examples are:
the town, the country, the mountains, the sea, the seaside, the wind, the rain, the weather, the sunshine, the night.

My wife likes the seaside, but I prefer the mountains.
British people talk about the weather a lot.
I love listening to the wind.

But note that no article is used with *nature, society* or *space* when these have a 'general' meaning (see 68).

5 *on the bus; at the hairdresser*

We use *the* (with a singular countable noun) when we talk about some kinds of thing that are part of everybody's lives, like 'the bus' or 'the hairdresser'. In this case *the bus*, for example, does not mean 'one bus that you know about'; we use *the* to suggest that taking a bus is a common experience that we all share.

I have some of my best ideas when I'm on the bus.
Most of my friends go to the hairdresser two or three times a month.
Do you sing in the bath?
I've stopped reading the newspaper because it's too depressing.

For similar expressions with no article (e.g. *in bed, in hospital*), see 70.1.

6 *She kicked him on the knee; He sat at the side*

We sometimes use *the* even when it is not exactly clear which of several particular persons or things we are talking about. This can happen when there are several similar possibilities, and it is unnecessary to be more definite.

Lying by the side of the road we saw the wheel of a car.
(NOT . . . ~~*a wheel of a car.*~~)
John Perkins is the son of a rich banker. (who may have more than one son)
She kicked him on the knee. ▸

The is often used like this with *side* and *wrong*.
*I usually sit at **the side** in church.* *He's **the wrong** man for me.*
(on the phone) *I'm sorry. You've got **a/the wrong** number.*

70 articles (10): special rules and exceptions

1 common expressions without articles

In some common fixed expressions to do with place, time and movement, normally countable nouns are treated as uncountables, without articles. Examples are:

to/at/in/from school/university/college
to/at/in/into/from church *to/in/into/out of bed/prison*
to/in/into/out of hospital (BrE) *to/at/from work*
to/at sea *to/in/from town*
at/from home *leave home*
leave/start/enter school/university/college
by day *at night*
by car/bus/bicycle/plane/train/tube/boat *on foot*
by radio/phone/letter/mail

With place nouns, expressions with or without articles may have different meanings. Compare:

- *I met her **at college**.* (when we were students)
  *I'll meet you **at the college**.* (The college is just a meeting place.)
- *Jane's **in hospital**.* (as a patient)
  *I left my coat **in the hospital** when I was visiting Jane.*
- *Who smokes **in class**?* (= ... in the classroom?)
  *Who **in the class** smokes?* (= Who is a smoker ...?)

In American English, *university* and *hospital* are not used without articles.
*She was unhappy **at the university**.*
*Say that again and I'll put you **in the hospital**.*

2 double expressions

Articles are often dropped in double expressions, particularly with prepositions.

with knife and fork	*on land and sea*	*day after day*
with hat and coat	*arm in arm*	*husband and wife*
from top to bottom	*inch by inch*	

For cases like *the bread and (the) butter*, see 178.

3 possessive 's

Nouns lose their articles after possessive 's.
the coat** that belongs to John = **John's coat (NOT ~~*John's the coat*~~ OR ~~*the John's coat*~~)
the economic problems** of America = **America's economic problems (NOT ~~*the America's economic problems*~~)

But the possessive noun itself may have an article.
the wife** of **the boss** = **the boss's wife

4 noun modifiers

When a noun modifies another noun, the first noun's article is dropped.

*lessons in how to play **the guitar** = **guitar** lessons*
*a spot on **the sun** = a **sunspot***

5 *both* and *all*

We often leave out *the* after *both*.

***Both** (the) children are good at maths.*

And we often leave out *the* between *all* and a number.

***All** (the) three brothers were arrested.*

We usually leave out *the* after *all* in *all day, all night, all week, all year, all winter* and *all summer*.

*He's been away **all week**. I haven't seen her **all day**.*

6 *kind of* etc

We usually leave out *a/an* after *kind of, sort of, type of,* and similar expressions (see 551).

*What **kind** of (a) **person** is she?*
*Have you got a cheaper **sort** of **radio**?*
*They've developed a new **variety** of **sheep**.*

7 *amount* and *number*

The is dropped after *the amount/number of*

*I was surprised at **the amount** of **money** collected.* (NOT ... ~~of the money~~)
*The **number** of **unemployed** is rising steadily.*

8 *man* and *woman*

Unlike other singular countable nouns, *man* and *woman* can be used in a general sense without articles.

Man and woman were created equal.

But we more often use *a woman* and *a man*, or *men* and *women*.

*A **woman** without **a man** is like a fish without a bicycle.* (old feminist joke)
Men and women have similar abilities and needs.

Man is also commonly used to mean 'the human race', though many people regard this usage as sexist and prefer to avoid it (see 222.6).

*How did **Man** first discover fire?*

9 days, months and seasons

We drop *the* when we mean 'the day/month before or after this one'.

*Where were you **last Saturday**? See you on **Thursday**.*
*I was away **in April**. We're moving **next September**.*

To talk about the seasons in general, we can say *spring* or *the spring, summer* or *the summer*, etc. There is little difference.

*Rome is lovely in (the) **spring**. I like (the) **winter** best.*

When we are talking about particular springs, summers etc, we are more likely to use *the*.

*I worked very hard in **the summer** that year.* ▸

10 musical instruments

We often use *the* + **singular** when we talk about musical instruments in general, or about playing musical instruments.

The violin is really difficult. *Who's that on the piano?*

But *the* is often dropped when talking about jazz or pop, and sometimes when talking about classical music.

This recording was made with Miles Davis on trumpet.
She studied oboe and saxophone at the Royal Academy of Music.

11 *(the) radio, (the) cinema, (the) theatre* and *television*

When we talk about our use of these forms of entertainment, we generally say *the radio, the cinema, the theatre,* but *television* or *TV.*

I always listen to the radio while I'm driving.
It was a great treat to go to the cinema or the theatre when I was a child.
What's on TV?

The is often dropped in all four cases when we talk about these institutions as art forms or professions.

Cinema is different from theatre in several ways.
He's worked in radio and television all his life.

12 jobs and positions

The is not used in titles like *Queen Elizabeth, President Lincoln.* Compare:

Queen Elizabeth had dinner with President Kennedy.
The Queen had dinner with the President.

And *the* is not usually used in the complement of a sentence, when we say that somebody has or gains a unique position (the only one in the organisation). Compare:

– *They appointed him Head Librarian.* *Where's the librarian?*
– *He was elected President in 1879.* *I want to see the President.*

13 exclamations

We use *a/an* with singular countable nouns in exclamations after *What.*

What a lovely dress! (NOT ~~*What lovely dress!*~~)

Note that *a/an* cannot be used in exclamations with uncountable nouns.

What nonsense! (NOT ~~*What a nonsense!*~~)
What luck!

14 illnesses

The names of illnesses and pains are usually uncountable, with no article, in standard British English (for more details, see 148.7).

Have you had appendicitis? *I've got toothache again.*

A/an is used in a few cases such as *a cold, a headache.*

I've got a horrible cold. *Have you got a headache?*

The can be used informally with a few common illnesses.

I think I've got (the) flu. *She's never had (the) measles.*

American usage is different in some cases.

I've got a toothache / an earache / a backache / a stomachache. (BrE *I've got toothache/earache* etc)

15 parts of the body etc

When talking about parts of someone's body, or about their possessions, we usually use possessives, not *the*.

*Katy broke **her arm** climbing.* (NOT ~~*Katy broke the arm climbing*~~.)
*He stood in the doorway, **his coat over his arm**.* (NOT ... ~~*the coat over the arm*~~.)

But *the* is common after prepositions, especially when we are talking about blows, pains and other things that often happen to parts of people's bodies.

*She hit him **in the stomach**.* *He was shot **in the leg**.*
*Can't you look me **in the eye**?*

16 measurements

Note the use of *the* in measuring expressions beginning with *by*.

*Do you sell eggs **by the kilo** or **by the dozen**?*
*He sits watching TV **by the hour**.* *Can I pay **by the month**?*

A/an is used to relate one measuring unit to another.

*sixty pence **a** kilo* *thirty miles **an** hour* *twice **a** week*

17 place names

We use *the* with these kinds of place names:

- seas (*the Atlantic*)
- mountain groups (*the Himalayas*)
- island groups (*the West Indies*)
- rivers (*the Rhine*)
- deserts (*the Sahara*)
- most hotels (*the Grand Hotel*)
- most cinemas and theatres (*the Odeon*; *the Playhouse*)
- most museums and art galleries (*the British Museum*; *the Frick*)

We usually use no article with:

- continents, countries, states, counties, departments etc (*Africa, Brazil, Texas, Berkshire, Westphalia*)
- towns (*Oxford*)
- streets (*New Street, Willow Road*)
- lakes (*Lake Michigan*)

Exceptions: places whose name is (or contains) a common noun like *republic, state, union* (e.g. *the People's Republic of China, the United Kingdom, the United States*).

Note also *the Netherlands*, and its seat of government *The Hague*.

The is unusual in the titles of the principal public buildings and organisations of a town, when the title begins with the town name.

Oxford University (NOT ~~*the Oxford University*~~)
Hull Station (NOT ~~*the Hull Station*~~)
Salisbury Cathedral *Manchester City Council*
Birmingham Airport *Cheltenham Football Club*

With the names of less important institutions, usage varies.

(The) East Oxford Community Centre. *(The) Newbury School of English.*

Names of single mountains vary. Most have no article.

Everest *Kilimanjaro* *Snowdon* *Table Mountain*

But definite articles are usually translated in the English versions of European mountain names, except those beginning *Le Mont*. ▸

The Meije (= *La Meije*) *The Matterhorn* (= *Das Matterhorn*)
BUT *Mont Blanc* (NOT ~~*the Mont Blanc*~~)

18 newspapers and magazines

The names of newspapers usually have *the*.
The Times *The Washington Post*
The names of magazines do not always have *the*.
New Scientist

19 abbreviated styles

We usually leave out articles in abbreviated styles (see 1).

newspaper headlines	*MAN KILLED ON MOUNTAIN*
headings	*Introduction* *Chapter 2* *Section B*
picture captions	*Mother and child*
notices, posters etc	*SUPER CINEMA, RITZ HOTEL*
instructions	*Open packet at other end.*
numbering and labelling	*Go through door A.*
	Control to Car 27: can you hear me?
	Turn to page 26. (NOT ... ~~*the page 26.*~~)
dictionary entries	***palm*** *inner surface of hand ...*
lists	*take car to garage; pay phone bill; ...*
notes	*J thinks company needs new office*

For articles with abbreviations (*NATO, the USA*), see 2.2–3.
For *the* in double comparatives (*the more, the better*), see 139.5.
For *a* with *few* and *little*, see 329.
For *a* with *hundred, thousand* etc, see 389.11.
For *the blind* etc, see 17.1.
For *the Japanese* etc, see 17.2.
For *next* and *the next*, see 375; for *last* and *the last*, see 314.
For *the* instead of *enough*, see 187.8.
For *another two days, a good three weeks* etc, see 532.6.

71 as and though: special word order

adjective/adverb/noun + as + clause

As and *though* can be used in a special structure after an adjective, adverb or noun. In this case they both mean 'although', and suggest an emphatic contrast. (In AmE only *as* is normally used like this; *though* is unusual.)

Cold as/though *it was, we went out.* (= Although it was very cold, ...)
Bravely as/though *they fought, they had no chance of winning.*
Much as/though *I respect your point of view, I can't agree.*
Strange though *it may seem, I don't like watching cricket.*
Scot though *she was, she supported the English team.*

Occasionally *as* can be used in this structure to mean 'because'.
Tired as *she was, I decided not to disturb her.*
In American English, *as ... as* is common.
As cold as *it was, we went out.*

For the word order in structures like *I did as good a job as I could*, see 14.

72 as, because, since and for

All four of these words can be used to refer to the reason for something. (For *as, since* and *for* referring to time, see 73, 208 and 522.) They are not used in the same way.

1 *as* and *since*

As and *since* are used when the reason is already known to the listener/reader, or when it is not the most important part of the sentence. *As-* and *since*-clauses often come at the beginning of sentences.

As it's raining again, we'll have to stay at home.
Since he had not paid his bill, his electricity was cut off.

As- and *since*-clauses are relatively formal; in an informal style, the same ideas are often expressed with *so*.

It's raining again, so we'll have to stay at home.

2 *because*

Because puts more emphasis on the reason, and most often introduces new information which is not known to the listener/reader.

Because I was ill for six months, I lost my job.

When the reason is the most important part of the sentence, the *because*-clause usually comes at the end. It can also stand alone. *Since* and *as* cannot be used like this.

Why am I leaving? I'm leaving because I'm fed up!
(NOT ... ~~*I'm leaving as/since I'm fed up!*~~)
Why are you laughing? ~ *Because you look so funny.*

A *because*-clause can be used to say how one knows something.

You didn't tell me the truth, because I found the money in your room.
(= ... I know because I found ...)

For more information about *because*, see 94.

3 *for*

For introduces new information, but suggests that the reason is given as an afterthought. A *for*-clause could almost be in brackets. *For*-clauses never come at the beginning of sentences, and cannot stand alone. *For*, used in this sense, is most common in a formal written style.

I decided to stop and have lunch – for I was feeling hungry.

73 as, when and while: simultaneous events

To talk about actions or situations that take place at the same time, we can use *as, when* or *while*. There are some differences.

1 'backgrounds': *as, when* or *while*

We can use all three words to introduce a longer 'background' action or situation, which is/was going on when something else happens/happened.

As I was walking down the street I saw Joe driving a Porsche.
The telephone always rings when you are having a bath.
While they were playing cards, somebody broke into the house. ▸

As-, *when-* and *while*-clauses can go at the beginning or end of sentences, but *as*-clauses usually introduce less important information, and most often go at the beginning.
A progressive tense is usually used for the longer 'background' action or situation (*was walking; are having; were playing*). But *as* and *while* can be used with a simple tense, especially with a 'state' verb like *sit, lie,* or *grow.*
As I sat reading the paper, the door burst open.

2 simultaneous long actions: *while; as*

We usually use *while* to say that two longer actions or situations go/went on at the same time. We can use progressive or simple tenses.
While you were reading the paper, I was working.
John cooked supper while I watched TV.
As is used (with simple tenses) to talk about two situations which develop or change together.
As I get older I get more optimistic.
We prefer *when* to refer to ages and periods of life.
When I was a child we lived in London. (NOT ~~*As/While I was a child*~~ . . .)
His parents died when he was twelve. (NOT . . . ~~*while he was twelve.*~~)

3 simultaneous short actions: *(just) as; (just) when*

We usually use *(just) as* to say that two short actions or events happen/happened at the same time.
As I opened my eyes I heard a strange voice.
Mary always arrives just as I start work.
(Just) when is also possible.
I thought of it just when you opened your mouth.

4 reduced clauses with *when* and *while*

It is often possible to leave out subject + *be* after *when* (especially when it means 'whenever'), and after *while.* This is rather formal.
Don't forget to signal when turning right.
(= . . . when you are turning right.)
Climb when ready.
(= . . . when you are ready.)
While in Germany, he got to know a family of musicians.
(= While he was . . .)

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For other uses of *as, when* and *while,* see the Index.

74 as if and as though; like

1 meaning

As if and *as though* are both used to say what a situation seems like. They can refer to something that we think may be true.
It looks as if/though it's going to rain.
It sounds as if/though John's going to change his job.

They can also be used to talk about things which we know are not true.
*I feel **as if/though** I'm dying.*
*She was acting **as if/though** she was in charge.*

2 tenses

When we talk about things which we know are not true, we can use a past tense with a present meaning after *as if/though*. This emphasises the meaning of unreality. Compare:
– *She looks **as if** she **is** rich.* (Perhaps she is.)
*He talks **as if** he **was** rich.* (But he is definitely not.)
– *You look **as though** you **know** each other.*
*Why is he looking at me **as though** he **knew** me? I've never seen him before.*
In a formal style, *were* can be used instead of *was* in an 'unreal' comparison. This is common in American English.
*He talks **as if** he **were** rich.*

3 *like* meaning 'as if/though'

Like is often used in the same way as *as if/though*, especially in an informal style. This used to be typically AmE, but it is now common in BrE.
*It seems **like** it's going to rain.*
*He sat there smiling **like** it was his birthday.*

For the difference between *like* and *as*, see 326.

75 as long as

1 tenses

After *as long as*, we use a present tense to express a future idea.
*I'll remember that day **as long as I live**.* (NOT . . . ~~*as long as I will live.*~~)

For other conjunctions which are used in this way, see 580.

2 conditions

As/so long as is often used to state conditions.
*You can take my car **as/so long as you drive carefully**.*
(= . . . on condition that you drive carefully.)

3 emphatic use

Before a number, *as long as* can be used to suggest great length.
*These meetings can last **as long as** four hours.*

For a similar use of *as much/many as*, see 136.6

76 as such

Not . . . as such is used to say that something is not exactly what has been suggested.
*So you went to Japan on holiday? ~ Well, **not a holiday as such** – I went on business. But I managed quite a lot of sightseeing.*
*I'm **not a teacher as such**, but I've taught English to some of my friends.* ▸

77 as usual

Note that in this expression we use the adjective *usual*, not the adverb *usually*.
The train's late, as usual. (NOT ... ~~*as usually.*~~)

78 as well as

1 meaning

As well as has a similar meaning to 'not only ... but also'.
She's got a goat, as well as five cats and three dogs.
He's clever as well as nice. (= He's not only nice, but also clever.)
She works in television as well as writing children's books.
When some information is already known to the listener/reader, we put this with *as well as*.
As well as birds, some mammals can fly. (NOT ~~*Birds can fly, as well as some mammals.*~~)
They speak French in parts of Italy as well as France. (NOT ~~*They speak French in France as well as parts of Italy.*~~)

2 verbs after *as well as*

When we put a verb after *as well as*, we most often use the *-ing* form.
Smoking is dangerous, as well as making you smell bad. (NOT ... ~~*as well as it makes you smell bad.*~~)
As well as breaking his leg, he hurt his arm. (NOT ... ~~*as well as he broke his leg,*~~ ...)
After an infinitive in the main clause, an infinitive without *to* is possible.
I have to feed the animals as well as look after the children.
Note the difference between:
She sings as well as playing the piano.
(= She not only plays, but also sings.)
She sings as well as she plays the piano.
(= Her singing is as good as her playing.)

For *as well, also* and *too*, see 46–47.

79 ask

1 *ask* and *ask for*

Ask for: ask somebody to give something
Ask without *for*: ask somebody to tell something.

Compare:
- *Don't ask me for money.* (NOT ~~*Don't ask me money.*~~)
  Don't ask me my name.
  (More common than *Don't ask me for my name.*)
- *Ask for the menu.*
  Ask the price.

Ask is sometimes used without *for* when talking about asking for sums of money, especially in connection with buying, selling and renting.

*They're **asking £500 a month rent.***

*How much is the car? ~ I'm **asking fifteen hundred.***

Note also the expressions *ask a lot of somebody, ask too much of somebody, ask a favour of somebody* and *ask (for) permission.*

2 infinitive structures

We can use infinitive structures after *ask* (see 282–283).

ask + infinitive

*I **asked to go** home.* (= I asked permission to go home.)

ask + object + infinitive

*I **asked John to go** home.* (= I told John I would like him to go home.)

ask + *for* + object + infinitive

*I **asked for the children to have** extra milk.*

*I **asked for the parcel to be sent** to my home address.*

Note the difference between these two sentences:

*I **asked John to go** home.* (I wanted John to go home.)

*I **asked John if I could go** home.* (I wanted to go home myself.)

80 at/in and to

1 the difference

At and *in* are generally used for position (for the difference, see 81); *to* is used for movement or direction. Compare:

– *He works **at** the market.*
*He gets **to** the market by bike.*

– *My father lives **in** Canada.*
*I go **to** Canada to see him whenever I can.*

2 expressions of purpose

If we mention the purpose of a movement before we mention the destination, we usually use *at/in* before the place. Compare:

– *Let's go **to** Marcel's for coffee.*
*Let's go and have coffee **at** Marcel's.* (NOT ~~*Let's go and have coffee to Marcel's.*~~)

– *I went **to** Canada to see my father.*
*I went to see my father **in** Canada.* (NOT ~~*I went to see my father to Canada.*~~)

3 targets

After some verbs, *at* is used with the 'target' of a perception or non-verbal communication. Common examples are *look, smile, wave, frown.*

*Why are you **looking at** her like that?*

*Because she **smiled at** me.*

At is also used after some verbs referring to attacks or aggressive behaviour. Common examples are *shoot, laugh, throw, shout* and *point.*

*It's a strange feeling to have somebody **shoot at** you.*

*If you can't **laugh at** yourself, who can you **laugh at**?*

*Stop **throwing** stones **at** the cat, darling.*

*You don't need to **shout at** me.*

*In my dream, everybody was **pointing at** me and laughing.* ▸

Throw to, shout to and *point to* are used when there is no idea of attack.
Please do not throw food to the animals.
Could you shout to Phil and tell him it's breakfast time?
'The train's late again,' she said, pointing to the timetable.
Arrive is generally followed by *at* or *in*; never by *to*.
We should arrive at Pat's in time for lunch. (NOT ... ~~arrive to Pat's~~ ...)
When did you arrive in New Zealand? (NOT ... ~~to New Zealand?~~)

For *in* and *into*, see 269.

81 at, on and in: place

1 *at*

At is used to talk about position at a point.
It's very hot at the centre of the earth.
Turn right at the next corner.
Sometimes we use *at* with a larger place, if we just think of this as a point: a stage on a journey or a meeting place, for example. Compare:
- *The plane stops for an hour at Frankfurt.* (a point on a journey)
  She lives in Frankfurt. (somebody's home)
- *Let's meet at the club.* (a meeting point)
  It was warm and comfortable in the club. (a place to spend time)

We very often use *at* before the name of a building, when we are thinking not of the building itself but of the activity that happens there.
There's a good film at the cinema in Market Street.
Eat at the Steak House – best food in town.
Sorry I didn't phone last night – I was at the theatre.
At is particularly common with proper names used for buildings or organisations. Compare:
- *I first met your father at/in Harrods.*
  I first met your father in a shop.
- *She works at Legal and General Insurance.*
  She works in a big insurance company.

At is used to say where people study.
He's at the London School of Economics.
We use *at* with the name of a city to talk about the city's university. Compare:
He's a student at Oxford. *He lives in Cambridge.*
At is also used before the names of group activities.
at a party *at a meeting* *at a concert*
at a lecture *at the match*

2 *on*

On is used to talk about position on a line (for example a road or a river).
His house is on the way from Aberdeen to Dundee.
Stratford is on the river Avon.
But *in* is used for the position of things which form part of the line.
There's a misprint in line 6 on page 22.
Who's the good-looking boy in the sixth row?

On is used for position on a surface.
*Hurry up – supper's **on the table!***
*That picture would look better **on the other wall.***
*There's a big spider **on the ceiling.***
On can mean 'attached to'.
*Why do you wear that ring **on** your first finger?*
*There aren't many apples **on** the tree this year.*
On is also used for position by a lake or sea.
*Bowness is **on Lake Windermere.***
*Southend-**on**-Sea*

3 *in*

In is used for position inside large areas, and in three-dimensional space (when something is surrounded on all sides).
*I don't think he's **in his office.***
*She grew up **in Swaziland.***
*He lived **in the desert** for three years.*
*Let's go for a walk **in the woods.***
*I last saw her **in the car park.***

4 public transport

We use *on* (and *off*) to talk about travel using public transport (buses, trains, planes and boats), as well as (motor)cycles and horses.
*There's no room **on the bus**; let's get off again.*
*He's arriving **on the 3.15 train**.* (NOT ... ~~*in/with the 3.15 train.*~~)
*We're booked **on flight 604.***
*It took five days to cross the Atlantic **on the Queen Elizabeth.***
*I'll go down to the shop **on my bike.***
But we use *in* and *out (of)* to talk about cars and small private planes and boats.
*She came **in a taxi.***
*He fell into the river when he was getting **out of his canoe.***

5 *arrive*

We generally use *at* (not *to*) after *arrive*; *in* is used before very large places.
*He **arrives at** the airport at 15.30.* (NOT ~~*He arrives to the airport*~~ ...)
*What time do we **arrive in** New York?*

6 addresses

We generally use *at* to talk about addresses.
*Are you still **at the same address?***
*She lives **at 73 Albert Street.***
We use *in* (AmE *on*) if we just give the name of the street.
*She lives **in Albert Street.***
We use *on* for the number of the floor.
*She lives in a flat **on the third floor.***
At can be used with a possessive to mean 'at somebody's house or shop'.
*Where's Jane? ~ She's round **at Pat's.***
*You're always **at the hairdresser's.***

7 special expressions

Note these expressions:

in/at church *at home/work* *in/at school/college* *in a picture*
in the sky *in the rain* *in a tent* *in a hat*
The map is on page 32. (BUT *I opened the book at page 32.*)
in bed / (the) hospital / prison *on a farm* *working on the railway*

Note that *at* is usually pronounced /at/, not /æt/ (see 616).
For the difference between *at/in* and *to*, see 80.
For *smile at, shoot at* etc, see 80.3.

82 at, on and in: time

at + clock time — *at* + weekend, public holiday
in + part of day — *in* + longer period
on + particular day

1 clock times: *at*

I usually get up at six o'clock.
I'll meet you at 4.15. *Phone me at lunch time.*

At is usually left out before *what time* in an informal style (see paragraph 7).
What time does your train leave?

2 parts of the day: *in*

I work best in the morning. *three o'clock in the afternoon*
We usually go out in the evening.

Note the difference between *in the night* (mostly used to mean 'during one particular night') and *at night* (= during any night). Compare:
I had to get up in the night.
I often work at night.

In an informal style, we sometimes use plurals (days etc) with no preposition.
Would you rather work days or nights?

We use *on* if we say which morning/afternoon etc we are talking about, or if we describe the morning/afternoon etc.
See you on Monday morning.
We met on a cold afternoon in early spring.

3 days: *on*

I'll ring you on Tuesday. *My birthday's on March 21st.*
They're having a party on Christmas Day.

In an informal style we sometimes leave out *on*.
I'm seeing her Sunday morning.

We use plurals (*Sundays, Mondays* etc) to talk about repeated actions.
We usually go and see Granny on Sundays.

4 public holidays and weekends: *at*

We use *at* to talk about the whole of the holidays at Christmas, New Year, Easter and Thanksgiving (AmE).

*We're having the roof repaired **at Easter**.*

But we use *on* to talk about one day of the holiday.

*Come and see us **on Christmas Day**.*
*What are you doing **on Easter Monday**?*

British people say *at the weekend*; Americans use *on*.

*What did you do **at the weekend**?*

5 longer periods: *in*

*It happened **in the week** after Christmas.*
*I was born **in March**.*
*Our house was built **in the 15th century**.*
*Kent is beautiful **in spring**.*
*He died **in 1616**.*

6 other uses of *in*

In can also be used to say how soon something will happen, and to say how long something takes to happen.

*Ask me again **in three or four days**.*
*I can run 200 metres **in about 30 seconds**.*

The expression *in . . .'s time* is used to say how soon something will happen, not how long something takes. Compare:

*I'll see you again **in a month's time**.* *It'll be ready **in three weeks' time**.*
*He wrote the book **in a month**.* (NOT . . . ~~*in a month's time*~~.)

In American English, *in* can be used in negative sentences, like *for*, to talk about periods up to the present.

*I haven't seen her **in years**.*

7 expressions with no preposition

At/on/in are not normally used in expressions of time before *next, last, this, that* (sometimes), *one, any* (in an informal style), *each, every, some, all.*

*See you **next week**.*
*Are you free **this morning**?*
*I'm at home **every evening**.*
*We stayed **all day**.*
*Come **any time**.*
*I didn't feel very well **that week**.*
*Let's meet **one day**.*

These prepositions are not normally used, either, before *yesterday, the day before yesterday, tomorrow* or *the day after tomorrow.*

*What are you doing **the day after tomorrow**?*

And prepositions are usually dropped in questions beginning ***What/Which* + expression of time**, and in answers which only contain an expression of time.

***What day** is the meeting?*
***Which week** did you say you're on holiday?*
***What time** are you leaving?* ~ ***Eight o'clock**.*

Note that *at* is usually pronounced /ət/, not /æt/ (see 616).
For the difference between *in* and *during*, see 168.

83 at all

1 *at all* with a negative

We often use *at all* to emphasise a negative idea.

*I didn't understand anything **at all**.* (= I didn't understand even a little.)
*She was hardly frightened **at all**.*

2 questions etc

At all can also be used in questions, and with 'non-affirmative' words like *if, ever* and *any*.

*Do you play poker **at all**?* (= ... even a little?)
*He'll come before supper if he comes **at all**.*
*You can come whenever you like – any time **at all**.*

3 *Not at all*

The expression *Not at all* is used (especially in British English) as a rather formal answer to *Thank you* (see 545.19) and to *Do you mind if...?* (see 351).

84 at first and first

We use *at first* to talk about the beginning of a situation, to make a contrast with something different that happens/happened later. *At first* ... is often followed by *but*.

At first they were very happy, but then things started going wrong.
*The work was hard **at first**, but I got used to it.*

In other cases, we usually prefer *first*.

*That's mine – I saw it **first**!* (NOT ... ~~*I saw it at first*~~.)
*We lived there when we were **first** married.* (= ... in the early days of our marriage.) (NOT ... ~~*when we were at first married*~~.)
***First**, I want to talk about the history of the problem; then I'll outline the situation today; and then we'll discuss possible solutions.* (NOT ~~*At first, I want to talk*~~ ...)

Note that *at last* is not the opposite of *at first* – see 204.
For *first(ly)* as a discourse marker, see also 157.10.

85 auxiliary verbs

1 the need for auxiliary verbs

In English sentences, a lot of important meanings are expressed by the verb phrase – for example questioning, negation, time, completion, continuation, repetition, willingness, possibility, obligation. But English verbs do not have many different forms: the maximum (except for *be*) is five (e.g. *see, sees, seeing, saw, seen*). So to express all these meanings, 'auxiliary' (or 'helping') verbs are added to other verbs. There are two groups.

2 *be, do* and *have*

Be is added to other verbs to make progressive and passive forms.
Is it raining? *She was imprisoned for three years.*
Do is used to make questions, negatives and emphatic forms of non-auxiliary verbs.
Do you smoke? *It didn't matter.* *Do come in.*
Have is used to make perfect forms.
What have you done? *I realised that I hadn't turned the lights off.*
See the Index for details of entries on these forms and their uses, and on non-auxiliary uses of *be, do* and *have.*

3 modal auxiliary verbs

The verbs *will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, must* and *ought* are usually called 'modal auxiliary verbs'. They are used with other verbs to add various meanings, mostly to do with certainty or obligation.
She may be on holiday.
You must write to Uncle Arthur.
For details, see 353–354 and the entries for each verb.

4 other verb + verb structures

Other verbs (e.g. *seem*) which are used in **verb + verb** structures are not usually called 'auxiliary verbs'. One important difference is grammatical. In auxiliary verb structures, questions and negatives are made without *do*; in other **verb + verb** structures the auxiliary *do* has to be added to the first verb. Compare:

- *She ought to understand.*
  Ought she to understand?
- *She seems to understand.*
  Does she seem to understand?
- *He is swimming.*
  He is not swimming
- *He likes swimming.*
  He doesn't like swimming.

86 (a)wake and (a)waken

1 use

Wake is the most common of these four verbs. It can mean 'stop sleeping' or 'make (somebody else) stop sleeping'. It is often followed by *up*, especially when it means 'stop sleeping'.
I woke up three times in the night.
Wake up! It's time to go to work. (NOT ~~*Wake!*~~...)
Could you wake me (up) at half past six?
Waken is a more literary alternative to *wake (up).*
The princess did not waken for a hundred years.
Then the prince wakened her with a kiss.
Awake and *awaken* are also rather literary words. They can be used to mean 'wake (up)', but are more often used figuratively, to talk not about waking from sleep, but about the waking of emotions, understanding etc.
I slowly awoke to the danger that threatened me.
At first I paid little attention, but slowly my interest awoke.
The smell of her perfume awakened the gipsy's desire. ▸

2 *awake* and *asleep* (adjectives)

In informal British English the adjectives *awake* and *asleep* are more common in predicative position (after *be*) than the verb forms *waking* and *sleeping*.

Is the baby awake yet? *You were asleep at ten o'clock.*

87 back and again

Back and *again* can be used with similar meanings, but there are some differences.

1 *back* with a verb

With a verb, we use *back* to suggest a return to an earlier situation, a movement in the opposite direction to an earlier movement, and similar ideas. *Again* is not normally used in this way with a verb.

Give me my watch ***back.*** (NOT ~~*Give me my watch again.*~~)

I'm taking this meat ***back*** *to the shop.* (NOT ~~*I'm taking this meat to the shop again.*~~)

2 *again* with a verb

With a verb, *again* usually suggests repetition. Compare:

- *That was lovely. Can you play it* ***again?***
  When I've recorded your voice I'll play it ***back.***
- *Eric was really bad-mannered. I'm never going to invite him* ***again.***
  She comes to our parties but she never invites us ***back.***
- *I don't think he got your letter. You'd better write* ***again.***
  If I write to you, will you write ***back?***

Note the difference between *sell back* (to the same person) and *sell again*.

The bike you sold me is too small. Can I sell it ***back*** *to you?*

If we buy this house and then have to move somewhere else, how easy will it be to sell it ***again?***

3 cases when *back* is not used

When the verb itself already expresses the idea of 'return to an earlier situation' or 'movement in the opposite direction', *back* is not generally used.

Stefan can never ***return*** *to his country.* (More natural than *Stefan can never return back . . .*)

Who opened the window? Could you close it, please? (NOT . . . ~~*close it back*~~. . .)

However, *again* can be used to emphasise the idea of 'return'.

Stefan can never ***return*** *to his country* ***again.***

Who opened the window? Could you ***close*** *it* ***again,*** *please?*

4 adverb particles etc

With adverb particles and prepositional phrases, we can use both *back* and *again* to suggest 'return to an earlier situation' etc.

I stood up, and then I sat ***(back) down (again).***

He tasted the apple and spat it ***(back) out (again).***

Go ***(back) to sleep (again).***

I'll be ***(back) in the office (again)*** *on Monday.*

5 *ring/call back*

Note that *ring back* (BrE only) and *call back* can be used to mean both 'return a phone call' and 'repeat a phone call'.

She's not here just now. ~ *Ask her to* ***ring me back.*** (= return my call)
I haven't got time to talk now. ~ *OK, I'll* ***ring back*** *later.* (= ring again)

6 word order

Back is an adverb particle (see 20), and can usually go between a verb and its object, unless this is a pronoun (see 599.4). *Again* cannot.

Take ***back your money*** *– I don't want it.* (OR *Take* ***your money back*** . . .)
Count the ***money again,*** *please.* (NOT ~~*Count again the money*~~ . . .)

For other uses of *back* and *again*, see a good dictionary.

88 bath and bathe

1 *bath*

Pronunciation: *bath* /bɑːθ/ *bathing* /ˈbɑːθɪŋ/ *bathed* /bɑːθt/

This verb is not used in American English.
It can have an object.

It's your turn to ***bath*** *the baby.*

And it can be used to mean 'bath oneself'.

I don't think he ***baths*** *very often.*

This use is rather formal; people more often say *have/take a bath.*

I'm feeling hot and sticky; I think I'll ***have a bath.***

2 *bathe*

Pronunciation: *bathe* /beɪð/ *bathing* /ˈbeɪðɪŋ/ *bathed* /beɪðd/

Bathe is the American equivalent of *bath.* (*Take a bath* is also common.)

It's your turn to ***bathe*** *the baby.* (AmE)
I always ***bathe*** *before I go to bed.* (AmE) (OR . . . *take a bath*)

Bathe can also be used (in both British and American English) to talk about putting water on a part of the body that hurts (for instance sore eyes).

Your eyes are very red – you ought to ***bathe*** *them.*

And ***bathe*** can be used (in British English only) to mean 'swim for pleasure'.

NO BATHING FROM THIS BEACH

This use is rather formal; people more often say *have a swim, go for a swim, go swimming* or just *swim.*

Let's go for a swim in the river.

89 be: progressive forms

I am being / you are being etc + adjective/noun

We can use this structure to talk about actions and behaviour, but not usually to talk about feelings. Compare:

– *You're* ***being*** *stupid.* (= You're doing stupid things.)
I ***was being*** *very careful.* (= I was doing something carefully.) ▸

Who's being a silly baby, then?
– *I'm happy just now.* (NOT ~~*I'm being happy just now.*~~)
I was depressed when you phoned. (NOT ~~*I was being depressed*~~ . . .)
Note the difference between *He's being sick* (BrE = He's vomiting – bringing food up from the stomach) and *He's sick* (= He's ill).

For the use of *am being* etc in passive verb forms, see 412.2.

90 be with auxiliary do

Normally, *be* is used without the auxiliary *do*.
I'm not often sick. (NOT ~~*I don't often be sick.*~~)
But *do* is used to make negative imperative sentences with *be* (when we tell somebody not to do something).
Don't be silly! *Don't be such a nuisance!*
And *do be* can begin emphatic imperatives.
Do be careful! *Do be quiet, for God's sake!*
In an informal style, people sometimes use *do* with *be* in one or two other structures which have a similar meaning to imperative sentences.
Why don't you be a good boy and sit down?
If you don't be quiet you'll go straight to bed.

For other auxiliary uses of *do*, see 159.

91 be + infinitive: I am to ..., you are to ... etc

1 plans and arrangements: *He is to visit Nigeria*

We use this structure in a formal style to talk about official and other plans and arrangements.
The President is to visit Nigeria next month.
We are to get a 10 per cent wage rise in June.
I felt nervous because I was soon to leave home for the first time.
A perfect infinitive can be used to show that a planned event did not happen.
I was to have started work last week, but I changed my mind.

2 'fate': *We were to meet again*

Another use is to talk about things which are/were 'hidden in the future', fated to happen.
I thought we were saying goodbye for ever. But we were to meet again, many years later, under very strange circumstances.

3 pre-conditions: *If we are to get there in time ...*

The structure is common in *if*-clauses, when the main clause expresses a pre-condition – something that must happen first if something else is to happen.
If we are to get there by lunchtime we had better hurry.
He knew he would have to work hard if he was to pass his exam.

4 orders: *You are to do your homework*

The structure is used to give orders, often by parents speaking to children.
You are to do your homework before you watch TV.
She can go to the party, but she's not to be back late.

5 *be* + passive infinitive: *It is not to be removed*

Be **+ passive infinitive** is often used in notices and instructions.

am/are/is (not) to be **+ past participle**

*This cover is **not to be removed.***
Sometimes only the passive infinitive is used.
To be taken three times a day after meals. (on a medicine bottle)
Some other common expressions with ***be*** **+ passive infinitive**:
*There's **nothing to be done.*** *She was **nowhere to be found.***
*I looked out of the window, but there was **nothing to be seen.***

6 tenses

Note that this structure exists only in present and past tenses. We cannot say that somebody ~~*has been to go*~~ *somewhere*, or ~~*will/must be to go*~~ *somewhere.* Participle structures (~~*being to go*~~) are not possible either.

For other ways of talking about the future, see 211–221.

92 be and have

1 physical conditions: hunger, thirst etc

To talk about experiencing hunger, thirst, heat, cold and certain other common physical conditions, we normally use ***be*** (or ***feel***) **+ adjective**, not ***have*** **+ noun**. Note the following expressions:
be hungry (NOT ~~*have hunger*~~) *be thirsty* *be warm*
be hot *be cold* *be sleepy* *be afraid*
Note also:
be right *be wrong* *be lucky*

2 age, height, weight, size and colour

Be is also used to talk about age, height, length, weight, size, shape and colour.
I'm nearly thirty. (NOT ~~*I have nearly thirty*~~.)
She is nearly my age. *He is six feet tall.*
I wish I was ten kilos lighter. *What size are your shoes?*
The room is ten metres long. *What colour are his eyes?*
She is the same height as her father.
Be heavy is not usually used in measuring expressions.
It weighs 37 kilos. (NOT ~~*It's 37 kilos heavy*~~.)

For *have* in expressions like *have a bath, have a drink, have a walk*, see 236.

93 beat and win

You can *win* (in) a game, a race, a battle, an argument etc, and you can *win* a prize, money etc. You can *beat* a person that you are playing/arguing/fighting etc against. Compare:

*My girlfriend usually **wins** when we play poker.*
*My girlfriend **beat** me at poker the first time we played.* (NOT ~~*My girlfriend won me at poker*~~ . . .)

Both verbs are irregular:

beat – beat – beaten *win – won – won*

94 because

1 *because* and *because of*

Because is a conjunction. It is used at the beginning of a clause, before a subject and verb. *Because of* is a two-word preposition, used before a noun or a pronoun. Compare:

– *We were late **because** it rained.* (NOT . . . ~~*because of it rained.*~~)
*We were late **because of** the rain.* (NOT . . . ~~*because the rain.*~~)
– *I'm happy **because** I met you.*
*I'm happy **because of** you.*

2 position of *because*-clauses

Because and its clause can go after or before the main clause.

*I finished early **because** I worked fast.*
***Because** I worked fast, I finished early.*

Because-clauses can sometimes stand alone, especially as answers or after hesitations.

*Why are you crying? ~ **Because** John and I have had a row.*
*I don't think I'll go to the party . . . **Because** I'm feeling a bit tired.*

3 *just because . . . (it) doesn't mean . . .*

This is quite a common structure in informal speech.

***Just because** you're older than me **(it) doesn't mean** you can do what you like.*
***Just because** I'm your brother **(it) doesn't mean** you can keep asking me for money.*

For *because* after *reason*, see 492.
For the differences between *because, as, since* and *for*, see 72.

95 been meaning 'come' or 'gone'

Been is often used as a past participle of *come* and *go*.

*Granny has **been** to see us twice since Christmas.*
*I haven't **been** to the theatre for ages.*
*Have you ever **been** to Northern Ireland?*

Note that *been* is only used for completed visits. Compare:
- *The postman's already **been**.* (He has come and gone away again.)
  Jane's come, so we can start work. (She has come and is still here.)
- *I've **been** to London three times this week.*
  *Where's Lucy?~She's **gone** to London.*

For *be gone*, see 229.

96 before: adverb

1 'at any time before now/then'

We can use *before* to mean 'at any time before now'. In British English, a present perfect tense is normally used.

*I think I've **seen** this film **before**.* *Have you ever **been** here **before**?*

Before can also mean 'at any time before then – before the past moment that we are talking about'. In this case a past perfect tense is used.

*She realised that she **had seen** him **before**.*

2 counting back from a past time: *eight years before*

We also use *before* after a time expression to 'count back' from a past moment – to say how much earlier something else had happened. A past perfect tense is normally used.

*When I went back to the town that I **had left** eight years **before**, everything was different.* (NOT ...~~that I had left before eight years~~...)

To count back from the present, we use *ago*, not *before* (see also 33).

*I left school **four years ago**.* (NOT ...~~four years before~~ / ~~before four years~~)

3 *before, before that* and *first*

Before is not generally used alone to mean 'first' or 'before that happens'. Instead we use *first* or *before that*.

*I want to get married one day. But **before that** / **first**, I want to travel.*
(NOT ...~~But before, I want to travel.~~)

For the difference between *before* and *ever*, see 191.
For *before* as a conjunction and preposition, see 97–98.

97 before: conjunction

before + clause, + clause
clause + *before* + clause

1 position of *before*-clause

Before can join one clause to another. Compare:

***Before** I have breakfast, I spend half an hour doing physical exercises.*
*I prefer to do my exercises **before** I have breakfast.*

(In both sentences, the speaker does exercises first and then has breakfast. In the second example, the *before*-clause is given more importance because it comes at the end. Note the comma in the first example.)

***Before** he did military service, he went to university.*
(He went to university first.)

*He did military service **before he went to university.***
(He did military service first.)

2 present tense with future meaning

With *before*, we use a present tense if the meaning is future (see 580).
*I'll telephone you **before I come.*** (NOT ... ~~*before I will come.*~~)

3 perfect tenses

In clauses with *before*, we often use present perfect and past perfect tenses to emphasise the idea of completion.
*You can't go home **before I've signed** the letters.* (= ... before the moment when I have completed the letters.)
*He went out **before I had finished** my sentence.* (= ... before the moment when I had completed my sentence.)
(Note that in sentences like the last, a past perfect tense can refer to a time *later* than the action of the main verb. This is unusual.)

4 before things that don't happen

We sometimes use *before* to talk about things that don't happen (because something stops them).
*We'd better get out of here **before your father catches us.***
*She left **before I could ask** for her phone number.*

5 *before ...ing*

In a formal style, we often use the structure *before ...ing.*
*Please put out all lights **before leaving** the office.*
*Before **beginning** the book, she spent five years on research.*

For *before* as an adverb and preposition, see 96, 98.

98 before (preposition) and in front of

before: time
in front of: place

Compare:
*I must move my car **before nine o'clock.***
*It's parked **in front of the post office.*** (NOT ... ~~*before the post office.*~~)

Before is normally used to refer to time. However, it can refer to place:

a to talk about order in queues, lists, documents etc
*Do you mind? I was **before / in front of you!***
*Her name comes **before mine** in the alphabet.*
*We use **'a' before a consonant** and **'the' before a vowel.***

b to mean 'in the presence of (somebody important)'
*I came up **before the magistrates** for dangerous driving last week.*

c in the expressions *right before one's eyes, before one's very eyes.*

For the difference between *in front of* and *facing/opposite*, see 402.
For *before* as an adverb and conjunction, see 96–97.
For *by* meaning 'at/on or before', see 117.

99 begin and start

1 meaning; formality

Begin and *start* can both be used with the same meaning.
*I **began/started** teaching when I was 24.*
*If Sheila doesn't come soon, let's **begin/start** without her.*
We generally prefer *begin* when we are using a more formal style. Compare:
*We will **begin** the meeting with a message from the President.*
*Damn! It's **starting** to rain.*

2 cases where *begin* is not possible

Start (but not *begin*) is used to mean:

a 'start a journey'
*I think we ought to **start** at six, while the roads are empty.*

b 'start working' (for machines)
*The car won't **start**.*

c 'make something start'
*How do you **start** the washing machine?*
*The President's wife fired the gun to **start** the race.*

For infinitives and *-ing* forms after *begin* and *start*, see 299.10.

100 below, under, underneath, beneath

1 'lower than': *below* or *under*

The prepositions *below* and *under* can both mean 'lower than'.
*Look in the cupboard **below/under** the sink.*

2 not directly under: *below*

We prefer *below* when one thing is not directly under another.
*The climbers stopped 300m **below** the top of the mountain.*
*A moment later the sun had disappeared **below** the horizon.*

3 covered: *under*

We prefer *under* when something is covered or hidden by what is over it, and when things are touching.
*I think the cat's **under** the bed.*
*What are you wearing **under** your sweater?*
*The whole village is **under** water.* (NOT ...~~*below water.*~~)

4 measurements: *below*

Below is used in measurements of temperature and height, and in other cases where we think of a vertical scale.
*The temperature is three degrees **below** zero.*
*Parts of Holland are **below** sea level.*
*The plane came down **below** the clouds.*
*She's well **below** average in intelligence.* ▸

5 'less than': *under*

We usually use *under*, not *below*, to mean 'less than' or 'younger than'.

*There were **under** twenty people at the lecture.*
*You can't see this film if you're **under** 18.*

6 *underneath*

Underneath is sometimes used as a preposition instead of *under*, but only for physical position. Compare:

*There's a mouse **under(neath)** the piano.*
*He's still **under** 18.* (NOT ... ~~*underneath 18.*~~)

7 *beneath*

Beneath is used mostly in a rather literary style.

*The ship sank slowly **beneath** the waves.*

It is common before abstract nouns in some fixed expressions.

*He acts as if I was **beneath his notice**.* (= not worth considering)
*Her behaviour is **beneath contempt**.* (= really disgraceful)

8 adverbs

Below can be used as an adverb.

*We looked over the cliff at the waves crashing on the rocks **below**.*

Under can be used as an adverb particle (see 20) with some verbs.

*A lot of businesses are **going under** because of the economic crisis.*

In other cases we prefer *underneath* for adverbial use.

*I can't take my sweater off – I haven't got anything on **underneath**.*
(NOT ... ~~*anything on under.*~~)

In a book or a paper, *see below* means 'look at something written later'.

The difference between *above* and *over* is similar to the difference between *below* and *under*. See 6 for details.

101 beside and besides

Beside is a preposition meaning 'at the side of', 'by', 'next to'.

*Who's the big guy sitting **beside** Jane?*

Besides can be used like *as well as* (see 78), when we add new information to what is already known.

***Besides** literature, we have to study history and philosophy.*
*Who was at the party **besides** Jack and the Bensons?*

Besides can also be used as a discourse marker (see 157.11) meaning 'also', 'as well', 'in any case'. It is often used to add a stronger, more conclusive argument to what has gone before. In this case, *besides* usually goes at the beginning of a clause.

*I don't like those shoes; **besides**, they're too expensive.*
*It's too late to go out now. **Besides**, it's starting to rain.*

102 besides, except and apart from

These expressions are sometimes confused.
Besides usually adds: it is like saying *with*, or *plus* (+).
Besides the violin, he plays the piano and the flute. (He plays three instruments.)
Except subtracts: it is like saying *without*, or *minus* (-).
I like all musical instruments except the violin.
Apart from can be used in both senses.
Apart from the violin, he plays the piano and the flute. (= Besides the violin . . .)
I like all musical instruments apart from the violin. (= . . . except the violin.)
After *no, nobody, nothing* and similar negative words, the three expressions can all have the same meaning.
He has nothing besides / except / apart from his salary. (= He only has his salary.)

For the use of *besides* as an adverbial discourse marker, see 157.11. For *beside*, see 101.
For *except* and *except for*, see 194.

103 bet

1 use

I bet (you) can be used in an informal style to mean 'I think it's probable that'. *That* is usually dropped.
I bet (you) she's not at home.
(More natural than *I bet (you) that she's not at home.*)
I'll bet . . . is also possible.
I'll bet you she's not at home.

2 tenses

After *I bet (you)*, we often use a present tense to refer to the future.
I bet (you) they don't come this evening. (OR *I bet (you) they won't come . . .*)
I bet (you) the Conservatives (will) lose.

3 two objects

When *bet* is used to talk about real bets, it can be followed by two objects: the person with whom the bet is made, and the money or thing that is bet.
I bet you £5 it doesn't rain this week.
My father bet my mother dinner at the Ritz that she would marry him. He won, but she never bought him the dinner.
Bet is irregular (*bet – bet – bet*).

104 better

1 'recovered'

When *better* means 'recovered from an illness', it can be used with *completely* or *quite* (unlike other comparative adjectives).
Don't start work again until you're quite better. ▸

2 correcting mistakes

We do not normally use *better* to correct mistakes.
*She's gone to Hungary – or **rather**, Poland.* (NOT ... ~~*or better, Poland.*~~)

For the structure *had better*, see 230.

105 between and among

1 *between* two

We say that something is *between* two people, things, or groups of things.
*She was standing **between** Alice and Mary.*
*a long valley **between** high mountains*
Between is often used to talk about distances or intervals.
*We need **two metres between** the windows.*
*I'll be at the office **between nine and eleven**.*
Between is common before *each*.
*There seems to be less and less time **between each** birthday.*

2 *between* or *among* more than two

We usually say that somebody or something is *between* several clearly separate people or things. We prefer *among* when somebody or something is in a group, a crowd or a mass of people or things which we do not see separately.
Compare:
– *Our house is **between** the woods, the river and the village.*
*His house is hidden **among** the trees.*
– *I saw something **between** the wheels of the car.*
*Your letter is somewhere **among** all these papers.*
Among is normal before a singular (uncountable) noun.
*They found an envelope full of money **among** all the rubbish.*

3 dividing and sharing; *difference*

We can talk about *dividing* or *sharing* things *between* or *among* more than two people or groups.
*He **divided** all his money **between/among** his children and grandchildren.*
*We **shared** the work **between/among** the five of us.*
We normally use *between* after *difference*.
*There are enormous **differences between** languages.*
*What's the **difference between** 'between' and 'among'?*

4 'one of' etc

Among can mean 'one of', 'some of' or 'included in'.
Among the first to arrive was the ambassador.
*He has a number of criminals **among** his friends.*

106 big, large and great

1 concrete nouns: usually *big* or *large*

With concrete nouns – the names of things you can see, touch etc – we mostly use *big* and *large*. *Big* is most common in an informal style.

*Get your **big** feet off my flowers.*
*She is a small woman, but she has very **large** feet.*
*It was a **large** house, situated near the river.*

2 *great* with concrete nouns

Great is not normally used simply to talk about physical size. In an informal style, it is often used with concrete nouns to mean 'wonderful'.

*I've just got a **great** new flat.*

And it can also be used with meanings like 'large and impressive'.

Great clouds of smoke rose above the burning cathedral.

Another meaning is 'famous' or 'important'.

*Do you think Napoleon was really a **great** man?*

3 abstract nouns: usually *great*

Great is common with abstract nouns – the names of things you cannot see, touch etc.

*I have **great** respect for her ideas.* (NOT ~~*big/large respect*~~)
*His behaviour caused **great** annoyance.* (NOT ~~*big/large annoyance*~~)
*You are making a **great** mistake.*
*Her work showed a **great** improvement last year.*

Big can be used with countable abstract nouns in an informal style.

*You're making **a big** mistake.*
***Big bargains** for weekend shoppers!*

Large is used with countable abstract nouns referring to quantities, amounts and proportions.

*We're thinking of giving your firm a very **large** order.*
*There was a **large** error in the accounts.*
*She spent **large** sums on entertaining.*
*He wrote a **large** part of the book while he was in hospital.*

Big and *large* are not generally used with uncountable nouns – but note the fixed expressions *big business, big trouble.*

4 *large* and *wide*

Large is a 'false friend' for speakers of some languages. It does not mean 'wide'.

*The river is 100 metres **wide**.* (NOT ... ~~*100 metres large.*~~)

For *wide* and *broad*, see 115.

107 [a] bit

1 use

A bit is often used as an adverb with the same meaning as *a little* (see 329).

*She's **a bit** old to play with dolls, isn't she?* ▸

*Can you drive **a bit** slower?* *Wait **a bit**.*
Note that when *a bit* and *a little* are used with non-comparative adjectives, the meaning is usually negative or critical.
a bit tired *a bit expensive* *a little (too) old*
(BUT NOT ~~*a bit kind, a little interesting*~~)

2 a bit of a

A bit of a can be used before some nouns in an informal style. The meaning is similar to *rather a* (see 490).
*He's **a bit of a** fool, if you ask me.* *I've got **a bit of a** problem.*

3 not a bit

The informal expression *not a bit* means 'not at all'.
*I'm **not a bit** tired.* *Do you mind if I put some music on? ~ **Not a bit**.*

For *a bit* with comparative adjectives and adverbs, see 140.

108 born and borne

1 be born

To talk about coming into the world at birth, we use the passive expression *to be born*.
*Hundreds of children **are born** deaf every year.*
To give a place or date of birth, we use the simple past: *was/were born*.
*I **was born** in 1936.* (NOT ~~*I am born in 1936*~~.)
*My parents **were born** in Scotland.*

2 the verb bear

The verb *bear* (*bore, borne*) is used to talk about accepting or tolerating difficult experiences. It is most common in the expression *can't bear* (= hate, can't stand).
*I **can't bear** her voice.*
In a very formal style, *bear* can be used with other meanings, including 'give birth to' and 'carry'.
*She **bore** six children in seven years.* (More normal: *She had six children . . .*)
*The king's body was **borne** away to the cathedral.*

109 borrow and lend

Borrowing is **taking** (for a time).
*Can I **borrow** your bicycle?* (NOT ~~*Can I lend your bicycle?*~~)
You borrow something **from** somebody.
*I **borrowed** a pound **from** my brother.* (NOT ~~*I borrowed my brother a pound*~~.)
Lending (AmE also *loaning*) is **giving** (for a time). You lend something **to** somebody, or **lend somebody** something.
*I **lent** my coat **to** Steve, and I never saw it again.*
*Lend **me** your comb for a minute, will you?* (NOT ~~*Borrow me your*~~ . . .)

For *lend* in passive structures, see 415.

110 both

1 meaning

Both means 'each of two'.

Both my parents were born in Scotland.

We do not normally use *both* when the meaning is not 'each'.

My two brothers carried the piano upstairs. (More natural than *Both my brothers carried the piano upstairs* – they didn't each carry it separately.)

2 *both* and *both of*

Before a noun with a determiner (e.g. *the, my, these*), *both* and *both of* are both possible.

*She's eaten **both (of) the** chops.* *Both (of) **these** oranges are bad.*

*He lost **both (of) his** parents when he was a child.*

We often drop *the* or a possessive after *both*; *of* is not used in this case.

*She's eaten **both** chops.* (NOT ... ~~*both of chops*~~)

*He lost **both** parents when he was a child.*

3 *the* not used before *both*

Note that we do not put *the* before *both*.

both (the) children (NOT ~~*the both children*~~)

4 personal pronouns: *both of*

With personal pronouns, we use ***both of* + *us/you/them***. *Both of us/you/them* can be a subject or object.

***Both of them** can come tomorrow.*

*She's invited **both of us**.* *Mary sends **both of you** her love.*

We can put *both* after pronouns used as objects.

*She's invited **us both**.* *Mary sends **you both** her love.*

But this structure is not used in complements (after *be*) or in short answers.

*Who broke the window – Sarah or Alice? ~ It was **both of them**.*
(NOT ... ~~*them both*~~.)

*Who did she invite? ~ **Both of us**.* (NOT ~~*Us both*~~.)

5 *both* with a verb

When *both* refers to the subject of a clause, it can go with the verb, in 'mid-position' (for details of word order, see 24).

*We **can both** swim.* *Those oranges were **both** bad.*

*The children have **both** gone to bed.* *My sisters **both** work in education.*

Note that these meanings can also be expressed by using *both (of)* with a subject (see above).

***Both of us** can swim.* ***Both (of) the children** have gone to bed.*

6 negative structures

Instead of *both ... not*, we normally use *neither* (see 372).

Neither of them is here. (NOT ~~*Both of them are not here*~~.)

111 both ... and

We often balance this structure, so that the same kind of words or expressions follow *both* and *and*.

*She's **both** pretty **and** clever.* (adjectives)
*I spoke to **both** the Director **and** her secretary.* (nouns)
*She **both** dances **and** sings.* (verbs)

However, unbalanced sentences with *both ... and* are common. Some people prefer to avoid them.

*She **both** dances **and** she sings.* (*both* + verb; *and* + clause)
*I **both** play the piano **and** the violin.*

Both cannot begin a complete clause in this structure.

*You can **both** borrow the flat **and** (you can) use our car.* (BUT NOT ~~*Both you can borrow the flat and you can use the car.*~~)

See also *either ... or* (175), *neither ... nor* (373) and *not only ... but also* (383).

112 bring and take

1 speaker's/hearer's position

We use *bring* for movements to the place where the speaker or hearer is, but we use *take* for movements to other places. Compare:

– *This is a nice restaurant. Thanks for **bringing** me here.* (NOT ... ~~*thanks for taking me here.*~~)
*Let's have another drink, and then I'll **take** you home.* (NOT ... ~~*and then I'll bring you home.*~~)
– (on the phone) *Can we come over on Sunday? We'll **bring** a picnic.*
*Let's go and see Aunt May on Sunday. We can **take** a picnic.*

2 speaker's/hearer's past or future position

We can also use *bring* for a movement to a place where the speaker or hearer already was or will be. Compare:

– *Where's that report? ~ I **brought** it to you when you were in Mr Allen's office. Don't you remember?*
*I **took** the papers to John's office.*
– *I'll arrive at the hotel at six o'clock. Can you **bring** the car at six-thirty?*
*Can you **take** the car to the garage tomorrow? I won't have time.* (NOT ~~*Can you bring the car to the garage tomorrow?*~~ ...)

3 joining a movement

Bring (with) can be used to talk about joining a movement of the speaker's/hearer's, even if *take* is used for the movement itself.

*I'm **taking** the kids to the cinema tonight. Would you like to come with us and **bring** Susie?*

4 somebody else's position

Sometimes when we are talking about somebody else (not the speaker or hearer), that person can become the centre of our attention. In that case, we

use *bring* for movements to the place where he/she is (or was or will be). This often happens in stories.

*He heard nothing for months. Then one day his brother **brought** him a letter.*

5 American English

Americans often use *bring* where British English has *take*.

*Let's go and see Aunt May on Sunday. We can **bring** a picnic.*

The difference between *come* and *go* is similar. See 134.

For other uses of *take*, see 576.

113 bring up and educate

Bring up and the noun *upbringing* are mostly used for the moral and social training that children receive at home. *Educate* and *education* are used for the intellectual and cultural training that people get at school and university.

*Lucy was **brought up** by her aunt and **educated** at the local school.*

*Their kids are very badly **brought up** – always screaming and fighting.*

(NOT ~~*Their kids are very badly educated*~~ . . .)

*Which is better: a good **upbringing** and a bad **education**, or the opposite?*

114 Britain, the United Kingdom, the British Isles and England

(Great) Britain is normally used to mean the island which includes England, Scotland and Wales; *British* is used for the people of these three countries. Great Britain and Northern Ireland together are called *the United Kingdom*; some people also use *Britain* in this wider sense.

The British Isles is a geographical, not a political term. It is the name for England, Scotland, Wales, the whole of Ireland (which includes both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, also called 'Eire'), and the smaller islands round about.

Note that *England* is only one part of Britain. Scotland and Wales are not in England, and Scottish and Welsh people do not like to be called 'English'.

A very informal word for a British person is *Brit*. *Briton* is used mainly in news reports and newspaper headlines (e.g. *THREE BRITONS DIE IN AIR CRASH*), and to refer to the ancient inhabitants of Britain.

115 broad and wide

1 physical distance

To talk about the physical distance from one side of something to the other, we more often use *wide*.

*We live in a very **wide** street.* *The car's too **wide** for the garage.*

Broad can also be used in this physical sense, especially in more formal descriptions.

*Across the **broad** valley, the mountains rose blue and mysterious.*

*She wore a simple green dress with a **broad** black belt.* ▸

Note also: ***broad** shoulders*; *a **broad** back*; *wide eyes*; *a **wide** mouth*.
Wide is used in expressions of measurement: note the word order.
*The river is about **half a mile wide**.* (NOT ... ~~*wide half a mile.*~~)

2 abstract meanings

Both words can express more abstract meanings. Common expressions:
***broad** agreement* (= agreement on most important points)
***broad**-minded* (= tolerant) ***broad** daylight* (= full, bright daylight)
*a **wide** variety/range* (of opinions etc)

For other common expressions with *broad* and *wide*, see a good dictionary.

116 but meaning 'except'

1 use

We use *but* to mean 'except' after *all, none, every, any, no* (and *everything, everybody, nothing, nobody, anywhere* etc).
*He eats **nothing but** hamburgers.* *Everybody's here **but** George.*
*I've finished **all** the jobs **but** one.*
Note the expressions *next but one, last but two* etc (mainly BrE).
*Jackie lives **next** door **but** one.* (= two houses from me)
*I was **last but** two in the race yesterday.*
But for expresses the idea 'if something had not existed/happened'.
*I would have been in real trouble **but for** your help.*
***But for** the storm, I would have been home before eight.*
Note also the structure *who/what should ... but* (used to talk about surprising appearances, meetings etc).
*I walked out of the station, and **who should** I see **but** old Beryl?*
*I looked under the bed, and **what should** I find **but** the keys I lost last week?*

2 pronouns after *but*

After *but*, we usually use object pronouns (*me, him* etc). Subject pronouns (*I, he* etc) are possible in a more formal style before a verb.
*Nobody **but her** would do a thing like that.*
(More formal: *Nobody but she ...*)

3 verbs after *but*

The verb form after *but* usually depends on what came before. Infinitives are normally without *to*.
*She's not interested in anything **but skiing**.* (*interested in ... skiing*)
*That child does nothing **but watch** TV.* (*does ... watch*)
Cannot (help) but** + **infinitive without to is sometimes used with the meaning of 'can't help ...ing' (see 126). *Cannot but ...* is very formal; *cannot help but ...* is especially common in American English.
*One **cannot (help) but admire** his courage.* (= One has to admire ...)
*I **can't help but wonder** what's going to happen to us all.*
Infinitives with *to* are used after *no alternative/choice/option but*.
*The train was cancelled, so I had **no alternative but to take** a taxi.*

4 *but* meaning 'only'

In older English, *but* was used to mean 'only', but this is now very unusual.
*She is **but** a child.*

Note: *but* is usually pronounced /bət/, not /bʌt/ (see 616).
For *except*, see 194.
For *but* as a conjunction and ellipsis after *but*, see 178.

117 by: time

1 not later than

By can mean 'not later than'.
*I'll be home **by** five o'clock.* (= at or before five)
*Can I borrow your car? ~ Yes, but I must have it back **by** tonight.* (= tonight or before)
By can also suggest the idea of 'progress up to a particular time'.
By the end of the meal, everybody was drunk.
Before a verb, we use *by the time (that)*.
*I'll be in bed **by the time** you get home.*
By the time that the guards realised what was happening, the gang were already inside the bank.

For the difference between *by* and *until*, see 602.6.

2 other meanings

By can also be used to talk about time in the rather literary expressions *by day* and *by night* (= during the day/night).
*He worked **by night** and slept **by day**.*
Note also *day by day, hour by hour* etc.
*The situation is getting more serious **day by day**.* (= . . . each day.)
And one can pay *by the hour, by the day* etc.
*In this job we're paid **by the hour**.*
*You can hire a bicycle **by the day** or **by the week**.*

118 by and near

By means 'just at the side of'; something that is *by* you may be closer than something that is *near* you. Compare:
*We live **near** the sea.* (perhaps five kilometres away)
*We live **by** the sea.* (We can see it.)

119 by (method, agent) and with (tools etc)

1 the difference

By and *with* can both be used to say how somebody does something, but there is an important difference.
We use *by* to talk about an action – what we **do** to get a result. We use *with* to talk about a tool or other object – what we **use** to get a result. Compare: ▸

– *I killed the spider **by hitting it.*** (Note the *-ing* form after *by*.)
*I killed the spider **with a shoe.*** (NOT ... ~~*by a shoe*~~.)
– *I got where I am **by hard work.*** ~ *No you didn't. You got there **with your wife's money.***

Without is the opposite of both *by* and *with* in these cases. Compare:
– *I got her to listen **by** shouting.*
*It's difficult to get her to listen **without** shouting.*
– *We'll have to get it out **with** a screwdriver.*
*We can't get it out **without** a screwdriver.*

By is also used to refer to means of transport (*by bus, by train* etc). See 70.1.

2 passive clauses

In passive clauses, *by* introduces the agent – the person or thing that does the action (see 413).
*I was interviewed **by** three directors.*
*My car was damaged **by** a falling branch.*

We generally prefer *with* to refer to a tool or instrument used by somebody. Compare:
*He was killed **by** a heavy stone.* (This could mean 'A stone fell and killed him'.)
*He was killed **with** a heavy stone.* (This means 'Somebody used a stone to kill him'.)

120 call

Call (with no object) can mean both 'telephone' and 'visit'. This sometimes causes confusion.
*Alice **called** this morning.* ~ *You mean she came round or she phoned?*

121 can and could (1): introduction

1 grammar

Can and *could* are modal auxiliary verbs (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.
*She **can** swim very well.* (NOT ~~*She cans*~~...)

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Can you swim? (NOT ~~*Do you can swim?*~~)
*I **couldn't** understand her.* (NOT ~~*I didn't could*~~...)

c After *can* and *could*, we use the infinitive of other verbs, without *to*.
*I **can** speak a little Arabic.* (NOT ~~*I can to speak*~~...)
*Do you think she **can** still be working? It's very late.*

d *Can* and *could* have no infinitives or participles (~~*to can*~~, ~~*canning*~~, ~~*I have could*~~ do not exist). When necessary, we use other words, for example forms of *be able* (see 3) or *be allowed* (see 42).
*I'd like to **be able** to stay here.* (NOT ... ~~*to can stay*~~...)
*You'll **be able** to walk soon.* (NOT ~~*You'll can*~~...)

*I've always **been able** to play games well.* (NOT ~~*I've always could*~~...)
*She's always **been allowed** to do what she liked.*

e *Could* is sometimes used as the past of *can*.
*When I was younger I **could** play tennis very well.*
However, it can also be used as a less definite or conditional form of *can*, referring to the present or future (see 122.6, 124.1,4–6).
***Could** I ask you something?* (More polite than *Can I ... ?*)
*What shall we do this evening? ~ We **could** go and see a film.*
*I **could** get a better job if I spoke French.* (= I would be able to ...)

f Certain past ideas can be expressed by *can* or *could* followed by a perfect infinitive (***have** + past participle*). For details, see 122.7, 123.5 and 124.7.
*I don't know where she **can have** gone.*
*That was dangerous – he **could have killed** somebody.*

g *Can* has two pronunciations: a strong form /kæn/ and a weak form /kən/. *Could* has a strong form /kʊd/ and a weak form /kəd/. The weak pronunciation is used in most cases. For more details of strong and weak pronunciations, see 616.

h Contracted negative forms (see 143) are *can't* (pronounced /kɑːnt/ in standard British English and /kænt/ in standard American English) and *couldn't* (/ˈkʊdnt/). *Cannot* is usually written as one word in British English.

2 meanings

Can and *could* are both used to talk about ability, to ask for and give permission, and to make requests and offers.
***Can** you speak French?* (ability)
*You **can** stop work early today.* (permission)
***Could** I have some more tea?* (request)
***Can** I help you?* (offer)
Could is also used to talk about the chances that something will happen, or is happening. *Can* is not used in this way.
*It **could** rain this afternoon.* (NOT ~~*It can rain this afternoon.*~~)
Can't is not only used to talk about ability or permission; it can also express negative certainty (see 359.2).
*It **can't** be true.* (= It is not possible that it is true.)
With *see*, *hear* and some other verbs, *can* is used to give a kind of present progressive meaning.
*I **can** hear the sea.* (NOT ~~*I am hearing the sea.*~~)
May and *might* are often used in similar ways to *can* and *could*. For the main differences, see 345.

122 can and could (2): ability

1 knowledge, skill, strength etc: *I can read Italian*

We use *can* to say what people and things are able (or unable) to do because of their knowledge, skill, strength, nature, design etc.
*I **can** read Italian, but I **can't** speak it.*
*Dogs **can't** climb trees.*
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.*
Can gases freeze? ▸

Henry can lift 100 kilos. *My car can do 180kph.*

Be able to (see 3) is used with similar meanings, especially when we are talking about people's ability.

Henry is able to lift 100 kilos.

2 common or typical

We often use *can* to say what is common or typical.

Scotland can be very warm in September.

Ann can really get on your nerves sometimes.

3 possible in the situation: *We can go to Paris*

We also use *can* to say what we are able (or unable) to do because of the circumstances that we are in – what is possible in the situation.

We can go to Paris this weekend, because I don't have to work.

I can't come out this evening: I have to see my brother.

There are three possibilities: we can go to the police, we can talk to a lawyer, or we can forget all about it.

What shall we do? ~ We can try asking Lucy for help.

Anybody who wants to can join the club.

4 past: *She could read when she was four*

We use *could* to talk about the past.

She could read when she was four.

My grandmother could sing like an angel.

My last car could do 200kph.

In those days everybody could find a job.

It could be quite frightening if you were alone in our big old house.

Was able to is also possible, especially to talk about people's ability.

She was able to read when she was four.

5 past: *could* is not always possible

We use *could* for 'general ability' – for example to say that somebody could do something at any time, whenever he/she wanted.

When I was younger, I could run 10km in under 40 minutes.

We do not normally use *could* to say that somebody did something on one occasion. Instead, we use other expressions.

I managed to run 10km yesterday in under an hour. (NOT ~~*I could run 10km yesterday*~~ . . .)

How many eggs were you able to get? (NOT . . . ~~*could you get?*~~)

After six hours' climbing, we succeeded in getting to the top of the mountain. (NOT . . . ~~*we could get to the top*~~ . . .)

I found a really nice dress in the sale. (NOT ~~*I could find*~~ . . .)

However, we use *couldn't* to say that something did not happen on one occasion.

I managed to find the street, but I couldn't find her house.

6 other uses of *could*

Could is not only past: we also use it as a 'softer', less definite form of *can*.

What shall we do tomorrow? ~ Well, we could go fishing.

When you're in Spain, you could go and see Alex.

Could can mean 'would be able to'.

You could get a better job if you spoke a foreign language.

Could is used in past indirect speech, when *can* was used in direct speech.

Can you help me?~What did you say?~I asked if you could help me.

7 could have ...

We use a special structure to talk about unrealised past ability or opportunities – to say that somebody was able to do something, but did not try to do it; or that something was possible, but did not happen.

could have + past participle

I could have married anybody I wanted to.
I was so angry I could have killed her!
Why did you jump out of the window? You could have hurt yourself
I could have won the race if I hadn't fallen.

This structure can be used to criticise people for not doing things.

You could have helped me – why did you just sit and watch?

Negative sentences suggest that somebody would not have been able to do something even if they had wanted or tried to.

I couldn't have won, so I didn't go in for the race.
I couldn't have enjoyed myself more – it was a perfect day.

The structure is sometimes used to talk about past events which are not certain to have happened (like *may/might have* – see 339.7).

Who sent those flowers?~I'm not sure. It could have been your mother.

8 chances: *Will it happen? / Is it happening?* Can not used

We do not use *can* to talk about the chances (probability) that something will actually happen, or is actually happening. Instead, we use *may* (see 339).

We may go camping this summer. (NOT ~~*We can go*~~...)
There may be a strike next week. (NOT ~~*There can be*~~...)
Where's Sarah?~She may be with Joe. (NOT ~~*She can be*~~...)
Some of these desserts may contain alcohol. (NOT ...~~*can contain*~~...)

However, *could* is possible in this sense.

It could rain later this evening, perhaps. (BUT NOT ~~*It can rain later*~~...)
I could possibly have a new job soon. (BUT NOT ~~*I can possibly have*~~...)

For a comparison between *can, could, may* and *might*, see 345.
For *can't* used to express certainty (e.g. *It can't be true*), see 359.2.

123 can and could (3): ability (advanced points)

1 future: *can* or *will be able*

We use *can* to talk about future actions which we will be able to do because of present ability, present circumstances, present decisions etc.

She can win the race tomorrow if she really tries.
I've bought the tent, so we can go camping next weekend if we want to.
I haven't got time today, but I can see you tomorrow.
Can you come to a party on Saturday?

In other cases we prefer other structures, for example *will be able to.*

I'll be able to speak French at the end of this course.
(NOT ~~*I can speak French*~~...)

One day people will be able to go to the moon on holiday.
(OR *it will be possible to go . . .*)

2 *could* in the past

Could is not normally used to say that somebody did something on one occasion in the past (see 122.5).

*I **managed** to buy a really nice coat yesterday.* (NOT ~~*I could buy a really nice coat yesterday*~~.)

However, *could* can refer to one occasion with certain verbs: *see, hear, taste, feel, smell, understand, remember* and *guess* (see 125),

*I **could smell** something burning.* *I **could understand** everything she said.*

And we can use *could* to talk about one occasion with words like *hardly* or *only*, that have a negative sense.

*She **could hardly** believe her eyes.* *I **could only** get six eggs.*

Could can also sometimes refer to one occasion in subordinate clauses.

*I'm so glad that you **could** come.*

3 languages and instruments: *She speaks Greek*

We often leave out *can* when we are talking about the ability to speak languages or to play instruments.

*She **speaks** Greek. / She **can speak** Greek.*
*Do/**Can** you play the piano?*

4 *can/could always*

Can/could always can mean 'can/could . . . if there is nothing better'.

*I don't know what to get Mark for his birthday. ~ Well, you **can always** give him a book token.*
*What are we going to eat? ~ We **could always** warm up that soup.*

5 *could have . . .* for present situations

Could have + past participle can refer to present situations which were possible but have not been realised.

*He **could have been** Prime Minister now if he hadn't decided to leave politics.*
*We **could have spent** today at the seaside, but we thought it was going to rain, so we decided not to.*

124 can and could (4): interpersonal uses (permission, requests etc)

1 asking for and giving permission: *Can I . . .?*

We use *can* to ask for and give permission.

*Can I ask you something? ~ Yes, of course you **can**.*
*You **can** go now if you want to.*

Can't is used to refuse permission (often with other words to soften the refusal.)

*Can I have some more cake? ~ No, I'm afraid you **can't**.*

We also use *could* to ask for permission; it is more polite or formal than *can*. We do not use *could* to give or refuse permission (it suggests respect, so is more natural in asking for permission than in giving it.)

Could I ask you something? ~ *Yes, of course you can.* (NOT ... ~~*of course you could.*~~)

May and *might* are also used to ask and give permission (see 340). They are more formal than *can/could*. Some people consider them more 'correct', but in fact *can* and *could* are normally preferred in informal educated usage.

2 talking about permission: *Can everybody park here?*

Can and *could* are also used to talk about permission that has already been given or refused, and about things that are (not) allowed by rules and laws. (Note that *may* is not normally used to talk about rules and laws – see 340.3.)

*She said I **could** come as often as I liked.*

Can everybody park here? (NOT ~~*May everybody park here?*~~)

3 past: *could* is not always possible

In talking about the past, we use *could* to say that somebody had permission to do something at any time ('general permission'), but we do not use *could* to talk about permission for one particular action in the past. Compare:

*When I was a child, I **could** watch TV whenever I wanted to.*

*Yesterday evening, Peter **was allowed** to watch TV for an hour.* (NOT ... ~~*Peter could watch TV for an hour.*~~)

But *could not* can be used to talk about one particular action.

*Peter **couldn't** watch TV yesterday because he was naughty.*

(The difference between *could* and *was/were allowed* is similar to the difference between *could* and *was/were able* – see 122.5.)

4 could = 'would be allowed'

Could has a conditional use (= would be allowed).

*He **could** borrow my car if he asked.*

Could have **+ past participle** means 'would have been allowed'.

*I **could have** kissed her if I'd wanted to.*

5 offers

We often use *can* when we offer to do things for people.

Can I carry your bag? (= Would you like me to ...) ~ Oh, thank you.

*I **can** baby-sit for you this evening if you like.* ~ *No, it's all right, thanks.*

Could is possible if we want an offer to sound less definite.

*I **could** mend your bicycle for you, if that would help.*

6 requests, orders and suggestions

We can use *can* and *could* to ask or tell people to do things. *Could* is more polite, more formal or less definite, and is often used for making suggestions.

Can you put the children to bed?

Could you lend me five pounds until tomorrow?

*Do you think you **could** help me for a few minutes?*

*When you've finished the washing-up you **can** clean the kitchen. Then you **could** iron the clothes, if you like.*

*If you haven't got anything to do you **could** sort out your photos.* ▸

7 criticisms

Could can be used to criticise people for not doing things.
You could ask before you borrow my car.
Could have + past participle is used for criticisms about the past.
You could have told me you were getting married.

For the use of *might* in similar cases, see 344.

8 indirect speech

Could is used in past indirect speech, when *can* was used in direct speech.
Can you give me a hand? ~ *What?* ~ *I asked if you could give me a hand.*

125 can and could (5): with see, hear, etc

1 *see, hear, feel, smell, taste*

When these verbs refer to perception (receiving information through the eyes, ears etc), we do not normally use progressive forms. To talk about seeing, hearing etc at a particular moment, we often use *can see, can hear* etc (especially in British English).
I can see Susan coming. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing*~~...)
Can you hear somebody coming up the stairs?
What did you put in the stew? I can taste something funny.
Suddenly she realised she could smell something burning.
In American English, *I see/hear* etc are common in this sense.

2 *guess, tell*

Can and *could* are often used with *guess* and with *tell* (meaning *see, know*). *Can/could* are not normally used with *know* in the sense of 'find out' (see 313.5).
I could guess what she wanted.
You can tell he's Irish from his accent. (NOT ~~*You can know*~~...)

3 *understand, follow, remember*

Can/could is often used with these verbs too. It does not always add very much to the meaning.
I can't/don't understand what she's talking about.
Do/Can you follow what he's saying?
I (can) remember your grandfather.

126 can't help

If you say that you *cannot/can't help* doing something, you mean that you can't stop yourself, even if you don't want to do it.
She's a selfish woman, but somehow you can't help liking her.
Excuse me – I couldn't help overhearing what you said.
Sorry I broke the cup – I couldn't help it.
Can't help can be followed by *but* + infinitive without *to* (see 116.3), with the same meaning as *can't help ...ing*. This is common in American English.
I can't help but wonder what I should do next.

127 care: take care (of), care (about) and care for

1 *take care of*

Take care of normally means 'look after' or 'take responsibility for'.

*Nurses **take care of** people in hospital.*
*It's no good giving Peter a rabbit: he's too young to **take care of** it properly.*
*Ms Savage **takes care of** marketing, and I'm responsible for production.*

Take care (without a preposition) means 'be careful'. Some people use it as a formula when saying goodbye.

***Take care** when you're crossing the road, children.*
*Bye, Ruth. ~ Bye, Mike. **Take care.***

2 *care (about)*

Care (about) is used to say whether you feel something is important to you. This is very common in negative sentences. *About* is used before an object, but is usually left out before a conjunction.

*Most people **care about** other people's opinions.*
(NOT ... ~~*take care of*~~ / ~~*care for other people's opinions*~~)
*I don't **care whether** it rains – I'm happy.*
*I'll never speak to you again. ~ I don't **care**.*
*Your mother's upset with you. ~ I couldn't **care** less.* (= I don't care at all.)

3 *care for*

Care for can be used to mean 'look after'.

*He spent years **caring for** his sick mother.*

Another meaning is 'like' or 'be fond of', but this is not very common in modern English.

*I don't much **care for** strawberries.*

128 changes: become, get, go, grow, etc

Become, get, go, come, grow and *turn* can all be used with similar meanings to talk about changes. The differences between them are complicated – they depend partly on grammar, partly on meaning and partly on fixed usage.

1 *become dark, become a pilot* etc

Become can be used before adjectives and noun phrases.

*It was **becoming** very dark.*
*What do you have to do to **become a pilot**?*

Become is not usually used to talk about single deliberate actions.

*Please **get** ready now.* (NOT ~~*Please become ready now.*~~)

2 *get dark, younger* etc

Get (informal) is very common before adjectives (without nouns).

*It was **getting** very dark.* (informal)
*You **get** younger every day.* (informal)

Get can also be used before past participles like *lost, broken, dressed, married.*

*They **got** married in 1986, and **got** divorced two years later.* ▸

We generally use *go*, not *get*, to talk about changes of colour and some changes for the worse (like *go mad*) – see paragraph 4 below.
Get is not normally used before nouns to talk about changes.
*I **became a grandfather** last week.* (NOT ~~*I got a grandfather*~~...)

For *get used to*, see 605.

3 *get* + infinitive

We can sometimes use *get* with an infinitive to talk about a gradual change.
*After a few weeks I **got to like** the job better.*
*She's nice when you **get to know** her.*

4 *go red, go mad* etc

Go can be used before adjectives to talk about change, especially in an informal style. This is common in two cases.

a colours

Go (and not *get*) is used to talk about changes of colour.
*Leaves **go brown** in autumn.* (NOT ~~*Leaves get brown*~~...)
*She **went white** with anger.*
*Suddenly everything **went black** and I lost consciousness.*
Other examples: *go blue with cold / red with embarrassment / green with envy.*
Turn can also be used in these cases (see below), and so can *grow* when the change is gradual. *Go* is more informal than *turn* and *grow*.

b changes for the worse

Go (not usually *get*) is used before adjectives in some expressions that refer to changes for the worse. People ***go mad*** (BrE), *crazy, deaf, blind, grey* or ***bald***; horses ***go lame***; machines ***go wrong***; iron ***goes rusty***; meat, fish or vegetables ***go bad***; cheese ***goes mouldy***; milk ***goes off*** or *sour*; bread ***goes stale***; beer, lemonade, musical instruments and car tyres ***go flat***.
*He **went bald** in his twenties.* *The car keeps **going wrong**.*
Note that we use *get*, not *go*, with *old, tired* and *ill*.

5 *come true* etc

Come is used in a few fixed expressions to talk about things finishing up all right. The most common are *come true* and *come right*.
*I'll make all your dreams **come true**.*
*Trust me – it will all **come right** in the end.*
Come + **infinitive** can be used to talk about changes in mental state or attitude.
*I slowly **came to realise** that she knew what she was doing.*
*You will **come to regret** your decision.*

6 *grow old* etc

Grow is used before adjectives especially to talk about slow and gradual changes. It is more formal than *get* or *go*, and a little old-fashioned or literary.
*Without noticing it he **grew old**.*
*When they **grew rich** they began to drop their old friends.*
*As the weather **grows colder**, my thoughts turn to holidays in the sun.*

Grow + **infinitive** can be used (like *come* + **infinitive**) to talk about changes in attitude, especially if these are gradual.

He grew to accept his stepmother, but he never grew to love her.

7 *turn red* etc

Turn is used mostly for visible or striking changes of state. It is common before colour words (and is not so informal as *go*).

*She **turned bright red** and ran out of the room.*

*He **turns nasty** after he's had a couple of drinks.*

We can use *turn* before numbers to talk about important changes of age.

*I **turned fifty** last week. It's all downhill from now on.*

Turn into is used before nouns.

*He's a lovely man, but when he gets jealous he **turns into a monster**.*

*A girl has to kiss a lot of frogs before one of them **turns into a prince**.*

Turn to and *turn into* can both be used before the names of materials.

*Everything that King Midas touched **turned (in)to gold**.*

*They stood there as if they had been **turned (in)to stone**.*

To talk about a change of occupation, religion, politics etc, we sometimes use *turn* with a noun (with no preposition or article) or an adjective.

*He worked in a bank for thirty years before **turning painter**.*

*Towards the end of the war he **turned traitor**.*

*At the end of her life she **turned Catholic**.*

Turn (in)to can also be used to talk about changing one thing into another.

*In the Greek legend, Circe **turned men into pigs**.*

8 *fall ill* etc

Fall is used to mean 'become' in *fall ill, fall asleep* and *fall in love.*

9 verbs related to adjectives: *thicken, brighten* etc

A number of verbs which are related to adjectives have meanings like 'get more ...' or 'make more ...'. Many of them end in *-en*. Examples:

*The fog **thickened**.* *They're **widening** the road here.*

*The weather's beginning to **brighten** up.* *His eyes **narrowed**.*

*Could you **shorten** the sleeves on this jacket?*

10 no change: *stay, keep, remain*

To talk about things not changing, we can use *stay, keep* or *remain* before adjectives. *Remain* is more formal.

*How do you manage to **stay young** and fit?* *Keep **calm**.*

*I hope you will always **remain so charming**.*

Stay and *remain* are also sometimes used before noun phrases.

*Promise me you will always **stay/remain my little boy**.*

Keep can be used before *-ing* forms.

*Keep **smiling** whatever happens.*

For other uses of the words discussed in this section, see a good dictionary.

129 city and town

Most people simply use *city* to talk about large and important towns – examples in the UK are Belfast, Cardiff, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool and London.
City can be used in a more exact way to talk about a town that has been given a special status by the king or queen (in Britain) or by the state (in some other English-speaking countries).

130 cleft sentences (1): What I need is a holiday

We can emphasise particular words and expressions by putting everything into a kind of relative clause except the words we want to emphasise: this makes them stand out. These structures are called 'cleft sentences' by grammarians (*cleft* means 'divided'). They are useful in writing (because we cannot use intonation for emphasis in written language), but they are also common in speech.

1 *Mary is the person who ...; What I need is ...*

The words to be emphasised are joined to the relative clause by *is/was* and an expression like *the person who*, or *what* (= the thing that).
We can put the words to be emphasised first or last in the sentence. Compare:
- MARY kept a pig in the garden shed.
  Mary was the person who kept a pig in the garden shed.
  The person who kept a pig in the garden shed was Mary.
- *Mary kept* A PIG in the garden shed.
  A pig was what Mary kept in the garden shed.
  What Mary kept in the garden shed was a pig.
- *Phil is* THE SECRETARY.
  The secretary is what Phil is.
  What Phil is is the secretary.

Instead of *the person* or *what*, we can use less general expressions.
You're the woman (that) I'll always love best.
Casablanca is a film (that) I watch again and again.
A *what*-clause is normally considered to be singular; if it begins a cleft sentence it is followed by *is/was*. But a plural verb is sometimes possible before a plural noun in an informal style.
What we want is/are some of those cakes.

For more information about *what*-clauses, see 497.

2 *the place where ...; the day when ...; the reason why ...*

We can use these expressions to emphasise a place, time or reason.
- *Mary kept a pig* IN THE GARDEN SHED.
  The garden shed was the place where Mary kept a pig.
  The place where Mary kept a pig was the garden shed.

– *Jake went to London* ON TUESDAY to see Colin.
*Tuesday was **the day when/that** Jake went to London to see Colin.*
*The day **when** Jake went to London to see Colin was Tuesday.*
– *Jake went to London on Tuesday* TO SEE COLIN.
*To see Colin was **the reason why** Jake went to London on Tuesday.*
*The reason **why** Jake went to London on Tuesday was to see Colin.*

The place, the day or *the reason* can be dropped in an informal style, especially in the middle of a sentence.
*Spain's **where** we're going this year.*
Why I'm here is to talk about my plans. (More formal: *The reason why I'm here is . . .*)

3 emphasising verbs: *What he did was . . .*

When we want to emphasise a verb (or an expression beginning with a verb), we have to use a more complicated structure with *what . . . do*. Infinitives with and without *to* are possible.
– *He* SCREAMED.
*What he **did** was (to) scream.*
– *She* WRITES SCIENCE FICTION.
*What she **does** is (to) write science fiction.*

Instead of an infinitive, we often use **subject + verb** in an informal style.
*What she does is, **she writes** science fiction.*
*What I'll do is, **I'll phone** John and ask his advice.*

4 emphasising a whole sentence

A whole sentence can be given extra emphasis by using a cleft structure with *what* and the verb *happen*. Compare:
The car broke down.
*What **happened** was (that) the car broke down.*

5 other structures

All (that), and expressions with *thing*, can be used in cleft sentences.
All I want is a home somewhere. *All you need is love.*
All (that) I did was (to) touch the window, and it broke.
*The only **thing** I remember is a terrible pain in my head.*
*The first **thing** was to make some coffee.*
*My first journey abroad is **something** I shall never forget.*

Time expressions can be emphasised with *It was not until . . .* and *It was only when . . .*.
*It was not **until** I met you that I knew real happiness.*
*It was **only when** I read her letter that I realised what was happening.*

At the beginning of a cleft sentence, *this* and *that* often replace emphasised *here* and *there*. Compare:

– *You pay here.*
This is where you pay.
(OR *Here is where you pay.*)

– *We live there.*
That's where we live.
(OR *There's where we live.*)

For more about question-word clauses, see 485.
For more general information about sentence structure and the arrangement of information in sentences, see 512.

131 cleft sentences (2): it was my secretary who ...

1 preparatory *it*

We can use preparatory *it* (see 446) in cleft sentences. The words to be emphasised are usually joined to the relative clause by *that*.
Compare:

My secretary sent the bill to Mr Harding yesterday.
It was my secretary that sent the bill to Mr Harding yesterday.
(not somebody else)
It was the bill that my secretary sent to Mr Harding yesterday.
(not something else)
It was Mr Harding that my secretary sent the bill to yesterday.
(not to somebody else)
It was yesterday that my secretary sent the bill to Mr Harding.
(not another day)

Negative structures are also possible.

It wasn't my husband that sent the bill ...

Who is possible instead of *that* when a personal subject is emphasised.

It was my secretary who sent ...

When a plural subject is emphasised, the verb is plural.

It was the students that were angry ... (NOT ... ~~*that was angry*~~ ...)

The verb cannot be emphasised with this structure: we cannot say

~~*It was sent that my secretary the bill*~~ ....

2 *It is I who ... ; It is me that ...*

When an emphasised subject is a pronoun, there are two possibilities.
Compare:

– *It is I who am responsible.* (formal)
It's me that's/who's responsible. (informal)
– *It is you who are in the wrong.* (formal)
It's you that's in the wrong. (informal)

To avoid being either too formal or too informal in this case, we could say, for example,

I'm the person / the one who's responsible.

132 close and shut

1 use

Close /kləʊz/ and *shut* can often be used with the same meaning.

Open your mouth and close/shut your eyes.
I can't close/shut the window. Can you help me?
The shop closes/shuts at five o'clock.

You can *shut*, but not *close*, somebody/something in or out of a place.

I shut the letters in my desk drawer and locked it. (NOT ~~*I closed the letters*~~ ...)
She shut him out of the house.

2 past participles

The past participles *closed* and *shut* can be used as adjectives.

*The post office is **closed/shut** on Saturday afternoon.*

Shut is not usually used before a noun.

*a **closed door*** (NOT ~~*a shut door*~~) *closed eyes* (NOT ~~*shut eyes*~~)

3 cases where *close* is preferred

We prefer *close* for slow movements (like flowers closing at night), and *close* is more common in a formal style.

*As we watched, he **closed** his eyes for the last time.*

Compare:

Close your mouth, please. (dentist to patient)

Shut your mouth! (a rude way of saying 'Be quiet!')

We *close* roads, railways etc (channels of communication). And we *close* (= end) letters, bank accounts, meetings etc.

133 cloth and clothes

Cloth (pronounced /klɒθ/) is material made from wool, cotton etc, used for making clothes, curtains, soft furnishings and so on. (In informal English, it is more common to say *material* or *fabric*.)

*His suits were made of the most expensive **cloth**.*

A cloth is a piece of material used for cleaning, covering things etc.

*Could you pass me a **cloth**? I've spilt some milk on the floor.*

Clothes (pronounced /kləʊðz/) are things you wear: skirt, trousers etc. *Clothes* has no singular; instead of ~~*a clothe*~~, we say *something to wear* or *an article / a piece of clothing*.

*I must buy some new **clothes**; I haven't got anything to wear.*

134 come and go

1 speaker's/hearer's position

We use *come* for movements to the place where the speaker or hearer is.

*Maria, would you come here, please?~I'm **coming**.* (NOT ...~~*I'm going*~~.)

When did you come to live here?

(on the phone): *Can I come and see you?*

We use *go* for movements to other places.

I want to go and live in Greece. *Let's go and see Peter and Diane.*

In 1577, he went to study in Rome.

2 speaker's/hearer's past or future position

We can use *come* for a movement to a place where the speaker or hearer already was or will be at the time of the movement. Compare: ▸

– *What time did I come to see you in the office yesterday?*
I went to John's office yesterday, but he wasn't in.
– *Will you come and visit me in hospital when I have my operation?*
He's going into hospital next week.
– *Susan can't come to your birthday party.*
She's going to see her mother.

3 joining a movement

Come (with) can be used to talk about joining a movement of the speaker's/hearer's, even if *go* is used for the movement itself.

We're going to the cinema tonight. Would you like to come with us?

4 somebody else's position

Sometimes when we are talking about somebody else (not the speaker or hearer), that person can become the centre of our attention. In that case, we use *come* for movements to the place where he/she is (or was or will be). This often happens in stories.

He waited till four o'clock, but she didn't come.

5 *come to; come from*

Come to can mean *arrive at.*

Carry straight on till you come to a crossroads.

Come from is used (in the present) to say where people's homes are or were.

She comes from Scotland, but her mother's Welsh.
Originally I come from Hungary, but I've lived here for twenty years.
(NOT ~~*Originally I came from Hungary*~~ . . .)

The difference between *bring* and *take* is similar. See 112.

For *come/go and . . .*, see 53.
For *come/go . . .ing*, see 228. For *been = come/gone*, see 95.

135 comparison (1): structures

Various words and structures can be used for comparing.

1 similarity and identity: *as, like, so do I, too, the same,* etc

If we want to say that people, things, actions or events are similar, we can use *as* or *like* (see 326); *so/neither do I* and similar structures (see 541); or adverbs such as *too, also* and *as well* (see 46). To say that they are identical, we can use *the same (as)* (see 503).

He liked working with horses, as his father did.
Your sister looks just like you. *The papers were late and the post was too.*
She likes music, and so do I. *His eyes are just the same colour as mine.*

2 equality: *as . . . as*

To say that people, things etc are equal in a particular way, we often use the structure *as (much/many) . . . as* (see 136).

My hands were as cold as ice. *I earn as much money as you.*

3 inequality: *more ... than; older ... than; most, oldest,* etc

To say that people, things etc are unequal in a particular way, we can use comparative adjectives and adverbs, or ***more*** + **adjective/adverb** (see 137–141).

*He's much **older** than her.* *The baby's **more attractive** than you.*

To say which one of a group is outstanding in a particular way, we can use a superlative or ***most*** + **adjective/adverb** (see 137–141).

*You're the **laziest** and **most annoying** person in the whole office.*

4 inequality: *less, least; not so/as ... as*

We can also talk about inequality by looking at the 'lower' end of the scale. One possibility is to use *less (than)* (see 320) or *least* (see 318).

*The baby's **less** ugly than you.*
*I want to spend the **least** possible time working.*

In informal usage, we more often use *not so ... as* or *not as ... as* (see 136).

*The baby's **not so** ugly **as** you.*

136 comparison (2): as ... as; as much/many as

1 use

We use *as ... as* to say that people or things are equal in some way.

*She's **as** tall **as** her brother.* *Is it **as** good **as** you expected?*
*She speaks French **as** well **as** the rest of us.*

2 negative structures

After *not*, we can use *so ... as* instead of *as ... as*.

*He's **not as/so** friendly **as** she is.* (more informal than *He's less friendly ...*)

3 *as ... as* + adjective/adverb

Note the structure ***as ... as*** + **adjective/adverb**.

*Please get here **as** soon **as** possible.*
*I'll spend **as** much **as** necessary.* *You're **as** beautiful **as** ever.*

4 pronouns after *as*

In an informal style we can use object pronouns (*me, him* etc) after *as*.

*She doesn't sing **as** well **as** me.*

In a formal style, we prefer **subject** + **verb** after *as*.

*She doesn't sing **as** well **as** I do.*

A subject form without a verb (e.g. *as well as he*) is unusual in this structure in modern English.

5 *as much/many ... as*

We can use *as much/many ... as* to talk about quantity.

*I haven't got **as** much money **as** I thought.*
*We need **as** many people **as** possible.*

As much/many can be used without following nouns.

*I ate **as** much **as** I could.* *She didn't catch **as** many **as** she'd hoped.*

And *as much ...* can be used as an adverb.

*You ought to rest **as** much **as** possible.* ▸

6 emphatic use: *as much as 80kg*

As much/many as can be used before a number to mean 'the large amount/quantity'.

*Some of these fish can weigh **as much as** 80kg.*
*There are sometimes **as many as** 40 students in the classes.*

As little/few can be used to mean 'the small amount/quantity'.

*You can fly to Paris for **as little as** 20 euros.*

7 *half as ... as* etc

Half, twice, three times etc can be used before *as ... as.*

*You're not **half as** clever **as** you think you are.*
*I'm not going out with a man who's **twice as** old **as** me.*
*It took **three times as** long **as** I expected.* (OR *... **three times longer** than I expected* – see 141.3)

8 modification

Before *as ... as* we can use *(not) nearly, almost, just, nothing like, every bit, exactly, not quite.*

*It's **not nearly as** cold as yesterday.* *He's **just as** strong as ever.*
*You're **nothing like as** bad-tempered as you used to be.*
*She's **every bit as** beautiful as her sister.*
*I'm **not quite as** tired as I was last week.*

9 infinitives

Where *as ... as* is used with two infinitives, the second is often without *to.*

*It's **as** easy to do it right **as (to) do** it wrong.*

10 tenses

In *as ... as*-clauses (and other kinds of *as*-clauses), a present tense is often used to refer to the future, and a past tense can have a conditional meaning (see 580).

*We'll get there as soon as you **do/will**.*
*If you married me, I'd give you as much freedom as you **wanted**.*

11 leaving out the second part

The second part of the *as ... as* or *so ... as* structure can be left out when the meaning is clear from what comes before.

*The train takes 40 minutes. By car it'll take you twice **as long**.*
*I used to think he was clever. Now I'm **not so sure**.*

In cases like this, *not so* is much more common than *not as.*

12 traditional expressions

We use the structure *as ... as ...* in a lot of traditional comparative expressions.

as cold as ice *as hard as nails*
as black as night *as ... as hell*

The first *as* can be dropped in these expressions in an informal style.

*She's **hard as nails**.*
*I'm **tired as hell** of listening to your problems.*

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For *as long as*, see 75. For *as well as*, see 78.
For the word order in sentences like *She's as good a dancer as her brother*, see 14.
For *as* replacing subject or object (e.g. *as many people as want it*), see 581.
For other comparative structures, see 137–141.

137 comparison (3): comparative and superlative adjectives

One-syllable adjectives normally have comparatives and superlatives ending in *-er*, *-est*. Some two-syllable adjectives are similar; others have *more* and *most*. Longer adjectives have *more* and *most*.

1 one-syllable adjectives (regular comparison)

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	
old	*older*	*oldest*	Most adjectives: + *-er*, *-est*.
tall	*taller*	*tallest*	
cheap	*cheaper*	*cheapest*	
late	*later*	*latest*	Adjectives ending in *-e*: + *-r*, *-st*.
nice	*nicer*	*nicest*	
fat	*fatter*	*fattest*	One vowel + one consonant: double consonant.
big	*bigger*	*biggest*	
thin	*thinner*	*thinnest*	

Note the pronunciation of:
younger /ˈjʌŋgə(r)/ *youngest* /ˈjʌŋgɪst/
longer/ˈlɒŋgə(r)/ *longest* /ˈlɒŋgɪst/
stronger /ˈstrɒŋgə(r)/ *strongest* /ˈstrɒŋgɪst/

2 irregular comparison

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
good	*better*	*best*
bad	*worse*	*worst*
ill	*worse*	
far	*farther/further* (see 201)	*farthest/furthest*
old	*older/elder* (see 176)	*oldest/eldest*

The determiners *little* and *much/many* have irregular comparatives and superlatives:

little (see 329)	*less* (see 320)	*least* (see 318)
much/many (see 357)	*more* (see 355)	*most* (see 356)

Few has two possible comparatives and superlatives: *fewer/less* and *fewest/least*. See 320, 318.

3 two-syllable adjectives

Adjectives ending in *-y* have *-ier* and *-iest*.

happy	*happier*	*happiest*
easy	*easier*	*easiest*

Some other two-syllable adjectives can have *-er* and *-est*, especially adjectives ending in an unstressed vowel, /l/ or /ə(r)/.

narrow	*narrower*	*narrowest*
simple	*simpler*	*simplest*
clever	*cleverer*	*cleverest*
quiet	*quieter*	*quietest*

With many two-syllable adjectives (e.g. *polite, common*), *-er/-est* and *more/most* are both possible. With others (including adjectives ending in *-ing, -ed, -ful* and *-less*), only *more/most* is possible. In general, the structure with *more/most* is becoming more common. To find out the normal comparative and superlative for a particular two-syllable adjective, check in a good dictionary.

4 longer adjectives

Adjectives of three or more syllables have *more* and *most*.

intelligent	*more intelligent*	*most intelligent*
practical	*more practical*	*most practical*
beautiful	*more beautiful*	*most beautiful*

Words like *unhappy* (the opposites of two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*) are an exception: they can have forms in *-er* and *-est*.

unhappy	*unhappier / more unhappy*	*unhappiest / most unhappy*
untidy	*untidier / more untidy*	*untidiest / most untidy*

Some compound adjectives like *good-looking* or *well-known* have two possible comparatives and superlatives.

good-looking	*better-looking* OR *more good-looking*	*best-looking* *most good-looking*
well-known	*better-known* OR *more well-known*	*best-known* *most well-known*

5 *more, most* with short adjectives

Sometimes *more/most* are used with adjectives that normally have *-er/-est*. This can happen, for example, when a comparative is not followed immediately by *than*; forms with *-er* are also possible.

*The road's getting **more and more steep**.* (OR ... *steeper and steeper*.)

When we compare two descriptions (saying that one is more suitable or accurate than another), we use *more*; comparatives with *-er* are not possible.

*He's **more lazy** than stupid.* (NOT ~~*He's lazier than stupid*~~.)

In a rather formal style, *most* can be used with adjectives expressing approval and disapproval (including one-syllable adjectives) to mean 'very'.

*Thank you very much indeed. That is **most kind** of you.* (NOT ...~~*That is kindest of you.*~~)

Real, right, wrong and *like* always have *more* and *most.*

*She's **more like** her mother than her father.* (NOT ...~~*liker her mother*~~...)

For information about how to use comparatives and superlatives, see 139, 141.
For modification of comparatives and superlatives (e.g. *much older, far the best*), see 140.

138 comparison (4): comparative and superlative adverbs

Most comparative and superlative adverbs are made with *more* and *most.*

*Could you talk **more quietly**?* (NOT ... ~~*quietlier*~~)

Adverbs that have the same form as adjectives (see 27), and a few others, have comparatives and superlatives with *-er* and *-est.* The most common are: *fast, early, late, hard, long, near, high, low, soon, well* (*better, best*), *badly* (*worse, worst*), and in informal English *easy, slow, loud* and *quick.*

*Can't you drive any **faster**?* *Can you come **earlier**?*

*Talk **louder**.* (informal)

*We've all got terrible voices, but I sing **worst** of all.*

Note also the irregular comparatives and superlatives of *far* (*farther/further, farthest/furthest,* see 201), *much* (*more, most,* see 355 and 356), *little* (*less, least,* see 320 and 318).

For the use of comparatives and superlatives, see the following sections.

139 comparison (5): using comparatives and superlatives

1 *than*

After comparatives we use *than,* not *that* or *as.*

*Today's hotter **than** yesterday.* (NOT ...~~*hotter that*~~... OR ...~~*hotter as*~~...)

2 the difference between comparatives and superlatives

We use a comparative to compare one person, thing, action, event or group with another person, thing etc. We use a superlative to compare somebody/something with the whole group that he/she/it belongs to.

Compare:

- *Mary's **taller** than her three sisters.*
  *Mary's **the tallest** of the four girls.* (NOT ...~~*the taller*~~...)
- *Your accent is **worse** than mine.*
  *Your accent is **the worst** in the class.* (NOT ...~~*the worse*~~...)
- *He plays **better** than everybody else in the team.*
  *He's **the best** in the team.*

3 groups with two members

When a group only has two members, we sometimes use a comparative instead of a superlative.

I like Betty and Maud, but I think Maud's ***the nicer/nicest*** *of the two.*
I'll give you ***the bigger/biggest*** *steak: I'm not very hungry.*

Some people feel that a superlative is incorrect in this case.

4 double comparatives: *fatter and fatter; more and more slowly*

We can use double comparatives to say that something is changing.

I'm getting ***fatter and fatter.***
We're going ***more and more slowly.*** (NOT ... ~~*more slowly and more slowly.*~~)

5 *the ... the ...*

We can use comparatives with *the ... the ...* to say that things change or vary together.

Word order (in both clauses):

the + comparative expression + subject + verb

The older I get, the happier I am. (NOT ~~*Older I get, more I am happy.*~~)
The more dangerous it is, the more I like it.
(NOT ~~*The more it is dangerous,*~~ ...)
The more I study, the less I learn.

More can be used with a noun in this structure.

The more money he makes, the more useless things he buys.

In longer structures, *that* is sometimes used before the first verb.

The more information ***that*** *comes in, the more confused the picture is.*

A short form of this structure is used in the expression *The more the merrier,* and in sentences ending *the better.*

How do you like your coffee? ~ ***The stronger the better.***

Note that in this structure, the word *the* is not really the definite article – it was originally a form of the demonstrative pronoun, meaning 'by that much'.

6 *than me; than I (am)*

In an informal style, object pronouns (*me* etc) are used after *than.* In a more formal style, subject pronouns (*I* etc) are used (usually with verbs).

She's older than ***me.*** (informal) *She is older than* ***I (am).*** (formal)

7 *the happiest man in the world*

After superlatives, we do not usually use *of* with a singular word referring to a place or group.

I'm the ***happiest man in the world.*** (NOT ... ~~*of the world.*~~)
She's the ***fastest player in the team.*** (NOT ... ~~*of the team.*~~)

But *of* can be used before plurals, and before *lot.*

She's the fastest player ***of them all.*** *He's the best* ***of the lot.***

Note also the structure with possessive *'s.*

He thinks he's the world's strongest man.

8 *than anybody; the best . . . ever*

'Non-affirmative' words like *ever, yet* and *any* (see 381) often follow comparatives and superlatives.

You're more stubborn than anybody I know.
It's the best book I've ever read. *This is my hardest job yet.*

For the formation of comparatives and superlatives, see 137.
For tenses after *than*, see 580.
For the *first/second/best* etc + present/past perfect, see 591.

140 comparison (6): much, far etc with comparatives and superlatives

1 *much, far* etc with comparatives

We cannot use *very* with comparatives. Instead, we use, for example, *much, far, very much, a lot* (informal), *lots* (informal), *any* and *no* (see 57), *rather, a little, a bit* (informal), and *even.*

My boyfriend is much/far older than me. (NOT . . . ~~very older than me.~~)
Russian is much/far more difficult than Spanish.
very much nicer *rather more quickly*
a bit more sensible (informal) *She looks no older than her daughter.*
a lot happier (informal) *a little less expensive*
Is your mother any better? *Your cooking is even worse than Harry's.*

Quite cannot be used with comparatives except in the expression *quite better*, meaning 'recovered from an illness' (see 104.1). *Any, no, a bit* and *a lot* are not normally used to modify comparatives before nouns.

There are much/far nicer shops in the town centre. (BUT NOT . . . ~~a bit nicer shops~~ . . .)

2 *many more/less/fewer*

When *more* (see 355) modifies a plural noun, it is modified by *many* instead of *much*. Compare:

much / far / a lot etc *more money*
many / far / a lot etc *more opportunities*

Many is sometimes used to modify *less* (before a plural noun) and *fewer*, but this is unusual; *far, a lot* etc are more common.

far less words (more common than *many less words*)
a lot fewer accidents (more common than *many fewer accidents*)

3 *much, by far, quite* etc with superlatives

Superlatives can be modified by *much* and *by far*, and by other adverbs of degree such as *quite* (meaning 'absolutely'), *almost, practically, nearly* and *easily.*

He's much the most imaginative of them all.
She's by far the oldest.
We're walking by far the slowest.
He's quite the most stupid man I've ever met.
I'm nearly the oldest in the firm.
This is easily the worst party I've been to this year. ▸

4 *very* with superlatives

Note the special use of *very* to emphasise superlatives and *first, next* and *last.*

Bring out your very best wine – Michael's coming to dinner.
You're the very first person I've spoken to today.
This is your very last chance.

For modification of *too*, see 595.3.

141 comparison (7): advanced points

1 comparative meaning 'relatively', 'more than average'

Comparatives can suggest ideas like 'relatively', 'more than average'. Used like this, comparatives make a less clear and narrow selection than superlatives. Compare:

There are two classes – one for the cleverer students and one for the slower learners.
The cleverest students were two girls from York.

Comparatives are often used in advertising to make things sound less definite.

less expensive clothes for the fuller figure
(Compare *cheap clothes for fat people*)

2 *all/any/none the* + comparative

All the + comparative suggests the idea of 'even more . . .'.

I feel all the better for that swim.
Her accident made it all the more important to get home fast.

Any and *none* can be used in similar structures.

He didn't seem to be any the worse for his experience.
He explained it all carefully, but I was still none the wiser.

Note that this structure is used mainly to express abstract ideas. We would not say, for example, *Those pills have made him all the slimmer.*
In this structure, *the* was originally a demonstrative, meaning 'by that'.

3 *three times . . .er* etc

Instead of *three/four* etc *times as much* (see 136.7), we can use *three/four* etc *times* + comparative.

She can walk three times faster than you.
It was ten times more difficult than I expected.

Note that *twice* and *half* are not possible in this structure.

She's twice as lively as her sister. (NOT . . . ~~*twice livelier*~~ . . .)

4 words left out after *than*

Than often replaces a subject or object pronoun or an adverbial expression, rather like a relative pronoun or adverb (see 581).

She spent more money than was sensible. (NOT . . . ~~*than it was sensible.*~~)
There were more people than we had expected. (NOT . . . ~~*than we had expected them.*~~)
I love you more than she does. (NOT . . . ~~*than how much she does.*~~)

(In some English dialects, the above sentences would be constructed with *than what.*)

5 *the youngest person to ...*

After a superlative, an infinitive can mean the same as a relative clause.

She's the youngest person ever to swim the Channel. (= ... the youngest person who has ever swum ...)

This structure is also common after *first, last* and *next.*

Who was the first woman to climb Everest?

The next to speak was Mrs Fenshaw.

Note that this structure is only possible in cases where the noun with the superlative (or *first* etc) has a subject relationship with the following verb. In other cases, infinitives cannot be used.

Is this the first time that you have stayed here? (NOT ... ~~*the first time for you to stay here*~~: *time* is not the subject of *stay.*)

6 *the* with superlatives

Nouns with superlative adjectives normally have the article *the.*

It's the best book I've ever read.

After link verbs, superlative adjectives also usually have *the,* though it is sometimes dropped in an informal style.

I'm the greatest. *Which of the boys is (the) strongest?*

This dictionary is (the) best.

The cannot be dropped when a superlative is used with a defining expression.

This dictionary is the best I could find. (NOT ~~*This dictionary is best I could find.*~~)

However, we do not use *the* with superlatives when we compare the same person or thing in different situations. Compare:

- *Of all my friends, he's (the) nicest.* (comparing different people)
  He's nicest when he's with children. (NOT ~~*He's the nicest when*~~ ...: we're comparing the same person in different situations.)
- *She works (the) hardest in the family; her husband doesn't know what work is.* (A woman is being compared with a man – *the* is possible.)
  She works hardest when she's doing something for her family. (NOT ~~*She works the hardest when*~~ ...: – a woman's work is being compared in different situations.)

The is sometimes dropped before superlative adverbs in an informal style.

Who can run (the) fastest?

For tenses after *than,* see 580.

142 continual(ly) and continuous(ly)

Continual(ly) is generally used for things that happen repeatedly, often annoyingly.

I can't work with these continual interruptions.

She's continually taking days off.

Continuous(ly) is used for things that continue without stopping.

There has been continuous fighting on the border for the last 48 hours.

I've been working almost continuously since yesterday evening.

143 contractions

1 general rules

Forms like *I've, don't* are called 'contractions'. There are two kinds.

noun/pronoun etc + (auxiliary) verb

I'm tired.
Do you know when you'll arrive?
I've no idea.
She'd like to talk to you.
Here's our bus.
My father's not very well.
Where's the station?
There's a problem.
Somebody's coming.

(auxiliary) verb + *not*

They aren't ready.
You won't be late, will you?
I haven't seen him for ages.
Can't you swim?

Contractions are formed with auxiliary verbs, and also with *be* and sometimes *have* when these are not auxiliary verbs.

The short form *'s* (= *is/has*) can be written after nouns (including proper names), question words, *here* and *now* as well as pronouns and unstressed *there*. The short forms *'ll, 'd* and *'re* are commonly written after pronouns and unstressed *there*, but in other cases we more often write the full forms (especially in British English), even if the words would be contracted in pronunciation.

'Your mother will (/ˈmʌðərl/) *be surprised', she said.*
I wondered what had (/ˈwɒtəd/) *happened.*

Contractions are not usually written with double subjects.

John and I have decided to split up. (NOT ~~*John and I've decided*~~ . . .)

The apostrophe (') goes in the same place as the letters that we leave out: *has not* = *hasn't* (NOT ~~*ha'snt*~~). But note that *shan't* (BrE = *shall not*) and *won't* (= *will not*) only have one apostrophe each.

Contractions are common and correct in informal writing: they represent the pronunciation of informal speech. They are not generally used in a formal style.

2 alternative contractions

Some negative expressions can have two possible contractions. For *she had not* we can say *she'd not* or *she hadn't*; for *he will not* we can say *he'll not* or *he won't*. The two negative forms of *be* (e.g. *she isn't* and *she's not*) are both common in British English; American English prefers the forms with *not* (e.g. *she's not*). With other verbs, forms with *n't* (e.g. *she hadn't*) are more common in most cases in standard southern British English; they are the only forms normally used in AmE. (Forms with *not* – e.g. *she'd not* – tend to be more common in northern and Scottish English.)

Double contractions are not normally written: ~~*she'sn't*~~ is impossible.

3 position

Contractions in the first group (**noun / pronoun / question word + auxiliary** verb) do not normally come at the ends of clauses.

– *I'm late.*
Yes, you are. (NOT ~~*Yes, you're.*~~)

– *I've forgotten.*
Yes, you have. (NOT ~~*Yes, you've.*~~)

Negative contractions can come at the ends of clauses.
They really aren't. *No, I haven't.*

4 list of contractions

Contraction	Pronunciation	Meaning
I'm	/aɪm/	I am
I've	/aɪv/	I have
I'll	/aɪl/	I will
I'd	/aɪd/	I had/would
you're	/jɔː(r)/	you are
you've	/juːv/	you have
you'll	/juːl/	you will
you'd	/juːd/	you had/would
he's	/hiːz/	he is/has
he'll	/hiːl, hɪl/	he will
he'd	/hiːd/	he had/would
she's	/ʃiːz/	she is/has
she'll	/ʃiːl, ʃɪl/	she will
she'd	/ʃiːd/	she had/would
it's	/ɪts/	it is/has
it'd (uncommon)	/ˈɪtəd/	it had/would
we're	/wɪə(r)/	we are
we've	/wiːv/	we have
we'll	/wiːl, wɪl/	we will
we'd	/wiːd/	we had/would
they're	/ðeə(r)/	they are
they've	/ðeɪv/	they have
they'll	/ðeɪl, ðel/	they will
they'd	/ðeɪd/	they had/would
there's	/ðəz/	there is/has
there'll	/ðəl/	there will
there'd	/ðəd/	there had/would
aren't	/ɑːnt/	are not
can't	/kɑːnt/	cannot
couldn't	/ˈkʊdnt/	could not
daren't	/deənt/	dare not
didn't	/ˈdɪdnt/	did not
doesn't	/ˈdʌznt/	does not
don't	/dəʊnt/	do not
hadn't	/ˈhædnt/	had not
hasn't	/ˈhæznt/	has not
haven't	/ˈhævnt/	have not
isn't	/ˈɪznt/	is not
mightn't	/ˈmaɪtnt/	might not
mustn't	/ˈmʌsnt/	must not
needn't	/ˈniːdnt/	need not
oughtn't	/ˈɔːtnt/	ought not

▸

Contraction	Pronunciation	Meaning
shan't	/ʃɑ:nt/	shall not
shouldn't	/'ʃʊdnt/	should not
usedn't	/'ju:snt/	used not
wasn't	/'wɒznt/	was not
weren't	/wɜ:nt/	were not
won't	/wəʊnt/	will not
wouldn't	/'wʊdnt/	would not

Notes

1. Do not confuse *it's* (= *it is/has*) and *its* (possessive).
2. *Am not* is only normally contracted in questions to *aren't* (BrE) (/ɑ:nt/).
   I'm late, aren't I?
3. Note the difference in pronunciation of *can't* in British English (/kɑ:nt/) and American English (/kænt/).
4. *Daren't, shan't* and *usedn't* are not often used in American English.
5. In non-standard English, *ain't* (pronounced /eɪnt/ or /ent/) is used as a contraction of *am not, are not, is not, have not* and *has not.*
   I ain't going to tell him.
   Don't talk to me like that – you ain't my boss.
   It's raining. ~ *No it ain't.*
   I ain't got no more cigarettes.
   Bill ain't been here for days.
6. For the contraction *let's*, see 323.
7. *May not* is not normally contracted: *mayn't* is very rare.

144 contrary

1 *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*

On the contrary is used to contradict – to say that what has been said or suggested is not true. If we want to give the other side of a question, we use *on the other hand*, not *on the contrary*. Compare:

– *I suppose the job was boring?* ~ ***On the contrary**, it was really exciting.*
  *The job was boring, but **on the other hand** it was well paid.* (NOT ... ~~*on the contrary, it was well paid.*~~)
– *He did not make things easy for his parents. **On the contrary**, he did everything he could to annoy and worry them.*
  *He did not make things easy for his parents. **On the other hand**, he could often be wonderfully sweet and loving.*

2 *contrary* and *opposite*

We use *opposite* (see 401), not *contrary*, to talk about contrasting words.
*'Short' is the **opposite** of 'tall', and also of 'long'.*
(NOT ... ~~*the contrary of 'tall'*~~ ...)

145 control

Control is a 'false friend' for people who speak some languages. It generally means *manage, direct,* not *check* or *inspect.* Compare:

- *The crowd was too big for the police to* ***control.*** (= ... to keep in order.)
  The police were ***checking*** *everybody's papers.* (NOT ... ~~*controlling everybody's papers.*~~)
- *I found the car difficult to* ***control*** *at high speeds.*
  I took the car to the garage and asked them to ***have a look at*** *the steering.*
  (NOT ... ~~*to control the steering.*~~)

However, the noun *control* is used with the meaning of 'inspection point' in expressions like *passport/customs control.*

146 correspondence (1): letters

Each culture has its own way of organising a letter and arranging it on a page. English-speaking people generally observe the following rules.

1 Put your own address at the top on the right. Addresses generally follow the rule of 'smallest first': house number, then street, then town. Postcode and telephone number / fax number / email address come last. Don't put your name with the address.

2 Put the date directly under the address. A common way to write the date is to put the number of the day, followed by the month and year (e.g. *17 May 2005*). For other ways (and differences between British and American customs) see 152.

3 In formal letters and business letters, put the name and address of the person you are writing to on the left side of the page, starting on the same level as the date or slightly below.

4 Different styles are common in formal letters on paper which has the address ready-printed at the top of the page. For example, the date may be put on the left, and the address of the person written to may come at the end of the letter or of the first page.

5 Begin the letter (*Dear X*) on the left. Common ways of addressing people are:
- by first name (informal): *Dear Penny*
- by title and surname (more formal): *Dear Ms Hopkins*
- *Dear Sir(s), Dear Sir or Madam, Dear Madam* (especially to somebody whose name is not known)

Some people like to use the first name and surname (*Dear Penny Hopkins*) when writing to strangers or people that they do not know well.
Do not use a title like *Mr* together with a first name (NOT ~~*Dear Mr James Carter*~~).

6 After 'Dear X', put a comma or nothing at all, not an exclamation mark (!). Either leave an empty line after 'Dear X' and start again on the left, or start again on the next line, a few spaces from the left. Do the same for each new paragraph. (The first method is now the most common in Britain.)

7 Letters which begin *Dear Sir(s)* or *Dear Madam* usually finish *Yours faithfully* in British English. Formal letters which begin with the person's name (e.g. *Dear Miss Hawkins, Dear Peter Lewis*) usually finish *Yours sincerely*. Common American endings are *Sincerely yours* or *Sincerely*. Informal letters may finish, for example, *Yours, See you* or *Love*. (*Love* is not usually used by one man to another.) In formal letters, many people put a closing formula before *Yours . . .*, especially when writing to people they know: common expressions are *With best wishes* and *With kind regards*.

8 Sign with your first name (informal) or your full name (formal), but without writing any title (*Mr/Ms/Dr* etc). Ways of writing one's full name: *Alan Forbes, A Forbes, A J Forbes*.
In a formal typewritten letter, add your full typewritten name after your handwritten signature. Friendly business letters are often signed with the first name only above the full typewritten name:

Yours sincerely
Alan

Alan Forbes

9 In informal letters, afterthoughts that are added after the signature are usually introduced by *P S* (Latin *post scriptum* = written afterwards).

10 On the envelope, put the first name before the surname. People usually write a title (*Mr, Mrs* etc) before the name. You can write the first name in full (*Mrs Angela Brookes*), or you can write one or more initials (*Mrs A E Brookes*). It was once common to put the abbreviated title *Esq* (= *Esquire*) after a man's name; this is now very unusual.

11 British people now usually write abbreviated titles, initials, addresses, dates, and opening and closing formulae without commas or full stops.

12 American usage is different from British in some ways:
- Commas are sometimes used at the ends of lines in addresses; full stops may be used at the ends of addresses; full stops are used after abbreviated titles. After the opening salutation, Americans may put a colon, especially in business letters (*Dear Mr. Hawkes:*), or a comma.
- *Gentlemen* is used instead of *Dear Sirs*.
- Dates are written differently (month before day) – see 152.
- *Yours faithfully* is not used; common endings are *Sincerely, Sincerely yours* or *Yours truly*, followed by a comma.
- Americans are often addressed (and sign their names) with the first name in full, followed by the initial of a middle name (*Alan J. Parker*). This is less usual in Britain.

13 Letters to strangers often begin with an explanation of the reason for writing.
Dear X
I am writing to ask . . .
One does not normally begin a letter to a stranger with an enquiry about health. (NOT ~~*Dear X, How are you getting on?*~~)

For more information about names and titles, see 363.
For more information about the use of commas and full stops, see 476, 473.
For more information about paragraphing, see 406.

Examples of letters and envelopes
Formal

14 Plowden Road
Torquay
Devon
TQ6 1RS
Tel 0742 06538

16 June 2005

The Secretary
Hall School of Design
39 Beaumont Street
London
W4 4LJ

Dear Sir or Madam

I should be grateful if you would send me information about the regulations for admission to the Hall School of Design. Could you also tell me whether the School arranges accomodation for students?

Yours faithfully

Keith Parker

Keith Parker

The Secretary
Hall School of Design
39 Beaumont Street
London
W4 4LJ

Informal

22 Green Street
London
W1B 6DH
Phone 071 066 429

19 March

Dear Keith and Ann

Thanks a lot for a great weekend. We really enjoyed ourselves.

Bill and I were talking about the holidays. We thought it might be nice to go camping in Scotland for a couple of weeks. Are you interested? Let me know if you are, and we can talk about dates etc.

See you soon, I hope. Thanks again.

Love
Cathy

PS Did I leave a pair of jeans behind in the bedroom? If so, do you think you could send them on?

Keith and Ann Sharp
14 West Way House
Botley Road
Oxford
OX3 5JP

147 correspondence (2): emails and text messages

1 formal emails: style and layout

Formal emails are similar in style to letters on paper. The writer's postal address and phone/fax number, if they are included, follow the signature.

2 informal emails

Personal emails are usually much more informal in style than letters on paper. Instead of 'Dear X', they often begin for example 'X', 'Hi, X', 'Hello, X'; or with no salutation at all.

3 addresses

email addresses are read as follows:

j.harris@funbiz.co.uk	'j dot harris at funbiz dot co dot u k'
mary@log-farm.com	'mary at log dash farm dot com'
the_rabbit@coolmail.gr	'the underline rabbit at coolmail dot g r'

Note also the names of symbols in 'urls' (internet addresses):
/ 'forward slash' \ 'backslash' : 'colon'

Example of an informal email

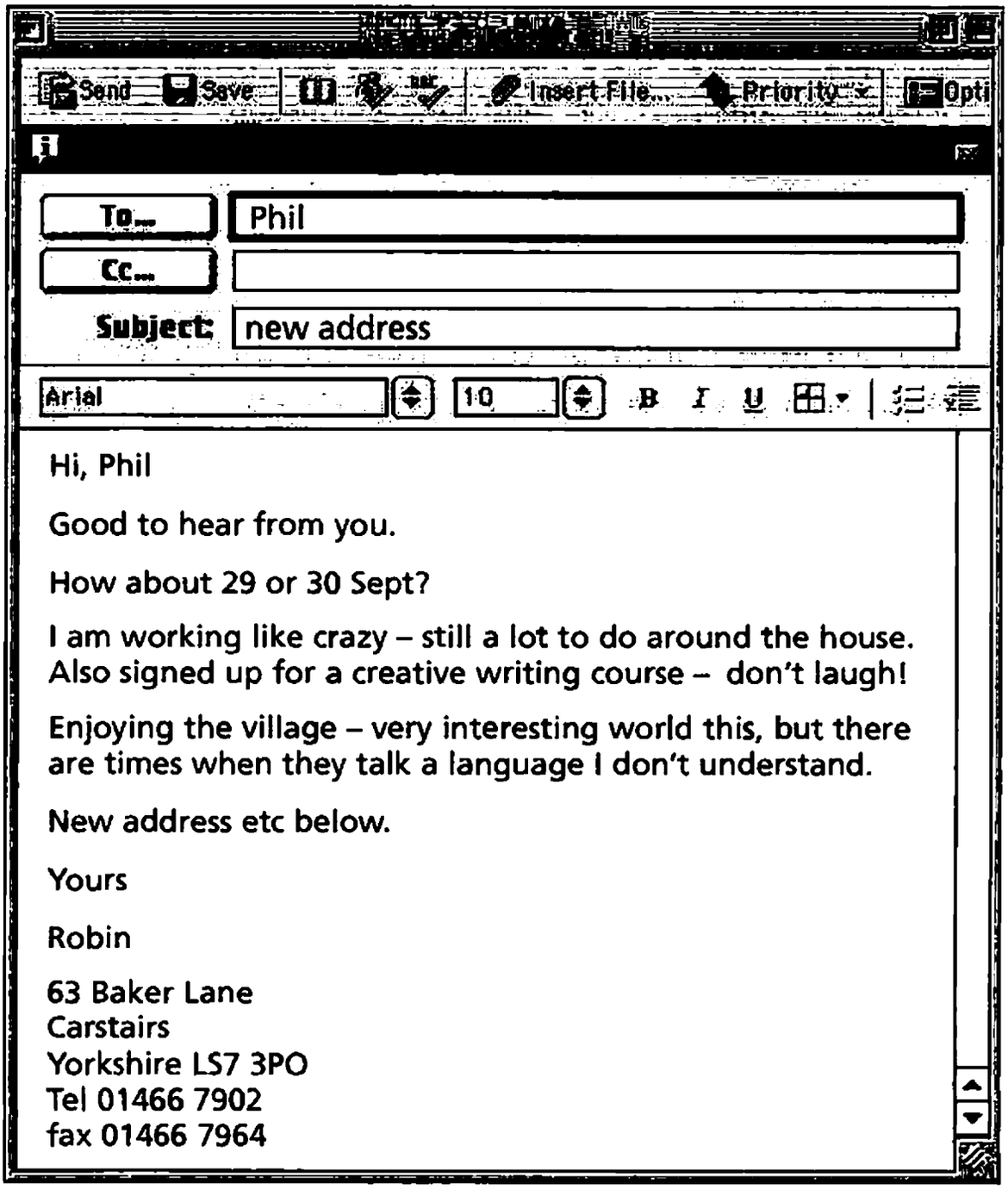

4 txt msgs (text messages)

Text messages (sent for example by mobile phone) use a large number of abbreviations to save time and space. Words are shortened, often by leaving out vowels. Letters and numbers are used instead of words (or parts of words) that sound the same. Initial letters only are used for some common expressions. Some typical examples:

c u l8r	See you later.
r u cumin 2day?	Are you coming today?
tx 4 a gr8 party	Thanks for a great party.
just 2 let u no	Just to let you know.
wil u b hr Thu eve?	Will you be here Thursday evening?
RUOK?	Are you OK?
got ur msg	Got your message.
wil b @ bbq @ 9	Will be at barbecue at 9.
2 bsy atm, tlk l8r	Too busy at the moment, talk later.
if Uv tym, send pix o kids	If you have time, send pictures of kids.
need mo infmtn	Need more information.

148 countable and uncountable nouns (1): basic information

1 the difference between countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns are the names of separate objects, people, ideas etc which can be counted. We can use numbers and the article *a/an* with countable nouns; they have plurals.

a cat *a newspaper* *three cats* *two newspapers*

Uncountable (or 'mass') nouns are the names of materials, liquids, abstract qualities, collections and other things which we see as masses without clear boundaries, and not as separate objects. We cannot use numbers with uncountable nouns, and most are singular with no plurals. We do not normally use *a/an* with uncountable nouns, though there are some exceptions (see 149.4).

water (NOT ~~*a water, two waters*~~) *wool* (NOT ~~*a wool, two wools*~~)
weather (NOT ~~*a weather, two weathers*~~)

Some determiners (see 154) can only be used with countable nouns (e.g. *many, few*); others can only be used with uncountables (e.g. *much, little*). Compare:

*How **many hours** do you work?* *How **much money** do you earn?*

2 problems

Usually it is easy to see whether a noun is countable or uncountable. Obviously *house* is normally a countable noun, and *sand* is not. But it is not always so clear: compare *a journey* (countable) and *travel* (uncountable); *a glass* (countable) and *glass* (uncountable); *vegetables* (countable) and *fruit* (uncountable). The following rules will help, but to know exactly how a particular noun can be used, it is necessary to check in a good dictionary.

3 *travel* and *a journey; a piece of advice*

Travel and *journey* have very similar meanings, but *travel* is normally uncountable (it means 'travelling in general', and we do not talk about 'a travel'), while *journey* is countable (*a journey* is one particular movement from one place to another) and can have a plural: *journeys*.

*I like **travel**, but it's often tiring.* *Did you have **a** good **journey**?*

Often we can make an uncountable word countable by putting 'a piece of' or a similar expression in front of it.

*He never listens to **advice**.* *Can I give you **a piece of advice**?*

Here are some other examples of general/particular pairs. (Note that some words that are uncountable in English have countable equivalents in other languages.)

Uncountable	Countable
accommodation	*a place to live* (NOT ~~*an accommodation*~~)
baggage	*a piece/item of baggage; a case/trunk/bag*
bread	*a piece/loaf of bread; a loaf; a roll*
chess	*a game of chess*
chewing gum	*a piece of chewing gum* (NOT ~~*a chewing gum*~~)
equipment	*a piece of equipment; a tool etc*
furniture	*a piece/article of furniture; a table, chair etc*
information	*a piece of information*
knowledge	*a fact*
lightning	*a flash of lightning*
luck	*a piece/bit/stroke of luck*
luggage	*a piece/item of luggage; a case/trunk/bag*
money	*a note; a coin; a sum*
news	*a piece of news*
permission	–
poetry	*a poem*
progress	*a step forward; an advance*
publicity	*an advertisement*
research	*a piece of research; an experiment*
rubbish	*a piece of rubbish*
slang	*a slang word/expression*
thunder	*a clap of thunder*
traffic	*cars etc*
vocabulary	*a word/expression*
work	*a job; a piece of work*

Note that when uncountable English words are borrowed by other languages, they may change into countable words with different meanings (for example *parking* means the activity of parking in general, but French *un parking* means 'a car park').

4 materials: *glass, paper* etc

Words for materials are uncountable, but we can often use the same word as a countable noun to refer to something made of the material. Compare:

▶

– *I'd like some typing **paper**.*
  *I'm going out to buy a **paper*** (= a newspaper)
– *The window's made of unbreakable **glass**.*
  *Would you like **a glass** of water?*

Nouns for materials, liquids etc can be countable when they are used to talk about different types.

*Not all washing **powders** are kind to your hands.*
*We have a selection of fine **wines** at very good prices.*

The same thing happens when we talk about ordering drinks. Compare:

*Have you got **any coffee**?*
*Could I have two **coffees**?* (= cups of coffee)

5 *fruit, rice, wheat, spaghetti, hair; vegetables, peas, grapes, oats*

Many things (e.g. *rice, grapes*) can be seen either as a collection of separate elements or as a mass. Some names for things of this kind are uncountable, while others are countable (usually plural).

Uncountable: *fruit, rice, spaghetti, macaroni* (and other pasta foods), *sugar, salt, corn, wheat, barley, rye, maize.*

Countable: *vegetable(s), bean(s), pea(s), grape(s), oats, lentil(s).*

*Fruit is very expensive, but **vegetables** are cheap.*
*Wheat is used to make bread; **oats** are used to make porridge.*
*Is the **spaghetti** ready?* *These **grapes** are sour.*

Hair is normally uncountable in English.

*His **hair** is black.*

But one strand of hair is *a hair* (countable).

*So why has he got two blonde **hairs** on his jacket?*

For words that are used to talk about one 'piece' of uncountable collections (e.g. *a grain of corn, a blade of grass*), see 430.

6 abstract nouns: *time, life, experience* etc

Many abstract nouns can have both uncountable and countable uses, often corresponding to more 'general' and more 'particular' meanings. Compare:

– *Don't hurry – there's plenty of **time**.*
  *Have a good **time**.*
  *There are **times** when I just want to stop work.*
– *Life is complicated.*
  *He's had **a** really difficult **life**.*
– *She hasn't got enough **experience** for the job.*
  *I had some strange **experiences** last week.*
– *It's hard to feel **pity** for people like that.*
  *It's **a pity** it's raining.*
– *Your plan needs more **thought**.*
  *I had some frightening **thoughts** in the night.*
– *I need to practise **conversation**.*
  *Jane and I had **a** very interesting **conversation**.*

See 149.2 for more details.
For more about *time*, see 593; for *life*, see 324.

7 illnesses

The names of illnesses are usually singular uncountable in English, including those ending in *-s*.

*If you've already had **measles**, you can't get it again.*
*There's a lot of **flu** around at the moment.*

The words for some minor ailments are countable: e.g. *a cold, a sore throat, a headache.* However, *toothache, earache, stomach-ache* and *backache* are usually uncountable in British English. In American English, these words are generally countable if they refer to particular attacks of pain. Compare:

*I've got **toothache**.* (BrE) *I have **a toothache**.* (AmE)

For *the* with *measles, flu* etc, see 70.14.
For more information on the use of articles with countable and uncountable nouns, see 65.

149 countable and uncountable nouns (2): advanced points

1 *20 square metres of wall*

Singular countable nouns are sometimes used as uncountables (e.g. with *much, enough, plenty of* or *a lot of*) in order to express the idea of amount.

*There's **enough** paint for 20 square metres of **wall**.*
*I've got **too much** nose and **not enough** chin.*
*If you buy one of these you get **plenty of car** for your money.*

2 *not much difference*

Some countable abstract nouns can be used uncountably after *little, much* and other determiners. Common examples are *difference, point, reason, idea, change, difficulty, chance* and *question.*

*There's **not much difference** between 'begin' and 'start'.*
*I don't see **much point** in arguing about it.*
*We have **little reason** to expect prices to fall.*
*I haven't got **much idea** of her plans.*
*There isn't **any change** in his condition.*
*They experienced **little difficulty** in stealing the painting.*
*Do you think we have **much chance** of catching the train?*
*There's **some question** of our getting a new Managing Director.*

Note the expression *have difficulty (in) . . .ing.*

*I **have difficulty (in) remembering** faces.* (NOT ~~*I have difficulties*~~ . . .)

3 *in all weathers; on your travels*

A few uncountable nouns have plural uses in fixed expressions.

*He goes running **in all weathers**.*
*Did you meet anybody exciting **on your travels**?*
Gulliver's Travels (novel by Jonathan Swift) ▸

4 *a/an* with uncountable nouns

With certain uncountable nouns – especially nouns referring to human emotions and mental activity – we often use *a/an* when we are limiting their meaning in some way.

*We need a secretary with a **first-class knowledge** of German.* (NOT ... ~~with first-class knowledge of German.~~)
*She has always had a **deep distrust** of strangers.*
*That child shows a **surprising understanding** of adult behaviour.*
*My parents wanted me to have a **good education**.* (NOT ... ~~to have good education.~~)
*You've been a **great help**.*
*I need a **good sleep**.*

Note that these nouns cannot normally be used in the plural, and that most uncountable nouns cannot be used with *a/an* at all, even when they have an adjective.

*My father enjoys very **good health**.* (NOT ... ~~a very good health.~~)
*We're having **terrible weather**.* (NOT ... ~~a terrible weather.~~)
*He speaks **excellent English**.* (NOT ... ~~an excellent English.~~)
*It's **interesting work**.* (NOT ... ~~an interesting work.~~)

5 plural uncountables

Some uncountable nouns are plural. They have no singular forms with the same meaning, and cannot normally be used with numbers.

*I've bought the **groceries**.* (BUT NOT ... ~~a grocery.~~ OR ... ~~three groceries.~~)
*The Dover **customs** have found a large shipment of cocaine.* (BUT NOT ~~The Dover custom has~~ ...)
*Many **thanks** for your help.* (BUT NOT ~~Much thank~~ ...)

For details, see 524.7.

150 country

1 countable use

Country (countable) = 'nation', 'land'.

*Scotland is a cold **country**.*
*France is the **country** I know best.*
*How many **countries** are there in Europe?*

2 uncountable use

Country (uncountable) = 'open land without many buildings'.

*I like wild **country** best.*

With this meaning, we cannot say *a country* or *countries*.

*My parents live in nice **country** near Belfast.* (NOT ... ~~in a nice country~~ ...)

The expression *the country* (the opposite of *the town*) is very common.

*We live in the **country** just outside Manchester.*
*Would you rather live in the town or the **country**?*

For information about countable and uncountable nouns, see 148–149.

151 dare

1 uncommon

In modern English, *dare* is not a very common verb. In an informal style, people generally use other expressions.

He's not afraid to say what he thinks.

2 negative use; *daren't*

Dare is, however, quite often used in negative sentences. It can be followed by an infinitive with or without *to*.

*She **doesn't dare (to) go** out at night.*

*The old lady **didn't dare (to) open** the door.*

A special negative form *daren't* (+ infinitive without *to*) is common in British English.

*I **daren't look**.*

The third person singular is also *daren't*, without *-s*.

*She **daren't tell** him what she thinks.*

3 special expressions

Don't you dare! is sometimes used to discourage people from doing unwanted things.

*Mummy, can I draw a picture on the wall? ~ **Don't you dare!***

How dare you? is sometimes used as an indignant exclamation.

How dare you? Take your hands off me at once!

And *I dare say* (sometimes written *I daresay*) is used to mean 'I think probably', 'I suppose'.

I dare say it'll rain soon. *I daresay you're ready for a drink.*

Children use the expression *I dare you* + **infinitive** to challenge each other to do frightening things.

*I **dare you to run** across the road with your eyes shut.*

152 dates

1 writing

In Britain, the commonest way to write the day's date is as follows. Note that the names of months always begin with capital letters (see 556).

30 March 2004 *27 July 2003*

The last two letters of the number word are sometimes added (e.g. *1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th*). Some people write a comma before the year, but this is no longer very common in Britain except when the date comes inside a sentence.

30th March(,) 2004

He was born in Hawick on 14 December, 1942.

The date may be written entirely in figures.

30/3/04 *30-3-04* *30.3.04*

In the USA it is common to write the month first and to put a comma before the year.

March 30, 2004

All-figure dates are written differently in Britain and America, since British people put the day first while Americans generally start with the month. So for example, *6.4.02* means '6 April 2002' in Britain, but 'June 4, 2002' in the USA. The longer names of the months are often abbreviated as follows:

Jan Feb Mar Apr Aug Sept Oct Nov Dec

The names of decades (e.g. *the nineteen sixties*) can be written like this: *the 1960s.*

For the position of dates in letters, see 146.
For full stops in abbreviations, see 2.

2 speaking

30 March 1993 = 'March the thirtieth, nineteen ninety-three' (AmE also 'March thirtieth ...') or 'the thirtieth of March, nineteen ninety-three'
1200 = 'twelve hundred'
1305 = 'thirteen hundred and five' or 'thirteen O (/əʊ/) five'
1498 = 'fourteen (hundred and) ninety-eight'
1910 = 'nineteen (hundred and) ten'
1946 = 'nineteen (hundred and) forty-six'
2000 = 'two thousand'
2005 = 'two thousand and five'

To announce the date, *It's* is used.
It's April the first.
To ask about dates, we can say for instance:
What's the date (today)? *What date is it?*
What date is your birthday?

3 BC and AD

To distinguish between dates before and after the birth of Christ, we use the abbreviations *BC* (= Before Christ) and *AD* (= Anno Domini – Latin for 'in the year of the Lord'). *BC* follows the date; *AD* can come before or after it.
Julius Caesar first came to Britain in 55 BC.
The emperor Trajan was born in AD 53 / 53 AD.

153 dead, died and death

Dead is an adjective.
a dead man *Mrs McGinty is dead.*
That idea has been dead for years.
Died is the past tense and past participle of the verb *die.*
Shakespeare died in 1616. (NOT ~~*Shakespeare dead*~~ ...)
She died in a car crash. (NOT ~~*She is dead in*~~ ...)
So far 50 people have died in the fighting.
Note the spelling of the present participle *dying* (see 561).
Death is a noun meaning 'the end of life'.
After his death his wife went to live in Canada.

For expressions like *the dead* (= dead people), see 17.

154 determiners: the, my, some, several etc

1 What are determiners?

Determiners are words like *the, a, my, this, some, either, every, enough, several.* Determiners come at the beginning of noun phrases, but they are not adjectives.

the moon	*this house*	*every week*
a nice day	*some problems*	*enough trouble*
my fat old cat	*either arm*	*several young students*

There are two main groups of determiners.

2 Group A determiners: *the, my, this, ...*

These help to identify things – to say whether they are known or unknown to the hearer, which one(s) the speaker is talking about, whether the speaker is thinking of particular examples or speaking in general, etc. There are three kinds:

articles: *a/an, the* (see 61–70)
possessives: *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their, one's, whose* (see 441, 626)
demonstratives: *this, these, that, those* (see 589)

We cannot put two Group A determiners together. We can say *a friend, my friend* or *this friend,* but not *the my friend, the this friend, this my friend* or *my this friend.* To put a possessive together with *a/an* or a demonstrative, we can use the structure *a/this ... of mine/yours* etc (see 443).

She's a friend of mine. (NOT ~~*She's a my friend.*~~)

Nouns with possessive *'s* (see 439–440) can be used like determiners (e.g. *Britain's weather*).

3 Group B determiners: *some, each, much, enough* etc

Most of these are 'quantifiers': they say how much or how many we are talking about. The most important are:

some, any, no
each, every, either, neither
much, many, more, most; (a) little, less, least; (a) few, fewer, fewest; enough; several
all, both, half
what, whatever, which, whichever

Some Group B determiners are used with singular nouns (e.g. *each*), some with plurals (e.g. *many*), some with uncountables (e.g. *much*), and some with more than one kind of noun (e.g. *which*).

We can put two Group B determiners together if the combination makes sense.

*We meet **every few** days.* *Have you got **any more** coffee?*

For details of the use of Group B determiners, look up the sections on particular words.

▶

4 Group B + Group A: *some of the people*

Group B determiners can be used directly before nouns, without *of*.

Have you got any sugar? (NOT ... ~~any of sugar.~~)

Most people agree with me. (NOT ~~Most of people~~...)

But if we want to put a Group B determiner before a noun which has a Group A determiner (article, possessive or demonstrative), we have to use *of*.

Compare:

- *some people*
  some of the people
- *which friends*
  which of your friends
- *each child*
  each of my children
- *enough remarks*
  enough of those remarks
- *neither door*
  neither of these doors
- *most shops*
  most of the shops

A Group B determiner + *of* can be used directly before a noun in a few cases. This happens with proper nouns such as place names, and sometimes with uncountable nouns that refer to the whole of a subject or activity.

Most of Wales was without electricity last night.

Much of philosophy is concerned with questions that have no answers.

5 Group B + of + pronoun: *most of us*

Group B determiners are used with *of* before pronouns.

neither of them *which of us* *most of you*

6 *no* and *none*; *every* and *every one*

No and *every* are not used before *of*; instead we use *none* and *every one*.

Compare:

- *no friends*
  none of my friends
- *every blouse*
  every one of these blouses

7 *all (of), both (of), half (of)*

We can leave out *of* after *all, both* and *half* when they are followed by nouns (but not when they are followed by pronouns).

all (of) his ideas *half (of) her income*

both (of) my parents *but all of us* (NOT ~~all us~~)

Note that when *each, every, either* and *neither* are used directly before nouns without *of*, the nouns are singular. Compare:

- *each tree*
  each of the trees
- *neither partner*
  neither of the partners

8 Group A + Group B: *his many friends*

Certain Group B determiners can be used after Group A determiners. They are *many, most, little, least* and *few*.

his many friends *these few poems* *the least time*

the most money *a little time* *a few questions*

For the difference between *little* and *a little*, and between *few* and *a few*, see 329.

9 other determiners: *other, such, what, only,* numbers

There are a few other determiners that do not fit into Groups A and B. They are *other, such, what* (in exclamations), *only* and numbers. *Other, only* and

numbers come after Group A determiners (*another* is written as one word); *such* and *what* come before the article *a/an*.

my other sister — *such a nice day*
the only possibility — *the three bears*
what a pity

Other and *such* can also come after some Group B determiners.

many other problems — *most such requests*

10 determiners without nouns; *I haven't read any*

Nouns are often dropped after determiners if the meaning is clear.

*Do you know Orwell's books? ~ I haven't read **any**.*
*Have we got any tomatoes? ~ A **few**.*
*Which chair do you want? ~ **This** will do.*

Determiners are sometimes used without nouns to refer to people in general. This is formal and generally rather old-fashioned.

*Many are called but **few** are chosen.* (The Bible)
Some say one thing, some say another.
OPEN MEETING: ALL (ARE) WELCOME.

Possessives (except *whose* and *his*) have different forms when they are used without nouns: *mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs* (see 442). Compare:

That's my coat — *That's **mine**.*

Its and *one's* are not used without nouns. (See 442)

For *others* meaning 'other people', see 54.4. For *all* meaning everything, see 38.2.
For expressions like *a lot of, a heap of, the majority of*, see 333.
For more information about particular determiners, consult the entries for the individual words (see Index).

155 different

1 modifiers: *any different* etc

Different is a little like a comparative: unlike most adjectives, it can be modified by *any* and *no, (a) little* and *not much*.

*I hadn't seen her for years, but she wasn't **any** different.*
*How's the patient, doctor? ~ **No** different.*
*His ideas are **little** different from those of his friends.*
*The new school isn't **much** different from the old one.*

Quite different means 'completely different' (see 489.3).

*I thought you'd be like your sister, but you're **quite different**.*

Unlike comparatives, *different* can also be modified by *very*.

*She's **very** different from her sister.*

2 prepositions: *different from/to*

From is generally used after *different*; many British people also use *to*. In American English, *than* is common.

*American football is very different **from/to** soccer.*
(AmE ... *different **from/than** soccer.*)

Before a clause, *different than* is also possible in British English.

*The job's different **than** I expected.*
(OR ... *different **from/to what** I expected.*)

For the difference between *different* and *other*, see 54.5.

156 direct speech: reporting verbs and word order

1 informal spoken reports: *said, thought*

When we repeat people's words or thoughts, we normally use *say* or *think*. They can go before sentences or at other natural breaks (e.g. between clauses or after discourse markers).

*So I **said** 'What are you doing in our bedroom?' 'I'm sorry', he **said**, 'I thought it was my room.' Well, I **thought**, that's funny, he's got my handbag open. 'If that's the case,' I **said**, 'what are you doing with my handbag?'*

2 literary direct speech: *ask, exclaim, suggest* ...

In novels, short stories etc, a much wider variety of reporting verbs are used: for example *ask, exclaim, suggest, reply, cry, reflect, suppose, grunt, snarl, hiss, whisper*. And reporting verbs are often put before their subjects ('inversion' – see 303).

*'Is this Mr Rochester's house?' **asked Emma**.*

*'Great Heavens!' **cried Celia**. 'Is there no end to your wickedness? I implore you – leave me alone!' 'Never,' **hissed the Duke** ...*

Inversion is not normal with pronoun subjects.

*'You monster!' **she screamed**.* (NOT ... ~~*screamed she*~~.)

In literary writing, reporting expressions often interrupt the normal flow of the sentences quoted.

*'Your information,' I **replied**, 'is out of date.'*

157 discourse markers

Discourse means 'pieces of language longer than a sentence'. Some words and expressions are used to show how discourse is constructed. They can show the connection between what a speaker is saying and what has already been said or what is going to be said; they can help to make clear the structure of what is being said; they can indicate what speakers think about what they are saying or what others have said. There are a very large number of these 'discourse markers', and it is impossible to give a complete list in a few pages. Here are a few of the most common examples. Some of these words and expressions have more than one use; for more information, look in a good dictionary. Some discourse markers are used mostly in informal speech or writing; others are more common in a formal style. Note that a discourse marker usually comes at the beginning of a clause.

1 focusing and linking

□ *with reference to; talking/speaking of/about; regarding; as regards; as far as ... is concerned; as for*

These expressions focus attention on what is going to be said, by announcing the subject in advance. Some of them also make a link with previous discourse, by referring back to what was said before.

With reference to is a very formal expression used mainly at the beginning of business letters.

With reference to your letter of 17 March, I am pleased to inform you ...

Speaking/talking of/about ... is used to make a link with what has just been said. It can help a speaker to change the subject.

I saw Max and Lucy today. You know, she –~ ***Talking of Max,*** *did you know he's going to Australia?*

Regarding can come at the beginning of a piece of discourse.

Hello, John. Now look, ***regarding*** *those sales figures – I really don't think ...*

As regards and *as far as ... is concerned* usually announce a change of subject by the speaker/writer.

... there are no problems about production. Now ***as regards*** *marketing ...*

... about production. ***As far as*** *marketing* ***is concerned,*** *I think ...*

People sometimes leave out *is concerned* after *as far as* ... This is usually considered incorrect.

As far as *the new development plan, I think we ought to be very careful.*

As for often suggests lack of interest or dislike.

I've invited Andy and Bob. ***As for*** *Stephen, I never want to see him again.*

2 balancing contrasting points

□ *on the one hand* (formal), *on the other hand*; *while*; *whereas*

These expressions are used to balance two facts or ideas that contrast, but do not contradict each other.

Arranged marriages are common in many Middle Eastern countries. In the West, ***on the other hand,*** *they are unusual.*

On the one hand, *we need to reduce costs.* ***On the other hand,*** *investment ...*

I like the mountains, ***while/whereas*** *my wife prefers the seaside.*

While and *whereas* can be put before the first of the contrasting points.

While/Whereas *some languages have 30 or more different vowel sounds, others have five or less.*

For a comparison of *on the other hand* and *on the contrary*, see 144.

3 emphasising a contrast

□ *however*; *nevertheless*; *nonetheless*; *mind you*; *still*; *yet*; *in spite of this/that*; *despite this/that*

However, nevertheless and *nonetheless* emphasise the fact that the second point contrasts with the first. *Nevertheless* is very formal.

Britain came last in the World Children's Games. ***However,*** *we did have one success, with Annie Smith's world record in the sack race.*

It was an oppressive dictatorship, but ***nevertheless*** *it ensured stability.*

Mind you (less formal) and *still* introduce the contrasting point as an afterthought.

I don't like the job much. ***Mind you / Still,*** *the money's OK.*

Yet, still, in spite of this/that and *despite this/that* (more formal) can be used to suggest that something is surprising, in view of what was said before.

He says he's a socialist, and ***yet*** *he owns three houses and drives a Rolls.*

The train was an hour late. ***In spite of this,*** *I managed to get to the meeting in time.* (OR ... *I still managed to get* ...) ▸

4 similarity

□ *similarly; in the same way; just as*

These are most common in a formal style.

*The roads are usually very crowded at the beginning of the holiday season. **Similarly**, there are often serious traffic jams at the end of the holidays.*

*James Carter did everything he could to educate his children. **In the same** way, they in turn put a high value on their own children's education.*

***Just as** the Greeks looked down on the Romans, the Romans looked down on their uncivilised neighbours.*

5 concession and counter-argument

□ concession: *it is true; certainly; of course; granted; if; may;* stressed auxiliaries.

□ counter-argument: *however; even so; but; nevertheless; nonetheless; all the same; still*

These expressions are used in a three-part structure: (1) there is discussion of facts that point in a certain direction; (2) it is agreed (the concession) that a particular contradictory fact points the other way; (3) but the speaker/writer dismisses this and returns to the original direction of argument.

*... cannot agree with colonialism. **It is true** that the British **may** have done some good in India. Even so, colonialism is basically evil.*

*... incapable of lasting relationships with women. **Certainly**, several women loved him, and he was married twice. **All the same**, the women closest to him were invariably deeply unhappy.*

*Very few people understood Einstein's theory. **Of course**, everybody had heard of him, and a fair number of people knew the word 'relativity'. **But** hardly anybody could tell you what he had actually said.*

*I'm not impressed by her work. **Granted**, she writes like an angel. **But** she doesn't write about anything of any interest.*

*It was a successful party. The Scottish cousins, **if** a little surprised by the family's behaviour, were **nonetheless** impressed by the friendly welcome they received.*

*I'm glad to have a place of my own. **It's true** it's a bit small, and it's a long way from the centre, and it does need a lot of repairs done. **Still**, it's home.*

For other uses of *still*, see 566. For other uses of *of course*, see 390.

6 contradicting

□ *on the contrary; quite the opposite*

These expressions can contradict a suggestion made by another speaker.

*Interesting lecture? ~ **On the contrary / Quite the opposite**, it was a complete waste of time.*

They can also be used when a speaker/writer strengthens a negative statement which he/she has just made.

*She did not allow the accident to discourage her. **On the contrary / Quite the opposite**, she began to work twice as hard.*

For a comparison of *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*, see 144.

7 dismissal of previous discourse

□ *at least; anyway; anyhow; at any rate; in any case*

At least can suggest that one thing is certain or all right, even if everything else is unsatisfactory.

*The car's completely smashed up – I don't know what we're going to do. **At least** nobody was hurt.*

The other four expressions are used (mostly informally) to mean 'What was said before doesn't matter – the main point is as follows'.

*I'm not sure what time I'll arrive, maybe seven or eight. **Anyway / Anyhow / At any rate / In any case**, I'll certainly be there before eight thirty.*

Note that *anyway* is not the same as *in any way*, which means 'by any method'.

*Can I help you **in any way**?*

8 change of subject

□ *by the way; incidentally; right; all right; now; OK*

By the way and *incidentally* are used to introduce something one has just thought of that is not directly part of the conversation.

*I was talking to Phil yesterday. Oh, **by the way**, he sends you his regards. Well, he thinks . . .*

*Janet wants to talk to you about advertising. **Incidentally**, she's lost a lot of weight. Anyway, it seems the budget . . .*

These two expressions are sometimes used to change the subject completely.

*Freddy's had another crash. ~ Oh, yes? Poor old chap. **By the way**, have you heard from Joan recently?*

*Lovely sunset. ~ Yes, isn't it? Oh, **incidentally**, what happened to that bike I lent you?*

(All) right, now and *OK* are often used informally by teachers, lecturers and people giving instructions, to indicate that a new section of the discourse is starting.

*Any questions? **Right**, let's have a word about tomorrow's arrangements.*

Now, I'd like to say something about the exam . . .

Is that all clear? OK, now has anybody ever wondered why it's impossible to tickle yourself? . . .

9 return to previous subject

□ *to return to the previous point* (formal); *as I was saying* (informal)

These expressions are used to return to an earlier subject after an interruption or a brief change of subject.

*. . . especially in France. **To return to the previous point**, non-European historians . . .*

*. . . on the roof – Jeremy, put the cat down, please. **As I was saying**, if Jack gets up on the roof and looks at the tiles . . .*

10 structuring

□ *first(ly), first of all, second(ly), third(ly)* etc; *lastly; finally; to begin with; to start with; in the first/second/third place; for one thing* (informal); *for another thing* (informal) ▸

We use these to show the structure of what we are saying.

First(ly), we need somewhere to live. Second(ly), we need to find work.
*There are three reasons why I don't want to dance with you. **To start with,** my feet hurt. **For another thing,** you can't dance. **And lastly,** . . .*

Firstly, secondly etc are more formal than *first, second* etc.

For *at first*, see 84. For *at last*, see 204.

11 adding

□ *moreover* (very formal); *furthermore* (formal); *in addition*; *as well as that*; *on top of that* (informal); *another thing is* (informal); *what is more*; *also*; *besides*; *in any case*

These expressions introduce additional information or arguments.

The Prime Minister is unwilling to admit that he can ever be mistaken. Moreover, he is totally incapable . . .
*The peasants are desperately short of food. **Furthermore / In addition,** they urgently need doctors and medical supplies.*
*She borrowed my bike and never gave it back. And **as well as that / on top of that / what is more,** she broke the lawnmower and then pretended she hadn't.*
*If Janet and Pete come and stay, where's Mary going to sleep? **Another thing** is, we can't go away next weekend if they're here.*
*Her father was out of work. **Also,** her mother was in poor health.*

Besides and *in any case* can add an extra, more conclusive fact or argument.

*What are you trying to get a job as a secretary for? You'd never manage to work eight hours a day. **Besides / In any case,** you can't type.*

12 generalising

□ *on the whole*; *in general*; *in all/most/many/some cases*; *broadly speaking*; *by and large*; *to a great extent*; *to some extent*; *apart from . . .*; *except for . . .*.

These expressions say how far the speaker/writer thinks a generalisation is true.

***On the whole,** I had a happy childhood.*
***In general,** we are satisfied with the work.*
***In most cases,** people will be nice to you if you are nice to them.*
***Broadly speaking,** teachers are overworked and underpaid.*
***By and large,** this is a pleasant place to live.*
***To a great extent,** a person's character is formed by the age of eight.*

Apart from and *except for* (see 102) introduce exceptions to generalisations.

***Apart from** the soup, I thought the meal was excellent.*
***Except for** Sally, they all seemed pretty sensible.*

13 giving examples

□ *for instance*; *for example*; *e.g.*; *in particular*

These expressions introduce particular examples to illustrate what has been said.

*People often behave strangely when they're abroad. Take Mrs Ellis, **for example / for instance,** . . .*

In writing, the abbreviation *e.g.* (Latin *exempli gratia*), pronounced /i: 'dʒi:/, is often used to mean 'for example'.

Some common minerals, e.g. silica or olivine, ...

In particular focuses on a special example.

*We are not at all happy with the work you did on the new kitchen. **In particular**, we consider that the quality of wood used ...*

14 logical consequence

□ *therefore* (formal); *as a result* (formal); *consequently* (formal); *so*; *then*

These expressions show that what is said follows logically from what was said before.

*She was **therefore** unable to avoid an unwelcome marriage.*

So she had to get married to a man she didn't like.

*The last bus has gone. ~ **Then** we're going to have to walk.*

Therefore is used in logical, mathematical and scientific proofs.

Therefore 2x - 15 = 17y + 6.

So is often used as a general-purpose connector, rather like *and*, in speech.

*So anyway, this man came up to me and said 'Have you got a light?' So I told him no, I hadn't. **So** he looked at me and ...*

For the difference between *so* and *then*, see 537.

15 making things clear; giving details

□ *I mean*; *actually*; *that is to say*; *in other words*

We use *I mean* (see 348) when we make things clearer or give more details.

*It was a terrible evening. **I mean**, they all sat round and talked politics.*

Actually (see 11) can introduce details, especially when these are unexpected.

*Tommy's really stupid. He **actually** still believes in Father Christmas.*

That is to say and *in other words* are used when the speaker/writer says something again in another way.

*We cannot continue with the deal on this basis. **That is to say / In other words**, unless you can bring down the price we shall have to cancel the order.*

16 softening and correcting

□ *I think*; *I feel*; *I reckon* (informal); *I guess* (informal); *in my view/opinion* (formal); *apparently*; *so to speak*; *more or less*; *sort of* (informal); *kind of* (informal); *well*; *really*; *that is to say*; *at least*; *I'm afraid*; *I suppose*; *or rather*; *actually*; *I mean*

I think/feel/reckon/guess and *in my view/opinion* are used to make opinions and statements sound less dogmatic – they suggest that the speaker is just giving a personal opinion, with which other people may disagree.

***I think** you ought to try again.*

*I really **feel** she's making a mistake.*

***I reckon/guess** she just doesn't respect you, Bill.*

***In my view/opinion**, it would be better to wait until July.*

Apparently can be used to say that the speaker has got his/her information from somebody else (and perhaps does not guarantee that it is true).

*Have you heard? **Apparently** Susie's pregnant again.* ▸

So to speak, more or less and *sort/kind of* (see 551) are used to show that one is not speaking very exactly, or to soften something which might upset other people. *Well* and *really* can also be used to soften.

*I sort of think we ought to start going home, perhaps, **really**.*
*I **kind of** think it's more or less a crime.*
*Do you like it? ~ **Well**, yes, it's all right.*

That is to say and *at least* can be used to 'back down' from something too strong or definite that one has said.

*I'm not working for you again. Well, **that's to say**, not unless you put my wages up.*
*Ghosts don't exist. **At least**, I've never seen one.*

I'm afraid (see 28.2) is apologetic: it can introduce a polite refusal, or bad news.

*I'm **afraid** I can't help you.* *I'm **afraid** I forgot to buy the stamps.*

I suppose can be used to enquire politely about something (respectfully inviting an affirmative answer).

*I **suppose** you're very busy just at the moment?*

It can also be used to suggest unwilling agreement.

*Can you help me for a minute? ~ I **suppose** so.*

Actually (see 11) can correct misunderstandings.

*Hello, John. ~ **Actually**, my name's Andy.*

Well can soften corrections, suggesting 'That's nearly right'.

*You live in Oxford, don't you? ~ **Well**, near Oxford.*

Or rather is used to correct oneself.

*I'm seeing him in May – **or rather** early June.*

I mean (see 348) can be used to correct oneself or to soften.

*Let's meet next Monday – I **mean** Tuesday.*
*She's not very nice. I **mean**, I know some people like her, but . . .*

17 gaining time

□ *let me see; let's see; well; you know; I don't know; I mean; kind of; sort of*

Expressions of this kind (often called 'fillers') give the speaker time to think.

*How much are you selling it for? ~ **Well, let me see** . . .*
*Why did you do that? ~ **Oh, well, you know, I don't know, really, I mean**, it just **sort of** seemed a good idea.*

18 showing one's attitude to what one is saying

□ *honestly; frankly; no doubt*

Honestly can be used to claim that one is speaking sincerely.

***Honestly**, I never said a word to him about the money.*

Both *honestly* and *frankly* can introduce critical remarks.

***Honestly**, John, why do you have to be so rude?*
*What do you think of my hair? ~ **Frankly**, dear, it's a disaster.*

No doubt (see 377) suggests that the speaker/writer thinks something is probable, but does not know for certain himself/herself.

***No doubt** the Romans enjoyed telling jokes, just like us.*

19 persuading

□ *after all; look; look here*

After all (see 31) suggests 'this is a strong argument that you haven't taken into consideration'. *Look* is more strongly persuasive.

*I think we should let her go on holiday alone. **After all**, she is fifteen – she's not a child any more.*

*You can't go there tomorrow. **Look**, the trains aren't running.*

Look here is an angry exclamation meaning 'You can't say/do that!'

Look here! What are you doing with my suitcase?

No doubt can be used to persuade people politely to do things.

*No **doubt** you'll be paying your rent soon?*

20 referring to the other person's expectations

□ *actually* (especially BrE); *in fact; as a matter of fact; to tell the truth; well*

These expressions are used when we show whether somebody's expectations have been fulfilled or not. *Actually* (see 11) can be used to say that somebody 'guessed right'.

*Did you enjoy your holiday? ~ Very much, **actually**.*

Actually, in fact and *as a matter of fact* can introduce additional surprising or unexpected information.

*The weather was awful. **Actually**, the campsite got flooded and we had to come home.*

*Was the concert nice? ~ Yes, **as a matter of fact** it was terrific.*

*Did you meet the Minister? ~ Yes. **In fact**, he asked us to lunch.*

Actually, in fact, as a matter of fact and *to tell the truth* can be used to say that the hearer's expectations were not fulfilled.

*How was the holiday? ~ Well, **actually**, we didn't go.*

*Where are the carrots? ~ Well, **in fact / to tell the truth**, I forgot to buy them.*

*I hope you passed the exam. ~ No, **as a matter of fact**, I didn't.*

After a new subject has been announced, *well* can suggest that something new or surprising is going to be said about it.

*What did you think of her boyfriend? ~ **Well**, I was a bit surprised . . .*

*You know that new house? **Well**, you'll never guess who's bought it.*

21 summing up

□ *in conclusion; to sum up; briefly; in short*

These expressions are most common in a formal style.

*. . . **In conclusion**, then, we can see that Britain's economic problems were mainly due to lack of industrial investment.*

*To **sum up**: most of the committee members supported the idea but a few were against it.*

*He's lazy, he's ignorant and he's stupid. **In short**, he's useless.*

158 do (1): introduction

Do has three main uses.

1 auxiliary verb

The auxiliary *do* is used to form the questions and negatives of other verbs, as well as emphatic and shortened forms. For details, see 159.

Did you remember to post my letters?
This doesn't taste very nice. *I do like your earrings.*
John eats too much. ~ *He certainly does.*

2 general-purpose verb

Do is also an ordinary (non-auxiliary) verb. It can refer to almost any kind of activity, and is used when it is not necessary or not possible to be more precise. For details, and the difference between *do* and *make*, see 160.

What are you doing? *Don't just stand there. Do something.*
I've finished the phone calls, and I'll do the letters tomorrow.

3 substitute verb

In British English, *do* can be used alone as a substitute for a main verb after an auxiliary. For details, see 161.

Do you think Phil will come? ~ *He might do.* (AmE *He might.*)

Do so/it/that can be used as a substitute expression when we want to avoid repeating another verb and what follows. For details, see 162.

I need to take a rest, and I shall do so as soon as I can find time.
He told me to open the door. I did it as quietly as I could.

4 combined forms

Auxiliary *do* and non-auxiliary *do* can occur together.

Do you do much gardening? *How do you do?*
The company didn't do very well last year.

159 do (2): auxiliary verb

The auxiliary verb *do* is followed by infinitives without *to*. It has several uses.

1 questions

We use *do* to make questions with ordinary verbs, but not with other auxiliary verbs (see 480). Compare:

Do you like football? (NOT ~~*Like you football?*~~)
Can you play football? (NOT ~~*Do you can play football?*~~)

The auxiliary *do* can make questions with the ordinary verb *do*.

What do you do in the evenings?

2 negatives

We use *do* to make negative clauses with ordinary verbs (including the ordinary verb *do*), but not with other auxiliary verbs (see 367).

*I **don't** like football.* (NOT ~~*I like not football.*~~)
Don't go. *I **don't** do much in the evenings.*
BUT *I can't play football.* (NOT ~~*I don't can play football.*~~)

3 emphasis

We can use *do* in an affirmative clause for emphasis (see 184).

Do sit down. *You **do** look nice today!*
*She thinks I don't love her, but I **do** love her.*
*I don't do much sport now, but I **did** play football when I was younger.*

4 inversion

Do is used in some inversion (verb before subject) structures (see 302).

*At no time **did** he lose his self-control.*

5 ellipsis

In cases where an auxiliary is used instead of a whole verb phrase (see 181), *do* is common in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives.

*She doesn't like dancing, but I **do**.* (= . . . but I like dancing.)
*You saw Alan, **didn't** you?*
That meat smells funny. ~ *Yes, it **does**, **doesn't** it?*
*Ann thinks there's something wrong with Bill, and so **do** I.*

For *do* with *be*, see 90.
For weak pronunciations of *do* and *does*, see 616.
For *do* in short answers, see 517.

160 do (3): general-purpose verb; do and make

The general-purpose verb *do* has several uses, and can sometimes be confused with *make*.

1 *do* for indefinite activities

We use *do* when we do not say exactly what activity we are talking about – for example with words like *thing, something, nothing, anything, what.*

*Then he **did** a very strange thing.* (NOT ~~*Then he made a very strange thing.*~~)
Do something!
*I like **doing** nothing.* (NOT . . . ~~*making nothing.*~~)
*What shall we **do**?*

2 *do* for work

We use *do* when we talk about work and jobs.

*I'm not going to **do** any work today.* *Could you **do** the shopping for me?*
*It's time to **do** the accounts.* *I wouldn't like to **do** your job.*
*I **did*** (= studied) *French and German at school.*
*Has Ben **done** his homework?*
*Could you **do** the ironing first, and then **do** the windows if you've got time?*

▶

3 *do . . .ing*

We use *do* in the informal structure *do . . .ing*, to talk about activities that take a certain time, or are repeated (for example jobs and hobbies). There is usually a determiner (e.g. *the, my, some, much*) before the *-ing* form.

*During the holidays I'm going to **do some walking and a lot of reading**.*
*Let your fingers **do the walking**.* (advertisement for telephone shopping)

Note that the verb after *do* cannot have an object in this structure.

*I'm going to **watch some TV**.* (NOT ~~*I'm going to do some watching TV*~~.)

But *do* can be used with a compound noun that includes **verb + object**.

*I want to **do some bird-watching** this weekend.*
*It's time I **did some letter-writing**.*

4 *make* for constructing, creating etc

We often use *make* to talk about constructing, building, creating etc.

*I've just **made** a cake.* *Let's **make** a plan.*
*My father and I once **made** a boat.*

5 *do* instead of *make*

We sometimes use *do* in place of *make*, to sound casual about a creative activity – as if we are not claiming to produce any very special results.

*What shall we eat? ~ Well, I could **do** an omelette.*

6 common fixed expressions

***do** good, harm, business, one's best, a favour, sport, exercise, one's hair, one's teeth, one's duty, 50 mph*
***make** a journey, an offer, arrangements, a suggestion, a decision, an attempt, an effort, an excuse, an exception, a mistake, a noise, a phone call, money, a profit, a fortune, love, peace, war, a bed, a fire, progress*

Note that we say ***make** a bed*, but we often talk about ***doing** the bed(s)* as part of housework. Compare:

*He's old enough to **make his own bed** now.*
*I'll start on the vegetables as soon as I've **done the beds**.*

We use *take*, not *make*, in *take a photo*, and *have*, not *make*, in *have an (interesting) experience*.

For information about sentence structures with *make*, see 335.

161 do (4): substitute verb

auxiliary verb + *do*

In British English (but not American), *do* can be used alone as a substitute verb after an auxiliary verb.

*Come and stay with us. ~ I may (**do**), if I have the time.* (AmE *I may, if . . .* OR *I may come, if . . .*)
*He's supposed to have locked the safe. ~ He has (**done**).* (AmE *He has.* OR *He has locked it.*)
*I found myself thinking of her as I had never **done** before.*
*He didn't pass his exam, but he could have (**done**) if he'd tried harder.*
*He smokes more than he used to (**do**).*

Progressive forms are possible, but not very common.
You should be getting dressed. ~ I am (doing).
Note that the auxiliary verb is stressed in this structure.
Close the door. ~ I HAVE done. (NOT ... ~~*I have DONE.*~~)

For auxiliary verbs used instead of complete verb phrases, see 181.

162 do so/it/that

1 *do so*

The expression *do so* can be used to avoid repeating a verb and its object or complement. It is usually rather formal.
*Put the car away, please. ~ I've already **done so**.*
*Eventually she divorced Stephen. It was a pity she had not **done so** earlier.*
*He told me to get out, and I **did** so as quietly as possible.*

2 *do so* and *do it/that*

Do it and *do that* can be used instead of *do so*.
*I promised to get the tickets, and I will **do so/it** as soon as possible.*
*She rode a camel: she had never **done so/that** before.*
We use *do so* mainly to refer to the same action, with the same subject, that was mentioned before. In other cases we prefer *do it/that* or *do* alone.
*I haven't got time to get the tickets. Who's going to **do it**?* (NOT ... ~~*Who's going to do so?*~~)
*I rode a camel in Morocco. ~ I'd love to **do that**.* (NOT ... ~~*to do so.*~~)
*I always eat peas with honey. My wife never **does**.* (NOT ... ~~*My wife never does so.*~~)

3 *do so/it/that*: deliberate actions

Do so/it/that are mainly used to refer to deliberate dynamic actions. We do not usually use these expressions to replace verbs like *fall, lose, like, remember, think, own*, which refer to involuntary actions or states.
*I like the saxophone, and I always **have (done)**.*
(NOT ... ~~*and I have always done so/it/that.*~~)
*She lost her money. I wasn't surprised that she **did**.*
(NOT ... ~~*that she did so/it/that.*~~)
*I think Jake's wrong. I **did** when he first spoke to me.*
(NOT ... ~~*I did so/it/that when*~~ ...)

4 other verbs

Note that *so, it* and *that* are not normally used in this way after auxiliary verbs. It is not possible in standard English to say *I can so, She was it* or *I have that*.

For *so I am, so it is* etc, see 541.2.
For *so do I, so am I* etc, see 541.1.
For *so* with *say* and *tell*, see 540.
For *so* with *think, believe, hope* and similar verbs, see 539.
For auxiliary *do* as substitute for a whole verb phrase, see 181.
For differences between *it* and *that*, see 590.

163 doubt

Clauses after the verb *doubt* can be introduced by *whether, if* or *that.*

*Economists **doubt whether** interest rates will fall in the near future.*

*I **doubt if** she'll come this evening.*

*The directors **doubt that** new machinery is really necessary.*

In an informal style, people sometimes use no conjunction.

*I **doubt** we'll have enough money for a holiday.*

After negative forms of *doubt,* we normally use *that* or no conjunction.

*I don't **doubt (that)** there will be more problems.*

For *no doubt* meaning 'probably', see 377.

164 dress

1 noun

The countable noun *dress* means an article of women's clothing (it goes from the shoulders to below the hips).

*This is the first time I've seen you wearing **a dress**.*

There is also an uncountable noun *dress* (not used with the article *a/an*). It means 'clothing', 'clothes'. It is not very common in modern English, and is used mostly to talk about special kinds of clothing (for example *national dress, evening dress, battledress*).

*He looks good in evening **dress**.* (NOT ... ~~*in an evening dress*~~.)

2 verb: putting clothes on

The verb *dress* can be used to talk about putting clothes on oneself or somebody else. *Undress* is used for taking clothes off.

*It only takes me five minutes to **dress** in the morning.*

*Could you **dress** the children for me?*

*I'm going to **undress** in front of the fire.*

In informal English, we use *get dressed/undressed* to talk about dressing or undressing oneself.

*Get **dressed** and come downstairs at once!*

Put on and *take off* are generally used when clothes are mentioned.

*I **put on** a sweater, but it was so warm that I had to **take it off** again.*

*Can you **take** John's boots **off** for him?*

3 verb: wearing clothes

To say what somebody is/was wearing on a particular occasion, we can use the form *be dressed in* (note the preposition).

*I didn't recognise him because he was **dressed in** a dark suit.*

(NOT ... ~~*dressed with*~~ ... OR ... ~~*dressing in*~~ ...)

*She was **dressed in** orange pyjamas.*

Be wearing and *have on* (especially AmE) are also very common.

*She was **wearing** orange pyjamas.*

*She **had on** orange pajamas.* (AmE)

The active form *dress (in)* can be used to give the idea of repetition or habit.

*She always **dresses** in green.* *He **dresses** well.*

Note also the expression *well dressed.*

165 drown

Both active and passive forms of *drown* are common when we talk about accidental drowning.

*He (was) **drowned** while trying to swim across a river.*

166 due to and owing to

Due to and *owing to* are similar to 'because of'. *Due to* is more common than *owing to*.

Phrases beginning *due/owing to* are often separated from the rest of their sentence by a comma.

Due/Owing to the bad weather(,) the match was cancelled.

We have had to postpone the meeting(,) due/owing to the strike.

Some people believe it is incorrect to use *due to* at the beginning of a clause in this way, but the structure is common in educated usage.

Due to can also follow the verb *be*. *Owing to* is not usually used like this.

*His success was **due to** his mother.* (NOT ... ~~*was owing to his mother.*~~)

167 during and for

During is used to say **when** something happens; *for* is used to say **how long** it lasts. Compare:

- *My father was in hospital **during the summer**.*
  *My father was in hospital **for six weeks**.* (NOT ... ~~*during six weeks.*~~)
- *It rained **during the night for two or three hours**.*
  *I'll call in and see you **for a few minutes during the afternoon**.*

For *during* and *in*, see 168.
For *for, since, in* and *from*, see 208.

168 during and in

We use both *during* and *in* to say that something happens inside a particular period of time.

*We'll be on holiday **during/in** August.* *I woke up **during/in** the night.*

We use *during* to stress that we are talking about the whole of the period.

*The shop's closed **during the whole** of August.* (NOT ... ~~*in the whole of August.*~~)

And we use *during* when we are talking about an event, activity or experience (not a period of time).

*He had some strange experiences **during his military service**.* (NOT ... ~~*in his military service.*~~)

*I'll try to phone you **during the meeting**.* (NOT ... ~~*in the meeting.*~~)

*I met them **during my stay in China**.*

169 each

1 *each* + singular

Each is a determiner (see 154). We use it before a singular noun.

*I enjoy **each moment**.* (NOT ... ~~*each moments.*~~)

A following verb is also singular.

*Each new day **is** different.* (NOT ... ~~*are different.*~~)

2 *each of*

We use *each of* before a plural pronoun, or before a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154) with a plural noun.

*Each of **us** sees the world differently.*

*I write to **each of my children** once a week.*

A following verb is normally singular.

*Each of them **has** problems.*

3 pronouns

When a pronoun or possessive is used later in a clause to refer back to *each (of)* + noun/pronoun, the later word can be singular (more formal) or plural (less formal).

*Each girl wore what **she** liked best.* (more formal)

*Each student wore what **they** liked best.* (less formal)

*Each of them explained it in **his/her/their** own way.*

4 position with object

Each can follow an object (direct or indirect), but does not normally come at the end of a clause.

*She kissed **them each** on the forehead.* (BUT NOT ~~*She kissed them each.*~~)

*I want **them each** to make their own decision.*

*I sent **the secretaries each** a Christmas card.*

However, *each* can come at the end of a clause in expressions referring to amounts and quantities.

*They cost £3.50 **each**.* *I bought the girls **two ice-creams each**.*

5 without a noun

We can drop a noun after *each*, if the meaning is clear. However, *each one* or *each of them* is more common in an informal style.

*I've got five brothers, and **each (one/of them)** is different.*

6 with the verb

When *each* refers to the subject, it can also go with a verb in mid-position, like some adverbs (for details of word order, see 24). In this case plural nouns, pronouns and verbs are used.

*They **have each been** told.*

*We **can each** apply for our own membership card.*

*You are **each** right in a different way.*

*The plans **each** have certain advantages and disadvantages.*

For the difference between *each* and *every*, see 170.

170 each and every: the difference

1 *each* with two or more; *every* with three or more

Each and *every* are both normally used with singular nouns. *Each* can be used to talk about two or more people or things; *every* is normally used to talk about three or more.

*The business makes less money **each/every** year.* (NOT ... ~~*each/every years.*~~)
*She had a child holding on to **each** hand.* (NOT ... ~~*every hand.*~~)

For expressions like *every two years, every three steps,* see 532.8.

2 meaning

Each and *every* can often be used without much difference of meaning.

*You look more beautiful **each/every** time I see you.*

But we prefer *each* when we are thinking of people or things separately, one at a time. And *every* is more common when we are thinking of people or things together, in a group. (*Every* is closer to *all.*) So we are more likely to say:

Each person in turn went to see the doctor.

but

Every patient came from the same small village.

3 structures

We do not use *each* with words and expressions like *almost, practically, nearly* or *without exception,* which stress the idea of a whole group.

*She's lost nearly **every** friend she had.* (NOT ... ~~*nearly each friend*~~ ...)

Each can be used in some structures where *every* is impossible.

*They **each** said what they thought.* (BUT NOT ~~*They every*~~ ...)
Each of them spoke for five minutes. (BUT NOT ~~*Every of them*~~ ...)

For more details, see 169 (*each*) and 193 (*every*).

171 each other and one another

1 no difference

Each other and *one another* mean the same.

*Ann and I write to **each other / one another** every week.*

Each other is more common than *one another,* especially in an informal style.

2 not used as subject

Each other and *one another* are not normally used as subjects (though this occasionally happens in subordinate clauses in very informal speech).

*They **each** listened carefully to what the other said.* (NOT USUALLY *They listened carefully to what each other said.*)

3 *each other's / one another's*

Both expressions have possessive forms.

*They'll sit for hours looking into **each other's / one another's** eyes.* ▸

4 *-selves* and *each other / one another*

Note the difference between *-selves* and *each other / one another*. Compare:

*John and Mary are strange: they talk to **themselves** a lot.* (John talks to John; Mary talks to Mary.)

*Susan and Peter talk to **each other** on the phone every day.* (Susan talks to Peter; Peter talks to Susan.)

5 words used without *each other / one another*

We do not normally use *each other / one another* after words like *meet* or *marry*, where the verb itself makes the meaning clear.

*They met in 1992 and **married** in 1994.*

172 east and eastern, north and northern etc

1 adjectives: the difference

We often prefer *eastern, northern* etc when we are talking about vague, indefinite or larger areas, and *east, north* etc for more clearly defined places (e.g. the names of countries or states). Compare:

- *the **northern** part of the country*
  *the **north** side of the house*
- *the **southern** counties of Britain*
  *the **south** coast*
- *southern Africa* (an area)
  South Africa (a country)
- *the **northern** United States*
  North Carolina

However, place names do not always follow this rule. Note the following:

Northern Ireland *North/East/West Africa* *North/South America*
East/South etc *Asia* BUT: *Western/Eastern* etc *Europe*
South Australia BUT: *Western Australia; the Northern Territory*
the North/South Atlantic/Pacific
the Northern/Southern hemisphere

2 'belonging to'

We use *eastern, northern* etc to mean 'belonging to' or 'typical of'.

a southern accent *a group of northern poets*

3 capital letters

Capital letters are used at the beginning of *East, Eastern, North, Northern* etc when these come in official or well-established place names.

North Carolina *Western Australia* *the Far East*
unemployment in the North (place name meaning 'the North of England')

In other cases, adjectives, nouns and adverbs begin with small letters.

We spent the winter in southern California.
I live in north London. *There's a strong north wind.*
The sun rises in the east. *By sunrise we were driving south.*

4 prepositions

Note the difference between *in the east* etc *of* ... and *to the east* etc *of* ...

*I live **in the east of** Scotland.*
*Denmark is about 500 km **to the east of** Scotland.*

173 efficient and effective

If somebody/something is *efficient*, he/she/it works in a well-organised way without wasting time or energy.

*He's not very **efficient**: he keeps filing letters in the wrong place, he works very slowly, and he keeps forgetting things.*

*The postal service is even less **efficient** than the telephone system.*

If something is *effective*, it has the right effect: it solves a problem or gets a result.

*My headache's much better. Those tablets really are **effective**.*

*I think a wide black belt would look very **effective** with that dress.*

174 either: determiner

1 *either* + singular

We use *either* with a singular noun to mean 'one or the other' of two.

*Come on Tuesday or Thursday. **Either day** is OK.* (NOT ~~*Either days*~~...)

*She didn't get on with **either parent**.* (NOT ...~~*either parents*~~)

2 *either of*

We use *either of* before a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154) or a pronoun. A following noun is plural.

*You can use **either of the bathrooms**.*

*I don't like **either of my maths teachers**.*

*I don't like **either of them**.*

A verb after *either of* is more often singular, but it can sometimes be plural in an informal style.

*Either of the children **is** perfectly capable of looking after the baby.*

*She just doesn't care what either of her parents **say(s)**.*

3 without a noun

We can use *either* alone if the meaning is clear.

*Would you like tea or coffee? ~ I don't mind. **Either**.*

4 pronouns

When a pronoun is used later in a clause to refer back to ***either*** + **noun/pronoun**, the later pronoun can be singular (more formal) or plural (more informal).

*If either of the boys phones, tell **him/them** I'll be in this evening.*

5 *either side/end*

In these expressions, *either* sometimes means 'each'.

*There are roses on **either side** of the door.*

6 pronunciation

Either is pronounced /ˈaɪðə(r)/ or /ˈiːðə(r)/ (in American English usually /ˈiːðər/).

For *either ... or*, see 175.
For *not ... either, neither* and *nor*, see 374.

175 either ... or

We use *either ... or* to talk about a choice between two possibilities (and sometimes more than two).

*I don't speak **either** French **or** German.*
*You can **either** come with me now **or** walk home.*
*If you want ice-cream there's **either** raspberry, lemon **or** vanilla.*

We often balance this structure, so that the same kind of words or expressions follow *either* and *or*.

*You can have **either** tea **or** coffee.* (nouns)
*He's **either** in London **or** in New York.* (prepositional expressions)
*Either you'll leave this house **or** I'll call the police.* (clauses)

However, unbalanced sentences with *either ... or* are common. Some people prefer to avoid them.

*You can **either** have tea **or** coffee.*
*He's **either** in London **or** New York.*
*You'll **either** leave this house **or** I'll call the police.*

For *either* as a determiner, see 174.
For pronunciation, see 174.5.
For *not ... either, neither* and *nor*, see 374.

176 elder and eldest

Elder and *eldest* can be used instead of *older* and *oldest* to talk about the order of birth of the members of a family. They are only used attributively (before nouns). Compare:

- *My **elder**/**older** brother has just got married.*
  *He's three years **older** than me.* (NOT ... ~~*elder than me.*~~)
- *His **eldest**/**oldest** daughter is a medical student.*
  *She's the **oldest** student in her year.*

Elder brother/sister are used when a person has only one brother/sister who is older; *eldest* is used when there are more. An *elder son/daughter* is the older of two; an *eldest son/daughter* is the oldest of two or more.

177 ellipsis (1): introduction

We often leave out words to avoid repetition, or in other cases when the meaning can be understood without them. This is called 'ellipsis'.

1 replies

In replies we usually avoid repeating information that has just been given.

What time are you coming? ~ ***About ten.*** (More natural than *I'm coming about ten.*)
Who said that? ~ ***John.*** (More natural than *John said that.*)
How many chairs do you need? ~ ***Three.*** (More natural than *I need three chairs.*)
She's out this evening? ~ ***Yes, working.*** (More natural than *Yes, she's working this evening.*)

2 structures with *and, but* and *or*

Repeated words are often dropped in co-ordinate structures (see 178).

*a knife **and** fork (= a knife and a fork)*

*She was poor **but** honest.* (= ... but she was honest.)

3 at the beginning of a sentence

In informal speech, unstressed words are often dropped at the beginning of a sentence, if the meaning is clear. For details, see 179.

Seen Lucy? (= Have you seen Lucy?)

Doesn't know what she's talking about. (= She doesn't ...)

4 at the end of a noun phrase

It is sometimes possible to drop nouns after adjectives, noun modifiers and/or determiners. For details, see 180.

*Do you want large eggs? ~ No, I'll have **small**.* (= ... small eggs.)

*My car isn't working. I'll have to use **Mary's**.* (= ... Mary's car.)

*We're going to hear the **London Philharmonic** tonight.* (= ... the London Philharmonic Orchestra.)

*Which shoes are you going to wear? ~ **These**.* (= These shoes.)

5 at the end of a verb phrase

Auxiliary verbs are often used alone instead of full verbs. For details, see 181.

*I haven't paid. ~ I **haven't** either.* (= ... I haven't paid either.)

*She said she'd phone, but she **didn't**.* (= ... didn't phone.)

This type of ellipsis can include words that follow the verb phrase.

*I was planning to go to Paris next week, but I **can't**.*
(= ... I can't go to Paris next week.)

The same structures are possible with non-auxiliary *be* and *have*.

*I thought she would be angry, and she **was**.*

*He says he hasn't any friends, but I know he **has**.*

6 infinitives

We can use *to* instead of repeating a whole infinitive. For details, see 182.

*Are you and Gillian getting married? ~ We hope **to**.*
(= We hope to get married.)

*I don't dance much now, but I used **to** a lot.*

Sometimes a whole infinitive, including *to*, is left out.

*Come when you **want**.* (= ... when you want to come.)

*Have a good time. ~ I'll **try**.* (= I'll try to have a good time.)

7 comparative structures with *as* and *than*

We can leave out words after *as* and *than*, if the meaning is clear.

*The weather isn't as good **as last year**.* (= ... as it was last year.)

*I found more blackberries **than you**.* (= ... than you found.)

For missing subject or object after *as* and *than* (e.g. *as was expected*), see 581. ▶

8 question-word clauses

Clauses can be dropped after question words.

Somebody's been stealing our flowers, but I don't know ***who.***
(= ... I don't know who's been stealing our flowers.)
Become a successful writer. This book shows you ***how.***

9 *that* and relative pronouns

In an informal style, the conjunction *that* is often dropped (see 584); object relative pronouns can also be dropped (see 495.4).

I knew ***(that)*** *she didn't want to help me.*
This is the restaurant ***(which)*** *I was talking about.*

10 reduced relative structures: *the tickets available* etc

We can sometimes leave out a relative pronoun and the verb *be* before participles or adjectives such as *available, possible.* For details, see 498.10.

Who's the girl ***dancing*** *with your brother?* (= ... who is dancing ...)
Please let me have all the tickets ***available.*** (= ... that are available.)

11 *be* after conjunctions

Subject pronouns with forms of *be* can be left out after certain conjunctions, especially in a formal style.

Start ***when ready.*** (= ... when you are ready.)
Though intelligent, *he was very poorly educated.*
(= Though he was intelligent ...)
When ordering, *please send £1.50 for postage and packing.*
Phone me if ***(it is) necessary.*** *He had a small heart attack* ***while asleep.***
I'm enclosing my cheque for £50, ***as agreed.*** *Leave in oven* ***until cooked.***

12 prepositions

In an informal style, prepositions can be dropped in a few time expressions (see 451).

See you ***(on)*** *Monday night.*
We're staying here ***(for)*** *another three months.*
What time shall I come? (More natural than *At what time ...?*)

For cases like *We need a place to live (in)*, see 431.

13 pronouns after prepositions

In British English, pronoun objects can sometimes be dropped after prepositions. This happens, for example, when *have* or *with* are used in descriptive structures.

My socks have got holes in (them).
I'd like a piece of toast with butter on (it).

14 abbreviated styles

In certain styles, many or all non-essential words can be dropped. For details, see 1.

Take 500g butter and place in small saucepan.
Single man looking for flat Oxford area.
WOMAN WALKS ON MOON

178 ellipsis (2): with and, but and or

1 various kinds of word left out

When expressions are joined by *and, but* or *or*, we often leave out repeated words or phrases of various kinds.

*a knife **and** (a) fork* — *antique (furniture) **or** modern furniture*
*these men **and** (these) women* — *in France, (in) Germany **or** (in) Spain*
*ripe apples **and** (ripe) pears* — *She can read, **but** (she) can't write.*
*The Minister likes golf **but** (the Minister) hates fishing.*
*We drove (across America), rode (across America), flew (across America) **and** walked across America.*
*She was poor **but** (she was) honest.*
*The food (is ready) **and** the drinks are ready.*
*Phil (washed the dishes) **and** Sally washed the dishes.*

We can sometimes drop a verb that is repeated in a different form.

*I have always **paid** my bills and I always will (**pay** . . .).*

2 word order

Note that when two verbs, objects etc are the same, it is not always the second that is left out. We may have to leave out the first to avoid confusion, or to produce a simpler word order and sentence structure.

Cats (catch mice) and dogs catch mice. (NOT ~~*Cats catch mice and dogs.*~~)
I can (go) and will go.

In informal speech and writing, ellipsis does not usually interrupt the normal word order of a clause or sentence. Sentences like the following are typical of a more formal style.

Peter planned and Jane paid for the holiday. (Less formal: *Peter planned the holiday and Jane paid for it.*)
Kevin likes dancing and Annie athletics. (Less formal: *Kevin likes dancing and Annie likes athletics.*)
The children will carry the small boxes and the adults the large ones.
Jane went to Greece and Alice to Rome.
You seem, and she certainly is, ill.

3 other conjunctions

Ellipsis is not normally possible after other conjunctions besides *and, but* and *or*.

*She didn't know where she was **when** she woke up.* (NOT . . . ~~*when woke up.*~~)

However, ellipsis of subject pronouns with forms of *be* is possible in some cases (e.g. *if possible, when arriving*). See 261.6, 73.4, 411.6.

4 *(and) then*

In an informal style, ellipsis is sometimes possible after *then*, even if *and* is dropped.

*Peter started first, (and) **then** Colin (started).*

For singular or plural verbs after expressions with *and* or *or*, see 532.2.
For singular and plural verbs with *neither . . . nor*, see 373.

179 ellipsis (3): at the beginning of a sentence

1 words that can be left out

In informal spoken English we often leave out unstressed words at the beginning of a sentence if the meaning is clear without them. Words that can be left out include articles (*the, a/an*), possessives (*my, your* etc), personal pronouns (*I, you* etc), auxiliary verbs (*am, have* etc) and the preparatory subject *there*.

Car's running badly. (= The car's . . .)
Wife's on holiday. (= My wife's . . .)
Couldn't understand a word. (= I couldn't . . .)
Must dash. (= I must dash.)
Won't work, you know. (= It won't work . . .)
Seen Joe? (= Have you seen Joe?)
Keeping well, I hope? (= You're keeping well . . .)
Nobody at home. (= There's nobody at home.)
Careful what you say. (= Be careful . . .)
Be four pounds fifty. (= That'll be . . .)

This structure is common in advertisements. Two real examples:

Thinking of postgraduate study? Call for a place now. (= Are you thinking . . .?)
Speak a foreign language? Speak it better. (= Do you speak . . .?)

2 unstressed forms of *be, will, would, have*

We do not usually drop words so as to begin sentences with unstressed forms of *be, will, would* or auxiliary *have* (though this sometimes happens in postcards, diary entries and other kinds of very informal writing).

I'm coming tomorrow. OR *Coming tomorrow.* (BUT NOT ~~*Am coming tomorrow*~~. *Am* is not stressed.)
I'll see you soon. OR *See you soon.* (BUT NOT ~~*Will see you soon*~~. *Will* is not stressed.)
Haven't seen him. (BUT NOT ~~*Have seen him*~~. *Have* is not stressed.)

3 before pronouns: *You ready?*

Auxiliary verbs can be left out before personal pronouns except *I* and *it*.

You ready? (= Are you ready?)
She want something? (= Does she want something?)
(BUT NOT ~~*I late? It raining?*~~)

4 *Dutch, aren't you?*

Ellipsis is very common in sentences that have some sort of tag (see 487–488, 514) on the end, especially in British English.

Can't swim, myself. *Like a cigar, I do.* *Dutch, aren't you?*
Getting in your way, am I? *Going on holiday, your kids?*

180 ellipsis (4): in noun phrases

1 ellipsis after adjectives: *boiled, please*

A repeated noun can sometimes be dropped after an adjective, if the meaning is clear, especially when one is talking about common kinds of choice.

What kind of potatoes would you like? ~ ***Boiled** (potatoes), please.*
*We haven't got any large eggs. Only **small** (eggs).*

This often happens after superlatives.

*I think I'll buy the **cheapest**.*

Note that nouns are not normally dropped in other situations.

*Poor little **boy**!* (NOT ~~*Poor little!*~~)
*The most important **thing** is to keep calm.* (NOT ~~*The most important is to*~~ . . .)

For other structures in which adjectives are used without nouns, see 17.

2 ellipsis after *this*, numbers, possessives etc

Nouns can also be dropped after most determiners (see 154), if the meaning is clear.

*This is Helen's coat, and **that** (coat) is mine.*

This also happens after numbers, nouns with possessive *'s*, *own* and *(an)other*.

*I'm not sure how many packets I need, but I'll take **two** (packets) to start with.*
*Our train's the **second** (train) from this platform.*
You take Pete's car, and I'll take Susie's (car).
Can I borrow your pen? ~ *No, find your **own** (pen).*
That beer went down fast. ~ *Have **another** (beer).*

3 well-known names

The last words of well-known names are often dropped.

*She's playing the **Beethoven** with the **London Philharmonic** tomorrow night.* (= . . . the Beethoven violin concerto with the London Philharmonic Orchestra . . .)
*He's staying at the **Hilton**.* (= . . . the Hilton Hotel.)
*We're going to see 'Hamlet' at the **Mermaid**.* (= . . . the Mermaid Theatre.)

When we talk about people's houses and shops, the words *house* and *shop* are often dropped (see 439.4).

*We spent the weekend at **John and Mary's**.*
*Could you pick up some chops from the **butcher's**?*

181 ellipsis (5): after auxiliary verbs

1 auxiliary instead of complete verb phrase

We can avoid repetition by using an auxiliary verb instead of a complete verb phrase, if the meaning is clear. The auxiliary verb usually has a 'strong' pronunciation (see 616), and contractions (see 143) are not normally used except in negatives. ▸

Get up. ~ *I* ***am*** /æm/. (= I am getting up.)
He said he'd write, but he ***hasn't.*** (= ... hasn't written.)
I'll come and see you when I ***can.*** (= ... can come and see you.)
Shall I tell him what I think? ~ *I* ***wouldn't*** *if I were you.*

Do can be used before ellipsis if there is no other auxiliary to repeat.
I may come to London. I'll phone you if I ***do.***
He said he would arrive before seven, and he ***did.***

Other words, as well as the rest of the verb phrase, can be left out after the auxiliary.
I can't see you today, but I ***can*** *tomorrow.* (= ... I can see you ...)
I've forgotten the address. ~ *I* ***have*** *too.*
You're not trying very hard. ~ *I* ***am.***
You wouldn't have won if I hadn't helped you. ~ *Yes, I* ***would.***

This also happens after non-auxiliary *be* and *have.*
I'm tired. ~ *I* ***am*** *too.* *Who's the driver?* ~ *I* ***am.***
Who has a dictionary? ~ *I* ***have.***

2 short answers etc: *Yes, I have.*

Ellipsis is used regularly in short answers (see 517), reply questions (see 484) and question tags (see 487-488).
Have you finished? ~ *Yes, I* ***have.***
I can whistle through my fingers. ~ *Can you, dear?*
You don't want to buy a car, ***do*** *you?*

3 *so am I* etc

Ellipsis also happens after *so* (see 541), *neither* and *nor* (see 374). Note the word order.
I've forgotten the address. ~ *So* ***have*** *I.*
She doesn't like olives, and neither ***do*** *I.*

4 ellipsis before complete form

Ellipsis normally happens when an expression is used for a second time, after the complete form has already been used once (see above examples). However, it can sometimes happen the other way round. This is common in sentences beginning with *if.*
If you ***can,*** *send me a postcard when you arrive.*
If you ***could,*** *I'd like you to help me this evening.*
If you ***prefer,*** *we can go tomorrow instead.*

5 more than one auxiliary

When there is more than one auxiliary, ellipsis usually happens after the first.
You wouldn't have enjoyed the film. ~ *Yes, I* ***would.*** (= ... I would have enjoyed the film.)

However, more auxiliaries can be included. The first is stressed.
Could you have been dreaming? ~ *I suppose I* ***could*** / ***COULD*** ***have*** / ***COULD*** ***have been.***

We often include a second auxiliary verb if it has not appeared before in the same form.
I think Mary should ***be*** *told.* ~ *She* ***has been.*** (More natural than ... *She has.*)

And we normally include a second auxiliary verb after a change of modal auxiliary.

Mary should be told. ~ *She must be.* (More natural than ... *She must.*)

6 substitution with *do*

In British English, a main verb that is left out after an auxiliary can be replaced by *do*. For details, see 161.

Do you think he'll phone? ~ *He might do.* (AmE ... *He might.*)

For *do so*, see 162.

182 ellipsis (6): infinitives

1 *to* used instead of whole infinitive

We can use *to* instead of the whole infinitive of a repeated verb (and following words), if the meaning is clear.

Are you and Gillian getting married? ~ *We hope to.*
Let's go for a walk. ~ *I don't want to.*
I don't dance much now, but I used to a lot.
Sorry I shouted at you. I didn't mean to.
Somebody ought to clean up the bathroom. ~ *I'll ask John to.*

Be and *have* (used for possession) are not usually dropped.

There are more flowers than there used to be. (NOT ... ~~*than there used to.*~~)
She hasn't been promoted yet, but she ought to be. (NOT ... ~~*but she ought to.*~~)
You've got more freckles than you used to have. (NOT ~~*You've got more freckles than you used to.*~~)

2 ellipsis of whole infinitive

In some cases the whole infinitive can be left out. This happens after nouns and adjectives.

He'll never leave home; he hasn't got the courage (to).
You can't force him to leave home if he's not ready (to).

It also happens after verbs which can stand alone without a following infinitive.

Can you start the car? ~ *I'll try (to).*

3 *(would) like, want* etc

We cannot usually leave out *to* after *would like/love/hate/prefer, want* and *choose.*

Are you interested in going to University? ~ *I'd like to.* (NOT ... ~~*I'd like.*~~)
My parents encouraged me to study art, but I didn't want to. (NOT ... ~~*I didn't want.*~~)

However, *to* is often dropped after *want*, and almost always after *like*, when these are used after certain conjunctions – for instance *when, if, what, as.*

Come when you want (to).
I'll do what I like. *Stay as long as you like.*

183 else

1 use

We use *else* to mean 'other' after:
somebody, someone, something, somewhere; anybody, everybody, nobody etc; question words; *whatever, whenever* etc; *little, much.*

*Would you like **anything else**?*
*I'm sorry. I mistook you for **somebody else**.*
*Where **else** did you go besides Madrid?*
*Whatever **else** he may be, he's not a mathematician.*
*We know when Shakespeare was born and when he died, but we don't know **much else** about his life.*

In a formal style, *else* is sometimes used after *all.*

*When **all else** fails, read the instructions.*

2 word order

Note that *else* comes immediately after the word it modifies.

*What **else** would you like?* (NOT ~~*What would you like else?*~~)

3 *else's*

Else has a possessive *else's.*

*You're wearing somebody **else's** coat.*

4 singular only

There is no plural structure with *else.*

*I didn't see **any other** people.* (NOT . . . ~~*any else people.*~~)

5 *or else*

Or else means 'otherwise', 'if not'.

*Let's go, **or else** we'll miss the train.*

Or else is sometimes used with no continuation, as a threat.

*You'd better stop hitting my little brother, **or else**!*

6 *elsewhere*

This is a formal word for *somewhere else.*

*If you are not satisfied with my hospitality, go **elsewhere**.*

184 emphasis

1 emotive and contrastive emphasis

We often emphasise ('strengthen') a particular word or expression. There are two main reasons for this. We may wish to show that we feel strongly about what we are saying ('emotive emphasis').

*You **do** look nice today!*
*Your hair looks **so** good like that.*

Or we may wish to show a contrast between, for example, true and false, or present and past, or a rule and an exception ('contrastive emphasis').

Why weren't you at the meeting? ~ I was at the meeting.
*I don't do much sport now, but I **did** play football when I was younger.*
*I don't see my family much, but I **do** visit my mother occasionally.*

We can also use emphasis to show that something expected actually happened.

*I thought I'd pass the exam, and I **did** pass.*

2 pronunciation: stress

In speech, we can give words extra stress – make them sound 'stronger' – by pronouncing them louder and with a higher intonation (see 554). We may also make the vowel longer, and pause before a stressed word. Stress is reflected in printing by using *italics* or **bold type**, and in writing by using CAPITAL LETTERS or by underlining.

This is the *last* opportunity.
He lived in **France**, not Spain.
Mary, I'm IN LOVE! Please don't tell anybody!

Changes in stress can affect the meaning of a sentence. Compare:

Jane phoned me yesterday. (Not somebody else.)
*Jane **phoned** me yesterday.* (She didn't come to see me.)
*Jane phoned **me** yesterday.* (She didn't phone you.)
*Jane phoned me **yesterday**.* (Not today.)

We often stress auxiliary verbs. This can make the whole sentence sound more emphatic, or can emphasise a contrast (see above). Most auxiliary verbs change their pronunciation when they are stressed (see 616).

*You **have** grown!*
*I **am** telling the truth – you **must** believe me!*

In emphatic sentences without auxiliary verbs we add *do* to carry stress.

Do sit down. *She **does** like you.*
*If he **does** decide to come, let me know, will you?*

With stressed auxiliary verbs, word order can change (see 24.9). Compare:

You have certainly grown. *You **certainly** have grown!*

3 vocabulary: special words

Words such as *so, such, really* and *just* can show emphasis.

*Thank you **so** much. It was **such** a lovely party. I **really** enjoyed it.*
I just LOVE the way she talks. (Note: *love* is stressed, not *just*.)

Swearwords (see 575) are often used for emphasis in an informal style.

*That's a **bloody** good idea.*

Question words can be emphasised by adding *ever* (see 624), *on earth* or *the hell* (very informal).

*Why **ever** did he marry her?*
*What **on earth** is she doing here?* *Where **the hell** have you been?*

4 structures

If we can move words to an unusual position, this usually gives them more importance. Words are often 'fronted' for this reason (see 513).

That film – what did you think of it? *Asleep, then, were you?*
I knew he was going to cause trouble, and cause trouble he did! ▸

'Cleft' structures with *it, what* etc can be used to focus on particular parts of a sentence and give them extra importance (see 130–131).

It was John who paid for the drinks.
What I need is a good rest.

Do can be used to emphasise an affirmative verb (see above).

*She **does seem** to be trying.* *Do come in.*

Myself, yourself etc can be used to emphasise nouns (see 493).

*I got a letter from the Managing Director **himself**.*

Indeed can be used to emphasise *very* with an adjective or adverb (see 273).

*I was very surprised **indeed**.*

Very can emphasise superlatives, *next, last, first* and *same* (see 140.4).

*I'd like a bottle of your **very best** wine.*
*The letter arrived on the **very next** day.*
*We were born in the **very same** street in the **very same** year.*

Repetition can be used for emphasis (see 500.7).

*She looks **much, much** older than she used to.*

185 end and finish: verbs

1 both used

These verbs have similar meanings, and are often both possible.

*What time does the concert **end/finish**?*
*Term **ends/finishes** on June 23.*

2 completing an activity

When we talk about completing something that we are doing, we usually prefer *finish*.

*She's always starting something new, but she never **finishes** anything.*
*You'll never **finish** that hamburger – it's too big for you.*
*Are you still writing letters?~No, I've **finished**.*

3 changes

End is more common when there is an important change.

*I decided it was time to **end** our affair.*
*It's time to **end** the uncertainty – the Prime Minister must speak out.*
*The Second World War **ended** in 1945.*

We also prefer *end* to talk about a special way of bringing something to a close or 'shaping' the end of something.

*How do you **end** a letter to somebody you don't know?*
*The ceremony **ended** with a speech from the President.*

End is often used to talk about physical shapes.

*The road **ended** in a building site.* (NOT ~~*The road finished*~~...)
*Nouns that **end** in -s have plurals in -es.*

4 *-ing* forms

Finish, but not *end*, can be followed by an *-ing* form (see 296).

*I **finished** teaching at 3.00.* (NOT ~~*I ended teaching*~~...)

186 enjoy

Enjoy normally has an object.

*Did you **enjoy the party?** ~ Yes, I **enjoyed it** very much.* (NOT ~~*I enjoyed very much.*~~)

To talk about having a good time, we can use *enjoy myself/yourself* etc.

*I really **enjoyed myself** when I went to Rome.*

*We're going to Paris for the weekend. ~ **Enjoy yourselves!***

('*Enjoy!*' with no object is possible, especially in informal AmE.)

Enjoy can be followed by *-ing*.

*I don't **enjoy looking** after small children.* (NOT ... ~~*enjoy to look*~~ ...)

187 enough

1 adjective/adverb + *enough*

Enough usually follows adjectives and adverbs.

*Is it **warm enough** for you?* (NOT ... ~~*enough warm*~~ ...)

*You're not driving **fast enough**.*

2 *enough* + noun

Enough can also be used before a noun as a determiner.

*Have you got **enough milk**?* *There aren't **enough glasses**.*

Enough is occasionally used after a noun, but this is rare in modern English except in a few expressions.

*If only we had **time enough** ...*

*I was **fool enough** to believe him.*

3 position with adjective + noun

When *enough* modifies an adjective and noun together, it comes before the adjective. Compare:

*We haven't got **enough big** nails.*

(= We need more big nails – *enough* modifies *big nails*.)

*We haven't got **big enough** nails.*

(= We need bigger nails – *enough* modifies *big*.)

4 *enough* or *enough of*?

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this, that*) and pronouns, we use *enough of*. Compare:

– *I don't know **enough** French to read this.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of French*~~ ...)
  *I don't understand **enough of the** words in the letter.*

– *We haven't got **enough** blue paint.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of blue paint.*~~)
  *We haven't got **enough of that** blue paint.*

– *You didn't buy **enough** cards.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of cards*~~)
  *You didn't buy **enough of them**.*

Note the idiomatic structure *I've had enough of* ... .This can be followed by a noun without a determiner.

*I've had **enough** of mathematics; I'm going to give it up.*

*She's had **enough** of England; she's going back home.* ▸

5 *enough* without a noun

Enough can be used alone without a noun to refer to an amount, if the meaning is clear.

*Half a pound of carrots will be **enough**.*
*That's **enough**, thank you.*
*Enough is **enough**.*
BUT NOT ~~*The meat is enough*~~.
(The meat is not an amount.)

6 *enough* + infinitive; structure with *for*

We can use an infinitive structure after *enough*.

*She's old enough **to do** what she wants.*
*I haven't got enough money **to buy** a car.*

Infinitives can be introduced by *for* + noun/pronoun.

*It's late enough **for the staff** to stop work.*
*There was just enough light **for us** to see what we were doing.*

7 *It's small enough to put in your pocket*, etc

The subject of the sentence can be the object of the following infinitive. (For more about this structure, see 284.4.) Object pronouns are not normally used after the infinitive in this case.

The radio's small enough to put in your pocket.
(NOT ... ~~*to put it in your pocket.*~~)
Those tomatoes aren't ripe enough to eat. (NOT ... ~~*to eat them.*~~)

However, object pronouns are possible in structures with *for*.

*The radio was small enough **for me** to put (it) in my pocket.*
*Those tomatoes aren't ripe enough **for the children** to eat (them).*

For other examples of *for* + object + infinitive, see 291.
For similar structures with *too* and *too much/many*, see 595–596.

8 *the* = *enough*; leaving out *enough*

The article *the* can be used to mean 'enough'.

*I hardly had **the** strength to take my clothes off.*
*I didn't quite have **the** money to pay for a meal.*

Time and *room* are often used to mean 'enough time' and 'enough room'.

*Have you got **time** to look at this letter?*
*There isn't **room** for everybody to sit down.*

188 especial(ly) and special(ly)

1 *especially* and *specially*

Especially and *specially* can often both be used with the same meaning.

*It was not (e)**specially** cold.*

2 *especially* meaning 'above all'

Especially is often used to mean 'above all'.

*We play a lot of tennis, **especially** on Sundays.*

*The children are very noisy, **especially** when we have visitors.*
*I like all kinds of fruit, **especially** apples.*

Especially follows a subject.

*All my family like music. **My father, especially,** goes to as many concerts as he can.* (NOT ... ~~*Especially my father goes*~~ ...)

3 *especially* before prepositions and conjunctions

We prefer *especially* before prepositions and conjunctions.

*We go skiing quite a lot, **especially in** February.*
*I drink a lot of coffee, **especially when** I'm working.*

4 *specially* with past participles

Specially is used with a past participle to mean 'for a particular purpose'.

*These shoes were **specially made** for me.*
*The song was **specially written** for his birthday.*

5 *especial* and *special*

The adjective *especial* is rare. We normally use *special*.

*He took **special** trouble over his work.*

189 even

1 meaning

Even suggests the idea of a surprising extreme: 'more than we expect'; *not even* suggests 'less than we expect'.

*She's rude to everybody. She's **even** rude to the police.*
*He can't **even** write his own name.*

2 position

Even most often goes with the verb, in mid-position (see 24).

*She has broken all her toys. She **has even broken** her bike.* (NOT ~~*Even she has broken*~~ ...)
*He speaks lots of languages. He **even speaks** Esperanto.*
*They're open every day. They're **even open** on Christmas Day.*

Even goes at the beginning of a clause when it refers just to the subject; and it can go just before other words and expressions that we want to emphasise.

*Anybody can do this. **Even a child** can do it.*
*I work every day, **even on Sundays**.*
*I haven't written to anybody for months – **not even my parents**.*

3 *even* and *also*

Also (see 46) is not used to talk about surprising extremes.

*Everybody helped with the packing – **even the dog**.* (NOT ... ~~*also the dog*~~.)

4 *even if* and *even though*

Even is not used as a conjunction, but we can use *even* before *if* and *though*.

***Even if** I become a millionaire, I shall always be a socialist.* (NOT ... ~~*Even I become*~~ ...)
***Even though** I didn't know anybody at the party, I had a nice time.* (NOT ~~*Even although*~~ ...)

▸

I wouldn't marry you even if you were the last man in the world.
We sometimes use *if* to mean *even if*
I'll do it if it kills me. (= ... even if it kills me.)

5 *even so; even now*

Even so means 'however', 'in spite of that'.
He seems nice. Even so, I don't really trust him. (NOT ... ~~*Even though, I don't really trust him.*~~)
Even now can mean 'in spite of everything that has happened'.
He left her ten years ago, but even now she still loves him.

190 eventual(ly)

Eventual and *eventually* mean 'final(ly)', 'in the end', 'after all that'. We use them to say that something happens after a long time or a lot of effort.
The chess game lasted for three days. Androv was the eventual winner.
The car didn't want to start, but eventually I got it going.
We use *at last* (see 204), not *eventually*, to give news.
Steve has found a job at last! (NOT ~~*Steve has eventually found a job!*~~)
Eventual and *eventually* are 'false friends' for people who speak some languages. They do not mean the same as, for instance, French *éventuel* or *éventuellement*, and are not used to express the idea of possibility. For this meaning we use *possible, perhaps, if, may, might* etc.
In our new house I'd like to have a spare bedroom for possible visitors.
(NOT ... ~~*eventual visitors.*~~)
I'm not sure what I'll do next year. I might go to America if I can find a job.
(NOT ... ~~*Eventually I'll go to America*~~ ...)

191 ever

1 *ever* meaning 'at any time'

Ever is a 'non-affirmative word' (see 381). It is used especially in questions to mean 'at any time'. Compare:
Do you ever go to Ireland on holiday? (= at any time)
We always go to Ireland on holiday. (= every time)
We never have holidays in England. (= at no time)
Ever is possible in negative clauses, but *never* is more usual than *not ever*.
I don't ever want to see you again. (OR *I never want* ...)
We also use *ever* after *if*, and with words that express a negative idea (like *nobody, hardly* or *stop*).
Come and see us if you are ever in Manchester.
Nobody ever visits them. *I hardly ever see my sister.*
I'm going to stop her ever doing that again.

2 with comparatives, superlatives, *as* and *only*

Ever is used in affirmative clauses in comparisons and with *only*.
You're looking lovelier than ever.
What is the best book you've ever read?

It's the largest picture ever painted.
He's as charming as ever.
She's the only woman ever to have climbed Everest in winter.

3 *ever* + perfect

Ever is often used with perfect tenses (see 455, 423) to mean 'at any time up to now/then'.

Have you ever been to Greece?
Had you ever thought of getting married before you met June?

4 *ever* and *before; ever before*

Ever and *before* can both be used to mean 'at any time in the past', but there is a difference. *Before* (or *ever before*) refers to a present event, and asks whether it has happened at another time.

Have you (ever) been to Scotland before? (The hearer is probably in Scotland.)

Ever (without *before*) does not refer to a present event.

Have you ever been to Africa? (The hearer is not in Africa.)

5 *ever* meaning 'always'

Ever is not normally used to mean 'always'.

I shall always remember you. (NOT ~~*I shall ever remember you.*~~)

But *ever* is sometimes used to mean 'always' in compound expressions with adjectives and participles.

his ever-open mouth — *an ever-increasing debt*
evergreen trees — *his ever-loving wife*

Ever also means 'always' in *forever* (or *for ever*) and *ever since,* and in a few other expressions like *ever after* and *Yours ever* (used at the end of letters).

I shall love you forever. — *I've loved you ever since I met you.*

For *who ever, what ever* etc, see 624.
For *whoever, whatever* etc, see 625.
For *forever* with progressive forms, see 472.

192 ever so, ever such

These expressions are often used in informal British English to mean 'very'.

She's ever so nice. — *It's ever such a good film.*

For the difference between *so* and *such*, see 569.

193 every (one)

1 *every* + singular

Every is a determiner (see 154). We normally use it before a singular noun (but see paragraph 6). If the noun is a subject, its verb is also singular.

every + singular noun (+ singular verb)

I see her every day. (NOT ... ~~*every days.*~~)
Every room is being used. (NOT ~~*Every room are*~~ ...)

2 *every one of*

We use *every one of* before a pronoun or a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154). The pronoun or noun is plural, but a following verb is singular.

every one of us/you/them (+ singular verb)
every one of + determiner + plural noun (+ singular verb)

His books are wonderful. I've read every one of them.
Every one of the children was crying.

3 *every one* without a noun

We can drop a noun and use *every one* alone, if the meaning is clear.
His books are great. Every one's worth reading.

4 negative structures

To negate *every*, we normally use *not every*.
Not every kind of bird can fly.
(More natural than *Every kind of bird cannot fly.*)

5 pronouns and possessives

When a pronoun or possessive is used later in a clause to refer back to *every (one)*, the later word can usually be either singular (more formal) or plural (less formal).

Every person made his/her own travel arrangements.
Every person made their own travel arrangements.
I told every single student what I thought of him/her/them.

But if we are talking about something that concerns every member of a group at the same time, a plural word is necessary.

When every passenger's ticket had been checked, the door opened and they all got on. (NOT ... ~~*and he/she all got on.*~~)

6 *every* + plural noun

Every is used before a plural noun in expressions that refer to intervals.
I see her every few days. *There's a meeting every six weeks.*
She had to stop and rest every two or three steps.

7 *everybody* etc

Everybody, everyone, everything and *everywhere* are used with singular verbs, like *every*.

Everybody has gone home. (NOT ~~*Everybody have*~~ ...)
Everything I like is either illegal, immoral or fattening.
I found that everywhere was booked up.

When possessives and pronouns refer back to *everybody/one*, they can usually be either singular (more formal) or plural (less formal). Sometimes only a plural word makes sense. Compare:

Has everybody got his or her ticket? (more formal)
Has everybody got their tickets? (less formal)
When everybody had finished eating, the waiters took away their plates.
(NOT ... ~~*his or her plate.*~~)

Note that *everyone* (= 'everybody') does not mean the same as *every one* (which can refer to things as well as people – see paragraph 2 above).

8 *everyday*

Everyday is an adjective meaning 'ordinary', 'usual', 'routine'. It is not the same as the adverbial expression *every day*. Compare:

In everyday life, you don't often find an elephant in a supermarket.
You don't see elephants every day.

9 common expressions

Note the following common expressions with *every*.

every single
She visits her mother every single day.
every other
We meet every other Tuesday. (= ... every second Tuesday.)
every so often; *every now and then*
We go out for a drink together every so often / every now and then.

For the difference between *every* and *each*, see 170.
For *every* and *all*, see 39. For *every* and *any*, see 56.
For more information about *everybody/everyone*, see 548.

194 except and except for

1 *except for* before nouns

We generally use *except for* before noun phrases.

I've cleaned the house except for the bathroom.
The garden was empty except for one small bird.

2 *except (for)* after *all, any* etc

After generalising words like *all, any, every, no, everything, anybody, nowhere, nobody, whole*, we often leave out *for*.

I've cleaned all the rooms except (for) the bathroom.
He ate everything on his plate except (for) the beans.
Nobody came except (for) John and Mary.

But this does not happen before *all*, etc.

Except for John and Mary, nobody came. (NOT ~~*Except John and Mary, nobody came.*~~)

3 *except* before prepositions and conjunctions

We use *except*, not *except for*, before prepositions and conjunctions.

It's the same everywhere except in Scotland.
(NOT ... ~~*except for in Scotland.*~~)
He's good-looking except when he smiles.
This room is no use except as a storeroom.
The holiday was nice except that there wasn't enough snow.

4 *except (for)* + pronoun

After *except (for)* we use object pronouns, not subject pronouns.

Everybody understood except (for) me. (NOT ... ~~*except I.*~~)
We're all ready except (for) her. ▸

5 *except* + verb: *he does nothing except eat*

A common structure is *do* ... *except* + infinitive without *to*.

He does nothing except eat all day.
I'll do everything for you except cook.

In other cases an *-ing* form is usually necessary.

She's not interested in anything except skiing.
You needn't worry about anything except having a great time.

6 *except* and *without*

Except (for) is only used to talk about exceptions to generalisations. In other cases, *without* or *but for* may be better. Compare:

Nobody helped me except you.
Without / But for your help, I would have failed.
(NOT ~~*Except for your help, I would have failed.*~~)

For the use of *but* to mean 'except', see 116.
For the difference between *except, besides* and *apart from*, see 102.

195 exclamations: structures

Exclamations are often constructed with *how* and *what* or with *so* and *such*; negative question forms are also common.

1 exclamations with *how*

These are often felt to be a little formal or old-fashioned.

how + adjective

Strawberries! How nice!

how + adjective/adverb + subject + verb

How cold it is! (NOT ~~*How it is cold!*~~)
How beautifully you sing! (NOT ~~*How you sing beautifully!*~~)

how + subject + verb

How you've grown!

For the structure of expressions like *How strange a remark*, see 14.

2 exclamations with *what*

what a/an (+ adjective) + singular countable noun

What a rude man! (NOT ~~*What rude man!*~~)
What a nice dress! (NOT ~~*What nice dress!*~~)
What a surprise!

what (+ adjective) + uncountable/plural noun

What beautiful weather! (NOT ~~*What a beautiful weather!*~~)
What lovely flowers!
What fools!

what + object + subject + verb (note word order)

What a beautiful smile your sister has! (NOT ... ~~*has your sister!*~~)

3 exclamations with *so* and *such*

so + adjective

*You're so **kind**!*

such a/an (+ adjective) + singular countable noun

*He's **such a** nice boy!* (NOT ... ~~*a such nice boy!*~~)

such (+ adjective) + uncountable/plural noun

*They talk **such** rubbish!* (NOT ... ~~*such a rubbish!*~~)
*They're **such** kind people!* (NOT ... ~~*so kind people!*~~)

For more information about *such* and *so*, see 569.

4 negative question forms

Isn't the weather nice! *Hasn't she grown!*
Americans and some British speakers may use ordinary (non-negative) question forms in exclamations.
*Boy, **am** I hungry!*
*Wow, **did** she make a mistake!*
Was I furious!

For more information about negative questions, see 368.

196 expect, hope, wait and look forward

1 *expect* and *hope*: difference of meaning

Expecting is mental rather than emotional. If I *expect* something to happen, I have a good reason to think it will in fact happen. *Hoping* is more emotional. If I *hope* for something to happen, I would like it to happen, but I do not know whether it will. Compare:
- *I'm **expecting** John to phone at three o'clock.*
  *I **hope** he's got some good news.*
- *Lucy's **expecting** a baby.* (= She's pregnant.)
  *She's **hoping** it will be a girl.*

One can *expect* good or bad things, but one only *hopes* for things that one wants.
*I **expect** it will rain at the weekend. But I **hope** it won't.*

2 *expect* and *wait*: difference of meaning

One *waits* when somebody or something is late, when one is early for something, or when one wants time to pass so that something will happen. *Waiting* is often physical – the word suggests, for example, standing or sitting somewhere until something happens.
Compare:
- *I'm **expecting** a phone call from John at three o'clock.* (NOT ~~*I'm waiting for a phone call from John at three o'clock.*~~)
  *I hope he rings on time. I hate **waiting** for people to phone.* (NOT ~~*I hate expecting people to phone.*~~) ▸

– *He **expects** to get a bike for his birthday.* (= He thinks he'll get one.)
*It's hard to **wait** for things when you're five years old.*
– *I **expected** her at ten, but she didn't turn up.*
*I **waited** for her till eleven, and then went home.*

Can't wait often expresses impatience.
*I **can't wait** for the holidays!*

When we say that we *expect* a person, this usually means that he/she is coming to our home, office etc. Compare:
*Come and see me this afternoon. I'll **expect** you at 4.00.*
Let's meet at the cinema. I'll be there at 6.00. (NOT ~~*I'll expect you at 6.00.*~~)

3 *look forward*: meaning

Look forward means 'think about (something in the future) with pleasure'. One *looks forward* to something that is certain to happen, and that one is glad about.
*He's **looking forward** to his birthday.*
*See you on Sunday. ~ I **look forward** to it.*

4 all four expressions compared

Compare:
*I **expect** to hear from her.* (= I'm pretty sure I'll get a letter from her.)
*I **hope** to hear from her.* (= I'm not sure whether she'll write, but I would like her to.)
*I'm **waiting** to hear from her.* (= I need her letter to come; perhaps it's late.)
*I **look forward** to hearing from her.* (= I feel pleasure at the thought that I will hear from her.)

5 structures

a + object: *expect, hope for, wait for, look forward to*

Compare:
*We're **expecting** rain soon.*
*We're **hoping for** a lot of rain – the garden's very dry.*
*We've been **waiting for** rain for weeks.*
*I'm **looking forward to** the autumn.*

b + infinitive (with *to*): *expect/hope/wait*

*We **expect to** spend the summer in France.*
*We **hope to** see Annemarie while we're there.*
*But we're still **waiting to** hear from her.*
(BUT NOT ~~*I'm looking forward to see Annemarie.*~~)

Before an infinitive, simple and progressive forms of *hope* and *expect* can often be used with little difference of meaning.
*We **hope** / We're **hoping** to get to Scotland next weekend.*
*We **expect** / We're **expecting** to hear from Lucy today.*

c + object + infinitive: *expect, hope for, wait for*

I expect him to arrive about ten o'clock.
We're hoping for John to come up with some new ideas.
I'm still waiting for Harry to pay me back that money.

Expect is often used with object + infinitive to talk about people's duties.

We expect you to work on the first Saturday of every month.

Passive versions of the structure are also common.

Staff are expected to start work punctually at 8.30.

d + *-ing* form: *look forward to*

Look forward can be followed by *to* . . . *ing*, but not by an infinitive (see 298.2).

I look forward to meeting you. (NOT . . . ~~*to meet you.*~~)

I look forward to hearing from you. (common formula at the end of a letter)

Simple and progressive forms can often be used with little difference of meaning.

I look forward / I'm looking forward to the day when the children leave home.

e + *that*-clause: *expect, hope*

I expect (that) she'll be here soon. *I hope (that) I'll recognise her.*
(BUT NOT ~~*I'm waiting that she arrives.*~~)

Before a *that*-clause, progressive forms of *expect* are not normally used.

I expect (that) she'll be here soon. (NOT ~~*I'm expecting (that)*~~ . . .)

I expect (that) . . . can be used to talk about the present or past, with the meaning of 'I suppose', 'I have good reason to think'.

I expect you're all tired after your journey.
Sarah isn't here. I expect she was too tired to come.

Before a *that*-clause, simple and progressive forms of *hope* can often be used with little difference of meaning.

We hope / We're hoping you can come and stay with us soon.

Hope is often followed by a present tense with a future meaning (see 250).

I hope she doesn't miss the train.

f *expect something of somebody*

This structure refers to people's feelings about how other people ought to behave.

My parents expected too much of me when I was at school – they were terribly upset when I failed my exams.

For *hope* and *expect* in negative clauses, see 369.
For *not* and *so* after *hope* and *expect*, see 539.
For *and* after *wait*, see 53. For *wish*, see 630.

197 experiment and experience

An *experiment* is a test which somebody does to see what the result will be, or to prove something. *Experiment* is generally used with the verb *do*. There is also a verb *to experiment*.

We did an experiment in the chemistry lesson, to see if you could get chlorine gas from salt. (NOT ~~*We did an experience*~~ . . .) ▸

*I'm **experimenting** with a new perfume.*

An *experience* is something that you live through; something that happens to you in life. *Experience* is generally used with the verb *have*. There is also a verb *to experience*.

*I had a lot of interesting **experiences** during my year in Africa.* (NOT ~~*I made a lot of interesting experiences*~~...)

*Have you ever **experienced** the feeling that you were going mad?* (NOT ~~*Have you ever experimented the feeling*~~...?)

The uncountable noun *experience* means 'the knowledge that you get from doing things'.

*Sales person wanted – **experience** unnecessary.*

198 explain

After *explain*, we use *to* before an indirect object.

*I explained my problem **to her**.* (NOT ~~*I explained her my problem*~~.)

*Can you explain **to** me how to get to your house?* (NOT ~~*Can you explain me*~~...?)

199 fairly, quite, rather and pretty: adverbs of degree

1 *fairly*

Fairly generally modifies adjectives and adverbs. It does not suggest a very high degree: if you say that somebody is *fairly nice* or *fairly clever*, for example, he or she will not be very pleased.

*How was the film? ~ **Fairly** good. Not the best one I've seen this year.*

*I speak Russian **fairly** well – enough for everyday purposes.*

2 *quite*

Quite (especially in British English) suggests a higher degree than *fairly*.

*How was the film? ~ **Quite** good. You ought to go.*

*It's **quite** a difficult book – I had trouble with it.*

*He's lived in St Petersburg, so he speaks Russian **quite** well.*

Quite can modify verbs and nouns.

*I **quite** enjoyed myself at your party.* *The room was **quite** a mess.*

For word order rules, the use of *quite* to mean 'completely', and other details, see 489.

3 *rather*

Rather is stronger than *quite*. It can suggest 'more than is usual', 'more than was expected', 'more than was wanted', and similar ideas.

*How was the film? ~ **Rather** good – I was surprised.*

*Maurice speaks Russian **rather** well. People often think he is Russian.*

*I think I'll put the heating on. It's **rather** cold.*

*I've had **rather** a long day.*

Rather can modify verbs (especially verbs that refer to thoughts and feelings) and nouns.

*I **rather think** we're going to lose.* *She **rather likes** gardening.*
*It was **rather a disappointment**.*

For word order rules and other details of the use of *rather*, see 490.

4 *pretty*

Pretty (informal) is like *rather*, but only modifies adjectives and adverbs.

*How's things? ~ **Pretty** good. You OK?*
*You're driving **pretty** fast.*

Pretty well means 'almost'.

*I've **pretty well** finished.*

200 far and a long way

1 *far* in questions and negatives

Far is most common in questions and negative clauses.

*How **far** did you walk?* *The youth hostel is not **far** from here.*

In affirmative clauses we usually prefer *a long way*.

*We walked **a long way**.* (NOT ~~*We walked far*~~.)
*The station is **a long way** from here.*
(More natural than *The station is far from here.*)

2 *far* in affirmative clauses

However, *far* is normal in affirmative clauses with *too, enough, as* and *so*.

*She's gone **far enough**. ~ A bit **too far**.*
*It's ready **as far as** I know.*
*Any problems? ~ OK **so far**.*

3 *far* with comparatives etc

Far is also used (in all kinds of clauses) to modify comparatives, superlatives and *too*.

*She's **far older** than her husband.*
*This bike is **by far the best**.*
*You're **far too young** to get married.*

4 before a noun: *a far country*

Far can be used as an adjective before a noun, meaning 'distant'. This is rather formal and old-fashioned.

*Long ago, in a **far** country, there lived a woman who had seven sons.*

Much, many and *long* (for time) are also more common in questions and negative sentences (see 357 and 330).

201 farther and further

1 distance

We use both *farther* and *further* to talk about distance. They mean the same.
Edinburgh is farther/further away than York.

2 'additional'

Further (but not *farther*) can mean 'additional', 'extra', 'more advanced'.
For further information, see page 6. *College of Further Education*

202 feel

Feel has several different meanings. Progressive forms can be used with some meanings, but not with others. *Feel* can be a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun complement. It can also be an ordinary verb, followed by a direct object.

1 link verb: *I feel fine*

Feel can be used to talk about one's physical or mental sensations. Adjective or (in British English) noun complements are used.
I feel fine. *Do you feel happy?*
Andrew was beginning to feel cold.
When Louise realised what she had done, she felt a complete idiot. (BrE)
In this sense *feel* is not normally used with reflexive pronouns (*myself* etc).
He always felt inferior when he was with her.
(More natural than *He always felt himself inferior . . .*)
To talk about feelings that are going on at a particular moment, simple or progressive forms can be used. There is little difference of meaning.
I feel fine. / I'm feeling fine.
How do you feel? / How are you feeling?

2 link verb: *That feels nice!*

Feel can also be used to say that something causes sensations. Progressive forms are not used.
That feels nice! *The glass felt cold against my lips.*

3 link verb: *feel like; feel as if/though*

Feel can be followed by *like* or *as if/though*.
My legs feel like cotton wool.
Alice felt as if/though she was in a very nice dream.
(*Alice felt like she was . . .* is also possible – see 74.)

4 *feel like* meaning 'want'

Feel like can also mean 'want', 'would like'.
I feel like a drink. Have you got any beer?
In this sense, *feel like* is often followed by an *-ing* form.
I felt like laughing, but I didn't dare.

Compare:
I felt like swimming. (= I wanted to swim.)
I felt like / as if I was swimming. (= It seemed as if I was swimming.)

5 ordinary verb: reactions and opinions

Feel is often used to talk about reactions and opinions. Progressive forms are not usually used in this case.
I feel sure you're right. (NOT ~~*I'm feeling sure*~~...)
He says he feels doubtful about the new plan.
That-clauses are common.
I feel (that) she's making a mistake.
A structure with object + *to be* + complement is possible in a formal style, but it is not very often used.
I felt her to be unfriendly. (More normal: *I felt that she was unfriendly.*)
There is also a structure *feel it* (+ *to be*) + adjective/noun.
We felt it necessary to call the police.
I felt it (to be) my duty to call the police.

6 ordinary verb: 'receive physical sensations'

Feel can be used with a direct object to talk about the physical sensations that come to us through the sense of touch.
I suddenly felt an insect crawling up my leg.
Progressive forms are not used, but we often use *can feel* to talk about a sensation that is going on at a particular moment.
I can feel something biting me!

7 ordinary verb: 'touch'

Feel can also be used with a direct object to mean 'touch something to learn about it or experience it'. Progressive forms are possible.
Feel the photocopier. It's very hot.
What are you doing? ~ I'm feeling the shirts to see if they're dry.

203 female and feminine; male and masculine

Female and *male* refer to the sex of people, animals and plants.
A female fox is called a vixen. *A male duck is called a drake.*
Feminine and *masculine* are used for qualities and behaviour that are felt to be typical of men or women.
She has a very masculine laugh.
It was a very feminine bathroom.
Feminine and *masculine* are used for grammatical forms in some languages.
The word for 'moon' is feminine in French and masculine in German.

204 finally, at last, in the end and at the end

1 *finally*

Finally can suggest that one has been waiting a long time for something. In this sense, it often goes in mid-position (with the verb – see 24).

*After trying three times, she **finally** managed pass her exam.*
*Steve has **finally** found a job.*

Finally can also introduce the last element in a series, like *lastly* (see 157.10).

*We must increase productivity. We must reduce unemployment. And **finally**, we must compete in world markets.*

2 *at last*

At last also suggests – very strongly – the idea of impatience or inconvenience resulting from a long wait or delay.

*James has paid me that money **at last**.*
*When **at last** they found him he was almost dead.*

At last can be used as an exclamation. (*Finally* cannot be used in this way.)

At last! Where the hell have you been?

Note that *lastly* (introducing the last item in a series) is not the same as *at last*.

*Firstly, we need to increase profits. Secondly, ... Thirdly, ... And **lastly**, we need to cut down administrative expenses.* (NOT ... ~~*And at last we need to cut down*~~ ...)

3 *in the end*

In the end suggests that something happens after changes or uncertainty.

*We made eight different holiday plans, but **in the end** we went to Brighton.*
*I left in the middle of the film. Did they get married **in the end**?*
*The tax man will get you **in the end**.*

Another use of *in the end* is to mean 'after we have considered everything'.

***In the end**, you can't get fit without exercise.*
***In the end**, Mother knows best.*

4 *at the end*

At the end simply refers to the position of something. There is no sense of waiting or delay.

*A declarative sentence has a full stop **at the end**.*
*I wish I was paid at the beginning of the week and not **at the end**.*

For *eventually*, see 190.

205 finished

Finished can be used as an adjective meaning 'ready'.

*Is the report **finished** yet?*

With personal subjects, *to be finished* is often used in an informal style with the same meaning as *to have finished*.

*How soon will you **be/have finished**, dear?*
*I went to get the car from the garage, but they **weren't/hadn't finished**.*

206 fit and suit

These words do not mean exactly the same.
Fit refers to size and shape: if your clothes *fit* you, they are neither too big nor too small.

*These shoes don't **fit** me – have you got a larger size?*

Suit refers to style, colour etc.

*Red and black are colours that **suit** me very well.* (NOT ... ~~*colours that fit me very well.*~~)

*Do you think this style **suits** me?*

Suit can also be used to say whether arrangements are convenient.

*Tuesday would **suit** me very well for a meeting.*

207 for: purpose and cause

1 people's purposes: *I went for an interview*

For can be used to talk about somebody's purpose in doing something, but only when it is followed by a noun.

*We stopped at the pub **for a drink**.*

*I went to the college **for an interview** with Professor Taylor.*

For is not used before a verb in this sense. The infinitive alone is used to express a person's purpose (see 289).

*We stopped at the pub **to have** a drink.* (NOT ... ~~*for having a drink*~~ OR ~~*for to have a drink*~~)

*I went to the college **to see** Professor Taylor.* (NOT ... ~~*for seeing Professor Taylor.*~~)

2 the purposes of things: *-ing* forms and infinitives

For can be used before the *-ing* form of a verb to express the 'purpose' of a thing – what it is used for – especially when the thing is the subject.

*Is that cake **for eating** or just **for looking at**?*

*An altimeter is used **for measuring** height above sea level.*

When the clause has a person as subject, an infinitive is often used to express the purpose of a thing.

*We use altimeters **to measure** height above sea level.*

3 causes of reactions

For ...ing can also be used after a description of a positive or negative reaction, to explain the behaviour that caused it.

*We are grateful to you **for helping** us out.*

*I'm angry with you **for waking** me up.*

*They punished the child **for lying**.*

*He was sent to prison **for stealing**.*

208 for, since, in and from: time

1 *for*

We use *for* for duration – to say how long something lasts.

for + period of time

*I studied the guitar **for three years** at school.*
*That house has been empty **for six months**.*
*We go away **for three weeks** every summer.*
*My boss will be in Italy **for the next ten days**.*

To measure duration up to the present, we use a present perfect tense (see 460), not a present tense.

*I've **known** her for a long time.* (NOT ~~*I know her for a long time.*~~)
*We've **lived** here for 20 years.* (NOT ~~*We live here for 20 years.*~~)

A present tense with *for* refers to duration into the future. Compare:

*How long **are** you here for?* (= Until when ...?)
*How long **have** you **been** here for?* (= Since when ...?)

We can often leave out *for* in an informal style, especially with *How long ...?* And *for* is not usually used before *all*.

How long have you been waiting (for)?
We've been here (for) six weeks. *I've had a headache all day.*

2 *for* and *since* with perfect tenses: the difference

For and *since* can both be used with a present perfect to talk about duration up to the present. They are not the same. Compare:

for + period

*I've known her **for three days**.* (NOT ... ~~*since three days.*~~)
*It's been raining **for weeks**.*

since + starting point

*I've known her **since Tuesday**.*
*It's been raining **since the beginning of the month**.*

With a past perfect, *for* and *since* refer to duration up to a particular past moment.

*She'd been working there **for a long time**.* (NOT ... ~~*since a long time.*~~)
*She'd been working there **since 1988**.*

3 *in* after negatives and superlatives (AmE)

After negatives and superlatives, *in* can be used to talk about duration. This is especially common in American English.

*I **haven't seen** him for/in months.*
*It was the **worst storm** for/in ten years.*

4 *from* and *since*

From and *since* give the starting points of actions, events or states: they say when things begin or began.

from/since + starting point

*I'll be here **from three o'clock** onwards.*

*I work **from nine** to five.*
*From **now** on, I'm going to go running every day.*
*From **his earliest childhood** he loved music.*
*I've been waiting **since six o'clock**.*
*I've known her **since January**.*

We use *since* (with a perfect tense) especially when we measure duration from a starting point up to the present, or up to a past time that we are talking about.

*I've been working **since** six o'clock, and I'm getting tired.* (NOT ~~*I've been working from six o'clock*~~...)
*I had been working **since** six o'clock, and I was getting tired.*

From is used in other cases.

*The shop was open **from** eight in the morning, but the boss didn't arrive till ten.* (NOT ~~*The shop was open since eight*~~...)
*I'll be at home **from** Tuesday morning (on).* (NOT ... ~~*since Tuesday morning*~~.)

From is sometimes possible with a present perfect, especially in expressions that mean 'right from the start'.

*She's been like that **from** her childhood.* (OR ... *since her childhood.*)
From/Since the moment they were married, they've quarrelled.
From/Since the dawn of civilisation, people have made war.

For *from ... to* and *from ... until*, see 602.
For more about tenses with *since*, see 522.
For *since* meaning 'as' or 'because', see 72.

209 forget and leave

We can use *forget* to talk about accidentally leaving things behind.

*Oh damn! I've **forgotten** my umbrella.*

However, we normally use *leave* if we mention the place.

*Oh damn! I've **left** my umbrella at home.* (NOT ~~*I've forgotten my umbrella at home*~~.)

210 fun and funny

Fun is normally an uncountable noun. It can be used after *be* to say that things or people are enjoyable or entertaining.

*The party was **fun**, wasn't it?* (NOT ~~*The party was funny*~~.)
*Anne and Eric are a lot of **fun**.*

In informal English, *fun* can also be used as an adjective before a noun.

*That was a real **fun** party.*

Funny is an adjective, and is used to say that something makes you laugh.

*Why are you wearing that **funny** hat?*

Note that *funny* has another meaning: 'strange', 'peculiar'.

*A **funny** thing happened.* ~ *Do you mean **funny** ha-ha or **funny** peculiar?*

211 future (1): introduction

There are several ways to use verbs to talk about the future in English. This is a complicated area of grammar: the differences between the meanings and uses of the different structures are not easy to analyse and describe clearly. In many, but not all situations, two or more structures are possible with similar meanings.

1 *will/shall*

When we are simply giving information about the future, or talking about possible future events which are not already decided or obviously on the way, we usually use ***will*** (or ***I/we shall***) + **infinitive**. This is the most common way of talking about the future. For details, see 212.

*Nobody **will** ever know what happened to her.*
*I think Liverpool **will** win.* *I **shall** probably be home late tonight.*

Will and *shall* are also used to express our intentions and attitudes towards other people: they are common in offers, requests, threats, promises and announcements of decisions. For details, see 217.

Shall I carry your bag? *I'll hit you if you do that again.*
I'll phone you tonight.
You can have it for half price. ~ OK. I'll buy it.

2 present forms: *I'm leaving; I'm going to leave*

When we talk about future events which have some present reality – which have already been planned or decided, or which we can see are on the way – we often use present forms. The present progressive is common. For details, see 214.

I'm seeing John tomorrow. *What are you doing this evening?*

The present progressive of *go* (*be going to . . .*) is often used as an auxiliary verb to talk about the future. For details, see 213.

Sandra is going to have another baby.
When are you going to get a job?

These present forms are especially common in speech (because conversation is often about future events which are already planned, or which we can see are on the way).

3 simple present: *the train leaves . . .*

The simple present can also be used to talk about the future, but only in certain situations. For details, see 215.

The train leaves at half past six tomorrow morning.

4 other ways of talking about the future

We can use the future perfect to say that something will be completed, finished or achieved by a certain time. For details, see 219.

By next Christmas we'll have been here for eight years.

The future progressive can be used to say that something will be in progress at a particular time. For details, and other uses of this tense, see 220.

This time tomorrow I'll be lying on the beach.

Be about **+ infinitive** (see 5) suggests that a future event is very close.
The plane's about to take off. Is your seat belt done up?
Be **+ infinitive** is used to talk about plans, arrangements and schedules, and to give instructions. For details, see 91.
The President is to visit Beijing in January.
You're not to tell anybody about this.

5 'future in the past'

To say that something was still in the future at a certain past time, we can use a past form of one of the future structures. For details, see 221.
Something was going to happen that was to change the world.
I knew she would arrive before long.

6 subordinate clauses

In many subordinate clauses we refer to the future with present tenses instead of ***shall/will*** **+ infinitive**. For details, see 580.
Phone me when you have time. (NOT ... ~~*when you'll have time.*~~)
I'll think of you when I'm lying on the beach next week.
(NOT ... ~~*when I'll be lying on the beach ...*~~)
I'll follow him wherever he goes. (NOT ... ~~*wherever he'll go.*~~)
You can have anything I find. (NOT ... ~~*anything I'll find.*~~)

212 future (2): will/shall (information and prediction)

1 forms

will + infinitive without *to*

It will be cold tomorrow.
Where will you spend the night?
Some British people use *I shall* and *we shall* instead of *I/we will*, with no difference of meaning in most situations. (For cases where there is a difference, see 217.) *Shall* is unusual in American English in most situations (but see 217).
Contractions: *I'll, you'll* etc; *shan't* /ʃɑːnt/ (BrE only), *won't* /wəʊnt/

2 use: giving information about the future; predicting

Will (or ***shall***) **+ infinitive** is used to give (or ask for) information about the future.
It'll be spring soon. *Will all the family be at the wedding?*
We shall need the money on the 15th.
Karen will start work some time next week.
In another thirteen minutes the alarm will go off. This will close an electrical contact, causing the explosive to detonate.
We often use *will/shall* in predictions of future events – to talk about what we think, guess or calculate will happen.
Tomorrow will be warm, with some cloud in the afternoon.
Who do you think will win on Saturday?
I shall be rich one day. *You'll never finish that book.* ▸

3 conditional use

Will/shall is often used to express conditional ideas, when we say what *will happen if* something else happens.

He'll have an accident if he goes on driving like that.
If the weather's fine, we'll have the party in the garden.
Look out – you'll fall! (If you're not more careful.)
Come out for a drink. ~ *No, I'll miss the film on TV if I do.*
Don't leave me. I'll cry!

4 future events already decided: *will* not used

When future events are already decided, or when we can 'see them coming', we often prefer a present form (usually present progressive or *going to* ...).

I'm seeing the headmaster on Monday. *My sister's going to have a baby.*

For details, see 213, 214 and 216.

5 not used in subordinate clauses: *when I arrive*

In subordinate clauses, we usually use present tenses instead of *will/shall* (see 580.2).

I'll phone you when I arrive. (NOT ... ~~*when I will arrive.*~~)

For exceptions, see 580.4,8, 260.

6 other uses of *will* and *shall*

Will and *shall* are not only used to give and ask for information about the future. They can also be used to express 'interpersonal' meanings such as requests, offers, orders, threats and promises. For details, see 217.

Shall I open a window? *I'll break his neck!*
Will you get here at nine tomorrow, please?

For information about all uses of *will*, see 629.

213 future (3): going to ...

1 a present tense

This structure is really a present tense (the present progressive of *go*).
We use it to talk about future actions and events that have some *present reality*.
If we say that something in the future *is going to happen*, it is usually already planned or decided, or it is starting to happen, or we can see it coming now.
The structure is very common in an informal style, especially in speech (because conversation is often about future actions and events of this kind).

2 plans: *We're going to get a new car*

We use ***be going*** + **infinitive** to talk about plans, especially in an informal style.
This structure often emphasises the idea of intention, or a decision that has already been made.

We're going to get a new car soon.
John says he's going to phone this evening.
When are you going to get your hair cut?
I'm going to keep asking her out until she says 'Yes'.
I'm going to stop him reading my letters if it's the last thing I do.

3 things that are on the way: *She's going to have a baby*

Another use of the *going-to* structure is to predict the future on the basis of present evidence – to say that a future action or event is on the way, or starting to happen.

Sandra's going to have another baby in June.
Look at the sky. It's going to rain. *Look out! We're going to crash!*

4 commands and refusals

Going to ... can be used to insist that people do things or do not do things.

You're going to finish that soup if you sit there all afternoon!
She's going to take that medicine whether she likes it or not!
You're not going to play football in my garden.

It is also used in emphatic refusals.

I'm not going to sit up all night listening to your problems!

5 *gonna*

In informal speech, *going to* is often pronounced /gənə/. This is sometimes shown in writing as *gonna*, especially in American English.

Nobody's gonna talk to me like that.

For *was going to, has been going to* etc, see 221.
For *going to* ... compared with the present progressive, see 214.2.
For a comparison with *will*, see 216.

214 future (4): present progressive

1 present reality: *I'm washing my hair this evening*

We use the present progressive for future actions and events that have some present reality. It is most common in discussions of personal arrangements and fixed plans, when the time and place have been decided.

What are you doing this evening?~I'm washing my hair.
I'm seeing Larry on Saturday.
We're travelling round Mexico next summer.
Did you know I'm getting a new job?
What are we having for dinner?
My car's going in for a service next week.

We often use the present progressive with verbs of movement, to talk about actions which are just starting.

Are you coming to the pub?
I'm just popping out to the post office. Back in a minute.
Get your coat on! I'm taking you down to the doctor!

Note that the simple present is not often used to talk about the future (see 215).

What are you doing this evening? (NOT ~~*What do you do this evening?*~~) ▸

2 present progressive and *going to* ... : differences

In many cases, both structures can be used to express the same idea.

I'm washing / going to wash my hair this evening.

But there are some differences. For example, we prefer *going to* ... when we are talking not about fixed arrangements, but about intentions and decisions. Compare:

– *I'm seeing Phil tonight.* (emphasis on arrangement)
  I'm really going to tell him what I think of him. (emphasis on intention: NOT ~~*I'm really telling him*~~ ...)
– *Who's cooking lunch?* (asking what has been arranged)
  Who's going to cook lunch? (asking for a decision)

Because the present progressive is used especially for personal arrangements, it is not generally used to make predictions about events that are outside people's control.

It's going to snow before long. (NOT ~~*It's snowing before long*~~.)
I can see that things are going to get better soon. (NOT ... ~~*things are getting better soon.*~~)

And the present progressive is used for actions and events, but not usually for permanent states. Compare:

Our house is getting / is going to get new windows this winter.
Their new house is going to look over the river. (NOT ~~*Their new house is looking over the river*~~.)

3 commands and refusals

The present progressive can be used to insist that people do things or do not do things.

You're finishing that soup if you sit there all afternoon!
She's taking that medicine whether she likes it or not!
You're not wearing that skirt to school.

The present progressive is common in emphatic refusals.

I'm sorry, you're not taking my car.
I'm not washing your socks – forget it!

For a comparison with *will*, see 216.

215 future (5): simple present

1 timetables etc: *The summer term starts* ...

We can sometimes use the simple present to talk about the future. This is common when we are talking about events which are part of a timetable, a regular schedule or something similar.

The summer term starts on April 10th.
What time does the bus arrive in Seattle?
My plane leaves at three o'clock.
Are you on duty next weekend?
The sun rises at 6.13 tomorrow.

Will is also usually possible in these cases.

2 subordinate clauses: *when she gets a job*

The simple present is often used with a future meaning in subordinate clauses – for example after *what, where, when, until, if than*. For details, see 580.

I'll tell you what I find out. (NOT ... ~~*what I'll find out.*~~)
She'll pay us back when she gets a job. (NOT ... ~~*when she'll get a job.*~~)
Alex will see us tomorrow if he has time. (NOT ... ~~*if he will have time.*~~)

3 instructions: *Where do I pay?*

Occasionally the simple present is used with a future meaning when asking for and giving instructions.

Where do I pay? *Well, what do we do now?*
So when you get to London you go straight to Victoria Station, you meet up with the others, Ramona gives you your ticket, and you catch the 17.15 train for Dover. OK?

4 other cases

In other cases, we do not usually use the simple present to talk about the future.

Lucy's coming for a drink this evening. (NOT ~~*Lucy comes*~~ ...)
I promise I'll phone you this evening. (NOT ~~*I promise I phone you this evening.*~~)
There's the doorbell. ~ *I'll go.* (NOT ... ~~*I go.*~~)

216 future (6): present forms or will?

Will is the 'basic' structure for talking about the future. We use *will* if there is not a good reason for using present forms.

1 present reality

We prefer present forms (present progressive or *going to* ...) when we are talking about future events that have some present reality (see 213–214). In other cases we use *will*. Compare:

– *I'm seeing Janet on Tuesday.* (The arrangement exists now.)
  I wonder if she'll recognise me. (not talking about the present)
– *We're going to get a new car.* (The decision already exists.)
  I hope it will be better than the last one. (not talking about the present)

2 predictions: thinking and guessing about the future

In predictions, we use *going to* when we have outside evidence for what we say – for example black clouds in the sky, a person who is obviously about to fall.

See those clouds? It's going to rain. (NOT ~~*See those clouds? It will rain.*~~)
Look – that kid's going to fall off his bike. (NOT ~~*Look! That kid'll fall off his bike.*~~)

We prefer *will* for predictions when there is not such obvious outside evidence – when we are talking more about what is inside our heads: what we know, or believe, or have calculated. (When we use *will*, we are not showing the listener something; we are asking him or her to believe something.) Compare: ▸

– *Look out – we're **going to** crash!* (There is outside evidence.)
*Don't lend him your car. He's a terrible driver – **he'll crash it**.* (the speaker's knowledge)
– *I've just heard from the builder. That roof repair's **going to** cost £7,000.* (outside evidence – the builder's letter)
*I reckon **it'll** cost about £3,000 to put in new lights.* (the speaker's opinion)
– *Alice **is going to** have a baby.* (outside evidence – she is pregnant now)
*The baby **will** certainly **have** blue eyes, because both parents have.* (speaker's knowledge about genetics)

217 future (7): will and shall (interpersonal uses)

1 differences between *will* and *shall*

Will and *shall* are not only used for giving information about the future. They are also common in offers, promises, orders and similar kinds of 'interpersonal' language use. In these cases, *will* (or *'ll*) generally expresses willingness or wishes (this is connected with an older use of *will* to mean 'wish' or 'want'). *Shall* expresses obligation (like a more direct form of *should*).

2 announcing decisions: *will*

We often use *will* when we tell people about a decision as we make it, for instance if we are agreeing to do something.
*OK. **We'll** buy the tickets. You can buy supper after the show.*
*The phone's ringing. ~ **I'll** answer it.* (NOT ~~*I'm going to answer it.*~~)
*Remember to phone Joe, won't you? ~ Yes, I **will**.*
Shall is not used in this way.
*You can have it for £50. ~ OK. **I'll** buy it.* (NOT ... ~~*I shall buy it.*~~)
Note that the simple present is not normally used to announce decisions.
*I think **I'll** go to bed.* (NOT ~~*I think I go to bed.*~~)
*There's the doorbell. ~ **I'll** go.* (NOT ... ~~*I go.*~~)
To announce decisions that have already been made, we generally prefer *going to* ... or the present progressive (see 213–214).
*Well, we've agreed on a price, and **I'm going to** buy it.*
*I've made my decision and **I'm sticking** to it.*
Stressed *will* can express determination.
*I **will** stop smoking! I really **will**!*

3 promises and threats: *will*

We often use *will/'ll* in promises and threats. Note that the simple present is not possible in these cases.
*I promise I **won't** smoke again.* (NOT ~~*I promise I don't smoke*~~ ...)
*I'll **phone** you tonight.* (NOT ~~*I phone*~~ ...)
*I'll **hit** you if you do that again.* *You'll **suffer** for this!*
Shall is also possible in British English after *I* and *we*, but it is less common than *will*.
*I **shall** give you a teddy bear for your birthday.*
In older English, *shall* was often used with second and third person subjects in promises and threats. This is now very unusual.
*You **shall** have all you wish for.* *He **shall** regret this.*

4 refusals: *won't*

Will not or *won't* is used to refuse, or to talk about refusals.
*I don't care what you say, I **won't do** it.*
*The car **won't start**.*

5 asking for instructions and decisions: *shall*

Questions with *shall I/we* are used (in both British and American English) to ask for instructions or decisions, to offer services, and to make suggestions. *Will* is not used in this way.
***Shall** I open a window?* (NOT ~~*Will I open a window?*~~)
***Shall** I carry your bag?*
*What time **shall** we come and see you?*
*What on earth **shall** we do?*
***Shall** we go out for a meal?*
*Let's go and see Lucy, **shall** we?*

6 giving instructions and orders: *will*

We can use *Will you . . . ?* to tell or ask people to do things. (In polite requests, *Would you . . . ?* is preferred – see 633.5.)
***Will** you get me a newspaper when you're out?*
***Will** you be quiet, please!* *Make me a cup of coffee, **will** you?*

For reporting of interpersonal *shall* in indirect speech, see 278.4.

218 future (8): will/shall, going to and present progressive (advanced points)

1 *will/shall* and present forms: both possible

The differences between the structures used to talk about the future are not always very clear-cut. *Will/shall* and present forms (especially *going to . . .*) are often both possible in the same situation, if 'present' ideas like intention or fixed arrangement are a part of the meaning, but not very important. The choice can depend on which aspect we wish to emphasise.

- *What **will** you do next year?* (open question about the future; perhaps no clear plans have been made)
  *What **are** you doing next year?* (emphasis on fixed arrangements)
  *What **are** you **going to** do next year?* (emphasis on intentions)
- *All the family **will** be there.*
  *All the family **are going to** be there.*
- *If your mother comes, you'll **have to** help with the cooking.*
  *If your mother comes, you're **going to have to** help with the cooking.* ▸

– *You won't believe this.*
You're not going to believe this.
– *Next year will be different.*
Next year is going to be different.
– *John will explain everything to you.*
John's going to explain everything to you.

Both *going to* ... (see 213) and stressed *will* (see 217.2) can express a strong intention or determination.

I'm really going to stop smoking! *I really will stop smoking!*

In cases like these, the different forms are all correct, and it is unimportant which one is chosen.

2 official arrangements

Will is often used, rather than present forms, in giving information about impersonal, fixed arrangements – for example official itineraries. Compare:

We're meeting Sandra at 6.00.
The Princess will arrive at the airport at 14.00. She will meet the President at 14.30, and will then attend a performance of traditional dances.

3 predictions as orders

Predictions can be used as a way of giving orders - instead of telling somebody to do something, the speaker just says firmly that it will happen. This is common in military-style orders.

The regiment will attack at dawn.
You will start work at six o'clock sharp.

4 different meanings of *will you ...?*

With a verb referring to a state, *will you ...?* asks for information.

How soon will you know your holiday dates?
Will you be here next week?

With a verb referring to an action, *will you ...?* usually introduces an order or request (see 217.6).

Will you turn off that music!
Will you do the shopping this afternoon, please?

To ask for information about planned actions, we use a present form (see 213–214) or the future progressive (see 220).

When are you going to see Andy?
Are you doing the shopping this afternoon?
Will you be doing the shopping ...?

5 expressing certainty about the present or past

We can use *will* to talk about the present – to say what we think is probably or certainly the case.

There's somebody at the door. ~ That'll be the postman.
Don't phone them now – they'll be having dinner.

Will have ... can express similar ideas about the past.

As you will have noticed, there is a new secretary in the front office.
It's no use expecting Barry to turn up. He'll have forgotten.

For more about this and other uses of *will*, see 629.

6 obligation: *shall*

In contracts and other legal documents, *shall* is often used with third-person subjects to refer to obligations and duties.

*The hirer **shall be** responsible for maintenance of the vehicle.*

In normal usage, we prefer *will, must* or *should* to express ideas of this kind.

219 future (9): future perfect (they will have finished)

will have + past participle

We can use the future perfect to say that something will be finished or complete by a certain time in the future.

*The builders say they **will have finished** the roof by Tuesday.*

*I'll **have spent** all my holiday money by the end of the week.*

Shall can be used instead of *will* after *I* and *we* (see 212.1).

*I **shall have spent** . . .*

A progressive form can be used to talk about a continuous activity.

*I'll **have been teaching** for twenty years this summer.*

For *will have . . .* used to express certainty about the past (e.g. *It's no use phoning – he'll have left by now*), see 218.5, 629.

220 future (10): future progressive

shall/will + be + . . .ing

1 events in progress in the future

We can use the future progressive to say that something will be in progress (going on) at a particular moment in the future.

*This time tomorrow I'll **be lying** on the beach.*

*Good luck with the exam. We'll **be thinking** of you.*

2 events that are fixed or expected to happen

The future progressive is also used (without a progressive meaning) to refer to future events which are fixed or decided, or which are expected to happen in the normal course of events.

*Professor Baxter **will be giving** another lecture on Roman glass-making at the same time next week.*

*I'll **be seeing** you one of these days, I expect.*

3 no idea of making decisions

The future progressive is useful if we want to show that we are not talking about making decisions, but about things that will happen 'anyway'.

*Shall I pick up the laundry for you? ~ Oh, no, don't make a special journey. ~ It's OK. I'll **be going** to the shops anyway.* ▸

The tense can be used to make polite enquiries about people's plans. (By using the future progressive to ask 'What have you already decided?', the speaker shows that he/she does not want to influence the listener's intentions.) Compare:

Will you be staying in this evening? (very polite enquiry, suggesting 'I simply want to know your plans')

Are you going to stay in this evening? (pressing for a decision)

This usage is possible with verbs that do not normally have progressive forms (see 471).

Will you be wanting lunch tomorrow?

4 progressive form with *going to*

A progressive form of the *going to* structure is also possible.

I'm going to be working all day tomorrow, so I won't have time to shop.

For *will be . . .ing* used to express certainty about the present (e.g. *Don't phone now – they'll be having lunch*), see 218.5, 629.

221 future (11): future in the past

Sometimes when we are talking about the past, we want to talk about something which was in the future at that time – which had not yet happened. To express this idea, we use the structures that are normally used to talk about the future (see 211–220), but we make the verb forms past. For example, instead of *is going to* we use *was going to*; instead of the present progressive we use the past progressive; instead of *will* we use *would*; instead of *is to* we use *was to*.

Last time I saw you, you were going to start a new job.

I had no time to shop because I was leaving for Germany in two hours.

In 1988 I arrived in the town where I would spend ten years of my life.

I went to have a look at the room where I was to talk that afternoon.

Perfect forms of *be going to* are also possible.

I've been going to write to you for ages, but I've only just found time.

For *was to have* + past participle (e.g. *She was to have taken over my job, but she fell ill*), see 91.1.

222 gender (references to males and females)

English does not have many problems of grammatical gender. Usually, people are *he* or *she* and things are *it*. Note the following points.

1 animals, cars, ships and countries

People sometimes call animals *he* or *she*, especially when they are thought of as having personality, intelligence or feelings. This is common with pets and domestic animals like cats, dogs and horses.

Once upon a time there was a rabbit called Joe. He lived . . .

Go and find the cat and put her out.

In these cases, *who* is often used instead of *which*.

She had an old dog who always slept in her bed.

Some people use *she* for cars, motorbikes etc; sailors often use *she* for boats and ships (but most other people use *it*).

How's your new car?~Terrific. She's running beautifully.

The ship's struck a rock. She's sinking!

We can use *she* for countries, but *it* is more common in modern English.

France has decided to increase its trade with Romania.

(OR ... *her trade* ...)

2 *he or she*

Traditionally, English has used *he/him/his* when the sex of a person is not known, or in references that can apply to either men or women, especially in a formal style.

If a student is ill, he must send his medical certificate to the College office.

If I ever find the person who did that, I'll kill him.

Many people now regard such usage as sexist and try to avoid it. *He or she, him or her* and *his or her* are common.

If a student is ill, he or she must send a medical certificate ...

3 unisex *they*

In an informal style, we often use *they* to mean 'he or she', especially after indefinite words like *somebody, anybody, nobody, person.* This usage is sometimes considered 'incorrect', but it has been common in educated speech for centuries. For details, see 528.

If anybody wants my ticket, they can have it.

There's somebody at the door.~Tell them I'm out.

When a person gets married, they have to start thinking about their responsibilities.

4 *actor* and *actress* etc

A few jobs and positions have different words for men and women. Examples:

Man	Woman	Man	Woman
actor	*actress*	*monk*	*nun*
(bride)groom	*bride*	*policeman*	*policewoman*
duke	*duchess*	*prince*	*princess*
hero	*heroine*	*steward*	*stewardess*
host	*hostess*	*waiter*	*waitress*
manager	*manageress*	*widower*	*widow*

A *mayor* can be a man or a woman; in Britain a *mayoress* is the wife of a male mayor.

Some words ending in *-ess* (e.g. *authoress, poetess*) have gone out of use (*author* and *poet* are now used for both men and women). The same thing is happening to *actress* and *manageress. Steward* and *stewardess* are being replaced by other terms such as *flight attendant,* and *police officer* is often used instead of *policeman/woman.*

5 words ending in *-man*

Some words ending in *-man* do not have a common feminine equivalent (e.g. *chairman, fireman, spokesman*). As many women dislike being called, for example, 'chairman' or 'spokesman', these words are now often avoided in ▸

references to women or in general references to people of either sex. In many cases, *-person* is now used instead of *-man*.

*Alice has just been elected **chairperson** (or **chair**) of our committee.*

*A **spokesperson** said that the Minister does not intend to resign.*

In some cases, new words ending in *-woman* (e.g. *spokeswoman*) are coming into use. But there is also a move to choose words, even for men, which are not gender-marked (e.g. *supervisor* instead of *foreman*, *ambulance staff* instead of *ambulance men*, *firefighter* instead of *fireman*).

6 *man*

Man and *mankind* have traditionally been used for the human race.

*Why does **man** have more diseases than animals?*

*That's one small step for a **man**, one giant leap for **mankind**.*

(Neil Armstrong, on stepping onto the moon)

Some people find this usage sexist, and prefer terms such as *people*, *humanity* or *the human race*. Note also the common use of *synthetic* instead of *man-made*.

7 titles

Ms (pronounced /mɪz/ or /məz/) is often used instead of *Mrs* or *Miss*. Like *Mr*, it does not show whether the person referred to is married or not.

For more information about names and titles, see 363.

223 get (1): basic structures

Get is one of the commonest words in English, and is used in many different ways. It is sometimes avoided in a very formal style, but it is correct and natural in most kinds of speech and writing. The meaning of *get* depends on what kind of word comes after it. With a direct object, the basic meaning is 'obtain', 'come to have'; with other kinds of word, the basic meaning is 'become', 'come to be'.

1 *get* + noun/pronoun: *I got a letter*

With a direct object (noun or pronoun), *get* usually means 'receive', 'fetch', 'obtain', 'catch' or something similar. The exact meaning depends on the object.

*I **got a letter** from Lucy this morning.*

*Can you come and **get me** from the station when I arrive?*

*If I listen to loud music I **get a headache**.*

*If you **get a number 6 bus**, it stops right outside our house.*

Get can be used with two objects (see 610).

*Let me **get you a drink**.*

Other meanings are sometimes possible.

*I didn't **get** the joke.* (= understand)

*I'll **get** you for this, you bastard.* (= punish, make suffer)

Get + **noun** is not normally used to mean 'become'. To express this meaning, we can use *get to be* + **noun** (see paragraph 6 below).

*Wayne's **getting to be a lovely kid**.* (NOT ~~*Wayne's getting a lovely kid*~~.)

2 *get* + adjective: *getting old*

Before an adjective, *get* usually means 'become'.

*As you get **old**, your memory gets **worse**.*
*My feet are **getting cold**.*

With **object + adjective**, the meaning is 'make somebody/something become'.

*It's time to **get the kids ready** for school.*
*I can't **get my hands warm**.*
*We must **get the house clean** before Mother arrives.*

For *go* + adjective (*go green, go blind* etc), and the differences between *get, go, become, turn* etc, see 128.

3 *get* + adverb particle or preposition: *get out*

Before an adverb particle (like *up, away, out*) or a preposition, *get* nearly always refers to a movement of some kind. (For the difference between *get* and *go*, see 225.)

*I often **get up** at five o'clock.*
*I went to see him, but he told me to **get out**.*
*Would you mind **getting off** my foot?*

In some idioms the meaning is different – e.g. *get to a place* (= arrive at . . .); *get over something* (= recover from); *get on with somebody* (= have a good relationship with).

With an object, the structure usually means 'make somebody/something move'.

*You can't **get him out of** bed in the morning.*
*Would you mind **getting your papers off** my desk?*
*Have you ever tried to **get toothpaste back** into the tube?*
*The car's OK – it **gets me from** A to B.*

4 *get* + past participle: *get washed, dressed, married* etc

Get can be used with a past participle. This structure often has a reflexive meaning, to talk about things that we 'do to ourselves'. Common expressions are *get washed, get dressed, get lost, get drowned, get engaged/married/divorced.*

*You've got five minutes to **get dressed**.*
*She's **getting married** in June.*

5 passive auxiliary: *He got caught*

Get + past participle is also used to make passive structures, in the same way as *be* + past participle.

*My watch **got broken** while I was playing with the children.*
*He **got caught** by the police driving at 120 mph.*
*I **get paid** on Fridays.* *I never **get invited** to parties.*

This structure is mostly used in an informal style, and it is not often used to talk about longer, more deliberate, planned actions.

*Our house **was built** in 1827.* (NOT ~~*Our house got built in 1827.*~~)
*Parliament **was opened** on Thursday.* (NOT ~~*Parliament got opened*~~ . . .) ▸

6 *get . . .ing*; *get* + infinitive

Get . . .ing is sometimes used informally to mean 'start . . .ing', especially in the expressions *get moving, get going.*

We'd better get moving – it's late.

With an infinitive, *get* can mean 'manage', 'have an opportunity' or 'be allowed'.

We didn't get to see her – she was too busy.

When do I get to meet your new boyfriend?

Get + infinitive can also suggest gradual development.

He's nice when you get to know him.

You'll get to speak English more easily as time goes by.

Wayne's getting to be a lovely kid.

7 *got* and *gotten*

In British English the past participle of *get* is *got*. In American English the past participle is *gotten* (e.g. *You've gotten us in a lot of trouble.*) except in the structure *have got* (see 237).

224 get (2): + object + verb form

1 causative: *Don't get him talking*

Get + object + . . .*ing* means 'make somebody/something start . . .ing'.

Don't get him talking about his illnesses.

Once we got the heater going the car started to warm up.

2 causative: *Get Penny to help us*

Get + object + infinitive means 'make somebody/something do something' or 'persuade somebody/something to do something': there is often an idea of difficulty.

I can't get that child to go to bed.

Get Penny to help us if you can. *See if you can get the car to start.*

For *have* + object + infinitive (meaning 'order/instruct somebody to do something'), see 238.1.

3 causative: *get something done*

Get + object + past participle can mean 'cause something to be done by somebody else'. The past participle has a passive meaning.

I must get my watch repaired. (= I want my watch to be repaired.)

I'm going to get my hair cut this afternoon.

Have is used in a similar structure: see 238.2.

4 experience: *We got our roof blown off*

Get + object + past participle can sometimes be used in the sense of 'experience'.

We got our roof blown off in the storm last week.

This idea is more often expressed with have (e.g. *We had our roof blown off.*) – see 238.3.

5 *Get the children dressed*

We can also use *get* + object + past participle to talk about completing work on something.

*It will take me another hour to **get the washing done**.*
*After you've **got the children dressed**, can you make the beds?*

225 get and go: movement

Go is used to talk about a whole movement.
Get is used when we are thinking mainly about the end of a movement – the arrival. Compare:

– *I go to work by car and Lucy goes by train.*
  I usually get there first.
– *I went to a meeting in Bristol yesterday.*
  I got to the meeting at about eight o'clock.

We often use *get* to suggest that there is some difficulty in arriving.

It wasn't easy to get through the crowd.
I don't know how we're going to get over the river.
Can you tell me how to get to the police station?

For *get* and *go* meaning 'become', see 128.

226 give with action-nouns

1 *give a cough*, etc

We can replace certain verbs by a structure with *give* and a noun. This often happens in BrE, for example, with verbs referring to sounds made by people (e.g. *cough, cry, scream, chuckle, laugh, shout*).

*He **gave a cough** to attract my attention.*
*Suddenly she **gave a loud scream** and fell to the ground.*

2 *give somebody a smile*, etc

The structure is also used with an indirect object (in both BrE and AmE) to replace transitive verbs, especially in an informal style. Common expressions:
give somebody a smile, a look, a kiss, a hug, a ring (BrE = *a phone call*)
give something a push, a kick
give it a try, a go (BrE = *a try*), *a shot* (AmE = *a try*)
give it a miss (BrE)
not give it a thought

*She **gave me a strange look**.*
*I'll **give you a ring** if I hear anything.*
*If the car won't start, we'll **give it a push**.*
Perhaps salt will make it taste better. ~ *OK, let's **give it a try**.*
Are you coming to the film? ~ *No, I'm tired. I'll **give it a miss**.* (BrE)
*He seemed to be in a bad temper, but I didn't **give it a thought**.*

For taboo expressions like *I don't give a damn/shit* etc, see 575.
For other structures in which nouns replace verbs, see 598.
For more about structures with *give*, see 610.

227 go/come for a . . .

We can use the structure *go/come for a . . .* in some fixed expressions referring to actions, mostly leisure activities. Using this structure makes the action sound casual and probably rather short. (Compare *go . . .ing* – see 228.)
Common examples:
go/come for a walk, a run, a swim, a ride, a drive, a drink, a meal
go for a bath, a shower, a pee/piss (taboo – see 575).

*We need some fresh air. Let's **go for a walk**.*
*Would you like to **come for a drink** this evening?*
*I'm **going for a shower**. Can you answer my phone if it rings?*

This structure is only used with certain action-nouns – we would probably not say, for example, *Come for a ski with us* or *I'm going for a read.*

For other structures in which nouns are used to refer to actions, see 598.

228 go/come . . .ing

1 *go . . .ing*

We use *go* with an *-ing* form to talk about activities in which people move about, and which do not have a fixed beginning or end. The structure is common in expressions referring to sport and leisure activities – for example
go climbing, go dancing, go fishing, go hunting, go riding, go sailing, go shooting, go skating, go skiing, go swimming, go walking.

*Let's **go climbing** next weekend.*
*Did you **go dancing** last Saturday?*

Go . . .ing is also used to talk about looking for or collecting things.

*I think I'll **go shopping** tomorrow.*
*In June all the students go **looking** for jobs.*
*Anne's **going fruit-picking** this weekend.*

We do not use *go . . .ing* to talk about activities that have a more definite beginning and end (NOT ~~*go boxing*~~, ~~*go watching a football match*~~).

2 *come . . .ing*

Come . . .ing is also possible in certain situations (for the difference between *come* and *go*, see 134).

*Come **swimming** with us tomorrow.*

3 prepositions

Note that prepositions of place, not direction, are used after *go/come . . .ing.*

*I went swimming **in** the river.* (NOT ~~*I went swimming to the river*~~.)
*She went shopping **at** Harrods.* (NOT . . .~~*to Harrods*~~.)

229 gone with be

Gone can be used like an adjective after *be*, to say that somebody is away, or that something has disappeared or that there is no more.

*She's **been gone** for three hours – what do you think she's doing?*
*You can go out shopping, but don't **be gone** too long.*
*When I came back my car **was gone**.* *Is the butter all **gone**?*

For *been* used as a past participle of *go* or *come*, see 95.

230 had better

1 meaning

We use *had better* to give strong advice, or to tell people what to do (including ourselves).

*You'd **better** turn that music down before your Dad gets angry.*
*It's seven o'clock. I'd **better** put the meat in the oven.*

Had better refers to the immediate future. It is more urgent than *should* or *ought*. Compare:

*I really **ought** to go and see Fred one of these days. ~ Well, you'd **better** do it soon – he's leaving for South Africa at the end of the month.*

Had better is not used in polite requests. Compare:

Could you help me, if you've got time? (request)
*You'd **better** help me. If you don't, there'll be trouble.* (order/threat)

Note that *had better* does not usually suggest that the action recommended would be better than another one that is being considered – there is no idea of comparison. The structure means 'It would be good to . . .', not 'It would be better to . . .'.

2 forms

Had better refers to the immediate future, but the form is always past (*have better* is impossible). After *had better* we use the infinitive without *to*.

*It's late – you **had** better **hurry** up.*
(NOT . . . ~~*you have better*~~ . . .)
(NOT . . . ~~*you had better hurrying*~~ / ~~*to hurry . . .*~~)

We normally make the negative with ***had better not*** + infinitive.

*You'd **better not** wake me up when you come in.*
(*You hadn't better wake me* . . . is possible but very unusual.)

A negative interrogative form *Hadn't . . . better . . .?* is possible.

Hadn't we better tell him the truth?

Normal unemphatic short answer forms are as follows:

*Shall I put my clothes away? ~ **You'd better!***
*He says he won't tell anybody. ~ **He'd better not.***

Had is sometimes dropped in very informal speech.

You better go now. *I better try again later.*

231 half

1 *half (of)*

We can use *half* or *half of* before a noun with a determiner (article, possessive or demonstrative). We do not normally put *a* or *the* before *half* in this case.

*She spends **half (of) her time** travelling.* (NOT ~~*She spends a/the half*~~...)

*I gave him **half (of) a cheese pie** to keep him quiet.*

When *half (of)* is followed by a plural noun, the verb is plural.

*Half (of) my **friends** live abroad.* (NOT ~~*Half of my friends lives*~~...)

Of is not used in expressions of measurement and quantity.

*I live **half a mile** from here.* (NOT ...~~*half of a mile*~~...)

*I just need **half a loaf** of bread.* (NOT ...~~*half of a loaf*~~...)

We use *half of* before pronouns.

*Did you like the books? ~ I've only read **half of them**.*

2 no following noun

Half can be used without a following noun, if the meaning is clear.

*I've bought some chocolate. You can have **half**.* (NOT ...~~*the half*~~.)

3 *the half*

We use *the* before *half* if we are saying which half we mean. Before a noun, *of* is used in this case.

*Would you like **the big half** or **the small half**?*

*I didn't like **the second half** of the film.*

4 *half a* and *a half*

Half usually comes before the article *a/an*, but it is possible to put it after in expressions of measurement.

*Could I have **half a pound** of grapes?* (OR ... ***a half pound*** ...)

5 *one and a half*

The expression *one and a half* is plural. Compare:

*I've been waiting for **one and a half hours**.* (NOT ...~~*one and a half hour*~~.)

I've been waiting for an hour and a half.

For more information about numbers and counting expressions, see 389.
For *half* in clock times (e.g. *half past two*), see 579.

232 happen to ...

Happen can be used with a following infinitive to suggest that something happens unexpectedly or by chance.

*If you **happen to see** Joan, ask her to phone me.*

*One day I **happened to get** talking to a woman on a train, and she turned out to be a cousin of my mother's.*

In sentences with *if* or *in case*, the idea of *by chance* can be emphasised by using *should* before *happen*.

*Let me know if you **should happen** to need any help.*

*I'll take my swimming things, in case I **should happen** to find a pool open.*

233 hardly, scarcely and no sooner

These three expressions can be used (often with a past perfect tense – see 423) to suggest that one thing happened very soon after another. Note the sentence structure:

... hardly ... when/before ...
... scarcely ... when/before ...
... no sooner ... than ...

*I had **hardly/scarcely** closed my eyes **when** the phone rang.*
*She was **hardly/scarcely** inside the house **before** the kids started screaming.*
*I had **no sooner** closed the door **than** somebody knocked.*
*We **no sooner** sat down in the train **than** I felt sick.*

In a formal or literary style, inverted word order is possible (see 302).
*Hardly **had** I closed my eyes when I began to imagine fantastic shapes.*
*No sooner **had** she agreed to marry him than she started to have doubts.*

234 have (1): introduction

Have is used in several different ways:

a as an auxiliary verb, to make perfect verb forms
*Have you **heard** about Peter and Corinne?*
*I remembered his face, but I **had forgotten** his name.*

b to talk about possession, relationships and other states
*They **have** three cars.*
*Have you **got** any brothers or sisters?*
*Do you often **have** headaches?*

c to talk about actions and experiences
*I'm going to **have** a bath.*
*We're **having** a party next weekend.*

d with an infinitive, to talk about obligation (like *must*)
*I **had to** work last Saturday.*

e with object + verb form, to talk about causing or experiencing actions and events
*He soon **had** everybody **laughing**.*
*I must **have** my shoes **repaired**.*
*We **had** our car **stolen** last week.*

For details of the different structures and meanings, see the following sections.

For contractions (*I've, haven't* etc), see 143.
For weak forms, see 616.
For ***had better*** + **infinitive**, see 230.

235 have (2): auxiliary verb

have + past participle

1 perfect verb forms

We use *have* as an auxiliary verb with past participles, to make 'perfect' verb forms.

You've heard about Peter and Corinne? (present perfect: see 455–460)
I realised that I had met him before. (past perfect: see 423–425)
We'll have been living here for two years next Sunday.
(future perfect: see 219)
I'd like to have lived in the eighteenth century.
(perfect infinitive: see 280)
Having been there before, he knew what to expect.
(perfect participle: see 408.2a)

2 questions and negatives

Like all auxiliary verbs, *have* makes questions and negatives without *do*.

Have you heard the news? (NOT ~~*Do you have heard*~~ . . .?)
I haven't seen them. (NOT ~~*I don't have seen them*~~.)

3 progressive forms

There are no progressive forms of the auxiliary verb *have*.

I haven't seen her anywhere. (NOT ~~*I'm not having seen her anywhere*~~.)

For contractions, see 143.
For weak forms, see 616.

236 have (3): actions

1 meaning and typical expressions

We often use *have* + object to talk about actions and experiences, especially in an informal style.

Let's have a drink.
I'm going to have a bath.
I'll have a think (BrE) *and let you know what I decide.*
Have a good time.

In expressions like these, *have* can be the equivalent of 'eat', 'drink', 'enjoy', 'experience' or many other things - the exact meaning depends on the following noun. Common expressions:

have breakfast / lunch / supper / dinner / tea / coffee / a drink / a meal
have a bath / a wash / a shave / a shower
have a rest / a lie-down / a sleep / a dream
have a good time / a bad day / a nice evening / a day off / a holiday
have a good journey / flight / trip etc
have a talk / a chat / a word with somebody / a conversation / a disagreement / a row / a quarrel / a fight

have a swim / a walk / a ride / a dance / a game of tennis etc
have a try / a go
have a look
have a baby (= give birth)
have difficulty / trouble (in) . . .ing
have an accident / an operation / a nervous breakdown

Note American English ***take** a bath/shower/rest/swim/walk.*
Have can also be used to mean 'receive' (e.g. *I've had a phone call from Sue*).

2 grammar

In this structure, we make questions and negatives with *do*. Progressive forms are possible. Contractions and weak forms of *have* are not used.
*Did you **have** a good holiday?* (NOT ~~*Had you a good holiday?*~~)
*What are you doing? ~ I'm **having** a bath.*
*I **have** lunch at 12.30 most days.* (NOT ~~*I've lunch*~~ . . .)

For other common structures in which nouns are used to talk about actions, see 598.

237 have (4): have (got) – possession, relationships and other states

1 meanings

We often use *have* to talk about states: possession, relationships, illnesses, the characteristics of people and things, and similar ideas.
*Her father **has** a flat in Westminster.*
*They hardly **have** enough money to live on.*
*Do you **have** any brothers or sisters?*
*The Prime Minister **had** a bad cold.*
*My grandmother **didn't have** a very nice personality.*
Sometimes *have* simply expresses the fact of being in a particular situation.
*She **has** a houseful of children this weekend.*
*I think we **have** mice.*

2 progressive forms not used

Progressive forms of *have* are not used for these meanings.
*She **has** three brothers.* (NOT ~~*She is having three brothers.*~~)
*Do you **have** a headache?* (NOT ~~*Are you having a headache?*~~)

3 questions and negatives with *do*

In American English and modern British English, questions and negatives are commonly formed with *do*.
*Does the house **have** a garden?*
*Her parents **did** not **have** very much money.* ▸

4 shorter question and negative forms: *Have you . . .?; she has not*

Short question and negative forms (e.g. *Have you . . .?, she has not*) were common in older English. In modern English they are rather formal and uncommon (except in a few fixed expressions like *I haven't the faintest idea*). They are not normally used in American English.

– ***Have you** an appointment?* (formal BrE only)
  *Do you **have** an appointment?* (AmE/BrE)
– *Angela **has not** the charm of her older sisters.* (formal BrE only)
  *Angela **does not have** the charm . . .* (AmE/BrE)

5 *have got*

In conversation and informal writing, we often use the double form *have got*.

*I've **got** a new boyfriend.* (More natural in speech than *I **have** a new boyfriend.*)
*Has your sister **got** a car?* *I **haven't** got your keys.*

Note that *have got* means exactly the same as *have* in this case – it is a present tense of *have*, not the present perfect of *get*.

6 *have got* (details)

Do is not used in questions and negatives with *got*.

*Have you **got** a headache?* (NOT ~~*Do you have got*~~ . . .)
*The flat **hasn't** got a proper bathroom.* (NOT ~~*The flat doesn't have got*~~ . . .)

Got-forms of *have* are not used in short answers or tags.

*Have you **got** a light?* ~ *No, I **haven't**.* (NOT ~~*No, I haven't got*~~.)
*Anne's **got** a bike, **hasn't** she?*

Got-forms of *have* are less common in the past tense.

*I **had** flu last week.* (NOT ~~*I had got flu*~~ . . .)
*Did you **have** good teachers when you were at school?*

Got is not generally used with infinitives, participles or *-ing* forms of *have*: you cannot usually say *to have got a headache* or *having got a brother*. The infinitive of *have got* is occasionally used after modal verbs (e.g. *She must have got a new boyfriend*).

Have got is rather less common in American English, especially in questions and negatives.

In very informal American speech, people may drop *'ve* (but not *'s*) before *got*.

*I('ve) **got** a problem.*

Got- and *do*-forms may be mixed in American English, especially when short answers, reply questions and tags follow *got*-forms.

*I've **got** a new apartment.* ~ *You **do**?*

7 repetition: *got* not used

When we are talking about repeated or habitual states, *got*-forms of *have* are less often used. Compare:

– *I **have** / I've **got** toothache.*
  *I often **have** toothache.*
– *Do you **have** / Have you **got** time to go to London this weekend?*
  *Do you ever **have** time to go to London?*
– *Sorry, I **don't have** / **haven't** got any beer.*
  *We **don't** usually **have** beer in the house.*

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8 repetition: a change in British English

Traditionally, *do*-forms of *have* were used in British English mostly to express habit or repetition. Compare (BrE):

*Do you often **have** meetings?*
Have you (got) a meeting today?

In modern British English (which is heavily influenced by American English), *do*-forms are common even when there is no idea of repetition.

*Do you **have** time to go to the beach this weekend?* (AmE / modern BrE)

238 have (5): + object + verb form

Have can be followed by **object + infinitive (without *to*)**, **object + *-ing***, and **object + past participle**.

1 causative: *have somebody do/doing something*

Have + **object + infinitive** can mean 'cause somebody to do something'. This is mostly used in American English, to talk about giving instructions or orders.

*I'm ready to see Mr Smith. **Have** him come in, please.*
*The manager **had** everybody fill out a form.*

The structure with an *-ing* form can mean 'cause somebody to be doing something' (BrE and AmE).

*He **had** us laughing all through the meal.*

For ***get*** + **object + infinitive** (meaning 'persuade somebody/something to do something'), see 224.2.

2 causative: *have something done*

Have + **object + past participle** can mean 'cause something to be done by somebody else'. The past participle has a passive meaning.

*I must **have** my watch repaired.* (= I want my watch to be repaired.)
*I'm going to **have** my hair cut this afternoon.*
*If you don't get out of my house I'll **have** you arrested.*

Get is used in a similar structure: see 224.3.

3 experience: *have something happen/happening*

In the structure ***have*** + **object + infinitive/...*ing***, ***have*** can mean 'experience'.

*I **had** a very strange thing happen to me when I was fourteen.*
*We **had** a gipsy come to the door yesterday.*
*It's lovely to **have** children playing in the garden again.*
*I looked up and found we **had** water dripping through the ceiling.*

Note the difference between the infinitive in the first two examples (for things that happened), and the *-ing* form in the last two (for things that are/were happening). This is like the difference between simple and progressive tenses (see 461, 422). ▸

4 experience: *We had our roof blown off*

Have + object + past participle can also be used in the sense of 'experience'. Again, the past participle has a passive meaning.

We had our roof blown off in the storm.
King Charles had his head cut off.
She's just had a short story published in a magazine.

5 *I won't have ...*

I won't have + object + verb form can mean 'I won't allow ...'

I won't have you telling me what to do.
I won't have my house turned into a hotel.

239 have (6): have (got) to

1 meaning: obligation, certainty

We can use *have (got)* + infinitive to talk about obligation: things that it is necessary for us to do. The meaning is quite similar to *must*; for the differences, see 361.1.

Sorry, I've got to go now.
Do you often have to travel on business?

Have (got) + infinitive can also be used, like *must*, to express certainty. (This used to be mainly an American English structure, but it is now becoming common in British English.)

I don't believe you. You have (got) to be joking.
Only five o'clock! It's got to be later than that!

2 grammar: with or without *do*; *got*

In this structure, *have* can be used like an ordinary verb (with *do* in questions and negatives), or like an auxiliary verb (without *do*). *Got* is usually added to present-tense auxiliary-verb forms.

When do you have to be back? *When have you (got) to be back?*

Have got to is not normally used to talk about repeated obligation.

I usually have to be at work at eight. (NOT ~~*I've usually got to*~~...)

Progressive forms are possible to talk about temporary continued obligation.

I'm having to work very hard at the moment.

For more details of the use of *do*-forms and *got*-forms of *have*, see 237.

3 future: *have (got) to* or *will have to*

To talk about the future, we can use *have (got) to* if an obligation exists now; we use *will have to* for a purely future obligation. Compare:

I've got to get up early tomorrow – we're going to Devon.
One day everybody will have to ask permission to buy a car.

Will have to can be used to tell people what to do. It 'distances' the instructions, making them sound less direct than *must* (see 361).

You can borrow my car, but you'll have to bring it back before ten.

For more about 'distancing', see 436.

4 pronunciation of *have to; gotta*

Have to is often pronounced /ˈhæftə/.

He'll have to /ˈhæftə/ *get a new passport soon.*

Note the spelling *gotta*, sometimes used in informal American English (for instance in cartoon strips) to show the conversational pronunciation of *got to*.

I gotta call home. *A man's gotta do what a man's gotta do.*

240 headlines

1 special language

Headlines are the short titles above news reports (e.g. *RUSSIAN WOMAN LANDS ON MOON*). English news headlines can be very difficult to understand. One reason for this is that headlines are often written in a special style, which is very different from ordinary English. In this style there are some special rules of grammar, and words are often used in unusual ways.

2 grammar

a Headlines are not always complete sentences. Many headlines consist of noun phrases with no verb.

MORE WAGE CUTS *HOLIDAY HOTEL DEATH*
EXETER MAN'S DOUBLE MARRIAGE BID

b Headlines often contain strings of three, four or more nouns; nouns earlier in the string modify those that follow.

FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW

Headlines like these can be difficult to understand. It sometimes helps to read them backwards. *FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW* refers to a *ROW* (disagreement) about a *CUT* (reduction) in *PAY* at a *FACTORY* that makes *FURNITURE*.

c Headlines often leave out articles and the verb *be*.

SHAKESPEARE PLAY IMMORAL SAYS HEADMASTER
SCHOOLBOY WALKS IN SPACE

d In headlines, simple tenses are often used instead of progressive or perfect forms. The simple present is used for both present and past events.

BLIND GIRL CLIMBS EVEREST (= . . . has climbed . . .)
STUDENTS FIGHT FOR COURSE CHANGES (= . . . are fighting . . .)

The present progressive is used to talk about changes. *Be* is usually dropped.

BRITAIN GETTING WARMER, SAY SCIENTISTS
TRADE FIGURES IMPROVING

e Many headline words are used as both nouns and verbs, and nouns are often used to modify other nouns (see paragraph 2b). So it is not always easy to work out the structure of a sentence. Compare:

US CUTS AID TO THIRD WORLD (= The US reduces its help . . . *CUTS* is a verb, *AID* is a noun.) ▸

AID CUTS ROW (= There has been a disagreement about the reduction in aid. *AID* and *CUTS* are both nouns.)
CUTS AID REBELS (= The reduction is helping the revolutionaries. *CUTS* is a noun, *AID* is a verb.)

f Headlines often use infinitives to refer to the future.
PM TO VISIT AUSTRALIA
HOSPITALS TO TAKE FEWER PATIENTS
For is also used to refer to future movements or plans.
TROOPS FOR GLASGOW? (= Are soldiers going to be sent to Glasgow?)

g Auxiliary verbs are usually dropped from passive structures.
MURDER HUNT: MAN HELD (= ... a man is being held by police.)
SIX KILLED IN EXPLOSION (= Six people have been killed ...)
Note that forms like *HELD*, *ATTACKED* are usually past participles with passive meanings, not past tenses (which are rare in headlines). Compare:
– *AID ROW: PRESIDENT ATTACKED* (= ... the President has been attacked.)
AID ROW: PRESIDENT ATTACKS CRITICS
(= ... the President has attacked her critics.)
– *BOY FOUND SAFE* (= The missing boy has been found safe; he is safe.)
BOY FINDS SAFE (= A boy has found a safe.)

h *As* and *in* are often used instead of longer connecting expressions.
HOSPITAL BOSS AXED AS PATIENTS DIE (= ... because patients die.)
FOOTBALL MANAGER IN CAR CRASH

i A colon (:) is often used to separate the subject of a headline from what is said about it.
STRIKES: PM TO ACT *MOTORWAY CRASH: DEATH TOLL RISES*
Quotation marks ('...') are used to show that words were said by somebody else, and that the report does not necessarily claim that they are true.
CRASH DRIVER 'HAD BEEN DRINKING'
A question mark (?) is often used when something is not certain.
CRISIS OVER BY SEPTEMBER?

For other styles with special grammar, see 1.

3 vocabulary

Short words save space, and so they are very common in headlines. Some of the short words in headlines are unusual in ordinary language (e.g. *curb*, meaning 'restrict' or 'restriction'), and some are used in special senses which they do not often have in ordinary language (e.g. *bid*, meaning 'attempt'). Other words are chosen not because they are short, but because they sound dramatic (e.g. *blaze*, which means 'big fire', and is used in headlines to refer to any fire). The following is a list of common headline vocabulary.

act take action; do something
FOOD CRISIS: GOVERNMENT TO ACT
aid military or financial help; to help
MORE AID FOR POOR COUNTRIES
UNIONS AID HOSPITAL STRIKERS
alert alarm, warning
FLOOD ALERT ON EAST COAST

allege make an accusation
WOMAN ALLEGES UNFAIR TREATMENT
appear appear in court accused of a crime
MP TO APPEAR ON DRUGS CHARGES
axe abolish, close down; abolition, closure
COUNTRY BUS SERVICES AXED
SMALL SCHOOLS FACE AXE

BA British Airways
BA MAKES RECORD LOSS
back support
AMERICA BACKS BRITISH PEACE MOVE
ban forbid, refuse to allow something; prohibition
US BANS STEEL IMPORTS
NEW BAN ON DEMONSTRATIONS
bar refuse/refusal to allow entry
HOTEL BARS FOOTBALL FANS
NEW BAR ON IMMIGRANTS
bid attempt
JAPANESE WOMEN IN NEW EVEREST BID
blast explosion; criticise violently
BLAST AT PALACE
PM BLASTS CRITICS
blaze fire
SIX DIE IN HOTEL BLAZE
block stop, delay
TORIES BLOCK TEACHERS' PAY DEAL
blow bad news; discouragement; unfortunate happening
SMITH ILL: BLOW TO WORLD CUP HOPES
bolster give support/encouragement to
EXPORT FIGURES BOLSTER CITY CONFIDENCE
bond political/business association
NEW TRADE BONDS WITH ICELAND
boom big increase; prosperous period
SPENDING BOOM OVER, SAYS MINISTER
boost encourage(ment); to increase; an increase
PLAN TO BOOST EXPORTS
brink edge (of disaster)
WORLD ON BRINK OF WAR
Brussels the European Community parliament and administration
BRUSSELS BANS BRITISH BLACKBERRY WINE

call (for) demand/appeal (for)
CALL FOR STRIKE TALKS
HOSPITAL ROW: MP CALLS FOR ENQUIRY
campaign organised effort to achieve social or political result
MP LAUNCHES CAMPAIGN FOR PRISON REFORM
cash money
MORE CASH NEEDED FOR SCHOOLS
charge accusation (by police)
THREE MEN HELD ON BOMB CHARGE

chop abolition, closure
300 BANK BRANCHES FACE CHOP
City London's financial institutions
NEW TRADE FIGURES PLEASE CITY
claim (make) a statement that something is true (especially when there may be disagreement); **pay claim** demand for higher wages
SCIENTIST CLAIMS CANCER BREAKTHROUGH
RACISM CLAIM IN NAVY
TEACHERS' PAY CLAIM REJECTED
clamp down on deal firmly with (usually something illegal)
POLICE TO CLAMP DOWN ON SPEEDING
clash quarrel, fight (noun or verb)
PM IN CLASH OVER ARMS SALES
STUDENTS CLASH WITH POLICE
clear find innocent
DOCTOR CLEARED OF DRUGS CHARGE
Commons the House of Commons (in Parliament)
MINISTERS IN COMMONS CLASH OVER HOUSING
con swindle
TEENAGERS CON WIDOW OUT OF LIFE SAVINGS
crackdown firm application of the law
GOVERNMENT PROMISES CRACKDOWN ON DRUGS DEALERS
crash financial failure
BANK CRASH THREATENS TO BRING DOWN GOVERNMENT
curb restrict; restriction
NEW PRICE CURBS
cut reduce; reduction
BRITAIN CUTS OVERSEAS AID
NEW HEALTH SERVICE CUTS
cutback reduction (usually financial)
TEACHERS SLAM SCHOOL CUTBACKS

dash (make) quick journey
PM IN DASH TO BLAST HOSPITAL
deadlock disagreement that cannot be solved
DEADLOCK IN PEACE TALKS
deal agreement, bargain
TEACHERS REJECT NEW PAY DEAL
demo demonstration
30 ARRESTED IN ANTI-TAX DEMO
dole unemployment pay
DOLE QUEUES LENGTHEN
drama dramatic event; tense situation
PRINCE IN AIRPORT DRAMA
drive united effort
DRIVE TO SAVE WATER
drop give up, get rid of; fall (noun)
GOVERNMENT TO DROP CHILD LABOUR PLAN
BIG DROP IN INDUSTRIAL INVESTMENT
due expected to arrive
QUEEN DUE IN BERLIN TODAY

duo two people
HANDICAPPED DUO ROW ACROSS ATLANTIC

EU The European Union
EU TRADE MINISTERS TO MEET
edge move gradually
WORLD EDGES TOWARDS WAR
envoy ambassador
FRENCH ENVOY DISAPPEARS

face be threatened by
HOSPITALS FACE MORE CUTS *STRIKERS FACE SACK*
feud long-lasting quarrel or dispute
FAMILY FEUD EXPLODES INTO VIOLENCE: SIX HELD
find something that is found
BEACH FIND MAY BE BONES OF UNKNOWN DINOSAUR
firm determined not to change
PM FIRM ON TAX LEVELS
flak heavy criticism
GOVERNMENT FACES FLAK OVER VAT
flare begin violently
RIOTS FLARE IN ULSTER
foil prevent somebody from succeeding
TWELVE-YEAR-OLD FOILS BANK RAIDERS
fraud swindle, deceit
JAIL FOR TICKET FRAUD MEN
freeze keep(ing) prices etc at their present level; block(ing) a bank account
MINISTER WANTS TWO-YEAR PAY FREEZE
DRUG PROFITS FROZEN
fuel provide reason for growth (of anger, protest etc)
PAY FREEZE FUELS UNION ANGER

gag censor(ship), prevent(ion) from speaking
AFRICAN PRESIDENT ACTS TO GAG PRESS
gems jewels
£2m GEMS STOLEN
go resign; be lost, disappear
PM TO GO?
4,000 JOBS TO GO IN NORTH
go for be sold for
PICASSO DRAWING GOES FOR £5m
go-ahead approval
SCOTTISH ROAD PLAN GETS GO-AHEAD
grab take violently
INVESTORS GRAB SHARES IN SCOTTISH COMPANIES
grip control; hold tightly
REBELS TIGHTEN GRIP ON SOUTH
COLD WAVE GRIPS COUNTRY
gun down shoot
TERRORISTS GUN DOWN PRIEST ▸

hail welcome, praise
PM HAILS PEACE PLAN
halt stop
CAR PLANT TO HALT PRODUCTION
haul amount stolen in robbery, or seized by police or customs
TRAIN ROBBERY: BIG GOLD HAUL
RECORD DRUGS HAUL AT AIRPORT
head lead; leader
PM TO HEAD TRADE MISSION
COMMONWEALTH HEADS TO MEET IN OTTAWA
head for/to move towards
ECONOMY HEADING FOR DISASTER, EXPERTS WARN
heed pay attention to
GOVERNMENT MUST HEED DIVORCE FIGURES, SAYS BISHOP
hike (AmE) rise in costs, prices etc
INTEREST HIKE WILL HIT BUSINESS
hit affect badly
SNOWSTORMS HIT TRANSPORT
hit out at attack (with words)
PM HITS OUT AT CRITICS
hitch problem that causes delay
LAST-MINUTE HITCH DELAYS SATELLITE LAUNCH
hold arrest; keep under arrest
MAN HELD AFTER STATION BLAST
POLICE HOLD TERROR SUSPECT

in (the) red in debt; making a financial loss
BRITISH STEEL IN RED
IRA Irish Republican Army
IRA LEADER MAKES STATEMENT

jail prison
JAIL FOR PEACE MARCHERS
jobless unemployed (people)
THREE MILLION JOBLESS BY APRIL?

key important, vital
KEY WITNESS VANISHES

landslide victory by large majority in election
LANDSLIDE FOR NATIONALISTS
lash criticise violently
BISHOP LASHES TV SEX AND VIOLENCE
launch send (satellite etc) into space; begin (campaign etc); put (new product) on market
SPACE TELESCOPE LAUNCH DELAYED
ENVIRONMENT MINISTER LAUNCHES CAMPAIGN FOR CLEANER BEACHES
BRITISH FIRM LAUNCHES THROW-AWAY CHAIRS
lead clue (in police enquiry)
NEW LEAD IN PHONEBOX MURDER CASE

leak unofficial publication of secret information
PM FURIOUS OVER TAX PLAN LEAKS
leap big increase
LEAP IN IMPORTS
life imprisonment 'for life'
LIFE FOR AXE MURDERER
link connection, contact
NEW TRADE LINKS WITH PERU
loom threaten to happen
VAT ON FOOD: NEW ROW LOOMS
Lords the House of Lords (in Parliament)
LORDS VOTE ON DOG REGISTRATION
lotto the national lottery
DANCING GRANDMOTHER IN RECORD LOTTO WIN

mar spoil
CROWD VIOLENCE MARS CUP FINAL
mercy intended to save lives
DOCTOR IN MERCY DASH TO EVEREST
mission delegation (official group sent to conference etc)
SHOTS FIRED AT UN MISSION
mob angry crowd; organised crime / Mafia (AmE)
MOBS RAMPAGE THROUGH CITY STREETS
MOB LEADERS HELD
move step towards a particular result (often political)
MOVE TO BOOST TRADE LINKS WITH JAPAN
MP Member of Parliament
MP DENIES DRUGS CHARGE
MEP Member of the European Parliament
MEPS WANT MORE PAY

nail force somebody to admit the truth
MP NAILS MINISTER ON PIT CLOSURE PLANS
net win, capture
TWO SISTERS NET £3m IN POOLS WIN
no 10 the Prime Minister's residence (No 10 Downing Street)
ANOTHER PETITION HANDED IN AT No 10

OAP old age pensioner; anybody over 65
OAPS MARCH AGAINST WAR PLANS
odds chances, probability
JONES RE-ELECTED AGAINST THE ODDS
on about, on the subject of, concerning
NEW MOVE ON PENSIONS
opt (for) choose
WALES OPTS FOR INDEPENDENCE
oust drive out, replace
MODERATES OUSTED IN UNION ELECTIONS
out to intending to
NATIONALISTS OUT TO CAPTURE MASS VOTE

over about, on the subject of, because of
ROW OVER AID CUTS

pact agreement
DEFENCE PACT RUNS INTO TROUBLE
pay wages
TRANSPORT PAY TALKS BREAK DOWN
PC police constable
PC SHOT IN BANK RAID
peak high point
BANK LENDING HITS NEW PEAK
peer lord; Member of the House of Lords
PEERS REJECT GOVERNMENT WAGE-FREEZE BAN
peg hold (prices etc) at present level
BANKS PEG INTEREST RATES
pensioner old age pensioner; anybody over 65
PENSIONER SKIS DOWN MONT BLANC
peril danger
FLOOD PERIL IN THAMES VALLEY
pit coal mine
PIT TURNED INTO MUSEUM
plant factory
STEEL PLANT BLAZE
plea call for help
BIG RESPONSE TO PLEA FOR FLOOD AID
pledge promise
GOVERNMENT GIVES PLEDGE ON JOBLESS
PM Prime Minister
EGG THROWN AT PM
poised to ready to, about to
TORIES POISED TO MAKE ELECTION GAINS
poll election; public opinion survey
TORIES AHEAD IN POLLS
pools football pools: a form of gambling in which people guess the results of football matches
SISTERS SHARE BIG POOLS WIN
premier head of government
GREEK PREMIER TO VISIT UK
press the newspapers
BID TO GAG PRESS OVER DEFENCE SPENDING
press (for) urge, encourage, ask for urgently
MINISTER PRESSED TO ACT ON HOUSING
OPPOSITION PRESS FOR ENQUIRY ON AIR CRASHES
probe investigation; investigate
CALL FOR STUDENT DRUGS PROBE
POLICE PROBE RACING SCANDAL
pull out withdraw; **pull-out** withdrawal
US PULLS OUT OF ARMS TALKS
CHURCH CALLS FOR BRITISH PULL-OUT FROM ULSTER
push (for) ask for, encourage
SCHOOLS PUSH FOR MORE CASH

quake earthquake
HOUSES DAMAGED IN WELSH QUAKE
quit resign, leave
CHURCH LEADER QUITS
MINISTER TO QUIT GOVERNMENT
quiz question (verb)
POLICE QUIZ MILLIONAIRE SUPERMARKET BOSS

raid enter and search; attack (noun and verb), rob, robbery
POLICE RAID DUCHESS'S FLAT
BIG GEMS RAID
rampage riot
FOOTBALL FANS RAMPAGE THROUGH SEASIDE TOWNS
rap criticise
DOCTORS RAP NEW MINISTRY PLANS
rates (bank) interest rates
RATES RISE EXPECTED
record bigger than ever before
RECORD LOSS BY INSURANCE FIRM
riddle mystery
MISSING ENVOY RIDDLE: WOMAN HELD
rift division, disagreement
LABOUR RIFT OVER DEFENCE POLICY
rock shock, shake
BANK SEX SCANDAL ROCKS CITY
IRELAND ROCKED BY QUAKE
row noisy disagreement, quarrel
NEW ROW OVER PENSION CUTS
rule out reject the possibility of
PM RULES OUT AUTUMN ELECTION

sack dismiss(al) from job
STRIKING POSTMEN FACE SACK
saga long-running news story
NEW REVELATIONS IN BANK SEX SAGA
scare public alarm, alarming rumour
TYPHOID SCARE IN SOUTHWEST
scoop win (prize etc)
PENSIONER SCOOPS LOTTO FORTUNE
scrap throw out (as useless)
GOVERNMENT SCRAPS NEW ROAD PLANS
seek look for
POLICE SEEK WITNESS TO KILLING
seize take (especially in police and customs searches)
POLICE SEIZE ARMS AFTER CAR CHASE
£3m DRUGS SEIZED AT AIRPORT
set to ready to; about to
INTEREST RATES SET TO RISE
shed get rid of
CAR FIRM TO SHED 5,000 JOBS

slam criticise violently
BISHOP SLAMS DEFENCE POLICY
slash cut, reduce drastically
GOVERNMENT TO SLASH HEALTH EXPENDITURE
slate criticise
PM SLATES BISHOP
slay (AmE) murder
FREEWAY KILLER SLAYS SIX
slump fall (economic)
EXPORTS SLUMP *CITY FEARS NEW SLUMP*
snatch rob, robbery
BIG WAGES SNATCH IN WEST END
soar rise dramatically
IMPORTS SOAR FOR THIRD MONTH
spark cause (trouble) to start
REFEREE'S DECISION SPARKS RIOT
split disagree(ment)
CABINET SPLIT ON PRICES POLICY
spree wild spending expedition
BUS DRIVER SPENDS £30,000 IN THREE-DAY CREDIT CARD SPREE
stake financial interest
JAPANESE BUY STAKE IN BRITISH AIRWAYS
storm angry public disagreement
STORM OVER NEW STRIKE LAW
storm out of leave angrily
TEACHERS' LEADERS STORM OUT OF MEETING
stun surprise, shock
JOBLESS FIGURES STUN CITY
surge sudden increase; rise suddenly
SURGE IN JOBLESS FIGURES
swap exchange
HEART SWAP BOY BETTER
sway persuade
HOSPITAL PROTEST SWAYS MINISTERS
switch to change; a change
DEFENCE POLICY SWITCH
swoop to raid; a police raid
POLICE IN DAWN SWOOP ON DRUGS GANG

threat danger
TEACHERS' STRIKE THREAT
toll number killed
QUAKE TOLL MAY BE £5,000
top (adj) senior, most important
TOP BANKER KIDNAPPED
top (verb) exceed
IMPORTS TOP LAST YEAR'S FIGURES
Tory Conservative
VICTORY FOR TORY MODERATES
trio three people
JAILBREAK TRIO RECAPTURED

troops soldiers
MORE TROOPS FOR BORDER AREA

UK The United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)
BRUSSELS CRITICISES UK JAIL CONDITIONS
Ulster Northern Ireland
PM IN SECRET TRIP TO ULSTER
UN The United Nations
UN IN RED: CANNOT BALANCE BUDGET
urge encourage
GOVERNMENT URGED TO ACT ON POLLUTION
US The United States of America
US URGED TO PULL OUT OF MIDDLE EAST

VAT value added tax
NEXT, VAT ON BABYFOOD?
vow promise
EXILED PRESIDENT VOWS TO RETURN

walk out leave in protest
CAR WORKERS WALK OUT OVER WAGE FREEZE
web world-wide web, internet
WEB SHOPPING UP BY 50% IN TWO YEARS
wed marry
BISHOP TO WED ACTRESS

241 hear and listen (to)

1 *hear*: meaning

Hear is the ordinary word to say that something 'comes to our ears'.
*Suddenly I **heard** a strange noise.* (NOT ~~*Suddenly I listened to a strange noise.*~~)
*Can you **hear** me?*

2 *listen (to)*: meaning

Listen (to) is used to talk about paying attention to sounds that are going on, in progress. It emphasises the idea of concentrating, trying to hear as well as possible. You can hear something without wanting to, but you can only listen to something deliberately. Compare:
*I **heard** them talking upstairs, but I didn't really **listen** to their conversation.*
*Listen carefully, please. ~ Could you speak louder? I can't **hear** you very well.*
*I didn't **hear** the phone because I was **listening to** the radio.*

3 complete experiences: *hear*

Listen (to) is mostly used to talk about concentrating on experiences that are going on, in progress. To talk about the result of listening: experiencing or

▶

understanding the whole of a performance, speech, piece of music, broadcast or other communication, we generally use ***hear***. Compare:

- *When she arrived, I was **listening to** a record of Brendel playing Beethoven.* (NOT ...~~*I was hearing*~~...)
  *I once **heard** Brendel play all the Beethoven concertos.* (NOT ~~*I once listened to Brendel play*~~...)
- *I wish I had more time to **listen to** the radio.* (NOT ...~~*to hear the radio.*~~)
  *Did you **hear / listen to** the news yesterday?*

4 *hear* not used in progressive forms

Hear is not usually used in progressive forms. To say that one hears something at the moment of speaking, *can hear* is often used, especially in British English (see 125).

*I **can hear** somebody coming.* (NOT ~~*I am hearing*~~...)

5 *listen* and *listen to*

When there is no object, *listen* is used without *to*. Compare:

Listen! (NOT ~~*Listen to!*~~) ***Listen to me!*** (NOT ~~*Listen me!*~~)

There are similar differences between *see, look (at)* and *watch*. See 506.
For *hear* + object + infinitive/*-ing*, see 242.

242 hear, see etc + object + verb form

1 object + infinitive or *-ing* form

Hear, see, watch, notice and similar verbs of perception can be followed by object + infinitive (without *to*) or object + *-ing* form.

*I **heard him go** down the stairs.* *I **heard him going** down the stairs.*
(NOT ~~*I heard him went down the stairs.*~~)

There is often a difference of meaning. After these verbs, an infinitive suggests that we hear or see the whole of an action or event; an *-ing* form suggests that we hear or see something in progress, going on. Compare:

- *I saw her cross the road.* (= I saw her cross it from one side to the other.)
  I saw her crossing the road. (= I saw her in the middle, on her way across.)
- *I once **heard him give** a talk on Japanese politics.*
  *As I walked past his room I **heard him talking** on the phone.*
- ***Watch me jump** over the stream.*
  *I like to **watch people walking** in the street.*
- *I **heard the bomb explode**.* (NOT ~~*I heard the bomb exploding.*~~)
  *I **saw the book lying** on the table.* (NOT ~~*I saw the book lie*~~...)

A progressive form can suggest repetition.

*I saw her **throwing** stones at the other children.*

After *can see/hear* (which refer to actions and events that are in progress – see 125), only the *-ing* structure is used.

*I could see John **getting** on the bus.* (NOT ~~*I could see John get*~~...)

These structures can be used after passive forms of *hear* and *see*. In this case, the infinitive has *to*.

*He was never **heard to say** 'thank you' in his life.* (NOT ~~*He was never heard say*~~ . . .)
*Justice must not only be done; it must **be seen to be done**.*
*She **was seen walking** away from the accident.*
Passive forms of *watch* and *notice* are not used in this way.

2 possessives not used

After these verbs, possessives cannot be used with *-ing* forms.
*I saw **Mary** crossing the road.* (NOT ~~*I saw Mary's crossing the road*~~.)

3 object + past participle

In this structure, the past participle has a passive meaning.
*I **heard my name repeated** several times.* (= My name was repeated.)
*Have you ever **seen a television thrown** through a window?*
The idea of 'action or event in progress' can be given by a progressive form (***being*** + **past participle**).
*As I watched the tree **being cut** down . . .*
*I woke up to hear the bedroom door **being opened** slowly.*
These structures are not possible after passive forms of *hear* and *see*.

4 *look at*

Look at can be followed by **object + *-ing* form**, and in American English also by **object + infinitive**.
*Look at him **eating**!* *Look at him **eat**!* (AmE)

For more about verbs that can be followed by both infinitives and *-ing* forms, see 299.
For the difference between *hear* and *listen*, see 241.
For *see*, *look* and *watch*, see 506.

243 hear, see etc with that-clause

The present-tense forms *I hear (that) . . .* and *I see (that) . . .* are often used to introduce pieces of news which one has heard, read or seen on television.
I hear (that) Alice is expecting a baby.
I see (that) the firemen are going on strike.
Some other verbs can be used like this. Common examples are *understand* and *gather*. These are often used to check information.
*I **understand** you're moving to a new job.* ~ *Yes, that's right.*
*I **gather** you didn't like the party.* ~ *What makes you say that?*

244 help

After *help*, we can use **object + infinitive** (with or without *to*).
*Can you **help me (to) find** my ring?* (NOT ~~*Can you help me finding my ring?*~~)
*Thank you so much for **helping us (to) repair** the car.*
*Our main task is to **help the company (to) become** profitable.*
Help can also be followed directly by an infinitive without an object.
*Would you like **to help wash up**?*

For the expression *can't help . . .ing*, see 126.

245 here and there

We use *here* for the place where the speaker/writer is, and *there* for other places.

(on the telephone) *Hello, is Tom there?~No, I'm sorry, he's not here.*
(NOT ... ~~*he's not there.*~~)
Don't stay there in the corner by yourself. Come over here and talk to us.

Note that *here* and *there* cannot normally be used as nouns.

This place is terrible. *It is terrible here.* (BUT NOT ~~*Here is terrible.*~~)
Did you like that place? (BUT NOT ~~*Did you like there?*~~)

There are similar differences between *this* and *that* (see 589), *come* and *go* (see 134) and *bring* and *take* (see 112).
For *here's* and *there's* followed by plural nouns, see 532.4.
For inverted word order after *here* and *there*, see 303.1.
For *Here you are*, see 545.18.

246 high and tall

1 What kind of things are *tall*?

We use *tall* mostly for people, trees, buildings with many floors, and a few other things which are higher than they are wide (e.g. factory chimneys or electricity pylons).

*How **tall** are you?* (NOT ~~*How high are you?*~~)
*There are some beautiful **tall** trees at the end of our garden.*

In other cases we usually prefer *high*.

*Mount Elbrus is the **highest** mountain in Europe.*
*The garden's got very **high** walls.*

2 measurements

In measurements, we use *tall* for people, but we prefer *high* for things. Compare:

*I'm 1m 93 **tall**.* *That tree is about 30m **high**.*

3 distance above the ground

We use *high* to talk about distance above the ground. A child standing on a chair may be *higher* than her mother, although she is probably not *taller*.

*That shelf is too **high** for me to reach.*
*The clouds are very **high** today.*

4 parts of the body

Parts of the body can be *long*, but not *tall*.

*Alex has got beautiful **long** legs.* (NOT ... ~~*tall legs.*~~)

247 hire, rent and let

1 *hire* and *rent*

Hire and *rent* can mean: 'pay for the use of something'. In British English, *rent* is used for arrangements involving a long period of time (one rents a house, a

flat, a TV). For shorter periods (e.g. paying for a car, a boat, evening dress) *rent* and *hire* can both be used.

How much does it cost to rent a two-room flat?
I need to hire/rent a car for the weekend.

Hire (out) and *rent (out)* can also mean 'sell the use of something'.

There's a shop in High Street that hires/rents (out) evening dress.

In American English, *rent* is the normal word for both longer and shorter arrangements; *hire*, in American English, normally means 'employ'.

2 *let*

Let is used in British English, like *rent (out)*, to talk about selling the use of rooms, houses etc.

We let the upstairs room to a student.

248 holiday and holidays

In British English, the plural *holidays* is often used for the 'long holiday' of the year. In other cases we normally use the singular *holiday*. Compare:

*Where are you going for your summer **holiday(s)**?*
*We get five days' Christmas **holiday** this year.*
*Next Monday is a public **holiday**.*

The singular is used in the British expression *on holiday* (note the preposition).

*I met Marianne **on holiday** in Norway.* (NOT ... ~~*on/in holidays*~~ ...)

Americans more often use the word *vacation*. (In British English, *vacation* is mainly used for the periods when universities are not teaching.) *Holiday* is most often used in American English for a day of publicly observed celebration (such as Thanksgiving) when people do not have to work.

249 home

1 articles and prepositions

No article is used in the expression *at home* (meaning 'in one's own place').

*Is anybody **at home**?* (NOT ... ~~*at the home?*~~)

At is often dropped, especially in American English.

*Is anybody **home**?*

Home (without *to*) can be used as an adverb referring to direction.

*I think I'll go **home**.* (NOT ... ~~*to home.*~~)

There is no special preposition in English to express the idea of being at somebody's home (like French *chez*, German *bei*, Danish/Swedish/Norwegian *hos* etc). One way of saying this is to use *at* with a possessive.

*We had a great evening **at Philip's**.*
*Ring up and see if Jacqueline is **at the Smiths'**, could you?*

Possessive pronouns cannot be used in this way, though.

Come round to my place for a drink. (NOT ... ~~*to mine*~~ ...) ▸

2 *house* and *home*

House is an emotionally neutral word: it just refers to a particular type of building. *Home* is used more personally: it is the place that somebody lives in, and can express the idea of emotional attachment to a place. Compare:

*There are some horrible new **houses** in our village.*
*I lived there for six years, but I never really felt it was my **home**.*

250 hope

1 tenses after *hope*

After *I hope*, we often use a present tense with a future meaning.

*I hope she **likes*** (= will like) *the flowers.*
*I hope the bus **comes** soon.*

For a similar use of present tenses after *bet*, see 103.

2 negative sentences

In negative sentences, we usually put *not* with the verb that comes after *hope*.

*I hope she doesn't **wake** up.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope she wakes up*~~.)

For negative structures with *think*, *believe* etc, see 369.

3 special uses of past tenses

We can use *I was hoping* ... to introduce a polite request.

*I **was hoping** you could lend me some money.*

I had hoped ... refers to hopes for things that did not happen.

*I **had hoped** that Jennifer would study medicine, but she didn't want to.*

For more about the use of past tenses in polite requests, see 436.
For *I hope so/not*, see 539.
For the differences between *hope*, *expect*, *wait* and *look forward*, see 196.

251 hopefully

One meaning of *hopefully* is 'full of hope', 'hoping'.

*She sat there waiting **hopefully** for the phone to ring.*

Another, more recent meaning is 'it is to be hoped that' or 'I hope'.

***Hopefully**, inflation will soon be under control.*
***Hopefully** I'm not disturbing you?*

252 how

1 use and word order

How is used to introduce questions or the answers to questions.

How did you do it?
Tell me how you did it.
I know how he did it.

We also use *how* in exclamations (see 195). The word order is not the same as in questions. Compare:

– *How cold is it?*
  How cold it is!
– *How do you like my hair?*
  How I love weekends! (NOT ~~*How do I love weekends!*~~)
– *How have you been?*
  How you've grown! (NOT ~~*How have you grown!*~~)

When *how* is used in an exclamation with an adjective or adverb, this comes immediately after *how*.

How beautiful the trees are! (NOT ~~*How the trees are beautiful!*~~)
How well she plays! (NOT ~~*How she plays well!*~~)

For the difference between *how* and *what like*, see 253.

2 with adjectives/adverbs: *how*, not *how much*

We use *how*, not *how much*, before adjectives and adverbs.

How tall are you? (NOT ~~*How much tall are you?*~~)
Show me how fast you can run. (NOT ... ~~*how much fast*~~ ...)

3 comparisons: *how* not used

In comparisons we use *as* or *like* (see 326) or *the way* (see below), not *how*.

Hold it in both hands, as / like / the way Mummy does.
(NOT ... ~~*how Mummy does.*~~)

4 *how, what* and *why*

These three question words can sometimes be confused. Note particularly the following common structures.

How do you know? (NOT ~~*Why do you know?*~~)
What do you call this? (NOT ~~*How do you call this?*~~)
What's that ... called? (NOT ~~*How is that ... called?*~~)
What do you think? (NOT ~~*How do you think?*~~)
What? What did you say? (NOT ~~*How? How did you say?*~~)
Why should I think that?

Both *What about ...?* and *How about ...?* are used to make suggestions, and to bring up points that have been forgotten.

What/How about eating out this evening?
What/How about the kids? Who's going to look after them?

In exclamations (see 195), *what* is used before noun phrases; *how* is used before adjectives (without nouns), adverbs and verb phrases.

What a marvellous house!
How marvellous! *How you've changed!*

5 *how much, how many, how old, how far* etc

Many interrogative expressions of two or more words begin with *how*. These are used to ask for measurements, quantities etc. Examples:

How much do you weigh?
How many people were there?
How old are your parents?
How far is your house? *How often do you come to New York?* ▸

Note that English does not have a special expression to ask for ordinal numbers (*first, second* etc).

It's our wedding anniversary. ~ *Congratulations. Which one?* (NOT ... ~~*the how-manyeth?*~~)

6 *how*-clauses in sentences

How-clauses are common as the objects of verbs like *ask, tell, wonder* or *know,* which can introduce indirect questions.

*Don't ask me **how the journey was.***
*Tell us **how you did it.***
*I wonder **how animals talk to each other.***
*Does anybody know **how big the universe is?***

How-clauses can also be used as subjects, complements or adverbials, especially in a more informal style.

***How you divide up the money** is your business.* (subject)
*This is **how much I've done** since this morning.* (complement after *be*)
*I spend my money **how I like.*** (adverbial)

7 *the way*

The way (see 615) can often be used instead of non-interrogative *how*. Note that *the way* and *how* are not used together.

*Look at **the way** those cats wash each other.* OR *Look at **how** those cats ...* (NOT ... ~~*the way how those cats wash*~~ ...)
The way you organise the work is for you to decide. OR *How you organise ...* (NOT ~~*The way how you organise*~~ ...)

For *how to ...*, see 286.
For *learn how to ...*, see 317.
For *how ever*, see 624.
For *however*, see 49, 157.3, 625.

253 how and what ... like?

1 changes: *How's Ron?*

We generally use *how* to ask about things that change – for example people's moods and health. We prefer *what ... like* to ask about things that do not change – for example people's character and appearance. Compare:

– *How's Ron?* ~ *He's very well.*
  What's Ron like? ~ *He's quiet and a bit shy.*
– *How does she look today?* ~ *Tired.*
  What does she look like? ~ *Short and dark, pretty, cheerful-looking.*

2 reactions: *How was the film?*

We often use *how* to ask about people's reactions to their experiences. *What ... like* is also possible.

How was the film? ~ *Very good.* (OR *What was the film like ...?*)
How's your steak? *How's the new job?*

254 -ic and -ical

Many adjectives end in *-ic* or *-ical*. There is no general rule to tell you which form is correct in a particular case.

1 some adjectives normally ending in *-ic*

academic	*dramatic*	*linguistic*	*semantic*
algebraic	*egoistic*	*majestic*	*syntactic*
arithmetic	*emphatic*	*neurotic*	*systematic*
artistic	*energetic*	*pathetic*	*tragic*
athletic	*fantastic*	*pedagogic*	
catholic	*geometric*	*phonetic*	
domestic	*strategic*	*public*	

arithmetical, geometrical and *pedagogical* also occur.
Some of these words ended in *-ical* in older English (e.g. *fantastical, majestical, tragical*).
New adjectives which come into the language generally end in *-ic*, except for those ending in *-logical*.

2 some adjectives ending in *-ical*

biological (and many other adjectives ending in *-logical*)

chemical	*fanatical*	*medical*	*surgical*
critical	*logical*	*musical*	*tactical*
cynical	*mathematical*	*physical*	*topical*
grammatical	*mechanical*	*radical*	

3 differences of meaning

In some cases, both forms exist but with a difference of meaning.

a *classic* and *classical*

Classic usually refers to a famous traditional style.
He's ***a classic*** *1960s hippy who has never changed.*
She buys ***classic*** *cars and restores them.*
Classical refers to the culture of ancient Greece and Rome, or to European works of art of the so-called 'classical' period in the 18th century.
She's studying ***classical*** *languages and literature at Cambridge.*
Classical music means 'serious' music, not pop or jazz.
It's hard to learn ***classical*** *guitar.*

b *comic* and *comical*

Comic is the normal adjective for artistic comedy.
comic *verse* ***comic*** *opera*
Shakespeare's ***comic*** *technique*
Comical is a rather old-fashioned word meaning 'funny'.
a comical *expression* ▸

c *economic* and *economical*

Economic refers to the science of economics, or to the economy of a country.
economic theory *economic problems*
Economical means 'not wasting money'.
an economical little car *an economical housekeeper*

d *electric* and *electrical*

Electric is used with the names of particular machines that work by electricity.
an electric motor *electric blankets*
Note also: *an electric shock; an electric atmosphere* (full of excitement).
Electrical is used before more general words.
electrical appliances *electrical equipment*
electrical component *electrical engineering*

e *historic* and *historical*

Historic is used especially for historically important places, remains, customs etc, and for moments which 'make history'.
We spent our holiday visiting historic houses and castles in France.
Our two countries are about to make a historic agreement.
Historical means 'connected with the study of history' or 'really existing in history'.
historical research *a historical novel*
historical documents *Was King Arthur a historical figure?*

f *magic* and *magical*

Magic is the more common word, and is used in a number of fixed expressions.
a magic wand (= a magician's stick)
the magic word *a magic carpet*
Magical is sometimes used instead of *magic*, especially in metaphorical senses like 'mysterious', 'wonderful' or 'exciting'.
It was a magical experience.

g *politic* and *political*

Politic is a rather unusual word for 'wise', 'prudent'.
I don't think it would be politic to ask for a loan just now.
Political means 'connected with politics'.
political history *a political career*

4 adverbs

Note that whether the adjective ends in *-ic* or *-ical*, the adverb ends in *-ically* (pronounced /ɪkli/). The one common exception is *publicly* (NOT ~~*publically*~~).

5 nouns ending in *-ics*

Many nouns ending in *-ics* are singular (e.g. *physics, athletics*). Some can be either singular or plural (e.g. *mathematics, politics*). For details, see 524.3.

255 idioms, collocations and fixed expressions

1 What are idioms?

An expression like *turn up* (meaning 'arrive'), *break even* (meaning 'make neither a profit nor a loss') or *a can of worms* (meaning 'a complicated problem') can be difficult to understand, because its meaning is different from the meanings of the separate words in the expression. (If you know *break* and *even*, this does not help you at all to understand *break even*.) Expressions like these are called 'idioms'. Idioms are usually special to one language and cannot be translated word for word (though related languages may share some idioms).

2 verbs with particles or prepositions

Common short verbs like *bring, come, do, get, give, go, have, keep, make, put,* and *take* are very often used with prepositions or adverb particles (e.g. *on, off, up, away*) to make two-word verbs. These are called 'prepositional verbs' or 'phrasal verbs', and many of them are idiomatic.

*Can you **look after** the cats while I'm away?*
*She just doesn't know how to **bring up** children.*
*I **gave up** chemistry because I didn't like it.*

Many of these two-word verbs are especially common in informal speech and writing. Compare:

- *What time are you planning to **turn up**?* (informal)
  *Please let us know when you plan to **arrive**.* (more formal)
- *Just **keep on** till you **get to** the crossroads.* (informal)
  *Continue **as far as** the crossroads.* (formal)

For details of phrasal and prepositional verbs, see 599–600.

3 collocations (conventional word combinations)

We can say *I fully understand*, but not *I fully like*; *I rather like*, but not *I rather understand*; *I firmly believe*, but not *I firmly think*. Somebody can be a *heavy smoker* or a *devoted friend*, but not *a devoted smoker* or *a heavy friend*. Expressions like these are also idiomatic, in a sense. They are easy to understand, but not so easy for a learner to produce correctly. One can think of many adjectives that might be used with *smoker* to say that somebody smokes a lot – for example *big, strong, hard, fierce, mad, devoted*. It just happens that English speakers have chosen to use *heavy*, and one has to know this in order to express the idea naturally and correctly. These conventional combinations of words are called 'collocations', and all languages have large numbers of them. Some more examples:

a crashing bore (BUT NOT ~~*a crashing nuisance*~~)
a burning desire (BUT NOT ~~*a blazing desire*~~)
a blazing row (BUT NOT ~~*a burning row*~~)
highly reliable (BUT NOT ~~*highly old*~~)
a golden opportunity (BUT NOT ~~*a golden chance*~~)
change one's mind (BUT NOT ~~*change one's thoughts*~~)
Thanks a lot. (BUT NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)

4 situational language: fixed expressions

The expressions that are used in typical everyday situations are often idiomatic in the same sense. With the help of a dictionary and a grammar, one could invent various possible ways of expressing a particular common idea, but generally there are only one or two ways that happen to be used by English speakers, and one has to know what they are in order to speak or write naturally. Some examples:

Could you check the oil? (More natural than *Could you inspect the oil?* or *Could you see how much oil there is in the engine?*)

Is it a direct flight or do I have to change? (More natural than *Does the plane go straight there or do I have to get another one?)*

Sorry I kept you waiting. (More natural than *Sorry I made you wait.)*

Could I reserve a table for three for eight o'clock? (More natural than *Could you keep me a table for three persons for eight o'clock?)*

Other fixed expressions are used as parts of sentences – useful introductions, conclusions or frames for the things that people want to say.

Let me know when/where/what/how ...

The best thing would be to ...	*(do something) as a favour.*
The point is ...	*... is more trouble than it's worth.*
I wouldn't be surprised if ...	*I'll ... on condition that you.*

5 using idioms, collocations and fixed expressions.

Idioms, collocations and fixed expressions are common in all kinds of English, formal and informal, spoken and written. Informal spoken language is often very idiomatic.

Students should not worry because they do not know all the expressions of this kind that are commonly used by English speakers. If they use non-idiomatic ways of expressing ideas, they will normally be understood, and English speakers do not expect foreigners to speak perfect natural English. It is therefore not necessary for students to make great efforts to memorise idioms, collocations etc: they will learn the most common ones naturally along with the rest of their English. In particular, note that books of idioms often contain expressions which are slangy, rare or out of date, and which students should avoid unless they understand exactly how and when the expressions are used. This is especially true of colourful idioms like, for example, *raining cats and dogs, as cross as two sticks* (= angry) or *kick the bucket* (= die). If students try consciously to fill their speech and writing with such expressions the effect will probably be very strange.

It is, however, helpful for learners to have a good up-to-date dictionary of collocations (for example the *Oxford Dictionary of Collocations*) in order to become aware of the most common word combinations.

For more about formal and informal language, see 311.
For slang, see 533.

256 if (1): introduction

1 uncertain events and situations

In clauses after *if*, we usually talk about uncertain events and situations: things which may or may not happen, which may or may not be true, etc.

Ask John if he's staying tonight. (He may or may not be staying.)
If I see Annie, I'll give her your love. (I may or may not see Annie.)

2 conditions

An *if*-clause often refers to a condition – something which must happen so that something else can happen.

If you get here before eight, we can catch the early train.
Oil floats if you pour it on water.

Clauses of this kind are often called 'conditional' clauses. Verb phrases with *would/should* are also sometimes called 'conditional'.

3 'first', 'second' and 'third' conditionals; other structures

Some students' grammars concentrate on three common sentence structures with *if*, which are often called the 'first', 'second' and 'third' conditionals.

'first conditional'

if + present	*will* + infinitive
If we play tennis	*I'll win.*

'second conditional'

if + past	*would* + infinitive
If we played tennis	*I would win.*

'third conditional'

if + past perfect	*would have* + past participle
If we had played tennis	*I would have won.*

These are useful structures to practise. However, students sometimes think that these are the only possibilities, and become confused when they meet sentences like *If she didn't phone this morning, then she's probably away* ('What's this? A fourth conditional?'). It is important to realise that *if* is not only used in special structures with *will* and *would*; it can also be used, like other conjunctions, in ordinary structures with normal verb forms. For details, see the following sections.

4 position of *if*-clause

An *if*-clause can come at the beginning or end of a sentence. When an *if*-clause comes first, it is often separated by a comma. ▸

Compare:
If you eat too much, you get fat.
You get fat if you eat too much.

For other meanings of *if*, see 261.10–13.
For *if* and *whether* in indirect speech, see 276, 621.
For *if not* and *unless*, see 601.
For more information about *would/should*, see 633.
For the difference between *if* and *in case*, see 271.
For *even if*, see 189.4.

257 if (2): ordinary structures

If you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.
I'll give her your love if I see her.

1 the same tenses as with other conjunctions

When we are not talking about 'unreal' situations (see 258), we use the same tenses with *if* as with other conjunctions. Present tenses are used to refer to the present, past tenses to the past, and so on. Compare:
- *Oil floats if you pour it on water.*
  Iron goes red when it gets very hot.
- *If John didn't come to work yesterday, he was probably ill.*
  As John didn't come to work yesterday, he was probably ill.
- *If you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.*
  Because you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.

2 present tense with future meaning

In an *if*-clause, we normally use a present tense to talk about the future. This happens after most conjunctions (see 580). Compare:
- *I'll give her your love if I see her.* (NOT ... ~~*if I will see her.*~~)
  I'll give her your love when I see her. (NOT ... ~~*when I will see her.*~~)
- *If we have fine weather tomorrow, I'm going to paint the windows.*
  As soon as we have fine weather, I'm going to paint the windows.

For *if* + *will* (e.g. *if it will make you feel better*), see 260.
For *if* + *will* in reported speech (e.g. *I don't know if I'll be ready*), see 276.

258 if (3): special structures with past tenses and would

If I knew her name, I would tell you.
What would you do if you lost your job?

1 unreal situations

We use special structures with *if* when we are talking about unreal situations – things that will probably not happen, situations that are untrue or imaginary, and similar ideas. In these cases, we use past tenses and *would* to 'distance' our language from reality.

2 *if* + past; *would* + infinitive without *to*

To talk about unreal or improbable situations now or in the future, we use a past tense in the *if*-clause (even though the meaning is present or future), and ***would*** + **infinitive** (without *to*) in the other part of the sentence.

*If I **knew** her name, I **would tell** you.* (NOT ~~*If I know*~~...)
(NOT ~~*If I would know*~~...) (NOT ...~~*I will tell you.*~~)
*She **would be** perfectly happy if she **had** a car.*
*What **would** you **do** if you **lost** your job?*

This structure can make suggestions sound less definite, and so more polite.

*It **would be** nice if you **helped** me a bit with the housework.*
*Would it be all right if I **came** round about seven tomorrow?*

3 *would, should* and *'d*

After *I* and *we*, *should* can be used with the same meaning as *would*. (*Would* is more common in modern English; *should* is rare in AmE.)

*If I **knew** her name, I **should tell** you.*
*If I **married** you, we **should** both be unhappy.*

We use *'d* as a contraction (see 143).

We'd get up earlier if there was a good reason to.

For *I should* ... meaning 'I advise you to ...', see 264.2.
For *would* in the *if*-clause, see 262.
For *should* in the *if*-clause, see 261.1.

4 *if I were* etc

We often use *were* instead of *was* after *if*. This is common in both formal and informal styles. In a formal style *were* is more common than *was*, and many people consider it more correct, especially in American English. The grammatical name for this use of *were* is 'subjunctive' (see 567).

*If I **were** rich, I **would spend** all my time travelling.*
*If my nose **were** a little shorter I'd be quite pretty.*

For the expression *If I were you* ..., see 264.

5 ordinary tense-use or special tense-use? *If I come* or *if I came*?

The difference between, for example, *if I come* and *if I came* is not necessarily a difference of time. They can both refer to the future; but the past tense suggests that a future situation is impossible, imaginary or less probable. Compare:

- *If I **become** President, I'll* ... (said by a candidate in an election)
  *If I **became** President, I'd* ... (said by a schoolboy)
- *If I **win** this race, I'll* ... (said by the fastest runner)
  *If I **won** this race, I'd* ... (said by the slowest runner)
- *Will it be all right if I **bring** a friend?* (direct request)
  *Would it be all right if I **brought** a friend?* (less direct, more polite)

6 *could* and *might*

We can use *could* to mean 'would be able to' and *might* to mean 'would perhaps' or 'would possibly'. ▸

*If I had another £500, I **could** buy a car.*
*If you asked me nicely, I **might** get you a drink.*

For other cases where a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.
For *if only*, see 265.

259 if (4): unreal past situations

If you had worked harder, you would have passed your exam.

1 *if* + past perfect; *would have* + past participle

To talk about past situations that did not happen, we use a past perfect tense in the *if*-clause, and *would have* + past participle in the other part of the sentence.

*If you **had asked** me, I **would have told** you.*
(NOT ~~*If you would have asked me*~~ . . .)
(NOT ~~*If you asked me*~~ . . .) (NOT . . . ~~*I had told you.*~~)
*If you **had worked** harder, you **would have passed** your exam.*
*I'd **have been** in bad trouble if Jane **hadn't helped** me.*

2 *could have* . . . and *might have* . . .

We can use *could have* + past participle to mean 'would have been able to . . .', and *might have* + past participle to mean 'would perhaps have . . . ' or 'would possibly have . . .'.

*If he'd run a bit faster, he **could have won**.*
*If I hadn't been so tired, I **might have realised** what was happening.*

3 present use: situations that are no longer possible

We sometimes use structures with *would have* . . . to talk about present and future situations which are no longer possible because of the way things have turned out.

*It **would have been** nice to go to Australia this winter, but there's no way we can do it.* (OR *It would be nice* . . .)
*If my mother hadn't knocked my father off his bicycle thirty years ago, I **wouldn't have been** here now.* (OR . . . *I wouldn't be here now.*)

260 if (5): if . . . will

I'll give you £100 if it will help you to go on holiday.
If Ann won't be here, we'd better cancel the meeting.
I don't know if I'll be ready in time.
If you will come this way . . .
If you will eat so much . . .

We normally use a present tense with *if* (and most other conjunctions) to refer to the future (see 580).

*I'll phone you if I **have** time.* (NOT . . . ~~*if I will have time.*~~)

But in certain situations we use *if* . . . *will*.

1 results

We use *will* with *if* to talk about what will happen because of possible future actions – to mean 'if this will be the later result'. Compare:

– *I'll give you £100 if I **win** the lottery.* (Winning the lottery is a condition – it must happen first.)
  *I'll give you £100 if it'll **help** you to go on holiday.* (The holiday is a result – it follows the gift of money.)
– *We'll go home now if you **get** the car.* (condition)
  *We'll go home now if it **will make** you feel better.* (result)

2 'If it is true now that ...'

We use *will* with *if* when we are saying 'if it is true now that ...' or 'if we know now that ...'.

*If Ann **won't** be here on Thursday, we'd better cancel the meeting.*
*If prices **will** really come down in a few months, I'm not going to buy one now.*

3 indirect questions: *I don't know if ...*

We can use *will* after *if* in indirect questions (see 276).

I don't know if I'll be ready in time. (NOT ... ~~*if I'm ready in time.*~~)

4 polite requests

We can use *if* + *will* in polite requests. In this case, *will* is not a future auxiliary; it means 'are willing to' (see 629.4).

*If you **will** come this way, I'll show you your room.*
*If your mother **will** fill in this form, I'll prepare her ticket.*

Would can be used to make a request even more polite.

*If you **would** come this way ...*

5 insistence

Stressed *will* can be used after *if* to suggest insistence.

If you WILL eat so much, it's not surprising you feel ill.

261 if (6): other points

1 *if ... should; if ... happen to*

We can suggest that something is unlikely, or not particularly probable, by using *should* (not *would*) in the *if*-clause.

*If you **should** run into Peter, tell him he owes me a letter.*

If ... happen to has a similar meaning.

*If you **happen** to pass a supermarket, perhaps you could get some eggs.*

Should and *happen to* can be used together.

*If you **should happen** to finish early, give me a ring.*

Would is not common in the main clause in these structures.

*If he **should** be late, we'll have to start without him.*
(NOT ... ~~*we'd have to start without him.*~~)

2 *if . . . was/were to*

This is another way of talking about unreal or imaginary future events.

If the boss was/were to come in now, we'd be in real trouble.
(= If the boss came . . .)

What would we do if I was/were to lose my job?

It can be used to make a suggestion sound less direct, and so more polite.

If you were to move your chair a bit, we could all sit down.

This structure is not normally used with verbs like *be* or *know*, which refer to continuing situations.

If I knew her name . . . (NOT ~~*If I were to know her name*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *was* and *were* after *if*, see 258.4.

3 *if it was/were not for*

This structure is used to say that one event or situation changes everything.

If it wasn't/weren't for his wife's money he'd never be a director.
(= Without his wife's money . . .)

If it wasn't/weren't for the children, we could go skiing next week.

To talk about the past we use *If it had not been for.*

If it hadn't been for your help, I don't know what I'd have done.

But for can be used to mean 'if it were not for' or 'if it had not been for'.

But for your help, I don't know what I'd have done.

4 leaving out *if*: conversational

If is sometimes left out at the beginning of a sentence in a conversational style, especially when the speaker is making conditions or threats.

You want to get in, you pay like everybody else. (= If you want . . .)

You touch me again, I'll kick your teeth in.

5 leaving out *if*: formal inversion-structures

In formal and literary styles, *if* can be dropped and an auxiliary verb put before the subject. This happens mostly with *were, had* and *should.*

Were she my daughter, . . . (= If she were my daughter . . .)

Had I realised what you intended, . . . (= If I had realised . . .)

Should you change your mind, . . . (= If you should change . . .)

Negatives are not contracted.

Had we not missed the plane, we would all have been killed in the crash.
(NOT ~~*Hadn't we missed*~~ . . .)

For other uses of inverted word order, see 302–303.

6 leaving out words after *if*

We sometimes leave out **subject + *be*** after *if*. Note the common fixed expressions *if necessary, if any, if anything, if ever, if in doubt.*

I'll work late tonight if necessary. (= . . . if it is necessary)

There is little if any good evidence for flying saucers.

I'm not angry. If anything, I feel a little surprised.

He seldom if ever travels abroad.

If in doubt, ask for help. (= If you are in doubt . . .)

If about to go on a long journey, try to have a good night's sleep.

For more details of ellipsis (structures with words left out), see 177–182.

7 *if so* and *if not*

After *if*, we can use *so* and *not* instead of repeating a whole clause.

Are you free? If so, let's go out for a meal. (= . . . If you are free . . .)

I might see you tomorrow. If not, then it'll be Saturday. (= . . . If I don't see you tomorrow . . .)

8 extra negative

An extra *not* is sometimes put into *if*-clauses after expressions suggesting doubt or uncertainty.

I wonder if we shouldn't ask the doctor to look at Mary.
(= I wonder if we should ask . . .)

I wouldn't be surprised if she didn't get married soon.
(= . . . if she got married soon.)

9 *if . . . then*

We sometimes construct sentences with *if . . . then* to emphasise that one thing depends on another.

If she can't come to us, then we'll have to go and see her.

10 *if* meaning 'even if'

We can use *if* to mean 'even if' (see 189.4).

I'll finish this job if it takes all night.

I wouldn't marry you if you were the last man in the world.

11 admitting facts with *if*

An *if*-clause can be used to admit a fact when giving a reason for it.

If I'm a bit sleepy, it's because I was up all night.

12 *if* meaning 'I'm saying this in case'

If-clauses are quite often used to explain the purpose of a remark – to suggest 'I'm saying this in case . . .'

There's some steak in the fridge if you're hungry.

If you want to go home, Anne's got your car keys.

13 *if* meaning 'although'

In a formal style, *if* can be used with a similar meaning to *although*. This is common in the structure *if* + **adjective** (with no verb). *If* is not as definite as *although*; it can suggest that what is being talked about is a matter of opinion, or not very important.

His style, if simple, is pleasant to read.

The profits, if a little lower than last year's, are still extremely healthy.

The same kind of idea can be expressed with *may . . . but* (see 342).

His style may be simple, but it is pleasant to read.

262 if (7): other structures found in spoken English

1 *would* in both clauses

Conditional *would* is sometimes used in both clauses of an *if*-sentence. This is very informal, and is not usually written. It is common in spoken American English.

*It **would** be good if we'd get some rain.*
*How **would** we feel if this **would** happen to our family?*

For *if . . . would* in polite requests, see 260.4.

2 *'d have . . . 'd have*

In informal spoken English, *if*-clauses referring to the past are sometimes constructed with *'d have*. This is frequently considered incorrect, but happens quite often in educated people's speech. It is not normally written.

*If I'd **have** known, I'd have told you.*
*It would have been funny if she'd **have** recognised him.*

3 *had've* and *would've*

Instead of the contracted *'d* in these structures, full forms are sometimes used for emphasis or in negatives. Both *had* and *would* occur. The following are genuine examples taken from conversation.

*I didn't know. But if I **had've** known . . .*
*We would never have met if he **hadn't have** crashed into my car.*
*If I **would've** had a gun, somebody might have got hurt.*
*If you **wouldn't have** phoned her we'd never have found out what was happening.*

4 mixed tenses

Sometimes a simple past tense is used with *if* where a past perfect would be normal. This is more common in American English.

*If I **knew** you were coming I'd have baked a cake.*
*If I **had** the money with me I would have bought you one.*
*If I **didn't have** my walking boots on I think I would have really hurt my foot.*

263 if (8): other words with the same meaning

Many words and expressions can be used with a similar meaning to *if*, and often with similar structures. Some of the commonest are *imagine (that)*, *suppose (that)*, *supposing (that)* (used to talk about what might happen), and *providing (that)*, *provided (that)*, *as/so long as*, *on condition (that)* (used to make conditions).

Imagine we could all fly. Wouldn't that be fun!
Supposing you'd missed the train. What would you have done?
*You can borrow my bike **providing/provided** you bring it back.*
*I'll give you the day off **on condition that** you work on Saturday morning.*
*You're welcome to stay with us **as/so long as** you share the expenses.*

For suggestions with *suppose*, *supposing* and *what if*, see 571.

264 if I were you

1 advice

We often use the structure *If I were you* ... to give advice.

I shouldn't worry if I were you.
If I were you, I'd get that car serviced.

If I was you is also possible. Some people consider it incorrect (see 258.4).

2 *I should/would* ...

Sometimes we leave out *If I were you,* and just use *I should* ... or *I would* ... to give advice.

I shouldn't worry. *I would get that car serviced.*

In this case, *I should/would* is similar to *you should/would.*

265 if only

We can use *If only* ...! to say that we would like things to be different. It means the same as *I wish* ... (see 630), but is more emphatic. The clause with *if only* often stands alone, without a main clause. Tense use is as follows:

a past to talk about the present

If only I knew more people! *If only I was better-looking!*

We can use *were* instead of *was* (see 258.4).

If only your father were here!

b *would* + infinitive (without *to*) to talk about the future

If only it would stop raining, we could go out.
If only somebody would smile!

c past perfect to talk about the past

If only she hadn't told the police, everything would have been all right.

266 ill and sick

Ill and *sick* are both used to mean 'unwell'. (In American English *ill* is less usual except in a formal style.)

George didn't come in last week because he was ill/sick.

Ill is not very common before a noun.

I'm looking after my sick mother. (More normal than ... *my ill mother.*)

Be sick can meant 'vomit' (= bring food up from the stomach).

I was sick three times in the night.

267 immediately, the moment etc: conjunctions

In British English, *immediately* and *directly* can be used as conjunctions, to mean 'as soon as'.

*Tell me **immediately** you have any news.*
*I knew something was wrong **immediately** I arrived.*
Directly I walked in the door, I smelt smoke.

The moment (that), the instant (that), the second (that) and *the minute (that)* can be used in the same way (in both British and American English).

Telephone me the moment (that) you get the results.
I loved you the instant (that) I saw you.

268 imperatives

1 forms and use

In sentences like *Come here, Be quiet, Have a drink* or *Don't worry about it*, the verb forms *come, be, have* and *don't worry* are called 'imperatives'. Affirmative imperatives have the same form as the infinitive without *to*; negative imperatives are constructed with *do not* (*don't*).

Imperatives are used, for example, to tell or ask people to do things, to make suggestions, to give advice or instructions, to encourage and offer, and to express wishes for people's welfare.

Look in the mirror before you drive off.
Please do not lean out of the window.
Tell him you're not free this evening.
Try again – you nearly did it.
Have some more tea.
Enjoy your holiday.

An imperative followed by *and* or *or* can mean the same as an *if*-clause.

Walk down our street any day and you'll see kids playing.
(= If you walk ...)
Shut up or I'll lose my temper. (= If you don't shut up ...)
Don't do that again or you'll be in trouble.

2 emphatic imperative: *Do sit down*

We can make an emphatic imperative with *do*.

Do sit down. *Do be more careful.* *Do forgive me.*

3 passive imperative: *get vaccinated*

To tell people to arrange for things to be done to them, we often use *get* + past participle.

Get vaccinated as soon as you can.

For more about *get* as passive auxiliary, see 223.5.

4 *do(n't) be*

Although *do* is not normally used as an auxiliary with *be* (see 90), this happens in negative imperatives.

Don't be silly!

Do be can begin emphatic imperatives.

Do be quiet!

5 subject with imperative

The imperative does not usually have a subject, but we can use a noun or pronoun to make it clear who we are speaking to.

Mary come here – everybody else stay where you are.

Somebody answer the phone. *Relax, everybody.*

You before an imperative can suggest emphatic persuasion or anger.

You just sit down and relax for a bit. *You take your hands off me!*

Note the word order in negative imperatives with pronoun subjects.

Don't you believe it. (NOT ~~*You don't believe it.*~~)

Don't anybody say a word. (NOT ~~*Anybody don't say*~~ . . .)

6 question tags

After imperatives, common question tags (see 487–488) are *will you? would you? can you?* and *could you?*

Give me a hand, will you?

Wait here for a minute, would you?

Get me something to drink, can you?

Can't you and *won't you* are more emphatic.

Be quiet, can't you? *Sit down, won't you?*

After negative imperatives, *will you?* is used.

Don't tell anybody, will you?

7 word order with *always* and *never*

Always and *never* come before imperatives.

Always remember what I told you. (NOT ~~*Remember always*~~ . . .)

Never speak to me like that again.

8 *let*

English does not have a first-person imperative (used to suggest that 'I' or 'we' should do something) or a third-person imperative (for other people, not the hearer). These ideas are often expressed by a structure with *let*.

Let me see. Do I need to go shopping today? *Let's go home.*

Let him wait.

For more details of this structure, see 323.

269 in and into, on and onto: prepositions

1 position and direction

We generally use *in* and *on* to talk about the positions of things – where they are; and *into* and *onto* to talk about directions and destinations – where things are going. Compare: ▸

– *A moment later the ball was **in** the goal.*
*The ball rolled slowly **into** the goal.* (NOT ... ~~*rolled slowly in the goal.*~~)
– *She was walking **in** the garden.* – *The cat's **on** the roof again.*
*Then she walked **into** the house.* *How does it get **onto** the roof?*

Note that *into* and *onto* are normally written as single words. *On to* is also possible in British English.

2 *in* and *on* for movement

After some verbs (e.g. *throw, jump, push, put, fall*) we can use both *in* and *into*, or *on* and *onto*, to talk about directional movement. We prefer *into/onto* when we think of the movement itself, and *in/on* when we think more of the end of the movement – the place where somebody or something will be. Compare:
– *The children keep jumping **into** the flowerbeds.*
*Go and jump **in** the river.*
– *In the experiment, we put glowing magnesium **into** jars of oxygen.*
*Could you put the ham **in** the fridge?*
– *He was trying to throw his hat **onto** the roof*
*Throw another log **on** the fire.*

We use *in* and *on* after *sit down* and *arrive*.
*He sat down **in** the armchair, and I sat down **on** the floor.* (NOT ~~*He sat down into*~~... OR ~~*I sat down onto*~~...)
*We arrive **in** Athens at midday.* (NOT USUALLY *We arrive into Athens* ...)

For *arrive at* ..., see 81.

3 *into* for change

We normally use *into* after verbs suggesting change.
*When she kissed the frog, it **changed into** a handsome prince.*
(NOT ... ~~*changed in a handsome prince.*~~)
*Can you **translate** this **into** Chinese?* (NOT ... ~~*translate this in Chinese?*~~)

Cut can be followed by *into* or *in*.
*Cut the onion **in(to)** small pieces.*

And note the expression *in half*.
*I broke it **in half**.* (NOT ... ~~*into half.*~~)

4 *in* and *on* as adverbs

In and *on* are used as adverbs for both position and movement.
*I stayed **in** last night.* *Come **in**!* (NOT ~~*Come into!*~~)
*What have you got **on**?* *Put your coat **on**.*

For the difference between *in* and *to*, see 270.

270 in and to

1 *go to school in ...* etc

After expressions like *go to school, go to work*, we use *in*, not *to*, to say where the school, work etc is located.
*He went to school **in** Bristol.* (NOT ~~*He went to school to Bristol.*~~)

At is also possible. (For the difference between *in* and *at*, see 81.)
She went to university at/in Oxford.

2 *arrive* etc

We use *in* (or *at*), not *to*, after *arrive* and *land*.

We arrive in Bangkok on Tuesday morning. (NOT ~~*We arrive to Bangkok*~~...)

What time do we land at Barcelona? (NOT ...~~*land to Barcelona?*~~)

271 in case and if

1 precautions

In case is mostly used to talk about precautions – things which we do in order to be ready for possible future situations.

I always take an umbrella in case it rains. (= ... because it might rain.)

To talk about the future, we use a present tense after *in case* (see 580).

I've bought a chicken in case your mother stays to lunch. (NOT ...~~*in case your mother will stay*~~...)

2 *in case ... should*

We often use ***should*** + infinitive (with a similar meaning to *might*) after *in case*. This adds the meaning 'by chance'.

I've bought a chicken in case your mother should stay to lunch.

This structure is especially common in sentences about the past.

I wrote down her address in case I should forget it.

The meaning 'by chance' can also be expressed by *(should) happen to.*

We took our swimming things in case we happened to find a pool.
(OR ... *in case we should happen to find a pool.*)

3 *in case* and *if*

In case and *if* are normally used in quite different ways.

'Do A *in case* B happens' means 'Do A (first) because B might happen later'.

'Do A *if* B happens' means 'Do A if B has already happened'. Compare:

- *Let's buy a bottle of wine in case Roger comes.*
  (= Let's buy some wine now because Roger might come later.)
  Let's buy a bottle of wine if Roger comes. (= We'll wait and see. If Roger comes, then we'll buy the wine. If he doesn't we won't.)
- *I'm taking an umbrella in case it rains.*
  I'll open the umbrella if it rains. (NOT ~~*I'll open the umbrella in case it rains.*~~)
- *People insure their houses in case they catch fire.* (NOT ...~~*if they catch fire.*~~)
  People telephone the fire brigade if their houses catch fire. (NOT ...~~*telephone*~~ ...~~*in case their houses catch fire.*~~)

4 *in case of*

The prepositional phrase *in case of* has a wider meaning than the conjunction *in case*, and can be used in similar situations to *if*.

In case of fire, break glass. (= If there is a fire ...)

272 in spite of

In spite of is used as a preposition. ***In spite of*** + **noun** means more or less the same as ***although*** + **clause**.

*We went out **in spite of** the rain.* (= ... although it was raining.)
*We understood him **in spite of** his accent.*
(= ... although he had a strong accent.)

In spite of is the opposite of *because of*. Compare:

*She passed her exams **in spite of** her teacher.* (She had a bad teacher.)
*She passed her exams **because of** her teacher.* (She had a good teacher.)

In spite of can be followed by an *-ing* form.

***In spite of having** a headache I enjoyed the film.*

In spite of cannot be followed directly by a *that*-clause. Instead, we can use *in spite of the fact that*.

*He is good company, **in spite of the fact that** he talks all the time.*

This is rather heavy: *although* means the same, and is more common.
In more formal English, *despite* can be used in the same way as *in spite of*.

273 indeed

1 *very ... indeed*

Indeed is often used to emphasise *very* with an adjective or adverb.

*I was **very pleased indeed** to hear from you.*
*He was driving **very fast indeed**.* *Thank you **very much indeed**.*

Indeed is unusual in this sense without *very*, and is not normally used after *extremely* or *quite*.

(NOT ~~*He was driving fast indeed*~~.)
(NOT ~~*He was driving quite/extremely fast indeed*~~.)

2 *indeed* with verb

Indeed can also be used after *be* or an auxiliary verb in order to suggest confirmation or emphatic agreement. This is rather formal. It is common in short answers (see 517).

*We are **indeed** interested in your offer, and would be glad to have prices.*
*It's cold. ~ It is **indeed**.*
*Henry made a fool of himself. ~ He did **indeed**.*

274 indirect speech (1): introduction

1 direct and indirect speech

When we report people's words, thoughts, beliefs etc, we can give the exact words (more or less) that were said, or that we imagine were thought. This kind of structure is called 'direct speech' (though it is used for reporting thoughts as well as speech).

*So he said, **'I want to go home,'** and just walked out.*
*She asked **'What do you want?'***
*And then I thought, **'Well, does he really mean it?'***

We can also make somebody's words or thoughts part of our own sentence, using conjunctions (e.g. *that*), and changing pronouns, tenses and other words where necessary. This kind of structure is called 'indirect speech' or 'reported speech'.

So he said that he wanted to go home, and just walked out.
She asked what I wanted.
And then I wondered whether he really meant it.

These two structures cannot normally be mixed.

She said to me 'I have got no money'. OR *She said to me that she had got no money.* BUT NOT ~~*She said to me that I have got no money.*~~

For punctuation in direct speech, see 476, 478.
For reporting verbs and word order, see 156.

2 change of situation

Words that are spoken or thought in one place by one person may be reported in another place at a different time, and perhaps by another person. Because of this, there are often grammatical differences between direct and indirect speech. For example:

BILL (on Saturday evening): *I don't like this party. I want to go home now.*
PETER (on Sunday morning): *Bill said that he didn't like the party, and he wanted to go home.*

These differences are mostly natural and logical, and it is not necessary to learn complicated rules about indirect speech in English.

3 pronouns

A change of speaker may mean a change of pronoun.
In the above example, Bill says *I* to refer to himself. Peter, talking about what Bill said, naturally uses *he*.

Bill said that he didn't like . . . (NOT ~~*Bill said that I didn't like*~~ . . .)

4 'here and now' words

A change of place and time may mean changing or dropping words like *here, this, now, today*. Peter, reporting what Bill said, does not use *this* and *now* because he is no longer at the party.

Bill said that he didn't like the party . . .
(NOT ~~*Bill said that he didn't like this party*~~ . . .)
. . . *he wanted to go home.* (NOT . . . ~~*to go home now.*~~)

Some other 'here and now' words: *next, last, yesterday, tomorrow*. Compare:

- DIRECT: *I'll be back next week* .
  INDIRECT: *She said she'd be back the next week, but I never saw her again.*
- DIRECT: *Ann got her licence last Tuesday.*
  INDIRECT: *He said Ann had got her licence the Tuesday before.*
- DIRECT: *I had an accident yesterday.*
  INDIRECT: *He said he'd had an accident the day before.*
- DIRECT: *We'll be there tomorrow.*
  INDIRECT: *They promised to be there the next day.* ▸

5 tenses

A change of time may mean a change of tense.

Bill said that he didn't like the party ... (NOT ~~*Bill said that he doesn't like the party*~~ ... – when Peter is talking, the party is finished.)

For details of tense changes in indirect speech, see 275.

6 dropping *that*

The conjunction *that* is often dropped, especially after common reporting verbs (e.g. *say, think*) in informal speech. For more details, see 584.

She said (that) she'd had enough. *I think (that) you're probably right.*

275 indirect speech (2): tenses

1 past reporting verbs: *He said he didn't like the party.*

When we report what somebody said or thought, it is usually natural to use different tenses from the original speaker (because we are talking at a different time).

BILL (on Saturday evening): *I don't like this party. I want to go home now.* (present tenses)

PETER (on Sunday morning): *Bill said that he didn't like the party, and he wanted to go home.* (past tenses)

It would be strange for Peter to say on Sunday *'Bill said that he doesn't like the party'*, just as it would be strange for Peter to say, on Sunday, *'Bill doesn't like the party yesterday and goes home'*. The tenses used in indirect speech are usually just the tenses that are natural for the situation – see the examples below.

2 typical tense changes after past reporting verbs

will → would

DIRECT: *The exam will be difficult.*

INDIRECT: *They said that the exam would be difficult.*

simple present → simple past

DIRECT: *I need help.*

INDIRECT: *She thought she needed help.*

present progressive → past progressive

DIRECT: *My English is getting better.*

INDIRECT: *I knew my English was getting better.*

present perfect → past perfect

DIRECT: *This has been a wonderful holiday.*

INDIRECT: *She told me that it had been a wonderful holiday.*

past → past perfect

DIRECT: *Ann grew up in Kenya.*

INDIRECT: *I found out that Ann had grown up in Kenya.*

can → could

DIRECT: *I can fly!*

INDIRECT: *Poor chap – he thought he could fly.*

may → might

DIRECT: *We **may** come back early.*

INDIRECT: *They said they **might** come back early.*

Past perfect tenses do not change.

DIRECT: *I arrived late because I **had lost** the address.*

INDIRECT: *He said he had arrived late because he **had lost** the address.*

3 *would, could* etc: no change

Past modal verbs are usually unchanged in indirect speech.

DIRECT: *It **would** be nice if we **could** meet.*

INDIRECT: *He said it **would** be nice if we **could** meet.*

For more details, see 278.3.

4 *I told them I was British*

After past reporting verbs, we usually change the original tenses even if the things the original speaker said are still true.

– DIRECT: *I'm British.*

INDIRECT: *I told the police I was British.* (The speaker still is British.)

– DIRECT: *You **can** use my car today.*

INDIRECT: *Your mother said I **could** use her car today. Have you got the keys?*

– DIRECT: *How old **are** you?*

INDIRECT: *Didn't you hear me? I asked how old you **were**.*

– DIRECT: *That **is** my seat.*

INDIRECT: *Sorry, I didn't realise this was your seat.*

However, it is often also possible to keep the original speaker's tenses in these cases.

*Didn't you hear me? I asked how old you **are**.*

For details, see 278.2.

5 *He says, I'll tell her* etc.

After present, future and present perfect reporting verbs, tenses are usually the same as in the original (because there is no important change of time).

– DIRECT: *I **don't** want to play any more.*

INDIRECT: *He says he **doesn't** want to play any more.*

– DIRECT: *We **need** some help..*

INDIRECT: *I'll tell her you **need** some help.*

– DIRECT: *Taxes **will** be raised.*

INDIRECT: *The government has announced that taxes **will** be raised.*

276 indirect speech (3): questions and answers

1 word order: *I asked where Alice was*

In reported questions the subject normally comes before the verb in standard English, and auxiliary *do* is not used.

– DIRECT: *Where's Alice?*

INDIRECT: *I asked **where Alice was**.* (NOT . . . ~~*where was Alice?*~~) ▸

– DIRECT: *When are you leaving?*
INDIRECT: *He wanted to know **when I was leaving**.* (NOT ... ~~*when was I leaving.*~~)
– DIRECT: *What do I need?*
INDIRECT: *She asked **what she needed**.* (NOT ... ~~*what did she need.*~~)
– DIRECT: *Where are the President and his wife staying?*
INDIRECT: *I asked **where the President and his wife were staying**.* (NOT ~~*Where were staying*~~ ...)

The same structure is used for reporting the answers to questions.
*I knew **how they felt**.* (NOT ... ~~*how did they feel.*~~)
*Nobody told me **why I had to sign the paper**.* (NOT ... ~~*why did I have to sign*~~ ...)

2 no question marks

Question marks are not used in reported questions.
*We asked **where the money was**.* (NOT ... ~~*where the money was?*~~)

3 *yes/no* questions: *He asked if ...*

Yes/no questions are reported with *if* or *whether* (for the difference, see 621).
*The driver asked **if/whether I wanted the town centre**.*
*I don't know **if/whether I can help you**.*

In reported questions, we do not use a present tense after *if* to talk about the future.
*I'm not sure **if I'll see her tomorrow**.* (NOT ... ~~*if I see her tomorrow.*~~)

4 *say* and *tell*: answers, not questions

Say and *tell* are not used to report questions.
(NOT ~~*The driver said whether I wanted the town centre.*~~)

But *say* and *tell* can introduce the answers to questions.
*Please **say whether you want the town centre**.*
*He never **says where he's going**.* *I **told her what time it was**.*

For the difference between *say* and *tell*, see 504.

277 indirect speech (4): infinitives

1 *He promised to write*

Speech relating to actions (e.g. promises, agreements, orders, offers, requests, advice and suggestions) is often reported with infinitives.
*He promised **to write**.* *She agreed **to wait** for me.*
*Ann has offered **to baby-sit** tonight.*

Object + infinitive is common with *ask*, *advise*, *tell* and *order* (but not with *promise* or *offer*).
*I told **Andrew to be** careful.*
*The landlady has asked **us to be** quiet after nine o'clock.*
*I advise **you to think** again before you decide.*
*The policeman told **me not to park** there.*

2 *He asked her how to ...*

The structure **question word + infinitive** is common (see 286). It often corresponds to a direct question with *should*.

He asked her how to make a white sauce. ('How should I make a white sauce?')

Don't tell me what to do. *I've forgotten where to put the keys.*

I didn't know whether to laugh or cry.

3 *suggest, say*: infinitives not used

We do not use infinitive structures after *suggest* (see 570) or (usually) after *say*. However, after these and many other verbs, instructions etc can be reported with *that*-clauses, usually with modal verbs (see 353–354).

I suggested that he should try the main car park. (NOT ~~*I suggested him to try* ...~~)

The policeman said that I mustn't park there. (NOT ~~*The policemen said me not to park there.*~~)

I told Andrew that he ought to be careful.

Subjunctives (see 567) and *-ing* forms are also possible after some verbs, e.g. *suggest*.

I suggested that he try the main car park.

I suggested trying the main car park.

For the structures that are possible after particular verbs, see a good dictionary.

278 indirect speech (5): advanced points

1 reporting past tenses

In indirect speech, a speaker's past tenses are often reported using past perfect tenses.

– DIRECT: *I've just written to John.*
  INDIRECT: *She told me she had just written to John.*
– DIRECT: *I saw Penny at the theatre a couple of days ago.*
  INDIRECT: *In his letter, he said he'd seen Penny at the theatre a couple of days before.*

However, past perfect tenses are not always used, especially if the time relationships are clear without a change from past to past perfect.

This man on TV said that dinosaurs were around for 250 million years. (NOT ... ~~*that dinosaurs had been around*~~ ...)

I told you John (had) phoned this morning, didn't I?

We were glad to hear you (had) enjoyed your trip to Denmark.

2 reporting present and future tenses

If somebody talked about a situation that has still not changed – that is to say, if the original speaker's present and future are still present and future – a reporter can often choose whether to keep the original speaker's tenses or to change them, after a past reporting verb. Both structures are common.

– DIRECT: *The earth goes round the sun.*
  INDIRECT: *He proved that the earth goes/went round the sun.* ▸

– DIRECT: *How old are you?*
INDIRECT: *Are you deaf? I asked how old you are/were.*
– DIRECT: *It will be windy tomorrow.*
INDIRECT: *The forecast said it will/would be windy tomorrow.*

We are more likely to change the original speaker's tenses if we do not agree with what he/she said, if we are not certain of its truth, or if we wish to make it clear that the information comes from the original speaker, not from ourselves.

The Greeks thought that the sun went round the earth. (NOT ... ~~*that the sun goes round the earth.*~~)
She just said she was fourteen! I don't believe her for a moment.
He announced that profits were higher than forecast.

3 modal verbs in indirect speech

The modals *would, should, could, might, ought* and *must* are usually unchanged after past reporting verbs in indirect speech. This is also true of *needn't* (see 366) and *had better* (see 230).

– DIRECT: *It would be nice if I could see you again.*
INDIRECT: *He said it would be nice if he could see me again.*
– DIRECT: *It might be too late.*
INDIRECT: *I was afraid that it might be too late.*
– DIRECT: *It must be pretty late. I really must go.*
INDIRECT: *She said it must be pretty late and she really must go.*
– DIRECT: *You needn't pretend to be sorry.*
INDIRECT: *I said he needn't pretend ...*

First-person *shall* and *should* may be reported as *would* in indirect speech (because of the change of person).

DIRECT: *We shall/should be delighted to come.*
INDIRECT: *They said they would be delighted to come.*

For *had to* as a past of *must*, see 358, 360.

4 reporting *'Shall I ...?'*

There are different ways of reporting questions beginning *Shall I ...?*, depending on whether the speaker is asking for information or making an offer.

– DIRECT: *Shall I be needed tomorrow?* (information)
INDIRECT: *He wants to know if he will be needed tomorrow.*
– DIRECT: *Shall I carry your bag?* (offer)
INDIRECT: *He wants to know if he should/can carry your bag.*

5 conditionals

After past reporting verbs, sentences with *if* and *would* are usually unchanged.

DIRECT: *It would be best if we started early.*
INDIRECT: *He said it would be best if they started early.*

However, *if*-sentences that refer to 'unreal' situations can change as follows.

DIRECT: *If I had any money I'd buy you a drink.*
INDIRECT: *She said if she had had any money she would have bought me a drink.* (OR *She said if she had any money she would buy ...*)

6 negative questions

Negative questions often express emotions such as surprise or enthusiasm (see 368), and these are usually reported in special ways.

– DIRECT: *Don't the children like ice-cream?*
INDIRECT: *She was surprised that the children didn't like ice-cream.* (NOT ~~*She asked if the children didn't like ice-cream.*~~)

– DIRECT: *Isn't she lovely!*
INDIRECT: *I remarked how lovely she was.* (NOT ~~*I asked if she wasn't lovely.*~~)

7 word order with *what, who* and *which*

Questions beginning ***who/what/which + be*** can ask for a subject or a complement. Compare:

Who is the best player here? (This asks for a subject: a possible answer is ***John** is the best player here.*)

What is the time? (This asks for a complement: a possible answer is *The time is 4.30,* NOT ~~*4.30 is the time.*~~)

When we report the first kind of question (where ***who/what/which + be*** asks for a subject), two word orders are possible.

– DIRECT: *Who's the best player here?*
INDIRECT: *She asked me who was the best player.*
She asked me who the best player was.

– DIRECT: *What's the matter?*
INDIRECT: *I asked what was the matter.*
I asked what the matter was.

– DIRECT: *Which is my seat?*
INDIRECT: *She wondered which was her seat.*
She wondered which her seat was.

This does not happen when *who/what/which* asks for a complement.

DIRECT: *What's the time?*
INDIRECT: *She asked what the time was.* (NOT USUALLY *She asked what was the time.*)

8 *She's written I don't know how many books*

Complicated structures can be produced in informal speech when reporting expressions are put into sentences with question-word clauses or relatives.

*She's written **I don't know how many books**.*
*He's gone **I don't know where**.*
*This is the man who **Ann said would tell us about the church**.*

For more about relative structures of this kind, see 498.15.
For more about embedding (clauses inside clauses) in general, see 515.

9 indirect speech without reporting verbs

In newspaper, radio and TV reports, reports of parliamentary debates, records of conferences, minutes of meetings etc, the indirect speech construction is often used with very few reporting verbs. The use of tenses is enough to make it clear that a text is a report. ▸

*The Managing Director began his address to the shareholders by summarising the results for the year. Profits on the whole **had been** high, though one or two areas **had been** disappointing. It was, however, important to maintain a high level of investment, and he **was** sure that the shareholders **would appreciate** ...*

In literary narrative, similar structures are common. The reported speech may be made more vivid by using direct question structures and 'here and now' words.

At breakfast, Peter refused to go to school. Why should he spend all his time sitting listening to idiots? What use was all that stuff anyway? If he stayed at home he could read books. He might even learn something useful. His father, as usual, was unsympathetic. Peter had to go to school, by damn, and he had better get moving now, or there'd be trouble.

279 infinitives (1): introduction

1 forms

Infinitives are forms like *(to) write, (to) stand.* Unlike verb tenses (e.g. *writes, stood*), infinitives do not usually show the actual times of actions or events. They usually refer to actions and events in a more general way, rather like *-ing* forms. (See 293–300).

Infinitives are generally used with *to*; for infinitives without *to*, see 281.

Besides simple infinitives like *(to) write*, there are also progressive infinitives (e.g. *(to) be writing*), perfect infinitives (e.g. *(to) have written*) and passive infinitives (e.g. *(to) be written*). For details of the various forms, see 280.

2 use

Infinitives have many functions. An infinitive can be used, for example, after *do* or a modal auxiliary verb as part of a verb phrase.

*Do you **think** she's ready?*
*We **must** get some more light bulbs.*

An infinitive can also be used, alone or with other words:

- as the subject or complement of a clause (see 290)
  *To **watch** him eating really gets on my nerves.*
  *The main thing is to **relax**.* *It's nice **to talk** to you.*
- as the object or complement of a verb, adjective or noun (see 282–285)
  *I don't **want to talk**. I'm **anxious to contact** your brother.*
  *You have the **right to remain** silent.*
- to express a person's purpose (see 289)
  *He came to London **to look** for work.*

For full details of the uses of infinitives, see the following sections.

280 infinitives (2): forms

Besides the ordinary infinitive (e.g. *(to) go, (to) work*), there are also progressive, perfect and passive forms.

1 progressive infinitive: *(to) be ...ing*

Like other progressive forms (see 470), progressive infinitives suggest that actions and events are / were / will be continuing around the time that we are talking about.

*It's nice to be **sitting** here with you.*
*I noticed that he seemed to be **smoking** a lot.*
*This time tomorrow I'll be **lying** on the beach.*
(future progressive tense: see 220)
*Why's she so late? She can't still be **working**.*

2 perfect infinitive: *(to) have* + past participle

Perfect infinitives can have the same kind of meaning as perfect tenses (see 427) or past tenses (see 421–422).

*It's nice to have **finished** work.* (= It's nice that I have finished.)
I'm sorry not to have come on Thursday. (= ... that I didn't come ...)

We often use perfect infinitives to talk about 'unreal' past events: things that did not happen, or that may not have happened (see 288).

*I meant to have **telephoned**, but I forgot.*
*You should have **told** me you were coming.*
*I may have **left** my umbrella at the restaurant.*

3 passive infinitive: *(to) be* + past participle

Passive infinitives have the same kind of meaning as other passive forms (see 412).

*There's a lot of work to be **done**.* *She ought to be **told** about it.*
*That window must be **repaired** before tonight.*

Sometimes active and passive infinitives can have similar meanings, especially after a noun or *be* (see 287).

*There's a lot of work to do / to be **done**.*

4 combinations

Perfect progressive and perfect passive infinitives are common.

*I'd like to have been **sitting** there when she walked in.*
*They were lucky – they could have been **killed**.*

Progressive passive infinitives are possible but unusual.

*What would you like to be doing right now? ~I'd like to be **being massaged**.*

Progressive perfect passive infinitives (e.g. *It must have been **being built** at the time*) are very unusual.

5 negative forms

Negative infinitives are normally made by putting *not* before the infinitive.

*Try **not to be** late.* (NOT USUALLY ~~*Try to not be late*~~. OR ~~*Try to don't be late*~~.)
*You were silly **not to have locked** your car.*
*He's very busy. I'm afraid he can't be **disturbed**.* ▸

6 *to*

The marker *to* is normally used before infinitives (e.g. *He wanted to go*). Note that this *to* is not a preposition; after the preposition *to* we use *-ing* forms (see 298.2). For infinitives without *to* (e.g. *She let him go*), see 281.

7 split infinitive

A 'split infinitive' is a structure in which *to* is separated from the rest of the infinitive by an adverb.

I'd like to really understand philosophy.
He began to slowly get up off the floor.

Split infinitive structures are quite common in English, especially in an informal style. Some people consider them incorrect or careless, and avoid them if possible by putting the adverb in another position.

He began slowly to get up off the floor.

For details of the use of infinitives, see the following sections.
For the use of *to* instead of a whole infinitive (e.g. *I'd like to*), see 182.

281 infinitives (3): without to

We usually put *to* before the infinitive (e.g. *I want to know, It's nice to see you*). But we use the infinitive without *to* in some cases.

1 after modal auxiliary verbs

After the modal auxiliary verbs *will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might* and *must*, we use the infinitive without *to*.

I must go now. (NOT ~~*I must to go now.*~~)
Can you help me? *Do you think she might be joking?*
I would rather go alone. *She will probably be elected.*

We also use the infinitive without *to* after *had better* (see 230), and sometimes after *need* and *dare* (see 366, 151).

You'd better see what she wants.
She needn't do the washing up. *I daren't go out at night.*

The *to*-infinitive is used after *ought* (see 403).

2 after *let, make, hear* etc

Certain verbs are followed by **object + infinitive without *to***. They include *let, make, see, hear, feel, watch* and *notice*.

She lets her children stay up very late. (NOT ~~*She lets her children to stay*~~... OR ~~*She lets her children staying*~~...)
I made them give me the money back.
I didn't see you come in.
We both heard him say that I was leaving.
Did you feel the earth move?

Help can also be used in this way (see 244).

Could you help me (to) unload the car?

This structure is also possible with *have* (see 238) and *know* (see 313).

Have Mrs Hansen come in, please. (especially AmE)
I've never known him (to) pay for a drink.

In passive versions of these structures (with *make, see, hear, help* and *know*) the infinitive with *to* is used.

*He **was made to pay back** the money.*
*She **was heard to say** that she disagreed.*

For more information about structures with *let*, see 322. For *make*, see 335.
For more information about *see, hear, watch* etc + object + verb, see 242.
For verbs that are followed by object + *to*-infinitive, see 283.

3 after *why (not)*

We can introduce questions and suggestions with ***why (not)*** + **infinitive without** *to*. For more details, see 628.

***Why pay** more at other shops? We have the lowest prices.*
***Why stand up** if you can sit down? **Why sit down** if you can lie down?*
*You're looking tired. **Why not take** a holiday?*

4 after *and, or, except, but, than, as* and *like*

When two infinitive structures are joined by *and, or, except, but, than, as* or *like*, the second is often without *to*.

*I'd like to lie down **and go** to sleep.*
*Do you want to have lunch now **or wait** till later?*
*We had nothing to do **except look** at the cinema posters.*
*I'm ready to do anything **but work** on a farm.*
*It's easier to do it yourself **than explain** to somebody else how to do it.*
*It's as easy to smile **as frown**.*
*I have to feed the animals **as well as look** after the children.*
*Why don't you do something useful **like clean** the flat?*

Rather than is usually followed by an infinitive without *to*.

***Rather than wait** any more, I decided to go home by taxi.*

5 after *do*

Expressions like *All I did was, What I do is* etc can be followed by an infinitive without *to*.

***All I did was (to) give** him a little push.*
***What a fire-door does is (to) delay** the spread of a fire.*

282 infinitives (4): after verbs

After many non-auxiliary verbs, we can use the infinitives of other verbs.

*It's **beginning to rain**.*
*I don't **want to see** you again.*
*She **seems to be crying**.*
*I **expect to have finished** by tomorrow evening.*
*The car **needs to be cleaned**.*

▶

Common verbs that can be followed by infinitives (for more detailed entries on some of these, see Index):

afford	*begin*	*fail*	*intend*	*prefer*	*seem*
agree	*care*	*forget*	*learn*	*prepare*	*start*
appear	*choose*	*go on*	*like*	*pretend*	*swear*
arrange	*consent*	*happen*	*love*	*propose*	*trouble*
ask	*continue*	*hate*	*manage*	*promise*	*try*
attempt	*dare*	*help*	*mean*	*refuse*	*want*
(can't) bear	*decide*	*hesitate*	*neglect*	*regret*	*wish*
beg	*expect*	*hope*	*offer*	*remember*	

Some of these verbs can be followed by **object + infinitive** (e.g. ***I want her to be happy***). For details, see 283. A few verbs are followed by **verb + *for* + object + infinitive** (e.g. ***I arranged for her to have violin lessons***). For details of these, see 291.7.
After some verbs we can use not only an infinitive but also an *-ing* form (sometimes with a difference of meaning). For details, see 299.
After some verbs, it is not possible to use an infinitive. Many of these can be followed by *-ing* forms (see 296).
*I **enjoy sailing**.* (NOT ~~*I enjoy to sail.*~~)

For perfect infinitives after verbs, see 288.
For ***have*** **+ infinitive** (e.g. *I have to go now*), see 239.
For ***be*** **+ infinitive** (e.g. *You are to start tomorrow*), see 91.
For information about the structures that are possible with a particular verb, see a good dictionary.

283 infinitives (5): I want you to listen

Many verbs are followed by **object + infinitive**.
*I **want you to listen**.*
With some verbs (e.g. *want, allow*), a *that*-clause is impossible.
*She didn't **want me to go**.* (NOT ~~*She didn't want that I go.*~~)
*They don't **allow people to smoke**.* (NOT ~~*They don't allow that people smoke.*~~)
*I didn't **ask you to pay** for the meal.* (NOT ~~*I didn't ask that you pay for the meal.*~~)
Some common verbs that can be followed by **object + infinitive**:

advise	*forbid*	*love*	*request*
allow	*force*	*mean*	*teach*
ask	*get* (see also 223)	*need*	*tell*
(can't) bear	*hate*	*oblige*	*tempt*
beg	*help* (see also 244)	*order*	*trouble*
cause	*instruct*	*permit*	*want*
command	*intend*	*persuade*	*warn*
compel	*invite*	*prefer*	*wish* (see also 630)
encourage	*leave*	*recommend*	
expect	*like*	*remind*	

Let, make, see, hear, feel, watch, notice, have, and sometimes *know* and *help* are followed by object + infinitive without *to* (see 281).

*Why won't you **let me explain**?*
*I **heard her open the door and go out.***

Some verbs cannot be followed by **object + infinitive**; for example *suggest.*

*I **suggested that she should go home.*** (NOT ~~*I suggested her to go home.*~~)

Many of the verbs listed above can also be followed by other structures such as an *-ing* form or a *that*-clause. For complete information, see a good dictionary.

For passive structures with these verbs, see 418.
For verbs that are followed by *for* + **object + infinitive** (e.g. *I arranged for her to go early*), see 291.7
For **object + *to be* + complement** after verbs of thinking and feeling (e.g. *I considered him to be an excellent choice*), see 607.
For structures with *take* (e.g. *The ferry took two hours to unload*), see 576.

284 infinitives (6): after adjectives

1 reactions and feelings: *pleased to see you*

Infinitives are often used after adjectives describing reactions and feelings.

*I'm **pleased to see** you.*
*John was **surprised to get** Ann's letter.*
*She's **anxious to go** home.*
*We're **happy to be** here.*
*I was **shocked to see** how ill he was.*
*Most people are **afraid to hear** the truth about themselves.*

Not all adjectives of this kind are followed by infinitives. Some are followed by **preposition + *-ing* form** (see 297), or by *that*-clauses (see 19). Some adjectives (e.g. *afraid, sure*) can be followed by either an infinitive or an *-ing* form, often with a difference of meaning: for details, see 299.

For structures with *for* (e.g. *She's anxious for the children to go home*), see 291–293.

2 other adjectives: *certain to win*

Besides adjectives referring to reactions and feelings, many other adjectives can be followed by infinitives. Examples: *right, wrong, stupid, certain* (see 299.15), *welcome, careful, due, fit, able* (see 3), *likely* (see 327), *lucky.*

*We were **right to start** early.* *Be **careful not to wake** the children.*
*I was **stupid to believe** him.* *It's very **likely to rain**.*
*She's **certain to win**.* *You were **lucky not to be killed**.*
*You're **welcome to stay** as long as you like.*

For structures with preparatory *it* (e.g. *It is important to get enough sleep*), see 446.

3 superlatives etc: *the oldest athlete to win ...*

Superlatives can be followed by an infinitive structure. The meaning is similar to an identifying relative clause (see 495).

*He's **the oldest athlete ever to win** an Olympic gold medal.*
(= ... who has ever won ...)

This structure is also common with *first, second, third* etc, *next, last* and *only*.

*Who was the **first person to climb** Everest without oxygen?*

*The **next to arrive** was Mrs Patterson.*

*She's the **only scientist to have won** three Nobel prizes.*

This structure is only possible when the noun with the superlative has a subject relationship with the infinitive.

Is this the first time that you have stayed here?

(NOT . . . ~~*the first time for you to stay here.*~~ *Time* is not the subject of *stay*.)

4 *easy to please*

Some adjectives can be used with infinitives in a special structure, in which the subject of the clause is really the object of the infinitive. Examples are *easy, hard, difficult, impossible, good, ready*, and adjectives after *enough* and *too*.

*He's **easy to please**.*

(= *To please him is easy.* OR *It is easy to please him.*)

*Japanese is **difficult for Europeans to learn**.*

(= It is difficult for Europeans to learn Japanese.)

*His theory is **impossible to understand**.*

(= *It is impossible to understand his theory.*)

*Are these berries **good to eat**?* *The apples were **ripe enough to pick**.*

*The letters are **ready to sign**.* *The box was **too heavy to lift**.*

The structure often ends with a preposition (see 452).

*She's nice to talk **to**.* *He's very easy to get on **with**.*

*It's not a bad place to live **in**.*

There is no object pronoun after the infinitive or preposition in these cases.

*Cricket is not very interesting to **watch**.* (NOT ~~*Cricket is not very interesting to watch it.*~~)

*She's nice to talk **to**.* (NOT ~~*She's nice to talk to her.*~~)

When the adjective is before a noun, the infinitive is usually after the noun.

*It's **a good wine to keep**.* (NOT ~~*It's a good to keep wine.*~~)

Easy, difficult and *impossible* cannot be used in this structure when the subject of the clause is the subject of the following verb.

She has difficulty learning maths. (NOT ~~*She is difficult to learn maths.*~~)

Iron rusts easily. (NOT ~~*Iron is easy to rust.*~~)

This material can't possibly catch fire. (NOT ~~*This material is impossible to catch fire.*~~)

For more about *enough/too* + adjective + infinitive, see 187, 595.
For so + adjective + infinitive (e.g. *Would you be so kind as to help me?*), see 538.8.
For information about the structures that are possible with a particular adjective, see a good dictionary.

285 infinitives (7): after nouns and pronouns

1 nouns related to verbs: *no wish to change*

We can use infinitives after some nouns which are related to verbs that can be followed by infinitives (e.g. *wish, decide, need*).

*I have no **wish to change**.* (= I do not wish to change.)

*I told her about my **decision to leave**.* (= I told her that I had decided to leave.)

Is there any need to ask Joyce? (= Do we need to ask Joyce?)
Not all nouns can be followed by infinitives in this way.
I hate the thought of getting old. (NOT ... ~~*the thought to get old.*~~)
And note that not all related verbs and nouns are followed by the same structures. Compare:

- *I hope to arrive.*
  There's no hope of arriving.
- *I do not intend to return.*
  I have no intention of returning.
- *She prefers to live alone.*
  I understand her preference for living alone.

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular noun. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 nouns related to adjectives: *You were a fool to agree*

We can also use infinitives after some nouns which are related to adjectives, or which have an adjectival sense.
You were a fool to agree. (= You were foolish to agree.)
What a nuisance to have to go! (= How annoying to have to go!)
It's a pleasure to see you again. (= It's pleasant to see you again.)

3 purpose: *a key to open the door*

An infinitive can be used after a noun, or an indefinite pronoun like *something*, to explain the purpose of a particular thing: what it does, or what somebody does with it. The noun or pronoun can be the subject of the infinitive.
Have you got a key to open this door? (The key will open the door.)
It was a war to end all wars.
I'd like something to stop my toothache.
The noun or pronoun can also be the object of the infinitive.
I need some more books to read. (I will read the books.)
Is there any milk to put on the cornflakes?
Did you tell her which bus to take? *Is there anything to drink?*
If the noun or pronoun is the object of the infinitive, we do not add an object pronoun after the infinitive.
I gave her a paper to read. (NOT ... ~~*a paper to read it.*~~)
He needs a place to live in. (NOT ... ~~*a place to live in it.*~~)
Some/any/nowhere can also be followed by infinitives.
The kids want somewhere to practise their music.

4 *enough, too much* etc

Quantifiers like *enough, too much/many/little/few, plenty* etc are often followed by **noun + infinitive**.
There was enough light to see what I was doing.
There's too much snow (for us) to be able to drive.
We've got plenty of time to see the British Museum.
Enough is often dropped before *room* and *time*.
There's hardly (enough) room to breathe in here.
Do you think we'll have (enough) time to do some shopping? ▸

5 infinitive with preposition: *a friend to play with*

A noun can be followed by **infinitive + preposition.**

Mary needs a friend to play with.
He's looking for a flat to live in.

In a very formal style, another structure is possible: **noun + preposition + *whom/which* + infinitive.**

Mary needs a friend with whom to play.
He's looking for a place in which to live.

This is not possible when there is no preposition. One cannot say, for example,

~~*I need a book which to read.*~~

6 *the life to come* etc

In expressions like *the life to come* (= life after death), *the world to come, his wife to be* (= his future wife), the infinitive has a future meaning, and is similar to a relative clause with *be* (= the life/world that is to come, etc.)

For infinitives used to talk about people's purposes, see 289.
For passive infinitives (e.g. *There's work to be done.*), see 287.
For *for* + object + infinitive (e.g. *Is there any need for us to stay?*), see 291.5.
For infinitives after *first, next, last* or superlative + noun (e.g. *the first woman to climb Everest*), see 284.3.
For more about structures with prepositions at the end, see 452.

286 infinitives (8): who to ... , what to ... etc

1 indirect questions: *Tell us what to do*

In indirect speech (see 277.2), we can use an infinitive after the question words *who, what, where* etc (but not usually *why*). This structure expresses ideas such as obligation and possibility.

I wonder who to invite. (= ... who I should invite.)
Tell us what to do.
Can you show me how to get to the station? (= ... how I can get to the station?)
I don't know where to put the car. *Tell me when to pay.*
I can't decide whether to answer her letter.
(BUT NOT ~~*I can't understand why to do it.*~~)

2 direct questions: *What shall we do?*

We do not usually begin a direct question with *How to ...?, What to ...?* etc. After question words, we often use *shall* and *should.*

How shall I tell her? (NOT ~~*How to tell her?*~~)
What shall we do? (NOT ~~*What to do?*~~)
Who should I pay? (NOT ~~*Who to pay?*~~)

3 titles

How to ..., What to ... etc are often found as titles for instructions, information leaflets, books etc. (Note: these are not questions.)

HOW TO IMPROVE YOUR PRONUNCIATION
WHAT TO DO IF FIRE BREAKS OUT

For questions beginning *Why (not)* + infinitive, see 628.

287 infinitives (9): active and passive infinitive with similar meaning

1 obligation

We can use **noun + infinitive** to talk about obligation – things that people have to do. Active and passive infinitives are often both possible.

*There's a lot of **work to do / to be done.***
*There are six **letters to post / to be posted.***
*Give me the names of the **people to contact / to be contacted.***
*The **people to interview / to be interviewed** are in the next room.*

We prefer active infinitives if we are thinking more about the person who will do the action.

*I've got **work to do.*** (NOT ~~*I've got work to be done.*~~)
*They've sent **Jane a form to fill in.***

We use passive infinitives if we are thinking more about the action, or the person/thing that the action is done to.

*The **carpets to be cleaned** are in the garage.* (NOT ~~*The carpets to clean*~~ . . .)
*His desk is covered with **forms to be filled in.***

After *be*, we normally use passive infinitives in these cases.

*These sheets are **to be washed.*** (NOT ~~*These sheets are to wash.*~~)
*This form is **to be filled in in ink.*** (NOT ~~*This form is to fill in*~~ . . .)
*The cleaning is **to be finished** by midday.* (NOT . . . ~~*is to finish*~~ . . .)

2 *to be seen/found/congratulated* etc

Note the expressions *anywhere/nowhere to be seen/found.*

*He wasn't **anywhere to be seen.*** (NOT . . . ~~*anywhere to see.*~~)
*Susan was **nowhere to be found.*** (NOT . . . ~~*nowhere to find.*~~)

We also use passive infinitives to express value judgements with verbs like *congratulate, encourage, avoid.*

*You are **to be congratulated.*** (NOT . . . ~~*to congratulate.*~~)
*This behaviour is **to be encouraged.***

But note the common expression *to blame,* meaning 'responsible' (for some unfortunate event).

*Nobody was **to blame** for the accident.*

3 *nothing to do* and *nothing to be done* etc

Note the difference between *nothing to do* and *nothing to be done.*

*I'm bored – there's **nothing to do.*** (= There are no entertainments.)
*There's **nothing to be done** – we'll have to buy a new one.*
(= There's no way of putting it right.)

For structures like *She's easy to amuse,* see 284.4.
For structures with *take* (e.g. *The ferry took two hours to unload*), see 576.
For more about *be* + **infinitive**, see 91.

288 infinitives (10): I'm glad to have left

1 perfect or past meaning

Perfect infinitives (*to have gone, to have left* etc) can have the same kind of meaning as perfect or past tenses.

I'm glad to have left school. (= I'm glad that I have left . . .)
She was sorry to have missed Bill. (= . . . that she had missed Bill.)
We hope to have finished the job by next Saturday. (= . . . that we will have finished . . .)
You seem to have annoyed Anne yesterday. (= It seems that you annoyed Anne yesterday.)

2 perfect infinitive for 'unreal' past

After some verbs (e.g. *mean, be, would like*), perfect infinitives can refer to 'unreal' past situations that are the opposite of what really happened.

I meant to have telephoned, but I forgot. (OR *I meant to telephone . . .*)
He was to have been the new ambassador, but he fell ill.
I wish I'd been there – I would like to have seen Harry's face when Nan walked in.

With *would like, would prefer* and one or two other verbs, a double perfect infinitive is sometimes used in informal speech; the extra perfect infinitive does not change the meaning.

I would have liked to have seen Harry's face.

3 modals: *He could have killed himself*

After the modal verbs *could, might, ought, should, would* and *needn't*, we often use perfect infinitives to refer to unreal situations.

Did you see him fall? He could have killed himself.
(He did not kill himself.)
You should have written – I was getting worried.
(The person did not write.)
I would have gone to university if my parents had had more money.
(The speaker did not go to university.)
She needn't have sent me flowers.
(She did send flowers.)

Modal verbs with perfect infinitives can also refer to situations that are not unreal, but uncertain.

She could/should/ought to/may/will/must have arrived by now.

For more details, see the entries for the different modal verbs.

289 infinitives (11): purpose

1 *I sat down to rest*

We often use an infinitive to talk about a person's purpose – why he or she does something.

I sat down to rest. (NOT ~~*I sat down for resting*~~ / ~~*for to rest.*~~)
He went abroad to forget.

I'm going to Austria to learn German.
To switch on, press red button.

2 *in order to; so as to*

We can also use *in order to* ... (more formal) or *so as to* ....
He got up early in order to have time to pack .
I watched him in order to know more about him.
I moved to a new flat so as to be near my work.
In order to / so as to are normal before negative infinitives.
I'm going to leave now, so as not to be late. (NOT ~~*I'm going to leave now, not to be late.*~~)
A *for*-structure (see 291) can be used to talk about a purpose that involves action by somebody else.
I left the door unlocked for Harriet to get in.

290 infinitives (12): subject, complement or object

1 subject: *To practise is important / It's important to practise*

In older English, an infinitive clause could easily be the subject of a sentence.
To practise regularly is important.
To wait for people who were late made him angry.
In modern English, this is unusual in an informal style. We more often use *it* as a preparatory subject and put the infinitive clause later (see 446).
It's important to practise regularly.
It made him angry to wait for people who were late.
We can also use an *-ing* structure at the beginning of a sentence as the subject, instead of an infinitive clause (see 295).
Selling insurance is a pretty boring job.
(More natural than *To sell insurance* ...)

2 complement: *Your task is to get across the river*

An infinitive clause can be used after *be* as a subject complement.
Your task is to get across the river without being seen.
My ambition was to retire at thirty.
Sentences like these can also be constructed with preparatory *it* (see 446).
It is your task to get across the river without being seen.
It was my ambition to retire at thirty.

3 object: *I like to read the paper at breakfast*

Many verbs can have an infinitive clause as their object (see 283). Compare:
– *I like cornflakes for breakfast.* (noun object)
I like to read the paper at breakfast. (infinitive clause as object)
– *She wants some exercise.*
She wants to dance.

For structures like *He made it difficult to refuse*, see 447.

291 infinitives (13): for ... to ...

1 infinitive with its own subject

The structure *for* + **noun/pronoun** + **infinitive** is very common in English. It is used when an infinitive needs its own subject. Compare:

– *Ann will be happy to help you.* (Ann will help.)
  Ann will be happy for the children to help you. (The children will help.)
– *My idea was to learn Russian.*
  My idea was for her to learn Russian.
– *To ask Joe would be a big mistake.*
  For you to ask Joe would be a big mistake. (NOT ~~*You to ask Joe would be*~~...)

Note that the subject of the infinitive is the object of the preposition *for*. Object forms of pronouns are used.

Ann will be happy for them to help you. (NOT ...~~*for they to help you.*~~)

2 use

The structure is often used when we are referring to possibility, necessity or frequency, when we are expressing wishes, suggestions or plans for the future, and when we are giving personal reactions to situations. Like other infinitive structures, it is used especially after adjectives, nouns and verbs; it can also act as the subject of a clause. It often has the same meaning as a *that*-clause. Compare:

It's important for the meeting to start on time.
It's important that the meeting should start on time.

3 after adjectives: *anxious for us to see ...*

The structure *for* + **object** + **infinitive** can be used after certain adjectives which express wishes and other personal feelings about the importance or value of future events (e.g. *anxious, eager, delighted, willing, reluctant*).

adjective + *for* + object + infinitive

She's anxious for us to see her work.
I'm eager for the party to be a success.
Robert says he'd be delighted for Mary to come and stay.

4 *It's impossible for ... to ...*

For-structures with preparatory *it* (see 446) are common with many adjectives expressing possibility, necessity, importance, urgency, frequency and value judgements.

(...) *it* (...) + adjective + *for* + object + infinitive

It's impossible for the job to be finished in time.
Would it be easy for you to phone me tomorrow?
It's important for the meeting to start at eight.
It seems unnecessary for him to start work this week.
I consider it essential for the school to be properly heated.
Is it usual for foxes to come so close to the town?
I thought it strange for her to be out so late.
It's not good for the oil tank to be so close to the house.

Other common adjectives that are used in this way include *vital, necessary, pointless, unimportant, common, normal, unusual, rare, right, wrong.* Note that *likely* and *probable* are not used like this.

She's likely to arrive this evening. (NOT ~~*It's likely for her to arrive this evening.*~~)

It's probable that she'll be in a bad temper. OR *She'll probably be ...* (NOT ~~*It's probable for her to be ...*~~)

5 after nouns: *It's a good idea for us to ...*

The structure can also be used after nouns in expressions with meanings similar to the adjectives listed above. Examples are: *time, a good/bad idea, plan, aim, need, request, mistake, shame.*

It's time for everybody to go to bed.
It's a good idea for us to travel in separate cars.
There's a plan for Jack to spend a year in Japan.
Our aim is for students to learn as quickly as possible.
It was a big mistake for them not to keep John as manager.
It was a real shame for them not to win after all their work.

6 *something for me to do*

Something, anything, nothing and similar words are often followed by *for* + **object + infinitive.**

Have you got something for me to do?
There's nothing for the cats to eat.
Is there anybody for Louise to play with in the village?
I must find somewhere for him to practise the piano.

7 after verbs: *ask for ... to ...*

For-structures are not normally used as objects after verbs.

I need you to help me. (NOT ~~*I need for you to help me.*~~)

However, verbs which are normally followed by *for* (e.g. *ask, hope, wait, look, pay, arrange*) can often be used with *for* + **object + infinitive.**

Anne asked for the designs to be ready by Friday.
I can't wait for them to finish talking.
Can you arrange for the gold to be delivered on Monday? (NOT ...~~*for the gold being delivered.*~~)

A few other verbs can be used like this, e.g. *suit* and *take (time).*

When will it suit you for us to call?
It took twenty minutes for the smoke to clear.

In informal American English, *like, hate, mean, intend* and some other verbs with similar meanings can be used with a *for*-structure. This is not usually possible in British English.

I would like for you to stay as long as you want.
She hates for people to feel sad.
Did you mean for John to mail those letters? ▸

8 after *too* and *enough*

A *for*-structure is often used after *too* and *enough*.

This is much too heavy for you to lift.
There are too many people here for me to talk to all of them.
Do you think it's warm enough for the snow to melt?
I explained enough for her to understand what was happening.

9 as subject

The *for*-structure can be the subject of a clause.

For us to fail now would be a disaster.
For her to lose the election would make me very happy.

However, it is more common for a structure with preparatory *it* to be used (see paragraph 4 above).

It would make me very happy for her to lose the election.

10 *for there to be*

The infinitive of *there is* (*there to be*) can be used after *for*.

I'm anxious for there to be plenty of time for discussion.
It's important for there to be a fire escape at the back of the building.

11 *that*-clauses

Instead of *for* + **object** + **infinitive**, a *that*-clause with *should* or a subjunctive (see 567) is often possible, especially when we want to express wishes, recommendations, suggestions and plans for the future. A *that*-clause is usually more formal than a *for*-structure.

It is important that there should be a fire escape.
I'm anxious that the party should be a success.
His idea is that we should travel in separate cars.
It is essential that the meeting start at eight.

For sentences like *He made it difficult for us to refuse*, see 447.

292 infinitives (14): other uses

1 *I came home to find ...*

Infinitive clauses can be used to say what somebody found out or learnt at the end of a journey or task.

I arrived home to find that the house had been burgled.

The idea of surprise or disappointment can be emphasised by using *only*.

At last we got to Amy's place, only to discover that she was away.
He spent four years studying, only to learn that there were no jobs.

2 *To hear her talk, you'd think ...*

The infinitives of *see* and *hear* can be used to explain the reason for a false impression. The infinitive structure is usually followed by *you'd think* or a similar expression.

To see them, you'd think they were married. But they only met yesterday.
To see him walk down the street, you'd never know he was blind.
To hear her talk, you'd think she was made of money.

293 -ing forms (1): introduction

1 'participles and 'gerunds'

We can use *-ing* forms (e.g. *smoking, walking*) not only as verbs, but also like adjectives or nouns. Compare:

*You're **smoking** too much these days.* (verb: part of present progressive)
*There was a **smoking** cigarette end in the ashtray.* (adjective describing *cigarette end*)
Smoking is bad for you. (noun: subject of sentence)

When *-ing* forms are used as verbs or adjectives, they are often called 'present participles'. (This is not a very suitable name, because these forms can refer to the past, present or future.) When they are used more like nouns, they are often called 'gerunds'.

In *Practical English Usage* the expression '*-ing* form' is used except when there is a good reason to use one of the other terms. Noun-like uses of *-ing* forms ('gerunds') are discussed in the following entries. For their use to make progressive verb forms, see 470 and the entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc. Other ways of using *-ing* forms are discussed in 408–411 ('participles'), together with similar uses of 'past participles' (e.g. *invited, broken*).

2 perfect, passive and negative *-ing* forms

Note the structure of perfect, passive and negative *-ing* forms.

Having slept for twelve hours, I felt marvellous. (perfect)
She loves being looked at. (passive)
Not knowing what to do, I went home. (negative)
She's angry about not having been invited. (negative perfect passive)

For spelling rules, see 560–562.

3 *-ing* form or infinitive?

-ing forms are often used in similar ways to infinitives. For instance, they can follow certain verbs, adjectives or nouns (see 296–297). Compare:

- *He agreed to wait.*
  He suggested waiting. (NOT ~~*He suggested to wait.*~~)
- *She's ready to listen.*
  She's good at listening. (NOT ~~*She's good to listen.*~~)
- *the need to talk*
  the idea of talking (NOT ~~*the idea to talk*~~)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which verbs, adjectives and nouns are followed by *-ing* forms, and which are followed by infinitives. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

Expressions with *-ing* forms can also be used as subjects in sentences, or as complements after *be*. Infinitives are also possible in these cases, but they are much less common in informal English. Compare:

Smoking cigarettes can kill you. (More natural than *To smoke cigarettes can kill you.*)
My favourite activity is reading thrillers. (More natural than *My favourite activity is to read thrillers.*) ▸

4 'participles' and 'gerunds': an unclear difference

The distinction between 'participles' and 'gerunds' is not always clear-cut, and it can sometimes be difficult to decide which term to use. For this reason, some grammarians prefer to avoid the terms 'participle' and 'gerund'. For a detailed discussion of this point, see Section 17.54 of *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1985).

294 -ing forms (2): a waiting room; a waiting train

-ing forms can be used before nouns. This can happen both with noun-like *-ing* forms ('gerunds') and adjective-like *-ing* forms ('participles'). The two structures do not have quite the same kind of meaning. Compare:

- *a **waiting** room* (= a room for waiting. *Waiting* is a gerund, used rather like a noun. Compare *a **guest** room.*)
  *a **waiting** train* (= a train that is waiting. *Waiting* is a participle, used rather like an adjective. Compare *an **early** train.*)
- *a **sleeping** pill* (*sleeping* is a gerund)
  *a **sleeping** child* (*sleeping* is a participle)
- *working conditions* (gerund)
  working men and women (participle)

295 -ing forms (3): subject, complement or object

1 *Smoking is bad for you*

An *-ing* form ('gerund') can be used, just like a noun, as the subject or complement of a verb.

Smoking is bad for you. (subject)
My favourite activity is reading. (complement)

Infinitives (e.g. *To smoke is bad for you*) are possible in these cases, but are formal and uncommon.

-ing forms can also be used as objects after certain verbs (see 296).

I hate packing. (object)

2 *-ing* form with its own object

The *-ing* form subject, complement or object is used like a noun, but it is still a verb and can have its own object.

Smoking cigarettes is bad for you.
My favourite activity is reading thrillers.
I hate packing suitcases.

3 *the opening of Parliament; my smoking*

We can often use determiners (for example *the, my, this*) with *-ing* forms.

the opening of Parliament
Does my smoking annoy you? *I hate all this useless arguing.*

Possessive *'s* forms are also possible.

John's going to sleep during the wedding was rather embarrassing.
She was angry at Lina's trying to lie to her.

Subject pronouns are not possible.

His shouting gets on my nerves. (BUT NOT ~~*He shouting*~~...)

Note that possessives and pronouns are not used before *-ing* forms if it is already clear who is being talked about.

Thank you for waiting. (NOT ~~*Thank you for your waiting.*~~)

When an *-ing* form is used with an article, it cannot usually have a direct object. Instead, we can use an *of*-structure.

the smoking of cigarettes (NOT ~~*the smoking cigarettes*~~)

No is often used with an *-ing* form to say that something is not allowed, or is impossible. This often happens in notices and after *there is.*

NO SMOKING NO PARKING NO WAITING

*Sorry – there's **no smoking** in the waiting room.*

*She's made up her mind; there's **no arguing** with her.*

4 object forms: *Do you mind me smoking?*

In an informal style it is more common to use object forms (like *me, John*) instead of possessives (*my, John's*) with *-ing* forms, especially when these come after a verb or preposition.

*Do you mind **me smoking**?* *She was angry at **Lina trying** to lie to her.*

After some verbs (e.g. *see, hear, watch, feel*) possessives are not normally used with *-ing* forms.

*I saw **him getting** out of the car.* (NOT ~~*I saw his getting*~~...)

5 *It's nice being with you*

We can use *it* as a preparatory subject or object for an *-ing* form (see 446–447).

*It's nice **being** with you.*

*I thought it pointless **starting** before eight o'clock.*

This is common with *any/no good, any/no use* and *(not) worth* (see 632).

*It's **no good** talking to him – he never listens.*

*Is **it any use** expecting them to be on time?*

*It's **no use his/him** apologising – I shall never forgive him.*

*I didn't think **it worth** complaining about the meal.*

6 nouns and *-ing* forms

When there is a noun which has a similar meaning to an *-ing* form, the noun is usually preferred.

*We're all excited about his **arrival**.* (NOT ...~~*about his arriving.*~~)

296 -ing forms (4): after verbs

1 verbs that can be followed by *-ing* forms

After some verbs we can use an *-ing* form ('gerund'), but not normally an infinitive.

*I **enjoy travelling**.* (NOT ~~*I enjoy to travel.*~~)

*He's **finished mending** the car.* (NOT ~~*He's finished to mend*~~...)

*She's **given up smoking**.* (NOT ...~~*given up to smoke.*~~)

*The doctor **suggested taking** a long holiday.* (NOT ~~*The doctor suggested (me) to take*~~...)

Some common verbs that are normally followed by *-ing* forms:

admit	*dislike*	*give up*	*practise*
appreciate	*endure*	*(can't) help*	*put off*
avoid	*enjoy*	*imagine*	*resent*
burst out	*escape*	*involve*	*resist*
(crying/laughing)	*excuse*	*keep (on)*	*risk*
consider	*face*	*leave off*	*(can't) stand*
contemplate	*fancy*	*mention*	*suggest*
delay	*feel like*	*mind*	*understand*
deny	*finish*	*miss*	
detest	*forgive*	*postpone*	

Some verbs can be followed by both *-ing* forms and infinitives – see paragraph 4 below.
Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular verb. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 verb + object + *-ing* form

Some of the verbs listed above, and some others, can be followed by **object + *-ing* form**.

I dislike people telling me what to think.
I can't imagine him working in an office.
Nobody can stop him doing what he wants to
He spends all his time gardening.
Did you see her talking to the postman?

Stop (in an informal style) and *prevent* are often followed by **object + *from* + *-ing* form**.

Try to stop/prevent them (from) finding out.

Note that after many verbs we can use **possessive + *-ing* form** rather than **object + *-ing* form**, especially in a formal style. (See 295.3 for details.)

3 *-ing* form with passive meaning

After *deserve, need* and *require,* the *-ing* form has a passive sense. This structure is more common in British than American English.

I don't think his article deserves reading. (= ... deserves to be read.)
Your hair needs cutting. (= ... needs to be cut.)

In informal British English, *want* can also be used like this.

The car wants servicing. (= ... needs to be serviced.)

4 *-ing* form or infinitive

After some verbs, either an *-ing* form or an infinitive can be used. These include:

advise	*forbid*	*hear*	*prefer*	*start*
allow	*forget*	*intend*	*propose*	*stop*
can't bear	*go*	*like*	*regret*	*try*
begin	*go on*	*love*	*remember*	*watch*
continue	*hate*	*permit*	*see*	

In some cases there is a difference of meaning: see 299.

For infinitives after verbs, see 282.

297 -ing forms (5): after nouns and adjectives

1 *the idea of getting old; tired of listening*

Some nouns and adjectives can be followed by *-ing* forms ('gerunds'). A preposition is normally used to connect the noun/adjective to the *-ing* form. Nouns/adjectives that are followed by *-ing* forms cannot usually be followed by infinitives (see paragraph 3 for some exceptions).

*I hate the **idea of getting** old.* (NOT ... ~~*the idea to get old.*~~)
*The **thought of failing** never entered his head.* (NOT ~~*The thought to fail*~~ ...)
*I'm **tired of listening** to this.* (NOT ~~*I'm tired to listen*~~ ...)
*She's very **good at solving** problems.* (NOT ... ~~*good to solve*~~ ...)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which nouns and adjectives can be followed by *-ing* forms. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 purpose: *a machine for cutting*

For + -ing form can be used after a noun, or after an indefinite pronoun such as *something* or *anything*, to explain the purpose of an object or material – what it is for.

*A strimmer is a **machine for cutting** grass and weeds.*
*Have you got any **stuff for cleaning** silver?*
*I need **something for killing** flies.*

This structure is mostly used to talk in general about types of object and material. When we talk about somebody's purpose in using a particular object, we are more likely to use an infinitive (see 207.2).

*I must find **something to kill** that fly.*

3 *-ing* form or infinitive

After a few nouns and adjectives, we can use either an *-ing* form or an infinitive. Normally there is little or no difference of meaning (see 299.13–16 for some exceptions).

*We have a good **chance of making** / **to make** a profit.*
*I'm proud **of having won** / **to have won**.*

For *be used to ...ing*, see 605.
For infinitives after nouns and adjectives, see 284–285.

298 -ing forms (6): without breaking; before starting

1 after all prepositions

When we put a verb after a preposition, we normally use an *-ing* form ('gerund'), not an infinitive.

*You can't make an omelette **without breaking** eggs.* (NOT ... ~~*without to break eggs.*~~)
*Always check the oil **before starting** the car.* (NOT ... ~~*before to start the car.*~~)
*We got the job finished **by working** sixteen hours a day.*
*He's talking **about moving** to the country.*
*They painted the house **instead of going** on holiday.* (NOT ... ~~*instead to go*~~ ...)

2 *to* as a preposition: *I look forward to ...ing*

To is actually two different words. It can be an infinitive marker, used to show that the next word is an infinitive (e.g. *to swim, to laugh*). It can also be a preposition, followed for example by a noun (e.g. *She's gone to the park, I look forward to Christmas*).

When *to* is a preposition, it can be followed by the *-ing* form of a verb, but not normally by the infinitive. Common expressions in which this happens are *look forward to, object to, be used to, prefer (doing one thing to doing another), get round to, in addition to.*

In the following examples, note how the preposition *to* can be followed by either a noun or an *-ing* form.

- *I look forward to your next letter.*
  I look forward to hearing from you. (NOT ... ~~*to hear from you.*~~)
- *Do you object to Sunday work?*
  Do you object to working on Sundays?
- *I'm not used to London traffic.*
  I'm not used to driving in London.
- *I prefer the seaside to the mountains.*
  I prefer swimming to walking.
- *I'll get round to the washing up sooner or later.*
  I'll get round to doing the washing up sooner or later.

A few verbs and adjectives are used with *to* before nouns, but are followed by the infinitives of verbs. Examples are *agree, consent, entitled, inclined, prone.*

She agreed to our plan. / She agreed to do what we wanted.
He's inclined to anger. / He's inclined to lose his temper.

Accustomed can be followed by *to* + *-ing* form or an infinitive (see 299.11).

3 object + infinitive after *for*: *for her to arrive*

Note that some verbs are followed by *for* + object + infinitive. An *-ing* form is not usually possible in these cases.

We're still waiting for her to arrive. (NOT ... ~~*waiting for her arriving.*~~)
Can you arrange for us to get tickets? (NOT ... ~~*for our getting tickets?*~~)

For the difference between *used to* + infinitive and *be used to* + *-ing* form, see 604–5.
For *-ing* forms after conjunctions (e.g. *When planning a holiday* ...), see 411.6.
For time clauses with *on* + *-ing* form, see 411.6.

299 -ing forms (7): remember, go on etc + -ing or infinitive

Some verbs and adjectives can be followed by either *-ing* forms ('gerunds') or infinitives.

I started playing / to play the violin when I was 10.
She was proud of having won / to have won.

With some of these verbs and adjectives, there is a difference of meaning.

1 *remember* and *forget*

Remember/forget* + *-ing* form** looks back at the past – at things that one did. ***Forget . . .ing is used mostly in the phrase *I'll never forget . . .ing*, and expressions with similar meanings.

*I still **remember buying** my first bicycle.*
*I'll never **forget meeting** the Queen.*

***Remember/forget* + infinitive** looks forward in time – at things that one still has or still had to do at the moment of remembering or forgetting.

*You must **remember to fetch** Mr Lewis from the station tomorrow.*
*I **forgot to buy** the soap.*

2 *go on*

***Go on* + *-ing* form** means 'continue'.

*She **went on talking** about her illness until we all went to sleep.*

***Go on* + infinitive** refers to a change of activity.

*She stopped talking about that and **went on to describe** her other problems.*

3 *regret*

***Regret* + *-ing* form** looks back at the past – at something that one is sorry that one did.

*I **regret leaving** school at 14 – it was a big mistake.*

***Regret* + infinitive** is used mostly in announcements of bad news.

*We **regret to inform** passengers that the 14.50 train is one hour late.*
*We **regret to say** that we are unable to help you.*

4 *advise, allow, permit* and *forbid*

In active clauses after these verbs, we use an *-ing* form if there is no object. If there is an object we use an infinitive. Compare:

– *I wouldn't **advise taking** the car – there's nowhere to park.*
  *I wouldn't **advise you to take** the car . . .*
– *We don't **allow/permit smoking** in the lecture room.*
  *We don't **allow/permit people to smoke** in the lecture room.*
– *The headmistress has **forbidden singing** in the corridors.*
  *The headmistress has **forbidden children to sing** . . .*

Note the corresponding passive structures.

– *Smoking is not allowed/permitted in the lecture room.*
  People are not allowed/permitted to smoke in the lecture room.
– *Singing is forbidden.*
  Children are forbidden to sing.
– *Early booking is advised.*
  Passengers are advised to book early.

5 *see, watch* and *hear*

After these verbs, the difference between **object + *-ing* form** and **object + infinitive** is like the difference between progressive and simple tenses. With *-ing* forms the verbs suggest that one pays attention to events or actions that are already going on; infinitives usually refer to complete events/actions which are seen/heard from beginning to end. (Note that these verbs are followed by the infinitive without *to*.) Compare: ▸

– *I looked out of the window and saw Mary crossing the road.*
I saw Mary cross the road and disappear into the post office.
– *As I passed his house I heard him practising the piano.*
I once heard Brendel play all the Beethoven concertos.

For more details, see 242.

6 *try*

To talk about making an experiment – doing something to see what will happen – we use *try* + *-ing*.

I tried sending her flowers, writing her letters, giving her presents, but she still wouldn't speak to me.

To talk about making an effort to do something difficult, we can use either *try* + infinitive or *try* + *-ing*.

I tried to change the wheel, but my hands were too cold.
(OR *I tried changing the wheel* . . .)

7 *mean*

Mean in the sense of 'involve', 'have as a result' (see 348) can be followed by an *-ing* form.

If you want to pass the exam it will mean studying hard.

In the sense of 'intend', *mean* is followed by an infinitive.

I don't think she means to get married for the moment.

8 *learn* and *teach*

These verbs (and others with similar meanings) are followed by *-ing* forms mostly when we are referring to lessons or subjects of study.

She goes to college twice a week to learn typing.
Mr Garland teaches skiing in the winter.

Infinitives are preferred when we talk about the result of the study – about successfully learning a skill.

She learnt to read German at school, but she learnt to speak it in Germany.
I taught myself to type.

9 *like, love, hate* and *prefer*

After these four verbs, both infinitives and *-ing* forms can often be used without a great difference of meaning.

I hate working / to work at weekends.
I don't get up on Sundays. I prefer staying / to stay in bed.

Like + infinitive is used to talk about choices and habits. Compare:

I like climbing / to climb mountains (= I enjoy climbing.)
When I pour tea I like to put the milk in first. (= I choose to; it's my habit.)

After *would like, would prefer, would hate* and *would love*, infinitives are most often used.

I'd like to tell you something. (NOT ~~*I'd like telling you something.*~~)
Can I give you a lift? ~No thanks, I'd prefer to walk. (NOT . . . ~~*I'd prefer walking.*~~)

Compare:

Do you like dancing? (= Do you enjoy dancing?)

Would you like to dance? (= Do you want to dance now?)

For more about *like*, see 325.
For details of structures with *prefer*, see 444.

10 *begin* and *start*

Begin and *start* can be followed by infinitives or *-ing* forms. Usually there is no important difference.

She began playing / to play the guitar when she was six.
He started talking / to talk about golf, but everybody went out of the room.

After progressive forms of *begin* and *start*, infinitives are preferred.

I'm beginning to learn karate. (NOT ~~*I'm beginning learning karate.*~~)

Infinitives are also preferred with *understand, realise* and *know.*

I slowly began to understand how she felt. (NOT . . . ~~*began understanding*~~. . .)
He started to realise that if you wanted to eat you had to work.
(NOT . . . ~~*started realising*~~. . .)

11 *attempt, intend, continue, can't bear, be accustomed to, be committed to*

After these words and expressions we can generally use either an *-ing* form or an infinitive without much difference of meaning.

I intend telling / to tell her what I think.
I'm not accustomed to giving/give personal information about myself to strangers.

For details of structures with *to* + *-ing*, see 298.2.

12 *-ing* form or infinitive of purpose: *stop*

Some verbs that are followed by *-ing* forms can also be followed by an infinitive of purpose (see 289). A common example is *stop.*

I stopped running. (NOT . . . ~~*I stopped to run.*~~)
I stopped to rest. (= . . . in order to rest.)

13 *afraid*

To talk about fear of things that happen accidentally, we prefer *afraid of* + *-ing.*

I don't like to drive fast because I'm afraid of crashing.
Why are you so quiet? ~*I'm afraid of waking the children.*

In other cases we can use *afraid of* + *-ing* or *afraid* + infinitive with no difference of meaning.

I'm not afraid of telling / to tell her the truth.

14 *sorry*

Sorry for/about + *-ing* is used to refer to past things that one regrets. (*That*-clauses are also very common in an informal style.)

I'm sorry for/about losing my temper this morning.
(OR *I'm sorry that I lost my temper.*)

Sorry + perfect infinitive (more formal) can be used with the same meaning.

I'm sorry to have woken you up. (OR *I'm sorry that I woke you up.*) ▸

Sorry + **infinitive** is used to apologise for current situations – things that one is doing or going to do, or that one has just done.

Sorry to disturb you – could I speak to you for a moment?
I'm sorry to tell you that you failed the exam.
Sorry to keep you waiting – we can start now.

15 *certain* and *sure*

Certain/sure of + *-ing* are used to refer to the feelings of the person one is talking about.

Before the game she felt certain of winning, but after a few minutes she realised it wasn't going to be so easy.
You seem very sure of passing the exam. I hope you're right.

Certain/sure + **infinitive** refer to the speaker's or writer's own feelings.

The repairs are certain to cost more than you think. (NOT ~~*The repairs are certain of costing*~~ . . .)
Kroftova's sure to win – the other girl hasn't got a chance.

Note that *He is sure to succeed* means 'I am sure that he will succeed'.

16 *interested*

To talk about reactions to things one learns, *interested* + **infinitive** is commonly used.

I was interested to read in the paper that scientists have found out how to talk to whales.
I'm interested to see that Alice and Jake are going out together.
I shall be interested to see how long it lasts.

To talk about a wish to find out something, both *interested* + *-ing* and *interested* + **infinitive** are common.

I'm interested in finding out / to find out what she did with all that money.
Aren't you interested in knowing / to know whether I'm pregnant?

To talk about a wish to do something, we use *interested* with an *-ing* form.

I'm interested in working in Switzerland. Do you know anybody who could help me? (NOT ~~*I'm interested to work in Switzerland*~~ . . .)

300 -ing forms (8): participles; progressive verbs

1 *a crying baby*

We can use *-ing* forms as adjectives before nouns.

I was woken by a crying baby.
There is growing anger at the government's policies.

When *-ing* forms are used like this, they are called 'present participles'. Their use is explained in 408–410.

2 *not knowing what to do . . .*

Participles can be used in another way. They can combine with other words into 'participle clauses'.

Not knowing what to do, I telephoned the police.
Who's the girl dancing with your brother?

For details of participle clauses, see 411.

3 progressive verbs

Present participles are also used to make progressive verb forms.
*It's **raining**.* (present progressive)
*She arrived just when I was **leaving**.* (past progressive)

For details of progressive forms, see 470 and the separate entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc.

301 instead of

1 preposition: *instead of*

Instead is not used alone as a preposition; we use the two words *instead of.*
*I'll have tea **instead of** coffee, please.* (NOT ...~~instead coffee~~...)
*Can you work with Sally **instead** of me today, please?*
Instead of is not usually followed by an infinitive.
*I stayed in bed all day **instead of** going to work.* (NOT ...~~instead of (to) go to work.~~)

2 *instead of* and *without*

Instead suggests that one person, thing or action replaces another. *Without* suggests that one person, thing etc is not together with another. Compare:
– *Ruth was invited to the reception, but she was ill, so Lou went **instead of** her.* (Lou replaced Ruth.) (NOT ...~~Lou went without her.~~)
*Max and Jake were invited, but Max was ill, so Jake went **without** him.* (Normally they would have gone together.)
– *She often goes swimming **instead** of going to school.* (Swimming replaces school.) (NOT ~~She often goes swimming without going to school.~~)
*She often goes swimming **without** telling her mother.* (Swimming and telling her mother should go together.) (NOT ~~She often goes swimming instead of telling her mother.~~)

3 adverb: *instead*

Instead (without *of*) is an adverb. It usually begins or ends a clause.
*She didn't go to Greece after all. **Instead**, she went to America.*
*Don't marry Phil. Marry me **instead**.*

302 inversion (1): auxiliary verb before subject

We put an auxiliary verb (and non-auxiliary *have* and *be*) directly before the subject of a clause in several different structures.

1 questions

Have your father and mother arrived? (NOT ~~Have arrived your father and mother?~~)
Where is the concert taking place? (NOT ~~Where is taking place the concert?~~) (NOT ~~Where the concert is taking place?~~)
Spoken questions do not always have this word order (see 481).
You're coming tomorrow?
Indirect questions do not usually have this order (see 276).
I wondered what time the film was starting. (NOT ...~~what time was the film starting.~~)

However, in formal writing inversion is sometimes used with *be* in indirect questions after *how*, especially when the subject is long.

*I wondered how reliable **was the information** I had been given.*

For more information about questions, see 480–486.

2 exclamations

Exclamations (see 195) often have the form of negative questions (see 368).

Isn't it cold? *Hasn't she got lovely eyes?*

In spoken American English, exclamations often have the same form as ordinary (non-negative) questions.

Have you got a surprise coming! *Was I mad!*

In a rather old-fashioned literary style, inversion is sometimes found in exclamations after *how* and *what*.

*How beautiful **are the flowers**!* *What a peaceful place **is Skegness**!*

3 with *may*

May can come before the subject in wishes.

May all your wishes come true! *May he rot in hell!*

4 after *so, neither, nor*

In 'short answers' and similar structures, these words are followed by **auxiliary verb + subject**.

*I'm hungry. ~So **am** I.*
*I don't like opera. ~Neither/Nor **do** I.*

For more details of these structures, see 541 and 374.

5 after *as, than* and *so*

Inversion sometimes happens after *as, than* and *so* in a literary style.

She was very religious, as were most of her friends.
City dwellers have a higher death rate than do country people.
So ridiculous did she look that everybody burst out laughing.

6 conditional clauses

In formal and literary conditional clauses, an auxiliary verb can be put before the subject instead of using *if* (see 261.5).

Were she my daughter ... (= If she were my daughter ...)
Had I realised what you intended ... (= If I had realised ...)

Negatives are not contracted in this case.

Had we not spent all our money already, ... (NOT ~~*Hadn't we spent*~~ ...)

7 after negative and restrictive expressions

If a negative adverb or adverbial expression is put at the beginning of a clause for emphasis, it is usually followed **by auxiliary verb + subject**. These structures are mostly rather formal.

*Under no circumstances **can we** cash cheques.*
*At no time **was the President** aware of what was happening.*
*Not until much later **did she** learn who her real father was.*

The same structure is possible after a complete clause beginning *not until* ...
Not until he received her letter did he fully understand her feelings.
Inversion is also used after restrictive words like *hardly* (in BrE), *seldom, rarely, little* and *never*, and after *only* + **time expression**. This is formal or literary.
Hardly had I arrived when trouble started. (BrE)
Seldom have I seen such a remarkable creature.
Little did he realise the danger he faced.
Never ... was so much owed by so many to so few. (Churchill)
Only then did I understand what she meant.
Only after her death was I able to appreciate her.
Not only did we lose our money, but we were nearly killed.
Not a single word did he say.
Inversion is not used after *not far* ... and *not long* ...
Not far from here you can see foxes. (NOT ~~*Not far from here can you*~~ ...)
Not long after that she got married.

303 inversion (2): whole verb before subject

1 after adverbial expressions of place

When an adverbial expression of place or direction comes at the beginning of a clause, intransitive verbs are often put before their subjects. This happens especially when a new indefinite subject is being introduced. The structure is most common in literary and descriptive writing.
Under a tree was lying one of the biggest men I had ever seen.
On the grass sat an enormous frog.
Directly in front of them stood a great castle.
Along the road came a strange procession.
This structure is often used in speech with *here, there* and other short adverbs and adverb particles.
Here comes Freddy! (NOT ~~*Here Freddy comes.*~~)
There goes your brother.
I stopped the car, and up walked a policeman.
The door opened and out came Angela's boyfriend.
If the subject is a pronoun, it goes before the verb.
Here she comes. (NOT ~~*Here comes she.*~~) *Off we go!*

2 reporting

In story-telling, the subject often comes after reporting verbs like *said, asked, suggested* etc when these follow direct speech.
'What do you mean?' asked Henry. (OR ... *Henry asked.*)
'I love you,' whispered Jan.
If the subject is a pronoun, it usually comes before the verb.
'What do you mean?' he asked.

304 irregular verbs

1 common irregular verbs

This is a list of the more common irregular verbs. Students should check that they know all of them. For a complete list, see a good dictionary.

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
be	was, were	been
bear	bore	born(e)
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
build	built	built
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt /delt/	dealt /delt/
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt /dremt/ dreamed /dri:md/	dreamt /dremt/ dreamed /dri:md/
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate /et/	eaten /'i:tən/
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone/been
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard /hɜ:d/	heard/hɜ:d/
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leant/leaned	leant/leaned
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit/lighted	lit/lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant /ment/	meant /ment/
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit/quitted	quit/quitted
read /ri:d/	read /red/	read /red/
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said /sed/	said /sed/
see	saw	seen
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone /ʃɒn/	shone /ʃɒn/
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank/shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled
spin	span/spun	spun
spit	spat	spat
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt/spoiled	spoilt/spoiled
spread	spread	spread
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
wind /waɪnd/	wound /waʊnd/	wound /waʊnd/
write	wrote	written

2 verbs that are easily confused

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fill	filled	filled
find (= get back something lost)	found	found
found (= start up an organisation or institution)	founded	founded
flow (of a liquid = move)	flowed	flowed
fly (= move in the air)	flew	flown
lay (= put down flat)	laid	laid
lie (= be down)	lay	lain
lie (= say things that are not true)	lied	lied

For more details of these three verbs, see 316.

leave	left	left
live	lived	lived
raise (= put up)	raised	raised
rise (= go/get up)	rose	risen
strike (= hit)	struck	struck
stroke (= pass the hand gently over)	stroked	stroked
wind /waɪnd/ (= turn, tighten a spring etc)	wound /waʊnd/	wound /waʊnd/
wound /wuːnd/ (= injure in a battle)	wounded	wounded

3 notes

- *Says* is pronounced /sez/.
- The old past participle *drunken* is used as an adjective in some expressions (e.g. *a drunken argument, drunken driving*), but these are not very common.
- *Prove* (regular) has an irregular past participle *proven* which is sometimes used instead of *proved*, especially as an adjective (e.g. *a proven liar*).
- *Speed* can also have regular forms, especially in the expression *speeded up*.
- *Sung* and *sunk* are sometimes used instead of *sang* and *sank*.
- *Burn, dream, lean, learn, smell, spell, spill* and *spoil* are all regular in American English. In British English, irregular past tenses and participles with *-t* are also common.
- *Dive* is regular in British English, but can be irregular in American: *dive – dived/dove* (/doʊv/) *– dived*
- *Fit* and *quit* are usually irregular in American English.
- The American past participle of *get* is either *got* or *gotten* (see 233.7).
- *Spit* has both *spit* and *spat* as past tense and participle in American English.
- Note the standard AmE pronunciations of *ate* (/eɪt/) and *shone* (/ʃoʊn/).

305 its and it's

These two words are often confused by native speakers of English as well as by foreign learners.

Its is a possessive word (like *my, your*).

Every country has its traditions. (NOT ... ~~*it's traditions.*~~)

It's is the contracted form of *it is* or *it has*.

It's raining again. (NOT ~~*Its raining again.*~~)

Have you seen my camera? It's disappeared. (NOT ... ~~*Its disappeared.*~~)

There is a similar difference between *whose* and *who's* – see 627.
For more about contractions, see 143.

306 it's time

1 followed by infinitive

It's time (or *it is time*) can be followed by an infinitive.

It's time to buy a new car.

To say who should do something, we use ***for*** **+ object + infinitive** (see 291).

It's time for her to go to bed.

2 followed by past tense with present meaning

It's time can also be followed by a subject with a past tense verb. The meaning is present.

It's time she went to bed. *It's time you washed those trousers.*

I'm getting tired. It's time we went home.

The expression *It's high time* ... is often used in this structure in British English, to say that something is urgent.

It's high time you got a job.

For other structures in which a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.

307 just

1 meanings

Just has several meanings.

a time

Just often emphasises the idea of 'at this moment' or 'close to the present'.
I'll be down in a minute – I'm just changing my shirt. (= right now)
Alice has just phoned. (= a short time ago)
Keith's still around. I saw him just last week. (= as recently as)
In expressions like *just after, just before* and *just when, just* suggests closeness to the time in question.
I saw him just after lunch. (= . . . very soon after lunch.)

b 'only', 'scarcely'

Just can mean 'only', 'nothing more than', 'scarcely'.
Complete set of garden tools for just £15.99!
I just want somebody to love me – that's all.
We just caught the train.
This meaning can be emphasised by *only*.
There was only just enough light to read by.
Can/Could I just . . .? can make a request seem less demanding.
Could I just use your phone for a moment?

c 'exactly'

Just often means 'exactly'.
What's the time? ~ It's just four o'clock.
Thanks. That's just what I wanted.
She's just as bad-tempered as her father.

d emphasiser

Just can emphasise other words and expressions, with the sense of 'simply', 'there's no other word for it'.
You're just beautiful. *I just love your dress.*

2 tenses

When *just* means 'a moment ago', past and present perfect tenses are both possible in British English. A present perfect is preferred when we are giving news. Compare:
Where's Eric? ~ He's just gone out.
I've just had a brilliant idea.
John just phoned. His wife's had a baby. (The news is the baby, not the phone call.)
In American English a past tense is normal in all cases.
Where's Eric? ~ He just went out.
I just had a brilliant idea. ▸

3 *just now*

Just now can mean either 'at this moment' or 'a few moments ago'. Compare:
She's not in just now. Can I take a message?
I saw Phil just now. He wanted to talk to you.
When *just now* means 'a few moments ago', two positions are possible:

a in end-position, usually with a past tense.
I telephoned Ann just now.

b in mid-position (see 24) with the verb, with a present perfect or past tense.
I('ve) just now realised what I need to do.

308 kinds of English (1): standard English and dialects

'A language is a dialect that has an army and a navy.' (Max Weinreich)

'Dialect: A language variety that has everything going for it, except the government, the schools, the middle class, the law and the armed forces.'
(Tom McArthur)

1 What is 'standard English'?

After King Alfred's victory over the Vikings in 878, the government of Southern England came to be established in London, which later became the capital of the whole of Britain. Because of this, the English spoken in London and the East Midlands was gradually adopted as the 'official' variety of English. And as time went by, this dialect (and its later developments, profoundly influenced by Norman French), became the 'standard' language – the form of English generally accepted for use in government, the law, business, education and literature. Standard English, like all standard languages, is therefore largely the result of historical accident. If the Vikings, who held the north of England, had defeated Harold's army, the capital of modern Britain might well be York, and this book would be written in (and about) a very different kind of English.

2 What is a dialect?

Many people think that dialects are corrupted forms of a language, spoken by ignorant people who make mistakes because they have not learnt correct grammar. This is not at all true (for more about correctness, see 309). A standard language is not linguistically 'better' than other dialects; it is simply the dialect that has been adopted for official purposes such as government and education. All English dialects have a long history, going back to the distinct forms of speech of the Germanic and Scandinavian invaders who came from various parts of northern Europe to occupy Britain during the Middle Ages. And each of these dialects has a grammar that is as rich and systematic as standard English, even though it may be very different. Some examples of English dialect forms:

I bain't ready. (= I'm not ready.)
He don't like it. *I wants a rest.*

Where's them papers what I give you?
Can ye no help me? (= Can't you help me?)
They're not believing it.
She's after telling me. (= She's told me.)
Are youse coming or not? (= Are you – plural – coming or not?)
I ain't done nothing. (= I haven't done anything.)

3 pronunciation: dialect and accent; 'received pronunciation'

A dialect is not the same as a regional accent (though they often go together). Many British people speak standard English, but with the typical accent of their part of the country. Other British people, however, combine standard English with a non-regional standard pronunciation. This (the so-called 'received pronunciation' or 'RP') is the pronunciation that has traditionally been used by a majority of British upper- and upper-middle-class people, though it has changed a good deal over the years. For a long time RP was considered more 'correct' than other accents, and its social dominance was reinforced by education and the media. This attitude is now changing, and there is less social prejudice in Britain than before against regional accents.

4 showing accent in writing

Writers may spell words in special ways to show a non-standard or conversational pronunciation – for example, apostrophes may be used in place of letters that are not pronounced. These spellings are common in cartoon strips. Some examples (mostly BrE):

'e's gone 'ome. (= He's gone home.)
'elp yerself. (= Help yourself.)
Yer gettin' old. (= You're getting old.)
If.I get me 'ands on yer... (= If I get my hands on you ...)
Where d'she put 'em? (= Where did she put them?)
C'mon, we're late. (= Come on ...)
C'n I 'ave a glass o' water? (= Can I have a glass of water?)
fish 'n' chips. (= fish and chips)
Come wi' me. (= Come with me.)
I dunno. (= I don't know.)
I gotta go. (= I've got to go.)
It's gonna rain. (= It's going to rain.)
I don't wanna play. (= I don't want to play.)

Gotta, gonna and *wanna* are most common in AmE.

5 other standard forms of English

Standard British English is not, of course, the only standard form of English. American English also has a standard variety; this is different from standard British English in a number of ways (see 51). Other English-speaking countries, too, have their own standard versions of the language. Some of these are very close to British or American English; others (e.g. the developing Indian standard) are more clearly distinct. ▸

6 What kind of English should learners study?

For most learners, the best model is one or other of the two main standard varieties: British or American English. Neither of these is 'better' than the other, and they are both used and understood worldwide. The differences are generally unimportant: for details, see 51.

7 international English

As English is used more and more as a language of international communication, it seems possible that a new form of international English may develop. This could be a 'super-standard', with characteristics of both British and American English. International English could turn out to be simpler in some ways than the modern standard varieties, without some of their less important grammatical complications. It will be interesting to see what happens.

309 kinds of English (2): correctness

When people say that somebody's language is 'not correct', they may mean several different things.

1 slips and mistakes

People sometimes make slips of the tongue when they are talking.

He works in Wildlife Conversation – I mean Conservation.

Somebody can use a word wrongly because he or she is unsure of its meaning, or confuses it with another word.

You're being very authoritative. (meaning 'authoritarian')

And many people have trouble with spelling and punctuation.

The firm has doubled it's profits this year. (should be *its profits*)

Foreign learners may also make mistakes with points of grammar that do not cause problems for native speakers.

I could not understanding the lecture. (instead of *I could not understand...*)

2 dialect forms

Many people think that dialects are corrupt versions of the standard language, and that dialect forms are mistakes, made by ignorant people who have not learnt correct grammar. In fact, this is not at all true (see 308.2): dialects have their own systematic – but different – grammars. Teachers in British schools often tell children whose dialects have multiple negation, for example, that they are making mistakes if they say things like *I ain't done nothing*, because 'two negatives make a positive' (so *I ain't done nothing* is supposed to mean 'I have done something'). This is not, of course, the case: in the child's dialect, the sentence means 'I haven't done anything'. And if 'two negatives make a positive', then the teacher ought to be quite happy if the child says 'I ain't done nothing to nobody', since logically three negatives must make a negative! Dialect forms are not, therefore, incorrect in themselves. They are, however, out of place in styles where only the standard language is normally used. It would be inappropriate – in fact, incorrect – to use *I wants, he don't* or a double negative in a school essay, a job application, a newspaper article or a speech at a business conference.

3 divided usage

Speakers of a standard language often differ about small points of usage. Where two different forms are common, people who use one form may claim that theirs is the only 'correct' usage, and that people who use the other form are making mistakes. Some examples from modern English:

so-called 'only correct form'	so-called 'mistake'
John and I went to the cinema.	*John and me went to the cinema.*
They're different from us.	*They're different to us.*
fewer people	*less people*
Somebody's dropped his or her keys.	*Somebody's dropped their keys.*
I'm unemployed at present.	*I'm unemployed presently.*

In fact, all of the so-called 'mistakes' listed above have been normal in standard English for centuries, and are not wrong at all (though some of them are more informal than the so-called 'only correct forms', and would be out of place in a formal style). For details, see 429 (*I* and *me*), 155 (*different*), 320 (*less*), 528 (*their*) and 467 (*presently*).

4 prescriptive and descriptive rules

If people say that *less people* or *different to* is wrong, they are following a prescriptive rule. Prescriptive rules are made by people who believe that they can improve a language, or protect it against change. A lot of prescriptive rules were made by eighteenth- and nineteenth-century British grammarians, often because they thought that English grammar should imitate Latin, which was considered a superior language. A typical example is the rule that 'split infinitives' like *to boldly go*, where an adverb is put between *to* and the verb, are wrong (a Latin infinitive is a single word, so cannot be split). Many people still believe this, and try to avoid split infinitives, although the rule is unrealistic (see 280.7). A similar rule said that sentences should not end in prepositions (as in *What are you waiting for?* or *I don't like being shouted at.*). In fact, it is quite normal for English sentences to end in prepositions (see 452). Most prescriptive rules give misleading information, and have little effect on the development of a language.

Descriptive rules simply say what happens in one form of a language (for example standard written British English, standard spoken American English, Yorkshire English, Dublin English or Singapore English), and not what some people feel ought to happen. The rules in this book are descriptive of standard British English.

5 When do mistakes become correct?

When somebody misuses a word or expression, this may influence other people to make the same mistake. Sometimes a mistake becomes so widespread that it becomes part of the language (this is one way in which languages develop), and we can no longer realistically call it a 'mistake'. The expression *oblivious of*, for example, originally meant 'forgetful of', but came to be used to mean 'unconscious of'. A hundred years ago this was still a mistake; now it is the normal use. The same thing is happening today with the expression *a concerted effort*. This means 'an effort by people working together', but some people now use it mistakenly to mean 'a strong effort'. ▸

If enough people follow the trend, this will sooner or later become the normal meaning, and the usage will have become correct.

310 kinds of English (3): spoken and written English

1 length and complexity; organisation of sentences

In writing, sentences can be planned in advance and revised, so there is time to build up complex structures. Spoken structures are usually simpler. Subjects, in particular, tend to be very short in speech. A typical written sentence:

The group of young people who were sitting at the next table were making so much noise that my friends and I found it difficult to continue our conversation.

In speech, we might say something more like:

There were a lot of young people at the next table. They were making so much noise we couldn't talk.

Written language is mostly made up of complete sentences. In conversation, complete sentences are often unnecessary.

When are you seeing her? ~ Half past eight. ~ At your place? ~ No, at Andy's.

Spoken sentences are often more loosely organised than written sentences, and the information may be 'spaced out' more by putting some of it before or after the main sentence (see 514).

Last Wednesday it was, I was just going to work, ...
This guy who rang up, he's an architect. Well, he said ...
They work very hard, most of them.

'Fronting' – putting something other than the subject at the beginning (see 513) – is more common in speech than in writing.

People like that I just can't stand. *Strange people they are!*

2 structures

Some structures – for example, relative clauses with *whom* – are most common in a formal style. Since speech is more often informal, and writing is more often formal, these structures are most common in written English. Other structures – for example, contractions like *he's*, *can't* – are typically informal, and are most common in speech. (For more about formal and informal language, see 311.) Some structures are common in speech, but hardly ever found in writing – for example, declarative questions (see 481):

You live with your parents?

certain conditional structures (see 262):

It would be good if we'd get some rain.

certain relative structures (see 498.16):

It's ridiculous to sing songs that you don't know what they mean.

and some kinds of ellipsis (see 179):

Couldn't understand a word.

Progressive and past verb forms are often used in speech in order to sound less definite or direct (see 436).

I was hoping you could lend me some money.

And structures whose purpose is to keep a conversation going (e.g. reply questions – see 484) are naturally only used in speech.

We had a lovely holiday. ~ Did you?

3 vocabulary

Written language often uses longer, less common words and expressions that are typical of a formal style (see 311), with a greater variety of synonyms. In speech, people usually prefer shorter, more common words, and they are more likely to keep repeating the same words. Phrasal verbs are common in speech, and are often replaced by more formal single words in writing. Compare:

I told him to get on the plane.
She instructed the man to board the aircraft.

311 kinds of English (4): formality

1 formal and informal language

Most people speak and write in different ways on different occasions. In some languages, for example, there are very complicated rules about how to speak to older or more important people. English does not have a system of this kind. However, there are some words and structures which are mostly used in *formal* situations, when people are careful about how they express themselves: for example in official notices, business letters or reports, meetings or conferences, or polite conversations with strangers. And some words and structures are mostly used in *informal* situations: for example in conversations with friends, or letters to one's family. Writing is more often formal, and speech is more often informal, but informal writing and formal speech are used when the situation makes them preferable.

Customer toilets are at the rear of the building. (Printed notice in an Oxfordshire petrol station)
The toilets are outside round the back. (Handwritten notice in the same petrol station, put up perhaps because the manager felt this would be easier for some of his customers to understand.)

Most words and expressions are neither formal nor informal, but neutral – English speakers do not have to know two ways of saying everything.

2 grammar

Some grammatical structures have different formal and informal versions. For example, contracted auxiliary verbs and negatives (see 143) are common in informal speech and writing. Compare:

FORMAL: *It has gone. It is not possible.*
INFORMAL: *It's gone. It isn't possible.*

Prepositions come at the end of certain structures in informal language (see 452). Compare:

FORMAL: *In which century did he live?*
INFORMAL: *Which century did he live in?*

Some relative structures are different (see 495). Compare:

FORMAL: *The man whom she married . . .*
INFORMAL: *The man she married . . .*

Some determiners are followed more often by singular verb forms in formal language, and by plural forms in informal language (see 532.5). Compare:

FORMAL: *Neither of us likes him.*
INFORMAL: *Neither of us like him.*

Subject and object forms of pronouns (e.g. *I* and *me*) are used differently in formal and informal language (see 429). Compare:

- FORMAL: *It was she who first saw what to do.*
  INFORMAL: *It was her that first saw what to do.*
- FORMAL: *Whom did they elect?*
  INFORMAL: *Who did they elect?*

Ellipsis (leaving out words – see 177–182) is more common in informal language. Compare:

- FORMAL: *Have you seen Mr Andrews?*
  INFORMAL: *Seen John?*
- FORMAL: *We think that it is possible.*
  INFORMAL: *We think it's possible.*

3 vocabulary

Some words and expressions are used mainly in formal situations; in neutral or informal situations other words or expressions are used. And some words and expressions are only used in informal situations. Some examples:

- FORMAL: *commence*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *begin, start*
- FORMAL: *alight* (from a bus or train)
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *get off*
- FORMAL: *I beg your pardon?*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *Pardon? Sorry?* (AmE *Excuse me? Pardon me?*)
  INFORMAL: *What?*
- FORMAL: *repair*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *mend* (BrE)
  INFORMAL: *fix*
- FORMAL: *acceptable, satisfactory*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *all right*
  INFORMAL: *OK*
- FORMAL: *I am (very) grateful to you.*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *Thank you.*
  INFORMAL: *Thanks.*

For structures used in polite requests and questions, see 435–7.
For formal and informal ways of using people's names and titles, see 363.
For the language used in particular social situations, see 545.
For taboo language, see 575. For slang, see 533.
For the use of out-of-date grammar and vocabulary in ceremonies and other situations, see 392.

312 kinds of English (5): variation and change

Languages change over time. Younger people adopt newer forms of expression, while older people often resist change; so even people who speak the same standard language do not speak it in exactly the same way. There are several reasons for change.

1 communicative need

Several centuries ago, standard English had two second-person pronouns: *thou* (singular) and *ye* (plural). Modern English uses *you* for both. But people still feel the need to distinguish singular and plural, and so expressions like *you guys* (used for both men and women) are beginning to function as second person plural pronouns.

2 influence from other dialects

British English is heavily influenced by American English. Some structures which were not used by British speakers half a century ago are now as common as their older British equivalents.

I feel like I'm getting a cold. (Older British form: *I feel as if I'm getting a cold.*)

Do you have today's newspaper? (Older British form: *Have you (got) today's newspaper?*)

3 Languages simplify themselves

As languages develop, complicated structures often become simpler and more regular. This may be happening with English conditional sentences – structures with *would* or *would have* in both clauses are quite common in speech.

If you'd have asked I'd have told you.

4 Small, less important distinctions are confused or disappear

Some irregular verb forms like *sank/sunk, sang/sung* or *lay/laid* are quite often confused in speech. Examples from the British radio:

He wrote eight operas, all of which sunk without trace.

... a song she sung in yesterday's concert.

Infinitives and *-ing* forms after verbs also sometimes get mixed up. An example from a letter:

I now have pleasure to enclose the correct proposal form. (instead of ... *pleasure in enclosing* ...)

When confusions like these become widespread, they can lead to language change. This may well happen with the possessive *'s* form: more and more people are leaving out the apostrophe or putting it in the 'wrong' place, so that this spelling convention might one day lose its importance and even disappear.

5 New forms and uses spread through the language

Progressive verb forms came into English a few hundred years ago, and gradually became used more and more widely. There are still a few verbs that are not generally used in progressive forms (see 471), but even these are losing their resistance. Some typical modern examples:

I'm understanding French a lot better now.

How many eggs were you wanting?

6 'Underground' forms become respectable

Some forms have always existed in the language, but have been 'driven underground' by prescriptive rules (see 309.4), so that they have been avoided by careful speakers. People are now more tolerant of such forms, so they are becoming more common. Some examples:

Here's your papers. (instead of *Here are* ... – see 532.4)

Somebody's left their umbrella behind. (instead of ... *his or her umbrella* – see 528)

John and me went to the cinema. *between you and I* ▸

7 Mistakes become part of the language

Sometimes a mistake is made by so many people that it becomes the normal form, and can no longer be called incorrect (see 309.5). This has happened with the word *data*. It was originally a plural, from a Latin word meaning 'given things', but it is now widely used as a singular uncountable noun. And recently people have started using *between ... to* instead of *between ... and* (e.g. *There were between 50 to 60 people on the bus*). This, too, could end up as a normal and correct expression.

8 Phonetically weak forms disappear

The weak form of *have* in *I've got* is so quiet that it is often not heard at all; and people are beginning to say *I got* instead of *I've got*. In time, this could become a new regular form.

9 some more examples of changes in modern English

- *Who* is replacing *whom*.
  Who do you trust? (George Bush's 1992 election slogan)
- *Will* and *would* have now practically replaced first-person *shall* and *should*.
  We will be in touch soon. *I would be grateful for some help.*
- Subjunctive *were* is becoming less common.
  If I was ten years younger I'd do the job myself *I wish it was Friday.*
- Some adverbs without *-ly* are becoming more common.
  You pronounced it wrong.
- Comparatives and superlatives with *more* and *most* are gaining ground in two-syllable adjectives.
  'Commoner' used to be commoner, but 'more common' is now more common.
- Plural noun modifiers are becoming more common. For example, *antiques shop* is now as common as *antique shop*, and *drugs problem* is replacing *drug problem*.
- The (very old) use of *less* with plurals is becoming more respectable.
  There were less people than I expected.
- Some AmE prepositional uses and phrasal verb forms are moving into BrE.
  The following trains will not run due to engineering work on weekends. (instead of ... *at weekends.*)
  We met with the unions yesterday. (instead of *We met the unions* ...)
  Can I speak with Cathy? (instead of ... *speak to* ...)
  We haven't seen Granny in ages. (instead of ... *for ages.*)
  You have to fill out this form. (instead of ... *fill in* ...)
- The AmE use of a past tense with *just* and *already* is becoming common in BrE.
  Peter just went out. (instead of *Peter has just gone out.*)
  I already told Jane about the party.

313 know

1 *know how* + infinitive

Know is not followed directly by infinitives. We use know *how to* (see 286).

*I **know how to make** Spanish omelettes.* (NOT ~~*I know to make*~~...)

2 object + infinitive

In a formal style, *know* is sometimes followed by **object + infinitive**.

*They **knew him to be** a dangerous criminal.*

The passive equivalent is quite common in a formal style.

*He **was known to be** a dangerous criminal.*

In a less formal style, *that*-clauses are more usual.

*They **knew that** he was a dangerous criminal.*

Know means 'experience' in the common structure ***I've never known*** + **object + infinitive**; an infinitive without *to* is possible in British English.

*I've never **known it (to) rain** like this.*

3 tenses

Know cannot usually be used in progressive forms (see 471).

*I **know** exactly what you mean.* (NOT ~~*I am knowing*~~...)

A present perfect tense is used to say how long one has known somebody or something. (See 460 for more details.)

*We've **known** each other since 1994.* (NOT ~~*We know each other since 1994*~~.)

4 *know* and *know about/of*

Know + **object** is used mainly to talk about knowledge that comes from direct personal experience. In other cases, we normally use *know about/of, have heard of* or another structure. Compare:

*You don't **know** my mother, do you? ~ No, I've never met her.*

*We all **know about** Abraham Lincoln.* (NOT ~~*We all know Abraham Lincoln*~~.)

5 *know* and *find out* etc

Know is not normally used to talk about finding something out: to know something is ***to have learnt*** it, not ***to learn*** it. To talk about getting knowledge we can use for example *find out, get to know, learn, hear, can tell.*

*She's married. ~ Where did you **find** that out?*
(NOT ... ~~*Where did you know that?*~~)

*I want to travel round the world and **get to know** people from different countries.* (NOT ...~~*and know people*~~...)

*He's from Liverpool, as you can **tell** from his accent.*
(NOT ...~~*as you can know from his accent*~~.)

6 *I know* and *I know it*

Note the difference between these two short answers.

I know refers to facts – it could be completed by a *that*-clause.

*You're late. ~ **I know.*** (= I know that I'm late.)

I know it generally refers to things – *it* replaces a noun.

*I went to a nice restaurant called The Elizabeth last night. ~ **I know it.***
(= I know the restaurant.)

For ways of using *you know*, see 157.

314 last, the last, the latest

1 *last week, month* etc; *the last week, month* etc

Last week, month etc (without *the*) is the week, month etc just before this one. If I am speaking in July, *last month* was June; in 2006, *last year* was 2005. *The last week, month* etc is the period of seven/thirty/etc days up to the moment of speaking. On July 15th 2006, *the last month* is the period from June 16th to July 15th; *the last year* is the 12 months starting in July 2005. Compare:

- *I was ill **last week**, but I'm OK this week.* (NOT ~~*I was ill the last week*~~...)
  *I've had a cold for **the last week**. I feel terrible.*
- *We bought this house **last year**.*
  *We've lived here for **the last year**, and we're very happy with the place.*

The difference between *next* and *the next* is similar. See 375.

2 *the last three* ... etc

Note the word order in expressions with numbers.

*I've been busy for **the last three** months.* (NOT ... ~~*for the three last months.*~~)

We generally say *the last few days/weeks* etc, not *the last days/weeks* etc.

*The **last few** days have been busy.* (NOT ~~*The last days*~~...)

3 the last in a series

The last can also mean 'the last in a series'.

*In **the last** week of the holiday something funny happened.*
*This is going to be **the last** Christmas I'll spend at home.*

4 *latest* and *last*

We can use *latest* to talk about something new, and *last* to mean 'the one before'. Compare:

- *Her **latest** book's being published next week.* (NOT ~~*Her last book*~~...)
  *She thinks it's much better than her **last** one.*
- *He's enjoying his **latest** job.* (NOT ~~*He's enjoying his last job.*~~)
  *But it doesn't pay as much as his **last** one.*

For tenses with *This is the last time* ... etc, see 591.

315 later and in

With a time expression, we generally use *later* to mean 'after that time', and *in* to mean 'after now'. Compare:

*She got married on her 18th birthday; **six months later** she was divorced.*
*Penny's coming on July 1st, and Colin will arrive about **a week later**.*
*I'll see you **in a few days**.* (NOT ~~*I'll see you a few days later*~~.)

But without a time expression, *later* can be used to mean 'after now'.

*Bye! See you **later**!*

316 lay and lie

There are three similar verbs that can be confused: *lay* (regular except for spelling), *lie* (irregular) and *lie* (regular).

1 *lay*

Lay is a regular verb except for its spelling. Its forms are:

infinitive: *(to) lay* past: *laid*
-ing form: *laying* past participle: *laid*

Lay means 'put down carefully' or 'put down flat'. It has an object.

Lay the tent down on the grass and I'll see how to put it up.
*I **laid** the papers on the table.* (NOT ~~*I lay*~~...)

Note the expressions ***lay a table*** (= put plates, knives etc on a table) and ***lay an egg*** (a bird's way of having a baby).

2 *lie* (irregular)

The forms of the irregular verb *lie* are:

infinitive: *(to) lie* past: *lay*
-ing form: *lying* past participle: *lain* (used mostly in a formal/literary style)

Lie (irregular) means 'be down', 'be/become horizontal'. It has no object.

*Don't **lie** in bed all day. Get up and do some work.* (NOT ~~*Don't lay*~~...)
*I **lay** down and closed my eyes.* (NOT ~~*I laid down*~~...)

3 *lie* (regular)

The regular verb *lie* (*lied*) means 'say things that are not true'.

*You **lied** to me when you said you loved me.*

4 dialect forms

In many British and American dialects, different forms of *lay* and irregular *lie* are used. *Lay* is often used in cases where standard English has *lie*.

*I'm going to **lay** down for a few minutes.* (Standard English ... *lie down* ...)

317 learn

1 forms

Learn is often irregular in British English (*learn/learnt*) and normally regular in American English (*learn/learned*). For other verbs like this, see 304.3.

For the adjective *learned* (/'lɜ:nɪd/), see 18.

2 *learn (how) to ...*

To talk about consciously learning a method or technique for doing something, we can use *learn to ...* or *learn how to ...*

*She enjoyed **learning (how) to look after young animals.***
*It's time you **learnt (how) to change the oil in the car.***

When we talk about less conscious skills and other kinds of knowledge, we generally use *learn to ....*

*Children usually **learn to walk** at around one year old.*
*In the new job, I soon **learnt to keep my mouth shut.***

318 least and fewest

1 *the least* as determiner: superlative of *little*

The least is used as a determiner before uncountable nouns; it is the superlative of *little* (= not much – see 329), and the opposite of *the most.*

*I think I probably do **the least work** in this office.*

The least can be used without a noun if the meaning is clear.

*Jan earns the most money in our family; Pete earns **the least.***

We use *the least of* before plural abstract nouns to mean 'the smallest of'.

*What will your mother think? ~ That's **the least of my worries.***

2 'any ... at all'

With singular abstract nouns, *the least* can mean 'any ... at all'.

*Do you think there's **the least chance** of Smith winning the election?*
*What's the time? ~ I haven't got **the least idea.***

3 *the fewest* as determiner: superlative of *few*

The fewest is used before plural nouns as the superlative of *few* (see 329).

*The translation with **the fewest mistakes** isn't always the best.*

Least is often used instead of *fewest* before plural nouns (... *the least mistakes*), especially in an informal style. Some people feel this is incorrect.

4 *(the) least* with adjectives: the opposite of *(the) most* or *(the) ...est*

(The) least is used before adjectives in the same way as *(the) most* or *(the) ...est* (see 137), but with the opposite meaning.

The least expensive holidays are often the most interesting.
I'm least happy when I have to work at weekends.

For the use of *the* with superlatives, see 141.

5 *least* as adverb

Least can be used as an adverb (the opposite of *most*).

*She always arrives when you **least** expect it.*
*I don't much like housework, and I like cooking **least** of all.*

6 *at least*

At least means 'not less than (but perhaps more than)'.

*How old do you think he is? ~**At least** thirty.*
*He's been in love **at least** eight times this year.*

We can also use *at least* as a discourse marker (see 157) to suggest that one thing is certain or all right, even if everything else is unsatisfactory.

*We lost everything in the fire. But **at least** nobody was hurt.*

7 *not in the least*

We can use *not in the least* in a formal style to mean 'not at all', especially when talking about personal feelings and reactions.

*I was **not in the least** upset by her bad temper.*

For *less* and *fewer*, see 320.

319 left

The past participle of *leave* – *left* – can be used in a special way, to mean 'remaining', 'not used', 'still there'.

*What did you do with the money that was **left**?*
*After the explosion, only two people were **left** alive.*

Left is common after *there is* and *have got*.

*There's nothing **left** in the fridge.*
*I haven't got any money **left**: can you get the tickets?*

320 less and fewer

1 the difference

Less is the comparative of *little* (used especially before uncountable nouns). *Fewer* is the comparative of *few* (used before plural nouns). Compare:

*I earn **less** money than a postman.*
*I've got **fewer** problems than I used to have.*

Less is quite common before plural nouns, as well as uncountables, especially in an informal style. Some people consider this incorrect.

*I've got **less** problems than I used to have.* ▸

2 *less/fewer* with and without *of*

Less of and *fewer of* are used before determiners (like *the, my* or *this*) and pronouns.

*I'd like to spend **less of my** time answering letters.*
*At the college reunions, there are **fewer of us** each year.*

Before nouns without determiners, *of* is not used.

*If you want to lose weight, eat **less** food.* (NOT ... ~~*less of food.*~~)
Fewer people make their own bread these days. (NOT ~~*Fewer of people*~~ ...)

3 *less* and *fewer* without nouns

Nouns can be dropped after *less* and *fewer* if the meaning is clear.

*Some people go to church, but **less/fewer** than 20 years ago.*

Less can be used as an adverb (the opposite of the adverb *more*).

*I worry **less** than I used to.*

4 *lesser*

Lesser is used in a few expressions (in a rather formal style) to mean 'smaller' or 'not so much'.

*the **lesser** of two evils* *a **lesser**-known writer*

For *little* and *few*, see 329.
For *least* and *fewest*, see 318.
For the use of *much, far, a lot* etc with *fewer* and *less*, see 140.

321 lest

Lest has a similar meaning to *in case* (see 271) or *so that ... not* (see 543). It is rare in British English, and is found mostly in older literature and in ceremonial language. It is a little more common in formal American English.

*They kept watch all night **lest** robbers should come.*
*We must take care **lest** evil thoughts enter our hearts.*

Lest can be followed by a subjunctive verb (see 567).

*The government must act, **lest** the problem of child poverty grow worse.*

For more about older English, see 392.

322 let (1): structures

1 followed by infinitive without *to*

Let is followed by object + infinitive without *to*.

*We usually **let the children stay** up late on Saturdays.*
(NOT ... ~~*let the children to stay*~~ / ~~*staying*~~ ...)
*She didn't **let me see** what she was doing.* (NOT ... ~~*let me saw*~~ ...)

Note the expressions *let ... know* (= tell, inform) and *let ... have* (= send, give).

*I'll **let you know** my holiday dates next week.*
*Could you **let me have** the bill for the car repair?*
Let go of means 'stop holding'.
*Don't **let go** of Mummy's hand.*

2 not used in passives

Let is unusual in passive forms; we prefer *allow*.
*After questioning he **was allowed** to go home.*

3 with object + preposition / adverb particle

Let can be followed by an object and a prepositional phrase or adverb particle expressing movement.
*You'd better **let the dog out** of the car.*
*Let **him in**, could you?* *Those kids **let my tyres down**.*

For more about infinitives without *to*, see 281.

323 let (2): introducing imperatives

Let can be used to introduce suggestions and orders, when these are not addressed to the hearer/reader (or not only to the hearer/reader). This structure can be considered a kind of imperative (see 268).

1 first-person plural imperative: *let's* ...

We can use *let us* (formal) or *let's* (informal) to make suggestions or to give orders to a group that includes the speaker.
Let us pray. *Let's have a drink.* *OK, let's all get moving.*
Shall we? is used as a question tag (see 487–488) in British English; *let's* can be used as a short answer.
*Let's go for a walk, **shall we?** ~ Yes, let's.*
Negatives are *let us not / do not let us* (formal); *let's not / don't let's* (informal).
*Let us **not** despair.* (formal) *Let's **not** get angry.* (informal)
*Do **not** let us forget those who came before us.* (formal)
Don't let's stay up too late tonight. (informal)

2 first-person singular imperative: *let me* ...

Let me is used to 'give instructions to oneself'; the expressions *Let me see* and *Let me think* are very common.
*What time shall we leave? ~ **Let me think**. Yes, Eight o'clock will be OK.*
*What's the best way to Manchester? **Let me see** – suppose I take the M6.*
Let me just get my coat and I'll be with you.
In a very informal style, *let's* is often used to mean *let me* (see also 429.6).
Let's see. Suppose I take the M6 ...

3 third-person imperative: *let him* ...

Let can also introduce a suggestion or order for someone or something else, not the speaker or hearer. This is common in formal and ceremonial language, but informal uses are also possible. ▸

Let the prayers begin.
Let our enemies understand that we will not hesitate to defend our territory.
Your boyfriend's going out with another girl. ~Let him. I don't care.
Note the structure with *let* + the infinitive of *there is*.
Let there be no doubt in your minds about our intentions.

324 life: countable or uncountable noun

When we talk about life in general, or about a kind of life, *life* is normally uncountable.
Life is complicated. *Ann enjoys life.*
I think I would enjoy city life. (NOT ... ~~*a city life.*~~)
When we describe particular people's lives, *life* is normally countable.
My grandmother had a hard life. (NOT ... ~~*had hard life.*~~)
My mother's parents lived interesting lives.

For more about countable and uncountable nouns, see 148.

325 like: verb

1 not used in progressive forms

Like is not usually used in progressive forms (see 471).
What do you think of the soup? ~I like it. (NOT ... ~~*I'm liking it.*~~)

2 not used without an object

Like cannot normally be used without an object.
How do you feel about ballet? ~I like it. (NOT ... ~~*I like.*~~)
For exceptions, see paragraph 7 below.

3 *very much*: position

We can use *very much* with *like*, but not *very* alone.
I very much like ice cream. (NOT ~~*I very like ice cream.*~~)
Very much does not come between *like* and its object (see 21).
I like you and your sister very much. OR *I very much like you and your sister.*
(NOT ~~*I like very much you and your sister.*~~)

4 *like ...ing*: enjoyment

To talk about enjoying activities in general, we can use *like ...ing* (especially in BrE) or *like* + infinitive.
I really like walking / to walk in the woods.
Children always like listening / to listen to stories.
To talk about enjoying something on one occasion, we use *like ...ing*.
I really liked working with him on his boat last week.
Like + object + verb is possible.
I don't like people phoning / to phone me in the middle of the night.

5 *like* + infinitive: choices and habits

We can use *like* + **infinitive** to talk about choices and habits.

I like to do the shopping early on Saturday mornings.
When I'm pouring tea I like to put the milk in first.

Not like to can mean 'think it better not to'.

Why didn't you tell me before? ~I didn't like to disturb you at home.

Like + object + **infinitive** is possible.

She likes the children to go to bed early during the week.

6 *would like*

We use *would like* + **infinitive** as a polite way of saying 'want', especially in requests and offers.

I'd like two kilos of tomatoes, please.
Would you like to dance? ~Yes, OK. (NOT ~~*Would you like dancing?*~~ . . .)

Do you like . . .? is not used in this way.

(NOT ~~*Do you like some more coffee?*~~)

Would like to can be used instead of repeating a whole infinitive (see 182).

How about playing tennis? ~ I'd like to.

Polite requests often begin *If you would like . . .* ; the following clause is sometimes dropped.

If you would like to take a seat, I'll see if Mr Smithers is free.
If you would like to come this way . . .

Would is sometimes dropped in this structure.

If you like to come this way . . .

For *would like* with a perfect infinitive (e.g. *I would like to have seen that.*), see 288.

7 *if you like* etc

When we offer people a choice, we often use *like* to mean 'want (to)' in subordinate clauses. Note that *to* is not used.

Can I go now? ~If you like. (NOT ~~*If you like to.*~~)
Do it any way you like. *Come when you like.*
You can sit wherever you like.

326 like and as: similarity, function

We can use *like* or *as* to say that things are similar. We can also use *as* to talk about function – the jobs that people or things do.

1 *like* (similarity): *like me*

Like can be a preposition. We use *like*, not *as*, before a noun or pronoun to talk about similarity.

like + noun/pronoun

My sister looks like me. (NOT . . . ~~*as me.*~~)
He ran like the wind. (NOT . . . ~~*as the wind.*~~)
Like his parents, he is a vegetarian.

We can use *very*, *quite* and other adverbs of degree before *like*.

He's very like his father. ▸

She looks a bit like Queen Victoria.

We can use *like* to give examples.

She's good at scientific subjects, like mathematics. (NOT . . . ~~*as mathematics.*~~)

In mountainous countries, like Peru, . . .

2 *as* (similarity): *as I do*

As is a conjunction. We use it before a clause, and before an expression beginning with a preposition.

as + clause
as + preposition phrase

Nobody knows her as I do.

We often drink tea with the meal, as they do in China.

In 1939, as in 1914, everybody seemed to want war.

On Friday, as on Tuesday, the meeting will be at 8.30.

3 *like I do* (informal)

In modern English, *like* is often used as a conjunction instead of *as*. This is most common in an informal style.

Nobody loves you like I do.

You look exactly like your mother did when she was 20.

4 inverted word order: *as did all his family*

In a very formal style, *as* is sometimes followed by **auxiliary verb + subject** (note the inverted word order – see 302).

She was a Catholic, as were most of her friends.

He believed, as did all his family, that the king was their supreme lord.

5 *as you know* etc

Some expressions beginning with *as* are used to introduce facts which are 'common ground' – known to both speaker/writer and listener/reader. Examples are *as you know, as we agreed, as you suggested.*

As you know, next Tuesday's meeting has been cancelled.

I am sending you the bill for the repairs, as we agreed.

There are some passive expressions of this kind – for example *as is well known*; *as was agreed.* Note that there is no subject *it* after *as* in these expressions (see 581).

As is well known, more people get colds in wet weather. (NOT ~~*As it is well known*~~ . . .)

I am sending you the bill, as was agreed. (NOT . . . ~~*as it was agreed.*~~)

6 comparison with *as* and *like* after negatives

After a negative clause, a comparison with *as* or *like* usually refers only to the positive part of what comes before.

I don't smoke, like Jane. (Jane smokes.)

I am not a Conservative, like Joe. (Joe is a Conservative.)

Before a negative clause, the comparison refers to the whole clause.

Like Mary, I don't smoke. (Mary doesn't smoke.)

Like Bill, I am not a Conservative. (Bill is not a Conservative.)

7 function or role: *He worked as a waiter*

Another use of *as* is to say what function or role a person or thing has – what jobs people do, what purposes things are used for, what category they belong to, etc. In this case, *as* is a preposition, used before a noun.

*He worked **as a waiter** for two years.* (NOT ... ~~*like a waiter.*~~)
*Please don't use that knife **as a screwdriver**.*
*A crocodile starts life **as an egg**.*

Compare this use of *as* with *like*.

***As your brother**, I must warn you to be careful.* (I am your brother.)
***Like your brother**, I must warn you to be careful.* (I am not your brother, but he and I have similar attitudes.)

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For comparisons with *as ... as*, see 136.
For *like* used instead of *as if*, see 74.
For *What ... like?*, see 253.
For *like* used to join two infinitive structures, see 281.4.
For *alike*, see 34.
For *the same as*, see 503.
For *such as*, see 508.6.

327 likely

1 meaning

Likely is an adjective with a similar meaning to *probable*.

*I don't think a Labour victory is **likely**.* *The opposite is **unlikely**.*
*What's a **likely** date for the election?* *Snow is very **unlikely**.*

Note also the informal adverb phrases *very/most likely*.

*I think she'll **very/most likely** be late.*

2 *it is (un)likely* + *that*-clause

We can use *it* as a preparatory subject or object for a *that*-clause (see 446.7).

***It's likely that** the meeting will go on late.*
*I thought **it unlikely that** she would come back.*

3 infinitive after *be (un)likely*

Be + *(un)likely* is often followed by an infinitive.

*I'm **likely to** be busy tomorrow.*
*Do you think it's **likely to** rain?* *He's **unlikely to** agree.*

328 link verbs: be, seem, look etc

1 common link verbs

Some verbs are used to join an adjective or noun complement to a subject. These verbs can be called 'link verbs', 'copulas' or 'copular verbs'. Common examples: *be, seem, appear, look, sound, smell, taste, feel, become, get.*

The weather is horrible. *I do feel a fool.*
That car looks fast. *She became a racehorse trainer.*
The stew smells good. *It's getting late.*

2 adjectives after link verbs

After link verbs we use adjectives, not adverbs. Compare: ▸

He spoke intelligently. (Intelligently is an adverb. It tells you about how the person spoke.)
He seems intelligent. (Intelligent is an adjective. It tells you about the person himself – rather like saying *He is intelligent. Seem* is a link verb.)

3 other uses

Some of these verbs are also used with other meanings as ordinary non-link verbs. They are then used with adverbs, not adjectives. Compare:
The problem appeared impossible. (NOT ... ~~*impossibly*~~.)
Isabel suddenly appeared in the doorway. (NOT ... ~~*sudden*~~...)
Other verbs used in two ways like this are *look* (see 331), *taste* (see 577) and *feel* (see 202).

4 change

Some link verbs are used to talk about change, or the absence of change. The most common are: *become, get, grow, go, turn, stay, remain, keep.*

It's becoming colder.	*It's growing colder.*
How does she stay so young?	*Keep calm.*
It's getting colder.	*The leaves are going brown.*
I hope you will always remain so happy.	*The leaves are turning brown.*

For the differences between these verbs, see 128.

5 other verbs followed by adjectives

Sometimes other verbs, too, can be followed by adjectives. This happens when we are really describing the subject of the sentence, and not the action of the verb. It is common in descriptions with *sit, stand, lie, fall.*
The valley lay quiet and peaceful in the sun.
She sat motionless, waiting for their decision.
He fell unconscious on the floor. (NOT ... ~~*unconsciously*~~...)
Adjectives can also be used in the structure verb + object + adjective, to describe the object of the verb.
New SUPER GUB washes clothes SUPER WHITE. (NOT ... ~~*WHITELY*~~...)
He pulled his belt tight and started off. (NOT... ~~*tightly*~~...)

For the difference between adjectives and adverbs, see 26.
For cases like *drive slow, think positive,* see 27.2,4.
For more about structures after verbs, see 606.
See also the entries for particular link verbs.

329 (a) little and (a) few

1 uncountable and plural

We use the determiner *(a) little* with singular (usually uncountable) words, and we use *(a) few* with plurals. Compare:
I have little interest in politics. *Few politicians are really honest.*
We've got a little bacon and a few eggs.

2 of after *(a) little* and *(a) few*

We use *(a) little of* and *(a) few of* before a pronoun or determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154).

Compare:
- *Few people can say that they always tell the truth.*
  Few of us can say that we always tell the truth.
- *Could I try **a little** wine?*
  *Could I try **a little of your** wine?*
- *Only **a few** children like maths.*
  *Only **a few of the** children in this class like maths.*

3 use of *a*

There is a difference between *little* and *a little*, and between *few* and *a few*. Without *a*, *little* and *few* usually have rather negative meanings. They may suggest 'not as much/many as one would like', 'not as much/many as expected', and similar ideas.

*The average MP has **little** real power.*
Few people can speak a foreign language perfectly.

A little and *a few* are more positive: their meaning is generally closer to *some*. They may suggest ideas like 'better than nothing' or 'more than expected'.

*Would you like **a little** soup?*
*You don't need to go shopping. We've got **a few** potatoes and some steak.*

Compare:
- *Cactuses need **little** water.* (not much water)
  *Give the roses **a little** water every day.* (not a lot, but some)
- *His ideas are difficult, and few people understand them.*
  *His ideas are difficult, but **a few** people understand them.*

Quite a few (informal) means 'a considerable number'.

*We've got **quite a few** friends in the village.*

4 formal and informal language

Little and *few* (with no article) are rather formal. In an informal style (e.g. ordinary conversation), we generally prefer *not much/many*, or *only a little/few*.

*Come on! We haven't got **much** time!*
*Only **a few** people speak a foreign language perfectly.*

However, *very little* and *very few* are possible in an informal style.

*He's got **very little** patience and **very few** friends.*

5 *(a) little* and *(a) few* without nouns

We can drop a noun and use *(a) little/few* alone, if the meaning is clear.

*Some more soup? ~Just **a little**, please.*

6 not used after *be*

(A) little and *(a) few* are determiners (see 154). They are normally used before nouns, but not after *be*.

*They had **little** hope.* (BUT NOT ~~*Their hope was little.*~~)

7 *(a) little* with adjectives and adverbs

(A) little can modify comparatives.

*How are you? ~**A little** better, thanks.*
*The new model is **little** faster than the old one.*

Little is not normally used to modify other adjectives or adverbs.
*It's **not very** interesting.* (NOT ~~*It's little interesting.*~~)
A little can be used, like *a bit* (see 107), before adjectives and adverbs with a critical or negative meaning.
*You must forgive her – she's **a little** confused.*
*They arrived **a little** late.*
Note also the expression *little known.*
*He's studying the work of a **little known** German novelist.*

For *less* and *fewer*, see 320.
For the adjective *little*, see 534.

330 long and (for) a long time

1 *long* in questions and negatives

Long (meaning '(for) a long time') is most common in questions and negative clauses, and with restrictive words like *hardly, seldom.*
*Have you been waiting **long**?*
*It doesn't take **long** to get to her house.* *She seldom stays **long**.*

2 *(for) a long time* in affirmative clauses

In affirmative clauses we usually prefer *(for) a long time.*
*I waited **(for) a long time**, but she didn't arrive.* (NOT ~~*I waited long*~~...)
*It takes **a long time** to get to her house.* (NOT ~~*It takes long*~~...)

3 *long* in affirmative clauses

However, *long* is used in affirmative clauses with *too, enough, as* and *so*, and in a few other common expressions.
*The meeting went on much **too long**.*
*I've been working here **long enough**. Time to get a new job.*
*You can stay **as long** as you want.*
*Sorry I took **so long**.* *I'll be back **before long**.*
*She sits dreaming **all day long**.* (also *all night/week/year long*)
Long is also used in affirmative clauses to modify adverbs and conjunctions.
*We used to live in Paris, but that was **long before** you were born.*
***Long after** the accident he used to dream that he was dying.*
***Long ago**, in a distant country, there lived a beautiful princess.*
(rather formal)

4 *for a long time* in negative clauses

When *for a long time* is used in a negative clause, it sometimes has a different meaning from *for long*. Compare:
– *She didn't speak **for long**.* (= She only spoke for a short time.)
*She didn't speak **for a long time**.* (= She was silent for a long time.)
– *He didn't work **for long**.* (= He soon stopped working.)
*He didn't work **for a long time**.* (= He was unemployed for a long time.)
The reason for the difference is to do with the 'scope of negation': in the first and third sentences, *not* goes with *for long*, but in the second and fourth *for a long time* is outside the influence of *not* (it could go at the beginning of the clause).

5 *How long are you here for?*

Questions like *How long are you here for?* refer to the future. Compare:
How long are you here for? ~ *Until the end of next week.*
How long have you been here for? ~ *Since last Monday.*

6 comparative

The comparative of *for a long time* is *(for) longer.*
I hope you'll stay longer next time. (NOT ... ~~*for a longer time.*~~)

For *no longer*, see 379.
Much, many and *far* are also more common in questions and negative clauses (see 357 and 200).

331 look

1 link verb (= 'seem')

Look can mean 'seem' or 'appear'. In this case it is a link verb (see 328) and can be followed by adjectives or nouns.
You look angry – what's the matter? (NOT ~~*You look angrily*~~ ...)
I looked a real fool when I fell in the river.
The garden looks a mess.
To talk about a temporary appearance, we can use simple or progressive forms; there is not much difference of meaning.
You look / You're looking very unhappy. What's the matter?
Look can be followed by *like* or *as if* (see 74). Progressive forms are not usually used in this case.
She looks like her mother.
It looks as if it's going to rain. (NOT ~~*It's looking as if*~~ ...)
She looks as if she's dreaming.
She looks like she's dreaming. (informal) (NOT ~~*She looks like dreaming.*~~)
Look like ...ing ... (informal) is used with future reference in British English.
It looks like being a wet night. (= It looks as if it will be ...)
Look + infinitive is also sometimes used in informal British English.
The team look to repeat their success. (= It looks as if they will ...)

2 ordinary verb = ('direct one's eyes')

When *look* means 'direct one's eyes', it is used with adverbs, not adjectives. Before an object, a preposition is necessary (usually *at*).
The boss looked at me angrily. (NOT ~~*The boss looked at me angry.*~~)
A preposition is not used when there is no object.
Look! It's changing colour. (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~ ...)

3 not followed by *if*

Before *if* or *whether*, we use *see* or *look to see*, not *look*.
Could you see if Ann's in the kitchen? (NOT ~~*Could you look if Ann's in the kitchen?*~~)
What are you doing? ~ *I'm looking to see whether these batteries are OK.* (NOT ~~*I'm looking whether*~~ ...)

4 *look after* and *look for*; *fetch*

These are not the same. *Look after* means 'take care of'; *look for* means 'try to find'. Compare:

*Could you **look after** the kids while I go shopping?*
*I spent ages **looking for** her before I found her.*

We use *fetch*, not *look for*, if we know where people or things are.

*I'm going to the station at three o'clock **to fetch** Daniel.* (NOT ... ~~*to look for Daniel.*~~)

For other uses of *look*, see a good dictionary.
For the difference between *look (at)*, *watch* and *see*, see 506.
For *Look!* and *Look here!* used in arguments, see 157.19.

332 lose and loose

Lose (pronounced /lu:z/) is an irregular verb (*lose – lost – lost*).
Loose (pronounced /lu:s/) is an adjective (the opposite of *tight*).

*I must be **losing** weight – my clothes all feel **loose**.* (NOT ~~*I must be loosing weight*~~ ...)

333 [a] lot, lots, plenty, a great deal, a large amount, a large number, the majority

1 introduction; use of *of*

These expressions have similar meanings to the determiners *much*, *many* and *most*, but the grammar is not quite the same. In particular, *of* is used after these expressions even before nouns with no determiner. Compare:

- *There's not **a lot of** meat left.* (NOT ~~*There's not a lot meat left.*~~)
  *There's not **much** meat left.* (NOT ~~*There's not much of meat left.*~~)
- *Plenty of shops open on Sunday mornings.* (NOT ~~*Plenty shops*~~ ...)
  Many shops open on Sunday mornings. (NOT ~~*Many of shops*~~ ...)

For *much*, *many* and *most* with and without *of*, and other details of their use, see 356–357.

2 *a lot of* and *lots of*

These are rather informal. In a more formal style, we prefer *a great deal of*, *a large number of*, *much* or *many*. (*Much* and *many* are used mostly in questions and negative clauses – see 357.) There is not much difference between *a lot of* and *lots of*: they are both used mainly before singular uncountable and plural nouns, and before pronouns. It is the subject, and not the form *lot/lots*, that makes a following verb singular or plural. So when *a lot of* is used before a plural subject, the verb is plural; when *lots of* is used before a singular subject, the verb is singular.

A lot of time is needed to learn a language.
Lots of patience is needed, too. (NOT ~~*Lots of patience are needed, too.*~~)
A lot of my friends want to emigrate. (NOT ~~*A lot of my friends wants*~~ ...)
Lots of us think it's time for an election.

3 *plenty of*

Plenty of is usually rather informal. It is used mostly before singular uncountables and plurals. It suggests 'enough and more'.

*Don't rush. There's **plenty of time.*** *Plenty of shops take cheques.*

4 *a great deal of, a large amount of* and *a large number of*

These are used in similar ways to *a lot of* and *lots of*, but are more formal. *A great deal of* and *a large amount of* are generally used with uncountable nouns.

*Mr Lucas has spent **a great deal of** time in the Far East.*
*I've thrown out **a large amount of** old clothing.*

A large number of is used before plurals, and a following verb is plural.

*A **large number of** problems still have to be solved.* (More natural than *A large amount of problems* ... or *A great deal of problems* ...)

5 *the majority of*

The majority of (= 'most' or 'most of') is mostly used with plural nouns and verbs.

*The **majority of** criminals are non-violent.*

6 measurement nouns

These expressions are not generally used before words for units of measure, like *pounds, years* or *miles*. Other words have to be used.

*It cost **several** pounds.* (NOT ~~*It cost a lot of pounds.*~~)
*They lived **many** miles from the town.* (NOT ~~*They lived plenty of miles from the town.*~~)

7 use without following nouns

These expressions can be used without nouns if the meaning is clear. In this case, *of* is not used.

*How much did it cost? ~**A lot.*** (= A lot of money.)
*We should be all right for cheese – I've bought **plenty**.*
*He does not often speak, but when he does he says **a great deal**.*

8 use as adverbs

A lot and *a great deal* can be used as adverbs.

*On holiday we walk and swim **a lot**.* (BUT NOT ... ~~*we walk plenty*~~ OR ... ~~*swim lots.*~~)
*The government seems to change its mind **a great deal**.*

334 loudly and aloud

Loudly is used (like *loud*) to talk about the strength of a noise. The opposite is *quietly*.

*They were talking so **loudly** I couldn't hear myself think.* ▸

Aloud is often used with the words *read* and *think*, to say that words are spoken, and not just 'said' silently in the head.

*She has a very good pronunciation when she reads **aloud**.*
*What did you say? ~Oh, nothing. I was just thinking **aloud**.*

335 make: causative structures

1 object + infinitive

After *make* + object, we use the infinitive without *to* (see 281).

I made her cry. (NOT ~~*I made her to cry*~~. OR ~~*I made her crying*~~.)

Note that the infinitive must follow the object.

*I can't make **the washing machine work**.* (NOT ~~*I can't make work the washing machine*~~.)

In passive structures the infinitive with *to* is used.

*She **was made to repeat** the whole story.*

2 *make onself understood*, etc

In a few cases *make* can be followed by *myself, yourself* etc and a past participle. The structure is common with *understood* and *heard*.

*I don't speak good French, but I can **make myself understood**.* (NOT ... ~~*make myself understand*~~.)
*She had to shout to **make herself heard**.*

3 with object + object complement: *make people welcome* etc

We can talk about an effect or change with *make* + object + adjective/noun (see 607).

*She **made everybody welcome**.*
*The rain **made the grass wet**.* (NOT ~~*The rain made wet the grass*~~.)

We do not use *make ... be* in this structure.

*You have **made me a happy man**.* (NOT ~~*You have made me be a happy man*~~.)

For other structures and the difference between *make* and *do*, see 160.

336 make: prepositions

We usually say that something is *made of* a particular material.

*Most things seem to be **made of** plastic these days.*
*All our furniture is **made of** wood.*

When a material is changed into a completely different form to make something, we often use *make from*.

*Paper is **made from** wood.* (NOT ~~*Paper is made of wood*~~.)

When we talk about the process of manufacture, we can also use *out of*.

*He **made all the window-frames out of oak**; it took a long time.*

To mention one of several materials (e.g. in cooking), we can use *make with*.

*The soup's good. ~Yes, I **make it with** lots of garlic.*

337 marry and divorce

1 *get married/divorced*

In an informal style, *get married* and *get divorced* are more common than *marry* and *divorce* when there is no object.

*Lulu and Joe got **married** last week.* (*Lulu and Joe married* . . . is more formal.)

*The Robinsons are **getting divorced**.*

In a more formal style, *marry* and *divorce* are preferred.

*Although she had many lovers, she never **married**.*

*After three very unhappy years they **divorced**.*

2 no preposition before object

Before a direct object, *marry* and *divorce* are used without prepositions.

*She **married a builder**.* (NOT ~~*She married with a builder*~~.)

*Andrew's going to **divorce Carola**.*

3 *get/be married to*

We can also use *get/be married to* with an object.

*She **got married to** her childhood sweetheart.*

*I've **been married to** you for 25 years and I still don't understand you.*

338 may and might (1): introduction

1 grammar

May and *might* are modal auxiliary verbs (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.

*She **may** be here tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*She mays*~~. . .)

*It **might** rain this afternoon.*

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.

May I help you? (NOT ~~*Do I may*~~. . .)

*We **might not** be home before midnight.*

c After *may* and *might* we use the infinitive of other verbs, without *to*.

*You may **be** right.* (NOT ~~*You may to be right*~~.)

*She might not **want** to come with us.*

d *May* and *might* do not have infinitives or participles (~~*to may*~~, ~~*maying*~~, ~~*mighted*~~ do not exist). When necessary, we use other words.

*She wants **to be allowed** to open a bank account.* (NOT . . . ~~*to may open*~~. . .)

e *Might* does not normally have a past meaning. It is used in the same way as *may* to talk about the present and future. The difference is that *might* usually refers to situations which are less probable or less definite (see 339.2 and 340.1). *Might* also replaces *may* in past indirect speech (see 275). ▸

f However, certain past ideas can be expressed by *may* or *might* followed by a perfect infinitive (***have*** + past participle).
*She's late. I think she **may have missed** the train.*
*Why did you do that? You **might have killed** yourself.*

g *Might* has a contracted negative *mightn't* (see 143). *Mayn't* is very unusual.

2 meanings

May and *might* are used mainly to talk about the chances of something happening, and to ask for and give permission (especially in a more formal style).
*I **may** see you tomorrow.*
*Do you think I **might** borrow your typewriter?*

Can and *could* are often used in similar ways to *may* and *might*. For the main differences, see 345. For *may* and *might* after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.

339 may and might (2): chances etc

1 chances: *You may be right; We may go climbing*

We often use *may* and *might* to talk about the chance (possibility) that something will happen, or is happening.
*We **may** go climbing in the Alps next summer.*
*Peter **might** phone. If he does, ask him to ring later.*
*I think Labour are going to win. ~ You **may** be right.*
*Where's Emma? ~ I don't know. She **might** be out shopping, I suppose.*
May well and *might well* suggest stronger possibilities.
*I think it's going to rain. ~ You **may well** be right – the sky's really black.*

2 *may* and *might*: the difference

Might is not often used as a past form of *may*: both *may* and *might* are used to talk about the present or future. *Might* is mostly used as a less definite or more hesitant form of *may*, suggesting a smaller chance – it is used when people think something is possible but not very likely. Compare:
*I **may** go to London tomorrow.* (perhaps a 50% chance)
*Joe **might** come with me.* (perhaps a 30% chance)

3 questions: *may* not used

May is not normally used to ask about the chance of something happening.
Are you likely to go camping this summer? (NOT ~~*May you go camping*~~...?)
Has Emma gone shopping, I wonder? (NOT ~~*May Emma have gone shopping?*~~)
But *may* is possible in indirect questions (for example after *Do you think*).
*Do you think you **may** go camping this summer?*
Might can be used in direct questions, but this is rather formal.
Might you go camping? (less natural than *Do you think you may/might...?*)

4 two negatives: *may/might not* and *can't*

There are two ways to make *may/might* negative: with *may/might not* (= It is possible that . . . not . . .) and with *can't* (= It is not possible that . . .) Compare:

– *She **may** be at home.* (= Perhaps she is at home.)
  *She **may not** be at home.* (= Perhaps she is not at home.)
  *She **can't** be at home.* (= She is certainly not at home.)
– *You **might** win.* (= Perhaps you will win.)
  *You **might not** win.* (= Perhaps you won't win.)
  *You **can't** win.* (= You certainly won't win.)

5 *might* meaning 'would perhaps'

Might (but not *may*) can have a conditional meaning (= would perhaps).

*If you went to bed for an hour, you **might** feel better.*
(= . . . perhaps you would feel better.)
*Don't play with knives. You **might** get hurt.* (= Perhaps you would get hurt.)

6 indirect speech: *might*

Might is used in past indirect speech when *may* was used in direct speech.

*I **may** go to Scotland.* ~ *What?* ~ *I said I **might** go to Scotland.*

7 past: *might* + infinitive not used

Might + infinitive is not normally used to talk about past possibility (except in indirect speech).

*I felt very hot and tired. **Perhaps** I was ill.* (NOT . . . ~~*I might be ill.*~~)

8 *may/might have . . .*: *She may have missed her train*

However, to say that it is possible that something happened or was true in the past, we can use *may/might have* + past participle.

Polly's very late. ~ *She **may have missed** her train.* (= It is possible that she missed . . .)
What was that noise? ~ *It **might have been** a cat.*

May/might have . . . can sometimes refer to the present or future.

*I'll try phoning him, but he **may have gone** out by now.*
*By the end of this year I **might have saved** some money.*

9 *might have . . .*: *You might have killed yourself*

To say that something was possible but did not happen, we can use *might have . . .*

*You were stupid to try climbing up there. You **might have killed** yourself.*
*If she hadn't been so bad-tempered, I **might have married** her.*

May have . . . is now sometimes used with this meaning too; some people feel that this is not correct.

*You were stupid to try climbing up there. You **may have killed** yourself.*
(More normal: . . . *You **might have killed** yourself.*)

For *might have . . .* used to criticise people for not doing things, see 344.
For the use of *could have* + past participle in similar senses, see 124.7. ▶

10 another use of *may/might*: typical occurrences

In scientific and academic language, *may* is often used to talk about typical occurrences – things that can happen in certain situations.

*A female crocodile **may** lay 30-40 eggs.*
*The flowers **may** have five or six petals, pink or red in colour.*
*Children of divorced parents **may** have difficulty with relationships.*

With this meaning, *might* can be used to talk about the past.

*In those days, a man **might** be hanged for stealing a sheep.*

Can and *could* are used in a similar way, but are less formal. See 122.2,4.

340 may and might (3): permission

May and *might* are used for permission mostly in a formal style. They are much less common than *can* and *could*.

1 asking for permission: *May I put the TV on?*

May and *might* can both be used to ask for permission. *Might* is very polite and formal, and is mostly used in indirect question structures.

May I put the TV on?
*I wonder if I **might** have a little more cheese.*
(More natural than *Might I have . . .?*)

2 giving and refusing permission: *You may / You may not*

May is used to give permission; *may not* to refuse permission or forbid.

*May I put the TV on? ~ Yes, of course you **may**.*
*May I borrow the car? ~ No, I'm afraid you **may not**.*
*Students **may not** use the staff car park.*

Must not is also used to forbid (see 360.3). It is a little stronger or more emphatic than *may not*.

*Students **must not** use the staff car park.*

3 talking about permission

We do not usually use *may* and *might* to talk about permission which has already been given or refused, about freedom which people already have, or about rules and laws. Instead, we use *can, could* or *be allowed*.

*These days, children **can / are allowed to** do what they like.* (NOT . . . ~~*children may do what they like*~~.)
*I **could / was allowed to** read what I liked when I was a child.* (NOT ~~*I might read what I liked*~~ . . .)
*Can you / Are you **allowed to** park on both sides of the road here?*
(More natural than *May you park . . .?*)

4 indirect speech

However, *may* and *might* can be used to report the giving of permission. *May* is used after present reporting verbs, and *might* after past verbs.

*The Manager says that we **may** leave our coats in the downstairs toilet.*
*What are you doing here? ~ Peter said that I **might** look round.* (very formal)

341 may and might (4): may in wishes and hopes

May (but not *might*) is used in formal expressions of wishes and hopes.

*I hope that the young couple **may** enjoy many years of happiness together.*
*Let us pray that peace **may** soon return to our troubled land.*

May often comes at the beginning of the sentence.

May you both be very happy! *May God be with you.*
May the New Year bring you all your heart desires.
May she rest in peace. (prayer for a dead person)

342 may and might (5): may/might ... but

May (and sometimes *might*) can be used in a discussion rather like *although* or *even if*: to say that something is true, but that this makes no difference to the main argument. They are often followed by *but*.

*He **may** be clever, but he hasn't got much common sense.* (= Even if he's clever, he ... OR Although he's clever, he ...)
*It **may** be a comfortable car, but it uses a lot of petrol.*
*She **might** have had a lovely voice when she was younger, but ...*

Note that in this structure, *may* and *might* can be used to talk about things that are definitely true, not just possible.

*You **may** be my boss, but that doesn't mean you're better than me.*

343 may and might (6): may/might as well

This structure is used informally to suggest that one should do something because there is nothing better, nothing more interesting or nothing more useful to do. There is little difference between *may* and *might* in this case.

*There's nobody interesting to talk to. We **may as well** go home.*
*Shall we go and see Fred? ~ OK, **might as well**.*

Note the difference between *may/might as well* and *had better* (see 230). Compare:

*We **may as well** have something to eat.*
(= There is nothing more interesting to do.)
*We'd **better** have something to eat.*
(= We ought to eat; there is a good reason to eat now.)

Might as well is also used to compare one unpleasant situation with another.

*This holiday isn't much fun. We **might just as well** be back home.* (= Things wouldn't be any different if we were at home.)
*You never listen – I **might as well** talk to a brick wall.*

344 may and might (7): requests, suggestions and criticisms

Might is often used in affirmative clauses to make requests and suggestions.

*You **might** see if John's free this evening.*
*You **might** try asking your uncle for a job.* ▸

The structure can be used to criticise. ***Might have* + past participle** is used to talk about the past.

*You **might** ask before you borrow my car.*
*She **might have told** me she was going to stay out all night.*

For the use of *could* in similar senses, see 124.7.

345 may and might (8): may/might and can/could

May/might are often used in similar ways to *can/could*. The main differences are as follows. For more details of these uses, see 121–124 and 338–340.

1 permission: *can/could* more common

Can and *could* are more common than *may* and *might*, which are used mostly in a formal style. Compare:

Can I look at your paper?
*Excuse me, **may** I look at your newspaper for a moment?*

There is an old belief that *may/might* are more 'correct' than *can/could* in this case, but this does not reflect normal usage.

2 'general' possibility: *can/could*, not *may/might*

We normally use *can* and *could* to say that things are possible in general: people are able to do them, the situation makes them possible, or there is nothing to stop them (see 122). *May* and *might* are not used in this way.

*She's lived in France; that's why she **can** speak French.* (NOT ... ~~*that's why she may speak French.*~~)
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.* (NOT ~~*These roses may grow anywhere.*~~)
Can gases freeze? (NOT ~~*May gases freeze?*~~)
*In those days, everybody **could** find a job.* (NOT ... ~~*everybody might find a job.*~~)

3 chances: *may/might/could*, not *can*

To talk about the chance (possibility) that something will happen, or is happening, we use *may*, *might* or *could*, but not *can*.

*Where's Sarah? ~ She **may** be with Joe.* (NOT ~~*She can be*~~ ...)
*We **may** go to the Alps next summer.* (NOT ~~*We can go*~~ ... ~~*next summer.*~~)

Might and *could* suggest a less strong possibility.

*It **might/could** rain this evening, but I think it probably won't.*

May is not used in direct questions with this meaning.

Do you think you'll go to the Alps? (NOT ~~*May you go*~~ ...?)

4 negative sentences: *may/might not* and *can/could not*

May/might not means 'perhaps ... not ...'
Can/could not can mean 'it is certain that ... not ...' (see 359.2).
Compare:

– *It **may/might not** rain tomorrow.* (= Perhaps it will not rain.)
  *It **can't/couldn't** possibly rain tomorrow.* (= It will certainly not rain.)
– *It **may not** be true.* (= Perhaps it is not true.)
  *It **can't** be true.* (= It is certainly not true.)

– *He may/might not have understood.* (= Perhaps he did not understand.)
He can't/couldn't have understood. (= He certainly did not understand.)

346 maybe and perhaps

These two words mean the same. They are both common. In British English, *perhaps* is used more often than *maybe* in a formal style.

Maybe/Perhaps it'll stop raining soon.
Julius Caesar is perhaps the greatest of Shakespeare's early plays.

Perhaps is often pronounced 'praps' by British people.

347 meals

There are regional and social differences in the names for meals.

1 British usage

a midday: *dinner* or *lunch*

The midday meal is often called *dinner*, especially if it is the main meal of the day. People who are 'higher' in the social scale usually call it *lunch*.

b afternoon: *tea*

Some people have a light meal of tea and biscuits or cakes, called *tea*, at four or five o'clock in the afternoon.

c early evening: *(high) tea* or *supper*

Many people have a cooked meal around five or six o'clock. This is often called *tea* or *high tea*; some people call it *supper*.

d later evening: *supper* or *dinner*

A meal later in the evening is often called *supper* (and some people use the same word for a bedtime snack). Some people use *dinner* for the evening meal if it is the main meal of the day. A more formal evening meal with guests, or in a restaurant, is usually called *dinner*.

2 American usage

Americans generally use *lunch* for the midday meal and *dinner* or *supper* for the evening meal. However in rural areas it is still common for the main meal of the day to be eaten at midday and called 'dinner', with the evening meal being called 'supper'. Celebration meals at Christmas and Thanksgiving are called *Christmas/Thanksgiving dinner*, even if they are eaten at midday.

348 mean

1 questions

Note the structure of questions with *mean*.

Excuse me. What does 'hermetic' mean? (NOT ~~*What means 'hermetic'?*~~) ▸

Note also the preposition in *What do you mean by 'hermetic'?* (= In what sense are you using the word?)

2 *mean* and *think, meaning* and *opinion*

Mean and *meaning* are 'false friends' for speakers of some European languages. They are not usually used for 'think' or 'opinion'.

I think that Labour will win the next election. (NOT ~~*I mean that Labour will win*~~ . . .)

What's your opinion? (NOT ~~*What's your meaning?*~~)

3 structures

Mean (= intend, plan) can be followed by **(object) + infinitive.**

Sorry – I didn't ***mean to interrupt*** *you.*

Did you mean John to post those letters?

Mean (= involve, have as a result) can be followed by a noun or . . .*ing.*

The Fantasians have invaded Utopia. This ***means war!***

If you decide to try the exam, it will ***mean studying*** *hard.*

4 *I mean*

I mean is used informally as a 'discourse marker' (see 157) to introduce explanations or additional details.

He's funny – I ***mean,*** *he's really strange.*

It was a terrible evening. I ***mean,*** *they all sat round and talked politics.*

Would you like to come out tonight? I ***mean,*** *only if you want to, of course.*

When *I mean* introduces a comment it can be close to *I think* or *I feel,* but it is not followed by *that.*

A hundred pounds for a thirty hour week. I ***mean,*** *it's not right, is it?*
(BUT NOT ~~*I mean that it's not right*~~ . . .)

In informal speech, *I mean* often acts as a connector or 'filler', with little real meaning.

Let's go and see Phil on Saturday. I ***mean,*** *we could make an early start . . .*

I mean is also used to introduce corrections.

She lives in Southport – I ***mean*** *Southampton.*

5 *What do you mean . . .?*

What do you mean . . .? can express anger or protest.

What do you mean, I can't sing?

What do you mean by waking me up at this time of night?

6 no progressive form

Mean is not normally used in progressive forms when it refers to meanings.

What ***does*** *that strange smile* ***mean?*** (NOT ~~*What is that strange smile meaning?*~~)

But perfect progressive forms can be used to refer to intentions.

I've ***been meaning*** *to phone you for weeks.*

349 means

1 singular and plural ending in -s

Both the singular and the plural of *means* end in *-s*.

*In the 19th century a new **means** of communication was developed – the railway.* (NOT ... ~~*a new mean of communication*~~ ...)

*There are several **means** of transport on the island.*

For other words with singular forms ending in -s, see 524.3.

2 *by all/any/no means*

By all means is not the same as *by all possible means*. It is used to give permission or to encourage somebody to do something, and means 'of course' or 'it is all right to ...' Compare:

*Can I borrow your sweater? ~**By all means**.*

***By all means** get a new coat, but don't spend more than £80.*

*We must help her **by all possible means**.* (NOT ~~*We must help her by all means*~~.)

By no means (or *not by any means*) is not the opposite of *by all means*. It is similar to *definitely not*, or *not by a long way*.

*Is that all you've got to say? ~**By no means**.*

*Galileo was **by no means** the first person to use a telescope.*

350 measurements: 'marked' and 'unmarked' forms

Many adjectives that are used in measurements come in pairs (e.g. *tall/short, old/young, heavy/light, fast/slow*). The word that is used for the 'top' end of the measurement scale can usually be used in another sense, to talk about the quality in general. For instance, one can ask how *long* something is even if it is relatively short. Grammarians call these uses 'unmarked'. Compare:

- *She's very **tall** and he's very short.* (marked)
  *Exactly how **tall** are they both?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*Exactly how short are they both?*~~)
- *Will you still love me when I'm **old**?* (marked)
  *He's only twenty-three years **old**.* (unmarked) (NOT ... ~~*twenty-three years young*~~.)
- *Lead is one of the **heaviest** metals.* (marked)
  *Scales are used to measure how **heavy** things are.* (unmarked) (NOT ... ~~*how light things are*~~.)

Some nouns are used in similar 'unmarked' ways. Compare:

- *Age brings wisdom but I'd rather have youth and stupidity.* (marked)
  *What is her exact **age**?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*What is her exact youth?*~~)
- *The worst thing about the film was its **length**.* (marked)
  *What's the **length** of a football field?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*What's the shortness*~~ ...?)

351 mind: do you mind etc

1 meaning and use

Mind can mean 'dislike', 'be annoyed by', 'object to'. We use *mind* mostly in questions and negative clauses.

Do you mind the smell of tobacco? ~Not at all.
Do you mind if we leave a bit earlier today?
I don't mind if you use my car.

After *mind*, we can use an *-ing* form, or object + *-ing* form.

Do you mind waiting a few minutes? (NOT ...~~to wait~~...)
I don't mind you coming in late if you don't wake me up.

2 *Would you mind ...?*

We can use *Would you mind ...?* to ask people to do things, or to ask for permission.

Would you mind opening the window? (= Please open ...)
Would you mind if I opened the window?

3 *Do/Would you mind my ...ing?*

In a formal style, we sometimes use *my, your* etc with an *-ing* form after *mind* (see 295.3,4).

Do you mind my smoking? (More common: ... *me smoking?* or ... *if I smoke?*)

4 answers

'After *Would/Do you mind ...?*, we use *No* or *Not at all* (more formal) to give permission (but we often add more words to make the meaning quite clear).

Do you mind if I look at your paper? ~No, please do / that's OK / sure.

5 tenses

In subordinate clauses after *mind*, a present tense is usually used if we want to express a future meaning (see 580).

I don't mind what you do after you leave school. (NOT ~~*I don't mind what you will do*~~...)

352 miss

1 'fail to contact', 'be late for'

Miss often expresses the idea of failing to contact somebody/something, or being late for somebody/something.

How could he miss an easy goal like that?
The station's about five minutes' walk, straight ahead. You can't miss it.
If you don't hurry we'll miss the train. (NOT ...~~*lose the train.*~~)
You've just missed her – she went home five minutes ago.

An *-ing* form can be used after *miss*.

I got in too late and missed seeing the news on TV.

2 'be sorry to be without'

We can use *miss* to say that we are sorry because we are no longer with somebody, or no longer have something.

*Will you **miss** me when I'm away?*
*He's not happy in the country – he **misses** city life.*

Note that *regret* is not used in the same way. Compare:

*I **miss** working with you.* (= I'm sorry I'm no longer with you.)
*I **regret** working with you.* (= I'm sorry I was with you.)

3 'notice the absence of'

Another meaning of *miss* is 'notice that somebody/something is not there'.

*The child ran away in the morning, but nobody **missed** her for hours.*

4 *miss* not used

Miss is not used simply to say that somebody has not got something.

*In some of the villages they **haven't got** electricity.*
(NOT ... ~~*they miss electricity.*~~)

In a formal style, the verb or noun *lack* can be used to express this idea.

*... they **lack** electricity.*
*I am sorry that **lack** of time prevents me from giving more details.*

5 *missing*

Missing is often used as an adjective, meaning 'lost'.

*When did you realise that the money was **missing**?*
*The **missing** children were found at their aunt's house.*

We can use *missing* after a noun. This often happens in clauses beginning with *there is*.

*There's a page **missing** from this book.*

In an informal style, a structure with *have ... missing* is also possible.

*We've got some plates **missing** – do you think Alan's borrowed them?*
*He **had** several teeth **missing**.*

353 modal auxiliary verbs: introduction

1 What are modal auxiliary verbs?

The verbs *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall* (mainly British English), *should, must* and *ought* are called 'modal auxiliary verbs'. They are used before the infinitives of other verbs, and add certain kinds of meaning connected with certainty, or with obligation and freedom to act (see next section).

2 grammar

a Modal verbs have no *-s* in the third person singular.

*She **may** know his address.* (NOT ~~*She mays*~~ ...)

b Questions, negatives, tags and short answers are made without *do*.

Can you swim? (NOT ~~*Do you can swim*~~) ~ *Yes, I can*
*He **shouldn't** be doing that, should he?* (NOT ~~*He doesn't should*~~ ...) ▸

c After modal auxiliary verbs, we use the infinitive without *to* of other verbs. *Ought* is an exception – see 403.
I must water the flowers. (NOT ~~*I must to water*~~ . . .)
Progressive, perfect and passive infinitives are also possible (see 280).
I may not be working tomorrow.
She was so angry she could have killed him.
The kitchen ought to be painted one of these days.

d Modal verbs do not have infinitives or participles (~~*to may*~~, ~~*maying*~~, ~~*mayed*~~ do not exist), and they do not normally have past forms (though *would, could, should* and *might* can sometimes be used as past tenses of *will, can, shall* and *may*). Other expressions are used when necessary.
I'd like to be able to skate. (NOT . . . ~~*to can skate.*~~)
People really had to work hard in those days. (NOT ~~*People really musted work*~~. . .)

e However, certain past ideas can be expressed by a modal verb followed by a perfect infinitive (***have*** + **past participle**).
You should have told me you were coming.
I think I may have annoyed Aunt Mary.
For details of these uses, see the entries on particular modal verbs.

f Modal verbs have contracted negative forms (*can't, won't* etc) which are used in an informal style. (*Shan't* and *mayn't* are only used in British English; *mayn't* is very rare.) *Will* and *would* also have contracted affirmative forms (*'ll, 'd*). For details, see 143. Some modals have both 'strong' and 'weak' pronunciations. For details, see 616.

g *There* is quite often used as a preparatory subject with modal verbs, especially when these are followed by *be* (see 586).
There may be rain later today.

3 meanings

We do not normally use modal verbs to say that situations definitely exist or that particular events have definitely happened. We use them, for example, to talk about things which we expect, which are or are not possible, which we think are necessary, which we want to happen, which we are not sure about, which tend to happen, or which have not happened.
He may arrive any time.
She could be in London or Paris or Tokyo – nobody knows.
I can't swim.
I think you ought to see a lawyer.
We really must tidy up the garden.
What would you do if you had a free year?
Edinburgh can be very cold in winter.
I think they should have consulted a doctor earlier.
You might have told me Frances was ill.

For further general information about the meanings of modal auxiliary verbs, see next section. For more detailed information, see the sections for each verb.

4 *need* and *used to*

Need (see 366) and *used to* (see 604) are sometimes used in similar ways to modal verbs.

*You **needn't** wait for me.*
*She **used not to** be so bad-tempered.*

354 modal auxiliary verbs: meanings

1 two kinds of meaning

Most of the meanings of modal verbs can be divided into two groups. One is to do with degrees of certainty: modal verbs can be used to say for instance that a situation is certain, probable, possible or impossible. The other is to do with obligation, freedom to act and similar ideas: modal verbs can be used to say that somebody is obliged to do something, that he/she is able to do something, that there is nothing to stop something happening, that it would be better if something happened (or did not), or that something is permitted or forbidden.

2 degrees of certainty

Modal verbs can express various degrees of certainty about facts, situations or events.

a complete certainty (positive or negative): *shall, will, must, can't*

*I **shall** be away tomorrow.*
*I **shan't** be late on Tuesday.*
*It **won't** rain this evening.*
There's the phone. That'll be Tony.
*Things **will** be all right.*
*You **must** be tired.*
*That **can't** be John – he's in Dublin.*

b probability (deduction; saying that something is logical or normal): *should, ought to*

*She **should / ought to** be here soon.*
*It **shouldn't / oughtn't to** be difficult to get there.*

c possibility (talking about the chances that something is true or will happen): *may*

*The water **may** not be warm enough to swim.*
*We **may** be buying a new house.*

d weak possibility: *might, could*

*I **might** see you again – who knows?*
*Things **might** not be as bad as they seem.*
*We **could** all be millionaires one day.*

3 obligation and freedom to act

Modal verbs can express various aspects of obligation and freedom. (These uses of modal verbs are very important in the polite expression of requests, suggestions, invitations and instructions.)

a strong obligation: *must, will, need*

*Students **must** register in the first week of term.*
*All sales staff **will** arrive for work by 8.40 a.m.*
Need I get a visa for Hungary? ▸

b prohibition: *must not, may not, cannot*
*Students **must not** use the staff car park.*
*Books **may not** be taken out of the library.*
*You **can't** come in here.*

c weak obligation; recommendation: *should, ought to, might, shall* (in questions)
*You **should** try to work harder.*
*She really **ought to** wash her hair.*
*You **might** see what John thinks.*
*What **shall** we do?*

d willingness, volunteering, resolving, insisting and offering: *will, shall* (in questions)
*If you **will** come this way . . .*
I'll pay for the drinks.
*She **will** keep interrupting people.*
I'll definitely work harder next term.
Shall I give you a hand?

e permission: *can, could, may, might*
*You **can** use the car if you like.*
Could I talk to you for a minute?
May we use the phone?
*Do you think I **might** take a break now?*

f absence of obligation: *needn't*
*You **needn't** work this Saturday.*

g ability: *can, could*
*She **can** speak six languages.*
*Anybody who wants to **can** join the club.*
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.*
*When I was a baby I **could** put my foot in my mouth.*
*You **could** get to my old school by bus, but not by train.*

4 speaker's and hearer's point of view

Obligation, permission etc are usually seen from the speaker's point of view in statements and the hearer's in questions. Compare:
- *You **must** go and see Ann.* (I think it is necessary.)
  Must you go and see Ann? (Do you think it is necessary?)
- *You **can** borrow my car.* (I give permission.)
  Can I borrow your car? (Will you give permission?)

5 forms in indirect speech, after *if* etc

Instead of *can, will, shall* and *may*, we use *could, would, should* and *might* to express the same meanings in past indirect speech, (see 275), in some sentences after *if* (see 258), and in 'future in the past' sentences (see 221).
*I knew it **couldn't** be John.*
*I told you you **wouldn't** be ready in time.*
*If you stopped criticising, I **might** get some work done.*
*I should be grateful if you **would** let me know your decision as soon as possible.*
*They knelt in front of the child who **would** one day rule all England.*

6 other meanings

Besides the meanings discussed in paragraphs 2 and 3, *will* and *would* are used to talk about habitual behaviour or activity (see 629, 633).

Most evenings he'll just sit in front of the TV and go to sleep.
*When we were kids, my mum **would** take us out on bikes all round the countryside.*

Used to **+ infinitive** (see 604) is similar to a modal verb structure in some ways. It is used to talk about habitual behaviour or activity and (unlike *would*) habitual states.

*I **used to** play a lot of tennis when I was younger.*
*The grass **used to** look greener when I was a child.*
(NOT ~~*The grass would look greener when I was a child.*~~)

7 subject-independence

An interesting, rather complicated point about modal verbs is that their meaning usually 'spreads over' a whole clause. This means that one can change a modal structure from active to passive, for example, without affecting the meaning very much. Compare:

- *A child **could** understand his theory.*
  *His theory **could be understood** by a child.*
- *You **mustn't put** adverbs between the verb and the object.*
  *Adverbs **mustn't be put** between the verb and the object.*
- *Dogs **may** chase cats.*
  *Cats **may get chased** by dogs.*

With most other verbs that are followed by infinitives, their meaning is attached to the subject, so that a change from active to passive changes the sense of the sentence completely. Compare:

- *Dogs **like to** chase cats.*
  *Cats **like to be chased** by dogs.* (different and – of course – untrue)
- *Pete **wants to** phone Ann.*
  *Ann **wants to be phoned** by Pete.* (not the same meaning)

For more details of the use of the various modal verbs, see the entries for each verb.

355 more

1 *more* + noun

We can use *more* before a noun phrase as a determiner (see 154). We do not generally use *of* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).

*We need **more** time.* (NOT ... ~~*more of time.*~~)
***More** university students are having to borrow money these days.*

However, *more of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.

*It would be nice to see **more of** Ray and Barbara.*
*Five hundred years ago, much **more of** Britain was covered with trees.* ▸

2 *more of* + determiner/pronoun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *more of*.
Three more of the missing climbers have been found.
Could I have some more of that smoked fish?
I don't think any more of them want to come.

3 *more* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *more* if the meaning is clear.
I'd like some more, please.

4 *one more* etc

Note the structure *one more, two more* etc + noun phrase.
There's just one more river to cross.

5 *more* as an adverb

More can also be used as an adverb.
I couldn't agree more.
More and more is used to talk about continual increase.
I hate this job more and more as the years go by.

6 comparative structures

More is used to make the comparative forms of longer adjectives and most adverbs (see 137–138).
As you get older you get more tolerant. *Please drive more slowly.*

For *no more, not any more/longer*, see 379.
For *far more, much more, many more* etc, see 140.

356 most

1 *most* (= 'the majority of') without *of*

Most can mean 'the majority of'. We do not use *the* before *most* with this meaning.
Most children like ice cream. (NOT ~~*The most children*~~...)
We do not generally use *of* after *most* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).
Most cheese is made from cow's milk. (NOT ~~*Most of cheese*~~...)
Most Swiss people understand French. (NOT ~~*Most of Swiss people*~~...)
However, *most of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.
I've read most of Shakespeare.
The Romans conquered most of England.

2 *most of* + determiner/pronoun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *most of*.
Most of the people here know each other.
Most of my friends live abroad. (NOT ~~*Most my friends*~~...)
Most of us thought he was wrong.
He's eaten two pizzas and most of a cold chicken.

3 *most* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *most* if the meaning is clear.
Some people had difficulty with the lecture, but most understood.

4 *the most* (= 'more than any other/others') with nouns

In comparisons (when *most* means 'more than any other/others') it is normally used with *the* before nouns.
Susan found the most blackberries.
The is sometimes dropped in an informal style.
Who earns (the) most money in your family?

5 *(the) most* as an adverb

(The) most can also be used as an adverb. *The* is often dropped in an informal style.
They all talk a lot, but your little girl talks (the) most.
The truth hurts most.

6 superlative adjectives and adverbs

(The) most is used to make the superlative forms of longer adjectives and most adverbs (see 137–138).
I wasn't as clever as the others, but I was the most beautiful.
I work most efficiently in the early morning.

7 *most* meaning 'very'

Most can be used before adjectives to mean 'very' in evaluating expressions, especially in a formal style.
That is most kind of you. *Thank you for a most interesting afternoon.*
The experience was most distressing.

8 *mostly*

Mostly means 'in most (but not all) cases'. Compare:
Your little girl talks the most. (NOT ... ~~*talks mostly.*~~)
She mostly talks about her friends.

357 much and many

1 the difference

Much is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *many* is used with plurals.
I haven't got much time. *I don't know many of your friends.*

2 *much/many* + noun: without *of*

We do not generally use *of* after *much/many* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).
She didn't eat much breakfast. (NOT ... ~~*much of breakfast.*~~)
There aren't many large glasses left. (NOT ... ~~*many of large glasses left.*~~)
However, *much of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.
I've seen too much of Howard recently. *Not much of Denmark is hilly.*

▸

3 *much/many of* + determiner + noun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *much of* and *many of.*

*You can't see **much** of **a** country in a week.*
*How **much** of **the** house do you want to paint this year?*
*I won't pass the exam: I've missed too **many** of **my** lessons.*
*How **many** of **you** are there?*

4 *much/many* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *much* or *many,* if the meaning is clear.

*You haven't eaten **much**.*
*Did you find any mushrooms? ~Not **many**.*

Note that *much* and *many* are only used like this when a noun has been dropped.

*There wasn't **much** (food).* BUT NOT ~~*The food wasn't much.*~~ (Because you couldn't say ~~*The food wasn't much food.*~~)

Many is not usually used alone to mean 'many people'.

Many people think it's time for a change.
(More natural than *Many think . . .*)

5 not used in affirmative clauses

In an informal style, we use *much* and *many* mostly in questions and negative clauses. In most affirmative clauses they are unusual (especially *much*); other words and expressions are used instead.

*How **much** money have you got? ~I've got **plenty**.* (NOT ~~*I've got much.*~~)
*He's got **lots** of men friends, but he doesn't know **many** women.*
(More natural than *He's got many men friends . . .*)
*Did you buy any clothes? ~Yes, **lots**.* (NOT ~~*Yes, many.*~~)

In a formal style, *much* and *many* are more common in affirmative clauses.

*Much has been written about unemployment. In the opinion of **many** economists, . . .*

Far and *long* (= a long time) are also used mostly in questions and negative clauses. See 200 and 330.

6 after *so, as,* and *too*

So much/many, as much/many and *too much/many* are quite natural in affirmative clauses.

*There was **so much** traffic that it took me an hour to get home.*
*I play **as much** tennis as I can.* *You make **too many** mistakes.*

7 *much* as adverb

We can use *much* as an adverb in questions and negative clauses.

*Do you work **much** at weekends?* *I don't travel **much** these days.*

We can also use *much* before comparative adjectives and adverbs, in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives.

*She's **much** older than her brother.* *I don't drive **much** faster than you.*

Much can be used before some verbs expressing enjoyment, preference and similar ideas, in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives, especially in a formal style.

*I **much** appreciate your help.*
*We **much** prefer the country to the town.*
*I didn't **much** enjoy the concert.*

Very much can be used in affirmative clauses as an adverb, but not usually before a noun. Compare:

*I **very much** like your new hairstyle.* (adverb)
*Thank you **very much**.* (adverb)
*There's **a whole lot of** water coming under the door.* (before noun)
(NOT ~~*There's very much water coming*~~...)

For *much* and *very* with past participles (e.g. *much/very amused*), see 410.4.

358 must (1): introduction

1 grammar

Must is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.
*He **must** start coming on time.* (NOT ~~*He musts*~~...)

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Must you go? (NOT ~~*Do you must go?*~~)
*You **mustn't** worry.* (NOT ~~*You don't must worry*~~.)

c After *must*, we use the infinitive without *to* of other verbs.
*I **must** write to my mother.* (NOT ~~*I must to write*~~...)

d *Must* has no infinitive or participles (~~*to must*~~, ~~*musting*~~, ~~*musted*~~ do not exist), and it has no past tense. When necessary, we express similar meanings with other words, for example forms of *have to* (see 239).
*It's annoying **to have to** get up early on Sundays.* (NOT ...~~*to must get up*~~...)
*He'll **have to** start coming on time.* (NOT ~~*He'll must*~~...)
*She's always **had to** work hard.* (NOT ~~*She's always musted*~~...)
*We **had to** cut short our holiday because my mother was ill.* (NOT ~~*We musted*~~...)

e Some ideas about the past can be expressed by ***must have* + past participle** (see 359.4).
*I can't find my keys. I **must have** left them at home.*
Must can also be used with a past sense in indirect speech.
*Everybody told me I **must** stop worrying.*

f There is a contracted negative *mustn't* (/ˈmʌsnt/). *Must* has two pronunciations: a 'strong' pronunciation /mʌst/ and a 'weak' pronunciation /m(ə)st/. The weak pronunciation is used in most cases (see 616).

2 meanings

Must is used mostly to express the deduction or conclusion that something is certain (see 359), and (less often in American English) to talk about necessity and obligation (see 360). ▸

*You **must** be Anna's sister – you look just like her.*
*You really **must** get your hair cut.*

For differences between *must* and *have (got) to*, see 361.
For the difference between *must* and *should*, see 520.

359 must (2): deduction (concluding that something is certain)

1 statements: *Mary must have a problem*

Must can be used to express the deduction or conclusion that something is certain or highly probable: it is normal or logical, there are excellent reasons for believing it, or it is the only possible explanation for what is happening.

*If A is bigger than B, and B is bigger than C, then A **must** be bigger than C.*
*I'm in love. ~ You **must** be very happy.*
*Mary **must** have a problem – she keeps crying.*
*There's the doorbell. It **must** be Roger.*

2 negatives: *It can't be the postman*

Must is not often used to express certainty in negative clauses. We normally use *cannot/can't* to say that something is certainly not the case, because it is logically or practically impossible, or extremely improbable.

*If A is bigger than B, and B is bigger than C, then C **can't** be bigger than A.*
*It **can't** be the postman at the door. It's only seven o'clock.* (NOT ~~*It mustn't be the postman*~~ . . .)
*She's not answering the phone. She **can't** be at home.*

However, *mustn't* is used in question tags (see 487–488) after *must*.

*It **must** be nice to be a cat, **mustn't** it?* (NOT . . . ~~*can't it?*~~)

And *must not* is occasionally used, especially in American English, to say that there is evidence that something is not the case (see 361.4)

3 *need not / does not have to*

Need not / needn't is used (especially in British English) to say that something is not necessarily so; *does not have to* can also be used. *Must not* is not used in this sense.

*Look at those tracks. That must be a dog. ~ It **needn't** be – it could be a fox.*
(OR . . . *It doesn't have to be* . . .) (NOT . . . ~~*It mustn't be*~~ . . .)

4 *That must have been nice*

We can use ***must have*** + past participle to express certainty about the past.

*We went to Rome last month. ~ That **must have been** nice.*
*A woman phoned while you were out. ~ It **must have been** Kate.*

Can is used in questions and negatives.

*Where **can** John **have put** the matches? He **can't have thrown** them away.*

5 indirect speech

Must can be used after a past reporting verb as if it were a past tense.

*I felt there **must** be something wrong.*

6 *must* and *should*

Should can be used as a weaker form of *must* (see 520). Compare:
*Ann **must** be at home by now.* (= I think she's certainly at home.)
*Ann **should** be at home by now.* (= I think she's very probably at home.)

360 must (3): necessity and obligation

The following explanations apply particularly to British English. Americans often use *have (got) to* where British people use *must* (see 361). However, this use of *have (got) to* is becoming more common in British English under American influence.

1 statements: *I really must stop smoking*

In affirmative statements, we can use *must* to say what is necessary, and to give strong advice and orders to ourselves or other people.
*Plants **must** get enough light and water if they are to grow properly.*
*British industry **must** improve its productivity.*
*I really **must** stop smoking.*
*You **must** be here before eight o'clock tomorrow.*
Must is common in emphatic invitations.
*You really **must** come and see us soon.*

2 questions: *Must I ...?*

In questions, we use *must* to ask about what the hearer thinks is necessary.
Must I clean all the rooms?
*Why **must** you always leave the door open?*

3 negatives: *You mustn't/can't ...*

We use *must not / mustn't* to say that it is wrong to do things, or to tell people not to do things. *Can't* is also possible.
*The government **mustn't/can't** expect people to work for no money.*
*You **mustn't/can't** open this parcel until Christmas Day.*

4 *mustn't* and *needn't / don't have to*

Mustn't is not used to say that things are unnecessary. This idea is expressed by *needn't, don't need to* (see 366) or *don't have to.*
*You **needn't** work tomorrow if you don't want to.* OR *You **don't have to** work ...* (NOT ~~*You mustn't ... if you don't want to.*~~)
*You **don't need to** get a visa to go to Scotland.* OR *You **don't have to** get a visa ...* (NOT ~~*You mustn't get a visa to go to Scotland.*~~)

5 past necessity and obligation

Must is not normally used to talk about past obligation (except in indirect speech – see below). This is because *must* is used mainly to influence people's behaviour – for example through orders or advice – and one cannot do this in the past. *Had to* is used to talk about obligation that existed in the past.
*I **had to** cycle three miles to school when I was a child.*
*My parents **had to** work very hard to build up their business.* ▸

6 indirect speech

Must can be used after a past reporting verb as if it were a past tense.
*The doctor said that I **must** stop smoking.*
Obligation can also be reported with *had to* and *would have to.*
*The doctor said that I **had to / would have to** stop smoking.*

7 *must* and *should*

Should can be used as a weaker form of *must* (see 520). Compare:
*That carpet **must** be cleaned.* (= It is absolutely necessary.)
*That carpet **should** be cleaned.* (= It would be a good idea.)

361 must (4): advanced points

1 *must* and *have to*

In statements about obligation with *must* the obligation most often comes from the speaker (and in questions, from the hearer). To talk about an obligation that comes from 'outside' (for instance a regulation, or an order from somebody else), we usually prefer *have to.* Compare:
- *I **must** do some more work; I want to pass my exam.*
  *In my job I **have to** work from nine to five.* (More natural than ... *I must work from nine to five.*)
- *We **must** go to New York soon and see your mother.*
  *My wife's an interpreter: she often **has to** go to New York.* (More natural than ...*she must often go to New York.*)
- *I **must** stop smoking.* (I want to.)
  *I've **got to** stop smoking.* (Doctor's orders.)
- *This is a terrible party. We really **must** go home.*
  *This is a lovely party, but we've **got to** go home because of the baby-sitter.*
- *I've got bad toothache. I **must** make an appointment with the dentist.*
  *I can't come to work tomorrow morning because I've **got to** see the dentist.*
- *You really **must** go to church next Sunday – you haven't been for ages.* (I am telling you to.)
  *Catholics **have to** go to church on Sundays.* (Their religion tells them to.)
- *Must you wear dirty old jeans all the time?* (Is it personally important for you?)
  *Do you **have to** wear a tie at work?* (Is there a regulation?)

Have to can also be used to talk about obligation coming from the speaker or hearer, in the same way as *must.* This is normal in American English (which uses *must* less often in this sense), and is becoming very common in British English.
*I really **have to** stop smoking.* (OR *I really must* ...)
*Do I **have to** clean all the rooms?* (OR *Must I* ...?)

For *have to* and *have got to*, see 239.

2 future obligation: *will have to, have (got) to* and *must*

Will have to is used to talk about future obligation (*will must* is impossible – see 358); but *have (got) to* is preferred when arrangements for the future have already been made. Compare:

*When you leave school you'll **have to** find a job.*
*I've **got to** go for a job interview tomorrow.*
Going to have to is also possible.
*We're **going to have to** repair that window.*
Must can be used to give orders or instructions for the future.
*You can borrow my car, but you **must** bring it back before ten.*
Will have to can be used to 'distance' the instructions (see 436), making them sound less like direct orders from the speaker.
*You can borrow my car, but you'll **have to** bring it back before ten.*
Will need to can be used in the same way (see 366.4).

3 talking about the past: *had to* ... and *must have* ...

Had to is used to talk about past obligation. *Must have* + past participle is used to express certainty about the past (see 359.4). Compare:
*Edna isn't in her office. She **had to** go home.*
(= It was necessary for her to go home.)
*Edna isn't in her office. She **must have** gone home.*
(= It seems certain that she has gone home.)

4 a British-American difference: *can't* and *must not*

In American English, *must not* is often used when something is not logically impossible, but when there is strong evidence for believing that it is not the case. Compare:
– *He only left the office five minutes ago. He **can't** be home yet.* (It's logically impossible that he's home.)
*She's not answering the doorbell. She **must not** be at home.* (It's not logically impossible that she's home, but it seems pretty certain that she isn't.)
– *The restaurant **can't** be open – the door's locked.*
*That restaurant **must not** be any good – it's always empty.*
In British English, *can't* is normal for both meanings (though some people use *must not* for the 'seems pretty certain' meaning). Compare:
*She walked past without saying 'Hello'. She **must not** have seen you.*
(AmE; some British speakers.)
*She walked past without saying 'Hello'. She **can't** have seen you.*
(most British speakers.)
Note that the contracted form *mustn't* is rare in AmE.

362 names: Florence, Homer etc

1 cities

The names of cities are often different in different languages – for example the capital of Denmark, *København*, is called *Kopenhagen* in German, *Copenhague* in French, and *Copenhagen* in Italian and English. Some examples of English names for cities:
The Hague, Brussels, Antwerp, Hanover, Cologne, Munich, Vienna, Lyons (now more usually *Lyon*), *Marseilles* (now more usually *Marseille*), *Milan, Florence, Venice, Rome, Naples, Padua, Genoa, Leghorn* (now more usually *Livorno*), *Turin, Geneva, Seville, Lisbon, Athens, Thessalonica, Prague, Warsaw, Belgrade, Moscow, St Petersburg, Bucharest, Beirut, Damascus,* ▸

Jerusalem, Peking (now usually *Beijing*), *Bombay* (now usually *Mumbai*), *Calcutta* (now usually *Kolkata*).

2 classical names

The same is true of many classical Greek and Roman names. Some examples:
Homer, Aeschylus, Livy, Horace, Ovid, Virgil, Aesop, Aristotle, Euclid, Sophocles, Mercury, Jupiter, Helen, Troy, Odysseus

3 artists

The Italian artists Raffaello Sanzio and Tiziano are called *Raphael* and *Titian* in English.

4 countries

The names of countries, of course, also differ from one language to another (e.g. *Deutschland, Nemecko, Allemagne, Germany*). English versions are not listed here, as they are well known and can easily be found in any dictionary if needed.

363 names and titles: Peter; Mr Lewis

Names and titles are used both when talking about people and when talking to them. There are some differences.

1 talking about people

When we talk about people we can name them in four ways.

a first name

We use first names mostly informally, for relatives, friends and children.
*Where's **Peter**? He said he'd be here at three.*
*How's **Maud** getting on at school?*

b first name + surname

This is neutral – neither particularly formal nor particularly informal.
*Isn't that **Peter Connolly** the actor?*
*We're going on holiday with **Mary** and **Daniel Sinclair**.*

c title (*Mr, Mrs* etc) + surname

This is more formal. We talk like this about people we do not know, or when we want to show respect or be polite.
*Can I speak to **Mr Lewis**, please?*
*We've got a new teacher called **Mrs Campbell**.*
*Ask **Miss Andrews** to come in, please.*
*There's a **Ms Sanders** on the phone.*
Note that it is less usual to talk about people by using title + first name + surname (e.g. *Mr John Parker*).

d surname only

We often use just the surname to talk about men (and occasionally women) in public life – politicians, sports personalities, writers and so on.

*Do you think **Roberts** would make a good President?*
*The 5,000 metres was won by **Jones**.*
*I don't think **Eliot** is a very good dramatist.*
Thatcher was the first British woman Prime Minister.

Surnames alone are sometimes used for employees (especially male employees), and by members of groups (especially all-male groups like soldiers, schoolboys, team members) when they refer to each other.

*Tell **Patterson** to come and see me at once.*
*Let's put **Billows** in goal and move **Carter** up.*

2 talking to people

When we talk to people we generally name them in one of two ways.

a first name

This is informal, used for example to relatives, friends and children.

*Hello, **Pamela**. How are you?*

b title + surname

This is more formal or respectful.

*Good morning, **Miss Williamson**.*

Note that we do not usually use both the first name and the surname of a person that we are talking to. It would be unusual to say *'Hello, Peter Matthews'*, for example.

Members of all-male groups sometimes address each other by their surnames alone (e.g. *'Hello, Smith'*), but this is unusual in modern English.

Mr, *Mrs* and *Ms* are not generally used alone.

Excuse me. Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Excuse me, Mr*~~ or ~~*Excuse me, Mrs*~~.)

Doctor can be used alone to talk to medical doctors whom one is consulting, but not usually in other cases.

Doctor, I've got this pain in my elbow.

Sir and *madam* are used in Britain mostly by people in service occupations (e.g. shop assistants). Some employees call their male employers *sir*, and some schoolchildren call their teachers *sir* or *miss*. *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam* are common ways of beginning letters to strangers (see 146) – note the capital letters. In other situations *sir* and *madam* are unusual in British English.

Excuse me. Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Excuse me, sir*~~ . . .)

In American English, *sir* and *ma'am* are less formal than in British English, and are quite often used (especially in the South and West) when addressing people.

3 notes on titles

Note the pronunciations of the titles *Mr*, *Mrs* and *Ms* (used before names):

Mr /ˈmɪstə(r)/ *Mrs* /ˈmɪsɪz/ *Ms* /mɪz/ or /məz/

Mr (= *Mister*) is not normally written in full, and the other two cannot be. Like *Mr*, *Ms* does not show whether somebody is married or not. It is often used, especially in writing, to talk about or address women when one does not know (or has no reason to say) whether they are married. Many women also choose to use *Ms* before their own names in preference to *Mrs* or *Miss*. *Ms* is a relatively new title: it has been in common use in Britain since the 1970s, and a little longer in the United States. ▸

Dr (= *Doctor*) is used as a title for medical and other doctors (but see paragraph 2 for its use).
Professor does not mean 'teacher'; it is used only for heads of university departments and some other very senior university teachers.
Note that we do not normally combine two titles such as *Prof Dr* or *Mrs Dr*.

For ways of addressing people in letters, see 146.
For ways of introducing people, see 545.1.
For full stops with abbreviated titles and initials, see 2.

364 nationalities, countries and regions

1 introduction

In order to refer to a nation or region and its affairs it is usually necessary to know four words:

- the name of the country or region
  Denmark, Japan, France, Catalonia
- the adjective
  Danish, Japanese, French, Catalan
- the singular noun used for a person from the country
  a Dane, a Japanese, a Frenchman/woman, a Catalan
- the plural expression *the* ... used for the population as a whole
  the Danes, the Japanese, the French, the Catalans

Usually the singular noun is the same as the adjective (e.g. *Greek, Mexican*).
The plural expression is usually the same as the adjective + *-s* (e.g. *the Greeks, the Mexicans*); words ending in *-ese*, and *Swiss*, have no *-s* (e.g. *the Japanese; the Swiss*). See paragraph 2 below for more examples.
However, there are a number of exceptions. Some of these are listed in paragraph 3.
All words of this kind (including adjectives) begin with capital letters.
American literature (NOT ~~*american literature*~~)
The name of a national language is often the same as the national adjective.
Danish is difficult to pronounce. *Do you speak Japanese?*

2 Examples

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
America (The United States)	American	an American	the Americans
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian	the Belgians
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian	the Brazilians
Europe	European	a European	the Europeans
Italy	Italian	an Italian	the Italians
Kenya	Kenyan	a Kenyan	the Kenyans
Morocco	Moroccan	a Moroccan	the Moroccans
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian	the Norwegians
Palestine	Palestinian	a Palestinian	the Palestinians
Russia	Russian	a Russian	the Russians
Tyrol	Tyrolean	a Tyrolean	the Tyroleans

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
Greece	Greek	a Greek	the Greeks
Iraq	Iraqi	an Iraqi	the Iraqis
Israel	Israeli	an Israeli	the Israelis
Thailand	Thai	a Thai	the Thais
China	Chinese	a Chinese	the Chinese
Congo	Congolese	a Congolese	the Congolese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	the Swiss

3 exceptions

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
Britain	British	a British person (Briton)	the British
England	English	an Englishwoman/man	the English
France	French	a Frenchman/woman	the French
Ireland	Irish	an Irishwoman/man	the Irish
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	the Spanish
The Netherlands/ Holland	Dutch	a Dutchwoman/man	the Dutch
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman/woman	the Welsh
Denmark	Danish	a Dane	the Danes
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	the Finns
Poland	Polish	a Pole	the Poles
Scotland	Scottish, Scotch	a Scot	the Scots
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	the Swedes
Turkey	Turkish	a Turk	the Turks

Notes

a *Scottish* is the usual word for the people and culture of Scotland; *Scotch* is used for whisky.

b The word *Briton* is unusual except in newspaper headlines – for example *TWO BRITONS KILLED IN AIR CRASH*. *Brit* is sometimes used informally.

c *English* is not the same as *British*, and is not used for Scottish, Welsh or Irish people (see 114).

d Although *American* is the normal English word for United States citizens and affairs, people from other parts of the American continent may object to this use, and some people avoid it for this reason. ▸

e *Arabic* is used for the language spoken in Arab countries; in other cases, the normal adjective is *Arab*. *Arabian* is used in a few fixed expressions and place names (e.g. *Saudi Arabian, the Arabian Sea*).

f Note the pronunciation of words like *Irishman/men, Dutchman/men*: the singular is the same as the plural (/'aɪrɪʃmən, 'dʌtʃmən/).

365 near (to)

Near can be used as a preposition. *Near to* is also possible with the same meaning, but is less common.

*We live **near (to)** the station.*

*I put my bag down **near (to)** the door.* *She was **near (to)** despair.*

Near (to) can be followed by an *-ing* form.

*I came very **near (to) hitting** him.*

For *-ing* forms after *to*, see 298.2.
For the difference between *nearest* and *next*, see 375.

366 need

1 ordinary verb: *Everybody needs to rest*

Need most often has ordinary verb forms: the third person singular has *-s*, and questions and negatives are made with *do*. *Need* is usually followed by an infinitive with *to*.

*Everybody **needs to** rest sometimes.*

*Do we **need to** reserve seats on the train?*

2 modal auxiliary forms: *he needn't; need I?*

Need can also have the same present-tense forms as modal auxiliary verbs: the third person singular has no *-s*, and questions and negatives are made without *do*. In this case, *need* is normally followed by an infinitive without *to*.

*She **needn't** reserve a seat – there'll be plenty of room.*

These forms are used mainly in negative sentences (*needn't*); but they are also possible in questions, after *if*, and in other 'non-affirmative' structures (see 381).

*You **needn't** fill in a form.* *Need I fill in a form?*

*I wonder if I **need** fill in a form.*

*This is the only form you **need** fill in.*

(BUT NOT ~~*You need fill in a form.*~~)

These forms are more common in BrE; in AmE *have to / don't have to* are preferred.

3 *needn't, need I?*: immediate necessity

These modal forms of *need* normally refer to immediate necessity. They are often used to ask for or give permission – usually permission not to do something. They are not used to talk about habitual, general necessity. Compare:

*It's OK – You **needn't / don't need to pay** for that phone call.*
*You **don't need to pay** for emergency calls in most countries.* (NOT ~~*You needn't pay*~~ . . . ~~*in most countries.*~~)

4 talking about the future

Present tense forms of *need* are used when making decisions about the future.
*Need I **come** in tomorrow?*
*Tell her she **doesn't need to work** tonight.*
Will need to . . . can be used to talk about future obligation, and give advice for the future. It can make orders and instructions sound less direct.
*We'll **need to repair** the roof next year.*
*You'll **need to start** work soon if you want to pass your exams.*
*You'll **need to fill** in this form before you see the Inspector.*

For similar uses of *have to*, see 239.3.

5 *need . . .ing*: The sofa needs cleaning

After *need* an *-ing* form can be used with the same meaning as a passive infinitive, especially in BrE.
*That sofa **needs cleaning** again.* (= . . . needs to be cleaned . . .)
A structure with **object + . . .*ing*** or **past participle** is also possible in some cases.
*You **need your head examining**.* (BrE) (OR . . . *examined.*)

6 *need not have . . .*

If we say that somebody *need not have done something*, we mean that he or she did it, but that it was unnecessary – a waste of time.
*You **needn't have woken** me up. I don't have to go to work today.*
*I **needn't have cooked** so much food. Nobody was hungry.*
On the other hand, if we say that somebody *did not need to do something*, we are simply saying that it was not necessary (whether or not it was done). Compare:
*I **needn't have watered** the flowers. Just after I finished it started raining.*
*It started raining, so I **didn't need to water** the flowers.*
Need never have . . . is a more emphatic version of *need not have* . . . .
*I **need never have packed** all that suncream – it rained every day.*

7 *need not* and *must not*

Need not or *do not need to* is used to say that there is no obligation; *must not* is used to say that there is an obligation not to do something. Compare:
*You **needn't tell** Jennifer – she already knows.*
*You **mustn't tell** Margaret – I don't want her to know.*
Need not is also sometimes used to say that something is not necessarily true.
*She looks quite ill. I'm sure it's flu. ~ It **needn't be** – maybe she's just over-tired.*

For *there is no need to* . . ., see 587.2.

367 negative structures (1): basic rules

1 negative verb forms: auxiliary + *not*

We make negative verb forms by putting *not* after an auxiliary verb.

*We **have not** forgotten you.* *It **was not** raining.* *She **can't** swim.*

Do is normally used if there is no other auxiliary verb.

*I like the salad, but I **don't** like the soup.* (NOT ~~*I like not the soup.*~~)

Do is followed by the infinitive without *to*.

*I didn't **think**.* (NOT ~~*I didn't to think*~~, ~~*I didn't thinking*~~ or ~~*I didn't thought*~~.)

Do is not used with another auxiliary verb.

*You **mustn't** worry.* (NOT ~~*You don't must worry.*~~)

Do is not normally used with *be* (even when *be* is not auxiliary).

*The supper **isn't** ready.* (NOT ~~*The supper doesn't be ready.*~~)

For negative forms of *have, dare, need* and *used*, see the entries on these verbs.
For the dialect form *ain't*, see 143.4.
For negatives without *do* in older English (e.g. *I like him not*), see 392.
For negative subjunctives (e.g. *It's important that he not be disturbed*), see 567.2.

2 imperatives: *Don't worry*

Negative imperatives are made with *do not / don't* + infinitive (see 268).

*Do **not** expect quick results.* (NOT ~~*Expect not*~~ . . .)

Don't worry – I'll look after you. (NOT ~~*Worry not*~~ . . .)

Do not / don't is also used to make the negative imperative of *be*.

Don't be rude.

3 infinitives and *-ing* forms: *It's important not to worry*

We put *not* before infinitives and *-ing* forms. *Do* is not used.

*It's important **not** to worry.* (NOT . . . ~~*to don't worry.*~~)

*The best thing about a holiday is **not** working.*

4 other parts of a clause: *not his wife, not before six*

We can put *not* with other parts of a clause, not only a verb.

*Ask Jake, **not** his wife.* *Come early, but **not** before six.*

*It's working, but **not** properly.*

We do not usually begin a sentence with *not* + subject. Instead, we use a structure with *it*.

*It was **not** George that came, but his brother.* (NOT ~~*Not George came*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *not* and *no* with nouns, see 382.

5 other negative words: *never, seldom* etc

Other words besides *not* can make a clause negative. Compare:

*He's **not** at home.* *He's **never** at home.*

*He's **seldom / rarely / hardly** ever at home.*

We do not normally use the auxiliary *do* with these other words. Compare:

*He **doesn't** work.*

*He **never** works.* (NOT ~~*He does never work.*~~)

*He **seldom / rarely / hardly** ever works.*

However, *do* can be used for emphasis or contrast.

*I never **did** like her.*

6 question tags: *You don't ..., do you?*

After negative clauses, question tags (see 487–488) are not negative.

*You don't work on Sundays, **do you?***
*You seldom work on Saturdays, **do you?*** (NOT ~~*You seldom work on Saturdays, don't you?*~~)
*She never smiled, **did she?***

The same thing happens after clauses with *little* and *few* (see 329).

*There's little point in doing anything about it, **is there?*** (NOT ... ~~*isn't there?*~~)
*He has few reasons for staying, **has he?***

7 'non-affirmative' words: *any* etc

We do not usually use *some, somebody* etc in negative clauses. Instead, we use the 'non-affirmative' words *any, anybody* etc. (see 381). Compare:

I've found some mushrooms. *I haven't found any mushrooms.*

368 negative structures (2): negative questions

1 structure

Contracted and uncontracted negative questions have different word order. (Uncontracted negative questions are usually formal.)

auxiliary verb + *n't* + subject

Doesn't she understand?
Why haven't you booked your holiday yet?

auxiliary verb + subject + *not*

Does she not understand?
Why have you not booked your holiday yet?

Non-auxiliary *have* and *be* go in the same position as auxiliary verbs.

Hasn't she any friends to help her? *Aren't you ready?*
Have they not at least a room to stay in? *Is Mrs Allen not at home?*

2 two meanings

Negative questions can have two different kinds of meaning. It is usually clear from the situation and context which kind of question is being asked.

a 'It's true that ..., isn't it?'

A negative question can ask for confirmation of a positive belief. In this case the question expects the answer *Yes*, and means 'It's true that ..., isn't it?'

Didn't you go and see Helen yesterday? How is she?
(= I believe you went and saw Helen yesterday ...)

Expressions of opinion can be made less definite by expressing them as negative questions (so that they ask for agreement).

Wouldn't it be better to switch the lights on?

Negative questions of this kind are common in exclamations (see 195) and rhetorical questions (see 482).

Isn't it a lovely day!
She's growing up to be a lovely person. ~*Yes, **isn't she!***
Isn't the answer obvious? (= Of course the answer is obvious.) ▸

b 'Is it true that . . . not . . .?'

A negative question can also ask for confirmation of a negative belief. In this case the question expects the answer *No*, and means 'Is it true that . . . not . . .?'

Don't you feel well? (= Am I right in thinking you don't feel well?)

Oh, dear. Can't they come this evening?

This kind of negative question can show that the speaker is surprised that something has not happened or is not happening.

Hasn't the postman come yet?

Didn't the alarm go off? I wonder what's wrong with it.

3 polite requests, invitations, offers, complaints and criticisms

Pressing invitations and offers often begin *Won't you . . .? Wouldn't you . . .?* or *Why don't you . . .?*

Won't you come in for a few minutes?

Wouldn't you like something to drink?

Why don't you come and spend the weekend with us?

But in other cases we do not usually use negative questions to ask people to do things. This is done with ordinary questions, or with **negative statement + question tag**.

Excuse me, can you help me for a moment? (ordinary question, used as a request)

You can't help me for a moment, can you? (negative statement + question tag, common in informal requests)

BUT NOT ~~*Can't you help me for a moment?*~~

Negative questions may be understood as complaints or criticisms.

Can't you lend me your pen for a minute? (= something like 'Are you too selfish to lend me . . .?')

Don't you ever listen to what I say?

4 *yes* and *no*

In a reply to a negative question, *Yes* suggests an affirmative verb, and *No* suggests a negative verb. Compare:

– *Haven't you written to Mary?* ~ *Yes.* (= I have written to her.)
  Haven't you told her about us? ~ *No.* (= I haven't told her about us.)
– *Didn't the postman come this morning?* ~ *Yes, he did.*
  Didn't he bring anything for me? ~ *No, he didn't.*

369 negative structures (3): think, hope, seem etc

1 *I don't think . . .*

When we introduce negative ideas with *think, believe, suppose, imagine* and words with similar meanings, we usually make the first verb (*think* etc) negative, not the second.

I don't think you've met my wife.
  (More natural than *I think you haven't met my wife.*)

I don't believe she's at home.
  (More natural than *I believe she isn't at home.*)

However, surprise is often expressed with *I thought* + negative.

*Would you like a drink? ~I **thought** you'd **never** ask.*
*Hello! I **thought** you **weren't** coming.*

2 *I hope that ... not ...*

This does not happen with *hope*.
*I hope it **doesn't** rain.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope it rains*~~.)

3 short answers: *I suppose not.*

In short answers, most of these verbs can be followed by *not* (see 539).
*Are we going to see Alan again? ~I **believe/suppose/hope not**.*
Another possible short answer construction is *I don't ... so* (see 539).
*Do you think it'll snow? ~I **don't believe/suppose/think so**.*
Hope is not used in this structure.
*I **hope not**.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope so*~~.)
I don't think so is more common than *I think not*, which is rather formal.

4 verbs followed by infinitives

Many verbs can be followed by infinitives (see 282). In an informal style we often prefer to make the first verb negative rather than the infinitive, although this may not change the meaning at all. This happens, for example, with *appear, seem, expect, happen, intend* and *want*.
*Sibyl **doesn't seem** to like you.*
(Less formal than *Sibyl seems not to like you.*)
*I **don't expect** to see you before Monday.*
(More natural than *I expect not to see you ...*)
*Angela and I were at the same university, but we **never happened** to meet.*
(Less formal than ... *we happened never to meet.*)
*I **don't want** to fail this exam.* (NOT ~~*I want not to fail*~~...)
*After I've finished this contract I **never intend** to teach again.*

370 negative structures (4): double negatives

1 English and other languages

In some languages, a negative word like *nobody, nothing* or *never* has to be used with a negative verb. In standard English, *nobody, nothing, never* etc are themselves enough to give a negative meaning, and *not* is unnecessary.
*I opened the door, but I **could** see **nobody**.* (NOT ~~*I couldn't see nobody*~~.)
*Tell them **nothing**.* (NOT ~~*Don't tell them nothing*~~.)
*Your suggestion **will help neither** of us.* (NOT ... ~~*won't help neither*~~...)
Nothing matters now – everything's finished. (NOT ~~*Nothing doesn't matter*~~...)
*I've **never** understood what she wants.* (NOT ~~*I haven't never understood*~~...)

2 *nobody* and *not anybody*, etc

Nobody, nothing, never etc are rather emphatic. We often prefer to use *not anybody, not anything, not ever* etc. Note that *anybody, anything, ever* etc are not themselves negative words (see 381) – they have to be used with *not* to give a negative meaning. ▸

*I opened the door, **but I couldn't see anybody.*** (NOT ... ~~*but I could see anybody.*~~)
*Don't tell them **anything.***
*Your suggestion **won't help either** of us.*

At the beginning of a clause, only ***nobody, nothing*** etc are used.
Nothing matters. (NOT ~~*Not anything matters.*~~)
Nowhere is safe.

3 double and multiple negatives and their meaning

Two or more negative words can be used in one clause, but then both words normally have their full meaning. Compare:
*Say **nothing.*** (= Be silent.)
*Don't just say **nothing.** Tell us what the problem is.* (= Don't be silent ...)

Multiple negatives are sometimes used instead of simple positive structures for special stylistic effects. This is rather literary; in spoken English it can seem unnatural or old-fashioned.
*Not a day passes when I don't regret **not** having studied music in my youth.* (More natural: *Every day I regret not having studied music when I was younger.* OR *I wish I had studied music when I was younger.*)

4 dialects

In many British, American and other dialects, two or more negatives can be used with a single negative meaning.
*I **ain't seen nobody.*** (Standard English: *I haven't seen anybody.*)
*I **ain't never done nothing to nobody, and I ain't never got nothing from nobody no time.*** (American song by Bert Williams)

For more information about *ain't*, see 143.4.

5 two negative ideas: *not ... or / not ... nor*

When *not* refers to two or more verbs, nouns, adjectives etc, we usually join them with *or*.
*He doesn't smoke **or drink.*** (NOT ~~*He doesn't smoke nor drink.*~~)
*She wasn't **angry or upset.***
*It's **not on the table or in the cupboard.***

However, we can use *nor* after a pause, to separate and emphasise a second verb, adjective etc.
*Our main need is not food, **nor** money. It is education.* (More emphatic than *... food or money.*)
*She didn't phone that day, **nor** the next day.* (More emphatic than *... or the next day.*)

Note that *neither* cannot be used in this way.

For the use of *neither ... nor* to join two negative ideas (e.g. *He neither smokes nor drinks*), see 373.

6 *... I don't think* etc

In informal speech, expressions like *I don't think* or *I don't suppose* are often added after negative statements. In this case, the extra negative makes no difference to the meaning of the statement.

*She hasn't got much chance of passing the exam, I **don't think**.*
*We won't be back before midnight, I **don't suppose**.*

7 extra negative in expressions of doubt

In informal standard spoken English, a negative verb (without a negative meaning) is sometimes used after expressions of doubt or uncertainty.

*I shouldn't be surprised if they **didn't** get married soon.* (= ... if they got married soon.)
*I wonder whether I **oughtn't** to go and see a doctor – I'm feeling a bit funny.* (= ... whether I ought to ...)

371 negative structures (5): ambiguous sentences

In a negative structure, *not* can refer to different parts of a sentence. Compare:

*Arthur **didn't write** to Sue yesterday – he phoned her.*
*Arthur **didn't** write to Sue yesterday – he wrote to Ann.*
*Arthur **didn't** write to Sue yesterday – he wrote this morning.*

The exact meaning is shown in speech by stress and intonation, and even in writing it is usually clear from the context and situation. However, confusions sometimes arise. They can usually be avoided by reorganising the sentence. Compare:

*The car crash **didn't** kill him.* (Did he live, or did something else kill him?)
It wasn't the car crash that killed him. (Only one possible meaning.)

Negative sentences with *because*-clauses are often ambiguous.

*I **didn't** sing **because** Pam was there.*

This sentence could mean 'My reason for not singing was that Pam was there' or 'My reason for singing was not that Pam was there'. The first meaning could be shown clearly by putting the *because*-clause at the beginning.

***Because** Pam was there, I **didn't** sing.*

372 neither (of): determiner

1 *neither* + singular noun

We use *neither* before a singular noun to mean 'not one and not the other (of two)'.

*Can you come on Monday or Tuesday? ~I'm afraid **neither day** is possible.*

2 *neither of* + plural

We use *neither of* before a determiner (for example *the, my, these*), and before a pronoun. The noun or pronoun is plural.

Neither of my brothers can sing. (NOT ~~*Neither my brothers can sing*~~.)
Neither of us saw it happen.

After ***neither of*** + **noun/pronoun**, we use a singular verb in a formal style.

*Neither of my sisters **is** married.*

In an informal style, a plural verb is possible.

*Neither of my sisters **are** married.*

3 *neither* used alone

We can use *neither* without a noun or pronoun, if the meaning is clear. ▸

Which one do you want? ~*Neither.*

4 pronunciation

In British English, *neither* can be pronounced both /'naɪðə(r)/ and /'ni:ðə(r)/. In American English, the usual pronunciation is /'ni:ðər/.

373 neither ... nor

This structure is used to join two negative ideas. (It is the opposite of *both ... and.*) It is usually rather formal.

*I **neither** smoke **nor** drink.* (less formal: *I don't smoke or drink.*)

*The film was **neither** well made **nor** well acted.*

Sometimes more than two ideas are connected by *neither ... nor.*

*He **neither** smiled, spoke, **nor** looked at me.*

Neither cannot begin a complete clause in this structure.

He neither smiled ... nor ... (BUT NOT ~~*Neither he smiled*~~ ...)

When singular subjects are connected by *neither ... nor*, the verb is normally singular, but it can be plural in a less formal style.

*Neither James nor Virginia **was** at home.* (normal)

*Neither James nor Virginia **were** at home.* (less formal)

See also *both ... and* (111) and *either ... or* (175).
For *not ... or* and *not ... nor*, see 370.5.

374 neither, nor and not ... either

1 *neither* and *nor*

We can use *neither* and *nor* as adverbs to mean 'also not'. *Neither* and *nor* come at the beginning of a clause, and are followed by inverted word order (see 302–303): auxiliary verb + subject.

I can't swim. ~*Neither/nor **can** I.* (NOT ~~*I also can't.*~~)

*Ruth didn't turn up, and neither/nor **did** Kate.* (NOT ... ~~*and Kate didn't too.*~~)

In American English, *nor* is not normally used after *and.*

2 *not either*

We can also use *not ... either* with the same meaning and normal word order.

I can't swim. ~*I **can't** either.*

*Ruth didn't turn up, and Kate **didn't** either.*

In very informal speech, *me neither* (and occasionally *me either*, especially in AmE) can be used instead of *I ...n't either.*

I can't swim. ~*Me **neither**.*

3 one negative

Only one negative word (*not* or *neither*) is necessary to give a negative meaning.

Neither did Kate OR *Kate didn't either.* (NOT ~~*Neither didn't Kate*~~ OR ~~*Kate didn't neither*~~)

For the pronunciation of *neither*, see 372.
For other uses of *either*, see 174–175.
For *so am I, so do I* etc, see 541.
For the difference between *too/also* and *either* in negative sentences, see 47.
For *neither ... nor*, see 373.
For *not ... or* and *not ... nor*, see 370–375.

375 next and the next; nearest

1 *next week, month* etc; *the next week, month* etc

Next week, month etc (without *the*) is the week, month etc just after this one. If I am speaking in July, *next month* is August; in 2006, *next year* is 2007.
The next week, month etc is the period of seven/thirty/etc days starting at the moment of speaking. On July 15th 2006, *the next month* is the period from July 15th to August 15th; *the next year* is the period from July 2006 to July 2007.
Compare:

- *Goodbye – see you **next week**.* (NOT ... ~~*see you the next week.*~~)
  *I'll be busy for **the next week**.* (= the seven days starting today)
- *Next year will be difficult.* (= the year starting next January)
  *The **next year** will be difficult.* (= the twelve months starting now)

The difference between *last* and *the last* is similar. See 314.

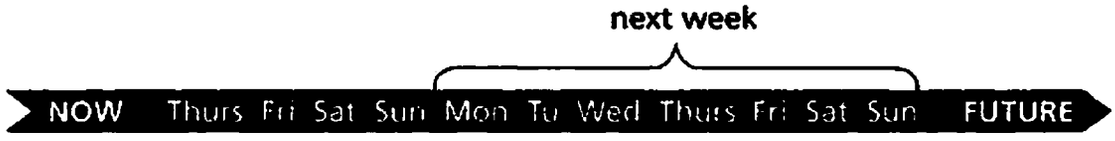

2 *the next three ...* etc

Note the word order in expressions with numbers.
*I'll be at college for **the next three years**.* (NOT ... ~~*the three next years.*~~)
We generally say *the next few days*, not ~~*the next days*~~.
*The **next few days** will be wet.*

3 *next Sunday* etc

When *next* is used with the names of days or months, it is not always clear exactly what is meant.
*See you **next Sunday**.* ~ *Do you mean this coming Sunday or the one after?*
To avoid misunderstanding, one can say for example (1) *on Sunday, this Sunday, the/this Sunday coming, the/this coming Sunday* or *(on) Sunday this week*, and (2) *on Sunday week, a week on Sunday* or *(on) Sunday next week.*

4 place: *next* and *nearest*

The nearest is generally preferred for place - it means 'most near in space'.
*Excuse me. Where's **the nearest** tube station?* (NOT ... ~~*the next tube station.*~~
*If you want to find Alan, just look in **the nearest** pub.*
The next can be used for place if we are talking about movement or direction. It means 'after this/that one'.
*We get off at **the next** station.* (= the station that we will come to next.)
*It's not on this shelf; it's on **the next** shelf up.* ▸

Next can also be used to talk about the nearest position in a row.
My girlfriend lives next door. *Who works in the next office?*
The people at the next table were having a terrible argument.
Next to means 'beside'.
Come and sit next to me.

376 no, none and not a/any

1 *no*: emphatic

No can be used instead of *not a* or *not any* when we want to emphasise a negative idea.
Would you believe it? There's no wardrobe in the bedroom!
(More emphatic than ... *There isn't a wardrobe* ...)
Sorry I can't stop. I've got no time.
(More emphatic than ... *I haven't got any time.*)
There were no letters for you this morning, I'm afraid.
(More emphatic than *There weren't any letters* ...)
After *no*, countable nouns are usually plural unless the sense makes a singular noun necessary. Compare:
He's got no children. (More natural than *He's got no child.*)
He's got no wife. (More normal than *He's got no wives.*)

2 *none of*

Before a determiner (e.g. *the, my, this*) or a pronoun, we use *none of.*
She's done none of the work. (NOT ... ~~*no of the work*~~.)
We understood none of his arguments.
I've been to none of those places. *None of us speaks French.*
When we use *none of.*with a plural noun or pronoun, the verb can be singular (a little more formal) or plural (a little more informal).
None of my friends is interested. (more formal)
None of my friends are interested. (more informal)
We can use *none* alone if the meaning is clear.
How many of the books have you read? ~*None.*

3 *not a/any*

We prefer *not a/any* in objects and complements when the sense is not emphatic. Compare:
He's no fool. (= He's not a fool at all. – emphatic negative)
A whale is not a fish. (NOT ~~*A whale is no fish*~~) – the sense is not emphatic.

4 subjects

Not any cannot normally be used with subjects. *No* and *none of* are used instead.
No brand of cigarette is completely harmless. (NOT ~~*Not any brand*~~...)
No tourists ever came to our village. (NOT ~~*Not any tourists*~~...)
None of my friends lives near me. (NOT ~~*Not any of my friends*~~...)

5 not used to talk about two

We use *neither*, not *no* or *none*, to talk about two people or things (see 372).
Neither of my parents could be there. (NOT ~~*None of my parents*~~...)

6 *nobody* etc

Nobody, nothing, no one and *nowhere* are used in similar ways to *no*.
*I saw **nobody**.* (More emphatic than *I didn't see anybody.*)
Nobody spoke. (NOT ~~*Not anybody spoke.*~~)

For *no* and *not*, see 382.
For *none* and *no one*, see 380.
For more about *any*, see 55.
For *no* as a modifying adverb (e.g. *no better*), see 57.

377 no doubt

No doubt means 'probably' or 'I suppose', not 'certainly'.
No doubt it'll rain soon.
*You're tired, **no doubt**. I'll make you a cup of tea.*
To say that something is certain, we can use *there is no doubt that* (formal), *without any doubt* (formal), *certainly, definitely.*
*There is **no doubt that** the world is getting warmer.* (NOT ~~*No doubt the world is getting warmer.*~~)
*Cycling is **certainly** healthier than driving.* (NOT ~~*No doubt cycling is healthier than driving.*~~)
Doubtless is similar to *no doubt* (but more formal); *undoubtedly* is similar to *there is no doubt that.*

For structures with the verb *doubt*, see 163.

378 no matter

1 conjunction

No matter can be used with *who, whose, what, which, where, when* and *how.* These expressions are conjunctions, used to join clauses together. The meaning is similar to 'it is not important who/what etc'.
*I'll love you **no matter what** you do.*
*No **matter where** you go, I'll follow you.*
We use a present tense with a future meaning after *no matter* (see 580).
No matter where you go, you'll find Coca-Cola.
You'll be welcome no matter when you come.

2 *no matter who* etc and *whoever* etc

The conjunctions *no matter who/what* etc are used rather like *whoever, whatever* etc (see 625). Compare:
- *No **matter what** you say, I won't believe you.*
  Whatever you say, I won't believe you.
- *Phone me when you arrive, **no matter how** late it is.*
  *Phone me when you arrive, **however** late it is.*

However, clauses with *whoever/whatever/whichever* can be used as subjects or objects. Clauses with *no matter who* etc cannot be used in this way.
Whatever you do is fine with me. (BUT NOT ~~*No matter what you do is fine with me.*~~)
You can have whichever you like. (BUT NOT ~~*You can have no matter which you like.*~~)

3 *no matter* and *it doesn't matter*

Because *no matter* ... is a conjunction, it must be used with two clauses.

No matter when you come, you'll be welcome. (BUT NOT ~~*No matter when you come.*~~)

To introduce just one clause, we can use *It doesn't matter.*

It doesn't matter when you come.

4 use without a verb

However, *no matter what* can be used at the end of a clause, without a following verb.

*I'll always love you, **no matter what**.* (= ... no matter what happens.)

For sentences like *Something's the matter with my foot*, see 585.

379 no more, not any more, no longer, not any longer

We use *no more* with nouns to talk about quantity or degree – to say how much.

*There's **no more** bread.*

We do not use *no more* in standard modern English as an adverb to express the idea of actions and situations stopping. Instead, we use *no longer* (usually before the verb), *not ... any longer* or *not ... any more.*

*I **no longer** support the Conservative party.* (NOT ~~*I no more support*~~ ...)

*This **can't** go on **any longer**.* *I'm **not** helping you **any more**.*

Anymore may be written as one word, especially in American English.

*Annie doesn't live here **anymore**.*

380 no one and none

1 *no one*

No one (also written *no-one* in British English) means the same as *nobody*. It cannot be followed by *of*.

No one wished me a happy birthday. (NOT ~~*No one of my friends*~~ ...)

*I stayed in all evening waiting, but **no one** came.*

2 *none*

To express the idea 'not a single one (of)', we can use *none (of)*, *not any (of)* or *not one (of)* (more emphatic). *No one* is not used in this way.

None of my friends wished me a happy birthday.

*I haven't read **any** of his books.*

Not one of my shirts is clean. (NOT ~~*No one of my shirts*~~ ...)

*Have you found any blackberries? ~ **Not one**.*

For more about *none*, see 376.

381 non-affirmative (or 'non-assertive') words

There are some words that are not often used in affirmative sentences – for example *any, anybody, ever, yet.* When we affirm or assert (that is, when we say that something is true) we normally use other words – for example *some, somebody, once, sometimes, already.* Compare:

- *Somebody telephoned.*
  Did anybody telephone?
- *I've bought you something.*
  I haven't bought you anything.
- *She's already here.*
  Is she here yet?
- *I sometimes go to the theatre.*
  Do you ever go to the theatre?
- *I met the Prime Minister once.*
  Have you ever met the Prime Minister?

Non-affirmative words are common not only in questions and negative sentences, but in other cases where we are not making affirmative statements – for example in *if*-clauses, after comparisons, and together with adverbs, verbs, prepositions, adjectives and determiners that have a negative kind of meaning.

Let me know if you have any trouble.
I wonder if she found anything.
She writes better than anybody I know.
He seldom says anything.
I've hardly been anywhere since Christmas.
He denied that he had ever seen her.
Please forget that I ever told you anything about it.
I'd rather do it without anybody's help.
It's difficult to understand anything he says.
Few people have ever seen her laugh.

For information about particular non-affirmative words, check in the Index to find the entries for the words in question.

382 not and no

To make a word, expression or clause negative, we use *not.*

Not surprisingly, we missed the train. (NOT ~~*No surprisingly*~~ . . .)
The students went on strike, but not the teachers. (NOT . . . ~~*but no the teachers.*~~)
I can see you tomorrow, but not on Thursday.
I have not received his answer.

We can use *no* with a noun or *-ing* form to mean 'not any', or 'not a/an'.

No teachers went on strike. (= There weren't any teachers on strike.)
I've got no Thursdays free this term. (= I haven't got any Thursdays . . .)
I telephoned, but there was no answer. (= There wasn't an answer.)
NO SMOKING

Sometimes sentences constructed with verb + *not* and *no* + noun have similar meanings. The structure with *no* is usually more emphatic.

There wasn't an answer. / There was no answer.

383 not only

In the rather formal structure *not only . . . but also, not only* and *but also* can go immediately before the words or expressions that they modify.

*We go there **not only in winter, but also in summer.***
Not only the bathroom was flooded, but also the rest of the house.
*The place was **not only cold, but also damp.***

Mid-position with the verb (see 24) is also possible. In this case, *not only* is generally used without *do*.

*She **not only sings** like an angel, but also dances divinely.*
*She **not only plays** the piano, but also the violin.*

Not only can be moved to the beginning of a clause for emphasis. It is then followed by **auxiliary verb + subject**; *do* is used if there is no other auxiliary (for more about this word order, see 302). *But* can be left out in this case.

Not only has she been late three times; she has also done no work.
Not only do they need clothing, but they are also short of water.

In informal English *not only . . . but also* is not very common; other structures are generally preferred.

*We **don't only** go there in winter. We go in summer **too**.*

384 noun + complement: what can follow a noun?

Many nouns, especially abstract nouns, can be followed by 'complements' – other words and expressions that 'complete' their meaning. These complements can be prepositional phrases, infinitive expressions or clauses (with or without prepositions).

*Alan's **criticism of the plan** made him very unpopular.*
*I hate the **thought of leaving** you.*
*Does she understand the **need to keep** everything secret?*
*I admire your **belief that** you are always right.*
*There's still the **question of whether** we're going to pay her.*

Many nouns can be followed by more than one kind of complement.

*He didn't give any **reason for the changes**.*
*You've no **reason to get** angry.*
*The main **reason why** I don't believe her is this.*

Not all nouns can be followed by all kinds of complement.

– *the idea of marriage*
the idea that I might get married
(BUT NOT ~~*the idea to get married*~~)

– *freedom to choose*
freedom of choice
(BUT NOT ~~*freedom of choosing*~~)

Note that a related noun and verb may have different kinds of complement.

*I have no **intention of resigning**.*
*I do not **intend to resign**.*

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular noun. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

For more information about *-ing* forms after nouns, see 297.
For infinitives after nouns, see 285.
For *should* in clauses after nouns, see 521.
For subjunctives in clauses after nouns, see 567.
For the prepositions that are used after some common nouns, see 449.
For prepositions before clauses, see 453.
For structures with preparatory *it* (e.g. *It's a pity that we can't see him*), see 446–447.

385 noun + noun (1): basic information

1 *milk chocolate; chocolate milk*

Many common ideas in English are expressed by **noun + noun** compounds. In this structure, the first noun modifies or describes the second, a little like an adjective. Compare:

- *milk chocolate* (a kind of chocolate)
  chocolate milk (a kind of milk)
- *a horse race* (a kind of race)
  a race horse (a kind of horse)
- *a book case* (a kind of case)
  mineral water (a kind of water)

Noun + noun expressions can often be changed into structures where the second noun becomes a subject and the first an object.

an oil well (= a well that produces oil)
a sheepdog (= a dog that looks after sheep)
a Birmingham man (= a man who comes from Birmingham)
the airport bus (= the bus that goes to the airport)

2 the first noun is singular

Note that the first noun is usually singular in form, even if it has a plural meaning. (For exceptions, see 531.)

a shoe shop (= a shop that sells shoes)
a horse race (= a race for horses) *trouser pockets* (= pockets in trousers)
a toothbrush (= a brush for teeth) *a ticket office* (= an office that sells tickets)

3 articles

Articles belonging to the first (modifying) noun are dropped in **noun + noun** combinations.

army officers (= officers in **the army**)
a sun hat (= a hat that protects you against **the sun**)

4 more than two nouns

More than two nouns can be put together. A group of two nouns can modify a third noun, these can modify a fourth, and so on.

oil production costs *road accident research centre*

This kind of structure is very common in newspaper headlines (see 240) because it saves space.

FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW

5 other structures

Not all compound ideas can be expressed by a **noun + noun** structure. Sometimes it is necessary to use a structure with *of* or another preposition; sometimes a structure with possessive *'s* is used.

a feeling of disappointment (NOT ~~*a disappointment feeling*~~)
letters from home (NOT ~~*home letters*~~) *cow's milk* (NOT ~~*cow milk*~~)

For more details, see 386. ▶

6 pronunciation

Most **noun + noun** combinations have the main stress on the first noun.

a 'bicycle factory *a 'fruit drink* *'ski boots* *'coffee beans*

However, there are quite a number of exceptions.

a garden 'chair *a fruit 'pie*

The difference between noun modifiers and adjectival modifiers is sometimes shown by stress. Compare:

a 'French teacher (noun modifier: *a person who teaches French*)

a French 'teacher (adjective modifier: *a teacher who is French*)

To be sure of the stress on a particular combination, it is necessary to check in a good dictionary.

For the stressing of road and street names, see 502.

7 spelling

Some short, common **noun + noun** combinations are generally written together like single words.

bathroom *lampshade* *seaside* (BUT NOT ~~*railwaystation*~~)

Others may be written with a hyphen (e.g. *letter-box*) or separately (e.g. *furniture shop*). In many cases usage varies, and some combinations can be found written in all three ways (e.g. *bookshop*, *book-shop* or *book shop*). Hyphens are becoming less common in modern English, and (except with very common short combinations like *bathroom*) it is usually acceptable to write the two words separately.

For more information about the spelling of different kinds of compounds, see 559.
For information about the spelling of particular noun + noun expressions, see a good dictionary.

386 noun + noun (2): advanced points

1 classifying expressions: *a sheepdog*

The **noun + noun** structure is mostly used to make 'classifying' expressions, which name a particular kind of thing.

mountain plants (a special group of plants)

mineral water (a sort of water)

a sheepdog (a particular kind of dog)

We use **noun + noun** especially to talk about things that belong to common well-known classes (so that the two nouns really describe a single idea). In other cases we prefer a preposition structure. Compare:

the postman, the milkman, the insurance man (all well-known kinds of people who may call regularly at a British home)

a man from the health department (not a regular kind of visitor)

More examples:

- *He was reading a **history book**.* (a common class of book)
  *He was reading a **book about the moon**.* (NOT ~~*a moon book*~~)
- *She was sitting at a **corner table** in the restaurant.* (Restaurants often have corner tables.)

Who's the girl in the corner? (NOT ~~*Who's the corner girl?*~~)
– *What does that road sign say?*
She was showing signs of tiredness. (NOT . . . ~~*tiredness signs.*~~)

2 containers: *a matchbox; a box of matches*

Noun + noun is used for particular kinds of container.
a matchbox *a paint tin* *a coffee cup*
But we use the preposition structure (with *of*) to talk about a container together with its contents.
a box of matches *a tin of paint* *a cup of coffee*

3 units, selections and collections: *piece, group* etc

We also prefer the *of*-structure with words that refer to units, selections and collections, like *piece, slice, lump* (of sugar), *bunch* (of flowers), *blade* (of grass), *pack* (of cards), *herd, flock, group* and so on.
a piece of paper (NOT ~~*a paper piece*~~)
a bunch of flowers (NOT ~~*a flower bunch*~~)

4 'made of': *a silk dress; silken skin*

Noun + noun is normally used to say what things are made of.
a silk dress *a stone bridge* *an iron rod* *a gold ring*
In older English, the *of*-structure was more common in this case (e.g. *a dress of silk, a bridge of stone*), and it is still used in some metaphorical expressions.
He rules his family with a rod of iron.
The flowers were like a carpet of gold.
A few pairs of nouns and adjectives (e.g. *gold, golden*) are used as modifiers with different meanings. Generally the noun simply names the material something is made of, while the adjective has a more metaphorical meaning. Compare:

a gold watch	*golden memories*
silk stockings	*silken skin*
a lead pipe	*a leaden sky* (grey and depressing)
a stone roof	*a stony silence*

But *wooden* and *woollen* just mean 'made of wood/wool'.

5 measurement: *a five-litre can*

Noun + noun is used in measurements, with a number before the first noun. The number is usually joined to the first noun by a hyphen (-). Note that the first noun is normally singular in form in these cases.
a five-litre can *a ten-pound note* (NOT ~~*a five-litres can, a ten-pounds note*~~)
a six-pound chicken *a three-mile walk* *a five-day course*
a two-person tent *ten two-hour lessons*
The number *one* is often left out.
a (one-)pint mug
In fractions, the plural *-s* is not usually dropped.
a two-thirds share (NOT ~~*a two-third share*~~)
Exception: *three quarters (a three-quarter length coat)* ▸

6 noun + 's + noun: *children's clothes; a bird's nest*

In some classifying expressions we use a structure with possessive *'s*. This is common when we are talking about things that are used by a person or animal: the first noun refers to the user.

children's clothes *a man's sweater*
women's magazines *a bird's nest*

Generally, either both nouns are singular or both are plural.

a child's toy *children's clothes*

but

a women's magazine

Not all 'used by' expressions have possessive *'s*.

baby clothes *a birdcage*

British and American usage sometimes differ. Compare:

a baby's bottle (BrE) *a baby bottle* (AmE)
a baby's pram (BrE) *a baby carriage* (AmE)
a doll's house (BrE) *a doll house* (AmE)

7 noun + 's + noun: *cow's milk; a hen's egg*

The *'s* structure is often used for products from living animals.

cow's milk *lamb's wool*
sheep's wool *a bird's egg* *a hen's egg*
(BUT *camel hair, horsehair*)

When the animal is killed to provide something, we usually use **noun + noun**.

calf skin *chamois leather* *fox fur*
chicken soup *a lamb chop* *tortoise shell*

8 parts: *a man's leg; a table leg*

We use the *'s* structure to talk about parts of people's and animals' bodies.

a man's leg *an elephant's trunk* *a sheep's heart*

But to talk about parts of non-living things, we usually use the **noun + noun** structure.

a table leg (NOT ~~*a table's leg*~~)
a car door (NOT USUALLY *a car's door*)

9 pronunciation

Classifying expressions with possessive *'s* most often have the main stress on the first noun. Compare:

– *a 'doll's house* (a kind of house)
  my brother's 'house (not a kind of house)
– *'goat's milk* (a kind of milk)
  the goat's 'tail (not a kind of tail)

Here, too, there are exceptions.

a child's 'bicycle (a kind of bicycle)

For the use of structures with *'s* to talk about possession, relationships etc, see 440.

10 noun + noun, noun + 's + noun, or preposition structure?

This is a very complicated area of English grammar. The 'rules' given above show the general patterns, but unfortunately there is no easy way to be quite

sure which structure is used to express a particular compound idea. The most common expressions will be learnt by experience; in cases of doubt, a good dictionary will often show which form is correct.

387 now (that)

Now (that) can be used as a conjunction. In an informal style, *that* is often dropped (see 584).

Now (that) Andrew is married, he has become much more responsible.
Now the exams are over I can enjoy myself

388 nowadays

Nowadays is an adverb meaning 'these days', 'at the present time'.

People seem to be very depressed nowadays.
Nowadays we think nothing of space travel.

Nowadays cannot be used as an adjective.

I don't like modern fashions. (NOT ~~*I don't like the nowadays fashions.*~~)

389 numbers

1 fractions and decimals: *two fifths; nought point four*

We say simple fractions like this:

$^1/_4$	*a/one quarter*	$^{11}/_{16}$	*eleven sixteenths*
$^1/_8$	*an/one eighth*	$3^3/_4$	*three and three quarters*
$^3/_7$	*three sevenths*	$6^1/_8$	*six and one eighth*
$^2/_5$	*two fifths*		

More complex fractions can be expressed by using the word *over*.

$^{317}/_{509}$ *three hundred and seventeen over five hundred and nine*

We write and say decimals like this:

0.4 *nought point four* (NOT ~~*nought comma four*~~)
0.375 *nought point three seven five* (NOT ~~*nought point three hundred and seventy-five*~~)
4.7 *four point seven*

For the difference between *a(n)* and *one* with numbers, see paragraph 11 below.

2 before nouns

With fractions below *1*, we use *of* before nouns.

three quarters of an hour
seven tenths of a mile
a third of the students

Half is not always followed by *of* (see 231).

half an hour *half (of) the students*

Of is also possible with decimals below *1*.

nought point six of a mile

0.1625 cm *nought point one six two five of a centimetre*

However, decimals below *1* are often followed directly by plural nouns.

nought point six ***miles*** (NOT ~~*nought point six mile*~~)

nought point one three two five ***centimetres***

Fractions and decimals over *1* are normally followed by plural nouns.

one and a half ***hours*** (NOT ~~*one and a half hour*~~)

three and three eighths ***miles***

1.3 ***millimetres*** (NOT ~~*1.3 millimetre*~~)

Note also the structure *a . . . and a half.*

I've been waiting for ***an hour and a half.***

3 singular or plural verbs

Singular verbs are normally used after fractions, decimals, and other expressions referring to amounts and measurements (for more details, see 527).

Three quarters of a ton ***is*** *too much.* (NOT ~~*Three quarters of a ton are*~~ . . .)

3.6 kilometres ***is*** *about 2 miles.*

But plural verbs are used when we are talking about numbers of people or things, even after a singular fraction.

A third of the students ***are*** *from abroad.* (NOT ~~*A third of the students is*~~ . . .)

Half of the glasses ***are*** *broken.*

After expressions like ***one in three, one out of five*** + **plural noun**, both singular and plural verbs are possible.

One in three new cars ***break/breaks*** *down in the first year.*

4 *nought, zero, nil* etc

The figure *0* is usually called *nought* in British English and *zero* in American English. When we say numbers one figure at a time, *0* is often called *oh* (like the letter *O*).

My account number is four one three ***oh*** *six.*

In measurements of temperature, *0* is called *zero* in both British and American English. *Zero* is followed by a plural noun.

Zero degrees *Celsius is thirty-two degrees Fahrenheit.*

Zero scores in team games are called *nil* (American *zero* or *nothing*). In tennis and similar games, the word *love* is used (originally from French *l'oeuf*, meaning 'the egg' – the figure *0* is egg-shaped).

And the score at half-time is: Scotland three, England ***nil.***

*Forty-****love****; Andrews to serve.*

5 telephone numbers

We say each figure separately, pausing after groups of three or four (not two). When the same figure comes twice, British people usually say *double.*

307 4922 *three oh seven, four nine double two*
(AmE *three zero seven, four nine two two*)

6 Roman numbers

Roman numbers (*I, II, III, IV* etc) are not common in modern English, but they are still used in a few cases – for example the names of kings and queens, page numbers in the introductions to some books, the numbers of paragraphs in some documents, the numbers of questions in some examinations, the figures on some old clock faces, and occasionally the names of centuries.

It was built in the time of Henry V.
For details, see Introduction page ***ix****.*
Do question (vi) or question (vii), but not both.
a fine XVIII Century English walnut chest of drawers

The Roman numbers normally used are as follows:

1	*I i*	10	*X x*	40	*XL xl*
2	*II ii*	11	*XI xi*	45	*XLV xlv*
3	*III iii*	12	*XII xii*	50	*L l*
4	*IV iv*	13	*XIII xiii*	60	*LX lx*
5	*V v*	14	*XIV xiv*	90	*XC xc*
6	*VI vi*	19	*XIX xix*	100	*C c*
7	*VII vii*	20	*XX xx*	500	*D*
8	*VIII viii*	21	*XXI xxi*	1000	*M*
9	*IX ix*	30	*XXX xxx*	1995	*MCMXCV*

7 cardinal and ordinal numbers: books, chapters etc; kings and queens

After a noun we usually use a cardinal number (*one, two* etc) instead of an ordinal number (*first, second* etc). This structure is common in titles. Compare:

the fourth book – Book ***Four*** *the third act – Act* ***Three***
Mozart's thirty-ninth symphony – Symphony No. 39, by Mozart
the third day of the course – Timetable for Day ***Three***

However, the names of kings and queens are said with ordinal numbers.

Henry VIII: Henry the ***Eighth*** (NOT ~~*Henry Eight*~~)
Louis XIV: Louis the ***Fourteenth***
Elizabeth II: Elizabeth the ***Second***

8 centuries

Note how the names of centuries relate to the years in them. The period from 1701 – 1800 is called the 18th century (not the 17th); 1801 – 1900 is the 19th century, etc.

9 floors

The *ground floor* of a British house is the *first floor* of an American house; the British *first floor* is the American *second floor*, etc.

10 *and*; punctuation

In British English we always put *and* between *hundred/thousand/million* and numbers below a hundred. In American English, *and* can be dropped.

310	*three hundred* ***and*** *ten* (AmE also *three hundred ten*)
5,642	*five thousand, six hundred* ***and*** *forty-two*
2,025	*two thousand* ***and*** *twenty-five*

▸

In measurements containing two different units, *and* is possible before the smaller, but is usually left out.

two hours (and) ten minutes
two metres (and) thirty centimetres

In writing we generally use commas (,) to divide large numbers into groups of three figures, by separating off the thousands and the millions. Full stops (.) are not used in this way.

3,127 (NOT ~~*3.127*~~) *5,466,243*

We do not always use commas in four-figure numbers, and they are not used in dates.

4,126 OR *4126* *the year 1648*

Spaces are also possible.

There are 1 000 millimetres in a metre.

Note the hyphen between the tens and units in *twenty-one, twenty-two, thirty-six, forty-nine* etc.

11 *a* and *one*

We can say *an eighth* or *one eighth, a hundred* or *one hundred, a thousand* or *one thousand, a million* or *one million*, etc. *One* is more formal.

*I want to live for **a** hundred years.* (NOT ... ~~*for hundred years*~~)
*Pay Mr J Baron **one** thousand pounds.* (on a cheque)

A can only be used at the beginning of a number. Compare:

a/one hundred
three thousand one hundred (NOT ~~*three thousand a hundred*~~)

A thousand can be used alone, and before *and*, but not usually before a number of hundreds. Compare:

a/one thousand *a/one thousand and forty-nine*
one thousand, six hundred and two
(More natural than *a thousand, six hundred and two.*)

We can use *a* or *one* with measurement words. The rules are similar.

a/one kilometre (BUT *one kilometre, six hundred metres*)
an/one hour and seventeen minutes (BUT *one hour, seventeen minutes*)
a/one pound (BUT *one pound twenty-five*)

12 numbers with determiners

Numbers can be used after determiners. Before determiners, a structure with *of* is necessary.

You're my one hope.
One of my friends gave me this. (NOT ~~*One my friend*~~...)

13 *eleven hundred* etc

In an informal style we often use *eleven hundred, twelve hundred* etc instead of *one thousand one hundred* etc. This is most common with round numbers between 1,100 and 1,900.

*We only got **fifteen hundred** pounds for the car.*

This form is used in historical dates (see 152).

*He was born in **thirteen hundred**.*
*It was built in **fifteen (hundred and)** twenty-nine.*

14 *billion*

A *billion* is a thousand million. (But in older British usage a *billion* was a million million.)

15 *five hundred* etc without *-s*

After a number, the words *dozen, hundred, thousand, million* and *billion* have no final *-s*, and *of* is not used. This also happens after *several* and *a few*. Compare:

- *five hundred pounds*
  hundreds of pounds
- *several thousand times*
  It cost thousands.
- *a few million years*
  millions of years

Singular forms are used as modifiers before nouns in plural measuring expressions.

a five-pound note (NOT ~~*a five-pounds note*~~)
a three-mile walk *a four-foot deep hole*
six two-hour lessons *a six-foot tall man*
a three-month-old baby

In an informal style, we often use *foot* instead of *feet* in other structures, especially when we talk about people's heights.

My father's just over six foot two.

For the use of *be* in measurements, see 92.
For the use of possessive forms in expressions of time (e.g. *ten minutes' walk; four days' journey*), see 440–444.

16 British money (pre-euro)

There are 100 *pence* in a *pound*. Sums of money are named as follows:

1p one penny (informal *one p* (/piː/) or *a penny*)
5p five pence (informal *five p*)
£3.75 three pounds seventy-five (pence) OR *three pounds and seventy-five pence* (more formal)

Some people now use the plural *pence* as a singular in informal speech; *pound* is sometimes used informally as a plural.

That's two pounds and one pence, please.
It cost me eight pound fifty.

Singular forms are used in expressions like *a five-pound note* (see above). However, *pence* is often used instead of *penny* (*a five pence stamp*).

17 American money

There are 100 *cents* (¢) in a *dollar* ($). One-cent coins are called *pennies*; five-cent coins are *nickels*; ten-cent coins are *dimes*; a twenty-five cent coin is a *quarter*.

18 non-metric measures

In recent years, Britain has adopted some metric measurement units, but non-metric measures are still quite widely used. America uses mainly non-metric units. Approximate values are as follows: ▸

1 inch (1 in) = 2.5 cm
12 inches = 1 foot (30 cm)
3 feet (3 ft) = 1 yard (90 cm)
5,280 feet / 1,760 yards = 1 mile (1.6 km)
5 miles = 8 km
1 ounce (1 oz) = 28 gm
16 ounces = 1 pound (455 gm)
2.2 pounds (2.2 lb) = 1 kg
14 pounds (14 lb) = 1 stone (6.4 kg) (BrE only)
1 British pint = 56.8 cl
1 US pint = 47.3 cl
8 pints (8 pt) = 1 gallon
1 British gallon = 4.55 litres
1 US gallon = 3.78 litres
1 acre = 4,840 square yards = 0.4 hectares
1 square mile = 640 acres = 259 ha

British people measure their weight in *stones* and *pounds* or (more recently) in *kilograms*; Americans just use *pounds*. Height is measured in *feet*; distance can also be measured in *feet*, but longer distances are often measured in *yards*, especially in British English.

I weigh eight stone six. (NOT ... ~~*eight stones six*~~)
We are now flying at an altitude of 28,000 feet.
The car park's straight on, about 500 yards on the right.

19 area and volume

We say, for example, that a room is *twelve feet by fifteen feet*, or that a garden is *thirty metres by forty-eight metres*.
A room *twelve feet by twelve feet* can be called *twelve feet square*; the total area is *144 square feet*.
A container *2 metres by 2 metres by 3 metres* has a volume of *12 cubic metres*.

20 *a* and *per*

When we relate two different measures, we usually use *a/an*; *per* is often used in formal writing.

It costs two pounds a week. (OR ... *£2 per week.*)
We're doing seventy miles an hour. (OR ... *70 miles per hour / mph.*)

21 numbers not used as complements after *be*

Numbers are used as subjects or objects, but not usually as complements after *be*.

I've got three sisters. (NOT ~~*My sisters are three.*~~)
There are twelve of us in my family. (More natural than *We are twelve...*)

22 spoken calculations

Common ways of saying calculations in British English are:

2 + 2 = 4	*Two and two is/are four.* (informal) *Two plus two equals/is four.* (formal)
7 − 4 = 3	*Four from seven is/leaves three.* (informal) *Seven take away four is/leaves three.* (informal) *Seven minus four equals/is three.* (formal)

3 × 4 = 12	*Three fours are twelve.* (informal) *Three times four is twelve.* (informal) *Three multiplied by four equals/is twelve.* (formal)
9 ÷ 3 = 3	*Three(s) into nine goes three (times).* (informal) *Nine divided by three equals/is three.* (formal)

23 example of a spoken calculation

Here, for interest, is a multiplication (146 × 281) together with all its steps, in the words that a British English speaker might have used as he/she was working it out on paper before the days of pocket calculators.

```
   146
 × 281
 -----
 29200
 11680
   146
 -----
 41026
```

A hundred and forty-six times two hundred and eighty-one.

beginning: *Put down two noughts. Two sixes are twelve; put down two and carry one; two fours are eight and one are nine; two ones are two.*

next line: *Put down one nought. Eight sixes are forty-eight; put down eight and carry four; eight fours are thirty-two and four is thirty-six; put down six and carry three; eight ones are eight and three is eleven.*

next line: *One times 146 is 146.*

addition: *Six and nought and nought is six; eight and four and nought is twelve; put down two and carry one; six and two are eight and one is nine and one is ten; put down nought and carry one; nine and one are ten and one is eleven; put down one and carry one; two and one are three and one are four.*

total: *forty-one thousand and twenty-six.*

Note how *is* and *are* can often be used interchangeably.

For ways of saying and writing dates, see 152.
For ways of telling the time, see 579.

390 of course

We use *of course (not)* to mean 'as everybody knows' or 'as is obvious'.
It looks as if the sun goes round the earth, but of course that's not true.
We'll leave at eight o'clock. Granny won't be coming, of course.
Of course can be used as a polite reply to a request.
Could you help me? ~Of course.
But *of course* is not always a very polite reply to a statement of fact.
It's cold. ~It certainly is. (NOT *Of course it is* – this would suggest that the first speaker had said something too obvious to be worth mentioning.)

For the use of *of course* to structure arguments, see 157.5.

391 often

Often is mostly used for habitual behaviour, to mean 'a lot of times on different occasions'. To say 'a lot of times on one occasion', we normally use another expression (e.g. *a lot of times, several times, keep ...ing*). Compare:

*I **often** fell in love when I was younger.*
*I fell **several times** yesterday when I was skiing.* OR *I **kept falling** yesterday...*
(NOT ~~*I often fell yesterday*~~...)

Note that *often* has two common pronunciations, with and without *t*: /ˈɒfən/ and /ˈɒftən/.

For the position of *often* and other adverbs of indefinite frequency, see 24.

392 older English verb forms

The English of a few hundred years ago was different in many ways from modern English – grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling have all changed greatly since Shakespeare's time. Some of the most striking differences are in the way verbs are used. Older English had distinct second-person singular verb forms ending in *-st*, with a corresponding second-person singular pronoun *thou* (object form *thee*, possessives *thy, thine*). There were also third-person singular verb forms ending in *-th*, and *ye* could be used as a second-person plural pronoun.

*Tell me what **thou knowest**.* *How can I help **thee**?*
*Where **thy** master **goeth**, there **goest thou** also.*
*Oh come, all **ye** faithful.*

Older forms of *be* included second-person singular *art* and *wert*.

*I fear **thou art** sick.* *Wert thou at work today?*

Questions and negatives were originally made without *do*; later, forms with and without *do* (including affirmative forms with *do*) were both common.

Came you by sea or by land? *Be not afraid.*
They know not what they do. *Then he did take my hand and kiss it.*

Simple tenses were often used in cases where modern English has progressive forms.

*We go not out today, for it **raineth**.*

Subjunctives (see 567) were more widely used than in modern English.

*If she **be** here, then tell her I wait her pleasure.*

Inversion (see 302–303) was more common, and infinitives and past participles could come later in a clause than in modern English.

*Now **are we** lost indeed.*
*Hamlet, thou hast thy father much **offended**.* (Shakespeare)
*And she me **caught** in her arms long and small*
and therewithal so sweetly did me kiss
and softly said 'Dear heart, how like you this?' (Wyatt)

Some of these forms were still used in 19th-century and early 20th-century literature (particularly poetry) long after they had died out of normal usage. Modern writers of historical novels, films or plays often make their characters use some of these older forms in order to give a 'period' flavour to the language. And the forms also survive in certain contexts where tradition

is especially valued – for example the language of religious services, public ceremonies and the law. Some dialects, too, preserve forms which have disappeared from the rest of the language – second-person singular pronouns (*tha, thee* etc) are still used by many people in Yorkshire.

393 once: adverb

When *once* means 'at some time', we use it for the past but not for the future. To refer to an indefinite future time, we can use *sometime* or *one day*. Compare:

– *I met her **once** in Venezuela.*
  Once upon a time there was a beautiful princess.
– *Come up and see me **sometime**.* (NOT ~~*Come up and see me once.*~~)
  *We must go walking **one day**.* (NOT ~~*We must go walking once.*~~)

When *once* has the more precise meaning of 'one time (not twice or three times)', it can be used to talk about any time, including the future.

*I'm only going to say this **once**.*

Note that *at once* means 'immediately'.

*Can I have the bill? ~**At once**, sir.*

394 once: conjunction

Once can be used as a conjunction, meaning 'after', 'as soon as'. It often suggests that something is finished or completed, and is most often used with a perfect tense.

Once you've passed your test I'll let you drive my car.
Once he had found somewhere to live he started looking for work.
Once you know how to ride a bike you never forget it.

Note that we do not use *that* after *once* (NOT ~~*Once that you've passed your test*~~...).

For present perfect instead of future perfect after conjunctions, see 580.

395 one: substitute word

1 use

We often use *one* instead of repeating a singular countable noun.

*Which is your boy? ~The **one** in the blue coat.*
*I'd like a cake. A big **one** with lots of cream.*
*Can you lend me a pen? ~Sorry, I haven't got **one**.*

2 *a ... one*

We drop *a* if there is no adjective. Compare:

*I'm looking for a flat. I'd like **a small one** with a garden.*
*I'd like **one** with a garden.* (NOT ... ~~*a one with a garden.*~~) ▸

3 *ones*

One has a plural *ones*.

I'd like to try on those shoes. ~ *Which **ones**?* ~ *The **ones** in the window.*
*Green apples often taste better than red **ones**.*
What sort of sweets do you like? ~ *Ones with chocolate inside.*

4 uncountable nouns

We do not use *one(s)* for uncountable nouns. Compare:

*If you haven't got a fresh **chicken** I'll take a frozen **one**.*
*If you haven't got fresh **cream** I'll take tinned (cream).* (NOT ... ~~*tinned one.*~~)

5 *which (one), this (one)* etc

We can leave out *one(s)* immediately after *which, this, that, another, either, neither* and superlatives.

Which (one) would you like? ~ *This (one) looks the nicest.*
*Let's have **another** (one).* *Either (one) will suit me.*
*I think my dog's the **fastest** (one).*

But we cannot leave out *one(s)* if there is an adjective.

*This **blue one** looks the nicest.* (NOT ~~*This blue looks*~~ ...)

We nearly always leave out *ones* after *these* and *those*.

*I don't think much of **these**.* (More natural than ... *these ones*.)

6 not used after *my* etc, *some, several, a few, both* or *a number*

We do not use *one(s)* immediately after *my, your* etc, *some, several, (a) few, both* or *a number*.

*Take your coat and pass me **mine**.* (NOT ... ~~*pass me my one.*~~)
Are there any grapes? ~ *Yes, I bought **some** today.* (NOT ... ~~*I bought some ones today.*~~)
*I'll take **both**.* (NOT ... ~~*both ones.*~~)
*She bought **six**.* (NOT ... ~~*six ones.*~~)

But *one(s)* is used if there is an adjective.

*I'll wear **my old one**.* (NOT ... ~~*my old.*~~)
*I bought **some sweet ones** today.* (NOT ~~*I bought some sweet today.*~~)
Has the cat had her kittens? ~ *Yes, she's had **four white ones**.* (NOT ... ~~*four white.*~~)

7 *that of*

One(s) is not normally used after a noun with possessive *'s*. Instead, we can either just drop *one(s)*, or use a structure with *that/those of* (more formal).

*A grandparent's job is easier than **a parent's**.* (NOT ... ~~*than a parent's one.*~~)
*A grandparent's job is easier than **that of a parent**.* (NOT ... ~~*than the one of a parent.*~~)
*Trollope's novels are more entertaining than **those of Dickens**.* (NOT ... ~~*than Dickens' ones / the ones of Dickens.*~~)

8 noun modifiers

One(s) is not generally used after noun modifiers.

*Do you need coffee cups or **tea cups**?* (NOT ... ~~*or tea ones.*~~)

9 *One(s)* always refers back

We use *one(s)* to avoid repeating a noun which has been mentioned before. It cannot normally be used in other cases.

Let's go and ask the old man for advice. (NOT ...~~ask the old one~~...)

396 one, you and they: indefinite personal pronouns

1 *one* and *you*: meaning

We can use *one* or *you* to talk about people in general, including the speaker and hearer.

One/You cannot learn a language in six weeks.
One/You should never give people advice.

2 *one* and *you*: formality and class

One is more formal than *you* (and more common in writing than in speech). Compare:

If you want to make people angry, you just have to tell them the truth.
If one wishes to make oneself thoroughly unpopular, one has merely to tell people the truth.

One is often considered typical of more upper-class and intellectual usage, and is avoided by many people for this reason.

3 *one* and *you*: only used in generalisations

One and *you* are only used in this way in very general statements, when we are talking about 'anyone, at any time'. Compare:

- *One/You can usually find people who speak English in Sweden.*
  English is spoken in this shop. OR *They speak English in this shop.* (NOT ~~One speaks English~~... – the meaning is not 'people in general')
- *One/You should knock before going into somebody's room.*
  Somebody's knocking at the door. (NOT ~~One is knocking~~...)
- *It can take you/one ages to get served in this pub.*
  Thanks, I'm being served. (NOT ~~Thanks, one is serving me.~~)

One generally has a singular meaning: 'any individual'; it is not used to refer to whole groups.

We speak a strange dialect where I come from. (NOT ~~One speaks a strange dialect where I come from.~~)

4 people including the speaker/hearer

One is not used for people who could not include the speaker; *you* is not used for people who could not include the hearer. Compare:

One/You must believe in something.
In the sixteenth century people believed in witches.
(NOT ...~~one/you believed in witches~~ – this could not include the speaker or hearer.)

▶

5 *one/you* as subject, object etc

One can be a subject or object; there is a possessive *one's* and a reflexive pronoun *oneself*.

He talks to one like a teacher. *One's family can be very difficult.*
One should always give oneself plenty of time to pack.

You/your/yourself can be used in similar ways.

6 *they*

They has a rather different, less general kind of meaning than *one* and *you*. It usually refers to a particular but rather vague group (for example the neighbours, the people around, the authorities).

They don't like strangers round here.
They're going to widen the road soon.
I bet they put taxes up next year.

Note also the common expression *they say* (= people say).

They say her husband's been seeing that Mrs Hastings again. (NOT ~~*One says*~~...)

397 one of ...

After *one of* we normally use a plural form.

one of our cats (NOT ~~*one of our cat*~~)

Occasionally *one of* is used with a singular noun referring to a group.

Why don't you ask one of the crew?

A following verb is normally singular.

One of our cats has disappeared. (NOT ~~*One of our cats have disappeared.*~~)

After *one of*, a noun phrase must have a determiner (e.g. *the, my, those*).

one of the/my/those horses (BUT NOT ~~*one of horses*~~)

Of cannot be dropped.

one of my friends (NOT ~~*one my friend*~~ OR ~~*one my friends*~~)

For sentences like *She's one of the only women who have/has climbed Everest*, see 529.

398 only: focusing adverb

Only can be used as a 'focusing adverb' (see 24.6). It can refer to different parts of a sentence.

1 referring to the subject

Only normally comes before a subject that it refers to.

Only you could do a thing like that.
Only my mother really understands me.

2 referring to other parts of a sentence

When *only* refers to another part of a sentence, it often goes in 'mid-position' with the verb (see 24 for details).

She only reads biographies. *She is only on duty on Tuesdays.*
I only like swimming in the sea. *I've only been to India once.*
She was only talking like that because she was nervous.

3 ambiguous sentences

Sometimes sentences with *only* are ambiguous (they can be understood in more than one way).

I only kissed your sister last night. (The sense can be 'only kissed', 'only your sister' or 'only last night'.)

In speech, the meaning is usually clear because the speaker stresses the part of the sentence that *only* refers to. Even in writing, the context generally stops sentences like these from being really ambiguous. However, if necessary *only* can be put directly before the object, complement or adverbial expression that it refers to. This is rather formal. Compare:

They only play poker on Saturday nights. (could be ambiguous)
They play only poker on Saturday nights.
They play poker only on Saturday nights.

The meaning can also be made more precise with a relative structure.

Poker is the only game (that) they play on Saturday nights.
Saturday nights are the only time (that) they play poker.

4 *only today* etc

Only with a time expression can mean 'as recently as', 'not before'.

I saw her only today – she looks much better.
My shoes will only be ready on Friday.
Only then did she realise what she had agreed to.

For inverted word order after *only*, as in the last example above, see 302.

399 open

1 *open* and *opened*

We normally use *open*, not *opened*, as an adjective.

I can read you like an open book. (NOT ... ~~an opened book.~~)
Are the banks open this afternoon? (NOT ~~Are the banks opened~~ ...?)

Opened is used as the past tense and past participle of the verb *open*, to talk about the action of opening.

She opened her eyes and sat up. *The safe was opened with dynamite.*

2 when *open* is not used

Note that *open* is not the normal word to refer to the fastenings of clothes, or to switches or taps.

I can't untie/undo this shoelace. (NOT ~~I can't open this shoelace.~~)
How do you unfasten this belt?
Could you turn/switch the radio on? (NOT ... ~~open the radio?~~)
Who left the taps turned on? (NOT ~~Who left the taps open?~~)

For *closed* and *shut*, see 132.

400 opportunity and possibility

We often say that somebody *has the opportunity to do / of doing* something.

*I **have the opportunity to go** to Denmark next year.* (= I **can** go . . .)

Possibility is not often used in this structure. It is more normal to say that *there is a possibility of something happening.*

*There's **a possibility** of my going to Denmark next year.* (= I **may** go . . .)

(NOT ~~*I have the possibility to go to Denmark*~~. . .)

401 opposite (adjective): position

We put the adjective *opposite* before a noun when we are talking about one of a pair of things that naturally face or contrast with each other.

*I think the picture would look better on the **opposite wall**.*

*She went off in the **opposite direction**.*

*I've got exactly the **opposite opinion** to yours.*

*His brother was fighting on the **opposite side**.*

We put *opposite* after the noun when it means 'facing the speaker or listener' or 'facing a person or place that has already been mentioned'.

*I noticed that the **man opposite** was staring at me* (NOT . . .~~*the opposite man was staring at me.*~~)

*You can see the cinema programmes on the **notice opposite**.*

*The man she was looking for was in the **shop directly opposite**.*

For *opposite* and *in front of*, see 402.
For *opposite* and *contrary*, see 144.

402 opposite, facing and in front of

1 'across a road/room etc from': *opposite/facing*

We do not use *in front of* to mean 'across a road/river/room etc from'. This idea is usually expressed with *opposite* or *facing*. (AmE also *across from*.)

*There's a garage **opposite** my house.* (NOT . . .~~*in front of my house.*~~)

*She stood at the other side of the table **facing** me.* (NOT . . .~~*in front of me.*~~)

*The man sitting **across from** me was smoking a pipe.* (AmE)

2 *in front of* and *opposite*

Compare:

*There's a bus stop **in front of** the school.*

(The bus stop is on the same side of the road as the school.)

*There's a bus stop **opposite** the school.*

(The bus stop is on the other side of the road from the school.)

In front of is often the opposite of *behind*.

*The woman **in front of** me in the post-office queue had a complicated problem. I always find myself **behind** people like that.*

3 *in front of* and *in the front of*

If you are **in front of** a place, vehicle etc you are outside it; if you are **in the front of** it you are inside. Compare:

*We stood **in front of** her car so that she couldn't drive off.*
*Her husband was sitting **in the front of** the car. He looked frightened.*

For the difference between *before* and *in front of*, see 98.

403 ought

1 forms

Ought is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). The third person singular has no *-s*.

*She **ought** to understand.* (NOT ~~*She oughts*~~...)

Questions and negatives are made without *do*.

Ought we to go now? (NOT ~~*Do we ought*~~...?)
*It **oughtn't** to rain today.*

After *ought*, we use the infinitive with *to* before other verbs. (This makes *ought* different from other modal auxiliary verbs.)

*You ought **to** see a dentist.*

To is not used in question tags.

*We ought to wake Helen, **oughtn't we**?* (NOT ...~~*oughtn't we to?*~~)

In American English, interrogative and contracted negative forms of *ought to* are rare; *should* is generally used instead.

*He ought to be here soon, **shouldn't he**?*

In some English dialects, questions and negatives are made with *did* (e.g. *She didn't ought to do that*), but this structure is not used in standard English.

2 obligation: *I ought to phone Mother*

We can use *ought* to advise people (including ourselves) to do things; to tell people that they have a duty to do things; to ask about our duty. The meaning is very similar to that of *should*; it is not so strong as *must* (see 520). *Ought* is less frequent than *should*.

*What time **ought** I to arrive?*
*I really **ought** to phone Mother.*
*People **ought** not to drive like that.*
*He **ought** to get a medal for living with her.*
*There **ought** to be traffic lights at this crossroads.*

3 deduction: *He ought to be here soon*

We can also use *ought* (like *should*) to say that we guess or conclude that something is probable (because it is logical or normal).

*Henry **ought** to be here soon – he left home at six.*
*We're spending the winter in Miami. ~ That **ought** to be nice.*
*The weather **ought** to improve after the weekend.* ▸

4 questions

The normal question forms of *ought* are rather formal. In an informal style they are often avoided, for example by using a structure with *think . . . ought* or by using *should.*

Do you think we ought to go now? (Less formal than *Ought we to . . .?*)
Should we go now?

5 *ought to have . . .*

Ought has no past form, but we can use ***ought to have*** + **past participle** to talk about things which were supposed to happen but did not.

*I **ought to have phoned** Ed this morning, but I forgot.* (NOT ~~*I ought to phone Ed this morning, but I forgot.*~~)

The structure can also be used to make guesses or draw conclusions about things which are not certain to have happened.

*Bill **ought to have got** back home yesterday. Has anybody seen him?*

It is also possible to talk about things that ought to have happened by now, or by a future time.

*Ten o'clock. She **ought to have arrived** at her office by now.*
*We **ought to have finished** painting the house by the end of next week.*

6 word order

Mid-position adverbs like *always, never, really* (see 24) can go before or after *ought* in a verb phrase. The position before *ought* is less formal.

*You **always ought** to carry some spare money.* (less formal)
*You **ought always** to carry some spare money.* (more formal)

In negative clauses, *not* comes before *to.*

*You ought **not** to go. / You oughtn't to go.* (NOT ~~*You ought to not go.*~~)

404 out of

1 movement

The opposite of the preposition *into* is *out of.*

*She ran **out of** the room.* (NOT ~~*She ran out the room.*~~ OR ~~*She ran out from the room.*~~)
*I took Harry's letter **out of** my pocket.*

Out of is also used to mean 'through', when we mention the opening through which somebody/something goes out.

*I walked **out of the front door** without looking back.*
*Why did you throw the paper **out of the window**?*

In American English, *out* is normally used without *of* in this case.

*She turned and went **out the back door**.* (AmE)

2 position

Out of can also be used to talk about position – the opposite of *in.*

*I'm afraid Mr Pallery is **out of** the office at the moment.*

For *into* and *in*, see 269.

405 own

1 after possessives

We only use *own* after a possessive word. It cannot directly follow an article.

It's nice if a child can have his or her own room. (NOT ... ~~*an own room.*~~)
Car hire is expensive. It's cheaper to take one's own car. (NOT ... ~~*the own car.*~~)
I'm my own boss.

2 *a/some ... of one's own*

This structure makes it possible to include *a/an, some* or another determiner in the phrase.

I'd like to have a car of my own.
It's time you found some friends of your own.
He's got no ideas of his own.

3 *own* with no following noun

We cannot use *mine, yours* etc with *own*, but we can drop a noun after *my own, your own* etc if the meaning is clear.

Would you like to use my pen? ~No, thanks. I can only write with my own. (NOT ... ~~*mine own.*~~)

4 *own* and *-self*

The emphatic and reflexive pronouns *myself yourself* etc (see 493) do not have possessive forms. *My own* etc is used instead.

I'll do it myself, and I'll do it in my own way. (NOT ... ~~*in myself's way.*~~)
She can wash herself and brush her own hair now. (NOT ... ~~*brush herself's hair.*~~)

5 *on one's own*

Note the two meanings of *on one's own.*

My mother lives on her own. (without company)
Don't help him. Let him do it on his own. (without help)

For *by oneself* used in similar ways, see 493.6.

406 paragraphs

Written English text is usually divided into blocks called 'paragraphs', to make it easier to read. Paragraphs can vary in length, from several hundred words (for example in literary or academic writing), to a few sentences (for example in journalism or letters). A paragraph division is usually shown by starting the text on a new line and 'indenting' (leaving a space at the beginning of the line). The paragraph divisions break the material up into easily 'digestible' sections, providing places where the reader can pause and think for a moment if necessary. And good writers can show the structure of their texts by making paragraph divisions in suitable places, for example when they move to a new stage in a story, a new point in a discussion or a new part of a description.

Bill decided that it was too late to start slimming, and put some more sugar in his coffee. The way things were, he needed all the help he could get. Everything was going wrong at work, everything had already gone wrong at home, and the weather in Edinburgh in November was lousy. The only remaining question was: should he commit suicide now or wait till after payday and get drunk first?

a new stage in the story

Three months ago everything had seemed so perfect. His boss had told him that he had an excellent future with the firm.

There are a lot of advantages to working at home. You don't have to travel to your job, you can choose your own working hours, you can take a day off if you want to, you don't waste time in endless unnecessary meetings, and – perhaps most important of all – you don't have a boss constantly checking up on you.

a new point in the discussion

On the other hand, it can be lonely working by yourself Without colleagues around you . . .

Another practice, common in typed letters and documents, is to leave a blank line without indenting.

Dear Sirs
Three months ago I sent you an order for a set of glasses, together with a cheque in full payment. You wrote acknowledging my order, and said that the glasses would be dispatched within 15 days.

I have still not received the glasses, and repeated telephone calls to your office have had no result . . .

407 part

A is usually dropped before *part of* if there is no adjective.

Part of the roof was missing. (BUT *A large part of the roof was missing.*)
Part of the trouble is that I can't see very well. (More natural than *A part of the trouble . . .*)
Jan was in Australia part of last year.

408 participles (-ing and -ed forms) (1): introduction

1 names

When *-ing* forms are used in certain ways, for example as parts of verb forms, or like adjectives (see below) they are called 'present participles'. Forms like *broken, gone, opened, started* are called 'past participles'. These are not very suitable names: both forms can be used to talk about the past, present or future.

*She was **crying** when I saw her.*
*Who's the man **talking** to Elizabeth?*
*This time tomorrow I'll be **lying** on the beach.*
*It was **broken** in the storm.* *The kids are **excited**.*
*The new school is going to be **opened** next week.*

For the spelling of participles, see 560–562.
For *-ing* forms used like nouns ('gerunds'), in sentences like *Smoking is bad for you*, see 293–299.

2 use

a verb forms

Participles are used with the auxiliary verbs *be* and *have* to make progressive, perfect and passive verb forms.

*It **was raining** when I got home.*
*I've **forgotten** your name.* *You'll **be told** as soon as possible.*

Present and past participles can be put together to make progressive and perfect forms (e.g. *being employed, having arrived, having been invited*).

b adjectives

Participles can be used like adjectives.

*I love the noise of **falling** rain.* *John has become very **boring**.*
*She says she's got a **broken** heart.* *The house looked **abandoned**.*

c adverbs

Sometimes participles are used like adverbs.

*She ran **screaming** out of the room.*

d clauses

Participles can combine with other words into clause-like structures.

*Who's the fat man **sitting in the corner**?*
Having lost all my money, I went home.
*Most of the people **invited to the party** didn't turn up.*
Rejected by all his friends, he decided to become a monk.

For details of these uses, see the following sections.

409 participles (2): active and passive

1 active present participles, passive past participles

When *-ing* forms are used like adjectives or adverbs, they have similar meanings to active verbs.

falling leaves (= leaves that fall)
a meat-eating animal (= an animal that eats meat)
She walked out smiling. (= She was smiling.)

Most past participles have passive meanings when they are used like adjectives or adverbs.

a broken heart (= a heart that has been broken)
He lived alone, forgotten by everybody. (= He had been forgotten by everybody.)

2 *interested* and *interesting* etc

Interested, bored, excited etc say how people feel.
Interesting, boring etc describe the people or things that cause the feelings.
Compare:

– *I was very **interested** in the lesson.* (NOT ~~*I was very interesting in the lesson.*~~)
*The lesson was really **interesting**.* ▸

– *I didn't enjoy the party because I was **bored**.* (NOT ...~~*because I was boring*~~.)
*It was a terribly **boring** party.*
– *The children always get **excited** when Granny comes.* (NOT ~~*The children always get exciting*~~...)
*Granny takes the children to **exciting** places.*
– *His explanations make me very **confused**.* (NOT ...~~*make me very confusing*~~.)
*He's a very **confusing** writer.*

3 exceptions: *a fallen leaf, an escaped prisoner* etc

A few past participles can be used as adjectives with active meanings, especially before nouns. Examples:

*a **fallen** leaf* (= a leaf that has fallen)
*a **advanced** students* (= students who have advanced to a high level, NOT students who have been advanced...)

developed countries	*a grown-up daughter*
increased activity	*an escaped prisoner*
vanished civilisations	*faded colours*
a retired general	*swollen ankles*

Rescuers are still working in the ruins of the collapsed hotel.

4 active past participles: advanced points

Some more past participles can be used with active meanings, but only with adverbs. Examples:

a well-read person (BUT NOT ~~*a read person*~~)
a much-travelled man *recently-arrived immigrants*
The train just arrived at platform six is the delayed 13.15 from Hereford.

Some active past participles can be used after *be*. Examples:

She is retired now. *Those curtains are badly faded.*
My family are all grown up now *This class is the most advanced.*

Recovered, camped, stopped, finished (see 205) and *gone* (see 229) are used in this way after *be*, but not usually before nouns.

Why are all those cars stopped at the crossroads? (BUT NOT... ~~*a stopped car*~~)
I hope you're fully recovered from your operation.
We're camped in the field across the stream.
I'll be finished in a few minutes. *Those days are gone now.*

410 participles (3): details

1 used as adjectives: *an interesting book*

Participles can often be used as adjectives before nouns, or after *be* and other link verbs.

an interesting book	*a lost dog*
a falling leaf	*The upstairs toilet window is broken.*
screaming children	*His idea seems exciting.*

Participles used as adjectives can have objects. Note the word order.

English-speaking Canadians. (NOT ~~*speaking-English Canadians.*~~)

a fox-hunting man *Is that watch self-winding?*

Other compound structures with participles are also common before nouns.

quick-growing trees *government-inspired rumours*

home-made cake *the above-mentioned point*

a recently-built house

2 after nouns: *the people questioned*

We often use participles after nouns in order to define or identify the nouns, in the same way as we use identifying relative clauses (see 495).

We couldn't agree on any of the problems discussed.

(= ... the problems that were discussed.) (NOT ... ~~*the discussed problems.*~~)

The people questioned gave very different opinions.

(= The people who were questioned ...) (NOT ~~*The questioned people*~~ ...)

I watched the match because I knew some of the people playing. (NOT ... ~~*the playing people.*~~)

I got the only ticket left. (NOT ... ~~*the only left ticket.*~~)

Those is often used with a participle to mean 'the ones who are/were'.

Most of those questioned refused to answer.

Those selected will begin training on Monday.

3 differences of meaning

A few participles change their meaning according to their position. Compare:

- *a concerned expression* (= a worried expression)
  the people concerned (= the people who are/were affected)
- *an involved explanation* (= a complicated explanation)
  the people involved (= the same as *the people concerned*)
- *an adopted child* (= a child who is brought up by people who are not his/her biological parents)
  the solution adopted (= the solution that is/was chosen)

4 *much* or *very* with past participles

When a past participle is part of a passive verb, we can put *much* or *very much* before it, but not *very*.

He's (very) much admired by his students. (NOT ... ~~*very admired*~~ ...)

Britain's trade position has been (very) much weakened by inflation.

(NOT ... ~~*very weakened*~~ ...)

When a past participle is used as an adjective, we usually prefer *very*. This is common with words referring to mental states, feelings and reactions.

a very frightened animal (NOT ~~*a much frightened animal*~~)

a very shocked expression

The children were very bored.

She looked very surprised.

Common exceptions:

That's Alice, unless I'm (very) much mistaken. (NOT ... ~~*unless I'm very mistaken.*~~)

He's well known in the art world. (NOT ... ~~*very known*~~ ...) ▸

With *amused, very* and *(very) much* are both possible.

*I was very **amused** / **much amused** / **very much amused** by Miranda's performance.*

5 *frightened by / frightened of*

By is used after passive verbs to introduce the agent (the person or thing that does the action – see 413).

*Most of the damage was caused **by your sister**.*

After past participles that are used like adjectives, we prefer other prepositions. Compare:

- *She was **frightened by** a mouse that ran into the room.*
  (*Frightened* is part of a passive verb referring to an action.)
  *She's always been terribly **frightened of** dying.*
  (*Frightened* is an adjective referring to a state of mind.)
- *The kids were so **excited by** the music that they kept screaming.*
  *Joe's **excited about** the possibility of going to the States.*
- *I was **annoyed by** the way she spoke to me.*
  *I'm **annoyed with** you.*
- *The burglar was **surprised by** the family coming home unexpectedly.*
  *I'm **surprised at/by** your attitude.*
- *He was badly **shocked by** his fall.*
  *We were **shocked at/by** the prices in London.*

Other examples:

*His whereabouts are **known to** the police.*
*The hills are **covered in** snow.*
*The room was **filled with** thick smoke.*

6 special past participle forms

A few older forms of past participles are still used as adjectives before nouns in certain expressions.

***drunken** laughter/singing* etc	***a sunken** wreck/ship* etc
***a shrunken** head*	***rotten** fruit/vegetables* etc

411 participles (4): clauses

1 structures

Participles can combine with other words into participle clauses.

*There's a woman **crying her eyes out over there**.*
*Most of the people **invited to the reception** were old friends.*
*Not **knowing what to do**, I telephoned the police.*
*Served **with milk and sugar**, it makes a delicious breakfast.*

2 after nouns: *the people invited to the party*

Participle clauses can be used after nouns and pronouns.

*We can offer you a job **cleaning cars**.*
*There's Neville, **eating as usual**.*
*In came the first runner, **closely followed by the second**.*
*I found him **sitting at a table covered with papers**.*

Participle clauses are often very like relative clauses (see 494.5), except that they have participles instead of complete verbs.

Who's the girl dancing with your brother? (= ... the girl who is dancing ...)
Anyone touching that wire will get a shock. (= Anyone who touches ...)
Half of the people invited to the party didn't turn up. (= ... who were invited ...)

Perfect participles are not often used in this way.

Do you know anybody who's lost a cat? (NOT ~~*Do you know anybody having lost a cat?*~~)

3 adverbial clauses: *Putting down my paper, I ...*

Participle clauses can also be used in similar ways to full adverbial clauses, expressing condition, reason, time relations, result etc. (This can only happen, of course, when the idea of condition, reason etc is so clear that no conjunction is needed to signal it.) Adverbial participle clauses are usually rather formal.

Used economically, one tin will last for six weeks. (= If it is used ...)
Having failed my medical exams, I took up teaching. (= As I had failed ...)
Putting down my newspaper, I walked over to the window.
(= After I had put down my newspaper, ...)
It rained for two weeks on end, completely ruining our holiday.
(= ... so that it completely ruined our holiday.)

Note that *-ing* clauses can be made with verbs like *be, have, wish* and *know*, which are not normally used in progressive tenses (see 471). In these cases, the participle clause usually expresses reason or cause.

Being unable to help in any other way, I gave her some money.
Not wishing to continue my studies, I decided to become a dress designer.
Knowing her pretty well, I realised something was wrong.

4 subjects; misrelated participles

Normally the subject of an adverbial participle clause is the same as the subject of the main clause in a sentence.

My wife had a talk with Sally, explaining the problem. (*My wife* is the subject of *explaining*.)

It is often considered incorrect to make sentences with 'misrelated participles', where an adverb clause has a different subject from the main clause.

Looking out of the window of our hotel room, there was a wonderful range of mountains. (This could sound as if the mountains were looking out of the window.)

However, sentences like these are common and often seem quite natural, particularly when the main clause has preparatory *it* or *there* as a subject.

Being French, it's surprising that she's such a terrible cook.
Having so little time, there was not much that I could do.

'Misrelated participles' are normal in some fixed expressions referring to the speaker's attitude. Examples:

Generally speaking, men can run faster than women.
Broadly speaking, dogs are more faithful than cats.
Judging from his expression, he's in a bad mood.
Considering everything, it wasn't a bad holiday.
Supposing there was a war, what would you do?
Taking everything into consideration, they ought to get another chance. ▸

5 participle clauses with their own subjects

A participle clause can have its own subject. This happens most often in a rather formal style.

Nobody having any more to say, the meeting was closed.
All the money having been spent, we started looking for work.
A little girl walked past, her doll dragging behind her on the pavement.
Hands held high, the dancers circle to the right.

The subject is often introduced by *with* when the clause expresses accompanying circumstances.

A car roared past with smoke pouring from the exhaust.
With Peter working in Birmingham, and Lucy travelling most of the week, the house seems pretty empty.

6 participle clauses after conjunctions and prepositions

-ing clauses can be used after many conjunctions and prepositions. They are common with *after, before, since, when, while, on, without, instead of, in spite of* and *as*. Note that *-ing* forms after prepositions can often be considered as either participles or gerunds – the dividing line is not clear (see 293).

After talking to you I always feel better.
After having annoyed everybody he went home.
Depress clutch before changing gear.
She's been quite different since coming back from America.
When telephoning from abroad, dial 1865, not 01865.
On being introduced, British people often shake hands.
They left without saying goodbye.
She struck me as being a very nervy kind of person.

Clauses with past participles are possible (mostly in a formal style) after *if, when, while, once* and *until*.

If asked to look after luggage for someone else, inform police at once.
When opened, keep in refrigerator.
Once deprived of oxygen, the brain dies.
Leave in oven until cooked to a light brown colour.

For clauses like *when ready*, see 73.4.

7 object complements

The structure **object + participle (clause)** is used after verbs of sensation (e.g. *see, hear, feel, watch, notice, smell*) and some other verbs (e.g. *find, get, have, make*).

I saw a small girl standing in the goldfish pond.
Have you ever heard a nightingale singing?
I found her drinking my whisky.
We'll have to get the car repaired before Tuesday.
Do you think you can get the radio working?
We'll soon have you walking again.
I can make myself understood pretty well in English.

For more about structures with *see* and *hear*, see 242. For *get*, see 224. For *have*, see 238. For *make*, see 335.

412 passives (1): passive structures and verb forms

1 active and passive structures

Compare:
- *They built this house in 1486.* (active)
  This house was built in 1486. (passive)
- *Austrians speak German.* (active)
  German is spoken in Austria. (passive)
- *A friend of ours is repairing the roof.* (active)
  The roof is being repaired by a friend of ours. (passive)
- *This book will change your life.* (active)
  Your life will be changed by this book. (passive)

When A does something to B, there are often two ways to talk about it. If we want A (the doer) to be the subject, we use an active verb: *built, speak, is repairing.* If we want B (the 'receiver' of the action) to be the subject, we use: *was built, is spoken, is being repaired, will be changed.*

The object of an active verb corresponds to the subject of a passive verb.

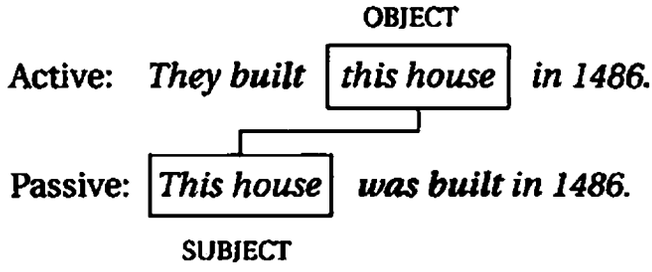

In most cases, the subject of an active verb is not expressed in the corresponding passive sentence. If it does have to be expressed, this usually happens in an expression with *by*; the noun is called the 'agent' (see 413).
This house was built in 1486 by Sir John Latton.

2 passive verb forms

We normally make passive forms of a verb by using tenses of the auxiliary be followed by the past participle (= pp) of the verb. (For *get* as a passive auxiliary, see 223.5.) Here is a list of all the passive forms of an ordinary English verb.

Name	Construction	Example
(simple) future	*will be* +pp	*You'll be told soon enough.*
future perfect	*will have been* +pp	*Everything will have been done by Tuesday*
simple present	*am/are/is* + pp	*English is spoken here.*
present progressive	*am/are/is being* + pp	*Excuse the mess; the house is being painted.*
present perfect	*have/has been* +pp	*Has Mary been told?*
simple past	*was/were* + pp	*I wasn't invited, but I went.*
past progressive	*was/were being* + pp	*I felt as if I was being watched.*
past perfect	*had been* + pp	*I knew why I had been chosen.*

▶

Future progressive passives (***will be being*** + **pp**) and perfect progressive passives (***has been being*** + **pp**) are unusual.
Examples of passive infinitives: *(to) be taken*; *(to) have been invited.*
Examples of passive *-ing* forms: *being watched*; *having been invited.*
Note that verbs made up of more than one word (see 599–600) can have passive forms if they are transitive.

*The furniture **was broken up** for firewood.*
*She likes **being looked at.*** *I need **to be taken care of.***
*He hates **being made a fool of.***

For more about structures with prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

3 use of tenses

Passive tenses are normally used in the same way as active tenses. So for example the present progressive passive is used, like the present progressive active, to talk about things that are going on at the time of speaking (see 464).

*The papers **are being prepared** now.*
*The secretary **is preparing** the papers now.*

And the present perfect passive can be used, like the present perfect active, to talk about finished actions with present consequences (see 455).

*Alex **has been arrested!*** *The police **have arrested** Alex!*

4 verbs not used in the passive

Not all verbs can have passive forms. Passive structures are impossible with intransitive verbs (see 606.2) like *die* or *arrive*, which cannot have objects, because there is nothing to become the subject of a passive sentence. Some transitive verbs, too, are seldom used in the passive. Most of these are 'stative verbs' (verbs which refer to states, not actions). Examples are *fit, have, lack, resemble, suit.*

*They **have** a nice house.* (BUT NOT ~~*A nice house is had by them.*~~)
*My shoes **don't fit** me.* (BUT NOT ~~*I'm not fitted by my shoes.*~~)
*Sylvia **resembles** a Greek goddess.* (BUT NOT ~~*A Greek goddess is resembled by Sylvia.*~~)
*Your mother **lacks** tact.* (BUT NOT ~~*Tact is lacked*~~. . .)
*She **was having** a bath.* (BUT NOT ~~*A bath was being had by her.*~~)

5 confusing forms

Students often confuse active and passive verb forms in English. Typical mistakes:

~~*I was very interesting in the lesson.*~~
~~*We were questioning by the immigration officer.*~~
~~*She has put in prison for life.*~~

Mistakes like these are not surprising, because:
1. *Be* is used to make both passive verb forms and active progressive tenses.
2. Past participles are used to make both passive verb forms and active perfect tenses. Compare:
   He was calling. (active – past progressive)
   He was called. (passive – simple past)
   He has called. (active – present perfect)

For active verb forms, see 10.

413 passives (2): agent

In a passive clause, we usually use *by* to introduce the agent – the person or thing that does the action, or that causes what happens. (Note, however, that agents are mentioned in only about 20 per cent of passive clauses.)

*All the trouble was caused **by your mother**.*
*These carpets are made **by children** who work twelve hours a day.*

Some past participles can be more like adjectives than verbs (see 410): for example *shocked, worried, frightened.* After these, we often use other prepositions instead of *by*.

*I was **shocked at/by** your attitude.*
*We were **worried about/by** her silence.*
*Are you **frightened of** spiders?*

With is used when we talk about an instrument which is used by an agent to do an action (see 119).

*He was shot (by the policeman) **with a rifle**.*

414 passives (3): When do we use passive structures?

1 interest in the action

We often choose passive structures when we want to talk about an action, but are not so interested in saying who or what does/did it. Passives without 'agents' (see 413) are common in academic and scientific writing for this reason.

*Those pyramids were **built** around 400 AD.*
*Too many books **have been written** about the Second World War.*
*The results **have not yet been analysed**.* ▸

2 putting the news at the end

We often prefer to begin a sentence with something that is already known, or that we are already talking about, and to put the 'news' at the end. This is another common reason for choosing passive structures. Compare:

*John's **painting** my portrait.* (active verb so that the 'news' – the portrait – can go at the end)

*Nice picture. ~ Yes, it **was painted** by my grandmother.* (passive verb so that the 'news' – the painter – can go at the end)

3 keeping the same subject

In order to keep talking about the same person or thing, it may be necessary to switch from active to passive and back.

*He **waited** for two hours; then he **was seen** by a doctor; then he **was sent** back to the waiting room. He **sat** there for another two hours – by this time he **was getting angry**. Then he **was taken** upstairs and examined by a specialist, after which he **had to wait** for another hour before he **was allowed** to go home.* (More natural than *He waited for two hours; then a doctor saw him . . .*)

4 putting heavier expressions at the end

Longer and heavier expressions often go at the end of a clause, and this can also be a reason for choosing a passive structure.

*I was annoyed by **Mary wanting to tell everybody what to do.***
(More natural than ***Mary wanting to tell everybody what to do annoyed me*** – the phrase *Mary . . . do* would make a very long subject.)

5 meaning and grammar

Meaning and grammar do not always go together. Not all active verbs have 'active' meanings; for instance, if you say that somebody *receives* something or *suffers*, you are really saying that something is done to him/her. Some English active verbs might be translated by passive or reflexive verbs in certain other languages: e.g. *My shoes **are wearing out**; She **is sitting**; Suddenly the door **opened**.* And some English passives might be translated by active or reflexive verbs: e.g. *I **was born** in 1956; English **is spoken** here.*

Some verbs can be used in both active and passive forms with similar meanings: for example *to worry / to be worried; to drown / to be drowned* (see 165). Sometimes active and passive infinitives can be used with very similar meanings: for example *There's a lot of work to do / to be done* (for details, see 287).

For more about verbs like *open*, see 609.
For more about reflexive verbs, see 493.
For active and passive past participles, see 409.
For *-ing* forms with passive meanings after *need* and *want* (e.g. *My watch needs cleaning*), see 296.3.
For more about the way information is organised in sentences, see 512.

415 passives (4): verbs with two objects

Many verbs, such as *give, send, show, lend, pay, promise, refuse, tell, offer,* can be followed by two objects, an 'indirect object' and a 'direct object'. These usually refer to a person (indirect object) and a thing (direct object). Two structures are possible.

A. verb + indirect object + direct object

She gave her sister the car.
I had already shown the policewoman Sam's photo.

B. verb + direct object + preposition + indirect object

She gave the car to her sister.
I had already shown Sam's photo to the policewoman.

Both of these structures can be made passive.

A. indirect object becomes subject of passive verb

Her sister was given the car.
The policewoman had already been shown Sam's photo.

B. direct object becomes subject of passive verb

The car was given to her sister.
Sam's photo had already been shown to the policewoman.

The choice between the two passive structures may depend on what has been said before, or on what needs to be put last in the sentence (see 414.2,4). Structure A (e.g. *Her sister was given the car.*) is the more common of the two. More examples:

*I've just **been sent** a whole lot of information.*
*You **were lent** ten thousand pounds last year.*
*The visitors **were shown** a collection of old manuscripts.*
*They **are being paid** a lot of money for doing very little.*
*He **was refused** a visa because he had been in prison.*
*We **will** never **be told** the real truth.*
*How much **have you been offered**?*

In structure B (e.g. *The car was given to her sister*), prepositions are sometimes dropped before indirect object pronouns.

This watch was given (to) me by my father.

Explain (see 198) and *suggest* (see 570) cannot be used in structure A.

The problem was explained to the children. (BUT NOT ~~*The children were explained the problem.*~~)
A meeting place was suggested to us. (BUT NOT ~~*We were suggested a meeting place.*~~)

For more details of verbs with two objects, see 610.
For more about prepositional verbs in the passive, see 416.

416 passives (5): verbs with prepositions

1 *look at, listen to, pay for* etc

The objects of prepositional verbs can become subjects in passive structures.

*We have looked **at the plan** carefully.* → ***The plan** has been carefully looked at.*

*Nobody listens **to her**.* → ***She** is never listened to.*

*Somebody has paid **for your meal**.* → ***Your meal** has been paid for.*

Note the word order. The preposition cannot be dropped.

I don't like to be shouted at. (NOT ~~*I don't like to be shouted.*~~)

For more about prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

2 *throw stones at, steal a bicycle from, give flowers to* etc

If there is already a direct object, the second object (after the preposition) cannot become a passive subject.

*They threw **stones at him**.* → ***Stones** were thrown at him.* (BUT NOT ~~*He was thrown stones at.*~~)

*They stole **a bicycle from him**.* → ***A bicycle** was stolen from him.* (BUT NOT ~~*He was stolen a bicycle from.*~~)

*They poured **water on us**.* → ***Water** was poured on us.* (BUT NOT ~~*We were poured water on.*~~)

Note that possessive nouns or pronouns cannot become passive subjects, either.

*They called **Mr Archer's name**.* → ***Mr Archer's name** was called.* (BUT NOT ~~*Mr Archer was name called.*~~)

*I broke **her mirror**.* → ***Her mirror** was broken.* (BUT NOT ~~*She was mirror broken.*~~)

3 *give, send* etc

Verbs like *give, send, lend* can have two objects with no preposition (e.g. *They gave him a gold watch*). For the passive of this structure (e.g. *He was given a gold watch*), see 415.

For structures with *have* + object + past participle (e.g. *We had water poured on us*), see 238, 512.3.

417 passives (6): it was thought that ...

1 clause objects: *Nobody thought that she was a spy*

Some sentences have clauses as their objects. These cannot normally become the subjects of passive sentences.

*Nobody thought **that she was a spy**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That she was a spy was thought by nobody.*~~)

*We felt **that he was the right man for the job**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That he was . . . was felt.*~~)

*The newspapers say **that his company is in trouble**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That his company is in trouble is said . . .*~~)

However, passive structures are often possible with preparatory *it* (see 446).
It was thought that she was a spy.
It was felt that he was the right man for the job.
It is said that his company is in trouble.

2 infinitive objects: *They decided to ...*

A few verbs that are followed by infinitives (for example *decide, agree*) can also be used in passive structures beginning with *it*.
They decided to meet at twelve. → *It was decided to meet at twelve.*
We agreed to open a new branch. → *It was agreed to open a new branch.*
However, most verbs cannot be used in this way.
We hope to make a profit this year. (BUT NOT ~~*It is hoped to make*~~ ...)

418 passives (7): He is believed to be ...

1 object + infinitive: *He asked me to send ...*

Many verbs can be followed by **object + infinitive** (see 283).
He asked me to send a stamped addressed envelope.
We chose Felicity to be the Carnival Queen.
In most cases, these structures can be made passive.
I was asked to send a stamped addressed envelope.
Felicity was chosen to be the Carnival Queen.
We were told not to come back.
They are allowed to visit Harry once a week.

2 verbs of thinking, feeling and saying

With verbs like *think, feel, believe, know* etc, the **object + infinitive** structure is rather formal and often unusual.
They believe him to be dangerous. (more normal: *They believe that ...*)
However, the passive structure (e.g. *He is believed to be ...*) is common, and often occurs in news reports.
He is believed to be dangerous.
Moriarty is thought to be in Switzerland.
She is known to have been married before.
It is considered to be the finest cathedral in Scotland.
Note that with *say*, the infinitive structure is only possible in the passive.
His company is said to be in trouble.
(BUT NOT ~~*They say his company to be in trouble.*~~)

3 *hear, see, make* and *help*

These verbs can be followed, in active structures, by **object + infinitive** without *to* (see 281). In passive structures *to*-infinitives are used. Compare:
- *I saw him come out of the house.*
  He was seen to come out of the house.
- *They made him tell them everything.*
  He was made to tell them everything.
- *They helped him (to) get out of the country.*
  He was helped to get out of the country. ▸

4 preparatory *there*

With some verbs (e.g. *say, think, feel, report, presume, understand*), the passive structure is possible with *there* as a 'preparatory subject'.

There are thought to be more than 3,000 different languages in the world.
(= It is thought that there are . . .)
There was said to be disagreement between Ministers.

5 perfect, progressive and passive infinitives

A passive verb can be followed by a perfect, progressive or passive infinitive.

He is believed to have crossed the frontier last night.
I was told to be waiting outside the station at 6 o'clock.
The hostages are expected to be released today.

6 exceptions: *wanting* and *liking*

Verbs that refer to wanting, liking and similar ideas cannot usually be used in passive structures with following infinitives.

Everybody wanted Doris to be the manager. (BUT NOT ~~*Doris was wanted to be the manager.*~~)
We like our staff to say what they think. (BUT NOT ~~*Our staff are liked to say what they think.*~~)

419 passives (8): he was considered a genius

After some verbs the direct object can be followed by an 'object complement' – a noun or adjective which describes or classifies the object.

Queen Victoria considered him a genius.
They elected Mrs Sanderson President.
We all regarded Kathy as an expert.
Most people saw him as a sort of clown.
The other children called her stupid.
You've made the house beautiful.

In passive clauses these are subject complements; they come after the verb.

He was considered a genius by Queen Victoria.
Mrs Sanderson was elected President.
Kathy was regarded as an expert.
He was seen as a sort of clown.
She was called stupid by the other children.
The house has been made beautiful.

For more about object complements, see 607.

420 passives (9): My suitcase is packed

Some verbs refer to actions that produce a finished result. Examples are *cut, build, pack, close.* Other verbs do not: for example *push, live, speak, hit, carry.* The past participles of finished-result verbs, and some of their passive tenses, can have two meanings. They can refer to the action, or they can describe the result (rather like adjectives). Compare:

*The theatre **was closed** by the police on the orders of the mayor.*
(refers to the action of closing)

*When I got there I found that the theatre **was closed**.*
(refers to the state of being shut – the result of the action)

Because of this, for example, present passive forms can have similar meanings to present perfect passives.

*The vegetables **are all cut up** – what shall I do now?* (= The vegetables have all been cut up . . .)

*I got caught in the rain and my **suit's ruined**.* (= . . . has been ruined.)

*I think your **ankle is broken**.* (= . . . has been broken.)

*My **suitcase is packed**.* (= . . . has been packed.)

421 past (1): simple past (I worked etc)

This form is also called 'past simple'.

1 forms (regular verbs)

Affirmative	Question	Negative
I worked	did I work?	I did not work
you worked	did you work?	you did not work
he/she/it worked	did he/she/it work?	he/she/it did not work
etc	etc	etc

- Contracted negatives (see 143): *I didn't work, you didn't work* etc.
- Negative questions (see 368): *did I not work?* or *didn't I work?* etc.
- For the affirmative past forms of common irregular verbs, see 304.
- Questions and negatives of irregular verbs are made in the same way as those of regular verbs (with ***did*** + **infinitive**).

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *Work was done*), see 412.

2 pronunciation of *-ed*

The regular past ending *-ed* is pronounced as follows:

- /d/ after vowels and voiced consonants (except /d/):
  /ð/, /b/, /v/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/
  tried /traɪd/ *lived* /lɪvd/ *used* /juːzd/ *failed* /feɪld/
- /t/ after unvoiced consonants (except /t/):
  /θ/, /p/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /k/
  stopped /stɒpt/ *passed* /pɑːst/ *laughed* /lɑːft/ *watched* /wɒtʃt/
  worked /wɜːkt/ ▶

- /ɪd/ after /d/ and /t/
  ended /'endɪd/ *started* /'stɑ:tɪd/

For adjectives like *aged, naked*, see 18.

3 spelling of regular affirmative past tense forms

Most regular verbs: add *-ed*	*work → worked* *stay → stayed* *show → showed* *wonder → wondered* *visit → visited* *gallop → galloped*
Verbs ending in *-e*: add *-d*	*hope → hoped* *decide → decided*
Verbs ending in one stressed vowel + one consonant (except *w* or *y*): double the consonant and add *-ed*	*shop → shopped* *plan → planned* *re'fer → referred* *re'gret → regretted*
But (last syllable not stressed):	*'offer → offered* *'visit → visited*
Verbs ending in consonant + *-y*: change *y* to *i* and add *-ed*	*hurry → hurried* *cry → cried* *study → studied*
But (vowel + *-y*):	*play → played*

Verbs ending in *-c* have *ck* in the past (e.g. *picnic → picnicked*).
In British English, *-l* is doubled in the past after one short vowel even if the vowel is not stressed: *'travel → travelled.*

4 use

We use the simple past for many kinds of past events: short, quickly finished actions and happenings, longer situations, and repeated events.

*Peter **broke** a window last night.*
*I **spent** all my childhood in Scotland.*
*Regularly every summer, Janet **fell** in love.*

The simple past is common in stories and descriptions of past events.

*One day the Princess **decided** that she **didn't** like staying at home all day, so she **told** her father that she **wanted** to get a job . . .*

The simple past is often used with words referring to finished times.

*I **saw** John yesterday morning. He **told** me . . .*

In general, the simple past tense is the 'normal' one for talking about the past; we use it if we do not have a special reason for using one of the other tenses.

For the simple past with a present or future meaning (e.g. *It's time you went*), see 426.
For special uses in subordinate clauses, see 580.

simple past with finished time expressions

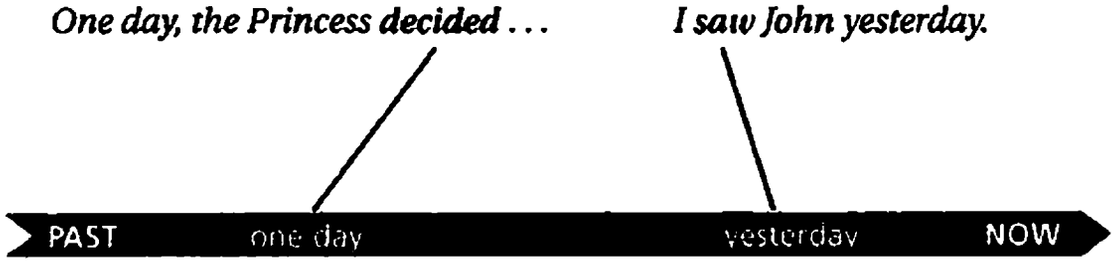

422 past (2): past progressive (I was working etc)

1 forms

was/were + -ing

I was working.
Were you listening to me? *She was not trying.*

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *Work was being done*), see 412.
For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.

2 use: *What were you doing at eight o'clock?*

We use the past progressive to say that something was in progress (going on) around a particular past time.

What were you doing at eight o'clock yesterday evening? ~ I was watching TV. (NOT ~~*What did you do* . . .? ~ *I watched TV.*~~)
When I got up this morning the sun was shining, the birds were singing, . . . (NOT . . . ~~*the sun shone, the birds sang*~~ . . .)

past progressive: things happening around a past time

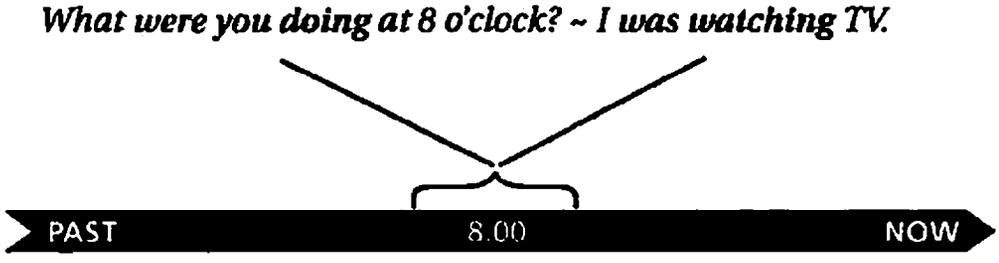

3 past progressive and simple past: 'background' events

We often use the past progressive together with a simple past tense. The past progressive refers to a longer 'background' action or situation; the simple past refers to a shorter action or event that happened in the middle of the longer action, or that interrupted it. ▸

*As I **was walking** down the road, I saw Bill.*
*The phone rang while I **was having** dinner.*
*Mozart **died** while he **was composing** the Requiem.*

past progressive for 'background' events

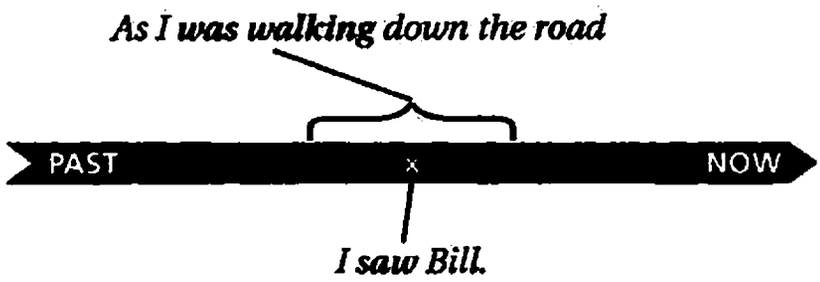

4 not used for repeated actions

The past progressive is not the normal tense for talking about repeated or habitual past actions. The simple past is usually used with this meaning.

*I **rang** the bell six times.* (NOT ~~*I was ringing the bell six times.*~~)
*When I **was** a child we **made** our own amusements.* (NOT ... ~~*we were making our own amusements.*~~)

However, the past progressive is possible if the repeated actions form a 'background' for the main action.

*At the time when it happened, I **was travelling** to New York a lot.*

5 non-progressive verbs: *She said she believed*

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471).

*She said she **believed** Joe was dying.* (NOT ~~*She said she was believing*~~ ...)

6 used for shorter, temporary actions and situations

The past progressive, like other progressive forms (see 470), is used for temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer, more permanent situations we use the simple past. Compare:

- *It happened while I **was living** in Eastbourne last year.*
  *I **lived** in London for ten years while I was a child.*
- *When I got home, water **was running** down the kitchen walls.*
  *When they first discovered the river, they thought it **ran** into the Atlantic.*

7 special uses

Because we often use the past progressive to talk about something that is a 'background', not the main 'news', we can make something seem less important by using this tense. Compare:

*I **had lunch** with the President yesterday.* (important piece of news)
*I **was having lunch** with the President yesterday, and she said ...* (as if there was nothing special for the speaker about lunching with the President)

The past progressive is quite often used with verbs of saying: this gives more relative importance to the following verb – to what is said.

*John **was saying** that he still can't find a job.*

With *always, continually* and similar words, the past progressive can be used for things that happened repeatedly and unexpectedly or in an unplanned way (see 472).

*Aunt Lucy **was always turning up** without warning and bringing us presents.*
*I didn't like him – he **was continually borrowing** money.*

For the 'distancing' use of past progressives (e.g. *I was wondering whether you'd like to come out with me this evening*), see 436.

423 past perfect (1): basic information

This entry deals with the simple past perfect. For the past perfect progressive, see 425.

1 forms

had + past participle

*I **had** forgotten.*
*Where **had** she been?* *It **hadn't** rained for weeks.*

For passives (e.g. *The work had been done*), see 412.

2 meaning and use: earlier past

The basic meaning of the past perfect is 'earlier past'. A common use is to 'go back' for a moment when we are already talking about the past, to make it clear that something had already happened at the time we are talking about.

*During our conversation, I realised that we **had met** before.* (NOT ~~*I realised that we met before*~~ OR ... ~~*have met before.*~~)
*When I arrived at the party, Lucy **had** already **gone** home.* (NOT ... ~~*Lucy already went home.*~~ OR ... ~~*has already gone home.*~~)

The past perfect is common after past verbs of saying and thinking, to talk about things that had happened before the saying or thinking took place.

*I told her that I **had finished**.* (NOT ... ~~*that I (have) finished.*~~)
*I wondered who **had** left the door open.*
*I thought I **had** sent the cheque a week before.*

past perfect: we are already talking about the past, and want to talk about an earlier past

*When I **arrived** at the party, Lucy **had** already **gone** home.*

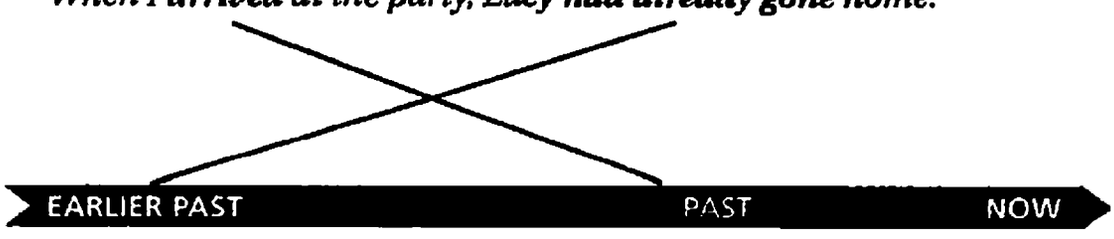

3 past perfect not used

The past perfect is normally only used as described above. The past perfect is not used simply to say that something happened some time ago, or to give a past reason for a present situation.

Alex Cary, who worked for my father in the 1980s, is now living in Greece. (NOT ~~*Alex Cary, who had worked for my father*~~...)

I left some photos to be developed. Are they ready yet? (NOT ~~*I had left some photos*~~...)

4 unreal events: *if* etc

After *if* (see 259), *wish* (see 630) and *would rather* (see 491), the past perfect can be used to talk about past events that did not happen.

If I had gone to university I would have studied medicine.

I wish you had told me the truth.

I'd rather she had asked me before borrowing the car.

5 how long? past perfect, not simple past.

We use a past perfect, not a simple past, to say how long something had continued up to a past moment. A simple past perfect is used with 'non-progressive verbs' like *be, have* and *know.*

She told me that her father had been ill since Christmas. (NOT ...~~*that her father was ill since Christmas.*~~)

I was sorry to sell my car. I had had it since College. (NOT ...~~*I had it since College.*~~)

When they got married, they had known each other for 15 years. (NOT ... ~~*they knew each other for 15 years.*~~)

With most other verbs, we use the past perfect progressive for this meaning (see 425).

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

424 past perfect (2): advanced points

1 past perfect or simple past with *after, as soon as,* etc

We can use time conjunctions (e.g. *after, as soon as, when, once*) to talk about two actions or events that happened one after the other. Usually the past perfect is not necessary in these cases, because we are not 'going back' from the time that we are mainly talking about, but simply moving forward from one event to the next.

After it got dark, we came back inside.

As soon as Jane arrived, we sat down to eat.

Once it stopped raining, we started the game again.

However, we can use the past perfect with *after, as soon as* etc to emphasise that the first action is separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started.

She didn't feel the same after her dog had died.

As soon as he had finished his exams, he went to Paris for a month.

This use of the past perfect is especially common with *when*. (*When* has several meanings, so we often have to show the exact time relations by the verb form.) Compare:

– *When I **had opened** the windows, I sat down and had a cup of tea.*
(NOT ~~*When I opened the windows, I sat down*~~. . .: the first action was quite separate from the second.)
*When I **opened** the window, the cat jumped out.* (More natural than *When I had opened the window, . . .*: one action caused the other.)

– *When I **had written** my letters, I did some gardening.* (NOT ~~*When I wrote my letters, I did some gardening*~~.)
*When I **wrote** to her, she came at once.*

2 unrealised hopes and wishes; things that did not happen

The past perfect can be used to express an unrealised hope, wish etc. *Had* is usually stressed in this case.

*I HAD **hoped** we would leave tomorrow, but it won't be possible.*
*He HAD **intended** to make a cake, but he ran out of time.*

3 past perfect with *It was the first/second . . . that . . .*

We use a past perfect after *it was the first/second . . . that . . .* and similar structures (see 591).

*It was **the first time** that I **had heard** her sing.* (NOT . . . ~~*that I heard*~~. . .)
*It was **the fifth time** she **had asked** the same question.* (NOT . . . ~~*she asked*~~. . .)
*It was only **the second opera** I **had seen** in my life.* (NOT . . . ~~*I saw*~~. . .)

For the past perfect with *before* (e.g. *He went out before I had finished my sentence*), see 97.3.

425 past perfect (3): progressive

1 forms: *had been + -ing*

*I had **been** working.* *Where had she **been** staying?*
*They hadn't **been** listening.*

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.

2 use

We use the past perfect progressive to talk about actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it.

*At that time we **had been** living in the caravan for about six months.*
*When I found Mary, I could see that she **had been** crying.*
*I went to the doctor because I **had been** sleeping badly.* ▸

past perfect progressive: actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it

*I **went** to the doctor because I **had been sleeping** badly.*

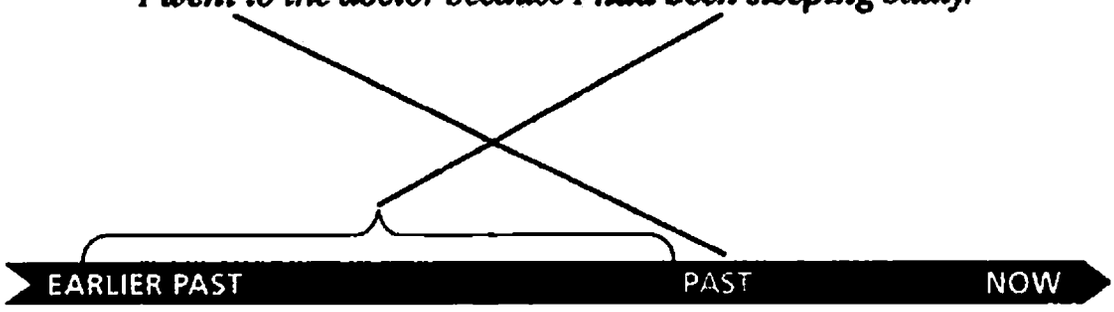

3 *how long?* past perfect progressive, not past progressive

We use a past perfect progressive, not a past progressive, to say how long something had been happening up to a past moment.

*We'd **been walking** since sunrise, and we were hungry.* (NOT ~~*We were walking since sunrise*~~ . . .)

*When she arrived, she **had been travelling** for twenty hours.* (NOT . . . ~~*she was travelling*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

4 progressive and simple: differences

Progressive forms are mostly used to talk about more temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer-lasting or permanent situations we prefer simple forms. Compare:

*My legs were stiff because I **had been standing** still for a long time.*

*The tree that blew down **had stood** there for 300 years.*

Progressive forms generally emphasise the continuation of an activity; we use simple tenses to emphasise the idea of completion. Compare:

*I **had been reading** science fiction, and my mind was full of strange images.*

*I **had read** all my magazines, and was beginning to get bored.*

Some verbs are not normally used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is one for which a progressive form would be more suitable.

*I **hadn't known** her for very long when we got married.* (NOT ~~*I hadn't been knowing her*~~ . . .)

426 past verb form with present or future meaning

A past tense does not always have a past meaning. In some kinds of sentence we can use verbs like *I had, you went* or *I was wondering* to talk about the present or future.

1 after conjunctions, instead of *would*

In most subordinate clauses (e.g. after *if, supposing, wherever, what*), we use past tenses (and not *would* . . .) to express 'unreal' or conditional ideas (see 580.6).

*If I **had** the money now I'd buy a car.*
*If you **caught** the ten o'clock train tomorrow you would be in Edinburgh by supper-time, unless the train **was** delayed, of course.*
*You look as if you **were** just about to scream.*
*Supposing we **didn't go** on holiday next year?*
*Would you follow me wherever I **went**?*
*In a perfect world, you would be able to say exactly what you **thought**.*
*Ten o'clock – it's time (that) you **went** home.*
*Don't come and see me today – I'd rather (that) you **came** tomorrow.*
*I wish (that) I **had** a better memory.*

2 distancing in questions, requests etc

We can make questions, requests and offers less direct (and so more polite) by using past tenses. (For more about 'distancing' of this kind, see 436.) Common formulae are *I wondered, I thought, I hoped, did you want.*

*I **wondered** if you **were** free this evening.*
*I **thought** you might like some flowers.*
*Did you **want** cream with your coffee, sir?*

Past progressive forms (*I was thinking/wondering/hoping* etc) make sentences even less direct.

*I **was thinking** about that idea of yours.*
*I **was hoping** we could have dinner together.*

3 'past' modals

The 'past' modal forms *could, might, would* and *should* usually have present or future reference; they are used as less direct, 'distanced' forms of *can, may, will* and *shall.*

Could you help me for a moment?
*I think it **might** rain soon.*
Would you come this way, please?
*Alice **should** be here soon.*

4 past focus on continuing situations

If we are talking about the past, we usually use past tenses even for things which are still true and situations which still exist.

*Are you deaf? I asked how old you **were**.*
*I'm sorry we left Liverpool. It **was** such a nice place.*
*Do you remember that nice couple we met on holiday? They **were** German, **weren't** they?*
*I got this job because I **was** a good driver.*
*Bill applied to join the police last week, but he **wasn't** tall enough.*

For more indirect speech examples, see 275, 278.

427 perfect verb forms

1 construction

Perfect verb forms are made with ***have*** + **past participle.**

*She **has lost** her memory.* (present perfect)
*They **have been living** in France for the last year.* (present perfect progressive)
*I told him that I **had** never **heard** of the place.* (past perfect)
*When I went back to the village the house **had been pulled** down.* (past perfect passive)
*We **will have finished** by tomorrow afternoon.* (future perfect tense)
*I'm sorry to **have disturbed** you.* (perfect infinitive)
Having seen the film, I don't want to read the book. (perfect *-ing* form)

2 terminology and use

A perfect verb form generally shows the time of an event as being earlier than some other time (past, present or future). But a perfect form does not only show the time of an event. It also shows how the speaker sees the event – perhaps as being connected to a later event, or as being completed by a certain time. Because of this, grammars often talk about 'perfect aspect' rather than 'perfect tenses'.

For details of the use of the various perfect verb forms, see the individual entries in the book.

428 personal pronouns (1): basic information

1 terminology and use

The words *I, me, you, he, him, she, her, it, we, us, they* and *them* are usually called 'personal pronouns'. (This is a misleading name: *it, they* and *them* refer to things as well as people.)
Personal pronouns are used when more exact noun phrases are not necessary.

I'm tired. (*I* replaces the name of any speaker.)
John's ill. He'll be away for a few days. (NOT ...~~*John'll be away*~~...)
Tell Mary I miss her. (NOT ~~*Tell Mary I miss Mary.*~~)

2 subject and object forms: *I* and *me, he* and *him* etc

Personal pronouns (except *you*) have one form when they are used as subjects, and a different form for other uses – for example, when they are the objects of verbs or prepositions.

Subject:	I	he	she	we	they
Object:	me	him	her	us	them

Compare:

– *I like dogs.*
*Dogs don't like **me**.*

– *We sent **her** some flowers.*
*She sent **us** some flowers.*

3 other uses of object forms: *It was her*

Me, him, her, us and *them* are used not only as objects, but also as complements after *be*, and in short answers, especially in an informal style.

Who said that? ~ (It was) her.
Who's there? ~ Me.

In a more formal style, we use **subject form + verb** where possible.

Who said that? ~ She did. (BUT NOT ~~*She.*~~)

It is possible to use a subject form alone after *be* (e.g. *It is I; It was he*), but this is extremely formal, and is usually considered over-correct.

Object forms are also common in double subjects in informal speech.

John and me are going skiing this weekend.

This is considered incorrect in more formal usage (see 429.1).

For sentences like *It's me that needs help*, see 429.3.

4 Personal pronouns cannot be left out

We cannot normally leave out personal pronouns, even if the meaning is clear without them (for some exceptions, see 429.11).

It's raining. (NOT ~~*Is raining.*~~)
She loved the picture because it reminded her of home. (NOT ...~~*because reminded her of home.*~~)
They arrested Alex and put him in prison. (NOT ...~~*and put in prison.*~~)
Have some chocolate. ~ No, I don't like it. (NOT ...~~*I don't like.*~~)

5 One subject is enough

One subject is enough. We do not usually use a personal pronoun to repeat a subject that comes in the same clause.

My car is parked outside. (NOT ~~*My car it is parked outside.*~~)
The boss really gets on my nerves. (NOT ~~*The boss he really gets on my nerves.*~~)
The situation is terrible. (NOT ~~*It is terrible the situation.*~~)

There are exceptions in very informal speech (see 514).

He's not a bad bloke, Jeff.
It's a horrible place, London.

For *it* as a preparatory subject or object, see 446–447.

6 personal and relative pronouns: *she* or *who*, not both

We do not use personal pronouns to repeat the meaning of relative pronouns (see 494.7).

That's the girl who lives in the flat upstairs. (NOT ...~~*who she lives*~~...)
Here's the money (that) you lent me. (NOT ...~~*(that) you lent me it.*~~)

7 *it* referring to *nothing*, the situation, etc.

It not only refers to the names of particular things. We can also use *it* to refer to indefinite pronouns like *nothing, anything, everything.*

Nothing happened, did it?
Everything's all right, isn't it? ▸

It can also refer to a whole fact, event or situation.
Our passports were stolen. It completely ruined our holiday.
I did all I could, but it wasn't enough.
It's terrible – everybody's got colds, and the central heating isn't working.
Wasn't it lovely there!

8 *it* as 'empty' subject: *it's ten o'clock*

We use *it* as a meaningless subject with expressions that refer to time, weather, temperature or distances.
It's ten o'clock. (NOT ~~*Is ten o'clock.*~~) *It's Monday again.*
It rained for three days. *It's thirty degrees.*
It's ten miles to the nearest petrol station.

9 *it* used to identify

We use *it* for a person when we are identifying him or her.
Who's that over there? ~ *It's John Cook.* (NOT ~~*He's John Cook.*~~)
Is that our waiter? ~ *No, it isn't.* (NOT ~~*No, he isn't.*~~)
On the phone: *Hello. It's Alan Williams.* (NOT ... ~~*I'm Alan Williams.*~~)
It's your sister who plays the piano, isn't it?

10 *we women, you men*

We and plural *you* (but not other personal pronouns) can be put directly before nouns.
We women know things that you men will never understand.
(BUT NOT ~~*I woman know*~~ ... OR ~~*They men will never*~~ ...)

For *you* used for people in general, see 396.
For the personal pronoun *one*, see 396.
For the use of *he* and *she* to refer to animals, ships etc, see 222.
For *they, them, their* with singular reference, see 528.
For the interrogative personal pronoun *who(m)*, see 623.

429 personal pronouns (2): advanced points

1 *John and me went; us women understand; between you and I*

We often use object forms in double subjects in informal speech.
John and me are going skiing this weekend.
Me and the kids spent Sunday at the swimming pool.
Us is sometimes used as a subject together with a noun.
Us women understand these things better than you men.
And *I* is often used informally in double objects.
Between you and I, I think his marriage is in trouble.
That's a matter for Peter and I.
I often think of the old days and how you helped Bertie and I. (letter from Queen Elizabeth, wife of the future King George VI, to King Edward VIII).
These structures are often condemned as 'incorrect', but they have been common in educated speech for centuries. (There are examples of *me* in double subjects in Jane Austen's novels, written around 1800.) They are, however, restricted to a very informal style. They are not correct in formal speech or writing.

2 *as, than, but* and *except* + *me* or *I*

After *as* and *than*, object forms are generally used in an informal style.
My sister's nearly as tall as me.
I can run faster than her.
In a more formal style, subject forms are used, usually followed by verbs.
My sister's nearly as tall as I am.
I can run faster than she can.
But (meaning 'except') and *except* are followed by object forms (see 116, 194).
Nobody but me knew the answer. (NOT ~~*Nobody but I*~~...)
Everybody except him can come.

3 *It is/was me that ... / I who ...*

When a relative clause comes after an expression like *It is/was me/I*, there are two possibilities:

object form + *that* (very informal)

It's me that needs your help.
It was him that told the police.

subject form + *who* (very formal)

It is I who need your help.
It was he who told the police.
We can avoid being too formal or too informal by using a different structure.
He was the person / the one who told the police.

4 mixed subject and object: *It's for him to decide*

Sometimes a pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition, but the subject of a following infinitive or clause. Normally an object form is used in this case.
It's for him to decide. (NOT ~~*It's for he to decide.*~~)
I think it's a good idea for you and me to meet soon.
(Considered more correct than ... *for you and I to meet soon.*)
Everything comes to him who waits.
(Considered more correct than ... *to he who waits.*)

5 inclusive and exclusive *we*

Note that *we* and *us* can include or exclude the listener or reader. Compare:
Shall we go and have a drink? (*We* includes the listener.)
We're going for a drink. Would you like to come with us?
(*We* and *us* exclude the listener.)

6 *us* meaning 'me'

In very informal British speech, *us* is quite often used instead of *me* (especially as an indirect object).
Give us a kiss, love.

7 *Poor you!*

You can be modified by adjectives in a few informal expressions such as *Poor/Clever/Lucky (old) you!* (This occasionally happens also with *me*.) ▸

8 *you*: different singular and plural forms

Although standard modern English uses *you* for both singular and plural, separate forms exist in certain varieties of English. Some speakers in Yorkshire use *thu* or *tha* as a singular subject form and *thee* as a singular object form. Some Irish and Scottish dialects have a separate plural form *ye, youse* or *yiz*. Many Americans (and increasingly, British people) use *you folks* or *you guys* (to both men and women) as an informal second-person plural.

Hi, you guys. Listen to this.

In southern US speech there is a second-person plural form *you all* (pronounced *y'all*), used instead of *you* when people wish to sound friendly or intimate; there is also a possessive *you all's* (pronounced *y'all's*).

Hi, everybody. How're you all doing? What are you all's plans for Thanksgiving?

For the older English forms *thee* and *thou*, see 392.

9 *he/she who ...*

The structure *he/she who ...* (meaning 'the person who ...') is found in older literature.

He who hesitates is sometimes lost.

But this is very unusual in modern English.

The person who leaves last should lock the door. OR *Whoever leaves last ...* (NOT ~~*He/She who leaves last* ...~~)

10 politeness

It is considered polite to use names or noun phrases, rather than *he, she* or *they*, to refer to people who are present.

Dad said I could go out. ~*No, I didn't.* (More polite than *He said I could go out.*)

This lady needs an ambulance.

However, pronouns need to be used to avoid repetition (see 500).

Dad said he didn't mind ... (NOT ~~*Dad said Dad didn't mind* ...~~)

It is considered polite to mention oneself last in double subjects or objects.

Why don't you and I go away for the weekend? (NOT ~~*Why don't I and you* ...?~~)

The invitation was for Tracy and me. (More polite than ... *for me and Tracy.*)

11 leaving out personal pronouns

Personal pronouns cannot usually be left out (see 428.4).

She loved the picture because it reminded her of home. (NOT ~~... *because reminded her of home.*~~)

However, in informal speech, subject pronouns and/or auxiliary verbs are sometimes left out at the beginning of a sentence. For details of this, see 179.

Can't help you, I'm afraid. (= I can't ...)

Seen Paul? (= Have you seen Paul?)

We seldom put *it* after *know*. See 313 for details.

It's getting late. ~*I know.* (NOT ~~*I know it.*~~)

After certain verbs (e.g. *believe, think, suppose*), we use *so* rather than *it*. (For details, see 539.)

Is that the manager? ~I believe so. (NOT ... *I believe (it).*)

And personal pronouns can be dropped after prepositions in descriptive structures with *have* and *with*.

All the trees have got blossom on (them).
He was carrying a box with cups in (it).

Object pronouns are not normally used in infinitive clauses if the object of the infinitive has just been mentioned (see 284.4).

She's easy to please. (NOT ~~*She's easy to please her.*~~)
The pie looked too nice to eat. (NOT ...~~*too nice to eat it.*~~)
The bridge wasn't strong enough to drive over. (NOT ...~~*to drive over it.*~~)
This dish takes two hours to prepare.

430 piece- and group-words

1 uncountable nouns: pieces

To talk about a limited quantity of something we can use a word for a piece or unit, together with *of*, before an uncountable noun. The most general words of this kind are *piece* and *bit*. *Bit* (informal) suggests a small quantity.

a piece/bit of cake/bread
some pieces/bits of paper/wood
a piece/bit of news/information

Other words are less general, and are used before particular nouns. Some common examples:

a bar of chocolate/soap
a blade of grass
a block of ice
a drop of water/oil/vinegar
a grain of sand/salt/rice/corn/truth
an item of information/news/clothing/furniture
a length of material
a loaf of bread
a lump of sugar/coal
a slice of bread/cake/meat
a speck of dust
a sheet of paper/metal/plastic
a stick of dynamite/chalk/celery
a strip of cloth/tape/land
a suit of clothes/armour

2 *not a ... of ...*

Some words for small pieces can be used in a negative structure meaning 'no ... at all'.

There's not a grain of truth in what he says.
There hasn't been a breath of air all day.
We haven't got a scrap (of food) to eat.
He came downstairs without a stitch of clothing on.

3 pairs

Pair is used for many things that normally go in twos, and with plural nouns that refer to some two-part objects (see 524.7).

a pair of shoes/socks/ear-rings
a pair of glasses/binoculars
a pair of trousers/jeans/pyjamas
a pair of scissors/pliers

▸

4 plural nouns: collections

Special words are used before certain plural nouns to talk about groups or collections.

a bunch of flowers *a crowd of people* *a flock of sheep/birds*
a herd of cattle/goats *a pack of cards* (AmE *a deck of cards*)

Set is used before many uncountable and plural nouns referring to groups which contain a fixed number of things.

a set of cutlery/napkins/dishes/tyres/sparking plugs/spanners

For *a bit* as a modifier before adjectives and adverbs, see 107.
For *an amount, a lot, a large number* etc, see 333.
For *sort, type, kind* etc, see 551.

431 place: a place to live, etc

In an informal style, *place* can often be followed directly by an infinitive or relative clause, with no preposition or relative word.

I'm looking for a place to live. (More formal: ... *a place to live in* or ... *a place in which to live.*)
There's no place to sit down.
You remember the place we had lunch? (= ... *the place (that) we had lunch at?* OR ... *the place where we had lunch?*)

We do not use *a place where* before an infinitive.

I'm looking for a place (where) I can wash my clothes. (NOT ... ~~*a place where to wash my clothes.*~~)

'Go places' (informal) means 'become very successful in life'.

That boy's going to go places, believe me.

For similar structures with *way, time* and *reason*, see 498.6.

432 play and game

1 nouns

A *play* is a piece of dramatic literature for the theatre, radio or television.

'Julius Caesar' is one of Shakespeare's early plays.

A *game* is an activity like, for example, chess, football or bridge.

Chess is a very slow game. (NOT ... ~~*a very slow play.*~~)

The uncountable noun *play* can be used to mean 'playing' in general.

Children learn a great deal through play.

2 verbs

People *act* in plays or films, and *play* games or musical instruments.

My daughter is acting in her school play this year.
Have you ever played rugby football?

Play can be used with the same meaning as *act* before the name of a character in a play or film.

I'il never forget seeing Olivier play Othello.

433 please and thank you

1 requests

We use *please* to make requests more polite.

Could I have some more rice, please?
Would you like some help? ~ Yes, please.

Note that *please* does not change an order into a request. Compare:

Stand over there. (order)
Please stand over there. (more polite order)
Could you stand over there, please? (polite request)

Please do is a rather formal answer to a request for permission.

Do you mind if I open the window? ~ Please do.

2 when *please* is not used

We do not use *please* to ask people what they have said.

I've got a bit of a headache. ~ I beg your pardon?
(NOT ... ~~*Please?*~~)

We do not use *please* when we give things to people.

Have you got a pen I could use? ~ Yes, here you are.
(NOT ... ~~*Please.*~~)

Please is not used as an answer to *Thank you* (see below).

Thanks a lot. ~ That's OK. (NOT ... ~~*Please.*~~)

3 *thank you* and *thanks*

Thanks is more informal than *thank you.* Common expressions:

Thank you. (NOT ~~*Thanks you.*~~)
Thank you very much.
Thanks very much.
Thanks a lot. (BUT NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)
Thank God it's Friday. (NOT ~~*Thanks God*~~ ...)

Indeed (see 273) can be used to strengthen *very much.*

Thank you very much indeed. (BUT NOT USUALLY ~~*Thank you indeed.*~~)

Thank you for / Thanks for can be followed by an *-ing* form. Possessives are unnecessary and are not used.

Thank you for coming. ~ Not at all. Thank you for having me. (NOT ~~*Thank you for your coming.*~~)

Some people say *Cheers* to mean *Thanks.*

4 accepting and refusing

We often use *Thank you / Thanks* like *Yes, please,* to accept offers.

Would you like some potatoes? ~ Thank you. ~ How many?

To make it clear that one wishes to refuse something, it is normal to say *No, thank you / No, thanks.*

Another cake? ~ No, thanks. I've eaten too many already.

Yes, thanks is most often used to confirm that things are all right.

Have you got enough potatoes? ~ Yes, thanks. ▸

5 replies to thanks

In English, there is not an automatic answer to *Thank you*; British people, especially, do not usually answer when they are thanked for small things. If a reply is necessary, we can say *Not at all* (rather formal), *You're welcome*, *That's (quite) all right* or *That's OK* (informal). Some people say *No problem* (informal). Compare:

Could you pass the salt? ~ *Here you are.* ~ *Thanks.* ~ (no answer)
Here's your coat. ~ *Thanks.* ~ (no answer)
Thanks so much for looking after the children. ~ ***That's all right. Any time.*** (answer necessary)

For more about the language of common social situations, see 545.

434 point of view

Point of view can mean the same as *opinion*.

*Thank you for giving us your **point of view** / **opinion**.*

But *from somebody's **point of view*** is not quite the same *as in somebody's view/ opinion*. It usually means 'as seen from somebody's position in life' (for example as a student, a woman, a Greek or a Catholic), and is used to say how somebody is affected by what happens. Compare:

- ***In my opinion**, war is always wrong.* (= I think war ...)
  (NOT ~~*From my point of view, war is always wrong*~~.)
  *He wrote about the war **from the point of view** of the ordinary soldier.*
- ***In my view**, it's a pretty good school.*
  *You have to judge a school **from the child's point of view**.*
- ***In Professor Lucas's opinion**, everybody should work a 20-hour week.*
  ***From the employers' point of view**, this would cause a lot of problems.*

435 politeness (1): using questions

1 requests: *Could you ...?*

We usually ask people to do things for us by making *yes/no* questions. (This suggests that the hearer can choose whether to agree or not.)

Could you tell me the time, please? (much more polite than *Please tell me the time.*)

Some other typical structures used in requests:

Could you possibly tell me the way to the station? (very polite)
Would you mind switching on the TV?
Would you like to help me for a few minutes?
You couldn't lend me some money, could you? (informal)

Indirect *yes/no* questions are also used in polite requests.

I wonder if you could (possibly) help me for a few minutes.

2 other structures: telling people to do things

If we use other structures (for example imperatives, *should*, *had better*), we are not asking people to do things, but telling or advising them to do things. These structures can therefore seem rude if we use them in requests, especially in

conversation with strangers or people we do not know well. *Please* makes an order or instruction a little more polite, but does not turn it into a request. The following structures can be used perfectly correctly to give orders, instructions or advice, but they are not polite ways of requesting people to do things.

Please answer by return of post.
Please help me for a few minutes.
Help me, would you?
Carry this for me, please.
You ought to tell me your plans.
You should shut the door.
You had better help me.

3 shops, restaurants etc

Requests in shops, restaurants etc are usually more direct, and are not always expressed as questions. Typical structures:

Can I have one of those, please?
Could I have a look at the red ones?
I'd like to see the wine list, please.
I would prefer a small one.

Give me . . ., please and *I want . . ., please* are not normally considered polite. But in places where only a few kinds of thing are sold and not much needs to be said, it is enough just to say what is wanted and add *please*.

'The Times', please.
Black coffee, please.
Two cheeseburgers, please.
Return to Lancaster, please.

4 negative questions

Negative questions (see 368) are not used in polite requests.

Could you give me a light? (NOT ~~*Couldn't you give me a light?*~~ – this sounds like a complaint!)

But negative statements with question tags are used in informal requests.

You couldn't give me a light, could you?
I don't suppose you could give me a light, could you? (very polite)

5 expressions of opinion

Expressions of opinion can also be made less direct by turning them into questions. Compare:

It would be better to paint it green. (direct expression of opinion)
Wouldn't it be better to paint it green? (less direct: negative question asking for agreement)
Would it be better to paint it green? (open question – very indirect)

For other rules of 'social language', see 545.

436 politeness (2): distancing verb forms

1 past tenses: *How much did you want to spend?*

We can make requests (and also questions, suggestions and statements) less direct (and so more polite) by using verb forms that suggest 'distance' from the immediate present reality. Past tenses are often used to do this.

How much did you want to spend, sir? (meaning 'How much do you want to spend?')
How many days did you intend to stay? (meaning '. . . do you intend . . .')
I wondered if you were free this evening. ▸

2 progressives: *I'm hoping ...*

Progressive forms can be used in the same way. They sound more casual and less definite than simple forms, because they suggest something temporary and incomplete.

*I'm **hoping** you can lend me £10.* (less definite than *I hope ...*)
*What time **are** you **planning** to arrive?* (more casual-sounding than *Please let us know what time you plan to arrive.*)
*I'm **looking forward** to seeing you again.* (more casual than *I look forward ...*)
*I'm afraid we must **be going**.*

Past progressives give two levels of distancing.

*Good morning. I **was wondering**: have you got two single rooms?*
*Were you **looking** for anything special?* (in a shop)
*I **was thinking** – what about borrowing Jake's car?*

3 future: *You'll need to ...*

Another way to distance something is to displace it into the future. *Will need/ have to* can be used to soften instructions and orders.

*I'm afraid you'll **need** to fill in this form.*
*I'll **have to** ask you to wait a minute.*

And *will* is sometimes used to say how much money is owed.

*That **will be** £1.65, please.*

Future progressive verbs are often used to enquire politely about people's plans (see 220).

*Will you **be going** away at the weekend?*

4 modal verbs: *would, could* and *might*

The modal verbs *would, could* and *might* also make questions, requests and suggestions less direct.

*I thought it **would** be nice to have a picnic.*
Hi! I thought I'd come over and introduce myself My name's Andy.
Could you give me a hand?
Could I ask you to translate this for me?
We could ask Peter to help us.
*I was wondering if you **might** be interested in a game of tennis.*
*I came in and ordered some shoes from you. ~ Oh yes, sir. When **would** that have been, exactly?*

Would is very often used to form requests and offers with verbs like *like* and *prefer*.

*What **would** you like to drink?*

Note the common use of *would* before verbs of saying and thinking, to make a statement sound less definite.

*I **would** say we'd do better to catch the earlier train.*
*This is what I **would** call annoying.*
*I **would** think we might stop for lunch soon.*
*I'm surprised you didn't like the film. I **would** have thought it was just your kind of thing.*
*We **would** ask passengers to have their tickets ready for inspection.*

5 conditional and negative expressions

Another way of distancing suggestions from reality is to make them conditional or negative.

It would be better if we turned it the other way up.
What if we stayed at home for a change?
Suppose I gave Alice a call?
If you would come this way . . .
I wonder if you could lend me £5?
I don't suppose you want to buy a car, do you?
You wouldn't like to come out with us, by any chance?
You couldn't take the children to school, could you? (BUT NOT ~~*Couldn't you take the children to school?*~~ This sounds like a complaint – see 435.4.)

437 politeness (3): softening expressions

1 *quite, maybe, I think* etc

We can express our opinions and intentions less directly (and therefore more politely) by using softening expressions like *quite, rather, kind of, a bit, maybe* etc.

He's quite difficult to understand, isn't he?
I find her rather bossy, don't you?
This music's kind of boring.
The food's a bit expensive.
Maybe I'll go for a walk now.

For more examples, see 157.16.

2 *I think I'll . . .*

We can say that we are thinking of doing things, instead of expressing our intentions directly.

I think I'll go to bed in a few minutes.
I'm thinking of going to London tomorrow.
I'd quite like to start thinking about going home.

3 *We would like to . . .*

In a formal style, requests, invitations, suggestions etc are often introduced by *would like* instead of being expressed directly.

We would like to invite you to give a talk to our members on June 14th.
I'd like to suggest that we take a vote.
I would like to congratulate you on your examination results.

438 politics and policy

Politics (usually singular but always with *-s* – see 524.3) is used to talk about government and related ideas.

I don't know much about politics, but I don't think this is a democracy.
You talk beautifully – you should be in politics. ▸

Policy is used for people's rules of behaviour (not necessarily connected with politics).

*After the war, British foreign **policy** was rather confused.* (NOT ...~~British foreign politics~~...)

*It's not my **policy** to believe everything I hear.*

*It's the firm's **policy** to employ a certain number of handicapped people.*

439 possessives (1): noun + 's (forms)

1 spelling

singular noun + *'s*	*my **father's** car*
plural noun + *'*	*my **parents'** house*
irregular plural + *'s*	*the **children's** room, **men's** clothes, **women's** rights, an old **people's** home*

We sometimes just add an apostrophe (') to a singular noun ending in *-s*, especially in literary and classical references.

Socrates' ideas. *Dickens's novels*

But *'s* is more common.

Mr Lewis's dog

We can add *'s* or *'* to a whole phrase.

the man next door's wife

Henry the Eighth's six wives

the Smiths' new house

Note the difference between, for example:

Joe and Ann's children (one lot of children: Joe and Ann are their parents)

Joe's and Ann's children (two separate lots of children: Joe's and Ann's)

2 pronunciation

The ending *'s* is pronounced just like a plural ending (see 525).

doctor's /ˈdɒktəz/ *Madge's* /ˈmædʒɪz/

dog's /dɒgz/ *Alice's* /ˈælɪsɪz/

president's /ˈprezɪdənts/ *James's* /ˈdʒeɪmzɪz/ *Jack's* /dʒæks/

The apostrophe in a word like *parents'* does not change the pronunciation at all. But with singular classical (ancient Greek and Roman) names ending in *s'*, we often pronounce a possessive *'s* even when it is not written.

Socrates' /ˈʃɒkrəti:zɪz / *ideas.*

3 possessive 's and other determiners

A noun cannot normally have an article or other determiner with it as well as a possessive word (see 154). Definite articles are usually dropped when possessives are used.

the car that is John's (= *John's car*) (NOT ~~the John's car~~ OR ~~John's the car~~)

But a possessive word may of course have its own article.

the car that is the boss's (= *the boss's car*)

When we want to use a noun with *a/an* or *this/that* etc as well as a possessive, we usually use the '*of mine*' construction (see 443).

*She's **a cousin of John's**.* (NOT ...~~a John's cousin~~.)

*I saw **that** stupid **boyfriend of Angie's** yesterday.* (NOT ...~~that Angie's stupid boyfriend~~...)

4 possessive without a noun

We can use a possessive without a following noun, if the meaning is clear.
Whose is that? ~ Peter's.
We often talk about shops, firms, churches and people's houses in this way. The apostrophe is often dropped in the names of shops and firms.
I bought it at Smiths. *She got married at St Joseph's.*
We had a nice time at John and Susan's last night.
In modern English, expressions like *the doctor, the dentist, the hairdresser, the butcher* are often used without *'s*.
Alice is at the hairdresser('s).

440 possessives (2): noun + 's (use)

1 meanings of the 's structure

We use the *'s* structure most often to talk about possessions, relationships and physical characteristics, especially when the first noun refers to a person or animal, or to a country, organisation or other group of living creatures.
That's my father's house. (NOT ... ~~the house of my father~~)
Mary's brother is a lawyer. (NOT ~~The brother of Mary~~ ...)
I don't like Alice's friends much. *Pete's eyes are like yours.*
There's something wrong with the cat's ear.
Scotland's climate is getting warmer.
What do you think of the company's management?
We also use the structure to talk about things that people etc produce.
I didn't believe the girl's story. *Have you read John's letter?*
What are Norway's main exports?
The government's decision was extremely unwise.
With some words for people's actions, we can use either *'s* or a structure with *of*.
the Queen's arrival OR *the arrival of the Queen*
the committee's second meeting OR *the second meeting of the committee*
An *of*-structure is preferred when the 'possessing' expression is very long. Compare:
My sister's husband.
The husband of the woman who sent you that strange letter.

2 's not used: the name of the street

With nouns which are not the names of people, animals, countries etc, *'s* is less common, and a structure with a preposition (usually *of*) is more normal.
the name of the street (NOT ~~the street's name~~)
the back of the room (NOT ~~the room's back~~)
the roof of the house (NOT ~~the house's roof~~)
the top of the page (NOT ~~the page's top~~) ▸

However, both structures are possible in some expressions.

the earth's gravity OR *the gravity of the earth*
the plan's importance OR *the importance of the plan*
the concerto's final movement OR *the final movement of the concerto*
the train's arrival OR *the arrival of the train*
the world's oldest mountains OR *the oldest mountains in the world*
(NOT... ~~*of the world*~~) – see 139.7

Unfortunately, it is not possible to give useful general rules in this area: the choice of structure often depends on the particular expression.

3 subject

Note that the *'s* structure often corresponds to a sentence in which the first noun is the subject of *have* or some other verb.

Joe's brother (Joe has a brother)
the dog's tail (the dog has a tail)
America's gold reserves (America has gold reserves)
the manager's decision (the manager made a decision)
Harris's novel (Harris wrote a novel)

In a few cases, the first noun may correspond to the object of a verb.

the prisoner's release (they released the prisoner)

4 measurement of time: *a day's journey*

The *'s* structure (or the plural with *s'*) is often used to say how long things last.

a day's journey *twenty minutes' delay*

Noun + noun structures are also possible in expressions with numbers (see 386.5).

a three-hour journey *a twenty-minute delay*

5 other expressions of time: *yesterday's news*

We can also use the *'s* structure to talk about particular moments and events.

yesterday's news *last Sunday's match* *tomorrow's weather*

6 *worth*

Note the use of the *'s* structure before *worth*.

a pound's worth of walnuts *three dollars' worth of popcorn*

For the *'s* structure in compound nouns (e.g. *a doll's house, cow's milk*), see 386.

441 possessives (3): my, your etc

1 What kind of words are they?

My, your, his, her, its, our and *their* are determiners (see 154), and are used at the beginning of noun phrases.

my younger brother *your phone number* *their plans*

They are also pronouns, because they stand for possessive noun phrases: *my younger brother* means 'the speaker's younger brother'; *their plans* means, for example, 'those people's plans' or 'the children's plans'.

They are not adjectives (although they are sometimes called 'possessive adjectives' in older grammars and dictionaries).

2 *one's* and *whose*

One's (see 396.5) and *whose* (see 496; 626) are also possessive determiners/pronouns.

It's easy to lose one's temper when one is criticised.
An orphan is a child whose parents are dead.
Whose bicycle is that?

3 not used with other determiners

My, your etc are not used with other determiners like *the, a/an* or *this.*

She's lost her keys. (NOT ... ~~*the her keys.*~~)

If we want to use *a/an* or *this, that* etc with a possessive, we use the '... *of mine*' structure (see 443).

A friend of mine has just invited me to Italy. (NOT ~~*A my friend*~~ ...)
How's that brother of yours? (NOT ... ~~*that your brother?*~~)

4 distributive use: *She told them to open their books,* etc

After a plural possessive, we do not normally use a singular noun in the sense of 'one each'. (For details, see 530.)

The teacher told the children to open their books. (NOT ... ~~*their book.*~~)

5 articles instead of possessives

We sometimes use articles instead of *my, your* etc. This happens in prepositional phrases which refer to the subject or object, mostly when we are talking about blows, pains and other things that often happen to parts of people's bodies.

The ball hit him on the head.
She's got a pain in the stomach.

In other cases we do not normally use articles instead of possessives.

She's got a parrot on her shoulder. (NOT ~~*She's got a parrot on the shoulder.*~~)
Katy broke her arm mountain climbing. (NOT ~~*Katy broke the arm*~~ ...)
He stood there, his eyes closed and his hands in his pockets, looking half asleep. (NOT ... ~~*the eyes closed and the hands in the pockets*~~ ...)

6 spelling: *its, whose*

The possessives *its* and *whose* have no apostrophes. *It's* and *who's* are not possessives, but contractions (see 143): they mean 'it is' or 'it has'; 'who is' or 'who has'. Compare:

The dog's in a good mood. It's just had its breakfast.
Whose little girl is that? ~ You mean the one who's making all that noise?

For structures like *Do you mind my smoking?*, see 295.3.
For *my own, your own* etc, see 405.
For the older English form *thy*, see 392.
For southern AmE *you all's*, see 429.8.

442 possessives (4): mine, yours etc

Mine, yours, his, hers, ours and *theirs* are similar to *my, your* etc, but they are not determiners, and are used without following nouns. ▸

Compare:

That's my coat. *That coat is mine.*
Which is your car? *Which car is yours?*

Whose can be used with a following noun (see 441) or without.

Whose car is that? *Whose is that car?*

We do not use articles with *mine* etc.

Can I borrow your keys? I can't find mine. (NOT ~~*I can't find the mine.*~~)

One's cannot be used without a following noun; instead, we use *one's own.*

It's nice to have a room of one's own. (NOT ...~~*of one's.*~~)

Its is not normally used without a following noun.

I've had my breakfast, and the dog's had its breakfast too. (NOT ...~~*and the dog's had its.*~~)

For the older English form *thine*, see 392.

443 possessives (5): a friend of mine etc

We cannot usually put a possessive between another determiner and a noun. We can say *my friend, Ann's friend, a friend* or *that friend,* but not ~~*a my friend*~~ or ~~*that Ann's friend.*~~ Instead, we use a structure with *of* + possessive.

determiner + noun + *of* + possessive

That policeman is a friend of mine. *He's a cousin of the Queen's.*
How's that brother of yours? *She's a friend of my father's.*
I met another boyfriend of Lucy's yesterday.
Have you heard this new idea of the boss's?
He watched each gesture of hers as if she was a stranger.
My work is no business of yours.

The structure has a variant in which a noun does not have possessive *'s*: this is sometimes used when talking about relationships.

He's a cousin of the Queen. *She's a friend of my father.*

The word *own* is used in a similar structure (see 405).

I wish I had a room of my own.

444 prefer

When we say that we prefer one activity to another, two *-ing* forms can be used. The second can be introduced by *to* or *rather than* (more formal).

I prefer riding to walking. (NOT ~~*I prefer riding to walk.*~~)
She prefers making toys for her children rather than buying them.

Prefer can also be followed by an infinitive (this is normal after *would prefer*). We can use an infinitive (without *to*) or an *-ing* form after *rather than* in this case.

She prefers to make toys for her children rather than buy/buying them.
I would prefer to stay at home rather than drive/driving to your mother's.

For more about *to* with *-ing* forms, see 298.2.

445 prefixes and suffixes

The following are some of the most common and useful English prefixes and suffixes.

1 prefixes

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
a-	adj.	not, without	*amoral, asexual*
Anglo-	adj.	English	*Anglo-American*
ante-	adj., verbs, nouns	before	*antenatal, antedate* *anteroom*
anti-	adj., nouns	against	*antisocial, anti-war*
arch-	nouns	supreme, most	*archbishop, arch-enemy*
auto-	adj., nouns	self	*automatic, autobiography*
bi-	adj., nouns	two	*bilingual, bicycle*
cent(i)-	nouns	hundredth	*centimetre, centilitre*
co-	verbs, nouns	together (with)	*co-operate, co-pilot*
counter-	adj., verbs, nouns	against	*counteract* *counter-revolution(ary)*
cyber-	nouns	computer, internet	*cybercrime, cyberculture*
de-	verbs	reversing action	*defrost, deregulate*
	verbs	take away	*deforest*
dis-	adj., verbs, nouns	not, opposite	*disloyal, disappear* *disorder*
	verbs	reversing action	*disconnect, disinfect*
e-	nouns	electronic, internet	*email, e-commerce, e-book*
eco-	adj., nouns	environment	*eco-friendly, eco-tourism*
en-	nouns	put in	*endanger, encircle*
	adj.	make	*enrich, enable*
Euro-	adj., nouns	European	*Eurocentric, Europop*
ex-	nouns	former	*ex-husband*
extra-	adj.	exceptionally	*extra-special*
	adj.	outside	*extra-terrestrial*
fore-	verbs, nouns	before	*foretell, foreknowledge*
geo-	adj., nouns	earth	*geothermal, geophysics*
hyper-	adj., nouns	extreme(ly)	*hypercritical, hypertension*
ill-	past participles	badly	*ill-advised, ill-expressed*
in-	adj.	not, opposite	*incomplete, insensitive*
(im- before p)			*impossible*
(il- before l)			*illegible*
(ir- before r)			*irregular*
inter-	adj., verbs	between, among	*international, intermarry* ▸

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
kilo-	nouns	thousand	*kilometre, kilogram*
mal-	adj., verbs, nouns	bad(ly)	*maltreat, malformed malfunction*
mega-	nouns	million	*megabyte*
	adj. (informal)	extremely	*mega-rich*
micro-	adj., nouns	very small	*microlight (aircraft), micrometer*
mid-	nouns	in the middle of	*mid-December, mid-afternoon*
milli-	nouns	thousandth	*millisecond*
mini-	nouns	little	*miniskirt, minicab*
mis-	verbs, nouns	wrong(ly)	*misunderstand, misconduct*
mono-	adj., nouns	one	*monogamous, monorail*
multi-	adj., nouns	many	*multilingual, multi-purpose*
neo-	adj., nouns	new(ly)	*neo-classical, neo-Nazi*
non-	nouns, adj.	not	*non-smoker, non-returnable*
omni-	adj.	all	*omnipresent*
out-	verbs, nouns	do/be more than	*outrun, outnumber* (vb.)
over-	adj., verbs	too much	*over-confident, overeat*
pan-	adj.	right across	*pan-American*
photo-	adj., nouns	light	*photoelectric, photosynthesis*
poly-	adj., nouns	many	*polyglot, polygon*
post-	adj., nouns	after	*post-modern, postwar*
pre-	adj., nouns	before	*premarital, prewar*
pro-	adj., nouns	for, in favour of	*pro-communist, pro-government* (adj.)
pseudo-	adj.	false	*pseudo-academic*
psycho-	adj., nouns	mind, mental	*psycho-analysis*
re-	verbs, nouns	again, back	*rebuild, reconstruction*
semi-	adj., nouns	half	*semi-conscious, semicircle*
socio-	adj., nouns	society	*socio-economic*
sub-	adj., nouns	below	*sub-standard, subconscious, subway*
super-	adj. nouns	more than, special	*supernatural, supermarket*
tele-	nouns	distant	*telescope*
thermo-	adj., nouns	heat	*thermo-electric, thermometer*
trans-	adj., verbs	across	*transatlantic, transplant*
tri-	adj., nouns	three	*tripartite, triangle*

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
ultra-	adj., nouns	extreme, beyond	*ultra-modern, ultrasound*
un-	adj., participles	not, opposite	*uncertain, unexpected*
	verbs	reverse action	*untie, undress*
under-	verbs, participles	too little	*underestimate, under-developed*
uni-	adj., nouns	one	*unilateral, unicycle*
vice-	nouns	deputy	*vice-chairman*

2 suffixes that form nouns

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-age	verbs	instance of	*breakage, shrinkage*
-al	verbs	instance of	*refusal, dismissal*
-ance, -ancy	adj., verbs	process/state of	*reluctance, performance, expectancy*
-ation	verbs	process/state of	*exploration, starvation*
	verbs	product of	*organisation, foundation*
-ee	verbs	object of verb	*payee, employee*
-ence, -ency	adj., verbs	process/state of	*independence, presidency*
-er	nouns	belonging to	*teenager, Londoner*
-er/or	verbs	person/thing that does	*writer, driver, starter, editor*
-ess	nouns	female	*lioness, waitress*
-ette	nouns	small	*kitchenette*
-ful	nouns	amount held in	*spoonful, cupful*
-hood	nouns	quality, group, time of	*brotherhood, childhood*
-ing	nouns	quantity of material	*carpeting, tubing*
	nouns	activity	*farming, surfing*
-ism	nouns	belief, practice	*communism, impressionism*
-ity	adj.	quality of	*elasticity, falsity*
-ment	verbs	process/result of	*government, arrangement*
-ness	adj.	quality of	*meanness, happiness*
-ocracy	nouns	government by	*democracy*
-ology	nouns	study of	*sociology*
-phile	nouns	lover of	*Anglophile*
-phobe	nouns	hater, fearer of	*Anglophobe*
-phobia	nouns	irrational fear of	*arachnophobia* (fear of spiders)
-ship	nouns	status, state, quality of	*friendship, dictatorship*

▶

3 suffixes that form nouns or adjectives

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ese	place nouns	inhabitant of, language of	*Chinese, Vietnamese*
-(i)an	nouns	supporter of, related to	*Darwinian, republican*
	nouns	citizen of	*Parisian, Moroccan*
-ist	nouns	practitioner of	*pianist, racist*

4 suffixes that form adjectives

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-able	verbs	can be (done)	*washable, drinkable*
-al	nouns	related to	*accidental*
-centric	nouns	centred on	*Eurocentric*
-ed	nouns	having	*wooded, pointed, blue-eyed*
-ful	nouns	full of, providing	*useful, helpful*
-ic	nouns	related to	*electric*
-ical	nouns	related to	*philosophical, logical*
-ish	adj., nouns	rather (like)	*greenish, childish*
	place nouns	inhabitant of, language of	*Scottish, Turkish*
-ive	verbs	can do, does	*attractive, selective*
-less	nouns	without	*careless, homeless*
-like	nouns	like	*childlike*
-ly	nouns	with the quality of	*friendly, motherly*
-ous	nouns	having	*virtuous, ambitious*
-proof	nouns	protected/-ing against	*bullet-proof, waterproof,*
-ward	adj.	towards	*backward, northward*
-y	nouns	like, characterised by	*creamy, wealthy*

5 suffixes that form adverbs

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ly	adj.	in an (adjective) way	*calmly, slowly*
-ward(s)	adj.	towards	*backwards, northward(s)*

6 suffixes that form verbs

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ate	nouns	causative	*orchestrate, chlorinate*
-en	adj.	make, become	*deafen, ripen, harden*
-ify	adj., nouns	causative: make	*simplify, electrify*
-ise/-ize	adj., nouns	various	*modernise, symbolise*

7 Note: negative words with no positive equivalent

Some words with negative prefixes have no positive opposite equivalent: for example, somebody can be *distressed*, but not ~~*tressed*~~. Other examples:

dishevilled, disappoint, discard, disclose, disconcert, disfigure, dismiss, dispose, incessant, indelible, uncanny, uncouth, ungainly, unkempt, unnerved, unspeakable, unwieldy, unwitting

For hyphens after *co-*, *ex-* etc, see 559.1d.

446 preparatory it (1): subject

1 *It's nice to talk to you*

When the subject of a clause is an infinitive expression, this does not normally come at the beginning. We usually prefer to start with the 'preparatory subject' *it*, and to put the infinitive expression later (long or complicated items are often put towards the end of a sentence – see 512). Preparatory *it* is common before *be* + **adjective/noun**.

It's nice to talk to you. (More natural than *To talk to you is nice.*)
It was good of you to phone.
It was stupid of you to leave the door unlocked.
It's important to book in advance.
It's my ambition to run a three-hour marathon.
It was a pleasure to listen to her.
It upsets me to hear people arguing all the time.

It can also be a preparatory subject for *for* + **object** + **infinitive** (see 291).

It will suit me best for you to arrive at about ten o'clock.
It's essential for the papers to be ready before Thursday.

2 *It's probable that we'll be late*

We also use preparatory *it* when the subject of a clause is itself a clause.

It's probable that we'll be a little late.
It doesn't interest me what you think.
It's surprising how many unhappy marriages there are.
It's exciting when a baby starts talking.

3 *It was nice seeing you*

It can be a preparatory subject for an *-ing* form. This is usually informal.

It was nice seeing you. *It's crazy her going off like that.*
It's worth going to Wales if you have the time.
It's no use trying to explain – I'm not interested.
It surprised me your not remembering my name.

For more information about structures with *worth*, see 632.
For *there* as a preparatory subject with *any/no use*, see 587.2.

4 *It takes ...* + infinitive

We can use this structure to say how much time is necessary (see 576).

It took me months to get to know her.
How long does it take to get to London from here? ▸

5 *if, as if* and *as though*

It is used to introduce some clauses with *if, as if* and *as though.*

It looks as if we're going to have trouble with Ann again.
It's not as if this was the first time she's been difficult.
It will be a pity if we have to ask her to leave.
But it looks as though we may have to.

6 *It was my aunt who took Peter to London*

It can be used in 'cleft sentences' (see 131) with *who-* and *that*-clauses to emphasise one part of a sentence.

It was my aunt who took Peter to London yesterday, not my mother. (emphasising *my aunt*)
It was Peter that my aunt took to London yesterday, not Lucy. (emphasising *Peter*)

7 *It's amazing the way they work together*

It is not normally used as a preparatory subject for noun phrases.

The new concert hall is wonderful. (NOT ~~*It's wonderful the new concert hall.*~~)

But in an informal style, *it* can be a preparatory subject for **noun + relative clause.**

It's wonderful the enthusiasm that the children show.

This is very common with *the way* . . .

It's amazing the way (that) they work together.
It's strange the way you know what I'm thinking.

For passive structures with *it* as a preparatory subject, see 417.

447 preparatory it (2): object

1 *I find it difficult to talk to you.*

We can sometimes use *it* as a preparatory object. This happens when the object of a verb is an infinitive expression or a clause, and when this has an adjective or noun complement. For example, instead of saying 'I find to talk to you difficult', we prefer 'I find it difficult to talk to you'.

subject + verb + *it* + complement + infinitive/clause

We found it tiring to listen to him.
My blister made it a problem to walk.
I thought it strange that she hadn't written.
George made it clear what he wanted.

Note that this structure is not normally used when there is no adjective or noun complement after the verb.

I cannot bear to see people crying. (NOT ~~*I cannot bear it to see people crying.*~~)
I remember that we were very happy. (NOT ~~*I remember it that* . . .~~)

But note the structure *I like/love/hate it when* . . .

I love it when you sing.

Note also the idiom *I take it that* . . . (= I assume that . . .).

I take it that you won't be working tomorrow.

2 *I found it strange being ...*

This structure is also possible with *-ing* form objects.

*I found it strange **being** in her house.*

3 *I would appreciate it if ...*

It is used as a preparatory object for an *if*-clause after *would appreciate.*

*I **would appreciate it if** you would keep me informed.* (NOT ~~*I would appreciate if you would*~~ ...)

4 *owe* and *leave*

Note the structures *owe it to somebody to* ... and *leave it to somebody to* ...

*We **owe it to** society **to** make our country a better place.*

*I'll **leave it to** you **to** decide.*

448 prepositions (1): introduction

1 meanings and use

It is difficult to learn to use prepositions correctly in a foreign language. Most English prepositions have several different functions (for instance, one well-known dictionary lists eighteen main uses of *at*), and these may correspond to several different prepositions in another language. At the same time, different prepositions can have very similar uses (***in** the morning, **on** Monday morning, **at** night*). Many nouns, verbs and adjectives are normally used with particular prepositions: we say *the reason **for**, arrive **at**, angry **with** somebody, **on** a bus.* Often the correct preposition cannot be guessed, and one has to learn the expression as a whole. In some expressions English has no preposition where one may be used in another language; in other expressions the opposite is true. For details of some difficult cases of prepositional usage, see 449–454.

2 word order

In English, prepositions can come at the ends of clauses in certain structures, especially in an informal style. For details, see 452.

*What are you thinking **about**?* *She's not very easy to talk **to**.*

*You're just the person I was looking **for**.* *I hate being shouted **at**.*

3 *-ing* forms

When we use verbs after prepositions, we use *-ing* forms, not infinitives. For details, see 298, 454.

*She saved money **by giving** up cigarettes.*

When *to* is a preposition, it is also followed by *-ing* forms. (see 298.2).

*I look forward **to seeing** you soon.*

4 prepositions before conjunctions

Prepositions are sometimes dropped before conjunctions and sometimes not. For details, see 453.

*I'm not certain (of) **what** I'm supposed to do.*

*The question (of) **whether** they should turn back was never discussed.* ▸

5 prepositions and adverb particles

Words like *on, off, up, down* can function both as prepositions and as adverb particles. For the difference, see 20. For verbs with prepositions and particles, see 599, 600.

*She ran **up** the stairs.* (preposition)
*She rang me **up**.* (adverb particle)

449 prepositions (2): after particular words and expressions

It is not always easy to know which preposition to use after a particular noun, verb or adjective. Here are some of the most common combinations which cause difficulty to students of English. Alternatives are sometimes possible, and American and British usage sometimes differ. There is only room for very brief notes here; for more complete information about usage with a particular word, consult a good dictionary.

accuse somebody **of** something (NOT ~~**for**~~)
*She **accused** me **of** poisoning her dog.*
afraid of (NOT ~~**by**~~)
*Are you **afraid of** spiders?*
agree with a person, opinion or policy
*He left the firm because he didn't **agree with** their sales policy.*
*I entirely **agree with** you.*
agree about a subject of discussion
*We **agree about** most things.*
agree on a matter for decision
*Let's try to **agree on** a date.*
agree to a suggestion
*I'll **agree to** your suggestion if you lower the price.*
angry with (sometimes **at**) a person **for** doing something
*I'm **angry with** her **for** lying to me.*
angry about (sometimes at) something
*What are you so **angry about**?*
anxious about (= worried about)
*I'm getting **anxious about** money.*
anxious for (= eager to have)
*We're all **anxious for** an end to this misunderstanding.*
anxious + **infinitive** (= eager, wanting)
*She's **anxious to** find a better job.*
apologise to somebody **for** something
*I think we should **apologise to** the Smiths.*
*I must **apologise for** disturbing you.*
arrive at or **in** (NOT ~~**to**~~)
*What time do we **arrive at** Cardiff?*
*When did you **arrive in** England?*
ask: see 79.

bad at (NOT ~~in~~)
*I'm not **bad at** tennis.*
believe a person or something that is said (= accept as truthful/true – no preposition)
Don't believe her. *I don't believe a word she says.*
believe in God, Father Christmas etc (= believe that ... exists; trust)
*I half **believe in** life after death.*
*If you **believe in** me I can do anything.*
belong in/on/etc (= go, fit, have its place in/on/etc)
*Those glasses **belong on** the top shelf*
belong to (= be a member of)
*I **belong to** a local athletics club.*
blue with cold, **red with** anger etc
*My hands were **blue with** cold when I got home*
borrow: see 109.

care: see 127.
clever at (NOT ~~in~~)
*I'm not very **clever at** cooking.*
congratulate/congratulations on something
*I must **congratulate** you **on** your exam results.*
*Congratulations **on** your new job!*
congratulate/congratulations on/for doing something
*He **congratulated** the team **on/for** having won all their games.*
crash into (NOT USUALLY ~~against~~)
*I wasn't concentrating, and I **crashed into** the car in front.*

depend/dependent on (NOT ~~from~~ OR ~~of~~)
*We may play football – it **depends on** the weather.*
*He doesn't want to be **dependent on** his parents.*
But: **independent of**
details of
*Write now for **details** of our special offer.*
die of or **from**
*More people **died of** flu in 1919 than were killed in the First World War.*
*A week after the accident he **died from** his injuries.*
different: see 155.
difficulty with something, (in) doing something (NOT ~~difficulties to~~ ...)
*I'm having **difficulty with** my travel arrangements.*
*You won't have much **difficulty (in) getting** to know people in Italy.*
disappointed with somebody
*My father never showed if he was **disappointed with** me.*
disappointed with/at/about something
*You must be pretty **disappointed with/at/about** your exam results.*
[a] **discussion about** something
*We had a long **discussion about** politics.*
[to] **discuss** something (no preposition)
*We'd better **discuss** your travel plans.*
divide into (NOT ~~in~~)
*The book is **divided into** three parts.*

dream of (= think of, imagine)
I often dreamed of being famous when I was younger.
dream about/of (while asleep)
What does it mean if you dream about/of mountains?
dress(ed) in (NOT ~~with~~)
Who's the woman dressed in green?
drive into (NOT ~~against~~)
Granny drove into a tree again yesterday.

enter into an agreement, a discussion etc
We've just entered into an agreement with Carsons Ltd.
enter a place (no preposition)
When I entered the room everybody stopped talking.
example of (NOT ~~for~~)
Sherry is an example of a fortified wine.
explain something **to** somebody (NOT ~~explain somebody something~~)
Could you explain this rule to me?

fight, struggle etc **with**
I've spent the last two weeks fighting with the tax office.
frightened of or **by**: see 410.5.

get in(to) and **out of** a car, taxi or small boat
When I got into my car, I found the radio had been stolen.
get on(to) and **off** a train, plane, bus, ship, (motor)bike or horse
We'll be getting off the train in ten minutes.
good at (NOT ~~in~~)
Are you any good at tennis?

[the] idea of . . .ing (NOT ~~the idea to~~. . .)
I don't like the idea of getting married yet.
ill with
The boss has been ill with flu this week.
impressed with/by
I'm very impressed with/by your work.
increase in activity, output etc (NOT ~~of~~)
I'd like to see a big increase in productivity.
independent, independence of or **from**
She got a job so that she could be independent of her parents.
When did India get its independence from Britain?
insist on (NOT ~~to~~)
George's father insisted on paying.
interest/interested in (NOT ~~for~~)
When did your interest in social work begin?
Not many people are interested in grammar.
interested to do /in doing something: see 299.16

kind to (NOT ~~with~~)
People have always been very kind to me.

lack of
Lack of time prevented me from writing.
[to] lack (no preposition)
Your mother lacks tact.
[to] be lacking in
She is lacking in tact.
laugh at
I hate being laughed at.
laugh about
We'll laugh about this one day.
leave somewhere (talking about the action of leaving)
I left London early, before the traffic got too heavy.
leave from somewhere (talking about the place)
Does the plane leave from Liverpool or Manchester?
listen to
If you don't listen to people, they won't listen to you.
look at (= point one's eyes at)
Stop looking at me like that.
look after (= take care of)
Thanks for looking after me when I was ill.
look for (= try to find)
Can you help me look for my keys?

make, made of/from: see 336.
marriage to; get/be married to (NOT ~~with~~)
Her marriage to Philip didn't last very long.
How long have you been married to Sheila?
marry somebody (no preposition)
She married her childhood sweetheart.

near (to): see 365.
nice to (NOT ~~with~~)
You weren't very nice to me last night.

operate on a patient
They operated on her yesterday evening.

pay for something that is bought (NOT ~~pay something~~)
Excuse me, sir. You haven't paid for your drink.
pleased with somebody
The boss is very pleased with you.
pleased with/about/at something
I wasn't very pleased with/about/at my exam results.
polite to (NOT ~~with~~)
Try to be polite to Uncle Richard for once
prevent ... from ...ing (NOT ~~to~~)
The noise from downstairs prevented me from sleeping.
proof of (NOT ~~for~~)
I want proof of your love. Lend me some money.

reason for (NOT ~~of~~)
*Nobody knows the **reason for** the accident.*
remind of (and see 499)
*She **reminds** me **of** a girl I was at school with.*
responsible/responsibility for (NOT ~~of~~)
*Who's **responsible for** the shopping this week?*
rude to (NOT ~~with~~)
*Peggy was pretty **rude to** my family last weekend.*
run into (= meet)
*I **ran into** Philip at Victoria Station this morning.*

search (without preposition) (= look through; look everywhere in/on)
*They **searched** everybody's luggage.*
*They **searched** the man in front of me from head to foot.*
search for (= look for)
*The customs were **searching for** drugs at the airport.*
shocked at/by
*I was terribly **shocked at/by** the news of Peter's accident.*
shout at (aggressive)
*If you don't stop **shouting at** me I'll come and hit you.*
shout to (= call to)
*Mary **shouted to** us to come in and swim.*
smile at
*If you **smile at** me like that I'll give you anything you want.*
sorry about something that has happened
*I'm **sorry about** your exam results.*
sorry for/about something that one has done
*I'm **sorry for/about** breaking your window.*
sorry for a person
*I feel really **sorry for** her children.*
speak to; speak with (especially AmE)
*Could I **speak to/with** your father for a moment?*
suffer from
*My wife is **suffering from** hepatitis.*
surprised at/by
*Everybody was **surprised at/by** the weather.*

take part in (NOT ~~at~~ OR ~~of~~)
*I don't want to **take part in** any more conferences.*
think of/about (NOT ~~think to~~)
*I'm **thinking of** studying medicine.*
*I've also **thought about** studying dentistry.*
the thought of (NOT ~~the thought to~~)
*I hate **the thought of** going back to work.*
throw ... at (aggressive)
*Stop **throwing** stones **at** the cars.*
throw ... to (in a game etc)
*If you get the ball, **throw** it **to** me.*
translate into (NOT ~~in~~)
*Could you **translate** this **into** Greek for me?*

trip over
*He **tripped over** the cat and fell downstairs.*
typical of (NOT ~~**for**~~)
*The wine's **typical of** the region.*

write: see 610.
wrong with
*What's **wrong with** Rachel today?*

For *of* after determiners like *some, most*, see 154.

450 prepositions (3): before particular words and expressions

This is a list of a few expressions which often cause problems. For other preposition + noun combinations, see a good dictionary.

at the cinema; at the theatre; **at** a party; **at** university
*What's on **at** the cinema this week?*

a book (written) **by** Joyce; a concerto (composed) **by** Mozart; a film (directed) **by** Orson Welles (NOT ~~**of**~~ OR ~~**from**~~)
*I've never read anything **by** Dickens.*
by car/bike/bus/train/boat/plane/land/sea/air; **on** foot (but **in** the car, **on** a bus etc)
*Let's take our time and go **by** boat.*

for ... reason
*My sister decided to go to America **for** several reasons.*

from ... point of view (NOT ~~**according to**~~ OR ~~**after**~~)
*Try to see it **from** my point of view.*

in ... opinion (NOT ~~**according to**~~ OR ~~**after**~~)
*In my **opinion**, she should have resigned earlier.*
in the end (= finally, after a long time)
In the end, I got a visa for Russia.
at the end (= at the point where something stops)
*I think the film's a bit weak **at** the end.*
in pen, pencil, ink etc
*Please fill in the form **in** ink.*
in a picture, photo etc (NOT ~~**on**~~)
*She looks much younger **in** this photo.*
in the rain, snow etc
*I like walking **in** the rain.*
in a suit, raincoat, shirt, skirt, hat etc
*Who's the man **in** the funny hat over there?*
in a ... voice
*Stop talking to me **in** that stupid voice.* ▸

on page 20 etc (NOT ~~in/at~~)
*There's a mistake **on page 120**.*
on the radio; on TV; on the phone
*Is there anything good **on TV** tonight?*
*It's Mrs Ellis **on the phone**: she says it's urgent.*
on time (= at the planned time, neither late nor early)
*Peter wants the meeting to start exactly **on time**.*
in time (= with enough time to spare, before the last moment)
*He would have died if they hadn't got him to the hospital **in time**.*

451 prepositions (4): expressions without prepositions

This is a list of some common expressions in which we do not use prepositions, or can leave them out.

1 *discuss, enter, marry, lack, resemble* and *approach*

These verbs are normally followed by direct objects without prepositions.
*We must **discuss your plans**.* (NOT . . . ~~*discuss about your plans*~~.)
*Conversation stopped as we **entered the church**.* (NOT . . . ~~*entered in(to) the church*~~.)
*She **married a friend** of her sister's.* (NOT . . . ~~*married with*~~ . . .)
*He's clever, but he **lacks experience**.* (NOT . . . ~~*lacks of*~~ . . .)
*The child does not **resemble either** of its parents.* (NOT . . . ~~*resemble to*~~ . . .)
*The train is now **approaching London Paddington**.* (NOT . . . ~~*approaching to*~~ . . .)

2 *next, last* etc

Prepositions are not used before a number of common expressions of time beginning *next, last, this, that* (sometimes), *one, every, each, some, any* (in an informal style), *all*.
*See you **next Monday**.* (NOT . . . ~~*on next Monday*~~.)
*The meeting's **this Thursday**.* *We met **one Tuesday** in August.*
*I'll never forget meeting you **that afternoon**.*
*Come **any day** you like.* *The party lasted **all night**.*
Note also *tomorrow morning, yesterday afternoon* etc.

3 days of the week

In an informal style, we sometimes leave out *on* before the names of the days of the week.
*Why don't you come for a drink **(on) Monday** evening?*

4 *a* meaning 'each'

No preposition is used in expressions like *three times a day, sixty miles an hour, eighty pence a kilo*.
*Private lessons cost £20 **an hour**.*

For *per* in expressions like these, see 389.20

5 *What time . . .?* etc

We usually leave out *at* before *what time.*

What time does Granny's train arrive?

(More natural than *At what time . . .?*)

In an informal style, we can also leave out *on* before *what/which day(s).*

What day is your hair appointment?

Which day do you have your music lesson?

6 *about*

In an informal style, *at* is often dropped before ***about*** + **time expression.**

I'll see you (at) about 3 o'clock.

7 'how long'

In an informal style, *for* is often left out in expressions that say how long something lasts.

I've been here (for) three weeks now. *How long are you staying (for)?*

8 measurement expressions etc after *be*

Expressions containing words like *height, weight, length, size, shape, age, colour* are usually connected to the subject of the clause by the verb *be,* without a preposition.

He is just the right height to be a policeman.

She's the same age as me.

His head's a funny shape.

I'm the same weight as I was twenty years ago.

What shoe size are you?

What colour are her eyes? (NOT ~~*Of what colour*~~ . . .?)

9 *(in) this way* etc

We often leave out *in* (especially in informal speech) in expressions like *(in) this way, (in) the same way, (in) another way* etc.

They plant corn (in) the same way their ancestors used to 500 years ago.

10 *home*

We do not use *to* before *home* (see 249).

I'm going home.

In informal English (especially American), *at* can be left out before *home.*

Is anybody home?

11 *place*

In an informal style, *to* can be dropped in some expressions with the word *place.* This is normal in American English.

Let's go (to) some place where it's quiet.

I always said you'd go places. (= become successful)

12 infinitive structures

Prepositions can be dropped in the structure **noun + infinitive + preposition** (see 285.5).

She has no money to buy food (with).

We have an hour to do it (in). ▸

This is particularly common with the noun *place*.
*We need **a place to live (in)**.* *She had **no place to go (to)**.*

For the use of prepositions after *near*, see 365.

452 prepositions (5): at the ends of clauses

1 introduction

A preposition often connects two things: (1) a noun, adjective or verb that comes before it, and (2) a 'prepositional object' – a noun phrase or pronoun that comes after the preposition.
*This is a present **for** you.* *He's looking **at** her.*
*I'm really angry **with** Joe.* *They live **in** a small village.*
In some structures we may put the prepositional object at or near the beginning of a clause. In this case, the preposition does not always go with it – it may stay together with 'its' noun, adjective or verb at the end of the clause. This happens especially in four cases:
wh-questions: *Who's the present **for**?*
relative structures: *Joe's the person that I'm angry **with**.*
passives: *She likes to be looked **at**.*
infinitive structures: *The village is pleasant to live **in**.*

2 *wh*-questions

When a question word is the object of a preposition, the preposition most often comes at the end of the clause, especially in informal usage.
*Who's the present **for**?* (*For whom is the present?* is extremely formal.)
*What are you looking **at**?*
*Who did you go **with**?*
*Where did she buy it **from**?*
*Which flight is the general travelling **on**?*
*What kind of films are you interested **in**?*
This also happens in indirect *wh*-questions, and in other *what*-clauses.
*Tell me **what** you're worried **about**.*
*What a lot of trouble I'm **in**!*
Some questions consist simply of **question word + preposition**.
*What **with**?* *Who **for**?*
However, this structure is unusual when there is a noun with the question word.
*With **what money**?* (NOT ~~*What money with?*~~)

3 relative clauses

When a relative pronoun (see 494) is the object of a preposition, the preposition also often goes at the end of the clause, especially in informal usage.
*Joe's the person **that** I'm angry **with**.* (Less formal than ... *with whom I am angry*.)
*This is the house **(that)** I told you **about**.*
(Less formal than ... *about which I told you*.)
*You remember the boy **(who)** I was going out **with**?*

She's the only woman (who) I've ever really been in love with.
That's what I'm afraid of.

Because *whom* is unusual in an informal style, it is very rare in clauses that end with prepositions (see 498.3,7).

4 passives

In passive structures (see 412–420), prepositions go with their verbs.

She likes to be looked at.
I don't know where he is – his bed hasn't been slept in.
Carol was operated on last night.

5 infinitive structures

Infinitive complements (see 284–285) can have prepositions with them.

The village is pleasant to live in.
She needs other children to play with.
Can you get me a chair to stand on?
I've got lots of music to listen to.
Their house isn't easy to get to.

6 exceptions

Many common adverbial expressions consist of **preposition + noun phrase** (e.g. *with great patience, in a temper*). In these cases, the preposition is closely connected with the noun, and is kept as near as possible to it; it cannot usually be moved to the end of a clause.

I admired the patience with which she spoke. (NOT ... ~~*the patience she spoke with.*~~)

During and *since* are not normally put at the ends of clauses.

During which period did it happen? (NOT ~~*Which period did it happen during?*~~)
Since when have you been working for her? (NOT ~~*When have you been working for her since?*~~)

7 formal structures

In a more formal style, a preposition is often put earlier in questions and relative structures, before the question word or relative pronoun.

With whom did she go?
It was the house about which he had told them.
She was the only woman with whom he had ever been in love.

This can also happen in infinitive complements, in a very formal style. A relative pronoun is used.

She needs other children with whom to play.
It is a boring place in which to live.

Note that after prepositions *which* and *whom* can be used, but not normally *who* and *that*.

Even in a very formal style, prepositions are not often put at the beginning of questions which have *be* as the main verb.

Who is it for, madam? (NOT ~~*For whom is it?*~~)

And the structures *where ... to, what ... like* and *what ... for* have a fixed order.

Where shall I send it to? (BUT NOT ~~*To where shall I send it?*~~) ▸

What does she look like? (BUT NOT ~~*Like what does she look?*~~)
What did you buy that for? (BUT NOT ~~*For what did you buy that?*~~)

Prepositions cannot be moved away from passive verbs even in a formal style.
In my family, money was never spoken about. (NOT ... ~~*about money was never spoken.*~~)

For more information about formal and informal language, see 311.
For sentences like *It's got a hole in (it)*; *I like cakes with cream on (them)*, see 177.13.

453 prepositions (6): before conjunctions

Prepositions can be followed by conjunctions in some cases but not in others.

1 indirect speech: prepositions dropped before *that*

Prepositions are not used directly before the conjunction *that*. In indirect speech – after words that refer to saying, writing, thinking etc – prepositions are usually dropped before *that*-clauses. Compare:

– *I knew about his problems.*
I knew that he had problems.
(NOT ~~*I knew about that he had problems.*~~)
– *She had no idea of my state of mind.*
She had no idea that I was unhappy.
(NOT ~~*She had no idea of that I was unhappy.*~~)
– *I wasn't aware of the time.*
I wasn't aware that it was so late.
(NOT ~~*I wasn't aware of that it was so late.*~~)

2 emotional reactions: prepositions dropped

Prepositions are also dropped before *that* after many common words that refer to emotional reactions. Compare:

– *We are sorry about the delay.*
We are sorry that the train is late.
(NOT ... ~~*sorry about that the train is late.*~~)

– *I was surprised at her strength.*
I was surprised that she was so strong.
(NOT ... ~~*surprised at that she was*~~ ...)

3 *the fact that*

In other cases (not involving indirect speech or words referring to emotional reactions) prepositions cannot so often be dropped before *that*-clauses. Instead, the expression *the fact* (see 583.3) is generally put between the preposition and *that*.

The judge paid a lot of attention to the fact that the child was unhappy at home. (NOT ~~*The judge paid a lot of attention (to) that the child*~~ ...)
He said the parents were responsible for the fact that the child had run away. (NOT ... ~~*responsible (for) that the child had run away.*~~)

4 question words

After some very common words like *tell, ask, depend, sure, idea, look,* prepositions can be dropped before *who, which, what* and other question words. This is especially common in indirect questions. Compare:

– *Tell me **about** your trip.*
*Tell me (about) **where** you went.*
– *I **asked** her **about** her religious beliefs.*
*I **asked** her **whether** she believed in God.*
(More natural than *I asked her about whether she believed in God.*)
– *We may be late – it **depends on** the traffic.*
*We may be late – it **depends (on) how** much traffic there is.*
– *I'm **not sure of** his method.*
*I'm **not sure how** he does it.*
(More natural than *I'm not sure of how he does it.*)
– *Look **at** this.*
*Look (at) **what** I've got.*

In other cases it is unusual or impossible to leave out the preposition.
*I'm **worried about** where she is.* (NOT ~~*I'm worried where she is.*~~)
*The police **questioned** me **about** what I'd seen.* (NOT ~~*The police questioned me what I'd seen.*~~)
*There's the **question of** who's going to pay.*
(More natural than ... *the question who's going to pay.*)
*People's chances **of** getting jobs vary **according to** whether they live in the North or the South.* (NOT ... ~~*according whether*~~ ...)

If does not normally follow prepositions; we use *whether* (see 621) instead.
*I'm **worried about** whether you're happy.* (NOT ~~*I'm worried about if*~~ ...)

For the structures (with and without preposition) that are possible after a particular verb, noun or adjective, see a good dictionary.

454 prepositions (7): -ing forms and infinitives

Prepositions are not normally used before infinitives in English. After **verb/noun/adjective + preposition**, we usually use the *-ing* form of a following verb.
*He insisted **on being** paid at once.* (NOT ~~*He insisted on to be paid*~~ ...)
*I don't like the idea **of getting** married.* (NOT ... ~~*the idea of to get married.*~~)
*I'm not very good **at cooking**.* (NOT ... ~~*good at to cook.*~~)

In some cases we drop the preposition and use an infinitive. Compare:
– *He **asked for** a loan.*
*He **asked to** borrow some money.*
– *We're travelling **for** pleasure.*
*We're travelling **to** enjoy ourselves.*
– *She was **surprised at** his mistake.*
*She was **surprised to** see what he had done.*

Sometimes two structures are possible. There is often a difference of meaning or use. For more details, see 299.
*I'm **interested in** learning more about my family.*
*I was **interested to** learn that my grandfather was Jewish.*

For details of the structures that are possible after a particular verb, noun or adjective, see a good dictionary.

455 present perfect (1): basic information

This entry deals with the simple present perfect. For the present perfect progressive, see 458–459.

1 forms

have/has + past participle

I have broken my glasses.
Have you finished? *She hasn't phoned.*

In older English, some present perfect forms were made with *be*, not *have* (e.g. *Winter is come*). This does not normally happen in modern English (for exceptions, see 205 and 213).

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *The work has been done*), see 412.

2 other languages

In some other languages there are verb forms which are constructed like the English present perfect (compare English *I have worked*, French *j'ai travaillé*, German *ich habe gearbeitet*, Italian *ho lavorato*, Spanish *he trabajado*). Note that the English present perfect is used rather differently from most of these.

3 finished events connected with the present

We use the present perfect especially to say that a finished action or event is connected with the present in some way. If we say that something has happened, we are thinking about the past and the present at the same time.

*I can't go on holiday because I **have broken** my leg.* (NOT ~~*I can't go on holiday because I broke my leg.*~~)

We could often change a present perfect sentence into a present sentence with a similar meaning.

*I've **broken** my leg. → My leg **is broken** now.*
*Have you **read** the Bible. → Do you **know** the Bible?*
*Some fool **has let** the cat in. → The cat **is** in.*
*Utopia **has invaded** Fantasia. → Utopia **is at war with** Fantasia.*
*Mary **has had** a baby. → Mary now **has** a baby.*
*Our dog **has died**. → Our dog **is dead**.*
*All the wars in history **have taught** us nothing. → We **know** nothing.*

The present perfect is often used to express the idea of completion or achievement.

*At last! I've **finished**!*
*Have you **done** all the housework?*

We do not use the present perfect if we are not thinking about the present (see 456.1). Compare:

*I've **travelled** in Africa a lot.* (= I know Africa.)
*Some people think that Shakespeare **travelled** a lot in Germany.* (NOT ~~*Some people think that Shakespeare has travelled*~~ . . .)

present perfect: thinking about the past and present at the same time

*I can't go on holiday because I've **broken** my leg.*

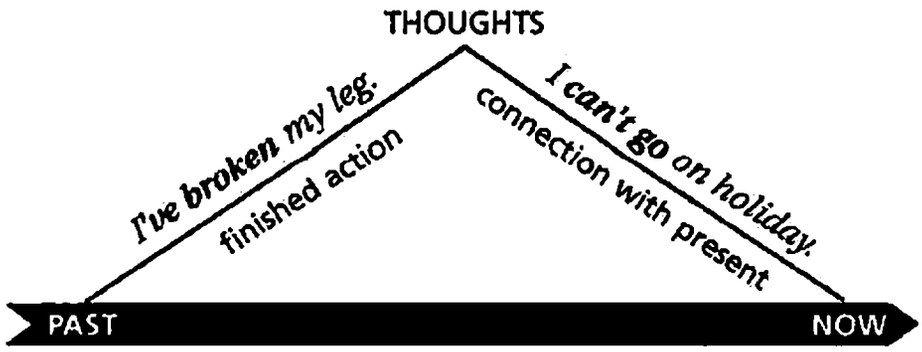

4 finished events: news

We normally use the present perfect to announce news of recent events.

*Andy **has won** a big prize!*
*Have you heard? Uncle George **has crashed** the car again.*
*Here are the main points of the news. The pound **has fallen** against the dollar. The Prime Minister **has said** that the government's economic policies are working. The number of unemployed **has reached** five million. There **has been** a fire . . .*

After announcing news, we usually use the simple past to give more details. (see 456.5).

*Uncle George **has crashed** the car again. He **ran** into a tree in High Street.*

present perfect for news

*Uncle George **has crashed** the car again.*

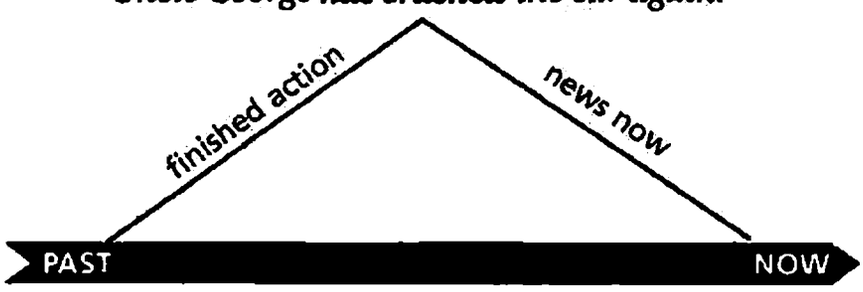

simple past for details

*He **ran** into a tree in High Street.*

5 time words: *ever, before, recently* etc

When we talk about finished events with words that mean 'at some/any time up to now' (like *ever, before, never, yet, recently, lately, already*), we normally use the present perfect.

Have you ever seen a ghost? *She's never said 'sorry' in her life.*
I'm sure we've met before. *Has the postman come yet?*
We haven't seen Beth recently.
Could you clean the car? ~ *I've already done it.*

6 repetition up to now: *I've written six letters ...*

We can use the present perfect to say that something has happened several times up to the present.

I've written six letters since lunchtime.

Adverbs of frequency like *often, sometimes, occasionally* are common with the present perfect.

How often have you been in love in your life?
I've sometimes thought of moving to Australia.

7 continuation up to now: *I've known her for years*

To talk about actions and situations that have continued up to the present, both the simple present perfect and the present perfect progressive are possible (depending on the kind of verb and the exact meaning – for details, see 459).

I've known her for years. (NOT ~~*I know her for years.*~~ – see 460.1)
I've been thinking about you all day.

For present perfect tenses in clauses referring to the future (e.g. *I'll take a rest when I've finished cleaning the kitchen*), see 580.

456 present perfect (2): perfect or past?

1 thinking about past and present together

We use the present perfect if we are thinking about the past and present together. We do not use the present perfect if we are not thinking about the present. Compare:

- *My sister has learnt French.* (She can speak French now.)
  Shakespeare probably learnt Italian. (NOT ~~*Shakespeare has probably learnt Italian.*~~)
- *We've studied enough to pass the exam.* (The exam is still to come.)
  We studied enough to pass the exam. (The exam is over.)
- *Ann and Peter have got married!* (news)
  My parents got married in Canada.

We do not use the present perfect in story-telling.

Once upon a time a beautiful princess fell in love with a poor farmer.
(NOT ... ~~*has fallen in love*~~ ...)

thinking about the past and present together: present perfect

*My sister **has learnt** French.* (= She can speak French now.)

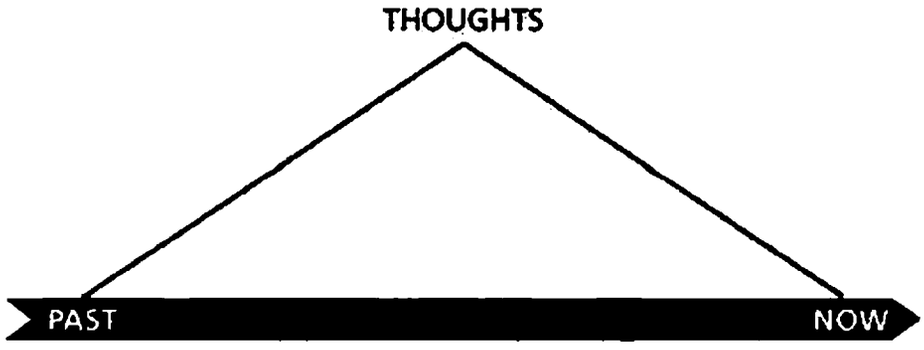

only thinking about the past: simple past

*Shakespeare probably **learnt** Italian.*

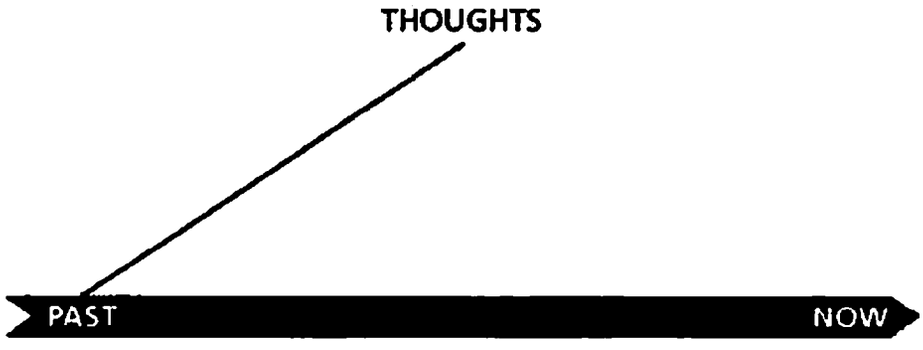

2 finished-time words: present perfect not used

We do not often use the present perfect with words that refer to a completely finished period of time, like *yesterday, last week, then, when, three years ago, in 1970.* This is because the present perfect focuses on the present, and words like these focus on the past, so they contradict each other. Compare:

- *Have you seen Lucy anywhere?*
  I saw Lucy yesterday. (NOT ~~*I have seen Lucy yesterday.*~~)
- *Tom **has hurt** his leg; he can't walk.*
  *Tom **hurt** his leg last week.* (NOT ~~*Tom has hurt his leg last week.*~~)
- *What **have** you **done** with the car keys? I can't find them.*
  *What **did** you **do** then?* (NOT ~~*What have you done then?*~~)
- *My brother **has had** an accident. He's in hospital.*
  *When **did** the accident **happen**?* (NOT ~~*When has the accident happened?*~~)
- *All my friends **have moved** to London.*
  *Eric **moved** three years ago.* (NOT ~~*Eric has moved three years ago.*~~)

For tenses with *just* and *just now*, see 307. ▶

3 *ever, before, recently* etc

But with words that mean 'at some/any time up to now' (like *ever, before, never, yet, recently, already*), we normally use the present perfect (see 455.5).

Have you ever been to Chicago? *I've seen this film before.*

4 time not mentioned

We use the present perfect when we are thinking of a period of 'time up to now', even if we do not mention it.

Have you seen 'Romeo and Juliet'? (= Have you ever seen it? or Have you seen the present production?)

You've done a lot for me. (... up to now)

On the other hand, we do not use the present perfect when we are thinking of a particular finished time, even if we do not mention it.

Did you see 'Romeo and Juliet'? (It was on TV last night.)

My grandfather did a lot for me. (... when he was alive)

5 news and details

We normally use the present perfect to announce news (see 455.4).

But when we give more details, we usually change to a past tense.

Joe has passed his exam! He got 87%.

There has been a plane crash near Bristol. Witnesses say that there was an explosion as the aircraft was taking off, ...

The Prime Minister has had talks with President Kumani. During a three-hour meeting, they discussed the economic situation, and agreed on the need for closer trade links between the two countries.

For more details, exceptions and notes on American usage, see 457.6.

457 present perfect (3): perfect or past (advanced points)

1 causes and origins: *Who gave you that?*

We normally use the present perfect when we are thinking about past events together with their present results (see 455.3).

I can't come to your party because I've broken my leg.

However, we usually prefer a past tense when we identify the person, thing or circumstances responsible for a present situation (because we are thinking about the past cause, not the present result). Compare:

- *Look what John's given me!* (thinking about the gift)
  Who gave you that? (thinking about the past action of giving)
- *Some fool has let the cat in.*
  Who let that cat in?

Other examples:

Why are you crying? ~ Granny hit me. (NOT ... ~~*Granny has hit me.*~~)

I'm glad you were born. *How did you get that bruise?*

That's a nice picture. Did you paint it yourself?

Some people think that 'Pericles' was not written by Shakespeare.

The Chinese invented paper. (NOT ~~*The Chinese have invented paper.*~~)

2 expectation and reality: *You're older than I thought*

We use a past tense to refer to a belief that has just been shown to be true or false.

It's not as big as I ***expected.*** (NOT ... ~~*as I have expected.*~~)
You're older than I ***thought.*** (NOT ... ~~*than I have thought.*~~)
But you ***promised*** ... *!* (NOT ~~*But you have promised*~~ ... *!*)
I ***knew*** *you would help me!* (NOT ~~*I have known*~~ ...*!*)

3 *today, this week* etc

With definite expressions of 'time up to now' (e.g. *today, this week*), perfect and past tenses are often both possible. We prefer the present perfect if we are thinking of the whole period up to now. We prefer the simple past if we are thinking of a finished part of that period. Compare:

- *I* ***haven't seen*** *John this week.* (the whole week up to now – present perfect more natural)
  I ***saw*** *John this week, and he said* ... (earlier in the week – simple past more natural)
- *Has Ann* ***phoned*** *today?* (meaning 'any time up to now')
  Did Ann ***phone*** *today?* (meaning 'earlier, when the call was expected')

4 *always, ever* and *never*

In an informal style, simple past tenses are sometimes possible with *always, ever* and *never* when they refer to 'time up to now'.

I ***always knew*** *I could trust you.* (OR *I've always known* ...)
Did you ***ever see*** *anything like that before?* (OR *Have you ever seen* ...*?*)

5 present perfect with past time expressions

Grammars usually say that the present perfect cannot be used together with expressions of finished time – we can say *I have seen him* or *I saw him yesterday*, but not ~~*I have seen him yesterday*~~. In fact, such structures are unusual but not impossible (though learners should avoid them). They often occur in brief news items, where space is limited and there is pressure to announce the news and give the details in the same clause.
Here are some real examples taken from news broadcasts, newspaper articles, advertisements, letters and conversations.

Police ***have arrested*** *more than 900 suspected drugs traffickers in raids throughout the country* ***on Friday and Saturday.***
... *a runner who's* ***beaten*** *Linford Christie* ***earlier this year.***
A 24-year-old soldier ***has been killed*** *in a road accident* ***last night.***
The horse's trainer ***has had*** *a winner here* ***yesterday.***
... *indicating that the geological activity* ***has taken place a very long time ago.***
Perhaps what ***has helped*** *us to win eight major awards* ***last year alone*** ...
I ***have stocked*** *the infirmary cupboard* ***only yesterday.***
I am pleased to confirm that Lloyds Bank ... ***has opened*** *a Home Loan account for you* ***on 19th May.***

▶

6 simple past for news

Recently, some British newspapers have started regularly using the simple past for smaller news announcements – probably to save space. This also happens on TV text news pages. Some authentic examples:

*An unnamed Ulster **businessman was shot** dead by terrorists . . .*
*A woman **was jailed** for six months after taking a baby boy from his mother.*
*Driving wind and rain **forced** 600 out of 2,500 teenagers to abandon the annual 'Ten Tor' trek across Dartmoor.*

7 American English

In American English the simple past is often used to give news.

***Did you hear? Switzerland declared / has declared** war on Mongolia!*
(BrE *Have you heard? Switzerland has declared war . . .*)
*Uh, honey, I **lost** / I've **lost** the keys* (BrE *. . . I've lost . . .*)
*Lucy just **called**.* (BrE *Lucy has just called.*)

In American English, it is also possible to use the simple past with indefinite past-time adverbs like *already, yet, ever* and *before.*

Did you eat already? OR ***Have you eaten . . .?*** (BrE *Have you eaten already?*)
I didn't call** Bobby yet* OR ***I haven't called . . . (BrE *I haven't called . . .*)

British English is changing under American influence, so some of these uses are becoming common in Britain as well.

For more about tenses with *just*, see 307.
For more about British-American differences, see 51.

8 bad rules (1): 'definite time'

Grammars sometimes say that the present perfect is not used with expressions referring to 'definite time'. This is confusing – the present perfect is not often used with **finished** time expressions, but it actually is very common with **definite** time expressions. Compare:

I've lived here for exactly three years, seven months and two days.
(present perfect with very definite time-reference)
Once upon a time a little girl lived with her mother in a lonely house in a dark forest. (simple past with very indefinite time-reference)

9 bad rules (2): 'finished actions'

Note also that the choice between simple present perfect and simple past does not depend on whether we are talking about finished **actions**, as learners' grammars sometimes suggest (though it can depend on whether we are talking about finished **time periods**). Compare:

*That cat **has eaten** your supper.* (finished action – present perfect)
*I **ate** the last of the eggs this morning.* (finished action – simple past)

10 bad rules (3): 'recent actions'

The choice also does not depend directly on whether actions and events are recent. Recent events are more likely to be 'news', and we are more likely to be concerned about their present results, so many present perfect sentences are in fact about recent events. But it is possible to use the present perfect to talk about things that happened a long time ago. Compare:

*The French revolution has **influenced** every popular radical movement in Europe since 1800.* (200-year-old event – present perfect)
*Ann **phoned** five minutes ago.* (very recent event – simple past)

11 both possible

The difference between the present perfect and the simple past is not always very clear-cut. It often depends on our 'focus': are we thinking mostly about the present relevance of a past event, or about the past details? In some cases both present perfect and past are possible with little difference of meaning.
*We (have) **heard** that you have rooms to let.*
*Has Mark **phoned**?* OR *Did Mark **phone**?*
*I've **given** / I **gave** your old radio to Philip.*

458 present perfect (4): progressive (or 'continuous')

1 forms

have/has been + -ing

I have been thinking about you.
Have you been waiting long?
I haven't been studying very well recently.

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping,* see 562.

2 continuing actions and situations

We use the present perfect progressive to look back over actions and situations which started in the past and are still going on.
*I've **been working** very hard recently.*
*It's **been raining** all day. I'm tired of it.*
*House prices **have been going** up steadily all this year.*
We often use the present perfect progressive to talk about people's use of their time up to the present.
*Hi! What **have you been doing** with yourself? ~ I've **been trying** to write a novel.*
*That kid **has been watching** TV non-stop since breakfast.*

present perfect progressive: actions and situations which started in the past and are still going on

*House prices **have been going** up steadily this year.*

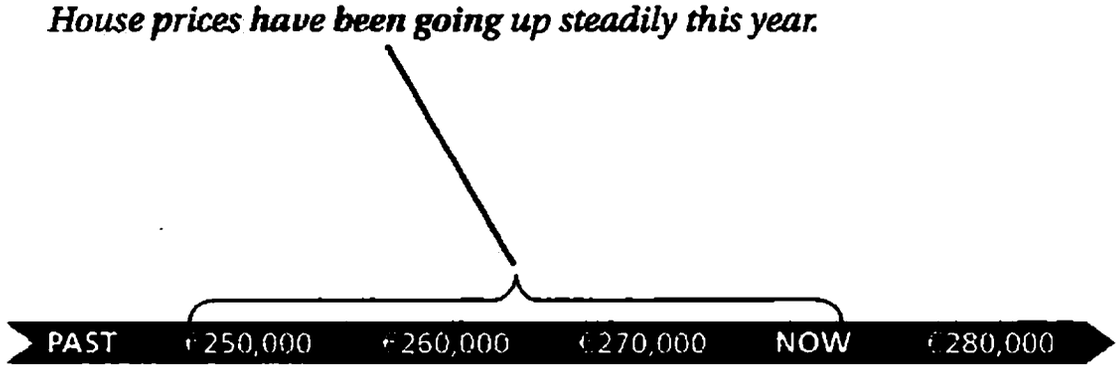

3 actions and situations that have just stopped

We also use the present perfect progressive for actions and situations which have just stopped, but which have present results.

*You look hot. ~ Yes, I've **been running**.*
*Sorry I'm late. **Have you been waiting** long?*
*I must just go and wash. I've **been gardening**.*

4 repeated actions

We can use the present perfect progressive for repeated as well as continuous activity.

*People **have been phoning** me all day.*
*I've **been waking** up in the night a lot. I think I'll see the doctor.*

5 time expressions: *recently, lately, this week, since ..., for ...*, etc

We often use the present perfect progressive with words that refer to a period of time continuing up to now, like *recently, lately, this week, since January, for the last three days.*

*The firm **has been losing** money recently.*
*John's **been walking** in Scotland all this week.*
*I've **been doing** a new job since January.*
*It's **been raining** for the last three days.*

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

6 not used with finished time expressions

We cannot use the present perfect progressive with expressions that refer to a finished period of time.

*You look tired. ~ Yes. I **was cycling** from midday until five o'clock.*
(NOT ... ~~*I've been cycling from midday until five o'clock.*~~)

7 how long?

We use the present perfect progressive, not the present progressive, to talk about how long something has been happening.

*How long **have you been studying** English?* (NOT ~~*How long are you studying*~~...?)
*I've **been working** here for two months.* (NOT ~~*I'm working here for two months.*~~)

For details, see 460.

8 present perfect progressive and (simple) present perfect

In some cases, we can also use the simple present perfect to talk about actions and situations continuing up to the present. Compare:

– *How long **have you been working** with her?*
  *How long **have you known** her?*
– *That man **has been standing** on the corner all day.*
  *For 900 years the castle **has stood** on the hill above the village.*

For the differences, see 459.

459 present perfect (5): simple or progressive?

1 non-progressive verbs

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is one for which a progressive form is more suitable. Common examples are *be*, *have* and *know*.

*John's **been** ill all week.* (NOT ~~*John's been being ill*~~...)
*She's **had** a cold since Monday.* (NOT ~~*She's been having a cold*~~...)
*I've only **known** her for two days.* (NOT ~~*I've only been knowing her*~~...)

2 temporary or permanent

We use progressive forms mostly for shorter, temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer-lasting or permanent situations we often prefer the simple present perfect. Compare:

- *That man **has been standing** on the corner all day.*
  *For 900 years the castle **has stood** on the hill above the village.*
- *I **haven't been working** very well recently.*
  *He **hasn't worked** for years.*
- *I've **been living** in Sue's flat for the last month.*
  *My parents **have lived** in Bristol all their lives.*

Progressive and simple tenses are sometimes both possible, with a slight difference of emphasis.

It's been raining / It's rained steadily since last Saturday.
*Harry **has been working / has worked** in the same job for thirty years.*

We generally use the progressive to talk about continuous change or development, even if this is permanent.

*Scientists believe that the universe **has been expanding** steadily since the beginning of time.*

3 *how much? how often?* simple present perfect

We use the simple present perfect to say how much we have done, or how often we have done something. Compare:

- *I've **been planting** rose bushes all afternoon.*
  *Look at all the rose bushes I've **planted**!* (NOT ...~~*I've been planting*~~.)
- *We've **been painting** the house.*
  *We've **painted** two rooms since lunchtime.* (NOT ~~*We've been painting two rooms since lunchtime*~~.)
- *I've **been playing** a lot of tennis recently.*
  I've played tennis three times this week.

460 present perfect (6): present perfect or present?

1 *how long?* present perfect

We use a present perfect to say how long a situation or action has continued up to now. Compare:

- *It's **raining** again.*
  *It's **been raining** since Christmas.* (NOT ~~*It's raining since Christmas*~~.)
- *Are you **learning** English?*
  *How long **have you been learning**?* (NOT ~~*How long are you learning?*~~) ▸

– *I hear you're working at Smiths.* ~ *Yes, I've been working there for a month.*
(NOT ~~*I'm working there for*~~ . . .)
– *I know her well.*
I've known her for years. (NOT ~~*I know her for years.*~~)
– *My brother's a doctor.*
How long has he been a doctor? (NOT ~~*How long is he a doctor?*~~)

Compare also:
How long are you here for? (= until when; when are you leaving?)
How long have you been here for? (= since when; when did you arrive?)

For the difference between simple and progressive forms, see 459.
For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.
For tenses with *since*, see 522.

2 *This is the first time* etc

We use a simple present perfect after *this is the first time that . . . , it's the second . . . that . . . ,* and similar structures (see 591).

This is the first time that I've heard her sing. (NOT ~~*This is the first time that I hear her sing.*~~)
It's the fifth time you've asked me the same question.
This is only the second opera I've ever seen.

For present perfect and simple present passives with similar meanings (e.g. *The shop has been / is closed*), see 420.

461 present tenses (1): introduction

1 the two present tenses

Most English verbs have two present tenses. Forms like *I wait, she thinks* are called 'simple present' or 'present simple'; forms like *I am waiting* or *she's thinking* are called 'present progressive' or 'present continuous'. The two present tenses are used in different ways.

2 general time: simple present

When we talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly or all the time (not just around now), we usually use the simple present (see 462–463 for details).

My parents live near Dover. *Water freezes at 0° Celsius.*
I go to London about three times a week.

3 around now: present progressive

When we talk about temporary continuing actions and events, which are just going on now or around now, we usually use a present progressive tense (see 464 for details).

What are you doing? ~ *I'm reading.*
I'm travelling a lot these days.

4 future time

Both present tenses can be used to talk about the future.
I'll meet you when you arrive.
Come and see us next week if you're passing through London.

For the differences, see 463–464, 466.

462 present tenses (2): simple present (forms)

1 forms

Affirmative	Question	Negative
I work	do I work?	I do not work
you work	do you work?	you do not work
he/she/it works	does he/she/it work?	he/she/it does not work
we work	do we work?	we do not work
they work	do they work?	they do not work

– Contracted negatives (see 143): *I don't work, he doesn't work* etc
– Negative questions (see 368): *do I not work?* or *don't I work?* etc

For passives (e.g. *The work is done*), see 412.

2 spelling of third person singular forms

Most verbs: add *-s* to infinitive	*work → works* *sit → sits* *stay → stays*
Verbs ending in consonant + *y*: change *y* to *i* and add *-es* But (vowel + *y*):	*cry → cries* *hurry → hurries* *reply → replies* *enjoy → enjoys*
Verbs ending in *-s*, *-z*, *-ch*, *-sh* or *-x*: add *-es* to infinitive	*miss → misses* *buzz → buzzes* *watch → watches* *push → pushes* *fix → fixes*
Exceptions:	*have → has* *go → goes* *do → does*

3 pronunciation of third person singular forms

The pronunciation of the *-(e)s* ending depends on the sound that comes before it. The rules are the same as for the plural *-(e)s* ending – see 525.
Irregular pronunciations: *says* (/sez/, not /seɪz/); *does* (/dʌz/, not /duːz/).

463 present tenses (3): simple present (use)

1 general time: *It always rains in November*

We often use the simple present to talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly, repeatedly or all the time.

What do frogs eat? (NOT ~~*What are frogs eating?*~~)
It always rains here in November.
I play tennis every Wednesday.
Alice works for an insurance company.

simple present: permanent situations

Alice works for an insurance company.

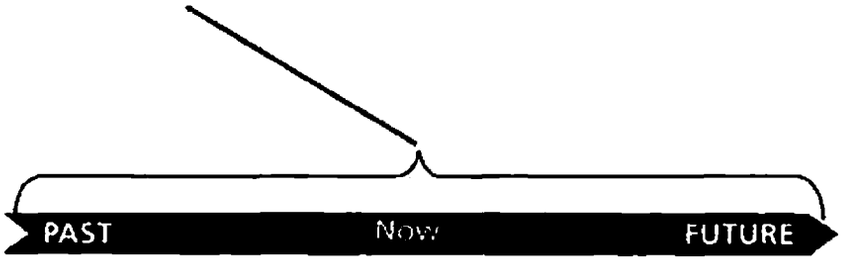

simple present: things that happen repeatedly

I play tennis every Wednesday.

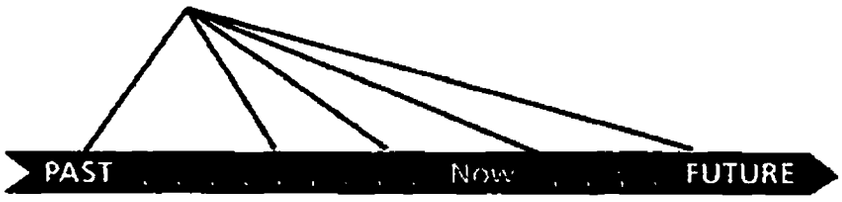

2 not used for things happening just around the present

We do not usually use the simple present to talk about temporary situations or actions that are only going on around the present. Compare:

- *Water boils at 100° Celsius.*
  The kettle's boiling – shall I make tea? (NOT ~~*The kettle boils*~~ . . .)
- *It usually snows in January.*
  Look – it's snowing! (NOT ~~*Look – It snows!*~~)
- *I play tennis every Wednesday.*
  Where's Bernard? ~ He's playing tennis. (NOT . . . ~~*He plays tennis.*~~)

3 non-progressive verbs

However, the simple present is used for this 'around the present' meaning with verbs that do not have progressive forms (see 471).

I like this wine very much. (NOT ~~*I'm liking*~~ . . .)
I believe you. (NOT ~~*I'm believing you.*~~)

4 talking about the future

We do not normally use the simple present to talk about the future.

*I promise I **won't** smoke any more.* (NOT ~~*I promise I don't smoke any more.*~~)
*We're **going** to the theatre this evening.* (NOT ~~*We go to the theatre this evening.*~~)
*There's the doorbell. ~ I'll **get** it.* (NOT ~~*I get it.*~~)

However, the simple present is used for 'timetabled' future events (see 215).

*His train **arrives** at 11.46.* *I **start** my new job tomorrow.*

And the simple present is often used instead of *will* ... in subordinate clauses that refer to the future. (For details, see 580).

*I'll kill anybody who **touches** my possessions.* (NOT ... ~~*who will touch*~~ ...)
*I'll phone you when I **get** home.* (NOT ... ~~*when I'll get home.*~~)

The simple present is also used in suggestions with *Why don't you ...?*

*Why **don't** you **take** a day off tomorrow?*

5 series of events: demonstrations, commentaries, instructions, stories

When we talk about series of completed actions and events, we often use the simple present. This happens, for example, in demonstrations, commentaries, instructions and present-tense stories (see 465 for more details).

*First I **take** a bowl and **break** two eggs into it. Next ...* (NOT ~~*First I am taking a bowl*~~ ...)
*Lydiard **passes** to Taylor, Taylor **shoots** – and it's a goal!*
*How **do** I **get** to the station? ~ You **go** straight on to the traffic lights, then you **turn** left, ...*
*So I **go** into the office, and I **see** this man, and he **says** to me ...*

6 *how long?* present tenses not used

We use a perfect tense, not a present tense, to say how long a present action or situation has been going on. (See 460 for details.)

*I've **known** her since 1960.* (NOT ~~*I know her since 1960.*~~)

464 present tenses (4): progressive (or 'continuous')

1 present progressive: forms

am/are/is + -ing

*I **am waiting**.*
*Are you **listening**?* *She isn't **working** today.*

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.
For passive forms (e.g. *The work **is being done***), see 412.

2 use: 'around now'

We use the present progressive to talk about temporary actions and situations that are going on now or 'around now': before, during and after the moment of speaking.

*Hurry up! We're all **waiting** for you!* (NOT ~~*We all wait*~~ ...)
*What are you **doing**? ~ I'm **writing** letters.* (NOT ... ~~*I write letters.*~~) ▸

Why are you crying? Is something wrong? (NOT ~~*Why do you cry?*~~ . . .)
He's working in Saudi Arabia at the moment.

present progressive: temporary actions and situations going on now or around now

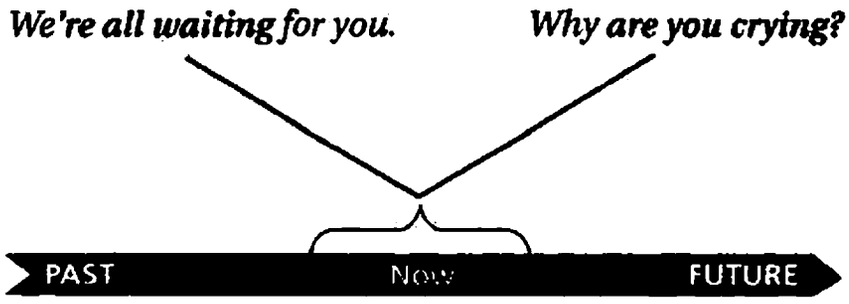

3 repeated actions

The present progressive can refer to repeated actions and events, if these are just happening around the present (for more details, see 466).

Why is he hitting the dog? *I'm travelling a lot these days.*

4 changes

We also use the present progressive to talk about developments and changes.

That child's getting bigger every day. *House prices are going up again.*

5 talking about the future

We often use the present progressive to talk about the future (see 214).

What are you doing tomorrow evening?
Come and see us next week if you're passing through London.

6 things that happen all the time: not used

We do not normally use the present progressive to talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly, repeatedly or all the time. Compare:

- *Look – the cat's eating your breakfast!*
  What do bears eat? ~ Everything. (NOT ~~*What are bears eating?*~~ . . .)
- *Why is that girl standing on the table?*
  Chetford Castle stands on a hill outside the town. (NOT . . . ~~*is standing*~~ . . .)
- *My sister's living at home for the moment.*
  Your parents live in North London, don't they?

7 verbs not used in progressive forms

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is 'just around now'.

I like this wine. (NOT ~~*I'm liking this wine.*~~)
Do you believe what he says? (NOT ~~*Are you believing*~~ . . .?)
The tank contains about 7,000 litres at the moment. (NOT ~~*The tank is containing*~~ . . .)

8 how long? present tenses not used

We use a perfect tense, not a present tense, to say how long something has been going on. (See 460 for details.)

*I've **been learning** English for three years.* (NOT ~~*I'm learning English for three years.*~~)

465 present tenses (5): stories, commentaries and instructions

1 stories

Present tenses are often used informally to tell stories. The simple present is used for the events – the things that happen one after another. The present progressive is used for 'background' – things that are already happening when the story starts, or that continue through the story. (This is like the difference between the simple past and past progressive: see 422.)

*So I **open** the door, and I **look** out into the garden, and I **see** this man. He's **wearing** pyjamas and a policeman's helmet. 'Hello,' he **says** ...*

*There's this Scotsman, you see, and he's **walking** through the jungle when he **meets** a gorilla. And the gorilla's **eating** a snake sandwich. So the Scotsman **goes** up to the gorilla ...*

The simple present is common in summaries of plays, stories, etc.

*In Act I, Hamlet **sees** the ghost of his father. The ghost **tells** him ...*

*Chapter 2: Henry **goes** to Scotland and **meets** the Loch Ness Monster.*

2 commentaries

In commentaries, the use of tenses is similar. The simple present is used for the quicker actions and events (which are finished before the sentences that describe them); the present progressive is used for longer actions and situations. There are more simple and fewer progressive tenses in a football commentary, for instance, than in a commentary on a boat race.

*Smith **passes** to Devaney, Devaney to Barnes – and Harris **intercepts** ... Harris **passes** back to Simms, nice ball – and Simms **shoots**!*

*Oxford **are pulling** slightly ahead of Cambridge now; they're **rowing** with a beautiful rhythm; Cambridge **are looking** a little disorganised ...*

3 instructions and demonstrations

We often use present tenses in a similar way to give instructions, demonstrations and directions.

*OK, let's go over it again. You **wait** outside the bank until the manager **arrives**. Then you **radio** Louie, who's **waiting** round the corner, and he **drives** round to the front entrance. You and Louie **grab** the manager ...*

*First I **put** a lump of butter into a frying pan and **light** the gas; then while the butter's **melting** I **break** three eggs into a bowl, like this ...*

*How **do** I get to the station? ~ You **go** straight on to the traffic lights, then you **turn** left ...*

466 present tenses (6): advanced points

1 repeated actions: simple or progressive?

The present progressive can refer to repeated actions and events, if these are happening around the moment of speaking.

Why is he hitting the dog?
Jake's seeing a lot of Felicity these days.

But we do not use the present progressive for repeated actions and events which are not closely connected to the moment of speaking.

I go to the mountains about twice a year. (NOT ~~*I'm going to the mountains about twice a year.*~~)
Water boils at 100° Celsius. (NOT ~~*Water is boiling at 100° Celsius.*~~)

2 long-lasting changes

We use the present progressive for changes and developments, even if these are very long-lasting.

The climate is getting warmer. (NOT ~~*The climate gets warmer.*~~)
The universe is expanding, and has been since its beginning.

3 *You look lovely when you're smiling*

We use the simple present for regular or repeated actions and events; but we can use the present progressive for things that are going on around these actions and events.

At seven, when the post comes, I'm usually having breakfast.
She doesn't like to be disturbed if she's working.
You look lovely when you're smiling.

4 *I promise* ... etc

Sometimes we do things by saying special words (e.g. promising, agreeing). We usually use the simple present in these cases.

I promise never to smoke again. (NOT ~~*I'm promising*~~ ...)
I swear that I will tell the truth ...
I agree. (NOT ~~*I am agreeing.*~~)
He denies the accusation. (NOT ~~*He is denying*~~ ...)

5 *I hear* etc

The simple present is used with a perfect or past meaning in introductory expressions like *I hear, I see, I gather, I understand* (see 243).

I hear you're getting married. (= I have heard ...)
I see there's been trouble down at the factory.
I gather Peter's looking for a job.

Quotations are often introduced with *says*.

No doubt you all remember what Hamlet says about suicide.
It says in the paper that petrol's going up again.

6 *Here comes* ... etc

Note the structures *here comes* ... and *there goes* ....

Here comes your husband. (NOT ~~*Here is coming*~~ ...)
There goes our bus – we'll have to wait for the next one.

7 *I feel / I'm feeling*

Verbs that refer to physical feelings (e.g. *feel, hurt, ache*) can often be used in simple or progressive tenses without much difference of meaning.

How do you feel? OR *How are you feeling?*
My head aches. OR *My head is aching.*

8 formal correspondence

Some fixed phrases that are used in letter-writing can be expressed either in the simple present (more formal) or in the present progressive (less formal).

We write to advise you . . . (Less formal: *We are writing to let you know . . .*)
I enclose my cheque for £200. (Less formal: *I am enclosing . . .*)
I look forward to hearing from you. (Less formal: *I'm looking forward to hearing . . .*)

For progressive forms with *always* and similar words (e.g. *She's always losing her keys*), see 472.
For progressive forms in general, see 470.
For the 'distancing' use of progressive forms, see 436.
For simple and progressive forms in older English, see 392.

467 presently

When *presently* means 'now, at present', it usually comes in mid-position with the verb (see 24).

Professor Holloway is presently working on plant diseases.
The Manager is presently on holiday, but he will contact you on his return.

An older meaning of *presently* (becoming less common) is 'not now, later', 'in a minute'.
With this meaning, *presently* usually comes in end-position, or separately as a short answer.

He's having a rest now. He'll be down presently.
Mummy, can I have an ice-cream? ~ *Presently, dear.*

468 price and prize

The *price* is what you pay if you buy something. A *prize* is what you are given if you have done something exceptional, or if you win a competition.

What's the price of the green dress? (NOT . . . ~~*the prize of the green dress?*~~)
She received the Nobel prize for physics. (NOT . . . ~~*the Nobel price*~~ . . .)

469 principal and principle

These two words have the same pronunciation. The adjective *principal* means 'main', 'most important'.

What's your principal reason for wanting to be a doctor? (NOT . . . ~~*your principle reason*~~ . . .)

The noun *principal* means 'headmaster' or 'headmistress' (especially, in Britain, of a school for adults).

If you want to leave early you'll have to ask the Principal. ▸

A *principle* is a scientific law or a moral rule.
*Newton discovered the **principle** of universal gravitation.* (NOT ... ~~*the principal of universal gravitation.*~~)
*She's a girl with very strong **principles**.*

470 progressive (1): general

1 forms

Progressive verb forms (also called 'continuous' forms) are made with *be + -ing*.
*I **am waiting** for the shops to open.* (present progressive)
*Your suit **is being cleaned**.* (present progressive passive)
*She phoned while I **was cooking**.* (past progressive)
*I didn't know how long she **had been sitting** there.* (past perfect progressive)
*Will you **be going** out this evening?* (future progressive)
*I'd like to **be lying** on the beach now.* (progressive infinitive)

2 terminology and use

A progressive form does not simply show the time of an event. It also shows how the speaker sees the event – generally as ongoing and temporary, not completed or permanent. (Because of this, grammars often talk about 'progressive aspect' rather than 'progressive tenses'.) Compare:
– *I've **read** your letter.* (completed action)
*I've **been reading** a lot of thrillers recently.* (not necessarily completed)
– *The Rhine **runs** into the North Sea.* (permanent)
*We'll have to phone the plumber – water's **running** down the kitchen wall.* (temporary)

When a progressive is used to refer to a short momentary action, it often suggests repetition.
*Why are you **jumping** up and down?*
*The door **was banging** in the wind.*

3 distancing

Progressive forms can make requests, questions and statements less direct. (They sound less definite than simple forms, because they suggest something temporary and incomplete.)
*I'm **hoping** you can lend me £10.* (less definite than *I hope ...*)
*What time are you **planning** to arrive?*
*I'm **looking** forward to seeing you again.*
*I'm afraid we must **be going**.*
*I **was wondering** if you had two single rooms.*
*Will you **be going** away at the weekend?*

For more about this kind of 'distancing', see 436.
For more details of the use of progressives, see the individual entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc.

471 progressive (2): non-progressive verbs

1 verbs not used in progressive ('continuous') forms

Some verbs are never or hardly ever used in progressive forms.

I like this music. (NOT ~~*I'm liking this music.*~~)

I rang her up because I needed to talk. (NOT ... ~~*because I was needing to talk.*~~)

Some other verbs are not used in progressive forms when they have certain meanings. Compare:

I'm seeing the doctor at ten o'clock.

I see what you mean. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing what you mean.*~~)

Many of these non-progressive verbs refer to states rather than actions. Some refer to mental states (e.g. *know, think, believe*); some others refer to the use of the senses (e.g. *smell, taste*).

Modal verbs (e.g. *can, must*) have no progressive forms. See 353.

2 common non-progressive verbs

Here is a list of some common verbs which are not often used in progressive forms (or which are not used in progressive forms with certain meanings).

mental and emotional states

believe	*(dis)like*	*see* (= understand)
doubt	*love*	*suppose*
feel (= have an opinion)	*prefer*	*think* (= have an opinion)
hate	*realise*	*understand*
imagine	*recognise*	*want*
know	*remember*	*wish*

use of the senses

feel	*see*	*sound*
hear	*smell*	*taste*

communicating and causing reactions

agree	*impress*	*promise*
appear	*look* (= seem)	*satisfy*
astonish	*mean*	*seem*
deny	*please*	*surprise*
disagree		

other

be	*deserve*	*measure* (= have length etc)
belong	*fit*	*need*
concern	*include*	*owe*
consist	*involve*	*own*
contain	*lack*	*possess*
depend	*matter*	*weigh* (= have weight)

More details of the use of some of these verbs are given in other entries in the book. See the Index for references. ▸

3 progressive and non-progressive uses

Compare the progressive and non-progressive uses of some of the verbs listed above.

- *I'm feeling fine.* (OR *I feel fine.* – see 202.1)
  I feel we shouldn't do it. (NOT ~~*I'm feeling we shouldn't do it.*~~ – *feel* here = have an opinion.)
- *What are you thinking about?*
  What do you think of the government? (NOT ~~*What are you thinking of the government?*~~ – *think* here = have an opinion.)
- *I'm seeing Leslie tomorrow.*
  I see what you mean. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing what you mean.*~~ – *see* here = understand.)
- *Why are you smelling the meat? Is it bad?*
  Does the meat smell bad? (NOT ~~*Is the meat smelling bad?*~~ – see 535.)
- *I'm just tasting the cake to see if it's OK.*
  The cake tastes wonderful. (NOT ~~*The cake's tasting wonderful.*~~ – see 577.)
- *The scales broke when I was weighing myself this morning.*
  I weighed 68 kilos three months ago – and look at me now!
  (NOT ~~*I was weighing 68 kilos*~~ . . . – *weigh* here = have weight.)

Occasionally 'non-progressive' verbs are used in progressive forms in order to emphasise the idea of change or development.

These days, more and more people prefer / are preferring to take early retirement.
The water tastes / is tasting better today.
As I get older, I remember / I'm remembering less and less.
I'm liking it here more and more as time goes by.

Need, want and *mean* can have future or present perfect progressive uses.

Will you be needing the car this afternoon?
I've just been invited to Sydney. It's wonderful – I've been wanting to go to Australia for years.
I've been meaning to tell you about Andrew. He . . .

4 *can see* etc

Can is often used with *see, hear, feel, taste, smell, understand* and *remember* to give a kind of progressive meaning, especially in British English. For details, see 125.

I can see Sue coming down the road.
Can you smell something burning?

5 *-ing* forms

Even verbs which are never used in progressive tenses have *-ing* forms which can be used in other kinds of structure.

Knowing her tastes, I bought her a large box of chocolates.
I don't like to go to a country without knowing something of the language.

472 progressive (3): with always etc

We can use *always, continually* and similar words with a progressive form to mean 'very often'.

I'm always losing my keys.
Granny's nice. She's always giving people little presents.
I'm continually running into Paul these days.
That cat's forever getting shut in the bathroom.

This structure is used to talk about things which happen very often (perhaps more often than expected), and which are unexpected or unplanned.

Compare:

– *When Alice comes to see me, I always meet her at the station.*
(a regular, planned arrangement)
I'm always meeting Mrs Bailiff in the supermarket.
(accidental, unplanned meetings)

– *When I was a child, we always had picnics on Saturdays in the summer.*
(regular, planned)
Her mother was always arranging little surprise picnics and outings.
(unexpected, not regular)

473 punctuation (1): full stop, question mark and exclamation mark

1 sentence division

Full stops (AmE periods), question marks and exclamation marks (AmE exclamation points) are used to close sentences. After one of these, a new sentence has a capital letter.

I looked out of the window. It was snowing again.
Why do we try to reach the stars? What is it all for?
They have no right to be in our country! They must leave at once!

We do not normally put full stops, question or exclamation marks before or after grammatically incomplete sentences.

She phoned me as soon as she arrived. (NOT ~~*She phoned me. As soon as she arrived.*~~)
In his job he has to deal with different kinds of people. (NOT ~~*In his job. He has to deal with different kinds of people.*~~)
Did you understand why I was upset? (NOT ~~*Did you understand? Why I was upset?*~~)

However, sometimes we can emphasise a clause or phrase by separating it with a full stop and capital letter.

People are sleeping out on the streets. In Britain. In the 21st century. Because there are not enough houses.

2 abbreviations

Full stops can be used after abbreviations (see 2). This is more common in American English than in British English.

Dr. Andrew C. Burke, M.A. (OR *Dr Andrew C Burke, MA*) ▸

3 indirect questions

We do not use question marks after indirect questions (see 276).
I asked her what time it was. (NOT ... ~~*what time it was?*~~)

474 punctuation (2): colon

1 explanations

A colon (:) usually introduces an explanation or further details.
We decided not to go on holiday: we had too little money.
There was a problem with the car: it was losing oil.

2 lists

A colon can introduce a list.
The main points are as follows: (1) ... , (2) ... , (3) ... .
We need three kinds of support: economic, moral and political.

3 subdivisions

A colon can introduce a subdivision of a subject in a title or heading.
punctuation: colon

4 capitals

In British English, it is unusual for a capital letter to follow a colon (except at the beginning of a quotation). However, this can happen if a colon is followed by several complete sentences.
My main objections are as follows:
First of all, no proper budget has been drawn up.
Secondly, there is no guarantee that ...
In American English, colons are more often followed by capital letters.

5 letters

Americans usually put a colon after the opening salutation (*Dear ...*) in a business letter.
Dear Mr. Callan:
I am writing to ...
British usage prefers a comma or no punctuation mark at all in this case.

6 direct speech

Normally, direct speech is introduced by a comma in writing (see 476.9).
Stewart opened his eyes and said, 'Who's your beautiful friend?'
But a long passage of direct speech may be introduced by a colon.
Introducing his report for the year, the Chairman said: 'A number of factors have contributed to the firm's very gratifying results. First of all, ...'
And a colon is used when direct speech is introduced by a name or short phrase (as in the text of a play, or when famous sayings are quoted).
POLONIUS: *What do you read, my lord?*
HAMLET: *Words, words, words.*
In the words of Murphy's Law: 'Anything that can go wrong will go wrong.'

475 punctuation (3): semi-colon

1 instead of full stops

Semi-colons (;) are sometimes used instead of full stops, in cases where sentences are grammatically independent but the meaning is closely connected. Semi-colons are not nearly as common as full stops or commas.

Some people work best in the mornings; others do better in the evenings.
It is a fine idea; let us hope that it is going to work.

Commas are not usually possible in cases like these (see 476).

2 in lists

Semi-colons can also be used to separate items in a list, particularly when these are grammatically complex.

You may use the sports facilities on condition that your subscription is paid regularly; that you arrange for all necessary cleaning to be carried out; that you undertake to make good any damage; . . .

For commas in lists, see 476.

476 punctuation (4): comma

Commas (,) generally reflect pauses in speech.

1 co-ordinate clauses

Clauses connected with *and, but* or *or* are usually separated by commas unless they are very short. Compare:

– *Jane decided to try the home-made steak pie, and Andrew ordered Dover sole with boiled potatoes.*
Jane had pie and Andrew had fish.
– *She had very little to live on, but she would never have dreamed of taking what was not hers.*
She was poor but she was honest.

2 subordinate clauses

When subordinate clauses begin sentences, they are often followed by commas. Compare:

If you are ever in London, come and see me.
Come and see me if you are ever in London.

Commas are not used before *that*-clauses.

It is quite natural that you should want to meet your father. (NOT ~~*It is quite natural, that*~~ . . .)

3 grammatically separate sentences: commas not used

We do not usually put commas between grammatically separate sentences (in places where a full stop or a semi-colon would be possible – see 473 and 475).

The blue dress was warmer. On the other hand, the purple one was prettier. OR *The blue dress was warmer; on the other hand . . .* (NOT ~~*The blue dress was warmer, on the other hand*~~ . . .) ▸

4 unusual word order

If words or expressions are put in unusual places or interrupt the normal progression of a sentence, we usually separate them off by commas.

*My father, **however**, did not agree.*
*Jane had, **surprisingly**, paid for everything.*
*We were, **believe it or not**, in love with each other.*
*Andrew Carpenter, **the deputy sales manager**, was sick.*

Two commas are necessary in these cases.

(NOT ~~*Andrew Carpenter the deputy sales manager, was sick*~~ . . .)

5 adjectives

After *be* and other 'link verbs' (see 328), commas are always used between adjectives.

*The cowboy was **tall, dark** and handsome.*

Before a noun, we generally use commas between adjectives which give similar kinds of information.

*This is an **expensive, ill-planned, wasteful** project.*

Commas are sometimes dropped between short adjectives.

*a **tall(,) dark(,) handsome** cowboy*

Commas cannot be dropped when adjectives or other modifiers refer to different parts of something.

*a **green, red** and gold carpet* (NOT ~~*a green red*~~ . . .)
*concrete, **glass** and plastic buildings*

Commas are not normally used before a noun when adjectives give different kinds of information.

*Have you met our **handsome new financial** director?* (NOT . . . ~~*our handsome, new, financial director?*~~)

6 identifying expressions: commas not used

When nouns are followed by identifying expressions which show exactly who or what is being talked about, commas are not used. Compare:

– *The driver **in the Ferrari** was cornering superbly.* (The phrase *in the Ferrari* identifies the driver.)
(NOT ~~*The driver, in the Ferrari, was cornering superbly*~~ OR ~~*The driver in the Ferrari, was cornering superbly*~~.)
*Stephens, **in the Ferrari**, was cornering superbly.* (The phrase *in the Ferrari* does not identify the driver; he is already identified by his name, *Stephens*.)

– *The woman **who was talking on the phone** gave Parker a big smile.*
*Mrs Grange, **who was talking on the phone**, gave Parker a big smile.*

For more about identifying and non-identifying relative clauses, see 495.

7 long subjects: commas not used

We do not usually put a comma after a subject, even if it is very long.

*The man **from the Japanese Ministry of Education** arrived early.*
(NOT ~~*The man from the Japanese Minstry of Education, arrived early*~~.)
What we need most of all is more time. (NOT ~~*What we need most of all, is*~~ . . .)

8 lists

We can use commas to separate items in a series or list. A comma is not usually used with *and* between the last two items unless these are long. Compare:

I went to Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Austria and Germany.
You had a holiday at Christmas, at New Year and at Easter.
I spent yesterday playing cricket, listening to jazz records, and talking about the meaning of life.

For semi-colons in lists, see 475.

9 direct speech

A comma is generally used between a reporting expression and a piece of direct speech.

He said, 'There's no way we can help her'.

If a reporting expression follows a piece of direct speech, we usually put a comma instead of a full stop before the closing quotation mark.

'I don't like this one bit,' said Julia.

10 indirect speech: no comma before *that* etc

We do not put commas before *that, what, where* etc in indirect speech structures.

Everybody realised that I was a foreigner. (NOT ~~*Everybody realised, that*~~ . . .)
They quickly explained what to do. (NOT ~~*They quickly explained, what*~~ . . .)
I didn't know where I should go. (NOT ~~*I didn't know, where*~~ . . .)

11 numbers

Commas are used to divide large numbers into groups of three figures, by separating off the thousands and millions.

6,435 (NOT ~~*6.435*~~) *7,456,189*

We do not always use commas in four-figure numbers, and they are never used in dates.

3,164 OR *3164* *the year 1946*

Spaces are sometimes used instead of commas.

There are 1 000 millimetres in one metre.

We do not use commas in decimals (see 389.1).

3.5 = three point five OR *three and a half* (NOT ~~*3,5 three comma five*~~)

477 punctuation (5): dash

Dashes (–) are especially common in informal writing. They can be used in the same way as colons, semi-colons or brackets.

There are three things I can never remember – names, faces, and I've forgotten the other.
We had a great time in Greece – the kids really loved it.
My mother – who rarely gets angry – really lost her temper. ▸

A dash can introduce an afterthought, or something unexpected and surprising.

We'll be arriving on Monday morning – at least, I think so.
And then we met Bob – with Lisa, believe it or not!

For the use of hyphens (as in *hard-working* or *co-operative*), see 559.

478 punctuation (6): quotation marks

Quotation marks can be single ('...') or double ("..."). They are also called 'inverted commas' in British English.

1 direct speech

We use quotation marks (single or double) when we quote direct speech. For quotations inside quotations, we use double quotation marks inside single (or single inside double).

'His last words,' said Albert, 'were "Close that bloody window".'

2 special use of words

We often put quotation marks (usually single) round words which are used in special ways – for example when we talk about them, when we use them as titles, or when we give them special meanings.

People disagree about how to use the word 'disinterested'.
His next book was 'Heart of Darkness'.
A textbook can be a 'wall' between the teacher and the class.

479 punctuation (7): apostrophe /əˈpɒstrəfiː/

We use apostrophes (') for three main reasons.

1 missing letters

Apostrophes replace letters in contracted forms (see 143).

can't (= cannot) *I'd* (= I would/had)
it's (= it is/has) *who's* (= who is/has)

2 possessives

We use apostrophes before or after possessive *-s* (see 439).

the girl's father *Charles's wife* *my parents' house*

Possessive determiners and pronouns (e.g. *yours, its*) do not have apostrophes.

This money is yours. (NOT ... ~~*your's.*~~)
The cat had not had its food yet. (NOT ... ~~*it's food*~~ ...)
Whose house did she stay in? (NOT ~~*Who's*~~ ...)

3 special plurals

Words which do not usually have plurals sometimes have an apostrophe when a plural form is written.

It is a nice idea, but there are a lot of if's.

Apostrophes are used in the plurals of letters, and sometimes of numbers and abbreviations.

*He writes **b's** instead of **d's**.*
*It was in the early **1960's**.* (More usually: ... *1960s.*)
*I know two **MP's** personally.* (More usually: ... *MPs.*)

It is not correct to put apostrophes in normal plurals.

JEANS – HALF PRICE (NOT ~~*JEAN'S*~~. . .)

480 questions (1): basic rules

These rules apply to most written and spoken questions. For 'declarative questions' like *This is your car?* (in which the subject comes before the verb), see 481.

1 auxiliary verb before subject: *Have you . . .?*

In a question, an auxiliary verb normally comes before the subject.

*When **is** Oliver leaving?* (NOT ~~*When Oliver is leaving?*~~)
*Have **you** received my letter of June 17?* (NOT ~~*You have received*~~. . .?)
*Why **are you** laughing?* (NOT ~~*Why you are laughing?*~~)
*What **are all those people** looking at?* (NOT ~~*What all those people are looking at?*~~)
*How much **does the room** cost?* (NOT ~~*How much the room costs?*~~)

2 *do*: *Do you like . . .?*

If there is no other auxiliary verb, we use *do, does* or *did* to form a question.

Do you like Mozart? (NOT ~~*Like you Mozart?*~~)
*What **does** 'periphrastic' mean?* (NOT ~~*What means 'periphrastic'?*~~)
Did you wash the car today?

3 *do* not used with other auxiliaries

Do is not used together with other auxiliary verbs or with *be*.

Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Do you can tell me the time?*~~)
Have you seen John? (NOT ~~*Do you have seen John?*~~)
Are you ready?

4 infinitive after *do*: *What does he want?*

After *do*, we use the infinitive (without *to*).

What does the boss want? (NOT ~~*What does the boss wants?*~~)
Did you go climbing last weekend? (NOT ~~*Did you went*~~. . .? OR ~~*Did you to go*~~. . .?)

5 only auxiliary verb before subject

Only the auxiliary verb goes before the subject, not the whole of the verb.

Is your mother coming tomorrow? (NOT ~~*Is coming your mother tomorrow?*~~)
Is your daughter having a lesson today? (NOT ~~*Is having your daughter*~~. . .?)
When was your reservation made? (NOT ~~*When was made your reservation?*~~)

This happens even if the subject is very long.

Where are the President and his family staying? (NOT ~~*Where are staying the President*~~. . .?)

▶

6 *Who phoned? / Who did you phone?*

When *who, which, what* or *whose* is the subject (or part of the subject), *do* is not normally used. Compare:

- *Who **phoned?*** (*Who* is the subject.)
  *Who **did** you **phone?*** (*Who* is the object.)
- *What **happened?*** (*What* is the subject.)
  *What **did** she **say?*** (*What* is the object.)

More examples:

Which costs more – the blue one or the grey one? (NOT ~~*Which does cost more*~~ . . .?)
Which type of battery lasts longest? (NOT ~~*Which type of battery does last longest?*~~)
How many people work in your office? (NOT ~~*How many people do work*~~ . . .?)

But *do* can be used after a subject question word for emphasis, to insist on an answer.

*Well, tell us – what **did** happen when your father found you?*
*So who **did** marry the Princess in the end?*

7 indirect questions: *Tell me when you are leaving*

In an indirect question, we do not put an auxiliary before the subject, and we do not use a question mark. For details, see 276.

Tell me when you are leaving. (NOT ~~*Tell me when are you leaving?*~~)

8 prepositions: *What are you talking about?*

Prepositions often come at the end of *wh*-questions, separated from their objects. (For details, see 452.)

*What are you talking **about**?* (NOT ~~*About what are you talking?*~~)
*Who did you buy the ticket **from**?*
*What did you clean the floor **with**?*

For negative questions, see 368.
For ellipsis in questions (e.g. *Seen John? Coming tonight?*), see 179.

481 questions (2): declarative questions

In spoken questions, we do not always use 'interrogative' word order.

You're working late tonight?

These 'declarative questions' are often used when the speaker thinks he/she knows or has understood something, but wants to make sure or express surprise. A rising intonation is common.

This is your car? (= I suppose this is your car, isn't it?)
That's the boss? I thought he was the cleaner.
We're going to Hull for our holidays. ~ You're going to Hull?

This word order is not normally possible after a question word.

Where are you going? (NOT ~~*Where you are going?*~~)

482 questions (3): rhetorical questions

1 questions that do not expect an answer

Questions do not always ask for information. In many languages, a question with an obvious answer can be used simply as a way of drawing attention to something. Questions of this kind are called 'rhetorical questions'.

Do you know what time it is? (= You're late.)
Who's a lovely baby? (= You're a lovely baby.)
I can't find my coat. ~ ***What's this, then?*** (= Here it is, stupid.)

Very often, a rhetorical question draws attention to a negative situation – the answer is obviously *No*, or there is no answer to the question.

What's the use of asking her? (= It's no use asking her.)
How do you expect me to find milk on a Sunday night? Where am I going to find a shop open? (= You can't reasonably expect ... There aren't any shops open.)
Where's my money? (= You haven't paid me.)
I can run faster than you. ~ ***Who cares?*** (= Nobody cares.)
Are we going to let them do this to us? (= We aren't ...)
Have you lost your tongue? (= Why don't you say anything?)
What do you think you're doing? (= You can't justify what you're doing.)
Who do you think you are? (= You aren't as important as your behaviour suggests.)
Why don't you take a taxi? (= There's no reason not to.)

2 *Why/How should ...?*

Why should ...? can be used aggressively to reject suggestions, requests and instructions.

Ann's very unhappy. ~ ***Why should I care?***
Could your wife help us in the office tomorrow? ~ ***Why should she? She doesn't work for you.***

How should/would I know? is an aggressive reply to a question.

What time does the film start? ~ ***How should I know?***

3 negative *yes/no* questions

Negative *yes/no* questions (see 368) often suggest that the speaker wants the answer *Yes*, or some other positive response.

Haven't I done enough for you? (= I have done enough for you.)
Didn't I tell you it would rain? (= I told you ...)
Don't touch that! ~ ***Why shouldn't I?*** (= I have a perfect right to.)

483 questions (4): echo questions

1 *You're getting married?*

To question what has been said, a speaker may simply repeat ('echo') what he/she has heard. A rising intonation is common.

I'm getting married. ~ ***You're getting married?*** ▸

2 *Take a look at what?*

To question one part of a sentence, we can repeat the rest of the sentence, and put a stressed question word in place of the part we are asking about.

Just take a look at that. ~ ***Take a look at what?***
She's invited thirteen people to dinner. ~ ***She's invited how many?***
We're going to Tierra del Fuego on holiday. ~ ***You're going where?***
I've broken the fettle gauge. ~ ***You've broken the what?***

To question a verb, or the part of a sentence beginning with the verb, *do what* is used.

She set fire to the garage. ~ ***She did what (to the garage)?***

3 repeating a question

A speaker may question a question, by repeating it with a rising intonation. Note that we use normal question structures with inverted word order, not indirect question structures, in this case.

Where are you going? ~ ***Where am I going?*** *Home.* (NOT ... ~~*Where I'm going?*~~ ...)
What does he want? ~ ***What does he want?*** *Money, as usual.* (NOT ... ~~*What he wants?*~~ ...)
Are you tired? ~ ***Am I tired?*** *Of course not.* (NOT ... ~~*Whether I'm tired?*~~ ...)
Do squirrels eat insects? ~ ***Do squirrels eat insects?*** *I'm not sure.* (NOT ... ~~*Whether squirrels eat insects?*~~ ...)

484 questions (5): reply questions (Was it? Did you?)

Short questions are often used in conversation to show that the listener is paying attention and interested. They are constructed with auxiliary verb + pronoun, like question tags (see 487).

It was a terrible party. ~ ***Was it?*** ~ *Yes ...*

Note that these questions do not ask for information - they simply show that the listener is reacting to what has been said. More examples:

We had a lovely holiday. ~ ***Did you?*** ~ *Yes, we went ...*
I've got a headache. ~ ***Have you, dear?*** *I'll get you an aspirin.*
John likes that girl next door. ~ ***Oh, does he?***
I don't understand. ~ ***Don't you?*** *I'm sorry.*

Negative questions in reply to affirmative statements express emphatic agreement (like negative-question exclamations – see 195.4).

It was a lovely concert. ~ ***Yes, wasn't it?*** *I did enjoy it.*
She's put on a lot of weight. ~ ***Yes, hasn't she?***

485 questions (6): question-word clauses

1 question-word clauses as objects

Clauses beginning with question words can refer both to questions and to the answers to questions. They often act as the objects of verbs – for example, when questions and their answers are reported (see 276).

*I asked **who wanted to come.***
*She wondered **why he wasn't wearing a coat.***
*We need to decide **where Ann's going to sleep.***
*He told me **when he was arriving**, but I've forgotten.*
*She explained **what the problem was.***

2 other uses

Question-word clauses can act not only as objects, but also as subjects, complements or adverbials. This structure is often rather informal (especially with *how*-clauses – see 252).

Who you invite is your business. *A hot bath is **what I need.***
Where we stay doesn't matter. *This is **how much I've done.***
*I'm surprised at **how fast she can run.***
*You can eat it **how you like.*** (very informal)

The 'preparatory *it*' structure is often used with subject clauses (see 446).

*It's your business **who you invite.*** *It doesn't matter **where we stay.***

Question-word clauses can give more information about nouns. In this case they are called 'relative clauses' (see 494–498 for details).

*There's that man **who threw stones at your dog.***
*The place **where Mary works** has just had a fire.*

486 questions (7): that-clauses

A *wh*-question usually refers to the main clause which starts with the question word. However, questions can also refer to subordinate *that*-clauses after verbs like *wish*, *think* or *say*.

*Who do you wish **(that) you'd married**, then?*
*How long do you think **(that) we should wait?***
*What did you say **(that) you wanted** for Christmas?*

That is usually dropped; it must be dropped when the question word refers to the subject of the subordinate clause.

*Who do you think **is outside?*** (NOT ~~*Who do you think that is outside?*~~)
*What do you suppose **will happen now?*** (NOT ~~*What do you suppose that will happen now?*~~)

487 question tags (1): basic information

1 What are question tags?

'Question tags' are the small questions that often come at the ends of sentences in speech, and sometimes in informal writing.

*The film wasn't very good, **was it?*** ▸

Negatives are usually contracted. Full forms are possible in formal speech.

*That's the postman, **isn't it?*** *You take sugar in tea, **don't you?***

*They promised to repay us within six months, **did they not?*** (formal)

Question tags can be used to check whether something is true, or to ask for agreement.

2 negative after affirmative, and vice versa

Question tags are used after affirmative and negative sentences, but not after questions.

You're** the new secretary, **aren't you?

You're not** the new secretary, **are you?

(BUT NOT ~~*Are you the new secretary, aren't you?*~~)

To check information or ask for agreement, we most often put negative tags after affirmative sentences, and non-negative tags after negative sentences.

+	−
*It's cold, **isn't it?***	*It's not warm, **is it?***

For 'same-way' tags, see 488.7

3 auxiliaries

If the main sentence has an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be*), this is repeated in the question tag.

*Sally **can** speak French, **can't** she?*

*The meeting's at ten, **isn't** it?*

*You **didn't** speak to Luke, **did** you?*

*You **wouldn't** like a puppy, **would** you?*

If the main sentence has no auxiliary, the question tag has *do*.

*You like oysters, **don't** you?*

*Harry gave you a cheque, **didn't** he?*

4 negative words

Non-negative tags are used after sentences containing negative words like *never, no, nobody, hardly, scarcely* and *little*.

*You **never** say what you're thinking, **do you?*** (NOT ... ~~*don't you?*~~)

*It's **no** good, **is it?*** (NOT ... ~~*isn't it?*~~)

*It's **hardly** rained at all this summer, **has it?***

*There's **little** we can do about it, **is there?***

5 meaning and intonation

In speech, we can show the exact meaning of a question tag by the intonation. If the tag is a real question – if we really want to know something and are not sure of the answer – we use a rising intonation: the voice goes up.

*The meeting's at four o'clock, **isn't it?***

If the tag is not a real question – if we are sure of the answer – we use a falling intonation: the voice goes down.

*It's a beautiful day, **isn't it?***

In writing, the exact meaning of a question tag is normally clear from the context.

6 requests

We often ask for help or information by using the structure **negative statement + question tag**.

*You **couldn't** lend me a pound, **could you?***
*You **haven't** seen my watch anywhere, **have you?***

For details of other kinds of tags, see 514.

488 question tags (2): advanced points

1 *aren't I?*

The question tag for *I am* is *aren't I?*
*I'm late, **aren't I?***

2 imperatives

After imperatives, *won't you?* can be used to invite people politely to do things (especially in British English).
*Come in, **won't you?***
Will/would/can/could you? can all be used to tell or ask people to do things.
*Give me a hand, **will you?*** *Open a window, **would you?***
Can't you expresses impatience.
*Shut up, **can't you?***
After a negative imperative, we use *will you?*
*Don't forget, **will you?***

3 *let's*

After *let's* ... (in suggestions etc, see 323), we use *shall we?*
*Let's have a party, **shall we?***

4 *there*

There can be a subject in question tags.
*There's something wrong, **isn't there?***
*There weren't any problems, **were there?***
When *there's* introduces a plural subject (see 532.4), the tag is *aren't there?*
*There's some more chairs upstairs, **aren't there?***

5 *it* and *they* with *nothing, nobody, somebody* etc

We use *it* in question tags to refer to *nothing* and *everything*.

Nothing can happen, can it?

We use *they* (see 528) to refer to *nobody, somebody* and *everybody* (and *no one* etc).

Nobody phoned, did they?
Somebody wanted a drink, didn't they? Who was it?

6 non-auxiliary *have*

After non-auxiliary *have* (referring to states), question tags with *have* and *do* are often both possible. (*Do* is normal in American English.)

Your father has a bad back, hasn't/doesn't he?

For more about the use of *do* with *have*, see 236–239.

7 'same-way' question tags: *You're getting married, are you?*

Non-negative question tags are quite common after affirmative sentences. These are often used as responses to something that has been said, like 'reply questions' (see 484): the speaker repeats what he/she has just heard or learnt, and uses the tag to express interest, surprise, concern or some other reaction.

So you're getting married, are you? How nice!
So she thinks she's going to become a doctor, does she? Well, well.
You think you're funny, do you?

'Same-way' tags can also be used to ask questions. In this structure, we use the main sentence to make a guess, and then ask (in the tag) if it was correct.

Your mother's at home, is she? *This is the last bus, is it?*
You can eat shellfish, can you?

I'll ... shall I? can be used to make offers.

I'll hold that for you, shall I?

Negative 'same-way' tags are occasionally heard; they usually sound aggressive.

I see. You don't like my cooking, don't you?

8 ellipsis: *Nice day, isn't it?*

In sentences with question tags, it is quite common to leave out pronoun subjects and auxiliary verbs. (This is called 'ellipsis'. For details, see 179.)

(It's a) nice day, isn't it? *(She was) talking to my husband, was she?*

In very informal speech, a question tag can sometimes be used after a question with ellipsis.

Have a good time, did you? *Your mother at home, is she?*
John be here tomorrow, will he?

For details of other kinds of tags, see 514.

9 *I (don't) think*

Note the use of question tags in sentences beginning with *I (don't) think* and similar expressions (see 179).

I think he's Norwegian, isn't he? (NOT ... ~~*don't I?*~~)
I don't think it will rain, will it? (NOT ... ~~*do I?*~~)
I suppose you're hungry, aren't you?

489 quite

1 two meanings

Quite has two meanings. Compare:

*It's **quite** good, but it could be better.* (= It's OK, not bad.)
*It's **quite** impossible.* (= It's completely impossible.)

Good is a 'gradable' adjective: things can be more or less good. With gradable words, *quite* usually means something like 'fairly' or 'rather' (see 199) in affirmative sentences. *Impossible* is non-gradable: things are either impossible or not; but they cannot be more or less impossible. With non-gradable words, *quite* means 'completely'. Compare:

- *I'm **quite** tired, but I can walk a bit further.*
  *I'm **quite** exhausted – I couldn't walk another step.*
- *It's **quite** surprising.* (similar to *fairly surprising*)
  *It's **quite** amazing.* (= absolutely amazing)
- *He speaks French **quite** well, but he's got a strong English accent.*
  *He speaks French **quite** perfectly.*
- *I **quite** like her, but she's not one of my closest friends.*
  *Have you **quite** finished?* (= Have you completely finished?)

In American English *quite* with gradable adjectives often means something like 'very', not 'fairly/rather'.

2 word order with nouns

Quite can be used with ***a/an*** + **noun**. It normally comes before *a/an* if there is a gradable adjective or no adjective.

*It's **quite** a nice day.*
*We watched **quite** an interesting film last night.*
*She's **quite** a woman!* *The party was **quite** a success.*

With non-gradable adjectives, *quite* normally comes after *a/an* in BrE.

*It was a **quite** perfect day.* (AmE *It was **quite** a perfect day.*)

Quite is sometimes used before *the* to mean 'exactly', 'completely'.

*He's going **quite** the wrong way.* *quite the opposite*

3 comparisons

Quite is not used directly before comparatives.

*She's **rather / much / a bit** older than me.* (BUT NOT ~~*She's quite older*~~...)

But we use *quite better* to mean 'completely recovered' (from an illness). *Quite similar* means 'fairly/rather similar'; *quite different* means 'completely different'.

4 *quite* a *bit/few/lot* etc

Quite a bit and *quite a few* (informal) mean almost the same as *quite a lot.*

*We're having **quite a bit** of trouble with the kids just now.*
*We thought nobody would be there, but actually **quite a few** people came.*

5 *not quite*

Not quite means 'not completely' or 'not exactly'. It can be used before adjectives, adverbs, verbs and nouns, including nouns with *the.*

*I'm **not quite** ready – won't be a minute.*
*She didn't run **quite** fast enough for a record.*
*I don't **quite** agree.* *That's **not quite** the colour I wanted.*

490 rather: adverb of degree (rather good, etc)

1 meaning

Rather can be used as an adverb of degree. The meaning is similar to 'quite' or 'fairly', but more emphatic (see 199). This use of *rather* is less common in American English.

*The film was **rather** good.* *Some people **rather** like being miserable.*
*It's **rather** later than I thought.* *I **rather** think we're going to lose.*

Rather often suggests 'more than is usual', 'more than was expected', 'more than is wanted' and similar ideas.

*How was the film? ~ **Rather** good – I was surprised.*
*She sings **rather** well – people often think she's a professional.*
*It's **rather** warm in here. Let's open a window.*

2 word order with articles

Rather generally comes before articles, but can also come after *a/an* if there is an adjective.

*That's **rather** the impression I wanted to give.*
*He's **rather** a fool.*
*Jane's had **rather** a good idea.* (OR *Jane's had a **rather** good idea.*)

3 plural nouns

Rather is not normally used before a plural noun with no adjective.
(NOT ~~*They're rather fools.*~~)

491 rather: preference

1 *rather than*

This expression is normally used in 'parallel' structures: for example with two adjectives, adverbs, nouns, infinitives or *-ing* forms.

*I'd call her hair **chestnut rather than brown**.*
*I'd prefer to go **in August rather than in July**.*
*We ought to invest **in machinery rather than buildings**.*
*I prefer **starting early rather than leaving** things to the last minute.*

When the main clause has a *to*-infinitive, *rather than* is usually followed by an infinitive without *to* or an *-ing* form.

*I decided **to write rather than phone/phoning**.*
*Rather than **use/using** the last of my cash, I decided **to write** a cheque.*

2 *would rather*

This expression means 'would prefer to', and is followed by the infinitive without *to*. We often use the contraction *'d rather*.

*Would you **rather** stay here or go home?*
*How about a drink? ~ I'd **rather** have something to eat.*

The negative is *would rather not*.

*I'd **rather not** go out tonight.* (NOT ~~*I wouldn't rather*~~ . . .)

Note that *would rather like* does not mean 'would prefer'; in this expression, *rather* means 'quite', and does not suggest preference. Compare:

I'd rather like a cup of coffee. (= I'd quite like ...)

~ *Oh, would you? I'd rather have a glass of beer.* (= I'd prefer ...)

3 *would rather*: past tense with present or future meaning

We can use *would rather* to say that a person would prefer somebody to do something. We use a special structure with a past tense.

would rather + subject + past tense

I'd rather you went home now.
Tomorrow's difficult. I'd rather you came next weekend.
My wife would rather we didn't see each other any more.
Shall I open a window? ~ *I'd rather you didn't.*

A present tense or present subjunctive is possible (e.g. *I'd rather he goes / he go home now*), but unusual. To talk about past actions, a past perfect tense is possible.

I'd rather you hadn't done that.

However, this kind of idea is usually expressed with *I wish* (see 630).

I wish you hadn't done that.

In older English, *had rather* was used in the same way as *would rather*. This structure is still found in grammars, but it is not normally used.

For other structures where a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.

4 *or rather*

People often use *or rather* to correct themselves.

He's a psychologist – or rather, a psychoanalyst. (NOT ... ~~*or better, a psychoanalyst.*~~)

5 *would rather* and *had better*

Note that *would rather* (= would prefer) is not the same as *had better* (= should) – see 230. Compare:

I suppose I'd better clean the windows, but I'd rather watch TV.

492 reason

The preposition *for* is used both before and after *reason*.

What's the real reason for your depression? (NOT ... ~~*reason of your depression?*~~)

I need to talk to you for two reasons.

Reason can be followed by a clause beginning *why* ... or *that* ....

The reason why I came here was to be with my family.
Do you know the reason that they're closing the factory?

In an informal style, *why/that* is often left out.

The reason she doesn't like me is that I make her nervous.

Some people consider it incorrect to use a *because*-clause as a complement after *reason* (as in *Sorry I'm late – the reason is because I overslept.*)

493 reflexive pronouns

1 What are reflexive pronouns?

Reflexive pronouns are *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

2 use: *I cut myself shaving*

A common use of reflexive pronouns is to talk about actions where the subject and object are the same person.

*I cut **myself** shaving this morning.* (NOT ~~*I cut me*~~ . . .)
*We got out of the water and dried **ourselves**.* (NOT . . . ~~*dried us.*~~)
*I'm going to the shops to get **myself** some tennis shoes.*
*Talking to **oneself** is the first sign of madness.*

Reflexive pronouns can also refer to possessives and objects.

*His letters are all about **himself**.*
*I'm going to tell her a few facts about **herself**.*
*I love you for **yourself**, not for your money.*

3 after prepositions: *She took her dog with her*

After prepositions of place, we often use a personal pronoun (*me, you* etc) if the meaning is clear without using a reflexive. Compare:

*She took her dog with **her**.* (NOT . . . ~~*with herself.*~~ She could hardly take her dog with somebody else.)
*She's very pleased with **herself**.* (She could be pleased with somebody else.)

Other examples:

*Close the door **after you**.* *He was pulling a small cart **behind him**.*

4 emphatic use: *Do it yourself*

We can use reflexives as emphasisers, to mean 'that person/thing and nobody/nothing else'.

*It's quicker if you do it **yourself**.* *The manageress spoke to **me herself**.*
*The house **itself** is nice, but the garden's very small.*
*I'll go and see the President **himself** if I have to.*

5 reflexives used instead of personal pronouns

Reflexives are sometimes used instead of personal pronouns after *as, like, but (for)* and *except (for).*

*These shoes are designed for heavy runners **like yourself**.* (OR . . . ***like you.***)
*Everybody was early **except myself**.* (OR . . . ***except me.***)

Reflexives can also be used instead of personal pronouns in co-ordinated noun phrases.

*There will be four of us at dinner: Robert, Alison, Jenny **and myself**.*
(OR . . . *and I/me.*)

People often feel that these uses are fussy – too exact and unnecessary.

6 *by oneself*

By myself/yourself etc means 'alone, without company' or 'without help'.

*I often like to spend time **by myself**.*
*Do you need help? ~ No, thanks. I can do it **by myself**.*

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7 *-selves* and *each other / one another*

Note the difference between *-selves* and *each other / one another* (see 171).

*They talk to **themselves** a lot.* (Each of them talks to him/herself.)
*They talk to **each other** a lot.* (Each of them talks to the other.)

8 *own*

There are no possessive reflexives. Instead, we use *my own, your own* etc.

*I always type **my own** letters.* (NOT ... ~~*myself's letters.*~~)
*The children have both got **their own** rooms.*

9 reflexives not used

Certain verbs (e.g. *wash, dress, shave*) have reflexive pronouns in some languages but not in English.

*Do you **shave** on Sundays?* (NOT ~~*Do you shave yourself on Sundays?*~~)

However, reflexives can be used if it is necessary to make it clear who does the action.

*She's old enough to **dress herself** now.*
*The barber shaves all the people in the town who don't **shave themselves**. So does he **shave himself** or not?*

Some other verbs which do not normally have reflexive pronouns:

*Suddenly the door **opened**.* (NOT ~~*Suddenly the door opened itself.*~~)
*His book's **selling** well.* (NOT ~~*His book's selling itself well.*~~)
*Try to **concentrate**.* (NOT ~~*Try to concentrate yourself.*~~)
*I **feel** strange.* (NOT ~~*I feel myself strange.*~~)
Hurry! (NOT ~~*Hurry yourself!*~~)

For more about structures like *The door opened* and *His book's selling well*, see 609.

494 relatives (1): basic information

1 relative clauses: *the people who live next door*

Clauses beginning with question words (e.g. *who, which, where*) are often used to modify nouns and some pronouns – to identify people and things, or to give more information about them. Clauses used like this are called 'relative clauses'.

*Do you know the people **who live next door**?*
*Those **who want tickets** can get them from the office.*
*There's a programme tonight **which you might like**.*
*He lives in a village **where there are no shops**.*

2 relative pronouns: *who, whom, which*

When *who, whom* and *which* introduce relative clauses, they are called 'relative pronouns'. *Who(m)* refers to people and *which* to things.

*What's the name of the tall man **who** just came in?* (NOT ... ~~*the tall man which*~~ ...)
*It's a book **which** will interest children of all ages.* (NOT ... ~~*a book who*~~ ...)

3 subject and object

Who and *which* can be the subjects of verbs in relative clauses.

*I like people **who smile** a lot.*
*This is the key **which opens** the garage,* ▸

Who(m) and *which* can also be the objects of verbs in relative clauses. *Whom* is unusual in an informal style (see 623).

*Do you remember the people **who we met** in Italy?* (*Who* is the object of *met*.)

*I forget most of the films **which I see**.* (*Which* is the object of *see*.)

4 *that* = *who/which*

We often use *that* instead of *who* or *which*, especially in an informal style.

*I like people **that** smile a lot.*

*This is the key **that** opens the garage.*

*Do you remember the people **that** we met in Italy?*

*I forget most of the films **that** I see.*

5 *all that, only ... that* etc

That is especially common after quantifiers like *all, every(thing), some(thing), any(thing), no(thing), none, little, few, much, only*, and after superlatives.

*Is this **all that's** left?* (More natural than ... *all which is left?*)

*Have you got **anything that** belongs to me?* (More natural than ... *anything which* ...)

*The **only** thing **that** matters is to find our way home.*

*I hope the **little that** I've done has been useful.*

*It's the **best** film **that's** ever been made about madness.*

Note that *what* (see 497) cannot be used in these cases.

*All **that** you say is certainly true.* (NOT ~~*All what you say*~~ ...)

6 leaving out object pronouns: *the people we met*

Object pronouns can often be left out.

*Do you remember **the people we met** in Italy?*

*I forget most of the **films I see**.* *All I **want** is your happiness.*

This is not possible in all relative clauses: see 495.

7 one subject or object is enough

As subjects or objects, *who(m), which* and *that* replace words like *she, him* or *it*: one subject or object in a relative clause is enough. Compare:

- *He's got a new girlfriend. **She** works in a garage.*
  *He's got a new girlfriend **who** works in a garage.* (NOT ... ~~*who she works in a garage.*~~)
- *This is Mr Rogers. You met **him** last year.*
  *This is Mr Rogers, **whom** you met last year.* (NOT ... ~~*whom you met him last year.*~~)
- *Here's an article. **It** might interest you.*
  *Here's an article **which** might interest you.* (NOT ... ~~*which it might interest you.*~~)
- *I've found the car keys. You were looking for **them**.*
  *I've found the car keys **that** you were looking for.* (NOT ... ~~*that you were looking for them.*~~)

8 whose: *a girl whose hair ...*

Whose is a possessive relative pronoun, used as a determiner before nouns. It replaces *his/her/its*. For more details, see 496.

*I saw a girl **whose hair** came down to her waist.* (NOT ... ~~*whose her hair came down*~~ ...)

9 *which* referring to a whole clause

Which can refer not only to a noun, but also to the whole of a previous clause. Note that *what* cannot be used in this way.

*He got married again a year later, **which** surprised everybody.* (NOT ... ~~, *what surprised everybody.*~~)

*She cycled from London to Glasgow, **which** is pretty good for a woman of 75.* (NOT ~~*She cycled* ... , *what is pretty good* ...~~)

10 relative *when, where* and *why*

When and *where* can introduce relative clauses after nouns referring to time and place. They are used in the same way as **preposition + *which***.

*I'll never forget the day **when** I first met you.* (= ... the day on which ...)

*Do you know a shop **where** I can find sandals?* (= ... a shop at which ...)

Why is used in a similar way after *reason*.

*Do you know the reason **why** she doesn't like me?* (= ... the reason for which ...)

495 relatives (2): identifying and non-identifying clauses

1 two kinds of relative clause

Some relative clauses identify or classify nouns: they tell us which person or thing, or which kind of person or thing, is meant. (In grammars, these are called 'identifying', 'defining' or 'restrictive' relative clauses.)

*What's the name of the tall man **who just came in**?*

*People **who take physical exercise** live longer.*

*Who owns the car **which is parked outside**?*

*Have you got something **that will get ink out of a carpet**?*

Other relative clauses do not identify or classify; they simply tell us more about a person or thing that is already identified. (In grammars, these are called 'non-identifying', 'non-defining' or 'non-restrictive' relative clauses.)

*This is Ms Rogers, **who's joining the firm next week**.*

*In 1908 Ford developed his Model T car, **which sold for $500**.*

There are several grammatical differences between the two kinds of relative clause. There are also stylistic differences: non-identifying clauses are generally more formal, and are less frequent in informal speech.

2 pronunciation and punctuation

Identifying relative clauses usually follow immediately after the nouns that they modify, without a break: they are not separated by pauses or intonation movements in speech, or by commas in writing. (This is because the noun would be incomplete without the relative clause, and the sentence would ▸

make no sense or have a different meaning.) Non-identifying clauses are normally separated by pauses and/or intonation breaks and commas. Compare:

- *The woman who does my hair has moved to another hairdresser's.*
  Dorothy, who does my hair, has moved to another hairdresser's.
- *She married a man that she met on a bus.*
  She married a very nice young architect from Belfast, whom she met on a bus.

Note how the identifying clauses cannot easily be left out.

The woman has moved to another hairdresser's. (Which woman?)
She married a man. (!)

When a non-identifying clause does not come at the end of a sentence, two commas are necessary.

Dorothy, who does my hair, has moved . . . (NOT ~~*Dorothy, who does my hair has moved* . . .~~)

3 use of *that*

That is common as a relative pronoun in identifying clauses. In non-identifying clauses, *that* is unusual. Compare:

- *Have you got a book which/that is really easy to read?*
  I lent him 'The Old Man and the Sea', which is really easy to read. (NOT . . . ~~*'The Old Man and the Sea', that is really easy to read.*~~)
- *Where's the girl who/that sells the tickets?*
  This is Naomi, who sells the tickets. (NOT ~~*This is Naomi, that sells the tickets.*~~)

4 leaving out object pronouns

In identifying relative clauses, we often leave out object pronouns, especially in an informal style. In non-identifying clauses this is not possible. Compare:

- *I feel sorry for the man she married.*
  She met my brother, whom she later married. (NOT ~~*She met my brother, she later married.*~~)
- *Did you like the wine we drank last night?*
  I poured him a glass of wine, which he drank at once. (NOT ~~*I poured him a glass of wine, he drank at once.*~~)

496 relatives (3): whose

1 relative possessive

Whose is a relative possessive word, used as a determiner before nouns in the same way as *his, her, its* or *their*. It can refer back to people or things. In a relative clause, *whose* + noun can be the subject, the object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

I saw a girl whose beauty took my breath away. (subject)
It was a meeting whose purpose I did not understand. (object)
Michel Croz, with whose help Whymper climbed the Matterhorn, was one of the first professional guides. (object of preposition)
I went to see my friends the Forrests, whose children I used to look after when they were small. (object of preposition)

Whose can be used in both identifying and non-identifying clauses.

2 things: *of which; that ... of*

Instead of *whose*, we can use *of which* or *that ... of* (less formal) to refer to things, and these are sometimes preferred. The most common word order is **noun + *of which*** or ***that ... of***, but ***of which ...* + noun** is also possible. Compare the following four ways of expressing the same idea.

*He's written a book **whose name** I've forgotten.*
*He's written a book **the name of which** I've forgotten.*
*He's written a book **that** I've forgotten **the name of**.*
*He's written a book **of which** I've forgotten **the name**.*

We do not normally use **noun + *of whom*** in a possessive sense to talk about people.

a man whose name I've forgotten (NOT ~~*a man of whom I've forgotten the name*~~)

3 only used as a determiner

Relative *whose* is only used as a possessive determiner, before a noun. In other cases we use *of which/whom* or *that ... of*.

*He's married to a singer **of whom** you may have heard.* OR ... ***that** you may have heard of.* (NOT ... ~~*a singer whose you may have heard.*~~)

4 formality

Sentences with *whose* are generally felt to be rather heavy and formal; in an informal style other structures are often preferred. *With* (see 631) is a common way of expressing possessive ideas, and is usually more natural than *whose* in descriptions.

*I've got some friends **with a** house that looks over a river.*
(Less formal than ... *whose house looks over a river.*)
*You know that girl **with a** brother who drives lorries?*
(Less formal than ... *whose brother drives lorries?*)
*She's married to the man over there **with the** enormous ears.*
(More natural than ... *the man over there whose ears are enormous.*)

For *whose* in questions, see 626.

497 relatives (4): what

1 meaning and use: *the thing(s) which*

What does not refer to a noun that comes before it. It acts as **noun + relative pronoun** together, and means 'the thing(s) which'. Clauses beginning with *what* can act as subjects, objects, or complements after *be*.

***What she said** made me angry.* (subject of *made*)
*I hope you're going to give me **what I need**.* (object of *give*)
*This is exactly **what I wanted**.* (complement)

For singular and plural verbs after *what* (e.g. *What we need most is/are books*), see 529. ▶

2 *what* not used

What is only used to mean 'the thing(s) which'. It cannot be used as an ordinary relative pronoun after a noun or pronoun.

*We haven't got **everything that** you ordered.* (NOT ... ~~everything what~~ ...)

*The **only thing that** keeps me awake is coffee.* (NOT ~~The only thing what~~ ...)

We use *which*, not *what*, to refer to a whole clause that comes before (see 494.9).

*Sally married Joe, **which** made Paul very unhappy.* (NOT ... ~~what made~~ ...)

3 *what* as a determiner

What can also be used as a determiner with a noun.

***What money** he has comes from his family.* (= The money that he has ...)

*I'll give you **what help** I can.* (= ... any help that I can.)

498 relatives (5): advanced points

1 double use of relative pronouns

Note that relative pronouns have a double use: they act as subjects or objects inside relative clauses, and at the same time they connect relative clauses to nouns or pronouns in other clauses – rather like conjunctions.

2 relative pronouns as general-purpose connectors

In non-identifying clauses, the pronouns *who* and *which* sometimes act as general-purpose connecting words, rather like ***and*** + **pronoun**.

*She passed the letter to Moriarty, **who** passed it on to me.* (= ... and he passed it on ...)

*I dropped the saucepan, **which** knocked over the eggs, **which** went all over the floor.* (= ... and it knocked ... and they went ...)

*I do a lot of walking, **which** keeps me fit.* (= ... and this keeps me fit.)

3 *who* and *whom*

Who can be used as an object in identifying clauses in an informal style. *Whom* is more formal.

*The woman **who** I marry will have a good sense of humour.*
(More formal: *The woman **whom** I marry* ...)

In non-identifying clauses, *who* is less common as an object, though it is sometimes used in an informal style.

*In that year he met Rachel, **whom** he was later to marry.*
(OR ... *Rachel, **who** he was later to marry.* – informal)

4 *that* for people

That is often used in identifying relative clauses instead of *who/whom/which* (see 494.4). *That* is most common as an object, or as a subject instead of *which*. *That* can be used as a subject instead of *who*, but this is quite informal. Compare:

*the people **that** I invited* (normal) *the books **that** I lent you* (normal)

*the bus **that** crashed* (normal)

*the people **that** live next door* (informal; *the people who* ... is preferred in a less informal style)

5 *which* as determiner; *in which case*

Which can be used as a determiner in relative clauses, with a general noun which repeats the meaning of what came before. This structure is rather formal, and is mainly used after prepositions, especially in some fixed phrases like *in which case* and *at which point.*

*She may be late, **in which case** we ought to wait for her.*
*He lost his temper, **at which point** I decided to go home.*
*He was appointed Lord Chancellor, **in which post** he spent the rest of his life.*
*He spoke in Greek, **which language** I could only follow with difficulty.*

6 *when, where* etc replaced by *that* or dropped

After common nouns referring to time, *when* is often replaced by *that* or dropped in an informal style.

*Come and see us **any time (that)** you're in town.*
*I'll never forget **the day (that)** we met.*
*That was **the year (that)** I first went abroad.*

The same thing happens with *where* after *somewhere, anywhere, everywhere, nowhere* and *place* (but not after other words).

*Have you got **somewhere (that)** I can lie down for an hour?*
*We need **a place (that)** we can stay for a few days.* (BUT NOT ~~*We need a house we can stay for a few days.*~~)

After *way, in which* can be replaced by *that* or dropped in an informal style.

*I didn't like **the way (that)** she spoke to me.*
*Do you know **a way (that)** you can earn money without working?*

The same thing happens with *why* after *reason.*

*The **reason (that)** you're so bad-tempered is that you're hungry.*

For more about *place*, see 431. For *way*, see 615. For *reason*, see 492.

7 position of prepositions

Prepositions can come either before relative pronouns (more formal) or at the ends of relative clauses (more informal). Compare:

– *He was respected by the people **with whom** he worked.* (formal)
  *He was respected by the people (that) he worked **with**.* (informal)
– *This is the room **in which** I was born.* (formal)
  *This is the room (that) I was born **in**.* (informal)

Who and *that* are not used after prepositions.

*... the people **with whom** he worked.* (NOT ... ~~*the people with who/that he worked.*~~)

For more about prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

8 *some of whom, none of which* etc

In non-identifying clauses, quantifying determiners (e.g. *some, any, none, all, both, several, enough, many* and *few*) can be used with *of whom, of which* and *of whose.* The determiner most often comes before *of which/whom/whose,* but can sometimes come after it in a very formal style.

*They picked up five boat-loads of refugees, **some of whom** had been at sea for several months.* (OR ... *of whom some* ...) ▸

*We've tested three hundred types of boot, **none of which** is completely waterproof.* (OR ... *of which none* ...)
*They've got eight children, **all of whom** are studying music.* (OR ... *of whom all are studying* ...)
*She had a teddy-bear, **both of whose** eyes were missing.*

This structure is also possible with other expressions of quantity, with superlatives, with *first, second* etc, and with *last.*

a number of whom *three of which* *half of which*
the majority of whom *the youngest of whom*

9 *whatever, whoever* etc

Whatever can be used rather like *what,* as **noun + relative pronoun** together.
*Take **whatever** you want.* (= ... anything that you want.)

Other words that can be used like this are *whoever, whichever, where, wherever, when, whenever* and *how.*
*This is for **whoever** wants it.* (= ... any person that wants it.)
*I often think about **where** I met you.* (= ... the place where ...)
*We've bought a cottage in the country for **when** we retire.* (= ... the time when ...)
Whenever you want to come is fine with me. (= Any day that ...)
*Look at **how** he treats me.* (= ... the way in which ...)

For details of the use of *whoever, whatever* and other words ending in *-ever,* see 625.
For more about *how*-clauses, see 252.

10 reduced relative clauses: *the girl dancing*

A participle is often used instead of a relative pronoun and full verb.
*Who's the girl **dancing** with your brother?*
(= ... that is dancing with your brother?)
*Anyone **touching** that wire will get a shock.*
(= ... who touches ...)
*Half of the people **invited** to the party didn't turn up.*
(= ... who were invited ...)
*I found him sitting at a table **covered** with papers.*
(= ... which was covered with papers.)

Reduced structures are also used with the adjectives *available* and *possible.*
*Please send me all the tickets **available**.* (= ... that are available.)
*Tuesday's the only date **possible**.*

11 separating a noun from its relative pronoun

Relative pronouns usually follow their nouns directly.
*The **idea which** she put forward was interesting.* (NOT ~~*The idea was interesting which she put forward.*~~)
*I rang up Mrs Spencer, **who** did our accounts.* (NOT ~~*I rang Mrs Spencer up, who did our accounts.*~~)

However, a descriptive phrase can sometimes separate a noun from its relative pronoun.
*I rang up Mrs Spencer, **the Manager's secretary, who** did our accounts.*

12 agreement of person

Most relative clauses have third-person reference; *I who* . . . , *you who* . . . and *we who* . . . are unusual, though they sometimes occur in a very formal style.

You who pass by, tell them of us and say
For their tomorrow we gave our today.
(Allied war memorial at Kohima)

A different kind of first- and second-person reference is common in the relative clauses of cleft sentences (see 131). However, the verb is usually third-person, especially in an informal style.

It's me that's responsible for the organisation.
(More formal: *It is I who am responsible* . . .)
You're the one that knows where to go. (NOT . . . ~~*the one that know*~~ . . .)

13 relative + infinitive: *a garden in which to play*

When a noun or pronoun is the object of a following infinitive, a relative pronoun is not normally used.

I can't think of anybody to invite. (NOT . . . ~~*anybody whom to invite.*~~)

However, relative pronouns are possible with preposition structures.

We moved to the country so that the children would have a garden ***in which to play.***
He was miserable unless he had neighbours ***with whom to quarrel.***

This structure is rather formal, and it is more common to use **infinitive + preposition** without a relative pronoun.

. . . *so that the children would have a garden* ***to play in.*** (NOT . . . ~~*which to play in.*~~)
. . . *unless he had neighbours* ***to quarrel with.*** (NOT . . . ~~*whom to quarrel with.*~~)

14 relative clauses after indefinite noun phrases

The distinction between identifying and non-identifying clauses (see 495) is most clear when they modify definite noun phrases like *the car, this house, my father, Mrs Lewis.* After indefinite noun phrases like *a car, some nurses* or *friends*, the distinction is less clear, and both kinds of clause are often possible with slight differences of emphasis.

He's got a new car ***that*** *goes like a bomb.*
(OR *He's got a new car,* ***which*** *goes like a bomb.*)
We became friendly with some nurses ***that*** *John had met in Paris.*
(OR *We became friendly with some nurses,* ***whom*** *John had met in Paris.*)

In general, identifying clauses are used when the information they give is felt to be centrally important to the overall message. When this is not so, non-identifying clauses are preferred.

15 *somebody I know you'll like*

It is often possible to combine relative clauses with indirect statements and similar structures, e.g. *I know/said/feel/hope/wish (that)* . . ., especially in an informal style. Expressions like *I know, I said* etc come after the position of the relative pronoun.

We're going to meet somebody (who/that) I know (that) you'll like.
It's a house (which/that) we feel (that) we might want to buy.
That's the man (who/that) I wish (that) I'd married. ▸

Note that the conjunction (the second *that*) is usually dropped in this structure; it must be dropped if the relative pronoun is a subject.

This is the woman (who/that) Ann said could show us the church.
(NOT ~~*This is the woman (who/that) Ann said that could show us*~~ . . .)

In this structure, people sometimes use *whom* as a subject pronoun. This is not generally considered correct.

This is a letter from my father, whom we hope will be out of hospital soon.
(More correct: . . . *who we hope will be out* . . .)

Relative clauses can also be combined with *if*-clauses in sentences like the following.

I am enclosing an application form, which I should be grateful if you would sign and return.

16 *a car that I didn't know how fast it could go*, etc

We do not usually combine a relative clause with an indirect question structure. However, this sometimes happens in informal speech.

I've just been to see an old friend that I'm not sure when I'm going to see again.

There's a pile of washing-up that I just don't know how I'm going to do.

There is no grammatically correct way of doing this when the relative pronoun is the subject of the relative clause. However, sentences like the following (with added pronouns) are also sometimes heard in informal speech. Some real examples:

I was driving a car that I didn't know how fast it could go.
It's ridiculous to sing songs that you don't know what they mean.
There's a control at the back that I don't understand how it works.
There's still one kid that I must find out whether she's coming to the party or not.

17 omission of subject

In a very informal style, a subject relative pronoun is sometimes dropped after *there is*.

There's a man at the door wants to talk to you.

18 double object

Occasionally a relative pronoun acts as the object of two verbs. This happens especially when a relative clause is followed by *before . . .ing*, *after . . .ing* or *without . . .ing*.

We have water that it's best not to drink before boiling. (OR . . . *boiling it.*)
I'm sending you a letter that I want you to destroy after reading. (OR . . . *after reading it.*)
He was somebody that you could like without admiring. (OR . . . *admiring him.*)

19 older English: *who* and *that which*

In older English, *who* could be used in a similar way to *what*, as **noun + relative pronoun** together, meaning 'the person who', 'whoever' or 'anybody who'. In modern English, this is very unusual.

Who steals my purse steals trash. (Shakespeare, Othello)
(Modern English: *Whoever/Anybody who . . .*)

That which used to be used in the same way as *what*. This, too, is very unusual in modern English.

We have that which we need. (Modern English: *We have what we need.*)

499 remind

1 meaning: *remind* and *remember*

These two verbs are not the same. *Reminding* somebody means 'making somebody remember'. Compare:

– *Remind me to pay the milkman.* (NOT ~~*Remember me to pay*~~ . . .)
I'm afraid I won't remember to pay the milkman.
– *This sort of weather reminds me of my home.* (NOT ~~*This sort of weather remembers me*~~ . . .)
This sort of weather makes me remember my home.

But note the special use of *remember* in *Remember me to your parents* and similar sentences.

2 structures

After *remind*, we can use an infinitive structure (for actions) or a *that*-clause (for facts).

Please remind me to go to the post office. (NOT ~~*Please remind me of going*~~ . . .)
I reminded him that we hadn't got any petrol left.

3 *remind . . . of . . .*

We use *remind . . . of* to say that something/somebody makes us remember the past, or things that have been forgotten.

The smell of hay always reminds me of our old house in the country.
(NOT . . . ~~*reminds me our old house*~~ . . .)
Remind me of your phone number.

We can also use *remind . . . of* to talk about similarities.

She reminds me of her mother. (= She is like her mother.)

500 repetition

1 avoidance of repetition

In English, unnecessary repetition is usually considered to be a bad thing. Careful writers generally try not to use the same words and structures in successive clauses and sentences without a good reason; when expressions are repeated, it is often for deliberate emphasis or other stylistic purposes. Casual repetition is more common in informal language, but even in conversation people often sound monotonous or clumsy if they do not vary their sentence structure and vocabulary. Some kinds of repetition are actually ungrammatical in both writing and speech. ▸

2 unnatural/ungrammatical repetition

When we refer again to a person or thing that has already been mentioned, we normally use a pronoun instead of repeating the original noun phrase. When the reference is very close to the original mention, repetition (unless there is a special reason for it) is usually not only unnatural, but ungrammatical.

What's Rachel doing here? ~ ***She*** *wants to talk to you.* (NOT . . . ~~*Rachel wants to talk to you.*~~)

We got that cat because the children wanted ***it.*** (NOT ~~*We got that cat because the children wanted that cat.*~~)

Dad's just cut ***himself*** *shaving.* (NOT ~~*Dad's just cut Dad shaving.*~~)

This kind of thing happens with other words besides nouns.

I don't smoke. ~ *I* ***do.*** (NOT . . . ~~*I smoke.*~~)

Do you know if the bank's open? ~ *I think* ***so.*** (NOT ~~*I think the bank's open.*~~)

She's staying at ***the*** *Royal Hotel, so we said we'd meet her there.* (NOT . . . ~~*so we said we'd meet her at the Royal Hotel.*~~)

However, repetition is necessary and normal when alternatives are discussed.

Would you rather have potatoes or rice? ~ ***Rice,*** *please.*

Shall we dance or go for a walk? ~ *Let's* ***go for a walk.***

For more details, see 177–182 (ellipsis) and 539 (*so*).

3 duplicated subjects and objects

We do not very often repeat a subject or object with the same verb.

That wall needs painting.

(More normal than *That wall, it needs painting.*)

I saw my uncle yesterday.

(More normal than *My uncle, I saw him yesterday.*)

However, this kind of repetition can happen in informal speech, when people announce a topic and then make a sentence about it (see 513).

That friend of your mother's – he's on the phone.

Those bicycle wheels – I think we ought to put ***them*** *in the garden shed.*

And sometimes a pronoun subject is repeated by a noun phrase 'tag' after the sentence (see 514).

She's a clever girl, ***your Anne.***

4 related verbs and nouns

We usually avoid putting related verbs and nouns together.

– *We made wonderful* ***plans.*** OR *We* ***planned*** *wonderful things.*
(BUT NOT ~~*We planned wonderful plans.*~~)

– *She wrote an interesting paper.* OR *She did an interesting piece of* ***writing.***
(BUT NOT ~~*She wrote an interesting piece of writing.*~~)

There are some fixed expressions which are exceptions (e.g. *to sing a song, to live a good life, to die a violent death*).

5 *Wonderful, isn't it?* etc

There is a common kind of exchange in which one speaker gives his/her opinion of something, and the other speaker agrees by saying the same thing in other words which are at least as emphatic. Repetition is carefully avoided.

Glorious day. ~ ***Wonderful,*** *isn't it?* (NOT ... ~~*Glorious, isn't it?*~~)
Terrible weather. ~ ***Dreadful.***
United didn't play very well, then. ~ *Bloody* ***rubbish.***

6 clumsy style

In writing, repetition is often considered clumsy even when it is not ungrammatical. Most of the repetitions in the following text would be avoided by a careful writer, by varying the structure and by careful use of synonyms (e.g. *tried/attempted, summarise / describe briefly, forecast/predict*).

In this report, I have tried to forecast likely developments over the next three years. In the first section, I have tried to summarise the results of the last two years, and I have tried to summarise the present situation. In the second section, I have tried to forecast the likely consequences of the present situation, and the consequences of the present financial policy.

7 deliberate repetition

Speakers and writers can of course repeat vocabulary and structures deliberately. This may be done for emphasis.

I'm very, very sorry. *I want every room cleaned – every single room.*

Repeating somebody else's words may show surprise or disbelief.

I'm getting married. ~ ***You're getting married?*** *Who to?*

Structural repetition can show how ideas are similar or related (by using the same structure for the same kind of item).

First of all, I ***want to*** *congratulate you all on the splendid results. Secondly, I* ***want to*** *give you some interesting news. And finally, I* ***want to*** *thank you all ...*

8 literary examples

Here are two contrasting examples of repetition used deliberately for literary purposes. In the first, by John Steinbeck, structures and key vocabulary (especially nouns and verbs) are repeated and rhythmically balanced in order to create an impressive (or mock-impressive) effect – to make the story and characters sound striking and important.

This is the story of Danny and of Danny's friends and of Danny's house. It is a story of how these three became one thing, so that in Tortilla Flat if you speak of Danny's house you do not mean a structure of wood flaked with old white-wash, overgrown with an ancient untrimmed rose of Castile. No, when you speak of Danny's house you are understood to mean a unit of which the parts are men, from which came sweetness and joy, philanthropy, and, in the end, a mystic sorrow. For Danny's house was not unlike the Round Table, and Danny's friends were not unlike the knights of it. And this is the story of how the group came into being, of how it flourished and grew to be an organisation beautiful and wise. This story deals with the adventuring of Danny's friends, with the good they did, with their thoughts and their endeavors. In the end, this story tells how the talisman was lost and how the group disintegrated.

(John Steinbeck, *Tortilla Flat*) ▸

In contrast, the following text, by Ernest Hemingway, uses a kind of style which 'good' writers would normally avoid, repeating pronouns and simple structures in an apparently monotonous way. Hemingway's purpose is to show the simplicity of his hero, an uneducated old fisherman, by using a style that is supposed to reflect the way he thinks and speaks.

He did not remember when he had first started to talk aloud when he was by himself He had sung when he was by himself in the old days and he had sung at night sometimes when he was alone steering on his watch in the smacks or in the turtle boats. He had probably started to talk aloud, when alone, when the boy had left. But he did not remember.
(Ernest Hemingway, *The Old Man and the Sea*)

501 [the] rest

The rest means 'what is left'. It is singular in form, and *the* is always used.
We only use three rooms. The rest of the house is empty.
To talk about what is left after something has been used up, eaten, destroyed etc, we often use other words.
There were remains of the meal all over the floor. (NOT ~~*There were rests*~~...)
Supper tonight is leftovers from lunch. (NOT ...~~*rests*~~...)
If you divide 100 by 12, the remainder is 4.
When *the rest* refers to a plural noun, it has a plural verb.
There are four chocolates for Penny, four for Joe and the rest are mine.
(NOT ...~~*the rest is mine.*~~)

502 road and street

1 the difference

A *street* is a road with houses on either side. We use *street* for roads in towns or villages, but not for country roads.
Cars can park on both sides of the street here.
Our village has only got one street.
Road is used for both town and country.
Cars can park on both sides of our road.
The road out of our village goes up a steep hill. (NOT ~~*The street out of our village*~~...)

2 street names: stress

In street names we normally stress the word *Road*, but the word before *Street*.
Marylebone 'Road *'Oxford Street*

503 the same

1 *the same (as)*

We normally use *the* before *same*.
Give me the same again, please. (NOT ~~*Give me same again, please.*~~)

In a comparison, we use *the same (...) as.*

You've got the same idea as me. (NOT ... ~~my same idea.~~)

Her hair's the same colour as her mother's. (NOT ... ~~the same colour like~~ ...)

Note the expression *the very same* (= exactly the same).

Our birthdays are on the very same day.

2 other structures

Before a clause, *the same ... that* or *the same ... who* can be used.

That's the same man that/who asked me for money yesterday.

As is also possible before a clause, especially with a noun that is the object of the following verb.

He's wearing the same shirt that/as he had on yesterday.

As/who/that can be left out when they refer to the object of the following verb.

He's wearing the same shirt he had on yesterday.

Note also the expression *do the same.*

Why do you always try to do the same as your brother?

Joe and Carol went on a camping holiday, and we're going to do the same.

504 say and tell

1 meaning and use

Both *say* and *tell* are used with direct and indirect speech. (*Say* is more common than *tell* with direct speech.)

'Turn right,' I said. (OR *'Turn right,' I told him.*)

She said that it was my last chance. (OR *She told me that it was my last chance.*)

Tell is only used to mean 'instruct' or 'inform'. So we do not use *tell* with greetings, exclamations or questions, for example.

He said, 'Good morning.' (BUT NOT ~~He told them, 'Good morning.'~~)

Mary said, 'What a nice idea.' (BUT NOT ~~Mary told us, 'What a nice idea.'~~)

'What's your problem?' I said. (BUT NOT ~~'What's your problem?' I told her.~~)

2 *say*: objects

Say is most often used without a personal object.

She said that she would be late. (NOT ~~She said me~~ ...)

If we want to put a personal object after *say*, we use *to.*

And I say to all the people of this great country ...

3 *tell*: objects

After *tell*, we usually say who is told.

She told me that she would be late. (NOT ~~She told that~~ ...)

Tell is used without a personal object in a few expressions. Common examples: *tell the truth, tell a lie, tell a story/joke.*

I don't think she's telling the truth. (NOT ... ~~saying the truth.~~)

Note also the use of *tell* to mean 'distinguish', 'understand', as in *tell the difference, tell the time.*

He's seven years old and he still can't tell the time.

Tell is not used before objects like *a word, a name, a sentence, a phrase.*

Alice said a naughty word this morning. (NOT ~~Alice told~~ ...) ▸

We do not usually use *it* after *tell* to refer to a fact.

What time's the meeting? ~ *I'll tell you tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*I'll tell you it tomorrow.*~~)

4 infinitives

Tell can be used before **object + infinitive**, in the sense of 'order' or 'instruct'. *Say* cannot be used like this.

I told the children to go away. (NOT ~~*I said the children to go away.*~~)

5 indirect questions

Neither *tell* nor *say* can introduce indirect questions (see 276).

Bill asked whether I wanted to see a film. (NOT ~~*Bill said whether I wanted to see a film.*~~ OR ~~*Bill told me whether*~~ . . .)

But *say* and *tell* can introduce the answers to questions.

Has she said who's coming?

He only told one person where the money was.

For *so* after *say* and *tell*, see 540.

505 see

1 progressive forms not used

When *see* means 'perceive with one's eyes', progressive ('continuous') forms are not normally used.

Do you see the woman in blue over there? (NOT ~~*Are you seeing*~~ . . .?)

To talk about seeing something at the moment of speaking, *can see* is often used, especially in British English (see 125).

I can see an aeroplane. (AmE also *I see an airplane.*)
(NOT ~~*I am seeing an aeroplane.*~~)

But we can say that somebody *is seeing things* if we mean that he/she is imagining things that are not there.

Look! A camel! ~ *You're seeing things.*

When *see* means 'understand' or 'have heard' (see 243), progressive forms are not normally used.

We've got a problem. ~ *I see.*

I see they're talking about putting up taxes again.

2 changes

Progressive forms can be used for changes in people's ability to see.

I'm seeing much better since I got those new glasses.

I'm seeing a lot of things in this book that I missed when I read it before.

3 'meet', 'arrange' etc

When *see* means 'meet', 'interview', 'talk to', 'go out with' or 'arrange', 'supervise', progressive forms are possible.

I'm seeing the dentist tomorrow.

Are you still seeing that Henderson woman?

John's down at the docks. He's seeing that our stuff gets loaded properly.

4 other meanings: 'consider' etc

See can mean 'consider', 'think', 'find out', 'discuss' or 'decide'.

Can I have a holiday next Monday? ~ I'll see.
What time shall we go to the gym? ~ Let me see. How about 5 o'clock?
Can you look out of the window and see if it's still snowing?

A preposition is necessary before an object in these cases.

*We'll see **about that** tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*We'll see that tomorrow.*~~)
*You'd better see **about that** with Jim.* (NOT ~~*You'd better see that with Jim.*~~)

See if . . . can often means 'try to'.

See if you can get him to stop talking.

For *see* + object + infinitive /-*ing* form, see 242.
For the difference between *see, look* and *watch*, see 506.

506 see, look (at) and watch

1 *see*

See is the ordinary verb to say that something 'comes to our eyes', whether or not we are paying attention.

Suddenly I saw something strange. (NOT ~~*Suddenly I looked at something strange.*~~)
Did you see the article about the strike in today's paper?

2 *look (at)*

We use *look* to talk about concentrating, paying attention, trying to see what is there. You can *see* something without wanting to, but you can only *look at* something deliberately. Compare:

*I **looked at** the photo, but I didn't see anybody I knew.*
Do you see that man? ~ Yes. ~ Look again. ~ Good heavens! It's Moriarty!
*He **looked at** her with his eyes full of love.*

When *look* has an object it is followed by *at*. When there is no object there is no preposition. Compare:

Look at me! (NOT ~~*Look me!*~~) *Look!* (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~)

Note that *at* is often dropped before a *wh*-clause.

Look (at) what you've done!
Look who's here! *Look where you're going.*

3 *watch*

Watch is like *look at*, but suggests that something is happening or going to happen. We *watch* things that change, move or develop.

Watch that man – I want to know everything he does.
*I usually **watch** a football match on Saturday afternoon.*

4 complete experiences: *see*

Watch is typically used to talk about experiences that are going on, in progress. We often prefer *see* to talk about the whole of a performance, play, cinema film, match etc. Compare:

*He got into a fight yesterday afternoon while he was **watching** a football match.* (NOT . . . ~~*while he was seeing a football match.*~~)
*Have you ever **seen** Chaplin's 'The Great Dictator'?* (NOT ~~*Have you ever watched Chaplin's 'The Great Dictator'?*~~)

5 *watch TV*

Watch is normally used with *TV*; *watch* and *see* are both used to talk about TV programmes and films.

You spend too much time watching TV.
We watched/saw a great film on TV last night.

6 *see if/whether*

See can be followed by *if/whether*, in the sense of 'find out'. *Look* and *watch* are not normally used in this way.

See if that suit still fits you. (NOT ~~*Look if that suit*~~ . . .)
I'm looking to see whether there's any food left. (NOT ~~*I'm looking whether there's*~~ . . .)
Ring up and see whether she's in.

For infinitives and *-ing* forms after these verbs, see 242.
For other meanings of *see* (and progressive uses), see 243, 471.
For other meanings of *look*, see 157.19. For *if* and *whether*, see 621.
There are similar differences between *hear* and *listen (to)*. See 241.

507 seem

1 link verb: used with adjectives

Seem is a link verb (see 328); it is followed by adjectives, not adverbs.

You seem angry about something. (NOT ~~*You seem angrily*~~ . . .)

2 *seem* and *seem to be*

Seem is often followed by *to be*. We prefer *seem to be* when we are talking about objective facts – things that seem definitely to be true. *Seem* is used without *to be* when we are talking about subjective impressions. (The difference is not always clear-cut, and both are often possible.) Compare:

- *The bus seems to be full.*
  She seems excited.
- *The doctors have done the tests, and he definitely seems to be mentally ill.*
  It seems crazy, but I think I'm in love with the postman. (NOT ~~*It seems to be crazy*~~ . . .)
- *According to the experts, the north side of the castle seems to be about 100 years older than the rest.*
  He seems older than he is. (NOT ~~*He seems to be older than he is*~~ – this would suggest that he might actually be older than he is.)
- *She doesn't seem to be ready yet.*
  She seems (to be) very sleepy today.

3 with nouns

Seem to be is normal before noun phrases.

I looked through the binoculars: it seemed to be some sort of large rat.
(NOT ... ~~*it seemed some sort of large rat.*~~)

I spoke to a man who seemed to be the boss. (NOT ... ~~*who seemed the boss.*~~)

However, *to be* can be dropped before noun phrases which express more subjective feelings.

She seems (to be) a nice girl.
The cup seemed almost doll's size in his hands.
It seems a pity, but I can't see you this weekend. (NOT ~~*It seems to be a pity*~~...)

4 other infinitives

Seem can be followed by the infinitives of other verbs besides *be*.

Ann seems to need a lot of attention.

Perfect infinitives (see 280) are possible.

The tax people seem to have made a mistake.

To express a negative idea, we most often use a negative form of *seem*; but in a more formal style *not* can go with the following infinitive. Compare:

He doesn't seem to be at home.
He seems not to be at home. (formal)

Note the structure *can't seem to* ...

I can't seem to get anything right.
(More formal: *I seem not to be able to get anything right.*)

5 *seem like*

We can use *like*, but not *as*, after *seem*.

North Wales seems (like) a good place for a holiday. (NOT ... ~~*seems as a*~~...)

6 *it seems*

It can be a preparatory subject (see 446) for *that*- and *as if*-clauses after *seem*.

It seems that Bill and Alice have had a row.
It seemed as if the night was never going to end.

7 *there seems*

There (see 586) can be a preparatory subject for *seem to be*.

There seems to be some mistake.

For *like* and *as*, see 326. *Appear* is used in similar ways (see 58).

508 sensible and sensitive

A *sensible* person has 'common sense', and does not make stupid decisions.

I want to buy that dress. ~ *Be sensible, dear. It's much too expensive.*

A *sensitive* person feels things easily or deeply, and may be easily hurt.

Don't shout at her – she's very sensitive. (NOT ... ~~*very sensible.*~~)

Have you got a sun cream for sensitive skin? (NOT ... ~~*for sensible skin?*~~)

Sensible is a 'false friend' – similar words in some languages mean 'sensitive'.

509 sentence structure (1): basic word order

1 subject – verb – object/complement

In an affirmative sentence, the subject normally comes before the verb; objects or complements come after the verb.

Ann smiled. *My father likes dogs.* *Eric is a doctor.*

In a few affirmative structures the verb can come before the subject (e.g. *So can I, In came Mrs Parker*). See 302–303. For sentences that begin with the object (e.g. *Those people I can't stand*), see 513.

2 preparatory *it* and *there*

When the subject or object is an infinitive phrase or clause, we often put it at the end of a sentence, and use *it* as a preparatory subject or object (see 446–447).

It's difficult to understand what he wants.
She made it clear that she disagreed.

There can be a preparatory subject for an indefinite expression (see 587).

There is a big spider in the bath.

3 direct and indirect objects

Indirect objects can come before direct objects (without a preposition) or after direct objects (with a preposition).

She sent the nurse some flowers. *She sent some flowers to the nurse.*

For details, see 610.

4 questions: auxiliary before subject

Questions normally have the order **auxiliary verb – subject – main verb.**

Have you seen Andrew? *Where was she going?* *Did Mary phone?*

Indirect questions (see 276) have the subject before the verb.

Do you know where she was going?

5 negatives: auxiliary + *not*

Negative structures have *not* after an auxiliary verb.

The train did not stop. (NOT ~~*The train stopped not.*~~)

For word order in negative questions (e.g. *Why didn't she come? / Why did she not come?*), see 368.

6 adjectives before nouns

When adjectives are together with nouns, they usually come before them.

an interesting book *difficult questions*

For the order of adjectives, see 15. For exceptions and special cases, see 13.

7 adverbs: possible positions

Different adverbs can go in different places in a sentence: at the beginning, with the verb, or at the end. For details, see 21–25.

Suddenly I had a terrible thought.
The children had probably gone home. *I was playing badly.*

An adverb cannot normally come between a verb and its object.

I like mushrooms very much. (NOT ~~*I like very much mushrooms.*~~)

8 subordinate clauses (*after . . . , if . . ., because . . .*, etc)

Adverbial subordinate clauses (beginning for example, *after, before, when, while, if, because*) can usually come either before or after the rest of the sentence (see 510.3).

After I left school I spent a year in China. (OR *I spent a year in China after I left school.*)

9 prepositions: *in what . . . / what . . . in*

In an informal style, a preposition can be separated from its object in certain structures. For details, see 452. Compare:

In what hotel did the President stay? (formal)
What hotel did the President stay in? (informal)

For ways of arranging the information in a sentence, see 512.
For special structures in spoken English, see 514.
For word order in exclamations (e.g. *How kind you are!*), see 195.
For word order with phrasal verbs (e.g. *She put out the cat / She put the cat out*), see 599.4.
For structures like *The older I get . . .*, see 139.5.
For structures like *cold as/though she was*, see 71.
For structures like *so/how strange an experience*, see 14.
For *quite a . . .* and *rather a . . .*, see 489, 490.
For word order with *enough*, see 187.

510 sentence structure (2): conjunctions

1 What are conjunctions?

Conjunctions are words that join clauses into sentences.

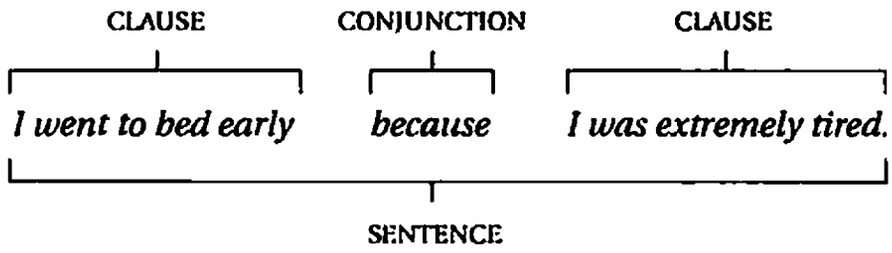

Conjunctions not only join clauses together; they also show how the meanings of the two clauses are related.

*We brought the food **and** they supplied the drink.* (addition)
*She was poor **but** she was honest.* (contrast)
*We can go swimming, **or** we could stay here.* (alternative)
*People disliked her **because** she was so rude.* (cause)
*I'll phone you **when** I arrive.* (time)

2 two kinds

And, but and *or* are often called 'co-ordinating conjunctions'. They join pairs of clauses that are grammatically independent of each other. ▸

Other conjunctions, like *because, when, that* or *which,* are called 'subordinating conjunctions'. A subordinating conjunction together with its following clause acts like a part of the other clause.

ADVERB
I'll phone you | ***tomorrow.***

ADVERB
I'll phone you | ***when I arrive.***
(*When I arrive* is similar to *tomorrow* – it acts like an adverb in the clause *I'll phone you . . .*)

OBJECT
He told me | ***a lie.***

OBJECT
He told me | ***that he loved me.***
(*that he loved me* is similar to *a lie* – it is the object in the clause *He told me . . .*)

ADJECTIVE
It's an | ***unanswerable*** | *question.*

ADJECTIVE
It's a question | ***which nobody can answer.***
(*which nobody can answer* is similar to *unanswerable* – it acts like an adjective in the clause *It's a question . . .*)

Some conjunctions are made up of two or more words.
I stayed an extra night ***so that*** *I could see Ann.*
Let me know ***the moment that*** *you arrive.*
In grammars, clauses that follow subordinating conjunctions are called 'subordinate clauses' or 'dependent clauses'.

3 position of subordinate clauses

Adverb clauses can usually go either first or last in a sentence (depending on what is to be emphasised – the most important information usually comes last).
- ***While I was having a shower,*** *I slipped on the floor.* (emphasises what happened)
  I slipped on the floor ***while I was having a shower.*** (emphasises when it happened)
- ***If you need help,*** *just let me know.*
  Just let me know ***if you need help.***
- ***Although the bicycle was expensive,*** *she decided to buy it.*
  She decided to buy the bicycle ***although it was expensive.***
- ***Because she was too angry to speak,*** *Ann said nothing.*
  Ann said nothing, ***because she was too angry to speak.***

4 punctuation

Commas are often used to separate longer or more complicated clauses. Shorter pairs of clauses are often connected without commas. Compare:
I came home and the others went dancing.
I decided to come home earlier than I had planned, and the others spent the evening at the local club.

When a subordinate clause begins a sentence, it is more often separated by a comma, even if it is short. Compare:

If you are passing, come in and see us.
Come in and see us if you are passing.

For punctuation in relative clauses, see 495.

5 leaving words out

Words for repeated ideas can often be left out in the second of two co-ordinate clauses (see 178 for details), but not normally in a subordinate clause. Compare:

*She was depressed, **and didn't** know what to do.* (= and she didn't know what to do.)
*She was depressed, **because she didn't** know what to do.* (NOT ~~*She was depressed, because didn't know*~~ . . .)

However, after *if, when, while, until, once, unless* and *(al)though*, a pronoun subject and the verb *be* can often be dropped, especially in common fixed expressions like *if necessary*.

*I'll pay for you **if necessary**.* (= . . . if it is necessary.)
*If **in doubt**, wait and see.* (= If you are in doubt . . .)
*When **in Rome**, do as the Romans do.* *Cook slowly **until ready**.*
*Once **in bed**, I read for twenty minutes and then turned out the light.*

Many conjunctions that express time relations (*after, before, since, when, while, whenever, once* and *until*) can often be followed by *-ing* forms or past participles instead of subjects and full verbs (see 411.6).

*I always feel better **after talking** to you.*
*Some things are never forgotten, **once learnt**.*

6 conjunctions in separate sentences

Normally a conjunction connects two clauses into one sentence. However, sometimes a conjunction and its clause can stand alone. This happens, for example, in answers.

*When are you going to get up? ~ **When I'm ready**.*
*Why did you do that? ~ **Because I felt like it**.*
*I'm going out, Mum. ~ **As soon as you've brushed your hair**.*

Writers and speakers can also separate clauses for emphasis.

*This government has got to go. **Before it does any more damage**.*

Afterthoughts may also begin with conjunctions.

*OK, I did it. – **But I didn't mean to**.*

For tenses in subordinate clauses, see 580.
For structures in which *that* is dropped, see 584.
See also 494–498 (relative pronouns and clauses), 274–278 (indirect speech), and the individual entries on the various conjunctions.

511 sentence structure (3): problems with conjunctions

In most languages of European origin, clauses are joined together by conjunctions in similar ways. However, students who speak other languages may have some problems in using English conjunctions correctly.

1 one conjunction for two clauses

One conjunction is enough to join two clauses – we do not normally use two.

– ***Although** she was tired, she went to work.*
*She was tired **but** she went to work.*
(NOT ~~*Although she was tired but she went to work.*~~)

– ***Because** I liked him, I tried to help him.*
*I liked him, **so** I tried to help him.*
(NOT ~~*Because I liked him, so I tried to help him.*~~)

– ***As** you know, I work very hard.*
*You know **that** I work very hard.*
(NOT ~~*As you know, that I work very hard.*~~)

However, we can use *and* or *or* together with a repeated conjunction.
*We came back because we ran out of money, **and** because Ann got ill.*
*She didn't write when I was ill, **or** when I got married.*

2 Relative pronouns are also conjunctions

Relative pronouns (*who, which* and *that* – see 494) join clauses like conjunctions.
*There's the girl **who** works with my sister.*
A relative pronoun is like the subject or object of the verb that comes after it. So we do not need another subject or object.
*I've got a friend **who** works in a pub.* (NOT ... ~~*who he works in a pub.*~~)
The man (that) she married was an old friend of mine. (NOT ~~*The man that she married him*~~ ...)
She always thanks me for the money that I give her. (NOT ... ~~*the money that I give her it.*~~)

3 *that, where* and *when*

That is often used instead of *which* or *who(m)* (see 494–495).
*There's the girl **that** works with my sister.*
But we do not usually use *that* instead of *when* or *where*.
*August 31st is a national holiday, **when** everybody dances in the streets.*
(NOT ... ~~*that everybody dances*~~ ...)
*The house **where** I live is very small.* (NOT ~~*The house that I live is very small.*~~)
But *that ... in* can mean the same as *where*.
*The house **that** I live **in** is very small.*
That can be used instead of *where* and *when* in a few special cases (e.g. after *place, day*); for details, see 498.6.
*I'll always remember **the day (that)** I met you.*

For conjunctions after prepositions, see 453.
For *now* as a conjunction, see 387. For *once*, see 394. For *the moment* and *immediately*, see 267.

512 sentence structure (4): information structure

1 different ways of organising information

When we talk about a situation, we can usually organise the information in various ways – for example, by choosing different elements of the situation as the subject of a clause or sentence.

The storm blew Margaret's roof off.
Margaret's roof was blown off in the storm.
Margaret had her roof blown off in the storm.

The way we choose to organise information in a clause or sentence can depend on what has been said before, on what the listener already knows, or on what we want to emphasise. This is a complicated area of English grammar. Some guidelines are given below.

2 normal order: important new information last

Most often, a clause or sentence moves from 'known' to 'new': from low to high information value. So we often choose as the subject a person or thing that is already being talked about or that has already been mentioned, or something that the speaker and hearer are both familiar with, or even some new information that is not the main point of the message. The important new information generally comes at the end of a clause or sentence.

How's Joe these days? ~ Oh, fine. He's just got married to a very nice girl.
(More natural than ... *A very nice girl's just got married to him.*)
My father was bitten by a dog last week.
(More natural than *A dog bit my father last week.*)
Our dog bit the postman this morning.
(More natural than *The postman was bitten by our dog this morning.*)
I can't find my clothes. ~ Well, your trousers are under my coat.
(More natural than ... *My coat's on your trousers.*)

To avoid beginning a clause with a completely new element, we can use the *there is* structure. For details, see 587.

There's a cat on the roof. (More natural than *A cat's on the roof.*)

For 'known' and 'new' information with *as*, *since* and *because*, see 72.

3 getting the right subject: actives, passives, etc

In many situations, there is an 'agent' (the person or thing who does something) and a 'patient' (the person or thing that something is done to). If we want to make the agent the subject, we can usually do this by choosing an active verb form (see 10).

The storm blew Margaret's roof off.
Somebody's dropped ketchup all over the floor.

If we want to make the patient the subject, we can usually do this by choosing a passive verb form (see 412).

Margaret's roof was blown off in the storm.
Ketchup has been dropped all over the floor.

If we want to make something else the subject, we can often do this by using a structure with *have* + object + past participle (see 238.3).

Margaret had her roof blown off in the storm.
The floor has had ketchup dropped all over it. ▸

Structures with *have* are often used to 'personalise' a situation by making a person the subject.

I've got the house full of children. (Instead of *The house is full of children.* OR *There are children all over the house.*)

We can often get the subject we want by choosing the right verb. Compare:

– *The biscuit factory employs 7,000 people.*
  7,000 people work for the biscuit factory.
– *He led the children through the silent streets.*
  The children followed him through the silent streets.

Some verbs can have both agent and patient subjects. For details, see 609.

She opened the door *The door opened.*

4 end-weight: *It worried me that she hadn't been in touch*

Longer and heavier structures usually come last in a clause or sentence. (These usually have the highest 'information-value' in any case.)

Children are sometimes discouraged by the length of time it takes to learn a musical instrument. (More natural than *The length of time it takes to learn a musical instrument sometimes discourages children.*)

Because of this, we often use a structure with 'preparatory *it*' in order to move a clause or infinitive subject or object to the end of a sentence. For details, see 446–447.

It worried me that she hadn't been in touch for so long.
(More natural than *That she hadn't been in touch for so long worried me.*)

It's important to tell us everything you know.
(More natural than *To tell us everything you know is important.*)

He made it clear that he was not in the least interested. (More natural than *He made that he was not in the least interested clear.*)

Adverbs do not normally separate the verb from the object in an English clause (see 21.1). However, a very long and heavy object may come after a shorter adverb. Compare:

She plays the violin very well (NOT ~~*She plays very well the violin.*~~)

She plays very well almost any instrument that you can think of and several that you can't.

End-weight can also affect the word order of indirect questions. Compare:

I'm not sure what the point is.

I'm not sure what is the point of spending hours and hours discussing this.

5 emphatic structures: *What I need is . . .; Nice man, Joe*

There are various ways of giving extra emphasis to one part of a sentence. One way is to use a 'cleft sentence' with *it* or *what*: this emphasises one idea by putting everything else into a subordinate clause. For details, see 130–131.

It was my mother who finally called the police.

What I need is a hot bath and a drink.

If we move to the beginning of a sentence something that does not normally go there, this gives it extra emphasis. This kind of structure ('fronting') is common in speech, where intonation can make the information structure clear. For details, see 513.

The other plans we'll look at next week. *Nice man, Joe.*

For more information about emphasis, see 184.

513 sentence structure (5): fronting

1 *People like that I just can't stand*

Affirmative sentences most often begin with the grammatical subject.

I just can't stand people like that.

If we begin a sentence with something else ('fronting'), this is often to make it the topic – the thing we are talking about – even though it is not the grammatical subject. This can also move the main new information to the end – its most natural position (see 512).

***This question** we have already discussed at some length.*

***All the other information which you need** I am putting in the post today.* (from a business letter)

***Any video in our catalogue** we can supply, if available.* (Notice in music shop.)

Fronting is particularly common in speech.

***People like that** I just can't stand.*

***(A) fat lot of good** that does me.* (= 'That doesn't do me much good', but putting strong emphasis on *me*.)

Question-word clauses are often fronted.

***What I'm going to do next** I just don't know.*

***How she got the gun through customs** we never found out.*

2 *Very good lesson we had*

Fronting words in short sentences can also give them extra emphasis. This happens mostly in speech.

***Strange people** they are!*

***Very good lesson** we had yesterday.* ***Last for ever these shoes** will.*

In a few exclamatory expressions, a noun is fronted before *that*, but this is uncommon in modern English.

***Fool** that I was!*

3 ellipsis: *Postman been?*

In a very informal style, articles, pronouns and auxiliary verbs are often left out, bringing a more important word to the front of the clause. This is called 'ellipsis': for details, see 179.

***Postman** been?* ***Seen** John?*

Sometimes ellipsis is used to front a verb and/or complement, while the subject is put in a 'tag' (see 514) at the end.

***Likes** his beer, Stephen does.*

***Funny**, your brother.* ***Nice day**, isn't it?*

4 adverbs etc: *Off we go!*

Many adverbs and adverbial expressions can go at the beginning of a clause (see 22). This often happens when we are using the adverbs to structure a piece of narrative or a description.

*Once upon a time there were three little pigs. **One day** ... **Then** ... **Soon after** that ... **After dark**, ...*

*Inside the front door there is ... **Opposite** the living room is ... **On the right** you can see ... **At the top of the stairs** ...* ▸

Adverb particles are often fronted when giving instructions to small children.

Off we go! *Down you come!*

Inversion (see 302–303) is necessary after some emphatic fronted adverbs and adverbial expressions.

Under no circumstances can we accept cheques. (NOT ~~*Under no circumstances we can*~~ . . .)

Round the corner came Mrs Porter.

5 fronting with *as* or *though*

Fronted adjectives and adverbs are possible in a structure with *as* or *though* (see 71).

Young as I was, I realised what was happening.

Tired though she was, she went on working.

Fast though she drove, she could not catch them.

Much as I respect his work, I cannot agree with him.

See also entries on basic word order (509), information structure (512), 'spacing out' information in speech (514), tags (514), emphasis (184) and cleft sentences (130–131).

For the use of passive and other structures to bring objects to the front, see 512.3, 414.1.

514 sentence structure (6): spoken structures and tags

1 *This guy who rang up, he's an architect*

In informal speech, we often 'space out' the different elements of a sentence, giving the hearer a little extra time to interpret each part before going on to the next.

Last Wednesday it was, I was just going to work, . . .

It's terrible, you know, the unemployment down there.

One way of spacing out information is to separate a subject or object, announce it at the front of a sentence, and then repeat it with a pronoun.

George Best – now he was a good player.

This guy who rang up, he's an architect. Well, . . .

That couple we met in Berlin, we don't want to send them a card, do we?

One of my brothers, his wife's a singer, he says . . .

This does not usually happen with pronoun subjects, but *me* and *myself* are occasionally detached and fronted.

Me, I don't care.

Myself, I think you're making a big mistake.

Another common way of separating part of a sentence is to introduce it with *You know . . .*

You know Sylvia. Well, she . . .

2 tags: *They work very hard, most of them*

We can space out information by putting some of it in a complete sentence and then adding more details at the end. The extra words at the end are called a 'tag'.

They work very hard, most of them.

That's the doorbell, I think. *I don't mind, to be honest.*

It is possible to 'announce' the subject with a pronoun, and put the full subject in a tag.

He hasn't a chance, Fred. *He likes his beer, John.*
They're very polite, your children.

In sentences like these, we often drop the pronoun at the beginning.

Hasn't a chance, Fred. *Likes his beer, John.*

We can also drop an unstressed form of *be*.

Very polite, your children.
Living in the clouds, you lot. *Crazy, that driver.*

The tag can repeat the verb by using an auxiliary.

(He) hasn't a chance, Fred ***hasn't.***
(He) likes his beer, John ***does.***
(She) really got on my nerves, Sylvia ***did.***

3 emphasising tags: *You've gone mad, you have*

Sometimes a tag gives no new information, but simply repeats and emphasises the subject and verb.

You've gone mad, you ***have.***
I'm getting fed up, I ***am.*** *He likes his beer, he* ***does.***

Pronouns are not usually used alone in tags, except for reflexives.

(I) don't think much of the party, myself.

For more about dropping words ('ellipsis') at the beginning of a sentence, see 179.
For other uses of tags and similar structures, see 487–488 (question tags), 484 (reply questions) and 517 (short answers).

515 sentence structure (7): understanding complicated structures

1 clause inside clause: *Ann, when she finally ...*

Sometimes an adverb clause is put into the middle of another clause, separating a subject from its verb.

subject + *if/when/after/because* ... + verb

Ann, when she finally managed to go to sleep, had a series of bad dreams.

The government, if recent reports can be trusted, has decided not to raise interest rates.

In these structures, a noun may not be the subject of a verb that comes just after it.

Mr Andrews, when he saw ***the policeman, started*** *running as fast as he could.* (It was not the policeman who started running.)

Sentences like these can be hard for learners to understand, especially if they are long and complicated.

Mr Fisher, after he had completed his discussions with the bank manager, drew a large sum of money out of the bank and caught the next plane ▸

to Paris. (A learner might think that it was the bank manager who took the money and went to Paris.)

One way of deciding what to do if you have difficulty in choosing the best course of action is to toss a coin. (Does the sentence say that the best course of action is to toss a coin?)

2 *that picture of the children standing ...*

The same thing can happen when the subject of a sentence is followed by a descriptive phrase or relative clause.

subject + descriptive phrase/clause + verb

That picture of the children standing in front of the Palace talking to the Prime Minister is wonderful. (The sentence does not say that the Prime Minister is wonderful.)

The tree that Mary gave to my younger brother is growing fast.

The reporter who first made contact with the kidnappers telephoned the police immediately. (Who telephoned?)

3 missing relative pronouns: *the film she was talking about*

When relative pronouns (*who/which/that*) are left out (see 494.6), this can cause difficulty.

It was a question a small child could have answered. (= ... that a small child could have answered.)

The film she was talking about at Celia's party turned out to be very boring. (= ... the film which she was talking about ...)

The manager of Brown's, the chemist's, has confirmed that bottles of shampoo he took off the shelves after animal rights protesters claimed to have put bleach into them did contain poisonous chemicals. (= ... bottles of shampoo which he took off ...)

The really important point is that because he did not invite the one man he certainly should have asked his father was angry. (Does the sentence say that he should he have asked his father?)

4 missing *that*: *The man claimed he was ...*

We often leave out the conjunction *that* after verbs (see 584). This can make complicated sentences more difficult to follow.

The man who was arrested claimed he was somewhere else at the time of the robbery. (= ... claimed that he was ...)

She insisted she thought he knew she was on the train. (= She insisted that she thought that he knew that ...)

In short news reports, *that* is sometimes left out after nouns.

Officials did not accept his claim he was innocent. (= ... that he was innocent.)

The Minister denied the suggestion he had concealed information from Parliament. (= ... the suggestion that he ...)

5 past participles that look like past tenses: *the children asked ... told the police*

Past participles (e.g. *arrested, accused*) are often used descriptively after nouns, rather like reduced relative clauses (see 498.10). When these look the same as

past tenses, they can cause confusion. In the following examples from news reports, *arrested* means 'who was arrested', *accused* means 'who is accused', and *asked* means 'who were asked'.

*A court has heard that a young civil servant **arrested** after shootings on Tyneside left one man dead is to be charged with murder.*

*A Karnak separatist **accused** of leading an attack on a French police barracks in which four gendarmes died has been arrested.*

*A number of the children **asked** for comments on the proposals to expel some immigrants told the police they disagreed.*

6 reporting expressions: *The man who Ann said will tell us*

Complicated structures can be produced when reporting expressions are included in sentences.

*This is the man who Ann **said** will tell us all about the church.*

*There are those people that I **thought** were going to buy our house.*

*Who **did you say** (that) you wanted to invite for Christmas?*

*What **do you suppose** will happen now?*

This can also happen with reported question structures.

*He's gone I **don't know** how far.*

*We spent I **can't remember** how much money on our holiday.*

*Mary gave me **you'll never guess** what for my birthday.*

7 heavy subject: *Getting up very early ... makes ...*

When the subject of a sentence is a long phrase or clause, the structure can be difficult to follow.

***Getting up very early in the morning** makes you feel really superior.* (The first seven words are the subject.)

***Going on holiday out of season when everybody else is working** can save you a lot of money.* (11-word subject)

***What Ann's little sister wanted above everything else in the whole world** was a horse.* (12-word subject)

8 heavy indirect object: *I gave all the people who had helped me ...*

Similar problems can be caused by a long indirect object.

*She gave **all the people who had helped her with her research** copies of her book.*

*He brought **the village where he had grown up** unexpected fame and prosperity.*

9 more examples

Here are more examples of the above structures, some of them extreme, taken from news reports and fiction.

*A 24-year-old labourer **who was arrested in Trafalgar Square when he allegedly attempted to knife a traffic warden** is said to have injured three policemen.*

The Consumers' Association study showed 75% of parents thought junk food advertising campaigns made it harder for them to insist their children ate healthy food. ▸

The rebel leader found out that in spite of the precautions of the soldiers he had bought the guns from the police had planted an informer among them.
The report will look into claims the design of the courthouse the men escaped from was at fault.
Statements reassuring the public patients needing intensive care are getting it are total nonsense.
What they say is surprising isn't.
Pictures of the baby the judge ordered should not be identified by reporters appeared in a Sunday newspaper.
Police hunting thieves who dumped a ten-month-old baby in an alley after finding him inside a car they stole have charged two teenage boys.
The head doorman at a nightclub where the ecstacy pill which killed P. L. was sold has admitted he knew drugs were sold at the club..
But what bothered him more than what the files that were in the drawer could mean was the feeling that something was certainly missing.
Police called to a house in Hampshire after neighbours reported cries for help found 18-year-old M. F. stuck in a cat-flap after being locked out of his home.
Millennium Dome chiefs have refused to discuss reports they ignored advice attendance figures at the attraction would be lower than hoped. The Sunday Times says the Millennium Commission warned Dome owners the New Millennium Experience Company its own estimate was between 4.5m and 5m. NMEC reportedly insisted there would be at least 7m visitors this year.
(The Millennium Dome was a tourist attraction built in London to celebrate the year 2000. It lost an enormous amount of money.)

516 shade and shadow

Shade is protection from the sun.
*I'm hot. Let's find some **shade** to sit in.*
*The temperature's 30 degrees in the **shade**.*
A *shadow* is the 'picture' made by something that blocks out light.
*In the evening your **shadow** is longer than you are.*
*There's an old story about a man without a **shadow**.*

517 short answers: Yes, he can etc

Answers are often grammatically incomplete, because they do not need to repeat words that have just been said. A common 'short answer' pattern is **subject + auxiliary verb**, together with whatever other words are really necessary.
*Can he swim? ~ Yes, **he can**.* (More natural than *Yes, he can swim.*)
*Has it stopped raining? ~ No, **it hasn't**.*
*Are you enjoying yourself? ~ I certainly **am**.*
*Don't forget to write. ~ I **won't**.*
*You didn't phone Debbie last night. ~ No, but I **did** this morning.*

We use *do* if there is no other auxiliary.
She likes cakes. ~ ***She really does.***
That surprised you. ~ ***It certainly did.***
Non-auxiliary *be* and *have* are used in short answers.
Is she happy? ~ *I think she* ***is.***
Have you a light? ~ *Yes, I* ***have.***
Short answers can be followed by tags (see 487–488).
Nice day. ~ *Yes, it is,* ***isn't it?***
Note that stressed, non-contracted affirmative forms are used in short answers.
Yes, I ***am.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I'm.*~~)

For similar structures, see 484 (reply questions), 487–488 (question tags) and 181(ellipsis).
For *So am I* etc, see 541.1.
For *So I am* etc, see 541.2.

518 should (1): introduction

1 forms

Should is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). It has no *-s* in the third person singular.
The postman ***should*** *be here soon.* (NOT ~~*The postman shoulds*~~...)
Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Should *we tell Judy?* (NOT ~~*Do we should*~~...?)
Should is followed by an infinitive without *to*.
Should I go? (NOT ~~*Should I to go?*~~)
She should ***be*** *told the truth.*
There is a contracted negative *shouldn't*.
The meeting ***shouldn't*** *take long.*
Should has a weak pronunciation /ʃəd/, often used when it is not stressed (see 616).

2 obligation, probability

Should can be used to talk about obligation: things that it is good or important for people to do (see 519.1).
Everybody ***should*** *wear car seat belts.*
It can also be used to say what we think is probable, because it is logical or normal (see 519.2).
She's away, but she ***should*** *be back tomorrow.*
With these meanings, *should* is like a weaker form of *must*.

3 *It is important/surprising that ... should ...*

Should is used in *that*-clauses after certain adjectives and nouns, especially in British English (see 521).
It's ***important*** *that somebody* ***should*** *talk to the police.*
It's ***surprising*** *that she* ***should*** *say that to you.* ▸

4 *if, in case,* etc

Should can be used in *if*-clauses (see 261.1 for details), after *in case* (see 271.2), after *for fear that* and *lest* (see 321) and after *so that* and *in order that* (see 543).

*If you **should** see Caroline, tell her I've got the tickets.*
*I'll get a chicken out of the freezer **in case** Aunt Mary **should** come.*
*He turned the radio down **so that** he **shouldn't** disturb the old lady.*

5 *I should/would; we should/would*

Should can be used instead of *would* after *I* and *we* in certain cases. This happens:

- in sentences with *if* (see 258.3)
  *If I had more time I **should/would** learn Japanese.*
- in indirect speech (corresponding to *shall/will* in direct speech – see 275)
  *I told her that we **should/would** be ready at 8.00.* ('We shall/will be ready . . . .')
- and in 'future in the past' sentences (see 221).
  *I looked at the house where I **should/would** spend the next three years.*

519 should (2): obligation, deduction etc

1 obligation: *Everybody should wear seat belts*

We often use *should* to talk about obligation, duty and similar ideas. It is less strong than *must* (see 520).

*Everybody **should** wear car seat belts.*
*You **shouldn't** say things like that to Granny.*
*Applications **should** be sent before December 30th.*
(More polite than *Applications must be sent . . .*)

In questions, *should* is used to ask for advice or instructions, like a less definite form of *shall* (see 217).

***Should** I go and see the police, do you think?*
*What **should** we do?*

For the difference between *should* and *had better*, see 230.

2 probability: *She should be back tomorrow*

We can use *should* to say that we know something is probable (because it is logical or normal in the circumstances).

*She's away, but she **should** be back tomorrow.* (= I have good reasons to believe that she will be back tomorrow.)
*Henry **should** get here soon – he left home at six.*
*We're spending the winter in Florida. ~ That **should** be nice.*

3 past use: *I knew that I should . . .; I was supposed to . . .*

Should is used unchanged in past indirect speech, if *should* was used in direct speech.

*I thought 'I **should** write to Jane.' → I knew that I **should** write to Jane.*

In other cases, ***should*** + **infinitive** is not normally used to talk about the past. Instead, we can use for example *was/were supposed to . . .* (see 572).

*It was going to be a long day. I was **supposed** to clean up all the stables, and then start on the garden.* (NOT ... ~~*I should clean up*~~ ...)
*She was **supposed** to be in her office, but she wasn't.* (NOT ~~*She should be in her office, but she wasn't.*~~)

4 *should have ...*

Should have + past participle can be used to talk about past events which did not happen, or which may or may not have happened.
*I **should have phoned** Ed this morning, but I forgot.*
*Ten o'clock: she **should have arrived** in the office by now.*
*You **shouldn't have called** him a fool – it really upset him.*

For *should* after *in case*, see 271.2.
For *should* after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.
For *How should ...?* and *Why should ...?*, see 482.2.
For special uses of *should* in other subordinate clauses, see 521.

520 should (3): should, ought and must

1 *should* and *ought*

Should and *ought* (see 403) are very similar, and can often replace each other.
*They **ought** to be more sensible, **shouldn't** they?*
They are both used to talk about obligation and duty, to give advice, and to say what we think it is right for people to do or have done. *Should* is much more frequent than *ought*.
*You **should / ought to** see 'Daughter of the Moon' – it's a great film.*
*You **should / ought to** have seen his face!*
Should and *ought* are not used in polite requests.
Could you move your head a bit? I can't see. (NOT ~~*You should / ought to move your head a bit*~~ ...)
Should and *ought* are both also used to talk about logical probability.
*I've bought three loaves – that **should / ought to** be enough.*
*That **should / ought to** be Janet coming upstairs now.*
Ought, unlike *should*, is followed by a *to*-infinitive.

2 *Must* is stronger than *should/ought*

Must has similar meanings to *should* and *ought*, but is stronger or more definite. It expresses great confidence that something will happen, or that something is true; *should* and *ought* express less confidence. Compare:
– *The doctor said I **must** give up smoking.*
(an order which is likely to be obeyed)
*You really **ought to** give up smoking.*
(a piece of advice which may or may not be followed)
– *Rob **must** be at home by now.* (= I'm sure he is at home.)
*Rob **should** be at home by now.* (= I think he is probably at home.)
Should can be used instead of *must* to make instructions sound more polite.
*This form **should** be filled in in ink.*
*Applications **should** be sent by 31 January.* ▸

3 *must* not used

Should and *ought* can be used for predictions – to say what people expect to happen. *Must* is not often used in this way.

*It **should** be fine tomorrow.* (BUT NOT ~~*It must be fine tomorrow.*~~)

*Next week's exam **should** be easy.* (BUT NOT ~~*Next week's exam must be easy.*~~)

Should have and ***ought to have*** + past participle can be used to talk about unfulfilled obligation in the past. *Must* is not used like this.

*You **should have been** nicer to Annie.* (BUT NOT ~~*You must have been nicer to Annie.*~~)

For details of the use of *must*, see 358–361.
For the difference between *should/ought* and *had better*, see 230.

521 should (4): in subordinate clauses

1 importance: *It's important that ... should ...*

In formal British English, *should* can be used in *that*-clauses after adjectives and nouns expressing the importance of an action (e.g. *important, necessary, vital, essential, eager, anxious, concerned, wish*).

*It's **important** that somebody **should** talk to the police.*

*Is it **necessary** that my uncle **should** be informed?*

*I'm **anxious** that nobody **should** be hurt.*

*It is his **wish** that the money **should** be given to charity.*

This also happens after some verbs expressing similar ideas, especially in sentences about the past.

*He **insisted** that the contract **should** be read aloud.*

*I **recommended** that she **should** reduce her expenditure.*

In a less formal style, other structures are preferred.

*It's **important** that she **talks** to me when she gets here.*

*Was it **necessary** to **tell** my uncle?*

In American English, this use of *should* is unusual; subjunctives may be used (see 561).

*It's **important** that somebody **talk** to the police.*

*Was it **necessary** that my uncle **be** informed?*

*I **recommend** that she **reduce** her expenditure.*

2 reactions: *It's surprising that she should ...*

Should is also used in subordinate clauses after words expressing personal judgements and reactions, especially to facts which are already known or have already been mentioned. (This use, too, is more common in British than American English. It is not particularly formal.)

*It's **surprising** that she **should** say that to you.*

*I was **shocked** that she **shouldn't** have invited Phyllis.*

*I'm **sorry** you **should** think I did it on purpose.*

*Do you think it's **normal** that the child **should** be so tired?*

In American English, *would* is more usual in this kind of sentence.

*It was **natural** that they **would** want him to go to a good school.* (BrE ... *that they should* ...)

Sentences like these can also be constructed without *should*. Subjunctives cannot be used.

*It's **surprising** that she **says/said** that sort of thing to you.* (BUT NOT ~~*It's surprising that she say*~~ . . .)

*I was **shocked** that she **didn't** invite Phyllis.*

For *should* in *if*-clauses, see 261.1; after *in case*, see 271.2; after *lest*, see 321; after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.

522 since: tenses

1 main clause: *I've known her since . . .*

In sentences with *since* (referring to time), we normally use present perfect and past perfect tenses in the main clause.

*I've **known** her since 1980.* (NOT ~~*I know her since*~~ . . .)

*We **haven't** seen Jamie since Christmas.*

*I was sorry when Jacky moved to America; we **had been** good friends since university days.*

However, present and past tenses are also occasionally found, especially in sentences about changes.

*You're **looking** much better since your operation.*

*She **doesn't come** round to see us so much **since** her marriage.*

*SInce last Sunday I **can't stop** thinking about you.*

*Things **weren't going** so well since Father's illness.*

2 *It's a long time since . . .*

In British English, present and past tenses are common in the structure *It is/was . . . since . . .*

*It's a long time **since** the last meeting.*

*It was ages **since** that wonderful holiday.*

American English prefers perfect tenses in this structure.

*It's **been** a long time **since** the last meeting.*

*It **had been** ages **since** that wonderful vacation.*

3 *since*-clause: *since we were at school*

Since can be used as a conjunction of time, introducing its own clause. The tense in the *since*-clause can be perfect or past, depending on the meaning. Compare:

- *I've known her **since we were at school together**.*
  *I've known her **since I've lived in this street**.*
- *You've drunk about ten cups of tea **since you arrived**.*
  *You've drunk about ten cups of tea **since you've been sitting here**.*
- *We visit my parents every week **since we bought the car**.*
  *We visit my parents every week **since we've had the car**.*

For more about present perfect tenses, including American usage, see 455–460.
For past perfect tenses, see 423–425.
For the differences between *since*, *for* and *from*, see 208.
For *since* meaning 'as' or 'because', see 72.

523 singular and plural (1): regular plurals

The plural of most nouns is made by just adding *-s* to the singular. But there are some special cases.

1 plural of nouns ending in consonant + *y*

If the singular ends in **consonant** + *y* (for example *-by, -dy, -ry, -ty*), the plural is normally made by changing *y* to *i* and adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
... consonant + *y*	... consonant + *ies*
baby	*babies*
lady	*ladies*
ferry	*ferries*
party	*parties*

If the singular ends in **vowel** + *y* (e.g. *day, boy, guy, donkey*), the plural is made by adding *-s* (*days, boys, guys, donkeys*).

Proper names ending in **consonant** + *y* usually have plurals in *-ys*.
Do you know the Kennedys? (NOT ... ~~*the Kennedies?*~~)
I hate Februarys.

2 plural of nouns ending in *-sh, -ch, -s, -x* or *-z*

If the singular ends in *-sh, -ch, -s, -x* or *-z*, the plural is made by adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
... *ch/sh/s/x/z*	... *ches/shes/ses/xes/zes*
church	*churches*
crash	*crashes*
bus	*buses*
box	*boxes*
buzz	*buzzes*

Nouns ending in a single *-z* have plurals in *-zzes*: *quiz/quizzes, fez/fezzes*.

3 plural of nouns ending in *-o*

Some nouns ending in *-o* have plurals in *-es*. The most common:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
echo	*echoes*	*potato*	*potatoes*
hero	*heroes*	*tomato*	*tomatoes*
negro	*negroes*		

Nouns ending in vowel + *o* have plurals in *-s* (e.g. *radios, zoos*). So do the following, and most new words ending in *-o* that come into the language:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
commando	*commandos*	*photo*	*photos*
concerto	*concertos*	*piano*	*pianos*
Eskimo	*Eskimos*	*solo*	*solos*
kilo	*kilos*	*soprano*	*sopranos*
logo	*logos*		

The following words can have plurals in *-s* or *-es*; *-es* is more common.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
buffalo	*buffalo(e)s*	*tornado*	*tornado(e)s*
mosquito	*mosquito(e)s*	*volcano*	*volcano(e)s*

524 singular and plural (2): irregular and special plurals

1 irregular plurals in *-ves*

The following nouns ending in *-f(e)* have plurals in *-ves*.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
calf	*calves*	*self*	*selves*
elf	*elves*	*sheaf*	*sheaves*
half	*halves*	*shelf*	*shelves*
knife	*knives*	*thief*	*thieves*
leaf	*leaves*	*wife*	*wives*
life	*lives*	*wolf*	*wolves*
loaf	*loaves*		

Dwarf, hoof, scarf and *wharf* can have plurals in either *-fs* or *-ves*. *Hooves, scarves* and *wharves* are more common than the plurals in *-fs*.
Other words ending in *-f(e)* are regular.

2 other irregular plurals

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
child	*children*	*ox*	*oxen*
foot	*feet*	*penny*	*pence*
goose	*geese*	*person*	*people*
louse	*lice*	*tooth*	*teeth*
man	*men*	*woman*	*women*
mouse	*mice*		

The regular plural *pennies* can be used to talk about separate penny coins (and one-cent coins in the USA); *pence* is used to talk about prices and sums of money. Some British people now use *pence* as a singular (e.g. *That'll be three pounds and one pence, please*).
Persons is sometimes used as a plural of *person* in official language. There is also a singular noun *people* (plural *peoples*) meaning 'nation'. ▸

3 plural same as singular

Some words ending in *-s* do not change in the plural. Common examples:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
barracks	*barracks*	*headquarters*	*headquarters*
series	*series*	*works* (= factory)	*works*
crossroads	*crossroads*	*means*	*means*
species	*species*	*Swiss*	*Swiss*

Note that some singular uncountable nouns end in *-s*. These have no plurals. Examples are *news, billiards, draughts* (and some other names of games ending in *-s*), *measles* (and some other illnesses).

Most words ending in *-ics* (e.g. *mathematics, physics, athletics*) are normally singular uncountable and have no plural use.

Too much mathematics is usually taught in schools. (NOT ~~*Too many mathematics are*~~ . . .)

Some words ending in *-ics* (e.g. *politics, statistics*) can also have plural uses.

Politics is a complicated business. (BUT *What are your politics?*)

Statistics is useful in language testing. (BUT *The unemployment statistics are disturbing.*)

Other nouns which do not change in the plural are *craft* (meaning 'vehicle'), *aircraft, hovercraft, spacecraft, Chinese, Japanese* (and other nationality nouns ending in *-ese*), *sheep, deer, fish,* and the names of some other living creatures, especially those that are hunted or used for food. *Fish* has a rare plural *fishes,* but the normal plural is *fish.*

Dozen, hundred, thousand, million, stone (= 14 pounds) and *foot* (= 12 inches) have plurals without *-s* in some kinds of expressions. For details, see 389.15.

Dice (used in board games) is originally the plural of *die,* which is not now often used in this sense; in modern English *dice* is generally used as both singular and plural.

Data is originally the plural of *datum,* which is not now used. In modern English *data* can be used either as an uncountable noun (*this data is . . .*) or as a plural (*these data are . . .*), with no difference of meaning.

Media is originally the plural of *medium.* The plural expression *the media* (meaning 'radio, TV, newspapers, the internet . . .') is now quite often used as an uncountable noun with a singular verb.

4 foreign plurals

Some words which come from foreign languages have special plurals. Examples:

Singular	Plural
analysis	*analyses* (Latin)
appendix	*appendices* (Latin)
bacterium	*bacteria* (Latin)
basis	*bases* (Greek)
cactus	*cacti* (Latin) or *cactuses* (less common)
corpus	*corpora* (Latin)
crisis	*crises* (Greek)

criterion	*criteria* (Greek)
diagnosis	*diagnoses* (Greek)
formula	*formulae* (Latin) or *formulas*
fungus	*fungi* (Latin) or *funguses*
hypothesis	*hypotheses* (Greek)
kibbutz	*kibbutzim* (Hebrew)
nucleus	*nuclei* (Latin)
oasis	*oases* (Greek)
phenomenon	*phenomena* (Greek)
radius	*radii* (Latin)
stimulus	*stimuli* (Latin)
vertebra	*vertebrae* (Latin)

Note that some foreign plurals (e.g. *agenda, spaghetti*) are singular in English (see 148.5).

5 plurals in *'s*

An apostrophe (') is used before the *-s* in the plurals of letters of the alphabet, and sometimes in the plurals of dates and abbreviations.

She spelt 'necessary' with two c's.

I loved the 1960's. (*the 1960s* is more common)

PC's are getting cheaper. (*PCs* is more common)

It is not correct to use *-'s* in other plurals, e.g. ~~*jean's*~~.

6 compound nouns

In **noun + adverb** combinations, the plural *-s* is usually added to the noun.

Singular	Plural
passer-by	*passers-by*
runner-up	*runners-up*

The plural of *mother-in-law* and similar words is generally *mothers-in-law* etc, but some people use *mother-in-laws* etc; the plural of *court martial* (= military court or military trial) is either *courts martial* (more formal) or *court martials* (less formal).

In **noun + noun** combinations, the first noun is usually singular in form even if the meaning is plural (e.g. *shoe shop*). There are some exceptions. (see 531).

7 plurals with no singular forms

Cattle is a plural word used to talk collectively about bulls, cows and calves; it has no singular, and cannot be used for counting individual animals (one cannot say, for instance, *three cattle*).

Many cattle are suffering from a disease called BSE. (NOT ~~*Much cattle is*~~...)

Police, staff and *crew* are generally used in the same way.

The police are looking for a fair-haired man in his twenties. (NOT ~~*The police is looking*~~... OR ~~*A police*~~...)

The staff are on strike. (BUT *A member of staff said* ..., NOT ~~*A staff*~~...)

However numbers are sometimes used before these three words (e.g. *four staff, six crew*).

The expressions *the British, the Dutch, the English, the French, the Irish, the Spanish* and *the Welsh* (see 17.2) are also plural, with no singular forms. ▸

In 1581 the Dutch declared their independence from Spain.
(BUT *A Dutchman came into the shop.* NOT ~~*A Dutch*~~...)

Trousers, jeans, pyjamas (AmE *pajamas*), *pants, scales, scissors, glasses, spectacles* (meaning 'glasses'), *binoculars, pliers,* and the names of many similar divided objects are plural, and have no singular forms. (The equivalent words in some other languages are singular.)

Your jeans are too tight. (NOT ~~*Your jean is*~~...)
Where are my glasses? ~ *They're on your nose.*

To talk about individual items, we can use *a pair of* (see 430).

Have you got a pair of nail-scissors?

Other common words which are normally plural and uncountable include: *arms, clothes* (see 133), *congratulations, contents, customs* (at a frontier), *funds* (= money), *goods, groceries, manners* (= social behaviour), *the Middle Ages* (a period in history), *oats* (but *corn, wheat, barley* and *rye* are singular uncountable), *odds* (= chances), *outskirts, premises* (= building), *regards, remains, savings, surroundings, thanks, troops.*

Congratulations on your new job. (NOT ~~*Congratulation*~~...)
She lives on the outskirts of Cambridge. (NOT ...~~*the outskirt*~~...)

For cases where plural nouns are used with singular verbs and pronouns (and the opposite), see 526–527.

525 singular and plural (3): pronunciation of plurals

1 nouns ending in /s/, /z/ and other sibilants

After one of the sibilant sounds /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, the plural ending *-es* is pronounced /ɪz/.

buses /ˈbʌsɪz/	*crashes* /ˈkræʃɪz/	*watches* /ˈwɒtʃɪz/
quizzes /ˈkwɪzɪz/	*garages* /ˈgærɑːʒɪz/	*bridges* /ˈbrɪdʒɪz/

2 nouns ending in other unvoiced sounds

After any other unvoiced sound (/p/, /f/, /θ/, /t/ or /k/), the plural ending *-(e)s* is pronounced /s/.

cups /kʌps/	*cloths* /klɒθs/	*books* /bʊks/
beliefs /bɪˈliːfs/	*plates* /pleɪts/	

3 nouns ending in other voiced sounds

After vowels, and all voiced consonants except /z/, /ʒ/ and /dʒ/, the plural ending *-(e)s* is pronounced /z/.

days /deɪz/	*clothes*/kləʊðz/	*legs* /legz/
boys /bɔɪz/	*ends* /endz/	*dreams* /driːmz/
trees /triːz/	*hills* /hɪlz/	*songs* /sɒŋz/
knives /naɪvz/		

4 plurals with irregular pronunciation

Singular	Plural
bath /bɑːθ/	*baths* /bɑːθs/ or /bɑːðz/
house /haʊs/	*houses* /ˈhaʊzɪz/
mouth /maʊθ/	*mouths* /maʊθs/ or /maʊðz/

Singular	Plural
path /pɑːθ/	*paths* /pɑːθs/ or /pɑːðz/
roof /ruːf/	*roofs* /ruːfs/ or /ruːvz/
truth /truːθ/	*truths* /truːθs/ or /truːðz/
wreath /riːθ/	*wreaths* /riːθs/ or /riːðz/
youth /juːθ/	*youths* /juːθs/ or /juːðz/

Third person singular forms (e.g. *catches, wants, runs*) and possessive forms (e.g. *George's, Mark's, Joe's*) follow the same pronunciation rules as regular plurals.

526 singular and plural (4): singular nouns with plural verbs

1 groups of people: *The team is/are ...*

In British English, singular words like *family, team, government*, which refer to groups of people, can have either singular or plural verbs and pronouns.

The team is/are going to lose.

Plural forms are common when the group is seen as a collection of people doing personal things like deciding, hoping or wanting. Singular forms are more common when the group is seen as an impersonal unit. Compare:

– *My family have decided to move to York. They're going in April.*
  The average family has 3.6 members. It is smaller than 50 years ago.
– *My firm are wonderful. They do all they can for me.*
  My firm was founded in the 18th century.

We prefer *who* as a relative pronoun with plural forms, and *which* with singular forms. Compare:

The committee, who are hoping to announce important changes, ...
The committee, which is elected at the annual meeting, ...

When a group noun is used with a singular determiner (e.g. *a/an, each, every, this, that*), singular verbs and pronouns are normal. Compare:

The team are full of enthusiasm.
A team which is full of enthusiasm has a better chance of winning.
(More natural than *A team who are full ...*)

Sometimes singular and plural forms are mixed.

The group gave its first concert in June and they are now planning a tour.

Examples of group nouns which can be used with both singular and plural verbs in British English:

bank	*committee*	*government*	*public*
the BBC	*England (the football team)*	*jury*	*school*
choir		*ministry*	*staff*
class	*family*	*orchestra*	*team*
club	*firm*	*party*	*union*

In American English singular verbs are normal with most of these nouns in all cases (though *family* can have a plural verb). Plural pronouns can be used.

The team is in Detroit this weekend. They expect to win. ▸

2 *A number of people have ...*

Many singular quantifying expressions can be used with plural nouns and pronouns; plural verbs are normally used in this case.

A number of people have tried to find the treasure, but they have all failed. (More natural than *A number of people has tried ...*)
A group of us are going to take a boat through the French canals.
A couple of my friends plan to open a travel agency. (NOT ~~*A couple of my friends plans*~~ ...)
A lot of social problems are caused by unemployment. (NOT ~~*A lot of social problems is caused*~~ ...)
The majority of criminals are non-violent.
Some of these people are relations and the rest are old friends.
Half of his students don't understand a word he says. (NOT ~~*Half of his students doesn't*~~ ...)

For more about *a lot* and *lots*, see 333. For *the rest*, see 501. For *(a) few*, see 329.
For singular and plural nouns with fractions, see 532.9.

527 singular and plural (5): plural expressions with singular verbs

1 amounts and quantities: *that five pounds*

When we talk about amounts and quantities we usually use singular determiners, verbs and pronouns, even if the noun is plural.

Where is that five pounds I lent you? (NOT ~~*Where are those five pounds*~~ ...?)
Twenty miles is a long way to walk.
We've only got five litres of petrol left. ~ *That isn't enough.*

2 calculations

Singular verbs are often possible after plural number subjects in spoken calculations.

Two and two is/are four.
Ten times five is fifty. (OR *Ten fives are fifty.*)

For more about spoken calculations, see 389.22–23.

3 *more than one*

More than one is generally used with a singular noun and verb.

More than one person is going to have to find a new job.

4 *one of ...*

Expressions beginning *one of* normally have a plural noun and a singular verb.

One of my friends is getting married. (NOT ~~*One of my friends are*~~ ...)

For singular and plural verbs in relative clauses after *one of ...*, see 529.1.

5 *and*

Some expressions joined by *and* have singular determiners, verbs and pronouns. This happens when the two nouns are used together so often that we think of them as a single idea.

*This **gin and tonic isn't** very strong, is it?*
*Your **toast and marmalade** is on the table.*

6 countries and organisations

Plural names of countries usually have singular verbs and pronouns.

*The **United States** is anxious to improve **its** image in Latin America.*

Plural names of organisations may also have singular verbs and pronouns.

*Consolidated Fruitgrowers **has** just taken over Universal Foodstores.*

528 singular and plural (6): singular they

1 *Somebody left their umbrella*

They/them/their is often used to refer to a singular indefinite person. This is common after *a person, anybody/one, somebody/one, nobody/one, whoever, each, every, either, neither* and *no. They* has a plural verb in this case.

*If a person doesn't want to go on living, **they** are often very difficult to help.*
*If anybody calls, take **their** name and ask **them** to call again later.*
*Somebody left **their** umbrella in the office. Would **they** please collect it?*
*Nobody was late, were **they**? Whoever comes, tell **them** I'm not in.*
*Tell each person to help **themselves** to what they want.*
*Every individual thinks **they're** different from everybody else.*

This singular use of *they/them/their* is convenient when the person referred to could be either male or female (as in the examples above). *He or she, him or her* and *his or her* are clumsy, especially when repeated, and many people dislike the traditional use of *he/him/his* in this situation (see 222).

However, *they/them/their* can also be used when the person's sex is known. Two examples from interviews:

*I swear more when I'm talking to a boy, because I'm not afraid of shocking **them**.*
*No girl should have to wear school uniform, because it makes **them** look like a sack of potatoes.*

They/them/their is sometimes used for a definite person who is not identified.

*I had a friend in Paris, and **they** had to go to hospital for a month.*

2 correctness

This use of *they/them/their* has existed for centuries, and is perfectly correct. It is most common in an informal style, but can also be found in formal written English. Here is an example from a British passport application form:

*Dual nationality: if the child possesses the nationality or citizenship of another country **they** may lose this when **they** get a British Passport.*

529 singular and plural (7): mixed structures

In some complex structures, the same verb seems to belong with two different expressions, one singular and the other plural. ▸

1 *one of the few women who have climbed Everest*

After expressions like *one of the . . .*, singular and plural verbs are both used in relative clauses beginning *who, which* or *that.*

*She's **one of the few women who have/has** climbed Everest.*

*This is **one of those books that are/is** read by everybody.*

Strictly speaking, a plural verb is correct (to agree with *the few women who* or *those books that*). However, singular verbs are also very common in these structures. More examples:

One of the things that really make/makes me angry is people who don't answer letters.

We've got one of those Japanese cars that never break/breaks down.

2 *A serious problem is wasps*

In English a verb normally agrees with the subject of a sentence, not with a following complement.

S V C

*The biggest timewaster **is** meetings.*

(NOT ~~*The biggest timewaster are meetings.*~~)

S V C

*A serious problem in our garden **is** wasps.*

(NOT ~~*A serious problem . . . are wasps.*~~)

However, if the subject is a long way from the verb, people sometimes make the verb agree with a complement.

S

The most interesting thing on radio and television last

V C

*weekend, without any doubt, **was/were** the tennis championships.*

This often happens, too, when the subject is a relative *what*-clause, especially when the complement is long.

S V C

*What I am most interested in **is/are** your immediate personal reactions.*

S V C

*What we need **is/are** a few bright young engineers.*

For singular and plural verbs after interrogative *what* and *who*, see 532.3.

3 singular subject, plural continuation, plural verb

When a singular subject is modified by a following plural expression, people sometimes use a plural verb. This is not usually considered correct.

~~*Nobody except his best friends like him.*~~

(More correct: *Nobody ... likes him.*)

~~*A good knowledge of three languages are necessary for this job.*~~

(More correct: *A good knowledge ... is ...*)

For singular or plural after *kind(s)*, *sort(s)*, *type(s)* etc, see 551.

530 singular and plural (8): distributive plural

1 people doing the same thing

To talk about several people each doing the same thing, English usually prefers a plural noun for the repeated idea.

*Tell the kids to bring **raincoats** to school tomorrow.*

(More natural than *Tell the kids to bring a raincoat ...*)

Plural forms are almost always used in this case if there are possessives.

*Tell the children to blow **their noses**.* (NOT ... ~~*to blow their nose.*~~)

*Six people lost **their lives** in the accident.*

Uncountable nouns cannot of course be used in the plural.

*They were all anxious to increase their **knowledge**.* (NOT ... ~~*their knowledges.*~~)

2 repeated events

In descriptions of repeated single events, singular and plural nouns are both possible. When no details are given, plural nouns are more natural.

*I often get **headaches**.* (NOT ~~*I often get a headache.*~~)

*She sometimes goes for **rides** over the hills.*

When details of the time or situation are given, nouns are often singular.

*I often get **a headache** when I've been working on the computer.*

*She often goes for **a ride** over the hills before supper.*

Singular nouns may also be used to avoid misunderstanding.

*I sometimes throw **a stone** into the river and wish for good luck.*

(NOT ~~*I sometimes throw stones*~~ ... – only one stone is thrown each time.)

To refer to the time of repeated events, both singular and plural expressions are often possible with little difference of meaning.

*We usually go and see my mother on **Saturday(s)**.*

*He's not at his best in the **morning(s)**.*

3 generalisations and rules

In generalisations and rules, singular and plural nouns are both possible.

*We use **a past participle** in a perfect verb form.* (OR *We use **past participles** in perfect verb forms.*)

*All documents must be accompanied by **a translation** of the original.*

(OR *All documents must be accompanied by **translations** of the originals.*)

Mixtures of singular and plural are possible.

Subjects agree with their verb. ▸

Children may resemble both their father and their mother in different ways.
This often happens with fixed singular expressions like *at the beginning.*
Discourse markers usually come at the beginning of sentences.

531 singular and plural (9): noun + noun

1 first noun singular: *shoe shop*

In **noun + noun** structures (see 385–386), the first noun is normally singular in form even if it has a plural meaning.

a shoe shop (= a shop that sells shoes)
a toothbrush (= a brush for teeth) *trouser pockets* (= pockets in trousers)
a ticket office (= an office that sells tickets)

2 exceptions

Some nouns are plural in this structure. These include nouns which have no singular form (like *clothes*), nouns which are not used in the singular with the same meaning (like *customs*), and some nouns which are more often used in the plural than in the singular (like *savings*). In some cases, e.g. *antique(s), drug(s),* usage is divided, and both singular and plural forms are found. In general, plurals are becoming more common in this structure. Examples:

a clothes shop
a glasses case
a customs officer
arms control
a savings account
the accounts department
the sales department
the outpatients department (of a hospital)
a drinks cabinet
a goods train (British English)
a sports car
a greeting(s) card
an antique(s) dealer/shop
the drug(s) problem
the arrival(s) hall (at an airport)

Note also that singular nouns ending in *-ics* can be used before other nouns.
athletics training
an economics degree

We use the plurals *men* and *women* to modify plural nouns when they have a 'subject' meaning; *man* and *woman* are used to express an 'object' meaning. Compare:

- *men drivers* (= men who drive)
  women pilots (= women who fly planes)
- *man-eaters* (= lions or tigers that eat people)
  woman-haters (= people who hate women)

532 singular and plural (10): other points

1 uncountable nouns: *hair, baggage* etc

Certain English singular uncountable nouns correspond to plural nouns in some other languages.

Your hair is very pretty. (NOT ~~*Your hairs are*~~ . . .)
My baggage has been lost. (NOT ~~*My baggages have*~~ . . .)

For a list of words of this kind, see 148.3.
For plural uncountables, see 149.5.

2 co-ordinated subjects: *A and B, A or B, A as well as B*, etc

When two singular subjects are joined by *and*, the verb is normally plural.

Alice and Bob are going to be late.

But note that some phrases with *and* are treated like single ideas, and used with singular verbs (see 527.5).

Your toast and marmalade is on the table.

When two subjects are joined by *as well as, together with* or a similar expression, the verb is usually singular if the first subject is singular.

The Prime Minister, as well as several Cabinet Ministers, believes in a tough financial policy.

The Managing Director, together with his heads of department, is preparing a new budget.

When two subjects are joined by *or* the verb is usually singular if the second subject is singular, and plural if it is plural. Compare:

There's no room – either two chairs or a table has got to be moved.

There's no room – either a table or two chairs have got to be moved.

When two singular subjects are joined by *neither . . . nor*, the verb is normally singular in a formal style, but can be plural in an informal style.

Neither she nor her husband has arrived. (formal)

Neither she nor her husband have arrived. (informal)

3 *who* and *what*

When *who* and *what* are used to ask for the subject of a clause, they most often have singular verbs, even if the question expects a plural answer.

Who is working tomorrow? ~ *Phil, Lucy and Shareena (are working tomorrow).* (More natural than *Who are working tomorrow?*)

Who was at the party? (More natural than *Who were at the party?*)

What lives in those little holes? ~ *Rabbits (do).* (NOT ~~*What live*~~. . .)

When *who* and *what* are used to ask for the complement of a clause, they can have plural verbs.

Who are your closest friends? ~ *(My closest friends are) Naomi and Bridget.*

What are your politics? ~ *(My politics are) extreme left-wing.*

Relative *what*-clauses are normally the subject of a singular verb.

What she needs is friends. (More natural than *What she needs are friends.*)

However, plural verbs are often used before longer plural complements, especially if *what* is a long way from the verb (see 529).

What we need most of all are some really new ideas.

4 *here's, there's* and *where's*

In an informal style, *here's, there's* and *where's* are common with plural nouns.

Here's your keys. *There's some children at the door.*

Where's those books I lent you?

5 *none, neither* and *either*

When *none, neither* and *either* are followed by *of* + **plural noun/pronoun**, they are normally used with singular verbs. Plural verbs are possible in an informal style. ▸

None of the cures really works.
None of the cures really work. (informal)
*Neither of my brothers **has/have** been outside England.*
*Has/Have **either** of them been seen recently?*

6 *another, a/an* + adjective

Plural expressions of quantity can be used with *another* (see 54) and with *a/an* + adjective.

*I want to stay for **another three weeks**.*
*We'll need **an extra ten pounds**.*
*He's been waiting for **a good two hours**.*
*She spent **a happy ten minutes** looking through the photos.*
*I've had **a very busy three days**.*

Note also the expression ***a good many/few*** + plural (informal).

*I've lain awake **a good many nights** worrying about you.*
*I bet that house could tell **a good few stories**.*

7 *kind, sort* and *type*

In an informal style, we sometimes mix singular and plural forms when we use demonstratives with *kind*, *sort* or *type*. For details, see 551.

*I don't like **those kind of boots**.*

8 *every* (frequency)

Every (which is normally used with singular nouns) can be used before plural expressions in measurements of frequency.

*I go to Ireland **every six weeks**.*

9 fractions

Fractions between 1 and 2 are normally used with plural nouns (see 389.2).

*It weighs **one and a half tons**.* (NOT ... ~~*one and a half ton*~~.)
*The house has about **1.75 hectares** of land.*

533 slang

1 What is slang?

'Slang' is a very informal kind of vocabulary, used mostly in speech by people who know each other well. Examples:

*Can you lend me some **cash**?* (*money*)
*He's a real **prat**.* (*fool*)
*Let's **chill out**.* (*relax*)
*My shoelace has **bust**.* (*broken*)
*Those boots are real **cool**.* (*fashionable*)
*How are the **kids**?* (*children*)

Slang expressions are not usually written, and not used in formal kinds of communication.

2 strong feelings

Many English slang expressions relate to things that people feel strongly about (e.g. sex, family and emotional relationships, drink, drugs, conflict between social groups, work, physical and mental illness, death).

*She's got really nice **tits**.* (*breasts*)
*I spent the weekend at my **gran's**.* (*grandmother's*)
*God, we got **smashed** last night.* (*drunk*)
***Prods** out!* (*Protestants*)
*Can you get that **sitrep** to the MD by five?* (*situation report; Managing Director*)
*I've got some sort of **bug**.* (*illness*)
*He's **lost his marbles**.* (*gone mad*)
*When I **kick the bucket**, I want you all to have a big party.* (*die*)

Slang can be used in order to be offensive.
*Shut your **gob**!* (*mouth*)

For more about 'taboo' words for subjects that some people find shocking, see 575.

3 group membership; using slang

Many slang expressions (e.g. *cash, kids*) are widely used. However, some slang expressions are only used by members of particular social and professional groups, and nearly all slang is used between people who know each other well or share the same social background. So it is usually a mistake for 'outsiders' (including foreigners) to try deliberately to use slang. This can give the impression that they are claiming membership of a group that they do not belong to. There is also the danger that the slang may be out of date – some kinds of slang go out of fashion quickly, and when it gets into books it may already be dead. It is best for learners to avoid slang unless they are really sure of its use. If they start becoming accepted as part of an English-speaking community, they will learn to use the community's slang naturally and correctly along with the rest of their language.

534 small and little

Small simply refers to size. It is the opposite of *big* or *large* (see 106).
*Could I have a **small** brandy, please?*
*You're too **small** to be a policeman.*

The adjective *little* usually expresses some kind of emotion.
*Poor **little** thing – come here and let me look after you.*
*What's he like? ~ Oh, he's a **funny little** man.*
*What's that **nasty little** boy doing in our garden?*
*They've bought a **pretty little** house in the country.*

In a few fixed expressions, *little* is used in the same way as *small* or *short*.

little finger	*a little while*
the little hand of a clock	*a little way*

In British English *little* is unusual in 'predicative' position (after a verb), and comparative and superlative forms are not normally used.
*The puppy was so **small** and sweet.*
(More natural than *The puppy was so little* ...)
*He's the **smallest** baby I've ever seen.*
(More natural than ... *the littlest baby* ...)

For *little* used as a determiner meaning 'not much' (e.g. *There's little hope*), see 329.

535 smell

1 British and American forms

In British English, regular and irregular past tenses and participles are both common: *smelled* and *smelt*. American forms are usually regular.

2 link verb

Smell can be used as a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun, to say how something smells. Progressive forms are not used.

Those roses smell beautiful. (NOT ... ~~*smell beautifully.*~~)

The soup smells funny. What's in it? (NOT ... ~~*is smelling funny*~~ ...)

Before a noun, *smell of* and *smell like* are used.

The railway carriage smelt of beer and old socks.

His aftershave smelt like an explosion in a flower shop.

Smell is sometimes used to mean 'smell bad'.

That dog smells.

3 transitive verb: 'perceive'

Smell can be used with an object, to say what we perceive with our noses. Progressive forms are not used. We often use *can smell* (see 125).

As we walked into the house, we smelt something burning.

I can smell supper.

4 transitive verb: 'investigate'

Another transitive use is to say that we are using our noses to find out something. Progressive forms can be used.

What are you doing? ~ I'm smelling the meat to see if it's still OK.

536 so: adverb meaning 'like this/that'

1 after *seem, appear* etc

So can be used in a formal style in a few cases to mean 'like this/that', 'in this/that way'. This happens, for example, after *seem, appear, remain, more* and *less*.

Will the business make a loss this year? ~ It appears so.

The weather is stormy, and will remain so over the weekend.

She was always nervous, and after her accident she became even more so.

I read the front page very carefully, and the rest of the paper less so.

2 not used in other cases

In other cases, *so* is not normally used adverbially to mean 'like this/that', 'in this/that way'.

Look – hold it up in the air like this. (NOT ... ~~*hold it up in the air so.*~~)

When he laughs like that I want to scream. (NOT ~~*When he laughs so*~~ ...)

I don't think we should do it in that way. (NOT ~~*do it so.*~~)

He says he is ill and he looks it. (NOT ... ~~*he looks so.*~~)

For *so* with *say* and *tell*, see 540.
For *so* with *hope, believe* etc, see 539.
For *so am I* etc, see 541.
For *do so*, see 162.

537 so (conjunction) and then

So and *then* can both be used in replies, to mean 'since that is so', 'it follows from what you have said'.

It's more expensive to travel on Friday. ~ *Then/So I'll leave on Thursday.*
I'll be needing the car. ~ *Then/So I suppose I'll have to take a taxi.*

So (but not *then*) can also be used when the same speaker connects two ideas, to mean 'it follows from what I have said'.

It's more expensive to travel on Friday, so I'll leave on Thursday.
(NOT ... ~~*Then I'll leave on Thursday.*~~)

For *so* used like *and*, see 157.14.

538 so (degree adverb): so tired, so fast

1 meaning

So means 'that much' or 'to that extent'. It is used when we are talking about a high degree of some quality – in situations where *very* is also a suitable word.

I'm sorry you're so tired. (= I know you're very tired, and I'm sorry.)
It was so cold that we couldn't go out. (= It was very cold weather, and because of that we couldn't go out.)
I wish she didn't drive so fast.

2 *so* and *very*

Very (see 611) is used when we are giving new information. *So* is mainly used to refer to information which has already been given, which is already known, or which is obvious. Compare:

- *You're very late.* (giving new information)
  I'm sorry I'm so late. (referring to information which is already known)
- *It was very warm in Scotland.* (giving new information)
  I didn't think it would be so warm. (referring to information which is already known)

3 emphatic use

In an informal style, *so* can also be used like *very* to give new information, when the speaker wishes to emphasise what is said. This structure is rather like an exclamation (see 195).

He's so bad-tempered! (= How bad-tempered he is!)
You're so right!

4 *so ... that*

We use *so*, not *very*, before *that*-clauses.

It was so cold that we stopped playing. (NOT ~~*It was very cold that we stopped playing.*~~)
He spoke so fast that nobody could understand. (NOT ~~*He spoke very fast that*~~ ...)

5 before adjectives and adverbs

We can use *so* before an adjective alone (without a noun) or an adverb.

*The milk was so **good** that we couldn't stop drinking it.*
*Why are you driving so **fast**?*

So is not used with **adjective + noun**.

*I didn't expect **such terrible weather**.* (NOT ... ~~so terrible weather~~.)
*I enjoyed my stay in your country, which is **so beautiful**.* (NOT ~~I enjoyed my stay in your so beautiful country~~.)

For *such*, see 569.

6 *so much*, etc

We can use *so much* and *so many* (see 542), *so few* and *so little* with or without nouns.

*I've bought **so many** new books I don't know when I'll read them.*
*There were **so few** interesting people there that we decided to go home.*
*I've read **so much** and learnt **so little**.*

7 *so* and *so much*

We use *so*, not *so much*, before adjectives without nouns (see paragraph 5 above). Compare:

– *She had **so much heavy luggage** that she couldn't carry it.*
*Her luggage was **so heavy** that she couldn't carry it.* (NOT ~~Her luggage was so much heavy~~ ...)
– *I've never seen **so much beautiful jewellery**.*
*The jewellery is **so beautiful**!* (NOT ... ~~so much beautiful!~~)

But we use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives.

*I'm glad you're feeling **so much better**.* (NOT ... ~~so better~~.)

8 *so ... as to ...*

There is a structure with *so* followed by **adjective + *as to* + infinitive**. This is formal and not very common.

*Would you be **so kind as to tell me the time**?* (= ... kind enough to ...)
(NOT ~~Would you be so kind and~~ ... OR ~~Would you be so kind to~~ ...)

9 *so ... a ...*

There is another rather formal structure with ***so* + adjective + *a/an* + noun** (see 14).

*I had never before met **so gentle a person**.* (= ... such a gentle person.)

539 so and not with hope, believe etc

1 instead of *that*-clauses.

We often use *so* after *believe, hope, expect, imagine, suppose, guess, reckon, think, be afraid*, instead of repeating words in a *that*-clause.

*Is Alex here? ~ I **think** so.* (NOT ... ~~I think that Alex is here~~.)
*Do you think we'll be in time? ~ I **hope** so.* (NOT ~~I hope~~.)
*Did you lose? ~ I'm **afraid** so.*

We do not use *so* before a *that*-clause.

I hope that we'll have good weather. (NOT ~~*I hope so, that we'll have good weather.*~~)

Note the special use of *I thought so* to mean 'my suspicions were correct'.

Empty your pockets. Ah, I thought so! You've been stealing biscuits again.

So is not used after *know* (see 313).

You're late. ~I know. OR *I know that.* (NOT ~~*I know so.*~~)

2 negative structures

We can make these expressions negative in two ways.

affirmative verb + *not*

Did you win? ~ I'm afraid not.

We won't be in time for the train. ~ No, I suppose not.

negative verb + *so*

You won't be here tomorrow? ~ I don't suppose so.

Will it rain? ~ I don't expect so.

Hope and *be afraid* are always used in the first structure.

I hope not. (NOT ~~*I don't hope so.*~~)

Think is more common in the second structure.

I don't think so. (More common than *I think not.*)

3 so at the beginning of a clause

We can use *so* at the beginning of a clause with *say, hear, understand, tell, believe* and a number of other verbs. This structure is used to say how the speaker learnt something.

It's going to be a cold winter, or so the newspaper says.

Mary's getting married. ~ Yes, so I heard.

The Professor's ill. ~ So I understand.

For *so* after *tell* and *say*, see 540.

540 so with say and tell

1 instead of *that*-clauses

So can be used after *say* and *tell* instead of repeating information in a *that*-clause.

She's going to be the next president. Everybody says so. (= . . . Everybody says that she's going to be the next president.)

You've got to clean the car. ~ Who says so?

Taxes are going up. Bob told me so.

Note that *so* is used in this way mostly when we are talking about the authority for statements, about reasons why we should believe them. When we simply want to identify the speaker, we prefer *that*. Compare:

Jane's crazy. ~ Who says so? ~ Dr Bannister.

Jane's crazy. ~ Who said that? ~ I did.

For *so* at the beginning of a clause (e.g. *so the newspaper says*), see 539.3. ▶

2 *I told you so*

I told you so usually means 'I warned you, but you wouldn't listen to me'.

Mummy, I've broken my train. ~ *I told you so. You shouldn't have tried to ride on it.*

3 other verbs

So cannot be used after all verbs of saying. We cannot say, for example, ~~*She promised me so.*~~

541 so have I, so am I etc

1 *so* + auxiliary + subject

We can use *so* to mean 'also', before **auxiliary verb + subject**. The structure is used to answer or add to what came before. Note the word order.

Louise can dance beautifully, and so can her sister.

I've lost their address. ~ *So have I.*

The same structure is possible with non-auxiliary *be* and *have*.

I was tired, and so were the others.

I have a headache. ~ *So have I.*

After a clause with no auxiliary verb, we use *do/does/did*.

He just wants the best for his country. ~ *So did Hitler.*

We do not normally use a more complete verb phrase in this structure. We can say, for example, *So can her sister*, but not ~~*So can her sister dance*~~.

2 *so* + subject + auxiliary

So can also be followed by **subject + auxiliary verb** (note the word order) to express surprised agreement.

It's raining. ~ *Why, so it is!*

You've just put the teapot in the fridge. ~ *So I have!*

For *neither/nor am I* etc, see 374.

542 so much and so many

1 the difference

The difference between *so much* and *so many* is the same as between *much* and *many* (see 357). *So much* is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *so many* is used with plurals.

I had never seen so much food in my life.

She had so many children that she didn't know what to do. (NOT . . . ~~*so much children*~~ . . .

We use *so*, not *so much*, to modify adjectives and adverbs (see 538.5,6).

You're so beautiful. (NOT ~~*You're so much beautiful.*~~)

But *so much* is used before comparatives (see 140).

She's so much more beautiful now.

2 *so much/many* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *so much/many*, if the meaning is clear.

*I can't eat all that meat – there's so **much**!*
*I was expecting a few phone calls, but not so **many**.*

3 *so much* as an adverb

So much can be used as an adverb.

*I wish you didn't smoke so **much**.*

4 special structures with *so much*

We can use *not so much ... as* or *not so much ... but* to make corrections and clarifications.

*It wasn't so **much** his appearance I liked as his personality.*
*It's **not so much** that I don't want to go, **but** I just haven't got time.*

In negative and *if*-clauses, *so much as* can be used to mean 'even'.

*He didn't so **much as** say thank you, after all we'd done for him.*
*If he so **much as** looks at another woman, I'll kill him.*

543 so that and in order that

1 purpose

These structures are used to talk about purpose. *So that* is more common than *in order that*, especially in an informal style. They are often followed by auxiliary verbs such as *can* or *will*; *may* is more formal.

*She's staying here for six months **so that** she **can** perfect her English.*
*I'm putting it in the oven now **so that** it'll be ready by seven o'clock.*
*We send monthly reports **in order that** they **may** have full information.*

In an informal style, *that* can be dropped after *so* (see 584).

*I've come early **so** I can talk to you.*

2 present tenses for future

Present tenses are sometimes used for the future.

*I'll send the letter express **so that** she gets / she'll get it before Tuesday.*
*I'm going to make an early start **so that** I don't/won't get stuck in the traffic.*
*We must write to him, **in order that** he does/will not feel that we are hiding things.*

3 past structures

In sentences about the past, *would, could* or *should* are generally used with verbs after *so that / in order that*. *Might* is possible in a very formal style.

*Mary talked to the shy girl **so that** she **wouldn't** feel left out.*
*I took my golf clubs **so that** I **could** play at the weekend.*
*They met on a Saturday **in order that** everybody **should** be free to attend.*
*He built a chain of castles **so that** he **might** control the whole country.*

For the infinitive structures *in order to* and *so as to*, see 289.
For *so ... that* expressing result, see 538.4.
For *lest* meaning 'so that ... not', see 321.

544 so-and-so; so-so

1 *so-and-so*

This informal expression is used when one cannot remember a name.
What's happened to old so-and-so? (= ... what's his name?)
It can also replace a swearword or an insult.
She's an old so-and-so.

2 *so-so*

This informal expression means 'neither good nor bad.'
How are you feeling? ~ *So-so.* (NOT ... ~~*So-and-so.*~~)
Was the concert any good? ~ *So-so.*

545 'social' language

Every language has fixed expressions which are used on particular social occasions – for example when people meet, leave each other, go on a journey, sit down to meals and so on. Here are some of the most important English expressions of this kind.

1 introductions

Common ways of introducing strangers to each other are:
John, do you know Helen? Helen, this is my friend John.
Sally, I don't think you've met Elaine.
I don't think you two know each other, do you?
Can/May I introduce John Willis? (more formal)
When people are introduced, they usually say *How do you do?* (formal), *Hello*, or *Hi* (informal). Americans often say *How are you?* Note that *How do you do?* is not a question, and the normal reply is *How do you do?* (It does not mean the same, in British English, as *How are you?*) Another possible response is *Glad/Pleased to meet you.*
People who are introduced often shake hands.

For the use of first names, surnames and titles, see 363.

2 greetings

When meeting people (formal):
(Good) morning/afternoon/evening.
When meeting people (informal):
Hello. *Hi.* (very informal)
When leaving people:
Good morning/afternoon/evening. (very formal, unusual)
Goodnight. *Goodbye.*
Bye. (informal) *Bye-bye.* (often used to and by children)
Cheers. (informal – British only) *Take care.* (informal)
See you. (informal) *See you later / tomorrow / next week* etc. (informal)
It was nice to meet / meeting you.
Note that *Good day* is very unusual, and *Goodnight* is used only when leaving people, not when meeting them.

3 asking about health etc

When we meet people we know, we often ask politely about their health or their general situation.

How are you? *How's it going?* (informal)
How are things? / How's things? (informal) *How (are) you doing?*

Formal answers:

Very well, thank you. And you? *Fine, thank you.*

Informal answers:

Fine/Great, thanks. *All right.* *(It) could be worse.*
OK. *Not too bad.* *Mustn't grumble.*
So-so. (NOT ~~*So and so.*~~)

British people do not usually ask *How are you?* when they are introduced to people. And neither British nor American people begin letters to strangers by asking about health (see 146).

4 special greetings

Greetings for special occasions are:

Happy birthday! (OR *Many happy returns!*)
Happy New Year / Easter!
Happy/Merry Christmas! *Happy anniversary!*
Congratulations on your exam results / new job etc (NOT ~~*Congratulation on*~~ . . .)

5 small talk

British people often begin polite conversations by talking about the weather.

Nice day, isn't it? ~ *Lovely.*

6 getting people's attention

Excuse me! is commonly used to attract somebody's attention, or to call a waiter in a restaurant. We do not normally say *Excuse me, sir/madam* (see 363.2).

7 apologies

British people say *Excuse me* before interrupting or disturbing somebody, and *Sorry* after doing so. Compare:

Excuse me. Could I get past? Oh, sorry, did I step on your foot?
Excuse me, could you tell me the way to the station?

Americans also use *Excuse me* to apologise after disturbing somebody.
I beg your pardon is a more formal way of saying 'Sorry'.

I beg your pardon. I didn't realise this was your seat.

8 asking people to repeat

If people do not hear or understand what is said, they may say *Sorry?* (BrE), *What?* (informal), *(I beg your) pardon?* or *Pardon me?* (AmE).

Mike's on the phone. ~ *Sorry?* ~ *I said Mike's on the phone.*
See you tomorrow. ~ *What?* ~ *See you tomorrow.*
You're going deaf. ~ *I beg your pardon?* ▸

9 journeys etc

Common ways of wishing people a good journey are:

Have a good trip. *Have a good journey.* (BrE)

Safe journey home. (BrE)

After a journey (for example when we meet people at the airport or station), we may say:

Did you have a good journey/trip/flight?

How was the journey/trip/flight?

If somebody is leaving for an evening out or some kind of pleasant event, people might say *Have a good time!* or *Enjoy yourself!* (especially in American English sometimes just *Enjoy!*). *Good luck!* is used before examinations or other difficult or dangerous events.

When people return home, their friends or family may say

Welcome back/home.

10 holidays

Before somebody starts a holiday, we may say:

Have a good holiday. (AmE ... *vacation.*) OR *Have a good time.*

When the holiday is over, we may say:

Did you have a good holiday/vacation?

11 meals

We do not have fixed expressions for the beginnings and ends of meals. It is common for guests or family members to say something complimentary about the food during the meal (for example *This is very nice*), and after (for example *That was lovely/delicious; thank you very much*). Some religious people say 'grace' (a short prayer) before and after meals. Waiters often say *Enjoy your meal* after serving a customer.

For the names of meals, see 347.

12 drinking

When people begin drinking alcoholic drinks socially, they often raise their glasses and say something. Common expressions are *Cheers!* (BrE) and *Your health!* When we drink to celebrate an occasion (such as a birthday, a wedding or a promotion), we often say *Here's to ...!*

Here's to Betty!

Here's to the new job! *Here's to the happy couple!*

13 sending good wishes

Typical expressions are *Give my best wishes/regards/greetings/love to X, Remember me to X, Say hello to X for me.* When the wishes are passed on, common expressions are *X sends his/her best wishes/regards* etc, *X says hello.*

14 sympathy

Common formulae in letters of sympathy (for example on somebody's death) are *I was very/terribly/extremely sorry to hear about ...* and *Please accept my deepest sympathy.*

15 invitations and visits

Invitations often begin:

Would you like to . . .?

Possible replies:

Thank you very much. That would be very nice/lovely. (formal)
Thanks, that would be great. (informal)
Sorry. I'm afraid I'm not free.

It is normal to thank people for hospitality at the moment of leaving their houses.

Thank you very much. That was a wonderful evening.

16 offers and replies

Offers often begin *Would you like . . .?* or *Can/May I get/offer you . . .?* (more formal). Offers to do things for people can begin *Would you like me to . . .?*, *Can/May I . . .?* or *Shall I . . .?* (mainly BrE). Typical replies are *Yes please*; *No thank you*; *Thanks, I'd love some*; *I'd love to*; *That's very nice/kind of you.* Note that *thank you* can be used for accepting as well as refusing.

17 asking for things

We normally ask for things by using *yes/no* questions. (see 435).

Could you lend me a pen? (NOT ~~*Please lend me a pen.*~~)

18 handing over things

We do not have an expression which is automatically used when we hand over things. We sometimes say *Here you are*, especially when we want to attract people's attention to the fact that we are passing something to them.

Have you got a map of London? ~ *I think so. Yes, here you are.* ~ *Thanks.*

There you go is also possible in this situation, especially in AmE.

19 thanks

Common ways of thanking people are:

Thank you.	*Thanks very much / a lot.* (NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)
Thank you very much.	*Cheers.* (informal BrE)
Thanks. (informal)	

Possible replies to thanks are:

Not at all.	*You're welcome.*
Don't mention it.	*That's (quite) all right.*
That's OK. (informal)	*No problem.* (informal)

But note that British people do not always reply to thanks, especially thanks for small things.

For more information about thanking and the use of *please*, see 433.

20 sleep

When somebody goes to bed, people often say *Sleep well.* In the morning, we may ask *Did you sleep well?* or *How did you sleep?*

For expressions used when telephoning, see 578.

546 some

1 meaning: indefinite quantity/number

Some is a determiner (see 154). It often suggests an indefinite quantity or number, and is used when it is not important to say exactly how much/many we are thinking of.

*I need **some** new clothes.* *Would you like **some** tea?*

2 pronunciation

When *some* has this indefinite meaning, it usually has a 'weak' pronunciation /s(ə)m/ before (adjective +) noun.

some /s(ə)m/ *new clothes* *some* /s(ə)m/ *tea*

For more about 'strong' and 'weak' pronunciations, see 616.

3 *some* and *any*

With this meaning, *some* is most common in affirmative clauses, and in questions which expect or encourage the answer 'Yes'. In other cases, *any* is generally used. For details, see 547. Compare:

- *There are **some** children at the front door.*
  *Do you mind if I put **some** music on?*
- *Did you meet **any** interesting people on holiday?*
  *She hasn't got **any** manners.*

4 *some* and *a/an*

Some (in this sense) is used in similar ways to the indefinite article *a/an* (see 65). However, it is not normally used with the same kind of nouns. Compare:

*I need **a** new **coat**.* (singular countable noun) (NOT ... ~~*some new coat*~~.)
*I need **some** new **shirts**.* (plural countable noun)
*I need **some** **help**.* (uncountable noun)

5 when *some* is not used

With an uncountable or plural noun, *some* usually suggests the idea of an indefinite (but not very large) quantity or number. When there is no idea of a limited quantity or number, we do not usually use *some*. For details, see 67. Compare:

- *We've planted **some** roses in the garden.* (a limited number)
  I like roses. (no idea of number)
- *Bring **some** food in case we get hungry.*
  The President has appealed for food for the earthquake victims.

6 *some* and *some of*; *some* with no following noun

Before another determiner (article, demonstrative or possessive word) or a pronoun, we use *some of*. Compare:

- *I've got tickets for **some** concerts next month.* (NOT ... ~~*some of concerts*~~...)
  *Pete's coming to **some of** the concerts.* (NOT ... ~~*some the concerts*~~...)
- *Some people want to get to sleep.* (NOT ... ~~*some of people*~~...)
  Some of us want to get to sleep. (NOT ~~*Some us*~~...)

Nouns can be dropped after *some*, if the meaning is clear.

*I've got too many strawberries. Would you like **some**?*

Before *of*, or with no following noun, *some* is pronounced /sʌm/.
some /sʌm/*of us* *Would you like some* /sʌm/*?*

7 contrast with *others* etc

Some (pronounced /sʌm/) can have a more emphatic meaning, contrasting with *others*, *all* or *enough*.
Some people like the sea; others prefer the mountains.
Some of us were late, but we were all there by ten o'clock.
I've got some money, but not enough.

8 an unknown person or thing

Some (/sʌm/) can refer to an unknown person or thing (usually with a singular countable noun).
Some idiot has taken the bath plug.
There must be some job I could do.
She's living in some village in Yorkshire.
We can use this structure to suggest that we are not interested in somebody or something, or that we do not think much of him/her/it.
Mary's gone to America to marry some sheep farmer or other.
I don't want to spend my life doing some boring little office job.

9 *some party!*

In informal speech, *some* can show enthusiastic appreciation.
It was some party!

10 with numbers

Some (/sʌm/) with a number suggests that the number is high or impressive.
We have exported some four thousand tons of bootlaces this year.

For *somebody* and *anybody*, *something* and *anything* etc, see 548.
For *some time*, *sometime* and *sometimes*, see 549.

547 some and any

1 indefinite quantities

Both *some* (see 546) and *any* (see 55) can refer to an indefinite quantity or number. They are used when it is not easy, or not important, to say exactly how much/many we are thinking of.
I need to buy some new clothes. *Is there any milk left?*

2 the difference

Some is most common in affirmative clauses. *Any* (used in this sense) is a 'non-affirmative' word (see 381), and is common in questions and negatives. Compare:
I want some razor blades. (NOT ~~*I want any razor blades.*~~)
Have you got any razor blades?
Sorry, I haven't got any razor blades. (NOT ~~*Sorry, I haven't got some*~~ . . .)

For other uses of *any*, see 55. ▶

3 *some* in questions

We use *some* in questions if we expect people to answer 'Yes', or want to encourage them to say 'Yes' – for example in offers and requests.

Have you brought some paper and a pen?
(The hearer is expected to bring them.)
Shouldn't there be some instructions with it?
Would you like some more meat?
Could I have some brown rice, please?
Have you got some glasses that I could borrow?

4 *any* in affirmative clauses

We use *any* in affirmative clauses after words that have a negative or limiting meaning: for example *never, hardly, without, little.*

You never give me any help. *I forgot to get any bread.*
There's hardly any tea left. *We got there without any trouble.*
There is little point in doing any more work now.

For the 'free choice' use of *any* (e.g. *Any child could do this*), see 55.

5 *if*-clauses

Both *some* and *any* are common in *if*-clauses.

If you want some/any help, let me know.

Sometimes *any* is used to suggest 'if there is/are any'.

Any cars parked in this road will be towed away.
(= If there are any cars parked in this road, they will . . .)

548 somebody, someone, anybody, anyone etc

1 *-body* and *-one*

There is no significant difference between *somebody* and *someone, anybody* and *anyone, everybody* and *everyone* or *nobody* and *no one*. The *-one* forms are more common in writing; the *-body* forms are more frequent in speech in British English.

2 *some-* and *any-*

The differences between *somebody* and *anybody, something* and *anything, somewhere* and *anywhere* etc are the same as the differences between *some* and *any* (see 547 for details). Compare:

- *There's somebody at the door.*
  Did anybody telephone?
- *Can I get you something to drink?*
  If you need something/anything, just shout.
- *Let's go somewhere nice for dinner.*
  I don't want to go anywhere too expensive.

3 singular

When these words are subjects they are used with singular verbs.

Everybody likes her. (NOT ~~*Everybody like her.*~~)
Is everything ready? (NOT ~~*Are everything ready?*~~)

Somebody normally refers to only one person. Compare:
*There's **somebody** outside who wants to talk to you.*
*There are **some people** outside who want to talk to you.*

4 use of *they*

They, them and *their* are often used with a singular meaning to refer back to *somebody* etc (see 528).
*If **anybody** wants a ticket for the concert, **they** can get it from my office.*
*There's **somebody** at the door. ~ Tell **them** I'm busy.*
*Someone left **their** umbrella on the bus.* *Nobody phoned, did **they**?*

5 complementation: *somebody nice*, etc

Somebody etc can be followed by adjectives or adverbial expressions.
*I hope he marries **somebody nice**.*
*She's going to meet **someone in the Ministry**.*
*I feel like eating **something hot**.*
*Let's go **somewhere quiet** this weekend.*
They can also be followed by *else* (see 183).
*Mary – are you in love with **somebody else**?*
*I don't like this place – let's go **somewhere else**.*
Note also the informal use of *much* after *any-* and *no-*.
*We didn't do **anything much** yesterday.*
*There's **nothing much** on TV tonight.*

6 *someplace*

Someplace is common in informal American English.
*Let's go **someplace quiet**.*

7 *anyone* and *any one*; *everyone* and *every one*

Anyone means the same as *anybody*; *any one* means 'any single one (person or thing)'. Compare:
*Does **anyone** know where Celia lives?*
*You can borrow **any one** book at a time.*
There is a similar difference between *everyone* and *every one*. Compare:
Everyone had a good time at the party.
*There aren't any cakes left – they've eaten **every one**.*

For the difference between *no one* and *none*, see 380.
For question tags after *everything* and *nothing*, see 488.
For *some time, sometime* and *sometimes*, see 549.

549 some time, sometime and sometimes

Some time (with two stresses: /ˈsʌm ˈtaɪm/) means 'quite a long time'.
*I'm afraid it'll take **some time** to repair your car.*
*She's lived in Italy for **some time**, so she speaks Italian quite well.*
Sometime (/ˈsʌmtaɪm/) refers to an indefinite time, usually in the future; it often means 'one day'. It can also be written as two words: *some time*.
*Let's have dinner together **sometime** next week.*
*When will I get married – this year, next year, **sometime**, never?* ▸

Sometimes (/'sʌmtaɪmz/) is an adverb of frequency (see 24). It means 'on some occasions', 'more than once' (past, present or future).

*I **sometimes** went skiing when I lived in Germany.*
Sometimes, in the long winter evenings, I just sit and think about life.

For *sometimes* and *once*, see 393

550 soon, early and quickly

1 *soon*

Soon means 'a short time after now' or 'a short time after then'.

*Get well **soon**.* (NOT ~~*Get well early*~~.)
*The work was hard at the beginning, but she **soon** got used to it.*

For *no sooner . . . than*, see 233.

2 *early*

The adverb *early* means 'near the beginning of the time-period that we are thinking about'. It does not usually mean 'a short time after now/then'.

Early that week, Luke was called to the police station.
*We usually take our holidays **early** in the year.* (NOT . . . ~~*soon in the year*~~.)
*I usually get up **early** and go to bed **early**.* (NOT ~~*I usually get up soon*~~ . . .)

Sometimes *early* means 'before the expected time'.

*The plane arrived twenty minutes **early**.*

Early can also be used as an adjective.

*I caught an **early** train.* *You're very **early**.*

In a formal style, the adjective *early* can sometimes have the same kind of meaning as *soon*.

*I should be grateful for an **early** reply.*
*Best wishes for an **early** recovery.*

A watch or clock is *fast* or *slow*, not *early* or *late*.

*My watch is five minutes **fast**.*

3 *quickly*

Quickly refers to the speed with which something is done. Compare:

- *Come and see us **quickly**.* (= Hurry – make the arrangements fast.)
  *Come and see us **soon**.* (= Come and see us before long.)
- *He did the repair **quickly** but not very well.*
  *I hope you can do the repair **soon** – I need the car.*

551 sort of, kind of and type of

1 articles

The article *a/an* is usually dropped after *sort of, kind of* and *type of*, but structures with articles are possible in an informal style.

*That's a funny **sort of** (a) car.* *What **sort of** (a) bird is that?*

2 singular and plural; *these sort of* etc

When we are talking about one sort of thing, we can use *sort of, kind of* or *type of* followed by a singular noun.

This sort of car is enormously expensive to run.
I'm interested in any new type of development in computer science.

Singular *sort of kind of* and *type of* can also be followed by plural nouns, especially in an informal style.

I'm interested in any new kind of developments ...

Plural demonstratives (*these* and *those*) can also be used.

These sort of cars are enormously expensive to run.
Do you smoke those kind of cigarettes?

This structure is often felt to be incorrect, and is usually avoided in a formal style. This can be done by using a singular noun (see above), by using plural *sorts/kinds/types*, or by using the structure ... *of this/that sort/kind/type.*

This sort of car is ...
These kinds of car(s) are ... *Cars of that type are ...*

3 softeners

In an informal style, *sort of* and *kind of* can be used before almost any word or expression, or at the end of a sentence, to show that we are not speaking very exactly, or to make what we say less definite.

We sort of thought you might forget.
Sometimes I sort of wonder whether I shouldn't sort of get a job.
I've had sort of an idea about what we could do.
She's kind of strange. *I've changed my mind, kind of.*

552 sound

Sound is a link verb (see 328). It is followed by adjectives, not adverbs.

You sound unhappy. What's the matter?

Progressive forms are not very common.

Your idea sounds great. (NOT ~~*Your idea's sounding great.*~~)

However, progressive forms are possible when there is an idea of change.

The car sounds / is sounding a bit rough these days.

Sound is often followed by *like* or *as if/though.*

That sounds like Bill coming up the stairs.
It sounds as if/though he's had a hard day.

553 speak and talk

1 little difference

There is litle difference between *speak* and *talk*. In certain situations one or the other is preferred, but they are usually both possible.

2 formality

Talk is the more usual word for informal communication.

When she walked into the room everybody stopped talking.
Could I talk to you about the football match for a few minutes? ▸

Speak is often used for communication in more serious or formal situations.
*I'll have to **speak** to that boy – he's getting very lazy.*
*They had a row last week, and now they're not **speaking** to one another.*
*After she had finished reading the letter, nobody **spoke**.*

3 lectures etc

Talk is often used for the act of giving an informal lecture (a *talk*); *speak* is preferred for more formal lectures, sermons etc. Compare:
*This is Patrick Allen, who's going to **talk** to us about gardening.*
*This is Professor Rosalind Bowen, who is going to **speak** to us on recent developments in low-temperature physics.*
*The Pope **spoke** to the crowd for seventy minutes about world peace.*

4 languages

Speak is the usual word to refer to knowledge and use of languages, and to the physical ability to speak.
*She **speaks** three languages fluently.*
*We **spoke** French so that the children wouldn't understand.*
*His throat operation has left him unable to **speak**.*

5 other cases

One usually asks to *speak to* somebody on the phone (AmE also *speak with*).
*Hello. Could I **speak to** Karen, please?*
Talk is used before *sense, nonsense* and other words with similar meanings.
*You're **talking** complete **nonsense**, as usual.* (NOT ~~*You're speaking complete nonsense*~~...)

554 speech (1): stress and rhythm

Stress and rhythm are important elements in English pronunciation. If learners pronounce all the syllables in a sentence too regularly, with the same force and at the same speed, they can be quite hard for English speakers to understand. And if learners are not sensitive to English stress and rhythm, they may not perceive unstressed syllables (especially 'weak forms' – see 616) at all, and this may make it difficult for them to follow natural English speech.

1 stress

Stress is the word for the 'strength' with which syllables are pronounced. In speech, some parts of English words and sentences sound louder than others. For example, the first syllable of *CARpet*, the second syllable of *inSPECtion* or the last syllable of *conFUSE* are usually stressed, while the other syllables in these words are not. In the sentence *Don't look at HIM – HE didn't do it*, the words *him* and *he* are stressed in order to emphasise them. Stressed syllables are not only louder; they may also have longer vowels, and they may be pronounced on a higher musical pitch.

2 word stress

English words with more than one syllable mostly have a fixed stress pattern. There are not many rules to show which syllable of a word will be stressed: one

usually has to learn the stress pattern of a word along with its meaning, spelling and pronunciation. Examples:
Stressed on first syllable:
AFter, CApital, HAPpen, EXercise, EAsy
Stressed on second syllable:
inSTEAD, proNOUNCE, aGREEment, parTIcularly
Stressed on third syllable:
enterTAIN, underSTAND, concenTRAtion
The stressed syllable of a word is the one that can carry an intonation movement (see 555 below).
Many short phrases also have a fixed stress pattern.
front DOOR (not FRONT door)
LIVing room (not living ROOM)
Related words can have different stress patterns.
to inCREASE an INcrease
PHOtograph phoTOgrapher photoGRAphic
A good dictionary will show how words and common phrases are stressed.

3 variable stress

Some words have variable stress. In these, the stress is at or near the end when the word is spoken alone, but it can move to an earlier position when the word is in a sentence, especially if another stressed word follows. Compare:
– *afterNOON* (stress at the end)
It's time for my AFternoon SLEEP. (stress at the beginning)
– *JapanESE*
JApanese COOking
– *nineTEEN*
The year NINEteen TWENty
Many short phrases – for instance, two-word verbs – have variable stress.
– *Their marriage broke UP.*
Money problems BROKE up their marriage.
– *Do sit DOWN.*
She SAT down and cried.
– *It's dark BLUE.*
a DARK blue SUIT

4 stress and pronunciation

Unstressed syllables nearly always have one of two vowels: /ɪ/ (in unstressed prefixes written with *e*, like *de-*, *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*) or /ə/ (in other cases).
Compare the first syllables in the following pairs of words:
– *PREference* (/'prefrəns/)
preFER (/prɪ'fɜ:(r)/)
– *EXpert* (/'ekspɜ:t/)
exPERience (/ɪk'spɪərɪəns/)
– *CONfident* (/'kɒnfɪdənt/)
conFUSED (/kən'fju:zd/)
– *PARticle* (/'pɑ:tɪkl/)
parTIcular (/pə'tɪkjələ(r)/)
Many short words (mostly pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs) have two quite different pronunciations: a normal 'weak' unstressed form, and a 'strong' form used when the word has special stress. (For details, see 616.)
I was (/wəz/) here first. ~ No you weren't. ~ Yes I was (/wɒz/). ▸

5 emphatic and contrastive stress

Stress is often used to emphasise one part of a sentence, perhaps to make a contrast. Compare these three ways of saying the same words:

Their ELDER daughter went to Cambridge. (Not their younger daughter.)
Their elder DAUGHTER went to Cambridge. (Not their elder son.)
Their elder daughter went to CAMBRIDGE. (Not another university.)

For more about emphasis, see 184.

6 stress in sentences; rhythm

Rhythm is the word for the way stressed and unstressed syllables make patterns in speech. In sentences, we usually give more stress to nouns, ordinary verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and less stress to pronouns, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs.

She was SURE that the BACK of the CAR had been DAMaged.

Stressed syllables are pronounced more slowly and clearly, and (in the opinion of some linguists) follow each other at roughly regular intervals. Unstressed syllables are pronounced more quickly and less clearly, and are fitted in between the stressed syllables. Compare the following two sentences. The second does not take much longer to say than the first: although it has three more unstressed syllables, it has the same number of stressed syllables.

She KNEW the DOCtor. *She KNEW that there was a DOCtor.*

555 speech (2): intonation

Intonation is the word for the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls. Intonation systems in languages are very complicated and difficult to analyse, and linguists do not all agree about how English intonation works.

1 intonation in conversation

One use of intonation is to show how a piece of information fits in with what comes before and after. For instance, a speaker may raise his or her voice when taking over the conversation from somebody else, or to indicate a change of subject. A rise or fall on a particular word may show that this is the 'centre' of the message – the place where the new information is being given; or it may signal a contrast or a special emphasis. A rising tone at the end of a sentence may suggest that there is more to be said and perhaps invite another speaker to take over.

2 attitude

Intonation (together with speed, voice quality and loudness) can also say things about the speaker's attitude. For instance, when people are excited or angry they often raise and lower their voices more.

3 three patterns

There are three particularly common intonation patterns in English speech.

a falling intonation

A falling intonation can suggest that we are saying something definite, complete. The voice falls on the last stressed syllable of a group of words.

I'm tired. *Here's your dictionary.* *Sally couldn't find him.*

A falling intonation is also common in *wh*-questions.

What time's the last bus? *Where's the secretary?*

b rising intonation

A rising intonation is common in *yes/no* questions. The voice rises at the end of a group of words, beginning on the last stressed syllable.

Are you tired? *Is that the secretary?* *Did he post it?*

In 'alternative questions' with *or*, the voice rises on the first part of the question and falls on the second part.

Are you staying or going?

c fall-rise

A fall-rise intonation suggests that something is incomplete, or uncertain, or that there is more to be said.

I'm tired. (perhaps suggesting *But maybe I'll go out with you anyway.*)

I don't play tennis. (perhaps suggesting *But I do play other games.*)

She's quite a good teacher. (perhaps suggesting *But I'm not completely happy with her.*)

The first week was good. (perhaps suggesting *But not the second.*)

Is this all you've written? (perhaps suggesting *I was expecting more.*)

A fall-rise makes questions sound more interested or friendly. It is common in polite requests and invitations.

Where's the secretary? *Please come in.* *Is this your car?*

What's your name? *Some more potatoes?* ▸

4 intonation and misunderstandings

If a statement is made on a rising intonation, it may be misunderstood as a question.

That's our train. ~ I don't know. ~ Yes, it is, I'm telling you.

If a declarative question (see 481) is made on a falling intonation, it may be misunderstood as a statement.

That's our train? ~ Is it? ~ No, I'm asking you.

A falling intonation can also turn a polite request into an order.

Can I have some more coffee? ~ At once, Your Majesty.

A fall-rise in the wrong place can be misunderstood as suggesting more than is said.

I'd like to play tennis. ~ So what's the problem? ~ There's no problem.

For intonation in question tags, see 487.

556 spelling (1): capital letters

We use capital (big) letters at the beginning of the following kinds of words:

a the names of days, months and public holidays (but not usually seasons)

Sunday	*March*	*Easter*
Tuesday	*September*	*Christmas*

(BUT normally *summer, autumn*)

b the names of people, institutions and places, including stars and planets

John	*Mary*	*the Smiths*
the Foreign Office	*North Africa*	*Canada*
the United States	*The Ritz Hotel*	*Oxford University*
The Super Cinema	*the Far East*	(compare *He teaches at a university*)
the Pole Star	*Mars*	

(BUT normally *the earth, the sun, the moon*)

Words derived from people's names have capitals if they refer to the people.
Shakespearean drama (BUT *to pasteurise:* this refers to a chemical process, not directly to the scientist Pasteur)

c people's titles

Mr Smith	*Professor Blake*	
Colonel Webb	*the Managing Director*	*Dr Jones*

the Prime Minister is attending the summit
(Compare *How is the French prime minister elected?*)

d nouns and adjectives referring to nationalities and regions, languages, ethnic groups and religions

He's Russian.	*I speak German.*	*Japanese history*
Catalan cooking	*She's Jewish.*	*He's a Sikh.*

e the names of newspapers and magazines
International Herald Tribune *New Scientist*

f the first word (and often other important words) in the titles of books, films and plays
The Spy who Loved Me *Gone with the Wind*
A Midsummer Night's Dream

For the use of capitals with *East*, *North* etc, see 172.

557 spelling (2): -ly

1 adverb formation

We normally change an adjective into an adverb by adding *-ly*.

late → *lately* *real* → *really* (NOT ~~*realy*~~)
right → *rightly* *definite* → *definitely*
hopeful → *hopefully* *pale* → *palely*
complete → *completely* (NOT ~~*completly*~~)

Exceptions:

true → *truly* *whole* → *wholly*
due → *duly* *full* → *fully*

2 *-y* and *-i-*

-y usually changes to *-i-* (see 561).

happy → *happily* *dry* → *drily* or *dryly*
easy → *easily* *gay* → *gaily*

Exceptions:

shy → *shyly* *sly* → *slyly* *coy* → *coyly*

3 adjectives ending in consonant + *le*

-le changes to *-ly* after a consonant.

idle → *idly* *noble* → *nobly* *able* → *ably*

4 adjectives ending in *-ic*

If an adjective ends in *-ic*, the adverb ends in *-ically* (pronounced /ɪkli/),

tragic → *tragically* *phonetic* → *phonetically*

Exception:

public → *publicly*

558 spelling (3): -ise and -ize

Many English verbs can be spelt with either *-ise* or *-ize*. In American English, *-ize* is preferred in these cases. Examples:

realise/realize (BrE)	*realize* (AmE)
mechanise/mechanize (BrE)	*mechanize* (AmE)
computerise/computerize (BrE)	*computerize* (AmE)
baptise/baptize (BrE)	*baptize* (AmE)

Most words of two syllables, and a few longer words, have *-ise* in both British and American English. Examples:

surprise (NOT ~~*surprize*~~)	*despise*	*supervise*
revise	*compromise*	*televise*
advise	*exercise*	*advertise*
comprise	*improvise*	

Capsize has *-ize* in both British and American English.
Note also *analyse* (AmE *analyse/analyze*) and *paralyse* (AmE *paralyze*).
If in doubt, remember that in British English *-ise* is almost always acceptable. For American English, consult an American dictionary.

559 spelling (4): hyphens

1 What are hyphens?

Hyphens are the short lines (-) that we put between words in expressions like *ticket-office* or *ex-husband.*

2 When are hyphens used?

Hyphens are most common in the following cases:

a compound nouns

- compound nouns where the second part ends in *-er*
  lorry-driver *bottle-opener*
- compound nouns where the first part ends in *-ing*
  waiting-room *writing-paper*
- compound nouns made with prepositions and adverb particles
  sister-in-law *make-up* *in-joke*
- many compounds of two nouns, where the first noun has the main stress (but hyphens are becoming less common in these cases)
  'water-bottle OR *'water bottle*
  'apple-tree OR *'apple tree* BUT *apple 'pie*

b compound adjectives

red-hot	*nice-looking*	*the London-Paris flight*
blue-eyed	*grey-green*	*the Scotland-France match*
broken-hearted		

When we use a longer phrase as an adjective before a noun, we often use hyphens. Compare:

– *an out-of-work miner.*	– *a shoot-to-kill policy*
He's out of work.	*They were ordered to shoot to kill.*

c compound verbs beginning with a noun

baby-sit *house-hunt*

d prefixes

The prefixes *anti-*, *co-*, *ex-*, *mid-*, *non-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *pro-* and *self-* are often separated from what follows by hyphens.

anti-war *mid-term* *post-publication*
co-producer *non-involvement* *pro-hunting*
ex-husband *pre-meeting* *self-study*

And other prefixes may be separated by hyphens in order to avoid unusual or misleading combinations of letters.

un-American *re-examine* *counter-revolution*

e numbers 21-99; fractions

twenty-one *thirty-six* *two-thirds*

3 word division

We also use hyphens to separate the parts of long words at the end of written or printed lines. (To see where to divide words, look in a good dictionary.)

... is not completely in accordance with the policy of the present government, which was ...

4 Are hyphens disappearing?

The rules about hyphens are complicated, and usage is not very clear. Perhaps because of this, people seem to be using hyphens less, especially in compound nouns. Many common short compounds are now often written 'solid', with no division between the words (e.g. *weekend, wideawake, takeover*); other less common or longer compounds are now more likely to be written as completely separate words (e.g. *train driver, living room*). The situation at present is rather confused, and it is not unusual to find the same expression spelt in three different ways (e.g. *bookshop, book-shop, book shop*). If one is not sure whether to use a hyphen between words or not, the best thing is to look in a dictionary, or to write the words without a hyphen.

560 spelling (5): final e

1 final -e dropped before vowels

When an ending that begins with a vowel (e.g. *-ing, -able, -ous*) is added to a word that ends in *-e*, we usually drop the *-e*.

hope → hoping *note → notable* *shade → shady*
make → making *fame → famous*

Some words that end in *-e* have two possible forms before *-able* and *-age*. The form without *-e* is more common in most cases. Note:

likeable (usually with *e*)
mov(e)able (both forms common)
mileage (only with *e*)

Final *-e* is not dropped from words ending in *-ee, -oe* or *-ye*.

see → seeing *canoe → canoeist*
agree → agreeable *dye → dyeing* ▸

2 final -*e* not dropped before consonants

Before endings that begin with a consonant, final -*e* is not normally dropped.
excite → *excitement* *complete* → *completeness*
definite → *definitely*
Exceptions: words ending in -*ue*
due → *duly* *true* → *truly* *argue* → *argument*
In words that end with -*ce* or -*ge*, we do not drop -*e* before *a* or *o*.
replace → *replaceable* *courage* → *courageous*
(BUT *charge* → *charging*, *face* → *facing*)
Judg(e)ment and *acknowledg(e)ment* can be spelt with or without the -*e* after *g*.

For words ending in -*ie*, see 561.5. For adverbs ending in -*ly*, see 557.

561 spelling (6): y and i

1 changing *y* to *i*

When we add an ending to a word that ends in -*y*, we usually change -*y* to -*i*-.
hurry → *hurried* *fury* → *furious* *merry* → *merriment*
marry → *marriage* *easy* → *easier* *busy* → *business*
happy → *happily*
Generally, nouns and verbs that end in -*y* have plural or third person singular forms in -*ies*.
story → *stories* *spy* → *spies* *hurry* → *hurries*

2 exceptions

Two spellings are possible for the nouns *flyer*/*flier*.
A machine that dries things is a *dryer*.
Words formed from the adjective *dry*: normally *drier*, *driest*, *dryly*/*drily*, *dryness*.
Words formed from the adjective *sly*: *slyer*, *slyest*, *slyly*, *slyness*.

3 no change before *i*

We do not change -*y* to -*i*- before *i* (for example when we add -*ing*, -*ism*, -*ish*, -*ise*).
try → *trying* *Tory* → *Toryism* *baby* → *babyish*

4 no change after a vowel

We do not change -*y* to -*i*- after a vowel letter.
buy → *buying* *play* → *played*
enjoy → *enjoyment* *grey* → *greyish*
Exceptions:
say → *said* *pay* → *paid* *lay* → *laid*

5 changing *ie* to *y*

We change -*ie* to -*y*- before -*ing*.
die → *dying* *lie* → *lying*
(but *dye* → *dyeing*)

562 spelling (7): doubling final consonants

1 doubling before vowels

We sometimes double the final consonant of a word before adding *-ed, -er, -est, -ing, -able, -y* (or any other ending that begins with a vowel).

stop → stopped *sit → sitting* *big → bigger*

2 Which consonants are doubled?

We double the following letters:

b: *rub → rubbing*
d: *sad → sadder*
g: *big → bigger*
l: *travel → travelling*
m: *slim → slimming*
n: *win → winnable*
p: *stop → stopped*
r: *prefer → preferred*
t: *sit → sitting*

We double final *-s* in *gassing, gassed* (but not usually in other words), final *-z* in *quizzes, fezzes*, and final *-f* in *iffy* (a colloquial word for 'questionable', 'uncertain').

Final *w* (in words like *show, flow*) is part of a vowel sound, and is not doubled.

show → showing; flow → flowed (NOT ~~*showwing, flowwed*~~)

3 only at the end of a word

We only double consonants that come at the end of a word. Compare:

hop → hopping BUT *hope → hoping*
fat → fatter BUT *late → later*
plan → planned BUT *phone → phoned*

4 one consonant after one vowel letter

We only double when the word ends in one consonant after one vowel letter. Compare:

fat → fatter BUT *fast → faster* (NOT ~~*fastter*~~)
bet → betting BUT *beat → beating* (NOT ~~*beatting*~~)

5 only stressed syllables

We only double consonants in stressed syllables. We do not double in longer words that end in unstressed syllables. Compare:

up'set → up'setting BUT *'visit → 'visiting*
be'gin → be'ginning BUT *'open → 'opening*
re'fer → re'ferring BUT *'offer → 'offering*

Note the spelling of these words:

'gallop → 'galloping → 'galloped (NOT ~~*gallopping, gallopped*~~)
de'velop → de'veloping → de'veloped (NOT ~~*developping, developped*~~)

6 exception: final *l* in unstressed syllables

In British English, we double *-l* at the end of a word after one vowel letter, in most cases, even in unstressed syllables.

'travel → 'travelling
'equal → 'equalled

In American English, words like this are most often spelt with one *l*: *traveling*. ▶

7 other exceptions

Consonants are sometimes doubled at the end of final syllables that are pronounced with full vowels (e.g. /æ/), even when these do not carry the main stress.

'kidnap → *'kidnapped*
'handicap → *'handicapped*
'worship → *'worshippers* (AmE also *'worshipers*)
'combat → *'combating* or *'combatting*

Final *-s* is sometimes doubled in *'focus(s)ing* and *'focus(s)ed*

8 final *c*

Final *-c* changes to *ck* before *-ed, -er, -ing* etc.

picnic → *picnickers*
panic → *panicking*
mimic → *mimicked*

9 Why double?

The reason for doubling is to show that a vowel is pronounced short. This is because, in the middle of a word, a stressed vowel letter before one consonant is usually pronounced as a long vowel or as a diphthong (double vowel). Compare:

hoping /ˈhəʊpɪŋ/	*hopping* /ˈhɒpɪŋ/
later /ˈleɪtə(r)/	*latter* /ˈlætə(r)/
diner /ˈdaɪnə(r)/	*dinner* /ˈdɪnə(r)/

563 spelling (8): ch and tch, k and ck

After one vowel, at the end of a word, we usually write *-ck* and *-tch* for the sounds /k/ and /tʃ/.

back neck sick lock stuck
catch fetch stitch botch hutch

Exceptions:

yak tic public (and many other words ending in *-ic*)
rich which such much attach detach

After a consonant or two vowels, we write *-k* and *-ch*.

bank work talk march bench
break book week peach coach

564 spelling (9): ie and ei

The sound /iː/ (as in *believe*) is often written *ie*, but not usually *ei*. However, we write *ei* after *c* for this sound. English-speaking children learn a rhyme: 'i before e, except after c'.

believe chief field grief piece shield
ceiling deceive receive receipt

Exceptions: *seize, Neil, Keith.*

565 spelling (10): spelling and pronunciation

In many English words, the spelling is different from the pronunciation. This is mainly because our pronunciation has changed a good deal over the last few hundred years, while our spelling system has stayed more or less the same. Here is a list of some difficult common words with their pronunciations.

1 usually two syllables, not three

The letters in brackets are usually not pronounced.

asp(i)rin	*ev(e)ry*	*om(e)lette*
bus(i)ness	*ev(e)ning*	*rest(au)rant*
choc(o)late	*marri(a)ge*	*sev(e)ral*
diff(e)rent	*med(i)cine* (AmE three syllables)	

2 usually three syllables, not four

The letters in brackets are usually not pronounced.

comf(or)table	*temp(e)rature*
int(e)resting	*us(u)ally*
secret(a)ry (AmE four syllables)	*veg(e)table*

3 silent letters

The letters in brackets are not pronounced.

- *clim(b)* *com(b)* *dum(b)* *dou(b)t* *de(b)t*
- *mus(c)le*
- *han(d)kerchief* *san(d)wich* *We(d)nesday*
- *champa(g)ne* *forei(g)n* *si(g)n*
- *bou(gh)t* *cau(gh)t* *ou(gh)t* *thou(gh)t* *borou(gh)* *dau(gh)ter* *hei(gh)t* *hi(gh)* *li(gh)t* *mi(gh)t* *nei(gh)bour* *ni(gh)t* *ri(gh)t* *strai(gh)t* *throu(gh)* *ti(gh)t* *wei(gh)*
- *w(h)at* *w(h)en* *w(h)ere* *w(h)ether* *w(h)ich* *w(h)ip* *w(h)y* and similarly in other words beginning *wha, whe* or *whi.* (Some speakers use an unvoiced /w/ in these words.)
- *(h)onest* *(h)onour* *(h)our*
- *(k)nee* *(k)nife* *(k)nob* *(k)nock* *(k)now* and similarly in other words beginning *kn.*
- *ca(l)m* *cou(l)d* *ha(l)f* *sa(l)mon* *shou(l)d* *ta(l)k* *wa(l)k* *wou(l)d* *autum(n)* *hym(n)*
- *(p)neumatic* *(p)sychiatrist* *(p)sychology* *(p)sychotherapy* *(p)terodactyl* and similarly in other words beginning *pn, ps* or *pt.*
- *cu(p)board* /ˈkʌbəd/
- *i(r)on* (British pronunciation /aɪən/)
- *i(s)land* *i(s)le*
- *cas(t)le* *Chris(t)mas* *fas(t)en* *lis(t)en* *of(t)en* *whis(t)le* (*Often* can also be pronounced /ˈɒftən/.)
- *g(u)arantee* *g(u)ard* *g(u)errilla* *g(u)ess* *g(u)est* *g(u)ide* *g(u)ilt* *g(u)itar* *g(u)y*
- *(w)rap* *(w)rite* *(w)rong*
- *(w)ho* *(w)hom* *(w)hore* *(w)hose* *(w)hole*

4 *a* = /e/

any *many* *Thames* /temz/ ▸

5 ***ch*** = /k/

ache *archaeology* *architect* *chaos* *character* *chemist* *Christmas* *mechanical* *Michael* *stomach*

6 ***ea*** = /e/

already *bread* *breakfast* *dead* *death* *dreadful* *dreamt* *head* *health* *heavy* *instead* *lead* (the metal) *leant* *leather* *meant* *measure* *pleasant* *pleasure* *read* (past) *ready* *steady* *sweater* *threat* *tread* *weather*

7 ***ea*** = /eɪ/

break *great* *steak*

8 ***gh*** = /f/

cough /kɒf/ *draught* /drɑːft/ *enough* /ɪˈnʌf/ *laugh* /lɑːf/ *rough* /rʌf/ *tough* /tʌf/

9 ***o*** = /ʌ/

above *brother* *colour* *come* *comfortable* *company* *cover* *done* *front* *glove* *government* *honey* *London* *love* *lovely* *Monday* *money* *month* *mother* *none* *nothing* *one* *onion* *other* *oven* *some* *son* *stomach* *ton(ne)* *tongue* *once* *won* *wonder* *worry*

10 ***o*** = /uː/

lose *prove* *to*

11 ***ou*** = /ʌ/

country *couple* *cousin* *double* *enough* *rough* *tough* *trouble* *young*

12 ***u*** **or** ***ou***= /ʊ/

bull *bullet* *bush* *butcher* *could* *cushion* *full* *pull* *push* *put* *should* *would*

13 words pronounced with /aɪ/

biology *buy* *dial* *height* *idea* *iron* *microphone* *science* *society* *either* (many British speakers) *neither* (many British speakers)

14 other strange spellings

area /ˈeərɪə/	*friend* /frend/
Australia /ɒsˈtreɪlɪə/	*fruit* /fruːt/
bicycle /ˈbaɪsɪkl/	*heard* /hɜːd/
biscuit /ˈbɪskɪt/	*heart* /hɑːt/
blood /blʌd/	*juice* /dʒuːs/
brooch /brəʊtʃ/	*minute* /ˈmɪnɪt/
business /ˈbɪznɪs/	*moustache* /məˈstɑːʃ/ (AmE /ˈmʌstæʃ/)
busy /ˈbɪzi/	*once* /wʌns/
clothes /kləʊðz/	*one* /wʌn/
does /dʌz/	*theatre* /ˈθɪətə(r)/

doesn't /'dʌz(ə)nt/ *two* /tu:/
Edinburgh /'edɪnbrə/ *woman* /'wʊmən/
Europe /'jʊərəp/ *women* /'wɪmɪn/
foreign /'fɒrən/

15 silent *r*

In standard southern British English, *r* is not normally pronounced before a consonant or at the end of a word.

hard /hɑ:d/ *first* /fɜ:st/ *order* /'ɔ:də/
car /kɑ:/ *four* /fɔ:/ *more* /mɔ:/

But *r* is pronounced at the end of a word if a vowel follows immediately.

four islands /'fɔ:r 'aɪləndz/ *more eggs* /'mɔ:r 'egz/

Note the pronunciation of *iron*, and of words ending in *-ered* and *-re*.

iron /aɪən/ (AmE /'aɪrən/) *wondered* /'wʌndəd/
centre /'sentə(r)/ *bothered* /'bɒðəd/
theatre /'θɪətə(r)/

We often add /r/ after words ending in the sound /ə/ even when this is not written with *r*, if another vowel follows immediately.

India and Africa /'ɪndɪər ənd 'æfrɪkə/

In most varieties of American English, and in many regional British accents, *r* is pronounced whenever it is written.

566 still, yet and already: time

1 meanings

Still, yet and *already* can all be used to talk about things which are going on, or expected, around the present. Briefly:

- *still* is used to say that something is continuing and has not stopped
- *yet* is used to talk about something that is expected
- *already* is used to say that something has happened early, or earlier than it might have happened.

2 *still*

Still is used to say that something has, perhaps surprisingly, not finished.

*She's **still** asleep.* *Is it **still** raining?*
*I've been thinking for hours, but I **still** can't decide.*
*You're not **still** seeing that Jackson boy, are you?*

Still usually goes with the verb, in 'mid-position' (see 24).

3 *yet*

Not yet is used to say that something which is expected has not happened (but we think that it will).

*Is Sally here? ~ **Not yet**.*
*The postman hasn't come **yet**.*

In questions, we use *yet* to ask whether something expected has happened.

*Is supper ready **yet**?* *Has the postman come **yet**?*

Yet usually goes at the end of a clause, but it can go immediately after *not* in a formal style. ▸

Don't eat the pears – they aren't ripe yet.
*The pears are **not yet** ripe.* (more formal)

4 *already*

Already is used to say that something has happened earlier than expected, or earlier than it might have happened.

*When's Sally going to come? ~ She's **already** here.*
*You must go to Scotland. ~ I've **already** been.*
*Have you **already** finished? That was quick!*

Already usually goes with the verb, in 'mid-position' (see 24.) It can also go at the end of a clause, for emphasis.

*Are you here **already**? You must have run all the way.*

We do not usually put *already* before time expressions.

*When I was fourteen I **already** knew that I wanted to be a doctor.* (NOT ~~*Already when I was fourteen*~~ . . .)
*In 1970 Britain's car industry was **already** in serious trouble.* (NOT ~~*Already in 1970*~~ . . .)

5 *still not* or *not yet*?

Still not looks back towards the past; *not yet* looks towards the future. Compare:

– *She **still** hasn't got a job.* (Looking back: she hasn't had a job since Christmas, and this situation is continuing.)
  *She hasn't got a job **yet**.* (Looking forward: she hasn't got a job now, but we're hoping that she will get one.)
– *I **still** can't speak French, after all these years of study.*
  *I can't speak French **yet**, but I hope I will be able to soon.*

6 *yet* or *already* in questions

Questions with *already* often suggest that something has happened. Compare:

– *Have you met Professor Hawkins **yet**?* (= I don't know whether you've met him.)
  *Have you **already** met Professor Hawkins?* (= I think you've probably met him.)
– *Is my coat dry **yet**?*
  *Is my coat dry **already**? That was quick!*

7 tenses

Various tenses are possible with all three words. In British English, perfect tenses are common with *already* and *yet*; Americans often prefer past tenses. Compare:

– *Have you called the garage **yet**?* (BrE)
  *Did you call the garage **yet**?* (AmE)
– *She's **already** left.* (BrE)
  *She **already** left.* (AmE)

8 related to a past moment

All three words can be related to a past moment instead of to the present.

*I went to see if she had woken up **yet**, but she was **still** asleep. This was embarrassing, because her friends had **already** arrived.*

9 *yet* meaning 'still'

Yet is normally used in questions and negative sentences. But it is sometimes used in affirmative sentences in a formal style to mean 'still'.

We have yet to hear from the bank. (= We are still waiting to hear . . .)

10 *all ready*

All ready is not the same as *already*: it simply means the same as ***all*** + ***ready***. Compare:

*When's Jane coming? ~ She's **already** arrived.*
*Are you **all ready**? ~ No, Pete isn't.*

567 subjunctive

1 What is the subjunctive?

Some languages have special verb forms called 'subjunctive', which are used especially to talk about 'unreal' situations: things which are possible, desirable or imaginary. Older English had subjunctives, but in modern English they have mostly been replaced by uses of *should, would* and other modal verbs, by special uses of past tenses (see 426), and by ordinary verb forms. English only has a few subjunctive forms left: third-person singular present verbs without *-(e)s*, (e.g. *she see, he have*) and special forms of *be* (e.g. *I be, he were*). Except for *I/he/she/it were* after *if*, they are not very common.

2 *that she see*

Ordinary verbs only have one subjunctive form: a third person singular present with no *-(e)s* (e.g. *she see*). It is sometimes used in *that*-clauses in a formal style, especially in American English, after words which express the idea that something is important or desirable (e.g. *suggest, recommend, ask, insist, vital, essential, important, advice*). The same forms are used in both present and past sentences.

*It is essential that every child **have** the same educational opportunities.*
*It was important that James **contact** Arthur as soon as possible.*
*Our advice is that the company **invest** in new equipment.*
*The judge recommended that Simmons **remain** in prison for life.*

Do is not used in negative subjunctives. Note the word order.

*We felt it desirable that he **not leave** school before eighteen.*

With verbs that are not third-person singular, the forms are the same as ordinary present-tense verbs (but they may refer to the past).

*I recommended that you **move** to another office.*

3 *be*

Be has special subjunctive forms: *I be, you be* etc.

*It is important that Helen **be** present when we sign the papers.*
*The Director asked that he **be** allowed to advertise for more staff.*

I were and *he/she/it were*, used for example after *if* (see 258.4) and *wish* (see 630) in a formal style, are also subjunctives.

*If I **were** you I should stop smoking.*
*I wish it **were** Saturday.*

▸

4 fixed phrases

Subjunctives are also used in certain fixed phrases. Examples:

*God **save** the Queen!* *Long **live** the King!*
*God **bless** you.* *Heaven **forbid**.*
*He's a sort of adopted uncle, as it **were**.* (= ... in a way.)
*Be that as it **may** ...* (= Whether that is true or not ...)
*If we have to pay £2,000, then so **be** it.* (= We can't do anything to change it.)

5 other structures

Most subjunctive structures are formal and unusual in British English. In *that*-clauses, British people usually prefer ***should*** + **infinitive** (see 521), or ordinary present and past tenses.

*It is essential that every child **should have** the same educational opportunities.* (OR ... *that every child has* ...)
*It was important that James **should contact** Arthur as soon as possible.* (OR ... *that James contacted* ...)

568 such

1 word order

Such is used with nouns and noun phrases. It comes before *a/an*.

***such** people* ***such** interesting ideas*
***such a** decision* (NOT ~~*a such decision*~~)

2 'of this/that kind'

Such can mean 'like this/that', 'of this/that kind'. This is most common in a formal style, with abstract nouns.

*The committee wishes to raise fees. I would oppose **such** a decision.*
*There are various forms of secret writing. **Such** systems are called 'codes'.*

In an informal style, and with concrete nouns, we prefer *like this/that* or *this/that kind of*.

*... systems **like this** are called ...*
*He's got an old Rolls-Royce. I'd like a car **like that**.* (NOT ~~*I'd like such a car*~~.)

3 high degree

Another use of *such* is to talk about a high degree of some quality. In this sense, *such* is common before **adjective + noun**.

*I'm sorry you had **such a bad journey**.*
(= You had a very bad journey, and I'm sorry.)
*It was a pleasure to meet **such interesting people**.*

Such is also possible with this meaning before a noun alone, when the noun has an emphatic descriptive meaning.

*I'm glad your concert was **such a success**.*
*Why did she make **such a fuss** about the dates?*

4 *such* and *very, great* etc

Very, great and similar words are also used to talk about a high degree of some quality. The difference is that they give new information; *such* (= like this/that) normally refers to information that is already known. Compare:

- *I've had a very bad day.* (giving information)
  Why did you have such a bad day? (The information is already known.)
- *The weather was very cold.*
  I wasn't expecting such cold weather.
- *There was great confusion*
  Why was there such confusion?

However, in a very informal style *such* can also be used to mean 'very' or 'great', especially in exclamations.

She has such a marvellous voice! *He's such an idiot!*

5 *such ... that; such ... as to*

Structures with *very* cannot be followed directly by *that*-clauses. Instead, we can use *such ... that.*

It was such a cold afternoon that we stopped playing. (NOT ~~*It was a very cold afternoon that*~~ ...)

There is also a structure with *such* followed by ... + *as to* + infinitive. This is formal and not very common.

It was such a loud noise as to wake everybody in the house.
(Less formal: ... *such a loud noise that it woke* ...)

6 *such as*

Such as is used to introduce examples.

My doctor told me to avoid fatty foods such as bacon or hamburgers.

7 *such-and-such*

Note this informal expression.

She's always telling you that she's met such-and-such a famous person.
(= ... one or other famous person.)

For the difference between *such* and *so*, see 569.

569 such and so

1 *such* before (adjective +) noun

We use *such* before a noun (with or without an adjective).

They're such fools. (NOT ~~*They're so fools.*~~)

It was such good milk that we couldn't stop drinking it. (NOT ~~*It was so good milk that*~~ ...)

Such comes before *a/an.*

She's such a baby.

I've never met such a nice person. (NOT ... ~~*a such/so nice person.*~~) ▸

2 *so* before adjective, adverb etc

We use *so* before an adjective alone (without a noun) or an adverb.
*She's so **babyish**.* (NOT ~~*She's such babyish*~~.)
*The milk was so **good** that we couldn't stop drinking it.*
*Why do you talk so **slowly**?*
We can also use *so* before *much, many, few* and *little.*
*We've got so **much** to do, and so **little** time.*
We use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives.
*I'm glad you're feeling so **much better**.* (NOT ... ~~*so better*~~.)

For *so beautiful a day* etc, see 14.
For more about the meaning and use of *such*, see 568. For more about *so*, see 538.

570 suggest

1 infinitive not used

Suggest is not followed by **object + infinitive**. *That*-clauses and *-ing* structures are common.
*Her uncle **suggested that** she (should) get a job in a bank.*
*Her uncle **suggested getting** a job in a bank.* (NOT ~~*Her uncle suggested her to get a job in a bank*~~.)

2 indirect object not used

Suggest is not normally followed by an indirect object without a preposition.
*Can you **suggest** a restaurant to us?* (NOT ~~*Can you suggest us a restaurant?*~~)

3 verb forms in *that*-clauses

In *that*-clauses after *suggest*, various verb forms are possible when we suggest what people should do.

a Ordinary present and past tenses can be used.
*Her uncle **suggests** that she gets a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **got** a job in a bank.*

b *Should* + infinitive without *to* is common.
*He **suggests** that she **should** get a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **should** get a job in a bank.*

c Subjunctives (see 567) are also used, especially in American English.
*He **suggests** that she **get** a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **get** a job in a bank.*

4 direct suggestions

In direct suggestions ('I suggest ...'), *should* is not generally used.
*I **suggest** (that) you get ...* (NOT ~~*I suggest that you should get*~~.)

571 suppose, supposing and what if

Suppose, supposing and *what if* can all be used with present tenses to make suggestions about things that might happen.

I haven't got a table cloth. ~ ***Suppose** we use a sheet.*
Let's go swimming. ~ ***Supposing** there are sharks.*
***What if** we invite your mother next weekend and go away the week after?*

A past tense makes the suggestion sound less definite.

Daddy, can I watch TV? ~ ***Suppose** you **did** your homework first.*
I'm going to climb up there. ~ *No! **supposing** you **slipped**!*
***What if** I **came** tomorrow instead of this afternoon?*

In sentences about the past, past perfect tenses are used to talk about situations that did not occur.

*That was very clever, but **supposing** you **had slipped**?*

For more about past tenses with present or future meanings, see 426.

572 supposed to

Be supposed + **infinitive** is used to say what people have to do (or not do) according to the rules or the law, or about what is (not) expected to happen.

*Catholics **are supposed to go** to church on Sundays.*
*We're **supposed to pay** the Council Tax at the beginning of the month.*
*You're **not supposed to park** on double yellow lines.*

There is often a suggestion that things do not happen as planned or expected.

*This country **is supposed to be** a democracy.*
*Lucy **was supposed to come** to lunch. What's happened?*
*Cats **are supposed to be** afraid of dogs, but ours isn't.*

Questions with *supposed to* can suggest that there are problems.

*The train's already left. What **are we supposed to do** now?*
*How **am I supposed to finish** all this work by ten o'clock?*
*That's a lovely picture, but what's **it supposed to be**?*

Another use of *supposed to* is to say what is generally believed.

*He's **supposed to be** quite rich, you know.*
*This stuff **is supposed to kill** flies. Let's try it.*

Note the pronunciation: /sə'pəʊst tə/, not /sə'pəʊzd tə/.

573 surely

1 not the same as *certainly*

Surely does not usually mean the same as *certainly*. We use *certainly* when we simply tell people that something is true. We use *surely* mostly to ask for people's agreement: to persuade them that something must be true, or that there are good reasons for believing it. Compare:

– *House prices are **certainly** rising fast at the moment.* ('I know this is so.')
  *House prices will **surely** stop rising soon.* ('I believe this must be so.')
– *I **certainly** posted the letter on Monday.* ('I know.')
  *She's **surely** got the letter by now.* ('It seems very probable.') ▸

2 belief in spite of . . .

Surely can be used when we say that we think something is true in spite of reasons to believe the opposite, or in spite of suggestions to the contrary. These sentences are often like questions.

I'm going to marry Sonia. ~ ***Surely** she's married already?*
***Surely** that's Henry over there? I thought he was in Scotland.*
Is it tonight we're going out? ~ *No, tomorrow, **surely**?*

With *not, surely* can express difficulty in believing something.

Tim failed his exam. ~ *Oh, **surely not**?*
***Surely** you're **not** going out in that hat?*
*You don't think I'm going to pay for you, **surely**?*

574 sympathetic

Sympathetic usually means 'sharing somebody's feelings' or 'sorry for somebody who is in trouble'.

*I'm **sympathetic** towards the strikers.*
*She's always very **sympathetic** when people feel ill.*

Sympathetic is a 'false friend' for speakers of certain languages. It does not usually mean the same as, for example, *sympathique, sympathisch, sympatisk* or *simpático.*

*The people in my class are all very **nice / pleasant / easy to get on with**.*
(NOT . . . ~~*are all very sympathetic.*~~)

575 taboo words and swearwords

1 introduction

Many languages have words which are considered dangerous, holy, magic or shocking, and which are only used in certain situations or by certain people. For instance, in some African tribes the names of dead chiefs must not be said; in many cultures, words associated with religious beliefs are used only on religious occasions, or only by priests. Words of this kind can be called 'taboo words'.

English has three main groups of taboo words and expressions:

a A number of words connected with the Christian religion (e.g. the names *Christ, God*) are considered holy by some people. These people prefer to use such words only in formal and respectful contexts, and they may be upset or shocked by their 'careless' use.

b Certain words relating to sexual activity and the associated parts of the body (e.g. *fuck, balls*) are regarded as shocking by many people. Thirty or forty years ago some of these words could not be printed or broadcast, and they are still comparatively unusual in public speech and writing. In polite or formal language these words are generally avoided, or replaced by other words and expressions (e.g. *make love* or *have sexual intercourse, testicles*).

c Some words referring to the elimination of bodily wastes (what one does in the lavatory), and the associated parts of the body, are also regarded as 'dirty' or shocking (e.g. *piss, shit*). They are often replaced by more 'polite' words and expressions with the same meaning (e.g. *urinate, defecate*) or by substitutes (e.g. *go to the lavatory, wash one's hands*).

Because taboo words are shocking, they are common in situations where people want to express powerful emotions by using 'strong' language. This is called 'swearing'. When people swear, taboo words usually change their meanings completely. For example, *fuck off* and *piss off* have nothing to do with sex or urinating – they are simply violently rude ways of saying 'go away'. The strength of the original taboo word is borrowed for a different purpose.

Linguistic taboos in English-speaking countries are less strong than they used to be. Most taboo words and swearwords shock less than they did, say, twenty years ago. And increasingly, people are using informal taboo words which are felt to be amusingly 'naughty' rather than shocking, such as *bonk* or *shag* instead of *fuck*, or *willy* instead of *prick* (= penis).

None the less, students should be very careful about using taboo words and swearwords. There are two reasons for this. First of all, it is not easy to know the exact strength of these expressions in a foreign language, or to know what kind of people are shocked by them, and in what circumstances. One may easily say something that is meant as a joke, but which seriously upsets the people one is talking to. And secondly, using this sort of language generally indicates membership of a group: one most often swears in the company of people one knows well, who belong to one's own social circle, age group etc. (Children usually avoid swearing in front of adults so as not to annoy or shock them, and adults avoid swearing in front of children for similar reasons.) So a foreigner who uses swearwords may give the impression of claiming membership of a group that he or she does not belong to.

2 taboo words

The following are some of the most common English taboo words, with explanations of their literal meanings where necessary. Their approximate 'strength' is shown by stars: one-star words like *hell, damn* or *blast* (which are scarcely taboo in modern English) will not upset many people, while a three- or four-star word may be very shocking if it is used in the wrong situation. Note, however, that individual reactions to particular words (and to swearing in general) vary enormously, and that attitudes are changing rapidly (and generally becoming more tolerant of this kind of language). So people of different ages and backgrounds are likely to disagree a good deal about the strength of the words listed.

The words associated with religion are not considered shocking when used with their literal meaning, and the stars show their strength when used as swearwords. The strength of the other words is mostly the same whether they are used literally or for swearing. ▸

Religion

taboo word	meaning
damn *	condemn to hell (rare in literal sense; mainly used as swearword)
blast * (BrE)	strike with divine punishment (rare in literal sense; mainly used as swearword)
hell *	

(*Damn, blast* and *hell* have lost most of their strength, and are scarcely regarded as swearwords by most people in modern English.)

God *
Jesus **
Christ **

Parts of the body

taboo word	meaning
arse ***	bottom, buttocks, anus
(AmE ass **)	
arsehole ***	anus
(AmE asshole **)	
balls ***	testicles
bollocks *** (BrE)	testicles
cock ***	penis
dick***	penis
prick ***	penis
tits ***	breasts
cunt ****	woman's sex organs
twat ***	woman's sex organs (rare)

Sexual activity

taboo word	meaning
fuck ***	have sex (with)
wank ***	masturbate (have sex with oneself)
(AmE jerk off ***)	
bugger *** (BrE)	have anal intercourse with a person or animal; person who does so (rare in literal sense)
come **	reach a sexual climax (orgasm)
sod ** (BrE)	homosexual (abbreviation of *sodomite*; rare in literal sense)
bitch ***	female dog; earlier used for 'immoral' woman
whore **	prostitute
bastard **	child of unmarried parents

Lavatory

taboo word	meaning
piss ***	urine; urinate
shit ***	excrement; defecate
crap **	excrement; defecate
fart **	let digestive gas out from the anus

3 swearwords

All of the words listed above, and a few others, are used in swearing. The meaning of a swearword is always different from its literal (taboo) meaning (see introduction above). Compare:

*What are you doing **fucking** in my bed?*
(= Why are you making love in my bed? – literal meaning of *fucking*)
*What are you **fucking** doing in my bed?*
(= Why the hell are you in my bed? – *fucking* used as a swearword)

The meaning of a swearword can also change with its grammatical form. For instance, *piss off* is an aggressive way of saying *go away*; *pissed* is British slang for *drunk*; *pissed off* is British slang for *fed up*. Many swearwords are grammatically very flexible. *Fucking*, for example, can act both as an adjective (e.g. ***fucking** idiot*) and as an intensifying adverb (e.g. ***fucking** good, **fucking** soon, it's **fucking** raining, **fucking** well shut up*). It is even sometimes put into the middle of another word (*abso-**fucking**-lutely*). Swearwords are the only words in the language that have this grammatical range.

The following list shows some of the most common expressions used in swearing; they are grouped according to meaning.

a exclamation of annoyance

Damn (it)!
Blast (it)! (BrE)
God damn it!
God damn! (especially AmE)
Hell!
(My) God!
Jesus!
Christ!
Jesus Christ!
Bugger (it)! (BrE)
Sod (it)! (BrE)
Shit!
Fuck (it)!

Examples of use:
***Damn it!** Can't you hurry up?*
***Christ!** It's raining again!*
***Oh, fuck!** I've lost the address!*

b exclamation of surprise

(My) God!
Jesus!
Christ!
Jesus Christ!
God damn! (especially AmE)
Well, I'll be damned!
Son of a bitch! (especially AmE)
Damn me!
Bugger/Fuck me! (BrE)
Well, I'm damned/buggered! (BrE)

Examples of use:
***My God!** Look at that!*
***Well, I'm damned!** What are you doing here?*
***Bugger me!** There's Mrs Smith. I thought she was on holiday.*

c surprised question

Who/What/Why etc *the hell . . .?* (AmE also . . . *in hell . . .?*)
Who/What/Why etc *the fuck . . .?*

Examples of use:
***What the hell** do you think you're doing?*
***Where the fuck** are the car keys?*

▸

d insult (noun)

Note that these nouns generally have no real meaning. They simply express a strong emotion such as hatred, anger, envy or contempt.

bastard	*shit*	*bitch* (applied to women)	*(stupid) fuck* (esp AmE)
fart	*sod* (BrE)	*son of a bitch* (AmE)	*dickhead* (= idiot)
prick	*bugger* (BrE)	*arsehole* (AmE *asshole*)	
fucker	*wanker* (BrE)	*motherfucker* (AmE)	
cunt	*twat* (= idiot)	*cocksucker* (AmE)	

Examples of use:

*You **bastard!*** *Lucky **sod!***
*Stupid old **fart!*** *She's such a **bitch!***
*He's a real **prick!*** *That guy's a real **asshole!***
*Stupid **fucker!*** *Stupid **twat!***

e insult (imperative verb + object)

Damn . . .! *Blast . . .!* (BrE) *Sod . . .!* (BrE)
Bugger . . .! (BrE) *Fuck . . .!* *Screw . . .!*

Examples of use:

***Damn** that child!* ***Fuck** you!* ***Screw** the government!*

f insulting request to go away

Fuck off! *Bugger off!* (BrE)
Piss off! *Sod off!* (BrE)

Examples of use:

*Can I have a word with you? ~ **Fuck off!***
*If Andy comes asking for money, tell him to **piss off**.*

g expression of unconcern (= 'I don't care')

I don't/couldn't give a damn/shit/fuck; . . . a bugger (BrE).

Examples of use:

*They can come and arrest me if they want to. **I don't give a fuck.***
*Mary's very angry with you. ~ **I don't give a bugger.***

h violent refusal/rejection/defiance

(I'll be) damned/fucked if I will! *Balls to . . .!* (BrE)
. . . buggered if I will! (BrE) *Bollocks!* (BrE)
Stuff it (up your arse/ass) *Kiss my arse/ass!*
Get stuffed! (BrE) *Suck my cock!*
Balls! *Why don't you take a flying fuck?*

Examples of use:

*Mr Parsons wants you to clean out the lavatories. ~ **Fucked if I will!***
*Management are offering another £8 a week. ~ They can **stuff it.***
*Give me a kiss. ~ **Get stuffed!***
*You're afraid to fight. ~ **Balls!***
***Balls to** the lot of you! I'm going home.*

i intensifying adjective/adverb (used to emphasise an emotion)

damn(ed) *sodding* (BrE)
bloody (BrE) *fucking*
goddam (AmE)
Bloody has no literal taboo equivalent in modern English.

Examples of use:
*That car's going **damn(ed)** fast.* *She's a **fucking** marvellous singer.*
*Where's the **bloody** switch?* *Put the **fucking** cat out!*
*It's **bloody** raining again.*
When these words are used before verbs, the word *well* is often added in British English.
*I **damn well hope** you never come back.*
*I'm not **fucking well paying** this time.*
*It's **bloody well raining** again.*

j miscellaneous

Fuck (up), screw (up) and *bugger (up)* (BrE) can mean 'ruin', 'spoil' or 'destroy'.
*Somebody's **fucked up** the TV.*
*You've **buggered** my watch.*
Fucked and *buggered* can mean 'exhausted' (BrE).
*Want another game of tennis?~No, I'm **fucked**.*
Screw (especially AmE) can mean 'cheat'.
*Don't buy a car from that garage – they'll **screw** you.*
Cock up (BrE), *balls up* (BrE), *fuck up* and *screw up* can be used as verbs or nouns to refer to mistakes of organisation. (When used as nouns, they are often written with hyphens.)
*That bloody secretary's **cocked up** my travel arrangements.*
*Sorry you didn't get your invitation – Mary made a **balls-up**.*
*The conference was a complete **fuck-up**.*
*Well, we really **screwed up** this time, didn't we?*
Balls (BrE), *bullshit* (AmE), *cock* and *crap* are used to mean 'nonsense'.
*What's his new book like?~A load of **balls**.*
*Don't talk **crap**!*
In American English, *shit* can mean 'lies' or 'nothing'.
*Janie's getting married.~No **shit**?*
*He don't know his ass from a hole in the ground. He don't know **shit**.*
Bugger/fuck/damn/sod all are used in British English to mean 'nothing'.
*There's **fuck** all in the fridge. We'll have to eat out.*
In British English, *pissed* means 'drunk' and *pissed off* means 'fed up'.
*Steve was **pissed** out of his mind again last night.*
*I'm getting **pissed off** with London.*
In American English, *pissed* is 'annoyed', 'angry'.
*I'm **pissed** at him because of what he's been saying about me.*
A sod of a ... means 'a very bad ...'
*It was a **sod of an exam**.* *It's **a sod of a place** to get to.*

For information about slang, see 533.

576 take: time

We can use *take* to say how much time we need to do something. Five structures are common

1 The person is the subject:

person + *take* + time + infinitive

I took three hours to get home last night.
She takes all day to get out of the bathroom.
They took two hours to unload the ferry.

2 The activity is the subject:

activity + *take* (+ person) + time

The journey took me three hours.
Gardening takes a lot of time.
Unloading the ferry took them two hours.

3 The object of the activity is the subject:

object of activity + *take* (+ person) + infinitive

The ferry took them two hours to unload.
This house will take all week to clean.

4 Preparatory *it* is the subject:

It + *take* (+ person) + time + infinitive

It took me three hours to get home last night.
It takes ages to do the shopping.

5 *Before/until* is used:

It + *take* (+ person) + time + *before/until.*

It took us six weeks before/until we got the house clean.
It took a long time before/until she felt comfortable in her new school.

577 taste

1 link verb

Taste can be used as a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun, to say how something tastes. Progressive forms are not used.

This tastes nice. What's in it? (NOT . . . ~~*tastes nicely.*~~)
The wine tastes funny. (NOT . . . ~~*is tasting funny*~~. . .)

Before a noun, *taste of* and *taste like* are used.

The fish soup tasted mostly of garlic.
Her lips tasted like wild strawberries.

2 transitive verb: 'perceive'

Taste can be used with an object, to say what we perceive with our sense of taste. Progressive forms are not used. We often use *can taste* (see 125).

I can taste onion and mint in the sauce. (NOT ~~*I am tasting*~~ . . .)

3 transitive verb: 'investigate'

Another transitive use is to say that we are using our sense of taste to find out something. Progressive forms can be used.

Stop eating the cake. ~ *I'm just tasting it to see if it's OK.*

578 telephoning

1 answering a phone

People answering a private phone either say 'Hello' or give their name. People answering a business phone most often give their name.

'Hello'. *'Albert Packard.'*

2 asking for a person

Could I speak to Jane Horrabin? (AmE also *Could I speak with . . .?*)

3 saying who you are

Hello, this is Corinne. (NOT USUALLY . . . ~~*I'm Corinne.*~~)

Could I speak to Jane Horrabin? ~ *Speaking.* OR *This is Jane Horrabin (speaking).*

4 asking who somebody is

Who is that? (AmE *Who is this / Who's there?*)

Who am I speaking to? *Who is that speaking?*

5 asking for a number

Can/Could I have extension two oh four six?

What's the (dialling) code for Bristol? (AmE . . . *area code . . .?*)

How do I get an outside line?

6 if you want the other person to pay for the call

I'd like to make a reversed (OR *transferred*) *charge call to Bristol 437878.* (AmE *I'd like to make a collect call . . .*)

7 if somebody is not there

I'm afraid she's not in at the moment.

Can I take a message?

Can I leave a message?

Please leave your message after the tone.

I'll ring/call again later. (AmE *I'll call . . .*)

Could you ask her to ring/call me back?

Could you ask her to ring/call me at/on Ardington 637022?

Could you just tell her Jake called? ▸

8 asking people to wait

Just a moment. *Hold the line, please.*
Hold on a moment, please. *Hang on.* (informal)

9 things a switchboard operator may say

One moment, please. *(The number's) ringing for you.*
(I'm) trying to connect you. *(I'm) putting you through now.*
I'm afraid the number/line is engaged (BrE) / *busy* (AmE). *Will you hold?*
I'm afraid there's no reply from this number / from her extension.

10 wrong number

I think you've got the ***wrong number.***
I'm sorry. I've got the ***wrong number.***

11 problems

Could you speak louder? It's a ***bad line*** (BrE) / ***bad connection.***
You're ***breaking up.***
I'll call again. *I was/got* ***cut off.***
I rang/called you earlier but I ***couldn't get through.***

579 telling the time

1 saying what time it is

There are two common ways of saying what time it is.

8.05 *eight (oh) five* OR *five past eight*
8.10 *eight ten* OR *ten past eight*
8.15 *eight fifteen* OR *a quarter past eight*
8.25 *eight twenty-five* OR *twenty-five past eight*
8.30 *eight thirty* OR *half past eight*
8.35 *eight thirty-five* OR *twenty-five to nine*
8.45 *eight forty-five* OR *a quarter to nine*
8.50 *eight fifty* OR *ten to nine*
9.00 *nine o'clock*

Americans prefer to write a colon between the hours and the minutes: *8:50.* People generally prefer to say *minutes past/to* for times between the five-minute divisions.

seven minutes past eight (More natural than *seven past eight*)
three minutes to nine (More natural than *three to nine*)

The expression *o'clock* is only used at the hour. Compare:

Wake me at seven (o'clock).
Wake me at ten past seven. (NOT ... ~~*ten past seven o'clock.*~~)

Past is often dropped from *half past* in informal speech.

OK, see you at half two. (= ... half past two.)

In American English *after* is often used instead of *past* (e.g. *ten* ***after*** *six*); but Americans do not say *half after.* And in American English *of, before* and *till* are possible instead of *to* (e.g. *twenty-five of three*).

2 asking what time it is

Common ways of asking about time are:

What time is it? *Have you got the time?* (informal)
What's the time? *Could you tell me the time?* (more formal)
What time do you make it? (OR *What do you make the time?*)
(BrE, meaning 'What time is it by your watch?')

3 the twenty-four hour clock

The twenty-four hour clock is used mainly in timetables, programmes and official announcements. In ordinary speech, people usually use the twelve-hour clock. Compare:

- *Last check-in time is 20.15.*
  We have to check in by a quarter past eight in the evening.
- *The next train from platform 5 is the 17.53 departure for Carlisle.*
  What time does the next train leave? ~ *Five fifty-three.*
- *The meeting will begin at fourteen hundred.*
  We're meeting at two o'clock.

If necessary, times can be distinguished by using *in the morning/afternoon/evening.* In a more formal style, we can use *am* (= Latin *ante meridiem* – 'before midday') and *pm* (= *post meridiem* – 'after midday').

09.00 = *nine o'clock in the morning* (OR *nine am*)
21.00 = *nine o'clock in the evening* (OR *nine pm*)

580 tense simplification in subordinate clauses

1 reasons for tense simplification

If the main verb of a sentence makes it clear what kind of time the speaker is talking about, it is not always necessary for the same time to be indicated again in subordinate clauses. Compare:

- *This discovery means that we will spend less on food.*
  This discovery will mean that we spend less on food.
- *It is unlikely that he will win.*
  I will pray that he wins.

Verbs in subordinate clauses are often simpler in form than verbs in main clauses – for example present instead of future, simple past instead of ***would*** + **infinitive**, simple past instead of past perfect.

You'll find Coca-Cola wherever you go. (NOT ... ~~*wherever you will go.*~~)
He would never do anything that went against his conscience.
(More natural than ... *that would go against his conscience.*)
I hadn't understood what she said.
(More natural than ... *what she had said.*)

2 present instead of future: *I'll write when I have time*

Present tenses are often used instead of ***will*** + **infinitive** to refer to the future in subordinate clauses. This happens not only after conjunctions of time like *when, until, after, before, as soon as,* but in most other subordinate clauses –

▶

for instance after *if, whether* and *on condition that,* after question words and relatives, and in indirect speech.

I'll write to her when I have time. (NOT ... ~~*when I will have time.*~~)
I'll think of you when I'm lying on the beach next week. (NOT ... ~~*when I will be lying*~~ ...)
Will you stay here until the plane takes off?
It will be interesting to see whether he recognises you.
I'll have a good time whether I win or lose.
I'll lend it to you on condition that you bring it back tomorrow.
I'll go where you go.
He says he'll give five pounds to anybody who finds his pen.
One day the government will really ask people what they want.
If she asks what I'm doing in her flat, I'll say I'm checking the gas.
I think you'll find the wind slows you down a bit.

This can happen even if the main verb is not future in form, provided it refers to the future.

Phone me when you arrive.
Make sure you come back soon.
You can tell who you like next week, but not until then.

In comparisons with *as* and *than,* present and future verbs are both possible.

She'll be on the same train as we are/will tomorrow.
We'll get there sooner than you do/will.

3 present perfect: ... *when I've finished*

The present perfect is used instead of the future perfect, to express the idea of completion.

I'll phone you when I've finished. (NOT ... ~~*when I will have finished.*~~)
At the end of the year there will be an exam on everything you've studied. (NOT ... ~~*everything you will have studied.*~~)

4 future in subordinate clauses: ... *where she will be*

A future verb is necessary for future reference in a subordinate clause if the main verb does not refer to the future (or to the same time in the future).

I don't know where she will be tomorrow.
I'm sure I won't understand a word of the lecture.
I'll hide it somewhere where he'll never find it. (two different future times)
If she rings, I'll tell her that I'll ring back later. (two different future times)

For future verbs in *if*-clauses (e.g. *I'll give you £100 if it will help you to go on holiday*), see 260.

5 *in case, I hope, I bet, it doesn't matter* etc

A present tense is normally used with a future meaning after *in case* even if the main verb is present or past. For details, see 271.

I've got my tennis things in case we have time for a game tomorrow.

In an informal style, present verbs are often used with future meanings after *I hope* (see 250) and *I bet* (see 103).

I hope you sleep well.
I bet he gets married before the end of the year.

Present tenses are also used with future reference after *it doesn't matter, I don't care, I don't mind, it's not important* and similar expressions.

It doesn't matter where we go on holiday.
I don't care what we have for dinner if I don't have to cook it.

6 past instead of *would* . . .

Would, like *will*, is avoided in subordinate clauses; instead, we generally use past verbs. This happens in *if*-clauses (see 258), and also after most other conjunctions.

If I had lots of money, I would give some to anybody who asked for it.
(NOT ~~*If I would have . . . who would ask for it.*~~)
Would you follow me wherever I went? (NOT . . . ~~*wherever I would go?*~~)
In a perfect world, you would be able to say exactly what you thought.
(NOT . . . ~~*what you would think.*~~)
I would always try to help anybody who was in trouble, whether I knew them or not.

For past tenses after *It's time*, see 306; for past tenses after *I'd rather*, see 491; for past tenses after *I wish*, see 630.

7 simplification of perfect and progressive verbs

Simple past verb forms are used quite often in subordinate clauses instead of present perfect and past perfect tenses, if the meaning is clear.

It's been a good time while it('s) lasted.
I've usually liked the people I('ve) worked with.
For thirty years, he had done no more than he (had) needed to.
He probably crashed because he had gone to sleep while he was driving.
(More natural than . . . *while he had been driving.*)

Progressives are often replaced by simple forms in subordinate clauses.

He's working. But at the same time as he works, he's exercising.
(OR . . . *at the same time as he's working* . . .)

8 exceptions

These rules do not usually apply to clauses beginning *because, although, since* or *as* (meaning 'because'), or to non-identifying relative clauses (see 495).

I won't mind the heat on holiday because I won't move about much.
I'll come to the opera with you, although I probably won't enjoy it.
You'll work with Mr Harris, who will explain everything to you.

For tenses in indirect speech, see 275.

581 than and as as subjects, objects and complements

1 subjects: *more than is necessary; as happened*

Than and *as* can replace subjects in clauses (rather like relative pronouns).

He worries more than is necessary. (NOT . . . ~~*more than it/what is necessary.*~~)
There were a lot of people at the exhibition – more than came last year.
(NOT . . . ~~*more than they came last year.*~~)
The train might be late, as happened yesterday. (NOT . . . ~~*as it happened yesterday.*~~)

We've got food for as many people ***as want it.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as they want it.*~~)

Common expressions with *as* in place of a subject: *as follows*; *as was expected*; *as was agreed*; *as is well known.*

I have prepared a new plan, ***as follows.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it follows.*~~)

They lost money, ***as was expected.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it was expected.*~~)

I am sending you the bill, ***as was agreed.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it was agreed.*~~)

As is well known, *smoking is dangerous.* (NOT ~~*As it is well known*~~ . . .)

2 objects and complements: *as I did last year*

Than and *as* can also act as objects and complements.

They sent more vegetables ***than I had ordered.*** (NOT . . . ~~*than I had ordered them.*~~)

Don't lose your passport, ***as I did*** *last year.* (NOT . . . ~~*as I did it last year.*~~)

She was more frightened ***than I was.*** (NOT . . . ~~*than I was it.*~~)

You're as tired ***as I am.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as I am it.*~~)

Some English dialects use *what* after *as* and *than* in these cases.

They sent more paper ***than what*** *I had ordered.* (non-standard)

You're as tired ***as what*** *I am.* (non-standard)

582 thankful and grateful

Grateful is the normal word for people's reactions to kindness, favours etc.

I'm very ***grateful*** *for all your help.* (NOT ~~*I'm very thankful*~~ . . .)

She wasn't a bit ***grateful*** *to me for repairing her car.*

Thankful is used especially for feelings of relief at having avoided a danger, or at having come through an unpleasant experience.

I'm ***thankful*** *that we got home before the storm started.*

We feel very ***thankful*** *that she didn't marry him after all.*

Well, I'm ***thankful*** *that's over.*

583 that-clauses

1 *that* as a connector

That is a conjunction with little real meaning. It is simply a connector – it shows that a clause forms part of a larger sentence. Compare:

I understood. He was innocent. (two separate sentences)

I understood ***that*** *he was innocent.* (The clause *he was innocent* has become the object of the verb in the larger sentence.)

2 *that*-clauses in sentences

A *that*-clause can be the subject of a sentence.

That she should forget me so quickly *was rather a shock.*

It can be a complement after *be.*

The main thing is ***that*** *you're happy.*

Many verbs can have *that*-clauses as objects.

We ***knew that*** *the next day would be difficult.*

I ***regretted that*** *I was not going to be at the meeting.*

And many nouns and adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses.

I admire your belief ***that*** *you are always right.*

The Minister is ***anxious that*** *nothing should get into the papers.*

3 *the fact that ...*

It is unusual for *that*-clauses to stand alone as subjects. They are more often introduced by the expression *the fact.*

The fact that she was foreign made it difficult for her to get a job.
(NOT ~~*That she was foreign made it difficult*~~...)

The fact that Simon had disappeared didn't seem to worry anybody.
(More natural than *That Simon had disappeared didn't* ...)

The fact also introduces *that*-clauses after prepositions (*that*-clauses cannot follow prepositions directly).

The judge paid no attention to the fact that she had just lost her husband.
(NOT ... ~~*paid no attention to that she had just*~~...)

He held her completely responsible for the fact that she took food without paying for it. (NOT ... ~~*responsible for that she took*~~...)

In spite of the fact that she had three small children, he sent her to prison for six months. (NOT ~~*In spite of that she had*~~...)

For cases when prepositions are dropped before *that*-clauses, see 453.

4 preparatory *it*

It is often used as a preparatory subject or object for a *that*-clause (see 446–447).

It surprised me that he was still in bed.
(More natural than *That he was still in bed surprised me.*)

She made it clear that she was not interested. (NOT ~~*She made that she was not interested clear.*~~)

For reasons why *that*-clauses are often moved to the ends of sentences, see 512.

5 *that*-clauses after verbs, nouns and adjectives

Some verbs, nouns or adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses; some cannot. Compare:

– *I hope that you'll have a wonderful time.*
I want you to have a wonderful time. (NOT ~~*I want that you'll have*~~...)

– *I understood his wish that we should be there.*
I understood the importance of our being there. (NOT ... ~~*the importance that we should be there.*~~)

– *It's essential that you visit the art museum.*
It's worth your visiting the art museum. (NOT ~~*It's worth that you visit*~~...)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which nouns, verbs or adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

6 verbs in *that*-clauses

In some kinds of *that*-clause, ***should*** + **infinitive** or subjunctives are often used instead of ordinary verb forms. For details, see 521, 567.

I insisted that she should see the doctor at once. (OR ... ***that she see*** ...) ▸

7 compound conjunctions

Some conjunctions are made up of two or more words, including *that*. Common examples: *so that, in order that, provided that, providing that, seeing that, given that, now that.*

*I got here early **so that** we could have a few minutes alone together.*
*I'll come with you **providing that** Bill doesn't mind.*
*OK, I'll help you, **seeing that** you asked so nicely.*
***Given that** Monday is a holiday, we could go to Scotland for the weekend.*
***Now that** the kids are at school, the house seems very quiet.*

For *that*-clauses after reporting verbs ('indirect speech'), see 274–275.
For the relative pronoun *that*, see 494.

584 that: omission

We can often leave out the conjunction *that*, especially in an informal style.

1 indirect speech: *He said (that) . . .*

That can be left out informally after many common reporting verbs.

*James **said (that)** he was feeling better.*
*I **thought (that)** you were in Ireland.*
*The waiter **suggested (that)** we should go home.*

That cannot be dropped after certain verbs, especially intransitive verbs – e.g. *reply, email, shout.*

*James **replied that** he was feeling better.* (NOT ~~*James replied he was*~~ . . .)
*She **shouted that** she was busy.* (NOT ~~*She shouted she was busy*~~.)

For sentences like *Who do you think is outside?* see 486.

2 after adjectives: *I'm glad you're all right*

We can leave out *that* in clauses after some common adjectives.

*I'm **glad (that)** you're all right.*
*It's **funny (that)** he hasn't written.* *We were **surprised (that)** she came.*

3 not dropped after nouns

That is not usually dropped after nouns.

*I did not believe his **claim that** he was ill.* (More natural than . . . *his claim he was ill.*)
*He disagreed with Copernicus' **view that** the earth went round the sun.* (NOT . . . ~~*Copernicus' view the earth went*~~ . . .)

4 conjunctions

That can be left out in an informal style in some common two-word conjunctions, such as *so that, such . . . that, now that, providing that, provided that, supposing that, considering that, assuming that.*

*Come in quietly **so (that)** she doesn't hear you.*
*I was having **such a** nice time **(that)** I didn't want to leave.*
*The garden looks nice **now (that)** we've got some flowers out.*
*You can borrow it **provided (that)** you bring it back tomorrow.*
***Assuming (that)** nobody gets lost, we'll all meet again here at six o'clock.*

5 relative structures

We can usually leave out the relative pronoun *that* when it is the object in a relative clause (see 495).

Look! There are the people (that) we met in Brighton.
Do it the way (that) I showed you.

585 the matter (with)

We use *the matter (with)* after *something, anything, nothing* and *what*. It means 'wrong (with)'.

Something's the matter with my foot.
Is anything the matter?
Nothing's the matter with the car – you're just a bad driver.
What's the matter with Frank today?

There is often used as a 'preparatory subject' (see 587).

There's something the matter with the TV.
Is there anything the matter?

For *no matter what* etc, see 378

586 there

The spelling *there* is used for two words with completely different pronunciations and uses.

1 adverb of place

There (pronounced /ðeə(r)/) is an adverb meaning 'in that place'.

What's that green thing over there?
There's the book I was looking for.

For the difference between *here* and *there*, see 245.

2 introductory subject

There (most often pronounced /ðə(r)/) is used as an introductory subject in sentences beginning *there is, there are, there might be* etc. For details, see 587.

There's a book under the piano.

587 there is

1 use

In sentences which say that something exists (or does not exist) somewhere, we usually use *there* as a kind of preparatory subject, and put the real subject after the verb. Note the pronunciation of *there*: usually /ðə(r)/, not /ðeə(r)/.

There's a hole in my tights. (More natural than *A hole is in my tights.*)
There's ice on the lake. (More natural than *Ice is on the lake.*)

It cannot be used in this way.

There is a lot of noise in the street. (NOT ~~*It is a lot of noise in the street.*~~)

There are is used with plural subjects. ▸

*I don't know how many people **there are** in the waiting room.* (NOT ... ~~*how many people there is*~~ ...)

However, *there's* can begin sentences with plural subjects in informal speech.

There's two policemen at the door, Dad.
There's some grapes in the fridge, if you're still hungry.

2 indefinite subjects

We use *there* in this way particularly with subjects that have indefinite articles, no article, or indefinite determiners like *some, any, no*; and with indefinite pronouns like *somebody, nothing.*

There are some people outside.
There were no footsteps to be seen. *Is there anybody at home?*
There was dancing in the streets. *There's something worrying me.*

Note the use of *wrong* and *the matter* (see 585).

There's something wrong. *Is there anything the matter?*

Note also the structures with *sense, point, use* (see 57) and *need.*

There's no sense in making him angry.
Is there any point in talking about it again?
Do you think there's any use trying to explain?
There's no need to hurry – we've got plenty of time.

3 all tenses

There can be used in this way with all tenses of *be.*

Once upon a time there were three wicked brothers.
There has never been anybody like you.
There will be snow on high ground.

And *there* can be used in question tags (see 488.4).

There'll be enough for everybody, won't there?

4 structures with auxiliary *be*

There can also be used in structures where *be* is a progressive or passive auxiliary. Note the word order.

There was a girl water-skiing on the lake. (= A girl was water-skiing ...)
(NOT ~~*There was water-skiing a girl*~~ ...)
There have been more Americans killed in road accidents than in all the wars since 1900. (= More Americans have been killed ...)
(NOT ~~*There have been killed more Americans*~~ ...)
There'll be somebody meeting you at the airport.

5 more complex structures

There can be used with modal verb + *be*, and with some other verbs (e.g. *seem, appear, happen, tend*) before *to be.*

There might be drinks if you wait for a bit.
There must be somebody at home – ring again.
If the police hadn't closed the road there could have been a bad accident.
There seem to be some problems. (NOT ~~*There seems to be*~~ ...)
Could you be quiet? There happens to be a lecture going on.
There tends to be jealousy when a new little brother or sister comes along.

Note also the structure *there is certain/sure/likely/bound to be.*

There is sure to be trouble when she gets his letter.
Do you think there's likely to be snow?

Infinitives (*there to be*) and *-ing* forms (*there being*) are also used.

I don't want there to be any more trouble.
What's the chance of there being an election this year?

6 other verbs

In a formal or literary style, some other verbs can be used with *there* besides *be*. These are mostly verbs which refer to states or arrivals.

In a small town in Germany there once lived a poor shoemaker.
There remains nothing more to be done.
Suddenly there entered a strange figure dressed all in black.
There followed an uncomfortable silence.

7 definite subjects

There is not normally used in a sentence with a definite subject (e.g. a noun with a definite article, or a proper name).

The door was open. (NOT ~~*There was the door open.*~~)
James was at the party. (NOT ~~*There was James at the party.*~~)

One exception to this is when we simply name people or things, in order to draw attention to a possible solution to a problem.

Who could we ask? ~ Well, there's James, or Miranda, or Ann, or Sue, ...
Where can he sleep? ~ Well, there's always the attic.

Another apparent exception is in stories that begin *There was this ...*, when *this* has an indefinite sense.

There was this man, see, and he couldn't get up in the mornings. So he ...

588 think

1 'have an opinion': not progressive

When *think* is used for opinions, progressive forms are unusual.

I don't think much of his latest book. (NOT ~~*I'm not thinking much...*~~)
Who do you think will win the election? (NOT ~~*Who are you thinking...?*~~)

2 other meanings: progressive possible

When *think* has other meanings (e.g. *consider* or *plan*) progressives are possible.

You're looking worried. What are you thinking about? (NOT ~~*...What do you think about?*~~)
I'm thinking of changing my job.

3 *-ing* forms

After *think*, *-ing* forms can be used, but infinitives are not usually possible unless there is an object (see paragraph 4 below).

She's thinking of going to university next year. (NOT ~~*She's thinking to go...*~~)

However, ***think*** + **infinitive** can be used when we talk about remembering to do something, or having the good sense to do something.

Did you think to close the windows when it started raining? ▸

4 *think* + object (+ *to be*) + complement

In a very formal style, *think* is sometimes followed by an object and an adjective or noun complement.

They thought her fascinating. *We thought him a fool.*

It can be used as a preparatory object (see 442) for an infinitive or clause.

I thought it better to pretend that I knew nothing.

We thought it important that she should go home.

To be is occasionally used before the complement (suggesting objective judgement rather than subjective impression), but this is very unusual.

They thought him to be a spy.

In more normal styles, *that*-clauses are preferred after *think*.

They thought that she was fascinating.

We thought that he was a fool.

However, the passive equivalent of the **object + complement** structure is reasonably common, usually with *to be*.

He was thought to be a spy.

5 transferred negation: *I don't think ...*

When *think* is used to introduce a negative clause, we most often put *not* with *think*, rather than with the following clause (see 369).

I don't think it will rain. (More natural than *I think it won't rain.*)

Mary doesn't think she can come.

However, we can express surprise with *I thought ... not.*

Hello! I thought you weren't coming!

6 indirect speech

Think does not usually introduce indirect questions.

I was wondering if I could do anything to help.

(More natural than *I was thinking if ...*)

7 *I thought ...*

Note the use of stressed *I thought ...* to suggest that the speaker was right. Compare:

It isn't very nice. ~ *Oh, dear. I thought you'd* LIKE *it. (But I was wrong.)*

It's beautiful! ~ *Oh, I am glad. I* THOUGHT *you'd like it. (And I was right.)*

8 *I had thought ..., I should think* etc

Past perfect forms can suggest that the speaker was mistaken, especially when *had* is stressed.

I had thought that we were going to be invited to dinner.

I should think and *I should have thought* (also *I would / I'd ...*) can introduce guesses.

I should think we'll need at least twelve bottles of wine.

I should (I would / I'd) have thought we could expect at least forty people.

This structure can also introduce criticisms.

I should have thought he could have washed his hands, at least.

For *I (don't) think so* and *I thought so*, see 539.

589 this and that

1 people and things

This/that/these/those can be used as determiners with nouns that refer to either people or things.

this child *that house*

But when they are used as pronouns without nouns, *this/that/these/those* normally only refer to things

This costs more than that. (BUT NOT ~~*This says he's tired.*~~)

Put those down – they're dirty. (BUT NOT ~~*Tell those to go away.*~~)

However, *this* etc can be used as pronouns when we say who people are.

Hello. This is Elisabeth. Is that Ruth? *That looks like Mrs Walker.*

Who's that? *These are the Smiths.*

Note also *Those who* ... (see paragraph 6 below).

For a similar use of *it* to refer to people, see 428.9.

2 the difference

We use *this/these* for people and things which are close to the speaker.

This is very nice – can I have some more?

Get this cat off my shoulder.

I don't know what I'm doing in this country. (NOT ... ~~*in that country.*~~)

Do you like these ear-rings? Bob gave them to me.

We use *that/those* for people and things which are more distant from the speaker, or not present.

That smells nice – is it for lunch?

Get that cat off the piano.

All the time I was in that country I hated it.

I like those ear-rings. Where did you get them?

3 time

This/these can refer to situations and events which are going on or just about to start.

I like this music. What is it?

Listen to this. You'll like it. (NOT ~~*Listen to that*~~ ...)

Watch this. *This is a police message.*

That/those can refer to situations and events which have just finished, or which are more distant in the past.

That was nice. What was it? (NOT ~~*This was nice*~~ ...)

Did you see that? *Who said that?*

Have you ever heard from that Scottish boy you used to go out with?
(NOT ... ~~*this Scottish boy you used to go out with.*~~)

That can show that something has come to an end.

... and that's how it happened.

Anything else? ~ *No, that's all, thanks.* (in a shop)

OK. That's it. I'm leaving. It was nice knowing you.

4 acceptance and rejection

We sometimes use *this/these* to show acceptance or interest, and *that/those* to show dislike or rejection. Compare: ▸

*Now tell me about **this** new boyfriend of yours.*
*I don't like **that** new boyfriend of yours.*

5 on the telephone

On the telephone, British people use *this* to identify themselves, and *that* to ask about the hearer's identity.

*Hello. **This** is Elisabeth. Is **that** Ruth?*

Americans can also use *this* to ask about the hearer's identity.

*Who is **this**?*

6 *that, those* meaning 'the one(s)'

In a formal style, *that* and *those* can be used with a following description to mean 'the one(s)'. *Those who* ... means 'the people who ...'

*A dog's intelligence is much greater than **that** of a cat.*
Those who can, do. Those who can't, teach.

7 *this* and *that* meaning 'so'

In an informal style, *this* and *that* are often used with adjectives and adverbs in the same way as *so*.

*I didn't realise it was going to be **this** hot.*
*If your boyfriend's **that** clever, why isn't he rich?*

In standard English, only *so* is used before a following clause.

It was so cold that I couldn't feel my fingers. (NOT ~~*It was that cold that*~~ ...)

Not all that can be used to mean 'not very'.

*How was the play? ~ **Not all that** good.*

8 other uses

Note the special use of *this* (with no demonstrative meaning) in conversational story-telling.

*There was **this** travelling salesman, you see. And he wanted ...*

That/those can suggest that an experience is familiar to everybody.

*I can't stand **that** perfume of hers.*

This use is common in advertisements.

*When you get **that** empty feeling – break for a biscuit.*
*Earn more money during **those** long winter evenings. Telephone ...*

The differences between *this* and *that* are similar to the differences between *here* and *there* (see 245), *come* and *go* (see 134) and *bring* and *take* (see 112).
For *this one, that one* etc, see 395.
For *these* and *those* with singular *kind of, sort of*, see 551.
For *that which*, see 498.19.

590 this/that and it: things that have just been mentioned

1 referring back

This, that and *it* can all be used to refer back to things or situations that have just been talked or written about. *It* does not give any special emphasis.

So she decided to paint her house pink. It upset the neighbours a bit.

This and *that* are more emphatic; they 'shine a light', so to speak, on the things or situations, suggesting 'an interesting new fact has been mentioned'.

So she decided to paint her house pink. This/That really upset the neighbours, as you can imagine.

This is preferred when there is more to say about the new subject of discussion.

So she decided to paint her house pink. This upset the neighbours so much that they took her to court, believe it or not. The case came up last week ...

Then in 1917 he met Andrew Lewis. This was a turning point in his career: the two men entered into a partnership which lasted until 1946, and ... (More natural than ... *That was a turning point ...*)

2 more than one thing

When more than one thing has been mentioned, *it* generally refers to the main subject of discussion; *this* and *that* generally refer to a new subject that has been introduced (often the last thing mentioned). Compare:

– *We keep the ice-cream machine in the spare room. It is mainly used by the children, incidentally.* (The machine is used by the children.)

We keep the ice-cream machine in the spare room. This/That is mainly used by the children, incidentally. (The spare room is used by the children.)

– *I was carrying the computer to my office when I dropped it on the kitchen table. It was badly damaged.* (The computer was damaged.)

I was carrying the computer to my office when I dropped it on the kitchen table. This was badly damaged. (The table was damaged.)

3 focus

It is only used to refer to things which are 'in focus' - which have already been talked about. *This* is preferred when we 'bring things into focus' before anything has been said about them. Compare:

I enjoyed 'Vampires' Picnic'. It/This is a film for all the family ...

VAMPIRES' PICNIC: *This is a film for all the family ...*

(NOT ~~VAMPIRES' PICNIC: It is a film for all the family~~ ...)

4 referring forward

Only *this* can refer forward to something that has not yet been mentioned.

Now what do you think about this? I thought I'd get a job in Spain for six months, and then ... (NOT ~~Now what do you think about that/it~~ ...)

For more about *this* and *that* and the differences between them, see 589.
For more about *it*, see 428.

591 This is the first/last ... etc

1 *This is the first time* etc

We use the present perfect in sentences constructed with *this/it/that is the first/second/third/only/best/worst* etc.

This is the first time that I've heard her sing. (NOT ~~This is the first time that I hear her sing~~.)

This is the fifth time you've asked me the same question (NOT ~~*This is the fifth time you ask*~~ . . .)
That's the third cake you've eaten this morning.
It's one of the most interesting books I've ever read.
I'm flying to New York tomorrow. It'll be the first time I've travelled by plane.
When we talk about the past, we use the past perfect in these structures.
It was the third time he had been in love that year. (NOT . . . ~~*the third time he was in love*~~ . . .)

2 tenses with *This is the last* . . . etc

Present (simple or progressive) and future tenses are both possible with *This is the last* . . . and similar structures.
This is the last time I pay / I'm paying for you. (OR *This is the last time I'll pay for you.*)
That's the last letter he gets / he's getting from me. (OR *That's the last letter he'll get from me.*)
This is the last thing I'm going to say to you.

592 through: time

In American English, *through* can be used to mean 'up to and including'.
The park is open from May through September.
In British English, *through* is not normally used in this way. Instead, British people say, for example, *to* . . . *inclusive*, or *until the end of* . . .
The park is open from May to September inclusive. (OR . . . *from May until the end of September.*)

593 time

1 countability and article use

Time has various uses, some countable and some uncountable (for full details see a good dictionary). Most of these are straightforward, but there are problems in two areas:

a measure of duration: how long

When we talk about the number of hours, days etc that are needed to complete something, *time* is generally uncountable (and therefore used without *a*).
How much time do we need to load the van?
It took quite some time to persuade her to talk to us.
Don't worry – there's plenty of time.
This is a complete waste of time.
However, *time* is countable in certain expressions like *a long/short time* and *quite a time.*
I took a long time to get to sleep. *She was away for quite a time.*
The time can be used to mean 'enough time'; *the* is often dropped.
Just come with me – I haven't got (the) time to explain.

For the use of *take* with expressions of time, see 576.

b clock times

When we talk about clock times, *time* is countable.
*Six o'clock would be a good **time** to meet.*
*She phoned me at various **times** yesterday.*
The is dropped in the expression *it's time.*
*It's **time** to stop.* (NOT ~~*It's the time to stop.*~~)

2 without preposition

Prepositions are often dropped before some common expressions with *time.*
*He's busy. Why don't you come **another time**?*
(More natural than ... *at another time.*)
*What **time** does the match start?*
(More natural than *At what time ...?*)
*You won't fool me **this time**.*
In relative structures after *time, that* is often used instead of *when* in an informal style (or dropped).
*Do you remember the time **(that)** Freddy pretended to be a ghost?*
*You can come up and see me any time **(that)** you like.*
*The first time **(that)** I saw her, my heart stopped.*

For similar structures with other time words, and with *place, way* and *reason*, see 498.6.

3 *on time* and *in time*

On time means 'at the planned time', 'neither late nor early'. The opposite is 'early' or 'late'. It is often used to refer to timetabled events.
*Only one of the last six trains has been **on time**.* (NOT ... ~~*in time.*~~)
*Peter wants the discussion to start exactly **on time**.* (NOT ... ~~*in time.*~~)
In time means 'with enough time to spare', 'before the last moment'. The opposite is *too late.*
*We arrived **in time** to get good seats.* (NOT... ~~*on time to get good seats.*~~)
*He would have died if they hadn't got him to hospital **in time**.* (NOT ... ~~*got him to hospital on time.*~~)
*I nearly drove into the car in front, but I stopped just **in time**.*

For structures after *It's time*, see 306.
For ways of telling the time, see 579.
For *by the time*, see 117.
For tenses with *this is the first time ...*, *this is the last time ...* and similar structures, see 591.

594 tonight

Tonight refers to the present or coming night, not to the past night (*last night*). Compare:
*I had a terrible dream **last night**.* (NOT ~~*I had a terrible dream tonight.*~~)
*I hope I sleep better **tonight**.*

595 too

1 *too* and *very*

Too is different from *very* – *too* means 'more than enough', 'more than necessary' or 'more than is wanted'. Compare:

– *He's a very intelligent child.*
  He's too intelligent for his class – he's not learning anything.
– *It was very cold, but we went out.*
  It was too cold to go out, so we stayed at home.

2 *too* and *too much*

Before adjectives without nouns and before adverbs we use *too*, not *too much*.

You're too kind to me. (NOT ~~*You're too much kind to me.*~~)
I arrived too early. (NOT ~~*I arrived too much early.*~~)

Too much is used, for example, before nouns. For details see 596.

I've got too much work.

3 modification: *much too, far too* etc

Expressions which modify comparatives (see 140) also modify *too*.

much too old (NOT ~~*very too old*~~)	*a little too confident*
a lot too big	*a bit too soon*
far too young	*rather too often*

4 not used before adjective + noun

Too is not normally used before **adjective + noun**.

I put down the bag because it was too heavy. (NOT ... ~~*the too heavy bag.*~~)
She doesn't like men who are too tall. (NOT ~~*She doesn't like too tall men.*~~)
Let's forget this problem – it's too difficult. (NOT ... ~~*this too difficult problem.*~~)

In a rather formal style, *too* can be used before **adjective + *a/an* + noun** (see 14). Note the word order.

It's too cold a day for tennis.

5 *too* ... + infinitive

We can use an infinitive structure after *too* + **adjective/adverb**.

He's too old to work. *It's far too cold to go out.*

We can also use an infinitive structure after *too much/many*.

There was too much snow to go walking.

If the infinitive has its own subject, this is introduced by *for* (see 291).

It's too late for the pubs to be open.
There was too much snow for us to go walking.

6 *too salty to drink*, etc

The subject of a sentence with *too* can also be the object of a following infinitive. (For more about this structure, see 284.4.) Object pronouns are not normally used after the infinitive in this case.

The water is too salty to drink. (NOT ~~*The water is too salty to drink it.*~~)
However, object pronouns are possible in structures with *for*.
The water is too salty for us to drink (it).
Note the two possible meanings of sentences like *He's too stupid to teach*:
1. *He's too stupid to be a teacher.*
2. *He's too stupid for anyone to teach – he can't be taught.*

7 That's really too kind of you

In informal speech *too* can sometimes be used to mean 'very'.
Oh, that's really too kind of you – thank you so much.
I'm not feeling too well.

8 only too ...

The expression *only too* is used to mean 'very', 'extremely'. It is common in formal offers and invitations.
We shall be only too pleased if you can spend a few days with us.

For *too* meaning 'also', see 46.

596 too much and too many

1 the difference

The difference between *too much* and *too many* is the same as the difference between *much* and *many* (see 357). *Too much* is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *too many* is used with plurals.
You put too much salt in the soup.
I've had too many late nights recently. (NOT ... ~~*too much late nights*~~ ...)

2 a bit too much, rather too many, etc

Expressions which modify comparatives and *too* (see 140) can also modify *too much* and *too many*.
She's wearing a bit too much make-up for my taste.
I've been to rather too many parties recently.
However, *much too many* is unusual.
You ask far too many questions. (NOT ... ~~*much too many questions.*~~)

3 too much/many without a noun

We can drop a noun after *too much/many*, if the meaning is clear.
You've eaten too much.
Did you get any answers to your advertisement? ~ *Too many.*

For the difference between *too* and *too much*, see 595.2.

597 travel, journey, trip and voyage

Travel means 'travelling in general'. It is normally uncountable.
My interests are music and travel.
The plural *travels* is sometimes used; it suggests a rather grand programme of travelling or exploration. ▸

He wrote a wonderful book about his travels in the Himalayas.

A *journey* is one 'piece' of travelling.

Did you have a good journey? (NOT ~~*Did you have a good travel?*~~)

I met Jane on my last journey to England. (NOT ...~~*my last travel.*~~)

A *trip* is a return journey together with the activity (business or pleasure) which is the reason for the journey.

I'm going on a business trip next week. (= I'm going on a journey and I'm going to do some business.)

Peter's school is organising a skiing trip to the Alps.

Compare:

How was your journey? ~ *The train broke down.*

How was your trip? ~ *Successful.*

We do not so often use *trip* for expeditions which have a very serious purpose, are very hard and/or take a very long time.

In 1863 the President travelled to Dakota to make peace with the Indians.
(NOT ...~~*made a trip to Dakota to make peace*~~...)

Amundsen made his journey to the South Pole in 1911.
(NOT ~~*Amundsen made his trip to the South Pole*~~...)

A long sea journey is often called a *voyage*.

Note the preposition: ***on** a journey/trip/voyage.*

598 turning verbs into nouns

1 using nouns for actions

It is very common to refer to an action by using a noun instead of a verb. Nouns of this kind often have the same form as the related verbs. The structure is especially common in an informal style.

*There was a loud **crash**.*
*Did I hear a **cough**?*
*I need a **wash**.*
*Let's have a **talk** about your plans.*
*Let your sister have a **go** on the swing.* (BrE)
*Just take a **look** at yourself.*
*Would you like a **taste**?*
*What about a **drink**?*
*Come on – one more **try**!*

2 common structures

Nouns of this kind are often introduced by 'general-purpose' verbs such as *have, take, give, make, go for.*

*I'll **have a think** and let you know what I decide.* (informal BrE)

*I like to **have/take a bath** before I go to bed.*

*If it won't start, let's **give it a push**.*

*I don't know the answer, but I'm going to **make a guess**.*

*I try to **go for a run** every day.*

We can use *-ing* forms in a similar way after *do* (see 160.3).

*She does **a bit of painting**, but she doesn't like to show people.*

These structures are very common when we talk about casual, unplanned or unsystematic recreational activity. Compare:

*Let's **have a swim**.* (More natural than *Let's swim.*)

Do you do any sport? ~ *Yes, I **swim**.*

For details of 'action-nouns' with *have*, and a list of common expressions, see 236.
For *give*, see 226. For *go for*, see 227. For *go ...ing*, see 228.

599 two-part verbs (1): phrasal verbs

1 verb + adverb particle: *get back, walk out*

Many English verbs can be followed by small adverbs ('adverb particles'). These two-part verbs are often called 'phrasal verbs'.

Get back! *She walked out.* *I switched the light off.*

Common adverb particles: *about, across, ahead, along, (a)round, aside, away, back, by, down, forward, in, home, off, on, out, over, past, through, up.*
Some of these words can also be used as prepositions. Compare:

I switched the light off. (adverb particle)
I jumped off the wall. (preposition)

For a detailed comparison, see 20.

2 idiomatic meanings: *break out; turn up*

The meaning of a two-word verb is often very different from the meanings of the two parts taken separately.

*War **broke out** in 1939.* (*Broke out* is not the same as *broke + out.*)
*Joe **turned up** last night.* (= appeared – not the same as *turned + up.*)
*I **looked** the word **up** in the dictionary.* (*Look up* is not the same as *look + up.*)
*We had to **put off** the meeting till Tuesday.* (*Put off* is not the same as *put + off.*)

3 phrasal verbs with and without objects

Some phrasal verbs are intransitive (they do not have objects).

*I **got up** at 7.00 today.* *That colour really **stands out**.*

Others are transitive.

*Could you **switch** the **light off**?* *I helped Ann to **fill in** the **form**.*

4 word order with objects

Adverb particles can go either before or after noun objects (unlike most adverbs – see 21.1).

*She switched **off** the **light**.* OR *She switched **the light off**.*

But they can only go after pronoun objects.

*She switched **it off**.* (NOT ~~*She switched off it.*~~)
*Is that the light **which** you switched **off**?* (NOT ... ~~*the light off which you switched?*~~)
*Give **me back** my watch.* OR *Give **me** my watch **back**.* (NOT ~~*Give back me my watch.*~~)

5 verbs with prepositions and particles together

A few verbs can be used with both an adverb particle and a preposition (making them three-part verbs).

*I **get on with** her quite well.*
*Stop talking and **get on with** your work.*
*It's hard to **put up with** people who won't stop talking.*
*If you're on the road on Saturday night, **look out for** drunk drivers.*
*I'll think about it and **get back to** you.*
*She **went up to** the policeman and explained her problem.* ▸

I'm looking forward to the party.

For details of particular two-word verbs, see a good dictionary.

600 two-part verbs (2): prepositional verbs

1 verb + preposition: *listen to; look at*

Many English verbs are regularly followed by prepositions before objects.

You never listen to me. (NOT ~~*You never listen me.*~~)

Alan walked down the road without looking at anybody.

Prepositions are not used when there is no object.

Listen! (NOT ~~*Listen to!*~~)

2 idiomatic meanings: *look after, get over*

The meaning of a two-word verb can be very different from the meanings of the two parts taken separately.

Could you look after the kids while I'm out? (*Look after* is not the same as *look + after.*)

It took him six months to get over his illness. (*Get over* is not the same as *get + over.*)

3 word order: *What are you thinking about?*

When an object comes at the beginning of a clause (e.g. in a question or relative clause), a two-word verb usually stays together, so that a preposition can be separated from its object and go at the end of the clause. For details of this and other preposition-final structures, see 452.

What are you thinking about? (NOT ~~*About what are you thinking?*~~)

I've found the book which I was looking for. (More natural in an informal style than ... *the book for which I was looking.*)

For the difference between prepositions and adverb particles, see 20.
For prepositional verbs in the passive, see 416.

601 unless

1 meaning

Unless has a similar meaning to *if... not,* in the sense of 'except if'.

Come tomorrow unless I phone. (= ... if I don't phone / except if I phone.)

I'll take the job unless the pay is too low. (= if the pay isn't too low / except if the pay is too low.)

I'll be back tomorrow unless there's a plane strike.

Let's have dinner out – unless you're too tired.

I'm going to dig the garden this afternoon, unless it rains.

2 when *unless* cannot be used

Unless means 'except if'. *Unless* is not used when the meaning is more like 'because ... not'. Compare:

– *OK. So we'll meet this evening at 7.00 – unless my train's late.* (= ... except if my train's late.)

My wife will be angry if I'm ***not*** *home by 7.00.* (NOT ~~*My wife will be angry unless I get home by 7.00.*~~ – She will be angry because I'm not home.)

– *I'll drive over and see you,* ***unless*** *the car breaks down.* (= . . . **except if** the car breaks down.)

I'll be surprised if the car doesn't break down soon (NOT ~~*I'll be surprised unless the car breaks down soon.*~~ – I'll be surprised **because** it doesn't break down.)

3 tenses

In clauses with *unless*, we usually use present tenses to refer to the future (see 580).

I'll be in all day unless the office ***phones.*** (NOT . . . ~~*unless the office will phone.*~~)

For more about sentences with *if*, see 256–264.

602 until

1 *until* and *till*

These two words can be used both as prepositions and conjunctions. They mean exactly the same. *Till* (AmE also *'til*) is informal.

OK, then, I won't expect you ***until/till*** *midnight.*
I'll wait ***until/till*** *I hear from you.*
The new timetable will remain in operation ***until June 30.***

2 *until/till* and *to*

To can sometimes be used as a preposition of time with the same meaning as *until/till.* This happens after *from* . . .

I usually work ***from nine to five.*** (OR . . . ***from nine until/till five.***)

We can also use *to* when counting the time until a future event.

It's another three weeks ***to*** *the holidays.* (OR . . . ***until/till the holidays.***)

In other cases, *to* is not generally used.

I waited for her ***until*** *six o'clock, but she didn't come.* (NOT ~~*I waited for her to six o'clock*~~ . . .)

For AmE *from* . . . *through*, see 592.

3 distance and quantity: *until/till* not used

Until/till is used only to talk about time. To talk about distance, we use *to, as far as* or *up to*; *up to* is also used to talk about quantity.

We walked ***as far as / up to*** *the edge of the forest.* (NOT . . . ~~*till the edge*~~ . . .)
The minibus can hold ***up to*** *thirteen people.* (NOT . . . ~~*until thirteen people.*~~)
You can earn ***up to*** *£500 a week in this job.*

4 tenses with *until*

Present tenses are used to refer to the future after *until* (see 580).

I'll wait ***until*** *she gets here.* (NOT . . . ~~*until she will get here.*~~) ▸

Present perfect and past perfect tenses can emphasise the idea of completion.
*You're not going home **until** you've **finished** that report.*
*I waited **until** the rain **had stopped**.*

5 structure with *Not until ...*

In a literary style it is possible to begin a sentence with *Not until ...*, using inverted word order in the main clause (see 302).
*Not **until** that evening **was she** able to recover her self-control.*
*Not **until** I left home **did** I begin to understand how strange my family was.*

6 *until* and *by*: states and actions

We use *until* to talk about a situation or state that will continue up to a certain moment. We use *by* (see 117) to say that an action or event will happen at or before a future moment. Compare:
– *Can I stay **until** the weekend?*
*Yes, but you'll have to leave **by** Monday midday at the latest.* (= at twelve on Monday or before.)
– *Can you repair my watch if I leave it **until** Saturday?*
*No, but we can do it **by** next Tuesday.* (NOT ... ~~until next Tuesday.~~)

7 *until* and *before*

Not until/till can mean the same as *not before*.
*I won't be seeing Judy **until/before** Tuesday.*
And both *until* and *before* can be used to say how far away a future event is.
*It'll be ages **until/before** we meet again.*
*There's only six weeks left **until/before** Christmas.*

603 up and down

1 'towards/away from the centre'

Up and *down* are not only used to refer to higher and lower positions. They can also refer to more or less important or central places. (Trains to London used to be called 'up trains', and trains from London 'down trains'.)
*The ambassador walked slowly **up** the room towards the Queen's throne.*
*She ran **down** the passage, out of the front door and **down** the garden.*
*We'll be going **down** to the country for the weekend.*
But in the US *downtown* refers to the central business/entertainment area.

2 north and south

People often use *up* and *down* for movements towards the north and south (perhaps because north is at the top of a map page).
*I work in London, but I have to travel **up** to Glasgow every few weeks.*

3 'along'

Sometimes both *up* and *down* are used to mean 'along', 'further on', with little or no difference of meaning.
*The nearest post office is about half a mile **up/down** the road.*

604 used + infinitive

1 meaning

We use *used* + **infinitive** to talk about past habits and states which are now finished.

I used to smoke, but now I've stopped. (NOT ~~*I was used to smoke*~~ . . .)
That bingo hall used to be a cinema.

past habits and states which are now finished

I used to smoke, but now I've stopped.

2 only past

Used to . . . has no present form (and no progressive, perfect, infinitive or *-ing* forms). To talk about present habits and states, we usually just use the simple present tense (see 462).

He smokes. (NOT ~~*He uses to smoke.*~~)
Her brother still collects stamps.

3 questions and negatives

When questions and negatives are written, they often have *did* . . . *used* instead of *did* . . . *use.*

What did people use(d) to do in the evenings before TV?
I didn't use(d) to like opera, but now I do.

The contraction *usedn't* is also possible.

I usedn't to like opera.

But the most common negative is *never used* . . . .

I never used to like opera.

In a formal style, questions and negatives without *do* are possible, but these are not very common.

I used not to like opera, but now I do. (OR *I used to not like opera* . . .)
Used you to play football at school?

These forms are not used in tags.

You used not to like him, did you? (NOT . . . ~~*used you?*~~)

4 when *used to* . . . is not used

Used to refers to things that happened at an earlier stage of one's life and are now finished: there is an idea that circumstances have changed. It is not used simply to say what happened at a past time, or how long it took, or how many times it happened.

I worked very hard last month. (NOT ~~*I used to work very hard last month.*~~)
I lived in Chester for three years. (NOT ~~*I used to live in Chester for three years.*~~)

▶

I went to France seven times last year. (NOT ~~*I used to go to France seven times last year.*~~)

5 word order

Mid-position adverbs (see 24) can go before or after *used*. The position before *used* is more common in an informal style.

I always used to be afraid of dogs. (informal)
I used always to be afraid of dogs. (formal)

6 pronunciation

Note the pronunciation of *used* /ju:st/ and *use* /ju:s/ in this structure.

7 *used* + infinitive and *be used to . . .ing*

Used + infinitive has a quite different meaning from *be used to . . .ing* (see next section). Compare:

I didn't use to drive a big car. (= Once I didn't drive a big car, but now I do.) (NOT ~~*I wasn't used to drive a big car.*~~)
I wasn't used to driving a big car. (= Driving a big car was a new and difficult experience – I hadn't done it before.)

For the difference between *used to* and *would*, see 633.8.

605 [be] used to

1 meaning

If a person *is used to* something, it is familiar; he or she has experienced it so much that it is no longer strange or new.

I've lived in Central London for six years now, so I'm used to the noise.
At the beginning I couldn't understand Londoners because I wasn't used to the accent.

2 structures

Be used to can be followed by *-ing* forms, but not infinitives (see 298.2).

I'm used to driving in London now, but it was hard at the beginning. (NOT ~~*I'm used to drive in London*~~ . . .)
It was a long time before she was used to working with old people.

Used is an adjective in this structure, and can be modified by *quite* or *very*.

I'm quite used to her little ways.

3 *get used to . . .ing* etc

Get, become and sometimes *grow* (see 128) can also be used before *used to (. . .ing)*.

You'll soon get used to living in the country.
Little by little, he became used to his new family.
It took them a long time to grow used to getting up in the night.

4 pronunciation

Note that *used* is pronounced /ju:st/ in this structure.

606 verb complementation: what can follow a verb?

1 different verbs, different structures

Different verbs can be followed by different kinds of word and structure. This is partly a matter of meaning: after a verb like *eat* or *break*, for instance, it is normal to expect a noun; after *try* or *stop*, it is natural to expect a verb. It is also partly a matter of grammatical rules that have nothing to do with meaning. Before an object, *wait* is followed by *for*; *expect* has no preposition. One can *tell somebody something*, but one cannot ~~*explain somebody something*~~. One *hopes to see somebody*, but one *looks forward to seeing somebody*. One *advises somebody to see the doctor*, but one does not ~~*suggest somebody to see the doctor*~~. Unfortunately there are no simple rules for this kind of problem; it is necessary to learn, for each verb, what kind of structures can follow it. A good dictionary will normally give this information.

2 verb + object; transitive and intransitive verbs

Some verbs are usually followed by nouns or pronouns that act as direct objects. In grammars these verbs are called 'transitive'. Examples are *invite*, *surprise*.

*Let's **invite Sally and Bruce**.* (BUT NOT ~~*Let's invite*~~.)
*You **surprised me**.* (BUT NOT ~~*You surprised*~~.)

Some verbs are not normally followed by direct objects. These are called 'intransitive'. Examples are *sit*, *sleep*.

*Do **sit down**.* (BUT NOT ~~*Do sit that chair*~~.)
*I usually **sleep** well.* (BUT NOT ~~*She slept the baby*~~.)

Many verbs can be both transitive and intransitive.

*England **lost the match**.* *Let's **eat**.*
*England **lost**.* *I can't **eat this**.*

Some transitive verbs can be followed by two objects (indirect and direct). For details, see 610.

*I'll **send you the form** tomorrow.*
*I'm going to **buy Sarah some flowers**.*

For verb structures used as objects, see paragraphs 8–10 below.
For structures with object complements, see paragraph 10 below.

3 *She opened the door / The door opened*

Some verbs are used transitively and intransitively with different kinds of subject; the intransitive use has a meaning rather like a passive (see 412) or reflexive (see 493) verb. Compare:

– *She **opened the door**.* – *The wind's **moving the curtain**.*
*The door **opened**.* *The curtain's **moving**.*

For more examples, see 609.

4 verbs with prepositions and particles

Many verbs need prepositions before their objects.

*Why are you **looking at** me like that?* (NOT ~~*Why are you looking me*~~ . . .?)
*I'd like you to **listen to** this.* (NOT . . . ~~*to listen this*~~.) ▸

Let's talk about your plans. (NOT ~~*Let's talk your plans.*~~)
The preposition is dropped when there is no object.
Look! (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~)
Other verbs can be used with adverb particles (see 20). Some of these combinations are transitive; others are intransitive.
We'll have to put off our visit to Scotland. *It's time to get up.*

For more about two-part verbs like these, see 599–600.

5 complements of place

Usually, a preposition is necessary before an expression of place.
She arrived at the station last night. (NOT ~~*She arrived the station*~~...)
Don't walk on the grass. (NOT ~~*Don't walk the grass.*~~)
A few verbs can be used with direct objects referring to place.
I like climbing mountains. (NOT ~~*I like climbing on mountains.*~~)
Some verbs are incomplete without an expression of place.
He lives in York. (BUT NOT ~~*He lives.*~~)
She got off the bus. (BUT NOT ~~*She got.*~~)

6 link verbs

Some verbs are followed not by an object, but by a subject complement – an expression which describes the subject. These are called 'link verbs'. For details, see 328.
Your room is a mess. *That looks nice.*
The toilets are upstairs. *I felt a complete idiot.*

7 verb + verb: auxiliaries

Many verbs can be followed by forms of other verbs. Auxiliary verbs are used with other verbs to make questions and negatives, progressive forms, perfect forms, and passives. For details, see 85.
Do you want some tea? *Where have you been?*
It doesn't matter. *These are made in France.*
Modal auxiliary verbs are used with other verbs to add ideas such as certainty, probability, futurity, permission and obligation. For details, see 353–354.
You must be tired. *The lecture will start at ten.*
The car may need a new engine. *Can I borrow your paper?*
We ought to invite the Maxwells this weekend.

8 verb + verb: other verbs

Many verbs besides auxiliaries can be followed by forms of other verbs (or by structures including other verbs). This can happen, for example, if we talk about our attitude to an action: the first verb describes the attitude and the second refers to the action. The second verb structure is often rather like the direct object of the first verb.
I enjoy playing cards.
I saw that she was crying. *I hope to see you soon.*
Different structures are possible, depending on the particular verb. Some verbs can be followed by infinitives with or without *to* (see 282–283), some verbs can be followed by *-ing* forms, with or without a preposition (see 296), and some by clauses. Many verbs can be followed by more than one of these structures,

often with a difference of meaning or use. For each verb, it is necessary to know which structures are possible.

We seem to have a problem. (NOT ~~*We seem having a problem.*~~)
Can I help wash up?
It's not very easy to stop smoking. (NOT ... ~~*to stop to smoke.*~~)
We're thinking of moving. (NOT ~~*We're thinking to move.*~~)
I suggest that you see a solicitor. OR *I suggest seeing a solicitor.*
(NOT ~~*I suggest you to see a solicitor.*~~)

Sometimes the first verb does not give information about the subject – it says more about the action which the second verb refers to.

I happened to see Alice the other day.
We're starting to get invited to some of the neighbours' parties.
My keys seem to have disappeared.

It is possible to have 'chains' of verbs following each other.

I keep forgetting to go shopping.
Don't let me stop you working.
He seems to be trying to sit up.
I don't want to have to get her to start telling lies.

9 verb + object + verb

Many verbs can be followed by an object as well as a verb structure.

Can I help you wash up?
I'd like you to meet Sally.
We all want you to be happy. (NOT ~~*We all want that you are happy.*~~)
We've got to stop him making a fool of himself.
When are you going to get the clock repaired?
Nobody told me that you were here.

For more about verb + object + infinitive, see 283.
For structures with object + *-ing* form, see 296.

10 verb + object + complement

Some transitive verbs can be followed by an object together with an object complement (an expression that gives more information about the object). For details, see 607.

You make me nervous. *Let's paint it blue.*

See the Index for problems with the structures after some common verbs.
For information about other verbs, see a good dictionary.

607 verb + object + complement

1 adjective and noun complements

Some transitive verbs can be followed by an object together with an object complement (an expression that gives more information about the object). This is often an adjective or noun phrase.

You make me nervous.
She's driving us crazy. *I find her attitude strange.*
Let's cut it short. *Don't call me a liar.* ▸

*I don't know why they elected **him President**.*
*Would you like to join the committee?~I would consider **it an honour**.*

A long and heavy object may come after the complement. Compare:
*He painted **the wall red**.* (NOT ~~*He painted red the wall.*~~)
*He painted **red all of the kitchen walls as well as the window frames and ceiling**.*

2 *see, describe* etc: structure with *as*

After some verbs, an object complement is introduced by *as*. This is common when we say how we see or describe somebody/something.
*I **see** you **as** a basically kind person.*
*She **described** her attacker **as** a tall dark man with a beard.*
*His mother **regards** him **as** a genius.*
*After tests, they **identified** the metal **as** gold.*

The structure is also possible with *as being*.
*The police do not regard him **as (being)** dangerous.*

3 verbs of thinking and feeling: structure with *to be*

Some verbs that refer to thoughts, feelings and opinions (e.g. *believe, consider, feel, know, find, understand*) can be followed by **object + infinitive** (usually *to be*) in a formal style. In an informal style, *that*-clauses are more common.
*I **considered him to be** an excellent choice.*
(Less formal: *I considered that he was . . .*)
*We **supposed them to be** married.*
(Less formal: *We supposed that they were . . .*)
*They **believed her to be** reliable.*
(Less formal: *They believed that she was reliable.*)

This structure is very unusual with *think*.
*I **thought that she was** mistaken.*
(More natural than *I thought her to be mistaken.*)

To be can be dropped after *consider*.
*I **considered him (to be)** an excellent choice.*

Passive forms of these structures may be less formal than active forms (see paragraph 6 below).

For more details of structures with *feel*, see 202; for *know*, see 313; for *think*, see 588.

4 *They found her (to be) . . .*

After *find* + **object**, *to be* suggests the result of a test or investigation. Compare:
– *Everybody **found her very pleasant**.*
*The doctors **found her to be perfectly fit**.*
– *I **found the bicycle very comfortable** to ride.*
*The testers **found this bicycle to be the best** value for money.*

5 structures with preparatory *it*

When the object of a verb is a clause, infinitive structure or *-ing* structure, and there is an object complement, it is common to use *it* as a preparatory object. Compare:
*She made **her views clear**.*
*She made **it clear that** she disagreed.* (NOT ~~*She made that she disagreed clear.*~~)

For details of this structure, see 447.

6 passive structures

Passive versions of these structures are common.

It was painted blue.
He was elected President.
Her attacker was described as a tall man with a beard.
The metal was identified as gold.
He is not regarded as being dangerous.
For a long time he was thought to be a spy.
She was believed to belong to a revolutionary organisation.
Seven people are understood to have been injured in the explosion.
It was considered impossible to change the date.

For the structures that are possible after a particular verb, see a good dictionary.

608 verbs of movement: she ran in etc

When we want to talk about a movement, its direction and its nature, there are several possibilities. We can use three separate words for the three ideas:

She came in running.

We can use a verb which includes the idea of direction, and describe the nature of the movement separately:

She entered running.

Or we can use a verb which makes clear the nature of the movement, and describe the direction separately:

She ran in.

In English, the third of these solutions is the most common.

She danced across the garden.
(More natural than *She crossed the garden dancing.*)
I jumped down the stairs.
(More natural than *I came down the stairs jumping.*)
They crawled out of the cellar.
We flew past Mont Blanc.

609 verbs with both active and passive meanings

1 *She opened the door / The door opened*

Some verbs are used transitively and intransitively with different kinds of subject. The intransitive use has a meaning rather like a passive (see 412) or reflexive (see 493) verb. Compare:

- *She opened the door.*
  The door opened.
- *The wind's moving the curtain.*
  The curtain's moving.
- *Marriage has really changed her.*
  She's changed a lot since she got married.
- *We're selling a lot of copies of your book.*
  Your book's selling well.
- *Something woke her.*
  Suddenly she woke.
- *I can't start the car.*
  The car won't start.

▸

2 *It scratches easily*

The intransitive structure is used with a lot of verbs that refer to things we can do to materials: for example *bend, break, crack, melt, polish, scratch, stain, tear, unscrew.*

Be careful what you put on the table – it scratches easily. (= You can easily scratch it.)
These glasses are so fragile: they break if you look at them.
The carpet's made of a special material that doesn't stain.
The handle won't unscrew – can you help me?

610 verbs with two objects

1 indirect and direct objects: *I gave John the keys*

Many verbs can have two objects – usually a person and a thing. This often happens with verbs that are used to talk about transferring or communicating things from one person to another, or doing things for somebody. A few other verbs are also used in this way. Common examples:

bet	*get*	*make*	*play*	*sell*	*teach*
bring	*give*	*offer*	*post*	*send*	*tell*
build	*kick*	*owe*	*promise*	*show*	*throw*
buy	*leave*	*pass*	*read*	*sing*	*wish*
cost	*lend*	*pay*	*refuse*	*take*	*write*

The thing that is given, sent, bought etc is called the 'direct object'; the person who gets it is the 'indirect object'. Most often, the indirect object comes first.

I bet you ten dollars you can't beat me at chess.
He built the children a tree-house.
Shall I buy you some chocolate while I'm out?
Could you bring me the paper?
The repair cost me a lot.
I gave John the keys.
If you're going upstairs, could you get me my coat?
He left his children nothing when he died.
Lend me your bike, can you?
I'll make you a cake tomorrow.
I owe my sister a lot of money.
Can I play you my new album?
I'll post her the report tomorrow.
They promised me all sorts of things.
Daddy, read me a story.
He sent his mother a postcard.
Let's take her some flowers.
Will you teach me poker?
We bought the children pizzas.
Throw me the ball.
We wish you a Merry Christmas.

Not all verbs with this kind of meaning can be used like this – see paragraph 6.

2 indirect object last: *I gave the keys to John*

We can also put the indirect object after the direct object. In this case it normally has a preposition (usually *to* or *for*).

I gave the keys to John.
I handed my licence to the policeman.
Mrs Norman sent some flowers to the nurse.
Mother bought the ice-cream for you, not for me.

3 two pronouns: *Lend them to her*

When both objects are pronouns, it is common to put the indirect object last. *To* is occasionally dropped after *it* in informal British English.

Lend them to her. *Send some to him.* *Give it (to) me.*

It is also possible to put the indirect object first.

Give her one. *Send him some.*

However, this structure is avoided in some cases: phrases ending with *it* or *them* (e.g. *He gave you it* or *Send them them*) are often felt to be unnatural.

4 *wh*-questions: *Who did you buy it for?*

Prepositions are used in *wh*-questions referring to the indirect object.

Who did you buy it for? (NOT ~~*Who did you buy it?*~~)
Who was it sent to? (NOT ~~*Who was it sent?*~~)

5 passives: *I've been given a picture*

When these verbs are used in passive structures, the subject is usually the person who receives something, not the thing which is sent, given etc.

I've just been given a lovely picture.
We were all bought little presents.

However, the thing which is given, sent etc can be the subject if necessary.

What happened to the stuff he left behind? ~ *Well, the picture was given to Mr Ferguson.*

For details of these passive structures, see 415.

6 structures with *donate, push, carry, explain, suggest, describe* and *take*

Not all verbs with this kind of meaning can be followed by **indirect object + direct object**. The structure is not possible, for example, with *donate, push, carry, explain, suggest* or *describe.*

They donated money to the museum. (BUT NOT ~~*They donated the museum money.*~~)
I pushed the plate to Ann. (BUT NOT ~~*I pushed Ann the plate.*~~)
He carried the baby to the doctor. (BUT NOT ~~*He carried the doctor the baby.*~~)
I'd like him to explain his decision to us. (BUT NOT ... ~~*to explain us his decision.*~~)
Can you suggest a good dentist to me? (BUT NOT ~~*Can you suggest me a good dentist?*~~)
Please describe your wife to us. (BUT NOT ~~*Please describe us your wife.*~~)

Take (to) can be used with **indirect object + direct object**, but not *take (from).*

I took her some money. (= I took some money to her, NOT ... from her.)

▶

7 one object or two

Some verbs can be followed by either a direct object, or an indirect object, or both.

I asked John. *I asked a question.* *I asked John a question.*

Other verbs like this include *teach, tell, pay, show, sing, play* and *write*. Note that when *sing, play* and *write* have no direct object, we put *to* before the indirect object. Compare:

– *Sing her a song.*
Sing to her. (NOT ~~*Sing her.*~~)
– *Write me a letter.*
Write to me when you get home.
(More common than *Write me* ... in standard British English.)

For structures with object complements (e.g. *They made him captain*), see 607.

611 very and very much

1 adjectives and adverbs: *very kind, very quickly*

We use *very*, not *very much*, before adjectives and adverbs.

You're very kind. (NOT ~~*You're very much kind.*~~)
The situation is very serious. (NOT ... ~~*very much serious.*~~)
I came very quickly. (NOT ... ~~*very much quickly*~~.)

However, *very much* is used before comparatives.

I'm very much happier in my new job. (NOT... ~~*very happier*~~...)

For *very* with superlatives (*very first, very best* etc), see 140.4.
For *the very same*, see 503.

2 *not very*

Not very expresses quite a low degree.

It's not very warm – you'd better take a coat.
That meal wasn't very expensive. (= quite cheap.)

Note that *little* cannot be used in this way.

He's not very imaginative. (NOT ~~*He's little imaginative.*~~)

3 past participles: *very much loved, very worried*

Before past participles we normally use *very much*.

She was very much loved by her grandchildren. (NOT ~~*She was very loved.*~~)
Journey times will be very much reduced by the new road. (NOT ... ~~*very reduced*~~...)

But we use *very* with some past participles that are used as adjectives. For details, see 410.4.

I'm very worried about Angela. (NOT ... ~~*very much worried*~~...)
We were very surprised when Pete passed his exam. (More common than ... *very much surprised* ...)

4 *very much* (adverb)

Very much can be an adverb.

We very much enjoyed the party. (NOT ~~*We very enjoyed.*~~)

We do not normally put *very much* between a verb and its object.
I very much like mountains. (NOT ~~*I like very much mountains.*~~)
Very much can also be a determiner before a noun.
She didn't have very much money.
Have you got very much work to do?
Very much is not often used as a determiner in affirmative clauses (see 357.5).
There was a lot of snow on the road. (NOT ~~*There was very much snow.*~~)

For *very . . . indeed*, see 273.

612 wait

Wait can be followed by an infinitive.
I'll wait to hear from you before I do anything.
Before a direct object, *wait for* is used.
Please wait for me here. (NOT ~~*Please wait me here.*~~)
That-clauses are not used, but an **object + infinitive** structure is possible.
We'll have to wait for the photos to be ready. (NOT . . . ~~*wait that the photos are ready.*~~)
The time preposition *for* is often dropped after *wait*.
I waited (for) a very long time for her answer.
The transitive verb *await* is formal, and is used mostly with abstract objects.
We're still awaiting instructions.

For the difference between *wait for* and *expect*, see 196.

613 want

1 infinitive with *to*

After *want*, we normally use an infinitive with *to*.
I don't want to come back here ever again. (NOT ~~*I don't want come back*~~. . .)
That-clauses are not normally used after *want*, but an **object + infinitive** structure (see 283) is possible.
Do you want me to make you some coffee? (NOT ~~*Do you want (that) I make you some coffee?*~~)
I don't want that woman to come here.

2 structure with object complement

Want can be followed by an object together with a complement (adjective, adverb or past participle) to express ideas such as change or result.
They wanted him dead. *She doesn't want him back.*
I want her out of there now. *We want the job finished by Tuesday.*
To be or *as* is used before a noun complement.
I want you to be my friend. (OR . . . *as my friend.* NOT ~~*I want you my friend.*~~)

3 *want* meaning 'need'

In informal British English, we can say that a thing 'wants' (= needs) something, particularly with reference to actions.
That car wants a clean. *Your hair wants a good brush.*
In this case, *want* can be followed by an *-ing* form (like *need* – see 366).
This coat wants cleaning. (= . . . needs to be cleaned.) ▸

4 'I wanna hold your hand'

In informal speech, *want to* often sounds like 'wanna'. It is sometimes spelt like this in order to represent conversational pronunciation – for example in comic strips.

For *to* used instead of a whole infinitive (e.g. *I don't want to, thanks*), see 182.
For *want* and *will*, see 629.8.

614 -ward(s)

Backward(s), forward(s), northward(s), outward(s) and similar words can be used as adjectives or adverbs.

1 adjectives

When they are used as adjectives, they do not have *-s*.

*This country is very **backward** in some ways.*
*You're not allowed to make a **forward** pass in rugby.*
*He was last seen driving in a **northward** direction.*

2 adverbs

When these words are adverbs, they can generally be used with or without *-s*. The forms with *-s* are generally a little more common in British English, and the forms without *-s* in American English.

*Why are you moving **backward(s)** and **forward(s)**?*
*If we keep going **upward(s)** we must get to the top.*
*Let's start driving **homeward(s)**.*

In some figurative expressions such as *look forward to, bring forward, put forward*, the form without *-s* is always used.

*I **look forward to** hearing from you.*
*She **put forward** a very interesting suggestion.*

3 other words

Towards and *afterwards* are the usual forms in British English; in American English, *toward* and *afterward* are also common.

615 way

1 preposition dropped

In an informal style, we usually drop the prepositions ***in*** or *by* before *way*.

*You're doing it **(in) the wrong way**.*
*Do it **(in) any way** you like.*
*Come **this way**.*
*We went there **the usual way**.*

2 relative structures

In an informal style, we often say *the way (that)* instead of *the way in/by which*.

*I don't like **the way (that)** you talk to me.*
*Let's go **the way (that)** we went yesterday.*

3 infinitive or *-ing*

After *way* (meaning 'method'/'manner') we can use an infinitive structure or *of...ing*. There is no important difference between the two structures.

There's no way to prove / of proving that he was stealing.

4 *way of* and *means of*

Way of is unusual before a noun (except in the common expression *way of life*). We use *means of* or *method of* instead.

The 19th century saw a revolution in means of transport. (NOT ...~~ways of transport.~~)

They tried all possible methods of instruction, but the child learnt nothing.

5 *in the way* and *on the way*

These expressions are quite different. *In the/my/*etc *way* is used for obstacles – things that stop people getting where they want to.

I can't get the car out because those boxes are in the way.

Please don't stand in the kitchen door – you're in my way.

On the/my etc *way* means 'during the journey/movement' or 'coming'.

We'll have lunch on our way. *Spring is on the way.*

For *by the way*, see 157.8.

616 weak and strong forms

1 What are weak and strong forms?

Some English words – for example *at, for, have, and, us* – have two pronunciations: one is used when they are not stressed, and the other when they are. Compare:

I'm looking at /ət/ *you.* *What are you looking at* /æt/*?*

2 stressed or not?

Most of these words are prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, articles and auxiliary verbs. Such words are not usually stressed, because they are generally found together with other more important words which carry the stress. So the unstressed ('weak') pronunciation is the normal one. This usually has the vowel /ə/ or no vowel; a few weak forms are pronounced with /ɪ/.
However, these words can be stressed when they are emphasised, or when there is no other word to carry the stress. In these cases the 'strong' pronunciation is used. This has the vowel that corresponds to the spelling. Compare:

- *I must* /məs/ *go now.*
  I really must /mʌst/ *stop smoking.* (stressed for emphasis)
- *I was* /wəz/ *late.*
  It was /wəz/ *raining.*
  Yes, it was /wɒz/. (stressed at end of sentence: there is no other word to be stressed.)
- *Where have* /əv/ *you been?*
  You might have /əv/ *told me.*
  What did you have /hæv/ *for breakfast?* (non-auxiliary verb) ▸

Contracted negatives always have a strong pronunciation.
can't /kɑːnt/ *mustn't* /ˈmʌsnt/ *wasn't* /ˈwɒznt/

3 list of words with weak and strong forms

The most important words which have weak and strong forms are:

	Weak form	Strong form
a	/ə/	/eɪ/ (unusual)
am	/(ə)m/	/æm/
an	/ən/	/æn/ (unusual)
and	/(ə)n(d)/	/ænd/
are	/ə(r)/	/ɑː(r)/
as	/əz/	/æz/
at	/ət/	/æt/
be	/bɪ/	/biː/
been	/bɪn/	/biːn/
but	/bət/	/bʌt/
can	/k(ə)n/	/kæn/
could	/kəd/	/kʊd/
do	/d(ə)/	/duː/
does	/dəz/	/dʌz/
for	/fə(r)/	/fɔː(r)/
from	/frəm/	/frɒm/
had	/(h)əd/	/hæd/
has	/(h)əz/	/hæz/
have	/(h)əv/	/hæv/
he	/(h)ɪ/	/hiː/
her	/(h)ə(r)/	/hɜː(r)/
him	/(h)ɪm/	/hɪm/
his	/(h)ɪz/	/hɪz/
is	/z, s/	/ɪz/
must	/m(ə)s(t)/	/mʌst/
not	/nt/	/nɒt/
of	/əv/	/ɒv/
our	/ɑː(r)/	/aʊə(r)/
saint	/s(ə)nt/ (BrE only)	/seɪnt/
shall	/ʃ(ə)l/	/ʃæl/
she	/ʃɪ/	/ʃiː/
should	/ʃ(ə)d/	/ʃʊd/
sir	/sə(r)/	/sɜː(r)/
some (see 546)	/s(ə)m/	/sʌm/
than	/ð(ə)n/	/ðæn/ (rare)
that (conj.)	/ð(ə)t/	/ðæt/
the	/ðə, ðɪ/	/ðiː/
them	/ð(ə)m/	/ðem/
there (see 586)	/ðə(r)/	/ðeə(r)/
to	/tə/	/tuː/
us	/əs/	/ʌs/
was	/w(ə)z/	/wɒz/
we	/wɪ/	/wiː/
were	/wə(r)/	/wɜː(r)/

	Weak form	Strong form
who	/hʊ/	/huː/
would	/wəd, əd/	/wʊd/
will	/w(ə)l/	/wɪl/
you	/jʊ/	/juː/
your	/jə(r)/	/jɔː(r)/

617 well

1 *well* and *good*

Well and *good* can have similar meanings, but in this case *well* is an adverb, while *good* is an adjective. Compare:

- *The car runs **well**.* (adverb modifying *runs*) (NOT ~~*The car runs good.*~~)
  *It's a **well**-made car.* (adverb modifying *made*)
  *It's a **good** car.* (adjective modifying *car*)
- *He teaches very **well**.*
  *I like that teacher. He's **good**.* (NOT ~~*He's well.*~~)
- *She speaks English **well**.* (NOT ~~*She speaks English good.*~~)
  *She speaks **good** English.*
  *Her English is **good**.*

Note that we cannot say ~~*She speaks well English.*~~ (Adverbs cannot usually go between the verb and the object – see 21.1.)

2 *well* = 'in good health'

There is also an adjective *well*, meaning 'in good health'.

*How are you? ~ Quite **well**, thanks.*
*I don't feel very **well**.*

Note that the adjective *well* is only used to talk about health. Compare:

*When I'm in the mountains I am always **well**.*
*When I'm with you I'm **happy**.* (NOT ~~*When I'm with you I'm well.*~~)

Well is not common before a noun. We can say *She's well*, but it is less usual to say, for example, *She's a well girl.*

For *ill* and *sick*, see 266. For *well* as a discourse marker, see 157.16,17,20.

618 when and if

A person who says *when* (referring to the future) is sure that something will happen. A person who says *if* is unsure whether it will happen. Compare:

- *I'll see you at Christmas **when** we're all at Sally's place.*
  (We are certain to be at Sally's place.)
  *I'll see you in August **if** I come to New York.*
  (Perhaps I'll come to New York, perhaps not.)

To talk about repeated, predictable situations and events (in the sense of 'whenever'), both *when* and *if* can be used with little difference of meaning.

When/If you heat ice it turns to water.
When/If I'm in Liverpool I usually stay with my sister.

619 where (to)

To is often dropped after *where.*

Where are you going (to)? *Where does this road lead (to)?*

To is not normally dropped in the short question *Where to?*

Could you send this off for me? ~ *Where to?*

For *where* in relative clauses, see 494.10

620 whether ... or ...

We can use *whether ... or ...* as a double conjunction, with a similar meaning to *It doesn't matter whether ... or ...*

The ticket will cost the same, whether we buy it now or wait till later.

Whether we go by bus or train, it'll take at least six hours.

Several structures are possible with *whether ... or not.*

Whether you like it or not, ...

Whether or not you like it, ...

Whether you like it or whether you don't, ...

For *whether* and *if*, see 621.

621 whether and if

1 indirect questions

Whether and *if* can both introduce indirect questions.

I'm not sure whether/if I'll have time.

I asked whether/if she had any letters for me.

After verbs that are more common in a formal style, *whether* is preferred.

We discussed whether we should close the shop.

(More normal than *We discussed if ...*)

In a formal style, *whether* is usually preferred in a two-part question with *or.*

The Directors have not decided whether they will recommend a dividend or reinvest the profits.

If an indirect question is fronted (see 513), *whether* is used.

Whether I'll have time I'm not sure at the moment.

2 prepositions

After prepositions, only *whether* is possible.

There was a big argument about whether we should move to a new house.

(NOT ... ~~*about if we should move*~~ ...)

I haven't settled the question of whether I'll go back home.

3 infinitives

Whether, but not *if*, is used before *to*-infinitives.

They can't decide whether to get married now or wait. (NOT ~~*They can't decide if to get married*~~ ...)

4 subject, complement and adverbial clauses

When a question-word clause is a subject or complement, *whether* is normally preferred.

Whether we can stay with my mother is another matter. (subject)
The question is whether the man can be trusted. (complement)

The question is if... is also possible, but less common.

The question is if the man can be trusted.

5 not used in echo questions

If and *whether* are not normally used in 'echo questions' (see 483).

Are you happy?~Am I happy? No! (NOT ...~~*If/Whether I'm happy?*~~...)

622 which, what and who: question words

1 *which* and *what*: the difference

Which and *what* are often both possible, with little difference of meaning.

Which/What is the hottest city in the world?
Which/What train did you come on?
Which/What people have influenced you most in your life?

We prefer *which* when we have a limited number of choices in mind.

We've got white or brown bread. Which will you have?
(More natural than ... *What will you have?*)
Which size do you want – small, medium or large?

When we are not thinking of a limited number of choices, *what* is preferred.

What language do they speak in Greenland?
(More natural than *Which language* ...)
What's your phone number? (NOT ~~*Which is your phone number?*~~)

2 determiners: *which* and *what*

Before nouns, *which* and *what* can be used to ask questions about both things and people.

Which teacher do you like best?
Which colour do you want - green, red, yellow or brown?
What writers do you like? *What colour are your baby's eyes?*

3 *which of*

Before another determiner (e.g. *the, my, these*) or a pronoun, we use *which of*. *Who* and *what* are not normally used with *of* like this in modern English.

Which of your teachers do you like best? (NOT ~~*Who/What of your teachers*~~...)
Which of us is going to do the washing up? (NOT ~~*Who of us*~~...?)
Which of these coats is yours? (NOT ~~*What of these*~~...?)

4 without nouns: *who* for people

When these words are not followed by nouns or pronouns, we generally use *who*, not *which*, for people.

Who won – Smith or Fitzgibbon? (NOT ~~*Which won*~~...?)
Who are you going out with – Lesley or Maria? ▸

However, *which* can be used in questions about people's identity, and *what* can be used to ask about people's jobs and functions.

Which is your husband? ~ *The one in jeans.*

So Janet's the Managing Director. What's Peter?

For the difference between *who* and *whom*, see 623.
For relative *who* and *which* (e.g. *the man who . . .*), see 494. For relative *what* (e.g. *what I need is . . .*), see 497.
For singular and plural verbs after *who* and *what*, see 532.3.

623 who and whom

Whom is unusual in informal modern English.

1 questions: *Who did they arrest?*

We normally use *who* as an object in questions.

Who did they arrest?

Prepositions usually come at the end of *who*-questions (see 452).

Who did she go with?

In a very formal style, *whom* is sometimes used.

Whom did they arrest? (formal)

Prepositions normally come before *whom*.

With whom did she go? (very formal)

2 relative clauses: *the man (who) we met*

In identifying relative clauses, (see 495), *whom* is unusual in an informal style. Either we leave out the object pronoun, or we use *that* or *who* (see 494–495 for details).

There's the man (that)/(who) we met in the pub last night.

In a formal style *whom* is more common.

She married a man whom she met at a conference.

In non-identifying relative clauses (see 495), we usually use *whom* as an object when necessary (but these clauses are uncommon in informal English).

This is John Perkins, whom you met at the sales conference.

I have a number of American relatives, most of whom live in Texas.

3 *who(m) he thought* etc

In a sentence like *He was trying to find an old school friend, who(m) he thought was living in New Zealand*, people are often unsure whether *whom* is possible (because it seems to be the object of the first following verb) or whether they should use *who* (because it is the subject of the second verb). *Who* is considered more correct, but *whom* is sometimes used. Another example:

There is a child in this class who(m) I believe is a musical genius.

In cases with a following infinitive, usage is mixed, but *whom* is considered more correct.

There is a child in the class who(m) I believe to be a musical genius.

624 who ever, what ever etc

These expressions show surprise or difficulty in understanding something.

Who ever is that strange girl with Roger?
What ever are you doing?
How ever did you manage to start the car? I couldn't.
When ever will I have time to write some letters?
Why ever did I marry you?

The expressions can also be written as single words: *whoever, whatever* etc. Note that *whose* and *which* are not used with *ever* in this way.

In an informal style, *on earth, the hell* (AmE also *in hell*) or *the fuck* (taboo – see 575) can be used instead of *ever*.

Who on earth is that strange girl? *Why the hell did I marry you?*
What the fuck is she talking about?

For the conjunctions *whoever, whatever*, etc, see 625.

625 whoever, whatever etc

1 meaning and use

Whoever means 'it doesn't matter who', 'any person who', or 'the unknown person who'. *Whatever, whichever, however, whenever* and *wherever* have similar 'open' meanings.

A word of this kind has a double function, like a relative pronoun or adverb (see 498.1). It acts as a subject, object or adverb in its own clause, but it also acts as a conjunction, joining its clause to the rest of the sentence. Examples:

Whoever phoned just now was very polite.
I'm not opening the door, whoever you are.
Send it to whoever pays the bills.
Whatever you do, I'll always love you.
Whatever is in that box is making a very funny noise.
Keep calm, whatever happens.
Spend the money on whatever you like.
Whichever of them you marry, you'll have problems.
We're free all next week. You'll be welcome whichever day you come.
However much he eats, he never gets fat.
People always want more, however rich they are.
However you travel, it'll take you at least three days.
Whenever I go to London I try to see Vicky.
You can come whenever you like.
Wherever you go, you'll find Coca-Cola.

2 *whoever, whichever* and *whatever*: subjects and objects

Whoever, whichever and *whatever* can be the subjects or objects of the verbs in their clauses. (Note that *whomever* is not used in modern English.)

Whoever directed this film, it's no good. (subject of *directed*)
Whoever you marry, make sure he can cook. (object of *marry*)
Whatever you say, I don't think he's the right man. (object of *say*) ▸

Whichever and *whatever* can also go with nouns as determiners.
Whichever room you use, make sure you clean it up afterwards.
Whatever problems you have, you can always come to me for help.
If you change your mind for whatever reason, just let me know.

3 clauses as subjects or objects

A clause with *whoever, whichever* and *whatever* can be the subject or object of the verb in the other clause.
Whoever told you that was lying. (subject of *was lying*)
I'll marry whoever I like. (object of *marry*)
Whichever climber gets to the top first will get a £5,000 prize. (subject of *will get*)
I'll take whichever tent you're not using. (object of *take*)
Whatever you want is fine with me. (subject of *is*)
Prisoners have to eat whatever they're given. (object of *eat*)

4 *whenever* = 'every time that'

Whenever can suggest repetition, in the sense of 'every time that'.
Whenever I see you I feel nervous.
I stay with Monica whenever I go to London.

5 *whoever* etc . . . *may*

May can be used to suggest ignorance or uncertainty.
He's written a book on the philosopher Matilda Vidmi, whoever she may be.
She's just written to me from Llandyfrdwy, wherever that may be.

6 leaving out the verb: *whatever his problems*

In a clause like *whatever his problems are*, where *whatever* is the complement of the verb *be*, it is possible to leave out the verb.
Whatever his problems, he has no right to behave like that.
A serious illness, whatever its nature, is almost always painful.
After *however* + **adjective**, we can leave out a **pronoun** + *be*.
A grammar rule, however true (it is), is useless unless it can be understood.

7 informal uses: short answers

In an informal style, these conjunctions are sometimes used as short answers.
When shall we start? ~ *Whenever.* (= Whenever you like.)
Potatoes or rice? ~ *Whichever.* (= I don't mind.)
Whatever is often used to mean 'I don't care' or 'I'm not interested'. This can sound rude.
What would you like to do? We could go and see a film, or go swimming. ~ *Whatever.*
Or whatever can mean 'or anything else'.
Would you like some orange juice or a beer or whatever?
If you play football or tennis or whatever, it does take up a lot of time.

8 *whatever* meaning 'at all'

After *any* and *no*, *whatever* can be used to mean 'at all'.
Don't you have any regrets whatever?
I can see no point whatever in buying it.

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In a formal style, *whatsoever* is sometimes used as an emphatic form of *whatever* in this structure.

For other uses of *whatever* and *however*, see a good dictionary.
For *who ever, what ever* etc, see 624.
For *no matter who/what/*etc, see 378.

626 whose: question word

1 with a noun or alone

The question word *whose* can be used with a noun as a determiner like *my, your* etc.

Whose car is that outside?
Whose garden do you think looks the nicest?

Whose can also be used alone, like *mine, yours* etc.

Whose is that car outside? *Whose is this?* ~ *Mine.*

2 prepositions

Prepositions can normally come either before *whose* (more formal) or at the end of the clause (less formal). See 452 for details.

For whose benefit were all these changes made?
Whose side are you on?

In short questions with no verb, prepositions can only come before *whose.*

I'm going to buy a car. ~ *With whose money?* (NOT ~~*Whose money with?*~~)

For the relative pronoun *whose*, see 496. For *whose* and *who's*, see 627.

627 whose and who's

Whose is a possessive word meaning 'of whom/which', used in questions and relative clauses. *Who's* is the contraction of *who is* or *who has.* Compare:

– *Whose is that coat?* (NOT ~~*Who's is that coat?*~~)
It was a decision whose importance was not realised at the time.
(NOT ... ~~*who's importance*~~ ...)
– *Do you know anybody who's going to France in the next few days?*
(NOT ... ~~*anybody whose going*~~ ...)
I've got a cousin who's never been to London. (NOT ... ~~*whose never been*~~ ...)

There is a similar confusion between *its* and *it's*: see 305.

628 why and why not

1 replies

We generally use *Why not?*, not *Why?*, in short replies to negative statements. Compare:

They've decided to move to Devon. ~ *Why?*
I can't manage tomorrow evening. ~ *Why not?*
(More natural than *Why?*)

Why not? can also be used to agree to a suggestion.

Let's eat out this evening. ~ *Yes, why not?* ▸

2 *Why should . . .?*

A structure with *why* followed by *should* can suggest surprise.
I wonder why she should want to go out with me.
The structure can also suggest anger or refusal to do something.
I don't see why we should have to pay for your mistake.
Give me a cigarette. ~ Why should I?

For a similar structure with *how*, see 482.2.

3 infinitive structures

Why can be followed by an infinitive without *to*. This structure can suggest that an action is unnecessary or pointless.
Why argue with him? He'll never change his mind. (NOT ~~*Why arguing*~~ . . .? OR ~~*Why to argue*~~ . . .?)
Why pay more at other shops? We have the best value.
Why not + infinitive without *to* is used to make suggestions.
Sandy's in a bad mood. ~ Why not give her some flowers?
Why don't . . .? can be used in the same way.
Why don't you give her some flowers?
Why don't we go and see Julie?

629 will: various uses

1 forms

Will is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). It has no *-s* in the third person singular; questions and negatives are made without *do*; after *will*, we use an infinitive without *to*.
Will the train be on time?
Contractions are *'ll, won't*.
Do you think it'll rain? *It won't rain.*
Would is used as a past or less definite form of *will* for some of its meanings; for details, see 633.

2 future auxiliary

We can use *will* as an auxiliary verb when we talk about the future. For details, see 212.
I will be happy when this is finished.
This time tomorrow I'll be sitting in the sun.
He will have finished the whole job by this evening.

3 certainty

Will can express certainty or confidence about present or future situations.
As I'm sure you will understand, we cannot wait any longer for our order.
Don't phone them now – they'll be having dinner.
There's somebody coming up the stairs. ~ That'll be Mary.
Tomorrow will be cloudy, with some rain.
Will have + past participle refers to the past.
Dear Sir, You will recently have received a form . . .
We can't go and see them now – they'll have gone to bed.

4 willingness and decisions

Will can express the speaker's willingness, or announce a decision.
Can somebody help me? ~ *I* ***will.***
There's the doorbell. ~ *I'll go.*
Will can express a firm intention, a promise or a threat.
I really ***will*** *stop smoking.*
I'll definitely pay you back next week.
I'll kill her for this.
We can use *will not* or *won't* to talk about unwillingness or refusal.
She ***won't*** *open the door.*
Give me a kiss. ~ *No, I* ***won't.***
The car ***won't*** *start.*
Would not can refer to past refusal.
She ***wouldn't*** *open the door.* *The car* ***wouldn't*** *start this morning.*

For details of these uses, see 217.

5 requests, orders and offers

We use *will you* to tell people what to do.
Will you send me the bill, please?
Come this way, ***will you?*** ***Will you*** *be quiet!*
Would you is 'softer', more polite.
Would you *send me the bill, please?*
Come this way, ***would you?***
Will you . . .? can also be used to ask about people's wishes.
Will you *have some more potatoes?* *What* ***will you*** *drink?*
Won't you . . .? expresses a pressing offer.
Won't you *have some more wine?*
Will can be used in affirmative structures to give impersonal, military-type orders.
All staff ***will*** *submit weekly progress reports.*

6 distancing: *I'll have to ask you . . .*

Instructions and orders can be made less direct by 'distancing' (see 436) – for example by using *will* to displace them into the future.
I'm afraid you'll need to fill in this form.
I'll have to ask you to wait a minute.
And *will* is sometimes used to say how much money is owed.
That ***will*** *be £1.65, please.*

7 typical behaviour

We can use *will* to talk about typical behaviour.
She'll sit talking to herself for hours.
When you look at clouds they ***will*** *often remind you of animals.*
If something breaks down and you kick it, it ***will*** *often start working again.*
Sulphuric acid ***will*** *dissolve most metals.*
Stressed *will* can be used to criticise people's typical behaviour.
She WILL *fall in love with the wrong people.*
Well, if you WILL *keep telling people what you think of them . . .*
Would is used in a similar way to refer to the past. For details, see 633.7. ▸

8 *will* and *want*

Will and *want* can both be used to talk about wishes, but they are rather different. *Will* is used mostly in 'interpersonal' ways, to express wishes that affect other people through orders, requests, offers, promises etc. *Want* simply refers to people's wishes – nothing more. *Will* is to do with actions, *want* is to do with thoughts. Compare:

– *Will you open the window?* (an order)
  Do you want to open the window? (a question about somebody's wishes)
– *She won't tell anybody.* (= She refuses to . . .)
  She doesn't want to tell anybody. (= She prefers not to . . .)

Note that *will* cannot be used with a direct object.
  Do you want / Would you like an aspirin? (NOT ~~*Will you an aspirin?*~~)

For a comparison between *will* and *going to*, see 216, 218.

630 wish

1 *wish* + infinitive

We can use *wish* + **infinitive** to mean *want*. *Wish* is very formal in this sense. Note that progressive forms are not used.
  I wish to see the manager, please. (NOT ~~*I'm wishing to see*~~. . .)
  If you wish to reserve a table, please telephone after five o'clock.

An **object + infinitive** structure is also possible.
  We do not wish our names to appear in the report.

Wish + **direct object** is not normal without a following infinitive.
  I want / would like an appointment with the manager. (NOT ~~*I wish an appointment with the manager*~~.)

2 *I wish you . . .*

Wish is used with two objects in some fixed expressions of good wishes.
  I wish you a Merry Christmas.
  We all wish you a speedy recovery.
  Here's wishing you all the best in your new job.

3 *wish* + *that*-clause: meaning

We can also use *wish* with a *that*-clause (*that* can be dropped in an informal style). In this case, *wish* does not mean 'want' – it expresses regret that things are not different, and refers to situations that are unreal, impossible or unlikely. Tenses are similar to those used with *if* (see below).
  I wish (that) I was better looking.
  Don't you wish (that) you could fly?
  We all wish (that) the snow would stay forever.

Wish + *that*-clause is not generally used for wishes about things that seem possible in the future. We often use *hope* in this sense (see 250).
  I hope you pass your exams. (NOT ~~*I wish you would pass your exams*~~.)
  I hope you feel better tomorrow. (NOT ~~*I wish you felt better tomorrow*~~.)

4 *wish* + *that*-clause: tenses

In a *that*-clause after *wish*, we generally use the same tenses as we would use, for instance, after 'It would be nice if . . .' (see 258). Past tenses are used with a present or future meaning.

I wish I spoke French. (= It would be nice if I spoke French.)
I wish I had a yacht. *I wish tomorrow was Sunday.*
All the staff wish you weren't leaving so soon.
Do you ever wish you lived somewhere else?

Were can be used instead of *was* in this structure, especially in a formal style.

I wish that I were better looking.

Past perfect tenses are used for wishes about the past.

I wish you hadn't said that. (= It would be nice if you hadn't said that.)
Now she wishes she had gone to university.

In informal speech, sentences like *I wish you'd have seen it* sometimes occur. For similar structures with *if*, see 262.

5 *wish . . . would*

Would is very common in *that*-clauses after *wish* (much more common than it is in *if*-clauses). Sentences with *wish . . . would* express regret or annoyance that something will not happen.

Everybody wishes you would go home. (= Why won't you go home?)
I wish you would stop smoking. (= Why won't you stop smoking?)
I wish the postman would come soon. (But it looks as if he won't.)
I wish it would stop raining. (= It will keep on raining!)
Don't you wish that this moment would last for ever?

Sentences with *wish . . . wouldn't* refer to things that do or will happen.

I wish you wouldn't keep making that stupid noise.
(= You will keep making . . .)

Wish . . . would(n't) can be like an order or a critical request. Compare:

- *I wish you wouldn't drive so fast.* (Similar to *Please don't drive so fast.*)
  I wish you didn't drive so fast. (More like *I'm sorry you drive so fast.*)
- *I wish you wouldn't work on Sundays.* (= Why don't you stop?)
  I wish you didn't work on Sundays. (= It's a pity.)

For similar structures with *if only*, see 265.
For other cases where past tenses have present or future meanings, see 426.

631 with

1 *trembling with rage, blue with cold* etc

With is used in a number of expressions which say how people are showing their emotions and sensations.

My father was trembling with rage.
Annie was jumping up and down with excitement.
When I found her she was blue with cold.

white with fear/rage	*green with envy*
red with anger/embarrassment	*shivering with cold* ▸

2 *angry with* etc

With is also used after a number of adjectives which say how people are feeling towards others.

*I'm cross **with** you.* *furious **with*** *upset **with***
*angry **with*** *pleased **with***

After words which say how people act towards others (like *kind, nice, polite, rude, good*), we generally use *to*, not *with*.

*She was very **nice to** me.* (NOT ... ~~*nice with me*~~.)

3 *with* meaning 'against'

After *fight, struggle, quarrel, argue, play* and words with similar meanings, *with* can be used with the same meaning as *against*.

*Don't **fight with** him – he's bigger than you are.*
*Will you **play** chess **with** me?*

4 accompanying circumstances and reasons

With can introduce accompanying circumstances or reasons (rather like *and there is/was* or *because there is/was*).

*The runners started the race **with a light following wind**.*
With all this work to do, I won't have time to go out.
With friends like you, who needs enemies?

Without can be used in similar ways.

Without Sue and Jake, we're going to have trouble finishing the repairs.

5 possession

With is very often used, like *have*, to indicate possession and similar ideas.

*There are so many people around **with no homes**.*
(= ... who have no homes.)
*They've bought a house **with a big garden**.*

6 clothing, voices, transport etc

Note that *in* is often used instead of *with* to refer to articles of clothing.

*Who's the man **in the funny hat**?*
*Could you go and give this paper to the woman **in glasses**?*

We say *in a ... voice*, NOT ~~*with a*~~ ... ~~*voice*~~.

*Why are you talking **in such a loud voice**?*

Note also: *by car/train* etc (NOT ~~*with the car*~~ etc), and *write in pencil/ink*.

For the difference between *by* and *with*, see 119.

632 worth

1 *worth a lot*, etc

Worth can be followed by an expression describing the value of something.

*That piano must be **worth a lot**.*
*I don't think their pizzas are **worth the money**.*
*Shall I talk to Rob? ~ It's not **worth the trouble**.*

In questions about value, either *what* or *how much* can be used.

What / How much is that painting worth?

2 *a million dollars' worth of . . .*

A possessive can be used before *worth* in expressions with numbers.
*They've ordered **a million dollars' worth of** computer software.*

3 *It's worth talking to Joe; Joe's worth talking to*

To talk about the value of an activity, we can use an *-ing* form with *worth*. The *-ing* clause cannot be the subject; we often use preparatory *it*.
*It's **worth talking** to Joe.* (NOT ~~*Talking to Joe is worth*~~.)
*It isn't **worth repairing** the car.*
*Is it **worth visiting** Leicester?*
We can also use a structure in which the object of the *-ing* form (*Joe, the car, Leicester*) is made the subject of the sentence.
*Joe's **worth talking** to.*
*The car isn't **worth repairing**.* (NOT ~~*The car isn't worth repairing it*~~. OR ~~*The car isn't worth to be repaired*~~.)
*Is Leicester **worth visiting**?*

For more about structures in which the object of a verb is the subject of the sentence (e.g. *She's easy to amuse*), see 284.4.

4 *It's worth it*

We often use *It's (not) worth it* to say whether something is worth doing.
*If you pay a bit more you get a room to yourself I think **it's worth it**.*
*Shall we go and see the castle? ~ No, **it's not worth it**.*

5 *worthwhile*

Worthwhile (or *worth while*) is sometimes used instead of *worth*, particularly to express the idea 'worth spending time'.
*Is it **worthwhile** visiting Leicester?*
Infinitives are also possible after *worthwhile*.
*We thought it might be **worthwhile** to compare the two years' accounts.*
Note also the structure *worth somebody's while*.
*Would you like to do some gardening for me? I'll make it **worth your while**.*
(= . . . I'll pay you enough.)

6 *well worth*

Worth can be modified by *well*.
*Leicester's **well worth** visiting.* (NOT . . . ~~*very worth*~~ . . .)

633 would: various uses

1 forms

Would, the past form of *will*, is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). Questions and negatives are made without *do*; after *would*, we use an infinitive without *to*.
Would your daughter like to play with my little girl?
Contractions are *'d, wouldn't*.
I'd like some advice, please.
I wish she wouldn't take things so seriously. ▸

2 *would* and *will*

Would is used as a softer, less definite form of *will* (see 629), or in some cases as the past of *will*.

3 indirect speech

In indirect speech, *would* is used after past reporting verbs where *will* was used in direct speech. For details, see 275.

DIRECT SPEECH: *Tomorrow will be fine.*
INDIRECT SPEECH: *The forecast said the next day **would** be fine.*

Would itself does not usually change in indirect speech (see 278).

DIRECT SPEECH: ***Would** you like some help?*
INDIRECT SPEECH: *She asked if I **would** like some help.*

4 future in the past

Would is also used to express the idea of 'future in the past' – to talk about a past action which had not yet happened at the time we are talking about. For details, see 221.

*In Berlin, he first met the woman whom he **would** one day marry.*
*There was a chance that my letter **would** arrive in time.*

5 interpersonal uses

Would is used in polite requests and offers as a softer form of *will*.

***Would** you open the window, please?*
*If you **would** come this way . . .*
***Would** you mind standing up for a moment?*
***Would** you like tea, or **would** you prefer coffee?*

6 past willingness and refusals

Would can refer to past willingness of a general kind, but not to willingness to do something on a particular past occasion. Compare:

*She **would** hoover, dust and iron, but she didn't like doing windows.*
*She **agreed** to come and see me.* (NOT ~~*She would come and see me.*~~)

But *would not* can be used to refer to a refusal on a particular past occasion.

*I asked him very politely, but he **wouldn't** tell me.*
*The car **wouldn't** start again this morning.*

For present refusals with *will not / won't*, see 629.4.

7 typical behaviour

Would is used as the past of *will* (see 629.7) to talk about typical behaviour in the past.

*When she was old, she **would** sit in the corner talking to herself for hours.*
*Sometimes he **would** bring me little presents without saying why.*
*On Sundays when I was a child we **would** all get up early and go fishing.*

Sentences with stressed *would* can be used to criticise people's behaviour.

He was a nice boy, but he WOULD talk about himself all the time.

Stressed *would* can also be used to criticise a single past action – the meaning is 'that's typical of you'.

You WOULD tell Mary about the party – I didn't want to invite her.

8 *would* and *used to*

Used to (see 604) can refer to repeated actions and events in the past, in the same way as *would*.

*When she was old, she **used to** sit in the corner talking to herself for hours.*
*Sometimes he **used to** bring me little presents without saying why.*

But only *used to* can refer to past states. Compare:

*When we were children we **would / used to** go skating every winter.*
*I **used to** have an old Rolls-Royce.* (BUT NOT ~~*I would have an old Rolls-Royce.*~~)

And we use *used to*, not *would*, to talk about regular and important habitual behaviour.

*Robert **used to** play a lot of football.* (NOT ~~*Robert would play*~~ . . .)
*I **used to** smoke.* (NOT ~~*I would smoke.*~~)

9 conditional auxiliary: *I would . . . if*

Would (first person also *I/we should* – see 258) is often used as an auxiliary with verbs that refer to unreal or uncertain situations – for example in sentences with *if*. (Compare the use of *will/shall* to refer to more definite situations.)

*I **would/should tell** you if I knew.*
*It **would have been** nice if he'd thanked you.*
*We **would/should** like to talk to you for a minute.*

For *would* after *wish*, see 630.5. For *would* after *if only*, see 265.

634 yes and no

1 answers to negatives

In English, *yes* is used with affirmative sentences and *no* with negative sentences. In answers to negative questions and statements, *yes* and *no* are chosen according to the form of the answer, not in order to show agreement or disagreement with the speaker.

*Aren't you going out? ~ **No, I'm not.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I'm not.*~~)
*I have no money. ~ **No, I haven't either.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I haven't too.*~~)
*Haven't you got a raincoat? ~ **Yes, I have.*** (NOT ~~*No, I have.*~~)

2 contradicting

Some languages have a special word for contradicting negative statements or suggestions (e.g. French *si* or German *doch*). English does not have a word like this. We often use a short answer structure (see 517).

*The phone isn't working. ~ **(Yes,) it is.*** (NOT ~~*The phone isn't working.*~~ ~ ~~*Yes.*~~)

Affirmative sentences are contradicted with negative short answers.

*It's raining. ~ **(No,) it isn't.***

For more about negative questions, see 368.
For *yes* and *no* in answers to *Do/Would you mind . . .?*, see 351.

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English Grammar FOR DUMMIES®

2ND EDITION

by Geraldine Woods

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About the Author

Geraldine Woods began her education when teachers still supplied ink wells to their students. She credits her 35-year career as an English teacher to a set of ultra-strict nuns armed with thick grammar books. She lives in New York City, where with great difficulty she refrains from correcting signs containing messages such as "Bagel's for sale." She is the author of more than 40 books, including *English Grammar Workbook For Dummies, Research Papers For Dummies, College Admission Essays For Dummies,* and *The SAT 1 Reasoning Test For Dummies.*

Dedication

I dedicated the first edition of *English Grammar For Dummies* to my husband and son, who were then — and remain — the hearts of my life. Since the first edition was published, I've acquired two new hearts: my daughter-in-law and granddaughter. This book is dedicated with great love to all of them.

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I owe thanks to my colleagues in the English Department of the Horace Mann School, who are always willing to discuss the finer points of grammar with me. Keeping me up to date on technology and language were Gresa Matoshi, Eliza Montgomery, Sam Schalman-Bergen, and. I appreciate the work of Susan Hobbs and Martha Payne, editors whose attention and intelligence guided my writing. Any errors that remain are mine alone. I also appreciate the efforts of Lisa Queen, my agent, and of Stacy Kennedy, Wiley acquisitions editor.

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Introduction

When you're a grammarian, people react to you in interesting — and sometimes downright strange — ways. When the first edition of *English Grammar For Dummies* came out in 2001, an elderly man asked me about something that had puzzled him for eight decades: Why did his church, St. Paul's, include an apostrophe in its name? (For the answer, turn to Chapter 11.) My nephew called to inquire whether his company's sign in Times Square should include a semicolon. I said no, though the notion of a two-story-tall neon semicolon *was* tempting. Lots of people became tongue-tied, sure that I was judging their choice of *who* or *whom*. They worried needlessly, because I consider myself off-duty when I'm not teaching or writing.

In this second edition of *English Grammar For Dummies*, I explain modern, up-to-the-minute usage. Grammar *does* change, though usually an elderly snail moves faster than a grammarian pondering whether to drop a comma. As the world is now texting, tweeting, and PowerPointing all over the place, this edition of *English Grammar For Dummies* shows you how to handle all sorts of electronic communications, with special attention to business situations. In the current fragile economy, you need every possible edge, and proper grammar is always an advantage. Besides, you don't want to sit around deciding how to create a grammatically correct bullet point when you could be lobbying the boss for a raise.

If you're at a desk and *not* getting paid, you still need good grammar. No matter what subject you're studying, teachers favor proper English. Also, the SAT — that loveable exam facing college applicants — added a writing section recently. It's heavy on grammar and, ironically, light on writing. This book covers all the material likely to be tested on the SAT and the ACT (another fun hurdle of the college-admissions process) and alerts you to exam favorites with a special new icon. If you're aiming for higher education, *English Grammar For Dummies,* 2nd Edition, will raise your standardized-test scores.

As in the first edition, in this book, I tell you the tricks of the grammar trade, the strategies that help you make the right decision when you're facing such grammatical dilemmas as the choice between *I* and *me, had gone* and *went,* and so forth. I explain *what* you're supposed to do, but I also tell you *why* a particular word is correct or incorrect. You won't have to memorize a list of meaningless rules (well, maybe a couple from the punctuation chapter!) because when you understand the reason for a particular choice, you'll pick the correct word automatically.

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About This Book

In *English Grammar For Dummies*, 2nd Edition, I concentrate on what English teachers call the common errors. You don't have to read this book in order, though you can, and you don't have to read the whole thing. Just browse through the table of contents and look for things that you often get wrong. Or, turn to Chapter 1 where you'll find a list of the usage issues voted "most likely to succeed" — in giving you a headache.

How to Use This Book

Each chapter introduces some basic ideas and then shows you how to choose the correct sentence when faced with two or three alternatives. If I define a term — linking verbs, for example — I show you a practical situation in which identifying a linking verb matters — in choosing the right pronoun, perhaps. I center the examples in the text so that you can find them easily. One good way to determine whether or not you've mastered a particular section is to try the pop quizzes sprinkled around every chapter. If you get the right answer, move on. If you're puzzled, however, backtrack through the relevant section. Also, watch for Demon icons. They identify the little things — the difference between two similar words, commonly misused words, and so on — that may sabotage your writing.

What You Are Not to Read

I tried to resist, but here and there throughout this book I threw in some advanced grammatical terminology. No human being in the history of the world has ever needed to know those terms for any purpose connected with speaking and writing correct English. In fact, I recommend that you skip them and go skateboarding instead. For those of you who actually enjoy obscure terminology for the purpose of, say, clearing a room within ten seconds, feel free to revel in such exciting grammatical terms as *subjective complement* and *participial phrase.* Everyone else, fear not: These terms are clearly labeled and completely skippable.

Foolish Assumptions

I wrote the second edition of *English Grammar For Dummies* with a specific person in mind. I assume that you, the reader, already speak English to some extent and that you want to speak it better. I also assume that you're a busy person with better things to do than worry about pronouns. You want

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to speak and write well, but you don't want to get a doctorate in English Grammar. (Smart move. Doctorates in English probably move you up on the salary scale less than any other advanced degree, except maybe Doctorates in Philosophy.)

This book is for you if you want

- Better grades
- Skill in communicating exactly what you mean
- A higher-paying or higher-status job
- Speech and writing that presents you as an educated, intelligent person
- A good score on the SAT I Writing or the ACT exam
- Polished skills in English as a second language

How This Book Is Organized

The first two parts of this book cover the basics, the minimum for reasonably correct English. Part III addresses what English teachers call *mechanics* — not the people in overalls who aim grease guns at your car, but the nuts and bolts of writing: punctuation and capital letters. A number of punctuation and capitalization rules have changed in recent year, but rest assured. *English Grammar For Dummies,* 2nd Edition contains all the new-and-improved standards. Parts IV and V — considerably longer in the second edition than the first — hit the points of grammar that separate regular people from Official Grammarians. In those parts, you find the stuff that appears in a starring role on standardized tests or in executive memos. If you understand the information in Parts IV and V, you'll have a fine time finding mistakes in the daily paper, score big on the SAT and ACT, and impress the authority figures in your life — your boss, English teacher, badminton coach, whatever.

Here's a more specific guide to navigating *English Grammar For Dummies.*

Part I: Getting Down to Basics: The Parts of the Sentence

This part explains how to distinguish between the three Englishes — the breezy slang of friend-to-friend chat, the slightly more proper conversational language, and the I'm-on-my-best-behavior English. I pay special attention to the intersection between these "languages" and the technology transmitting them — texting, for example. I explain the building blocks of a sentence, subjects and verbs, and show you how to put them together properly. In this

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part, I also provide a guide to the complete sentence, telling you what's grammatically legal and what's not (a favorite topic on standardized tests). I also define objects and linking-verb complements and show you how to use each effectively.

Part II: Avoiding Common Errors

In this part, I describe other members of Team Grammar — the two types of descriptive words (adjectives and adverbs) and prepositions — the bane of many speakers of English as a second language. Of course, I give tips for correct usage and explain how to avoid tiny missteps that wreck your writing. In this part I tell you how to avoid mismatches between singular and plural words, by far the most common mistake in ordinary speech and writing. Part II also contains an explanation of pronoun gender. Reading this section will help you avoid sexist pronoun usage.

Part III: No Garage, but Plenty of Mechanics

If you've ever asked yourself whether you need a capital letter or if you've sometimes gotten lost in quotation marks and semicolons, Part III is for you. I explain all the rules that govern the use of the worst invention in the history of human communication: the apostrophe. I also show you how to quote speech or written material and where to place the most common (and the most commonly misused) punctuation mark, the comma. I outline the ins and outs of capital letters: when you need them, when you don't, and when they're optional. I also devote an entire section to the newest punctuation mark — the bullet point — and show you how to create proper presentation slides. Lastly, I tackle texting and e-mail, especially as they're used in the business world.

Part IV: Polishing Without Wax — The Finer Points of Grammar

Part IV inches up on the pickiness scale — not all the way to Grammar Heaven, but at least as far as the gate. In this part, I tell you the difference between subject and object pronouns and pronouns of possession. (You need an exorcist.) I also go into detail on verb tenses, explaining which words to use for all sorts of situations. I show you how to distinguish between

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active and passive verbs and how to use each type properly. I illustrate some common errors of sentence structure and tackle comparisons — both how to form them and how to ensure that your comparisons are logical and complete. Finally, I explain parallelism, an English teacher's term for balance and order in the sentence.

Part V: Rules Even Your Great-Aunt's Grammar Teacher Didn't Know

Anyone who masters the material in Part V has the right to wear a bun and tsk-tsk a lot. This part covers the moods of verbs (ranging from grouchy to just plain irritable) and explains how to avoid double-negative errors. Part V also gives you the last word on pronouns, those little parts of speech that make everyone's life miserable. The dreaded *who/whom* section is in this part, as well as the explanation for all sorts of errors of pronoun reference. I explain subordinate clauses and verbals, which aren't exactly a hot stock tip, but a way to bring more variety and interest to your writing. (The SAT and ACT are big fans of these topics.) I also give you some other pointers on writing with style, even in a 140-character tweet.

Part VI: The Part of Tens

Part VI is the Part of Tens, which offers some quick tips for better grammar. Here I show you ten methods for fine-tuning your proofreading skills. I also suggest ways (apart from *English Grammar For Dummies*) to improve your ear for proper English.

Icons Used in This Book

Wherever you see this icon, you'll find helpful strategies for understanding the structure of the sentence or for choosing the correct word form.

Not every grammar trick has a built-in trap, but some do. This icon tells you how to avoid common mistakes as you construct a sentence.

Think you know how to find the subject in a sentence or choose the correct verb tense? Take the pop quizzes located throughout this book to find out what you know and what you may want to learn.

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Keep your eye out for these little devils; they point out the difference between easily confused words and show you how to make your sentence say what you want it to say.

Are you hoping to spend some time behind ivy-covered walls? To put it another way: Are you aiming for college? Then you should pay special attention to the information next to this icon because college-admissions testers *love* this material.

Where to Go from Here

Now that you know what's what and where it is, get started. Before you do, however, one last word. Actually, two last words: *Trust yourself.* You already know a lot. If you're a native speaker, you've communicated in English all of your life, including the years before you set foot in school and saw your first textbook. If English is an acquired language for you, you've probably already learned a fair amount of vocabulary and grammar, even if you don't know the technical terms. For example, you already understand the difference between

> The dog bit Agnes.
>
> and
>
> Agnes bit the dog.

You don't need me to tell you which sentence puts the dog in the doghouse and which sentence puts Agnes in a padded room. So take heart. Browse the table of contents, check out Chapter 1, and dip a toe into the Sea of Grammar. The water is fine.

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Part I

Getting Down to Basics: The Parts of the Sentence

The 5th Wave By Rich Tennant

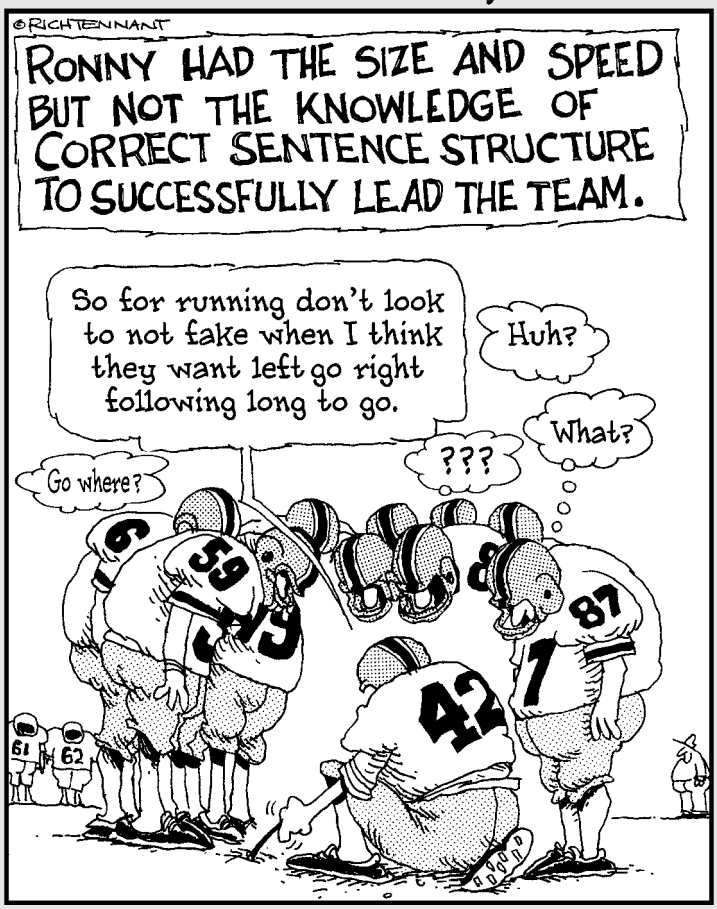

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In this part . . .

So it's like, communication, y'know?

Can you make a statement like that without bringing the grammar police to your door? Maybe. Read Chapter 1 for a discussion of formal and informal language and a guide to when each is appropriate, whether you're speaking, texting, or writing with a quill pen. The rest of this part explains the building blocks of the sentence. Chapter 2 shows you how to find the verb, and Chapter 3 tells you what to do with it once you've got it. Chapter 4 provides a road map to the subject of the sentence and explains the basics of matching subjects and verbs properly. Chapter 5 is all about completeness — why the sentence needs it and how to make sure that the sentence gets it. In Chapter 6, I explore the last building block of a sentence — the complement.

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Chapter 1

I Already Know How to Talk. Why Should I Study Grammar?

In This Chapter

- Distinguishing between the three Englishes
- Choosing language according to audience, message, and medium
- Using computer grammar checkers properly

In the Middle Ages, *grammar* meant the study of Latin, the language of choice for educated people. In fact, grammar was so closely associated with Latin that the word referred to any kind of learning. This meaning of *grammar* shows up when people of grandparent-age and older talk about their *grammar school,* not their elementary school. The term *grammar school* is a leftover from the old days. The very old days.

These days *grammar* is the study of language, specifically, how words are put together. Because of obsessive English teachers and their rules, grammar also means a set of standards that you have to follow in order to speak and write better. However, the definition of *better* changes according to situation, purpose, and audience. In this chapter, I show you the difference between formal and informal English and explain when each is called for. I also tell you what your computer can and can't do to help you write proper English and give you some pointers about appropriate language for texting, tweeting, instant messaging, and similar technology.

Deciding Which Grammar to Learn

I can hear the groan already. *Which* grammar? You mean there's more than one? Yes, there are actually several different types of grammar, including *historical* (how language has changed through the centuries) and *comparative* (how languages differ from or resemble each other). Don't despair; in *English Grammar For Dummies,* I deal with only two — the two you have to know in order to improve your speech and writing.

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Descriptive grammar gives names to things — the parts of speech and parts of a sentence. When you learn descriptive grammar, you understand what every word is (its part of speech) and what every word does (its function in the sentence). If you're not careful, a study of descriptive grammar can go overboard fast, and you end up saying things like *"balloon" is the object of the gerund, in a gerund phrase that is acting as the predicate nominative of the linking verb "appear."* Never fear: I wouldn't dream of inflicting that level of terminology on you. However, there is one important reason to learn some grammar terms — to understand *why* a particular word or phrase is correct or incorrect.

Functional grammar makes up the bulk of *English Grammar For Dummies.* Functional grammar tells you how words behave when they are doing their jobs properly. Functional grammar guides you to the right expression — the one that fits what you're trying to say — by ensuring that the sentence is put together correctly. When you're agonizing over whether to say *I* or *me,* you're actually solving a problem of functional grammar.

So here's the formula for success: A little descriptive grammar plus a lot of functional grammar equals better grammar overall.

Distinguishing between the Three Englishes

Good grammar sounds like a great idea, but *good* is tough to pin down. Why? Because the language of choice depends on your situation. Here's what I mean. Imagine that you're hungry. What do you say?

> Wanna get something to eat?
>
> Do you feel like getting a sandwich?
>
> Will you accompany me to the dining room?

These three statements illustrate the three Englishes of everyday life. I call them friendspeak, conversational English, and formal English.

Before you choose, you need to know where you are and what's going on. Most important, you need to know your audience.

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Phat grammar

Psst! Want to be in the in-crowd? Easy. Just create an out-crowd and you're all set. How do you create an out-crowd? Manufacture a special language (slang) with your friends that no one else understands, at least until the media picks it up. It's the ultimate friendspeak. You and your pals are on the inside, talking about a *sketchy neighborhood* (*sketchy* means "dangerous"). Everyone else is on the outside, wondering how to get the *411* (information). Should you use slang in your writing? Probably not, unless you're dealing with a good friend. The goal of writing and speaking is communication, and slang may be a mystery to your intended audience. Also, because slang changes so quickly, even a short time after you've written something, the meaning may be obscure. Instead of cutting-edge, you sound dated.

When you talk or write in slang, you also risk sounding uneducated. In fact, sometimes breaking the usual rules is the point of slang. In general, you should make sure that your readers know that you understand the rules before you start breaking them (the rules, not the readers) safely.

Wanna get something to eat? Friendspeak

Friendspeak is informal and filled with slang. Its sentence structure breaks all the rules that English teachers love. It's the language of *I know you and you know me and we can relax together.* In friendspeak the speakers are on the same level. They have nothing to prove to each other, and they're comfortable with each other's mistakes. In fact, they make some mistakes on purpose, just to distinguish their personal conversation from what they say on other occasions. Here's a conversation in friendspeak:

> Me and him are going to the gym. Wanna come?
>
> He's like, I did 60 push-ups, and I'm like, no way.

I doubt that the preceding conversation makes perfect sense to many people, but the participants understand it quite well. Because they both know the whole situation (the guy they're talking about gets muscle cramps after 4 seconds of exercise), they can talk in shorthand.

I don't deal with friendspeak in this book. You already know it. In fact, you've probably created a version of it with your best buds.

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Do you feel like getting a sandwich? Conversational English

A step up from friendspeak is *conversational English.* Although not quite friendspeak, conversational English includes some friendliness. Conversational English doesn't stray too far from your English class rules, but it does break some. You can relax, but not completely. It's the tone of most everyday speech, especially between equals. Conversational English is — no shock here — usually for conversations, not for writing. Specifically, conversational English is appropriate in these situations:

- Chats with family members, neighbors, acquaintances
- Informal conversations with teachers and co-workers
- Friendly conversations (if there are any) with supervisors
- Notes, e-mails, instant messages, and texts to friends
- Comments in Internet chat rooms, bulletin boards, and so on
- Friendly letters to relatives

Conversational English has a breezy sound. Letters are dropped in contractions (*don't*, *I'll*, *would've*, and so forth). You may also skip words (*Got a minute? Be there soon!* and similar expressions), especially if you're writing in electronic media with a tight space requirement. (For more on electronic communication, see "Thumbing Your Way to Better Grammar" later in this chapter.) In written form, conversational English relaxes the punctuation rules, too. Sentences run together, dashes connect all sorts of things, and half sentences pop up regularly. I'm using conversational English to write this book because I'm pretending that I'm chatting with you, the reader, not teaching grammar in a classroom situation.

Will you accompany me to the dining room? Formal English

You're now at the pickiest end of the language spectrum: formal, grammatically correct speech and writing. Formal English displays the fact that you have an advanced vocabulary, a knowledge of etiquette, and command of standard rules of English usage. You may use formal English when you have less power, importance, and/or status than the other person in the conversation. Formal English shows that you've trotted out your best behavior in his or her honor. You may also speak or write in formal English when you have *more* power, importance, and/or status than the other person. The goal of using formal English is to impress, to create a tone of dignity, or to provide a suitable role model for someone who is still learning. Situations that call for formal English include:

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- Business letters or e-mails (from or between businesses as well as from individuals to businesses)
- Letters or e-mails to government officials
- Office memos or e-mails
- Reports
- Homework
- Communications to teachers
- Speeches, presentations, oral reports
- Important conversations (for example, job interviews, college interviews, parole hearings, congressional inquiries, inquisitions, sessions with the principal in which you explain that unfortunate incident with the stapler, and so on)

Think of formal English as a business suit. If you're in a situation where you want to look your best, you're also in a situation where your words matter. In business, homework, or any situation in which you're being judged, use formal English.

Using the Right English at the Right Time

Which type of English do you speak? Friendspeak, conversational English, or formal English? Probably all of them. (See preceding section for more information.) If you're like most people, you switch from one to another without thinking, dozens of times each day. Chances are, the third type of English — formal English — is the one that gives you the most trouble. In fact, it's probably why you bought this book. (Okay, there is one more possibility that I haven't mentioned yet. Maybe your nerdy uncle, the one with ink stains on his nose, gave *English Grammar For Dummies* to you for Arbor Day and you're stuck with it. But you're not playing paintball or listening to your favorite indie band right now, so you must be reading the book. Therefore, you've at least acknowledged that you have something to think about, and I'm betting that it's formal English.) All the grammar lessons in this book deal with formal English because that's where the problems are fiercest and the rewards for knowledge are greatest.

Which is correct?

A. Hi, Ms. Sharkface! What's up? Here's the 411. I didn't do no homework last night — too much going on. Ttyl. Love, Ralph

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B. Dear Ms. Sharkface,

Just a note to let you know that I've got no homework today. Had a lot to do last night! I'll explain later!

Your friend,

Ralph

C. Dear Ms. Sharkface:

I was not able to do my homework last night because of other pressing duties. I will speak with you about this matter later.

Sincerely,

Ralph

Answer: The correct answer depends upon a few factors. How willing are you to be stuck in the corner of the classroom for the rest of the year? If your answer is "very willing," send note A, which is written in friendspeak. (By the way, "ttyl" means "talk to you later.") Does your teacher come to school in jeans and sneakers? If so, note B is acceptable. Note B is written in conversational English. Is your teacher prim and proper, expecting you to follow the Rules? If so, note C, which is written in formal English, is your best bet.

Thumbing Your Way to Better Grammar

I live in New York City, and I seldom see thumbs that aren't glued to very small keyboards — texting (sending written notes over the phone), IMing (instant messaging), twittering (sending 140-character notes), or simply jotting down ideas and reminders. I can't help wondering what sort of grammar will evolve from these new forms of communication. Perhaps the ninth edition of *English Grammar For Dummies* will be only ten pages long, with "sentences" like *u ok?* and g2g — bbl. (Translation for the techno-challenged: "Are you okay?" and "I have got to go. I'll be back later.") If it's up to me, however, English will evolve this way "omdb" ("over my dead body").

At present, however, match the level of formality in electronic communication to your situation, message, and audience. If you're dealing with a friend, feel free to abbreviate and shorten anything you like. If you're communicating with a co-worker or an acquaintance, conversational English is probably fine, though the more power the recipient has, the more careful you should be. (For more information on conversational English, check out "Distinguishing between the Three Englishes" earlier in this chapter.) When you're unsure of your audience or writing to a stranger or a superior, play it safe and opt for formal English. Proper grammar is, well, proper for all media.

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Relying on Computer Grammar Checkers Is Not Enough

Your best friend — the one who's greasing the steps to the cafeteria while you're reading *English Grammar For Dummies* — may tell you that learning correct grammar in the third millennium is irrelevant because computer grammar checkers make human knowledge obsolete. Your friend is wrong about the grammar programs, and the grease is a very bad idea also.

It is comforting to think that a little green or red line will tell you when you've made an error and that a quick mouse-click will show you the path to perfection. Comforting, but unreal. English has a half million words, and you can arrange those words a couple of gazillion ways. No program can catch all of your mistakes, and most programs identify errors that aren't actually wrong.

Spelling is also a problem. Every time I type *verbal,* the computer squawks. But *verbal* — a grammar term meaning a word that comes from a verb but does not function as a verb — is a real word. Nor can the computer tell the difference between *homonyms* — words that sound alike but have different meanings and spelling. For example, if I type

> Eye through the bawl at hymn, but it went threw the window pain instead.

the computer underlines nothing. However, I was actually trying to say

> I threw the ball at him, but it went through the window pane instead.

In short, the computer knows some grammar and spelling, but you have to know the rest.

What's Your Problem? Solutions to Your Grammar Gremlins

I love to stroll around my neighborhood pondering prepositions. (Okay, I'm lying. Most of the time I'm actually thinking about my favorite television shows or Yankee relief pitching.) With my head in the clouds, I sometimes stub my toe on a sidewalk crack. Once I know where the cracks are, however, I can avoid them. If you can figure out where the cracks are in your *grammatical neighborhood* — the gremlins likely to catch your toes — your sentences will roll along without risk of falling flat. Table 1.1 shows common usage problems and the location of their solutions. Skim the first column until you recognize something that stumps you. Then turn to the chapter listed in the second column.

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Table 1-1 Problems and Solutions

Problem	*Solution Chapter*
The winner is he? him?	2
Taxes go? are going? never ever go? down.	3
The IRS apologized? had apologized? in your dreams apologizes?	3
She done? did? can't be convicted for doing? the crime.	3
Mary, as well as Alice, is? are? feeding her little lamb.	4
There was? were? some doughnuts on the table, until Mary's lamb gobbled them down.	4
Three deers? deer? Two dogcatchers-in-chief? dogcatcher-in-chiefs?	4
You used too much chocolate sauce, nevertheless, you can have a cherry. Correct? Incorrect?	5
The superhero is. Complete? Incomplete?	5
She told me? I? an incredibly ridiculous story.	6
Jonas feels bad? badly? about the doughnut shortage.	7
Granny only bought? bought only? one cheap souvenir.	7
Keep this secret between you and I? me? the tabloids?	8
Everyone needs their? his? your? this? grammar book.	9
Each of the grammar books is? are? on the bestseller list.	10
Either the grammarians or Lester has? have? too many verbs.	10
Bagels' ? Bagels are on sale.	11
Bo declared that he was "tired." Correct? Incorrect?	12
Say it isn't so Bo. Comma needed?	13
Grammatically correct sentence? Grammatically-correct sentence?	14
The pigeon flew East? east?	15
Are you and the boss bff? or best friends forever?	16
My mother doesn't like me? my? surfing.	17
The window was broken by me. Correct? Incorrect?	18
Being fifteen, the video game is great. Correct? Incorrect?	19
While combing my hair, the game ended. Correct? Incorrect?	19
The emperor is more powerful than any? any other? ruler.	20
I like grammar, ice cream, and to be on vacation? vacations?	21
If I was? were? would have been? a grammarian.	22
This book is for whoever? whomever? needs grammar help.	23
The books everyone thinks will make the bestseller list is? are? Dummies titles.	24

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Chapter 2

Verbs: The Heart of the Sentence

In This Chapter

- Finding the verb
- Distinguishing between linking verbs and action verbs
- Choosing pronouns for sentences with linking verbs
- Using helping verbs correctly

Think about a sentence this way: A sentence is a flatbed truck. You pile all your ideas on the truck, and the truck takes the meaning to your audience (your reader or your listener). The verb of the sentence is a set of tires. Without the verb, you may get your point across, but you're going to have a bumpy ride.

Every sentence needs a verb, so you start with the verb when you want to do anything to your sentence — including correct it. Verbs come in all shapes and sizes. In this chapter, I explain how to distinguish between linking and action verbs and to sort helping verbs from main verbs. Then I show you how to choose the correct verb for each sentence. Finally, I explain which pronouns you need for sentences with linking verbs.

Linking Verbs: The Giant Equal Sign

Linking verbs are also called *being verbs* because they express states of being — what is, will be, or was. Here's where math intersects with English. Linking verbs are like giant equal signs plopped into the middle of your sentence. For example, you can think of the sentence

Ralph's uncle *is* a cannibal with a taste for finger food.

as

Ralph's uncle = a cannibal with a taste for finger food.

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Or, in shortened form,

Ralph's uncle = a cannibal

Just as in an algebra equation, the word *is* links two ideas and says that they are the same. Thus, *is* is a linking verb. Here are more linking verbs:

Lulu *will be* angry when she hears about the missing bronze tooth.

Lulu = angry (*will be* is a linking verb)

Stan *was* the last surfer to leave the water when the tidal wave approached.

Stan = last surfer (*was* is a linking verb)

Edgar *has been* depressed ever since the fall of the House of Usher.

Edgar = depressed (*has been* is a linking verb)

Being or linking — what's in a name?

In the preceding section, you may have noticed that all the linking verbs in the sample sentences are forms of the verb *to be,* which is (surprise, surprise) how they got the name *being verbs.* When I was a kid (sometime before they invented the steam engine), these verbs were called *copulative,* from a root word meaning "join." However, copulative is out of style with English teachers these days (perhaps because you can also use the root for words referring to sex). I prefer the term *linking* because some equal-sign verbs are not forms of the verb *to be.* Check out these examples:

With his foot-long fingernails and sly smile, Big Foot *seemed* threatening.

Big Foot = threatening (*seemed* is a linking verb)

A jail sentence for the unauthorized use of a comma *appears* harsh.

jail sentence = harsh (*appears* is a linking verb in this sentence)

The penalty for making a grammar error *remains* severe.

penalty = severe (*remains* is a linking verb in this sentence)

Lochness *stays* silent whenever monsters are mentioned.

Lochness = silent (*stays* is a linking verb in this sentence)

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Seemed, appears, remains, and *stays* are similar to forms of the verb *to be* in that they express states of being. They simply add shades of meaning to the basic concept. You may, for example, say that

With his foot-long fingernails and sly smile, Big Foot *was* threatening.

but now the statement is more definite. *Seemed* leaves room for doubt. Similarly, *remains* (in the third sample sentence) adds a time dimension to the basic expression of being. The sentence implies that the penalty was and still is severe.

No matter how you name it, any verb that places an equal sign in the sentence is a *being, linking,* or *copulative verb.*

Savoring sensory verbs

Sensory verbs — verbs that express information you receive through the senses of sight, hearing, smell, taste, and so forth — may also be linking verbs:

Two minutes after shaving, Ralph's double chin *feels* scratchy.

Ralph's double chin = scratchy (*feel* is a linking verb)

The ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator *smells* disgusting.

lasagna = disgusting (*smells* is a linking verb)

The ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator also *looks* disgusting.

lasagna = disgusting (*looks* is a linking verb)

Needless to say, the ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator *tastes* great!

lasagna = great (*tastes* is a linking verb)

Verbs that refer to the five senses are linking verbs only if they act as an equal sign in the sentence. If they aren't equating two ideas, they aren't linking verbs. In the preceding example sentence about Ralph's double chin, *feel* is a linking verb. Here's a different sentence with the same verb:

With their delicate fingers, Lulu and Stan *feel* Ralph's chin.

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In this sentence, *feel* is not a linking verb because you're not saying that

Lulu and Stan = chin.

Instead, you're saying that Lulu and Stan don't believe that Ralph shaved, so they went stubble hunting.

Which sentence has a linking verb?

A. That annoying new clock sounds the hour with a recorded cannon shot.

B. That annoying new clock sounds extremely loud at four o'clock in the morning.

Answer: Sentence B has the linking verb. In sentence B, clock = extremely loud. In sentence A, the clock is doing something — sounding the hour — not being. (It's also waking up the whole neighborhood, but that idea isn't in the sentence.)

Try another. In which sentence is "stay" a linking verb?

A. Larry stays single only for very short periods of time.

B. Stay in the yard, Fido, or I cut your dog-biscuit ration in half!

Answer: Sentence A has the linking verb. In sentence A, Larry = single (at least for the moment). In sentence B, Fido is being told to do something — to stay in the backyard — clearly an action.

If you're dying to learn more grammar terminology, read on. Linking verbs connect the subject and the subject complement, also known as the *predicate nominative* and *predicate adjective.* For more on complements, read Chapter 6.

Here is a list of the most common linking verbs:

- Forms of *to be:* am, are, is, was, were, will be, shall be, has been, have been, had been, could be, should be, would be, might have been, could have been, should have been, shall have been, will have been, must have been, must be
- Sensory verbs: look, sound, taste, smell, feel
- Words that express shades of meaning in reference to a state of being: appear, seem, grow, remain, stay

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Due to a grammar error

The picnic has been cancelled *due to? because of?* the arrival of killer sparrows from their Southern nesting grounds.

Okay, which one is correct — *due to* or *because of?* The answer is *because of.* According to a rule that people ignore more and more every day:

- *Due to* describes nouns or pronouns. It may follow a linking verb if it gives information about the subject. (See "Linking Verbs: The Giant Equal Sign," earlier in the chapter, for more information.)
- *Because of* is a description of an action. (See "Lights! Camera! Action Verb!" later in this chapter for information on action verbs.)

The semi-logical reasoning that underlies this rule draws you deep into grammatical trivia, so keep reading only if you're daring (or bored). *Due to,* by definition, means "owing to." *Owing* is in the adjective family, whose members may only describe nouns and pronouns. In a linking verb sentence, the subject (always a noun or pronoun) may be linked to a description following the verb. An example:

> Lola's mania for fashion is *due to* her deprived upbringing in an all-polyester household.

Due to her deprived upbringing in an all-polyester household describes *mania.*

Because of and *on account of* describe an action, usually answering the question why. An example:

> The bubble-gum gun that George fired is no longer being manufactured *because of* protests from the dental association.

Why is the gun no longer being manufactured? Because of protests from the dental association.

In real life (that is to say, in everyday conversational English), *due to* and *because of* are interchangeable. When you need your most formal, most correct language, be careful with this pair! One easy solution (easier than remembering which phrase is which) is to avoid them entirely and simply add *because* with a subject–verb pair.

Completing Linking Verb Sentences Correctly

A linking verb begins a thought, but it needs another word to complete the thought. Unless your listener is a mind reader, you can't walk around saying things like "the president is" or "the best day for the party will be" and expect people to know what you mean.

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You have three possible completions for a linking verb: a descriptive word, a noun, or a pronoun (a word that subs for a noun). Take a look at some descriptions that complete the linking-verb equation:

After running 15 miles in high heels, Renee's thigh muscles are *tired.*

thigh muscles = *tired* (tired is a description, an adjective in grammatical terms)

Renee's high heels are *stunning,* especially when they land on your foot.

high heels = *stunning* (*stunning* is a description, also called an adjective)

Oscar's foot, wounded by Renee's heels, seems particularly *painful.*

foot = *painful* (*painful* is a description, an adjective)

Lola's solution, to staple Oscar's toes together, is not very *helpful.*

solution = *helpful (helpful* is a description, an adjective. The other descriptive words, *not* and *very,* describe *helpful,* not *solution.)*

You may also complete a linking verb equation with a person, place, or thing — a noun, in grammatical terms. Here are some examples:

The most important part of a balanced diet is *popcorn.*

part of a balanced diet = *popcorn* (*popcorn* is a thing, and therefore a noun)

Lulu's nutritional consultant has always been a complete *fraud.*

Lulu's nutritional consultant = *fraud* (*fraud* is a noun)

Sometimes you complete a linking verb sentence with a *pronoun,* a word that substitutes for the name of a person, place, or thing. For example:

The winner of the all-state spitball contest is *you!*

winner = *you* (*you* is a substitute for the name of the winner, and therefore a pronoun)

Whoever put glue in the teapot is *someone* with a very bad sense of humor.

Whoever put glue in the teapot = *someone* (*someone* is a substitute for the name of the unknown prankster and therefore a pronoun)

You can't do much wrong when you complete linking verb sentences with descriptions or with nouns. However, you can do a lot wrong when you complete a linking verb sentence with a pronoun — a fact that has come to the attention of standardized test-makers, who love to stump you with this sort of sentence. Never fear: in the next section, I show you how to avoid common linking verb–pronoun errors.

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Placing the Proper Pronoun in the Proper Place

How do you choose the correct pronoun for a sentence with a linking verb? Think of a linking-verb sentence as reversible. That is, the pronoun you put after a linking verb should be the same kind of pronoun that you put before a linking verb. First, however, I give you an example with a noun, where you can't make a mistake. Read these sentence pairs:

Ruggles is a *resident* of Red Gap.

A *resident* of Red Gap is *Ruggles.*

Lulu was a resident of Beige Gap.

A resident of Beige Gap was Lulu.

Both sentences in each pair mean the same thing, and both are correct. Now look at pronouns:

The winner of the election is *him!*

Him is the winner of the election!

Uh oh. Something's wrong. You don't say *him is.* You say *he is.* Because you have a linking verb (*is*), you must put the same word afte*r* the linking verb that you would put before the linking verb. Try it again:

The winner of the election is *he!*

He is the winner of the election!

Now you've got the correct ending for your sentence.

If you pay attention to linking verbs, you'll choose the right pronouns for your sentence. Subject pronouns are *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who,* and *whoever.* Pronouns that are not allowed to be subjects include *me, him, her, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.* (In case you're curious, these pronouns act as objects. More on objects in Chapter 6.)

Remember that in the previous examples, I discuss formal English, not conversational English. In conversational English, the following exchange is okay:

Who's there?

It is me. OR It's me.

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In formal English, the exchange goes like this:

> Who is there?
>
> It is I.

Because of the linking verb *is,* you want the same kind of pronoun before and after the linking verb. You can't start a sentence with *me*, but you can start a sentence with *I.*

Now you've probably, with your sharp eyes, found a flaw here. You can't reverse the last reply and say

> I is it.

I takes a different verb — *am.* Both *is* and *am* are forms of the verb *to be* — one of the most peculiar creations in the entire language. So yes, you sometimes have to adjust the verb when you reverse a sentence with a form of *to be* in it. But the idea is the same; *I* can be a subject. *Me* can't.

You don't need to know this information, but in case you're having a slow day: grammarians divide pronouns into groups called *cases.* One group, the *nominative* or *subject case*, includes all the pronouns that may be subjects. The pronoun that follows the linking verb should also be in nominative, or subject, case. Another group of pronouns, those in *objective case*, acts as objects. Avoid object pronouns after linking verbs. (For more information on pronoun case, see Chapter 17.)

Lights! Camera! Action Verb!

Linking verbs are important, but unless you're in some sort of hippie commune left over from the sixties, you just can't sit around being all the time. You have to do something. Here's where action verbs come into the picture. Everything that is not *being* is *action,* at least in the verb world. Unlike the giant equal sign associated with linking verbs (see "Linking Verbs: The Giant Equal Sign," earlier in the chapter), something *happens* with an action verb:

> Drew *slapped* the offending pig right on the snout. (*Slapped* is an action verb.)
>
> Fred *will steal* third base as soon as his sneezing fit *ends*. (*Will steal* and *ends* are action verbs.)
>
> According to the teacher, Roger *has shot* at least 16 spitballs in the last ten minutes. (*Has shot* is an action verb.)

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Don't let the name *action* fool you. Some action verbs aren't particularly energetic: *think, sit, stay, have, sleep, dream,* and so forth. Besides describing my ideal vacation, these words are also action verbs! Think of the definition this way: if the verb is *not* a giant equal sign (a linking verb), it's an action verb.

Getting by with a Little Help from My Verbs

You've probably noticed that some of the verbs I've identified throughout this chapter are single words and others are made up of several words. The extra words are called *helping verbs.* They don't carry out the trash or dust the living room, but they do help the main verb express meaning, usually changing the time, or *tense,* of the action. (For more on tense, see Chapter 3.)

Here are some sentences with helping verbs:

> Alice *will have sung* five arias from that opera by the time her recorder *runs* out of tape and her listeners *run* out of patience.
>
> (In *will have sung, sung* is the main verb; *will* and *have* are helping verbs; *runs* and *run* are both main verbs without helping verbs.)
>
> Larry *should have refused* to play the part of the villain, but his ego simply *would* not *be denied.*
>
> (In *should have refused, refused* is the main verb; *should* and *have* are helping verbs; in *would be denied, denied* is the main verb; *would* and *be* are helping verbs.)

Distinguishing between helping verbs and main verbs isn't particularly important, as long as you get the whole thing when you're identifying the verb in a sentence. If you find only part of the verb, you may confuse action verbs with linking verbs. You want to keep these two types of verbs straight when you choose an ending for your sentence, as I explain in "Placing the Proper Pronoun in the Proper Place," earlier in the chapter.

To decide whether you have an action verb or a linking verb, look at the main verb, not at the helping verbs. If the main verb expresses action, the whole verb is action, even if one of the helpers is a form of *to be.* For example:

> is going
>
> has been painted
>
> should be strangled

are all action verbs, not linking verbs, because *going, painted,* and *strangled* express action.

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Pop the Question: Locating the Verb

A scientific study by a blue-ribbon panel of experts found that 90 percent of all the errors in a sentence occurred because the verb was misidentified. Okay, there was no study. I made it up! But it is true that when you try to crack a sentence, you should always start by identifying the verb. To find the verb, read the sentence and ask two questions:

- What's happening?
- What is? (or, What word is a "giant equal sign"?)

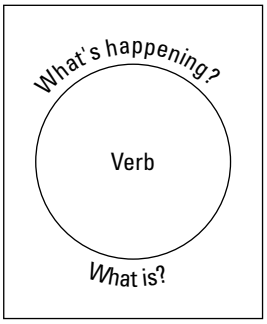

If you get an answer to the first question, you have an action verb. If you get an answer to the second question, you have a linking verb.

For example, in the sentence

> Archie flew around the room and then swooped into his cage for a bird-seed snack.

you ask "What's happening?" and your answer is *flew* and *swooped. Flew* and *swooped* are action verbs.

If you ask, "What is?" you get no answer, because there's no linking verb in the sentence.

Try another:

> Lola's new tattoo will be larger than her previous fifteen tattoos.

What's happening? Nothing. You have no action verb. What is? *Will be. Will be* is a linking verb.

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The way it's suppose to be?

Do these sentences look familiar?

> Lola *was suppose* to take out the garbage, but she refused to do so, saying that garbage removal was not part of her creative development.
>
> Ralph *use* to take out the trash, but after that unfortunate encounter with a raccoon and an empty potato chip bag, he is reluctant to venture near the cans.
>
> George *is suppose* to do all kinds of things, but of course he never does anything he *is suppose* to do.

If these sentences look familiar, look again. Each one is wrong. Check out the italicized verbs: *was suppose, use,* and *is suppose.* All represent what people hear but not what the speaker is actually trying to say. The correct words to use in these instances are *supposed* and *used* — past tense forms.

Pop the question and find the verbs in the following sentences. For extra credit, identify the verbs as action or linking.

A. Michelle scratched the cat almost as hard as the cat had scratched her.

B. After months of up-and-down motion, Lester is taking the elevator sideways, just for a change of pace.

C. The twisted frown on Larry's face seems strange because of the joyful background music.

Answers: A. *scratched* is an action verb, *had scratched* is an action verb. B. *is taking* is an action verb. C. *seems* is a linking verb.

Forget To Be or Not To Be: Infinitives Aren't Verbs

You may hear English teachers say, "the verb *to sweep*" or some such expression. In fact, in this chapter I refer to "all forms of the verb *to be.*" But *to be* is not actually a verb. It's an infinitive. An *infinitive* is *to + a verb* (yet another mixing of math and English). Examples or infinitives include *to laugh*, *to sing*, *to burp*, *to write*, and *to be*.

The most important thing to know about infinitives is this: When you pop the question to find the verb, don't choose an infinitive as your answer. If you do, you'll miss the real verb or verbs in the sentence. Other than that, forget about infinitives!

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Okay, you can't forget about infinitives completely. Here's something else you should know about infinitives in formal English: Don't split them in half. For example, you commonly see sentences like the following:

> Matt vowed to really study if he ever got the chance to take the flight instructor exam again.

This example is common, but incorrect. Grammatically, *to study* is a unit — one infinitive. You're not supposed to separate its two halves. Now that you know this rule, read the paper. Everybody splits infinitives, even the grayest, dullest papers with no comics whatsoever. So you have two choices. You can split infinitives all you want, or you can follow the rule and feel totally superior to the professional journalists. The choice is yours.

Two not for the price of one

Here's a spelling tip: the following words are often written as one — incorrectly! Always write them as two separate words: *a lot, all right, each other*.

Example: Ella has *a lot* of trouble distinguishing between the sounds of "l" and "r," so she tries to avoid the expression *"all right"* whenever possible. Ella and Larry (who also has pronunciation trouble), help *each other* prepare state-of-the-union speeches every January.

Here's another tip. You can write the following words as one or two words, but with two different meanings:

Altogether means "extremely, entirely."

All together means "as one."

Example: Daniel was *altogether* disgusted with the way the entire flock of dodo birds sang *all together.*

Another pair of tricky words:

Sometime means "at a certain point in time."

Some time means "a period of time."

Example: Lex said that he would visit Lulu *sometime,* but not now because he has to spend *some time* in jail for murdering the English language.

Still more:

Someplace means "an unspecified place" and describes an action.

Some place means "a place" and refers to a physical space.

Example: Lex screamed, "I have to go *someplace* now!" Lulu thinks he headed for *some place* near the railroad station where the pizza is hot and no one asks any questions.

And another pair:

Everyday means "ordinary, common."

Every day means "occurring daily."

Larry loves *everyday* activities such as cooking, cleaning, and sewing. He has the palace staff perform all of those duties *every day.*

Last set, I promise:

Anyway means "in any event."

Any way means "a way, some sort of way."

Example: *"Anyway,"* added Roy, "I don't think there is *any way* to avoid jail for tax evasion."

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Chapter 3

Relax! Understanding Verb Tense

In This Chapter

- Expressing time with verbs
- Understanding the meanings of verb tenses
- Applying the correct verb tenses
- Dealing with irregular verb forms

You can tell time lots of ways: look at a clock, pull out your phone, or check the verb. Surprised you with that last one, didn't I? Besides showing the action or state of being in the sentence, the verb also indicates the time the action or "being" took place. (For more information on finding the verb in a sentence, see Chapter 2.)

In some lucky languages — Thai, for example — the verb has basically one form. Whether the sentence is about the past, the present, or the future, the verb is the same. Extra words — yesterday, tomorrow, now, and so forth — indicate the time. Not so in English (sigh). In English, six different tenses of verbs express time. In other words, each tense places the action or the state of being discussed in the sentence at a point in time.

Three of the six English tenses are called *simple.* In this chapter, I explain the simple tenses in some detail, such as the difference between *I go* and *I am going.* The other three tenses are called *perfect.* (Trust me, the perfect tenses are far from it.) I touch upon the basics of the perfect tenses: present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect in this chapter. Then I dig a little more deeply into present perfect tense. The other two perfect tenses — past and future — are real headaches and far less common than present perfect, so I save them for later. For an in-depth explanation of the past perfect and future perfect tenses, see Chapter 18.

Simplifying Matters: The Simple Tenses

The three simple tenses are present, past, and future. Each of the simple tenses (just to make things even *more* fun) has two forms. One is the unadorned, no-frills, plain tense. This form doesn't have a special name; it

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is just called *present, past,* or *future.* It shows actions or states of being at a point in time, but it doesn't always pin down a specific moment. The other form is called *progressive.* It shows actions or a state of being *in progress.*

Present tense

Present tense tells you what is going on right now. As mentioned in the previous section, this simple tense has two forms — one is called *present,* and the other is *progressive.* The present form shows action or a state of being that is occurring now, that is generally true, or that is always happening. The present *progressive* form is similar, but it often implies a process. (The difference between the two is subtle. I go into more details about using these forms below.) For now, take a look at a couple of sentences in the no-frills present tense:

> Reggie *rolls* his tongue around the pastry. (*rolls* is in present tense)
>
> George *plans* nothing for New Year's Eve because he never *has* a date. (*plans, has* are in present tense)

Now here are two sentences in the present progressive form:

> Alexei *is axing* the proposal to cut down the national forest. (*is axing* is in present progressive form)
>
> Michael and Lulu *are skiing* far too fast toward that cliff. (*are skiing* is in present progressive form)

Past tense

Past tense tells you what happened before the present time. This simple tense also has two forms — plain and chocolate-sprinkled. Sorry, I mean plain, which is called *past,* and *past progressive.* Consider these two past-tense sentences:

> When the elastic in Ms. Belli's girdle *snapped,* we all *woke* up. (*snapped* and *woke* are in past tense)
>
> Despite the strong plastic ribbon, the package *became* unglued and *spilled* onto the conveyor belt. (*became* and *spilled* are in past tense)

Here are two more examples, this time in the past progressive form:

> While Buzz *was sleeping,* his cat, Catnip, *was* completely *destroying* the sofa. (*was sleeping* and *was destroying* are in the progressive form of the past tense)
>
> Lola's friends *were passing* tissues to Lulu at a rate of five per minute. (*were passing* is in the progressive form of the past tense)

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You can't go wrong with the past tense, except for the irregular verbs, which I address later in this chapter. But one very common mistake is to mix past and present tenses in the same story. Here's an example:

> So I go to the restaurant looking for Cindy because I want to tell her about Grady's date with Eleanor. I walk in and I see Brad Pitt! So I went up to him and said, "How are the kids?"

The speaker started in present tense — no problem. Even though an event is clearly over, present tense is okay if you want to make a story more dramatic. (See the sidebar "The historical present," later in this chapter.) But the last sentence switches gears — suddenly we're in past tense. Problem! Don't change tenses in the middle of a story. And don't bother celebrities either.

Future tense

Future tense talks about what has not happened yet. This simple tense is the only one that always needs helping verbs to express meaning, even for the plain, no-frills version.

Helping verbs (see Chapter 2) such as *will, shall, have, has, should,* and so forth change the meaning of the main verb.

Future tenses — this will shock you — come in two forms. I'm not talking about alternate universes here; this book is about grammar, not sci-fi adventures! One form of the future tense is called *future,* and the other is *future progressive.* The unadorned form of the future tense goes like this:

> Nancy *will position* the wig in the exact center of her head. (*will position* is in future tense)
>
> Lisa and I *will* never *part*, thanks to that bottle of glue! (*will part* is in future tense)

A couple of examples of the future progressive:

> During the post-election period, George *will be pondering* his options. (*will be pondering* is in the progressive form of the future tense)
>
> Lola *will be sprinkling* the flowers with fertilizer in a vain attempt to keep them fresh. (*will be sprinkling* is in the progressive form of the future tense)

Find the verbs and sort them into present, past, and future tenses.

A. When the tornado whirls overhead, we run for the camera and the phone number of the television station.

B. Shall I compare you to a winter's day?

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C. When you were three, you blew out all the candles on your birthday cake.

Answers: In sentence A, the present tense verbs are *whirls* and *run.* In sentence B, the future tense verb is *shall compare.* In sentence C, the past tense verbs are *were* and *blew*.

Now find the verbs and sort them into present progressive, past progressive, and future progressive forms.

A. Exactly 5,000 years ago, a dinosaur was living in that mud puddle.

B. Zeus and Apollo are establishing a union of mythological characters.

C. The pilot will be joining us as soon as the aircraft clears the Alps.

Answers: In sentence A, the past progressive verb is *was living.* In sentence B, the present progressive verb is *are enrolling.* In sentence C, the future progressive verb is *will be joining.*

Using the Tenses Correctly

What's the difference between each pair of simple tense forms? Not a whole lot. People often interchange these forms without creating any problems. But shades of difference in meaning do exist.

Present and present progressive

The single-word form of the present tense may be used for things that are generally true at the present time but not necessarily happening right now. For example:

Ollie *attends* wrestling matches every Sunday.

If you call Ollie on Sunday, you'll get this annoying message he recorded on his answering machine because he's at the arena (*attends* is in present tense). You may also get this message on a Thursday (or on another day) and it is still correct, even though on Thursdays Ollie stays home to play chess. Now read this sentence:

Ollie *is playing* hide-and-seek with his dog Spot.

This sentence means that right now (*is playing* is in the progressive form of the present tense), as you write or say this sentence, Ollie is running around the living room looking for Spot, who is easy to find because he ran through that tray of fluorescent paint.

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Past and past progressive

The difference between the plain past tense and the past progressive tense is pretty much the same as in the present tense. The single-word form often shows what happened in the past more generally. The progressive form may pinpoint action or a state of being at a specific time or occurring in the past on a regular basis.

> Gulliver *went* to the store and *bought* clothes for all his little friends.

This sentence means that at some point in the past Gulliver whipped out his charge card and finished off his Christmas list (*went* and *bought* are in past tense).

> While Gulliver *was shopping,* his friends *were planning* their revenge.

This sentence means that Gulliver shouldn't have bothered because at the exact moment he was spending his allowance, his friends were deciding what time to pour ink into his lunchbox (*was shopping* and *were planning* are in the progressive form of the past tense).

> Gulliver *was shopping* until he *was dropping,* despite his mother's strict credit limit.

This sentence refers to one of Gulliver's bad habits, his tendency to go shopping every spare moment (*was shopping* and *was dropping* are in the progressive form of the past tense). The shopping was repeated on a daily basis, over and over again. (Hence, Gulliver's mom imposed the strict credit limit.)

Future and future progressive

You won't find much difference between these two. The progressive gives you slightly more of a sense of being in the middle of things. For example:

> The actor *will be playing* Hamlet with a great deal of shouting.

The actor's actions in the sentence above may be a little more immediate than

> The actor *will play* Hamlet with a great deal of shouting.

In the first example, *will be playing* is in the progressive form of the future tense. In the second example, *will play* is in future tense.

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The historical present

Not surprisingly, you use present tense for actions that are currently happening. But (Surprise!) you may also use present tense for some actions that happened a long time ago and for some actions that never happened at all. The historical present is a way to write about history or literature:

> On December 7, 1941, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt *tells* the nation about the attack on Pearl Harbor. The nation immediately *declares* war.
>
> Harry Potter *faces* three tests when he *represents* Hogwarts in the tournament.

In the first sentence, *tells* and *declares* are in present tense, even though the sentence concerns events that occurred decades ago. Here the historical present makes the history more dramatic. (Non-historians often tell a story in present tense also, just to make the account more vivid.) In the second sentence, *faces* and *represents* are in present tense. The idea is that for each reader who opens the book, the story begins anew. With the logic that we have come to know and love in English grammar, the events are always happening, even though Harry Potter is a fictional character and the events never happened.

Understanding the difference between the two forms of the simple tenses entitles you to wear an Official Grammarian hat. But if you don't catch on to the distinction, don't lose sleep over the issue. If you can't discern the subtle differences in casual conversation, your listeners probably won't either. In choosing between the two forms, you're dealing with shades of meaning, not Grand-Canyon-sized discrepancies.

Perfecting Verbs: The Perfect Tenses

Now for the hard stuff. These three tenses — present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect — may give you gray hair, even if you are only twelve. And they have progressive forms too! As with the simple tenses, each tense has a no-frills version called by the name of the tense: present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect. The progressive form adds an "ing" to the mix. The progressive is a little more immediate than the other form, expressing an action or state of being in progress.

In this section, I state the basics and provide examples. For a complete explanation of present perfect and present perfect progressive tense, see "Using Present Perfect Tense Correctly" later in this chapter. For a full discussion of the correct sequence with past and future perfect tenses, see Chapter 18.

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Present perfect and present perfect progressive

The two present perfect forms show actions or states of being that began in the past but are still going on in the present. These forms are used whenever any action or state of being spans two time zones — past and present.

First, check out examples with present perfect tense:

> Roger and his friends *have spent* almost every penny of the inheritance. (*have spent* is in present perfect tense)
>
> Lulu's mortal enemy, Roger, *has pleaded* with her to become a professional tattooist. (*has pleaded* is in present perfect tense)

Now peruse these progressive examples:

> Roger *has been studying* marble shooting for fifteen years without learning any worthwhile techniques. (*has been studying* is in the progressive form of the present perfect tense)
>
> Lulu and her mentor Lola *have been counting sheep* all night. (*have been counting* is in the progressive form of the present perfect tense)

Past perfect and past perfect progressive

Briefly, each of these forms places an action in the past in relation to another action in the past. In other words, a timeline is set. The timeline begins some time ago and ends at some point before NOW. At least two events are on the timeline. (For more information about how to use the past perfect, see Chapter 18.) Here are a couple of examples of the past perfect tense:

> After she *had sewn* up the wound, the doctor realized that her watch was missing! (*had sewn* is in past perfect tense)
>
> The watch *had ticked* for ten minutes before the nurse discovered its whereabouts. (*had ticked* is in past perfect tense)

Compare the preceding sentences with examples of the past perfect progressive (try saying *that* three times fast without spraying your listener!):

> The patient *had been considering* a lawsuit but changed his mind. (*had been considering* is in the progressive form of the past perfect tense)
>
> The doctor *had been worrying* about a pending lawsuit, but her patient dropped his case. (*had been worrying* is in the progressive form of the past perfect tense)

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Future perfect and future perfect progressive

These two forms talk about events or states of being that have not happened yet in relation to another event even further in the future. In other words, these forms create another timeline, with at least two events or states of being on it. (For a complete explanation of how to use the future perfect tense, see Chapter 18.)

First, take a look at the plain version of the future perfect:

> Appleby *will have eaten* the entire piece of fruit by the time the bell rings at the end of recess. (*will have eaten* is in future perfect tense)
>
> When Appleby finally arrives at grammar class, the teacher *will have* already *outlined* at least 504 grammar rules. (*will have outlined* is in future perfect tense)

Now take a look at the progressive form of the future perfect tense:

> When the clocks strikes four, Appleby *will have been chewing* for 29 straight minutes without swallowing even one bite. (*will have been chewing* is in the progressive form of the future perfect tense)
>
> By the time he swallows, Appleby's teacher *will have been explaining* the virtues of digestion to her class for a very long time. (*will have been explaining* is in the progressive form of the future perfect tense)

Using Present Perfect Tense Correctly

This mixture of present *(has, have)* and past is a clue to its use: present perfect tense ties the past to the present. When you use it, you're expressing an idea that includes an element of the past and an element of the present.

> I *have gone* to the school cafeteria every day for six years, and I *have* not yet *found* one edible item.

This sentence means that at present I am still in school, still trying to find something to eat, and for the past six years I was in school also, trudging to the cafeteria each day, searching for a sandwich without mystery meat in it.

> Bertha *has* frequently *called* Charles, but Charles *has* not *called* Bertha back.

This sentence means that in the present Bertha hasn't given up yet; she's still trying to reach Charles from time to time. In the past Bertha also phoned Charles. In the present and in the past, Charles hasn't bothered to check his voice mail, which now has 604 messages.

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Some tense pairs

Helping verbs, as well as main verbs, have tenses. Some of the most common pairs are *can/could* and *may/might*. The first verb in each pair is in present tense; the second is in past tense. If you *can* imagine, you are speaking about the present. If you *could* imagine, you are speaking about the past. More and more people interchange these helping verbs at random, but technically, the verbs do express time. So remember:

Now you *may* talk about how much you hate writing school reports.

Yesterday you *might* have gone to the store if the sky hadn't dumped a foot of snow on your head.

After six years of lessons, you *can* finally dance a mean tango.

No one ever danced as well as Fred Astaire *could* in those old movie musicals.

As with the simple present tense, the present perfect tense takes two forms. One is called *present perfect*, and the other *present perfect progressive*. Shades of difference in meaning exist between the two — the progressive is a little more immediate — but nothing you need to worry about.

Which one is correct?

A. Bertha moved into that building in 1973 and lived there ever since.

B. Bertha has moved into that building in 1973 and lived there ever since.

C. Bertha moved into that building in 1973 and has lived there ever since.

Answer: Sentence C is correct. You cannot use the simple past, as in sentence A, because a connection to the present exists (the fact that Bertha still lives in that building). Sentence B is wrong because the moving isn't connected to the present; it's over and done with. So you can't use present perfect for the move. Sentence C has the right combination — the move, now over, should be expressed in simple past. The event that began in the past and is still going on (Bertha's living in the building) needs present perfect tense.

Forming Present and Past Participles of Regular Verbs

I used to tell my classes that my gray hair came from my struggles with *participles,* but I was just trying to scare them into doing their grammar homework. Participles are not very mysterious; as you may guess from the spelling, a *part*iciple is simply a *part* of the verb. Each verb has two participles — a present

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participle and a past participle. You may have noticed the *present participle* in the present progressive tenses. The present participle is the *ing* form of the verb. The past participle helps form the present perfect tense because this tense spans both the past and present. Regular past participles are formed by adding *ed* to the verb. Table 3-1 shows a selection of regular participles.

Table 3-1 Examples of Regular Participles

Verb	*Present Participle*	*Past Participle*
ask	asking	asked
beg	begging	begged
call	calling	called
dally	dallying	dallied
empty	emptying	emptied
fill	filling	filled
grease	greasing	greased

Just to Make Things More Difficult: Irregular Verbs

When you're out bargain hunting, irregulars look good, because a tiny variation from "regular" merchandise lowers the price considerably. Unfortunately, an irregular is not a bargain in the grammar market. In this section, I break down the irregulars into two parts. The first part is the mother of all irregular verbs, *to be.* Second is a list of irregular past-tense forms and past participles.

"To be or not to be" is a complete pain

Possibly the weirdest verb in the English language, the verb *to be,* changes more frequently than any other. Here it is, tense by tense.

Present Tense

Singular	***Plural***
I am	we are
you are	you are
he, she, it is	they are

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Note that the singular forms are in the first column and plural forms are in the second column. Singulars are for one person or thing and plurals for more than one. "You" is listed twice because it may refer to one person or to a group. (Just one more bit of illogic in the language.)

Past Tense

Singular	***Plural***
I was	we were
you were	you were
he, she, it was	they were

Future Tense

Singular	***Plural***
I will be	we will be
you will be	you will be
he, she, it will be	they will be

Present Perfect

Singular	***Plural***
I have been	we have been
you have been	you have been
he, she, it has been	they have been

Past Perfect

Singular	***Plural***
I had been	we had been
you had been	you had been
he, she, it had been	they had been

Future Perfect

Singular	***Plural***
I will have been	we will have been
you will have been	you will have been
he, she, it will have been	they will have been

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Irregular past and past participles

Are you having fun yet? Now the true joy begins. Dozens and dozens of English verbs have irregular past tense forms, as well as irregular past participles. (The present participles, except for the occasional change from the letter *y* to the letter *i*, are fairly straightforward. Just add *ing*.) I won't list all the irregular verbs here, just a few you may find useful in everyday writing. If you have questions about a particular verb, check your dictionary. In Table 3-2, the first column is the infinitive form of the verb. (The infinitive is the "to + verb" form — to laugh, to cry, to learn grammar, and so on.) The second column is the simple past tense. The third column is the past participle, which is combined with *has* (singular) or *have* (plural) to form the present perfect tense. The past participle is also used with *had* to form the past perfect tense.

Table 3-2 Forms of Irregular Participles

Verb	*Past*	*Past Participle*
bear	bore	borne
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got or gotten
go	went	gone
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led

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Verb	*Past*	*Past Participle*
lend	lent	lent
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank or sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

Setting Up Correct Verbs

To sit and *to set* are perfectly fine verbs, but they're not interchangeable. *Sit* is what you do when you stop standing and make a lap. *Set* is what you do to something else — to place an object somewhere or to adjust or regulate something. Check out these examples:

> Anna sits in front of the television, even when it's broken. (Anna's on the couch, staring at a blank screen.)
>
> Arthur set the raygun to "stun" and then set it carefully on the shelf. (Arthur's turned the dial on his weapon and then placed it out of harm's way.)

In some parts of the world, "to set a spell" means to rest. That expression is perfectly fine when informality is acceptable, but in formal English, be sure you *sit*, not *set* on your chair.

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Chapter 4

Who's Doing What? How to Find the Subject

In This Chapter

- Understanding the role of the subject and subject–verb pairs
- Spotting the subject and subject–verb pairs in simple sentences
- Identifying the subject and subject–verb pairs in more challenging sentences
- Finding subjects in questions

In Chapter 2, I describe the sentence as a flatbed truck carrying your meaning to the reader or listener. Verbs are the wheels of the truck, and subjects are the drivers. Why do you need a subject? Can you imagine a truck speeding down the road without a driver? Not a pleasant thought!

Who's Driving the Truck? Why the Subject Is Important

All sentences contain verbs — words that express action or state of being. (For more information on verbs, see Chapter 2.) But you can't have an action in a vacuum. You can't have a naked, solitary state of being either. Someone or something must also be present in the sentence — the *who* or *what* you're talking about in relation to the action or state of being expressed by the verb. The "someone" or "something" doing the action or being talked about is the subject.

A "someone" must be a person and a "something" must be a thing, place, or idea. So guess what? The subject is usually a noun because a noun is a person, place, thing, or idea. I say *usually* because sometimes the subject is a pronoun — a word that substitutes for a noun — *he, they, it*, and so forth. (For more on pronouns, see Chapter 9.)

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Teaming up: Subject and verb pairs

Another way to think about the subject is to say that the subject is the "who" or "what" part of the subject–verb pair. The subject–verb pair is the main idea of the sentence, stripped to essentials. A few sentences:

> *Jasper gasped* at the mummy's sudden movement.

In this sentence, *Jasper gasped* is the main idea; it's also the subject–verb pair.

> *Justin will judge* the beauty contest only if *his ex-girlfriend competes.*

You should spot two subject–verb pairs in this sentence: *Justin will judge* and *ex-girlfriend competes.*

Now try a sentence without action. This one describes a state of being, so it uses a linking verb:

> *Jackhammer has* always *been* an extremely noisy worker.

The subject–verb pair is *Jackhammer has been.* Did you notice that *Jackhammer has been* sounds incomplete? *Has been* is a linking verb, and linking verbs always need something after the verb to complete the idea. I give you more links in the verb chain in Chapter 2; now back to the *subject* at hand. (Uh, sorry about that one.) The subject–verb pair in action-verb sentences may usually stand alone, but the subject–verb pair in linking verb sentences may not.

Compound subjects and verbs: Two for the price of one

Subjects and verbs pair off, but sometimes you get two (or more) for the price of one. You can have two subjects (or more) and one verb. The multiple subjects are called *compound subjects.* Here's an example:

> *Dorothy* and *Justin* went home in defeat.

Here you notice one action *(went)* and two people *(Dorothy, Justin)* doing the action. So the verb *went* has two subjects.

Now take a look at some additional examples:

> *Lola* and *Lulu* ganged up on George yesterday to his dismay and defeat. (*Lola, Lulu* = subjects)
>
> The *omelet* and *fries* revolted Eggworthy. (*omelet, fries* = subjects)

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Snort and *Squirm* were the only two dwarves expelled from Snow White's band. (*Snort, Squirm* = subjects)

Another variation is one subject paired with two (or more) verbs. For example:

> Justin's ex-girlfriend *burped* and *cried* after the contest.

You've got two actions *(burped, cried)* and one person doing both *(ex-girlfriend). Ex-girlfriend* is the subject of both *burped* and *cried.*

Some additional samples of double verbs, which in grammatical terms are called *compound verbs:*

> George *snatched* the atomic secret and quickly *stashed* it in his navel. (*snatched, stashed* = verbs)
>
> Ella *ranted* for hours about Larry's refusal to hold an engagement party and then *crept* home. (*ranted, crept* = verbs)
>
> Eggworthy *came* out of his shell last winter but *didn't stay* there. (*came, did stay* = verbs)

Pop the Question: Locating the Subject–Verb Pairs

Allow me to let you in on a little trick for pinpointing the subject–verb pair of a sentence: Pop the question! (No, I'm not asking you to propose.) Pop the question tells you what to ask in order to find out what you want to know. The correct question is all important in the search for information, as all parents realize.

> WRONG QUESTION FROM PARENT: What did you do last night?
>
> TEENAGER'S ANSWER: Nothing.
>
> RIGHT QUESTION FROM PARENT: When you came in at 2 a.m., were you hoping that I'd ignore the fact that you went to the China Club?
>
> TEENAGER'S ANSWER: I didn't go to the China Club! I went to Moomba.
>
> PARENT: Aha! You went to a club on a school night. You're grounded.

In Chapter 2, I explain that the first question to ask is not "Is this going to be on the test?" but "What's the verb?" (To find the verb, ask *what's happening?* or *what is?*) After you uncover the verb, put "who" or "what" in front of it to form a question. The answer is the subject.

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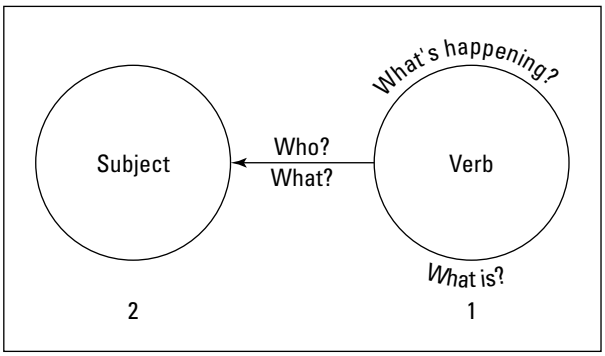

Try one:

Jackknife sharpens his dives during hours of practice.

1. Pop the question: What's happening? Answer: *sharpens. Sharpens* is the verb.
2. Pop the question: Who or what *sharpens?* Answer: *Jackknife sharpens. Jackknife* is the subject.

A pop quiz on popping the question. What are the subject and verb in the following sentence?

Jolly Roger will soon be smiling because of all the treasure in his ship.

Answer: The verb is *will be smiling* and the subject is *Jolly Roger.* Try one more. Identify the subject and verb.

No matter what the weather, Roger never even considers wearing a hat.

Answer: The verb is *considers* and the subject is *Roger.*

What's a Nice Subject Like You Doing in a Place Like This? Unusual Word Order

Most of the sentences you encounter are in the normal subject–verb order, which is (gasp) subject–verb. In other words, the subject usually comes before the verb. Not every sentence follows that order, though most do. Sometimes a subject hides out at the end of the sentence or in some other weird place. (Hey, even a subject needs a change of scenery sometime.)

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Me, myself, and I

You can use *I* as a subject, but not *me* or *myself.*

> Wrong: Bill and me are going to rob that bank. Bill and myself will soon be in jail.
>
> Right: Bill and I are going to rob that bank. Bill and I will soon be in jail.

Me doesn't perform actions; it receives actions. To put this rule another way: *me* is an object of some action or form of attention: He gave the check to *me.*

Myself is appropriate only for actions that double back on the person performing the action: I told *myself* not to be such a nerd! *Myself* may also be used for emphasis (though some grammarians object to the repetition), along with the word *I: I myself* will disclose the secret to the tabloid offering the most bucks.

If you pop the question and answer it according to the meaning of the sentence — not according to the word order — you'll be fine. The key is to put the subject questions (who? what?) in front of the verb. Then think about what the sentence is actually saying and answer the questions. And voilà! Your subject will appear.

Try this one:

> Up the avenue and around the park trudged Godzilla on his way to tea with the Loch Ness Monster.

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *trudged. Trudged* is the verb.
2. Pop the question: Who *trudged?* What *trudged?* Answer: *Godzilla. Godzilla* is the subject. (I'll let you decide whether Godzilla is a who or a what.)

If you were answering by word order, you'd say *park.* But the *park* did not *trudge, Godzilla trudged.* Pay attention to meaning, not to placement in the sentence, and you can't go wrong.

What are the subjects and verbs in the following sentences?

A. Alas, what a woefully inadequate grammarian am I.

B. Across the river and through the woods to the grammarian's house go Ella and Larry.

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Answers: In sentence A, *am* is the verb and *I* is the subject. In sentence B, the verb is *go* and the subjects are *Ella* and *Larry.*

Always find the verb first. Then look for the subject.

Find That Subject! Detecting You-Understood

"Cross on the green, not in between."

"Eat your vegetables."

"Don't leave your chewing gum on the bedpost overnight."

What do these sentences have in common? Yes, they're all nagging comments you've heard all your life. More importantly, they're all commands. The verbs give orders: *cross, eat, don't leave.* So where's the subject in these sentences?

If you pop the question, here's what happens:

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *cross, eat, don't leave.*
2. Pop the question: Who *cross, eat, don't leave?* Answer: Uh . . .

The second question appears to have no answer, but appearances can be deceiving. The answer is *you. You* cross at the green, not in between. *You* eat your vegetables. *You* don't leave your chewing gum on the bedpost overnight. What's that you say? *You* is not in the sentence? True. *You* is not written, but it's implied. And when your mom says, "Eat your vegetables," you understand that she means *you.* So grammarians say that the subject is *you-understood.* The subject is *you,* even though *you* isn't in the sentence and even though *you* don't intend to eat any taste-free lima beans.

Pop the questions and find the subject–verb pairs in these three sentences.

A. Ella, dancing the cha-cha, forgot to watch her feet.

B. Stop, Ella!

C. Over the bandleader and across five violin stands fell Ella, heavily.

Answers: In sentence A, *forgot* is the verb and *Ella* is the subject. *Dancing* is a fake verb. (I discuss finding fake verbs and subjects later in this chapter.) In sentence B, *stop* is the verb and *you-understood* is the subject. The remark is addressed to *Ella,* but *you-understood* is still the subject. In sentence C, *fell* is the verb and *Ella* is the subject.

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Searching for the Subject in Questions

Does everyone love grammar? Don't answer that! I started this section with that sentence not to check attitudes toward grammar (I'd rather not know) but to illustrate the subject's favorite location in a question. Most questions in English are formed by adding a helping verb — *do, does, will, can, should,* and so forth — to a main verb. (For everything you need to know about helping verbs, turn to Chapter 2.) The subject is generally tucked between the helping verb and the main verb, but you don't have to bother remembering that fascinating bit of trivia. To locate the subject in a question, simply "pop the question" the same way you do for any other sentence. Here's how to attack the first sentence of this paragraph:

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *does love.*
2. Pop the question: Who *does love?* Answer: *everyone.*

When you're "popping the subject question" for a question, the "popped question" may sound a little odd. Why? Because in a question, the subject usually isn't located in front of the verb. But if you ignore the awkwardness of the phrasing and concentrate on meaning, you can easily — and correctly — identify the subject of a question.

Pop the questions and find the subject–verb pairs in these three questions.

A. Will George ever floss his teeth?

B. Could I possibly care less about George's hygiene?

C. Won't George's dentist charge extra?

Answers: In sentence A, *will floss* is the verb and *George* is the subject. In sentence B, *could care* is the verb and the subject is *I.* Sentence C is a bit tricky. The word "won't" is short for "will not." So the verb in C is *will charge*, and the subject is *George's dentist.* You may be wondering what happened to the *not. Not* is an adverb, not that you need to know that fact. It changes the meaning of the verb from positive to negative. (For more on adverbs, turn to Chapter 7.)

Don't Get Faked Out: Avoiding Fake Verbs and Subjects

As I walk through New York City, I often see "genuine" Rolex watches (retail $10,000 or so) for sale from street peddlers for "$15 — special today only!" You need to guard against fakes when you're on the city streets (no surprise there). Also (and this may be a surprise), you need to guard against fakes when you're finding subject–verb pairs.

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Finding fake verbs

Verbs in English grammar can be a little sneaky sometimes. You may ask *who?* or *what?* in front of a verb and get no answer or at least no answer that makes sense. When this happens, you may gather that you haven't really found a verb. You've probably stumbled upon a lookalike, or, as I call it, a "fake verb." Here's an example:

> Wiping his tears dramatically, Alex pleaded with the teacher to forgive his lack of homework.

Suppose you pop the verb question *(What's happening? What is?)* and get *wiping* for an answer. A reasonable guess. But now pop the subject question: *Who wiping? What wiping?* The questions don't sound right, and that's your first hint that you haven't found a real verb. But the question is not important. The answer, however, is! And there is no real answer in the sentence. You may try *Alex,* but when you put him with the "verb," it doesn't match: *Alex wiping*. (*Alex is wiping* would be okay, but that's not what the sentence says.) So now you know for sure that your first "verb" isn't really a verb. Put it aside and keep looking. What's the real verb? *Pleaded.*

To sum up: Lots of words in the sentence express action or being, but only some of these words are verbs. (Most are what grammarians call verbals; check out Chapter 24 for more on verbals.) At any rate, if you get no answer to your pop-the-subject question, just ignore the "verb" you think you found and look for the real verb.

Watching out for "here" and "there" and other fake subjects

Someone comes up to you and says, "Here is one million dollars." What's the first question that comes into your mind? I know, good grammarian that you are, that your question is *What's the subject of that sentence?* Well, try to answer your question in the usual way, by popping the question.

> Here is one million dollars.
>
> 1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *is.*
> 2. Pop the question: Who *is?* What *is?* Answer: ?

What did you say? *Here is?* Wrong. *Here* can't be a subject. Neither can *there.* Both of these words are fake subjects. (*Here* and *there* are adverbs, not nouns. See Chapter 7 for more on adverbs.) What's the real answer to the question *What is? One million dollars.* Here and there are fill-ins, place markers; they aren't what you're talking about. *One million dollars* — that's what you're talking about!

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Choosing the correct verb for "here" and "there" sentences

If you write *here* and *there* sentences, be sure to choose the correct verb. Because *here* and *there* are never subjects, you must always look *after* the verb for the real subject. When you match a subject to a verb (something I discuss in detail in Chapter 10), be sure to use the real subject, not *here* or *there.* Example:

Here are ten anteaters. NOT Here is ten anteaters. (anteaters = subject)

If you want to check your choice of verb, try reversing the sentence. In the sample sentence above, say *ten anteaters is/are.* Chances are your "ear" will tell you that you want *ten anteaters are*, not *ten anteaters is.*

Standardized tests often check whether you can detect the right verb for a "here" or "there" sentence. Test-taker beware!

Which sentence is correct?

A. There are 50 reasons for my complete lack of homework.

B. There's 50 reasons for my complete lack of homework.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. In sentence B, *there's* is short for *there is,* but *reasons,* the plural subject, takes a plural verb.

Subjects Aren't Just a Singular Sensation: Forming the Plural of Nouns

Distinguishing between singular and plural subjects is a really big deal, and I go into it in detail in Chapter 10. But before I go any further, I want to explain how to form the plural of nouns (words that name persons, places, or things) because most subjects are nouns. If you learn how to form plurals, you'll also be able to recognize them.

Regular plurals

Plain old garden-variety nouns form plurals by adding the letter *s.* Check out Table 4-1 for some examples.

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Table 4-1 Examples of Regular Plurals

Singular	*Plural*
xylophone	xylophones
quintuplet	quintuplets
worrywart	worrywarts
nerd	nerds
lollipop	lollipops
eyebrow	eyebrows

Singular nouns that end in *s* already, as well as singular nouns ending in *sh, ch,* and *x* form plurals by adding *es.* Some examples are shown in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2 Examples of Regular Plurals Ending in -s and -ch

Singular	*Plural*
grinch	grinches
box	boxes
kiss	kisses
George Bush	both George Bushes
mess	messes
catch	catches

The -IES and -YS have it

If a noun ends in the letter *y,* and the letter before the *y* is a vowel (a, e, i, o, u), just add *s.* For examples, see Table 4-3.

Table 4-3 Examples of Regular Plurals Ending in a Vowel Plus y

Singular	*Plural*
monkey	monkeys
turkey	turkeys
day	days
boy	boys
honey	honeys
bay	bays

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If the noun ends in *y* but the letter before the *-y* is not a vowel, form the plural by changing the *y* to *i* and adding *es.* For examples, see Table 4-4.

Table 4-4 Examples of Regular Plurals Ending in a Consonant Plus -y

Singular	*Plural*
sob story	sob stories
unsolvable mystery	unsolvable mysteries
a cute little ditty (it means *song*)	cute little ditties
pinky	pinkies
bat-filled belfry	bat-filled belfries
tabby	tabbies

Never change the spelling of a name when you make it plural. The plural of *Sammy* is *Sammys,* not *Sammies.*

No knifes here: Irregular plurals

This topic wouldn't be any fun without irregulars, now would it? Okay, you're right. Irregulars are always a pain. However, they're also always around. Table 4-5 gives you examples of irregular plurals.

Table 4-5 Examples of Irregular Plurals

Singular	*Plural*
knife	knives
sheep	sheep
man	men
woman	women
child	children
deer	deer

Listing all the irregular plurals is an impossible task. Check the dictionary for any noun plural that puzzles you.

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Are you affected? Or effected?

Has the study of grammar affected or effected your brain? Should you set or sit on the porch to think about this sentence? These two pairs of words are a complete annoyance, but once you learn them, you're all set. (And I do mean set.) Here are the definitions:

Affect versus effect: Affect is a verb. It means to influence. Effect is a noun meaning result. Hence

> Sunlight affects Ludwig's appetite; he never eats during the day.
>
> Ludmilla thinks that her vegetarian pizza will affect Ludwig's dietary regimen, but I think the effect will be disastrous.

Special note: Affect may also be a noun meaning "the way one relates to and shows emotions." Effect may act as a verb meaning "to cause a complete change." However, you rarely need these secondary meanings.

Sit versus set: Sit is a verb meaning "to plop yourself down on a chair, to take a load off your feet." Set means "to put something else down, to place something in a particular spot." Thus

> Ratrug seldom sits for more than two minutes.
>
> I'd like to sit down while I speak, but only if you promise not to set that plate of pickled fish eyeballs in front of me.

The brother-in-law rule: Hyphenated plurals

If you intend to insult your relatives, you may as well do so with the correct plural form. Remember: Form the plural of hyphenated nouns by adding *s* or *es* to the important word, not to the add-ons. These words are all plurals:

- mothers-in-law
- brothers-in-law
- vice-presidents
- secretaries-general
- dogcatchers-in-chief

You may hear references to "attorney generals." If you do, call the grammar police. An "attorney general" is a lawyer, not a military officer. Therefore, *attorney* is the important part of this title, and it's a noun. The *general* is a description — a reference to the rank of the *attorney.* To form a plural, you deal with the noun, not with the descriptive word. Therefore, you have one *attorney general* and two or more *attorneys general.*

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Chapter 5

Having It All: The Complete Sentence

In This Chapter

- Identifying the elements of a complete sentence
- Uniting two or more complete sentences properly
- Joining ideas of unequal importance
- Dealing with sentence fragments
- Placing periods, questions marks, and exclamation points in the correct spot

Everyone knows the most important rule of English grammar: All sentences must be complete. But everyone breaks the rule. I just did! *But everyone breaks the rule* is not a complete sentence; it's a sentence *fragment*. At times, fragments are perfectly acceptable, and in this chapter I show you when you can get away with writing one. The other extreme — more than one complete sentence improperly glued together — is a *run-on sentence.* A run-on sentence — and its variation, a *comma splice* — are never okay. In fact, they're grammatical felonies. Never fear: in this chapter I explain how to join ideas without risking a visit from the Grammar Police. I also provide everything you need to know about *endmarks*, the punctuation separating one sentence from another.

Completing Sentences: The Essential Subjects and Verbs

A complete sentence has at least one subject–verb pair. They're a pair because they match. They both enjoy long walks on the beach, singing in the rain, and making fun of American Idol contestants. Just kidding. They match because, well, they work smoothly as a team. One half of the pair (the verb)

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expresses action or being, and the other half (the subject) is whatever or whoever does the action or exists in the state of being. (For more information on verbs, see Chapters 2 and 3; for more information on subjects, see Chapter 4.) A few subject–verb pairs that match are

Eggworthy scrambled

Ms. Drydock has repaired

Eva will be

Just for comparison, here is one mismatch:

Eggworthy scrambling

When you're texting or IMing (instant messaging), space is tight. Every character counts, including spaces. Therefore, many people opt for "sentences" that contain only verbs, when the meaning is clear. Check out this "text":

Went home. Fed cow. Cleaned barn.

The missing subject, *I*, is obvious. If you're talking about someone else, however, you need to supply a subject:

Abner went home. Fed cow. Cleaned barn.

Now the person receiving the message understands that Abner did all the work, not the texter — who, of course, was too busy texting to do chores. By the way, I used capital letters in the preceding examples. Lots of people opt for lowercase only in messages like these. Check out Chapter 15 for a guide to capitalization and electronic media.

You may find some mismatches in your sentences when you go subject–verb hunting. Mismatches are not necessarily wrong; they're simply not subject–verb pairs. Take a look at the preceding mismatch, this time inside its sentence:

Eggworthy, scrambling for a seat on the plane, knocked over the omelet plate.

When you're checking a sentence for completeness, ignore the mismatches. Keep looking until you find a subject–verb pair that belongs together. If you can't find one, you don't have a complete sentence.

Complete sentences may also include more than one subject–verb pair:

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Dorothy fiddled while the orchestra pit burned. (*Dorothy* = subject of the verb *fiddled, orchestra pit* = subject of the verb *burned*)

Because Lester jumped on the trampoline, the earth shook. (*Lester* = subject of the verb *jumped, earth* = subject of the verb *shook*)

Not only did George swim, but he also sipped the pool water. (*George* = subject of the verb *did swim, he* = subject of the verb *sipped*)

Complete sentences may also match one subject with more than one verb, and vice versa:

The lizard with a British accent appeared in three commercials but sang in only two. (*lizard* = subject of verbs *appeared, sang*)

Alice and Archie will fight endlessly over a single birdseed. (*Alice, Archie* = subjects of the verb *will fight*)

Roger and I put crayons on the radiator. (*Roger, I* = subjects of the verb *put*)

Complete sentences that give commands may match an understood subject (you) with the verb:

Give me a coupon. (*you-understood* = subject of the verb *give*)

Visit Grandma, you little creep! (*you-understood* = subject of the verb *visit*)

To find the subject–verb pair, start with the verb. Pop the verb question: *What's happening?* or *What is?* The answer is the verb. Then pop the subject question: Ask *who?* or *what?* in front of the verb. The answer is the subject. (For a more complete explanation, see Chapter 4.)

The sentence below contains one true subject–verb pair and one mismatch. Can you find the subject–verb pair?

The angry ant caught in a blob of glue vowed never to walk near a model airplane again.

Answer: The subject–verb pair is *ant vowed.* The mismatch is *ant caught.* The sentence isn't saying that the *ant caught* something, so *ant caught* is not a match.

In the preceding pop quiz, *to* walk is not the verb. *To walk* is an infinitive, the basic form from which verbs are made. Infinitives never function as verbs in a sentence. (See Chapter 2 for more information on infinitives.)

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Complete Thoughts, Complete Sentences

What's an incomplete sentence? It's the moment in the television show just before the last commercial. You know what I mean. *The hero slowly edges the door open a few inches, peeks in, gasps, and . . . FADE TO DANCING DETERGENT BOTTLE.* You were planning to change the channel, but instead you wait to see if the villain's cobra is going to bite the hero's nose. You haven't gotten to the end, and you don't know what's happening. A complete sentence is the opposite of that moment in a television show. You have gotten to the end, and you do know what's happening. In other words, a complete sentence must express a complete thought. (You've probably noticed that grammar terminology is not terribly original; in fact, it's terribly obvious.)

Check out these complete sentences. Notice how they express complete thoughts:

> Despite Eggworthy's fragile appearance, he proved to be a tough opponent.
>
> Ms. Drydock will sail solo around the world, as soon as her boat stops leaking.
>
> I can't imagine why anyone would want to ride on top of a Zamboni.
>
> Did Lola apply for a job as a Zamboni driver?

For comparison, here are a few incomplete thoughts:

> The reason I wanted a divorce was.
>
> Because I said so.

I can guess what you're thinking. Both of those incomplete thoughts may be part of a longer conversation. Yes, in context those incomplete thoughts may indeed express a complete thought:

> Sydney: So the topic of conversation was the Rangers' season opener?
>
> Alice: No! "The reason I wanted a divorce" was!

and

> Sydney: Why do I have to do this dumb homework?
>
> Alice: Because I said so.

Fair enough. You can pull a complete thought out of the examples. However, the context of a conversation is not enough to satisfy the complete thought/complete sentence rule. To be "legal," your sentence must express a complete thought.

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Check out these examples:

> The reason I wanted a divorce was what we discussed, even though his real interest was the Rangers' season opener.
>
> You have to do this dumb homework because I said so.

Final answer: Every complete sentence has at least one subject–verb pair and must express a complete thought.

In deciding whether you have a complete sentence or not, you may be led astray by words that resemble questions. Consider these three words: *who knits well.* A complete thought? Maybe yes, maybe no. Suppose those three words form a question:

> Who knits well?

This question is understandable and its thought is complete. Verdict: legal. Suppose these three words form a statement:

> Who knits well.

Now they don't make sense. This incomplete sentence needs more words to make a complete thought:

> The honor of making Fido's sweater will go to the person who knits well.

The moral of the story? Don't change the meaning of what you're saying when deciding whether a thought is complete. If you're *questioning,* consider your sentence as a *question.* If you're *stating,* consider your sentence as a *statement.*

Occasionally a complete sentence ends with an ellipsis — three spaced dots. Such sentences show up in dramatic works, to add suspense or to indicate hesitation or confusion. These sentences appear incomplete, but because they fulfill the author's purpose, they *are* complete. For more information on ellipses, see "Oh, Mama, Could This Really Be the End?" later in this chapter.

Which sentence is complete?

A. Martin sings.

B. Martin, who hopes to sing professionally some day but can't get beyond the do-re-mi level.

Answer: Even though it is short, sentence A is complete. *Martin sings* is a complete idea and includes the necessary subject–verb pair. In sentence B, one subject is paired with two verbs *(who + hopes, can get),* but no complete thought is stated.

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Why clarity is important

One of my favorite moments in teaching came on a snowy January day. A student named Danny ran into the lunchroom, clearly bursting with news. "Guess what?" he shouted triumphantly to his friends. "A kid on my bus's mother had a baby last night!"

This situation wasn't critical. After all, the baby had already been born. But imagine if Danny had been greeting an ambulance with "Quick! Over here! A kid on my bus's mother is having a baby!" I think everyone agrees that the best reaction from an emergency medical technician isn't "Huh?"

Being clear is probably the first rule of English grammar, and that rule wins a fight with any other rule. Faced with a choice between confusion and incomplete sentences, for example, incomplete sentences win. Here's the news Danny should have spread that cold January day:

> This kid on my bus? His mother had a baby last night.

Of course, he could also have told his story correctly by saying:

> The mother of a kid on my bus had a baby last night.

Either way, everyone would've yawned, eaten another bite of mystery meat, and filed out to math class. Hearing either of these statements, the students would've understood what Danny was trying to say.

So remember: First comes meaning. Second comes everything else.

Combining Sentences

Listen to the nearest toddler and you may hear something like "I played with the clay and I went to the zoo and Mommy said I had to take a nap and . . ." and so forth. Monotonous, yes. But — surprise, surprise — grammatically correct. Take a look at how the information would sound if that one sentence turned into three: *I played with the clay. I went to the zoo. Mommy said I had to take a nap.* The information sounds choppy. When the sentences are combined, the information flows more smoothly. Granted, joining everything with *and* is not a great idea. Read on for better ways of attaching one sentence to another.

Standardized test-makers enjoy plopping run-on sentences and comma splices into paragraphs and checking whether you can identify the run-ons as grammatically incorrect. (A run-on sentence is two or more complete thoughts joined improperly. A comma splice is a run-on in which a comma attempts to unite two complete thoughts.) Teachers who score the writing section of the SAT also frown on run-ons and comma splices. The best way to avoid this type of grammar error is to figure out how to connect sentences legally, as explained in this section.

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Connecting with coordinate conjunctions

The words used to join words or longer expressions are called *conjunctions.* You're familiar with these common words: *for, but, yet, so, nor, and,* and *or.* (*And* is the most popular, for those of you keeping track.) These little powerhouses, which are called *coordinate conjunctions,* eat their spinach and lift weights every day. Their healthful habits make them strong enough to join complete sentences. They may also unite all sorts of equal grammatical elements. Here they are in action, joining complete sentences:

> The rain pelted Abner's gray hair, *and* his green velvet shoes were completely ruined.
>
> The CEO told Tanya to text the address of the restaurant to everyone, *but* Tanya had no idea where the restaurant was.
>
> You can take a hike, *or* you can jump off a cliff.
>
> Ben did not know how to shoe a horse, *nor* did he understand equine psychology.
>
> The townspeople lined the streets, *for* they had heard a rumor about Lady Godiva.

The coordinate conjunctions give equal emphasis to the elements they join. In the preceding sentences, the ideas on one side of the conjunction have no more importance than the ideas on the other side of the conjunction.

When the conjunctions *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, and *for* unite two complete sentences, a comma precedes the conjunction. For the lowdown on commas, turn to Chapter 13.

Some words appear to be strong enough to join sentences, but in reality they're just a bunch of 98-pound weaklings. Think of these words as guys who stuff socks in their sleeves, creating biceps without the hassle of going to the gym. These fellows may look good, but the minute you need them to pick up a truck or something, they're history. False joiners include *however, consequently, therefore, moreover, also,* and *furthermore.* Use these words to add meaning to your sentences but not to glue the sentences together. When you see these words on a standardized exam, be careful! A favorite test-maker trick is to plop these words into a run-on. Take a look at these examples:

> RUN-ON: Levon gobbled the birdseed, consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.
>
> CORRECTED VERSION #1: Levon gobbled the birdseed; consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.
>
> CORRECTED VERSION #2: Levon gobbled the birdseed. Consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.

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Notice the semicolon in the first corrected sentence? Semicolons are equivalent to coordinate conjunctions. According to the Official Grammarian's Rule Book (which doesn't exist), semicolons can join two complete sentences under certain conditions. See the next section for more details.

With your sharp eyes, you probably spotted a comma after *consequently* in each of the preceding examples. Grammarians argue about whether you must place a comma after a false joiner. (For the record, false joiners are *conjunctive adverbs.* No one in the entire universe needs to know that term.) Some grammarians say that the comma is necessary. Others (I'm one) see the comma as optional — a question of personal style. This is the sort of argument that makes grammarians ideal candidates for Nerds Anonymous.

Attaching thoughts: Semicolons

The semicolon is a funny little punctuation mark; it functions as a pit stop between one idea and another. It's not as strong as a period, which in Britain is called a "full stop" because, well, that's what a period does. It stops the reader. A semicolon lets the reader take a rest, but just for a moment. This punctuation mark is strong enough to attach one complete sentence to another.

I've seen writing manuals that proclaim, "Never use semicolons!" with the same intensity of feeling as, say, "Don't blow up the world with that nuclear missile." Other people can't get enough of them, sprinkling them like confetti on New Year's. As far as I'm concerned, use them if you like them. Ignore them if you don't.

If you do put a semicolon in your sentence, be sure to attach related ideas. Here's an example:

> RIGHT: Grover was born in Delaware; he moved to Virginia when he was four.
>
> WRONG: I put nonfat yogurt into that soup; I like Stephen King's books.

In the first example, both parts of the sentence are about Grover's living arrangements. In the second, those two ideas are, to put it mildly, not in the same universe. (At least not until Stephen King writes a book about a killer container of yogurt. It could happen.)

Punctuate the following, adding or subtracting words as needed:

> Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem he is afraid of scratching himself.

Answer: Many combinations are possible, including these two:

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Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem. He is afraid of scratching himself.

Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem; he is afraid of scratching himself.

Boss and Employee: Joining Ideas of Unequal Ranks

In the average company, the boss runs the show. The boss has subordinates who play two important roles. They must do at least some work, and they must make the boss feel like the center of the universe. Leave the boss alone in the office, and everything's fine. Leave the employees alone in the office, and pretty soon someone is swinging from the light fixture.

Some sentences resemble companies. The "boss" part of a sentence is all right by itself; it expresses a complete thought. The "employee" can't stand alone; it's an incomplete thought. (In case you're into grammar lingo: the boss is an *independent clause*, and the employee is a *subordinate clause*. For more information on independent and subordinate clauses, see Chapter 24.) Together, the "boss" and the "employee" create a more powerful sentence. Check out some examples:

BOSS: Jack ate the bagel.

EMPLOYEE: After he had picked out all the raisins.

JOINING 1: Jack ate the bagel after he had picked out all the raisins.

JOINING 2: After he had picked out all the raisins, Jack ate the bagel.

BOSS: George developed the secret microfilm.

EMPLOYEE: Because he felt traitorous.

JOINING 1: George developed the secret microfilm because he felt traitorous.

JOINING 2: Because he felt traitorous, George developed the secret microfilm.

BOSS: The book bag is in the garage.

EMPLOYEE: That Larry lost.

JOINING: The book bag that Larry lost is in the garage.

The joined example sentences are grammatically legal because they contain at least one complete thought, which can stand on its own as a complete sentence.

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Whether or if it rains

Whether and *if* both connect one idea to another in a sentence, but each is used in a different situation. Are you choosing between two alternatives? Select *whether,* as in *whether or not.* Look at the following examples:

> George is not sure *whether* he should activate the wind machine. (He has two choices — to activate or not to activate.)
>
> *Whether* I go or stay is completely irrelevant to me. (Two choices — going and staying.)

If, on the other hand, describes a possibility. Check out these examples:

> Lulu will reach the top of Mount Everest *if* the sunny weather continues. (The sentence talks about the possibility of sunny weather and Lulu's successful climb.)
>
> *If* I have my way, the Grammarians' Ball will be held at the Participle Club. (The sentence talks about the possibility of my having what I want and the location of the world's most boring event.)

Choosing subordinate conjunctions

The conjunctions in the boss–employee type of sentence I describe in the preceding section do double duty. These conjunctions emphasize that one idea (the "boss," an independent clause, the equivalent of a complete sentence) is more important than the other (the "employee" or subordinate clause). The conjunctions joining boss and employee give some information about the relationship between the two ideas. These conjunctions are called *subordinate conjunctions.* Some common subordinate conjunctions are *while, because, although, though, since, when, where, if, whether, before, until, than, as, as if, in order that, so that, whenever,* and *wherever.* (Whew!)

Check out how conjunctions are used in these examples:

> Sentence 1: Michael was shaving. (not a very important activity)
>
> Sentence 2: The earthquake destroyed the city. (a rather important event)

If these two sentences are joined as equals with a coordinate conjunction, the writer emphasizes both events:

> Michael was shaving, *and* the earthquake destroyed the city.

Grammatically, the sentence is legal. Morally, this statement poses a problem. Do you really think that Michael's avoidance of five o'clock shadow is equal in importance to an earthquake that measures 7 on the Richter scale? Better to join these clauses as unequals with the help of a subordinate conjunction, making the main idea about the earthquake the boss:

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While Michael was shaving, the earthquake destroyed the city.

or

The earthquake destroyed the city *while* Michael was shaving.

The *while* gives you *time* information, attaches the employee sentence to the boss sentence, and shows the greater importance of the earthquake. Not bad for five letters.

Here's another:

Sentence 1: Esther must do her homework now.

Sentence 2: Mom is on the warpath.

In combining these two ideas, you have a few decisions to make. First of all, if you put them together as equals, the reader will wonder why you're mentioning both statements at the same time:

Esther must do her homework now, *but* Mom is on the warpath.

This joining may mean that Mom is running around the house screaming at the top of her lungs. Although Esther has often managed to concentrate on her history homework while blasting heavy metal music at mirror-shattering levels, she finds that concentrating is impossible during Mom's tantrums. Esther won't get anything done until Mom settles down with a cup of tea. That's one possible meaning of this joined sentence. But why leave your reader guessing? Try another joining:

Esther must do her homework now *because* Mom is on the warpath.

This sentence is much clearer: Esther's mother got one of those little pink notes from the teacher *(Number of missing homeworks: 323).* Esther knows that if she wants to survive through high school graduation, she'd better get to work now. One more joining to check:

Mom is on the warpath *because* Esther must do her homework now.

Okay, in this version Esther's mother has asked her daughter to clean the garage. She's been asking Esther every day for the last two years. Now the health inspector is due and Mom's really worried. But Esther told her that she couldn't clean up now because she had to do her homework. World War III erupted immediately.

Do you see the power of these joining words? These conjunctions strongly influence the meanings of the sentences.

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Being that I like grammar

Many people say *being that* to introduce a reason. Unfortunately, *being that* is a grammatical felony in the first degree (if there are degrees of grammatical felonies — I'm a grammarian, not a lawyer). Here's the issue: People use *being that* as a subordinate conjunction, but *being that* is not acceptable, at least in formal English usage. Try *because.* For example:

WRONG: *Being that* it was Thanksgiving, Mel bought a turkey.

RIGHT: *Because* it was Thanksgiving, Mel bought a turkey.

WRONG: The turkey shed a tear or two, *being that* it was Thanksgiving.

RIGHT: The turkey shed a tear or two, *because* it was Thanksgiving.

You may like the sound of *since* in the sample sentences. Increasingly, *since* is being used as a synonym for *because,* and so far civilization as we know it hasn't crumbled. The grammarians who like to predict the end of the world because of such issues have a problem with the *since/because* connection. They prefer to use *since* for time statements:

I haven't seen the turkey *since* the ax came out of the box.

Since you've been gone, I've begun an affair with Bill Bailey.

Another grammatical no-no is *irregardless.* I think *irregardless* is popular because it's a long word that feels good when you say it. Those *r's* just roll right off the tongue. Sadly, *irregardless* is not a conjunction. It's not even a word, according to the rules of formal English. Use *regardless* (not nearly so much fun to pronounce) or *despite the fact that.*

WRONG: Irregardless, we are going to eat you, you turkey!

RIGHT: Regardless, we are going to eat you, you turkey!

ALSO RIGHT: Despite the fact that you are a tough old bird, we are going to eat you, you turkey!

Employing Pronouns to Combine Sentences

A useful trick for combining short sentences legally is "the pronoun connection." (A *pronoun* substitutes for a noun, which is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea. See Chapter 9 for more information.) Check out these combinations:

Sentence 1: Amy read the book.

Sentence 2: The book had a thousand pictures in it.

Joining: Amy read the book *that* had a thousand pictures in it.

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Sentence 1: The paper map stuck to Wilbur's shoe.

Sentence 2: We plan to use the map to take over the world.

Joining: The paper map, *which* we plan to use to take over the world, stuck to Wilbur's shoe.

Sentence 1: Margaret wants to hire a carpenter.

Sentence 2: The carpenter will build a new ant farm for her pets.

Joining: Margaret wants to hire a carpenter *who* will build a new ant farm for her pets.

Sentence 1: The tax bill was passed yesterday.

Sentence 2: The tax bill will lower taxes for the top .00009% income bracket.

Joining: The tax bill *that* was passed yesterday will lower taxes for the top .00009% income bracket.

Alternate joining: The tax bill that was passed yesterday will lower taxes for Bill Gates. (Okay, I interpreted a little.)

That, which, and *who* are pronouns. In the combined sentences, each takes the place of a noun. *(That* replaces *book, which* replaces *map, who* replaces *carpenter, that* replaces *tax bill.)* These pronouns serve as thumbtacks, attaching a subordinate or less important idea to the main body of the sentence. For grammar trivia contests: *that, which,* and *who* (as well as *whom* and *whose*) are pronouns that may relate one idea to another. When they do that job, they are called relative pronouns.

Relative pronouns — like real relatives, at least in some families! — can cause lots of problems. Therefore, the SAT and ACT hit this topic hard. Chapter 23 tells you everything you need to know about relative pronouns.

Combine these sentences with a pronoun.

Sentence 1: Charlie slowly tiptoed toward the poisonous snakes.

Sentence 2: The snakes soon bit Charlie right on the tip of his nose.

Answer: Charlie slowly tiptoed toward the poisonous snakes, *which* soon bit Charlie right on the tip of his nose. The pronoun *which* replaces *snakes* in sentence 2.

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Steering Clear of Fragments

I use incomplete sentences, or fragments, here and there throughout this book, and (I hope) these incomplete sentences aren't confusing. Especially now in the Electronic Media Age, quick cuts and short comments are the rule. Everyone today, particularly young people, is much more comfortable with fragments than our elderly relatives were. (I have to point out that the entire older generation, no matter how fanatically correct in grammar, loves one incomplete sentence: *Because I said so.*)

The most common type of fragment uses the words *and, or, but,* and *nor.* These words are *conjunctions,* and as I explain in "Combining Sentences Legally" in this chapter, these conjunctions may combine two complete sentences (with two complete thoughts) into one longer sentence:

> Eggworthy went to his doctor for a cholesterol check, *and* then he scrambled home.

Nowadays, more and more writers begin sentences with *and, or, but,* and *nor,* especially in informal writing or for dramatic effect. For example, the previous sentence may be turned into

> Eggworthy went to his doctor for a cholesterol check. And then he scrambled home.

Beginning sentences with *and, but, or,* and *nor* is still not quite acceptable in formal English grammar. If you see a fragment beginning with one of these words in the error-recognition portion of a standardized test, consider it incorrect English. When you're writing an essay, you should also avoid fragments.

Another common error is to write a fragment that lacks a complete thought. This sort of fragment usually begins with a subordinate conjunction. (See "Choosing Subordinate Conjunctions" in this chapter for a complete explanation.) Don't let the number of words in sentence fragments fool you. Not all sentence fragments are short, though some are. Decide by meaning, not by length.

Here are some examples of this type of sentence fragment, so you know what to avoid:

> When it rained pennies from heaven
>
> As if he were king of the world
>
> After the ball was over but before it was time to begin the first day of the rest of your life and all those other clichés that you hear every day in the subway on your way to work

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Whether Al likes it or not

Because I said so

Whether you like it or not, and despite the fact that you don't like it, although I am really sorry that you are upset

If hell freezes over

and so on.

Which is a sentence fragment? Which is a complete sentence? Which is a comma splice (a run-on)?

A. Cedric sneezed.

B. Because Cedric sneezed in the middle of the opera, just when the main character removed that helmet with the little horns from on top of her head.

C. Cedric sneezed, I pulled out a handkerchief.

Answers: Sentence A is complete. Sentence B is not really a sentence; it's a fragment with no complete idea. Sentence C is a comma splice because it contains two complete thoughts joined only by a comma.

One more round. Combine these sentences in a grammatically correct way:

Sentence 1: George slipped the microfilm into the heel of his shoe.

Sentence 2: The shoe had been shined just yesterday by the superspy.

Sentence 3: The superspy pretends to work at a shoeshine stand.

Sentence 4: The superspy's name is unknown.

Sentence 5: The superspy's code number is –4.

Sentence 6: George is terrified of the superspy.

Answer: Dozens of combinations are possible. Here are two:

George slipped the microfilm into the heel of his shoe, which had been shined just yesterday by the superspy. The superspy, whose name is unknown but whose code number is –4, pretends to work at a shoeshine stand and terrifies George.

or

After the shoe had been shined by the superspy, who pretends to work at a shoeshine stand, George slipped the microfilm into the heel. George is terrified by the superspy, whose name is unknown and whose code number is –4.

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Oh, Mama, Could This Really Be the End? Understanding Endmarks

When you speak, your body language, silences, and tone act as punctuation marks. You wriggle your eyebrows, stop at significant moments, and raise your tone when you ask a question.

When you write, you can't raise an eyebrow or stop for a dramatic moment. No one hears your tone of voice. That's why grammar uses endmarks. The endmarks take the place of live communication and tell your reader how to "hear" the words correctly. Plus, you need endmarks to close your sentences legally. Your choices include the period (.), question mark (?), exclamation point (!), or ellipsis (. . .). The following examples show how to use endmarks correctly.

The period is for ordinary statements, declarations, and commands:

> I can't do my homework.
>
> I refuse to do my homework.
>
> I will never do homework again.

The question mark is for questions:

> Why are you torturing me with this homework?
>
> Is there no justice in the world of homework?
>
> Does no one know how much work in listed in my assignment pad?

The exclamation point adds a little drama to sentences that would otherwise end in periods:

> I can't do my homework!
>
> I absolutely positively refuse to do it!
>
> Oh, the agony of homework I've seen!

An ellipsis (three dots) signals that something has been left out of a sentence. When missing words occur at the end of a sentence, use four dots (three for the missing words and one for the end of the sentence):

> Michael choked, "I can't do my. . . ."
>
> Roger complained, "If you don't shut up, I. . . ."

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Don't put more than one endmark at the end of a sentence, unless you're trying to create a comic effect:

> He said my cooking tasted like what?!?!?!

Don't put any endmarks in the middle of a sentence. You may find a period inside a sentence as part of an abbreviation; in this case, the period is not considered an endmark. If the sentence ends with an abbreviation, let the period after the abbreviation do double duty. Don't add another period:

> WRONG: When Ella woke me, it was six a.m..
>
> RIGHT: When Ella woke me, it was six a.m.

Can you punctuate this example correctly?

> Who's there Archie I think there is someone at the door Archie it's a murderer Archie he's going to

Answer: Who's there? Archie, I think there is someone at the door. Archie, it's a murderer! (A period is acceptable here also.) Archie, he's going to. . . .

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Chapter 6

Handling Complements

In This Chapter

- Recognizing complements
- Understanding how a complement adds to the meaning of a sentence
- Distinguishing between linking-verb and action-verb complements
- Using the correct pronouns as complements

Speeding down the grammar highway, the sentence is a flatbed truck carrying meaning to the reader. The verbs are the wheels, and the subject is the driver. Complements are the common, not-always-essential parts of the truck — perhaps the odometer or the defroster. These words are a little more important than those fuzzy dice some people hang from their rearview mirrors or bumper stickers declaring *I stop at railroad tracks.* (What do they think the rest of us do? Leap over the train?) You can sometimes create a sentence without complements, but their presence is generally part of the driving — sorry, I mean *communicating* — experience.

Four kinds of complements show up in sentences: direct objects, indirect objects, objective complements, and subject complements — and this chapter explains all of them. The first three types of complements are related to the *object* of a sentence. (Notice that the word *object* is part of the name. The fourth type of complement is related to the *subject* of a sentence. (Thus the word *subject* is part of its name.) Distinguishing between these two groups helps you choose the proper pronoun, when the sentence calls for that part of speech — a favorite question on standardized tests.

Before I go any farther, it's time to straighten out the compliment/complement divide. The one with an "i" is just a word meaning "praise." *Complement* with an "e" is a grammatical term. A complement adds meaning to the idea that the subject and verb express. That is, a complement completes the idea that the subject and verb begin.

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Springing into Action Verb Complements

Action verbs express — surprise! — action. No action verb needs a complement to be grammatically legal. But an action-verb sentence without a complement may sound bare. The complements that follow action verbs — the direct object, indirect object, and objective complement — enhance the meaning of the subject-verb pair.

Receiving the action: Direct objects

Imagine that you're holding a baseball, ready to throw it to a buddy in your yard. In your fantasy, you're facing a Hall-of-Fame hitter. You go into your windup and pitch. The ball arcs gracefully against the clear blue sky — and crashes right through the picture window in your living room.

You broke the picture window!

Before you can retrieve your ball, your cell phone rings. It's your mom, who has radar for situations like this. *What's going on?* she asks. You mutter something containing the word *broke.* (There's the verb.) *Broke? Who broke something?* she demands. You concede that *you* did. (There's the subject.) *What did you break?* You hesitate. You consider a couple of possible answers: *a bad habit, the world's record for the hundred-meter dash.* Finally you confess: *the picture window.* (There's the complement.)

Here's another way to think about the situation (and the sentence). *Broke* is an action verb because it tells you what happened. The action came from the subject *(you)* and went to an object *(the window).* As some grammarians phrase it, *the window* receives the action expressed by the verb *broke.* Conclusion? *Window* is a *direct object* because it receives the action directly from the verb.

Try another.

With the force of 1,000 hurricanes, you pitch the baseball.

Pitch is an action verb because it expresses what is happening in the sentence. The action goes from the subject (*you,* the pitcher) to the object *(the baseball).* In other words, *baseball* receives the action of *pitching.* Thus, baseball is the *direct object* of the verb *pitch.*

Here are a few examples of sentences with action verbs. The direct objects are italicized.

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The defective X-ray machine took strange *pictures* of my toe. (*took* = verb, *X-ray machine* = subject)

George hissed the secret *word* in the middle of the graduation ceremony. (*hissed* = verb, *George* = subject)

Green marking pens draw naturally beautiful *lines.* (*draw* = verb, *pens* = subject)

Leroy's laser printer spurted *ink* all over his favorite shirt. (spurted = *verb,* printer = *subject*)

You may be able to recognize direct objects more easily if you think of them as part of a pattern in the sentence structure: subject (S) – action verb (AV) – direct object (DO). This S–AV–DO pattern is one of the most common in the English language; it may even be the most common. (I don't know if anyone has actually counted all the sentences and figured it out!) At any rate, think of the parts of the sentence in threes, in the S–AV–DO pattern:

machine took pictures

George hissed words

pens draw lines

printer spurted ink

Of course, just to make your life a little bit harder, a sentence can have more than one DO. Check out these examples:

Al autographed *posters* and *books* for his many admirers.

Roger will eat a dozen *doughnuts* and a few *slabs* of cheesecake for breakfast.

The new president of the Heart Society immediately phoned *Eggworthy* and his *brother.*

George sent *spitballs* and old *socks* flying across the room.

Ella bought *orange juice, tuna, aspirin,* and a *coffee table.*

Some sentences have no DO. Take a look at this example:

Throughout the endless afternoon and into the lonely night, Al sighed sadly.

No one or nothing receives the sighs, so the sentence has no direct object. Perhaps that's why Al is lonely.

The grammar point: This sentence doesn't have a direct object, though it is powered by a verb and expresses a complete thought.

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Rare, but sometimes there: Indirect objects

Another type of object is *indirect* because the action doesn't flow directly to it. The *indirect object,* affectionately known as the IO, is an intermediate stop along the way between the action verb and the direct object. Read this sentence, in which the indirect object is italicized:

> Knowing that I'm on a diet, my former friend sent *me* six dozen chocolates.

The action is *sent.* My former *friend* performed the action, so *friend* is the subject. What received the action? Six dozen *chocolates. Chocolates* is the direct object. That's what was *sent*, what received the action of the verb directly. But *me* also received the action, indirectly. *Me* received the sending of the boxes of chocolate. *Me* is called the indirect object.

The sentence pattern for indirect objects is subject (S) – action verb (AV) – indirect object (IO) – direct object (DO). Notice that the indirect object always precedes the direct object: S–AV–IO–DO. Here are a few sentences with the indirect objects italicized:

> Gloria will tell *me* the whole story tomorrow. (*will tell* = verb, *Gloria* = subject, *story* = direct object)
>
> As a grammarian, I should have given *you* better sample sentences. (*should have given* = verb, *I* = subject, *sentences* = direct object)
>
> Ella sent *Larry* a sharp message. (*sent* = verb, *Ella* = subject, *message* = direct object)
>
> The crooked politician offered *Agnes* a bribe for dropping out of the senate race. (*offered* = verb, *politician* = subject, *bribe* = direct object)

Similar to clerks in a shoe store, indirect objects don't appear very often. When indirect objects do show up, they're always in partnership with a direct object. You probably don't need to worry about knowing the difference between direct and indirect objects (unless you're an English teacher). As long as you understand that these words are objects, completing the meaning of an action verb, you recognize the basic composition of a sentence.

No bias here: Objective complements

Finally, a grammar rule that's hard to bungle. Here's the deal: sometimes a direct object doesn't get the whole job done. A little more information is needed (or just desired), and the writer doesn't want to bother adding a whole new subject–verb pair. The solution? An *objective complement* — an added fact about the direct object.

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The *objective complement* (italicized in the following sentences) may be a person, place, or thing. In other words, the objective complement may be a noun:

Eggworthy named Lester *copy chief* of the Heart Society Bulletin. (*named* = verb, *Eggworthy* = subject, *Lester* = direct object)

Gloria and others with her world view elected Roger *president*. (*elected* = verb, *Gloria and others* = subject, *Roger* = direct object)

Al called his dog *Al-Too*. (*called* = verb, *Al* = subject, *dog* = direct object)

The objective complement may also be a word that describes a noun. (A word that describes a noun is called an *adjective;* see Chapter 7 for more information.) Take a peek at these sample sentences:

Nancy considered her *hazy* at best. (*considered* = verb, *Nancy* = subject, *her* = direct object)

George dubbed Al-Too *ridiculous*. (*dubbed* = verb, *George* = subject, *Al-Too* = direct object)

Roger called George *heartless*. (*called* = verb, *Roger* = subject, *George* = direct object)

As you see, the objective complements in each of the sample sentences give the sentence an extra jolt. You know more with it than you do without it, but the objective complement is not a major player in the sentence.

Finishing the Equation: Subject Complements

Subject complements are major players in sentences. A *linking verb* begins a word equation; it expresses a state of being, linking two ideas. The complement completes the equation. Because a complement following a linking verb expresses something about the *subject* of the sentence, it is called a *subject complement.* In each of the following sentences, the first idea is the subject, and the second idea (italicized) is the complement:

Nerdo is *upset* by the bankruptcy of the pocket-protector manufacturer. *(Nerdo = upset)*

Gloria was a *cheerleader* before the dog bite incident. *(Gloria = cheerleader)*

The little orange book will be *sufficient* for all your firework information needs. *(book = sufficient)*

It is *I,* the master of the universe. *(It = I)*

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Subject complements can take several forms. Sometimes the subject complement is a descriptive word (an *adjective,* for those of you who like the correct terminology). Sometimes the subject complement is a *noun* (person, place, thing, or idea) or a *pronoun* (a word that substitutes for a noun). The first sample sentence equates *Nerdo* with a description (the adjective *upset*). The second equates *Gloria* with a position (the noun *cheerleader*). In the third sample sentence, the subject *book* is described by the adjective *sufficient.* The last sentence equates the subject *it* with the pronoun *I.* Don't worry about these distinctions. They don't matter! As long as you can find the subject complement, you're grasping the sentence structure.

The linking verbs that I mentioned in the previous paragraph are forms of the verb "to be." Other verbs that give sensory information (*feel, sound, taste, smell,* and so on) may also be linking verbs. Likewise, *appear* and *seem* are linking verbs. (For more information on linking verbs, see Chapter 2.) Here are a couple of sentences with sensory linking verbs. The complements are italicized:

> Larry sounds *grouchier* than usual today. *(Larry = grouchier)*
>
> At the end of each algebra proof, Anna feels strangely *depressed. (Anna = depressed)*

You can't mix types of subject complements in the same sentence, completing the meaning of the same verb. Use all descriptions (adjectives) or all nouns and pronouns. Take a look at these examples:

> WRONG: Gramps is grouchy and a patron of the arts.
>
> RIGHT: Gramps is a grouch and a patron of the arts.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Gramps is grouchy and arty.
>
> WRONG: Lester's pet tarantula will be annoying and a real danger.
>
> RIGHT: Lester's pet tarantula will be an annoyance and a danger.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Lester's pet tarantula will be annoying and dangerous.

Pop the Question: Locating the Complement

In Chapter 2, I explain how to locate the verb by asking the right questions. *(What's happening? What is?)* In Chapter 4, I show you how to pop the question for the subject. (*Who? What?* before the verb). Now it's time to pop the question to find the complements. You ask the complement questions after both the verb and subject have been identified. The complement questions are

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Who or whom?

What?

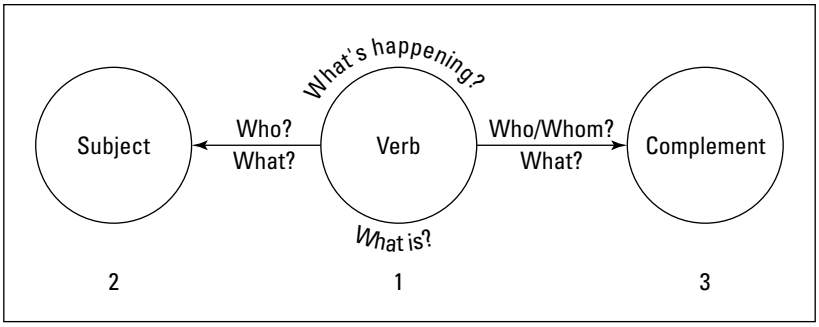

Try popping the questions in a couple of sentences:

Flossie maintains the cleanest teeth in Texas.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *maintains. Maintains* is the action verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who or what *maintains?* Answer: *Flossie maintains. Flossie* is the subject.
3. Pop the complement question: *Flossie maintains* who/whom? No answer. *Flossie maintains* what? Answer: Flossie maintains *the cleanest teeth in Texas* (*teeth* for short). *Teeth* is the direct object.

Remember that objects (direct or indirect) follow action verbs.

Time for you to try another:

The ancient lawn gnome appeared tired and worn.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? No answer. What is? Answer: *Appeared. Appeared* is the linking verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who or what *appeared?* Answer: *Gnome appeared. Gnome* is the subject.
3. Pop the complement question: *Gnome appeared* who? No answer. *Gnome appeared* what? Answer: *Tired* and *worn. Tired* and *worn* are the subject complements.

Remember that subject complements follow linking verbs.

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Pop the Question: Finding the Indirect Object

Though indirect objects seldom appear, you can check for them with another "pop the question." After you locate the action verb, the subject, and the direct object, ask

To whom? For whom?

To what? For what?

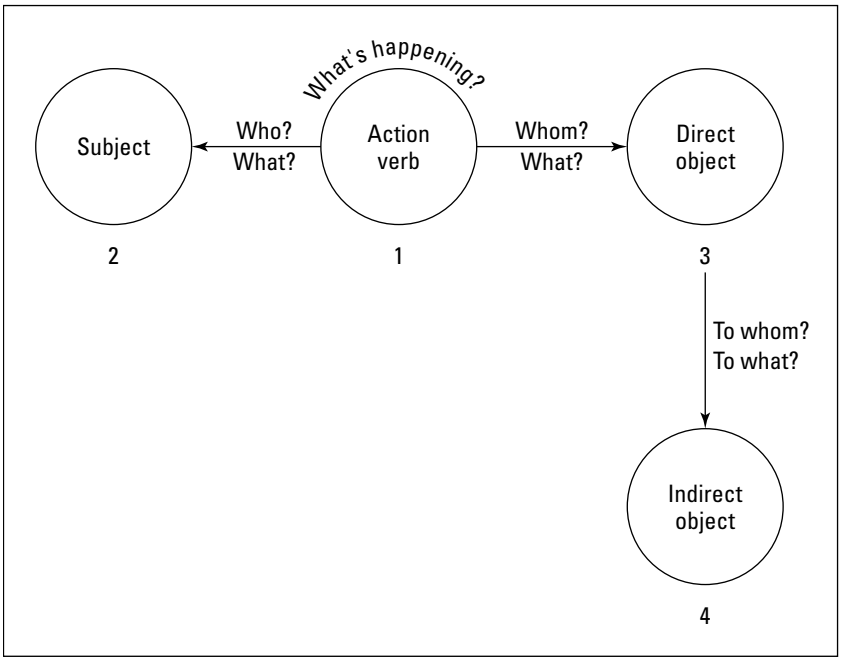

If you get an answer, it should reveal an indirect object. Here's an example:

Mildred will tell me the secret shortly.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *will tell. Will tell* is an action verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who will tell? Answer: *Mildred. Mildred* is the subject.

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3. Pop the DO question: *Mildred will tell* whom? or what? Answer: *Mildred will tell the secret. Secret* is the direct object.
4. Pop the IO question: *Mildred will tell the secret* to whom? Answer: to *me. Me* is the indirect object.

You may come up with a different answer when you pop the DO question in number 3 (*Mildred will tell* whom? or what?). You can answer *Mildred will tell me*. True. The only problem is that the sentence then has *secret* flapping around with no label. Your attempt to determine the sentence structure has reached a dead end. Luckily for you, all you need to know is that both are objects. Only I-have-no-life grammarians worry about which one is direct and which one is indirect.

Object or subject complement? Identify the italicized words.

> Sal seemed *soggy* after his semi-final swim, so we gave *him* a *towel.*

Answer: *Soggy* is the subject complement. (*Seemed* is a linking verb.) *Him* is the indirect object. *Towel* is the direct object. (*Gave* is an action verb.)

Pronouns as Objects and Subject Complements

He told I? He told me? Me, of course. Your ear usually tells you which pronouns to use as objects (both direct and indirect) because the wrong pronouns sound funny. The object pronouns include *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.* Check them out in context:

> Rickie splashed *her* with icy water.
>
> The anaconda hissed *them* a warning.
>
> The babbling burglar told *her* everything.

Your ear may not tell you the correct pronoun to use after a linking verb. That's where you want a *subject* pronoun, not an *object* pronoun. (Just for the record, the subject pronouns include *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who,* and *whoever.*) Why do you need a subject pronoun after a linking verb? Remember the equation: What's before the verb should be equal to what's after the verb (S = SC). You put subject pronouns before the verb as subjects, so you put subject pronouns after the verb, as subject complements. (For more information, see Chapter 2.)

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You gotta problem with grammar?

Do you possess an "ear" for grammar? Do you recognize proper English, distinguishing it from the way everyone else around you speaks? If so, you probably don't say *gotta, gonna, gotcha,* or *hisself.* You never use *done* all by itself as the verb in the sentence. These expressions come from various regional accents and customs (similar to the one that makes New Yorkers shop at a store on *Toidy-toid and Toid* — Thirty-third and Third, for those of you from other parts of the world). Although saying *gotta* when you're chatting with a friend is perfectly okay, it isn't okay when you're speaking to a teacher, a boss, a television interviewer, the supreme ruler of the universe, and anyone else in authority. Thus,

WRONG: You *gonna* wait for Cedric? He bought *hisself* a new car, and he might give us a ride.

RIGHT: *Are* you *going* to wait for Cedric? He bought a new car for himself, and he might give us a ride.

WRONG: No, I *gotta* go.

RIGHT: No, I *have to* go.

WRONG: We *done* nothing today! I'm not coming anymore. All we do is talk.

RIGHT: We *have done* nothing today! (or, We haven't done anything today!) I'm not coming anymore. All we do is talk.

WRONG: *Gotcha.* Next week we'll go bowling.

RIGHT: *I understand.* Next week we'll go bowling.

I'd add another sample conversation, but it's almost time for lunch. I gotta go.

Which sentence is correct?

A. According to the witness, the burglar is her, the one with the bright orange eyes!

B. According to the witness, the burglar is she, the one with the bright orange eyes!

Answer: Sentence B is correct if you're writing formally. *Is* is a linking verb and must be followed by a subject pronoun, *she.* Sentence A is acceptable in conversation.

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Part II

Avoiding Common Errors

The 5th Wave By Rich Tennant

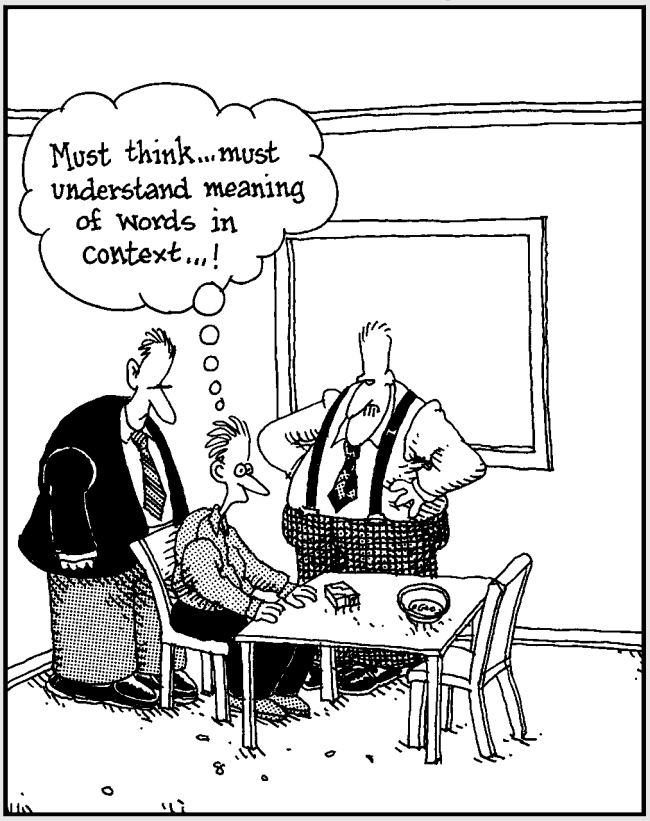

"Your buddy says the two of you were peripheral to the incident in question. You just said you were superficial to the incident. Now which is it, peripheral or superficial?!"

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In this part . . .

Want to build a castle? You can build one using only chunky squares, but how much more interesting it is to throw in cones, arches, and a banner or two! Communication is the same way. To express yourself with any flair, you want to add descriptions to your sentences. In this part, I explain the parts of speech involved in creating descriptions — adjectives and adverbs. I also tackle prepositions, mostly short words that are long on trouble. This part also contains a field guide to the pronoun, a useful little part of speech that resembles a World War II minefield when it comes to error possibilities. Finally, I delve a little further into the complexities of subject–verb agreement, also a trouble magnet. Never fear: I provide a flak jacket's worth of tricks for understanding these grammar rules.

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Chapter 7

Do You Feel Bad or Badly? The Lowdown on Adjectives and Adverbs

In This Chapter

- Identifying adjectives and adverbs
- Deciding whether an adjective or an adverb is appropriate
- Placing descriptive words so that the sentence means what you intend

With the right nouns (names of persons, places, things, or ideas) and verbs (action or being words) you can build a pretty solid foundation in a sentence. The key to expressing your precise thoughts is to build on that foundation by adding descriptive words to your sentence. In this chapter I explain the two basic types of descriptive words of the English language — the parts of speech known as *adjectives* and *adverbs.* I also show you how to use each properly.

Clarifying Meaning with Descriptions

In case you doubt the significance of descriptive words, take a look at this sentence:

> Gloria sauntered past Lord and Taylor's when the sight of a Ferragamo Paradiso Pump paralyzed her.

What must the reader know in order to understand this sentence fully? Here's a list:

- The reader should know that Lord and Taylor's is a department store.
- The reader should be able to identify Ferragamo as an upscale shoe label.

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- The reader should be familiar with a Paradiso Pump (a shoe style I made up).
- The reader should know that a pump is a type of shoe.
- A good vocabulary — one that includes *saunter* and *paralyze* — is helpful.

If all of those pieces are in place, or if the reader has a good imagination and the ability to use context clues in reading comprehension, your message will get through. But sometimes you can't trust the reader to understand the specifics of what you're trying to say. In that case, descriptions are quite useful. Here's Gloria, version 2:

> Gloria walked *slowly* past the *stately* Lord and Taylor's *department* store when the sight of a *fashionable, green, low-heeled dress* shoe with the *ultra-chic Ferragamo* label paralyzed her.

Okay, I overdid it a bit, but you get the point. The descriptive words clarify the meaning of the sentence, particularly for the fashion-challenged. As you see, adjectives and adverbs are useful, and you should know how to tuck them into your sentences.

Both adjectives and adverbs enhance the meaning of your sentences, but these parts of speech aren't interchangeable. Standardized tests capitalize on that fact by asking questions that require you to spot adjectives and adverbs used incorrectly. For example, you may see a sentence containing "real pretty." You need to know that *real* should be *really.* Not to worry: after you've read this chapter, you'll ace this sort of question.

Adding Adjectives

An *adjective* is a descriptive word that changes the meaning of a noun or a pronoun. An adjective adds information on number, color, type, and other qualities to your sentence.

Where do you find adjectives? In the adjective aisle of the supermarket. Okay, you don't. Most of the time you find them in front of the word they're describing. Keep in mind, however, that adjectives can also roam around a bit. Here's an example:

> George, *sore* and *tired,* pleaded with Lulu to release him from the headlock she had placed on him when he called her *"fragile."*

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Sore and *tired* tells you about *George. Fragile* tells you about *her.* (Well, *fragile* tells you what George thinks of *her.* Lulu actually works out with free weights every day and is anything but fragile.) As you can see, these descriptions come after the words they describe, not before.

Adjectives describing nouns

The most common job for an adjective is describing a noun. Consider the adjectives *poisonous, angry,* and *rubber* in these sentences. Then decide which sentence you would like to hear as you walk through the jungle.

> There is a *poisonous* snake on your shoulder.
>
> There is an *angry, poisonous* snake on your shoulder.
>
> There is a *rubber* snake on your shoulder.

The last one, right? In these three sentences, those little descriptive words certainly make a difference. *Angry, poisonous,* and *rubber* all describe *snake,* and all of these descriptions give you information that you would really like to have. See how diverse and powerful adjectives can be?

Find the adjectives in this sentence.

> With a sharp ax, the faithful watchman parted the greasy hair of the seven ugly burglars.

Answer: *sharp* (describing *ax*), *faithful* (describing *watchman*), *greasy* (describing *hair*), *seven* and *ugly* (describing *burglars*).

Adjectives describing pronouns

Adjectives can also describe *pronouns* (words that substitute for nouns). When they're giving you information about pronouns, adjectives usually appear after the pronoun they're describing:

> There's something *strange* on your shoulder. (The adjective *strange* describes the pronoun *something.*)
>
> Everyone *conscious* at the end of Ronald's play made a quick exit. (The adjective *conscious* describes the pronoun *everyone.*)
>
> Anyone *free* should report to the meeting room immediately! (The adjective *free* describes the pronoun *anyone.*)

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Attaching adjectives to linking verbs

Adjectives may also follow linking verbs, in which case they describe the subject of the sentence. To find an adjective after a linking verb, ask the question *what.* (See Chapter 6 for more information.)

Just to review for a moment: *Linking verbs* join two ideas, associating one with the other. These verbs are like giant equal signs, equating the subject — which comes before the verb — with another idea after the verb. (See Chapter 2 for a full discussion of linking verbs.)

Sometimes a linking verb joins an adjective (or a couple of adjectives) and a noun:

> Lulu's favorite dress is *orange* and *purple.* (The adjectives *orange* and *purple* describe the noun *dress.*)
>
> The afternoon appears *gray* because of the nuclear fallout from Roger's cigar. (The adjective *gray* describes the noun *afternoon.*)
>
> George's latest jazz composition sounds *awful.* (The adjective *awful* describes the noun *composition.*)

Articles: Not just for magazines

If you ran a computer program that sorted and counted every word in this book, you'd be on the fast track for membership in the Get-a-Life Club. You'd also find that *articles*, a branch on the adjective family tree, are the most common words, even though the article-branch includes only *a*, *an*, and *the.*

> Melanie wants *the* answer, and you'd better be quick about it.

This statement means that Melanie is stuck on problem 12, and her mother won't let her go out until her homework is finished. A really good movie is playing at the cineplex, and now she's on the phone, demanding *the* answer to number 12.

> Melanie wants *an* answer, and you'd better be quick about it.

This statement means that Melanie simply has to have a date for the prom. She asked you a week ago, but if you're not going to be her escort, she'll ask someone else. She's lost patience, and she doesn't even care anymore whether you go or not. She just wants *an* answer.

To sum up: Use *the* when you're speaking specifically and *an* or *a* when you're speaking more generally.

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A apple? An book? A precedes words that begin with consonant sounds (all the letters except *a, e, i, o,* and *u*). *An* precedes words beginning with the vowel sounds *a, e, i,* and *o.* The letter *u* is a special case. If the word sounds like *you,* choose *a.* If the word sounds like someone kicked you in the stomach — *uh* — choose *an.* Another special case is the letter *h.* If the word starts with a hard *h* sound, as in *horse,* choose *a.* If the word starts with a silent letter *h,* as in *herb,* choose *an.* Here are some examples:

an aardvark (a = vowel)

a belly (b = consonant)

an egg (e = vowel)

a UFO (*U* sounds like *you*)

an unidentified flying object (*u* sounds like *uh*)

a helmet (hard *h*)

an hour (silent *h*)

Special note: Sticklers-for-rules say *an historic event.* The rest of us say *a historic event.*

Pop the question: Identifying adjectives

To find adjectives, go to the words they describe — nouns and pronouns. Start with the noun and ask it three questions. (Not "What's the new hot stock?" or "Will you marry me?" This is grammar, not life.) Here are the three questions:

- How many?
- Which one?
- What kind?

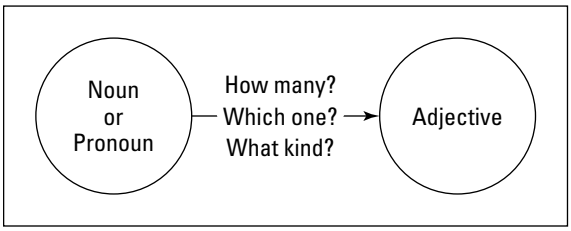

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Take a look at this sentence:

George placed three stolen atomic secrets inside his cheese burrito.

You see three nouns: *George, secrets,* and *burrito.* George has led a colorful life, but you can't find the answer to the following questions: How many *Georges?* Which *George?* What kind of *George?* No words in the sentence provide that information, so no adjectives describe *George.*

But try these three questions on *secrets* and *burrito* and you do come up with something: How many *secrets?* Answer: *three. Three* is an adjective. Which *secrets?* What kind of *secrets?* Answer: *stolen* and *atomic. Stolen* and *atomic* are adjectives. The same goes for *burrito:* What kind? Answer: *cheese. Cheese* is an adjective.

You may have noticed that *his* answers one of the questions. (Which *burrito?* Answer: *his burrito.*) *His* is working as an adjective, but *his* is also a pronoun. Normal people don't have to worry about whether *his* is a pronoun or an adjective. Only English teachers care, and they divide into two camps — the adjective camp and the pronoun camp. Needless to say, each group feels superior to the other. (I'm a noncombatant. As far as I'm concerned, you can call *his* a parakeet for all I care.)

Look at another sentence:

The agonized glance thrilled George's rotten, little, hard heart.

This sentence has three nouns. One *(George's)* is possessive. If you ask how many *George's,* which *George's,* or what kind of *George's,* you get no answer. The other two nouns, *glance* and *heart,* do yield an answer. What kind of *glance? Agonized glance.* What kind of *heart? Rotten, little, hard heart.* So *agonized, rotten, little,* and *hard* are all adjectives.

You may notice that a word changes its part of speech depending upon how it's used in the sentence. In the last example sentence, *glance* is a noun because *glance* is clearly a thing. Compare that sentence to this one:

George and Lulu *glance* casually at the giant television screen.

Here *glance* is not a thing; it is an action that George and Lulu are performing. In this example sentence, *glance* is a verb. Bottom line: read the sentence, see what the word is doing, and then — if you like — give it a name.

A common error changes nouns into adjectives — improperly! The word *quality*, for example, is a noun meaning *worth*, *condition*, or *characteristic.* Some people, especially ad-writers, use *quality* as an adjective meaning *good* or *luxurious.* Grammatically, you can't buy a *quality television*. You can buy a *high-quality television.*

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Stalking the Common Adverb

Adjectives aren't the only descriptive words. Adverbs — words that alter the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb — are another type of description. Check these out:

The boss *regretfully* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

The boss *furiously* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

The boss *never* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

If you're Phil, you care whether the words *regretfully, furiously,* or *never* are in the sentence. *Regretfully, furiously,* and *never* are all adverbs. Notice how adverbs add meaning in these sentences:

Lola *sadly* sang George's latest song. (Perhaps Lola is in a bad mood.)

Lola sang George's latest song *reluctantly.* (Lola doesn't want to sing.)

Lola *hoarsely* sang George's latest song. (Lola has a cold.)

Lola sang George's latest song *quickly.* (Lola is in a hurry.)

Lola sang even George's latest song. (Lola sang everything, and with George's latest, she hit the bottom of the barrel.)

Pop the question: Finding the adverb

Adverbs mostly describe verbs, giving more information about an action. Nearly all adverbs — enough so that you don't have to worry about the ones that fall through the cracks — answer one of these four questions:

- How?
- When?
- Where?
- Why?

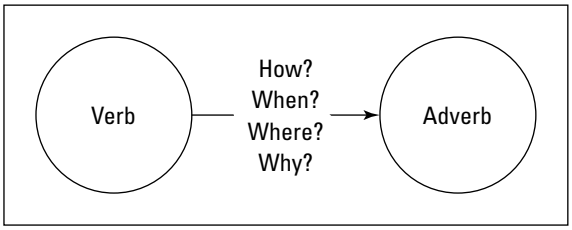

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To find the adverb, go to the verb and pop the question. (See Chapter 2 for information on finding the verbs.) Look at this sentence:

> Ella secretly swiped Sandy's slippers yesterday and then happily went home.

You note two verbs: *swiped* and *went.* Take each one separately. *Swiped* how? Answer: *swiped secretly. Secretly* is an adverb. *Swiped* when? Answer: *swiped yesterday. Yesterday* is an adverb. *Swiped* where? No answer. *Swiped* why? Knowing Ella, I'd say she stole for the fun of it, but you find no answer in the sentence.

Go on to the second verb in the sentence. *Went* how? Answer: *went happily. Happily* is an adverb. *Went* when? Answer: *went then. Then* is an adverb. *Went* where? Answer: *went home. Home* is an adverb. *Went* why? Probably to drink champagne out of the slippers, but again, you find no answer in the sentence.

Here's another example:

> Eggworthy soon softly snored and delicately slipped away.

You identify two verbs again: *snored* and *slipped.* First one up: *snored. Snored* how? Answer: *snored softly. Softly* is an adverb. *Snored* when? Answer: *snored soon. Soon* is an adverb. *Snored* where? No answer. *Snored* why? No answer again. Now for *slipped. Slipped* how? Answer: *slipped delicately. Delicately* is an adverb. *Slipped* where? Answer: *slipped away. Away* is an adverb. *Slipped* when? No answer. *Slipped* why? No answer. The adverbs are *soon, delicately,* and *away.*

Adverbs can be lots of places in a sentence. If you're trying to find them, rely on the questions *how, when, where,* and *why,* not the location. Similarly, a word may be an adverb in one sentence and something else in another sentence. Check out this example:

> Gloria went *home* in a huff because of that slammed door.
>
> *Home* is where the heart is, unless you are in George's cabin.
>
> *Home* plate is the umpire's favorite spot.

In the first example, *home* tells you where Gloria went, so *home* is an adverb in that sentence. In the second example, *home* is a place, so *home* is a noun in that sentence. In the third example, *home* is an adjective, telling you what kind of *plate.*

Final answer: pop the question and see if you reveal an adverb, adjective, or another part of speech.

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Adverbs describing adjectives and other adverbs

Adverbs also describe other descriptions, usually making the description more or less intense. (A description describing a description? Give me a break! But it's true.) Here's an example:

An extremely unhappy Larry flipped when his trust fund tanked.

How *unhappy?* Answer: *extremely unhappy. Extremely* is an adverb describing the adjective *unhappy.*

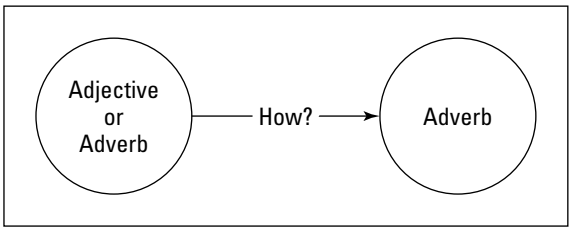

Sometimes the questions you pose to locate adjectives and adverbs are answered by more than one word in a sentence. In the previous example sentence, if you ask, "*Seemed* when?" the answer is *when his trust fund tanked.* Don't panic. These longer answers are just different members of the adjective and adverb families. For more information, see Chapters 8 and 24.

Now back to work. Here's another example:

When he began to speak, Larry's very talkative pet frog *wouldn't stop.*

How *talkative?* Answer: *very talkative. Very* is an adverb describing the adjective *talkative.*

And another:

Larry's frog croaked *quite hoarsely.*

This time an adverb is describing another adverb. *Hoarsely* is an adverb because it explains how the frog *croaked.* In other words, *hoarsely* describes the verb *croaked.* How *hoarsely?* Answer: *quite hoarsely. Quite* is an adverb describing the adverb *hoarsely,* which in turn describes the verb *croaked.*

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Choosing Between Adjectives and Adverbs

Does it matter whether a word is an adjective or an adverb? Some of the time, no. In your crib, you demanded, "I want a bottle NOW, Mama." You didn't know you were adding an adverb to your sentence. For that matter, you didn't know you were making a sentence! You were just hungry. Now that you're past the crib stage, you should know the difference between these two parts of speech so you can select the form you need. Here are some guidelines:

- **Many adverbs end in *–ly*.** *Strictly* is an adverb, and *strict* is an adjective. *Nicely* is an adverb, and *nice* is an adjective. *Generally* is an adverb, and *general* is an adjective. *Lovely* is a . . . gotcha! You were going to say *adverb,* right? Wrong. *Lovely* is an adjective. (That's why I started this paragraph with *many*, not *all.*)
- **Some adverbs don't end in *–ly*.** *Soon, now, home, fast,* and many other words that don't end in *-ly* are adverbs, too.
- **One of the most common adverbs, *not*, doesn't end in *ly*.** *Not* is an adverb because it reverses the meaning of the verb from positive to negative. Loosely speaking, *not* answers the question *how.* (*How* are you going to the wedding? Oh, you're *not* going!)

While I'm speaking of *not*, I should remind you to avoid double negatives. In many languages (Spanish, for example), doubling or tripling the negative adjectives and adverbs or throwing in a negative pronoun or two simply makes your denial stronger. In Spanish, saying, "I did not kill no victim" is okay. In English, however, that sentence is a confession, because if you *did not* kill *no* victim, you killed at least *one* victim. (Other types of double negatives may trip you up. See Chapter 22 for more information.)

- **The best way to tell if a word is an adverb is to ask the four adverb questions: *how, when, where,* and *why*.** If the word answers one of those questions, it's an adverb.

Identify the adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences.

A. Thank you for the presents you gave us yesterday.

B. The lovely presents you gave us smell like old socks.

C. The presents you kindly gave us are very rotten.

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Answers: In sentence A, *yesterday* is an adverb, describing when *you gave* the presents. In sentence B, *lovely* is an adjective describing the noun *presents. Old* is an adjective describing *socks*; sentence B has no adverbs. In sentence C, the adverb is *kindly* and it describes the verb *gave.* Also in sentence C, the adverb *very* describes the adjective *rotten. Rotten* is an adjective describing *presents.*

Try one more. Find the adjectives and adverbs.

> The carefully decorated purse that Bob knitted is already fraying around the edges.

Answers: The adverb *carefully* describes the adjective *decorated.* The verb *is fraying* is described by the adverb *already.*

Remember: Adjectives describe nouns or pronouns, and adverbs describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Sorting out "good" and "well"

If I am ever elected president of the universe, one of the first things I'm going to do (after I get rid of apostrophes — see Chapter 11) is to drop all irregular forms. Until then, you may want to read about *good* and *well.*

Good is an adjective, and *well* is an adverb, except when you're talking about your health:

> I am *good.*

Good is an adjective here. The sentence means *I have the qualities of goodness* or *I am in a good mood.* Or, the sentence is a really bad pickup line.

> I am *well.*

Well is an adjective here. The sentence means *I am not sick.*

> I play the piano *well.*

This time *well* is an adverb. It describes how I play. In other words, the adverb well describes the verb *play.* The sentence means that I don't have to practice anymore.

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Which sentence is correct?

A. When asked how he was feeling, Larry smiled at his ex-girlfriends and replied, "Not well."

B. When asked how he was feeling, Larry smiled at his ex-girlfriends and replied, "Not good."

Answer: Sentence A is correct because Larry's ex-girlfriends are inquiring about his health.

Try one more. Which sentence is correct?

A. Eggworthy did not perform good on the crash test.

B. Eggworthy did not perform well on the crash test.

Answer: Sentence B is correct because the adverb *well* describes the verb *did perform. Did perform* how? Answer: *did perform well.*

Dealing with "bad" and "badly"

Bad is a bad word, at least in terms of grammar. Confusing *bad* and *badly* is one of the most common errors. Check out these examples:

I felt badly.

I felt bad.

Remember the *–ly* test mentioned earlier in this chapter? If so, you know that *badly* is an adverb, and *bad* is an adjective. Which one should you use? Well, what are you trying to say? In the first sentence, you went to the park with your mittens on. The bench had a sign on it: "WET PAINT." The sign looked old, so you decided to check. You put your hand on the bench, but the mittens were in the way. You felt *badly* — that is, not very accurately. In the second sentence, you sat on the bench, messing up the back of your coat with dark green stripes. When you saw the stripes, you felt *bad* — that is, you were sad. In everyday speech, of course, you're not likely to express much about *feeling badly.* Few people walk around testing benches, and even fewer talk about their ability to feel something physically. So 99.99 percent of the time you feel *bad* — unless you're in a good mood.

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Which sentence is correct?

A. Lola felt bad when she discovered a dent in her motorcycle.

B. Lola felt badly when she discovered a dent in her motorcycle.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. Lola loves her Harley, and every scratch and dent depresses her. Therefore "bad" is an adjective describing Lola (actually, Lola's state of mind). In sentence B, *badly* is an adverb, so it would have to describe Lola's ability to feel. That meaning makes no sense.

Try one more. Which sentence is correct?

A. Lola did bad in her negotiations with the insurance company.

B. Lola did badly in her negotiations with the insurance company.

Answer: Sentence B is correct because the adverb *badly* describes the verb *did. Did* how? Answer: *did badly.* (In other words, PayAll, Inc. stiffed Lola.)

Adjectives and adverbs that look the same

Odd words here and there (and they are odd) do double duty as both adjectives and adverbs. They look exactly the same, but they take their identity as adjectives or adverbs from the way that they function in the sentence. Take a look at these examples:

Upon seeing the stop sign, Abby stopped *short.* (adverb)

Abby did not notice the sign until the last minute because she is too *short* to see over the steering wheel. (adjective)

Lola's advice is *right:* Abby should not drive. (adjective)

Abby turned *right* after her last-minute stop. (adverb)

Abby came to a *hard* decision when she turned in her license. (adjective)

Lola tries *hard* to schedule some time for Abby, now that Abby's carless. (adverb)

The English language has too many adjectives and adverbs to list here. If you're unsure about a particular word, check the dictionary for the correct form.

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Which sentence is correct?

A. It was real nice of you to send me that bouquet of poison ivy.

B. It was really nice of you to send me that bouquet of poison ivy.

Answer: B. How *nice? Really nice. Real* is an adjective and *really* is an adverb. Adverbs answer the question *how.*

Avoiding Common Mistakes with Adjectives and Adverbs

A few words — *even, almost, only, just, nearly* and others — often end up in the wrong spots. If these words aren't placed correctly, your sentence may say something that you didn't intend.

Standardized tests often include sentences misusing these adjectives and adverbs. Keep your eyes open and double-check every sentence with *even*, *almost*, *only*, *just*, and *nearly.*

Placing "even"

Even is one of the sneaky modifiers that can land any place in a sentence — and change the meaning of what you're saying. Take a look at this example:

> It's two hours before the grand opening of the school show. Lulu and George have been rehearsing for weeks. They know all the dances, and Lulu has only one faint bruise left from George's tricky elbow maneuver. Suddenly, George's evil twin Lester, mad with jealousy, "accidentally" places his foot in George's path. George's down! His ankle is sprained! What will happen to the show?

- Possibility 1: Lulu shouts, "We can still go on! *Even Lester* knows the dances."
- Possibility 2: Lulu shouts, "We can still go on! Lester *even knows* the dances."
- Possibility 3: Lulu shouts, "We can still go on! Lester knows *even the dances."*

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What's going on here? These three statements look almost the same, but they aren't. Here's what each one means:

- Possibility 1: Lulu surveys the fifteen boys gathered around George. She knows that any one of them could step in at a moment's notice. After all, the dances are very easy. *Even Lester,* the clumsiest boy in the class, knows the dances. If *even Lester* can perform the role, it will be a piece of cake for everyone else.
- Possibility 2: Lulu surveys the fifteen boys gathered around George. It doesn't look good. Most of them would be willing, but they've been busy learning other parts. There's no time to teach them George's role. Then she spies Lester. With a gasp, she realizes that Lester has been watching George every minute of rehearsal. Although the curtain will go up very soon, the show can still be saved. Lester doesn't have to practice; he doesn't have to learn something new. Lester *even knows* the dances.
- Possibility 3: The whole group looks at Lester almost as soon as George hits the floor. Yes, Lester knows the words. He's been reciting George's lines for weeks now, helping George learn the part. Yes, Lester can sing; everyone's heard him. But what about the dances? There's no time to teach him. Just then, Lester begins to twirl around the stage. Lulu sighs with relief. Lester knows *even the dances.* The show will go on!

Got it? *Even* is a description; *even* describes the words that follow it. To put it another way, *even* begins a comparison:

- Possibility 1: *even* Lester (as well as everyone else)
- Possibility 2: *even* knows (doesn't have to learn)
- Possibility 3: *even* the dances (as well as the songs and words)

So here's the rule. Put *even* at the beginning of the comparison implied in the sentence.

Placing "almost" and "nearly"

Almost and nearly are tricky descriptions. Here's an example:

> Last night Lulu wrote for *almost* (or *nearly*) an hour and then went rollerblading.

and

> Last night Lulu *almost* (or *nearly*) wrote for an hour and then went rollerblading.

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In the first sentence, Lulu wrote for 55 minutes and then stopped. In the second sentence, Lulu intended to write, but every time she sat down at the computer, she remembered that she hadn't watered the plants, called her best friend Lola, made a sandwich, and so forth. After an hour of wasted time and without one word on the screen, she grabbed her rollerblades and left.

Almost and *nearly* begin the comparison. Lulu *almost wrote* (or *nearly wrote),* but she didn't. Or Lulu wrote for *almost an hour* (or *nearly an hour*), but not for a *whole hour.* In deciding where to put these words, add the missing ideas and see whether the position of the word makes sense. (I discuss comparisons further in Chapter 20.)

Placing "only" and "just"

If only the word *only* were simpler to understand! If everyone thought about the word *just* for *just* a minute. Like the other tricky words in this section, *only* and *just* change the meaning of the sentence every time their positions are altered. Here are examples of *only* and *just* in action:

Only (or *just*) Lex went to Iceland. (No one else went.)

Lex *only* went to Iceland. (He didn't do anything else.)

Lex *just* went to Iceland. (The ink on his passport is still wet. *Just* may mean *recently.*)

Lex went *only* (or *just*) to Iceland. (He skipped Antarctica.)

Many people place *only* in front of a verb and assume that it applies to another idea in the sentence. I see t-shirts all the time with slogans like "My dad went to NYC and only bought me a lousy t-shirt." The *only* should be in front of *a lousy t-shirt* because the sentence implies that Dad should have bought more — the Empire State Building, perhaps. The original wording describes a terrible trip: zoom in from the airport, buy a t-shirt, and zoom back home.

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Chapter 8

Small Words, Big Trouble: Prepositions

In This Chapter

- Recognizing prepositions and prepositional phrases
- Choosing pronouns for objects of prepositions

How does the proverb go? Little things mean a lot? Whoever said that was probably talking about prepositions. Some of the shortest words in the language — at least most of them — these little guys pack a punch in your sentences. Unfortunately, prepositions attract mistakes as powerfully as catnip captures the attention of the meow-set. In this chapter, I explain everything you always wanted to know about prepositions and show you how to avoid the pitfalls associated with them.

Proposing Relationships: Prepositions

Imagine that you encounter two nouns: *elephant* and *book*. (A *noun* is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea.) How many ways can you connect the two nouns to express different ideas?

the book *about* the elephant

the book *by* the elephant

the book *behind* the elephant

the book *in front of* the elephant

the book *near* the elephant

the book *under* the elephant

The italicized words relate two nouns to each other. These relationship words are called prepositions. *Prepositions* may be defined as any word or group of words that relates a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence.

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Sometime during the last millennium when I was in grammar school, I had to memorize a list of prepositions. (How quaint, right? We had inkwells, too.) I was so terrified of Sister Saint Vincent, my seventh grade teacher, that not only did I learn the list, I made it part of my being. In fact, I can still recite it. I don't think memorizing prepositions is worth the time, but a familiarity would be nice. In other words, don't marry the preposition list. Just date it a few times. Take a look at Table 8-1 for a list of some common prepositions:

Table 8-1 Common Prepositions

about	above	according to	across
after	against	along	amid
among	around	at	before
behind	below	beside	besides
between	beyond	by	concerning
down	during	except	for
from	in	into	like
of	off	on	over
past	since	through	toward
underneath	until	up	upon
with	within	without	

The Objects of My Affection: Prepositional Phrases and Their Objects

Prepositions never travel alone; they're always with an object. In the examples in the previous section, the object of each preposition is *elephant.* Just to get all the annoying terminology over with at once, a *prepositional phrase* consists of a preposition and an object. The object of a preposition is always a noun or a pronoun, or perhaps one or two of each. (A *pronoun* is a word that takes the place of a noun, such as *him* for *Eggworthy*, *it* for *omelet*, and so forth.)

Here's an example:

> In the afternoon the snow pelted Eggworthy on his little bald head.

This sentence has two prepositions: *in* and *on. Afternoon* is the object of the preposition *in,* and *head* is the object of the preposition *on.*

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Different Than? From? a Preposition

How many times have you heard this sentence?

> Prepositions are different than other parts of speech.

Okay, never. But I bet you've heard (and maybe used) the expression *different than* lots of times. I hate to break the bad news, but I must. *Different than* is never correct. What you want is *different from.*

You can stop reading right here because now you have all the information you need. If you absolutely have to know why *different than* is a no-no, continue on. Just be aware that the explanation relies on some technical and therefore annoying grammar points. Here goes: *than* is not a preposition. It's a *conjunction* — the part of speech that links two ideas. The catch is that *than* joins two ideas containing subject-verb combos. (One more grammar term: anything with a subject-verb pair is called a *clause*.) Here's a sentence in which *than* is used correctly:

> Tracy knows more prepositions than I do.

Did you notice the subject-verb pairs? *Tracy knows* and *I do*, one on each side of *than*, make this sentence correct. Now take a look at the same sentence, which is also correct:

> Tracy knows more prepositions than I.

I imagine you're yelling at me right now. I don't blame you. The portion of the sentence following *than* appears to lack a subject-verb pair. But appearances, as we all know, may be deceiving. In the preceding example sentence, *do* is understood. Grammatically, both example sentences are exactly the same.

From, on the other hand, is a preposition. It has an object, a noun, or a pronoun. (In rare cases, a clause may be an object of a preposition, but that sort of sentence isn't relevant when you're creating a *different from* sentence.) Here are a few correct *different from* sentences, with the object of the preposition italicized:

> A preposition is different from other *parts* of speech.
>
> Lola's new tattoo will be different from her previous fifteen *tattoos*.
>
> In a break with tradition, Levon's flight path yesterday differed from his usual *pattern*.

As I'm sure you detected, the last sentence turned *different* into *differed.* I threw in that one on purpose to show you that *from* is appropriate whether you're *different* or *differing* — that is, whether you're using an adjective (*different*) or a verb (any form of *to differ*).

Why, you may ask, is the object *head* and not *little* or *bald?* Sigh. I was hoping you wouldn't notice. Okay, here's the explanation. You can throw a few other things inside a prepositional phrase — mainly descriptive words. Check out these variations on the plain phrase *of the elephant:*

> of the *apologetic* elephant
>
> of the *always apoplectic* elephant
>
> of the *antagonizingly argumentative* elephant

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Despite the different descriptions, each phrase is still basically talking about an *elephant.* Also, *elephant* is a noun, and only nouns and pronouns are allowed to be objects of the preposition. So in the *Eggworthy* sentence, you need to choose the most important word as the object of the preposition. Also, you need to choose a noun, not an adjective. Examine *his little bald head* (the words, not Eggworthy's actual head, which is better seen from a distance). *Head* is clearly the important concept, and *head* is a noun. Thus *head* is the object of the preposition.

Pop the question: Questions that identify the objects of the prepositions

All objects — of a verb or of a preposition — answer the questions *whom?* or *what?* To find the object of a preposition, ask *whom?* or *what?* after the preposition.

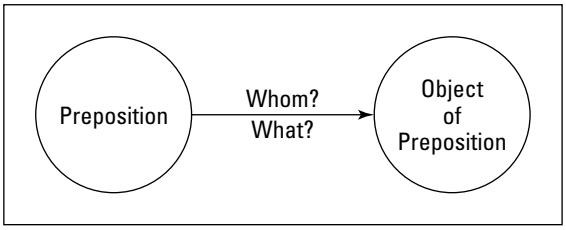

In this sentence you see two prepositional phrases:

> Marilyn thought that the selection of the elephant for the show was quite unfair.

The first preposition is *of. Of* what? *Of the elephant. Elephant* is the object of the preposition *of.* The second preposition is *for. For* what? For the *show. Show* is the object of the preposition *to.*

What is the object of the preposition in this sentence?

> The heroic teacher pounded the grammar rules into her students' tired brains.

Answer: *Brains* is the object of the preposition *into.* When you pop the question — *into* whom? or *into* what? — the answer is *her students' tired brains.* The most important word is *brains,* which is a noun.

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In the group: Between/Among

Between and *among* are two tricky prepositions that are often used incorrectly. To choose the appropriate preposition, decide how many people or things you're talking about. If the answer is two, you want *between*, as in this sentence:

> Lola was completely unable to choose *between* the biker magazine and *Poetry for Weightlifters.* (two magazines only)

If you're talking about more than two, *among* is the appropriate word:

> Lola strolled *among* the parked motorcycles, reading poetry aloud. (more than two motorcycles)

One exception: Treaties are made *between* nations, even if more than two countries sign:

> The treaty to outlaw bubble gum was negotiated *between* Libya, the United States, Russia, and Ecuador.

Why pay attention to prepositions?

When you're checking subject–verb pairs, you need to identify and then ignore the prepositional phrases. The prepositional phrases are distractions. If you don't ignore them, you may end up matching the verb to the wrong word. (See Chapter 10 for more information on subject–verb agreement.) You may also find it helpful to recognize prepositional phrases because sometimes, when you "pop the question" to find an adjective or an adverb, the answer is a prepositional phrase. Don't panic. You haven't done anything wrong. Simply know that a prepositional phrase may do the same job as a single-word adjective or adverb. (See Chapter 7 for more on adjectives and adverbs.)

You should also pay attention to prepositions because choosing the wrong one may be embarrassing:

> Person 1: May I sit *next* to you?
>
> Person 2: (smiling) Certainly.
>
> Person 1: May I sit *under* you?
>
> Person 2: (sound of slap) Help! Police!

A few questions in the SAT Writing and the ACT English tortures — sorry, I mean *tests* — revolve around prepositions. You may encounter a misused preposition (*to* instead of *with*, for example) or a situation in which another part of speech grabs a preposition's rightful spot (*different than* instead of *different from*, perhaps). The best preparation for preposition questions is

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(a) a careful reading of this chapter and (b) general reading of good-quality writing. Why do I recommend quality writing? Language seeps into your brain when you read, and some of it stays there. If you're spending time with proper English, the correct use of prepositions simply sounds right. The reverse is also true. To heavy readers, preposition errors stand out like ukuleles in an opera.

Are You Talking to I? Prepositions and Pronouns

A big preposition pitfall is pronouns. (Can you say that three times fast — without spitting?) A *pronoun* is a word that substitutes for a noun. The problem with pronouns is that only some pronouns are allowed to act as objects of prepositions; they're called *object pronouns.* (See Chapter 17 for details on pronoun-preposition rules.) Use the wrong pronoun as the object of a preposition — a non-object pronoun — and the grammar cops will be after you.

The object pronouns, cleared to act as objects of the preposition, are *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.*

Take a look at some sentences with *pronouns* as objects of the prepositions:

> Among Bill, Harry, and *me* there is no contest. (*Me* is one of the objects of the preposition *among.*)
>
> Without *them,* the bridge will fall out of Cedric's mouth. (*Them* is the object of the preposition *without* — also, in case you're wondering, it's a dental bridge, not the Golden Gate.)
>
> Lester added an amendment to the bill concerning us, but the bill did not pass. (*Us* is the object of the preposition *concerning.*)

What is one of the most common errors in the use of object pronouns? Is the correct prepositional phrase *between you and I* or *between you and me?* Answer: The correct expression is *between you and me. Between* = the preposition. *You and me* = the objects of the preposition. *Me* is an object pronoun. (*I* is a subject pronoun.) The next time you hear someone say *between you and I,* I expect you to recite the rule.

Which sentence is correct?

A. According to Elton and she, the elephant's nose is simply too long.

B. According to Elton and her, the elephant's nose is simply too long.

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Answer: Sentence B is correct. *According to* is the preposition. The object of the preposition is *Elton and her. Her* is an object pronoun. (*She* is a subject pronoun.)

Most of the tough pronoun choices come when the sentence has more than one object of the preposition (*Elton and her,* for example, in the pop quiz). Your "ear" for grammar will probably tell you the correct pronoun when the sentence has a single pronoun object. You probably wouldn't say *according to she* because it sounds funny (to use a technical term).

If the sentence has more than one object of the preposition, try this rule of thumb — and I really mean thumb, at least when you're writing or looking for errors in someone else's writing. Take your thumb and cover one of the objects. Say the sentence. Does it sound right?

According to Elton

Okay so far. Now take your thumb and cover the other object. Say the sentence. Does it sound right?

According to she

Now do you hear the problem? Make the change:

According to her

Now put the two back together:

According to Elton and her

This method is not foolproof, but chances are good that you'll get a clue to the correct pronoun choices if you check the objects one by one.

A Good Part of Speech to End a Sentence With?

As I write this paragraph, global warming is increasing, the stock market is tanking, and the Yankees' pitching staff is in deep trouble. In the midst of all these earth-shattering events, some people still walk around worrying about where to put a preposition. Specifically, they (okay, I must admit that sometimes I, too) worry about whether or not ending a sentence with a preposition is acceptable. Let me illustrate the problem:

Tell me whom he spoke *about.*

Tell me *about* whom he spoke.

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Interjections Are Easy!

If you've been reading *English Grammar For Dummies* in order and have gotten through this chapter, you've earned my undying devotion. You've also read something about every part of speech except one: interjections. I can't leave out one part of speech without giving up my membership in the Grammarians Club. *Interjections* are exclamations that often express intense emotion. These words or phrases aren't connected grammatically to the rest of the sentence. Check out these examples, in which the interjections are italicized:

> *Ouch.* I caught my finger in the hatch of that submersible oceanographic vessel.
>
> *Curses,* foiled again.
>
> *Yes!* We've finally gotten to a topic that is foolproof.

Interjections may be followed by commas, but sometimes they're followed by exclamation points or periods. The separation by punctuation shows the reader that the interjection is a comment on the sentence, not a part of it. (Of course, in the case of the exclamation point or period, the punctuation mark also indicates that the interjection is not a part of the sentence at all.)

You can't do anything wrong with interjections, except perhaps overuse them. Interjections are like salt. A little salt sprinkled on dinner perks up the taste buds; too much sends you to the telephone to order take-out.

Here's the verdict: Both sentences are correct, at least for most people and even for most grammarians. But not, I must warn you, for all. If you're writing for someone who loves to tsk-tsk about the decline and fall of proper English, avoid placing a preposition at the end of a sentence. Otherwise, put the preposition wherever you like, including at the end of a sentence.

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Chapter 9

Everyone Brought Their Homework: Pronoun Errors

In This Chapter

- Pairing pronouns with nouns
- Distinguishing between singular and plural pronouns
- Understanding possessive pronouns
- Selecting non-sexist pronouns

Pronouns are words that substitute for nouns. Even though they're useful, pronouns can also be pesky because English has many different types of pronouns, each governed by its own set of rules. (See Chapters 4 and 6 for information on subject and object pronouns.) In this chapter, I concentrate on how to avoid the most common errors associated with this part of speech.

Pairing Pronouns with Nouns

To get started on everything you need to know about pronouns, take a close look at how pronouns are paired with nouns. A pronoun's meaning can vary from sentence to sentence. Think of pronouns as the ultimate substitute teachers. One day they're solving quadratic equations, and the next they're doing push-ups in the gym. Such versatility comes from the fact that pronouns don't have identities of their own; instead, they stand in for nouns. In a few situations, pronouns stand in for other pronouns. I discuss pronoun–pronoun pairs later in this chapter.

To choose the appropriate pronoun, you must consider the word that the pronoun is replacing. The word that the pronoun replaces is called the pronoun's *antecedent*.

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Identifying the pronoun–antecedent pair is really a matter of reading comprehension. If the sentence (or in some cases, the paragraph) doesn't make the pronoun–antecedent connection clear, the writing is faulty. Time to edit! But in most cases the meaning of the pronoun leaps off the page. Take a look at some examples:

> Hal stated *his* goals clearly: *He* wanted to take over the world. (The pronouns *his* and *he* refer to the noun *Hal.*)
>
> The lion with a thorn in *her* paw decided to wear sneakers the next time *she* went for a walk in the jungle. (The pronouns *her* and *she* in this sentence refer to the noun *lion.*)
>
> *Our* cause is just! Down with sugarless gum! *We* demand that all bubble gum be loaded with sugar! (The pronouns *our* and *we* refer to the speakers, who aren't named.)
>
> Tattered books will not be accepted because *they* are impossible to resell. (The pronoun *they* refers to the noun *books.*)
>
> Larry, *who* types five or six words a minute, is writing a new encyclopedia. (The pronoun *who* refers to *Larry.*)
>
> Ameba and *I* demand that the microscope be cleaned before *we* begin the exam. (The pronoun *I* refers to the speaker. The pronoun *we* refers to *Ameba and I.*)

When analyzing a sentence, you seldom find a noun that's been replaced by the pronouns *I* and *we.* The pronoun *I* always refers to the speaker and *we* refers to the speaker and someone else.

Similarly, the pronoun *it* sometimes has no antecedent:

> *It* is raining.
>
> *It* is obvious that Sylvia has not won the card-flipping contest.

In these sentences, *it* is just a place-filler, setting up the sentence for the true expression of meaning (First sample sentence: Take your umbrella and cancel the picnic. Second sample sentence: Sylvia's card-flipping hand is broken, and she has lost all her baseball cards.)

Sometimes the meaning of the pronoun is explained in a previous sentence:

> Ted's ice cream *cone* is cracked. I don't want *it.* (The pronoun *it* refers to the noun *cone.*)

Identify the pronouns and their antecedents in this paragraph:

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> Cedric arrived at his mother's charity ball, although it was snowing and no taxis had stopped to pick him up. When inside the ballroom, he glimpsed Lulu and her boyfriend dancing the tango. Their steps were strange indeed, for the orchestra was actually playing a waltz. As she sailed across the floor — her boyfriend had lost his grip — Lulu cried, "Help me!"

Answer: Cedric arrived at *his (Cedric's)* mother's charity ball, although *it* (no antecedent) was snowing and no taxis had stopped to pick *him (Cedric)* up. Once inside the ballroom, *he (Cedric)* glimpsed Lulu and *her (Lulu's)* boyfriend dancing the tango. *Their (Lulu and boyfriend's)* steps were strange indeed, for the orchestra was actually playing a waltz. As *she (Lulu)* sailed across the floor — *her (Lulu's)* boyfriend had lost *his (boyfriend's)* grip — Lulu cried, "Help *me!*" *(Lulu).*

Choosing between Singular and Plural Pronouns

All pronouns are either singular or plural. Singular pronouns replace singular nouns, which are those that name *one* person, place, thing, or idea. Plural pronouns replace plural nouns — those that name *more than one* person, place, thing, or idea. (Grammar terminology has flair, doesn't it?) A few pronouns replace other pronouns; in those situations, singular pronouns replace other singular pronouns, and plurals replace plurals. You need to understand pronoun number — singulars and plurals — before you place them in sentences. Take a look at Table 9-1 for a list of some common singular and plural pronouns.

Table 9-1 Common Singular and Plural Pronouns

Singular	*Plural*
I	We
Me	Us
Myself	Ourselves
You	You
Yourself	Yourselves
He/She/It	They/Them
Himself/Herself/Itself	Themselves
Who	Who
Which	Which
That	That

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Goldilocks and the three there's

They're putting all *their* bets on the horse over *there.* In other words, *there* is a place. *Their* shows ownership. *They're* is short for *they are.* Some examples:

> "*They're* too short," muttered Eggworthy as he eyed the strips of bacon. (*They're* means *they are.)*

"Why don't you take some longer strips from *their* plates," suggested Lola. (The plates belong to *them* — expressed by the possessive pronoun *their.*)

"My arm is not long enough to reach over *there,*" sighed Eggworthy. (*There* is a place.)

Notice that some of the pronouns in Table 9-1 do double duty; they take the place of both singular and plural nouns or pronouns. (You think this double duty is a good idea? Hah! Wait until you get to Chapter 10, when you have to match singular and plural subjects with their verbs.)

Most of the time choosing between singular and plural pronouns is easy. You're not likely to say

> Gordon tried to pick up the ski poles, but it was too heavy.

because *ski poles* (plural) and *it* (singular) don't match. Automatically you say

> Gordon tried to pick up the ski poles, but they were too heavy.

Matching *ski poles* with *they* should please your ear.

If you're learning English as a second language, your ear for the language is still in training. Put it on an exercise regimen of at least an hour a day of careful listening. A radio station or a television show in which reasonably educated people are speaking will help you to train your ear. You'll soon become comfortable hearing and choosing the proper pronouns.

Company and business names sometimes sound plural (Saks, Lord and Taylor, AT&T, and so forth). However, a company is just one company and is, therefore, a singular noun. When you refer to the company, use the singular pronoun *it* or *its*, not the plural pronouns *they* or *their.* Take a look at these sentences, in which the singular pronouns are italicized:

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Dombey and Sons often sends *its* employees on business trips.

It is offering a free vacation in the Caribbean to all *its* clerks.

If a singular pronoun sounds strange, you may adjust the sentence to refer to the employees. Sometimes you cut the pronoun entirely. Here's an example:

STRANGE: I returned the sweater to Sheldon & Daughters Department Store, and it offered me a refund.

BETTER-SOUNDING BUT WRONG: I returned the sweater to Sheldon & Daughters Department Store, and they offered me a refund.

BETTER-SOUNDING AND RIGHT: I returned the sweater, and the sales representative offered me a refund.

Remember: pair singular pronouns with company names.

Two nouns — people and person — often confuse writers. *People* is plural and pairs with plural pronouns:

The people who scratched *their* names on the screen will be penalized.

Person is singular, as is any pronoun referring to *person*:

The person who left *his or her* chewing gum on the computer screen is in big trouble.

If you're writing a sentence similar to the preceding example, you may be tempted to match *their* with person. Resist the temptation. In Grammar World, singular and plural don't mingle, at least not legally. (Why *his or her*? Check out "Steering Clear of Sexist Pronouns" in this chapter for an explanation.)

Using Singular and Plural Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns — those all-important words that indicate who owns what — also have singular and plural forms. You need to keep them straight. Table 9-2 helps you identify each type.

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Do You Have an "Its" Problem?

I'm not talking about a poison-ivy rash that you need to scratch all the time. I'm talking about a possessive pronoun (*its*) and a contraction (*it's*). People who suffer from an *its* problem confuse the two words. Take heart: the remedy is simple. Just remember what each word means.

Its shows possession:

> The computer has exploded, and *its* screen is now decorating the ceiling.

It's means *it is*:

> *It's* raining cats and dogs, but I don't see any alligators.

So *it's* nice to know that grammar has *its* own rules. By the way, one of those rules is that *no possessive pronoun ever has an apostrophe.* Ever. Never. Never ever. Remember: If *it* owns something, dump the apostrophe.

Table 9-2 Singular and Plural Possessive Pronouns

Singular	*Plural*
my	our
mine	ours
your	your
yours	yours
his	their/theirs
her	their
hers	theirs
its	their
whose	whose

Positioning Pronoun–Antecedent Pairs

One way to lose a reader is to let your pronouns wander far from the words they refer to — their antecedents. To avoid confusion, keep a pronoun and its antecedent near each other. Often, but not always, they appear in the same sentence. Sometimes they're in different sentences. Either way, the idea is the same: If the antecedent of the pronoun is too far away, the reader or listener may become confused. Check out this example:

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> Bernie picked up the discarded *paper.* Enemy ships were all around, and the periscope's lenses were blurry. The sonar pings sounded like a Mozart sonata, and the captain's hangnails were acting up again. Yet even in the midst of such troubles, Bernie was neat. *It* made the deck look messy.

It? What's the meaning of *it?* You almost have to be an FBI decoder to find the partner of *it* (*paper*). Try the paragraph again.

> Enemy ships were all around, and the periscope's lenses were blurry. The sonar pings sounded like a Mozart sonata, and the captain's hangnails were acting up again. Yet even in the midst of such troubles, Bernie was neat. He picked up the discarded *paper. It* made the deck look messy.

Now the antecedent and pronoun are next to each other. Much better!

Rewrite these sentences, moving the pronoun and antecedent closer together.

> Bernie pulled out his handkerchief, given to him by Luella, the love of his life. He sniffed. His sinuses were acting up again. The air in the submarine was stale. He blew his nose. She was a treasure.

Answer: Several possibilities exist. The most important correction involves *Luella* and *she,* now too far apart. Here is one answer:

> Bernie pulled out his handkerchief, given to him by Luella, the love of his life. She was a treasure. He sniffed. His sinuses were acting up again. The air in the submarine was stale. He blew his nose.

Some believe that position alone is enough to explain a pronoun–antecedent pairing. It's true that a pronoun is more likely to be understood if it's placed near the word it represents. In fact, you should form your sentences so that the pairs are neighbors. However, position isn't always enough to clarify the meaning of a pronoun. Standardized test writers want to know whether you can write clearly and express exact meaning, so they hit you with quite a few pronoun–antecedent problems.

The best way to clarify the meaning of a pronoun is to make sure that only one easily identifiable antecedent may be represented by each pronoun. If your sentence is about two females, don't use *she.* Provide an extra noun to clarify your meaning.

Look at this sentence:

> Helena told her mother that she was out of cash.

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Who is out of cash? The sentence has one pronoun — *she* — and two females (*Helena, Helena's mother*). *She* could refer to either of the two nouns.

The rule here is simple: Be sure that your sentence has a clear, understandable pronoun–antecedent pair. If you can interpret the sentence in more than one way, rewrite it, using one or more sentences until your meaning is clear:

> Helena said, "*Mom,* can I have your ATM card? I looked in the cookie jar and *you're* out of cash."

or

> Helena saw that her mother was out of cash and told her so.

What does this sentence mean?

> Alexander and his brother went to Arthur's birthday party, but he didn't have a good time.

A. Alexander didn't have a good time.
B. Alexander's brother didn't have a good time.
C. Arthur didn't have a good time.

Answer: Who knows? Rewrite the sentence, unless you're talking to someone who was actually at the party and knows that Arthur got dumped by his girlfriend just before his chickenpox rash erupted and the cops arrived. If your listener knows all that, the sentence is fine. If not, here are a few possible rewrites:

> Alexander and his brother went to Arthur's party. Arthur didn't have a good time.

or

> Arthur didn't have a good time at his own birthday party, even though Alexander and his brother attended.

or

> Alexander and his brother went to Arthur's party, but Arthur didn't have a good time.

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Matching Pronouns to Pronoun Antecedents

Most of the time, determining whether a pronoun should be singular or plural is easy. Just check the noun that acts as the antecedent, and bingo, you're done. But sometimes a pronoun takes the place of another pronoun. The pronouns being replaced are particularly confusing because they're singular, even though they look plural. In this section, I tackle the hard cases, showing you how to handle these tricky pronouns when they're antecedents. (The same pronouns sometimes cause problems with subject-verb agreement. Turn to Chapter 10 for the lowdown on this topic.)

Everyone, somebody, nothing, and similar pronouns

Everybody, somebody, and *no one* (not to mention *nothing* and *everyone*): These words should be barred from the English language. Why? Because matching these pronouns to other pronouns is a problem. If you match correctly, your choices sound wrong. But if you match incorrectly, you sound right. Sigh. Here's the deal. All of these pronouns are singular:

- The "ones": one, everyone, someone, anyone, no one.
- The "things": everything, something, anything, nothing.
- The "bodies": everybody, somebody, anybody, nobody.

These pronouns don't sound singular. *Everybody* and *everyone* appear to represent a crowd. Nevertheless, you're in singular territory with these pronouns. The logic (yes, logic applies, even though English grammar rules don't always bother with logic) is that *everyone* talks about the members of a group one by one. You follow this logic, probably unconsciously, when you choose a verb. You don't say,

> Everyone are here. Let the party begin!

You do say,

> Everyone is here. Let the party begin!

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Picking the correct verb comes naturally, but picking the correct pronoun doesn't. Check out this pair:

> Everyone was asked to bring their bubble gum to the bubble-popping contest.
>
> Everyone was asked to bring his or her bubble gum to the bubble-popping contest.

Which one sounds right? The first one, I bet. Unfortunately, the second one is correct, formal English. The bottom line: When you need to refer to "ones," "things," "bodies" in formal English, choose singular pronouns to match (*he/she, his/her*) and avoid using *their*.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Matilda the lifeguard says that nobody should wear their earplugs in the pool in case shark warnings are broadcast.

B. Matilda the lifeguard says that nobody should wear his or her earplugs in the pool in case shark warnings are broadcast.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Nobody* is singular. *His or her* is singular. *Their* is plural. I know, I know, the sentence sounds horrible.

Once upon a time, sentence A would've been accepted, even by authors that English teachers love, such as Shakespeare and Jane Austen. A little more than 100 years ago, however, sentence A was arrested by the grammar police. Now B is correct and A is not. (In conversational English, sentence A abounds. Actually, it abounds in formal English also; it's wrong in both.)

Each and every

Each and every time I explain this rule, someone objects. As with *everybody*, which I explain in the preceding section, the proper use of *each* and *every* sounds wrong. These two pronouns are singular, and any pronouns that refer to *each* and *every* must be singular also. Check out these examples, in which I've italicized the pronouns referring to *each* and *every*:

> Each of the motorcycles should have *its* tires checked.
>
> Every motorcycle with leaky tires will have *its* inspection sticker removed.
>
> Every car, truck, and motorcycle on the road must display *its* inspection sticker on the windshield.
>
> Each of the owners must repair *his or her* motorcycle immediately.

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Did you groan? Are you arguing with me? I understand. But I can't change the rule, which is based on the idea that *each* and *every* separate the members of the group into components. Any pronoun referring to *each* and *every* is actually referring to a member of the group, not to the group as a whole. Hence, you're in singular territory.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Each of the computers popped its flash drive when the doughnut cream dripped in.

B. Each of the computers popped their flash drives when the doughnut cream dripped in.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The pronoun *its* refers to *each of the computers.* Think of *each* as converting a group of computers into *one computer,* followed by another, then another, and so on. Thus *its* — the singular pronoun — is correct.

Either and neither

These two pronouns sometimes share a park bench (sorry, I mean a *sentence*) with *or* and *nor.* In this section I don't deal with *either-or* and *neither-nor* combos. For that sort of sentence, turn to Chapter 10. Here I talk about *either* and *neither* alone, when these pronouns — and any pronouns referring to them — are always singular. In these sentences, the pronouns that refer to *either* and *neither* are italicized:

> Either of my daughters is willing to shave *her* head.
>
> Neither of the drill sergeants wants to deal with *his* fear of bald women.
>
> Either of the commanders must issue *his or her* order regulating hair length.

By the way, the last sentence assumes that you have a male and a female commander, or that you don't know whether the commanders are male, female, or a mixed pair. For more information on avoiding sexist pronouns, check out the next section.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Neither of the shavers has had its battery changed.

B. Neither of the shavers has had their battery changed.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The pronoun *its* refers to *neither*, which is a singular pronoun.

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Steering Clear of Sexist Pronouns

In preparing to write this section, I typed "pronoun + gender" into a Web search engine and then clicked "search." I wanted a tidbit or two from the Internet about the use of nonsexist language. I got more than a tidbit. In fact, I got over 700,000 hits. I can't believe that so many people are talking about pronouns! Actually, *talking* is not the appropriate word. *Arguing, warring, facing off, cursing,* and a few other less polite terms come to mind. Here's the problem. For many years, the official rule was that masculine terms (those that refer to men) could refer to men only or could be universal, referring to both men and women. This rule is referred to as the *masculine universal.* Here's an example. In an all-female gym class the teacher would say,

> Everyone must bring *her* gym shorts tomorrow.

and in an all-male gym class the teacher would say,

> Everyone must bring *his* gym shorts tomorrow.

Employing the masculine universal, in a mixed male and female gym class, the teacher would say,

> Everyone must bring *his* gym shorts tomorrow.

Judging by the Internet, the battles over this pronoun issue aren't likely to be over in the near future. My advice? I think you should say *he or she* and *his or her* when grammar requires such terms. The masculine universal excludes females and may offend your audience.

To sum up: you may say,

> Everyone must bring *his or her* gym shorts.

or

> Everyone must bring *his* gym shorts.

or

> All the students must bring *their* gym shorts.

or

> Bring *your* gym shorts, *you* little creeps!

All these example sentences are grammatically correct.

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Chapter 10

Just Nod Your Head: About Agreement

In This Chapter

- Distinguishing singular verb forms from plural verb forms
- Matching the subject to the verb
- Choosing the correct verb forms for questions and negative statements
- Knowing when to pay attention to prepositional phrases
- Matching verbs to difficult subjects

Hollywood filmmakers and about a million songwriters have tried to convince the public that opposites attract. Grammarians have clearly not gotten that message! Instead of opposites, the English language prefers matching pairs — singular with singular and plural with plural. Matching, in grammar terminology, is called *agreement.* In this chapter, I show you how to make subjects and verbs agree. I tackle this issue in a couple of tenses and in questions, and then I show you some special cases — treacherous nouns and pronouns that are often mismatched. By the way, this topic travels so often to the SAT Writing and ACT English tests that it should earn frequent flyer miles. Test-takers, take note!

Writing Singular and Plural Verbs

If you're a native speaker of English, your "ear" helps you correctly match singular and plural subjects to their verbs most of the time. But even if English isn't you're first language, you probably pair up lots of subjects and verbs correctly because most tenses use the same form for both singular and plural verbs. In this section, I show you the forms that don't change and the ones that do. (For more information on verb tenses, see Chapter 3.)

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The unchangeables

When you're writing or speaking regular verbs in simple past, simple future, past perfect, and future perfect tense, this topic is almost a free pass. (Some of the progressive forms change; see the next section for more detail.) The non-progressive forms of these verbs don't change. Here are some examples, all with the regular verb *to snore,* of tenses that use the same form for both singular and plural subjects.

> Larry *snored* constantly, but his cousins *snored* only occasionally. (The simple past tense verb *snored* matches both the singular subject *Larry* and the plural subject *cousins.*)
>
> Ella *will snore* if she eats cheese before bedtime, but her bridesmaids *will snore* only after a meal containing sardines. (The simple future tense verb *will snore* matches both the singular subject *Ella* and the plural subject *bridesmaids.*)
>
> Cedric *had snored* long before his tonsils were removed. His pet tigers *had snored* nightly before Cedric upgraded their diet. (The past perfect verb *had snored* matches both the singular subject *Cedric* and the plural subject *tigers.*)
>
> By the time this chapter is over, Lola *will have snored* for at least an hour, and her friends *will have snored* for an even longer period. (The future perfect verb *will have snored* matches both the singular subject *Lola* and the plural subject *friends.*)

The changeables

Have you resolved to speak only in those unchanging tenses? Sorry! The other tenses are crucial to your communication skills. Fortunately, you need to know only a few principles to identify singular and plural verbs.

Simple present tenses

In simple present tense, nearly all the regular verb forms are the same for both singular and plural. If the subject of the sentence is *I, we,* or *you,* don't worry. They all use the same verb (*I snore, we snore, you snore*).

In choosing simple present tense verbs, you do have to be careful when the subject is a singular noun (*Lola, tribe, motorcycle,* or *loyalty*, for example) or a plural noun (such as *planes, trains,* and *automobiles*). You also have to be on your toes when the subject is a pronoun that replaces a singular noun (*he, she, it, another, someone*, and so forth). Finally, you have to take care when the subject is a pronoun that replaces a plural noun (perhaps *they, both,* or *several*). To boil all this down to a simpler rule: Be careful when your sentence is talking *about* someone or something.

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When in Rome and Greece: Classical plurals

Granted, the Coliseum is a magnificent sight, and the Greek myths are pretty cool. But those languages! Thanks to the ancient Romans and Greeks, a number of English words form their plurals in an irregular way. Here are some singular/plural pairs:

- **Alumnus/alumni:** The singular, *alumnus,* is a masculine term. The plural, alumni, may refer to groups of males, or, if you accept the masculine term as universal, *alumni* may refer to both males and females. (See Chapter 9.)
- **Alumna/alumnae:** The singular, *alumna,* is a feminine term. The plural refers to groups of females.
- **Analysis/analyses:** *Analysis* is the singular, meaning "a course of psychological therapy" or, more generally, "a serious investigation or examination." The plural changes the *i* to *e.*
- **Parenthesis/parentheses:** (This sentence is in *parentheses,* but I try not to write with too many *parentheses* because readers find more than three *parentheses* confusing.)
- **Datum/data:** Technically, *data* is the plural of *datum* and takes a plural verb *(the data are clear).* However, more and more people are matching *data* with a singular verb *(the data is clear).* To impress all your grammarian friends, pair *data* with a plural verb.
- **Phenomenon/phenomena:** The singular term is *phenomenon,* a noun meaning "a marvel, a special occurrence or event." The plural term is *phenomena,* correct but so obscure nowadays that my computer thesaurus keeps trying to change it to *phenomenon.*

In sentences that talk about someone or something, the difference between the singular and plural forms of a regular verb is just one letter. The singular verb ends in *s* and the plural form doesn't. Here are some examples of simple present tense regular verbs:

Singular	***Plural***
the tiger *bites*	the tigers *bite*
Lulu *rides*	they *ride*
she *screams*	the boys *scream*
Lochness *burps*	both *burp*

Progressive tenses

Progressive tenses — those that contain an *-ing* verb form — may also cause singular/plural problems. These tenses rely on the verb *to be,* a grammatical weirdo that changes drastically depending on its subject. Just be sure to match the subject to the correct form of the verb *to be.* (See Chapter 3 for all the forms of *to be.*) Check out these examples — enough to satisfy a vampire — of progressive forms of the verb *to bite*:

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- **Singular present progressive:** I *am biting,* you *are biting,* Dracula *is biting,* no one *is biting*
- **Plural present progressive:** We *are biting,* you *are biting,* the tigers *are biting,* they *are biting.*
- **Singular past progressive:** I *was biting,* you *were biting,* Dracula *was biting,* no one *was biting.*
- **Plural past progressive:** We *were biting,* you *were biting,* the tigers *were biting*, both *were biting.*

In case you're wondering about the future progressive, I'll mention the good news: This one never changes! Singular and plural forms are the same (I *will be biting,* we *will be biting,* and so on). No problems here.

Present perfect and future perfect tenses

The present perfect and future perfect tenses (both progressive and non-progressive) contain forms of the verb *to have.* Use *have* when the subject is *I, you,* or a plural noun or pronoun. Use *has* when you're talking about a singular noun or pronoun that may replace the singular noun. Some examples:

- **Singular present perfect:** I *have bitten,* I *have been biting,* you *have bitten,* you *have been biting,* Dracula *has bitten,* Lola *has been biting,* she *has bitten,* everyone *has been biting.*
- **Plural present perfect:** We *have bitten,* we *have been biting,* you *have bitten,* you *have been biting,* the tigers *have bitten,* the tigers *have been biting,* several *have bitten,* they *have been biting.*

You guys understand, don't you?

You may have noticed that the word *you* is both singular and plural. I can say, "You are crazy" to Eggworthy when he claims that bacon is low in fat. I can also say, "You are crazy" to all those people who think Martians constructed the pyramids. In either case, I use the plural form of the verb *(are).* The fact that *you* is both singular and plural may be responsible for the popularity of such terms as *you all, y'all, youse* (very big in New York City), *you guys* (ditto), *and you people.* These terms are colorful but not correct in formal English. Use *you* for both singular and plural subjects, and if you care enough, make the meaning clear with context clues:

> Today you must all wear clothes to the Introduction to Nudism class because the heat is broken.
>
> "I must have you and only you!" cried Larry to his soon-to-be sixth wife.

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Easier Than Marriage Counseling: Making Subjects and Verbs Agree

After you're able to tell a singular from a plural verb (see the previous section), you can concentrate on matchmaking. Remember that you must always pair singular subjects with singular verbs, and plural subjects with plural verbs. No mixing allowed. Check out these examples:

> The ugly duckling hates the mirrored room. (*duckling* = singular subject, *hates* = singular verb)
>
> The plastic elf is still sitting on the store shelf. (*elf* = singular subject, *is sitting* = singular verb)
>
> Hedge clippers are always a thoughtful gift. (*clippers* = plural subject, *are* = plural verb)
>
> We plan to redecorate next summer. (*we* = plural subject, *plan* = plural verb)

How did I know that the subject–verb pairs were either singular or plural? I determined the number of subjects performing the action and then matched the verbs.

Here are some steps to take in order to make sure that your subjects and verbs agree:

1. Pop the question to find the verb. (See Chapter 2.)
2. Pop the question to find the subject. (See Chapter 4.)
3. Determine whether the subject is singular or plural.
4. Match the appropriate verb: singular verb to singular subject, plural verb to plural subject.

Choosing Verbs for Two Subjects

Sentences with two subjects joined by *and* take a plural verb, even if each of the two subjects is singular. (Think of math: one + one = two. One subject + one subject = plural subject.)

Here are some sample sentences with subjects joined by the word *and:*

> The sofa and the pillow are very comfortable. (*sofa* + *pillow* = plural subject, *are* = plural verb)

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The picture and its frame belong together. (*picture* + *frame* = plural subject, *belong* = plural verb)

Romance and garlic do not mix. (*romance* + *garlic* = plural subject, *do mix* = plural verb)

Which sentence is correct?

A. The judge and the jury have shown no mercy in these cases.

B. The judge and the jury has shown no mercy in these cases.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The subject is plural *(judge and jury)* so a plural verb (*have shown*) is appropriate. In sentence B the verb *(has shown)* is singular.

The Question of Questions

Just to make subject–verb agreement even more complicated, English grammar shuffles a sentence around to form questions and often throws in a helping verb or two. (See Chapter 2 for more information on helping verbs.) More bad news: questions are formed differently in different tenses. In this section, I show you how to form singular and plural questions in each tense.

Present tense questions

Check out the italicized subjects and verbs in these questions:

Does the *ring* in Lulu's navel *rust* when she showers? (*ring* = singular subject, *does rust* = singular verb)

Do Larry and *Ella need* a good divorce lawyer? (*Larry* + *Ella* = plural subject, *do need* = plural verb)

You've probably figured out that the verbs in these questions are formed by adding *do* or *does* to the main verb. *Do* matches all plurals as well as the singular subjects *I* and *you. Does* is for all other singular subjects. That's the system for most present tense questions. (Questions formed with the verb *to be* don't need *do* or *does.*) When *do* or *does* is used to form a question, the main verb doesn't change. So when checking subject–verb agreement in present-tense questions, be sure to note the helping verb — *do* or *does.*

Just for comparison, here are a couple of questions with the verb *to be:*

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Is grammar in style right now? (*grammar* = singular subject, *is* = singular verb)

Am I a good grammarian? (*I* = singular subject, *am* = singular verb)

Are the *grammarians analyzing* that sentence? (*grammarians* = plural subject, *are analyzing* = plural verb)

Change this statement into a question:

Ella meets Larry's parents today.

Answer: *Does* Ella *meet* Larry's parents today? *Ella* is a singular subject. To form the question, add the helping verb *does.*

Past tense questions

Past tense questions make use of the helping verb *did.* I imagine you'll cheer when you hear that *did* forms both singular and plural questions. Questions with the verb *to be* (always a maverick) don't need helping verbs, but the order changes. Here are some examples of past tense questions:

Did Zoe play the same song for eight hours? (*Zoe* = singular subject, *did play* = singular past tense verb)

Did the *grammarians complain* about that question? (*grammarians* = plural subject, *did complain* = plural past tense verb)

Was Lola on the Committee to Combat Body Piercing? (*Lola* = singular subject, *was* = singular past tense verb)

Were the villagers angry about the new tax? (*villagers* = plural subject, *were* = plural verb)

Change this statement into a question.

Ella and Larry *printed* the invitations.

Answer: *Did* Ella and Larry *print* the invitations? To form the past tense question, add the helping verb *did.*

Future tense questions

Once again, this topic is a free pass when it comes to singular and plural questions. The future tenses already have helping verbs, so no additions are necessary. Here's the best part: The helping verbs are the same for both singular and plural subjects. Read these sample future tense questions:

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Will Lola and *Lulu* ever *see* the error of their ways? (*Lola* and *Lulu*= plural subject, *will see* = plural future tense verb)

Will George be seeing you in all the old familiar places? (*George* = singular subject, *will be seeing* = singular future tense verb)

Will both of you *be ordering* another dessert? (*both* = plural subject, *will be ordering* = plural future tense verb)

Negative Statements and Subject–Verb Agreement

Some present-tense negative statements are also formed by adding *do* or *does,* along with the word *not,* to a main verb. The *not* squeezes itself between the helper (*do* or *does*) and the main verb. Remember that *does* is always singular. The helping verb *do* may be paired with the singular subjects *I* and *you. Do* is also used with all plural subjects. Here are some examples:

Larry does not *drive* a sports car because he wants to project a wholesome image. (*Larry* = singular subject, *does drive* = singular present tense verb)

The killer *bees do* not *chase* Roger because they are afraid of him. (*bees* = plural subject, *do chase* = plural present tense verb)

I do not *want* to learn anything else about verbs ever again. (*I* = singular subject, *do want* = singular present tense verb)

You do not *dance* like that in this club! (*You* = singular or plural subject, *do dance* = singular or plural present tense verb.)

One more joyous thought: To form past tense negative statements, the helping verb *did* is all you need for both singular and plural subjects:

Roger did not *dance* all night. (*Roger* = singular subject, *did dance* = singular past tense verb*)*

Lola and *Lulu did* not *send* a package of killer bees to Roger. (*Lola* and *Lulu* = plural subject, *did send* = plural past tense verb)

Negative statements in the future tense questions are even easier. You don't need additional helping verbs, and the helping verbs (*shall* or *will*) are the same for both singular and plural:

Roger will not *write* a thank-you note to Lola. (*Roger* = singular subject, *will write* = singular future tense verb)

The killer *bees will* not *shy* away from Larry. (*bees* = plural subject, *will shy* = plural future tense verb)

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Change this statement into a negative (opposite).

> George gave me help during the grammar test.

Answer: George *did* not *give* me help during the grammar test. You form the negative with the helping verb *did.*

The Distractions: Prepositional Phrases and Other Irrelevant Words

Subjects and their verbs are like parents and babies on a stroll through the park; they always travel together. A passerby cooing at a baby may catch the kid's attention, but ultimately the passerby is a distraction — irrelevant to the essential parent-child bond. The sentence world has lots of passersby that show up, slip between a subject and its verb, and distract you. The best strategy is to identify distractions and then cross them out (at least mentally) to get to the bare bones of the sentence — the subject–verb pair.

The most common distractions, but not the only ones, are prepositional phrases. A *prepositional phrase* contains a preposition (*on, to, for, by,* and so on) and an object of the preposition (a noun or pronoun). These phrases may contain some descriptive words as well. Other distractions may be clauses or participles. (For more information on prepositional phrases, see Chapter 8. I cover clauses and participles in Chapter 24.)

In the following sentences, I added some camouflage. The distractions (not all prepositional phrases) are italicized.

> The accountant *with 10,000 clients and only two assistants* works way too hard. (*accountant* = subject, *works* = verb)

In this sentence, *accountant* is the singular subject. If you pay attention to the prepositional phrase, you may incorrectly focus on *clients* and *assistants* as the subject — both plural words.

> The FBI agent, *fascinated by my last three tax returns,* is ruining my vacation plans. *(agent*= subject, *is ruining* = verb)

By ignoring the distracting phrase about my tax returns in this sentence, you can easily pick out the singular subject–verb pair.

> The deductions, *not the tax rate,* are a problem. (*deductions* = subject, *are* = verb)

In this sentence, *deductions* is the plural subject. If you let yourself be distracted, you may incorrectly match your verb to *rate,* which is singular.

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Final answer: Ignore all distracting phrases, and find the true subject–verb pair. Also, if any IRS employees are reading this book, please ignore my tax returns.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The boy in the first row, along with all the girls throwing spitballs, is ignoring the teacher.

B. The boy in the first row, along with all the girls throwing spitballs, are ignoring the teacher.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The subject is *boy.* The boy *is ignoring. Along with all the girls throwing spitballs* is a distraction (in this case, a prepositional phrase).

Another: Which sentence is correct?

A. The girl in the last row, but not the football players in the hall, are firing spitballs at the teacher.

B. The girl in the last row, but not the football players in the hall, is firing spitballs at the teacher.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The subject is *girl.* The verb must therefore be singular *(is firing).* Ignore the words between the commas; they're distractions and don't affect the subject–verb match.

Can't We All Just Get Along? Agreement with Difficult Subjects

Every family has at least one "difficult" relative — the one nobody wants to sit with on Thanksgiving. In this respect, English grammar resembles a family. Sadly, you can't dump your crazy relatives, nor can you ignore the difficult subject–verb scenarios I describe here.

Five puzzling pronouns as subjects

Earlier in this chapter, I told you to ignore prepositional phrases. Now I must confess that this rule has one small exception — well, five small exceptions. Five pronouns — five little words that just have to stir up trouble — change from singular to plural because of the prepositional phrases that follow them. The five troublemaking pronouns are

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- any
- all
- most
- none
- some

A good way to remember these five important words is with this nonsense sentence. (What? You say all the sentences in *English Grammar For Dummies* are nonsense sentences? Thanks for the compliment.) Anyway, remember these pronouns, if you like, with this sentence:

> Alice's aunt makes nice salads. (*Alice's* = any, *aunt*= all, *makes* = most, *nice* = none, *salads* = some)

Here they are with some prepositional phrases and verbs. Notice how the prepositional phrase affects the verb number.

Singular	***Plural***
any of the information is	*any* of the magazines are
all of the pie is	*all* of the shoes are
most of the city is	*most* of the pencils are
none of the pollution is	*none* of the toenails are
some of the speech is	*some* of the politicians are

See the pattern? For these five words, the prepositional phrase is the determining factor. If the phrase refers to a plural idea, the verb is plural. If the phrase refers to a singular idea, the verb is singular.

Here and there you find problems

A variation on unusual word order is a sentence beginning with *here* or *there*. In the examples below, the subject–verb pairs are italicized:

> Here *is* the *baby parakeet* that just bumped his head on the window.
>
> There *are* no flying *schools* for birds.

As you see, the words *here* and *there* aren't italicized. These words are never subjects! The true subject in this type of sentence comes after the verb, so that's where you look when you're making a subject–verb match.

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The ones, the things, and the bodies

In Chapter 9, I explain how to pair up the *ones,* the *things,* and the *bodies* — families of pronouns that delight in mischief-making — with other pronouns. Here I concentrate on verbs. Take a peek at the family tree:

The ones: *one, everyone, someone, anyone, no one*

The things: *everything, something, anything, nothing*

The bodies: *everybody, somebody, anybody, nobody*

These pronouns are always singular, even if they're surrounded by prepositional phrases that express plurals. These pronouns must be matched with singular verbs. Take a look at these examples:

So everybody *is* happy because *no one has caused* any trouble, and *anything goes.*

Anyone in the pool of candidates for dogcatcher *speaks* better than Lulu.

One of the million reasons to hate you *is* your tendency to split infinitives.

Not *one* out of a million spies *creates* as much distraction as George.

Each and every mistake is painful

Two other pronouns, which I explain in relation to pronoun/antecedent agreement in Chapter 9, are also a pain when the issue is subject/verb agreement. *Each* and *every* are very powerful words; they're strong enough to change any subject following them into a singular idea. Sneak a peek at these examples:

Each shoe and sock *is* in need of mending, but Larry refuses to pick up a needle and thread.

Every dress and skirt in that store *is* on sale, and Lulu's in a spending mood.

Do these sentences look wrong to you? Granted, they appear to have plural subjects: two things *(shoe and sock)* in sentence one, and another two things *(dress and skirt)* in sentence two. But when *each* or *every* is placed in front of a group, you take the items in the group one at a time. In the first sample sentence, the subject consists of one *shoe,* one *sock,* another *shoe,* another *sock,* and so on. Therefore, the sentence needs a singular verb to match the singular subject. Ditto for the *dress and skirt* reference in the second example.

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Either and neither: Alone or with partners

If you're reading this chapter in order, by now you've probably figured out that the same pronouns causing you grief in antecedent agreement also present subject/verb agreement problems. (Chapter 9 tells you all you need to know about pronouns and their antecedents.) Two more pain-in-the-pick-your-body-part pronouns are *either* and *neither*, when they're without their partners *or* and *nor.* When they're alone, *either* and *neither* are always singular, even if you insert a huge group (or just a group of two) between them and their verbs. Hence

> *Either* of the two armies *is* strong enough to take over the entire planet.
>
> *Neither* of the football captains *has shown* any willingness to accept Lola as quarterback.

Because the sample sentences are about armies and captains, you may be tempted to choose plural verbs. Resist the temptation! No matter what the sentence says, if the subject is *either* or *neither,* singular is the correct way to go.

When *either* and *neither* appear with their best buds, *or* and *nor*, two things happen. First, *either* and *neither* turn into conjunctions (joining words). Second, if they're joining two subjects, the subject that is closer to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural. Yes, that's right! This is a grammar problem you can solve with a ruler. Check out these examples:

> Either *Ella* or *her bridesmaids have eaten* the icing on the cake. (*bridesmaids* = closest subject, a plural; *have eaten* = plural verb)
>
> Neither *the waiters* nor *Larry is planning* to eat the leftovers. (*Larry* = closest subject, a singular; *is planning* = singular verb)

Most sentences that are questions have helping verbs, and the helpers are the part of the verb that changes. Never fear: this is still grammar by ruler. The subject closest to the part of the verb that changes governs the singular/plural decision. Take a look at these examples:

> *Does* either *Ella* or *her cousins want* antacids? (*Ella* = subject closest to the helping verb *does*; *Ella* = singular subject, *does want* = singular verb)
>
> *Do* neither *her cousins* nor *Ella know* how to cook? (*cousins* = subject closest to the helping verb *do*; *cousins* = plural subject, *do know* = plural verb)

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Politics and other irregular subjects

Besides dirty tricks and spin masters, the problem with politics is agreement. Specifically, *politics* looks plural because it ends in *s.* So do *mathematics, tactics, news, economics, civics, physics, athletics, measles, mumps,* and *analysis.* Surprise! all these words are singular and pair with singular verbs:

> *Politics is* a dirty sport, very much suited to Bob's view of the world.
>
> Roger thinks that *mathematics is* overrated. *Civics hasn't captured* his attention either. *Physics*, however, *has been* his favorite subject since second grade.
>
> *Athletics is* not my strong point.
>
> I may have to change my diet because the *news* about doughnuts *is* not encouraging.
>
> "*Economics is* my thing," commented Cedric as he stuffed money into his pockets.
>
> "Do you think that *measles is* a serious disease?" asked Eggworthy.
>
> "No, *mumps is* a lot worse," replied Michael.
>
> "Your troubles are all in your mind," said Lola. "*Analysis is* the answer."

Another word — *statistics* — may be either singular or plural. If you're talking about numbers, you're in plural territory:

> *Statistics show* that grammar knowledge is declining.

If you're talking about a course or a field of study, *statistics* is singular:

> *Statistics is* a difficult course.

The English language also has words that are always *plural.* Here are a few of them: *eyeglasses, pants, trousers, jeans, shorts* and *scissors.* (Did you notice how many of those words refer to clothing? Strange.) Other common plural-only words are *credentials, acoustics, earnings, headquarters,* and *ceramics.*

When in doubt, check your dictionary and remember to match singular nouns with singular verbs and plural nouns with plural verbs.

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Part III

No Garage, but Plenty of Mechanics

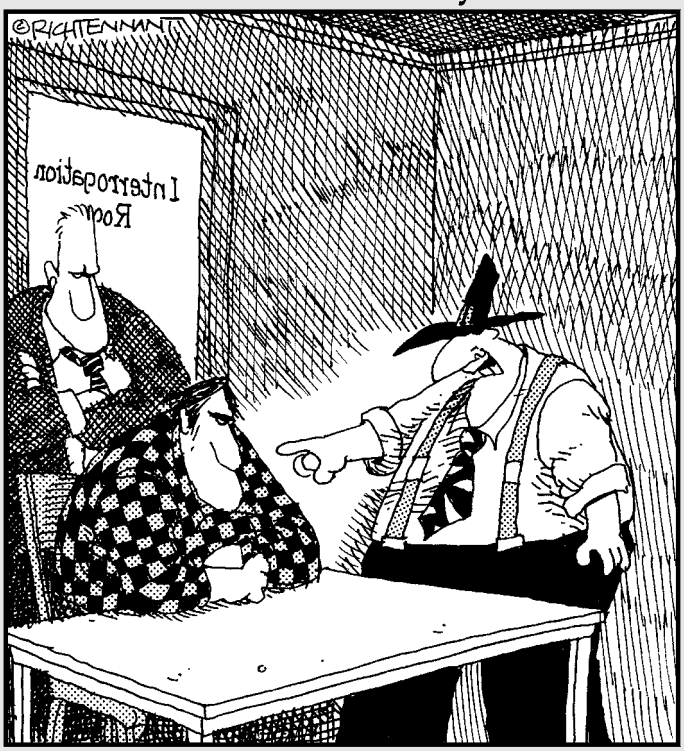

"C'mon Fogelman-talk! And I don't want to hear any of your non-parallel sentence structures, incomplete sentences or dangling participles!"

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In this part . . .

Passed any construction sites lately? If so, you've probably noticed giant piles of lumber, steel, or bricks — all very useful and very noticeable parts of the new building. Off to the side, you've probably also seen some of the little things that also make the building possible — the nails, the nuts, and the bolts.

In this part I explain the nails, nuts, and bolts of writing: apostrophes, quotation marks, and other punctuation, as well as the rules for capitalization. Just like the construction industry, the "grammar industry" is constantly updating its products. Punctuation and capitalization customs have changed quite a bit in the last few years, probably to fit more smoothly with electronic communication. At the risk of sending hordes of traditional grammarians spinning in their graves, I devote an entire chapter to e-mail, texting, presentation slides, and the like. By the time you finish reading this part, you'll understand why little things — what English teachers call *mechanics* — are an essential part of the package that carries your meaning to the reader, and you'll be up-to-date on the rules for 21st century writing.

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Chapter 11

Punctuation Law That Should Be Repealed: Apostrophes

In This Chapter

- Showing ownership with apostrophes
- Shortening words and phrases with apostrophes
- Avoiding common apostrophe errors

It happens every time I take a walk. I stroll along, thinking (in perfect grammar, of course), and a sign catches my eye.

> Bagel's Sold Here
>
> Mens Suits — the Best Deals in Town!

I hear a thud as the apostrophe rule bites the dust yet again. *Apostrophes* are those little curved marks you see suspended between certain letters — as in the *bagels* sign example. Why do those signs upset me? Because in both signs, the apostrophe (or lack thereof) is a problem. The signs should read:

> Bagels Sold Here
>
> Men's Suits — the Best Deals in Town!

Why don't they? Beats me. For some reason, even educated people throw apostrophes where they don't belong and leave them out where they're needed. So I favor repealing the apostrophe rule. Wipe it off the books. Pry the apostrophe key off computer keyboards. Erase the apostrophe from the collective mind of English teachers. Done, over, finito.

Until that happy day when apostrophes disappear, you have to learn the rules. In this chapter, I explain how to use apostrophes to show ownership and to shorten words.

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The Pen of My Aunt or My Aunt's Pen? Using Apostrophes to Show Possession

Most other languages are smarter than English. To show possession in French, for example, you say

the pen of my aunt (la plume du ma tante)

the fine wines of that corner bar

the letters of the lovers

and so on. You can say the same thing in English, too, but English has added another option — the apostrophe. Take a look at these same phrases — with the same meaning — using apostrophes:

my *aunt's* pen

that corner *bar's* fine wines

the *lovers'* letters

All of these phrases include nouns that express ownership. I like to think of the apostrophe as a little hand, holding on to an *s* to indicate ownership or possession. In the first two examples, you notice that the apostrophe shows singular nouns that own something (*aunt's, bar's*). In the third example the apostrophe indicates that a plural noun (*lovers'*) owns something.

Ownership for singles

No, I'm not talking about the ownership of real estate or singles who sit in bars asking, "What's your sign?" or "Come here often?" I'm talking about using apostrophes to show ownership with singular nouns. Here's the bottom line: To show possession by one owner, add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the owner:

the *dragon's* burnt tooth (the burnt tooth belongs to the dragon)

Lulu's pierced tooth (the pierced tooth belongs to Lulu)

Michael's gold-filled tooth (the gold-filled tooth belongs to Michael)

Another way to think about this rule is to see whether the word *of* expresses what you're trying to say. With the *of* method, you note

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the sharp tooth *of* the crocodile = the *crocodile's* sharp tooth

the peanut-stained tooth *of* the elephant = the *elephant's* peanut-stained tooth

and so on.

Sometimes, no clear owner appears in the phrase. Such a situation arises mostly when you're talking about time. If you can insert *of* into the sentence, you may need an apostrophe. For an idea of how to run the "of test," read these phrases:

one week's tooth cleaning = one week *of* tooth cleaning

a year's dental care = one year *of* dental care

Here's the bottom line: When you're talking about time, give your sentence the "of test." If it passes, insert an apostrophe.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lulu told Lola that Roger needs a years work on his gum disease.

B. Lulu told Lola that Roger needs a year's work on his gum disease.

Answer. Sentence B is correct because Roger needs *a year of work* on his mouth. (Actually, he needs false teeth and maybe a nose job, but the year's gum work is a start.)

Sharing the wealth: Plural possessives

You'd be finished figuring out apostrophes now if everything belonged to only one owner. Bill Gates is close, but even he hasn't taken over everything (yet). So for now, you need to deal with plural owners. The plurals of most English nouns — anything greater than one — already end with the letter *s*. To show ownership, all you do is add an apostrophe after the *s*. Take a look at these examples:

ten *gerbils'* tiny teeth (the tiny teeth belong to ten gerbils)

many *dinosaurs'* petrified teeth (the petrified teeth belong to a herd of dinosaurs)

a thousand sword swallowers' sliced teeth (the sliced teeth belong to a thousand sword swallowers)

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The owl rule: Who's, whose

Whose shows ownership. It seldom causes any problems, except when it's confused with another word: *who's. Who's* is a contraction that is short for *who is.* In other words

> The boy *whose* hat was burning was last seen running down the street screaming, "*Who's* in charge of fire fighting in this town?"

and

> *Whose* box of firecrackers is on the radiator? *Who's* going to tell Eggworthy that his living room looks like the Fourth of July?

The *of* test works for plurals, too. If you can rephrase the expression using the word *of,* you may need an apostrophe. Remember to add the apostrophe after the letter *s.*

> three *days'* dental work on those false teeth = three days *of* dental work
>
> sixteen *years'* neglect on the part of Lulu's dentist = sixteen years *of* neglect
>
> two *centuries'* pain of rotten teeth = two centuries *of* pain

Which is correct?

A. The dentist has only one goal in life: to clean the Yankee's teeth.

B. The dentist has only one goal in life: to clean the Yankees' teeth.

Answer: Sentence A is correct if you're talking about one player. Sentence B is correct if you're talking about 24 sets of teeth, or all the choppers on the team.

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. The Halloween decorations are decaying, especially the pumpkins teeth. Sam carved all ten jack-o-lanterns, and he can't bear to throw them away.

B. The Halloween decorations are decaying, especially the pumpkins' teeth. Sam carved all ten jack-o-lanterns, and he can't bear to throw them away.

C. The Halloween decorations are decaying, especially the pumpkin's teeth. Sam carved all ten jack-o-lanterns, and he can't bear to throw them away.

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Answer: Sentence B is correct. The context of the sentence *(all ten jack-o-lanterns)* makes clear the fact that more than one pumpkin is rotting away. In sentence B, *pumpkins'* expresses a plural possessive. In sentence A, *pumpkins* has no apostrophe, though it clearly shows possession. In sentence C, the apostrophe is placed before the *s,* showing a single pumpkin.

Irregular plural possessives

In many of my examples in this chapter, I use the word "teeth." (You're hearing chomping in your sleep, right?) The word *teeth* is plural, but *teeth* doesn't end with the letter *s.* In other words, *teeth* is an irregular plural. To show ownership for an irregular plural, add an apostrophe and then the letter *s* (*teeth's*). Check out these examples:

teeth's cavities (The cavities belong to the teeth.)

children's erupting teeth (The erupting teeth belong to the children.)

the three blind *mice's* imaginary teeth (The imaginary teeth belong to the three blind mice.)

the *women's* lipstick-stained teeth (The lipstick-stained teeth belong to the women.)

the *mice's* cheesy teeth (The cheesy teeth belong to the mice.)

geese's missing teeth (No teeth belong to the geese because, as of course you know, birds have beaks instead.)

Compound plural possessives

What happens when two single people own something? In real life they go to court and fight it out. In grammar, they (or you) add one or two apostrophes, depending upon the type of ownership. If two people own something together, as a couple, use only one apostrophe.

George and Martha *Washington's* home (The home belongs to the two of them.)

Larry and *Ella's* wedding (The wedding was for both the blushing groom and the frightful bride.)

Lulu and *Lola's* new set of nose rings (The set was too expensive for either one alone, so Lulu and Lola each paid half and agreed to an every-other-week wearing schedule.)

Roger and the superspy's secret (Roger told it to the superspy, so now they're sharing the secret, which concerns doughnuts and explosives.)

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If two people own things separately, as individuals, use two apostrophes:

George's and *Martha's* teeth (He has his set of teeth — false, by the way — and she has her own set.)

Lulu's and *Gary's* new shoes. (She wears size 2, and he wears size 12. Hers are lizard skin with four-inch heels. His are plastic with five-inch heels.)

Eggworthy's and *Roy's* attitudes towards dieting. (Eggworthy doesn't worry about cholesterol. Roy monitors every scrap of food he eats.)

Lester's and *Archie's* sleeping habits (You don't want to know. I'll just say that Lester sleeps all night, and Archie sleeps all day.)

Cedric's and *Lola's* fingernails. (He has his; she has her own; both sets are polished and quite long.)

Speaking of plurals: Remember that an apostrophe shows ownership. Don't use an apostrophe when you have a plural that is *not* expressing ownership. Here are some examples:

RIGHT: Bagels stick to your teeth.

WRONG: Bagel's stick to your teeth.

ALSO WRONG: Bagels' stick to your teeth.

Look at another set:

RIGHT: The gnus gnashed their teeth when they heard the news.

WRONG: The gnus' gnashed their teeth when they heard the news.

ALSO WRONG: The gnu's gnashed their teeth when they heard the news.

To sum up the rule on plurals and apostrophes: If the plural noun is not showing ownership, *don't* use an apostrophe. If the plural noun shows ownership, *do* add an apostrophe after the *s* (for regular plurals). For irregular plurals showing ownership, add *'s*.

I have to admit that in two special cases, apostrophes do show up in plurals. If you're writing the plural of a lowercase letter, you add an apostrophe and an *s*. To help the reader along, you should italicize the letter but not the apostrophe or the *s*. If you're writing the plural of a word used as a word (not for what it means), italicize the word and add a nonitalicized s (with no apostrophe). If you're writing with a pen, not a computer, italics aren't possible. Pen-writers should place the plural of the word used as a word or the letter in quotation marks and add an apostrophe and an *s*. Take a peek at these examples:

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You have too many *f*'s in that word, young lady!

The boss throws "impossible's" into every discussion of my raise.

Up until a few years ago, the plurals of capital letters, numbers and symbols were also formed with apostrophes (*F*'s, *1960*'s, and *&*'s , for example). Most writers now omit the apostrophe in these cases (*F*s, *1960s* and *&s*). So far, civilization hasn't crumbled from the shock. Stay tuned!

Possession with Proper Nouns

Companies, stores, and organizations also own things, so these proper nouns — singular or plural — also require apostrophes. Put the apostrophe at the end of the name:

Macy's finest shoes

Microsoft's finest operating system

McGillicuddy, Pinch, and Cinch's finest lawsuit

Grammar, Inc.'s finest apostrophe rule

Special note: Some stores have apostrophes in their names, even without a sense of possession:

Macy's occupies an entire city block.

Macy's is always written with an apostrophe, even when there's no noun after the store name. *Macy's* implies a shortened version of a longer name (perhaps *Macy's Department Store*).

Place apostrophes where they're needed in this paragraph.

Jeff went to Macys Department Store to buy a suit for Lolas party. His shopping list also included a heart for the Valentines Day dinner and a card for his brothers next anniversary. Jeffs shopping spree was successful, in spite of Lulus and Lolas attempts to puncture his tires.

Answer: Jeff went to *Macy's* Department Store to buy a suit for *Lola's* party. His shopping list also included a heart for the *Valentine's* Day dinner and a card for his *brother's* next anniversary. *Jeff's* shopping spree was successful, in spite of *Lulu's* and *Lola's* attempts to puncture his tires. (***Note:*** Lulu and Lola made separate stabs at the tires.)

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Ownership with Hyphenated Words

Other special cases of possession involve compound words — son-in-law, mother-of-pearl, and all the other words with *hyphens* (those little horizontal lines). The rule is simple: Put the apostrophe at the end of the word. Never put an apostrophe inside a word. Here are some examples of singular compound nouns:

> the *secretary-treasurer's* report on teeth (The report belongs to the secretary-treasurer.)
>
> the *dogcatcher-in-chief's* canine teeth (The canine teeth belong to the dogcatcher-in-chief.)
>
> my *mother-in-law's* elderly teeth (The elderly teeth belong to my mother-in-law. Hi, Mom!)

The same rule applies to plural compound nouns that are hyphenated. Take a look at these examples:

> the *doctors-of-philosophy's* study lounge (The study lounge is owned by all the doctors-of philosophy.)
>
> my *fathers-in-law's* wedding present (The wedding present was from both fathers-in-law.)

Possessive Nouns That End in S

Singular nouns that end in *s* present special problems. Let me explain: My last name is Woods. My name is singular, because I am only one person. When students talk about me, they may say,

> Ms. Woods's grammar lessons can't be beat.

or

> Ms. Woods' grammar lessons can't be beat.

(Okay, they say a lot of other things, too, but this is a positive, family-friendly book. I'll omit the other comments.)

Both of the sentences about me and my grammar lessons (sounds like an old song: "Me and my grammar lessons / down in the good old school / where we learned apostrophes / so we wouldn't drool") are correct. Why are there two options — *Ms. Woods's* and *Ms. Woods'?* The answer has to do with sound. If you say the first sentence above, by the time you get to the word *grammar*

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you're hissing and spitting all over your listener. Not a good idea. The second sentence sounds better. So the grammar police have given in on this one. If the name of a singular owner ends in the letter *s,* you may add only an apostrophe, not an apostrophe and another *s.* But if you like hissing and spitting, feel free to add an apostrophe *and* an *s*. Both versions are acceptable.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The walrus' tusk gleamed because the walrus brushed it for ten minutes after every meal.

B. The walrus's tusk gleamed because the walrus brushed it for ten minutes after every meal.

Answer: Both are correct. Sentence B calls for more saliva, but it follows the rule. Sentence A breaks the old rule, but nowadays breaking that rule is acceptable. (Yes, it was a trick question. You know how teachers are.)

Try another set. Which sentence is correct?

A. My whole family got together for Thanksgiving. The Woods' are a large group.

B. My whole family got together for Thanksgiving. The Woodses are a large group.

Answer: Another trick question. Sentence B is correct because Woodses is a plural, not a possessive. In sentence A, the apostrophe is incorrect because plurals shouldn't have apostrophes unless they express ownership.

Common Apostrophe Errors with Pronouns

English also supplies pronouns — words that take the place of a noun — for ownership. Some possessive pronouns are *my, your, his, her, its, our,* and *their.* Here's a rule so important — and so often broken — that you should consider tattooing it on your pinky finger: No possessive pronoun ever has an apostrophe. A few examples of possessive pronouns in action:

your completely unruly child — not your' completely unruly child (also wrong: that completely unruly child of yours')

our extremely well-behaved youngster — not our' extremely well-behaved youngster (also wrong: the extremely well-behaved youngster of ours')

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their tendency to fight — not their' tendency to fight (also wrong: the tendency of theirs' not to fight)

his call to the police — not his' call to the police

Which sentence is correct?

A. Roy stole Jenny's mouthwash because of their' ancient feud.

B. Roy stole Jenny's mouthwash because of their ancient feud.

C. Roy stole Jennys mouthwash because of their ancient feud.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. In sentence A, the apostrophe is needed in *Jenny's* because Jenny owns the mouthwash. However, *their* should not have an apostrophe because no possessive pronoun ever has an apostrophe. In sentence C, *their* is written correctly, but *Jennys* lacks the apostrophe.

Just one more. Which sentence is correct?

A. Eggworthy claims that a weeks mouthwash is not worth fighting over and has pledged his support to Roy.

B. Eggworthy claims that a week's mouthwash is not worth fighting over and has pledged his' support to Roy.

C. Eggworthy claims that a week's mouthwash is not worth fighting over and has pledged his support to Roy.

Answer: Sentence C is correct. In sentence A, *a weeks* needs an apostrophe because the phrase means *a week of.* In sentence B, *his'* shouldn't have an apostrophe because (say it aloud — bellow it!) no possessive pronoun ever has an apostrophe.

For more information on possessive pronouns, see Chapter 9.

Shortened Words for Busy People: Contractions

Are you in a hurry? Probably. So like just about everyone in our society, you probably use contractions when you speak. A *contraction* shortens a word by removing one letter or more and substituting an apostrophe in the same spot. For example, chop *wi* out of *I will,* throw in an apostrophe, and you have *I'll.* The resulting word is shorter and faster to say, with only one syllable (sound) instead of two.

Take a look at Table 11-1 for a list of common contractions. Notice that a couple of contractions are irregular. (*Won't,* for example, is short for *will not.*)

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Table 11-1 Contractions

Phrase	*Contraction*	*Phrase*	*Contraction*
are not	aren't	she is	she's
cannot	can't	that is	that's
could not	couldn't	they are	they're
do not	don't	they will	they'll
does not	doesn't	they would	they'd
did not	didn't	we are	we're
he will	he'll	we will	we'll
he would	he'd	we would	we'd
he is	he's	we have	we've
is not	isn't	what is	what's
it is	it's	who is	who's
I am	I'm	will not	won't
I will	I'll	would not	wouldn't
I would	I'd	you are	you're
I have	I've	you have	you've
she will	she'll	you will	you'll
she would	she'd	you would	you'd

If you'd like to make a contraction that isn't in Table 11-1, check your dictionary to make sure it's legal!

Your right to use apostrophes

You're in trouble if *your* apostrophes are in the wrong place, especially when you're writing in the second person. (The second person is the form that uses *you, your, yours,* both singular and plural.) *You're* means *you are. Your* shows possession. These two words are not interchangeable. Some examples:

"*You're* not going to eat that rotten pumpkin," declared Rachel. *(You are not going to eat.)*

"*Your* refusal to eat the pumpkin means that you will be given mystery meat instead," commented Dean. (The refusal comes from *you,* so you need a possessive word.)

"*You're* going to wear that pumpkin if you threaten me," said Lola. *(You are going to wear.)*

"I'm not afraid of *your* threats!" stated Art. (The threats come from *you*, so you need a possessive word.)

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Common Contraction Mistakes

If you've gone to the mall — any mall — chances are you've seen a sign like this:

Doughnuts 'N Coffee

or

Broken Grammar Rules

Okay, I doubt you've seen the last one, at least as a sign, but you've seen *'n* as a contraction of *and.* And therefore, you've witnessed broken grammar rules at the mall. I know I'm fighting a losing battle here, and I know I should be worried about much more important issues, like the economy and the environment. Even so, I also care about the grammatical environment, and thus I make a plea to the store owners and sign painters of the English-speaking world. Please don't put *'n* in anything. It's a grunt, not a word. Thank you.

Woulda, coulda, shoulda. These three "verbs" are potholes on the road to better grammar. Why? Because they don't exist. Here's the recipe for a grammatical felony. Start with three real verb phrases: *would have*, *could have*, and *should have*.

And turn them into contractions: *would've*, *could've*, and *should've*.

Now turn them back into words. But don't turn them back into the words they actually represent. Instead, let your ears be your guide. (It helps if you have a lot of wax in your ears because the sounds don't quite match.) Now you say the following: *would of*, *could of, and should of.*

These three phrases are never correct. Don't use them! Take a look at these examples:

WRONG: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would of said, "No way."

RIGHT: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would have said, "No way."

ALSO RIGHT: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would've said, "No way."

Here's another set:

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WRONG: When I heard about the spy ring, I should of told the Central Intelligence Agency.

RIGHT: When I heard about the spy ring, I should have told the Central Intelligence Agency.

ALSO RIGHT: When I heard about the spy ring, I should've told the Central Intelligence Agency.

Which is correct?

A. Jane wouldnt go to the dentist even though she needed a new tooth.

B. Jane wouldn't go to the dentist, even though she needed a new tooth.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Wouldn't* is short for *would not.*

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Chapter 12

Quotations: More Rules Than the Internal Revenue Service

In This Chapter

- Understanding the difference between quoting directly and reporting someone's words generally
- Punctuating quotations
- Using quotation marks for slang and unusual words
- Knowing when to put titles in quotation marks

When I correct quotations in students' papers, I field many questions, such as "Why did you move that period?" or Do I really need a capital letter?" I counter with a question of my own. (Not "Do you know the way to detention?" I'm much nicer than that.) I ask the students what rules they were following when they wrote those quotations. Their answers reveal many myths about the proper way to quote.

This chapter is a myth-buster. It explains the real rules of quotations — unfortunately, a list even longer than the nation's tax laws. Lucky for you, quotation rules aren't as hard to follow as the regulations set by that beloved government agency, the Internal Revenue Service.

And I Quote

A *quotation* is a written repetition of someone else's words — just one word or a whole statement or passage. Quotations pop up in almost all writing: newspapers, magazines, novels, essays, letters, and so on. To get an idea how to identify a quotation, take a look at the following story:

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One day, while Betsy was on her way to a music lesson, she gazed through a shop window at a gleaming grand piano. Her heart beating wildly at the thought of playing such a marvel, she neglected to look up when everyone around her began to shout. Seconds later, another piano — an upright, not a grand — came whizzing through the air. One of the movers had taken a bite of his tuna fish sandwich, allowing the piano to break loose from the ropes hoisting it to the third floor. The piano landed a mere inch away from Betsy. What did Betsy say?

She said that she was relieved.

This sentence tells you about Betsy and her feelings, but it doesn't give her exact words. It's a report of someone's ideas, but not a record of the words actually spoken or written. You can write that sentence if you heard Betsy say, "I am relieved." You can also write the same sentence if you heard Betsy say, "Thank goodness it missed me. My knees are shaking! I could have been killed."

As an observer, you can also record Betsy's reaction by writing:

She said that she was "relieved."

This account of Betsy's reaction is a little more exact. Some of the sentence is general, but the reader knows that Betsy actually said the word "relieved" because it's in quotation marks. The quotation marks are signs for the reader; they mean that the material inside the marks is exactly what was said.

Betsy said, "I am so relieved that I could cry."

"I am so relieved that I could cry," Betsy said.

These two sentences quote Betsy. The words enclosed by quotation marks are exactly what Betsy said. The only thing added is a *speaker tag* — an identifying phrase that tells you who said the words (in this case, Betsy). As you see in the example, you can place the speaker tag in the beginning of the sentence or at the end. (It can also land in the middle, but I talk about that situation later in this chapter.) The quotation marks enclose the words that were said or written.

Which sentences are quotations? Which sentences are general reports of what was said?

A. Bob doesn't get along with the conductor of the school orchestra, according to Lulu.

B. Besides placing exploding cushions on the conductor's chair, Bob has talked about the conductor's "sentimental" choices of music for the next concert.

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C. "I refuse to play anything that was composed before the twenty-first century," declared Bob.

Answer: Sentence A is a general report with none of Bob's exact words. Sentence B tells the reader that Bob said the word "sentimental." Sentence C is a quotation.

Punctuating Quotations

Here's a math problem for you: Quotation + Punctuation =? Answer: A million dumb rules. Yes, I'm brave in calling the rules "dumb," even though I risk being expelled from the grammarians' union. In general, the rules for quotations are simply customs. Put a period inside, put a period outside — what difference does it make to your reader? Not much. But to write proper English, you need to follow all the rules, even the illogical ones.

Quotations with speaker tags

DUMB RULE 1: When the speaker tag comes first, put a comma after the speaker tag. The period at the end of the sentence goes *inside* the quotation marks.

The gang remarked, "Lola's candidate is a sure bet."

Lola replied, "He's not my candidate."

DUMB RULE 2: When the speaker tag comes last, put a comma *inside* the quotation marks and a period at the end of the sentence.

"Lola's candidate isn't a sure bet now," the gang continued.

"I support a different candidate," screamed Lola.

Now you know the first two (of far too many) quotation rules. Keep in mind that it doesn't matter where you put the speaker tag as long as you punctuate the sentence correctly.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Alonzo muttered, "I don't want to practice the piano".

B. Alonzo muttered, "I don't want to practice the piano."

Answer: Sentence B is correct, because the period is inside the quotation marks.

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Here's another pair. Which sentence is correct?

A. "The equation that Al wrote on the board is incorrect," trilled Anna.

B. "The equation that Al wrote on the board is incorrect", trilled Anna.

Answer: Sentence A is correct, because the comma is inside the quotation marks.

How rude! Punctuating interrupted quotations with speaker tags

Sometimes a speaker tag lands in the middle of a sentence. To give you an example of this sort of placement, I revisit Betsy. Her saga continues with a visit to her lawyer.

> "I think I'll sue," Betsy explained, "for emotional distress."
>
> "You can't imagine," she added, "what I felt."
>
> "The brush of the piano against my nose," she sighed, "will be with me forever."
>
> "The scent of tuna," she continued, "brings it all back."
>
> "I can't go to the cafeteria," she concluded, "without suffering post-piano stress syndrome."

In each of these sample sentences, the speaker tag interrupts the quotation. Time for some more dumb rules for interrupted quotations.

DUMB RULE 3: In a sentence with an interrupted quotation, the comma is *inside* the quotation marks for the first half of a quotation.

DUMB RULE 4: In a sentence with an interrupted quotation, the speaker tag is followed by a comma *before* the quotation marks.

DUMB RULE 5: In a sentence with an interrupted quotation, the period at the end of the sentence is *inside* the quotation marks.

DUMB RULE 6: In a sentence with an interrupted quotation, the second half of a quotation does *not* begin with a capital letter.

Which sentence is correct?

A. "After the concert", said Lulu, "the piano goes to the third floor."

B. "After the concert," said Lulu, "The piano goes to the third floor."

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Answer: Neither is correct. In sentence A, the comma after *concert* is in the wrong place. In sentence B, the second half of the quotation should not begin with a capital letter. Here is the correct sentence:

> "After the concert," said Lulu, "the piano goes to the third floor."

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. "Although I am only a humble musician, said Betsy, "I have the right to a piano-free sidewalk."
B. "Although I am only a humble musician," said Betsy "I have the right to a piano-free sidewalk."
C. "Although I am only a humble musician," said Betsy, I have the right to a piano-free sidewalk."
D. "Although I am only a humble musician," said Betsy, "I have the right to a piano-free sidewalk."

Answer: Sentence D is correct. In sentence A, there should be a quotation mark after *musician.* In sentence B, a comma should be placed after *Betsy.* In sentence C, a quotation mark should be placed before *I.* (Annoying rules, aren't they? So many things can go wrong with this type of sentence.)

Notice that in all the interrupted quotations I supply in this section, the quoted material adds up to only one sentence, even though it's written in two separate parts.

Avoiding run-on sentences with interrupted quotations

When you plop a speaker tag right in the middle of someone's conversation, make sure that you don't create a run-on sentence. A *run-on sentence* is actually two sentences that have been stuck together (that is, *run* together) without a conjunction (a word that joins grammatical elements) or a semicolon. (For more information on run-on sentences, see Chapter 5.) Just because you're quoting is no reason to ignore the rules about joining sentences. Check out this set of examples:

> WRONG: "When you move a piano, you must be careful," squeaked Al, "I could have been killed."
>
> RIGHT: "When you move a piano, you must be careful," squeaked Al. "I could have been killed."

The quoted material forms two complete sentences:

> SENTENCE 1: When you move a piano, you must be careful.
>
> SENTENCE 2: I could have been killed.

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Because the quoted material forms two complete sentences, you must write two separate sentences. If you cram this quoted material into one sentence, you've got a run-on.

Remove the speaker tag and check the quoted material. What is left? Enough for half a sentence? That's okay. Quoted material doesn't need to express a complete thought. Enough material for one sentence? Also okay. Enough material for two sentences? Not okay, unless you write two sentences.

Which is correct?

A. "A piano hits the ground with tremendous force," explained the physicist. "I would move to the side if I were you."

B. "A piano hits the ground with tremendous force," explained the physicist, "I would move to the side if I were you."

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The quoted material forms two complete sentences and you must quote it that way. Sentence 1 = *A piano hits the ground with tremendous force.* Sentence 2 = *I would move to the side if I were you.*

Here's another. Which is correct?

A. "I insist that you repeal the laws of physics, demanded Lola. "Pianos should not kill people."

B. "I insist that you repeal the laws of physics," demanded Lola, "Pianos should not kill people."

C. "I insist that you repeal the laws of physics," demanded Lola. "Pianos should not kill people."

Answer: C is correct. In A, a quotation mark is missing after the word *physics*. Choice B is a run-on. In C, the two complete thoughts are expressed in two sentences and punctuated correctly.

Quotations without speaker tags

Not all sentences with quotations include speaker tags. The punctuation and capitalization rules for these sentences are a little different, though not more logical than other types of quotation rules. Check out these examples:

According to the blurb on the book jacket, Anna's history of geometry is said to be "thrilling and unbelievable" by all who read it.

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> When Michael said that the book "wasn't as exciting as watching paint dry," Anna threw a pie in his face.
>
> Michael's lawyer is planning a lawsuit for "grievous injury to face and ego."

DUMB RULE 7: If the quotation doesn't have a speaker tag, the first word of the quotation is not capitalized.

DUMB RULE 8: No comma separates the quotation from the rest of the sentence if the quotation doesn't have a speaker tag.

Actually, rules 7 and 8 aren't completely dumb. Quotations without speaker tags aren't set off from the sentence; they're tucked into the sentence. You don't want to put a capital letter in the middle of the sentence, which is where nonspeaker-tag quotations usually end up. Also, omitting the comma preserves the flow of the sentence.

Notice that quotations without speaker tags tend to be short — a few words rather than an entire statement. If you're reporting a lengthy statement, you're probably better off with a speaker tag and the complete quotation. If you want to extract only a few, relevant words from someone's speech, you can probably do without a speaker tag.

Which is correct?

A. Eggworthy said that the latest nutritional research was "Suspect" because the laboratory was "Unfair."

B. Eggworthy said that the latest nutritional research was, "suspect" because the laboratory was, "unfair."

C. Eggworthy said that the latest nutritional research was "suspect" because the laboratory was "unfair."

Sentence C is correct. In sentence A, *suspect* and *unfair* should not be capitalized. In sentence B, no comma should be placed after *was*.

Quotations with question marks

Remember Betsy's piano from earlier in this chapter? When the piano nearly squashed Betsy, she said a few more things. (Not all of them are printable, but we'll ignore those remarks.) Here are her other remarks:

> "How can you eat a tuna sandwich while hoisting a piano?" Betsy asked as she eyed his lunch.
>
> "May I have a bite?" she queried.

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Let me put it another way:

> As she eyed his lunch Betsy asked, "How can you eat a tuna sandwich while hoisting a piano?"
>
> She queried, "May I have a bite?"

What do you notice about these two sets of quotations? That's right! The quoted words are questions. (Okay, I didn't actually hear your answer, but I'm assuming that because you were smart enough to buy this book, you're smart enough to notice these things.) And quotations that include questions follow the

NOT-SO-DUMB RULE 9: If you quote a question, put the question mark *inside* the quotation marks.

This rule makes good sense; it distinguishes a quoted question from a quotation embedded in a question. Time to look at one more part of Betsy's encounter with the falling piano. The piano mover answered Betsy, but no one could understand his words. (He had a mouthful of tuna fish.) I wonder what he said.

> Did he say, "I can't give you a bite of my sandwich because I ate it all"?
>
> Did he really declare, "It was just a piano"?

The quoted words in this set are not questions. However, each entire sentence is a question. Now it's time for more rules:

SLIGHTLY LESS-DUMB RULE 10: If the quoted words aren't a question but the entire sentence is a question, the question mark goes *outside* the quotation marks. (This rule makes sense too, don't you think?)

To sum up the rules on question marks:

- If the quoted words are a question, put the question mark *inside* the quotation marks.
- If the entire sentence is a question, put the question mark *outside* the quotation marks.

Some of you detail-oriented (okay, picky) people may want to know what to do when the quotation and the sentence are both questions. Read on.

DUMB RULE 11: For those rare occasions when both the quoted words and the sentence are questions, put the question mark *inside* the quotation marks.

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Here's an example of this rule:

> Did the mover really ask, "Is that lady for real?"

No matter what, don't use two question marks:

> WRONG: Did Betsy ask, "What's the number of a good lawyer?"?
>
> RIGHT: Did Betsy ask, "What's the number of a good lawyer?"

Which sentence is correct?

A. Did Lulu say, "I wish a piano would drop on me so that I could sue?"

B. Did Lulu say, "I wish a piano would drop on me so that I could sue"?

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Because the quoted words are not a question and the entire sentence is a question, the question mark goes outside the quotation marks.

Quotations with exclamation points

A word about exclamation points: These punctuation marks follow the same general rules as question marks. In other words,

NOT-SO-DUMB RULE 12: If the entire sentence is an exclamation, but the quoted words aren't, put the exclamation point *outside* the quotation marks.

NOT-SO-DUMB RULE 13: If the quoted words are an exclamation, put the exclamation point *inside* the quotation marks.

Here are some sample sentences with exclamation points:

> Gene said, "I can't believe it's not butter!" (The quoted words are an exclamation but the entire sentence is not.)
>
> I simply cannot believe that Gene actually said, "No, thank you"! (Now the entire sentence is an exclamation but the quoted words are not.)

For those of you who like to dot every *i* and cross every *t*:

DUMB RULE 14: If both the sentence and the quotation are exclamations, put the exclamation point *inside* the quotation marks.

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Take a look at this example:

> I cannot believe that Gene actually said, "No way would I run for president!"

No matter what, don't use two exclamation points:

> WRONG: I refuse to believe that Gene said, "In your dreams!"!
>
> RIGHT: I refuse to believe that Gene said, "In your dreams!"

Quotations with semicolons

Every hundred years or so you may write a sentence that has both a quotation and a semicolon. (In Chapter 5, I explain semicolons in detail.) Here's how to combine semicolons and quotations.

DUMB RULE 15: When writing a sentence that includes a quotation and a semicolon, put the semicolon *outside* the quotation marks.

Sneak a peek at this example:

> Cedric thinks that vending-machine snacks are a food group; "I can't imagine eating anything else," he said.

and

> Cedric said, "I can't imagine eating anything but vending-machine snacks"; he must have the IQ of a sea slug.

Okay, maybe that last sentence was a bit nasty. I apologize to sea slugs everywhere.

Quotations inside quotations

Now the topic of quotations becomes a little complicated. Sometimes you need to place a quotation inside a quotation. Consider this situation:

Al, President of the Future Engineers of America, sees himself as a paragon of popularity. He doesn't want Archie to join the club because Archie wears a plastic pocket-protector filled with pens and pencils. Al wants Archie to dump the pocket-protector, but Archie is outraged by the demand. You're writing a story about Archie and the Future Engineers of America. You're quoting Archie, who is quoting Al. How do you punctuate this quotation?

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> Archie says, "Al had the nerve to tell me, 'Your pocket protector is nerd-city and dumpster-ready.'"

A sentence like this has to be sorted out. Without any punctuation, here's what Al said:

> Your pocket protector is nerd-city and dumpster-ready.

Without any punctuation, here are all the words that Archie said:

> Al had the nerve to tell me your pocket protector is nerd-city and dumpster-ready.

Al's words are a quotation inside another quotation. So Al's words are enclosed in single-quotation marks, and Archie's are enclosed (in the usual way) in double quotation marks. Which brings me to

DUMB RULE 16: A quotation inside another quotation gets single quotation marks.

Another example: Lola says, "I'm thinking of piercing my tongue." Lulu tells Lola's mom about Lola's plan, adding a comment as she does so. Here's the complete statement:

> Lulu says, "As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to tell you that Lola told me, 'I'm thinking of piercing my tongue.'"

Lola's words are inside single quotation marks and Lulu's complete statement is in double quotation marks.

Commas and periods follow the same rules in both double and single quotations.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Angel complained, "He said to me, 'You are a devil.'"

B. Angel complained, "He said to me, "You are a devil."

Answer: Sentence A is correct. You must enclose *You are a devil* in single quotation marks and the larger statement *He said to me you are a devil* in double quotation marks. The period at the end of the sentence goes inside both marks.

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British English alert!

Despite having settled their differences shortly after the Boston Tea Party, Britain and America are still fighting over grammar rules. Everything I've told you about quotation rules is true for American English grammar. The reverse is often true for British English grammar. The British frequently use single quotation marks when they're quoting, and double marks for a quotation inside another quotation. Thus a British book might punctuate Lulu's comment in this way:

> Lulu says, 'As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to tell you that Lola told me, "I'm thinking of piercing my tongue."'

The name of the quotations marks is also different. In British English, the little squiggles are called "inverted commas." What's a puzzled grammarian to do? Follow the custom of the country he or she is in.

Who Said That? Identifying Speaker Changes

In a conversation, people take turns speaking. Take a look at this extremely mature discussion:

> "You sat on my tuna fish sandwich," Michael said. "It's flatter than a pancake, and I hate pancakes, unless they're covered with maple syrup."
>
> "No, I didn't sit on your sandwich," Ella said. "I am afraid of mayonnaise, so I sat ten feet away from your lunch bag."
>
> "Did too," Michael said.
>
> "Did not!" Ella said.

Notice that every time the speaker changes, a new paragraph is formed. By starting a new paragraph every time the speaker changes, the conversation is easy to follow; the reader always knows who is talking. Here's another version of the tuna fight:

> "You sat on my tuna fish sandwich," Michael said. "It's flatter than a pancake, and I hate pancakes, unless they're covered with maple syrup."
>
> "No, I didn't sit on your sandwich," Ella said. "I am afraid of mayonnaise, so I sat ten feet away from your lunch bag."

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"Did too."

"Did not!"

Although the speaker tags are left out after the first exchange, you can still figure out who is speaking because of the paragraph breaks.

DUMB RULE 17: Every change of speaker is signaled by a new paragraph.

The new-speaker/new paragraph rule applies even if the argument deteriorates into single-word statements such as *yes* or *no* or some other single-word statements. (I won't specify because this is a family-friendly book.)

Who said what? Label each statement, using the paragraph clues.

"Are you in favor of piano-tossing?" asked Roger curiously.

"Not really," replied Cedric. "I like my pianos to have all four feet on the floor."

"But there's something about music in the air that appeals to me."

"There's something about no broken bones, no concussions, and no flattened bodies that appeals to me."

"You really have no artistic instinct!"

Answer: Here's the passage again, with the speakers' names inserted. (Note the punctuation.)

"Are you in favor of piano-tossing?" asked Roger curiously.

"Not really," replied Cedric. "I like my pianos to have all four feet on the floor."

Roger continued, "But there's something about music in the air that appeals to me."

Cedric countered, "There's something about no broken bones, no concussions, and no flattened bodies that appeals to me."

"You really have no artistic instinct!" shouted Roger.

If you're quoting someone who's very longwinded, you may want to leave out some extra words. No problem, as long as you don't change the meaning of the quotation. Simply replace the missing words with an *ellipsis* (three spaced dots). If you're cutting out more than one sentence, insert four spaced dots — one is the period, and the other three are the ellipsis. If you need to add a word to a quotation to clarify meaning, put *brackets* — these symbols [ ] — around the addition. Here's what I mean:

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ORIGINAL STATEMENT: "I must practice the piano, the whole piano, and nothing but the piano in order to keep my notes sharp."

STATEMENT WITH WORDS OMITTED: "I must practice . . . in order to keep my notes sharp. (The ellipsis takes the place of *the piano, the whole piano, and nothing but the piano.*)

ORIGINAL STATEMENT: "He doesn't like flat-screen televisions either."

STATEMENT WITH CLARIFICATION: "He [Ollie] doesn't like flat-screen televisions either."

Germ-free Quotations: Using Sanitizing Quotation Marks

Sanitizing quotation marks (also known as *apologetic quotation marks*) tell the reader that you don't completely approve of the words inside the quotation marks. You often see sanitizing quotation marks enclosing slang, highly informal speech that falls outside standard English. (For more information on slang, see Chapter 1.) Check out this example:

> Archie knew that the guys thought him "nerd-city," but he was determined not to abandon his beloved pocket protector just because it was considered "uncool."

The writer knows that "nerd-city" and "uncool" aren't correct, but those words show the ideas (but not the exact remarks) of Archie's co-workers.

Don't overuse sanitizing quotation marks. Think of them as plutonium; a little goes a long way. Or, to sanitize that statement, a little goes a "long" way. Annoying, right?

A useful little word is *sic*. *Sic* (a Latin word that literally mean "thus"), indicates that you're quoting exactly what was said or written, even though you know something is wrong. In other words, you put a little distance between yourself and the error by showing the reader that the person you're quoting made the mistake, not you. For example, if you're quoting from the works of Dan Quayle, former Vice President of the United States (and a *very* poor speller) you may write

"I would like a potatoe [sic] for supper."

> "Potato," of course, is the correct spelling.

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Punctuating Titles: When to Use Quotation Marks

In your writing, sometimes you may need to include the title of a magazine, the headline of a newspaper article, the title of a song or movie, and so on. When punctuating these magazine titles, headlines, and song or movie titles, keep in mind these two options:

1. **Put the title in quotation marks. Quotation marks enclose titles of smaller works or parts of a whole.**

or

2. **Set the title off from the rest of the writing with italic or underlining. By using italic or underlining, you set off titles of larger works or complete works.**

These options aren't interchangeable. Each option has a different use. To put it another way, quotation marks are for jockeys. Italic and underlining are for basketball players. One is for little, the other for big.

Use quotation marks for the titles of

- Poems
- Stories
- Essays
- Songs
- Chapter titles
- Magazine or newspaper articles
- Individual episodes of a television series
- Page of a Web site

Use italic or underlining for the titles of

- Collections of poetry, stories, or essays
- Titles of books
- Titles of CDs or tapes or records (Do they still make records?)
- Magazines or newspapers

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- Television and radio shows
- Plays
- The title of the entire Web site

Here are some examples:

- "A Thousand Excuses for Missing the Tax Deadline" (a newspaper article) in *The Ticker Tape Journal* (a newspaper)
- "Ode to Taxes Uncalculated" (a poem) in *The Tax Poems* (a book of poetry)
- "I Got the W2 Blues" (a song title) on *Me and My Taxes* (a CD containing many songs)
- "On the Art of Deductions" (an essay) in *Getting Rich and Staying Rich* (a magazine)
- "Small Business Expenses" (an individual episode) on *The IRS Report* (a television series)
- *April 15th* (a play)
- "Deductions Unlimited" (a page in a Web site) in *Beat the IRS* (the title of a Web site)

You may be wondering which letters you should capitalize in a title. For information on capitalization, see Chapter 15.

Add quotation marks and italic to the following paragraph.

> Gloria slumped slowly into her chair as the teacher read The Homework Manifesto aloud in class. Gloria's essay, expressing her heartfelt dislike of any and all assignments, was never intended for her teacher's eyes. Gloria had hidden the essay inside the cover of her textbook, The Land and People of Continents You Never Heard Of. Sadly, the textbook company, which also publishes The Most Boring Mathematics Possible, had recently switched to thinner paper, and the essay was clearly visible. The teacher ripped the essay from Gloria's frightened hands. Gloria had not been so embarrassed since the publication of her poem I Hate Homework in the school magazine, Happy Thoughts.

Answer: Put "The Homework Manifesto" and "I Hate Homework" in quotation marks, because they're titles of an essay and a poem. Italicize *The Land and People of Continents You Never Heard Of* and *The Most Boring Mathematics Possible* and *Happy Thoughts,* because they're titles of books and a magazine.

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When a title is alone on a line — on a title page or simply at the top of page one of a paper — don't use italic or quotation marks. Don't underline the title either. The centering calls attention to the title. Nothing else is needed. One exception: If part of the title is the name of another work, treat that part as you would any other title. For example, suppose you've written a brilliant essay about Gloria's poem, "I Hate Homework." The title page contains this line, centered:

Freudian Imagery in "I Hate Homework"

If your brilliant essay is about the magazine *Happy Thoughts*, the title page includes this line (also centered):

The Decline of the School Magazine: A Case Study of *Happy Thoughts*

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Chapter 13

The Pause That Refreshes: Commas

In This Chapter

- Understanding why commas are important
- Punctuating series and multiple descriptions
- Using commas to distinguish between essential and extra information
- Placing a comma to indicate the person you're addressing
- Writing dates and addresses correctly

Aloud, commas are the sounds of silence — short pauses that contrast with the longer pause at the end of each sentence. Commas are signals for your reader. Stop here, they say, but not for too long. Commas also cut parts of your sentence away from the whole, separating something from whatever's around it in order to change the meaning of the sentence. When you're speaking, you do the same thing with your tone of voice and the timing of your breaths.

The rules concerning commas aren't very hard. In fact, after you grasp the underlying logic, placing commas correctly is a piece of cake. In this chapter, I guide you through that logic so you know where to put commas in common situations.

Distinguishing Items: Commas in Series

Imagine that you text a shopping list to your roommate Charlie, who's at the store shopping for your birthday party. (If you're curious about texting and grammar rules, turn to Chapter 16.) Everything's on one line.

flashlight batteries butter cookies ice cream cake

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How many things does Charlie have to buy? Perhaps only three:

flashlight batteries
butter cookies
ice cream cake

Or five:

flashlight
batteries
butter cookies
ice cream
cake

How does Charlie know? He doesn't, unless you use commas. Here's what Charlie actually needs to buy — all four items:

> flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, cake

To put it in a sentence:

> Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, and cake.

The commas between these items are signals. When you read the list aloud, the commas emerge as breaths:

> Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries [breath] butter cookies [breath] ice cream [breath] and cake.

You need commas between each item on the list, with one important exception. The comma in front of the word *and* is optional. Why? Because when you say *and,* you've already separated the last two items. But if you want to throw an extra comma there, you're welcome to do so. It's your choice.

Never put a comma in front of the first item on the list.

> WRONG: Charlie has to buy, flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream and cake.
>
> RIGHT: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream and cake.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, and cake.
>
> ALSO RIGHT, BUT NOT A GOOD IDEA: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries and butter cookies and ice cream and cake.

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You don't need commas at all in the last sentence because the word *and* does the job. Grammatically, that sentence is fine. In reality, if you write a sentence with three *ands,* your reader will think you sound like a little kid or a tape on continuous rewind.

Punctuate the following sentence.

> Belle requested a jelly doughnut a silk dress four sports cars and a racehorse in exchange for the rights to the computer code she had written.

Answer: Belle requested a jelly doughnut, a silk dress, four sports cars, and a racehorse in exchange for the rights to the computer code she had written. ***Note:*** You may omit the comma before the *and.*

Using "Comma Sense" to Add Information to Your Sentence

Your writing relies on nouns and verbs to get your point across. But if you're like most people, you also enrich your sentences with descriptions. In grammar terminology, you add adjectives and adverbs, participles and clauses, and an occasional appositive. Before you hyperventilate, let me explain that you don't have to know any of those terms in order to write — and punctuate — a good sentence. You just have to keep a couple of key ideas in your head. In this section, I explain how to place commas so that your writing expresses what you mean.

Separating a list of descriptions

Writers often string together a bunch of single-word descriptions, *adjectives*, in grammar lingo. (For more information on adjectives, turn to Chapter 5.) If you have a set of descriptions, you probably have a set of commas also. Take a look at the following sentences:

> "What do you think of me?" Belle asked Jill in an idle moment.
>
> Jill took a deep breath, "I think you are a sniffling, smelly, pimple-tongued, frizzy-haired monster."
>
> "Thank you," said Belle, who was trying out for the part of the wicked witch in the school play. "Do you think I should paint my teeth black too?"

Notice the commas in Jill's answer. Four descriptions are listed: *sniffling*, *smelly*, *pimple-tongued*, *frizzy-haired*.

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A comma separates each of the descriptions from the next, but there is no comma between the last description (*frizzy-haired*) and the word that it's describing (*monster*).

Here's a little more of Belle and Jill's conversation:

> "So do I get the part?" asked Belle.
>
> "Maybe," answered Jill. "I have four sniffling, smelly, pimple-tongued, frizzy-haired monsters waiting to audition. I'll let you know."

Now look closely at Jill's answer. This time there are five descriptions of the word *monster: four*, *sniffling*, *smelly*, *pimple-tongued*, *frizzy-haired*.

There are commas after *sniffling, smelly,* and *pimple-tongued.* As previously stated, no comma follows *frizzy-haired* because you shouldn't put a comma between the last description and the word that it describes. But why is there no comma after *four*? Here's why: *sniffling*, *smelly*, *pimple-tongued*, and *frizzy-haired* are more or less equal in importance in the sentence. They have different meanings, but they all do the same job — telling you how disgusting Belle's costume is. *Four* is in a different category. It gives you different information, telling you how many monsters are waiting, not how they look. Therefore, it's not jumbled into the rest of the list.

Numbers aren't separated from other descriptions or from the word(s) that they describe. Don't put a comma after a number. Also, don't use commas to separate other descriptions from words that indicate number or amount — *many, more, few, less,* and so forth. More descriptive words that you shouldn't separate from other descriptions or from the words that they describe include *other, another, this, that, these, those.* Examine these correctly punctuated sentences:

> Sixteen smelly, bedraggled, stained hats were lined up on the shelf marked, "WITCH COSTUME."
>
> Additional stinky, mud-splattered, toeless shoes sat on the shelf marked, "GOBLIN SHOES."
>
> No drippy, disgusting, artificial wounds were in stock.
>
> This green, glossy, licorice-flavored lipstick belongs in the witch's makeup kit.
>
> Those shiny, battery-powered, factory-sealed witches' wands are great.

Punctuate this sentence.

> Jill was worried about the musical number in which one hundred scraggly fluorescent flowing beards come to life and dance around the stage.

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Answer: Jill was worried about the musical number in which one hundred scraggly, fluorescent, flowing beards come to life and dance around the stage.

Note: Don't put a comma after a number *(one hundred)* or after the last description *(flowing).*

In your writing, you may create other sentences in which the descriptions should not be separated by commas. For example, sometimes a few descriptive words seem to blend into each other to create one larger description in which one word is clearly more important than the rest. Technically the list of descriptions may provide two or three separate facts about the word that you're describing, but in practice, they don't deserve equal attention. Take a look at this example;

Jill just bought that funny little French hat.

You already know that you should not separate *that* from *funny* with a comma. But what about *funny, little,* and *French*? If you write

Jill just bought that funny, little, French hat.

you're giving equal weight to each of the three descriptions. Do you really want to emphasize all three qualities? Probably not. In fact, you're probably not making a big deal out of the fact that the hat is *funny* and *little.* Instead, you're emphasizing that the hat is *French.* So you don't need to put commas between the other descriptions.

Sentences like the example require judgment calls. Use this rule as a guide: If the items in a description are not of equal importance, don't separate them with commas.

Essential or extra? Commas tell the tale

The descriptions in a sentence may be longer than one word. You may have a subject-verb expression (which grammarians call a *clause*) or a verb form (in technical terms, a *participle*). No matter what they're called, these longer descriptions follow one simple rule: If a description is essential to the meaning of the sentence, don't put commas around it. If the description provides extra, nonessential information, set it off with commas.

If you expect to darken little ovals with a #2 pencil (and by the way, what's wrong with a #1 pencil anyway?), spend a little extra time in this section and the next, "Commas with appositive influence." Both the SAT and the ACT gauge your knowledge of essential and nonessential commas.

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Consider this situation:

In her quest to reform Larry's government, Ella made this statement:

> Taxes, which are a hardship for the people, are not acceptable.

Lou, who is a member of Larry's Parliament, declared himself in complete agreement with Ella's statement. However, his version had no commas:

> Taxes which are a hardship for the people are not acceptable.

Do the commas really matter? Yes. They matter a lot. Here's the deal. If the description *which are a hardship for the people* is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, the description is extra — not essential to the meaning of the sentence. You can cross it out and the sentence still means the same thing. If commas do not set off the description, however, the description is essential to the meaning of the sentence. It may not be removed without altering what you are saying. Can you now see the difference between Ella's statement and Lou's? Here's the expanded version of each statement:

> ELLA'S EXPANDED STATEMENT: The government should not impose taxes. We can run the government perfectly well by selling postage stamps to foreign tourists. I suggest a tasteful portrait of the royal bride (me) on a new stamp. No taxes — that's the bottom line.

Because Ella's original sentence includes commas, the description *which are a hardship for the people* is extra information. You can omit it from the sentence. Thus Ella is against all taxes.

> LOU'S EXPANDED STATEMENT: The government is against any taxes which are a hardship for the people. No one wants to place a burden on the working families of our great nation. However, a 90 percent income tax is not a hardship; it pays my salary. This particular tax is acceptable.

Lou's proposal is much less extreme than Ella's. Without commas the description is a necessary part of the sentence. It gives the reader essential information about the meaning of *taxes.* Lou opposes only some taxes — those he believes are a burden. He isn't against all taxes. This description doesn't simply add a reason, as Ella's does. Instead it identifies which taxes Lou opposes.

The pronouns *which* and *that* may help you decide whether or not you need commas. *That* generally introduces information that the sentence can't do without — essential information that isn't set off by commas. The pronoun *which,* on the other hand, often introduces nonessential information that may be surrounded by commas. Keep in mind, however, that these distinctions are

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not true 100 percent of the time. Sometimes *which* introduces a description that is essential and therefore needs no commas. On rare occasions, the pronoun *that* introduces nonessential material.

Check out these additional examples, with the description in italic:

> SENTENCE: The students *who are planning a sit-in tomorrow* want to be paid for doing homework.
>
> PUNCTUATION ANALYSIS: The description is not set off by commas, so you may not omit it.
>
> WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: Some of the students — those planning a sit-in — want to be paid for doing homework. Not all the students want to be paid. The rest are perfectly content to do math problems for free.
>
> SENTENCE: The senators, planning to revolt, have given the television network exclusive rights to cover their rebellion.
>
> PUNCTUATION ANALYSIS: The commas indicate that the description is extra, nonessential information.
>
> WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: All the senators are involved. They're quite upset, and all have prepared sound bites and scheduled press conferences.

Which sentence means that you can't fly to Cincinnati for your cousin's wedding?

A. The pilots who are going on strike demand that soft music be piped into the cockpit.

B. The pilots, who are going on strike, demand that soft music be piped into the cockpit.

Answer: Sentence B talks about *all* the pilots. They all demand that soft music be piped into the cockpit, and they're all going on strike. The description between the commas adds that little bit of information. In sentence A, only the pilots who like soft music are going on strike.

The word "because" generally introduces a reason. At the beginning of a sentence, the "because" statement acts as an introductory remark is always set off by a comma.

> Because the tattoo was on sale, Lulu whipped out her credit card and rolled up her sleeve.

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At the end of a sentence, the "because" statement is sometimes set off by commas, in which case it may be lifted out of the sentence without changing the meaning. Without commas, it's essential to the meaning. Take a look at these two statements:

> WITH COMMAS: Lulu didn't get that tattoo, because it was in bad taste.
>
> MEANING: No tattoos for Lulu! The "because" information is extra, explaining why Lulu passed on the design.
>
> WITHOUT COMMAS: Lulu didn't get that tattoo because it was in bad taste.
>
> MEANING: Lulu got the tattoo, but not because it was in bad taste. She got it for another reason (perhaps the sale). The fact that the tattoo grossed out everyone who saw it was just an extra added attraction to Lulu, who enjoys looking strange.

Commas with appositive influence

If you're seeing double when you read a sentence, you've probably encountered an *appositive.* Strictly speaking, appositives aren't descriptions, though they do give you information about something else in the sentence. Appositives are nouns or pronouns that are exactly the same as the noun or pronoun preceding them in the sentence. Some appositives are set off by commas, and some aren't. The rule concerning commas and appositives: If you're sure that your readers will know what you're talking about before they get to the appositive, set off the appositive with commas. If you're not sure your readers will know exactly what you're talking about by the time they arrive at the appositive, you should not use commas. (This rule is a variation of the rule that I explain in the preceding section.)

Now put the rule into practice: What's the difference between these two sentences?

> Michael's play *Dinner at the Diner* won the Drama Critics' "Most Boring Play Award."
>
> *Dinner at the Diner,* Michael's play, won the Drama Critics' "Most Boring Play Award."

In the first example sentence, *Dinner at the Diner* is the appositive of *Michael's play.* When you get to *play*, you don't know which of Michael's plays is being discussed. The appositive supplies the name. Hence, the appositive is essential and isn't set off by commas. In the second example sentence, *Michael's play* is the appositive of *Dinner at the Diner.* Because *Dinner at the Diner* comes first, the reader already knows the name of the play. The fact that Michael wrote the play is extra information and must therefore be surrounded by commas.

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Here are a two more examples. In each sentence, *Mary* is the appositive of *sister*:

> Lulu has five sisters, but her sister Mary is definitely her favorite.

Because Lulu has five sisters, you don't know which sister is being discussed until you have the name. *Mary* identifies the sister and shouldn't be placed between commas.

> Roger has only one sibling. His sister, Mary, does not approve of Roger's espionage.

Because Roger has only one sibling, the reader knows that he has only one sister. Thus the words *his sister* pinpoint the person being discussed in the sentence. The name is extra information, not identifying information, and is set off by commas.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lola's mother, Lala, doesn't approve of her daughter's pierced toe.

B. Lola's mother Lala doesn't approve of her daughter's pierced toe.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. Lola has only one mother, so the name is extra, not identifying information.

You Talkin' to Me? Direct Address

When writing a message to someone, you need to separate the person's name from the rest of the sentence with a comma. Otherwise, your reader may misread the intention of the message. Take a look at the following note that Michael left on the door:

> Roger wants to kill Wendy. I locked him in this room.

You think: Wendy is in danger. That's a shame. Oh well, I guess I'm safe. However, when you unlock the door and sit down for a cup of tea, Roger jumps up and starts chasing you around the room. You escape and run screaming to Michael. "Why didn't you tell me that Roger was violent!" Michael pleads guilty to a grammatical crime. He forgot to put in the comma! Here's what he meant:

> Roger wants to kill, Wendy. I locked him in this room.

It was your bad luck to read a note intended for Wendy. In grammarspeak, *Wendy* is in a *direct-address* sentence. Because the writer was directing his comments to Wendy, her name should be cut her off from the rest of the

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sentence with a comma. Direct address is also possible at the beginning or in the middle of a sentence:

Wendy, Roger wants to kill, so I locked him in this room.

Roger wants to kill, Wendy, so I locked him in this room.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The teacher called, Emma, but I answered.

B. The teacher called Emma, but I answered.

Answer: It depends. If you're talking to Emma, telling her that Miss Sharkface phoned your house to report missing homework but you, not your mom, picked up the phone, then sentence A is correct. However, if you're explaining that the teacher screamed to Emma, "Bring your homework up here *this minute!*" and instead you replied, "Miss Sharkface, Emma asked me to tell you that a dog ate her homework," sentence B is correct.

Using Commas in Addresses and Dates

Commas are good, all-purpose separators. They won't keep you and your worst enemy apart, but they do a fine job on addresses and dates — especially when items that are usually placed on individual lines are put next to each other on the same line.

Addressing addresses

Where are you from? Jill is from Mars. Belle is from a small town called Venus. Here's her (fictional) address, the way you see it on an envelope:

Ms. Belle Planet

223 Center Street

Venus, New York 10001

In the body of a letter, you can insert an address in "envelope form" like this:

Please send a dozen rockets to the following address:

Ms. Belle Planet

223 Center Street

Venus, New York 10001

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The introductory words (*Please send a dozen rockets to the following address*) end with a colon (:) if they express a complete unit of thought. If the introductory words leave you hanging (*Please send a dozen rockets to*, for example), don't use a colon.

If you put Belle's address into a sentence, you have to separate each item of the address, as you see here:

> Belle Planet lives at 223 Center Street, Venus, New York 10001.

Here's the address (envelope style) for her best friend Jill:

> Jill Willis
>
> 53 Asimov Court
>
> Mars, California 90210

And now the sentence version:

> Jill Willis lives at 53 Asimov Court, Mars, California 90210.

Notice that the house number and street are not separated by a comma, nor are the state and zip code.

If the sentence continues, you must separate the last item in the address from the rest of the sentence with another comma:

> Belle Planet lives at 223 Center Street, Venus, New York 10001, but she is thinking of moving to Mars in order to be closer to her friend Jill.

If there is no street address — just a city and a state — put a comma between the city and the state. If the sentence continues after the state name, place a comma after the state.

> Belle Planet lives in Venus, New York, but she is thinking of moving to Mars.

Commas also separate countries from the city/state/province:

> Roger lives in Edinburgh, Scotland, near a large body of water. His brother Michael just built a house in Zilda, Wisconsin.

Punctuate the following sentence.

> Police believe that the missing salamander ran away from his home at 77 Main Street Zilda Wisconsin because of a dispute over the number of insects he would receive for each meal.

Answer: Police believe that the missing salamander ran away from his home at 77 Main Street, Zilda, Wisconsin, because of a dispute over the number of insects he would receive for each meal.

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Punctuating dates

Confession time: The rules for placing commas in dates aren't very stable these days. What was once carved into stone (and I mean that literally) is now sometimes viewed as old-fashioned. To make matters even more complicated, writers from different areas (science, literature, and the like) favor different systems. In this section, I tell you the traditional form and show you some possible variations. If you're writing for business or school, the traditional form should get you through. If you're up for publication, check with your editor about the publisher's preferred style.

If the date is alone on a line (perhaps at the top of a letter), these formats are fine:

September 28, 2060 (traditional)

Sept. 28, 2060 (traditional)

28 September 2060 (modern in the United States, traditional in many other countries)

When dates appear in a sentence, the format changes depending upon (a) how traditional you want to be and (b) how much information you want to give. Take a look at the commas — or the lack of commas — in these sentences:

On September 28, 2060, Lulu ate several thousand gummy candies. (Traditional: commas separate the day and year and the year from the rest of the sentence.)

In October, 2060, Lulu gave up sugary snacks. (Traditional: a comma separates the month from the year and the year from the rest of the sentence.)

Lulu pigs out every October 31st. (Timeless: both the traditional and modern camp omit commas in this format.)

In October 2060 Lulu suffered from severe indigestion. (Modern: no commas appear.)

Lulu visited a nutritionist on 20 October 2060. (Modern: no commas appear.)

Punctuate this sentence.

Lola testified under oath that on December 18 2011 she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for them.

Traditional Answer: Lola testified under oath that on December 18, 2011, she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for them.

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Modern Answer: Lola testified under oath that on 18 December 2011 she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for them.

Flying Solo: Introductory Words

Yes, this section introduces a comma rule. No, it's not optional. Well, you probably know it already. Oh, I'll explain it anyway. Okay, the rule is that you must separate words that aren't part of the sentence but instead comment on the meaning of the sentence. I'll put it another way: *introductory words* that appear at the beginning of a sentence are set off from what follows by commas. If you omit these words, the sentence still means the same thing. Common introductory words include *yes*, *no*, *well*, *oh*, and *okay*.

Read these examples twice, once with the introductory words and once without. See how the meaning stays the same?

> Yes, you are allowed to chew gum balls during class, but don't complain to me if you break a tooth.
>
> No, you are not allowed to write the exam in blood as a protest against the amount of studying you need to do in order to pass this course.
>
> Well, you may consider moving on to another topic if you have exhausted the creative possibilities of "My Favorite Lightbulb."
>
> Oh, I didn't know that you needed your intestines today.

To sum up the rule on introductory words: Use commas to separate them from the rest of the sentence, or omit them entirely.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Well Ella plays the piano well when she is in the mood.

B. Well, Ella plays the piano, well, when she is in the mood.

C. Well, Ella plays the piano well when she is in the mood.

Answer: Sentence C is correct. If you omit the first word, the sentence means exactly the same thing. *Well* is an introductory word that a comma should separate from the rest of the sentence. In sentence A, there is no comma after *well.* In sentence B, the first comma is correct, but the second *well* shouldn't be separated from the rest of the sentence because it's not an introductory word.

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Punctuating Independently

When you join two complete sentences with the conjunctions (joining words) *and, or, but, nor, yet, so,* or *for,* place a comma before the conjunction. Some examples include:

> Agnes robbed the bank, and then she went out for a hamburger.
>
> James spies, but apart from that lapse he is not a bad fellow.
>
> Sam bribed the judges of this year's state spitball contest, for he is determined to qualify for the national tournament.

For more information on conjunctions and complete sentences, see Chapter 5.

Some sentences have one subject (who or what you're talking about) and two verbs joined by *and, but, or,* and *nor.* Don't put commas between the two verbs. You aren't joining two complete sentences, just two words or groups of words. Here are some examples:

> WRONG: Ella wrote a statement for the media, and then screamed at her press agent for an hour.
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: The sentence has one subject *(Ella)* and two verbs *(wrote, screamed).* You aren't joining two complete sentences, so you shouldn't place a comma before *and.* Either way, Ella should learn to control her temper.
>
> RIGHT: Ella wrote a statement for the media and then screamed at Larry for an hour.
>
> WRONG: Larry has proposed a toast to his bride, but has given her nothing but a headache.
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: The sentence has one subject *(Larry)* and two verbs *(has proposed, has given).* The word *but* joins the two verbs, not two complete sentences. You don't need a comma. Also, if she's putting up with Larry, she deserves a wedding gift.
>
> RIGHT: Larry has proposed a toast to his bride but has given her nothing but a headache.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Al slits envelopes with his teeth, but Dorothy opens the mail with a fork.

B. Al answers every letter on the day he receives it but doesn't pay any bills.

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Answer: Both sentences are correct. In sentence A, the conjunction *but* joins two complete sentences. A comma must precede the conjunction *but*. In sentence B, *but* joins two verbs (*answers, does pay*). No comma precedes the conjunction.

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Chapter 14

Useful Little Marks: Dashes, Hyphens, and Colons

In This Chapter

- Inserting dashes for maximum effect
- Using long and short dashes correctly
- Placing hyphens in compounds and interrupted words
- Knowing where to place a colon in a business letter, list, and quotation

In a classic episode of an old detective show, the hero's sidekick writes a book. The entire thing has no punctuation whatsoever. The author explains that he's going to put in "all that stuff" later. Many writers sympathize with the sidekick. Who has time to worry about punctuation when the fire of creativity burns? But the truth is that the three little marks I explain in this chapter — dashes, hyphens, and colons — go a long way toward getting your point across.

Inserting Information with Dashes

Long dashes — what grammarians call "em dashes" — are dramatic. Those long straight lines draw your eye and hold your attention. But long dashes aren't just show-offs. They insert information into a sentence and introduce lists. Short dashes — technically, "en dashes" — aren't as showy as their wider cousins, but they're still useful. Short dashes show a range or connect words when the word *to* or *and* is implied.

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Long dashes

A long dash's primary job is to tell the reader that you've jumped tracks onto a new (though related) subject, just for a moment. Here are some examples:

> After we buy toenail clippers — the dinosaur in that exhibit could use a trim, you know — we'll stop at the doughnut shop.
>
> Standing on one manicured claw, the dinosaur — delivered to the museum only an hour before the grand opening — is the star of the exhibit.

The information inside the dashes is off-topic. Take it out, and the sentence makes sense. The material inside the dashes relates to the information in the rest of the sentence, but it acts as an interruption to the main point that you're making.

The words between a pair of dashes may or may not form a complete sentence. Fine. However, some people use only one dash to tack a complete sentence onto another complete sentence. Not fine! (Also, an issue you may encounter on standardized tests.) Here's what I mean:

> WRONG: The curator painted the dinosaur orange — everyone hates the color.
>
> RIGHT: The curator painted the dinosaur orange — everyone hates the color — because she wanted to "liven the place up."
>
> ALSO RIGHT: The curator painted the dinosaur orange; everyone hates the color.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: The curator painted the dinosaur orange — a color hated by everyone.

The first example sentence is wrong because a dash can't link two complete sentences. The second example is okay because a pair of dashes can surround a complete sentence embedded inside another complete sentence. The third example avoids the problem by linking the two sentences with a semicolon. The fourth example is correct because a dash may add extra information at the end of a sentence, as long as the extra information isn't a complete sentence. (*A color hated by everyone* isn't a complete sentence.)

Is the following sentence legal or grounds for arrest by the grammar police?

> The sweet sounds of a thousand tubas wafted through the air — she fell asleep.

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Answer: If you said legal, you get five to ten in the punctuation penitentiary. You need a period after *air* because *The sweet sounds of a thousand tubas wafted through the air* is a complete sentence. *She fell asleep* is also a complete sentence. You may not connect two complete sentences with a dash. The correct version reads

> The sweet sounds of a thousand tubas wafted through the air. She fell asleep.

A dash's second job is to move the reader from general to specific, often by supplying a definition. Check out the following examples:

> I think I have everything I need for the first day of camp — bug spray, hair spray, sun block, and DVD player.

Everything I need is general; *bug spray, hair spray, sun block, and DVD player* are the specifics.

> Louie said that he would perform the *ugu-ug-ba* — the ritual unwrapping of the season's first piece of chewing gum.

The definition of *ugu-ug-ba* is *the ritual unwrapping of the season's first piece of chewing gum*.

Long dashes may be fun to write, but they're not always fun to read. For a little change of pace, dash a new idea into your sentence. Just don't dash in too often or your reader will be tempted to dash away.

Short dashes

If you master this punctuation mark, you deserve an official grammarian's badge — very attractive at cocktail parties! Short dashes show a range:

> From May – September, the convicts prune commas from literature written over the winter.

Short dashes also show up when you're omitting the word *to* between two elements:

> The New York – Philadelphia train is always on time.

Finally, a short dash links two or more equal elements when *and* is implied:

> The catcher – pitcher relationship is crucial to the success of the Yankees. (Sorry, can't resist rooting for my favorite team.)

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Don't confuse short dashes with hyphens, an even shorter punctuation mark that I cover in the next section.

H-y-p-h-e-n-a-t-i-n-g Made Easy

Think of a hyphen as a dash that's been on a diet. You need these short, horizontal lines to help you maneuver through unexpected line breaks and for a couple of other reasons as well — to separate parts of compound words, to write certain numbers, and to create one description from two words. This section provides you with a guide to the care and feeding of the humble hyphen.

Understanding the great divide

Computer users have to worry about hyphens less often than other writers. Most of the time, the word processing program moves a word to a new line if there isn't enough room at the end of a line for the entire word. But when you're writing by hand or typing on an old-fashioned typewriter (do they still exist?), you may need to divide a word at the end of a line to avoid a long blank space along the right-hand margin. If you have to divide a word, follow these simple rules:

- Place the hyphen between the *syllables,* or sounds, of a word. (If you're not sure where the syllable breaks are in a word, check the dictionary.)
- Don't leave only one letter of a divided word on a line. If you have a choice, divide the word more or less in the middle.
- Don't divide words that have only one syllable.

Web addresses can be very long. Don't divide them with a hyphen. Either place the Web address on its own line or, if you absolutely have to divide, chop the address at a period or slash mark.

Using hyphens for compound words

Hyphens also separate parts of compound words, such as *ex-wife*, *pro-choice*, *mother-in-law*, and so forth. When you type or write these words, don't put a space before or after the hyphen.

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The British system

The practice of dividing a word between syllables is American. In Britain, words are often divided according to the derivation (family tree) of the word, not according to sound. For example, in the American system, *democracy* is divided into four parts — *de-moc-ra-cy* — because that's how it sounds. In the British system, the same word is divided into two parts — *demo-cracy* — because the word is derived from two ancient Greek forms, *demos (people)* and *kratia (power).* Let the dictionary of the country you're in be the final authority on dividing words.

I should mention that the trend in modern writing is toward fewer punctuation marks. Thus, many words that used to be hyphenated compounds are now written as single words. *Semi-colon*, for instance, has morphed into *semicolon.* As always, the dictionary is your friend when you're figuring out whether a particular expression is a compound, a single word, or two separate words.

One cap or two? The answer is complicated. All the parts of a person's title are capitalized, except for prepositions and articles (*Secretary-Treasurer*, *Commander-in-Chief*, and so forth). Don't capitalize the prefix *ex-* (as in *ex-President Carter*, *ex-Attorney-General Meese*). Words that are capitalized for some other reason (perhaps because they're part of a book title or a headline) follow a different rule. Always capitalize the first half. Capitalize the second half of the compound if it's a noun, or if the second half of the compound is equal in importance to the first half: *Secretary-General Lola*, *President-elect Lulu*. (For more information on capitalization, see Chapter 15.)

Hyphens also show up when a single word might be misunderstood. I once received an e-mail from a student. "I resent the draft," she wrote. I spent ten minutes worrying about her feelings before I realized that she sent the draft of a paper twice because the e-mail didn't go through the first time. To avoid misinterpretation, she should have written *re-sent.*

Placing hyphens in numbers

Decisions about whether to write a numeral or a word are questions of style, not of grammar. The authority figure in your life — teacher, boss, parole officer, whatever — will tell you what he or she prefers. In general, larger numbers are usually represented by numerals:

Roger has been arrested 683 times, counting last night.

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However, on various occasions you may need to write the word, not the numeral. If the number falls at the beginning of a sentence, for example, you must use words because no sentence may begin with a numeral. You may also need to write about a fractional amount. Here's how to hyphenate:

- Hyphenate all the numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.
- Hyphenate all fractions used as descriptions (*three-quarters full*, for example).
- Don't hyphenate fractions used as nouns (*three quarters of the money; one third of all registered voters*).

Utilizing the well-placed hyphen

If two words create a single description, put a hyphen between them if the description comes before the word that it's describing. For example:

a *well-placed* hyphen — BUT — the hyphen is *well placed*.

Don't hyphenate two-word descriptions if the first word ends in *-ly:*

nicely drawn rectangle

completely ridiculous grammar rule

Place hyphens where they're needed.

Lulu was recently elected secretary treasurer of her club, the All Star Athletes of Antarctica. Lulu ran on an anti ice platform that was accepted by two thirds of the members.

Answer: Here's the paragraph with the hyphens inserted, along explanations in parentheses:

Lulu was recently elected secretary-treasurer (hyphen needed for compound title) of her club, the All-Star (hyphen needed for two-word description) Athletes of Antarctica. Lulu ran on an anti-ice (hyphen needed for two-word description) platform that was accepted by two thirds (no hyphen for fractions not used as descriptions) of the members.

Creating a Stopping Point: Colons

A colon is one dot on top of another (**:**). It appears when a simple comma isn't strong enough. (It also shows up in those smiley faces — the so-called *emoticons* — that people write in their e-mails.) In this section, I look at the colon in a few of its natural habitats: business letters, lists, and quotations.

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Addressing a business letter

Colons appear in business letters, as you see in the following examples.

Dear Mr. Ganglia:

You are getting on my nerves. You're fired.

Sincerely,

I.M. Incharj

To Whom It May Concern:

Everyone in the division is fired also.

Sincerely,

I.M. Incharj

The colon makes a business letter more formal. The opposite of a business letter is what English teachers call a *friendly letter,* even if it says something like "I hate you." When you write a friendly letter, put a comma after the name of the person who will receive the letter.

Introducing lists

When you insert a short list of items into a sentence, you don't need a colon. (For more information on how to use commas in lists, see Chapter 13.) When you're inserting a long list into a sentence, however, you may sometimes use a colon to introduce the list. Think of the colon as a gulp of air that readies the reader for a good-sized list. The colon precedes the first item. Here are some sentences using colons to introduce lists:

> General Parker needed quite a few things: a horse, an army, a suit of armor, a few million arrows, a map, and a battle plan.
>
> Roger sent each spy away with several items: an excerpt from the encyclopedia entry on espionage, a collection of the essays of Mata Hari, a photocopy of the nation's policy on treason, and a poison pill.

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If you put a colon in front of a list, check the beginning of the sentence — the part before the colon. Can it stand alone? If so, no problem. The words before the colon must form a complete thought. If not, don't use a colon. Take a look at these examples:

> WRONG: The problems with Parker's battle plan are: no understanding of enemy troop movements, a lack of shelter and food for the troops, and a faulty trigger for the retreat signal. (The words before the colon — *The problems with Parker's battle plan are* — don't form a complete thought.)
>
> RIGHT: The problems with Parker's battle plan are numerous: no understanding of enemy troop movements, a lack of shelter and food for the troops, and a faulty trigger for the retreat signal. (Now the words before the colon — *The problems with Parker's battle plan are numerous* — form a complete thought.

For more information on complete sentences, see Chapter 5.

Introducing long quotations

The rule concerning colons with quotations is fairly easy. If the quotation is short, introduce it with a comma. If the quotation is long, introduce it with a colon. Take a look at the following two examples for comparison.

What did Lola say at the meeting? Not much, so a comma does the job.

> Lola stated, "I have no comment on the squirrel incident."

What did General Parker say at the press conference? Too much, so a colon is better.

> Parker explained: "The media has been entirely too critical of my preparations for war. Despite the fact that I have spent the last ten years and two million gold coins perfecting new and improved armor, I have been told that I am unready to fight."

When you write a paper for school, you may put some short quotations (up to three lines) into the text. If a quotation is longer than three lines, you should double-indent and single-space the quoted material so that it looks like a separate block of print. Such quotations are called *block quotations.* Introduce the block quotation with a colon, and don't use quotation marks. (The blocking shows that you're quoting, so you don't need the marks.) Here's an example:

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Flugle, in his essay entitled, "Why Homework is Useless," makes the following point:

> Studies show that students who have no time to rest are not as efficient as those who do. When a thousand teens were surveyed, they all indicated that sleeping, listening to music, talking on the phone, and watching television were more valuable than schoolwork.

If you're writing about poetry, you may use the same block format:

> The post-modern imagery of this stanza is in stark contrast to the imagery of the Romantic period:
>
> > Roses are red,
> > Violets are blue,
> > Eggworthy is sweet,
> > And stupid, too.

Colons sometimes show up inside sentences, joining one complete sentence to another. A colon may be used this way only when the second sentence explains the meaning of the first sentence, as in this example:

> Lola has refused to take the job: She believes the media will investigate every aspect of her life.

The second half of the sentence explains why Lola doesn't want to run for president. Actually, it explains why almost no Americans want to run for president. Notice that I've capitalized the first word after the colon. Some writers prefer lowercase for that spot. This decision is a matter of style, not grammar. Check with the authority figure in charge of your writing (teacher, boss, warden, and so on) for his or her preference.

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Chapter 15

CAPITAL LETTERS

In This Chapter

- Understanding the basics of capital letters
- Capitalizing names, places, and things
- Knowing when capital letters are needed in ordinary writing

Every teacher has at least one pet peeve. I've got a good-sized set of usage errors that set my teeth on edge. One is *lowercase* — what kindergarteners call "small letters" — for the personal pronoun *I*. It's not that I have anything against lowercase letters. It's just that I believe *i* and *I* should follow tradition because, well . . . capitalization is all about tradition. So don't look for logic in this chapter. All you'll find here is what's up (as in *uppercase*, or capitals) with capitalization rules.

Browsing the Basics of Capital Letters

Fortunately, the rules for capital letters are easy. Here are the basics:

- **Begin every sentence with a capital letter**. What's that you asked? What about sentences that begin with a numeral? Caught you! You're not supposed to begin a sentence with a numeral. Ever. If a number is needed in that spot, you have to write the word and capitalize it. So if you're a star pitcher and the Yankees make an offer, don't send this text:

  $10,000,000 per game is not enough.

  Instead, type one of these messages:

  A mere $10,000,000 per game is not enough.

  Ten million dollars per game is not enough.

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Traditionally, the first letter of each line of a poem is capitalized, even if it isn't the beginning of a sentence. However, poets enjoy trashing (sorry, I meant *reinterpreting*) rules. In poetry, anything goes — including capitalization rules.

- **Capitalize *I*.** My pet peeve, as I explain in the beginning of this chapter. I have no idea why the personal pronoun *I* — the word you use to refer to yourself — must be capitalized. The reason probably has something to do with psychology, but I'm not a shrink. I'm a grammarian. So go for caps when you write *I*, and save lowercase for other pronouns (*he, she, us, them,* and so on).
- **Capitalize names.** This rule applies when you're using an actual name, not a category. Write about *Elizabeth*, not *elizabeth*, when you're discussing the cutest baby ever (my granddaughter). She's a *girl*, not a *Girl*, because *girl* is a category, not a name. Elizabeth lives in *Washington*, not *washington* (her *state*, not *State,* because *state* is a general category, not a name). You also capitalize brand names (*Sony*, for example) unless the company itself uses lowercase letters (the *iPod*, for instance).
- **Capitalize words that refer to the deity.** Traditionally, believers capitalize all words that refer to the being they worship, as in this line from a famous hymn:

  God works in mysterious ways *His* wonders to perform.

  Capitalize mythological gods only when giving their names:

  The ancient Greeks built temples in honor of *Zeus* and other *gods*.
- **Begin most quotations with a capital letter**. When quotation marks appear, so do capitals — most of the time. (For exceptions to this rule, turn to Chapter 13.)

That's it for the basics. For the picky stuff, keep reading.

Capitalizing (or Not) References to People

If human beings were called only by their names, life would be much simpler, at least in terms of capital letters. But most people pick up a few titles and some relatives as they journey through life. In this section, I tell you what to capitalize when you're referring to people.

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Sorting out titles

Allow me to introduce myself. I'm *Ms.* Woods, *Chief Grammarian* Woods, and *Apostrophe-Hater-in-Chief* Woods (see Chapter 11). All these titles start with capital letters because they're attached to the front of my name. In a sense, they've become part of my name.

Allow me to introduce my friend Eggworthy. He's *Mr.* Eggworthy Henhuff, *director of poultry* at a nearby farm. Next year *Director of Poultry* Henhuff plans to run for *state senator,* unless he cracks under the pressure of a major campaign, in which case he'll run for *sheriff.*

Now what's going on with the capitals? The title *Mr.* is capitalized because it's attached to Eggworthy's last name. Other titles — *state senator* and *sheriff* — are not. In general, lowercase titles are those not connected to a name.

Notice that *Director of Poultry* is capitalized when it precedes Eggworthy's last name but not capitalized when it follows Eggworthy's name. *Director of Poultry Henhuff* functions as a unit. If you were talking to Eggworthy, you might address him as *Director of Poultry Henhuff.* So the first *Director of Poultry* in the paragraph above functions as part of the name. When the title follows the name, it gives the reader more information about Eggworthy, but it no longer acts as part of Eggworthy's name. Hence, the second *director of poultry* in the previous paragraph is in lowercase.

No self-respecting rule allows itself be taken for granted, so this capitalization rule has an exception or two, just to make sure that you're paying attention. You must capitalize very important titles even when they appear without the name of the person who holds them. What's very important? Definitely these:

- President of the United States
- Secretary General of the United Nations
- Chief Justice of the Supreme Court
- Vice President of the United States
- Prime Minister of Great Britain

Here's an example of one of these titles, President of the United States, in action:

> The President of the United States addressed the nation tonight. In her address, the President called for the repeal of all illogical grammar rules.

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Of course, there's some leeway with the rule on titles, with the boss or editor or teacher making the final decision. (When in doubt, check with the authority in question.) The following titles are often but not always lowercase when they appear without a name:

- representative
- ambassador
- consul
- justice
- cabinet secretary
- judge
- mayor

Nameless titles that are even lower on the importance ladder are strictly lowercase:

- assistant secretary
- dogcatcher-in-chief
- officer
- ensign

When capitalizing a hyphenated title, capitalize both words (*Chief Justice*) or neither *(assistant secretary).* One exception (sigh) to the rule is for *exes* and *elects:*

- ex-President
- President-elect

Writing about family relationships

> It's not true that Elizabeth's *grandma* was imprisoned for felonious sentence structure. I know for a fact that *Uncle Bart* took the rap, although his *brother* Alfred tried desperately to convince *Grandma* to make a full confession. "My *son* deserves to do time," said *Grandma,* "because he split an infinitive when he was little and got away with it."

What do you notice about the family titles in the preceding paragraph? Some of them are capitalized, and some are not. The rules for capitalizing the titles of family members are simple. If you're labeling a relative, don't capitalize. (I'm talking about kinship — *aunt*, *sister*, *son*, and so on — not appearance or personality flaws — *tubby*, *sweet-faced*, *dishonest*, and so on.) If the titles take the place of names (as in *Uncle Bart and Grandma*), capitalize them. For example:

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Lulu's *stepsister* Sarah took care to pour exactly one cup of ink into every load of wash that Lulu did. (*stepsister* = label)

Sarah told *Mother* about the gallon of paint thinner that Lulu had dripped over Sarah's favorite rose bush. (*Mother* = name)

I was surprised when my *father* took no action; fortunately *Aunt Aggie* stepped in with a pail of bleach for Lulu. (*father* — label; *Aunt Aggie* — name)

If you can substitute a real name — Mabel or Jonas, for example — in the sentence, you probably need a capital letter:

I told *Father* that he needed to shave off his handlebar moustache and put it on his bicycle. (original sentence)

I told *Jonas* that he needed to shave off his handlebar moustache and put it on his bicycle. (The substitution sounds fine, so capitalize *Father.*)

If the substitution sounds strange, you probably need lowercase:

I told my *grandmother* not to shave off her moustache. (original sentence)

I told my *Mabel* not to shave off her moustache. (The substitution doesn't work because you don't say *my Mabel.* Use lowercase for *grandmother.*)

The word *my* and other possessive pronouns *(your, his, her, our, their)* often indicate that you should lowercase the title. (For more information on possessive pronouns, see Chapter 17.)

Which sentence is correct?

A. Ever since he heard that housework causes acute inflammation of elbow grease, Archie helps mother around the house as little as possible.

B. Ever since he heard that housework causes acute inflammation of elbow grease, Archie helps Mother around the house as little as possible.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Mother* is used as a name, not a label, so you must capitalize it. (Try the *Mabel* test; it works!)

Tackling race and ethnicity

If you come from Tasmania, you're Tasmanian. If you come from New York, you're a New Yorker. (Don't ask me about Connecticut; I've never been able to get an answer, though I've asked everyone I know from that state.) Those examples of capitalization are easy. But what about race and ethnicity? Like everyone else, grammarians struggle to overcome the legacy of a racist society and its language. Here are some guidelines concerning capitalization and race:

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- White and Black (or white and black) are acceptable descriptions, but be consistent. Don't capitalize one and not the other. Always capitalize *Asian* because the term is derived from the name of a continent.
- European American, Asian American, African American (and the less popular Afro-American) are all in capitals.
- Mexican American, Polish American, and other descriptions of national origin are written with capital letters because the terms are derived from country names.
- To hyphenate or not to hyphenate, that is the question. *Afro-American* is generally written with a hyphen. As for terms such as Asian American, Mexican American, African American, and the like, the answer depends on your politics. Without the hyphen, *American* is the primary word, described by the word that precedes it. So without the hyphen, you emphasize the identity of *American.* With the hyphen, both words are equal, so both parts of the identity have equal importance.

Capitalizing Geography: Directions, Places, and Languages

Even if nothing more than your imagination leaves the living room, you still need to know the rules for capitalizing the names of places, languages, geographical features, regions, and directions. Here's a complete guide to capitalizing geography.

Directions and areas of a country

Robbie and Levon, my parakeets, don't migrate for the winter. (Instead, they sit on the window frame and squawk at their friends, the pigeons of New York.) If they did fly away, though, where would they go — south or South? It depends. The direction of flight is *south* (lowercase). The area of the country where they work on a tan, grow a few new feathers, and generally enjoy themselves is the *South* (uppercase). Got it? From New York City you drive *west* to visit the *West* (or the *Midwest*).

The names of other, smaller areas are often capitalized too. Plopped in the center of New York City is Central Park, which the West Side and the East Side flank. Chicago has a South Side and London has Bloomsbury. Note the capital letters for the names of these areas.

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Capitalizing geographic features

Capitalize locations within a country when the proper name is given (the name of a city or region, such as the *Mississippi River*, *the Congo*, or *Los Angeles*, for example).

Is *the* part of the name? Usually not, even when it's hard to imagine the name without it. In general, don't capitalize *the*.

When the name doesn't appear, lowercase geographical features (*mountain, valley*, *gorge* or *beach*, for instance).

In general, you should capitalize the names of countries and languages. One exception to this rule: common objects with a country or nationality as part of the name (*french fries, scotch whiskey, venetian blinds,* and so forth). By attaching itself to a common object, the language or country name takes on a new meaning. The name no longer makes the reader think of the country or language. Instead, the reader simply thinks of an everyday object. If you're not sure whether or not to capitalize the geographical part of a common item, check the dictionary.

Correct the capitalization in this paragraph.

> When Alex sent his little brother Abner to Italy, Abner vowed to visit mount Vesuvius. Alex asked Abner to bring back some venetian blinds, but Abner returned empty-handed. "Let's go out for chinese food," said Abner when he returned. "Some sesame noodles will cheer me up."

Here is the answer, with explanations in parentheses:

> When Alex sent his little brother Abner to Italy (correct — country name), Abner vowed to visit Mount Vesuvius (capitalize the entire name of the mountain). Alex asked Abner to bring back some venetian blinds (correct — lowercase for the name of a common object), but Abner returned empty-handed. "Let's go out for Chinese food (because this isn't the name of one specific item, such as french fries, capitals are better)," said Abner when he returned. "Some sesame noodles will cheer me up."

Marking Seasons and Other Times

Lochness hates the *summer* because of all the tourists who try to snap pictures of what he calls "an imaginary monster." He's been known to roar something about *"winter's* peaceful *mornings,"* even though he never wakes up before *3 p.m.*

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After reading the preceding example, you can probably figure out this rule without me. Write the seasons of the year in lowercase, as well as the times of day.

Some books tell you to capitalize the abbreviations for morning and afternoon (A.M. and P.M.) and some specify lowercase (a.m. and p.m.). So no matter what you do, half your readers will think you're right (the good news) and half will think you're wrong (the bad news). Your best bet is to check with the authority overseeing your writing. If you're the authority, do what you wish.

Schooling: Courses, Years, and Subjects

As every student knows, school is complicated. So is the rule concerning the capitalization of school-related terms. Don't capitalize subjects and subject areas (*history, science, physics, phys ed*, for example) unless the name refers to a language (*Spanish, Latin, English,* and so on). On the other hand, capitalize the titles of courses (*Economics 101*, *Math for Poets*, *Paper Clips in American History*, and the like).

The years in school, while interminable and incredibly important, are not capitalized (*seventh grader*, *freshman*, *sophomore*, for instance).

Correct the capitalization in this paragraph.

> Hurrying to his Chemistry class, Kneejerk slipped on the ice on the very first day of his Senior year. He was carrying a small jar of purple crystals, which, when added to water, were guaranteed to produce dense, purple smoke. Kneejerk wanted to impress the love of his life, Freshman Lilac Jones, who had enrolled in history of the ancient world with Professor Krater. Lilac's class, deep in the study of history, never knew the peril they had escaped.

Answer: Here's the correct version, with the reasons in parentheses:

> Hurrying to his chemistry (don't capitalize subjects) class, Kneejerk slipped on the ice on the very first day of his senior year (never capitalize years in school). He was carrying a small jar of purple crystals, which, when added to water, were guaranteed to produce dense, purple smoke. Kneejerk wanted to impress the love of his life, freshman (never capitalize years in school) Lilac Jones, who had enrolled in History of the Ancient World (capitalize course titles) with Professor Krater. Lilac's class, deep in the study of history (this one is correct — lowercase for subject areas), never knew the peril they had escaped.

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Writing Capitals in Titles

Lochness is hosting a party to celebrate the publication of his new book, *I AM NOT A MONSTER.* He has postponed the party three times because he can't decide how to capitalize the title. What should he do? Actually, he should scrap the book, which consists of 540 pages of unbelievably boring detail about his humdrum life. Apart from that issue, here's what Lochness should do:

- Capitalize *I* and *Monster. I* is always uppercase and *Monster* is an important word. Also, *I* is the first word of the title, and the first word of the title is always capitalized.
- Capitalize *Am* because it's a verb, and verbs are at the heart of the title's meaning. (See Chapter 2.)
- Capitalize *Not* because it changes the meaning of the verb and thus has an important job to do in the sentence.
- Lowercase the only word left — *a*. Never capitalize articles (*a*, *an*, and *the*) unless they're the first words in the title.

Do you see the general principles that I've applied? Here is a summary of the rules for all sorts of titles:

- Capitalize the first word in the title.
- Capitalize verbs and other important words.
- Lowercase unimportant words — articles (*a*, *an*, *the*), conjunctions (words that connect, such as *and*, *or*, *nor*, and the like), and prepositions (*of*, *with*, *by,* and other words that express a relationship between two elements in the sentence).

The resulting book title is *I Am Not a Monster.*

Some grammarians capitalize long prepositions — those with more than four letters. Others tell you to lowercase all prepositions, even the huge ones — *concerning, according to,* and so on. (See Chapter 8 for a list of common prepositions.) Your best bet is to check with your immediate authority (editor, boss, teacher, and so on) to make sure that you write in the style to which he or she is accustomed.

When writing the title of a magazine or newspaper, should you capitalize the word *the?* Yes, if *the* is part of the official name, as in *The New York Times.* No, if the publication doesn't include *the* in its official name, as in the *Daily News.*

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Which words should you capitalize in these titles?

the importance of being lochness

romeo and lulu

slouching toward homework

Answers:

The Importance of Being Lochness (*The* is the first word of the title. *Importance, Being,* and *Lochness* are important words. Lowercase *of* because it's not an important word.)

Romeo and Lulu (*Romeo* is the first word of the title and is also a name. Similarly, *Lulu* is a name. Lowercase *and* because it's not an important word.)

Slouching Toward Homework (*Slouching* is the first word of the title. *Homework* is important. *Toward* can go either way. It's a preposition — a relationship word — and thus may be lowercase, at least according to some grammarians. It's also a long word, which makes it suitable for capitalization in the opinion of other grammarians.)

Concerning Historic Capitals: Events and Eras

Jane entered her time machine and set the dial for the *Middle Ages.* Because of a tiny glitch in the power supply, Jane instead ended up right in the middle of the *Industrial Revolution.* Fortunately for Jane, the *Industrial Revolution* did not involve a real *war.* Jane still shudders when she remembers her brief stint in the *Civil War.* She is simply not cut out to be a fighter, especially not a fighter in the *nineteenth century.* On the next *Fourth of July,* Jane plans to fly the bullet-ridden flag she brought back from the *Battle of Gettysburg.*

The story of Jane's adventures should make the rules concerning the capitalization of historic events and eras easy. Capitalize the names of specific time periods and events but not general words. Hence

- Capitals: Middle Ages, Industrial Revolution, Civil War, Fourth of July, Battle of Gettysburg
- Lowercase: war, nineteenth century

Some grammarians capitalize *Nineteenth Century* because they see it as a specific time period. Others say that you should lowercase numbered centuries. I prefer to lowercase the century.

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Correct the capitalization in this paragraph.

> Jane has never met Marie Antoinette, but Jane is quite interested in the French revolution. With her trusty time-travel machine, Jane tried to arrive in the Eighteenth Century, just in time for Bastille Day. However, once again she missed her target and landed in the middle of the first crusade.

Answer, with explanations in parentheses:

> Jane has never met Marie Antoinette, but Jane is quite interested in the French Revolution. (Capitalize the name of a war.) With her trusty time-travel machine, Jane tried to arrive in the eighteenth century, (Optional, but most grammarians write numbered centuries in lower case.) just in time for Bastille Day. (Correct. Capitalize the names of important days.) However, once again she missed her target and landed in the middle of the First Crusade. (Capitalize the name of the war.)

If U Cn Rd Ths, U Cn Abbreviate

I can't cite a historical source, but I suspect that abbreviations stem from the need for speed. Why type eleven letters when two will do the job? Texting, twittering, and instant-messaging, which may have strict character limits, also encourage abbreviations.

I discourage them, most of the time. Why? Well, for several reasons. First of all, you want people to understand you. The first time you saw *e.g.,* did you know that it meant *for example?* If so, fine. If not, you probably didn't understand what the author was trying to say. Second, abbreviations clash with formal writing. Formal writing implies thought and care, not haste. (Yes, I know things are different when you're thumbing in a message. Check out Chapter 16 for more on electronic media and grammar.)

Sometimes, however, you do want to abbreviate. Here's how to do so correctly:

- Capitalize abbreviations for titles and end the abbreviation with a period. For example, *Mrs.* Snodgrass, *Rev.* Tawkalot, *Sen.* Veto, Jeremiah Jones, *Jr.,* and *St.* Lucy.
- Capitalize geographic abbreviations when they're part of a name but not when they're alone. Put a period at the end of the abbreviation: Appalachian *Mts*. or Amazon *R*., for example. On a map you may write *mt*. (mountain).

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- The United States Postal Service has devised a list of two-letter state abbreviations. Don't put periods in these abbreviations. Examples: *AZ* (Arizona), *CO* (Colorado), *WY* (Wyoming), and so on.
- Write most measurements in lowercase and end the abbreviation with a period (*yds.* for *yards* or *lbs.* for *pounds*). Metric abbreviations are sometimes written without periods (*km* for *kilometer* or *g* for *gram*).

Don't confuse abbreviations with acronyms. Abbreviations generally chop some letters out of a single word. Acronyms are new words made from the first letters of each word in a multiword title. Some common acronyms include the following:

NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organization

OPEC: Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

Want to drive your teacher crazy? Write a formal essay with &, w/, w/o, or b/c. (For the abbreviation-deprived, & means *and,* w/ means *with,* w/o means *without,* b/c means *because.*) These symbols are fine for your notes but not for your finished product. Similarly, save *brb* (*be right back*), *lol* (*laugh out loud*), and other texting abbreviations for your friends, not for authority figures. (For more on texting and electronic media, turn to Chapter 16.)

Correct Legghorn's homework.

> Yesterday (Tues.) I went in the a.m. to CO. I saw Mr. Pimple, who told me that the EPA had outlawed his favorite pesticide. I have three gal. in the basement, & I'll have to discard it.

Answer:

> Yesterday (Tuesday) I went in the morning to Colorado. I saw Mr. Pimple, who told me that the EPA had outlawed his favorite pesticide. I have three gallons in the basement, and I'll have to discard it.

Explanation: Don't abbreviate in homework assignments except for titles (*Mr. Pimple*) and easily understood acronyms (*EPA*, or *Environmental Protection Agency*). If you're writing about an acronym that your reader may not understand, write the whole thing out the first time you use it and place the acronym in parentheses. Thereafter, the acronym alone is fine. Also, if this had been a note to a friend, the abbreviations would have been perfectly acceptable.

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Chapter 16

New Media, New Grammar Rules

In This Chapter

- Applying grammar rules to text messages, e-mails, and blogs
- Punctuating and writing presentation slides and bulleted lists

During my childhood — so long ago that George Washington was still in diapers — communication was limited. I went to my friends' houses and screamed, "Wanna play?" until somebody said yes. Occasionally I picked up the phone (needless to say, a landline) and confided the latest gossip.

Technology has given you many more communication options — texting, tweeting, instant-messaging, e-mails, blogs, and PowerPoint-style presentations. But these new media have created confusion, too. Which grammar rules stay the same? Which ones should you adapt in the name of practicality? This area of English usage resembles the Old West, except that instead of sheriffs and outlaws shooting at each other, grammarians are facing off — and they're a lot less polite than the guys with guns. In this chapter, I explain the most commonly accepted guidelines for twenty-first-century media.

Thumb Wrestling with Grammar: Text and Instant Messages

Do you want to read this section now, or save it for *L8R*? If that last "word" is a mystery to you, I'm guessing that your thumbs are rested and relaxed because you haven't been using them to type on a Blackberry, a cell phone, or a similar device. In other words, you're not into tweeting or texting (sending short notes) or instant messaging (having a real-time, written "chat"). But if you easily decoded "L8R" as "later" and you thumb much of your communication with the outside world, this section is for you.

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The distinction between traditional e-mail (isn't it amazing that a medium only a couple of decades old is already "traditional"?) and text messages is blurry; some text messages arrive in my computer's inbox, and the people I write to from my desktop computer often receive my e-mails on a handheld device, such as a cell phone or iPod. In this section, I deal with messages that are generally short (sometimes really short!) and written without benefit of a desk, coffee cart, miniature basketball hoop, and other accessories that accompany a traditional work space. The next section, "E-Mailing Your Way to Good Grammar," explains how to apply proper English to longer messages, presumably typed under more pleasant, less rushed conditions.

Choosing formal or informal language

In Chapter 1, I talk about *friendspeak*, my term for deliberately informal English that you use with your hangout crowd. I also discuss *conversational English* — the casual language exchanged with friends and acquaintances. These two types of English don't follow all the rules of grammar, as *formal English* does.

I've seen text messages written in all these styles, and under the right circumstances, I think all of them work well. (As a grammarian, however, I have to use proper English in all circumstances — at rock concerts, during arguments with my husband, for conversations with traffic cops, and — well, *everything*. Normal people have more leeway.) When you're deciding how formal to be, try these guidelines:

- Consider the identity of the person receiving the message. If he or she is a friend who can practically read your mind, formal English isn't necessary. Abbreviations and half-sentences are probably fine, and you don't need to worry about capitalization and punctuation. The less friendly the relationship, the more correct your language and grammar should be. If you're writing to someone you've met once or twice, don't chop out letters or words unless you know that the recipient appreciates informality. Stick to the normal rules for capitalization and punctuation unless you're sure that the message-receiver is comfortable with nonstandard English.
- Power matters also. If you're the boss, you make the rules. Your subordinates aren't going to point out that you lowercased a word that should be in caps — not if they want to keep working for you! But if your message is going up the chain of command, choose formal English.

  With the possible exception of dudes wearing tie-dyed t-shirts and love beads because they're stuck in the "cool" sixties, most teachers favor formal English. Follow grammar rules when you write to anyone in the academic world.

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- Think about the impression you're trying to make. If you're writing to a potential client, formal language may show respect and care. On the other hand, if you've got an antsy client — the type who wants the work done yesterday, if not sooner — a few dropped words or characters may give the impression that you're speeding along on the client's behalf, too busy for such niceties as commas and periods.
- Save abbreviations such as "ttyl" (*talk to you later*), lol (*laugh out loud,* indicating a joke), and "ctn" (*can't talk now*) for someone who is your "bff" (*best friend forever*). However, some abbreviations are acceptable in business or academic writing. For example, you may begin a message with "FYI" (*for your information*) and ask for a reply "ASAP" (*as soon as possible*). If the abbreviation appears in a dictionary, it's probably okay unless you're writing in an extremely formal situation.

No matter who the recipient is, you have to get your point across. Check out the next section for some tips on writing understandable messages.

Being clear but concise

The screens and keyboards of handhelds and smartphones are as tiny as a low-calorie cookie, so sending or reading a long letter isn't comfortable. Plus, depending upon the device and cost structure of your carrier, you may pay extra if you're not concise. Some formats even have a character limit. The conclusion is obvious: Make your messages as short as possible in order to avoid eye and finger fatigue.

Compressing your thoughts into the smallest space doesn't get you off the hook when it comes to grammar, however. Remember one rule, no matter what you're writing with, on, or to:

Be clear!

Your reader has to understand what you mean, or your message is a failure. Period, end of story. With that principle in mind, check out these guidelines:

Dropping words

Because every character counts, you may at times break the "complete sentence" rule when you're texting. The most common cut is the subject of a sentence. (See Chapter 4 for more information on subjects.) For example, you may type

Left meeting early. No progress.

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to someone who knows that despite having an early dinner date, you attended a session of that learned (and imaginary) society, Grammarians for Punctuation Reform. However, don't omit a subject unless you're absolutely sure that no confusion may result. For instance, suppose you and a colleague spoke about the meeting and decided that the key figure was the leader of a pro-apostrophe lobby. His support for punctuation reform is guaranteed to convince everyone else. His disapproval means that any proposal is dead on arrival. Upon receiving the previous text message, will your colleague know who left the meeting early? Perhaps she will think you left because the situation was going nowhere and you'd rather be nibbling an appetizer. Or she may believe that the apostrophe fan skipped out, leading you to conclude that nothing was going to change. In such a situation, it's better to type

President left meeting early. No progress.

or

I left the meeting early. No progress.

so your colleague understands what happened.

Articles (*a, an, the*) and conjunctions (words that join, such as *and*, *or*, *but*, and so forth) can often be omitted. Just be aware that the resulting message sounds rushed and at times strange. Can you imagine typing, "I went to bar"? Somehow *the* makes a big difference.

Dropping punctuation and capital letters

Some handhelds automatically correct your typing by inserting capital letters and a period after you've typed two spaces. Others don't, and I realize that capital letters may be a pain to type when you're on the go. Nevertheless, I'm in favor of that little extra effort. Ditto for periods. Yes, some people text

saw helen after the meeting

and civilization as we know it hasn't yet crumbled. But don't you like this version better?

Saw Helen after the meeting.

Or

I saw Helen after the meeting.

Okay, maybe you don't. But some people, including me, do. Why take a chance on offending your reader?

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Dropping a comma or a period usually isn't crucial. However, don't skip anything that adds meaning, such as question marks. Take a look at these two text messages:

Dinner at 5

Dinner at 5?

Obviously, they express two different ideas. The first assumes attendance, and the second is an invitation.

Making a text and checking it twice

Type carefully, and reread what you typed before sending the message. Some people easily decode mistyped words as they read, but do you want to risk having your wrods — oops, I mean *words* — turn into a puzzle? It's worth an extra secod of your time. Er, that's *second*.

Wireless messages often include a little phrase saying something like "sent from a ___ " (fill in the name of your device). I've heard a number of arguments about this phrase. One side believes that readers accept mistakes when they see it because they know that texts and instant messages are written quickly, without proofreading. The other side believes that if you're writing, you should write with care. You can probably guess my stance. I don't give get-out-of-grammar-jail-free cards!

E-Mailing Your Way to Good Grammar

In this section, I talk about electronic messages that can be considerably longer than the usual text message. (Yes, I know that e-mails can be short also. When a student asks to be excused from homework, usually in a *very* long message, I reply with a one-word e-mail: "No.") Here I discuss e-mails that are a little more structured than text-messages — closer to a traditional, paper-printed letter than to a 140-character message (the current limit for "tweets" — short messages sent via Twitter). I take you through the parts of the e-mail, explaining the best format to use when you're writing to someone who expects good grammar.

The heading

Atop every e-mail is a little box with a heading, which includes a "From," "To," and "Subject" line. You don't have to worry about the grammar of the "To" and "From" boxes. The "To" contains the e-mail address of the recipient

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(no choices there!), and the e-mail program automatically slots your address into the "From" line.

The subject line is the "title" of your e-mail. Most people follow standard capitalization rules for the subject line. (See Chapter 15 for a complete explanation of how to capitalize a title.)

The greeting

The message often begins with a greeting (in English-teacher terminology, a *salutation*). These are all acceptable greetings, complete with punctuation:

Dear Ms. Snodgrass, or **Dear Ms. Snodgrass:** (The one with the comma is less formal. Begin the message on the following line.)

To Whom It May Concern: (This one always has a colon and is ultra-formal. Begin the message on the following line.)

Hi, Lola. or **Hi, Ms. Snodgrass.** (Use these forms for friends and acquaintances. Begin the message right after the period, not on the next line.)

Hi, Lola! (This one is for friends only. Begin the message right after the exclamation point.)

Lola, (Informal messages need nothing more than the name. The message begins on the following line.)

Ms. Snodgrass, (This greeting can be a bit stern, as if you couldn't be bothered with the *Dear*.) Start the message one line below this greeting.

Hi, Everyone. or **Hi, Everyone!** (Use these when you write to a group of friends or colleagues. Begin the message on the same line.)

Some writers drop the greeting altogether. No problem, unless you happen to be writing to traditionalists, who prefer the time-honored formats, or egotists, who love seeing their names in print.

The body

The body contains what you want to communicate — words, links to Web sites, images, whatever. If you're a traditionalist, your e-mails probably mimic paper, mailed-in-envelopes letters. I should probably say, "try to mimic" because what you see when you're typing isn't necessarily what the reader sees on his or her screen. Some e-mail programs automatically delete spaces between paragraphs when they zap the message to wherever it's going. Plus,

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different operating systems don't always play nicely together. A quotation mark may show up as a strange symbol (@ or a box, perhaps), and margins may wander in and out. Sigh. If you really care about how the document looks, you can attach the message as a text file. That last maneuver isn't perfect because not every bit of formatting comes through properly. But most of your document will look the way you want it to. The only surefire method to preserve every bit of formatting is to send your message as a Portable Document Format (.pdf) file, which is a "picture" of your document.

Regardless of method, follow the grammar rules outlined in the rest of *English Grammar For Dummies*, matching your level of formality to the identity of the person you're writing to. (See "Choosing formal or informal language" in this chapter for more information.)

The closing

If you haven't bothered with a greeting (which I explain earlier in this section), don't worry about a closing either, unless you want to "sign" your name at the end of the message. If you like a big send-off, try one of these:

Best, (short for "best regards" and good for formal and informal e-mails)

Sincerely, (formal)

See you soon, (informal)

Hope to hear from you, (somewhere between formal and informal)

Regards, (formal and a little old-fashioned)

All of the preceding closings contain commas. You can also close your message simply by typing your name (*Lola* or *Ms. Snodgrass*) or with your initials (*LS* for "Lola Snodgrass"), in which case no commas are needed.

Handling Grammar on the Internet

Is your passion peanut butter and marshmallow sandwiches? Films of the 1990s? Knitting? If something revs you up, chances are you're blogging or posting a paragraph or two about it on Facebook or another social-networking site. As you explain to your readers the merits of chunky versus smooth or the symbolism of Indiana Jones' hat, should you worry about grammar? Yes! And no, too. Confused? Read on.

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Blogging for fun and (sometimes) profit

As I write, *Julie and Julia* is drawing crowds at my local theater. One character is based on a real person, Julie Powell, who cooked her way through a massive cookbook in one year and wrote about her experience in a blog. (A blog is a kind of diary, posted on the Internet. It may include photos, video clips, and links to other sites. Generally, blogs allow readers to post comments, so the "diary" becomes an extended conversation.) The real Julie Powell turned her blog into a book, which, as you already know, became a movie. Powell approached her blog as a *writer*. She paid attention to structure, tone — and yes, grammar — though she allowed herself the freedom of conversational English. (See Chapter 1 for more information on conversational English.)

Not every blogger is aiming for a book deal, and lots of bloggers are perfectly comfortable typing "cuz" instead of "because." Some bloggers avoid proper grammar as if it were a contagious disease, and their readers may not mind at all! When you blog, you have to consider the impression you want to make on your readers. Do you want them to see you as friends sitting in the living room with shoes off and feet up? Break a few grammar rules, and you're there. Do you want readers to accept your authority — to see you as someone who truly understands the care and feeding of boa constrictors or the significance of every single name in the Harry Potter series? Then you should probably put on your game face and pull out your best grammar.

Blogs are as varied as the people who create them. Some blogs place a title on each entry (see Chapter 15 for help with capitalizing titles), and some don't bother. Whatever level of grammar you choose, remember that communication is a two-way street. You've got readers, not mind readers. Be sure that your intended audience can decode your message.

Navigating social networks

Friendster, MySpace, Facebook, and other social networking sites allow you to interact with 3,450 of your closest friends (or any number!) and to connect with members who have similar interests. Each social networking site is a little different from the others, but all generally include a "profile," in which you cover basic biographical information, post fake photos — okay, sometimes they're real — and indicate your areas of interest. You can update your profile as often as you want, and you may be allowed to comment on others' sites (on a user's "wall" on Facebook, for example). Some social networks allow you to import blogs from other sites or to create your own blog.

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Social networks used to be, well, purely social. Thus the language in them reflected the writer at his or her most casual. (Pause for a grammatical shudder.) Because they've become so popular, companies, politicians, and celebrities now use social networks to get their message out to a wide range of people. Writing to strangers — and writing to sell — usually raises the level of formality. Proper grammar may not take a starring role, but it's not completely absent.

As with all writing, think about your audience, your message, and yourself. How do you want readers to see you? Too cool for school? Smart enough to be President? When you know the context, you can decide how correct you need to be.

This is life, not grammar, but I can't resist telling you that social networks can be dangerous places. I'm not talking about crazy stalkers (though they do exist); I'm talking about the fact that teachers, potential employers, and date-worthy acquaintances may look at your profile unless you've limited access to it. If you've blogged about hacking into a teacher's e-mail, going to work with an epic hangover, or stalking an ex-friend, you may not get the recommendation, the job, or the date you're hoping for. Networker beware!

PowerPoint to the People

I teach a class in which students are required to make presentations about their research projects. Most of the presenters are a bit nervous, but PowerPoint and similar computer programs help a lot. After they've created a series of slides containing text and visuals — charts, graphs, diagrams, photos and the like — their information is organized and accessible. All the presenters have to do is speak a little about each slide as it flashes in front of the audience. Oh, and they have to follow some simple grammar rules. (You knew there was a catch, right?) In this section, I tell you everything you need to know about presentation slides.

If you're not making an oral presentation, you may still find useful material in this section. The format for bullet points remains the same whether those points are on a ten-foot screen or a standard sheet of paper. Check out "Biting the Bulleted List" in this section for more information.

Writing titles

Your presentation should have a title, and so may individual slides: *The Care and Feeding of Fleas, Foods That Fleas Fear, Your Little Pets' Nesting Material,* and so on. Guidelines for presentation titles include:

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- **Place the title alone on a slide or on a line.** The title needs to stand out. When you're typing a standard paragraph, the title may be italicized or placed in quotation marks. On a presentation slide, however, neither italic nor quotation marks are needed. Why? Because the title's position calls attention to it, so you don't need anything else, in terms of grammar, at least. (Check out Chapter 12 for title-punctuation guidelines.) If you want the title to fade in, fade out, swirl around, or dance to the latest rap song, go ahead. The laws of taste are not mine to make. Just be sure that your message isn't lost in a sea of special effects.
- **Generally, don't place punctuation at the end of a title.** If the title is a complete sentence, it's probably too long. Cut it down! For example, you can change

  Fleas crave many types of food.

  to

  Foods Fleas Crave
- **If the title is a question, you need a question mark.** Continuing the example from the previous bullet point, you may write,

  What Foods Do Fleas Crave?
- **Follow the standard capitalization rules for titles.** I explain these rules in detail in Chapter 15.

With your sharp eyes, you probably noticed that the title of some sections (including this one) don't follow the rules of capitalization I set forth in Chapter 15. *For Dummies* style calls for standard caps for chapter and section titles but a variation for subsections — capital letters for the first word only. If your presentation has subsections, you can differentiate larger and smaller units in the same way.

Biting the bulleted list

Bullets are the newest punctuation mark. Their job is to introduce each item in a list. The bullets in *For Dummies* books are check marks, but other publishers and writers favor dark circles, little stars, arrows, and similar symbols. A bulleted list has two parts — the introduction and the bullet texts.

Bullet introductions

If the introduction to your bullet list is a complete thought, end it with a colon, as in these sample introductions:

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Fleas divert themselves with many exercises:

Fleas' favorite pastimes are as follows:

If the introduction to a bullet list is not a complete thought, don't place any punctuation mark at the end of the introduction. Check out these examples:

Fleas love to play with

Fleas' pet peeves are

If the introduction line ends with a linking verb as in the second example above, no punctuation follows the verb. See Chapter 2 for more information on linking verbs.

If the introduction line begins a series of quotations, place a comma at the end, as in these examples,

Simon Flea always says,

The flea trainer explains,

In *English Grammar For Dummies*, and all *For Dummies* books, bulleted lists are introduced and punctuated properly. Keep your eyes open to see the rules in action.

Bullet texts

The text for each bullet point is usually fairly short — sometimes just one or two words, and sometimes a bit more. Follow these guidelines in writing bullet points:

- If the text is a complete sentence, begin with a capital letter and end with a period (unless of course the sentence is a question, in which case you end with a question mark).
- If the text isn't a complete sentence, don't use any endmarks. You may capitalize the first word of each bullet point, but most people prefer lower case, especially if the introduction line isn't a complete sentence. Whatever style you choose, be consistent. Don't leave half of your bullet points capitalized and half lowercased.
- Each bullet point on a slide or in a list should have the same grammatical identity. If the first bullet point is a complete sentence, all the bullet points should be complete sentences. If you've begun one bullet point with a noun, begin all of them with nouns. Here's a "before and after" bullet list, illustrating a common mistake and its correction:

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INCORRECT

- table tennis
- playing air guitar
- to swing from a trapeze

CORRECT

- table tennis
- air guitar
- trapeze swinging

This grammatical principle is called *parallelism.* (For more information on parallelism, check out Chapter 21.)

Many presentations, especially in the academic world, require a slide listing sources (books, Web sites, articles, films, and so forth). Sources are formatted differently from just about everything else on the planet. I explain all the rules in *Research Papers For Dummies* (Wiley, 2002) and *Punctuation: Simplified and Applied* (Webster's New World, 2005). If you don't want to beautify my royalty statement, feel free to check out any of the many Web sites devoted to source citation, including `www.mla.org` and `www.apa.org`.

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Part IV

Polishing Without Wax — The Finer Points of Grammar

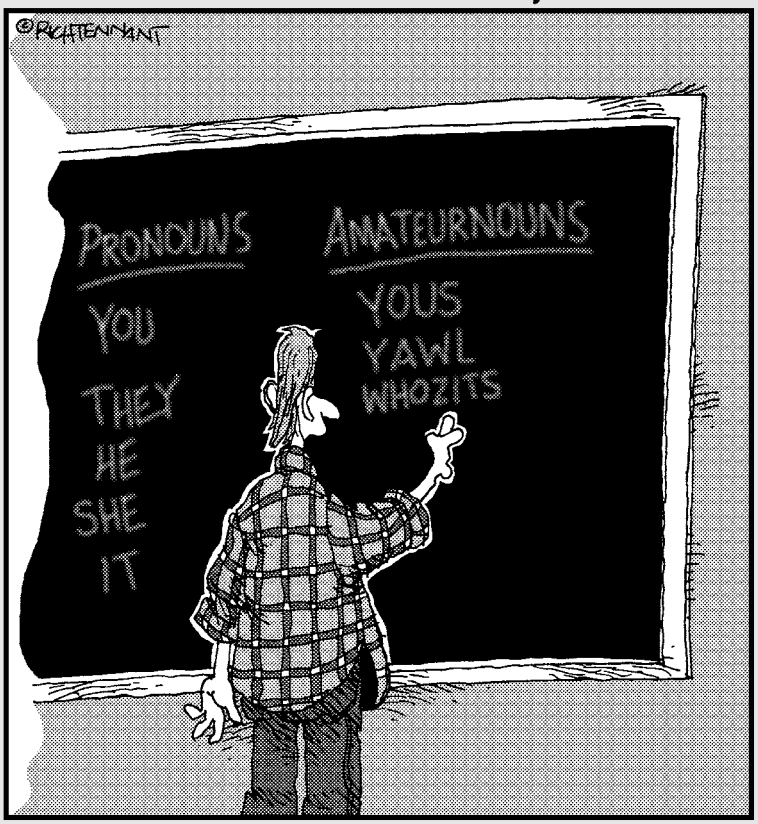

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In this part . . .

Think of this part of the book as sandpaper — a set of scratchy, annoying rules that rub the rough edges off of your writing. After you polish a paragraph according to the information in this part, the finished product will have the correct pronouns (Chapter 17), the appropriate verb tense (Chapter 18), and no misplaced descriptions (Chapter 19). All of your comparisons will be logical and complete (Chapter 20), and none of your sentences will be unbalanced (Chapter 21). Plus, the information in this part prepares you for the topics hit heavily by standardized tests — the lovely alphabet soup of SATs and ACTs that you wade through to get to college. For the finer points of grammar, read on.

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Chapter 17

Pronouns and Their Cases

In This Chapter

- Choosing the correct pronoun as subject and understanding compound subjects and appositives
- Selecting the right pronoun for a comparison
- Finishing linking verb sentences with the correct pronoun
- Using the proper object pronoun and showing possession with pronouns
- Choosing the correct pronoun for some nouns ending in *-ing*

Edgar Rice Burroughs' famous character Tarzan is a smart fellow. Not only can he survive in the natural world, but he also teaches himself a fair-sized English vocabulary, saves his beloved Jane from quicksand, and — when he travels to England — learns how to tie his shoelaces. Despite all these accomplishments, one task trips him up. He never seems to grasp pronoun-verb pairs. "Me Tarzan, you Jane," he says over and over. "I am Tarzan" is apparently beyond him.

Millions of suffering grammar students know exactly how Tarzan feels. Choosing the correct pronoun is enough to give even a thirteen-year-old a few gray hairs. (I have a whole section on my head just from the *who/whom* issue, which, by the way, I discuss in Chapter 23.) But there's actually a logic to pronouns, and a few tips go a long way toward making your choices more obvious. In this chapter, I cover the three sets, or *cases*, of pronouns — subject, object, and possessive. So grab a vine and swing into the jungle of pronouns.

Me Like Tarzan: Choosing Subject Pronouns

The subject is the person or thing that is doing the action or being talked about in the sentence. (For more on locating the subject, see Chapter 4.) You can't do much wrong when you have the actual name of a person, place, or thing as the subject — in other words, a noun — but pronouns are another story.

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Legal subject pronouns include *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who,* and *whoever.* If you want to avoid a grammatical felony, stay away from *me, him, her, us, them, whom,* and *whomever* when you're selecting a subject. Also avoid the *–self* pronouns (*myself, himself, herself, ourselves,* and so forth) when you're scouting out a subject, unless you throw one next to another subject for emphasis, as in *I myself will select the proper pronoun.*

Here are some examples of pronouns as the subject of a sentence:

> *I* certainly did tell Lulu not to remove her nose ring in public! (*I* is the subject of the verb *did tell.*)
>
> Al and *she* will bring their killer bees to the next meeting of the Unusual Pets Association. (*She* is the subject of the verb *will bring.*)
>
> *Whoever* marries Larry next should negotiate a good prenuptial agreement. (*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *marries.*)

Compounding interest: Pairs of subjects

Most people do okay with one subject, but sentences with two subjects are a different story. For example, I often hear my otherwise grammatically correct students say such things as

> *Robert* and *me* are going to the supermarket for some chips.
>
> Although *her* and *I* haven't met, we plan to have dinner soon.

See the problem? In the first sample sentence, the verb *are going* expresses the action. To find the subject, ask *who* or *what are going.* The answer right now is *Robert and me are going,* but *me* isn't a subject pronoun. Here's the correct version:

> *Robert* and *I* are going to the supermarket for some carrots and celery. (I couldn't resist correcting the nutritional content, too.)

In the second sample sentence, the action — the verb — is *have met.* (*Not* isn't part of the verb.) *Who* or *what have met?* The answer, as it is now, is *her* and *I. I* is a legal subject pronoun, but *her* is not. The correct version is as follows:

> Although *she* and *I* haven't met, we plan to have dinner soon.

One good way to check your pronouns is to look at each one separately. If you've developed a fairly good ear for proper English (and Chapter 26 tells you how to do so), isolating the pronoun helps you decide whether you've chosen correctly. You may have to adjust the verb a bit when you're speaking about one subject instead of two, but the principle is the same. If the pronoun

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doesn't sound right as a solo subject, it isn't right as part of a pair either. Here is an example:

> ORIGINAL SENTENCE: *Ella* and *her* went to the spitball-shooting contest yesterday.
>
> CHECK 1: *Ella* went to the spitball-shooting contest yesterday. Verdict: sounds okay.
>
> CHECK 2: *Her* went to the spitball-shooting contest yesterday. Verdict: sounds terrible. Substitute *she.*
>
> CHECK 3: *She* went to the spitball-shooting contest yesterday. Verdict: much better.
>
> RECOMBINED, CORRECTED SENTENCE: *Ella* and *she* went to the spitball-throwing contest yesterday.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Bud, you, and me appointed the judges for the spitball-shooting contest, so we have to live with their decisions, however wrong.

B. Bud, you, and I appointed the judges for the spitball-shooting contest, so we have to live with their decisions, however wrong.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *I* is a subject pronoun, and *me* is not. If you take the parts of the subject separately, you can usually hear the correct answer.

Attracting appositives

Do you want to say the same thing twice? Use an appositive. An *appositive* is a noun or a pronoun that is exactly the same as the noun or pronoun that precedes it in the sentence. Check out these examples:

> Raven, the girl whose hair matches her name, is thinking of changing her name to Goldie.
>
> Tee Rex, holder of the coveted Dinosaur of the Year trophy, has signed an endorsement deal with a company that makes extra-large sneakers.
>
> Roger, the Spy of the Month, will hold a press conference tomorrow at 10 a.m.
>
> Lola, a fan of motorcycles, acknowledges that life in the fast lane is sometimes hard on the complexion.

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Do you see the pair of matching ideas in each sentence? In the first, *Raven* and *the girl whose hair matches her name* are the same. In the next sentence, *Tee Rex* and *holder of the coveted Dinosaur of the Year trophy* make a pair. In the third, *the Spy of the Month* is the same as *Roger.* In the last sentence, *Lola* and *a fan of motorcycles* are the same. The second half of each pair *(the girl whose hair matches her name, holder of the coveted Dinosaur of the Year trophy, the Spy of the Month,* and *a fan of motorcycles)* is an appositive.

Appositives fall naturally into most people's speech and writing, perhaps because human beings feel a great need to explain themselves. You probably won't make a mistake with an appositive unless a pronoun or a comma is involved. (See Chapter 13 for more information on appositives and commas.)

Pronouns can serve as appositives, and they show up mostly when you have two or more people or things to talk about. Here are some sentences with appositives and pronouns:

> The winners of the raffle — Ali and he — will appear on the *Tonight Show* tomorrow. (Appositive = *Ali* and *he*)
>
> The judges for the spitball contest, Sally and she, wear plastic raincoats. (Appositive — *Sally* and *she*)
>
> The dancers who broke their toenails, Lulu and I, will not appear in the closing number. (Appositive = *Lulu* and *I*)

Why are *he, she* and *I* correct? In these sample sentences, the appositives are paired with the subjects of the sentence *(winners, judges, dancers).* In a sense, the appositives are potential substitutes for the subject. Therefore, you must use a subject pronoun.

The appositive pronoun must always match its partner; if you pair it with a subject, the appositive must be a subject pronoun. If you pair it with an object, it must be an object pronoun.

You can confirm pronoun choice with the same method that I describe in the previous section. Take each part of the pair (or group) separately. Adjust the verb if necessary, and then listen to the sentence. Here's the check for one of the sentences that I used earlier:

> CHECK 1: The judges for the spitball contest wear plastic raincoats. Verdict: sounds okay.
>
> CHECK 2: Sally wears plastic raincoats. (You have to adjust the verb because *Sally* is singular, not plural, but the pronoun sounds okay.)
>
> CHECK 3: She wears plastic raincoats. (Again, you have to adjust the verb, but the pronoun sounds okay.)

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Bottom line: Isolate the pronoun and listen. If you have spent some time listening to educated speech or reading good books, your "ear" for good English should help you decide whether the pronoun is correct.

Picking pronouns for comparisons

Lazy people that we are, we all tend to take shortcuts, chopping words out of our sentences and racing to the finish. This practice is evident in comparisons. Read the following sample sentences:

> Lulu denied that she had more facial hair than he.

That sentence really means

> Lulu denied that she had more facial hair than he had.

If you say the entire comparison, as in the preceding example, the pronoun choice is a cinch. However, when you drop the verb *(had),* you may be tempted to use the wrong pronoun, as in this sentence:

> Lulu denied that she had more facial hair than him.

Sounds right, doesn't it? But the sentence is wrong. The words you say must fit with the words you don't say. Obviously you aren't going to accept

> Lulu denied that she had more facial hair than him had.

Him had is just too gross. The technical reason? *Him* is an object pronoun, but you're using it as the subject of *had.*

Whenever you have an implied comparison — a comparison that the sentence suggests but doesn't state completely — finish the sentence in your head. The correct pronoun becomes obvious.

Implied comparisons often contain the word *than* (as in the preceding sample sentences). The words *so* and *as* are also frequently part of an implied comparison:

> The dancers that Michael hired are not as flexible as they.
>
> Eggworthy gave Larry as much trouble as her.
>
> Ralph, live in concert on Broadway, is as entertaining as she.

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The complete comparisons are as follows:

> The dancers that Michael hired are not as flexible as they are.
>
> Eggworthy gave Larry as much trouble as Eggworthy gave her.
>
> Ralph, live in concert on Broadway, is as entertaining as she is.

In some incomplete comparisons more than one word is missing. For example:

> Grandmother gives my sister more souvenirs than me.

means

> Grandmother gives my sister more souvenirs than Grandmother gives to me, because my sister is a spoiled brat and is always flattering the old bat.

and

> Grandmother gives my sister more souvenirs than I.

means

> Grandmother gives my sister more souvenirs than I do because I have better things to do with my allowance.

Think before you make a decision because the pronoun choice determines the meaning of the sentence.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Tee Rex broke more claws than I during the fight with Godzilla.

B. Tee Rex broke more claws than me during the fight with Godzilla.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. Read the sentence this way: Tee Rex broke more claws than *I did* during the fight with Godzilla. You can't say *me did.*

Last one! Which is correct?

A. Roger told me more atomic secrets than she.

B. Roger told me more atomic secrets than her.

Answer: Both are correct, depending on the situation. Sentence A means that Roger told me more atomic secrets than *she told me.* Sentence B means that Roger told me more atomic secrets than *he told her.*

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Connecting pronouns to linking verbs

Think of linking verbs as giant equal signs, equating two halves of the sentence. All forms of the verb *to be* are linking verbs, as well as verbs such as *seem, appear, smell, sound,* and *taste.* The type of pronoun that begins the equation (the subject) must also be the type of pronoun that finishes the equation. (For more information on finding linking verbs and the pronouns that go with them, see Chapter 2.) In this section, I talk about pairs of subject pronouns with linking verbs. Looking at pairs of words is helpful because choosing pronouns for compound subjects is always hard. Check out this sentence:

> The new champions, who spelled "sassafras" correctly for the first and only time, are him and me.

Correct or incorrect? Here's how to check. Think of the equal sign (the linking verb). If the pronouns are correct, you should be able to reverse the sentence. After all, 2 + 2 = 4 and 4 = 2 + 2.

If I reverse the preceding sample sentence, I get

> Him and me are the new champions who spelled "sassafras" correctly for the first and only time.

Uh oh. *Him and me are.* Not a good idea. What would you really say? *He and I are.* So go back to the original sentence. Change the pronouns. Now the sentence reads

> The new champions, who spelled "sassafras" correctly for the first and only time, are he and I.

In conversation, many people ignore the *reversibility rule* and choose an object pronoun. In conversation you can get away with such a choice, but in formal writing the rules are tighter. If you have a linking verb followed by a pronoun, choose from the subject set.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The students voted "Most Likely to Go to Jail Before Graduation" are Liz and I.

B. The students voted "Most Likely to Go to Jail Before Graduation" are Liz and me.

Answer: In formal English, sentence A is correct. Reverse the sentence: *Liz and I are* the students voted "Most Likely to Go to Jail Before Graduation." Verdict: Fine. If you reverse sentence B, you get *Liz and me are.* This phrasing is not a good idea, though it is acceptable in conversational English. (See Chapter 1 for more information on formal and conversational English.)

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Using Pronouns as Direct and Indirect Objects

Previously in this chapter, I've concentrated on subject pronouns, but now it's time to turn to the receiver of the sentence's action — the object. Specifically, it's time to turn to *object pronouns.* (For more information on finding the object, see Chapter 6.) Pronouns that may legally function as objects include *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.* Here are some examples of direct and indirect object pronouns, all in italic:

> Ticktock smashed *him* right on the nose for suggesting that "the mouse ran down the clock." (*smashed* is the verb; *Ticktock* is the subject; *him* is the object)
>
> Archie married *us,* despite our parents' objections, in a quadruple ring ceremony. (*married* is the verb; *Archie* is the subject; *us* is the object)
>
> Olivier, president and chief operating officer of Actors Inc., sent *me* a horrifying *letter.* (*sent* is the verb; *Olivier* is the subject; *letter* and *me* are objects)

Here's some English teacher terminology for you, if you can stand it. (If not, don't worry. You don't need labels to use object pronouns correctly!) A *direct object* receives the action directly from the verb, answering the questions *whom?* or *what?* after the verb. An *indirect object* receives the action indirectly (clever, those grammar terms), answering the questions *to whom?* or *to what?* after the verb. In the previous sample sentence, *letter* is the direct object and *me* is the indirect object. For more information on direct and indirect objects, see Chapter 6.

Which sentence is correct?

A. After a great deal of discussion, the principal punished we, the innocent, for the small herd of cows that disrupted the cafeteria yesterday.

B. After a great deal of discussion, the principal punished us, the innocent, for the small herd of cows that disrupted the cafeteria yesterday.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Us* is the object of the verb *punished.*

Choosing objects for prepositions

Prepositions — words that express relationships such as *about, after, among, by, for, behind, since,* and others — may also have objects. (For a more complete list of prepositions, see Chapter 8.) Here are some examples, with both the preposition and the object pronoun italicized:

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Max, fearful for his pet tarantula, gave his dog *to us* yesterday.

Belle's dance solo is a problem *for her* because she can't find a suitable costume.

Michael's latest play received a critical review *from them.*

Archie didn't like the window so he simply plastered *over it.*

The object word answers the usual object questions (*whom? what?*), as in these examples:

Max, fearful for his pet tarantula, gave his dog to *whom*? Answer: to *us.*

Belle's dance solo is a problem for *whom*? Answer: for *her.*

Michael's latest play received a critical review from *whom*? Answer: from *them.*

Archie didn't like the window, so he simply plastered over *what*? Answer: over *it.*

Also notice that all the pronouns — *us, him, her, them, it* — come from the set of object pronouns.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The conversation between Al and I always revolves around piano-tuning.

B. The conversation between Al and me always revolves around piano-tuning.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Between* is a preposition. *Between* whom? *Between Al and me. Me* is one of the objects of the preposition *between.*

For some reason, the phrase *between you and I* has caught on. However, it's time to unhook it! *Between* is a preposition, so object pronouns follow it. The pronoun *I* is for subjects, and *me* is for objects. So between you and me, *me* is the word you want.

Attaching objects to verbals

Isn't *verbal* a strange word? It sounds like something you keep in a little cage with an exercise wheel. But a *verbal* isn't a furry pet. It's a word derived from a verb (a word that expresses action or state of being) that functions as a noun or as a description (in other words, as an adjective or an adverb). In this section I show you how to select a pronoun for that coveted role, object of a verbal. (Everyone in Hollywood is auditioning for the part.) Later in this chapter, in the section entitled "Dealing with Pronouns and '-Ing' Nouns," I address another way that pronouns interact with verbals.

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The English language is the proud owner of three types of verbal. Don't worry about which is which. Their official names aren't important when you're choosing a pronoun. (They're called *gerund*, *participle*, and *infinitive*, if you absolutely have to know. To learn more about verbals, check out Chapter 24.) Take a look at these verbals and their objects, both of which are italicized. Also notice the real verb in each sentence, which I've underlined:

Melanie loves *dancing the Apostrophe,* but Lulu thinks that dance is strange.

Lola left the biker convention *to play some dance tunes* for Melanie.

Oliver, *having watched Melanie*, signed up for polka lessons.

As you see, the verbals look like verbs. However, in the first sentence *dancing* isn't acting as a verb. *Dancing* is a thing that Melanie loves. In other words, it's a noun. In the second example, *to play* provides a reason why Lola left the biker convention. Therefore *to play* describes the verb *left* (*left* why? *to play*). In the third example, *having watched Melanie* gives you more information about *Oliver*, a noun. Anything that describes a noun is functioning as an adjective.

To find the object of a verbal, ask the object questions: *whom? what?* after the verbal.

Fortunately, you don't need to know much about the parentage of any verbals you encounter. Just be sure to attach an object pronoun to any and all verbs. Here's the preceding set of example sentences, this time with pronouns instead of nouns:

Melanie loves *dancing it*.

Lola left the biker convention *to play them* for her friend Melanie.

Oliver, *having watched her*, signed up for polka lessons.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Oliver loves to show Melanie and I his new dance moves.

B. Oliver loves to show Melanie and me his new dance moves.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *To show* is a verbal. *To show whom*? *To show Melanie and me. Me* is one of the objects of the verbal *to show.*

Seeing double causes problems

You'll probably choose the correct object pronoun when there's only one in the sentence, but compounds (pairs or larger groups), cause problems. The solution is fairly easy: Check each part of the compound separately. Your ear helps you find the right choice. Here are some examples:

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ORIGINAL SENTENCE: Paris, pleading poverty, presented Perry and me with a check for fifteen cents.

CHECK 1: Paris, pleading poverty, presented Perry with a check for fifteen cents. Verdict: The sentence sounds fine.

CHECK 2: Paris, pleading poverty, presented me with a check for fifteen cents. Verdict: The sentence sounds fine. When you isolate the pronoun, *me* is obviously the correct choice. You're unlikely to accept *Paris, pleading poverty, presented I with a check for fifteen cents.*

Try another one.

ORIGINAL SENTENCE: Perry, claiming to be far richer than Donald Trump, presented the government and he with a billion dollars.

CHECK 1: Perry, claiming to be far richer than Donald Trump, presented the government with a check for a billion dollars. Verdict: The sentence is fine.

CHECK 2: Perry, claiming to be far richer than Donald Trump, presented he with a check for a billion dollars. Verdict: *presented he?* Nope. The sentence doesn't work.

CHECK 3: Perry, claiming to be far richer than Donald Trump, presented him with a check for a billion dollars. Verdict: Now the sentence sounds right.

RECOMBINED SENTENCE: Perry, claiming to be far richer than Donald Trump, presented the government and him with a check for a billion dollars.

Pronouns of Possession: No Exorcist Needed

Possessive pronouns show (pause for a drum roll) possession. Not the movie head-twisting-backwards kind of possession, but the kind where somebody owns something. Possessive pronouns include *my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs,* and *whose.* Check out the following sample sentences:

Michael took *his* apple out of the refrigerator marked "Open Only in Case of Emergency."

Sure that the computer had beeped *its* last beep, Lola shopped for a new model.

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To *our* dismay, Roger and Lulu opened *their* birthday presents two days early.

Vengeance is *mine.*

Lester slapped the dancer *whose* stiletto heels had wounded Lola's big toe.

The possessive pronouns in these examples show that the apple belongs to Michael, the beep belongs to the computer, the dismay belongs to us, and the presents belong to Roger and Lulu. Vengeance belongs to *me. (Mine* is the possessive pronoun that refers to something *I* own, something that belongs to *me.)* The last sentence is a little more complicated. The word *whose* refers to the *dancer.* The stiletto heels belong to the dancer. The big toe belongs to Lola, but possession is shown in this example with a possessive noun *(Lola's)* not a possessive pronoun *(her).*

Notice that none of the possessive pronouns have apostrophes. They never do! Ever! Never ever! Putting apostrophes into possessive pronouns is one of the most common errors. *(It's* doesn't mean *belongs to it. It's* means *it is.)*

Which sentence is correct?

A. Smashing the pumpkin on his mother's clean floor, Rocky commented, "I believe this gourd is yours."

B. Smashing the pumpkin on his mother's clean floor, Rocky commented, "I believe this gourd is your's."

Answer: Sentence A is correct. No possessive pronoun has an apostrophe, and *yours* is a possessive pronoun.

Dealing with Pronouns and "-Ing" Nouns

The rule concerning possessive pronouns and "-ing" nouns is broken so often that it may be a losing battle. However, the rule isn't completely useless, like many of the other rules that people break. Moreover, this rule is actually logical. Some nouns that end in *-ing* are created from verbs. (In grammarspeak, they're called *gerunds*, a member of the verbal family I discuss in "Attaching an object to a verbal" earlier in this chapter.)

When you put a pronoun in front of one of these nouns, you must be sure that the pronoun is possessive. Standardized test-makers love to check whether you know this fact. And now you do! Here are some examples:

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Just because I once got a speeding ticket, my parents object to *my taking* the car for even short drives. (not *me taking*)

Lola knows that *their* creating a dress code has nothing to do with the fact that she recently pierced her toes. (not *them* creating)

Eggworthy's wife likes *his* singing in the shower. (not *him* singing)

The goldfish accept *our* placing food in the tank so long as we don't try to shake their fins. (not *us placing*)

Why possessive? Here's the reasoning. If you put a possessive pronoun in front of the noun, the noun is the main idea. If you read

Lulu couldn't stop talking about *my*

you don't have all the information you need. You're practically leaning forward, waiting for the next word. Contrast the example above with this one:

Lulu couldn't stop talking about *me.*

Now you can stop. You have all the information you need — except of course what Lulu said about *me.* That's confidential. Back to grammar: The possessive pronoun sends you forward; an object pronoun stops you cold. Therefore:

My parents object to the *taking* of the car. They don't object to *me.*

Lola knows something about the *creating* of a dress code. She may not know anything about *them.*

Eggworthy's wife likes the *singing.* She may not like *him*.

The goldfish accept *placing* food. They don't accept *us.*

Some *-ing* words weren't created from verbs, and some *-ing* words aren't nouns. Don't worry about distinguishing between one and the other. Just apply this simple test: You need a possessive if the meaning of the sentence changes radically when you drop the *-ing* word. Check out this example:

Roger loves me singing and always invites me to perform at his concerts.

If I drop the *-ing* word, the sentence says

Roger loves me.

Now there's a radical change of meaning. Clearly the sentence is incorrect. The correct version is

Roger loves my singing.

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Now the focus is on *singing,* not on *me.*

Which sentence is correct?

A. Stunned by my low batting average, the coach forbade my swinging at every pitch.

B. Stunned by my low batting average, the coach forbade me swinging at every pitch.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The coach went on and on about *my swinging at every pitch* and never mentioned anything about my personal life. (In sentence B, he's forbidding *me,* all of me.)

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. The boss hates you answering the phone with "Whassup, dude?"

B. The boss hates your answering the phone with "Whassup, dude?"

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The boss doesn't know you enough to hate you (the meaning of Sentence A). Of course, if she got to know you better . . . but I won't go there. Sentence B places the emphasis on *answering.* The possessive *your* puts it there. The boss objects to "Whassup, dude?" as a client's introduction to the company. I can't imagine why.

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Chapter 18

Fine-Tuning Verbs

In This Chapter

- Distinguishing between active and passive voice
- Selecting strong verbs
- Choosing the correct verb to describe different events at different times
- Reporting information with the proper tense
- Describing ideas that are always true

Do verbs tie your tongue (well, actually, your pen) in knots? Are you constantly editing yourself to avoid verb problems? In Chapter 3, I cover the basics: choosing the correct verb in easy situations. Here I hit the hard stuff — sentences that puzzle most people. To fine-tune your verb skills, read on.

Giving Voice to Verbs

Verbs can have two voices. No, not soprano and tenor. Verbs can be either active or passive. Take a look at these two examples:

> "The window *was broken* yesterday," reported Eggworthy, carefully hiding his baseball bat under the sofa.
>
> "I *broke* the window yesterday," reported Eggworthy, regretfully handing his baseball bat to his mother.

How do the two versions differ? Grammatically, Eggworthy's statement in the first sentence focuses on the receiver of the action, the *window,* which received the action of *breaking.* The verb is *passive* because the subject is not the person or thing doing the action but instead the person or thing receiving the action. In sentence two, the verb is in active voice because the subject (*I*) performed the action (*broke*). When the subject is acting or being, the verb is *active.*

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To find the subject of a sentence, locate the verb and ask *who*? or *what*? before the verb. For more information on subjects, see Chapter 4.

Here are some active and passive verbs:

Lulu *gives* a free-tattoo coupon to Lola. (active)

Lola *is convinced* by Lulu to get a tattoo. (passive)

Roger *convinces* Lulu to visit the tattoo parlor too. (active)

Lulu *is tattooed* by Lola. (passive)

Label the verbs in these sentences as active or passive.

A. The omelet was made with egg whites, but the yolks were discarded.

B. Eggworthy slobbers when he eats eggs.

Answer: Sentence A is passive *(was made, were discarded)*, and sentence B is active *(slobbers, eats).*

Try one more. Which is active and which is passive?

A. The nail was hammered into that sign by Roger.

B. Roger is building a tank for his pet piranhas.

Answer: Sentence A is passive *(was hammered)*, and sentence B is active *(is building).*

Actively Seeking a Better Voice

Unless you're trying to hide something, or unless you truly don't know the facts, you should make your writing as specific as possible. Specifics reside in active voice. Compare these pairs of sentences:

The president of the Egg-Lovers' Club *was murdered* yesterday. (The cops are still looking for the villain who wielded the hammer and crushed the president's skull like a @el well, like an eggshell.)

Sir Francis Bacon murdered the president of the Egg-Lovers' Club yesterday. (Bacon will soon move into a maximum-security cell.)

It *is recommended* that the furnace not be cleaned until next year. (Someone wants to save money, but no one is taking responsibility for this action. If the furnace breaks when the thermometer hits 20 below because too much glop is inside, no one's name comes up for blame.)

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> The superintendent *recommends* that the furnace not be cleaned until next year. (Now the building's residents may threaten the superintendent with the icicles they chip off their noses.)

Do you notice how these active-verb sentences provide extra information? In the first pair of sample sentences, we know the name of the murderer. In the second pair, we know who recommends postponing maintenance of the furnace. Knowing (in life as well as in grammar) is usually better than not knowing, and active voice — which generally provides more facts — is usually better than passive voice.

Active voice is also better than passive because active voice tends to use fewer words to say the same thing. Compare the following sentences:

> Lulu was failed by the teacher because the grammar book was torn up by Lulu before it was ever opened. (20 words)
>
> The teacher failed Lulu because Lulu tore up the grammar book before opening it. (14 words)

Okay, six words don't make the difference between a 900-page novel and a 3-page story, but those words do add up. If you're writing a letter or an essay, switching from passive to active voice may save you one-third of your words — and therefore one-third of the reader's energy and patience.

Right about now you may be remembering a past homework assignment: the teacher asked for 500 words on *Hamlet* and you had only one teeny idea about the play. You may have thought that padding was a good idea! Wrong. Your teacher (or boss) can see that you've buried only one teeny idea in those piles of paragraphs. Besides losing points for knowing too little, you're likely to lose points for wasting the reader's time. The solution? Write in active voice and don't pad your writing.

Some questions on the SAT and ACT ask you to "revise" a sentence by choosing the best of five possible versions. Fairly often, the correct answer changes the passive verb of the original to active voice.

Which sentence works better?

A. The omelet was made with whipped egg whites and chopped ham, but the yolks were discarded.

B. Eggworthy made an omelet of whipped egg whites and chopped ham but discarded the yolks.

Answer: Sentence B, which employs active voice (*made, discarded*) is preferable to Sentence A, which has passive verbs (*was made, were discarded*). Not only is Sentence B one word shorter, but it also provides more information (the name of the cook).

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Try another: Choose the better sentence.

A. The Omelet Contest was run so poorly that some entries were labeled "dangerous" by the health officer.

B. Sal Monella ran the Omelet Contest so poorly that the health officer labeled some entries "dangerous."

Answer: Sentence B wins! Its active verb (*ran*) creates a stronger sentence than the passive verb (*was run*) of Sentence A. Also, Sentence B supplies the name of the contest official who forgot to refrigerate the cooking supplies.

Adding Meaning with Strong Verbs

Though *English Grammar For Dummies* focuses on grammar, I can't resist throwing in a few hints about style. You can get a lot of mileage out of strong verbs — those that add meaning and detail to your sentence. You can also water down your writing with blah, weak verbs. In this section, I show you how to select verbs that can bench-press with the best.

"There is" a problem with boring verbs

In my writing class, I always ask the students to describe a standard school chair. Inevitably, I read sentences like these:

There is a curved seat.

There are five slats on the back.

There is a school identification mark on the bottom of the chair.

Nothing's wrong with these sentences. They're all grammatically correct, and they're all accurate. But I bet they made you yawn. *There is* and *there are*, as well as their cousins — *there was*, *there will be*, *there has been*, and others — are standard (and therefore boring) expressions. How about swapping them for something stronger? Here you go:

The seat curves to fit your bottom.

Five slats support your back.

The school stamps an identification mark on the bottom of each chair.

Don't you think the second set of sentences is more interesting? You get more information, and the verbs — *curves*, *support*, and *stamps* — catch the reader's eye.

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In a writing sample for the SAT or other standardized test, graders watch for sophisticated usage. They want to see that you can manipulate language. *There is/are* sentences aren't very sophisticated, though they can sometimes be useful. When you find yourself constructing a sentence this way, pause. Can you come up with a more interesting verb?

Does your writing "have" a problem?

If they're overused, forms of the verb *to have* can also put your reader to sleep faster than a sedative. (The Grammarians Code obliges me to point out that *to have* is an infinitive — the grandpappy that gives its name to a verb family but never functions as a verb in a sentence. Chapter 17 tells you more than you ever wanted to know about how infinitives *do* function in a sentence.) Now, back to verb choices. Sometimes nothing works better than *to have*, and of course you need some forms of this verb to indicate tense — the time of the action or state of being. ("Putting It in Order: Sequence of Tenses" in this chapter tells you more about verb tense issues, as does Chapter 2.) But too often *has*, *had*, or *have* ends up in a sentence because the writer is too tired to think of something more creative. Try changing

> The chair has a shiny surface.
>
> The slats have rounded edges as big as my finger.

to

> The chair shone under the fluorescent light.
>
> The rounded edges fit my finger perfectly.

Okay, I added some information to the second set, but you see my point. *Shone* and *fit* are more interesting than *has* and *have.* Plus, after you plop in a good verb, other ideas follow, and the whole sentence improves.

Don't just "say" and "walk" away

To say and *to walk* are fine, upstanding members of the verb community, but they don't give you much information. Why *say* when you can *declare, scream, whisper, hint, bellow, assert, remark* or do any one of the zillions of alternatives available to you when you're describing communication? For movement, consider *stroll, saunter, plod, strut, rush, speed, zig-zag,* and — well, you get the point by now. Look for verbs that go beyond the basics, that add shades of meaning to your sentence. Here are some before-and-after sentence sets to illustrate how more specific verbs pep up your sentences:

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BEFORE: Heidi said she was tired of climbing mountains.

AFTER: Heidi contended that she was tired of climbing mountains. (Now you know that she's speaking with someone who may not believe her.)

ANOTHER AFTER: Heidi murmured that she was tired of climbing mountains. (Here Heidi's a bit shy or perhaps fearful.)

ONE MORE AFTER: Heidi roared that she was tired of climbing mountains. (In this sentence no one is going to mess with Heidi — not without a struggle!)

BEFORE: Heidi's hiking partner walked away from her.

AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner edged away from her. (The partner knows that Heidi's in one of her moods and trouble is on the way.)

ALSO AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner stomped away from her. (Now the partner is angry!)

THE LAST AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner wandered away from her. (The partner isn't paying attention.)

Your word-processing program probably has a built-in *thesaurus* — a reference work that lists synonyms for most verbs. You can also buy a thesaurus in book form. If you're looking over your writing and need some spicier verbs, a thesaurus can suggest some alternatives. Be cautious: verbs, like all words, may be similar but not exactly the same. The list for *stroll* includes *ramble* and *promenade.* You may *ramble* (or *amble*, another verb on this list) without a fixed destination or purpose. If you *promenade*, you're probably also in recreational mode, but this time you have an audience. Bottom line: don't insert a verb or any other verb into your sentence unless you're sure you know what it means.

Putting It in Order: Sequence of Tenses

All verbs express information about three time periods: the present, the past, and the future. Unfortunately, human beings have a tendency to want more specific information about timing. Enter about a million shades of meaning, closely followed by about a million rules.

For information on the basic tenses of verbs, see Chapter 3. In this chapter, I focus on some special cases — which verbs to use when more than one thing is happening.

To clarify what's happening when, timelines accompany some of the examples in this section. Match the events on the timeline to the verbs in the sentence to see where in time each tense places an action.

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Both the SAT and the ACT obsess about verb tense. Expect to see at least a few questions containing the verb-tense issues described in this section.

Case 1: Simultaneous events — main verbs

Look at the italicized verbs in each of these sample sentences:

> Maya *swiped* a handkerchief and daintily *blew* her noise. (*swiped* and *blew* = two events happening at almost the same moment; both verbs are in past tense)
>
> Maya *will be* in court tomorrow, and the judge *will rule* on her case. (*will be* and *will rule* = two events happening at the same time; both verbs are in future tense)
>
> Maya *is* extremely sad about the possibility of a criminal record, but she *remains* hopeful. (*is* and *remains* = states of being existing at the same time; both verbs are in present tense)

If two actions take place at the same time (or nearly the same time), use the same tense for each verb.

Case 2: Simultaneous events — verbals

The verb doesn't express all the action in a sentence. Some verb forms don't act as the official verb in the sentence; in fact, they don't act as verbs at all, even though they give you some information about an event. These verb forms are called *verbals.* In the following sentences, check out the italicized verbals. Also keep your eye on the main verb, which is underlined. Notice that the same verbal matches with present, past, and future verbs and places the two actions at the same time or close enough in time to make the difference irrelevant. Also notice that none of the verbals are formed with the words *have* or *had.* (*Have* and *had* help to express actions taking place at different times. See Case 6 later in this section for more information and examples of *have* and *had* in action.)

> *Swiping* a handkerchief, Maya daintily <u>blows</u> her nose. (The *swiping* and the *blowing* take place at nearly the same time — in the present.)
>
> *Swiping* a handkerchief, Maya daintily <u>blew</u> her nose. (The *swiping* and the *blowing* took place at nearly the same time — in the past.)
>
> *Swiping* a handkerchief, Maya <u>will</u> daintily <u>blow</u> her nose. (The *swiping* and the *blowing* will take place at nearly the same time — in the future.)

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Another variation:

> *To blow her nose daintily,* Maya swipes a handkerchief. (The *blowing* and the *swiping* take place at nearly the same time — in the present.)
>
> *To blow her nose daintily,* Maya swiped a handkerchief. (The *blowing* and the *swiping* took place at nearly the same time — in the past.)
>
> *To blow her nose daintily,* Maya will swipe a handkerchief. (The *blowing* and the *swiping* will take place at nearly the same time — in the future.)

No one in the known universe needs this information, so continue reading only if you love grammatical terms. *Participles* are verb forms that may act as adjectives. In the preceding sample sentences, *swiping* is a present participle, and *swiping a handkerchief* is a participial phrase describing *Maya.* The action expressed by the present participle takes place at the same time (or nearly the same time) as the action expressed by the main verb. *To blow* is an infinitive, the basic form of a verb. Infinitives never function as verbs in the sentence. In the previous sample sentences, *to blow her noise daintily* is an infinitive phrase describing *Maya.* For more information on infinitives, see Chapters 2 and 17. For tips on using participles and infinitives creatively, see Chapter 24.

Case 3: Events at two different times in the past

Everything in the past happened at exactly the same moment, right? Oh, if only this statement were true. History tests would be much easier, and so would grammar. Sadly, you often need to talk about events that took place at different times in the past. Verb tenses create an order of events — a timeline — for your reader. Check out the italicized verbs in this sentence:

> Maya *had* already *swiped* the handkerchief when she *discovered* the joys of honesty.

There are two events to think about, one taking place before the other. (Unfortunately for Maya, the joy of honesty came after the theft, for which she's doing ten to twenty in the penitentiary.) Note the timeline:

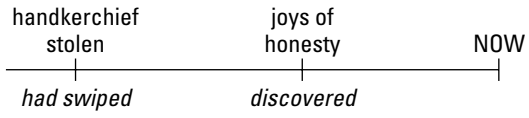

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For two events in the past, write the earlier event with *had* and the more recent event in simple past tense (without *had*). For grammar-lovers only: Verbs written with *had* are in the past perfect tense. (See Chapter 3 for definitions of tenses.)

Scan these examples:

> Because of Lulu's skill with a needle, where a hole in the sock *had gaped,* a perfect heel now *enclosed* her tender foot. (Event 1: the hole in the sock gapes; event 2: the mended sock covers the foot.)
>
> When Roger *had inserted* the microfilm, he *sewed* the hole in the now illegal teddy bear. (Event 1: Roger inserts the microfilm; event 2: Roger sews the bear.)
>
> Though she *had lost* her wallet, Ella *kept* a tight grip on her sanity. (Event 1: Ella loses her wallet; Event 2: Ella does not lose her mind.)
>
> After the song *had* been *played* at least twelve times, Michael *shouted,* "Enough!" (Event 1: The song is played twelve times; event 2: Michael loses it.)

A common error is using *had* for everything. Wrong! Don't use *had* unless you're consciously putting events in order:

> WRONG: Maya had dried her eyes and then she had gone to see the judge.
>
> RIGHT: After Maya had dried her eyes, she went to see the judge.

Also, sometimes you may want to talk about events in the past without worrying about specific times. You *went* on vacation, *had* a great time, *sent* some postcards, *ate* a lot of junk food, and *came* home. No need for *had* in this description because the order isn't the point. You're just making a general list. Use *had* when the timing matters. Don't overuse it.

Note: You may encounter one other use of *had,* the subjunctive. See Chapter 22 if you have to know absolutely everything about *had* — and believe me, you don't.

Which sentence tells you about events that happened at different times?

A. Slipping the judge a fifty-dollar bill, Maya hoped for mercy.

B. Although she had slipped the judge only one fifty-dollar bill, Maya hoped for mercy.

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Answer: Sentence B reports events at different times. Maya tried the bribe at 10 a.m. and spent the rest of the day planning a trip to Rio (cancelled when her ten-to-twenty-year jail term was announced). In sentence A, Maya bribes and hopes at the same time.

One more question. Which sentence reports events happening at two different times?

A. To prepare for her trial, Maya bought a copy of *Be Your Own Lawyer!*

B. Maya had bought a copy of *Be Your Own Lawyer!* when the trial began.

Answer: Sentence B has two events, one earlier than the other. The purchase of the book *(had bought)* happened before the trial *(began)*. In sentence A, the two events *(to prepare, bought)* happen at the same time.

Case 4: More than two past events, all at different times

This rule is similar to the one described in Case 3. Apply this rule when you talk about more than two events in the past:

> Maya *had baked* a cake and *had inserted* a sharp file under the icing before she *began* her stay in jail.

Now the timeline is as follows:

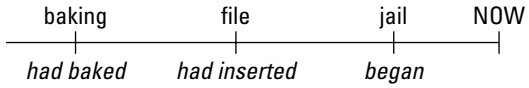

What do you notice? The most recent event *(began her stay in jail)* is written without *had.* In other words, the most recent event is in simple past tense. Everything that happened earlier is written with *had* — that is, in past perfect tense. For more information on tenses, see Chapter 3.

Here are some examples:

> Max *had bent* his knees and *had bowed* his head before he *shot* the spitball. (Events 1 and 2: Max tries to look respectful. Event 3: Max shoots the spitball, proving once and for all that he can't act respectfully.)
>
> Michael *had planned* the shower, and Lola *had* even *planned* the wedding by the time Ella *agreed* to marry Larry. (Events 1 and 2: Michael and Lola visit the wedding coordinator. Event 3: Ella makes the biggest mistake of her life.)

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> Elizabeth *had composed* a sonata, *played* it for royalty, and *signed* a recording contract before she *reached* her tenth birthday. (Events 1, 2, and 3: Elizabeth writes the music, performs it, and makes big bucks. Event 4: Elizabeth's mom puts ten candles on the cake.)

In the last example three verbs — *composed, played,* and *signed* — form a list of the actions that Elizabeth performed before her tenth birthday. They all have the same subject (*Elizabeth*). The word *had* precedes only *composed,* the first verb of the three. You may omit the word *had* in front of *played* and *signed* because they are part of the same list and they all have the same subject. The reader knows that the word *had* applies to all three of the verbs. In other words, the reader understands that *Elizabeth had composed, had played,* and *had signed.*

Identify the events in this sentence and put them in order.

> Where patriots had fought and wise founders had written a constitution, a fast-food catfish restaurant stood.

Answer: Events 1 and 2: People with a better idea fight the old government and write a plan for a new government. Event 3: In the free and successful society that results, someone builds a restaurant after suing the landmarks preservation commission for the right to tear down a historic building.

Case 5: Two events in the future

Leaving the past behind, it's time to turn to the future. Read this sentence:

> Ratrug *will have completed* all 433 college applications before they are due.

Ratrug's applications will be error-filled — he spelled his name *Ratrig* on at least three — but they will be done before the deadline. *Deadline* is the important word here, at least regarding verb tense. The *have* form of the future, also called *future perfect tense,* involves a deadline. You don't necessarily see two verbs in the sentence, but you do learn about two events:

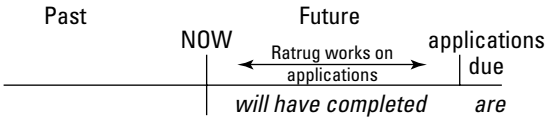

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Use the future perfect tense to talk about the earlier of the two events.

Here are a few examples:

> Maya *will have served* all of her sentence before the parole board meets. (The deadline in the sentence is the parole board meeting.)
>
> By nine tonight, Eggworthy *will have* successfully *scrambled* the secret message. (The deadline in the sentence is nine o'clock.)
>
> Anna *will have left* for Lulu's trip up Mount Everest by the time the mountaineering supply company sends her gear. (The deadline in the sentence is the delivery of mountain-climbing supplies.)

Which sentence is correct?

A. Shakey will have tossed the salad tonight.

B. Shakey will have tossed the salad out the window before anyone has a chance to taste it.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Future perfect tense involves a deadline, which in this sentence is *before anyone has a chance to taste it.*

Case 6: Different times, different verb forms

Remember those weird verb forms from Case 2, earlier in the chapter? The verbals? When they express different times, a helping verb *(having* or *have)* is involved.

For reasons that I can't begin to imagine, this topic is a favorite of standardized test-makers.

Check out this sentence:

> *Having sealed* the letter containing his job application, Nobrain *remembered* his name.

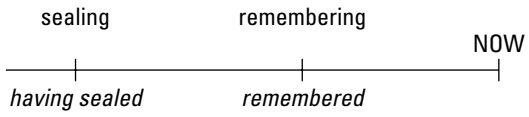

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In other words, Nobrain's job application — unless he rips open the envelope — is anonymous because the *sealing* of the letter took place before the *remembering* of his name.

Here are additional examples:

> *Having finished* her homework, Elizabeth *turned* on the television to watch the oatmeal-wrestling tournament. (Event 1: Elizabeth finishes her homework at 2 a.m. Event 2: The tournament begins at 3 a.m. The networks seem reluctant to broadcast the match during prime time. I wonder why.)
>
> *Having won* all the votes, Lola named herself "Empress-in-Chief." (Event 1: Lola gets 100 percent of the votes. Event 2: Lola goes crown shopping.)
>
> *Having exhibited* the painting in Mel's new gallery, Elizabeth considered herself an all-around artistic genius. (Event 1: Elizabeth convinces Mel to hang her *Homework Blues* still life. Event 2: Elizabeth adds an art link to her Web page.)

If you have a life, skip this paragraph. If you like grammar, read on to learn the technical terms relevant to Case 6. The *present participle* (*finishing,* for example) combines with present, past, and future verbs to show two events happening at the same time or at nearly the same time. The *present perfect* form of the participle (*having finished*) combines with present, past, and future verbs to show two events happening at different times.

Another one of the verb-forms-that-aren't-verbs, the *infinitive*, may also show events happening at two different times. The *present perfect infinitive* (*to have finished,* for example) is the one that does this job. Don't worry about the name; just look for the *have.* Here's an example:

> It was helpful *to have bought the cookbook* before the dinner party. (Event 1: Pre-party, panicked trip to the bookstore. Event 2: Guests arrive, unaware that they're about to eat Alfalfa-Stringbean Surprise.)

The *have* form (the present perfect form) of the infinitive always places an event *before* another in the past. Don't use the *have* form unless you're putting events in order:

> WRONG: I was wrong to have attended the party.
>
> RIGHT: I was wrong to attend the party. The music was terrible and there was nothing to eat but vegetables.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: I was wrong to have attended the party before I got a chance to investigate the menu. Shakey's salad was terrible.

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She done him wrong

The word *done* is never a verb all by itself. A true party animal, this verb form insists on being accompanied by helping verbs. In grammar-speak, *done* is a past participle of the verb *to do.* Naked, shivering, totally-alone participles never function as verbs. Here are some examples:

WRONG: He done all he could, but the sky fell anyway.

RIGHT: He had done all he could, but the sky fell anyway.

WRONG: She done him wrong.

RIGHT, BUT A BAD SENTENCE: She has done him wrong.

BETTER SENTENCE: What she has done to him is wrong.

You may blame the fact that so many people create sentences like the first example *(He done all he could)* on one of the many joys of English grammar. Some past participles — those of regular verbs — look exactly the same as the plain past tense. Consider the verb *to walk:*

PLAIN PAST TENSE: I *walked* twenty miles.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE: I *have walked* twenty miles.

WHAT THESE TWO SENTENCES HAVE IN COMMON: The word *walked,* which is a verb in the first example and a past participle — part of a verb — in the second example.

WHY ENGLISH DOES THIS: I have no idea.

BOTTOM LINE: You may use *walked* alone or with a helper because the same word may be both a past tense verb and a participle. You may not use *done* by itself as a verb, however, because it's not the past tense of *to do.* The past tense of *to do* is *did.*

Which sentence shows two events happening at the same time, and which shows two events happening at different times?

A. Running up the clock, the mouse chatted with his friends.

B. Having run up the clock, the mouse chatted with his friends.

Answer: Sentence A shows two events happening at the same time. The mouse is running and chatting with his friends. Sentence B shows two events happening at different times. The mouse has arrived at the top of the clock and is now chatting with his friends. (Notice that the word *having* is involved, indicating that different events are occurring at different times.)

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Reporting Information: The Verb Tells the Story

> Flipping his hair over each of his three shoulders, the alien *told* us about the explosion on his planet. The gas of three rocket tanks *caught* fire and *destroyed* the spaceport terminal, he *said.* He *went* on to explain that almost everyone on the planet *was affected,* including the volleyball team, which *sustained* significant losses. All their courts, he *said, were covered* with rubble, and they *forfeited* the intergalactic tournament.

The alien's story is summarized speech. I'm not quoting him directly. If I were, I'd insert some of his exact words:

> "Oh, the humanity!" he cried.

In the previous summarized speech, the verbs are all in past tense. Although rare, it's possible to summarize speech in present tense also. Present tense adds an extra dose of drama:

> Flipping his hair over each of his three shoulders, the alien *tells* us about the explosion on his planet. The gas of three rocket tanks *catches* fire and *destroys* the spaceport terminal, he *says.* He *goes* on to explain that almost everyone on the planet *is affected,* including the volleyball team, which *sustains* significant losses. All their courts, he *says, are covered* with rubble, and they *forfeit* the intergalactic tournament.

When reporting information, either present or past tense is acceptable. However, mixing tenses is *not* acceptable. Don't move from one to the other, except for one special case, which I describe in the next section, "Recognizing Eternal Truths: Statements That Are Always in Present Tense."

> WRONG: Shakey *said* that he *had tossed* the salad out the window. It *hits* a pedestrian, who *sues* for lettuce-related damages. (The first two verbs are in past tense, and the next two are in present tense.)
>
> RIGHT: Shakey *said* that he *had tossed* the salad out the window. It *hit* a pedestrian, who *sued* for lettuce-related damages. (All verbs are in a form of the past tense.)

Correct the verb tense in this paragraph. The verbs are in italics.

> Lola *testified* that she *excavated* at the town dump every Tuesday afternoon before she *attends* choir practice. She often *found* arrow heads, broken pottery, discarded automobile tires, and other items of interest.

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> One day she *discovers* a metal coil about two feet long. On one end of the coil *was* a piece of gum. As she thoughtfully *removes* the gum and *starts* to chew, a whistle *blew.* Roger *sprinted* into the dump at top speed. "Get your hands off my gum," he *exclaims.* Roger *smiles.* His anti-gum-theft alarm *had worked* perfectly.

Answer: The story is in two different tenses, past and present. To correct it, choose one of the two. Here is the past tense version, with the changed verbs underlined:

> Lola *testified* that she *excavated* at the town dump every Tuesday afternoon before she *attended* choir practice. She often *found* arrow heads, broken pottery, discarded automobile tires, and other items of interest. One day she *discovered* a metal coil about two feet long. On one end of the coil *was* a piece of gum. As she thoughtfully *removed* the gum and *started* to chew, a whistle *blew.* Roger *sprinted* into the dump at top speed. "Get your hands off my gum," he *exclaimed.* Roger *smiled.* His anti-gum-theft alarm *had worked* perfectly.

Here is the present tense version, with the changed verbs underlined:

> Lola *testifies* that she *excavates* at the town dump every Tuesday afternoon before she *attends* choir practice. She often *finds* arrow heads, broken pottery, discarded automobile tires, and other items of interest. One day she *discovers* a metal coil about two feet long. On one end of the coil *is* a piece of gum. As she thoughtfully *removes* the gum and *starts* to chew, a whistle *blows.* Roger *sprints* into the dump at top speed. "Get your hands off my gum," he *exclaims.* Roger *smiles.* His anti-gum-theft alarm *has worked* perfectly.

One special note: When you're not reporting what someone says, you can make a general statement about something that always happens (someone's custom or habit) using present tense. You can easily combine such a statement with a story that focuses on one particular incident in the past tense. Therefore, the preceding story may begin in present tense and move to past tense in this way:

> Lola *excavates* at the town dump every Tuesday afternoon before she *attends* choir practice. She often *finds* arrow heads, broken pottery, discarded automobile tires, and other items of interest.

Up to here in the story, all the verbs are in present tense because the story tells of Lola's habits. The story isn't reporting what someone said. In the next sentence, the story switches to past tense because it examines one particular day in the past.

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One day she *discovered* a metal coil about two feet long. On one end of the coil *was* a piece of gum. As she thoughtfully *removed* the gum and *started* to chew, a whistle *blew.* Roger *sprinted* into the dump at top speed. "Get your hands off my gum," he *exclaimed.* Roger *smiled.* His anti-gum-theft alarm *had worked* perfectly.

When you're revising a paragraph on the writing section of the SAT I or the English portion of the ACT, keep your eye out for verb-tense errors.

Recognizing Eternal Truths: Statements That Are Always in Present Tense

What's wrong with these sentences?

Anna explained that one plus one *equaled* two.

Ms. Belli said that the earth *was* round.

She added that diamonds *were made* of carbon.

Well, you may be thinking,

Equaled two? What does it equal now? Three?

Was round? And now it's a cube?

Were made of carbon? Now they make diamonds from pastrami?

In others words, the verb tense is wrong. All of these statements represent eternal truths — statements that will never change. When you write such statements, you must always write in present tense, even if the statement was made in the past:

Anna explained that one plus one *equals* two.

Ms. Belli told us that the earth *is* round.

She went on to say that diamonds *are made* of carbon.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Michael said that Lulu had a cold.

B. Michael said that Lulu has a cold.

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Answer: Sentence A is correct. Lulu's cold is not an eternal truth, though it has lasted three weeks and shows no signs of letting up. Be consistent in verb tense.

Do you have the energy for one more? Find the correct sentence.

A. Lulu explained that the sun was very hot.

B. Lulu explained that the sun is very hot.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The sun can burn you from millions of miles away, as I found out at the beach last week. It's not likely to turn into a snowball anytime soon.

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Chapter 19

Saying What You Want to Say: Descriptive Words and Phrases

In This Chapter

- Placing descriptions so that the sentence says what you mean
- Beginning a sentence with a description
- Using infinitives as descriptions
- Avoiding double meanings for descriptive words
- Omitting words without losing meaning

Once upon a time, the ancestor of our Modern English, Old English, was the language of the land. Most words had many forms: one to show that the word received an action and one to show that it performed an action. Because the words themselves carried so many aspects of meaning, you could arrange them in many ways and still say the same thing. Word order was less important in Old English than it is in Modern English.

The good news is that speakers of Modern English don't have to learn dozens of forms of words. The bad news is that Modern English speakers have to be careful about word order. Most people do all right with nouns and verbs, but descriptions are another matter. In this chapter, I show you some common mistakes of placement. Specifically, I show you how placing a description in the wrong spot can completely wreck your sentence.

Ruining a Perfectly Good Sentence: Misplaced Descriptions

Can you spot what's wrong with this sentence?

Lulu put a ring in her pierced nose that she had bought last week.

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The describing words *that she had bought last week* follow the word *nose.* The way the sentence is now, *that she had bought last week* describes *nose.* The Internet sells plenty of unusual items, but not noses (yet), though I imagine a Web address for plastic surgeons offering discount nose jobs is out there somewhere.

Here's the correction:

> In her pierced nose Lulu put a ring that she had bought last week.

Now *that she had bought last week* follows ring, which Lulu really did buy last week.

If you encounter a misplaced description in your writing (or on a test), be sure that your revision doesn't create another error. Here's an example of a faulty revision, still working from the sentence about Lulu's nose:

> Lulu put a ring that she had bought last week in her pierced nose.

In this version Lulu's shopping took place inside her nose, which *is* rather large, but not spacious enough for a jewelry store. Why? Because *in her pierced nose* tells you where something happened. The sentence has two verbs, *put* and *had bought.* The description describes the nearest action, which, in the faulty revision, is *had bought.* In the true correction, *in her pierced nose* is at the beginning of the sentence, closer to *put* than to *had bought.*

I'm not a big fan of grammar terms, but if you're curious, here's the deal: The description *that she bought last week* is an adjective clause. It describes the noun *ring.* For more information on adjective clauses, see Chapter 24.

Here's another description that wandered too far from home:

> Lulu also bought a genuine, 1950-model, fluorescent pink hula-hoop with a credit card.

According to news reports, toddlers and dogs have received credit card applications, but not plastic toys — at least as far as I know. Yet the sentence says that the hula-hoop comes with a credit card. How to fix it? Move the description:

> With a credit card Lulu also bought a genuine, 1950-model, fluorescent pink hula-hoop.

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Granted, most people can figure out the meaning of the faulty sentence, even when the description is in the wrong place. Logic is a powerful force. But chances are your reader or listener will pause a moment to unravel what you've said. The next couple of sentences may be a washout because your audience is distracted.

The rule concerning description placement is simple: Place the description as close as possible to the word that it describes.

Maybe because professors are tired of moving descriptions around in student papers, college entrance tests (the SAT or ACT) question you thoroughly on this topic.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Roger put the paper into his pocket with atomic secrets written on it.

B. Roger put the paper with atomic secrets written on it into his pocket.

Answer: Sentence B is correct because the paper has atomic secrets written on it, not the pocket.

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. Anna peddled to the Mathematics Olympics on her ten-speed bicycle with a complete set of differential equations.

B. Anna peddled on her ten-speed bicycle to the Mathematics Olympics with a complete set of differential equations.

C. With a complete set of differential equations, Anna peddled on her ten-speed bicycle to the Mathematics Olympics.

Answer: Sentence C is correct. In sentence A, the bicycle has ten speeds, two tires, and a set of equations — not very useful in climbing hills and swerving to avoid taxis! In sentence B, the Mathematics Olympics has a complete set of differential equations. Perhaps so, but the sentence revolves around Anna, so the more likely meaning is that Anna has the equations. Only in sentence C does Anna have the equations. (By the way, she won a silver medal in the little known sport known as Peddle Solving. Contestants do math while riding exercise bikes.)

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Continually? continuously? making mistakes

Two description pairs trespass on each other's territory — *continuously/continuous* and *continually/continual*. Which pair should you turn to express your meaning? Read on.

Continual and *continually* refer to events that happen over and over again, but with breaks in between each instance. (*Continual* describes nouns, and *continually* describes verbs.) *Continuous* and *continuously* are for situation without gaps. (As you've probably guessed, *continuous* attaches to nouns, and *continuously* to verbs.) *Continuous* noise is steady, uninterrupted, like the drone of the electric generator in your local power plant. *Continual* noise is what you hear when I go bowling. You hear silence (when I stare at the pins), a little noise (when the ball rolls down the alley), and silence again (when the ball slides into the gutter without hitting anything). After an hour you hear noise (when I finally hit something and begin to cheer). In case you're wondering, I'm a very bad bowler.

Here are a couple of examples of these two descriptions in action:

WRONG: Jim screamed *continually* until Lola stuffed rags in his mouth.

WHY IT'S WRONG: Jim's screams don't come and go. When he's upset, he's really upset, and nothing shuts him up except force.

RIGHT: Jim screamed *continuously* until Lola stuffed rags in his mouth.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: In this version, Jim takes no breaks.

WRONG: Ella's *continuous* attempts to impress Larry were unsuccessful, including the fruit basket she sent him on Monday and the piranha she Fed-Exed on Tuesday.

WHY IT'S WRONG: Ella's attempts stop and start. She does one thing on Monday, rests up, and then does another on Tuesday.

RIGHT: Ella's *continual* attempts to impress Larry were unsuccessful, including the fruit basket she sent him on Monday and the piranha she Fed-Exed on Tuesday.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: Now the sentence talks about a recurring action.

By the way, this pair had a cameo appearance on a recent standardized test. Test-takers, refer to these examples *continually* so they'll remain in your memory *continuously.*

Keeping Your Audience Hanging: Danglers

How can you describe something that isn't there? Descriptions must have something to describe. This idea seems simple, and it *is* simple when the description is one word attached to another. You're not likely to say,

I want to buy a red.

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when you're putting together a Santa Claus outfit for a holiday party. Instead you automatically declare,

> I want to buy a red suit.

In the preceding sentence, *red* describes *suit.* However, two types of descriptions tend to cause as many problems as a double-date with your ex: participles and infinitives. These descriptions look like verbs, but they don't function as verbs. In grammarspeak, they're known as *verbals.* (You can find out more about verbals in Chapter 24.)

In this section, I show you common mistakes with participles and infinitives. Don't worry about the names; you don't need them. Just place these descriptions properly.

Dangling participles

Read this sentence:

> Munching a buttered sausage, the cholesterol really builds up.

As you see, the sentence begins with a verb form, *munching,* but *munching* isn't the verb in the sentence. It's a participle — a verb form that describes. (The real verb in the sentence is *builds.*) But participles have to describe something or someone. *Munching* must be tacked onto a muncher. So who is munching? You? Eggworthy? Everyone in the local diet club? In the sentence, no one is munching. Descriptive verb forms that have nothing appropriate to describe are called *danglers* or *dangling modifiers.* To correct the sentence, add a muncher:

> Munching a buttered sausage, Eggworthy smiled and waved to his cardiologist.

In sentences beginning with a descriptive verb form, such as a participle, the subject must perform the action mentioned in the descriptive verb form. In the sample sentence, Eggworthy is the subject of the sentence. The sentence begins with a descriptive verb form, *munching a buttered sausage.* Thus, Eggworthy is the one who is munching. (For more information on identifying the subject of a sentence, see Chapter 4.) If you want the cardiologist to munch, say

> Munching a buttered sausage, the cardiologist returned Eggworthy's wave.

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Here's another example:

> Sitting on the park bench, the soaring space shuttle briefly delighted the little boy.

Oh really? The space shuttle is sitting on a bench and soaring at the same time? Defies the laws of physics, don't you think? (Also, park rules clearly state that no intergalactic vehicles are allowed on benches.) Try again:

> Sitting on the park bench, the little boy was briefly delighted by the soaring space shuttle.

Now *little boy* is the subject of the sentence, so the introductory description applies to him, not to the space shuttle. Another correction may be

> The soaring space shuttle briefly delighted the little boy who was sitting on the park bench.

Now the descriptive words *sitting on the park bench* are placed next to little boy, who in fact is the one sitting, being delighted by the soaring space shuttle.

This topic is so popular on the SAT that it deserves another example. Here's a faulty sentence:

> Skidding over the icy pavement, the old oak tree couldn't escape the speeding sports car.

You spotted the problem, right? The *tree* is the subject of the sentence, but a tree can't be the thing *skidding over the icy pavement.* That sort of thing happens only in Harry Potter movies. Now for the better version:

> Skidding over the icy pavement, the speeding sports car slammed into the old oak tree.

Now the *speeding sports car* is skidding. No problem. Well, no grammar problem anyway. The traffic cop sees the situation a little differently.

Which one is correct?

A. Sailing swiftly across the sea, Samantha's boat was surely a beautiful sight.

B. Sailing swiftly across the sea, the sight of the beautiful boat made Samantha sob.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. *Sailing swiftly across the sea* describes Samantha's boat. Samantha's boat is performing that action. Sentence B is wrong because in sentence B *sight,* the subject, is sailing. (And of course, a *sight* can't sail.)

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Dangling infinitives

Another common dangler is an infinitive (to + verb) that begins a sentence.

> To sew well, a strong light is necessary.

This sentence may sound correct to you. After all, sewing in the dark is hard. But think about the meaning for a moment. Who is sewing? No one, at least the way the sentence is now written. Moving the infinitive may make the sentence sound better to your ears, but the move doesn't solve the problem:

> A strong light is necessary to sew well.

There's still no one sewing, so the sentence is still incorrect. To fix the problem, you must add a person:

> To sew well, you need a strong light. (*You* are sewing.)
>
> To sew well, sit near a strong light. (*You* is understood in this command sentence.)
>
> To sew well, everyone needs a strong light. (*Everyone* is sewing.)
>
> To sew well, Betsy insists on at least a 75-watt bulb. (*Betsy* is sewing.)

An infinitive at the beginning of a sentence *may* be legal. Check out this sentence:

> To sew well is Betsy's goal.

In the preceding sentence, *to sew well* isn't a description. It's an activity that is Betsy's goal. In other words, *to sew well* is the subject in this sentence. How do you tell the difference between a subject and a description? A subject pairs with a verb (*is* in the example sentence) and answers the questions *who? or what?* (For help finding the subject of a sentence, turn to Chapter 4.) A description is an add-on, contributing more information about something else in the sentence.

Which sentence is correct?

A. To enjoy a good cup of coffee, a clean coffee pot is essential.

B. A clean coffeepot is essential to enjoy a good cup of coffee.

Answer. Neither A nor B is correct. (I threw in one of those annoying teacher tricks just to keep you alert.) Neither sentence has a coffee drinker in it. So who's enjoying the coffee? No one. A true correction must add a person:

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To enjoy a good cup of coffee, *you* start with a clean coffeepot.

To enjoy a good cup of coffee, caffeine *addicts* start with a clean coffeepot.

To enjoy a good cup of coffee, *Anna* starts with a clean coffeepot.

To enjoy a good cup of coffee, start with a clean coffeepot. (Now *you* [understood in this command sentence] are the coffee drinker.)

One more round: Which sentence is correct?

A. To enjoy his morning coffee was Malachy's greatest pleasure.

B. To enjoy his morning coffee, Malachy got up an hour earlier than his annoying little brother.

Answer. Both A and B are correct. (I couldn't resist another teacher trick. Sorry.) In Sentence A, *To enjoy his morning coffee* is the subject of the verb *was.* (What *was? To enjoy his morning coffee was.)* In Sentence B, the infinitive isn't dangling. *Malachy* is the person who *got up* early.

Avoiding Confusing Descriptions

Location, location, location! That's what real estate agents say matters, and it's also what grammarians declare. In this section, I examine the hot spot located between two actions. A descriptive word there may confuse your reader. Take a look at the following example:

The teacher that Roger annoyed often assigned detention to him.

What does the sentence mean? Did Roger *often annoy* the teacher? (I'm a teacher, and Roger would certainly annoy me. His burps alone . . . but back to grammar.) Perhaps the teacher *often assigned* detention to Roger. (Yup. Sounds like something Roger's teacher would do.)

Do you see the problem with the sample sentence? It has two distinct, possible meanings. Because *often* is between *annoying* and *assigning*, it may be linked to either of those two actions. The sentence violates a basic rule of description: All descriptions must be clear. You should never place a description where it may have two possible meanings.

How do you fix the sentence? You move *often* so that it is closer to one of the verbs, thus showing the reader which of two words *only* describes. Here are two correct versions, each with a different meaning:

The teacher that Roger often annoyed assigned detention to him.

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In this sentence *often* is closer to *annoyed.* Thus, *often* describes *annoyed.* The sentence communicates to the reader that after 514 burps, the teacher finally flipped and assigned detention to Roger.

Here's a second possibility:

> The teacher that Roger annoyed assigned detention to him often.

Now *often* is closer to *assigned.* The reader understands that *often* describes *assigned.* The sentence tells the reader that the teacher vowed "not to take anything from that little brat" and assigned detention to Roger every day of the school year, including winter break and Presidents' Day.

Correct or incorrect? You decide.

> The pig chewing on pig chow happily burped and made us all run for gas masks.

Answer: Incorrect. You don't know if the pig is *chewing happily* or *burping happily.* Here's how to correct the sentence:

> The pig chewing happily on pig chow burped and made us all run for gas masks.

or

> The pig chewing on pig chow burped happily and made us all run for gas masks.

One other correction is possible here: the addition of a set of commas. If you set off the description with commas, the reader connects the description to the right verb. Therefore, these two sentences are also okay:

> The pig, chewing on pig chow happily, burped and made us all run for gas masks.

> The pig, chewing on pig chow, happily burped and made us all run for gas masks.

I have to warn you about the comma-correction. You can't always throw in a comma and fix a problem. In fact, sometimes you create an addition mistake by adding a comma! Check out Chapter 13 for comma advice, or fix the sentence by moving the description.

You may be tempted to fix a description by tucking it inside an infinitive:

> Betsy's song is strange enough to *intensely* captivate creative musicians.

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Technically, you shouldn't split an infinitive (to + verb — *to captivate* in this sentence).

Right: to captivate intensely

Wrong: to intensely captivate

This rule is often ignored and probably on the way out of the grammar rule books. But if you're writing for a super-strict reader, be careful of split infinitives.

The most commonly misplaced descriptions are single words: *only, just, almost,* and *even.* See Chapter 7 for a complete explanation of how to place these descriptive words correctly.

Finding the Subject When Words Are Missing from the Sentence

In the never-ending human quest to save time, words are often chopped out of sentences, especially sentences texted while you're sipping a half-caf, nonfat latte and running for a bus. (Bad idea on so many levels, by the way, as I explained to the lady who splashed me with her latte recently.) The assumption is that the sentence is still understandable because the listener or reader supplies the missing piece. Not a bad assumption, as long as you understand what you can chop and what you need to leave alone. Check out these examples:

While sleeping, Johann dreamed that he was a giant cappuccino.

Although screaming in rage, Lola managed to keep an eye on the clock.

If caught, Roger will probably deny everything.

Lulu snored when dreaming of little sheep.

Do you understand what these sentences mean? Here they are again, with the missing words inserted and italicized:

While *he was* sleeping, Johann dreamed that he was a giant cappuccino.

Although *she was* screaming in rage, Lola managed to keep an eye on the clock.

If *he is* caught, Roger will probably deny everything.

Lulu snored when *she was* dreaming of little sheep.

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As you see, the subject and part of the verb are missing in each of the sample sentences. The reader fills in both.

You need to remember only one rule for these sentences: The missing subject must be the same as the subject that is present. In other words, if your sentence lacks more information, the reader or listener will assume that you're talking about the same person or thing in both parts of the sentence. Here are some examples:

WRONG: While missing a shovel, the hole in Lulu's backyard was dug by a backhoe.

UNINTENDED MEANING: While the hole was missing a shovel, the hole in Lulu's backyard was dug by a backhoe.

CORRECTION: While missing a shovel, Lulu rented a backhoe to dig a hole in her backyard.

MEANING OF CORRECTED SENTENCE: While she was missing a shovel, Lulu rented a backhoe to dig a hole in her backyard.

ADDITIONAL UNINTENDED EFFECT: Lulu, not knowing how to drive a backhoe, hit a power line and brought down the entire electrical system of the Northeast.

WRONG: When showering, Roger's beauty routine requires industrial-strength cleaning products.

UNINTENDED MEANING: When Roger's beauty routine is showering, the beauty routine requires industrial-strength cleaning products.

CORRECTION: When showering, Roger requires industrial-strength cleaning products.

MEANING OF CORRECTED SENTENCE: For each of his twice-yearly showers, Roger has to apply the kind of glop that removes rust from old battleships.

ADDITIONAL UNINTENDED EFFECT: Roger's bathtub is on the Environmental Protection Agency's list of toxic waste sites.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Since conducting the leak test, Dripless's pipe has been watertight.

B. Since conducting the leak test, Dripless reported that the pipe was watertight.

C. Since he conducted the leak test, Dripless's pipe has been watertight.

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Not boring, but often wrong

If you go on trial for breaking a picture window, you want a *disinterested* jury, but not an *uninterested* lawyer. Why? Because *disinterested* means fair, unprejudiced. *Uninterested* means wake me up when it's over because I really don't care. Don't confuse these two descriptions! Here's an example:

WRONG: Lulu tried to catch Roger's attention, but he was *disinterested* in what she had to say.

WHY IT'S WRONG: Roger is never fair, but he is quite self-centered. In this sentence, the writer intends to show that Roger is ignoring Lulu.

RIGHT: Lulu tried to catch Roger's attention, but he was *uninterested* in what she had to say.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: Now Roger is bored, his usual state when he is not looking into the mirror, contemplating his own wonderfulness.

One more round:

WRONG: The *uninterested* executive made a decision based solely on the facts, not because of any special relationship with the seller, who happened to be her mother-in-law.

WHY IT'S WRONG: If the executive is *uninterested*, she won't make a decision at all. She'll be playing golf with all the other executives who can't summon up any curiosity about their own companies.

RIGHT: The *disinterested* executive made a decision based solely on the facts, not because of any special relationship with the seller, who happened to be her mother-in-law.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: Now the executive is fair, deciding the issue on its own merits, not on the fact that her mother-in-law will never speak to her again during Sunday dinner if the sale doesn't go through.

Answer: Sentences B and C are both correct. The missing subject in sentences A and B is *Dripless.* In sentence A, *Dripless's pipe* is the subject of the second part of the sentence, so there is a mismatch between the two parts of the sentence. In sentence B, *Dripless* is the subject of the second part of the sentence. The two halves of the sentence match. In sentence C, a subject *(he)* is supplied, so the two halves of the sentences don't have to have the same subject.

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Chapter 20

Good, Better, Best: Comparisons

In This Chapter

- Adding *-er* and *-est* to descriptions
- Using *more/less* and *most/least* correctly
- Understanding some irregular comparisons
- Identifying words that can't be compared
- Avoiding illogical comparisons
- Writing double comparisons correctly

Is your knowledge of comparisons *more better* or *less worse*? If you chose one of those two alternatives, this chapter is for you because *more better* and *less worse* are both incorrect. English has two ways of creating comparisons, but you can't use them together and they're not interchangeable. In this chapter, I show you how to tell the difference between the two types of comparisons, how to use each correctly, and how to avoid some of the common errors of comparisons. I don't, however, tell you which comparisons to avoid altogether, such as *Which stock is a better buy?* and *Am I a better dancer than your last date?* You have to figure out those dilemmas yourself.

Ending It with -Er or Giving It More

Take a close look at the comparisons in these sentences:

> Roger's smile is *more evil* than Michael's, but Michael's giggle sounds *cuter*.
>
> Eggworthy searched for the *least efficient* sports utility vehicle, believing that global warming is *less important* than having the *raciest* image in the parking lot.
>
> Betsy's *most recent* symphony was *less successful* than her *earlier* composition.

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Anna's *older* sister is an even *greater* mathematician than Anna herself, though Anna has the edge in geometry.

Lulu's *latest* tattoo is *grosser* than her first, but Lulu, not the *shyest* girl in the class, is looking for the *most extreme* design for her next effort.

What did you notice about the comparisons in the preceding sample sentences? Here's the stripped-down list: *more evil, cuter, least efficient, less important, raciest, most recent, less successful, earlier, older, greater, grosser, latest, shyest, most extreme.*

Some of the comparisons were expressed by adding *-er* or *-est,* and some were expressed by adding *more, most, less,* or *least* to the quality that's being compared. How do you know which is appropriate? (Or, to use a comparison, how do you know which is *better?*) The dictionary is the final authority, and you should consult one if you're in doubt about a particular word. However, there are some general guidelines:

- Add *-er* and *-est* to most single-syllable words.
- If the word already ends in the letter *e,* don't double the *e* by adding *-er* or *-est.* Just add *-r* or *-st.*
- *-Er* and *-est* endings are not usually appropriate for words ending in *-ly.*

The dictionary is your friend

You can learn a lot about a word from the dictionary, whether you check an Internet site or lug a ten-pound volume off a shelf. The average dictionary entry tells you

- The part of speech
- The pronunciation
- The definitions of the word, listed in order of importance
- Some common expressions using the word
- Other forms of the word
- Something about the history of the word — its earlier forms or its linguistic ancestors
- A ruling on whether the word is acceptable in formal English

Because dictionaries were a paper-only form for centuries, dictionary publishers favored a set of abbreviations that packed maximum information into minimal space. Most of those abbreviations have migrated to electronic media, even though the Internet allows a little more elbow room. Therefore, reading a dictionary entry may resemble a trip to a foreign country — one where everyone else seems to know the language and customs and is happy to leave you out of the picture.

Let me put you in the picture. Here's a very special dictionary entry, with the parts decoded for the average reader. (By the way, don't look for this word in a real dictionary; I made it up.) Just match the letters in the dictionary entry with the explanations below.

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A. chukblok B. (chuck–blahk) **C.** n. **D.** *pl.* chukbloks. **E.** 1. The state currency of Larencia. 2. The national bank of Larencia. 3. In economics, a very high protective tariff: a *chukblok* against imported bananas. **F.** 4. *Informal* extremely rich person: he's a walking *chukblok.* **G.** 5. *obs.* A coin made of chewing gum. **H.** – *adj.* 1. rich: She put a *chukblok* icing on that cake. 2. illegal: The *chukblok* plan was bound to backfire. **I.** [<O.L. *chublah*<ML. chubare a coin.] **J. Syn**. n. coins, money, moolah, spending green. *adj.* well-heeled, well-off, illicit. **K.** – **to see chukbloks in the trees** *Slang.* To assume that one is about to get rich. – **to flip one's chukblok** *Informal.* To bet all of one's money on the throw of the dice.

Here are the letter identifications:

A. The word.

B. The pronunciation. The symbols here are a little confusing, but most dictionaries provide a key in the front of the book or somewhere on the web site. The key explains the pronunciation symbols by showing you the same sound in some easily recognizable words.

C. The part of speech.

D. The abbreviation *pl.* means *plural,* and this part of the entry tells you how to form the plural of this word.

E. The definitions. The most commonly used definitions are first.

F. *Informal* tells you that you shouldn't use that particular meaning in formal writing. If the word isn't labeled, it's acceptable in formal writing.

G. *Obs.* means "obsolete" and tells you that a meaning is no longer used.

H. Another part of speech. The *adj.* abbreviation tells you that you can also use *chukblok* as an adjective, in addition to using it as a noun. The meanings listed after *adj.* explain what the word means when it is used as an adjective. Again, the definitions are in order from the most common meaning to the rarest.

I. These symbols tell you the family tree of the word *chukblok.* The abbreviation *O.L.* refers to *Old Larencian,* a language that I made up. *ML.* is an abbreviation; it refers to *Middle Larencian,* another language that I made up. In the brackets, you learn that you can trace the history of *chukblok* to the Old Larencian word *chublah,* which in turn may be traced to a Middle Larencian word *chubare,* meaning *coin.*

J. Another abbreviation. *Syn.* means *synonym.* Following this symbol are words that mean the same as the noun and adjective versions of *chukblok.*

K. The meaning of common expressions with the word *chukblok.* One is slang and the other informal; neither is acceptable in formal writing.

Table 20-1 is a chart of some common descriptions of Lola, with both the *-er* and *-est* forms. Note: To understand Lola's personality, you need to know to what (or to whom) she's being compared, so I include a few clues.

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Table 20-1 Common Descriptions

Description of Lola	-ER *form*	-EST *form*
able	abler than Lulu	ablest of all the budding scientists in her atom-splitting class
bald	balder than an eagle	baldest of the models
cute	cuter than an elf	cutest of all the assassins
dumb	dumber than a sea slug	dumbest of the congressional candidates
edgy	edgier than caffeine	edgiest of the atom splitters
friendly	friendlier than a grizzly bear	friendliest person on the block
glad	gladder than the loser	gladdest of all the lottery winners
heavy	heavier than a "before" ad for a diet book	heaviest of all the sumo wrestlers
itchy	itchier than she was before she sat in poison ivy	itchiest of all the patients in the skin clinic

Notice that when the last letter is *y,* you must often change the *y* to *i* before you tack on the ending.

Table 20-2 contains even more descriptions of Lola, this time with *more, less, most,* and *least* added:

Table 20-2 Two-word Descriptions

Description of Lola	More/Less *form*	Most/Least *form*
(Lola runs) jerkily	more jerkily than the old horse	most jerkily of all the racers
knock-kneed	less knock-kneed than an old sailor	least knock-kneed of all the beauty pageant contestants
lily-livered	less lily-livered than the saloon owner in an old movie	least lily-livered of all the florists
magnificent	more magnificent than a work of art	most magnificent of all the ninjas

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Description of Lola	More/Less *form*	Most/Least *form*
notorious	more notorious than a princess	most notorious of the florists
oafish	less oafish than the young prince	least oafish of all the cab drivers
prune-faced	less prune-faced than her teacher	least prune-faced of the grammar students
queenly	more queenly than Queen Elizabeth	most queenly of all the models
rigid	less rigid than a grammarian	least rigid of the traffic cops

These two tables give you a clue about another important comparison characteristic. Did you notice that the second column is always a comparison between Lola and *one other* person or thing? The addition of *-er* or *more* or *less* compares two things. In the last column of each chart, Lola is compared to a group with more than two members. When the group is larger than two, *-est* or *most* or *least* creates the comparison and identifies the extreme.

To sum up the rules:

- Use *-er* or *more/less* when comparing only two things.
- Use *-est* or *most/least* when singling out the extreme in a group that is larger than two.
- Never combine two comparison methods, such as *-er* and *more.*

For the grammar fan: The *-er* or *less/more* form of comparison is called *comparative* and the *-est* or *least/most* form of comparison is called *superlative.*

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lola, fresh from drinking a cup of cream, was the more cheerful of all her friends in the dairy bar.

B. Lola, fresh from drinking a cup of cream, was the most cheerful of all her friends in the dairy bar.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The sentence singles out Lola as the extreme in a group (Lola's usual position), so you need *most* here, not *more.*

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. Eggworthy's design for a new carton is simpler than the one his competitor hatched.

B. Eggworthy's design for a new carton is more simpler than the one his competitor hatched.

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Answer: Sentence A is correct. Never combine two forms of comparison. Sentence B hits the penalty box because it combines the *-er* form with the word *more.*

Last one. Which sentence is correct?

A. Of all the cars in the parking lot, Eggworthy's is the newer.

B. Of all the cars in the parking lot, Eggworthy's is the newest.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Eggworthy's car is compared to more than one other car.

Breaking the Rules: Irregular Comparisons

Whenever English grammar gives you a set of rules that make sense, you know it's time for the irregulars to show up. Not surprisingly, then, you have to create a few common comparisons without *-er, -est, more/less,* or *most/least* — the regular comparisons I explain in the preceding section.

Good, bad, well

I think of these as the "report card" comparisons because they evaluate quality. The first word of each line provides a description. The second word shows you that description when two elements are beings compared. The last word is for comparisons of three or more.

- Good, better, best
- Bad, worse, worst
- Well, better, best

Time to visit *good*, *bad*, and *well* when they're on the job:

Although Michael's trumpet solo is *good* and Roger's is *better,* Lulu's trumpet solo is the *best* of all.

Lulu's habit of picking at her tattoo is *bad,* but Ralph's constant sneezing is *worse.* Eggworthy's tendency to crack jokes is the *worst* habit of all.

Lola sings *well* in the shower, but Max sings *better* in the bathtub. Ralph croons *best* in the hot tub.

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What's the difference between *good* and *well*? *Good* is an adjective and describes nouns (people, places, things, ideas). *Well* is an adverb and describes verbs (actions or states of being), except when you're talking about health. For more information on *good* and *well*, check out Chapter 7.

Answer this question in correct English (and then correct the question itself).

> Who's the baddest kid in the playground?

Answer: The *worst* (not *baddest*) kid in the playground is Roger, unless Lola is in one of her moods. The correct question is *Who's the worst kid in the playground?*

Here's another:

> Who plays more better blues?

Answer: No one. Use *more* or *better,* but not both, to make the comparison. Other ways to word the question include:

> Who plays better blues — Michael or Lulu?
>
> Who plays the best blues?
>
> Who plays the blues best?
>
> Of the two saxophonists, who plays better blues?

Last one. Which sentence is correct?

A. Michael says that he is feeling worse today than yesterday, but his statement must be considered in light of the fact that today is the algebra final.

B. Michael says that he is feeling more bad today than yesterday, but his statement must be considered in light of the fact that today is the algebra final.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. *More bad* is incorrect; use *worse.*

Little, many, much

These are the measuring comparisons, words that tell you about quantity. The first word on each line is the description, the second creates comparisons between two elements, and the last word applies to comparisons of three-plus elements.

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- Little, less, least
- Many, more, most
- Much, more, most

Check out these words in action (actually, in sentences, but you know what I mean):

> Lulu likes a *little* grape jelly on her pizza, but Eggworthy prefers *less* exotic toppings. Of all his creations, Lulu likes chocolate pizza *least*.
>
> Roger spies on *many* occasions, but he seldom uncovers *more* secrets than his brother Al. Lola is the *most* successful spy of all.
>
> Anna has *much* interest in mathematics, though she's *more* devoted to her trumpet lessons. Of all the musical mathematicians I know, Anna is the *most* likely to succeed in both careers.

Many or *much*? How do you decide which word is needed? Easy. *Many* precedes plurals of countable elements(*many crickets or shoes*, for example) and *much* precedes words that express qualities that may not be counted, though these qualities may sometimes be measured (*much noise or sugar*, for instance).

Which sentence is correct?

A. Anna and Michael studied together for the algebra final, but Michael is the least prepared.

B. Anna and Michael studied together for the algebra final, but Michael is less prepared.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *Less* is the word you want when comparing two elements. Because you're comparing only Anna and Michael, *less* triumphs over *least*, which is a good word when you're comparing Anna, Michael, Lola, and the rest of the study group — in other words, three or more elements.

Never More Perfect: Using Words That You Can't Compare

Is this chapter more unique than the previous chapter? No, definitely not. Why? Because nothing is *more unique.* The word *unique* means "one of a kind." Either something is one of a kind, or it's not. Yes or no, true or false, one or zero (when you're speaking in computer code). No halfway point, no degrees of uniqueness, no . . . well, you get the idea. You can't compare something that's unique to anything but itself. Check out the following examples:

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WRONG: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was more unique than the Grecian urn.

ALSO WRONG: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was fairly unique.

ALSO WRONG: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was almost unique.

WRONG AGAIN: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was very unique.

RIGHT: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was unique.

ALSO RIGHT: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was unique, as was the Grecian urn.

RIGHT AGAIN: The vase that Eggworthy cracked was more unusual than the Grecian urn.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: *Unusual* is not an absolute term, so you can use it in comparisons.

The word *unique* is not unique. Several other words share its absolute quality. One is *perfect.* Something is perfect or not perfect; nothing is *very perfect* or *unbelievably perfect* or *somewhat perfect.* (I am bound, as a patriotic American, to point out one exception: The United States Constitution contains a statement of purpose citing the need to create "a more perfect union.") Another absolute word is *round.* Your shape is *round* or *not round.* Your shape isn't *a bit round, rounder,* or *roundest.* Here are some examples:

WRONG: "Lola is *extremely perfect* when it comes to grammar, as I am," said Lulu.

WHY IT'S WRONG: *Perfect* is absolute. There are no degrees of perfection.

RIGHT: "Lola is *nearly perfect* when it comes to grammar, as I am," said Lulu.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: You can approach an absolute quality, comparing how close someone or something comes to the quality. Lola and Lulu approach perfection, but neither achieves it.

ALSO RIGHT: "Lola is *perfect* when it comes to grammar, as I am," said Lulu.

WHY THEY'RE RIGHT: You may approach *perfect,* as in *nearly perfect.* You may also be *perfect,* without any qualifiers.

WRONG: Of the two circles drawn on the chalkboard, mine is rounder.

WHY IT'S WRONG: The shape is round or it's not round. It can't be *rounder.* Also, by definition circles are *round.*

RIGHT: Of the two *shapes* drawn on the chalkboard, mine is *more nearly round.*

RIGHT AGAIN: Neither of the two shapes drawn on the chalkboard is *round,* but mine approaches *roundness.*

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As some of the "RIGHT" sentences in the preceding examples illustrate, you can't compare absolute qualities, but you can compare how close people or things come to having those qualities. Look at these examples:

> Lola thinks that her latest nose ring is an *almost perfect* accessory.
>
> Ralph's new hooked rug is *more nearly circular* than his previous effort.
>
> Lulu's style of relaxation *approaches uniqueness.*

One more word causes all sorts of trouble in comparisons: *equally.* You hear the expression *equally as* quite frequently. You don't need the *as* because the word *equally* contains the idea of comparison. For example:

> WRONG: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is *equally as* guilty because he stole as many doughnuts as she did.
>
> RIGHT: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is *equally* guilty because he stole as many doughnuts as she did.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is as guilty as she is because he stole the same number of doughnuts.

Find the correct sentence(s).

A. Michael's recent drama is even more unique than his last play.

B. Michael's recent drama is even more unusual than his last play.

C. Michael's recent drama is unique, as was his last play.

Answer: Sentences B and C are correct. Sentence A incorrectly compares an absolute *(unique).* In sentence B *more unusual* expresses a correct comparison. Sentence C tells you that Michael's recent drama is unique and that his last play was also unique. The absolute is not being compared but simply applied to two different things.

Which is correct?

A. Anna's last chess move, when compared to the grandmaster's, is equally mistaken.

B. Anna's last chess move, when compared to the grandmaster's, is equally as mistaken.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. Do not say *equally as* because the word *equally* expresses the concept of comparison.

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Leaving Your Audience in Suspense: Incomplete Comparisons

What's wrong with this sentence?

> Octavia screamed more chillingly.

Maybe these hints will help:

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. Uh oh, thought Max, yesterday I thought she would burst my eardrum. If she screamed more chillingly today, I'd better get my earplugs out before it's time for tomorrow's lungfest.

or

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. Max, rushing to aid Carmen, whose scream of terror had turned his blood to ice, stopped dead. Octavia sounds even worse, he thought. I'd better go to her first.

or

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. "Please," said the director, "I know that you have just completed take 99 of this extremely taxing verbal exercise, but if you are going to star in my horror movie, you'll have to put a little more into it. Try again!"

Now the problem is clear. The comparison in the examples is incomplete. Octavia screamed more chillingly than … than what? Until you finish the sentence, your readers are left with as many possibilities as they can imagine. Bottom line: Don't stop explaining your comparison until you get your point across. Look at the following example:

> WRONG: Octavia screamed more chillingly.
>
> RIGHT: Octavia screamed more chillingly than I did the day Lulu drove a truck over my toe.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Octavia screamed more chillingly than she ever had before, and Max resolved to come to her aid as soon as he had finished all five courses of his lunch.
>
> RIGHT AGAIN: Octavia screamed more chillingly than she had in the previous takes, but the director still decided to hire a different actress.

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Here's another comparison with a fatal error. Can you spot the problem?

> Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola.

Need another hint? Read on:

> Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola. Lola sobbed uncontrollably as she realized that Lulu, whom she had always considered her best friend, was on the way to the airport instead of on the way to Lola's party. What a disappointment!

or

> Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola. Lola was fine for the first 409 jumps, but then her enthusiasm began to flag. Lulu, on the other hand, was climbing into the airplane eagerly, as if it were her first jump of the day and as if the rattle snake had not crawled into her parachute on the last landing.

See the problem? *Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola* is incomplete. Your reader can understand the comparison in two different ways, as the two stories illustrate. The rule here is simple: Don't omit words that are necessary to the meaning of the comparison.

> WRONG: Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola.
>
> RIGHT: Lulu loved sky-diving more than she loved Lola.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Lulu loved sky-diving more than Lola did.

One more time. What's the problem now?

> "My life is the best," explained Ralph.

This one is so easy that you don't need stories. *Best* how? In money, fame, love, health, lack of body odor, winning lottery tickets, access to boy-band concerts? Ralph's friends may understand his statement, but no one else will.

Remember: In making a comparison, be clear and complete.

Are you *so* tired of comparisons *that* you're ready to send this chapter to the shredder? Well, hang on a little longer as I explain the word *so.* Technically, *so* should be part of a pair — a comparison created with *so* and *that.* Lots of people use *so* alone as an expression of intensity:

> Lulu's last sky dive was so spectacular.

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The preceding sentence is fine in conversational English. In formal English, however, *so* shouldn't be alone. Finish the comparison, as in this sentence:

> Lulu's last sky dive was so spectacular that the pilot begged her to fly away with him.

Which sentence is correct?

A. My cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly.

B. My cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly than Dorothy.

Answer: Both are wrong. (Sorry! Trick question.) The meaning is unclear in both A and B. In sentence A, the reader is left asking *more quickly than what?* In sentence B, the sentence may mean *my cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly than she slapped Dorothy* or *my cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly than Dorothy slapped the cat's tail.* Neither comparison is complete.

Try another. Which sentence is correct?

A. Betsy played that piano concerto as emotionally as Michael did, but with fewer mistakes.

B. Betsy played that piano concerto just as emotionally, despite the fact that she has no real feeling for "The Homework Blues #3."

Answer: Sentence A is correct. In sentence B, the reader wonders about the basis of comparison for the emotions of Betsy's playing. Did she play the concerto *as emotionally as the other works on her program, such as "The Falling Piano Concerto"?* Or did she play the concerto *as emotionally as Roger, who has less technical skill but a deep-seated hatred of homework.* Sentence A expresses the basis of comparison.

Joe DiMaggio Played Better Than Any Baseball Player: Illogical Comparisons

Before I start, here's an explanation of the heading for those of you who (gasp of pity here) don't like baseball. Joe DiMaggio was a baseball player. Actually, a great baseball player — one of the best, and a New York Yankee. So what's wrong with the title sentence? It takes (gasp of astonishment) Joltin' Joe out of the group of baseball players. It makes him (swoon of sorrow) a *non*-baseball player. To keep Joltin' Joe in the sport, add *other:*

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WRONG: Joe DiMaggio played better than any baseball player.

RIGHT: Joe DiMaggio played better than any other baseball player.

ALSO RIGHT: The Yankees rule! (Sorry, can't help myself. I'm a fan.)

The rule for comparisons here is very simple: Use the word *other* or *else* when comparing someone or something to other members of the same group. Check out the following examples:

WRONG: The star soprano of the Santa Lola Opera, Sarah Screema, sings louder than anyone in the cast.

WHY IT'S WRONG: The sentence makes it clear that Sarah is in the cast, but the comparison implies that she's not in the cast. Illogical!

RIGHT: The star soprano of the Santa Lola Opera, Sarah Screema, sings louder than anyone *else* in the cast.

WRONG: That robot short-circuits more frequently than any mechanical device.

WHY IT'SWRONG: A robot is, by definition, a mechanical device, but the comparison takes the robot out of the group of mechanical devices.

RIGHT: That robot short-circuits more frequently than any *other* mechanical device.

Here's another problem. Can you find it?

Max's nose is longer than Michael.

Okay, before you say anything, I should mention that Michael is tall — not skyscraper tall, but at least six-two. Now do you see what's wrong with the sentence? Max's nose, a real tourist attraction for its length *and* width (not including the pimple at the end) is about four inches long. It is *not* longer than Michael. It is longer than Michael's *nose.*

WRONG: Max's nose is longer than Michael.

RIGHT: Max's nose is longer than Michael's nose.

ALSO RIGHT: Max's nose is longer than Michael's.

One more example:

Al's toe ring is as wide as Denny.

I don't think so. Denny is a fairly trim fellow, but even so his waist measures 33 inches. If Al wore a toe ring that wide, no shoes would fit and walking would be a real adventure. Thus

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WRONG: Al's toe ring is as wide as Denny.

RIGHT: Al's toe ring is as wide as Denny's toe ring.

ALSO RIGHT: Al's toe ring is as wide as Denny's.

Here's the bottom line:

- Make sure your comparisons are logical.
- Check to see that you have compared what you want to compare — two things that are at least remotely related.
- If the first part of the comparison involves a possessive noun or pronoun (showing ownership), the second part of the comparison probably needs a possessive also. For more information on possessive nouns, see Chapter 11. For more information on possessive pronouns, see Chapter 17.

Which is more difficult, the SAT Writing section or the ACT English section? I don't know. I do know that both test you on the material covered in this section.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The pug is cuter than any breed of dog.

B. The pug is cuter than any other breed of dog.

Answer: Sentence B is correct, at least in terms of grammar. (Please feel free to cross out "pug" and substitute your favorite dog breed.) By definition, a pug is a dog, and sentence A implies that pugs aren't. The word *other* in sentence B returns pugs to dogdom.

Getting Two for the Price of One: Double Comparisons

No one will misunderstand you if you break this rule, but grammarians everywhere will hunt you down and tsk-tsk you into outer space: When you're making two comparisons at the same time, finish the first one before you begin the second. In other words, don't say,

Dimwit is as dumb, if not dumber than Elvin.

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In the previous sentence, you're really trying to say two different things:

1. Dimwit is as dumb as Elvin.
2. Dimwit may be dumber than Elvin.

First of all, and completely apart from grammar, you ought to make a decision. As dumb as? Dumber than? Don't leave your reader in suspense. Take the plunge and express your real opinion. Grammatically, you may sit on the fence, but only if you finish the first comparison before going on to number two. Here's how you finish:

Dimwit is as dumb as Elvin, if not dumber.

What a difference an *as* makes! Now the sentence is complete after the word *Elvin,* so the *if* statement is an add-on, as it should be. In the incorrect version, you're missing an *as.* (I did warn you that only grammarians would care, remember?)

Which sentence is correct?

A. The winner of this year's "Prettiest Dog Contest" is as pretty as, if not prettier than, last year's champion.

B. The winner of this year's "Prettiest Dog Contest" is as pretty, or even prettier, than last year's champion.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. Sentence B has an incomplete comparison, *as pretty.* The complete comparison is *as pretty as*, which you find in sentence A.

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Chapter 21

Parallels Without the Lines

In This Chapter

- Constructing parallel sentences
- Being consistent in form, tense, and voice
- Using pairs of conjunctions correctly
- Keeping comparisons parallel

In art class, you draw parallels. In math class, you plot them on a graph. In grammar, you create parallel constructions. When I say parallel constructions, I'm not talking about lines that look like train tracks. I'm talking about the need for balance in speech and writing, the need to create sentences that aren't lopsided. I'm talking about the reason Hamlet says, "To be or not to be" instead of "Being or not to be." In this chapter, I show you how to avoid several everyday errors of parallelism, or what the hard-hatted grammarian calls *faulty construction.*

If you're of test-taking age, be aware that parallelism plays a starring role in the SAT, but is less important on the ACT. Why? I have no idea. Maybe one of the SAT-writers was mugged by an unparallel sentence during childhood.

Constructing Balanced Sentences

Can you spot the problem in this sentence?

> Larry wanted with all his heart to find a bride who was smart, beautiful, and had millions of chukbloks, the currency of his native land.

Not counting Larry's matrimonial ideas, the sentence has another problem: It's not parallel. Concentrate on the part of the sentence following the word *was.* Larry's dream bride needed these characteristics:

- Smart
- Beautiful
- Had millions of chukbloks

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Do you see that these three descriptions don't match? The first two are adjectives. The third consists of a verb *(had)* and an object *(millions of chukbloks).* (For more information on adjectives, see Chapter 7. For more information on verbs and objects, see Chapters 2 and 6.) But all three descriptions are doing the same job in the sentence — describing Larry's dream bride. Because they're doing the same job, they should match, at least in the grammatical sense. Here's one revised list:

- Smart
- Beautiful
- Rich in chukbloks
- Nearsighted (I added this one because I've actually seen Larry.)

And here's another:

- Intelligence
- Beauty
- Millions of chukbloks
- Bad eyesight

Both lists are fine. In the first set, all the characteristics of Larry's bride are adjectives. In the second set, all the characteristics are nouns. You can use either list. Just don't take some elements from one and some from another. Here are the revised sentences:

> Larry wanted with all his heart to find a bride who was smart, beautiful, nearsighted, and rich in chukbloks, the currency of his native land.
>
> Larry wanted with all his heart to find a bride with intelligence, beauty, bad eyesight, and millions of chukbloks, the currency of his native land.

Parallelism is especially important when you're making a presentation or a bulleted list. If one item is a complete sentence, all the items should be. If you're listing nouns, make sure every item is a noun. For more on bulleted lists, see Chapter 16. Check out this presentation slide. See if you can spot the error.

This year's goals for employees of Kubla Khan, Inc. include the following:

- To visit the stately dome
- Rafting the sacred river Alph
- Locating a competent dulcimer-player

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Uh oh. One item doesn't match: *To visit the stately dome.* In case you care, here's how the list appears to a grammarian: *to visit* is an infinitive, but the next two items in the list, *rafting* and *locating*, are gerunds. Though gerunds and infinitives are both *verbals* — forms of a verb that don't function as verbs in the sentence — you can't mix and match them freely. Here are three possible corrections for the list:

- Visiting the stately dome
- Rafting the sacred river Alph
- Locating a competent dulcimer-player

or

- To visit the stately dome
- To go rafting on the sacred river Alph
- To locate a competent dulcimer-player

or

- Full-time workers must visit the stately dome.
- Executives are expected to go rafting on the sacred river Alph.
- The first employee to locate a competent dulcimer-player will receive a bonus.

Whenever you're writing a presentation slide or a sentence with more than one subject, object, or verb, make a list and check it twice, whether or not you believe in Santa Claus. Everything doing the same job must match grammatically.

Check out these additional examples:

NOT PARALLEL: Anna said that whenever anything went wrong, whenever someone let us down, or in case of disaster, she would "feel our pain."

WHAT'S WRONG: The three things that Anna said are not parallel. Two have subject–verb combinations *(anything went, someone let),* and one *(in case of disaster)* does not.

PARALLEL: Anna said that whenever anything went wrong, whenever someone let us down, or whenever disaster struck, she would "feel our pain."

WHY IT'S PARALLEL: Now the three things that Anna said are all subject–verb combinations.

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ALSO PARALLEL: Anna said that in the event of mistakes, disloyalty, or disaster, she would "feel our pain."

WHY IT'S PARALLEL: Now the things that Anna said are all expressed as nouns: *mistakes, disloyalty, disaster.*

Another set for you to read:

NOT PARALLEL: Eggworthy, a gourmet cook and renowned for his no-cholesterol omelets, thinks that French cooking is "overrated."

WHAT'S WRONG: The *and* joins two descriptions of Eggworthy. One is a noun (*cook*) and one is a descriptive verb form (*renowned for his no-cholesterol omelets*).

PARALLEL: Eggworthy, a gourmet cook renowned for his no-cholesterol omelets, thinks that French cooking is "overrated."

WHY IT'S PARALLEL: When you remove the *and,* the problem is solved. Now the descriptive verb form (*renowned*) describes the noun (*cook*).

Identify the correct sentence(s).

A. Larry found the honeymoon suite restful, exotic, tasteful, and in the less-populated section of his kingdom.

B. Larry found the honeymoon suite restful, exotic, and tasteful. It was located in the less-populated section of his kingdom.

C. Larry found the honeymoon suite restful, exotic, tasteful, and remote.

Answer: Sentences B and C are correct. If you list the qualities of Larry's honeymoon suite as expressed in sentence A, you have

- Restful
- Exotic
- Tasteful
- In the less-populated section of his kingdom

The first three are adjectives, but the last is a prepositional phrase. (For more information about prepositional phrases, see Chapter 8.) Because they don't match, the sentence is not parallel. In sentence B, the three adjectives are alone in one sentence. The prepositional phrase is in its very own sentence. Sentence C expresses all the characteristics of Larry's honeymoon suite as adjectives.

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To avoid parallelism errors, you don't have to know the correct grammatical terms. Just use your common sense and listen. A parallel sentence has balance. A non-parallel sentence doesn't.

Shifting Grammar into Gear: Avoiding Stalled Sentences

If you've ever ridden in a car with a stick shift, you know that smooth transitions are rare (at least when I'm driving). If something is just a little off, the car bucks like a mule. The same thing is true in sentences. You can, at times, shift tense, voice, or person, but even the slightest mistake stalls your sentence. In this section, I explain how to avoid unnecessary shifts and how to check your sentence for consistency.

Steering clear of a tense situation

Check out this sentence with multiple verbs:

> Larry begs Ella to marry him, offers her a crown and a private room, and finally won her hand.

Now make a list of the verbs in the sentence:

- Begs
- Offers
- Won

The first two verbs are in present tense, but the third shifts into past for no valid reason. Stall! If the verbs in this sentence were gears in a stick shift, your car would conk out. All three verbs should be in present tense or all three should be in past tense. Here are the corrected versions of the sentence:

> Larry begs Ella to marry him, offers her a crown and a private room, and finally wins her hand. (All three verbs are in present tense.)

or

> Larry begged Ella to marry him, offered her a crown and a private room, and finally won her hand. (All three verbs are in past tense.)

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Sometimes in telling a story, you must shift tense because the action of the story requires a change in time. For example:

> Betsy always *practices* for at least ten hours a day, unless she *is giving* a concert. Last week she *flew* to Antarctica for a recital. When she *arrived,* the piano *was frozen.* Nevertheless, the show *went* on. Next week Betsy *will practice* twelve hours a day to make up for the time she *lost* last week.

Betsy's story has present *(practices),* present progressive *(is giving),* past *(flew, arrived, was frozen, went, lost),* and future tenses *(will practice).* Each change of tense is justified by the information in the story. (For more information on verb tense, see Chapters 3 and 18.) Here are some additional examples of justified and unjustified shifts in verb tense:

> WRONG: Max *slips* on the ice, and after obsessively checking every inch of his skull in the mirror, *decided* that he *had hurt* his head.
>
> WHY IT'S WRONG: The first verb is in present tense. The sentence shifts to past tense for no reason.
>
> RIGHT: Max *slipped* on the ice, and after obsessively checking every inch of his skull in the mirror, *decided* that he *had hurt* his head.
>
> SENTENCE THAT LOOKS WRONG BUT ISN'T: Ralph *needs* a loan because he *bet* his entire paycheck on a horse that *came* in first in the eighth race. (Unfortunately, the horse was running in the seventh race.)
>
> WHY IT LOOKS WRONG: The first verb is in present tense, and the next two are in past tense.
>
> WHY IT'S RIGHT: Both tenses are justified. The first part talks about Ralph now, explaining his present condition with a reference to the past. The shift is acceptable because the meaning of the sentence makes the shift necessary.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Eggworthy scrambled to the finish line a nano-second before the next fastest racer and then raised his arms in victory.

B. Eggworthy scrambles to the finish line a nano-second before the next fastest racer and then raises his arms in victory.

Answer: Both sentences are correct. (Don't you hate trick questions?) In sentence A, both *scrambled* and *raised* are in past tense. No shift, no problem. In sentence B, both *scrambles* and *raises* are in present tense. Again no shift, again no problem.

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Don't change tenses in a bulleted list (assuming you've got verbs there). If the bullet points mark off your summer achievements, don't mix *learned grammar* and *have more confidence.* Go for *learned grammar* and *gained confidence* or *know grammar* and *have more confidence.*

Keeping your voice steady

The voice of a verb — not baritone or soprano — is either *active* or *passive.* (For more information on voice, see Chapter 18.) Like tense, the voice of the verbs in a sentence should be consistent unless there's a good reason for a shift. I should point out that a shift in voice is not a grammar felony; think misdemeanor or maybe even parking ticket. Nevertheless, avoid unnecessary shifts if you can do so without writing yourself into a corner. Here's a sentence with an unjustified shift in voice:

> Larry *polished* the diamond engagement ring, *rechecked* the certificate of authenticity, and *was* completely *demolished* when his intended bride *said* no.

Do you see the problem? A checklist makes it obvious:

- Polished
- Rechecked
- Was demolished
- Said

The first two verbs and the last one are in active voice, but the third is in passive voice.

A number of changes can take care of the problem:

> Larry *polished* the diamond engagement ring, *rechecked* the certificate of authenticity, and *cried* like a baby when his intended bride *said* no.

or

> Larry *polished* the diamond engagement ring and *rechecked* the certificate of authenticity. His intended bride completely demolished him with her refusal.

Notice that the list of verbs in the corrected sentences are all in active voice: *polished, rechecked, cried* and *polished, rechecked, demolished.* In general, active voice is better than passive. Listen to this clunker:

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> The diamond engagement ring was polished and the certificate of authenticity was rechecked by Larry, and Larry was completely demolished when "no" was said to him by his intended bride.

Nope. I don't think so. The passive verbs create an awkward, wordy mess.

Bulleted lists containing verbs also need consistent voice. Don't switch from active to passive unnecessarily.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lulu popped the cork from the champagne, reached for the chilled glasses, and was shocked to learn that the caviar had been confiscated by customs officials.

B. Lulu popped the cork from the champagne, reached for the chilled glasses, and was shocked to learn that customs officials had confiscated the caviar.

C. Lulu popped the cork from the champagne, reached for the chilled glasses, and staggered in shock when she heard that customs officials had confiscated the caviar.

Answer: Sentence C is best because all of the verbs *(popped, reached, staggered, heard,* and *had confiscated)* are in active voice.

Knowing the right person

Ah, loyalty. One of the most celebrated virtues, in life as well as in grammar! Loyalty in grammar relates to what grammarians call *person*. In *first person,* the subject narrates the story: In other words, *I* or *we* acts as the subject of the sentence. In *second person,* the subject is being spoken to, and *you* (either singular or plural) is the subject. In *third person,* the subject is being spoken about, using *he, she, it, they,* or any other word that talks *about* someone or something.

To be grammatically loyal, don't start out talking from the point of view of one person and then switch to another point of view in a sentence, unless you have a valid reason for doing so. Here's an example of an unnecessary shift in person:

> To celebrate his marriage, Larry promised amnesty to all the bigamists currently in his jails because you need to do something spectacular on such important occasions.

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The first part of the sentence talks about *Larry*, so it's in third person. The second part of the sentence, which begins with the word *because,* shifts to *you* (second person). Making the correction is simple:

> To celebrate his marriage, *Larry* promised amnesty to all the bigamists currently in his jails because *he* needs to do something spectacular on such an important occasion.

or

> To celebrate his marriage, *Larry* promised amnesty to all the bigamists currently in his jails because *everyone* needs to do something spectacular on such important occasions.

or

> To celebrate his marriage, *Larry* promised amnesty to all the bigamists currently in his jails because a *ruler* needs to do something spectacular on such important occasions.

All three of the preceding sentences are correct. Why? In the first, *Larry* is the subject of the first part of the sentence, and *he* is the subject of the second part. No problem. In the second correction, Larry (third person) is matched with *everyone* (a third person pronoun). In the third correction example, third-person Larry is followed by *ruler,* another third-person noun.

Time for another round:

> WRONG: *I* am planning to pick up some of those coins; *you* can't pass up a chance for free money!
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: The first part of the sentence is in first person (*I*) and the second part of the sentence shifts to *you,* the second person form. Why shift?
>
> RIGHT: *I* am planning to pick up some of those coins; *I* can't pass up a chance for free money!

Make sure your sentences are consistent in person. Unless there's a logical reason to shift, follow these guidelines:

- If you begin with first person *(I* or *me),* stay in first person.
- If you begin with second person *(you),* stay in second person.
- If you begin with third person, talking *about* someone or something, make sure that you continue to talk *about* someone or something.

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Which sentence is correct?

A. Whenever a person breaks a grammar rule, you get into trouble.

B. Whenever a person breaks a grammar rule, he or she gets into trouble.

C. Whenever a person breaks a grammar rule, they get into trouble.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. *A person* matches *he or she* because both talk about someone. In sentence A, *a person* does not match *you.* Sentence A shifts from third to second person for no logical reason. Sentence C stays in third person, talking about someone, but *a person* is singular and *they* is plural — a mismatch. (For more information on singular and plural pronouns, see Chapter 9.)

Try one more. Which is correct?

A. Everybody loves somebody sometime because all you need is love.

B. Everybody loves somebody sometime because all anybody needs is love.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Sentence A shifts from third person *(everybody)* to second *(you)* with no reason other than a pathetic attempt to quote song lyrics. Sentence B stays in third person *(everybody, anybody).*

Seeing Double: Conjunction Pairs

Most joining words fly solo. Single words — *and, but, nor, or, because, although, since,* and so on — join sentences or parts of sentences. Some joining words, however, come in pairs. (In grammarspeak, joining words are called *conjunctions.* Double conjunctions are called *correlatives.* Forget these facts immediately! Just remember how to use joining words properly.) Here are some of the most frequently used pairs:

- Not only/but also
- Either/or
- Neither/nor
- Whether/or
- Both/and

Some of these words show up in sentences without their partners. No problem! Just make sure that when they do act as conjunction pairs, they behave properly. Here's the rule: Whatever fills in the blanks after these pairs of conjunctions must have the same grammatical identity. The logic here is that conjunctions have partners, and so do the things they join. You may join two nouns, two sentences, two prepositional phrases — two whatevers! Just make sure the things that you join match. Check out this example:

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Not only Larry but also his bride yearned for a day at the beach. (The conjunction pair joins two nouns, *Larry* and *his bride.*)

Either you or I must break the news about the sardine to Larry. (The conjunction pair joins two pronouns, *you* and *I.*)

Nouns and pronouns are equals when it comes to parallelism. Because pronouns take the place of nouns, you may mix them without ill effect:

Neither Ralph nor he has brought a proper present to Larry's wedding. (The conjunction pair joins a noun, *Ralph,* and a pronoun, *he.*)

Here's another example:

Both *because he stole the garter* and *because he lost the ring,* Roger is no longer welcome as best man. (This conjunction pair joins two subject–verb combinations.)

To help you spot parallelism errors in sentences with conjunction pairs, here are a few mismatches, along with their corrections:

NOT PARALLEL: Either *Lulu will go with Larry to the bachelor party* or *to the shower,* but she will not attend both.

WHY IT'S NOT PARALLEL: The first italicized section is a subject–verb combination. The second italicized section is a prepositional phrase.

PARALLEL: Lulu will go with Larry either *to the bachelor party* or *to the shower,* but she will not attend both. (Now you've got two prepositional phrases.)

NOT PARALLEL: Both *her lateness* and *that she was dressed in white leather* insulted the royal couple.

WHY IT'S NOT PARALLEL: First italicized section is a noun, but the second is a subject–verb combination.

PARALLEL BUT A LITTLE REPETITIVE: Both *the fact that she was late* and *the fact that she was dressed in white leather* insulted the royal couple. (Now the italicized sections are both subject–verb combinations.)

PARALLEL: Both *her lateness* and *her white leather clothing* insulted the royal couple. (Now the italicized sections are both nouns (with a couple of descriptions attached) — a more concise solution.)

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lulu neither needled Larry nor his bride about the fact that the bride's mother has a slight but noticeable moustache.

B. Lulu needled neither Larry nor his bride about the fact that the bride's mother has a slight but noticeable moustache.

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Answer: Sentence B is correct. In sentence A, *neither* precedes a verb *(needled)* but *nor* precedes a noun *(his bride).* In sentence B, *neither* precedes a noun *(Larry)* and so does *nor (his bride).*

Try another. Which sentence is best?

A. Both the way she danced and the way she sang convinced Michael to award Lola a starring role in Michael's new musical, *The Homework Blues.*

B. Both the way she danced and her superb singing convinced Michael to award Lola a starring role in Michael's new musical, *The Homework Blues.*

C. Both her graceful dancing and superb singing convinced Michael to award Lola a starring role in Michael's new musical, *The Homework Blues.*

Answer: Sentence C is best. Two nouns, *dancing* and *singing*, are linked by the conjunctions. True, sentence A is grammatically correct because a noun–subject–verb combination *(the way she danced, the way she sang)* follows both parts of the conjunction pair. However, sentence A is a little wordy; *the way* appears twice. In sentence B, the first half of the conjunction pair *(both)* is followed by a noun *(way)* and then a subject–verb combination *(she danced).* The second part of the conjunction pair *(and)* is followed only by a noun *(singing).*

Avoiding Improper Comparisons

The grammar police will arrive, warrant in hand, if your comparisons aren't parallel. Comparisons to watch out for include the following:

- More/than
- But not
- As well as

Comparisons with these words are tricky but not impossible. Just be sure that the elements you are comparing match grammatically. Check out these examples:

Lulu was more *conservative* than *daring* in her choice of clothes for Larry's wedding.

Even so, Larry liked *the way Lulu moved* but not *the way she looked.*

Lulu enjoyed the ceremonial *garter-toss* as well as the ritual *bouquet-bonfire.*

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The italicized words in each sentence pair off nicely. In the first sample sentence, *conservative* and *daring* are both descriptions. In the second sample sentence, *the way Lulu moved* and *the way she looked* are similar constructions — nouns described by adjective clauses, if you absolutely must know. In the third sample sentence, *garter-toss* and *bouquet-bonfire* are both nouns.

To illustrate parallel comparisons further, here are some incorrect and corrected pairs:

WRONG: Lola sang more forcefully than with the correct notes.

WHY IT'S WRONG: *forcefully* and *with the correct notes* don't match.

RIGHT: *Lola sang* more *forcefully* than *correctly.*

WHY IT'S RIGHT: The sentence compares two adverbs.

Here's another example:

WRONG: Ella assumed *that she would live in a separate castle* but not *spending every hour with Larry.*

WHY IT'S WRONG: The words *but not* join a subject–verb combination and verb form.

RIGHT: Ella assumed *that she would live in a separate castle* but not *that she would spend every hour with Larry.*

WHY IT'S RIGHT: The sentence compares two subject–verb combinations.

A question may have occurred to you: How do you know how many words of the sentence are being joined? In other words, in the preceding sample sentences, how did I figure out how much to italicize? The decision comes from the meaning of the sentence. Forget grammar for a moment and put yourself into reading comprehension mode. Decide what you're comparing based on the ideas in the sentence. Now check the two ideas being compared and go back into grammar mode. Do the ideas match grammatically? If so, you're fine. If not, reword your sentence.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Michael told Max that the ceremony was canceled but not that the couple planned to elope.

B. Michael told Max that the ceremony was canceled but not about the planned elopement.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. *That the ceremony was canceled* matches *that the couple planned to elope.* In sentence B, *that the ceremony was canceled* has a subject–verb pair, but *about the elopement* is a prepositional phrase with no subject–verb pair.

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Summon up your energy and try again. Which sentence is correct?

A. Lulu's assumption that the snake was more showy than dangerous proved fatally wrong.

B. Lulu's assumption that the snake was more putting on a show than it was dangerous proved fatally wrong.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. *Showy* matches *dangerous*; both are descriptions. In sentence B, *putting on a show* has a verb form but not a subject. Its partner, *it was dangerous*, has both a subject and a verb.

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Part V

Rules Even Your Great-Aunt's Grammar Teacher Didn't Know

"I hate the synonyms part of this test. I always get stumped, stymied, and puzzled."

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In this part . . .

Learned philosophers in the Middle Ages used to argue about the number of angels that could fit on the head of a pin. That debate was only a little less complicated than the grammar rules in this part. Chapter 22 explains the moods of verbs (yes, they have moods). Chapter 23 shows you how to choose the proper pronoun for all sorts of weird sentences. The next chapter deals with the inner workings of the sentence and helps you spruce up your writing style. Bottom line: If you want to learn some of the pickiest grammar rules ever devised, this part's for you.

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Chapter 22

The Last Word on Verbs

In This Chapter

- Getting in touch with your indicative mood
- Commanding the imperative
- Writing subjunctive verbs for conditions contrary to fact
- Avoiding common double-negative constructions

Daniel stomps in, slams the door, and grabs the remote. As he raises the volume on the wrestling match to supersonic level, Lola asks politely, "Is anything wrong?" In reply, Daniel lowers his eyebrows to the tip of his nose and glares silently. Lola shrugs and goes out to spread the word: Daniel is in one of his Moods. Beware.

Verbs have moods too, but they're a lot more polite about showing them than Daniel. A little change of form, and presto, the verb is in a different mood.

Verbs in modern English have three moods: *indicative*, *imperative*, and *subjunctive*. Indicative is the most common; the two other moods — imperative and subjunctive — enter speech and writing less frequently. In this chapter, I give you the lowdown on these three verb types so you're sure to know the mood of any verb without consulting a mind reader. I also tell you how to avoid a common mistake — double negatives.

Getting a Feel for Everyday Verbs: The Indicative Mood

Almost all verbs are in indicative mood. *Indicative* is the everyday, this-is-what-I'm-saying mood, good for questions and statements. All the lessons about verbs in this book — aside from those later in this chapter — discuss verbs in the indicative mood. (This fact, by the way, is totally useless. Forget it immediately.)

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Think of indicative verbs as the permanent cast of a TV show. They are always around and are familiar to everyone.

The indicative verbs are italicized in the following sentences:

Betsy *displayed* her musical range when she *played* a Bach concerto and a heavy-metal hit in the same concert.

Larry *will be* the principal tenant of the honeymoon hotel as soon as Ella *agrees* to marry him.

Eggworthy often *dreams* about bacon.

Commanding Your Verbs: The Imperative Mood

Don't worry about imperatives; they're fairly simple. *Imperative verbs* give commands. Most imperative verbs don't have a written (or spoken) subject. Instead, the subject in an imperative (command) sentence is *you-understood.* The word *you* usually does not appear before the imperative verb. The reader or listener simply understands that *you* is implied.

Here's a command. Read these examples of imperative verbs, italicized in the following sentences:

Eat a balanced diet.

Climb every mountain.

Calculate the odds.

No matter what happens, *hit* the road.

Fake a sincere smile and you've got it made.

Think of imperative verbs as recurring guest stars on a sitcom, the characters who show up every three or four episodes just to add a little flavor to the mix.

There's almost nothing you can do wrong in creating an imperative sentence, so this topic is a free pass. *Go* fishing, or if you're in the mood to torture yourself, *move* on to the subjunctive.

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Rising to the occasion and sitting pretty

Two pairs of confusing verbs — *rise* and *raise* and *sit* and *set* — may have added a wrinkle or two to your forehead. Never fear: here's some wrinkle-remover.

Rise means "to stand," "to get out of bed," or "to move to a higher rank" under one's own power. *Raise* means "to lift something or someone else up" or "to bring up children or animals." Check out these verbs in action:

> Eggworthy *rises* when a poultry expert enters the room.
>
> Eggworthy is currently an apprentice, but he hopes to *rise* to the rank of master poultry-breeder some day.
>
> He *raises* roosters on his farm, delighting the neighbors every morning at sunrise.
>
> When a nest is too low, Eggworthy *raises* it to a higher shelf.

Sit is the verb you use when you're creating a lap by moving your rear into a seat or onto the floor. *Set* means "to place something else on a surface." These verbs are irregular in form. The past tense of *sit* is *sat*; the past tense of *set* is, surprisingly, *set*. (Very economical. One word for two tenses!) Take a peek at these sentences:

> Sheila *sits* on the porch, monitoring the neighbors' activities.
>
> Roger catches Sheila's attention when he carefully *sets* his briefcase next to the fire extinguisher.
>
> Mike smiled as he *set* the "Wet Paint" sign under the bench.
>
> Max *sat* on the freshly painted park bench, wondering why Mike looked so cheerful.

By the way, in conversational English (see Chapter 1), *to set a spell* is a charming way to express a short period of relaxation, which takes place sitting down. Just be careful when you're speaking or writing formal English to distinguish between *sit* and *set*.

Here's another way to think about these two pairs: *Rise* and *sit* are self-contained actions. The subject acts upon him- or herself. Raise *and set* are actions that begin with one person (or thing) and move to another person or thing. You *rise* or *sit* by yourself; you *raise* or *set* something else.

Discovering the Possibilities: The Subjunctive Mood

Headache time! The subjunctive mood is rare, but it draws errors like a magnet. Master this topic and you'll qualify for the title "Grammarian of the Year." Subjunctive verbs show up when you state something that is contrary to fact. They may also express indirect commands, requests, and wishes. I tackle each of these situations in the following sections.

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Subjunctive verbs make only a few cameo appearances. Like a pampered superstar, a subjunctive shows up only when the situation is exactly right.

Using subjunctives with "were"

Tevye, the main character in the musical *Fiddler on the Roof,* sings "If I Were a Rich Man" with the sadness of a man who knows that he'll never be anything but poor. Tevye's song is about a *condition contrary to fact* — something that is not true. Take note of the verb in the title: *were.* Normally (that is to say, in an indicative sentence) the subject–verb pair would be *I was.* But Tevye sings *If I were* because he isn't a rich man. The verb *were* is in subjunctive mood.

Unless someone is going to quiz you on it, don't worry about the terminology. Just know that if you're expressing a condition contrary to fact, you need the verb *were* for present and future ideas. (Past tense is different. See the next section, "Creating subjunctives with 'had.'") Here are some examples of present and future tense:

SUBJUNCTIVE: If Roger *were* an honorable spy, he would not reveal the atomic secret hidden in the bean burrito.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Roger is not an honorable spy, and he's going to blab the secret.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Roger was.

SUBJUNCTIVE: If Anna *were* less talented in mathematics, she would have taken fewer algebra courses.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Anna's a math genius, the kind of student who always says that the test was "totally hard" and then wrecks the curve with a 96.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Anna was.

To sum up, in subjunctive sentences, *were* is usually all you need (unlike in the Beatles' song, when love is all you need). Here are a few details about subjunctive for present or future statements of conditions contrary to fact:

- Use *were* for all subjects in the part of the sentence that expresses what is not true. (If she *were* entranced by Max's explanation.)
- For the other part of the sentence, use the helping verb *would.* (Lola *would stare* at him in silence.)
- Never use the helping verb *would* in the untrue part of the sentence. For example:

  WRONG: If I would have been president, I would ask the Martian colony to secede.

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RIGHT: If I were president, I would ask the Martian colony to secede.

WRONG: Daniel acted as though he would have been grammarian-in-chief.

RIGHT: Daniel acted as though he were grammarian-in-chief.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Ella would be happier if she would have been in the Marines.

B. Ella would be happier if she were in the Marines.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The *if* part of the sentence contains a subjunctive verb *(were)* because it expresses something that is not true. The *if* part of the sentence should never contain the helping verb *would.*

As though may sometimes sub for *if* in a condition-contrary-to-fact sentence. Check out the following:

SUBJUNCTIVE: Eggworthy hurtled through the air *as though* a giant metal device were intent on scrambling him.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Eggworthy is not being pursued by giant egg-beaters. He is actually hurtling through the air because he is on a skateboard with one bad wheel.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Giant metal device was.

Creating subjunctives with "had"

Subjunctives also pop up from time to time with the helping verb *had.* For past tense sentences, the *had* belongs in the part of the sentence that is contrary to fact. The contrary-to-fact (that is, the lie) part of the sentence may begin with *if,* or the *if* may be understood.

Just for comparison: in non-subjunctive sentences — the past tense is expressed by a single-word, past tense verb. The *had* form, in a non-subjunctive sentence, is used only to show one action happening before another. (See Chapter 18 for more information.) Here are a few examples of the past subjunctive:

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH THE WORD *IF:* If Lola *had known* about the atomic secret, she would not have eaten that burrito.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITHOUT THE WORD *IF: Had* Lola *known* about the atomic secret, she would not have eaten that burrito.

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WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Lola knew nothing about the atomic secret; Roger told her that the crunch in the burrito came from an undercooked bean.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Lola knew.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH THE WORD *IF:* If Larry *had married* less often, he would have enjoyed this ceremony more.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITHOUT THE WORD *IF: Had* Larry *married* less often, he would have enjoyed this ceremony more.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Larry has been married more times than he can count.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Larry married.

Which sentence is correct?

A. If Betsy would have played the tuba, the gang would have listened to her CD more often.

B. If Betsy had played the tuba, the gang would have listened to her CD more often.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Betsy played the piano, not the tuba, so subjunctive is appropriate. The word *would* is never part of an *if* statement.

Using subjunctives with commands, wishes, and requests

Larry loves to exercise his royal power, so he needs many subjunctive verbs. I've italicized those verbs in these sentences:

His Majesty decrees that all his subjects *be* counted and then beheaded.

His Majesty asks that the governor of each province *climb* the nearest Alp and *jump* off the top.

His Majesty further insists that his favorite wedding planner *remain* in the palace.

The italicized verbs are all subjunctive. These sentences need subjunctives because they express wishes, requests, or indirect commands. (Commands that are given directly to the person who is supposed to follow them are in imperative mood. See " Commanding Your Verbs: The Imperative Mood," earlier in this chapter.)

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Now I lie me down to sleep . . .

Whoever invented the verbs *lie* and *lay* had an evil sense of humor. Besides meaning "not to tell the truth," *lie* also means "to rest or to plop yourself down, ready for a snooze" or "to remain." *Lay* means "to put something down, to place something." Here are some examples:

> Sheila likes to *lie* down for an hour after lunch. Before she hits the couch, she *lays* a soft sheet over the upholstery.
>
> Roger *lies* in wait behind those bushes. When unsuspecting tourists *lay* down their picnic blankets, he swoops in and steals their lunches.

So far, this topic isn't too complicated. The problem — and the truly devilish part — comes in the past tense. The past tense of *lie* (to rest, to recline, to remain) is *lay.* The past tense of *lay* (to put or place) is *laid.* Check out these examples:

> Sheila *lay* down yesterday, but a car alarm disturbed her rest. She immediately went to the street and *laid* a carpet of nails in front of the offending vehicle.
>
> Yesterday, while Roger *lay* in wait, a police officer *laid* a hand on Roger's shoulder. "You are under arrest," intoned the cop.

One more complication: When you add *has, had,* or *have* to the verb *lie* (to rest, to recline, to remain), you say *has lain, had lain, have lain.* When you add *has, had,* or *have* to the verb *lay* (to put or place), you say *has laid, had laid, have laid.* In other words:

> Sheila *has lain* in the hammock all morning, and her brothers *have laid* a basket of red ants on the ground beneath her. When Sheila gets up, she'll be surprised!
>
> Roger *has lain* in the lumpy bunk all night, but no one *has laid* a blanket over him.

In the previous sample sentences, the normal subject–verb pairs (the indicative pairs) would be *subjects are, governor climbs, wedding planner remains.* In these subjunctive sentences, all subjects take the same form of the verb — the infinitive minus the *to.* (For more information on infinitives, see Chapter 2.) Thus you have

> to sleep: subjunctive = sleep
>
> to slobber: subjunctive = slobber
>
> to sneak: subjunctive = sneak

and so forth.

In everyday communication, many speakers of perfectly good English avoid the subjunctive and use an infinitive or the helping verb *should* instead. Here are Larry's requests, with infinitives or *should* instead of subjunctive verbs:

> His Majesty wants his subjects *to be counted* and then *beheaded.*

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His Majesty says that the governor of each province *should climb* the nearest Alp and *jump* off the top.

His Majesty wants his favorite wedding planner *to remain* in the palace.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Larry requests that his honeymoon attendants are paid by the hour.

B. Larry requests that his honeymoon attendants be paid by the hour.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The subjunctive verb *(be)* expresses the request. (The infinitive *to be* minus the *to* equals subjunctive.)

When "If" Isn't Subjunctive

As you're reading about the subjunctive *if,* you may think that all sentences with the word *if* need a subjunctive verb. Nope. Some *if* sentences don't express a condition contrary to fact; they express a possibility, something that may happen. The *if* sentences that express a possibility take a plain old, normal, indicative verb. Here are some examples:

NON-SUBJUNCTIVE *IF* SENTENCE: If I am elected, I promise to cut taxes.

WHY IT'S NOT SUBJUNCTIVE: Everyone who says this truly believes that victory is possible.

NON-SUBJUNCTIVE *IF* SENTENCE: If Roger goes to prison, he will take a burrito cookbook with him.

WHY IT'S NOT SUBJUNCTIVE: Prison is a possibility.

NON-SUBJUNCTIVE *IF* SENTENCE: If Larry divorces, he'll remarry soon.

WHY IT'S NOT SUBJUNCTIVE: Divorce is a possibility. In fact, Larry is already looking around.

To sum up: in an *if* sentence, use a normal, everyday, indicative verb for something that's possible. If something is untrue, use a subjunctive verb.

Which sentence is correct?

A. If the weather is as bad as the forecaster predicts, Lola will leave her motorcycle in the garage.

B. If the weather were as bad as the forecaster predicts, Lola will leave her motorcycle in the garage.

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Try and figure these out: Verbs and infinitives

Now that you've read this heading, do you see what's wrong with it? *Try and* means that you're going to do two different things: *try* (first task) and *figure out* (second task). But you don't have two tasks in mind, do you? *Try and* is a common expression, but not a correct one. Here's what you really mean: *try* to *figure this one out. Try to* follows the normal English pattern of a verb and an infinitive. *Try to remember* the verb-infinitive rule and *try to forget* about *try and.*

Answer: Sentence A is correct. A storm is a real possibility; in fact, the sentence tells you that the forecaster predicts bad weather (although I have to say that my grandmother's knee was more accurate in predicting storms than any technology I've seen). Back to grammar: sentence A contains the normal verb, *is.* Sentence B expresses a condition contrary to fact. Lola hasn't left yet, so there's no way to know the weather. Thus the subjunctive verb *were* is wrong.

Do you have the strength for one more round? Identify the correct sentence.

A. Lola studied Roger's new tattoo. If Lulu was the designer, Lola concluded, the tattoo would be more artistic.

B. Lola studied Roger's new tattoo. If Lulu were the designer, Lola concluded, the tattoo would be more artistic.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. The intent of the sentence is to express Lola's judgment, which is that Lulu didn't design Roger's tattoo. The *if* statement therefore tells you about something that isn't true, so you need the subjunctive verb, *were.*

Deleting Double Negatives

In some lucky languages, the more negatives the better. In English, however, two negatives are a no-no. (By the way, no-no is *not* a double negative! It's just slang for something that's prohibited.) I explain the basic double-negative errors in Chapter 8. Here I tell you about some of the less obvious forms of double trouble.

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I cannot help but think this rule is dumb

One of the most common double negatives doesn't look like one: *cannot help but.* How many times have you heard someone say something like

> Eggworthy *cannot help but* act in that dramatic style because he was trained by a real ham.

Unfortunately, this sentence is wrong because it contains a double negative. The *not* (inside the word *cannot*) and the *but* both express negative ideas. Use one or the other. Don't use both. Here is the correct version:

> Eggworthy *cannot help acting* in that dramatic style because he was trained by a real ham.

If you think this is one in a long list of useless grammar rules, think again. A double-negative mistake can completely wreck your sentence because in English, two negatives make a positive. So when you say *cannot help but,* you actually convey the opposite of what you imagine you're saying (or writing). For example:

> Max told his boss, "I cannot help but ask for a raise."
>
> WHAT HE THINKS HE SAID: I have to ask for a raise.
>
> WHAT HE REALLY SAID: I can't ask for a raise.
>
> The boss told Max, "I cannot help but say no."
>
> WHAT THE BOSS THINKS SHE SAID: No.
>
> WHAT THE BOSS ACTUALLY SAID: Yes.

Which sentence is correct?

A. I cannot help but think that this double negative rule is ridiculous.

B. I cannot help thinking that this double negative rule is ridiculous.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. As for the content, I'll let you decide!

I can't hardly understand this rule

No matter what you do, avoid saying or writing *can't hardly* when you're using formal English. *Can't* is short for *cannot,* which contains the negative *not. Hardly* is another negative word. If you combine them, by the logic of grammar, you've said the opposite of what you intended — the positive instead of the negative. Here are a few examples:

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Roger commented, "Lulu can't hardly count her tattoos."

WHAT ROGER THINKS HE SAID: Lulu can't count her tattoos.

WHAT ROGER ACTUALLY SAID: Lulu can count her tattoos.

According to Lola, Ella can't hardly wait until her divorce becomes final.

WHAT THE WRITER THINKS THE SENTENCE MEANS: Ella is eager for her divorce to become final.

WHAT THE SENTENCE ACTUALLY MEANS: Ella can wait. (The palace is comfy and Larry isn't around very much.)

A variation of this double negative is *can't scarcely, aren't scarcely,* or *isn't scarcely.* Once again, *can't* is short for *cannot,* clearly a negative. *Aren't* and *isn't* are the negative forms of *are* and *is. Scarcely* is also negative. Use them together and you end up with a positive, not a super-negative.

I hadn't but one rule on double-negatives

Here's another double negative, in a couple of forms: *hadn't only, haven't only, hasn't only, hadn't but, haven't but,* and *hasn't but.* All express positive ideas because the *not (n't)* part of the verb and the *only* or *but* are both negatives:

WRONG: Al *hadn't but* ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

WHY IT'S WRONG: As it reads now, the sentence says that Al had more than ten seconds to defuse the bomb, but the little red numbers on the trigger were at seven and decreasing rapidly.

RIGHT: Al *had but* ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

ALSO RIGHT: Al *had* only ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

WRONG: Roger *hasn't only* ten nuclear secrets.

WHY IT'S WRONG: The sentence now says that Roger has more than ten secrets, but he just counted them and there are ten.

RIGHT: Roger *has only* ten nuclear secrets.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Ella can't hardly understand those pesky grammar rules.

B. Ella can't help but be confused by those pesky grammar rules.

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Answer: Both are wrong. (The official teacher manual orders teachers to play annoying tricks with quizzes.) In sentence A, *can't hardly* is a double negative. In sentence B, *cannot help but* is a double negative.

Now look at these sentences. Which is correct?

A. Ella can scarcely understand those pesky grammar rules.

B. Ella can't help being confused by those pesky grammar rules.

Answer: Sentences A and B are both correct. Ella is serving five to ten in the penitentiary for breaking grammar rules. In sentence A, she has only a little understanding of grammar. In sentence B, she is confused.

It takes two to make a mistake

In English you find three "to's," all sounding exactly alike but spelled differently. (Words that sound alike but are spelled differently are known as *homonyms*). And no, they don't add up to six. *To* may be part of an infinitive *(to speak, to dream)* or it may show movement towards someone or something *(to the store, to me). Two* is the number *(two eyes, two ears). Too* means also *(Are you going too?)* or more than enough *(too expensive, too wide).* In other words:

> If you *two* want *to* skip school and go *to* the ball game, today's a good day because the teacher will be *too* busy *to* check.

The *two* basketballs that hit Larry in the head yesterday were *too* soft *to* do much damage, but Larry is suing anyway.

Two things you should always remember before you decide *to* break a grammar rule: it is never *too* late *to* learn proper English, and you are never *too* old *to* get in trouble with your teacher.

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Chapter 23

The Last Word on Pronouns

In This Chapter

- Deciding between who/whoever and whom/whomever
- Matching pronouns to the nouns they replace
- Understanding pronoun use in complicated sentences
- Decoding the meaning of *who, which,* and *that*
- Choosing the proper pronoun for groups
- Avoiding vague pronouns

You've come to it at last: the dreaded chapter where you find out the intricate details of *who/whom* and the like. Be warned: In three nanoseconds, you can easily find something to do that is more interesting than these concepts — training fleas for circus duty, for example, or picking lint out of your belly button.

You're still reading, aren't you? Okay, you asked for it. Here is the last word on pronouns, including who/whom sentences and a host of other really picky pronoun points.

Knowing the Difference Between Who and Whom

The rule for knowing when to use *who* and *whom* is simple; applying the rule is not. First, the rule:

- *Who* and *whoever* are for subjects.

  Who and *whoever* also follow and complete the meaning of linking verbs. (In grammarspeak, *who* and *whoever* serve as linking verb complements.)

- *Whom* and *whomever* are for objects — all kinds of objects (direct, indirect, of prepositions, of infinitives, and so on).

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For more information on subjects, see Chapter 4. For more information on objects and linking verb complements, see Chapter 6.

Before applying the rule concerning *who/whoever* and *whom/whomever*, check out these sample sentences:

> *Whoever* needs help from Roger is going to wait a long time. (*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *needs.*)
>
> *Who* is calling Lulu at this time of night? (*Who* is the subject of the verb *is calling.*)
>
> "I don't care *whom* you ask to the prom," exclaimed Michael unconvincingly. (*Whom* is the direct object of the verb *ask.*)
>
> The mustard-yellow belt is for *whomever* she designates as the hot dog eating champion. (*Whomever* is the direct object of the verb *designates.*)
>
> For *whom* are you bellowing? (*Whom* is the object of the preposition *for.*)

Now that you know the rule and have seen the words in action, here are two tricks for deciding between *who/whoever* and *whom/whomever.* If one trick seems to work, use it and ignore the other. Here goes . . .

Trick #1: Horse and carriage

According to an old song, "love and marriage go together like a horse and carriage." Grammarians might sing that song with slightly different lyrics: "A subject and verb go together like a horse and carriage." (What do you think? Grammy material?) To use Trick #1, follow these steps:

1. Find all the verbs in the sentence.
2. Don't separate the helping verbs from the main verb. Count the main verb and its helpers as a single verb.
3. Now pair each of the verbs with a subject.
4. If you have a verb flapping around with no subject, chances are *who* or *whoever* is the subject you're missing.
5. If all the verbs have subjects, check them one more time. Do you have any linking verbs without complements? (For more information on complements, see Chapter 6.) If you have a lonely linking verb with no complement in sight, you need *who* or *whoever.*
6. If all subjects are accounted for and you don't need a linking verb complement, you've reached a final answer: *whom* or *whomever* is the only possibility.

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Here are two sample sentences, analyzed via Trick #1:

SENTENCE ONE: *Who/Whom* shall I say is calling?

The verbs = *shall say, is calling.*

The subject of *shall say* = *I.*

The subject of *is calling* = Okay, here you go. You need a subject for *is calling* but you're out of words. You have only one choice: *who.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: *Who* shall I say is calling?

SENTENCE TWO: Derek is the ballplayer *who/whom* everyone thinks plays best.

The verbs = *is*, *thinks*, *plays.*

The subject of *is* = *Derek.*

The subject of *thinks* = *everyone*

The subject of *plays* = Um. . . m. Once again, a subject shortage occurs. Therefore, you need *who.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: Derek is the ballplayer *who* everyone thinks plays best.

Now you try. Which word is correct?

Agnes buys detergent in one-ton boxes for Roger, *who/whom* she adores in spite of his odor problem.

Answer: *Whom,* because it's the direct object of *adores. Agnes buys, she adores* = subject-verb pairs. Both are action verbs, so no subject complement is needed. Therefore, you need an objective pronoun, *whom.*

Play it again, Sam. Which word is correct?

Anna solves math problems for *whoever/whomever* heads the Olympic Math Team.

Answer: *Whoever.* Surprised? The preposition *for* needs an object, so you might have assumed that *whomever* fills that spot. But use the horse-and-carriage method, and you'll see why *whoever* is best. The sentence has two verbs, *solves* and *heads. Anna* is the subject of *solves.* What's the subject of *heads*? It has to be *whoever.* The real object of the preposition *for* is the entire subject-verb statement: *whoever heads the Olympic Math Team.*

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Trick #2: Getting rhythm

This trick relies on your ear for grammar. Most English sentences follow one pattern: Subject-Verb-Object or Subject Complement. Trick #2 is to say the parts of the sentence in this order, even if you have to rearrange the words a little. Here are the steps to follow:

1. Identify the verb in the sentence that seems connected to the *who/whom* choice. Usually it's the verb nearest *who/whom*. It's also the verb logically connected by meaning — that is, in the same thought as *who/whom*.
2. Say (aloud, if you don't mind scaring your classmates or co-workers, or silently, if you plan to keep a reputation for sanity) the three parts of the sentence.

   Anything before the verb is *who* or *whoever*.

   If you're working with an action verb, anything after the verb is probably *whom* or *whomever*.

   If you're working with a linking verb, anything after the verb is probably *who* or *whoever*.

Here are two sample sentences analyzed with Trick #2:

SENTENCE ONE: *Who/Whom* will Roger choose for the vacancy in his nuclear spy ring?

The verb is *will choose*.

Will choose is an action verb, so forget about linking-verb complements.

Say aloud: Roger will choose *who/whom*.

Choice = *whom* because the word is after the verb.

Whom = direct object of *will choose*.

CORRECT SENTENCE: *Whom* will Roger choose for the vacancy in his nuclear spy ring?

SENTENCE TWO: Michael will dance the tango with *whoever/whomever* wins the lottery.

This one's more complicated because you've got two verbs, and two separate ideas in the sentence. Fortunately, all you have to do is concentrate on the part of the sentence containing the *whoever/whomever* issue. In other words, the part of the sentence you're examining is *whoever/whomever wins the lottery*.

The verb is *wins*.

Wins is an action verb, so forget about linking-verb complements.

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Say aloud: *whoever/whomever wins the lottery.*

Choice = *whoever* because the word is before the verb.

Whoever = subject of *wins.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: Michael will dance the tango with *whoever* wins the lottery.

Which word is correct?

Who/Whom do you like better, Roger or Michael?

Answer: *Whom* is correct. Change the order of the words to *you do like whom.* Choose *whom* after an action verb. In this sentence, *whom* is the direct object. (By the way, the answer is Michael, no contest. He's much nicer than Roger.)

Once more for old time's sake: which word is correct?

The ballerina *who/whom* asked Michael to dance has two left feet.

Answer: *Who* is correct. This sentence expresses two ideas — *the ballerina has two left feet* and *who/whom asked Michael to dance*. All you have to do is concentrate on the portion of the sentence containing the *who/whom* problem. Say *who/whom asked Michael.* Choose *who* before the verb. *Who*, of course, is the subject of the verb *asked.*

People have led perfectly pleasant (though grammatically incorrect) lives without knowing the stuff in this section. However, the standardized test-makers consider these topics fair game — and big game, judging from the number of questions they ask about pronoun issues, especially *who* and *whom*.

Replacing Improper Antecedents

The *antecedent* of a pronoun is the word that the pronoun replaces. The antecedent and the pronoun should be completely interchangeable. In other words, you should be able to replace the pronoun with its antecedent (or the antecedent with the pronoun) without changing the meaning of the sentence. To follow this rule, you must make sure that the pronoun has an antecedent to replace. If the pronoun has no antecedent, the pronoun is stranded on a desert island, without a television crew and an immunity challenge. A stranded pronoun is an unhappy pronoun. Furthermore, the pronoun is a picky little part of speech. It refuses to replace any old word. If an antecedent is almost but not quite right, every self-respecting pronoun turns up its nose at the antecedent and calls the grammar police. (For more information on pronouns and their antecedents, see Chapter 9.)

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Sometimes the best way to avoid a pronoun error is to write a sentence that doesn't need one. Keep that solution in mind if you begin writing a sentence and stumble over a pronoun issue.

Okay, time for the pronoun police to go to work:

WRONG: Lola's a lawyer, and I want to study it.

What does *it* replace? *Law,* I suppose. But the word *law* is not in the sentence; *lawyer* is. *Law* and *lawyer* are close, but not close enough.

RIGHT: Lola's a lawyer, and I want to be one also.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: *One* refers to *lawyer.*

ALSO RIGHT: I'd like to study law, as Lola did.

WHY IT'S ALSO RIGHT: There's no pronoun in the sentence.

ALSO RIGHT: I want to make a lot of money, so I'm going to law school.

Another (trickier) example is:

WRONG: In Max's poetry, he frequently uses cow imagery.

Who's *he?* Max, I imagine. But *Max* isn't in the sentence. *Max's* — the possessive noun — is in the sentence. You can replace *Max's* by *his* (because *his* is a possessive pronoun), but not by *he.*

RIGHT: Max frequently writes poetry with cow imagery.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: There's no pronoun in the sentence.

ALSO RIGHT: Stay away from Max's poetry readings unless you are really, really, really fond of cows.

Which sentence is correct?

A. Lola has always been interested in archaeology because she thinks they spend a lot of time in the dirt.

B. Lola has always been interested in archaeology because she thinks archaeologists spend a lot of time in the dirt.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. In sentence A, no proper antecedent exists for *they.* Sentence B replaces *they* with the noun *archaeologists.*

If you're still awake, go for it! Find the correct sentence.

A. In Lulu's sonnets, she compares love to an unopened can of sardines.

B. In Lulu's sonnets, the poet compares love to an unopened can of sardines.

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Answer: Sentence B is correct. In sentence A, *she* has no antecedent. Because sentence B doesn't use a pronoun, there's no pronoun error.

Matching Verbs to Pronouns in Complicated Sentences

Singular pronouns must be paired with singular verbs, and plural pronouns must be paired with plural verbs. Easy rule, right? *He says. They say.* No problem. But not all pronouns are as simple as *he* and *they.* Some pronouns — *who, which,* and *that* — are chameleons. They always look the same, but they may be either singular or plural depending upon their antecedents. You have to decode the sentence to decide whether the antecedent is singular or plural. Then you must match the verb to the antecedent. In some sentences with simple structure, the choice is fairly obvious. For example:

> *English Grammar for Dummies* is the book that you're reading. (*that* = book = singular)
>
> The tax guides that fell off the shelf cost me a million dollars. (*that* = *tax guides* = plural)

In complicated sentences, those singling out something or someone from a group, the choice is not so obvious. To pair the pronoun with the correct verb, use your reading comprehension skills to figure out the meaning of the pronoun. After you know the meaning of the pronoun, the choice between a singular and plural verb is clear. Check out the following examples:

> SENTENCE ONE: Lulu is one of the few choir members who *has/have* more than 11 tattoos.
>
> The *who* statement is about having more than 11 tattoos.
>
> According to the sentence, how many choir members are in that category? One or more than one? More than one.
>
> The *who* refers to *choir members.*
>
> Choose the plural verb *(have).*
>
> CORRECT SENTENCE: Lulu is one of the few choir members who *have* more than 11 tattoos.
>
> SENTENCE TWO: Lulu is the only one of the choir members who *has/have* a tattoo of a motorcycle on her arm.
>
> The *who* statement is about having a tattoo of a motorcycle.
>
> The sentence makes it clear that Lulu is the only one with that tattoo.
>
> *Who* is singular, referring to Lulu.

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Choose the singular verb *(has).*

CORRECT SENTENCE: Lulu is the only one of the choir members who *has* a tattoo of a motorcycle on her arm.

SENTENCE THREE: I love the Grammar Channel, which is one of the many channels that *broadcast/broadcasts* a hit show about pronouns.

The *which* statement is about broadcasting a hit show about pronouns.

According to the sentence, many channels broadcast such shows.

Which is plural, referring to *many channels.*

Choose the plural verb *broadcast.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: I love the Grammar Channel, which is one of the many channels that *broadcast* a hit show about pronouns.

Which word is correct?

Ned claims he is one of the many men who *has/have* been unfairly rejected by Lola.

Answer: *Have.* Lola has rejected more than one man, according to the sentence, so the pronoun *who* and the verb paired with *who* must be plural.

Once more, for old time's sake: Which word is correct?

Ned is the only one of the motorcyclists who still *tries/try* to date Lola.

Answer: *Tries.* The sentence explains that no one else is stupid enough to ask Lola for a date after she's said no once. (I hope Ned was wearing earplugs.) Therefore *who* is singular, as is the verb *tries.*

This, That, and the Other: Clarifying Vague Pronoun References

One pronoun may refer to one noun. A plural pronoun may refer to more than one noun. But no pronoun may refer to a whole sentence or a whole paragraph. Consider the following scenario:

Lulu likes to arrive at school around 11 each day because she thinks that getting up at any hour earlier than 10 is barbaric. The principal, not surprisingly, thinks that arriving two hours late each day is not a good idea. *This* is a problem.

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This certainly is a problem, and not because of Lulu's sleeping habits or the principal's beliefs. *This* is a problem because the antecedent of the word *this* is unclear. What does *this* mean? The fact that Lulu arrives around 11? That Lulu thinks getting up before 10 is out of the question? Or that the principal and Lulu are not, to put it mildly, in sync? Or all of the above?

The writer probably intends *this* to refer to *all of the above,* a perfectly good answer on those horrible multiple choice tests you have to take far too often these days. Unfortunately, *all of the above* is not a good answer to the question, "What does the pronoun mean?"

Thus

> WRONG: The new orange dye Lola's hairdresser selected looks horrible, and the cut looks as though it were done by a kindergartener. *This* persuaded Lola to attend the dance wearing her purple wig.
>
> WHY IT'S WRONG: *This* is referring to the 21 words of the preceding sentence, not to one noun.
>
> RIGHT: Because the new orange dye Lola's hairdresser selected looks horrible and the cut looks as thought it were done by a kindergartener, Lola decided to attend the dance wearing her purple wig.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: The fact that the new orange dye her hairdresser selected looks horrible and the cut looks as though it were done by a kindergartener persuaded Lola to attend the dance wearing her purple wig.
>
> WHY THEY'RE RIGHT: Eliminating *this* eliminates the problem.

As you see in the preceding example, sometimes the only way to avoid this sort of pronoun error is to write a sentence that needs no pronoun at all.

In ordinary speech (conversational English) you may use *this, which,* or *that* to refer to more than one word, as long as your meaning is clear. For example:

> Roger refused to defuse the explosive postage stamp, which angered all the postal workers.

The pronoun *which* in the preceding example refers to the fact that Roger refused to defuse the explosive stamp. Your audience grasps the meaning easily. However, grammatically, the sentence is incorrect because *which* should replace only one noun. Bottom line: In formal writing you should follow the rule and reject the sentence. In informal situations, go ahead and use it.

In both conversational and formal English, avoid vagueness. Never use a pronoun that may refer to two or more ideas; don't leave your reader or listener wondering what you mean. For example:

> Lulu's history research paper was ten days late and ten pages short. That earned Lulu an F on the assignment.

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What convinced the teacher to fail Lulu? The lateness or the fact that she wrote exactly 34 words on "The French Revolution: Its Causes and Effects in Relation to the Concept of Democracy"? One of these factors? If so, which one? Or both? Inquiring minds want to know, and the pronoun *that* doesn't tell. Possible corrections include the following:

> Because Lulu's history research paper was ten days late and ten pages short, the teacher failed Lulu. (Now you know that both factors influenced the grade.)
>
> Lulu's history research paper was ten days late, so the teacher failed Lulu. Even if it had arrived on time, the fact that it was ten pages short would have earned her a low grade on the assignment anyway. (The lateness is primary, but the length mattered also.)
>
> Lulu's teacher was willing to overlook the fact that Lulu handed in her history research paper ten days late. However, the teacher failed Lulu for writing only 34 words instead of ten pages. (The teacher doesn't care about lateness but objects to the length.)
>
> Lulu's teacher didn't mind the shortness of Lulu's history research paper, but the teacher failed Lulu anyway because the paper was ten days late. (In this version promptness matters and length doesn't.)

Which correction is best? I can't say, because the original isn't clear. See my point? Vague pronouns lead to multiple interpretations and loss of meaning.

To sum up this simple rule: Be clear when using pronouns.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The roof leaked and the floor creaked, which kept Ned up all night.

B. The leaky roof and the creaky floor kept Ned up all night.

Answer: Sentence B, lacking a pronoun, has no pronoun error. Sentence A is incorrect because *which* refers to two ideas, not to one noun.

Need a do-over? Find the correct sentence.

A. Anna carved a pumpkin and made a pie from the leftovers, which is her favorite Halloween tradition.

B. Anna carved a pumpkin and made a pie from the leftovers. That's her favorite Halloween tradition.

Answer: Neither is correct. (How irritating am I?) In sentence A, *which* refers to the carving and the pie-making, not to a single noun. In sentence B, *that* (which is part of the contraction *that's*) also refers to more than one noun. Both sentences are out of bounds in formal English. In conversational English, you're fine with both sentences.

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In the paper it says . . .

Are you writing about literature or even trashy tabloid journalism? If so, beware of *it* and *they.* Some common errors follow those pronouns. Check out these examples:

> In *Hamlet,* it says that Claudius is a murderer.

Oh really? What does *it* mean? The play can't speak, and the author of the play (Shakespeare) is a *who.* Actually, in *Hamlet,* the ghost says that Claudius is a murderer, but even the ghost is a *he.* In other words, *it* has no antecedent. Reword the sentence:

> In *Hamlet* Claudius is a murderer.
>
> In *Hamlet* the ghost declares that Claudius is a murderer.
>
> My teacher says that in *Hamlet* Claudius is a murderer, but I'm not sure because I never understand Shakespeare's plays anyway. Why couldn't he write in plain English? What's up with that?

Here's another example:

> In today's paper *they* say that more and more schools are dropping Shakespeare's plays from the curriculum because of incomprehensible language.

(I should probably say, before I get back to the grammar, that I actually *like* Shakespeare's plays, and not just because I'm an English teacher. Now, back to pronouns.) Who is *they?* Perhaps the authors of an article, but the sentence doesn't make that fact clear. More likely the author of the sentence thinks that *they* is a good, all-purpose pronoun for talking about anonymous or nameless authors. In other words, the antecedent of *they* is "I don't know and I really don't care." Wrong! The antecedent of *they* must be a real, identifiable group of people. Some possible corrections include:

> Today's paper reports that more and more schools are dropping Shakespeare's plays from the curriculum because of incomprehensible language.
>
> In today's paper, education critic I. M. Ignorentz explains that more and more schools are dropping Shakespeare's plays from the curriculum because of incomprehensible language.

Its or Their? Selecting Pronouns for Collective Nouns

Collective nouns present a problem when it comes to choosing the right pronouns. They're no picnic when you're pairing collective nouns with verbs, either. Never fear. In this section, I help you with both tasks.

Collective nouns (*committee, team, squad, army, class,* and the like) refer to groups. When the group is acting as a unit — doing the same thing at the same time — the noun is singular and the pronouns that refer to it are also

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singular. In this situation, the collective noun is paired with a singular verb also (if the collective noun is a subject). Here's an example:

> The squad *is* on the move; *it* should be here in plenty of time for the battle.

The collective noun is *squad.* Because the whole squad is moving as a unit, *squad* pairs with the singular verb *is* and the singular pronoun *it.* Similarly, you need a singular possessive pronoun when the collective noun is acting as a unit, as in this sentence:

> The cast will hold *its* annual Thank-God-Michael's-Latest-Play-Is-Over Party tomorrow.

The whole cast is responsible for the party (although Lola is always complaining about doing all the work), so the singular possessive *its* works here. For more information on possessive pronouns, turn to Chapter 9.

Right about now you're probably wondering what happens when the group isn't acting as one unit. Simple. Just break the group down into its component parts and go for plural verbs and pronouns, as in this sentence:

> Some members of the squad *are* eating pizza while others are oiling *their* rocket launchers.

Now you have a plural subject (*members*) partnering a plural verb (*are*) and a plural pronoun (*their*).

Sadly, I have to tell you about a couple of complications in the collective noun situation. Read this sentence:

> The audience rises and is ready to leave after a stirring performance of Michael's new play. (Actually, the audience was ready to leave after the first act, but Lulu had locked the doors.)

In the preceding example sentence, I paired the subject, *audience,* with singular verbs — *rises, is,* and *was.* Those verbs are correct because the audience acts together, a collection of people molded into one unit. So far, so good. But if the audience is a unit, should the audience clap *its* hands or *their* hands? At first glance *its* seems appropriate, because *its* is singular, and *audience* is paired with singular verbs. However, the audience doesn't own a big, collective hand. Every person in the audience has two individual hands (every person except for Ella, who has three, but I won't go into that because she's very sensitive about her body image). Body parts, no matter how unified the group, must belong to separate people. Therefore, you have to dump the collective noun and substitute *members of the audience.* Now you have this sentence:

> The members of the audience rise to *their* feet and clap *their* hands.

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Members is the subject. Because *members* is plural, so are the verbs and pronouns (*rise, their*) associated with it.

Here's another sentence to figure out:

> As the orchestra raises *its/their* instruments, Roger searches for the sheet music.

Orchestra is another collective noun. The verb is singular because the orchestra acts in unison, but *its instruments* sounds strange. Okay, maybe the *orchestra* owns all the tubas, violins, and other instruments of destruction. (You should hear them play.) So if the sentence were talking about ownership, *its* would fit:

> The orchestra insures *its* instruments with Lloyds of Topeka.

However, the orchestra can't raise a collectively-owned instrument. Each musician raises his or her own. So *their* and *musicians* make more sense:

> The musicians in the orchestra raise *their* instruments and prepare to demolish Beethoven.

To sum up the general rules on pronouns that refer to groups:

- Collective nouns performing one action as a unit take singular verbs and pair with singular pronouns.
- Possessive pronouns referring to collective nouns are singular if the item possessed belongs to the entire group.
- If the members of the group are acting as individuals, drop the collective noun. Possessive pronouns referring to the members of the group are plural.
- Body parts always belong to individuals, not to groups.

Which sentence is correct?

A. The class will hold its annual picnic during the monsoon season because of poor planning by the administration.

B. The class will hold their annual picnic during the monsoon season because of poor planning by the administration.

Answer: Sentence A is correct. The picnic belongs to everyone as a group.

Hit it again. Which sentence is correct?

A. The jury ate its sandwiches during the defense attorney's final argument.

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B. The jurors ate their sandwiches during the defense attorney's final argument.

Answer: Sentence B is correct. Although the court system ordered a lovely platter of sandwiches for the *jury* (a collective noun), people eat separately. My tuna-on-rye can't be swallowed by a group. Hence sentence B, which breaks the collective noun into its component parts (*jurors*) is best. *Jurors* is plural, so *their* is the pronoun you want.

A historic or historical occasion

If something is *historical,* it happened and is now history. If something is *historic,* it happened and was important. In one way or another, a *historic* event influenced the course of history as you now understand it. Consider the following:

> The little-known American labor leader, Junius P. Michael, shaved at least three times a day because of accusations that he had sabotaged the disposable razor industry by promoting the five-o'clock-shadow look.

This information is *historical;* you can look it up in Michael's autobiography, *My Life in the Fast Lane with No Turn Signal.* Other *historical* events in Michael's tumultuous life include his trip by jet ski through the Erie Canal and his week-long visit to the White House, where he was not invited to sleep in the Lincoln bedroom.

Despite his long life in public service, Junius P. Michael was not involved in any *historic* events whatsoever. Nothing he did merits a moment's consideration by serious historians. (Even when he attended important ceremonies or congressional debates, he had a knack for disappearing into the men's room at the crucial moment, possibly because of his habit of drinking large quantities of iced tea.)

Thus, Junius P. Michael was a *historical,* not imaginary, figure who did not participate in any *historic* events.

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Chapter 24

The Last Word on Sentence Structure

In This Chapter

- Distinguishing between independent and subordinate clauses
- Untangling one clause from another
- Using subordinate clauses to make your writing more fluid
- Adding variety to your writing with verbals
- Avoiding wordy and monotonous sentences

Say I give you a new car. What do you do? Open the hood and check the engine, or hop in and drive it away? The engine-checkers and the drive-awayers are sub-groups of car owners. The engine-checkers have to know what's going on inside the machine. The other group doesn't care about fuel injection and spark plugs. They just want the car to run.

You can also divide speakers of English into two groups. Some people want to understand what's going on inside the sentence, but most just want to communicate. In this chapter, I provide some information for each — the lift-up-the-hood-of-the-sentence group and the drive-English-around-the-block clan. The first part of this chapter digs into the structure of the sentence, defining clauses and verbals. Then I show you how to make your writing more interesting by varying sentence patterns. This chapter also helps you trim your sentences so that they get the point across concisely — a plus in business and academic writing.

Here's a bonus for anyone contemplating higher education: The SAT and the ACT assess the maturity of your writing style, including your ability to vary sentence length and pattern and to avoid repetition. This chapter provides help with these skills.

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Understanding the Basics of Clause and Effect

No matter what food you put between two pieces of bread, you've got a sandwich. That's the definition of *sandwich:* bread plus filling. Clauses have a simple definition, too: subject plus verb. Any subject-verb combination creates a clause. The reverse is also true: no subject or no verb = no clause. You can throw in some extras (descriptions, joining words, lettuce, tomato . . . whatever), but the basic subject-verb combination is key. Some sentences have one clause, in which case the whole sentence is the clause, and some have more than one.

Be sure to check your sentences for completeness. Each sentence should contain at least one complete thought, expressed in a way that can stand alone. In grammarspeak, each sentence must contain at least one independent clause (check out "Getting the goods on subordinate and independent clauses," later in this chapter). For more information on complete sentences, see Chapter 5.

Here are a few examples of one-clause sentences:

Has Eggworthy cracked the Case of the Missing Chicken? (subject = *Eggworthy,* verb = *has cracked*)

Lulu crossed the Alps in the dead of winter without help from a single elephant. (subject = *Lulu,* verb = *crossed*)

Cedric and his enemies have reached an agreement about the number of words in a "super-tweet." (subjects = *Cedric and his enemies,* verb = *have reached*)

Al swam for 15 minutes and rowed for an hour before nightfall. (subject = *Al,* verbs = *swam, rowed*)

Notice that some of the clauses have two subjects and some have two verbs, but each expresses one main idea. Here are a few examples of sentences with more than one clause:

SENTENCE: Michael struggled out from under the blankets and then he dashed after the enemy agent.

CLAUSE 1: Michael struggled out from under the blankets (subject = *Michael,* verb = *struggled*)

CLAUSE 2: then he dashed after the enemy agent (subject = *he,* verb = *dashed*)

SENTENCE: After Cedric had developed the secret microfilm, Eggworthy sent it to whatever federal agency catches spies.

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CLAUSE 1: After Cedric had developed the secret microfilm (subject = *Cedric,* verb = *had developed*)

CLAUSE 2: Eggworthy sent it to whatever federal agency catches spies (subject = *Eggworthy,* verb = *sent*)

CLAUSE 3: whatever federal agency catches spies (subject = *agency,* verb = *catches*)

With your sharp eyes, I'm sure you noticed something odd about the last example. Clause #3 is actually part of clause #2. It's not a misprint. Sometimes one clause is entangled in another. (This topic is deep in the pathless forests of grammar! Get out now, while you still can!)

Here's one more example that's really complicated:

SENTENCE: Whoever ate the secret microfilm is in big trouble.

CLAUSE #1: Whoever ate the secret microfilm (subject = *whoever,* verb = *ate*)

CLAUSE #2: Whoever ate the secret microfilm is in big trouble. (subject = *whoever ate the secret microfilm,* verb = *is*)

Yes, one clause is the subject of another clause. Good grief! What a system. For those who truly love grammar: The subject clause is a noun clause. See "Knowing the three legal jobs for subordinate clauses" later in this chapter for more information.

How many clauses can you find in this sentence?

The microfilm reader that Eggworthy normally uses broke when Eggworthy accidentally dropped his omelet into the motor.

Answer: Three clauses are tucked into this sentence. Did you find them all? Clause #1 = The microfilm reader broke. Clause #2 = that Eggworthy normally uses. Clause #3 = when Eggworthy accidentally dropped his omelet into the motor.

Getting the goods on subordinate and independent clauses

Some clauses are like mature grown-ups. They have their own apartment, pay their own rent, and wash the dishes frequently enough to ward off a visit from the health inspector. These clauses have made a success of life; they're *independent.*

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Other clauses are like the brother-in-law character in a million jokes. They still live at home, or they crash on someone's couch. They're always mooching a free meal, and they never visit a Parental Unit without a bag of dirty laundry. These clauses are not mature; they can't support themselves. They're *dependent.* These clauses may be called *dependent clauses* or *subordinate clauses.* (The terms are interchangeable.)

Following are two sets of clauses. Both have subject-verb pairs, but the first set makes sense alone and the second doesn't. The first set consists of independent clauses, and the second of subordinate clauses.

Independent clauses:

Cedric blasted Bobby with a radar gun.

Bobby was going 50 m.p.h.

The cougar could not keep up.

Did Bobby award the trophy?

Subordinate clauses:

After Cedric had complained to the race officials

Because Bobby had installed an illegal motor on his skateboard

Which Eggworthy bought from an overcrowded zoo

Whoever ran the fastest

Independent clauses are okay by themselves, but writing too many in a row makes your paragraph choppy and monotonous. Subordinate clauses, however, are not okay by themselves because they don't make complete sentence. To become complete, they have to tack themselves onto independent clauses. Subordinate clauses add life and interest to the sentence (just as the guy crashing on your couch adds a little zip to the household). But don't leave them alone, because disaster will strike. A subordinate clause all by itself is a grammatical felony — a sentence fragment.

Standardized test-makers are hooked on complete sentences. Steer clear of fragments and run-ons (see Chapter 5 for more information) when you're holding a #2 pencil and an answer booklet.

The best sentences combine different elements in all sorts of patterns. In the following example, I join the independent clauses and subordinate clauses to create longer, more interesting sentences:

After Cedric had complained to the race officials, he blasted Bobby with a radar gun.

Because Bobby had installed an illegal motor on his skateboard, he was going 50 m.p.h.

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The cougar, which Eggworthy bought from an overcrowded zoo, could not keep up.

Did Bobby award the trophy to whoever ran the fastest?

Combine the ideas in each of these sets into one sentence.

Set A:

Betsy screamed at the piano mover.

The mover dropped the piano on the delicate foot of the vivacious violinist.

Set B:

Anna solved a quadratic equation.

The equation had been troubling the math major.

Set C:

Michael gave special trophies.

Some people wanted those trophies.

Those people got the trophies.

Answer: Several combinations are possible. Here are three:

A. Betsy screamed at the piano mover who dropped the piano on the delicate foot of the vivacious violinist.

B. Anna solved a quadratic equation that had been troubling the math major.

C. Michael gave special trophies to whoever wanted them.

Knowing the three legal jobs for subordinate clauses

Okay, subordinate clauses can't stand alone. What can they do? They have three main purposes in life, as you see in the following sections.

Describing nouns and pronouns

Yup, subordinate clauses can describe nouns and pronouns. That is, the subordinate clause may give your listener or reader more information about a noun or pronoun in the sentence. Here are some examples, with the subordinate clause in italic:

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The book *that Michael wrote* is on the best seller list. *(that Michael wrote* describes the noun *book)*

Anyone *who knows Michael well* will read the book. *(who knows Michael well* describes the pronoun *anyone)*

The book includes some information *that will prove embarrassing to Michael's friends. (that will prove embarrassing to Michael's friends* describes the noun *information)*

You don't need to know this fact, so skip to the next paragraph. Still here? Okay then. Subordinate clauses that describe nouns or pronouns are called *adjectival clauses* or *adjective clauses.* Happy now?

Describing verbs, adjectives, or adverbs

Subordinate clauses can also describe verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. The subordinate clauses tell you *how, when, where,* or *why.* Some examples, with the subordinate clause in italic, are as follows:

Because Michael censored himself, the book contains nothing about the exploding doughnut. *(Because Michael censored himself* describes the verb *contains)*

We will probably find out more *when the movie version is released. (when the movie version is released* describes the verb *will find)*

The government may prohibit sales of the book *wherever international tensions make it dangerous. (wherever international tensions make it dangerous* describes the verb *may prohibit)*

Michael is so stubborn *that he may sue the government. (that he may sue the government* describes the adverb *so)*

More grammar terminology, in case you're having a very dull day: Subordinate clauses that describe verbs are called *adverbial clauses* or *adverb clauses.* Subordinate clauses that describe adjectives or adverbs (mostly in comparisons) are also *adverbial clauses.* Adverbial clauses do the same job as single-word adverbs. They describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Acting as subjects or objects inside another clause

This one is a bit more complicated: Subordinate clauses may do any job that a noun does in a sentence. Subordinate clauses sometimes act as subjects or objects inside another clause. Here are some examples, with the subordinate clause in italics:

When the book was written is a real mystery. *(When the book was written* is the subject of the verb *is)*

No one knows *whom Michael hired to write his book. (whom Michael hired to write his book* is the object of the verb *knows)*

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Michael signed copies for *whoever bought at least five books. (whoever bought at least five books* is the object of the preposition *for)*

Stop now or risk learning more useless grammar terms. Noun *clauses* are subordinate clauses that perform the same functions as nouns — subjects, objects, appositives, and so on.

Check out the italicized clause in each sentence. Subordinate or independent? You decide.

A. *Even though Michael hit a home run,* our team lost by more than 50 runs.

B. *Eggworthy danced for a while,* but then he said that his head was splitting and sat down.

Answer: In sentence A, the italicized clause is subordinate. In sentence B, the italicized clause is independent.

Untangling subordinate and independent clauses

You have to untangle one clause from another only occasionally — when deciding which pronoun or verb you need or whether commas are appropriate. (See the next section, "Deciding when to untangle clauses," for more information.) When you do have to untangle them, follow these simple steps:

1. Find the subject-verb pairs.
2. Use your reading comprehension skills to determine whether the subject-verb pairs belong to the same thought or to different thoughts.
3. If the pairs belong to different thoughts, they're probably in different clauses.
4. If the pairs belong to the same thought, they're probably in the same clause.

Another method also relies on reading comprehension skills. Think about the ideas in the sentence and untangle the thoughts. By doing so, you've probably also untangled the clauses.

Check out these examples:

SENTENCE: The acting award that Lola received comes with a hefty check.

SUBJECT–VERB PAIRS: *award comes, Lola received*

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UNTANGLED IDEAS: 1.) The award comes with a hefty check 2.) Lola received the award.

CLAUSES: 1.) *The acting award comes with a hefty check.* (Independent clause) 2.) *that Lola received* (subordinate clause)

SENTENCE: When Lulu tattoos someone, they stay tattooed.

SUBJECT–VERB PAIRS: *Lulu tattoos, they stay*

UNTANGLED IDEAS: 1.) Lulu tattoos someone 2.) they stay tattooed

CLAUSES: 1.) *When Lulu tattoos someone* (subordinate clause) 2.) *they stay tattooed* (independent clause)

Untangle this sentence into separate clauses.

Lola's last motorcycle, which she bought second-hand, was once owned by Elvis.

Answer: Clause #1 is *Lola's last motorcycle was once owned by Elvis.* Clause #2 is *which she bought second-hand.*

Try another. Untangle the following sentence.

No one knows when Anna sleeps.

Answer: Clause #1 is *no one knows.* Clause #2 is *when Anna sleeps.*

Deciding when to untangle clauses

Why would you want to untangle clauses? Not just because you have nothing better to do. (If you have that much free time, please stop by to clean out my closets.) You should untangle clauses when you're choosing pronouns, verbs, and punctuation. Read on for the whole story.

When you're picking a pronoun

When you're deciding whether you need a subject or an object pronoun, check the clause that contains the word. Don't worry about what the entire clause is doing in the sentence. Untangle the clause and ignore everything else. Then decide which pronoun you need for that particular clause.

Many of the decisions about pronouns concern *who* and *whom.* (For tricks to help you make the *who/whom* choice, see Chapter 23. For a general discussion of pronoun usage, turn to Chapters 9 and 17.)

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Here's one untangling example, with the pronoun problem in parentheses:

SENTENCE: Ella wasn't sure (who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause #1: *Ella wasn't sure.* Clause #2: *(who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *(who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.*

CORRECT PRONOUN: *who* (subject of *would want*)

When you're deciding on the correct verb

When you're deciding subject-verb agreement in one clause, the other clauses are distractions. (By agreement, I mean matching singular subjects with singular verbs and plural subjects with plural verbs.) If you're writing (not speaking), I recommend that you cross out or cover the other clauses with your finger. Check the clause that worries you. Decide the subject-verb agreement issue, and then erase the crossing-out line or remove your hand. (For more information on subject-verb agreement, see Chapter 10.)

Here are two untangling examples, with the verb choices in parentheses:

SENTENCE: Larry, whose brides are always thrilled to marry into the royal family, (needs/need) no introduction.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause #1= *Larry (needs/need) no introduction.* Clause #2= *whose brides are always thrilled to marry into the royal family.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *Larry (needs/need) no introduction.*

CORRECT VERB: *needs* (Larry = singular, *needs* = singular)

SENTENCE: That ring, which Larry recovers after each divorce and reuses for each new engagement, *has/have* received a recycling award.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause #1 = *That ring has/have received a recycling award.* Clause #2 = *which Larry recovers after each divorce and reuses for each new engagement.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *The ring has/have received a recycling award.*

CORRECT VERB: *has* (*ring* = singular, *has* = singular)

When you're figuring out where to put commas

Sometimes you have to untangle clauses in order to decide whether or not you need commas. Go through the same untangling steps that I discuss earlier in the chapter (see "Untangling subordinate and independent clauses") and then flip to Chapter 13 to see how to use commas correctly.

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Putting your subordinate clauses in the right place

Finding the correct place to put your subordinate clauses is simple. Clauses acting as subjects or objects nearly always fall in the proper place automatically. Don't worry about them!

Put the subordinate clause that describes a noun or pronoun near the word that it describes. Here are a few examples of proper placement of clauses that describe nouns and pronouns:

> Larry's wedding coordinator, *who planned his last eight ceremonies,* is hiring more staff. (The italicized clause describes the noun *coordinator.*)
>
> The coordinator took care of every detail; he even baked the cakes *that Larry's guests enjoyed.* (The italicized clause describes the noun *cakes.*)
>
> Anyone *who is on a diet* should stay away from Larry's weddings. (The italicized clause describes the pronoun *who.*)

If the subordinate clause describes the verb, it may land at the front of the sentence or at the rear. On rare occasions, the clause settles down in the middle of the sentence. Here are some examples:

> *Although Anna understood the equation,* she chose to put a question mark on her answer sheet. (The italicized clause describes the verb *chose.*)
>
> She wrote the question mark *because she wanted to make a statement about the mysteries of life.* (The italicized clause describes the verb *wrote.*)
>
> Anna failed the test; but *until her mother found out about the question mark,* Anna was not distressed. (The italicized clause describes the verb *was.*)

For lots more detail on placing all sorts of descriptions in their proper places, see Chapters 7 and 19.

An unbelievably obscure punctuation rule that no normal people follow calls for a semicolon in front of a conjunction — a word that joins — when a comma appears elsewhere in the sentence. (For more information on conjunctions, see Chapter 5.) As someone who's never going to be anything but a nerd, I followed that rule in the preceding sample sentence. Because of the comma after *mark,* I placed a semicolon in front of the conjunction *but.* You should know that if you follow this rule, most of your readers will think that you've made an error. However, a few die-hard grammarians will break into tears of gratitude because someone else knows how to use a semicolon correctly. (Excuse me for a moment while I wipe my eyes.)

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Choosing content for your subordinate clauses

What to put in a clause depends upon the writer's purpose. Generally, the most important idea belongs in the independent clause. Subordinate clauses are for less crucial information. Check out these examples:

IMPORTANT IDEA: Godzilla ate my mother.

LESS IMPORTANT IDEA: My mother was wearing a green dress.

GOOD SENTENCE: Godzilla ate my mother, who was wearing a green dress.

NOT-SO-GOOD SENTENCE: My mother was wearing a green dress when Godzilla ate her.

IMPORTANT IDEA: Agwamp just won a trillion dollars

LESS IMPORTANT IDEA: His name means "ancient bettor" in an obscure language.

GOOD SENTENCE: Agwamp, whose name means "ancient bettor" in an obscure language, just won a trillion dollars.

NOT-SO-GOOD SENTENCE: Agwamp, who just won a trillion dollars, says that his name means "ancient bettor" in an obscure language.

Of course, some writers stray from this pattern to make a comic point or to emphasize a character trait. Suppose you're writing about someone who, to put it mildly, tends to be self-absorbed. A sentence like the following one emphasizes that trait:

While the stock price tanked and sales plummeted, the CEO examined his photo on the company Web site.

The wreck of the company isn't a big deal for this negligent CEO, and its placement in the subordinate clause reinforces that fact.

Regardless of what you place in a subordinate clause, be sure to connect it to the sentence properly. For more discussion on joining independent and subordinate clauses, see Chapter 5.

Combine these ideas into a single sentence containing at least one independent and one subordinate clause.

IDEA #1: an archaeologist made a major discovery

IDEA #2: she was listening to classic rock on the radio

IDEA #3: the ancient betting parlor was filled with discarded lottery tickets

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Answer: Several combinations are possible. Here are two:

> While listening to classic rock on the radio, the archaeologist made a major discovery, an ancient betting parlor filled with discarded lottery tickets.

In this version, the subordinate clause is *While listening to classic rock on the radio*. The independent clause is *the archaeologist made a major discovery, an ancient betting parlor filled with discarded lottery tickets.* This version emphasizes the discovery. The *classic rock* information is interesting but not particularly important.

> As she made a major discovery, an ancient betting parlor filled with discarded lottery tickets, the archaeologist listened to classic rock.

Now the subordinate clause is *As she made a major discovery, an ancient betting parlor filled with discarded lottery tickets.* The independent clause is *the archaeologist listened to classic rock.* Placing the musical information in the independent clauses raises its importance. This version might appear in an essay about the role of music in the workplace, archaeologists' daily routines, or the musical tastes of this particular archaeologist.

Getting Verbal

Ah, diversity. Wouldn't the world be boring if everyone and everything were the same? Ah, harmony. Isn't it wonderful when different backgrounds join forces to create a new, improved blend?

In grammar, the new, improved blend of two parts of speech is a *verbal.* Verbals are extremely useful hybrids. In this section, I tell you what's what, and then I show you how to use verbals.

Appreciating gerunds

The noun and the verb get married, move into a little house on the prairie, and pretty soon the patter of little syllables hits the airwaves. The children of this happy marriage are *gerunds.* Gerunds inherit some characteristics from their mother, the verb:

- They end in -ing and look like verbs — *swimming, dripping, being, bopping, bribing,* and so on.
- They may be described by words or phrases that usually describe verbs — swimming *swiftly,* dripping *noisily,* being *in the moment,* bopping *to the rhythm of a great new song,* bribing *yesterday,* and so on.

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- The type of clause that usually describes verbs may also describe gerunds — swimming *after the race ends,* dripping *when the cap is not tightened,* being *wherever you should be,* bopping *although you are tired,* bribing *whenever you want something.*
- They may have objects or subject complements — swimming *laps,* dripping *drops of gooey glop,* being *president,* bopping *Roger on the nose,* bribing *public officials and umpires,* and so on.

From their father, the noun, gerunds inherit only two characteristics, but one is a biggie:

- BIGGIE: They act as nouns in the sentence. Therefore, gerunds may be subjects, objects, and anything else that a noun can be.
- NON-BIGGIE: Words that usually describe nouns or pronouns — adjectives — may also describe gerunds — *my* swimming, *noisy* dripping, *illegal* bribing, and so on. (Is there any legal bribing?)

In these examples, I italicized the gerund and all the words associated with it (the *gerund phrase,* in grammarspeak):

> *Swimming the Atlantic Ocean* was not exactly what Ella had in mind when she married Larry. *(swimming the Atlantic Ocean* = subject of the verb *was)*
>
> Anna, a neat person in every possible way, hates *my dripping ice cream on the rug*. *(my dripping ice cream on the rug* = direct object of the verb *hates)*
>
> The importance of *being earnest in one's playwriting* cannot be overemphasized. *(being earnest in one's playwriting* = object of the preposition *of)*
>
> After *bopping Roger on the nose,* Michael took off at about 100 m.p.h. *(bopping Roger on the nose* = object of the preposition *after)*
>
> Betsy gave *bribing the umpire* serious consideration when her team lost its 450th game in a row. *(bribing the umpire* = indirect object of the verb *gave)*

Working with infinitives

The *infinitive* is another happy child of two different parts of speech. (See Chapter 2 for more information on infinitives.) The infinitives' mother is the verb, and from her, infinitives inherit several important characteristics:

- Infinitives look like verbs, with the word *to* tacked on in front — *to dance, to dream, to be, to dally, to prosecute,* and so on.
- Words or phrases that usually describe verbs may also describe infinitives — to dance *divinely,* to dream *daily,* to be *in the kitchen,* to dally *for hours,* to prosecute *ferociously,* and so on.

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- Similarly, the type of clause that usually describes verbs may also describe infinitives — to dance *until the cows come home,* to dream *when your heart is breaking,* to be *wherever you want to be,* to dally *even though homework awaits,* to prosecute *because justice demands action,* and so on.
- Infinitives may have objects or subject complements — to dance *a jig,* to dream *an impossible dream,* to be *silly,* to prosecute *Roger* for high crimes and misdemeanors, and so on.

The infinitive inherits its job in the sentence from the father. Who, you may ask, is the father of the infinitive? Well, the infinitive's mom gets around, and the father may actually be any one of three parts of speech (shocking, isn't it?):

- Most infinitives act as subjects, objects, or subject complements. (Dad is a noun.)
- A few infinitives describe nouns. (Dad is an adjective.)
- A few infinitives describe verbs. (Dad is an adverb.)

Read these examples of infinitives in their natural habitat, the sentence. I italicized the infinitive and the words associated with it (the *infinitive phrase,* in technical terms):

To dance on Broadway is Lola's lifelong dream. *(to dance on Broadway* = subject of the verb *is)*

During cabinet meetings, Larry likes *to dream with his eyes open. (to dream with his eyes open* = object of the verb *likes)*

Lulu's lifelong goal is *to be silly* when everyone else is serious. *(to be silly* = subject complement of the verb *is)*

The case *to prosecute* is the one about the exploding doughnut. *(to prosecute* describes the noun *case)*

Ella went to that nightclub just *to dally. (to dally* describes the verb *went)*

Participating with a participle

Last but not least of the verbals (a word that is a blend of two different parts of speech) is the participle. *Participles* are actually parts of verbs (hence the amazingly original name). In some sentences participles act as part of the verb, but in those situations, they're not called verbals. I ignore the acting-as-verb participles here, but if you want more information about them, see Chapter 3. When participles are verbals, they, like the other two verbals, inherit some important traits from their mom the verb:

- Participles look like verb parts, though they may have several different forms. Some end with *-ing,* some with *-ed,* and some with other letters.

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Also, they may have helping verbs. *Driven, coping, elevated, having crossed,* and *gone* are a few examples of participles.

- Words or phrases that usually describe verbs may also describe participles — driven *home,* coping *bravely,* elevated *to the position of Emperor,* having crossed *illegally,* gone *with the wind,* and so on).
- Similarly, the type of clause that usually describes verbs may also describe participles — driven *although he has two perfectly good feet,* coping *bravely when tragedy strikes,* elevated *because he bribed three officials,* having crossed *where no man has crossed before,* gone *after the sun sets,* and so on.
- Participles may have objects or subject complements — elevated *Ella to the position of Empress,* having crossed *the road,* and so on.

From their father, the adjective, participles take one characteristic: They describe nouns and pronouns.

Participles may appear in several different spots in the sentence:

- They may precede the noun or pronoun that they describe: *tired* feet (the participle *tired* describes the noun *feet*), *sneezing* dwarves (the participle *sneezing* describes the noun *dwarves*), *burped* baby (the participle *burped* describes the noun *baby*).
- They may follow a linking verb, in which case they describe the subject. (A linking verb is a form of the verb *to be* or a sensory verb. See Chapter 2 for more information.)

  Ella is *exhausted.* (The participle *exhausted* follows the linking verb *is* and describes *Ella.*)

  Betsy's concerto sounds *enchanting.* (The participle *enchanting* follows the linking verb *sounds* and describes *concerto.*)
- They may follow the noun or pronoun that they describe. In this position, participles often include descriptive words or objects. The participles and the words associated with them — the *participial phrases* — are italicized here:

  Someone, *having angered the herd of cattle,* is running for the fence at the speed of light. *(Having angered the herd of cattle* describes *someone.)*

  I want to repeal the new anti-bubble gum law *passed by the senate. (Passed by the senate* describes *law.)*
- Participles may begin the sentence, in which case they must describe the subject of the sentence:

  Poked in the tummy, the doll immediately said, "Watch it, Buster!" *(Poked in the tummy* describes *doll.)*

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> *Having been smashed against the picture window,* Lola's nose looked sore. *(Having been smashed against the picture window* describes *nose.)*

Spicing Up Boring Sentences with Clauses and Verbals

Which paragraph sounds better?

> Michael purchased a new spy camera. The camera was smaller than a grain of rice. Michael gave the camera to Lola. Lola is rather forgetful. She is especially forgetful now. Lola is planning a trip to Antarctica. Lola accidentally mixed the camera into her rice casserole along with bean sprouts and orange marmalade. The camera baked for 45 minutes. The camera became quite tender. Michael unknowingly ate the camera.
>
> Michael purchased a new spy camera that was smaller than a grain of rice. Michael gave the camera to Lola, who is rather forgetful, especially now that she is planning a trip to Antarctica. Accidentally mixed into Lola's rice casserole along with bean sprouts and orange marmalade, the camera baked for 45 minutes. Michael unknowingly ate the camera, which was quite tender.

I'm going to take a guess; you said that the second paragraph was better, didn't you? It's a bit shorter (62 words instead of 69), but length isn't the issue. The first paragraph is composed of short, choppy sentences. The second one flows. Grammatically, the difference between the two is simple. The second paragraph has more subordinate clauses and verbals than the first.

You don't need to know how to find or label clauses or verbals. However, you should read your writing aloud from time to time to check how it sounds. The old saying, variety is the spice of life, applies to writing. Use this checklist to see whether your writing could use a little hot pepper:

- Do all your sentences follow the same basic pattern, subject-verb or subject-verb-complement?
- Have you strung a lot of short sentences together with *and* or a similar joining word?
- Are all your sentences more or less the same length?

If you answered yes to one or more of the preceding questions, a trip to the spice rack is in order. In this section, with a minimum of grammatical labels, I suggest some ways to add flavor to blah sentences.

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The clause that refreshes

Have you ever seen those diet ads on late-night television? The before picture shows someone who has apparently eaten a rainforest, and the after picture displays a toothpick-thin body. In this section I provide some before-and-after sentences. No diets — just a change from boring to interesting. My insertions are subordinate clauses, which are italicized. (For more information on subordinate clauses, see "Getting the goods on subordinate and independent clauses" earlier in this chapter.)

> BORING BEFORE VERSION: Max sat on a tuffet. Max did not know that he was sitting on a tuffet. Max had never seen a tuffet before. He was quite comfortable. Then Ms. Muffet came in and caused trouble.
>
> EXCITING AFTER VERSION: Max, *who was sitting on a tuffet,* did not know *what a tuffet was because he had never seen one before. Until Ms. Muffet came in and caused trouble,* Max was quite comfortable.

Doesn't the "after" paragraph sound better? It's two words shorter (33 instead of 35 words), but more important than length is the number of sentences. The before paragraph has five, and the after paragraph has two. Tucking more than one idea into a sentence saves words and makes your writing less choppy.

Verbally speaking

Verbals pull a lot of information into a little package. After all, they represent a blend of two parts of speech, so they provide two different perspectives in just one word. Look at this sentence, taken from the gerund section, earlier in this chapter:

> Betsy gave *bribing the umpire* serious consideration when her team lost its 450th game in a row.

Without the gerund, you use more words to say the same thing:

> Betsy's team lost its 450th game in a row. Betsy thought about whether she should bribe the umpire. Betsy thought seriously about that possibility.

Okay, the gerund saved you seven words. Big deal! Well, it is a big deal over the course of a paragraph or a whole paper. But more important than word count is sentence structure. Verbals are just one more color in your crayon box when you're creating a picture. Who wants the same old eight colors? Isn't it fun to try something different? Gerunds, infinitives, and participles help you vary the pattern of your sentences. Here's a before-and-after example:

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BORING BEFORE VERSION: Lulu smacked Larry. Larry had stolen the sacred toe hoop from Lulu's parrot. The sacred toe hoop was discovered 100 years ago. Lulu's parrot likes to sharpen his beak on it.

EXCITING AFTER VERSION: *Smacking Larry* is Lulu's way of telling Larry that he should not have stolen the sacred toe hoop from her parrot. *Discovered 100 years ago,* the toe hoop serves *to sharpen the parrot's beak.*

LABELS FOR THOSE WHO CARE: *Smacking Lulu* = gerund, *discovered 100 years ago* = participle, *to sharpen the parrot's beak* = infinitive.

POP QUIZ

Combine these ideas into one or more sentences.

Larry bakes infrequently. He bakes with enthusiasm. His best recipe is for king cake. King-cake batter must be stirred for three hours. Larry orders his cook to stir the batter. The cook stirs, and Larry adds the raisins. Sometimes Larry throws in a spoonful of tuna fish.

Answer: Many combinations are possible, including the following:

Larry's *baking* is infrequent but enthusiastic. His best recipe, king cake, requires three hours of *stirring,* which Larry orders his cook to do. *Adding* raisins and the occasional spoonful of tuna fish is Larry's job. (The italicized words are gerunds.)

Larry, who bakes infrequently but enthusiastically, excels at cooking king cake, which requires three hours of stirring. Ordering his cook to stir, Larry adds raisins and the occasional spoonful of tuna fish. (*who bakes infrequently but enthusiastically* = subordinate clause, *cooking king cake* = gerund, *which requires three hours of stirring* = subordinate clause, *ordering his cook* = participle, *to stir* = infinitive)

DEMONS

You're hanged, but a picture is hung

In Michael's new movie, Lulu stars as the righteous rebel leader *hanged* by the opposition. After the stirring execution scene, the rebels rally, inspired by a picture of Lulu that someone *hung* on the wall of their headquarters.

To hang is a verb meaning *to suspend.* In the present tense the same verb does double duty. You *hang* a picture and you also *hang* a murderer, at least in countries with that form of capital punishment. Past tense is different; in general, people are *hanged* and objects are *hung.*

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Extra! Extra! Deleting All That's Extra From Your Sentences

I live in Manhattan, an island surrounded by water. My 17-story apartment building is tall. It was built many years ago in 1929. I work as a teacher in a school. I write *For Dummies* books about grammar, which explain grammar to readers. I will also consider jumping from the roof of my tall apartment building if I have to write any more boring, repetitive, say-the-same-thing-at-least-twice sentences like these.

Okay, I believe I made my point. Sentences stuffed with filler sound silly and condescend to the reader. I mean, really. *An island surrounded by water* — that's clever. What surrounds other islands? Bagels? My *For Dummies books about grammar explain grammar to readers*. There's a shock. I'm sure you thought my grammar books explained Tai Chi or llama-raising. And once I wrote *repetitive*, I didn't have to tack on *say-the-same-thing-at-least-twice.* One word said it all.

Should you care about wordy, repetitive sentences? For several reasons, you should care very much:

- If you say the same thing over and over again, your readers or listeners tune you out. Why would they pay close attention? If they miss something because they're, say, calculating the square root of 547 or deciding which body part to pierce, they assume you'll pick up the slack by going over the same ground again. Do you really want an audience that fades in and out? I don't think so.
- Repetition wastes time, one of the most valuable commodities on earth. As one of my *For Dummies* editors once remarked, "Say it and move on. Our readers are busy!" She was right.
- If you're writing under pressure — a school assignment or a work project, perhaps — you need fewer minutes to accomplish your task if you don't repeat yourself.
- Concise writing sounds strong and confident. Take a look at this sentence:

  > In my opinion, I think that homework should possibly be considered for banning, perhaps.

  Compare that clunker with this sentence:

  > Homework should be banned.

  Do I have to ask which version sounds more forceful? Version 1 fumbles around, hat in hand. Version 2 hits you right on the nose.

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A frequent flyer on the SAT Writing and the ACT English tests is repetition. The test-gnomes want to know that you can pare down your prose to its leanest state without sacrificing meaning. I assume they like this topic because professors do NOT like grading papers. Speaking as an English teacher, I'm happier with a 300-word essay than with a 500-word essay that says the same thing.

Take out your pruning shears and give this paragraph a trim. Your answer should include all the information of the original, expressed with fewer words.

> When my elderly grandmother reached the age of 90, she found that her glasses, which helped her eyesight, didn't work as well as they had in previous years. She proceeded to travel to the optometrist, where her eyes were tested and measured as to how much she could see. Grandma tried on several pairs of fashionable frames of the latest style. She chose a gold metal frame by the famous designer, Sebastian Icare, who artistically decides how the frames should look. (81 words)

Answer: Many answers are possible. Here's one:

> When my grandmother was 90, her glasses didn't work as well as they once had. The optometrist tested her eyes. Grandma tried on several fashionable pairs and chose a gold frame by the famous designer, Sebastian Icare. (37 words)

Here's what I cut and why

1. If she's 90, the reader knows she's *elderly.*
2. *Glasses help eyesight*. There's a fact you couldn't figure out by yourself!
3. The verb *had* tells you that the action you're discussing (how well the glasses worked for Grandma) is prior to time when Grandma discovered the problem. So *in previous years* isn't needed.
4. It's not likely that the optometrist made a house call (not in this century — actually, not in this universe!). You don't have to explain that *she proceeded to travel to the optometrist.*
5. *Tested* and *measured* are the same in this context.
6. *Fashionable* and *of the latest style* are the same.
7. *Gold* is a *metal*. Don't state the obvious.
8. Icare is a designer, so his job is to decide *how the frames should look.*

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Part VI

The Part of Tens

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In this part . . .

This section opens the door to a grammatical life beyond *English Grammar For Dummies.* After you've absorbed the rules of grammar, you've still got to apply them. Chapter 26 provides ten strategies to improve your proofreading. (After reading this chapter, you'll never sign a letter "Yurs turly" again.) Chapter 27 lists ten ways to train your ear for good English, a process that inevitably improves your speech and writing. You may not follow all the suggestions that I give you, but you'll find at least some appealing.

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Chapter 25

Ten Ways ~~Two~~ to Improve Your Proofreading

In This Chapter

- Checking your work with the help of a computer
- Proofreading more effectively

You read it 50 times and finally clicked the "Send" button. Then you sat there, heart pounding. Was the message good enough? Had you explained yourself well? How would the recipient react? Unable to calm your fears, you sat down to read the text for the 51st time. And that's when you finally saw it — an error. Not a little error, but a big one. An embarrassing one. The grammatical equivalent of a pimple on the tip of your nose.

Sound familiar? A situation like the one above has happened to all of us. In this chapter, I give you ten tricks to improve that all-important final check.

Read Backward

Okay, I know that reading backward sounds crazy, but successful proofreading is about breaking habits. If you read something over and over, after a while you're on automatic pilot. Your eye jumps at exactly the same spot simply because that's where it jumped before. So if you missed the error the first time, you'll miss it again. You've got to do something different to break the monotony of reviewing your work. If you read backward (word by word, not the letters that make up a word), you're in a good frame of mind to catch spelling errors because reading in the wrong direction means that you must check each word separately. If you read backward, you can't swing through a sentence by hopping to every fifth or sixth word.

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Wait a While

Your work is done, you've read it, and you've made the corrections. Now what do you do? Save the draft and then put it away and do something else. Go water-skiing, run for president, or clean the closet. Then come back to the writing — refreshed and with a new point of view. You'll see your work with new eyes — and find mistakes.

Of course, this method works only if you've left some time before the deadline. If you finish your report three nano-seconds before your boss or teacher wants to see it, you'll have to forgo this method of proofreading.

Read It Aloud

I know, I know. You don't want to sound like a dork. But reading aloud helps you *hear* your writing in a different way. So blast some music and lock yourself in the bathroom. Read your writing in a normal speaking voice. Did you stumble anywhere? If so, you may have come across an error. Stop, circle the spot, and continue. Later, check all the circles. Chances are you'll find something that should be different.

Delete Half the Commas

During the last two weeks of the grading period, students visit me with their rough drafts in hand for a quick check before the final, graded copy is due. Privately I think of that time as *Comma Season.* I spend most of the day deleting hundreds of punctuation marks. (I also add a handful or two.) If you're like most people, your writing has commas where none are needed. Go back and check each one. Is there a reason for that comma? If you can't identify a reason, take the comma out.

Swap with a Friend

The best proofreading comes from a fresh pair of eyes. After you've written your essay, report, parole petition, or whatever, swap with a friend. You'll see possible errors in your friend's writing, and he or she will see some in yours. Each of you should underline the potential errors before returning the paper. Make sure you check those sections with special care.

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Let the Computer Program Help

Not foolproof, by any means, computer grammar- and spell-checks are nevertheless helpful. After you've finished writing, go back and check the red and green lines (or whatever signal your computer supplies). Don't trust the computer to make the corrections for you; the machine makes too many mistakes. The computer identifies only *possible* mistakes and misses many errors (homonyms, for example). Let your own knowledge of grammar and a good dictionary help you decide whether you need to change something.

Check the Verbs

Traps sprinkled in every sentence — that's the way you should look at verbs. Give your work an extra verb check before you declare it finished. Consider *number:* should the verb be singular or plural? Consider *tense:* have you chosen the correct one? Do you have any sentences without verbs? If so, take care of the problem.

Check the Pronouns

Pronouns present potential pitfalls and are also worthy of their own special moment. Give your work an extra once over, this time checking all the pronouns. Singular or plural — did you select the appropriate number? Does each pronoun refer to a specific noun? Did you avoid sexist pronoun usage? Did you give a subject pronoun a job suited to an object pronoun, or vice versa?

Know Your Typing Style

I have a tendency to hold the Shift key down a little too long, so many of my words have two capital letters: THe, KNow, and so on. Do you have a mistake that results from your typing style? Notice when you have to backspace as you type and then check for similar errors when you finish typing.

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The Usual Suspects

Look at your earlier writing, preferably something that was corrected by a teacher or someone else in a position to point out your mistakes. Where is the red ink concentrated? Those red-ink areas are the usual suspects that you should identify in future writing. For instance, if you have a number of run-on sentences in an old paper, chances are you'll put a few in a new paper. Put "run-on" on your personal list of common errors. Don't let any piece of writing leave your desk until you've searched specifically for those errors.

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Chapter 26

Ten Ways to Learn Better Grammar

In This Chapter

- Going beyond *English Grammar for Dummies* to improve your grammar
- Using real-world resources to train your ear for good grammar

This book helps you learn grammar, as does my other Dummies grammar title, *English Grammar Workbook For Dummies*. (Yes, this is a shameless bit of self-promotion. Sorry.) Yet I must admit that these books aren't the only way to improve your communication skills. A few other resources may also help you in your quest for perfect language. In this chapter, I suggest ten ways to learn better grammar.

Read Good Books

You probably won't get far with *Biker Babes and Their Turn-ons* or *You're a Butthead: The Sequel to Snot-Nose.* But good books usually contain good writing, and if you read some, pretty soon your own speech and writing will improve. How do you know whether a particular volume contains good writing? Check the reviews, ask the bookstore clerk, or read the blurb (the comments on the book's jacket). Classics are always a choice, but you may also find modern texts, both fiction and non-fiction, written according to the best grammar rules.

The point is to expose your mind to proper English. When you read, you hear the author's voice. You become accustomed to proper language. After a while correct grammar sounds natural to you, and you detect non-standard English more easily.

Watch Good TV Shows

When I say to watch good TV shows, I'm not talking about programs with audio tracks that are mostly grunts, such as wrestling. I'm referring to shows in which people actually converse. Programs on the nerd networks are a good bet. You know the shows I mean; the producers assume that the audience

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wants to learn something. The screen has a lot of talking heads (images of commentators, not the rock band) with subtitles explaining why each is an expert. Watch them in secret if you're afraid of ruining your reputation, and pay attention to the words. Don't expect to pick up the finer points of grammar on TV, but you can get some pointers on the basics.

Peruse the News

News broadcasts on radio, television, and the Internet are fine sources of literate (okay, semi-literate on some networks) role models. You can train your ear for grammar at the same time that you learn a lot about current events. Just think of the advantage when you need a pick-up line. Instead of "Come here often?" or "What's your sign?" you can mention our diplomatic stance on Iran. (On second thought, maybe you should stick to astrology.)

Read the Newspaper

Well, read some newspapers. Years ago I started to "pay" my students one point for each grammar error that they found in print. I eventually had to rule out a couple of publications because it was just too easy to gather material. Avoid publications that report Elvis sightings and have headlines like "Man with Four Arms Tests Deodorant for a Living." (I actually saw that headline in a supermarket tabloid!) Read with a grammarian's eye, absorbing *how* the writer expresses an idea.

Flip through Magazines

If all the words in a magazine are in little bubbles above brightly colored drawings, you may not find complete sentences and proper pronoun usage. However, most published writers have at least the fundamentals of good grammar, and you can learn a lot from reading publications aimed at an educated audience. How do you know whether a publication is aimed at an educated audience? Check the articles. If they seem to address issues that you associate with thoughtful readers, you're okay. Even if they address issues that aren't associated with thoughtful readers, you may still be okay. Reading well-written magazine articles will give you some models of reasonably correct grammar. And as a side effect, you'll learn something.

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Download Podcasts

Though the Internet has been blamed for the death of language by (in my opinion) hysterical anti-technology types, you can find terrific material online, some of which actually contains proper English. Download audio or video podcasts on your favorite subjects (tennis, anyone? how about ancient Egyptian poetry?) and pay close attention to the language — what people are saying and *how* they're saying it. Your ear for good grammar will sharpen over time. By the way, I'm not advocating that you download *only* material that reflects proper English. You've got to have fun, too. A podcast declaring, "The defense creamed us last night" can be valuable to your mental health, not to mention your social life. Just include *some* nerd-friendly stuff.

Check Out Strunk and White

The best book ever written on writing is *The Elements of Style* (Allyn and Bacon). This book is so tiny that it fits into your shirt pocket. Authors William Strunk, Jr. and E.B. White (yes, the fellow who wrote *Charlotte's Web* and *Stuart Little*) tackle a few grammar issues and make important points about style. You'll spend an hour reading it and a lifetime absorbing its lessons.

Listening to Authorities

Listen! Your teacher or boss probably says that word often, and you should (pause to arrange a dutiful expression) always do what your personal Authority Figure says. Apart from all the other reasons, you should listen in order to learn better grammar. By speaking properly, he or she is probably giving you English lessons along with descriptions of the Smoot-Whatever Tariff Act, the projected sales figures, and so forth.

Reviewing Manuals of Style

No, manuals of style won't tell you whether *eggplant* is one of this year's approved colors or what kind of nose ring Hollywood favors. In way more detail than I can go into in *English Grammar For Dummies,* manuals of style tell you in exhaustive (and exhausting) detail, where to put every punctuation

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mark ever invented, what to capitalize, how to address an ambassador, and lots of other things that you never really wanted to know. Some universities and a few groups of recognized rule-creators publish manuals of style, in print, and, in some cases, online. If you're writing a term paper or a business report, ask your teacher or boss which manual of style he or she favors. Use the recommended book or Web site as a reference for the picky little things and as a guide to the important issues of writing.

Surfing the Internet

I can't leave this one out, though the Internet contains as many traps as it does guiding lights. Type *grammar* in a search engine and press enter. Sit back and prepare yourself for a flood of sites explaining the rules of grammar. Some sites are very good; some are horrible. University- or school-sponsored URLs (Web addresses), are a safe bet. You can also read some good grammar commentary on the Dummies Web site, *www.dummies.com*.

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PREFACE

Wren & Martin's *Primary School English Grammar & Composition* (PSEGC) has been specially designed to be used as a prequel to the *Middle School English Grammar & Composition*, and the highly popular, *High School English Grammar & Composition*.

Primary School English Grammar & Composition is largely based on the latest developments in the study of English structure and usage. The main objective of this book is to equip the learners with the ability to use English effectively in real-life situations.

Unlike many traditional grammar books, this book helps the student to use the language as well as gives detailed information about the language. It provides ample guidance and practice in sentence building, correct usage, comprehension, composition and other allied areas so as to equip the students with the ability to communicate effectively in English.

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Unit 1
Nouns

Chapter 1 Naming Words

Read the following sentences.

1. **Hari** is tall.
2. The **dog** is mad.
3. I live in **Nagpur**.
4. I have a **computer.**
5. The **rose** is beautiful.
6. Look at the **aeroplane.**
7. The **pen** is mine.

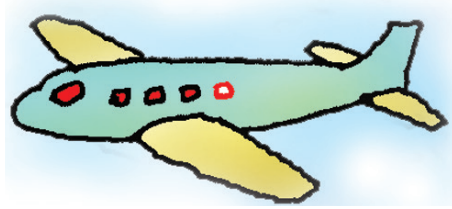

The word 'Hari' is the name of a person.
The word 'dog' is the name of an animal.
The word 'Nagpur' is the name of a place.
The word 'computer' is the name of a thing.
The words 'rose', 'aeroplane' and 'pen' are also the names of things.

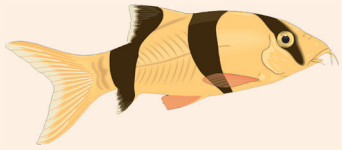

Name of anything

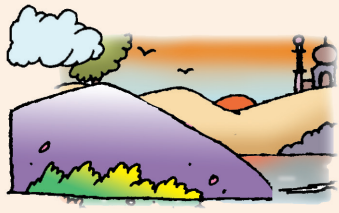

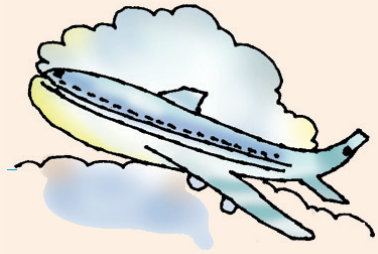

A **Noun** is the name of a person, animal, place or thing.

Let us look at some more examples of nouns.

1. A *boy* and his *monster* dined at a *pizza restaurant*.
2. *Pizza* is *Alvin's* favourite *food*.
3. The *bulbul* sings sweetly.
4. The *rose* is red.
5. The *cow* gives *milk*.
6. *Mice* fear *cats*.
7. The *book* is on the *desk*.
8. I have some *coins* in my *pocket*.
9. *Dad* found his *key* in the *car*.
10. *Andrew* is eating a *peach*.
11. *Nikhil* flew a *kite* in the *park*.
12. The *clock* was broken.
13. *Mr Jain* corrected the *test*.
14. Six *dogs* ran across the *pavement*.
15. *Dhruv* is reading an exciting *book* about *plants*.

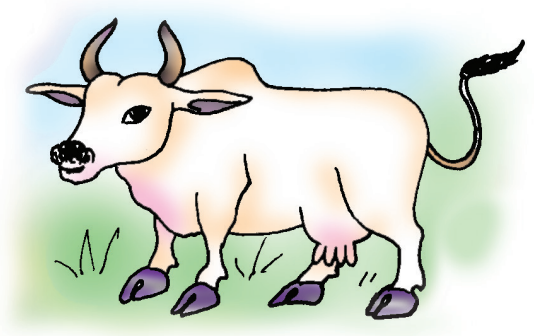

All the italicised words in the above sentences are nouns which are names of persons, places, animals or things.

EXERCISE 1

Complete the word under each picture.

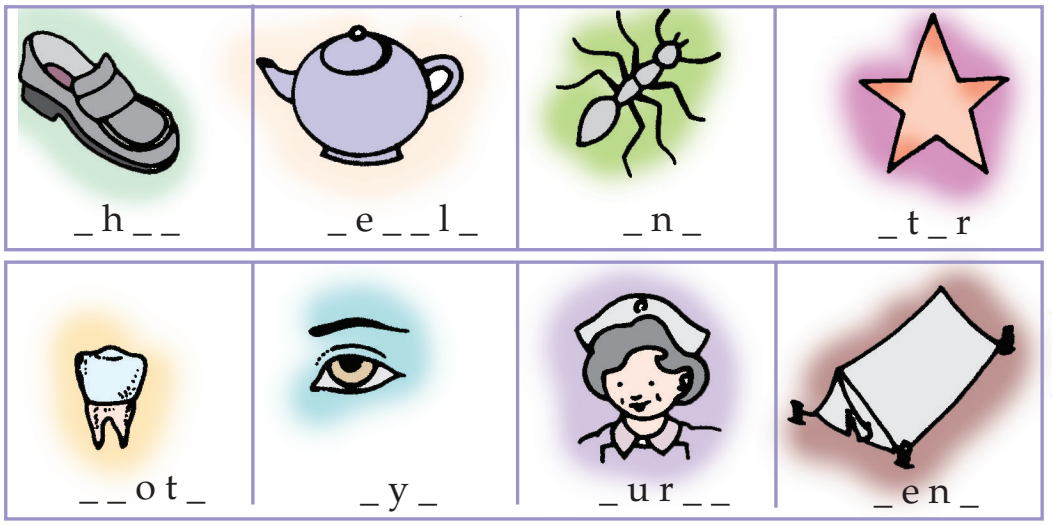

_ c _	_ _ b b _ t	_ x	_ r _ _
_ _ d _ e r	_ _ r	_ p _ _ e	_ e _ _
_ e e _ _ e	_ a _ n	_ n _	n _ _ l

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Nouns in the following sentences.

1. Arnav went to buy school books.
2. The lion is a carnivorous animal.
3. Ants are always busy.
4. The ink is in the inkpot.
5. My books are in my desk.
6. The sun is in the sky.
7. Bread is made from flour.
8. The earth goes round the sun.
9. The dog ran after the thief.
10. Birds build nests in trees.
11. The wolf killed the goat.
12. I see a bird on that tree.
13. I have a green parrot.

14. Is there any water in that pot?
15. Foxes live in holes in the ground.
16. Hari wrote a letter to his father.

EXERCISE 3

In the following sentences, pick out the Nouns and divide them into four groups: names of people, animals, places and things. Draw a similar table as shown below in your notebook and write down the words.

People	Animals	Places	Things

1. Rama is tall.
2. Radha is short.
3. Sit down, Hari.
4. Stand up, Abdul.
5. Look at that horse.
6. Did you see that dog?
7. That is Bob.
8. Nanak reads well.
9. Varanasi is on the banks of the Ganga.
10. This knife is sharp.
11. Please give Rama your book.
12. The children are watching a video.
13. A lion is stronger than an elephant.
14. The cat is chasing the rat.
15. Kolkata is a large city.
16. Crows eat flesh.
17. The pencil is in my pocket.
18. Where is the bag?
19. I have a map of America.
20. The clouds bring rain.
21. Look at the moon.
22. Gopi is a gardener.
23. Agra is about 200 kilometres from Delhi.

24. Owls have large eyes.
25. There is some milk in the fridge.
26. Can you get me a calendar?
27. A clock tells the time.

Puzzle

Complete the words in the squares. They are all nouns.

(i)	T			
(ii)		T		
(iii)			T	
(iv)				T
(v)			T	
(vi)		T		
(vii)	T			

Clues

(i) A monkey has a long..... .

(ii) I saw him at the bus ..... .

(iii) 'What is the ..... today?' ' 6th.'

(iv) Birds build this.

(v) The boy is flying a ..... .

(vi) A ..... twinkles in the sky at night.

(vii) We put this to say that something is right.

Chapter 2 Kinds of Nouns

There are four kinds of nouns:

1. The Common Noun
2. The Proper Noun
3. The Abstract Noun
4. The Collective Noun

Let us learn more about them.

1. Common Nouns

Read the following sentences:

a. You have new **shoes**.
b. That **boy** wants to play with Sabby.
c. I love looking at old **bridges**.
d. We visited the **farms** in the outskirts of the **city**.
e. The **bus**'s green **paint** was beginning to rust.
f. The **children**'s playroom **floor** was covered with **toys**.
g. This **child** is ill.

h. That **batsman** made 100 runs.

Shoes, boy, bridges, farms, city, bus, paint, children, floor, toys, child, batsman are general things. They do not belong to any one particular kind. They are *common* to different categories. They are, therefore, called **Common Nouns.**

A **Common Noun** *is the name given in common to every person or thing of the same class or kind;* such as,

man, woman, boy, girl, town, country, book, desk.

2. Proper Nouns

Read these sentences:

a. **Hari** made twenty runs.
b. He is yet a **boy**.

When I say 'Hari made twenty runs,' I am speaking about one *particular* boy of that name. *Hari* is the name of one *particular* boy. *Hari* is his *own special name,* and is, therefore, called a **Proper Noun.** *Proper* means *one's own.*

A **Proper Noun** *is the special name of a particular person or place;* such as,

Abdul, Rama, Sita, Shirin, Mumbai, India.

Note: A Proper Noun always begins with a capital letter.

Note again:
Shirin is a Proper Noun, while *girl* is a Common Noun.
Rama is a Proper Noun, while *boy* is a Common Noun.
Mumbai is a Proper Noun, while *town* is a Common Noun.
India is a Proper Noun, while *country* is a Common Noun.

EXERCISE 1

Underline the Common Nouns and circle the Proper Nouns in the sentences given below.

1. Shilpi is her cousin.
2. I bought some papers from People's unit.
3. Annie played with her brother.
4. Mrs Bhatia brought her baby to the park.
5. New Delhi is the capital of India.
6. Paris is one of the most beautiful cities in Europe.

7. Our new classmate came from Tamil Nadu.
8. We went to the zoo in New Delhi.
9. Araadhya likes her new dress.
10. Saurabh has a bag of lollies.
11. The twins went to a football match in Shimla.
12. Did you know that President Obama was elected for two terms?
13. The strawberries in the ice cream came from Vinayak Farms.
14. Surabhi got a great score on her research report about Mohenjo-daro.

EXERCISE 2

Identify the underlined word in each sentence as a Proper or Common Noun. Write (P) for proper and (C) for common.

1. The Atlético de Kolkata is a good football team. _____
2. The Pune City shall play their first match tonight. _____
3. The family will eat together at the table. _____
4. The bear climbed up the tree. _____
5. I live in the state of Arunachal Pradesh. _____
6. We travelled down the Brahmaputra River. _____
7. The Chennaiyin FC is a good football team. _____
8. We will play basketball at the park. _____
9. I will walk home after school. _____
10. We saw a lion at the zoo. _____
11. We went to Lansdowne for vacation. _____
12. The Spelling Bee is an amazing championship. _____
13. We need to prepare for going back to school. _____

3. Abstract Nouns

Read the sentence given below:

The boy showed great *courage.*

We can see the *sun;* we can touch a *book;* but can we see or touch *courage?* No. It is the name of something that we can only think of. Such a name is called an **Abstract Noun.**

An **Abstract Noun** *is the name of something that we can only think of;* such as,

sweetness,		kindness,		darkness,
weakness,		pity,		pain,
hope,		doubt,		greed,
childhood,		misery,		honesty,
sleep,		sickness,		death.

Abstract Nouns are nouns which cannot be identified by using our five senses (taste, touch, sight, hearing and smell).

Read some more sentences for abstract nouns.

1. Don't you have any **decency**?
2. Don't bring your **hate** in here.
3. Dad always reminds us of the importance of **self-respect**.
4. **Love** makes the world go around.
5. **Sleep** is important for good health.
6. He is a man of **strength**.
7. The people in this part of the country live in **poverty**.
8. **Cruelty** to animals is a punishable offence.

4. Collective Nouns

When a noun is the name of a number (or *collection)* of people or things considered as one, such as *army, crowd, flock, fleet,* it is called a **Collective Noun.**

The word *army* is a Collective Noun, because it is the name given to a *collection* of soldiers.

The word *crowd* is a Collective Noun, because it is the name given to a *collection* of people.

The word *flock* is a Collective Noun, because it is the name given to a *collection* of sheep or goats.

The word *fleet* is a Collective Noun, because it is the name given to a *collection* of ships.

A **Collective Noun** *is the name of a number of people or things considered as one.*

Here are more examples of Collective Nouns:

a swarm of ants/flies/bees
a pack of wolves
a bunch of keys/flowers/grapes/bananas
a flight of stairs
a clump of trees
an anthology of stories/poems
a cluster of stars/grapes
a herd of cows/deer/elephants
a shoal of fish
a row of books/houses/trees
a band of musicians
a company of actors
a gang of thieves
a crew of sailors
a team of players
a crowd of people
a choir of singers
a sheaf of grains
a volley of bullets
a quiver of arrows
a jury of judges

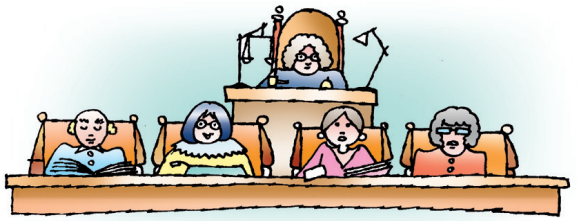

EXERCISE 3

Underline each Collective Noun in the following sentences.

1. The choir practised in the new auditorium.
2. I sing tenor in a quartet.
3. Everyone in the group received a door prize.
4. The team arrived early and went to the locker room.
5. As I watched, a flock of geese flew overhead.
6. The jury listened to the judge's instructions.
7. During lunch today the committee will meet to plan fund-raising events.
8. Can you find your way through this thick grove of trees?
9. The cat and her litter found a home in my dog's abandoned doghouse.
10. When Jared hit the beehive with a stick, a swarm of angry bees flew out.
11. For this short flight, the plane needs a crew of only three.

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of Nouns.

1. He is a man of ..... (strong)
2. India got ..... from British rule in 1947. (free)
3. Every year on 15th of August, ... awards are given to the people by the prime minister. (brave)
4. He is on a ..... to Mecca. (pilgrim)
5. I have great ..... to welcome you. (please)
6. ..... is the best period of one's life. (child)
7. ..... of any kind should always be avoided. (waste)
8. As a parent my children's ..... is of utmost importance to me. (safe)
9. As the sun went below the horizon ..... enveloped the planet. (dark)
10. There is no end to his ..... (wicked)

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the Nouns in the following sentences and say whether they are Common, Proper, Abstract, or Collective.

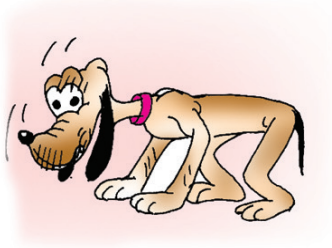

1. Mary had a little lamb.
2. My cousin has a dog, called Fido.
3. A cold wind blew last night.
4. The girl has a sweet voice.
5. The people who live in Holland are called the Dutch.

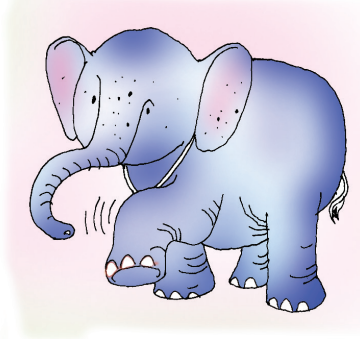

6. There was a large crowd in the street.
7. The child has caught a cold.
8. The elephant has great strength.
9. Are you speaking the truth?
10. Columbus discovered America.
11. Mumbai is a big city.

12. Solomon was famous for his wisdom.
13. He treats his children with great kindness.
14. Agra has many fine buildings.
15. Ashoka was a great king.
16. The wind and the sun had a quarrel.
17. Kolkata is on the banks of River Hooghly.

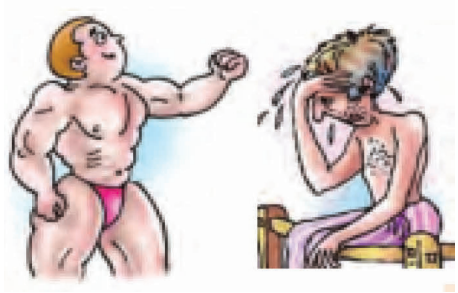

18. The girl showed great courage.
19. Ali gave his sister a great fright.
20. Our class consists of twenty pupils.
21. Without health, there is no happiness.
22. Our team is better than theirs.

EXERCISE 6

Identify the Nouns in the following sentences.

1. Mrs D'Souza was planning a field trip to the Great Himalayan Valley in Uttarakhand.
2. Parts of the Great Himalayan Valley are still unexplored.
3. The giant formations produce feelings of awe in many visitors.
4. She captured our interest by describing cave-dwelling animals and fish.
5. Blindfish live in dark areas such as caves and underground streams.
6. They have nerves on their bodies that have a special sensitivity.
7. When tiny animals such as amphipods move, the blindfish sense the movement.
8. In this way, the fish can find and eat smaller animals without using sight.
9. A blindfish may eat its own offspring if it senses their movement.
10. These young fish stop moving when they feel something swimming nearby.
11. Mammoth Cave is part of the longest known cave system in the world.
12. Can you find your way through this thick grove of trees?

Chapter 3 Number

Examine the following sentences:

1. Please give me your *book.*
2. Please give me your *books.*

The Noun *book* stands for only *one* book. It is, therefore, said to be in the **Singular Number.**

Any Noun standing for *one* person or thing is said to be in the Singular Number; such as,

boy, man, donkey, chair, desk.

The Noun *books* stands *for more than one* book. It is, therefore, said to be in the **Plural Number.**

Any Noun standing for *more than one* person or thing is said to be in the Plural Number; such as,

boys, men, donkeys, chairs, desks.

Most Nouns form their plurals *by adding s* to the singular; such as,

boy, boys	girl, girls
dog, dogs	horse, horses
chair, chairs	book, books

Some Nouns, however, form their plurals differently.

1. *By adding* **es** (if the noun ends in a hissing sound); such as,

brush, brushes	gas, gases
box, boxes	glass, glasses

2. *By changing* **y** *into* **i** *and adding* **es;** such as,

pony, ponies	lady, ladies
fly, flies	city, cities

3. *By changing* **f** *into* **v** *and adding* **es;** such as,

thief, thieves	leaf, leaves
calf, calves	knife, knives

4. *By a change of vowels;* such as,

man, men	woman, women
foot, feet	tooth, teeth
mouse, mice	goose, geese

5. *By adding* **en;** such as,

ox, oxen	child, children

EXERCISE 1

Point out the Nouns in these sentences. State whether they stand for *one* thing (or person), or *more than one* thing (or person).

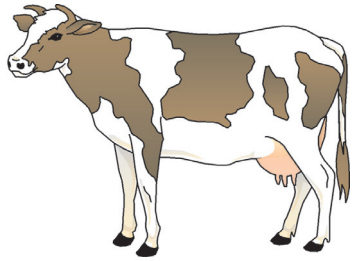

1. The boys are writing copybooks.
2. A little girl is playing with her friends.
3. Cows give milk.
4. There are many houses in this street.
5. There are five cups on the table.
6. The room has four walls and two doors.
7. All the inkpots are new.
8. I have three balls, but only two bats.
9. There are seven days in a week.
10. This book has sixty-four pages.
11. Do you see those little birds?
12. All my sisters can sing well.
13. I always bring two pencils with me.
14. Some of the rooms in this house are very big.
15. Rama knows many English words.

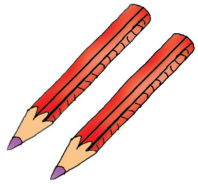

EXERCISE 2

Write the Singular form of each of the following words.

Mice _____
Flies _____
Watches _____
Children _____
Houses _____
Cities _____
Matches _____
Branches _____

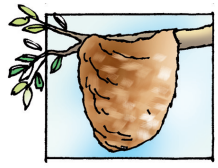

EXERCISE 3

Write the Plural form of each of the following words.

Baby _____
Branch _____
Bush _____
Wolf _____
Army _____
Loaf _____
Face _____
Wife _____
Child _____
Fox _____
Buffalo _____
Potato _____

Chapter 4 Gender

Read the sentences given below:

1. The *boy* plays well.
2. *Mary* is a clever girl.
3. The *box* is made of wood.
4. The *child* is ill.

The Noun *boy* refers to a *male*. It is, therefore, said to be of the **Masculine Gender**.

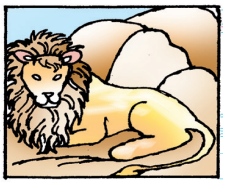

A Noun that is the name of any male person or animal is said to be of the Masculine Gender; such as,

man, uncle, lion, bull

The Noun *Mary* is the name of a *female*. It is, therefore, said to be of the **Feminine Gender.**

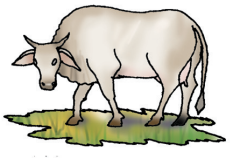

A Noun that is the name of any female person or animal is said to be of the Feminine Gender; such as,

woman, aunt, lioness, cow

The Noun *box* is the name of a thing *without life*. It is, therefore, said to be of the **Neuter Gender**, that is, of *neither gender.*

A Noun which stands for the name of a thing without life is said to be of the Neuter Gender; such as,

desk, chair, ball, knife

The Noun *child* may be used both for a male child and a female child. It is, therefore, said to be of the **Common Gender.**

Nouns which may be used both for males and females are said to be of the Common Gender; such as,

friend, cousin, pupil, person, parent

(i) Some Feminine Nouns are formed from their Masculine forms *by adding the suffix* ***-ess*** (sometimes with a slight change) or ***-ine;*** such as,

lion – lioness;
prince – princess;
emperor – empress;
shepherd – shepherdess;
heir – heiress;
actor – actress;
hero – heroine.

(ii) Some Feminine Nouns are formed from their Masculine forms *by changing the prefix, or suffix;* such as,

cock-sparrow – hen-sparrow;
he-goat – she-goat;
manservant – maidservant;
grandfather – grandmother;
landlord – landlady;
milkman – milkmaid.

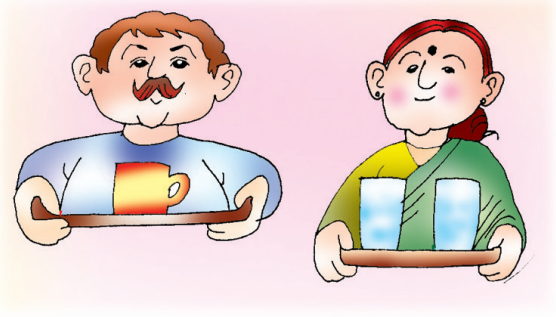

(iii) Many Nouns have *different words* for the Masculine and the Feminine; such as,

boy – girl;
king – queen;
cock – hen;
man – woman;
gentleman – lady;
uncle – aunt;
bull – cow;
horse – mare;
nephew – niece;
husband – wife.

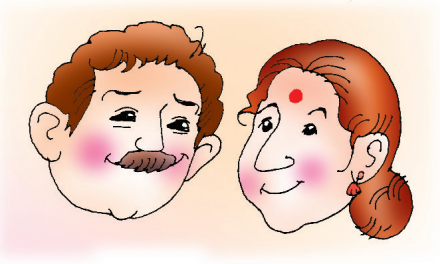

EXERCISE 1

Complete the chart.

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
lion		nephew	
	countess	son	
emperor		waiter	
heir			mother-in-law
	princess		headmistress
	bride		landlady
gentleman			mother
hero		king	
	lass		
	female		
	Mrs		

EXERCISE 2

Find the appropriate Masculine and Feminine Gender for the following nouns.

Noun	Masculine	Feminine
Bear		
Cat		
Cattle		
Chicken		
Deer		
Donkey		
Duck		
Fox		
Sheep		
Swan		
Tiger		

Chapter 5 Possessive Nouns and Use of Apostrophe

Look at the following sentences:

1. This is *Rama's* book.
2. Is that your *brother's* bat?
3. My *uncle's* house is a long way from here.

In each of these sentences we see a pair of nouns, one of which is the name of the possessor and the other the name of the thing possessed. A noun (or pronoun) used *to show possession* is said to be in the Possessive form.

In the above sentences each of the nouns, ***Rama's, brother's, uncle's***, is in the Possessive form.

A Possessive Noun indicates ownership (or possession).

Some examples of possessive nouns (look at the words in bold):

a **dog's** bone
a **man's** jacket
a **lion's** mane
a **girl's** pen

The examples above are obviously about possession (i.e., ownership).

They refer to:

a. the bone of the dog,
b. the jacket of the man,
c. the mane of the lion,
d. the pen of the girl,

The Possessive Noun usually answers the question, *Whose?*

Now read the following sentences:

1. *Shirin's* mother is ill.

2. The *horse's* mane is long.
3. The *bee's* sting is painful.

In these sentences the nouns in the Possessive form are in the singular number, and the possessive form is made by adding an apostrophe (') and an *s*.

Now examine the Nouns in the possessive form in the following sentences:

1. Many *boys'* books are lost.
2. All these *horses'* feet are shod.
3. We saw rows of *soldiers'* tents.

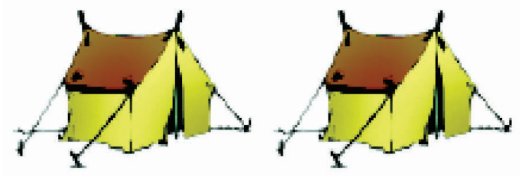

As you see, the nouns in the possessive form are here in the plural number. *As the plural nouns themselves end in s,* only the apostrophe (') is used, and not another *s.*

Examine these sentences:

1. *Men's* lives are short.
2. The *children's* toys are broken.
3. These *oxen's* humps are large.

In these sentences the nouns in the Possessive form are in the plural number but do not end in *s*. Therefore, the apostrophe (') and *s* are used (as in the singular).

1. To change a *singular noun* into a *singular possessive* noun, add *'s* (apostrophe *s*). It doesn't matter if the singular noun ends in s already.

   The *name of my son* is Vihaan changes to My *son's name* is Vihaan.

   The *hair of Vihaan* is black changes to *Vihaan's hair* is black.
2. To change an *irregular plural noun* into a *possessive*, add *'s* (apostrophe *s*).

   The *papers of the men* are on the shelf changes to The *men's papers* are on the shelf.

   The *nails of the women* are brittle changes to The *women's nails* are brittle.
3. To change a *regular plural noun* into a *possessive*, add only ' apostrophe. *Do not add another s*.

The *sister of the girls* is tall changes to The *girls' sister* is tall.
The *marks of the students* are low changes to The *students' marks* are low.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Possessive Nouns in the following sentences.

1. The children found a bird's nest.
2. Tom attends a boys' school.
3. The children's clothes are new.
4. The ladies' sarees were beautiful.
5. The girl's voice is sweet.
6. The farmer's work is done.
7. The baby's doll is lost.
8. The boy's uncle is here.

EXERCISE 2

Underline the correct Possessive Noun and rewrite the sentence.

1. The (animal/animal's) fur keeps it warm.
2. The (birds/bird's) nest is in my yard.
3. The (squirrels/squirrel's) tail is bushy.
4. The (dog's/dogs) owner is very responsible.
5. The (childrens/children's) trip to the zoo was fun.
6. The (puppys/puppy's) tail wags when he is happy.
7. The (duck's/ducks) home is in the lake.
8. The (man's/mans) tools got wet in the rain.
9. The (dog's/dogs) owner took it inside the house.
10. Can you see the (lions'/lion's) paws?

EXERCISE 3

Rewrite the underlined words by using a Possessive Noun Phrase.

1. The name of my friend is Anirudh.
2. The wife of Gaurav is friendly.
3. The daughters of my neighbours walk to school.
4. The dog of my friends barks a lot.
5. The bicycles of the children are in their garage.
6. The car of that woman looks new.
7. The wives of the men are friendly.
8. The tyre of the bus is flat.
9. The name of that restaurant is Village Inn.
10. The name of one waitress is Susy.

Unit 2
Pronouns

Chapter 6 Pronouns

Read the sentences in boxes 1 and 2.

BOX 1	BOX 2
(a) Shrimant lives in Pune. Shrimant is a merchant.	(i) Shrimant lives in Pune. He is a merchant.
(b) Jane lost the book. Jane cried.	(ii) Jane lost the book. She cried.
(c) Rama has a parrot. The parrot speaks well.	(iii) Rama has a parrot. It speaks well.
(d) Deviprasad saw the thieves. The thieves wore masks.	(iv) Deviprasad saw the thieves. They wore masks.
(e) Rama is playing. Tell Rama to read.	(v) Rama is playing. Tell him to read.
(f) Where is Sita? Ask Sita to come here.	(vi) Where is Sita? Ask her to come here.
(g) Where is the chair? Bring the chair here.	(vii) Where is the chair? Bring it here.
(h) Where are the boys? Call the boys soon.	(viii) Where are the boys? Call them soon.

(a) The word *he* is used instead of the noun Shrimant.
(b) *She* is used for Jane.
(c) *It* is used for parrot and chair.
(d) *They* is used for thieves.
(e) *Them* is used for boys.
(f) *Him* is used for Rama and *her* is used for Sita.

Now read the following sentences.

Listen to Rama; *he* is singing.
Govind and Ganesh are here.
They have come to hear *him.*
He will be glad to see *them*.

In the above sentences, the words in italics are used *instead of nouns.* It is easier and better to use such words than to keep on repeating the nouns, and say:

Listen to Rama; Rama is singing.
Govind and Ganesh are here.
Govind and Ganesh have come to hear Rama.
Rama will be glad to see Govind and Ganesh.

Such words, which are used *for* or *instead of nouns*, are called Pronouns.

The word Pronoun means *for* a noun.

A Pronoun is a word which is used instead of a noun.

Number	Person	Gender	Personal Pronouns	
			Subject	Object
Singular	1st Person	Male/Female	I	me
	2nd Person	Male/Female	you	you
		Male	he	him
	3rd Person	Female	she	her
		Neuter	it	it
Plural	1st Person	Male/Female	we	us
	2rd Person	Male/Female	you	you
	3rd Person	Male/Female/Neuter	they	them

EXERCISE 1

In the following sentences, the words in *italics* are Pronouns. Pick out the Nouns for which the Pronouns are used.

1. Fred, *you* are very lazy.
2. My name is Babu. *I* go to school daily.
3. Shirin, what have *you* done?
4. Radha went out just now. *She* will return in an hour.
5. The teacher has a new desk. *It* is made of wood.
6. All the boys have new desks.
   They are all made of wood.

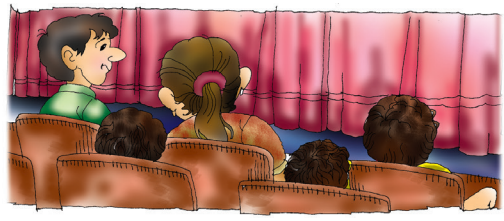

7. What a beautiful flower! Rama, where did *you* buy *it*?
8. My mother calls *me* Moti, I love *her*.
9. Is *she* your sister? Who brought *her* here?
10. The theatre is full of children. *They* are about to see a comic show.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Pronouns in the following sentences, and say which nouns each one stands for.

1. When the tiger saw the woman, it sprang upon her.
2. The girl lost a bangle, but she found it near her.
3. Just listen to Hari. He must be made to talk so.
4. Buy them; they are the best mangoes in the shop.
5. A miser bought a lump of gold. He buried it in a hole.
6. Some boys found a nest in a tree. It was wonderful. They found five eggs in it.

7. The lark is singing gaily; it loves the bright sun.
8. Tom took his breakfast, and ate it by a purling brook.
9. Gopal is a gardener. He works alone.

EXERCISE 3

Change some of the Nouns into Pronouns, in the following sentences.

1. The girl sang sweetly. The people listened to the girl. The people liked the girl. The people gave the girl money.
2. These soldiers are wounded. These soldiers must go to hospital. The doctors will heal these soldiers. The doctors will not make the soldiers pay money.
3. A boy saw a mango. The boy wanted the mango. The boy said, 'The mango is ripe.' The boy took the mango.
4. Rupa saw Arjun. Rupa called out to Arjun. Arjun answered Rupa. Rupa and Arjun went along together. I saw Rupa and Arjun.
5. I heard a beggar asking for alms. The beggar was very old and weak. I gave the beggar a coin. The beggar took the coin and thanked me.

Chapter 7 Personal Pronouns

Personal Pronouns are used to represent specific people or things. This depends on:

a. number:

i. Singular	I
ii. Plural	We
iii. 3rd person	he/she

b. person:

i. 1st person	I
ii. 2nd person	you

c. gender:

i. Male	he
ii. Female	she
iii. Neuter	it

d. case:

i. Subject	we
ii. Object	us

Read the following sentences:

1. Did *I* not tell *you* to be punctual, Rama?
2. *We* should always speak the truth.
3. Why are *you* crying? Are *you* afraid of *me*?
4. Let *us* go out for a walk.
5. Some men are not honest. *They* steal things.
6. Open this box. *It* is locked.
7. *You, he, she,* and *I* will do *it* together.

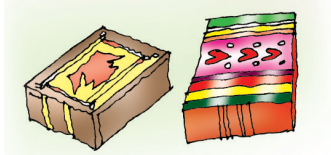

The pronouns in the above sentences stand for the names of persons or things. Such pronouns are called **Personal Pronouns.**

EXERCISE 1

Circle the correct Personal Pronouns given in brackets.

1. They saw Anish and (me/I) at the movies last night after class.

2. He is going to the party with you and (me/I), if you don't mind.
3. You and (her/she) ought to return the books to the library because they are already overdue.
4. Professor Molina left a message for you and (me/I).
5. He needs to see (us/we).
6. Ron invited Mary and (me/I) to have dinner with him.
7. Arundhati is a good basketball player. I watch Betsy and (she/her) carefully during games.
8. Tom and (me/I) both want to go to Vinita's party. She has to choose between he and (I/him).
9. Param ate dinner with the Bhargavas and (we/us).
10. The new student has been assigned to work on the group research project with you and (I/me).
11. He rang Mary and invited (she/her) to dinner.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Personal Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Rama plays well, doesn't he?
2. Have you finished the work?
3. Yes, Sir, I have.
4. They have not finished yet.
   Tell them to hurry up.
5. He had played a good game.
6. Did it rain here yesterday?
7. She is very good and clever.
8. We were away from home last week.
9. How do you do?
10. Is that a mango? No, it is an apple.

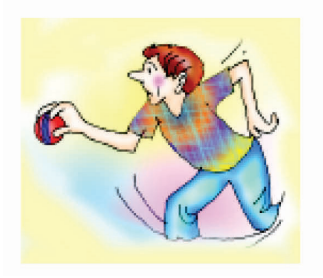

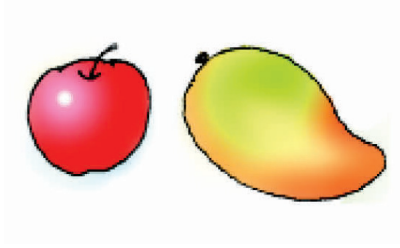

Chapter 8 Possessive Pronouns

Read the following sentences and note the words in italics.

This book is *mine*.
That house is *ours*.
This eraser is *hers*.

Words which show possession or relationship of a person or thing to another person or thing are **Possessive Pronouns**; such as *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs*.
Possessive Pronouns usually follow the nouns they refer to. They never come before the noun.

Note: Apostrophes are not used in Possessive Pronouns.

✓ Yours × Your's

EXERCISE 1

Circle the correct Possessive Pronouns.

1. My bag is heavier than yours/your's.
2. These shoes are my/mine.
3. This cat is their/theirs.
4. This phone looks different from my one/mine.
5. The house with the yellow windows is ours/our.
6. This book is hers/her.
7. Can I have your pen? Mine/my isn't working.
8. If the house belongs to them, it is their/theirs.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with correct Possessive Pronouns.

1. I gave her my phone number and she gave me …… .
2. I gave him my phone number and he gave me …….. .
3. He gave her his phone number and she gave him …….. .
4. They gave us their phone number and we gave them …….. .
5. She gave him her phone number and he gave her …… .
6. He gave me his phone number and I gave him …… .
7. We gave them our phone number and they gave us …….. .
8. You gave him your phone number and he gave you …….. .
9. She gave you her phone number and you gave her …… .
10. They gave me their phone number and I gave them …….. .

EXERCISE 3

Replace the Personal Pronouns by Possessive Pronouns.

1. This book is (you) _____ .
2. The ball is (I) _____ .
3. The blue car is (we) _____ .
4. The ring is (she) _____ .
5. We met Paul and Jane last night. This house is (they) _____ .
6. The luggage is (he) _____ .
7. The pictures are (she) _____ .
8. In our garden is a bird. The nest is (she) _____ .
9. This cat is (we) _____ .
10. This was not my fault. It was (you) _____ .

Chapter 9 Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns point out specific persons, places, or things. There are two singular and two plural demonstrative pronouns.

Read the sentences given below:

1. *This* is a present from my uncle.
2. *These* are merely excuses.
3. *That* is my house.
4. *Those* are my books.

In the above sentences, *this, these, that, those,* are used to *point out* the object or objects to which they refer, and are, therefore, called **Demonstrative Pronouns.**

Refers to a singular noun that is nearby	(this)	(that)	Refers to a singular noun that is farther away
Refers to a plural noun that is nearby	(these)	(those)	Refers to a plural noun that is farther away

EXERCISE

Pick out the Demonstrative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. This is a very old fort.
2. Do not fear that.
3. What is this?
4. That is a ball.
5. These are my books; those are yours.
6. What month is this?
7. These are my cassettes.

Chapter 10 Interrogative Pronouns

Read the sentences given below:

1. *Who* broke this window?
2. *What* shall we do now?
3. *Which* would you prefer?

In the above sentences, the pronouns, *who, what* and *which,* not only stand instead of nouns, but also *ask questions.* Pronouns used for asking questions are called **Interrogative Pronouns.**

Interrogative pronouns take the place of unnamed nouns.

These refer only to people	who whom whose whoever whosoever	what which whatever whichever whatsoever	These refer to people, place or things

EXERCISE

Pick out the Interrogative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Which is your uncle's house?
2. What is the matter?
3. Who made the top score?
4. What is the news?
5. Which of the socks will you take?
6. What do you want?
7. Who is there?
8. Who did that?
9. What did you see?
10. What are those marks on your coat?

Chapter 11 Reflexive Pronouns

Read the sentences given below:

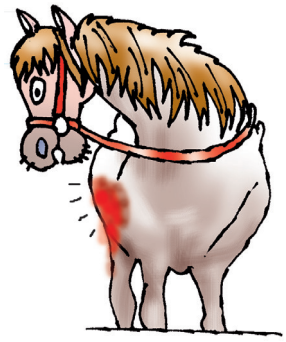

1. The prisoner hanged *himself.*
2. I look at *myself* in the mirror.
3. The horse has hurt *itself.*
4. You will burn *yourself.*

Whom did the prisoner hang?.....*himself*
Whom do I look at?.....*myself*
Whom has the horse hurt?.....*itself*
Whom will you burn?.....*yourself*

We see that in each case the doer of the action is also the receiver of the action; or, in other words, the object denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

Reflexive Pronoun (Object)
↓

I surprised myself with the grade in my paper.
Myself refers to the subject of the sentence.

The Pronouns *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves,* when used as the object of a verb or preposition, are called **Reflexive Pronouns**.

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of Reflexive Pronouns.

1. I blame .....for it.
2. We often deceive .....
3. Rama, you will hurt.....

4. Boys, you will hurt.....
5. He set.....a hard task.
6. She poisoned.....
7. The dog choked .....
8. The children hid.....
9. The old man often talks to.....
10. I saw ..... on TV last night.

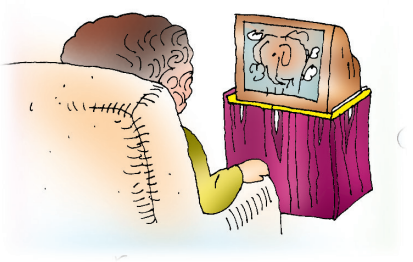

EXERCISE 2

Choose the correct Reflexive Pronoun to complete the sentences.

1. Azam made this dish himself/themselves.
2. Leena sent the email herself/itself.
3. We should do the work ourselves/myself to save on cost.
4. Did you carry this heavy bag yourself/myself?
5. I often talk to myself/ourselves when I am confused.
6. He cut himself/themselves with the knife while he was sharpening it.
7. My computer often crashes and turns off by itself/himself.
8. I myself/itself posted the letter today.
9. The children themselves/ourselves will pay for the tickets.
10. She herself/himself is responsible for the mess.

Chapter 12 Relative Pronouns

Read the sentences given below:

1. I know that boy *who* is coming.
2. Bring me the letters *which* the postman left.

In the above sentences the pronouns, ***who*** and ***which,*** not only stand instead of nouns, but also join the parts of the sentences together. Instead of saying 'I know the boy. That boy is coming.' We say, 'I know that boy ***who*** is coming,' and so make only one sentence.

who whom that which whoever whomever whichever

These pronouns *who* and *which,* used as shown above, are called **Relative Pronouns,** because they *relate* or refer to a noun preceding them in a sentence.

The noun to which a relative pronoun refers or relates is called its **Antecedent**.

Read some sentences with relative pronouns:

The house *that* Mr Bagga built in Dehradun is up for sale.
I had an aunt in Germany from *whom* I inherited a bit of money.
The person *who* phoned me last night is my teacher.
The car *which* hit me was a blue WagonR.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. I like boys who speak the truth.
2. Where is the book which I gave you?
3. God helps those who help themselves.
4. I have seen the bird which you describe.
5. I know the man who lives here.

6. Here are the books which I found.
7. I have found the pen which I lost.
8. I do not know the person who phoned.
9. The house in which we live is very old.
10. This is the tree under which we were sitting.

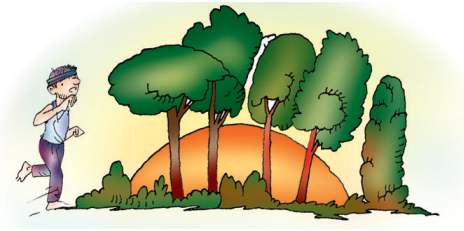

EXERCISE 2

Read each of the following sentences and underline the Pronoun.

1. When Mehak heard his response, she chuckled to herself.
2. The dog barked wildly as the people approached. He didn't like them.
3. Sara Packman was the one who stuck up Reverend Long.
4. He often does errands for his grandmother.
5. The argument was between Paridhi and him.
6. The car, the driver of which jumped out just before the accident, was completely destroyed.
7. The hat that my cousin bought looks like a lampshade.
8. My car needs cleaning. It hasn't been cleaned for a month!
9. Freddy, the Frog had been a prince before Tricky Trina cast a spell on him.
10. Fairies love berries. They are their favourite.
11. Shelly, the Icy made a magic cupcake for Prince Vince but he didn't eat it.
12. Uncle David went shopping with them on Thursday.
13. There was a letter in our mailbox that should have gone to him.
14. Before Rishik gets on the plane, he should call her.
15. They wrote letters to us about how the kangaroos are losing their habitat.
16. The librarian found the missing book when she cleaned the back room.
17. I loved to visit my aunt whenever I had a vacation from school.

Unit 3

Adjectives

Chapter 13 Describing Words

Read the following sentences and compare:

1. Balu is a boy.
2. The horse is an animal.
3. They have a car.
4. Lead is a metal.
5. Cricket is a game.

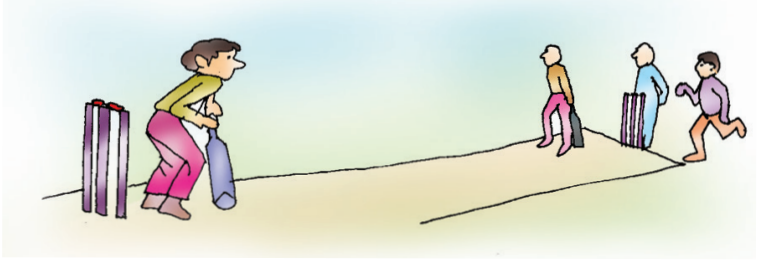

These are complete sentences. But what if we add one describing word before the nouns. Let us see:

1. Balu is a clever boy.
2. The horse is a noble animal.
3. They have a blue car.
4. Lead is a heavy metal.
5. Cricket is a popular game.

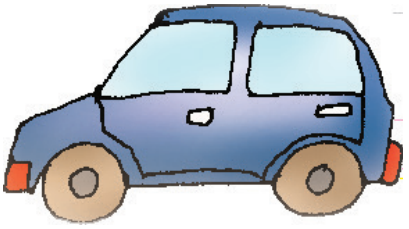

Did you understand anything?

The word 'clever' tells **what kind** of boy Balu is—it describes Balu.

The word 'noble' tells **what kind** of animal the horse is.

The word 'blue' tells **what kind** of car they have.

The word 'heavy' tells **what kind** of metal lead is.

The word 'popular' tells **what kind** of game cricket is.

We, thus, see that some words tell the **kind** of person, animal, place, or thing; or, in other words, some words are **describing words**.

An Adjective adds something
to the meaning of a Noun.

Small

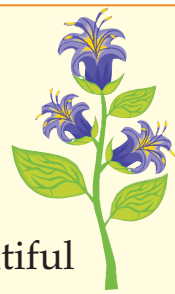

Beautiful

Let us read some more sentences.

1. Rama is a *big* boy.
2. *Lazy* students fail.
3. Govind is *poor* but *honest.*
4. England is a *rich* country.

Here, the word *big* tells *what kind* of boy Rama is.

The word *lazy* tells *what kind* of students fail.

The words *poor* and *honest* tell *what kind* of man Govind is.

The word *rich* tells *what kind* of country England is.

So, we can say that an adjective is a describing word. It tells us something more about a noun. Examples: *rainy* day, *fertile* land, *this* girl, *those* apples, *five* fingers, *many* questions, *last* question, *whose* house, etc.

Describing words are called **Adjectives.**

In the following sentences, the words in italics tell us about the kind of person, animal, place, or thing the noun is.

1. Gopal is a *small* boy.
2. Sita is a *good* girl.
3. The cow is a *useful* animal.
4. The rose is a *beautiful* flower.
5. Rahim has a *silver* watch.
6. I have a *black* dog.

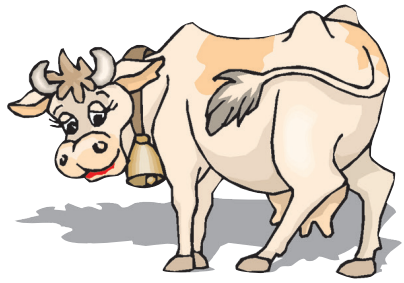

An **Adjective** is a word that describes a person, animal, place or thing.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the adjectives in the following sentences.

1. Sohrab is a brave boy.
2. Abdul is a fine batsman.
3. Kassim is an honest man.
4. Radha has a red rose.
5. He has a new cap.
6. That is a big house.
7. Dhondu is a cruel fellow.
8. I like red roses.
9. Radha is a sweet singer.
10. Clever boys win prizes.
11. Cows like green grass.
12. The mango is a delicious fruit.
13. Bahadur is a lazy boy.
14. Johnny is a polite boy.
15. The girl has a sweet voice.
16. Rustum is a young Parsee.
17. It is a bright day.
18. Mumbai has a magnificent harbour.
19. Do you see the blue sky?
20. It is a lovely baby.
21. Mary has a little lamb.
22. The barber has a sharp razor.
23. These are yellow sunflowers.
24. You may eat ripe mangoes.

EXERCISE 2

Reply to the following questions with emphasis on the adjective.

1. Is Pandu short or tall?
2. Is Rama clever or dull?
3. Are the girls busy or idle?
4. Is the knife sharp or blunt?
5. Is the way long or short?
6. Are the mangoes ripe or green?

7. Is the street broad or narrow?
8. Is the pencil hard or soft?
9. Is coal black or white?
10. Is the wind cold or warm?
11. Is the road clean or dirty?

12. Is the box empty or full?
13. Are the sums hard or easy?
14. Are the grapes sweet or sour?

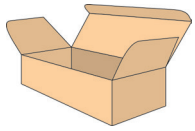

EXERCISE 3

With help from the help box, fill in the blanks with correct adjectives.

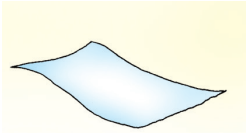

1. The paper is _____.

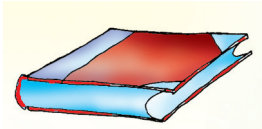

5. The book is _____.

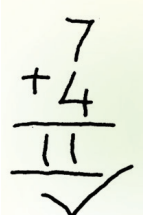

2. This is _____.

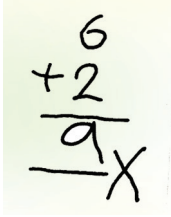

6. This is _____.

3. The boy is _____.

7. The girl is _____.

4. I am _____.

8. He is _____.

right	hungry	happy	thirsty
thin	sad	thick	wrong

EXERCISE 4

Solve the riddles. Fill in the first blank with a noun and the second blank with an adjective. You can take help from the box given below.

I'm a _____.
I'm _____.

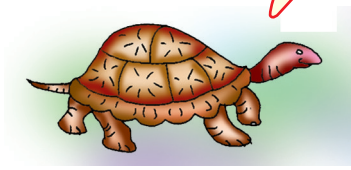

I'm an _____.
I'm _____.

I'm a _____.
I have a _____tail.

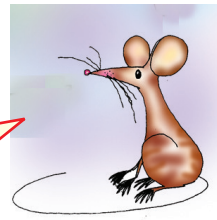

I'm _____.
I'm _____.

soup	rat	ice cream	tortoise
cold	hot	slow	long

Chapter 14 Adjectives of Number

Read the sentences given below:

1. We have **ten** fingers *(How many?)*
   The word 'ten' tells **how many** *fingers* we have.
2. He lost **both** legs.
   The word 'both' tells **how many** *legs* he lost.

An Adjective which expresses the number of persons or things is called **Adjective of Number** or **Numeral Adjective**.

Definite Numeral Adjective

Cardinals	One	Two	Three
Ordinals	First	Second	Third

Indefinite Numeral Adjective

All	No	Many
Few	Some	Any
Certain	Several	Sundry

In the following sentences, the words in italics tell how many people, animals, or things are being spoken about.

1. I had *two* white pigeons.
2. There are *twenty* boys in the class.
3. Balu won *several* prizes.
4. Tell *no* lies.

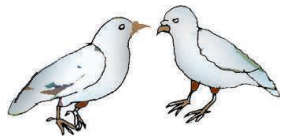

5. There were *many* bananas in the bunch.
6. *All* men must die.
7. Raise *both* hands.
8. *Some* men are cowards.
9. *Most* people think so.
10. Rama made *several* mistakes.
11. He is a man of *few* words.
12. Have you got *any* blank cassette?

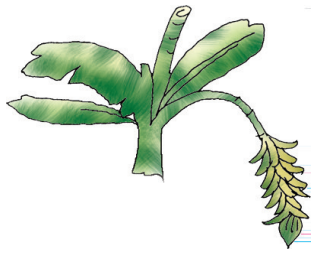

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the words which tell *how many* people, animals, or things are spoken about.

1. I saw several sheep in the valley.
2. One lamb was white.
3. All men wish to live long.
4. Some children are naughty.
5. My uncle has two sons.
6. A spider has eight legs.
7. You make a lot of mistakes.
8. Two men were drowned.
9. He made three mistakes in as many lines.
10. We have enough men to do the work.
11. He paid forty rupees for the cap.
12. Many lives were lost.
13. September has thirty days.
14. The poor man has few friends.
15. Both animals are beautiful.

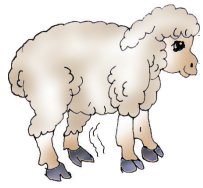

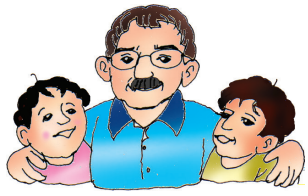

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with suitable Adjectives of Number.

1. There are _____ cups for all of us.
2. _____ girls took part in the programme.
3. _____ cats are white in colour.
4. _____ boys went on a picnic.
5. Miss Kitty made _____ mistakes in the test.
6. January is the _____ month of the year.
7. Bugsy stood _____ in the line.
8. Petu has _____ shirts in the cupboard.
9. Bowbow has _____ balls with him.
10. Mrs. Cow has _____ jars in her kitchen.

Chapter 15 Adjectives of Quality

1. Napoleon was a **great** emperor.
2. Mount Everest is the **highest** mountain peak.

   The word ***great*** in the first sentence is an ***adjective*** which tells what kind of emperor Napoleon was.

   The word ***highest*** in the second sentence is an ***adjective*** which tells what kind of mountain Mount Everest is.
3. Mahatma Gandhi was a great man.
4. Mumbai is a big city.

   The word *big* is an Adjective which tells what kind of city Mumbai is.

Let us see some other examples.

1. Bhavna is a **good** girl.

   (Ask the question '*What kind of* girl?' and you get the answer 'good'.)
2. Dhruv is a **hard working** boy.

   (Ask the question '*What kind of* boy?' and you get the answer 'hard working'.)
3. **Indian** tea is famous all over the world.

   (Ask the question '*What kind of* tea?' and you get the answer 'Indian'.)
4. He is a **gifted** footballer.

   (Ask the question '*What kind of* footballer?' and you get the answer 'gifted'.)
5. These adjectives **answer the question 'of what kind?'**

Such adjectives, which tell us of what kind a person or thing is, are called **Adjectives of Quality**. They describe a person or thing, and so they are also called **Descriptive Adjectives.**

Some more examples:

- It is a ***tall*** building.
- It was a ***rainy*** day.
- Mrs. Bhargava is a ***nice*** lady.
- Mumbai is a ***big*** city.
- This book is written on a ***true*** story.
- My sister is very ***pretty***.
- I am learning the ***Spanish*** language.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adjectives of Quality in the following sentences.

1. The girl has a sweet voice.
2. Ali is a fine batsman.
3. That is a big house.
4. I like red roses.
5. It is a bright day.
6. Bengaluru is a garden city.
7. The clear blue sky is a welcome sight after a rainy day.
8. Owls eat rats and small birds.
9. Monkeys have long tails.
10. Always drink fresh water.
11. The foolish crow tried to sing.
12. That boy is cruel.

EXERCISE 2

Identify the Descriptive Adjectives in each sentence.

1. Inderpreet has young, naughty but cute children.
2. Punit has an older and peaceful child.
3. Insects have six tiny legs.
4. Chocolate cookies are very tasty.
5. Please keep new dishes in these two boxes.
6. Mohan sells fresh vegetables at the local market.
7. Blunt scissors cannot cut thick fabrics.
8. Steam engines emit black smoke.
9. Spiders make long, sticky and strong net.
10. I have white glowing teeth.
11. Everyone in my family wears stylish sunglasses.
12. I saw a big church yesterday.
13. Children ate big pieces of chocolate cake.
14. He watched an interesting movie with me.
15. I liked the tiny kitten that chased two mice.

Chapter 16 Adjectives of Quantity

Read the sentences given below:

1. We have *enough* money to last a week.
2. He has *a lot of* money.
3. There is *some* water in the bucket.
4. There is *a little* hope of victory.

Some adjectives do not describe people or things; they tell their *number* or *amount*.

Thus, in the above six sentences, each noun has an adjective which tell us *how much.*

Such adjectives, which tell us *how much,* are called **Adjectives of Quantity**.

Let us read some more examples:

1. Our neighbour is asking for **some** flour.
   (Ask the question '*how much* flour?' and you get the answer 'some'.)
2. I don't have **much** time to answer your queries.
   (Ask the question '*how much* time?' and you get the answer 'not much'.)
3. You have given a **sufficient** explanation.
   (Ask the question '*how much* explanation?' and you get the answer 'sufficient'.)
4. She has **little** sense of what is going on.
   (Ask the question '*how much* sense?' and you get the answer 'little'.)
5. You can take **all** the jewellery.
   (Ask the question '*how much* jewellery?' and you get the answer 'all'.)

All the adjectives in the above sentences are answering the question, 'how much'.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adjectives of Quantity or Number in the following sentences.

1. Step back three paces.
2. I have told you this many times already.
3. I speak these few words to all men.
4. He is ninety years of age.
5. Did you get many marks?
6. He made several mistakes.
7. He has no money in his purse.
8. All men wish to live long.
9. Pratap made ninety runs.

EXERCISE 2

Identify the Adjectives of Quality and Adjectives of Quantity/Number in the following sentences.

1. There were some plates on the table.
2. Miss Kitty wore black shoes.
3. Petu helped the old man.
4. There were no biscuits in the tin.

5. King lifts the heavy box.
6. All members of the Bagga family went to the theatre.
7. There is sufficient food for you.
8. Bowbow has enough money to buy the bat.
9. Piggy has a long rope.
10. He was kind enough to help me.
11. There is some water in the pot.
12. Seema is a fast walker.
13. The Taj Mahal is a beautiful monument.
14. The girl has a lovely voice.
15. I have some money in my purse.
16. We had to walk some distance to reach the gate.
17. My grandmother was a wise woman.

Chapter 17 Demonstrative Adjectives

Read the following sentences:

1. **This** boy loves work. *(Which boy?)*
   The word *this* points out which *particular* boy loves work.
2. **That** TV is expensive.
   The word *that* points out which TV is expensive.
3. **These** babies seem happy.
   The word *these* points out which babies seem happy.
4. **Those** mangoes are ripe.
   The word *those* points out which mangoes are ripe.

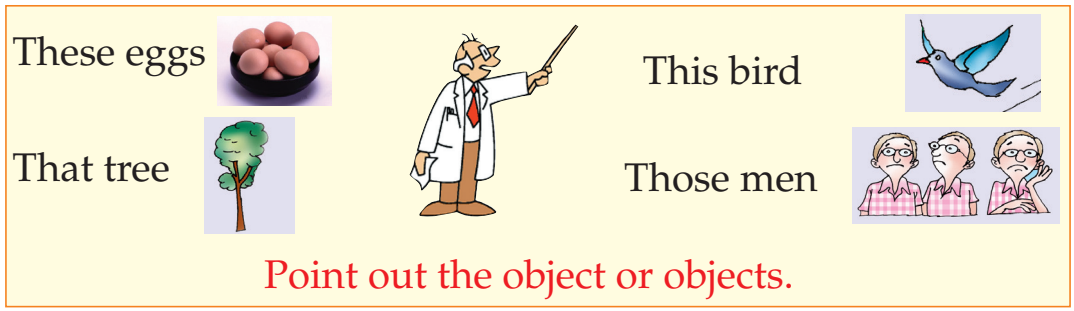

The **Demonstrative Adjectives** are *this, that, these,* and *those*. They are used to point out specific people or things.

This and *that* are used to modify singular nouns.

This is used to point out something close by. Example:

- *This* shirt is very smart.

That is used to point out something farther away. Example:

- Can you see *that* seal near the pool?

These and *those* are used to modify plural nouns.

These is used to point out something close by. Example:

- *These* pencils belong to Angad.

Those is used to point out something farther away. Example:

- Do not touch *those* cupcake moulds.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the words that *point out* the person, animal or thing named.

1. That cruel boy was punished.
2. This cassette cost me seventy rupees.
3. I want that mango.
4. I like these bananas.
5. That man seems to be poor.
6. I hate such things.
7. That computer is a new one.
8. This boy took the first prize.
9. That dog bit Rama.
10. That young lady is my cousin.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with correct Demonstrative Adjectives.

1. I think ..... batteries are dead.
2. Any of ..... computers should be good enough for what you need.
3. ..... floor is too slippery.
4. ..... garage sale has a lot of neat stuff.
5. ..... girl got a perfect score in the history test.
6. ..... cheeseburger is the best I have ever tasted!
7. ..... bus ride is too bumpy for me.
8. When ..... light turns red, the other one will turn green.

9. Can you understand the plot of ..... movie?
10. Keerti gave me ..... pen.
11. ..... boys were playing in the park.
12. I can solve ..... puzzles easily.
13. Wasn't ..... a terrible accident?
14. These people have completed the task, ... are still at it.
15. Take ..... books and put them on the shelf over there.
16. ..... apples look much fresher than those in that basket.
17. ..... people working in the garden are volunteers.
18. I can't reach for ..... bottles at the top of the shelf.

Chapter 18 Interrogative & Possessive Adjectives

Read these sentences given below:

1. *What* kind of man is he?
2. *Which* way shall we go?
3. *Which* mango do you want?

In the above sentences, the adjectives *what* and *which* ask questions. They are therefore called Interrogative Adjectives.

Interrogative Adjectives are used with nouns to ask questions. Examples: which, what, whose, etc.

Read the sentences given below:

1. This is *my* desk.
2. That is *your* book.

In the above sentences the adjectives *my* and *your* are called **Possessive Adjectives**.

Possessive Adjectives show possession. They are always followed by a noun, e.g., My friend, her mother, your brother, their things, his shoes, our friends, its tail etc.

Possessive adjectives indicate possession. Examples: my, his, her, our, their, your and its.

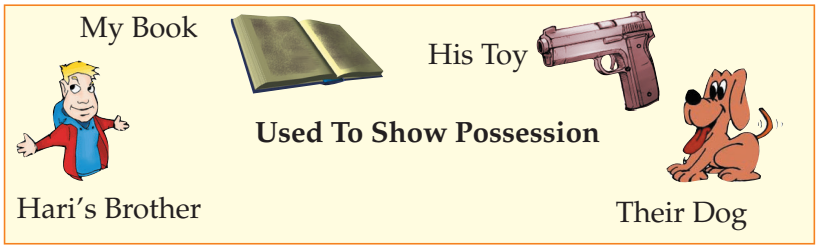

Person	Possessive Adjective
1st person	my, our
2nd person	your
3rd person	her, his, its, their

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Interrogative and Possessive Adjectives in the following sentences.

1. My sister has misplaced her phone.
2. Don't sit on my chair.
3. Which is your class?
4. Which car is yours?
5. Who has taken my pencil?
6. Are these their books?
7. No, they are our books.
8. Which bat may I take?
9. What books have you read?
10. What is your name?
11. Which house is yours?
12. By which road did the policeman go?
13. A little girl is playing with her friends.
14. What colour is your cap?
15. The village master taught his little school.

EXERCISE 2

Replace the personal pronouns by Possessive Adjectives.

1. Where is (I) ..... book?
2. Here is (we) ..... teacher.
3. She goes to school with (she) ..... brother.
4. (They) ..... house is big.
5. (You) ..... laptop is very expensive.
6. (He) ..... favourite hobby is tennis.

7. (I) ..... father and I want to go to Paris.
8. We want to see (it) ..... historical monuments.
9. Leila likes (she) ..... dog!
10. (It) ..... name is Bobby.

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with Interrogative and Possessive Adjectives.

1. ..... pen is this?
2. The dog is wagging ..... tail.
3. Write the answers in ..... notebook.
4. ..... one is yours.
5. ..... time is it?
6. The children should carry ..... water bottles to the playground.
7. ..... drink do you prefer: milk or juice?
8. Seema likes ..... milk with honey.

Chapter 19 Comparison of Adjectives

Examine the following sentences:

1. Hari is a *small* boy.
2. Ali is *smaller* than Hari.
3. Rama is the *smallest* of the three.

When I say 'Hari is a *small* boy,' do I compare him with any other boy? No; I simply say that Hari is *small*.

When I use the word *smaller*, how many boys do I compare? I compare *two* boys, Ali and Hari, and say that one is smaller than the other.

When I use the word *smallest*, I compare Hari, Ali and Rama, and say that Rama is the smallest of the three boys.

The simple form of the adjective is called the **Positive Degree** of the Adjective.

The form of the adjective used in comparing *two* objects is called the **Comparative Degree** of the adjective.

The form of the Adjective used in comparing *more than two* objects is called the **Superlative Degree** of the adjective.

Comparative adjectives are used in sentences where two nouns are compared, as in the pattern shown below:

Noun (subject) + verb + comparative adjective + *than* + noun (object)

The Comparative is usually formed by adding-*er* to the Positive.

Read some examples:

- My room is **larger** than hers.
- This chair is **smaller** than the one I was sitting on.
- Your dog runs **faster** than Sahil's dog.
- The rock flew **higher** than the roof.

Superlative adjectives are used in sentences where a subject is compared to a group of objects.

Noun (subject) + verb + the + superlative adjective + noun (object)

The Superlative is usually formed by adding-*est* to the Positive.

Read some examples:

- My house is the **largest** in our neighbourhood.
- This is the **smallest** box I have ever seen.
- Your dog ran the **fastest** of any dog in the race.

See how comparatives and superlatives are formed.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
small	smaller	smallest
tall	taller	tallest
short	shorter	shortest
bold	bolder	boldest
young	younger	youngest

Examine how the Degrees of Comparison of the following adjectives are formed:

	Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
(1)	noble	nobler	noblest
	fine	finer	finest
	brave	braver	bravest
	large	larger	largest

(2)	heavy	heavier	heaviest
	pretty	prettier	prettiest
	happy	happier	happiest
	merry	merrier	merriest
(3)	fat	fatter	fattest
	big	bigger	biggest
	sad	sadder	saddest
	red	redder	reddest

(1) When the Positive ends in *e*, only *-r* and *-st* are added.

(2) When the Positive ends in *y* with a consonant before it, *y* is changed into *i* before *-er* and *-est*.

(3) When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant with a short vowel before it, the consonant is doubled before adding *-er* and *-est*. The table below gives comparison of irregular forms:

Positive	***Comparative***	***Superlative***
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most
late	later / latter	latest / last
old	older / elder	oldest / eldest
far	farther	farthest

Notice the distinction in the use of *older* and *elder*, *oldest* and *eldest*.

He is *older* than I am.

He is my *elder* brother.

He is the *oldest* man in the village.

His *eldest* son is sixty years old.

Elder and *eldest* are normally used when comparing members of a family. They only go before nouns.

Where, however, the adjective is already a rather long word we do not make it still longer by adding *-er* or *-est.* It is then compared by prefixing *more* and *most;* as

Positive	***Comparative***	***Superlative***
expensive	more expensive	most expensive
severe	more severe	most severe
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
interesting	more interesting	most interesting
delicate	more delicate	most delicate

EXERCISE 1

Give the Comparative and Superlative degrees of the following Adjectives.

friendly	gay	small
cold	able	pleasant
dull	hot	dry
evil	weak	bright
lazy	idle	handsome
lovely	wonderful	useful
holy	severe	narrow
wise	high	thick
thin	deep	proud
clean	lucky	dangerous

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the words given in brackets.

1. Her ring is (pretty) ..... than mine.
2. Cheetahs are the (fast) ..... animals we can find.
3. Eating fruit and vegetables is (healthy) ..... than eating hot dogs.
4. I like milk (good) ..... than coffee.
5. China has (many) ..... people than any other country in the world.
6. The blue whale is the (heavy) ..... animal in the world.
7. Which is (big) ....., Portugal or Spain?
8. Travelling by plane is (comfortable) ..... than travelling by car.
9. He is the (untidy) ..... person in class.
10. Buying things made from plastic is (bad) .....than buying things from recycled paper.
11. The Nile is the (long) ..... river in the world.
12. Antarctica is one of the (cold) ..... places on Earth.
13. Greece is (hot) ..... than England.
14. Mirror, mirror on the wall, who's the (pretty) ..... of them all?

REVISION

Pick out the Adjectives in the following sentences, and say what kind of adjective each one is, and what noun it describes.

1. The poor old woman gets little food.
2. C.V. Raman was a renowned scientist.
3. One little lamb was lame.

4. I want some money.
5. That idle fellow, Abdul, is the nineteenth boy in this class.
6. There is little water in the tank.
7. Two boys came running from the house.
8. That poor man has few friends.
9. He wastes less time and takes more trouble.
10. Whose CD is this?
11. Akbar reigned for forty-nine years.
12. The spider has eight legs.
13. Shirin and Parvati are close friends.
14. One lovely hand she stretched for aid.
15. Let us see these handsome houses where the wealthy nobles dwell.
16. Look at that lazy foolish fellow!
17. A straight and wide road runs to the barracks.
18. The movie Titanic was a big hit.

Unit 4
Articles

Chapter 20 Types of Articles

The words *a, an* and *the* are called **Articles**.

A and *an* are called **Indefinite Article** because they usually leave the person or thing spoken of indefinite.

Remember

- Use *a* with a consonant, or a consonant sounding word; as with *u* and *eu* when they sound like *you* such as a European, a union.
- Use *an* before a word that starts with a vowel *(a, e, i, o, u)* or has a vowel sounding word; such as an hour, an honest man.
- The indefinite article is used to refer to something for the first time or to refer to a particular member of a group or class.

The word *the* is called the **Definite Article**, because it points out to some *particular* person or thing; such as,

He saw *the* doctor; meaning some *particular* doctor.

He wants *the* book; meaning some *particular* book.

Here are further examples:

The postman is coming. (We knew which postman.)

A postman fell off his bicycle. (We don't know which postman.

Let's go to *the* park. (the park we usually go to)

There is *a* park near Don Bosco School. (It is not clear which park.)

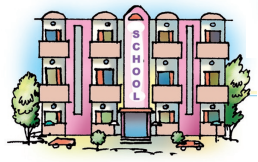

Remember

- The general rule states that the first mention of a noun is indefinite, and all subsequent references to that noun are definite and take *the*.

  Example: A girl is walking on the street. The girl is alone.

- Use *the* to refer to people or objects that are unique.

  Example: The sun rose at 6:17 this morning.
  You can go anywhere in the world.

- Use *the* before superlatives and ordinal numbers.

  Example: This is the tallest building in Delhi.
  She is writing the last chapter of her new book.

- Use *the* with adjectives, to refer to a whole group of people.

  Example: The Indians enjoy spicy food.
  She has given a lot of money to the poor.

- Use *the* with names of geographical areas, rivers, mountain ranges, groups of islands, canals, and oceans.

  Example: I went for river rafting in the Ganga.
  Hiking across the Rocky Mountains would be difficult.

- Use *the* with countries that have plural names.

  The Netherlands

  The Philippines

- Use *the* with countries that include the words 'republic', 'kingdom', or 'states' in their names.

  The United States

  The United Kingdom

- Use *the* with newspaper names.

  The Times of India

  The Hindustan Times

EXERCISE 1

Put *a* or *an* in the blanks.

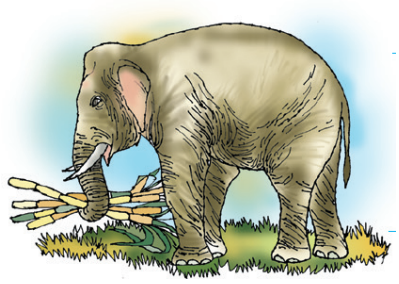

1. ..... watch
2. ..... egg
3. ..... spoon
4. ..... plate
5. ..... elephant
6. ..... European
7. ..... old man
8. ..... young woman
9. ..... bottle
10. ..... unhappy man
11. ..... useful book
12. ..... owl
13. ..... ox
14. ..... rabbit
15. ..... hour
16. ..... house

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with *a, an* or *the*.

1. I have come without .....umbrella.
2. Have you cleaned .....windows?
3. I last met him.....year ago.
4. ..... earth moves round.....sun.
5. ..... trees are swaying in ..... wind.

6. Look at .....hill. How high it is!
7. .....crow is cawing.
8. Where is ..... remote control?
9. Would you like ..... orange?
10. Mr Menon is ..... honest man.

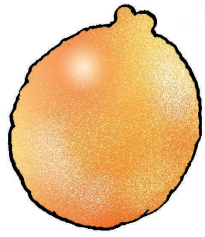

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with *a*, *an*, or *the*, or leave it blank if no article is required.

1. I started reading _____ book by Willa Cather this morning. _____ book features _____ boy named Jimmy, who moves to Black Hawk, Nebraska, to live with his relatives.

   _____ book by Cather was excellent. In the book, _____ boy (Jimmy) has _____ grandmother and _____ grandfather in Nebraska. _____ grandmother is friendly. I haven't read about his _____ grandfather yet.

2. We have _____ Korean exchange student, _____ boy, living with us. _____ boy's name is Brian, and he is _____ very good student. _____ boy (Brian) ate _____ apple after lunch today. _____ apple was delicious. Then he had _____ pear, _____ mango, and _____ glass of milk.

   Brian, _____ boy who is living with us, is really nice. He is learning how to write poetry. He wrote _____ poem this morning about _____ red flower. There is _____ beach near my house that is very nice. It was too cold to do much at _____ beach, but we had a good time.

   Papa has _____ tuba. _____ tuba (Papa's tuba) can be very loud. _____ tuba (Papa's tuba) has four valves and _____ very large mouthpiece.

Papa blows into _____ mouthpiece when he wants to play _____ song. When he presses _____ valves, different notes come out.

EXERCISE 4

Choose whether or not each sentence requires an Article.

1. I'm not going to _____ work tomorrow.
   (a) the (b) No article
2. Did you do _____ work that I asked you to?
   (a) the (b) No article
3. He's _____ really good swimmer.
   (a) a (b) No article
4. He's _____ really good at math.
   (a) a (b) No article
5. I can't come to _____ party on Friday.
   (a) the (b) No article
6. He invited me to _____ party at his house.
   (a) a (b) No article
7. Many _____ boys like to play football.
   (a) the (b) No article
8. Many of _____ boys in my class play football.
   (a) the (b) No article
9. He went on vacation to _____ Spain.
   (a) the (b) No article
10. This is _____ last time I'm going to tell you this.
    (a) the (b) No article

11. _____ last class test for this year will be held on Friday.
    (a) the (b) No article

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with *a, an* or *the*.

1. This is ..... pink dress. ..... dress is hers.
2. Here is ..... orange. ..... orange is sweet.
3. The boy lost ..... eye in the accident. It was ..... right eye.
4. In Kolkata we lived in ..... big house. ..... house had ..... big garden.
5. Have you seen ..... Taj Mahal? It is ..... magnificent monument.
6. We were invited to ..... party. But ..... party was boring.
7. Give me ..... ice cream. ..... ice cream should be ..... chocolate ice cream.
8. ..... Quran is ..... holy book of ..... Muslims.
9. He is ..... Indian, but his wife is ..... European.
10. ..... bird in hand is worth hundreds in ..... bush.
11. ..... Ganga is ..... longest river in India.
12. ..... *Times of India* is ..... best newspaper I have ever read.
13. He is ..... most intelligent student in ..... class.
14. ..... Himalayas lies to ..... north of India.
15. Hindi is ..... language of ..... people of India.
16. ..... Indians defeated ..... Sri Lankans.
17. ..... earth moves round ..... sun.
18. ..... good boy always speaks ..... truth.

Unit 5
Verbs

Chapter 21 What are Verbs?

Read the following sentences. The verbs are in *bold.*

Krishna **reads.** (What does Krishna do? He **reads.**)
Anil **eats** slowly. (What does Anil do? He **eats**...)
Aziz **ran** fast. (What did Aziz do? He **ran**....)
The dog **barks**. (What does the dog do? It **barks.**)

A **Verb** says what somebody or something **does.**

Words like **read, write, eat** and **run** tell us the work that somebody or something, does or is doing.

They are 'doing words.'
Doing words are called **Verbs.**

Further examples are given below. The Verbs are in *bold.*

1. Fram **speaks**.
2. Rustum **runs**.
3. Govind **swims**.
4. The lion **roars**.
5. The sun **shines**.
6. I **sit** on a chair.
7. He **walked** to the door.
8. They **write** on paper.
9. We **like** games.
10. She **drank** some tea.

Note that words like **is, am, are, was, have,** and **had** are also called verbs. These are not *'doing words'*. They say what somebody or something *'is'* or *'has'*.

I **am** your friend.
This book **is** useful.
The mangoes **are** ripe.
Ravi **was** late.
I **have** a video camera.
The house **has** four rooms.

A **Verb** also says what somebody or something **is** or **has.**

EXERCISE 1

Underline the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. Latif writes.
2. Rama recites.
3. Birds sing.
4. She acts on TV.
5. John laughs.
6. Sohrab works.
7. The wind blows.
8. Sohrab bowls fast.
9. Fred talks loudly.
10. They are together.
11. My brother works very hard.
12. Rama plays cricket.
13. The girl has a long hair.
14. The servant sweeps the room.

15. The grass grows fast.
16. He is lazy.
17. He knows his lesson.
18. Hari catches the ball.
19. Karim drank some water.
20. The peon rings the bell.
21. Ramdas cleans the blackboard.
22. The teacher opens the cupboard.
23. The man shot a tiger.
24. The wolf killed the goat.
25. The boy had a camera.
26. He went to school.
27. My uncle lives in Chennai.
28. I was busy.
29. He laughed at me.
30. The sun sets in the west.
31. Jatin laughs like a fool.

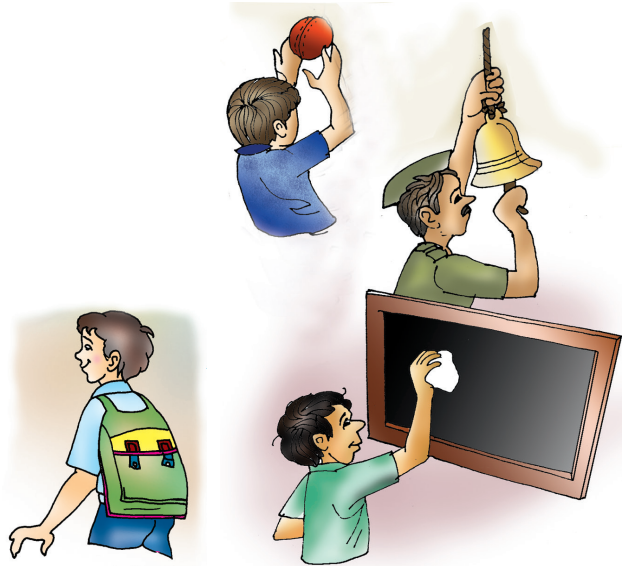

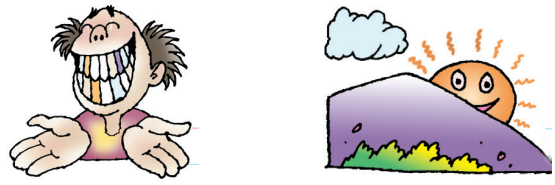

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. Birds fly.
2. Dogs bark.
3. Frogs leap.
4. Bullocks draw carts.
5. Cows eat grass.
6. The soldiers stand still.
7. The dog ran after the thief.
8. Maruti won the first prize.

9. Cats like milk.
10. Birds build nests.
11. Clocks show the time.
12. Many boys play cricket.
13. Owls eat rats and small birds.
14. Birds fly in the air.
15. Abdul wrote a letter to his father.
16. The cat broke the jar.
17. My pony trots fast.
18. Govind ate two mangoes.
19. I walked seven miles today.
20. The pundit spoke for an hour.
21. Everyone listened with attention.
22. The postman knocked the door.
23. The cat climbed up the tree.
24. The dog barked at the cat.
25. The policeman blew his whistle.
26. It rained all night.
27. Old Mother Hubbard went to the cupboard.
28. Little Bo-Peep lost her sheep.
29. The foolish crow tried to sing.
30. The ant never wastes a minute.

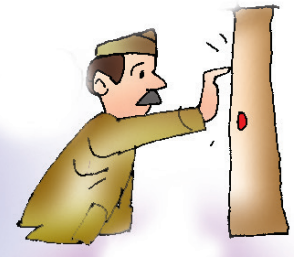

EXERCISE 3

Find as many Verbs as you can in the sentences given below.

1. Ram is using the computer.
2. The stars are shining in the sky.
3. The boy has lost his books.

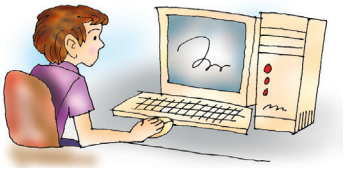

4. Sohrab was killed by Rustum.
5. We shall arrive in Kolkata tomorrow.
6. The servant will come on Thursday.
7. Children should obey their parents.
8. I cannot do this sum.
9. Even the teacher could not do the sum.
10. We must get up early.
11. Abdul did not prepare his lessons yesterday.

EXERCISE 4

Underline the Verbs in the following sentences:

1. We are watching a video.
2. The cat killed the rat.
3. The kite is flying in the sky.
4. We should eat green vegetables.
5. The news is at 8 o' clock on Channel 5.
6. He goes to bed early.
7. The baby is laughing.
8. The headmaster can do this sum.
9. My mother gives me jam daily.
10. I am twelve years old.
11. The door was opened by Mohan.
12. He was present yesterday.
13. Father will return from Pune this evening.
14. The basket was filled with grapes.
15. You may eat this sweet mango.
16. Rama and Abdul were not present last month.
17. The teacher has not beaten me.

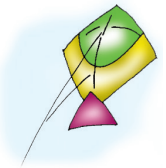

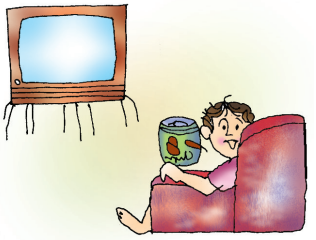

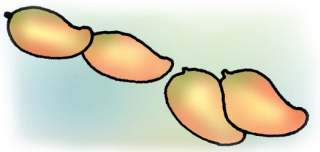

18. The shops were closed yesterday.
19. The house has been sold.
20. They are washing clothes.
21. I did not like his manners.
22. The books have been found.
23. The dog was barking at the thief.
24. We must obey our teacher.
25. The old man could walk quickly.
26. I shall be pleased to see you.
27. Every boy and girl should be clean.
28. All our friends have been invited.
29. The lame man could not walk quickly.
30. Children must not run on roads.

EXERCISE 5

A. Fill in the blanks with the correct form of Verbs.

1. What does the dog do? The dog .....
2. What does the lion do? The lion .....
3. Who plays cricket? I ..... cricket.
4. What does the sun do? The sun .....
5. Who likes games? They ..... games.
6. Who writes copybooks? Rama and Govind .....copybooks.
7. What do the birds do? The birds .....
8. Who talks loudly? All the boys ..... loudly.
9. Who rings the bell? The peon ..... the bell.
10. Who dropped the penknife? Rama ..... the penknife.
11. Who broke the slate? These three boys ..... the slate.
12. Who is late? Pandu and Sitaram ..... late.

13. Are the mangoes ripe? The mangoes ..... ripe.
14. Do you go to school daily? I ..... to school daily.
15. Can you do this sum? I can ..... this sum.
16. Who likes to swim? All of us ..... to swim.
17. Were you present yesterday? I ..... not present yesterday.
18. Whose book is this? This book ..... mine.
19. Which are your books? These ..... my books.
20. Who will clean the blackboard? I shall ..... the blackboard.
21. Will you come tomorrow morning? I shall ..... tomorrow morning.

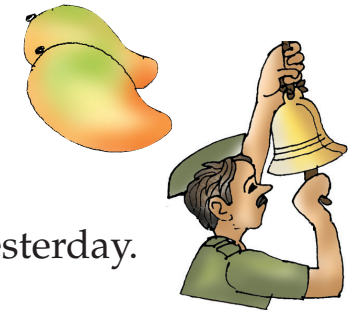

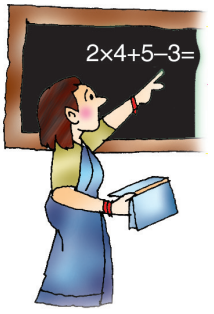

Pair-work

Now work in pairs. Take turns to ask each of the above questions and answer it . (One student asks the question and the other answers it .)

Example:

Student 1	:	What does the dog do?
Student 2	:	The dog barks.
Student 2	:	What does the lion do?
Student 1	:	The lion roars.
Student 1	:	What does the sun do?
Student 2	:	The sun shines.

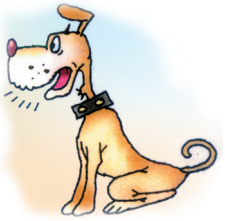

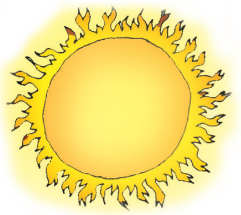

Chapter 22 Tenses—Past, Present & Future

Read the sentences given in the two columns.

	Present		Past
(a)	Rama *is* present today.	(a)	Rama *was* absent yesterday.
(b)	It *rains* here everyday.	(b)	It *rained* hard last night.
(c)	Karim *visits* us daily.	(c)	Karim *visited* us last night.

The verb forms in column 1: *is, rains, visits,* show the present time and hence are in the Present Tense. The verb forms in column 2: *was, rained, visited*, show the past time, and are said to be in the Past Tense.

EXERCISE 1

Identify each Verb in the following sentences as past or present.

1. Abdul reads well.
2. I always work hard.
3. Hens lay eggs.
4. The chimney fell down.
5. Balu fielded well.
6. Rama speaks English.
7. You talk too much.
8. The sun shines brightly.
9. The children are at play.
10. I phoned him last Sunday.
11. Radha milks the cow every day.
12. The thief ran away.
13. The wind blew hard.
14. I love my parents.

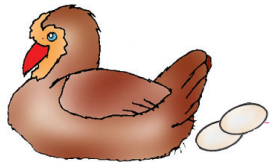

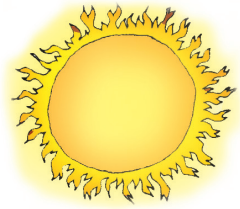

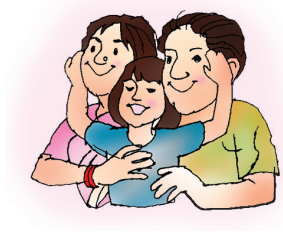

15. My uncle lives in Pune.
16. He lent his book to me.
17. He is upstairs.
18. I drink tea daily.
19. I tasted the chutney.
20. The clock strikes twelve.
21. The cart moves slowly.
22. I have a new book.

A verb that shows a time in the present is said to be in the **Present Tense**.
A verb that shows a time in the past is said to be in the **Past Tense**.

Now read the following sentences and compare:

(a) I saw Rama yesterday.
(b) Rama won the first prize last year.

(a) I shall see him again tomorrow.
(b) He will win the first prize this year also.

Verbs **will** and **shall** talk about the future.

EXERCISE 2

Identify the *tense* of the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. Kaku reads his lesson.
2. Our uncle will tell us a story.
3. Birds fly in the sky.
4. The dog lay on the floor.
5. I shall see you tomorrow.
6. The parrot flew about the room.
7. Damodar was absent for a month.

8. The naughty boy teases his sister.
9. You will get the first prize.
10. I shall give you a pop-gun.
11. We watched a video last night.
12. There is no room on this bench.
13. Many men fear death.
14. The dog will bite the beggar.
15. He will work the sum.
16. The grocer sells almonds.
17. I know you well.
18. My cousin writes neatly.
19. The girl will hurt herself.
20. I spent the afternoon at home.
21. Rama will stay here for a long time.
22. The guide knows the way.
23. He wrote a letter to his uncle.
24. My mother gave me a ripe mango.
25. We sometimes go to Pune.
26. The pain grows worse.
27. It will rain tomorrow.
28. Abdul sharpens his pencil.
29. He paid the shopkeeper.
30. Govind and his sister go to school daily.
31. I shall return soon.
32. The postman brings letters every day.
33. He is kind to animals.
34. Devi Prasad cooks our food.
35. The fire burns brightly.
36. I walk four miles daily.

37. Robots will do the housework in future.
38. He lives near us.
39. The teacher asked me several questions.
40. The baskets contain mangoes.
41. The peon washes his hands.
42. The cock crows early in the morning.
43. He always does his best.
44. The gardener waters the plants.
45. He has dirty finger-nails.
46. Sohrab brushed his coat.
47. He wants money badly.
48. We shall learn English in four years.
49. He made several mistakes.
50. The coat cost me one thousand rupees.

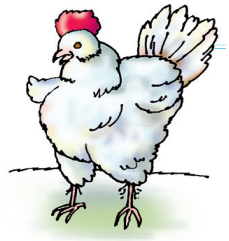

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell the *tense* of each.

1. I shall be fifteen next Friday.
2. I shall buy a camera.
3. The children obey the teacher.
4. We went home early.
5. The dog crossed the field.
6. I shall start next Monday.
7. I give you my word.
8. Mr Shinde teaches us Arithmetic.
9. We will return soon.
10. The mongoose will kill the snake.
11. We sometimes take a walk together.
12. I see many clouds in the sky.

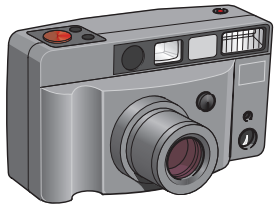

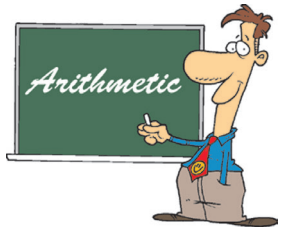

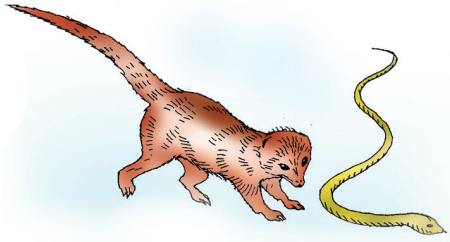

13. There was no one in the playground.
14. The child will soon learn to write.
15. I bought a dozen mangoes for one rupee.
16. Sohrab jumped over the rail.
17. The children skip in the compound.
18. We left school at five o'clock.
19. I shall help you to learn your lesson.
20. He lost his parents in infancy.
21. He still wears the same old coat.
22. A cold wind blew last night.
23. His horse went like the wind.
24. He will keep his word.
25. The train will start soon.
26. I met a mad dog in the street.
27. That boy bathes early in the morning.
28. The girl carries a pot of water on her head.
29. The dust rose in the afternoon.
30. Next year he will leave school.
31. You will find him in the other room.
32. They will meet us in the garden.

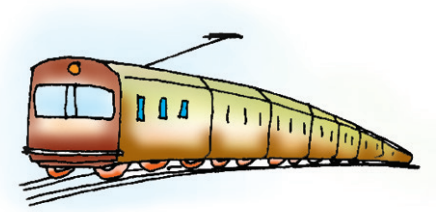

EXERCISE 4

A. Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of Verbs.

1. How does Sita read? Sita.....well.
2. How did she read yesterday? She.....quickly.
3. Did he speak in English? Yes, he.....in English.
4. Whom did you meet in the street? I.....my friend in the street.

5. Will you run? Yes, I will .....
6. To whom did you lend your book? I ..... my book to Suresh.
7. Will you drink tea? Yes, I shall ..... tea.
8. Did it strike twelve? Yes, it ..... twelve.
9. Did you go for a walk yesterday? Yes, I ..... for a walk yesterday.
10. Will you go for a walk tomorrow? Yes, I shall ..... for a walk tomorrow.

11. Will Rama come for a walk tomorrow? Rama will ..... for a walk tomorrow.
12. Did you see him last Sunday? Yes, I ..... him last Sunday.
13. Will he see me again? He ..... not ..... you again.
14. Will Damodar be present next week? Damodar will ..... present next week.

15. Did you get the first prize? Yes, I ..... the first prize.
16. To whom did you give my book? I ..... your book to Ganga.
17. Who bit you? A mad dog..... me.
18. Will the dog bite me? It ..... not..... you.
19. When did you first meet him? I first ..... him last month.
20. Will it rain soon? Yes, it will ..... very soon.
21. When did you leave school? I ..... school last year.

Pair-work

Now practise saying the above sentences in pairs. Take turns to ask and answer the above questions, as shown below.

Student 1 : How does Sita read?

Student 2 : She reads well.

Student 2 : How did she read?

Student 1 : She read quickly.

And so on.

Note to the teacher: Today it is not usual to use **whom** in spoken English. **Who** is used instead of **whom**. The preposition relating to the question word comes at the end of the sentence. The usual forms of questions 4, 6 and 16 in conversation would be:

Who did you meet in the street?
Who did you lend your book **to**?
Who did you give my book **to**?

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the Verb given in the brackets.

1. My cousin *(to write)*..... a neat hand in his last letter.
2. I will also *(to write)*..... a neat hand next time.
3. I *(to know)*..... him long ago.
4. Did you *(to go)*..... this way yesterday?
5. What did you *(to pay)*..... to the servant?
6. I *(to pay)*..... him twenty rupees yesterday.
7. When will you *(to return)*.....?
8. When did the postman *(to bring)*..... my letters?
9. He *(to bring)*..... them just now.
10. I *(to walk)*..... home from school daily.
11. Did Rama *(to do)*..... his lessons?
12. Who *(to keep)*..... you at home yesterday?
13. These boys *(to learn)*..... English in a short time.
14. Who *(to break)*..... this stick?
15. Rama and Hari *(to do)*..... home early.
16. He *(to give)*..... me the book a few weeks ago.
17. The teacher *(to teach)*..... us Grammar the day before yesterday.
18. Last week I *(to take)*..... a walk with my sister.

EXERCISE 6

Fill in the blanks with Verbs.

1. We ..... cricket.
2. Bees ..... honey.
3. He ..... his bike.
4. Cows ..... us milk.
5. Birds ..... nests.
6. She likes to ..... books.
7. The sun ..... in the sky.
8. The sun ..... in the east.
9. The sun ..... in the west.
10. Milk ..... good to drink.
11. A week ..... seven days.
12. Bees ..... in hives.
13. April ..... after March.
14. The camel ..... very long legs.
15. Bullocks ..... carts.
16. The clock .....us the time.
17. Birds .....with their wings.
18. Some men .....glasses to see better.
19. We .....cloth with scissors.
20. We .....with our eyes.
21. We .....with our ears.
22. How old ..... you?
23. Your hands.....dirty.
24. At night, the tiger.....loudly in the jungle.
25. The map.....on the wall.

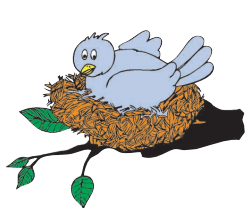

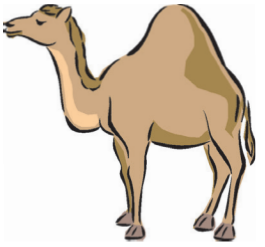

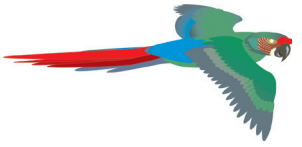

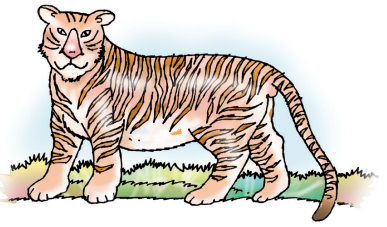

Chapter 23 Be Verbs

Read the sentences below. The words in bold are Verbs.

Vinod **repaired** the TV.

The wolf **killed** the goat.

A bird **flies.**

What did Vinod do? He **repaired**.....

What did the wolf do? It **killed** .....

What does a bird do? It **flies**.

A ***Verb*** is mainly a doing word. It says what somebody or something does.

Words like **am/is/are/was/were** and **have/has/had** are called **helping verbs.** They say what somebody or something **is** or **has.**

I **am** your friend.

The train **is** very fast.

The children **were** happy.

I **have** a CD player.

The hall **has** a lot of windows.

A verb expresses an **action** or **state** (being).

A verb sometimes expresses **possession** (having something).

Note that a verb is not always one word. It often consists of more than one word; such as,

Sita **is** ***singing***.

He **was** ***bitten*** by a dog.

She **will** ***come*** tomorrow.

The book **has been** ***found.***

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences.

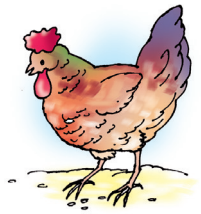

1. The girl sings sweetly.
2. The boy stood on the burning deck.
3. Cocks crow in the morning.
4. Cats see in the dark.
5. The boy fell in the water.
6. I met a little cottage girl.
7. Vihaan hit his head while playing.
8. The picture hangs on the wall.
9. We like cricket better than football.
10. The foolish crow tried to sing.
11. The old woman lives all alone.
12. Who won the World Cup in 2015?

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. We have learnt our lessons.
2. He will do the sums in an hour.
3. I am writing my copybook.
4. I shall be leaving next week.
5. Rama can bowl fast.
6. We must rise early.
7. The shops were closed yesterday.
8. Children should obey their parents.
9. You may eat this mango.
10. I had finished my homework when he arrived.

11. It was raining when we came out.
12. The baby was drinking milk when she entered the room.

EXERCISE 3

Dogs *bark*. Horses *neigh*. What noises do the following make? Fill in the blanks with the Verbs in the box.

roar	moo	crow	bleat	caw
coo	buzz	quack	hiss	croak

1. Cows .....
2. Lions .....
3. Sheep .....
4. Cocks .....
5. Doves .....
6. Crows .....
7. Ducks .....
8. Frogs .....
9. Bees .....
10. Snakes .....

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Verbs in any page of your reader.

EXERCISE 5

Write down ten sentences and underline the Verbs in each.

EXERCISE 6

Fill in the blanks with Verbs.

1. My family's farm ..... in Punjab.
2. The tailor ..... me a new shirt.
3. The snake ..... the man.

4. We ..... cricket.
5. All the boys ..... their teacher.
6. The gang of robbers ..... in a cave.
7. Two and two ..... four.
8. The snake ..... at the man.
9. The dog ..... at the man.
10. We ..... tea from a cup.
11. Owls ..... during the day.
12. I ..... you luck in your examination.
13. Many flowers ..... in my garden.
14. Crows ..... almost anything, even the flesh of the dead.
15. Ah! What a bad mistake I ..... !
16. The clock ..... us the time.
17. I ran fast, but I ..... the train.
18. The map of India ..... on the wall.
19. The sun ..... in the east and ..... in the west.
20. The girl ..... on the piano and ..... songs.
21. Rama ..... many English words.
22. The cat ..... after the rat.
23. They ..... a good group of students to take on a field trip.

Chapter 24 Transitive & Intransitive Verbs

Read the sentences given below.

1. The boy *made* a kite.
2. The boy *laughed.*

If I tell you 'The boy made,' it does not make complete sense. You want to know the boy made *what*.

When I say 'The boy made a kite,' I name the object which he made. The word *kite* is therefore, called the Object of the verb *made.*

The verb *made* which requires an Object to complete its sense is called a **Transitive Verb**.

If I say 'The boy laughed,' I make complete sense. You know what the boy did. He *laughed.* The verb by itself makes good sense.

Such a verb as the verb *laughed* that does not require an Object, but makes good sense by itself, is called an **Intransitive Verb**.

It will be seen that Transitive Verbs require an Object to complete the sense; Intransitive Verbs do not require any Object to complete the sense.

Transitive Verbs	***Intransitive Verbs***
Hari *shut* the window.	The child still *lives.*
Karim *opened* the door.	Some animals *swim.*
Rama *saw* a snake.	The poor woman *wept.*

There are only a few verbs which are always Intransitive. Most verbs can be used either Transitively or Intransitively.

Used Transitively	*Used Intransitively*
Many people *eat* rice.	Wise people *eat* slowly.
He *writes* novels.	He *writes* legibly.

Before you say whether a Verb is Transitive or Intransitive carefully examine *how it is used.*

EXERCISE 1

Pair-work

Pick out the verbs in the following sentences and decide which of them are Transitive and which Intransitive. Where the verb is Transitive, name the Object.

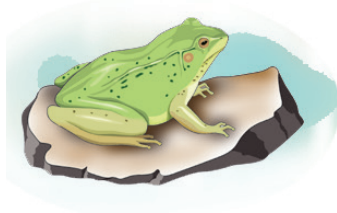

1. Bad boys hide their faults.
2. Some boys threw stones at the frogs.
3. The fire burnt the house.
4. The sun rises in the east.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell in each case whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive. Where the verb is Transitive, name the Object. Work in pairs if you like.

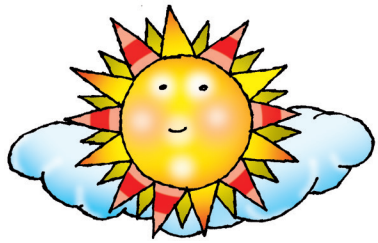

1. Bad boys hide their faults.
2. Some boys threw stones at the frogs.
3. The fire burnt the house.
4. The sun rises in the east.
5. The frog jumped out of the pond.
6. The goat fell into the well.
7. I know a funny little man.
8. Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.

9. Go and see your father tomorrow.
10. Take your books and go home.
11. My new watch keeps good time.
12. The clock stopped this morning.
13. Mother Teresa won the Nobel prize in 1979.
14. Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.
15. The crow sat on the branch and cawed.
16. They videographed the function.
17. Rama loves work but Abdul hates it.
18. The beggar sat down by the side of the road.

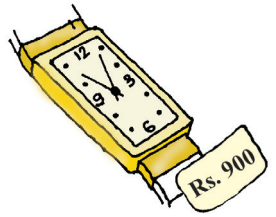

EXERCISE 3

A. Complete the following by supplying an Object.

1. He videographed ..... .
2. The teacher punished ..... .
3. A shoemaker makes ..... .
4. My brother wrote this ..... .
5. He broke ..... .
6. The cow gives ..... .
7. The sun gives ..... .
8. The mason built ..... .
9. The tailor made ..... .
10. The policeman caught ..... .
11. The cat killed ..... .
12. The thief stole ..... .

B. Read your answers to each other in small groups and decide which answers are the best.

Chapter 25 Linking Verbs

Read the following sentences:

1. Rama *is* strong.
2. That man *seems* to be a fool.

The verbs in these two sentences are not verbs of action. They tell us what the subject *is*, or *seems*, and not what the subject does.

Such verbs *join* the subject to some word which describes it. They are called **Linking Verbs**.

They are sometimes called Verbs of Incomplete Predication, because they require another word, called a Complement, to form a complete predicate.

Thus the word *strong* which tells us what Rama is, and which is required to form a complete predicate, is called the Complement to the verb.

Further examples:

1. Sita *became* sad.
2. The sky *grew* dark.
3. The boys *made* great noise.
4. The old woman *looks* unhappy.
5. The child *fell* asleep.
6. He *went* mad.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and say whether each is Transitive, Intransitive, or a Linking Verb.

1. You work very slowly.
2. Such conduct displeases your master.
3. He will become angry with you.

4. She ate an apple.
5. He seems innocent.
6. Hari shut the window.
7. The child still lives.
8. The rose looks beautiful.
9. The driver stopped the train.
10. The mangoes taste delicious.
11. He shot an arrow at the bear.
12. The train stopped suddenly.

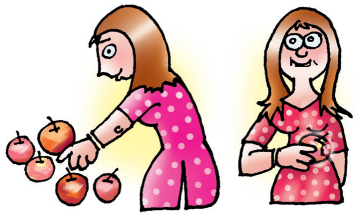

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with Linking Verbs.

1. I ..... tired after the long walk.
2. He ..... upset when he realised that he had lost the race.
3. In winters the day ..... dark early.
4. I ..... good when the teacher praises my neat handwriting.
5. This sweater ..... so soft.
6. My father ..... a great cook.
7. If you practise, you may ..... a champion.
8. She ..... more relaxed now.

Unit 6
Infinitives

Chapter 26 What are Infinitives?

Read the following sentence:

Baby likes to *run.*

Likes *what?* To run.

Here, *to run* acts like an object and hence, it is like a noun.

To run also denotes an action and hence, it is a verb.

To run is, therefore, both like a verb and a noun; or, in other words, it is a Verb-Noun. Such a word is called an **Infinitive.**

In the following sentences, the words in italics are Infinitives:

1. Hari likes *to ride.*
2. I wish *to go.*
3. Do you want *to run*?
4. What are you going *to do*?
5. Latif likes *to play* cricket.
6. Do you like *to eat* mangoes?
7. We like *to play* cards.
8. He refused *to obey* the teacher.
9. Rama likes *to go* home.
10. Sita loves *to sing* every night.
11. I have *to do* my lessons.
12. Father wants me to *swim* daily.

EXERCISE 1

Circle the Infinitive in each of the sentences given below.

1. "To conquer Mount Everest is my goal!" exclaimed Erika.
2. In the past, Vihaan was terrified to play the tuba on Tuesdays.
3. "To succeed takes courage, foresight, and luck," announced Nik to an awestruck Cameron.
4. Stranded in the freezing snowstorm, all Kira wanted was to survive.
5. Afraid to move, Eva froze in terror as the huge cobra slithered over her left foot.

EXERCISE 2

Complete the following sentences using *–ing* forms or *to-infinitives*.

1. I had started …….. when I was twenty.
   a) to teach
   b) teaching
   c) either could be used here
2. I am proud ……
   a) of having won
   b) to have won
3. I still remember …….. the piano for the first time.
   a) to play
   b) playing
   c) either could be used here
4. You must remember ……. this letter.
   a) posting
   b) to post

5. I forgot ……. the ticket.
   a) buying
   b) to buy
   c) either could be used here
6. I regret …….. school at 12 noon.
   a) to leave
   b) leaving
7. We regret …… you that the 3.30 train to Mumbai has been cancelled.
   a) informing
   b) to inform
8. I wouldn't advise …….. out in the rain.
   a) to go
   b) going

The infinitive can be used with or without the marker *to*. These two forms of the infinitive are distinguished by the terms **to-infinitives** and **bare infinitives**.

Uses of the bare infinitive:

Let him go. (NOT Let him to go.)
We heard her sing. (NOT We heard her to sing.)
I watched them play. (NOT I watched them to play.)
I made him do the work. (NOT I made him to do the work.)

EXERCISE 3

Complete the following sentences using appropriate *Infinitives* or *–ing* forms.

1. I saw Anu ……. the road.
   a) crossing

b) to cross
c) either could be used here

2. I once heard him ……. a talk on education.
   a) give
   b) to give
   c) either could be used here

3. I heard him …… down the stairs.
   a) go
   b) going
   c) either could be used here

4. I heard the bomb ……..
   a) exploding
   b) explode
   c) to explode

5. I saw the book …….. on the table.
   a) lie
   b) lying
   c) either could be used here

6. I watched him …….. over the stream.
   a) jump
   b) to jump
   c) either could be used here

7. I could hear them ……. slogans.
   a) shout
   b) shouting
   c) either could be used here

8. This law doesn't permit …….. in public places.
   a) smoking
   b) to smoke

EXERCISE 4

Underline the correct form. If both forms are possible, underline both.

1. Will good food enable people *to live/living* longer?
2. I don't want *to work/working* when I'm 65.
3. We don't need to keep on *to travel/travelling*.
4. Do you enjoy *to shop/shopping* for new things?
5. They promised *to pick/picking* me up from the airport.
6. At what age did you start *to worry/worrying* about money?
7. She decided *to buy/buying* new clothes.
8. Would you like *to have/having* something to eat?
9. I like *to walk/walking* early in the morning.
10. Many people hate *to learn/learning* new things.
11. He succeeded in *to convince/convincing* them to employ him.
12. Romeo and Juliet continued *to see/seeing* each other even though their parents tried *to stop/stopping* them.

Unit 7
Gerunds

Chapter 27 What is a Gerund?

Read the following sentence:

I like *swimming.*

The word *swimming* is formed from the verb *swim,* by adding *-ing.* It is, therefore, like a verb.

We also see that *swimming* is used as the object of the verb *like*, and hence does the work of a noun.

The word *swimming* is, therefore, both like a verb and a noun; thus, it is a Verb-Noun.

A **Gerund** is a noun made from a verb by adding "-ing."

A gerund may be used as

1. Subject of a verb
   Reading is a good habit.
2. Object of a transitive verb
   I like *reading* stories.
3. Object of a preposition
   He is fond of *reading*.
4. Complement of a verb
   What I like is *reading*.

In the following sentences, the words in italics are Gerunds:

1. Rama likes *riding.*
2. She loves *dancing*.
3. Anand hates *learning.*
4. He likes *reading* poetry.

5. I like *driving* a car.
6. Children love *making* mud castles.
7. All boys like *playing* football.
8. I enjoyed *hearing* her sweet song.

Tips to remember Gerunds and Infinitives

Some verbs are followed by the **gerund** (-ing) forms of other verbs.	Some verbs are followed by the **infinitive** forms (to + verb) of other verbs.
Admit; appreciate; avoid; begin; can't help; consider; continue; (can't) face; defend; deny; dislike; discuss; enjoy; fancy; feel like; finish; forget; give up; hate; imagine; intend; keep (on); like; love; mention; mind; miss; postpone; practice, prefer; put off; quit; recall; recollect; regret; remember; resist; resume; risk; spend time; (can't) stand; stop; suggest; talk about; think about; try.	(can't) afford; agree; appear; begin; claim; choose; continue; dare; demand; decide; expect; deserve; fail; forget; happen; hesitate; hope; hate; intend; learn (how); like; love; manage; mean; need; offer; plan; prefer; prepare; pretend; proceed; promise; refuse; regret; remember; seem; seen; start; struggle; swear; tend; threaten; try; want; volunteer; vow; (can't) wait; wish; would like; would love.
Use gerunds to refer to actions that are: **vivid, real, ongoing in the present or completed in the past.**	Use the infinitives to refer to actions that are: **hypothetical, unfulfilled or future-oriented.**

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the Verbs.

1. You can't help (like)_____ him.
2. We decided (stay)_____ at home.

3. We expect (hear) _____ from Anne soon.
4. Do you fancy (go) _____ out tonight?
5. I don't feel like (cook)_____.
6. When do you finish (study) _____?
7. Imagine (be) _____ locked in the house!
8. I managed (find)_____ a taxi.
9. Would you mind (pass) _____ the bread?
10. I missed (see)_____the beginning of the film.
11. She pretended (be) _____ ill.
12. Don't put off (see)_____the doctor.
13. He spends ages (talk) _____ on the phone.
14. I want (see) _____ the manager.

EXERCISE 2

Underline the Gerunds in each sentence.

1. Teaching is an incredible profession.
2. Travelling widens our knowledge.
3. There is no point in waiting.
4. She began singing.
5. Let's go shopping this evening.
6. Flying makes me nervous.
7. Of all my hobbies, I love fishing the most.
8. Swimming is fun.
9. My favourite subject in school is reading.
10. My dog loves sleeping by the fireplace.
11. Thinking can be painful.
12. She is good at painting.

EXERCISE 3

A Gerund is a verb form that acts as a noun. Gerunds always end in -ing. A Gerund can function in all the ways a noun can function—as a subject, object of a preposition, direct object, or subject complement.

Below is a list of Gerunds and functions. Write a sentence using the gerund as indicated.

1. swimming as a direct object

   _____

2. talking as an object of a preposition

   _____

3. running as a subject

   _____

4. sleeping as a subject complement

   _____

5. helping as a direct object

   _____

6. laughing as a subject

   _____

7. cooking as an object of a preposition

   _____

8. riding as a subject complement

   _____

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks using the words in brackets. Also number the pictures accordingly.

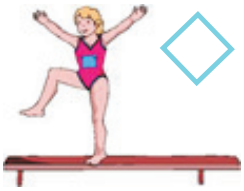

1. They _____ (like/play) leapfrog.
2. She _____ (like/paint).
3. He _____ (like/take) photos.
4. They _____ (like/play) basketball.
5. Children _____ (like/play) tennis.
6. He _____ (like/watch) TV.
7. He _____ (like/fish).
8. She _____ (like/sing).
9. They _____ (like/cook) food.
10. They _____ (like/play) chess.
11. She _____ (like/skateboard).
12. They _____ (like/watch) TV.
13. He _____ (like/listen) to music.
14. He _____ (like/read) comics.
15. They _____ (like/play) hide-and-seek.
16. He _____ (like/cook) food.
17. They _____ (like/listen) to stories.
18. She _____ (like/play) basketball.
19. They _____ (like/play) volleyball.
20. She _____ (like/do) gymnastics.

EXERCISE 5

Write the correct form of the Verbs given in brackets.

1.

He loves …….. (wear) sunglasses.

2.

Mary prefers ……. (eat) watermelon.

3.

His favourite hobby is …… (fly) kite.

4.

……. (hike) can be strenuous.

5.

He can spend the evening ……. (play) the saxophone.

6. Tony is better than you at …….. (cycle)

7. My mum does most of the …… (cook) at home.

8. Peter's hobby is …….. (drive) his red car.

9. Berta enjoys ……..(skip) rope.

10. Mrs Gupta admitted ……. (not pay) the bill.

Unit 8
Participles

Chapter 28 Present Participle

Read the following sentence:

Do you see the jumping boy?

Which boy? The boy who is *jumping*.

The word *jumping* points out to the boy. It is, therefore, like an adjective.

The word *jumping* is formed from the verb *jump*, by adding *-ing*. It is, therefore, like a verb.

The word *jumping* is both like a verb and an adjective. It is, therefore, a Verb-Adjective. Such a word is called a **Present Participle**.

In the following phrases, the words in italics are Present Participles:

1. the **singing** bird
2. the **crying** baby
3. the **laughing** clown
4. the **rising** water
5. the **smiling** face
6. the **flying** kite
7. a **marching** band
8. the **setting** sun

EXERCISE 1

Underline the Participles in the following sentences. Put a cross against those sentences that do not have a Participle.

1. The magician brought a talking parrot.
2. The parrot was speaking like a human being.
3. It was an exciting experience.
4. We were all enjoying ourselves.
5. People believed that flying saucers sighted in the sky were actually alien spacecraft.
6. The winning team is receiving cash prizes this year.
7. Can I borrow your reading glasses please?
8. Growing children need all the vitamins and minerals that they can get from their food.

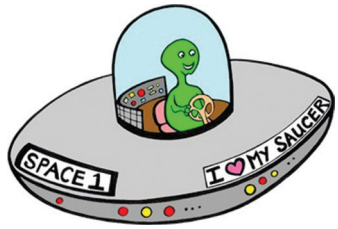

EXERCISE 2

Complete these sentences with the help of words in the brackets.

Example: I couldn't see anything _____ (move).
I couldn't see anything moving.

1. I'm sure I heard him _____ (talk) to you.
2. Have you lost something? I noticed you _____ (look) under the chair.
3. Can you hear Sam _____ (sing)? It's beautiful.
4. It was so frightening. I could feel you _____ (shake) with fear.

5. She watched him _____ (walk) away.
6. I saw you _____ (hold) his hand.
7. Hi Mary! Was that you I saw _____ (dance) with Peter at the party?
8. I could feel something _____ (shake) under my leg, but I didn't know what it was.
9. I could hear two people _____ (talk) to each other.

10. I heard someone _____ (shout) loudly behind me.
11. I'm sure I saw you _____ (shake) his hand.
12. Can you smell something _____ (burn)?

Chapter 29 Past Participle

Read the following sentence:

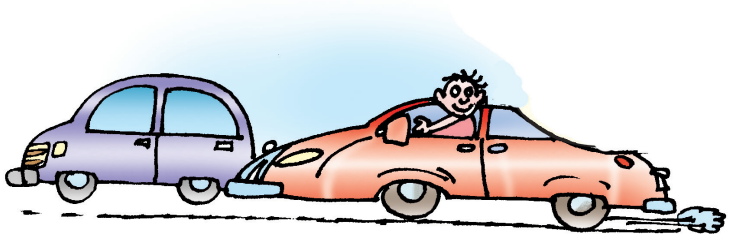

Do you see the car *driven* by my cousin?

Which car? The car *driven* by my cousin.

The word *driven* points out to the car. It is, therefore, like an adjective.

The word *driven* is formed from the verb *drive,* by adding *-n*. It is, therefore, like a verb.

The word *driven* is both like a verb and an adjective. It is called a **Past Participle.**

In the following sentences, the words in italics are Past Participles:

1. I myself saw the letter *posted.*
2. He is a man *liked* by all.
3. Watch that car *driven* at full speed.
4. He is the doctor *known* in the whole village.
5. That 's the boy *invited* to play.
6. There were many trees *laden* with fruit.
7. See that tree *bent* to the ground.
8. Rama is a boy *trusted* by his friends.

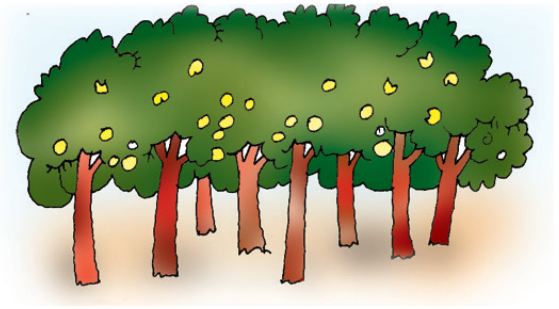

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks with the Past tense or Past participle form of the verbs given in the brackets.

1. He has …….. his own companion for the journey. (select)
2. He would have …… with his study if his father had been well. (continue)
3. The accused ……. the jury's verdict with anxiety. (await)
4. My watch was ……. by a boy. (steal)
5. A widespread outbreak of plague …… in 1928. (occur)
6. The song was …….. by Alice and her sister. (sing)
7. The whole of the milk has been …….. by the cat. (drink)
8. He was properly …… with by the authorities. (deal)
9. I ……. the church regularly in my youth. (attend)
10. He …… to China, so you can't meet him now. (go)

Unit 9

More about Tenses

Chapter 30 Simple Present Tense

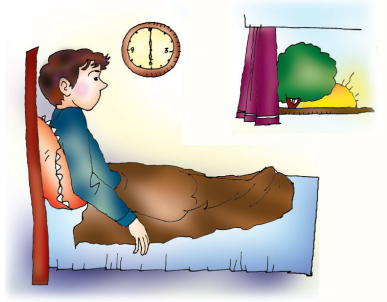

We use the Simple Present Tense

(a) for things that happen regularly:
I **play** cricket every Sunday.
Shobha often **dances**.
Gopi usually **gets up** at 6 o' clock.
We **watch** TV in the evening.

(b) for things that are always true:
The sun **rises** in the east.
Oil **floats** on water.
Bats **fly** at night.

(c) for things that stay the same for a long time:
My uncle **works** in a bank.
They **live** in Mumbai.
Everybody **likes** him.

With **I, we, you,** and **they,** the base form of the verb is used. With **he, she,** and **it,** the verb ends in **-s** (or **-es**).

I We You They	**work.**

He She It	**works.**

EXERCISE 1

Complete the sentences, using these verbs in the Simple Present Tense.

set	water	live	drink	fall	go

1. My grandfather ..... in Bengaluru.
2. The sun ..... in the west.
3. The children ..... milk every morning.
4. He ..... the plants daily.
5. They ..... to church regularly.
6. Rain ..... from the clouds.

EXERCISE 2

Underline the verbs in Simple Present Tense in the following sentences.

1. Tom plays tennis every Wednesday.
2. The bank opens at nine in the morning.
3. The earth moves around the sun.
4. My mother is a scientist.
5. Rahul speaks three languages.
6. The train arrives at six every evening.
7. My brother drives a truck.
8. The sun rises in the east.

Chapter 31 Simple Past Tense

We use this tense to talk about things that happened at a definite time in the past. We say or think about the time that the actions happened (e.g., yesterday, last week, last month, three months ago, in 2000).

Usha **phoned** me an hour ago.
APJ Abdul Kalam **visited** our school last year.
It **was** very hot yesterday.
I **passed** the driving test two months ago.
I **bought** these CDs in Mumbai.
Sehwag **batted** very well.

We often use this tense to tell a story.

The verbs in Simple Past Tense, except in the verb **be**, has the same form with all the subjects, such as,

I **worked.** You **worked.** He **worked.** They **worked.**

Here are the forms of **be**:

I	
He	**was**
She	
It	

We	
You	**were**
They	

EXERCISE 1

Complete the sentences, using the verbs given in brackets in the simple past tense.

1. As a little girl I _____ (drink) coffee.
2. Mr Bagga _____ (come) back home an hour ago.
3. I _____ (share) a room with my sister as kids.

4. Peter _____ (fall) off his bike last Saturday.
5. We _____ (build) our house by ourselves.
6. Nick and Dhruv _____ (drive) to Kasauli last weekend.
7. My grandparents _____ (spend) their vacation in Italy.
8. Dev _____ (smile) at me.
9. I _____ (wash) up the dishes after dinner.
10. The singer _____ (begin) to sing.

EXERCISE 2

Complete the sentences, using these verbs in the Simple Past Tense.

borrow watch pass eat play miss

1. We ..... a video last night.
2. The boy ..... an ice cream.
3. I ..... these books from the library last week.
4. She ..... the driving test three months ago.
5. I ..... the school bus yesterday.
6. We ..... cricket last Sunday.

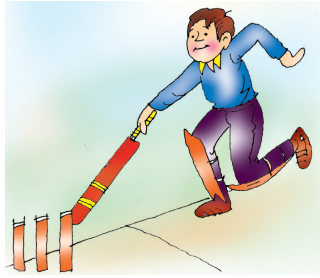

Chapter 32 Simple Future Tense

We use this tense to talk about the future.

I **will/shall** be twelve next Saturday.
We **will/shall** know the result in a week.
I suppose India **will** win the match.
It **will be** Holi in a week.

There are also other ways of talking about the future, such as,

We **are visiting the** Qutab Minar tomorrow. (Present Continuous Tense)
The plane **leaves** at 10.30. (Simple Present Tense)
It **is going to** rain. (going to form)

Thus we also also use the present tense and present continuous tense to talk about the future.

The Simple Future Tense is formed with **will/shall** + the base form. With **I** and **we**, either **will** or **shall** can be used: **will** is more common. With other subjects, **will** (not **shall**) is used.

I We	**will/shall work.**

He/She It They	**will work.**

EXERCISE 1

The verbs in the following sentences are in the Simple Past Tense. Change them to the Simple Future Tense.

Example:

He turned nine yesterday.
He will turn nine tomorrow.

1. We went to the beach yesterday.
2. My uncle arrived yesterday.
3. We saw the movie last night. (..... tonight)
4. I returned the books last week. (..... next week)
5. I was very busy yesterday afternoon. (..... this afternoon)
6. We did this together last night. (..... later)
7. My brother got married last month. (..... this month)
8. I sent Meena the parcel yesterday. (..... tomorrow)
9. He completed the work last night. (..... tonight)
10. I exercised for an hour this morning. (..... evening)
11. Arpan went to Paris last week. (..... next week)
12. It rained the whole of last week. (..... next week)

Chapter 33 Present Continuous Tense

We use this tense to talk about things which are happening now.

I **am writing** a letter now.
He **is using** the computer.
They **are playing** cricket (now).
Mr Sen **is teaching** the uses of tenses.
Look, it **is raining.**

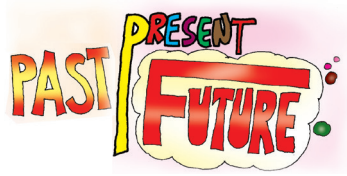

Note the forms of verbs in the Present Continuous Tense:

I	**am working.**
We	
You	**are working.**
They	

He	
She	**is working.**
It	

EXERCISE 1

What are these people doing? Use the following verbs to complete the sentences below the pictures: watch, paint, write, cook, sleep, read, lay, skate boarding fight. (Use the Present Continuous Tense.)

She_____ _____.

He_____a newspaper.

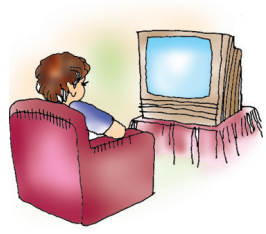

He_____ TV.

She_____
on the blackboard.

The baby_____
_____.

They_____
the table.

He_____ .

The boys_____ .

He_____ .

EXERCISE 2

Choose the correct form of verbs to fill in the blanks in the Present Continuous Tense.

1. The moon _____ unusually bright tonight. (shines/is shining)
2. Listen, the phone _____. (rings/is ringing)
3. I _____now. Goodbye. (leave/am leaving)
4. They _____ a video at the moment. (watch/are watching)
5. Look, the bus _____. (comes/is coming)
6. The water _____. I can hear the kettle whistle. (boils/is boiling)
7. It _____ cats and dogs. (rains/is raining)
8. Peter _____ to church now. (goes/is going)

Chapter 34 Present Perfect Tense

We use this tense for actions in the past when we are not thinking or talking about the time that they happened. We may see the results now. This tense links the past with the present in some way.

I **have finished** my homework. (I am free **now.**)

She **has cooked** the dinner. (The dinner is ready **now.)**

We **have bought** a computer.

I **have passed** the driving test.

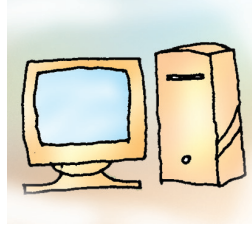

Read the sentences below and note the forms of the Present Perfect Tense:

I We You They	**have worked.**	He She It	**has worked.**

Do not use the Present Perfect Tense with words (or phrases) that indicate time like **yesterday, last Sunday, at 8 o' clock, three months ago**, etc.

Wrong	:	I *have met* Mr Singh yesterday.
Right	:	I *met* Mr Singh yesterday.
Wrong	:	The train *has left* ten minutes ago.
Right	:	The train *left* ten minutes ago.

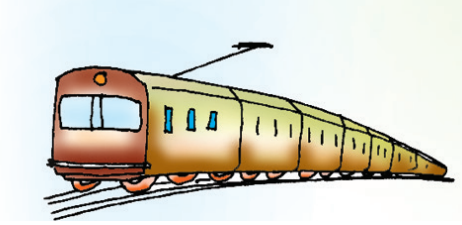

EXERCISE 1

Complete the sentences, using the verbs below in the Present Perfect Tense.

steal	arrive	sell	forget	post	cook

1. I ..... the letters.
2. Somebody ..... my purse.
3. She ..... the dinner.
4. They ..... out the tickets.
5. Hurry up! The train ..... .
6. I ..... her name.

EXERCISE 2

Use the verbs in brackets in Present Perfect Tense to complete the sentences below.

1. I ..... the school by the time the bus arrived. (leave)
2. She ..... her desk. It is tidy now. (clear)
3. Ankit ..... his father to prepare dinner. (help)
4. Have you seen my book. I ..... it. (misplace)
5. The class I students ..... singing. (start)

Chapter 35 Past Continuous Tense

This tense is used for describing an action that was happening at a particular time in the past.

'What **were** you **doing** at 4 o' clock yesterday?'

'I **was watching** TV.'

We **were having** lunch when the phone rang.

The boy fell down while he **was running.**

As in the last two sentences above, the Past Continuous Tense is often used with the Simple Past Tense. It shows that an action was continuing at a time when a new shorter action happened. The Simple Past Tense is used for the new action.

Read the sentences below and note the use of Present Continuous tense:

I He She It	**was working.**

We You They	**were working.**

EXERCISE

Pair-work

This exercise can be done in pairs. Take turns to ask a question and answer it. What were you doing at these times yesterday? Give true answers.

(1) 8 a.m. (2) 10 a.m. (3) 1 p.m.
(4) 6 p.m. (5) 8 p.m. (6) 10 p.m.

Example:

A : What **were you doing** at 8 o'clock yesterday morning?
B : I **was having** breakfast.

Unit 10
Adverbs

Chapter 36 Describing Doing Words

Compare the following sentences:

(a)	Radha sings.	(i)	Radha sings *sweetly*.
(b)	Mr Lal paints.	(ii)	Mr Lal paints *beautifully*.
(c)	Hari writes.	(iii)	Hari writes *neatly*.
(d)	The elephant sat.	(iv)	The elephant sat *comfortably*.
(e)	Time flies.	(v)	Time flies *fast*.

How does Radha *sing?*..... **sweetly**.

The word 'sweetly' tells how Radha *sings;* it thus adds something to the meaning of the verb.

How does Mr. Lal *paint*? ..... **beautifully**.

How does Hari *write?*

How did the elephant *sit?*

How does time *fly?*

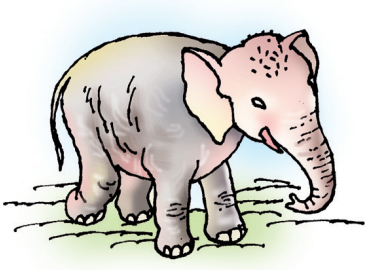

Words like *sweetly, neatly, beautifully, fast* and *comfortably* are called **Adverbs**.

A word added to a verb, to tell how the action is done, is called an **Adverb**.

EXERCISE 1

In the following sentences, pick out each word that adds something to the meaning of the Verb, and answers the question 'How?'

Note to the teacher: For each of the sentences given below, ask the class to frame a question beginning with '**How**'.

1. Rama writes slowly.
2. Govind runs swiftly.
3. Abdul reads well.
4. The child cries loudly.
5. Rama walks well.
6. She writes well.
7. Hari works cleverly.
8. He writes badly.
9. The team plays well.
10. The sun shines brightly.
11. The river flows slowly.
12. The soldiers fight bravely.
13. The child sleeps soundly.
14. The servant works willingly.
15. Radha works the sum correctly.
16. Freddie hits hard.
17. He shouted loudly.
18. The boy dresses neatly.
19. She speaks pleasantly.
20. Akbar ruled well.
21. The birds flew quickly.
22. The horse galloped fast.

Compare the sentences again:

(a)	Hari will return.	(i)	Hari will return *today*.
(b)	He is going to Varanasi.	(ii)	He is going to Varanasi *shortly*.
(c)	I shall get a letter.	(iii)	I shall get a letter *tomorrow*.

When will Hari *return*?—**Today**.

The word 'today' tells **when** Hari will *return;* it thus adds something to the meaning of the verb.

When is he *going* to Varanasi?

When will I *get* a letter?

EXERCISE 2

In the following sentences, pick out each word that adds something to the meaning of the verb, and answers the question 'When'?

Note to the teacher: The teacher should frame questions on the sentences given below and the pupil reply with emphasis on the **describing word**.

1. Ram rises early.
2. Homi sleeps daily.
3. I go to school daily.
4. The two brothers often fight.
5. He will come soon.
6. The play will begin now.
7. I shall come afterwards.
8. I am late today.
9. The servant is paid monthly.
10. Lately he has become lazy.
11. Rama came today.
12. He arrived yesterday.
13. Once I heard the cuckoo sing.
14. They lived in Mumbai formerly.
15. Abdul was doing his sums then.
16. We should never tell a lie.
17. We should always speak the truth.
18. I have already learnt the lesson.

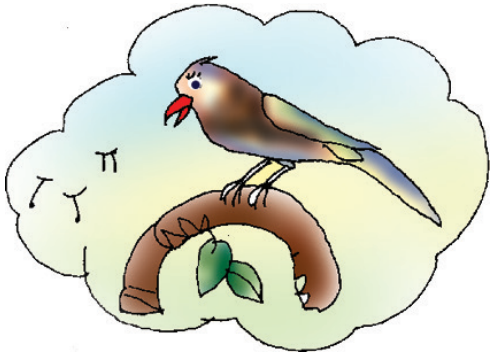

A word added to a verb, to tell *when* the action is done, is also called an **Adverb**.

Compare the following sentences.

(a) Rain falls.	(i) Rain falls **everywhere**.
(b) He is going.	(ii) He is going **outside**.

Where does rain *fall?* **Everywhere**.

The word 'everywhere' tells where the rain *falls;* it thus adds something to the meaning of the verb.

Where is he *going*?—**Outside**.

EXERCISE 3

In the following sentences, pick out each word that adds something to the meaning of the Verb, and answers the question 'Where'?

Note to the teacher: For each of the sentences given below, ask the class to frame a question beginning with '**Where**'.

1. The train stops here.
2. The peon is standing there.
3. We sat inside.
4. The sky is above.
5. He looked up.
6. The boy is standing outside.
7. My uncle lives here.
8. He has come back.
9. Mrs Brown lives on the floor below.
10. We looked for him everywhere.
11. The school stands there.
12. You must not stand here.
13. Do not go far.
14. The servant has gone upstairs.
15. Mother is coming downstairs.
16. I went away.

A word added to a verb, to tell *where* the action is done, is also called an **Adverb**.

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Adverbs in the following sentences.

1. It rained hard.
2. You must read clearly and slowly.

3. My father bought the knife cheaply.
4. Pandu will never work well.
5. My parents lived far away then.
6. Sita daily prepares her lessons carefully.
7. Formerly we lived here.
8. I cannot do it easily.
9. I waited there long.
10. Soon the king replied angrily.
11. We went home early.
12. I shall come afterwards.
13. Today you have done your lesson well.
14. Yesterday Rama recited the poem badly.
15. He is coming here tomorrow.
16. The post has already come.
17. Hari always speaks the truth willingly.
18. She sometimes writes her copybook neatly.
19. The child slowly went upstairs.
20. I, at once, looked down from the window.
21. The thief went inside silently.
22. You must read so again.
23. Sir, I shall work hard tomorrow.
24. The dog followed the girl patiently everywhere.
25. Govind came late and worked lazily.

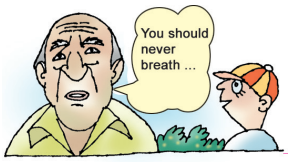

EXERCISE 5

Reply to the following questions with emphasis on the Adverb.

1. How do you write?
2. How do you read?

3. How does the sun shine?
4. How does the child sleep?
5. How does the servant work?
6. How did Akbar rule?
7. How does the horse gallop?
8. How must the solider fight?
9. How must you recite the poem?
10. How must you do your sums?
11. When do you get up?
12. When do you go to bed?
13. When do you go to school?
14. When will you come?
15. When will the play begin?
16. When did your father arrive from Karachi?
17. When must we tell a lie?
18. When must we speak the truth?
19. Are you late or early today?
20. When do you have your English lesson?
21. Where does the train stop?
22. Where did you sit?
23. Where is the sky?
24. Where can you look?
25. Where is the sepoy standing?
26. Where is the book?
27. Where did you look for your book?
28. Where do you live?
29. Where has the servant gone?
30. Where did you go from school?

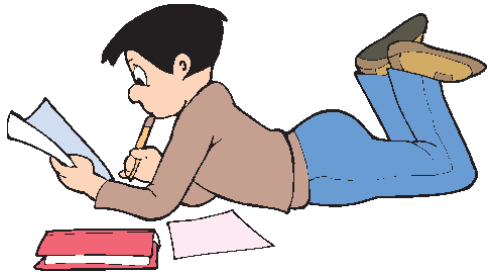

Compare the sentences given below:

(a)	The cricket ground is hard.	(i)	The cricket ground is *very* hard.
(b)	He speaks loudly.	(ii)	He speaks *too* loudly.
(c)	The cup is full.	(iii)	The cup is *nearly* full.

How *hard* is the cricket ground?—**Very** hard.
The word 'very' tells **how** *hard* the cricket ground is.
We see that the word 'very' adds something to the meaning of the *adjective* 'hard.'
How *loudly* does he speak?—**Too** loudly.
The word 'too' tells **how** *loudly* he speaks.
We see that the word 'too' adds something to the meaning of the *adverb* 'loudly.'
How much *full* is the cup?—**Nearly** full.
The word 'nearly' tells **how much** *full* the cup is.
We see that the word 'nearly' adds something to the meaning of the *adjective* 'full.'

EXERCISE 6

In the following sentences, pick out each word that adds something to the meaning of an Adjective or Adverb.

1. The children are very happy.
2. You are quite right.
3. He is entirely wrong.
4. The old man is nearly blind.
5. You walk too fast.
6. I am in love with this pretty pink dress.
7. Those mangoes are almost ripe.

8. He is slightly better.
9. He is rather afraid to speak.
10. She sings pretty well.
11. The child seems quite happy.
12. The snake was almost dead.
13. He is much better today.
14. We were quite surprised.
15. Our soldiers fought very bravely.
16. Eat very slowly.
17. Don't eat too much.
18. Homi swims very well.
19. This sum is quite easy.
20. Do not walk so fast.
21. The doctor arrived too late.
22. This watch is rather expensive.
23. He is little known in this village.
24. She sings well enough.
25. The mangoes are rather sour.
26. The account is partly true.
27. We were highly delighted.
28. I am rather puzzled.
29. You know that right well.
30. I am as tall as he is.
31. He writes extremely well.
32. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
33. How pretty it looks!
34. The old woman lived all alone.
35. We miss you so much.
36. You write too slowly.
37. The child is so weak.

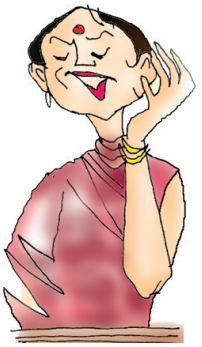

A word that describes a verb and adds something to the meaning of an adjective or an adverb is called an **Adverb**.

We have now learnt that

1. An adverb adds something to the meaning of a *verb.*
2. Sometimes an adverb also adds something to the meaning of an *adjective* or another *adverb.*

EXERCISE 7

Fill in the blanks with suitable Adverbs.

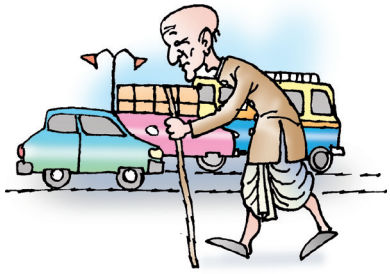

1. Rama bowls ..... fast.
2. Old people walk .....
3. The vessel will sail .....
4. The sun is ..... bright.
5. That man works .....
6. It is raining .....
7. I hurt my knee .....
8. The road is ..... dusty.
9. It is ..... summer.
10. ..... obey your teacher.
11. Come in; don't wait .....
12. The sky is .....; the earth is .....
13. I have looked for the book .....
14. I go to school .....
15. The postman knocked .....
16. Our soldiers fought .....
17. She ..... filled in the answers.
18. You have not worked the sum .....
19. No good boy is ..... cruel.

20. The snake was ..... dead with cold.
21. At night, the tiger roars ..... in the jungle.
22. ..... put your fingers into your mouth.
23. This sum is ..... easy.
24. Do not speak ..... loudly.
25. He ..... tries to do his best.
26. The little lamb followed Mary.....
27. This tea is ..... sweet.
28. It is a good thing to go to bed .....
29. The tent is ..... small for both of us. You must go outside.
30. Nanak is ..... ill.
31. Who is that running ..... fast?
32. I am ..... well, thank you.
33. Wasted time ..... returns.
34. An elephant will ..... walk into deep soft mud.
35. Tea is ..... harmless if we don't drink too much of it.
36. We must eat our food .....; we must chew it .....
37. I am ..... sure of it.
38. He goes to Varanasi ..... often.
39. They were ..... dressed for the occasion.
40. The child is ..... hungry.
41. It is a ..... difficult sum.
42. I ..... much regret the mistake.
43. He is not strong .....

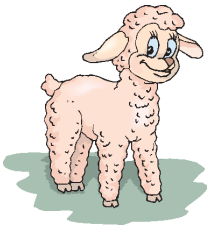

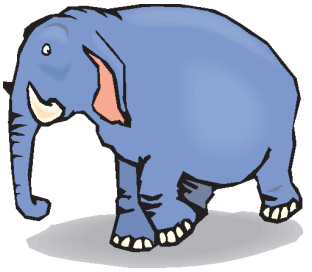

EXERCISE 8

Pick out the Adverbs in the following sentences, and name the verb with which each is used.

1. The red car travelled speedily along the narrow road.

2. The woman spoke loudly.
3. You have done your lesson well.
4. The player shot quickly into the empty goal.
5. The play will begin now.
6. My uncle lives here.
7. Gopal is standing there.
8. The princess cried quietly when she was lost.
9. 'Will you be quiet!,' shouted the teacher angrily.
10. I feel tired today.
11. I can do that easily.
12. My parents love me dearly.
13. She writes in her copybook neatly.
14. The old farmer works hard.
15. The elephant walked slowly.
16. We looked for him everywhere.
17. The boys go to school regularly.
18. You must go to bed early.
19. The peacock danced beautifully.
20. You have answered the questions correctly.

EXERCISE 9

Write down three sentences, each containing an Adverb.

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Chapter 37 Adverbs of Manner

Read the sentences given below:

1. He writes *badly.*
2. He spends his money *foolishly.*
3. He hit the ball *hard.*

What do you notice about the adverbs in these sentences? They all show ***how*** the action is done.

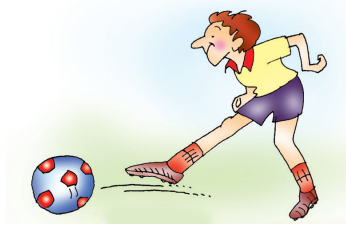

How does he write? ..... *badly*.

How does he spend his money?..... *foolishly*.

How did he hit the ball? .... *hard*.

These adverbs, which show the *manner* in which some action is done, are called **Adverbs of Manner**.

Adverbs of Manner answer the question 'How?'

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adverbs of Manner in the following sentences, and name the verb with which each is used.

1. The Sikhs fought bravely.
2. The boy was walking fast.
3. They were talking loudly.
4. You should not do so.
5. She writes well.
6. He could not speak distinctly.
7. He loved her truly.
8. He spoke quietly.

9. The dog barked loudly.
10. We were received kindly.
11. He has been shamefully treated.
12. This story is well written.

EXERCISE 2

Write down three sentences, each containing an Adverb of Manner.

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EXERCISE 3

Complete the sentences by using the right form of the word given in the brackets.

1. I'm sorry, but you didn't do very ..... (good).
2. Ram is waiting for his mother ..... (impatient).
3. The little girl danced ..... (beautiful).
4. You should try to act ..... (normal).
5. Please speak ..... (soft).
6. You really shouldn't speak too ..... (fast).
7. She ..... (successful) finished the course.
8. We worked really ..... (hard) all week.

9. The baby started crying ..... (loud).
10. I have carried this crate of eggs ..... (careful).
12. She follows her brother's advice ..... (blind).

EXERCISE 4

Answer the questions using the word in brackets.

1. How did she speak? (clear)

   .....

2. How did they behave? (nervous)

   .....

3. How does the elderly man move? (slow)

   .....

4. How does the child laugh? (happy)

   .....

5. How does Ranu sing? (bad)

   .....

6. How are you sitting? (comfortable)

   .....

7. How did he pronounce the words? (correct)

   .....

8. How did the boy eat the ice cream? (greedy)

   .....

Chapter 38 Adverbs of Place

Where the Action is Done

Read these sentences:

1. The train stops *here.*
2. We live *there.*
3. My father has gone *out.*
4. Have you seen an aeroplane go *up?*

Each of the adverbs in the above sentences shows *where* the action is done; such as,

Where does the train stop?.... *Here*.

These adverbs, which show *where* some action is done, are called **Adverbs of Place**.

Adverbs of Place answer the question 'Where?'

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adverbs of Place in the following sentences.

1. He has come back.
2. I searched everywhere I could think of.
3. Let us go out.
4. They have built a house nearby.
5. The peon is standing outside.

6. We sat inside.
7. Come in and sit down.
8. Stand there.
9. The kite flies high in the sky.
10. The owl comes out at night.
11. Bring your book here.
12. Look, there he is.
13. I have been looking for him everywhere.
14. Work hard, or you'll be kept in.

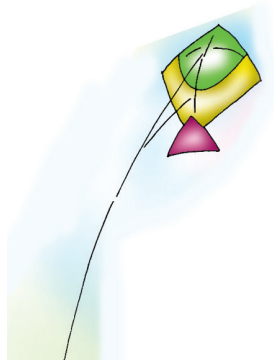

EXERCISE 2

Write down three sentences, each containing an Adverb of Place.

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EXERCISE 3

Make sentences and put the Adverbs in italics in the blanks correctly (behind the verb or object). One has been done for you.

1. is / *over there* / the school <u>The school is over there</u>.
2. *inside* / go / let's _____
3. the kitchen / *downstairs* / is _____
4. playing / the kids / are / *outside* _____
5. she / not / been / *here* / has _____
6. the bathroom / is / *upstairs* _____
7. were / *everywhere* / we / for / looking / you _____

8. we / *anywhere* / you / find / couldn't _____
9. ? / there / a post office / *nearby* / is _____
10. must / we / walk / *back* / home _____

EXERCISE 4

Choose the best answer from the options given to complete each sentence.

1. Close the door when you go _____.
   a. out b. westward
   c. lightly d. here
2. The cat is hiding _____ the couch.
   a. on b. underneath
   c. somewhere d. there
3. Will you be starting your plants _____ or in a greenhouse?
   a. round b. home
   c. outside d. around
4. The ship sailed _____, encountering heavy weather along the way.
   a. up b. down
   c. northwards d. backwards
5. When she saw me waiting, she ran _____ me.
   a. around b. towards
   c. through d. forward

Chapter 39 Adverbs of Time

When the Action is Done

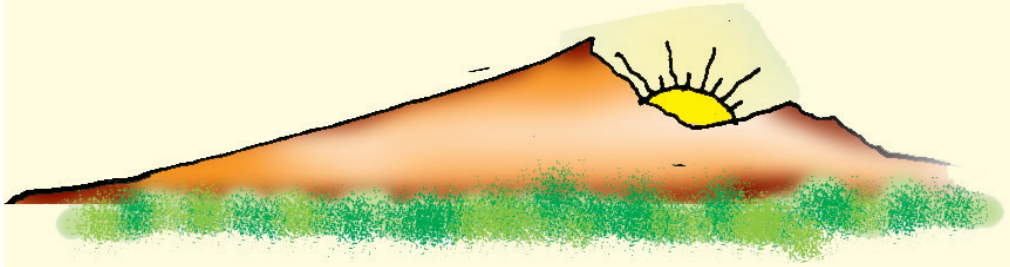

Read these sentences:

1. Goldilocks went to the Bears' house *yesterday.*
2. I'm going to tidy my room *tomorrow.*
3. I saw Sally *today.*
4. I will call you *later.*
5. I have to leave *now.*
6. I saw that movie *last year.*

The words – *yesterday, tomorrow, today, later, now, last year* tell us when things happen. These are called **Adverbs of Time** – words that describe *when, for how long*, or *how often* a certain action happened.

EXERCISE 1

Underline the words that denote Adverbs of Time.

1. This magazine is published monthly.
2. He visits his mother once a week.
3. I have spoken to him already.

4. I have heard this before.
5. I often eat vegetarian food.
6. He never drinks milk.
7. You must always fasten your seat belt.
8. I am seldom late.
9. He rarely lies.
10. I hurt my hand yesterday.
11. The end soon came.
12. I will call you later.
13. I have to leave now.
14. I have not seen you since Monday.
15. Jim comes here daily.
16. I saw the movie last year.

EXERCISE 2

Choose the appropriate Adverb of Time from the given options and complete each sentence.

1. We go out for Japanese food ..... willingly/normally/weekly/perfectly
2. Have you done your homework .....? now/then/yet/still
3. Do you ..... work at the bank? still/never/grudgingly/happily
4. Would you rather drive sometimes or take the train .....? still/never/every day/to the beach
5. The patient is ..... waiting to see the doctor. still/never/every day/sadly

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Adverbs of Time in the following sentences.

1. We shall now begin to work.
2. You must get up early.
3. I hurt my knee yesterday.
4. Obey me instantly.
5. He is going to Chennai shortly.
6. I shall come afterwards.
7. Lately he has become lazy.
8. Once I heard the bulbul sing.
9. I shall get a letter tomorrow.
10. Formerly we lived in Kolkata.
11. That day he arrived late.
12. Never speak rudely to anyone.
13. Good boys never tell a lie.
14. My father comes here daily, but my brother seldom comes.
15. Sometimes I think he'll never get well.
16. He has been there before, and he'll come here again.

EXERCISE 4

Write down three sentences, each containing an Adverb of Time.

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Chapter 40 Adverbs of Degree

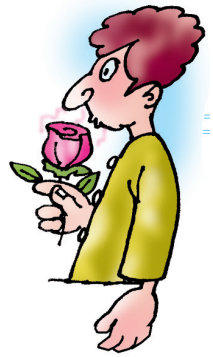

Read the sentences given below:

1. The rose is *very* beautiful.
2. His face was *nearly* black.
3. The man was *almost* angry.

The word *very* is used with the Adjective *beautiful*, and tells **how** (or *to what degree*) *beautiful* the rose is.

The word *nearly* is used with the Adjective *black*, and tells **how** *black* his face was.

The word *almost* is used with the Adjective *angry*, and tells **how** angry the man was.

The words *very, nearly* and *almost*, which are thus used with Adjectives to add something to their meaning, are called **Adverbs of Degree**.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adverbs of Degree in the following sentences.

1. He is very kind to the boy.
2. The grapes are almost sour.
3. You are quite wrong.
4. I am rather busy.
5. The cup is nearly full.
6. We spent a very pleasant day.
7. He is somewhat lazy.
8. He is entirely wrong.
9. He is too shy.

10. I am so glad to hear it.
11. It is very warm today.
12. He is probably right.
13. Your watch is not quite right.
14. The water was rather cold.
15. This string is too long.
16. He is slightly better.

EXERCISE 2

Write down three sentences, each containing an Adverb of Degree.

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Read these sentences:

1. The boy runs *very* quickly.
2. He speaks *rather* slowly.
3. The king treated his vizier *most* cruelly.

The word *very* is used with the Adverb *quickly,* and tells **how** *quickly,* the boy runs.

The word *rather* is used with the Adverb *slowly* and tells **how** *slowly* he speaks.

The word *most* is used with the Adverb *cruelly,* and tells **how** *cruelly* the king treated his vizier.

The word *very, rather* and *most,* which are thus used with Adverbs to add something to their meaning, are also called **Adverbs of Degree.**

It will be noticed that, unlike other Adverbs, an Adverb of Degree adds something to the meaning of an Adjective or another Adverb.

We may now say that *an **Adverb** is a word used with a verb, or an adjective, or another adverb to add something to its meaning.*

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Adverbs of Degree in the following sentences.

1. He spoke very kindly to his horse.
2. The day passed very pleasantly.
3. He writes extremely well.
4. Please work less noisily.
5. He writes quite beautifully.
6. The newspapers wrote fairly accurately about the matter.
7. I do not want to see visitors too often today.
8. We missed you so much.
9. He works remarkably well.
10. I like Rama, because he works so honestly and straightforwardly.

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks with suitable Adverbs of Degree.

1. She sings ..... well.
2. The sea was ..... stormy.
3. He is ..... careless.
4. You are ..... right.
5. We rose ..... early.
6. I am ..... glad to hear it.
7. Are you ..... sure?

8. He is now ..... better.
9. The distance was ..... long.
10. We were ..... kindly received.
11. Do not crowd your work ..... closely together.
12. We go to Pune ..... often.
13. The mango is ..... ripe.
14. The light is ..... dim.
15. The time passed ..... slowly.
16. I wrote to him ..... last week.
17. The ground is not ..... level.
18. He was ..... late for the train.
19. The old man is ..... blind.
20. The train stopped ..... suddenly.
21. I ..... much regret the mistake.
22. Who is that running ..... fast?
23. The snake was ..... dead with cold.
24. The old woman lived ..... alone.
25. I am ..... much obliged to you.
26. Do not run ..... fast.

Chapter 41 Interrogative Adverbs

Words Used in Asking Questions

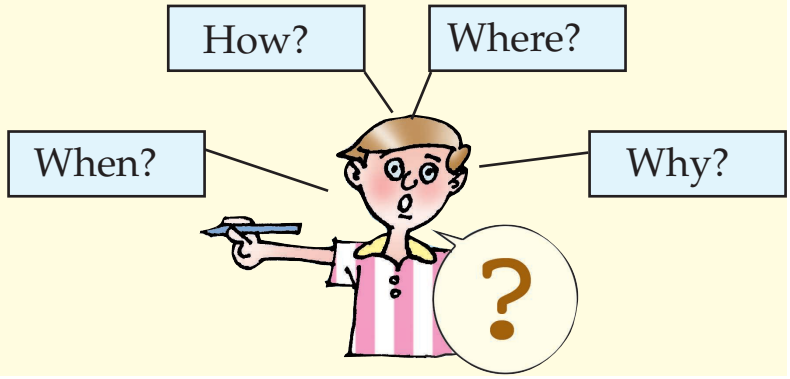

Read the sentences given below:

1. *When* did you come?
2. *Where* is Abdul?
3. *How* did you do it?
4. *Why* are you late?

In the above sentences, the words *when, where, how, why* are adverbs which are used in asking *questions.* They are, therefore, called **Interrogative Adverbs.**

EXERCISE

A. Fill in each blank with an appropriate Interrogative Adverb.

1. ..... is my cricket bat?
2. ..... is your examination?
3. ..... did you cut the string?
4. ..... are you so lazy?
5. ..... much money have you got?
6. ..... does this train go?

7. ..... did you get up this morning?
8. ..... many books have you got?
9. ..... did you not call me?
10. ..... will Rama return?
11. ..... does the sun set?
12. ..... have you put my watch?
13. ..... do you do?
14. ..... are you going?
15. ..... will you see him?
16. ..... did you read that?
17. ..... would you like it?
18. ..... did you do it?
19. ..... did he return?
20. ..... did you buy this ball?
21. ..... will the train start?
22. ..... did you not go to school?
23. ..... did you lose your purse?
24. ..... was it done?
25. ..... do you say so?
26. ..... do you tell such stories?
27. ..... did you not come sooner?

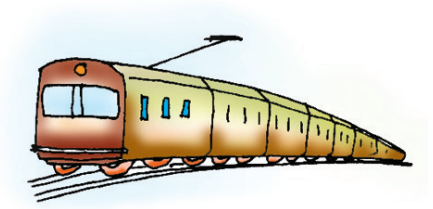

B. Compare your answers with another student's and if the answers do not match then discuss which answers are correct. Interact with another pair if necessary.

Chapter 42 Comparison of Adverbs

Some adverbs, like adjectives, have three degrees of comparison. Such adverbs are generally compared like adjectives.

If the adverb is of one syllable, we form the Comparative by adding *er,* and the Superlative by adding *est* to the Positive; such as,

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Long	longer	longest
Soon	sooner	soonest
Near	nearer	nearest

Adverbs ending in *-ly* form the Comparative by adding *more* and the Superlative by adding *most;* such as,

The crow flies *swiftly.*

The hawk flies *more swiftly* than the crow.

Pigeons fly *most swiftly* of all birds.

But note : *early, earlier, earliest.*

I came *early* this morning.

Rama came *earlier.*

Hari came *earliest* of all.

A few adverbs are compared *irregularly.*

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Well	better	best
Badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Late	later/latter	latest, last
Far	farther	farthest

EXERCISE 1

Give the three Degrees of Comparison of the following Adverbs.

better, least, often, long, last, cleverly

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the correct Adverb form (comparative or superlative) of the adjectives in brackets. One has been done for you.

1. I speak English (fluent) more fluently now than last year.
2. She greeted me (polite) _____ of all.
3. She smiled (happy) _____ than before.
4. This girl dances (graceful) _____ of all.
5. Could you write (clear) _____?
6. Planes can fly (high) _____ than birds.
7. He had an accident last year. Now, he drives (careful) _____ than before.
8. Jim can run (fast) _____ than John.
9. Our team played (bad) _____ of all.
10. He worked (hard) _____ than ever before.

Unit 11
Prepositions

Chapter 43 What are Prepositions?

Read the following sentences:

1. The *ruler* on the *desk* is yours.
2. The *book* under the *bench* is mine.
3. The dog *ran* after the *cat.*

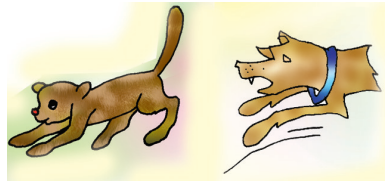

The word 'on' shows the relation between the ruler and the desk.

The word 'under' shows the relation between the book and the bench.

The word 'after' shows the relation between the act of running and the cat.

Let the teacher carefully explain that without such words the relation cannot be expressed.

EXERCISE 1

Read the following sentences, and pick out the word which, in each case, shows the *relation* between the book and the desk.

1. The book on the desk is red.
2. The book under the desk is mine.
3. The book near the desk is yours.
4. The book behind the desk is yellow.
5. The book by the desk is his.

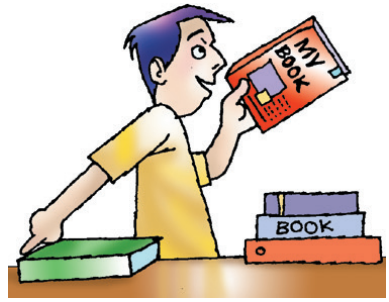

Read the following sentences with emphasis on the words in bold.

1. The *lesson* **in** *arithmetic* is hard.
2. This is the *way* **across** the *field.*
3. The *hat* **on** the *peg* is yours.

4. There goes the *smith* **with** *a hammer.*
5. Oranges *grow* **in** *Nagpur*.
6. Sonu *lives* **in** *Mumbai.*
7. John *ran* **down** the *footpath*.
8. The cat *jumped* **off** the *chair*.
9. A tall man *spoke* **to** *me.*
10. We *walked* **along** the *river*.
11. The smith *works* **with** a *hammer*.
12. Rama is *absent* **without** *leave*.
13. She is *fond* **of** *music.*
14. I am *sorry* **for** *you*.

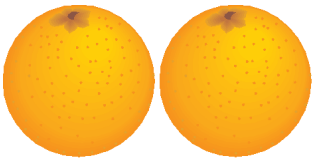

In each of the above sentences, we notice that the word in bold is placed before a noun (or a pronoun) to show some kind of relation between the action performed and the noun (or the pronoun) that follows it.

A word that governs a noun (or a pronoun) and which expresses a relation to another word or element in a sentence is called a **Preposition**.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Prepositions in the following sentences.

1. The picture is on the wall.
2. The pen is under the chair.
3. The roof is above the floor.
4. The floor is below the roof.
5. The cow is in the water.
6. The boat is by the river.
7. The wall is round the compound.
8. The house is among the trees.
9. Rama is beside Arjun.

10. Ganpat is with his brother.
11. I am going to Pune.
12. He sat upon the chair.
13. I sat between Rama and Hari.
14. I often spoke to Rama.
15. Rustum lives in Mumbai.
16. The dog leapt over the wall.
17. We shall play after dinner.
18. Do not walk before me; walk after me.
19. This desk is made of wood.
20. Did you see me from the window?
21. I saw a large crowd near our school.
22. You must stay within the compound.
23. Why are you standing behind Ahmed?
24. Go and stand by the door.
25. Look at those yellow roses.
26. Will you do the sum for me?
27. Do not go beyond the gate.
28. The boy is looking through the keyhole.
29. The lame man is walking with a crutch.
30. I arrived here half an hour before you.

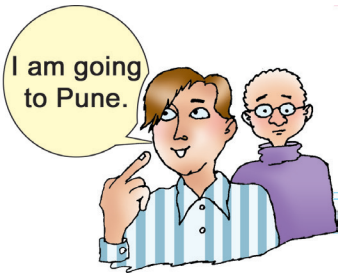

EXERCISE 3

Look at the picture and fill in the blanks with the Prepositions in the box.

under, on, in, between, behind, in front of, beside, over

1. The basket is ..... the chair.
2. The chair is ..... the door and the piano.
3. The plate and the bottle are ..... the cupboard.

4. The socks and the shoes are ..... the door.
5. The clock is ..... the piano.
6. The cups are ..... the table.
7. The table is ..... the cupboard.
8. The piano is ..... the cupboard.
9. The bottle is ..... the TV.

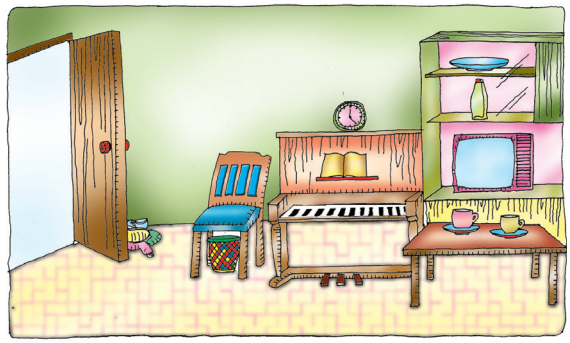

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

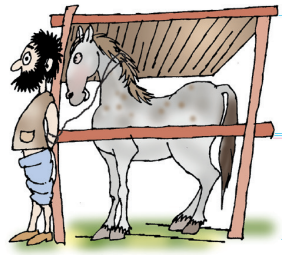

1. The coat is ..... the box.
2. The horse is ..... the stable.
3. Do not go ..... the river.
4. I have three rupees ..... my pocket.
5. The milk is ..... the jug.
6. The bird is ..... the tree.
7. The parrot is ..... the cage.
8. He is ..... the carriage.
9. They went ..... the beach.
10. They live ..... Varanasi.
11. Who is waiting ..... the door?
12. The rain comes ..... the clouds.
13. This hammer is made ..... iron.
14. He came ..... Ahmedabad.
15. Put the box ..... your head.
16. Look ..... me.
17. Put your cap ..... that peg.

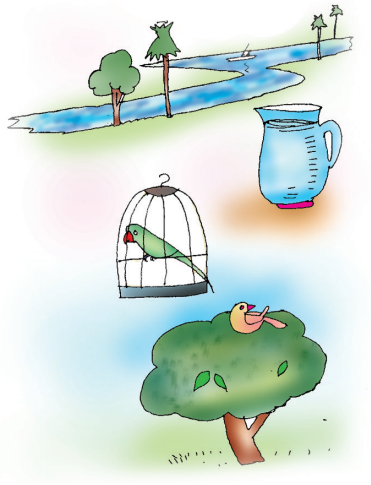

18. I saw him ..... my house.
19. Are you running ..... the train?
20. The thief jumped ..... the wall.
21. It is cool to sit ..... the banyan tree.
22. The coolie saw a snake ..... his foot.
23. The camel can live ..... water for days.
24. Pandu gave his throne ..... Dhritarashtra.

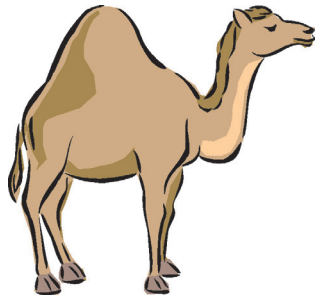

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

1. There's a mouse ..... the chair.
2. The branches of the tree are ..... the house.
3. There are two candles ..... the cake.
4. There are eight apples ..... the cupboard.
5. The school is ..... the church.
6. The programme is ..... Channel 12.
7. I will write a letter ..... my uncle.
8. They came ..... a car.
9. I saw him ..... the party.
10. There are eggs ..... the basket
11. He lives ..... the second floor.
12. Ramya is ..... Uma and Mary.

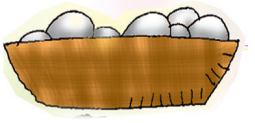

EXERCISE 6

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

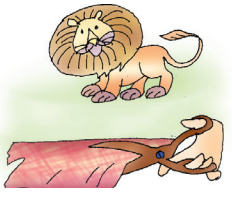

1. The lion's home is ..... Africa.
2. We cut cloth ..... scissors.

3. April comes ..... March.
4. The peon came ..... a bicycle.
5. The postman knocks ..... the door.
6. Monday is the first day ..... the week.
7. Would you like a cup ..... tea?
8. The mango dropped ..... the tree.
9. We took shelter ..... a tree.
10. I waited ..... ten o'clock.
11. Are you ..... a hurry to go?
12. There is a fence ..... the field.
13. Lions prey ..... other animals.
14. We drink tea ..... a cup.
15. The river flows ..... the bridge.
16. My friend will return ..... an hour.
17. The map hangs ..... the wall.
18. The night is bright ..... stars.
19. The dog barked ..... the cat.
20. He is hiding ..... the door.
21. He is wiping his face ..... a towel.
22. Three mice ran ..... a hole.
23. I often play ..... my little sister.
24. The horse leapt ..... a wide ditch.
25. We saw the film ..... video.
26. The letter was addressed ..... me.
27. Let us go ..... a walk.
28. I get up ..... six o'clock.
29. The map was drawn ..... me.

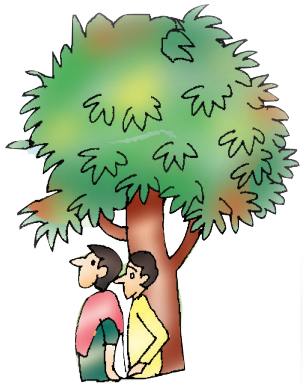

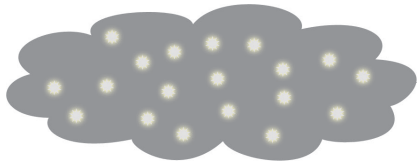

EXERCISE 7

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

1. He was ..... leave.
2. There are iron railings ..... our playground.
3. Look ..... the box.
4. I am very fond ..... horses.
5. He is ashamed ..... his conduct.
6. No one can be healthy ..... work.
7. Do you pump air ..... the tyres?
8. Do not pick your nose ..... your finger.
9. Never put your fingers ..... your mouth.
10. You should never breathe ..... your mouth.

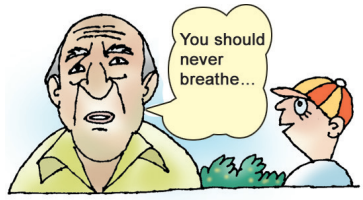

11. How long can we live ..... air?
12. We must not let flies settle ..... our food.
13. There is nothing new ..... the sun.
14. Rice is grown all ..... India.
15. The hare laughed ..... the tortoise because it was slow.
16. A cat may look ..... a king.
17. Old Mother Hubbard went ..... the cupboard.

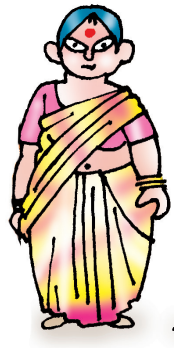

18. The piano is ..... sale.
19. He leaves five children ..... him.
20. He was punctual ..... the minute.
21. I went there ..... my will.
22. Take my word ..... it.
23. The work was done ..... haste.
24. The three brothers quarrelled ..... themselves.
25. May I go ..... a ride ..... your car?

26. Rama went ..... Nashik ..... Arjun.
27. He rode ..... the desert ..... a camel.
28. Leaves fall ..... trees ..... dry weather.
29. Rama is drawing a parrot ..... the blackboard ..... a piece of chalk.
30. Hari went to school ..... his books, and his master sent him back ..... his house ..... them.

EXERCISE 8

Pick out the Prepositions in the following sentences.

1. Father is not at home.
2. He has eaten nothing since yesterday.
3. The boy fell off his pony.
4. What is that in your hand?
5. He was among the crowd.
6. I gave ten rupees for it.
7. Let us walk along the shore.
8. I don't know anything about it.
9. The policeman is on duty.
10. There is a bridge over the river.
11. The carriage is at the door.
12. The moon goes round the sun.
13. He laughed on my face.
14. The moon shines by night.
15. They live across the river.
16. The boy fell off the bicycle.
17. The room is 20 feet by 16.
18. He sat beside me at dinner.

19. I am afraid of your dog.
20. The house is on fire.
21. He is tall for his age.
22. I met him by chance.
23. I met him on the way.
24. I have got through my work.
25. I have been here since 10 o'clock.
26. He is hard of hearing.
27. Can you direct me to the post office?
28. The train will start at 3 p.m.
29. Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.

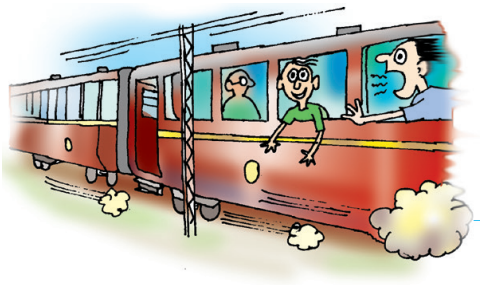

EXERCISE 9

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

between	above	under

There is a doll in the cupboard. It's ..... a clock and a radio. There is a kite ..... the doll. There is a bottle ..... the clock. The radio is ..... a ball. There is a book ..... the bottle and the ball. It is ..... the doll.

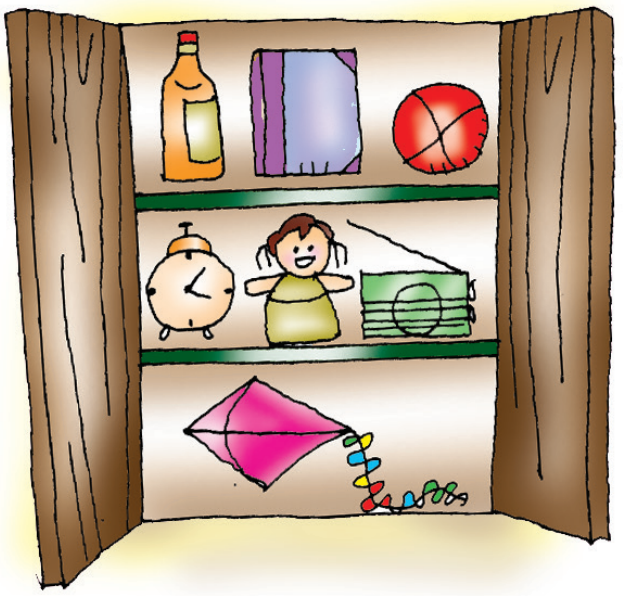

EXERCISE 10

A. Look at this picture and fill in the blanks in the sentences with suitable Prepositions.

1. The children are playing . . . . . the tree.
2. There is a bicycle . . . . . the children.
3. There are three apples . . . . . the table.
4. There is a dog . . . . . the table.
5. Some birds are flying . . . . . the sky.

Pair-work

Look at this picture and make three sentences about it. Use a Preposition in each sentence.

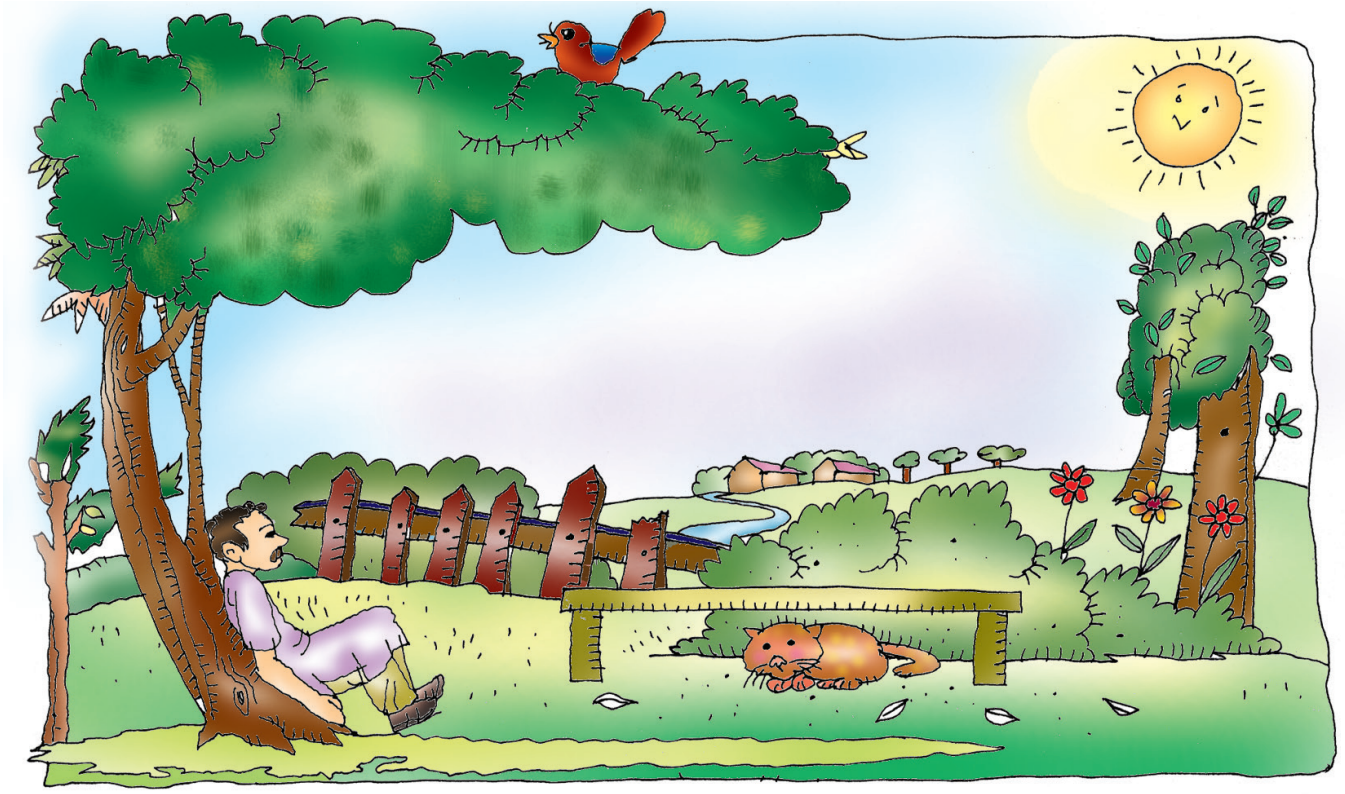

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Chapter 44 Correct Use of Prepositions

Read the sentences given below:

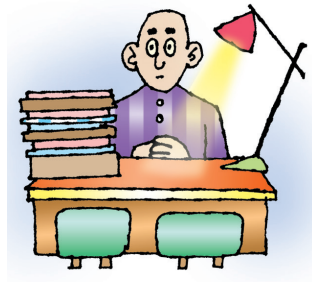

1. The book is *on* the desk.
2. The book is *under* the desk.
3. The book is *near* the desk.
4. The book is *beside* the desk.

Each of the above sentences contains a word that shows the *relation* between the book and the desk. Such words are called **Prepositions**.

The noun or pronoun that follows a preposition is said to be **governed by the preposition**, and is called its **Object**.

Now examine the following sentences:

1. He lives *near* us.
2. He came *with* me.
3. The letter is *from* him.
4. I do not believe *in* them.
5. There is a wall *round* it.

In these sentences you see the prepositions used with pronouns.

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun (or a pronoun) to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Prepositions in the following sentences.

1. The nurse is on duty.
2. The dog ran across the road.
3. London is on the Thames.
4. The sun rises in the east.
5. The bangle is on the chair.
6. He is afraid of the cat.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

1. I like to listen ..... music in my car.
2. He got angry ..... me.
3. Do not go ..... the river.
4. He jumped ..... the nullah.
5. He sat ..... a chair.
6. The coolie saw a snake ..... his foot.
7. The sky is ..... our heads.
8. It can be found ..... the shelf in the library.
9. You will be punished ..... your fault.
10. It is raining; do not go ..... your umbrella.
11. Take care ..... your books.
12. Rama hid ..... the door.
13. Kolkata stands ..... the banks of the Hugli.
14. The river flows ..... the bridge.
15. The camel can live ..... water for days.

16. Kangaroos live ..... Australia.
17. The train is due ..... six.
18. I don't like travelling ..... night.
19. It is very kind ..... you.
20. How far is your school ..... here?
21. The cap belongs ..... me.
22. We do not work ..... holidays.
23. I wash my hands ..... soap and water.
24. Many thanks ..... your invitation.
25. Have you been waiting long ..... me?
26. That man walks ..... a stick.
27. I shall do it ..... pleasure.
28. Which is the nearest way ..... the Town Hall?
29. He is fond ..... skating.

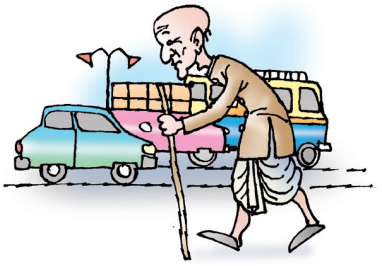

Unit 12
Conjunctions

Chapter 45 What are Conjunctions?

Read the sentences below and compare:

(a)	Ganesh is watching TV. Govind is watching TV.	(i)	Ganesh *and* Govind are watching TV.
(b)	Is that boy fat? Is that boy thin?	(ii)	Is that boy fat *or* thin?
(c)	I can read English. I can write English.	(iii)	I can read *and* write English.
(d)	He phoned the office. There was no reply.	(iv)	He phoned the office *but* there was no reply.
(e)	I trust him. He is honest.	(v)	I trust him *because* he is honest.

What work is done by the word 'and' in (i)?

It **joins** the two sentences—'Ganesh is watching TV' and 'Govind is watching TV' and makes it 'Ganesh and Govind are watching TV'.

What work is done by the word 'or' in (ii)?—'or' gives a choice.

What work is done by the word 'but' in (iv)?—'but' makes a contrast.

What work is done by the word 'because' in (v)?—'because' gives a reason.

In the following sentences, the words in italics have been used to join words or groups of words:

1. The dog *and* the cat are in the garden.
2. The boys came running *and* shouting.
3. I played the piano *and* she sang songs.
4. Is this my pencil *or* yours?

5. Go away, *or* be quiet.
6. He is poor *but* honest.
7. I ran fast, *but* I missed the train.
8. The mice will play *when* the cat is away.
9. We went home *after* we had finished our lessons.
10. You will get the prize *if* you work hard.
11. I believe him *because* he is truthful.
12. We shall not go out *as* it is very hot.
13. He is very rich, *yet* he is not happy.
14. *Though* rich, he is not happy.
15. I missed the train *although* I walked fast.
16. The dinner will be cold *unless* you walk home fast.
17. I do not know *whether* he will join us.

Words like **and, but, or, yet, because**, etc., are used to join words or groups of words. They are called '**joining words**' or **Conjunctions**.
A **Conjunction** is a word used to join words or groups of words.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Conjuctions.

1. Dhondu and Pandu are here.
2. The bat and the ball are stolen.
3. You and I must go.
4. You came and I went away.
5. Is he your brother or your cousin?
6. I have a pencil but no eraser.
7. He has three sons and two daughters.
8. Two and two make four.
9. Is that story true or false?

10. I looked for my pen, but I did not find it.
11. Rama failed in the exams because he was ill.
12. His brother passed the exams as he worked hard.
13. We called, but no one answered.
14. He worked hard, yet he failed.
15. Babu will help you if you ask him.
16. He was there, for I saw him.
17. If he comes, I shall stay.
18. I know him, for he is my father's friend.
19. Do not answer unless you are asked.
20. The bag was heavy, so I could not carry it.
21. While I was going down the street, I met him.
22. He has read much, though he is young.
23. Do you know if the letter has been posted?
24. He bowled well, although he was tired.
25. Unless you write it down, you will forget it.
26. I stumbled as I was going downstairs.
27. It rained, so I took a carriage.
28. Though poor, he never works hard.
29. Ask him whether he wishes to come with us.
30. She said that she was leaving the city for good.

Joining words are called **Conjunctions**.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell which words or groups of words are joined by each.

1. You and I are class fellows.
2. Homi is clever but careless.

3. Rama was ill, so she stayed at home.
4. Will you have a mango or an orange?
5. I cleaned the board and he wrote on it.
6. They are poor yet cheerful.
7. The cow eats grass, but the tiger does not.
8. He failed in the exams though he worked hard.
9. Send for me when you want me.
10. Come if you wish to ride.
11. Wait till I send for you.
12. I ran away before he could catch me.
13. They worked until it was quite dark.
14. He missed the train although he ran fast.
15. Radha got burnt because she was careless.
16. Be careful, or you will hurt yourself.

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with suitable Conjunctions.

1. Keshav has a bat ..... a ball.
2. He is old ..... weak.
3. He is old ..... active.
4. Shall we walk ..... run?
5. The room is big ..... dark.
6. You must work hard ..... you wish to get the prize.
7. Sama will not come ..... it rains.
8. Run fast ..... you will miss the bus.
9. We drink water ..... we get thirsty.
10. The teacher is kind, ... the pupils like him.
11. He is active ..... he is so old.
12. You can catch the train ..... you run fast.

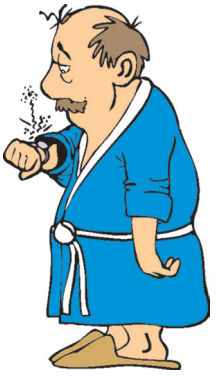

EXERCISE 4

Join the following pairs of sentences with *and, or* or *but*.

1. Rama has a bat. He has a ball.
2. Hari knows Marathi. He knows English.
3. I ran. I caught the bus.
4. The sun rises in the east. The sun sets in the west.
5. Do you like cricket? Do you like hockey?
6. The child is deaf. He is dumb.
7. My book is lost. It is stolen.
8. Speak clearly. Sit down.
9. The street is narrow. It is clean.
10. He is rich. He is not happy.
11. The hunter shot at the tiger. He missed it.
12. Babu laughed at the blind man. Rama helped him cross the road.

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with suitable Conjunctions.

1. He bought a book ..... a magazine.
2. He is very poor ..... he is happy.
3. King went to the doctor ..... he was ill.
4. ..... we can travel by land ..... by water.
5. Bread ..... milk is wholesome food.
6. I hear ..... your brother is in London.
7. Make hay ..... the sun shines.
8. I wonder ..... he will come.
9. I am glad ..... you are better.

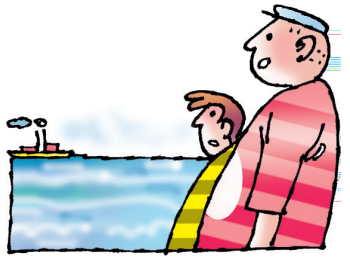

10. He is richer ..... I am.
11. She sang ..... she went along.
12. Let us go to bed ..... it is now late.
13. I shall go, ... you come or not.
14. All men should work, ... they cannot live.
15. ..... it was a holiday, Piggy got up late.
16. I waited ..... the next train arrived.
17. There is no doubt ..... the earth is round.
18. The train was derailed, ... no one was hurt.
19. Give me a drink, ... I shall die of thirst.
20. Walk carefully, ... you will fall.
21. I did not come ..... you did not call me.
22. You will get the prize ..... you deserve it.
23. We arrived ..... you had gone.
24. I shall be vexed ..... you do it.
25. We got into the port ..... the storm came on.
26. He asked ..... he might have a holiday.
27. ..... you tell me the truth, I shall not punish you.
28. You will succeed ..... you work hard.
29. ..... you say so, I must believe it.
30. Ask him ..... he has called.
31. ..... I were you, I'd keep quiet.
32. Be just, ... fear not.
33. You will not keep well ..... you eat enough.
34. You will not keep well ..... you eat too much.
35. See, ... the drawer is locked.
36. He will not go ..... I go.
37. Can you describe ..... the accident happened?
38. We shall not go, ... you come with us.

39. He told me ..... you had arrived an hour ago.
40. ..... you promise to come, I shall wait for you.
41. ..... no one helps me, I must help myself.
42. Tea is quite harmless ..... not taken in excess.
43. He felt very hot and tired, ... he lay down and went to sleep.
44. The hurricane-lamp is made in such a way ..... the wind cannot blow it.

EXERCISE 6

Join the following pairs of sentences by means of a suitable Conjunction.

1. He is rich. He is not happy.
2. I honour him. He is a brave man.
3. He did not succeed. He worked hard.
4. Balu made twelve runs. He was caught at the wicket.
5. You must be quiet. You must leave the room.
6. He sat down. He was tired.
7. Rama works hard. Hari is idle.
8. I lost the prize. I tried my best.
9. He must start at once. He will be late.
10. He was afraid of being late. He ran.
11. He must do as he is told. He will be punished.
12. I shall go. You will allow me.
13. We have not seen him. He returned from England.
14. We are not going out. It is raining.

Chapter 46 Correlative Conjunctions

Read the following questions.

1. I enjoyed *both* the movie *and* the book.
2. I am fine with *either* Monday *or* Wednesday.
3. *Neither* his father *nor* his mother knew where he was.
4. She scored well *not only* in English *but also* in math.

The italised pairs of words in the sentences such as *both…and*, *either…or*, *neither…nor*, *not only…but also* are known as **Correlative Conjunctions**. They are always used in pairs. These conjunctions connect two balanced clauses, phrases, or words.

Correlative Conjunctions are normally paired as shown below:

- Either/or: used to convey a choice
  You can have *either* the chocolate *or* the ice cream.
- Neither/nor: used to negate two different choices
  Neither Tina *nor* Rahul knows Spanish.
- Not only/but also: used when both sentences or ideas are true
  Kumal *not only* plays the guitar *but also* the tabla.
- Just as/so: used to explain a relation or similarity between two subjects
  Just as my mum loves cooking, *so* do I.
- Whether/or: used to show two different options within a sentence
  There will be a test tomorrow *whether* you like it *or* not.
- Both/and: used for combining two words or phrases of exactly the same importance in a sentence
  Both Maria *and* Jack are going to the library.

Here are some more examples of Correlative Conjunctions:

- not/but
- as/as
- such/that
- scarcely/when
- as many/as
- no sooner/than
- rather/than
- so/that
- such/that

EXERCISE 1

Underline the Correlative Conjunctions in the following sentences.

1. I like apples as much as I enjoy mangoes.
2. Please tell me whether I should go or stay.
3. She plays both piano and violin.
4. I will either go for a hike or stay at home and watch TV.
5. He is neither rich nor famous.
6. He is not only intelligent, but also handsome.
7. Would you rather sing or play?
8. You can have neither tea nor coffee.
9. Scarcely had we started when it started to rain.
10. Though he worked hard yet he couldn't pass.
11. I am not sure whether to have a cupcake or a sandwich.
12. He is both kind and generous.
13. Both the minister and his colleagues visited the site.
14. He is both a journalist and a statesman.
15. I both love and respect my parents.

16. We can go to either Greece or Spain for our holiday.
17. Both rugby and football are popular in France.
18. Not only is he a professional footballer, but he's also a successful businessman.
19. In sport, what counts is not the winning but the taking part.
20. Neither Sita nor Gita is present today.
21. Whether you like it or not there will be a test tomorrow.
22. I don't know whether it's sweet or sour.
23. No sooner had I finished watering the garden than it started raining.

EXERCISE 2

Choose appropriate Correlative Conjunctions to fill in the blanks.

1. She is neither polite _____ funny. (or, nor, not, yet)
2. _____ that is the case, _____ I'm not surprised about what's happening. (if/then, no sooner/than, scarcely/when, whether/or)
3. Have you made a decision about _____ to go to the movies _____ not? (If/then, either/or, whether/or, what with/and)
4. _____ had I put my umbrella away, _____ it started raining. (no sooner/than, if/then, what with/and, neither/nor)
5. This salad is _____ delicious _____ healthy. (whether/or, both/and, scarcely/when, rather/than)
6. She is as charming _____ she is kind. (as, or, nor, yet)
7. I'd rather skip _____ swim. (than, either, neither, nor)
8. Not only is it hot _____ humid too. (and, but, rather, neither)
9. We enjoy reading as much _____ we enjoy walking. (both, as, and, but)
10. It was so cold _____ we decided to stay indoors. (that, and, but, as)

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with Correlative Conjunctions.

1. We _____ are going to the park _____ are going home.
2. _____ Kunal _____ Rohit expressed their thoughts.
3. _____ the cousins _____ Seema told the truth.
4. At night _____ the cats _____ the dogs wake us up.
5. John will _____ start today _____ tomorrow.
6. Yash invited _____ Kareena _____ Jyoti to the party.
7. _____ Indira _____ Ahmed like Science.
8. I will be on time _____ I get a ride to school _____ walk.
9. _____ Mom _____ Dad insist that I practise singing an hour a day.
10. _____ India _____ Bangladesh were studied in geography this year.
11. I want to go _____ to Disneyland _____ to Sea World.
12. I will be your friend _____ you stay here _____ move away.
13. I will _____ fill out an application _____ take a job even if it is offered to me.

Unit 13
Interjections

Chapter 47 What are Interjections?

Read the following sentences:

1. **Hurrah!** We have won the match.
2. **Alas!** The poor dog is dead.
3. **Bravo!** Well hit!
4. **Ouch!** You have trodden on my foot.

The word 'Hurrah' expresses joy.
The word 'Alas' expresses grief.
The word 'Bravo' expresses admiration.
The word 'Ouch' expresses sudden pain.

Words which express joy, grief, or some such sudden or strong feeling, are called **Interjections**.

EXERCISE 1

A. Pick out the Interjections in the following sentences.

1. Oh! Is the child dead?
2. Wow! What a pretty bird!
3. Alas! I can no longer see him again.
4. Shh! The baby is asleep.
5. Hurrah! It's a holiday tomorrow.
6. Oh no! He's at it again telling one of his boring tales.

7. Oh my god! What a grave mistake I've made!
8. Hullo! What was that?
9. Tut, tut! This is all nonsense.
10. Oh dear! The dogs are barking.
11. Ah! That was a sumptuous meal.

B. Fill in the blanks with suitable Interjections from the box.

hurrah	shh	ugh	oh	ouch

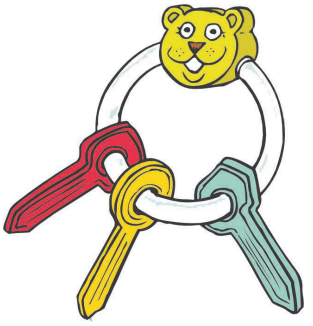

1. ..... ! Walk quietly.
2. ..... ! I have burnt my hand on the kettle!
3. ..... ! India has won.
4. ..... ! How can you eat that horrible stuff?
5. ..... ! I have lost my keys.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with suitable Interjections from the box.

hurrah	bravo	hello	oh	ouch	ssh

1. ..... ! What are you doing here?
2. ..... ! Vijay has won!
3. ..... ! You have done well.
4. ..... ! The baby is sleeping.
5. ..... ! You have trodden on my foot!
6. ..... ! I have lost my purse.

EXERCISE 3

A. Fill in the blanks with suitable Interjections.

1. ..... ! The baby is sleeping.
2. ..... ! It is time to go home.
3. ..... ! Ramya speaking. (on the phone)
4. ..... ! Good shot.
5. ..... ! I have burnt my hand on the kettle.
6. ..... ! Suresh has won.
7. ..... ! I have lost my purse.
8. ..... ! Are you going to the park?
9. ..... ! Is there anybody in?
10. ..... ! What a courageous woman!

B. Group Work

Read your answers to each other in groups of five and decide which answers are correct or the best.

Unit 14
Sentences

Chapter 48 What is a Sentence?

Read the following:

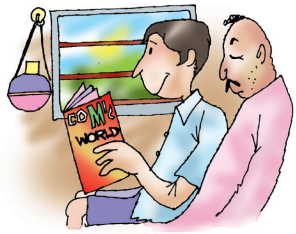

1. Stood up (Shows action)
2. The boy (Names the subject)
3. The boy is learning to play football (Complete thought)

Number 3 is a sentence. It has a subject in action and also an object.

When we speak we use groups of words to express a complete thought. Even one word can be a complete sentence, if it expresses a complete thought.

You know the meaning of the words:

STOP, GO, RUN

All these words can also be used alone.

If I say 'Stop', it means you have to stop. The subject 'you' is implied. It is one complete thought and makes complete sense.

If I say 'Run' to you, you know what I mean, and therefore that one word makes complete sense, and is a sentence.

So also 'Go, Aarav', is a sentence, because the two words make complete sense.

A **Sentence** is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.

TIPS to write sentences

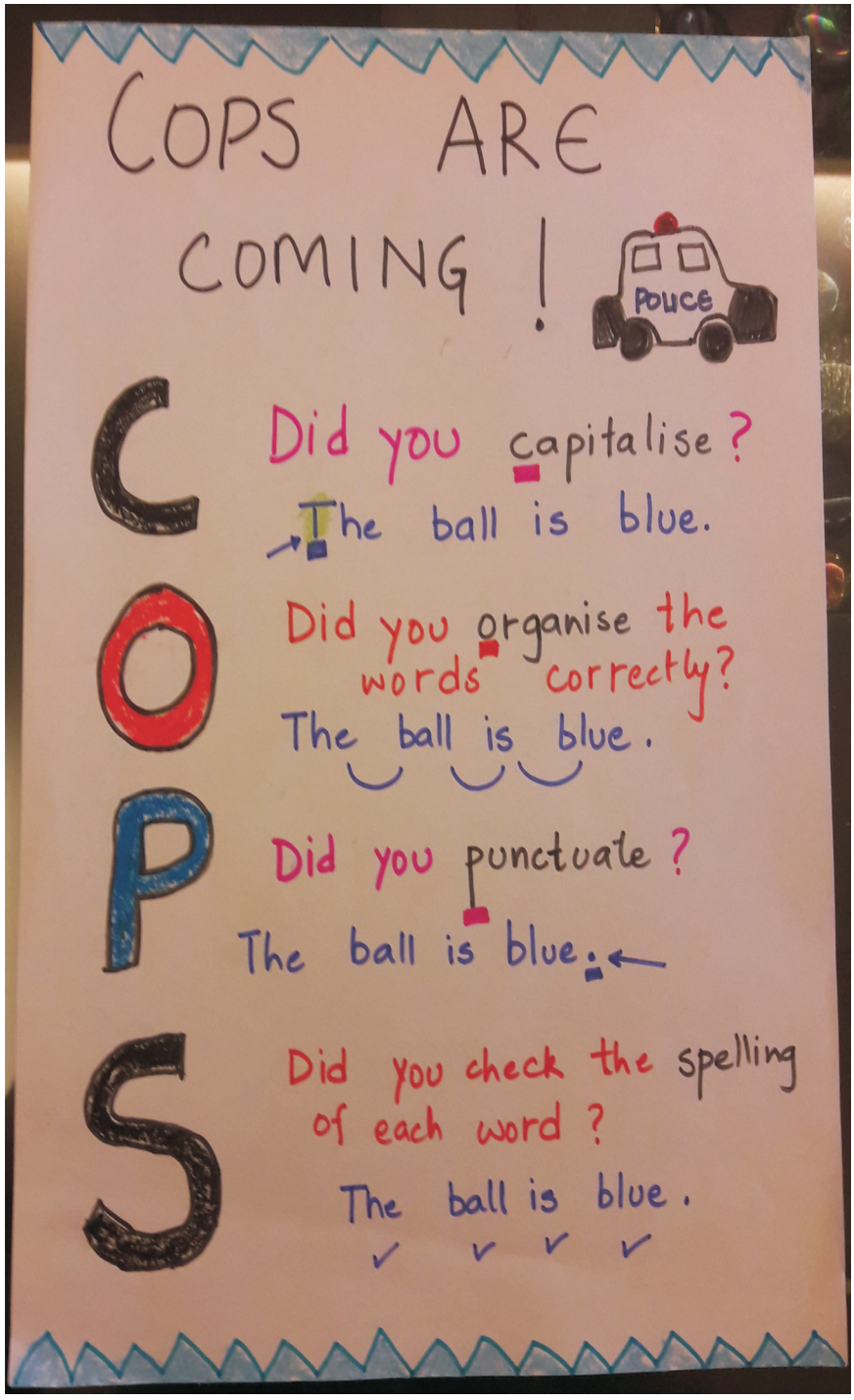

EXERCISE 1

Put these words in order. Write the Sentences in your notebook.

Example

- your homework, must do, regularly, you

Will be rearranged as

- You must do your homework regularly.

1. books, the shelves
   on, there are

2. the park, in
   the boys, are playing

3. is, the dog
   animal, a faithful

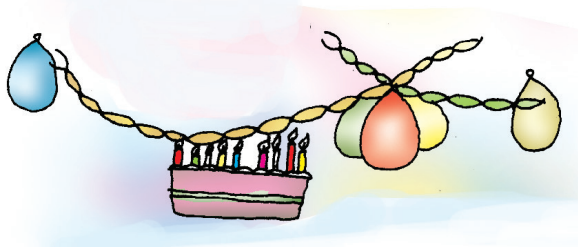

4. children, good
   the truth, always tell

5. my birthday, 16th July
   on, is

6. often goes, my uncle
   by plane, to Delhi

7. saw, I

   a snake, in the garden

8. rises, the east

   in, the sun

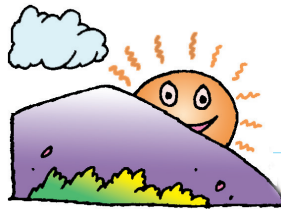

9. TV, watch, in

   the, evenings, we

10. Everest, the highest mountain

    in, the world, is

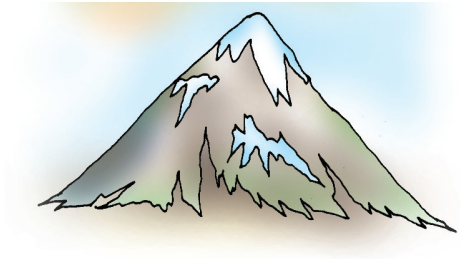

EXERCISE 2

A. Make a sentence with each of the following.

Examples

1. The moon and night
   The moon shines at night.
2. Qutab Minar and Delhi
   Qutab Minar is in Delhi.

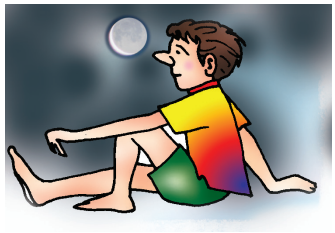

1. Birds and nests
2. Cats and milk
3. Tom and his dog
4. The sun and the sky
5. Cows and grass
6. Birds and wings
7. Bees and honey
8. Hindi and India
9. Computers and the modern world
10. The Taj Mahal and Agra

EXERCISE 3

Match the words in the first column to the words in the second to make complete sentences.

Herbivorous	a fun game today!
Fish	like watching a fight?
The dentist	is arriving on Tuesday.
The couple	makes the room bright.
Grandmother	have no children.
Did the	animals eat plants.
We played	is examining the teeth.
Light	has wrinkles on her face.
Do you	children board the train?
Sonia	lives underwater.

EXERCISE 4

Give answers to the following questions.

1. Are you not well?
2. Have you not written in your notebook?
3. Don't you like to play with us?
4. Was not Rama present yesterday?
5. Haven't you brought your drawing book along?
6. Can't you work this easy sum?
7. Isn't he deaf?
8. Won't you give me your book?
9. Didn't you see him playing there?
10. Isn't it a nice weather today?

Chapter 49 Kinds of Sentences

There are five kinds of sentences.

1. Interrogative sentences
2. Declarative sentences
3. Exclamatory sentences
4. Imperative sentences
5. Negative sentences

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

Read the sentences below:

Where are you going?
How are you?
What is your name?
What are you reading?
Why are you sleeping in class?
What are you playing?

Each of the above sentences asks a question, and is, therefore, called an **Interrogative** sentence.

Note that the mark of interrogation (?) is always placed after every question.

EXERCISE 1

Frame Interrogative sentences as instructed.

1. Ask a boy what he is eating.
2. Ask your friend whether he is getting ready for school.

3. Ask your friend what she is reading.
4. Ask a question about the time.
5. Ask your mother if she likes tea or coffee.
6. Ask your friend which year he was born.
7. Ask Hari the price of his cap.
8. Ask Govind what time he prepares his lessons.
9. Ask your friend a question about the weather.
10. Ask your friend what her favourite TV programmes are.
11. Ask Rama if he will go out for a walk with you.
12. Ask about the number of boys in your school.

EXERCISE 2

Write an Interrogative Sentence about each of the subjects given below. Be sure to use the proper punctuation marks.

1.	playground	Does the playground have a slide?
2.	food	
3.	story book	
4.	school	
5.	uniform	
6.	lion	
7.	cartoon	
8.	table	
9.	friend	
10.	vacations	
11.	grandparents	
12.	house	
13.	library	
14.	kitchen	

15.	notebook	
16.	box	
17.	pen	
18.	bread	
19.	father	
20.	vegetable	

DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

Read the sentences below:

The children are playing in the park.
Rama is my friend.
The boy is reading an English story book.
Rabbits have short tails.
Lion is a carnivorous animal.
India got independence in 1947.

Making statements,
Giving information

Each of the above sentences *states* something; it makes a *statement*. It is called a **Declarative** sentence.

A Declarative sentence ends with a full stop (.).

EXERCISE 1

Frame Declarative sentences as instructed.

1. Say something about *elephants.*
2. Say something about a *cow.*
3. State something about *roses.*
4. State a fact about *water.*
5. Make a statement about *cricket.*

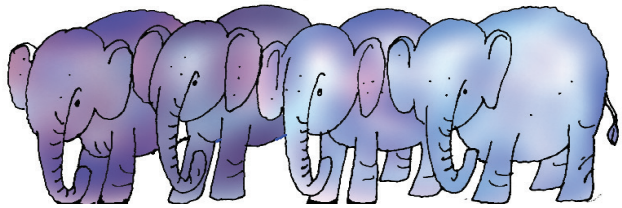

6. State a fact about *mangoes.*
7. Make a statement about your friend's *health.*
8. Make a statement about *India*.

EXERCISE 2

Write a declarative sentence with each of the subjects/objects given below. Be sure to use the proper punctuation marks.

1.	holidays	I am going to Nainital in my holidays.
2.	butcher	
3.	friend	
4.	class teacher	
5.	school council	
6.	summer	
7.	hobby	
8.	bedroom	
9.	shirt	
10.	guitar	
11.	cousin	
12.	homework	
13.	snacks	
14.	movie	
15.	India	
16.	Delhi	
17.	Prime Minister	
18.	sandwich	
19.	mother	
20.	flower	

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

Read the sentences below:

Such a silly girl!
How stupid I am!
How well she sings!
Wow! What an amazing cake!
It is so cold out here!
What wonderful scenery!

Each of the above sentences expresses a *strong feeling*, and is called an **Exclamatory** sentence.

An Exclamatory sentence ends with an exclamation mark (!).

EXERCISE 1

A declarative sentence merely makes a statement. You can change it into an exclamatory sentence using 'what' or 'how'.

- Use 'What a/an' before an adjective with a noun.
- Use 'How' before an adjective without a noun.

The first two have been done for you.

1. He is very obedient.
   How obedient he is!
2. Dehradun is a small city.
   What a small city Dehradun is!
3. You sing very well.
4. It was a splendid performance.
5. He is very brave.
6. You are very fortunate.
7. She is a brilliant actor.

8. You are very kind.
9. Iron is very useful.
10. Nabila is a gorgeous young lady.
11. You have a lovely smile.
12. He is very generous.
13. She is very knowledgeable.
14. It was a pleasant surprise.

EXERCISE 2

Tick the Exclamatory sentences and cross out (×) the others.

1. I think you did fantastic!
2. What is the name of your friend?
3. What a great ending to the movie!
4. Please brush your teeth.
5. Who won the game?
6. My favourite made the winning basket!
7. Hurray! We won the game!
8. What a fantastic job!
9. Please turn in your homework.
10. Where do you want to eat?

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

Read the sentences below:

Stop talking.
Tell me the truth.
Finish your work now!
Give me your book, please.
Boys, do your lessons well.
Please do not shut the window.

Gives an order, command

Each of the above sentences expresses a *command* or a *request*, and is called **Imperative** sentence.

NOTE : Polite words such as '*Please*' are used to make a request.

EXERCISE 1

Look at the pictures in the smaller boxes. Guess what the teacher is saying. Write the sentences in the space given below.

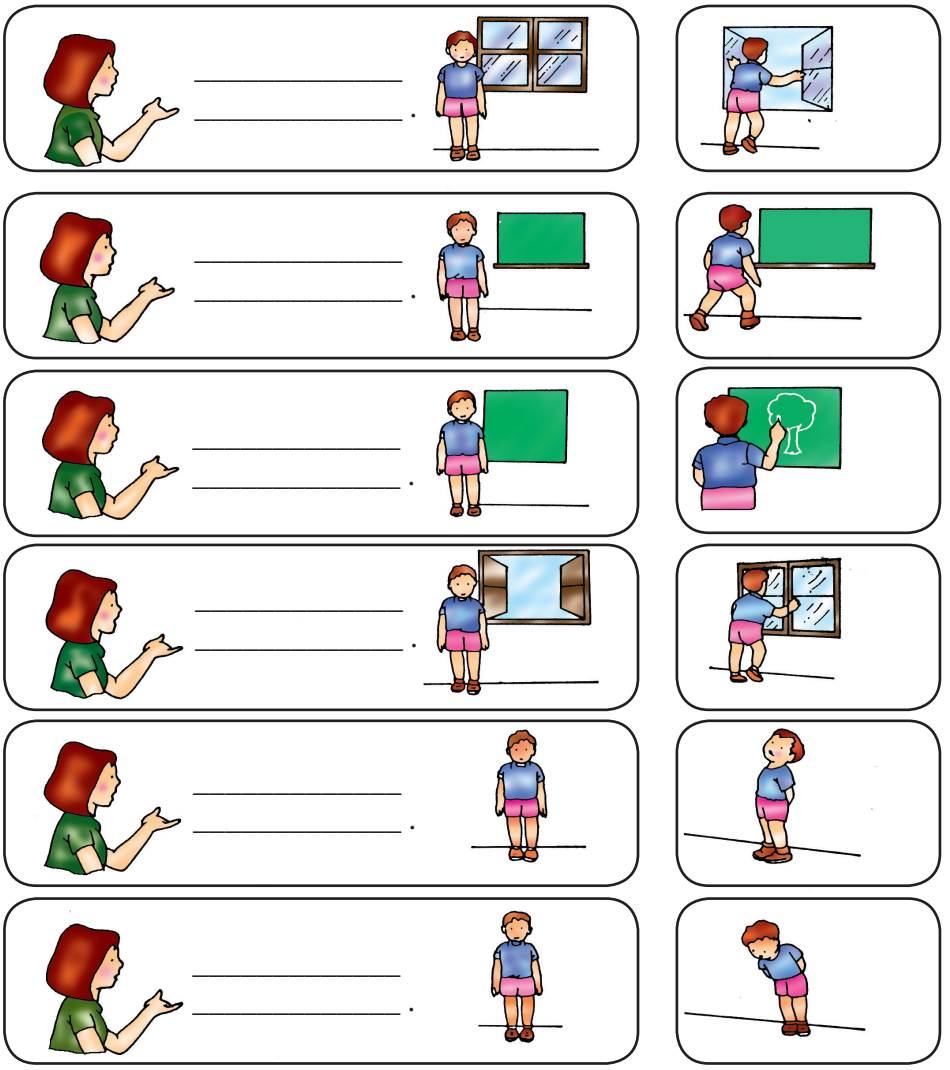

EXERCISE 2

Make an Imperative sentence for each of the following.

1. Make a command to always speak the truth.
2. Tell Rama to stop laughing.
3. Give an order about opening a door.
4. Order your servant to clean your boots.
5. Command your dog not to bark.
6. Make a polite request about not making noise.
7. As the monitor of your class, give an order about coming to school early.
8. Tell someone to find something for you.
9. Tell a child to be careful when crossing the road.

NEGATIVE SENTENCES

Read the sentences below:

Anne does not drink coffee.
My brothers don't speak German.
Anish's best friends don't live near him
I didn't go to the store last week.
Lions do not eat grass.
You should not cheat on tests.

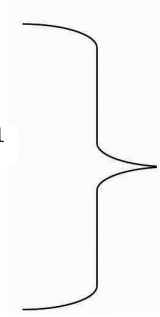

Add a no or not, n't to form a sentence

A Sentence with *not* or *no* is called a **Negative** sentence.

EXERCISE 1

Change the following sentences into Negative sentences.

1. These mangoes are sweet.
2. It was raining last night.

3. Rama is going to Varanasi.
4. Abdul is working hard.
5. The dog was barking the whole night.
6. Gopal has eaten his dinner.
7. Hari has read the story of Aladdin.
8. I can walk four miles in an hour.
9. You look tired.
10. My uncle lives in Chennai.
11. He played for one hour.
12. Write down the sum.
13. Sit down.
14. The thief escaped.
15. Some people like curry and rice.
16. The servant lighted the lamp.
17. The street was well-lighted.
18. The book is in the desk.
19. The boy is spinning his top.
20. Homi was found copying in the exam.
21. We lost the last match.
22. My little brother has a white rabbit.
23. I slept well last night.
24. I can see the new moon.
25. Farah speaks clearly.
26. Abdul won the first prize.
27. I have some money in my pocket.

EXERCISE 2

Convert the following sentences into Negative sentences.

1. This is your book.
2. They are cousins.

3. He is a good player.
4. I am a fast bowler.
5. You are a fine batsman.
6. We are cricketers.
7. They are Europeans.
8. These are my buttons.
9. That is your book.
10. There is no room here.
11. You are in a great hurry.
12. It is very warm today.
13. The pen is mine.
14. The door is shut.
15. The book is on the desk.
16. The boys are here.
17. The teacher is busy.
18. He is in the room.
19. The window is open.
20. The hat is on the peg.
21. The grapes are sour.
22. Vithal is a tailor.
23. The old man is deaf.
24. You will miss the train.
25. The children are playing.
26. Rose is a beautiful flower.
27. She has a sweet voice.
28. A spider has eight legs.
29. He is washing his face.
30. They are watching the match.
31. She is reading her lesson.

32. The pupils are working sums.
33. It is time to go to school.
34. There is no hope now.
35. It will rain today.
36. You have seen my cricket bat.
37. Shirin has prepared tea for us all.
38. Homi has passed the examination.

EXERCISE 3

Identify each of the following sentences as the imperative, declarative, interrogative, or exclamatory sentences. Also punctuate them.

1. How was your day at school
2. Do your assignments on time
3. I'm so excited to see you
4. Walking up that mountain is dangerous
5. Who is the most popular dancer
6. Clear this desk by tomorrow
7. Bring me Lego City from Singapore
8. Please pass me the salt
9. He is the leader of the group
10. Can you cancel the concert
11. You were meant to be back on Monday
12. This is adorable
13. Lucknow is the capital of Uttar Pradesh
14. You have broken my umbrella
15. How beautiful the rainbow is
16. You have such a pretty house
17. Which day of the week is your favourite

18. May be someday we will play basketball together
19. Tie your shoelaces
20. Help

EXERCISE 4

Study the following questions, and give answers in short sentences.

1. How are you?
2. How is your father?
3. How do you do?
4. How do you do this sum?
5. How do you feel now?
6. How does he like this place?
7. How did you get it done?
8. How did our team play?
9. How did you cut that string?
10. How old are you?
11. How old is your brother?
12. How long have you been here?
13. How long did you take to draw this picture?
14. How long shall I wait?
15. How far can you walk?
16. How far have we to go?
17. How far is your school from here?
18. How much rice do you eat?
19. How much money have you got?
20. How many boys were injured?
21. How many fingers you have?

22. How many legs has a horse?
23. How many marbles have I got?
24. How many books have you got?
25. How many colours has the rainbow?
26. How many pages has this book?
27. How many days are there in a week?
28. How many weeks are there in a year?
29. How many paise are there in a rupee?

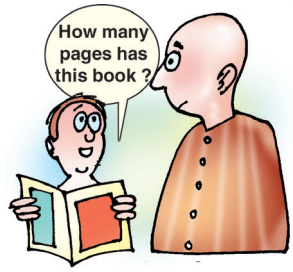

EXERCISE 5

Change the following into Negative Sentences.

1. He played for an hour.
2. Some people like curry and rice.
3. I ate too much.
4. It weighs a pound.
5. My uncle lives in Chennai.
6. You look tired.
7. The bird sings sweetly.
8. I remember seeing him.
9. The boys made great noise.
10. The thief ran away.
11. He gave me some money.
12. Abdul won't the first prize.
13. I slept well last night.
14. We lost the last match.
15. He keeps a shop.
16. The sun shines brightly.
17. The prisoner hanged himself.

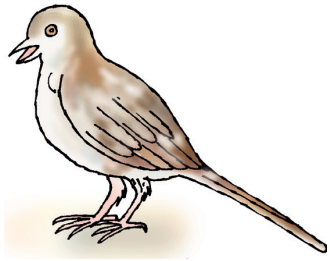

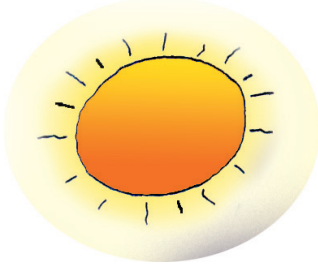

18. A mad dog bit my pony.
19. I met him last Saturday.
20. We left school at five o'clock.

EXERCISE 6

Say which of the following sentences are Statements, which are Questions, and which are Commands. Write S for Statements, Q for Questions and C for Commands.

1. Turn the TV down.
2. What shall we do now?
3. Let's go to the beach.
4. I was in Pune on the Christmas Day.
5. Are Ravi and Manish twins?
6. Look at the board.
7. The moon goes round the sun.
8. Who has broken the cup?
9. Get up at 5 o'clock tomorrow.
10. Is this cassette yours?
11. Where is the remote control?
12. The programme is on Channel 9.
13. Have you turned the tap off?
14. A lost opportunity never comes.
15. Hurry up.
16. Don't sit on the bed.
17. You have dialled the wrong number.
18. Are you coming to school, Rama?
19. Don't talk to me, Arjun.
20. Why cannot I talk to you, Rama?

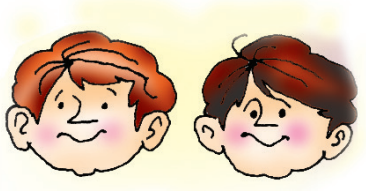

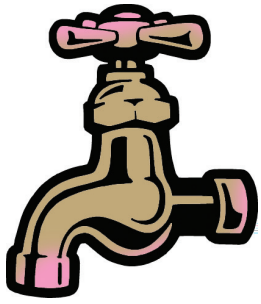

21. I am learning the poetry, Arjun.
22. Why did you not learn it at home?
23. I went to a party last night, Arjun.
24. Did you enjoy yourself, Raman?
25. Oh, be quiet, Arjun.

EXERCISE 7

Rewrite the sentences according to the instructions given in brackets.

a. Your dog is playful. (Change to an interrogative sentence.)
b. Sheepdogs can round up a herd of sheep. (Change to an interrogative sentence.)
c. The Labrador is a large dog. (Change to an interrogative sentence.)
d. Does your dog do amazing tricks? (Change to an exclamatory sentence.)
e. How gentle that dog is with little children! (Change to a declarative sentence.)
f. Will you call your dog back home now? (Change to an imperative sentence.)
g. What a good friend a dog can be! (Change to a declarative sentence.)

EXERCISE 8

Given below are 15 sentences without punctuation marks. Classify the sentences as (Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory or Declarative) and put the correct punctuation mark at the end of each.

1. Jawaharlal Nehru was the first Prime Minister of India
2. How many TV channels do you have
3. Play the cassette again
4. The cow is a useful animal

5. How wonderful the Internet is
6. Pass the salt, please
7. What a lovely flower
8. Have you paid the phone bill
9. The movie has been released on the video
10. Why is she laughing
11. What a good idea
12. English is spoken all over the world
13. Look at those birds
14. Where have you put the remote control
15. Turn the television on.

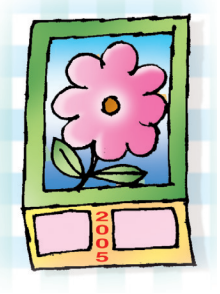

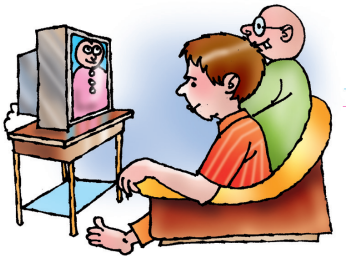

Chapter 50 Subject and Predicate

Birds
Subject

build nests in trees.
Predicate

Every sentence that we speak or write consists of two parts.

1. We must talk about some *person* or *thing;* if we talk at all.
2. We must *say* something about that person or thing.

In other words, we must have a *subject* to talk about, and we must *say* or *predicate* something about that subject.

If I come up to you and say 'Your father,' you know that *your father* is the subject about which I wish to talk. But I have said nothing about that subject. To make the sentence complete I must say something about your father.

If I say 'Your father knows me,' I have expressed a *complete* thought.

In grammar, *that about which something is said* is called the **Subject.**

What we say about the subject is called the **Predicate.**

Notice how the following sentences are divided into Subject and Predicate:

Subject	*Predicate*
Birds	fly.
Cows	eat grass.
Mary	had a little lamb.
The horse	is white.
Old Mother Hubbard	went to the cupboard.

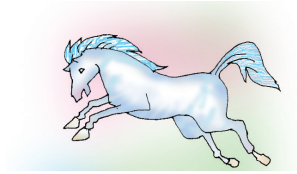

EXERCISE 1

Divide each of the following sentences into Subject and Predicate.

1. Birds build nest in trees.
2. Your book lies on the desk.
3. My new watch keeps good time.
4. He goes to the church on Sunday.
5. I have a garden of my own.
6. The poor old woman gets little food.
7. A cold wind blew last night.
8. The foolish crow tried to sing.
9. The hungry child wept bitterly.
10. Shirin's mother is ill.
11. The old woman looks unhappy.
12. The little lamb followed Mary everywhere.
13. Here come the boys.
14. Little Hari is the cleverest boy in the class.

EXERCISE 2

Divide each of the following sentences into Subject and Predicate.

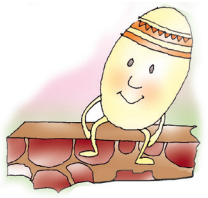

1. Simple Simon met a pieman.
2. Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
3. Little Bo-Peep lost her sheep.
4. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair.
5. The village master taught in his little school.
6. Old Tubal Cain was a man of might.
7. There dwelt a miller hale and bold.
8. A barking sound the shepherd hears.
9. Into the street the Piper stepped.
10. Under a spreading chestnut-tree the village Smithy stands.

EXERCISE 3

Underline the Subject and circle the Complete Predicate.

1. Over a hundred people completely vanished from their village.
2. A great event occurred in Virginia in the late 1500s.
3. No one explained it.
4. Nature is the best physician.
5. White's daughter was among the people aboard the ship.
6. A baby girl named Virginia Dare was born in Virginia.
7. She was the first English child to be born in North America.
8. I shot an arrow into the air.
9. White sailed back to England for supplies.
10. He didn't return until three years later.
11. White searched for the English colonists but did not find them.

12. The colonists may have died.
13. They may have decided to live among a group of Native Americans.
14. The mystery has baffled many researchers.
15. It remains unsolved.
16. Judge Lane presided over a municipal court.
17. The airport terminal was crowded with holiday travellers.
18. A free rock concert was held in the city park.
19. Life in the city is often hectic.
20. Samantha stopped at the mall to look for some shoes.
21. Wu moved to an apartment near school.
22. Cities, with all their activities, are never boring.
23. The accident taught the sailors an important lesson.
24. The sparrow chased a big crow from the apple tree.
25. Under the twinkling lights, the gazebo looked magical.

EXERCISE 4

Read these sentences. Circle the Subject and underline the Predicate.

1. The early bird catches the worm.
2. The boy in the third row explained the role of slavery in the Civil War.
3. Several of the students were thinking about the final examinations in the history course.
4. He has a good memory.
5. All roads lead to happiness.
6. One of her younger cousins is having a birthday next Saturday.
7. They shared their lunch with the new girl in class.
8. We usually go to the movies in the afternoon.
9. Samita put her purse and car keys in the cupboard.
10. We are planning to come home from the summer camp soon.

11. The boy stood on the burning deck.
12. A stranger came one night to Yussouf's tent.
13. Kalpana Chawla died during her travel in space.
14. Bad boys hide their faults.
15. Mr Pratap Singh's car is big.
16. At last they came to a village gate.
17. The boy has chubby cheeks.

EXERCISE 5

Choose a Subject and a Predicate from the box to complete each of the following sentences.

1. The gardener _____.
2. The pilot _____.
3. _____ looked for nectar in the flower.
4. _____ has lots of clothes in it.

A big spider	A buzzing bee	My notebook	A gray
dolphin	My mother	My closet	The
houseplant	The eye doctor	The space alien	watered her
flowers.	barked all night long.	drove me to school.	blew in the
wind.	ate crickets.	cut the boy's hair.	fixed the
sink.	slept in her crib.	flew the airplane.	

5. The little puppy _____.
6. The barber _____.
7. Shreeth's baby sister _____.

8. _____ checked my vision.
9. _____ needs soil, water, and sunlight.
10. _____ landed the UFO.
11. The flag _____.
12. The lizard _____.
13. _____ jumped into the sea.
14. _____ was upset because I broke her favourite vase.
15. The plumber _____.
16. The bus driver _____.
17. _____ is filled with stories that I wrote.
18. _____ spun a web in the doorway.

Chapter 51 Subject-Verb Agreement

Examine the following sentences:

1. The *boy speaks* English.
2. The *boys speak* English.

In the first sentence the Subject, *boy,* is in the singular number; so the Verb, *speaks,* is also singular.

It will be seen that the Verb ends in *s* to mark the singular number.

In the second sentence the Subject, *boys,* is in the plural number; so the Verb, *speak,* is also in the plural.

Hence we say that a verb takes the same Number as its Subject; in other words, *the Verb must agree with its Subject in Number.*

Just as a Verb agrees with its Subject in Number, so it also agrees with its Subject in Person. For example, we say:

I speak English.
He speaks English.

In both the sentences the Subject is in the Singular number, but in the first sentence the Subject *(I)* is in the First Person while in the second sentence the Subject *(He)* is in the Third Person.

We may now say that a Verb must always be in the same Number and Person as its Subject; in other words, **a Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and Person.**

Remember that a noun is almost always in the third person.

Read and repeat:

I am a boy.
You are a boy.
He is a boy.

We are boys.
You are boys.
They are boys.

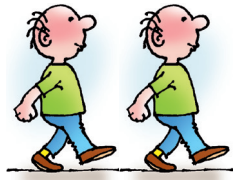

She is a girl.
It is a dog.

The child is happy. The *children are* happy.
Rama is a good boy.
Rama and Hari are good boys.
Hari, *you are* lazy.
Hari and Rama, *you are* both lazy.

Read and repeat:

I was absent.
You were absent, Ali.
He was absent.
She was absent.
That *boy was* absent.
Hari and I were absent.
Rama, Hari, and Abdul were absent.

We were absent.
You were absent, Hari and Rama.
They were absent.
Those *boys were* absent.

Read and repeat:

I have a book.
You have a book.
He has a book.
She has a book in her hand.
The *book has* a nice cover.
This *girl has* a book.
Rani has a book.

We have books.
You have books.
They have books.

These *girls have* books.
Sita and Rani have books.

Read and repeat:

I do my lessons.
You do your lessons.
He does his lessons.

We do our lessons.

They do their lessons.

The *boy does* his work well.
The *girl does* her work well.
The boy and the girl do their work well.

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks with Verbs in the Present Tense.

1. I..... to school.
2. He..... to school.
3. We..... to school.
4. They..... to school.
5. She..... to school.
6. I..... a big boy.
7. He..... a big boy.
8. We..... big boys.
9. They..... big boys.
10. He..... idle.
11. They..... idle.
12. He..... old.
13. You..... young.
14. He..... nothing.
15. She..... her lesson.
16. Some monkeys..... long tails.
17. The street..... dusty.
18. The streets..... dusty.
19. We..... curry and rice.
20. He..... curry and rice.
21. They..... curry and rice.

22. It..... very hot today.
23. He..... a rupee in his pocket.
24. ..... you a rupee in your pocket?

EXERCISE 2

Circle the correct Verb in brackets in each of the sentences below. Check your answers with your partner.

1. Your friend (talk-talks) too much.
2. The man with the roses (look-looks) like your brother.
3. The women in the pool (swim-swims) well.
4. Singh (drive-drives) a cab.
5. The football players (run-runs) 10 kms every day.
6. That red-haired lady in the fur hat (live-lives) across the street.
7. He (cook-cooks) dinner for his family.
8. The boys (walk-walks) to school every day.
9. The weather on the coast (appear-appears) to be good this weekend.
10. The centre on the basketball team (bounce-bounces) the ball too high.
11. Each of the girls (look-looks) good on skis.
12. Everybody (was-were) asked to remain quiet.
13. Neither of the men (is-are) here yet.
14. (Is-Are) each of the girls ready to leave?
15. Several of the sheep (is-are) sick.
16. Some members of the faculty (is-are) present.
17. Nobody in the class (has-have) the answer.
18. Each of the girls (observe-observes) all the regulations.
19. All of the milk (is-are) gone.
20. Most of the seats (was-were) taken.

EXERCISE 3

In the following sentences, put Verbs in agreement with the subject. Use the Present Tense.

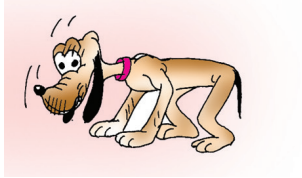

1. He..... a clever boy.
2. I..... busy.
3. They..... quite tired.
4. I..... a fine dog.
5. How..... you?
6. Ask Rama if he..... a watch.
7. Where..... you going?
8. My dog..... not bite.
9. ..... you coming to school?
10. The girl..... a sweet voice.
11. We..... drawing lessons every Tuesday.
12. The train..... due now.
13. ..... there any water in that pot?
14. Monkeys..... long tails.
15. Sheep..... timid animals.
16. What a careless boy you.....!
17. We..... eight fingers.
18. Thirty days..... September.
19. The sky..... above us.

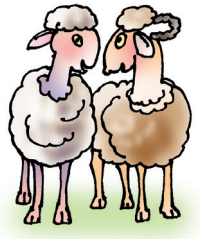

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks with Verbs in the Past Tense.

1. I .....absent yesterday.
2. He .....absent yesterday.

3. We .....absent yesterday.
4. They .....absent yesterday.
5. ..... you absent yesterday?
6. .....he absent yesterday?
7. It ..... very hot yesterday.
8. ..... they here yesterday?

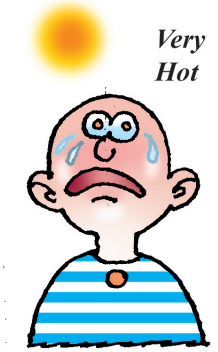

We say

1. Latif *is* here.
2. Cotton *grows* in India.
3. Rustum *was* a Persian hero.
4. He *has* arrived.
5. He *is* my partner.

But we also say

6. Latif *and* Abdul *are* here.
7. Cotton *and* jute *grow* in India.
8. Rustum *and* Sohrab *were* Persian heroes.
9. He *and* his friend *have* arrived.
10. He *and* I *are* partners.
11. Cotton, jute *and* rice *grow* in India.
12. Hari, Rama *and* Govind *go* to the same school.

In sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, each verb is in the singular, because the subject is in the singular.

In sentences 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, each verb is in the plural, because there are two or more than two subjects in the singular joined by *and.*

We therefore, note, that two or more subjects in the singular, joined by *and*, take a verb in the plural.

Examine the following sentences:

1. Either Balu or Govind *is* there.

2. Either Hari or Karim *has* broken the jug.
3. Either Hari, Karim or he *has* broken the jug.
4. Neither Rama nor Hari *was* there.
5. Neither he nor his brother *is* present.
6. Neither he, his brother, nor his sister *is* present.

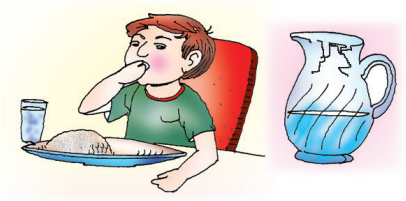

We learn from the above sentences that we put the verb in the singular form, when two or more subjects in the singular are joined by *either... or* or *neither... nor.*

When a noun in the singular number is joined to a second noun by *with,* or *as well as,* the verb is singular; as,

The chief, with all his men, *was* killed.

Rama, as well as Hari, *likes* hot curry.

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the Verbs given in brackets.

1. Everyone in this class _____ wearing jeans. (be)
2. Many students _____ for five or six years. (study)
3. Factories _____ economically these years. (suffer)
4. Somebody _____ do something about it. (have to)
5. Either you or I _____ to do it. (need)
6. Everyone _____ time off. (enjoy)
7. Neither the man nor the woman _____ older than 60. (be)
8. Today I _____ going to make a speech. (be)
9. Either my dad or mom _____ us to the game. (take)
10. Peter _____ in his room. (study)
11. The teacher _____ her bike to school every day. (ride)
12. Neither the student nor the parent _____ present. (be)
13. Neither the teacher nor the students _____ it is a good idea. (think)

14. Someone _____ to wear sandals in early spring. (prefer)
15. Everybody _____ a right to a good life. (have)
16. Neither cats nor dogs _____ allowed at the exhibition. (be)
17. The iPhone _____ a great invention. (be)
18. Neither Denmark nor Germany _____ the European championship. (win)

EXERCISE 6

A. In each of the following sentences, supply a Verb in agreement with its Subject.

1. There ..... twelve inches in a foot.
2. Either Rustum or Sohrab ..... to be blamed.
3. Two and two ..... four.
4. On his desk ..... his book and pencil.
5. He and I .....friends.
6. Here .....Abdul and Hamid.
7. A ring as well as a brooch ..... been stolen.
8. Rama and Hari ..... brothers.
9. .....Rama or Arjun the captain of the school?
10. Neither bread nor rice ..... bad for you.
11. Ganpat with his friend ..... come today.
12. Neither he nor she ..... present yesterday.
13. Balu with Rama ..... in the garden.
14. Balu and Rama ..... in the garden.
15. Abdul as well as Latif .....gone.
16. Rama with three other boys .....caned.
17. He, with his father, ...among the first to arrive.
18. Iron and gold ..... found in India.

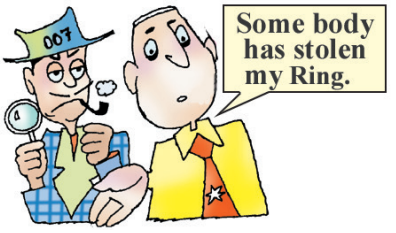

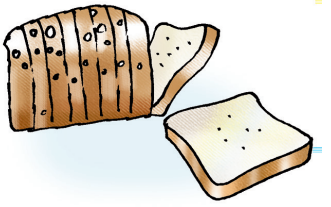

19. Iron as well as gold .....found in India.
20. Either the cat or the dog ..... been here.
21. The ship with the entire crew .....lost.
22. Ten and one ..... eleven.
23. The bat as well as the ball .....missing.
24. Either Rama or his brother .....my book.
25. Neither Rama nor he .....the truth.

B. Compare your answers with another student's and if the answers do not agree, discuss which are correct. Interact with another pair if necessary.

Unit 15
Voice

Chapter 52 The Active and Passive Voice

Compare these sentences:

1. The teacher punished the boy.
2. The boy was punished by the teacher.

Is the meaning of sentence 2 different from that of sentence 1? Both the sentences mean the same but they have been expressed differently.

In sentence 1 the Subject (teacher) did the punishing or is the doer of the action; that is, the Subject is active. The verb *punished* is, therefore, said to be in the Active Voice.

In sentence 2 the Subject (boy) received the punishment or is the receiver of the action; that is, the Subject is not active, but passive. The verb *was punished* is, therefore, said to be in the Passive Voice.

When the Subject is the doer of the action, the Verb is said to be in the Active Voice.

When the Subject is the receiver of the action, the Verb is said to be in the Passive Voice.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences, and say whether they are Active or Passive.

1. Hari is taught by his mother.
2. He will do the sums in an hour.
3. The gate was opened by the chowkidar.

4. The thief was caught.
5. I see a dark cloud.
6. The cow is loved by the children.
7. The children play with the cat.
8. The bird was killed by a cruel boy.
9. The map was drawn by the teacher.
10. The door is shut.
11. I was bowled out.
12. The gardener waters the garden every evening.

Carefully study the following sentences:

Active Voice	*Passive Voice*
Children love dogs.	Dogs are loved by children.
Rama opened the door.	The door was opened by Rama.
The jackal followed the tiger.	The tiger was followed by the jackal.

You see that in changing a verb from the active voice into the passive voice, the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

An intransitive verb cannot be, therefore, converted into the passive voice, because it has no object.

The passive form of a verb is *be* (is, are, was, etc.) + past participle.

The passive forms of the Simple Present and Simple Past tenses are given below.

Active Voice	*Passive Voice*
They like me.	I am liked by them.
Mary helps Radha.	Radha is helped by Mary.
Gopi cleans the shoes daily.	The shoes are cleaned by Gopi daily.
Anil took the pen.	The pen was taken by Anil.
The servant stole the earrings.	The earrings were stolen by the servant.

EXERCISE 2

In the following sentences, change the Verbs in Active Voice into Passive, and the Verbs in Passive Voice into Active.

1. The cat killed a mouse.
2. The boy was bitten by a dog.
3. The window was broken by Karim.
4. A cruel boy killed the bird.
5. The noise frightened the child.
6. The police arrested the thief.
7. He was praised by the teacher.
8. His aunt loves him.
9. The headmaster signed the letter.
10. He invited us to his house.
11. The work must be done by you.
12. The horse was frightened by the noise.

EXERCISE 3

Write whether the following sentences are in the Active or Passive voice. (Hint: In these sentences, look for the person who is carrying out the action.)

1. Soubhik was eating an apple. .....
2. The picture was painted by Bob. .....
3. Tina opened the present. .....
4. The phone was repaired by Mr Jain. .....
5. The card was made by Trisha. .....
6. Sabby hit the tree with his stick. .....

7. The man jumped off the step. .....
8. Daniel watched the birds. .....

EXERCISE 4

Complete the following sentences using appropriate verb forms. Choose your answers from the given options.

1. The problem ..... to the children. (explained/was explained)
2. Those pyramids ..... around 400 AD. (built/were built)
3. All the trouble ..... by your mother. (has caused/was caused)
4. The visitors ..... (were shown/have shown) a collection of old manuscripts.
5. I ..... him ten thousand pounds last year. (lend/lent/was lent)
6. She ..... of spiders. (frightened/is frightened)
7. That picture ..... by my grandmother. (painted/was painted)
8. I ..... by his attitude. (shocked/have shocked/was shocked)

Unit 16
Speech

Chapter 53 Types of Speech

A. Read the following sentences.

1. Rohit said, "I have a headache."
2. Meera said, "I am reading a book."

In the above sentences, certain words are within brackets. These are the actual words spoken by the person directly.

Repeating exactly what a person has said is called **Direct Speech**. It is usually enclosed in quotation marks.

B. Now read the sentences given below:

1. Rohit said that he had a headache.
2. Meera said that she was reading a book.

These sentences convey the same meaning as the sentences given in A. But the way the messages have been conveyed has changed.

When the idea of the original speaker is conveyed without quoting the actual words of the speaker, it is said to be in **Indirect Speech**. The Indirect Speech is also known as **Reported Speech**.

You may have noticed the following changes in the indirect speech:

- There is no comma after *said*.
- The inverted commas are removed.
- The verbs *has* and *am* have become *had* and *was* respectively.
- The pronoun *I* has become *he* and *she*.

The following changes need to be made while changing direct speech into indirect speech:

1. If the reporting verb is in the present or future tense, the verb in the reported speech is not changed at all.

   He says, "She is right." He says that she is right.

   He will say "She is right." He will say that she is right.

2. If the reporting verb is in the past tense, the tenses of the verb in direct speech usually changes as follows:

   (a) The simple present changes to the simple past.

   He said, "I *am* right."

   He said that he *was* right.

   (b) The present continuous changes to the past continuous.

   He said, "I *am* writing."

   He said that he *was* writing.

   (c) The present perfect changes to the past perfect.

   She said, "She *has* written."

   She said that she *had* written.

   (d) The simple past changes to the past perfect.

   She said, "She *wrote* a book."

   She said that she had *written* a book.

   (e) The *will/can/may* forms change to the *would/could/might* forms.

   (f) The past perfect and the past continuous stay the same.

EXERCISE 1

Change the Direct Speech into Indirect Speech.

1. He said, "The film is interesting."
2. "I've forgotten to bring my lunch with me," he said.

3. Anu said, "I am waiting for the cab."
4. He said, "I will see you tomorrow."
5. "I'll clean the car tomorrow," Tim said to his father.
6. "We've been living in this house since 2010," he said to me.
7. He said, "My father is unwell."
8. He said, "I know her address."
9. She said, "I like ice cream."
10. "She must try harder if she wants to succeed," he said.
11. "My father will be angry with me if he finds out," she said.
12. "You had better speak to the manager," she said to him.

EXERCISE 2

Change the Indirect Speech into Direct Speech.

1. She told me that she had been to the cinema the previous day.
2. Sheena told me that the teacher had left the school early.
3. He told her that he had been searching for his wallet.
4. He told me that they had gone for a walk after dinner.
5. She told him that she might not be able to meet him at the airport.
6. Rani said that she had finished her work.
7. She said that she had bought a blue sari.
8. He said that he would see me the next day.
9. Monica said that she was very busy.
10. She said that she had met him two days ago.

Unit 17
Comprehension

Chapter 54 Reading and Understanding a Story

Read this short story based on a German folktale.

A little girl lived with her mother in a village. They were very poor and were able to survive with great difficulty. One day, the little girl went to a forest to get some wood so that her mother could light a fire and cook a meagre meal. As she went about collecting small sticks, the little girl saw an old woman. She had fallen down on the ground and wasn't able to get up.

The little girl hurried to the old woman and helped her get back on her feet. The old woman was filled with love for this poor urchin. She gave her a toothless smile and a wooden pot. She told the little girl "You will never go hungry from now. Just tell the pot 'Cook Pot' and it will give you all the food that you need. Say 'Stop pot' and it will stop."

The little girl ran to her mother with the pot. She told her all about the old woman and the wooden pot. The mother and daughter sat down as the little girl said 'Cook pot'. Lo and behold, food appeared in the pot. The two had a hearty meal. The little girl said 'Stop pot' after they finished eating.

Once, the little girl went to the village. Her mother felt hungry and asked the pot to give her food. But, she forgot how to make the pot stop. She tried all the possible words. The pot just went on producing food. Soon, it started flooding the hut. The little girl returned just then. 'Stop pot' she yelled at the top of her voice. The pot stopped producing food.

I. Which words from the story mean the same as the following?

1. to continue to live and grow
2. very less
3. ragamuffin

4. without any teeth
5. look
6. shouted

II. Write brief answers for the following questions.

1. Describe the characters of the story.
2. Why did the old woman give the wooden pot to the little girl?
3. Why did the mother ask the pot to cook?
4. What happened when the mother forgot the words to stop the pot?
5. What do you think the mother and daughter did with the extra food?
6. Give a suitable title to the folktale.

Chapter 55 Reading to Understand a Poem

Read the poem *My Shadow* by Robert Louis Stevenson.

I have a little shadow that goes in and out with me,
And what can be the use of him is more than I can see.
He is very, very like me from the heels up to the head;
And I see him jump before me, when I jump into my bed.

The funniest things about him is the way he likes to grow-
Not at all like proper children, which is always very slow;
For he sometimes shoots up taller like an India rubber ball,
And he sometimes gets so little that there's none of him at all.

He hasn't got a notion of how children ought to play,
And can only make a fool of me in every sort of way.
He stays so close beside me, he's a coward you can see;
I'd think shame to stick to nursie as that shadow sticks to me!

One morning, very early, before the sun was up,
I rose and found the shining dew on every buttercup;
But my lazy little shadow, like an arrant sleepy-head,
Had stayed at home behind me and was fast asleep in bed.

Choose the correct answer for the following questions.

1. What does the shadow do?
   a. goes in and out all alone
   b. goes up and down with the poet
   c. goes in and out with the poet
   d. goes up and down all alone

2. What is the funniest part of the shadow?
   a. he likes to run
   b. he likes to jump
   c. he likes to vanish
   d. he likes to grow
3. Which word in the poem means *an idea*?
   a. shadow
   b. notion
   c. nursie
   d. none of the above
4. Why does the poet call the shadow a coward?
   a. because he always sticks to the poet
   b. because he always hides behind the poet
   c. because he always vanishes
   d. all of the above
5. Why did the shadow not follow the poet one morning?
   a. because he was tired after the previous night
   b. because he was staying back with the nursie
   c. because the poet got up even before sunrise
   d. because the poet locked him up in the room
6. What was shining on the buttercup?
   a. snow
   b. dew
   c. tears
   d. sweat

Chapter 56 Reading—Distinguishing Between Facts and Opinions

Underline the facts and circle the writer's opinions in the following passage.

APJ Abdul Kalam was the 11th President of India. He was a great man with a high level of intellect. Born and raised in Rameswaram, Tamil Nadu, the young Kalam studied physics at the St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli, and aerospace engineering at the Madras Institute of Technology (MIT), Chennai. I think he must have been a good student throughout his school years.

Popularly known as the *Missile Man of India*, Dr Kalam had led India from one accomplishment to another in space technology. He is credited with a pivotal role that he played in India's *Pokhran-II* nuclear tests in 1998, after the original nuclear test by India in 1974.

However, some detractors believe that Dr Kalam was without any authority and was merely carrying on the work of Homi J. Bhabha and Vikram Sarabhai. Be as it may, the United Nations recognised Dr Kalam's 79th birthday as *World Students' Day*. He had been conferred with the Padma Bhushan in 1981 and the Padma Vibhushan in 1990 for his work with ISRO and DRDO and his role as a scientific advisor to the Government. He received India's highest civilian honour, the Bharat Ratna, in 1997 for his valuable contribution to the scientific research and modernisation of defence technology in India.

Chapter 57 Understanding and Following a Conversation/Dialogue

Read the following conversation carefully.

Samuel:	Are we going to watch this movie or not?
Priya:	I can go over the weekend as I am free on Saturday evening. Would you like to come with us?
Soham:	I think not. I have to go to a family function this weekend.
Samuel:	Tell us something new, Soham. This is a pattern. You never join us in any of our plans.
Soham:	I would love to, but my father doesn't allow me to.
Akki:	I can understand you perfectly, Soham. Even my parents don't allow me to go out anywhere without them.
Samuel:	Actually my mother is not relaxed unless she sees me. But, my father has given me a 'curfew' hour—8 p.m. at the latest.
Priya:	I guess they do this for our safety.
Akki:	Let's think up something so we can get permission from our families easily.
Priya:	I know. Let us join Tae Kwon Do classes.
Akki:	Good idea! We can explain to our parents that we are doing this for our safety.
Samuel:	What will we do, then? Bunk the classes to go to see movies?
Priya, Akki and Soham:	No. Attend the classes and learn the discipline.
Akki:	Tae Kwon Do is healthier than sitting inside a closed hall for hours on end.
Soham:	Let's do this. Our purpose of going to the movies was spending some time with each other, wasn't it?
Samuel:	... and we can do so, as we train ourselves in Tae Kwon Do.
All together:	This is by far the best idea.

I. Match the cause with its effect.

Cause	*Effect*
1. Priya is free on Saturday evening	a. so they think of joining the Tae Kwon Do.
2. Soham's father doesn't permit him to go out with friends	b. therefore she can understand Soham perfectly well.
3. Samuel has a 'curfew' hour	c. hence she can go for the movie.
4. Akki's parents don't allow her to go anywhere without them	e. that is why he never joins in the group activities.
5. Friends want to spend time with each other	d. so he needs to return home by 8 p.m.

II. Do you think that the five students are best friends? Give reasons for your answer.

Chapter 58 Reading to Gather Factual Information

Read the following factual information on Goa.

Located on the west coast of India, Goa is ensconced between Maharashtra, Karnataka and the Arabian Sea. The Mandovi River flows through Goa. The capital city of Panaji is situated on the banks of this river. Goa has two railway stations that connect the state to the rest of India—Margao and Vasco da Gama. Both are located in the southern part of the state.

The state boasts of some beautiful beaches in the world. Calangute, Anjuna, Miramar and Colva are among the famous ones. Its inhabitants are known as Goans. They are famous for their love for music, dance and excellent cuisine. Even though Goa was born as a Portuguese settlement, it has a multi-ethnic and multi-religious population today. Churches, temples and mosques spot the skyline of Goa generously.

One can visit the state any time of the year. Its beauty can be enjoyed and appreciated during the monsoons as well as during the festive season that includes Christmas and Easter.

I. Complete the following sentences on the basis of your understanding of the given information.

1. Situated on the west coast of India, Goa is .....
2. ..... link the state to the rest of the country via railways.
3. ..... are some of most beautiful beaches in the world.
4. Goa's population today is ..... and .....
5. Churches, temples and mosques spot .....
6. ..... is a good time to visit Goa.

II. What is the main idea of this information?

Data interpretation

Study the following data closely.

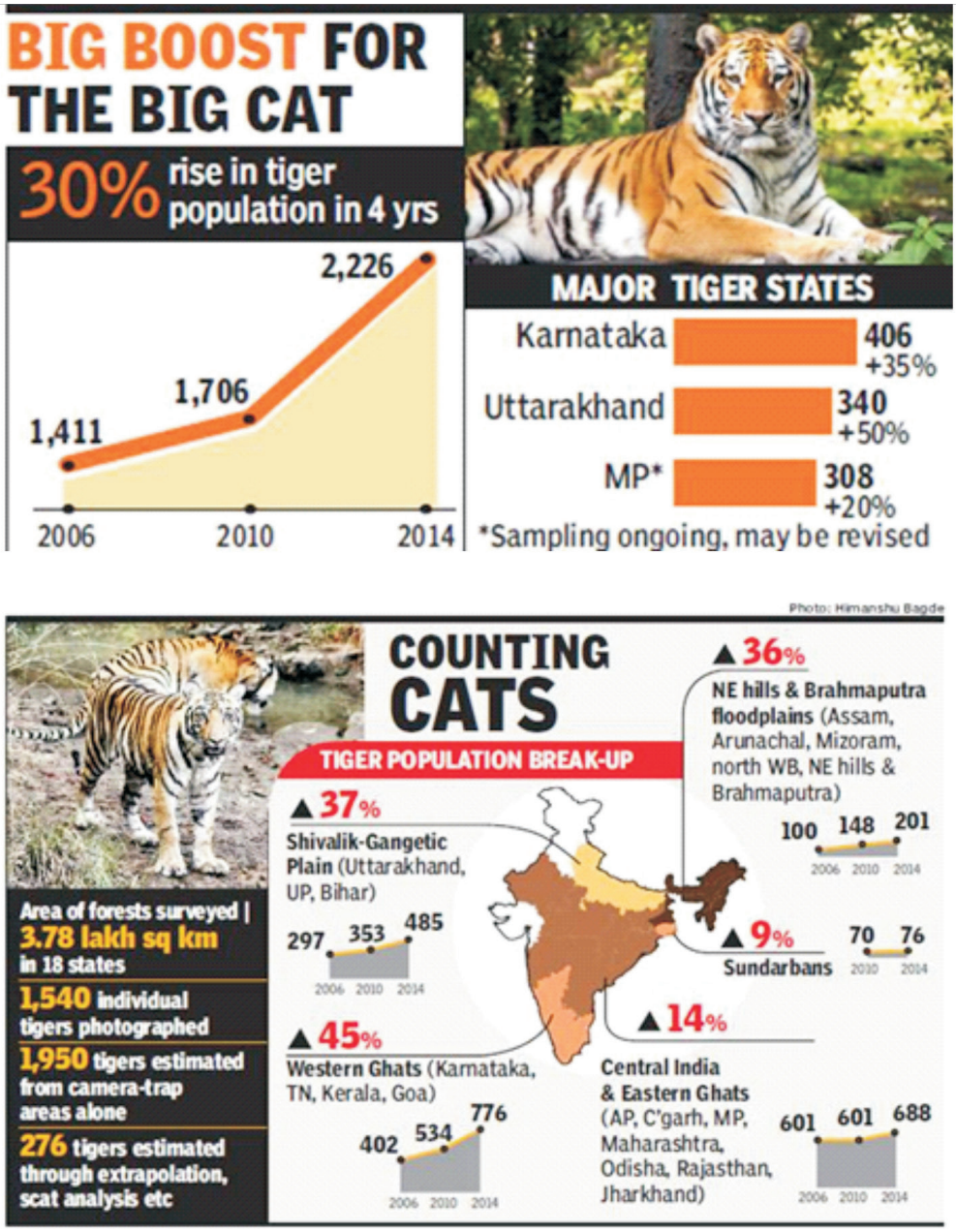

Picture source:
http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/home/environment/flora-fauna/2226-now-Tiger-numbers-grow-by-30-in-4-years/articleshow/45960118.cms

I. Complete the following table with details that you can infer from the two pictures.

1. Number of tigers in 2006 ____
2. Forest area surveyed ____
3. Number of tigers estimated through scat analysis ____
4. Increase in tiger population (in numbers) from 2006 to 2014 ____
5. Increase of tigers (in numbers) in the NE Hills and Brahmaputra plains ____
6. The highest percentage of tiger population in India ____

II. Write a brief paragraph on the tiger population on the basis of the two pictures.

Unit 18
Composition

Chapter 59 Paragraph Writing

A paragraph is a distinct section of a piece of writing that usually deals with a single theme, begins on a new line, and is made up of one or more sentences. Look at the following info graphic to understand the elements of a paragraph.

Subject sentence	• refers to the topic of the paragraph
Body sentence (s)	• elaborates upon the topic described in the subject sentence. This section could have 2-3 sentences.
Concluding sentence	• leads the topic and its elaboration to its logical conclusion.

Let's study the following paragraph in this light.

Nowadays every family owns a washing machine for the household laundry. In fact, washing machine is a very convenient invention that washes clothes whenever one times it to. The clothes are put inside the central drum. Detergents, softeners and other additives are put in a dispensing tray. The external panel has knobs that can be turned according to the kind of wash one chooses to go for. The temperature for washing and the amount of water needed are controlled automatically. After the washing is done, the drum spins rapidly in order to rid the clothes of excessive water. Whether front opening or top loading, washing machines have indeed become a boon for the modern day household.

Subject sentence:	*Nowadays every family owns a washing machine for the household laundry.*
Body sentence(s):	*In fact, washing machine is a very convenient invention that washes clothes whenever one times it to. The clothes are put inside the central drum. Detergents, softeners and other additives are put in a dispensing tray. The external panel has knobs that can be turned according to the kind of wash one chooses to go for. The temperature for washing and the amount of water needed are controlled automatically. After the washing is done, the drum spins rapidly in order to rid the clothes of excessive water.*
Concluding sentence:	*Whether front opening or top loading, washing machines have indeed become a boon for the modern day household.*

Exercises

1. Imagine you become invisible for a day. You can do anything, go anywhere, and eat anything without anyone looking at you. Write a paragraph on how you will spend your day as an invisible person.
2. You have studied about the importance of conserving the natural resources of the earth. Write a paragraph about how you plan to conserve a resource of your choice.
3. Write a paragraph about your favourite book. Give information about what you like in it and why your friend should read it.
4. You have been chosen to present a 'magic show' for the pre-primary children. Write a paragraph about what tricks you plan to show and what you want to say during your show.

Chapter 60 Picture Composition

A picture composition is a description of a visual prompt. The focus is on the things present in the picture rather than what the writer feels about them. Usually the simple present and present continuous tenses are used to write a picture composition.

Let's understand this better by answering some questions regarding the picture given below.

- List the things you can see in the picture.

  Man, sandwich, fishbone, banana peel, apple, meat on the plate with a knife in it, a glass in the man's hand.
- What food items have already been eaten?

  Fish, banana and apple have already been eaten.
- What food items remain to be eaten?

  Sandwich and meat remain to be eaten.
- What is the expression on the man's face?

  Satisfied. The man is enjoying what he has eaten and what he is eating.

Given below is a composition about this picture based on the answers to the given questions.

The picture shows a man who is enjoying his plate of snacks. He has already eaten the fruits and a fish. He is now eating his sandwich with bites of meat. He is holding up a drink in his left hand. His eyes are wide and happy and his smile reveals that he is relishing the food.

Exercises

Look at each of the pictures carefully and then answer the questions. Use your answers to write a picture composition for each.

- Where are the children?
- How many boys and girls are there?
- What are they doing?
- How is the weather?
- Do the children seem happy?
- What kind of plants can you see in the picture?

- Who are the creatures in the picture?
- What kind of a vehicle is behind them?
- What is the expression on their face?
- What kind of place is this?

- Where is the setting of this picture?
- List the things that you can see.
- What is the weather like?

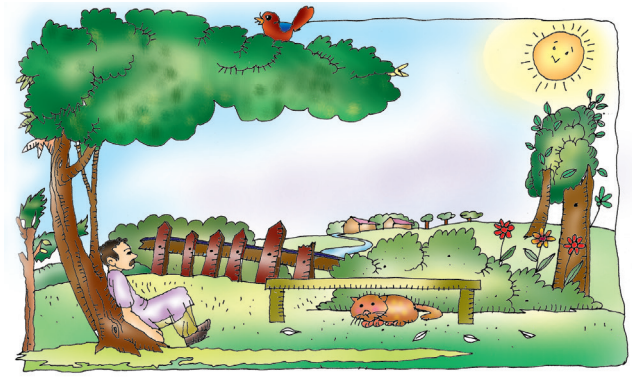

- List the things you see in the picture.
- What kind of a scene is shown in the picture?
- What is the cat doing?
- Where are the bird and the man? What are they doing?
- What kind of weather it is?

Chapter 61 Letter Writing

A. Personal letter

A personal letter is a form of written communication to family, relatives and friends. The language used is informal and the structure is not rigid.

A personal letter is also called an informal letter.

Given below is a sample personal letter:

Sender's address	Avantika Chakravarty A-35, C. R. Park New Delhi
Date	17th March 2014
Salutation	Dear Probir
Body of the letter	I haven't heard from you in a long time. I hope Aunty is fine and in good health. I am planning to visit Mumbai sometime next month to attend a conference. The idea was to stay over with you and Aunty over the weekend before returning home. Would you be in town in the third week of next month?
Signing off	Yours affectionately
Name and signature of the sender	Avantika

Exercises

1. You spent the summer vacation at your friend's farm. Write a letter to his parents thanking them for the hospitality shown to you.
2. Your father's job is transferable and he doesn't want to upset your schooling. So, he puts you in a boarding school. Write a letter to him

after your first month at the boarding school telling him about how you have coped with the change.

3. Your best friend, Abha, is not able to concentrate on her studies. Her grades are dipping and she is becoming more and more sad and lonely. Write a letter to her encouraging her to put her best foot forward and offering your help to tide over this period.

B. Official letter

An official letter is a form of written communication that is addressed to people in authority. The language used is official and courteous.

An official letter is also known as a formal letter.

Given below is a sample formal letter along with its various elements:

Sender's address	Avani Chakravarty A-35, C. R. Park New Delhi
Date	17th March 2014
Receiver's address	The Principal OBS School
Salutation	Respected Sir
Subject:	Issuance of Transfer Certificate
Body of the letter	I am a class 5 student of this esteemed institution. My roll number is 55581. Following my father's new posting, the family is going to relocate to Chandigarh. Therefore, I request you to kindly issue a Transfer Certificate that would enable me to join a new school in the other city. Thanking You,
Signing off	Yours sincerely
Name and signature of the sender	Avani Chakravarty

Exercises

1. Write a letter to the Editor of your local newspaper complaining about the irregular water supply on the one hand and wastage of water resources on the other.
2. Write a letter to your principal requesting a week's leave as you have to go to Mumbai to participate in a National Level Quiz show.
3. Write a letter to your Cricket Coach apologising for your rude behaviour during the recently concluded cricket tournament.
4. Write a letter to the class teacher asking for permission to leave school early as you have an appointment with the dentist.
5. The people living in the building next to yours create a lot of noise. You have informed them a couple of times that you find it difficult to study with so much of noise going on. Yet they are not making any effort to lessen the noise. Write a letter to the officer in-charge of the police station in your locality complaining about the behaviour of your noisy neighbours.
6. You and your friends want to raise awareness on the importance of physical exercise through a skit. You want to enact this skit at the local park where everyone would be welcome. Write a letter to the President of your Resident Welfare Association asking for permission for the use of the park for two hours this Sunday evening.

Chapter 62 Invitation

An invitation is a form of written communication that invites the receiver to an event. It can be both formal and informal.

Given below is a sample each of formal and informal invitation.

Formal Invitation

Mrs. and Col. Mahajan
cordially solicit your presence
on the auspicious occasion of the marriage of their son
AMIT MAHAJAN
with
SHREYA JAIN
(D/o Mrs. and Mr. Rohtas Jain)
on the 23rd of April, 2015, Thursday, at
Park Hotel, New Delhi.

— PROGRAMME —

Baraat: 8:30 pm
Dinner: 11:30 pm

RSVP 011-2125267
Mahesh, Sudesh and Rinku

Informal Invitation

Avantika Chakravarty
A-35, C. R. Park
New Delhi
30th March 2015

Dear Probir

I am glad to inform you that the wedding of my niece, Shreya Jain has been fixed for the 23rd of April.

You are cordially invited to attend the auspicious occasion and bless the newly-weds.

Yours affectionately
Avantika

Exercises

Formal invitation

1. All the sections of Class V have organised a fundraising event to help the flood victims of Chennai. The event will consist of a cultural programme prepared and presented by the students of your class. The mayor of your city has agreed to grace the occasion as the chief guest. Write a formal invitation for this event.
2. Write a formal invitation to the president of your Resident Welfare Association inviting him/her for the naming ceremony of your little cousin.

Informal invitation

1. You are celebrating the first birthday of your little sister. Write an invitation for your best friend inviting him/her for the occasion.
2. You will celebrate your birthday soon and intend to give a party on the following Sunday. Write an invitation for your classmates asking them to join you for fun and food in the party.

Chapter 63 Thank-You Note

A thank-you note is a simple way of showing gratitude to someone who has been kind to you. The language used is informal and warm.

Given below is a thank-you note:

> Dear Avantika
>
> Thank you so much for your invitation. I am delighted to know that your niece will be wed soon.
>
> I will surely be there to bless the newly-weds.
>
> Yours affectionately
>
> Probir

Exercises

1. Write a thank-you note to your uncle for the thoughtful birthday gift of a year's subscription of your favourite magazine.
2. Write a thank-you note to the felicitator of the camp you attended recently. Express your gratitude for all the things you learnt and the fun you had during the camp.
3. Write a thank-you note for your favourite teacher on the occasion of Teacher's Day.

Chapter 64 Essay Writing

An essay is a short piece of writing that usually presents the writer's views on a particular subject. The key elements of an essay are:

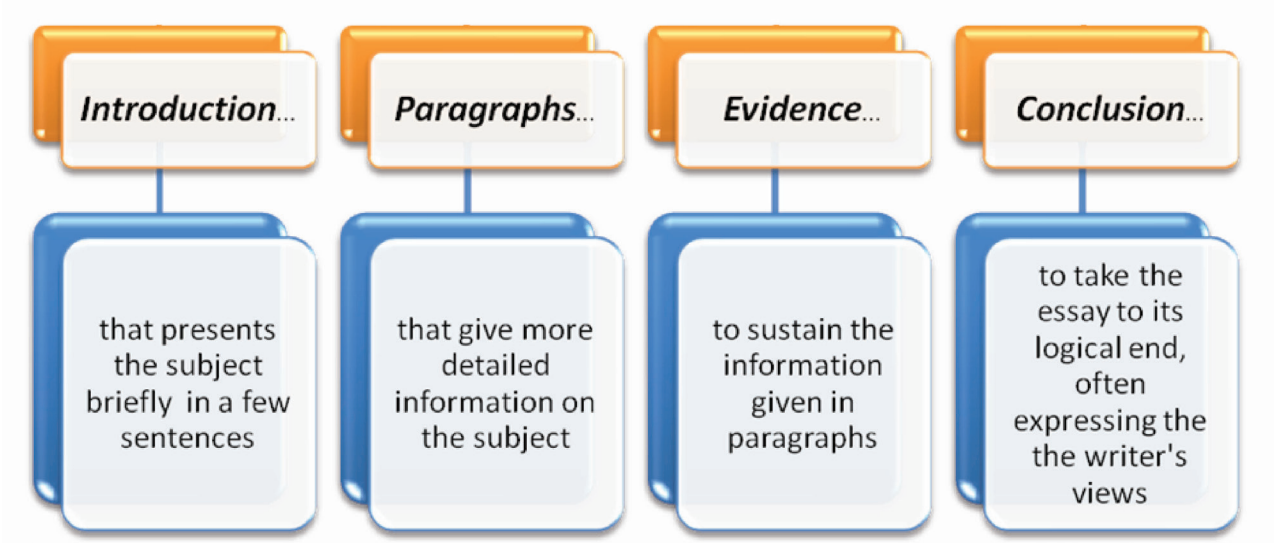

Given below is an example of an essay on *My Dream Job*.

My dream job is to become a travel photographer and go around the world taking pictures of people and places. It would be best if I could work as a photo reporter with a news magazine and volunteer to go out for assignments where others would hesitate.

I will devote all my time to my job, but take out some time to explore these places as well. I love making friends and I am sure that I will leave friends behind me wherever I go.

Experiences with new people in new places will open my mind. And while I am at it, I will learn to cook some typical dishes of the places I visit.

My parents want me to become a successful engineer. Or, they want me to join the military service. I do not know if it is a good idea or not. I do so want to become a travel photographer. Can joining the military or becoming an engineer help in my pursuit?

Exercises

1. Write an essay on any national symbol of India.
2. Write an essay on what you would do if you got a chance to settle down on the moon.
3. Write an essay on your neighbourhood describing its good and bad points.
4. Write an essay on one of the most interesting books that you have read so far. Make sure that you mention the reasons that made it so interesting for you.
5. Write essays on the following topics:
   - The best way to spend a rainy day
   - Importance of staying in touch with family members
   - Why we should care for our environment
   - Reasons to avoid junk food
   - What you would teach your pet dog
   - Your favourite season

Chapter 65 Dialogue Writing

A dialogue is a conversation between two or more people in an informal language.

Given below are dialogues between 4-5 people from *The Selfish Giant* by Oscar Wilde.

Narrator: Some children used to go and play in the Giant's garden every afternoon on their way back from school.

Boy 1: What a beautiful garden!

Girl 1: yes. The grass is green and the flowers are like stars.

Boy 2: Shhh! Listen to those birds sing.

Children: I feel happy here.

Girl 2: Come on. It´s getting late. Let's return home otherwise our parents will get worried.

Children: Yes, let´s go.

Narrator: This happened every day. One day the Giant came back after visiting his friend, the Cornish ogre. When he arrived he saw the children playing in the garden. He became very angry.

Giant: (angrily) What are you doing here?

Children: Run! The giant is back!

Giant: (shouting) Go away from here! This is my garden. Nobody can come in without my permission.

Exercises

1. Imagine you are playing in the park with four of your friends. It is getting dark and suddenly you hear a strange sound behind a bush. Write dialogues to describe what could it be or what you think it is.
2. Write dialogues between two friends who are discussing their favourite book with each other. You may write about the plot of the story, the characters or the things you like or don't.
3. Imagine you are a cat and your friend a dog. You live together with a family and love each other very much. Write dialogues between the two describing your life in the family.

Chapter 66 Diary Entry

A diary is a record of the happenings of the day written in an informal language. It is written in first person using simple present or simple past tenses. Being an informal type of writing, sketches, drawings, emoticons and other creative expressions can also be used.

Given below is a sample diary entry.

> Friday, June 24, 2016
>
> Dearest Diary,
>
> I woke up with a bright smile on my face today. I lay in bed thinking for a long time. Why was I so happy? Did I dream about something nice?
>
> I didn't have any particular thoughts before going to bed last night.
>
> My day passed smoothly and I was able to complete all my chores. And now, at the end of the day I have realised one thing—that all I want to do is to be happy.
>
> Yours, Meeta

Exercises

1. Today is the best day of your life. You participated in a national level spelling competition and have won the first prize. Describe your day and feelings when you were declared the national champion in a diary entry.
2. Your drama teacher is very happy with your performance. You are happy about it, more so since you have been upset for reasons of your own. Write a diary entry to express your thoughts.
3. You are Suman and you have had a chance encounter with your favourite sports star. Write a diary entry about your time with the star.

Chapter 67 Writing Postcards

A postcard is much shorter than a letter. It is written to someone in a different city or country when one is travelling, for instance. Usually there is a picture on one side of the postcard and space for a message and address of the person on the other.

Given below is a sample message written on a postcard.

Hello Shobha Having a great time here in Nainital. The camp is lovely and the food is just yummy. Weather is pleasant but windy. We go mountain climbing every morning. I have made some new friends. We will go boating tomorrow in the Naini Lake. Will send you another postcard soon. Rajesh	 To, Miss Shobha Singh 733, Princeton Apartments Gurgaon

Exercises

1. Look at the picture given below and imagine that you are sitting facing the Taj Mahal. Write about what you are doing and thinking as a postcard message to your best friend.

2. Write a postcard message to your cousin who lives in Mumbai offering your good wishes for her board examination.
3. Write a postcard message to your mother who is abroad for work telling her how much you miss her and how well you are behaving at home.

Irregular Verbs

There are three types of irregular verbs:

1. Verbs in which all three parts (the base form, the past tense and the past participle) are identical, e.g. *cut – cut – cut*.
2. Verbs in which two of the three parts are identical, e.g. *get – got – got*.
3. Verbs in which all three parts are different, e.g. *see – saw – seen*.

Here the common irregular verbs are grouped into three types. If a verb has some regular form, it also has been added.

1. All three parts are identical

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
bet	bet/betted	bet/betted
bid	bid	bid
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit/knitted	knit/knitted
let	let	let
put	put	put
quit	quit/quitted	quit/quitted
read	read	read
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
thrust	thrust	thrust

2. Two parts are identical

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
bend	bent	bent
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
catch	caught	caught
creep	crept	crept
dream	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
get	got	got
grind	ground	ground
hang	hung	hung (e.g. the picture was *hung*.)
	hanged	hanged (e.g. He was *hanged* for murder.)
have	had	had
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt/kneeled	knelt/kneeled
lay	laid	laid
leap	leapt/leaped	leapt/leaped
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
lend	lent	lent
light	lit/ighted	lit lighted
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
mislay	mislaid	mislaid

overcome	overcame	overcome
run	ran	run
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
shoot	shot	shot
sit	sat	sat
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt
stick	stuck	stuck
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
withhold	withheld	withheld
wring	wrung	wrung

3. All three parts are different.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
arise	arose	arisen
(a) wake	(a) woke	(a) woken/ (a) waked
be	was	been
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
choose	chose	chosen

do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hid/hidden
lie	lay	lain
mistake	mistook	mistaken
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	showed/shown
sink	sank	sunk
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swear	swore	sworn
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
undergo	underwent	undergone
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
write	wrote	written

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PREFACE

Wren & Martin's *Middle School English Grammar & Composition* (MSEGC) has been specially designed to be used as a prequel to the highly popular, *High School English Grammar & Composition*.

Middle School English Grammar & Composition is largely based on the latest developments in the study of English structure and usage. The main objective of this book is to equip the learners with the ability to use English effectively in real-life situations.

Unlike many traditional grammar books, this book helps the student to use the language as well as gives detailed information about the language. It provides ample guidance and practice in sentence building, correct usage, comprehension, composition and other allied areas so as to equip the students with the ability to communicate effectively in English.

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Unit 1

Nouns–Gender and Number

Chapter 1 Gender

Read the following sentences:

1. The *boy* plays well.
2. *Mary* has a little lamb.
3. The *box* is made of wood.
4. The *child* is ill.

The noun *boy,* in the first sentence, refers to a *male*. It is therefore said to be of the **Masculine Gender**.

A noun that is the name of any male person or animal is said to be of the Masculine Gender; such as, man, uncle, lion, bull.

The noun *Mary,* in the second sentence, is the name of a *female*. It is therefore said to be of the **Feminine Gender**.

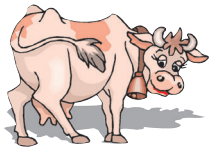

A noun that is the name of any female person or animal is said to be of the Feminine Gender; such as, woman, aunt, lioness, cow.

The noun *box,* in the third sentence, is the name of a nonliving thing. It is therefore said to be of the **Neuter Gender**. We shall read about it in detail later in the chapter.

The noun *child,* in the fourth sentence, may be used both for a male child and a female child. It is therefore said to be of the **Common Gender**. We shall read about it in detail later in the chapter.

EXERCISE 1

State the Gender of each of the following nouns.

(i) sister ..... (ii) dog .....

(iii)	mother	.....	(iv)	actor	.....
(v)	tigress	.....	(vi)	master	.....
(vii)	actress	.....	(viii)	tree	.....
(ix)	emperor	.....	(x)	cook	.....
(xi)	mistress	.....	(xii)	servant	.....
(xiii)	nephew	.....	(xiv)	slave	.....
(xv)	flower	.....	(xvi)	baby	.....
(xvii)	ox	.....	(xviii)	prince	.....
(xix)	pupil	.....	(xx)	chair	.....

If you were asked to pick out all the nouns in the given exercise that are the names of **males,** you would pick out *dog, actor, master, emperor, nephew, ox, cook, servant, slave, prince.*

If you were asked to pick out all the nouns in the given exercise that are the names of **females,** you would pick out *sister, mother, tigress, actress, mistress.*

But what about the other nouns, *tree, flower* and *chair*? These are the names of nonliving things. They are *neither male nor female.*

Nouns, such as, desk, chair, ball, knife, that are the names of *neither male nor female* are said to be of the **Neuter Gender.**
[*Neuter* means *neither.*]

Note: Collective nouns, even when they denote living beings, are considered to be of the neuter gender.

Note: Sometimes a little child or an animal, particularly a small animal, is treated as the neuter gender, and spoken of as *it*.

On the other hand, some animals, a dog or a horse, for example, are usually spoken of as *he,* while a cat is often spoken of as *she*.

Read the following sentences and note the words in italics.

1. I have a *cousin.*
2. That *person* is a *relation* of mine.

3. She has a *baby.*
4. This is my *friend* and *companion.*
5. The *child* is with the *teacher.*
6. *Servants* are very troublesome.
7. The *birds* and *beasts* are here.
8. You must pay the *attendant* and other *helpers.*

What do you notice about the nouns in the above sentences? *You cannot say whether they stand for males or females.*

Cousin is a word common to your male and female cousins. A *person* may be of either sex and so may be a *relation*. A *baby* may be a boy or a girl.

Nouns which are names *common to either males or females* are said to be of the **Common Gender.** All the nouns in the above eight sentences are of common gender.

Ways to Form the Feminine Nouns

There are three ways of forming the Feminine Nouns:

(1) By using an entirely different word; such as,

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
bachelor	maid spinster	husband	wife
		king	queen
boy	girl	lord	lady
brother	sister	man	woman
bull	cow	nephew	niece
cock	hen	papa	mamma
earl	countess	sir	madam
father	mother	son	daughter
gentleman	lady	uncle	aunt
horse	mare	dog	bitch

(2) By adding a syllable **-ess, -ine, -trix, -a,** etc., such as,

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
hero	heroine	sultan	sultana
author	authoress	administrator	administratrix

[Note that in the following *-ess* is added after *dropping* the vowel of the masculine ending.]

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
actor	actress	prince	princess
enchanter	enchantress	tiger	tigress
instructor	instructress	waiter	waitress
negro	negress	master	mistress
duke	duchess	emperor	empress

[**Note:** The suffix *-ess* is the commonest suffix used to form feminine nouns, from the masculine, and is the only one which we now use in forming a new feminine noun.]

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
heir	heiress	poet	poetess
host	hostess	priest	priestess
steward	stewardess	shepherd	shepherdess
lion	lioness	Jew	Jewess

(3) By placing a gender showing word (male or female) before or after; such as,

Masculine	*Feminine*	*Masculine*	*Feminine*
grandfather	grandmother	landlord	landlady
peacock	peahen	milkman	milkmaid
manservant	maidservant	washerman	washerwoman

EXERCISE 2

Change the Gender and rewrite the following sentences.

1. My grandfather is the author of many children books.
2. The woman asked her daughters to go to school.
3. The bridegroom rode on a mare.
4. The father called his sons and asked them to go to the king.
5. The boys went for a picnic yesterday.
6. Two bulls started a big fight.
7. The tiger does not look after his cubs.
8. The queen called the prince and asked him to choose a princess.
9. He is the son of a rich man.
10. A dog saw his own shadow in the water and started barking.
11. His uncle and aunt lived in the US.
12. The shepherd took the cattle in the forest.

EXERCISE 3

Choose the right word.

1. My aunt/uncle is a widow.
2. She is my elder brother/sister.
3. My granny is an old man/woman.
4. This gentleman/lady is my husband.
5. The hen/cock lays eggs every day.
6. The queen/king lost her diamond necklace.
7. That boy is my nephew/niece.
8. The cow/bull gives us milk.
9. The lioness/lion gave birth to two cubs.
10. The hostess greeted his/her guest with a smile.

Chapter 2 Number

Examine the following sentences:

1. Please give me your *book*.
2. Please give me your *books*.

The noun, *book,* stands for only *one* thing. It is, therefore, said to be in the **Singular Number**.

Any noun standing for one person or thing is said to be in the **Singular Number**; such as, boy, man, donkey, chair, desk.

The noun *books* stands for *more than one* thing. It is, therefore, said to be in the **Plural Number**.

Any noun standing for *more than one* person or thing is said to be in the **Plural Number**; such as, boys, men, donkeys, chairs, desks.

EXERCISE 1

Point out the Nouns in these sentences. State whether they stand for one thing (or person), or more than one thing (or person).

1. The boys are writing in copybooks.
2. A little girl is playing with her friends.
3. Cows give milk.
4. There are many houses in this street.
5. There are five cups on the table.
6. The room has four walls and two doors.
7. All the inkpots are new.
8. I have three balls, but only two bats.
9. There are seven days in a week.
10. This book has sixty-four pages.

HOW PLURALS ARE FORMED

Let us now examine how a plural noun is formed from the singular. Observe the following nouns:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
boy	boys	dog	dogs
girl	girls	cat	cats
room	rooms	horse	horses
door	doors	cow	cows
chair	chairs	goat	goats
desk	desks	crow	crows
book	books	tree	trees
pen	pens	rose	roses

Most nouns form their plurals *by adding* ***-s*** to the Singular noun. Observe how the following nouns form their plurals:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
lash	lashes	coach	coaches
brush	brushes	trench	trenches
push	pushes	bunch	bunches
dish	dishes	couch	couches
bush	bushes	peach	peaches
latch	latches	bench	benches
batch	batches	gas	gases
branch	branches	ass	asses
match	matches	loss	losses
catch	catches	class	classes
watch	watches	kiss	kisses
church	churches	box	boxes
witch	witches	fox	foxes

We observe that *nouns ending in* ***-sh, -ch, -s,*** or ***-x****, form their plurals by adding* ***-es*** *to the singular*.

Examine the following nouns:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
lady	ladies	body	bodies
baby	babies	fly	flies
family	families	lily	lilies
copy	copies	ruby	rubies
pony	ponies	daisy	daisies
army	armies	gipsy	gipsies
fairy	fairies	country	countries
reply	replies	cry	cries
city	cities	mercy	mercies

From these examples we infer the rule: *for nouns ending in* ***-y*** *after a consonant, change the -y into* ***-i*** *and add* ***-es*** *to make the plural form.*

Now notice the following nouns:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
valley	valleys	donkey	donkeys
journey	journeys	key	keys
monkey	monkeys	toy	toys
pulley	pulleys	boy	boys
chimney	chimneys	day	days
jockey	jockeys	ray	rays
play	plays	bay	bays
way	ways	-----	-----

For nouns *ending in* ***-y*** *after a vowel, follow the general rule of adding -s to the singular*.

Examine the following nouns:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
thief	thieves	half	halves
shelf	shelves	wolf	wolves
leaf	leaves	wife	wives
calf	calves	knife	knives
loaf	loaves	life	lives
elf	elves	-----	-----

Thus we infer that *nouns ending in* ***-f*** *or* ***-fe*** *form the plural by changing these endings into* ***-v*** *and adding* ***-es***, but if we notice the following nouns which end in ***-f***, we shall see that it is a rule with many exceptions:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
roof	roofs	cliff	cliffs
hoof	hoofs	puff	puffs
chief	chiefs	cuff	cuffs
dwarf	dwarfs	gulf	gulfs

These nouns follow the general rule of adding ***-s*** to the singular.

With regard to nouns ending in ***-o***, *some follow the general rule (e.g.,* video, videos) *but many add* ***-es***.

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
hero	heroes	cargo	cargoes
mango	mangoes	echo	echoes
potato	potatoes	buffalo	buffaloes
volcano	volcanoes	tomato	tomatoes
negro	negroes	mosquito	mosquitoes

A few nouns ending in ***-o***, form the plural by adding only ***-s***.

Exceptions

kilo	kilos	photo	photos
piano	pianos	bamboo	bamboos
dynamo	dynamos	canto	cantos

Hundreds of years ago, a fairly common rule was that of adding ***-en*** to the singular to form the plural. There are a few nouns that still follow the rule; such as,

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
ox	oxen	brother	brethren
child	children		

Examine the following nouns:

Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
man	men	tooth	teeth
woman	women	goose	geese
foot	feet	louse	lice
mouse	mice		

The above nouns form their plural by a change of vowel. As you see, there are only a few of them.

A few nouns *do not make any change to form the plural;* they are used both as singular and plural. For example, sheep, deer, salmon (and many other names of kinds of fish).

The noun *fish* is also used both as singular and plural. The form *fishes* can be used to refer to different kinds of fish.

The normal plural of *person* is people. The form *persons* is sometimes used in official language.

Some nouns are used *only* in the *plural.*

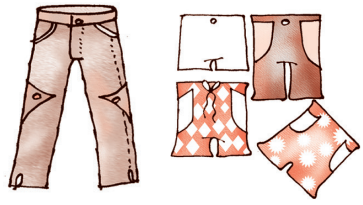

1. Names of instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair; such as,
   bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, spectacles, binoculars.
2. Names of certain dresses; such as, *trousers, drawers, jeans, tights, shorts, pyjamas*.
3. Names of diseases; such as, *measles, mumps, rickets*.
4. Names of games; such as, *billiards, draughts*.
5. Certain other nouns; such as, *annals, thanks, tidings, chattels*.

Certain Collective Nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals; such as, *poultry, cattle, vermin, people, gentry*.

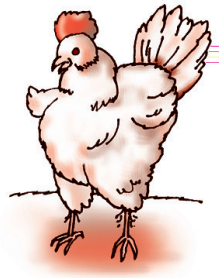

These *poultry are* mine.

Whose *are* these *cattle*?

Vermin destroy our property and carry diseases.

Who *are* those *people* (persons)?

Note: As a Common Noun "people" means "a nation" and is used in both singular and plural; such as,

The French are a hard-working and brave *people*.
There are many different *peoples* in Europe.

A Compound Noun generally forms its plural *by adding* **-s** *to the principal word*; such as,

Singular	*Plural*
son-in-law	sons-in-law
daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law
stepson	stepsons
stepdaughter	stepdaughters
maidservant	maidservants (but *man-servant*, plural *men-servants*)
man-of-war	men-of-war

We say *spoonfuls* and *handfuls*, because *spoonful* and *handful* are regarded as one word.

Letters, figures and other symbols are made plural by adding an apostrophe and **-s**; such as,

There are more *e's* than *a's* in this page.
Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.
Add two *5's* and four *2's*.

It is usual to say —

The Miss Smiths. (Singular, Miss Smith)

But we also say —

The Misses Smith.

Abstract Nouns have no plural. They are usually uncountables.

hope, charity, love, kindness

When such words do appear in the plural, they are used as Countables; such as

kindnesses — acts of kindness

Names of substances or materials, called **Material Nouns**, also do not have a plural form; such as,

copper, iron, tin, wood

When such words are used in the plural, they become uncountable nouns with changed meanings; such as,

coppers — copper coins; irons — fetters;
tins — cans made of tin; woods — forests

EXERCISE 2

A. Write the singular of each of the following.

mice, flies, watches, children, houses, cities, matches, branches

B. Write the plural of each of the following.

baby, branch, bush, wolf, army, loaf, goose, face, wife, child, fox, buffalo, potato

Examine the following pairs of sentences. What do you notice?

This mango *is* ripe. These mangoes *are* ripe.	The child *has* toys. The children *have* toys.
The cock *is* crowing The cocks *are* crowing.	The boy *plays* every evening. The boys *play* every evening.
The boy *was* there. The boys *were* there.	The man *does* his work well. The men *do* their work well.
The boy *was* playing. The boys *were* playing.	

When we change a singular subject into the plural, the verb also changes.

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with *is* or *are*.

1. The man ..... happy.
2. The children ..... happy.
3. My books..... stolen.
4. The child..... there.
5. All boys ..... fond of play.
6. Th girl ..... dancing.

Unit 2

Nouns–Case

Chapter 3 Nominative and Objective Case

NOMINATIVE CASE

Examine the sentence:

John hit Tom.

What is the relation of the noun *John* to the verb *hit*? The noun *John* stands as the Subject of the verb *hit*.

When the noun John stands as the Subject of a verb, it is said to be in the naming relation or a **Nominative Case**.

As you know, we cannot make up a sentence without using a verb. When anything is done, somebody or something must do it. The doer of the action is called the *Subject of the sentence*.

The word that acts as the Subject of the sentence names the doer of the action, and is said to be in the **Naming** or **Nominative Case**. If I say "Rama spoke," the word *Rama* names the doer of the action expressed by the verb *spoke*, and is in the nominative case.

The police arrested the thief.
(Who arrested? — The police)
The pot was broken by Hari.
(What was broken? — The pot)
He bought a digital watch.
(Who bought? — He)

Whenever you are looking for the Nominative case, *begin by finding the verb*. Then put *Who*? or *What*? before the verb. The answer will be the *nominative, e.g.*,

1. The Brahmin bathed.
   (*Who* bathed? The *Brahmin*)

2. Krishna went to Varanasi.
   (*Who* went? *Krishna*)
3. The bazaar is full of people.
   (*What* is full? The *bazaar*)
4. Gandiva was the name of Arjun's bow.
   (*What* was the name? *Gandiva*)
5. He bought a quartz watch.
   (*Who* bought? *He*)

EXERCISE 1

In each of the following sentences, pick out the nouns (or pronouns) in the Nominative Case.

1. Lakshmi lost her ring.
2. Gopal wants to go home.
3. The mosquito causes malaria.
4. Malaria kills people.
5. Milk is the best food.
6. Kolkata stands on the bank of Hugli.
7. The lazy boy was punished.
8. The Collector often visits this village.
9. The foolish old crow tried to sing.
10. I have read about Nurjahan.
11. Few cats like cold water.
12. You work hard.
13. I ate some rice.
14. The tonga fell into the ditch.
15. He died a glorious death.

OBJECTIVE CASE

As you have already learned, the verb in a sentence very often tells of an action that must be done to somebody or something. If I make, I must make something. If I kill, I must kill something or somebody. If I touch, I must touch something or someone.

Look at the following sentences:

1. Hari struck Rama.
   (*Whom* did Hari strike? — *Rama*)
2. He teaches me.
   (*Whom* does he teach? — *Me*)
3. He threw a stone.
   (*What* did he throw? — *A stone*)

In each of the above sentences, we see that the action expressed by the verb is done to some Object—some person or thing.

The noun (or pronoun) that is the Object of a verb is said to be in the **Objective Case**.

The Objective Case is sometimes called the **Accusative Case**.

To find the Objective put *Whom* or *What* before the verb and its subject. The answer will be the *objective*.

1. The police arrested the thief.
   (*Whom* did the police arrest? — *The thief*)
2. He bought a digital watch.
   (*What* did he buy? — *A digital watch*)

Nouns and pronouns following Prepositions are also in the Objective Case; such as,

1. The dog ran across the road.
2. He arrived before me.

Examine the following sentences:

1. The dog bit the monkey.
2. The monkey bit the dog.

In sentence 1, the noun *dog* is the Subject of the verb *bit*, and is in the Nominative case.

In sentence 2, the noun *dog* is the Object of the verb *bit*, and is in the Objective case.

Again in sentence 2, the noun *monkey* is the Subject of the verb *bit* and is in the Nominative case.

In sentence 1, the noun *monkey* is the Object of the verb *bit*, and is in the Objective case.

We thus see that the Nominative and Objective case of Nouns are *alike in form*, but are known by their position in the sentence and the sense.

The Nominative generally comes *before* the verb, and the Objective *after* it.

Now examine the following sentences:

1. He struck me.
2. I struck him.

It is to be noted that no Nominative and Objective cases of Pronouns are indicated *by a change of form*. Thus *he* (Nominative) changes in form and becomes *him* (Objective); similarly *I* (Nominative) changes in form and becomes *me* (Objective).

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the nouns (or pronouns) in the Objective Case in the following sentences.

1. He sells vases.
2. The mongoose eats snakes.
3. Snakes fear the mongoose.
4. Mosquitoes cause malaria.
5. She was playing with the children.
6. They are very proud of her.
7. The result was announced by the teacher.

Chapter 4 Possessive (Genitive) Case

Look at the following sentences:

1. This is *Rama's* book.
2. Is that your *brother's* bat?
3. My *uncle's* house is not far from here.

In each of these sentences, we see a pair of nouns, one of which is the name of the possessor and the other the name of the thing possessed.

A noun (or pronoun) used *to show possession* is said to be in the **Possessive Case**.

In the above sentences each of the nouns *Rama's, brother's, uncle's*, is in the Possessive Case.

The Possessive Case is sometimes called the **Genitive Case**.

The Possessive answers the question, *Whose*?

Whose book? *Rama's*.

The meaning of the Possessive Case may be expressed by means of the preposition *of* with the objective case after it. Thus, for "My uncle's house," we may say, "The house of my uncle."

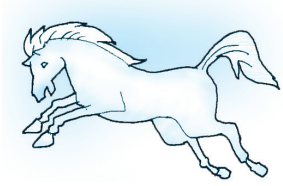

1. *Shirin's* mother is ill.
2. The *horse's* mane is long.
3. The *bee's* sting is painful.

In these sentences the nouns in the possessive case are in the singular number, and the possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe (') followed by an *s*.

Now examine the nouns in the Possessive Case in the following sentences:

1. Many *boys'* books are lost.
2. All these *horses'* feet are shod.
3. We saw rows of *soldiers'* tents.

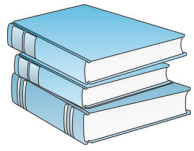

As you see, the nouns in the possessive case are here in the plural number. *As the plural nouns themselves end in s*, only the apostrophe (') is used, and not another *s*.

Now see some more sentences.

1. *Men's* lives are short.
2. The *children's* toys are broken.
3. These *oxen's* humps are large.

In these sentences the nouns in the possessive case are in the plural number *but do not end in s*. Therefore, the apostrophe (') and *s* are used (as in the singular).

The Possessive Case is chiefly used when the noun denotes some *living thing*. Thus we say:

Children's toys; horses' feet; Mary's book.

When the noun denotes anything *without life*, possessive is generally expressed by the preposition *of*, followed by the noun in the objective case; such as,

The leg of the table [not, the table's leg]

The cover of the book [not, the book's cover].

But the Possessive Case is used with nouns denoting *time, space*, or *weight*; such as,

A *day's* march; a *week's* holiday; a *metre's* length; a *kilo's* weight.

Examine the following sentences:

1. *Mahatma Gandhi's* death was mourned by all.
2. *Shakespeare's* plays are universally admired.
3. Their *leader's* absence made defeat certain.
4. The *child's* murderer was hanged.

It is to be noted from the above examples that the Possessive Case does not always denote possession.

Form a pair with your friend and discuss what the above sentences denote.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the nouns in the Possessive Case in the following sentences.

1. He hears the lamb's innocent call.
2. Rama's words filled Sita's heart with grief.

3. The children found a bird's nest.
4. Tom attends a boy's school.
5. The children's clothes are new.
6. The ladies' sarees were beautiful.
7. The girl's voice is sweet.
8. A man's house is his castle.
9. The reaper's work is done.
10. That is my uncle's car.

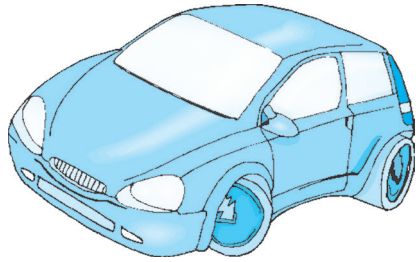

EXERCISE 2

Give the Possessive Case, Singular and Plural, of the following nouns.

baby, child, boy, lady, man, sheep, monkey, ox

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE

1. When the noun is Singular, the Possessive Case is formed by adding ***-'s*** to the noun; such as,
   the boy's book; the mayor's car

Note: The letter ***-s*** is omitted in a few words where too many hissing sounds would come together; such as,
for conscience' sake; for goodness' sake.

2. When the noun is Plural, and ends in *s*, the Possessive Case is formed by adding only an apostrophe; such as,
   boys' school; *girls'* school; *horses'* tails.

3. When the noun is Plural, but does not end in ***s***, the Possessive is formed by adding ***'s***; such as,
   men's club; *children's* books.

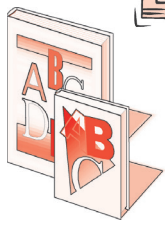

When a noun or a title consists of several words, the Possessive sign is attached only to the last word; such as,

The Nawab of *Rampur's* library.

I saw it at Asquith and *Lord's*.

When two nouns in the possessive case are in apposition, apostrophe with **-s** is added to the last only; such as,

For thy servant *David's* sake.

When one noun is qualified by two possessive nouns, both must have the possessive sign, unless joint possession is indicated; such as,

Gardiner's and *Green's* histories.

Goldsmith's and *Cowper's* poems.

Karim's and *Rahim's* biscuits.

USE OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE

1. The Possessive Case is now used chiefly with the names of *living things*; such as,

   The *Governor's* bodyguards; the *lion's* mane.

   So we must say:

   The leg of the table [not, the table's leg.]

   But the possessive is used with the names of *personified* objects*; such as,

   India's heroes; *Nature's* laws; *Fortune's* favourite; at *duty's* call; at *death's* door.

2. The Possessive is also used with nouns denoting time; such as,

   A *day's* march; a *week's* holiday; in a *year's* time; *yesterday's* newspaper, *today's* TV programmes.

* When an inanimate thing has been ascribed to it the attributes of a person, it is said to be personified.

The following phrases are also in common use:

At his *fingers'* ends; for *mercy's* sake; to his *heart's* content; at his *wit's* end; a *boat's* crew.

3. The words *cathedral, house, school, shop* are often omitted after a Possessive Case; such as,

   They were married at *St. Paul's*.

   Tonight I will dine at my *uncle's*.

   I attend the Town High School but my cousin attends *St Xavier's*.

   You can get this at *Anand's* or *Mohan's*.

When you are in doubt whether to use a noun in the possessive case or with the preposition *of*, remember that, as a general rule, the possessive case is used to denote possession or ownership. Thus, it is better to say "the defeat of the enemy" than "the enemy's defeat", even though no doubt as to the meaning would arise.

Sometimes, however, a noun in the possessive case has a different meaning from a noun used with the preposition *of*; such as,

"The Prime Minister's reception in New Delhi" means a reception held by the Prime Minister in New Delhi.

"The reception of the Prime Minister in New Delhi" means the manner in which the people welcomed him when he entered New Delhi.

The phrase "the love of a father" may mean either "a father's love of his child" or "a child's love of his father."

EXERCISE 3

Read the following sentences carefully and say whether the words in italics are in Nominative, Accusative or Possessive Case.

1. The horse kicked the *boy*.
2. This is my *uncle's home*.
3. The *players* made him the captain.
4. The children flew the *kite*.
5. *The students* of this school are going to visit the India Gate.
6. *Nature's laws* are great.

7. Somebody broke the *window*.
8. This is a *girls'* school.
9. My mother gave *me* a gift on my birthday.
10. *The legs of the table* are broken.

EXERCISE 4

In the following sentences, pick out the nouns and tell the Number, Gender and Case of each.

1. Hari's books are in the desk.
2. Come away, children.
3. The fox came to the farmer's gate.
4. A mad dog bit my pony.
5. The woman shook her head.
6. The boy's coat is torn.
7. The cow loves her calf.
8. The boys made great noise.
9. The farmer's wife jumped out of bed.
10. He wrote a letter to his uncle.
11. My boy, you are mistaken.
12. Hari's knife is blunt.
13. Radha is milking the cow.
14. The children have read the story of Ali Baba.
15. Cinderella's slippers were made of glass.
16. Camels carry heavy burdens.
17. The little girl has a sweet voice.
18. We boil water in a kettle.
19. The noise frightened the child.
20. A mouse awakened a lion from sleep.

Unit 3
Pronouns

Chapter 5 Definition and Usage

Read the sentences below:

Listen to Rama; *he* is singing. Govind and Ganpat are here. *They* have come to hear *him*. He will be glad to see *them*.

In the above sentences the words in italics are used *instead of* names (or nouns). It is easier and better to use such words than to keep on repeating the nouns and say:

Listen to Rama; Rama is singing. Govind and Ganpat are here. Govind and Ganpat have come to hear Rama. Rama will be glad to see Govind and Ganpat.

Such words, which are used *instead of nouns*, are called Pronouns.

The word Pronoun means "*for a noun*".

A Pronoun is a word which is used instead of a noun.

Now read the following sentences, and carefully note that the words in italics are Pronouns.

Did *I* not tell *you* to be punctual, Rama?
Yes, Sir; but *I* missed the train.
Why are *you* crying? Are *you* afraid of *me*?
We should always speak the truth.
Let *us* go out for a walk.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Pronouns in the following sentences and say what each one stands for.

1. When the tiger saw the woman, it sprang upon her.

2. The girl lost a bangle, but later she found it near her bed.
3. The child saw a ball and tried to get it.
4. Just listen to him. He must be mad to talk so.
5. Buy them; they are the best mangoes in the shop.
6. A miser bought a lump of gold. He buried it in a hole.
7. Some boys found a nest in a tree. It was wonderful. They found five eggs in it.
8. The lark is singing gaily; it loves the bright sun.
9. One day the boy took his breakfast, and ate it by a purling brook.
10. I met a little cottage girl; she was eight years old, she said.

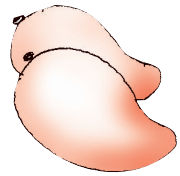

EXERCISE 2

Change some of the Nouns into Pronouns in the following.

1. The girl sang sweetly. The people listened to the girl. The people liked the girl. The people gave the girl money.
2. These soldiers are wounded. These soldiers must go to hospital. The doctors will heal these soldiers. The doctors will not make the soldiers pay money.

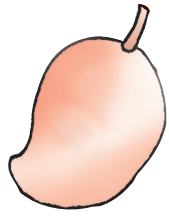

3. A boy saw a mango. The boy wanted the mango. The boy said, "The mango is ripe." The boy took the mango.
4. Rama saw Arjun. Rama called out to Arjun. Arjun answered Rama. Rama and Arjun went along together. I saw Rama and Arjun.
5. I heard a beggar asking for alms. The beggar was very old and weak. I gave the beggar a rupee. The beggar took the rupee and thanked me.

6. I have a little pony. I lent the pony to a lady. The lady rode the pony through the mire.

Chapter 6 Kinds of Pronouns

Read these sentences.

1. Did *I* not tell *you* to be punctual, Rama?
2. *We* should always speak the truth.
3. Why are *you* crying? Are *you* afraid of *me*?
4. Let *us* go out for a walk.
5. Some men are not honest. *They* steal things.
6. Open this box. *It* is locked.
7. *You, he, she* and *I* will do *it* together.

The pronouns in the above sentences stand for the names of persons or things. Such pronouns are called **Personal Pronouns**.

A pronoun referring to the person speaking, is said to be of the First Person; such as, *I, me, we, us*.

A pronoun referring to the person spoken to, is said to be of the Second Person; such as; *you*.

A pronoun referring to the person or thing spoken of, is said to be of the Third Person; such as, *he, him, she, her, it, they, them*.

Read these sentences:

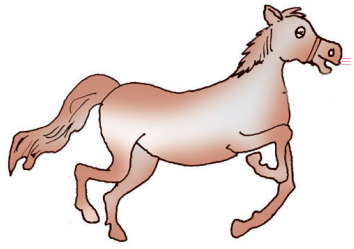

1. I *myself* saw him do it.
2. We will see to it *ourselves*.
3. You *yourself* can best explain.
4. He *himself* said so.
5. She *herself* says so.
6. We saw the President *himself*.
7. The town *itself* is not very large.
8. They *themselves* admitted their guilt.
9. The prisoner hanged *himself*.
10. The horse has hurt *itself*.

11. You express *yourself* very imperfectly.
12. I have hurt *myself*.
13. They have got *themselves* into a mess.
14. We often deceive *ourselves*.

The words in italics in the above sentences are used in two ways:

1. For *emphasis*, with a noun or pronoun, as in sentences, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8. They are then called **Emphatic Pronouns**.

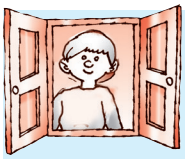

(1) Used for Emphasis

I *myself* opened the window.

The fan *itself* stopped moving.

(2) The object denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

She hurt *herself.*

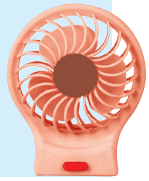

2. As *reflexives*, when they are objects of a verb, but refer to the same person as the subject of the verb, as in sentences 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14. They are then called **Reflexive Pronouns**.

   Whom did the prisoner hang? .... *himself*.

   We see that the prisoner is the doer of the action as well as the receiver of the action.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Pronouns in the following sentences, and say which are Emphatic and which are Reflexive.

1. I will do it myself.
2. He hurt himself.
3. I posted the letter myself.
4. The Governor himself gave the prize.
5. I blame myself for it.
6. I shut the gate myself.

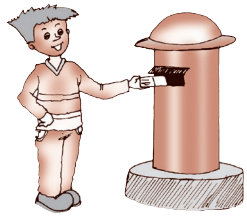

7. The boys hid themselves.
8. Pray do not inconvenience yourself.
9. You may hurt yourself.
10. She poisoned herself.
11. He set himself a hard task.
12. We seldom see ourselves as others see us.

Point out the object or objects

This is a fan.

That is a tree.

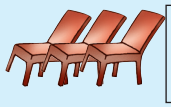

Those are chairs.

These are children.

Read these sentences.

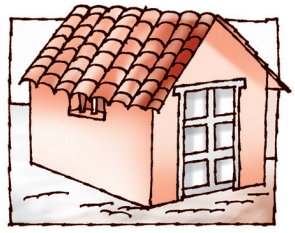

1. *This* is a present from my uncle.
2. *These* are merely excuses.
3. *That* is my house.
4. *Those* are my pens.
5. *Such* were his actual words.

In the above sentences *this, these, that, those, such* are used to point out the object or objects to which they refer, and are therefore called **Demonstrative Pronouns**.

Read these sentences.

1. *Some* say he is mad.
2. *Few* escaped unhurt.
3. *Many* are of that opinion.
4. *All* were drowned.
5. Do good to *others*.
6. *None* but fools have ever believed it.
7. One cannot do just as *one* likes.

The pronouns *some, few, many, all*, etc., refer to people or things in a vague and general way. They are therefore called **Indefinite Pronouns**.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Demonstrative and Indefinite Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Can any of you do this sum?
2. This is my book; that is yours.
3. One hardly knows what to do.
4. None can tell how it happened.
5. Give me one of those.
6. No need to fear that.
7. Some were paid in gold, some in silver.
8. These mangoes are not ripe, send us some ripe ones.
9. One cannot help smiling at what he says.
10. This is certainly a mistake.

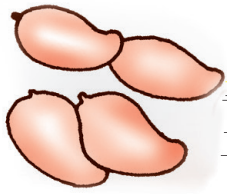

Read these sentences.

1. *Each* of the men received a reward.
2. *Either* of you can go.
3. *Neither* of the accusations is true.

Each, either, neither are used with reference to the number of persons or things one at a time, and are called **Distributive Pronouns**.

Read some more examples.

1. *Who* broke this window?
2. *What* shall we do now?
3. *Which* would you prefer?

In the above sentences, the pronouns *who, what* and *which*, not only stand instead of nouns, but also ask questions. Pronouns used for asking questions are called **Interrogative Pronouns**.

EXERCISE 3

Underline the correct Distributive Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Each of you has received a prize.
2. Either of them is good enough.
3. Neither of the answers is true.
4. Each of you has to come at the right time.
5. Each of you is responsible for yourself.
6. You can sit on either side of me.
7. Neither of you is selected for the final.
8. Everyone of us got a prize for winning the competition.
9. The teacher gave us a pen each.
10. Neither of the subjects is interesting for me.

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Interrogative Pronouns in the following sentences.

1. Which is your uncle's house?
2. Who is there?
3. What is the matter?
4. Who made the top score?
5. Which one will you take?
6. What is the news?
7. What are those marks on your shirt?
8. Whom do you want?
9. To whom were you speaking?
10. Whose is this?

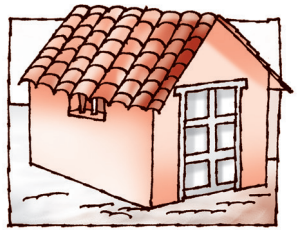

ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

Examine the work done by each word in italics in the following pairs of sentences.

1. *This* boy is lazy. (Demonstrative Adjective)
   This is a present from my uncle. (Demonstrative Pronoun)
2. What is *that* noise? (Demonstrative Adjective)
   Who was *that*? (Demonstrative Pronoun)
3. *What* books have you read? (Interrogative Adjective)
   What does he want? (Interrogative Pronoun)
4. *Which* way shall we go? (Interrogative Adjective)
   Which is your book? (Interrogative Pronoun)

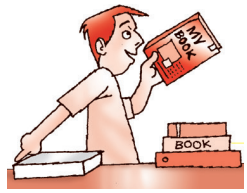

Note that Adjectives always come before nouns.

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the Pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the kind of each pronoun.

1. The female lion is called a lioness. She has no mane.
2. The camel is a beast of burden. It is used to carry goods across the desert.
3. He has lost his dog and cannot find it.
4. Somebody has stolen my watch.
5. I wish I hadn't cried so much.
6. Both cars are good, but this is better than that.
7. There were doors all round the hall, but they were all locked.
8. May I take this?
9. I want that ball; it is mine.
10. All answered their names.
11. Some believed the story, others did not.

12. The old man often talks to himself.
13. Hello, Rama, is this ball yours?
14. None of the boys seemed to like him.
15. Put them down.
16. Most people like her.
17. Has anybody seen my ball?
18. Each of us has two mangoes.
19. Some of them were late.
20. What did they say?
21. Few have such a chance.
22. Neither of them knows the story.
23. Either of you can go.

FIRST PERSON OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Examine the pronouns in italics in the sentences below.

1. *I* know Hari.
2. Hari knows *me*.
3. The pen he is using is *mine*.

I, me, mine—These pronouns refer to the person *speaking*, called the *first person*. They are therefore said to be of the **First Person**, *singular number*.

Now examine the pronouns in italics in the following sentences.

1. *We* love the child.
2. The child loves *us*.
3. Yes, he is *ours*.

We, us, ours—These Pronouns refer to the person *speaking*, and others for whom he (or she) speaks. They are of the first person, *plural number*.

You observe that Personal Pronouns of the First Person *change their form according to their Number and Case*.

	Singular	***Plural***
Nominative:	I	we
Possessive:	mine	ours
Objective:	me	us

SECOND PERSON OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. *You* are late, Rama.
2. I will punish *you*.
3. Are these books *yours*?

You, yours—These pronouns refer to the person *spoken to*, called the *second person*. They are therefore said to be of the **Second Person**, *singular number*.

Now examine the pronouns in the following sentences:

1. *You* are late, boys, I shall punish *you* all.
2. Where are your books? Are these books *yours*?

You observe that *you* and *yours* are used for both singular and plural. Hence Personal Pronouns of the Second Person *change their form according to their Case*.

	Singular and Plural
Nominative:	you
Possessive:	yours
Objective:	you

Notice that *you* is the common form for both numbers, in both the nominative and objective cases.

Note 1: In poetry, and sometimes in elevated prose, for the second person singular, *thou, thy, thine*, and *thee*, according to the case, were used in old English; such as,

Thou art not fair, for all *thy* red and white.
For all those rosy rosy ornaments in *thee*.

Note 2: Even when only one person is spoken to or addressed, the Pronoun *you* takes a plural verb; such as,

You are mistaken, my boy.

THIRD PERSON OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

1. *He* is ill. I often go to see *him*. This book is *his*.
2. *She* is ill. I often go to see *her*. This book is *hers*.
3. *It* is of no use. Throw *it* away.
4. *They* have just arrived. Their father asked *them* to come. *They* have brought their books. These books are all *theirs*.

He, his, him—These pronouns refer to the person *spoken* of, called the *third person*.They are therefore said to be of the **Third Person**, *singular number*. They are used when the person spoken of is a male. Hence they are of the third person, masculine gender, singular number.

She, her, hers—These pronouns also refer to the person spoken of. They are used when the person spoken of is a female. Hence they are of the third person, feminine gender, singular number.

It refers to the thing spoken of. Hence it is of the third person, neuter gender, singular number.

They, theirs, them—These pronouns refer to the people (or things) spoken about. Hence they are of the third person, common gender, plural number.

You observe that Personal Pronouns of the Third Person *change their form according to their Gender, Number and Case*.

	Singular		Plural	
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	*All Genders*
Nominative:	he	she	it	they
Possessive:	his	hers		theirs
Objective:	him	her	it	them

Note 3: Remember to use the nominative form of the pronoun when used as the subject of a sentence, and the objective form when used as the object of a transitive verb or preposition.

Note 4: (a) In present-day English, the objective case is used after the verb *be*. "Who is that?" "It is *me*."

(b) The objective case is used after *than* and *as* in comparisons.
You are taller than *me*. He is not as clever as *her*.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

We have seen that each of the personal pronouns, except *he* and *it*, has two possessive forms.

The forms *my, her, our, your, their*, are used only when preceding the nouns they qualify; such as,

This is *my* pen. That is *your* book. These are *our* books.

They are usually known as **Possessive Adjectives**.

The forms *mine, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* are pronouns as they are commonly used after the noun; such as,

The dog is *mine*. That book is *yours*.

That dog of *mine* cost me two hundred rupees.

A friend of *theirs* lives in our neighbourhood.

A pronoun must agree in number and gender with the noun for which it stands. That is, it should be of the same number and gender.

As the man approached, I saw *him* clearly.

EXERCISE 6

Pick out each Pronoun in the sentences given below, and tell whether it refers to the person *speaking* (the speaker), the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken of*.

1. I met a little cottage girl.
2. I quite agree with you.
3. We like cricket better than football.
4. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
5. Let us go out for a walk.
6. She sat by the fire, and told me a tale.
7. Old Meg, she was a gipsy.
8. He lost his parents in infancy.
9. They groped their way in darkness.
10. Rama loves work but Abdul hates it.

Chapter 7 Relative Pronouns

We have learnt that Relative Pronoun is so called because it *relates* or refers to some noun or pronoun which has gone before, called its Antecedent.

Besides the relative pronouns *who, which, that*, and *what*, the word *as* is also used as a Relative Pronoun after *such* or *same*.

These mangoes are not *such as* I bought yesterday.

This is not the *same as* that.

The word *but* after a negative, often has the force of a Relative Pronoun; such as,

There is no man *but* wishes to live. (That is, who does not, etc.)

There is no rose *but* has some thorn. (That is, which has not, etc.)

FORMS OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The Relative Pronoun *who* has different forms for Accusative and Possessive:

	Singular and Plural
Nominative:	who
Possessive:	whose
Accusative:	whom

This is the boy (or girl) *who* works hard.

This is the boy (or girl) *whose* exercise is done well.

This is the boy (or girl) *whom* all praise.

These are the boys (or girls) *who* work hard.

These are the boys (or girls) *whose* exercises are done well.

These are the boys (or girls) *whom* all praise.

It will be noticed that the forms are the same for singular and plural, masculine and feminine.

Be careful to use *who* (Nominative) and *whom* (Accusative) correctly.

Who (not, whom) they were I really cannot specify.

He was the man *who* (*not, whom*) they determined should be the next mayor.

The student, *whom* (*not, who*) you thought so highly of, has failed to win the first prize.

In present-day English, the relative pronoun *who* is often used instead of *whom*. *Who* can be used in the accusative case, except in a very formal style.

The relative pronoun *which* has the same form for the Nominative and Accusative Cases.

This is the house *which* belongs to my uncle.

This house *which* my uncle built cost him ₹ 4,00,000.

The relative pronoun *which* has no Possessive Case, but *whose* is sometimes used as a substitute for '*of which*'; such as,

A triangle *whose* three sides are equal is called an equilateral triangle.

The relative pronoun *that* has the same form in the Singular and Plural, and in the Nominative and Accusative. It has no Possessive Case.

He *that* is content is rich.

They *that* touch pitch will be defiled.

Take anything *that* you like.

The relative pronoun *what* is used only in the Singular, and has the same form in the Nominative and Accusative.

What has happened is not clear.

I say *what* I mean.

He failed in *what* he attempted.

USE OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

WHO

As a general rule, *who* is used for people only. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun.

1. The man *who* is honest is trusted.
2. They never fail *who* die in a great cause.

Who is sometimes used in referring to animals.

Whose (the Possessive form of who) is used in speaking of persons, but sometimes of things without life; such as,

The sun, *whose* rays give life to the earth, is regarded by some people as a god.

This is the question *whose* solution has baffled philosophers of all ages.

[More properly, 'This is the question the solution of which has baffled philosophers of all ages'.]

WHICH

Which is used for things without life and for animals. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural noun.

The moment *which* is lost is lost for ever.

The dog *which* I recently bought is an Alsatian.

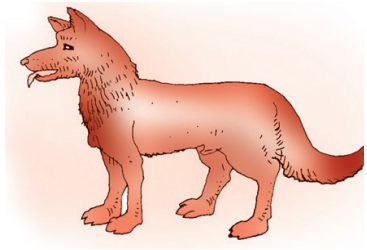

Which was formerly used to refer to people; such as,

Our Father, *which* art in heaven.

Which may also refer to a sentence; such as,

The man was said to be angry, *which* was not the case.

He said he saw me there, *which* was a lie.

Note: The relative pronouns *who* and *which* can be used —

1. To restrict, limit, or define more clearly the antecedent; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is restrictive or defining; such as;

   The man *who* had cheated me was arrested by the police yesterday.

   This book *which* you see on the table cost me two rupees.

2. To give some additional information about the antecedent; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is continuative or non-defining; such as,

   The teacher sent for the boy, *who* (= and he) came at once.

   I gave him a rupee, *which* (= and it) was all I had with me.

[In this use of the relative, a comma must be placed after the antecedent.]

THAT

That is used for people and things. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural noun. *That* has no genitive case and it is never used with a preposition preceding.

1. This is the boy *that* I told you of.
2. I know the house *that* he lives in.
3. Uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown.
4. Happy is the man *that* findeth wisdom.
5. The crowd *that* gathered cheered him to the echo.
6. My sister *that* is in Delhi sent me a present.
   [Which one of my several sisters?]

It will be noticed that the relative pronoun *that* is used only in relative clauses that restrict, limit, or define the antecedent; in other words the relative pronoun *that* has a restrictive force.

As the relative pronoun *that* has a restrictive force, it sometimes becomes unsuitable as the substitute for *who* or *which*. Thus I cannot say —

My father *that* is a schoolmaster is fifty years old.

I must say —

My father, *who* is a schoolmaster, is fifty years old.

But if I happen to have more than one sister, I can say —

My sister *that* has been adopted by my uncle is ill.

The Relative Pronoun *that* is used in preference to *who* or *which* —

(1) After Adjectives in the Superlative Degree; such as,
He was the most eloquent speaker *that* I ever heard.
The wisest man *that* ever lived made mistakes.

(2) After the words, *all, same, nothing*, (the) *only*; such as,
All is not gold that glitters.
He is the *same* man that he has been.
It was not for *nothing* that he studied philosophy.
Man is the *only* animal that can talk.

(3) After the Interrogative Pronouns *who, what*; such as,
Who am I that I should object?
What is it that troubles you so much?

(4) After two antecedents, one denoting a person and the other denoting an animal or a thing; such as,

The boy and his dog *that* had trespassed on the club premises were turned out.

WHAT

What refers to things only. It is used without an antecedent expressed, and is equivalent to *that which* (or *the thing which*).

What (= that which) cannot be cured must be endured.

I say *what* (= that which) I mean.

What is one man's meat is another man's poison.

What I have written, I have written.

It will be noticed that *what* is used in the Nominative and Accusative singular only.

In older English the word *as* was used as a Relative Pronoun after *such*; such as,

His answer was such *as* I expected him to give.

OMISSION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

The relative pronoun is generally omitted when it would be in the accusative case; such as,

Few and short were the prayers ∧ we said.

Men must reap the things ∧ they sow.

In the following examples from poetry, a relative pronoun in the nominative case is omitted :

"Tis distance ∧ lends enchantment to the view."

"I have a brother ∧ is condemned to die."

Note to the teacher: Explain to the students that the omission of a Relative Pronoun in the nominative case is now quite exceptional except in colloquial speech.

There's somebody at the door ∧ wants to see you.

OMISSION OF THE ANTECEDENT

Sometimes the Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun is left out; such as,

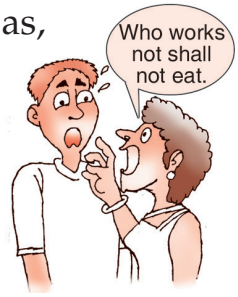

Who works not shall not eat.

= (He) who works not shall not eat.

Whom the gods love, die young.

= (Those) whom the gods love die young.

AGREEMENT OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN AND ITS ANTECEDENT

When the subject of a verb is a relative pronoun, care should be taken to see that the verb agrees in number and person with the antecedent of the relative; such as,

1. This is one of the most interesting novels *that have* (*not, has*) appeared this year.
2. He is one of the cleverest boys *that have* passed through the school.
3. One of the greatest judges *that have* ever lived laid this down as law.
4. It was one of the best speeches *that have* ever been made in the House of Commons.
5. This is the only one of his poems *that is* (*not, are*) worth reading.

   [Here the antecedent of *that* is *one*. "Of his poems this is the only one that is worth reading."]

POSITION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

To prevent ambiguity, the Relative Pronoun should be placed as near as possible to its Antecedent; such as,

The boy *who* won the first prize in English is the son of my friend, Mr Joshi.

It would mean something quite different if we separate the Relative Pronoun from its Antecedent and say —

The boy is the son of my friend, Mr Joshi, *who* won the first prize.

Again such a sentence as "I have read Gokhale's speeches, *who* was a disciple of Ranade" would be improved if changed to "I have read the speeches of Gokhale, *who* was a disciple of Ranade."

So also the following sentence requires to be rearranged:

I with my family reside in a village near Puna *which* consists of my wife and three children.

Pronouns of the third person plural should not be used as antecedents to *who* and *that*; such as,

They that are whole have no need of a physician.

Here *those* is to be preferred to *they*.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Pronouns formed by adding *ever, so,* or *soever to who, which*, and *what* are called **Compound Relative Pronouns**.

Whoever, whoso, whosoever; whichever, whichsoever; whatever, whatsoever.

These relatives have no antecedent expressed.

Whosoever (= any and every person who) exalteth himself shall be abased.

Whoso diggeth a pit shall fall therein.

Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.

The forms *whoever*, *whichever*, and *whatever* are now ordinarily used; such as,

Whoever (i.e., any person who) comes is welcome.

Take *whichever* (i.e., any which) you like.

I will take with me *whomsoever* you choose.

Whatever (i.e., anything which) he does he does well.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, name their Antecedents, and give the Person, Number, Gender, and Case of each.

1. The cat killed the rat that ate the corn.
2. Bring me the letters which the postman left.
3. I hate children who are cruel.
4. You have not brought the book that I asked for.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with suitable Relative Pronouns.

1. God helps those ..... help themselves.
2. Is this the way ..... leads to the station?
3. We saw the dog ..... worried the cat.
4. He is a man ..... you can trust.

EXERCISE 3

Work in pairs. Join together each of the following pairs of sentences by means of a Relative Pronoun.

1. The thief stole the watch. The thief was punished.
2. Coal is found in West Bengal. It is a very useful mineral.
3. That boy bowls very well. You see him there.
4. The boy tells lies. He deserves to be punished.

Chapter 8 Interrogative Pronouns

Examine the following sentences.

1. *Who* is he? He is Rama, my cousin.
2. *Who* is she? She is Sita, my cousin.
3. *Who* are those two people? They are Rama and Sita, my cousins.
4. *Whom* did you see? I saw Rama.
5. *Whom* do you know in this town? I know many people.
6. About *whom* are you talking? I am talking about Rama.
7. *Whose* is this bat? It is Rama's.
8. *Whose* is this saree? It is Sita's.
9. *Whose* are those names? They are the names of the winners.
10. *Whose* is that car? That is my uncle's car.

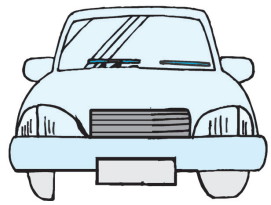

We observe that the words in italics in the above sentences are **Interrogative Pronouns.**

We also observe that the Interrogative Pronoun ***who*** has *different forms* for Objective and Possessive.

The forms are however the same for singular and plural, masculine and feminine.

Nominative:	who
Possessive:	whose
Objective:	whom

The Interrogative Pronouns *who*, *whom* and *whose* are used for *people* only.

In the following sentences the Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking indirect questions.

I asked *who* was speaking.
Tell me *what* you have done.
Say *which* you would like best.

Again consider the following sentences:

Who gave you that knife?	(Nominative)
Whose is this book?	(Possessive)
Whom did you see? To *whom* were you speaking?	(Accusative)
What is that?	(Nominative)

It will be seen that the Interrogative Pronoun *who* has different forms for the Nominative, Genitive (Possessive) and Accusative Cases.

Nominative:	who		Masculine and Feminine
Possessive:	whose	→	Singular and Plural
Accusative:	whom		

What and *which* do not have different forms for different cases.

Who is used for persons only.

Who spoke? (We expect the answer to be the name of a person.)

Whose is this umbrella? *Whom* did you see?

Which is used for both *people* and *things.* It implies selection, that is, it implies a question concerning a limited number.

Which is your friend? *Which* are your books?

What is used of *things* only.

What have you found? (We expect the answer to be the name of a thing.)

In the following sentences *which* and *what* are used as Interrogative Adjectives:

Which book are you reading?

What books have you read?

In the following sentences the words in italics are used as **Compound Interrogative Pronouns**:

Whoever told you so? *Whatever* are you doing?

Note: The forms *whoever, whichever, whatever* are intensive.

Today *who* is normally used instead of *whom* in spoken English and informal writing. *Whom* is used in a formal style. When *who* is used as the object of a preposition, the preposition comes at the end of the sentence, e.g.,

Formal	*Informal*
Whom are you calling?	*Who* are you calling?
About *whom* are you talking?	*Who* are you talking about?
By *whom* was the poem written?	*Who* was the poem written by?

EXERCISE

Use the correct form of the Interrogative Pronoun in the following.

1. ..... wishes to see you?
2. ..... did she say was the winner?
3. ..... of the girls can sew the best?
4. ..... of you has done this?
5. ..... was that speaking to you?
6. ..... do you think they are?
7. ..... of these bats will you take?
8. ..... is that for?
9. ..... have you decided to do?
10. ..... did they fight each other for?
11. ..... of these ladies is your mother?
12. ..... is going to take out the trash?

Chapter 9 Demonstrative and Indefinite Pronouns

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Consider the following sentences:

This is a present from my uncle.

These are merely excuses.

Both cars are good; but *this* is better than *that*.

Mumbai mangoes are better than *those* of Bengaluru.

Make haste, *that's* a good boy.

[Here *that* = one who makes haste.]

There is no period in ancient Indian history so glorious as *that* of the Guptas. [Do not write, "as the Guptas".]

I may have offended, but *such* was not my intention.

It will be noticed that the Pronouns in italics are used to *point out* the objects to which they refer, and are therefore called **Demonstrative Pronouns**. (Latin *demonstrare*, which means, "to show clearly".)

This, that, etc., are (Demonstrative) *Adjectives* when they are used with nouns; such as,

What was *that* noise?

This horse is better than *that* horse.

All *such* people ought to be avoided.

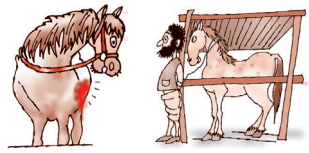

This refers to what is close at hand, and nearest to the thought or person of the speaker; *that* refers to what is 'over there,' farther away, and more remote.

This is better than *that*.

That, with its plural *those*, is used to avoid the repetition of a preceding Noun; such as,

The climate of Belgaum is like *that* of Pune.

The rivers of America are larger than *those* of Europe.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

Consider the following sentences:

1. *One* hardly knows what to do.
2. *One* cannot be too careful about what *one* (not, *he*) says.
3. *One* cannot be too careful of *one's* (not, *his*) good name.
4. *One* must use *one's* best efforts if *one* wishes to succeed.
5. *None* of his poems are well known.
6. *None* but fools have ever believed it.

[*None* is a shortened form of *not one;* yet it is commonly used with plural verbs.]

They (= people in general) say he has lost heavily.
All were drowned.
Somebody has stolen my watch.
Nobody was there to rescue the child.
Few escaped unhurt.
Many of them were Gurkhas.
We did not see *any* of them again.
One or *other* of us will be there.
Do good to *others*.
What is *everybody's* business is *nobody's* business.
His words are in *everyone's* mouth.

All these Pronouns in italics refer to people or things in a *general* way, but do not refer to any person or thing in particular. They are therefore called **Indefinite Pronouns**.

Note: The Indefinite Pronoun *one* should be used throughout, if used at all.

Most of these words may also be used as Adjectives.
I will take you there *one* day. *Any* fool can do that.
He is a man of *few* words. *Some* milk was spilt.

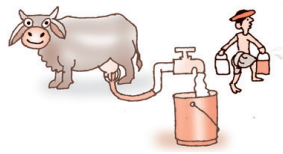

In referring to *anybody, everybody, everyone, anyone, each,* etc., the pronoun *he* or *she* is used according to the context; such as,

I shall be glad to help *everyone* of my boys in *his* studies.

But when the sex is not determined, we can use the pronoun of the *masculine* gender, as there is no singular pronoun of the third person to represent both male and female.

If *anybody* knows the truth, let *him* tell it.
Everybody is discontented with *his* lot in life.
Everyone likes to have *his* way.
Anyone can do this if *he* tries.
Each must do *his* best.

Note that today it is more usual to use a plural pronoun (*they/them/their*) except in very formal English.

EXERCISE

Pick out the Indefinite Pronouns in the following sentences, and give the Number and Case of each.

1. Many are called, but few are chosen.
2. Some say he is mad.
3. Somebody wants to see you.
4. Anyone could tell you that.
5. None of my friends is of your opinion.
6. If any of them are there, tell them to come at once.
7. Some were paid in gold, some in silver.
8. Some were for surrender, more for an advance.
9. If anybody knows the truth, let him tell it.
10. There is none I love like thee.
11. One cannot help smiling at what he says.
12. One does one thing, another does another.

Chapter 10 Reflexive and Emphatic Pronouns

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

When ***-self*** is added to *my, your, him, her, it*, and ***-selves*** to *our, your, them,* we get what are called Compound Personal Pronouns.

They are called **Reflexive Pronouns** when the action done by the subject turns back (*reflects*) upon the subject; as,

I hurt *myself.*
You will hurt *yourself.*
He hurt *himself.*
She hurt *herself.*
The dog hurt *itself.*

We hurt *ourselves*.
You will hurt *yourself*.
They hurt *themselves*.

It will be noticed that each of these Reflexive Pronouns is used as the *Object* of a verb, and refers to the same person or thing as that denoted by the Subject of the verb.

EMPHATIC PRONOUNS

Now look at the following sentences.

I will do it *myself*.
You *yourself* can best explain.
I was told so by the teacher *himself*.
They *themselves* admitted their guilt.

I *myself* saw him do it.
She *herself* says so.
The town *itself* is not very large.

It will be seen that here Compound Personal Pronouns are used for the sake of *emphasis*, and are therefore called Emphatic (or Emphasizing) Pronouns.

EXERCISE

Fill in the blanks using appropriate Reflexive and Emphatic pronouns.

1. She washes her clothes …….. .
2. We enjoyed …….. at the party.
3. The little boy sat by …… .
4. He absented …… from the class.
5. The minister ……. said this.
6. She was so much in love with …….. that she thought of none else.
7. Betrayed by his friends, he killed …….. .
8. Love thy neighbour as …… .
9. He …… told me this.
10. You ……. know better than anybody else.
11. He …… is responsible for this.
12. She is old enough to dress …….. now.
13. The manager spoke to me …….. .
14. The house …… is nice, but the garden is small.

Unit 4
Adjectives

Chapter 11 Definition and Types

Read the sentences given below:

1. Rama is a *smart* boy.
2. *Lazy* students fail.
3. Govind is *poor* but *honest.*
4. America is a *rich* country.

The above sentences contain nouns which you can easily identify. Each of these nouns is accompanied by a *describing word.* These describing words reveal more information about these nouns.

Thus, the word *smart* tells *what kind* of boy Rama is.
The word *lazy* tells *what kind* of students fail.
The words *poor* and *honest* tell *what kind* of man Govind is.
The word *rich* tells *what kind* of country America is.

In grammar, describing words are called **Adjectives**. They are so called because they *add something to the meaning of a noun.*

[*Adjective* means *added to.*]

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Adjectives in the following sentences, and say why you think they are adjectives.

1. The horse is a noble animal.
2. Kolkata is a big city.
3. Lead is a heavy metal.
4. The cow is a useful animal.
5. The rose is a beautiful flower.
6. Ahmed is a poor man.
7. Our school has a large playground.
8. Dhondu is a cruel fellow.
9. Radha is a sweet singer.
10. Mumbai has a fine harbour.
11. Mary has a little lamb.
12. Mr Pai is a rich merchant.

EXERCISE 2

Can you solve this crossword? The words are all Adjectives.

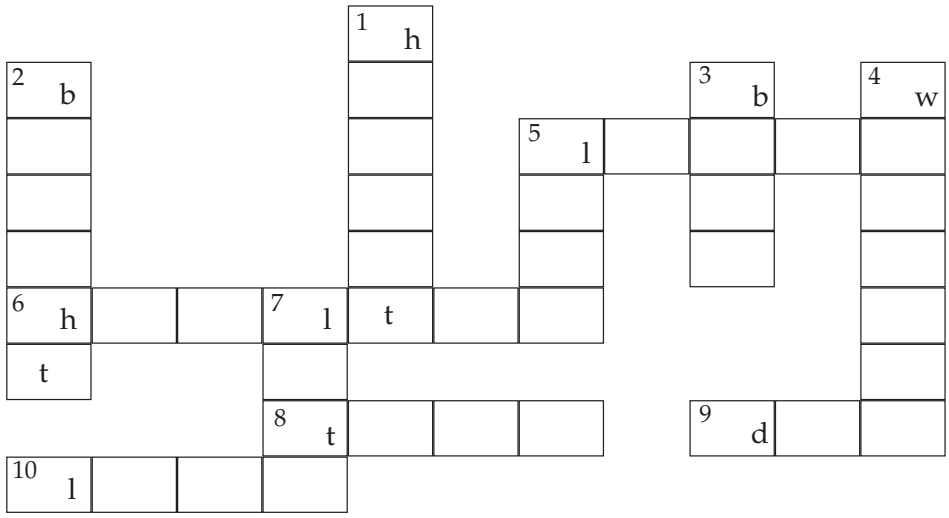

CLUES

Down

1. An ..... person is one who always tells the truth and never steals or cheats
2. Opposite of "dull"
3. Opposite of "timid"
4. A person who has a lot of money
5. If you are ..... , you will fail in the exam
7. Opposite of "early"

Across

5. Opposite of "small"
6. If you stop smoking, you will be .....
8. A ..... friend is one who helps you when you really need help
9. Opposite of "wet"
10. A person who is not able to walk well because of injury to the legs or feet

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with Adjectives.

1. The girl has a ..... voice.
2. Be a ..... boy.
3. The lion is a ..... animal.
4. What a ..... beast the elephant is!
5. In ..... weather we often get thirsty.
6. Always keep drinking water in a .....vessel.
7. No tidy children will have ..... hands.
8. The ..... man is walking with a crutch.
9. Ah! What a ..... mistake I made!
10. Which is the ..... way to the station?
11. We should always wear .....clothes.
12. Mumbai has a ..... harbour.
13. We want plenty of ..... air.
14. Ashoka was a ..... king.
15. I heard a ..... bird singing its ..... song.
16. A giraffe has a ..... neck.

KINDS OF ADJECTIVES

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY

Adjectives that tell us of what kind a person or thing is, are called **Adjectives of Quality.** Since they *describe* a person or thing, they are also called **Descriptive Adjectives.**

All the adjectives in the above exercise, as well as in the examples at the beginning of the chapter, are Adjectives of Quality.

Adjectives of Quality answer the question "Of what kind?"

EXERCISE 4

Write down ten sentences each containing two Adjectives of Quality.

ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY/NUMBER

Read the sentences below and note the words in italics.

1. *Four* boys ran down the street.
2. There are *twenty* boys in this class.
3. Shakespeare wrote *many* plays.
4. I want *some* money.
5. He has *much* money.
6. There is *little* hope of victory.

In the above six sentences, each noun has an adjective which tells us *how many* or *how much.*

Adjectives, which tell us *how many* or *how much,* are called **Adjectives of Quantity** or **Number**.

These adjectives of quantity may express a *definite* number like *four* or *twenty* or an *indefinite* number or amount like *few, some, several, much* or *many.*

You may include among them those adjectives which show the *order* in a series, as, *first, second, third,* etc.

The *fourth* bottle in the row is mine.

Adjectives of Quantity answer the question "How many?" or "How much?" or denote the *order* in a series.

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the Adjectives of Quantity in the following sentences.

1. Step back three paces.
2. I have told you this many times already.

3. He is a man of few words.
4. He is ninety years of age.
5. Rama was second in the race and Arjun was the last boy to reach the post.
6. He made five goals during the third match of the season.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES

Read the sentences below and note the words in italics.

1. Who is *this* girl?
2. Listen to *that* boy.
3. I like *these* bananas.
4. I want *those* mangoes, not the others.
5. Look at *that* monkey.
6. I hate *such* things.

It is clear that the adjectives in the above sentences are used *to point out* the thing or person that is spoken about.

Adjectives that are used to point out specific people or things are called **Demonstrative Adjectives.**

They answer the question "Which?"

EXERCISE 6

Pick out the Demonstrative Adjectives in the following sentences.

1. Is that cap yours?
2. On those hills my father feeds his flock.
3. Do you think these boots would fit you?
4. Is this book the one you want?
5. Oh! look at that funny kitten.
6. I don't like those friends of yours.
7. These mangoes are ripe.

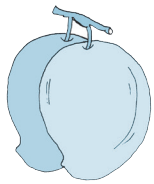

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES

Read the sentences below and note the words in italics.

1. *What* kind of man is he?
2. *Which* way shall we go?
3. *Which* banana do you want?

In the above sentences, the adjectives *what* and *which* ask questions. They are therefore called **Interrogative Adjectives.**

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES

Read the sentences below and note the words in italics.

1. This is *my* desk.
2. That is *your* book.

In the above sentences, the adjectives *my* and *your* are called **Possessive Adjectives**, because they tell about the possession of a thing.

EXERCISE 7

Read the following sentences and say what kind of Adjective each one is, and which noun it belongs to.

1. The poor old woman gets little food.
2. I saw several sheep in that valley.
3. One little lamb was lame.
4. I want some money.
5. That idle fellow, Abdul, is the nineteenth boy in this class.
6. There is no reason why he should not get some serious punishment.
7. One lovely hand she stretched for aid.
8. Let us see these handsome houses where the wealthy nobles dwell.

9. Many a gallant gay domestic bows before him at the gate.
10. Tell me not, in mournful numbers, life is but an empty dream.
11. The army only rusts in these days of piping peace.
12. Look at that lazy foolish fellow!
13. A straight and wide road turns to the barracks.
14. Happy and prosperous days await him.
15. The movie "Titanic" was a big hit.

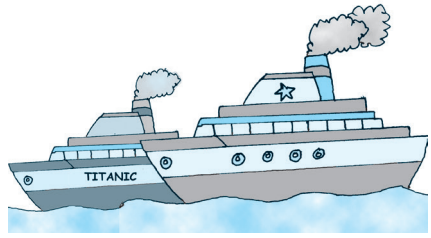

ATTRIBUTIVE & PREDICATIVE USE OF ADJECTIVES

Read the sentences below and note the words in italics.

1. A *big black* horse stood in the compound.
2. The horse was *big* and *black*.

In sentence 1 the adjectives *big* and *black* are juxtaposed with the noun *horse* with which they go.

In sentence 2 the adjectives *big* and *black* are not near the noun *horse,* and help to form the predicate.

When an adjective is juxtaposed with the noun with which it goes, it is said to be used ***Attributively.***

When an adjective is placed away from its noun and helps to form the predicate, it is said to be used ***Predicatively.***

EXERCISE 8

Pick out all the Adjectives in the following sentences, and say to which class each of them belongs.

1. The ship sustained heavy damage.
2. Every dog has his day.
3. A live ass is better than a dead lion.
4. Neither party is quite in the right.

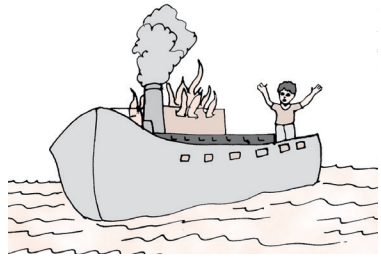

5. What time is it?
6. Which pen do you prefer?
7. Abdul won the second prize.
8. My uncle lives in the next house.
9. Some dreams are like reality.
10. There should not be much talk and little work.

As already pointed out, *this* and *that* are the only adjectives which are inflected or changed in form to show number.

This girl sings. *These* girls sing.
That boy plays. *Those* boys play.
This, these indicate something near to the speaker.
That, those indicate more distant objects.

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES

(i) Many Adjectives are formed from Nouns.			
Noun	*Adjective*	*Noun*	*Adjective*
boy	boyish	dirt	dirty
care	careful	pardon	pardonable
trouble	troublesome	courage	courageous
(ii) Some Adjectives are formed from Verbs.			
tire	tireless	cease	ceaseless
talk	talkative	move	moveable
(iii) Some Adjectives are formed from other Adjectives.			
tragic	tragical	black	blackish
whole	wholesome	white	whitish
three	threefold	sick	sickly

Chapter 12 Comparison of Adjectives

Examine the sentences given below:

1. That man is *rich.*
2. My uncle is *richer* than him.
3. My father is the *richest* man in the town.

It will be seen that Adjectives change in form (*rich, richer, richest*) to show *comparison.* These three forms are called the three **Degrees of Comparison.**

The Simple form of the adjective is called the **Positive Degree**; such as, *rich.*

When comparing *two* objects and saying that one possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than the other, we use the *comparative* form of the adjective. We call *richer* the **Comparative Degree** of *rich.*

When we say that a certain object possesses a quality in the greatest degree of all that are being compared, we use the ***superlative*** form; hence the superlative form of the adjective is used when comparing ***more than two*** objects. We call ***richest*** the **Superlative Degree** of ***rich.***

DEGREES OF ADJECTIVE

Examine how the degrees of comparison of the following adjectives are formed.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
tall	taller	tallest
short	shorter	shortest
great	greater	greatest
bold	bolder	boldest
young	younger	youngest
noble	nobler	noblest
fine	finer	finest
brave	braver	bravest
large	larger	largest

heavy	heavier	heaviest
pretty	prettier	prettiest
happy	happier	happiest
merry	merrier	merriest
fat	fatter	fattest
big	bigger	biggest
sad	sadder	saddest
red	redder	reddest

The Comparative is usually formed by adding *-er* to the Positive.

The Superlative is usually formed by ading *-est* to the Positive.

When the Positive ends in ***–y*** preceded by a consonant, ***–y*** is changed into *i* before ***–er*** and ***–est.***

When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a single consonant preceded by a short vowel, the final consonant is doubled before ***–er*** and ***–est.***

Most two-syllable adjectives (mainly adjectives ending in ***–ed, –ing*** and ***–ful*)** and all adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative by adding **more** and **most** before the positive form.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
tired	more tired	most tired
boring	more boring	most boring
awful	more awful	most awful
thoughtful	more thoughtful	most thoughtful
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
interesting	more interesting	most interesting
intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent

There are a few adjectives whose comparative and superlative forms are *irregular.* The most important are the following:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
little	less	least
much	more	most

many	more	most
late	later or latter	latest or last
far	farther	farthest
	further	furthest
old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

FORMATION OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE

1. Most Adjectives of *one* syllable, and some two-syllable adjectives, form the Comparative by adding ***-er*** and the Superlative by adding ***-est*** to the Positive.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
sweet	sweeter	sweetest
small	smaller	smallest
clever	cleverer	cleverest

2. When the Positive ends in *e*, only ***-r*** and ***-st*** are added.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
brave	braver	bravest
large	larger	largest
wise	wiser	wisest

3. When the Positive ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* before adding ***-er*** and ***-est.***

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
happy	happier	happiest
easy	easier	easiest
heavy	heavier	heaviest

4. When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a *single* consonant, preceded by a *short vowel*, this consonant is doubled before adding ***-er*** and ***-est.***

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
red	redder	reddest
big	bigger	biggest
hot	hotter	hottest

5. Most two-syllable adjectives (mainly adjectives ending in ***-ed, -ing*** *and* ***-ful***) and all adjectives of three or more syllables form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding ***more*** and ***most*** before the positive.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
tired	more tired	most tired
pleasing	more pleasing	most pleasing
cheerful	more cheerful	most cheerful
proper	more proper	most proper
courageous	more courageous	most courageous
industrious	more industrious	most industrious

Abdul is *more courageous* than Karim.

Rahim is the *most courageous* boy in the village.

Note: The comparative (***-er)*** is not used when we compare two qualities in the same person or thing. If we wish to say that Rama has more courage than Balu, then we say,

Rama is *braver* than Balu.

But if we wish to say that Rama 's courage is greater than his prudence, we must say,

Rama is *more brave* than prudent.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON

The following Adjectives are compared *irregularly*, that is, their Comparative and Superlative forms are very different from their Positive form.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
good, well	better	best
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
little	less, lesser	least
much	more	most (quantity)
many	more	most (number)

late	later, latter	latest, last
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest

EXERCISE 1

Write the comparative and superlative forms of the given Adjectives.

black, excellent, ill, gloomy, mad, safe, bad, unjust, gay, able, dry, timid, ugly, true, severe, exact, agreeable, difficult, little, few, numerous, merry

ADJECTIVES OFTEN CONFUSED

Here is a list of Adjectives often confused.

1. Later, latter; latest, last: *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* refer to position.

   He is *later* than I expected.

   I have not heard the *latest* news.

   The *latter* chapters are lacking in interest.

   The *last* chapter is carelessly written.

Latter is often wrongly used for *last*. Use *latter* when only two things are discussed, use *last* when more than two things are discussed.

Of the three, tea, coffee and cocoa, the *last* (not *latter*) is his favourite.

2. Elder, older; eldest, oldest: *Elder* and *eldest* are used only for people, not for animals or things; and are confined to members of the same family. *Elder* is not followed by *than*. *Older* and *oldest* are used for both people and things.

   John is my *elder* brother. Tom is my *eldest* son.

   He is *older* than his sister.

   Rama is the *oldest* boy in the class.

3. Farther, further: Both *farther* and *further* are used to express distance. *Further,* not *farther,* is used to mean "additional".

   Kolkata is *farther/further* from the equator than Colombo.

   After this he made no *further* remarks.

4. Nearest, next: *Nearest* denotes distance; *next* denotes position.

Mumbai is the seaport *nearest* to Europe.

My uncle lives in the *next* house.

The *two first* is a meaningless expression, for two things can never be first. We should say "the *first two*."

The *first two* chapters of the novel are rather dull.

EXERCISE 2

(a) Fill in the blanks with "later" or "latter".

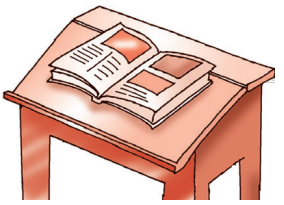

1. The ..... part of the book shows signs of hurry.
2. I prefer the ..... proposition to the former.
3. Is there no ..... news than last week's?

(b) Fill in the blanks with "older" or "elder".

1. I have an ..... sister.
2. Rama is ..... than Hari by two years.
3. His ..... brother is in the Indian Police Service.

(c) Fill in the blanks with "oldest" or "eldest".

1. Rustam is the ..... of my uncle's five sons.
2. He is the ..... member of the School Committee.
3. That is Antonio, the Duke's ..... son.

(d) Fill in the blanks with "latest" or "last".

1. The ..... news from China is very disquieting.
2. The ..... time I saw him, he was in high spirits.
3. Today is the ..... day for receiving tenders.

(e) Fill in the blanks with "nearest" or "next".

1. This is the ..... post-office to my house.
2. The pillar-box is ..... to my house.
3. The burglar was taken to the ..... police station.

MORE ABOUT COMPARATIVE DEGREE

1. Certain English words ending in *-er* are used as Positives. They are not followed by *than*. These include:

   former, latter, elder, upper, inner, outer.

   Both the tiger and the leopard are cats; the *former* animal is much larger than the *latter*.

   The *inner* meaning of this letter is not clear.

   The soldiers ran to defend the *outer* wall.

2. Certain words borrowed from Latin have no Positive or Superlative degrees. They end in *-or*. These are:

   interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor.

   He is suffering from some *minor* illness.

   I have no *ulterior* motive in offering you the help.

3. Certain adjectives ending in *-or* are followed by the preposition *to; such* as,

   inferior, superior, prior, anterior, posterior, senior, junior.

   Hari is *inferior to* Rama in intelligence.

   Rama's intelligence is *superior to* Hari's.

4. *Preferable* is followed by *to.* The usage *more preferable* is wrong.

   Tea with milk is *preferable to* coffee.

EXERCISE 3

Point out the Adjectives and identify the Degree of Comparison.

1. The poor woman had seen happier days.
2. Make less noise.
3. That child has a slight cold.
4. A live ass is stronger than a dead lion.
5. Solomon was one of the wisest men.
6. Hunger is the best sauce.
7. His simple word is as good as an oath.
8. My knife is sharper than yours.

EXERCISE 4

Make three columns, and write the following Adjectives in the Positive, Comparative and Superlative Degrees.

shameful, clever, pretty, interesting, hopeful, honest

EXERCISE 5

Supply the proper form (Comparative or Superlative) of the Adjective to fill in the blanks.

[Note. The Comparative and not the Superlative should be used to compare two things.]

1. *Good* — How is your brother today? Is he .....?
2. *Idle* — Hari is the ..... boy in the class.
3. *Sharp* — Your knife is sharp, but mine is .....
4. *Old* — Mani is two years ..... than Rati.
5. *Good* — He is the ..... friend I have.
6. *Bad* — Rama's work is bad, Hari's is ..... but Govind's is the .....?

EXERCISE 6

Work in pairs. Supply appropriate Comparatives or Superlatives.

1. Prevention is ..... than cure.
2. The pen is ..... than the sword.
3. It has a ..... circulation than any other newspaper.
4. Which of the two girls has the ..... dress?
5. Balu is the ..... bowler in our eleven.
6. The piano was knocked down to the ..... bidder.
7. It is good to be clever, but it is ..... to be industrious.
8. Mount Everest is the ..... mountain peak in the world.

9. Gold is ..... than silver.
10. The giraffe is the ..... of all animals.

EXERCISE 7

Work with your partner. Change the following sentences by using "less" or "least" without changing the meaning.

1. The mango is sweeter than the pineapple.
2. Silver is more plentiful than gold.
3. Iron is more useful than copper.

Note the following points:

1. It is impossible to compare some adjectives, as they express the highest possible degree of a quality, *e.g., circular, square, eternal, perfect, dead, full,* etc.
2. *This* and *that* alone among adjectives have plural forms, *these* and *those.* Thus we say: *this* boy, but *these* boys; *that* man, but *those* men.

INTERCHANGE OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON

It is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective in a sentence, without changing the meaning of the sentence. Here are a few examples.

Superlative	—	Lead is the *heaviest* of all metals.
Comparative	—	Lead is *heavier* than all other metals.
Comparative	—	Mahableshwar is *cooler* than Panchgani.
Positive	—	Panchgani is not *so cool* as Mahableshwar.
Positive	—	He is *as wise* as Solomon.
Comparative	—	Solomon was not *wiser than* he is.
Superlative	—	*Shakuntala* is the *best* drama in Sanskrit.
Comparative	—	*Shakuntala* is *better* than any other drama in Sanskrit.
Positive	—	No other drama in Sanskrit is *so good as Shakuntala.*

EXERCISE 8

Change the Degree of Comparison of the adjectives in the sentences below, without changing the meaning.

1. India is the largest democracy in the world.
2. Some beans are at least as nutritious as meat.
3. Very few boys are so industrious as Latif.
4. He would sooner die than tell a lie.
5. Samudragupta was one of the greatest of Indian kings.
6. The tiger is the most ferocious of all animals.
7. Lead is heavier than any other metal.

Unit 5
Articles

Chapter 13 Definite and Indefinite Articles

The words *a*, *an* and *the* are called **Articles.**

A is used before a consonant sound and ***an***, before a vowel sound; *i.e.*, a boy, a girl, a computer, a house, a European, a university, a union, an orange, an umbrella, an hour, an heir, an honest man, etc.

An apple

The - Definite

A, An - Indefinite

A doctor

The Taj Mahal

The words 'European', 'university' and 'union' begin with a consonant sound. The words 'hour', 'heir' and 'honest' begin with a vowel sound. It is the sound that matters, not the spelling.

The word *a/an* is called the ***Indefinite Article,*** because it leaves *indefinite* the person or thing talked about.

I want *a ruler.* (i.e., any ruler)

The word *the* is called the ***Definite Article***, because it points out some particular person or thing.

I returned *the ruler.* (i.e., some particular ruler)

When we speak about a person or thing for the first time, we generally use *a/an.* When we speak about the same person or thing again, we generally use *the*.

1. A boy met *a man* with *an* elephant. *The boy* saw *the* man feed *the elephant*.
2. *A man* once sailed on *a* ship to *an island.* The people of *the island* saw *the man* come off *the ship*.

When we speak about a person or thing for the first time, it is not clear which

one we mean. When we refer to the same person or thing again, it is clear which one we mean.

As a general rule, we use *the* when it is clear from the context which person or thing we mean; we use *a/an* when it is not clear which one we mean. Study the following examples:

The milkman is coming. (We know which milkman.)

A milkman fell off his bicycle. (We don't know which milkman. A milkman = a certain milkman)

Let's go to *the park*. (= the park we usually go to)

Is there *a park* in this town? (not definite)

The girl standing there is my niece. (The words "standing there" tell us which girl.)

A girl was hit by a bike. (We don't know which girl.)

The is used before superlative adjectives (*e.g. tallest, largest, best*) and adjectives like *first*, *second*, *third*, etc.

India is *the largest* democracy in the world.

Neil Armstrong was *the* first man to land on the moon.

The is used before Common Nouns which are names of things unique of their kind (that is, of which there is only one thing or one class), *e.g.,*

the sun, *the* earth, *the* moon, *the* stars, *the* sky, etc.

The is used before Common Nouns when the name of an animal, plant, or other thing, is taken as a type of its class, *e.g.,*

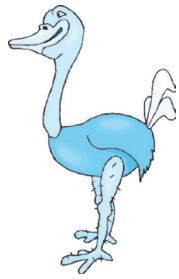

1. *The* cow is a useful animal.
2. *The* ostrich is a huge bird.
3. *The* mango is the best fruit.
4. *The* banyan is a kind of fig tree.

[Do not say, "a kind of a fig tree." This is a common error.]

The is used with adjectives which do the work of nouns, *e.g.,*

1. *The* poor are often happier than *the* rich.
2. Honour *the* brave, feed *the* hungry, clothe *the* naked, care for *the* fatherless.

Uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns do not take an article when used in a general sense.

1. *Coffee* is not good for you.
2. *Honesty* is the best policy.
3. *Faith*, *hope* and *charity* are great virtues.
4. *Gold* is more precious than *silver*.
5. *Computers* enable us to deal with a lot of data very quickly.
6. *Children* like *chocolates*.

But they take *the* when used in a particular sense. Compare sentences 1, 5 and 6 above with the following:

The coffee is boiling. (= the coffee in the kettle)

These are *the computers* that we bought last week.

Where are *the children*? (= our children)

Most proper nouns do not have an article. A few take *the.* They include the following:

1. Plural nouns referring to a whole family
   the Guptas, *the* Mehtas, *the* Wilsons
2. Names of rivers and canals
   the Ganga, *the* Suez Canal
3. Names of seas and oceans
   the Black Sea, *the* Pacific Ocean
4. Plural place names
   the Himalayas, *the* West Indies, *the* United States of America (*the* USA), *the* Netherlands

We use *a*/*an* (apart from its use referred to before)

1. in the sense of "one"
   We waited at the bus stop for *an* hour.
2. in the sense of "each" or "every"
   The cloth is ₹60 *a* metre.
   We have computer classes twice *a* week.

3. to describe somebody or something or to say what somebody's job is
   Usha is *a* clever girl.
   It was *a* delicious cake.
   My uncle is *a* doctor.

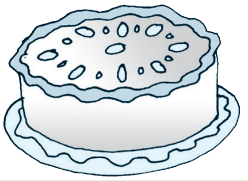

Note: There are exceptions to many of these rules. The use of articles is a matter of idiom as much as grammatical rule. You will be able to learn the use of articles better by reading and listening to standard English.

Study the following sentences carefully and say them aloud several times.

1. There was a time when I thought as you do.
2. This is not the time to sit idle.
3. There is a time for work and a time for play.
4. I shall have liked to rest but I hadn't the time.
5. It will soon be time to go home.
6. Home, sweet home! There's no place like home.
7. I suppose he has a home to go to.
8. India is the home of the tiger.
9. Courage and truth are great virtues.
10. He had the courage to tell the truth.
11. I never heard of a courage such as his.
12. It is a great truth.

EXERCISE 1

Complete the following sentences by filling in *a*, *an* or *the* as may be suitable.

1. He looks as stupid as ..... owl.
2. I bought ..... horse, ... ox and ..... buffalo.
3. The guide knows ..... way.
4. ..... students of Class 1 are having a party.

5. Rice is ..... staple diet of the people of Bengal.
6. He is ..... honour to his country.
7. French is ..... easy language.
8. The children found ..... egg in the nest.
9. ..... sun shines brightly.
10. I have come without ..... umbrella.
11. ..... lion is ..... king of beasts.
12. Sri Lanka is ..... island.

EXERCISE 2

Insert Articles wherever necessary.

1. While there is life there is hope.
2. I have not seen him since he was child.
3. Umbrella is of no avail against thunderstorm.
4. How blue sky looks!
5. The doctor says it is hopeless case.
6. Get kilo of sugar from nearest grocer.
7. My favourite flower is rose.
8. What kind of bird is that?
9. There is nothing like staying at home for comfort.
10. Wild animals suffer when kept in captivity.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE: A OR AN

The choice between *a* and *an* is determined by *sound*. Before a word beginning with a vowel sound *an* is used; such as,

> *an* ass, *an* enemy, *an* inkpad, *an* orange, *an* umbrella; *an* hour, *an* honest man, *an* heir.

It will be noticed that the words *hour, honest, heir,* begin with a vowel sound, as the initial consonant ***h*** is not pronounced.

Before a word beginning with a consonant sound *a* is used; such as,

a boy, *a* reindeer, *a* woman, *a* yard, *a* horse, *a* hole; also

a university, *a* union, *a* European, *a* ewe, *a* unicorn, *a* useful article

because these words (*university, union,* etc.) begin with a consonant sound, that of ***yu*.**

Similarly we say,

a one-rupee coin, such *a* one, *a* one-eyed man, because *one* begins with the consonant sound of ***w*.**

Before words beginning with *h* and not accented on the first syllable, *an* is often used; such as,

an honourable position, *an* honest man.

USE OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE : A/AN

The Indefinite Article is used —

1. In its original numerical sense of *one;* such as,
   Wait *a* minute.
   A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
2. In the vague sense of *a certain;* such as,
   One evening *a* beggar came to my door.
3. In the sense of *any,* to single out an individual as the representative of a class; such as,
   A pupil should obey his teacher.
4. To describe somebody or something or to say what somebody's job is; such as,
   He is *a* clever boy.
   This is *a* useful book.
   My aunt is *a* doctor.
5. To make a common noun of a proper noun; such as,
   A Daniel come to judgment. (A Daniel = a very wise man)

USE OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE: THE

The Definite Article *the* is used —

1. When we speak of a *particular* person or thing, or one *already referred to;* such as,

   Let's go to *the park.* (= the park we usually go to)

   The book you want is out of print.

   I dislike *the fellow.*

2. When a *singular* noun is meant to represent a whole class; such as,

   The cow is a useful animal.

   [Or we may say, "Cows are useful animals."]

   The banyan is a kind of fig tree. [Do not say, "a kind of *a* fig tree".

   This is a common error.]

3. With names of gulfs, rivers, seas, oceans, groups of islands, and mountain-ranges; such as,

   The Persian Gulf.

   The Ganga is considered holy by the Hindus.

   The Red Sea. *The* Indian Ocean.

   The British Isles, *the* Andamans.

   The Himalayas lie to the North of India. *The* Alps.

4. Before the names of books; such as,

   the Vedas, *the* Puranas, *the* Iliad, *the* Ramayana.

But we say —

   Homer's Iliad, Valmiki's Ramayana.

5. Before common nouns which are names of things unique of their kind; such as,

   the sun, *the* moon, *the* sky, *the* earth.

6. Before a proper noun only when it is qualified by an adjective or a defining adjectival clause; such as,

   The great Caesar; *the* immortal Shakespeare.

   The Mr Roy *whom* you met last night is my uncle.

7. With superlatives; such as,
   The darkest cloud has a silver lining.
   He is *the* best boy in the class.
8. Before an adjective when the noun is understood; such as,
   The poor are always with us.

OMISSION OF THE ARTICLE

The Article is omitted —

1. Before names of substances and abstract nouns (= uncountable nouns) used in a general sense; such as,
   Sugar is bad for your teeth.
   Gold is a precious metal.
   Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
   Honesty is the best policy.

Note: Uncountable nouns take *the when used in a particular sense; as*
Will you pass me *the sugar*? (= the sugar on the table)
I question *the wisdom* of giving the child so much money.

2. Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense; such as,
   Children like chocolates.
   Computers save time.
   Note that such nouns take *the* when used with a particular meaning; such as,
   Where are *the children?* (= our children)
3. Before names of meals (used in a general sense); such as,
   Dinner is ready.
   What time do you have *lunch?*
4. Before names of languages; such as,
   We are learning *English.*
   I know *Tamil.*

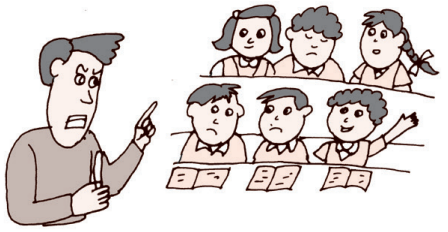

5. Before *school, college, church, hospital, prison* and *bed* when we think about the main purpose of the place; such as,

He goes to *school* regularly. (to study)
We go to *church* on Sundays. (to pray)
She has gone to *hospital* for treatment.
He was sent to *prison* for theft. (as a punishment)
What time do you go to *bed?* (to sleep)

Note: *The* is used before these words when we use the places for any other purpose or in any other way; such as,
The school is near my house.
I went to *the hospital* to see my uncle.
The bed is broken.

6. Before most proper nouns (except those referred to earlier), namely, names of people (*e.g.*, Abdul, Radha), names of continents, countries, cities, etc. (*e.g.*, Europe, Sri Lanka, Mumbai), names of individual mountains (*e.g.*, Mount Everest), individual islands, lakes, etc.
7. In certain phrases consisting of a transitive verb followed by its object; such as, to catch fire, to take breath, to give battle, to cast anchor, to send word, to bring word, to lay seige, to set sail, to lose heart, to set foot, to leave home, to take offence.
8. In certain phrases consisting of a preposition followed by its object; such as, at home, in hand, in debt, by day, by night, at daybreak, at sunrise, at noon, at sunset, at night, at anchor, at sight, on demand, at interest, on earth, by land, by water, by river, by train, by steamer, by name, on horseback, on foot, on deck, in jest, in town, at dinner, at ease.

EXERCISE 3

Supply *a* or *an* or *the* as may be suitable.

1. Copper is ..... useful metal.
2. He is not ..... honourable man.

3. Honest men speak ..... truth.
4. Do you see ..... blue sky?
5. Banaras is ..... holy city.
6. He returned after ..... hour.
7. ..... school will shortly close for the Puja holidays.
8. Yesterday ..... European called at my office.
9. I know ..... way to the park.
10. I had ..... apple for breakfast.

EXERCISE 4

A. Insert Articles where necessary.

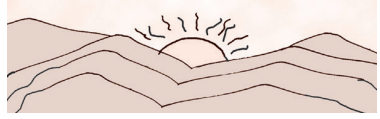

1. Sun rises in east.
2. The brave soldier lost arm in battle.
3. I like to live in open air.
4. Get pound of sugar from nearest grocer.
5. Set back clock; it is hour too fast.
6. You must take care.

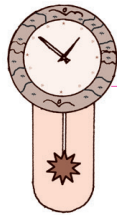

B. Compare your answers with another student's and discuss the differences in the answers if any. Decide which answers are correct before your teacher checks them.

REPETITION OF THE ARTICLE

1. When two or more descriptive adjectives qualifying the *same* noun are connected by *and,* the Article is used before *the first adjective* only; such as,

   Here is *a* French and English dictionary.

   The red and white rose. (one rose.)
2. When two or more adjectives qualify *different* nouns, expressed or understood, the Article is used before *each* adjective; such as,

The inner and *the* outer wall were both strongly defended.

The red and *the* white rose (Two roses, one red and the other white.)

The French and *the* English language

Note 1: Repetition is not considered to be necessary when the noun is put in the plural; such as,
The first and second chapters.
The French and English languages.

Note 2: The second Article is often dropped even where the reference is to different individuals or things, provided the thought would not in any way be impaired; such as,
Until we receive *the* early and later rain.

3. When two or more connected nouns refer to the *same* person or thing, the Article is ordinarily used before *the first only;* such as,

They dismissed *the* secretary and accountant. (Same person holding two offices)

Note 3: Sometimes, however, the Article is repeated for emphasis even when the reference is to one person; such as,
He was *the* orator and *the* statesman of his age.

4. When two or more connected nouns refer to *different* persons or things, the Article is used before *each*; such as

   They dismissed *the* secretary and *the* accountant.

   The teacher and *the* guardian of the lad were discussing his case.

   The rule, however, is not strictly followed.

   He bent over *the* child and mother.

5. In expressing a comparison, if two nouns refer to the *same* person or thing, the Article is used before *the first noun only;* such as,

   Wellington was *a* greater soldier than statesman.

But if the two nouns refer to *different* persons or things, the Article must be used with *each noun*; such as

He is *a* better soldier than *a* statesman (***i.e.***, than a statesman would make).

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with *a*, *an* or *the*, as may be suitable.

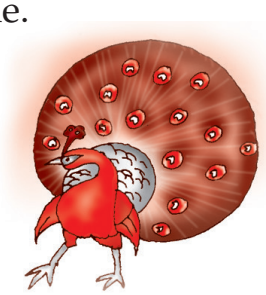

1. I like ..... blue T-shirt over there better than ..... red one.
2. ..... peacock is ..... national bird of India.
3. Vihaan's father works as ..... electrician.
4. We went to ..... cinema and saw ..... very funny movie. We really had ..... good time!
5. I borrowed ..... pencil from your pile of pencils and pens.
6. He went to ..... school by..... bike.
7. English is ..... language of ..... people of England.
8. I have come without ..... umbrella.
9. ..... lion is ..... king of beasts.
10. Aladdin had ..... wonderful lamp.
11. He returned after ..... hour.
12. ..... school will shortly close for Diwali holidays.

Exchange your answers with another student, and discuss the mistakes if any.

EXERCISE 6

Insert Articles where necessary.

1. There is nothing like staying at home for comfort.
2. Moon did not rise till after ten.
3. Wild animals suffer when kept in captivity.
4. Mathematics is most boring subject.
5. January is first month of year.
6. Rich should help poor.
7. Rose is queen of all flowers.
8. A bad workman quarrels with his tools.
9. I went to market to buy dress.
10. A one-rupee note is lying on table.

Unit 6
Verbs

Chapter 14 Definition and Usage

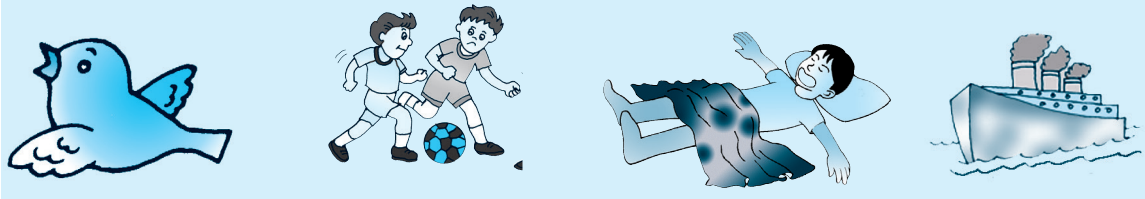

Flying Playing Sleeping Sailing

Expresses an action or a state of being.

1. Rama *plays* cricket.
2. They *wrote* it down.
3. Abdul *spoke* to me.
4. They *eat* together.
5. She *ran* to her mother.
6. The dog *barked.*
7. I *sit* on a chair.
8. He *went* for a walk.
9. The crow *saw* it.

The italicized words in the above sentences are called **Verbs**. A Verb *tells* about an action being done.

The word "verb" comes from the Latin *verbum* which means "word". It is so called because it is the most important word in a sentence. *You cannot make a sentence without a verb.* A sentence may contain only one word, but that word must be a verb.

A Verb may tell us —

1. What a person or thing *does;* such as,
   Hari *laughs.* The clock *strikes.*
2. What is *done* to a person or thing; such as,
   Hari *is scolded.* The window *is broken*.

3. What is the state of *being;* such as,

   The cat *is* dead. Glass *is* brittle. I *feel* sorry. I *am* sorry. They *are* sad.

Note that a verb is not always one word. It often consists of more than one word.

Examples:

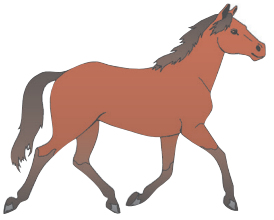

Sita *is singing.*

He *was kicked* by a horse.

She *will come* tomorrow.

The book *has been found.*

Question—What is the work of the verb? It is used to *say* something.

We have already said that, to make a sentence, we must talk about *something* (Subject), and we must *say* something about that thing (Predicate). We can say what that subject *does,* or what is *done* to it, or what it *is*.

For example, if we speak of Rama, we will say:

1. What Rama *does.* Rama *kicks* the ball.

   [The word *kicks* says what Rama does. It is therefore a Verb.]
2. What *is done* to Rama. Rama is *kicked* by a horse.

   What is his state of being. Rama *is* a good boy.

A *Verb* is a word which says something about a subject. Or we may say, a *Verb* is a word which says what a subject does, what is done to it, or what it is.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. The girl sings sweetly.
2. The boy stood on the burning deck.
3. Cocks crow in the morning.
4. Cats see in the dark.
5. The boy fell in the water.
6. I met a little cottage girl.
7. Children like mangoes.
8. Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.
9. The picture hangs on the wall.
10. The king rode on a white horse.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with Verbs.

1. Birds ..... nests in trees.
2. The tailor ..... me a new coat.
3. The snake ..... the man.
4. We ..... cricket.
5. All the boys ..... their teacher.
6. The gang of robbers ..... in a cave.
7. Two and two ..... four.
8. The headmaster ..... him his name.
9. The dog ..... at the man.
10. Birds ..... with their wings.

EXERCISE 3

Write down ten sentences and underline the Verb in each.

.....

.....

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EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Verbs in the following sentences.

1. He worked and sang from morning to night.
2. The grass grows very fast.
3. Krishna is the cleverest boy in the class.
4. The wolf killed the goat.
5. The goat was killed by the wolf.
6. We like cricket better than football.
7. They are both absent today.
8. They fought the dogs and killed the cats.

EXERCISE 5

Insert Verbs in the following sentences.

1. As much as I tried, I could not _____ my mother to let me have a bowl of ice cream.
2. Trisha _____ a solo during the concert.
3. Kiran Bedi _____ the governor after the elections.
4. I enjoy when my father and I _____ through the fields together.
5. It was cold so we _____ some hot milk.
6. We _____ in line for an hour.
7. I _____ chocolate ice creams.
8. I _____ late for school yesterday.
9. The princess _____ in a white chariot driven by seven horses.
10. They _____ when we came.

Chapter 15 Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Read these sentences:

1. The bird *flies.*
2. The fish *swims.*
3. The dog *barks.*
4. I *sleep.*

Are the above four sentences complete, each containing a thought fully expressed? Yes, each sentence makes complete sense.

Now examine the examples given below.

1. Rama *took*
2. The man *made*
3. The winner *will receive*
4. Abdul *saw*

None of the four examples make complete sense. If I tell you "Rama took," you wait to hear he took *what*. It is not complete. In 2 you want to know the man made *what*. In 3 we are not told *what* the winner will receive. In the same way 4 is incomplete. We do not know *what* Abdul saw.

Clearly, unlike those in the first four examples, these sentences are complete when they mention an object.

1. Rama took *the book.*
2. The man made *a box.*
3. The winner will receive *a prize.*
4. Abdul saw *a snake.*

These verbs which must be followed by an object are called ***Transitive Verbs.*** The word "transitive" means "passing over". In such verbs, the action *passes on* from the subject to something. Thus, if you take, you must take something. If you make, you must make something. If you receive, you must receive something. If you see, you must see something.

The verbs (flies, swims, barks, sleep) in the first four sentences are called ***Intransitive Verbs.*** The action expressed by such verbs *does not pass on* to any object.

A **Transitive Verb** is a Verb that denotes an action which *passes over* from the doer or Subject to an Object.

An **Intransitive Verb** is a Verb that denotes an action which does *not pass over* to an Object, or it expresses a *state* of *being*, such as,

He *ran* a long distance. (*Action*)
The baby *sleeps.* (*Action*)
There *is* a flaw in this diamond. (*State of being*)

EXERCISE 1

A. Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and say whether each is Transitive or Intransitive.

1. A stitch in time saves nine.
2. Go and see your father tomorrow.
3. Take your books and go home.
4. Say that again.
5. Bring me your book, Abdul.
6. I quite agree with him.
7. Rama loves work and Abdul hates it.
8. Put it down.
9. The goat fell into the well.
10. Too many cooks spoil the broth.

B. Compare your answers with another student's. If the answers do not agree, decide which are right.

1. Birds *fly.*
2. I *fly* my kite.

Examine the above sentences.

In the first sentence *fly* is an intransitive verb, because the action does not pass on to an object. In the second sentence *fly* is a transitive verb, because the action does pass on to an object.

We thus see that the verb *fly* can be used both *transitively* and *intransitively.*

Below are some more examples of the same verb used transitively and intransitively.

1. This child *speaks* plainly.
   His teacher *speaks* several languages.
2. The dying man scarcely *breathed.*
   He *breathed* a prayer for help.
3. He *walked* up and down.
   He *walked* his horse up and down.
4. The train *stopped* suddenly.
   The driver suddenly *stopped* the train.

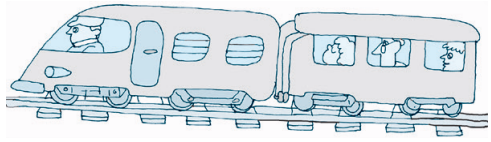

Before you say whether a Verb is *Transitive* or *Intransitive carefully examine how it is used.*

EXERCISE 2

Use each of the following verbs both Transitively and Intransitively.

eat, marry, speak, follow, answer, ring, kick, feel, see

1. Rama *is* strong.
2. That man *seems* an imposter.

The verbs in these two sentences are not verbs of action. They tell us what the subject *is,* or *seems,* and not what the subject does.

Such verbs are called **Linking Verbs,** because they join the subject to some word which describes it.

Linking Verbs are also called **Verbs of Incomplete Predication,** because they require another word, called a **Complement,** to form a complete predicate.

Thus the word *strong* which tells us what Rama is, and which is required to form a complete predicate, is called the Complement to the verb. We will discuss Linking Verbs in detail in Chapter 17.

Below are some more examples of verbs of incomplete predication.

1. Sita *became* sad.
2. They *grew* weary.
3. The boys *made* great noise.
4. The child *fell* asleep.

5. The old woman *looks* unhappy.
6. The report *proved* false.
7. He *went* mad.
8. The dish *tastes* delicious.

EXERCISE 3

Write down five sentences each containing a Verb of Incomplete Predication.

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the verbs in the following sentences, and say whether each is a Transitive, Intransitive or Linking Verb.

1. You work very slowly.
2. Such conduct displeases your master.
3. He will become angry with you.
4. The peacock is our national bird.
5. I left it on the desk.
6. It was there just now.
7. He seems innocent.
8. You look guilty and you seem nervous.
9. Confess the truth.
10. Mother Teresa won the Nobel Prize in 1979.

Note: Intransitive Verbs expressing *being* take the same case after them as before them; such as,

It was *he* (not, *him*) who committed the theft.

Most Transitive Verbs take a single object. But some Transitive Verbs like *give, ask, offer, promise, tell*, etc., take *two* objects after them — an Indirect Object which denotes the *person to whom* something is given or *for whom* something is done, and a Direct Object which is usually the name of some *thing;* such as,

His father gave *him* (Indirect) a *watch* (Direct).

He told *me* (Indirect) a *secret* (Direct).

Most verbs can be used both as Transitive and as Intransitive verbs. It is therefore better to say that a verb is *used* Transitively or Intransitively rather than that it *is* Transitive or Intransitive.

Used Transitively	*Used Intransitively*
1. The ants *fought* the wasps.	1. Some ants *fight* very fiercely.
2. The shot *sank* the ship.	2. The ship *sank* rapidly.
3. The driver *stopped* the train.	3. The train *stopped* suddenly.
4. The horse *kicked* the man.	4. This horse never *kicks*.

Note: Some Verbs, *e.g.*, *come*, *go*, *fall*, *die*, *sleep*, *lie*, can never be used Transitively.

EXERCISE 5

Identify the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell in each case whether the Verb is Transitive or Intransitive. In the sentences where the Verb is Transitive, name the Object.

1. The clock stopped this morning.
2. The policeman blew his whistle.
3. The sun rises in the east.
4. The clock ticks all day long.
5. I looked down from my window.
6. Put away your books.
7. Your book lies on the table.
8. Time changes all things.
9. We eat three times a day.
10. The little bird hopped about and sang.
11. My new watch does not keep good time.
12. The beggar sat down by the side of the road.
13. I could not spare the time.
14. The boy easily lifted the heavy weight.
15. Balu wrote a letter to his uncle.
16. I know a funny little man.

17. A light rain fell last night.
18. I shall bring my camera with me.

EXERCISE 6

A. Complete the following by supplying an Object.

1. The horse kicked .....
2. The teacher punished .....
3. Hari worked ..... correctly.
4. My brother wrote this .....
5. He broke .....
6. The cow gives .....
7. The sun gives .....
8. The mason built .....
9. The tailor made .....
10. The policeman caught .....

B. Group work

Read your answers to each other in groups of five. Discuss the differences in your answers and decide which are correct or the best.

There are only a few verbs which are always Intransitive. Most verbs can be used either Transitively or Intransitively.

Used Transitively	*Used Intransitively*
Many people *eat* rice.	Wise people *eat* slowly.
He *wrote* novels.	He *writes* legibly.
His teacher *speaks* several languages.	The child *speaks* plainly.
He *breathed* a prayer for help.	The dying man scarcely *breathed*.
He *walked* his horse up and down.	He *walked* up and down.

Before you say whether a Verb is Transitive or Intransitive carefully examine *how it is used.*

EXERCISE 7

Write down five sentences containing a verb used Intransitively and five sentences containing a verb used Transitively.

INTRANSITIVE VERBS USED AS TRANSITIVES

When an Intransitive Verb is used in a *causative* sense, it becomes Transitive.

Intransitive	*Transitive*
1. The girl *ran* down the street.	1. The girl *ran* a needle into her finger. (*ran* a needle = *caused* a needle to run.)
2. Birds *fly*.	2. The boys *fly* their kites *(i.e., cause* their kites to fly).

Some Intransitive Verbs may become Transitive by having a Preposition added to them; such as,

He will soon *run through* (consume) his fortune.
Please *look into* (investigate) the matter carefully.
We *talked about* (discussed) the affair several times.

Intransitive Verbs sometimes take after them an Object *akin* or *similar in meaning* to the Verb. Such an Object is called the **Cognate Object.** (Latin *Cognatus*, akin.)

I have *fought* a good *fight*.
He *laughed* a hearty *laugh*.
He *sleeps* the *sleep* of the just.

A noun used adverbially to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb denoting *time, place, distance, weight, value*, etc., is called an **Adverbial Object**, and is said to be in the Accusative Case adverbially; such as,

He held the post ten *years*.
He went *home*.

There are a few Transitive Verbs which are sometimes used as Intransitive Verbs.

Transitive	*Intransitive*
1. He *broke* the glass.	1. The glass *broke*.
2. He *burnt* his fingers.	2. He *burnt* with shame.

EXERCISE 8

In each of the following sentences, choose whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive.

1. I worked all day.
   (a) transitive (b) intransitive
2. He gave the book to the teacher.
   (a) transitive (b) intransitive
3. They laughed at the joke.
   (a) transitive (b) intransitive
4. He slept for three hours only.
   (a) transitive (b) intransitive
5. We lived in New York for two years.
   (a) intransitive (b) transitive
6. I like her.
   (a) intransitive (b) transitive
7. I clean my room every day.
   (a) transitive intransitive
8. My cousin moved to another city.
   (a) intransitive (b) transitive
9. My brother moved his car.
   (a) intransitive (b) transitive
10. Those people painted their house pink.
    (a) intransitive (b) transitive

Chapter 16 Irregular Verbs

Look at the following sentences:

1. I *walk* to school.
2. I *walked* to school.
3. I *had walked* to school.

In these sentences the past tense and past participle form of the verb *walk* is *walked*. Regular verbs form these forms when *–d* or *–ed* is added to the base word.

Now look at these sentences:

1. I *know* her.
2. I *knew* her before when they stayed here.
3. I *have known* their family for a long time.

In these sentences the past tense and past participle form of the verb *know* is *knew* and *have known*. Irregular verbs are verbs that don't take on the regular *–d*, *-ed*, or *-ied* spelling patterns of the simple past or past participle.

There are three types of irregular verbs:

1. Verbs in which all three parts (the base form, the past tense and the past participle) are identical, e.g. cut – cut – cut.
2. Verbs in which two of the three parts are identical, e.g. get – got – got.
3. Verbs in which all three parts are different, e.g. see – saw – seen.

1. All three parts are identical.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
bid	bid	bid
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt

knit	knit/knitted	knit/knitted
let	let	let
put	put	put
read	read	read
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
thrust	thrust	thrust

2. Two parts are identical.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
bend	bent	bent
bind	bound	bound
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
dig	dug	dug
dream	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled

fling	flung	flung
get	got	got
grind	ground	ground
hang	hung hanged	hung (e.g. the picture was *hung*.) hanged (e.g. He was *hanged* for murder.)
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leap	leapt/leaped	leapt/leaped
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
light	lit/ighted	lit/lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mislay	mislaid	mislaid
overcome	overcame	overcome
pay	paid	paid
run	ran	run
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shoot	shot	shot
sit	sat	sat

sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
withhold	withheld	withheld
withstand	withstood	withstood
wring	wrung	wrung

3. All three parts are different.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
arise	arose	arisen
(a) wake	(a) woke	(a) woken
be	was	been
bear	bore	born/borne
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown

break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hid/hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
mistake	mistook	mistaken
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	showed/shown
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum

take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
undergo	underwent	undergone
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
write	wrote	written

EXERCISE 1

Fill in blanks with the correct form of the given Verbs.

1. break/broke/broken
   - My boy has _____ three windows this week!
   - I _____ that window last week.
   - She usually _____ the egg over the sink.
2. buy/bought/bought
   - Sheila _____ a new watch last week.
   - I usually _____ my vegetables at a country stand.
   - He's _____ more than ten cars in his life.
3. draw/drew/drawn
   - She _____ a beautiful picture in class.
   - Jackie has _____ the curtains.
   - She'll _____ money from the account tomorrow.
4. drink/drank/drunk
   - I was so thirsty that I _____ two bottles of water.
   - Have you _____ any water yet?
   - I'll _____ something when I get there.

5. drive/drove/driven
   - Have you ever _____ across the village?
   - My father _____ me to the camp.
   - He's going to _____ to the airport this evening.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the Verb given in brackets.

1. Anita wasn't at home, she had _____ (go) to the shops.
2. We've already _____ (have) lunch.
3. This was the first time she had _____ (do) her homework.
4. They have _____ (begin) painting the living room.
5. We have _____ (keep) this secret for three years.
6. He has never _____ (drive) a motorbike before.
7. I have _____ (be) sick all week.
8. By the time we arrived, the children had _____ (eat) all the chocolates.
9. Don't worry, we haven't _____ (forget) about the meeting.
10. It had _____ (become) very cold, so we went inside.

Chapter 17 Linking Verbs

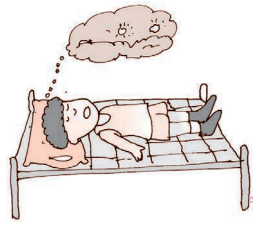

Read the following sentences.

1. He *sleeps*.
2. He *seems* happy.

The verbs in both these sentences are Intransitive.

But when I say 'He sleeps' I make complete sense. On the other hand if I say 'He seems', I do not make complete sense.

The Intransitive Verb *seems* requires a word (*e.g., happy*) to make the sentence complete. Such a verb is called a **Verb of Incomplete Predication** or **Linking Verb.**

The word *happy*, which is required to make the sense complete, is called the **Complement of the Verb** or the **Completion of the Predicate.**

Linking Verbs usually express the idea of *being, becoming, seeming, appearing.* The Complement usually consists of a Noun (called a **Predicative Noun**) or an Adjective (called a **Predicative Adjective**).

When the Complement describes the *Subject*, as in the following sentences, it is called a **Subjective Complement**.

1. John became a *soldier*.
2. Peel became *minister*.
3. The man seems *tired.*
4. You look *happy.*
5. She appears *pleased.*
6. This house is *to let*.

Note: When the Subjective Complement is a noun (as in 1, 2), it is in the same case as the Subject, *i.e.*, in the Nominative case.

Certain Transitive Verbs require, besides an Object, a Complement to complete their predication; such as,

1. The boys made Rama *captain*.
2. The jury found him *guilty*.
3. I consider the man *trustworthy*.

Here, in each case, the Complement describes the *Object*, and is therefore called an **Objective Complement**.

Note: When the Objective Complement is a noun (as in 1), it is in the Objective (or Accusative) Case in agreement with the object.

EXERCISE

A. Say whether the Verbs in the following sentences are Transitive or Intransitive; name the Object of each Transitive Verb, and the Complement of each Verb of Incomplete Predication.

1. The hungry lion roars.
2. The report proved false.
3. The boy stood on the burning deck.
4. The child has fallen sick.
5. We saw a burning ship on the sea.
6. The results are out.
7. He tried again and again.
8. The child fell asleep.
9. Owls hide in the daytime.
10. Bad boys hide their faults.
11. The poor woman went mad.
12. We waited patiently at the station.
13. They elected him president.
14. He struck the man dead.
15. The crow flew down and stole the cheese.
16. The sky looks threatening.
17. They made him general.
18. The rumour seems true.

B. Interact with two other students and revise your answers if necessary.

Chapter 18 Auxiliary and Modal Verbs

Here is a list of auxiliaries:

be (am/ is/ was, etc) have (have / has / had) do (do / does / did) can could may might will would shall should must ought

Need and *dare* are sometimes used as auxiliaries.

Auxiliaries come before the subject in questions and can be put before *not*.

She is busy.	*Is* she busy? She *is* not busy.
They have arrived.	*Has* he arrived? He *has* not arrived.
He can drive.	*Can* he drive? He *cannot* drive.
She should go.	*Should* she go? She *should* not go.

The auxiliaries *be* and *have* are used with ordinary verbs to form tenses.

He *is* dancing. (Present Continuous Tense)

They *have* videographed the programme. (Present Perfect Tense)

The auxiliary *be* is also used to make passive forms.

Cheese *is* made from milk.

The programme *was* videoed.

The auxiliary *do* is used to form questions and negatives in the Simple Present and Simple Past tense.

She acts on TV.	*Does* she act on TV? She *does* not act on TV.
India won.	*Did* India win? India *did* not win.

The auxiliaries *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must,* and *ought* (sometimes *need* and *dare*) are called ***Modal Verbs*** or ***Modals/ Modal Auxiliaries***.

After modal verbs we use the base form of ordinary verbs. *Ought* is an exception. We use *ought* with the *to*-infinitive (e.g., You ought to go.)

We often use modal verbs to talk about ability, permission, necessity, etc. Each modal verb has more than one use.

Modal	**Use**	**Examples**
can	1. ability	He *can* speak five languages.
	2. permission	*Can* I use your phone?
		You *can* go now.
	3. request	*Can* I have a glass of water, please?
		Can you get me a ticket?
	4. offer	*Can* I help you?
could	1. ability (past)	I *could* swim when I was seven.
	2. request	*Could* you get me a ticket?
		(more polite than *can*)
may	1. permission	You *may* use my computer.
	2. possibility	*May* I come in?
		He *may* come today.
might	1. permission	You *might* go now.
	2. possibility	He *might* come today.
		(less sure than *may*)
will	1. future action	Perhaps it *will* rain tonight.
	2. request	*Will* you give me a lift?
	3. offer	*Will* you have some tea?
would	1. request	*Would* you lend me your camera?
	2. offer	*Would* you like a cup of coffee?
shall	1. future action	I *shall* see him tomorrow.
	2. offer	*Shall* I carry the bag for you?
	3. suggestion	*Shall* we go to the beach?

should	necessity	You *should* apply for the job.
must	1. necessity	I *must* get up at five tomorrow.
	2. certainty	She *must* be at home now.
ought	necessity	You *ought* to obey your parents.

EXERCISE 1

Match the sentences on the left with the uses of the *modals* on the right.

1. I *must* make a phone call.
2. She has walked a long way: she *must* be tired.
3. *Will* you close the window, please?
4. We *will* be away next weekend.
5. She *can* speak French fluently.
6. *Shall* I get a taxi for you?
7. *Shall* we go for a swim?
8. *Can* I go out?
9. She *may* arrive tomorrow.

(a) certainty
(b) ability
(c) necessity
(d) permission
(e) request
(f) possibility
(g) future action
(h) suggestion
(i) offer

Modal verbs, unlike ordinary verbs, have only one form. They never have endings like *–s*, *–ing* or *–ed*.

After modal verbs we use the base form of a verb. *Ought* is an exception. We use *ought* with the *to*-infinitive (e.g. you *ought to go*).

We often use modal verbs to talk about permission, ability, necessity, possibility, etc.

Permission

You *can* sit here.

Anyone *may* join the club. (*May* is more formal than *can*.)

Can/*May* I use your computer?

Could I ask you a question? (*Could I*? is more polite than *Can/May I*?)

Ability

She *can* speak English fluently.
I *could* swim when I was seven. (ability in the past)

Obligation or necessity

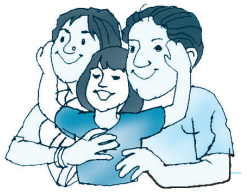

I *must* get up at 5.00 tomorrow.
You *must* work hard.
You *ought to* obey your parents.
You *should* apply for the job.
Need I come again?

Compare the following:

You *need not* go. (It is not necessary for you to go.)
You *must not* go. (Don't go.)

Requests

Can I have a glass of water, please?
Could I have some tea?
Will you give me a lift?
Would you lend me your camera?
Can you do me a favour?
Could you get me a ticket?

Offers

I *will* get tickets for you.
Shall I carry the bag for you?
Can/May I help you?
Would you like me to help you?
Will you have a cup of tea?
Would you like a cup of tea?

Suggestions

Shall we go swimming?
Shall we play chess?

Possibility

He *may* be at home now. (perhaps a 50% chance)
He *might* be at home now. (a smaller chance)
He *could* be at home now. (less sure than *may/might*)
He *may* / *might* have left. (It is possible that he left/has left.)

Certainty

He *must* be at home now. (I am sure that he is at home now.)
He *must* have left. (I am sure that he has left.)

Prediction

I suppose she *will* get the job.
Perhaps it *will* rain tonight.
I *will* be busy tomorrow. (Less usual: I *shall* be busy tomorrow.)

EXERCISE 2

Pair-work

The statements below are not true. Work in pairs and turn the sentences into (*a*) questions, (*b*) negatives. Take turns to ask questions and answer them.

Example:

Fish can fly.
Student A : Can fish fly?
Student B : No, fish can't fly.

1. Doves can swim.
2. Nagpur is the capital of Maharashtra.
3. Mohan has repaired the TV.
4. The stars shine during the day.
5. Kalpana Chawala was born in America.
6. Tom knows French.
7. Gopi is using the Internet.
8. Anita phoned him.
9. We will know the results next week.
10. Dogs fear cats.

EXERCISE 3

Match the sentences on the left with the uses of the Modals on the right.

1. We may go to Delhi next month.	(a) permission
2. I can solve this puzzle.	(b) offer
3. You can use my phone.	(c) certainty
4. I must go to town this afternoon	(d) possibility
5. He has worked very hard : he must be tired.	(e) ability
6. Shall I drop you at the station?	(f) prediction
7. Shall we watch the news?	(g) request
8. I think he will come today.	(h) necessity
9. Could you post this letter?	(i) suggestion

STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONS OF AUXILIARIES

Auxiliaries have a very important part in the formation of questions and negatives. To make a question, we put an auxiliary in front of the subject. To make a sentence negative, we put *not* immediately after an auxiliary.

She is a student.	*Is* she a student? She *is not* a student.
He has gone.	*Has* he gone? He *has not* gone.
He can carry it.	*Can* he carry it? He *cannot* carry it.
They should come.	*Should* they come? They *should not* come.

In conversation and informal writing, *not* is often shortened to n't and added to the auxiliary, e.g.,

She *isn't* a student.

He *hasn't* gone.

He *can't* carry it. (can + n't = can't)

The auxiliaries *be* and *have* are used with ordinary verbs to form tenses.

They *are videographing* the programme.	(Present Continuous)
She *was watching* the news at that time.	(Past Continuous)
He *has repaired* the computer.	(Present Perfect)

The auxiliary *be* is also used to make passive forms.

German *is* spoken in Austria.

This house *was* built in 1982.

The auxiliary *do* is used to form questions and negatives in the Simple Present and Present Continuous Tenses.

They *sell* TV sets.	*Do* they *sell* TV sets?
	They *do* not sell TV sets.
She *teaches* maths.	*Does* she teach maths?
	She *does* not teach maths.
He *played* well.	*Did* he play well?
	He *did* not play well.

The auxiliary *do* is also used to lay stress on the ordinary verb.

You *do* look sad.

I told him not to go, but he *did* go.

Do shut up and get on with your homework.

Oh, *do* come! It's going to be such fun.

Be, *have* and *do* are ordinary verbs (not auxiliary verbs) in the following sentences:

This DVD *is* Rahim's.

Neil Armstrong *was* the first man to walk on the moon.

I *had* a late lunch today.

Padma *did* all the washing.

USES OF MODAL VERBS

Note: Modal verbs, unlike ordinary verbs, have only one form. They never have endings like *-s, -ing* or *-ed.*

After modal verbs we use the base form of a verb. *Ought* is an exception. We use *ought* with the *to*-infinitive (e.g., You *ought to* work harder.)

can,	could,	may,	might

We often use *can* to talk about ability.

He *can* speak six languages.

Can you swim?

Can refers to the present. *Could* is used for ability in the past.

He *could* swim across the river when he was young.

Can and *may* are used for permission. *May* is rather formal.

You *can*/*may* use my phone.

Can/May I sit here?

Could is also used to ask for permission. *Could you* .....? Is more polite than *Can you* .....?

Could I use your phone?

Could I ask you a personal question?

We also use *can* and *could* when we make requests. *Could* is more polite than *can.*

Can I have a glass of water?

Could I have some tea?

Can/Could you get me a ticket?

We use *may* and *might* to talk about possibility in the present or future. *Might* expresses a smaller degree of possibility than *may*.

He *may*/*might* be at home now.

We can also use *could* for possibility.

He *could* be at home now. (less sure than *may/might*)

In very formal English, *may* is used to express a wish.

May success attend you!
May God be with you.

Could and *might* refer to past time in the following sentences.

He said that I *might* use his phone.
I asked whether I *could* sit there.
I was told that he *might* be at home at that time.

Note the use of *may/might* + *have* + past participle:
She *may/might* have gone to the office. (It is possible that she has gone/went to the office.)

will,	would,	shall,	should

Will is used to talk about the future.
I *will* never forget you.
My father *will* be forty tomorrow.

We can use *shall* instead of *will* with *I* and *we* in statements about the future. It is more common to use *will*. *Shall* is very formal.

I *shall* be pleased to help you.
We can use *I will/we will* in offers.
I *will* give you a lift to the station.
We *will* put you up for the night.

We often use *will you* or *would you like* in offers and invitations.

Will you have some more grapes?
Will you come to dinner tomorrow?
Would you like an ice cream?
Would you like to come for a picnic?

We can use *will you* or *would you* to ask people to do things.

Will you pass me the salt?

Would you do me a favour?

We use *shall I* to offer to do something for someone.

Shall I call you a taxi?

Shall I post the letters for you?

We use *shall I/ shall we* in offers, suggestions and requests for advice.

Shall I shut the window? (offer)

Shall we record this programme? (suggestion)

Which sari *shall I* buy? (what is your advice?)

In older English, *shall* was used in the second and third persons to express commands, promises and threats (e.g., "He *shall* not enter my house again."). This is now very unusual.

Should is used to talk about obligation (= to say what is the right thing to do) and to give advice.

We *should* obey the laws.

You *should* work harder.

You *should* change trains at Gudur.

We also use *should* to say that something is probable.

She *should* be at home now.

He *should* be over thirty.

must, ought, need

We use *must* to talk about necessity or obligation.

We *must* be honest.

You *must* give up smoking.

I *must* get up at 5 o'clock.

Must refers to the present or the near future. To talk about the past we use *had to* (the past form of *have to*). *Must* has no past form.

I *had to* get up at 5 o'clock yesterday.

Must is normally used when the obligation comes from the speaker. *Have to* is preferred when the obligation comes from outside the speaker.

I *must* be on a diet. (It is my own idea.)
I *have to* be on a diet. (The doctor has told me to be on a diet.)
You *must* be home by 9 o'clock. (I insist.)
I *have to* be home by 9 o'clock. (My parents insist.)

We use *needn't* and *don't have to* to say that something is not necessary.

You *needn't/ don't have to* meet him. (It is not necessary for you to meet him.)

We use *mustn't* to tell somebody not to do something. Compare the above sentence with this :

You *mustn't* meet him. (Don't meet him.)

We can use *don't need to* in place of *needn't*.

You *don't need to* come again.

We use *must* to say that we are sure about something.

They have walked over ten kilometres. They *must* be tired. (I feel sure that they are tired.)

He *must* have gone out. (I am sure that he has gone out.)

Ought is used, like *must*, to talk about obligation or necessity. *Ought* is not as strong as *must*.

We *ought* to be honest.
You *ought* to read this book.

We also use *ought* to say that something is probable.

He *ought* to be at the bank now. (More usual: *should* be at the bank now.)

As you must have noticed, *ought* and *should* have similar meanings. We usually prefer *should* to *ought*.

Chapter 19 Verb Forms in Conditionals

Sentences like "If you phone him he will come" are called *conditionals.*"If you phone him" is called an *if* -clause and "he will come" a main clause.

The meaning of conditionals depends on the verb forms, which have several different patterns.

There are mainly three types of conditionals. They are usually called Types 1, 2 and 3.

Type 1

Form: Simple Present Tense in the *if*-clause and Simple Future Tense in the main clause

We can also use *can/may* + base form in place of the Simple Future Tense.

If you *work* hard, you *will get* a first class.
If it *rains,* we *will postpone* our trip.
If you *take* a taxi, you *can catch* the train.
If you *hit* the dog it *may bite* you.

Conditionals of this type tell us that something will happen if a certain condition is fulfilled. Note that the Simple Present Tense in the *if*- clause refers to future time.

Type 2

Form: Simple Past Tense in the *if*-clause and *would* + base form in the main clause

We can also use *could* or *might* in place of *would* in the main clause.

If you *worked* hard, you *would get* a first class.
If I *were/ was* you, I *would* not *do* that.
If we *started* now, we *could be* in time.
If you *phoned* her, she *might* come.

We use this type of conditionals to talk about improbable conditions or unreal situations. Note that the Simple Past Tense in the *If*-clause refers to the present or future (not the past).

Type 3

Form: Past Perfect Tense in the *if*- clause and *would* + *have* + past participle in the main clause

We can use *could* or *might* in place of *would.*

If you *had worked* hard, you *would have got* a first class.

If I *had seen* him, I *would have saved* him from drowining.

If you *had tried* again, you *might have* succeeded.

If you *had run,*you could *have caught* the bus.

Conditionals of this type say that something did not happen because a certain condition was not fulfilled. The first sentence means, "You did not work hard, so you did not get a first class."

EXERCISE

Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the Verbs given in brackets.

1. If you catch the first bus, you ..... there in time. (get)
2. If I ..... a degree, I could get a job easily. (have)
3. If I were you, I ..... the offer. (accept)
4. If she ..... here, I will phone you. (come)
5. If you ..... her, she would have come. (invite)
6. I ..... him if I had been free. (meet)

Chapter 20 Mood

Examine the following sentences.

1. Boys! *Write* neatly.
2. I wish all boys *could* write neatly.
3. Only some boys *write* neatly.

In the first sentence, the verb *write* is used to give a *command.*

In the second sentence, the verb *could write* is used to express a *wish.*

In the third sentence, the verb *write* is used to state a *fact.*

Thus we see that the same verb *write* is used in three different ways or manners or modes, namely,

(a) to give a command,
(b) to express a wish, or
(c) to state a fact.

Anyone of these three different manners in which a verb may be used to express our thought is called its **Mood**.

Wish

Doubt

Command

Verb used to express mood

INDICATIVE MOOD

The Indicative Mood is used to

1. To make a statement of *fact;* such as,
   Rama *goes* to school daily.

2. To ask a question; such as,
Have you *found* your book?

In each of following sentences the Verb in italics is said to be in the **Indicative Mood.**

1. Rama *made* a hundred runs.
2. A hundred runs *were made* by Rama.
3. How many runs *did* Rama *make?*

When the verb *states a fact*, or *asks a question*, it is said to be in the **Indicative Mood**.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

The Imperative Mood is used to express —

1. A command; such as,
   Wait there.
   Obey the traffic rules.
2. An exhortation; such as,
   Take care of your health.
3. An entreaty or prayer; such as,
   Have mercy upon us.
   Give us our daily bread.

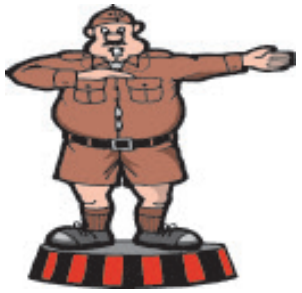

In each of these sentences the verb in italics is said to be in the **Imperative Mood**.

When the verb expresses a *command*, an *exhortation*, an *entreaty* or *prayer*, it is said to be in the Imperative Mood.

Note 1: The Imperative Mood can strictly be used only in the Second Person, since the person commanded must be the person *spoken to.* But in the First and Third Persons a similar sense is expressed by the use of the Auxiliary Verb *let*; such as,

Let me go. *Let* us go. *Let* him go. *Let* them go.

Note 2: The Subject of a Verb in the Imperative Mood (*you*) is usually omitted.

Note 3: The Subject of the verb in the Imperative Mood is usually not expressed, but understood.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The Subjunctive Mood is used to express —

1. A wish or desire; such as,
   Long *live* the President! God *bless* you.
   I wish Sita *were* here.
2. A condition or supposition *contrary to fact*; such as,
   If I *were* you, I should agree.
   [If I were you (but I am not), I should agree.]
   If I *were* King, you should be queen.
   If he *were* here, he would support me.

In each of these sentences the verb in italics is said to be in the **Subjunctive Mood.**

When a verb expresses doubt of any kind — for instance; a *condition or supposition contrary to fact*, a *wish*, a *purpose* — it is said to be in the Subjunctive Mood.

In form the Subjunctive differs from the Indicative in the following ways:

1. In the case of the verb *be*, the Subjunctive has distinct forms for the Present and Past Tenses.

Present		***Past***	
Indicative	***Subjunctive***	***Indicative***	***Subjunctive***
I am	I *be*	I *was*	I *were*
He *is*	He *be*	He *was*	He *were*
We *are*	We *be*	We *were*	We *were*
You *are*	You *be*	You *were*	You *were*
They *are*	They *be*	They *were*	They *were*

Note: Of these Subjunctive forms of the verb *be*, there are only two forms of the Past Tense which are now in general use, *viz.*, the First Person Singular and Third Person Singular.

If I *were* you, I would not go.

If *he were* here, he would go with us.

2. In other verbs, the Subjunctive has the same form as the Indicative, except in the Third Person Singular of the Present Tense.

Present	
Indicative	***Subjunctive***
He speaks	He speak

EXERCISE

Read the following sentences carefully and say whether the italicized verbs are in Indicative, Imperative or Subjunctive Mood.

1. Napoleon *died* at St. Helena.
2. *Come* here.
3. *Try* to do better.
4. I wish I *were* a millionaire.
5. *Open* page 7 of your book.
6. *Are* you well?
7. *Let* her go.
8. If we *started* now we would be in time.

Unit 7
Infinitives

Chapter 21 Definition and Usage

Read these sentences.

1. *To find* fault is easy.
2. He likes *to play* football.
3. She wants *to work* hard.

The forms *to find*, *to play* and *to like* are "Infinitives".

The **Infinitive** is the base form of a verb, often followed by ***to.***

Look at the above sentences again.

In sentence 1, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the subject of the verb "is"; but, like a verb, it also takes an object.

In sentence 2, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the object of the verb "likes"; but, like a verb, it also takes an object.

In sentence 3, the infinitive, like a noun, is the object of the verb "wants"; but, like a verb, it is also modified by an adverb.

We see that the Infinitive is a kind of noun with certain features of the verb.

After modal verbs (except *ought*) and also after *left, make, see, hear*, etc., we use the Infinitive without *to*.

I *will* answer the phone.
Robots *can* build cars.
Let me *go*.
I made him *run*.
We heard you *sing*.
I saw her *go* out.

Read the following sentences.

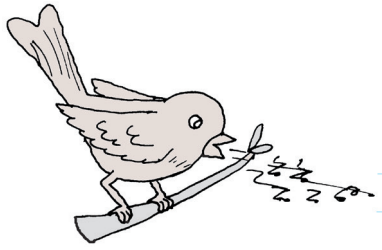

1. *To err* is human.
2. Birds love *to sing*.
3. *To respect* our parents is our duty.
4. He refused *to obey* the orders.
5. Many men desire *to make* money quickly.

In sentence 1, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Subject of the verb *is*.

In sentence 2, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *love.*

In sentence 3, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Subject of the verb *is*, but, like a verb, it also takes an Object.

In sentence 4, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *refused*, but, like a verb, it also takes an Object.

In sentence 5, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *desire*, but, like a verb, it also takes an Object and is modified by an Adverb.

We observe that the Infinitive is a kind of noun with certain features of the verb, especially that of taking an object (when the verb is Transitive) and adverbial qualifiers. In short, the Infinitive is a Verb-Noun.

The word *to* is frequently used with the Infinitive, but is not an essential part of it.

Thus, after certain verbs (*bid, let, make, need, dare*, see, hear*), we use the Infinitive without *to*; as,

Bid him *go* there.
I *bade* him *go.*
Let him *sit* there.
I will not *let* you *go.*
Make him *stand*.
I *made* him *run.*

We *need* not *go* today.
You *need* not *wait.*
You *dare* not *do* it.
I *saw* him *do* it.
I *heard* him *cry*.

The Infinitive without *to* is also used after the verbs *shall, will; do, did; should, would; may, might;* and the verbs *must* and *can, could*. They are called **Bare Infinitives**.

*Except when it means to challenge.

You should do it. = You will be compelled *to do* it.
He may go. = He is permitted *to go.*
He is at liberty *to go.*
You must go. = You are commanded *to go.*
I can swim. = I am able *to swim.*

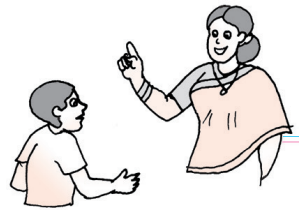

The Infinitive without *to* is also used after *had better, had rather, would rather, sooner than, rather than;* such as,

You had better *ask* permission.
I had rather *play* than *work.*
I would rather *die* than *suffer* so.

Also in certain elliptical expressions; such as,
They did nothing but *dance* and *sing.*

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Infinitive in the following sentences and state whether each is used as a subject or object of a verb.

1. Hari likes to ride.
2. He refused to obey his orders.
3. To play cricket is enjoyable.
4. I like to swim.
5. He promised to help me.
6. He used to say so.
7. I hope to hear good news.
8. He tried to help his friend.
9. I wish to go home.
10. To speak the truth is your first duty.

USE OF THE INFINITIVE

The Infinitive, with or without adjuncts, may be used, like a Noun —

1. As the Subject of a Verb; such as,
   To find fault is easy. *To err* is human.
2. As the Object of a Transitive Verb; such as,
   I do not mean *to read.* He likes *to play* cards.
3. As the Complement of a Verb; such as,
   Her greatest pleasure is *to sing.*
4. As the Object of a Preposition; such as,
   He had no choice but (except) *to obey*.
   The speaker is about *to begin.*
5. As an Objective Complement; such as,
   I saw him *go*.

When the Infinitive is thus used, like a noun, it is called the **Simple Infinitive**.

The Infinitive is also used —

1. To qualify a verb, usually to express *purpose;* such as,
   He called *to see* my brother (for the purpose of seeing my brother).
2. To qualify an adjective; such as,
   Figs are good *to eat.*
3. To qualify a noun; such as,
   This is not the time *to play.*
4. To qualify a sentence; such as,
   To tell the truth, I quite forgot my promise.

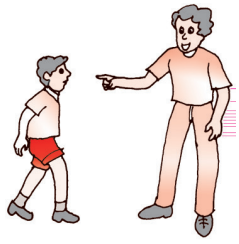

We observe that in sentences 1 and 2, the **Gerundial Infinitive** does the work of an adverb; in 3 it does the work of an adjective; in 4 it is used absolutely.

The Infinitive may be active or passive. When active it may have a present and a perfect form, and may merely name the act, or it may represent progressive or continued action.

	Active
Present :	to love
Perfect :	to have loved
Present Continuous :	to be loving
Perfect Continuous :	to have been loving

When passive the Infinitive has a present and a perfect form.

	Passive
Present :	to be loved
Perfect :	to have been loved

EXERCISE 2

State how the Infinitive is used in the following sentences.

1. There was nothing for it but to fight.
2. The order to advance was given.
3. He is slow to forgive.
4. And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
5. Thus to relieve the wretched was his pride.
6. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.
7. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.
8. To retreat was difficult; to advance was impossible.
9. Everybody wishes to enjoy life.
10. There was not a moment to be lost.

An Infinitive should be in the present tense unless it represents an action prior to that of the governing verb; such as,

I should have liked *to go* (not, *to have gone*).

But we say:

He seems *to have enjoyed* his stay here.

EXERCISE 3

A. Work in pairs. Combine together the following pairs of sentences by using Infinitives.

Example: Napoleon was one of the greatest of generals. He is universally acknowledged so. (Napoleon is universally acknowledged to be one of the greatest of generals.)

Note: Notice that we have turned one of the sentences into a phrase containing an Infinitive.

1. Every cricket team has a captain. He directs the other players.
2. You must part with your purse. On this condition only you can save your life.
3. His father went to Ajmer yesterday. His object was to visit the shrine of Saint Khwaja Pir.
4. He wants to earn his livelihood. He works hard for that reason.
5. The insolvent's property was sold by the Official Assignee. The insolvent's creditors had to be paid.
6. The strikers held a meeting. They wished to discuss the terms of the employers.
7. Everyone should do his duty. Government expects this of every man.
8. He must apologise for his misconduct. It is the only way to escape punishment.

B. Read your answers to each other in groups of three and decide which answers are correct before your teacher checks them.

Unit 8
Gerunds

Chapter 22 Definition and Usage

Examine the following sentences.

1. *To drive* a motor car well requires skill.
2. *Driving* a motor car well requires skill.

We shall now see that, like the Infinitive *to drive, driving* is also a Verb-Noun.

Driving is formed from the verb *drive,* so it is like a verb.

Being like a verb, it takes an object (*motor-car*), and is modified by an adverb (*well*).

Driving names an action, the action of driving; so it is also like a noun.

Being like a noun, it is used as the subject of a verb (*requires*).

Driving is therefore a Verb-Noun.

In Grammar, a Verb-Noun (such as *driving*) which ends in *-ing* is called a **Gerund**.

Examine these sentences.

1. He likes *driving* a motor car.
2. He is very careful in *driving* a motor car.

We notice that in sentence 1, the Gerund *driving* is the object of the verb *likes.*

In sentence 2, the Gerund *driving* is governed by the preposition *in.*

Note: The Gerund is most commonly governed by a preposition.

A **Gerund** is that form of the verb which ends in ***-ing,*** and has the quality of a Noun as well as a Verb.

As both the Gerund and the Infinitive behave like a Noun and a Verb, their uses are the same. Thus, in many sentences either of them may be used without any difference in meaning; such as,

Teach me to *swim*. Teach me *swimming*.

To see is *to believe*. *Seeing* is *believing*.

The following sentences contain examples of **Compound Gerund** forms.

I heard of his *having won* a prize.

We were fatigued on account of *having walked* so far.

They were charged with *having sheltered* anarchists.

He is desirous of *being praised*.

In the sentences above, note that Compound Gerund forms are formed by placing a Past Participle after the Gerunds with *have* and *be*.

The Gerund of a Transitive verb has the following forms:

Active	***Passive***
Present : loving	*Present* : being loved
Perfect : having loved	*Perfect* : having been loved

As both the Gerund and the Present Participle end in *-ing*, they must be carefully distinguished.

The Gerund behaves like a Noun and a Verb; it is a *Verb-Noun*.

The Present Participle behaves like an Adjective and a Verb; it is a *Verb-Adjective*.

Examples of Gerund —

He is fond of *playing* cricket.

The old man was tired of *walking*.

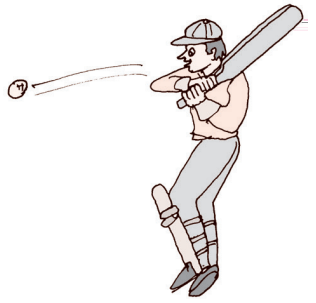

Examples of Participle —

Playing cricket, he gained health.

Walking along the road, he noticed a dead cobra.

Read the following sentences.

The indiscriminate *reading of* novels is injurious.

Here *reading* is used like an ordinary noun.

Further examples of Gerund used like ordinary nouns —

The *making* of the plan is in hand.

Adam consented to the *eating* of the fruit.

In such Compound Nouns as —

walking stick, writing table, hunting whip;

walking, writing, hunting, are Gerunds.

They refer to "a stick for walking", "a table for writing", and "a whip for hunting".

Of the following two sentences the first one is correct —

1. I hope you will excuse *my* leaving early. (Correct.)
2. I hope you will excuse *me* leaving early. (Incorrect.)

The word *leaving* is a Gerund (*i.e.,* a noun), therefore it must be preceded by the possessive form.

USES OF THE GERUND

A Gerund being a verb-noun may be used as —

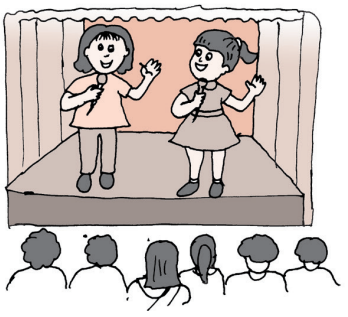

1. Subject of a verb; such as,
   Seeing is believing.
   Hunting tigers is forbidden in this country.
2. Object of a transitive verb; such as,
   Stop *playing*.
   Children love *making* mud castles.
3. Object of a preposition, such as,
   I am tired of *waiting*.
   He was punished for *telling* a lie.

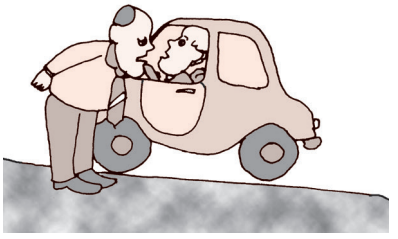

4. Complement of a verb; such as,
   Seeing is *believing*.
   What I most detest is *smoking*.
5. Absolutely; such as,
   Playing cards being his aversion, we did not play bridge.

EXERCISE

Pick out the Gerunds in the following sentences, and state whether each is a subject, object, or used after a preposition.

1. Do you like driving the car?
2. He likes reading poetry.
3. Children love making mud castles.
4. Helping the poor is our duty.
5. The miser hated spending money.
6. Hunting tigers is banned in this country.
7. Avoid catching cold.
8. Asking questions is easy.
9. He was punished for telling a lie.
10. The afternoon was spent in playing cards.
11. Be careful in driving the car.
12. He was afraid of telling the truth.
13. Bullocks are used for drawing carts.
14. He is fond of collecting stamps.

Unit 9
Participles

Chapter 23 Definition and Usage

Dancing Girl

Flying Bird

Word partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective

In this chapter, we shall show that, just as we have Verb-Nouns, so we have a Verb-Adjective, that is, an adjective formed from a verb.

Read the sentences below:

1. *Mounting* his horse, the soldier rode *off.*
2. A soldier, *wounded* in the Great War, came limping by.

In the first sentence, the word *mounting* refers to the noun *soldier,* and therefore behaves like an adjective. It also takes an object *horse* after it, and therefore, acts like a transitive verb.

The word *mounting* thus partakes of the nature of *a verb* and *an adjective,* and is therefore called a **Participle.**

Similarly in sentence 2, the word *wounded* partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective, and is therefore a Participle.

Now examine these sentences:

1. See Rama driving a car.
   [Driving *what*? — A motor car.]
2. See Rama driving skilfully.
   [Driving *how*? — Skilfully.]

Driving is formed from the verb *drive;* it is therefore like a verb in some respects: for example, (i) it *may* take an object, and (ii) it *may* be qualified by an adverb.

In sentence 1, *driving,* like a transitive verb, takes the object *motor car*.

In sentence 2, *driving,* like a verb, is qualified by the adverb *skilfully.*

We also see that *driving* refers to Rama, and is therefore like an adjective.

The word *driving* is therefore partly a verb and partly an adjective. In Grammar, a Verb-Adjective such as *driving,* is called a **Participle**.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Participles in the following sentences.

1. We saw a man leading a monkey.
2. I met him coming down the street.
3. Mounting his horse, the soldier rode away.
4. Clapping its hands with joy, the child laughed loudly.
5. I can hear him singing a song.
6. Singing in a chorus, we went on our way.
7. I pity that woman carrying such a heavy load on her head.
8. The boys, playing in the maidan, had a merry time.
9. Waving their handkerchiefs, the people cheered the President.
10. They heard the people ringing the bells.

Participles ending in ***-ing*** describe action which is *in progress* or *unfinished,* and are called **Present Participles**.

In the sentences below, the words in italics are present participles.

1. I met him *coming* down the street.
2. We saw a man *leading* a monkey.
3. *Singing*, we went on our way.
4. *Staggering* back, he sank to the ground.
5. *Clapping* its hands with joy, the child laughed loudly.
6. *Gazing* upwards as he walked along, he fell into the stream.

Participles ending in ***-ed, -en, -d,*** and ***-t*** show finished action, and are called **Past Participles**.

In the sentences below, the words in italics are past participles.

1. I saw a cord *stretched* across the road.
2. The old man, *broken* with age, hobbled along.
3. There were many trees *laden* with fruit.
4. The villains, *caught* in the act, were severely punished.
5. I saw the note *written* and *posted.*

In the following sentences the participles are used as simple adjectives before a noun:

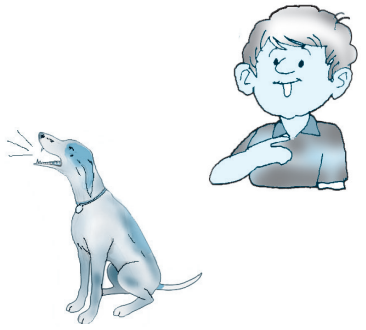

1. I hear a *barking* dog.
2. I have often seen *falling* stars.
3. There is great danger in approaching a *wounded* tiger.
4. A *burnt* child dreads the fire.
5. *Bleeding* limbs and *broken* bones followed the quarrel.

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Present and Past Participles in the following sentences and state the noun or pronoun to which each refers.

1. Walking along the road, he saw a cobra.

2. Hearing the noise, he looked through the window.
3. Deceived by his friends, he lost all hope.
4. Surrounded by the enemy, the army was forced to surrender.
5. Staggering back, he sank to the ground.
6. Landing at Calais, we proceeded to Paris.
7. Having no guide with us, we lost our way.
8. Driven by hunger, he stole a piece of bread.
9. I saw the boy posting the letter.
10. I saw the letter posted.
11. Taking pity on the mouse, the magician turned it into a cat.
12. He walked away whistling.

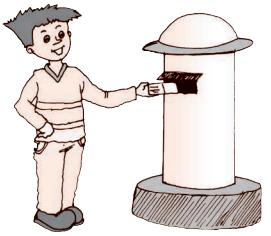

We have seen that a participle is a Verb-Adjective; it should therefore, like an adjective, refer to some noun or pronoun, *e.g.*,

Walking along a road, a boy found a watch.

[Here the Participle *walking* refers to the noun *boy.*]

The following sentence is incorrect:

Walking along a road, a watch was found.

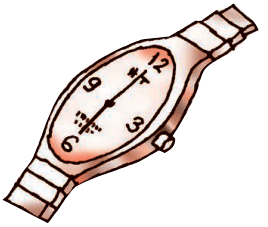

Here the participle *walking* does not refer to the noun *watch*—the *watch* was not walking. Then who was walking? Obviously the noun or pronoun to which the participle *walking* should refer is not mentioned. The sentence is therefore incorrect. We should therefore rewrite it as:

Walking along a road, a person found a watch.

EXERCISE 3

A. Examine each sentence and state whether it is *correct* or *incorrect*. If correct, point out the noun or pronoun to which the Participle refers. Rewrite correctly all incorrect sentences.

1. Wishing to borrow a book, he called on me yesterday.

2. Returning from the theatre, it began to rain.
3. Beaten at every point, the enemy fled from the field.
4. Running across the road, the child fell.
5. While cleaning the cage, the bird escaped.
6. Walking along the street, a hundred-rupee note was found.
7. Surrounded by the enemy, the battle was lost.
8. Standing on the top of the hill, the eye roams over a beautiful landscape.

B. Interact with two other students and review your answers if necessary. Examine these sentences.

1. *Killing* birds is a cruel sport.
2. I hate that boy *killing* birds.

In sentence 1, *killing* is a Gerund, and in sentence 2, *killing* is a Present Participle.

Since words ending in *-ing* may either be a Gerund or a Present Participle, be very careful not to confuse the two.

EXERCISE 4

Pick out — (i) the Gerunds, (ii) the Present Participles.

1. I remember reading the book long ago.
2. Preparing the meal required only a short time.
3. I do not like working these sums.
4. I saw Mr Patel running for a bus.
5. Running for a bus, he slipped and fell.
6. The boys love swimming in the sea.
7. A great wave came rolling towards the boat.
8. We met a woman carrying a heavy load.
9. Feeling quite secure, the burglar slept soundly.
10. Hearing the noise, he ran to the window.
11. Jumping over the fence, the thief escaped.
12. Entering the room, I found the light quite dazzling.

13. Out of the houses the rats came tumbling.
14. I am tired of working these sums.
15. The boys are very fond of swimming in the sea.

Examine the words in *italics*.

Few can face a *roaring* lion.
[*Which* lion? A *roaring* lion.]
A *barking* dog seldom bites.
Have you seen *falling* stars?
A *burnt* child dreads the fire.
Beware of a *wounded* tiger.

In the above sentences, the Participles ***roaring, barking,*** etc., are used as Adjectives before nouns**.**

In the following examples, the Participles are used as simple qualifying adjectives before a noun; thus used they are called **Principal Adjectives**. For example,

1. A *rolling* stone gathers no moss.
2. His *tattered* coat needs mending.
3. A *burnt* child dreads the fire.
4. Education is the most *pressing* need of our country.
5. He was reputed to be the most *learned* man of his time.

From the last two examples, it is noticed that a participle admits of degrees of comparison.

When used as an adjective, the Past Participle is Passive in meaning, while the Present Participle is Active in meaning; such as,

a *burnt* child refers to a child who is burnt.
a *rolling* stone refers to a stone which rolls.

Below are shown the forms of the different Participles.

Active	***Passive***
Present: loving	*Present :* being loved
Perfect: having loved	*Perfect :* having been loved
	Past : loved

USES OF PARTICIPLE

The Continuous Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Present Participle with verb *be;* such as,

I am loving. I was loving. I shall be loving.

The Perfect Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Past Participle with verb *have;* such as,

I have loved. I had loved. I shall have loved.

The Passive Voice is formed from the Past Participle with verb *be;* such as,

I am loved. I was loved. I shall be loved.

We have seen that Participles qualify *nouns* or *pronouns*. They may be used —

(1) Attributively; as,

A *rolling* stone gathers no moss.

A *lost* opportunity never returns.

(2) Predicatively; as,

The man seems *worried.* (Modifying the Subject.)

He kept me *waiting.* (Modifying the Object.)

(3) Absolutely with a noun or pronoun going before; as,

God *willing,* we shall have another good monsoon.

The weather *being fine*, I went out.

Mary *having arrived,* we were freed from anxiety.

In each of the above sentences, the Participle with the noun or pronoun going before it, forms a phrase independent of the rest of the sentence. Such a phrase is called an **Absolute Phrase**; and a noun or pronoun so used with a participle is called a **Nominative Absolute**.

ERRORS IN THE USE OF PARTICIPLES

Since the Participle is a Verb-Adjective it must be attached to some noun or pronoun. A common blunder is to leave the Participle without proper agreement, or with no agreement at all; such as,

Standing at the gate, a scorpion *stung* him. (incorrect)

Here the word "scorpion" to which the Participle "stung" refers grammatically is not that with which it is meant to be connected; hence, the Participle is wrongly attached.

The correct sentence would be as shown below:

Standing at the gate, *he* was stung by a scorpion. (correct)

[or] While he was standing at the gate, a scorpion stung him. (correct)

Now read the following sentence where the Participle is left with no agreement at all:

Being a very hot day, I remained in my tent. (incorrect)

Here the sentence contains no word to which the Participle can possibly refer. We should therefore rewrite the sentence as:

It being a very hot day, I remained in my tent. (correct)

Usage however permits in certain cases constructions where the Participle is left without a proper subject of reference. [The participle in such cases is called an *Impersonal Absolute*.] Here is an example:

Considering his abilities, he could have done better.

Roughly *speaking*, the distance from here to the nearest railway station is four kilometres.

Taking everything into consideration, the Magistrate was perfectly justified in issuing those orders.

In the above instances, the unexpressed subject is indefinite. Thus:

"Taking everything into consideration" means *If one should take everything into consideration*.

Sometimes, as in the following examples, the Participle is understood:

Sword (being) in hand, he rushed on the jailor.

Breakfast (having been) over, we went out for a walk.

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the Participle in each of the following sentences. Tell whether it is a Present or a Past Participle, and also how it is used.

1. The rain came pouring down in torrents.
2. The traveller, being weary, sat by the woodwise to rest.
3. Michael, bereft of his son Luke, died of a broken heart.
4. Being occupied with important matters, he had no leisure to see us.
5. The children coming home from school look in at the open door.
6. Books read in childhood seem like old friends.
7. Lessons learned easily are soon forgotten.
8. Seeing the sunshine, I threw open the window.

EXERCISE 6

A. Work in pairs. Combine the following pairs of sentences by making use of Participles.

Examples — The magician took pity on the mouse. He turned it into a cat.
= *Taking* pity on the mouse, the magician turned it into a cat.
The train was ready to leave the station. The people had taken their seats.
= The people *having taken* their seats, the train was ready to leave the station.

1. The porter opened the gate. We entered.
2. We started early. We arrived at noon.
3. We met a man. He was carrying a load of wood.
4. The stable door was open. The horse was stolen.
5. He seized his stick. He rushed to the door.
6. The hunter took up his gun. He went out to shoot.
7. A crow stole a piece of cheese. She flew to her nest to enjoy the tasty meal.

8. The wolf wished to pick a quarrel with the lamb. He said, "How dare you make the water muddy?"
9. A passenger alighted from the train. He fell over a bag on the platform.
10. Nanak met his brother in the street. He asked him where he was going.
11. My sister was charmed with the silk. She bought ten yards.
12. The steamer was delayed by a storm. She came into port a day late.
13. He had resolved on a certain course. He acted with vigour.
14. He staggered back. He sank to the ground.
15. The letter was badly written. I had great difficulty in making out its contents.
16. A hungry fox saw some bunches of grapes. They were hanging from a vine.

B. Now compare your answers with another pair's. Interact with them and decide which answers are correct.

EXERCISE 7

Rewrite the following sentences correctly.

1. Weary with travelling, the destination seemed a hundred miles away.
2. Having obtained information, he was arrested for complicity in the plot.
3. Resting in cool shelter, the hours were beguiled with desultory talk.
4. Going up the hill, an old temple was seen.
5. The fog being very dense, nothing could be seen.
6. Hoping to hear from you soon, yours sincerely.
7. Calling upon him yesterday, he subscribed a handsome sum to the Relief Fund.

Unit 10
Tenses

Chapter 24 Simple Present and Present Continuous Tense

SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

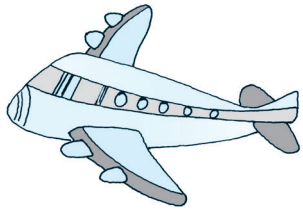

The Simple Present Tense is used

1. for habits or repeated actions
   I usually *get up* at six o'clock.
   We *play* tennis every day.
   Mr Sinha often *flies* to Delhi.
2. for general truths (things that are always true)
   The sun *rises* in the east.
   Water *boils* at 100° C.
   Fish *live* in water.
3. for things that stay the same for a long time
   My grandparents *live* in Nagpur.
   Anand *bats* well.

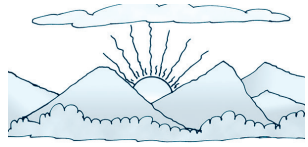

Note: The Simple Present Tense is also used to talk about the future based on official timetables.

1. The plane *leaves* at 10.15.
2. The match *starts* at 2.30.
3. The mayor *opens* the new hospital on 1st March.

EXERCISE 1

Below are six general truths. Use the Simple Present Tense to fill in the blanks.

1. The sun ..... in the west.
2. Birds ..... nests.

3. Rain ..... from the clouds.
4. Cows ..... grass.
5. Frogs ..... both on land and in water.
6. The earth ..... round the sun.

EXERCISE 2

Complete the sentences using these verbs in the Simple Present Tense.

live fly eat shine do leave

1. The stars ..... at night.
2. Birds .....with their wings.
3. Fish ..... in water.
4. The plane ..... at 6.15.
5. Goats ..... grass.
6. Tom ..... his homework regularly.

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The Present Continuous Tense is mainly used for actions which are happening now; such as,

They *are playing* cricket (now).
Your friends *are waiting* for you. Hurry up.
Ravi *is using* the Internet.
Look ! Somebody *is picking* flowers.

Note: We also use this tense to talk about actions that are happening around now but not necessarily at the time of speaking.

Mr Ram Lal *is writing* a novel. (He has started the novel but has not finished it yet. At this moment he is watching a cricket match.)

They *are painting* their house this month.

Note that certain verbs are not normally used in the continuous tenses. They include:

love	like	dislike	hate	think	believe	suppose
trust	know	want	need	agree	forget	understand
hope	refuse	see	hear	appear	seem	remember
own	belong	contain	consist	be	have	(possess)

Wrong : The boy *is wanting* chocolates.
Right : The boy *wants* chocolates.
Wrong : He *is having* a cellphone.
Right : He *has* a cellphone.
Wrong : She *is seeming* sad.
Right : She *seems* sad.

Note: The Present Continuous is also used to talk about people's plans or arrangements for the future.

I *am going* to my hometown on Saturday.
We *are meeting* Mr Ram Lal this evening.
Mr Menon *is flying* to Singapore tomorrow.

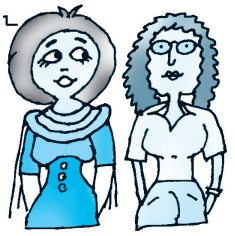

EXERCISE 3

Look at the pictures below and describe what the people are doing. Begin each sentence with He/She/They and use the Present Continuous Tense. One has been done for you.

1.

He *is picking* a flower (or: flowers).

2. 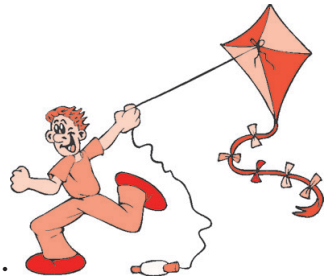

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

EXERCISE 4

Work in pairs

Look at the pictures below and say what is happening. Take turns to ask questions and answer them. See the examples given on the next page.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5. 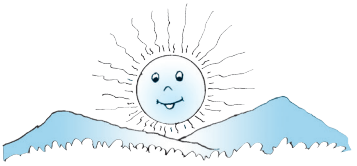

6.

7. 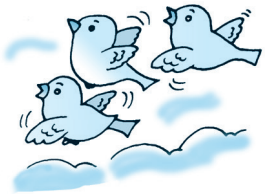

8.

9. 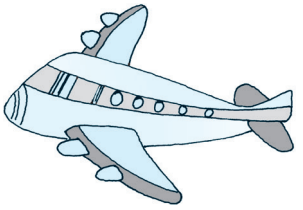

Examples

Student A : Look at picture 1. What is happening?/
What is the boy doing?

Student B : He is reading.

.....

Student B : Look at picture 9. What is happening?

Student A : An aeroplane is flying.

Chapter 25 Simple Past and Past Continuous Tense

SIMPLE PAST TENSE

We use the Simple Past for an action finished at some time in the past. We often talk or think about a definite time in the past (e.g., *Yesterday, last night, last week, three months ago, in 2004*).

They *arrived* yesterday.
She *phoned* me last Saturday.
I *bought* this camera in Bengaluru.
I *slept* well. (i.e., last night)

The Simple Past is also used for habits or repeated actions in the past.

When I was in Chennai, I *went* to the beach every day.
We usually *spent* the summer in Bengaluru.

EXERCISE 1

Below is a story that you already know. Fill in the blanks with the verbs in the box. Use the Simple Past Tense.

be drop see pick fly drink rise

A thirsty crow was flying around in search of water. It ..... a pot near a house. There ..... some water at the bottom of the pot. The crow's beak did not reach the bottom. It ..... up some small stones and ..... them one by one into the pot. Then the water..... and was near the top of the pot. The crow ..... the water and ..... away.

PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

The Past Continuous is used for an action that was still going on at a particular moment in the past.

I *was watching* the news at that time.

When I saw him he *was playing* chess.

He bit his finger when he *was having* lunch.

As in the last two sentences above, the Past Continuous is often used in combination with the Simple Past. The Past Continuous usually refers to a longer "background" action; the Simple Past is used for a new action that happened in the middle of the longer one.

EXERCISE 2

Work in pairs. Ask your partner what he or she was doing at these times last Sunday. Take turns to ask and answer.

1. 6.30 a.m.	2. 10 a.m.	3. 1 p.m.
4. 4 p.m.	5. 8 p.m.	6. 10.30 p.m.

EXERCISE 3

Put the verbs in brackets into the Simple Past or Past Continuous tense. (Use both the tenses in each sentence.)

1. It (rain) when we (come) out.
2. She (cut) her finger while she (peel) potatoes.
3. I (have) a shower when the phone (ring).
4. He (bite) his finger when he (have) lunch.
5. We (go) down in the lift when suddenly it (stop).
6. We (come) home from school when it (start) to rain.
7. I (watch) a movie when the bell (ring).
8. She (eat) lunch when I (come).

Chapter 26 Simple Future and Future Continuous Tense

We use the Simple Future Tense to talk about predictions (What we think will happen) or things which we cannot control.

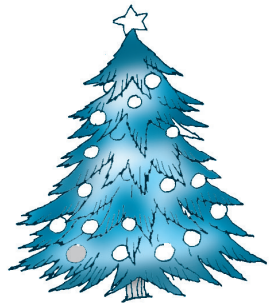

1. I think it *will rain* this afternoon.
2. I am sure you *will enjoy* the show.
3. Perhaps he *will arrive* today.
4. My father *will be* fifty-five tomorrow.
5. It *will be* Christmas in a week.

We also use this tense when we decide to do something at the time of speaking.

It is cold. I *will shut* the window.

"Tea or coffee?" "I *will have* tea."

To talk about things that we have already decided to do, we use the *going to* form (*be going to* + base form), not the Simple Future Tense.

"Have you got a washing machine? " "No, we *are going to buy* one next week."

"Why are you filling the bucket with water?" "I *am going to wash* the car."

We also use the *going to* form to talk about what seems likely or certain, when there is something in the present which tells us about the future.

It *is going to rain*; Look at those clouds.

The boat is full of water. It *is going to sink*.

We use the future continuous tense to talk about something that will be going on at a certain time in the future.

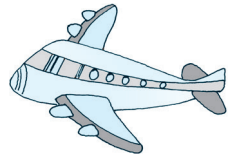

I *will be flying* to Singapore at this time tomorrow.

Don't phone me between 7.00 and 7.15. I *will be watching* the news during that time.

This tense is also used for future actions which are fixed.

Mr Mehta *will be giving* another lecture at the same time next week.

As you have learnt before, the Simple Present Tense and the Present Continuous Tense are also used to talk about the future. We use the Simple Present when we talk about timetables. The Present Continuous is used to talk about future plans.

EXERCISE 1

The verbs in the following sentences are in the Simple Past Tense. Change the sentences using the Simple Future Tense and expressions like "tomorrow", "tonight", "next week", etc.

Example

I *met* Mr Pratap Singh yesterday.

I *will meet* Mr Pratap Singh tomorrow.

1. I cleaned the motorbike yesterday.
2. We watched the video last night.
3. I phoned Mr Mehta last Sunday.
4. I bought some books last week.
5. We were very busy yesterday evening. (..... this evening)
6. We played hockey yesterday afternoon.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in each blank with the correct or more suitable verb form. Choose from the brackets.

1. I think Australia . . . . . the match. (will win/is going to win)
2. "What have you decided to do?"
   "I . . . . . the club. (will join/am going to join)
3. At this time tomorrow Mr Kapoor . . . . . to Malaysia. (is going to fly/will be flying)
4. Mr Raman is very busy at the moment.
   "That's all right. I . . . . . (will wait/am going to wait)
5. "Why do you want to sell your motorbike?"
   "I . . . . . a car. (will buy/am going to buy)

Chapter 27 Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous Tense

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

We use the Present Perfect for —

1. past actions when we think of their effect in the present
   Somebody *has broken* the window. (The window is now broken.)
   I *have cleaned* the motorbike. (It is clean now.)
   Gopi *has eaten* all the biscuits. (There are none left for you.)
2. actions that happened only a short time ago (with *just*)
   He has just *gone* out.
   I *have* just *heard* the news.

3. indefinite actions that happened in a period leading up to the present time (often with *already*, *ever*, *never*, *yet*, *twice*, *three times*, etc.)
   I *have* already *finished* my homework.
   Have you ever *seen* the Taj Mahal?
   I *have* never *seen* it./I *have seen* it twice.
4. for actions beginning at some time in the past and going on up to the moment of speaking (with *since*-and *for*-phrases)
   I *have known* him since 1996.
   We *have lived* in Nagpur for five years. (We still live in Nagpur.)

Compare the above sentence with this:

We *lived* in Nagpur for five years. (We are living in Nagpur no longer.)

The Present Perfect says about the past and about the present, while the Simple Past refers only to the past.

Use the Simple Past Tense, not the Present Perfect Tense, for an action that started and completed at a specific time in the past.

Wrong: I *have phoned* her an hour ago.
Right: I *phoned* her an hour ago.

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks using the verbs in the Present Perfect Tense.

close pay repair tread know visit

1. Suresh ..... the TV.
2. I ..... her for a long time.
3. It is very cold, so I ..... the window.
4. I ..... the Qutab Minar several times.
5. We ..... the electricity bill already.
6. Ouch! You ..... on my foot.

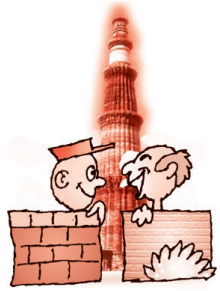

EXERCISE 2

Pair-work

Make six questions beginning with *Have you ever*. Take turns to ask and answer the questions, using the Present Perfect.

Example :

A : Have you ever seen the Taj?

B : Yes, I have seen it once/three times/several times.

Or : No I have never seen it.

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with the correct or most appropriate forms of the verbs in brackets. (Use the Simple Past or Present Perfect.)

1. We ..... the movie on video yesterday. (see)
2. I ..... Mr N P Singh since 2001. (know)
3. It is very cold, so I ..... the window. (close)

4. I ..... my breakfast half an hour ago. (have)
5. I ..... the crossword, look. (solve)
6. Abdul Kalam ..... our school last month. (visit)

We can use the Present Perfect of verbs like *know, live, stay, work, be* for actions (or states) which began in the past and are still going on.

I *have known* him for a long time.

We *have lived* in Delhi since 1995.

Note: *For* is used with a length of time (e.g. *for* three days, *for* five years) and *since* is used with a point of time (e.g. *since* 8 o'clock, *since* Monday, *since* 2001).

The Present Perfect is often used with *ever* (in questions), *never, yet, already, once, twice, three times,* etc.

1. *Have* you ever *seen* a gorilla?
2. I *have* never *visited* the Taj Mahal.
3. He *hasn't come* yet.
4. I *have* already *finished* the work.
5. I *have been* to America twice.

EXERCISE 4

Complete the sentences using these verbs in the Present Perfect Tense.

repair pay close live cut cook

1. We ..... in Hyderabad for over ten years.
2. I ..... the phone bill.
3. I ..... the computer. You can use it.
4. She ..... the dinner.
5. It is very cold, so I ..... the window.
6. Oh dear! I ..... my finger.

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

We use the Present Perfect Continuous tense for an action which started at some time in the past and is still continuing. This tense is often used with the time expressions *How long, since* ..... and *for*.....

How long *have* you been *waiting* here? It *has been raining* since 4 o'clock.

They *have been repairing* the bridge for four months.

This tense is also used for an action already finished. The results of the action happen in the present.

I am very tired. I *have been playing* tennis.

The children's hair is wet because they *have been swimming* in the river.

The children *have been playing* since 4.30.

It *has been raining* for an hour.

She *has been working* in this school for about six years.

For such actions we can use either the Present Perfect or the Present Perfect Continuous with verbs like *work, live, stay, lie,* etc. For example, there is almost no difference in meaning between the last sentence above and the following sentence:

She *has worked* in this school for about six years.

Don't use the Present Continuous Tense with *How long, since* ..... and *for* .....

Wrong : I *am reading* since 7.30.

Right : I *have been reading* since 7.30.

EXERCISE 5

Fill in the blanks with the verbs in the box. Use the Present Perfect Continuous tense.

listen watch learn play paint water

1. They ..... tennis since four o'clock.
2. He ..... TV for over an hour.
3. Rupa and Rekha ..... to the cassettes since 9.30.
4. He ..... the plants since 6 o'clock.
5. I ..... French since last month.
6. He ..... the gate for about two hours.

Chapter 28 Past Perfect Tense

We use the Past Perfect Tense for an action completed before a certain point in the past or before another action happened.

1. We reached the station at 4.45. But the train *had* already *left*.
2. The sun *had risen* when I got up.

EXERCISE 1

Mr Das did these things yesterday morning. (He did the things in the order shown.)

1. He read the newspaper.
2. He had breakfast.
3. He watched TV.
4. He talked to his friends.

Begin with when and combine the sentences using the Past Perfect tense as shown below.

When he had read the newspaper he had breakfast.
When he had had breakfast he .....

EXERCISE 2

Work with another student. Fill in the blanks with the correct *forms of the verbs* in brackets. Use the Simple Past, Past Continuous or Past Perfect.

1. Saroja ..... her hand while she ..... the dinner. (burn, cook)
2. Anil came at 10.30. You ..... to bed by that time. (go)
3. Gopi ..... asleep while he ..... the magazine. (fall, read)
4. We ..... to the cinema late, so the film ..... already. (get, start)
5. The boy ..... while he ..... (fall, run)
6. He ..... very tired because he ..... football for two hours. (feel, play)

Chapter 29 Sequence of Tense

The sequence of tense is the principle in accordance with which the Tense of the verb in a subordinate clause *follows* the Tense of the verb in the principal clause. (*Sequence* is connected with the Latin verb *sequor*, follow.)

The Sequence of Tense applies chiefly to Adverb Clauses of Purpose and Noun Clauses.

A Past Tense in the principal clause is followed by a Past Tense in the subordinate clause; such as,

1. She *replied* that she *felt* better.
2. He *saw* that the watch *had* stopped.
3. He *replied* that he *would* come.
4. I *took* care that he *should* not hear me.

There are, however, two exceptions to this rule :

(i) A Past Tense in the principal clause *may* be followed by a Present Tense in the subordinate clause when the subordinate clause expresses a universal truth; as,

1. Newton *discovered* that the force of gravitation *makes* apples fall.
2. Galileo *maintained* that the earth *moves* round the sun.
3. Euclid *proved* that the three angles of a triangle *are* equal to two right angles.
4. He *said* that honesty *is* always the best policy.

(ii) When the subordinate clause is introduced by *than*, even if there is a Past Tense in the principal clause it may be followed by *any* Tense required by the sense in the subordinate clause; such as,

1. He *liked* you better than he *likes* me.
2. He *helped* him more than he *helps* his own children.
3. I then *saw* him oftener than I *see* him now.
4. He *valued* his friendship more than he *values* mine.

A Present or Future Tense in the principal clause may be followed by *any* Tense required by the sense; such as,

1. He *thinks* that she *is* there.
2. He *thinks* that she *was* there.
3. He *thinks* that she *will* be there.
4. He *will think* that she *is* there.

But in sentences where the subordinate clause denotes *purpose*, if the verb in the principal clause is Present or Future, the verb in the subordinate clause must be Present; such as,

I *eat* so that I *may* live.

I *shall nurse* him so that he *may* live.

EXERCISE 1

Insert the correct form of the verb in the following.

1. As he ..... not there, I spoke to his brother. (to be)
2. He ran away because he ..... afraid. (to be)
3. He ran as quickly as he ..... (can or could)
4. Wherever there is coal you ..... find iron. (will or would)
5. So long as the rain ..... I stayed at home. (to continue)

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with an appropriate auxiliary verb. (Remember to observe the sequence of tenses.)

1. He said that he ..... give an early reply.
2. He asked again whether supper ..... be ready soon.
3. You make such a noise that I ..... not work.
4. In order that he ..... learn the language quickly, he engaged a teacher.
5. He said that he ..... do it.

Unit 11
Adverbs

Chapter 30 Comparison of Adverbs

You have already learnt that an adverb is a word which is used with a verb, or an adjective, or another adverb to add something to its meaning. In parsing, we call this *modifying* the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

I walked very quickly. The water was rather cold.

Very	Adverb of degree, modifying the adverb *quickly.*
Quickly	Adverb of manner, modifying the verb *walked.*
Rather	Adverb of degree, modifying the adjective *cold.*

1. I came *early* this morning.
2. Rama came *earlier.*
3. Gopal came *earliest* of all.

Thus it can be noted that like adjectives, some adverbs have three degrees of comparison — Positive, Comparative and Superlative.

In the above sentences, *early* is in the **Positive Degree,** *earlier* in the **Comparative Degree,** and *earliest* in the **Superlative Degree.**

Adverbs ending in *–ly* form the Comparative degree by adding *more* and the Superlative degree by adding *most* to its positive degree; such as,

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
neatly	more neatly	most neatly
swiftly	more swiftly	most swiftly

The crow flies *swiftly.*

The hawk flies *more swiftly* than the crow.

Pigeons fly *most swiftly* of all birds.

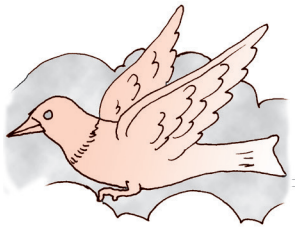

Again,

1. Abdul played *skilfully*.

2. Karim played *more skilfully* than Abdul.
3. Of all the eleven, Ahmed played *most skilfully*.

But, *early, earlier, earliest*

I came *early* this morning.

Rama came *earlier.*

Hari came *earliest* of all.

A few adverbs are compared irregularly. Some such adverbs are given in the box below.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
well	better	best
badly	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
late	later	latest, last
far	farther	farthest

Rama writes *well*.

Arjun writes *better* than Rama.

Hari writes *best* of all.

Many adverbs cannot be compared. Some such adverbs are:

thus, now, then, here, these, once, twice, very, almost, half, not, consequently.

EXERCISE 1

Give the three Degrees of Comparison for the following Adverbs.

better, least, often, long, last, cleverly.

Formation of Adverbs

Many adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding ***-ly***, sometimes with a slight change; such as,

kind, kindly; swift, swiftly; clever, cleverly; brave, bravely;

nice, nicely; heavy, heavily; happy, happily; true, truly;

noble, nobly

EXERCISE 2

Form Adverbs from the following adjectives, and use each one in a sentence.

frequent, usual, careless, former, right, eager, easy, beautiful, wrong

Forms of Adverbs: Some adverbs have the *same form* as the corresponding adjectives; such as,

Adverb	*Adjective*
It is raining *hard.*	This is a *hard* sum.
May you live *long!*	It is a *long* road.
I *little* expected this.	I have *little* money.
Come *early.*	Come by an *early* train.
Don't talk so *loud.*	He spoke in a *loud* voice.
Rama can bowl *fast.*	Rama is a *fast* bowler.

EXERCISE 3

Use the following words in sentences first as Adverbs and then as Adjectives.

fast, next, much, near, quick, slow, right, only, enough

EXERCISE 4

Identify the Adverbs in the following sentences and classify them.

1. The pitcher may go too often to the well.
2. He quietly replied that he was entirely satisfied and quite content.
3. Then the vizier went straight to the king well pleased with his great plan.
4. "I liked him little and I like you less," he began in a very loud tone, "but you have behaved wisely today and I earnestly hope you will act still more wisely tomorrow."
5. He thereupon nearly died of laughing at the poor fellow wearily struggling there in the most filthy mud.

Chapter 31 Position of Adverbs

Adverbs should be so placed in a sentence as to make it clear which word or words they are intended to qualify. Hence Adverbs should come, if possible, next to the word, or words, they qualify; such as,

He had got *almost* to the top when the rope broke.

Examine the following sentences. You will find that the meaning of a sentence is sometimes altered according to the position of the Adverb in the sentence.

1. I have *often* thought of marrying.
2. I have thought of marrying *often.*
3. He *often* says he visits his father.
4. He says he *often* visits his father.

When an Adverb modifies an Intransitive Verb it usually *follows* it; such as,

1. All the boys in this class work *well.*
2. My friend lives *there.* They arrived *late.*
3. She spoke *fluently.* He died *peacefully.*

But Adverbs of frequency, such as *always, ever, often, seldom, never, sometimes, frequently,* are placed *before* the Verb they modify.

1. He *always* speaks the truth.
2. Nothing *ever* happens by chance.
3. I *often* meet him near my house.
4. He *seldom* makes a mistake.
5. He *never* confessed his fault.
6. I *sometimes* feel depressed.
7. I *frequently* visited him while in Delhi.

But these Adverbs are placed *after* the verb *to be;* such as,

He is *always* cheerful.

With a transitive verb the Adverb *follows* the object; such as,

I feel this insult *keenly*.

He performed his duty *creditably*.

He does his work *carefully.*

When a sentence has an Auxiliary and a Principal Verb, and an Adverb qualifies it, the Adverb is usually placed *between* the Auxiliary Verb and the Ordinary Verb; such as,

I have *often* told him to write neatly.

I shall *certainly* miss him.

I did *not* know his address.

When an Adverb modifies an Adjective or another Adverb, the Adverb usually comes immediately *before* it; such as,

Rama is a *rather* lazy boy.

Do not speak *so* fast.

But the Adverb *enough* is always placed *after* the word which it modifies; such as,

He was rash *enough* to interrupt.

You know well *enough* what I mean.

He spoke loud *enough* to be heard.

The word *only* requires special care, as it is frequently misused. Note how the meanings of the following sentences change when *only* is placed in different positions.

Only he lent me a book (*i.e., he* and nobody else).

He *only* lent me a book (*i.e.,* he merely *lent* it, he did not give it away).

He lent *only* me a book (*i.e.,* to *me* and to nobody else.)

He lent me *only* a book, *or* he lent me a book *only* (*i.e.,* a *book*, and nothing more).

As a general rule, the word *only* should be placed immediately *before* the word it is intended to modify; such as,

I did *only* two sums. [*Not*, I only did two sums.]

He has slept *only* three hours.

Only Balu succeeded in scoring a century. [*Not,* Balu only succeeded, etc.]

I praise him *only* when he deserves it. [*Not,* I only praise him, etc.]

Note: In informal English, *only* is usually put before the verb, except when it refers to the subject; such as,

I *only* did two sums.

He *only* slept three hours.

In a speech, the required meaning is obtained by stressing the word which the *only* modifies.

The adverbs *ever, never, scarcely ever,* are often misplaced, as in the following sentence:

Quite the most remarkable article we ever remember to have read.

[Say: we remember ever...]

EXERCISE

Put the Adverbs into the following sentences so as to make sense.

1. The two brothers are alike (nearly).
2. He has promised to pay (faithfully).
3. There were three or four boys late (only).
4. I did not want to come (really).
5. I came to return a book (merely).
6. We can succeed by hard work (only).
7. We should speak ill of the dead (never).
8. He invited me to visit him (often).

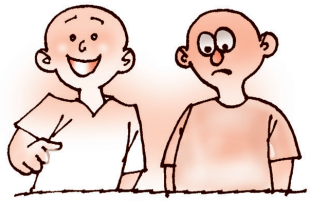

DOUBLE NEGATIVE ADVERBS

Two negatives destroy each other. Hence two negatives should not be used in the same sentence unless we wish to make an affirmation. We should say:

1. I haven't got *any* (not *none*).
2. I could not find it *any*where (not *no*where).

3. I haven't got *any* (not *no*) paper for my exercise.
4. I can't see *any* (not *no*) wit in her.
5. Scarcely *any* one believes in such ghost stories nowadays. (*Not,* No one scarcely believes...)

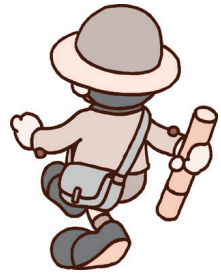

Ever is sometimes misused for *never.*

We seldom or *never* (not *ever*) see those forsaken who trust in God.

Such goods are made for export, and are seldom or *never* (not *ever*) used in this country.

Note: *Seldom or never* and *seldom if ever* are both correct; but *seldom or ever* is incorrect.

Else should be followed by *but.*

It is nothing *else but* (not *than*) pride.

The use of *never* for *not* is incorrect.

We met the other day, but he *never* referred to the matter. [Say: he *did not* ever refer...]

Kipling was *never* born in London. [Say: Kipling was *not* born...]

I *never* remember having met him. [Say: I *do not* remember ever having met him.]

So must not be used absolutely (*i.e.*, without a correlative). We should say:

He is *very* (not *so*) weak.

Cricket is *very* (not *so*) uncertain.

I was *very* (not *so*) lonely.

The adverb *too* means "more than enough", and should not be used instead of *very* or *much.* [Say: The work is *too* much for any man to do single-handed.]

Do not use *quite* in the sense of "very" or "to a considerable degree".

I am *very* (not *quite*) sorry to hear the sad news.

Chapter 32 Syntax of Adverbs

An adverb which modifies an adjective or another adverb is always placed *immediately before* the word it modifies; such as,

1. The load is *very* heavy for a horse.
2. The child is *too* young for school.
3. Rama is a *rather* lazy boy.
4. You walk *too* fast.
5. He struck the horse *most* cruelly.
6. He spoke *quite* angrily.

The adverb *enough* is the only exception to this rule, for it is always placed *after* the word which it modifies; such as,

This is a house large *enough* for our purpose.

Speak loud *enough* to be heard.

Note that an adverb should generally be placed as near as possible to the word which it modifies. It should, as a rule, immediately precede or follow.

1. He walked *fast.*
2. He *never* spoke to any one.
3. He performed his duty *creditably.*
4. I feel this insult *keenly.*

[It is to be noted that when a verb is transitive with an object following, the adverb usually *follows* the object.]

5. I could *easily* find it out.
6. I shall *certainly* miss him.
7. I shall be *utterly* undone.

[It is to be noted that the adverb is usually placed *between* the auxiliary verb and the principal verb.]

When an adverb modifies a whole *sentence,* it is usually placed first in the sentence; such as,

Fortunately, he was not hurt.

Unfortunately, he thinks too high of himself.

Certainly, you are wrong.

EXERCISE 1

Put the Adverbs in brackets in the correct place in each of the following sentences.

1. He is in time for meals (never).
2. This is not good (enough).
3. She goes to the cinema (seldom).
4. I know the answer (already).
5. Have we met? (before)

EXERCISE 2

Consider each of the following sentences. Then write it in two different ways giving it a different meaning by changing the position of the word in parentheses.

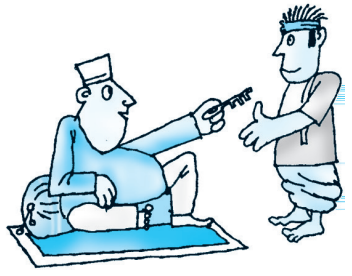

1. There is no need to shout (often).
2. They saw three men (only).
3. I told him to leave the house (instantly).
4. The servant promised to do it (quickly).

Unit 12
Prepositions

Chapter 33 Definition and Usage

On

In

Above

Under

Near

Shows relation between Subject and Object

1. The apples are *on* the desk.
2. The dog is *under* the desk.
3. The mouse is *near* the keyboard.
4. The apples are *in* the box.
5. The mother board is *beside* the monitor.
6. The cloud is *above* the aeroplane.
7. The aeroplane is *below* the cloud.

Each of the above sentences contains a word that shows the *relation between* the subject and the object. Such words as *on, in, under, below, beside,* etc., are called **Prepositions.**

Now examine the following sentences:

1. He lives *near* us.
2. He came *with* me.
3. The letter is *from* him.
4. I do not believe *in* them.
5. There is a wall *round* it.
6. There are some books *near* the table.

In these sentences you can see the Prepositions have been used with pronouns.

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun (or a pronoun) to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Prepositions in the following sentences.

1. Father is not at home.
2. Let us go for a walk.
3. He has eaten nothing since yesterday.
4. The boy fell off his bike.
5. What is that in your hand?
6. He was among the crowd.
7. I gave fifty rupees for it.
8. Let us walk along the shore.
9. I don't know anything about it.
10. The policeman is on duty.

EXERCISE 2

There are 22 Prepositions hidden in this grid. Can you find them? The words go either across or down.

a	i	b	e	s	i	d	e	o
t	n	b	e	t	w	e	e	n
a	b	e	u	t	i	f	n	t
c	y	l	p	i	t	o	a	o
r	d	o	o	l	h	r	f	o
o	t	w	n	l	o	i	t	v
s	i	n	c	e	u	p	e	e
s	f	r	o	m	t	w	r	r
a	l	o	n	g	p	a	s	t

OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

A *preposition must have an object.* If we say "The letter is from" the sentence is not complete. The letter must be from somebody (or some place). The preposition must have an object or the sentence is not complete. We must say "The letter is from Rama" or "The letter is from Mumbai" or something similar.

If you look at the first seven sentences in this chapter, you will see that the noun in each case, is the object of the preposition.

In the sentence "He lives *near* us," the pronoun *us* is the object of the preposition *near.*

The noun or pronoun that follows a preposition is said to be *governed by the preposition,* and is called its *Object.*

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Preposition and its Object in each of the following sentences.

1. He is blind in one eye.
2. His house is near mine.
3. He returned after a year.
4. Have you seen a rose without a thorn?
5. What are you looking at?
6. What is he talking about?
7. She is weak in arithmetic.
8. The horse jumped over the hedge.
9. She spoke in a whisper.
10. The boy climbed up the ladder.

EXERCISE 4

Fill in the blanks with suitable Prepositions.

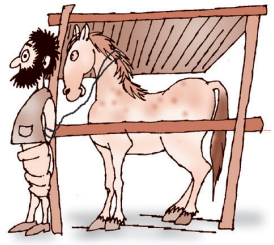

1. The horse is ..... the stable.
2. He got angry ..... me.
3. Do not go ..... the river.
4. He jumped .....the gate.
5. He sat .....a chair.
6. The coolie saw a snake ..... his foot.
7. The sky is ..... our heads.
8. We took shelter ..... a tree.
9. You will be punished ..... your fault.
10. It is raining; do not go ..... your umbrella.

PREPOSITIONS THAT CAN BE ADVERBS

Read the sentences given below.

1. Have you seen an aeroplane go *up*?
2. The little boy climbed *up* the ladder.

In the first sentence the word *up* adds something to the meaning of the verb *go.* It is therefore an adverb modifying the verb *go.*

In the second sentence the word *up* shows the relation between the "climbing of the little boy" and "the ladder". It is therefore a preposition governing the noun *ladder.*

It will be seen that many words which are Prepositions when they are used with a noun or a pronoun, are Adverbs when they stand alone and modify a word in the sentence.

Examine the following pairs of sentences.

1. There are thieves *about.* (Adv.)
   We often talk *about* you. (Prep.)
2. I have heard that *before.* (Adv.)
   He arrived there a few minutes *before* me. (Prep.)
3. He lives close *by.* (Adv.)
   I require my new coat *by* Monday. (Prep.)
4. The train is *in.* (Adv.)
   He is *in* bad health. (Prep.)
5. The flowers are coming *on.* (Adv.)
   I hope to see you *on* Tuesday. (Prep.)

Several words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions.

A word is a Preposition when it governs a noun or pronoun; it is an Adverb when it does not.

Adverb	*Preposition*
I could not come *before.*	I came the day *before* yesterday.
The wheel came *off*.	The driver jumped *off* the car.
Let us move *on.*	The book lies *on* the table.
Take this parcel *over* to the post-office.	He rules *over* a vast empire.
I have not seen him *since.*	I have not slept *since* yesterday.

EXERCISE 5

Work in pairs and decide which of the words in italics are Adverbs and which Prepositions.

1. *After* a month he returned.
2. She arrived soon *after.*
3. Let us move *on.*
4. The book lies *on* the table.
5. He is feared by all *below* him.
6. Come down *below.*
7. He looked at the sky *above*.
8. He was only a yard *off* me.

EXERCISE 6

Name the Prepositions in the following sentences, and mention the word which each governs.

1. Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.
2. Old Mother Hubbard, she went to the cupboard.
3. The lion and the unicorn fought for the crown.
4. Such a number of rooks came over her head.
5. John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown.
6. Into the street the Piper slept.
7. Mine be a cot beside the hill.
8. Around my ivied porch shall spring each fragrant flower that drinks the dew.
9. One crowded hour of glorious life is worth an age without a name.
10. I tried to reason him out of his fears.

EXERCISE 7

Form sentences to illustrate the use of the following words (1) as Prepositions and (2) as Adverbs:

1. behind
2. along
3. up
4. about
5. by
6. beyond
7. in
8. before
9. before
10. after

THE OBJECT TO A PREPOSITION CAN BE AN ADVERB

We have seen that the object to a Preposition is a Noun or a Pronoun. *Sometimes, however, the object to a Preposition is an Adverb of Time or Place*; such as,

Since *then* (that time) he has not shown his face.
How far is it from *here* (this place)?
It cannot last for *ever*.

Sometimes the object to a Preposition is an Adverbial Phrase; such as,

Each article was sold at *over a shilling*.
He swore from dawn till *far into the night.*
He did not see her till *a few days ago.*

A Clause can also be the object to a Preposition; such as,

Pay careful attention to *what I am going to say.*
There is no meaning in *what you say.*

Note: We will read about Phrases and Clauses later in this book.

The object to a preposition, when it is a relative pronoun, is sometimes omitted; such as,

He is the man I was looking for. [Here *whom* is understood.]
These are good rules to live by. [Here *which* is understood.]

PARTICIPIAL PREPOSITIONS

Barring, concerning, considering, during, notwithstanding, pending, regarding, respecting, touching, and a few similar words which are present participles of verbs, are used absolutely without any noun or pronoun being attached to them. For all practical purposes they have become Prepositions, and are sometimes distinguished as **Participial Prepositions**.

Barring (excepting, apart from) accidents, the mail will arrive tomorrow.

Concerning (about) yesterday's fire, there are many rumours in the bazaar.

Considering (taking into account) the quality, the price is not high.

Ulysses is said to have invented the game of chess *during* the siege of Troy.

Notwithstanding (in spite of) the resistance offered by him, he was arrested by the police.

Pending further orders, Mr Desai will act as Headmaster.

Regarding your inquiries, we regret to say that at present we are not interested in imitation silk.

Respecting the plan you mention, I shall write to you hereafter.

Touching (with regard to) this matter I have not as yet made up my mind.

Chapter 34 Words Followed by Appropriate Prepositions

Read the following sentences, noting the correct usage.

1. India is a noble, gorgeous land, teeming *with* natural wealth.
2. Being apprised *of* our approach, the whole neighbourhood came out to meet their minister.
3. In the classical age, the ideal life of the Brahman was divided *into* four stages or *asrams*.
4. It is natural in every man to wish *for* distinction.
5. He was endowed *with* gifts fitted to win eminence in any field of human activity.
6. The writer is evidently enamoured *of* the subject.
7. The House of Commons was then almost inaccessible *to* strangers.
8. Ambition does not always conduce *to* ultimate happiness.
9. The true gentleman is courteous and affable *to* his neighbours.
10. Newly acquired freedom is sometimes liable *to* abuse.
11. Little Jack proved quite a match *for* the giant.
12. The African elephant is now confined *to* Central Africa.
13. Camels are peculiarly adapted *to* life in the desert.
14. He is a man of deep learning, but totally ignorant *of* life and manners.
15. The income derived *from* the ownership of land is commonly called rent.
16. The Muslims were famous *for* their learning and their skill in all kinds of industries.
17. Alexander profited *by* dissensions of the Punjab Rajas.
18. Few things are impossible *to* diligence and skill.
19. Ancient India was largely indebted *to* Iranian ideas and practices.
20. Ashoka, although tolerant *of* competing creeds, was personally an ardent Buddhist.

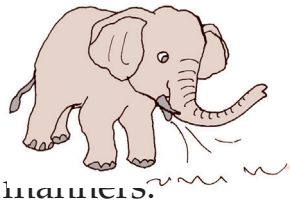

Usage requires the use of certain Prepositions after certain Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, and Participles.

Note the use of *since* and *for* in the perfect tenses. *Since* is used with a point of time and *for* with a period of time.

We have lived here { since 1998.
for seven years.

Till is used of *time,* and *to* is used of *place;* such as,

I slept *till* eight o'clock.

He walked *to* the end of the street.

With often denotes the *instrument,* and *by* the *agent;* such as,

He killed two birds *with* one shot.

He was stabbed *by* a lunatic *with* a dagger.

Beside means *at* (or *by*) *the side of,* while *besides* means *in addition to;* such as,

Beside the ungathered rice he lay.

Besides his children, there were present his nephews and nieces.

Besides being fined, he was sentenced to a term of imprisonment.

Be careful not to use *beside* for *besides.*

We use *by* + noun to say how somebody travels. (We do not use *the* or *a/an* before the noun.) We say:

by bicycle, *by* motorbike, *by* car/taxi/bus/train, *by* boat/ship/plane, *by* air/sea

We do not use *by* when the reference is to a specific bicycle, car, train, etc. We use *on* to mean a specific bicycle, bus, train, ship or plane, and *in* to mean a specific car, taxi, van or lorry.

Anil went there *on* my bike. (not: *by* my bike)

We travelled *in* Mr Rehman's car. (not: *by* Mr Rehman's car)

They came *in* a taxi.

Let's go *on* the 2.30 bus.

EXERCISE 1

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. No doubt he has achieved much, but I cannot give him the credit ..... all that he boasts .....
2. The despotism of custom is everywhere the standing hindrance ..... human achievement.
3. He is indebted ..... his friend ..... a large sum.
4. What Dr Arnold mainly aimed ....., was to promote the self- development of the young minds committed..... his charge.
5. He was much enamoured ..... her but he forgot his duties ..... his children.
6. It is difficult to agree ..... those critics who ascribe the words of Shakespeare ..... Bacon.
7. In his autobiography he refers ..... his abhorrence ..... animal diet.
8. A slave lies ..... the necessity ..... obeying his master's orders.
9. Samudragupta was known ..... his skill ..... music and song; he was equally proficient ..... the allied art of poetry.
10. It is the grasping of power combined ..... the thirst ..... fame which constitutes ambition.

PREPOSITION BASED USAGE

Sometimes a word takes a certain Preposition after it in one context and a different Preposition in another context.

1. We should accommodate ourselves *to* circumstances. My friend accommodated me *with* a loan.
2. I differ *with* you *on* this question. Your car differs *from* mine *in* several respects.
3. I am anxious *about* the result. I am anxious *to* avoid misunderstanding. Her parents are anxious *for* her safety.

4. He has retired *from* business. He has retired *into* private life.
5. He has great influence *over* his disciples. He has hardly any influence *with* the Vizier. The remarks of his critics had considerable influence *on* his writings.
6. All his life he laboured *for* the good of humanity. He is labouring *under* a misapprehension. He laboured *at* his dictionary for twelve years.
7. Trespassers are liable *to* a fine of ₹ 500. He is liable *for* his wife's debts.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. A child is not able to distinguish good ..... evil. Death does not distinguish ..... the rich and the poor. Sir Roland Ross is distinguished ..... his medical researches. Punch is distinguished ..... his hunch-back. (between, by, for from)
2. I am not concerned ..... his affairs. I am not concerned ..... him ..... that business. He was much concerned ..... hearing the sad news. His parents are naturally concerned ..... his safety. (about, at, for, in, with)
3. On account of his age he is disqualified ..... competing. Ill-health disqualifies the body ..... labour and the mind ..... study. (for, from)
4. The edition of Ivanhoe is adapted ..... Indian students. The form and structure of nests are adapted ..... the wants and habits of each species. Many Urdu plays are adapted ..... English. (for, from, to)
5. Innocence is not a proof ..... scandal. He was discharged as there was no proof ..... his guilt. (against, of)
6. True charity does not consist ..... indiscriminate alms giving. Brass consists ..... copper and zinc. (in, of)
7. He agreed ..... my proposal. He agreed ..... me on that question. They could not agree ..... themselves. (among, to, with)
8. He invested his patrimony ..... jute shares. The Police Commissioner is invested ..... magisterial powers. (in, with)

9. Let us talk ..... something else. For a while they talked ..... politics. I will talk ..... my son respecting his conduct. (about, of, to)
10. He takes no interest ..... politics. What you say has no interest ..... me. I have no interest ..... the agents of the firm. (for, in, with)

Some related words take different Prepositions after them.

1. I acted *accordingly to* his advice.
2. In *accordance with* his advice I took chloroquin.
3. She has great *affection for* her grandchildren.
4. The old lady is *affectionate to* all.
5. The flood and ebb tides *alternate with* each other.
6. The *alternative to* submission is death.
7. It is all due to his *ambition for* fame.
8. He is *ambitious of* fame.
9. He is *capable of* anything.
10. He has not the requisite *capacity for* this work.
11. He has great *confidence in* his assistant.
12. He is quite *confident of* success.
13. What a *contrast to* his brother!
14. What a *contrast between* them!
15. The present speech is mild *contrasted with* his past utterances on the same subject.
16. It is not likely to *derogate from* his merit.
17. He never said or did anything *derogatory to* his high position.
18. He is *descended from* a noble family.
19. He is a *descendant of* the former Nawab of Oudh.

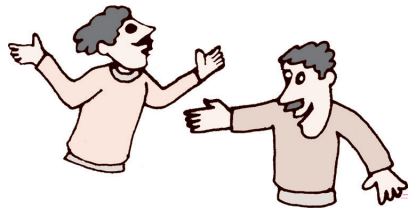

PREPOSITION MAY OR MAY NOT FOLLOW A VERB

Sometimes a verb is followed by a preposition; sometimes no preposition follows it. The meaning however is not always the same in both cases.

1. I *call* that mean. I *called on* him at his office.
2. I don't *catch* your meaning. A drowning man *catches at* a straw.
3. This *closed* the proceedings. After a little higgling he *closed with* my offer.
4. He *commenced* life as a shop-assistant. The proceedings *commenced with* a song.
5. Have you *counted* the cost? I *count upon* your advice and co-operation.
6. He *dealt* unfairly in this matter. He *deals in* cotton and cloth.
7. The compounder *dispenses* medicines. His master *dispensed with* his services.
8. He *gained* his object by persuasion. He *gained upon* his rich uncle by his suave manners.

NO USE OF INFINITIVE

Do not use the infinitive with certain words which require a preposition followed by a gerund or by a verbal noun.

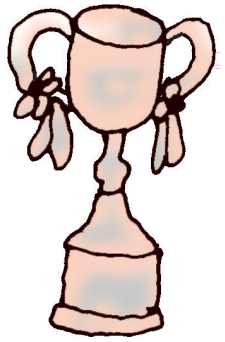

1. He is addicted to gambling. [Not: to gamble.]
2. He is averse to playing cards.
3. He has hardly any chance of succeeding.
4. He is confident of securing the first prize.
5. He is desirous of visiting Japan.
6. He despaired of achieving his object.
7. There is some difficulty in perceiving his meaning.
8. Hereafter he is disqualified for holding any government post.
9. Remember the duty of helping the poor.
10. You can have no excuse for talking bluntly.

Note: Sometimes both constructions are allowable; e.g.,

He was afraid of telling the truth.
He was afraid to tell the truth.
He at last got the opportunity of meeting him.
He at last got the opportunity to meet him.

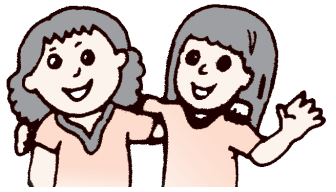

Unit 13
Conjunctions

Chapter 35 Definition and Usage

Read the sentences given below:

1. Rama has gone *and* Arjun has come.
2. Do your work *or* I shall punish you.
3. I called him *but* he did not hear me.

The word *and* joins the two groups of words *Rama has gone* and *Arjun has come.*

The word *or* joins the word group *Do your work* to the word group *I shall punish you.*

The word *but* joins the word group *I called him* to the word group *he did not hear me.*

These words *and, or, but,* which are used *to join* one group of words to another, are called **Conjunctions**. (Latin *con,* together, and *junctus,* joined.)

Sometimes a Conjunction merely joins *words;* such as,

Two *and* two make four.

A **Conjunction** is a word that joins words or groups of words together.

The following sentences contain some more examples of Conjunctions.

I did not come *because* you did not call me.
Give me water to drink, *else* I shall die of thirst.
You will get the prize *if* you deserve it.
Do not go *before* I come.
I hear *that* your brother is in London.
Will you wait *till* I return?
He deserved to succeed *for* he worked hard.
He asked *whether* he might have a holiday.
I will stay *until* you return.

He was sorry *after* he had done it.
Unless you tell me the truth, I shall punish you.
He finished first *though* he began late.
Since you say so, I must believe it.
As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
When I was younger I thought so.
They are poor *yet* cheerful.
The bag was heavy *therefore* I could not carry it.
I missed the train *although* I walked fast.
The earth is larger *than* the moon [is large].

CORRELATIVES

Some Conjunctions are used in pairs; such as,

Both — and: We *both* love *and* honour him.
Either — or: Either take it *or* leave it.
Neither — nor: It is *neither* useful *nor* ornamental.
Whether — or: I do not care *whether* you go *or* stay.
Not only — but also: Not only is he foolish, *but also* obstinate.

Conjunctions which are thus used in pairs are called **Correlative Conjunctions** or merely **Correlatives.**

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Conjunctions in the following sentences.

1. The bag was heavy therefore I could not carry it.
2. He will help you if you ask him.
3. He will never succeed although he works hard.
4. Ask him whether he wishes to go or not.
5. You can come if you like.
6. Either you or I must go.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Conjunctions.

1. Will you kindly wait ..... I return ?
2. Catch me ..... you can.
3. The grasshopper would not have starved in winter ..... she had not been lazy all the summer.
4. We saw the lightning ..... we heard the thunder.
5. I will go away ..... you do not want me.
6. The tortoise beat the hare ..... the hare was the swifter of the two.

EXERCISE 3

Join the following pairs of sentences by means of a suitable Conjunction.

1. Rama works hard. Hari is idle.
2. He was afraid of being late. He ran.
3. I stumbled. I was going downstairs.
4. Balu made twelve runs. He was caught at the wicket.
5. He did not succeed. He worked hard.

When Conjunctions are used as Correlatives, each of the correlated words should be placed *immediately before* the words to be connected; such as,

He visited *not only* Agra, *but also* Delhi.

(*Not*) He *not only* visited Agra, *but also* Delhi.

We use many compound expressions as Conjunctions; these are called **Compound Conjunctions**.

Chapter 36 Subordinating Conjunctions

Read the sentence given below:

I read the paper *because* it interests me.

The sentence contains two statements or clauses one of which "because it interests me" is *dependent* on the other for its full meaning. Hence the Conjunction introducing the *dependent* or *subordinate* clause is called a **Subordinating Conjunction**.

A Subordinating Conjunction joins a subordinate clause to a main clause.

The chief Subordinating Conjunctions are:

after, because, if, that, though, although, till, before, unless, as, since, when, where, while, how. Note their use in the following sentences.

1. *After* the shower was over the sun shone out again.
2. He ran away *because* he was afraid.
3. You will pass *if* you work hard.
4. Tell them *that* I will come.
5. He finished first *though* he began late.
6. A book's a book, *although* there is nothing in it.
7. Will you wait *till* I return?
8. Answer the first question *before* you proceed further.
9. He will not pay *unless* he is compelled.
10. *As* he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
11. *Since* you say so, I must believe it.
12. *When* I was younger I thought so.
13. He found his watch *where* he had left it.
14. Make hay *while* the sun shines.
15. I do not understand *how* it all happened.

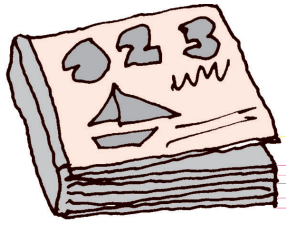

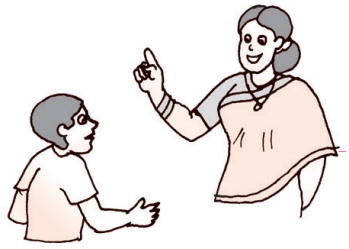

The word *than* is also a Subordinating Conjunction:

I like you better *than* he (likes you).

I like you better *than* (I like) him.

Subordinating Conjunctions may be classified according to their meaning, as follows:

1. **Time**

   I would die *before* I lied.

   Many things have happened *since* I saw you.

   I returned home *after* he had gone.

2. **Place**

   They can stay *where* they are.

   Sit *wherever* you like.

3. **Cause** or **Reason**

   My strength is like the strength of ten, *because* my heart is pure.

   Since you want it, it will be done.

   As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.

4. **Purpose**

   We eat so *that* we may live.

   He held my hand *lest* I should fall.

5. **Result** or **Consequence**

   He was so tired *that* he could scarcely stand.

6. **Condition**

   Rama will go *if* Hari goes.

   Grievances cannot be redressed *unless* they are known.

7. **Concession**

   Though he was ill, he went to the office.

   A book's a book, *although* there's nothing in it.

8. **Comparison**

   He is older *than* he looks.

Chapter 37 Coordinating Conjunctions

Read the sentence given below:

Birds fly *and* fish swim.

The sentence contains two independent statements or two statements of equal rank or importance. Hence the Conjunction joining together these two statements or clauses of equal rank is called a Co-ordinating Conjunction. [“Co-ordinating” means of equal rank.]

A Coordinating Conjunction joins together clauses of *equal rank*.

The chief Coordinating Conjunctions are:

and, but, for, or, nor, also, either .... or, neither .... nor.

Coordinating Conjunctions are of *four* kinds:

1. **Cumulative** or **Copulative** which merely *add* one statement to another; such as,
   We carved not a line, *and* we raised not a stone.
2. **Adversative** which express opposition or *contrast* between two statements; such as,
   He is slow, *but* he is sure.
   I was annoyed, *still* I kept quiet.
   He was alright; *only* he was fatigued.
3. **Disjunctive** or **Alternative** which express a *choice* between two alternatives; such as,
   She must weep *or* she will die.
   Either he is mad, *or* he feigns madness.
   They toil not, *neither* do they spin.
   Walk quickly, *else* you will not overtake him.
4. **Illative** which express an *inference;* such as,
   Something certainly fell in; *for* I heard a splash.

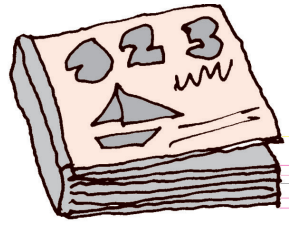

Any of the Coordinating Conjunctions, with the exception of *or, nor,* may be omitted and their place is taken by a comma, semicolon, or colon; as,

Rama went out to play; Hari stayed in to work.

EXERCISE 1

Point out the Conjunctions in the following sentences, and state whether they are Coordinating or Subordinating.

1. I did not come because you did not call me.
2. Catch me if you can.
3. Is that story true or false?
4. Tom runs faster than Harry.
5. You will be late unless you hurry.
6. He asked whether he might have a holiday.
7. He deserved to succeed, for he worked hard.
8. We can travel by land or water.

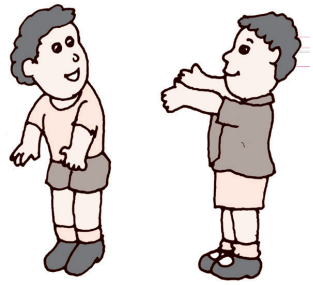

EXERCISE 2

Use these Conjunctions in complete sentences.

But, either .... or, neither .... nor, whether .... or, That, before, how, as, unless, until, though, when, while, where, if, than.

EXERCISE 3

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Conjunctions.

1. Be just ..... fear not.
2. I ran fast, ... I missed the train.
3. Make haste, ... you will be late.
4. ..... you try, you will not succeed.
5. I am sure ..... he said so.
6. Wait ..... I return.
7. He was punished ..... he was guilty.
8. He will not pass the exam ..... he studies hard.

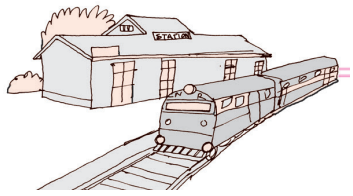

Chapter 38 Uses of Conjunctions

Since, as a Conjunction, means —

1. *From and after the time when;* such as,
   Many things have happened *since* I left school.
   I have never seen him *since* that unfortunate event happened.

Note: *Since,* when used as a Conjunction in this sense, should be preceded by a verb in the *present perfect tense,* and followed by a verb in the *past indefinite tense.*

2. *Seeing that, inasmuch as;* such as,
   Since you will not work, you shall not eat.
   Since there's no help, come let us kiss and part.

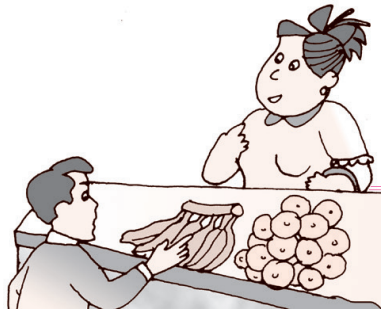

Or is used —

1. To introduce an alternative; such as,
   Your purse *or* your life.
   You must work *or* starve.

Note: There may be several alternatives each joined to the preceding one by *or,* presenting a choice between any two in the series; such as,

He may study law *or* medicine *or* engineering, *or* he may enter into trade.

2. To introduce an alternative name or synonym; such as,
   The violin *or* fiddle has become the leading instrument of the modern orchestra.
3. *To mean* **otherwise***;* such as,
   We must hasten, *or* night will overtake us.
4. *As nearly equivalent to* **and***;* such as,
   All troops were not wanting in strength *or* courage, but they were badly led.

If is used to mean —

1. *On the condition or supposition that;* such as,
   If he is there, I shall see him.
   If that is so, I am content.
2. *Admitting that;* such as,
   If I am blunt, I am at least honest.
   If I am poor, yet I am honest.
3. *Whether;* such as,
   I asked him *if* he would help me.
   I wonder *if* he will come.
4. *Whenever;* such as,
   If I feel any doubt I inquire.

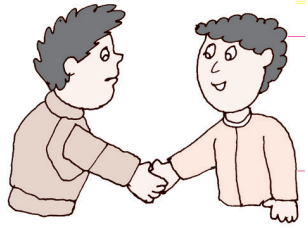

That as a Conjunction retains much of its force as a Demonstrative Pronoun. Thus the sentence "I am told that you are miserable" may be transposed into "You are miserable, I am told *that*."

That is now used —

1. to express a Reason or Cause, and is equivalent to *because, for that, in that;* such as,
   Not *that* I loved Caesar less, but *that* I loved Rome more.
   He was annoyed *that* he was contradicted.
2. To express a Consequence, Result, or Effect; such as,
   I am so tired *that* I cannot go on.
   He bled so profusely *that* he died.
   He was so tired *that* he could scarcely stand.

Than, as a Conjunction, follows adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree; as,

Wisdom is better *than* rubies (are).
I see you oftener *than* (I see) him.
I am better acquainted with the country *than* you are.
I would rather suffer *than* that you should want.

Lest is used as Subordinating Conjunction expressing a negative purpose, and is equivalent to "in order that ... not", "for fear that"; as,

Do not be idle, *lest* you come to want.

He fled *lest* he should be killed.

I was alarmed *lest* we should be wrecked.

Note: Today *lest* is not used except in literary English.

While is used to mean —

1. *During the time that, as long as;* such as,
   While he was sleeping, an enemy sowed tares.
   While there is life there is hope.
2. *At the same time that;* such as,
   The girls sang *while* the boys played.
   While he found fault, he also praised.
3. *Whereas;* such as,
   While I have no money to spend, you have nothing to spend on.
   While this is true of some, it is not true of all.

Only, as a Conjunction, means *except that*, such as,

A very pretty woman, *only* she squints a little.

A day is pleasant, *only* rather cold.

Except is not used as a conjunction equivalent to *unless.*

I shall not come *unless* (not *except*) you need me.

Do not trouble yourself about writing to me, *unless* (not *except*) you are quite in the humour for it.

Scarcely should be followed by *when*, and not by *than.*

Scarcely had he gone, *when* (not *than*) a policeman knocked at the door.

No sooner is followed by *than*, and not by *but.*

No sooner had he returned *than* (not *but*) he was off again.

The phrase "seldom or ever" is meaningless. We should say 'seldom or never".

Such goods are made for export, and are *seldom or never* used in this country.

Say: I gave no more than I could *not* help (not *than I could* help)

This is as good if not better than that.

You will notice that *as* is omitted after "as good". Say:

This is as good as, if not better than, that.

But the best way to recast it is:

This is as good as that, if not better.

Care should be taken, when using correlative conjunctions, such as *either...or, neither..nor, not only...but also,* that they are followed by the same part of speech; as,

He lost *not only* his ticket, *but also* his luggage.

But the following is *incorrect:*

He not only lost his ticket, but also his luggage.

Neither is followed by *nor,* not by *or.*

He washed *neither* his hands *nor* (not *or*) his face.

Unit 14
Interjections

Chapter 39 Definition and usage

Read these sentences given below:

1. *Hurrah*! Our side has won.
2. *Alas*! We have lost.
3. *Hush*! I hear someone coming.
4. *Bravo*, Rama! Well hit.
5. *Hallo*, Govind! How are you?
6. *Ouch*! You are hurting me.
7. *Wow*! What a wonderful painting!
8. *Hey*! Where are you going?
9. *Ah*! that's the excuse every lazy boy makes.
10. *Oh*! What a beautiful rose!

Each of the above sentences begins with a word which is used *to show a sudden feeling*.

The word *Hurrah* is used to express pleasure.

The word *Alas* is used to express sadness. (Today this word is rarely used in spoken English.)

Sh (or *shh/Ssh)* is used to tell somebody to be quiet.

Bravo is used to show approval of something.

Hallo (or Hello/Hullo) is used when meeting or greeting someone or when starting a conversation on the phone.

Ouch is a cry expressing sudden pain.

Wow is used to express great surprise or admiration.

Hey is used to attract someone's attention or to express interest, surprise or anger.

Ah expresses surprise, pleasure, admiration, etc.

Oh expresses surprise, fear, pleasure, etc.

These words that express a sudden feeling are called **Interjections**.

An **Interjection** is a word that expresses an emotion such as surprise, excitement, anger, shock, etc.

The word *Interjection* comes from the Latin words *inter*, and *jactus*, which mean "between" and "thrown" respectively. In simple terms, it is a word 'thrown' into a sentence and does not really form a part of it.

EXERCISE

A. Fill in the blanks with suitable Interjections.

1. ..... ! You have done well.
2. ..... ! You will wake the baby.
3. ..... ! India has won!
4. ..... ! What are you doing there?
5. ..... ! You have stepped on my foot!
6. ..... ! What a strong man!

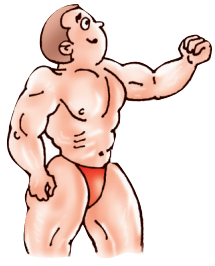

B. Imagine you are watching a cricket match or some other interesting or exciting programme on TV. What interjections would you use to express your feelings? Write five sentences, using an Interjection in each one of them.

.....

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Unit 15

Sentences

Chapter 40 Definition

When we speak or write, we use words.
We use these words in groups.

When a group of words makes *complete sense*, we call it a **Sentence**; such as,

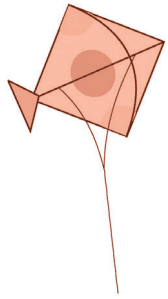

Mary had a little lamb.
Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.
The girl is reading.
Look at my kite.
Why are you standing here?

A **Sentence** is a group of words which makes complete sense.

EXERCISE

Which of the following groups of words are Sentences?

1. My friend Rama.
2. The wind is cold.
3. Barking dogs.
4. She is a good girl.
5. Behind the door.
6. Birds fly.
7. The express bus.
8. On the desk.
9. Fire burns.
10. My sister and my brother.
11. In the fridge.
12. The phone rang.
13. That new computer.
14. On Channel 12.
15. Switch it off.
16. The boy laughed.

Chapter 41 Subject and Predicate

Every sentence that we speak or write consists of two parts.

1. We must talk about some *person* or *thing*, if we talk at all.
2. We must *say* something about that person or thing.

In other words, we must have a *subject* to talk about and we must *say* or *predicate* something about that subject.

If I come up to you and say "Your father," you know that that is the subject about which I wish to talk. But I have said nothing about that subject. To make a sentence I must say something about your father.

If I say "Your father knows me," I have expressed a *complete* thought. I have made a sentence.

EXERCISE 1

A. Say something about the following Subjects.

Rama, cows, Mumbai, birds, the sun, the television, Mahatma Gandhi

B. Group work

Read your sentences to each other in groups of five and discuss which sentences are correct or the best.

EXERCISE 2

The following groups of words are not sentences. They do not express complete thoughts. They have no subjects. Give each one a Subject.

1. ..... is sweet.
2. ..... caught a mouse.
3. ..... has three windows.
4. ..... love little pussy.
5. ..... like milk.
6. ..... build nests.
7. ..... is crowing.
8. How well ..... sings!
9. ..... is ringing.
10. Once upon a time there lived .....

THE SIMPLE SUBJECT

Examine these sentences.

1. Mary had a little lamb.
2. Little Hari is the cleverest boy in the class.
3. The poor old woman gets little food.

Which is the Subject in sentence 1? — *Mary*

Which is the Subject in sentence 2? — *Little Hari*

Here, the Subject consists of more than one word, Little Hari. Of the two words, *Hari* is more important. We call it therefore the **Subject-word** or the **Simple Subject** to distinguish it from the Complete Subject.

Which is the Subject in sentence 3? — *The poor old woman*

Here the noun *woman* is the most important word in the Subject. Therefore the noun *woman* is the Subject-word or the Simple Subject.

We now divide or analyse the above sentences, italicising the Simple Subject:

No.	SUBJECT	PREDICATE
1.	Mary	had a little lamb.
2.	Little *Hari*	is the cleverest boy in the class.
3.	The poor old *woman*	gets little food.

EXERCISE 3

Divide the following sentences into Subject and Predicate, and underline the Subject Word.

1. The foolish crow tried to sing.
2. My new watch keeps good time.
3. The hungry child wept bitterly.
4. A cold wind blew last night.
5. Your book lay open on the desk.
6. Old Tubal Cain was a man of might.
7. Small people love to talk nonsense.
8. The morning sun shall dawn again.

THE SIMPLE PREDICATE

Examine these sentences.

1. Birds fly.
2. The boss replied angrily.
3. She writes her copybook neatly.

What is the Predicate in sentence 1? — *fly*

What is the Predicate in sentence 2? — *replied angrily*

Here the Predicate consists of more than one word, *replied angrily*. The verb *replied* is clearly more important of the two because without it we cannot form the Predicate. We call it the **Simple Predicate** or the **Predicate-Verb** to distinguish it from the Complete Predicate.

What is the Predicate in sentence 3? — *writes her copybook neatly.* What is the most important word in the Predicate? The verb *writes.*

It will be noticed that every Predicate is either a Verb or contains a Verb, because no Predicate can be formed without a Verb.

We now break up or analyse the above sentences, putting the Verb in a separate column.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE
		Verb	***Rest of Predicate***
1.	Birds	fly.	
2.	The boss	replied	angrily.
3.	She	writes	her copybook neatly.

It will be noticed that in sentence 1 the Predicate is simply a Verb.

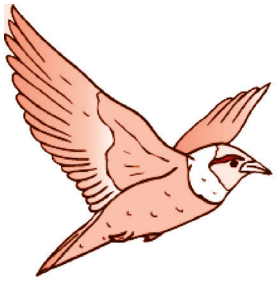

Chapter 42 Enlargement of Subject and Predicate

Examine these sentences.

1. Bad boys hide their faults.
2. Shirin's mother is ill.
3. The village master taught his little school.

Which is the Complete Subject in sentence 1? — *Bad boys*

Which is the Subject-word? — The noun *boys*

In Analysis the word *bad* which goes with the Subject-word *boys* is called the **Enlargement of the Subject**.

Which is the Complete Subject in sentence 2? — *Shirin's mother*

Which is the Subject-word? — *mother*

The word *Shirin's* which goes with the Subject-word is the Enlargement of the Subject.

Now examine how we break up or analyse the above sentences.

No.	SUBJECT			PREDICATE
	Subject-word	*Enlargement of Subject*	*Verb*	*Rest of Predicate*
1.	boys	Bad	hide	their faults.
2.	mother	Shirin's	is	ill.
3.	master	(1) The (2) village	taught	his little school.

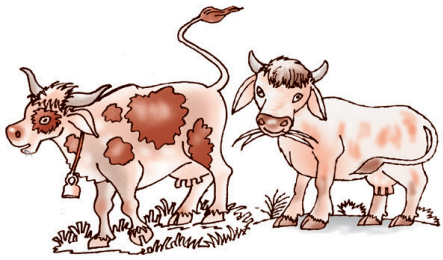

ENLARGEMENT OF THE PREDICATE

Examine these sentences.

1. The boss replied angrily.
2. She writes her copybook neatly.
3. You have done your lesson well.

Which is the Predicate in sentence 1? — *replied angrily*

Which is the Verb in this Predicate? — *replied*

In Analysis the Adverb *angrily* which goes with the verb *replied* is called the **Extension of the Predicate**.

Which is the Predicate in sentence 2? — *writes her copybook neatly*

Which is the Verb in this Predicate? — *writes*

The Adverb *neatly* goes with the verb *writes.* It is therefore the Extension of the Predicate.

Now carefully examine how we break up or analyse the above sentences.

No.	SUBJECT			PREDICATE	
	Subject-word	*Enlargement of Subject*	*Verb*	*Extension of Predicate*	*Rest of Predicate*
1.	boss	The	replied	angrily	
2.	She		writes	neatly	her copybook
3.	You		have done	well	your lesson

EXERCISE

Analyse the following sentences.

1. Hari runs swiftly.
2. The girl sings beautifully.
3. The servants are paid monthly.
4. I know him well.
5. He has come back.
6. I shall return soon.
7. The hungry child wept bitterly.
8. My uncle lives there.
9. He hit the ball hard.
10. He spends his money foolishly.

Chapter 43 The Complement

When I say 'The baby laughs,' the sentence makes complete sense.

But when I say 'The baby is,' you want to know *what* the baby is. The group of words 'The baby is' does not make complete sense. Why? Because the verb 'is' does not make sense alone. It has to be followed by a word after it (such as the word 'happy) to make complete sense.

Such as the verb 'is,' which does not make sense alone, is called an **Incomplete Verb** or **Verb of Incomplete Predication**, and the word 'happy' which *completes* its meaning is called its **Complement.**

The following sentences contain some Incomplete Verbs. Note that the complement is a Noun, or an Adjective, or a Pronoun.

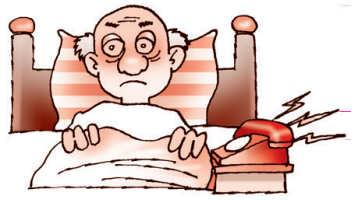

He appears a *rogue.*
Rama became *sad.*
She seems *unhappy.*
It is *him.*
Peel became *minister.*
The sky grew *dark.*
He looked *pale.*

When you analyse a sentence containing a Verb of Incomplete Predication, put the ***Complement*** in a separate column.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	Verb	***Complement***
Ram Singh	is	a soldier
He	became	angry

EXERCISE

Pick out the Verb and the Complement in each of the following sentences.

1. The rumour seems true.
2. The nights became cold.
3. The child fell asleep.
4. At last the sea became calm.
5. The mangoes taste delicious.
6. One of the eleven fell ill.

Unit 16

Phrases and Clauses

Chapter 44 Phrases

Read the group of words given below:

1. in a corner
2. of great beauty

The group of words *in a corner* and *of great beauty* makes sense, but not complete sense. Such a group of words, which makes sense, but not complete sense, is called a Phrase.

In the following sentences, the groups of words in italics are Phrases.

1. The sun rises *in the east*.
2. There came a *giant to my door*.
3. It was a day *of much joy*.
4. The tops *of the mountains* were covered with snow.
5. Show me *how to do it*.

There are three types of phrases—noun phrase, adjective phrase and adverb phrase. Let us know about each of them.

NOUN PHRASES

Read the sentences given below.

1. I met *Kunal*. (In this sentence the word *Kunal* is a noun.)
2. I met *your brother*. (We can replace *Kunal* with a group of words, *your brother*.)

The words *your brother* is a group of words without a finite verb, and it functions as a noun in the sentence. So this is a Noun Phrase. A Noun Phrase is a group of words that serves the same purpose as a noun. A noun phrase can be the subject or object of a verb. It can also be the object of a preposition.

EXERCISE 1

Underline the Noun Phrases in the sentences.

1. The boys were playing.
2. The boy in the blue jeans says he will do it.
3. He bought her a beautiful red dress.
4. Julia was thinking about her friends back home.
5. Will you talk with these rude people?
6. You are a true hero.
7. My dog is my best friend.
8. I hope to win the first prize.
9. I tried to solve the puzzle.
10. Did you enjoy reading this book?
11. The boy wants to go home.
12. Horses prefer living in dark stables.
13. The accused refused to answer the question.
14. The boy denied stealing the money.
15. To write such rubbish is disgraceful.

ADJECTIVE PHRASES

Read the sentences given below.

1. He is a *wealthy* man.
2. He is a man *of wealth*.

It will be noticed that the group of words 'of wealth' does the work of an Adjective, because it tells us what sort of man he is. Hence such a group of words is called an Adjective Phrase.

An Adjective Phrase is a phrase (or group of words) that does the work of an Adjective.

- That was a *cowardly* act. (Adjective)
- That was an act *of cowardice*. (Adjective Phrase)
- Brutus is an *honourable* man. (Adjective)

- Brutus is a man *of honour*. (Adjective Phrase)
- He occupies a very *important* position. (Adjective)
- He occupies a position *of importance*. (Adjective Phrase)

In certain cases an Adjective cannot substitute an Adjective Phrase. Examine the phrases in italics in the given sentences.

The wages *of sin* is death.
The love *of praise* reigns in every heart.
He never felt the witchery *of the soft blue sky*.

Each phrase does the work of an Adjective, and is therefore an Adjective Phrase, but it clearly cannot be replaced by an Adjective.

EXERCISE 2

Replace the Adjectives in the following sentences by Adjective Phrases.

1. The rose is a very *beautiful* flower.
2. A *courageous* man does not fear danger.
3. *Heroic* deeds deserve our admiration.
4. Much has been said about the *Swiss* scenery.

EXERCISE 3

Replace the Adjective Phrases in the following sentences by Adjectives.

1. Some of the buildings in New York are *of great height*.
2. Nelson was a boy *without fear*.
3. It was a sunset *of great beauty*.
4. Nobody likes a person *with a bad temper*.

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Adjective Phrases in the following sentences and say to what noun each is attached.

1. That was an act of cowardice.
2. He occupies a position of great importance.

3. Nelson was a boy without fear.
4. It was a sunset of great beauty.
5. The tops of the mountains were covered with snow.
6. The doors of the prison closed upon him.
7. The house adjoining the temple is my uncle's.
8. The mangoes in the basket went bad.
9. Simple Simon met a pieman going to the fair.
10. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

ADVERB PHRASES

Read the sentences below:

1. He acted *dishonourably.* (Adverb)
2. He acted *in a dishonourable manner.*

In the second sentence the group of words or phrase *in a dishonourable manner*, does the work of an adverb, because it tells *how* he acted. Such a group of words is called an Adverb Phrase.

An Adverb Phrase is a group of words that does the work of an adverb.

Notice the Adverb Phrases in the following sentences:

Little Jack Horner sat *in a corner.*
Beside the ungathered rice he lay.
She dwelt *among the untrodden ways.*
He succeeded *in the long run.*
They fought *to the last man.*
He did it *against his will.*

EXERCISE 5

Pick out the Adverb Phrases in the following sentences and say what words they modify.

1. The sun rises in the east.

2. The dog lay on the floor.
3. There came a giant to my door.
4. The old ship sank beneath the waves.
5. The boy stood on the burning deck.
6. Old Mother Hubbard went to the cupboard.
7. Such a number of rooks came over her head.
8. He returned in an hour.
9. A fair little girl sat under a tree.
10. Under a spreading chestnut-tree the village smithy stands.

SOME SENTENCES WITH PHRASE PREPOSITIONS

1. He acted *according to* my instructions.
2. *Agreeably to* the terms of the settlement, we herewith enclose our cheque for ₹ 6,500.
3. Why don't you go *along with* your brother?
4. He could not attend school *because of* his father's serious illness.
5. He succeeded *by dint of* perseverance and sheer hard work.
6. *By means of* rope ladders they scaled the wall.
7. *By reason of* his perverse attitude, he estranged his best friends.
8. *By virtue of* the power vested in me, I hereby order, etc.
9. *By way of* introduction, he made some pertinent remarks.
10. *In accordance with* your instructions, we have remitted the amount to your bankers.
11. He died fighting *in behalf of* his country.
12. *On behalf of* the staff he read the address.
13. *In case of* need, phone on 232567.
14. *In consequence of* his illness he could not finish the work in time.
15. *In course of* time he saw his mistake.

Chapter 45 Clauses

Examine the groups of words in italics in the following sentences:

He has a chain *of gold*.

He has a chain *which is made of gold*.

The second group of words, unlike the phrase *of gold*, contains a subject (*which*) and a predicate (*is made of gold)*.

Such a group of words which forms a part of a sentence, and contains a subject and a predicate is called a **Clause**.

Examine the following sentence:

(i) They played. (ii) When the sun came out.

Each part contains a subject and a predicate of its own, and forms part of a large sentence. Each part is therefore a clause.

Notice that the clause, *They played*, makes good sense by itself, and hence can stand by itself as a complete sentence. A clause that makes good sense by itself and can stand alone is called the **Principal** or **Main clause**.

The clause, *when the sun came out*, cannot stand by itself and make good sense. It is therefore dependent on the clause, *They played*. A clause that cannot stand by itself and make good sense is called the **Dependent** or **Subordinate clause**.

There are three kinds of subordinate clauses--the noun clause, the adjective clause and the adverb clause.

A **Noun clause** is a group of words which contains a subject and a predicate of its own, and does the work of a noun.

I expect *that I shall get a prize*.

An **Adjective clause** is a group of words which contains a subject and a predicate of its own, and does the work of an adjective.

He died in the village *where he was born*.

An **Adverb clause** is a group of words which contains a subject and a predicate of its own, and does the work of an adverb.

They fought *as heroes do*.

Let us know about each of these clauses in detail.

NOUN CLAUSES

Look at the following sentence:

He fears the foe.

It is clear enough that the noun "foe" is the object of the verb *fears*. It is *what* he fears.

Look at the following sentence:

He fears to go abroad.

It is clear that the phrase "to go abroad" is the object of the verb *fears*. It is *what* he fears.

Look at another sentence:

He fears that he will die.

It is clear that the clause "that he will die" is the object of the verb *fears*. It is *what* he fears.

It will be seen that the Subordinate Clause "that he will die" does the work of a noun in relation to the verb *fears* in the Principal Clause "He fears". It is therefore a Noun clause.

We may now define a Noun clause as a Subordinate clause *which does the work of a noun* in relation to some word in the principal clause.

Since a Noun clause does the work of a Noun in a Complex sentence, it can be —

1. The Subject of a verb; such as,
   That you should say this is very strange.
2. The Object of a transitive verb; such as,
   I fear *that I shall fail.*
3. The Object of a preposition; such as,
   There is no meaning *in what you say.*
4. The Complement of a verb of incomplete predication; such as,
   His great fear is *that he may fail.*

5. In Apposition to a noun; such as,

   Your statement *that you found the money in the street* will not be believed.

Look at the Noun clauses in the following sentences and note that each one of them is used as the *subject* of a *verb.*

1. *How such a man could succeed* is a mystery to me.
2. *How far the new governor will please everybody* remains to be seen.
3. *Whether we can start tomorrow* seems uncertain.
4. *Where we were to lodge that night* was the problem.
5. *Whoever committed the crime* succeeded in making his escape.
6. *Whoever wrote that book* deserves a reward.

Look at the Noun clauses in the following sentences and note that each one of them is used as the *object* of a *verb.*

1. No one knows *who he is.*
2. I do not understand *how it all happened.*
3. The thieves stole *whatever they could find in the house.*
4. I believe *he has lost all his money.*
5. I assure you *that you are quite mistaken.*
6. I earn *whatever I can*.

Look at the Noun clauses in the following sentences, used as *objects* of a *preposition, a participle* or a *verb in the infinitive mood.*

1. The night was fine *except that there was a little rain towards dawn.*
2. Pay careful attention *to what I am going to say.*
3. He was greatly annoyed *by what was said.*
4. *Fearing that I should be late,* I ran to the station.
5. Rama went to Mumbai, *hoping that he would meet his father.*
6. My uncle *knowing that I was there* sent me some fruit.
7. It grieved me *to hear that she was ill.*
8. I want *to know how far it is from here.*
9. He began *to pray that he might be forgiven.*

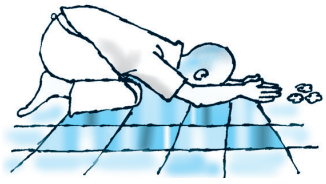

Look at the Noun clauses in the following sentences and note that each one of them is used as the *complement* of a verb of incomplete predication.

1. Their request will be *that they may be allowed to resign.*
2. Life is *what we make it.*
3. This is *where I live.*

Look at the Noun clauses in the following sentences and note that each one of them is in *apposition* to a noun or to the pronoun *it*.

1. My hope, *that you may succeed,* is very strong.
2. The belief, *that King Arthur would come again,* helped the Britons to hold out.
3. He made the request *that he should be pardoned.*
4. It was unfortunate *that you were absent.*
5. The fact *that you were present* makes you an accomplice.
6. It is feared *that he will not come.*

We have seen that a Noun clause is generally introduced by the subordinate conjunction *that.* Sometimes, however, the conjunction *that* is omitted; such as,

He says (that) his mother is ill.

Verb phrases consisting of the verb *to be* and certain adjectives may be considered as transitive verbs having a noun clause as object; such as,

I *am sure* that he is telling the truth.

We *are desirous* that you should succeed.

EXERCISE 1

Pick out the Noun Clauses in the following sentences, and say how each is used.

1. I believe that he is guilty.
2. I know that he is foolish.
3. That gold is yellow needs no proof.
4. The fact that he was dishonest made me suspect him.
5. We hear that your effort failed.
6. Whether I can go is uncertain.

EXERCISE 2

Supply suitable Noun Clauses as Objects to the verbs in the following.

1. I know ..... .
2. I think ..... .
3. They feared ..... .
4. I believe ..... .

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

Examine the following sentences:

1. An *industrious* man is sure to succeed.
2. A man *of industrious habits* is sure to succeed.
3. A man *who has industrious habits* is sure to succeed.
4. He *who has industrious habits* is sure to succeed.

In the first sentence the noun "man" is described as "industrious"— an adjective.

In the second sentence the noun "man" is described as "of industrious habits"— an adjective phrase.

In the third sentence the noun "man" is described as "who has industrious habits"— an adjective clause.

In the fourth sentence the pronoun "He" is described as "who has industrious habits"— an adjective clause.

We may now define an Adjective clause as a *subordinate clause which does the work of an adjective* in relation to some noun or pronoun in the principal clause.

The third sentence is a Complex one.

"A man is sure to succeed" is the principal clause.

"...who has industrious habits" is a subordinate clause. It qualifies the noun "man" in the principal clause, and thus does the work of an adjective. It is therefore an adjective clause.

The fourth sentence is also a Complex one.

"He is sure to succeed" is the principal clause.

"...who has industrious habits" is a subordinate clause. It qualifies the pronoun "He" in the principal clause, and thus does the work of an adjective. It is therefore an adjective clause.

The following sentences contain further examples of Adjective clauses:

1. The dog *that barks* does not bite. [*Which* dog?]
2. I know the man *who built that house.* [*Which* man?]
3. The essay *that won the prize* was written by Rama. [*Which* essay?]
4. The boy *whom you see bowling* is my cousin. [*Which* boy?]
5. Mary had a little lamb *whose fleece was white as snow.*
6. I have a little shadow *which goes in and out with me.*
7. I remember the house *where I was born.*
8. Here is the book *(which) you want.*

Look at the adjective clauses in the following sentences and note that they qualify the Subject, Object, or some other noun or pronoun in the complex sentence.

(a) SUBJECT

1. The *man who committed the crime* has been caught.
2. The *house that I live in* belongs to my father.
3. Those *punishments which are too severe* do harm.
4. The *time when the boat leaves* is not yet fixed.
5. The *place where the accident occurred* is nearby.

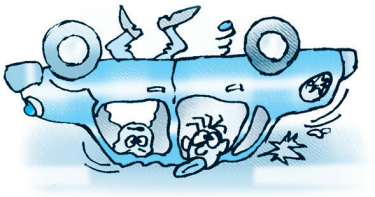

(b) OBJECT

1. They heard a *tiger that was close by.*
2. He tells a *tale that sounds untrue.*
3. The man brought *money which was badly needed.*
4. We met a *man who knows your brother.*
5. He raised a *hand which was red with blood.*
6. He approached the *spot where I was hidden.*

(c) SOME OTHER NOUN (OR PRONOUN)

1. We saw the man sitting by the door of a *house which had been painted blue.*
2. Without the *help which other people have,* he had risen to fame and fortune.

3. He watched the procession from a window of a *house that overlooked the route.*
4. He gave me *one that he did not want.*
5. *Those who do this* will be punished.
6. I am monarch of *all I survey.*

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Adjective Clauses in the following sentences, and write what they qualify in the principal clause.

1. The spot where the battle was fought is unknown.
2. The time when the boat leaves is not yet fixed.
3. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
4. The evil that men do lives after them.
5. He died in the village where he was born.

EXERCISE 4

Work in pairs. Add suitable Adjective Clauses to qualify the nouns in the following sentences.

1. The man ..... came to see me.
2. I went to see the man .....
3. The book ..... is on the table.
4. I want the book .....
5. The snake ..... had been killed.

EXERCISE 5

In each of the following sentences, substitute Adjective Clauses for the words in italics.

1. Be kind *to the poor.*
2. He told us the time *of his arrival.*
3. We all admire a man *of courage.*
4. You can have anything *of your liking.*
5. Do you know the road *leading to the temple?*

EXERCISE 6

In each of the following sentences, replace each Adjective Clause by an Adjective Phrase.

1. The boy who sits near me is my cousin.
2. The houses in which the Burmans live are generally built of bamboo.
3. That was the reason why he came late.
4. The explanation he gave was not satisfactory.

ADVERB CLAUSES

Examine the following sentences:

1. Stand *there.* (Adverb)
2. Stand *in that corner*. (Adverb phrase)
3. Stand *where you can see the blackboard.* (Adverb clause)

In the first sentence the verb "stand" is modified by "there"— an adverb.

In the second sentence the verb "stand" is modified by "in that corner"— an adverb phrase.

In the third sentence the verb "stand" is modified by "where you can see the blackboard"— an adverb clause.

You observe that the first sentence is a Simple one; so is the second. The third sentence is Complex. The principal clause is "(You) stand" and the subordinate clause is "where you can see the blackboard". The subordinate clause modifies the verb "stand" in the principal clause, and hence does the work of an adverb. It is therefore an Adverb Clause.

We may now define an Adverb Clause as *a subordinate clause which does the work of an adverb* in relation to some word in the principal clause.

Examine the following sentences:

1. When he entered the room he saw the vase broken.
2. The crowd was larger than I had ever seen before.
3. He came sooner than I expected.

In the first sentence the adverb clause "When he entered the room" modifies the *verb* "saw" in the principal clause.

In the second sentence the adverb clause "that I had ever seen before" modifies the *adjective* "larger" in the principal clause.

In the third sentence the adverb clause "than I expected" modifies the *adverb* "sooner" in the principal clause.

You observe that an adverb clause in a complex sentence may modify some verb, adjective, or adverb in the principal clause.

Adverb clauses (like adverbs) show *when, where, how, why, with what purpose,* or *on that condition* an action is done.

Adverb clauses may therefore be arranged in the following manner:

1. Adverb clauses of Time
2. Adverb clauses of Place
3. Adverb clauses of Manner
4. Adverb clauses of Degree or Comparison
5. Adverb clauses of Cause or Reason
6. Adverb clauses of Purpose
7. Adverb clauses of Result or Consequence
8. Adverb clauses of Condition
9. Adverb clauses of Concession

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *time:*

I waited for my friend *until he came.*
I leave my bed *when I wake up.*
The children danced *while the piper played.*
So long as the rain continued, I stayed at home.

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *place:*

He went *where he could find work.*
Wherever there is coal you will find iron.
He fled *where his pursuers could not follow.*

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *manner:*

The horse sprang forward *as though it had been shot.*
He speaks *as one who knows.*
He behaves *as one might expect him to do.*
He did *as he was told.*

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *degree:*

I am as tall *as you are.*
You can talk as much *as you like.*
You say more *than you mean.*
Say less *than you know.*
I know you better *than he [does].*
He is not as clever *as his father was.*
The playground is not so broad *as it is long.*
He advanced as far *as he dared.*
He lost more *than he could afford.*
He eats as much *as he can.*
The sum is so difficult *that I cannot do it.*
There was such a crowd *that we could see nothing.*

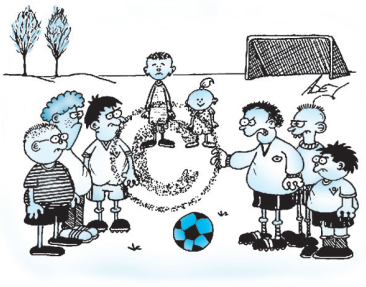

[**Note :** Adverb clauses of *degree* modify adjectives or adverbs.]

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *cause* or *reason:*

He ran away *because he was afraid.*
I shall help him *for I like him.*
Because you have done this I shall punish you.
As he was ambitious, I slew him.
As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
Since you say so, I must believe it.

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *purpose:*

He saves *that he may grow rich.*
The notice was published *in order that all might know the facts.*

We eat *that we may live.*

In order that I may help you I have written to your employer.

Precautions were taken *lest the camp should be attacked by night.*

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *result* or *consequence:*

He was so tired *that he could scarcely stand.*

It rained so hard *that the streets were flooded.*

You make such a noise *that I cannot work.*

He is such a liar *that nobody believes him.*

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *condition:*

I shall not go *unless I am invited.*

Come *if you want to.*

If you eat too much you will be taken ill.

If he had been less hasty, the result would have been different.

I will forgive you *on condition that you do not repeat the offence.*

Had the Sikhs not remained loyal, the disaster would have been more serious.

Were you my brother I could not do it for you.

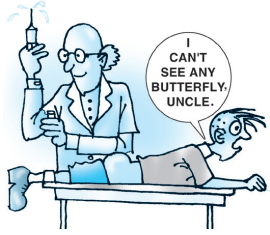

The following complex sentences contain adverb clauses of *concession:*

Though I am poor I am honest.

He finished first *though he began late.*

A book's book, *although there's nothing in it.*

Such an act would not be kind, *even if it were just.*

EXERCISE 7

Pick out the Adverb Clauses in the following sentences, classify them, and say which word in the principal clause each modifies.

1. Sit there until I can attend you.
2. I do it because I choose to.

3. Do not give more than you can afford.
4. He locked the papers up so that they might be safe.
5. He walks as though he is slightly lame.
6. He stayed at home because he was feeling ill.
7. He will not hear you unless you shout.
8. I forgive you since you repent.
9. I shall remain where I am.
10. An obedient boy will always do as he is commanded.
11. It rained so we did not get out.
12. He labours hard so that he may become rich.

Unit 17
Concord

Chapter 46 Subject-Verb Agreement

A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and Person.

The girl dances.

Verb in the same number and person as its Subject

The girls dance.

Often, by what is called the "Error of Proximity," the verb is made to agree in number with a noun near it. This should be avoided. See the following examples:

1. His knowledge of Indian vernaculars *is* far beyond the common.
2. The introduction of tea and coffee and such other beverages *has* not been without some effect.
3. If it were possible to get near when one of the volcanic eruptions *takes* place, we should see a grand sight.
4. The results of the recognition of this fact *are* seen in the gradual improvement of the diet of the poor.

Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by *and* require a plural verb; such as,

1. In him *were* centred their love and their ambition.
2. He and I *were* playing.

But if the nouns suggest *one idea* or refer to the *same* person or thing, the verb is singular; such as,

1. Slow and steady *wins* the race.
2. The horse and carriage *is* at the door.
3. Bread and butter *is* his only food.

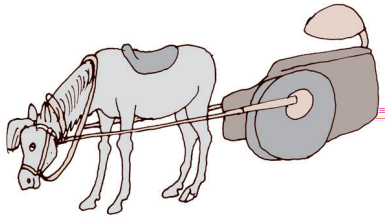

4. The rise and fall of the tide *is* due to lunar influence.
5. My friend and benefactor *has* come.

Words joined to a singular subject by *with*, *as well as*, etc., are parenthetical. The verb should therefore be put in the singular; such as,

1. The ship, with its crew, *was* lost.
2. Silver, as well as cotton, *has* fallen in price.
3. Justice, as well as mercy, *allows* it.
4. The guidance, as well as the love of a mother, *was* wanting.

Two or more singular subjects connected by *or, nor, either...or, neither...nor,* require a singular verb; such as,

No nook or corner *was* left unexplored.
Either the cat or the dog *has* been here.
Neither praise nor blame *seems* to affect him.

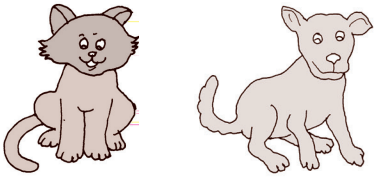

But when one of the subjects joined by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural, and the plural subject should be placed nearest to the verb; such as,

Neither the Chairman nor the Directors *are* in favour of it.

When the subjects joined by *or* or *nor* are of different persons, the verb agrees with the nearer; such as,

Either he or I *am* mistaken.
Neither you nor he *is* to blame.

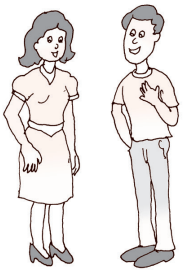

But it is better to avoid these constructions, and to write:

Either he is mistaken or I am.
He is not to blame, nor are you.

Either, neither, each, everyone, many a, must be followed by a singular verb; as,

1. He asked me whether *either* of the applicants *was* suitable.
2. *Neither* of the two men *was* very strong.
3. *Each* of these substances *is* found in India.
4. *Everyone* of the prisons *is* full.
5. *Many a* man *has* succumbed to this temptation.

Note to the teacher: Explain to the students that when *either, neither* and *each* are followed by a plural noun or pronoun (as in the first three sentences given before), they are often used with plural verbs in informal English.

Two nouns qualified by *each* or *every*, even though connected by *and*, require a singular verb; such as,

Each day and each hour brings its duty.

Every boy and every girl was given a packet of sweets.

Some nouns which are plural in form, but singular in meaning, take a singular verb; such as,

Politics was for him the business of his life.

Mathematics is a branch of study in every school.

Pains and *means* take either the singular or the plural verb, but the construction must be consistent; such as,

1. Great pains *have* been taken.
2. Much pains *has* been taken.
3. All possible means *have* been tried.
4. The *means* employed by you *is* sufficient.

In the sense of *income*, the word *means* always takes a plural verb; such as,

1. My means *were* much reduced owing to that heavy loss.
2. His means *are* ample.

Some nouns which are singular in form, but plural in meaning, take a plural verb; such as,

According to the present market rate *twelve dozen* cost one hundred rupees.

None, though properly a singular, commonly takes a plural verb; such as,

1. None *are* so deaf as those who will not hear.
2. None but fools *have* ever believed it.
3. Cows are amongst the gentlest of breathing creatures; none *show* more passionate tenderness to their young.

A Collective noun takes a singular verb when the collection is thought of as one whole; a plural verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of; such as,

1. The Committee *has* issued its report.
2. The Committee *are* divided on one minor point.

But we must be consistent. Thus, we should say:

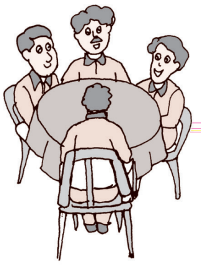

The Committee has appended a note to its (not *their*) report.

When the plural noun is a proper name for some single object or some collective unit, it must be followed by a singular verb; such as,

1. *The Arabian Nights is* still a great favourite.
2. The *United States has* a big navy.
3. *Gulliver's Travels was* written by Jonathan Swift.

When a Plural noun denotes some specific quantity or amount considered as a whole, the verb is generally singular; such as,

1. Ten kilometres *is* a long distance.
2. Fifty thousand rupees *is* a large sum.
3. Three parts of the business *is* left for me to do.

EXERCISE 1

Rewrite the following sentences correctly.

1. He, with his father, were among the first to arrive.
2. Their lives, their liberties, and their religion is in danger.
3. Mr Smith, with his wife and children, live next door.
4. Two and two are four.
5. A pair of plaid trousers are in the closet.

EXERCISE 2

In each of the following sentences, supply a Verb in agreement with its Subject.

1. To take pay and then not to do work ..... dishonest.
2. The cost of all these articles ..... risen.
3. The jury ..... divided in their opinion.
4. The news from the front ..... bad.
5. The average worker's earnings ..... gone up.

Unit 18
Voice

Chapter 47 Active and Passive Voice

Read the sentences below and compare.

1. Rama *helps* Hari.
2. Hari *is helped* by Rama.

These two sentences express the same meaning.

But in sentence 1, the form of the Verb shows that the person denoted by the Subject does *something*.

Rama (the person denoted by the Subject) *does something.*

The Verb *helps* is said to be in the **Active Voice**.

In sentence 2, the form of the Verb shows that *something* **is done to** the person denoted by the Subject.

Something is *done to* Hari (the person denoted by the Subject).

The Verb *is helped* is said to be in the **Passive Voice.**

A Verb is in the **Active Voice** when its form shows (as in sentence 1) that the person or thing denoted by the Subject *does something*; or, in other words, is the *doer* of the action.

The Active Voice is so called because the person denoted by the Subject *acts*.

A Verb is in the **Passive Voice** when its form shows (as in sentence 2) that *something is done to* the person or thing denoted by the Subject.

The Passive Voice is so called because the person or thing denoted by the Subject is not active but *passive*, that is, suffers or receives some action.

Note the change from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice in the following sentences:

Active Voice	*Passive Voice*
1. Sita *loves* Savitri.	1. Savitri *is loved* by Sita.
2. The mason *is building* the wall.	2. The wall *is being built* (by the mason).
3. Somebody *has stolen* my purse.	3. My purse *has been stolen* (by somebody).
4. The peon *opened* the gate.	4. The gate *was opened* by the peon.
5. Some boys *were helping* the wounded man.	5. The wounded man *was being helped* by some boys.
6. They *had* already *repaired* the road.	6. The road *had* already *been repaired* (by them).
7. He *will finish* the work in a fortnight.	7. The work *will be finished* by him in a fortnight.
8. I *must finish* this work today.	8. The work *must be finished* (by me) today.
9. Who *did* this?	9. By whom *was* this *done*?
10. Why *did* your brother *write* such a letter?	10. Why *was* such a letter *written* by your brother?

We notice that when the Verb is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice, the *Object* of the Transitive Verb in the *Active Voice* becomes the *Subject* of the Verb in the *Passive* Voice.

[Thus in sentence 1, *Savitri*, which is the Object of *loves* in the Active Voice becomes the Subject of *is loved* in the Passive Voice.]

The Passive Voice is formed with the suitable tense of the verb *be,* followed by the past participle. Study this table.

Tense (or Modal + base)	*Active Voice*	*Passive Voice*
Simple Present	take	taken
	takes	is taken
		are taken

Present Continuous	am taking	am being taken
	is taking	is being taken
	are taking	are being taken
Present Perfect	has taken	has been taken
	have taken	have been taken
Simple Past	took	was taken
		were taken
Past Continuous	was taking	was being taken
	were taking	were being taken
Past Perfect	had taken	had been taken
Simple Future	will take	will be taken
	(shall take)	(shall be taken)
can/may/must, etc. + base	can take	can be taken
	must take	must be taken

Look at the examples on the previous page again. The phrase consisting of *by* + *doer* is put in brackets in examples 2, 3, 6 and 8. It would be better to leave out the *by*-phrase in those sentences. We usually omit the *by*-phrase if we do not know the doer or if it is not necessary to mention the doer.

EXERCISE 1

Name the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell whether they are in the Active or in the Passive Voice.

1. I see a dark cloud.
2. His command was promptly obeyed.
3. Some of the cargo had been damaged by the sea water.
4. Nothing will be gained by hurry.
5. A stone struck me on the head.
6. This letter was posted last night.
7. The fridge has been repaired.
8. The old gentleman takes snuff.
9. The money was lost.
10. The letter has just been posted.

EXERCISE 2

Convert the following sentences from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice.

1. The cat killed the mouse.
2. The man cut down the tree.
3. His teacher praised him.
4. They have videographed the programme.
5. Rama was making a kite.
6. My father will write a letter.
7. I will conquer him.
8. He kept me waiting.
9. Sohrab threw the ball.
10. He scored twenty runs.

EXERCISE 3

Rewrite the following sentences using the Passive Voice of the verb.

1. The man caught the thief.
2. The jackal followed the tiger.
3. His teacher saw him.
4. He made a very remarkable discovery.
5. He invited us into his house.
6. Shivaji defied the Mughals.
7. Ravi feeds the dog every day.
8. The police have arrested him.
9. Your behaviour vexes me.
10. He made a kite.

EXERCISE 4

Rewrite the following sentences using the Active Voice of the verb.

1. America was discovered by Christopher Columbus.
2. He was treated ungratefully by his sailors.
3. The work must be done by you and your brother.
4. The match was won by the High School.
5. We will be blamed by everyone.
6. The first railway was built by George Stephenson.
7. He was swindled by his own brother.
8. The Prime Minister was welcomed by the people.

Unit 19
Types of Sentences

Chapter 48 Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences

Examine the following sentence:

Mary had a little lamb.

The sentence contains only one subject, "Mary", and one finite verb, "had".

Such a sentence as this, which contains only *one* subject and *one* finite verb, is called a **Simple Sentence.**

A Simple sentence is one that has only *one* subject and *one* finite verb.

Examine the following sentences:

1. He came in and I went out.
2. Night came on and rain fell heavily and we all got very wet.

The first sentence is made up of two statements of simple sentences joined together by the conjunction *and:*

(1) He came in. (2) I went out.

These two statements are of *equal rank;* that is, neither of them is inferior to, or dependent on, the other. They are, therefore, said to be co-ordinate to each other.

Such a sentence as this, which is made up of clauses of *equal rank,* is called a **Compound Sentence.**

The second sentence is also a Compound Sentence. It is made up of three clauses of *equal rank, viz.:*

1. Night came on.
2. Rain fell heavily.
3. We all got very wet.

These independent clauses are joined by a conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so).

Some more examples

1. Alice wrote the letter. She posted it.
   Alice wrote the letter *and* posted it.
2. Tom passed the test. James also passed the test.
   Tom *as well as* James passed the test.
3. He is ill. He is cheerful.
   He is ill *but* cheerful.
4. He is rich. He is miserable.
   He is rich, *yet* miserable.
5. You can go by bus. You can go by train.
   You can go by bus *or* train.
6. He does not smoke. He does not drink.
   He *neither* smokes *nor* drinks. OR Neither does he smoke nor does he drink.

EXERCISE 1

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Compound sentence.

1. You must work hard. You will not win.
2. The woman washed the dishes. The man dried them.
3. The apples weren't selling very well. He decided to have a sale.
4. Nitin bought some new shoes. He wore them to a party.
5. Lydia liked her new house. She didn't like the front yard.
6. We can go to see a movie. We can eat out.

Note: The term **Double** is now used for a sentence which is made up of *two* co-ordinate clauses, and the term **Multiple** for a sentence made up of *more than two* co-ordinate clauses.

Examine the following sentence:

I don't know where he has gone.

The sentence contains two statements, *viz.*:

(1) I don't know. (2) Where he has gone.

Clearly these two statements are *not* of equal rank; the second statement is *dependent on* the first statement for its meaning.

The dependent statement, "where he has gone", is called a **Dependent** or **Subordinate Clause,** and the statement, "I don't know", is called the **Principal** or **Main Clause.**

The Principal clause contains the main verb of the sentence.

Now examine the following sentence:

When he entered the room he saw what had happened.

The sentence contains three statements, *viz.:*

(1) He saw. (2) When he entered the room.

(3) What had happened.

Clearly the second and the third statements are *dependent on* the first statement "He saw".

"He saw" is therefore the Principal Clause, and "When he entered the room" and "what had happened" are Subordinate Clauses.

The Subordinate Clause "when he entered the room" does the work of an adverb, and is therefore an Adverb Clause.

The Subordinate Clause "what had happened" does the work of a noun, and is therefore a Noun Clause.

Such a sentence as the one which we have now examined is called a **Complex Sentence.**

We may now define a **Complex Sentence** as one that contains one principal clause and one or more *Subordinate* or *Dependent* clauses. A complex sentence always has a subordinator (as, because, since, after, although, when) or relative pronouns (who, that, which).

Examine the following sentences:

1. One evening, in times long ago, old Philemon sat at his cottage door, enjoying the calm and beautiful sunset.
2. The innocent were punished as well as the guilty.
3. The dog could not run because it was wounded.

The first sentence contains only *one* subject *(old Philemon),* and *one* finite verb *(sat).* It is therefore a Simple Sentence.

The second sentence contains two clauses of *equal rank, viz.:*

1. The innocent were punished.
2. The guilty (were punished).

It is therefore a Compound (or Double) Sentence.

The third sentence contains one Principal Clause, "The dog could not run", and one Subordinate Clause, "because it was wounded". It is therefore a Complex Sentence.

EXERCISE 2

Say whether the following sentences are Simple, Compound (Double or Multiple) or Complex.

1. Old Mother Hubbard went to the cupboard to get the poor dog a bone.
2. He that has most time has none to lose.
3. I agree to your proposals, for I think them reasonable.
4. People who eat too much die early.
5. Determination to do one's duty is laudable.
6. Everything comes, if a man will only work and wait.
7. I have a little shadow which goes in and out with me.
8. Either you are mistaken, or I am.

Unit 20

Analysis of Sentences

Chapter 49 Analysis of Simple Sentences

Analysis is the *breaking up* of a sentence into its parts, with a view to showing their mutual relation.

Every sentence consists of two parts: the Subject and the Predicate.

Analysis of Simple Sentences

(1) *My cousin does not know how to do this.*

Subject	Subject-word	cousin
	Enlargement	My
Predicate	Verb	does know
	Extension	not
	Object	how to do this.

(2) *Abdul, quite pale with fright, rushed into the room.*

Subject	Subject-word	Abdul
	Enlargement	quite pale with fright
Predicate	Verb	rushed
	Extension	into the room

(3) *Who are you?*

Subject		you
Predicate	Verb	are
	Complement	who

[**Note:** For the purpose of Analysis, a question is treated as though it were a statement.]

(4) *He seemed unwilling to do any work.*

Subject		he
Predicate	Verb	seemed
	Complement	unwilling to do any work

(5) *His parents named him Rustum.*

Subject	Subject-word	parents
	Enlargement	his
Predicate	Verb	named
	Object	him
	Object Complement	Rustum

(6) *Jaffar, the Barmecide, the good Vizier,*
The poor man's hope, the friend without a peer,
Jaffar was dead, slain by a doom unjust.

Subject	Subject-word	Jaffar
	Enlargement	(1) the Barmecide
		(2) the good Vizier
		(3) the poor man's hope
		(4) the friend without a peer
Predicate	Verb	was
	Complement	dead
	Extension	slain by a doom unjust

EXERCISE 1

Analyse the following sentences.

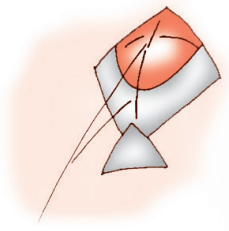

1. The boy made the kite cleverly.
2. The children found a bird's nest.
3. The poor old man seems tired.
4. My new gold watch keeps good time.
5. Do not talk such nonsense.
6. The post has already come today.
7. I have walked miles.
8. Many lay dead.
9. The dog followed the girl patiently everywhere.

10. We taught the dog some tricks.
11. The boys elected him captain.
12. Call the man back.

Examine the following sentences:

1. Gardens with cool, shady trees surround the village.
   [*Which* gardens? — *with cool shady trees*]
2. Houses built of stone are strong.
   [*Which* houses? — *built of stone*]
3. Permission to play games was granted.
   [Permission for *What*? — *to play games*]

In each of the above sentences, the Enlargement of the Subject is a *group* of words.

Now, examine this sentence:

Wild beasts in small cages are a sorry sight.

Here there are two Enlargements of the Subject:

(1) Wild, (2) in small cages

EXERCISE 2

Pick out the Enlargements of the Subjects in the following sentences.

1. The book on the desk is mine.
2. The lion in that cage is old.
3. A book in a big size is easy to read.
4. The mangoes in that basket are ripe.
5. The house by the river is for sale.
6. The man of wealth should help the poor.
7. The tops of the mountains were covered with snow.
8. The crowd in the bazaar was very noisy.
9. All the shops in the market were closed yesterday.
10. Fearing to be caught in the rain, we returned.

It will be noticed that in each of the following sentences, the Enlargement of the Object is a *group* of words:

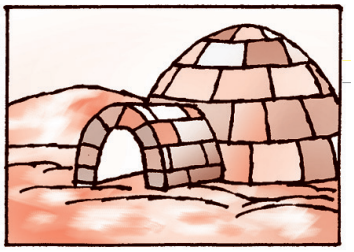

1. The Eskimos make houses *of snow and ice.*
2. I met him *coming down the street.*
3. I saw cords *stretched across the road.*

Now examine this sentence:

Have you seen the man in the moon?

Here there are two Enlargements of the Object : (1) the, (2) in the moon.

EXERCISE 3

Pick out the Enlargements of the Object in the following sentences.

1. The children have read the story of Ali Baba.
2. Have you seen a rose without thorns?
3. I saw a boy eating figs.
4. Soldiers guarded the entrance of the castle.
5. Once I saw a man with a wooden leg.
6. I shall buy that bunch of flowers.
7. He wore a turban of red silk.
8. We reached a path covered with mud.
9. Nobody likes a person with a bad temper.
10. The architect drew a plan for the house.

Chapter 50 Analysis of Compound Sentences

Examine the following sentences:

1. The moon was bright and we could see our way.
2. Night came on and rain fell heavily and we all got very wet.

Sentence 1 consists of two parts:

(i) The moon was bright.

(ii) We could see our way.

These two parts are joined by the Co-ordinating Conjunction *and*.

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own. Each part is therefore a sentence which is part of a larger sentence. In other words, each part is what is called a **Clause**.

We further notice that each Clause makes good sense by itself, and neither of them is inferior to, or dependent on, the other. In other words, they are of *equal order* or *rank*, and are therefore said to be **co-ordinate** to each other.

A sentence, such as this, which is made up of Co-ordinate clauses, is called a **Compound Sentence**.

Sentence 2 consists of three Clauses of *equal rank*, or, in other words, of three Co-ordinate Clauses, *viz.:*

(i) Night came on.

(ii) Rain fell heavily.

(iii) We all got very wet.

Such a sentence is also called a Compound Sentence.

We may now define a Compound sentence as one that is made up of two or more Coordinate Clauses.

Note: The term **Double** is used for a sentence which consists of *two* Coordinate Clauses, and the term **Multiple** for a sentence of *more than two* Coordinate Clauses.

The clauses of a Compound sentence are usually joined together by Co-ordinating Conjunctions; such as,

1. We carved not a line, *and* we raised not a stone.
   (*Cumulative*: adding one statement to another.)
2. He is slow, *but* he is sure. (*Adversative:* expressing *contrast* between two statements.)
3. She must weep *or* she will die. (*Alternative:* expressing a *choice* between two alternatives.)
4. Something fell in; *for* I heard a splash. (*Illative:* expressing an *inference.*)

Sometimes no connecting word is used to join two coordinate clauses of a Compound sentence; such as,

Temperance promotes health, intemperance destroys it.

Her court was pure; her life serene.

Compound sentences are often contracted. For example, when the coordinate clauses have

1. A common Subject; such as,
   He chid their wanderings but relieved their pain.
   = He chid their wanderings, but he relieved their pain.
2. A common Verb; such as,
   Some praise the work, and some the architect.
   = Some praise the work, and some praise the architect.

EXERCISE

A. Work in pairs. Analyse the following into clauses.

1. When the old man was gone, God called to Abraham and asked him where the stranger was.
2. While you are upon Earth enjoy the good things that are here, and be not melancholy, and wish yourself in heaven.

3. There is no saying that shocks me so much as that which I hear very often, that a man does not know how to pass his time.
4. Mr Burchell had scarce taken leave, and Sophia consented to dance with the chaplain, when my little ones came running out to tell us that the Squire was come with a crowd of company.
5. He replied, I thrust him away because he did not worship Thee.
6. All who have meant good work with their whole hearts, have done good work, although they may die before they have the time to sign it.

B. Now interact with another pair and revise your answers if necessary.

Examine the following sentences below:

She loved me for the dangers I had passed,
And I loved her that she did pity them.

It will be seen that the sentence is made up of two Complex sentences joined by the co-ordinating conjunction *and:*

1. She loved me for the dangers I had passed.
2. I loved her that she did pity them.

[A sentence such as this is sometimes called a **Compound-Complex** sentence or a **Mixed** sentence. It is, in fact, a Compound sentence having two independent clauses of equal order or rank.]

Now study carefully the General Analysis.

	Clause	*Kind of Clause*	*Connective*
A.	She loved me for the dangers	Main Clause, co-ordinate with C	
B.	[which] I had passed	Subordinate (adjective) clause, qualifying *dangers* in A	
C.	I loved her	Main Clause, co-ordinate with A	and
D.	That (=because) She did pity them	Subordinate (adverb) clause of reason, modifying *loved* in C	that

Chapter 51 Analysis of Complex Sentences

A complex sentence may, of course, contain several subordinate clauses. For example, look at the sentence given below:

The man who built this house owns the motor-car which you saw.

It contains one principal clause and two adjectival clauses:

A. The man owns the motor-car. (Principal clause.)
B. Who built this house? (Adjective clause, qualifying *man* in A.)
C. Which you saw? (Adjective clause, qualifying *motor-car* in A.)

Again, look at the following sentence.

When he awoke he went where he could watch a cricket match, because he had no work to do.

It contains one principal clause and three adverb clauses:

A. He went. (Principal clause.)
B. When he awoke. (Adverb clause of time modifying *went* in A.)
C. Where he could watch a cricket match. (Adverb clause of place, modifying *went* in A.)
D. Because he had no work to do. (Adverb clause of reason, modifying *went* in A.)

It is not necessary that all the subordinate clauses in a sentence should be of one kind. The following sentence contains a noun clause, an adjective clause and an adverb clause.

When he heard this, the officer who was in command of the British, decided that the whole line should advance.

A. The officer decided. (Principal clause)
B. When he heard this, (Adverbial clause of time, modifying *decided* in A.)
C. Who was in command of the British, (Adjectival clause, qualifying *officer* in A.)
D. That the whole line should advance. (Noun clause, object of *decided* in A.)

Unit 21

Synthesis of Sentences

Chapter 52 Combining Sentences

Synthesis is the opposite of Analysis and means the combination of a number of Simple sentences into one new sentence — Simple, Compound or Complex.

The following are the chief means of combining two or more Simple sentences into one Simple sentence:

(i) By using a Participle.

1. He jumped up. He ran away.
   Jumping up he ran away.
2. He was tired of play. He sat down to rest.
   Tired (*or,* being tired) of play he sat down to rest.

(ii) By using a Noun or a Phrase in Apposition.

1. Jawaharlal Nehru was the first Prime Minister of India. He died in 1964.
   Jawaharlal Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India, died in 1964.
2. This town was once a prosperous sea port. It is now a heap of ruins.
   This town, once a prosperous sea port, is now a heap of ruins.

(iii) By using a Preposition with a Noun or Gerund.

1. The moon rose. Their journey was not ended.
   The moon rose before the end of their journey.
2. He has failed many times. He still hopes to succeed.
   In spite of many failures he hopes to succeed.
3. Her husband died. She heard the news. She fainted.
   On hearing the news of her husband's death she fainted.

(iv) By using the Nominative Absolute Construction.

1. The soldiers arrived. The mob dispersed.
   The soldiers having arrived, the mob dispersed.

2. The town was enclosed by a strong wall. The enemy was unable to capture it.
   The town having been enclosed by a strong wall, the enemy was unable to capture it.

(v) By using an Infinitive.

1. We must finish this exercise. There are still three sentences.
   We have still three sentences of the exercise to finish.
2. He wanted to educate his son. He sent him to Europe.
   He sent his son to Europe to be educated.
3. He is very fat. He cannot run.
   He is too fat to run.

(vi) By using an Adverb or an Adverbial Phrase.

1. He deserved to succeed. He failed.
   He failed undeservedly.
2. The sun set. The boys had not finished the game.
   The boys had not finished the game by sunset.

Several of these methods may be combined in the same sentence.

The sun rose. The fog dispersed. The general determined to delay no longer. He gave the order to advance.

At sunrise, the fog having dispersed, the general, determined to delay no longer, gave the order to advance.

EXERCISE 1

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Participles.

1. The magician took pity on the mouse. He turned it into a cat.
2. The King was warned of his danger. He made good his escape.
3. Cinderella hurried away with much haste. She dropped one of her little glass-slippers.
4. He had resolved on a certain course. He acted with vigour.
5. The Russians burnt Moscow. The French were forced to quit.

6. I was returning home. I saw a man. He looked very ill. He was lying by the roadside.

EXERCISE 2

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Nouns or Phrases in Apposition.

1. Coal is a very important mineral. It is hard, bright, black and brittle.
2. His only son died before him. He was a lad of great promise.
3. Bruno is my faithful dog. I love him.
4. Tagore's most famous work is the *Gitanjali*. It is a collection of short poems.
5. Sardar Patel helped to unify India. He was a great statesman. He was called the "Iron Man of India".

EXERCISE 3

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Prepositions with Nouns or Gerunds.

1. I have examined the statement. I find many errors in it.
2. Even a bird will defend its young ones. It then shows great courage.
3. He set traps every night. He cleared his house of rats.
4. He has a good record. It is impossible to suspect such a man.
5. You helped me. Otherwise I should have been drowned.
6. She stood there for hours. She did not move. She did not speak.

EXERCISE 4

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using the Nominative Absolute construction.

1. It was a very hot day. I could not do my work satisfactorily.

2. Rain was plentiful this year. Rice is cheap.
3. The secretaryship was vacant. Nobody was willing to undertake the duties of the post. I offered my services.
4. The sun rose. The fog cleared away. The lighthouse was seen less than a mile away.
5. He fired his gun. The ball went high. The tiger sprang on him.
6. The master was out of the room. The door was shut. The boys made a lot of noise.

EXERCISE 5

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Infinitives.

1. The information is of no use to us. It has come too late.
2. He cannot afford a car. He is too poor.
3. You did not invest all your savings in one concern. You were prudent.
4. Napoleon was one of the greatest of generals. This is universally acknowledged.
5. His Majesty desired to kill Gulliver secretly. Various means were employed for this purpose.
6. He keeps some fierce dogs. They will guard his house. They will keep away robbers.

EXERCISE 6

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Adverbs or Adverbial Phrases.

1. He was not at the meeting. His absence was unavoidable.
2. The blow dazed him. That condition lasted only for a time.
3. He admitted his error. He expressed his regret.
4. He applied for leave. It was not granted.

COMBINATION OF TWO OR MORE SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO A SINGLE COMPOUND SENTENCE

I. SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: A NOUN CLAUSE

In the following examples the Subordinate clause is a Noun clause:

1. He may be innocent. I do not know.
   I do not know whether he is innocent.
2. He is short-sighted. Otherwise he is fit for the post.
   Except that he is short-sighted he is fit for the post.
3. The clouds would disperse. That was our hope. Our hope was cheering.
   Our hope, that the clouds would disperse, was cheering.
4. The game was lost. It was the consequence of his carelessness.
   The consequence of his carelessness was that the game was lost.

II. SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

In the following examples the Subordinate clause is an Adjective clause:

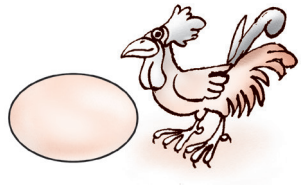

1. A fox once met a lion. The fox had never seen a lion before.
   A fox who had never seen a lion before met him.
2. She keeps her ornaments in a safe. This is the safe.
   This is the safe where she keeps her ornaments.
3. A cottager and his wife had a hen. The hen laid an egg every day.
   The egg was golden.
   A cottager and his wife had a hen which laid a golden egg every day.

III. SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: AN ADVERB CLAUSE

In the following examples the Subordinate clause is an Adverb clause:

1. Indira Gandhi died in 1984. Rajiv Gandhi thereafter became Prime Minister.
   When Indira Gandhi died in 1984, Rajiv Gandhi became Prime Minister.
2. He fled somewhere. His pursuers could not follow him.
   He fled where his pursuers could not follow him.
3. Let men sow anything. They will reap its fruit.
   As men sow, so shall they reap.
4. You are strong. I am equally strong.
   I am as strong as you are.
5. Don't eat too much. You will be ill.
   If you eat too much, you will be ill.
6. I shall come. My being alone is a condition.
   I shall come if I am alone.
7. He is superstitious. He is equally wicked.
   He is as superstitious as he is wicked.

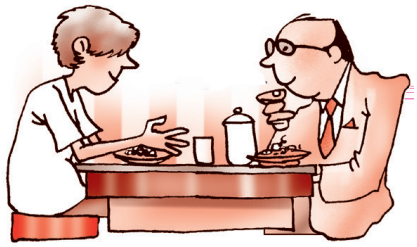

EXERCISE 7

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Complex sentence containing a Noun clause.

1. The train will arrive at a certain time. Do you know the time?
2. Something may be worth doing. It is only worth doing well.
3. A certain number of the enemy escaped. We do not know this number.
4. How did Subhash Chandra Bose die? It is a mystery.
5. I have seen this man somewhere before. I cannot remember the place.

Unit 22

Transformation of Sentences

Chapter 53 Ways of Transformation

To transform a sentence, the *form* of a sentence should be changed without changing the meaning. In this and the following chapter, we shall show some of the commonest ways of changing the form of a sentence.

The transformation or conversion of sentences is an excellent exercise as it teaches variety of expressions in writing English.

SENTENCES CONTAINING THE ADVERB "TOO"

We can change the form of a sentence containing the adverb "too", as shown below:

1. The news is too good to be true.
   The news is so good that it cannot be true.
2. He is too truthful to do that job.
   He is so excessively truthful that he cannot do that job.

EXERCISE 1

Rewrite the following sentences so as to get rid of the Adverb 'too'.

1. He speaks too fast to be understood.
2. He is too ignorant for a postman.
3. He is too proud to beg.
4. She was sobbing too deeply to make any answer.
5. It is never too late to mend.
6. This tree is too high for me to climb.

WAYS OF EXPRESSING A CONDITION

There are several ways of expressing a condition. Of these the following are the commonest:

1. By the use of the conjunction "if" or "unless"; such as,
   If I go out in the rain, I will get wet.
   Unless I go out in the rain, I will not get wet.

2. By "if" understood; such as,
   Should I go out in the rain, I should get wet.
   Had I any money, I would give you some.
3. By the use of a conjunctional phrase; such as,
   In case he does not behave, he will be punished.
4. By the use of a Participial phrase; such as,
   Provided that I do not go out in the rain, I do not get wet.
   Supposing it were true, how we should laugh.
5. By the use of the Imperative mood; such as,
   Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.
   Work diligently, and you will pass.
6. By the use of the preposition "but" followed by a phrase as object; such as,
   But for their bravery, they would have been routed.

EXERCISE 2

Rewrite each of the following sentences in as many different ways as you can.

1. Beware of pick-pockets, and there will be no further trouble.
2. But for his shyness, he would certainly have made his mark as a speaker.
3. Had you been less rash, the consequences would not have been so serious.
4. If he is seriously ill, I shall inform you.
5. Supposing a taxi is not available, a cab will do.
6. But for your unfortunate remark, the conference would not have ended in a fiasco.

7. I will not buy the horse unless it is quite sound.
8. If you resist the first temptation the next will be easier to overcome.
9. Are you not anxious to make money, then buy these shares?
10. If money was plenty, nobody would care for it.

DIFFERENT WAYS OF EXPRESSING A CONCESSION OR CONTRAST

The following are some of the commonest ways of expressing a clause denoting concession or contrast:

1. By the Conjunction 'though' or 'although':
   Though he is strong, he is timid.
   A book's a book, *although* there's nothing in it.
2. By the Preposition 'notwithstanding,' followed by a Noun clause:
   He is timid, *notwithstanding* that he is strong.
   He still complains, *notwithstanding* that he got more than he expected.
3. By the Relative Adverb 'however', followed by some adjective or adverb:
   However strong he may be, he is timid.
   I cannot please my brother *however* well I treat him.
4. By the Relative Pronoun 'whatever':
   He refuses to work *whatever* I may say.

5. By the Conjunction 'as':
   Strong *as* he is, he is timid.
   Clever *as* he was, he failed.
6. By the phrase 'all the same':
   He is strong; *all the same* he is timid.
   I am rather tired; *all the same* I shall go.
7. By an absolute participle followed by a Noun clause:
   Admitting that he is strong, he is timid.
   Admitting that he was always sincere, he sometimes did not judge rightly.
8. By the Conjunction 'even if':
   Such an act would not be kind, *even if* it were just.

EXERCISE 3

Rewrite each of the following sentences in as many different ways as you can.

1. This man is never satisfied however much I pay him.
2. Though he is his brother, he does not resemble him.
3. He finished first though he began late.
4. He has hardly any chance; all the same I shall use my influence on his behalf.
5. His father still trusted him though he had deceived him.
6. He has his weaknesses; all the same he is a kind-hearted man.
7. Although he was maliciously criticised, he never showed any ill-will to those who persecuted him.
8. Though he is poor, he is honest.

INTERCHANGE OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON

As the following examples show, it is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective or Adverb in a sentence, without changing its meaning.

Positive: I am not so *great* as him.
Comparative: He is *greater* than me.
Superlative: He is the *greatest* player.
Positive: I have never seen so *big* a diamond as this.
[No other diamond I have ever seen was so *big* as this.]
Comparative: This diamond is *bigger* than any other that I have ever seen.
Superlative: This is the *biggest* diamond that I have ever seen.
Superlative: *Shakuntala* is the *best* drama in Sanskrit.
Comparative: *Shakuntala* is *better* than any other drama in Sanskrit.
Positive: No other drama in Sanskrit is so *good* as *Shakuntala.*
Superlative: Chennai is one of the *biggest* of Indian cities.
Comparative: Chennai is *bigger* than most other Indian cities.
Positive: Very few Indian cities are so *big* as Chennai.
Positive: Some poets are at least as *great* as Tennyson.

Comparative: { Tennyson is not *greater* than some other poets.
Some poets are not *less* great than Tennyson.

Superlative: Tennyson is not the *greatest* of all poets.

EXERCISE 4

Change the Degree of Comparison, without changing the meaning.

1. Akbar was one of the greatest of kings.
2. Helen of Troy was more beautiful than any other woman.
3. Very few boys are so industrious as Latif.
4. Samudragupta was one of the greatest of Indian kings.
5. He would sooner die than tell a lie.
6. This newspaper has a bigger circulation than any other morning paper.
7. Some people have more money than brains.
8. A wise enemy is better than a foolish friend.
9. Ooty is as healthy as any hill sanitarium in India.
10. Mahatma Gandhi was one of the greatest men in the world.

INTERCHANGE OF ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

A sentence in the Active form can be changed into the Passive form, and *vice versa.*

Active: Brutus stabbed Caesar.
Passive: Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
Active: The mayor gave him a reward.
Passive: He was given a reward by the mayor.
A reward was given to him by the mayor.

Note: When a sentence containing a Direct and an Indirect Object is turned into the Passive, one of the Objects (usually the Indirect) becomes the Subject.

Active: Who taught you French?
Passive: By whom were you taught French?
Who were you taught French by?
Active: His behaviour vexes me sometimes.
Passive: I am sometimes vexed at his behaviour.
Active: It is time to shut the shop.
Passive: It is time for the shop to be shut.
Active: Why did your brother write such a letter?
Passive: Why was such a letter written by your brother?
Active: The audience loudly cheered the Mayor's speech.
Passive: The Mayor's speech was loudly cheered.

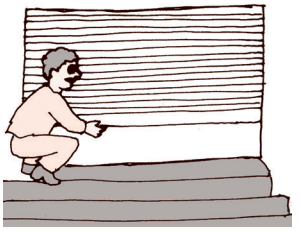

Note: Whenever it is evident who the doer is, it is unnecessary to mention him in the passive form, and this omission gives a neater turn to the sentence. Thus, in the last example the doer of the action is not mentioned in the passive form, because only those who heard the speech could have cheered it.

Passive: Our army has been defeated.
Active: The enemy has defeated our army.
Pasive: I shall be obliged to go.
Active: Circumstances will oblige me to go.
Passive: My pocket has been picked.
Active: Someone has picked my pocket.

Note: The Active Voice is used when the agent, or actor, is to be made prominent; the Passive, when the thing acted upon is to be made prominent. Hence the Passive Voice may be used when the agent is unknown or when we do not care to name the agent; such as, "The ship was wrecked."

Active: All his friends laughed at him.
Passive: He was laughed at by all his friends.
Active: One should keep one's promises.
Passive: Promises should be kept.

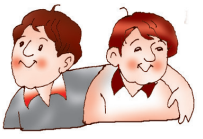

EXERCISE 5

Change the following sentences into the Passive form.

1. Peter, the Hermit, preached the first Crusade.
2. The curator of the museum showed us some ancient coins.
3. Lincoln emancipated four million African slaves.
4. Macbeth hoped to succeed Duncan.
5. We shall hear his voice no more.

INTERCHANGE OF AFFIRMATIVE AND NEGATIVE SENTENCES

Study the following examples:

1. Brutus loved Caesar.
   Brutus was not without love for Caesar.
2. I was doubtful whether it was you.
   I was not sure that it was you.
3. Old fools surpass all other fools in folly.
   There's no fool like an old fool.
4. He is greater than I.
   I am not so great as he.
5. Alfred was the best king that ever reigned in England.
   No other king as good as Alfred ever reigned in England.

EXERCISE 6

Express the meaning of the following sentences in a Negative form.

1. The rose by any other name would smell as sweet.
2. Only a millionaire can afford such extravagance.

3. India is the largest democracy in the world.
4. These fishing nets are all the wealth I own.

INTERCHANGE OF INTERROGATIVE AND ASSERTIVE SENTENCES

Study the following examples:

1. What though we happen to be late?
   It does not much matter though we happen to be late.
2. Why waste time in reading trash?
   It is extremely foolish to waste time in reading trash.
3. Were we sent into the world simply to make money?
   We were not sent into the world simply to make money.
4. How can man die better than facing fearful odds?
   Man cannot die better than in facing fearful odds.

EXERCISE 7

Transform the following sentences into Assertive sentences.

1. Who can touch pitch without being defiled?
2. Can any man by taking thought add a cubit to his stature?
3. What though the field be lost?
4. Is that the way a gentleman should behave?
5. Who does not know the owl?

INTERCHANGE OF EXCLAMATORY AND ASSERTIVE SENTENCES

Study the following examples:

1. Exclamatory: How clever she is!
   Assertive: She is very clever.

2. Exclamatory: What a lovely garden!
   Assertive: It is a very lovely garden.
3. Exclamatory: What a good idea!
   Assertive: It is a very good idea.
4. Exclamatory: If only I had the wings of a dove!
   Assertive: I wish I had the wings of a dove.
5. Exclamatory: O, that the desert were my dwelling place!
   Assertive: I wish that the desert were my dwelling place.

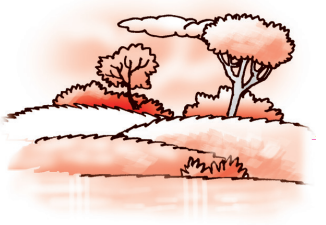

EXERCISE 8

Transform the following Exclamatory sentences into Assertions.

1. What would I not give to see you happy!
2. O what a fall was there my countrymen!
3. What sweet delight a quiet life affords!
4. What a delicious flavour these mangoes have!
5. What a beautiful painting!
6. O, what a misery awaits a wasted youth.
7. Hurrah! My mother has come home!
8. How beautiful to look at!
9. How base of him to desert you in your time of need!
10. How upset you seem to be!

Unit 23

Speech

Chapter 54 Direct and Indirect Speech

There are two ways of reporting what another person has said:

1. We may quote the *actual words* used by the speaker; such as,
   He said, "I am tired of hearing these complaints."
   This is called **Direct Speech.**
2. We may give an account of what another person has said; such as,
   He said that he was tired of hearing those complaints.
   This is called **Indirect** (or **Reported) Speech.**

Examine the following sentences, and notice the changes that are made in converting a sentence from Direct to Indirect Speech:

1. He said, "*I am* glad to be *here this* evening."
2. He said that *he was* glad to be *there that* evening.

(a) The inverted commas are omitted.
(b) The pronoun *I*, of the first person, is changed to the pronoun *he*, of the third person.
(c) The verb *am* (present tense) is changed to *was* (past tense).
(d) The adverb *here* (expressing *nearness)* is changed to *there* (expressing *distance).*
(e) The demonstrative adjective *this* is changed to *that.*

STATEMENTS

Statements in the Indirect Speech are generally introduced by the conjunction *that*.

Direct	He said, "I do not know where to go."
Indirect	He said that he did not know where to go.
Direct	He said, "I will not do it."
Indirect	He said that he would not do it.

Direct	He said, "I have received some very good news."
Indirect	He said that he had received some very good news.
Direct	He said to her, "You are mistaken."
Indirect	He told her that she was mistaken.
Direct	"I really do not know what you are talking about," said the boy's father.
Indirect	The boy's father remarked that he really did not know what he (the boy) was talking about.
Direct	He said, "I shall go tomorrow, whatever happens."
Indirect	He said he would go the next day, whatever happened.
Direct	The fox cried out to the goat, "A thought has come into my head."
Indirect	The fox cried out to the goat that a thought had come into his head.

Note: When the introductory verb is in the present or future, the tenses are not changed in the indirect.

Direct	He says, "I am hungry."
Indirect	He says that he is hungry.
Direct	He will say, "I am hungry."
Indirect	He will say that he is hungry.

QUESTIONS

In reporting questions the Indirect Speech is introduced by some such verbs as *asked, enquired,* etc.

When the question is not introduced by an interrogative word, the reporting verb is followed by *whether* or *if.*

Direct	He said to me, "What are you doing?"
Indirect	He asked me what I was doing.
Direct	"Where do you live?" asked the stranger to Alice.
Indirect	The stranger enquired of Alice where she lived.
Direct	The policeman said to the man, "Where are you going?"
Indirect	The policeman enquired of the man where he was going.

Direct He said, "Will you listen to such a man?"

Indirect He asked them whether they would listen to such a man.
[Or] Would they, he asked, listen to such a man?

Direct "Do you suppose you know better than your own father?" jeered his angry mother.

Indirect His angry mother jeered and asked whether he supposed that he knew better than his own father.

COMMANDS AND REQUESTS

In reporting commands and requests, the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing *command* or *request*, and the Imperative mood is changed into the Infinitive.

Direct Rama said to Arjun, "Go away."

Indirect Rama ordered Arjun to go away.

Direct The teacher said to the children, "Work hard."

Indirect The teacher told the children to work hard.

Direct He said to him, "Please wait here till I return."

Indirect He requested him to wait there till he returned.

Direct "Call the first witness," said the King.

Indirect The King commanded them to call the first witness.

Direct He shouted, "Let me go."

Indirect He shouted to them to let him go.

Direct He said, "Be quiet and listen to my words."

Indirect He urged them to be quiet and listen to his words.

EXCLAMATIONS AND WISHES

In reporting exclamations and wishes, the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing exclamation or wish.

Direct He said, "Alas! I am undone."

Indirect He exclaimed that he was undone.

Direct	Alice said, "How clever I am!"
Indirect	Alice exclaimed that she was very clever.
Direct	He said, "Bravo! You have done well."
Indirect	He applauded him, saying that he had done well.
Direct	"So help me Heavan!" he cried, "I will never steal again."
Indirect	He called upon Heaven to witness his resolve never to steal again.

EXERCISE 1

Convert the following into Indirect Speech.

1. He said to me, "I have often told you not to play with fire."
2. "You have all done it very badly," remarked the teacher.
3. They wrote, "It is time we thought about settling this matter."
4. The teacher promised, "If you come before school tomorrow, I will explain it."
5. She wrote, "I am waiting and watching and longing for my son's return."
6. The examiner's orders were, "No one is to bring books into the room nor ask me questions about what I have told you to do."
7. The dwarf said to her, "Promise me that when you are Queen you will give me your first-born child."
8. "That is my horse," said he, "and if I do not prove it in a few minutes I will give up my claim."

CONVERSION OF INDIRECT INTO DIRECT

The conversion of Indirect into Direct generally presents no special difficulties, as the following examples will show:

Indirect	He inquired whether his name was not Ahmed.
Direct	He said to him, "Is not your name Ahmed?"

Indirect As the stranger entered the town he was met by a policeman, who asked him if he was a traveller. He replied carelessly that it would appear so.

Direct As the stranger entered the town he was met by a policeman, who asked, "Are you a traveller?" "So it would appear," he answered carelessly.

Indirect She asked how she, a girl, who could not ride or use a sword or lance, could be of any help? Rather would she stay at home and spin beside her dear mother.

Direct She said, "How can I, a girl, who cannot ride or use a sword or lance, be of any help? Rather would I stay at home and spin beside my dear mother."

EXERCISE 2

Work in pairs. Convert the following into Direct Speech.

1. He asked Rama to go with him.
2. Rama replied that he could not do so.
3. He asked his father when the next letter would come.
4. His father replied that there might not be another that year.
5. Rama asked me what had become of Hari.
6. I told him that I had not seen him for months.

EXERCISE 3

Give the Exact Words that the speakers might have used.

1. John said that he wanted to be a soldier.
2. He asked me where I was going.
3. He asked me what I wanted.
4. Abdul said that he had seen that picture.
5. The boy said that he would go with us.

Study the following examples of conversion from Direct into Indirect Speech, and notice the changes made in doing so:

DIRECT SPEECH	INDIRECT SPEECH
1. "How are you, Rama? I hope you are quite well," cried his uncle.	1. His uncle asked Rama how he was and hoped that he was quite well.
2. "Where are you going, Little Red Riding Hood? And what have you got in that basket?" enquired the wolf.	2. The wolf enquired of Little Red Riding Hood as to where she was going, and what she had got in that basket.
3. What the boy wrote to his father was, "Can I leave school this term or do you want me to stay on till the end of next year?"	3. The boy wrote to his father to ask whether he could leave school that term or whether he wanted him to stay on till the end of next year.
4. He said to me this morning, "Where was Rama yesterday, and where will he be tomorrow?"	4. He asked me this morning where Rama was the preceding day and where he would be the day following.
5. He kept on saying, "Do hurry up, Rama, and bring me your papers."	5. He kept on asking Rama to hurry up and bring him his papers.
6. Netaji then ordered, "Let the whole line advance."	6. Netaji then ordered the whole line to advance.
7. He asked, "How are you getting on?" and added, "Let me know if there is anything I can do for you."	7. He asked how he was getting on and added that he might let him know if there was anything that he could not for him.
8. "Yes, sir, that is the way," said the boy.	8. The boy told him that was the way.

EXERCISE 4

Convert the following into Indirect Speech.

1. "Cheer up, mother, I'll go and get work somewhere," said Jack.
2. The Rajah was deeply grieved, and said to his wife, "What can I do for you?"
3. "Dear bird," she said, stroking his feathers, "have you come to comfort me in my sorrow?"
4. When the sun got low, the king's son said, "Jack, since we have no money, where can we lodge this night ?"
5. Then aloud he said, "Tell me, boy, is the miller within?"
6. Telemachus replied, "How can I drive away the mother who bore me and nourished me?"
7. "Call no man happy," was the reply of the philosopher, "until he has ended his life in a fitting manner."
8. He said, "Daughter, take my golden jug, and fetch me some water from the well."
9. Then said the wolf to the fox, "Now accept defeat or else certainly I will kill you."
10. "I believe," said he, "that we are in this country among a people whom we like and who like us."

Unit 24
Parts of Speech

Chapter 55 Same Words, Different Parts of Speech

In the English language, words can be considered as the smallest elements that have distinctive meanings. Based on their use and functions, words are categorized into several types or parts of speech. There are 8 major parts of speech in English grammar: noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, conjunction, preposition, and interjection. We have read about each of them in previous chapters.

Always remember that it is the *function* or *use* that determines to which part of speech a word belongs in a given sentence. See how a word can be used in different parts of speech.

Above

Adverb	See *above*.
Preposition	The moral law is *above* the civil.
Adjective	Analyse the *above* sentence.
Noun	Our blessings come from *above.*

After

Adverb	They arrived soon *after*.
Preposition	He takes *after* his father.
Conjunction	We went away *after* they had left.

All

Adjective	All men are mortal. It was *all* profit and no loss.
Adverb	He was *all* alone when I saw him.
Pronoun	*All* spoke in his favour.
Noun	He lost his *all* in speculation.

As

Adverb	We walked *as* fast as we could.
Conjunction	*As* he was poor I helped him.
Relative Pronoun	She likes the same colour *as* I do.

About

Adverb	They wandered *about* the town.
Preposition	There was something affable *about* him.

Any

Adjective	Have you got *any* pens?
Adverb	Is he *any* better?

Back

Noun	I have a pain in the *back*.
Adverb	I will come *back* in a minute.
Adjective	Have you closed the *back* door?
Verb	He *backed* his car through the gate.

Better

Adjective	I think yours is a *better* plan.
Adverb	You know *better*.
Noun	Give place to your *betters.* (Those who are better than you)
Verb	She *bettered* her performance in stage.

But

Adverb	It is *but* (only) right to admit our faults.
Preposition	None *but* (except) the brave deserves the fair.
Conjunction	We tried hard, *but* did not succeed.

Down

Adverb	*Down* went the royal princess.
Preposition	The fire engine came rushing *down* the hill.
Adjective	The porter was killed by the *down* train.
Noun	He has seen the ups and *downs* of life.

Enough

Adjective	There is time *enough* to submit the project.
Adverb	You know well *enough* what I mean.
Noun	I have had *enough* of this.

Except

Verb	Children under five are *excepted* from the survey.
Preposition	All will stand in a queue *except* senior citizens.
Conjunction	He knows nothing about her *except* that she is young and beautiful.

Less

Adjective	You are paying *less* attention to your studies.
Adverb	The soil of Kathiawad is *less* fertile than that of Gujarat.
Noun	He wants a hundred rupees for that CD. He won't be satisfied with *less*.

Like

Adjective	They are men of *like* build and stature.
Preposition	Do not talk *like* that.
Noun	Can I get a *like* to my status in facebook.
Verb	Children *like* sweets.

Much

Adjective	There is *much* sense in what he says.
Pronoun	*Much* of it is true.
Adverb	He boasts too *much*.

Near

Adverb	Draw *near* and listen.
Preposition	His house is *near* the temple.
Adjective	He is a *near* relation.
Verb	The time *nears*.

Needs

Noun	My *needs* are few.
Verb	It *needs* to be done with care.
Adverb	It must *needs* to be so.

Neither

Conjunction	Give me *neither* poverty nor riches.
Adjective	*Neither* accusation is true.
Pronoun	It is difficult to negotiate where *neither* will trust.

Next

Adjective	I will see you *next* Monday.
Adverb	What *next*?
Preposition	He was sitting *next to* her.
Noun	I will tell you more about it in my *next.*

No

Adjective	It is *no* joke.
Adverb	He is *no* more.
Noun	I will not take *no.*

Once

Adverb	I was young *once.*
Conjunction	*Once* he hesitates we have him.
Noun	Please help me for *once*.

Only

Adjective	It was his *only* chance.
Adverb	He was *only* foolish.
Conjunction	Take what I have, *only* (but) let me go.

Right

Verb	That is a fault that will *right* itself.
Adjective	He is the *right* man for the position.
Noun	The *right* need not far.
Adverb	It serves him *right.*

Round

Adjective	A square peg in a *round* hole.
Noun	The evening was a *round* of pleasures.

Adverb	He came *round* to their belief.
Preposition	The earth revolves *round* the sun.
Verb	We shall *round* the cape in safety.

Since

Preposition	*Since* that day I have not seen him.
Conjunction	Ashok hasn't phoned *since* he went to Kolkata.
Adverb	I have not seen him *since.*

Some

Adjective	We must find *some* way out of it.
Pronoun	*Some* say one thing and others another.
Adverb	*Some* thirty chiefs were present.

Still

Verb	With his name the mothers *still* their babes.
Adjective	*Still* waters run deep.
Noun	Her sobs could be heard in the *still* of night.
Adverb	They stood *still* in wonder.

That

Demonst. Adjective	What is *that* noise?
Demonst. Pronoun	*That* is what I want.
Adverb	I have done *that* much only.
Relative Pronoun	The evil *that* men do lives after them.

Up

Adverb	She put the photo album *up* on the highest shelf.
Preposition	My friend lives just *up* the road.
Adjective	The next *up* train will leave here at 12.30.
Noun	They had their *ups* and downs of fortune.

Well

Adjective	I hope you are *well.*
Adverb	*Well* begun is half done.

Interjection	*Well*, who would have thought it!

What

Interrogative Adjective	*What* evidence do you have?
Interjection	*What!* you don't mean to say so?
Interrogative Pronoun	*What* does he want?
Relative Pronoun	Give me *what* you can. *What* happened then, I do not know.

While

Noun	Sit down and rest a *while.*
Verb	They *while* away their evenings with books and games.
Conjunction	*While* a great poet, he is a greater novelist.

Why

Interrogative Adverb	*Why* did you do it?
Relative Adverb	I know the reason *why* he did it.
Interjection	*Why*, it is surely Nanak!

EXERCISE 1

What part of speech is each of the words in italics?

1. There is *much* truth in what he says.
2. *Much* cry and little wool.
3. Don't boast too *much.*
4. *Little* learning is a dangerous thing.
5. Several men were standing *about.*
6. *After* the storm comes the calm.
7. The *after* effects of potash bromide are bad.
8. He went *after* I came.
9. The minstrels follow *after*.

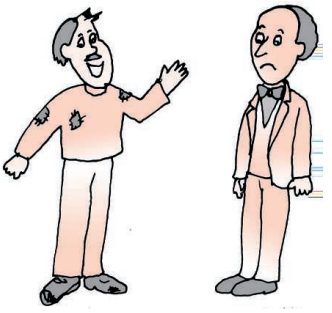

10. May comes *after* April.
11. I like this *best.*
12. He is my *best* friend.
13. I don't feel at my *best* today.
14. He is *but* a child.
15. *But* for his help, I could not have done it.

EXERCISE 2

Use the following words in your own sentence in three different parts of speech.

Water Oil Back Down Love Above Rain Drain

Unit 25
Punctuation

Chapter 56 Usage

Punctuation (derived from the Latin *punctum,* a point) means the right use of putting in Points or Stops in writing. The following are the principal stops:

1. Full Stop or Period (.)
2. Comma (,)
3. Semicolon (;)
4. Colon (:)
5. Question Mark (?)
6. Exclamation Mark (!)

Other marks in common use are the Dash —; Parentheses (); Inverted Commas or Quotation Marks " ".

FULL STOP

The **Full Stop** represents the greatest pause and separation.

1. It is used to mark the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence; such as,
   Dear, patient, gentle, noble Nell was dead.
   Be quick. Make haste.
2. In Internet and e-mail addresses it is used as:
   http://www. schandgroup.com
   E-mail: schand@vsnl.com
3. Full stops can be used in abbreviations, but they are often omitted in modern British English.

BA or B.A.	USA or U.S.A.
MP or M.P.	am or a.m.

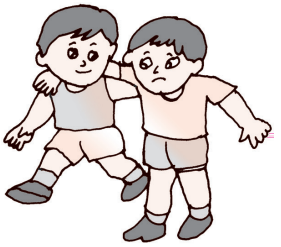

COMMA

The **Comma** represents the shortest pause, and is used:

1. To separate a series of words in the same construction; such as,
   He lost lands, money, reputation, and friends.
   It was a long, dull and wearisome journey.
   He wrote his exercise neatly, quickly, and correctly.

Note: A comma is generally not placed before the word preceded by *and*.

2. To separate each pair of words connected by *and;* such as,
   We should be devout and humble, cheerful and serene.
   In schools and colleges, in fleet and army, discipline means success.
   High and low, rich and poor, wise and foolish, must all die.
3. After a Nominative Absolute; such as,
   This done, she returned to the old man with a lovely smile on her face.
   The wind being favourable, the squadron sailed.
   The genius making me no answer, I turned about to address myself to him a second time.
4. To mark off a Noun or Phrase in Apposition; such as,
   Paul, the apostle, was beheaded in the reign of Nero.
   Milton, the great English poet, was blind.
   Hereward, the last of the English, was a mighty man.

5. To mark off words used in addressing people
   Gopal, come in.
   Come in, Gopal.
   Come in, Gopal, and sit here.
6. To mark off two or more Adverbs or Adverbial phrases coming together; such as,
   Then, at length, tardy justice was done to the memory of Oliver.
7. Before and after a Participial phrase, provided that the phrase might be

expanded into a sentence, and is not used in a merely qualifying sense; such as,

Caesar, having conquered his enemies, returned to Rome.

8. Before and after words, phrases, or clauses, let into the body of a sentence; such as,

He did not, however, gain his object.

It is mind, after all, which does the work of the world.

His behaviour, to say the least, was very rude.

His story was, in several ways, improbable.

Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between thee and me.

The essay writers, whose works consisted in a great measure of short moral dissertations, set the literary taste of the age.

9. To indicate the omission of a word, especially a verb; such as,

Rama received a pen; Hari, a watch.

He was a Brahmin; she, a Christian.

He will succeed; you, never.

10. To separate short co-ordinate clauses of a Compound sentence; such as,

The rains descended, and the floods came.

Men may come, and men may go, but I go on for ever.

I came, I saw, I conquered.

The way was long, the wind was cold.

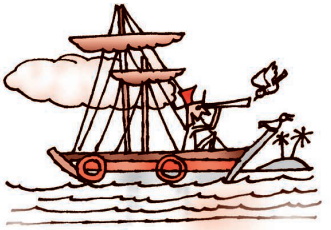

When there is a conjunction the comma is sometimes omitted, such as,

He came and saw me.

11. To mark off a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence; such as,

"Exactly so," said Alice.

He said to his disciples, "Watch and pray."

"Go then," said the ant, "and dance the winter away."

12. Before certain co-ordinative conjunctions; such as,

To act thus is not wisdom, but folly.

13. To separate from the verb a long Subject opening a sentence; such as,

The injustice of the sentence pronounced upon that great scientist and discoverer, is now evident to us all.

All that we admired and adored before as great and magnificent, is obliterated or vanished.

14. To separate an Adjective clause that is not restrictive in meaning, but is co-ordinate with the Principal clause; such as,

    Sailors, who are generally superstitious, say it is unlucky to embark on a Friday.

    My uncle, who is a surgeon, has been to America several times.

When the Adjective clause is restrictive in meaning, the comma should not be applied; such as,

This is the house that Jack built.

The echoes of the storm which was then raised I still hear grumbling round me.

The design was disapproved by everyone whose judgment was entitled to respect.

15. To separate an Adverbial clause from its Principal clause; such as,

    When I was a bachelor, I lived by myself.

    If thou would'st be happy, seek to please.

When the Adverbial clause follows the Principal clause, the comma is frequently omitted; such as,

Seek to please if thou would'st be happy.

SEMICOLON

The **Semicolon** represents a pause of greater importance than that shown by the Comma. It is used:

1. To separate the clauses of a Compound sentence, when they contain comma; such as,

   He was a brave, large-hearted man; and we all honoured him.

2. To separate a series of loosely related clauses; such as,

   Her court was pure; her life serene;

God gave her peace; her land reposed.

Today we love what tomorrow we hate; today we seek what tomorrow we shun; today we desire what tomorrow we fear.

COLON

The **Colon** marks a still more complete pause than that expressed by the Semicolon. It is used:

1. To introduce a quotation; such as,

   Bacon says: "Reading makes a full man, writing an exact man, speaking a ready man."

2. Before enumeration, examples, etc.; such as,

   The principal parts of a verb in English are: the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle.

   The limitation of armaments, the acceptance of arbitration as the natural solvent of international disputes, the relegation of wars of ambition and aggression to the categories of obsolete follies: these will be milestones which mark the stages of the road.

3. Between sentences grammatically independent but closely connected in sense; such as,

   Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important.

QUESTION MARK

The **Question Mark** is used, instead of the Full Stop, after a direct question; such as,

Have you written your exercise?

If you prick us, do we not bleed? If you tickle us, do we not laugh? If you poison us, do we not die? And if you wrong us, shall we not have revenge?

But the Question Mark is not used after an indirect question; such as,

Ask him why he did so.

Tell me what you have done.

EXCLAMATION MARK

The **Exclamation Mark** is used after Interjections and after Phrases and Sentences expressing sudden feelings; such as,

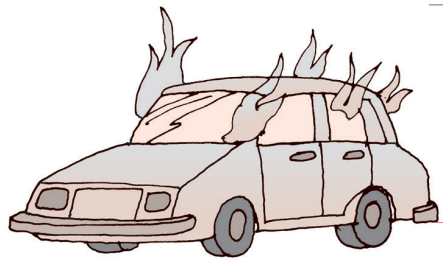

Alas! What!

Oh dear! For shame!

What a terrible fire this is!

O' what a fall was there, my countrymen!

INVERTED COMMAS

Inverted Commas are used to enclose the exact words of a speaker, or a quotation; such as,

"I would rather die," he exclaimed, "than join the oppressors of my country."

Babar is said to have been "the most admirable prince that ever reigned in Asia."

If a quotation occurs within a quotation, it is marked by single inverted commas; such as,

"You might as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like'."

We can also use single inverted commas for the main quotation and double inverted commas for the quotation within it.

DASH

The **Dash** is used:

1. To indicate an abrupt stop or change of thought; such as,
   If my husband were alive — but why lament the past?
2. To resume a scattered subject; such as,
   Friends, companions, relatives — all deserted him.

HYPHEN

The **Hyphen** - a shorter line than the Dash — is used to connect the parts of a compound word; such as,

Passer-by, man-of-war, jack-of-all-trades.

The Hyphen is also used to connect parts of a word divided at the end of a line.

PARENTHESES

Parentheses or Double Dashes are used to separate from the main part of the sentence a phrase or clause which does not grammatically belong to it; such as,

He gained from Heaven ('t was all he wished) a friend.

A remarkable instance of this kind of courage — call it, if you please, resolute will — is given in the history of Babar.

APOSTROPHE

The Apostrophe is used:

1. To show the omission of a letter or letters; such as,

   Don't, e'er, I've.
2. In the possessive case of Nouns. To show the possession, Rama's pen, mother's love.
3. To form the plural of letters and figures; such as,

   Dot the *i's* and the *t's*.

   Add two *5's* and four *2's*.

CAPITAL LETTERS

Capitals are used:

1. To begin a sentence.
2. To begin each fresh line of poetry (especially, old poetry).

3. In the first letter of all Proper Nouns and Adjectives derived from them; such as,

   Delhi, Rama, Africa, African, Shakespeare, Shakespearian
4. To write the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O.*

EXERCISE 1

Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences.

1. Even a fool when he holdeth his peace is counted wise.
2. I therefore walked back by the horseway which was five miles round.
3. Read not to contradict nor to believe but to weigh and consider.
4. When we have dined to prevent the ladies leaving us I generally ordered the table to be removed.
5. Rabindranath Tagore the author of *Gitanjali* was the first Asian to win the Nobel Prize in literature.

EXERCISE 2

Punctuate the following sentences.

1. They had played together in infancy they had worked together in manhood they were now tottering about and gossiping away the evening of life and in a short time they will probably be buried together in the neighbouring church-yard.
2. My quaint Ariel said Prospero to the little sprite when he made him free I shall miss you yet you shall have your freedom thank you my dear master said Ariel but give me leave to attend your ship home with prosperous gales before you bid farewell to the assistance of your faithful spirit.
3. The shepherd finding his flock destroyed exclaimed I have been rightly served why did I trust my sheep to a wolf.
4. As Caesar loved me I wept for him as he was fortunate I rejoice at it as he was valiant I honour him but as he was ambitious I slew him.

5. Sancho ran as fast as his ass could go to help his master whom he found lying and not able to stir such a blow he and Rozinante had received mercy on me cried Sancho did I not give your worship fair warning did I not tell you they were windmills and that nobody could think otherwise unless he had also windmills in his head.
6. Perhaps cried he there may be such monsters as you describe.
7. Take away that bauble said Cromwell pointing to the mace which lay upon the table and when the House was empty he went out with the key in his pocket.
8. One day walking together up a hill I said to Friday do you not wish yourself in your own country again yes he said what would you do there said I would you turn wild and eat mens flesh again he looked full of concern and shaking his head said no no.
9. Wretch said the king what harm did I do thee that thou shouldst seek to take my life with your own hand you killed my father and my two brothers was the reply.
10. Androcles who had no arms of any kind now gave himself up for lost what shall I do said he I have no spear or sword no not so much as a stick to defend myself with.
11. When a great office is vacant either by death or disgrace which often happens five or six of these candidates petition the emperor to entertain his majesty and the court with a dance on the rope and whoever jumps the highest without falling succeeds to the office.

Unit 26

Comprehension

Chapter 57 Reading Comprehension

A. Story

Read the short story *The Bell of Atri* by James Baldwin.

A long time ago, the King of Atri bought a fine large bell, and had it hung up in a tower in the market place.

"It is the bell of justice," said the king. When at last everything was ready, the people of Atri had a great holiday. All the men, women and children came down to the market place to look at the bell of justice. It was a very pretty bell, and was polished until it looked almost as bright and yellow as the sun.

Then the king came down the street. When he came to the foot of the tower, he stopped and raised his hand.

"My people," he said, "do you see this beautiful bell? It is your bell; but it must never be rung except in case of need. If any one of you is wronged at any time, he or she may come and ring the bell; and then the judges shall come together at once, and hear his or her case, and give him or her justice."

Many years passed by after this. Many times did the bell in the market place ring out to call the judges together. Many wrongs were righted, many ill-doers were punished. The rope was almost worn out with some of the strands broken; it became so short that only a tall man could reach it.

The judges decided to substitute the rope but could not find a replacement.

A man ran into his garden and soon came back with a long grapevine in his hands. "This will do for a rope," he said; and he climbed up, and fastened it to the bell. The slender vine, with its leaves and tendrils still upon it, trailed to the ground.

On the hillside above the village, there lived a man who had once been a brave knight. In his youth he had ridden through many lands, and he had fought in many a battle. His best friend through all that time had been his horse—a

strong, noble steed that had borne him safe through many a danger. But the knight grew older and cared no more about battles and his horse; he thought of nothing but gold. He sold all that he had, except his horse, and went to live in a little hut on the hillside. Day after day he sat among his money bags, and planned how he might get more gold. His horse stood in his bare stall, half-starved, and shivering with cold.

"What is the use of keeping that lazy steed?" said the miser to himself one morning. "Every week it costs me more to keep him than he is worth. I might sell him; but there is not a man that wants him. I cannot even give him away. I will turn him out to fend for himself, and pick grass by the roadside. If he starves to death, so much the better."

So the brave old horse was turned out to find what he could among the rocks on the barren hillside. One hot afternoon, when no one was upon the street, the horse chanced to wander into the market place. The gates were wide open; the poor beast could roam where he pleased. He saw the grapevine rope that hung from the bell of justice. The leaves and tendrils upon it were still fresh and green, for it had not been there long.

He stretched his thin neck, and took one of the tempting morsels in his mouth. It was hard to break it from the vine. He pulled at it, and the great bell above him began to ring. All the people in Atri heard it.

The judges rushed through the hot streets to the market place. When they passed through the gate, they saw the old horse nibbling at the vine.

"Ha!" cried one, "it is the miser's steed. He has come to call for justice; for his master, as everybody knows, has treated him most shamefully."

"He pleads his cause as well as any dumb brute can," said another.

"And he shall have justice!" said the third. Meanwhile a crowd of men, women and children had come into the market place, eager to learn what cause the judges were about to try. When they saw the horse, all stood still in wonder. Then everyone was ready to tell how they had seen him wandering on the hills, unfed, uncared for, while his master sat at home counting his bags of gold.

"Go, bring the miser before us," said the judges. And when he came, they bade him stand and hear their judgment. "This horse has served you well for many a year," they said. "He has saved you from many a peril. He has helped you gain your wealth. Therefore we order that one half of all your gold shall be set

aside to buy him shelter and food, a green pasture where he may graze, and a warm stall to comfort him in his old age."

The miser hung his head, and grieved to lose his gold; but the people shouted with joy, and the horse was led away to his new stall and a dinner such as he had not had in many a day.

I. Write brief answers for the following questions.

1. What do you understand about the King's character from his proclamation that the bell had been put to give justice to the citizens of Atri?
2. What happened each time the bell rang?
3. Why did the need to change the rope arise? What substituted it?
4. Why did the old knight turn out his horse?
5. What happened when the horse started pulling at the grapevine?
6. How did the judges ensure that the horse received justice?

II. Write a brief summary of the story highlighting its main points.

B. Poem

Read the poem *The Daffodils* by William Wordsworth.

I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.

Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the Milky Way,
They stretched in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay:
Ten thousand saw I at a glance,
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.

The waves beside them danced, but they
Out-did the sparkling waves in glee:
A Poet could not but be gay,

In such a jocund company:
I gazed—and gazed—but little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought:

For oft, when on my couch I lie
In vacant or in pensive mood,
They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude;
And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.

I. Choose the correct option to answer the questions or complete the sentences.

1. 'The Daffodils' is _____.
   a. a narrative poem
   b. an acrostic poem
   c. a song
   d. an epic
2. Where was the crowd of the daffodils?
   a. beside the lake
   b. beneath the trees
   c. both a and b
   d. neither a nor b
3. Who or what "*twinkled on the Milky Way*"?
   a. the stars
   b. the waves
   c. the daffodils
   d. the clouds
4. What is the setting of the poem?
   a. inside a room
   b. in the sky
   c. out in the open
   d. in the poet's backyard
5. When do the daffodils flash upon the poet's inward eye?
   a. when he is in a pensive mood
   b. when he gazes without a thought
   c. when he looks at the stars
   d. when he thinks of the daffodils dancing in the breeze
6. What is the central idea of the poem?
   a. Beautiful things give us immense joy.
   b. Nature is beautiful.
   c. There is nothing like flowers to soothe aching nerves.
   d. All of the above

II. Paraphrase the stanzas of the poem.

C. Unseen Passage

Underline the facts and circle the writer's opinion in the following passage.

A.P.J. Abdul Kalam was the 11th President of India. He was a great man with a high level of intellect. Born and raised in Rameswaram, Tamil Nadu, the young Kalam studied physics at the St. Joseph's College, Tiruchirappalli, and aerospace engineering at the Madras Institute of Technology (MIT), Chennai. I think he must have been a good student throughout his school years.

Popularly known as the *Missile Man of India*, Dr. Kalam had led India from one accomplishment to another in space technology. He is credited with a pivotal role that he played in India's *Pokhran-II* nuclear tests in 1998, after the original nuclear test by India in 1974.

However, some detractors believe that Dr. Kalam was without any authority and was merely carrying on the work of Homi J. Bhabha and Vikram Sarabhai. Be as it may, the United Nations recognised Dr. Kalam's 79th birthday as *World Students' Day*. He had been conferred with the Padma Bhushan in 1981 and the Padma Vibhushan in 1990 for his work with ISRO and DRDO and his role as a scientific advisor to the Government. He received India's highest civilian honour, the Bharat Ratna, in 1997 for his valuable contribution to the scientific research and modernisation of defence technology in India.

D. Conversation/Dialogue

Read the three types of conversations given below.

Case 1: A brief conversation between two old friends meeting by chance at a market place.

Sunita: Hello Jatin! How are you? It's been a while since we last met!

Jatin: Oh, hi Sunita! I have been busy as my grandparents were with us for the last two months. My grandfather has problems with his knees so I had to tend to him. How about you?

Sunita: Not too bad. So have they left now?

Jatin: Yes, last week. How often do you come to this market?

Sunita: This is my first time. My mother usually picks up stuff for me from here, so I decided to drop by. Do you still practise for the choir?

Jatin: I have skipped practice for the better part of the last two months but I will now be practising regularly. How are your parents doing?

Sunita: They are both doing well. I have to rush now. Take care.

Jatin: Yes, you too.

Case 2: Conversation during an interview.

Rahul: Good morning, sir.

Interviewer: Good morning, Rahul. Please take a seat. So what made you apply for this job?

Rahul I feel that I could be a good teacher so I applied for the teaching position.

Interviewer: What is your basic qualification?

Rahul: I have a masters in English literature.

Interviewer: While you have the basic qualification, you would also need a B.Ed. degree.

Rahul: Sir, I have recently enrolled for a distant learning course for B.Ed.

Interviewer: And what makes you think that you would enjoy teaching?

Rahul: I have been interacting with children since my graduation and post-graduation years. I connect well with them.

Interviewer: In what way have you interacted with them? Are they relatives and neighbours?

Rahul: I teach the children in my neighbourhood football. After the practice I also help them out with their homework and studies. The way they have responded to the mentoring motivated me to take up teaching.

Interviewer: Well, we have other candidates to interview but we will get back to you soon.

Rahul: Thank you, sir. Have a good day.

Case 3: Conversation between two strangers queuing up to withdraw money from the bank.

Stranger 1: So how long have you been standing in the queue?

Stranger 2: For the last three hours. I was here by 7 a.m.

Stranger 1: Gosh! That's early. I knew the wait would be long but my mother insisted that I take out some money for her.

Stranger 2: Yesterday, I reached only at 9 a.m. By the time my turn came the bank had run out of cash.

Stranger 1: So you live nearby?

Stranger 2: No, I covered 30 kilometres one way to get here.

Stranger 1: Why? Don't you have ATMs and banks in your locality?

Stranger 2: The place where I come from has about three banks and a couple of functioning ATMs.

Stranger 1: Then why travel the distance?

Stranger 2: It's a small locality. Everyone knows each other. When some senior citizens see me they expect me to give them my place in the queue. Then there are these neighbours who ask me to lend them some cash citing all sorts of reasons. So I thought it would make more sense to withdraw from an area away from my locality.

Stranger 1: That makes sense. So what you withdraw today will all be yours to keep.

In the following table, the first column gives a description of the nature of a certain conversation. Identify the correct case and write it down in the second column.

Nature of Conversation	Case
This type of conversation is between people who know each other. There is normally no formalities of rank and protocol. The information exchanged includes personal interest and family members as well.	
This type of conversation takes place when complete strangers meet or are gathered at a common place for a common purpose. So the conversation centres around that common purpose mainly.	

In this type of conversation, there is a clear protocol and hierarchy maintained. There is always one person who does the major part of the questioning and the other person supplies the information.	

I. Do you think that the two friends in Case 1 are best friends? Give reasons for your answer.

E. Factual information

Read the following factual paragraph on an aspect of making films.

Before the 1920s, films used to be silent with just the action on the scene along with subtitles. Come the decade of 1920 and the advent of new technology, the filmmakers had the possibility to synchronise a soundtrack with the action on the screen. This included dialogues, musical score and special effects. After this development, the movies were called talkies since the audience was able to hear the actors talk with each other. There was no stopping from then on and the next significant development was the introduction of colour. However, colour movies were somewhat slow to catch on, especially when compared to the addition of sound to the movie. Another reason for this slow acceptance of colour was the considerable developing and processing cost it entailed. With passing of time, and improving technology, the colour processing became as affordable as black-and-white films. More and more movies were filmed in colour to a point when the film-makers did away with black-and-white films.

I. Choose the correct option to complete the following sentences.

1. Movies that had no sound were called _____ movies.
   a. muffled b. mute
   c. silent d. dumb
2. The _____ of the soundtrack to the action in the film revolutionised the process of film-making.
   a. stitching b. synchronisation
   c. adhering d. none of the above
3. The acceptance of colour movies was a little slow when compared to the _____.

a. besties
b. selfies
c. smileys
d. talkies

4. Colour movies were a little slow on the uptake owing to their high _____ and _____ costs.
   a. processing/developing
   b. filming/processing
   c. filming/developing
   d. only developing
5. With advanced technology, the processing of colour films became as affordable as _____ films.
   a. black and blue
   b. black and white
   c. blue and white
   d. all of these
6. What is the main idea of the passage?
   a. Advancement in technology has had a tremendous impact on film-making.
   b. Silent movies and talkies were destined to become obsolete.
   c. Film-making is an easy job.
   d. Colour movies with a soundtrack are better than black-and-white movies with a soundtrack.

II. Do you think the audience won't appreciate a good black-and-white movie today? Give reasons for your answer.

F. Data interpretation

Study the following pie chart carefully.

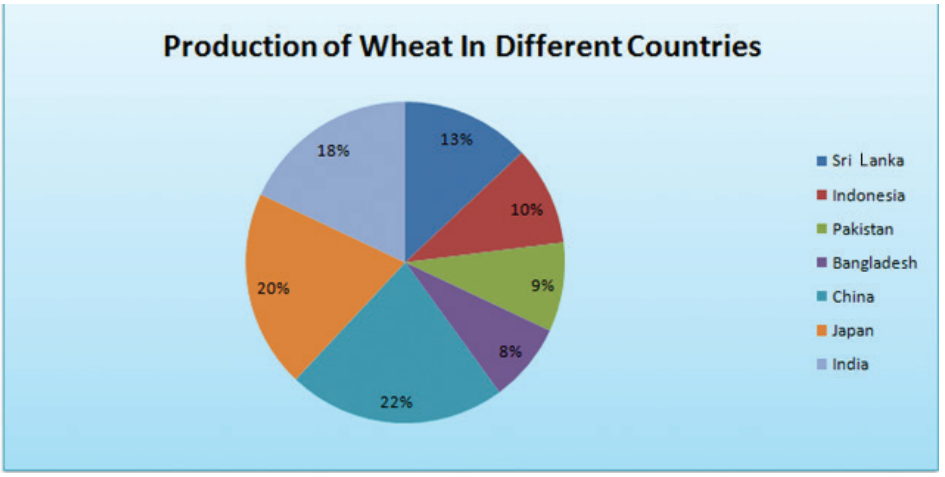

http://www.wordpandit.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/Mixed-Chart-Data-Interpretation-Level-2-Set-15-1.png

I. Answer the following that you can infer from the pie chart.

1. The largest producer of wheat
2. Percentage of wheat produced by China, Japan and Bangladesh
3. The largest producer of wheat in the Indian subcontinent
4. The country that produces half of what India produces
5. Does India produce more wheat per hectare as compared to Sri Lanka?
6. What is India's position among the wheat producing countries if we rank them from the largest?

II. Write a brief paragraph on the wheat producing countries shown in the pie chart. The most important aspect to be covered in the paragraph is the percentage of wheat produced by each country as compared to the size of the country.

Unit 27

Composition

Chapter 58 Essay Writing

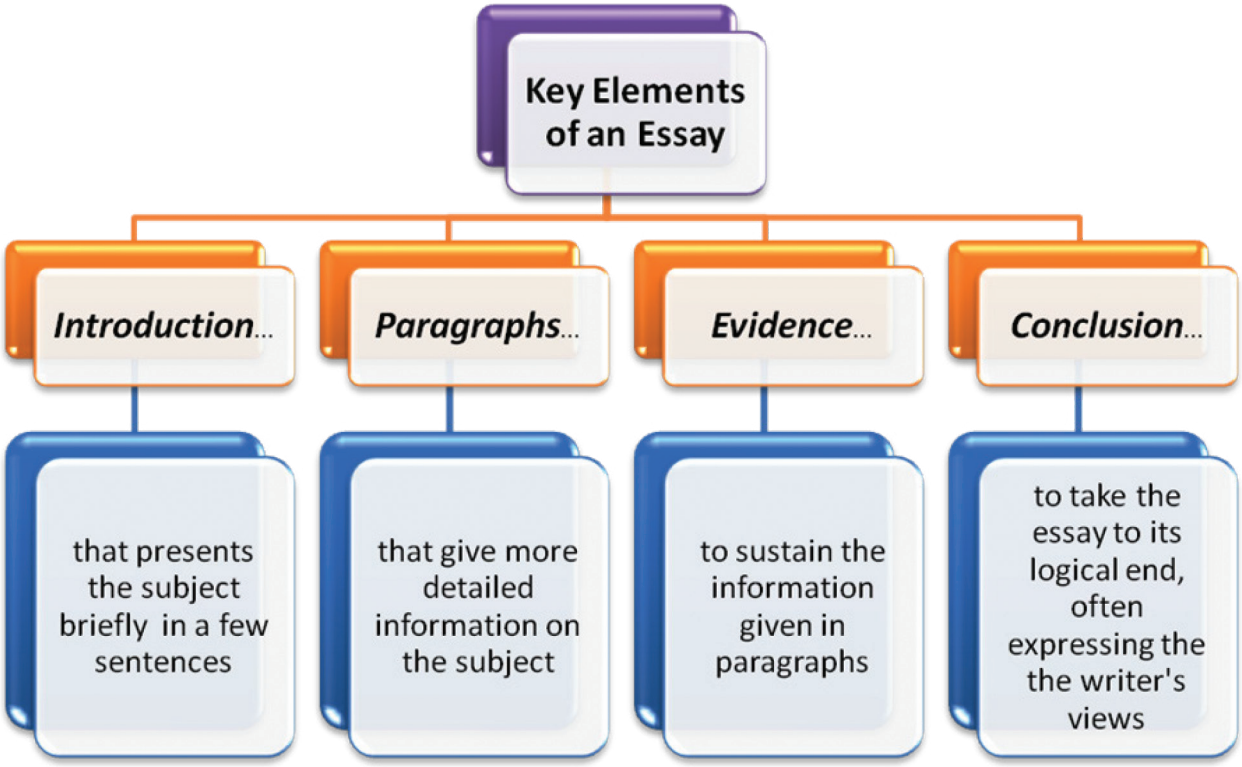

Let's study the different types of essays.

A. Reflective Essay

A reflective essay consists of thoughts on a given topic, usually of an abstract nature—habits, feelings, qualities, social/political/economical situations and the like.

While the structure remains the same, the stress of the content is more on what the writer feels about the given topic in hand.

Given below is an example of reflective essay on the poem *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* by Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

The Rime of the Ancient Mariner is by far the longest poem that has been written in the English language.

The poem acquires different nuances according to who interprets it—an expression of going against nature, the idea of a sinner, religious undertones, etc.

The Ancient Mariner is an old man who commits a grave error by killing an albatross. Instead of imparting his wisdom and experience to his younger colleagues, he brings upon them untold woes and misfortune. The man is eloquent enough to communicate the deteriorating conditions of the lot.

Somewhere along the way, he symbolises the mother figure as well, considering the repeated references to typically feminine things like the sea, motherhood, irrationality, spontaneity and nature.

Some scholars have interpreted the poem as man violating nature. Others have interpreted the poem as the story of the salvation of Christ. Various interpretations on the ballad were also proposed. Some said that the killing of the albatross by the Ancient Mariner shows the violation of nature and is criticised. Someone has gone to the extent of suggesting that the poem is, in reality, Coleridge's autobiography.

It is not an easy task to fathom and understand a literary piece simply because each of us has our own perceptions and beliefs. However, I find the poem beautifully written and thought-provoking. It also highlights a major environmental issue that has not changed over time—man's abuse and exploitation of nature for his own pursuits. The deliberate killing of the albatross shows how man has wilfully and willingly disrupted nature's balance for his own gains.

Answer the following questions:

1. Write a reflective essay on your major achievement in the last five years.
2. Write a reflective essay on your role model and say what you admire in him/her the most.

B. Narrative Essay

A narrative essay recounts a personal experience or story. It is a type of expository writing that offers its writers a chance to think and write about themselves. A narrative essay is written from a defined point of view, that of the writer, and hence allows for feelings and specific sensory perceptions to catch the readers' attention.

Given below is an example of a narrative essay with the title *My Eureka Moment*.

I had a dream since my childhood—to be able to swim to my heart's content in any water body. But, in reality, I was petrified of water bodies. I had the firm conviction that I would go down like a dead weight as soon as I lowered myself in a swimming pool even on the shallow side!

I told myself that it was a challenge I had to face; that I had to get out of my comfort zone; that I had to make the effort. But, all in vain. I could not be convinced to touch the pool water with my toe, leave alone get into it.

One summer, two years ago, I was literally 'hoodwinked' into taking a membership in our local swimming pool. I was gifted a swimming costume, cap, goggle, arm bands and gently taken into water. I was shivering in waist high water, imagining, rather viewing, myself lifeless in the bottom of the pool.

My sister held my hand and asked me to slowly walk ahead towards the less shallow part. As the water level rose to my chest, my heart beat fast. I felt it would come out from my body or sink to my toes. However, my arm bands kept me afloat and this filled me with a confidence I had never experienced before. She taught me some exercises that I could do while in the pool, which I gladly did. I began to look forward to my 'swimming hour' during the day when I played with water with childlike abandon. That was my Eureka moment—the fact that I just loved to be in the swimming pool with water reaching my chin. One day, I will learn to swim; but, for now, I am happy playing with water!

Exercises

1. Write a narrative essay about an experience in your life that is difficult to forget. Write what caused the incident and mention the impact it had on your life.

2. You have the opportunity to invent an occasion to be celebrated worldwide. Write a narrative essay about this occasion, why have you chosen it, what is its relevance in today's world and how it will be celebrated.

C. Descriptive Essay

A descriptive essay describes a person, place, animal or thing. It provides details that help the reader form a precise mental picture of what is being described. These details are such that appeal to the five senses in order to leave a lasting impression on the reader.

Given below is an example of a descriptive essay on the Chennai floods in 2015.

Chennai was flooded after incessant rains in November 2015 following the worst rainfall in 100 years. Many areas were completely submerged in water causing massive damage to life and property.

Upon investigations, it was revealed that the disaster was caused due to malfunctioning drainage system and excessive dumping that blocked the creeks and culverts impeding, in the process, the flow of rainwater.

The administration's failure in ensuring timely remedies as well as rampant encroachment on the Cooum River, Adyar River and Buckingham Canal further intensified the impact of the disaster. These waterways serve as the main rainwater drain for the city.

Thousands of people lost their homes, life and were displaced. Even though hectic rescue efforts were on round the clock, they seemed wanting when compared to the enormity of the disaster.

Among the rescue teams were the Indian Army, Navy and Air Force working shoulder to shoulder with many NGOs and well-intentioned individuals. However, on the flip side, many accounts of heroic deeds came to the fore where people helped each other irrespective of caste, creed, colour or religion. The Chennai floods left a lot of destruction on its trail, but also left many a heart-warming tale of exceptional bravery, brotherhood and goodwill.

Exercises

1. Write a descriptive essay about how your school has changed over the years since you enrolled in Grade 1.

2. Write a descriptive essay on the road right in front of your colony. You may describe an entire day on the road from the point of view of an observer.

D. Imaginative Essay

An imaginative essay allows its writer to indulge in a flight of his/her imagination about a given topic.

Given below is an example of an imaginative essay on the topic *If I could be invisible for a day.*

If I could be invisible for a day, I would be free to go and come as I please. I wouldn't need anyone's permission for anything. I would walk into the offices to see the people work and observe if they are doing their duty or not. It is a pity that I wouldn't be able to film errant workers since my phone would be visible to everyone!

I would love to visit exotic places free of cost. But, there is a problem in that, too. I would need the physical space to sit or lie down in spite of being invisible. And, any vacant seat (where I would be sitting) could be given to others, particularly when travelling in the train. So, no free journeys for me even if invisible!

It would decidedly be lots of fun when I play pranks on my rivals and adversaries. Their countenances would be worth the laugh I would have at their expense.

I would be an asset for my country as I would have the ability to enter and exit the enemy camps without being noticed. I could overhear their plans and alert the forces.

And then, I would be a kind of 'Robin Hood' for the poor people around me who are not allowed to sit and eat with the so-called affluent people. I would scare the latter to such an extent that they would be forced to acknowledge the former and share the common space with them.

Exercises

1. Write an imaginative essay about what you want to do when you grow up and whether you plan to use your expertise for the good of others.
2. Write an imaginative essay on how the world would be if people made music instead of wars.

E. Argumentative Essay

An argumentative essay requires the student to thoroughly investigate the given topic, gather and evaluate evidences and establish a position in a concise manner.

Given below is an example of an argumentative essay on the topic *Do Rewards Matter?*

It is often said that one should do one's duty without the expectation of a reward. And yet, all around us, we see rewards—in cash or kind—making the world go round....from training one's pet, to getting a child to do the right thing; from getting a simple job done in an office to getting an urgent appointment with someone in authority.

In the working world, incentives, or rewards, are effective motivators for the employee. An incentive-linked task spurs him/her on to perform better and faster. However, oftentimes this system sidelines the good workers who achieve their targets without the promise of an incentive—they are equated with the rest and their efficiency undervalued.

On the other hand, incentives and rewards are a sure way to get the 'lazy' workers out of their comfort zone and achieve results. It is quite like a dog that bites its own tail! There is actually no effective answer to the question —*Do rewards matter*?

While they are a good way for forming healthy habits, they should be restricted only to such exercises. In my opinion, one should give one's best to the task on hand (whether studies or work or any other thing) without an expectation of a tangible reward. The result of a well-done task will be a reward unto itself.

Exercises

1. Write an argumentative essay on whether surfing habits of children should be monitored by their parents or not.
2. Write an argumentative essay on the parental and societal pressure put on students to achieve good grades and how it may, at times, adversely affect the students.

Chapter 59 Story Writing

A story is a narration or retelling of real or fictitious events that are somehow connected with each other. Let us understand the story elements by analysing the following story.

Once upon a time, a lion was sleeping under a tree in the jungle. He was awakened from sleep by a mouse running over his face. Rising up angrily, the lion caught him and was about to eat him, when the latter piteously begged, saying: "If you would only spare my life, I would be sure to repay your kindness." The lion laughed and let him go.

After a few days, it so happened that the lion was caught in a hunter's net. Hard as he tried to free himself, he remained firmly bound to the ground by strong ropes. He began to roar in despair. The mouse, recognising his roar, came and gnawed the rope with his teeth and set him free.

Story map of
The Lion and the Mouse

Characters:	**Setting**:	
Lion, mouse, hunter	Jungle	
Beginning	A sleeping lion is awakened by a mouse.	Introduction
Middle	The lion is angry for being woken up and wants to eat the mouse.	Actions of different characters; chain of events leading to the problem/ conflict
	The mouse pleads with him to spare his life, promising that one day he (mouse) will help him.	
	The lion is scornful of the mouse's words but lets him go anyway.	
	A few days later, the lion finds himself entangled in a hunter's net. He tries as hard as he can, but is unable to free himself.	Problem or conflict
	He begins to roar in sheer desperation. The mouse recognises the roar and comes running to the lion.	
End	The mouse gnaws at the ropes of the net and sets the lion free.	Resolution of the problem/conflict

Apart from the story map, it is important to remember to:

- Start the story with phrases like "Once upon a time", "Long ago" to set its time frame.
- Include dialogues in the narrative to make the characters more dynamic.
- Lead the characters to the climax, a kind of point of no return where the characters face a problem/conflict.
- Lead them to the resolution of the problem/conflict and to the end. The resolution need not be logical always. However, the end should give a closure to the narrative.

Exercises

1. **A Day in the Life of a Superhero**

   You have been given a boon to become a superhero of your choice for one day. Whom would you choose to become and what would you do with your superpowers?

2. **I Love Time Travel**

   You have found a secret formula to travel in time. Choose a time period to travel and describe your stay there. You may mix your time periods randomly as well, i.e., you may travel to past, from there to distant future and so on.

3. **That made Me feel Good!**

   Write about a time, or an action, that really made you feel good about yourself.

4. **I am just a Number**

   Imagine you are a number in a number line from 1—50. You are tired of being where you are and would like to change places. Write about your condition/plight/adventure when you exchange your place with another number.

Chapter 60 Letter Writing

A. Formal letter

A formal letter is a form of written communication to people in authority. The language used is official and courteous.

Given below is a sample formal letter along with its various elements:

Sender's address	Ruchika Bahl 73, Sunlight Street Pinacolada Apartments
Date	15th July 2015
Receiver's address	State Town Planner Gurgaon
Salutation	Respected Sir/Madam
Subject:	Flouting of Row Housing Byelaws
Body of the letter	This is to bring to your notice that the construction on plot number 4 on the Sunlight Street is against the Row Housing Byelaws in that it does not respect the boundary limits as dictated by the byelaw. I am attaching the photographs of some irregularities that have come up in the said construction. This has created serious concern for all the neighbours as the construction is blocking the passage of air and sunlight. You are requested to kindly look into the matter and take suitable action.
Signing off	Yours sincerely
Name and signature of the sender	Ruchika Bahl

Exercises

1. Write a letter to the principal of your school seeking permission for organising a blood donation camp within the school premises. Mention the date and

programme schedule along with the details of the professionals (medical and paramedical) who would assist during the camp.

2. Write a letter to the editor of a newspaper highlighting the poor sanitary conditions of your neighbourhood.
3. One of your neighbours has an embroidery unit installed in her house. Though she doesn't disturb others or create problems, she has employed underage children to embroider patterns. They live in the same building and are often beaten up. No one is allowed to enter the building.

   As Rama Rani, write a letter to the Superintendent of Police of your area to report the child abuse and child labour happening in your neighbourhood.

B. Informal letter

An informal letter is a form of written communication to people with whom one has social rapport and/or friendship. The language used is informal and the structure is also less rigid.

Given below is a sample formal letter along with its various elements:

Sender's address	Ruchika Bahl Lake View Hotel Nainital
Date	15th July 2015
Salutation	Dear [Daddy/Mummy/Uncle/Aunty/(name of friend)]
Body of the letter	We reached Nainital this morning. We have been allotted our rooms. We have also been assigned a 'buddy' for the rest of the trip. We are required to do all the things together. It is a lovely morning. We will go to the lake after some time. I am so excited to come to my dream destination. I will write to you later with more details.
Signing off	Yours affectionately
Name and signature of the sender	Ruchika

Exercises

1. The CBSE results were announced in the newspaper this morning. Your friend's elder brother has topped his school. Write a letter to your friend congratulating her for her brother's success and promising her that you will visit soon.
2. Imagine you have been selected for an experimental journey in a space shuttle. Write a letter to your parents describing your joy and excitement at the opportunity.
3. Your family has moved to a new city following your father's job transfer. You have almost settled down in the new place and new school. Write a letter to your best friend telling him/her about the new place, school and classmates.

Chapter 61 Messages

A message is a very brief verbal, written, or recorded communication sent to or left for a recipient who is not available to talk at the moment. A message should not exceed 25–30 words.

Given below is a sample message based on the following telephonic conversation:

Conversation

Rinky: Hello.

Caller: I am calling from Dr. Ahuja's clinic. Am I speaking to Mrs. Khanna?

Rinky: She is not at home. I am her daughter. Can I take a message?

Caller: This is regarding her appointment with the doctor this evening. Please tell her that the doctor will see her at 9 am tomorrow morning instead.

Rinky: OK. I will inform her.

Message

6th June

Mother

Your appointment with Dr. Ahuja has been postponed to tomorrow morning at 9 a.m. instead of this evening.

Rinky

Exercises

1. You attend the same remedial classes during weekends as your friend Atul. The teacher informed the students that no classes will be held on the next weekend. Atul has gone for a family celebration and shall be back only on Monday. Write a message informing him of this change in class schedule.
2. As the monitor of your class, you have to attend an important meeting with other monitors and the teachers after school. Write a message to your parents telling them that you will be late in reaching home.

3. Listen to the following conversation between Ruma's mother and her friend, Nita. Write a message for Ruma with all the information that her friend Nita provided to the former's mother.

   Ruma's mother: Hello Nita, I am Ruma's mother here.

   Nita: Hello Aunty. Why didn't Ruma come to school today?

   Ruma's mother: She sprained her ankle last night. I called you to ask if there was any homework for today.

   Nita: Yes, Aunty. Tell Ruma to complete sections C and D on page 73 from the English coursebook and questions 5 and 6 from chapter 10 of Maths.

   Ruma's mother: Anything else?

   Nita: No Aunty. This is all.

   Ruma's mother: Thank you, Nita.

Chapter 62 Notices

A notice is a brief announcement about an event that is to happen or has happened. The number of words in a notice should not exceed 50 words.

Given below is a sample notice:

The ABC School of Art and Language

Notice

27th July 2015

Founder's Day Celebrations

All students who are interested in participating in the dance drama show for the celebrations are requested to gather in the Auditorium at 2.30 p.m. on 28th July 2015.

Performing Arts Coordinator

Exercises

1. Your new tennis kit has been stolen from your locker. Write a notice giving the following details:

   Brief description of the tennis kit, contact name, class and section

   Also mention a suitable reward for the finder of your tennis kit.

2. Your local sports club is organising a summer camp to Mcleodganj. Write a notice for the club notice board announcing the camp and inviting members to attend it. Include the following information in your notice:

   Date and duration of the camp — Date of orientation for the camp

   Charges for the camp — Contact person's name and number

3. Write a notice for your colony's notice board informing the residents about the Independence Day celebrations to be held on the 15th of August in the community centre. Mention the time as well as a brief schedule for the celebration.

Chapter 63 Diary Entry

A diary is a record of the happenings of the day over a period of time. The language used is informal and in first person. The most common tenses are simple present or simple past. Sometimes emoticons, sketches and drawings can also be used.

Given below is a sample diary entry from *The Diary of a Young Girl* by Anne Frank:

Friday, June 30, 1944

Dearest Kitty,

Bad weather from one at a stretch to the thirty June. Don't I say that well? Oh yes, I already know a little English; just to prove it I'm reading *An Ideal Husband* with the help of a dictionary! War's going wonderfully: Bobruysk, Mogilev and Orsha have fallen, lots of prisoners.

Everything's all right here. Spirits are improving, our super-optimists are triumphant, the van Daans are doing disappearing acts with the sugar, Bep's changed her hair, and Miep has a week off. That's the latest news!

I've been having really ghastly root-canal work done on one of my front teeth. It's been terribly painful. It was so bad Dussel thought I was going to faint, and I nearly did. Mrs. van D. promptly got a toothache as well!

Yours, Anne M. Frank

Exercises

1. You had a class test today. You were convinced that you would fail the test. But, you were pleasantly surprised when the teacher gave out the marks—you had scored the highest.

   Write a diary entry about how you felt after receiving the marks. You may include the following information:

   - It was a surprise test.
   - How many questions were there?
   - Your marks
   - How many questions did you attempt?

2. Imagine you are Gulliver. You have set sail for Japan. Write a diary entry about your thoughts of going to Japan. Mention the things you plan to do and see there as well as the number of days you wish to stay.
3. Today was the best birthday you have ever had. Your parents had organised a surprise party. Early in the morning, you, your parents and a few friends set out to a secret destination—your grandparents' house on the slope of a hill that overlooked a beautiful valley. Write a diary entry to describe your day, the things you did and ate and your feelings at the end of the day.
4. You went to Agra to see the Taj Mahal for the very first time. Write a diary entry giving an account of the day and your thoughts when you saw this architectural marvel of the 17th century.
5. It is your first day in a boarding school. You have left your home and family for the first time to live alone in a new place with new friends. Write a diary entry recording your thoughts about your new life there and the adjustments you have to make.

Chapter 64 Dialogue Writing

A dialogue is a conversation between two or more people. The language used is often conversational.

Given below is a set of dialogues from *The Importance of Being Earnest* by Oscar Wilde.

Algernon: How are you, my dear Ernest? What brings you up to town?

Jack: Oh, pleasure, pleasure! What else should bring one anywhere? Eating as usual, I see, Algy!

Algernon: I believe it is customary in good society to take some slight refreshment at five o'clock. Where have you been since last Thursday?

Jack: In the country.

Algernon: What on earth do you do there?

Jack: When one is in town one amuses oneself. When one is in the country one amuses other people. It is excessively boring.

Algernon: And who are the people you amuse?

Jack: Oh, neighbours, neighbours.

Exercises

1. Imagine you remain stuck with your favourite celebrity in a lift for about 10 minutes. Start a conversation with the celebrity imagining the answers he/she would give you. Write a set of dialogues between you and him/her.
2. Write a set of dialogues between you and your pet who is complaining of a terrible stomach ache. What will you say to comfort your pet?
3. Write dialogues between a teenager and his/her parents about what career the former should choose after school. Give reasons to justify the respective stands.
4. Two friends are held up in a hill station due to a landslide. Friend A is despondent and believes that they will die there. Friend B, however, encourages his/her friend to come out of desperation for they will be rescued the following day. Write a set of dialogues to express the various concerns.

Chapter 65 Review

A. Book review

Book review is a form of literary criticism in which a book is analysed on the basis of its content, style, and merit. The critic can express personal opinions as well including rating the book.

Given below is a book review of *Wings of Fire* by APJ Abdul Kalam.

> *Wings of Fire* is an autobiography of Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam and covers his early life and work in Indian space research and missile programmes. It is a simple tale of a boy from a humble background who went on to occupy the highest seat, that of the president of the country.
> Dr. Kalam has been a key player in Indian space research/Indian missile programmes. The book gained immense popularity in India and has been translated into multiple languages. It is an engaging reading to say the least. However, it tends to drag towards the end. The technical details given therein are lost on the common readers since they are specific to space research and missile projects.
>
> In my opinion, the initial chapters of *Wings of Fire* are lovable as they describe the quest of this young boy on the road to realising his dreams. Another important factor is Dr. Kalam's positive thinking and outlook that resonates throughout the book. Despite holding many high ranking positions in various organisations, Dr. Kalam's humility shines throughout like a beacon. The secret to his success is indeed his ability to ignore negative things around him.
>
> Critic's rating - 8/10

Exercises

1. Write a review of your favourite book that you have read in recent times. Mention the positive and the negative aspects of the book as well as things you liked. Remember to give a rating to your review.
2. Write a review of the book prescribed for supplementary reading in your school. Mention the high and the low points of the book. Do not forget to rate the book.

B. Movie review

Movie review is a form of literary criticism in which a movie is analysed on the basis of its content, acting, photography, etc. The critic can express personal opinions as well including rating the film.

Given below is a movie review of the film *Udta Punjab.*

The Indian EXPRESS

Home › Entertainment › Movie-Review › Udta Punjab › Udta Punjab review: Shahid, Alia starrer has flaws, but makes a strong point

Udta Punjab review: Shahid, Alia starrer has flaws, but makes a strong point

Udta Punjab movie review: This is the kind of film which has something to say, and it says it with both flair and conviction.

Written by Shubhra Gupta | New Delhi | Updated: June 19, 2016 10:14 am

First off, is Udta Punjab worth all the fuss? I'd say, absolutely.

Not because it is a perfect film. It has flaws. But this is the kind of film that has something to say, and it says it with both flair and conviction.

Flying is both a metaphor and reality of drugs. Anyone who's done a line, or snorted some stuff, or shot up, knows what it feels like — you are untethered, you are afloat. It's another matter that you come down with a thud, and it feels so awful that you are shooting up again, and that's your vicious cycle.

Udta Punjab is a cracker of a title, and the way it opens tells us that it will go on the way it means to: with rolled-up sleeves ready for action, with characters who look as if they belong to Punjab, and speak the lingo right (mostly). Most importantly, it reveals a willingness to go over to the dark side and show what drugs can do. They can ruin. They can kill. They can wish you were not alive.

Anyone with half an eye open can see that this is not a film that glorifies drugs. The degradation of Alia's character, both physical and mental, is horrifying. An addicted teenager's spiralling down the primrose path is another of the plot's see-see-this-is-what-drugs-can-do-to-you thread. It gets to the point where you want to say right, we get it, move on.

Exercises

1. Write a review of your all-time favourite movie that you have ever watched. Comment on its storyline, characters, cast, and musical score. Do express what you liked about the movie and what you didn't. Remember to give a rating to your review and say whether you will recommend it to your friends.
2. Watch the latest movie that is being shown in a cinema hall near you and write its review. Comment upon what worked for the movie and what didn't along with your views about its storyline, characters, cast, and musical score. Rate the movie.

Chapter 66 Biography

A biography is an account of someone's life written by someone else. It highlights the important work done by the person and the strong points he/she has. In other words, it is a kind of summary of who one is and how does he/she impact his/her ambience.

Given below is a brief biography of Stephen Irwin, popularly known as the Crocodile Hunter:

Stephen Irwin was a famous Australian television personality, wildlife expert, and conservationist. Born on 22 February 1962 in Essendon, Australia, he grew up in the wild life park of his parents. There he mastered the technique of catching and managing crocodiles. He worked on the world famous television series, The Crocodile Hunter; in fact, he got his pseudonym from the title of the series.

Even though he did not have any formal education or degree in his field, he was acclaimed as a wildlife expert the world over. He died in 2006 after being pierced by a stingray off Australia's Great Barrier Reef.

Exercises

1. Read the following details about Jane Goodall and write a brief biography.

Name:	Jane Goodall
Born on:	3rd April 1944
Parents' names:	Mortimer Herbert Morris and Margaret Joseph
Siblings:	One sister, Judith
Profession:	British Scientist
Field of study:	Chimpanzee behaviour
Recognition:	UN Messenger of Peace
	Conferred with the Dame Commander of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire in 2004
Founded	Jane Goodall Institute, a global non-profit organisation to empower people in making a difference in the world

2. Write a brief biography of your grandfather highlighting his accomplishments in his life.
3. Research the relevant details (as given in exercise 1) about India's 3rd Prime Minister, Shri Lal Bahadur Shastri, and write a brief biography.
4. Write a biography of your favourite movie star.
5. Here is an extract from a BBC news report about the death of Steve Jobs, Apple Inc's founder. With the help of the information given in this report, write a brief biography on Steve Jobs. Give a suitable title.

Steve Jobs, Apple 'visionary', dies aged 56

6 October 2011

Steve Jobs, co-founder and former chief executive of US technology giant Apple, has died at the age of 56. Apple said he had been "the source of countless innovations that enrich and improve all of our lives" and had made the world "immeasurably better". Mr Jobs had announced he was suffering from pancreatic cancer in 2004. Tributes have been made by technology company bosses and world leaders, with US President Barack Obama saying the world had "lost a visionary".

A statement from Mr Jobs's family said they were with him when he died peacefully on Wednesday.

'Face of Apple'

More than almost any other business leader, Mr Jobs was indistinguishable from his company, which he co-founded in the 1970s. In 2004, Mr Jobs announced that he was suffering from pancreatic cancer. He had a liver transplant five years later. In January, he took medical leave, before resigning as CEO in August and handing over his duties to Mr Cook. In his resignation letter, Mr Jobs said: "I believe Apple's brightest and most innovative days are ahead of it. And I look forward to watching and contributing to its success in a new role." However, Mr Jobs stayed on as Apple's chairman. He married Laurene in 1991, and the couple had three children. As an adult, he discovered that he had a biological sister, US novelist Mona Simpson.

Chapter 67 Autobiography

An autobiography is an account of a person's life written by himself/herself. It gives the following details about the author:

- Date of Birth and place
- Friends
- Likes, dislikes, and inclinations
- Family and significant familial influences
- Neighbourhood and ambience
- Accomplishments (and failures) in life/goals for the future

Given below is an excerpt from Mahatma Gandhi's autobiography, *The Story of My Experiments with Truth.*

> I must have been about seven when my father left Porbandar for Rajkot to become a member of the Rajasthanik Court. There I was put into a primary school, and I can well recollect those days, including the names and other particulars of the teachers who taught me. As at Porbandar, so here, there is hardly anything to note about my studies. I could have been only a mediocre student. From this school I went to the suburban school and thence to the high school, having already reached my twelfth year. I do not remember having ever told a lie, during this short period, either to my teachers or to my school-mates. I used to be very shy and avoided all company. My books and my lessons were my sole companions. To be at school at the stroke of the hour and to run back home as soon as the school closed—that was my daily habit. I literally ran back, because I could not bear to talk to anybody. I was even afraid lest anyone should poke fun at me.

Exercises

A. Imagine yourself to be:

1. Your favourite character from your favourite book or movie. Write an autobiography of this character describing a day in his/her life.

2. A common household object (e.g., a water bottle or a cup). Write an autobiography of the object describing the various stages in its life from how it was made, how it came to your house and how it is being used by the different family members.
3. A house pet. Write an autobiography describing the quality of life you are living with your human family.

B. If you were to write your own autobiography, what would you name it? Write your own autobiography using the following prompts. You may also use your own.

- Your most precious childhood memories
- Moments from your past you wish you could return to
- Things you created when you were a child
- Lessons you have learned, personal achievements you are proud of, things you are grateful for, some recent moments of happiness in your life, your personality and temperament
- Your role in your family, family stories of sacrifice, relationship with your siblings

Chapter 68 Making a Poster

A poster is a large placard, bill, or announcement that is posted to advertise or publicise an object or an event. It has attractive illustration(s) more often than not.

Given below are different kinds of posters. The one on the left is intended to educate the public about the ways of preventing a disaster on trains whereas the one on the right is meant to advertise a new product.

As evident from the examples, one needs to know the message that the poster carries with details that support it.

Exercises

1. Water Conservation is the need of the hour since the resource is depleting at an alarming rate. Make an attractive poster that gives this message.
2. Right to Education is the fundamental right of all children irrespective of caste, creed or social status. Yet, many times this right is flouted and they are forced to work, at times in unhygienic conditions, overtime in the production of consumer goods (bangle making is one such industry). Make a poster to promote abolition of child labour and enforcement of their right to education.
3. The children of your colony have decided to organise a *Winter Festival* in the colony park. Make an attractive poster to inform the residents about this initiative.
4. Make a poster for Grade 3 students describing the nouns, their types and their uses.

Chapter 69 Report Writing

A report is a short, concise document written to suit a specific purpose and for a specific audience. Usually it deals with a situation or problem by analysing it and often making recommendations for the future course of action. It is factual hence needs to be clear and well-structured.

Given below is an example of a report on Antarctica:

Antarctica is a continent that is situated around the South Pole. It is the coldest continent in the world with high winds.

Most of the region is covered with very thick layers of ice and snow. It is a matter of fact that the ice and snow of Antarctica supplies nearly 70% of the world's fresh water.

It is also the driest continent because the average rainfall is lower than in many desert areas of the world. It would not be an exaggeration to say that Antarctica is the largest desert in the world.

Such harsh conditions make Antarctica mostly uninhabited; only the staff working at research stations lives there. Apart from some insect species, penguins, seabirds, seals and whales, no other type of fauna is found in Antarctica.

Antarctica is a unique continent. It has the most spectacular and beautiful places on earth and yet does not have easy living conditions to allow for habitation and/or vegetation.

Some more Examples

Boy rewarded for preventing an accident

Staff Reporter

Hyderabad: A nursery student Soni (4), going home along with her mother, was saved by a boy when a school bus was about to hit her near Borabanda on Saturday. The boy was rewarded. The mother, Yashoda, who works as a labourer with the Water Works department, was returning home with her child.

Delhi shivers on the coldest day in 70 years

Staff Reporter

New Delhi: Delhi experienced its coldest day in over 70 years on Sunday as chilly winds from the North west swept the city throughout the day, forcing the Delhi Government to order closure of all primary schools, including private institutions, till January 11.

The sudden dip in temperature to 0.2 degrees Celsius early in the morning and cold wave conditions during the day forced people to stay indoors on a bright sunny day.

Significantly, the minimum temperature remained at 0.2 degrees Celsius between 5.30 a.m. and 6 a.m. at Palam. Prior to this, Delhi had recorded a minimum temperature of minus (–) 0.6 degrees on January 10, 1935.

While the minimum temperature remained even degrees below normal, the maximum temperature was two degrees below normal at 18.7 degrees Celsius.

Exercises

1. Gather information about the cleanliness being maintained in your school premises and write a report. Suggest remedial measures in case the standard of cleanliness is not up to the mark.
2. Talk to the children of your domestic help at home and write a report highlighting their needs and requirements and suggesting a plan of action to meet them.
3. You accompanied your school team to an inter-school football match held in Mumbai. Write a report for your school magazine describing the team's performance during the various matches it played and how it fared.

Chapter 70 Summary Writing

A summary is a shorter version of a text that emphasises its key points. Its main function is to give an accurate and objective representation of what the text has to say.

Given below is a sample text with its summary.

Text

The Vikings were the first to step on American soil. They had discovered North America in the 11th century while Columbus landed in the Bahamas in 1492 under the Spanish flag. The French began expeditions to the New World only in 1524. However, the most important European presence in the continent is significant because the initial colonies, thirteen in number, established by the English went on to form the United States of America.

Summary

America was discovered way before the English landed; however, the English colonies went on to become the United States of America.

Note: As you can see, the summary in the example is barely 30% of the text and gives the crux of the paragraph.

Exercises

1. Read the following excerpt from Mahatma Gandhi's autobiography and write a brief summary.

   On my way to Bombay the train stopped at Allahabad for forty-five minutes. I decided to utilise the interval for a drive through the town. I also had to purchase some medicine at a chemist's shop. The chemist was half asleep, and took an unconscionable time in dispensing the medicine, with the result that when I reached the station, the train had just started. The station master had kindly detained the train one minute for my sake, but not seeing me coming, had carefully ordered my luggage to be taken out of the train.

2. Read the following excerpt from *The Canterville Ghost* by Oscar Wilde and write a brief summary.

Mr. Otis was awakened by a curious noise in the corridor, outside his room. It sounded like the clank of metal, and seemed to be coming nearer every moment. He got up at once, struck a match, and looked at the time. It was exactly one o'clock. He was quite calm, and felt his pulse, which was not at all feverish. The strange noise still continued, and with it he heard distinctly the sound of footsteps. He put on his slippers, took a small oblong phial out of his dressing-case, and opened the door. Right in front of him he saw, in the wan moonlight, an old man of terrible aspect. His eyes were as red burning coals; long grey hair fell over his shoulders in matted coils; his garments, which were of antique cut, were soiled and ragged, and from his wrists and ankles hung heavy manacles and rusty gyves.

3. Read the following excerpt from *Gulliver's Travels* by Jonathan Swift and write a brief summary.

   It seems, that upon the first moment I was discovered sleeping on the ground, after my landing, the emperor had early notice of it by an express; and determined in council, that I should be tied in the manner I have related, (which was done in the night while I slept;) that plenty of meat and drink should be sent to me, and a machine prepared to carry me to the capital city.

   This resolution perhaps may appear very bold and dangerous, and I am confident would not be imitated by any prince in Europe on the like occasion. However, in my opinion, it was extremely prudent, as well as generous: for, supposing these people had endeavoured to kill me with their spears and arrows, while I was asleep, I should certainly have awaked with the first sense of smart, which might so far have roused my rage and strength, as to have enabled me to break the strings wherewith I was tied; after which, as they were not able to make resistance, so they could expect no mercy.

Chapter 71 Writing Emails

An email is a message or a letter which is distributed electronically from one computer user to one or more recipients via the Internet network.

Given below is a typical email format:

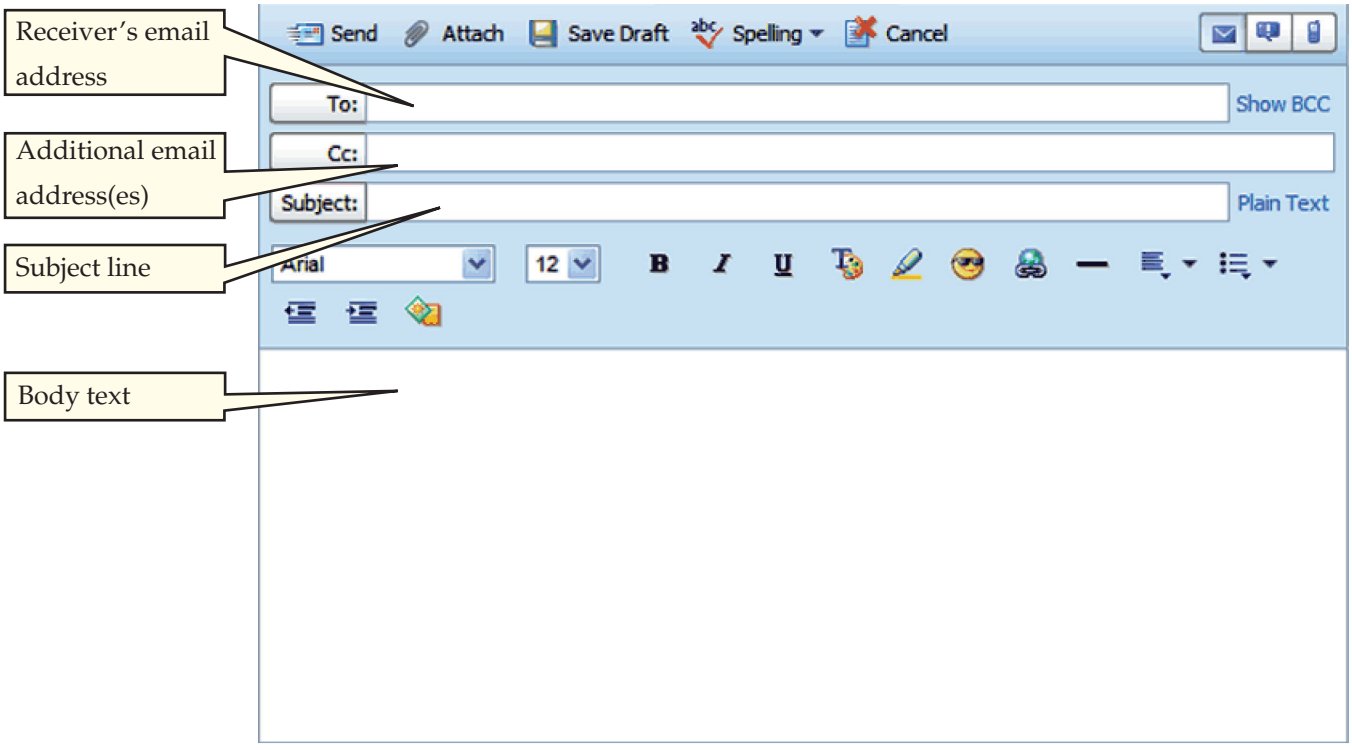

Here are some important tips for writing an email.

- The subject line should be as informative as possible to give an idea about the content of the email.
- Numbers and bullet points should be used to make the message clear.
- Simple grammar should be used.
- Sentences should be short and precise.
- Paragraphs should be used to keep an email easy to understand.

Given below is an example of an email.

Write: Some links for Primary English

File Edit View Insert Format Options Tools Help

Send | Spelling | Attach | Security | Save

From: me@my.com

To: 123@123.com

Cc: xyz@123.com

Subject: Some links for Primary English

Body Text | Variable Width

I have found the following links for Primary English.

www.primaryresources.co.uk/english/english.htm
global.oup.com/education/content/primary/series/international-english
www.petaa.edu.au
https://www.webanywhere.co.uk/education/teaching-resources/primary/english

Please visit these links and let me know which one is suitable for our project.
Looking forward to your early reply.
Regards,
Amy

Exercises

1. Write an email to your sister who is studying in Roorkee telling her about your low grades in the exams and what you aspire to do after school.
2. Write an email to your Principal's secretary asking for an appointment with the Principal regarding the Writers' Club activities during the school year.
3. Write an email to your friend to recommend a certain clothes chain store that you find exceptionally good and reasonably priced.

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English Grammar & Composition

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Large Format

Revised by
Dr N.D.V. PRASADA RAO

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by

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and

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PREFACE

Wren and Martin's monumental work **High School English Grammar and Composition** is available in two editions. One is a multicolour illustrated edition, and the other is a regular edition without illustrations.

The material in the book has been further updated wherever it has been felt necessary, particularly in the chapters dealing with adjectives, active and passive voice, articles and prepositions.

It was in the year 1972 that the revision of this book was contemplated and the publishers commissioned me to revise it thoroughly. The revised edition came out in 1973 and was very well received. One of the main features of the revised edition was the addition of a great deal of new material (such as the three chapters on structures) based on the new developments in the study of English structure and usage. Subsequently the book was revised several times and most extensively for this edition.

Unlike many traditional grammar books, this book in the present form helps the student to use the language as well as giving detailed information about the language. It provides ample guidance and practice in sentence building, correct usage, comprehension, written composition and other allied areas so as to equip the student with the ability to communicate effectively in English.

It is gratifying to learn that this classic work, though primarily intended for use in the Indian subcontinent, is also used in Sri Lanka, Maldives, Nepal, Bhutan, Indonesia, the Philippines, Myanmar, Malaysia, Singapore, Mauritius, the Middle East, African countries, etc. It is hoped that the book will be found useful in many more countries where English is used as a second or foreign language.

Dr N.D.V. Prasada Rao

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An authentic and useful solution of this book entitled. "A Key to Wren and Martin's High School English Grammar and Composition" is also available.

English Grammar

This section presents the various grammatical forms and relates them to meanings and uses. The clear explanations and examples, followed by a lot of practice material, will help you to understand the grammatical system and make correct sentences.

Can we say 'two dozens bananas'? We can't. We should say 'two dozen bananas'. **Dozen score, hundred, thousand** and **million** don't take **-s** when a number comes before them. You will find this point in chapter 7.

We normally use **any** (not **some**) in questions, e.g.

Have you bought **any** biscuits ?

But we can't say to our guests :

Would you like **any** biscuits ?

We should say :

Would you like **some** biscuits ?

We should use **some** in questions when we expect people to say 'yes', for example, in offers and requests. (Chapter 13)

Can you correct this sentence ?

Gopal usually goes to the college by bus.

We should omit **the** before **college**. We can't use **the** or **a/an** before **school, college, university, church, hospital** and **prison** when we think about the normal purpose of these places. (Chapter 14)

Read the following conversation :

'Have you decided what to do ?' - 'Yes. I will resign the job.'

The second speaker has made a mistake. The sentence should be : 'I **am going to** resign the job'. We should use **will** when we decide to do something at the time of speaking. When we have decided to do something before talking about it, we should use the **going to** form, not **will**. (Chapter 26)

The following sentence is incorrect :

It has been raining since two hours.

We should use **for**, not **since**. **Since** is used with a point of time and **for** with a period of time (Chapter 38).

And there are a lot of points like these to learn. You will find the usage points woven into the description of the grammatical system. Note that you can't master grammar by merely reading the rules and examples. You should PRACTISE. Don't neglect to do the exercises.

Book 1
Grammar

Chapter 1 THE SENTENCE

1. When we speak or write we use words. We generally use these words in groups; as,

Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.

A group of words like this, which makes *complete sense,* is called a **sentence.**

Kinds of Sentences

2. Sentences are of four kinds:

(a) Those which make *statements* or *assertions;* as,

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.

(b) Those which ask *questions;* as

Where do you live?

(c) Those which express *commands, requests,* or *entreaties;* as,

Be quiet.

Have mercy upon us.

(d) Those which express *strong feelings; as,*

How cold the night is!

What a shame!

A sentence that makes a *statement* or *assertion* is called a **declarative** or **assertive** sentence.

A sentence that asks a *question* is called an **interrogative** sentence.

A sentence that expresses a *command* or an *entreaty* is called an **imperative** sentence.

A sentence that expresses *strong* feeling is called an **exclamatory** sentence.

Chapter 2 SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

3. When we make a sentence:

(a) We name some *person* or *thing;* and

(b) *Say* something about that person or thing.

In other words, we must have a *subject* to speak about and we must *say* or *predicate* something about that subject.

Hence every sentence has *two* parts:

(a) The part which names the person or thing we are speaking about. This is called the **subject** of the sentence.

(b) The part which tells something about the subject. This is called the **predicate** of the sentence.

4. The subject of a sentence usually comes first, but occasionally it is put after the predicate; as,

Here comes the bus.

Sweet are the uses of adversity.

5. In imperative sentences the subject is left out; as,

Sit down. [Here the subject You *is understood.]*

Thank him. [Here too the subject You *is understood.]*

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 1

In the following sentences separate the subject and the predicate.

1. The cackling of geese saved Rome.
2. The boy stood on the burning deck.
3. Tubal Cain was a man of might.
4. Stone walls do not make a prison.
5. The singing of the birds delights us.
6. Miss Kitty was rude at the table one day.
7. He has a good memory.
8. Bad habits grow unconsciously.
9. The earth revolves round the sun.
10. Nature is the best physician.
11. Edison invented the phonograph.
12. The sea hath many thousand sands.
13. We cannot pump the ocean dry.
14. Borrowed garments never fit well.
15. The early bird catches the worm.
16. All matter is indestructible.
17. Islamabad is the capital of Pakistan.
18. We should profit by experience.
19. All roads lead to Rome.
20. A guilty conscience needs no excuse.
21. The beautiful rainbow soon faded away.
22. No man can serve two masters.
23. A sick room should be well aired.
24. The dewdrops glitter in the sunshine.
25. I shot an arrow into the air.
26. A barking sound the shepherd hears.
27. On the top of the hill lives a hermit.

Chapter 3 THE PHRASE AND THE CLAUSE

6. Examine the group of words "in a corner". It makes sense, but not complete sense. Such a group of words, which makes sense, but not complete sense, is called a **phrase**.

In the following sentences, the groups of words in **bold** are phrases:

The sun rises ***in the east****.*

Humpty Dumpty sat ***on a wall****.*

There came a giant ***to my door****.*

It was a sunset ***of great beauty****.*

The tops ***of the mountains*** *were covered with snow.*

Show me ***how to do it****.*

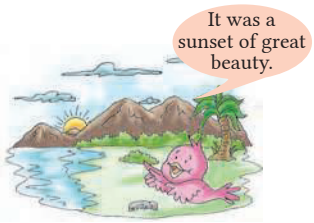

7. Examine the groups of words in bold in the following sentences:

He has a chain ***of gold****.*

He has a chain ***which is made of gold****.*

We recognize the first group of words as a phrase.

The second group of words, unlike the phrase *of gold,* contains a subject (*which*) and a predicate (*is made of gold*).

Such a group of words which forms part of a sentence, and contains a subject and a predicate, is called a **clause**.

He has a chain which is made of gold.

In the following sentences, the group of words in bold are clauses:

*People **who pay their debts** are trusted.*
*We cannot start **while it is raining**.*
*I think that you **have made a mistake**.*

Chapter 4 PARTS OF SPEECH

8. Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called **parts of speech**, *according to their use*; that is, *according to the work they do in a sentence.* The parts of speech are eight in number.

1. noun	3. pronoun	5. adverb	7. conjunction
2. adjective	4. verb	6. preposition	8. interjection

9. **A noun** is a word used as the *name* of a person, place, or thing; as,

__Akbar__ was a great __king__.
__Kolkata__ is on the banks of the river __Hooghly__.
The __rose__ smells sweet.
The __sun__ shines brightly.
His __courage__ won him __honour__.

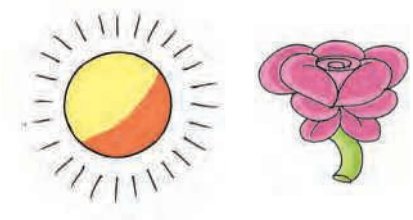

Note— The word *thing* includes (i) all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell; and (ii) something that we can th*ink* of, but cannot perceive by the senses.

10. An **adjective** is a word used to *add something* to the meaning of a noun; as,

He is a __brave__ boy. *There are __twenty__ boys in __this__ class.*

11. A **pronoun** is a word used *instead of a noun*; as,

John is absent, because __he__ is ill. *The books are where you left __them__.*

12. A **verb** is a word used to express an action, event or state; as,

The girl __wrote__ a letter to her cousin.
Kolkata __is__ a big city.
Iron and copper __are__ useful metals.

13. An **adverb** is a word used to *add something* to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

He worked the sum __quickly__.
This flower is __very__ beautiful.
She pronounced the word __quite__ correctly.

14. A **preposition** is a word used with a noun or a pronoun to show how the person or thing denoted by the noun or pronoun stands in relation to something else; as,

There is a cow __in__ the garden.
The girl is fond __of__ music.
A fair little girl sat __under__ a tree.

15. A **conjunction** is a word used to *join* words or sentences; as,

Rama __and__ Hari are cousins.
Two __and__ two make four.
I ran fast, __but__ missed the train.

16. An **interjection** is a word which expresses some sudden feeling; as,

__Hurrah__! We have won the game.
__Alas__ ! She is dead.

17. Some modern grammars include **determiners** among the parts of speech. Determiners are words like *a, an, the, this, that, these, those, every, each, some, any, my, his, one, two,* etc., which determine or limit the meaning of the nouns that follow. In this book, as in many traditional grammars, all determiners except *a*, *an* and *the* are classed among adjectives.

18. As words are divided into different classes according to the work they do in sentences, it is clear that we cannot say to which part of speech a word belongs unless we see it used in a sentence.

    *They arrived soon **after**. (Adverb)*

    *They arrived **after** us. (Preposition)*

    *They arrived **after** we had left. (Conjunction)*

    From the above examples we see that *the same word can be used as different parts of speech.*

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 2

Name the part of speech of each italicized word in the following sentences, giving in each case your reason for the classification.

1. *Still* waters run deep.
2. He *still* lives in that house.
3. *After* the storm comes the calm.
4. The *after* effects of the drug are bad.
5. The *up* train is late.
6. It weighs *about* a pound.
7. He told us all *about* the battle.
8. He was only a yard *off* me.
9. Suddenly one of the wheels came *off.*
10. Muslims *fast* in the month of Ramzan.
11. He kept the *fast* for a week.
12. He is *on* the committee.
13. Let us move *on*.
14. Sit down and rest a *while.*
15. I will watch *while* you sleep.
16. They *while* away their evenings with books and games.

Chapter 5 THE NOUN: KINDS OF NOUNS

19. A noun is a word used as the *name* of a person, place, or thing.

Note—The word *thing* is used to mean anything that we can think of.

20. Look at the following sentence.

    ***Asoka** was a wise **king**.*

    The noun *Asoka* refers to a *particular* king, but the noun *king* might be applied to any other king as well as to Asoka. We call *Asoka* a **Proper Noun**, and *king* a **Common Noun.**

    Similarly,

    ***Sita** is a Proper Noun, while **girl** is a Common Noun.*

    ***Hari** is a Proper Noun, while **boy** is a Common Noun.*

    ***Kolkata** is a Proper Noun, while **city** is a Common Noun.*

    ***India** is a Proper Noun, while **country** is a Common Noun.*

The word *girl* is a Common Noun, because it is a name *common* to all girls, while *Sita* is a Proper Noun because it is the name of a *particular* girl.

Def.—A **Common Noun** is a name *given in common* to every person or thing *of the same class* or *kind.*

[Common here means shared by all.]

Def.—A **Proper Noun** is the name of some *particular* person or place.

[*Proper* means *one's own.* Hence a Proper Name is a person's *own* name.]

Note 1—Proper nouns are always written with a capital letter at the beginning.

Note 2—Proper nouns are sometimes used as common nouns; as,

1. He was the *Lukman* (= the wisest man) of his age.
2. Kalidas is often called the *Shakespeare* (= the greatest dramatist) of India.

Common Nouns include what are called Collective Nouns and Abstract Nouns.

21. A **collective noun** is the name of a number (or *collection)* of persons or things taken together and spoken of as *one whole;* as,

crowd, mob, team, flock, herd, army, fleet, jury, family, nation, parliament, committee.
a fleet = a collection of ships or vessels.
an army = a collection of soldiers.
a crowd = a collection of people.
The police dispersed the ***crowd****.*
The French ***army*** *was defeated at Waterloo.*
The ***jury*** *found the prisoner guilty.*
A ***herd*** *of cattle is passing.*

22. An **Abstract Noun** is usually the name of a *quality, action, or state* considered apart from the object to which it belongs; as,

quality *— goodness, kindness, whiteness, darkness, hardness, brightness, honesty, wisdom, bravery.*

action *— laughter, theft, movement, judgement, hatred.*

state *— childhood, boyhood, youth, slavery, sleep, sickness, death, poverty.*

The names of the Arts and Sciences (*e.g.*, grammar, music, chemistry, etc.) are also Abstract Nouns.

[We can speak of a *brave* soldier, a *strong* man, a *beautiful* flower. But we can also think of these *qualities* apart from any particular person or thing, and speak of *bravery, strength, beauty* by themselves. So also we can speak of what persons do or feel apart from the persons themselves, and give it a name. The word *abstract* means *drawn off.*]

23. Abstract Nouns are formed—

(1) from Adjectives; as,
kindness from kind; honesty from honest.
[Most abstract nouns are formed thus.]

(2) from Verbs; as,
obedience from obey; growth from grow.

(3) from Common Nouns; as,
childhood from child; slavery from slave.

24. Another classification of nouns is whether they are "countable" or "uncountable".

Countable nouns (or **countables**) are the names of objects, people, etc. that we can count, *e.g.*, book, pen, apple, boy, sister, doctor, horse.

Uncountable nouns (or **uncountables**) are the names of things that we cannot count, *e.g.*, milk, oil, sugar, gold, honesty. They mainly denote substances and abstract things.

Countable nouns have plural forms while uncountable nouns do not. For example, we say "books" but we cannot say "milks".

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 3

Point out the Nouns in the following sentences, and say whether they are common, proper, collective or abstract.

1. The crowd was very big.
2. Always speak the truth.
3. We all love honesty.
4. Our class consists of twenty pupils.
5. The elephant has great strength.
6. Solomon was famous for his wisdom.
7. Cleanliness is next to godliness.
8. We saw a fleet of ships in the harbour.
9. The class is studying grammar.
10. The Godavari overflows its banks every year.
11. A committee of five was appointed.
12. Jawaharlal Nehru was the first Prime Minister of India.
13. The soldiers were rewarded for their bravery.
14. Without health there is no happiness.
15. He gave me a bunch of grapes.
16. I recognized your voice at once.
17. Our team is better than theirs.
18. Never tell a lie.
19. Wisdom is better than strength.
20. He sets a high value on his time.
21. I believe in his innocence.
22. This room is thirty feet in length.
23. I often think of the happy days of childhood.
24. The streets of some of our cities are noted for their crookedness.
25. What is your verdict, gentlemen of the jury ?

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 4

Write the collective nouns used to describe a number of

(1) cattle; (2) soldiers; (3) sailors.

Write the qualities that belong to boys who are

(1) lazy; (2) cruel; (3) brave; (4) foolish.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 5

Form Abstract Nouns from the following Adjectives.

long	strong	wide	broad	high	young
true	wise	free	poor	humble	short
good	proud	just	decent	prudent	vacant
brave	vain	cruel	dark	sweet	novel
sane	bitter	deep	human	quick	ignorant

Form Abstract Nouns from the following Verbs.

laugh	believe	choose	defend	free	obey
serve	move	think	see	live	hate
conceal	protect	judge	expect	please	seize
advise	pursue	excel	act	flatter	punish
relieve	now	starve	depart	die	converse
steal	occupy	persevere	succeed	discover	

Form Abstract Nouns from the following Common Nouns.

king	infant	mother	priest	friend	man
owner	agent	boy	captain	thief	rogue
hero	bond	rascal	woman	regent	beggar
pirate	patriot	bankrupt	author	coward	pilgrim
glutton					

Chapter 6 THE NOUN: GENDER

25. You know that living beings are of either the *male* or the *female* sex. Now compare the words in the following pairs.

boy	*lion*	*hero*	*cock-sparrow*
girl	*lioness*	*heroine*	*hen-sparrow*

lion

What do you notice ?

The first word of each pair is the name of a *male* animal.

The second word of each pair is the name of a *female* animal.

A noun that denotes a *male* animal is said to be of the **Masculine Gender.** [*Gender* comes from Latin *genus,* kind or sort.]

A noun that denotes a *female* animal is said to be of the **Feminine Gender.**

male female

26. A noun that denotes *either a male or a female* is said to be of the **Common Gender**; as
parent, child, friend, pupil, servant, thief, relation, enemy, cousin,
person, orphan, student, baby, monarch, neighbour, infant.

27. A noun that denotes a thing that is *neither male nor female (i.e.,* **thing *without life*** *)* is said to be of the **Neuter Gender**; as,
book, pen, room, tree.
*[**Neuter** means **neither**, that is, neither male nor female.]*

It will be thus seen that in modern English the gender of a noun is entirely a matter of sex or the absence of sex. It has nothing to do with the *form* of a noun, which determines its gender in many other languages, *e.g.*, in Urdu where *bagiche* is masculine and *lakri* is feminine.

28. Objects without life are often **personified,** that is, spoken of as if they were living beings. We then regard them as males or females.

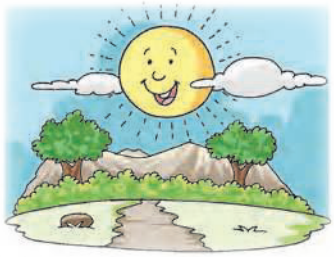

The Masculine Gender is often applied to objects remarkable for strength and violence ; as,
The Sun, Summer, Winter, Time, Death,
*The **sun** sheds **his** beams on rich and poor alike.*

The Feminine Gender is sometimes applied to objects remarkable for beauty, gentleness, and gracefulness ; as,
The Moon, the Earth, Spring, Autumn, Nature, Liberty,
Justice, Mercy, Peace, Hope, Charity.
*The **moon** has hidden **her** face behind a cloud.*
***Spring** has spread **her** mantle of green over the earth.*
***Peace** hath **her** victories no less renowned than war.*

This use is most common in poetry but certain nouns are personified in prose too. A ship is often spoken of as *she* ; as,
*The ship lost all **her** boats in the storm.*

Ways of Forming the Feminine of Nouns

29. There are three ways of forming the Feminine of Nouns:-

(1) *By using an entirely different word ;* as

Masculine	*Feminine*
Bachelor	maid (old use)
	spinster
Boy	girl
Brother	sister
Buck	doe
Bull (or ox)	cow
Bullock	heifer
Cock	hen
Colt	filly
Dog	bitch
Drake	duck
Drone	bee
Earl	countess
Father	mother
Gander	goose
Gentleman	lady

Masculine	*Feminine*
Hart	roe
Horse	mare
Husband	wife
King	queen
Lord	lady
Man	woman
Monk (or friar)	nun
Nephew	niece
Papa	mamma
Ram	ewe
Sir	madam
Son	daughter
Stag	hind
Uncle	aunt
Wizard	witch

(2) By adding a syllable (-ess, -ine, -trix, -a, etc.) as,

Masculine	*Feminine*
Author	authoress
Baron	baroness
Count	countess
Giant	giantess
Heir	heiress
Host	hostess
Jew	Jewess
Lion	lioness
Manager	manageress

Masculine	*Feminine*
Mayor	mayoress
Patron	patroness
Peer	peeress
Poet	poetess
Priest	priestess
Prophet	prophetess
Shepherd	shepherdess
Steward	stewardess
Viscount	viscountess

Note— In the following *-ess* is added after *dropping* the vowel of the masculine ending.

Masculine	*Feminine*
Actor	actress
Benefactor	benefactress
Conductor	conductress
Enchanter	enchantress
Founder	foundress
Hunter	huntress
Instructor	instructress
Negro	negress
Abbot	abbess
Duke	duchess
Emperor	empress

Masculine	*Feminine*
Preceptor	preceptress
Prince	princess
Songster	songstress
Tempter	temptress
Seamster	seamstress
Tiger	tigress
Traitor	traitress
Waiter	waitress
Master	mistress
Murderer	murderess
Sorcerer	sorceress

Note — The suffix *-ess* is the commonest suffix used to form feminine nouns, from the masculine, and is the only one which we now use in forming a new feminine noun.

Masculine	*Feminine*
Hero	heroine
Testator	testatrix
Czar	czarina

Masculine	*Feminine*
Sultan	sultana
Signor	signora
Fox	vixen

(3) By placing a word before or after; as,

Masculine	*Feminine*
Grandfather	grandmother
Greatuncle	greataunt
Manservant	maidservant
Landlord	landlady

Masculine	*Feminine*
Milkman	milkwoman
Peacock	peahen
Salesman	saleswoman
Washerman	washerwoman

Chapter 7 THE NOUN: NUMBER

30. Notice the change of form in the second word of each pair.

tree	box	ox	man
trees	boxes	oxen	men

The first word of each pair denotes *one* thing, the second word of each pair denotes *more than one.*

A Noun that denotes *one* person or thing, is said to be in the **Singular Number**; as,
boy, girl, cow, bird, tree, book, pen.

A Noun that denotes *more than one person* or thing, is said to be in the Plural Number ; as,
boys, girls, cows, birds, trees, books, pens.

Thus there are *two* numbers in English—the Singular and the Plural.

How Plurals are Formed

31. *(i)* The Plural of nouns is generally formed *by adding -s to the singular* ; as,

boy, boys ; girl, girls ; book, books ;
pen, pens ; desk, desks ; cow, cows.

(ii) But Nouns ending in *-s, -sh, -ch* (soft), or -x form the plural by adding *-es* to the singular ; as,

class, classes; kiss, kisses; dish, dishes;
brush, brushes; match, matches; watch, watches;
branch, branches; tax, taxes; box, boxes.

(iii) Most Nouns ending in *-o* also form the plural *by adding -es to the singular* ; as,

buffalo, buffaloes; mango, mangoes; hero, heroes;
potato, potatoes; cargo, cargoes, echo, echoes;
negro, negroes; volcano, volcanoes.

ladies

(iv) A few nouns ending in *-o* merely add *-s*, ; as,

dynamo, dynamos ; solo, solos ; ratio, ratios ;
canto, cantos ; memento, mementos ; quarto, quartos ;
piano, pianos ; photo, photos ; stereo, stereos.
kilo, kilos ; logo, logos ; commando, commandos

(v) Nouns ending in *-y*, preceded by a *consonant*, form their plural *by changing -y into -i and adding -es* ; as,

baby, babies ; lady, ladies ; city, cities ;
army, armies ; story, stories ; pony, ponies.

(*vi*) The following nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe* form their plural *by changing -f or -fe into v and adding -es ;* as,

thief, thieves ;	wife, wives ;	wolf, wolves ;
life, lives ;	calf, calves ;	leaf, leaves ;
loaf, loaves ;	knife, knives ;	shelf, shelves.
half, halves ;	elf, elves ;	self, selves
sheaf, sheaves		

The nouns *dwarf, hoof, scarf* and *wharf* take either *-s* or *-ves* in the plural.

dwarfs or dwarves ;	hoofs or hooves ;	scarfs or scarves ;
wharfs or wharves		

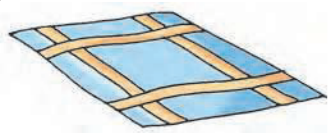
handkerchief

Other words ending in *-f* or *-fe* add *-s*; as,

chief, chiefs ;	safe, safes ;	proof, proofs
gulf, gulfs ;	cliff, cliffs ;	handkerchief, handkerchiefs

32. A few nouns form their plural *by changing the inside vowel of the singular ;* as,

man, men ;	woman, women;	foot, feet ;	tooth, teeth ;
goose, geese ;	mouse, mice ;	louse, lice.	

33. There are a few nouns that form their plural *by adding -en* to the singular ; as,
ox, oxen; child, children.

The plural of *fish* is *fish* or *fishes*. In currrent English fish is the usual plural. *Fishes* can be used to refer to different kinds of fish.

34. Some nouns have the singular and the plural *alike ;* as,
swine, sheep, deer ; cod, trout, salmon; aircraft, spacecraft, series, species.
pair, dozen, score, gross, hundred, thousand (when used after numerals).
I bought three dozen oranges.
Some people reach the age of three score and ten.
The sari cost me five thousand rupees.
stone, hundredweight.
He weighs above nine stone.
Twenty hundredweight make one ton.

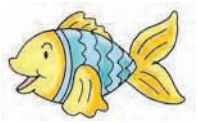
fish

35. Some nouns are used only in the plural.
(1) Names of instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair; as,
bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, spectacles.
(2) Names of certain articles of dress ; as,
trousers, drawers, breeches, jeans, tights, shorts, pyjamas.
(3) Certain other nouns ; as,
Annals, thanks, proceeds (of a sale), tidings, environs, nuptials, obsequies, assets, chattels.

trouser

36. Some nouns originally singular are now generally used in the plural ; as,
Alms, riches, eaves.
***Riches** do many things.*

37. The following nouns look plural but are in fact singular:
(1) Names of subjects
mathematics, physics, electronics, etc.
(2) The word *news*
(3) Names of some common diseases
measles, mumps, rickets
(4) Names of some games
billiards, draughts

spectacles

*Mathematics **is** his favourite study.*
*No news **is** good news.*
*India won by **an** innings and three runs.*
*Measles **is** infectious.*
*Billiards **is** my favourite game.*

'Means' is used either as singular or plural. But when it has the meaning of 'wealth' it is always plural ; as,

*He succeeded by **this** means (or, by **these** means) in passing the examination.*
*His means **are** small, but he has incurred no debt.*

38. Certain Collective Nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals ; as,

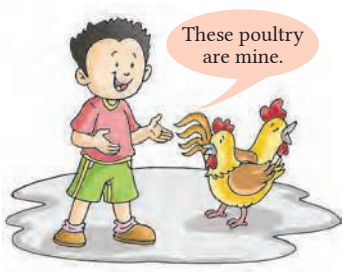

poultry, cattle, vermin, people, gentry.
*These **poultry** **are** mine.*
*Whose **are** these **cattle** ?*
***Vermin** destroy our property and carry disease.*
*Who **are** those **people** (= persons) ?*
*There **are** few **gentry** in this town.*

Note—As a Common Noun 'people' means a 'nation' and is used in both singular and plural ; as,

1. The Japanese are a hard-working *people.*
2. *There are many different peoples in Europe.*

39. A Compound Noun generally forms its plural *by adding -s to the principal word ;* as,

Singular	*Plural*
Commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
Coat-of-mail	coats-of-mail
Son-in-law	sons-in-law
Daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law
Step son	step sons
Step daughter	step daughters
Maid servant	maid servants
	(but man servant, plural men servants)
Passer-by	passers-by
Looker-on	lookers-on
Man-of-war	men-of-war

We say *spoonfuls* and *handfuls,* because *spoonful* and *handful* are regarded as one word.

Note that the Proper Nouns *Brahman* and *Mussulman* are not compounds of *man*; therefore their plurals are *Brahmans* and *Mussulmans.*

40. Many nouns taken from foreign languages keep their original plural form ; as,

From Latin—

erratum, errata ; *formula, formulae (or formulas) :*
index, indices ; *memorandum, memoranda ;*
radius, radii ; *terminus, termini (or terminuses)*

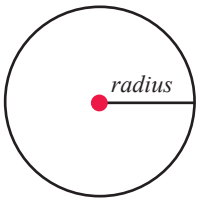

From Greek—

axis, axes ; *parenthesis, parentheses ;*
crisis, crises ; *hypothesis, hypotheses ;*
basis, bases ; *phenomenon, phenomena ;*

analysis, analyses; *criterion, criteria*

From Italian—

Bandit, banditti, (or bandits)

From French—

Madame (madam), mesdames; monsieur, messieurs

From Hebrew—

Cherub, cherubim (or cherubs); seraph, seraphim (or seraphs).

41. Some nouns have two forms for the plural, each with a somewhat different meaning.

Singular	***Plural***
Brother	brothers, sons of the same parent.
	brethren, members of a society or a community.
Cloth	cloths, kinds or pieces of cloth.
	clothes, garments.
Die	dies, stamps for coining.
	dice, small cubes used in games.
Index	indexes, tables of contents to books indices, signs used in algebra.
Penny	pennies, number of coins.
	pence, amount in value.

brothers

42. Some nouns have two meanings in the singular but only one in the plural.

	Singular	***Plural***	
Light :	(1) *radiance* ;	Lights :	*lamps.*
	(2) *a lamp.*		
People :	(1) *nation* ;	Peoples :	*nations.*
	(2) *men and women.*		
Powder :	(1) *dust* ;	Powders :	*doses of medicine.*
	(2) *a dose of medicine in fine grains like dust.*		
Practice :	(1) *habit* ;	Practices :	*habits.*
	(2) *exercise of a profession.*		

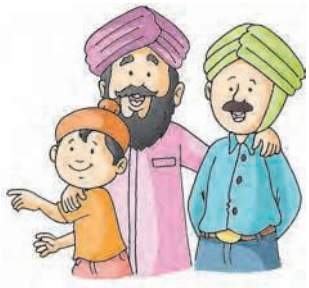

brethren

43. Some nouns have one meaning in the singular, two in the plural.

	Singular		***Plural***	
Colour :	*hue.*	Colours :	(1)	*hues* ;
			(2)	*the flag of a regiment.*
Custom :	*habit.*	Customs :	(1)	*habits* ;
			(2)	*duties levied on imports.*
Effect :	*result.*	Effects :	(1)	*results* ;
			(2)	*property.*
Manner :	*method.*	Manners:	(1)	*methods* ;
			(2)	*correct behaviour.*
Moral :	*a moral lesson.*	Morals :	(1)	*moral lessons* ;
			(2)	*conduct*
Number :	*a quantity.*	Numbers :	(1)	*quantities* ;
			(2)	*verses.*
Pain :	*suffering.*	Pains :	(1)	*sufferings.*

eye glasses

			(2) *care, exertion.*
Premise :	*proposition*	Premises :	(1) *propositions* ;
			(2) *buildings.*
Quarter :	*fourth part.*	Quarters :	(1) *fourth parts* ;
			(2) *lodgings.*
Spectacle :	*a sight.*	Spectacles :	(1) *sights* ;
			(2) *eye-glasses.*
Letter :	(1) *letter of the alphabet* ;	Letters :	(1) *letters of the alphabet* ;
	(2) *epistle.*		(2) *epistles* ;
			(3) *literature.*
Ground :	(1) *earth* ;	Grounds :	(1) *enclosed land attached to house.*
	(2) *reason.*		(2) *reasons* ;
			(3) *dregs.*

44. Some nouns have different meanings in the singular and the plural.

Singular	***Plural***
Air : atmosphere.	Airs : affected manners.
Good : benefit, well-being.	Goods : merchandise.
Compass : extent, range.	Compasses : an instrument for drawing circles.
Respect : regard.	Respects : compliments.
Physic : medicine.	Physics : natural science.
Iron : a kind of metal.	Irons : fetters.
Force : strength.	Forces : troops.

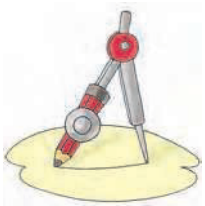
compass

45. Letters, figures and other symbols are made plural by adding an apostrophe and *s*; as,
There are more e's than a's in this page.
Dot your i's and cross your t's.
Add two 5's and four 2's.

tin

46. It is usual to say —
The Miss Smiths. (Singular, Miss Smith.)

47. Abstract Nouns have no plural. They are uncountables.
hope, charity, love, kindness.
When such words do appear in the plural, they are used as countables; as
Provocations = instances or cases of provocation.
Kindnesses = acts of kindness.
Names of substances are also uncountables and are not therefore used in the plural.
Copper, iron, tin, wood.
When such words are used in the plural, they become countables with changed meanings ; as,
Coppers = copper coins ; irons = fetters ;
tins = cans made of tin ; woods = forests.

Chapter 8 THE NOUN: CASE

48. Examine these sentences:
1. John threw a stone.
2. The horse kicked the boy.
In sentence 1, the noun *John* is the Subject. It is the answer

to the question, "Who threw a stone ?"

The group of words *threw a stone* is the Predicate.

The Predicate contains the verb *threw.*

What did John *throw*?—*A stone. Stone* is the object which John threw. The noun *stone* is therefore called the **Object**.

In sentence 2, the noun *horse* is the Subject. It is the answer to the question, "Who kicked the boy ?"

The noun *boy* is the Object. It is the answer to the question, "Whom did the horse kick ?"

49. When a noun (or pronoun) is used as the Subject of a verb, it is said to be in the **Nominative Case.**

When a noun (or pronoun) is used as the Object of a verb, it is said to be in the **Objective** (or **Accusative) Case.**

Note—To find the Nominative, put Who ? or What ? before the verb.

To find the Accusative, put *Whom* ? or *What* ? before the verb and its subject.

50. A noun which comes after a preposition is also said to be in the Accusative Case ; as,
The book is on the desk.

The noun *desk* is in the Accusative Case, governed by the preposition *on.*

The book is on the desk.

51. Read the following sentences :
Hari broke the window. (Object)
The window was broken. (Subject)

It will be seen that Nouns in English have the *same form* for the Nominative and the Accusative.

The Nominative generally comes *before* the verb, and the Accusative *after* the verb. Hence they are distinguished by the *order* of words, or by the sense.

52. Compare—
1. Rama gave a ball.
2. Rama gave Hari a ball.

In each of these sentences the noun *ball* is the Object of *gave.*

In the second sentence we are told that *Hari* was the person *to whom* Rama gave a ball.

The noun *Hari* is called the **Indirect Object** of the verb *gave.*

The noun *ball,* the ordinary Object, is called the **Direct Object.**

It will be noticed that the position of the Indirect Object is immediately after the verb and before the Direct Object.

Note—

Rama gave Hari a ball. = Rama gave a ball to Hari.
Will you do me a favour ? = Will you do a favour to me ?
I bought Rama a ball. = I bought a ball for Rama.
Fetch the boy a book. = Fetch a book for the boy.
She made Ruth a new dress. = She made a new dress for Ruth.
Get me a taxi. = Get a taxi for me.

We see that the Indirect Object of a verb denotes the person *to whom* something is given, or *for whom* something is done.

53. Examine the sentence :

This is Rama's umbrella.

Rama's umbrella = the umbrella *belonging to* Rama.
The *form* of the noun *Rama* is changed to *Rama's* to show ownership or *possession.* The Noun *Rama's* is therefore said to be in the **Possessive** (or **Genitive**) **Case**.

The Possessive answers the question, 'Whose ?'

Whose umbrella ? — Rama's.

Ram's umbrella

54. The Possessive Case does not always denote possession. It is used to denote authorship, origin, kind, etc. as,

Shakespeare's plays	=	*the plays written by Shakespeare*
A mother's love	=	*the love felt by a mother*
The President's speech	=	*the speech delivered by the President*
Mr Aggarwal's house	=	*the house where Mr. Aggarwal lives*
Ashok's school	=	*the school where Ashok goes*
A children's playground	=	*a playground for children*
A week's holiday	=	*a holiday which lasts a week*

Formation of the Possessive Case

55. (1) When the noun is Singular, the Possessive Case is formed by adding *'s* to the noun ; as,

The *boy's* book ; the *king's* crown.

Note—The letter s is omitted in a few words where too many hissing sounds would come together ; as,

For conscience' sake ; for goodness' sake ;
For justice' sake ; for Jesus' sake ; Moses' laws.

(2) When the noun is Plural, and ends in *s,* the Possessive Case is formed by adding only an apostrophe ; as,

Boys' school ; girls' school ; horses' tails.

(3) When the noun is Plural but does not end in *s,* the Possessive sign is formed by adding *'s;* as,

Men's club ; children's books.

56. When a noun or a title consists of several words, the Possessive sign is attached only to the last word; as,

The King of Bhutan's visit.

The Prime Minister of Mauritius's speech.

57. When two nouns are in apposition, the possessive sign is put to the latter only ; as,

That is Tagore the poet's house.

58. Also when two nouns are closely connected, the possessive is put to the latter ; as,

Karim and Salim's bakery.

William and Mary's reign.

59. Each of two or more connected nouns implying *separate* possession must take the possessive sign ; as,

Raja Rao's and R.K. Narayan's novels.

Goldsmith's and Cowper's poems.

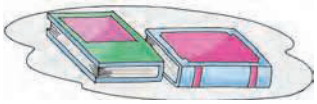
Narayan's and Rao's novels

Use of the Possessive Case

60. The Possessive Case is now used chiefly with the names of *living things ;* as,

The Governor's bodyguard ; the lion's mane.

So we must say :

The leg of the table [not, the table's leg].

The cover of the book [not, the book's cover].

house's roof

The roof of the house [not, the house's roof].

61. But the Possessive is used with the names of *personified** *objects;* as,
India's heroes ; Nature's laws ; Fortune's favourite ; at duty's call ; at death's door.

62. The Possessive is also used with nouns denoting time, space, or weight ; as,
A day's march ; a week's holiday ; in a year's time ; a stone's throw ; a foot's length ; a pound's weight.

63. The following phrases are also in common use :
At his fingers' ends ; for mercy's sake ; to his heart's content ; at his wit's end ; a boat's crew.

64. The possessive of a proper name or of a noun denoting a trade, profession, or relationship may be used to denote a building or place of business (church, house, school, college, shop, hospital, theatre, etc.); as,
She has gone to the baker's (= baker's shop).
Tonight I am dining at my uncle's (= uncle's house).
Can you tell me the way to St .Paul's (= St. Paul's church)?
I attend the Town High School but my cousin attends St. Xavier's.
He was educated at St. Joseph's.

65. When you are in doubt whether to use a noun in the possessive case or with the preposition *of*, remember that, as a general rule, the possessive case is used to denote possession or ownership. Thus it is better to say 'the defeat of the enemy' than 'the enemy's defeat', even though no doubt as to the meaning would arise.

Sometimes, however, a noun in the possessive case has a different meaning from a noun used with the preposition *of;* as,
'The Prime Minister's reception in Delhi' means a reception held by the Prime Minister in Delhi.
'The reception of the Prime Minister in Delhi' means the manner in which the people welcomed him when he entered Delhi.
The phrase 'the love of a father' may mean either 'a father's love of his child' or 'a child's love of his father'.

a child's love of his father

Nouns in Apposition

66. Read the following sentence.
Rama, our captain, made fifty runs.

We see that *Rama* and our *captain* are one and the same person. The noun *captain* follows the noun *Rama* simply to explain which *Rama* is referred to.

When one noun follows another to describe it, the noun which follows is said to be **in apposition** to the noun which comes before it.

[*Apposition* means *placing near.*]

A noun in apposition is in the *same* case as the noun which it explains.

In the above sentence the noun *captain* is in apposition to the noun *Rama,* and is in the Nominative Case (because *Rama* is in the Nominative Case).

Further examples:
1. *Kabir, the great reformer, was a weaver.*
2. *Yesterday I met your uncle, the doctor.*
3. *Have you seen Ganguli, the artist's drawings ?*

In sentence 1, the noun in apposition is in the Nominative Case.
In sentence 2, the noun in apposition is in the Accusative Case. [Why?]
In sentence 3, the noun in apposition is in the Genitive Case. [Why?]

* When an inanimate thing has ascribed to it the attributes of a person, it is said to be personified. (See § 28).

Chapter 9 THE ADJECTIVE

67. Read the following sentences :

1. Sita is a *clever* girl. (Girl of *what kind* ?)
2. I don't like *that* boy. (*Which* boy ?)
3. He gave me *five* mangoes. (*How many* mangoes ?)
4. There is *little* time for preparation. (*How much* time ?)

In sentence 1, 'clever' shows *what kind* of girl Sita is ; or, in other words, 'clever' *describes* the girl Sita.

In sentence 2, 'that' *points out* which boy is meant.

In sentence 3, 'five' shows *how many* mangoes he gave me.

In sentence 4, 'little' shows *how much* time there is for preparation.

A word used with a noun to *describe* or *point out*, the person, animal, place or thing which the noun names, or to tell the *number* or *quantity*, is called an **Adjective**.

So we may define an Adjective as a word used with a noun to *add something for its meaning*.

[*Adjective* means *added to*.]

68. Look at the following sentences:

1. The *lazy* boy was punished.
2. The boy is *lazy*.

In sentence 1, the Adjective *lazy* is used along with the noun *boy* as an *epithet* or *attribute*. It is, therefore, said to be used **Attributively.**

In sentence 2, the Adjective *lazy* is used along with the verb *is*, and forms part of the Predicate. It is, therefore, said to be used **Predicatively.**

Some Adjectives can be used only Predicatively ; as,

She is *afraid* of ghosts.

I am quite *well*.

Kinds of Adjectives

Adjectives may be divided into the following classes :

69. **Adjectives of Quality (**or **Descriptive Adjective)** show the *kind* or *quality* of a person or thing ; as,

Kolkata is a *large* city.

He is an *honest* man.

The *foolish old* crow tried to sing.

This is a Grammar of the *English** language.

[*Adjectives formed from Proper Nouns (*e.g.*, *French* wines, *Turkish* tobacco, *Indian* tea, etc.) are sometimes called **Proper Adjectives.** They are generally classed with Adjectives of Quality.]

Adjectives of Quality answer the question : *Of what kind ?*

70. **Adjectives of Quantity** show *how much* of a thing is meant; as,

I ate *some* rice.

He showed *much* patience.

He has *little* intelligence.

We have had *enough* exercise.

He has lost *all* his wealth.
You have *no* sense.
He did not eat *any* rice.
Take *great* care of your health.
He claimed his *half* share of the booty.
There has not been *sufficient* rain this year.
The *whole* sum was expended.

Adjectives of Quantity answer the question : *How much* ?

71. **Adjectives of Number (**or **Numeral Adjectives)** show *how many* persons or things are meant, or *in what order* a person or thing stands ; as,

The hand has *five* fingers.
Few cats like cold water.
There are *no* pictures in this book.
I have taught you *many* things.
All men must die.
Here are *some* ripe mangoes.
Most boys like cricket.
There are *several* mistakes in your exercise.
Sunday is the *first* day of the week.

Adjectives of Number answer the question : *How many* ?

72. Adjectives of Number (or Numeral Adjectives) are of three kinds.

(i) **Definite Numeral Adjectives,** which denote an *exact* number ; as,
One, two, three, etc. These are called **Cardinals.**
First, second, third, etc. These are called **Ordinals.**

[A Cardinal denotes *how many,* and an Ordinal the *order* of things in a series. It will be seen that Ordinals really do the work of Demonstrative Adjectives. See 74]

(ii) **Indefinite Numeral Adjectives,** which do *not* denote an exact number ; as,
All, no; many, few; some, any; certain, several, sundry.

(iii) **Distributive Numeral Adjectives,** which refer to each one of a number; as.,
Each boy must take his turn.
India expects *every* man to do his duty.
Every word of it is false.
Either pen will do.
On *either* side is a narrow lane.
Neither accusation is true.

73. The same Adjective may be classed as of Quantity or Number, according to its use.

Adjectives of Quantity	*Adjectives of Number*
I ate *some* rice.	*Some* boys are clever.
He has lost *all* his wealth.	All men must die.
You have *no* sense.	There are *no* pictures in this book.
He did not eat *any* rice.	Are there *any* mango-trees in this garden ?
I have *enough* sugar.	There are not *enough* spoons.

74. **Demonstrative Adjectives** *point out* which person or thing is meant ; as,
This boy is stronger than Hari.

That boy is industrious.
These mangoes are sour.
Those rascals must be punished.
Yonder fort once belonged to Shivaji.
Don't be in *such* a hurry.
I hate *such* things.

industrious

Demonstrative Adjectives answer the question : *Which* ?

[It will be noticed that *this* and *that* are used with Singular nouns and *these* and *those* with Plural nouns.]

75. *What, which* and *whose*, when they are used with nouns to ask questions, are called **Interrogative Adjectives**; as,
What manner of man is he ?
Which way shall we go ?
Whose book is this ?

[It will be seen that *what* is used in a general sense, and *which* in a selective sense.]

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 6

Pick out all the Adjectives in the following sentences, and say to which class each of them belongs.

1. The ship sustained heavy damage.
2. I have called several times.
3. Every dog has his day.
4. A live ass is better than a dead lion.
5. Every man has his duties.
6. Say the same thing twice over.
7. Several persons were present at the time.
8. He is a man of few words.
9. Neither party is quite in the right.
10. What time is it ?
11. Which pen do you prefer ?
12. The way was long, the wind was cold, the minstrel was infirm and old.
13. He comes here every day.
14. I have not seen him for several days.
15. There should not be much talk and little work.
16. Abdul won the second prize.
17. The child fell down from the great height.
18. He was absent last week.
19. He died a glorious death.
20. A small leak may sink a great ship.
21. Good wine needs no bush.
22. I like the little pedlar who has a crooked nose.
23. King Francis was a hearty King, and loved a royal sport.
24. In the furrowed land the toilsome and patient oxen stand.
25. My uncle lives in the next house.
26. Some dreams are like reality.
27. A cross child is not liked.
28. It is an ill wind that blows nobody any good.

76. In the following sentences, the words *own* and *very* are used as **Emphasizing Adjectives.**
I saw it with my *own* eyes.
He was beaten at his *own* game.
Mind your *own* business.
He is his *own* master.
That is the *very* thing we want.
"When all else left my cause,
My *very* adversary took my part".

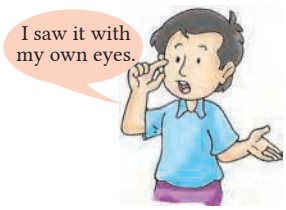

77. The word *what* is sometimes used as an **Exclamatory Adjective;** as,
What genius !
What folly !
What an idea !
What a blessing !
What a piece of work is man !

What genius!

78. As already pointed out (§ 74), *this* and *that* are the only Adjectives which are inflected or changed in form to show number.

This girl sings. *These* girls sing.
That boy plays. *Those* boys play.

This, these indicate something near to the speaker.

That, those indicate more distant objects.

Formation of Adjectives

79. *(i)* Many Adjectives are formed from Nouns.

Noun	*Adjective*
Boy	boyish
Fool	foolish
Care	careful
Play	playful
Hope	hopeful
Venture	venturesome
Trouble	troublesome
Shame	shameless
Sense	senseless
Silk	silken
Gold	golden

Noun	*Adjective*
Dirt	dirty
Storm	stormy
Pardon	pardonable
Laugh	laughable
Outrage	outrageous
Courage	courageous
Glory	glorious
Envy	envious
Man	manly
King	kingly
Gift	gifted

(ii) Some Adjectives are formed from Verbs.

Verb	*Adjective*
Tire	tireless
Talk	talkative

Verb	*Adjective*
Cease	ceaseless
Move	moveable

(iii) Some Adjectives are formed from other Adjectives.

Adjective	*Adjective*
Tragic	tragical
Whole	wholesome
Three	threefold

Adjective	*Adjective*
Black	blackish
White	whitish
Sick	sickly

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 7

Supply suitable Adjectives.

1. The town stood a____siege.
2. The____prize was won by a Hindu.
3. The____woman lives in a wretched hut.
4. This is a very____matter.
5. The battle of Waterloo ended in a____victory.
6. Suddenly there arose a____storm.
7. It is a____lie.
8. The____tidings were a heavy blow to the old man.
9. Here is Rs. 50 : pay the fare and keep the____money.
10. His reading is of a very____range.
11. The injured man wants____advice.
12. You cannot have it____ways.
13. India expects____man to do his duty.
14. The____bird catches the worm.
15. Have you any____reason to give ?
16. ____anxiety has undermined his health.
17. There were riots in____places.
18. An____man will not reason calmly.
19. He stands____feet in his stockings.
20. Nelson won for himself____fame.
21. I have no____cash.
22. He always walks with a____step.
23. ____errors are not easily corrected.
24. Every cloud has a____lining.
25. He was a man of____ambition.
26. He was listened to in____silence.

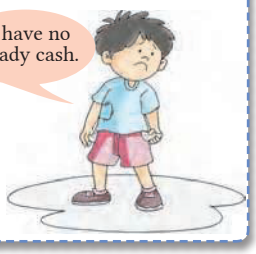

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 8

Form Adjectives from the following Nouns.

[Attach each Adjective to a suitable noun.]

ease, pity, time, heaven, health, wealth, love, hill, need, green, room, cost, pain, doubt, wonder, peace, child, prince, mountain, ridicule, picture, labour, wood, pomp, artist, progress, slave, contempt, tempest, sense, quarrel, thought, hope, friend

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 9

Use each of the following Adjectives in a sentence.

[Models — A *soft* answer turneth away wrath.

His *polite* manners have endeared him to all.

Swimming is a *healthy* exercise.

A *certain* man fell among thieves.]

happy, sad, industrious, lazy, big, small, soft, harsh, hard, polite, rude, wise, foolish, rich, poor, young, new, old, long, short, quick, slow, strong, weak, handsome, ugly, clever, dull, kind, cruel, healthy, dutiful, distant, certain.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 10

Use a suitable Adjective with each of the following Nouns.

[Models — A violent storm.

A long siege.

A decisive victory.

A populous city.

A devoted husband.]

storm, siege, sleep, victory, advice, blow, silence, hands, water, servant, flower, city, artist, dealer, voice, husband, subject, child, king, dog

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 11

Use as many suitable Adjectives as you can with each of the following Nouns.

[Models — A narrow street, a wide street, a crooked street, a dirty street.

A clean street.

A deliberate lie, a black lie, a white lie.]

fortune, man, news, storm, health, novel, progress, room, incident

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 12

Write down the Adjectives opposite in meaning to the following.

courageous, many, wild, hot, lean, heavy, costly, barren, beautiful, patient, honest, civilized, careful, strong, experienced, slow, friendly, cruel, soft

Chapter 10 COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

80. Read these sentences :

1. Rama's mango is *sweet.*
2. Hari's mango is *sweeter* than Rama's.

3. Govind's mango is the *sweetest* of all.

In sentence 1, the adjective *sweet* merely tells us that Rama's mango has the quality of sweetness, without saying how much of this quality it has.

In sentence 2, the adjective *sweeter* tells us that Hari's mango, compared with Rama's, has more of the quality of sweetness.

In sentence 3, the adjective *sweetest* tells us that of *all* these mangoes Govind's mango has the greatest amount or highest degree of the quality of sweetness.

We thus see that Adjectives change in form (*sweet, sweeter, sweetest*) to show *comparison.* They are called the three **Degrees of Comparison.**

The Adjective *sweet* is said to be in the **Positive Degree.**

The Adjective *sweeter* is said to be in the **Comparative Degree.**

The Adjective *sweetest* is said to be in the **Superlative Degree**.

The Positive Degree of an Adjective is the Adjective in its simple form. It is used to denote the mere existence of some quality of what we speak about. It is used when no comparison is made.

The Comparative Degree of an Adjective denotes a *higher* degree of the quality than the Positive, and is used when *two* things (or sets of things) are compared ; as,

This boy is *stronger* than that.

Which of these two pens is the *better* ?

Apples are *dearer* than oranges.

The Superlative Degree of an Adjective denotes the highest degree of the quality, and is used when *more than two* things (or sets of things) are compared ; as,

This boy is the *strongest* in the class.

Note 1—There is another way in which we can compare things. Instead of saying 'Rama is stronger than Balu', we can say 'Balu is less strong than Rama'. Instead of saying 'Hari is the laziest boy in the class', we can say 'Hari is the least industrious boy in the class'.

Note 2—The Superlative with most is sometimes used where there is no idea of comparison, but merely a desire to indicate the possession of a quality in a very high degree; as,

This is *most* unfortunate.

It was a *most* eloquent speech.

Truly, a *most* ingenious device !

This usage has been called the *Superlative of Eminence*, or the *Absolute Superlative.*

Formation of Comparative and Superlative

81. Most Adjectives of *one* syllable, and some of more than one, form the Comparative by adding *er* and the Superlative by adding *est* to the Positive.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Sweet	sweeter	sweetest
Small	smaller	smallest
Tall	taller	tallest
Bold	bolder	boldest
Clever	cleverer	cleverest
Kind	kinder	kindest
Young	younger	youngest
Great	greater	greatest

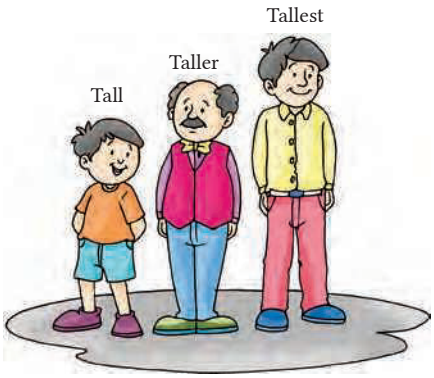

When the Positive ends in *e,* only *r* and *st* are added.

Brave	braver	bravest
Fine	finer	finest
White	whiter	whitest
Large	larger	largest
Able	abler	ablest
Noble	nobler	noblest
Wise	wiser	wisest

When the Positive ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* before adding *er* and *est.*

Happy	happier	happiest
Easy	easier	easiest
Heavy	heavier	heaviest
Merry	merrier	merriest
Wealthy	wealthier	wealthiest

heavy heavier heaviest

When the Positive is a word of one syllable and ends in a *single* consonant, preceded by a *short vowel,* this consonant is doubled before adding *er* and *est.*

Red	redder	reddest
Big	bigger	biggest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Thin	thinner	thinnest
Sad	sadder	saddest
Fat	fatter	fattest

Sad Sadder Saddest

82. Adjectives of more than *two* syllables form the Comparative and Superlative by putting *more* and *most* before the Positive.

Positive	***Comparative***	***Superlative***
Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
Difficult	more difficult	most difficult
Industrious	more industrious	most industrious
Courageous	more courageous	most courageous

Two-syllable adjectives ending in *ful* (e.g. useful), *less* (e.g. hopeless), *ing* (e.g. boring) and *ed* (e.g. surprised) and many others (e.g. modern, recent, foolish, famous, certain) take *more* and *most.*

The following take either *er* and *est* or *more* and *most.*

polite	simple	feeble	gentle	narrow
cruel	common	handsome	pleasant	stupid

She is *politer/more polite* than her sister.

He is the *politest/most polite* of them.

83. The Comparative in *er* is not used when we compare two qualities in the same person or thing. If we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than the courage of Balu, we say,

Rama is *braver* than Balu.

But if we wish to say that the courage of Rama is greater than his prudence, we must say,

Rama is *more brave* than prudent.

84. When two objects are compared with each other, the latter term of comparison must exclude the former; as,

Iron is more useful than any *other* metal.

If we say,

Iron is more useful than any metal,

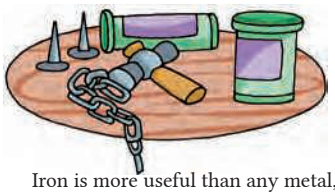
Iron is more useful than any metal,

that is the same thing as saying 'Iron is more useful than iron' since iron is itself a metal.

Irregular Comparison

85. The following Adjectives are compared *irregularly,* that is, their Comparative and Superlative are not formed from the Positive.

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Good, well	better	best
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Little	less,lesser	least
Much	more	most (quantity)
Many	more	most (number)
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Far	farther	farthest
(Nigh)	(nigher)	nighest, next
(Fore)	(former)	foremost, first
(Fore)	further	furthest
(In)	inner	inmost, innermost
(Up)	upper	upmost, uppermost
(Out)	outer, (utter)	utmost, uttermost

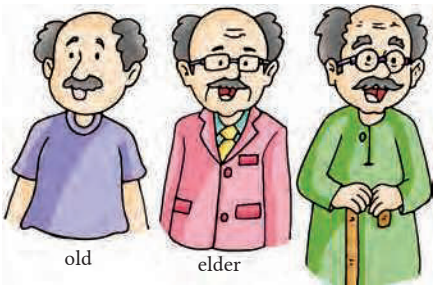

Note—The forms nigh, nigher, nighest, fore and utter are outdated.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 13

Compare the following Adjectives.

black, excellent, ill, gloomy, mad, safe, bad, unjust, gay, able, dry, timid, ugly, true, severe, exact, agreeable, difficult, little, few, numerous, merry

86. The double forms of the Comparative and Superlative of the Adjectives given in § 85 are used in different ways.

Later, latter; latest, last — *Later* and *latest* refer to time; *latter* and *last* refer to position.

He is *later* than I expected.
I have not heard the *latest* news.
The *latter* chapters are lacking in interest.
The *last* chapter is carelessly written.
Ours is the *last* house in the street.

Elder, older ; eldest, oldest —*Elder* and *eldest* are used only of persons, not of animals or things; and are now confined to members of the same family. *Elder* is not used with *than. Older* and *oldest* are used of both persons and things.

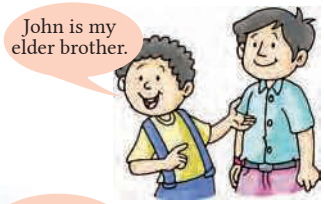

John is my *elder* brother.
Tom is my *eldest* son.
He is *older* than his sister.
Rama is the *oldest* boy in the eleven.
This is the *oldest* temple in Kolkata.

Farther, further — Both *farther* and *further* are used to express distance. *Further*, not *farther*, is used to mean "additional".

Kolkata is *farther/further* from the equator than Colombo.
After this he made no *further* remarks.
I must have a reply without *further* delay.

Nearest, next —*Nearest* means the shortest distance away. *Next* refers to one of a sequence of things coming one after the other.

Mumbai is the seaport *nearest* to Europe.
Where is the *nearest* phone box?
Karim's shop is *next* to the post office.
My uncle lives in the *next* house.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 14

(a) Fill the blank spaces with 'later' or 'latter'.

1. The majority accepted the____proposal.
2. The____part of the book shows signs of hurry.
3. At a_____date, he was placed in charge of the whole *taluka*.
4. I prefer the_____proposition to the former.
5. Is there no____news than last week's ?

(b) Fill the blank spaces with 'older' or 'elder'.

1. I have an____sister.
2. Rama is____than Hari by two years.
3. His____brother is in the Indian Civil Service.
4. She is the____of the two sisters.
5. The nephew is_____than his uncle.

(c) Fill the blank spaces with 'oldest' and 'eldest'.

1. Rustam is the____of my uncle's five sons.
2. He is the____member of the School Committee.
3. That is Antonio, the duke's_____son.
4. The____mosque in the town is near the railway station.
5. Mr. Smith is the_____ teacher in the school.

(d) Fill the blank spaces with 'farther' or 'further'.

1. I can't walk any ____.
2. No____reasons were given.
3. He walked off without_____ceremony.
4. Until_____orders Mr K S Dave will act as Headmaster of Nira High School.
5. To let, a bungalow at Ridge Road. For___particulars apply to Box No. 65.

(e) Fill the blank spaces with 'latest' or 'last'.

1. The_____news from China is very disquieting.
2. The____time I saw him, he was in high spirits.
3. Today is the_____day for receiving tenders.
4. We expect to get the_____news in a few hours.
5. The_____Moghul Emperor came to an ignominious end.

(f) Fill the blank spaces with 'nearest' or 'next'.

1. This is the_____post office to my house.
2. The pillar-box is____to my house.
3. The burglar was taken to the____police station.
4. His house is____to mine.
5. The____railway station is two miles from here.

87. Certain English Comparatives have lost their comparative meaning and are used as Positive. They cannot be followed by *than.* These are:

former, latter, elder, hinder, upper, inner, outer, utter.

Both the tiger and the leopard are cats; the *former* animal is much larger than the *latter.*

The *inner* meaning of this letter is not clear.

The soldiers ran to defend the *outer* wall.

My *elder* brother is an engineer.

This man is an *utter* fool.

88. Certain Comparatives borrowed from Latin have no Positive or Superlative degree. They all end in *or*, not *er.* They are twelve in all. Five of them have lost their Comparative meaning, and are used as Positive Adjectives. These are:

interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor.

The *exterior* wall of the house is made of stone; the *interior* walls are of wood.

His age is a matter of *minor* importance.

I have no *ulterior* motive in offering you help.

The other seven are used as Comparative Adjectives but are followed by *to* instead of *than* (See § 89).

89. The comparative degree is generally followed by *than;* but Comparative Adjectives ending in *-or* are followed by the preposition *to;* as,

inferior, superior, prior, anterior, posterior, senior, junior.

Hari is *inferior* to Ram in intelligence.

Rama's intelligence is *superior* to Hari's.

His marriage was *prior* to his father's death.

He is *junior* to all his colleagues.

All his colleagues are *senior* to him.

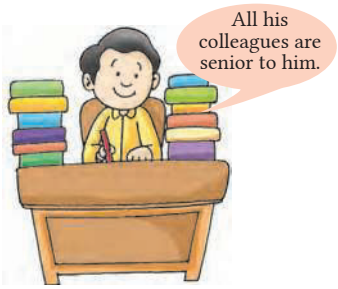

90. Adjectives expressing qualities that do not admit of different degrees cannot, strictly speaking, be compared; as,

square, round, perfect, eternal, universal, unique.

strictly speaking, a thing cannot be more *square,* more *round,* more *perfect.* But we say, for instance,

This is the *most perfect* specimen I have seen.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 15

Point out the Adjectives and name the Degree of Comparison of each.

1. The poor woman had seen happier days.
2. Do not talk such nonsense.
3. Make less noise.
4. That child has a slight cold.
5. A live ass is stronger than a dead lion.
6. Say the same thing twice over.
7. Solomon was one of the wisest men.
8. Hunger is the best sauce.
9. His simple word is as good as an oath.
10. There was not the slightest excuse for it.
11. My knife is sharper than yours.
12. Small people love to talk of great men.
13. Of two evils choose the less.
14. I hope the matter will be cleared up some day.
15. Your son makes no progress in his studies.
16. Open rebuke is better than secret love.
17. We never had such sport.
18. I have other things to attend to.
19. Hari is the idlest boy in the class.
20. I promise you a fair hearing.
21. There is much to be said on both sides.
22. He gave the boys much wholesome advice.
23. He thinks he is wiser than his father.
24. No news is good news.
25. Bangladesh has the largest tea garden in the world.
26. Lead is heavier than any other metal.
27. I congratulated him on his good fortune.
28. He has many powerful friends.
29. The longest lane has a turning.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 16

Make three columns, and write the following Adjectives in the Positive, Comparative and Superlative Degrees.

[Be careful to use the form of comparison that is pleasing to the ear.]

shameful, clever, pretty, interesting, hopeful, honest, important, patient, rude, delightful, stupid, attractive, heavy, beautiful, fortunate, pleasant.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 17

Supply the proper form (Comparative or Superlative) of the Adjective.

[Note:—The Comparative and not the Superlative should be used to compare two things.]

1. *Good* — How is your brother today ? Is he____?
2. *Hot* — May is____here than any other month.
3. *Pretty* — Her doll is____than yours.
4. *Idle* — Hari is the____boy in the class.
5. *Sharp* — Your knife is sharp, but mine is____.
6. *Dear* — Honour is____to him than life.
7. *Rich* — He is the_____man in our town.
8. *Old* — Mani is two years_____than Rati.
9. *Large* — Name the____city in the world.
10. *Good* — He is the_____friend I have.
11. *Bad* — He is the_____boy of the two.
12. *Bad* — Raman's work is bad, Hari's is_____, but Govind's is the _____.
13. *Ferocious* — There is no animal_____than the tiger.
14. *Bad* — The trade is in a_____condition today than it was a year ago.
15. *Tall* — He is the_____of the two.
16. *Dry* — Sind is the_____part of Pakistan.
17. *Useful* — Iron is_____than any other metal.
18. *Useful* — Iron is the_____of all metals.
19. *Great* — Who is the_____living poet ?
20. *Nutritious* — I think he requires a_____diet.
21. *Proud* — It was the_____moment of his life.
22. *Good* — The public is the_____ judge.
23. *Little* — That is the_____ price I can take.
24. *Light* — Silver is_____than gold.

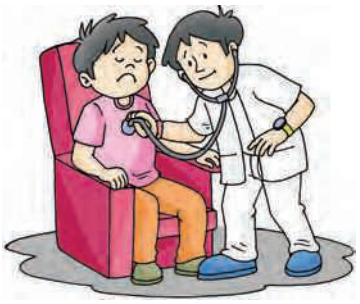

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 18

Supply appropriate Comparatives or Superlatives to each of the following.

1. Prevention is_____than cure.
2. Akbar had a_____ reign than Babar.
3. Sachin Tendulkar is the _____ batsman in the world.
4. The pen is_____than the sword.
5. The_____buildings are found in America.
6. The Pacific is_____than any other ocean.
7. Which of the two girls has the_____dress ?
8. Honour is_____to him than life.
9. This pen is_____than the other.
10. Who is the_____boy in the class ?

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 18

11. The Eiffel Tower is_____than Qutab Minar.
12. My uncle is_____than my father.
13. The multi-millionaire Mr. Sen is the_____in this town.
14. Wordsworth is a_____poet than Cowper.
15. Balu is the_____bowler in the eleven.
16. The streets of Mumbai are_____than those of Ahmedabad.
17. Ooty is _____ than Chennai.
18. The piano was knocked down to the_____bidder.
19. Mount Everest is the_____peak of the Himalayas.
20. He writes a_____hand than his brother.
21. He writes the_____hand in his class.
22. He is one of the_____speakers in Punjab.
23. Who was the_____general, Alexander or Caesar?
24. The_____fables are those attributed to Aesop.
25. *The Arabian Nights* is perhaps the_____story-book.
26. Shakespeare is_____than any other English poet.
27. Of all countries, China has the_____population in the world.
28. Clouds float in the sky because they are_____than the air.
29. There are two ways of doing the sum, but this one is the_____.
30. It is good to be clever, but it is_____to be industrious.
31. This is the_____of my two sons.
32. This is the_____that I can do.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 19

Change the following sentences by using 'less' or 'least' without changing the meaning.

1. The mango is sweeter than the pineapple.
2. Silver is more plentiful than gold.
3. This is the most useless of all my books.
4. Wolfram is one of the rarest minerals.
5. The wild-apple is the sourest of all fruits.
6. Iron is more useful than copper.

Interchange of the Degrees of Comparison

91. As the following examples show, it is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective in a sentence, without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Superlative — Lead is the heaviest of all metals.
Comparative — Lead is heavier than all other metals.
Comparative — Mahabaleshwar is cooler than Panchgani.
Positive — Panchgani is not so cool as Mahabaleshwar.
Positive — He is as wise as Solomon.
Comparative — Solomon was not wiser than he is.
Superlative — *Shakuntalam* is the best drama in Sanskrit.
Comparative — *Shakuntalam* is better than any other drama in Sanskrit.
Positive — No other drama in Sanskrit is as good as *Shakuntalm.*
Superlative — Chennai is one of the biggest of Indian cities.
Comparative — Chennai is bigger than most other Indian cities.
Positive — Very few Indian cities are as big as Chennai.
Positive — Some poets are at least as great as Tennyson.
Comparative — Tennyson is not greater than some other poets.
— Some poets are not less great than Tennyson.
Superlative — Tennyson is not the greatest of all poets.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 20

Change the Degree of Comparison, without changing the meaning.

1. Malacca is the oldest town in Malaysia.
2. Soya beans are at least as nutritious as meat.
3. No other planet is as big as Jupiter.
4. Very few boys are as industrious as Latif.
5. He would sooner die than tell a lie.
6. India is the largest democracy in the world.
7. Shakespeare is greater than any other English poet.
8. Samudra Gupta was one of the greatest of Indian kings.
9. The tiger is the most ferocious of all animals.
10. Australia is the largest island in the world.
11. Lead is heavier than any other metal.
12. Some people have more money than brains.
13. A wise enemy is better than a foolish friend.
14. The Marwaries are not less enterprising than any other community in India.
15. I know him quite as well as you do.
16. You do not know him better than I do.
17. No other man was as strong as Bhim.
18. Some boys are at least as industrious as Suresh.
19. Mount Everest is the highest peak of the Himalayas.
20. Very few animals are as useful as the cow.
21. America is the richest country in the world.
22. It is easier to preach than to practise.
23. Iron is more useful than all the other metals.
24. Open rebuke is better than secret love.
25. This is the tallest building in the city.
26. Sir Surendranath was at least as great an orator as any other Indian.
27. Ooty is as healthy as any resort in India.
28. The pen is mightier than the sword.

Chapter 11 ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS

92. Adjectives are often used as Nouns.

(1) As Plural Nouns denoting a class of persons; as,

The *cautious* (= cautious persons) are not always cowards.

The rich (= rich people) know not how *the poor* (= poor people) live.

The wicked (= wicked people) flee when no man pursueth, but *the righteous* (= righteous people) are bold as a lion.

Blessed are the *meek.*

(2) As Singular Nouns denoting some abstract quality; as,

The future (= futurity) is unknown to us.

He is a lover of the *beautiful* (= beauty in general).

(3) Some Adjectives actually become Nouns, and are hence used in both numbers.

(a) Those derived from Proper Nouns; as, *Australians, Canadians, Italians.*

(b) Some denoting persons; as, *juniors, seniors, mortals, inferiors, superiors, nobles, criminals, savages, elders, minors.*

(c) A few denoting things generally; as, *secrets, totals, liquids, solids, valuables.*

[Some adjectives are used as Nouns only in the plural; as, *sweets, bitters, valuables, eatables.*]

(4) In certain phrases; as,

in *general;* in *future;* in *short;* in *secret;* before *long;* at *present;* for *good* ; at *best;* through *thick and thin;* for *better* or for *worse;*

in *black* and *white*; *right* or *wrong;* from *bad* to *worse;* the *long* and *short.*

In future I shall charge you for medical advice.

In short, we know nothing.

The negotiations were carried on *in secret.*

I shall see you *before* long.

Before long, he will be appointed to a higher post.

At present, he is in pecuniary difficulties.

I do not want any more at *present.*

He has left India *for good.*

We can't arrive before Saturday *at best.*

It must be said to his credit that he stood by his friend *through thick and thin.*

I must have your terms down in *black and white.*

Right or wrong, my country.

I am afraid the young man is going from *bad to worse.*

The long and short of it is that I distrust you.

Nouns used as Adjectives

93. The use of Nouns as Adjectives is very common in English; as,

I met a little *cottage* girl.

He is always playing *computer* games.

Chapter 12 POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

94. A single Adjective used attributively is generally placed immediately *before* the noun; as,

King Francis was a *hearty* king, and loved a royal sport.

Where are you going, my *pretty* maid, with your *rosy* cheeks and *golden* hair ?

O Captain ! my Captain ! our *fearful* trip is done.

Observe the difference in meaning between:

(i) a great nobleman's son, and

(ii) a nobleman's great son.

95. In poetry, however, the Adjective is frequently placed after the noun; as,

Children *dear,* was it yesterday?

We heard the sweet bells over the bay.

O man with sisters *dear* !

96. When several Adjectives are attached to one noun they are generally placed after it for emphasis; as,

There dwelt a miller *hale* and *bold.*

The King, *fearless* and *resolute,* at once advanced.

Franklin had a great *genius, original, sagacious,* and *inventive.*

97. When some word or phrase is joined to the Adjective to explain its meaning, the Adjective is placed after its noun; as,

He was a man *fertile* in resource.

A Sikh, *taller* than any of his comrades, rushed forward.

98. In certain phrases the Adjective always comes after the noun; as,

heir apparent, time immemorial, lord paramount, viceroy elect, letters patent, knights temporal, notary public, body politic, God Almighty.

Chapter 13 THE CORRECT USE OF SOME ADJECTIVES

99. **Some, any**—To express quantity or degree *some* is used normally in *affirmative* sentences, *any* in *negative* or *interrogative* sentences.

I will buy *some* mangoes.

I will not buy *any* mangoes.

Have you bought *any* mangoes ?

But *any* can be used after *if* in affirmative sentences.

If you need *any* money I will help you.

Some is used in questions which are really offers/requests or which expect the answer "yes".

Will you have *some* ice-cream? (Offer)

Could you lend me *some* money? (Request)

Did you buy *some* clothes? (= I expect you did.)

100. **Each, every.**— *Each* and *every* are similar in meaning, but *every* is a stronger word than *each;* it means, 'each without exception'. *Each* is used in speaking of two or more things; *every* is used only in speaking of *more than two. Each* directs attention to the individuals forming any group, *every* to the total group. Each is used only when the number in the group is limited and definite ; *every* when the number is indefinite.

Every seat was taken.

Five boys were seated on *each* bench.

Each one of these chairs is broken.

Leap year falls in *every* fourth year.

He came to see us *every* three days [*i.e.,* once in every *period* of three days].

It rained *every* day during my holidays.

I was away ten days and it rained *each* day.

101. **Little, a little, the little** — Note carefully the use of—

(1) little, (2) a little, (3) the little.

Little = *not* much (*i.e.*, hardly any). Thus, the adjective *little* has a negative meaning.

There is little hope of his recovery, *i.e.*, he is not likely to recover.

He showed *little* concern for his nephew.

He has *little* influence with his old followers.

He showed *little* mercy to the vanquished.

He has *little* appreciation of good poetry.

A little = some though not much. 'A little' has a positive meaning.

There is *a little* hope of his recovery, *i.e.*, he may possibly recover.

A little tact would have saved the situation.

A little knowledge is a dangerous thing.

The little = not much, but all there is.

The little information he had was not quite reliable.

The little knowledge of carpentry that he possessed stood him in good stead.

[The sentence means—The knowledge of carpentry he possessed was not much; but all that knowledge stood him in good stead.]

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 21

Insert 'a little', or 'the little' whichever is suitable.

1. _____grain they had was damaged by sea water.
2. _____precaution is necessary in handling that machine.
3. _____care could have prevented the catastrophe.
4. _____influence that he has, he uses to the best advantage.
5. _____knowledge of French that he has is likely to be very useful to him on the continent.

102. **Few, a few, the few** —Note carefully the use of —

(1) few, (2) a few, (3) the few.

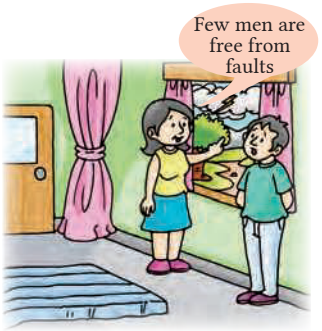

Few = not many, hardly any, 'Few' has a negative meaning.

Few persons can keep a secret.

Few people are so hopeless as drunkards.

Few towns in India have public libraries.

Few works of reference are so valuable as the *Encyclopaedia Britannica.*

Few men are free from faults.

Few men reach the age of one hundred years.

Few Parsees write Gujarati correctly.

A few = some. 'A few' has a positive meaning, and is opposed to 'none'.

A few words spoken in earnest will convince him.

A few Parsees write Gujarati correctly.

The few = not many, but all there are.

The few remarks that he made were very suggestive.

[The sentence means—The remarks that he made were not many; but all those remarks were very suggestive.]

The few friends he has are all very poor.

The few clothes they had were all tattered and torn.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 22

Insert 'a few' or 'the few' whichever is suitable.

1. ____ public libraries that we have are not well equipped.
2. ____days that are left to him he spends in solitude and meditation.
3. Many Hindus study Sanskrit, but only____Parsees study Avesta.
4. ____days' rest is all that is needed.
5. Have you got _____ potatoes left ?
6. It is a question of spending ____rupees.
7. ____hints on essay-writing are quite to the point.
8. ____months that he spent in Ooty did him a lot of good.
9. When I met him ____years after, he looked old and haggard.
10. ____short poems in the volume show signs of genius.
11. In ____words he expressed his gratitude to his friends.
12. _____Americans have their offices in Kolkata.
13. _____trinkets she has are not worth much.
14. _____ poems he has written are all of great excellence.

Chapter 14 ARTICLES

103. The Adjectives *a* or *an* and *the* are usually called **Articles.** They are really Demonstrative Adjectives.

104. There are two Articles—*a* (or *an*) and *the.*

105. *A* or *an* is called the **Indefinite Article,** because it usually leaves *indefinite* the person or thing spoken of; as,

a doctor; that is, *any* doctor.

106. *The* is called the **Definite Article,** because it normally points out some *particular* person or thing; as,

He saw *the* doctor; meaning some *particular* doctor.

The indefinite article is used before singular countable nouns, *e.g.,*

a book, *an* orange, *a* girl

The definite article is used before singular countable nouns, plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns, *e.g.,*

the book, *the* books, *the* milk

A or An

107. The choice between *a* and *an* is determined by *sound.* Before a word beginning with a vowel sound *an* is used; as,

an ass, *an* enemy, *an* inkstpad, *an* orange, *an* umbrella, *an* hour, *an* honest man, *an* heir.

It will be noticed that the words *hour, honest, heir* begin with a vowel sound, as the initial consonant *h* is not pronounced.

108. Before a word beginning with a consonant sound *a* is used; as,

a boy, *a* reindeer, *a* woman, *a* yard, *a* horse, *a* hole,

also *a* university, *a* union, *a* European, *a* ewe, *a* unicorn, *a* useful article;

because these words (*university, union,* etc.) begin with a consonant sound, that of *yu.* Similarly we say,

a one-rupee note, such *a* one, *a* one-eyed man.

because *one* begins with the consonant sound of *w.*

109. Some native speakers use *an* before words beginning with *h* if the first syllable is not stressed.

An hotel (More common : *a* hotel)

an historical novel (More common : *a* historical novel)

Use of the Definite Article

110. The Definite Article *the* is used—

(1) When we talk about a particular person or thing, or one already referred to (that is, when it is clear from the context which one we mean); as,

The book you want is out of print. (Which book ? The one you want.)

Let's go to *the* park. (= the park in this town)

The girl cried. (*the* girl = the girl already talked about)

(2) When a *singular* noun is meant to represent a whole class; as,

The cow is a useful animal.

[Or we may say, "Cows are useful animals."]

The horse is a noble animal.

The cat loves comfort.

The rose is the sweetest of all flowers.

The banyan is a kind of fig tree.

[Do not say, "a kind of a fig tree". This is a common error.]

The two nouns *man* and *woman* can be used in a general sense without either article.

Man is the only animal that uses fire.

Woman is man's mate.

But in present-day English *a man* and *a woman* (or *men* and *women*) are more usual.

A woman is more sensitive than *a* man.

(3) Before some proper names, viz., these kinds of place-names :

(a) oceans and seas, e.g. *the* Pacific, *the* Black Sea
(b) rivers, e.g. *the* Ganga, *the* Nile
(c) canals, e.g. *the* Suez Canal
(d) deserts, e.g. the Sahara
(e) groups of islands, e.g. *the* West Indies
(f) mountain ranges, e.g. *the* Himalayas, *the* Alps
(g) a very few names of countries, which include words like *republic* and *kingdom* (e.g. *the* Irish Republic, *the* United Kingdom) also: *the* Ukraine, *the* Netherlands (and its seat of government *the* Hague)

(4) Before the names of certain books; as,

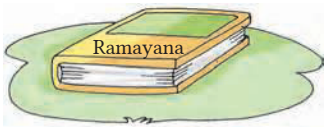

the Vedas, *the* Puranas, *the* Iliad, *the* Ramayana.

But we say—

Homer's Iliad, Valmiki's Ramayana.

(5) Before names of things unique of their kind; as,
The sun, *the* sky, *the* ocean, *the* sea, *the* earth.

Note—Sometimes *the* is placed before a Common noun to give it the meaning of an Abstract noun; as,
At last *the warrior* (the warlike or martial spirit) in him was thoroughly aroused.]

(6) Before a Proper Noun when it is qualified by an adjective or a defining adjectival clause; as,
The great Caesar : *the* immortal Shakespeare.
The Mr. Roy *whom* you met last night is my uncle.

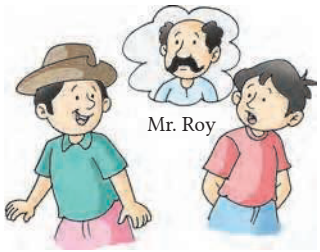

(7) With Superlatives ; as,
The darkest cloud has a silver lining.
This is *the* best book of elementary chemistry.

(8) With ordinals; as,
He was *the* first man to arrive.
The ninth chapter of the book is very interesting.

(9) Before musical instruments; as,
He can play *the* flute.

He can play the flute.

(10) Before an adjective when the noun is understood; as,
The poor are always with us.

(11) Before a noun (with emphasis) to give the force of a Superlative; as,
The Verb *is the* word (= the chief word) in a sentence.

(12) As an Adverb with Comparatives; as,
The more the merrier.
(= *by how much* more, *by so much* the merrier)
The more they get, *the* more they want.

Use of the Indefinite Article

111. The Indefinite Article is used—

(1) In its original numerical sense of *one;* as,
Twelve inches make *a* foot.
Not *a* word was said.
A word to the wise is sufficient.
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

(2) In the vague sense of *a certain;* as,
A Kishore Kumar (= a certain person named Kishore Kumar)
is suspected by the police.
One evening *a* beggar came to my door.

(3) In the sense of *any,* to single out an individual as the representative of a class; as,
A pupil should obey his teacher.
A cow is a useful animal.

(4) To make a common noun of a proper noun; as,
A Daniel come to judgement ! (A Daniel = a very wise man)

Omission of the Article

112. The Article is omitted—

(1) Before names of substances and abstract nouns (*i.e.* uncountable nouns) used in a general sense; as,

Sugar is bad for your teeth.
Gold is a precious metal.
Wisdom is the gift of heaven.
Honesty is the best policy.
Virtue is its own reward.

Note 1—Uncountable nouns take *the* when used in a particular sense (especially when qualified by an adjective or adjectival phrase or clause); as,

Would you pass me *the* sugar? (= the sugar on the table)
The wisdom of Solomon is great.
I can't forget *the* kindness with which he treated me.

(2) Before plural countable nouns used in a general sense; as,
Children like chocolates.
Computers are used in many offices.

Note—Note that such nouns take the when used with a particular meaning; as,
Where are *the* children? (= our children)

(3) Before most proper nouns (except those referred to earlier), namely, names of people (e.g. Gopal, Rahim), names of continents, countries, cities, etc. (e.g. Europe, Pakistan, Nagpur), names of individual mountains (e.g. Mount Everest), individual islands, lakes, hills, etc.

(4) Before names of meals (used in a general sense); as,
What time do you have lunch ?
Dinner is ready.

Note—We use *a* when there is an adjective before breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc. We use *the* when we specify
I had *a late lunch* today.
The dinner we had at the Tourist Hotel was very nice.

(5) Before languages; as,
We are studying *English.*
They speak *Punjabi* at home.

(6) Before *school, college, church, bed, table, hospital, market, prison,* when these places are visited or used for their primary purpose; as,
I learnt French at *school.*
We go to *church* on Sundays.
He stays in *bed* till nine every morning.
My uncle is still in *hospital.*

Note— *The* is used with these words when we refer to them as a definite place, building or object rather than to the normal activity that goes on there; as,
The school is very near my home.
I met him at *the* church.
The bed is broken.
I went to *the* hospital to see my uncle.

(7) Before names of relations, like *father, mother, aunt, uncle,* and also *cook* and *nurse,* meaning 'our cook', 'our nurse'; as,

Father has returned.

Aunt wants you to see her.

Cook has given notice.

(8) Before predicative nouns denoting a unique position, *i.e.*, a position that is normally held at one time by one person only; as,

He was elected *chairman* of the Board.

Mr Banerji became *Principal* of the college in 1995.

(9) In certain phrases consisting of a transitive verb followed by its object; as,

to catch fire, to take breath, to give battle, to cast anchor, to send word, to bring word, to give ear, to lay siege, to set sail, to lose heart, to set foot, to leave home, to strike root, to take offence.

(10) In certain phrases consisting of a preposition followed by its object; as,

at home, in hand, in debt, by day, by night, at daybreak, at sunrise, at noon, at sunset, at night, at anchor, at sight, on demand, at interest, on earth, by land, by water, by river, by train, by steamer, by name, on horseback, on foot, on deck, in jest, at dinner, at ease, under ground, above ground.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 23

Complete the following sentences by filling in *a, an* or *the* as may be suitable.

1. Copper is___useful metal.
2. He is not____honourable man.
3. ____able man has not always a distinguished look.
4. ____reindeer is a native of Norway.
5. Honest men speak_____truth.
6. Rustum is_____young Parsee.
7. Do you see_____blue sky ?
8. Varanasi is_____holy city.
9. Aladdin had____wonderful lamp.
10. The world is____happy place.
11. He returned after_____hour.
12. ____school will shortly close for the Puja holidays.
13. ____sun shines brightly.
14. I first met him_____year ago.
15. Yesterday _____ European called at my office.
16. Sanskrit is_____difficult language.
17. ____Ganga is____sacred river.
18. ____lion is____king of beasts.
19. You are_____fool to say that.
20. French is_____easy language.
21. Who is ____ girl sitting there?
22. Which is___longest river in India ?
23. Rama has come without ____ umbrella.
24. Mumbai is_____very costly place to live in.
25. She is_____untidy girl.
26. The children found____egg in the nest.
27. I bought ____ horse, ____ox, and____buffalo.
28. If you see him, give him____ message.
29. English is___language of__ people of England.
30. The guide knows _____ way.
31. Sri Lanka is _____ island.
32. Let us discuss _____ matter seriously.
33. John got ____ best present.
34. Man, thou art ____ wonderful animal.
35. India is one of ____ most industrial countries in Asia.
36. He looks as stupid as ____ owl.
37. He is _____ honour to this profession.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 24

Insert Articles where necessary.

1. While there is life there is hope.
2. Her knowledge of medicine had been acquired under aged Jewess.
3. Sun rises in east.
4. The brave soldier lost arm in battle.
5. The doctor says it is hopeless case.
6. I like to live in open air.
7. Get pound of sugar from nearest grocer.
8. Set back clock; it is hour too fast.
9. The poor woman has not rupee.
10. You must take care.
11. Eskimos make houses of snow and ice.
12. Where did you buy umbrella?
13. Have you never seen elephant?
14. Draw map of India.
15. Do not look gift horse in mouth.
16. Have you told him about accident?
17. Tagore was great poet.
18. How blue sky looks!
19. Who wishes to take walk with me?
20. What beautiful scene this is!
21. The musician was old Mussalman.
22. The river was spanned by iron bridge.
23. Moon did not rise till after ten.
24. Like true sportsmen they would give enemy fair play.
25. They never fail who die in great cause.
26. There is nothing like staying at home for comfort.
27. He likes to picture himself as original thinker.
28. It is never thankful office to offer advice.
29. Umbrella is of no avail against thunderstorm.
30. I have not seen him since he was child.
31. For Brutus is honourable man.
32. Neil Armstrong was first man to walk on moon.
33. Man has no more right to say uncivil thing than to act one.
34. We started late in afternoon.
35. It is a strange thing how little, in general, people know about sky.
36. Scheme failed for want of support.
37. Tiger, animal equal to lion in size, is native of Asia.
38. Time makes worst enemies friends.
39. My favourite flower is rose.
40. Time we live ought not to be computed by number of years, but by use that has been made of them.
41. Mumbai is largest cotton textile centre in country.
42. Men are too often led astray by prejudice.
43. Only best quality is sold by us.
44. What kind of bird is that ?
45. Wild animals suffer when kept in captivity.
46. May we have pleasure of your company?
47. It was proudest moment of my life.
48. Andamans are group of islands in Bay of Bengal.
49. He started school when he was six years old.
50. He neglects attending church, though church is only few yards from his house.
51. March is third month of year.
52. Dr Arnold was headmaster of rugby.
53. Man cannot live by bread alone.
54. When will father be back?
55. Appenines are in Italy.

Repetition of the Article

113. If I say—

I have *a* black and white dog.

I mean a dog that is partly black and partly white.

But if I say—

I have *a* black and *a* white dog,

I mean *two* dogs, one black and the other white.

Hence when two or more adjectives qualify the *same* noun, the Article is used before the *first adjective only*; but when they qualify *different* nouns, expressed or understood, the Article is normally used before *each adjective.*

114. Compare:

1. *The* Secretary and Treasurer is absent.
2. *The* Secretary and *the* Treasurer are absent.

The first sentence clearly indicates that the posts of Secretary and Treasurer are held by *one* person.

The repetition of the article in the second sentence indicates that the two posts are held by *two* different persons.

Hence we see that when two or more connected nouns refer to the *same* person or thing, the Article is ordinarily used before *the first only ;* but when two or more connected nouns refer to *different* persons or things, the Article is used before *each.*

Also examine the following sentences.

Sir Surendranath was *a* great orator and statesman.

There are on the committee among others *a* great economist and *a* great lawyer.

115. We may either say—

The third and *the* fourth *chapter.*

[Or] *The* third and fourth *chapters.*

116. In expressing a comparison, if two nouns refer to the same person or thing, the Article is used before *the first noun only;* as,

He is a better mechanic than clerk.

He is a better poet than novelist.

He is a better thinker than debater.

He would make a better engineer than lawyer.

But if they refer to *different* persons or things, the Article must be used with *each noun;* as,

He is a better mechanic than a clerk (would make).

He would make a better statesman than a philosopher (would make).

Chapter 15 PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Hari is ill.

117. We may say —

Hari is absent, because Hari is ill.

But it is better to avoid the repetition of the Noun *Hari*, and say—

Hari is absent, because *he* is ill.

A word that is thus used *instead of a noun* is called a **Pronoun.** [*Pronoun* means *for-a-noun.*]

Def.—A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a Noun.

We are young.

118. Read the following sentences.

I am young.	*We* are young.
You are young.	*They* are young.
He (she, it) is young.	

I, we, you, he, (*she, it*), *they* are called **Personal Pronouns** because they stand for the three *persons,*

(*i*) the person speaking,

(*ii*) the person spoken to, and

(*iii*) the person spoken of.

The Pronouns *I* and *we,* which denote the person or persons *speaking,* are said to be Personal Pronouns of the First Person.

The Pronoun *you,* which denotes the person or persons spoken to, is said to be a Personal Pronoun of the Second Person.

You is used both in the singular and plural.

The pronouns *he (she)* and *they*, which denote the person or persons *spoken of,* are said to be Personal Pronouns of the **Third Person.** *It,* although it denotes the thing spoken of, is also called a *Personal* Pronoun of the Third Person. [The Personal Pronouns of the Third Person are, strictly speaking, Demonstrative Pronouns.]

Forms of the Personal Pronouns

119. The following are the different forms of the Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON *(Masculine or Feminine)*

	Singular	**Plural**
Nominative	I	we
Possessive	my, mine	our, ours
Accusative	me	us

SECOND PERSON (Masculine or Feminine)

SINGULAR/PLURAL

Nominative	you
Possessive	your, yours
Accusative	you

THIRD PERSON

	Singular		**Plural**	
	Masculine	***Feminine***	***Neuter***	***All Genders***
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Possessive	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Accusative	him	her	it	them

Note 1—It will be seen that the Possessive Cases of most of the Personal Pronouns have two forms. Of these the forms *my, our, your, her, their* are called Possessive Adjectives because they are used with nouns and do the work of Adjectives; as,

This is *my* book.
Those are *your* books.
That is *her* book.

Possessive Adjectives are sometimes called **Pronominal Adjectives,** as they are formed from Pronouns.

Note 2—The word *his* is used both as an Adjective and as a Pronoun; as

This is *his* book. (Possessive Adjective)
This book is *his.* (Possessive Pronoun)

In the following sentences the words in italics are Possessive Pronouns,

This book is *mine.*
Those books are *yours.*
That book is *hers.*
That idea of *yours* is excellent.

120. The Pronoun of the Third Person has three *Genders* :

Masculine : *he*
Feminine : *she*
Neuter : *it*

121. **It** —The Pronoun *it* is used:

(1) For things without life; as,
Here is your book; take *it* away.

(2) For animals, unless we clearly wish to speak of them as male and female; as,
He loves his dog and cannot do without *it.*
The horse fell and broke *its* leg.

The horse fell and broke its leg.

(3) For a young child, unless we clearly wish to refer to the sex; as,
When I saw the child *it* was crying.
That baby has torn *its* clothes.

(4) To refer to some statement going before; as,
He is telling what is not true; and he knows *it.*
He deserved his punishment; and he knew *it.*

(5) As a provisional and temporary subject before the verb *to be* when the real subject follows; as,
It is easy to find fault. [To find fault is easy.]
It is doubtful whether he will come.
It is certain that you are wrong.

(6) To give emphasis to the noun or pronoun following ; as,
It was you who began the quarrel.
It was I who first protested.
It was at Versailles that the treaty was made.
It is a silly fish that is caught twice with the same bait.
It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.

(7) As an indefinite nominative of an impersonal verb; as,
It rains. *It* snows. *It* thunders.

The Pronoun *it* here seems to stand for no noun whatever, though this can be readily supplied from the verb. Thus, 'It rains' means 'The rain rains.'

It so used is called an **Impersonal Pronoun**. So also the verb *rains* is here called an **Impersonal Verb.**

(8) In speaking of the weather or the time; as,
It is fine.
It is winter.
It is ten o'clock.

122. Since a Personal Pronoun is used instead of a Noun, it must be of the same *number, gender* and *person* as the Noun for which it stands; as,
Rama is a kind boy. *He* has lent his bicycle to Govind.
Sita helps her mother in household work. *She* also does her lesson.
Those beggars are idle. *They* refuse to work for their living.

jury

123. When a Pronoun* stands for a Collective Noun, it must be in the Singular Number (and Neuter Gender) if the Collective Noun is viewed as a *whole;* as,
The army had to suffer terrible privations in *its* march.
The fleet will reach *its* destination in a week.
The crew mutinied and murdered *its* officers.
After a few minutes the jury gave *its* verdict.

* It will be noted that we use the word 'Pronoun' in § 123-128 without observing the distinction pointed out in § 119 between the forms, *my, her, our, your, their* (which are called Possessive Adjectives) and the forms *mine, hers, ours, yours, theirs* (which are called Possessive Pronouns).

If the Collective Noun conveys the idea of *separate individuals* comprising the whole, the Pronoun standing for it must be of the Plural Number ; as,

The jury were divided in *their* opinions.

The committee decided the matter without leaving *their* seats.

124. When two or more Singular Nouns are joined by *and*, the Pronoun used for them must be Plural; as,

Rama and Hari work hard. *They* are praised by their teacher.

Both Sita and Savitri are tired; *they* have gone home.

But when two Singular Nouns joined by *and* refer to the same person or thing, the Pronoun used must of course be Singular; as,

The Secretary and Treasurer is negligent of *his* duty.

125. When two Singular Nouns joined by *and* are preceded by *each* or *every*, the Pronoun must be Singular; as,

Every soldier and *every* sailor was in *his* place.

126. When two or more Singular Nouns are joined by *or* or *either...or, neither... nor,* the Pronoun is generally Singular; as,

Rama or Hari must lend *his* hand.

Either Sita or Amina forgot to take *her* parasol.

Neither Abdul nor Karim has done *his* lesson.

127. When a Plural Noun and a Singular Noun are joined by *or* or *nor,* the Pronoun must be in the Plural; as,

Either the manager or his assistants failed in *their* duty.

128. When a pronoun refers to more than one noun or pronoun of different persons, it must be of the first person plural in preference to the second, and of the second person plural in preference to the third; as,

You and *I* have done our duty.

You and *Hari* have idled away your time.

129. Good manners require that we should say—

'You and I' *not* 'I and you'.

'You and he' *not* 'he and you'.

'Hari and I' *not* 'I and Hari'.

'He and I' *not* 'I and he'.

You and *I* must work together.

You and *he* must mend your ways.

Hari and *I* are old school friends.

He and *I* can never pull on together.

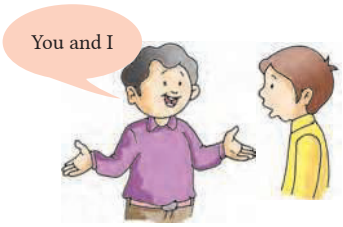

130. Each of the personal pronouns, *I, he, she, we, they* has a different form for the accusative case, namely, *me, him, her, us, them.* It is a common mistake to use *I* for *me,* when the pronoun is connected by a conjunction (*and, or*) with some other word in the accusative case.

Study the following correct sentences.

The presents are for you and *me* (not, I).

My uncle asked my brother and *me* to dinner.

131. Note that *but* is a preposition in the following sentence:

Nobody will help you but *me.* (not : *I*)

Take care to use the accusative form after *but* in such cases.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 25

In the following sentences, point out the Pronouns and say for what each stands.

1. Alice was not a bit hurt, and she jumped up on to her feet in a moment.
2. There were doors all round the hall, but they were all locked.
3. Alice opened the door and found that it led into a small passage.
4. "I wish I hadn't cried so much," said Alice.
5. "You are not attending", said the Mouse to Alice severely. "What are you thinking of ?"
6. "Come back!" the Caterpillar called after her. Alice turned and came back again.
7. Hari brought his book and laid it on the table.
8. Karim has lost his dog and cannot find it.
9. Suresh is at the head of his class, for he studies hard.
10. Rama, you are a lazy boy.
11. The camel is a beast of burden. It is used to carry goods across the desert.
12. The female lion is called a lioness. She has no mane.
13. The horse fell down and broke its leg.
14. Birds build their nests in trees.
15. If the thief is caught, he will be punished.
16. Train up a child in the way he should go.
17. And Nathan said to David, Thou art the man.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 26

In the following sentences, use Pronouns in place of nouns wherever you can.

1. Rama had taken his watch out of his pocket, and was looking at the watch uneasily, shaking the watch every now and then, and holding the watch to his ear.
2. The boys went into the garden, where the boys saw a snake.
3. Very soon the Rabbit noticed Alice as Alice went hunting about, and called out to Alice in an angry tone.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 27

Write the correct form of Pronoun in the following.

1. We scored as many goals as_____. (they, them)
2. Rama and_____ were present. (I, me)
3. Can you sing as well as_____ ? (they, them)
4. Let you and_____ try what we can do. (I, me)
5. Wait for Hari and_____. (I, me)
6. You know that as well as_____. (I, me)
7. It was_____ that gave you the alarm. (I, me)
8. Between you and_____, I do not believe him. (I, me)
9. We are not as poor as_____. (they, them)
10. Rama is as old as_____. (I, me)
11. He is known to my brother and_____. (I, me)
12. He is as good as_____. (I, me)
13. Nobody but_____ was present. (he, him)
14. He and_____ were great friends. (I, me)
15. Whom can I trust, if not_____? (he, him)
16. Let_____ answer this question. (he, him)
17. There isn't much difference between you and_____. (He, him)

18. None so blind as_____ that will not see. (they, them)
19. It isn't for such as_____ to dictate to us. (they, them)

Chapter 16 REFLEXIVE AND EMPHATIC PRONOUNS

132. When *-self* is added to *my, your, him, her, it,* and *-selves* to *our, your, them,* we get what are called Compound Personal Pronouns.

They are called **Reflexive Pronouns** when the action done by the subject turns back (*reflects*) upon the subject; as,

I hurt *myself.*
You will hurt *yourself.*
He hurt *himself.*
She hurt *herself.*
The horse hurt *itself.*

We hurt *ourselves.*
You will hurt *yourselves.*
They hurt *themselves.*

It will be noticed that each of these Reflexive Pronouns is used as the *Object* of a verb, and refers to the same person or thing as that denoted by the Subject of the verb.

133. Sometimes, in older English, especially in poetry, a simple pronoun was used reflexively; as;
Now I lay *me* down to sleep.

134. The word *self* is sometimes used as a Noun; as,

To thine own *self* be true.
He cares for nothing but *self.*
He thinks much of *self.*

self

Emphatic Pronouns

135. Now look at the following sentences.

I will do it *myself.*
I *myself* saw him do it.
We will see to it *ourselves.*
You *yourself* can best explain.
He *himself* said so.
She *herself* says so.
It was told so by the teacher *himself.*
We saw the Prime Minister *himself.*
The town *itself* is not very large.
They *themselves* admitted their guilt.

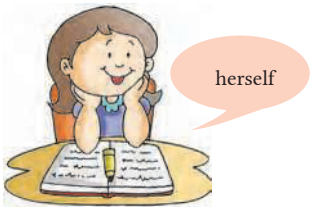

It will be seen that here Compound Personal Pronouns are used for the sake of *emphasis,* and are therefore called **Emphatic Pronouns.**

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 28

Tell which Pronouns in the following sentences are Reflexive and which Emphatic.

[Emphatic Pronouns are also called Emphasizing Pronouns.]

1. I will go myself.
2. Rama has hurt himself.
3. We often deceive ourselves.
4. I myself heard the remark.
5. You express yourself very imperfectly.
6. I wash myself when I get up.
7. The boys hid themselves.
8. They have got themselves into a mess.
9. Boadicea poisoned herself.
10. They loved themselves so much that they thought of no one else.
11. The prisoner hanged himself.
12. The poor widow poisoned herself.
13. They enjoyed themselves.
14. Don't you deceive yourself ?
15. I myself heard the remark.
16. He set himself a hard task.
17. We exerted ourselves.
18. The dog choked itself.
19. They gave themselves a lot of trouble.
20. We seldom see ourselves as others see us.

21. A house divided against itself cannot stand.
22. He that wrongs his friend wrongs himself more.
23. Some people are always talking about themselves.
24. Xerxes himself was the last to cross the Hellespont.
25. He has landed himself in difficulties.
26. Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.
27. Acquit yourselves like men.

Chapter 17 DEMONSTRATIVE, INDEFINITE AND DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

136. Consider the following sentences.

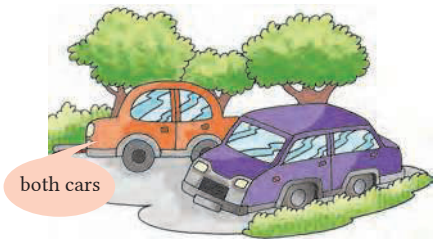

This is a present from my uncle.
These are merely excuses.
Both cars are good; but *this* is better than *that.*
Mumbai mangoes are better than *those* of Bengaluru.
Make haste, *that's* a good boy.
[Here *that* = one who makes haste.]
There is no period in ancient Indian history so glorious as *that* of the Guptas. [Do not write,"as the Guptas"]
My views are quite in accordance with *those* of the University Commission.
I may have offended, but *such* was not my intention.
He was the representative of the King, and as *such* (= the representative of the King) they honoured him.
The stranger is welcomed as *such.*
That is the Red Fort.

It will be noticed that the Pronouns in italics are used to *point out* the objects to which they refer, and are, therefore, called **Demonstrative Pronouns.** (Latin *demonstrare*, to show clearly)

137. *This, that,* etc. are (Demonstrative) *Adjectives* when they are used with nouns; as,

This book is mine.
That pen is yours.
These books are mine.
Those pens are yours.
What was *that* noise ?
This horse is better *than* that horse.
All *such* people ought to be avoided.

138. *This* refers to what is close at hand, and nearest to the thought or person of the speaker; *that* refers to what is 'over there', farther away, and more remote.
This is better *than* that.

139. *That,* with its plural *those,* is used to avoid the repetition of a preceding Noun; as,
The climate of Belgaum is like *that* of Pune.
The streets of this city are worse than *those* of Ahmedabad.
Our soldiers were better drilled than *those* of enemies.
The rivers of America are larger than *those* of Europe.

140. When two things which have been already mentioned are referred to, *this* refers to the thing last mentioned, *that* to the thing first mentioned; as,
Virtue and vice offer themselves for your choice ; *this* (*i.e.,* vice) leads to misery, *that* (*i.e.,* virtue) to happiness.
Alcohol and tobacco are both injurious; *this* perhaps, less than *that.*

Indefinite Pronouns

141. Consider the following sentences:

One hardly knows what to do.
One does not like to say so, but it is only too true.
One cannot be too careful of *one's* (not, his) good name.
One must not boast of *one's* own success.
One must use *one's* best efforts if one wishes to succeed.
One must not praise *one's self.*
None of his poems are well known.
None but fools have ever believed it.
[*None* is a shortened form of *not one;* yet it is commonly used with plural verbs.]
They (= people in general) say he has lost heavily.
They say that one of the local banks has stopped payment. [They say = it is said by some persons.]
All were drowned.
Some are born great.
Some say he is a sharper.
Somebody has stolen my watch.
Nobody was there to rescue the child.
Few escaped unhurt.
Many of them were Gurkhas.
We did not see *any* of them again.
One or *other* of us will be there.
Do good to *others.*
Did you ask *anybody* to come ?
What is *everybody's* business is *nobody's* business.
His words are in *everyone's* mouth.

All these Pronouns in italics refer to persons or things in a *general* way, but do not refer to any person or thing in particular. They are, therefore, called **Indefinite Pronouns.**

142. Most of these words may also be used as Adjectives.

I will take you there *one* day.
Any fool can do that.
He is a man of *few* words.
Some milk was spilt.

143. In referring to *anybody, everybody, everyone, anyone, each* etc., the pronoun *he* or *she* is used according to the context; as,
I shall be glad to help *everyone* of my boys in *his* studies.

Note that today it is more usual to use a plural pronoun (*they/them/their*) except in very formal English.
Anybody can do it if *they* try.
Each of them had *their* share.

Distributive Pronouns

144. Consider the following sentences:
Each of the boys gets a prize.
Each took it in turn.
Either of these roads leads to the railway station.
Either of you can go.
Neither of the accusations is true.

Each, either, neither are called **Distributive Pronouns** because they refer to persons or things *one at a time.* For this reason they are always *singular* and as such followed by the verb in the *singular.*

Note—*Each* is used to denote every one of a number of persons or things taken singly.

Either means the one or the other of two.

Neither means not the one nor the other of two. It is the negative of *either*.

Hence *either* and *neither* should be used only in speaking of *two* persons or things. When *more than two* are spoken of, *any, no one, none* should be used.

145. The position of the pronoun *each* should be noticed. It may have three positions.
   1. *Each* of the men received a reward.
      Each of these horses cost five thousand rupees.
      I bought *each* of these mangoes for three rupees.
   2. These men received *each* a reward.
      These horses cost *each* five thousand rupees.
   3. These horses cost five thousand rupees *each.*
      I bought these mangoes for three rupees *each.*

   The third order is usual after a numeral. We do not say, 'The men received a reward each'; but we say, 'The men received five hundred rupees each'.

146. In the following sentences, *each, either* and *neither* are used as Adjectives; they are followed by nouns of the *singular* number.
   Each boy took his turn. *Neither* accusation is true.
   At *either* end was a marble statue. (Here *either* = *each* or *both.)*

147. Study the following sentences.
   1. The two men hate *each other.*
   2. They cheated one another.

   If we analyse them, they mean—
   1. The two men hate, *each* hates the *other.*
   2. They cheated, *one* cheated *another.*

   Each and *one* really belong to the subject, *other* and *another* are objects. But *each other* and *one another* have become in practice compound pronouns (called **Reciprocal Pronouns)** and are rarely separated even by a preposition. Thus we say :
   The brothers quarrelled *with each other.*
   They all gave evidence *against one another.*

Note — The one-time rule that *each other* should be used in speaking of two persons or things, *one another* in speaking of more than two is no longer strictly observed. 'The three brothers quarrelled with *each other'* is now accepted as idiomatic.

Chapter 18 RELATIVE PRONOUNS

148. Read the following pairs of sentences.

   1. I met Hari. Hari had just returned.
   2. I have found the pen. I had lost the pen.
   3. Here is the book. You lent me the book.

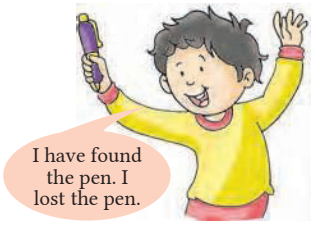

   Let us now combine each of the above pairs into one sentence. Thus:
   1. I met Hari *who* had just returned.
   2. I have found the pen *which* I had lost.
   3. Here is the book *that* you lent me.

   Now let us examine the work done by each of the words, *who, which* and *that.*

The word *who* is used instead of the noun *Hari.* It, therefore, does the work of a Pronoun.
The word *who* joins or connects two statements. It, therefore, does the work of a Conjunction.
The word *who,* therefore, does double work—the work of a Pronoun and also the work of a Conjunction.
We might, therefore, call it a Conjunctive Pronoun.
It is, however, called a **Relative Pronoun** because it *refers* or *relates* (*i.e.*, carries us back) to some noun going before (here, the noun *Hari*), which is called its **Antecedent.**
Let the pupil show why *which* and *that* are also Relative Pronouns in the second and third sentences.
What is the Antecedent of *which* in the second sentence ?
What is the Antecedent of *that* in the third sentence ?

Forms of the Relative Pronouns

149. The Relative Pronoun *who* has different forms for Accusative and Genitive.

Singular and Plural

Nominative	:	who
Genitive	:	whose
Accusative	:	whom/who*

This is the boy (or girl) *who* works hard.
This is the boy (or girl) *whose* exercise is done well.
This is the boy (or girl) *whom / who* all praise.
These are the boys (or girls) *who* work hard.
These are the boys (or girls) *whose* exercises are done well.
These are the boys (or girls) *whom / who* all praise.

This is the boy whom all praise.

It will be noticed that the forms are the same for singular and plural, masculine and feminine.

150. The Relative Pronoun *which* has the same form for the Nominative and Accusative cases.
This is the house *which* belongs to my uncle.
The house *which* my uncle built cost him Rs. 3,50,000.

The Relative Pronoun *which* has no Genitive Case, but *whose* is used as a substitute for 'of which' ; as,
A triangle *whose* three sides are equal is called an equilateral triangle.

151. The Relative Pronoun *that* has the same form in the Singular and Plural, and in the Nominative and Accusative. It has no Genitive case.
He *that* is content is rich.
They *that* touch pitch will be defiled.
Take anything *that* you like.

152. The Relative Pronoun *what* is used only in the Singular, and has the same form in the Nominative and Accusative.
What has happened is not clear.
I say *what* I mean.
He failed in *what* he attempted.

Use of the Relative Pronouns

153. As a general rule, *who* is used for *persons* only. It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun.
The man *who* is honest is trusted.
Blessed is he *who* has found his work.
He prayeth best *who* loveth best.
He *who* hesitates is lost.
They never fail *who* die in a great cause.

* *Who* replaces *whom* in informal English.

They are slaves *who* dare not be
In the right with two or three.

Who is sometimes used in referring to animals.

Whose (the Possessive form of *who*) is used in speaking of persons, animals and also things without life (see § 150); as,

The sun, *whose* rays give life to the earth, is regarded by some people as a god.

This is the question *whose* solution has baffled philosophers of all ages.

[More properly, 'This is the question the solution *of which* has baffled philosophers of all ages'.]

154. *Which* is used for *things without life* and for *animals.* It may refer to a Singular or Plural Noun.

The moment *which* is lost is lost for ever.
The books *which* help you most are those which make you think most.
The horse *which* I recently bought is an Arab.

Which was sometimes formerly used to refer to persons ; as,
Our Father, *which* art in heaven.

Which may also refer to a sentence ; as,
The man was said to be drunk, *which* was not the case.
He said he saw me there, *which* was a lie.
He is here, *which* is fortunate.

Note—The Relative Pronouns *who* and *which* can be used—

(i) To restrict, limit, or define more clearly the antecedent ; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is **restrictive** or **defining ;** as,
The man *who* had cheated me was yesterday arrested by the police.
The book *which* you see on the table cost me ninety rupees.

(ii) To give some additional information about the antecedent ; that is, where the clause introduced by a relative pronoun is **continuative** or **non-defining ;** as,

The teacher sent for the boy, *who* (= and he) came at once.
I gave him a rupee, *which* (= and it) was all I had with me.

Note—That non-defining clauses are separated from the main clause by commas.

Compare:
My brother who is a doctor has gone to America.
My brother, who is a doctor, has gone to America.

The first sentence implies that the speaker has several brothers, and the clause *who is a doctor* distinguishes a particular one of them. In the second, the clause does not define and the implication is that the speaker has only one brother.

155. *That* is used for *persons* and *things.* It may refer to a Singular or a Plural Noun. (See § 151)

That has no genitive case and it is never used with a preposition preceding.

This is the boy *that* I told you of.
I know the house *that* he lives *in.*
Uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown.
I have lost the watch *that* you gave me.
Thrice is he armed *that* hath his quarrel just.
A city *that* is set on a hill cannot be hid.
He *that* is not with me is against me.
Happy is the man *that* findeth wisdom.
He *that* is slow to anger is better than the mighty.
The crowd *that* gathered cheered him to the echo.

Who *that* has met him can escape his influence ?
All *that* I said had no effect on him.
He was the most eloquent speaker *that* I ever heard.

It will be noticed that the relative pronoun *that* is used only in defining clauses, *i.e.*, clauses that restrict, limit, or define the antecedent.

156. *That* may be used as an adverbial accusative = *on which, in which, at which ;* as,
I remember the day *that* he came.
On the day *that* thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die.

157. As the Relative Pronoun *that* has a restrictive force it sometimes becomes unsuitable as the substitute for *who* or *which.* Thus I cannot say—
My father *that* is a schoolmaster is fifty years old.

I must say—
My father, *who* is a schoolmaster, is fifty years old.

But if I happen to have more than one sister, I can say—
My sister *that* has been adopted by my uncle is ill.

158. The Relative Pronoun *that* is used in preference to *who* or *which*—

(1) After Adjectives in the Superlative Degree ; as,
He was the most eloquent speaker *that* I ever heard.
The wisest man *that* ever lived made mistakes.
This is the best *that* we can do.

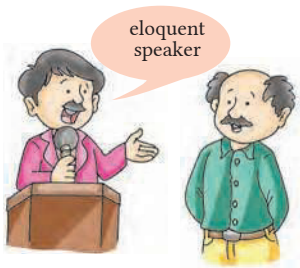

(2) After the words *all, same, any, none, nothing, (the) only ;* as,
All is not gold *that* glitters.
He is the same man *that* he has been.
It is only donkeys *that* bray.
It was not for nothing *that* he studied philosophy.
Man is the only animal *that* can talk.

(3) After the Interrogative Pronouns *who, what* ; as,
Who *that* saw her did not pity her ?
Who am I *that* I should object ?
What is it *that* troubles you so much ?
What is there *that* I do not know ?

(4) After two antecedents, one denoting a *person* and the other denoting an *animal* or a *thing ;* as,
The boy and his dog *that* had trespassed on the club premises were turned out.

159. *What* refers to *things* only. It is used without an antecedent expressed, and is equivalent to *that which* (or the *thing which*).
What (= that which) cannot be cured must be endured.
I say *what* (= that which) I mean.
I mean *what* I say.
What is done cannot be undone.
What man has done man can do.
What is one man's meat is another man's poison.

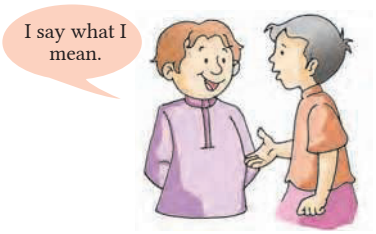

Give careful heed to *what* I say.
What I have written, I have written.
He found *what* he was looking for.

It will be noticed that *what* is used in the Nominative and Accusative singular only.

160. In older English, the word *as* was used as a relative pronoun after *such*; as,
Tears *such as* angels weep burst forth.
These mangoes are not *such as* I bought yesterday.
He is *such* a man *as* I honour.
We have never had *such* a time *as* the present.

His answer was *such as* I expected him to give.

The word *as* can be used as a Relative Pronoun after *same*; as,

My trouble is *the same as* yours [is].
This is not *the same as* that [is].
[But] I played with *the same* bat *that* you did.

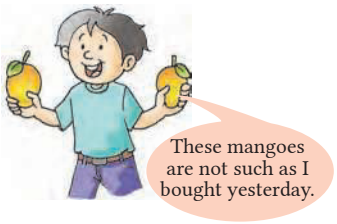

'The same as' usually means 'of the same kind'.
'The same...that' means 'one and the same'.

The word *as* is also used as a Relative Pronoun after *as* followed by an adjective ; as,

I collected *as* many specimens *as* I could find.

Note—The first *as* here is an Adverb.

161. In older English, the word *but* was used as a relative pronoun after a negative; it often had the force of a relative pronoun.

There is none *but* will agree with me. (*but* will agree = *who* will *not* agree)
There is no Hindu *but* knows the story of the Ramayana. (That is, there is no Hindu who does not know, etc.)
There is no man *but* wishes to live.
There is no rose *but* has some thorn. (*but* = which...no)
There is scarcely a child *but* likes candy.
There is no man *but* knows these things. (*but* = who does not)

It will be seen that the pronoun *but* is here equivalent to *who...not, which...not.*

Omission of the Relative Pronoun

162. The Relative Pronoun is generally omitted when it would be in the accusative case ; as,

Few and short were the prayers ^ we said.
A contented mind is the greatest blessing ^ a man can enjoy in the world.
I am monarch of all ^ I survey.
Men must reap the things ^ they sow.

"*That* is used preferably with reference to persons. Thus, we tend to say 'the meeting *which* I attended yesterday,' rather than 'the meeting *that* I attended yesterday.' But more frequently still do we say 'the meeting I attended yesterday,' the Accusative Relative being as a rule omitted altogether."—*Onions.*

This tendency to omit the Accussative Relative is more marked in the spoken language. In the written language its omission is often felt to be undignified.

163. In the following examples from poetry a Relative Pronoun in the nominative case is omitted.

"Tis distance ^ lends enchantment to the view."

"I have a brother ^ is condemned to die."

Note— The omission of a Relative Pronoun in the nominative case is now quite exceptional except in colloquial speech.

There's somebody at the door ^ wants to see you.

Omission of the Antecedent

164. In older English, the Antecedent of a Relative Pronoun was sometimes left out ; as,

Who works not shall not eat.
= (He) who works not shall not eat.
Whom the gods love, die young.
= (Those) whom the gods love die young.
Who steals my purse, steals trash.
Who laughs last, laughs best.
Who has lost all hope has also lost all fear.
Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever.

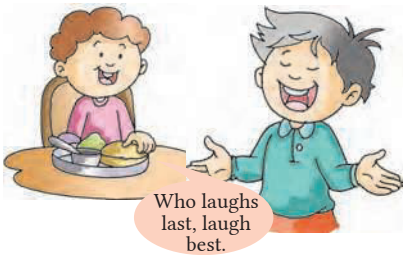

Agreement of the Relative Pronoun and its Antecedent

165. As the Relative Pronoun refers to a Noun or Pronoun (called its Antecedent) it must be of the same *number* and *person* as its Antecedent. [Remember that the verb shows the number and person of the Relative Pronoun.]

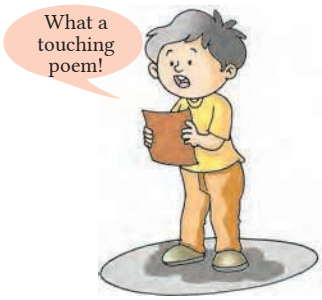

The *boy who was* lazy was punished.
The *boys who were* lazy were punished.
I, who am your king, will lead you.
I am the *person that is* to blame.
We who seek your protection, are strangers here.
O thou that leadest Israel !
You who are mighty, should be merciful.
You who seek wisdom, should be humble.
He that is not with me is against me.
He that is down, needs fear no fall.
He that eats till he is sick must fast till he is well.
They who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
They who seek only for faults see nothing else.
The *flowers which grow* in our gardens are not for sale.
This is the only *one* of his poems *that* is worth reading.
[= Of his poems this is the only one that is worth reading.]

But the *case* of the Relative Pronoun depends upon its relation to the verb in the clause in which it occurs.

Rama is the boy *who* did it.
Rama is the boy *whom* I want.
Rama is the boy *whose* pencil I have.
Rama is the boy to *whom* I spoke.
He *whom* we worship, by *whose* gift we live, is the Lord.

Position of the Relative Pronoun

166. To prevent ambiguity, the Relative Pronoun should be placed as near as possible to its Antecedent ; as,
The *boy who won* the first prize in English is the son of my friend, Mr Joshi.

It would mean something quite different if we separate the Relative Pronoun from its Antecedent and say:
The boy is the son of my friend Mr Joshi who won the first prize.

Again such a sentence as "I have read Gokhale's speeches, who was a disciple of Ranade" would be improved if changed to "I have read the speeches of Gokhale, who was a disciple of Ranade".
So also the following sentence requires to be rearranged.
I with my family reside in a village near Pune which consists of my wife and three children.

Compound Relative Pronouns

167. Pronouns formed by adding *ever, so,* or *soever* to *who, which* and *what* are called **Compound Relative Pronouns.** They are:
whoever, whoso, whosoever; whichever ; whatever, whatsoever.

These Relatives have no antecedent expressed.
Whosoever (= any and every person who) exalteth himself shall by abased.
Whoso diggeth a pit shall fall therein.
Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.

168. The forms *whoever, whichever,* and *whatever* are now ordinarily used ; as,
Whoever (*i.e.,* any person who) comes is welcome.
Take *whichever* (*i.e.,* any which) you like.
I will take with me *whomsoever* you choose.
Whatever (*i.e,* anything which) he does, he does well.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 29

Name the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences, tell the case of each, and mention its antecedent.

1. The pen that you gave me is a very good one.
2. The answer which you gave is not right.
3. I know the woman whose child was hurt.
4. Bring me the letters which the postman left.
5. This is the house that Jack built.
6. Hari saw the man who had been hurt.
7. We met the sailors whose ship was wrecked.
8. Here are the books which I found.
9. The cat killed the rat that ate the corn.
10. Bring me the books which lie on the table.
11. Here is the book that you lent me.
12. I hate children who are cruel.
13. Show me the knife that you have bought.
14. He has not brought the knife that I asked for.
15. Dogs soon know the persons by whom they are kindly treated.
16. This is the juggler whom we saw yesterday.
17. They that seek wisdom will be wise.

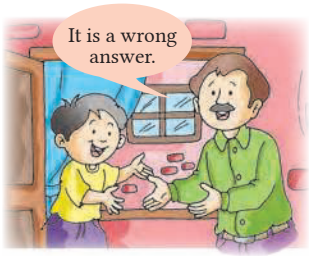

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 30

Fill the blanks with suitable Relative Pronouns.

1. We always like boys ____ speak the truth.
2. We saw the dog ____ worried the cat.
3. He ____ does his best shall be praised.
4. I know ____ you mean.
5. She has gone to Chennai, ____ is her birthplace.
6. I have seen the bird ____ you describe.
7. I do not know the man ____ hit the boy.
8. He gave away ____ he did not need.
9. There is no one ____ has not lost a friend.
10. Here is the pen ____ you lost.
11. Most people get ____ they deserve.
12. Time ____ is lost is never found again.
13. I did not know the person ____ called.
14. He is a man ____ you can trust.
15. Where is the book ____ I gave you ?
16. Is this the street ____ leads to the station ?
17. The letter ____ you wrote never arrived.
18. Listen to ____ I say.
19. He ____ is merciful shall meet mercy.
20. Did you receive the letter ____ I sent yesterday ?
21. ____ I have said, I have said.
22. ____ he was I could never find out.
23. ____ do you believe him to be ?
24. Do you know____has happened ?
25. ____is done cannot be undone.
26. Do the same ____I do.
27. For my purpose I need such a man ____he is.
28. God helps those ____help themselves.
29. No man can lose ____he never had.
30. You should not imitate such a boy ____he.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 31

Fill the blanks with suitable Relative Pronouns.

1. That man ____will not work must starve.
2. Such a man ____he should be honoured.
3. These mangoes are not such ____I bought yesterday.
4. It is not such a pretty place ____I had expected.
5. We have need of more such men ____he.
6. He plays the game ____he likes best.
7. I do not believe ____you say.
8. My uncle, ____I loved, is dead.
9. The farmer is cutting the corn ____has ripened.
10. ____you say is not true.
11. A lady ____I know nursed the child.
12. He says ____he means, and means ____ he says.
13. ____pleases you will please me.
14. I gave it to the man ____I saw there.

15. I know ____you are seeking.
16. They ____touch pitch will be defiled.
17. You have not brought the book ____I asked for.
18. Only he ____bears the burden knows its weight.
19. Such books ____you read are not worth reading.
20. When you speak to him remember to ____you are speaking.
21. I regard that man as lost ____has lost his sense of shame.
22. Wealth is not his ____has it, but his ____enjoys it.
23. People ____are too sharp cut their own fingers.
24. Truth provokes those ____it does not convert.
25. We do not know ____he intends to do.
26. It is an ill wind ____blows nobody good.
27. Is this a dagger ____I see before me ?
28. I know to ____you are alluding.
29. ____the gods would destroy they first make mad.
30. He is the very man ____we want.
31. Please recite ____you have learned.
32. They always talk ____never think.
33. Such ____have pure hearts shall inherit the kingdom of heaven.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 32

Join together each of the following pairs of sentences by means of a Connective.

1. I know a man. The man has been to Iceland.
2. The thief stole the watch. The thief was punished.
3. Show the road. The road leads to Delhi.
4. Here is the doctor. The doctor cured me of malaria.
5. I met a boy. He was very cruel.
6. He does his best. He should be praised.
7. The man is honest. The man is trusted.
8. My father is dead. I loved my father.
9. The teacher sent for the boy. The boy came at once.
10. Wellington was a great general. He defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo.
11. The dog bit the burglar. The burglar had broken into the house.
12. Once upon a time there lived a giant. The giant was very powerful and cruel.
13. We met a girl. The girl had lost her way.
14. Kalidas is famous. He wrote some fine dramas.
15. He is a rogue. No one trusts him.
16. The child is dead. The child came here yesterday.
17. The child is dead. I saw the child yesterday.
18. I know the man. He stole the bicycle.
19. The man stole the bicycle. He has been arrested.
20. I have found the umbrella. I lost it.
21. I saw a soldier. He had lost an arm.
22. This is the path. He came by this path.
23. The horse was lame. We saw the horse.
24. Those boys were kept in. They had been very lazy.
25. I saw a girl. She was singing.
26. That boy bowls very well. You see him there.
27. Here is the book. You were asking for the book.
28. Here is the pencil. You lost it yesterday.
29. The man is deaf. You spoke to the man.
30. Coal is found in West Bengal. It is a very useful mineral.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 33

Join together each of the following pairs of sentences by means of a Connective.

1. This is the building. It was built in a single month.
2. The letter reached me this morning. You sent the letter.
3. Karim is always idle. He was punished.
4. I met my uncle. He had just arrived.
5. This is the house. Jack built it.
6. The boy is my cousin. You see him there.
7. The ladies have arrived. I was speaking of them.
8. The boys clapped heartily. They were watching the match.
9. The boy tells lies. He deserves to be punished.
10. I heard a song. The song pleased me.
11. I heard some news. The news astonished me.
12. I know a man. The man has a wooden leg.
13. Here is a book. The book contains pictures.
14. Give me the ruler. The ruler is on the desk.
15. The bicycle is a new one. Hari rode it.
16. We got into a bus. It was full of people.
17. He has a friend. He is a clever artist.
18. He is a well-known man. His generosity is the talk of the town.
19. The cat caught the mouse. The cat was pursuing the mouse.
20. Can I borrow the book ? You are reading it.
21. The boy was very proud. He had won the first prize.
22. Little Red Riding Hood went to visit her grandmother. Her grandmother was ill in bed.
23. This is my cousin. I was speaking of him.
24. We all despise a cowardly boy. He is one.
25. This is the cat. It killed the rat.
26. Those grapes were very sweet. You brought them.
27. Hari spoke to the soldier. The soldier's arm was in a sling.
28. The captain praised Balu. Balu's bowling was very good.
29. A man came running up. He heard me calling.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 34

Split each of the following sentences into two.

1. The boys gave a loud shout, which was heard across the river.
2. Bring me the book that is on the table.
3. It was a wretched hut in which she lived.
4. The boy who fell off his bicycle has hurt his leg.
5. The elephant that was sick died.
6. The farmer is cutting the corn which has ripened.
7. Napoleon, whom the French honour, died at St. Helena.
8. The crow dropped the cheese, which the fox immediately snapped up.
9. John, who is my cousin, is a diligent boy.
10. Where is the parcel that I left here yesterday ?
11. I have found the book which I lost.
12. We visited Cox's Bazar, which is the most attractive spot in Bangladesh.
13. The boy whom you see there made the top score in the last match.
14. Dadabhai Naoroji, who was the first Indian to enter the British Parliament, was a Parsee.
15. He is a poet whose works are widely known.
16. The Taj Mahal, which was built by Shah Jahan, is the finest mausoleum in the world.
17. Last year we visited the Moti Masjid, which is a mosque of great architectural beauty.
18. The meeting, which was held in the Town Hall, was a great success.
19. The rope, which was old, snapped.
20. The task which you have to do is easy.
21. People who live in glass houses must not throw stones.

Chapter 19 INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

169. Consider the following sentences.

Who is there ? *Who* are you ?
About *whom* are you talking?/*Who* are you talking about?
Whom do you want ?/*Who* do you want?
Whose is this book ?
Which is the house ?

Which do you prefer, tea or coffee ?
What is the matter ?
What do you want ?
What will all the neighbours say ?

It will be noticed that the Pronouns in italics are similar in form to Relative Pronouns. But the work which they do is different. They are here used for *asking questions,* and are, therefore, called **Interrogative Pronouns.**

170. In the following sentences the Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking *indirect* questions.

I asked *who* was speaking.
I do not know *who* is there.
Tell me *what* you have done.
Ask *what* he wants.
Say *which* you would like best.

171. Again consider the following sentences.

Who gave you that knife ?	(Nominative)
Whose is this book ?	(Possessive)
Whom did you see?/*Who* did you see?	(Accusative)
To *whom* were you speaking?/*Who* were you speaking to?	(Accusative)
What is that ?	(Nominative)
What do you want ?	(Accusative)
Which is he ?	(Nominative)
Which do you prefer ?	(Accusative)

Nominative :	who	Masc. and Fem.
Possessive :	whose	Singular and Plural.
Accusative :	whom/who	

Today the accusative *who* is more usual than *whom*, especially in spoken English.

What and *which* do not have different forms for different cases.

172. *Who* is used of *persons* only.

Who spoke ? (We expect the answer to be the name of a person.)
Who goes there ? *Who* made the top score ?
Who is knocking at the door ? *Who* says so ?
Whose is this umbrella ? *Whom* did you see ?

173. *Which* is used of both *persons* and *things.* It implies selection, that is, it implies a question concerning a limited number.

Which is your friend ? *Which* are your books ?
Which of the boys saw him ?
Which of you has done this ?
Which of these books is yours ?
Which of the pictures do you like best ?
Which of you by taking thought can add one cubit unto his stature ?
Which will you take ?

174. *What* is used of *things* only.

What have you found ? (We expect the answer to be the name of a thing.)
What do you want ? *What* did you say ?
What was it all about ?
What is sweeter than honey ?
What are those marks on your coat ?

175. In such expressions as, 'What are you ?', 'What is he ?', 'What is this man ?' the word *what* does not refer to the person but to his *profession* or *employment**.

What are you ? ____I am a doctor.
What is he ? ____He is an engineer.

An engineer

* Today it is more usual to say 'What do you do?', 'What does he do?' etc.

But—

Who is he ? (= What is his name and family ?) —He is Mr K P Roy.

176. In the following sentences *which* and *what* are used as Interrogative Adjectives.

Which book are your reading ?

Which way shall we go ?

What books have you read ?

What pranks are you playing ?

What manner of man is this, that even the wind and the sea obey him ?

177. In the following sentences the words in italics are used as **Compound Interrogative Pronouns.**

Whoever told you so ?

Whatever are you doing ?

Note—The forms *whoever, whichever, whatever* are intensive.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 35

Use the correct form of the Interrogative Pronoun in the following.

1. ____wishes to see you ?
2. ____do you wish to see ?
3. ____did she say was the winner ?
4. ____did he invite ?
5. ____shall I give this to ?
6. ____do men say that I am ?
7. ____do you believe did this ?
8. About ____are you speaking ?
9. ____did you see ?
10. ____do you mean ?
11. To ____did you give the key ?
12. ____of the girls can sew the best ?
13. By ____was the book written ?
14. ____are you seeking ?
15. ____of you has done this ?
16. ____have you seen ?
17. ____of our dogs is ill ?
18. ____do you think they are ?
19. ____do you think I am ?
20. ____did you find there ?
21. ____was that speaking to you ?
22. ____came here yesterday ?
23. ____do you consider in the right ?
24. ____, do you consider, is right ?
25. ____did you speak to ?
26. ____is life worth ?
27. ____of these bats will you take ?
28. ____ did he say ?
29 ____is that for ?
30. ____have you decided to do ?
31. ____stole the bird's nest ?
32. ____do you prefer ?
33. ____are you doing ?
34. ____has my book ?
35. ____ is an Island ?
36. ____is your book ?
37. ____do you want ?
38. With ____were you talking ?
39. ____did they fight each other for ?
40. ____is better, honour or riches ?
41. ____am I speaking to, please ?

178. A Pronoun used as an *exclamation* is called an **Exclamatory Pronoun** ; as,

What ! Still here ! I thought you had gone home long ago.

What ! You don't know Rama ?

Chapter 20 THE VERB: TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

179. A **Verb** is a word that *tells* or *asserts* something about a person or thing. *Verb* comes from the Latin *verbum,* a *word.* It is so called because it is the most important word in a sentence.

A Verb may tell us—

(1) What a person or thing *does* ; as,

Hari *laughs.* The clock *strikes.*

(2) What *is done* to a person or thing ; as,

Hari is *scolded.* The window *is broken.*

(3) What a person or thing *is ;* as,

The cat *is dead.* Glass *is* brittle. I *feel* sorry.

Hari laughs

Def —A Verb is a word used to tell or assert something about some person or thing.

180. A Verb often consists of more than one word; as,

The girls were *singing.*

I *have learnt* my lesson.

The watch *has been found.*

181. Read these sentences.

1. The boy *kicks* the football.
2. The boy *laughs* loudly.

In sentence 1, the action denoted by the verb *kicks passes over* from the doer or subject *boy* to some Object *football.* The verb *kicks* is, therefore, called a **Transitive Verb.** *(Transitive* means *passing over.)*

In sentence 2, the action denoted by the verb *laughs* stops with the doer or Subject *boy* and *does not pass over* to an Object. The verb *laughs* is, therefore, called an **Intransitive Verb**. *(Intransitive* means *not passing over.)*

Def —A Transitive Verb is a Verb that denotes an action which *passes over* from the doer or Subject to an Object.

Def —An Intransitive Verb is a Verb that denotes an action which does not pass over to an object, or which expresses a *state* or *being ;* as,

He *ran* a long distance. (*Action*)

The baby *sleeps.* (*State*)

There *is* a flaw in this diamond. (*Being*)

Note—Intransitive Verbs expressing being take the same cases after them as before them.

182. Most Transitive Verbs take a single object. But such Transitive Verbs as *give, ask, offer, promise, tell,* etc., take *two* objects after them—an Indirect Object which denotes the *person to whom* something is given or *for whom* something is done, and a Direct Object which is usually the name of some *thing;* as,

His father gave *him* (Indirect) a *watch* (Direct).

He told *me* (Indirect) a *secret* (Direct).

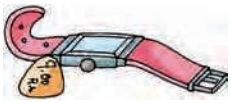

183. Most verbs can be used both as Transitive and as Intransitive verbs. It is, therefore, better to say that a verb is *used* Transitively or Intransitively rather than that it *is* Transitive or Intransitive.

Used Intransitively Feminine

1. Some ants fight very fiercely.
2. The ship sank rapidly.
3. The bell rang loudly.
4. The train stopped suddenly.
5. He spoke haughtily.
6. This horse never kicks.
7. How do you feel ?

Used Transitively Feminine

1. The ants fought the wasps.
2. The shot sank the ship.
3. Ring the bell, Rama.
4. The driver stopped the train.
5. He spoke the truth.
6. The horse kicked the man.
7. I feel a severe pain in my head.

Note— Some Verbs, e.g., *come, go, fall, die, sleep, lie,* denote actions which cannot be done to anything ; they can, therefore, never be used Transitively.

184. In such a sentence as 'The man killed himself ' where the Subject and the Object both refer to the same person, the verb is said to be used *reflexively.*

Sometimes, though the verb is used reflexively, the Object is not expressed. In the following examples the reflexive pronoun understood is put in brackets:

The bubble burst [itself].
The guests made [themselves] merry.
Please keep [yourselves] quiet.
With these words he turned [himself] to the door.
The Japanese feed [themselves] chiefly on rice.

These verbs may, however, be regarded as pure Intransitives without any reflexive force whatever.

185. Certain verbs can be used reflexively and also as ordinary transitive verbs ; as,

Do not *forget* his name.
I *forget* his name.
Acquit yourself as man.
The magistrate *acquitted* him of the charge against him.
I *enjoy myself* sitting alone.
He *enjoys* good health.
He *interested himself* in his friend's welfare.
His talk does not *interest* me.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 36

Name the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell in each case whether the Verb is Transitive or Intransitive. Where the Verb is Transitive name the Object.

1. The sun shines brightly.
2. The boy cut his hand with a knife.
3. The clock stopped this morning.
4. The policeman blew his whistle.
5. The sun rises in the east.
6. An old beggar stood by the gate.
7. The clock ticks all day long.
8. I looked down from my window.
9. Put away your books.
10. The moon rose early.
11. The cat sleeps on the rug.
12. Cocks crow in the morning.
13. Your book lies on the table.
14. The fire burns dimly.
15. Time changes all things.
16. We eat three times a day.
17. Tell the truth.
18. The birds sing in the green trees.
19. The little bird hopped about and sang.
20. My new watch does not keep good time.
21. The beggar sat down by the side of the road.
22. I could not spare the time.
23. He took shelter under a tree.
24. The boy easily lifted the heavy weight.
25. Balu wrote a letter to his uncle.
26. A tiny bird lived under the caves.
27. I know a funny little man.
28. Birds fly in the air.
29. A light rain fell last night.
30. I shall bring my camera with me.
31. You speak too loudly.
32. The dog ran after me.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 37

Write five sentences containing Transitive Verbs, and five containing Intransitive Verbs.

Intransitive Verbs Used as Transitives

186. When an Intransitive Verb is used in a *causative* sense it becomes Transitive.

1. The horse *walks.*	1. He *walks* the horse.
2. The girl *ran* down the street.	2. The girl *ran* a needle into her finger (*ran* a needle = *caused* a needle to run).
3. Birds fly.	3. The boys *fly* their kites (*i.e., cause* their kites to fly).

187. A few verbs in common use are distinguished as Transitive or Intransitive by their spelling, the Transitive being causative *forms* of the corresponding Intransitive verbs.

Intransitive	***Transitive***
1. Many trees *fall* in the monsoon.	1. Woodmen *fell* trees. (Fell = cause to fall)
2. *Lie* still.	2. *Lay* the basket there. (Lay = cause to lie)
3. *Rise* early with the lark.	3. *Raise* your hands. (Raise = cause to rise)
4. *Sit* there.	4 *Set* the lamp on the table. (Set = cause to sit)

188. Some Intransitive Verbs may become Transitive by having a Preposition added to them ; as,

All his friends *laughed at* (= derided) him.
He will soon *run through* (= consume) his forture.
Please *look into* (= investigate) the matter carefully.
We *talked about* (= discussed) the affair several times.
I *wish for* (= desire) nothing more.
The Police Inspector *asked for* (= demanded) his name.

Sometimes the Preposition is *prefixed* to the Verb ; as,

Shivaji *over*came the enemy.
He bravely *with*stood *the attack.*
The river *over*flows its banks.

189. Intransitive Verbs sometimes take after them an Object *akin* or *similar in meaning* to the Verb. Such an Object is called the **Cognate Object** or **Cognate Accusative.** (Latin *Cognatus,* akin)

I have *fought* a good *fight.*
He *laughed* a hearty *laugh.*
I *dreamt* a strange *dream.*
He *sleeps* the *sleep* of the just.
Let me *die* the *death* of the righteous.
She *sighed* a deep *sigh.*
She *sang* a sweet *song.* He *ran* a *race.*
Aurangzeb *lived* the *life* of an ascetic.

The noun used as a Cognate Object is in the Accusative Case.

The following are examples of partially Cognate Objects:

He *ran* a great *risk* (= he ran a *course* of great risk).
The children *shouted applause* (= the children shouted a *shout* of applause).

190. A noun used adverbially to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb denoting *time, place, distance, weight, value* etc., is called an **Adverbial Object** or **Adverbial Accusative,** and is said to be in the Accusative Case adverbially ; as,

He held the post ten *years.*
I can't wait a *moment* longer.
He went *home.*
He swam a *mile.*
He weighs seven *stone.*
The watch cost nine hundred *rupees.*

191. There are a few Transitive Verbs which are sometimes used as Intransitive Verbs.

Transitive	***Intransitive***
1. He *broke* the glass.	1. The glass *broke.*

2. He *burnt* his fingers.
3. *Stop* him from going.
4. *Open* all the windows.

2. He *burnt* with shame.
3. We shall *stop* here a few days.
4. The show *opens* at six o'clock.

Chapter 21 VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION

192. Read the following sentences.
   1. The baby *sleeps.*
   2. The baby *seems* happy.

   The verbs in both these sentences are Intransitive.

   But when I say 'The baby sleeps' I do make complete sense.

   On the other hand if I say 'The baby seems' I do not make complete sense.

   The Intransitive Verb *seems* requires a word (*e.g., happy*) to make the sense complete. Such a verb is called a **Verb of Incomplete Predication.**

   The word *happy,* which is required to make the sense complete, is called the **Complement of the Verb** or the **Completion of the Predicate.**

193. Verbs of Incomplete Predication usually express the idea of *being, becoming, seeming, appearing*. The Complement usually consists of a Noun (called a **Predicative Noun**) or an Adjective (called a **Predicative Adjective**). When the Complement describes the Subject, as in the following sentences, it is called a **Subjective Complement.**

1. Tabby is a *cat.*
2. The earth is *round.*
3. John became a *soldier.*
4. Mr. Mehta became mayor.
5. The man seems *tired.*
6. You look *happy.*
7. The sky grew *dark.*
8. Roses smell *sweet.*
9. Sugar tastes *sweet.*
10. She appears *pleased.*
11. This house is to *let.*

Note— When the Subjective Complement is a Noun (as in 1, 3, 4) it is in the same case as the Subject, i.e., in the Nominative Case.

194. Certain Transitive Verbs require, besides an Object, a Complement to complete their predication ; as,

1. The boys made Rama *captain.*
2. His parents named him *Hari.*
3. This made him *vain.*
4. The jury found him *guilty.*
5. Rama called his cousin a *liar.*
6. Exercise has made his muscles *strong.*
7. I consider the man *trustworthy.*
8. God called the light *day.*
9. We thought him a *rascal.*
10. They chose him their *leader.*

Here, in each case, the Complement describes the *Object,* and is, therefore, called an **Objective Complement.**

Note— When the Objective Complement is a noun (as in 1, 2, 5, 8, 9, 10) it is in the Objective (or Accusative) Case in agreement with the object.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 38

Say whether the Verbs in the following sentences are Transitive or Intransitive, name the Object of each Transitive Verb, and the Complement of each Verb of Incomplete Predication.

1. The hungry lion roars.
2. The report proved false.
3. The boy stood on the burning deck.
4. The child had fallen sick.
5. The ass continued braying.
6. The wind is cold.
7. The results are out.
8. He tried again and again.
9. We see with our eyes.
10. The child fell asleep

11. The weather is hot.
12. They are Europeans.
13. The rumour seems true.
14. Owls hide in the daytime.
15. Bad boys hide their faults.
16. The poor woman went mad.
17. We waited patiently at the station.
18. He told a lie.
19. They elected him president.
20. I found her weeping.
21. He struck the man dead.
22. The crow flew down and stole the cheese.
23. The sky looks threatening.
24. They made him general.
25. He waited an hour.
26. New brooms sweep clean.

Chapter 22 ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

195. Compare:

1. Rama *helps* Hari.
2. Hari is *helped* by Rama.

It will be seen that these two sentences express the same meaning.

But in sentence 1, the form of the Verb shows that the person denoted by the subject **does** *something*.

Rama (the person denoted by the subject) does *something*.

The Verb *helps* is said to be in the Active Voice.

In sentence 2, the form of the Verb shows that something **is done to** the person denoted by the Subject.

Something is *done* to Hari (the person denoted by the Subject.)

The Verb *helped* is said to be in the **Passive Voice.**

Def—A verb is in the Active Voice when its form shows (as in sentence 1) that the person or thing denoted by the Subject *does something ;* or, in other words, is the *doer* of the action.

The Active Voice is so called because the person denoted by the Subject *acts.*

Def— A Verb is in the Passive Voice when its form shows (as in sentence 2) that *something is done to* the person or thing denoted by the Subject.

The Passive Voice is so called because the person or thing denoted by the Subject is not active but *passive,* that is, suffers or receives some action.

Def—Voice is that form of a Verb which shows whether what is denoted by the Subject *does something* or *has something done to it.*

Note the change from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice in the following sentences.

Active Voice	*Passive Voice*
1. Sita *loves* Savitri.	1. Savitri *is loved* by Sita.
2. The mason *is building* the wall.	2. The wall *is being built* by the mason.
3. The peon *opened* the gate.	3. The gate *was opened* by the peon.
4. Some boys *were helping* the wounded man.	4. The wounded man was being helped by some boys.
5. He *will finish* the work in a fortnight.	5. The work *will be finished* by him in a fortnight.
6. Who *did* this ?	6. By whom *was* this *done?*
7. Why *did* your brother *write* such a letter ?	7. Why *was* such a letter written by your brother ?

It will be noticed that when the Verb is changed from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice, the *Object* of the Transitive Verb in the *Active* Voice becomes the *Subject* of the Verb in the *Passive* Voice.

[Thus in sentence 1, *Savitri,* which is the object of *loves* in the Active Voice, becomes the Subject of *is loved in the Passive Voice.]*

Since the Object of a verb in the active voice becomes the Subject of the passive form, it follows that *only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Passive Voice,* because an Intransitive Verb has no Object.

196. The passive voice is formed with the suitable tense of the verb *be* followed by the past participle. Study this table.

Tense (or Modal + base)	*Active Voice*	*Passive Voice*
	take	am taken
Simple present	takes	is taken
	are taken	
	am taking	am being taken
Present continuous	is taking	is being taken
	are taking	are being taken
Present perfect	has taken	has been taken
	have taken	have been taken
Simple past	took	was taken
	were taken	
Past continuous	was taking	was being taken
	were taking	were being taken
Past perfect	had taken	had been taken
Simple future	will take	will be taken
	shall take	shall be taken
can/may/	can take	can be taken
must, etc. + base	must take	must be taken

197. Students must know when to use the Active Voice and when to use the Passive: the ability to change the Active Voice into the Passive and *vice versa* is not sufficient.

The Active Voice is used when the agent (*i.e.,* doer of the action) is to be made prominent ; the Passive, when the person or thing acted upon is to be made prominent. The Passive is, therefore, generally preferred when the active form would involve the use of an indefinite or vague pronoun or noun (*somebody, they, people, we,* etc.) as subject ; that is, when we do not know the agent or when it is clear enough who the agent is.

My pen has been stolen. (Somebody has stolen my pen.)
I was asked my name. (They asked me my name.)
English is spoken all over the world. (People speak English all over the world.)
I have been invited to the party. (Someone has invited me to the party.)
All orders will be executed promptly. (We will execute all orders promptly.)

In such cases the agent with *by* is usually avoided.

Note, however, that, as in the examples given earlier, the *by*-phrase cannot be avoided where the agent has some importance and is necessary to complete the sense.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 39

Name the Verbs in the following sentences, and tell whether they are in the Active or in the Passive Voice.

1. The cat killed the mouse.
2. We compelled the enemy to surrender.
3. The boy was bitten by a dog.
4. The thief was caught.
5. The boy made a kite.
6. The ship was burned.
7. The young man made a disturbance at the meeting.
8. The captive was bound to a tree.
9. The bird was killed by a cruel boy.
10. The sudden noise frightened the horse.
11. He is loved by all.
12. The exhibition was opened by the Governor.
13. I see a dark cloud.
14. His command was promptly obeyed.

15. Some of the cargo had been damaged by the sea water.
16. Nothing will be gained by hurry.
17. The dog chased the sheep.
18. This letter was posted last night.
19. The field is ploughed.
20. The dog was teased by the boy.
21. The cat drank all the milk.
22. A stone struck me on the head.
23. The old gentleman takes snuff.
24. The money was lost.
25. The letter has just been posted.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 40

Turn the following sentences from the Active Voice to the Passive Voice.

(Note—The agent with by should be omitted in Nos. 7, 12, 25, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35.)

1. The cat killed the mouse.
2. The man cut down the tree.
3. Columbus discovered America.
4. His teacher praised him.
5. The boy teased the dog.
6. The syce feeds the horse every day.
7. The police arrested him.
8. Rama was making a kite.
9. The boy caught the ball.
10. My father will write a letter.
11. I will conquer him.
12. He kept me waiting.
13. The hunter shot the lion.
14. Hari opened the door.
15. A policeman caught the thief.
16. Sohrab threw the ball.
17. He scored twenty runs.
18. Your behaviour vexes me.

19. Manners reveal character.
20. He made a very remarkable discovery.
21. Little strokes fell great oaks.
22. Dhondu will bring the pony.
23. Everyone loves him.
24. My cousin has drawn this picture.
25. We expect good news.
26. The farmer gathers the harvest.
27. His own brother swindled him.
28. The recitation pleased the inspector.
29. Somebody has put out the light.
30. The enemy have defeated our army.
31. They sell TVs here.
32. I have sold my bicycle.
33. People will soon forget it.
34. They opened the theatre only last month.
35. We prohibit smoking.

198. When verbs that take both a direct and an indirect object in the Active Voice are changed to the Passive, either object may become the subject of the Passive verb, while the other is *retained.*

Active	*Passive*
The guard refused him admittance.	Admittance was refused to him by the guard. He was refused admittance by the guard.
Mr. Krishnaji teaches us grammar.	Grammar is taught to us by Mr Krishnaji. We are taught grammar by Mr Krishnaji.
The manager will give you a ticket.	A ticket will be given to you by the manager. You will be given a ticket by the manager.
Who taught you French ?	By whom was French taught to you ? / Who were you taught French by? By whom were you taught French ?
He handed her a cheque.	A cheque was handed to her. She was handed a cheque.

An indirect object denotes the person to whom or for whom something is given or done, while a direct object usually denotes a thing. In cases like the above, it is probably more usual for passive constructions to begin with the person.

199. Note that we use *with* (not *by*) to talk about an instrument used by the agent. Compare :

The dog was hit *with* a stick. (Active Voice : Somebody hit the dog with a stick.)
The dog was hit *by* a boy. (Active Voice : A boy hit the dog.)

200. There are a few Transitive verbs which, even in an Active form, are sometimes used in a Passive sense ; as,

These mangoes *taste* sour (*i.e.*, are sour when they are tasted).
The rose *smells* sweet (*i.e.*, is sweet when it is smelt).
The cakes *eat* short and crisp (*i.e.*, are short and crisp when they are eaten).
At least the play *reads* well (*i.e.*, affects the reader well when it is read).

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 41

Change the following sentences so that the Verbs will be in the Passive Voice.

1. We saw you and him.
2. They asked me my name.
3. We refused them admission.
4. I bought the baby a doll.
5. They found him guilty of murder.
6. A thunderstorm often turns milk sour.
7. You cannot pump the ocean dry.
8. They saw the storm approaching.
9. He keeps me waiting.
10. They painted the house red.
11. He told me to leave the room.
12. He promised me a present.
13. I shall order the carriage.
14. The boy is climbing the cliff.
15. One may accomplish many things by a little effort.
16. I am watching you very carefully.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 42

Rewrite the following sentences so that the Verbs will be in the Active Voice.

1. He was praised by his father.
2. The first railway was built by George Stephenson.
3. The horse was frightened by the noise.
4. Not a word was spoken by Latif.
5. The teacher was pleased with the boy's work.
6. He was taken to the hospital by his friends.
7. The town was destroyed by an earthquake.
8. The road was lined with people.
9. The President was welcomed by the people.
10. *Shakuntalam* was written by Kalidas.
11. The building was damaged by the fire.
12. I was struck by his singular appearance.
13. Those cars were built by robots.
14. The streets were thronged with spectators.
15. The trees were blown down by the wind.
16. We shall be blamed by everyone.
17. The child was knocked down by a car.
18. Alice was not much surprised at this.
19. He will be greatly surprised if he is chosen.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 43

Write three sentences with the Verbs in the Active Voice, and rewrite them with the Verbs in the Passive Voice.

201. We give below further examples of the interchange of Active and Passive Voice.

Active — All his friends laughed at him.
Passive — He was laughed at by all his friends.
Active — They made him king.
Passive — He was made king.
Active — They use video for teaching the students.
Passive — Video is used for teaching the students.
Active — One should keep one's promises.
Passive — Promises should be kept.
Active — When will you return the book?
Passive — When will the book be returned?
Active — Someone has picked my pocket.
Passive — My pocket has been picked.
Active — Circumstances will oblige me to go.
Passive — I shall be obliged to go.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 44

In the following sentences change the Voice.

1. We elected Balu captain.
2. I saw him opening the box.
3. We must listen to his words.
4. Shall I ever forget those happy days ?
5. By whom was this jug broken ?
6. His subordinates accused him of various offences.
7. One cannot gather grapes from thistles.
8. The telegraph wires have been cut.
9. Alas ! We shall hear his voice no more.
10. The 1998 Asian Games were held in Bangkok, Thailand.
11. Without effort nothing can be gained.
12. Do not insult the weak.
13. All desire wealth and some acquire it.
14. Why should I be suspected by you ?
15. The information is kept on our computer.
16. The legend tells us how the castle received its name.
17. My watch was lost.
18. Why did he defraud you of your earnings ?
19. The public will learn with astonishment that war is imminent.
20. He made his wife do the work.
21. The teacher appointed him monitor.
22. The doctor despaired of his recovery.
23. He was refused admittance.
24. They laughed at his warnings and objected to all his proposals.
25. The people regarded him as an impostor and called him a villain.

Chapter 23 MOOD

202. The simplest use of a Verb is to make a *statement of fact* or ask a *question ;* as,

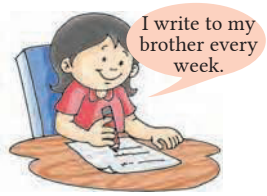

I *write* to my brother every week.
Who *wrote* that letter ?
But a Verb may also be used to express a *command ;* as,
Write neatly.
Or a Verb may be used to express a *mere supposition ;* as,
If I *were* you, I would not do it.
These different *modes* or *manners* in which a Verb may be used to express an action are called **Moods.** (Lat. *modus,* manner.)
Def.—Mood is the *mode* or *manner* in which the action denoted by the Verb is represented.

203. There are three Moods in English:
Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive.

Rama goes to school daily.

Indicative Mood

204. The Indicative Mood is used :
(1) To make a statement of *fact* ; as,
Rama *goes* to school daily.
We *are taught* Arithmetic.

He *writes* legibly.
Napoleon *died* at St. Helena.
The child *is* alive.

(2) To ask a question ; as,
Have you *found* your book ?
Are you well ?

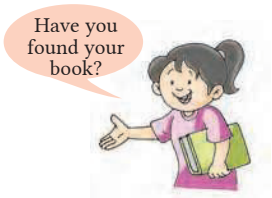

In each of these sentences the Verb in italics is said to be in the **Indicative Mood.**

205. The Indicative Mood is also used in expressing a supposition which is *assumed as a fact ;* as,
If [= assuming as a fact that] I *am* to be a beggar, it shall never make me a rascal.
If it *rains,* I shall stay at home. [Assuming as a fact that it will rain, etc.]
If my friend *wants* it, I shall give it to him. [Assuming as a fact that my friend wants it, etc.]
If he *is* the ring-leader, he deserves to be punished. [Assuming as a fact that he is the ring-leader, etc.]

A Verb which makes a *statement of fact* or asks a *question,* or expresses a *supposition which is assumed as a fact,* is in the Indicative Mood.

Imperative Mood

206. The Imperative Mood is used to express—

(1) A Command ; as,
Wait there.
Come here.
Open your book at page 7.

(2) An exhortation ; as,
Be steady.
Take care of your health.
Try to do better.

(3) An entreaty or prayer ; as,
Have mercy upon us.
Give us this day our daily bread.

In each of these sentences the Verb in italics is said to be in the **Imperative Mood.**

A Verb which expresses a *command,* an *exhortation,* an *entreaty* or *prayer,* is in the Imperative Mood.

Note 1—The Imperative mood can strictly be used only in the Second Person, since the person commanded must be the person spoken to. But in the First and Third Persons a like sense is expressed by the use of the Auxiliary Verb let ; as,

Let me go. Let us go. Let him go. Let them go.

Note 2—The Subject of a Verb in the Imperative Mood (you) is usually omitted.

Subjunctive Mood

207. The following are the forms of the Subjunctive.

Present Subjunctive		*Past Subjunctive*	
the verb 'be'	*other verbs*	*the verb 'be'*	*other verbs*
I be	I speak	I were	I spoke
We be	We speak	We were	We spoke
You be	You speak	You were	You spoke
He be	He speak	He were	He spoke
They be	They speak	They were	They spoke

The Subjunctive Mood scarcely exists in present-day English.

208. The Present Subjunctive occurs

(1) In certain traditional phrases, where it expresses a wish or hope ; as,

God bless you !
God save the King !
Heaven help us !

(2) In formal English, in a noun clause dependent on a verb expressing desire, intention, resolution, etc. ; as,

I move that Mr Gupta be appointed Chairman.
It is suggested that a ring road be built to relieve the congestion.
We recommended that the subscription be increased to ten rupees.

209. The Past Subjunctive is used

(1) After the verb *wish,* to indicate a situation which is unreal or contrary to fact ; as,

I wish I knew his name. (= I'm sorry I don't know his name.)
I wish I were a millionaire.
She wishes the car belonged to you.

(2) After *if,* to express improbability or unreality in the present ; as,

If I were you I should not do that (but I am not you, and never can be).
If we started now we would be in time (but we cannot start now).

(3) After *as if/as though,* to indicate unreality or improbability ; as,

He orders me about as if I were his wife (but I am not).
He walks as though he were drunk (but he is not).

(4) After *it is time* + subject, to imply that it is late ; as,

It is time we started.

(5) After *would rather* + subject, to indicate preference ; as,

I would rather you went by air (= I should prefer you to go by air).
They would rather you paid them by cheque.

Chapter 24 TENSES : INTRODUCTION

210. Read the following sentences.

1. I *write* this letter to please you.
2. I *wrote* the letter in his very presence.
3. I *shall write* another letter tomorrow.

In sentence 1, the Verb *write* refers to **present** time.
In sentence 2, the Verb *wrote* refers to **past** time.
In sentence 3, the Verb *shall write* refers to **future** time.
Thus a Verb may refer

(1) to **present** time, (2) to **past** time, or (3) to **future** time.

211. A Verb that refers to *present* time is said to be in the **Present Tense;** as,

I *write.* I *love.*

[The word *tense* comes from the Latin *tempus,* time.]

A Verb that refers to *past* time is said to be in the **Past Tense;** as,

I *wrote.* I *loved.*

A Verb that refers to *future* time is said to be in the **Future Tense;** as,

I *shall write.* I *shall love.*

212. Thus there are three main Tenses:

The **Present,** the **Past,** the **Future.**

The Tense of a Verb shows the *time* of an action or event.

Note—Sometimes a past tense may refer to present time, and a present tense may express future time, as:

I wish I *knew* the answer. (=I'm sorry I don't know the answer. Past tense — Present time)
Let's wait till he *comes*. (Present tense — future tense)

213. Below we give the chief Tenses (Active Voice, Indicative Mood) of the verb *to love.*

PRESENT TENSE

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1st Person	I love	We love
2nd person	You love	You love
3rd Person	He loves	They love

PAST TENSE

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1st Person	I loved	We loved
2nd Person	You loved	You loved
3rd Person	He loved	They loved

FUTURE TENSE

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1st Person	I shall/will love	We shall/will love
2nd Person	You will love	You will love
3rd Person	He will love	They will love

214. Read these sentences :

1. I love. **(Simple Present)**
2. I am loving. **(Present Continuous)**
3. I have loved. **(Present Perfect)**
4. I have been loving. **(Present Perfect Continuous)**

The Verbs in all of these sentences refer to the *present* time, and are therefore said to be in the *present tense.*

In sentence 1, however, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned simply, without anything being said about the completeness or incompleteness of the action.

In sentence 2, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned as *incomplete or continuous,* that is, as still *going on.*

In sentence 3, the Verb shows that the action is mentioned as *finished, complete,* or *perfect,* at the time of speaking.

The tense of the Verb in sentence 4 is said to be *Present Perfect Continuous,* because the verb shows that the action is going on continuously, and not completed at this present moment.

Thus we see that the Tense of a verb shows not only the *time* of an action or event, but also the *state* of an action referred to.

215. Just as the Present Tense has four forms, the Past Tense also has the following four forms :

1. I loved. **(Simple Past)**
2. I was loving. **(Past Continuous)**
3. I had loved. **(Past Perfect)**
4. I had been loving. **(Past Perfect Continuous)**

Similarly, the Future Tense has the following four forms :

1. I shall/will love. **(Simple Future)**
2. I shall/will be loving. **(Future Continuous)**
3. I shall/will have loved. **(Future Perfect)**
4. I shall have been loving. **(Future Perfect Continuous)**

We may now define Tense as that form of a Verb which shows the *time* and the *state* of an action or event.

216. A verb agrees with its subject in number and person. Study the verb forms of various tenses:

Simple Present Tense	***Present Continuous Tense***
I speak	I am speaking

You speak
He speaks
We speak
They speak

Present Perfect Tense

I have spoken
You have spoken
He has spoken
We have spoken
They have spoken

Simple Past Tense

I spoke
You spoke
He spoke
We spoke
They spoke

Past Perfect Tense

I had spoken
You had spoken
He had spoken
We had spoken
They had spoken

Simple Future Tense

I shall/will speak
You will speak
He will speak
We shall/will speak
They will speak

Future Perfect Tense

I shall/will have spoken
You will have spoken
He will have spoken
We shall/will have spoken
They will have spoken

You are speaking
He is speaking
We are speaking
They are speaking

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

I have been speaking
You have been speaking
He has been speaking
We have been speaking
They have been speaking

Past Continuous Tense

I was speaking
You were speaking
He was speaking
We were speaking
They were speaking

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

I had been speaking
You had been speaking
He had been speaking
We had been speaking
They had been speaking

Future Continuous Tense

I shall/will be speaking
You will be speaking
He will be speaking
We shall/will be speaking
They will be speaking

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

I shall/will have been speaking
You will have been speaking
He will have been speaking
He shall/will have been speaking
They will have been speaking

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 45

Point out the Verbs in the following sentences and name their Moods and Tenses.

1. The river flows under the bridge.
2. I shall answer the letter to night.
3. I knew he was there, for I had seen him come.
4. It has been raining all night.
5. I hear he has passed all right.
6. I had finished when he came.
7. He takes but little pride in his work.
8. I have been living here for months.
9. Be good, sweet maid.
10. By this time to morrow I shall have reached my home.
11. It is time we left.
12. He told me that he had finished the work.
13. God forgive you !
14. He is waiting for you in the compound.
15. Piper, pipe that song again.

16. I am hoping to get a holiday soon.
17. Perhaps it were better to obey him.
18. Do noble deeds, not dream them all the day.
19. I shall have plenty of time tomorrow.
20. Though this be madness, yet there is method in it.
21. The king had never before led his troops in battle.
22. If he was guilty, his punishment was too light.
23. We have heard a strange story.
24. The travellers, all of whom had seen the chameleon, could not agree about its colour.
25. Beware lest something worse should happen to you.
26. The farmer is cutting the corn which has ripened.
27. I wish my brother were here.
28. She would rather we stayed till tomorrow.

Chapter 25 THE USES OF THE PRESENT AND PAST TENSES

PRESENT TENSES

Simple Present Tense

217. The Simple Present is used:

(1) To express a habitual action ; as,

He *drinks* tea every morning.
I *get up* everyday at five o'clock.
My watch *keeps* good time.

He drinks tea.

(2) To express general truths ; as,

The sun rises in the east.
Honey is sweet.
Fortune *favours* the brave.

(3) In exclamatory sentences beginning with *here* and *there* to express what is actually taking place in the present ; as,

Here *comes* the bus !
There she *goes* !

flight

(4) In vivid narrative, as substitute for the Simple Past ; as,

Sohrab now *rushes* forward and *deals* a heavy blow to Rustam.
Immediately the Sultan *hurries* to his capital.

(5) To express a future event that is part of a fixed timetable or fixed programme,

The next flight *is* at 7.00 tomorrow morning.
The match *starts* at 9 o'clock.
The train *leaves* at 5.20.
When *does* the coffee house *reopen*?

218. Note also the other uses of the Simple Present Tense.

(1) It is used to introduce quotations ; as,

Keats *says,* 'A thing of beauty is a joy for ever'.

(2) It is used, instead of the Simple Future Tense, in clauses of time and of condition ; as,

I shall wait till you *finish* your lunch.
If it *rains* we shall get wet.

(3) As in broadcast commentaries on sporting events, the Simple Present is used, instead of the Present Continuous, to describe activities in progress where there is stress on the succession of happenings rather than on the duration.

(4) The Simple Present is used, instead of the Present Continuous, with the type of verbs referred to in (§ 221) below.

Present Continuous Tense

219. The Present Continuous is used:

(1) For an action going on at the time of speaking ; as,

She *is singing* (now).
The boys *are playing* hockey.

(2) For a temporary action which may not be actually happening at the time of speaking; as,

I *am reading* 'David Copperfield' (but I am not reading at this moment).

(3) For an action that has already been arranged to take place in the near future ; as,

I *am going* to the cinema tonight.
My uncle *is arriving* tomorrow.

220. It has been pointed out before that the Simple Present is used for a habitual action. However, when the reference is to a particularly obstinate habit—something which persists, for example, in spite of advice or warning—we use the Present Continuous with an adverb like *always, continually, constantly.*
My dog is very silly ; he *is* always *running* out into the road.

221. The following verbs, on account of their meaning, are not normally used in the continuous form:
(1) Verbs of perception, *e.g., see, hear, smell, notice, recognize.*
(2) Verbs of appearing , *e.g., appear, look, seem.*
(3) Verbs of emotion, *e.g., want, wish, desire, feel, like, love, hate, hope, refuse, prefer.*
(4) Verbs of thinking, *e.g., think, suppose, believe, agree, consider, trust, remember, forget, know, understand, imagine, mean, mind.*
(5) *have* (= possess), *own, possess, belong to, contain, consist of, be* (except when used in the passive).

e.g.

Wrong	***Right***
These grapes *are tasting* sour.	These grapes *taste* sour.
I *am thinking* you are wrong.	I *think* you are wrong.
She *is seeming* sad.	She *seems* sad.
He *is having* a cellphone.	He *has* a cellphone.

However, the verbs listed above can be used in the continuous tenses with a change of meaning:
She *is tasting* the soup to see if it needs more salt.
(taste = test the flavour of)
I *am thinking* of going to Malaysia.
(think of = consider the idea of)
They *are having* lunch. (*have* = eat)

Present Perfect Tense

222. The Present Perfect is used:
(1) To indicate completed activities in the immediate past (with *just*); as,
He *has* just *gone* out.
It *has* just *struck* ten.
(2) To express past actions whose time is not given and not definite; as,
Have you *read* 'Gulliver's Travels'?
I *have* never *known* him to be angry.
Mr. Hari *has been* to Japan.
(3) To describe past events when we think more of their effect in the present than of the action itself ; as,
Gopi *has eaten* all the biscuits (*i.e.,* there aren't any left for you).
I *have cut* my finger (and it is bleeding now).
I *have finished* my work (= now I am free).
(4) To denote an action beginning at some time in the past and continuing up to the present moment (often with *since*- and *for*-phrases); as,
I *have known* him for a long time.
He *has been* ill since last week.
We *have lived* here for ten years.
We *haven't seen* Padma for several months.

223. The following adverbs or adverb phrases can also be used with the Present Perfect (apart from those mentioned above): *never, ever* (in questions only), *so far, till now, yet* (in negatives and questions), *already, today, this week, this month*, etc.

Note—The Present Perfect is never used with adverbs of past time. We should not say, for example, 'He has gone to Kolkata yesterday'. In such cases the Simple Past should be used ('He went to Kolkata yesterday').

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

224. The Present Perfect Continuous is used for an action which began at some time in the past and is still continuing ; as,

He *has been sleeping* for five hours (and is still sleeping).

They *have been building* the bridge for several months.

They *have been playing* since four o'clock.

225. This tense is also sometimes used for an action already finished. In such cases the continuity of the activity is emphasized as an explanation of something.

'Why are your clothes so wet ?'— 'I *have been watering* the garden'.

He has been sleeping for five hours (and is still sleeping).

PAST TENSES

Simple Past Tense

226. The Simple Past is used to indicate an action completed in the past. It often occurs with adverbs or adverb phrases of past time.

The steamer *sailed* yesterday.

I *received* his letter a week ago.

She *left* school last year.

227. Sometimes this tense is used without an adverb of time. In such cases the time may be either implied or indicated by the context.

I *learnt* Hindi in Nagpur.

I *didn't* sleep well (*i.e.*, last night).

Babar *defeated* Rana Sanga at Kanwaha.

228. The Simple Past is also used for past habits ; as,

He *studied* many hours everyday.

She always *carried* an umbrella.

He always carried an umbrella.

Past Continuous Tense

229. The Past Continuous is used to denote an action going on at some time in the past. The time of the action may or may not be indicated.

We were *listening* to the radio all evening.

It *was getting* darker.

The light went out while I *was reading*.

When I saw him, he *was playing* chess.

As in the last two examples above, the Past Continuous and Simple Past are used together when a new action happened in the middle of a longer action. The Simple Past is used for the new action.

230. This tense is also used with *always, continually*, etc. for persistent habits in the past.

He *was* always *grumbling*.

Past Perfect Tense

231. The Past Perfect describes an action completed before a certain moment in the past ; as,

I met him in New Delhi in 1996. I *had seen* him last five years before.

232. If two actions happened in the past, it may be necessary to show which action happened earlier than the other. The Past Perfect is mainly used in such situations. The Simple Past is used in one clause and the Past Perfect in the other ; as,

When I reached the station the train *had started* (so I couldn't get into the train).

I *had done* my exercise when Hari came to see me.

I *had written* the letter before he arrived.

Past Perfect Continuous Tense

233. The Past Perfect Continuous is used for an action that began before a certain point in the past and continued up to that time ; as,

At that time he *had been writing* a novel for two months.
When Mr Mukerji came to the school in 1995, Mr Anand *had* already *been teaching* there for five years.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 46

Choose the correct verb form from those in brackets.

1. The earth ____round the sun. (move, moves, moved)
2. My friends ____the Prime Minister yesterday. (see, have seen, saw)
3. I ____him only one letter up to now. (sent, have sent, send)
4. She _____ worried about something. (looks, looking, is looking)
5. It started to rain while we ____tennis. (are playing, were playing, had played)
6. He _____ fast when the accident happened. (is driving, was driving, drove)
7. He ____asleep while he was driving. (falls, fell, has fallen)
8. I'm sure I ____him at the party last night. (saw, have seen, had seen)
9. He ____a mill in this town. (have, has, is having)
10. He ____here for the last five years. (worked, is working, has been working)
11. He thanked me for what I ____. (have done, had done, have been doing)
12. I ____a strange noise. (hear, am hearing, have been hearing)
13. I ____him for a long time. (know, have known, am knowing)
14. I ____English for five years. (study, am studying, have been studying)
15. Don't disturb me. I ____my homework. (do, did, am doing)
16. Abdul ____to be a doctor. (wants, wanting, is wanting)
17. The soup _____ good. (taste, tastes, is tasting)
18. He _____ TV most evenings. (watches, is watch, is watching)
19. He ____out five minutes ago. (has gone, had gone, went)
20. When he lived in Hyderabad, he ____to the cinema once a week. (goes, went, was going)
21. The baby ____all morning. (cries, has been crying)
22. I _____ Rahim at the zoo. (saw, have seen, had seen)
23. I ____Kumar this week. (haven't seen, did't see, am not seeing)
24. This paper ____twice weekly. (is appearing, appearing, appears)
25. Ashok fell off the ladder when he _____ the roof. (is mending, was mending, mended)

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 47

Choose the correct alternative from those given in brackets.

1. The Headmaster ____to speak to you. (wants, is wanting, was wanting)
2. I ____a new bicycle last week. (bought, have bought, had bought)
3. Here are your shoes ; I ____them. (just clean, just cleaned, have just cleaned)
4. It _____ since early morning, (rained, is raining, has been raining)
5. I ____a lot of work today. (did, have done, had done)
6. I ____something burning. (smell, am smelling, have been smelling)
7. Look! The sun _____ over the hills. (rises, is rise, is rising)
8. She ____unconscious since four o'clock. (is, was, has been)
9. He used to visit us every week, but he ____now. (rarely comes, is rarely coming, has rarely come)
10. We _____ for his call since 4.20. (are waiting, have been waiting, were waiting)
11. Everyday last week my aunt ____a plate. (breaks, broke, was breaking)
12. I know all about that film because I ____it twice. (saw, have seen, had seen)
13. Our guests _____; they are sitting in the garden. (arrived, have arrived, had arrived)
14. I ____him since we met a year ago. (didn't see, haven't seen, hadn't seen)
15. We ____our breakfast half an hour ago. (finished, have finished, had finished)

16. She jumped off the bus while it ____. (moved, had moved, was moving)
17. When we went to the cinema, the film ____. (already started, had already started, would already start)
18. I _____ for half an hour when it suddenly started to rain. (have walked, have been walking, had been walking)
19. Did you think you ____me somewhere before ? (have seen, had seen, were seeing)
20. The town ____its appearance completely since 1980. (is changing, changed, has changed)
21. Sheila _____ her case, look. (packed, has packed, had packed)
22. When I was in Sri Lanka, I _____ Negombo, Beruwela and Nilaveli. (visited, was visited, have visited)
23. I meant to repair the radio, but ____time to do it today (am not having, haven't had, hadn't)
24. When I _____ my dinner I went to bed. (had, have had, had had)
25. Men ____to abolish wars up to now, but maybe they will find a way in the future. (never managed, have never managed, will have never managed)

Chapter 26 THE FUTURE

234. There are several ways of talking about the future in English: the Simple Future Tense, the *going to* form, the Simple Present Tense, etc.

Simple Future Tense

235. The Simple Future Tense is used to talk about things which we cannot control. It expresses the future as fact.
I *shall be* twenty next Saturday.
It *will be* Diwali in a week.
We *will know* our exam results in May.

236. We use this tense to talk about what we think or believe will happen in the future.
I think Pakistan *will win* the match.
I'm sure Helen *will get* a first class.

As in the above sentences, we often use this tense with *I think*, and *I'm sure*. We also say *I expect* _____, *I believe* _____, *Probably* _____, etc.

237. We can use this tense when we decide to do something at the time of speaking.
It is raining. I *will take* an umbrella.
"Mr Sinha is very busy at the moment." – "All right. *I'll wait*."

Going to

238. We use the *going to* form (*be going to* + base of the verb) when we have decided to do something before talking about it.
"Have you decided what to do?" – "Yes. *I am going to resign* the job."
"Why do you want to sell your motorbike?" – "*I'm going to buy* a car."

Remember that if the action is already decided upon and preparations have been made, we should use the *going to* form, not the Simple Future Tense. The Simple Future Tense is used for an instant decision.

239. We also use the *going to* form to talk about what seems likely or certain, when there is something in the present which tells us about the future.
It *is going to rain*; look at those clouds.
The boat is full of water. It *is going to sink*.
She *is going to have* a baby.

240. The *going to* form may also express an action which is on the point of happening.
Let's get into the train. It's *going to leave*.
Look! The cracker *is going to explode*.

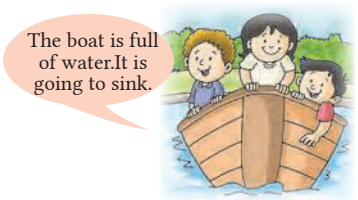

Be about to

241. *Be about to* + base form can also be used for the immediate future.
Let's get into the train. It's *about to leave*.
Don't go out now. We *are about to have lunch*.

Simple Present Tense

242. The Simple Present Tense is used for official programmes and timetables.
The college *opens* on 23rd June.
The film *starts* at 6.30 and *finishes* at 9.00.
When *does* the next train *leave* for Chennai?

243. The Simple Present is often used for future time in clauses with *if, unless, when, while, as* (= *while*), *before, after, until, by the time* and *as soon as.* The Simple Future Tense is not used in such cases.
I won't go out if it *rains.* (not: will *rain*)
Can I have some milk before I *go* to bed?
Let's wait till he *finishes* his work.
Please ring me up as soon as he *comes.*

Present Continuous Tense

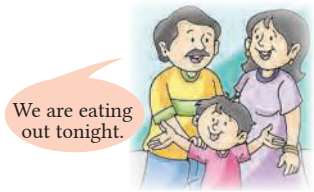

244. We use the Present Continuous Tense when we talk about something that we have planned to do in the future.
I *am going* to Shimla tomorrow.
We *are eating* out tonight.
Mr Abdul Rehman *is arriving* this evening.

You are advised to use the Present Continuous (not the Simple Present) for personal arrangements.

Future Continuous Tense

245. We use the Future Continuous Tense to talk about actions which will be in progress at a time in the future.
I suppose it *will be raining* when we start.
This time tomorrow I *will be sitting* on the beach in Singapore.
"Can I see you at 5 o'clock?" – "Please don't come then. I *will be watching* the tennis match on TV."

246. We also use this tense to talk about actions in the future which are already planned or which are expected to happen in the normal course of things.
I *will be staying* here till Sunday.
He *will be meeting* us next week.
The postman *will be coming* soon.

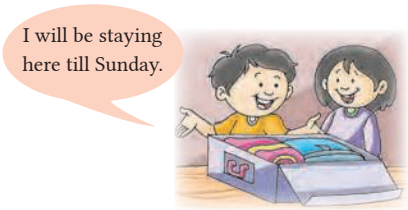

Be to

247. We use *be to* + base form to talk about official plans and arrangements.
The Prime Minister *is to visit* America next month.
The conference *is to discuss* "Nuclear Tests."
Be to is used in a formal style, often in news reports. *Be* is usually left out in headlines, e.g. "Prime Minister to visit America".

Future Perfect Tense

248. The Future Perfect Tense is used to talk about actions that will be completed by a certain future time.
I *shall have written* my exercise by then.
He *will have left* before you go to see him.
By the end of this month I *will have worked* here for five years.

Future Perfect Continuous Tense

249. The Future Perfect Continuous tense is used for actions which will be in progress over a period of time that will end in the future.
By next March we *shall have been living* here for four years.
I'*ll have been teaching* for twenty years next July.
This tense is not very common.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 48

Choose the correct or more suitable forms of the verbs to fill in the blanks.

1. The plane _____ at 3.30. (arrives, will arrive)
2. I will phone you when he _____ back. (comes, will come)
3. When I get home, my dog _____ at the gate waiting for me. (sits, will be sitting)
4. I _____ the Joshis this evening. (visit, am visiting)
5. Look at those black clouds. It _____. (will rain, is going to rain)
6. The train _____ before we reach the station. (arrives, will have arrived)
7. Perhaps we _____ Mahabaleshwar next month. (visit, will visit)
8. Unless we _____ now we can't be on time. (start, will start)
9. I _____ into town later on. Do you want a lift? (drive, will be driving)
10. The next term _____ on 16th November. (begins, is beginning)
11. Oh dear! I _____. (will sneeze, am going to sneeze)
12. By 2020, robots _____ many of the jobs that people do today. (will be taking over, will have taken over)
13. I'm sure she _____ the exam. (passes, will pass)
14. I _____ home next Sunday. (go, am going)
15. I _____ you one of these days, I expect. (see, will be seeing)
16. Help! I _____ fall. (will, am going to)
17. She has bought some cloth; she _____ herself a blouse. (will make, is going to make)
18. I _____ your house this afternoon. It is on my way home from work. (will be passing, am passing)
19. Hurry up! The programme _____. (will start, is about to start)
20. This book is not long. I _____ it by lunch time. (will be reading, will have read)

For information about verb forms in conditionals, see Book II, Chapter 32.

Chapter 27 THE VERB : PERSON AND NUMBER

250. The Verb, like the Personal Pronouns, has three Persons —the First, the Second and the Third. Thus, we say
1. I *speak*. 2. You *speak*. (Old English: Thou speakest.) 3. He *speaks*.

This is because of the difference in *Person* of the Subjects, as all the three are subjects of the singular number.
In sentence 1, the Subject is of the First Person, therefore the Verb is also of the First Person.
In sentence 2, the Subject is of the Second Person, therefore the verb is also of the Second Person.
In sentence 3, the Subject is of the Third Person, therefore the Verb is also of the Third Person.
We thus see that the Verb takes the same Person as its Subject; or, that *the Verb agrees with its Subject in Person.*

251. The Verb, like the Noun and the Pronoun, has two Numbers: the Singular and the Plural. Thus we say —
1. He *speaks*. 2. They *speak*.

This is because of the difference in *Number* of the subjects (as both the Subjects are of the third person).
In sentence 1, the Subject is Singular, therefore the Verb is Singular.
In sentence 2, the Subject is Plural, therefore the Verb is Plural.
We thus see that the Verb takes the same Number as its Subject ; or, that *the Verb agrees with its Subject in Number.*

252. But we have already seen that *the Verb also agrees with its Subject in Person* ; hence we have the important rule.
The Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and Person; that is, the Verb must be of the same Number and Person as its Subject. Thus, if the Subject is of the Singular Number, First Person, the Verb must be of the Singular Number, First Person ; as,
I *am* here. I *was* there. I *have* a bat. I *play* cricket.

If the Subject is of the Singular Number, Third Person, the Verb must be of the Singular Number, Third Person ; as,

He *is* here. He *was* there. He *has* a bat. He *plays* cricket.

If the Subject is of the Plural Number, Third Person, the Verb must be of the Plural Number, Third Person ; as,

They *are* here. They *were* there. They *have* bats. They *play* cricket.

Note— In some languages the form of the Verb changes with the Number and Person of the Subject. In modern English verbs have lost all their inflections for number and person, except in the third person of the singular number. Thus we have—

I speak.	We speak.
You speak.	You speak. (*You* is both singular and plural in current English.)
He speaks.	They speak.

The only exception is the verb *to be*. We say—

I *am*.	We *are*.
You *are*.	You *are*.
He *is*.	They *are*.

For further study of the agreement of the verb with the subject, see Book II, Chapter 17.

Chapter 28 THE INFINITIVE

253. Read these sentences:

I want *to go*.

They tried *to find* fault with us.

The forms *to go* and *to find* are "infinitives."

The **infinitive** is the base of a verb, often preceded by *to*.

254. Read the following sentences:—

1. *To err* is human.
2. Birds love *to sing*.
3. *To respect* our parents is our duty.
4. He refused *to obey* the orders.
5. Many men desire *to make* money quickly.

In sentence 1, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Subject of the verb *is*.

In sentence 2, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *love*.

In sentence 3, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Subject of the verb *is*, but, like a verb, it also takes an object.

In sentence 4, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *refused*, but, like a verb, it also takes an object.

In sentence 5, the Infinitive, like a noun, is the Object of the verb *desire*, but, like a verb, it also takes an Object and is modified by an Adverb.

It will be seen that the Infinitive is a kind of noun with certain features of the verb, especially that of taking an object (when the verb is Transitive) and adverbial qualifiers. In short, the Infinitive is a Verb-Noun.

255. The word *to* is frequently used with the Infinitive, but is not an essential part or sign of it.

Thus, after certain verbs (*bid, let, make, *need, *dare, see, hear*), we use the Infinitive without *to*; as,

Bid him *go* there.
I *bade* him *go*.
Let him *sit* here.
I will not *let* you *go*.
Make him *stand*.
I *made* him *run*.

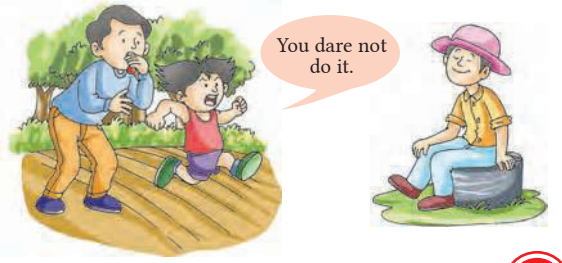

* Except when they are conjugated with *do*.

We *need* not *go* today.
You *need* not *do it.*
You *dare* not *do it.*
I *saw* him *do* it.
I *heard* him *cry.*

256. The infinitive without *to* is also used after the verbs *will, would, shall, should, may, might, can, could* and *must.*
I will *pay* the bill.
You *should* work harder.
He *can* speak five languages.
You *must* come to the office at nine tomorrow.

The Infinitive without *to* is also used after *had better, had rather, would rather, sooner than, rather than*; as,
You had better *ask* permission.
I had rather *play* than *work.*
I would rather *die* than *suffer* so.

Use of the Infinitive

257. The Infinitive, with or without adjuncts, may be used, like a Noun —

(1) As the Subject of a Verb; as,
To find fault is easy.
To err is human.
To reign is worth ambition.

(2) As the Object of a transitive Verb; as
I do not mean *to read.*
He likes *to play* cards.

(3) As the Complement of a Verb; as,
Her greatest pleasure is *to sing.*
His custom is *to ride* daily.

(4) As the Object of a Preposition; as,
He had no choice but (= except) *to obey.*
The speaker is about *to begin.*

(5) As an Objective Complement; as,
I saw him *go.*

When the infinitive is thus used, like a Noun, it is called the **Simple Infinitive**.

258. The Infinitive is also used—

(1) To qualify a Verb, usually to express *purpose*; as,
He called *to see* my brother (= for the purpose of seeing my brother).
We eat *to live.* (*Purpose*)
I come *to bury* Caesar. (*Purpose*)
He wept *to see* the desolation caused by the flood. (*Cause*)

(2) To qualify an Adjective; as,
Figs are good *to eat.*
This medicine is pleasant *to take.*
The boys are anxious *to learn.*
He is too ill *to do* any work.

(3) To qualify a Noun; as,
This is not the time *to play.*

You will have cause *to repent.*
He is a man *to be admired.*
Here is a house *to let.*
This house is *to let.*

(4) To qualify a Sentence; as,
To tell the truth, I quite forgot my promise.
He was petrified, *so to speak.*

When the Infinitive is thus used it is called the **Gerundial** or **Qualifying Infinitive**.
It will be seen that in 1 and 2 the Gerundial Infinitive does the work of an Adverb; in 3 it does the work of an Adjective; in 4 it is used absolutely.

259. The Infinitive may be active or passive. When active it may have a present and a perfect form, and may merely name the act, or it may represent progressive or continued action.

Active

Present: to love	***Perfect:*** to have loved
Present Continuous:	to be loving
Perfect Continuous:	to have been loving

When passive the Infinitive has a present and a perfect form.

Passive

Present: to be loved
Perfect: to have been loved

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 49

State how the Infinitive is used in the following sentences.

1. There was nothing for it to fight.
2. Let us pray.
3. The mango is fit to eat.
4. I heard her sing.
5. I have come to see you.
6. The order to advance was given.
7. Men must work and women must weep.
8. I am sorry to hear this.
9. He is slow to forgive.
10. A man severe he was and stern to view.
11. And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
12. Thus to relieve the wretched was his pride.
13. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.
14. Music hath charms to soothe the savage beast.
15. Never seek to tell thy love.
16. To retreat was difficult; to advance was impossible.

17. Everybody wishes to enjoy life.
18. My desire is to see you again.
19. There was not a moment to be lost.
20. The counsel rose to address the court.
21. My right there is none to dispute.
22. The ability to laugh is peculiar to mankind.
23. He has the power to concentrate his thoughts.
24. He was quick to see the point.
25. I am not afraid to speak the truth.
26. Better dwell in the midst of alarms
    Than reign in this horrible place.
27. Can you hope to count the stars?
28. To toil is the lot of mankind.
29. It is delightful to hear the sound of the sea.
30. It is a penal offence to bribe a public servant.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 50

Combine together the following pairs of sentences by using Infinitives.

[*Example* — Napoleon was one of the greatest of generals. He is universally acknowledged so. = Napoleon is universally acknowledged to have been one of the greatest of generals.

Note—It will be noticed that we have turned one of the sentences into a phrase containing an infinitive.]

1. He did not have even a rupee with him. He could not buy a loaf of bread.
2. Every cricket team has a captain. He directs the other players.
3. You must part with your purse. On this condition only you can save your life.
4. He went to Amritsar. He wanted to visit the Golden Temple.
5. The robber took out a knife. He intended to frighten the old man.
6. I speak the truth. I am not afraid of it.
7. The insolvent's property was sold by the official Assignee. The insolvent's creditors had to be paid.
8. He wants to earn his livelihood. He works hard for that reason.
9. The strikers held a meeting. They wished to discuss the terms of the employers.
10. He has five children. He must provide for them.
11. The old man has now little energy left. He cannot take his morning constitutional exercises.
12. The Rajah allowed no cows to be slaughtered in his territory. It was his custom.
13. He formed a resolution. It was to the effect that he would not speculate any more.
14. Everyone should do his duty. India expects this of every man.
15. She visits the poor. She is anxious to relieve them of their sufferings.
16. He collects old stamps even at great expense. This is his hobby.
17. He must apologise for his misconduct. It is the only way to escape punishment.
18. I have no aptitude for business. I must speak it out frankly.
19. He was desirous of impressing his host. So he was on his best behaviour in his presence.
20. That young man has squandered away all his patrimony. He must have been very foolish.
21. He has risen to eminence from poverty and obscurity. It is highly creditable.

Chapter 29 THE PARTICIPLE

260. Read this sentence.

Hearing the noise, the boy woke up.

The word *hearing* qualifies the noun *boy* as an Adjective does.

It is formed from the Verb *hear*, and governs an object.

The word *hearing*, therefore, partakes of the nature of both a Verb and an Adjective, and is called a **Participle**.

It may be called a Verbal Adjective.

Def— A participle is that form of the Verb which partakes of the nature both of a Verb and of an Adjective.

[Or] A participle is a word which is partly a Verb and partly an Adjective.

Note— The phrase 'Hearing the noise', which is introduced by a Participle, is called a Participle Phrase. According to its use here, it is an Adjective Phrase.

261. Study the following examples of Participles:

1. We met a girl *carrying* a basket of flowers.
2. Loudly *knocking* at the gate, he demanded admission.
3. The child, *thinking* all was safe, attempted to cross the road.
4. He rushed into the field, and foremost *fighting* fell.

The above are all examples of what is usually called the **Present Participle,** which ends in *-ing* and represents an action as *going on* or *incomplete* or *imperfect.*

If the verb from which it comes is Transitive, it takes an object, as in sentence 1.

Notice also that in sentence 2, the Participle is modified by an adverb.

262. Besides the Present Participle, we can form from each verb another Participle called its **Past Participle**, which represents a completed action or state of the thing spoken of.

The following are examples of Past Participles:

Blinded by a dust storm, they fell into disorder.
Deceived by his friends, he lost all hope.
Time *misspent* is time lost.
Driven by hunger, he stole a piece of bread.
We saw a few trees *laden* with fruit.

It will be noticed that the Past Participle usually ends in *-ed, -d, -t, -en*, or *-n.*

Besides these two simple participles, the Present and the Past, we have what is called a Perfect Participle that represents an action as completed at some past time; as,
Having rested, we continued our journey.

263. In the following examples the Participles are used as simple qualifying adjectives in front of a noun; thus used they are called **Participle Adjectives.**

A *rolling* stone gathers no moss.
We had a drink of the *sparkling* water.
His *tattered coat* needs mending.
The *creaking* door awakened the dog.
A *lying* witness ought to be punished.
He played a *losing* game.
A *burnt* child dreads the fire.
His *finished* manners produced a very favourable impression.
He wears a *worried* look.
Education is the most *pressing* need of our country.
He was reputed to be the most *learned* man of his time.

From the last two examples it will be noticed that a Participle admits of degrees of comparison.

264. Used adjectivally the Past Participle is Passive in meaning, while the Present Participle is Active in meaning; as,
a *spent* swimmer = a swimmer who is tired out;
a *burnt* child = a child who is burnt;
a *painted* doll = a doll which is painted;
a *rolling* stone = a stone which rolls.

265. Let us now recapitulate what we have already learnt about the Participle.

(1) A participle is a Verbal Adjective.

(2) Like a Verb it may govern a noun or pronoun; as,
Hearing the *noise*, the boy woke up. [The noun *noise* is governed by the participle *Hearing*].

(3) Like a Verb it may be modified by an adverb; as,
Loudly knocking at the gate, he demanded admission. [Here the participle *knocking* is modified by the adverb *Loudly*.]

(4) Like an adjective it may qualify a noun or pronoun; as,
Having rested, the *men* continued their journey.

(5) Like an Adjective it may be compared; as,
Education is the *most pressing* need of our time. [Here the participle *pressing* is compared by prefixing *most*.]

266. Below are shown the forms of the different Participles:

Active	**Passive**
Present: loving	***Present***: being loved
Perfect: having loved	***Perfect***: having been loved
	Past: loved

Use of the Participle

267. It will be noticed that the Continuous Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Present Participle with tenses of the verb *be*; as,

I am loving. I was loving. I shall be loving.

The Perfect Tenses (Active Voice) are formed from the Past Participle with tenses of the verb *have*; as,

I have loved. I had loved. I shall have loved.

The Passive Voice is formed from the Past Participle with tenses of the verb *be*; as,

I am loved. I was loved. I shall be loved.

268. We have seen that Participles qualify nouns or pronouns. They may be used—

(1) Attributively; as,

A *rolling* stone gathers no moss.
His *tattered* coat needs mending.
A *lost* opportunity never returns.

(2) Predicatively; as,

The man seems *worried*. (Modifying the Subject)
He kept me *waiting*. (Modifying the Object)

(3) Absolutely with a noun or pronoun going before; as,

The weather *being fine*, I went out.
Many *having arrived*, we were freed from anxiety.
Weather *permitting*, there will be a garden party at Government House tomorrow.
God *willing*, we shall have another good monsoon.
The sea *being smooth*, we went for sail.
The wind *having failed*, the crew set to work with a will.
His master *being absent*, the business was neglected.
The wind *being favourable*, they embarked.

It will be seen that in each of the above sentences the Participle with the noun or pronoun going before it, forms a phrase independent of the rest of the sentence. Such a phrase is called an **Absolute Phrase**; and a noun or pronoun so used with a participle is called a **Nominative Absolute**.

269. An Absolute Phrase can be easily changed into a subordinate clause; as,

Spring advancing, the swallows appear. [When spring advances. — Clause of Time]
The sea being smooth, we went for a sail. [Because the sea was smooth. — Clause of Reason]
God willing, we shall meet again. [If God is willing. — Clause of Condition]

Errors in the Use of Participles

270. Since the participle is a verb-adjective it must be attached to some noun or pronoun; in other words, it must always have a proper 'subject of reference'.

The following sentences are *incorrect* because in each case the Participle is left without proper agreement:

1. Standing at the gate, a scorpion stung him. (As it is, the sentence reads as if the scorpion was standing at the gate.)
2. Going up the hill, an old temple was seen.
3. Entering the room, the light was quite dazzling.

We should, therefore, recast these sentences as shown below:

1. Standing at the gate, he was stung by a scorpion.

Or: While he was standing at the gate, a scorpion stung him.

2. When we went up the hill, we saw an old temple.
3. Entering the room, I found the light quite dazzling.

Or: When I entered the room, the light was quite dazzling.

271. Usage, however, permits in certain cases such constructions as the following where the participle is left without a proper 'subject of reference'. [The Participle in such cases is called an **Impersonal Absolute.**]

Taking everything into consideration, the Magistrate was perfectly justified in issuing those orders.

Considering his abilities, he should have done better.
Roughly *speaking*, the distance from here to the nearest railway station is two miles.

It will be noticed that in the above instances the unexpressed subject is indefinite.

Thus, 'Roughly speaking' = If one speaks roughly.

272. Sometimes, as in the following examples, the Participle is understood:

Sword (being) in hand, he rushed on the jailor.
Breakfast (having been) over, we went out for a walk.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 51

Pick out the Participle in each of the following sentences. Tell whether it is a Present or a Past participle, and also how it is used.

1. Generally speaking, we receive what we deserve.
2. Having gained truth, keep truth.
3. I saw the storm approaching.
4. Hearing a noise, I turned round.
5. Considering the facts, he received scant justice.
6. The enemy, beaten at every point, fled from the field.
7. Being dissatisfied, he resigned his position.
8. The rain came pouring down in torrents.
9. Having elected him President, the people gave him their loyal support.
10. The traveller, being weary, sat by the woodside to rest.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 52

Pick out the Participle in each of the following sentences. Tell whether it is a Present or a Past Participle, and also how it is used.

1. The fat of the body is fuel laid away for use.
2. Being occupied with important matters, he had no leisure to see us.
3. The children coming home from school look in at the open door.
4. Michael, bereft of his son Luke, died of a broken heart.
5. Books read in childhood seem like old friends.
6. Lessons learned easily are soon forgotten.
7. A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold in pictures (baskets) of silver.
8. Seeing the sunshine, I threw open the window.
9. Seizing him by the arm, his friend led him away.
10. Encouraged by his wife, he persevered.
11. Overcome by remorse, he determined to atone for his crime by liberality to the church.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 53

Combine the following pairs of sentences by making use of a Participle.

[*Examples:* The magician took pity on the mouse. He turned it into a cat.
= *Taking* pity on the mouse, the magician turned it into a cat.
The train was ready to leave the station. The people had taken their seats.
= The people *having taken* their seats, the train was ready to leave the station.]

1. The porter opened the gate. We entered.
2. We started early. We arrived at noon.
3. We met a man. He was carrying a log of wood.
4. The stable door was open. The horse was stolen.
5. He seized his stick. He rushed to the door.
6. The hunter took up his gun. He went out to shoot the lion.

7. A crow stole a piece of cheese. She flew to her nest to enjoy the tasty meal.
8. The wolf wished to pick a quarrel with the lamb. He said, "How dare you make the water muddy?"
9. A passenger alighted from the train. He fell over a bag on the platform.
10. Nanak met his brother in the street. He asked him where he was going.
11. My sister was charmed with the silk. She bought ten yards.
12. The steamer was delayed by a storm. She came into port a day late.
13. He had resolved on a certain course. He acted with vigour.
14. He staggered back. He sank to the ground.
15. The letter was badly written. I had great difficulty in making out its contents.
16. They had no fodder. They could give the cow nothing to eat.
17. A hungry fox saw some bunches of grapes. They were hanging from a vine.
18. Cinderella hurried away with much haste. She dropped one of her little glass slippers.

273. Participles sometimes contain an implied meaning, which can be more fully expressed by changing the participle phrase into a clause of: (*a*) time, (*b*) cause, (*c*) concession, or (*d*) condition.[See § 269]

(*a*) Having done his lesson (= *after* he had done his lesson), he went out to play cricket.
Walking along the street one day (= *while* I was walking along the street one day) I saw a dead cobra.

(*b*) Being overpowered (= *because* he was overpowered), he surrendered.
Running at top speed (= *because* he ran at top speed), he got out of breath.

(*c*) Possessing all the advantages of education and wealth (= although he possessed all the advantages of education and wealth), he never made a name.

(*d*) Following my advice (= *if* you follow my advice), you will gain your object.
Seven were killed, including the guard (= *if* the guard is included).

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 54

Rewrite each of the following sentences, by changing the Participle into a Finite Verb.

[***Examples***: Quitting the forest, we advanced into the open plain. = We quitted the forest and advanced into the open plain. Driven out of his country, he sought asylum in a foreign land. = As he was driven out of his country, he sought asylum in a foreign land.

1. Going up the stairs, the boy fell down.
2. Having lost my passport, I applied for a new one.
3. I once saw a man walking on a rope.
4. Walking on the roof, he slipped and fell.
5. Having no guide with us, we lost our way.
6. The stable door being open, the horse was stolen.
7. Being paralytic, he could not walk.
8. Hearing the noise, I woke up.
9. Caesar being murdered, the dictatorship came to an end.
10. Working all day, I was fatigued.
11. We met an old *Sadhu* walking to Varanasi.
12. Having come of age, his son entered into partnership with him.
13. Having failed in the first attempt, he made no further attempts.
14. Walking up to the front door, I rang the bell.
15. Winter coming on, the grasshopper had no food.
16. Enchanted with the whole scene, I lingered on my voyage.
17. The enemy disputed their ground inch by inch, fighting with the fury of despair.
18. Mounting his horse, the bandit rode off.
19. The policeman, running with all his speed, was scarcely able to overtake the thief.
20. Not knowing my way, I asked a policeman.

Chapter 30 THE GERUND

274. Read this sentence.

Reading is his favourite pastime.

The word *reading* is formed from the Verb *read*, by adding *ing*.

We also see that it is here used as the Subject of a verb, and hence does the work of a Noun. It is, therefore, a Verb-Noun, and is called a **Gerund**.

Further examples of Gerund:

1. *Playing* cards is not allowed here.
2. I like *reading* poetry.
3. He is fond of *hoarding* money.

In sentence 1, the Gerund, like a noun, is the subject of a verb, but, like a verb, it also takes an object, thus clearly showing that it has also the force of a verb.

In sentence 2, the Gerund, like a noun, is the object of a verb but, like a verb, it also takes an object, thus clearly showing that it has also the force of a verb.

In sentence 3, the Gerund, like a noun, is governed by a preposition, but, like a verb, it also takes an object.

It will be noticed that the Infinitive and the Gerund are alike in being used as Nouns, while still retaining the power that a Verb has of governing another noun or pronoun in the objective case.

Def. — A Gerund is that form of the verb which ends in -ing, and has the force of a Noun and a Verb.

275. As both the Gerund and the Infinitive have the force of a Noun and a Verb, they have the same uses. Thus in many sentences either of them may be used without any special difference in meaning; as,

Teach me *to swim*.
Teach me *swimming*.
To give is better than *to receive*.
Giving is better than *receiving*.

To see is *to believe*.
Seeing is *believing*.

276. The following sentences contain examples of Compound Gerund forms:

I heard of his *having gained* a prize.
We were fatigued on account of *having walked* so far.
They were charged with *having sheltered* anarchists.
He is desirous of *being praised*.

It will be noticed that Compound Gerund forms are formed by placing a Past Participle after the Gerunds of *have* and *be*.

277. The Gerund of a Transitive verb has the following forms:

Active	Passive
Present: loving	***Present***: being loved
Perfect: having loved	***Perfect***: having been loved

278. As both the Gerund and the Present Participle end in -ing, they must be carefully distinguished.

The Gerund has the force of a Noun and a verb; it is a Verbal *Noun*.

The Present Participle has the force of an Adjective and a Verb; it is a Verbal *Adjective*.

Examples of Gerund:

He is fond of *playing* cricket.
The old man was tired of *walking*.
We were prevented from *seeing* the prisoner.
Seeing is believing.

Examples of Participle:

Playing cricket, he gained health.
Walking along the road, he noticed a dead cobra.
Seeing, he believed.

279. Read this sentence.

The indiscriminate *reading of* novels is injurious.

Here *reading* is used like an ordinary Noun.

Notice that *the* is used before and *of* after it.

Further examples of Gerunds used like ordinary Nouns.

The *making* of the plan is in hand.
The time of the *singing* of the birds has come.
Adam consented to the *eating* of the fruit.
The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for the *gaining* of wisdom.

280. In such Compound nouns as:

walking stick	frying pan	hunting whip
fencing-stick	writing-table	

walking, frying, hunting, fencing, writing are Gerunds.

They mean 'a stick for walking,' 'a pan for frying,' 'a whip for hunting,' 'a stick for fencing,' and 'a table for writing.'

281. Compare the following two sentences:

1. I hope you will excuse *my* leaving early.
2. I hope you will excuse *me* leaving early.

In the first sentence the word preceding the gerund is in the possessive case, while in the second sentence it is in the objective case. Both the sentences are correct. We can use either the possessive case or objective case of nouns and pronouns before gerunds. The possessive is more formal, and it is less usual in everyday speech. Here are further examples:

We rejoiced at *his/him* being promoted.
I insist on *your/you* being present.
Do you mind *my/me* sitting here?
All depends on *Karim's/Karim* passing the exam.
I disliked the *manager's/manager* asking me personal questions.
The accident was due to the *engine-driver's/engine-driver* disregarding the signals.

Use of the Gerund

282. A Gerund being a verb-noun may be used as —

(1) Subject of a verb: as,

Seeing is believing.
Hunting deer is not allowed in this country.

(2) Object of a transitive verb; as,

Stop *playing*.
Children love *making* mud castles.
I like *reading* poetry.
He contemplated *marrying* his cousin.

(3) Object of a preposition ; as,

I am tired of *waiting*.
He is fond of *swimming*.
He was punished for *telling* a lie.
We were prevented from *seeing* the prisoner.
I have an aversion to *fishing*.

(4) Complement of a verb ; as,

Seeing is *believing*.
What I most detest is *smoking*.

(5) Absolutely ; as,

Playing cards being his aversion, we did not play bridge.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 55

Point out the Participles and Gerunds in the following sentences. In the case of the Participle, name the noun or pronoun which it qualifies. In the case of the Gerund, state whether it is subject, object, complement, or used after a preposition.

1. He was found fighting desperately for his life.
2. He has ruined his sight by reading small print.
3. Hearing the noise, he ran to the window.
4. We saw a clown standing on his head.
5. Asking questions is easier than answering them.
6. Waving their hats and handkerchiefs, the people cheered the king.
7. Walking on the grass is forbidden.
8. Jumping over the fence, the thief escaped.
9. The miser spends his time in hoarding money.

10. Much depends on Rama's returning before noon.
11. Amassing wealth often ruins health.
12. I was surprised at Hari's being absent.
13. We spent the afternoon in playing cards.
14. The miser hated spending money.
15. She was angry at Saroja trying to lie to her.
16. Praising all alike is praising none.
17. Are you afraid of his hearing you ?

18. I determined to increase my salary by managing a little farm.
19. Success is not merely winning applause.
20. The year was spent in visiting our rich neighbours.
21. Singing to herself was her chief delight.
22. He preferred playing football to studying his lessons.
23. I thank thee, Jew, for teaching me that word.
24. I cannot go on doing nothing.

Chapter 31 IRREGULAR VERBS

283. Verbs can be regular or irregular.

284. Regular verbs form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed.*

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
walk	walked	walked
laugh	laughed	laughed
paint	painted	painted

285. Irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle in a different way from adding *ed.*

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
sit	sat	sat
ring	rang	rung
come	came	come
cut	cut	cut

We distinguish three types of irregular verbs:

(1) Verbs in which all three forms are the same (e.g. cut - cut - cut)

(2) Verbs in which two of the three forms are the same (e.g. sit - sat - sat)

(3) Verbs in which all three forms are different (e.g. ring - rang - rung)

286. Below is a list of irregular verbs divided into the three types mentioned above. Some of them can also be regular. In such cases the regular forms are also given.

Type (1) – All three forms are the same.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
read	read	read
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread

Type (2) – Two of the forms are the same.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
bend	bent	bent
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
come	came	come
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dream	dreamt/dreamed	dreamt/dreamed
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
get	got	got
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held
keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	lent/leaned	lent/leaned
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
leap	leapt/leaped	leapt/leaped
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
light	lit	lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid

run	ran	run
say	said	said
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
spell	spelt	spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled
spit	spat	spat
spoil	spoilt/spoiled	spoilt/spoiled
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound

Type (3) – All three forms are different.

Base Form	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*
be	was/were	been
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain

mistake	mistook	mistaken
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
sew	sewed	sewn/sewed
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen
stink	stank	stunk
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

287. The following verbs have an alternative past participle form (ending in *en*), which can only be used adjectively.

Verb	***Usual Past Participle***	***Adjectival Participle***
drink	drunk	drunken
melt	melted	molten
prove	proved	proven
shave	shaved	shaven
shear	sheared	shorn
shrink	shrunk	shrunken
sink	sunk	sunken
strike	struck	stricken

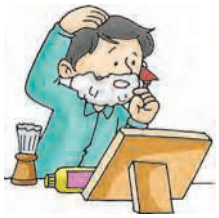

Compare the following:

(a)	**(b)**
He has *drunk* liquor.	a *drunken* soldier
The iron has *melted.*	*molten* iron
He has *proved* it.	a *proven* fact
He has *shaved* off his beard.	a clean-*shaven* face
They have *sheared* the sheep.	a *shorn* sheep
The cloth has *shrunk.*	a *shrunken* head
The ship has *sunk.*	a *sunken* ship
The clock has *struck* five.	a grief-*stricken* widow

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 56

In the following sentences change the verbs to the Past Tense.

1. Rama writes to his mother every week.
2. The wind blows furiously.
3. The boy stands on the burning deck.
4. The door flies open.
5. She sings sweetly.
6. The old woman sits in the sun.
7. Abdul swims very well indeed.
8. His voice shakes with emotion.
9. He drives a roaring trade.

10. He bears a grudge against his old uncle.
11. He spends his time in idleness.
12. He feels sorry for his faults.
13. A portrait of Mahatma Gandhi hangs on the wall.
14. The kite flies gaily into the air.
15. He wears away his youth in trifles.
16. What strikes me is the generosity of the offer.
17. He sows the seeds of dissension.
18. They all tell the same story.
19. He lies in order to escape punishment.
20. He comes of a good line.
21. The boy runs down the road at top speed.
22. I do it of my own free will.
23. His parents withhold their consent to the marriage.
24. I forget his name.
25. He gets along fairly well.
26. They choose Mr. Malik to be their chairman.
27. He throws cold water on my plan.
28. The child clings to her mother.
29. Judas, overwhelmed with remorse, goes and hangs himself.
30. I know him for an American.
31. He swears a solemn oath that he is innocent.
32. In a fit of rage she tears up the letter.
33. Her head sinks on her shoulder.
34. She hides her face for shame.
35. My master bids me work hard.
36. The books lie in a heap on the floor.
37. She lays her working on the table.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 57

Fill in the Past Tense or Past Participle of the verb given.

1. *see* It is years since I ____him. He has ____his best days.
2. *fall* Of late the custom has ____into disuse. The lot ____upon him.
3. *drink* The toast was ____with great enthusiasm.
4. *speak* He ____freely when he had drunk alcohol. Marathi is ____in Maharashtra.
5. *wear* My patience ____out at last. The inscription has ____away in several places.
6. *tear* In a fit of rage she ____up the letter. The country is ____by factions.
7. *sting* He has been ____by a scorpion. The remark ____him.
8. *run* You look as if you had ____all the way home. He ____for his life.
9. *forget* Once Sydney Smith, being asked his name by the servant, found to his dismay that he had ____his own name.
10. *choose* A better day for a drive could not have been ____.
11. *come* Computer technology has _____ a long way since the 1970s.
12. *bite* The old beggar was ____by a mad dog. A mad dog ____him.
13. *swim* The boy has _____ across the Indus.
14. *write* I think he should have ____and told us. Honesty is ____on his face.
15. *lay* He ____the book on the table. He had not ____a finger on him. They ____ their heads together.
16. *lie* We ____beneath a spreading oak. He has long ____under suspicion.
17. *take* A beautiful shot from cover-point ____off the balls.
    He has ____a fancy to the boy.
18. *go* Recently the price of sugar has ____up. The argument ____home. The verdict ____against him.
19. *begin* He had ____his speech before we arrived. He ____to talk nonsense.
20. *bid* Do as you are ____. He ____us goodbye.
    He ____two thousand rupees for the pony.
21. *ring* Has the warning-bell ____ ? I ____him up last night.
22. *steal* Someone has ____my purse. She ____his heart.
23. *sow* You must reap what you have ____.
24. *drive* Poor fellow ! he was – very hard. They say he ____a hard bargain.
25. *sing* It seemed to me that she had never ____so well. Our bugles ____truce.
26. *shake* He was much ____by the news. His voice ____as he spoke.
27. *eat* He is ____up with pride. In the end he ____his words.
28. *do* Let us have ____with it. I ____my duty.
29. *spring.* Homer describes a race of men who ____from the gods. The ship ____a leak.
30. *show* Has Rustum ____you his camera ? He ____a clean pair of heels.
31. *freeze* The explorers were ____to death. The blood ____in their veins.
32. *strike* I was ____by a stone. It never ____me before that he was old.
33. *mistake* I found upon inquiry that I had ____the house. He ____me for my brother.
34. *shoe* Go, ask the ferrier whether he has ____the horses yet.
35. *strew* His path was ____with flowers.

36. *sink* His voice gradually ____to a whisper.
And thousands had ____to the ground overpower'd.
37. *tread* Walking through the jungle, he ____on a snake.
38. *rise* He has ____from the ranks. As his friends expected he ____to the occasion.
39. *beat* On the arrival of a policeman, he ____a hasty retreat. He ____the Afghans in a bloody battle
It was not the only battle in which they were ____.
40. *blow* The tempest ____the ship ashore.
41. *catch* Walking on the beach, we ____sight of a strange bird. He has ____a Tartar.
42. *have* After the storm we ____a spell of fine weather.
43. *meet* I ____a little cottage girl. The poor fellow has ____ with many reverses.
44. *sleep* We thought her dying when she ____.
45. *get* He has ____hold of the wrong end of the stick.
46. *lead* The faithful dog ____his blind master.
47. *awake* And his disciples came to him, and ____him. I was soon ____from this disagreeable reverie.
48. *bear* I was ____away by an impulse.
49. *stand* It has ____the test of time.
50. *sit* He has ____for the examination.
51. *know* He says he has never ____sickness. I ____his antecedents.
52. *bind* The prisoner was ____hand and foot.
53. *break* He has ____his collar-bone.
54. *breed* What is ____in the bone will not wear out of the flesh.
55. *strive* I ____with none, for none was worth my strife.
56. *give* He never ____me a chance to speak.
He is ____to opium-smoking.
57. *dream* I ____I was in love again.
58. *weep* I have ____a million tears.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 58

Fill in the Past Tense or Past Participle of the verb given.

1. *spin* The story is tediously ____out.
2. *mean* I ____it for a joke. He was ____for a lawyer.
3. *arise* Suddenly the wind ____.
There never has ____a great man who has not been misunderstood.
4. *draw* Who ____the first prize ? He has ____a wrong inference.
The train ____up to the station.
5. *understand* I certainly_____ you to make that promise. I am afraid I did not make myself ____.
6. *shoot* He was accidentally ____in the arm.
7. *shrink* He is not known ever to have ____from an encounter. There was no cruelty from which the robber chief ____.
8. *smell* I noticed that he ____of brandy.
9. *stick* The cart ____in the mud.
10. *swear* The soldiers _____ allegiance to the Constitution of India. He was yesterday ____in as a member of the Legislative Assembly.
11. *sweep* The waves ____the pier. The pier was ____away. Plague ____off millions.
12. *cost* Often a lie has ____a life. His folly ____him years of poverty.
13. *buy* A rupee ____twice as much fifteen years ago.
14. *crow* His enemies ____over his fall.
15. *deal* He ____unfairly with his partner.
The robber _____ him a blow on the head.
16. *lose* His rashness ____him his life. ____time is never found again. The man who yields to the fascination of the gaming-table is____.
17. *find* Sir, I have ____you an argument ; but I am not obliged to find you an understanding.
The picture ____its way to the auction-room.

18. *forgive* Christ ____his crucifiers.
19. *sleep* It is said of Akbar that he rarely ____more than three hours at a time.
20. *seek* His company is greatly ____after.
It might be truly said of him that he never____honour.
21. *hide* Adam and his wife ____themselves from the presence of the Lord God.
22. *fall* He ____never to rise again. A certain man went down from Jerusalem to Jericho, and ____among thieves. He has ____asleep.
23. *set* He has ____his heart on success. The teacher ____them an example.
24. *die* He ____at a ripe old age.
25. *see* I ____her singing at her work. He has ____the ups and downs of life.
26. *spoil* The news ____my dinner.
27. *leave* He has ____a large family. The police ____no stone unturned to trace the culprits.
28. *grow* Three years she ____in sun and shower. Some of these wars have ____out of commercial considerations.
29. *think* I have ____of a plan.
I ____of Chatterton, the marvellous boy.
30. *become* He ____the slave of low desires.
31. *hear* Not a drum was ____, not a funeral note. He hopes his prayer will be ____.
32. *fight* He ____for the crown. He has a good fight.
33. *forsake* His courage ____him. He has ____his old friends.
34. *teach* The village master ____his little school.
They have ____their tongue to speak lies.
35. *wring* She ____her hands in agony. Any appeal for help ____her heart.
36. *wind* He ____up by appealing to the audience to contribute to the fund.
37. *thrust* He was ____through with a javelin.
38. *say* He has ____the last word on the matter.
39. *fly* The bird has ____away. The bird ____over the tree.
40. *flee* The murderer has ____to Australia.
The terrified people ____to the mountains.
41. *overflow* During the night the river had ____its banks.

Chapter 32 AUXILIARIES AND MODALS

288. The verbs *be* (*am, is, was*, etc), *have* and *do*, when used with ordinary verbs to make tenses, passive forms, questions and negatives, are called **auxiliary verbs** or **auxiliaries**. (*Auxiliary* = helping)

289. The verbs *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must* and *ought* are called **modal verbs** or **modals**. They are used before ordinary verbs and express meanings such as permission, possibility, certainty and necessity. *Need* and *dare* can sometimes be used like modal verbs.

Modals are often included in the group of auxiliaries. In some grammars they are called "modal auxiliaries".

290. The modals *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must* and *ought* are termed Defective Verbs, because some parts are wanting in them. They have no *-s* in the third person singular; they have no *-ing* and *-ed* forms.

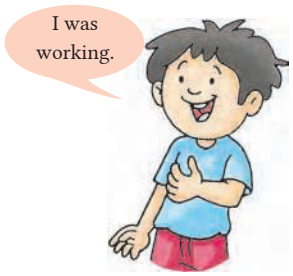

Be

291. The auxiliary *be* is used

(1) In the formation of the continuous tenses ; as,
He *is* working. I *was* writing.

(2) In the formation of the passive ; as,

The gate *was* opened.

Be followed by the infinitive is used

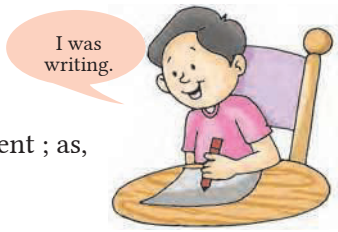

(1) To indicate a plan, arrangement, or agreement ; as,

I *am* to see him tomorrow.

We *are* to be married next month.

(2) To denote command ; as,

You *are* to write your name at the top of each sheet of paper.
Mother says you *are* to go to market at once.

292. Be is used in the past tense with the perfect infinitive to indicate an arrangement that was made but not carried out ; as,
They *were* to have been married last month but had to postpone the marriage until June.

Have

293. The auxiliary *have* is used in the formation of the perfect tenses; as,
He *has* worked. He *has* been working.

294. *Have to* is used with the infinitive to indicate obligation ; as,
I *have* to be there by five o'clock.
He *has* to move the furniture himself.

295. The past form *had to* is used to express obligation in the past.
I had to be there by five o'clock.
He had to move the furniture himself.

296. In negatives and questions, *have to* and *had to* are used with *do, does, did*; as,
They have to go. → They don't have to go. Do they have to go?
He has to go. → He doesn't have to go. Does he have to go?
He had to go. → He didn't have to go. Did he have to go?

Do

297. The auxiliary *do* is used

(1) To form the negative and interrogative of the simple present and simple past tenses of ordinary verbs ; as,

He *doesn't* work. He *didn't* work.
Does he work ? *Did* he work ?

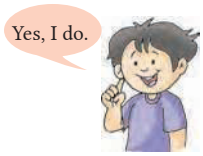

(2) To avoid repetition of a previous ordinary verb ; as,

Do you know him ? Yes, I *do.*
She sings well. Yes, she *does.*
You met him, *didn't* you ?
He eats fish and so *do* you.

298. Do is also used to emphasize the affirmative nature of a statement ; as,
You *do* look pale.
I told him not to go, but he *did* go.

299. In the imperative, *do* makes a request or invitation more persuasive ; as,
Do be quiet,
Oh, *do* come ! It's going to be such fun.

In such cases *do* is strongly stressed.

Can, Could, May, Might

300. *Can* usually expresses ability or capacity ; as,
I *can* swim across the river.
He *can* work this sum.
Can you lift this box ?

301. *Can* and *may* are used to express permission. *May* is rather formal.
You can/may go now.
Can/May I borrow your umbrella?

302. *May* is used to express possibility in affirmative sentences. *Can* is used in the corresponding interrogative and negative sentences.
It *may* rain tomorrow.
He *may* be at home.
Can this be true ?
It *cannot* be true.

Compare 'It *cannot* be true' with 'It *may not* be true'. *Cannot* denotes impossibility, while *may not* denotes improbability.

303. In very formal English, *may* is used to express a wish; as,
May you live happily and long !
May success attend you !

304. *Could* and *might* are used as the past equivalents of *can* and *may* ; as,
I *could* swim across the river when I was young. (Ability)
He said I *might/could* go. (Permission)
I thought he *might* be at home. (Possibility)
She wondered whether it *could* be true. (Possibility)

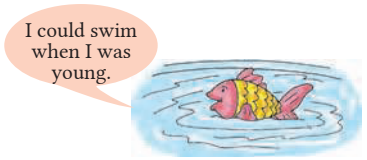

305. *Could*, as in the first example above, expresses only ability to do an act, but not the performance of an act. We should use *was/were able to* for ability +action in the past.
When the boat was upset, we *were able to* (or *managed to*) swim to the bank. (not : we *could* swim to the bank)

In negative statements, however, either *could* or *was/were able to* may be used.
I *couldn't* (or: *wasn't able to*) solve the puzzle. It was too difficult.

306. In present time contexts *could* and *might* are used as less positive versions of *can* and *may* ; as,
I *could* attend the party. (Less positive and more hesitant than 'I *can* attend the party'.)
Might/Could I borrow your bicycle ? (A diffident way of saying '*May/Can* I.....')
It *might* rain tomorrow. (Less positive than 'It *may* rain.....')
Could you pass me the salt ? (Polite request)

307. *Might* is also used to express a degree of dissatisfaction or reproach ; as,
You *might* pay a little more attention to your appearance.

308. Note the use of *can, could, may* and *might* with the perfect infinitive.
He is not there. Where *can* he *have gone*? (= Where is it possible that he has gone? - *May* expresses annoyance.)
You *could have accepted* the offer. (= Why didn't you accept the offer?)
Fatima *may/might have gone* with Saroja. (= Possibly Fatima has gone/went with Saroja.)
Why did you drive so carelessly? You *might have run* into the lamp post. (= It is fortunate that you didn't run into the lamp post.)

Shall, Should, Will, Would

309. *Shall* is used in the first person and *will* in all persons to express pure future.
Today *I/we shall* is less common than *I/we will.*
I *shall/will* be twenty-five next birthday.
We *will* need the money on 15th.
When *shall* we see you again ?
Tomorrow *will* be Sunday.
You *will* see that I am right.

In present day English, however, there is a growing tendency to use *will* in all persons.

310. *Shall* is sometimes used in the second and third persons to express a command, a promise, or threat ; as,
He *shall* not enter my house again. (Command)
You *shall* have a holiday tomorrow. (Promise)
You *shall* be punished for this. (Threat)

Note—that these uses of shall are old-fashioned and formal and generally avoided in modern English.

311. Questions with *shall I/we* are used to ask the will of the person addressed ; as,

Shall I open the door ? (*i.e.,* Do you want me to open it ?)

Which pen *shall* I buy ? (*i.e.,* What is your advice ?)

Where *shall* we go ? (What is your suggestion ?)

312. *Will* is used to express

(1) Volition ; as,

I *will* (=am willing to) carry your books.
I *will* (=promise to) try to do better next time.
I *will* (=am determined to) succeed or die in the attempt.

In the last example above, *will* is strong-stressed.

(2) Characteristic habit ; as,

He *will* talk about nothing but films.
She *will* sit for hours listening to the wireless.

(3) Assumption or probability ; as,

This *will* be the book you want, I suppose.

That *will* be the postman, I think.

313. *Will you* indicates an invitation or a request ; as,

Will you have tea ?

Will you lend me your scooter ?

314. *Should* and *would* are used as the past equivalents of *shall* and *will ;* as,

I expected that I *should* (more often : *would)* get a first class.
He said he *would* be twenty-five next birthday.
She said she *would* carry my books.
She *would* sit for hours listening to the wireless. (Past habit)

315. *Should* is used in all persons to express duty or obligation ; as,

We *should* obey the laws.
You *should* keep your promise.
Children *should* obey their parents.

316. In clauses of condition, *should* is used to express a supposition that may not be true.

If it *should* rain, they will not come.

If he *should* see me here, he will be annoyed.

317. *Should* and *would* are also used as in the examples below.

(*i*) I *should* (or : *would*) like you to help her. ('*Should/would* like' is a polite form of 'want'.)

(*ii*) *Would* you lend me your scooter, please ? ('Would you ?' is more polite than 'Will you')

(*iii*) You *should* have been more careful. (*Should*+perfect infinitive indicates a past obligation that was not fulfilled.)

(*iv*) He *should* be in the library now. (Expresses probability)

(*v*) I wish you *would* not chatter so much. (*Would* after *wish* expresses a strong desire.)

Must, Ought to

318. *Must* is used to express necessity or obligation.

You *must* improve your spelling.
We *must* get up early.

318A. *Must* refers to the present or the near future. To talk about the past we use *had to* (the past form of *have to*); *must* has no past form.
Yesterday we *had to* get up early.

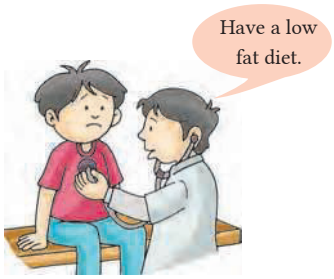

319. *Must* is often used when the obligation comes from the speaker. When the obligation comes from somewhere else, *have to* is often used. Compare:
I *must* be on a diet. (It is my own idea.)
I *have to* be on a diet. (The doctor has told me to be on a diet.)

319A. *Must* can also express logical certainty.
Living in such crowded conditions *must* be difficult. (=I am sure it is difficult.)
She *must have left* already. (I am sure she *has left* already.)

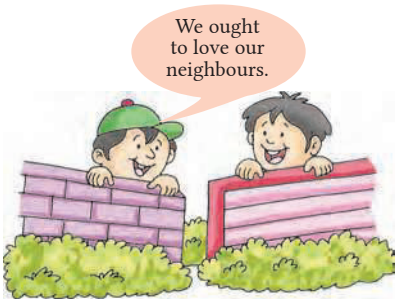

320. *Ought (to)* expresses moral obligation or desirability ; as,
We ought to love our neighbours.
We ought to help him.
You *ought* to know better.

321. *Ought (to)* can also be used to express probability.
Prices *ought to* come down soon.
This book *ought* to be very useful.

Used (to), Need, Dare

322. The auxiliary *used (to)* expresses a discontinued habit.
There *used* to be a house there.
I *used* to live there when I was a boy.

Used to, as an auxiliary verbs is old-fashioned and very formal. Today we normally used *did* in negatives and question (e.g. *Did* you *used* to swim?)

323. The auxiliary *need,* denoting necessity or obligation, can be conjugated with or without *do.*When conjugated without *do,* it has no *-s* and *-ed* forms and is used with an infinitive without *to* only in negative and interrogative sentences and in sentences that contain semi-negative words like 'scarcely' and 'hardly'.
He *need* not go. (=It is not necessary for him to go.)
Need I write to him ?
I *need* hardly take his help.

324. When conjugated with *do, need* has the usual forms *needs, needed* and is used with a to-infinitive. It is commonly used in negatives and questions ; it sometimes occurs in the affirmative also.
Do you *need* to go now ?
I *don't need* to meet him.
One *needs* to be careful.

325. Compare :
(*i*) I didn't need to buy it. (=It was not necessary for me to buy it and I didn't buy it.)
(*ii*) I needn't have bought it. (=It was not necessary for me to buy it, but I bought it.)

326. The auxiliary *dare* (=be brave enough to), as distinct from the ordinary verb *dare* (=challenge), does not take *-s* in the third person singular present tense. It is generally used in negative and interrogative sentences. When conjugated without *do,* it is followed by an infinitive without *to ;* when conjugated with *do,* it takes an infinitive with or without *to* after it.
He *dare* not take such a step.
How *dare* you contradict me ?
He *dared* not do it.
He *doesn't dare* speak to me.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 59

Choose the correct alternative.

1. I don't think I (shall, should, can) be able to go.
2. He (shall, will, dare) not pay unless he is compelled.
3. You (should, would, ought) be punctual.
4. I wish you (should, would, must) tell me earlier.
5. (Shall, Will, Would) I assist you ?
6. (Shall, should, would) you please help me with this ?
7. You (ought, should, must) to pay your debts.
8. He said I (can, might, should) use his telephone at any time.
9. If you (shall, should, would) see him, give him my regards.
10. He (need, dare, would) not ask for a rise, for fear of losing his job.
11. I (needn't to see, needn't have seen, didn't need to see) him, so I sent a letter.
12. (Shall, Might, Could) you show me the way to the station.
13. To save my life, I ran fast, and (would, could, was able to) reach safely.
14. I (would, used, ought) to be an atheist but now I believe in God.
15. You (needn't, mustn't, won't) light a match ; the room is full of gas.
16. The Prime Minister (would, need, is to) make a statement tomorrow.
17. You (couldn't wait, didn't need to wait, need't have waited) for me ; I could have found the way all right.
18. I was afraid that if I asked him again he (can, may, might) refuse.
19. She (shall, will, dare) sit outside her garden gate for hours at a time, looking at the passing traffic.
20. (Should, Would, Shall) you like another cup of coffee ?
21. I wish he (should, will, would) not play his wireles so loudly.
22. I (am to leave, would leave, was to have left) on Thursday. But on Thursday I had a terrible cold, so I decided to wait till Saturday.
23. He (used, is used, was used) to play cricket before his marriage.
24. (Shall, Will, Would) I carry the box into the house for you ?
25. He (will, can, might) come, but I should be surprised.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 59A

Rewrite each of these sentences, using a modal verb. (In 2 and 9, use another modal.)

1. Possibly she isn't Anil's sister.
2. Perhaps we will go to Shimla next month.
3. My sister was able to read the alphabet when she was 18 months old.
4. It is necessary that you do not wash the car. (The paint is still wet.)
5. It is not necessary for you to wash the car. (It is clean.)
6. I am certain that they have left already.
7. Do you allow me to use your phone?
8. I was in the habit of going to the beach every day when I was in Chennai.
9. He will probably pass his driving test easily.
10. Perhaps he forgot about the meeting.
11. I suggest visiting Qutab Minar.
12. Nobody has answered the phone; perhaps they have gone out.
13. I am sure he is over seventy.
14. It was not necessary for me to meet him but I met him.
15. It was not necessary for me to meet him (and I didn't meet him).

Chapter 33 CONJUGATION OF THE VERB LOVE

327. The **conjugation** of a verb shows the various forms it assumes, either by inflection or by combination with parts of other verbs, to mark Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person ; and to those must be added its Infinitives and Participles. Below is given the complete conjugation of the verb *love,* with a view to helping the pupil to systematize the knowledge already acquired by him.

(I) TENSES

Simple Present

Active	*Passive*
I love	I am loved
You love	You are loved
He loves	He is loved
They love	They are loved

Present Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I am loving	I am being loved
You are loving	You are being loved
He is loving	He is being loved
We are loving	We are being loved
They are loving	They are being loved

Present Perfect

Active	*Passive*
I have loved	I have been loved
You have loved	You have been loved
He has loved	He has been loved
We have loved	We have been loved
They have loved	They have been loved

Present Perfect Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I have been loving	.....
You have been loving	.....
We have been loving	.....
They have been loving	.....

Simple Past

Active	*Passive*
I loved	I was loved
You loved	You were loved
He loved	He was loved
We loved	We were loved
They loved	They were loved

Past Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I was loving	I was being loved
You were loving	You were being loved
He was loving	He was being loved
They were loving	They were being loved

Past Perfect

Active	*Passive*
I had loved	I had been loved
You had loved	You had been loved
He had loved	He had been loved
We had loved	We had been loved
They had loved	They had been loved

Past Perfect Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I had been loving	.....
You had been loving	.....
He had been loving	.....
We had been loving	.....
They had been loving	.....

Simple Future

Active	*Passive*
I shall/will love	I shall/will be loved
You will love	You will be loved
He will love	He will be loved
We shall love	We shall be loved
They will love	They will be loved

Future Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I shall/will be loving	.....
You will be loving	.....
He will be loving	.....
We shall be loving	.....
They will be loving	.....

Future Perfect

Active	*Passive*
I shall/will have loved	I shall/will have been loved
You will have loved	You will have been loved
He will have loved	He will have been loved
We shall have loved	We shall have been loved
They will have loved	They will have been loved

Future Perfect Continuous

Active	*Passive*
I shall/will have been loving	.....
You will have been loving	.....
He will have been loving	.....
We shall have been loving	.....
They will have been loving	.....

(II) The Imperative

Love	Be loved

(III) Non-Finites

Present Infinitive	to love	to be loved
Continuous Infinitive	to be loving	.....
Perfect Participle	to have loved	to have been loved
Present Participle	loving	being loved
Perfect Participle	having loved	having been loved

Chapter 34 THE ADVERB

328. Read the following sentences.
   1. Rama runs *quickly*.
   2. This is a *very* sweet mango.
   3. Govind reads *quite* clearly.

In sentence 1, *quickly* shows **how** (or **in what manner**) Rama *runs* ; that is, *quickly* modifies the **Verb** *runs.*

In sentence 2, *very* shows **how much** (or **in what degree**) the mango is *sweet* ; that is, *very* modifies the **Adjective** sweet.

In sentence 3, *quite* shows **how far** (or **to what extent**) Govind reads *clearly ;* that is, *quite* modifies the **Adverb** *clearly.*

A word that modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another Adverb is called an **Adverb.** The words *quickly, very,* and *quite* are, therefore, Adverbs.

Def—An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of a Verb, an Adjective or another Adverb.

329. In the following sentences Adverbs modify phrases.

She was sitting *close* beside him.
At what hour is the sun *right* above us ?
Have you read *all* through this book ?
She was dressed *all* in pink.
He paid his debts *down* to the last penny.

330. Adverbs standing at the beginning of sentences sometimes modify *the whole sentence,* rather than any particular word ; as,

Probably he is mistaken. [=It is probable that he is mistaken.]
Possibly it is as you say.
Certainly you are wrong.
Evidently the figures are incorrect.
Unfortunately no one was present there.
Luckily he escaped unhurt.

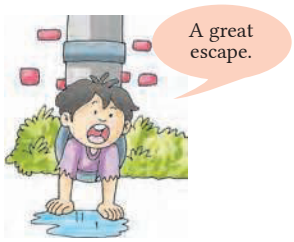

Kinds of Adverbs

331. Adverbs may be divided into the following classes, according to their *meaning.*

(1) **Adverbs of Time** (which show *when)*

I have heard this *before.*
We shall *now* begin to work.
I had a letter from him *lately.*
He comes here *daily.*
I have spoken to him *already.*
He once met me in Cairo ;
Mr. Gupta *formerly* lived here.
That day he arrrived *late.*
He called here a few minutes *ago.*
The end *soon* came.
I hurt my knee *yesterday.*
Wasted time *never* returns.
I have not seen him *since.*

(2) **Adverbs of Frequency** (which show *how often)*

I have told you *twice.*
He *often* makes mistakes.
The postman called *again.*
He *frequently* comes unprepared.
I have not seen him *once.*
He *seldom* comes here.
He *always* tries to do his best.

(3) **Adverbs of Place** (which show *where*)

Stand *here.*
The little lamb followed
Mary *everywhere.*
He looked *up.*
Is Mr. Das *within* ?
The horse galloped *away.*
Go *there.*
My brother is *out.*
Come *in.*
Walk *backward.*

(4) **Adverbs of Manner** (which show *how* or in what *manner)*

Govind reads *clearly.*
This story is *well* written.
The child slept *soundly.*
Slowly and *sadly* we laid him down.
You should not do *so.*
The Sikhs fought *bravely.*
The boy works *hard.*
I was *agreeably* disappointed.
Is that *so* ?
Thus only, will you succeed.

Note—This class includes nearly all those Adverbs which are derived from adjectives and end in *-ly.*

(5) **Adverbs of Degree** or **Quantity** (which show *how much*, or *in what degree* or *to what extent)*

He was *too* careless.
These mangoes are *almost* ripe.
I am *fully* prepared.
The sea is *very* stormy.
He is good *enough* for my pupose.
I am *so* glad.
You are *altogether* mistaken.
Things are *no better* at present.
She sings *pretty* well.

Is that *any* better ?

You are *quite* wrong.
I am *rather* busy.

You are *partly* right.

He is *as* tall as Rama.

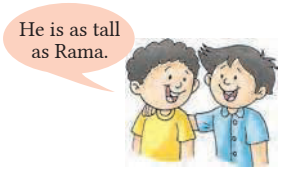

(6) **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation**

Surely you are mistaken.
He *certainly* went.

I do *not* know him.

(7) **Adverbs of Reason**

He is *hence* unable to refute the charge.
He *therefore* left school.

332. Some of the above Adverbs may belong to more than one class.

She sings *delightfully.* (Adverb of Manner)
The weather is *delightfully* cool. (Adverb of Degree)
Don't go *far.* (Adverb of Place)
He is *far* better now. (Adverb of Degree)

Note—The above are all examples of Simple Adverbs. (See § 336)

333. *Yes* and *no*, when they are used by themselves, are equivalents of sentences.

Have you typed the letter ? *Yes.*
[Here *yes* stands for the sentence 'I have typed the letter'.]
Are you going to Japan ? *No.*
[Here *no* means 'I am not going to Japan'.]

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 60

In the following sentences (1) pick out the Adverbs and tell what each modifies ; (2) tell whether the modified word is a Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb ; (3) classify each Adverb as an Adverb of time, place, manner, degree, etc.

1. He was ill pleased.
2. Try again.
3. He is too shy.
4. We rose very early.
5. I am so glad to hear it.
6. Cut it lengthwise.
7. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
8. Are you quite sure ?
9. That is well said.
10. Once or twice we have met alone.
11. The railway station is far off.
12. I have heard this before.
13. Father is somewhat better.
14. I am much relieved to hear it.
15. The walk was rather long.
16. The patient is much worse today.
17. She arrived a few minutes ago.
18. Ambition urges me forward.
19. She was dressed all in black.
20. We were very kindly received.
21. Her son is out in Iran.
22. I surely expect him tomorrow.
23. He could not speak, he was so angry.
24. You are far too hasty.
25. The secret is out.
26. He is old enough to know better.
27. I would much rather not go.
28. You need not roar.
29. Your watch is five minutes too fast.
30. He went off on Monday.
31. His health is no worse than before.
32. Wisdom is too high for a fool.
33. There is a screw loose somewhere.
34. I see things differently now.
35. Rome was not built in a day.
36. The door burst open and in they came.
37. We have scorched the snake, not killed it.
38. Do not crowd your work so closely together.
39. The patient is no better today.
40. He needs to do it.
41. Do not walk so fast.
42. Put not your trust in princes.
43. Order the carriage round.
44. He has been shamefully treated.
45. I wonder you never told me.

334. When Adverbs are used *in asking questions* they are called **Interrogative Adverbs ; as,**

Where is Abdul ?	[Inter. Adverb of Place]
When did you come ?	[Inter. Adverb of Time]
Why are you late ?	[Inter. Adverb of Reason]
How did you contrive it ?	[Inter. Adverb of Manner]
How many boys are in your class ?	[Inter. Adverb of Number]
How high is Rajabai Tower ?	[Inter. Adverb of Degree]

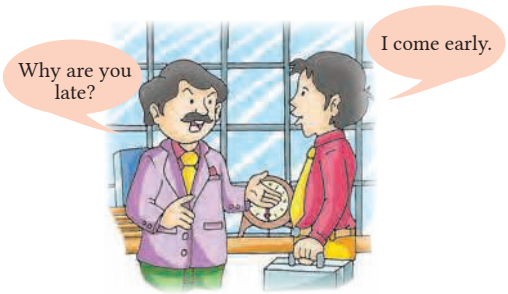

335. Read the sentences.

Show me the house *where* (=in which) he was assaulted.

Here the Adverb *where* modifies the verb *was assaulted.*

Further the Adverb *where,* like a Relative Pronoun, here relates or refers back to its antecedent *house.* It is, therefore, called a **Relative Adverb.**

Further examples of Relative Adverbs :—

This is the reason *why* I left.

Do you know the time *when* the Punjab Mail arrives ?

336. It will be now seen that according to their *use,* Adverbs are divided into three classes—

(1) Simple Adverbs, used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb; as,
I can *hardly* believe it. You are *quite* wrong.
How brightly the moon shines!

(2) Interrogative Adverbs, used to ask questions; as,
Why are you late ?

(3) Relative Adverbs, which refer back to a noun as their antecedent ; as,
I remember the house *where* I was born.

337. It will be noticed that —

(1) A Simple Adverb merely modifies some word.

(2) An Interrogative Adverb not only modifies some word, but also introduces a question.

(3) A Relative Adverb not only modifies some word, but also refers back to some antecedent.

Forms of Adverbs

338. Some Adverbs are the *same in form* as the corresponding Adjectives ; that is, some words are used sometimes as Adjectives, sometimes as Adverbs.

Adjectives	***Adverbs***
He spoke in a *loud* voice.	Don't talk so *loud.*
Rama is our *fast* bowler.	Rama can bowl *fast.*
He lives in the *next* house.	When I *next* see him, I shall speak to him.
He went to the *back* entrance.	Go *back.*
Every *little* difficulty ruffles his temper.	He is *little* known outside India.
This is a *hard* sum.	He works *hard* all day.
It's an *ill* wind that blows nobody good.	I can *ill* afford to lose him.
He is the *best* boy in this class.	He behaves *best.*
He is *quick* to take offence.	Run *quick.*
Are you an *early* riser ?	We started *early.*
The teacher has a *high* opinion of that boy.	Always aim *high.*
He is the *only* child of his parents.	You can *only* guess.
We have food *enough* to last a week.	She sings well *enough.*
He is no *better* than a fool.	He knows me *better* than you.
There is *much* truth in what he says.	The patient is *much* better.

Remember that it is only by noticing *how a word is used* that we can tell what Part of Speech it is.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 61

Form sentences to illustrate the use of the following words (1) as Adjectives, (2) as Adverbs.

very, near, ill, only, clean, long, late, early, fast

339. Some Adverbs have two forms, the form ending in *ly* and the form which is the same as the Adjective ; as,
He sings very *loud.* He sings very *loudly.*

Sometimes, however, the two forms of the Adverb have *different meanings* ; as,
Rama works *hard* (= diligently).
I could *hardly* (= scarcely) recognize him.
Stand *near.* (Opposed to *distant)*
Rama and Hari are *nearly* (= closely) related.
He arrived *late.* (Opposed to *early*).
I have not seen him *lately* (= recently).
I am *pretty* (= tolerably, fairly) sure of the fact.
She is *prettily* (= neatly, elegantly) dressed.

340. Some Adverbs are used as Nouns after prepositions ; as,
He lives far from *here* (= this place).
He comes from *there* (= that place).
I have heard that before *now* (= this time).
By *then* (= that time) the police arrived on the scene.
Since *when* (= what time) have you taken to smoking ?
The rain comes from *above.*

Note— The common use of from with thence and whence is wrong. Thence= from there; whence = from where. Thus the addition of from to either of these words is incorrect.

341. Certain Adverbs sometimes seem to be used as Adjectives, when some participle or adjective is understood.
The *then* king = the king *then reigning.*
A *down* train = a *down-going* train.
An *up* train = an *up-going* train.
The *above* statement = the statement *made above.*

342. In the following sentences *the* is not the definite article, but an old demonstrative pronoun used as an Adverb.
The more *the* merrier [= *by how much* the more *by so much* the merrier; that is, the more numerous a party is, the more enjoyable it is].
The fewer *the* better = [*by how much* the fewer *by so much* the better].
The sooner *the* better = [*by how much* the sooner *by* so much the better].
He has tried it and is [so much] *the* better for it.
It will be noticed that *the* is used as an Adverb only with an adjective or another adverb in the comparative degree.

343. Nouns expressing adverbial relations of *time, place, distance, weight, measurement, value, degree,* or the like, are often used as Adverbs. Thus—

The siege lasted a *week.*	This will last me a *month.*
He went *home.*	We walked five *miles.*
The load weighs three *tonnes.*	It measures five *feet.*
The cloth measures three *metres.*	The watch is only fifty *rupees.*
The wound was *skin* deep.	

A noun so used is called an **Adverbial Accusative.**

344. Sometimes Verbs are used as Adverbs ; as,
Smack went the whip.

Chapter 35 COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

345. Some Adverbs, like Adjectives, have three degrees of comparison. Such Adverbs are generally compared like Adjectives.

346. If the Adverb is of one syllable, we form the Comparative by ending *er,* and the Superlative by adding *est,* to the Positive ; as,

Fast	faster	fastest	Hard	harder	hardest
Long	longer	longest	Soon	sooner	soonest

Rama ran *fast.* (Positive)

Arjun ran *faster.* (Comparative)

Hari ran *fastest* of all. (Superlative)

347. Adverbs ending in *ly* form the Comparative by adding *more* and the Superlative by adding *most* ; as,

Swiftly	more swiftly	most swiftly
Skilfully	more skilfully	most skilfully

Abdul played *skilfully.* (Positive)

Karim played *more skilfully* than Abdul. (Comparative)

Of all the eleven Ahmed played *most skilfully.* (Superlative)

But note *early, earlier, earliest.*

I came *early* this morning.
Ram came *earlier.*
Abdul came *earliest* of all.

348. It will be noticed that only Adverbs of *Manner, Degree,* and *Time* admit of comparison.

Many Adverbs, from their nature, cannot be compared ; as,

Now, then, where, there, once.

349. Some of the commonest Adverbs form their Comparative and Superlative Degrees *irregularly.*

Positive	***Comparative***	***Superlative***
Ill, badly	worse	worst
Well	better	best
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
(Nigh), near	nearer	next
Far	{ farther / further	{ farthest / furthest
Late	later	latest

Rama writes *well.*
Arjun writes *better* than Rama.
Hari writes *best* of all.
Do you work *much ?*
I work *more* than you do.
Hari works *most* of the three of us.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 62

Compare the following Adverbs.

suddenly, often, near, loud, hard, wisely, patiently.

Chapter 36 FORMATION OF ADVERBS

350. Adverbs of Manner are mostly formed from Adjectives by adding *ly* (a corruption of *like*) ; as,
Clever, cleverly; wise, wisely ; kind, kindly ; foolish, foolishly ; quick, quickly; beautiful, beautifully.
Akbar was a *wise* king.
He ruled *wisely* for many years.

When the Adjective ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* and add *ly ;* as,
Happy, happily ; ready, readily ; heavy, heavily.

When the Adjective ends in *le,* simply change *e* into *y ;* as,
Single, singly ; double, doubly.

351. Some Adverbs are made up of a Noun and a qualifying Adjective ; as,
Sometimes, meantime, meanwhile, yesterday, midway, otherwise.

352. Some Adverbs are compounds of *on* (weakened to *a*) and a Noun ; as,
Afoot (= on foot), abed, asleep, ahead, aboard, away.

Similarly there are other Adverbs which are also compounds of some a Preposition and a Noun ; as,
betimes, besides, today, tomorrow, overboard.

Note—The word be is an old form of the Preposition *by*.

353. Some Adverbs are compounds of a Preposition and an Adjective ; as,
abroad, along, aloud, anew, behind, below, beyond.

354. Some Adverbs are compounds of a Preposition and an Adverb; as,
within, without, before, beneath.

355. There is a class of Adverbs which are derived from the Pronouns *the* (= that), *he, who.*

ADVERBS

PRONOUNS					
	Place	*Motion*	*Motion*	*Time*	*Manner*
to	*from*				
The	there	thither	thence	then	thus
He	here	hither	hence	.....	.....
Who	where	whither	whence	when	how

356. Many of the above Adverbs are compounded with Prepositions. Thus we get—
Thereby, therefrom, therein, thereof, thereon, thereto, therewith ; hereafter, hereby, herein, hereupon, herewith ;
wherefore, wherein, whereon, whereof :
hitherto ;
thenceforth, thenceforward ;
henceforth, henceforward.

357. Two Adverbs sometimes go together, joined by the Conjunction *and ;* as,
again and again (= more than once, repeatedly),
by and by (= before long, presently, after a time),
far and near (= in all directions),
far and wide (= comprehensively),
far and away (= by a great deal, decidedly, beyond all comparison),
first and foremost (= first of all),
now and then (= from time to time, occasionally),
now and again (= at intervals, sometimes, occasionally),
off and on (= not regularly, intermittently),

once and again (= on more than one occasion, repeatedly),
out and away (= beyond comparison, by far),
out and out (= decidedly, beyond all comparison),
over and above (= in addition to, besides, as well as),
over and over (= many times, frequently, repeatedly),
through and through (= thoroughly, completely),
thus and thus (= in such and such a way).
to and fro (= backwards and forwards, up and down).

Good books should be read *again and again.*
I warned him *again and again.*
By and by the tumult will subside.
His fame has spread *far and near.*
As a statesman he saw *far and wide.*
This is *far and away* the best course.
He is *far and away* the best bowler in our eleven.
He *now and then* writes on fiscal questions.
I write to him *now and then.*
He worked ten years, *off and on,* on his Pali Dictionary.
I have told you *once and again* that you must not read such trash.
This is *out and away* the best work on Astronomy.
He gained *over and above* this, the goodwill of all people.
Over and above being hard-working he is thoroughly honest.
He reads all the novels of Scott *over and over.*
I believe he is *out and out* the best Indian batsman.
He has read Milton *through and through.*
Thus and thus only we shall succeed.
He walked *to and fro,* meditating.

Chapter 37 POSITION OF ADVERBS

358. Adverbs of manner, which answer the question 'How' (*e.g., well, fast, quickly, carefully, calmly)* are generally placed after the verb or after the object if there is one ; as,

It is raining *heavily.*
The ship is going *slowly.*
She speaks English *well.*
He does his work *carefully.*

359. Adverbs or adverb phrases of place (*e.g., here, there, everywhere, on the wall)* and of time (*e.g., now, then, yet, today, next Sunday)* are also usually placed after the verb or after the object if there is one ; as,

He will come *here.*
I looked *everywhere.*
Hang the picture *there.*
I met him *yesterday.*
They are to be married *next week.*

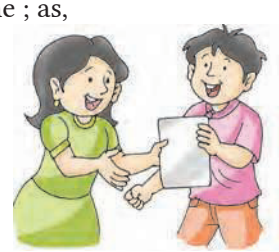

360. When there are two or more adverbs after a verb (and its object), the normal order is : adverb of manner, adverb of place, adverb of time.

She sang well in the *concert.*
We should go *there tomorrow evening.*
He spoke earnestly at the meeting last night.

361. Adverbs of frequency, which answer the question 'How often?' (*e.g., always, never, often, rarely, usually, generally*) and certain other adverbs like *almost, already, hardly, nearly, just, quite* are normally put between the subject and the verb if the verb consists of only one word; if there is more than one word in the verb, they are put after the first word.

His wife *never* cooks.
He has *never* seen a tiger.

I have *often* told him to write neatly.
We *usually* have breakfast at eight.
My uncle has *just* gone out.
I *quite* agree with you.

362. If the verb is *am/are/is/was,* these adverbs are placed after the verb; as,
I am *never* late for school.
He is *always* at home on Sundays.
We are *just* off.

363. These adverbs are usually put before an auxiliary or the single verb *be,* when it is stressed ; as,
"Abdul has come late again." "Yes, he *always* does come late."
"When will you write the essay ?" "But I *already* have written it."
"Will you be free on Sundays ?" "I *usually* am free on Sundays."
"Do you eat meat ?" "Yes, I *sometimes* do."

When an auxiliary is used alone in short responses, as in the last example above, it is stressed and therefore the adverb comes before it.

364. The auxiliaries *have to* and *used to* prefer the adverb in front of them.
I *often* have to go to college on foot.
He *always* used to agree with me.

365. When an adverb modifies an adjective or another adverb, the adverb usually comes before it ; as
Rama is a rather lazy boy.
The dog was quite dead.
The book is very interesting.
Do not speak *so* fast.

366. But the adverb *enough* is always placed after the word which it modifies ; as,
Is the box big *enough* ?
He was rash *enough* to interrupt.
He spoke loud *enough* to be heard.

367. As a general rule, the word *only* should be placed immediately before the word it modifies ; as,
I worked *only* two sums.
He has slept *only* three hours.

In spoken English, however it is usually put before the verb. The required meaning is obtained by stressing the word which the *only* modifies ; as,
I *only* worked two sums.
He has *only* slept three hours.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 63

Insert the given adverbs (or adverb phrases) in their normal position.

1. He invited me to visit him (often).
2. I am determined to yield this point (never).
3. I know the answer (already).
4. We have seen her (just, in the square).
5. I have to reach the office (by 9.30, usually).
6. Will he be (there, still) ?
7. I shall meet you (this evening, in the park).
8. The train has left (just).
9. "Can you park your car near the shops ?""Yes, I can (usually)."
10. You have to check your oil before starting (always).
11. He is in time for meals (never).
12. We should come (here, one morning).
13. He has recovered from his illness (quite).

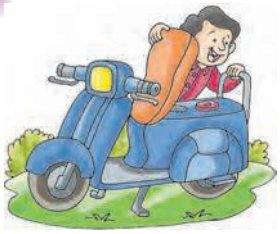

14. She goes to the cinema (seldom).
15. That is not good (enough).
16. You must say such a thing (never, again).
17. Suresh arrives (always, at 9 o'clock, at the office).
18. He played the violin (last night, brilliantly, in the concert).

Chapter 38 THE PREPOSITION

368. Read:

1. There is a cow *in* the field.
2. He is fond *of* tea.
3. The cat jumped *off* the chair.

In sentence 1, the word *in* shows the relation between two things —*cow* and *field.*

In sentence 2, the word *of* shows the relation between the attribute expressed by the adjective *fond* and *tea.*

In sentence 3, the word *off* shows the relation between the action expressed by the verb *jumped* and the *chair.*

The words *in, of, off* are here used as **Prepositions.**

Def— A Preposition is a word *placed before* a noun or a pronoun to show in what *relation* the person or thing denoted by it stands in regard to something else.

[The word Preposition means 'that which is placed before'.]

It will be noticed that—

in sentence 1, the Preposition joins a Noun to another Noun ;
in sentence 2, the Preposition joins a Noun to an Adjective ;
in sentence 3, the Preposition joins a Noun to a Verb.

369. The Noun or Pronoun which is used with a Preposition is called its Object. It is in the Accusative case and is said to be governed by the Preposition.

Thus, in sentence 1, the noun *field* is in the Accusative case, governed by the Preposition *in.*

370. A Preposition may have two or more objects ; as,
The road runs over *hill* and *plain.*

371. A Preposition is usually placed *before* its object, but sometimes it follows it ; as,

1. Here is the watch *that* you asked *for.*
2. That is the boy *(whom)* I was speaking *of.*
3. *What* are you looking *at* ?
4. *What* are you thinking *of* ?
5. *Which* of these chairs did you *sit on* ?

Note 1 — When the object is the Relative Pronoun that, as in sentence 1, the Preposition is always placed at the end.

The Preposition is often placed at the end when the object is an interrogative pronoun (as in sentences 3, 4 and 5) or a Relative Pronoun understood (as in sentence 2).

Note 2 — Sometimes the object is placed first for the sake of emphasis; as,
This I insist *on.* He is known all the *world over.*

372. The Prepositions *for, from, in, on* are often omitted before nouns of place or time; as,
We did it last *week.* I cannot walk a *yard.* Wait a *minute.*

Kinds of Prepositions

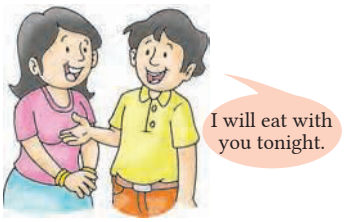

373. Prepositions may be arranged in the following classes:

(1) Simple Prepositions

at, by, for, from, in, of, off, on, out, through, till, to, up, with.

(2) Compound Prepositions which are generally formed by prefixing a Preposition (usually *a* = no or *be* = by) to a Noun, an Adjective or an Adverb.

About, above, across, along, amidst, among, amongst, around, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, inside, outside, underneath, within, without.

(3) Phrase Prepositions (Groups of words used with the force of a single preposition.)

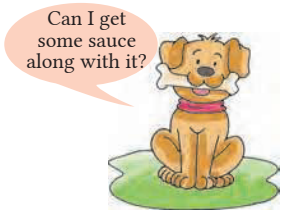

according to	in accordance with	in place of
agreeably to	in addition to	in reference to
along with	in (on) behalf of	in regard to
away from	in case of	in spite of
because of	in comparison to	instead of
by dint of	in compliance with	in the event of
by means of	in consequence of	on account of
by reason of	in course of	owing to
by virtue of	in favour of	with a view to
by way of	in front of	with an eye to
conformably to	in lieu of	with reference to
for the sake of	in order to	with regard to

He succeeded *by dint of* perseverance and sheer hard work.
In case of need, phone 32567.
By virtue of the power vested in me, I hereby order, etc.
In consequence of his illness he could not finish the work in time.
Owing to his ill health, he retired from business.
With reference to your letter of date, we regret we cannot allow any further rebate.
In order to avoid litigation, he accepted Rs. 30,000 in full settlement of his claim for Rs. 42,000.
In course of time he saw his mistake.
He died fighting *on behalf of* his country.
On behalf of the staff he read the address.
He persevered *in spite of* difficulties.
In the event of his dying without an issue, his nephew would inherit the whole property.
Instead of talking, prove your worth by doing something.
By reason of his perverse attitude, he estranged his best friends.
He acted *according to* my instructions.
Why don't you *go along with* your brother ?
In accordance with your instructions, we have remitted the amount to your bankers.
There is a big tree *in front of* his house.
Agreeably to the terms of the settlement, we herewith enclose our cheque for Rs. 1000.
By way of introduction, he made some pertinent remarks.
By means of rope ladders they scaled the wall.
For the sake of their beliefs, the Puritans emigrated to America.
In course of his researches he met with many difficulties.
He abdicated the throne *in favour of* his eldest son.
He could not attend school *because of* his father's serious illness.
He accepted the car *in lieu of* his claim for Rs. 3,25,000.
With a view to an amicable settlement, we offer you without prejudice Rs. 7,500 in full settlement of all your claims uptodate.
On account of his negligence the company suffered a heavy loss.
Whatever he does, he does *with an eye to* the main chance.

He died fighting on behalf of his country.

374. *Barring, concerning, considering, during, notwithstanding, pending, regarding, respecting, touching,* and a few similar words which are present participles of verbs, are used absolutely without any noun or pronoun being attached to them. For all practical purposes, they have become Prepositions, and are sometimes distinguished as **Participial Prepositions.**

Barring (= excepting, apart from) accident, the mail will arrive tomorrow.
Concerning (= about) yesterday's fire, there are many rumours in the bazar.
Considering (= taking into account) the quality, the price is not high.
Ulysses is said to have invented the game of chess *during* the siege of Troy.
Notwithstanding (= in spite of) the resistance offered by him, he was arrested by the police.
Pending further orders, Mr. Desai will act as Headmaster.
Regarding your inquiries, we regret to say that at present we are not interested in imitation silk.
Respecting the plan you mention, I shall write to you hereafter.
Touching (= with regard to) this matter, I have not as yet made up my mind.

375. Several words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions. A word is a Preposition when it governs a noun or pronoun ; it is an Adverb when it does not.

Adverb	***Preposition***
Go, and run *about.*	Don't loiter *about* the street.
I could not come *before.*	I came the day *before* yesterday.
Has he come *in* ?	Is he *in* his room ?
The wheel came *off.*	The driver jumped *off* the car.
Let us move *on.*	The book lies *on* the table.
His father arrived soon *after.*	*After* a month he returned.
Take this parcel *over* to the postoffice.	He rules *over* a vast empire.
I have not seen him *since.*	I have not slept *since* yesterday.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 64

Name the Prepositions in the following sentences, and tell the word which each governs.

1. Little Jack Horner sat in a corner.
2. Old Mother Hubbard, she went to the cupboard.
3. The lion and the unicorn fought for the crown.
4. Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall.
5. Wee Willie Winkie runs through the town.
6. She sat by the fire, and told me a tale.
7. Rain, rain, go to Spain, and never come back again.
8. A fair little girl sat under a tree.
9. Such a number of rocks came over her head.
10. John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown.
11. "Will you walk into my parlour ?" said the spider to the fly.
12. Into the street the Piper stepped.
13. I can never return with my poor dog Tray.
14. He worked and sang from morn till night.
15. They all ran after the farmer's wife, who cut off their tails with a carving knife.
16. One day the boy his breakfast took, and ate it by a purling brook which through his mother's orchard ran.
17. Old John with white hair, does laugh away care, sitting under the oak, among the old folk.
18. They rise with the morning lark, and labour till almost dark.
19. By the Nine Gods he swore.
20. Under a spreading chestnut-tree the village smithy stands.
21. He goes on Sunday to church, and sits among his boys.
22. I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers, from the seas and the streams.
23. Her arms across her breast she laid.
24. Mine be a cot beside the hill.
25. Around my ivied porch shall spring each fragrant flower that drinks the dew.
26. One crowded hour of glorious life is worth an age without a name.
27. I tried to reason him out of his fears.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 65

Distinguish the Prepositions from Adverbs in the following sentences.

1. Come down.
2. We sailed down the river.
3. The man walked round the house.
4. He sat on a stool.
5. The carriage moved on.
6. The soldiers passed by.
7. The man turned round.
8. We all went in.
9. He is in the room.
10. He hid behind the door.
11. I left him behind.
12. She sat by the cottage door.
13. The path leads through the woods.
14. I have read the book through.
15. The storm is raging without.
16. We cannot live without water.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 66

Form sentences to illustrate the use of the following words (1) as Prepositions, and (2) as Adverbs.

Behind, up, by, along, in, about, beyond, under, before, after.

376. We have seen that the object to a Preposition is a Noun or Pronoun. Sometimes, however, the object to a Preposition is an Adverb of Time or Place (See § 340); as,

I will be done by *then* (= that time).
Since *then* (= that time) he has not shown his face.
Come away from *there* (= that place).
He must have reached there by *now* (= this time).
How far is it from *here* (= this place) ?
It cannot last for *ever.*

377. Sometimes the object to a Preposition is an Adverbial Phrase ; as,

Each article was sold at *over a pound.*
The noise comes from *across the river.*
He was not promoted to the rank of a colonel till *within a few months of his resignation.*
I sold my car for *under its half cost.*
He swore from dawn till *far into the night.*
He did not see her till a *few days ago.*
I was thinking about *how to circumvent him.*

378. A clause can also be the object to a Preposition ; as,
Pay careful attention to *what I am going to say.*
There is no meaning in *what you say.*

379. The object to a Preposition, when it is a relative pronoun, is sometimes omitted ; as,
He is the man I was looking for. [Here *whom* is understood.]
These are the good rules to live by. [Here *which* is understood.]

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 67

Fill in blanks with suitable Prepositions.

1. The dog ran ____the road.
2. The river flows ____the bridge.
3. The work was done ____haste.

4. He is afraid ____the dog.
5. I am fond ____music.
6. He goes ____Sunday ____ church.
7. He died ____his country.
8. The steam engine was invented ____James Watt.
9. The burglar jumped ____the compound wall.
10. The village was destroyed ____fire.
11. What is that ____me ?
12. It cannot be done ____offence.
13. He spoke ____me ____Urdu.
14. They live ____the same roof.
15. I have not seen him ____Wednesday last.
16. I have known him ____a long time.
17. The moon does not shine ____its own light.
18. This is a matter ____little importance.
19. I am tired ____walking.
20. He has not yet recovered ____his illness.
21. I shall do it ____pleasure.
22. God is good ____me.
23. I will sit ____my desk to do my lesson.
24. I am sorry ____what I have done.
25. O God ! Keep me ____sin.
26. I bought it ____ seventy rupees.
27. He broke the jug ____a hundred pieces.
28. It has been raining ____yesterday.
29. I have been working hard ____arithmetic.
30. We suffered ____your neglect.
31. The exercise was written ____me ____a Camlin pen.
32. "Will you walk ____my parlour ?" said the spider ____the fly.
33. It is ten o'clock ____my watch.
34. There is nothing new ____the sun.
35. Do not cry ____spilt milk.
36. You, boys, must settle it ____yourselves.
37. The public are cautioned ____pickpockets.
38. They drove ____Mumbai ____Pune.

380. Prepositions are very commonly used in composition with verbs, to form new verbs. Sometimes they are prefixed ; as,

outbid, overcome, overflow, overlook, undergo, undertake, uphold, withdraw, withhold, withstand.

More frequently Prepositions follow the verbs and remain separate; as,
boast of, laugh at, look for, send for.

He *boasted of* his accomplishments.
He *looked for* his watch everywhere.
Please *send for* Rama.
Everyone *laughed at* him.

Relations expressed by Prepositions

381. The following are some of the most common relations indicated by Prepositions:

(1) Place ; as,

Went *about* the world ; ran *across* the road ; leaned *against* a wall ; fell *among* thieves ; quarrelled *among* themselves ; *at* death's door ; *sit on* the deck ; stood *before* the door ; stood *behind* the curtain ; lies *below* the surface ; sat *beside*

me ; plies *between* Mumbai and Alibag ; stand *by* me; rain comes *from* the clouds ; *in* the sky ; fell *into* a ditch ; lies *near* his heart ; Kolkata is *on* the Hooghly ; the cliff hangs *over* the sea ; tour *round* the world ; marched *through* the town ; came *to* the end of the road ; put pen *to* paper ; travelled *towards* Nasik ; lay *under* the table ; climbed *up* the ladder ; lies *upon* the table ; *within* the house.

(2) Time ; as,

After his death ; *at* an early date ; arrived *before* me ; *behind* time ; *by* three o'clock; *during* the whole day ; *for* many years ; *from* 1st April ; *in* the afternoon ; sat watching far on *into* the night ; lived *under* the Moghuls; *on* Monday ; *pending* his return ; *since* yesterday ; lasted *through* the night ; *throughout* the year ; wait *till* to-morrow ; ten minutes *to* twelve; *towards* evening ; *until* his arrival ; rise *with* the sun ; *within* a month.

(3) Agency, instrumentality ; as,

Sell goods *at* auction ; sent the parcel *by* post ; was stunned *by* a blow ; was destroyed *by* fire ; heard this *through* a friend ; cut it *with* a knife.

(4) Manner ; as,

Dying *by* inches ; fought *with* courage ; worked *with* earnestness, won *with* ease.

(5) Cause, reason, purpose ; as,

Laboured *for* the good of humanity ; died *of* fever ; the very place *for* a picnic; did it *for* our good ; suffers *from* gout ; died *from* fatigue ; does it *from* perversity; retreated *through* fear of an ambush; concealed it *through* shame; lost his purse *through* negligence ; shivers *with* fever ; took medicine *for* cold.

(6) Possession ; as,

There was no money *on* him ; the mosque *of* Omar ; a man *of* means ; the boy *with* red hair.

(7) Measure, standard, rate, value ; as,

He charges interest *at* nine per cent. Stories like these must be taken *at* what they are worth. Cloth is sold *by* the yard. I am taller than you *by* two inches. It was one *by* the tower-clock.

(8) Contrast, concession ; as,

After (in spite of, notwithstanding) every effort, one may fail. *For* one enemy he has a hundred friends. *For* (in spite of) all his wealth he is not content. *With* (in spite of) all his faults I admire him.

(9) Inference, motive, source, or **origin** ; as,

From what I know of him, I hesitate to trust him. The knights were brave *from* gallantry of spirit. He did it *from* gratitude. Light emanates *from* the sun. *From* labour health, from health contentment springs. This is a quotation *from* Milton. His skill comes *from* pracitce.

Note— It will be seen that the same Preposition, according to the way in which it is used, would have its place under several heads.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 68

Explain the force of the Preposition in:

1. I will do it *for* all you may say.
2. This work is *beyond* his capacity.
3. I would do anything *before* that.
4. *After* this I wash my hands *of* you.
5. It is cool *for* May.
6. She made grand preparations *against* his coming.
7. It was all *through* you that we failed.
8. He was left *for* dead on the field.
9. All that they did was piety *to* this.
10. The lifeboat made straight *for* the sinking ship.
11. I shall do my duty *by* him.
12. He married *for* money.
13. A man is a man *for* all that.
14. Nothing will come *of* nothing.
15. *With* all his faults I still like him.

382. The following Prepositions require special notice:

(1) We can use *in* or *at* with the names of cities, towns or villages. In most cases *in* is used. We use *in* when we are talking about a place as an area; we use *at* when we see it as a point.
We stayed *in* Mumbai for five days.
Our plane stopped *at* Mumbai on the way to Iran. (Mumbai = Mumbai airport)
How long have you lived *in* this village?

(2) We use *at* to talk about group activities and shops/workplaces.

Did you see Shobha *at* the party?
There weren't many people *at* the meeting.
I saw him *at* the baker's.

(3) We use *in* with the names of streets and *at* when we give the house-number.

He lives *in* Church Street.
He lives *at* 45 Church Street.

(4) We use *on* when we think of a place as a surface.

The dog is lying *on* the floor.
Put this picture *on* the wall.

(5) *Till* is used of *time* and *to* is used of *place*; as

He slept *till* eight o'clock.
He walked *to* the end of the street.

(6) *With* often denotes the *instrument* and *by* the *agent* ; as,

He killed two birds *with* one shot.
He was stabbed *by* a lunatic *with* a dagger.

(7) *Since* is used before a noun or phrase denoting some *point* of time, and is preceded by a verb in the *perfect* tenses ; as,

I have eaten nothing *since* yesterday.
He has been ill *since* Monday last.
I have not been smoking *since* last week.

(8) *In* before a noun denoting a period of time, means *at the end of ; within* means *before the end of* ; as,

I shall return *in* an hour. I shall return *within* an hour.

(9) *Beside* means *at* (or *by*) *the side of*, while *besides* means *in addition to* ; as,

Beside the ungathered rice he lay.
Besides his children, there were present his nephews and nieces.
Besides being fined, he was sentenced to a term of imprisonment.

Note—Be careful not to use beside for besides.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 69

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. He lives _____ Hyderabad. He lives _____ 48 Tilak Street.
2. He started _____six _____the morning.
3. He hanged himself _____a piece of cloth.
4. The portrait was painted _____a famous artist who flourished _____the sixteenth century.
5. I must start _____dawn to reach the station in time.
6. I hope to reach the station _____an hour at the outside.
7. The child has been missing _____yesterday.
8. The caravan must reach its destination _____sunset.
9. The mail train is due _____3 P.M.
10. He travelled thirty kilometres _____two hours.
11. He rushed _____my room, panting for breath.
12. He does not leave his house _____9 o'clock.
13. The Express departs _____3 P.M. _____Delhi.
14. Human sacrifices were practised _____the Nagas.
15. I received his message _____eight o'clock _____the morning.
16. _____last month I have seen him but once.
17. _____rice they had curry.
18. The fever has taken a turn for the better _____yesterday.

19. He has spent his life ____Kolkata.
20. I saw him felling a big tree ____a hatchet.
21. Come and sit ____me.
22. Nobody ____you knows the truth.
23. While I was ____Delhi he was ____Mumbai.
24. He was killed ____the robber ____a hatchet.
25. We shall stay three months ____America.
26. ____Rustam and Sohrab, there were three other boys present.
27. ____a Ford he has a Fiat car.

Prepositions with forms of transport

383. We use *by* + noun when we talk about means of transport. We do not use *the* or *a/ an* before the noun.

We travelled *by* train. (not : by *the/a* train)
We say *by bicycle, by car/ taxi/bus/train, by boat/ ship/ plane, by air/sea.*

We do not use *by* when the reference is to a specific bicycle, car, train, etc.
Suresh went there *on* my bike. (not : by my bike)
We travelled *in* Mr. Joshi's car. (not : by Mr. Joshi's car)
They came *in* a taxi.
I'll go *on* the 7.30 bus.

We use *on* to mean a specific bicycle, bus, train, ship or plane, and *in to mean* a specific car, taxi, van, lorry or ambulance.
We say *on foot* (not *by foot).*
He goes to the office *on* foot. (= He walks to the office.)

Chapter 39 WORDS FOLLOWED BY PREPOSITIONS

384. Certain Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, and Participles are always followed by particular Prepositions. Read the following sentences, noting appropriate Prepositions:

Mumbai is famous *for* its textiles.
The goat subsists *on* the coarsest of food.
Jawaharlal Nehru was fond *of* children.
India is a noble, gorgeous land, teeming *with* natural wealth.
Being apprised *of* our approach, the whole neighbourhood came out to meet their minister.
In the classical age the ideal life of the Brahman was divided *into* four stages or *ashrams.*
It is natural in every man to wish *for* distinction.
He was endowed *with* gifts fitted to win eminence in any field of human activity.
The writer is evidently enamoured *of* the subject.
These computers are cheap enough to be accessible *to* most people.
Ambition does not always conduce *to* ultimate happiness.
The true gentleman is courteous and affable *to* his neighbours.
Newly acquired freedom is sometimes liable *to* abuse.
Little Jack proved quite a match *for* the giant.
Camels are peculiarly adapted *to* life in the desert.
He is a man of deep learning, but totally ignorant *of* life and manners.
The income derived *from* the ownership of land is commonly called rent.
The Moors were famous *for* their learning and their skill in all kinds of industries.
Alexander profited *by* the dissensions of the Punjab Rajas.
Few things are impossible *to* diligence and skill.
I am indebted to you *for* your help.
Ashoka, although tolerant *of* competing creeds, was personally an ardent Buddhist.
The celebrated grammarian Patanjali was a contemporary *of* Pushyamitra Sunga.
The African elephant is now confined *to* Central Africa.
Ivory readily adapts itself *to* the carver's art.
Coleridge's poetry is remarkable *for* the perfection of its execution.
The holy tree is associated *with* scenes of goodwill and rejoicing.

The noise from downstairs prevented me *from* sleeping.
I am already acquainted *with* the latest developments of the situation.
His duties were of a kind ill-suited *to* his ardent and daring character.
Man is entirely different *from* other animals in the utter helplessness of his babyhood.
A residence of eight years in Sri Lanka had inured his system *to* the tropical climate.
The ancient Greeks, though born in a warm climate, seem to have been much addicted *to* the bottle.
He (Dr. Johnson) was somewhat susceptible *to* flattery.
A man who always connives *at* the faults of his children is their worst enemy.
Naples was then destitute *of* what are now, perhaps, its chief attractions.
The cat appears to have originated in Egypt or *in* the East.
Judged *by* its results the policy of Hastings was eminently successful.
In his work Charak often hints *at* the value of sweet oil.
There is still no cure *for* the common cold.
It was formerly supposed that malaria was due *to* poisonous exhalations.
People who are averse *to* hard work, generally do not succeed in life.
Buddhism teaches that freedom *from* desires will lead to escape *from* suffering.

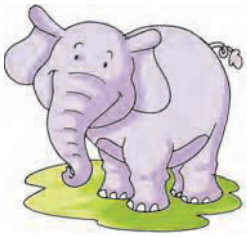

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 70

Construct sentences containing the following expressions.

afflicted with leprosy ; sanguine of success ; commit to memory ; specific for malaria ; allowance for short weight ; appropriate to the occasion ; abstain from animal food ; antipathy to dogs ; convulsed with laughter ; contrary to expectation ; infested with vermin ; touched with pity ; subversive of discipline ; beneficial to health ; tantamount to a refusal; worthy of praise; beset with difficulties ; accountable to God ; atone for misdeeds ; addicted to opium ; entitled to consideration ; heedless of consequences ; deaf to entreaties ; aptitude for business ; incentive to hard work ; sensitive to criticism ; indifferent to praise or blame

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 71

The following nouns take the preposition *for* after them. Use them in sentences.

affection, ambition, anxiety, apology, appetite, aptitude, blame, candidate, capacity, compassion, compensation, contempt, craving, desire, esteem, fitness, fondness, guarantee, leisure, liking, match, motive, need, opportunity, partiality, passion, pity, predilection, pretext, relish, remorse, reputation, surety

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 72

The following nouns take the preposition *with* after them. Use them in sentences.

acquaintance, alliance, bargain, comparison, conformity, enmity, intercourse, intimacy, relations

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 73

The following nouns take the preposition *of* after them. Use them in sentences.

abhorrence, assurance, charge, distrust, doubt, experience, failure, observance, proof, result, want

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 74

The following nouns take the preposition *to* after them. Use them in sentences.

access, accession, allegiance, alternative, antidote, antipathy, approach, assent, attachment, attention, concession, disgrace, dislike, encouragement, enmity, exception, incentive, indifference, invitation, key, leniency, likeness, limit, menace, obedience, objection, obstruction, opposition, postscript, preface, reference, repugnance, resemblance, sequel, submission, succession, supplement, temptation, traitor

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 75

The following nouns take the preposition *from* after them. Use them in sentences.

abstinence, cessation, deliverance, descent, digression, escape, exemption, inference, respite

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 76

The following adjectives and participles take the preposition *to* after them. Use them in sentences.

(*a*) abhorrent, acceptable, accessible, accustomed, addicted, adequate, adjacent, affectionate, agreeable, akin, alien, alive, amenable, analogous, applicable, appropriate, beneficial, callous, common, comparable, condemned.

(*b*) conducive, conformable, congenial, consecrated, contrary, creditable, deaf, derogatory, detrimental, devoted, disastrous, due, entitled, equal, essential, exposed, faithful, fatal, foreign, hostile, impertinent, incidental, inclined.

(*c*) indebted, indifferent, indispensable, indulgent, inimical, insensible, immune, irrelevant, favourable, hurtful, immaterial, impervious, indigenous, liable, limited, lost, loyal, material, natural, necessary.

(*d*) obedient, obliged, offensive, opposite, painful, partial, peculiar, pertinent, pledged, preferable, prejudicial, prior, profitable, prone, reduced, related, relevant, repugnant, responsible, restricted, sacred, sensitive, serviceable, subject, suitable, suited, supplementary, tantamount, true

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 77

The following adjectives and participles take the preposition *in* after them. Use them in sentences.

absorbed, abstemious, accomplished, accurate, assiduous, backward, bigoted, correct, defective, deficient, experienced, diligent, enveloped, fertile, foiled, honest, implicated, interested, involved, lax, proficient, remiss, temperate, versed

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 78

The following adjectives and participles take the preposition *with* after them. Use them in sentences.

acquainted, afflicted, beset, busy, compatible, compliant, consistent, contemporary, content, contrasted, conversant, convulsed, delighted, deluged, disgusted, drenched, endowed, fatigued, fired, gifted., infatuated, infected, infested, inspired, intimate, invested, overcome, popular, replete, satiated, satisfied

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 79

The following adjectives and participles take the preposition *of* after them. Use them in sentences.

accused, acquitted, afraid, apprehensive, apprised, assured, aware, bereft, cautious, certain, characteristic, composed, confident, conscious, convicted, convinced, covetous, defrauded, deprived, desirous, destitute, devoid, diffident, distrustful, dull, easy, envious, fearful, fond, greedy, guilty, heedless, ignorant, informed, innocent, irrespective, lame, lavish, negligent, productive, proud, regardless, sanguine, sensible, sick, slow, subversive, sure, suspicious, tolerant, vain, void, weary, worthy

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 80

The following adjectives and participles take the preposition *for* after them. Use them in sentences.

anxious, celebrated, conspicuous, customary, designed, destined, eager, eligible, eminent, fit, good, grateful, notorious, penitent, prepared, proper, qualified, ready, sorry, sufficient, useful, zealous

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 81

The following verbs take the preposition *to* after them. Use them in sentences.

accede, adapt, adhere, allot, allude, apologize, appoint, ascribe, aspire, assent, attain, attend, attribute, belong, conduce, conform, consent, contribute, lead, listen, object, occur, prefer, pretend, refer, revert, stoop, succumb, surrender, testify, yield

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 82

The following verbs take the preposition *from* after them. Use them in sentences.

abstain, alight, cease, debar, derive, derogate, desist, detract, deviate, differ, digress, dissent, elicit, emerge, escape, exclude, preserve, prevent, prohibit, protect, recoil, recover, refrain

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 83

The following verbs take the preposition *with* after them. Use them in sentences.

associate, bear, clash, coincide, comply, condole, cope, correspond, credit, deluge, disagree, dispense, expostulate, fill, grapple, intrigue, meddle, part, quarrel, remonstrate, side, sympathize, trifle, vie

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 84

The following verbs take the preposition *of* after them. Use them in sentences.

acquit, beware, boast, complain, despair, die, disapprove, dispose, divest, dream, heal, judge, repent, taste

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 85

The following verbs take the prepositions *for* after them. Use them in sentences.

atone, canvass, care, clamour, feel, hope, mourn, pine, start, stipulate, sue, wish, yearn

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 86

The following verbs take the preposition *in* after them. Use them in sentences.

acquiesce, dabble, delight, employ, enlist, excel, fail, glory, increase, indulge, involve, persevere, persist

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 87

The following verbs take the preposition *on* after them. Use them in sentences.

comment, decide, deliberate, depend, determine, dwell, embark, encroach, enlarge, impose, insist, intrude, resolve, subsist, trample

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 88

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. Mr. Ram Lal subscribed a handsome sum ____the Flood Relief Fund.
2. His friends condoled ____him ____his bereavement.
3. He quarrelled ____me ____a trifle.
4. He readily complied ____my request.
5. He dispensed ____the services of his dishonest clerk.
6. He yielded ____superior force.
7. He despaired ____success.
8. He supplies the poor ____clothing.
9. His friends disagreed ____him on that point.
10. He acceded ____my request.
11. He abstains ____liquor.
12. He was found guilty ____manslaughter.
13. He is incapable ____doing good work.
14. He is married ____my cousin.
15. He is sensible ____your kindness.
16. He is true ____his king.
17. He is involved ____difficulties.
18. The auditor is entitled ____his remuneration.

19. I prefer tea ____coffee.
20. I don't concur ____you ____that opinion.
21. There is no exception ____this rule.
22. I am obliged ____you ____your kinddness.
23. I am not envious ____his success.
24. I am convinced ____the necessity of prudence.
25. We should rely ____our own efforts.
26. I inquired ____the servant if his master was at home.

27. I purposely refrained ____saying more.
28. I insisted ____going.
29. I exchanged ____him my calculator ____a camera.
30. I assented ____his proposal.
31. I am not satisfied ____your explanation.
32. You must conform ____the regulations.
33. He did not profit ____experience.
34. We should all aim ____excellence.
35. Alcohol is injurious ____health.

36. He is innocent ____the crime.
37. The stories in that book are full ____interest.
38. Don't associate ____disreputable people.
39. Do not indulge ____strong language.
40. He is grateful ____his master ____many favours.
41. He is dependent ____his parents.
42. He is abstemious ____eating and drinking.
43. He is prompt ____carrying out orders.
44. He is vain ____his attainments.
45. He is deficient ____common sense.
46. He is vexed ____me.
47. He is indifferent ____his own intere
48. He is proficient ____mathematics.

49. He is not ashamed ____his neighbours.
50. He is devoid ____sense.
51. He is suspicious ____all his neighbours.
52. He has a passion ____arguing.
53. Recently there has been a reduction ____ the price of milk.
54. He proved false ____his friend.
55. A square may be equivalent ____a triangle.
56. The avaricious man is greedy—gain.
57. He is very different ____his brother.
58. The head-dress of the Cossacks is similar ____that of the ancient Persians.
59. He was born ____humble parents in Nasik.
60. His views do not accord ____mine.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 89

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. Temperance and employment are conducive ____health.
2. A policeman rescued the child ____danger.
3. Dogs have antipathy ____cats.
4. He promised not to do anything repugnant ____the wishes of his parents.
5. He is not the man to allow any one to encroach ____ his rights.
6. Some of the members of the Assembly complained ____increased military expenditure.
7. Even the enemies admit that he is endowed ____rare talents.
8. He inspires respect ____his friends.
9. Our path is beset ____difficulties.
10. He was not able to give a satisfactory explanation ____his absence.
11. His illness is a mere pretext ____his absence.
12. He has been very much indulgent ____his children.
13. This discussion is hardly relevant ____the subject
14. Contentment is essential ____happiness.

15. Early rising is beneficial ____health.
16. He is not likely to do anything detrimental ____our interests.
17. His benefactions must redound ____his credit.
18. Only graduates are eligible ____the post.
19. He is capable as a leader, but intolerant ____opposition.
20. Boys over sixteen are debarred ____competing.
21. Father Damien consecrated his life ____ ameliorating the lot of lepers.
22. That rule is not applicable ____your case.
23. A public man should be tolerant ____criticism.
24. He is willing to make a concession ____the demands of his employees.
25. I often find him absorbed ____thought.
26. The accommodation is adequate ____our needs.
27. The hotel is adjacent ____the station.
28. The authorship of the book is wrongly ascribed ____him.
29. Never do anything that is not compatible _____public safety.

30. His father often connives ____his follies.
31. Some public men are very sensitive ____criticism.
32. He is addicted ____gambling.
33. You need not be afraid ____being late.
34. Death is preferable ____disgrace.
35. Cats are tenacious ____life.
36. It is not true that the study of science tends ____ atheism.
37. Some films are an incitement ____crime.
38. He was angry ____me, because he thought my remark was aimed ____him.
39. The climate of Rangoon does not agree ____him.
40. His plans are adverse ____my interests.
41. The question of unemployment bristles ____difficulties.
42. Although he was bred ____the law, he became a successful journalist.
43. Generally, the rich are more covetous ____money than the poor.
44. He is still smarting ____rebuke.
45. He scoffed ____the idea of revolution.
46. He has reverted ____his former post.
47. The battle resulted ____a victory for the Allies.
48. He restored the article ____its rightful owner.
49. The whole theory rests ____no firmer foundation than mere conjecture.
50. The ultimate decision rests ____the board of directors.
51. Only when persuasions failed the police resorted ____ force.
52. Superstitious fears preyed ____his mind and made him miserable.
53. He piques himself ____his artistic taste.
54. They now jeered ____him whom they had once acclaimed as their hero.
55. His followers now began to intrigue ____his adversary.
56. She interceded ____her husband on behalf of the people.
57. It is not easy to infer ____his account the real state of affairs.
58. He died without imparting ____anyone the secret of his process.
59. His statement was tantamount ____a confession.
60. The facts point ____a different explanation.
61. His friends prevailed ____him to withdraw his resignation.
62. Few boys are not amenable ____discipline.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 90

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. Silkworms feed ____mulberry trees.
2. Pavlova excels ____dancing.
3. The wild boar abounds ____some parts of Europe.
4. He has no special liking ____mathematics.
5. Ashoka is worthy ____remembrance.
6. The godown is infested ____rats.
7. There is no exception ____this rule.
8. Nothing conduces ____happiness so much as contentment.
9. Alcohol is injurious ____health.
10. Oil is good ____burns.
11. Invalids are not capable ____continued exertion.
12. The British Parliament is composed ____two Houses.
13. Do not confide your secrets ____everyone.
14. He is abstemious ____his habits.
15. He is ignorant ____what he pretends to know.
16. My brother is weak ____mathematics.
17. He has conceived an aversion ____all kinds of profitable labour.
18. Birbal is celebrated ____his witty sayings.
19. The avaricious man is greedy ____gain.
20. The Atlantic separates Europe ____America.
21. Adam assigned ____every creature a name peculiar ____its nature.
22. Temperance and employment are conducive ____ health.
23. A brave boy rescued the child ____danger.

24. Industry is the key _____ success.
25. The customs were searching _____ drugs at the airport.
26. Elizabeth knew how to inspire her soldiers ____hope.

27. Long indulgence ____vice impaired his once robust constitution.
28. Early rising is beneficial ____health.
29. We should live in a style suited ____our condition.
30. Examinations act as an incentive ____diligence.
31. Hard work and perseverance are indispensble ____ success in life.
32. He is too miserly to part ____his money.
33. He is a clever man, but unfortunately diffident ____his powers.
34. Suddenly we were enveloped ____ dense fog.

35. Many aspire ____greatness, but few attained.
36. His income is not adequate ____his wants.
37. The soil of Pune is favourable ____roses.
38. I am sick ____the whole business.
39. A car will be a great convenience ____a busy man like him.
40. Whoever acts contrary ____nature does not go unpunished.
41. The accident resulted _____ the death of five people.
42. These derelict houses are reproach _____ the city.
43. The Germans were called baby-killers and their methods of warfare stigmatized as a reproach ____ civilization.
44. The mule was partially relieved ____the load.
45. America has raised a tariff wall to protect home industries ____foreign competition.
46. The facts point ____a different conclusion.
47. Your wish is tantamount ____a command.
48. This state is committed _____ the policy of total prohibition.
49. One is sure ____what one sees.
50. He is indifferent alike ____praise and blame.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 91

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. No doubt he has achieved much, but I cannot give him credit _____all that he boasts ____.
2. The despotism of custom is everywhere the standing hindrance ____human achievement.
3. He is indebted ____his friend ____a large sum.
4. What Dr. Arnold mainly aimed ____, was to promote the self-development of the young minds committed ____his charge.
5. He was so much enamoured ____her that he forgot his duties ____his children.
6. It is difficult to agree ____those critics who ascribe the work of Shakespeare____Bacon.
7. In his autobiography he refers ____his abhorrence ____animal diet.
8. He conversed ____us ____subjects ____varied interest.
9. The accident happened ____him ____a late hour and ____an out-of-the-way place.
10. A cashier is liable to render account _____the money received _____him.
11. The soldiers ____the fort were provided ____provisions to last them a year.
12. We are accountable ____God ____our actions.
13. Let us vie ____one another ____doing good.
14. His thirst ____knowledge left him no leisure _____anything else.
15. The rich and the poor alike nobly responded ____the call ____further funds.
16. For those who suffer ____nerves the remedy lies ____perfect rest.
17. A slave lies ____the necessity ____obeying his master's orders.
18. The heir ____the throne was free ____physical or moral taint.

19. He impressed ____them that sorcery was vital ____their success.
20. Methylated spirit is spirit of wine made undrinkable by mixing it ____methyl to exempt it ____duty.
21. To love our country, to be interested ____its concerns, is natural ____all men.
22. He complained ____his weak eyes and lamented the necessity ____spectacles.
23. Samudragupta was known ____his skill ____music and song ; he was equally proficient ____the allied art of poetry.
24. It is the grasping of power combined ____the thirst ____fame which constitutes ambition.
25. It would be well for us to admire what is worthy ____admiration in such a people, rather than to carp ____their errors.
26. The common fallacy is that intimacy dispenses ____the necessity of politeness. The truth is just the opposite ____this.
27. The title Master was originally prefixed ____the name of a person of rank or learning ; it is now restricted ____boys.
28. This ticket will entitle you _____ a free seat at the concert.
29. History, as well as daily experience, furnishes instances of men endowed ____the strongest capacity ____business and affairs, who have all their lives crouched under slavery to the grossest superstition.
30. He has no liking ____cards, and lately he has taken a dislike—outdoor exercise.
31. At first they refused to acquience _____ the terms, but finally yielded _____ the logic of facts.
32. The hippopotamus feeds chiefly____aquatic plants, but also seeks its food on land and is sometimes destructive ____cultivated crops.
33. Learning is knowledge especially as acquired ____study ; it is frequently contrasted ____knowledge or wisdom gained ____experience.
34. At the eleventh hour he retired ____the contest, leaving the field open ____his opponent.
35. Coriolanus, with all his greatness, was entirely devoid ____all sympathy ____the people.
36. From this time he became habitually depressed and moody and addicted ____the frequent use ____ alcohol.
37. The first acts of the new administration were characterized rather ____vigour than ____judgement.
38. They were statesmen accustomed ____the management ____great affairs.
39. Measure yourself ____your equals ; and learn ____frequent competition the place which nature has allotted ____you.
40. Contrary ____my instructions, he went ____his depth and would certainly have met ____a fatal mishap but for the timely help rendered ____him.

385. Sometimes a word takes a certain Preposition after it in one context and a different Preposition in another context.

We should accommodate ourselves *to* circumstances. My friend accommodated me *with* a loan.

I differ *with* you *on* this question. Your car differs *from* mine *in* several respects.

I am anxious *about* the result. Her parents are anxious *for* her safety.

He has retired *from* business. He has retired *into* private life.

He has great influence *over* his disciples. He has hardly any influence *with* the Vizier. The remarks of his critics had considerable influence *on* his writings.

All his life he laboured *for* the good of humanity. He is labouring *under* a misapprehension. He laboured *at* his dictionary for twelve years.

Trespassers are liable *to* a fine of Rs. 500. He is liable *for* his wife's debts.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 92

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. A child is not able to distinguish good ____evil. Death does not distinguish ____the rich and the poor. Sir Ronald Ross is distinguished ____his medical researches. Punch is distinguished ____his hunchback. (between, by, for, from)
2. On account of his age he is disqualified ____competing. Ill health disqualified the body ____labour and the mind ____study. (for, from).
3. Innocence is not proof ____scandal. He was discharged as there was no proof ____his guilt. (against, of)

4. He has no good cause ____complaint. Darkness was the cause_____his losing his way. (for, of)
5. True charity does not consist____indiscriminate alms-giving. Brass consists ____copper and zinc. (in, of)
6. I am not concerned ____his affairs. I am not concerned ____him ____that business. He was much concerned ____ hearing the sad news. His parents are naturally concerned ____his safety. (about, at, for, in, with)
7. He parted___his friends in high spirits. He parted___his property and went on pilgrimage to Dwarka. (from, with.)
8. He acted___fear. He acted____my suggestion. He acted___compulsion. (from, under, upon)
9. He succeeded___the throne of his uncle. He succeeded___his object. (in, to)
10. He agreed____my proposal. He agreed___me on that question. They could not agree___themselves. (among, to, with)
11. The patient is now free___danger. He is free___his money. The goods were passed free___duty (from, of, with)
12. I prevailed___him to join our Union. He prevailed___me in the dispute. The peculiar custom prevails___the Todas. (among, over, upon)
13. I was angry _____ him _____ lying to me. (for, with)
14. The city is well provided___corn. We should provide___risk of fire by insuring our goods. He has provided_____his children. (against, for, with)
15. The police is entrusted___the enforcement of law and order. The children were entrusted___the care of their uncle. (to, with)
16. The edition of *Ivanhoe* is adapted___Indian boys. The form and structure of nests are adapted___the wants and habits of each species. Many Urdu plays are adapted___English. (for, from, to)
17. We are all slaves___convention. No man should be a slave___his passions. (of, to)
18. He is blind___one eye. Are you blind___your own interests ? (of, to)
19. There is no exception___the rule. All the ministers were present at the function with the exception___Mr. Smith. He took exception___the presence of an outsider. (against, of, to)
20. His creditors became impatient___payment. Impatient___delay, he knocked at the door rather loudly. The people became impatient___the burden of heavy taxation. (at, for, under)

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 93

Fill in the blanks with appropriate Prepositions.

1. He invested his patrimony____jute shares. The Police Commissioner is invested ____magisterial powers. (in, with)
2. Let us talk____something else. For a while they talked____politics. I will talk ____my son respecting his conduct. (about, of, to)
3. He takes no interest____politics. What you say has no interest____me. I have no interest____the agents of the firm. (for, in, with)
4. He has a reputation____honesty. He has the reputation ____being a good teacher. (for, of)
5. He exercises complete authority____his followers. There is no authority____this use. I say this on the authority____ the Oxford English Dictionary. Dr. Bridge is an authority____English prosody. (for, of, on, over)
6. He fell a victim____his own avarice. The victims ____cholera were mostly poor people. (of, to)
7. I have no use____it. He has lost the use____his right arm. (for, of)
8. There are some diseases that proceed ____dirt. After visiting Agra we proceed ____Delhi. Let us proceed ____the work in hand. (from, to, with)
9. He supplied the poor ____clothing. He supplied clothing ____the poor. (to, with)
10. She was greatly afflicted ____the loss of her only child. The old man is afflicted ____gout. (at, with)
11. The teacher impressed ____us the value of discipline. We were impressed ____what he said. (on, with)
12. The operation was accompanied ____little or on pain. She was accompanied ____her brother. (by, with.)
13. The English allied themselves ____the French. Elementary Algebra is allied ____Arithmetic. (to, with)
14. Napoleon had a genius ____military tactics. Without doubt he is a genius ____mathematics. (for, in)
15. The idea originated ____him while he was travelling in Japan. The fire originated ____a haystack. (in, with)
16. He jumped ____a conclusion not warranted by facts. The child jumped ____joy when I gave him sweets. He jumped ____my offer. (at, for, to)

17. He is negligent ____whatever he does. He is negligent ____his duties. (in, of)
18. Contentment is requisite ____happiness. He is told that prolonged treatment is requisite ____effecting a cure. (for, to)
19. His shattered health is the result ____intemperance. Jealousy results ____unhappiness. No good is likely to result ____this union. (from, in, of)
20. It does not rest ____the Collector to order his release. His whole case rests ____alibi. (on, with)
21. Most of the roads in that district are not suitable ____motor-cars. He lives in a style suitable ____his position. (for, to)
22. He responded ____the ladies in a humorous speech. The boy immediately responded ____a blow. He responded ____his toast in a neat little speech. (for, to, with)

386. Some related words take different Prepositions after them.

I acted *according to* his advice.
In *accordance with* his advice I took quinine.
She has great *affection for* her grandchildren.
The old lady is *affectionate to* all.
The flood and ebb tides *alternate with* each other.
The *alternative to* submission is death.
It is all due to his *ambition for* fame.
He is *ambitious of* fame.
He is *capable* of anything.
He has not the requisite *capacity for* this work.
He has great *confidence in* his assistant.
He is quite *confident of* success.
What a *contrast to* his brother !
What a *contrast between* them !
The present speech is mild *contrasted with* his past utterance on the same subject.
It is not likely to *derogate from* his merit.
He never said or did anything *derogatory to* his high position.
He is *descended from* a noble family.
He is a *descendant of* Mahatma Gandhi.
He has no *desire for* fame.
He is *desirous of* visiting Agra.
He was *equal to* the occasion.
He is to be blamed *equally with* his brother.
The coat fits me well *except for* the collar.
I take *exception to* your remark.
The child is *fond of* sweets.
She has great *fondness* for children.
The drama is *founded on* an episode in the Ramayana.
It has, however, no *foundation in* fact.
He *hindered* me *from* going.
Child marriage is a great *hindrance to* progress.
He is quite *infatuated with* her.
His *infatuation for* that girl led him astray.
He has no *liking for* cards.
His *dislike to* her continued to increase.
He is *neglectful of* his dress.
I have often found him *negligent in* his work.
They say he is *partial to* his friends.
Children show a *partiality for* sweetmeats.
I have no *prejudice against* foreigners.
Such a step will be *prejudicial to* your interests.
He is *prepared for* anything.
Preparatory to taking extreme measures, his father once again warned him.
Pursuant to our conversation, I now send you a cheque for Rs. 500 as my contribution to the fund.
In *pursuance of* your instructions, we are writing to-day to the Collector.
I am of opinion that he is *qualified for* the post.
He is *disqualified from* practising as a pleader.
As a *result of* the injury received by him, he died of tetanus.

It is said that nothing *resulted from* the conference.
I have great *respect for* his learning.
He is *respectful to* his superiors, without being servile.
He *seized upon* the opportunity offered to him.
The *seizure of* his property was carried out under direct orders from the Rajah.
I assure you that I am *sensible of* your kindness.
His paralysed arm is *insensible to* feeling.
Subsequent to the meeting he wrote a letter to *The Hindu.*
Consequent upon this letter, the agents of the company filed a suit against him for defamation.
Trust in God and do what is right.
His *distrust of* his assistants is perhaps unfounded.
The country suffers for *want of* skilled labour.
He is *wanting in* a little common sense.

387. Sometimes a verb is followed by a preposition ; sometimes no preposition follows it. The meaning, however, is not always the same in both cases.

I *call* that mean. I *called on* him at his office.
I don't *catch* your meaning. A drowning man *catches* at a straw.
This *closed* the proceedings. After a little higgling he *closed with* my offer.
He *commenced* life as a shop assistant. The proceedings *commenced with* a song.
Have you *counted* the cost ? I *count upon* your advice and cooperation.
He *deals* fairly *with* his customers. He *deals* in cotton and cloth.
The compounder *dispenses* medicines. His master *dispensed with* his services.
He *gained* his object by persuasion. He *gained upon* his rich uncle by his suave manners.
He *grasped* the meaning of the passage in no time. Like a shrewd man of business he *grasped at* the opportunity.
I *met* him on my way to the station. His appeals for funds *met with* a poor response.
He always prepares his speech. Our soldiers prepared themselves for the offensive.
The police *searched* the house of the suspect. We *searched for* the lost article.

388. Do not use the infinitive with certain words which require a preposition followed by a gerund or by a verbal noun.

He is addicted to gambling. [Not : to gamble.]
I assisted her in climbing the hill.
He is averse to playing cards.
I do not believe in pampering servants.
I am bent on attending the meeting.
He has hardly any chance of succeeding.
He is confident of securing the first prize.
The custom of tipping is prevalent everywhere.
He is desirous of visiting Japan.
He despaired of achieving his object.
There is some difficulty in perceiving his meaning.
Hereafter he is disqualified for holding any government post.
Remember the duty of helping the poor.
Sudha excels in dancing.
You can have no excuse for talking bluntly.
He is expert in inventing stories.
I am fond of reading novels.
The firm was fortunate in securing the government's support.
What hindered you from visiting the Museum ?
He was disappointed in the hope of being rewarded.
He felt the humiliation of withdrawing his words.
We should be indefatigable in doing good.
I insisted on having my say.
He is intent on visiting Norway.
You were not justified in imputing motives to him.
He has a knack of doing it.
He appreciated the necessity of acting promptly.
He persisted in disobeying the orders.
He lacks the power of imparting, although he is a good mathematical scholar.
The practice of cramming is rightly regarded as an evil.
It was only a pretext for delaying the matter.

What is there to prevent him from leaving Chennai ?
I had the privilege of knowing him intimately.
They were prohibited from entering the village.
I refrained from hurting his feelings.
You were right in suspecting him.
There is little satisfaction in sitting idle.
He has no scruple in begging.
He succeeded in convincing his critics.
He thought of eluding his pursuers.
I am tired of writing letters to him.

Note—Sometimes both constructions are allowable ; e.g.

He was afraid of telling the truth.
He was afraid to tell the truth.
He at last got the opportunity of meeting him.
He at last got the opportunity to meet him.

389. On the other hand, certain words always take the infinitive after them; as,

He advised us to desist from that attempt.
I decline to say anything further.
I expect to meet opposition.
It is hard to get access to him.
He hopes to win the first prize.
We are all inclined to judge of others as we find them.
He intends to compile a Marathi dictionary.

390. Prepositions are sometimes inserted where they are not required; as,

Where have you been to ? [Here *to* is not required.]
My eldest son is a boy of about eighteen years old. [Here *of* is not required.]
After having finished my work I went home. [Here *after* is not required.]

391. Note that the verbs *discuss*, *order* and *stress* are transitive and therefore they are not followed by prepositions. We *discuss* a topic (**not** *discuss about* a topic), *order* tea (**not** *order for* tea), *stress* a point (**not** *stress on* a point).

Chapter 40 THE CONJUNCTION

392. Read the following sentences.

1. God made the country *and* man made the town.
2. Our hoard is little, *but* our hearts are great.
3. She must weep, *or* she will die.
4. Two *and* two make four.

In 1, 2 and 3, the Conjunctions join together two sentences.

In 4, the Conjunction joins together two words only. [See § 393]

Def—A Conjunction is a word which merely *joins* together sentences, and sometimes words.

393. Conjunctions join together sentences and often make them more compact ; thus,

'Balu *and* Vithal are good bowlers'

is a short way of saying

'Balu is a good bowler *and* Vithal is a good bowler'.

So,

'The man is poor, *but* honest'

is a contracted way of saying

'The man is poor, *but* he is honest.'

Sometimes, however, the Conjunction *and* joins words only; as,

Two *and* two make four.

Hari *and* Rama are brothers.

Hari *and* Rama came home together.

Such sentences cannot be resolved in two sentences.

394. Conjunctions must be carefully distinguished from Relative Pronouns, Relative Adverbs, and Prepositions, which are also connecting words.

1. This is the house *that* Jack built. (Relative Pronoun)
2. This is the place *where* he was murdered. (Relative Adverb)
3. Take this *and* give *that*. (Conjunction)

In sentence 1, the Relative Pronoun *that* refers to the noun *house,* and also joins the two parts of the sentence.

In sentence 2, the Relative Adverb *where* modifies the verb *was murdered* and also joins the two parts of the sentence.

In sentence 3, the Conjunction *and* simply joins the two parts of the sentence ; *it does no other work.*

It will thus be seen that—

Relative Pronouns and Relative Adverbs also join ; but they do more.

Conjunctions merely join : they do no other work.

Observe that a Preposition also joins two words, but it does more ; it governs a noun or pronoun ; as, He sat *beside* Rama. He stood *behind* me.

395. Some Conjunctions are used in pairs ; as,

Either —or.	*Either* take it *or* leave it.
Neither —nor.	It is *neither* useful *nor* ornamental.
Both —and	We *both* love *and* honour him.
Though—yet. (rare in current English)	*Though* he is suffering much pain, *yet* he does not complain.
Whether—or.	I do not care *whether* you go *or* stay.
Not only—but also.	*Not only* is he foolish, *but also* obstinate.

Conjunctions which are thus used in pairs are called **Correlative Conjunctions** or merely **Correlatives.**

396. When Conjunctions are used as Correlatives, each of the correlated words should be placed *immediately before* the words to be connected ; as,

	He visited *not only* Agra, *but also* Delhi.
(*Not*)	He *not only* visited Agra, *but also* Delhi.

397. We use many compound expressions as Conjunctions ; these are called **Compound Conjunctions.**

In order that.	The notice was published *in order that* all might know the facts.
On condition that.	I will forgive you *on condition that* you do not repeat the offence.
Even if.	Such an act would not be kind *even if* it were just.
So that.	He saved some bread *so that* he should not go hungry on the morrow.
Provided that.	You can borrow the book *provided that* you return it soon.
As though.	He walks *as though* he is slightly lame.
Inasmuch as.	I must refuse your request, *inasmuch as* I believe it unreasonable.
As well as.	Rama *as well as* Govind was present there.
As soon as.	He took off his coat *as soon as* he entered the house.
As if.	He looks *as if* he were weary.

Classes of Conjunctions

398. As we shall see Conjunctions are divided into two classes : Co-ordinating and Subordinating.

Read the sentence :

Birds fly *and* fish swim.

The sentence contains two *independent* statements or two statements of *equal rank* or importance. Hence the Conjunction joining together these two statements or clauses of *equal rank* is called a **Co-ordinating Conjunction** ['Co-ordinating' means of *equal rank.*]

Def — A Co-ordinating Conjunction joins together clauses of equal rank.

399. The chief Co-ordinating Conjunctions are:
and, but, for, or, nor, also, either.....or, neither.....nor.

400. Co-ordinating Conjunctions are of four kinds :

(1) **Cumulative** or **Copulative** which merely *add* one statement to another ; as,
We carved not a line, *and* we raised not a stone.

(2) **Adversative** which express opposition or *contrast* between two statements ; as,
He is slow, *but* he is sure.
I was annoyed, *still* I kept quiet.
I would come ; *only* that I am engaged.
He was all right ; *only* he was fatigued.

(3) **Disjunctive** or **Alternative** which express a *choice* between two alternatives ; as,
She must weep, *or* she will die.
Either he is mad, *or* he feigns madness.
Neither a borrower, *nor a* lender be.
They toil not, *neither* do they spin.
Walk quickly, *else* you will not overtake him.

(4) **Illative** which express an *inference ;* as,
Something certainly fell in : *for* I heard a splash.
All precautions must have been neglected, *for* the plague spread rapidly.

401. Any of the Co-ordinating Conjunctions, with the exception of *or, nor,* may be omitted and its place taken by a comma, semi-colon, or colon ; as,
Rama went out to play ; Hari stayed in to work.

402. Read the sentence :
I read the paper *because* it interests me.

The sentence contains two statements or clauses one of which, 'because it interests me', is *dependent* on the other. Hence the Conjunction introducing the *dependent* or *subordinate* clause is called a **Subordinating Conjunction.**

Def —A Subordinating Conjunction joins a clause to another on which it depends for its full meaning.

403. The chief Subordinating Conjunctions are:
after, because, if, that, though, although, till, before, unless, as, when, where, while.
After the shower was over the sun shone out again.
A book's a book, *although,* there is nothing in it.
As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
He ran away *because* he was afraid.
Answer the first question *before* you proceed further.
Take heed *ere* it be too late.
Except ye repent, you shall all likewise perish.
You will pass *if* you work hard.
Sentinels were posted *lest* the camp should be taken by surprise.
Since you say so, I must believe it.
Tell them *that* I will come.
He finished first *though* he began late.
Will you wait *till* I return ?
He will not pay *unless* he is compelled.

I waited for my friend *until* he came.
When I was younger, I thought so.
I do not know *whence* he comes.
He found his watch *where* he had left it.
I do not understand *how* it all happened.
Make hay *while* the sun shines.
I shall go *whither* fancy leads me.
I know not *why* he left us.

404. The word *than* is also a Subordinating Conjunction.
He is taller *than* I (am tall).
I like you *better than* he (likes you).
I like you better *than* (I like) him.
Hari is more stupid *than* Dhondu (is stupid).
His bark is worse *than* his bite (is bad).

405. Subordinating Conjunctions may be classified according to their meaning, as follows:

(1) Time

I would die *before* I lied.
No nation can be perfectly well governed *till* it is competent to govern itself.
Many things have happened *since* I saw you.
I returned home *after* he had gone.
Ere he blew three notes, there was a rustling.

(2) Cause or Reason

My strength is as the strength of ten, *because* my heart is pure.
Since you wish it, it shall be done.
As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
He may enter, *as* he is a friend.

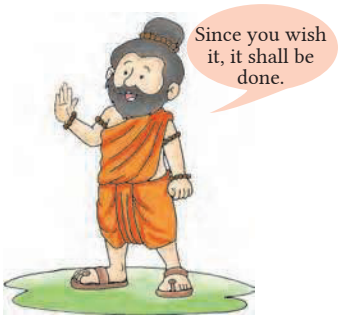

(3) Purpose

We eat so *that* we may live.
He held my hand *lest* I should fall.

(4) Result or Consequence

He was so tired *that* he could scarcely stand.

(5) Condition

Rama will go *if* Hari goes.
Grievances cannot be redressed *unless* they are known.

(6) Concession

I will not see him, *though* he comes.
Though He slay me, yet will I trust Him.
A book's a book, *although* there's nothing in it.

(7) Comparison

He is stronger *than* Rustum [is].

406. Certain words are used both as Prepositions and Conjunctions. [See § 375]

Preposition	*Conjunction*
Stay *till* Monday.	We shall stay here *till* you return.
I have not met him *since* Monday.	We shall go *since* you desire it.
He died *for* his country.	I must stay here, *for* such is my duty.
The dog ran *after* the cat.	We came *after* they had left.
Everybody *but* Govind was present.	He tried, *but* did not succeed.
He stood *before* the painting.	Look *before* you leap.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 94

Point out the Conjunctions in the following sentences, and state whether they are Co-ordinating or Subordinating.

1. You will not succeed unless you work harder.
2. We arrived after you had gone.
3. I waited till the train arrived.
4. Bread and milk is wholesome food.
5. You will get the prize if you deserve it.
6. When you are called, you must come in at once.
7. Do not go before I come.
8. I cannot give you any money, for I have none.
9. Since you say so, I must believe it.
10. He fled lest he should be killed.
11. I shall be vexed if you do that.
12. We got into the port before the storm came on.
13. He was sorry after he had done it.
14. I did not come because you did not call me.
15. He is richer than I am.
16. My grandfather died before I was born.
17. I will stay until you return.
18. Catch me if you can.
19. Tom runs faster than Harry.
20. Is that story true or false ?
21. You will be late unless you hurry.
22. He asked whether he might have a holiday.
23. Give me to drink, else I shall die of thirst.
24. If I feel any doubt, I ask.
25. He deserved to succeed, for he worked hard.
26. He will be sure to come if you invite him.
27. We can travel by land or water.
28. The earth is larger than the moon.
29. Either you are mistaken, or I am.
30. I shall go, whether you come or not.
31. Unless you tell me the truth, I shall punish you.
32. I hear that your brother is in London.
33. Blessed are the merciful, for they shall obtain mercy.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 95

Use these Conjunctions in complex sentences.

(1) But, either.....or, neither.....nor, whether.....or.
(2) That, before, how, as, unless, until, though, when , while, where, if, than.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 96

Fill the blanks with appropriate Conjunctions.

1. Be just ____fear not.
2. I ran fast, _____I missed the train.
3. He fled, _____he was afraid.
4. Make haste, _____you will be late.

5. _____you try, you will not succeed.
6. I am sure ____he said so.
7. Wait ____I return.
8. Do not go ____I come.
9. He finished first ____he began late.
10. Take care ____you fall.
11. Take a lamp, ____the night is dark.
12. ____he was ambitious I slew him.
13. Open rebuke is better ____secret love.
14. ____you eat too much you will be ill.
15. I shall not go ____I am invited.
16. He has succeeded better ____he hoped.
17. I do it ____I choose to.
18. ____duty calls us we must obey.
19. Live well ____you may die well.
20. Think nought a trifle, ____it small appear.
21. The purse has been lost ____stolen.
22. Rustum is slow ____sure.
23. He remained at home ____he was ill.
24. ____he was industrious, I encouraged him.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 97

Fill each blank in the following sentences with an appropriate Conjunction :—

1. Three ____three make six.
2. Is his name Sen ____Gupta ?
3. He will not come ____it rains.
4. ____you run, you will not overtake him.
5. He is very rich ____he is not happy.
6. ____I return, stay where you are.
7. He was punished, ____he was guilty.
8. He behaved ____a brave man should do.
9. There is no doubt ____the earth is round.
10. I wonder ____he will come.
11. He is witty ____vulgar.
12. Will you kindly wait ____I return?
13. Karim is tall, ____Abdul is taller.
14. He lost his balance ____fell off the bicycle.
15. He tried hard ____did not succeed.
16. Is this my book ____yours ?
17. Water ____oil will not mix.
18. They left ____we returned.
19. The vase will break ____you drop it.
20. I shall not go out now ____it is raining very heavily.
21. Trains run from this station every few minutes ____ we shall not have to wait.
22. Man proposes ____God disposes.
23. Time ____tide do not wait for anybody.
24. Virtue ennobles, ____vice degrades.
25. This ____that must suffice.
26. The train was derailed ____no one was hurt.
27. She writes slowly ____neatly.
28. I believe him ____he is truthful.
29. You will not get the prize ____you deserve it.
30. Send for me ____you want me.
31. Hari will do all right, ____he perseveres.
32. Catch me ____you can.
33. He told me ____you had arrived an hour ago.

34. You will never succeed ____you try.
35. ____I were you, I'd keep quiet.
36. Wait ____I come.
37. Be just ____fear not.
38. Tell me ____you understand.
39. We will come, _____it rains ____not.
40. Make hay ____the sun shines.
41. It is a long time ____we last saw him.
42. Please write ____I dictate.
43. It is hoped ____all will go well.
44. Give me ____poverty ____riches.
45. He is taller ____I (am).
46. ____I cannot get away, I will go next week.
47. ____you wish it, it shall be done.
48. Why is our food so sweet ? ____we earn before we eat.
49. Take heed ____you fall.
50. He gazed so long ____both his eyes were dazzled.
51. ____there is life there is hope.
52. Walk on ____you come to the gate.
53. They say ____he is better.
54. I have been in such a pickle ____I saw you last.
55. His plans, ____vast, were never visionary.
56. Some people live ____they may eat.
57. He went ____I came.
58. He will starve _____he will steal.
59. There were more people _____ we had expected.
60. ____there is something to be done, the world knows how to get it done.

61. ____I grant his honesty I suspect his memory.
62. ____I am poor, I am not dishonest.
63. No one knows ____he went.
64. Come ____you please.
65. Do ____you are bidden.
66. He must have passed this way, ____there is no other road.
67. ____respected, he is not liked.
68. We all know ____sin and sorrow go together.
69. I don't know ____he will be here.
70. Grievances cannot be redressed ____they are known.
71. We shall fail ____we are industrious.
72. ____it was late we decided to set out.
73. I am well, ____I do not feel very strong.
74. ____he is there, I shall see him.
75. How can he buy it ____he has no money ?
76. ____you are not ready, we must go on.

77. The building has been razed ____I visited the city.
78. Love not sleep, ____thou come to poverty.
79. He bled so profusely ____he died.
80. I know you better ____he (does).

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 98

Join each pair of the following sentences by means of a suitable Conjunction. Make such changes as are necessary.

1. My brother is well.	My sister is ill.
2. He sells mangoes.	He sells oranges.
3. He did not succeed.	He worked hard.
4. Rama played well.	Hari played well.
5. I honour him.	He is a brave man.
6. You may go.	I will stay.
7. Rama reads for pleasure.	Hari reads for profit.
8. We decided to set out.	It was late.
9. He was poor.	He was honest.

10. He is not a knave.	He is not a fool.
11. We love Bahadur.	He is a faithful dog.
12. Rustum made twelve runs.	He was caught at the wicket.
13. He is rich.	He is not happy.
14. The sheep are grazing.	The oxen are grazing.
15. He is poor.	He is contented.
16. This mango is large.	This mango is sweet.
17. My brother was not there.	My sister was not there.
18. The boy is here.	The girl is here.
19. The piper played.	The children danced.
20. You must be quiet.	You must leave the room.
21. He sat down.	He was tired.
22. Rama works hard.	Hari is idle.
23. I lost the prize.	I tried my best.
24. I like him.	He is dangerous.
25. I went to the shop.	I bought a slate.
26. He is slow.	He is sure.
27. I know.	He does not think so.
28. You are tall.	My brother is taller.
29. Hari went to school.	Sita stayed at home.
30. He must start at once.	He will be late.
31. I shall sit still.	I shall listen to the music.
32. Hari did not come.	He did not send a letter.
33. I ran fast.	I missed the train.
34. Karim works hard.	Abdul works harder.
35. He must be tired.	He has walked twelve miles.
36. It is autumn.	The leaves are falling.
37. I will come.	I am not ill.
38. I will bring your umbrella.	You wish it.
39. He remained cheerful.	He has been wounded.
40. He went out.	The train stopped.
41. He ran to the station.	He missed the train.
42. I came.	I was unwilling.
43. Men have fought for their country.	Men have died for their country.
44. He was afraid of being late.	He ran.
45. Hari does not write fast.	He writes very well.
46. The boy is dangerously ill.	The boy's head was hurt.
47. The old man fell down the steps.	He broke his leg.
48. He tried to get up.	He could not.
49. Mother is at home.	Father is at home.
50. I have a cricket bat.	I have a set of stumps.
51. We went early to the circus.	We could not get a seat.
52. He must do as he is told.	He will be punished.
53. The prisoner fell down on his knees.	The prisoner begged for mercy.
54. Sita goes to school.	Ganga goes to school.
55. Rama may be in the house.	Rama may be in the garden.

EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR 99

Distinguish as Adverb, Preposition, or Conjunction, each of the italicized words in the following sentences.

1. He came *before* me.
2. He came two hours *before*.
3. He came *before* I left.
4. Have you ever seen him *since* ?
5. I have not seen him *since* Monday.
6. I have not seen him *since* he was a child.
7. Man wants *but* little here below.
8. He yearns for nothing *but* money.
9. We shall go, *but* you will remain.
10. He arrived *after* the meeting was adjourned.
11. He arrived *after* the meeting.
12. He arrived soon *after*.

Chapter 41 SOME CONJUNCTIONS AND THEIR USES

407. **Since,** as a Conjunction, means—

(1) *From and after the time when ;* as

I have been in such a pickle *since* I saw you last.
Many things have happened *since* I left school.
I have never seen him *since* that unfortunate event happened.

Note— *Since*, when used as a Conjunction in this sense, should be preceded by a verb in the present perfect tense, and followed by a verb in the *simple past tense.*

(2) *Seeing that, in as much as ;* as,

Since you wish it, it shall be done.
Since you will not work, you shall not eat.
Since that is the case, I shall excuse you.

408. **Or** is used—

(1) To introduce an alternative, as,

Your purse *or* your life.
You must work *or* starve.
You may take this book *or* that one.

Note— There may be several alternatives each joined to the preceding one by or, presenting a choice between any two in the series ; as,

He may study law *or* medicine *or* engineering, *or* he may enter into trade.

(2) To introduce an alternative name or synonym ; as,

The violin *or* fiddle has become the leading instrument of the modern orchestra.

(3) To mean *otherwise ;* as,

We must hasten *or* night will overtake us.

(4) As nearly equivalent to *and* ; as,

The troops were not wanting in strength *or* courage, but they were badly fed.

409. **If** is used to mean—

(1) *On the condition or supposition that ;* as,

If he is there, I shall see him.
If that is so, I am content.

(2) *Admitting that,* as,

If I am blunt, I am at least honest.
If I am poor, yet I am honest.

(3) *Whether* ; as,
I asked him *if* he would help me.
I wonder *if* he will come.

(4) *Whenever* ; as,
If I feel any doubt I inquire.

If is also used to express wish or surprise : as,
If I only knew !

410. **That**, as a Conjunction, retains much of its force as a Demonstrative Pronoun. Thus the sentence 'I am told that you are miserable' may be transposed into 'You are miserable : I am told *that.*'

That is used—

(1) To express a Reason or Cause, and is equivalent to *because, for that, in that ;* as,
Not *that* I loved Caesar less, but *that* I loved Rome more.
He was annoyed *that* he was contradicted.

(2) To express a Purpose, and is equivalent to *in order that ;* as,
We sow *that* we may reap.
He kept quiet *that* the dispute might cease.

Note—Today *that* is rarely used for reason or purpose.

(3) To express a Consequence, Result, or Effect ; as,
I am so tired *that* I cannot go on.
He bled so profusely *that* he died.
He was so tired *that* he could scarcely stand.

411. **Than** as a Conjunction, follows adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree ; as,
Wisdom is better *than* rubies (are).
I see you oftener *than* (I see) him.
I am better acquainted with the country *than* you are.
I would rather suffer *than* that you should want.

412. **Lest** is used as a Subordinating Conjunction expressing a negative purpose, and is equivalent to 'in order that.....not', 'for fear that' ; as,
Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
Do not be idle, lest you come to want.
He fled lest he should be killed.
I was alarmed lest we should be wrecked.

Note 1—*Lest* is rare in modern English.

Note 2—The modern idiomatic construction after *lest* is *should.*

After certain expressions denoting fear or apprehension, *lest* was used as equivalent to *that ;* as,
I feared *lest* I might anger thee.

413. **While** is used to mean—

(1) *During the time that, as long as ;* as,
While he was sleeping, an enemy sowed tares.
While there is life there is hope.

(2) *At the same time that ;* as,
The girls sang *while* the boys played.
While he found fault, he also praised.

(3) *Whereas ;* as,
While I have no money to spend, you have nothing to spend on.
While this is true of some, it is not true of all.

414. **Only,** as a Conjunction, means *except that, but, were it not* (*that*); as,

A very pretty woman, *only* she squints a little.
The day is pleasant, *only* rather cold.
He does well, *only* that he is nervous at the start.
I would go with you, *only* I have no money.

415. **Except** was once in good use as a Conjunction ; as,

Except (= unless) ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

Except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God.

In modern English its place has been taken by *unless.*

416. **Without.**—The use of *without* as a Conjunction meaning *unless* is now bad English ; as,
I shall not go *without* you do.

417. **Because, for, since.** —Of these three conjunctions, *because* denotes the closest causal conjunction, *for* the weakest, *since* comes between the two.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 100

Fill the blanks with Conjunctions.

1. I am in the right, ____you are in the wrong.
2. The most exquisite work of literary art exhibits a certain crudeness and coarseness, _____we turn to it from nature.
3. _____ he had not paid his bill, his electricity was cut off.
4. There never can be prosperity in any country _____ all the numerous cultivators of the soil are permanently depressed and injured.
5. Giving up wrong pleasure is not self-sacrifice, ____self-culture.
6. Conform thyself then to thy present fortune ____cut thy coat according to thy cloth.
7. Inconsistency consists in a change of conduct _____there is no change of circumstances which justify it.
8. The disgust felt towards any kind of knowledge is a sign _____that it is prematurely presented, ____that it is presented in an indigestible form.
9. ____do the learned know what sort of mortals inhabit beyond those mountains, ____whether they be inhabited at all.
10. His ambition was inordinate, ____he was jealous of every man of ability.
11. Just laws are no restraint upon the freedom of the good, ____the good man desires nothing which a just law will interfere with.
12. We judge ourselves by what we feel capable of doing, ____others judge us by what we have already done.
13. My worthy friend Sir Roger is one of those who are not only at peace with themselves, ____beloved and esteemed by all about them.
14. The fleets of the enemy were not merely defeated, ____destroyed.
15. As long as he (William of Orange) lived, he was the guiding-star of a brave nation ; ____he died the little children cried in the street.
16. No one likes puns, alliterations, antithesis, argument and analysis better than I do ; I sometimes had rather be without them.
17. It (the game of fives) is "the finest exercise for the body ____best relaxation for the mind."
18. He (Omar Khayyam) abhorred hypocrisy, ____he was not too stern with the hypocrite.
19. Our proudest title is not that we are the contemporaries of Darwin, ____that we are the descendants of Shakespeare.
20. He (Henry Bradshaw) knew more about printed books ____any man living.
21. Are you impatient with the lark ____he sings rather than talks ?
22. Trust the man who hesitates in his speech and is quick and steady in action, ____beware of long arguments and long beards.
23. Religion does not banish mirth ____only moderates and sets rules to it.
24. A man's real character will always be more visible in his household ____anywhere else.
25. ____grandfather was old and gray-haired, ____his heart leaped with joy whenever little Alice came fluttering, like a butterfly, into the room.
26. He that is slow to anger is better ____the mighty.
27. ____we approached the house, we heard the sound of music.
28. The ravine was full of sand now, ____it had once been full of water.
29. The harvest truly is plenteous, ____the labourers are few.

30. A vessel that once gets a crack, ____it may be cunningly mended, will never stand such rough usage as a whole one.
31. Give every man thy ear, ____few thy voice.
32. Virtue ____wise action lies in the mean between the two extremes of too little and too much.
33. And God called the light Day, ____the darkness He called Night.
34. That is a good book which is opened with expectation, ____closed with profit.
35. _____ I was in Sri Lanka, I was particularly fascinated by the Coral Gardens of Hikkaduwa.
36. The restoration crushed for a time the Puritan party, ____placed supreme power in the hands of a libertine.
37. Of his voyage little is known, ____that he amused himself with books and with his pen.
38. ____she had given up novel writing, she was still fond of using her pen.
39. ____Addison was in Ireland, an event occurred to which he owes his high and permanent rank among British writers.
40. ____life ____property was safe, and the poor and the weak were oppressed by the strong.
41. ____Greek and Latin, ____all Aryan languages have their peaceful words in common.
42. He was an oppressor ; _____he had at least the merit of protecting his people against all oppression except his own.
43. People travelling in a spacecraft appear to be weightless _____ can move about _____ there is no gravity in space.
44. The right of self-defence is founded in the law of nature, ____is not and cannot be superseded by the law of society.
45. Let the superstructure of life be enjoyment, ____let its foundation be in solid work.
46. ____I was not a stranger to books, I had no practical acquaintance with them.
47. Poetry takes me up so entirely ____I scarce see what passes under my nose.
48. A gentleman made it a rule in reading to skip over all sentences ____he spied a note of admiration at the end.
49. ____a fog rolled over the city in the small hours, the early part of the night was cloudless.
50. ____I were personally your enemy, I might pity and forgive you.

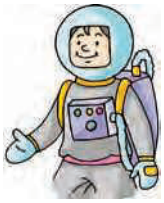

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 101

Fill the blanks with Conjunctions.

1. ____somewhat pompous, he was an entertaining companion.
2. "Mr. Johnson", said I, "I do indeed come from Scotland, ____I cannot help it."
3. The man that stands by me in trouble I won't bid him go ____the sun shines again.
4. ____you are upon Earth enjoy the good things that are here, _____be not melancholy.
5. The art of pleasing is a very necessary one to possess ; ____a very difficult one to acquire.
6. Never maintain an argument with heat and clamour, ____you think or know yourself to be in the right.
7. The crowd cheered loudly _____ The Prime Minister arrived.
8. I am persuaded ____the translators of the Bible were masters of an English style much fitter for that work ____any we see in our present writings.
9. He [Chaucer] must have been a man of most wonderful comprehensive nature, ____he has taken into the compass of his *Canterbury Tales* the various manners and humours of the whole English nation, in his age.
10. It is the common doom of man ____he must eat his bread by the sweat of his brow.
11. It is a sort of paradox, ____it is true : we are never more in danger ____when we think ourselves most secure.
12. I have imposed upon myself, ____I have been guilty of no other imposition.
13. One of the pleasantest things in the world is going on a journey ; ____I like to go by myself. I can enjoy society in a room ; ____, out of doors, nature is company enough for me.
14. It [the game of fives] is the finest exercise for the body, ____the best relaxation for the mind.
15. Religion does not banish mirth ____only moderates and sets rules to it.
16. Fit words are better ____fine ones.
17. I like political changes ____such changes are made as the result, not of passion, but of deliberation and reason.
18. Civilized man, ____let loose with the bonds of morality relaxed, is a far greater beast ____the savage, more refined in his cruelty, more fiend-like in every act.
19. The man who eats in a hurry loses both the pleasure of eating ____the profit of digestion.
20. Let a man sleep ____he is sleepy, ____rise ____the crow of the cock, ____the glare of the sun rouses him from his torpor.
21. It is a great loss to a man ____he cannot laugh.

22. Impure air can never make pure blood ; ____impure blood corrupts the whole system.
23. Never refuse to entertain a man in your heart ____all the world is talking against him.
24. ____you would be healthy, be good.
25. ____you have a sword ____a pen in your hand, wield ____the one ____the other in a spirit of insolent self-reliance.
26. A regular bath in the morning, ____with very feeble and delicate subjects, has always an invigorating effect.
27. There is no more sure sign of a shallow mind ____the habit of seeing always the ludicrous side of things.
28. An honest hater is often a better fellow ____a cool friend ; ____it is better not to hate at all.
29. There is no virtue that Dr. Arnold laboured more sedulously to instil into young men ____the virtue of truthfulness.
30. The teachers of morality discourse like angels, ____they live like men.
31. Massacres ____disorders never have the way to peace.
32. Natural thirst is more deliciously gratified with water, ____artificial thirst is with wine.
33. Woman was not meant to be ____an unthinking drudge, ____the merely pretty ornament of man's leisure.
34. The real dignity of a man lies in what he *has,* ____in what he *is.*
35. They say the Lion and the Lizard keep the Courts _____Jamshyd gloried and drank deep.
36. ____I am dead, my dearest, sing no sad songs for me.
37. ____he [Lord Beaconsfield] was ambitious, his ambition was a noble one.
38. Suffer the little children to come unto me, and forbid them not, ____of such is the Kingdom of God.
39. Heard melodies are sweet, ____those unheard are sweeter.
40. I awoke one morning ____found myself famous.
41. ____the blind lead the blind, both shall fall into the ditch.
42. One generation passeth away and other generation cometh, ____the earth abideth for ever.
43. A man has no more right to say an uncivil thing ____to act one.
44. Let us shun extremes, ____each extreme necessarily engenders its opposite.
45. ____this be madness, ____there is method in it.
46. The heavens declare the glory of God, ____the firmanent showeth His handi-work.
47. Every good tree bringeth forth good fruit, ____a corrupt tree bringeth forth evil fruit.
48. Small service is true service ____it lasts.
49. For my part, I was always bungler at all kinds of sport that required ____patience _____adroitness.
50. There are many truths of which the full meaning cannot be realized ____personal experience has brought it home.
51. He may be right ____wrong in his opinion, ____he is too clearheaded to be unjust.

Chapter 42 THE INTERJECTION

418. Examine the following sentences :—
Hello ! What are you doing there ?
Alas ! He is dead.
Hurrah ! We have won the game.
Ah ! Have they gone ?
Oh ! I got such a fright.
Hush ! Don't make a noise.

Such words as *Hello* ! *Alas* ! *Hurrah* ! *Ah* ! etc. are called **Interjections.**
They are used to express some sudden feeling or emotion. It will be noticed that they are not grammatically related to the other words in a sentence.

Def.—An Interjection is a word which expresses some sudden feeling or emotion.
Interjections may express—
(1) Joy ; as, *Hurrah* ! *huzza* !
(2) Grief ; as, *alas* !
(3) Surprise ; as, *ha* ! *what* !
(4) Approval ; as, *bravo* !

419. Certain groups of words are also used to express some sudden feeling or emotion ; as,
Ah me ! *For shame* ! *Well done* ! *Good gracious* !

Chapter 43 THE SAME WORD USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

420. The following are some of the most important words which may belong to different parts of speech according to the way in which they are *used.*

Always remember that it is the *function* or *use* that determines to which part of speech a word belongs in a given sentence.

About

Adverb. They wandered *about* in sheepskins and goatskins.
Preposition. There is something pleasing *about* him.

Above

Adverb. The heavens are *above.*
Preposition The moral law is *above* the civil.
Adjective. Analyse the *above* sentence.
Noun. Our blessings come from *above.*

After

Adverb. They arrived soon *after.*
Preposition. He takes *after* his father.
Adjective. *After* ages shall sing his glory.
Conjunction. We went away *after* they had left.

All

Adjective. *All* men are mortal. It was *all* profit and no loss.
Adverb. He was *all* alone when I saw him.
Pronoun. *All* spoke in his favour.
Noun. He lost his *all* in speculation.

Any

Adjective. Are there *any* witnesses present ?
Pronoun. Does *any* of you know anything about it ?
Adverb. Is that *any* better ?

As

Adverb. We walked *as* fast as we could.
Conjunction. *As* he was poor I helped him.
Relat. Pron. She likes the same colour *as* I do.

Before

Adverb. I have seen you *before.*
Preposition. He came *before* the appointed time.
Conjunction. He went away *before* I came.

Better

Adjective. I think yours is a *better* plan.
Adverb. I know *better.*
Noun. Give place to your *betters.*
Verb. The boxes with which he provided me *bettered* the sample.—*Froude.*

Both

Adjective. You cannot have it *both* ways.
Pronoun. *Both* of them are dead.
Conjunction. *Both* the cashier and the accountant are Hindus.

But

Adverb. It is *but* (= only) right to admit our faults.
Preposition. None *but* (= except) the brave deserves the fair.
Conjunction. We tried hard, *but* did not succeed.
Relat. Pronoun. There is no one *but* likes him. (= *who* does *not* like him.)

Down

Adverb. *Down* went the "Royal George."
Preposition. The fire engine came rushing *down* the hill.
Adjective. The porter was killed by the *down* train.
Noun. He has seen the ups and *downs* of life.
Verb. *Down* with the tyrant !

Either

Adjective. *Either* bat is good enough.
Pronoun. Ask *either* of them.
Conjunction. He must *either* work or starve.

Else

Adjective. I have something *else* for you.
Adverb. Shall we look anywhere *else* ?
Conjunction. Make haste, *else* you will miss the train.

Enough

Adjective. There is time *enough* and to spare.
Adverb. You know well *enough* what I mean.
Noun. I have had *enough* of this.

Even

Adjective. The chances are *even.*
Verb. Let us *even* the ground.
Adverb. Does he *even* suspect the danger ?

Except

Verb. If we *except* Hari, all are to be blamed.
Preposition. All the brethren were in Egypt *except* Benjamin.
Conjunction. I will not let thee go *except* (= unless) thou bless me (§ 415)

For

Preposition. I can shift *for* myself.
Conjunction. Give thanks unto the Lord ; *for* He is good.

Less

Adjective. You are paying *less* attention to your studies than you used to do.
Adverb. The population of India is *less* than that of China.
Noun. He wants Rs. 500 for that watch. He won't be satisfied with *less.*

Like

Adjective. They are men of *like* build and stature.
Preposition. Do not talk *like* that.
Adverb. *Like* as a father pitieth his own children.
Noun. We shall not see his *like* again.
Verb. Children *like* sweets.

Little

Adjective. There is *little* danger in going there.
Noun. Man wants but *little* here below.
Adverb. He eats very *little.*

More

Adjective. We want *more* men like him.
Pronoun. *More* of us die in bed than out of it.
Adverb. You should talk less and work *more.*

Much

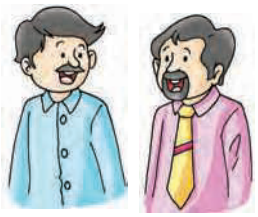

Adjective. There is *much* sense in what he says.
Pronoun. *Much* of it is true.
Adverb. He boasts too *much.*

Near

Adverb. Draw *near* and listen.
Preposition. His house is *near* the temple.
Adjective. He is a *near* relation.
Verb. The time *nears.*

Needs

Noun. My *needs* are few.
Verb. It *needs* to be done with care.
Adverb. He *needs* must come.

Neither

Conjunction. Give me *neither* poverty nor riches.
Adjective. *Neither* accusation is true.
Pronoun. It is difficult to negotiate where *neither* will trust.

Next

Adjective. I shall see you *next* Monday.
Adverb. What *next* ?
Preposition. He was sitting *next* to her.
Noun. I shall tell you more about it in my *next.*

No

Adjective. It is *no* joke.
Adverb. He is *no* more.
Noun. I will not take a *no.*

Once

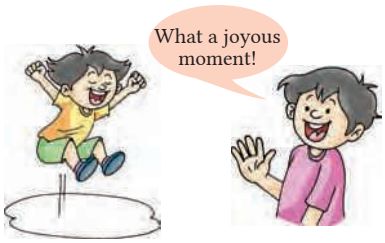

Adverb. I was young *once.*
Conjunction. *Once* he hesitates we have him.
Noun. Please help me for *once.*

One

Adjective. *One* day I met him in the street.
Pronoun. The little *ones* cried for joy.
Noun. *One* would think he was mad.

Only

Adjective. It was his *only* chance.
Adverb. He was *only* foolish.
Conjunction. Take what I have, *only* (= but) let me go.

Over

Adverb. Read it *over* carefully.
Noun. In one *over* he took three wickets.
Preposition. At thirty a change came *over* him.

Right

Verb. That is a fault that will *right* itself.
Adjective. He is the *right* man for the position.
Noun. I ask it as a *right.*
Adverb. Serves him *right* ! He stood *right* in my way.

Round

Adjective. A square peg in a *round* hole.
Noun. The evening was a *round* of pleasures.
Adverb. He came *round* to their belief.
Preposition. The earth revolves *round* the sun.
Verb. We shall *round* the cape in safety.

Since

Preposition. *Since* that day I have not seen him.
Conjunction. *Since* there's no help, come, let us kiss and part.
Adverb. I have not seen him *since.*

So

Adverb. I am *so* sorry.
Conjunction. He was poor, *so* they helped him.

Some

Adjective. We must find *some* way out of it.
Pronoun. *Some* say one thing and others another.
Adverb. *Some* thirty chiefs were present.

Still

Verb. With his name the mothers *still* their babes.
Adjective. *Still* waters run deep.
Noun. Her sobs could be heard in the *still* of night.
Adverb. He is *still* in business.

Such

Adjective. Don't be in *such* a hurry.
Pronoun. *Such* was not my intention.

That

Demonst. Adjective. What is *that* noise ?
Demonst. Pronoun. *That* is what I want.
Adverb. I have done *that* much only.
Relative Pronoun. The evil *that* men do lives after them.
Conjunction. He lives so *that* he may eat.

The

Def. Article. *The* cat loves comfort.
Adverb. *The* wiser he is, *the* better.

Till

Preposition. Never put off *till* tomorrow what you can do today.
Conjunction. Do not start *till* I give the word.

Up

Adverb. Prices are *up.*
Preposition. Let us go *up* the hill.
Adjective. The next *up* train will leave here at 12.30.
Noun. They had their *ups* and downs of fortune.

Well

Noun. Let *well* alone.
Adjective. I hope you are now *well.*
Adverb. *Well* begun is half done.
Interjection. *Well,* who would have thought it ?

What

Inter. Adjective. *What* evidence have you got ?
Interjection. *What* ! you don't mean to say so ?
Inter. Pronoun. *What* does he want ?
Relative Pronoun. Give me *what* you can. *What* happened then, I do not know.
Adverb. *What* by fire and *what* by sword, the whole country was laid waste.

While

Noun. Sit down and rest a *while.*
Verb. They *while* away their evenings with books and games.
Conjunction. *While* a great poet, he is a greater novelist.

Why

Interro. Adverb. *Why* did you do it ?
Relative Adverb. I know the reason *why* he did it.
Interjection. *Why,* it is surely Nanak !
Noun. This is not the time to go into the *why* and the wherefore of it.

Yet

Adverb. There is more evidence *yet* to be offered.
Conjunction. He is willing, *yet* unable.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 102

What part of speech is each of the words in italics ?

1. He kept the *fast* for a week.
2. Mohammedans *fast* in the month of Ramzan.
3. He is the *right* man in the *right* place.
4. God defend the *right* !
5. There is *much* truth in what he says.
6. *Much* cry and little wool.
7. Don't boast too *much*.
8. It is *hard* to understand.
9. Men who work *hard* enjoy life fully.
10. *Little* learning is a dangerous thing.
11. He is *little* known here.
12. It matters *little* what he says.
13. I have *long* thought so.
14. It is *long* since we met.
15. *Still* waters run deep.
16. He *still* lives in that house.
17. That boy gives *any* amount of trouble.
18. Is that *any* better ?
19. A *better* man than he never lived.
20. He knows *better* than to quarrel.
21. He spoke in a *loud* voice.
22. Do not speak so *loud*.
23. *Most* people think so.
24. What *most* annoys me is his obstinacy.
25. *Some* twenty boys were absent.
26. I will take *some,* but not all.

27.Please call me *early.*
28. The *early* bird catches the worm.
29. That can stand *over.*
30. Take this parcel *over* to the post office.
31. He has no command *over* himself.
32. He was only a yard *off* me.
33. Suddenly one of the wheels came *off.*
34. I must be *off.*
35. He told us all *about* the battle.
36. He lives *about* two miles from here.
37. Several men were standing *about.*
38. *After* the storm comes the calm.

39. The *after* effects of potash bromide are bad.
40. He went *after* I came.
41. The minstrels follow *after.*
42. May comes *after* April.
43. *All* fish are not caught with flies.
44. *All* is fair in love and war.
45. We shall lie *all* alike in our graves.
46. He that is warm thinks *all* so.
47. What is *all* this noise ?
48. *All* is not lost.
49. He is *all* for amusement.
50. *All* is good in a famine.

EXERCISE IN COMPOSITION 103

What part of speech is each of the words in italics?

1. He is not *any* the worse for it.
2. A thing you don't want is dear at *any* price.
3. I thought *as much.*
4. He is as deaf *as* a post.
5. He got the same result *as* before.
6. *As* he was ambitious, I slew him.
7. Men fear death *as* children to go in the dark.
8. There is no such flatterer *as* a man's self.
9. He did his *best.*
10. I like this *best.*
11. He is my *best* friend.
12. He is *but* a child.
13. Fear nought *but* sin.
14. *But* for his help, I could not have done it.
15. The paths of glory lead *but* to the grave.
16. *But* that I saw it I could not have believed it.
17. I change, *but* I cannot die.
18. There is no lane *but* has a turning.
19. The fool is busy in everyone's business *but* his own.
20. *Enough* of this !
21. She sings well *enough.*
22. *Enough* is as good as a feast.
23. We have not men *enough.*
24. He is *like* his father.
25. I *like* the offer.

26. Did you ever hear the *like* of it ?
27. Do not talk *like* that.
28. I have heard *more* since.
29. This sum is *more* difficult.
30. *More* will be wanted.
31. He stood *next* me in class.
32. The *next* moment he was dead.
33. What happened *next* ?
34. We have *no* money.
35. He is *no* better, *no* worse.
36. His answer was a decided *no.*
37. *Right* the wrong.
38. He is in the *right.*
39. He is always *right.*
40. Set it *right.*
41. Use *right* words.
42. *Since* you say so, I believe it.
43. *He* has been ill *since* yesterday.
44. He has returned home long *since.*
45. What was *that* noise ?
46. He died so *that* he might save his country.
47. What is the so man *that* does not love his country ?
48. Give him *what* you can.
49. *What* nonsense is this !
50. *What* does it profit ?

Part I

Composition

Analysis, Transformation and Synthesis

This section leads you to a further study of the English grammatical system and seeks to help you build longer sentences.

A knowledge of different types of phrases, clauses and sentences (chapters 2 to 9) and practice in the use of conjunctions like **if, when, as, because, though, that, and, but,** etc. will extend your ability to construct sentences. If you learn clause analysis it will be easy for you to understand lengthy sentences which you sometimes meet in the language of eminent writers.

There are three very useful chapters (12, 13 and 14) containing exercises in synthesis or combination of sentences. Look at this passage :

There were three men. They were poor. One day they found a bag in the jungle. The bag contained money. It had evidently been lost by some traveller.

It sounds jerky. There are too many short sentences. They can be combined into a single sentence, as :

One day three poor men found a bag of money in the jungle, which had evidently been lost by some traveller.

This sounds much better, doesn't it ? This kind of exercises will strengthen your ability to build long, better sentences.

Chapters 10, 11 and 16 provide guidance and practice in forming a wide variety of sentences: exclamations (e.g. How beautiful the flower is!), rhetorical questions (e.g. Is this the way that a gentleman should behave ?), indirect speech (e.g. He asked where you had gone.), etc.

Now go on to read this section. Remember that you can learn more effectively by practising. Work through all the exercises.

Book 2
Composition

PART I: ANALYSIS, TRANSFORMATION AND SYNTHESIS

Chapter 1 ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

1. We have learnt that a **Sentence** is a set or group of words which makes *complete sense.*

   We have also learnt that the first stage in the analysis of a sentence is to divide it into two main parts—the **Subject** and the **Predicate ;** as,

No.	SUBJECT	PREDICATE
1	Dogs	bark.
2	The sun	gives light.
3	The child	is dead.
4	The boys	made Rama captain.
5	My father	gave me a watch.
6	The flames	spread everywhere.
7	The flames	spread in every direction.
8	The hour to prepare lessons	has arrived.

The subject denotes the *person* or *thing* about which something is said.
The predicate is *what is said* about the person or thing denoted by the Subject.
We see that the Subject may consist of one word or several words. Thus, in sentence 1 the subject consists of one word, *viz.,* the Noun *dogs ;* in sentence 8 the Subject consists of five words of which the most important word is the Noun *hour.*

We also see that the Predicate may consist of one word or several words. Thus, in sentence 1 the Predicate consists of one word, *viz.,* the Verb *bark ;* in sentence 5 the Predicate consists of four words of which the essential word is the Verb *gave.*

EXERCISE 1

In the following sentences separate the Subject and the Predicate.

1. The cackling of geese saved Rome.
2. Stone walls do not make a prison.
3. All matter is indestructible.
4. No man can serve two masters.
5. A sick room should be well aired.
6. I shot an arrow in the air.
7. The shepherd hears barking sound.
8. Up went the balloon.
9. The naked everyday he clad.
10. Into the street the piper stepped.
11. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
12. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead.

2. When the Subject of a sentence consists of several words, there is always one word in it which is more important than the other words. This chief word in the complete Subject is called the **Subject-word** or **Simple Subject.** Thus, in the sentence,

The little *child,* tired of play, / is sleeping,

the Noun *child* is the Subject-word.

The Subject-word is always a Noun, or a word or group of words *that does the work of a Noun ;* as,

He / tried his best.

The *rich* / are not always happy.

Talking overmuch / is a sign of vanity.

To err / is human.

To find fault / is easy.

3. In the complete Subject, the Subject-word is qualified by an Adjective or Adjective-equivalent* called its **Enlargement** or **Attribute**; as,
   1. New brooms / sweep clean.
   2. Barking dogs / seldom bite.
   3. Hari's father / is an engineer.
   4. My views / are quite different.
   5. Firdousi, the poet, / wrote the Shah Namah.
   6. A desire to excel / is commendable.
   7. A stitch in time / saves nine.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE
	Subject-word	Attribute	
1	brooms	New	sweep clean.
2	dogs	Barking	seldom bite.
3	father	Hari's	is an engineer.
4	views	My	are quite different.
5	Firdousi	the poet	wrote the Shah Namah.
6	desire	(1) A (2) to excel	is commendable.
7	stitch	(1) A (2) in time	saves nine.

It will be noted that—

in 1, the Attribute is an Adjective ;

in 2, the Attribute is a Participle (or Participial Adjective) ;

in 3, the Attribute is a Noun in the Possessive or Genitive Case ;

in 4, the Attribute is a Possessive Adjective ;

in 5, the Attribute is a Noun in Apposition ;

in 6, the Attribute (*to excel*) is a Gerundial Infinitive ;

in 7, the Attribute (*in time)* is a group of words doing the work of an Adjective.

Note—*A* or *an* and the are really Attributes, but they are sometimes treated as parts of the Subject-word.

EXERCISE 2

In the following sentences, pick out the complete Subject; then separate Subject-word from its Attributes.

1. The boy, anxious to learn, worked hard.
2. A burnt child dreads the fire.
3. Birds of a feather flock together.
4. The attempt to scale the fort was an utter failure.
5. The days of our youth are the days of our glory.

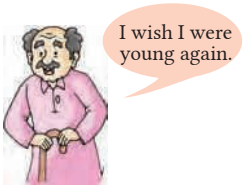

*A word or group of words which does the work of an Adjective is called an Adjective-equivalent.

6. Ill habits gather by unseen degrees.
7. The dog, seizing the man by the collar, dragged him out.
8. The streets of some of our cities are noted for their crookedness.
9. A house divided against itself cannot stand.
10. Deceived by his friends, he lost all hope.
11. The man carrying a hoe is a gardener.
12. One man's meat is another man's poison.
13. My days among the Dead are past.
14. With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff comes.

4. We have seen that the Predicate may consist of one word or several words.

When the Predicate consists of one word that word is always a Verb, because we cannot *say* anything without using a saying-word, *i.e.*, a Verb. (See sentence 1 in § 1)

When the Predicate consists of several words, the essential word in the Predicate is always a Verb. (As the Verb is the essential word in the Predicate it is sometimes called the Predicate-word.)

5. Just as the Subject-word may be qualified by an Adjective or Adjective-equivalent, the Verb in the Predicate may be qualified by an Adverb or Adverb-equivalent*, called, in analysis, its **Extension** or **Adverbial Qualification** ; as,

1. The flames spread everywhere.
2. He went home.
3. He rose to go.
4. The flames spread in every direction.
5. Spring advancing, the swallows appear.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE	
	Subject-word	*Attribute*	*Verb*	*Adverbial Qualification*
1	flames	The	spread	everywhere
2	He		went	home
3	He		rose	to go
4	flames	The	spread	in every direction
5	swallows	The	appear	Spring advancing

It will be noted that—

in 1, the Adverbial Qualification is an Adverb ;
in 2, the Adverbial Qualification is an Adverbial Accusative ;
in 3, the Adverbial Qualification is a Gerundial Infinitive ;
in 4, the Adverbial Qualification is a group of words doing the work of an Adverb ;
in 5, the Adverbial Qualification is an Absolute Phrase.

EXERCISE 3

Point out the Adverbial Qualification in each of the following sentences and say whether it is an Adverb, an Adverbial Accusative, a Gerundial Infinitive, a group of words doing the work of an Adverb, or an Absolute Phrase.

1. She spoke distinctly.
2. He spoke in a distinct voice.
3. The boy ran a mile.
4. The postman called again.
5. He has come to stay.
6. Wait a minute.
7. The book is printed in clear type.
8. I recognized your voice at once.
9. Help a lame dog over a stile.
10. The tide having turned, the ship set sail.
11. He sold his horse below its value.
12. He leaves two children behind him.
13. He gets his living by trade.
14. He made his money by trade.
15. The enemy disputed the ground inch by inch.
16. He saw a new world spread about him.
17. The village life suited him in all respects.
18. Him will I follow to the ends of the earth.

6. When the Verb in the Predicate is an Intransitive Verb, it alone can form the Predicate ; as,

1. Dogs / bark. 2. Black clouds / are gathering. 3. The boys / have been reading.

*A word or group of words which does the work of an Adjective is called an Adjective-equivalent.

Note— In sentence 1, the Verb consists of only one word. Often the Verb itself consists of a group of two or more words, as in 2 and 3.

7. Sometimes the Verb in the Predicate is an Intransitive Verb of Incomplete Predication, that is, an Intransitive Verb which requires a Noun, or an Adjective, or a Pronoun, etc., added to it to make the Predicate complete ; as,

The baby seems/happy.

If I simply say 'The baby seems' I do not make complete sense. The Intransitive Verb *seems* requires some word or words to make the Predicate complete.

What is thus required to complete the Predicate is called a **Complement.**

The Complement of an Intransitive Verb serves to describe the Subject, and is therefore called a **Subjective Complement.**

Now examine the Predicates in the following sentences.

1. The sky grew dark.
2. Venus is a planet.
3. It is me.
4. The man seems worried.
5. Your book is there.
6. The house is to let.
7. The building is in a dilapidated condition.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE	
	Subject-word	*Attribute*	*Verb*	*Complement*
1	sky	The	grew	dark
2	Venus		is	a planet
3	It		is	me
4	man	The	seems	worried
5	book	Your	is	there
6	house	The	is	to let
7	building	The	is	in a dilapidated condition

It will be noticed that—
in 1, the Complement is an Adjective ;
in 2, the Complement is a Noun ;
in 3, the Complement is a Pronoun ;
in 4, the Complement is a Participle ;
in 5, the Complement is an Adverb ;
in 6, the Complement is an Infinitive ;
in 7, the Complement is a group of words doing the work of an Adjective.

Note— When the Predicate is completed by an Adjective, such an Adjective is said to be used Predicatively or to be a Predicative Adjective.

When the Predicate is completed by a Noun, the Noun is said to be a **Predicative Noun.**

EXERCISE 4

Pick out the Complement in each of the following sentences, and say whether it is a Noun, an Adjective, a Pronoun, etc.

1. John became a soldier.
2. Roses smell sweet.
3. The child appears pleased.
4. The workman seems tired.
5. The earth is round.

6. He looks happy.
7. Sugar tastes sweet.
8. The old woman is dead.
9. The weather was cold.
10. He became unconscious.

11. The old gentleman is of a gentle disposition.
12. The child is there.
13. The children look healthy.
14. Today she seems sad.
15. The cup is full to the brim.
16. His grammar is shocking.
17. He is a good type of the modern athlete.

18. Ugly rumours are about.
19. Gentle Evangeline was the pride of the village.
20. This morning he seemed in good spirits.
21. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord.
22. The matter appears of considerable importance.
23. Every man is the architect of his own fortune.

8. Sometimes the Verb in the Predicate is a Transitive Verb, that is, a Verb which requires an Object to complete its sense.

For example, if I say 'Cats catch' I do not make complete sense. You want to know what the cats *catch.* The verb *catch* requires an Object, such as *mice,* to form a complete Predicate.
Now examine the Predicates in the following sentences.

1. Birds build nests.
2. I know him.
3. All good children pity the poor.
4. The Gurkhas love fighting.
5. The foolish crow tried to sing.
6. Our soldiers tried to scale the cliff.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE	
	Subject-word	***Attribute***	***Verb***	***Object***
1	Birds	(1) All	build	nests
2	I	(2) good	know	him
3	children	The	pity	the poor
4	Gurkhas	(1) The	love	fighting
5	crow	(2) foolish	tried	to sing
6	soldiers	Our	tried	to scale the cliff

It will be noticed that—
in 1, the Object is a Noun ;
in 2, the Object is a Pronoun ;
in 3, the Object is an Adjective used as a Noun ;
in 4, the Object is a Gerund or Verbal Noun ;
in 5, the Object is an Infinitive ;
in 6, the Object is a group of words doing the work of a Noun.

9. The Object-word may have Attributes, just like the Subject-word ; as,
He shot a big panther.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	Verb	***Object***	***Attribute***
He	shot	panther	(1) a (2) big

EXERCISE 5

In the following sentences point out the complete Object; then separate the Object-word from its attributes (if any).

1. The world knows nothing of its greatest men.
2. We should learn to govern ourselves.

3. Her arms across her breast she laid.
4. The architect drew a plan for the house.
5. Serpents cast their skin once a year.
6. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.
7. By their fruits ye shall know them.
8. Rock the baby to sleep.
9. He enjoys his master's confidence.

10. I recognized your voice at once.
11. Cut your coat according to your cloth.
12. The Eskimos make houses of snow and ice.
13. I had no answer to my letter.
14. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.
15. Fear no more the heat of the sun.
16. Evil communications corrupt good manners.

10. Sometimes the Verb in the Predicate is a Transitive Verb that takes *two* Objects—a Direct Object and an Indirect Object.

If I say 'Rama gave a penknife', the noun *penknife* is the Object of the verb *gave.*

I may, however, by way of further information, say *to whom* Rama gave a penknife. Rama gave *me* a penknife. The word *me* is called the **Indirect Object** of the Verb *gave* to distinguish it from the Object *penknife,* which is the **Direct Object.**

Now examine the Predicate in the following sentences.

I promised him a present.

He teaches us Geometry.

Father bought Mini a doll.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	Verb	*Indirect Object*	*Direct Object*
I	promised	him	a present
He	teaches	us	Geometry
Father	bought	Mini	a doll

11. Some Transitive Verbs require a Complement in addition to the Object ; as,

The boys made Rama captain.

Here the noun *Rama* is the Object of the Transitive Verb *made* which here requires a word (*e.g., captain*) to make the sense complete.

If I say 'The boys made a snow-ball' the sense is complete. But it would be nonsense to say 'The boys made Rama.' The boys did not make Rama : they made Rama *captain.* The verb *made* is here a Transitive Verb of Incomplete Predication, because in the sense in which the verb *made* is here used, it cannot form a complete predicate unless it has a Complement besides an Object.

The Complement (*captain*) here refers to the Object *Rama.* It is therefore called an **Objective Complement.**

Now examine the Predicates in the following sentences.

1. The jury found him guilty.
2. His parents named him Hari.
3. He kept us waiting.
4. Nothing will make him repent.
5. His words filled them with terror.

No.	SUBJECT		PREDICATE		
	Subject-word	*Attribute*	*Verb*	*Object*	*Complement*
1	jury	The	found	him	guilty
2	parents	His	named	him	Hari
3	He		kept	us	waiting
4	Nothing		will make	him	repent
5	words	His	filled	them	with terror

EXERCISE 6

In the following sentences separate the Predicate from the Subject and then point out the different parts of the Predicate.

1. Abdul called his cousin a fool.
2. Exercise has made his muscles strong.
3. This will make you happy.
4. The Nawab appointed his own brother Vizier.
5. The Court appointed him guardian of the orphan child.
6. Time makes the worst enemies friends.
7. Sickness made the child irritable.
8. They elected him secretary of the club.
9. Do you take me for a fool ?
10. We saw the storm approaching.
11. I consider the man trustworthy.
12. They kept us in suspense.
13. The jury found him guilty of murder.
14. A thunderstorm often turns milk sour.

12. Let us now review the different forms of the Predicate.
    (1) When the verb is Intransitive, the Predicate may consist of the verb alone (§ 6).
    (2) When the verb is an Intransitive Verb of Incomplete Predication, the Predicate may consist of the Verb and its Complement (§ 7).
    (3) When the verb is a Transitive Verb, the Predicate may consist of the Verb and its Object. (§ 8).
    (4) When the verb is a Transitive Verb having two objects, the predicate may consist of the Verb and its two Objects —Indirect and Direct. (§ 10)
    (5) When the verb is a Transitive Verb of Incomplete Predication, the Predicate may consist of the Verb, its Object and a Complement. (§ 11)
13. Carefully study the analysis of the following sentences :
    The table is printed on page 156.

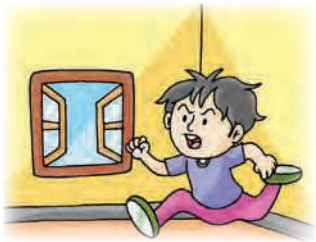

1. Abdul, quite pale with fright, rushed into the room.
2. Determination to do one's duty is laudable.
3. Around the fire, one wintry night,
   The farmer's rosy children sat.
4. Home they brought the warrior dead.
5. His friends elected him secretary of the club.
6. This circumstance certainly makes the matter very serious.
7. My uncle has been teaching me mathematics.
8. Jaffar, the Barmecide, the good Vizier,
   The poor man's hope, the friend without a peer,
   Jaffar was dead, slain by a doom unjust.
9. Who are you ?

EXERCISE 7

Analyse the following sentences.

1. A nod from a lord is breakfast for a fool.
2. A good paymaster never wants workmen.
3. Home they brought her warrior dead.
4. Sickness made the child irritable.
5. Gentle Evangeline was the pride of the village.
6. It is easy to find fault.
7. It is a miserable thing to live in suspense.
8. Wounds made by words are hard to heal.
9. Down went the Royal George.
10. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.
11. Time makes the worst enemies friends.
12. Great is your reward in Heaven.

No.	SUBJECT			PREDICATE		
	Subject-word	*Attribute*	*Verb*	*Object*	*Complement*	*Adverbial Qualification*
1	Abdul	quite pale with fright	rushed			into the room
2	Determination	to do one's duty	is		laudable	
3	children	(1) the farmer's	sat			(1) Around the fire
		(2) rosy				(2) one wintry night
4	they		brought	the warrior dead		Home
5	friends	His	elected	him	secretary of the club	
6	circumstance	This	makes	the matter	very serious	certainly
			has	(1) mathematics		
7	uncle	My	been	(Direct)		
			teaching	(2) me		
				(Indirect)		
		(1) the Barmecide				
		(2) the good Vizier				
8	Jaffar	(3) the poor man's hope	was		dead	slain by a doom unjust
		(4) the friend without a peer				
9	you		are		Who	

Note:— It will be noticed that we have placed together in one column the Object-word and its Attributes.

13. In him India lost a true patriot.
14. The proof of the pudding is in the eating.
15. It is easy to be wise after the event.
16. A man he was to all the country dear.
17. Experience has taught us many lessons.
18. A man's first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart.
19. All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.
20. He showed a constant solicitude for his son's welfare.
21. Caesar, having conquered his enemies, returned to Rome.
22. To drive a car requires care and skill.
23. A great fortune in the hands of a fool is a great misfortune.
24. The postman looked very tired at the end of the day.

Note— In 6, "It" is a provisional subject ; the real subject is "to find fault". "It" should be entered in the subject-column in brackets.

"It" is a provisional subject in 7 and 15 also.

Chapter 2 PHRASES

I. Adjective Phrases

14. We have seen that sometimes a *group* of words does the work of an adjective (§ 3). Now examine the following pairs of sentences:
    1. (*a*) The vizier was a *wealthy* man.
       (*b*) The vizier was a man *of great wealth.*
    2. (*a*) The magistrate was a *kind* man.
       (*b*) The magistrate was a man *with a kindly nature.*
    3. (*a*) The chief lived in a *stone* house.
       (*b*) The chief lived in a house *built of stone.*
    4. (*a*) I like to see a *smiling* face.
       (*b*) I like to see a face *with a smile on it.*
    5. (*a*) The coolies belonged to a *hill* tribe.
       (*b*) The coolies belonged to a tribe *dwelling in the hills.*

    In each of the above pairs of sentences, we have first a *single word* describing the person or thing denoted by the noun, and then *a group of words* describing the person or thing denoted by the same noun.

    For instance, the group of words *of great wealth* tells us what sort of *man* the vizier was. It qualifies the noun *man* just as an Adjective does. It therefore *does the work of an Adjective* and is called an **Adjective Phrase.**

    Def — An Adjective Phrase is a group of words that *does the work of an Adjective.*

15. Study the following Adjectives and the Adjective Phrases that are equivalent to them.

Adjectives	Adjective Phrases
A *golden* crown.	A crown *made of gold.*
A *purple* cloak.	A cloak *of purple colour.*
A *white* elephant.	An elephant *with a white skin.*
A *jungle* track.	A track *through the jungle.*
A *blue-eyed* boy.	A boy *with blue eyes.*
A *deserted* village.	A village *without any inhabitants.*
A *blank* page.	A page *with no writing on it.*
The *longest* day.	The day *of greatest length.*
The *Spanish* flag.	The flag *of Spain.*
A *heavy* load.	A load *of great weight.*

EXERCISE 8

Pick out the Adjective Phrases in the following sentences.

1. A man in great difficulties came to me for help.
2. He is a person of very considerable renown.
3. Wild beasts in small cages are a sorry sight.
4. A man without an enemy is a man with few friends.
5. He tells a tale with the ring of truth in it.
6. A friend in need is a friend indeed.
7. A stitch in time saves nine.
8. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

9. Gardens with cool shady trees surround the village.
10. Only a man with plenty of money buys a car of such beauty and power.
11. In a low voice he told the tale of his cruel wrongs.
12. Do you know the story of the noble Padmini ?
13. He was a lad of great promise.
14. He bore a banner with a strange device.
15. The police arrested a man of one of the criminal tribes.

EXERCISE 9

In each of the following sentences replace the Adjective in italics by an Adjective Phrase of the same meaning.

1. A *grey* cloud spread over the sky.
2. He dwelt in a *wooden* hut.
3. He had a *bald* head.
4. She wore a *diamond* necklace.
5. It was a *horrible* night.
6. They went by *Siberian* railway.
7. A *grassy* meadow stretched before us.
8. An *earthen* pitcher stood on a *three-legged* table.
9. The *French* flag flew at the top of the *highest* mast.
10. That was a *cowardly* act.
11. He is *well.*
12. A *valuable* ring was found yesterday.
13. *Heroic* deeds deserve our admiration.
14. Much has been said about the *Swiss* scenery.
15. *Numerical* superiority is a great advantage.
16. The Rajputs were *passionately* fond of martial glory.
17. I have passed two *sleepless* nights.
18. He is a *professional* cricketer.
19. This book contains many *biblical* quotations.
20. She wants *medical* advice.
21. A *tall* soldier stepped forth.

EXERCISE 10

Replace each of the following Adjective Phrases in italics by an Adjective of the same meaning.

1. He wore a turban *made of silk.*
2. He has done a deed *of shame.*
3. He led a life *devoid of blame.*
4. He is a man *without a friend.*
5. They came to a path *covered with mud.*
6. He carried a sword stained with *blood.*
7. I met a little girl *from a cottage.*
8. Balu was a man *with plenty* of *impudence.*
9. From this village *in the mountains* came a chieftain *of great fame.*

10. The Rajput leader was a soldier full of *hope* and *free from fear.*
11. Nelson was a boy *without fear.*
12. Nobody likes a person *with a bad temper.*
13. I admit that he is a man *of sense.*
14. The tops *of the mountains* were covered with snow.
15. He is an author *of great versatility.*
16. It is *of no use.*

Note—Not all Adjective Phrases can be replaced by Adjectives. For instance :

He never felt the witchery *of the soft blue sky.*

EXERCISE 11

Fill in the blanks with suitable Adjective Phrases.

1. An elephant ____is considered sacred by some people.
2. Birds ____flock together.
3. He leads a life ____.
4. Children like books ____.
5. He lost a diamond ____
6. The old sage spoke words ____.
7. She is a woman ____.
8. John Gilpin was a citizen ____.
9. Draw a picture ____.

10. The leaves ____are glossy.
11. We heard the sound ____.
12. Listen to the sound ____.
13. The verdict ____was in his favour.
14. The doors ____closed upon him.
15. The water ____is very deep.
16. The road ____is very muddy.
17. The proprietor ____died yesterday.
18. The paths ____lead but to the grave.

EXERCISE 12

Write five sentences containing Adjective Phrases.

II. Adverb Phrases

16. Just as the work of an Adjective is often done by a group of words called an Adjective Phrase, so the work of an Adverb is often done by a group of words.

Study the following pairs of sentences carefully.

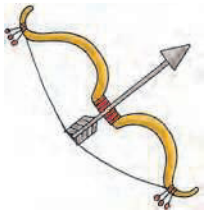

1. (*a*) Rama ran *quickly.* (*How* ?)
   (*b*) Rama ran *with great speed.* (*How* ?)
2. (*a*) He answered *rudely.* (*How* ?)
   (*b*) He answered *in a very rude manner.* (*How* ?)
3. (*a*) He does his work *carelessly.* (*How* ?)
   (*b*) He does his work *without any care.* (*How* ?)
4. (*a*) He is coming *now* (*When* ?)
   (*b*) He is coming *at this very moment.* (*When* ?)
5. (*a*) No such diseases were known *then.* (*When* ?)
   (*b*) No such diseases were known *in those days.* (*When* ?)
6. (*a*) The arrow fell *here.* (*Where* ?)
   (*b*) The arrow fell *on this spot.* (*Where* ?)
7. (*a*) You can buy it *everywhere.* (*Where* ?)
   (*b*) You can buy it *in all places.* (*Where* ?)
8. (*a*) He fell *down.* (*Where* ?)
   (*b*) He fell *to the ground.* (*Where* ?)

In each of the above pairs of sentences we have first a *single word* (an Adverb) modifying a verb, and then a *group of words* modifying a verb in the same way.

For instance, the group of words *with great speed* tells us how Rama *ran.* It modifies the verb *ran* just as the Adverb *quickly* does. It therefore *does the work of an Adverb* and is called an **Adverb Phrase.**

Def — An Adverb Phrase is a group of words that does the work of an Adverb.

Note—An Adverb Phrase, like an Adverb, may modify also an Adjective or Adverb : as,
Quinine is good for malaria.
I have done well on the whole.

17. Study the following Adverbs and the Adverb Phrases that are equivalent to them.

Adverbs	*Adverb Phrases*
Bravely	In a brave manner, *or* with bravery.
Unwisely	In an unwise manner, *or* without wisdom.
Swiftly	In a swift manner, *or* with swiftness.
Beautifully	In a beautiful style.
Formerly	In former times, *or* once upon a time.
Recently	Just now, *or* at a recent date.
Soon	Before very long, *or* at an early date.
There	At that place.
Away	To another place.
Abroad	To (in) a foreign country.

EXERCISE 13

Pick out the Adverb Phrases in the following sentences.

1. She lived in the middle of a great wood.
2. Nothing can live on the moon.
3. Come into the garden, Maud.
4. Three fishers went sailing over the sea.

5. O'er her hangs the great dark bell.
6. Down in a green and shady bed, a modest violet grew.
7. On your conscience this will lie.
8. They sat for a while on the bank.
9. Honesty is written on his face.
10. The gun went off with a loud report.
11. There dwelt a miller hale and bold, beside the river Dee.
12. I stood on the bridge at midnight.
13. To the northward stretched the desert.
14. Beside a green meadow a stream used to flow.
15. I have read Bacon to my great profit.
16. In her ear he whispers gaily.
17. Beside the ungathered rice he lay.
18. They fought to the last man.
19. He persevered in the face of all obstacles.
20. The shoe is pressing on my toe.
21. Keep him at arm's length.
22. Make yourself at home.
23. It must be done at any price.
24. Pauperism increases at a fearful rate.
25. He has painted him in his proper colours.
26. He has his finger on the pulse of the nation.
27. He lives by his pen.
28. The shepherd shouted to them at the top of his voice.
29. He strove with all his might to escape.
30. Without pausing to consider, he struck the blow.
31. Much water has run under the bridge since then.

EXERCISE 14

In each of the following sentences replace the Adverb in italics by an Adverb Phrase of the same meaning.

1. The pigeon flies *swiftly.*
2. Did Rama behave *well* ?
3. Go *away.*
4. The dying man replied *feebly.*
5. *Gently* fell the rain.
6. We will pitch the tents just *here.*
7. He expects to get promotion *soon.*
8. He built his house *there.*
9. They have only *recently* arrived.
10. Although hungry, the soldiers worked *cheerfully.*
11. He spoke *eloquently.*
12. *Soon* the sun will set.
13. Do your work *thoroughly.*
14. They were *hurrying* homeward.
15. The door was *suspiciously* open.
16. *Formerly* he worked at the School of Economics.
17. He tried *hard.*

EXERCISE 15

Replace each of the following Adverb Phrases by an Adverb of the same meaning.

1. The bodies were mangled *in a terrible manner.*
2. Let us cease work *from this very moment.*
3. It was just *on this spot* that he died.
4. The child replied *with perfect truthfulness.*
5. He arrived *at that moment.*
6. I hope that he will come *at a very early date.*
7. He seems to have acted *with great promptitude.*
8. No one would dare to answer him *in an impudent way.*
9. I accept your statement *without reserve.*
10. I thank you with *all my heart.*
11. He succeeded *in the long run.*
12. He is ignorant *to a proverb.*
13. The post-boy drove *with fierce career.*
14. He has been painted *in his proper colours.*
15. The wind blew *with great violence.*
16. He has proved his case *to my satisfaction.*

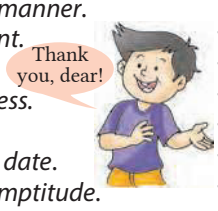

Note—Not all Adverb Phrases can be replaced by Adverbs. For instance :—

I took him on the strength of your recommendation.

EXERCISE 16

Fill in the blanks with suitable Adverb Phrases.

1. The knight fought ____.
2. The Rajah treated his vizier ____.
3. The woodman struck the wolf ___.
4. Do not answer ____.
5. I agree ____.
6. He has behaved ____.
7. He does his homework ____.
8. He treated his relatives ____.
9. The police handled the bombs ____.
10. The sailor climbed ____.
11. That happened ____.
12. He reached school ____.
13. He does his homework ____.
14. He failed ____.
15. Old Mother Hubbard went ____.

EXERCISE 17

Write five sentences containing Adverb Phrases.

18. Compare
    1. The crowd *in the bazaar* was very noisy.
    2. The crowd halted *in the bazaar.*

    In sentence 1, the phrase *in the bazaar* tells us *which* crowd was very noisy ; that is, it qualifies the noun *crowd.* It is therefore an Adjective Phrase.

    In sentence 2, the phrase *in the bazaar* tells us *where* the crowd halted ; that is, it modifies the verb *halted.* It is therefore an Adverb Phrase.

    Hence we see that the same phrase may be an Adjective Phrase in one sentence and an Adverb Phrase in another sentence.

    We cannot say what kind of Phrase a given Phrase is until we examine *the work which it does in a sentence.*

EXERCISE 18

Say which of the following are Adverb Phrases and which are Adjective Phrases.

1. Have you heard of the man *in the moon ?*
2. How could a man be *in the moon* ?
3. They live *on an island.*
4. A house *on an island* was washed away.

5. Awful is the gloom *beneath her.*
6. Then why did she look *beneath her* ?
7. Is this the train *to Peshawar* ?
8. It usually goes *to Peshawar, Sir.*

EXERCISE 19

Use the following Phrases in sentences.

in a loud voice ; without further delay ; with one voice ; for certain ; just in time up in arms ; of no consequence ; out of fashion ; with great satisfaction ; in the twinkling of an eye ; on either side of the street ; in a shady nook ; to the last man ; with a smile ; at sixes and sevens ; at the eleventh hour ; on the top of the hill ; in future ; at nine o'clock.

III. Noun Phrases

19. Examine the following sentences.
    1. The boy wants *something.*
    2. The boy wants *to go home.*

The word *something* is a Noun and it is the Object of the verb *wants,* in sentence 1. Similarly the group of words, *to go home,* is the Object of the verb *wants,* in sentence 2. Hence this group of words *does the work of a Noun.* The group of words, *to go home,* is therefore a **Noun Phrase.**

Def.—A Noun Phrase is a group of words that does the work of a Noun.

Further examples of Noun Phrases:

Early to bed is a good maxim.
We enjoy *playing cricket.*
Did you enjoy *reading this book* ?
To win a prize is my ambition.

He hopes *to win the first prize.*
He loves *to issue harsh orders.*
I tried *to get the sum right.*
Standing about in a cold wet wind did me no good.

EXERCISE 20

Pick out the Noun Phrases in the following sentences.

1. His father wished to speak to the Headmaster.
2. The wicked vizier loves getting people into trouble.
3. The poor debtor intended to pay back every penny of the money.
4. He dislikes having to punish his servants.
5. Horses prefer living in dark stables.
6. I should hate to do such a thing.

7. Have you ever tried climbing a coconut palm ?
8. Thinking good thoughts precedes good actions.
9. He refuses to answer the question.
10. To write such rubbish is disgraceful.
11. Promise to come again.
12. Why do you like visiting such a man ?
13. Travelling in a hot dusty train gives me no pleasure.
14. He denies stealing the money.
15. Your doing such a thing surprises me.

EXERCISE 21

Supply a Noun Phrase.

1. I want ____.
2. ____delights me.
3. We all hope ____.
4. Pretend ____.
5. ____seems dishonest.
6. ____surprised my mother.
7. Do you wish ____?
8. My father hates ____.
9. ____gives me no pleasure.
10. I don't intend ____.
11. ____is not easy.
12. I do not expect ____.
13. I enjoy ____.
14. He wishes ____.
15. Cats like ____.
16. His father promised ___.

EXERCISE 22

Pick out the Phrases and say whether they are Adjective Phrases, Adverb Phrases, or Noun Phrases.

1. He speaks like a born orator.
2. It grieved me to hear of your illness.
3. Beyond a doubt this man is honest.
4. He failed in spite of his best efforts.
5. He won the prize by means of trickery.
6. Do not talk like that.
7. I have forgotten how to play this game.
8. He gained their affection in spite of many faults.
9. I do not expect such treatment at your hands.
10. He speaks too fast to be understood.
11. I do not know what to do.
12. I do not understand how to solve this problem.
13. He persevered amidst many difficulties.
14. He succeeded in the long run.
15. Birds of a feather flock together.
16. This is a matter of no importance.
17. The train is behind time.
18. He is a man of means.
19. It lies near his heart.

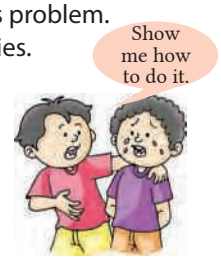

20. He keeps the necklace under lock and key.
21. He is a person of no importance.
22. I want to go to the cinema to-day.
23. I love to hear the watch-dog's honest bark.
24. I did it of my own free will.
25. Show me how to do it.
26. His car ran over a dog.
27. Things are in a bad way.
28. She is a woman of wonderful patience.
29. I have found the key to his secret.
30. The plan has the virtue of committing us to nothing.
31. I don't see the point of the story.
32. How to find the way to the ruins is the question.
33. Tubal Cain was a man of might.
34. He did it against his will.
35. I have no time to waste on trifles.
36. Don't do things by halves.
37. I enjoy walking in the fields.

Chapter 3 CLAUSES

I. Adverb Clauses

20. Look at the groups of words in italics in the following sentences.
    1. They rested *at sunset.* [Rested *when* ?]
    2. They rested *when evening came.* [Rested *when* ?]

    It is evident that both the groups of words in italics, in 1 and 2, do the work of an Adverb as they modifiy the verb *rested,* showing when the action was performed.

We at once recognize the first group of words, *at sunset,* as an Adverb Phrase. Is the second group of words, *when evening came,* also an Adverb Phrase ?

No, it is not a Phrase for, unlike a Phrase, it has a Subject *(evening)* and a Predicate (*came when*) of its own, and is thus like a sentence. But though like a sentence it is part of a sentence.

Such a group of words that forms part of a sentence, and has a Subject and a Predicate of its own, is called a **Clause.**

Since the Clause, *when evening came,* does the work of an Adverb, it is called an **Adverb Clause.**

Def.—An Adverb Clause is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and does the work of an Adverb.

EXERCISE 23

Pick out the Adverb Clauses in the following sentences.

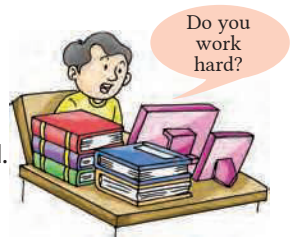

1. You may sit wherever you like.
2. He fled where his pursuers could not follow.
3. He behaves as one might expect him to do.
4. Because you have done this I shall punish you.
5. As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
6. If you eat too much you will be ill.
7. He finished first though he began late.
8. Will you wait till I return ?
9. Just as he entered the room the clock struck.
10. They went where living was cheaper.
11. He does not always speak as he thinks.
12. Take a lamp because the night is dark.
13. I do it because I choose to.
14. If I make a promise I keep it.
15. You will pass if you work hard.
16. He advanced as far as he dared.
17. I forgive you since you repent.
18. I shall remain where I am.
19. We shall wait here until you come.
20. When I was younger, I thought so.
21. It was so dark that you could not see your hand.
22. Wherever one goes, one hears the same story.
23. If you do not hurry you will miss the train.
24. Since you have already decided, why do you ask my opinion ?

EXERCISE 24

Supply suitable Adverb Clauses.

1. Do not go ____.
2. He is not so clever ____.
3. I was so hurried ____.
4. He ran so fast ____.
5. He always does ____.
6. He spoke so low ____.
7. I shall do nothing ____.
8. Fools rush in ____.
9. Nobody likes him ____.
10. Open rebuke is better____.
11. He will succeed ____.
12. Make hay ____.
13. He is so busy ____.
14. Do not come ____.
15. The boy went out to play ____.
16. He does ____.
17. He always comes ____.
18. He did ____.
19. She sings exactly ____.
20. The earth is larger ____.
21. His father died ____.
22. He cannot see ____.
23. Do you work well ____.
24. I found my books____.
25. I will not go out ____.
26. You will succeed or fail ____.
27. Arithmetic is less difficult ____.
28. We shall miss the train ____..
29. Do_____.

21. Examine the following sentences.
    1. The stolen property was found *in the dacoits' hiding place.*
    2. The stolen property was found *where the dacoits were accustomed to hide.*

    It will be noticed that both the groups of words in italics do the work of an Adverb.

    But the group of words in italics in sentence 2 is a Clause, because it has a subject (*the dacoits*) and a Predicate (*were accustomed to hide where*) of its own; while the group of words in italics in sentence 1 is a Phrase.

We further notice that the Adverb Phrase, *in the dacoits' hiding place,* is equivalent to the Adverb Clause, *where the dacoits were accustomed to hiding,* and can therefore be replaced by it.

EXERCISE 25

In each of the following sentences replace each Adverb Phrase by an Adverb Clause.

1. On his return we asked him many questions.
2. Do it to the best of your ability.
3. The prince was met on his arrival by his secretary.
4. In spite of poverty he became distinguished.
5. Upon seeing the signal the troops set out.
6. Nobody must expect to become rich without hard work.
7. They were very grateful to him for his kindness.
8. In comparison with air water is heavy.
9. The weather is too bright to last.
10. My heart is too full for words.
11. The work is too much for any man to do single-handed.
12. With a view to early retirement he saved his money.
13. In the event of the president's death the vice-president succeeds him.
14. He always carried out his duties according to instructions.
15. The price is high for an old car.
16. He ran with all his might.
17. After such hard work, he requires a long rest.
18. He was base enough to accept the dishonourable terms.
19. Many ships were so shattered as to be wholly unmanageable.
20. A rose by any other name would smell as sweet.

EXERCISE 26

In each of the following sentences, replace each Adverb Clause by an Adverb or Adverb Phrase.

1. I have not been well since I returned from Chennai.
2. When the sun set he returned home.
3. They fought as heroes do.
4. When the righteous rule, the people rejoice.
5. Though I am poor, yet am I contented.
6. We have come so that we may help you.
7. When he entered the room he saw the vase broken.
8. The thief crept as a jackal does.
9. I am glad that he has recovered from his illness.
10. He works hard so that he may become rich.
11. He worked so hard that he succeeded.
12. As soon as I saw the cobra I ran away.
13. We ran so that we might arrive in time.
14. He jested even as he lay dying.
15. No man can become a great artist unless he applies himself continually to his art.
16. There was nothing he would not do if only he might make profit.
17. He was not so rich that he could buy a motor-car.
18. When he had uttered these words he sat down.
19. This exercise is so difficult that I cannot do it.
20. The news is so good that it cannot be true.
21. I did not pay him, as I had no money with me.
22. He lived carefully so that he might live long.
23. The steamer will leave as soon as the mails arrive.
24. He may go home after his work is finished.
25. As he was sick, he remained at home.
26. He was punished as he deserved.
27. This sum is right so far as the working is concerned.
28. It rained so hard that the streets were flooded.
29. I took him because you recommended him.
30. My parents were poor though they were of noble birth.
31. He refuses to work whatever I may say.
32. We will do the work as well as we can.
33. Robinson Crusoe was puzzled when he discovered the print of a foot on the sand.
34. Apollo was worshipped as long as the Roman Empire lasted.
35. He thought himself rich though his income was only Rs. 30,000 annually.
36. We are kind to you because you are kind to us.
37. The passage is so difficult that I cannot comprehend it.

II. Adjective Clauses

22. Look at the group of words in italics in the following sentences.
    1. The umbrella *with a broken handle* is mine. [*Which* umbrella?]
    2. The umbrella *which has a broken handle* is mine. [*Which* umbrella?]

The first group of words, *with a broken handle,* describes the umbrella ; that is, it qualifies the noun *umbrella,* and does the work of an Adjective. It is what we call an Adjective phrase.

The second group of words *which has a broken handle,* also describes the umbrella and so does the work of an Adjective. But because it contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, it is called an **Adjective Clause.**

Def — An Adjective Clause is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and does the work of an Adjective.

EXERCISE 27

Pick out the Adjective Clauses in the following sentences, and tell what noun or pronoun each qualifies.

1. Mary had a little lamb whose fleece was white as snow.
2. The letter brought money which was badly needed.
3. The house that I live in belongs to my father.
4. I am monarch of all I survey.
5. I have a little shadow which goes in and out with me.
6. The dog that bites does not bark.
7. He tells a tale that sounds untrue.
8. It's an ill wind that blows nobody any good.
9. The boy stood on the burning deck whence all but he had fled.

10. They never fail who die in a great cause.
11. I remember the house where I was born.
12. He that climbs too high is sure to fall.
13. Here is the book you want.
14. Heaven helps those who help themselves.
15. He died in the village where he was born.
16. He never does anything that is silly.
17. People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.
18. It is a long lane that has no turning.
19. He laughs best who laughs last.
20. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.

EXERCISE 28

Supply suitable Adjective Clauses.

1. I know the place ____.
2. He is the man ____.
3. The house ____is a hundred years old.
4. His offence is one ____.
5. Where is the book ____?
6. Boys ____will not be promoted.
7. He has lost the book ____.
8. I found the book ____.

9. I know the man ____.
10. No man ____shall suffer in any way.
11. The boy ____gained the prize.
12. Students _____ get good marks.
13. Water ____should be kept in a covered jar.
14. Any boy ____will be punished.
15. He went away by the train ____.

23. Examine the following sentences.

1. He met a girl *with blue eyes.*
2. He met a girl *whose eyes were blue.*

The group of words, *with blue eyes,* qualifies the noun *girl.*

The group of words, *whose eyes were blue,* also qualifies the noun *girl.*

Hence both these groups of words do the work of an Adjective.

But the group of words, *with blue eyes,* is a Phrase, while the group of words, *whose eyes were blue,* is a Clause.

We further notice that the Adjective Phrase, *with blue eyes,* is equivalent to the Adjective Clause, *whose eyes were blue,* and can therefore be replaced by it.

EXERCISE 29

In each of the following sentences, replace each Adjective Phrase by an Adjective Clause.

1. A man of industrious habits is sure to succeed.
2. He told us the time of his arrival.
3. The time for departing has now arrived.
4. Do you know the road leading to the temple?
5. I have a box, filled with almonds.
6. We all admire a man of courage.
7. A city on a hill cannot be hid.
8. The people in the gallery could not hear.
9. You can have anything of your liking.
10. The houses of the Burmee are often built of bamboo.

EXERCISE 30

In the following sentences, replace Adjective Clauses by Adjectives or Adjective Phrases.

1. Do you know the woman who is wearing a blue sari ?
2. The boy who sits near me is my cousin.
3. That was the reason why he came late.
4. The reason why he failed is obvious.

5. The workers, who were weary with their exertions, lay down to rest.
6. The sun, which at mid-day was hot, made the traveller thirsty.
7. Which is the road that leads most quickly to the station?
8. People who eat too much die early.
9. Many men who have not been trained to write become journalists.

10. This is the place where our forefathers landed.
11. The explanation he gave was not satisfactory.
12. Such men as you cannot be easily disheartened.
13. This boy, who has been industrious, has earned a prize which he has well deserved.
14. A belief which is generally held is not necessarily one which is true.
15. An author who was famous during the freedom struggle lived in that cottage which overlooks the lake.

III. Noun Clauses

24. Examine the groups of words in italics in the following sentences.

1. I expect *to get a prize.* [Expect *what?*]
2. I expect *that I shall get a prize.* [Expect *what?*]

The first group of words, *to get a prize,* does not contain a Subject and a Predicate of its own. It is therefore a phrase. This phrase is object of the verb *expect* and hence does the work of a Noun. It is therefore a Noun Phrase.

The second group of words, *that I shall get a prize,* contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own. It is therefore a clause. This Clause is the object of the verb *expect* and so does the work of a Noun. We therefore call it a **Noun Clause.**

Now examine the sentence,
That you have come pleases me.

Here the Clause, *That you have come,* is the Subject of the verb *pleases.*
It therefore does the work of a Noun, and is what we call a Noun Clause.
Def.—A Noun Clause is a group of words which contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and does the work of a Noun.

EXERCISE 31

Point out the Noun Clauses in the following sentences.

1. I often wonder how you are getting on.
2. I fear that I shall fail.
3. He replied that he would come.
4. Do you deny that you stole the watch ?
5. I thought that it would be a fine day.
6. That you should cheat me hurts me.
7. No one knows who he is.
8. He saw that the clock had stopped.
9. That you should say this is very strange.
10. I don't see how you can get out of this mess.
11. I earn whatever I can.
12. I do not know what he wants.
13. There were no complaints except that the day was too hot.

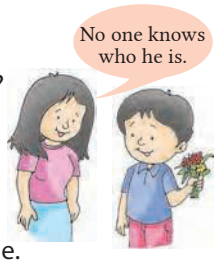

14. I went to see what had happened.
15. I do not understand how it all happened.
16. Pay careful attention to what I am going to say.
17. It grieved me to hear that she was ill.
18. I want to know how far it is from here.
19. Where we were to lodge that night was the problem.
20. He begged that his life might be spared.
21. I think you have made a mistake.
22. Can you guess what I want ?
23. How the burglar got in is a mystery!
24. It is uncertain whether he will come.
25. I do not know what he will do.

EXERCISE 32

Complete the following by adding suitable Noun Clauses.

1. I cannot understand ____.
2. They all said ____.
3. I think ____.
4. This is just ____.

5. He told me ____.
6. ____is a well known fact.
7. Do you know ____?
8. I wonder ____.

9. I do not know ____.
10. Please show me_____
11. ____is quite certain.
12. I feel certain ____.
13. Tell him ____.
14. Will you tell me ____?
15. His father was anxious ____.
16. You forget ____.
17. It is certain ____.
18. Have you heard ____?
19. ____do with your might.
20. He was pleased with ____.

EXERCISE 33

In each of the following sentences, replace the words in italics by suitable Noun Clauses.

1. *The time of his coming* no one can guess.
2. I heard *of his success.*
3. *The reason of his failure* will never be known.
4. I predict *a change in the weather.*
5. The jury believed *the man guilty.*
6. We expect *an improvement in business.*
7. Who can doubt *the truth of his statement* ?
8. I know *him to be trustworthy.*
9. I do not believe the *account given* by him.
10. He confessed *his guilt.*
11. He described *the attack on the camp.*
12. *The place of their meeting* was known to the police.
13. The sailor told us *the direction of the wind.*
14. *His arrival* was quite unexpected.
15. His friends hoped *for his success.*
16. I know *your great regard for him.*

EXERCISE 34

In each of the following sentences, replace each Noun Clause by a Noun or Noun Phrase.

1. I hope that I shall be there in time.
2. He is sure that we will win the match.
3. I remarked that it was a fine day.
4. They do not know where he is concealed.
5. The police must know where he is living.
6. I believe what he says.
7. Tell me what you think about this.
8. The doctor is hopeful that she will soon recover.

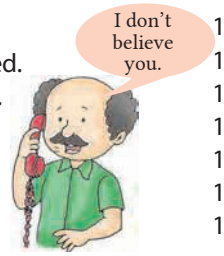

9. It is to be regretted that he retired from the world so early in life.
10. I do not believe what he says.
11. He showed how the problem was done.
12. It seems that he is a swindler.
13. He does not know where I live.
14. Tell me why you did this.
15. It is not known who has written this book.
16. The law will punish whosoever is guilty.

25. We have now seen that there are three kinds of Clauses:
    (1) Adverb Clauses which do the work of Adverbs.
    (2) Adjective Clauses which do the work of Adjectives.
    (3) Noun Clauses which do the work of Nouns.

26. Examine the following sentences, and notice the work done by the Clause in each.
    1. I knew *where I could find him.*
    2. I went to the place *where I could* find him.
    3. I went *where I could find him.*

    In sentence 1, the Clause does the work of a Noun, and is the Object of the verb *know.*
    In sentence 2, the Clause does the work of an Adjective, and qualifies the noun *place.*
    In sentence 3, the Clause does the work of an Adverb, and modifies the verb *went.*
    We thus see that the same Clause may be a Noun Clause in one sentence, an Adjective Clause in another, and an Adverb Clause in yet another.
    It is therefore clear that we cannot say what kind of Clause a Clause is unless we carefully examine *the work that it does in a sentence.*

EXERCISE 35

Pick out the clause in each of the following sentences, and say what kind of clause it is, and with what word it is connected.

1. Come when you like.
2. I know the man who is here.

3. He says that he met your brother.
4. The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world.
5. Before I die I intend to see Venice.
6. Let us rejoice as we go forward.
7. I was reading a book which I had read before.
8. Perhaps he thinks that I am a fool.
9. As I drew near I saw a very curious sight.
10. Where are the friends whom I knew ?
11. Can a man live whose soul is dead ?
12. I think that he will die.
13. I want to find the man who did this.
14. He made a vow that he would fast for a week.
15. Have you heard that Rama has won the prize ?
16. It was not the vizier whom the king suspected.
17. He admitted that he wrote the letter.
18. That he will do it, I have no doubt.
19. I know the place which you mention.
20. That such a thing could happen, I do not believe.
21. When he heard this he turned very pale.
22. Have you seen the horse that he has bought ?
23. My father hopes that you will visit us.
24. He behaved as a brave man should do.
25. I will wait until the next train comes.
26. The general feared that he would be surrounded.
27. He ate when he was hungry.
28. Since he has been in hospital he has improved greatly.
29. As I was going in my father came out.
30. There came a time when he was tired of waiting.
31. He spoke of a time when wars should cease.
32. They live where the climate is good.
33. I know a place where roses grow.
34. They have gone to a land whither few travellers go.
35. The wind bloweth whither it listeth.
36. They returned whence they had come.
37. The swallows will return to the country whence such birds migrate.
38. Let none follow me to the retreat whither I now depart.
39. I refer to the year when the monsoon failed.
40. This is not the sort of place where you'll get rich in a hurry.
41. Sadly they returned to the prison whence they had so hopefully set forth that morning.
42. You will always regret the day when you did this.
43. Another occupies the seat where once I sat.
44. He has gone to that bourne whence no traveller returns.

EXERCISE 36

In each of the following sentences write a Clause in place of the words in italics, and say whether the Clause is a Noun Clause, an Adjective Clause, or an Adverb Clause.

1. He cannot find a place *to sleep in*.
2. The girl *with long hair* is my cousin.

3. Have you heard *the news ?*
4. *In spite of his efforts* he failed.
5. He walked slowly *to avoid slipping*
6. This is *my home.*
7. He cried aloud *for joy.*
8. I am surprised at *your question.*
9. He works hard *for a living.*
10. *Being lame* he has to use crutches.
11. *The sun having set,* the army stopped to rest.
12. I heard *of his arrival.*
13. *The duration of the war* is uncertain.
14. *His remarks* were not received with approval.
15. He declared *his innocence.*

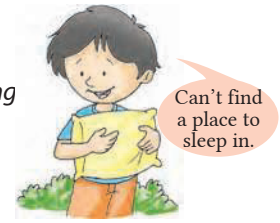

16. I am hopeful *of his speedy recovery.*
17. Did he explain the *purpose of his coming*?
18. He ordered *the traitor to be executed.*
19. He remarked *on the boy's impudence.*
20. *His silence* proves his guilt.
21. I cannot tell you the *date of my return.*
22. *His share in the plot* was suspected.
23. He speaks *like a born orator.*
24. *Under existing conditions* railway travel is expensive.
25. He is not so foolish *as to accept your offer.*
26. *In my old home* we had many fruit trees.
27. I promise you a holiday *on condition of* your good behaviour.

Chapter 4 SENTENCES : SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX

27. Examine the following sentences.
    1. His courage won him honour.
    2. The moon was bright and we could see our way.
    3. Night came on and rain fell heavily and we all got very wet.
    4. They rested when evening came.
    5. As the boxers advanced into the ring, the people said they would not allow them to fight.

We see that sentence 1 has only *one* Subject and *one* Predicate. Such a sentence is called a **Simple Sentence.**

Def —A Simple sentence is one which has only *one* Subject and *one* Predicate.

[Or] A Simple sentence is one which has only *one* Finite Verb.

Sentence 2 consists of two parts :

(*i*) The moon was bright.

(*ii*) We could see our way.

These two parts are joined by the Co-ordinating Conjunction *and.*

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own. Each part is therefore a sentence which is part of a large sentence. In other words, each part is what we call a Clause.

We further notice that each Clause makes good sense by itself, and hence can stand by itself as a complete sentence. Each Clause is therefore *independent* of the other or of the *same order* or *rank,* and is called a **Principal** or **Main Clause.**

A sentence, such as the second, which is made up of Principal or Main Clauses, is called a **Compound Sentence.**

Sentence 3 consists of three Clauses of the *same order* or *rank.* In other words, sentence 3 consists of three Principal or Main Clauses, *viz:*

(*i*) Night came on.

(*ii*) Rain fell heavily.

(*iii*) We all got very wet.

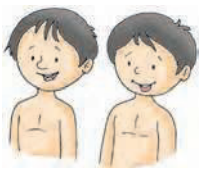

Such a sentence is also called a Compound sentence.

Def —A Compound sentence is one made up of two or more Principal or Main Clauses.

Note— The term *Double* is now used for a sentence which consists of *two* principal or main clauses, and the term *Multiple* for a sentence of *more than two* principal or main clauses.

Sentence 4 consists of two parts :

(*i*) They rested. (*ii*) When evening came.

Each part contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own, and forms part of a large sentence. Each part is therefore a Clause.

We further notice that the Clause, *They rested*, makes good sense by itself, and hence can stand by itself as a complete sentence. It is therefore called the **Principal** or **Main Clause.**

The Clause, *when evening came*, cannot stand by itself and make good sense. It is dependent on the Clause, *they rested.* It is therefore called a **Dependent** or **Subordinate Clause.**

A sentence, such as the fourth, is called a **Complex Sentence.**

Sentence 5 consists of the three Clauses:

(*i*) The people said. (Main Clause)
(*ii*) As the boxers advanced into the ring. (Subordinate Adverb Clause)
(*iii*) They would not allow them to fight. (Subordinate Noun Clause)

Such a sentence is also called a Complex sentence.

Def—A Complex sentence consists of one Main Clause and one or more Subordinate Clauses.

28. Look at the following Compound sentences, and notice the Co-ordinating Conjunctions joining clauses of equal rank.

I shall do it now *or* I shall not do it at all.
He gave them no money *nor* did he help them in any way.
He threw the stone *but* it missed the dog.
He neither obtains success *nor* deserves it.
He is *either* mad *or* he has become a criminal.
I *both* thanked him *and* rewarded him.

EXERCISE 37

State which of the following sentences are Compound, and which are Complex. In the case of a Compound sentence separate the co-ordinating clauses of which it is composed, and mention the conjunction, connecting these clauses. If a sentence is Complex divide it into its clauses, and state the Principal Clause and the Subordinate Clause or clauses.

1. The horse reared and the rider was thrown.
2. Walk quickly, else you will not overtake him.
3. The town in which I live is very large.
4. I called him, but he gave me no answer.
5. I agree to your proposals, for I think them reasonable.
6. I went because I was invited.
7. Either he is drowned or some passing ship has saved him.
8. I returned home because I was tired.
9. They always talk who never think.
10. He came oftener than we expected.
11. He blushes; therefore he is guilty.
12. A guest is unwelcome when he stays too long.
13. Whatever you do, do well.
14. He must have done his duty, for he is a conscientious man.
15. He rushed into the field, and foremost fighting fell.
16. Man proposes, but God disposes.
17. Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.
18. Listen carefully and take notes.
19. The heavens declare the glory of God; and the firmament showeth His handiwork.
20. He tried hard, but he did not succeed.
21. She must weep or she will die.
22. They serve God well who serve His creatures.
23. Man is guided by reason, and beast by instinct.
24. Quarrels would not last long if the fault were only on one side.
25. God made the country and man made the town.
26. He trudged on, though he was very tired.
27. There was one philosopher who chose to live in a tub.
28. The Commons passed the bill, but the Lords threw it out.
29. Tell me the news as you have heard.
30. He that has most time has none to lose.
31. Your arguments are weighty; still they do not convince me.
32. Everything comes, if a man will only work and wait.

33. The same day went Jesus out of the house, and sat by the seaside.
34. We must eat to live, but we should not live to eat.
35. Govern your passions or they will govern you.

36. They [rats] fought the dogs, and killed the cats.
And bit the babies in the cradles,
And ate the cheese out of the vats.
And licked the soup from the cook's own ladles.
37. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.

Chapter 5 MORE ABOUT NOUN CLAUSES

29. We have seen that there are three kinds of Subordinate Clauses:
The Noun Clause, the Adjective Clause, and the Adverb Clause.

We have also seen that a Noun Clause is a subordinate clause which does the work of a noun in a Complex sentence.

30. Since a Noun Clause does the work of a Noun in a Complex sentence, it can be :
1. The Subject of a verb.
2. The Object of a transitive verb.
3. The Object of a preposition.
4. In Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun.
5. The Complement of a verb of incomplete predication.

31. In each of the following Complex sentences, the Noun Clause is the Subject of a verb:
That you should say so surprises me.
That it would rain seemed likely.
What he said was true.
When I shall return is uncertain.
How he could assist his friend was his chief concern.
Why he left is a mystery.
Whether we can start to-morrow seems uncertain.

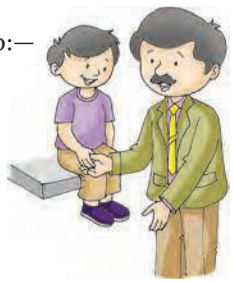

32. In each of the following Complex sentences, the Noun Clause is the Object of a transitive verb:—
He says *that he won't go.*
I hoped *that it was true.*
She denied *that she had written the letter.*
I cannot tell *what has become of him.*
I do not know *when I shall return.*
I asked the boy *how old he was.*
Tell me *why you did this.*
Tell me *where you live.*
No one knows *who he is.*
I earn *whatever I can.*
Ask *if he is at home.*

33. In each of the following Complex sentences, the Noun Clause is the Object of a preposition:
Pay careful attention to *what I am going to say.*
There is no meaning in *what you say.*
There were no complaints except *that the day was too hot.*

34. In each of the following Complex sentences, the Noun Clause is in Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun:
Your statement *that you found the money in the street* will not be believed.
His belief *that some day he would succeed* cheered him through many disappointments.
You must never forget this, *that honesty is the best policy.*
It is feared *that he will not come.*
It was unfortunate *that you were absent.*

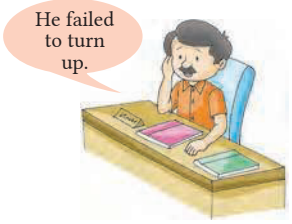

35. In each of the following Complex sentences, the Noun Clause is used as the Complement of a verb of incomplete predication:

My belief is *that he will not come.*
Her constant prayer was *that the child might live.*
His great fear is *that he may fail.*
My wish is *that I may please you.*
Their request will be *that they may be allowed to resign.*
Life *is what we make it.*
This is *where I live.*

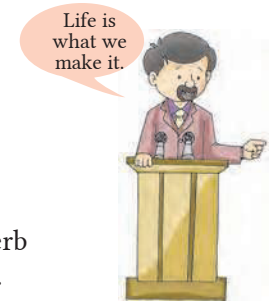

36. A Clause coming after a construction consisting of an intransitive verb (particularly the verb *to be*) and an adjective does the work of a noun and is, therefore, treated as a Noun Clause.

In each of the following Complex Sentences, the Noun Clause comes after an intransitive verb construction.

The child was afraid that he would fall down.
All of us are keen that you should succeed.
They felt sorry that they lost the match.
The patient was sure that he would recover.
She did not seem hopeful that he would arrive.

It will be seen that the preposition *of, about* or *for* necessary to connect the intransitive verb construction to the succeeding Noun Clause in each of the above sentences is omitted. If we put a noun or a gerund instead of the Clause, we would say *afraid of, keen about, sorry for, sure of, hopeful of,* and the noun or gerund would be the object of the preposition in each case. The Noun Clause in each of the Complex Sentences may also be regarded as the object of the missing preposition after the intransitive verb construction. However, such Noun Clauses are often said to be used *adverbially.*

Note— From the above examples it will be seen that a Noun Clause is generally introduced by the subordinating Conjunction *that.* Sometimes, however, the Conjunction that is omitted; as I know (that) he did it.

EXERCISE 38

Write down a dozen Complex sentences, each containing a Noun Clause. Make the Noun Clause the Subject in the first three, the Object in the next three, and in Apposition to a Noun or Pronoun in the next three. Use the Noun Clause predicatively in the last three.

EXERCISE 39

Point out the Noun Clause and say whether it is the Subject of some verb, or the Object of some verb, or the complement of some verb, or in Apposition to some noun or pronoun, or the Object of some preposition.

1. Tell me how you found that out.
2. That he will succeed is certain.
3. I think you have made a mistake.
4. She says her mother is ill.
5. How long I shall stay here is doubtful.
6. I did not know that he had come.
7. It is clear that he was guilty.
8. I do not understand how it all happened.
9. Can you tell who wrote *Shakuntala*?
10. All depends on how it is done.
11. Do you deny that you stole the purse?
12. The law will punish whosoever is guilty.
13. I think I know your face.
14. Ask if dinner is ready.
15. The report that he was killed is untrue.
16. He was very hopeful that he would succeed

17. Do whatever you think right.
18. I don't see how you can get out of this mess.
19. Do you know when the train will arrive?
20. Whoever came was made welcome.
21. I understand you want a situation.
22. My verdict is that the prisoners shall die.
23. I cannot express how sorry I am.
24. They guessed what he meant.
25. I am afraid that she will be angry.
26. Will you explain why you behaved so ?
27. No one can tell how this will end.
28. The truth is that we have been deceived.
29. It is not clear who has done this.
30. I do not know how I can deal with this rascal.
31. I did not know whether I should laugh or cry.
32. We are desirous that you should succeed.

37. Sometimes, instead of a Noun Clause introduced by *that,* the Accusative with the Infinitive is used.

1. (*a*) He thought *that he was safe there.*
   (*b*) He thought *himself to be safe there.*
2. (*a*) I believed *that he was a true friend.*
   (*b*) I believed *him to be a true friend.*
3. (*a*) This proved *that the man had stolen the horse.*
   (*b*) This proved *the man to have stolen the horse.*
4. (*a*) We know *that Rama is alive.*
   (*b*) We know *Rama to be alive.*

Chapter 6 MORE ABOUT ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

38. As we have seen, an Adjective Clause in a Complex sentence is a subordinate clause which does the work of an Adjective, and so qualifies some noun or pronoun in the main clause.

    An Adjective Clause is introduced by a Relative Pronoun or by a Relative Adverb; as,

    Uneasy lies the head *that wears a crown.*
    He is the man *whom we all respect.*
    The time *when the boat leaves* is not yet fixed.
    The house *where the accident occurred* is nearby.
    The reason *why I did it* is obvious.

39. Sometimes, however, a Relative Pronoun introduces a Co-ordinate clause; as,

    I met Rama, *who* (= and he) gave me your message.

    Here we are using the Relative Pronoun *who* to introduce a *co-ordinate* clause.

    [It might appear, at first sight, that the clause, *who gave me your message,* is an Adjective clause and therefore Subordinate. It will be seen that this is not the case however, for it in no way identifies or describes *Rama.*

    In the sentence,

    He is the boy who broke the window.

    the clause, *who broke the window,* clearly identifies and describes the *boy,* and is therefore an Adjective clause.]

40. Below are further examples of *who* (and *which)* used to introduce a co-ordinate clause.
    1. I met Mr. Joshi, who (= and he) thereupon shook hands with me.
    2. The prisoner was taken before the Captain, who (= and he) condemned him to instant death.
    3. He gave me a message, which (= and it) is this.
    4. He released the bird, which (= and it) at once flew away.

41. The Relative Pronoun or the Relative Adverb, introducing an Adjective clause, is sometimes understood, and not expressed; as,
    1. Eat all ^ *you can.*
       [Here the Relative Pronoun *that* is understood.]
    2. I saw a man ^ *I know.*
       [Here the Relative Pronoun *whom* is understood.]
    3. Where's the book ^ *he left for me ?*
       [Here the Relative Pronoun *which* is understood.]
    4. On the day ^ *you pass the examination* I shall give you a reward.
       [Here the Relative Adverb *when* is understood].
    5. The reason ^ *I have come* is to ask for my money.
       [Here the relative Adverb *why* is understood.]

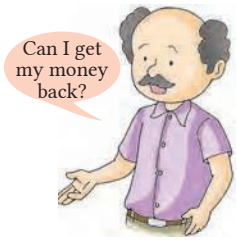

42. In older English *but* was used as a relative pronoun as in the sentences below. In such cases *but* is equivalent to a relative pronoun followed by *not.*

1. There was not a woman present *but* wept to hear such news.
   [That is, *who* did *not* weep to hear such news.]
2. And not a man of the three hundred at Thermopylae *but* died at his post.
   [That is, *who* did *not* die at his post.]

3. Nor is there a man here *but* loved our Caesar.
   [That is, *who* did *not* love our Caesar.]
4. There was not a widow *but* longed to die upon the pyre of her husband.
   [That is, *who* did *not* long to die, etc.]
5. There is no fireside *but* has one vacant chair.
   [*That* has *not* one vacant chair.]

43. Note that *than* is sometimes used as a Preposition before a Relative Pronoun in the Adjective Clause ; as,
They elected Rama *than* whom no better boy ever went to school.
We will follow Brutus *than* whom Rome knows no nobler son.
It was a blow *than* which no crueller was ever struck.
We came to a spot *than* which mine eyes have seldom seen a lovelier sight.

44. The infinitive with *to* is often used as the equivalent of an Adjective Clause.

1. (*a*) Give me some food *which I may eat.*
   (*b*) Give me some food *to eat.*
2. (*a*) He has no boots *which he can wear.*
   (*b*) He has no boots *to wear.*
3. (*a*) The doctor has given me medicine *which I must take.*
   (*b*) The doctor has given me medicine *to take.*
4. (*a*) I have work *which I must do.*
   (*b*) I have work *to do.*
5. (*a*) His mother gave him a rupee *which he might put in his money-box.*
   (*b*) His mother gave him a rupee to *put in his money-box.*

EXERCISE 40

Pick out each Adjective Clause in the following sentences and say which noun or pronoun in the main clause it qualifies.

1. This is the house that Jack built.
2. He that climbs too high is sure to fall.
3. She sleeps the sleep that knows no waking.
4. We obeyed the order the teacher gave us.
5. Servants that are honest are trusted.
6. They never fail who die in a great cause.
7. We love those who love us.
8. The moment which is lost is lost for ever.
9. I have a little shadow which goes in and out with me.
10. It is an ill wind that blows nobody good.
11. Youth is the time when the seeds of character are sown.
12. It was the schooner Hesperus that sailed the wintry sea.
13. They never pardon who have done the wrong.
14. He has a son who has made a name for himself.
15. A friend who helps you in time of need is a real friend.
16. All that glitters is not gold.
17. He could not answer the question I asked him.
18. He laughs best who laughs last.
19. All the blessings we enjoy come from God.
20. They that are whole have no need of the physician.

21. Little good work can be expected from men who are great boasters.
22. The plan you propose is a very good one.
23. The night is long that never finds the day.
24. It is a long lane that has no turning.
25. He gave me everything I asked for.
26. He failed in everything that he laid his hands upon.
27. He has tricks that remind me of his father.
28. I duly received the message you sent me.
29. The fox saw the grapes which hung over the garden wall.
30. The bark that held a prince went down.
31. He that is down need fear no fall.
32. We are such stuff as dreams are made on.
33. The man that hath no music in his soul is fit for treason.
34. True love's the gift which God has given to man alone beneath the heaven.
35. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
    O'er the grave where our hero we buried.
36. Who lives longest sees the most.
37. Often I think of the beautiful town
    That is seated by the sea.

EXERCISE 41

Make ten sentences, each containing an Adjective Clause, in which a Relative Pronoun is understood.

EXERCISE 42

Make ten sentences, each containing an Adjective Clause, in which a Relative Adverb is understood.

Chapter 7 MORE ABOUT ADVERB CLAUSES

45. We have seen that an Adverb clause is a subordinate clause which does the work of an Adverb. It may, therefore, modify some verb, adjective, or Adverb in the main clause; as,

Strike the iron *while it is hot.*
You are taller *than I thought.*
He ran so quickly that *he soon overtook me.*

46. Adverb clauses are of many kinds and may be classified as Adverb Clauses of–

1. Time	2. Place	3. Purpose
4. Cause	5. Condition	6. Result
7. Comparison	8. Supposition or Concession	

1. Adverb Clauses of Time

47. Adverb Clauses of time are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunctions *whenever, while, after, before, since, as,* etc.

When you have finished your work you may go home.
I will do it *when I think fit.*
Don't talk *while she is singing.*
While I command this ship there will be good discipline.
He came *after night had fallen.*
After the law had been passed this form of crime ceased.
Do it *before you forget.*
Before you go bring me some water.
I have not been well *since I returned from Chennai.*
There was silence *as the leader spoke.*
As he came into the room all rose to their feet.
The doctor always comes *whenever he is sent for.*
They were commanded to wait *till the signal was given.*
The world always will be the same *so long as men are men.*
As soon as he heard the news he wrote to me.
Just as he entered the room the clock struck.
No sooner did he see us *than he disappeared.*

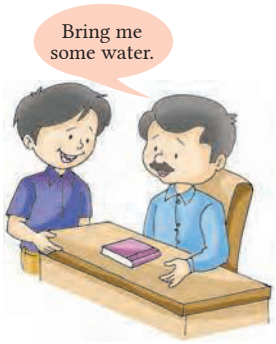

EXERCISE 43

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Time.

2. Adverb Clauses of Place

48. Adverb Clauses of Place are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunctions *where* and *whereas,*

I have put it *where I can find it again.*
They can stay *where they are.*

Where you live I will live.
He led the caravan *wherever he wanted to go.*

You can put it *wherever you like.*
Let him be arrested *wherever he may be found.*

In older English *whence* and *whither* were also used.

Go quickly *whence you came.*
The wind bloweth *whither it listeth.*

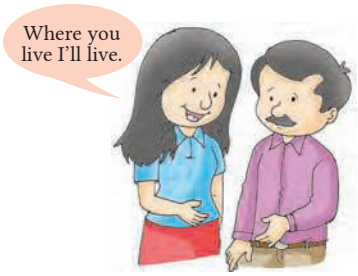

EXERCISE 44

Write three sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Place.

3. Adverb Clauses of Purpose

49. Adverb clauses of purpose are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions *so that, in order that* and *lest.* (*In order that* and *lest* are used in a formal style.)

I will give you a map *so that you can find the way.*
We eat *so that we may live.*
The UNO was formed *in order that countries might discuss world problems better.*
He was extra polite to his superiors *lest something adverse should be written into his records.*
'Sleep not *lest your Lord come in the night.*'

The conjunction *that* occurred in older English:

He drew the sword *that he might defend himself.*
'Come hither *that I may bless thee.*'

EXERCISE 45

Write three sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Purpose.

4. Adverb Clauses of Cause or Reason

50. Adverb Clauses of Cause or Reason are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunctions *because, as, since, that.*

Because I like you, I shall help you.
I did it *because I wanted to.*
I did not buy it *because I did not like the look of it.*
He thinks, *because he is rich,* he can buy justice.
Since you are so clever you will be able to explain this.
Since your father is not at home, I will ask you to take the message.
Since you swear to serve me faithfully, I will employ you.
I am glad *that you like it.*
He was very pleased *that you have passed.*
As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.

EXERCISE 46

Write five sentences containing Adverb clauses of cause or reason.

5. Adverb Clauses of Condition

51. Adverb Clauses of Condition are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunctions *if, whether, unless.*

If I like it, I shall buy it. Come *if you wish to.*
If it rains we shall stay at home.
If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
You must go *whether you hear from him or not.*
Whether the Rajah gives him blows or money, he will speak the truth.
Unless you work harder you will fail.
I won't pay it *unless he sends me the bill again.*
I will forgive you *on condition that you do not repeat the offence.*

Note 1—Sometimes the Subordinating Conjunction is omitted in Adverb Clauses of Condition; as,

Had I not seen this with my own eyes I would not have believed it.
Had I the wings of a bird I would fly away.
He would be happier *were he more honest.*
Were an angel to tell me such a thing of you, I would not believe it.
What would you answer *did I ask you such a question* ?

Note 2—Clauses of Condition are sometimes introduced by a Relative Pronoun, or Adjective, or Adverb (without any antecedent) ; as,

Whatever happens keep calm.
Don't annoy him *whatever you do.*
Whatever may be the result, I shall refuse.
Whichever road we take we shall be too late.
However cleverly you may cheat, you will be found at last.

EXERCISE 47

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Condition.

6. Adverb Clauses of Result or Consequence

52. Adverb Clauses of Result or Consequence are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunction *that.* Frequently *so* or *such* precedes it in the Principal Clause.

They fought so bravely *that the enemy were driven off.*/So bravely did they fight *that the enemy were driven off.* (Literary)
He is such a good man *that all respect him.*
So great a fire raged *that London was burnt down.*
The Romans built in such a way *that their walls are still standing.*
He spoke in such a low voice *that few could hear him.*
So terrible a disease broke out *that very few of the people survived.*
Very heavy rain fell *so that the rivers were soon in flood.*
Laws were quickly passed *so that this abuse was checked.*
He behaved in such a manner *that his reputation suffered.*
So cold was it *that many died.*

Note—The Subordinating Conjunction *that* is often dropped in informal English.

He was so weak *he could not speak.*
I am so deaf *I cannot hear thunder.*
It was so late *I waited no longer.*
He is so old *he can hardly walk.*
It was so small *I could not see it.*

EXERCISE 48

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Result or Consequence.

7. Adverb Clauses of Comparison

53. Adverb Clauses of Comparison are of two kinds:
(*i*) Adverb Clauses of Comparison of Degree.
(*ii*) Adverb Clauses of Comparison of Manner.

54. Adverb Clauses of Comparison of Degree are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunction *than,* or by the Relative Adverb *as;* as,

He is older *than he looks.*
No one can run faster *than Rama.*
It is later *than I thought.*

You must work harder *than I do.*
He is as stupid *as he is lazy.*
He is not so clever *as you think.*

Note—The verb of the Adverb Clause of Comparison of Degree is often understood and not expressed ; as,

Nobody knows it better than I [do].
Few are better leaders than he [is].
You like curry better than I [like it].
It will happen as sure as death [is sure].
Not many know the truth of this better than you [know it].

EXERCISE 49

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Comparison of Degree.

55. Adverb Clauses of Comparison of *Manner* are introduced by the Relative Adverb *as* ; as,

You may do as *you please.*
It all ended *as I expected.*
As you have made your bed so you must lie on it.
As he has lived so will he die.
As the twig is bent the branch will grow.

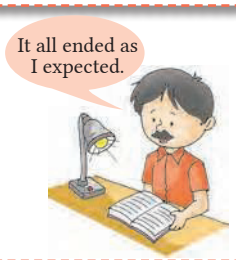

EXERCISE 50

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Comparison of Manner.

8. Adverb Clauses of Supposition or Concession

56. Adverb Clauses of Supposition or Concession are introduced by the Subordinating Conjunctions *though, although, even if.*

Though I am poor I am honest.
Though the heavens fall, justice must be done.
Though He slay me yet will I love Him.
He set sail *though the storm threatened.*
Although troops had marched all day they fought bravely all night.
Although I forbade this you have done it.
I shall be able to get in *although I have no ticket.*
Even if it rains I shall come.
Even if he is old he is able to do a great deal of work.
I would not do it *even if you paid me.*

EXERCISE 51

Write five sentences containing Adverb Clauses of Supposition or Concession.

EXERCISE 52

Pick out the Adverb clauses in the following sentences, tell the kind of each clause and point out the word in the main clause which it modifies.

1. Forgive us as we forgive our enemies.
2. We sow so that we may reap.
3. He did it as I told him.
4. I couldn't be angry with him, if I tried.
5. He arrived as we were setting out.
6. If this story were false, what should you do ?
7. It is ten hours since I had nothing to eat.
8. I make friends wherever I go.

9. In Rome we must do as the Romans.
10. If I were you I would do it at once.
11. The general was as good as his word.
12. My sight is as keen as yours.
13. Some seeds fell where there was no earth.
14. Since you say so, I must believe it.
15. Stand still if you value your life.
16. He labours so that he may become rich.
17. He lost more than he could afford.
18. It is so simple that a child can understand it.
19. He kept on writing as though he did not hear.
20. Boy as he was, he was chosen king.
21. He rides as a cowboy rides.
22. I will die before I submit.
23. He was caught in a shower as he was returning from school.
24. He speaks better than he writes.
25. He came in while I was out.
26. After the vote was taken the meeting broke up.
27. He wept as if he had been a child.
28. Apollo was worshipped as long as the Roman Empire lasted.
29. He consoled the unfortunate mother as best he might.
30. He ran so fast that I could not overtake him.
31. He knows that inasmuch as I have told him.
32. The younger man has more money than brains.
33. Since you desire it, I will look into the matter.
34. They set a strong guard, lest any one should escape.
35. He succeeded although his success was not expected.
36. The earth is larger than the moon.
37. It was dark when the cannonading stopped all of a sudden.
38. His pity gave ere charity began.
39. Wherever I went was my dear dog Tray.
40. He felt as if the ground were slipping beneath his feet.
41. Some people act as though they could do no wrong.
42. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
43. He dared not stir, lest he should be seen.
44. The movement was checked before it was fairly started.
45. A glutton lives so that he may eat.
46. Everything happened exactly as had been expected.
47. Robinson Crusoe was puzzled when he discovered the print of a foot on the sand.
48. Enough is as good as a feast.
49. He finished the work as the clock struck five.
50. As soon as you stand there, this young lady is your lawful wedded wife.
51. It's dull in our town since my playmates left.
52. Whilst I live, thou shalt never want a friend to stand by thee.
53. No sooner did this idea enter his head, than it carried conviction with it.
54. They have gone ahead with the plan, although there is widespread public opposition.
55. They were commanded to wait till the signal was given.
56. Rich as he is, one would scarcely envy him.
57. Open rebuke is better than secret love.
58. Have you turned a detective, that you keep your eye on me like this ?
59. He had not read half a dozen pages, when the expression of his face began to change.
60. My eldest son was bred at Oxford, as I intended him for the learned profession.
61. His behaviour was such that everybody liked him.
62. I had scarcely taken orders a year, before I began to think seriously of matrimony.
63. If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
64. The world always will be the same, as long as men are men.

EXERCISE 53

Use each of the following clauses in a sentence, and say what work it does in your sentence.

1. that he was tired
2. where he was born
3. as he was told
4. what you say
5. whosoever is guilty
6. who laughs last
7. because he is generous
8. since you say so
9. as he deserved
10. before it was too late.
11. as soon as he heard the news.
12. that he soon overtook me
13. where he had left it
14. how old he was.
15. if you are diligent
16. because I was tired
17. what has become of him
18. when the train will arrive
19. who did it
20. whatever you think right
21. since I returned from Lahore
22. how this will end
23. what he wants
24. as he could
25. as he was not there
26. if I were you
27. that the streets were flooded
28. as I told him
29. before I submitted
30. that he is a millionaire
31. as she is beautiful
32. what you want
33. when his father died
34. as it was raining
35. as you please
36. than you are [strong]
37. although he is not rich
38. who works hard
39. that we shall win
40. when I shall return
41. if I had not helped you
42. although they fought most valiantly
43. when the cat is away
44. while it is hot
45. who help themselves
46. while the sun shines
47. till you are out of the wood
48. that wears a crown
49. who live in glass houses
50. where ignorance is bliss
51. that blows nobody good
52. no sooner did he see me

53. as dreams are made on
54. that has no turning
55. where angels fear to tread
56. so that we may live

EXERCISE 54

Use the following subordinate clauses in as many different ways as possible by attaching them to suitable principal clauses.

1. where he was buried
2. when the train will arrive
3. where he had left it
4. who did it
5. why he did it
6. that he might succeed in life
7. whom he had met
8. when the monsoon failed

EXERCISE 55

Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate connecting words.

1. Small service is true service _____ it lasts.
2. It is a great loss to a man _____ he cannot laugh.
3. We there met a boy _____ had lost his way.
4. It is the common doom of man ___ he must eat his bread by the sweat of his brow.
5. Fit words are better _____ fine ones.
6. He makes no friend, _____ never made a foe.
7. The moment _____ is lost is lost for ever.
8. Forgive us our debts _____ we forgive our debtors.
9. The man _____ stands by me in trouble I won't bid him go until the sun shines again.
10. Money _____ is easily earned is soon spent.
11. _____ somewhat pompous, he was an entertaining companion.
12. Poetry takes me up so entirely _____ I scarce see what passes under my nose.
13. He _____ fights and runs away, lives to fight another day.
14. Never refuse to entertain a man in your heart _____all the world is talking against him.
15. _____ you would be healthy, be good.
16. _____ I am dead, my dearest, sing no sad songs for me.
17. A man has no more right to say an uncivil thing _____ to act one.
18. _____ the blind lead the blind, both shall fall into the ditch.
19. _____ this be madness _____ there is method in it.
20. Consider the lilies _____ they grow.
21. _____ he has a car, he often goes to the office on foot.
22. _____ we approached the house, we heard the sound of music.
23. I have not been well_____ I returned from Delhi.
24. These are the books _____ I ordered last week.
25. They live _____ their fathers lived before them.
26. No one can tell _____ this will end.
27. _____ he had gone I remembered _____ he was.
28. A man _____ loses his temper continually is a nuisance.
29. Youth is the time _____ the seeds of character are sown.
30. The house _____ he was born lies in ruins.
31. _____ my mother died I was very young.
32. Do not halloo_____ you are out of the wood.
33. I shall see you tomorrow, _____ we will talk the matter over.
34. They always talk _____ never think.

35. I did not recognize him _____ he told me _____ he was.
36. They serve God well _____ serve His creatures.
37. I have a little shadow _____ goes in and out with me.
38. I met a boy _____ told me _____ I could find you.
39. We learn, _____ we may be able to make our way in the world.
40. _____ he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
41. A vessel that once gets a crack, _____ it may be cunningly mended, will never stand such rough usage _____ a whole one.
42. _____it journeys through space, the earth is not alone; spinning round with it is the moon.
43. Other planets have moons, _____ ours is very large compared to the earth.
44. I resolved _____ I would say nothing _____ I knew the worst.
45. _____ he was born, _____ brought him up, and _____ he lived, we are not told.
46. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought ____ I felt ___ I sank into the water.
47. _____ he was a strict disciplinarian he was loved by all _____ I served under him.
48. One great reason _____ we are insensible to the goodness of Creator is the fact _____ His bounty is so extensive.
49. Passengers are warned _____ it is dangerous to lean out of the window _____ the train is in motion.

Chapter 8 ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES (CLAUSE ANALYSIS)

57. Usually when a complex or compound sentence is given for analysing, detailed analysis is not required; the student is asked to give **clause analysis**, that is, he is asked to break up a given sentence into its several clauses and show their relation to one another.

58. In analysing a Complex sentence, the first step is to find out the Principal or Main Clause.

    The next step is to find out the Subordinate Clause or Clauses, showing the relation which each Clause bears to the Principal Clause.

59. Now study carefully the following example of the analysis of a Complex sentence.

    Whenever he heard the question, the old man who lived in that house, answered that the earth is flat.

    Complex sentence containing three Subordinate clauses:

    1. The old man.... answered (Principal clause)
    2. Whenever he heard the question. (Adverb clause of time, modifying *answered* in 1.)
    3. Who lived in that house. (Adjective clause, qualifying *man* in 1.)
    4. That the earth is flat. (Noun clause, object of *answered* in 1.)

60. Sometimes a Subordinate clause has another Subordinate clause within it; that is, a Subordinate clause has another Subordinate clause dependent on it, *e.g.*,

    (A) I think that he destroyed the letter which you sent there.

    1. I think.... (Principal clause)
    2. That he destroyed the letter ....(Noun Clause, object of *think* in 1.)
    3. Which you sent there.....(Adjective clause, subordinate to 2, qualifying *letter.*)

    (B) He replied that he worked whenever he liked.

    1. He replied....(Principal clause)
    2. That he worked... (Noun clause, object of *replied* in 1.)
    3. Whenever he liked... (Adverb clause, subordinate to 2, modifying *worked.*)

    (C) I know the man who said that this would happen.

    1. I know the man....(Principal clause)

2. Who said....(Adjective clause, qualifying *man* in 1.)
3. That this would happen. (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object *of said.*)

61. One afternoon, as in that sultry clime
It is the custom in the summer-time,
With bolted doors and window-shutters closed,
The inhabitants of Atri slept or dozed.
When, suddenly upon their senses fell
The loud alarm of the accusing bell !

Complex sentence, containing two subordinate clauses:

1. One afternoon, with bolted doors and window shutters closed, the inhabitants of Atri slept or dozed. (Principal clause)
2. As in that sultry clime it is the custom in the summer-time. (Adverb clause of manner, modifying *slept or dozed* in 1.)
3. When, suddenly, upon their senses fell the loud alarm of the accusing bell. (Adverb clause of time, modifying *slept* or *dozed* in 1)

62. Below are further examples:

(1) Breathes there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land?'

Complex sentence, containing two subordinate clauses:

1. Breathes there the man with soul so dead...(Principal clause)
2. Who never to himself hath said..... (Adjective clause, qualifying *man* in 1.)
3. 'This is my own, my native land?' (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object of *hath said.*)

(2) Everyone who knows you, acknowledges, when he considers the case calmly, that you have been wronged.

Complex sentence, containing three subordinate clauses:

1. Everyone acknowledges...(Principal clause)
2. Who knows you. (Adjective clause, qualifying *one* in 1.)
3. When he considers the case calmly. (Adverb clause, modifying *acknowledges* in 1.)
4. That you have been wronged. (Noun clause, object of *acknowledges* in 1.)

(3) Do the work that's nearest,
Tho' it's dull at whiles
Helping when you meet them.
Lame dogs over stiles.

Complex sentence, containing three subordinate clauses:

1. [You] do the work, helping lame dogs over stiles. (Principal clause)
2. That's nearest. (Adjective clause, qualifying *work* in 1.)
3. Tho' it's dull at whiles. (Adverb clause of concession, modifying *helping* in 1.)
4. When you meet them. (Adverb clause of time, modifying *helping* in 1.)

(4) I knew a man who believed that, if a man were permitted to make the ballads, he need not care who made the laws of a nation.

Complex sentence, containing four subordinate clauses:

1. I knew a man...(Principal clause)
2. Who believed....(Adjective clause, qualifying a *man* in 1.)
3. That he need not care. (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object of *believed*)
4. Who made the laws of a nation. (Noun clause, subordinate to 2, object of *care.*)

5. If a man were permitted to make the ballads, Adverb clause of condition, subordinate to 3, modifying *need not care.*

(5) The man who can play most heartily when he has the chance of playing, is generally the man who can work most heartily when he must work.

Complex sentence, containing four subordinate clauses:

1. The man is generally the man...(Principal clause)
2. Who can play most heartily. [Adjective clause, qualifying *man* (subject) in 1.]
3. When he has the chance of playing. [Adverb clause, subordinate to 2, modifying *play.*)
4. Who can work most heartily. (Adjective clause, qualifying *man* (complement) in 1.]
5. When he must work. (Adverb clause, subordinate to 4, modifying *work.*)

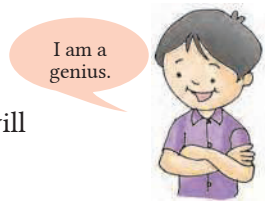

(6) Should you be so unfortunate as to suppose that you are a genius, and that things will come to you, it would be well to undeceive yourself as soon as it is possible.

Complex sentence, containing four Subordinate Clauses:

1. It would be well to undeceive yourself. (Principal clause)
2. As soon as it is possible. (Adverb clause of time, subordinate to 1.)
3. Should you be so unfortunate as to suppose...(Adverb clause of condition, sub ordinate to 1.)
4. That you are a genius. (Noun clause. Subordinate to 3, object of *to suppose.*)
5. And that things will come to you. (Noun clause, co-ordinate with 4, and subordinate to 3, object of *to suppose.*)

EXERCISE 56

Analyse the following sentences.

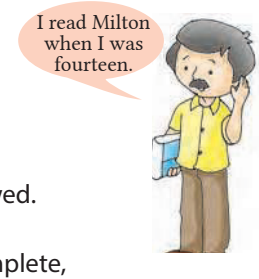

1. As my eldest son was bred a scholar, I determined to send him to town, where his abilities might contribute to our support and his own.
2. Clive had been only a few months in the army, when intelligence arrived that peace had been concluded between Great Britain and France.
3. I had a partial father, who gave me a better education than his broken fortune would have allowed.
4. He told us that he had read Milton, in a prose translation, when he was fourteen.
5. With whatever luxuries a bachelor may be surrounded, he will always find his happiness incomplete, unless he has a wife and children.
6. Among the many reasons which make me glad to have been born in England, one of the first is that I read Shakespeare in my mother tongue.
7. He [Pope] professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden, whom, whenever an opportunity was presented, he praised through his whole life with unvaried liberality.
8. We who are fortunate enough to live in this enlightened century hardly realize how our ancestors suffered from their belief in the existence of mysterious and malevolent beings.
9. We cannot justly interpret the religion of any people, unless we are prepared to admit that we ourselves are liable to error in matters of faith.
10. Milton said that he did not educate his daughters in the languages, because one tongue was enough for a woman.
11. The man who does not see that the good of every living creature is his good, is a fool.
12. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water.
13. We had in this village, some twenty years ago, a boy whom I well remember, who from his childhood showed a strong liking for bees.
14. Considering that the world is so intricate, we are not to be surprised that science has progressed slowly.
15. You take my house when you do take the prop
    That doth sustain my house.
16. I heard a thousand blended notes,
    While in a grove I sat reclined
    In that sweet mood when pleasant thoughts
    Bring sad thoughts to the mind.

17. Much as we like Shakespeare's comedies, we cannot agree with Dr. Johnson that they are better than his tragedies.
18. Those who look into practical life will find that fortune is usually on the side of the industrious, as the winds and waves are on the side of the best navigators.
19. He who sits from day to day,
    Where the prisoned lark is hung.
    Heedless of its loudest lay,
    Hardly knows that it has sung.

20. History says that Socrates, when he was given the cup of hemlock, continued to talk to the friends who were standing around him as he drank it.
21. I have no sympathy with the poor man I knew, who, when suicides abounded, told me he dared not look at his razor.

Chapter 9 ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES (CLAUSE ANALYSIS)

64. A compound sentence is made up of two or more *independent* sentences or *principal* or *main* clauses joined together by a Co-ordinating conjunction ; as,

1. The horse reared and the rider was thrown.
   [Here each Co-ordinate Clause is a Simple sentence.]
2. They were fond of music, played on various kinds of instruments and indulged in much singing.
   [Here each Co-ordinate Clause is a Simple sentence.]
3. They asked him how he received the wound, but he refused to answer.
   [Here the first clause is a Complex sentence, while the second clause is a Simple sentence.]
4. He says what he means, and he means what he says.
   [Here each Co-ordinate Clause is a Complex sentence.]

It will be thus seen that each main clause of a Compound sentence may be a Simple sentence or a Complex sentence.

It has been already pointed out (§ 27) that the term Double is now used for a sentence which is made up of *two* main clauses. and the term Multiple for a sentence of *more than* two main clauses.

65. In accordance with this new terminology, 1, 3, and 4 are Double sentences, and 2 is a Multiple sentence.

66. The connection between two main clauses of a Compound sentence may be one of the following four kinds:

(1) Copulative; as,

God made the country *and* man made the town.
Babar was *not only* a great soldier, he was *also* a wise ruler.
He cannot speak, *nor* can he write.
He plays the piano, he sings *also.*
The innocents were punished *as well as* the guilty.

Here in each sentence the main clauses are simply *coupled together.*

(2) Adversative ; as,

He is slow, *but* he is sure.
I did my best, *nevertheless* I failed.
He is rich, *yet* he is not happy.
He is vain, *still* his friends adore him.

Here in each sentence the two main clauses are *opposed* in meaning to each other.

(3) Alternative or Disjunctive; as,

She must weep, *or* she will die.

Either he is mad, *or* he feigns madness.
Neither a borrower *nor* a lender be.

Walk quickly, *else* you will not overtake him.

Here in each sentence the two main clauses are *disjoined* in meaning, and a *choice* between them is offered for acceptance.

(4) Illative ; as,

He is diligent, *therefore* he will succeed.
He is unwell, *so* he cannot attend office.
The angles are equal, *consequently* the sides are equal.

Here in each sentence the second clause *draws an inference from the first.*

67. Sometimes no connecting word is used to join two main clauses; as,

Temperance promotes health, intemperance destroys it.

Her court was pure; her life serene.

68. Sometimes a Subordinate Conjunction is used to join the clauses of a Compound sentence; as,
I shall see you tomorrow, *when* (= and then) we can finish the business.

I walked with him to the station, *where* (= and there) we parted.

69. Compared sentences are often contracted. For example, when the main clauses have:

(1) A common Subject; as,

He chid their wanderings, but relieved their pain.
= He chid their wanderings, but he relieved their pain.

(2) A common Verb; as,

Some praise the work, and some the architect.
= Some praise the work, and some praise the architect.

70. Study carefully the clause analysis of the following.

(1) One day Bassanio came to Antonio, and told him that he wished to repair his fortune by a wealthy marriage with a lady whom he dearly loved, whose father had left her sole heiress to a large estate.

Analysis–This is a Compound or Double sentence, consisting of–

A. One day Bassanio came to Antonio. (Principal clause)
B. Bassanio told him...(Principal clause, co-ordinate with A.)
b1. That he wished to repair his fortune by a wealthy marriage with a lady. (Noun clause, object of *told* in B.)
b2. Whom he dearly loved. (Adjective clause, subordinate to b1, qualifying *lady* .)
b3. Whose father had left her sole heiress to a large estate. (Adjective clause, subordinate to b1, qualifying *lady,* and co-ordinate with b2.)

(2) Before he died, the good Earl of Kent, who had still attended his old master's steps from the first of his daughters' ill-usage to this sad period of his decay, tried to make him understand that it was he who had followed him under the name of Caius; but Lear's care-crazed brain at that time could not comprehend how that could be, or how Kent and Caius could be the same person.

Analysis.– This is a Compound or Double sentence, consisting of–

A. The good Earl of Kent tried to make him understand...(Principal clause).
a1. Before he died. (Adverb clause, modifying *tried* in A).
a2. Who had still attended his old master's steps from the first of his daughters' ill-usage to this sad period of his decay. (Adjective clause, qualifying *Earl of Kent* in A.)
a3. That it was he. (Noun clause, object of *understand* in A.)
a4. Who had followed him under the name of Caius. (Adjective clause, subordinate to a3, qualifying *he.*)
B. But Lears's care-crazed brain at that time could not comprehend (Principal clause, coordinate with A.)
b1. How that could be. (Noun clause, object of *comprehend* in B.)
b2. Or how Kent and Caius could be the same person. (Noun clause, object of *comprehend* in B ; co-ordinate with b1.)

EXERCISE 57

Analyse the following.

1. I am satisfied with things as they are; and it will be my pride and pleasure to hand down this country to my children as I received it from those who preceded me.
2. Some politicians of our time lay it down as a self-evident proposition that no people ought to be free till they are fit to use their freedom.
3. He [a gentleman] never speaks of himself except when compelled, never defends himself by a mere retort; he has no ears for slander or gossip, is scrupulous in imputing motives to those who interfere with him, and interprets everything for the best.
4. Subhash Chandra Bose died before his aim was achieved, and yet he will always be remembered as a great hero, who fought and sacrificed his life for the freedom of the country.
5. The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent, and cannot enjoy it.
6. I hope it is no very cynical asperity not to confess obligations where no benefit has been received, or to be unwilling that the public should consider me as owing that to a patron, which Providence has enabled me to do for myself.
7. While I was doing this, I found the tide began to flow, though very calm, and I had the mortification to see my coat, shirt, and waistcoat, which I had left on shore upon the sand, swim away.

8. With reluctance he accepted the invitations of his kindly and faithful Persian friend, who scolded him for refusing meat; but he replied that too much eating led man to commit many sins.
9. Macaulay had wealth and fame, rank and power, and yet he tells us in his biography that he owed the happiest hours of his life to books.
10. A literary education is simply one of many different kinds of education and it is not wise that more than a small percentage of the people of any country should have an exclusively literary education.
11. The way into my parlour is up a winding stair, And I've many curious things to show when you are there.
12. They love to see the flaming forge,
    And hear the bellows soar,
    And catch the burning sparks that fly,
    Like chaff from a threshing floor.

13. The friends who had left came back every one,
    And darkest advisers looked bright as the sun.
14. She lived unknown and few could know,
    When Lucy ceased to be.
15. Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower,
    And they trimmed the lamps as the sun went down.

16. His hair was yellow as hay,
    But threads of a silvery grey
    Gleamed in his tawny beard.

EXERCISE 58

(Miscellaneous) Analyse the following.

1. When Abraham sat at his tent door, according to his custom, waiting to entertain strangers, he espied an old man, stooping and leaning on his staff, weary with age and travel, coming towards him, who was a hundred years of age.
2. When the old man was gone, God called to Abraham and asked him where the stranger was.
3. He replied, I thrust him away because he did not worship Thee.
4. While you are upon Earth enjoy the good things that are here (to that end were they given) and be not melancholy, and wish yourself in heaven.
5. There is no saying shocks me so much as that which I hear very often that a man does not know how to pass his time.
6. You must observe, my friend, that it is the custom of this country, when a lady or gentleman happens to sing, for the company to sit as mute and as motionless as statues.

7. Mr. Burchell had scarce taken leave, and Sophia consented to dance with the chaplain, when my little ones came running out to tell us that the Squire was come with a crowd of company.
8. I hope it will give comfort to great numbers who are passing through the world in obscurity, when I inform them how easily distinction may be obtained.
9. All who have meant good work with their whole hearts, have done good work, although they may die before they have the time to sign it.
10. We are told that, while still a mere child, he stole away from his playfellows to a vault in St. James's Fields, for the purpose of investigating the cause of a singular echo which he had observed there.
11. The slave who was at his work not far from the place where this astonishing piece of cruelty was commited, hearing the shrieks of the dying person ran to see what was the occasion of them.
12. Every insignificant author fancies it of importance to the world to know that he wrote his book in the country, that he did it to pass away some of his idle hours, that it was published at the importunity of friends, or that his natural temper, studies, or conversation directed him to the choice of his subject.
13. I consider a human soul without education like marble in the quarry, which shows none of its inherent beauties, until the skill of the polisher fetches out the colours, makes the surface shine, discovers every ornamental cloud, spot, and view that run through the body of it.
14. When the Athenians in the war with the Lacedaemonians received many defeats both by sea and land, they sent a message to the oracle of Jupiter Ammon, to ask the reason why they who erected so many temples to the gods, and adorned them with such costly offerings, should be less successful than the Lacedaemonians, who fell so short of them in all these particulars.
15. He that holds fast the golden mean,
    And lives contentedly between
    The little and the great,
    Feels not the wants that pinch the poor,
    Nor plagues that haunt the rich man's door,
    Embittering all his state.

Chapter 10 TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES

71. The student has already learnt that a phrase can be expanded into a clause and a clause contracted into a phrase; that is, the *form* of a sentence can be changed without changing the meaning. In this chapter we shall show some other ways of changing the form of a sentence.

    The conversion or transformation of sentences is an excellent exercise as it teaches variety of expression in writing English.

1. Sentences containing the Adverb 'too'

72. We can change the form of a sentence containing the adverb 'too', as shown below.
    1. The news is too good to be true.
       The news is so good that it cannot be true.
    2. These mangoes are too cheap to be good.
       These mangoes are so cheap that they cannot be good.
    3. He drove too fast for the police to catch.
       He drove so fast that the police could not catch him.

EXERCISE 59

Rewrite the following sentences so as to get rid of the Adverb 'too'.

1. It is never too late to mend.
2. He is too proud to beg.
3. My heart is too full for words.
4. He was too late to hear the first speech.

5. He is too ignorant for a postman.
6. The boy was too old for a whipping.
7. This tree is too high for me to climb.
8. He speaks too fast to be understood.
9. He is far too stupid for such a difficult post.

10. She was sobbing too deeply to make any answer.
11. This fact is too evident to require proof.
12. The work is too much for any man to do single-handed.
13. This shirt is too small for me.
14. The bag was too heavy for me too carry.

2. Interchange of the Degrees of Comparison

73. As the following examples show, it is possible to change the Degree of Comparison of an Adjective or Adverb in a sentence, without changing the meaning of the sentence.

Positive.	I am as *strong* as him.
Comparative.	He is not *stronger* than me.
Positive.	This razor is not as *sharp* as that one.
Comparative.	That razor is *sharper* than this one.
Positive.	Few historians write as *interestingly* as Joshi.
Comparative.	Joshi writes more *interestingly* than most historians.
Positive.	No other metal is as *useful* as iron.
Comparative	Iron is *more useful* than any other metal.
Superlative.	Iron is the *most useful* of all metals.

Superlative.	India is the *largest* democracy in the world.
Comparative.	India is *larger* than any other democracy in the world.
Positive.	No other democracy in the world is as *large* as India.
Superlative.	Mumbai is one of the *richest* cities in India.
Comparative	Mumbai is *richer* than most other cities in India.
Positive.	Very few cities in India are as *rich* as Mumbai.
Superlative.	Usha Kiran is not the *tallest* of all the buildings in the city.
Comparative.	Usha Kiran is not *taller* than some other buildings in the city.
	OR
	Some other buildings in the city are perhaps *taller* than Usha Kiran.
Positive.	Some other buildings in the city are at least as *tall* as Usha Kiran.
	OR
	Usha Kiran is perhaps not as *tall* as some other buildings in the city.

Superlative.	Naomi is not one of the *cleverest* girls in the class.
Comparative.	Some girls of the class are *cleverer* than Naomi.
	OR
	Naomi is less *clever* than some other girls of the class.
Positive.	Naomi is not so *clever* as some other girls of the class.

EXERCISE 60

Change the Degree of Comparison without changing the meaning.

1. Abdul is as strong as his brother.
2. Akbar was one of the greatest kings.
3. Some boys are at least as industrious as Karim.
4. Mahabaleshwar is cooler than Mysore.
5. No other bowler in the eleven is so good as Rama.
6. Very few cities in India are as big as Chennai.
7. No other storybook is so popular as *The Arabian Nights.*
8. This pony is better trained than yours.
9. This church is the biggest in Mumbai.
10. This newspaper has a bigger circulation than any other morning paper.
11. Helen of Troy was more beautiful than any other woman.
12. The airplane flies faster than birds.
13. Hyderabad is one of the biggest of Indian cities.
14. Some beans are at least as nutritious as meat.
15. Samudra Gupta was one of the greatest of Indian kings.
16. Australia is the largest island in the world.

17. Very few Indo-Anglian novelists are as great as R.K. Narayan.
18. This is one of the hottest districts in India.
19. It is better to starve than beg.
20. He loves all his sons equally well.

3. Interchange of Active and Passive Voice

74. A sentence in the Active form can be changed into the Passive form, and *vice versa.*

Active.	Brutus stabbed Caesar.
Passive.	Caesar was stabbed by Brutus.
Active.	The people will make him President.
Passive.	He will be made President by the people.
Active.	Who taught you grammar ?
Passive.	By whom were you taught grammar?/Who were you taught grammar by? By whom was grammar taught to you ?
Active.	The Governor gave him a reward.
Passive.	He was given a reward by the Governor. A reward was given to him by the Governor.
Active.	The Romans expected to conquer Carthage.
Passive.	It was expected by the Romans that they would conquer Carthage.
Active.	One should keep one's promises.
Passive.	Promises should be kept.
Active.	I know her.
Passive.	She is known to me.
Active.	My captors were taking me to prison.
Passive.	I was being taken to prison by my captors.
Active.	His behaviour vexes me sometimes.
Passive.	I am sometimes vexed at his behaviour.
Active.	It is time to shut up the shop.
Passive.	It is time for the shop to be shut up.
Active.	The audience loudly cheered the Mayor's speech.
Passive.	The Mayor's speech was loudly cheered.

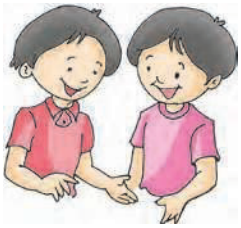

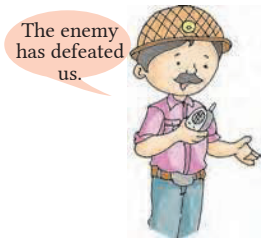

Note— Whenever it is evident who the agent (i.e.,doer of the action) is, it is unnecessary to mention him in the passive form, and this omission gives a neater turn to the sentence. Thus in the last example the agent is not mentioned in the passive form because only those who heard the speech could have cheered it.

Passive.	My pocket has been picked.
Active.	Someone has picked my pocket.
Passive.	Our army has been defeated.
Active.	The enemy has defeated our army.
Passive.	I shall be obliged to go.
Active.	Circumstances will oblige me to go.

Note— The Active Voice is used when the agent, or actor, is to be made prominent ; the Passive, when the thing acted upon is to be made prominent. Hence the Passive Voice may be used when the agent is unknown, or when we do not care to name the agent ; as, 'The ship was wrecked.'

EXERCISE 61

Change the following sentences into the Passive form. (Omit the agent where possible.)

1. Premchand wrote this novel.
2. We admire the brave.
3. I bought the baby a doll.
4. They know me.
5. He invited me to his house yesterday.
6. They enjoy bathing.
7. I opened the door.
8. I read the book long ago.
9. Pakistan expected to win the match.
10. The master appointed him monitor.
11. Who taught you such tricks as these?
12. Brutus accused Caesar of ambition.
13. The boy is climbing the cliff.
14. He taught me to read Persian.
15. One expects better behaviour from a college student.
16. They showed a video of the 'Titanic'.
17. You must endure what you cannot cure.
18. The curator of the museum showed us some ancient coins.
19. The King reviewed the troops in the maidan.
20. They have pulled down the old house.
21. The rules forbid passengers to cross the railway line.
22. He made his wife do the work.
23. Nature teaches beasts to know their friends.
24. All desire wealth and some acquire it.
25. Lincoln emancipated four million African slaves.
26. We expect good news.
27. They propose to build a dam for irrigation purposes.
28. I offered him a chair.
29. The French surrendered Quebec to the English in 1759.
30. He showed me the greatest respect.
31. Alas ! we shall hear his voice no more.
32. Shall I ever forget those happy days ?
33. Do you not understand my meaning ?
34. We must listen to his words.

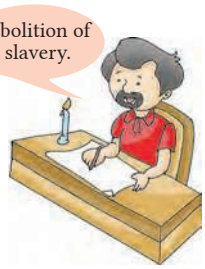

EXERCISE 62

Rewrite the following sentences in the Passive form. (Omit the agent where possible.)

1. Macbeth hoped to succeed Duncan.
2. Who taught you Urdu?
3. They found him guilty of murder.
4. The King immediately gave orders that he should be imprisoned.
5. Somebody has put out the light.
6. They laughed at his warnings and objected to all his proposals.
7. The Swiss regarded him as an impostor and called him a villain.
8. I have kept the money in the safe.
9. He pretended to be a baron.

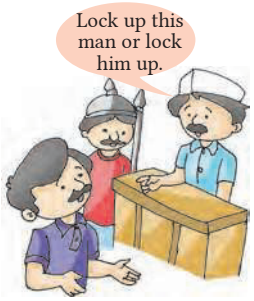

10. His subordinates accused him of various offences.
11. I saw him opening the box.
12. He ordered the police to pursue the thief.
13. One cannot gather grapes from thistles.
14. You never hear of a happy millionaire.
15. The public will learn with astonishment that war is imminent.
16. Did you never hear that name ?
17. The legend tells us how the castle received its name.
18. Do not insult the weak.
19. Why did he defraud you of your earnings ?

EXERCISE 63

Change the following sentences into the Active form.

1. The letter was written by the clerk.
2. Without effort nothing can be gained.
3. 'Shakuntala' was written by Kalidas.
4. I was struck by his singular appearance.
5. He was seen by my brother.
6. He was chosen leader.
7. Honey is made by bees.
8. The bird was killed by a cruel boy.
9. The steam-engine was invented by Watt.
10. The mouse was killed by the cat.
11. The boy was praised by the teacher.
12. The Exhibition was opened by the Prime Minister.
13. By whom was this jug broken ?
14. I was offered a chair.
15. We shall be blamed by everyone.
16. He will be gladdened by the sight.
17. The telephone was invented by Alexander Graham Bell.
18. My watch has been stolen.
19. A king may be looked at by a cat.
20. The telegraph wires have been cut.
21. Harsh sentences were pronounced on the offenders.
22. This question will be discussed at the meeting tomorrow.
23. Why should I be suspected by you?
24. Stones should not be thrown by those who live in glass houses.

25. He will be greatly surprised if he is chosen.
26. The ship was set on fire and abandoned by the crew.
27. He was arrested on a charge of theft, but for lack of evidence he was released.

4. Interchange of Affirmative and Negative Sentences

75. Study the following examples.

1. Brutus loved Caesar.
   Brutus was not without love for Caesar.
2. I was doubtful whether it was you.
   I was not sure that it was you.
3. Old fools surpass all other fools in folly.
   There's no fool like an old fool.
4. He is greater than me.
   I am not so great as him.
5. Alfred was the best king that ever reigned in England.
   No other king as good as Alfred ever reigned in England.

EXERCISE 64

Express the meaning of the following sentences in a negative form.

1. He was more rapacious than a griffin.
2. He was as rapacious as a griffin.
3. Akbar was the greatest of the Great Moghuls.
4. He was greater than Aurangzeb.
5. The rose by any other name would smell as sweet.
6. As soon as he came, he made objections.
7. These fishing nets are all the wealth I own.
8. I always love my country.
9. Everest is the highest mountain in the world.
10. He is sometimes foolish.
11. He failed to notice me when he came in.
12. Everybody will admit that he did his best.
13. Only a millionaire can afford such extravagance.
14. Every man makes mistakes sometimes.
15. I care very little what he says about me
16. As soon as he saw me he came up and spoke to me.
17. He must have seen the Taj Mahal when he went to Agra.

EXERCISE 65

Convert the following Negatives into Affirmatives.

1. Nobody was absent.
2. He did not live many years in India.
3. No one could deny that she was pretty.
4. God will not forget the cry of the humble.
5. I am not a little tired.
6. There was no one present who did not cheer.
7. I never in my life laid a plan and failed to carry it out.

8. Not many men would be cruel and unjust to a cripple.
9. No man could have done better.
10. The two brothers are not unlike each other.
11. He has promised never to touch wine again.
12. We did not find the road very bad.
13. There is no smoke without fire.
14. It is not likely that he will ever see his home again.

5. Interchange of Interrogative and Assertive Sentences

76. Study the following examples.

1. What though we happen to be late ?
   It does not matter much though we happen to be late.
2. Why waste time in reading trash ?
   It is extremely foolish to waste time in reading trash.
3. Were we sent into the world simply to make money ?
   We were not sent into the world simply to make money.
4. How can man die better than facing fearful odds ?
   Man cannot die better than facing fearful odds.
5. When can their glory fade ?

Their glory can never fade.

6. Was he not a villain to do such a deed ?
   He was a villain to do such a deed.

EXERCISE 66

Transform the following sentences into Assertive sentences.

1. Who can touch pitch without being defiled ?
2. Can any man by taking thought add a cubit to his stature ?
3. What though the field be lost ?
4. Is that the way a gentleman should behave ?
5. Who does not know the owl ?

6. Shall I ever forget those happy days ?
7. Who is so wicked as to amuse himself with the infirmities of extreme old age ?
8. Why waste time in this fruitless occupation ?.
9. Is this the kind of dress to wear in school ?
10. Can you gather grapes from thorns or figs from thistles ?

EXERCISE 67

Express the meaning of the following Assertions as Questions.

1. No one can be expected to submit for ever to injustice.
2. There is nothing better than a busy life.
3. Nowhere in the world will you find a fairer building than the Taj Mahal.
4. It is useless to offer bread to a man who is dying of thirst.
5. We could have done nothing without your help.
6. That was not an example to be followed.

6. Interchange of Exclamatory and Assertive Sentences

77. Study the following examples.

1. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!
   The moonlight very sweetly sleeps upon this bank.
2. If only I were young again!
   I wish I were young again.
3. Alas that youth should pass away !
   It is sad to think that youth should pass away.
4. How beautiful is night !
   Night is very beautiful.
5. To think of our meeting here!
   [Or] That we should meet here !
   It is strange that we should meet here.

EXERCISE 68

Transform the following Exclamatory sentences into Assertions.

1. What would I not give to see you happy !
2. Ah, what a sight was there !
3. What a piece of work is man !
4. What might be done, if men were wise !
5. What a wonderful creature an elephant is !
6. How awkwardly he manages his sword !
7. O that we two were infants playing !
8. If only I had the wings of a dove !
9. What a large nose !
10. If only I had a good horse !
11. If only I were safe at home !

12. O what a fall was there, my countrymen !
13. What a delicious meal !
14. What sweet delight a quiet life affords !
15. How well fitted the camel is for the work he has to do !
16. How cold you are !
17. What a beautiful scene this is !
18. What a delicious flavour these mangoes have !
19. Shame on you to use a poor cripple so !
20. If only I knew more people !
21. How you have grown !
22. If only I had come one hour earlier !

EXERCISE 69

Transform the following into Exclamatory sentences.

1. It is a horrible night.
2. It was extremely base of him to desert you in your time of need.
3. It is hard to believe that he did such a deed.
4. I wish I had met you ten years ago.
5. It is very stupid of me to forget your name.
6. He leads a most unhappy life.

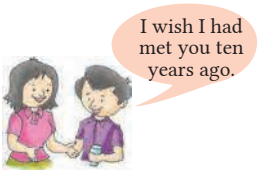

7. Interchange of One Part of Speech for Another

78. Study the following examples.

1. That kind of joke does not *amuse* me.
   That kind of joke does not give me any *amusement.*
2. It *costs* twelve rupees.
   The *cost* is twelve rupees.
3. He has *disgraced* his family.
   He is a *disgrace* to his family.
4. He *fought* bravely.
   He put up a brave *fight.*
5. The treaty of Salbai should be *remembered* as one of the landmarks in the history of India.
   The treaty of Salbai is worthy of *remembrance* as one of the landmarks in the history of India.
6. I cannot *consent* to your going.
   I cannot give my *consent* to your going.
7. He gave a curt *reply.*
   He *replied* curtly.
8. He showed *generosity* even to his enemies.
   He was *generous* even to his enemies.
9. There is a slight *difference* between the two shades.
   The two shades are slightly *different.*
10. The Act made the negro slaves *free.*
    The Act gave *freedom* to the negro slaves.
11. I see him every*day.*
    I see him *daily.*
12. He examined the document *carefully.*
    He examined the document with *care.*
13. We passed an *anxious* hour.
    We passed an hour *anxiously.*
14. Few historians have written in a more *interesting* manner than Gibbon.
    Few historians have written more *interestingly* than Gibbon.
15. He *presumptuously* ignored my advice.
    He *presumed* to ignore my advice.

EXERCISE 70

(a) In the following sentences replace the Nouns in italics by Verbs.

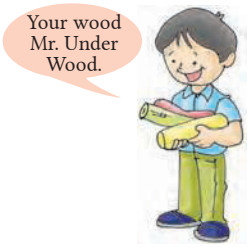

1. He rejected all our *proposals.*
2. Steel gains *strength* from the addition of nickel.
3. He made an *agreement* to supply me with firewood.
4. His *purpose* is not clear from his letter.
5. You cannot gain *admission* without a ticket.
6. He has no *intention* of leaving the city.
7. I have a *disinclination* for *work* today.
8. He made a *success* of all his *undertakings.*
9. These mangoes have a sweet *smell* but a sour *taste.*

(b) Rewrite the following sentences so as to replace the Adverbs in italics by Verbs.

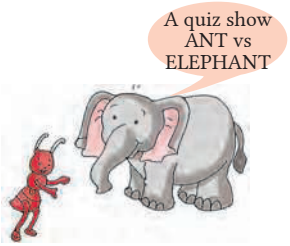

1. The defenders *successfully* repelled every attack on the city.
2. This scene is *surpassingly* beautiful.
3. He is *admittedly* the greatest general of the country.
4. They welcomed the good news most *joyfully.*

(c) Rewrite the following sentences so as to replace the Verbs and Adjectives in italics by corresponding Nouns.

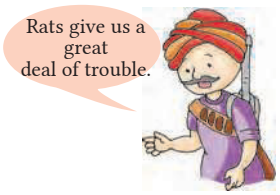

1. Though the ant is small it is as *intelligent* as the elephant.
2. He said he *regretted* that he had *acted* so hastily.
3. He was so *active* in his old age that everybody *admired* him.
4. Before I pay you what is *due* you must *sign* this receipt.
5. The best way to be *healthy* is to be *temperate* in all things.

(d) Rewrite the following sentences, replacing Nouns and Adverbs in italics by Adjectives of similar meaning.

1. In all *probability* the day will be fine.
2. The rats gave us a great deal of *trouble*.
3. He was dismissed for *negligence* rather than incompetence.
4. He was *admittedly* clever, but he *evidently* lacked industry.
5. The merchant had great *success* in all his dealings, and was naturally esteemed by his fellow citizens.

(e) Rewrite the following sentences replacing Nouns and Adjectives in italics by Adverbs of similar meaning.

1. Her dress was *poor* and mean.
2. He broke the rules without any intention of doing so, but it does not follow that his punishment was *wrong*.
3. His mistake was evident,but his sincerity was also *obvious*.
4. By a careful analysis of these substances you will see that they differ in *essence*.

Chapter 11 TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES (CONTD.)

1. Conversion of Simple Sentences to Compound (Double) Sentences

79. A Simple sentence can be converted into a Compound one by enlarging a word or a phrase into a co-ordinate clause.

Simple.	He must work very hard to make up for the lost time.
Compound.	He must work very hard and make up for the lost time.
Simple.	To his eternal disgrace, he betrayed his country.
Compound.	He betrayed his country, and this was to his eternal disgrace.
Simple.	Besides robbing the poor child, he also murdered her.
Compound.	He not only robbed the poor child but also murdered her.
Simple.	He must work very hard to win the first prize.
Compound.	He must work very hard, or he will not win the first prize.
Simple.	He must not attempt to escape, on pain of death.
Compound.	He must not attempt to escape, or he will be put to death.
Simple.	Notwithstanding his hard work, he did not succeed.
Compound.	He worked hard, yet did not succeed.
Simple.	Owing to ill-luck, he met with a bad accident on the eve of his examination.
Compound.	He was unlucky and therefore met with a bad accident on the eve of his examination.
Simple.	The teacher punished the boy for disobedience.
Compound.	The boy was disobedient, and so the teacher punished him.

EXERCISE 71

Rewrite the following Simple sentences as Compound (Double) ones.

1. In this tower sat the poet gazing on the sea.
2. To everyone's surprise, the project completely failed.
3. Seeing the rain coming on, we took shelter under a tree.
4. Besides educating his nephew, he also set him up in business.
5. The fog being very dense, the steamer sailed at less than half speed.
6. Raleigh, taking off his cloak politely, placed it in the muddy street.
7. Being occupied with important matters, he had no leisure to see us.
8. In spite of his popularity he cannot be called a great writer.
9. Rushing against Horatius, he smote with all his might.
10. With all his learning, he was far from being a pedant.
11. Little Jack Horner sat in a corner, eating his Christmas pie.
12. He must resign on pain of public dismissal.
13. Owing to drought the crop is short.
14. The men had not completed their work by sunset.
15. Notwithstanding several efforts, he failed.
16. By his pleasant manners he gained many friends.
17. In addition to pecuniary assistance he gave them much valuable advice.
18. The referee having whistled, the game was stopped.
19. On account of his negligence the company suffered heavy losses.
20. Running at top speed, he got out of breath.
21. Possessing all the advantages of education and wealth, he never made name.
22. Taking pity on the mouse, the magician turned it into a cat.
23. Being dissatisfied, he resigned his position.
24. Throwing off his coat, he plunged into sea.

EXERCISE 72

Convert the following Simple sentences to Compound sentences.

1. Hearing their father's footsteps, the boys ran away.
2. With a great effort he lifted the box.
3. The man, being very hungry, ate too much.
4. In spite of his great strength he was overcome.
5. Against the wishes of his family he left school.
6. He was universally respected on account of his virtue.
7. His friend having helped him, he is prospering.
8. Being a cripple, he cannot ride a horse.
9. The rain having washed away the embankment, the train was wrecked.
10. Finding himself in difficulty, he went to his teacher for help.
11. My friend being now in Mumbai, I shall go there to meet him.
12. In the event of such a thing happening, I should take long leave.
13. They are forbidden to enter the sacred place on pain of death.
14. To make certain of getting a place you must apply early.
15. He intends to try again notwithstanding his repeated failures.
16. In spite of all my advice he has done this foolish thing.
17. By reason of his great ability he has been able to win a high position.
18. Through no fault of his own he has become very poor.
19. Knowing no better, he used very inaccurate language.
20. His swords having broken, he was left defenceless.
21. He was rejected owing to ill-health.
22. I do not like him on account of his pride and boastfulness.
23. To avoid punishment he ran away.
24. In his ignorance he followed the wrong course.
25. Having made no provision for old age, he is very poor.
26. Out of a desire for revenge he agreed to this.
27. To add to their troubles, a tyre burst on the way.

2. Conversion of Compound (Double) Sentences to Simple Sentences

80. The following examples illustrate the chief ways of converting Compound sentences to Simple sentences.

Compound.	He finished his exercise and put away his books.
Simple.	Having finished his exercise, he put away his books.
Compound.	Not only did his father give him money, but his mother did too.
Simple.	Besides his father giving him money, his mother also did the same.
Compound.	He was a mere boy but he offered to fight the giant.
Simple.	In spite of his being a mere boy, he offered to fight the giant.
Compound.	He must not be late, or he will be punished.
Simple.	In the event of his being late, he will be punished.
Compound.	You must either pay the bill at once or return the goods.
Simple.	Failing prompt payment, the goods must be returned by you.
Compound.	The men endured all the horrors of the campaign and not one of them complained at all.
Simple.	The men endured all the horrors of the campaign without one of them making any complaint.
Compound.	We must eat, or we cannot live.
Simple.	We must eat to live.

EXERCISE 73

Rewrite the following Compound (Double) sentences as Simple ones.

1. They were poor, and often suffered great hardship.
2. He overslept himself, and so he missed the train.

3. The prince slew his brother and became king in his place.
4. This coat cannot be mine, for it is too big.
5. This general fought bravely, the king therefore made him commander-in-chief.
6. The camel pushed his head into the tent and asked to be allowed to warm his nose.
7. As a boy he had never been at school, and therefore he had no opportunity of learning to read or write.
8. This must not occur again, or you will be dismissed.
9. He granted the request, for he was unwilling to disappoint his friend.
10. They took every precaution ; still they ran aground.
11. He is rich, yet he is not contented.
12. Make haste, or else you will be late.
13. The steamer went down, yet the crew were saved.
14. The piper advanced, and the children followed.
15. The horse reared and the rider was thrown.
16. Walk quickly, else you will not overtake him.
17. I called him, but he gave me no answer.
18. Either he is drowned or some passing ship has saved him.
19. He must have done his duty, for he is a conscientious man.
20. He tried hard, but he did not succeed.
21. He tried again and again, but he did not succeed.
22. We decided not to go any further that day and put up at the nearest hotel.
23. Either you must help me or I must try to carry out my task alone.
24. His partner died, and this added to his difficulties.
25. He was horrified for he saw blood stains on the floor and no sign of his child.
26. Not only men, but women and children were put to death.
27. Everybody else went down to meet him in the train, but I did not.
28. He is a well-read man, but in matters of business he is a fool.
29. Work at least six hours a day, or you cannot make sure of success.
30. He is very poor, but he does not complain.
31. He neither returned the goods nor paid the bill.

EXERCISE 74

Convert the following Compound (Double) sentences to Simple sentences.

1. My friend arrived and we went for a walk.
2. The servant brought the lamp and I began my homework.
3. The ink had dried up and I could not write.
4. I have a lot of work and must do it now.
5. We must hurry and we shall escape the rain.
6. He has an unpleasant duty and must perform it.
7. He not only pitied him but relieved him.
8. He did this and so offended his master.
9. He had read the book carefully and could tell the story in his own words.
10. His object became known and everybody tried to help him.
11. He found a hundred rupee note and was delighted at his good luck.
12. Rama has hurt his ankle and will not be able to play today.
13. Be good and you will be happy.
14. He did not like the work and he began it unwillingly.
15. I ordered him to halt, but he took no notice.
16. He is a good steady worker, only he is rather slow.

17. I continually invited him to visit me, but he never came.
18. He served out his sentence in gaol and was released.
19. He worked exceedingly hard at school, for he was a good obedient boy.
20. The dacoits stopped to divide the booty and the police overtook them.
21. He practised daily and so became an expert player.
22. Your attempt can hardly be called successful, for it has had no good results.
23. The President came into the hall and everyone rose from his seat.
24. He escaped several times but was finally caught.
25. The horse fell heavily and his rider came down with him.
26. He found himself getting weaker and weaker; so he consulted a doctor.
27. The plague broke out in the city and the people moved out into the jungle.
28. I had no money with me, and I could not give the beggar anything.

3. Conversion of Simple Sentences to Complex

81. A Simple sentence can be converted to a Complex sentence by expanding a word or phrase into a Subordinate clause.

This clause may be a Noun, Adjective or Adverb clause.

Simple.	He confessed *his crime.*
Complex.	He confessed *that he was guilty.*
Simple.	His *silence* proves his guilt.
Complex.	The *fact that he is silent* proves his guilt.
Simple.	He bought *his uncle's* library.
Complex.	He bought the library *which belonged to his uncle.*
Simple.	*On the arrival of the mails* the ship will leave.
Complex.	The ship will leave *as soon as the mails arrive.*
Simple.	He owed *his success* to his father.
Complex.	It was owing to his father *that he succeeded.*
Simple.	He worked hard *to pass the examination.*
Complex.	He worked hard so *that he might pass the examination.*
Simple.	Cain, *being jealous of Abel,* struck him.
Complex.	Cain struck Abel *because he was jealous of him.*
Simple.	*Only Indians* are admitted.
Complex.	*If you are not an Indian* you cannot be admitted.
Simple.	He succeeded *unexpectedly.*
Complex.	He succeeded *although his success was not expected.*
Simple.	The management is *thoroughly bad.*
Complex.	The management is *as bad as it could be.*
Simple.	A man's modesty is in inverse proportion to his ignorance.
Complex.	The more ignorant a man is, the less modest he is.

EXERCISE 75

Convert the following Simple sentences to Complex sentences, each containing a Noun clause.

1. I expect to meet Rama tonight.
2. He hoped to win the prize.
3. His father is not likely to punish him.
4. He admitted stealing the watch.
5. Krishna wishes me to play for his team.
6. He believes their success to be certain in that case.
7. I overheard all his remarks.
8. I did not think fit to reply to his writings.
9. He confessed his fault.
10. His hiding place is still unknown.
11. I shall be glad of your advice in this matter.
12. He pleaded ignorance of the law.
13. Our friends will hear of our success.
14. You imply my guilt by your words and manner.
15. I request your help.
16. I cannot foretell the time of my departure.
17. I wish you to be quiet.
18. He is said to be a millionaire.
19. Tell the truth.
20. I have long suspected his poverty.

EXERCISE 76

Convert the following Simple sentences to Complex sentences, each containing an Adjective clause.

1. I saw a wounded bird.
2. Rama is happy in his present class.
3. The man near me is my brother.
4. Our guru is a man of blameless life.
5. Your father is the man to help you in this matter.
6. The value of exercise is great.
7. Was this the deed of a good man ?
8. I was the first to hear the news.
9. These are not the methods of business.
10. The classroom is not the place for boys to play in.
11. He is hardly the boy to do credit to the school.
12. He liked his former place.
13. Smoke, the certain indicator of fire, appeared in the mine.
14. I was the first to arrive.
15. That is not the way to answer.
16. It was the work of a wild animal.
17. He is the water-carrier.
18. I have nowhere to sit.
19. My friend, the magistrate of this place, is on leave.
20. He sat outside on a stone in the compound.

EXERCISE 77

Convert the following Simple sentences to Complex sentences, each containing an Adverb clause.

1. On being punished, he wept.
2. During Queen Victoria's reign there were many wars.
3. Being quite contented, he never grumbled.
4. Being ill-treated by his master, he ran away.
5. He was too dull to understand.
6. The tiger is feared for its fierceness.
7. With your permission I will go away.
8. The peon would be quite happy with a rise of Rs. 10 a month.
9. He replied to the best of his ability.
10. I can only tell you according to my memory.
11. Of Krishna and Rama the latter works the harder.
12. Owing to ill-health he has resigned.
13. He was annoyed at being rebuked.
14. He cannot be caught on account of his quickness.
15. He is too lazy to succeed.
16. He came in very quietly to avoid waking his father.
17. He waited there with a view to meeting me.
18. There is no admission without permission.
19. I will help you in any possible way.
20. Do not go out without leave.
21. In spite of the heat they marched quickly.
22. For all his youth he is very capable.
23. Till my arrival, wait here.
24. After the death of his father he left Mumbai.
25. Up to his thirtieth year he remained unmarried.
26. From the time of that illness he has been partly blind.
27. Previous to his death he made his will.
28. In anticipation of sanction I have issued the order.
29. He hindered the police in the execution of their duty.
30. This was done in my absence.
31. For fear of imprisonment they kept silence.
32. Notwithstanding my entreaties he shot the dog.
33. He wrote according to instructions.
34. He worked to the best of his ability.
35. Come back at six o'clock.
36. With every blow the body quivered.
37. Speaking honestly, I do not know.
38. I came today to take advantage of the special train.
39. He failed to my great surprise.
40. Till the day of the examination he did no more work.
41. The tiger having fallen, he climbed down from the tree.
42. In the time of Aurangzeb taxes were very heavy.
43. We eat to live.
44. Some people live to eat.
45. He has gone down to the river to bathe.
46. Have you come to see me ?
47. Does he wish me to go ?

EXERCISE 78

Rewrite the following Simple sentences as Complex sentences.

1. Can you tell me the time of his arrival ?
2. After seeing the King he departed.
3. Many ships were so shattered as to be wholly unmanageable.
4. England expects every man to do his duty.
5. The guests having departed, he went to bed.
6. Few know the date of Lucy's death.
7. The source of the Nile was difficult to discover.
8. I will meet you at any place convenient for you.
9. In spite of his earnest protestations, he was condemned.
10. He is proud of his high birth.
11. The prince was to be found in the hottest of the battle.
12. I rejoice at his good fortune.

13. But for his own confession, the crime could scarcely have been brought home to him.
14. He alone entered, the rest of us waiting outside.
15. Not feeling well, he decided to lie down.
16. The last of these voyages not proving very fortunate, I grew weary of the sea.
17. Considering the difficulties of his position, he has acted admirably.
18. Speak low, to prevent our being overheard.
19. He was too much excited to hear reason.
20. A letter from the butler brings to the club the news of Sir Roger's death.
21. My right there is none to dispute.
22. Accustomed to rule, he schooled himself to obey.
23. He saved the child at the risk of his life.
24. A good tree cannot bring forth evil fruit.
25. I convinced him of his mistake.
26. It all depends upon the manner of your doing it.
27. He can prove his innocence.
28. Everybody knows the author of *Gulliver's Travels.*
29. The date of his arrival is uncertain.
30. The duration of the war is uncertain.
31. There is no hope of his recovery.
32. The exact date of the birth of Buddha is unknown.
33. A daily bath is necessary to perfect health.
34. Success or failure depends largely on your own efforts.
35. In my hurry I forgot the most important letters.
36. Listeners never hear any good of themselves.
37. Finding the door unlocked, the thief entered the house.
38. It is impossible to trust the word of a habitual liar.
39. Gray, the author of the *Elegy,* lived in the eighteenth century.
40. The shepherd found the lost sheep.
41. The boy readily admitted his mistake.
42. Tell me your plans.
43. He could clearly remember the incidents of his youth.
44. On arriving at the foot of the hill, he blew his trumpet.
45. A spider saved Robert Bruce.
46. The prudent man looks to the future.
47. For want of money, he was unable to prosecute his studies.
48. All the money having been spent, we started looking for work.
49. The idle cannot hope to succeed.
50. Our orders were to show no mercy.
51. It was too late for retreat.
52. I must be cruel, only to be kind.
53. The men fought with desperation.
54. He is too truthful to be a successful courtier.
55. Your remuneration depends on the quality of your work.
56. He conducted himself madly to escape suspicion.
57. Good boys need not fear punishment.
58. The accused confessed his guilt.
59. I asked him the reason of his coming.
60. But for your folly you could have been a partner in the firm today.
61. Tell me your age.
62. I was glad to hear of your arrival.
63. Being a very diligent and clever lad, he soon distinguished himself.
64. He is too short for a soldier.
65. This is said to be the birthplace of Buddha.
66. His success went beyond his expectations.
67. In spite of his poor health, he worked hard.
68. Feeling out of sorts, he went to bed.
69. He complained of being unjustly treated.
70. He killed the hen to get the treasure.
71. An army of ants will attack large and ferocious animals.
72. A very miserly planter formerly lived in the island of Jamaica.
73. He often gave his poor slaves too little food.
74. Industry will keep you from want.
75. A drowning man will catch at a straw.
76. It is excellent to have a giant's strength.
77. Having finished our work, we went out for a walk.
78. With all thy faults I love thee still.
79. The news is too good to be true.
80. This tree is too high for me to climb.
81. He is too old to learn anything new.
82. The world's greatest men have not laboured with a view to becoming rich.
83. With a change of wind we shall have rain.
84. With all his wealth he is not happy.

4. Conversion of Complex Sentences to Simple Sentences

82. Study the following examples.

Noun Clause

Complex.	He said *that he was innocent.*
Simple.	He declared *his innocence.*
Complex.	*That you are drunk* aggravates your offence.
Simple.	*Your drunkenness* aggravates your offence.
Complex.	Tell me *where you live.*
Simple.	Tell me *your address.*

Complex.	It is a pity *that we should have to undergo this disgrace.*
Simple.	*Our having to undergo this disgrace* is a pity.
Complex.	*It is proclaimed* that all men found with arms will be shot.
Simple.	*According to the proclamation* all men found with arms will be shot.
Complex.	He remarked *how impudent the boy was.*
Simple.	He remarked *on the boy's impudence.*
Complex.	*How long I shall stay* is doubtful.
Simple.	*The duration of my stay* is doubtful.
Complex.	*Except that he hurt his hand,* he was lucky.
Simple.	*Except for the hurt to his hand,* he was lucky.

EXERCISE 79

Convert each of the following Complex sentences to a Simple sentence.

1. We believe that he is innocent.
2. It was much regretted that he was absent.
3. The consequence of his carelessness was that the game was lost.
4. He asked why I came.
5. He ordered that the traitor should be executed.
6. It is to be hoped that he escaped unhurt.
7. I do not know when I shall return.
8. We hope that better times will come.
9. The news that the enemy landed spread like wild fire.
10. That I was successful does not make me happy.
11. He ordered the police that they should imprison the rioters.
12. That you should be willing to believe this is incredible.
13. Whoever is prudent is respected.
14. It is reported that our troops have won a victory.
15. All believed that he was guilty of murder.
16. Tell me what you mean by this.

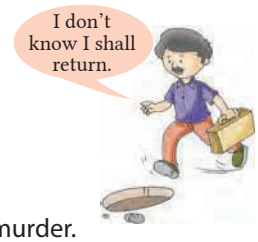

83. Study the following examples.

Adjective Clause

Complex.	He died in the village *where he was born.*
Simple.	He died in his *native village.*
Complex.	The moment *which is lost* is lost for ever.
Simple.	A *lost* moment is lost for ever.
Complex.	Men *who have risen by their own exertions* are always respected.
Simple.	*Self-made* men are always respected.
Complex.	They *that are whole* have no need of the physician.
Simple.	*Healthy* persons have no need of the physician.
Complex.	We came upon a hut *where a peasant lived.*
Simple.	*We came upon a peasant's hut.*
Complex.	Youth is the time *when the seeds of character are sown.*
Simple.	Youth is the time *for the formation of character.*
Complex.	The exact time *when this occurred* has not been ascertained.
Simple.	The exact time *of the occurrence* has not been ascertained.
Complex.	The son *who was his chief pride in his old age* is dead.
Simple.	His son, *the pride of his old age,* is dead.
Complex.	*The place where Buddha was cremated* has recently been discovered.
Simple.	*The place of Buddha's cremation* has recently been discovered.
Complex.	I have no advice *that I can offer you.*
Simple.	I have no advice *to offer you.*

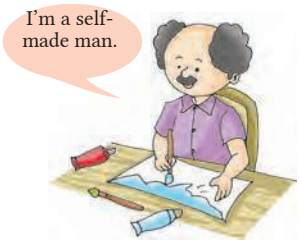

EXERCISE 80

Convert each of the following Complex sentences to a Simple sentence.

1. He sold the horse which belonged to his brother.
2. As I was unable to help in any other way, I gave her some money.
3. I have no horse that I can lend you.
4. The marks that were left by the whip were still visible.
5. This is the place where we camp.
6. The heart that is full of grief is heavy.
7. The reply which you have made is foolish.
8. The evil that men do lives after them.
9. Do you not remember him who was formerly your friend ?

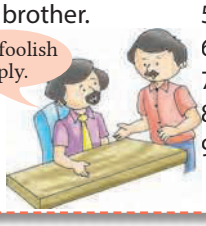

10. This is the needle with which she knits.
11. Have you nothing that you wish to say ?
12. He prospered by the help he got from his friends.
13. They were advised by a clever lawyer who was a High Court pleader.
14. He is weak from the illness which he had recently.
15. A man who is dead needs no riches.
16. I have seen the house which belongs to Rama.
17. He was the most learned of the judges who lived at that time.
18. He died in the village where he was born.
19. The horse which is an Arab of pure blood, is very swift.
20. The smell which comes from this drain, is very bad.
21. Can he get no work that he can do ?
22. Is there no place which is kept for bathing here ?
23. The birds have no water that they can drink.
24. He shot a tiger which was the scourge of the district.
25. That is the book that belongs to me.
26. I saw a man who was blind.
27. This is the bottle which is used for water.
28. The chief thing that Wycliffe and his friends achieved was the translation of the Bible into English.
29. I found the book which I had lost.
30. The boy who stood first got the prize
31. A city that is set on a hill cannot be hid.
32. People who live in glass houses must not throw stones.
33. The services he has rendered to the state cannot be over-estimated.
34. The place where they live is very unhealthy.
35. This idea on which he based his philosophy, is very difficult to comprehend.
36. I have no time that I can waste on idle talk.
37. A person who relies on his own efforts has the best chance to win success.
38. Here is a barrier that cannot be passed.
39. A person who has risen by his own exertions is always respected.
40. A boy who had been notoriously idle was awarded a prize.
41. Such men as you cannot be easily disheartened.
42. A man who is industrious is sure to succeed.
43. He told us the time when he expected to arrive.

84. Study the following examples.

Adverb Clause

Complex.	The Captain was annoyed *that he had not carried out his orders.*
Simple.	The Captain was annoyed *at his not having carried out his orders.*
Complex.	You can talk *as much as you like.*
Simple.	You can talk *to your heart's content.*
Complex.	Everything comes *if a man will only work and wait.*
Simple.	Everything comes *to a diligent and patient man.*
Complex.	I am pushing my business *wherever I can find an opening.*
Simple.	I am pushing my business *in every possible direction.*
Complex.	He will *not* pay *unless he is compelled.*
Simple.	He will pay *only under compulsion.*
Complex.	You have succeeded *better than you hoped.*
Simple.	You have succeeded *beyond your hopes.*
Complex.	*When the cat is away* the mice will play.
Simple.	*In the absence of the cat* the mice will play.
Complex.	He does not always speak *as he thinks.*
Simple.	He does not always speak *his thoughts.*
Complex.	A good boy will always do *as he is commanded by his superiors.*
Simple.	A good boy will always carry out (or execute) *the commands of his superiors.*
Complex.	I was surprised *when I heard him talk so.*
Simple.	I was surprised *to hear him talk so.*
Complex.	He was so tired *that he could not stand.*
Simple.	He was *too* tired *to stand.*
Complex.	If I make a promise *I keep it.*
Simple.	I make a promise *only to keep it.*
Complex.	*As the war was ended,* the soldiers returned.
Simple.	*The war being ended,* the soldiers returned.
Complex.	While there is life there is hope
Simple.	Life and hope are inseparable.
Complex.	As you sow, so you will reap.
Simple.	You will but reap the fruits of your sowing.

EXERCISE 81

Convert the following Complex sentences into Simple sentences.

1. As you are here you may as well see it.
2. He was angry when he heard the result.
3. Does he know the consequences if he refuses ?
4. He cannot go unless I consent.
5. You cannot always talk sense if you are always talking.
6. You never come here but you steal something.
7. The boy ran as fast as he could.
8. As it was beginning to rain we waited a while.
9. Although he has failed twice he will try again.
10. He made such good speed that he was in time.
11. Because he was ill he stayed at home.
12. As he felt cold he lit a fire.
13. Since I am unable to get much, I accept little.
14. He will pay you when he hears from me.
15. He was so tired that he could not sleep.
16. They rejoice that they are going.
17. I congratulated him because he had passed.
18. He can afford to be generous because he is rich.
19. As the hour had arrived they started.
20. Since I believed his word I did not ask for proof.
21. The dog jumped up when he saw the cat.
22. The horse is so old that it cannot work.
23. The tiger is renowned through all the countryside because he is so cunning and ferocious.
24. He was very angry when he had to pay again.
25. The longer we wait here, the darker it will become.
26. He is not so tall that he cannot enter the doorway.
27. When they heard the signal they sprang up.
28. As the truth is known, further lying is useless.
29. Wherever you go I shall follow you.
30. No sooner did he see us than he disappeared.
31. As soon as he heard the news he wrote to me.
32. Because you have done this I shall punish you.
33. As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
34. They went where living was cheaper.
35. Wherever he preached the people gathered to listen.
36. She stood as though turned to stone.
37. We have come so that we may help you.
38. You will pass if you work hard.
39. He cannot see unless he wears glasses.
40. His father still trusted him though he had deceived him.
41. He is not so prudent as he ought to be .
42. It was so dark that you could not see your hand.
43. When the fraud was discovered, he was imprisoned after being tried.
44. He was so indolent that he could not be successful.
45. An honest boy speaks as he thinks.
46. Sit down where you please.
47. The larger the brain, the more vigorous the mind.
48. I shall give you my horse if you give me your silver.
49. We will do the work as well as we can.
50. Robinson Crusoe was puzzled when he discovered the print of a foot on the sand.
51. Though the sky falls, he will not be frightened.
52. Apollo was worshipped as long as the Roman Empire lasted.
53. I will buy it, cost what it may.
54. I am surprised that you should believe such nonsense.
55. Whatever you do, I will support.

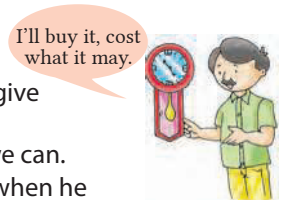

EXERCISE 82

Turn each of the following Complex sentences into a Simple sentence.

1. It is terrible that people should die of starvation.
2. I was unable to hear what you were saying.
3. We did not go, as the weather was too stormy.
4. It is doubtful whether he will succeed.
5. He became so ill that he was unable to walk.
6. No one is promoted to a higher class unless he is examined.
7. He ran as fast as he could.
8. He said that he would come tomorrow.
9. Tell me where you live.
10. He confessed that he was guilty.
11. It was so dark that we lost our way.
12. Tell me how old you are.
13. When he will arrive is not yet known.
14. Grant me what I ask.
15. We hope that better times will come.
16. I insist that you should not go.
17. I shall remain where I am.
18. If you turn to the right you will soon reach the temple.
19. He gave a graphic account of how he escaped.
20. We went half-an-hour earlier, so that we might get a good seat.
21. He complained that he had been unjustly treated.
22. It is certain that he will come.
23. The Commissioner gave rewards to such men as deserve them.
24. I asked him why he came.
25. A child who has lost his parents is to be pitied.
26. They left at six o'clock so that he might catch the early train.

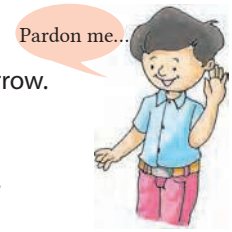

27. Suspicion always haunts the mind of a person who is guilty.
28. He went to Ooty so that he might improve his health.
29. A book in which were pictures of animals, was presented to him by his uncle.
30. When Caesar saw Brutus among the assassins, he covered his face with his gown.
31. John Bright once said that the safest place in England was a first-class carriage in an express train.
32. The question is so complicated that it cannot be settled immediately.
33. Had he been absent, the motion would have been carried.
34. The passage is so difficult that I cannot comprehend it.
35. We must do the work as well as we can.
36. Although they fought most valiantly, they were defeated.
37. If he wins the battle he will be crowned.
38. I wish to know the time when he died.
39. Those soldiers who survived have received medals.
40. This is a machine which is used for sewing.
41. He seemed very anxious that we should come.
42. The priests were satisfied when he offered the money.
43. You must be hungry if you have not dined.
44. It is time you went.
45. It is lucky that he came just then.
46. It is certain that he will help you.
47. You must write to me as soon as you reach Mumbai.
48. He gave away some books which belonged to his brother.
49. Can you tell me the name of the person who wrote the book ?
50. It is said that he died by his own hand.
51. While my parents are absent I cannot come.
52. This sum is so hard that I cannot do it.
53. As one man fell another took his place.
54. Work as hard as you can.
55. Drink while you may.
56. Such a man as he is should succeed.
57. The police know this from information which has been received by them.

5. Conversion of Compound Sentences to Complex

85. Study the following examples.

Compound.	Search his pockets and you will find the watch.
Complex.	If you search his pockets, you will find the watch.
Compound.	Do as I tell you, or you will regret it.
Complex.	Unless you do as I tell you, you will regret it.
Compound.	The lion was wounded but not killed.
Complex.	The lion was not killed although he was wounded. (=Although the lion was wounded, he was not killed.)
Compound.	Waste not, want not.
Complex.	If you do not waste, you will not want.
Compound.	He saw the danger, but pressed on.
Complex.	Although he saw the danger, he pressed on.
Compound.	He saw the danger and paused.
Complex	When he saw the danger he paused.
Compound	He aimed at winning the prize and worked hard.
Complex.	He worked hard so that he might win the prize.
Compound.	He had to sign, or be executed.
Complex.	If he had not signed, he would have been executed.
Compound.	He is buried near Rome and myrtles grow round his grave.
Complex.	He is buried near Rome in a place where myrtles grow.
Compound.	He wishes to become learned ; therefore he is studying hard.
Complex.	He is studying hard so that he may become learned.

EXERCISE 83

Transform from Compound into Complex sentences.

1. Spare the rod and spoil the child.
2. He put on his hat and went outside.
3. At length she woke and looked round.
4. Keep quiet, or you will be punished.
5. The ship was wrecked, but the crew were saved.
6. Either Shirin will come or she will send a letter.
7. Do your best, and you will never regret it.
8. He received your telegram and set off at once.
9. I must hurry back at once, or my business will greatly suffer.

10. Do this, or you will be punished.
11. Rama may not be clever but he is certainly industrious.
12. I put my hand into my pocket and gave him a rupee.
13. Only do the right, and you will have no reason to be ashamed.
14. The crow stole a piece of cheese and flew with it to a tree.
15. I called at your house yesterday but you were out.
16. This is the prisoner's first offence so h with a small fine.
17. We must do our work well, or our master will be angry with us.
18. You have earned his gratitude, so you shall not go unrewarded.
19. He failed in his first attempt and never tried again.
20. Time flies fast, yet it sometimes appears to move slowly.
21. Mosquitoes cause malaria, and this is well known.
22. She must weep, or she will die.
23. He ran to the station, but he missed the train.
24. The boy was tired, therefore he went to bed.
25. He is poor, but contented.
26. Life has few enjoyments ; still we cling to it.
27. Eat few suppers and you'll need few medicines.
28. He is working hard ; therefore he will succeed.
29. He wishes to succeed ; therefore he works hard.
30. He was going along this road, and met a dragon.
31. They were refused pay, but went on working.
32. I frowned upon him, yet he loves me still.
33. Do you find victories and we will find rewards ?
34. The archers were poorly armed, but they offered a stubborn resistance.
35. Cross this line and you will be captured.
36. You must be warmly clad, or you will catch cold.
37. Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.
38. He adored his proud wife, but he was in mortal fear of her fierce temper.
39. We are few, but we are of the right sort.
40. Be diligent and you will succeed.
41. It seems too good to be true, nevertheless it is a fact.
42. Resist the devil, and he will flee from you.
43. I will recover it, or die in the attempt.
44. Take a farthing from a hundred pounds, and it will be a hundred pounds no longer.
45. He has lost all his teeth, consequently he cannot eat hard food.
46. Give him an inch and he'll take an ell.
47. Hear him out, and you will understand him the better.
48. Advance another step, and you are a dead man.
49. Send the deed after me and I will sign it.
50. He was very learned and seemed to know everything.
51. He was ambitious and therefore I killed him.
52. We landed at Karachi, and there we spent a very enjoyable week.
53. We called upon Mr. Pundit and he introduced us to his partner.
54. He was my friend, therefore I loved him.

EXERCISE 84

Convert the following Compound sentences to Complex sentences.

1. Give me the book and I will read it.
2. Take quinine and your fever will be cured.
3. I tell him to be quiet and he takes no notice.
4. He is deaf but he will always pretend to hear.
5. You have paid the bill but you will get no more credit.
6. I ran all the way to the station but I missed the train.
7. Rama is a better player than Krishna and therefore he must take his place in the team.
8. You called me and here I am.
9. The master is nearly blind and the boys are very sorry for him.
10. We will win or die.
11. Let me come in, or I will break down the door.
12. Be careful in your diet and you will keep health.
13. Listen and I will tell you all.
14. He is very agreeable but I don't like him.
15. It is cold, so I shall wear a coat.
16. Send me the gun and I will mend it.
17. Be good and you need not be clever.
18. Follow me, or you will lose your way.
19. You ordered the goods and so they have been sent.
20. You must pay, or else sign a chit.
21. I do not like his lectures and so I don't attend them.
22. He ran away, or they would have killed him.
23. He has injured me but I will forgive him.
24. Be quiet, or I shall punish you.
25. Be just and fear not.
26. He was never present, but he always sent a deputy.
27. Be kind and help me.
28. Pay heed to the small details and the general plan will surely succeed.
29. He is certain to be late, so why wait for him ?
30. You or I must go away.
31. Sri Lanka went in first on a very wet wicket, and so they lost the match.
32. They tried to bribe the peon but he was too clever for them.

6. Conversion of Complex Sentences to Compound

86. Study the following examples.

Complex. I am certain you have made a mistake.
Compound. You have made a mistake, and of this I am certain.
Complex. I am glad that he has recovered from illness.
Compound. He has recovered from illness, and I am glad of it.
Complex. We can prove that the earth is round.
Compound. The earth is round, and we can prove it.
Complex. I have found the book that I had lost.
Compound. I had lost a book, but I have found it.
Complex. As soon as he got the telegram, he left in a taxi.
Compound. He got the telegram, and immediately he left in a taxi.
Complex. He worked hard so that he might win the prize.
Compound. He aimed at winning the prize and worked hard.
Complex. If he is at home, I shall see him.
Compound. He may be at home, and in that case I shall see him.
Complex. He lost more than he could afford.
Compound. He could afford to lose something, but he lost somewhat more.
Complex. He is more a philosopher than a poet.
Compound. He is something of a poet, but rather more of a philosopher.
Complex. If you do not hurry you will miss the train.
Compound. You must hurry, or you will miss the train.
Complex. Unless we do our work well our master will be angry with us.
Compound. We must do our work well, or our master will be angry with us.
Complex. We sow so that we may reap.
Compound. We desire to reap, therefore we sow.

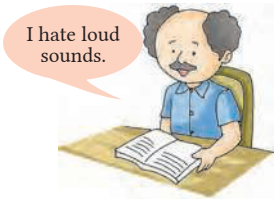

EXERCISE 85

Convert from Complex to Compound sentences.

1. Once upon a time a man owned a hen which laid everyday a golden egg.
2. We selected this bicycle after we had tried several times.
3. It is surprising that he did not succeed.
4. If you do not take exercise, you will be ill.
5. If you run, you will be in time.
6. He ran away because he was afraid.
7. As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
8. Although he saw the danger, he pressed on.
9. Though you try with all your might, you will not succeed.
10. I shall not go unless I am invited.
11. If you eat too much you will be ill.
12. A book's a book, although there's nothing in it.
13. Unless you keep quiet, you will be punished.
14. As Caesar loved me, I weep for him.
15. Because you have done this I shall punish you.
16. As soon as he heard the news he wrote to me.
17. When you have rested, go on with the work.
18. I forgave him because he was dying.
19. He stayed at home because he was ill.
20. His father still trusted him though he had deceived him.
21. Though the sky falls, he will not be frightened.
22. He was educated at a public school where he learnt Latin.
23. I struck him because he ventured to obstruct my path.
24. They went to war that they might extend their empire.
25. Although they fought most valiantly, they were defeated.
26. He writes so illegibly that I cannot read his letter.
27. I know what you told him.
28. The ship was steered so skillfully that it reached the harbour safely.
29. You must be respectable if you would be respected.
30. As he was ambitious, I killed him.
31. Though often capricious and impertinent, she was never out of temper.
32. Though the waves are raging high, I'll row you o'er the ferry.
33. He finished first though he began late.
34. Though he tries hard, he is seldom successful.
35. When the sun set he returned home.
36. Since duty calls us, we must obey.
37. He had a cow that gave enormous quantities of milk.
38. He failed because he was too rash.
39. We eat so that we may live.
40. He was so learned that he seemed to know everything.

EXERCISE 86

Convert the following Complex sentences to Compound sentences.

1. Rama went to school as soon as he had finished his meal.
2. If I ask a civil question I expect a civil reply.
3. They have never been poor since they opened that shop.
4. I could answer if I chose.
5. We might admire a bad man though we cannot admire a weak one.
6. I advise you to try although you may not succeed.
7. I spoke plainly so that you might understand.
8. He feigned sleep as he had an object in doing so.
9. He gave himself up because the flight was useless.
10. As we are here we will stay here.

11. I do not think he will come.
12. I know there is a rupee in your hand.
13. Come when you like.
14. I shall come when I am in better health.
15. I would have shot the snake if I had seen it.
16. His precept is as beautiful as his practice is disgraceful.

17. At Rome we must behave as the Romans do.
18. He fell as I fired.
19. If you come here you will repent it.
20. I have never heard from him since he left Mumbai.
21. He went to the house so that he might leave a message.
22. Unless we run we shall miss the train.
23. As soon as the sun touches the horizon darkness begins to settle upon the scene.
24. However clever you may be, you cannot succeed without industry.

25. Do this, lest a worse thing befall.
26. If you trust to the book you will find yourself in difficulties.
27. We may lose all without regret, if we may keep our honour sustained.
28. Bad as things are they might be worse.
29. You may go when you have finished your work.
30. His bark is worse than his bite.
31. If I am right you must be wrong.

EXERCISE 87

(Miscellaneous) Recast the following sentences as directed.

1. A soldier of the tenth legion leaped into the water as soon as the ship touched the shore. (Begin with *No sooner.*)
2. We have helped them with money as well as a body of workers, all well-trained and experienced. (Use the expression 'not only' and 'everyone'.)
3. Mrs. Smith is the wisest member of the family and of her four daughters Jane is the prettiest. (Use the comparatives of 'wise' and 'pretty'.)
4. The difficulty was solved by means of a special service devised for the occasion. (Make the word 'service' the subject.)
5. The lady was compelled by the doctor to drink such vile medicine that she was all but killed by him. (Use the active voice throughout.)
6. You are already as well acquainted with these affairs as I am. (Use 'known' for 'acquainted'.)
7. As soon as Sir Roger had seated himself, he called for wax candles. (Use 'no sooner' for 'as soon as'.)
8. When supper had been prepared, Robinson Crusoe sat down expecting to enjoy himself greatly. (Use noun forms instead of 'prepared' and 'expecting'.)

9. Nelson knew the value of obedience so well that he anticipated some censure for his act. (Rewrite this sentence, using 'too' for 'so'.)
10. The secretary sent me no reply for ten days. (Rewrite, using the verb 'reply' instead of the noun.)
11. Have a look at the newspaper and you will find a lot of space devoted to advertisements. (Begin with *if.*)
12. Her reason for not going with us was that she had no money. (Use *therefore.*)
13. Besides having a salary, he also has a private income. (Use *not only* ..... *but*)
14. His parents were compelled by poverty to send him abroad so that he might earn his own living. (Simple sentence, active voice)

15. His fondness for games increases with his proficiency. (Complex sentence, using 'the.....the' and adjectives to replace the abstract nouns.)
16. Of all the men I know none is less inclined than he is to believe ill of others. (Reduce to two clauses.)
17. When the monsoon broke, the temperature fell rapidly. (Simple sentence, 'break' as subject ; replace 'fell' by noun.)
18. He has squandered his fortune, estranged his friends and ruined his health by his recklessness and extravagance. (Use 'not only.....but'.)

19. He has discovered new facts and advanced new arguments, but my opinion is unchanged. (Complex sentence ; negative principal clause with verb in active voice; two adjectival clauses.)
20. He is notoriously mean in his treatment of his servants. (Rewrite in four ways–(1) Simple sentence with 'treatment' as subject; (2) Simple sentence with 'treat' as the verb ; (3) Complex sentence with a noun clause ; (4) Complex sentence with an adjective clause and 'meanness' as subject of the principal clause.)
21. You can imagine my annoyance on learning of the postponement of the football match. (Complex sentence ; three subordinate clauses.)
22. His sole income is what he earns by his pen. (Make the principal clause negative.)
23. A sailing ship was wrecked here last December. (Rewrite in three ways so as to emphasize (1) 'sailing', (2) 'here', (3) 'December'.)
24. It is probable that he will come back. (Simple sentence; replace 'probable' and 'come back' by nouns.)

Chapter 12 SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES

Combination of Two or More Simple Sentences into a Single Simple Sentence

87. **Synthesis** is the opposite of Analysis and means the combination of a number of simple sentences into one new sentence–Simple, Compound or Complex.

88. The following are the chief ways of combining two or more Simple sentences into one Simple sentence.

(i) By using a Participle

1. He jumped up. He ran away.
   Jumping up, he ran away.
2. He was tired of play. He sat down to rest.
   Tired (*or,* being tired) of play, he sat down to rest.

(ii) By using a Noun or a Phrase in Apposition

1. This is my friend. His name is Rama.
   This is my friend Rama.
2. I spent two days in Cox's Bazar. It is one of the most attractive spots in Bangladesh.
   I spent two days in Cox's Bazar, one of the most attractive spots in Bangladesh.
3. This town was once a prosperous seaport. It is now a heap of ruins.
   This town, once a prosperous seaport, is now a heap of ruins.

(iii) By using a Preposition with a Noun or Gerund

1. The moon rose. Their journey was not ended.
   The moon rose before the end of their journey.
2. He has failed many times. He still hopes to succeed.
   In spite of many failures he hopes to succeed.
3. Her husband died. She heard the news. She fainted.
   On hearing the news of her husband's death, she fainted.

(iv) By using the Nominative Absolute Construction

1. The soldiers arrived. The mob dispersed.
   The soldiers having arrived, the mob dispersed.
2. The town was enclosed by a strong wall. The enemy was unable to capture it.
   The town having been enclosed by a strong wall, the enemy was unable to capture it.

(v) By using an Infinitive

1. I have some duties. I must perform them.
   I have some duties to perform.
2. We must finish this exercise. There are still three sentences.
   We have still three sentences of this exercise to finish.
3. He wanted to educate his son. He sent him to Europe.
   He sent his son to Europe to be educated.
4. He is very fat. He cannot run.
   He is too fat to run.

(vi) By using an Adverb or an Adverbial Phrase

1. He deserved to succeed. He failed.
   He failed undeservedly.
2. The sun set. The boys had not finished the game.
   The boys had not finished the game by sunset.

89. Several of these methods may be combined in the same sentence.
The sun rose. The fog dispersed. The general determined to delay no longer. He gave the order to advance.
At sunrise, the fog having dispersed, the general, determined to delay no longer gave the order to advance.

EXERCISE 88

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Participles. (You have to use the Nominative Absolute Construction in some of your sentences.)

1. He hurt his foot. He stopped.
2. The thief had been in prison before. He received severe sentences.
3. He was unwilling to go any further. He returned home.
4. They saw the uselessness of violence. They changed their policy.
5. He was weary of failure. He emigrated to Africa.
6. The King was warned of his danger. He made good his escape.
7. He lost a large sum of money. He gave up speculation.
8. I received no answer. I knocked a second time.
9. His wife encouraged him. He persevered.
10. He gave up his situation. He was not satisfied with his salary.
11. He felt tired. He laid his work aside.
12. He went straight on. He saw Hari on the path.
13. The stable door was open. The horse was stolen.
14. The hunter took up his gun. He went out to shoot the lion.
15. I went to Mumbai last year. I wished to see a dentist.
16. A crow stole a piece of cheese. She flew to her nest to enjoy the tasty meal.
17. The magician took pity on the mouse. He turned it into a cat.
18. A passenger alighted from the train. He fell over a bag on the platform.
19. My sister was charmed with the silk. She bought ten yards.
20. I did not hear his answer. It was spoken quietly.
21. The ship was delayed by a storm. She came into port a day late.
22. He had resolved on a certain course. He acted with vigour.
23. The letter was badly written. I had great difficulty in making out its contents.
24. A hungry fox saw some bunches of grapes They were hanging from a vine.
25. Cinderella hurried away with much haste. She dropped one of her little glass-slippers.
26. I was walking along the street one day. I saw a dead snake.
27. He was overpowered. He surrendered.
28. He ran at top speed. He got out of breath.
29. He possessed all the advantages of education and wealth. He never made a name.
30. He was occupied with important matters. He had no leisure to see visitors.
31. The Russians burnt Moscow. The French were forced to quit it.
32. The votes on each side were equal. The chairman gave his casting vote against the resolution.
33. Wolsey lost the favour of his master. He was dismissed from his high offices.
34. He is a big boy. He is very strong. He is in the foot-ball team.
35. He came to me. He wanted leave. He was ill.
36. I heard Abdul. He was shouting very loudly. He was calling me.
37. He raised his gun. He took aim. He shot the tiger.
38. He could not eat hard food. He was very old. He had lost his teeth.
39. I have told you the facts. I have nothing more to say. I will sit down.
40. I was returning home. I saw a man. He looked very ill. He was lying by the roadside.

EXERCISE 89

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Nouns or Phrases in Apposition.

1. There goes my brother. He is called Sohrab.
2. The cow provides milk. Milk is a valuable food.
3. Mr. Pundit was elected President. He is a well-known Sanskrit scholar.
4. Coal is a very important mineral. It is hard, bright, black and brittle.
5. We saw the picture. It is a very fine piece of work.

6. Geoffrey Chaucer was born in 1340. He is the first great English poet.
7. Tagore's most famous work is the *Gitanjali*. It is a collection of short poems.
8. His only son died before him. He was a lad of great promise.
9. His uncle was a millionaire. He sent him to England for his education.
10. The dog bit the man. He was a notorious burglar.
11. Bruno is my faithful dog. I love him.
12. Jawaharlal Nehru died in 1964. He was the first Prime Minister of India.
13. De Lesseps made the Suez Canal. This was a great work. He was a French engineer.
14. Mr. Pundit lives in Dustipore. He is the Collector. It is a large town.

EXERCISE 90

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Prepositions with Nouns or Gerunds.

1. He attended to his duties. He earned promotion.
2. He must confess his fault. He may thus escape punishment.
3. He was ill last term. He was unable to attend school.
4. I forgave him his fault. That has not prevented him from repeating it.
5. The bugle sounded. The weary soldiers leapt to their feet.
6. The word of command will be given. You will then fire.
7. He set traps every night. He cleared his house of rats.
8. The judge gave his decision. The court listened silently.
9. He expects to obtain leave. He has already bought his steamer ticket.
10. He has a good record. It is impossible to suspect such a man.
11. Even a bird will defend its young ones. It then shows great courage.
12. There was a want of provisions. The garrison could hold out no longer.
13. You helped me. Otherwise I should have been drowned.
14. I have examined the statement. I find many errors in it.
15. He is free from disease. At least he appears to be so.
16. His son died. This gave him a shock. He never fully recovered from it.
17. He took the law in his own hands. He was not justified in doing so.
18. It rained hard. The streets were flooded.
19. He made heroic efforts to succeed. He failed.
20. The weather is pleasant. It is a little cold however.
21. He was rude. I took no notice of it.
22. He has stolen the purse. There is no doubt about this.
23. She wants to marry a foreigner. Her father is opposed to this.
24. He entered the room with his hat on. His behaviour surprised me.
25. He got great honour. He saved the life of the Rajah.
26. There was an advertisement in the newspaper. His interest was aroused.
27. He amused us very much. He sang a funny song.
28. The prince was ill. The people heard of it. They crowded to the palace.
29. The prince recovered. The people received the news. They were very enthusiastic.
30. He makes a lot of money. He buys horses. He sells horses.
31. I saw a *soldier*. He had a lance in his hand. He had a sword by his side.
32. She stood there for hours. She did not move. She did not speak.
33. The discovery of his crime was a heavy blow. His reputation suffered. His business decreased.

EXERCISE 91

Combine each set of sentences into one simple sentence by using the Nominative Absolute construction.

1. His friend arrived. He was very pleased.
2. The rain fell. The crops revived.
3. The storm ceased. The sun came out.
4. The troops were ordered out. The police were unable to hold the mob in check.
5. The holidays are at an end. Boys are returning to school.
6. The wind failed. The crew set to work with a will.
7. It was a very hot day. I could not do my work satisfactorily.
8. His house has been burned down. He lives in an hotel.
9. The king died. His eldest son came to the throne.
10. His father was dead. He had to support his widowed mother.
11. Rain was plentiful this year. Rice is cheap.
12. The secretaryship was vacant. Nobody was willing to undertake duties of the post. I offered my services.
13. The prisoner was questioned. No witness came forward. The Judge dismissed the case.
14. The sun rose. The fog cleared away. The lighthouse was seen less than a mile away.
15. He fired his gun. The ball went high. The tiger sprang on him.
16. The master was out of the room. The door was shut. The boys made a lot of noise.

EXERCISE 92

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Infinitives.

1. He had no money. He could not give any away.
2. I have told you all. There is nothing more to be said.
3. He cannot afford a motor-car. He is too poor.
4. I heard of his good fortune. I was glad of that.
5. The information is of no use to us. It has come too late.
6. Your father will hear of your success. He will be delighted.
7. You did not invest all your savings in one concern. You were prudent.
8. He did not have even a rupee with him. He could not buy a loaf of bread.
9. The Pathan took out a knife. His intention was to frighten the old man.
10. I speak the truth. I am not afraid of it.
11. He wants to earn his livelihood. He works hard for that reason.
12. The strikers held a meeting. They wished to discuss the terms of the employers.
13. He has five children. He must provide for them.
14. Napoleon was one of the greatest of generals. This is universally acknowledged.
15. His Majesty desired to kill Gulliver secretly. Various means were employed for this purpose.
16. I will speak the truth. I am not afraid of the consequences.
17. He is very honourable. He will not break his word.
18. He has some bills. He must pay them.
19. He must apologise. He will not escape punishment otherwise.
20. He keeps some fierce dogs. They will guard his house. They will keep away robbers.

EXERCISE 93

Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence by using Adverbs or Adverbial Phrases.

1. I accept your statement. I do it without reserve.
2. He answered me. His answer was correct.
3. He forgot his umbrella. That was careless.
4. He is a bad boy. This is certain.
5. The train is very late. That is usual.

6. I shall come back. I shall not be long.
7. He kicked the goal-keeper. It was his intention to do so.
8. He was obstinate. He refused to listen to advice.
9. He spent all his money. This was foolish.
10. He was not at the meeting. His absence was unavoidable.
11. He applied for leave. It was not granted.
12. He admitted his error. He expressed his regret.
13. I met him only once. It was in a railway carriage.
14. He has succeeded. His success has been beyond my expectation.
15. It must be done. The cost does not count.
16. I have read Bacon. It has profited me greatly.
17. He persevered. He was not deterred by obstacles.
18. The door was open. It looked rather suspicious.
19. He is not qualified for the post. He is not qualified in any degree.
20. The blow dazed him. That condition lasted only for a time.
21. I did not eat any of the poisoned food. This was lucky.
22. He solved the problem. Its solution took him no time.
23. He visited Ooty. He did so for reasons of health.
24. He accomplished the task. He brought unflagging industry to his accomplishment.
25. Boys grow up to be men. The growth is very slow. It cannot be seen.
26. Rama struck Krishna. His blows were cruel. They were frequent. There was no reason for this.

EXERCISE 94

(Miscellaneous) Combine each set of sentences into one Simple sentence.

1. Homer was a great poet. He was born somewhere. Nobody knows where.
2. He was a leader. He did not follow other men. Such was his nature.
3. I bought this hat two years ago. It is still good. It is fit to wear.
4. He devoted himself to public affairs. He never took a holiday. This continued for thirty years.
5. Clive made proposals. Some opposed the proposals. The majority supported them. They were carried.
6. Clive was determined to reform the administration. Reforms were needed. He informed the council accordingly.
7. The man was innocent. He could have defended himself. He refused to speak. He was afraid of convicting his friend.
8. He was in prison. His friend was in the next cell. There was a brick wall between the cells. He made a hole in the wall. He was able to talk to his friend.
9. The boy was drowning. He shouted for help. A workman heard the boy's shouts. He plunged into the river. He risked his own life.
10. The traveller was toiling slowly over the desert. He suddenly turned round. He heard his companion's voice. His companion was crying for help.
11. We returned down the valley of the Jumna. We came first to Delhi. Delhi is the capital of India.
12. The art of printing was introduced into England during the reign of Edward IV. The art of printing was introduced by William Caxton. William Caxton was a native of Kent.
13. He struck his foot against a stone. He fell to the ground. He made his clothes very dirty.
14. The sun shone on the corn. The corn ripened. It did this in a short time. The farmer was filled with joy.
15. He opened his letters. He read them carefully. He sent for his clerk. He dictated answers to them.
16. He paid all his late father's debts. This was a very honest proceeding. It was very creditable to him.
17. He has two horses. He must feed them. He must water them. He must groom them. He must bring them to his master at 12 o'clock.
18. He goes to school. He wishes to learn. He wants to grow up honest, healthy and clever.
19. There was a man hiding in my garden. He was armed with a gun. He was a Pathan. My notice was drawn to it.

20. The soldiers were starving. Their ammunition was expended. Their clothes were in rags. Their leaders were dead. The enemy easily defeated them.
21. Napoleon was the first Emperor of the French. He was a great soldier. He inspired his armies with the most war-like spirit. This was the cause of their many victories.
22. Wellington was the greatest of English admirals. Napoleon was the greatest of French soldiers. They were contemporaries. They were the heroes of their respective countries.
23. The miser laughed. He found himself to be richer by a rupee. He saw his adversary outwitted.
24. He hardened his heart. He wished to punish the people mercilessly. He wanted to make an example of them once and for all.
25. He receives much gratitude. He performs kindly actions. He is not harsh in the execution of his duty. He does not oppress the poor.
26. His friends assembled. They offered him their congratulations upon his safe return. Everybody was comfortably seated. He described all his adventures.
27. The thieves poisoned the dog. He had brought it from England. He had trained it carefully to protect his property.
28. Vultures appeared one after another. They were wheeling round and round. They were descending towards the spot. They had cruel beaks and talons.
29. The room was covered with blood. It stained the walls and ceiling. It darkened the floor. It flowed in a stream under the door. It stood in puddles everywhere.
30. The house had been pulled down. Another had been built in its place. It was difficult to identify the exact spot.
31. He earned the hatred of all good men. He incited youths to crime. He furnished them with means. He himself kept safely out of the way in time of danger.
32. He copied from the next boy. This was a mean and dishonest action. It brought disgrace upon him. He was punished for it.
33. He had not sufficient courage. He could not face the opposition of his caste fellows. He could not go away from his native place to begin life afresh.
34. Rabindranath Tagore founded Shantiniketan. He was a Nobel laureate. He was the author of the national anthem.
35. He could not finish his work. He had no opportunity. He could not do much of it in fact. He was very often ill. He was frequently absent.
36. The criminal was a man of his own caste. He was an ungrateful and incorrigible wretch . He had often helped him.
37. He went for a walk one day. He saw a wounded bird. He picked it up. He brought it home. He carefully tended it for some time. It completely recovered. This gave him great joy.
38. I knew a boy at school. He is now famous as a soldier. He is known to the tribesmen as the 'Sleepless One'. He is greatly feared by them.
39. The water had boiled. The tea was made. The food was ready. The table was spread. They sat down to eat and drink.
40. He deserves my thanks. He found my purse. He returned it to me. He took nothing out of it.
41. I saw a dog. It had three legs. It had only one ear. It was a terrier. It was a well-bred little animal.
42. He must clean all the silver. He must put it away. He must lock it up. He must bring me the key of the box. These were my orders to him.
43. The horse had many of the points of a racer. It had slim legs. It had high withers. It had powerful quarters. It had a tremendous stride.
44. He was a great statesman. He had worked well for his country. He was very popular. He was awarded the title of 'Bharat Ratna'.
45. Wood was collected. Camp fires were lighted. Food was cooked. Food was eaten. The army lay down to sleep.
46. He alienated his friends. His conduct was disgraceful. He was put in gaol.
47. Rama had a wide knowledge of the business. Krishna had the necessary capital. They combined resources. They entered into partnership.
48. Their father had a large sum of money. He divided it equally between them by his will. The daughters were eagerly sought in marriage.
49. The ground is soft and marshy. There are many frogs. Snakes abound there. They are the enemies of mankind.
50. His hopes are high. His superiors are pleased with him. He is justified in hoping.
51. He rode along for hours. He did not strike his horse. He did not spur it.

52. I have some advice. I must give it to you. I must impress it strongly upon you.
53. I hear rumours about Laxman. He is an old pupil of mine. He is a good cricketer. He is a good football player. He is not a steady worker.
54. He was delighted with the intelligence and brightness of the scholars. He overlooked the fact of their knowing few things by heart.
55. He built a house. It had many large doors. It had many large windows. It had wide verandahs. It had a general air of coolness and comfort.
56. He told a story. It was about a man. The man had great strength. He was a famous warrior.
57. He came to Mumbai. He wished to see his father. He had some business to settle.
58. After the storm the boat had no mast. It could not keep before the wind. It could not return to port.
59. The cage contains a tiger. The cage was strongly built. It was so built for this purpose.
60. The ancient myths of India have been preserved in the minds of the people. They have been preserved with great care. This has been done by priests. It has also been done by the learned men. These are the guardians of the lamp of learning.

Chapter 13 SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES (CONTD.)

Combination of Two or More Simple Sentences into a Single Compound Sentence

90. Simple sentences may be combined to form Compound sentences by the use of Co-ordinative Conjunctions. These are of four kinds–Cumulative, Adversative, Alternative, and Illative.

A. 1. Night came on. The room grew dark.
Night came on *and* the room grew dark.
2. He is a fool. He is a knave.
He is a fool *and* a knave.
[Or] He is *both* a fool *and* a knave.
[Or] He is *not only* a fool *but also* a knave.
[Or] He is a fool *as well as* a knave.
3. The wind blew. The rain fell. The lightning flashed.
The wind blew, the rain fell, *and* the lightning flashed.

It will be noticed that the conjunction *and* simply *adds* one statement to another.

The conjunctions *both....and, not only...but also, as well as* are emphatic forms of *and* and do the same work.

Conjunctions which merely *add* one statement to another are called **Cumulative.**

B. 1. He is slow. He is sure.
He is slow *but* he is sure.
2. I was annoyed. I kept quiet.
I was annoyed, *still* (or *yet)* I kept quiet.
3. He failed. He persevered.
He failed, *nevertheless* he persevered.
4. I shall not oppose your design. I cannot approve of it.
I shall not oppose your design; I cannot, *however,* approve of it.
5. He was all right. He was fatigued.
He was all right; *only* he was fatigued.

It will be noticed that the conjunctions *but, still, yet, nevertheless, however,* express a *contrast* between one sentence and the other. Some of these conjunctions (*still, yet, however, nevertheless*) are more emphatic than *but.*

Conjunctions which express opposition or *contrast* between two statements are called **Adversative**.

C. 1. Make haste. You will be late.
Make haste *or* you will be late.
2. Come in. Go out.
Come in *or* go out.
[Or more emphatically]. *Either* come in *or* go out.

3. Do not be a borrower. Do not be a lender.
Do not be a borrower *or* a lender.
Or : Be *neither* a borrower *nor* a lender.

It will be noticed that the conjunctions *or, either ....or, neither.....nor,* express a *choice* between two alternatives.

Conjunctions which express a *choice* between two alternatives are called **Alternative.**

D. 1. He was obstinate. He was punished.
He was obstinate; *therefore* he was punished.
2. I cannot see. It is very dark.
I cannot see, *for* it is very dark.
3. It is raining heavily. I will take an umbrella with me.
It is raining heavily, *so* I will take an umbrella with me.

It will be noticed that the conjunctions *therefore, for, so,* etc., join sentences in which one statement is *inferred* from the other.

Conjunctions which express an *inference* are called **Illative.**

1. Abdul is ill. He cannot study. He still attends school.
Abdul is ill and cannot study, yet he still attends school.
2. He saw the boy in the street. He stopped to speak to him. He gave him a rupee.
Seeing the boy in the street, he stopped to speak to him and gave him a rupee.

EXERCISE 95

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Compound sentence.

1. He does well. He is nervous at the start.
2. The way was long. The wind was cold.
3. It is raining heavily. I will take an umbrella with me.
4. The harvest truly is plenteous. The labourers are few.
5. It was a stormy night. We ventured out.
6. Football is a vigorous and healthy game. Every boy should play it.
7. He is foolish. He is also obstinate.
8. I am in the right. You are in the wrong.
9. We can travel by land. We can travel by water.
10. The train was wrecked. No one was hurt.
11. The paper is good. The binding is very bad.
12. We must hasten. The robbers will overtake us.
13. The prince married the beautiful princess. They lived happily ever after.
14. The river is deep and swift. I am afraid to dive into it.
15. He was fined. He was sent to prison.
16. You may go to the theatre. Rama may go to the theatre.
17. Bruce was lying on his bed. He looked up to the roof. He saw a spider.
18. I cried out sadly. I beat my head and breast. I threw myself down on the ground.
19. You may play hockey. You may play football. You must do either of the two.
20. You may be wrong. Rashid may be wrong. You cannot both be right.
21. I got up. I looked about everywhere. I could not perceive my companions.
22. In Hyderabad I visited Charminar, Golkonda Fort and Birla Mandir. I could not visit Salar Jung Museum.
23. A is equal to B. B is equal to C. A is equal to C.
24. Most of the rebels were slain. A few escaped. They hid in the woods and marshes. The rebellion was quickly suppressed.
25. He was my school-fellow. He has become a great man. He has grown proud. He forgets his old friends.
26. I did not see you. I should have spoken to you. I had important news. Delay was dangerous.
27. Make haste. You will be late. There is no other train till midnight. That train is a slow one.
28. Their boats are made of a kind of bark. They are very light. They can easily be carried on the shoulders.

29. The emu, or Australian ostrich, does not sit on its eggs. It covers them up with leaves and grass. It leaves them to be hatched by the heat of the sun.
30. We must catch the 5 o'clock train. There is only half an hour left. We must start without further delay.
31. A timid dog is dangerous. He always suspects ill-treatment. He tries to protect himself by snapping.
32. A husbandman had sown some corn in his fields. He had only recently done so. Cranes came to eat the corn. The husbandman fixed a net in his fields to catch the cranes.
33. The monsoon failed. The tanks became almost empty. No grain could be sown. A famine was feared. The ryots looked anxiously for the next monsoon. It proved unusually abundant. The danger was averted.
34. The second class carriage is full. We may pay first class fare. We may not travel first class with second class tickets. That is forbidden.
35. He is a rich man. He did not earn his wealth. He does not appreciate the value of money. He squanders it.
36. He beat me in the race. He is a year older. He naturally runs faster. Next year I may do better.
37. The storm abated. The sun shone. The ship-wrecked mariners could see no sign of land. They were adrift in mid-ocean.
38. Generally your conduct is good. You have been guilty of an act of folly. You will not be punished. I advise you to be more prudent in future.
39. I lost my way. I asked a policeman to direct me. He was new to his work. He could not help me. He called a gentleman passing by to my assistance.
40. The engine-driver saw the danger. He applied the brakes. The line was greasy. The brakes failed to act quickly. The train crashed into the gates at the crossing. The engine left the rails.
41. The rain fell steadily for several days. The river overflowed its banks. The terrified villagers abandoned their homes. They fled to the higher ground. Soon the floods retired. The villagers were able to return.

Chapter 14 SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES (CONTD.)

Combination of Two or More Simple Sentences into a Single Complex Sentence

I. Subordinate Clause a Noun Clause

91. In the following examples the Subordinate clause is a Noun clause.

1. You are drunk. That aggravates your offence.
   That you are drunk aggravates your offence.
2. He will be late. That is certain.
   It is certain that he will be late.
3. You are repentant. I will not forget it.
   I will not forget that you are repentant.
4. He may be innocent. I do not know.
   I do not know whether he is innocent.
5. He is short-sighted.Otherwise he is fit for the post.
   Except that he is short-sighted he is fit for the post.
6. The clouds would disperse. That was our hope. Our hope was cheering.
   Our hope that the clouds would disperse, was cheering.
7. The game was lost. It was the consequence of his carelessness.
   The consequence of his carelessness was that the game was lost.

II. Subordinate Clause an Adjective Clause

92. In the following examples the Subordinate clause is an Adjective clause:

1. A fox once met a lion. The fox had never seen a lion before.
   A fox who had never seen a lion before met him.
2. She keeps her ornaments in a safe. This is the safe.
   This is the safe where she keeps her ornaments.
3. A cottager and his wife had a hen. The hen laid an egg everyday. The egg was golden.
   A cottagger and his wife had a hen which laid an egg everyday.

III. Subordinate Clause an Adverb Clause

93. In the following examples the Subordinate clause is an Adverb clause.

1. Indira Gandhi died in 1984. Rajiv Gandhi thereafter became Prime Minister.
   When Indira Gandhi died in 1984, Rajiv Gandhi became Prime Minister.
2. I waited for my friend. I waited till his arrival.
   I waited for my friend until he came.
3. He fled somewhere. His pursuers could not follow him.
   He fled where his pursuers could not follow him.
4. Let men sow anything. They will reap its fruit.
   As men sow, so shall they reap.
5. You are strong. I am equally strong.
   I am as strong as you are.
6. He was not there. I spoke to his brother for that reason.
   As he was not there, I spoke to his brother.
7. We wish to live. We eat for that purpose.
   We eat so that we may live.
8. He was quite tired. He could scarcely stand.
   He was so tired that he could scarcely stand.
9. Don't eat too much. You will be ill.
   If you eat too much you will be ill.
10. He began late. He finished first.
    He finished first though be began late.
11. I shall come. My being alone is a condition.
    I shall come if I am alone.
12. I must know all the facts. I cannot help you otherwise.
    Before I can help you, I must know all the facts.
13. He is superstitious. He is equally wicked.
    He is as superstitious as he is wicked.

EXERCISE 96

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Complex sentence containing a Noun clause.

1. He is wrong. I am sure of it.
2. You deceived him. That was his complaint.
3. The train will arrive at a certain time. Do you know the time?
4. All the planets except for Pluto travel round the sun the same way and in the same plane. I have often told you this truth.
5. He will waste his time. That is certain.
6. Where have you put my hat ? Tell me.
7. He is short-tempered. I like him all the same.
8. Is it time for the train to start ? Ask the guard.
9. It is going to rain. I am sure of it.
10. Something may be worth doing. It is only worth doing well.
11. He is a sincere worker. No one can doubt this fact.
12. He said something. I did not hear it.
13. How did you find that out ? Tell me.
14. You have made a mistake. I think so.
15. Who wrote *Shakuntala* ? Can you tell me that ?
16. You stole the purse. Do you deny it ?
17. I am very sorry. I cannot adequately express my sorrow.
18. We have been deceived. That is the truth.
19. How did Netaji Subhash Chandra Bose die? It is a mystery.
20. He will succeed. We expect it.
21. What have you done ? Tell me.

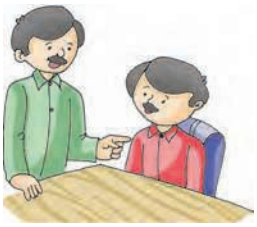

22. We wished to know. We were going somewhere.
23. We were nearing some waterfall. It was evident from the distant roar of water.
24. A certain number of the enemy escaped. We do not know this number.
25. The two friends quarrelled. I want to know the reason.
26. He is a great orator. This fact cannot be denied.
27. Columbus made an egg stand on its end. I will show you his method.
28. I have seen this man somewhere before. I cannot remember the place.
29. He will arrive some time. I do not know the time of his arrival.
30. He distrusts his own sons. It is difficult to understand the reason.

EXERCISE 97

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Complex sentence containing an Adjective clause.

1. The theft was committed last night. The man has been caught.
2. The French and Italian languages are different from the Latin language. Latin was once spoken in almost every part of Europe.
3. The time was six o'clock. The accident happened then.
4. You are not keeping good health lately. Can you tell me the reason ?
5. He has many plans for earning money quickly. All of them have failed.
6. A lion was proud of his strength. He despised the weakness of the mouse.
7. The grapes hung over the garden wall. The fox saw the grapes.
8. That is the school. I was taught there.
9. You put it somewhere. Show me the place.
10. My travelling companion was an old gentleman. His name is Mr. Haq. I met him in Basra.

EXERCISE 98

Combine each set of Simple sentences into one Complex sentence containing an Adverb clause.

1. The nurse must be very tired. She had no sleep last night.
2. A gentleman may call. Please ask him to wait.
3. He ran so quickly. He soon overtook me.
4. I will get ready. Do not go till then.
5. He mended in a very low voice. Nobody could hear him.
6. I wound my watch this morning. It has stopped.
7. It was very stuffy last night. I could not sleep.
8. The monsoon may break this month. Otherwise the wells will run dry.
9. I may help you. I may not help you. You are sure to lose the game.
10. The fireman came out of the house. The roof collapsed that very moment.
11. Success attends hard work. Failure attends bad work.
12. You must hurry. You will miss the train otherwise.
13. The delegates arrived. The discussion was resumed.
14. He is very old. He enjoys good health.
15. No more funds are available. The work has been stopped.
16. He saw me coming. He immediately took to his heels.
17. I may be blunt. I am at least honest.
18. He was contradicted. He was annoyed.
19. He bled profusely. He died.
20. This may be true of some. It is not true of all.
21. He ran quickly. He soon overtook me.
22. I had left home. Your letter arrived afterwards.

23. He saw us. He disappeared immediately.
24. He will not go out in the rain. He is afraid of getting wet.
25. The bandits fought desperately. They could not bear the idea of being taken alive.
26. The sailors cast anchor. They did so to prevent the ship from drifting on the rocks.
27. You make a good deal of noise. I cannot work.
28. We may sail tomorrow. It depends on the weather.
29. It is very simple. Even a child can understand it.
30. He was returning from school. He was caught in a shower.
31. Robinson Crusoe discovered the print of a foot on the sand. He was puzzled.
32. He finished the work. Just then the clock struck five.
33. He is being lionized. He still keeps a level head.
34. Why do you keep your eye on me like this ? Have you turned detective ?
35. We travelled together as far as Kolkata. We parted company there.
36. He is a rich man. No other man in our community is equally rich.
37. You may wish to do the work. You may not wish to do the work. You must still do it.
38. He was sick. He remained at home.
39. You have tears. Prepare to shed them now.
40. He may slay me. I will trust him.
41. He saw me. He ran away then.
42. He came to my house. I was out.
43. His father died. He has been very poor from that time.
44. He grew weaker and weaker. He died.
45. We take off our clothes. We go to bed.
46. He was hanged. He had committed murder.
47. All will respect you. Your being honest is a condition.
48. He is old. He cannot walk.
49. He won the race. He was the swiftest.
50. Life lasts a certain time. Let us be honest during that time.
51. The wolf is larger. The jackal is smaller.
52. Arjun is clever. His cleverness equals Rama's.

94. Carefully study the following sentences.

1. He had read Milton. He had read it in a prose translation. He had read it when he was fourteen. He told us this.

   He told us that he had read Milton, in a prose translation, when he was fourteen.

2. A bachelor may be surrounded with all sorts of luxuries. In spite of that he will always find his happiness incomplete. He must have a wife and children.

   With whatever luxuries a bachelor may be surrounded, he will always find his happiness incomplete, unless he has a wife and children.

3. Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden. Through his whole life he praised him with unvaried liberality. He did so whenever an opportunity was presented.

   Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden, whom, whenever an opportunity was presented, he praised through his whole life with unvaried liberalilty.

4. Milton did not educate his daughters in the languages. He said that one tongue was enough for a woman.

   Milton said that he did not educate his daughters in the languages, beecause one tongue was enough for a woman.

5. I sank into the water. I felt confused. Nothing can describe that confusion.

   Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water.

6. We had in this village an idiot boy. I well remember that boy. From a child he showed a strong propensity for bees. This was some twenty years ago.

   We had in this village, some twenty years ago, an idiot boy, whom I well remember, who from a child showed a strong propensity for bees.

EXERCISE 99

Combine each of the following sets of Simple sentences into one Complex sentence.

1. That is the man. He gave me a dog. It went mad.
2. Rama will not play in the match. The notion is foolish. He is the best player in the school.
3. I wrote the letter. It contained the truth. He praised me for it.
4. Honesty is the best policy. Have you never heard it ?
5. He came to see me. He wanted to tell me something. His father was dead. He had been ill for a long time.
6. The horse has killed a man. I wished to sell it to you. The man was trying to steal it.
7. He took the medicine. He then felt better. It cured his headache.
8. He gave an order. He is obeyed. They fear to offend him.
9. The absence of the girl from her home was unusual. Inquiries were made. They led to no result.
10. Your conduct is very peculiar. I am unable to understand it. It has been described to me.
11. He played exceedingly well in the match. His team won in consequence. The match was played yesterday.
12. He wrote a letter. He wrote it for a certain reason. He wrote it to his superior. He told me about this.

13. I visited his garden. In it there were some beautiful rose trees. The trees were full of bloom. These were red and white in colour.
14. He forsook his dishonest ways. No one would give him work. His dishonest ways had brought him to the depths of poverty.
15. He is sure to receive his pay. It is due to him. Why then does he worry ?
16. He has very bad health. He lives very carefully. It is inexplicable to the doctor. The doctor has attended him for years. He told me this.
17. His servants disliked him. They flattered him. He was very harsh to them.
18. I carefully sighted the rifle. I did not wish to miss. A miss might have cost me my life.
19. The speed of the boat was remarkable. It was going against the current. It was going against the wind. These facts should be kept in mind.
20. He stole a book. It had the owner's name written in it. I was told this. The name was well known to him.
21. They had marched the whole journey at top speed. They wished to surprise the enemy. The journey was very long.
22. My friend is going to Europe. He has got long leave. His brother is already there. He wishes to become a doctor.
23. Rama will not play against the Hindu school. It has a very strong team. He has declared this to be his intention. He does not wish to tire himself before the cup-match. It takes place the next day.
24. The man talks most. That man does least. This very often happens.
25. A man did this. He must have been very strong. There is no doubt of it. Our father says so.
26. He paid a sum of money for the information. He paid it to a certain person. He paid it for some reason. I should like to know the sum, the person and the reason. I could then prosecute him.
27. They had the treasure in some place. The treasure was very valuable. The place was never discovered. They feared pursuit and capture. They hid it in a jungle.
28. He endeavoured to hide the traces of the crime. He had committed it. The reason is not difficult to see.
29. He had not learned to read and write. He was very ignorant. He could not even talk fluently. Such a man should not pretend to be a doctor.

30. The boy had many accomplishments. The father fully described a large number of these to the teacher. He wished to get him admitted to the school.
31. The jackal was pursued by the dogs. It was very hungry. They were well fed. It was caught.
32. He waited longer. He got more angry. He had ordered them to be punctual.
33. You may like it. You may not like it. In either case I shall send you there. It is my duty to do so.
34. Your father succeeded well. Would you like to succeed equally well ? He worked hard. You must work equally hard.
35. You have failed. I am sorry to hear it. You deserved to pass. I think it.
36. You will be allowed to enter for the examination. Your working hard is a condition. The orders are to that effect. They were issued by the Principal.
37. Rama is more clever. Krishna is less clever. I think it. I judge by the results of the examination.

38. There is a will. There is a way too. This is generally true.
39. I heard the news. I went to the hospital. I wished to discover the extent of his injuries. The hospital is not far from my house.
40. You may please him. You may displease him. He will promote you sooner or later accordingly. This is only right.
41. You sow in a certain way. You will reap in the same way. The proverb says this.
42. You may look everywhere. There you will see signs of industry. These signs speak well for the prosperity of the people.
43. I have done much sword-play. The sight of a sword gives pleasure to a man like me. This is undeniable.
44. They played the game very skilfully. No one could have played it more skilfully. They had been thoroughly well trained.
45. He is an idle and careless boy. The report was to this effect. His father received the report. He was very grieved to receive it.

EXERCISE 100

Combine each of the following groups of sentences into one Compound or one Complex sentence in any way you like.

1. I offered him help. He needed help. He persisted in refusing help. I left him to his fate.
2. A famished traveller was toiling over the desert. He found a bag. He was highly delighted. He opened the bag. He found nothing but pearls.
3. Hundreds of men and women have travelled in space. Some have travelled in space for a few days. Others have done it for several months.
4. I was in Sri Lanka in May last. I visited Mihintale. It is regarded as the cradle of Buddhism.
5. Once an oarsman was rowing by himself. He did not look behind him. He met another boat. He crashed into it. He was upset.
6. A dog was running away with a piece of meat. He passed some deep still water. He saw there the reflected image of the meat. He dropped the meat into the deep water. He snatched in vain at the shadow.
7. A fox saw a crow sitting on a tree with a piece of cheese in his mouth. The fox praised the crow's singing. The crow was pleased by the flattery. The crow began to sing. The crow dropped the cheese.
8. A lion was proud of his strength. He despised the weakness of the mouse. He was caught in a net. He could not escape from the net. He was set free by the exertions of the mouse.
9. John signed. John was King of England. He signed a document called the Magna Carta. He was afraid of his barons. He did not care about liberty. He signed the document at Runnymede. Runnymede is on the Thames. It is not far from Windsor.

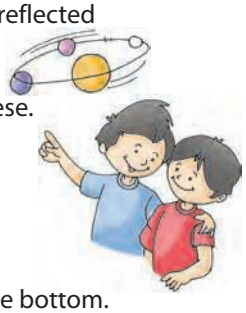

10. The train ran down the incline. The train attained great speed. The train turned a sharp curve at the bottom. The train oscillated under the influence of the brakes. The train threw all the passengers into a panic.
11. A half-starved mouse managed to creep into a basket of corn. The mouse rejoiced in his good fortune. The mouse fed greedily on the corn. The mouse tried to get out of the basket. His body was now too big to pass through the hole.
12. It would not be possible for any life to survive on Venus and Mercury. They are nearer to the sun than the earth. They are very hot planets.
13. A band of ruffians entered a village. The ruffians were well armed. They entered the village at night. Some of the ruffians were escaped convicts. The ruffians stole the cattle of the villagers. The villagers were asleep.
14. My fellow-traveller had a gun. He was boasting of his bravery. Suddenly a bear came behind a rock close in front of us. It stood in our way. It was growling angrily.
15. Mungo Park explored the interior regions of Africa. He was employed by the African Association. The undertaking was hazardous. He
suffered many distresses. Those distresses were often alleviated by the compassion of the negroes.
16. A lion was drinking in a clear pool. His stately mane was reflected by the pool. The lion saw the reflection. He greatly admired his mane. He was afterwards pursued by hunters with their guns. He was pursued through a thick wood. He then found his mane useless and of no avail.
17. The King ordered me to go to a distant village. It was not possible to disobey. I set off for the village. There I was mortified to find no one willing to admit me into his house. I was regarded with astonishment and fear. I was obliged to sit the whole day without victuals. A tree protected me against the heat and the sun.
18. The night was very threatening. The wind rose. There were heavy rain clouds. The wild beasts were numerous thereabout. To escape them it would have been necessary to climb a tree and sit among the branches.

19. The sun set. I was preparing to pass the night in a tree. A negro woman stopped to observe me. She was returning from the labour of the field. She perceived my weariness and dejection. She inquired into my situation. I briefly explained it to her. With a look of compassion she told me to follow her.
20. She conducted me to her hut. She told me to remain there for the night. Then she found me hungry. She procured from outside a fine fish. She caused it to be half boiled upon some embers. She then gave it to me for supper.
21. He had made war on Saxony. He had set the Roman crown upon his own head. He had become famous throughout the whole world. But his fame had not prevented his hair from becoming grey.
22. Augustus probably died a natural death. He was in his seventy-eighth year. He had been reduced to despondency by the disaster in Germany. He was travelling at an unhealthy time of the year. He had exposed himself imprudently to the night air. And all the other particulars are quite opposed to the poison theory.
23. This is not the least part of our happiness. We enjoy the remotest products of the north and south. At the same time we are free from extremities of the weather. Our eyes are refreshed with the green fields of Britain. At the same time our palates are refreshed with tropical fruit.
24. He was a man of haughty and vehement temper. He was treated very ungraciously by the court. He was supported very enthusiastically by the people. He would eagerly take the first opportunity of showing his power and gratifying his resentment. This might be expected.
25. Bonaparte was born a Corsican. He distinguished himself at school. He joined the republican army. He started as corporal. His bravery was remarkable. His mental powers were great. He became the head of the army of Italy. He conquered Egypt. He set aside the republic. He was proclaimed Emperor.
26. He is now gone to his final reward. He was full of years and honours. These honours were especially dear to his heart for the following reasons. They were gratefully bestowed by his pupils. They bound him to the interests of that school. He had been educated in that school. His whole life had been dedicated to its service.

Chapter 15 THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

95. The **Sequence of Tenses** is the principle in accordance with which the Tense of the verb in a subordinate clause *follows* the Tense of the verb in the principal clause. (*Sequence* is connected with the Latin verb *sequor,* follow.)

The Sequence of Tenses applies chiefly to Adverb Clauses of Purpose and Noun Clauses.

96. A Past Tense in the principal clause is followed by a Past Tense in the subordinate clause ; as,

He *hinted* that he *wanted* money.
She *replied* that she *felt* better.
I *found* out that he *was* guilty.
He *saw* that the clock *had* stopped.
He *replied* that he *would* come.
I never *thought* that I *should* see him again.
I *took* care that he *should* not hear me.
They *climbed* higher so that they *might* get a better view.
I *worked* hard so that I *might* succeed.

There are, however, two exceptions to this rule:

(*i*) A Past Tense in the principal clause *may* be followed by a Present Tense in the subordinate clause when the subordinate clause expresses a universal truth ; as,

Newton *discovered* that the force of gravitation makes apples fall.
Galileo *maintained* that the earth *moves* round the sun.
Euclid *proved* that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles.
He *said* that honesty is always the best policy.

(*ii*) When the subordinate clause is introduced by *than,* even if there is a Past Tense in the principal clause, it may be followed by any Tense required by the sense in the subordinate clause ; as,

He *liked* you better than he *likes* me.
He *helped* him more than he *helps* his own children.
I then *saw* him oftener than I *see* him now.
He *valued* his friendship more than he *values* mine.

97. A Present or Future Tense in the principal clause may be followed by any Tense required by the sense ; as,

He *thinks* that she *is* there.
He *thinks* that she *was* there.
He *thinks* that she *will be* there.
He *will think* that she *is* there.
He *will think* that she *was* there.
He *will think* that she *will be* there.

But in sentences where the subordinate clause denotes *purpose,* if the verb in the principal clause is Present or Future the verb in the subordinate clause must be Present ; as,

I *eat* so that I *may* live.
I *shall* nurse him so that he *may* live.

EXERCISE 101

Insert the correct tense of verb in the following.

1. I waited for my friend until he_____ . (To come)
2. So long as the rain_____, I stayed at home. (To continue)
3. I did not know it until you_____. (To speak)
4. He speaks as one who _____. (To know)
5. He ran as quickly as he_____. (Can or could)
6. He went where he_____find work. (Can or could)
7. Wherever there is coal you_____find iron. (Will or would)
8. He behaves as one_____expect him to do. (May or might)
9. He ran away because he_____afraid. (To be)
10. He fled where his pursuers_____not follow. (Can or could)
11. As he_____not there, I spoke to his brother. (To be)
12. The notice was published in order that all_____know the facts. (May or might)
13. He was so tired that he_____scarcely stand. (Can or could)
14. You make such a noise that I_____not work. (Can or could)
15. He finished first though he_____late. (To begin)
16. His health has improved since he_____India. (To leave)
17. As soon as he_____the news he wrote to me. (To hear)
18. After the shower_____over, the sun shone out again. (To be)
19. Whenever we_____we talk of old times. (To meet)
20. Answer the first question before you_____further. (To proceed)
21. Just as he_____the room the clock struck. (To enter)
22. Now that we_____safe we stopped to take breath. (To feel)
23. Wherever he_____the people gathered to listen. (To preach)
24. He speaks as though he_____very angry. (To be)
25. He ran because he_____in a hurry. (To be)
26. I do it because I_____to. (To choose)
27. He advanced as far as he_____. (To dare)
28. He lost more than he _____afford. (Can or could)
29. He eats as much as he_____. (Can or could)
30. He rode as swiftly as he_____. (Can or could)
31. He locked the papers up so that they_____be safe. (May or might)
32. He walked as though he_____slightly lame. (To be)
33. He stayed at home because he_____feeling ill. (To be)
34. I forgive you since you_____. (To repent)
35. He labours hard so that he_____become rich. (May or might)
36. We shall wait here until you_____. (To come)
37. He rested his horse, for it_____. (To limp)
38. You may sit wherever you_____. (To like)
39. He went to Kolkata so that he_____find work. (May or might)
40. I would die before I_____. (To lie)
41. They come to see us as often as they_____. (Can or could)
42. I studied hard in order that I_____succeed. (May or might)
43. He_____so hard that he is certain to succeed. (To work)
44. She told me that she_____come. (Will or would)
45. He would succeed if he_____. (To try)
46. I asked him what I_____do. (Can or could)
47. He came oftener than we_____. (To expect)
48. I would not attempt it if you_____me. (To ask)
49. He walked so fast than I_____not overtake him. (Can or could)

EXERCISE 102

Fill in the blanks with an appropriate auxiliary. (Remember to observe the sequence of tenses.)

1. He died so that he_____save the flag.

2. They erected signposts in order that the road_____be known.
3. We eat so that we_____live.
4. Even if he paid me to do so, I_____not live in his house.
5. You_____go only if you have permission.
6. On the understanding that you return soon, you_____go out.
7. A bridge was built in order that the dangerous ferry_____be avoided.
8. He begs from door to door so that he_____keep body and soul together.
9. He was so tired that he_____scarcely stand.
10. He went to England in order that he_____become a barrister.
11. You make such a noise that I_____not work.
12. He asked again whether supper_____be ready soon.
13. In order that he_____learn the language quickly, he engaged a teacher.
14. He said that he_____do it.
15. The thieves stole whatever they_____find in the house.
16. He begged that we_____pardon him.
17. I wished that I_____come earlier.
18. He said that he_____try again.
19. He worked hard so that he_____win the prize.
20. We ran so that we_____arrive in time.
21. He said that he_____give an early reply.

EXERCISE 103

Supply Verbs in correct concord in the following complex sentences.

1. They sold the house because it_____old.
2. He solemnly assured them that they_____quite mistaken.
3. I come home when it_____to rain.
4. The soldiers advanced when the bugle_____.
5. I asked him what his name_____.
6. He had a cow that_____enormous quantities of milk.
7. When the sun set he____home.
8. He told them that they_____wrong.
9. I heard that there_____a disturbance in the city.
10. Could you doubt that there_____a God ?

Chapter 16 DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

98. We may report the words of a speaker in two ways:

(*i*) We may quote his *actual words.* This is called **Direct Speech.**

(*ii*) We may report what he said without quoting his exact words. This is called **Indirect** (or **Reported) Speech.**

Direct. Rama said, 'I am very busy now.'

Indirect. Rama said that he was very busy then.

It will be noticed that in Direct Speech, we use inverted commas to mark off the exact words of the speaker. In Indirect Speech we do not.

It will be further noticed that in changing the above Direct Speech into Indirect certain changes have been made. Thus :

(*i*) We have used the conjunction *that* before the Indirect statement.*

(*ii*) The pronoun *I* is changed to *he.* (The Pronoun is changed in Person.)

(*iii*) The verb *am* is changed to *was.* (Present Tense is changed to Past.)

(*iv*) The adverb *now* is changed to *then.*

Rules for Changing Direct Speech into Indirect

99. When the reporting or principal verb is in the Past Tense, all Present tenses of the Direct are changed into the corresponding Past Tenses. Thus :

(*a*) A *simple present* becomes a *simple past.*

Direct. He said, 'I *am* unwell.'

Indirect. He said (that) he *was* unwell.

(*b*) A *present continuous* becomes a *past continuous.*

Direct. He said,'My master *is writing* letters.'

Indirect. He said (that) his master *was writing* letters.

(*c*) A *present perfect* becomes a *past perfect.*

Direct. He said,'I *have passed* the examination.'

Indirect. He said (that) he *had passed* the examination.

Note—The shall of the Future Tense is changed into should.

The *will* of the Future Tense is changed into *would* or *should.*

As a rule, the *simple past* in the Direct becomes the *past perfect* in the Indirect.

Direct. He said,'The horse *died* in the night.'

Indirect. He said that the horse *had died* in the night.

99A. The tenses may not change if the statement is still relevant or if it is a universal truth. We can often choose whether to keep the original tenses or change them.

Direct. 'I know her address,' said Gopi.
Indirect. Gopi said he *knows/knew* her address.
Direct. The teacher said, 'The earth *goes* round the sun.'
Indirect. The teacher said the earth *goes/went* round the sun.
Direct. 'German is easy to learn', she said.
Indirect. She said German *is/was* easy to learn.

The past tense is often used when it is uncertain if the statement is true or when we are reporting objectively.

100. If the reporting verb is in the Present Tense, the tenses of the Direct Speech do not change. For example, we may rewrite the above examples, putting the reporting verb in the Present Tense, thus:

He says he is unwell.
He has just said his master is writing letters.
He says he has passed the examination.
He says the horse died in the night.

101. The pronouns of the Direct Speech are changed, where necessary, so that their relations with the reporter and his hearer, rather than with the original speaker, are indicated. Observe the following examples.

Direct. He said to me, 'I don't believe you.'
Indirect. He said *he* didn't believe *me.*
Direct. She said to him, 'I don't believe you.'
Indirect. *She said she* didn't believe *him.*
Direct. I said to him,'I don't believe you.'
Indirect. I said *I* didn't believe *him.*

*The *that* in often omitted specially in spoken English.

Direct. I said to you, 'I don't believe you.'
Indirect. I said *I* didn't believe *you.*

102. Words expressing *nearness* in time or place are generally changed into words expressing *distance.* Thus:

now	becomes	*then*	*today*	becomes	*that day*
here	,,	*there*	*tomorrow*	,,	*the next day*
ago	,,	*before*	*yesterday*	,,	*the day before*
thus	,,	*so*	*last night*	,,	*the night before*

Direct. He says, 'I am glad to be here this evening.'

Indirect. He says that he was glad to be *there that* evening.

The changes do not occur if the speech is reported during the same period or at the same place ; *e.g.*,

Direct. He said, 'I am glad to be here this evening.'
Indirect. He said he is glad to be here this evening.

103. Similarly, *this* and *these* are changed to *that* and *those* unless the thing pointed out is near at hand at the time of reporting the speech.

Questions

104. In reporting questions the Indirect Speech is introduced by some such verbs as *asked, inquired,* etc.

When the question is not introduced by an interrogative word, the reporting verb is followed by *whether* or *if.*

Direct. He said to me,'What are you doing ?'
Indirect. He asked me what I was doing.
Direct. 'Where do you live ?' asked the stranger.
Indirect. The stranger enquired where I lived.
Direct. The policeman said to us,'Where are you going ?'
Indirect. The policeman enquired where we were going.
Direct. He said,'Will you listen to such a man ?'
Indirect. He asked them whether they would listen to such a man.
[Or] Would they, he asked, listen to such a man ?
Direct. 'Do you suppose you know better than your own father ?' jeered his angry mother.
Indirect. His angry mother jeered and asked whether he supposed that he knew better than his own father.

Commands and Requests

105. In reporting commands and requests, the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing *command* or *request,* and the imperative mood is changed into the Infinitive.

Direct. Rama said to Arjun,'Go away.'
Indirect. Rama ordered Arjun to go away.
Direct. He said to him,'Please wait here till I return.'
Indirect. He requested him to wait there till he returned.
Direct. 'Call the first witness,' said the judge.
Indirect. The judge commanded them to call the first witness.
Direct. He shouted,'Let me go.'
Indirect. He shouted to them to let him go.
Direct. He said,'Be quiet and listen to my words.'
Indirect. He urged them to be quiet and listen to his words.

Exclamations and Wishes

106. In reporting exclamations and wishes, the Indirect Speech is introduced by some verb expressing *exclamation* or *wish.*

Direct. He said,'Alas ! I am undone.'
Indirect He exclaimed sadly that he was undone.
Direct Alice said, 'How clever I am !'
Indirect Alice exclaimed that she was very clever.
Direct He said, 'Bravo ! You have done well.'
Indirect. He applauded him, saying that he had done well.

Direct. 'So help me, Heaven!' he cried, 'I will never steal again.'
Indirect. He called upon Heaven to witness his resolve never to stealagain.

EXERCISE 104

Turn the following into Indirect Speech.

1. He said to me, 'I have often told you not to play with fire.'
2. 'You have all done very badly !' remarked the teacher.
3. They wrote, 'It is time we thought about settling this matter.'
4. The teacher promised, 'If you will come before school tomorrow, I will explain it.'
5. She wrote,'I am waiting and watching and longing for my son's return.'
6. The examiner's orders were, 'No one is to bring books into the room nor ask me questions about what I have told you to do.'
7. The dwarf said to her, 'Promise me that when you are Queen you will give me your first-born child.'
8. 'That is my horse,' said he, 'and if I do not prove it in a few minutes I will give up my claim.'
9. 'I will avenge your wrongs,' he cried, 'I will not enter Athens until I have punished the king who had so cruelly treated you.'
10. He wrote and said, 'I am unable to come just now because I am ill, but I will certainly start as soon as I am well enough to do so.'
11. One day he sent for Cassim and said to him, 'You are now old enough to earn your living, so you must set off, and make your own way in the world.'

EXERCISE 105

Turn the following into Indirect Speech.

1. 'What do you want?' he said to her.
2. He said, 'How's your father ?'
3. 'Are you coming home with me ?' he asked.
4. He enquired, 'When do you intend to pay me ?'
5. He said to us, 'Why are you all sitting about there doing nothing ?'
6. 'Do you really come from China ?' said the prince.
7. The poor man exclaimed, 'Will none of you help me ?'
8. 'Which way did she go ?' asked the young Rakshas.
9. Aladdin said to the magician, 'What have I done to deserve so severe a blow?'
10. 'Don't you know the way home ?' asked I.
11. 'Do you write in a good hand ?' he said.
12. 'Have you anything to say on behalf of the prisoner ?' said the judge finally.
13. 'Which is the proper way to answer this question, father ?' the boy enquired.
14. 'Have you anything to tell me, little bird ?' asked Ulysses.
15. The young sparrow said, 'Mother, what is that queer object ?'
16. Then aloud he said, 'Tell me, boy, is the miller within ?'
17. 'Who are you, sir, and what do you want ?' they cried.
18. 'Dear bird,' she said, stroking its feathers, 'have you come to comfort me in my sorrow ?'
19. The Rajah was deeply grieved, and said to his wife, 'What can I do for you?'
20. When the sun got low, the king's son said, 'Jack, since we have no money, where can we lodge this night ?'
21. She said to him, 'What is it that makes you so much stronger and braver than any other man ?'
22. When the Brahmin approached, the first thief said, 'Why do you carry a dog on your back ? Are you not ashamed ?'

EXERCISE 106

Put the following in Indirect Speech.

1. 'Bring me a drink of milk,' said the swami to the villagers.

2. 'Sit down, boys,' said the teacher.
3. 'Halt !' shouted the officer to his men.
4. 'Take off your hat,' the king said to the Hatter.
5. The teacher said to him, 'Do not read so fast.'
6. He said to me, 'Wait until I come.'
7. 'Hurry up,' he said to his servant, 'do not waste time.'
8. 'Run away, children,' said their mother.
9. He said, 'Daughter, take my golden jug, and fetch me some water from the well.'
10. 'Go down to the bazaar. Bring me some oil and a lump of ice.' ordered his master.

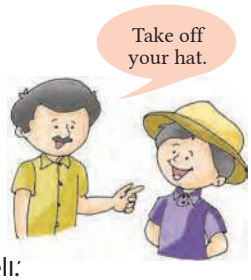

EXERCISE 107

Put the following in Indirect Speech.

1. 'What a rare article milk is, to be sure, in London !' said Mr. Squeers with a sigh.
2. 'What a stupid fellow you are !' he angrily remarked.
3. He said, 'My God ! I am ruined.'
4. He said, 'Alas ! our foes are too strong.'
5. He said, 'What a lazy boy you are ! How badly you have done your work !'
6. 'How smart you are!' she said.
7. He said, 'Oh ! that's a nuisance.'
8. He said, 'How cruel of him !'
9. He said, 'What a pity you did not come !'
10. 'Ah me !' exclaimed the Queen, 'What a rash and bloody deed you have done !'

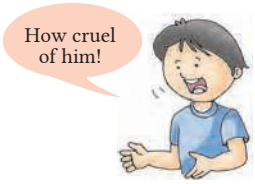

Conversion of Indirect into Direct

107. The conversion of Indirect into Direct generally presents no special difficulties, as the following examples will show.

Indirect. He inquired whether his name was not Ahmed.

Direct. He said to him, 'Is your name not Ahmed ?'

Indirect. As the stranger entered the town, he was met by a policeman, who asked him if he was a traveller. He replied carelessly that it would appear so.

Direct As the stranger entered the town, he was met by a policeman, who asked, 'Are you a traveller?' 'So it would appear,' he answered carelessly.

Indirect. She asked how she, a girl, who could not ride or use sword or lance, could be of any help. Rather would she stay at home and spin beside her dear mother.

Direct. She said, 'How can I, a girl, who cannot ride or use sword or lance, be of any help ? Rather would I stay at home and spin beside my dear mother?'

EXERCISE 108

Put the following in Direct Speech.

1. He asked Rama to go with him.
2. Rama replied that he could not do so.
3. He asked his father when the next letter would come.
4. His father replied that there might not be another that year.
5. Rama asked me what had become of Hari.
6. I told him that I had not seen him for months.
7. The master requested that they would attend carefully to what he was saying.
8. I wrote that I would visit him next day.
9. He observed that he had never liked doing that.

10. I told them to be quiet.11.He asked me if I had anything to say.
12. Rama asked Hari if he would change places with him.
13. He said that he was tired, and that he wished to go to bed.
14. An old mouse asked who would bell the cat.
15. John said that he wanted to be a soldier.
16. He asked me where I was going.17.He asked me what I wanted.
18. Abdul said that he had seen that picture.
19. The boy said that he would go with us.
20. He said that the earth moves round the sun.
21. The stranger asked Alice where she lived.
22. I asked Mary if she would lend me a pencil.
23. He told us that he had waited an hour.
24. The lady inquired if he was now quite well again.
25. He said that he had come to see them.
26. He said that though he had come, it was against his will.
27. The speaker said that it gave him great pleasure to be there that evening.
28. He asked them whether they would listen to such a man.
29. He asked me if I would accompany him.
30. He ordered him to leave the room and forbade him to return.
31. The mother asked her boy where he had been all the afternoon.
32. Hari asked Rama if he had read the letter.
33. The King asked the philosopher whom he considered the happiest man living.
34. The magistrate asked the prisoner what he was doing with his hand in the gentleman's pocket.
35. The fox cried out to the goat that a thought had just come into his head.
36. He advised his sons not to quarrel amongst themselves, when he was dead but to remain united.
37. The lion told the fox that he was very weak, that his teeth had fallen out, and that he had no appetite.
38. He replied that he had promised to reward his soldiers and that he had kept his word.

108. Study the following examples, and in each case carefully note the changes made while turning from Direct into Indirect Speech.

Direct. The Prince said, 'It gives me great pleasure to be here this evening.'
Indirect. The Prince said that it gave him great pleasure to be there that evening.
Direct. He said, 'I shall go as soon as it is possible.'
Indirect. He said that he would go as soon as it was possible.
Direct. He said, 'I do not wish to see any of you; go away.'
Indirect. He said that he did not wish to see any of them and ordered them to go away.
Direct. My teacher often says to me, 'If you don't work hard, you will fail.'
Indirect. My teacher often says to me that if I don't work hard I shall fail.
Direct. He said, 'We are all sinners.'
Indirect. He said that we are all sinners.
Direct. The lecturer said, 'Akbar won the respect of all races and classes by his justice.'
Indirect. The lecturer said that Akbar won the respect of all races and classes by his justice.
Direct. He said, 'Let us wait for the award.'
Indirect. He proposed that they should wait for the award.
Direct. 'Saint George strike for us !' exclaimed the Knight, 'do the false yeomen give way ?'
Indirect. The Knight prayed that Saint George might strike for them and asked whether the false yeomen gave way.

Direct. 'Curse it !' exclaimed the driver. 'Who could have foreseen such ill-luck ? But for accident we should have caught the train easily.'
Indirect. The driver exclaimed with an oath that nobody could have foreseen such ill-luck. But for the accident they would have caught the train easily.

Direct. The general, addressing his mutinous troops, said, 'You have brought disgrace upon a famous regiment. If you had grievances, why did you not lay them before your own officers ? Now you must first suffer punishment for your offence, before your complaints can be heard.'

Indirect. The general told his mutinous troops that they had brought disgrace upon a famous regiment. If they had grievances, why had they not laid them before their own officers? Now they must suffer punishment for their offence before their complaints could be heard.

Direct. The traveller said, 'Can you tell me the way to the nearest inn ?' 'Yes,' said the peasant, 'do you want one in which you can spend the night?' 'No,' replied the traveller, 'I only want a meal.'

Indirect. The traveller asked the peasant if he could tell him the way to the nearest inn. The peasant replied that he could, and asked whether the traveller wanted one in which he could spend the night. The traveller answered that he did not wish to stay there, but only wanted a meal.

Remark– It will be noticed that we have avoided the ugly phrases 'replied in the affirmative' and 'replied in the negative.'

EXERCISE 109

Turn the following into Indirect Speech.

1. 'Cheer up, mother, I'll go and get work somewhere,' said Jack.
2. But the sea-god cried, 'Do not be afraid, noble prince. I have taken pity on you and will help you.'
3. 'No,' said the child; 'I won't kneel, for if I do, I shall spoil my new breeches.'
4. 'What a horse they are losing for want of skill and spirit to manage him !' exclaimed Alexander.
5. Telemachus replied, 'How can I drive away the mother, who bore me and nourished me ?'
6. 'Call no man happy,' was the reply of the philosopher, 'until he has ended his life in a fitting manner.'
7. Then said the wolf to the fox, 'Now either yield thyself as vanquished, or else certainly I will kill thee.'
8. 'I believe,' said he, 'that we are in this country among a people whom we like and who like us.'
9. He said, 'Take that bird away. Its gilded cage reminds me of my father whom I imprisoned.'
10. 'I have just one word to say to you,' said the dealer. 'Either make your purchase, or walk out of my shop.'
11. 'My hour is come,' thought he. 'Let me meet death like a man.'
12. 'Be not cast down,' said Mentor, 'remember whose son thou art, and all shall be well with thee.'
13. Bhishma said: 'Boys ! boys ! remember you play a game. If it be Arjuna's turn let him have it.'
14. 'Friends,' said the old man, 'sit down and rest yourselves here on this bench. My good wife Baucis has gone to see what you can have for supper.'
15. 'Ah ! you don't know what these beans are,' said the man; if you plant them over-night, by morning they grow right up to the sky.'
16. 'How clever I am !' he said. 'All my life I have been talking prose without knowing it.'
17. 'I am old and lonely,' said she. 'Hast thou no pity on my lonelines ? Stay with me, my best son, for thou art yet more boy than man.'
18. 'I do not practise', Goldsmith once said; 'I make it a rule to prescribe only for my friends.' 'Pray, dear doctor,' said Beauclerk, 'alter your rule, and prescribe only for your enemies.'
19. He said : 'Who are you to speak to me like this ? I am the master. Why should I help you ? It is your work, not mine, to draw the cart.'
20. 'I cannot hope to see these trees which I am planting come in perfection,' said the duke, 'but it is right for me to plant for the benefit of my successors.'
21. 'Are you angry, my friends,' said the king, 'because you have lost your leader ? I am your king; I will be your leader.'
22. Said an old Crab to young one, 'Why do you walk so crooked, child ? Walk straight !' 'Mother,' said the young Crab, 'show me the way, will you ?'
23. 'Who are you ?' said the Deer. The Jackal replied : 'I am Kshudrabuddhi the Jackal. I live in this forest all by myself; I have neither friend nor relation.'
24. One summer some elephants were very much distressed by the heat, and said to their leader : 'We are absolutely perishing, for want of water. The smaller animals have bathing-places but we have none. What are we to do ? Where are we to go ?'
25. When the king saw him coming he said, 'Pray' who are you, and what do you want ?' The Rabbit said, 'I am an ambassador from His Majesty Chandra–the Moon.' The Elephant King replied, 'Declare your errand.'
26. A young Rajah once said to his Vizier, 'How is it that I am so often ill ? I take great care of myself; I never go out in the rain; I wear warm clothes; I eat good food. Yet I am always catching cold or getting fever.'

27. 'My sons,' said he, 'a great treasure lies hidden in the estate I am about to leave you.' 'Where is it hid ?' said the sons. 'I am about to leave you.' said the old man, 'but you must dig for it.'
28. 'How very well you speak French !' Lady Grizzel said. 'I ought to know it,' Becky modestly said. 'I taught it in a school, and my mother was a Frenchwoman.'
29. 'What are you going to do with the tinder-box?' asked the soldier. 'That's no business of yours,' said the witch; 'You've got your money ; give me my tinder-box.'
30. 'My name is Noman,' said Ulysses, 'my kindred and friends in my own country call me Noman.' 'Then,' said the Cyclops, 'this is the kindness I will show thee, Noman ; I will eat thee last of all thy friends.'
31. 'I am a dead man, Hardy,' said Nelson; 'I am going fast ; it will be all over with me soon. Come nearer to me. Let my dear Lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me.'

32. He said to the shoemaker : 'You are a big blockhead; you have done the reverse of what I desired you. I told you to make one of the shoes larger than the other, and, instead of that, you have made one of them smaller than the other.'
33. 'I can extend no other mercy to you,' said the Raja, 'except permitting you to choose what kind of death you wish to die. Decide immediately, for the sentence must be carried out.' 'I admire your kindness, noble Prince,' said the jester, 'I choose to die of old age.'
34. Her mother said, 'You must go straight to your grandmother's cottage and not loiter on the way. There is a wolf in the wood through which you are going ; but if you keep to the road he won't do you any harm. Now, will you be a good girl and do as I tell you ?'
35. Next morning at breakfast his wife said to him, 'George, I think I can tell what is amiss with our clock.' 'Well, what is it?' he sharply asked. 'It wants winding up,' said his partner.
36. A fawn one day said to her mother, 'Mother, you are bigger than a dog, and swifter and better winded, and you have horns to defend yourself; how is it that you are so afraid of the hounds ?' She smiled and said, 'All this, my child, I know fully well ; but no sooner do I hear a dog bark, than, somehow or other, my heels take me off as fast as they can carry me.'
37. Said a young mole to her mother, 'Mother, I can see.' So her mother put a lump of frank incense before her, and asked her what it was. 'A stone,' said the young one. 'O my child !' said the mother, 'not only do you not see, but you cannot even smell.'
38. 'What are you doing, good old woman ?' said the princess. 'I'm spinning, my pretty child.' 'Ah, how charming ! Let me try if I can spin also.'
39. 'You say,' said the judge, 'that the bag you lost contained one hundred and ten pounds.' 'Yes, your honour,' replied the miser. 'Then as this one contains one hundred pounds it cannot be yours.'
40. He answered slowly, 'Alas ! my dear son, why do you ask the one thing I cannot grant you ? Your hands are too weak to rein those fiery beasts ; you do not know the path. Come, ask something else, anything but that.'
41. The speaker said, 'I entirely object to the proposal. I object to it as founded on a wrong principle, and I object to it as highly inconvenient at this time. Have you considered all that this proposal involves ? Gentlemen, I entreat you to be cautious.'
42. Kausalya said to Rama, 'Do not desire, O my child, to possess the moon, because it is thousands of miles off, and it is not a plaything for children and no child ever got it. If you wish I will bring some jewels that are brighter than the moon, and you can play with them.'
43. The hen bird was just about to lay, and she said to her mate : 'Cannot you find me some place convenient for laying my eggs ?' 'And is not this,' he replied, 'a very good place for the purpose?' 'No,' she answered. 'for it is continually overflowed by the tide.' 'Am I, then, become so feeble,' he exclaimed, 'that the eggs laid in my house are to be carried away by the sea?' The hen bird laughed and said, 'There is some considerable difference between you and the sea.'
44. A cat hearing that a hen was laid up sick in her nest, paid her a visit of condolence, and creeping up to her, said : 'How are you, my dear friend ? What can I do for you ? What are you in want of ? Only tell me. Is there anything in the world that I can bring you ? Keep up your spirits, and do not be alarmed.' 'Thank you,' said the hen. 'Do you be good enough to leave me, and I have no fear but I shall soon be well.'
45. 'Sweet child,' he answered, 'do not fret, for I can make you happier here than ever you could have been on the earth ; I will give you beautiful things to play with, which a queen would envy. Rubies and diamonds shall be your toys, and your plates shall be of solid gold. All the beautiful things you see, belong to me, for I am king of this rich underworld.' But she only replied, 'I was happy playing with the pebbles on the seashore, and I care only for the sparkle of the little waves on the shining sand. Here there are no flowers, no sun,' and she wept anew.

Part II

Composition

Correct Usage

This section largely focuses on the areas of usage which are often troublesome to non-native speakers of English, especially Indian students.

Nouns like **advice, news, information, furniture, luggage, scenery,** etc. are often wrongly used with a/an and in the **plural**. (This point is explained in chapter 18.) We should say :

He gave me **some advice**. (not **an advice**)

This is **good news**. (not **a good news**)

He sold all the **furniture**. (not **furnitures**)

And so on.

Many students say **to discuss about something, to order for something, to stress on a point,** etc. These expressions are wrong. (Chapter 114) The verbs **discuss, describe, order, request, stress** and **emphasize** are transitive and cannot therefore be used with prepositions. For example, we should say :

We **discussed** the matter yesterday.

I **have ordered** five cups of tea.

She requested my help. (not **requested for my help**)

Where necessary, the differences between formal and informal English are pointed out. For example, '**Whom** did you meet ?' is grammatically correct, but today **whom** is not used except in literary or formal English. **Who** is used instead of **whom** in speech and informal writing. (Chapter 18) We say :

Who did you meet ?

Who are you going with ?

Who was the book written by ? (Formal: By **whom** was the book written ?)

There is a chapter on spelling rules. Can you spell these words correctly ? Do you put **ei** or **ie**?

bel--ve	rec--ve	ach--ve
dec--ve	rel--ve	conc--ve

Remember this rule : **i** comes before **e** except after **c**. (Chapter 27)

This section also includes very valuable material dealing with punctuation, idioms, word formation and figures of speech. Work through all the material.

PART II: CORRECT USAGE

Chapter 17 AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH THE SUBJECT

109. A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and Person.

Often, by what is called the "Error of Proximity", the verb is made to agree in number with a noun near it instead of with its proper subject. This should be avoided as shown in the following examples.

The quality of the mangoes *was* not good.
The introduction of tea and coffee and such other beverages *has* not been without some effect.
His knowledge of Indian vernaculars *is* far beyond the common.
The state of his affairs *was* such as to cause anxiety to his creditors.
If it were possible to get near when one of the volcanic eruptions *takes* place, we should see a grand sight.
The results of the recognition of this fact *are* seen in the gradual improvement of the diet of the poor.

110. Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by *and* require a plural verb ; as,

Gold and silver *are* precious metals.
Fire and water *do* not agree.
Knowledge and wisdom *have* of times no connection.
Are your father and mother at home ?
In him *were* centred their love and their ambition.
He and I *were* playing.

But if the nouns suggest *one idea* to the mind, or refer to the *same* person or thing, the verb is singular ; as,

Time and tide *waits* for no man.
The horse and carriage *is* at the door.
Bread and butter *is* his only food.
Honour and glory *is* his reward.
The rise and fall of the tide *is* due to lunar influence.
My friend and benefactor *has* come.
The novelist and poet *is* dead.

111. Words joined to a singular subject by *with, as well as,* etc., are parenthetical. The verb should therefore be put in the singular ; as,

The house, with its contents, *was* insured.
The Mayor, with his councillors, *is* to be present.
The ship, with its crew, *was* lost.
Silver, as well as cotton, *has* fallen in price.
Sanskrit, as well as Arabic, *was* taught there.
Justice, as well as mercy, *allows* it.
The guidance, as well as the love of a mother, *was* wanting.

112. Two or more singular subjects connected by *or* or *nor* require a singular verb; as.

No nook or corner *was* left unexplored.
Our happiness or our sorrow *is* largely due to our own actions.
Either the cat or the dog *has* been here.
Neither food nor water *was* to be found there.

Neither praise nor blame *seems* to affect him.

But when one of the subjects joined by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural, and the plural subject should be placed nearest the verb ; as,

Neither the Chairman nor the directors *are* present.

113. When the subjects joined by *or* or *nor* are of different persons, the verb agrees with the nearer ; as,

Either he or I *am* mistaken. Either you or he *is* mistaken.

Neither you nor he *is* to blame. Neither my friend nor I *am* to blame.

But it is better to avoid these constructions, and to write.

He is mistaken, or else I am. You are mistaken, or else he is.

He is not to blame, nor are you. My friend is not to blame, nor am I.

114. *Either, neither, each, everyone, many a,* must be followed by a singular verb ; as,

He asked me whether *either* of the applicants *was* suitable.

Neither of the two men *was* very strong.

Each of these substances *is* found in India.

Everyone of the prisons *is* full.

Everyone of the boys *loves* to ride.

Many a man *has* done so.

Many a man *does* not know his own good deeds.

Many a man *has* succumbed to this temptation.

115. Two nouns qualified by *each* or *every,* even though connected by *and,* require a singular verb ; as,

Every boy and every girl *was* given a packet of sweets.

116. Some nouns which are plural in form, but singular in meaning, take a singular verb ; as,

The *news is* true.

Politics was with him the business of his life.

The *wages* of sin *is* death.

Mathematics is a branch of study in every school.

117. *Pains* and *means* take either the singular or the plural verb, but the construction must be consistent ; as,

Great pains *have* been taken. Much pains *has* been taken.

All possible means *have* been tried. The means employed by you *is* sufficient.

In the sense of *income,* the word *means* always takes a plural verb ; as,

My means *were* much reduced owing to that heavy loss.

His means *are* ample.

118. Some nouns which are singular in form, but plural in meaning take a plural verb ; as,

According to the present market rate twelve *dozen cost* one hundred rupees.

119. *None,* though properly singular, commonly takes a plural verb (see § 132) ; as,

None *are* so deaf as those who will not hear.

Cows are amongst the gentlest of breathing creatures ; none *show* more passionate tenderness to their young.

120. A Collective noun takes a singular verb when the collection is thought of as one whole ; plural verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of ; as,

The Committee *has* issued *its* report.

The Committee *are* divided on one minor point.

But we must be consistent. Thus, we should say :

The Committee *has* appended a note to *its* (not *their*) report.

121. When the plural noun is a proper name for some single object or some collective unit, it must be followed by a singular verb ; as,

The Arabian Nights is still a great favourite.

The *United States has* a big navy.

Plutarch's Lives is an interesting book.

Gullliver's Travels was written by Jonathan Swift.

122. When a plural noun denotes some specific quantity or amount considered as a whole, the verb is generally singular ; as,

Fifteen minutes is *allowed* to each speaker.

Ten kilometers *is* a long walk.

Fifty thousand rupees *is* a large sum.

Three parts of the business *is* left for me to do.

EXERCISE 110

In each of the following sentences supply a Verb in agreement with its Subject.

1. To take pay and then not to do work____dishonest.
2. The cost of all these articles____risen.
3. The jury____divided in their opinions.
4. That night every one of the boat's crew____down with fever.

5. One or the other of those fellows____stolen the watch.
6. The strain of all the difficulties and vexations and anxieties____more than he could bear.
7. No news____good news.
8. The accountant and the cashier_____absconded.
9. A good man and useful citizen_____passed away.
10. The famous juggler and conjurer____too unwell to perform.
11. *The Three Musketeers*____written by Dumas.
12. Each of the suspected men____arrested.
13. The ebb and flow of the tides____explained by Newton.
14. Ninety rupees _____ too much for this bag.

15. The cow as well as the horse _____ grass.
16. Neither his father nor his mother _____ alive.
17. There _____ many objections to the plan.
18. Two-thirds of the city _____ in ruins.
19. The formation of paragraphs _____ very important.
20. Man's happiness or misery _____ in a great measure in his own hands.

Chapter 18 NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

123. Words like *book, table, flower* and *apple* are "countable nouns" : they are things that can be counted. Such nouns can have plural forms and are used with *a/an.*

Words like *ink, milk, gold* and *wisdom* are "uncountable nouns" : they are things that cannot be counted. Normally uncountable nouns do not have plural forms and cannot be used with *a/an.*

Note that the following nouns are usually uncountable in English: *advice, news, information, furniture, luggage, work, business, weather, traffic, scenery, paper* (= writing material), *soap, bread.* Most of these are countable in Indian languages and therefore Indian students often wrongly use them with *a/an* and in the plural.

Wrong: He gave me *an advice.*

Right: He gave me *some advice* (or: *a piece of advice*).

Wrong: The *sceneries* here are very good.

Right: The *scenery* here is very good.

If you are thinking of one separate item or unit of an uncountable thing, you may say *a piece of/a bottle of*, etc.
a piece of advice, a piece of work, a piece/bar of soap, a bottle of milk

124. The use of the Possessive (or Genitive) Case should be confined to the following :—

(1) Names of living beings and personified objects ; as,

The Governor's bodyguards ; the lion's mane ; Nature's laws ; Fortune's favourite.

(2) A few stereotyped phrases ; as,

For conscience' sake, for goodness' sake, at his fingers' ends, out of arm's way, the boat's crew.

(3) Nouns of space or time denoting an amount of something ; as,

A day's work, a hand's breadth, in a year's time.

125. When two nouns in the possessive case are in apposition the apostrophe with *s* is added to the last only ; as,

This is my uncle, the engineer's office.
My brother Harry's watch.
For thy servant David's sake.

125A. When one noun is qualified by two possessive nouns both must have the possessive sign, unless joint possession is indicated.

The King and Queen's journey to India.
Huntley and Palmer's biscuits.

126. Grammarians formerly recommended that the complement of the verb *to be*, when it is expressed by a pronoun, should be in the nominative case. Today the use of the nominative form is considered extremely formal and over-correct. We usually use the objective form.

It is *me*. (Rare: It is *I*.)
It was *him*.

127. The Object of a verb or of a preposition, when it is a Pronoun, should be in the Objective form; as,

Between you and *me* (not *I*) affairs look dark.
There is really no difference between you and *me*.
Let you and *me* (not I) do it.
Please let Jack and *me* go to the theatre.
Her (not *she*), who had been the apple of his eye, he now began to regard with something like distrust. *Him* (not *he*), who had always inspired in her a respect which almost overcame her affection, she now saw the object of open pleasantry.
He has given great trouble to my father and *me* (not *I*).

128. A pronoun directly after *than* or *as* is usually in the objective case unless there is a verb after it. If a verb follows it, the nominative form is used.

He is taller than *me*.
[Or] He is taller than *I* am. (More formal)
I swim better than *him*.
[Or] I swim better that *he* does. (More formal)
I am as tall as *her*.
[Or] I am as tall as *she* is. (More formal)
The nominative form without a verb after it (*e.g.* 'He is taller than *I*') is old-fashioned.

129. A Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in person, number and gender.

All *passengers* must show *their* tickets.
Every *man* must bear *his* own burden.
Each of the girls gave *her* own version of the affair.
I am not one of *those* who believe everything *they* (not *I*) hear.

130. In referring to *anybody, everybody, everyone, anyone, each,* etc., the pronoun of the masculine or the feminine gender is used according to the context ; as,

I shall be glad to help *everyone* of my boys in *his* studies.

What pronoun should be used to refer back to *anybody, everyone, each*, etc. when the sex is not determined? Some grammarians recommend that the pronoun of the masculine gender should be used as there is no singular pronoun of the third person to represent both male and female, *e.g.*,

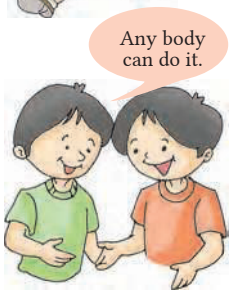

Anybody can do it if *he* tries.
Everyone ran as fast as *he* could.

In present-day English, *anybody, everyone*, etc. are often followed by a plural pronoun (*they/them/their*) except in very formal speech or writing.

Anybody can do it if *they* try.

Everyone ran as fast as *they* could.
Each of them had *their* share.

131. The indefinite pronoun *one* should be used throughout, if used at all.

One cannot be too careful about what *one* (not *he*) says.
One cannot be too careful of *one's* (not *his*) good name.
One does not like to have *one's* word doubted.
One must not boast of *one's* own success.
One must use *one's* best efforts if *one* wishes to succeed.
Cannot *one* do what *one* likes with *one's* own ?

It is better to change the form of the sentence than to keep on repeating *one*.

132. *None* is construed in the singular *or* plural as the sense may require ; as,

Did you buy any mangoes ? There *were none* in the market.
Have you brought me a letter ? There *was none* for you.

When the singular equally well expresses the sense, the plural is commonly used ; as,

None of these words *are* now currently used.
None of his poems *are* well known. *None* but fools *have* believed it.

133. *Anyone* should be used when *more than two* persons or things are spoken of ; as,

She was taller than *anyone* (not *either*) of her five sisters.

134. *Each, either,* and *neither* are distributive pronouns calling attention to the individuals forming a collection, and must accordingly be followed by verbs in the singular.

Each of the scholars *has* (not *have*) done well.
Each of the men *was* (not *were*) paid twenty rupees.
Neither of them *was* invited to the party. *Neither* of the accusations is true.
Either of the roads *leads* to the railway station.
He asked whether *either* of the brothers *was* at home.

135. Be careful to use *who* (Nominative) and *whom* (Objective) correctly.

There's Mr. Dutt, *who* (not *whom)* they say is the best portrait painter in the town.
Who (not *whom*) they were I really cannot specify.
I was the man *who* (not *whom*) they thought was dead.
He was the man *who* (not *whom*) they determined should be the next mayor.
There are some *who* (not *whom*) I think are clever.
There are many *who* (not *whom*) we know quite well are honest.
One evening of each week was set apart by him for the reception of *whosoever* (not *whomsoever*) chose to visit him.
Who (not *whom*) did you say was there ?
Who (not *whom*) do you think she is ?
They were a people *whom* it was not advisable to excite.
The student, *whom* (not *who*) you thought so highly of, has failed to win the first prize.
Whom do you wish to see ?
Who (not *whom*) do you believe him to be ?

Note that today *whom* is not usual except in formal English. *Who* replaces *whom* in spoken English.
Who did you meet?
Who are you going with?
This is the man *who* I talked about this morning.

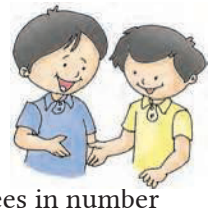

As a relative pronoun *who* replaces *whom* only in defining clauses.

136. When the subject of a verb is a relative pronoun care should be taken to see that the verb agrees in number and person with the antecedent of the relative ; as,

This is one of the most interesting novels that *have* (not *has*) appeared this year.
[The antecedent of *that* is *novels,* not *one.*]
He is one of the cleverest boys that *have* passed through the school.
One of the greatest judges that *have* ever lived laid this down as law.
It was one of the best speeches that *have* ever been made in the Parliament.
This is the only one of his poems that *is* (not are) worth reading.
[Here the antecedent of *that* is *one.* "Of his poems this is the only one that is worth reading."]

137. A definite word as the antecedent of the relative pronoun *which* make the sentences easier to understand than is possible otherwise. Thus the sentence, "His foot slipped, which caused him to fall heavily," would be easier reading, and hence better, as ;

His foot slipped, *and this* caused him to fall heavily.

Similarly we should say :

I went home for my umbrella, *and this* (rather than *which)* prevented me from being in time.
I gave him a sovereign, *and this* left me penniless.
He fell heavily, *and this* caused him great pain.

138. *And which, but which*—The relative itself fulfils the purpose of a conjunction ; hence no conjunction should be placed before it except to join together two relative clauses referring to the same antecedent ; as,

He possessed a sandalwood table *which* was of excellent workmanship, *and which* had been in his family for generations.

But the following sentences are *incorrect.*

He has a wardrobe of wonderful carving, *and* which has been in his family for generations.
They wished me to drink with them, *but* which I declined.

EXERCISE 111

Fill in each blank with "who" or "whom".

1. I met a man today ____I had just heard was on the continent.
2. Any of you may take it ; I don't care ____.
3. ____did you give that letter to ?
4. The man ____ I thought was my friend deceived me.
5. There was no doubt as to ____ the speaker meant.
6. The vacancy was filled by Mr. Rao ____ the manager said ought to be promoted.
7. The vacancy was filled by Mr. Rao ____ the manager thought worthy of promotion.
8. It is Sohrab ____ I think is the better of the two at swimming.
9. Ali was the man ____ they intended should be our captain next year.
10. ____do you think is the better of the two at tennis ?
11. Enoch Arden, ____, his wife thought, had died many years before, suddenly reappeared.
12. The boy ____ I trusted proved worthy of my confidence.
13. ____ do you take me for ?
14. ____ are you speaking to ?
15. ____ do men declare me to be ?
16. A boy ____ I believed to be him just passed this way.
17. I ____ am most concerned, was not consulted.
18. The man ____ you wished to see is here.
19. Where is the boy about ____ you were speaking ?

EXERCISE 112

Correct the following sentences.

1. Please give me a soap.
2. What beautiful sceneries!
3. Can you give me an advice?

4. He has eaten two breads.
5. I have an important work to do.
6. What an awful weather!

EXERCISE 113

Tell which of the italicized forms is right, and give the reason.

1. She is one of the best mothers that (*has* or *have)* ever lived.
2. You are not the first man that (*has* or *have*) been deceived by appearances.
3. One of his many good traits that (*comes* or *come*) to my mind was his modesty.
4. This is one of the things that (*kills* or *kill*) ambition.
5. *Treasure Island* is one of the best pirate stories that (*was* or *were*) ever written.
6. Ambition is one of those passions that (*is* or *are)* never satisfied.
7. This is one of the songs that (*was* or *were*) most popular.
8. We lament the excessive delicacy of his ideas, which (*prevents* or *prevent*) one from grasping them.
9. Tyranny is one of those evils which (*tends* or *tend*) to perpetuate (*itself* or *themselves*).

EXERCISE 114

Fill in the blanks.

1. All failed except ____. (he, him)
2. That is a matter between you and ____. (I, me)
3. Leave Nell and ____to toil alone. (I, me)
4. It is not ____who are to blame. (we, us)
5. You and ____are invited to tea this morning. (I, me)
6. Between you and ____, he drinks heavily. (I, me)

139. Sometimes a Pronoun is inserted where it is not required; as,
The applicant, being a householder, he is entitled to a vote. (*Incorrect*)
Here the pronoun *he* is not required.

140. A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case should not be used as the antecedant to a relative pronoun ; as,
Do not forget *his* enthusiasm who brought this movement so far. *(Incorrect)*
Change the construction to —
Do not forget the enthusiasm of him who brought this movement so far. (*Correct*).

141. The relative pronoun is sometimes wrongly omitted when it is the Subject of the clause ; as,
He has an impudence would carry him through anything. (*Incorrect)*
Say:
He has an impudence *that* would carry him through anything. (*Correct)*

142. When the antecedent is *same,* the consequent should be *as* or *that.*
That is the *same* man *that* (or *as*) we saw yesterday.
I played with the *same* bat *that* you did.

143. Pronouns of the third person plural should not be used as antecedents to *who* and *that* ; as,
They that are whole have no need of a physician.
Here *those* is to be preferred to *they.*

144. Avoid the use of *same* as a substitute for the personal pronoun.
When you have examined these patterns please return *them* (not *same*) to us.

Chapter 19 ADJECTIVES

145. The Adjective is correctly used with a verb when some quality of the subject, rather than of the action of the verb, is to be expressed; as,
The flowers smell *sweet* (not *sweetly*).
She looks *dainty.*
That statement sounds *queer.*
It tastes *sour.*
He feels *sad.*

As a general rule, if any phrase denoting manner could be substituted, the adverb should be used ; but if some part of the verb *to be* could be employed as a connective, the Adjective is required.
The ship appeared *suddenly.*
The decision appears *unjust.*
His friends now began to look *coldly* upon him.
He looks *cold.*
We feel *warmly* on the subject.
We feel *warm.*
He spoke *angrily.*
He looked *angry.*

146. The plural forms *these* and *those* are often used with the singular nouns *kind* and *sort* ; as,
These kind of things.
Such a form of expression is, however, constanly heard and occurs in good writers.

Some grammarians insist that we should say:
"This kind of things" or, better, "Things of this kind."

147. The words, *superior, inferior, senior, junior, prior, anterior,* and *posterior,* take *to* instead of *than;* as,
As a novelist Jane Austen is *superior* to Mrs. Henry Wood.
Hari is *inferior* to Rama in intelligence.
The death of King Edward VII was *prior* to World War I.
He is *senior* to me.

148. In comparing two things or classes of things the Comparative should be used ; as,
Of the two suggestions, the former is the *better.*
Of the two novels, this is the *more interesting.*
Which is the *cheaper* of the two ?
He is the *taller* of the two.

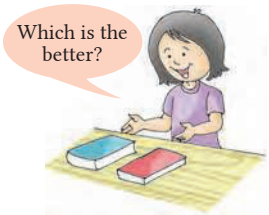

This rule is, however, not strictly observed. In informal English the superlative is often used when we talk about one of only two items. We can use *best,most interesting, cheapest* and *tallest* in the sentences above.

149. When a comparison is instituted by means of a Comparative followed by *than,* the thing compared must be always *excluded* from the class of things with which it is compared, by using *other* or some such words ; as,
He is stronger than any *other* man living.
[The sentence "He is stronger than any man living" suggests that the person referred to is stronger than himself, which is of course, absurd.]
Mussolini may be said to have done more for the unity of Italy than any *other* man.
The Nile is said to be longer than all *other* rivers in the eastern hemisphere.
The Taj is more beautiful than all *other* mausoleums.
Solomon was wiser than all *other* men.

150. In a comparison by means of a Superlative, the latter term should *include* the former ; as,
Solomon was the wisest of all men (not *all other men.*)
The crocodile is the largest of all reptiles.
The Amazon is the largest of all rivers.
Of all men he is the strongest.

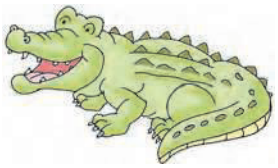

151. *Of any* is often used incorrectly in conjunction with a Superlative ; as,
He has the lightest touch of any musician.
This should be rewritten as follows:—
He has a lighter touch than any other musician.
[Or] No other musician has so light a touch.

152. A very common form of error is exemplified in the following sentence.
The population of London is greater than any city in India.
Say :
The population of London is greater than *that of* any city in India.
The comparison is between :
(*i*) the *population* of London and
(*ii*) the *population* of any city in India.

153. *Double* Comparatives and Superlatives are to be avoided, though their use was once common in English.
Thus, we have in Shakespeare—
It was the *most unkindest* cut of all.
The following sentence is *incorrect.*
Seldom had the little town seen a *more costlier* funeral. [Omit *more*]
But *lesser* (a double comparative) is used even by the best authors.
The *lesser* of the two evils.

154. *Preferable* has the force of a Comparative, and is followed by *to.* We must not say *more preferable.*
He has a scheme of his own which he thinks *preferable to* that of any other person.

155. *Less* (the comparative of *little*) is used before uncountable nouns, while *fewer* (the comparative of *few*) is used before plural nouns. However, *less* is also often used before plural nouns in informal English.
No *fewer* (or *less*) than fifty miners were killed in the explosion.

156. Certain adjectives do not really admit of comparison because their meaning is already superlative ; as,
Unique, ideal, perfect, complete, universal, entire, extreme, chief, square, round.

Do *not* therefore say :
Most unique, quite unique, chiefest, extremist.
But we still say, for instance:
This is the *most* perfect specimen I have seen.

157. *Older* and *oldest* may be said either of persons or of things, while *elder* and *eldest* apply to persons only, and are besides, strictly speaking, confined to members of the same family.
Gladstone was *older* than Morley.
He will succeed to the title in the event of the death of his *elder* brother.
Patricia is the *eldest* of the Vicar's family.
Old Farmer Giles is the *oldest* inhabitant in our village.

158. The *two first* is a meaningless expression, for it implies that two things may be first. We should say "the first *two.*"

The *first two* chapters of the novel are rather dull.
The *first two* boys were awarded gold medals.

159. *Few* and a *few* have different meanings.
Few is negative, and equivalent to *not many, hardly any.*
A few is positive, and equivalent to *some.*
Few persons can keep a secret.
A few words spoken in earnest will convince him.
Similarly *little* = not much ; *a little* = some, though not much.
There is *little* hope of his recovery.
A little tact would have saved the situation.

160. *Latter* is often wrongly used for *last.* Use *latter* when there are two only, *last* when there are more.
Of the three, tea, coffee and cocoa, the *last* (not *latter*) is his favourite.

161. *Verbal* is often wrongly used for *oral.*
Verbal means 'of or pertaining to *words*'; *oral* means, 'delivered by word of mouth', *not written.* Hence the opposite of *written* is *oral,* not *verbal.*

His written statement differs in several important respects from his *oral* (not *verbal*) statement.
The lad was sent with an *oral* message to the doctor.
There are a few *verbal* differences in the two manuscripts (*i.e.*, differences in *words*, not in sense).
The photograph will give the reader a far better notion of the structure than any *verbal* description.
Were your instructions *oral* or *written* ?

162. Do not say 'our *mutual* friend.' The proper expression is 'our *common* friend'.
They were introduced to each other by a *common* (not *mutual*) friend.
We happened to meet at the house of a *common* friend.

Chapter 20 VERBS

163. The subject of the sentence should not be left without a verb. The following sentence is *incorrect.*

He who has suffered most in the cause, let him speak.
Recast as shown below.
Let him who has suffered most in the cause speak.
[Or] He who has suffered most in the cause should speak.

164. A verb should agree with its subject, and not with the complement ; as,
What is wanted *is* (not *are*) not large houses with modern conveniences, but small cottages.
The details *are* a matter for future consideration.
Our followers *are* but a handful.

165. In a compound sentence a single verb can be made to do duty for two subjects, only when the form of the verb is such as to permit of it ; as,
Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note [was heard].
But the following sentence is *incorrect,* because the subjects are not in the same number:
His diet was abstemious, his prayers long and fervent.
We should rewrite it as follows:
His diet was abstemious, his prayers *were* long and fervent.
[In a sentence like this, Mr. Fowler regards the ellipsis as permissible.]

166. Two auxiliaries can be used with one principal verb, only when the form of the principal verb is appropriate to *both* the auxiliaries; as,
I never have hurt anybody, and never will.
No state can or will adopt this drastic measure.
But the following sentence is *incorrect :*
He never has, and never will, take such strong measures.
Rewrite it as follows:
He never has taken, and never will take, such strong measures.

167. When there is only one auxiliary to two principal verbs, it should be such that it may be correctly associated with both; as,
Ten rioters have been sentenced, and five acquitted.
But the following sentence is *incorrect.*
Ten new members have been enrolled, and seven resigned.
Rewrite it as follows :
Ten new members have been enrolled and seven *have* resigned.

168. Carefully distinguish between the verbs *lay* and *lie.* The verb *lay* is transitive and is always followed by an object; the verb *lie* is intransitive and cannot have an object.
Lay, laid, laid.
Lay the child down to sleep.
I *laid* the book on the table.
The hen has *laid* an egg.
Lie, lay, lain
Let me *lie* here.
He *lay* under that pipal tree.

169. An Infinitive should be in the present tense unless it represents action prior to that of the governing verb ; as,
I should have liked *to go* (not *to have gone*).
But we correctly say—
He seems *to have enjoyed* his stay at Mahabaleshwar.

170. A common blunder is to leave the Participle without proper agreement or with no agreement at all ; as,
Sitting on the gate, a scorpion stung him.
Here the word "scorpion" to which the participle "sitting" refers grammatically is not that with which it is meant to be connected in sense ; in other words, the Participle is left without proper agreement.
We should therefore recast it as shown below.
Sitting on the gate, *he* was stung by a scorpion.
[Or] While *he* was sitting on the gate, a scorpion stung him.
Now read the following sentence where the Participle is left with no agreement at all.

Being a very hot day, I remained in my tent.

Here the sentence contains no word to which the Participle can possibly refer. We should therefore write :

As it was a very hot day, I remained in my tent.

171. Usage, however, permits in certain cases constructions like the following :—

Considering his abilities, he should have done better.
Roughly *speaking,* the distance from here to the nearest railway station is two miles.
Taking everything into consideration, his lot is a happy one.

It will be noticed that in each sentence the unexpressed subject is indefinite. Thus,

Taking everything into consideration=If *one* should take everything into consideration.

172. A present participle should not be used to express an action which is not contemporaneous with the action of the principal verb.

The following sentence is therefore *incorrect.*

He sailed for New York on Monday, *arriving* there on Saturday.

Rewrite it as follows.

He sailed for New York on Monday, *and arrived* there on Saturday.

173. The Subjunctive Mood is sometimes wrongly used for the Indicative. When the statement introduced by *if* or *though* is an *actual fact,* or what is *assumed as a fact,* the proper Mood to be used is the Indicative and not the Subjunctive.

Though the war is over, there is much discontent.
If he was there, he must have heard the talk.

But the Subjunctive is correctly used in the following sentences.

Mere supposition { If I *were* you [but I am not], I should agree.
If he *were* here, he would support me.
Though he were the Prime Minister, I would say the same.

174. The verb *make* is followed by noun/pronoun + plain infinitive (= infinitive without *to*). Many students wrongly use it with the *to*-infinitive.

She made the boy *do* the whole work. (not: *to do* the whole work)

175. When used in the passive, *make* is followed by the *to*-infinitive.
The boy *was made* to do the whole work.

176. The following verbs are often wrongly used with the *to*-infinitive: e*njoy, avoid, miss, postpone, suggest.* They should be used with the gerund.

He enjoys *swimming*. (not: *to swim*)
She avoids *meeting* people. (not: *to avoid*)
We missed *seeing* the Prime Minister. (not: *to see*)

Note the following.

1. *Wrong:* Suresh *told to* me about it.
   Right: Suresh *told* me about it.

The verb *tell* is followed by an indirect object (*me, him, her*, etc.) without *to.*

2. *Wrong:* She *told* she wouldn't come.
   Right: She *told* me she wouldn't come./She *said* she wouldn't come.

When used with a *that*-clause, *tell* takes an indirect object, while *say* does not.

3. *Wrong:* I *want* that you should meet him.
   Right: I *want* you to meet him.

The verb *want* should not be used with a *that*-clause. It is used with the *to*-infinitive.

4. *Wrong:* I *suggest* you to apply for the post.
   Right: I *suggest* that you (should) apply for the post.

The verb *suggest* should be used with a *that*-clause. It cannot be used with the *to*-infinitive.

177. The verbs *discuss, describe, order* and *request* are transitive verbs. Students often wrongly use these verbs with a preposition.

Wrong: We *discussed about* the matter yesterday.
Right: We *discussed* the matter yesterday.
Wrong: He *described about* the scenery.
Right: He *described* the scenery.
Wrong: I have *ordered for* three cups of coffee.
Right: I have *ordered* three cups of coffee.
Wrong: She *requested for* my help.
Right: She *requested* my help.

EXERCISE 115

Recast the following sentences.

1. Being condemned to death, the scaffold was erected for his execution.
2. Born in Surat, a part of his education was received in Mumbai.
3. Observing the house on fire, the engines were sent for.
4. Being a wet day, I wore my mackintosh.
5. Having gone to bed very late, the sun woke me at about nine o'clock.
6. Referring to your esteemed inquiry, the prices of the articles are as follows.
7. Standing on the top of the hill, the eye roams over the beautiful landscape.
8. Having failed in the first attempt, no further attempts were made.
9. Bearing this in mind, no particular difficulty will be found.
10. Travelling from Karjat to Khandala, the line is most beautifully laid.
11. Being his sole companion, he naturally addressed himself to me.
12. Crossing the channel, a heavy storm arose.
13. Hoping to hear from you soon, yours sincerely.
14. Calling upon him yesterday, he subscribed a handsome sum to the Famine Relief Fund.
15. Going up the hill, an old temple was seen.
16. Resting in cool shelter, the hours were beguiled with desultory talk.
17. Having obtained information, he was arrested for complicity in the plot.
18. Weary with travelling, the destination seemed a hundred miles away.
19. Meeting my friend in the park, he told me all the news.
20. Entering the room, the light was quite dazzling.

For a detailed treatment of the uses of the Tenses and Auxiliaries, see chapters **25, 26 and 32,** Book I.

Chapter 21 ADVERBS

178. Adverbs should be so placed in a sentence as to make it quite clear which word or words they are intended to modify. Hence Adverbs should come, if possible, next to the word or words they modify.

He had got *almost* to the top when the rope broke.

179. As a general rule, *only* should be placed immediately *before* the word it is intended to modify ; as,

I worked *only* two sums.

Only Balu succeeded in scoring a century.

I praise him *only* when he deserves it.

In spoken English, however, it is usually put before the verb. The required meaning is obtained by stressing the word which the *only* modifies ; *e.g.*,

He only worked two sums. (The word *two* is stressed.)

180. The adverbs *ever, never, scarcely, ever* are often misplaced, as in the following sentence :
Quite the most remarkable article we ever remember to have read.
[Say : we remember ever.....]

181. Two negatives destroy each other. Hence two negatives should not be used in the same sentence unless we wish to make an affirmation. We should say :

I haven't got *any* (not *none*).
I could not find it *any*where (not *no*where).
I have not got *any* (not *no*) paper for my exercise.
I can't see *any* (not *no*) wit in her.
Scarcely any one believes in such ghost stories nowadays.
(*Not,* No one scarcely believes .....)

182. Adjectives should not be used for Adverbs. We should say, for instance :

He ate the sweets greedily (not *greedy*).
He will pay *dearly* (not *dear*) for his mistake.

183. *Ever* is sometimes misused for *never.*
We seldom or *never* (not *ever*) see those forsaken who trust in God.
Such goods are made for export, and are seldom or *never* (not *ever)* used in the country.

Note—Seldom or never and seldom if ever are both correct but seldom or ever is incorrect.

184. *Else* should be followed by *but.*

It is nothing *else but* (not *than*) pride.

185. The use of *never* for *not is* incorrect.
We met the other day, but he *never* referred to the matter. [Say : he *did not* ever refer....]
Kipling was *never* born in London. [Say : Kipling was *not* born.....]
I *never* remember having met him. [Say: I *do not* remember *ever* having met him.]

186. Except colloquially, *so* as an adverb of degree must not be used absolutely. (*i.e.,* without a correlative)
We should say :
He is *very* (not *so*) weak.
Cricket is *very* (not *so*) uncertain. I was *very* (not *so*) lonely.

187. *That* should not be used instead of *so* as an adverb. We should say :
He went only *so* (not *that*) far.
He was *so* (not *that*) tired that he could scarcely stand.
He was *so* (not *that*) angry that he slammed the book on the table.

188. The adverb *too* means "more than enough" and should not be used instead of *very* or *much.*
In the following sentences *too* is used correctly.

The news is *too* good to be true.
My heart is *too* full for words.
The work is *too* much for any man to do single-handed.
He is *too* much exhausted to speak.

189. *Of course* is often loosely used for *certainly, undoubtedly.* Strictly speaking, *of course* should be used to denote a *natural* or an *inevitable* consequence.
Does she sing well ? *Certainly* (not *of course*) she does.

EXERCISE 116

Correct the following sentences and state your reasons for so doing.

1. It was bitter cold.
2. I couldn't help not laughing at the joke.
3. I never remember to have seen a more excited football match.
4. This novel is too interesting.

5. I haven't got no money.
6. My friend said he never remembered having read a more enjoyable book.
7. This hardly won liberty was not to be lightly abandoned.
8. I am much glad to see you.
9. No one can write as neatly as he does.
10. I cannot by no means allow you to do so.
11. The flowers smell sweetly.
12. I don't know nothing whatever of the matter.

Chapter 22 CONJUNCTIONS

190. *Except* is not now used as a conjunction equivalent to *unless.*

I shall not come *unless* (not *except*) you need me.
Do not trouble yourself about writing to me, *unless* (not *except*) you are quite in the humour for it.

191. The use of *without* as conjunction equivalent to *unless* is now bad English.

Unless (not *without*) you apologize I shall punish you.
I shall not go *unless* (not *without*) you do.

192. The adverb *like* is often wrongly used as a conjunction instead of *as.*

He speaks *as* (not *like*) his father does.

But it is quite correct to say :

He speaks *like* his father. [*Like* is here a preposition.]

193. *Directly* should not be used as a conjunction where *as soon as* would in every way be better.

As soon as [not *directly*] the session of 1999 commenced, the Government was pressed to do something for the unemployed.

According to Fowler, "the conjunctional use of *directly* is quite defensible, but is chiefly colloquial."

194. The conjunction *that* is sometimes redundantly repeated; as,

He must remember that, although the first people in Europe would like his society, and place him on an equality with themselves, [*that*] none of them would either give or lend him a farthing.

195. Instead of repeating the conjunction used in the preceding clause, some writers have a trick of introducing a subsequent clause by *that;* as,

If I do not speak of them it is *because* they do not come within my subject, and not *that* they are lightly esteemed by me.[Use *because* instead of *that.*]

196. *Scarcely* should be followed by *when*, and not by *than.*

Scarcely had he gone, *when* (not *than*) a policeman knocked at the door.

197. *No sooner* is followed by *than,* and not by *but.*

No sooner had he returned *than* (not *but*) he was off again.

198. The phrase "seldom or ever" is meaningless. We should say "seldom or never".

Such goods are made for export, and are *seldom or never* used in this country.

199. Say:

I gave no more than I could *not* help (not *than I could* help).

200. Examine the following sentence.

This is as good if not better than that.
You will notice that *as* is omitted after "as good".
It is better to say :
This is as good as, if not better than, that.

But the best way to correct the sentence is to recast it, thus:

This is as good as that, if not better.

201. Care should be taken, when using correlative conjunctions, such as *either.....or, neither.....nor, not only....but also,* that they are followed by the same part of speech ; as,
He lost *not only* his ticket, *but also* his luggage.

But the following is *incorrect :*
He not only lost his ticket, but also his luggage.

202. *Neither* is followed by *nor,* not by *or.*
He washed *neither* his hands *nor* (not *or*) his face.

Chapter 23 ORDER OF WORDS

203. In English, owing to the fewness of the inflexions, the order (or arrangement) of the words in a sentence is of the first importance.

The following is the usual order of words in an English sentence.

(1) The subject usually comes before the verb; as,
The *dog* bit the horse.
The *people* rang the bell for joy.

(2) The object usually comes after the verb; as,
The horse bit the *dog*.
The King wears a *crown.*

(3) When there is an indirect object and also a direct object, the indirect precedes the direct; as,
Lend *me* your *ears.*

(4) When the adjective is used attributively it comes before the noun which it qualifies ; as,
Few cats lilke *cold* water.
I like the *little* pedlar who has a *crooked* nose.
King Francis was a *hearty* king, and loved a *royal* sport.

(5) When the adjective is used predicatively it comes after the noun; as,
The child is *asleep.*
The horse became *restive.*

(6) The adjective phrase comes immediately after the noun; as,
Old Tubal Cain was a man *of might.*
The tops *of the mountains* were covered with snow.

(7) The adverb is generally placed close to the word which it modifies; as,
Nothing *ever* happens by chance.
John is a *rather* lazy boy.
He worked *only* two sums.
He *never* tells a lie.

Note—When an adverb is intended to modify the sentence as a whole, it is placed at the beginning of a sentence; as,
Certainly he made a fool of himself.

(8) All qualifying clauses are placed as close as possible to the words which they qualify; as,
He died in the village *where he was born.*
The dog *that bites* does not bark.
People *who live in glass houses* should not throw stones.

204. The normal order of words in a sentence is sometimes altered for *emphasis;* as,

Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
Monkeys I detest.
Money you shall have.
Blessed are the merciful.
Great is Diana of the Ephesians.
Great is the struggle, and great is also the prize.
Just and true are all Thy ways.
Fallen, fallen is Babylon !
Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have give I unto thee.

205. Owing to faulty arrangement of words a sentence may be turned into perfect nonsense; as,
Few people learn anything that is worth learning easily.
He blew out his brains, after bidding his wife goodbye with a gun.
A gentleman has a dog to sell who wishes to go abroad.
It is, therefore, essential that *all qualifying words, phrases and clauses should be placed as near as possible to the words to which they refer.*

EXERCISE 117

Rewrite the following sentences, improving the arrangement.

1. For sale, piano, the property of a musician, with carved legs.
2. He tore up the tender letter which his mother had written him in a fit of peevish vexation.
3. The captain took the things which the gods provided with thankful good humour.
4. Sometimes you will see an alligator lying in the sunshine on the bank eight feet long.
5. All the courtiers told the Queen how beautiful she was all the day long.
6. Mrs. Jeremy Daud was sitting with her husband on the steps of the hotel when Amy and Dulce came up, with her lap full of newspapers.
7. The man ought to be brought before a magistrate who utters such threats.
8. He visited the battlefield where Napoleon was defeated in his holidays.
9. He killed the sparrow which was eating some crumbs with a gun.
10. No magnanimous victor would treat those whom the fortune of war had put in his power so cruelly.
11. The constable said that the prisoner seizing a bolster full of rage and fury had knocked the prosecutor down.
12. A nurse maid is wanted for a baby about twenty years old.
13. I spent the three last days of my holiday in a chair with a swollen leg.
14. This monument has been erected to the memory of John Brown who was accidentally shot by his brother as a mark of affection.
15. In thirty-seven wrecks only five lives were fortunately lost.
16. The following verses were written by a young man who has long since been dead for his own amusement.
17. Many works must close if the strike lasts over the weekend owing to lack of fuel.
18. There will be a meeting of all boys who play cricket and football in the long room at 4 o'clcok.

EXERCISE 118

Rewrite the following sentences improving the arrangement.

1. These acts were pushed through Parliament in spite of opposition with but little modification.
2. The beaux of that day painted their faces as well as the women.
3. He saw countless numbers of the dead riding across the field of battle.
4. They only work when they have no money.
5. He refused to relieve the beggar with a frown on his face.
6. His body was found floating lifeless on the water at a short distance from where the boat was upset by a fisherman.
7. He was very fond of her; he thought of marrying her more than once.
8. It is proposed to construct a bath for males 99 feet long.

9. One day the bird did not perform certain tricks which had thought it to his satisfaction.
10. I have lately received permission to print the following tale from the author's son.
11. They left the hotel where they had been staying in a motor-car.
12. The Board of Education has resolved to erect a building large enough to accommodate 500 students three storeys high.
13. He spoke of the notion that the national debt might be repudiated with absolute contempt.
14. One of the combatants was unhurt, and the other sustained a wound in the arm of no importance.
15. Girl wanted for telephone of nice manners and appearance.
16. He repeated the whole poem after he had read it only once with perfect accuracy.
17. He was shot by a secretary under notice to quit with whom he was finding fault very fortunately without effect.
18. A clever judge would see whether a witness was deliberately lying a great deal better than a stupid jury.
19. I was rather impressed by the manner of the orator than by his matter.
20. He was driving away from the church where he had been married in a coach and six.
21. Stories have been related of these animals which are of an entirely fictitious character.

Chapter 24 IDIOMS

206. Idioms may be defined as expressions peculiar to a language. They play an important part in all languages.

207. Many verbs, when followed by various prepositions, or adverbs, acquire an idiomatic sense; as,

He backed up (supported) his friend's claim.
The present disturbances will soon blow over (pass off).
The police produced evidence to bear out (substantiate) the charge of murder.
You must not build your hopes upon (rely upon) his promises.
The matter has been cleared up (explained).
I readily closed with (accepted) his offer.
He is ready to dispose of (sell) his car for Rs.1,50,000.
Rust has eaten away (corroded) the plate.
They fixed upon (chose) him to do the work.
My good behaviour so far gained on (won the favour of) the emperor that I began to conceive hopes of liberty.
The habit of chewing tobacco has been growing upon (is having stronger and stronger hold over) him.
Please hear me out (*i.e.,* hear me to the end).
I have hit upon (found) a good plan to get rid of him.
About an hour ago I saw a fellow hanging about (loitering about) our bungalow.
These events led up to (culminated in) the establishment of a republic.
During excavations one of the workmen lighted upon (chanced to find, discovered) a gold idol.
During her long illness she often longed for (desired) death.
I could not prevail on (persuade, induce) him to attend the meeting.
For years I could not shake off (get rid of) my malaria.
I threatened to show him up (expose him).
All eyes turned to him because he was the only person who could stave off (prevent, avert) the impending war.
He is sticking out for (persists in demanding) better terms.
I must think the matter over (*i.e.,* consider it).
Train up (educate) a child in the way he should go; and when he is old he will not depart from it.
That fellow trumped up (concocted, fabricated) a story.
He seems to be well off (in comfortable circumstances).

Bear

Satish bore away (won) many prizes at the school sports.
The new leader has been able to bear down (overthrow, crush) all opposition.
His evidence bears out (confirms, corroborates) the evidence of the first witness.
In his misfortune God gave him strength to bear up (to keep up spirits, not to despair).
A religious hope bears up (supports) a man in his trials.
His evidence did not bear upon (was not relevant to) the inquiry.
I trust you will bear with (have patience with, show forbearance to) me a few minutes more.

Break

He broke down (failed) in the middle of his speech.
He broke off (stopped suddenly) in the middle of his story.
I gave him no cause to break with (quarrel with) me.
The burglars broke into (entered by force) the house.

Bring

His folly has brought about (caused) his ruin.
Idleness and luxury bring forth (produce, cause) poverty and want.
He brought forward (adduced) several cogent arguments in support of his scheme.
That building brings in (yields as rent) Rs. 7000 a month.
Our teacher often tells us a story to bring out (show) the meaning of a lesson.
The publishers have recently brought out (published) a cheap edition of their new dictionary.
He found great difficulty in bringing her round (converting her) to his views.
She brought up (reared) the orphan as her own child.

Call

His master called for (demanded) an explanation of his conduct.
New responsibilities often call out (draw forth) virtues and abilities unsuspected before.
Call in (summon, send for) a doctor immediately.
He called on me (paid me a brief visit) yesterday.
The old man could not call up (recollect) past events.

Carry

He agreed to carry out (execute) my orders.
His passion carried him away (*i.e.,* deprived him of self-control).
His son carried on (managed) his business in his absence.
Many persons were carried off (killed) by plague.

Cast

The ship was cast away (wrecked) on the coast of Africa.
He was much cast down (depressed) by his loss.

Come

How did these things come about (happen) ?
How did you come by (get) his purse ?
When does the Convocation come off (take place) ?
At last the truth has come out (transpired).
The taxes come to (amount to) a large sum.
The question came up (was mooted or raised for discussion).
before the Municipal Corporation last week.

I expect he will come round (recover) within a week.
I hope he will come round (agree) to our views.

Cry

Men of dissolute lives cry down (depreciate) religion, because they would not be under the restraints of it.
He cried out against (protested against) such injustice.
That young author is cried up (extolled) by his friends.

Cut

He was cut off (died) in the prime of life.
You must cut down (reduce) your expenditure.
He is cut out for (specially fitted to be) a sailor.
His wife's death cut him up (afflicted him, distressed him) terribly.

Do

I am done for (ruined).
Having walked twenty miles, he is quite done up (fatigued, exhausted).

Fall

At last the rioters fell back (retreated, yielded).
At my friend's tea-party I fell in with (met accidentally) a strange fellow.
The measure falls in with (happens to meet) the popular demand.
The scheme has fallen through (failed) for want of support.
I am told the two brothers have fallen out (quarrelled).
It is said that the standard of efficiency in public service has recently fallen off (deteriorated).
In the second school-term the attendance fell off (diminished).

Get

His friends expected that he would get off (escape) with a fine.
It is hard to get on with (agree or live sociably with) a suspicious man.
The thief got away (escaped) with my cash-box.
I can't get out (remove) this stain.
The revolt of the tribal chiefs has been got under (subdued).
The dog tried to get at (attack) me.
He has got through (passed) his examination.
They soon got the fire under (under control) by pouring buckets of water over it.
You were lucky to get out of (escape from) his clutches.

Give

We are credibly informed that the murderer has given himself up (surrendered himself) to the police.
The doctors have given him up (*i.e.,* have no hope of his recovery).
Soon after it was given forth (published, noised abroad), and believed by many, that the King was dead.
The fire gave off (emitted) a dense smoke.
The strikers seem determined, and are not likely to give in (submit, yield).
It was given out (published, proclaimed) that he was a bankrupt.
The horses gave out (were exhausted) at the next milestone.
The rope gave way (broke, snapped) while the workmen were hauling up the iron pillar.
He would not listen to me at first, but at last he gave way (yielded).
The Governor gave away (distributed, presented) the prizes.

Give over (abandon) this foolish attempt.
In his cross-examination, he ultimately gave himself away (betrayed himself).

Go

You cannot always go by (judge from) appearances.
It is a good rule to go by (to be guided by).
He promised to go into (examine, investigate) the matter.
Have you anything to go upon (*i.e.,* any foundation for your statement) ?
We have no data to go upon (on which to base our conclusions).
The story won't go down (be believed).
The concert went off well (was a success).
The auditor went over (examined) the balance sheet.
The poor woman has gone through (suffered) much.
I must first go through (examine) the accounts.

Hold

The rebels held out (offered resistance) for about a month.
He holds out (gives) no promise of future prospects.
They were held up (stopped on the highway and robbed) by bandits.
The subject is held over (deferred, postponed) till next meeting.

Keep

A few boys were kept in (confined after school-hours).
I was kept in (confined to the house) by a bad cold.
They kept up (carried on) a long conversation.
Little disputes and quarrels are chiefly kept up (maintained) by those who have nothing else to do.
He is trying his best to keep up (maintain) the reputation of his family.
The rubber syndicate keeps up (maintains) the price.
She kept on (continued) talking.
I shall keep back (conceal) nothing from you.

Knock

He has knocked about (wandered about) the world a great deal.
The dressing-table was knocked down (sold at an auction) for Rs. 900.
We were greatly knocked up (exhausted) after our steep climb.

Lay

The rebels laid down (surrendered) their arms.
He had laid out (invested) a large sum in railway shares.
Foolish people, who do not lay out (spend) their money carefully, soon come to grief.
He is laid up (confined to his bed) with fever.
He resolved to lay by (save for future needs) a part of his income.

Let

I was let into (made acquainted with) her secret.
This being his first offence he was let off (punished leniently) with a fine.

Look

His uncle looks after (takes care of) him.
He looks down upon (despises) his poor cousins.
Look up (search for) the word in the dictionary.
The old man is looking forward to (expecting with pleasure) the visit of his grandchildren.
I will look into (investigate) the matter.
I look on (regard) him as my son.
Some look to (rely on) legislation to hasten the progress of social reforms.
Look to (be careful about) your manners.
Prices of piece-goods are looking up (rising).
Things are looking up (improving).
His friends look up to (respect) him.
He will not look at (*i.e.,* will reject) your offer.

Make

Contentment makes for (conduces to) happiness.
He made over (presented, gave in charity) his bungalow to the Islam Orphanage.
I cannot make out (discover) the meaning of this verse.
I cannot make out (read, decipher) his handwriting.
You have failed to make out (prove) your case.
Some time ago the two brothers quarrelled, but they have now made it up (become reconciled).

Pass

He generally passed by (overlooked) the faults of his subordinates.
The crew of the boat passed through (underwent) terrible sufferings.
He passed himself off as (pretended to be) a nobleman.
He poses all for (is regarded as) a great Sanskritist.

Pick

The Committee picked out (selected) the best players for the team.
He lost twenty pounds in sickness, but is now picking up (regaining or recovering health).

Pull

Unless we pull together (co-operate, work together in harmony) we cannot succeed.
My cousin pulled through (passed with difficulty) the examination.
The doctor says the patient will pull through (recover from his illness).
It is far easier to pull down (demolish) than to build up.
He was pulled up (scolded, rebuked) by the President.

Put

He puts on (assumes) an air of dignity.
Please put out (extinguish) the light.
He was put out (vexed, annoyed) when I refused his request for a loan.
The plaintiff was put out (disconcerted) when the suit was dismissed.
He tried to put me off (evade me, satisfy me) with promises.
He has put in (made, sent in) a claim for compensation.
While travelling I had to put up with (endure) a good deal of discomfort.
I cannot put up with (tolerate) his insolence.

They put him up to (incited him to) mischief.
I am sorry to put you to (give you) so much trouble.
He put off (postponed) his departure for a week.
The measure was put through (passed) without opposition.

Run

On account of overwork he is run down (enfeebled).
He always runs down (disparages) his rivals.
The lease of our premises has run out (expired, come to an end).
He has run through (squandered away) his fortune.
The tailor's bill has run up to (amounted to) a large amount.
He has run into (incurred) debt.
While turning the corner I ran against (chanced to meet) an old friend.
Recently my expenses have run up (increased) considerably.
The cistern is running over (overflowing).

See

I saw through (detected) the trick.
It is hard to see into (discern) his motive.
His friends were present at the station to see him off (witness his departure).

Set

The High Court set aside (annulled) the decree of the lower court.
He immediately set about (took steps towards) organizing the department.
He set off (started) for Peshawar early this morning.
The frame sets off the picture (*i.e.*, enhances its beauty by contrast).
He has set up (started business) as a banker.
I have enough capital to set me up (establish myself) in trade.
He hired a palatial bungalow and set up for (pretended to be) a millionaire.
I was obliged to set him down (snub him).
You may set down (charge) his loss to me.
Who set you on (instigated you) to do it ?
These seats are set apart (reserved) for ladies.
In his speech on prohibition, he set forth (explained, made known) his views at length.
The robbers set upon (attacked) the defenceless travellers.
Winter in England sets in (begins) about December.

Speak

In this city there is no free library to speak of (worth mentioning).
I was determined to speak out (express my opinion freely).

Stand

They are determined to stand up for (vindicate, maintain) their rights.
Let this matter stand over (be deferred or postponed) for the present.
It is hard but I think I can stand it out (endure it to the end without yielding).
He is always standing up for (championing the cause of) the weak and oppressed.
We shall be formidable if we stand by (support) one another.

Strike

He is struck down with (attacked by) paralysis.
The Medical Council struck off (removed) his name from the register of medical practitioners.
While we were planning a family picnic, my sister struck in (interrupted) with the suggestion that we invite our neighbour's children as well.

Take

The piano takes up (occupies) too much room.
It would take up (occupy) too much time to tell you the whole story.
He takes after (resembles) his father.
At present I am reading the Essays of Bacon, but it is sometimes difficult to take in (comprehend, understand) his meaning.
Recently he has taken to (become addicted to) opium eating.

Talk

We talked over (discussed) the matter for an hour.
I hope to talk him over (convince him by talking) to our view.

Tell

I am afraid your antecedents will tell against you (*i.e.,* prove unfavourable to you).
The strain is telling upon (affecting) his health.

Throw

My advice was thrown away (wasted) upon him, because he ignored it.
The bill was thrown out (rejected) by the Assembly.
In disgust he threw up (resigned) his appointment.
When he became rich he threw over (abandoned or deserted) all his old friends.

Turn

The factory turns out (produces, manufactures) 20,000 lbs of cloth a day.
If he is lazy, why don't you turn him off (dismiss him)?
He turned out (proved) to be a sharper.
His very friends turned against (became hostile to) him.
Who can say what will turn up (happen) next ?
He promised to come, but he never turned up (appeared).

Work

We tempted him with many promises, but nothing would work on (influence) him.
He worked out (solved) the problem in a few minutes.
He is sure to work up (excite) the mob.
He worked upon (influenced) the ignorant villagers.

Chapter 25 IDIOMS (CONTD.)

208. The student who studies the following selection of English idioms will notice that metaphor enters largely into idiomatic phraseology.

1

In spite of all his brag he had *to eat humble pie* (to apologize humbly, to yield under humiliating circumstances).

Take care what you say! You will have *to eat your words* (to retract your statements, to take back what you have said).

I am prepared *to meet you half-way* (come to a compromise with you).

It is silly *to meet trouble half-way (i.e.,*to anticipate it ; to worry about it before it comes).

This unexpected new difficulty *put me on my mettle* (roused me to do my best.)

This is *of a piece with* (in keeping with) the rest of his conduct.

He is *not worth his salt* (quite worthless) if he fails at this juncture.

The cost of living has increased so much that he finds it difficult *to make both ends meet* (to live within his income).

As a social reformer, *he set his face against* (sternly opposed) nautch parties.

At the battle of Marengo, Napoleon was *within an ace of* (on the point of) defeat (*i.e.,* he was very nearly defeated).

2

The belief in witchcraft is *losing ground* (becoming less powerful or acceptable).

Lord Roberts first *won his laurels* (acquired distinction or glory) in India.

It was in parliamentary debate that he *won his spurs* (made his reputation as a politician).

When the prodigal returned to his father's house, he was received *with open arms* (with a warm welcome).

How can you trust a man who *plays fast and loose* (says one thing and does another) ?

I *took him to task* (rebuked him) for reading "penny dreadfuls".

He *turned a deaf ear to* (disregarded) my advice.

That argument will not *hold water* (stand scrutiny *i.e.,* it is unsound).

He is determined to achieve his object *by hook or by crook* (by fair means or foul; by any means he can).

To all intents and purposes (practically, virtually) the Prime Minister of Nepal was the ruler of the country.

3

The singer, having a slight cough, was *not in voice* (unable to sing well) at the concert.

These two statements *do not hang together (i.e.,* are not consistent with each other).

This is more than *flesh and blood* (human nature) can endure.

He accepted my statement *without reserve* (fully, implicitly).

I must *take exception to* (object to) your remark.

He is indulgent *to a fault (i.e.,* he is *over*-indulgent; so indulgent that his indulgence is a fault).

The belief in efficacy of vaccination is *gaining ground* (becoming more general).

From his attitude it is clear that he wants *to pay off old scores* (to have his revenge).

He has been working *on and off* (at intervals) several years to compile a dictionary.

He visits me *off and on* (now and then, occasionally).

4

At least on the question of child-marriage we are *at one* (of the same opinion).

He took my advice *in good part* (without offence ; *i.e.,* he did not resent it).

It was he who *put a spoke in my wheel* (thwarted me in the execution of my design).

At an early age he *made his mark* (distinguished himself) as a chemist.

I *have it at my fingers' ends* (know it thoroughly).

The new play has *fallen flat* (met with a cold reception).

Where discipline is concerned I *put my foot down* (take a resolute stand).

It is a matter of gratification to me that he has *turned over a new leaf* (changed for the better; begun a different mode of life).

I have *made up my mind* (resolved, decided) to retire from business.

This *puts me in mind* (reminds me) of an amusing incident.

5

There's *no love lost between them (i.e.,* they are not on good terms, they dislike each other).

Many people in that country live *from hand to mouth (i.e.,* without any provision for the future).

Steady work is sure to be rewarded *in the long run* (eventually, ultimately).

Whatever else one may say of him, no one dare *call in question* (challenge, express a doubt about) his honesty of purpose.

The police came to the scene *in the nick of time* (just at the right moment, opportunely).

She stood by him *through thick and thin* (under all conditions, undaunted by anything).

His partner *threw cold water on* his scheme (discouraged him by showing indifference to it).

He can *turn his hand to* (adapt or apply himself to) anything.

The Sultan rules his subjects *with a high hand* (oppressively).

He is *hand and glove* (on very intimate terms) with my cousin.

6

He *turns* even his errors *to account (i.e.,* profits by them).

He is accused of *sitting on the fence* (halting between two opinions, hesitating which side to join).

It is *all one* (just the same) to me whether he lives in Mumbai or Kolkata.

What is the point *at issue* (in dispute) ?

The inquiry has *brought to light* (disclosed) some startling facts.

He is *not fit to hold a candle to* (not to be named in comparison with) his predecessor.

He *burnt his fingers* (got himself into trouble) by interfering in his neighbour's affairs.

I suspect the fellow *lives by his wits (i.e.,* he has no settled means of subsistence but picks up a living by deceit or fraud).

He *bids fair* (seems likely) to rival his father as a lawyer.

He *strained every nerve* (used his utmost efforts) to get his friend elected.

7

When I saw him last he was *beside himself* (out of his mind) with grief.

He spent over it much time and energy, and lost a large sum *into the bargain* (in addition, besides).

When I entered the house everything was *at sixes and sevens* (in disorder or confusion).

Recently he has been *giving himself airs* (behaving arrogantly).

The attack might be launched at any time, so you must be *on the alert* (on your guard, ready to act).

Retrenchement is *the order of the day* (the prevailing state of things) in every public and private office.

In the manufacture of dyes the Germans *bear the palm* (are pre-eminent).

Agriculture in America has *kept pace* with (progressed at equal rate with) industrial activities.

This text-book of chemistry is quite *out of date* (obsolete).

This is the most *up-to-date* (modern, recent) book on the subject.

8

What you say has no bearing on the subject *in hand* (under discussion or consideration).

It *speaks volumes for* (serves as a strong testimony to) Dr. Johnson's industry that he should have compiled the dictionary without anyone's help.

Poor fellow ! he is *hoping against hope* (hoping even when the case seems hopeless).

I am told he has got *into hot water* (into trouble).

Ultimately I *got the better of him* (overcame him).

He was found guilty, but, he *got off easy* (got a light sentence).

I *wash my hands of* the whole matter (*i.e.,* I refuse to have anything more to do with it).

The situation seems to have got quite *out of hand* (beyond control).

It is said that he *has a finger in the pie* (has something to do with the affair, is mixed up in the affair).

That fellow *sets* everybody *by the ears* (*i.e.,* he is a mischief-maker).

9

You have *hit the nail on the head* (said or done exactly the right thing).

Today he is *in high spirits* (cheerful, joyful).

How is that ? You seem *out of spirits* (gloomy, sad).

Hello ! my lad; you look as if you've *been in the wars* (hurt yourself).

I suspect he has *an axe to grind* (private ends to serve, a personal interest in the matter).

The news of the Amir's death *spread like wild fire* (spread rapidly).

He *took to heart* (was deeply affected by) the death of his wife.

He was disappointed, but he *took heart* (cheered himself up) and tried again.

He *has his heart in the right place* (means well, is of a kindly and sympathetic disposition).

He is *coming to the front* (attaining prominence, becoming conspicuous) in public life.

10

He is not a great lawyer but he has *the gift of the gab* (a talent for speaking).

Prohibition is *gall and wormwood* (hateful) to distillers.

The strikers have thrown out of gear (disturbed the working of) many of our important industries.

Though he addressed his boys for a few minutes only, the earnestness with which he spoke *went home to them* (deeply appealed to them).

Just now he is simply *coining money* (making money very rapidly, earning large sums easily).

The screen is *in character* (in keeping) with the rest of the furniture.

He is not *in the good books of* (in favour with) his master.

I am afraid I am *in his bad books* (out of favour with him).

I am quite *at sea* (perplexed, at a loss what to do or how to act).

He does not understand that he *stands in his own light* (acts against his own interests, hinders his own advancement).

11

Although he denies it, I think he is *behind the scenes* (in the secret, in possession of facts not generally known).

You are sure *to put your foot in it* (to blunder, to get into a scrape) if you meddle in his affairs.

I begged him to reconsider his decision, but he *put his foot down* (remained firm ; refused to yield).

He asked me to dine with him, but I had to *foot the bill* (pay for it).

We shall fight *tooth and nail* (with all our power) for our rights.

The property belonged to a Nawab, but recently it *changed hands* (became someone else's property).

He is *by long odds* (most decidedly) the greatest of living mathematicians.

The thief *took* to his heels (ran off) on seeing a policeman.

Our school is *within a stone's throw of* (at a short distance from) the railway station.

A few days before his death, he *made a clean breast of* (confessed without reserve) everything connected with that affair.

12

He *stood his ground* (maintained his position) against his adversary.

He *keeps in touch with* (has intimate knowledge of) the latest developments in wireless.

That is *where the shoe pinches* (where the difficulty or trouble lies).

I told him that I was prepared *to show my hand* (to reveal my plan of action, to let out my designs) provided he agreed to do the same.

The medical graduates *to a man (i.e.,* everyone without exception) voted in favour of him.

He insisted on his orders being carried out *to the letter* (exactly, with adherence to every detail).

For a long time he kept his father *in the dark* (in ignorance) about the true state of affairs.

Success has *turned his head* (made him quite vain).

His *star is in the ascendant (i.e.,* fortune favours him).

13

The scheme appears worthless *at the first blush* (at first sight).

It was his constant prayer that he might *die in harness* (continue to the last in his business or profession).

He *has too many irons in the fire (i.e.,* he is engaged in too many enterprises at the same time).

The Sikh soldiers were *true to their salt* (faithful to their employers).

The latest police report says that the situation is now well *in hand* (under control).

He was *at his wit's end* (quite puzzled, at a complete loss how to act).

What's the matter with him ? He is *falling foul of* (quarrelling with) everybody.

I am sure he won't *go back on* (fail to keep) his word.

The directors of the company *put their heads together* (consulted one another) to formulate a new scheme.

Do not *give ear to* (listen to) a tale-bearer.

14

So far as I could see there was nothing *out of the way* (strange, eccentric) in the behaviour of that stranger.

A spirit of unrest is *in the air* (prevalent, found everywhere).

The controversy is likely to create *bad blood* (ill-feeling, bitterness) between the two communities.

The rebels surrrendered *at discretion* (unconditionally).

The letter is meant *to be read between the lines (i.e.,* it has a hidden or unexpressed meaning, not apparent on the surface).

He was murdered *in cold blood (i.e.,* not in the heat of passion or excitement, but deliberately).

Let us have your terms *in black and white* (in writing).

On the approach of a policeman the bully *showed a clean pair of heels* (ran away).

He has politics *on the brain* (constantly in his thoughts, as a sort of monomania).

This will suit you *to a T* (exactly).

15

His eldest son, a spendthrift, is *a thorn in his side* (a constant source of annoyance to him).

I *smell a rat* (have reason to suspect something).

I *nipped* his scheme *in the bud (i.e.,* made it fail before it could mature).

What you propose is *out of the question* (not to be thought of, impossible).

The performance was not *up to the mark* (quite satisfactory).

The long and the short of it (the simple fact, the whole matter in a few words) is that I do not want to deal with that new firm.

I am told he is *in the running (i.e.,* he has good prospects in the competition).

Now that he has nothing to fear from me, he is *showing his teeth* (adopting a threatening attitude).

He *changed colour* (turned pale) when I questioned him about his antecedents.

He had made a great mistake in championing their cause, but, having done it, he *stuck to his guns* (remained faithful to the cause).

16

This is the time *to take stock of* (to survey) the whole situation.

What's the good of entering into negotiations with *a man of straw* (a man of no substance or consequence)?

The election campaign is just now *in full swing* (very active).

He is not wise enough *to keep his own counsel* (to preserve a discreet silence, to be reticent about his opinions or affairs).

That young fellow was *born with a silver spoon in his mouth* (born in wealth and luxury).

It *stands to reason* (is quite clear, is an undoubted fact) that the rich never have justice done them in plays and stories; for the people who write are poor.

This suitcase *has stood me in good stead* (proved useful to me) in my travels.

You have *taken the wind out of my sails* (made my words or actions ineffective by anticipating them).

I *took him to task* (reproved him) for his carelessness.

I have *a bone to pick with you* (some cause of quarrel with you).

17

It will do *at a pinch* (in case of emergency, if hard pressed).

When the opportunity came I *paid him back in his own coin* (treated him in the same way as he had treated me).

Just now *my hands are full* (I am very busy).

It is generally believed that he *had a hand* (was concerned) in the plot.

Explorers in the arctic regions *take their lives in their hands* (undergo great risks).

Naturally he *fights shy of* (avoids from a feeling of mistrust, dislikes) his young nephew, who is a gambler.

All his schemes *ended in smoke* (came to nothing).

The police *left no stone unturned* (used all available means, adopted every possible method of search) to trace the culprits.

Later on he became unpopular because he tried *to lord it over* (to domineer over) his followers.

As he was growing old, his friends persuaded him *to rest on his laurels* (to retire from active life).

18

The champion will have to *look to your laurels* (take care not to lose your pre-eminence).

I am tired of hearing him *harp on the same string* (dwell tediously on the same subject).

His blood ran cold (i.e., he was horrified) when he heard that his friend was murdered.

I *gave him a piece of my mind* (scolded him).

The dog is *as good as* (practically) dead.

He was *as good as his word (i.e.,* kept his promise).

The child was *as good as gold (i.e.,* very good).

You will have *to make good the loss* (to compensate me for the loss).

He *kicked up a row* (made great noise or fuss).

He seems *ill at ease* (uneasy, anxious, uncomfortable).

19

The old man is *hard of hearing* (somewhat deaf).

It *will go hard with him* (*i.e.,* he will suffer severely) if he keeps company with that fellow.

People say that Mr. X, the banker, is *on his last legs* (on the verge of ruin).

I can make *neither head nor tail* (nothing) of it.

You'll never *get the better of* (gain an advantage over) that rascal : with him it's always, *'Heads I win, tails you lose' (i.e.,* in any case he will be the winner).

By his advocacy of widow-remarriage, he *stirred up a hornet's nest* (excited the hostility or adverse criticism of a large number of people).

He made great claims for his discovery; but it turned out to be a *mare's* nest (a delusion, a worthless thing).

On the very first night she *brought down the house* (called forth general and loud applause) by her superb acting.

He is *every inch* (entirely, completely) a gentleman.

You have *done the handsome thing by him* (behaved towards him in a magnanimous manner) in accepting his apology and foregoing the claim for damages.

20

He proved his worth by *rising to the occasion* (showing himself equal to dealing with the emergency). For some days the new professor lectured *over the heads of* (above the comprehension of) his pupils.

He knows *the ins and outs* (the full details) of that affair.

He is *over head and ears* (deeply) in love (or, in debt).

Beyond all question (undoubtedly) she is a great singer.

You want to see him ? *Out of the question ! (i.e.,* impossible).

The two friends *agreed to differ* (gave up trying to convince each other) after discussing the question for about an hour.

Since that day he has been *in bad odour* (out of favour, in bad repute) with his neighbours.

Intimate friends need not *stand on ceremony* (act with reserve, insist on strict rules of etiquette being observed).

He *went out of his way* (took special trouble) to oblige me.

21

I am afraid you two *are at cross-purposes* (misunderstand each other).

I trusted him and he *played me false* (deceived me, betrayed me).

He is a shrewd man, and it will not be easy *to draw him out* (to elicit information from him).

He *made light of* (treated lightly) his friend's warning.

The proposal was rejected *with one voice* (unanimously).

The figures which he quoted were shown to be incorrect, and this *took the edge off his argument* (made his argument ineffective).

We had on the way tea *of a kind* (of a poor kind, *i.e.,* tea that scarcely deserved the name).

I repaid his insolence *in kind* (in the same way, *i.e.,* with insolence).

Beware of that fellow ! he *will stick at nothing* (is unscrupulous and will do anything to accomplish his purpose).

He is not the man *to pocket an affront* (to receive or submit to it without retaliating or showing resentment).

22

I am *out of pocket* (a loser) by the transaction.

The fate of the accused *hangs in the balance* (is undecided).

He is a man of *well-balanced* (reasonable, moderate) opinions.

He *was carried off his feet* (was wild with excitement) when he was declared to have won the first prize.

He *made the most of his* opportunity (*i.e.,* used it to the best advantage).

That house is *put on the market* (offered for sale).

He sometimes works nine hours *at a stretch* (continuously).

By his skill in arguing he *carried his point* (defeated his adversaries in debate).

He is *serving his time* (going through an apprenticeship) in a bank.

Serves you right (i.e., you've got what you deserved) !

23

I shall manage *to serve him out* (to retaliate upon him, to have my revenge on him).

He is working *against time* (with utmost speed).

This year the mango-crop has *fallen short of my expectations* (*i.e.,* has disappointed me).

While the members of the committee were discusssing questions of finance, I felt *like a fish out of water* (like one out of his element ; *i.e.,* in a strange situation).

A good student works steadily, not *by fits and starts* (irregularly, capriciously, without steady application).

He has made his fortune and now *takes things easy* (does not work hard).

Mr. X first introduced the system of payments by instalments, and shortly afterwards others *took a leaf out of his book* (imitated him, profited by his example).

The Secretary of the Company was charged with *cooking the accounts* (preparing false accounts).

You should *take into account* (consider) his past services.

You must *lie in the bed you have made* (take the consequences of your own acts; suffer for your own misdeeds).

24

He *thinks better of* it now (*i.e.,* he has thought more carefully about it and come to a wiser decision).

I am sure he *means business* (is in earnest).

I cannot give you a definite reply *on the spur of the moment* (at once, without deliberation).

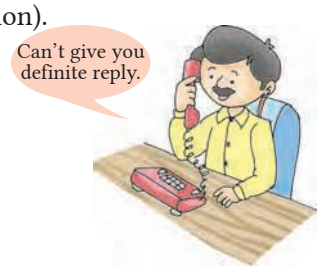

It is *the thing* (the proper thing) to do.

I see you *know a thing or two* (are wise or cunning).

He *took* his failure *to heart (i.e.,* felt it deeply; grieved over it).

It *goes to his heart* (touches him deeply) to see so much misery.

The offer *holds good* (remains binding, is valid) for two days.

He is leaving India *for good* (permanently).

It will *go hard with him* (prove a serious matter for him) if his partner retires from business.

25

Do you expect me to be *at your beck and call* (under your absolute control) ?

I am afraid he is *burning the candles at both ends* (overtaxing his energies).

Let us now *bury the hatchet* (cease fighting, make peace), and work for the advancement of the country.

Mr. X, who is one of the trustees of a certain big charity, is suspected of *feathering his won nest* (making money unfairly).

It is reported that some ruffians *laid hands on* (assaulted) him while he was returning home.

It is suspected that he *had a hand in* (was concerned in) the plot.

As usual he is *blowing his own trumpet* (praising himself).

The excuses *will not pass muster* (will not be accepted as satisfactory).

As a diplomat he was *head and shoulders* (very much) above his contemporaries.

Old sets of the Encyclopaedia Britannica are *a drug in the market* (unsaleable from lack of demand).

26

The foolish young man *made ducks and drakes of* (squandered) his patrimony.

She knows French *after a fashion* (to a certain degree, not satisfactorily).

It is all *Greek* (or *Hebrew*) to me (*i.e.,* something which I do not understand).

The thief was caught *red-handed* (in the very act of committing the theft).

Late in life he *tried his hand* (made an attempt) at farming.

What you say is *neither here nor there* (foreign to the subject under discussion, irrelevant).

Even his old friend Smith, who had been indebted to him for many favours in the past, *gave him the cold shoulder* (treated him in a cold and distant manner).

If we are to give credence to rumours, another great war is *on the cards* (not improbable).

While he spoke, the audience *hung on his lips* (listened eagerly to his words).

The Speaker urged the Committee to take drastic action, but they *hung fire* (were reluctant ; hesitated).

27

He *stands well with* (is well thought of by) his master.

He claims that he has given *chapter and verse* (full and precise reference to authority) for every statement made in his book.

The editor of that paper is accused of *giving a false colouring to* (misrepresenting) the incident.

Throughout his speech the boys were *all ears* (deeply attentive).

I was *all eyes* (eagerly watching) to see what he would do.

I know my friend *keeps a good table* (provides luxurious food, entertains his guests sumptuously).

With a small income and a large family to maintain, he finds it rather difficult *to keep his head above water* (to keep out of debt).

He will never *set the Thames on fire* (do some remarkable or surprising thing).

The scheme *came to grief* (failed) owing to want of foresight.

You will *come to grief* (be ruined) if you follow his advice.

28

I keep the fellow *at arm's length* (at a distance ; *i.e.,* I hold aloof from him).

He is *keeping up appearances* (keeping up an outward show of prosperity) although he has lost his whole fortune.

Last year when the prince *came of age* (reached the age of twenty-one) he was installed on his father's throne.

Don't trust those men ; they are villains *to the backbone* (in every way).

You shall go, *bag and baggage* (with all your belongings. *i.e.,* altogether, completely).

The account of the murder *made her blood creep* (filled her with horror).

That territory is *a bone of contention* (a subject of dispute) between the two countries.

He *took away my breath* (very much surprised me) when he coolly proposed that I should buy votes.

Since his easy succcess in the elections, he has become *swollen-headed* (conceited).

29

Wherever he addressed public meetings he *carried all before him* (was completely successful).

The cashier, having admitted defalcation, was *given in charge* (handed over to the police).

"If thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat, and if he be thirsty, give him water to drink ; for thou shalt *heap coals of fire upon his head* (return good for evil, and make him ashamed of his enmity) and the Lord shall reward thee."

It is mean *to crow over* (to triumph over) a fallen foe.

He *took up the cudgels for* (defended vigorously) his friend.

He is *currying favour* (using mean acts to ingratiate himself) with his rich neighbour.

If you endorse that promissory note, you will *cut your own throat* (ruin yourself).

His father *cut him off with a shilling* (disinherited him by bequeathing a trifling sum).

While he was speaking his father *cut him short* (interrupted him).

30

The witness *cut a poor figure* (produced a poor impression) in his cross-examination.

When he met me in the street, he *cut me dead* (deliberately insulted me by ignoring me).

That Act is *a dead letter* (no longer in force).

A great many faults may be *laid at his door* (imputed to him), but he is certainly not dishonest.

We must *draw the line* (fix the limit) somewhere. The cost of the new building should not exceed two lakhs.

Printing *is not in my line* (is out of my province).

He *is in the cotton line (i.e.,* he follows that trade).

I don't expect him *to see eye to eye* (to be in complete agreement) with me on the question of Prohibition.

He failed to get elected, but *put a good face on* (bore up courageously) his defeat.

His speech on economic reform *fell flat* (caused no interest, produced no effect).

31

The joke *fell flat* (caused no amusement).

It is *a far cry* (a long way off) from Delhi to New York.

It is *a far cry* (no easy transition) from autocracy to democracy.

He is *far and away* (very much) the better of the two players.

The story of the shipwreck, as narrated by one of the survivors, *made my flesh creep* (horrified me).

A Pathan is *an ugly customer* (a formidable person to deal with) when *his blood is up* (he is excited).

She is a delicate woman but has *to rough it* (to endure hardship) to support her family.

He *pins his faith to* (places full reliance upon) technical education.

He sometimes tells lies, so people *take* his statements *with a grain of salt* (doubt).

He is not the sort of man *to let the grass grow under his feet* (to remain idle, to procrastinate).

32

It's no use *splitting hairs* (disputing over petty points, quibbling about trifles).

He is *a great hand at* (expert at) organizing public meetings.

By your strange conduct you will *give a handle to* (furnish an occasion for) suspicion and scandal.

He *knows what he is about* (is far-sighted and prudent).

You can rely on him ; he *knows what's what* (is shrewd and experienced, knows the ways of the world).

Mussolini seems *to bear a charmed life* (to be invulnerable, as he escapes death in an almost miraculous manner).

When the Arabs conquered Persia, some Persians, it is safe to say, embraced Islam for *loaves and fishes* (material benefits).

It never occurred to me that you would *leave me in the lurch* (desert me in my difficulties, leave me in a helpless condition).

In everything that he does *he has an eye to the main chance* (his object is to make money, he regards his own interests).

The bank won't accept the guarantee of *a man of straw* (a man of no substance).

33

His observations were *beside the mark* (not to the point, irrelevant).

Not to mince matters (to speak unreservedly), some of these pundits are mere charlatans.

His adversaries *moved heaven and earth* (made every possible effort) to get him dismissed.

Do your worst ! I *nail my colours to the mast* (refuse to climb down or surrender).

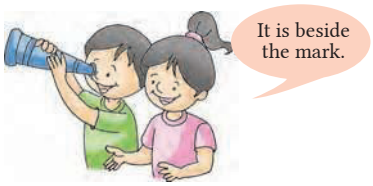

Stick to your colours (refuse to yield, be faithful to the cause), my boys !

The murdered man was found *in a state of nature* (naked).

This coat fits you *to a nicety* (exactly).

He refused *to be led by the nose* (to follow submissively).

His wife, who was the daughter of a millionaire, *turned up her nose at* (regarded with contempt) her husband's proposal to buy a Ford car.

Don't *thrust your nose into* (meddle officiously in) my affairs.

34

He is such an absent-minded fellow that he does not know what passes *under his nose* (in his very presence).

Successive ministers have found the question of employment *a hard nut to crack* (a difficult problem to solve).

This gentleman, having worked successfully in the business line for several years, is now *resting on his oars* (stopping work for a time and having rest).

A dispute in that colliery *came to a head* (reached a crisis) this week.

The recent outbursts of murderous rioting should warn the labour agitators that they are *playing with fire* (trifling ignorantly with matters liable to cause trouble or suffering).

During the War, he *made a pile* (made a fortune).

The famous libel case *brought into play* (gave an opportunity for the exercise of) his forensic abilities.

I admit that he pleaded the cause of the poor very eloquently; but will he *put his hand in his pocket* (give money in charity) ?

To small purpose (without much practical benefit) was the Commission appointed, if its main recommendations are not adopted.

Nowadays flying is *all the rage* (extremely popular).

35

He is rather blunt, but *his heart is in the right place* (he is faithful and true-hearted).

He is regarded as his chief's *right-hand man* (most efficient assistant).

His letters to his ward *speak volumes for* (serve as strong testimony to) his forbearance and good sense.

The new cotton mill is mortgaged *up to the eyes* (completely, to its full extent).

You don't look quite *up to the mark* (in excellent health) this evening.

Now, don't you call me any names, or you will find that *two can play at that game (i.e.,* I can retaliate in the same way).

He was a man who could *put two and two together* (draw a correct inference, reason logically).

You see he *has two strings to his bow* (has two sources of income to rely upon) ; he deals in curios, and also does miniatures.

Her uncle has taken her *under his wing* (under his protection).

I suspect that fellow has sent us on *a wild-goose chase* (a foolish and fruitless search).

36

The policeman, having disarmed the thief, *had the whip-hand of* (was in a position to control) him.

I did not notice in him anything *out of the way* (strange, eccentric).

I am told your cousin is *in hot water* (in trouble) over that speech.

There is nothing so bad as *washing one's dirty linen in public* (discussing unpleasant private matters before strangers).

If their demands are not granted, the strikers threaten *war to the knife* (a bitter and deadly struggle).

They are *at daggers drawn (i.e.,* their relations are strained) ever since the dissolution of the partnership between them.

When plague first broke out in Mumbai, Dr. X did *yeoman service* (excellent work).

He is still in the vigorous health, although he is *on the wrong side of sixty* (more than sixty years of age).

You can safely trust him ; he is *a man of his words* (a man to be depended on, a trustworthy man).

He finds no little difficulty in *keeping the wolf from the door* (keeping off starvation).

37

Beware of that *wolf in sheep's clothing* (hypocrite) !

The doctor says the patient has *turned the corner* (passed the crisis).

He very cleverly *turned the tables* on his opponent *(i.e.,* brought him to the position of disadvantage lately held by himself).

I am afraid you have *caught a Tartar* in him *(i.e.,* found him more formidable than you expected).

I should like to have that matter settled immediately, because it keeps a man *on tenterhooks* (in a state of suspense and anxiety).

He is *under the thumb of* (completely under the influence of) his wife.

He carried out his project *in the teeth of* (in defiance or regardless of) opposition from his community.

Only ten years ago he was a junior barrister, but he is now *at the top of the tree* (at the head of his profession).

We must avoid saying or writing anything that would *tread on their toes* (give offence to them).

His master *put the screw on* (brought pressure to bear on) him to vote for his friend.

38

In the contest he *came off second-best* (was defeated, got the worst of it).

I *sent him about his business* (dismissed him peremptorily) as I could stand his insolence no longer.

People who *talk shop* (talk exclusively about their business or professional affairs) are generally unbearable.

He appears *to have an old head on young shoulders* (to be wise beyond his years).

As a rule, they eat but one *square meal* (full meal) a day.

In his travels he claims to have *rubbed shoulders* (come into close contact) with people of all sorts and conditions.

Although much remains to be done in this direction, the gradual increase in the number of schools clearly shows that *the school master is abroad* (education is spreading in every direction and ignorance is diminishing).

His boorish manners occasionally *set* his refined cousin's *teeth on edge (i.e.,* irritated him).

When the Inspector entered the class some of the pupils *shook in their shoes* (trembled with fear).

39

There are *black sheep* (bad characters, scoundrels) in every community.

One of our best workers was ill, so we had to *make shift* (get along as best as we could) without him.

I threatened *to show him up* (to disclose his villainy) if he did not mend his ways.

That solicitor is guilty of *sharp practice* (underhand or questionable dealings).

The usurper cannot maintain his position without *the sinews of war* (money).

As a writer he has often *snapped his fingers at* (defined) convention.

The speaker was unmercifully heckled, but he manfully *stood to his guns* (*i.e.,* maintained his own opinion).

Chapter 26 PUNCTUATION

209. **Punctuation** (derived from the Latin *punctum,* a point) means the right use of putting in Points or Stops in writing. The following are the principal stops.

(1) Full Stop or Period (.)
(2) Comma (,)
(3) Semicolon (;)
(4) Colon (:)
(5) Question Mark (?)
(6) Exclamation Mark (!)

Other marks in common use are the Dash –; Parentheses ( ); Inverted Commas or Quotation Marks“ ”.

210. The **Full Stop** represents the greatest pause and separation. It is used to mark the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence ; as,

Dear, patient, gentle, noble Nell was dead.

211. The Full Stop can be used in abbreviations, but they are often omitted in modern style.

M.A. or MA
M.P. or MP
U.N.O. or UNO

Note that in current English *Mr* and *Mrs* occur without a full stop, as these have come to be regarded as the full spellings.

212. The **Comma** represents the shortest pause, and is used :–

(1) To separate a series of words in the same construction ; as,

England, France and Italy formed an alliance.
He lost lands, money, reputation and friends.
It was a long, dull and wearisome journey.

Note—A comma is generally not placed before the word preceded by *and.*

(2) To separate each pair of words connected by *and* ; as,

We should be devout and humble, cheerful and serene.
High and low, rich and poor, wise and foolish, must all die.

(3) After a Nominative Absolute ; as,

This done, she returned to the old man with a lovely smile on her face.
The wind being favourable, the squadron sailed.
The genius making me no answer, I turned about to address myself to him a second time.

(4) To mark off a Noun or Phrase in Apposition ; as,

Paul, the apostle, was beheaded in the reign of Nero.
Milton, the great English poet, was blind.
Pandit Nehru, the first Prime Minister of India, died in 1964.

(5) To mark off words used in addressing people

Come into the garden, Maud.
How are you, Mohan?
Lord of the universe, shield us and guide us.

But when the words are emphatic, we ought to use the Note of Exclamation; as,

Monster ! by thee my child's devoured !

(6) To mark off two or more Adverbs or Adverbial phrases coming together ; as,

Then, at length, tardy justice was done to the memory of Oliver.

(7) Before and after a Participial phrase, provided that the phrase might be expanded into a sentence, and is not used in a merely qualifying sense; as,

Caesar, having conquered his enemies, returned to Rome.

(8) Before and after words, phrases, or clauses, let into the body of a sentence; as,

He did not, however, gain his object.

It is mind, after all, which does the work of the world.

His behaviour, to say the least, was very rude.

His story was, in several ways, improbable.

Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between thee and me.

The essay-writers, whose works consisted in a great measure of short moral dissertations, set the literary taste of the age.

The people of Orleans, when they first saw her in their city, thought she was an angel.

(9) To indicate the omission of a word, especially a verb ; as,

Rama received a Parker pen ; Hari, a watch.

He was a Brahmin ; she, a Rajput.

He will succeed ; you, never.

(10) To separate short co-ordinate clauses of a Compound sentence ; as,

The rains descended, and the floods came.

Men may come and men may go, but I go on for ever.

I came, I saw, I conquered.

The way was long, the wind was cold.

The minstrel was infirm and old.

When there is a conjunction the comma is sometimes omitted ; as,

He came and saw me.

(11) To mark off a direct quotation from the rest of the sentence; as,

"Exactly so," said Alice.

He said to his disciples, "Watch and pray."

"Go then," said the ant, "and dance winter away."

(12) Before certain co-ordinative conjunctions ; as,

To act thus is not wisdom, but folly.

(13) To separate from the verb a long Subject opening a sentence; as,

The injustice of the sentence pronounced upon that great scientist and discoverer, is now evident to us all.

All that we admired and adored before as great and magnificent, is obliterated or vanished.

(14) To separate a Noun clause–whether subject or object–preceding the verb ; as,

Whatever is, is right.

How we are ever to get there, is the question.

That he would succeed in his undertaking, no one ever doubted.

(15) To separate a clause that is not restrictive in meaning, but is co-ordinate with the Principal clause ; as,

Sailors, who are generally superstitious, say it is unlucky to embark on a Friday.

During my stay in Sri Lanka I visited Mihintale, which is regarded as the cradle of Buddhism.

When the Adjective clause is restrictive in meaning the comma should not be applied; as,

This is the house that Jack built.

The Lord is nigh up to them that are of a broken heart.

The echoes of the storm which was then raised I still hear grumbling round me.

The design was disapproved by everyone whose judgement was entitled to respect.

(16) To separate an Adverbial clause from its Principal clause ; as,

When I was a bachelor, I lived by myself.

If thou would'st be happy, seek to please.

When the Adverbial clause follows the Principal clause the comma is frequently omitted; as,

Seek to please if thou would'st be happy.

213. The **Semicolon** represents a pause of greater importance than that shown by the comma. It is used:

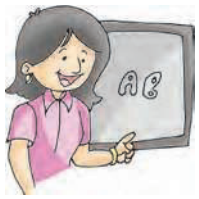

(1) To separate the clauses of Compound sentence, when they contain a comma; as,

He was a brave, large-hearted man; and we all honoured him.

(2) To separate a series of loosely related clauses; as,

Her court was pure ; her life serene;

God gave her peace; her land reposed.

Today we love what tomorrow we hate; today we seek what tomorrow we shun; today we desire what tomorrow we fear.

214. The **Colon** marks a still more complete pause than that expressed by the Semicolon. It is used (sometimes with a dash after it):

(1) To introduce a quotation ; as,

Bacon says : "Reading makes a full man, writing an exact man, speaking a ready man."

(2) Before enumeration, examples, etc; as,

The principal parts of a verb in English are : the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle.

The limitation of armaments, the acceptance of arbitration as the natural solvent of international disputes, the relegation of wars of ambition and aggression to the categories of obsolete follies : these will be milestones which mark the stages of the road.

(3) Between sentences grammatically independent but closely connected in sense; as,

Study to acquire a habit of thinking : no study is more important.

215. The **Question Mark** is used, instead of the Full Stop, after a direct question ; as,

Have you written your exercise ?

If you prick us, do we not bleed ? If you trickle us, do we not laugh ? If you poison us, do we not die ? And if you wrong us, shall we not have revenge ?

But the Question Mark is not used after an indirect question; as,

He asked me whether I had written my exercise.

216. The **Exclamation Mark** is used after Interjections and after Phrases and Sentences expressing sudden emotion or wish ; as,

Alas ! Oh dear !

What a terrible fire this is !

O,what a fall was there, my countrymen ! Long live the King !

Note— When the interjection O is placed before the Nominative of Address, the Exclamation Mark, if employed at all, comes after the noun; or it may be placed at the end of the sentence; as,

O father ! I hear the sound of guns.

O Hamlet, speak no more !

217. **Inverted Commas** are used to enclose the exact words of a speaker, or a quotation; as,

"I would rather die," he exclaimed, "than join the oppressors of my country."

Babar is said by Elphinstone to have been "the most admirable prince that ever reigned in Asia."

If a quotation occurs within a quotation, it is marked by single inverted commas; as,

"You might as well say," added the March Hare, "that 'I like what I get' is the same thing as 'I get what I like.'"

218. The **Dash** is used:

(1) To indicate an abrupt stop or change of thought ; as,
If my husband were alive–but why lament the past ?

(2) To resume a scattered subject; as,.
Friends, companions, relatives–all deserted him.

219. The **Hyphen** –a shorter line than the Dash –is used to connect the parts of a compound word; as,
Passer-by, man-of-war, jack-of-all-trades.

It is also used to connect parts of a word divided at the end of a line.

220. **Parentheses** or Double Dashes are used to separate from the main part of the sentence a phrase or clause which does not grammatically belong to it; as,
He gained from Heaven (it was all he wished) a friend.
A remarkable instance of this kind of courage–call it, if you please, resolute will–is given in the history of Babar.

221. The **Apostrophe** is used:

(1) To show the omission of a letter or letters; as,
Don't, e'er, I've.

(2) In the Genitive Case of Nouns.

(3) To form the plural of letters and figures.
Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.
Add two 5*'s* and four 2*'s*.

Capital Letters

222. **Capitals** are used:

(1) To begin a sentence.

(2) To begin each fresh line of poetry.

(3) To begin all Proper Nouns and Adjectives derived from them : as,
Delhi, Rama, Africa, African, Shakespeare, Shakespearian.

(4) For all nouns and pronouns which indicate the Deity; as,
The Lord, He is the God.

(5) To write the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

EXERCISE 119

Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences.

1. The necessity of amusement made me a carpenter a bird-cager a gardener.
2. Speak clearly if you would be understood.
3. Even a fool when he holdeth his peace is counted wise.
4. When we had dined to prevent the ladies leaving us I generally ordered the table to be removed.
5. My orchard was often robbed by schoolboys and my wife's custards plundered by the cats.
6. Whenever I approached a peasant's house towards night-fall I played one of the most merry tunes.

7. By conscience and courage by deeds of devotion and daring he soon commended himself to his fellows and his officers.
8. Wealth may seek us but wisdom must be sought.
9. Beware lest thou be led into temptation.
10. Brazil which is nearly as large as the whole of Europe is covered with a vegetation of incredible profusion.
11. We judge ourselves by what we feel capable of doing while others judge us by what we have already done.
12. Some are born great some achieve greatness and some have greatness thrust upon them.
13. I therefore walked back by the horseway which was five miles round.
14. Read not to contradict nor to believe but to weigh and consider.

15. The leaves as we shall see immediately are the feeders of the plant.
16. A public speaker should be cool collected and precise.
17. Sir I would rather be right than be President.
18. In fact there was nothing else to do.
19. At midnight however I was aroused by the tramp of horse's hoofs in the yard.
20. Spenser the great English poet lived in the time of Queen Elizabeth.

21. One of the favourite themes of boasting with the Squire is the noble trees on his estate which in truth has some of the finest that I have seen in England.
22. When he was a boy Franklin who afterward became a distinguished statesman and philosopher learned his trade in the printing office of his brother who published a paper in Boston.
23. We had in this village some twenty years ago an idiot boy whom I well remember who from a child showed a strong propensity for bees.
24. Margaret the eldest of the four was sixteen and very pretty being plump and fair with large eyes plenty of soft brown hair a sweet mouth and white hands of which she was rather vain.
25. A letter from a young lady written in the most passionate terms wherein she laments the misfortune of a gentleman her lover who was lately wounded in a duel has turned my thoughts to that subject and inclined me to examine into the causes which precipitate men into so fatal a folly.

EXERCISE 120

Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences.

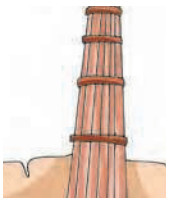

1. In the old Persian stories Turan the land of darkness is opposed to Iran the land of light.
2. History it has been said is the essence of innumerable biographies.
3. Attention application accuracy method punctualilty and dispatch are the principal qualities required for the efficient conduct of business of any sort.
4. When I was in Delhi I visited the Red Fort Qutab Minar Raj Ghat India Gate and Chandni Chowk.
5. He was now in the vigour of his days forty-three years of age stately in person noble in his demeanour calm and dignified in his deportment.
6. Your wife would give you little thanks if she were present to hear you make this offer.
7. A high-bred man never forgets himself controls his temper does nothing in excess is courteous dignified and that even to persons whom he is wishing far away.
8. All that I am all that I hope to be I owe to my angel mother.
9. We all or nearly all fail to last our "lease" owing to accidents violence and avoidable as well as unavoidable disease.
10. Nuclear bomb testing fills the air with radioactive dust and leaves many areas uninhabitable for centuries.
11. In a strict and legal sense that is properly the domicile of a person where he has his true fixed permanent home and principal establishment and to which whenever he is absent he has the intention of returning.

EXERCISE 121

Punctuate the following.

1. As Caesar loved me I wept for him as he was fortunate I rejoice at it as he was valiant I honour him but as he was ambitious I slew him.
2. The shepherd finding his flock destroyed exclaimed I have been rightly served why did I trust my sheep to a wolf.
3. However strange however grotesque may be the appearance which Dante undertakes to describe he never shrinks from describing it he gives us the shape the colour the sound the smell the taste.
4. Perhaps cried he there may be such monsters as you describe.
5. Sancho ran as fast as his ass could go to help his master whom he found lying and not able to stir such a blow he and Rozinante had received mercy on me cried Sancho did I not give your worship fair warning did I not tell you they were windmills and that nobody could think otherwise unless he had also windmills in his head
6. Modern ideas of government date back to the 1960s when for the first time people began to question a kings right to rule once thought to be god given.

7. When I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy dies in me when I read the epitaphs of the beautiful every inordinate desire goes out when I meet with the grief of parents upon a tombstone my heart melts with compassion when I see the tomb of the parents themselves I consider the vanity of grieving for those whom we must quickly follow.
8. They had played together in infancy they had worked together in manhood they were now tottering about and gossiping away in the evening of life and in a short time they will probably be buried together in the neighbouring churchyard.
9. Take away that bauble said Cromwell pointing to the mace which lay upon the table and when the House was empty he went out with the key in his pocket
10. One day walking together up a hill I said to Friday do you not wish yourself in your own country again yes he said what would you do there said I would you turn wild and eat mens flesh again he looked full of concern and shaking his head said no
11. When a great office is vacant either by death or disgrace which often happens five or six of these candidates petition the emperor to entertain his majesty and the court with a dance on the rope and whoever jumps the highest without falling succeeds to the office

12. That familiarity produces neglect has been long observed the effect of all external objects however great or splendid ceases with their novelty the courtier stands without emotion in the royal presence the rustic tramples under his foot the beauties of the spring with little attention to their colours or their fragrance and the inhabitant of the coast darts his eye upon the immense diffusion of waters without awe wonder or terror.
13. If you look about you and consider the lives of others as well as your own if you think how few are born with honour and how many die without name or children how little beauty we see and how few friends we hear of how many diseases and how much poverty there is in the world you will fall down upon knees and instead of repining at one affliction will admire so many blessings which you have received from the hand of God
14. We thank Thee for the place in which we dwell for the love that unites us for the peace accorded us this day for the hope with which we expect the morrow for the health the work the food and the bright skies that make our life delightful for our friends in all parts of the earth
15. Androcles who had no arms of any kind now gave himself up for lost what shall I do said he I have no spear or sword no not so much as a stick to defend myself with
16. My quaint Ariel said Prospero to the little sprite when he made him free I shall miss you yet you shall have your freedom thank you my dear master said Ariel but give me leave to attend your ship with prosperous gales before you bid farewell to the assistance of your faithful spirit.
17. O master exclaimed Ananda weeping bitterly and is all the work undone and all by my fault and folly that which is built on fraud and imposture can by no means endure returned Buddha
18. Wretch said the king what harm did I do thee that thou shouldst seek to take my life with your own hand you killed my father and my two brothers was the reply

EXERCISE 122

Punctuate the following.

1. Nothing is so easy and inviting as the retort of abuse and sarcasm but it is a paltry and an unprofitable contest
2. Think how mysterious and often unaccountable it is that lottery of life which gives to this man the purple and fine linen and sends to the other rags for garments and dogs for comforters
3. The human mind is never stationary it advances or it retrogrades
4. The laws of most countries today are spilt into two kinds criminal law and civil law
5. Islam is one of the worlds largest religions with an estimated 1100-1300 million believers it was founded in the 7th century by the Prophet Mohammad
6. There is a slavery that no legislation can abolish the slavery of caste

7. Truly a popular error has as many lives as a cat it comes walking long after you have imagined it effectually strangled
8. So far from science being irreligious as many think it is the neglect of science that is irreligious it is the refusal to study the surrounding creation that is irreligious
9. None of Telleyrand's mots is more famous than this speech was given to man to conceal his thoughts
10. There is only one cure for the evils which newly acquired freedom produces and that cure is freedom
11. If you read ten pages of a good book letter by letter that is to say with real accuracy you are for evermore in some measure an educated person

Chapter 27 SPELLING RULES

Final Consonant

223. One-syllable words ending in single vowel + single consonant double the consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

beg + ed = begged
rob + er = robber
run + ing = running
sad + est = saddest

but:
wish + ed = wished (two consonants)
fear + ing = fearing (two vowels)

224. Words of two or three syllables ending in sigle vowel + single consonant double the final consonant if the last syllable is stressed.

begin + ing = beginning
occur + ed = occurred
permit + ed = permitted
control + er = controller

The consonant is not doubled if the last syllable is not stressed.
benefit + ed = benefited
suffer + ing = suffering

These words are exceptions: *worship, kidnap, handicap.*
worship + ed = worshipped
handicap + ed = handicapped
kidnap + er = kidnapped

225. In British English the consonant *l* is doubled, even if the stress does not fall on the last syllable.
quarrel + ed = quarrelled
signal + ing = signalling
travel + er = traveller
distil + er = distiller

Note the exception:
parallel + ed = paralleled

226. If the word to which the suffix *ful* is added ends in *ll*, the second *l* is dropped.
skill + ful = skilful
will + ful = wilful

Final e

227. Words ending in silent *e* drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel.
live + ing = living
move + ed = moved
hope + ing = hoping
drive + er = driver

The *e* remains before a suffix beginning with a consonant.
hope + ful = hopeful
engage + ment = engagement

Note the exceptions:
true + ly = truly
whole + ly = wholly
due + ly = duly
nine + th = ninth
argue + ment = argument
awe + ful = awful

228. Notice the special case of words ending in *ce* and *ge* which keep the *e* when adding *able* and *ous.*
notice + able = noticeable
peace + able = peaceable
change + able = changeable
courage + ous = courageous

In such words, the *c* and *g* are pronounced soft before *e*. Sometimes the *e* is retained to avoid confusion with a similar word.
singe + ing = singeing (avoids confusion with *singing*)
swinge + ing = swingeing (avoids confusion with *swinging*)

229. Words ending in *ee* do not drop an *e* before a suffix.
see + ing = seeing
agree + ment = agreement

230. Words ending in *ie* change the *ie* to *y* when *ing* is added.
die, dying tie, tying, lie, lying

Final y

231. A final *y* following a consonant changes to *i* before a suffix except *ing*.
happy + ly = happily carry + ed = carried
beauty + ful = beautiful marry + age = marriage

But:
carry + ing = carrying marry + ing = marrying

But *y* following a vowel does not change.
pray + ed = prayed play + er = player

Notice a few exceptions:
pay + ed = paid day + ly = daily
say + ed = said gay + ly = gaily
lay + ed = laid

ie or *ei*

232. When *ie* or *ei* is pronounced like *ee* in 'jeep', *i* comes before *e* except after *c*.

believe	receive
relieve	receipt
achieve	deceive
grieve	deceit
yield	conceive
field	conceit

Some exceptions :

seize	protein	counterfeit
weird	surfeit	plabeian

Chapter 28 THE FORMATION OF WORDS

233. Words which are not derived or compounded or developed from other words are called **Primary Words.** They belong to the original stock of words in the language.

(*i*) **Compound Words,** formed by joining two or more simple words; as,
Moonlight, nevertheless, undertake, man-of-war.

(*ii*) **Primary Derivatives,** formed by making some change in the body of the simple word; as,
Bond from *bind, breach* from *break, wrong* from *wring.*

Note— The most important class of words formed by internal change consists of the Past Tenses of Primary Verbs, which are not usually classed as Derivatives.

(*iii*) **Secondary Derivatives**, formed by *an addition* to the beginning or the end ; as,
*Un*happy ; good*ness.*

An addition to the beginning of a word is a **Prefix**, an addition to the end is a **Suffix.**

(I) Compound Words

234. Compound words are, for the most part, Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs.

235. **Compound Nouns** may be formed from:

(1) Noun + Noun ; as,
Moonlight, chess-board, armchair, postman, railway, airman, manservant, fire-escape, jailbird, horse-power, shoemaker, ringleader, screwdriver, tax-payer, teaspoon, haystack, windmill.

(2) Adjective + Noun ; as,

Sweetheart, nobleman, shorthand, blackboard, quicksilver, stronghold, halfpenny.

(3) Verb + Noun ; as,

Spendthrift, makeshift, breakfast, telltale, pickpocket, cut-throat, cutpurse, daredevil, scarecrow, hangman.

(4) Gerund + Noun ; as,

Drawing-room, writing-desk, looking-glass, walking-stick, blotting paper, stepping-stone, spelling-book.

(5) Adverb (or Preposition) + Noun ; as,

Outlaw, afterthought, forethought, foresight, overcoat, downfall, afternoon, bypass, inmate, off-shoot, inside

(6) Verb + Adverb ; as,

Drawback, lock-up, go-between, die-hard, send-off.

(7) Adverb + Verb ; as,

Outset, upkeep, outcry, income, outcome.

236. **Compound Adjectives** may be formed from:

(1) Noun+Adjective (or Participle) ; as,

Blood-red, sky-blue, snow-white, pitch-dark, breast-high, skin-deep, purse-proud, lifelong, world-wide, headstrong, homesick, stone-blind, seasick, note-worthy, heart-rending, ear-piercing, time-serving, moth-eaten, heart-broken, bed-ridden, hand-made, sea-girl, love-lorn.

(2) Adjective + Adjective ; as,

Red-hot, blue-black, white-hot, dull-grey, lukewarm

(3) Adverb + Participle ; as,

Long-suffering, everlasting, never-ending, thorough-bred, well-deserved, outspoken, down-hearted, far-seen, inborn.

237. **Compound Verbs** may be formed from:

(1) Noun+Verb ; as,

Waylay, backbite, typewrite, browbeat, earmark.

(2) Adjective+Verb ; as,

Safe-guard, whitewash, fulfil.

(3) Adverb+Verb ; as,

Overthrow, overtake, foretell, undertake, undergo, overhear, overdo, outbid, outdo, upset, ill-use.

Note— In most compound words, it is the first word which modifies the meaning of the second. The accent is placed upon the modifying word when the amalgamation is complete. When the two elements of the compound are only partially blended, a hyphen is put between them, and the accent falls equally on both parts of the compound.

EXERCISE 123

Explain the formation of the following Compound words.

newspaper, football, moonstruck, turncoat, brand-new, jet-black, onlooker, soothsayer, stronghold, ice-cold, worldly-wise, tempest-tossed, race-horse, ear-ring, cooking-stove, over-dose, fire-proof, top-heavy, heaven-born, skin-deep, widespread, snake-charmer, lifelong, upland

238. **(II) PRIMARY DERIVATIVES**

(1) Formation of Nouns from Verbs and Adjectives.

Verbs	*Nouns*	*Verbs*	*Nouns*
Advise	advice	Gape	gap
Bear	bier	Gird	girth
Bind	bond	Grieve	grief

Bless	bliss	Live	life
Break	breach	Lose	loss
Burn	brand	Prove	proof
Choose	choice	Sing	song
Chop	chip	Sit	seat
Deal	dole	Speak	speech
Deem	doom	Strike	stroke
	ditch	Strive	strife
Dig	dike	Wake	watch
Float	fleet	Weave	web
			woof

Adjectives	*Nouns*
Dull	dolt
Hot	heat
Proud	pride

(2) Formation of Adjectives from Verbs and Nouns.

Verbs	*Adjectives*	*Nouns*	*Adjectives*
Float	fleet	Milk	Milch
Lie	low	Wit	wise

(3) Formation of Verbs from Nouns and Adjectives.

Nouns	*Verbs*	*Nouns*	*Verbs*
Bath	bathe	Gold	gild
Belief	Believe	Grass	graze
Blood	bleed	Half	halve
Breath	breathe	Knot	knit
Brood	breed	Price	prize
Cloth	clothe	Sale	sell
Drop	drip	Sooth	soothe
Food	feed	Tale	tell
Glass	glaze	Thief	thieve
Adjectives	*Verbs*	Wreath	wreathe
Cool	chill		
Hale	heal		

239. **(III) SECONDARY DERIVATIVES**

English Prefixes

A-, *on, in*; abed, aboard, ashore, ajar, asleep
A-, *out, from,* arise, awake, alight
Be-, *by* (*sometimes intensive*); beside, betimes, besmear, bedaub
For-, *thoroughly* ; forbear, forgive
Fore-, *before* ; forecast, foretell
Gain-, *against* ; gainsay
In-, *in* ; income, inland, inlay
Mis-, *wrong, wrongly* ; misdeed, mislead, misjudge
Over-, *above, beyond* ; overflow, overcharge
To-, *this*; today, tonight, tomorrow

Un-, *not*; untrue, unkind, unholy
Un-, *to reverse an action* ; untie, undo, unfold
Under-, *beneath, below* ; undersell, undercharge, undergo, underground
With-, *against, back* ; withdraw, withhold, withstand

Note— There are only two prefixes of English origin that are still applied freely to new words, *mis* and *un*, the former with the force of the adjective *bad* and the latter with the force of a negative.

Latin Prefixes

Ab, (a, abs), *from, away* ; abuse, avert, abstract.
Ad (ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at, a), *to*; adjoin, accord, affect, aggrieve, allege, announce, appoint, arrest, assign, attach, avail
Ambi (amb, am), *on both sides, around;* ambiguous, ambition, amputate

Ante (anti, an), *before ;* antedate, anticipate, ancestor
Bene, *well ;* benediction, benefit
Bis, (bi, bin), *twice, two ;* biscuit, bisect, binoculars
Circum (circu), *around ;* circumnavigate, circumference, circuit
Con (col, com, cor), *with, together ;* contend, collect, combine, correct
Contra (counter), *against ;* contradict, counteract, counterfeit
De, *down ;* descend, dethrone, depose
Dis, (dif, di), *apart ;* disjoin, differ, divide

Demi, *half* ; demigod
Ex (ef, e), *out of ;* extract, effect
Extra, *beyond, outside, of;* extraordinary, extravagant
In (il, im, ir, en, em), *in, into*; invade, illustrate, immerse, irrigate, enact, embrace

In (il, im, ir), *not ;* insecure, illegal, imprudent, irregular
Inter (intro, enter), *among, within ;* intervene, introduce, entertain
Male (mal), *ill, badly ;* malevolent, malcontent
Non, *(not); nonsense*
Ob (oc, of), *in the way of, against;* object, occupy, offend
Pen, *almost ;* penultimate, peninsula
Per (pel), *through* ; pervade, pellucid
Post, *after ;* postscript, postdate, postpone
Pre, *before ;* prefix, prevent, predict
Preter, *beyond* ; preternatural
Pro (por, pur), *for;* pronoun, portray, pursue
Re, *back, again ;* reclaim, refund, renew, return
Retro, *backwards ;* retrospect, retrograde

Se (sed) ; *apart ;* secede, separate, seduce, sedition
Semi, *half ;* semicircle, semicolon
Sine, *without ;* sinecure
Sub (suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus), *under ;* subdue, succeed, suffer, suggest, summon, support, surmount, sustain
Subter, *beneath ;* subterfuge
Super, *above ;* superfine, superfluous

Trans (tra, tres), *across ;* transmit, traverse, trespass
Vice, *in the place of ;* viceroy, vice-president

Greek Prefixes

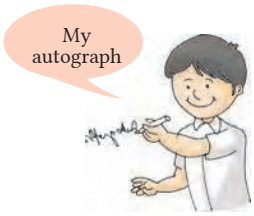

A (an), *without, not* ; atheist, apathy, anarchy
Amphi, *around, on both sides* ; amphitheatre, amphibious
Ana, *up, back* ; anachronism, analysis
Anti (ant), *against* ; antipathy, antagonist
Apo (ap) *from* ; apostate, apology
Arch (archi) *chief* ; archbishop, archangel, architect
Auto, *self* ; autocrat, autobiography, autograph
Cata, *down* ; cataract, catastrophe, catalogue
Di, *twice* ; dilemma
Dia, *through* ; diagonal, diameter
Dys, *badly* ; dyspepsia, dysentery
En (em), *in,* ; encyclopaedia, emblem
Epi, *upon* ; epilogue, epitaph
Eu, *well* ; eulogy, euphony, eugenics
Ex (ec), *out of* ; exodus, eccentric
Hemi, *half* ; hemisphere
Homo (hom), *like* ; homogeneous, homonym
Hyper, *over, beyond* ; hyperbole, hypercritical
Hypo, *under* ; hypothesis, hypocrite
Meta (met), *implying change* ; metaphor, metonymy
Mono, *alone, single* ; monoplane, monopoly
Pan, *all* ; panacea, panorama, pantheism
Para, *beside, by the side of* ; parallel, paradox, parasite
Peri, *round* ; period, perimeter, periscope
Philo (Phil), *love* ; philosophy, philanthropy
Pro, *before* ; prophescy, programme
Syn, (sym, syl, sy), *with, together* ; synonym, sympathy, syllable, system

English Suffixes

Of Nouns

(1) Denoting agent or doer
–**er (-ar, -or, -yer)** ; painter, baker, beggar, sailor, lawyer
–**ster** ; spinster, punster, songster
–**ter (-ther)** ; daughter, father
(2) Denoting *state, action, condition, being,* etc
–**dom** ; freedom, martyrdom, wisdom
–**hood (-head)** ; manhood, childhood, godhead
–**lock (-ledge)** ; wedlock, knowledge
–**ness** ; darkness, boldness, goodness, sweetness
–**red** ; kindred, hatred
–**ship** ; hardship, friendship, lordship

–**th** ; health, stealth, growth

(3) Forming *Diminutives*

–**el (-le)** ; satchel, kernel, girdle, handle
–**en** ; maiden, kitten, chicken
–**ie** ; dearie, birdie, lassie
–**kin** ; lambkin, napkin
–**let** ; leaflet
–**ling** ; duckling, darling, stripling, weakling
–**ock** ; hillock, bullock

Of Adjectives

–**ed,** *having* ; gifted, talented, wretched, learned
–**en,** *made of* ; wooden, golden, woollen, earthen
–**ful,** *full of* ; hopeful, fruitful, joyful
–**ish,** *somewhat like* ; boorish, reddish, girlish
–**less,** *free from, without* ; fearless, shameless, hopeless, senseless, boundless
–**ly,** *like* ; manly, godly, sprightly
–**some,** *with the quality of* ; wholesome, meddlesome, gladsome, quarrelsome
–**ward,** *inclining* to ; forward, wayward
–**y,** *with the quality of* ; wealthy, healthy, windy, slimy, greedy, needy, thirsty, dirty

Of Verbs

–**en,** *causative, forming transitive verbs* ; weaken, sweeten, gladden, deaden, strengthen
–**se,** *to make* ; cleanse, rinse
–**er,** *intensive or frequentative* : chatter, glitter, glimmer, fritter, flutter

Of Adverbs

–**ly,** *like* ; boldly, wisely
–**long,** headlong, sidelong
–**ward, (-wards),** turning to ; homeward, backwards, upwards
–**way, (-ways)** ; straight a way, anyway, always
–**wise,** *manner, mode* ; likewise, otherwise

Note—We still feel the force of a few English suffixes. These are:

–**er,** *denoting the actor or agent* ; as, driver
–**hood,** *indicating rank or condition* ; as, boyhood
–**kin, ling,** *diminutives,* as, lambkin, yearling
–**ness, ship, th,** *indicating abstract nouns* ; as, loveliness, friendship, truth
–**en, ful, ish, less, ly, some, ward, y,** *adjective and adverb endings* ; as, golden, hopeful, oldish, helpless, manly, lonesome, homeward, mighty

Latin Suffixes

Of Nouns

(1) Denoting chiefly the *agent* or *doer of a thing*

–**ain (-an, -en, -on)** ; chieftain, artisan, citizen, surgeon

–**ar, (-er, -eer, -ier, -ary)**; scholar, preacher, engineer, financier, missionary
–**ate (-ee, -ey, -y)** ; advocate, trustee, attorney, deputy
–**or, (-our, -eur, -er)** ; emperor, saviour, amateur, interpreter
(2) Denoting *state, action, result of an action*
–**age** ; bondage, marriage, breakage, leakage
–**ance (-ence)** ; abundance, brilliance, assistance, excellence, innocence
–**cy** ; fancy, accuracy, lunacy, bankruptcy
–**ion** ; action, opinion, union
–**ice (-ise)** ; service, cowardice, exercise
–**ment** ; punishment, judgement, improvement
–**mony** ; parsimony, matrimony, testimony
–**tude** ; servitude, fortitude, magnitude
–**ty ;** cruelty, frailty, credulity
–**ure ;** pleasure, forfeiture, verdure
–**y ;** misery, victory
(3) Forming *diminutives*
–**cule (-ule, -cel, -sel, -el, -le) ;** animalcule, globule, parcel, damsel, chapel, circle
–**et ;** owlet, lancet, trumpet
–**ette ;** cigarette, coquette
(4) Denoting *place*
–**ary (-ery, -ry) ;** dispensary, library, nunnery, treasury
–**ter (tre) ;** cloister, theatre

Of Adjectives

–**al ;** national, legal, regal, mortal, fatal
–**an (-ane) ;** human, humane, mundane
–**ar ;** familiar, regular
–**ary ;** customary, contrary, necessary, ordinary, honorary
–**ate ;** fortunate, temperate, obstinate
–**ble (-ible, able) ;** feeble, sensible, laughable
–**esque ;** picturesque, grotesque
–**id ;** humid, vivid, lucid
–**ile ;** servile, fragile, juvenile
–**ine ;** feminine, canine, feline, divine
–**ive ;** active, attentive, shortive
–**lent ;** corpulent, indolent, turbulent, virulent
–**ose (ous) ;** verbose, dangerous, onerous, copious

Of Verbs

–**ate;** assassinate, captivate, exterminate
–**esce;** acquiesce, effervesce
–**fy ;** simplify, purify, fortify, sanctify, terrify
–**ish ;** publish, nourish, punish, banish

Greek Suffixes

–**ic (-ique) ;** angelic, cynic, phonetic, unique
–**ist ;** artist, chemist

–**isk ;** asterisk, obelisk
–**ism (-asm) ;** patriotism, despotism, enthusiasm
–**ize ;** civilize, sympathize, criticize
–**sis (-sy) ;** crisis, analysis, heresy, poesy
–**e (-y) ;** catastrophe, monarchy, philosophy

Note—We still feel the force of a number of suffixes of foreign origin. These are:

ee (French), added to nouns to denote, usually, the person who takes a passive share in an action; as, employee, payee, legatee, mortgagee, trustee, referee.

or, ar, er, eer, ier, denoting a person who perfoms a certain act or function ; as, emperor, scholar, officer, engineer, gondolier.
ist, denoting a person who follows a certain trade or pursuit; as, chemist, theosophist, artist, nihilist.
ism, forming abstract nouns ; as, patriotism.
ble, forming adjectives that have usually a passive sense; as, tolerable, bearable.
ize or *ise,* forming verbs from nouns and adjectives; as, crystallize, moralize, baptize.

EXERCISE 124

(*a*) *Give examples showing the use and meaning of the following prefixes.*
super-, trans-, con-, sub-, auto-, mis-, ante-, post-, vice-, extra-, pre-, arch-

(*b*) *Give examples of adjectives formed from nouns by the addition of the suffixes* -en, -ish, -less,*and explain the meaning of the suffixes.*

(*c*) *Show by the use of suffixes that we can use a single word to express the meaning of each of the following groups of words.*
a little river, the state of being a child, to make fat, that which cannot be read, unfit to be chosen

(*d*) *Give the meanings of the prefixes and suffixes in the following words.*
incredible, antidote, anarchy, misconduct, monarch, sympathy, manhood, hillock, archbishop, amiss, bicycle, dismantle, freshen

(*e*) *Form Adjectives from the following nouns.*
circumstance, habit, stone, miser, irony, labour, circuit

(*f*) *Form Verbs from :–*
friend, bath, fertile, grass, clean, sweet, critic

(*g*) *Form Nouns from.*
sustain, attain, confess, attach, fortify, oblige, give, cruel, hate, govern, sweet

(*h*) *Form Adjectives from.*
muscle, hazard, worth, quarrel, admire, thirst, god

(*i*) *Add to each of the following words a prefix which reverses the meaning.*
fortune, legible, visible, agreeable, ever, fortunate, practicable, honour, patience, sense, truth, resolute, legal, capable, organize, credible, creditable

(*j*) *What is the force or meaning of the (1) Prefixes :* in-, bene-, post-, dys-, dis-, (2) *Suffixes :*-en, -fy, -ness, -isk, -ing ? *Name the language from which each is derived.*

(*k*) *Mention two prefixes which denote (1) reversal of an action ; (2) something good ; (3) something bad ; (4) a negative.*

(*l*) *Name the primary derivatives of the following words.*
hale, glass, high, sit, dig, strong, deep

(*m*) *By means of a suffix turn each of the following words into an abstract noun.*
grand, discreet, supreme, rival, certain, warm, desolate, dense

240. **A Root** is the simple element common to words of the same origin.

A Few Latin Roots

Đquus, *equal :* equal, equator, equivalent, adequate
Ager, *a field* : agriculture, agrarian
Ago, actus, *I do :* agent, agile. active, actor
Alius,*another :* alien, aliquot, alias, alibi
Amo, *I love :* amiable, amateur, amorous, inimical
Angulus, *a corner :* angle, triangle
Anima, *life ;* **animus,** *mind :* animal, animate, unanimous, magnanimous
Annus, *a year* : annual, biennial, perennial
Aperio, apertus, I open : aperture, April
Aqua, water : aquatic, aquarium, aqueduct
Appello, *I call* : appeal, repeal
Ars, artis, art : artist, artisan, artifice
Audio, I hear : audible, audience, auditor
Bellum, *war* : belligerent, rebel, rebellious
Bene, *well :* benefit, benevolent, benefactor
Brevis, *short* : brevity, abbreviate, abridge
Caedo, caesus, *I cut, kill :* suicide, homicide, concise
Candeo, *I shine*: candle, candid, candour, incandescent
Capio, captus, *I take* : captive, capacious, accept
Caput, capitis, *the head :* capital, decapitate, captain
Caro, carnis, *flesh :* carnivorous, carnage
Cedo, cessum, *I go, yield :* concede, proceed, accede
Centrum, *centre :* eccentric, centralize, concentrate
Centum, *a hundred :* cent, century, centipede
Cerno, cretus, *I distinguish :* discern, discreet
Civis, *citizen :* civil, civilize
Clamo, *I shout :* clamour, claim, exclaim
Claudo clausus, *I shut :* exclude, conclude, closet
Colo, cultus, *I till :* colony, culture, cultivate, agriculture
Cor, cordis, *the heart :* core, cordial, concord, discord, accord, courage
Corpus, *the body :* corpse, corps, corporation, corpulent
Credo,*I believe :* creed, credible, credence, miscreant
Cresco, *I grow :* increase, decrease, crescent
Crux, a cross : crucify, crusade
Culpa, *a fault :* culprit, culpable
Cura, *care :* curator, sinecure, accurate, secure, incurable
Deus, *God :* deity, deify, divine
Dico, dictus *I say :* dictation, contradict, predict, verdict
Dies, *a day :* diary, daily, meridian
Do, datus, *I give :* add, date, tradition, addition, condition
Doceo, doctus, *I teach :* docile, doctrine
Dominus, *a lord :* dominion, dominant
Duco, ductus, *I lead :* adduce, conduit, product, education
Duo, *two :* dual, duel, double, duplicate, duodecimal
Durus, *hard lasting :* durable, obdurate, duration
Eo, itum, *I go :* exit, circuit, transition, ambition
Esse, *to be :* essence, essential, present, absent
Facio, *I make :* fabric, counterfeit, manufacture
Fero, latus, *I carry :* infer, confer, refer, relate

Fido, *I trust :* confide, infidel, defy
Finis, *an end :* finite, infinite, confine
Flecto flexus, *I bend :* inflict, inflexible, reflection
Forma, *a form :* formal, deformed, reform
Fortis, *strong :* fort, fortress, fortify, fortitude, reinforce
Frango, fractus, *I break :* fragment, fragile, fraction, infringe
Frater, *a brother :* fraternal, fratricide
Frons, frontis, *forehead :* front, affront, frontier, confront
Fugio, *I flee :* fugitive, refugee, refuge, subterfuge
Fundo, fusus, *I pour :* profuse, diffuse, confuse, refund
Fundus, *the bottom :* found, foundation, profound, fundamental, founder
Gens, gentis, *a race :* congenial, indigenous
Gradior, grassus, *I go:* grade, degrade, transgress, progress
Gratia, *favour :* gratitude, gratis, ingratiate, grateful
Gravis, *heavy :* gravity, gravitation, grief, grievous
Habeo, *I have :* habit, habitable, habituate, exhibit, inhabit, prohibit
Homo, *a man :* homage, homicide, human, humane
Impero, *I command:* imperative, imperial, emperor, empire
Jacio, jactus, *I throw :* ejaculate, reject
Judex, judicis, *a judge :* judicial, judgment, judicious, prejudice
Jungo, junctus, *I join :* junction, conjunction, juncture
Labor, lapsus, *I glide,* lapse, collapse, relapse, elapse
Laus, laudis, *praise :* laudable, laudatory
Lego, lectus, I *gather, read* : collect, neglect, select
Lego, legatus, *I send :* delegate, legation
Levis, *light :* levity, alleviate, elevate, leaven
Lex, legis, *a law :* legal, legislate, legitimate, loyal
Liber, *free :* liberal, libertine, deliver
Ligo, *I bind :* ligature, ligament, religion, league, obligation
Litera, *a letter :* literal, literary, literate, literature
Locus, *a place :* local, locality, locomotive
Loquor, locutus, I speak : loquacious, elocution, eloquence
Ludo, lusum, *I play* : elude, delude, ludicrous
Lumen, *a light :* luminous, luminary
Luo, lutus, *I wash :* lotion, ablution, deluge, dilute, pollute
Lux, lucis, *light :* lucid, elucidate
Magnus, *great :* major, mayor, magnate, magnify, magnitude
Malus, *bad :* malady, malice, maltreat, malaria
Manus, *hand :* manuscript, amanuensis, manual
Mare, *the sea :* marine, mariner, submarine, maritime
Mater, *a mother :* maternal, matriculate, matron, matrimony
Medius, *the middle :* medium, mediate
Memor, *mindful :* memory, memorable, memoir
Miles, militis, *a soldier :* military, militia, militant
Mitto, missus, *I send :* admit, missionary, promise
Moneo monitus, *I advise :* monitor, admonish
Mons, montis, *a mountain :* mount, dismount, surmount
Moveo, motus, *I move* **:** motor, motion, commotion, promote
Multus, *many :* multitude, multiple
Munus, muneris, *a gift :* munificent, remunerate
Navis, *a ship :* navy, nautical
Noceo, *I hurt :* innocent, noxious, nuisance
Novus, *new :* novel, novice, innovation
Nox, noctis, *night :* nocturnal, equinox

Omnis, *all :* omnipotent, omnipresent, omnibus
Pando, passus, *I spread out :* expand, compass, trespass
Pars, partis, *a part :* part, partial, particle
Pater, *a father :* paternal, patron, patrimony
Patior, passus, *I suffer :* passive, patient
Pello, pulsus, *I drive :* compel, expel, repel
Pendeo, pensum, *I hang :* depend, suspend
Pes, pedis, *a foot :* biped, quadruped, pedestrian, pedestal
Peto, petitus, *I seek :* petition, competition, impetuous
Pleo, *I fill :* complete, replete, replenish, supplement
Pono, positus, *I place :* position, preposition, composition
Porto, *I carry :* portable, portmanteau, import, export
Primus, *first :* primary, primitive, prince, premier, principal
Probo, *I try :* probation, probable, approval
Puto, putatus, *I cut, think :* amputate, dispute, compute
Rapio, raptus. *I seize :* rapacious, ravenous
Rego, rectus, *I rule :* regal, regent, correct, regulate
Rumpo, ruptus, *I break :* rupture, rout, bankrupt, eruption
Sanctus, *holy :* sanctuary, sanctify, saint
Scio, *I know :* science, conscience, omniscience
Scribo, scriptus, *I write :* describe, scribble, postscript, inscription, manuscript
Seco, *I cut :* bisect, dissect, sickle
Sentio, *I feel :* sentiment, sensation, nonsense, sensual
Sequor, secutus, *I follow :* sequel, sequence, consequence, prosecute, execute
Servio, *I serve :* servant, serf, service, servitude
Signum, *a sign :* signal, significant, design
Similis, *tike :* similar, dissimilar, resemblance
Solvo, solutus, *I loose :* solution, resolution, absolve, dissolve, resolve
Specio, spectus, *I see :* specimen, spectator, suspicion
Spiro, *I breathe :* aspire, conspire, inspire, expire
Stringo, strictus, *I bind :* stringent, strict, restrict
Struo, structus, *I build :* structure, construction
Sumo, sumptus, *I take :* assume, presume, resume
Tango, tactus, *I touch :* tangent, contact, contagion
Tempus, temporis, *time :* tense, temporal, contemporary
Tendo, tensus, *I stretch :* tend, contend, attend, extend
Teneo, tentus, *I hold :* tenant, tenure, content, retentive
Terminus, *an end :* term, terminate, determination
Terra, *the earth :* inter, subterranean, terrestrial
Texo, textus, I weave : textile, texture, context
Torqueo, tortus, *I twist :* distort, torture, torment
Traho, tractus, *I draw :* contract, abstract, portrait
Tribuo, *I give :* tribute, contribute
Unus, *one :* union, unique, unanimous
Valeo, *I am well :* valid, invalid, equivalent, valiant
Venio, *I come :* venture, adventure, convene, prevent
Verbum, *a word :* verb, adverb, proverb, verbose, verbal
Verto, versus, *I turn :* convert, converse, reverse, diversion
Verus, true : verify, verdict, aver, veracious
Video, visus, *I see :* vision, survey, evident, television
Vinco, victus, *I conquer :* victor, invincible, convince
Vivo, victum, *I live :* vivid, vivacious, revive, survive
Voco, vocatus, *I call :* vocal, vocation, vociferous, invoke, revoke
Volo, *I wish :* voluntary, benevolent, malevolence

Volvo, *I roll :* revolve, involve, revolution
Voro, *I eat :* voracious, omnivorous, carnivorous, devour
Voveo, votus, *I vow :* vote, devote, devotee, votary
Vulgus, *the common people :* vulgar, divulge

A Few Greek Roots

Ago, *I lead :* demagogue, pedagogue, stratagem
Agon, *a contest :* agony, antagonist
Anthropos, *a man :* anthropology, misanthrope, philanthropist
Aster, astron, *a star :* asterisk, astronomy, astrology
Autos, *self :* autocrat, autograph, autonomy, autobiography
Biblos, *a book* ; Bible, bibliography, bibliomaniac
Bios, *life :* biology, biography
Chole, *bile :* choleric, melancholy
Chronos, *time :* chronicle, chronology, chronometer, chronic
Deka, *ten :* decagon, decade
Demos, *the people :* democracy, demagogue, epidemic
Doxa, *opinion :* orthodox, dogmatic
Gamos, *marriage :* monogamy, bigamy, polygamy
Geo, *the earth :* geology, geography, geometry
Gonia, *an angle :* diagonal, polygon, hexagon
Grapho, I write : biography, telegraph, telegram, phonograph
Helios, *the sun :* heliograph, heliotrope
Hippos, *a horse :* hippopotamus, hippodrome
Hodos, *a way :* period, method, episode
Homos, *the same :* homogeneous, homonym
Hudor, *water :* hydrogen, hydrophobia, hydrant
Idios, *one's own :* idiot, idiom, idiosyncrasy
Isos, *equal :* isosceles
Kosmos, *the world :* cosmopolite
Kratos, *strength :* democrat, autocrat, aristocrat, plutocrat
Kuklos, *a circle :* cycle, cyclone, encyclopaedia
Lithos, *a stone :* lithography, aerolite
Logos, *a word, speech :* dialogue, catalogue, astrology
Luo, *I loosen :* analysis, paralysis
Meter, *a mother :* metropolis
Metron, *a measure :* thermometer, barometer
Mikros, *little* : microscope
Monos, *alone :* monarch, monopoly
Nomos, *a, law :* astronomy, economy, autonomy
Ode, *a song :* prosody, parody
Onoma, *a name :* anonymous, synonymous
Orthos, *right :* orthodoxy, orthography
Pan, *all :* pantheist, pantomime, panacea
Pathos, *feeling :* pathetic, sympathy, antipathy,
Petra, *a rock :* petrify, petroleum
Phileo, *I love :* philosophy, philanthropy
Phone, *a sound :* phonograph, telephone
Phos, photos, *light ;* phosphorus, photograph
Phrasis, *a speech :* paraphrase, phraseology
Poleo, *I make :* poem, onomatopoeia
Polis, *a city :* police, policy, politic, metropolis
Polus, *many :* polygamy, polygon
Pous, podos, *a foot :* antipodes, tripod
Rheo, *I flow :* rheumatic, diarrhoea, catarrh

Skopeo, *I see :* telescope, microscope
Sophia, *wisdom :* philosopher, sophist
Techne, *an art :* technical, architect, pyrotechnics
Tele, *far:* telegraph, telegram, telephone, telescope.
Temno, *I cut :* anatomy, epitome
Theos, *a god :* theism, theology, theosophy
Thermos, *warm :* thermometer
Thesis, *a placing :* hypothesis, synthesis, parenthesis
Treis, *three :* triangle, tripod, trinity
Tupos, *impression :* type, stereotype, electrotype
Zoon, *an animal :* zoology, zodiac

Chapter 29 FIGURES OF SPEECH

241. A Figure of Speech is a departure from the ordinary form of expression, or the ordinary course of ideas in order to produce a greater effect.

242. Figures of Speech may be classified as under:
(1) Those based on Resemblance, such as Simile, Metaphor, Personification and Apostrophe.
(2) Those based on Contrast, such as Antithesis and Epigram.
(3) Those based on Association, such as Metonymy and Synecdoche.
(4) Those depending on Construction, such as Climax and Anticlimax.

263. **Simile–**In a Simile a comparison is made between two objects of *different* kinds which have however at least one point in common.

The Simile is usually introduced by such words as *like, as* or *so.*

Examples:

1. The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.
2. The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree.
3. As the hart panteth after the water-brooks, so panteth my soul after Thee, O God.
4. Words are like leaves : and where they most abound,
Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found.
5. How far that little candle throws his beams !
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.
6. Life is as tedious as a twice-told tale
Vexing the dull ear of a drowsy man.
7. Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart:
Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea.
8. O my Love's like a red, red rose
That's newly sprung in June;
O my Love's like the melodie
That's sweetly played in tune.

The following are some common similes of everyday speech.

mad as a March Hare; as proud as a peacock; as bold as brass; as tough as leather; as clear as crystal; as good as gold; as old as the hills; as cool as a cucumber.

Note—A comparison of two things of the *same* kind is not a Simile.

244. **Metaphor–** A Metaphor is an *implied* Simile. It does not, like the Simile, state that one thing is *like* another or acts *as* another, but takes that for granted and proceeds as if the two things were one.

Thus, when we say, 'He fought *like* a lion' we use a Simile, but when we say, 'He *was* a lion in the fight', we use a Metaphor.

Examples:

1. The camel is the ship of the desert.
2. Life is a dream.
3. The news was a dagger to his heart.
4. Revenge is a kind of wild justice.

Note 1— Every Simile can be compressed into a Metaphor and every Metaphor can be expanded into a Simile.

Thus, instead of saying,

Richard fought *like* a lion (Simile),

we can say,

Richard was a lion in the fight (Metaphor).

Similarly, instead of saying,

The camel is the ship of the desert (Metaphor).

we may expand it and say,

As a ship is used for crossing the ocean, so the camel is used for crossing the desert (Simile).

Other examples:

Variety is the spice of life (Metaphor).
As spice flavours food, so variety makes life more pleasant (Simile).
The waves broke on the shore with a noise like thunder (Simile).
The waves thundered on the shore. (Metaphor)

Note 2— Metaphor should never be *mixed.* That is, an object should not be identified with two or more different things in the same sentence.

The following is a typical example of what is called a *Mixed Metaphor.*

I smell a rat ; I see it floating in the air ; but I will nip it in the bud.

245. **Personification–** In Personification inanimate objects and abstract notions are spoken of as having life and intelligence.

Examples:

1. In Saxon strength that abbey frowned.
2. Laughter holding both her sides.
3. Death lays his icy hand on kings.
4. Pride goeth forth on horseback, grand and gay,
   But cometh back on foot, and begs its way.

246. **Apostrophe–**An Apostrophe is a direct address to the dead, to the absent, or to a personified object or idea. This figure is a special form of Personification.

Examples:

1. Milton ! thou should'st be living at this hour.
2. O Friend ! I know not which way I must look.

For comfort.

3. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean–roll !
4. O death ! where is thy sting ? O grave ! where is thy victory ?
5. O liberty, what crimes have been committed in thy name ?
6. Wave, Munich, all thy banners wave,
   And charge with all thy chivalry !
7. O judgement ! thou art fled to brutish beasts.
8. O Solitude ! where are the charms
   That sages have seen in thy face ?

247. **Hyperbole**–In Hyperbole, a statement is made emphatic by overstatement.

Examples :

1. Here's the smell of blood still ; all the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand.
2. Why, man, if the river were dry, I am able to fill it with tears.
3. O Hamlet ! thou hast cleft my heart in twain.
4. Surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision than Marie Antoinette.
5. I Loved Ophelia ; forty thousand brothers
   Could not with all their quantity of love
   Make up the sum.

248. **Euphemism**–Euphemism consists in the description of a disagreeable thing by an agreeable name.

Examples:

1. He has fallen asleep *(i.e.,* he is dead).
2. You are telling me a fairy tale (*i.e.,* a lie).

249. **Antithesis**–In antithesis a striking opposition or contrast of words or sentiments is made in the same sentence. It is employed to secure emphasis.

Examples:

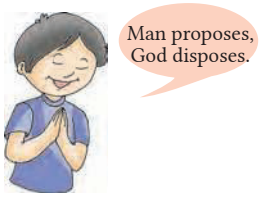

1. Man proposes, God disposes.
2. Not that I loved Caesar less, but that I loved Rome more.
3. Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay.
4. Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice.
5. Speech is silvern, but silence is golden.
6. To err is human, to forgive divine.
7. Many are called, but few are chosen.
8. He had his jest, and they had his estate.
9. The Puritans hated bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators.
10. A man's nature runs either to herbs or weeds ; therefore, let him seasonably water the one and destroy the other.

250. **Oxymoron**–Oxymoron is a special form of Antithesis, whereby two contradictory qualities are predicted at once of the same thing.

Examples:

1. His honour rooted in dishonour stood.
   And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.
2. So innocent arch, so cunningly simple.
3. She accepted it as the kind cruelty of the surgeon's knife.

251. **Epigram**–An Epigram is a brief pointed saying frequently introducing antithetical ideas which excite surprise and arrest attention.

Examples:

1. The child is the father of the man.
2. A man can't be too careful in the choice of his enemies.
3. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
4. In the midst of life we are in death.
5. Art lies in concealing art.
6. He makes no friend, who never made a foe.
7. Know then thyself, presume not God to scan;
   The proper study of mankind is man.
8. The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.
9. Lie heavy on him, earth, for he*
   Laid many a heavy load on thee.
10. Here lies our Sovereign Lord the King
    Whose word no man relies on,
    Who never said a foolish thing
    And never did a wise one.

* Vanburgh, the architect

252. **Irony**–Irony is a mode of speech in which the real meaning is exactly the opposite of that which is literally conveyed.

Examples:

1. No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you.
2. The atrocious crime of being a young man, which the honourable gentleman has, with such spirit and decency, charged upon me. I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny.
3. Here under leave of Brutus and the rest
   (For Brutus is an honourable man:
   So are they all, all honourable men)
   Come I to speak in Caesar's funeral.
   He was my friend, faithful and just to me;
   But Brutus says he was ambitious,
   And Brutus is an honourable man.

253. **Pun**–A Pun consists in the use of a word in such a way that it is capable of more than one application, the object being to produce a ludicrous effect.

Examples:

1. Is life worth living ?–It depends upon the *liver.*
2. An ambassador is an honest man who *lies* abroad for the good of his country.

254. **Metonymy**– In Metonymy (literally, *a change of name)* an object is designated by the name of something which is generally associated with it.

Some familiar examples:

The Bench, for the judges.
The House, for the members of Lok Sabha.
The laurel, for success.
Red-coats, for British soldiers.
Bluejackets, for sailors.
The Crown, for the king.

Since there are many kinds of association between objects, there are several varieties of Metonymy. Thus a Metonymy may result from the use of–

(*i*) The sign for the person or thing symbolized ; as,

You must address the *chair* (*i.e.,* the chairman).
From the *cradle* to the *grave* (*i.e.,* from infancy to death).

(*ii*) The container for the thing contained ; as,

The whole *city* went out to see the victorious general.
The *kettle* boils.
Forthwith he drank the fatal *cup.*
He keeps a good *cellar.*
He was playing to the *gallery.*
He has undoubtedly the best *stable* in the country.

(*iii*) The instrument for the agent ; as,
The pen is mightier than the sword.

(*iv*) The author for his works ; as,
We are reading *Milton.*
Do you learn *Euclid* at your school ?

(*v*) The name of a feeling or passion for its object ; as,
He turn'd his charger as he spake
Upon the river shore,
He gave the bridle-reins a shake,
Said 'Adieu for evermore,
My *love* !
And adieu for evermore.'

255. **Synecdoche**–In Synecdoche a part is used to designate the whole or the whole to designate a part.

(*i*) A part used to designate the whole ; as,

Give us this day our daily *bread* (*i.e.,* food),
All *hands* (*i.e.,* crew) to the pumps.
Uneasy lies the *head* that wears a crown.
A fleet of fifty *sail* (*i.e.,* ships) left the harbour.
All the best *brains* in Europe could not solve the problem.
He has many *mouths* to feed.

(*ii*) The whole used to designate a part ; as,
England (*i.e.,* the English cricket eleven) won the first test match against Australia.

256. **Transferred Epithet**–In this figure an epithet is transferred from its proper word to another that is closely associated with it in the sentence.

Examples:
1. He passed a *sleepless* night.
2. The ploughman homeward plods his *weary* way.
3. A lackey presented an *obsequious* cup of coffee.

257. **Litotes**–In Litotes an affirmative is conveyed by negation of the opposite, the effect being to suggest a strong expression by means of a weaker. It is the opposite of Hyperbole.

Examples:
1. I am a citizen of *no mean* (= a very celebrated) city.
2. The man is *no fool* (= very clever).
3. I am *not a little* (= greatly) surprised.

258. **Interrogation**–Interrogation is the asking of a question not for the sake of getting an answer, but to put a point more effectively.

This figure of speech is also known as **Rhetorical Question** because a question is asked merely for the sake of rhetorical effect.

Examples:
1. Am I my brother's keeper ?
2. Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles ?
3. Shall I wasting in despair.
   Die because a woman's fair ?
4. Who is here so vile that will not love his country ?
5. Breathes there the man with soul so dead
   Who never to himself hath said,
   This is my own, my native land ?
6. Can storied urn or animated bust
   Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath ?

259. **Exclamation**–In this figure the exclamatory form is used to draw greater attention to a point than a mere bald statement of it could do.

Examples:
1. What a piece of work is man !
2. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank !
3. O what a fall was there, my countrymen !

260. **Climax**–Climax (Gk. *Klimax* = a ladder) is the arrangement of a series of ideas in the order of increasing importance.

Examples:
1. Simple, erect, severe, austere, sublime
2. What a piece of work is man ! How noble in reason, how infinite in faculties ! In action, how like an angel ! In apprehension, how like a god!

261. **Anticlimax**–Anticlimax is the opposite of Climax–a sudden descent from higher to lower. It is chiefly used for the purpose of satire or ridicule.

Examples:

1. Here thou, great Anna ! whom three realms obey,
   Dost sometimes counsel take–and sometimes tea.
2. And thou, Dalhousie, the great god of war,
   Lieutenant-Colonel to the Earl of Mar.

EXERCISE 125

Name the various Figures of Speech in the following.

1. The more haste, the less speed.
2. I must be taught my duty, and by you !
3. Plead, Sleep, my cause, and make her soft like thee.
4. Charity suffereth long, and is kind.
5. He makes no friend, who never made a foe.
6. He that planted the ear, shall He not hear ? He that formed the eye, shall He not see ?
7. Let not ambition mock their useful toil.
8. To gossip is a fault ; to libel, a crime ; to slander, a sin.
9. Oh ! what a noble mind is here overthrown!
10. Excess of ceremony shows want of breeding.
11. Why all this toil for triumphs of an hour ?
12. Fools who came to scoff, remained to pray.
13. The Puritan had been rescued by no common deliverer from the grasp of no common foe.
14. The cup that cheers but not inebriates.
15. You are a pretty fellow.
16. Hasten slowly.
17. Hail ! smiling morn.
18. Can two walk together, except they be agreed?
19. Curses are like chickens ; they come home to roost.
20. A thousand years are as yesterday when it is past.
21. The prisoner was brought to the dock in irons.
22. We had nothing to do, and we did it very well.
23. Boys will be boys.
24. The cloister opened her pitying gate.
25. Lowliness is young Ambition's ladder.
26. Language is the art of concealing thought.
27. Must I stand and crouch under your testy humour ?
28. Exult, O shores, and ring, O bells !
29. He followed the letter, but not the spirit of the law.
30. One truth is clear : whatever is, is right.
31. I came, I saw, I conquered.
32. Labour, wide as the earth, has its summit in heaven.
33. Just for a handful of silver he left us.
34. They were swifter than eagles ; they were stronger than lions.
35. Swiftly flies the feathered death.
36. It is a wise father that knows his own child.
37. Brave Macbeth, with his brandished steel, carved out his passage.
38. Sweet Thames ! run softly, till I end my song.
39. There is only one cure for the evils which newly acquired freedom produces–and that cure is freedom.
40. Sweet Auburn, loveliest village of the plain,
    Where health and plenty cheered the labouring swain.
41. So spake the seraph Abdiel faithful found.
    Among the faithless, faithful only he.
42. Youth is full of pleasure,
    Age is full of care.

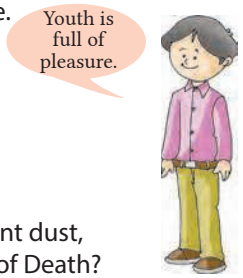

43. Like the dew on the mountain,
    Like the foam on the river,
    Like the bubble on the fountain,
    Thou art gone and for ever.
44. Can Honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
    Or Flattery soothe the dull cold ear of Death?
45. Golden lads and girls all must,
    As chimney-sweepers, come to dust.
46. Sweet are the uses of adversity,
    Which, like the toad, ugly and venomous,
    Wears still a precious jewel in its head.
47. The naked every day he clad
    When he put on his clothes.
48. O mischief, thou art swift
    To enter in the thoughts of desperate men.
49. Knowledge is proud that it knows so much,
    Wisdom is humble that it knows no more.
50. At once they rush'd
    Together, as two eagles on one prey
    Come rushing down together from the clouds,
    One from east, one from west.
51. Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow,
    He who would search for pearls must dive below.
52. The best way to learn a language is to speak it.
53. Sceptre and crown
    Must tumble down,
    And in the dust be equal made
    With the poor crooked scythe and spade.
54. O Solitude ! where are the charms
    That sages have seen in thy face ?
55. I thought ten thousand swords must have leapt from their scabbards to avenge a look that threatened her with insult.
56. The soldier fights for glory, and
    a shilling a day.

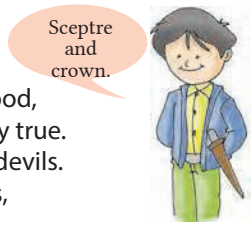

57. His honour rooted in dishonour stood,
    And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.
58. They speak like saints, and act like devils.
59. He was a learned man among lords,
    and a lord among learned men.
60. Speech was given to man to conceal his thoughts.

Part III

Composition

Structures

Different verbs are used in different patterns. The verb **suggest** is used with a **that**-clause, e.g. I suggest that you should see him. The verb **want** can't be used in the same way. The sentence 'I want that you should see him' is wrong. The correct pattern is 'I want you to see him' (**want** + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive). The verb **suggest** can't be used in this pattern. We should not say, 'I suggest you to see him.' The verbs **say** and **tell** nearly mean the same, but they can't be used in the same pattern. We can say, 'He **said** that he was very tired', but we can't say, 'He **told** that he was very tired.' When used with a **that**-clause, **tell** takes a personal object (like **me, him, her, us**). We should say, 'He **told us** that he was very busy.' Chapter 30 presents the main patterns in which verbs are used. Make a careful study of the material, noting which verbs are used in which pattern.

Chapter 31 deals with the kind of structures most commonly used in everyday conversation. Question tags are not always easy to form. There are some peculiarities **like the** following, which need special attention:

I am right, **aren't I** ? (not **amn't I**)

Let's go out, **shall we** ?

Somebody has called, haven't they ? (not **hasn't he**)

Wait a minute, **can you** ?

Chapter 32 presents further structures - the sorts of structures which have not been talked about in the preceding chapters. They include the three types of conditionals:

1. If you **work** hard you **will pass** the exam. (The condition may or may not be fulfilled.)
2. If you **worked** hard you **would pass** the exam. (Improbable condition. I don't expect you will work hard. Here the past tense refers to the future.)
3. If you **had worked** hard you **would have** passed the exam. (= You didn't work hard, so you didn't pass.)

A careful study of the structures and practice in using them will help to strengthen your communicative skill in the language.

PART III: STRUCTURES

Chapter 30 VERB PATTERNS

Pattern 1

Subject+Verb.

This is the simplest of verb patterns. The subject is followed by an intransitive verb, which expresses complete sense without the help of any other words.

	Subject	*Verb*
1.	Birds	fly.
2.	Fire	burns.
3.	The moon	is shining.
4.	The baby	is crying.
5.	Kamala	was singing.
6.	The bell	has rung.
7.	The sun	rose.

Pattern 2

Subject+verb+subject complement

The complement usually consists of a noun (examples 1 & 2), a pronoun (3 & 4), or an adjective (5,6, 7 & 8).

	Subject	*Verb*	*Subject Complement*
1.	This	is	a pen.
2.	His brother	became	a soldier.
3.	It	is	me.
4.	That book	is	mine.
5.	Gopal	looks	sad.
6.	My father	grew	angry.
7.	The children	kept	quiet.
8.	The milk	has turned	sour.

Pattern 3

Subject + verb + direct object

	Subject	*Verb*	*Direct Object*
1.	I	know	his address.
2.	The boy	has lost	his pen.
3.	Mohan	opened	the door.
4.	Who	broke	the jug ?
5.	Mr. Pitt	has bought	a car.
6.	You	must wash	yourself.
7.	We	should help	the poor.

Pattern 4

Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object

	Subject	*Verb*	*Indirect Object*	*Direct Object*
1.	I	lent	her	my pen.
2.	The teacher	gave	us	homework.
3.	We	have paid	him	the money.
4.	The old man	told	us	the whole story.
5.	You	must tell	the police	the truth.
6.	I	have bought	my sister	a watch.
7.	He	didn't leave	us	any.
8.	—	Show	me	your hands.

Pattern 5

Subject + verb + direct object+ preposition + prepositional object

	Subject	*Verb*	*Direct Object*	*Preposition*	*Prepositional object*
1.	I	lent	my pen	to	a friend of mine.
2.	The teacher	gave	homework	to	all of us.
3.	We	have paid	the money	to	the proprietor.
4.	He	told	the news	to	everybody in the village.
5.	He	promised	the money	to	me (not to you).
6.	I	have bought	a watch	for	my sister.
7.	Mr. Raman	sold	his car	to	a man from Mumbai.
8.	She	made	coffee	for	all of us.

Many verbs can be used both in Pattern 4 and in Pattern 5. Pattern 5 is preferred when the direct object is less important or when the indirect object is longer than the direct object.

Pattern 6

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + adjective

	Subject	*Verb*	*Noun/ Pronoun*	*Adjective*
1.	The boy	pushed	the door	open.
2.	The smith	beat	it	flat.
3.	She	washed	the plates	clean.
4.	The thief	broke	the safe	open.
5.	He	turned	the lamp	low.
6.	You	have made	your shirt	dirty.
7.	I	like	my coffee	strong.
8.	We	found	the trunk	empty.

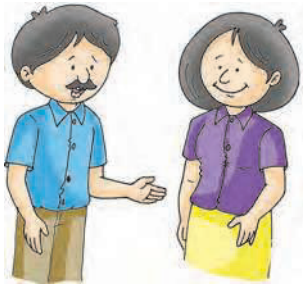

In examples 1—6, the adjective denotes a state that results from the action expressed by the verb. In the last two examples the noun and the adjective combine to be the object of the verb.

Verbs used in this pattern include *get, keep, beat, drive, make, paint, leave, turn, find, like, wish.*

Pattern 7

Subject + verb + preposition + prepositional object

	Subject	*Verb*	*Preposition*	*Prepositional Object*
1.	We	are waiting	for	Suresh.
2.	He	agreed	to	our proposal.
3.	You	can't count	on	his help.
4.	These books	belong	to	me.
5.	His uncle	met	with	an accident.
6.	She	complained	of	his rudeness.
7.	He	failed	in	his attempt.

Pattern 8

Subject + verb + to-infinitive (as object of the verb)

	Subject	*Verb*	*to-infinitive, etc. (object of the verb)*
1.	She	wants	to go.
2.	I	forgot	to post the letter.
3.	He	fears	to speak in public.
4.	They	intend	to postpone the trip.
5.	Ramesh	proposes	to go into business.
6.	We	would like	to visit the museum.
7.	I	hoped	to get a first class.
8.	He	decided	not to go there.

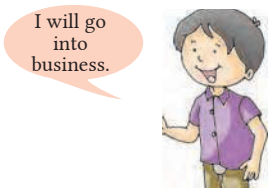

The commonest verbs used in this pattern are : *like, love, prefer, begin, start, agree, try, attempt, choose, continue, intend, propose, desire, wish, want, hate, dislike, hope, expect, promise, refuse, fear, remember, forget, offer, learn.*

Pattern 9

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + to-infinitive

	Subject	*Verb*	*Noun/ Pronoun*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	I	would like	you	to stay.
2.	We	asked	him	to go.
3.	He	helped	me	to carry the box.
4.	She	advised	him	to study medicine.
5.	The doctor	ordered	Gopi	to stay in bed.
6.	They	warned	us	not to be late.
7.	I	can't allow	you	to smoke.
8.	Who	taught	you	to swim ?

The chief verbs used in this pattern include *ask, tell, order, command, persuade, encourage, urge, want, wish, request, intend, expect, force, tempt, teach, invite, help, warn, like, love, hate, allow, permit, remind, cause, mean, dare.*

Pattern 10

Subject + verb + gerund

	Subject	Verb	Gerund, etc.
1.	She	began	singing.
2.	He	has finished	talking.
3.	I	hate	borrowing money.
4.	You	mustn't miss	seeing him.
5.	Mr Bannerjee	loves	teaching.
6.	My brother	enjoys	playing cricket.
7.	I	suggest	burning that letter.
8.	—	Don't keep	saying that.

In this pattern, the gerund is the object of the verb. The chief verbs used in this pattern include *begin, start, love, like, hate, stop, finish, enjoy, prefer, fear, remember, forget, mind, miss, suggest, practise, try, understand, keep, help, advise, admit, avoid, consider, intend, delay, deny.*

Pattern 11

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + present participle

	Subject	Verb	Noun/Pronoun	Present Participle
1.	I	saw	him	crossing the bridge.
2.	We	smell	something	burning.
3.	We	noticed	the boy	walking down the street.
4.	She	caught	him	opening your letters.
5.	They	found	him	playing cards.
6.	She	kept	the fire	burning.
7.	—	(Please) start	the clock	going.

The verbs used in this pattern include *see, hear, smell, feel, watch, notice, find, observe, listen, get, catch, keep, leave, set, start.*

Pattern 12

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + plain infinitive

	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Plain infinitive
1.	I	saw	him	go out.
2.	She	watched	him	steal the watch.
3.	We	heard	her	sing.
4.	The thief	felt	someone	touch his arm.
5.	—	Let	me	go.
6.	We	made	Tom	behave well.
7.	He	bade	them	leave the house.

The chief verbs used in this pattern are : *see, watch, notice, observe, hear, listen, feel, make, let, help, bid.*

Pattern 13

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + past participle

	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Past Participle
1.	I	heard	my name	called.
2.	I	want	this letter	typed.
3.	She	felt	herself	lifted up.
4.	You	should get	that tooth	pulled out.
5.	He	had	his suit	cleaned.
6.	We	found	the house	deserted.

The verbs used in this pattern are : *see, hear, find, feel, want, wish, like, make, prefer, get, have.*

Pattern 14

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + (to be +) complement

The complement may be an adjective, adjective phrase or noun.

	Subject	*Verb*	*Noun/ Pronoun*	*(to be +) Complement*
1.	I	consider	the plan	(to be) unwise.
2.	We	thought	him	(to be) foolish.
3.	People	supposed	him	(to be) a patriot.
4.	They	reported	Robert	(to be) a reliable person.
5.	The court	appointed	her	guardian of the orphan child.
6.	The club	chose	Mr Sunder	treasurer.
7.	She	called	him	a fool.

The chief verbs used in this pattern are : *appoint, choose, elect, make, call, name, nominate, crown, christen.*

Pattern 15

Subject + verb + that-clause (object of the verb)

	Subject	*Verb*	*that-clause (object of the verb)*
1.	I	suppose	(that) he is not at home.
2.	I	expect	(that) it will rain.
3.	We	hoped	(that) you would succeed.
4.	He	says	(that) he has met your uncle.
5.	The teacher	said	he was very busy.
6.	Padma	suggested	that we should go to the park.
7.	He	admitted	that he had written the letter.
8.	They	complained	that they had not been fairly treated.

That is often omitted, especially after *say, think, suppose, hope, expect.*

Among the important verbs used in this pattern are *say, think, suppose, imagine, know, believe, admit, confess, declare, suggest, complain, hope, expect, fear, feel, hear, intend, notice, propose, show, understand, wonder.*

Pattern 16

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + that-clause

	Subject	*Verb*	*Noun/ Pronoun*	*that-cluase*
1.	He	told	me	(that) he was coming on Sunday.
2.	I	warned	him	that there were pickpockets in the crowd.
3.	She	has assured	me	that she is ready to help.
4.	Venu	promised	us	that he would be here at five.
5.	We	have informed	him	that we are leaving this afternoon.
6.	He	satisfied	me	that he could do the work well.

The chief verbs used in this pattern are *tell, inform, promise, warn, remind, teach, assure, satisfy.*

Pattern 17

Subject + verb + interrogative + clause

	Subject	Verb	Interrogative + clause
1.	I	asked	where he was going.
2.	Nobody	knows	when he will arrive.
3.	I	wonder	what he wants.
4.	She	showed	how annoyed she was.
5.	Tom	could not decide	what he should do next.
6.	I	can't imagine	why she has behaved like that.
7.	—	Find out	when the train is due.

The important verbs used in this pattern are *say, ask, wonder, know, believe, imagine, decide, discuss, understand, show, reveal, find out, suggest, tell* (especially in the interrogative and negative).

Pattern 18

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + interrogative + clause

	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Interrogative + clause
1.	She	asked	me	when you had gone.
2.	—	Tell	us	what it is.
3.	I	showed	them	how they should do it.
4.	—	(Please) advise	me	what I should do.
5.	—	(Please) inform	me	where I should turn off the road.
6.	Can	you tell	me	where he lives?

The chief verbs used in this pattern are *tell, ask, show, teach, advise, inform.*

Pattern 19

Subject + verb + interrogative + to-infinitive

	Subjet	Verb	Interrogative + to-infinitive, etc.
1.	I	don't know	how to do it.
2.	I	wonder	where to spend the weekend.
3.	She	knows	how to drive a car.
4.	He	forgot	when to turn.
5.	Tom	couldn't decide	what to do next.
6.	We	must find out	where to put it.
7.	—	Remember	how to do it.

The commonest verbs used in this pattern are *know, understand, wonder, remember, forget, decide, settle, find out, enquire, see, explain, guess, learn, consider.*

Pattern 20

Subject + verb + noun/pronoun + interrogative + to-infinitive

	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Interrogaive + to-infinitive
1.	I	shall show	you	how to operate it.
2.	He	has taught	me	how to play chess.
3.	They	informed	us	where to turn off the road.
4.	—	(Please) advise	me	what to do.
5.	—	(Please) tell	us	how to get there.
6.	We	asked	him	where to get tickets.

The chief verbs used in this pattern are those illustrated in the table.

EXERCISE 126

Make up five sentences on each of the patterns. (Do not copy the examples given in the tables.)

Chapter 31 QUESTION TAGS, SHORT ANSWERS, ETC.

(1) **Question Tags.** It is a common practice in conversation to make a statement and ask for confirmation ; as, 'It's very hot, isn't it?' The later part ('isn't it ?') is called a question tag. The pattern is (*i*) auxiliary+*n't* +subject, if the statement is positive, (*ii*) auxiliary + subject, if the statement is negative.

(*i*) It's raining, isn't it ?
You are free, aren't you ?
She can swim well, can't she ?
Gopi broke the glass, didn't he ?
Your sister cooks well, doesn't she ?

(*ii*) You aren't busy, are you ?
She can't swim, can she ?
Mohan doesn't work hard, does he ?
They haven't come yet, have they ?

Note that the subject of the question tag is always a pronoun, never a noun.

Note these peculiarities:

I am right, aren't I?
Let's go to the beach, shall we?
Wait a minute, can you?
Have some more rice, will you?
There is a mosque in that street, isn't there?
There are some girls in your class, aren't there?
Somebody has called, haven't they?

(2) **Short Answers.** The following is the most usual form of short answers to verbal questions (*i.e.,* questions beginning with an auxiliary).

Yes + pronoun + auxiliary

Or : *No* + pronoun + auxiliary + *n't* (*not*)

Are you going to school ?	Yes, I am. No, I am not.
Can you drive a car ?	Yes, I can. No, I can't.
Is your son married ?	Yes, he is. No, he isn't.
Does Venu work hard ?	Yes, he does. No, he doesn't.
Did he say anything ?	Yes, he did. No, he didn't.

(3) **Agreements and Disagreements with Statements.** Agreements with affirmative statements are made with *Yes/So/Of course* + pronoun + auxiliary.

It is a good film. —Yes, it is.
Mohan has already come. —So he has.

He can speak Hindi very well. —Of course he can.
He looks dishonest. —Yes, he does.

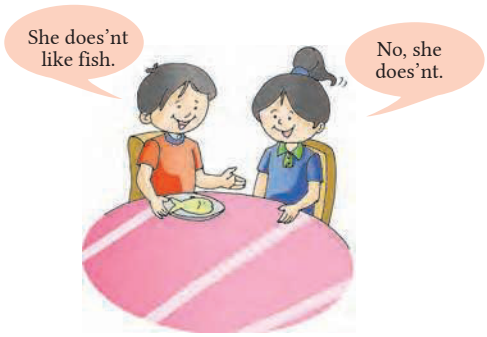

Agreements with negative statements are made with *No* + *pronoun* + auxiliary + *n't/not.*

The apples aren't good. — No, they aren't.
She doesn't like fish. No, she doesn't.
He can't help coughing. No, he can't.
They haven't played well. No, they haven't.

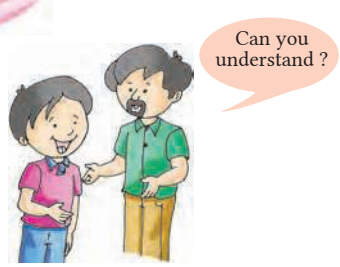

Disagreements with affirmative statements are made with *No/Oh no* + pronoun + auxiliary + *n't/not. But* is used in disagreement with a question or an assumption.

He is drunk. —No, he isn't.
You are joking. —Oh no, I'm not.
Why did you beat him ? —But I didn't.
I suppose she knows Bengali. —But she doesn't.

Disagreements with negative statements are made with (*Oh*) *yes/*(*Oh*) *but* + pronoun + auxiliary.

You can't undestand it. —Yes, I can.
He won't come again. —But he will.
You don't know him. —Oh yes, I do.
I didn't break it. —Oh but you did.

(4) **Additions to Remarks.** Affirmative additions to affirmative remarks are made with *So* + auxiliary + subject.

Anand likes oranges. So do I.
She must go home. So must I.
He was late for the meeting. So were you.
I've finished my homework. So has my sister.

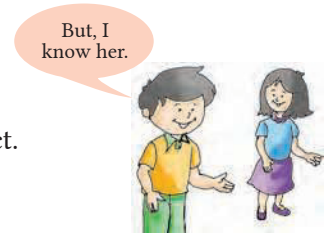

Negative additions to negative remarks are made with *Nor/ Neither* + auxiliary + subject.

Ramesh doesn't like sweets. Nor do I.
He didn't believe it. Neither did I.
I can't do the sum. Nor can my father.
Tom wasn't there. Neither was Peter.

Negative additions to affirmative remarks are made with *But* + subject + auxiliary + *n't/not.*

He knows German. But I don't.
I understood the joke. But Mary didn't.
He knows how to cook. But his wife doesn't.
I can play chess. But my brother can't.

Affirmative additions to negative remarks are made with *But* + subject + auxiliary.

He doesn't know her. But I do.
I didn't see the film. But Gopi did.
He can't play cricket. But I can.
She wasn't late. But you were.

EXERCISE 127

Add question tags to the following.

1. It's very hot today, ____?
2. You like him, ____?
3. Kishore will come, ____?
4. We must hurry, ____?
5. He will never give up, ____?
6. Your father is a doctor, ____?
7. You have tea for breakfast, ____?
8. I didn't hurt you, ____?

9. You aren't going out, ____?
10. They have sold the house, ____?
11. I needn't get up early tomorrow,____?
12. It isn't ready yet, ____?
13. Gopal hasn't passed the exam. ____?
14. They will go home soon, ____?
15. He didn't paint it himself, ____?

EXERCISE 128

Answer the following questions (*a*) in the affirmative, (*b*) in the negative.

1. Can you swim ?
2. Do you like sweets ?
3. Are you angry with me ?
4. Is it going to rain ?
5. Am I in your way ?
6. Does your father smoke ?
7. Did you go to college yesterday ?
8. Will they be at the cinema ?
9. Is Suresh staying with his uncle ?
10. Has he met you ?

EXERCISE 129

I. Agree with the following statements, using *Yes/So/Of course* + pronoun + auxiliary.

1. Children like playing.
2. He has left already.
3. My aunt came yesterday.
4. They are playing beautiful music.
5. Mr. Mukherji knows ten languages.
6. Abdul has come to see you.

II. Agree with the following statements, using *No* + pronoun + auxiliary + *n't/not*.

1. He doesn't like tea.
2. You haven't played well.
3. Your brother doesn't look his age.
4. She didn't complain.
5. He can't speak English fluently.
6. Ramesh didn't attend the party.

III. Disagree with the following statements. (Use the pattern *No/Oh no/But* + pronoun auxiliary + *n't/not*).

1. He lied.
2. |She has promised to obey you.
3. Why have you spoiled my pen ?
4. The boy will hurt himself.
5. I suppose he is honest.
6. You are in the wrong.

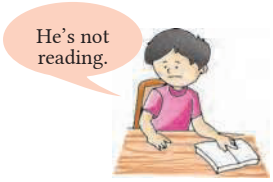

IV. Disagree with the following statements, using the pattern (*Oh*) *yes/*(*Oh*) *But* + pronoun + auxiliary).

1. You can't do the sum.
2. Radha doesn't like you.
3. He isn't reading.
4. She won't come.
5. I am not in your way.
6. I don't know where you went.

EXERCISE 130

I. Add to the following remarks either freely or using the suggestions in brackets. (Pattern : *So* + auxiliary + subject)

1. Venu came late. (Gopi)
2. My friend lives in Mumbai. (his sister)
3. Oranges were very dear. (bananas)
4. I've read the book. (my brother)
5. Madhu can speak Tamil. (his wife)
6. I must leave today. (you)

II. Add to the following remarks, either freely or using the suggestions in brackets. (Pattern : *Nor/Neither* + auxiliary + subject)

1. I don't like meat. (my wife)
2. She could't help laughing. (I)
3. This book doesn't belong to me. (that)
4. Monday's debate wasn't very interesting. (Wednesday's)
5. She doesn't know me quite well. (her husband)
6. You didn't notice him. (I)

III. Add contradictory statements to the following, either freely or using the suggestions in brackets. (Pattern : *But* + subject + auxiliary + *n't/not*)

1. He can type well. (I)
2. I won the election. (my friend)
3. My sister can speak Marathi. (I)
4. I like playing chess. (she)
5. He knows me well. (his brother)
6. Hindi is easy to learn. (English)

IV. Add contradictory statements to the following either freely or using the suggestions in brackets. (Pattern : *But*+subject+auxiliary)

1. I don't know Telugu. (my wife)
2. My sister doesn't like films. (I)
3. He won't leave tomorrow. (We)
4. I didn't do the homework. (others)
5. He didn't thank me. (she)
6. I didn't know the way. (my friend)

Chapter 32 MORE STRUCTURES

(1) Preparatory *There* + *be* + subject

	There + be	*Subject, etc.*
1.	There is	a book on the desk.
2.	There is	a hotel near the station.
3.	There is	a lamp beside the bed.
4.	There was	someone at the door.
5.	There are	twelve months in a year.
6.	There are	plenty of pins in a drawer.

The structure '*There* + *be* .....' is generally used when the subject is indefinite, *i.e.*, when the subject is preceded by *a, an, some, much, many, a few,* etc.

(2) *to*-infinitive after adjectives expressing emotion or desire.

	Subject + verb	*Adjective*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	We were	glad	to see him.
2.	She is	afraid	to go alone.
3.	My brother is	eager	to join the army.
4.	I shall be	happy	to accept your invitation.
5.	He was	anxious	to meet you.
6.	They are	impatient	to start.

(3) *It* + *be* + adjective + *of* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive.

	It + be	*Adjective*	*Of* + **noun/** *pronoun*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	It is	kind	of you	to help us.
2.	It was	clever	of Mohan	to find his way here.
3.	It was	careless	of her	to make a mistake.
4.	It was	unwise	of me	to lend him money.
5.	It was	foolish	of Mr Ramesh	to accept the offer.
6.	It is	wicked	of him	to say such things.

The following adjectives can be used in this pattern : *kind, good, generous, considerate, foolish, stupid, unwise, clever, wise, nice, wrong, polite, brave, cowardly, silly, wicked, cruel, careless,* etc.

(4) *to*-infinitive after *easy, difficult, hard, impossible,* etc.

	Subject + verb	*Adjective*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	This book is	easy	to read.
2.	This rug is	difficult	to wash.
3.	His actions are	impossible	to justify.
4.	The subject is	hard	to understand.
5.	His speech was	difficult	to follow.
6.	The food is	difficult	to digest.
7.	This medicine is	pleasant	to take.

(5) *It + be +* adjective + *to*-infinitive

	It + be	*Adjective*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	It is	easy	to learn Hindi.
2.	It will be	difficult	to give up smoking.
3.	It may be	difficult	to get the job.
4.	It is	bad	to borrow money.
5.	It is	cruel	to treat animals in that way.
6.	It was	impossible	to lift the box.

(6) *It + be + no good, etc. +* gerundial phrase

	It + be	*Gerundial Phrase*
1.	It is no good	asking him for help.
2.	It was no good	talking to her.
3.	It's no use	worrying about it.
4.	It is worth	seeing the film.
5.	It was worthwhile	seeing the exhibition.
6.	It is amusing	watching monkeys.
7.	It has been a pleasure	meeting you.

(7) *It + be + adjective/noun + noun clause*

	It + be	*Adjective/ Noun*	*Noun Clause*
1.	It is	strange	that he should have behaved like that.
2.	It is	likely	that there will be rain this afternoon.
3.	It is	possible	that he doesn't understand Hindi.
4.	It is	doubtful	whether he will be able to come.
5.	It is	a pity	that you didn't try harder.
6.	It was	fortunate	that you escaped the accident.
7.	It is	a mystery	who can have taken my book.

(8) *It + to take + me, him, etc. + time phrase + to-infinitive*

	It + to take	*Time phrase*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	It took me	fifteen minutes	to reach the stadium.
2.	It will take you	only five minutes	to walk to the park.
3.	It took him	two months	to recover from his illness.
4.	It will take us	ten minutes	to get there.
5.	It took me	one year	to learn Kannnada.
6.	It has taken me	one hour	to write my composition.

(9) *too + adjective/adverb + to-infinitive*

	Subject + verb	*too + Adjective/ Adverb*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	She is	too weak	to carry the box.
2.	I am	too busy	to attend the party.
3.	He talks	too fast	to be understood.
4.	My sister is	too young	to go to school.
5.	She is	too proud	to listen to me.
6.	The boy is	too lazy	to work.
7.	He worked	too slowly	to be of much use to me.

(10) *Adjective/Adverb + enough + to-infinitive*

	Subject + verb	*Adjective/ Adverb + enough*	*to-infinitive, etc.*
1.	She is	strong enough	to carry the box.
2.	He is	clever enough	to understand it.
3.	The police ran	fast enough	to catch the burglar.
4.	You are	old enough	to know better.
5.	She was hit	hard enough	to be knocked down.
6.	He is	tall enough	to reach the picture.
7.	She is	stupid enough	to believe us.

(11) *So + adjective/Adverb + that-clause*

	Subject + Verb	*so + adjective/ adverb*	*that-clause*
1.	It is	so dark	that I can see nothing.
2.	He talks	so fast	that you can hardly follow him.
3.	The box fell	so heavily	that it was broken.
4.	It was	so hot	that we had to postpone our trip.
5.	He was	so furious	that he couldn't speak.
6.	He walked	so quickly	that we couldn't catch him up.
7.	I was	so tired	that I couldn't walk any further.

(12) *Patterns of exclamatory sentences*

(*i*) *What + (adjective +) noun (+ subject + verb)*

	What(+Adjective+) Noun	*(Subject+Verb)*
1.	What a charming girl	(she is) !
2.	What a lovely garden	(it is) !
3.	What a good idea !	
4.	What a terrible noise !	
5.	What a fool	you are !.
6.	What a (large) nose	he has !
7.	What beautiful music	they are playing !
8.	What a pity !	

(ii) *How + Adjective/Adverb + Subject + Verb*

	How+Adjective/Adverb	*Subject+Verb*
1.	How charming	she is !
2.	How lovely	the garden is !
3.	How clever	you are !
4.	How sweet	the song is !
5.	How tall	you have grown !
6.	How well	she dances !
7.	How quickly	the holiday has passed !

(13) *Conditionals* : *Type* 1 (*open condition*)

	If-clause *Simple Present*	*Main clause* *Will/shall/can may+plain infinitive*
1.	If you study hard	you will get a first class.
2.	If it rains	we shall postpone our picnic.
3.	If I find the pen	I shall give it to you.
4.	If he runs all the time	he can get there in time.
5.	If her uncle arrives	she may not come with you.
6.	If you hit the dog	it will bite you.

Conditionals of this type tell us that something will happen if a certain condition is fulfilled. The condition may or may not be fulfilled.

(14) *Conditionals* : *Type 2* (improbable or imaginary condition)

	If-clause *Simple Past (subjunctive)*	*Main clause* *would/should/could/might + plain infinitive*
1.	If you studied hard	you would get a first class.
2.	If I were you	I should not do that.
3.	If we started now	we could be in time.
4.	If you were a millionaire	how would you spend your time ?
5.	If he stopped smoking	he might get fat.
6.	If I had a degree	I could get a job easily.

Conditionals of this type are used when we talk about something which we don't expect to happen or which is purely imaginary.

(15) *Conditionals* : *Type 3* (Unfulfilled condition)

	If-clause *Past perfect*	*Main clause* *would/should/could/might + perfect infinitive*
1.	If you had studied hard	you would have got a first class.
2.	If I had tried again	I should have succeeded.
3.	If I had seen him	I could have saved him from drowning.
4.	If you had left that wasp alone	it might not have stung you.
5.	If you had come to me	I would not have got into trouble.

Conditionals of this type say that something did not happen because a certain condition was not fulfilled.

EXERCISE 131

Make up five sentences on each of the patterns.

Part IV

Composition

Written Composition

The knowledge of grammar and sentence construction acquired in the preceding sections can be put to real use in this section. The following chapters aim to help you build up your communication skills.

Good communication skills will increase your chances of success in many aspects of life. You can't communicate effectively if you are merely able to produce correct sentences. You should be able to form a number of related or connected sentences in real-life situations. You should learn to write a paragraph, a letter, an essay, a story, etc. This section provides plenty of guidance and practice in such forms of composition. Unity, order and clarity: these are the main characteristics of good writing in general. You must practise a lot. You can learn to write **by writing.**

The chapters on comprehension and precis writing contain ample practice material. Precis writing is a good exercise in both reading and writing. Practice in precis writing is of great value for practical life. In any position of life the ability to grasp what is read or heard, and to reproduce it clearly and briefly, is of the utmost value.

The chapter on dialogue writing is specially geared towards students who need to improve their spoken English. For further guidance in conversational English, read H. Martin's **English Dialogues** (S. Chand & Co. Ltd.).

Exercises in paraphrase, expansion of passages and reproduction of story poems integrate comprehension and writing skills.

It is hoped that when you finish this book you will find yourself capable using English effectively and confidently in all situations.

PART IV: WRITTEN COMPOSITION

Chapter 33 PARAGRAPH–WRITING

If you look at any printed prose book, you will see that each chapter is divided up into sections, the first line of each being indented slightly to the right. These sections are called Paragraphs. Chapters, essays and other prose compositions are broken up into paragraphs, to make the reading of them easier, for the beginning of a new paragraph marks a change of topic, or a step in the development of an argument or of a story. In writing essays or other compositions, it is important to know how to divide them properly into paragraphs; for an essay not so broken up, looks uninteresting and is not easy to read.

Definition— A paragraph is a number of sentences grouped together and relating to one topic; or, a group of related sentences that develop a single point.

These definitions show that the paragraphs of a composition are not mere arbitrary divisions. The division of a chapter into paragraphs must be made according to the changes of ideas introduced.

There is, therefore, no rule as to the length of paragraphs. They may be short or long according to the necessity of the case. A paragraph may consist of a single sentence, or of many sentences.

Note— In this respect, the paragraphs of a piece of prose differ from the stanzas or verses of a poem. The stanzas of a poem are usually of the same length and pattern; but paragraphs are long or short according to the amount of matter to be expressed under each head.

Principles of Paragraph Structure

1. ***UNITY***—The first and most important principle to be observed in constructing a paragraph is that of *Unity*. Just as each sentence deals with one thought, each paragraph must deal with *one topic or idea*— and *with no more than one.* In writing an essay, for example, every head, and every sub-head, should have its own paragraph to itself. And every sentence in the paragraph must be closely connected with the main topic of the paragraph. The paragraph and every part of it must be the expression of one theme or topic.

Note— A good practice is to read a chapter in a book, and give a short heading or title to each paragraph, which will express in a word or brief phrase the subject of the paragraph.

The topic, theme or subject of a paragraph is very often expressed in one sentence of the paragraph—generally the first. This sentence is called the *topical sentence* (because it states the topic), or the *key-sentence* (because it unlocks or opens the subject to be dealt with in the paragraph).

2. ***ORDER***—The second principle of paragraph construction is *Order* —that is, *logical sequence of thought* or development of the subject. Events must be related in the order of their occurrence, and all ideas should be connected with the leading idea and arranged according to their importance or order.

Note— The two most important sentences in the paragraph are the first and the last. The first, which should as a rule be the topical sentence, should arouse the interest of the reader; and the last should satisfy it. The first, or topical, sentence states the topic—a fact, a statement, or a proposition; the last should bring the whole paragraph on this topic to a conclusion, or summing up.

3. ***ARIETY***—A third principle of paragraph construction is ***Variety*** ; by which is meant that, to avoid monotony, the paragraph of a composition should be of different lengths, and not always of the same sentence construction.

To sum up: the essentials of good paragraph construction are— (1) Unity. (2) A good topical sentence. (3) Logical sequence of thought. (4) Variety. (5) A full and rounded final sentence in conclusion.

EXAMPLES

Now let us examine a few paragraphs by standard authors, in illustration of these principles of paragraph construction.

1. "Hence it is that it is almost a definition of a gentleman to say he is one who never inflicts pain. This description is both refined and, as far as it goes, accurate. He is mainly occupied in merely removing the obstacles which hinder the free and unembarrassed action of those about him; and he concurs with their movements rather than takes the initiative himself. His benefits may be considered as a parallel to what are called comforts or conveniences in arrangements of a personal nature, like an easy chair or a good fire, which do their part in dispelling cold and fatigue, though nature provides both means of rest and animal heat without them." —*J.E. Newman.*

This is a paragraph from Cardinal Newman's famous description of a "Gentleman" in his *The Idea of a University.* Notice that the paragraph is confined to *one point* in the character of a gentleman, which is clearly stated in the first, or *topical sentence viz.,* that "he is one who never inflicts pain." The rest of the paragraph is simply a development and illustration of the topical sentence. And the concluding sentence drives home the statement of the subject with its similies of the easy chair and the good fire.

2. "The Road is one of the great fundamental institutions of mankind. Not only is the Road one of the great human institutions because it is fundamental to social existence, but also because its varied effects appear in every department of the State. It is the Road which determines the sites of many cities and the growth and nourishment of all. It is the Road which controls the development of strategies and fixes the sites of battles. It is the Road that gives its framework to all economic development. It is the Road which is the channel of all trade, and, what is more important, of all ideas. In its most humble function it is a necessary guide without which progress from place to place would be a ceaseless experiment; it is a sustenance without which organised society would be impossible, thus the Road moves and controls all history." —*Hilaire Belloc.*

In this paragraph, the first sentence states the subject. It is the topical sentence. The body of the paragraph consists of examples which prove the statement in the first sentence. The final sentence sums up the whole.

3. "Poetry is the language of the imagination and the passions. It relates to whatever gives immediate pleasure or pain to the human mind. It comes home to the bosoms and businesses of men; for nothing but what comes home to them in the most general and intelligible shape can be a subject for poetry. Poetry is the universal language which the heart holds with nature and itself. He who has a contempt for poetry cannot have much respect for himself, or for anything else. Wherever there is a sense of beauty, or power, or harmony, as in the motion of a wave of the sea, in the growth of a flower, there is poetry in its birth." —*William Hazlitt.*

Here again, the first sentence is the topical sentence. The sentences that follow enforce or restate the statement that "poetry is the language of the imagination and the passions"; and the concluding sentence reinforces it by showing that poetry exists wherever men feel a sense of beauty, power or harmony.

In all these paragraphs, the principles of Unity and Order are observed, and also the general rules about the place of the topical sentences and the rounding off the whole with a good conclusion.

The Writing of Single Paragraphs

So far we have been treating of paragraphs which are sections of a more or less lengthy composition, like an essay or the chapter of a book. But students are often asked in examinations to write short separate paragraphs, instead of essays, on subjects of ordinary interest. Such single paragraphs are really miniature essays ; but the same principles as we have discussed above (except the principle of variety), must be followed in their construction. Each paragraph must be a unity, treating of one definite subject, and must follow a logical order of thought. In most cases, too, the rules about the topical sentences and the conclusion should be borne in mind.

A few examples should make this clear. Suppose, for example, you are asked to write a paragraph on "The Cat." It is obvious that you cannot treat this subject fully, as you might in a long essay. And yet you must, according to the principle of unity, confine your paragraph to one definite topic. You must, therefore, choose one thing to say about a cat, and stick to it throughout. You might, for example, write of one characteristic of the cat, say, its love of comfort and attachment to its home. In that case, you might write a paragraph something like this:—

The Cat

There is some truth in the common saying that while dogs become attached to persons, cats are generally attached to places. A dog will follow his master anywhere, but a cat keeps to the house it is used to ; and even when the house changes hand, the cat will remain there, so long as it is kindly treated by the new owners. A cat does not seem to be capable of the personal devotion often shown by a dog. It thinks most of its own comfort, and its love is only cupboard love.

Notice the construction of this paragraph. It begins with the topical sentence, which clearly states the subject. The following sentence explains the statement by expanding it; and the last sentence, by giving a reason for the attachment of a cat to a particular house forms a fitting conclusion. The paragraph is therefore a Unity, treating of one characteristic of cat character: and it follows an orderly plan.

The paragraph on the cat is descriptive. Now take an example of a narrative paragraph, in which you are required to tell a story. Suppose the subject is to be a motor-car accident ; you might treat it in this way.

A Car Accident

It is the mad craze for speed that is responsible for many motor accidents. Only last year I witnessed what might have been a fatal accident on the Kashmir Road. I was motoring down from Srinagar; and as I was nearing Kohala, I came upon the wreckage of two cars on the road. The smash had been caused by a car coming down, which swept round a sharp corner at forty miles an hour and crashed into a car coming up. Happily no one was killed ; but several were badly injured, and the two cars were wrecked. To drive at such a speed down a twisting mountain road is simply to court disaster.

In this paragraph, the topical sentence is again first ; the narrative that follows is simply an illustration of the statement in the topical sentence that many accidents are caused by a mad craze for speed; and the concluding sentence sums the paragraph up by a restatement of the topical sentence in other words.

The following is an example of a reflective paragraph ; that is, one that expresses some reflection or thought on an abstract subject.

Mercy

To forgive an injury is often considered to be a sign of weakness ; it is really a sign of strength. It is easy to allow oneself to be carried away by resentment and hate into an act of vengeance; but it takes a strong character to restrain those natural passions. The man who forgives an injury proves himself to be the superior of the man who wronged him, and puts the wrong-doer to shame. Forgiveness may even turn a foe into a friend. So mercy is the noblest form of revenge.

The topical sentence of a paragraph is usually the first, or at latest the second; and this is the best place for it. But for the sake of variety it may be placed in a different position. In this paragraph, it comes last—"So mercy is the noblest form of revenge". But the opening sentence is also a good introduction to the subject, and is calculated to arouse interest by stating an apparent paradox.

To sum up: In writing single paragraphs, the principles of Unity and Order must be kept in mind, and also the rules of the topical and concluding sentences. The language should be simple, the style direct, and the sentences short; and, as a paragraph is limited, all diffuseness must be avoided.

EXERCISE 132

Write short paragraphs on the following subjects.

1. A Rainy Day. 2. A Walk. 3. The Cow. 4. Trees. 5. Politeness. 6. Anger. 7. A Picnic. 8. A Fire. 9. A Flood. 10. Some Pet Animal. 11. Rivers. 12. Cricket. 13. Contentment. 14. Gymnastics. 15. Gratitude. 16. A Holiday. 17. The Elephant. 18. The Cobra. 19. The Tailor. 20. The Astronaut. 21. Revenge. 22. Thrift. 23. Stars. 24. The Crow. 25. Robots. 26. To-day's Weather. 27. Your Hobby. 28. Humility. 29. The Mango. 30. Examinations.

Chapter 34 STORY WRITING

To tell even a simple story well requires some practice. An uneducated person generally tells a tale badly. He does not mentally look ahead as he tells it and plans it out. So he repeats himself, omits important items, which he drags in afterwards out of place, and dwells too long on minor details and fails to emphasise the leading points. To write a good story, you must have the whole plot clear in your mind, and the main points arranged in their proper order.

In this exercise you are not asked to make up a story. The plot of each story is given to you, more or less fully, in the outlines provided. But an outline is only a skeleton; it is your work to clothe the skeleton with flesh and breathe life into it. You must try to produce a connected narrative, and to make it as interesting as you can.

HINTS

1. As has been already said, see that you have a clear idea of the plot of the story in your mind before you begin to write.
2. Follow the outline given; *i.e.,*do not omit any point, and keep to the order in which the points are given in the outline.
3. Be careful to connect the points given in the outline naturally, so that the whole will read well as a connected piece of good composition. Otherwise the whole will be disconnected and jerky. You must use your imagination in filling in the details of action, gesture and conversation that should connect one point with the next.
4. Where possible, introduce dialogue or conversation; but be careful to make it natural and interesting.
5. The conclusion of a story is important. The whole story should be made to lead up to it naturally, and then it should come as a bit of surprise.
6. If you are asked to supply a heading or title to the story, you may choose the main character, object or incident of the story *(e.g.,*"The Barber of Baghdad," or "The Pot of Olives,"or "An Accident"); or, a proverb or well-known quotation that suits the story *(e.g.,*"No pains, no gains," "Sorrow's Crown of Sorrow", etc.)
7. See that your composition is grammatical and idiomatic and in good simple English. Revise your work, and if necessary rewrite it, until it is as good as you can make it.

Specimen Outline

Boy set to guard sheep—told to cry "Wolf!" if he sees a wolf near the flock—watches the sheep for several days—gets tired of the monotonous work—so one day shouts "Wolf !" as a joke—all the villagers hasten to his help-they find no wolf—boy laughs at them—villagers angry—plays the same joke a few days later—some villagers take no notice-some come runing—finding nothing, they beat the boy—at last wolf really comes—boy is terrified and shouts "Wolf ! Wolf'—villagers take no notice—wolf kills several sheep

Complete Story

The Boy Who Cried "Wolf !"

One of the boys in a village was sent out into fields to look after the sheep.

"Mind you take care of them and don't let them stray," said the villagers to him.. "And keep a good look out for wolves. Don't go far away : and if you see a wolf coming near the sheep, shout out 'Wolf!' as loudly as you can, and we will come at once to help you."

"All right !" said the boy, "I will be careful."

So every morning he drove his sheep out to the hillside and watched them all day. And when evening came, he drove them home again.

But after a few days he got rather tired of this lonely life. Nothing happened and no wolves came. So one afternoon he said to himself: "These villagers have given me a very stupid job. I think I will play a trick on them just for fun."

So he got up and began shouting as loudly as he could, "Wolf ! Wolf !"

The people in the village heard him, and at once they came running with sticks.

"Wolf ! Wolf !" shouted the boy; and they ran faster. At last they came up to him, out of breath.

"Where is the wolf ?" they panted. But the boy only laughed and said: "There is no wolf. I only shouted in fun. And it was fun to see you all running as hard as you could !"

The men were very angry.

"You young rascal !" they said. "If you play a trick like that again, we will beat you instead of the wolf."

And they went back to their work in the village.

For some days the boy kept quiet. But he got restless again, and said to himself: "I wonder if they will come running again if I cry 'Wolf !' once more. It was such fun the last time."

So once more he began shouting , "Wolf ! Wolf !"

The villagers heard him. Some said, "That boy is up to his tricks again." But others said, "It may be true this time ; and if there really is a wolf, we shall lose some of our sheep."

So they seized their sticks, and ran out of the village to the hillside.

"Where is the wolf ?" they cried, as they came up.

"Nowhere !" said the boy laughing. "It was fun to see you running up the hill as fast you could."

"We will teach you to play jokes," shouted the angry men; and they seized the boy and gave him a good beating, and left him crying instead of laughing.

A few days later a wolf really did come. When the boy saw it, he was very frightened and began shouting "Wolf ! Wolf ! Help ! Help !" as loudly as he could.

The villagers heard him, but they took no notice.

"He is playing his tricks again," they said. "We won't be made fools for a third time. You can't believe a boy after you have caught him lying twice."

So no one went to his help, and the wolf killed several sheep and frightened the boy nearly out of his wits.

EXERCISE 133

Construct readable stories from the following outlines.

1. An old lady becomes blind—calls in a doctor —agrees to pay large fee if cured, but nothing if not—doctor calls daily—covets lady's furniture—delays the cure—every day takes away some of her furniture—at last cures her—demands his fees—lady refuses to pay, saying cure is not complete—doctor brings a court case—judge asks lady why she will not pay—she says sight not properly restored—she cannot see all her furniture—judge gives verdict in her favour—moral
2. A jackal wants crabs on the other side of a river—wonders how to get across—tells camel there is sugarcane the other side—camel agrees to carry him across in return for the information—they cross—jackal finishes his meal—plays trick on camel—runs round the fields howling—villagers rush out—see camel in sugarcane—beat him with sticks—camel runs to river—jackal jumps on his back—while crossing, camel asks jackal why he played him such a trick—jackal says he always howls after a good meal—camel replies he always takes a bath after a good meal—rolls in the river—jackal nearly drowned—tit-for-tat

3. A son is born to a Rajah—the mother dies in childbirth—a young mother with a baby is chosen as nurse—she nurses both babies together—enemies of the Rajah plot to kill his son—they bribe the guards and get into the palace—the nurse is warned just in time—quickly changes the children's dresses—leaves her own child dressed as prince and flies with real prince—murderers enter room and kill the child left behind—so prince is saved—Rajah offers nurse rewards—she refuses them and kills herself—Rajah grieved—erects splendid tomb for the faithful nurse

4. A miser loses a purse of a hundred pieces of gold—in great distress—goes to town crier—crier says he must offer a reward—offers reward of ten pieces of gold—the crier announces this —a few days later a farmer comes to the miser—he has picked up the purse—returns it to miser—miser counts the money—a hundred pieces of gold—thanks the farmer—the farmer asks for the reward—miser says there were a hundred and ten pieces in the purse, so the farmer has already taken his reward of ten pieces—they quarrel—farmer appeals to the judge—the judge hears the case, and asks for the purse—sees that it only just holds a hundred pieces—decides it cannot be the miser's purse—so gives the purse to farmer—the miser had overreached himself
5. A king distressed—his people lazy—to teach them a lesson he had a big stone put in the middle of the road one night—next day merchants pass and go round it—an officer driving in his carriage did the same—a young soldier came riding, did the same—all cursed the stone and blamed the government for not removing it—then the king had the stone removed—under it was an iron box, marked, "*For the man who moves away the stone*"—inside a purse full of money—the people were ashamed

6. Tiger kills an Indian lady travelling through the jungle—as he eats her body, he notices her gold bangle—keeps it as he thinks it may be useful—later he hides himself by a pool—traveller comes to pool, dusty and tired—strips and bathes in cool water—sees the tiger in bushes watching him—terrified—tiger greets him with a mild voice—says he is pious and spends time in prayer—as a sign of goodwill, offers the traveller the gold bangle—traveller's greed overcomes his fear—crossed pool to take bangle—tiger springs on him and kills him

7. A young man setting out on a journey—accompanied part way by an old man—they part under a pipal tree—young man asks old man to keep Rs. 100 for him till he returns—old man agrees and takes money—old man says he never gave him any to keep—young man takes him before judge—judge sends young man to summon tree to court—a long time away—judge asks old man, "Why?"—old man says tree is long way off—judge sees that the old man knows which tree it is—when young man returns, judge gives verdict in his favour
8. A poor Brahmin travelling through forests—comes across a tiger caught in a trap—tiger begs him to let him out—Brahmin in pity does so—tiger knocks him down—Brahmin pleads for his life and says the tiger is ungrateful—tiger agrees that he may appeal to three things against tiger—Brahmin first asks a pipal tree—tree says all men are ungrateful—tree gives them shade and they cut its branches—Brahmin next asks the road—the road says that in return for its services men trample on it with heavy boots—Brahmin then asks a buffalo—buffalo says her master beats her and makes her turn a Persian wheel—Brahmin in despair—consults a jackal—jackal asks how tiger got into cage—tiger jumps in to show him—jackal shuts cage and walks away with Brahmin
9. Baghdad merchant, about to go with a caravan to Damascus, suddenly falls ill—entrusts his bales of silk to a camel-driver—says he will go to Damascus as soon as he is well—will pay camel-driver when he arrives—camel-driver waits in Damascus—merchant does not come—camel-driver sells the silk for a large sum—shaves his beard, dyes his hair and dresses in fine clothes—Baghdad merchant at last arrives—searches all Damascus for camel-driver—one day recognises him—camel-driver pretends to be a merchant of Samarkand—Baghdad merchant brings him before the judge—judge decides he can do nothing, as there are no witnesses—as camel-driver leaves court, judge suddenly calls out "Camel-driver !"—he stops and turns round—judge puts him in prison, and makes him pay money to Baghdad merchant

10. A slave in ancient Carthage—cruel master—slave runs away into desert—sleeps that night in a cave—waked up by terrible roar—sees lion coming into cave—terrified—but lion quite gentle—holds up wounded paw—slave takes out a big thorn—lion grateful and wags his tail—slave and lion live together as friends—at last slave homesick—goes back to Carthage—is caught by his master—condemned by judge to be thrown to lions—thousands go to amphitheatre to see man fight lion— slave brought out—lion rushes to attack him—but when he sees slave lies down and licks his feet—same lion—great astonishment—governor sends for slave—hears his story—frees slave and gives him the lion

11. King Solomon noted for his wisdom—Queen of Sheba heard of his fame—came to visit him—impressed by his wealth and grandeur—wanted to test his power of solving puzzles—showed him two garlands of flowers, one in right hand and one in left—one real, the other artificial—asks, "Which is which?"—courtiers puzzled—both garlands look the same—Solomon silent—Queen feels triumphant—Solomon ordered windows to be opened—bees flew in from garden—buzzed about the Queen—all settled on garland in her right hand—Solomon said the flowers in right hand real, in left hand artificial—Queen impressed with his wisdom

12. Ship of pirate becalmed near rocky coast—pirate sees bell fastened to dangerous submerged rock—asks what it is—is told it was placed there to warn sailors in storms—thinks it would be a joke to take the bell—rows across in boat to rock—they cut the chain and sink the bell—wind rises and they sail away—years after pirate returns to same coast—sea covered with fog and storm rising—pirate does not know where he is—a terrible crash—ship strikes on the same rock—as they go down the pirate realizes his ship wrecked on the same rock—wishes he had left the bell alone

13. Rich nobleman gives a grand feast—many guests—his steward tells him a fisherman has brought a fine fish—nobleman tells him to pay him his price—steward says his price is a hundred lashes—nobleman thinks this a merry jest—sends for fisherman—fisherman confirms steward's report—nobleman agrees—fisherman quietly receives fifty lashes—then stops—says, he has a partner to whom he promised half the price—"Who is he ?"— nobleman's porter—"Why ?"—porter refused to let him in if he did not agree—porter brought in and given the other fifty lashes—guests enjoy joke—nobleman rewards fisherman

14. Ali, a barber in Baghdad—Hassan, a wood-seller—Hassan brings Ali load of wood on a donkey—they bargain about the price—at last Ali offers so much for "all the wood on the donkey's back"—Hassan agrees—unloads the wood—Ali claims donkey's wooden saddles—Hassan protests—quarrel—Ali seizes saddle and drives Hassan away with blows—Hassan appeals to Khalif—Khalif gives him advice—some days later Hassan goes to Ali's shop—asks Ali to shave him and a friend for so much—Ali agrees—shaves Hassan first—"Where is your friend?"—"Outside"—Hassan fetches in his donkey—Ali refuses to shave donkey—drives Hassan away—Hassan reports to Khalif—Khalif sends for Ali—forces him to fulful his bargain—Ali has to shave Hassan's friend, the donkey, before all the courtiers—great laughter, and shame for Ali

Chapter 35 REPRODUCTION OF A STORY-POEM

What you have to do in these exercises, is to tell in your own words the story which is told in a poem. The first thing, then, is to read the poem as a story, so that you know what the story is; and the next is, to tell the same story over again in your own words and your own way.

HINTS

1. Read the whole poem through, slowly and carefully. If after the first reading, the story is not quite clear, read the poem again, and yet again, until you feel you understand it thoroughly.

2. Write down briefly the chief facts of the story, in order to guide you in your narration. Do not leave out any important point.
3. Now try to write out the story in simple, straightforward English, telling the incidents of the story in their natural order.
4. Do not copy the language of the poem. You must use your own words in telling the story. But do not try to use the fine language; be simple and choose plain words.
5. When you have finished the exercise, read it through to see whether you have left out any important fact, or have stated any wrongly.
6. Finally, examine your composition for mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation. And see that your sentences are properly constructed, and that the whole composition reads well.

Specimens

1. Tell concisely in the form and style appropriate to a prose-narrative the story of the following poem.

The Glove And The Lions

King Francis was a hearty king, and loved a royal sport ;
And one day, as his lions strove, sat looking on the court ;
The nobles filled the benches round, the ladies by their side,
And 'mongst them Count de Lorge, with one he hoped to make his bride.
And truly 'twas a gallant thing, to see the crowning show.
Valour and love, and a king above, and the royal beasts below.
Ramped and roared the lions, with horrid laughing jaws ;
They bit, they glared, gave blows like beams, and went with their paws ;
With wallowing might and stifled roar they rolled one on another,
Till all the pit, with sand and mane was in a thund'rous smother ;
The bloody foam above the bars came whizzing through the air ;
Said Francis then, "Good gentlemen, we're better here than there !"
De Lorge's love o'erheard the king, a beauteous lively dame,
With smiling lips, and sharp bright eyes, which always seemed the same ;
She thought, "The Count, my lover, is as brave as brave can be ;
"He surely would do desperate things to show his love of me !
"King, ladies, lovers all look on ; the chance is wondrous fine ;
"I'll drop my glove to prove his love ; great glory will be mine !"
She dropped her glove to prove his love ; then looked on him and smiled;
He bowed, and in a moment leaped among the lions wild ;
The leap was quick ; return was quick ; he soon regained his place—
Then threw the glove, but not with love, right in the lady's face !
"Well done!" cried Francis, "bravely done !" and he rose from where he sat :
"No love," quoth he, "but vanity, sets love a task like that !"

Reproduction

The Glove and the Lions

King Francis was a great lover of all kinds of sport ; and one day he and his courtiers, noblemen and ladies, sat watching wild savage lions fighting each other in the enclosure below. Amongst the courtiers sat Count de Lorge beside a beautiful and lively lady of noble birth whom he loved and hoped to marry. The lions roared, and bit and tore each other with savage fury, until the king said to his courtiers, "Gentlemen, we are better up here than down there !"

The lady, hearing him, thought she would show the king and his court how devoted her lover was to her : so she dropped her glove down among the fighting lions, and then looked at Count de Lorge and smiled at him. He bowed to her, and leaped down among the savage lions without hesitation, recovered the glove, and climbed back to his place in a few moments. Then he threw the glove right in the lady's face.

King Francis cried out, "Well and bravely done ! But it was not love that made you lady set you such a dangerous thing to do, but her vanity !"

2. Tell the story of Leigh Hunt's "Plate of Gold" in five short paragraphs.

THE PLATE OF GOLD

One day there fell in great Benares' temple-court
A wondrous plate of gold, whereon these words were writ :
"To him who loveth best, a gift from Heaven."

Thereat

The priests made proclamation : "At the midday hour,
Each day, let those assemble who for virtue deem
Their right to heaven's gift the best ; and we will hear
The deeds of mercy done, and so adjudge.''

The news

Ran swift as light, and soon from every quarter came
Nobles and munshis, hermits, scholars, holy men,
And all renowned for gracious or for splendid deeds,
Meanwhile the priests in solemn council sat and heard
What each had done to merit best the gift of Heaven.
So for a year the claimants came and went.

At last,

After a patient weighing of the worth of all,
The priests bestowed the plate of gold on one who seemed
The largest lover of the race—whose whole estate,
Within the year, had been parted among the poor.
This man, all trembling with his joy, advanced to take
The golden plate—when lo! at his first finger touch
It changed to basest lead ! All stood aghast ; but when
The hapless claimant dropped it clanging on the floor,
Heaven's guerdon was again transformed to shining gold.
So for another twelve months sat the priests and judged,
Thrice they awarded—thrice did Heaven refuse the gift.
Meanwhile a host of poor, maimed beggars in the street
Lay all about the temple gate, in hope to move
That love whereby each claimant hoped to win the gift.
And well for them it was (if gold be charity),
For every pilgrim to the temple gate praised God.
That love might thus approve itself before the test.
And so the coins rained freely in the outstretched hands ;
But none of those who gave, so much as turned to look
Into the poor sad eyes of them that begged.

And now

The second year had almost passed, but still the plate
Of gold, by whomsoever touched, was turned to lead.
At length there came a simple peasant—not aware
Of that strange contest for the gift of God—to pay
A vow within the temple. As he passed along
The line of shrivelled beggars, all his soul was moved
Within him to sweet pity, and the tears welled up
And trembled in his eyes.

Now by the temple gate
There lay a poor, sore creature, blind, and shunned by all ;
But when the peasant came, and saw the sightless face
And trembling, maimed hands, he could not pass, but knelt,
And took both palms in his, and softly said ; "O thou,
My brother ! bear the trouble bravely. God is good.''
Then he arose and walked straightway across the court,
And entered where they wrangled of their deeds of love
Before the priests.
A while he listened sadly ; then
Had turned away ; but something moved the priest who held
The plate of gold to beckon to the peasant. So
He came, not understanding, and obeyed, and stretched
His hand and took the sacred vessel. Lo ! it shone
With thrice its former lustre, and amazed them all !
"Son", cried the priest, "rejoice. The gift of God is thine.
Thou lovest best !'' And all made answer, "It is well."
And, one by one, departed. But the peasant knelt
And prayed, bowing his head above the golden plate ;
While o'er his soul like morning streamed the love of God.

Reproduction

The Plate of Gold

One day a wonderful plate made of gold fell from Heaven into the court of a temple at Benares ; and on the plate these words were inscribed: "A gift from Heaven to him who loves best." The priests at once made a proclamation that every day at twelve o'clock, all who would like to claim the plate should assemble at the temple, to have their kind deeds judged.

Everyday for a whole year all kinds of holy men, hermits, scholars and nobles came, and related to the priests their deeds of charity, and the priests in solemn council heard their claims. At last they decided that the one who seemed to be the greatest lover of mankind was a rich man who had that very year given all his wealth to the poor. So they gave him the plate of gold. but when he took it in his hand, it turned to worthless, lead; though, when he dropped it in his amazement on to the floor, it became gold again.

For another year claimants came; and the priests awarded the prize three times. But the same thing happened, showing that Heaven did not consider these men worthy of the gift.

Meanwhile a large number of beggars came and lay about the temple gate, hoping that the claimants who came would give them alms to prove they were worthy of the golden plate. It was a good time for the beggars, because the pilgrims gave them plenty of money ; but they gave them no sympathy, nor even a look of pity.

At last a simple peasant, who had heard nothing about the plate of gold, came ; and he was so touched by the sight of the miserable beggars, that he wept ; and when, he saw a poor blind and maimed wretch at the temple gate, he knelt at his side and took his maimed hands in his and comforted him with kind words. When this peasant came to the temple, he was shocked to find it full of men boasting of their kind deeds and quarrelling with the priest. One priest, who held the golden plate in his hand, seeing the peasant standing there, beckoned to him ; and the peasant came, and knowing nothing about the plate, took it in his hands. At once it shone out with three times its former splendour, and the priests said : "Son, the gift is yours : for you love best."

EXERCISE 134

1. Tell in your own words the story of Leigh Hunt's "Abou Ben Adhem," What is the moral of the legend? [Wren's "Lotus Book of English Verse", No. 128. Wren's "Story Poems", No. 20.].
2. Imagine yourself to be King Bruce, and tell the story of "King Bruce and the Spider" ["Lotus", No. 5. "Story Poems", No. 10]
3. Tell the story of "Bishop Hatto" in a letter to a friend ["Lotus", No. 59. "Story Poems", No. 37]
4. Tell at length the story told in Campbell's "Adelgitha," supplying details left out by the poet. ["Story Poems" No. 62]

5. Tell in your own words the story of "The Blind Men and the Elephant" as told by J.G. Saxe. ["Lotus", No. 16. "Story Poems", No. 1.]
6. Tell the story of Southey's "Inchcape Rock" in your own words. ["Lotus", No. 60. "Story Poems", No. 9]
7. Tell the story of "Androcles and the Lion", as related by Androcles. ["Story Poems", No. 14.]
8. Tell the story of Browning's "Incident of the French Camp" in your own words. ["Lotus", No. 108. "Story Poems", No. 21.]
9. Relate in a few plain sentences the bare facts narrated in W. R. Spencer's "Beth Gelert". ["Lotus", No. 51. "Story Poems", No. 36.]
10. Rewrite the story of "The Fisherman and the Porter", as told by the fisherman. ["Story Poems", No. 39.]
11. Tell the story of Leigh Hunt's "Mahmoud", using the dialogue form for the conversational parts. ["Lotus", No. 61. "Story Poems", No. 41]
12. Put yourself in the place of Ibrahim, and tell the story told in Lowell's "Yussouf" from his point of view. ["Lotus", No. 62. "Story Poems", No. 42.]
13. Tell the story narrated in Trench's "Harmosan," as told by a member of the Caliph's retinue. ["Lotus", No. 63. "Story Poems", No. 43.]
14. Read the poem "John Maynard", and then describe in your own words the heroism of John Maynard. ["Story Poems", No. 55]
15. Imagine yourself to be the country mouse ; then tell the story of "The Town and the Country Mouse". ["Story Poems," No. 57]
16. The two poems, Campbell's "Earl March" and Scott's "Maid of Neidpath", are two versions of the same incident. Read both these poems and then tell in simple language the one story which both relate. ["Story Poems', Nos. 94 and 95.]
17. Tell in your own words the story of Thackeray's "Canute and the Tide". ["Lotus", No. 18. "Story Poems", No. 64.]
18. Tell in your own words the beautiful legend related in W. Bruce's poem "The Stranger". ["Story Poems", No. 81.]
19. Relate in your own words, the Talmudic legend about Solomon and the Bees as narrated in verse by J.G. Saxe. ["Lotus", No. 64. "Story Poems", No. 89.]
20. Relate in simple language and in the form of a dialogue the incident told in J. Merrick's "Chameleon". ["Lotus", No. 17. "Story Poems". No. 77.]
21. Tell the story of Hay's "Enchanted Shirt" in your own words. ["Lotus", No. 8. "Story Poems", No. 65.]
22. Tell in your own words the story of the jester who, condemned to death, saved his life by his wits. ["Story Poems". No. 72.]
23. Read Lowell's "Dara" : then relate in four paragraphs (*a*) the early life and rise of Dara ; (*b*) the jealousy which his rise excited ; (*c*) the incident of the chest and (*d*) the clearing of the suspicion about his integrity. ["Lotus", No. 66. "Story Poems". No. 66.

Chapter 36 LETTER–WRITING

Every educated person should know how to write a clear and readable letter. Everyone has sometimes to write business letters of some sort, and may have to face the problem of writing an important letter that will vitally affect his interests in life. The art of letter-writing is, therefore, no mere ornamental accomplishment, but something that every educated person must acquire for practical reasons.

I. The Form Of Letters

Letters are messages, and certain *letter-forms* have been established by experience and custom as the most useful forms learned and used by every letter-writer, for neglect of them is a sign of ignorance and carelessness.

There are several different kinds of letters (such as friendly letters, business letters, etc.) each of which has its own particular form ; but there are certain matters of form which apply to all, and these may be explained first.

In all kinds of letters there are six points of form to be attended to, namely :—

1. The Heading consisting of *(a)* the writer's address and *(b)* the date.
2. The courteous Greeting or Salutation.
3. The Communication or Message—The body of the letter.
4. The Subscription, or courteous Leave-taking, or Conclusion.
5. The Signature.
6. The Superscription on the envelope.

1. ***The HEADING***— This informs the reader *where* you wrote the letter, and *when.* The *where* (which should be the writer's full postal address) gives the address to which the reader may reply ; and the *when* is for reference, as it gives him the *date* on which you wrote.

The position of the heading is the top right-hand corner of the first page—the address above and the date just below it. The heading and the date may alternatively go on the left.

24 Poorvi Marg
New Delhi 110 057
10 October 2001

The date may be written in any of the following ways:

4 June 2001	4-6-2001	To a British person this means the fourth of
4th June 2001	4.6.2001	June; to an American it means the sixth of April.
June 4, 2001	4/6/2001	(Americans put the month before the day.)

2. ***SALUTATION or Greeting***— The form of Greeting will depend upon the relation in which you stand to the person to whom you are writing.

To members of your family, for example, it will be—
Dear Father, My dear Mother, Dear Uncle, Dear Hari, etc.
To friends, it will be—
Dear Shri Desai, or *Dear Desai,* or *Dear Ramchandra, etc.*
To business people, it will be—
Dear Sir, Dear Sirs, etc.
[Full examples will be given for each kind of letter later.]

Note— The use of the term *Dear* is purely formal, and is a mere polite expression, not necessarily implying any special affection.
The position of the Salutation is at the left-hand of the first page, at a lower level than the Heading.

3. ***The COMMUNICATION or Body of the letter***— This is, of course, the letter itself, and the style in which it is written will depend upon the kind of letter you wish to write. The style of a letter to an intimate friend will be very different from that of a purely business letter or an official communication. But a few hints that apply to all letters are given below.

(*a*) *Divide your letter* (unless it is very short) *into paragraphs,* to mark changes of Subject-matter, etc.

(*b*) *Use simple and direct language* and short sentences. Do not try to be eloquent, and drag in long words, just because they are long words. Be clear about what you want to say, and say it as directly as possible.

(*c*) *Try to be complete.* It is a sign of slovenly thinking when you have to add postscripts at the end of a letter. Think out what you want to say *before* you begin to write ; and put down your points in some logical order.

(*d*) *Write neatly.* Remember that your correspondent has to read what you write, and do not give him unnecessary trouble with bad penmanship and slovenly writing.

(*e*) *Mind your punctuation,* and put in commas and semicolons and fullstops in their proper places. Incorrect punctuation may alter the whole meaning of a sentence.

4. ***The SUBSCRIPTION or courteous Leave-taking***—A letter must not end abruptly, simply with the writer's name. This would look rude. So certain forms of polite leave-taking are prescribed. Such as—

Yours sincerely, Your sincere friend, Yours faithfully, etc.

[Different leave-taking forms are used in different kinds of letters, and these will be given under their proper heads.]

The subscription, or Leave-taking phrase, must be written below the last words of the letter, and to the right side of the page. This is the traditional method. Note that today there is a growing tendency to place the subscription on the left side.

Note—The first word of the Subscription must begin with a capital letter ; e.g.,

Sincerely yours

5. ***The SIGNATURE or name of the writer.***— This must come below the Subscription. Thus :

Yours sincerely,

K.R. Deshpande

In letters to strangers, the signature should be clearly written, so that the reader may know whom to address in reply. A woman should prefix to the name *Miss* or *Mrs* (or: *Kumari* or *Smt*) in brackets. *Ms* can be used by a woman who does not wish to be called Miss or Mrs.

Yours faithfully,

(Mrs.) J.L. Desai

6. ***The address on the envelope (or postcard):*** The address on the envelope or postcard should be written clearly, like this:

To sum up:

In writing a letter, first write your address and under it the date in the top right-hand corner of the first page. You may alternating write them on the left.

Then write the Salutation (*e.g., Dear Shri Desai,)* lower down at the left side of the page, beginning with a capital and putting a comma after it.

Next begin your letter (with a capital letter) on the next lower line, to the right of the salutation.

At the end of the letter write the Subscription, or words of leave-taking (*e.g., Yours sincerely),* at right/left side of the page, with your signature below it.

For example:

16 North Usman Road
Chennai 600 017
4 October 2001

Dear Sir,

I shall be much obliged if you send me as soon as possible the books which I ordered a week ago.

Yours faithfully,

Abdul Ghani

II. Classification Of Letters

Letters may be classified according to their different purposes. Thus :

(1) Social Letters, including Friendly Letters and Notes of Invitations.

(2) Business Letters; including Letters of Application, Letters to Government Officers and Letters to Newspapers.

These have different characteristics which must be considered.

I. Social Letters

1. FRIENDLY LETTERS

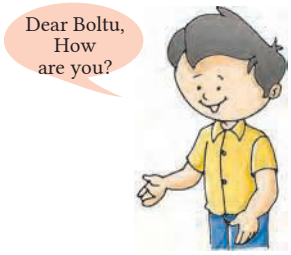

Letters to relations and intimate friends should be written in an easy, conversational style. They are really of the nature of friendly chat; and, being as a rule unpremeditated and spontaneous compositions, they are informal and free-and-easy as compared with essays. Just as in friendly talk, so in friendly letters, we can touch on many subjects and in any order we like ; and we can use colloquial expressions which would in formal essays be quite out of place. But this does not mean that we can be careless and slovenly in dashing off our letters, for it is insulting to ask a friend to decipher a badly-written, ill-composed and confused scrawl; so we must take some care and preserve some order in expressing our thoughts. Above all, it must be remembered that, however free-and- easy may be our style, we are just as much bound by the rules of spelling, punctuation, grammar and idiom in writing a letter as we are in writing the most formal essay. Such ungrammatical expressions as "an advice" "those sort of things" and "he met my brother and I," are no more permissible in a friendly letter than in a literary article. Mistakes in spelling, punctuation and grammar at once stamp a letter-writer as uneducated.

Forms of address—In friendly letters to relations and intimate friends, the proper form of address is the name (without title) of the person to whom you are writing, prefixed by such qualifying terms as *Dear, My dear, Dearest,* etc. For example: *Dear Father* or *Mother, Dear Brother, Dearest Sister, Dear Edward, My dear Abdul,* etc.

But if you are writing to an ordinary friend who is much older than you are, or of superior rank, it is respectul to use a prefix like Mr, Mrs, Shri etc., *e.g. Dear Mr Krishna Rao.*

N.B.—Students writing friendly letters to their teachers or professors, should always address them thus.

The forms of subscription are varied. The following can be used in letters to relatives and near friends : *Yours affectionately, Your affectionate* (or *loving) son,* or *brother* or *friend, Yours very sincerely* (to friends) ; or you can use some such form as this :

With love and best wishes,
From your affectionate friend,
Ahmad Hassan

In concluding letters to friends or acquaintances whom you address as "Shri or Mr ....." (*e.g., My Dear Shri Durga Prasad)* you should use the word *sincerely* or *very sincerely,* in the subscription ; and this may be preceded by *With kind* (or *very kind* or *kindest*) *regards.* Thus:

With kind regards,
Yours sincerely,
Chaman Lal

N.B.— *Sincerely* should not be used in letters beginning with the formal *Dear Sir*, after which the proper word of subcription is *faithfully* or *truly.*

[To your uncle on his 70th birthday]

18 Patel Road,
Mumbai 400014.
24 Sept. 2001

My dear Uncle,

I have just remembered that it is your birthday on Saturday and so I must send you a birthday letter at once. And I begin with the old greeting, Many happy returns of the day ! I hope the day itself will be peaceful and happy for you and that you will be spared in happiness and health to us all for years yet. You have always been a kind and generous uncle to me, and I take this opportunity of thanking you from the bottom of my heart for all you have done for me. And I know all your nieces and other nephews feel the same.

I was so glad to hear from father that you are still hale and hearty, and can take your four-mile walk every day, and still play a good set of tennis.

I am sending you a book which I think you will like. You were always a great reader, and I am glad that your eyesight remains as good as ever—so father says.

I am getting on well in my business and hope to enlarge it considerably before the end of the year.

With love and best wishes,

Your loving nephew,

Sohrab

[From a boy in a boarding-school to his mother, telling her that he dislikes the life of a boarder.]

St. Dominics,
Pune 411 002.
24th October, 2001

Dearest Mother,

I was so glad to get your letter yesterday. Thank you so much! I read it just after morning school ; but it made me feel very homesick. It seems years since I left home though it is really only about a month. It seems ages to the Christmas holidays, when I shall be able to come home. It was much nicer when I was at the day-school, and came home every afternoon.

I do hate being a boarder. I am in a big dormitory, with about twenty other boys. Some of them are all right ; but the bigger boys are always playing nasty jokes on us smaller ones ; and we daren't say anything, or we should get a most awful kicking. The master comes round to see all lights out, but all the larking goes on after he has gone; so he knows nothing about it. And I don't like the masters. They simply make you work all day, and cane you for every fault. Most of the boys are horrid ; but I like two or three.

Please ask Dad to put me into a day-school again. I would be much happier there.

With Love,

Your loving son,

Tommy

[The mother's reply]

Hill-top House,
Matheran,
26th October, 2001

My dear Tommy,

Thank you for your letter. But I am sorry you are so unhappy at St. Dominic's. I don't wonder you feel rather home-sick, for it is the first time you have been away from home ; and I, too, often want you home again, my child. But you know, we can't always have what we want in life. If I were selfish, I would keep you always at home, for I don't like any of my children to be away ; but then how would you ever get your education and grow up to be a man able to manage your own life ? Your father thinks that a few years at a boarding-school is necessary for all boys, to make men of them ; and he knows best.

So my dear boy, you must be brave and stick to your school. I am sure you will soon get to like it, as other boys do. Don't mind the jokes boys play on you, and if you do, don't let them know you do. When they see you don't mind, they will soon get tired of teasing you. So cheer up ! and be a brave laddie.

With much love,

Yours lovingly

Mummy

EXERCISE 135

Write a short letter.

1. To your cousin, requesting the loan of a camera during your holidays.
2. From a boy in a boarding-school to his mother who is keeping poor health.
3. To your father, who has been away from home for a fortnight, about anything of interest that has taken place in his absence.
4. To your cousin about what particularly pleased you at the circus.
5. From a boy at a boarding-school to his parents on the approaching vacation.
6. From a son to his father, stating how he hopes to fare in the approaching School-Leaving Examinat
7. To your younger brother, scolding him for having neglected his studies.
8. Reply to the above.
9. From a mother to her daughter, on receiving a bad report from her boarding-school.
10. Reply to the above.
11. You have recovered from a long illness. Write about your experience in bed etc., to your cousin.
12. You have been delayed one night by a railway accident near a small country out-station. Write a letter home relating your experience.

[To a friend in a hospital]

Race Cottage
Lucknow-226 003
28th December, 2001

Dear Mela Ram,

I have only just heard from your brother that you have been ill in the hospital for the last two weeks. I am very sorry. If I had known, I should have written before. But I am glad to know that the worst is now over, and you are much better. He says he saw you the other day, and you were quite comfortable and cheery. I hope you will soon be all right, and coming out again. As soon as you can, write and let me know how you are.

Yours very sincerely,

Sant Ram

[To a friend, about your favourite game]

18 East Road,
Junglepore.
6th March, 2001

Dear Sharif,

Thanks for your letter, with your praises of cricket as the finest game in the world. I don't want to dispute that; but it is not my favourite. I have two favourite games, one for out-of-doors, and one for indoors.

For exercise and interest, I like tennis best of all outdoor games. Football and hockey are too violent to suit me ; cricket is too slow ; badminton is childish. But tennis gives you plenty of exercise ; it develops quickness of eye and limb ; and it calls your brain, your thinking power, into action. A few sets of tennis in the evening keep me physically and mentally fit.

For indoors, chess is the queen of games. I take no interest in card games ; and draughts after chess is like water after wine. People say chess is a selfish game, because only two can play at a time. Well, I don't see that bridge is only less selfish, simply because four play instead of two. They also say it is slow. No chess-player ever says this. For an outsider it may look slow to see two men sitting silent and making a move only every few minutes. But to the two players, it is all the time intensely exciting. There is no game that so absorbs you like chess.

You will probably scoff; but I don't mind.
Yours very sincerely,
Lal Khan

[To a friend, describing a football match in which you were referee]

54 Khazanchi Road,
Patna 800 004.
5 Jan. 2001

Dear Devi Prasad,

My advice to those who are about to act as football referees is—Don't! Why? Hear my sad story.

We have here two local teams called the Brilliants and the Valiants. They are easily the best teams in the district and in every tournament the fight in the end is between these two. And when their blood is up, they both fight to win, by fair means or foul— mostly foul. Moreover, the town is divided into two bitterly opposed factions—Brilliants and Valiants, who roll up, to the matches to cheer and jeer, and to see "fair" play.

The game had not long begun, before I had to turn off one of the Brilliants for foul play. The team protested, the crowd roared and things looked ugly ; but I stuck to my point, and they settled down. But they were sulky. Then the Valiants scored ; and the Brilliants looked sulkier still.

But the fun began when I awarded the Valiants a penalty kick close to goal, by which they promptly scored again. Then all the Brilliants rushed on to the field, yelling and shouting, and went for me. I was jostled, struck and kicked and knocked down; and the match came to an end in free fight between the two parties.

I am sitting up, nursing my wounds, and vowing, "No more refereeing for me!"

Yours in sorrow,

Kartikey

[To a friend, greeting him on the occasion of the Independence Day.]

Satpura Hostel,
Vindhyachal Block,
Varanasi - 221001.
10th July, 2002

Dear Satish

I hope this letter finds you in the best of spirits. It's time we exchanged greetings, for our nations will soon be celebrating the fifty-fifth Independence Day. My friends and I of Himalayan Academy, Rajganj would like to express our spirit of brotherhood and oneness on the occasion of the Independence Day.

May the internal and communal disturbances give way to religious tolerance, harmony and space. Since you are in a residential school, I suppose we will be celebrating it with a sense of patriotic discipline.

Let's nourish the spirit of Solidarity for now and all times to come.

Your loving friend,

Caramel Moghbelpoor

[Reply to the above]

Godavari House,
Sainik School,
Bhubaneshwar.
18th July, 2002

Dear Caramel

It was wonderful to see your letter in my mail box. As you rightly said, the future month August will soon see us marching for the Independence Day parade in our school as well as on the streets leading to the Governor's House.

The rehearsal session has started and we have little time to spare for other activities. Truly we have to motivate our little ones with patriotic favour and enthusiasm. Our country has withstood external aggressions and internal conflicts. We need to stand united in all such circumstances. I'm grateful to you for kindling the spirit of an ideal child as we would all be tomorrow's citizens.

Hope Martha is fine. I conclude this letter like a typical citizen of an honourable country.

JAI HIND

Satish Triphul

EXERCISE 136

Write a short letter.

1. To a friend, telling him how you play your favourite game, assuming that he knows nothing about it.
2. To a friend, describing your favourite hobby.
3. To a friend, describing a recent exciting cricket match in which your side won.
4. To a friend, describing a football match.
5. To a friend, describing a tennis tournament.
6. To your friend whom you are sending a photograph recently taken of your school football team, referring to some common friends in the group.
7. Reply to the above.
8. To a friend, describing your mishaps in an obstacle race in the shcool.
9. To a friend, describing a magic performance.
10. To a friend, describing a film which appealed to you very much.
11. To an English boy, describing the Indian Juggler.
12. To your friend, about some memory feats you have witnessed or heard about.
13. To a friend who has failed to take his defeat well.
14. Friend's reply to the above.
15. To your friend who did not "play fair".
16. Friend's reply to the above.
17. To a friend, expressing your preference for outdoor games.
18. Friend's reply, expressing preference for indoor games.
19. To your sister, about a real or imaginary flight in an aeroplane.

[To a friend, arranging for an excursion together]

5 Railway Road,
Allahabad.
15th May, 2001

Dear Smith,

We both have a holiday next Monday. What do you say to a trip to Murree and a ramble in the gullies? We could start early, say 6 a.m., in my car, and take some grub with us, and make a day of it up in the cool. It would be a change from this heat down here. If you agree, I will arrange the picnic, and be round at your house at quarter to six on Monday morning. Bring your camera with you.

Yours sincerely,

R.P. Brown

[Reply, accepting]

Circular Avenue,
Allahabad.
16th May, 2001

Dear Brown,

Many thanks for your invitation. I shall be delighted to go, and shall be ready for you at 5-45 a.m., next Monday. A day in Murree will be a grand change. Yes, I'll bring my camera, and hope to get some good snapshots.

Yours forever,

A.B. Smith

[Reply, regretting inability to join]

Circular Avenue,
Allahabad.
16th May, 2001

Dear Brown,

It is awfully good of you to propose a day's picnic at Murree. I only wish I could join you as I am sick of this heat. But I am sorry to say I shall not be able to get away, as I have already promised to see a friend in Jhelum next Monday. Thanks all the same.

Yours very sincerely,

A.B. Smith

[Write a letter of introduction for a friend to take to another friend who lives in a different part of the country. Say why you think each will enjoy knowing the other.]

5 Armernian Lane,
Kolkata 700 005.
7th February, 2001

My dear Haider Ali,

You have often heard me speak of my friend, Abdul Latif, who is a barrister here. He is an old friend of mine, and one for whom I have a great admiration. Well, he is going to Mumbai in a few days and will probably make a fairly long stay there. And as I want you two to meet and get to know each other, I am giving him this letter for you as an introduction. I am sure you will do your best to make his stay in Mumbai happy. At first you will do it for my sake ; but in the end you will do it for his also. For I know you will like him and both of you will find you have many interests in common.

Abdul Latif is, like you, very interested in social reform of all kinds. He also makes Islamic history a hobby, as you do. And, perhaps above all, he plays chess ; and you are a chess enthusiast. He is also a good tennis-player. So you should get on well together.

I hope you have got rid of your cold, and are keeping quite well.

Yours very sincerely,

Ghulam Samdani

[To your sister/friend about a real or imaginary flight in a space shuttle]

Cleveson Buildings,
North Campus,
FIIT, New Delhi.
28th Feb. 2000

Dear Anjali,

Hi.

I am delighted to know that you are going to do a project on Space Voyages. The other day, my teacher Shalini asked us to go on a Phantasy flight in a space shuttle to Venus.

Well, as advised by the NASA scientists, we did not eat anything in the first place. Before we went off into space we went through a rigorous 14-day training programme developed by the engineers of Russian Space Agency and tour operator Space Adventures. We also underwent an extensive medical examination and training on the Soyuz Simulator.

The first space traveller was Dennis Tito from the United States. Well, dear, fancying a holiday in space costs quite a fortune: twenty million United States dollars and a 14-day rigorous training programme.

Since one needs to wear a spacesuit. I had to bear the the heaviness of it with an oxygen cylinder and a mask. Added to the mask were helmets. The garment is designed to allow an astronaut to survive in space. However, there I enriched my vocabulary, by prefixing everything to 'space'. Space telescope, space time, space travel and space vehicle were perhaps some of the words which I learnt and I will be explaining the terms at length at a later date.

In short, I travelled in a space shuttle which is a rocket launched space craft able to land like an unpowered aircraft, used to make repeated journeys between the earth and the space station.

More in my next letter.

Yours lovingly,

Mahima

EXERCISE 137

Write a short letter.

1. To a friend, giving a brief description of a holiday tour you intend to make.
2. To a friend, telling him how you spent your summer vacation.
3. To your friend, about the longest journey made by you.
4. To an English friend giving him an idea of the life in your town or village.
5. To a friend, describing your visit to some notable public building.
6. A friend writes to say that he is spending a week in your town. Write a letter saying how sorry you are that you will be away, but telling him what he ought to see.

[From a boy to his friend who has met with an accident]

Old Gate,
Rampur,
1st April, 2001

My dear Ahmad,

Razak told me this morning that you had been knocked off your bicycle by a tonga yesterday and badly hurt. I am awfully sorry ; but I hope it is not really as bad as Razak made out. If you can write, please let me know how you are. Those tongawallas are awfully careless beggars. I had a nasty spill myself a few weeks ago in the same way. Happily no bones were broken. Mind you let me know how you are getting on.

Yours forever,

Karim

EXERCISE 138

Write a short letter.

1. To a friend, giving details of a railway accident (real or imaginary).
2. From a boarding-school girl to her friend, describing a terrible accident that happened to some of her friends while swinging.
3. To a friend, giving an account of a striking incident which happened to you or another.
4. To a friend, describing a thunderstorm in which you were recently caught.
5. To a friend, giving an account of a brave deed, real or imaginary, noticed by you in your street.
6. To a friend, about a striking example (real or imaginary) of presence of mind.

[To a schoolfellow who has been absent from school for a week]

High School,
Junglepore.
16th February, 2001

Dear Yaqub,

What is the matter with you ? You have not been at school for a week, and the Headmaster is asking where you are and what you are up to. I hope you are not ill. Please write, and say when you are coming back.

You missed the football match against the Mission School last Monday, and I can tell you the Captain

was jolly cross when he found you were not there. Salim took your place. However, in spite of your absence, we won by two goals to one.

I hope you will soon be back again.

Yours sincerely,

Ahmed Din

EXERCISE 139

1. Write to a friend who needlessly runs down the school he used to attend some time ago.
2. It is a fortnight to your examination, and you are unprepared. Write to your friend about your difficulty.
3. Reply to the above.
4. Write a letter to your friend who works on Sundays as well as on other holidays.
5. "It is better to wear out than to rust out." Discuss this saying in a letter to a friend who holds this view.
6. "A short life and a merry one." Write a reply to a friend who holds this view.
7. Write to a friend who is exclusively occupied with his studies, advising him to take part in athletic games.
8. Write a letter of advice to a friend who complains that he does not know how to spend his spare time.
9. In a letter to your very intimate friend, write plainly about his faults ; also dwell upon the good points of his character.

[To the Subdivisional Officer Seeking for a Telephone Connection]

Aman Pandit,
G-114 B, Lajpat Nagar,
New Delhi.

To

The Sub Divisional Officer,
The Mahanagar Telecommunication Network Limited
Vikaspuri

New Delhi

Dear Sir,

I am a resident of Vikas Apartments at Lajpat Nagar, New Delhi. I am a new inhabitant of this region. I would be extremely grateful if you could kindly consider my application for installation of a new telephone connection as early as possible. Since I am a doctor by profession serving at the Indra Prastha Apollo Hospitals, I need the telephone connection urgently. My profession falls under the ESMA category (Essential Services Maintenance Act) which is of prime importance.

Thank you

Yours faithfully,

Aman Pandit

(Dr. Aman Pandit)

New Delhi

8th March, 2001

[Letter for issue of a Driving License]

From

Prema Vindhyachal,
66-B, Hill Part Drive,
I.I.T., Powai,
Mumbai.

To

The Transport Commissioner,
(Ministry of Road Transport),
Chatrapati Shivaji Building,
Mumbai.

Dear Sir,

I'm a resident of Powai and since I will be shortly driving to my place of work I need a driving license.

The registration number of my car is MLZ 9999. I'd be extremely grateful if you could kindly grant me a driving license. I can be contacted at the address given above. I would appreciate an early reply so that I can take a day off for my driving test.

Yours faithfully,

P. Vindhyachal

(Prema Vindhyachal)

Mumbai.

16th June 2001

[Letter accompanying a birthday present]

42 Ashok Marg
Lucknow 226 001
16 December 2001

My dear Charley,

It is your birthday on Saturday, so—Many happy returns of the day ! I am sending you a camera to celebrate the event, as I know you are keen on photography, and hope you will find it useful.

With all best wishes for the best of luck from your friend.

Tom

[Reply to the above]

26 M.G. Street
Ahmedabad 380 005
18 December 2001

My dear Tom,

Ever so many thanks for your good wishes and your jolly present. The camera is a beauty—just the kind I have been wanting for a long time. I shall be able to take some really fine pictures with it. Thank you very much !

Yours affectionately,

Charley

[To a friend who has recently lost his mother]

72 Patel Street
Mumbai 400 014
6 Jan. 2001

Dear Fred,

It was with real sorrow that I heard this morning of your great loss. I knew your mother was ill, for your brother told me several weeks ago ; but, as he at that time did not seem to think the illness was very serious, the news of your mother's death came to me as a shock. You have my sincere and heartfelt sympathy, my dear fellow, in your sorrow. I know you will feel it deeply, for you always thought so much of your mother and loved her so truly. I feel it also as a personal loss to myself ; for your mother was always very kind to me, and I admired her as a good and noble woman. Her death must be a terrible grief to your father, too ; please assure him also of my sincere sympathy.

Words, I know, are poor comforters. "The heart knoweth its own sorrow," and in such sorrows we are always alone. But it is not mere words when I say that I feel with you in your sorrow.

Your sincere friend,
Jack

[Reply to the above]

16 Church Street
Pune 411 003
9 Jan. 2001

My dear Jack,

Thank you very much for your most kind and sympathetic letter. You say that words are poor comforters; but the sympathy of true friends like yourself is a great comfort in times of sorrow ; and I am grateful to you for its expression.

Mother's death was a great shock to me, though I do not fully realize it even yet. We were always so much to each other ; and it is hard to face the fact that I must live the rest of my life without her.

Happily her end came very peacefully. She had no pain, and passed away quietly in her sleep.

She was fond of you, and spoke of you several times towards the end.

You will excuse me from writing more at present. I don't feel equal to it.

With many thanks, again from,

Your sincere friend,

Fred

[To a friend, from a girl who is going abroad with her father and mother]

Jaiprakash Nagar
Goregaon
Mumbai 400 062
10th March, 2001

My dear Nora,

I am awfully excited ! My daddy and mummy are going abroad on a long tour; and I am going with them. We shall be away for about two months. We are leaving on 20th.

We are going first to Hong Kong, where my father has some business. Then we are travelling to Japan. Think of it ! I shall see the Japanese and all their interesting ways. We shall stay there some time, and then fly to San Francisco. After that we are to travel to New York, and stay there for some time. Then we shall travel to England.

By the time we get home, I shall have seen half the world and will be a much travelled person.

I shall write you long letters from all the places we stay in and tell you of all the new and strange things we see.

With best wishes,

Very sincerely yours,

Naomi

EXERCISE 140

Write a short letter.

1. From a young man who has recently become possessed of a fortune left him by his uncle, to his intimate friend.
2. To a friend, advising him to insure his life.
3. To the same giving information about life-insurance.
4. To a friend, proposing the formation of a debating union.
5. Reply to the above.
6. To a friend, describing a pleasant dream.
7. To a friend, describing a horrid dream.
8. To a friend, giving an account of your favourite story-book or author.
9. To a friend, asking him to return a book which you lent him a long time ago. Couch your letter in such terms that your friend will not take offence.

10. To a friend, apologizing for not having kept an appointment.
11. To a sick friend, congratulating him on the good progress he is making.
12. To a sick friend in a hospital.
13. To a friend who has long been silent.
14. Reply to the above.
15. From a sister to her brother, decribing her visit to an orphanage.
16. To your uncle in Japan, asking for information about the habits and customs of the Japanese.
17. Reply to the above.
18. From a son to his father, asking permission to become a lawyer.
19. The father's reply to the above.

EXERCISE 141

1. Write a letter to a village-boy, your cousin, telling him what your town is like.
2. An uncle has sent you a present of Rs. 300. Write a letter thanking him and telling him how you propose to spend it.
3. Write a letter to your American friend to accompany a small model of the Taj Mahal at Agra which you are sending him.
4. Reply, referring to the sky-scrapers of New York.
5. Your friend is a member of a large family ; you are not. Write to him.
6. Reply to the above.
7. Write a letter to a friend, telling him that you have shifted to a new house, and describe your new neighbourhood.
8. In a letter to your sick friend, advise him to go to a hospital as, owing to various circumstances, he cannot be looked after properly at home.
9. Imagine that you have returned from a visit to your uncle. Write a letter, thanking him for his kindness and describing your journey.
10. Write a letter to a friend, describing a book you have just read and strongly recommending it to him.

2. Notes Of Invitations

A formal invitation is generally written in the third person, and should contain no heading, no salutation, and no complimentary close. The writer's name should appear in the body of the letter. The address of the writer and the date should be written to the left, below the communication.

The reply to such a note should also be in the third person, and should repeat the date and time mentioned in the invitation.

[Formal note of invitation]

Mr and Mrs V.A. Paul request the pleasure of Mr K. Gopalan's company at dinner on Friday, 14 July, at eight o'clock.

18 Peters Road

Chennai 600 014

[Formal note of acceptance]

Mr K. Gopalan has pleasure in accepting the kind invitation of Mr and Mrs V.A. Paul to dinner on Friday, 14 July, at eight o'clock.

12 Kamaraj Salai

Chennai 600 005

[Formal note of refusal]

Mr K. Gopalan regrets that a previous engagement prevents his accepting the kind invitation of Mr and Mrs V.A. Paul to dinner on Friday, July.

12 Kamaraj Salai

Chennai 600 005

Informal notes of invitation, acceptance and refusal are like ordinary friendly letters, though using more formal language. They are addressed to the recipient by name (My dear Shri Joshi), and the formal close is usually any of the following :—

Sincerely yours, Yours sincerely, Yours very sincerely, Yours affectionately (to relations, or intimate friends)

[Informal note of invitation]

12 Alwarpet
22 November

Dear Pramila,

Will you give me the pleasure of your company at dinner on Sunday, the 27th at 8 o'clock?

Yours sincerely,

V. Saroja

[Informal note of acceptance]

Poes Garden

23 November

My dear Saroja,

I shall be pleased to be with you at dinner on Sunday, the 27th. Thanks a lot for your invitation.

Yours sincerely,

S. Pramila

[Informal note of refusal]

Poes Garden
23 November

My dear Saroja,

I am very sorry that a previous engagement will prevent me from joining you at dinner on Sunday. Thank you very much for your kind invitation.

sincerely,

S. Pramila

II. Business Letters

Business letters should be terse, clear, and to the point. Businessmen are busy men, and have no time to read long, rambling and confused letters.

Business letters are naturally much more formal in style than friendly letters. Certain forms of polite expression are used, such as—

"I shall be much obliged if you will send me."

"Please despatch at your earliest convenience." etc.

At the same time certain phrases of business "jargon" should be avoided. They are commonly used, but are not good English ; and the meaning can be conveyed as clearly in simple, everyday language. Examples of such expressions are—

"Yours of even date to hand."

"Despatch same at once."

Avoid so far as possible abbreviations (like *advt.* for advertisement, *exam.* for examination, etc.) and the omission of *I* or *we* (*e.g.*, "Have received" instead of "We have received").

In business letters ordering goods, care should be taken to give clear and exact descriptions of the articles wanted. An itemized list of the goods wanted should be supplied, with the quality and quantity required.

Directions for forwarding should be given (by rail, post, etc.) and the manner in which payment will be made indicated (by Money Order, V.P.P., cheque, or by debiting to the writer's account). Everything should be clear and precise.

FORM—The form of business letters is the same as already described, with one addition, *viz.,* the Address (*i.e.,* the name of the firm or businessman to whom the letter is addressed), which should be written on the first page, lower down than the Heading and to the left of the page. (It may be placed at the end of the letter lower than the signature and at the left side of the page, but the usual position is at the beginning.)

MODES OF ADDRESS—The modes of address vary.

(1) To a tradesman:

Shri B.V. Rao
Bookseller
12 Ring Road
Bangalore

Begin *Dear Sir,* and conclude *Yours faithfully.*

(2) To a firm:

Messrs K.R. Das & Co.
Tea Merchants
24 Ring Road
Kolkata

Begin *Dear Sirs,* and conclude with *Yours faithfully.*

Note— If the firm has an impersonal title, Messrs should not be prefixed. For example : Eurasia Publishing House, Vijay Trading Co.

(3) To professional men or private gentlemen:

Mr. K. Bhaskar
Chartered Accountant
Pratibha House
Thiruvananthapuram 695 002
Mr. K.R. Misra
32 Bhandarkar Road
Pune 411 004

Begin *Dear Sir* or *My dear Sir,* and conclude *Yours faithfully, Yours truly,* etc. (not *Yours sincerely*).

When a clerk signs a business letter on behalf of his employer, he puts the letter p.p. (Latin *per pro* = on behalf of) or *for* before the name of the firm, and writes his signature beneath. For example:

Yours faithfully
For R. Gomes & Sons
K.S. Kumar

If a gentleman is entitled to be called *Honourable,* he is addressed, for example, as *The Hon. Shri K.R. Patil.*

N.B.—The title *The Hon.* cannot be used by itself ; you must not write *The Hon. K.R. Patil.*

REPLIES—In replying to a business letter, always quote the number of reference (if there is one) and the date of the letter you are answering. For example :

"In reply to your letter No. 502/P, dated July 26, 20....., I would like to say," etc.

[Example to show the form of a business letter]

16 Church Street
Anaparthi 533 341
14 Dec. 2001
The Manager

Southern Agency
Rajahmundry 533 101

Dear Sir,

I shall be grateful if you will kindly supply the following items of Godrej furniture:

1 almirah – model 2
3 chairs – model 4
2 chairs – model 6

1 table – model 101

Please send them carriage forward to the above address, and your bill will be paid on receipt.

Yours faithfully,

V.J. Manohar

(Letter to a bank manager asking him to stop payment of a cheque)

37 Nrupatunga Road

Bangalore 560 001

3 December 2001

The Manager

Indian Bank

Bengaluru 560 001

Dear Sir,

Would you please stop the payment of cheque 104662 dated 2 December ? I signed it in favour of Mr K. Ramakrishna, the sum was Rs. 500.

Yours faithfully,

K.V. Gokak

(Account no. 986)

Note—A cheque has to be stopped only where there is some good reason for it, such as fraud.

[Ordering a journal]

23 Patel Nagar
Gurgaon 122 001
Haryana
1 December 2001
The Business Manager
'Employment News'
East Block IV
Level-7, R.K. Puram
New Delhi 110 066

Dear Sir,

I enclose a draft for Rs. 120 for one year's subscription to your journal *Employment News*. Kindly arrange to put this order into effect immediately so that I may receive the next issue.

Yours faithfully,

Abdul Rahim

[From a shopkeeper to a customer, asking for the settlement of an overdue account]

Fashion and Style Ltd.
R.G. Street
Mumbai 400 012
5 Jan. 2001
Mr. V.N. Patil
43 Park Lane
Pune 411 004

Dear Sir,

We wish to call your attention to our bill for Rs. 16,500, payment of which is long overdue. We have sent you several reminders, but have received from you no reply. We must ask you to settle this account without further delay, or we shall be obliged to take legal steps to recover the amount due to us.

Yours faithfully,

S. Nazeeruddin

Manager

(Order for books)

16 Ring Road
Ravulapalem 533 238
30 November 2001
The Manager
Sudhitha Book Centre
Kakinada 533 001

Dear Sir,

I shall be grateful if you will send me by VPP one copy each of the following books (Collin's Retold classics, published by Messrs S. Chand & Company Ltd.) as early as possible.

1. David Copperfield
2. Huckleberry Finn
3. Treasure Island
4. Monte Cristo
5. Pickwick Papers

My address is as above.

Yours faithfully,

N. Chaitanya

EXERCISE 142

1. Write a letter to Messrs Babcock and Singer, complaining that the watch lately bought from them does not keep good time.
2. Write a letter to a landlord, asking that certain repairs be done to the house in which you are living.
3. During the last two weeks your baker has been supplying bread of a quality inferior to what you were getting previously. Write a letter calling his attention to this.
4. Draft out the baker's apology.
5. Write a letter to your baker, telling him not to deliver any bread while you are away on a holiday.
6. Shri Ramesh Bannerjee sends a letter to a firm, asking for their catalogues. The firm reply that the catalogues are being reprinted, and that they will send one as soon as possible. Write these two letters.
7. Write on behalf of your father to a house-agent about a suitable flat, stating clearly your requirements.

8. Write the house-agent's reply.
9. Write to the local Gas or Electric Company, saying that you need the light, etc., on your premises, and asking them to forward the lowest estimate. Do not forget to supply full particulars of your requirements.
10. You have sprained your ankle while playing football. Copy out the letter your father writes to your family doctor.
11. M.O. of Rs. 100 to your aunt—no reply from aunt—no receipt from Post Office. Write to the Post Master.
12. Write a letter to a railway company, complaining that your furniture has been damaged in transit, and claiming damages.
13. Write a letter to the manager of a factory, asking permission for a party to visit the factory.
14. Write a letter to the secretary of a joint-stock company of which you are a shareholder, notifying your change of address.

Letters Of Application

A letter applying for employment should contain:

(*a*) A short introduction stating whether the writer is answering an advertisement or is applying on his own responsibility.

(*b*) A statement of his age, education and experience.

(*c*) A conclusion giving references, testimonials, or an expression of the applicant's earnestness of purpose.

Letters of application should be in the form of business letters.

[Reply to an advertisement for a junior clerk]

24 Old Gate
Saranpur
3rd October, 2001
Messrs Abdul Rahim & Sons
Merchants
Saranpur

Gentlemen,

I wish to apply for the position of junior clerk, advertised in today's The Hindu.

I am eighteen years old, and have just passed the Matriculation Examination from the Saranpur High School. I have also taken a course in type-writing and book-keeping.

I enclose some testimonials, and would refer you to the Principal of the Saranpur School for my character.

If I am given the post, I can assure you I will do my best to give you satisfaction.

Yours faithfully,

Nathu Ram Baxi

EXERCISE 143

1. Answer the following advertisement.
   Wanted a clerk with a good knowledge of English and Arithmetic. Apply, Manager, New Press, Allahabad.
2. Apply for position as book-keeper, advertised in a daily paper, stating age, education, experience, qualification, reasons for leaving last position, references, previous salary, salary required, etc.
3. Speaking to a friend, a prominent businessman said, "I require a successful applicant for employment under me to demonstrate that he is sober, energetic and adaptable, and that he possesses practical knowledge of the work he proposes to undertake." Make an application to the gentleman, saying you possess the required qualifications.
4. Sir, having tried very earnestly to fit myself for advancement in your employ, I would like to approach you in the matter of an advance in salary. In support of my request, I would like to point out the following facts :—
   Finish this letter, referring to the length of your service, last promotion, why you deserve promotion, etc.

Further Official Letters

(Request to the Postmaster)

46 Kingsway
Nagpur 440 001
18 Jan. 2001
The Postmaster
Head Post Office
Nagpur 440 001

Dear Sir,

I have recently shifted from 25 Park Street, Nagpur 440 002 to 46 Kingsway, Nagpur 440 001. I shall be grateful if you will kindly redirect my letters to the new address.

Yours faithfully,

K. Joseph

(Letter of inquiry to an educational institution)

Desaipeta
Vetapalem 523187
21 May 2001
The Director
APTECH
4/7 Brodipet
Guntur 522 002

Dear Sir,

I have passed the B.Sc. degree examination with Electronics as the main subject. I intend to have a course in Computer Science and would like to know the details of the courses taught at your institution. Could you please send me a copy of your prospectus?

Yours faithfully,

N. Mahesh

EXERCISE 144

Write:

1. To the Director of Education, applying for appointment as a teacher in the Educational Service.
2. To the Commissioner of Police, about the grant for an appointment as Sub-Inspector.
3. To the Commissioner of Police, about the grant of licence to carry arms, stating reasons.
4. To the Municipal Commissioner on the necessity of public parks in a crowded city like Mumbai.
5. To the Postmaster of your town, asking for particulars about Post Office Cash Certificates.
6. To the Superintendent, Government Central Press, asking for a list of Government publications relating to dairying in India, and inquiring if any periodical is published on the subject.
7. To the Jailor, Yerawada Prison, as from a prisoner's mother, asking permission to see her son.

Letters To Newspapers

These should always be addressed to "The Editor," and they usually end with *Yours faithfully.*
The form of Salutation is *Sir/Dear Sir.*
If the writer gives his address for publication, it is often placed below the letter and to the left of the signature.
If the writer does not wish his name to be published, he can sign his letter with a *non-de-plume* (such as "Interested", "Anxious", "One who knows", etc.) ; but in any case he must give his name and address (in a covering letter) to the Editor, for no respectable newspaper will publish anonymous letters.

[To a newspaper, about a bad piece of road that is in need of repair.]

To
The Editor
The Hindu

Sir,

Our Municipality wants waking up ; and, as private appeals to their office have had no effect, perhaps a little publicity will do no harm. For the last month Chetty Road has been almost impassable. The surface is badly broken up by the heavy rains, and on a dark night it is positively dangerous for motors or carriages to pass that way. Moreover, there are heaps of roadmetal on both sides of the road, which leave very little room in the middle. It is scandalous that we should be inconvenienced in this way for weeks, and I hope the public will bring pressure to bear on those responsible so that the road may be put in thorough repair without further delay.

Yours faithfully,

Anirudh Kumar

EXERCISE 145

Write:

1. To the Editor of a newspaper, on reckless driving.
2. To a newspaper, drawing attention to the insanitary condition of the city bazaars.
3. To a newspaper, protesting against street noises.
4. To a newspaper, advocating the establishment of a Free Library in your town.
5. To a newpaper, appealing for the funds for an orphanage.
6. To a newspaper, complaining of the bad quality and inadequate supply of Municipal water in your town.
7. To a newspaper, suggesting to the public the desirability of a Social Service League in your town.
8. To a newspaper, on the evils of street-begging.
9. To a newspaper, appealing for funds to relieve the sufferers from a flood.

More Letters

[To a very near neighbour about quiet for the benefit of a person who is seriously ill]

21 Osborne Street

7th May, 2001

Dear Shri Naik,

I am sorry to have to worry you with my troubles, but when I have explained I am sure you will understand. I regret to say that Mrs. Pradhan is seriously ill. The doctor, who has just been, says she is in a critical condition, and that absolute quiet is essential for her recovery. She has had several bad nights, and cannot get sufficient sleep. I am sure you will not be offended if, in the circumstances, I ask you to tell your servant and your children to make as little noise as they can during the next few days. Our houses are so close together that we cannot help hearing shouting, and even talking ; and the slightest noise disturbs my wife, who is in a very low, nervous state. If she can only have a few days and nights of quiet, I think it will work wonders.

Apologizing for putting you to this inconvenience.

Yours sincerely

Satish Pradhan

[A father reports to the police that his son has not returned home from school, giving particulars of the boy, his dress, etc.]

35 Patel Street
Ahmednagar
4 Jan. 2001
The Inspector of Police
Police Station II
Ahmednagar

Dear Sir,

My son, Abdur Rashid, a lad twelve years old, is missing, and I am very anxious about him. As all my efforts to trace him have failed, I must appeal to you for help. He went to school this morning as usual, but although it is eight o'clock, he has not returned. He generally comes home before 4-30 p.m., everyday. I have made inquiries at the school (the Government High School), but the headmaster cannot throw any light on the matter. He says Abdur Rashid left school as usual at about 4-15 p.m., and he was quite well. The only clue I can find is from one of his school friends (a boy called Mhd. Hussain) who says he saw my son going along the canal bank at about 4-30 p.m., with a man whom he did not know. He cannot describe this man, but says he was wearing a white pagri and a brown jacket.

Abdur Rashid was wearing a red fez, a white coat and trousers. He is rather tall for his age, and walks with a slight limp.

I cannot think he has got into mischief, as he has always been a good boy and most regular in his habits. In view of the kidnapping case a few weeks ago, I am naturally very anxious lest he may have suffered from some foul play. Please do your best to trace him, and let me know as soon as you have anything to report.

Yours faithfully,

Abdur Rahim

[Certificate to a pupil]

Ideal College

Varanasi

12 May 2001

Ahmad Hasan has studied in this college for two years, and has just appeared in the Intermediate Examination. As he has worked well and is intelligent, he stands a good chance of passing. His conduct has been most satisfactory and he bears a good character. Physically he is robust and active, and was a member of the college football team. I am sure he will do any work entrusted to him conscientiously and efficiently.

N. Solomon

Principal

EXERCISE 146

1. Write a courteous letter to a neighbour whose dog annoys you by barking at night.
2. Reply to the above.
3. Write as from the father of a boy to a gentleman who rescued his son from drowning.
4. Your father thinks you are a precious boy; so he writes, "There have been many men whose early life was full of brilliant promise, but whose careers have ended in failure, owing to lack of industry." Write to him, assuring him that you will not belie the promise of your boyhood.
5. Write, as from a father to his son, about a drunkard and his unhappy family.
6. Write an imaginary letter as from a great-grandfather to his great-grandson about the means of communication in his days.
7. You have left school and are seeking a situation. Write to your Headmaster, asking for a testimonial.
8. Write to your Headmaster, asking for a letter of recommendation and explaining what you want.
9. Write a letter to your Headmaster, thanking him for the testimonial.
10. Write to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals about a case of cruelty to a bullock, giving details including the date and place and name and address of the guilty person.
11. "It is often the steady plodder who gets prizes." Write as from a father to his son.
12. Write to a friend, setting forth your views on prize-giving in schools.

13. It is wonderful how a rumour grows. In an imaginary letter to your friend, give a story which, though foolish enough, was accepted by a large number of credulous people.
14. Write to a friend who, you think, is "a rolling stone".
15. Write as from a grandfather to his grandson who lives beyond his income.
16. Write a letter to your younger brother, advising temperance.
17. "It is often at school that life-friendships are made." A father makes this observation when writing to his son at a boarding school. Imagine the letter and copy it out.
18. Write as from a father to his son, asking him to make a habit of reading the daily newspaper, and pointing out what portions he should particularly read, etc.
19. Write to a prince, as from his teacher who believes, "There is no royal road to learning."
20. Write a letter from a shopkeeper to another shopkeeper about "cut-throat competition."
21. Write to your sportmaster, criticising the decision of the referee in a hockey match.
22. Write a letter to the manager of a local paper, enclosing an advertisement of your school concert.
23. You have advertised your bicycle for sale. Reply to an inquirer, and give him full details.
24. You see in a local paper an advertisement offering a second-hand bicycle. Write to the advertiser, asking for an appointment, as you wish to inspect the bicycle with a view to purchase.
25. Draft these advertisements.
    (*i*) Seeking a cheap second-hand computer.
    (*ii*) Offering for the sale of your car.
    (*iii*) Announcing the loss of your dog and offering a substantial reward.

Chapter 37 COMPREHENSION

A comprehension exercise consists of a passage, upon which questions are set to test the student's ability to understand the content of the given text and to infer information and meanings from it.

Here are a few hints:

1. Read the passage fairly quickly to get the general idea.
2. Read again, a little slowly, so as to know the details.
3. Study the questions thoroughly. Turn to the relevant portions of the passage, read them again, and then rewrite them in your own words, neatly and precisely.
4. Use complete sentences.
5. If you are asked to give the meaning of any words or phrases, you should express the idea as clearly as possible in your own words. Certain words require the kind of definition that is given in a dictionary. Take care to frame the definition in conformity with the part of speech.

SPECIMEN

Read the passage below and then answer the questions which follow it.

It has been part of Nelson's prayer that the British fleet might be distinguished by humanity in the victory which he expected. Setting an example himself, he twice gave orders to cease firing upon the *Redoubtable,* supposing that she had struck because her great guns were silent ; for as she carried no flag, there was no means of instantly ascertaining the fact. From this ship, which he had thus twice spared, he received his death. A ball fired from her mizzen-top which, in the then situation of the two vessels was not more than fifteen yards from that part of the deck where he was standing, struck the epaulette on his left shoulder about a quarter after one, just in the heat of action. He fell upon his face on the spot which was covered with his poor secretary's blood. Hardy, who was a few steps from him turning round, saw three men raising him up. "They have done for me at last, Hardy !" said he. "I hope not !" cried Hardy. "Yes," he replied ; "my back-bone is shot through !" Yet even now not for a moment losing his presence of mind, he observed as they were carrying him down the ladder, that the tiller-ropes which had been shot away, were not yet replaced and ordered that new ones should be roped immediately. Then that he might not be seen by the crew, he took out his handkerchief and covered his face and his stars. Had he but concealed these badges of honour from the enemy, England perhaps would not have had cause to receive with sorrow the news of the battle of Trafalgar. The cockpit was crowded with wounded

and dying men ; over whose bodies he was with some difficulty conveyed, and laid upon a pallet in the midshipmen's berth. It was soon perceived, upon examination, that the wound was mortal. This, however, was concealed from all, except Captain Hardy, the chaplain, and the medical attendants. He himself being certain, from the sensation in his back, and the gush of blood he felt momently within his breast, that no human care could avail him, insisted that the surgeon should leave him and attend to those to whom he might be useful.

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by 'supposing that she had struck' ?
2. How can Nelson be said to have been partly responsible for his own death?
3. What do you understand by the 'mizzen-top' ?
4. Why did Nelson insist that the surgeon should leave him and attend to others ?
5. What qualities in Nelson's character are revealed by this passage ?

Answers

1. 'Supposing that she had struck' means 'thinking that the men in the ship had surrendered'.
2. Nelson ordered his men two times to cease firing on the *Redoubtable.* From the same ship a ball was fired at him and brought about his death. He was thus partly responsible for his death.
3. The 'mizzen-top' is the platform round the lower part of the mast nearest the stern.
4. Nelson was certain that it would be impossible to save his life. He, therefore, insisted that the surgeon should leave him and attend to others.
5. His patriotism, his humanity and his powers of endurance are revealed by this passage.

EXERCISE 147

Read each of the passages carefully and answer the questions given below it.

1

People talk of memorials to him in statues of bronze or marble or pillars and thus they mock him and belie his message. What tribute shall we pay to him that he would have appreciated ? He has shown us the way to live and the way to die and if we have not understood that lesson, it would be better that we raised no memorial to him, for the only fit memorial is to follow reverently in the path he showed us and to do our duty in life and in death.

He was a Hindu and an Indian, the greatest in many generations, and he was proud of being a Hindu and an Indian. To him India was dear, because she had represented throughout the ages certain immutable truths. But though he was intensely religious and came to be called the Father of the Nation which he had liberated, yet no narrow religious or national bonds confined his spirit. And so he became the great internationalist, believing in the essential unity of man, the underlying unity of all religions, and the needs of humanity, and more specially devoting himself to the service of the poor, the distressed and the oppressed millions everywhere.

His death brought more tributes than have been paid at the passing of any other human being in history. Perhaps what would have pleased him best was the spontaneous tributes that came from the people of Pakistan. On the morrow of the tragedy, all of us forgot for a while the bitterness that had crept in, the estrangement and conflict of these past months and Gandhiji stood out as the beloved champion and leader of the people of India, of india as it was before partition cut up this living nation.

What was his great power over the mind and heart of man due to ? Even we realize, that his dominating passion was truth. That truth led him to proclaim without ceasing that good ends can never be attained by evil methods, that the end itself is distorted if the method pursued is bad. That truth led him to confess publicly whenever he thought he had made a mistake—Himalayan errors he called some of his own mistakes. That truth led him to fight evil and untruth wherever he found them, regardless of the consequences. That truth made the service of the poor and the dispossessed the passion of his life, for where there is inequality and discrimination and suppression there is injustice and evil and untruth. And thus he became the beloved of all those who have suffered from social and political evils, and the great representative of humanity as it should be. Because of that truth in him wherever he sat became a temple and where he trod was hallowed ground.

—Jawaharlal Nehru

QUESTIONS

1. About whom is the passage written ?
2. Why does Nehru make the difference about being a "Hindu" and an "Indian"? Is there any difference really ?
3. What great lesson did this great man show us for life ?
4. Mention some of the virtues of "the great internationalist."
5. Nehru seems to suggest that his hero was "the beloved champion and leader of the people of India" only before the partition of Pakistan and India. Do you agree with that ? Explain.
6. What did "truth" mean to this great man ?
7. Give the meaning of the following : memorials, immutable, essential, estrangement, spontaneous, discrimination, dominating, Himalayan.

2

The Voice had to be listened to, not only on account of its form but for the matter which it delivered. It gave a message to the country that it needed greatly. It brought to the common people a realization of their duty to concern themselves with their affairs. The common people were made to take an interest in the manner in which they were governed, in the taxes they paid, in the return they got from those taxes. This interest in public affairs—politics as you may call it—was to be the concern no longer of the highly educated few but of the many—the poor, the propertyless, the workingmen in town and country. Politics was not to be the concern of a small aristocracy of intellect or property of the masses. And with the change in the subjects of politics that Voice brought about also a change in the objects of politics. Till then politics had busied itself mainly with the machinery of Government towards making its personnel more and more native, with proposals for a better distribution of political power, with protests against the sins of omission and of commission of the administration. This Voice switched politics on to concern for the needs of the common people. The improvement of the lot of the poor was to be the main concern of politics and the politician. The improvement, especially of the lives of the people of the neglected villages, was to be placed before Governments and political organizations as the goal of all political endeavour. The raising of the standard of living of the people of the villages, the finding of subsidiary occupations which would give the agricultural poor work for their enforced leisure during the off season and an addition to their exiguous income, the improvement of the housing of the poor, the sanitation of the villages—these were to be the objectives to be kept in view. In the towns, the slums and *cheries* were to receive especial attention. There was especially a class of the poor for which that compassionate Voice pleaded and protested. This was for the so-called depressed class, the outcastes of Hindu society. The denial of elementary human rights to this class of people is considered the greatest blot on Hindu society and history. It raised itself in passionate protest against the age-old wrongs of this class and forced those that listened to it to endeavour to remove the most outrageous of them like untouchability. It caused a revolution in Hindu religious practice by having Hindu temples thrown open to these people. It made the care of them a religious duty of the Hindus by re-naming them Harijans.

—Mr Ruthnasami

QUESTIONS

1. Why had people to listen to "The Voice" of Mahatma Gandhi ?
2. Why had people to take an interest in politics ?
3. What was the change brought about in the objects of politics ?
4. What improvements were made for the common man ?
5. Explain:
   (*a*) Sins of omission and of commission of the administration.
   (*b*) No longer the monopoly of the classes, but the property of the masses.

3

The next ingredient is a very remarkable one : *Good Temper.* "Love is not easily provoked". Nothing could be more striking than to find this here. We are inclined to look upon bad temper as a very harmless weakness. We speak of it as a mere infirmity of nature, a family failing, a matter of temperament, not a thing to take into very serious account in estimating a man's character. And yet here, right in the heart of this analysis of love, it finds a place ; and the Bible again and again returns to condemn it as one of the most destructive elements in human nature. The peculiarity of ill temper is that it is the vice of the virtuous. It is often the one blot on an otherwise noble character. You know men who are all but perfect, and women who would be entirely perfect, but for an easily ruffled quick-tempered or "touchy" disposition. This compatibility of ill temper with high moral character is one of the strangest and saddest problems of ethics. The truth is there are two great classes of sins—sins of the *Body,* and sins of *Disposition.* The Prodigal son may be taken as a type of the first, the Elder Brother of the second. Now society has no doubt whatever as to which of these is the worse. Its brand falls, without a challenge, upon the Prodigal. But are we right ? We have no balance to weigh one another's sins, and coarser and finer are but human words ; but faults in the higher nature may be less venial than those in the lower, and to the eye of Him who is Love, a sin against Love may seem a hundred times more base. No form of vice, not worldliness, not greed of gold, not drunkenness itself does more to un-christianise society than evil temper. For embittering life, for breaking up communities, for destroying the most sacred relationships, for devastating homes, for withering up men and women, for taking the bloom off childhood ; in short for sheer gratuitous misery-producing power, this influence stands alone. Jealousy, anger, pride, uncharity, cruelty, self-righteousness, touchiness, doggedness, sullenness—in varying proportions these are the ingredients of all ill temper. Judge if such sins of the disposition are not worse to live in, and for others to live with than sins of the body. There is really no place in Heaven for a disposition like this. A man with such a mood could only make Heaven miserable for all the people in it.

—Henry Drummond

QUESTIONS

1. What is the popular notion about "bad temper"?
2. How is bad temper "the vice of the virtuous"?
3. Which class of sins is worse, and why—sins of the body, sins of the disposition?
4. Mention some evils of bad temper.
5. Why, according to the author, will there be no place in Heaven for bad-tempered folk?
6. Find words from the passage which mean: breaking up ; running ; scandalising ; souring; easily or quickly offended.

4

Yes, there were giants before the Jam Sahib (the great Indian cricketer, Kumar Shree Ranjitsinhji, better known to the world of cricket as Ranji). And yet I think it is undeniable that as a batsman the Indian will live as the supreme exponent of the Englishman's game. The claim does not rest simply on his achievements although, judged by them, the claim could be sustained. His season's average of 87 with a total of over 3,000 runs, is easily the high-water mark of English cricket. Thrice he has totalled over 3,000 runs and no one else has equalled that record. And is not his the astonishing achievement of scoring two double centuries in a single match on a single day—not against a feeble attack, but against Yorkshire, always the most resolute and resourceful of bowling teams?

But we do not judge a cricketer so much by the runs he gets as by the way he gets them. "In literature as in finance," says Washington Irving, "much paper and much poverty may co-exist." And in cricket too many runs and much dullness may be associated. If cricket is menaced with creeping paralysis, it is because it is losing the spirit of joyous adventure and becoming a mere instrument for compiling tables of averages. There are dull, mechanic fellows who turn out runs with as little emotion as a machine turns out pins. There is no colour, no enthusiasm, no character in their play. Cricket is not an adventure to them ; it is a business. It was so with Shrewsbury. His technical perfection was astonishing ; but the soul of the game was wanting in him. There was no sunshine in his play, no swift surprise or splendid unselfishness. And without these things without gaiety, daring, and the spirit of sacrifice cricket is a dead

thing. Now, the Jam Sahib has the root of the matter in him. His play is as sunny as his face. He is not a miser hoarding up runs, but a millionaire spending them, with a splendid yet judicious prodigality. It is as though his pockets are bursting with runs that he wants to shower with his blessings upon the expectant multitude. It is not difficult to believe that in his litttle kingdom Nawangar where he has power of life and death in his hands he is extremely popular for it is obvious that his pleasure is in giving pleasure.

—A.G. Gardiner

QUESTIONS

1. Correct the following statistics, if necessary.
   (*a*) His season's average of 87 with a total of over 3,000 runs is easily the high-water mark of English cricket.
   (*b*) Thrice he has totalled over 3,000 runs, and no one else has equalled that record.
   (*c*) He scored two double centuries in a single match on a single day.
2. "Many runs and much dullness may be associated." Prove this.
3. Mention some reasons why cricket is losing its lustre.
4. What gives cricket its "character"?
5. How should real cricket be played ?
6. Describe in your own words the secret of the Jam Sahib's wizardry with the bat.
7. Make a list of "do's" and "don'ts" for a promising cricketer.

5

Supposing you have to make a payment of Rs. 100, you can do so in rupee-coins ; but it would be cumbersome to pay in nickel or copper coins, because they are heavy to carry and also because it takes much time to count them. The Government therefore permits you to make the payment in rupee-notes. What are these rupee-notes really? They are a kind of money, right enough, although they are made of paper instead of metal. You can use them in just the same way that you use ordinary money. The reason why they are made of paper and used is that they save the trouble of carrying metal coins about—of course, paper is lighter than metal—and they also save using silver and other metals when they are scarce.

What makes these mere pieces of paper bear the value of the number of rupees that is printed upon them? Why should a piece of paper, with "100" printed on it be worth twenty times as much as a piece of paper with "five" printed on it—and also worth a hundred times as much as a silver rupee-coin ? The reason is that Government *guarantees* that the piece of paper is worth the amount printed on it and promises to pay that amount to anybody who wishes to exchange this paper for the rupee-coins. Also, if you think about it you can easily realize that crores and crores more of rupee-coins would have to be minted, if all paper-money were abolished.

Perhaps you may ask, "Then why not have paper money only ? Why use silver and nickel and copper at all?" The answer is—because money must, as we have already said, be something so useful that everyone wants. Also because the metals are the best form of money ; and thirdly because it would be impossible to print just the right amount of paper money that would keep prices at their proper natural level. If any Government prints too much paper money, then prices go up at once. The *supply* of money is increased and therefore its value (in food, clothes, books, houses, land, tools and everything else) goes down.

You may think at first that it is queer to talk of having too much paper money and that money is so nice and useful that you cannot have too much of it. But if you think that, I am afraid you are forgetting that money is only useful for what it will buy ; so it is no good at all having more money if there are no more things to buy with it. The more money there is, the higher will be the prices of everything. The same thing happens with rupee-coins as with paper money. But it is not likely to happen, for this reason : it is very easy to print a great deal of paper money, but not at all easy to

increase the amount of rupee-coins. Silver has to be dug out of mines, and very difficult to get ; so the amount there is if it keeps very steady and changes very little. In fact that is one of the chief reasons why it was chosen to make coins of.

—Ernest F. Row

QUESTIONS

1. Why does the Government allow payment to be made in paper notes ?
2. What is more valuable, to have 100 rupee-coins in silver or a Rs. 100 note in paper ?
3. If metal is so cumbersome, why should we not have only paper money ? Why should we not print as much of it as possible ?
4. What is the real use of money ?
5. Why should the prices of commodities go up when there is plenty of paper money ?
6. Why does the Government print only a certain number of paper notes, and not as many as it likes arbitrarily ?

6

You seemed at first to take no notice of your school-fellows, or rather to set yourself against them because they were strangers to you. They knew as little of you as you did of them; so that this would have been the reason for their keeping aloof from you as well, which you would have felt as a hardship. Learn never to conceive a prejudice against others because you know nothing of them. It is bad reasoning, and makes enemies of half the world. Do not think ill of them till they behave ill to you ; and then strive to avoid the faults which you see in them. This will disarm their hostility sooner than pique or resentment or complaint. I thought you were disposed to criticize the dress of some of the boys as not so good as your own. Never despise any one for anything that he cannot help—least of all, for his poverty. I would wish you to keep up appearances yourself as a defence against the idle sneers of the world, but I would not have you value yourself upon them. I hope you will neither be the dupe nor victim of vulgar prejudices. Instead of saying above "Never despise anyone for anything that he cannot help," I might have said, "Never despise anyone at all" ; for contempt implies a triumph over and pleasure in the ill of another. It means that you are glad and congratulate yourself on their failings or misfortunes.

You have hitherto been a spoilt child, and have been used to have your own way a good deal, both in the house and among your playfellows, with whom you were too fond of being a leader ; but you have good nature and good sense, and will get the better of this in time. You have now got among other boys who are your equals, or bigger and stronger than yourself and who have something else to attend to besides humouring your whims and fancies, and you feel this as a repulse or piece of injustice. But the first lesson to learn is that there are other people in the world besides yourself. The more airs of childish self-importance you give yourself, you will only expose yourself to be the more thwarted and laughed at. True equality is the only true morality or wisdom. Remember always that you are but one among others and you can hardly mistake your place in society. In your father's house you might do as you pleased ; in the world you will find competitors at every turn. You are not born a king's son, to destroy or dictate to millions; you can only expect to share their fate, or settle your differences amicably with them. You already find it so at school, and I wish you to be reconciled to your situation as soon and with as little pain as you can.

—William Hazlitt

QUESTIONS

1. Can you tell who is writing to whom in this passage ? What would you call this kind of writing—a speech, a diary, a letter, a sermon ?
2. What reasons does the author give for not harbouring a prejudice against others ?
3. What are some of the blessings of living with others in the same class or the same school?
4. Paraphrase:

(*a*) True equality is the only true morality or true wisdom.

(*b*) To be the dupe or victim of vulgar prejudices.

(*c*) Settle your differences amicably with them.

5. "Contempt implies a triumph over and pleasure in the ill of another." Who are those who feel like this and why ?
6. The author says that "in the world you will find competitors at every turn." But competition is a very good thing. Why does he seem to warn his son about it?

7

Unquestionably a literary life is for the most part an unhappy life ; because, if you have genius, you must suffer the penalty of genius ; and, if you have only talent, there are so many cares and worries incidental to the circumstances of men of letters, as to make life exceedingly miserable. Besides the pangs of composition, and the continuous disappointment which a true artist feels at his inability to reveal himself, there is the ever-recurring difficulty of gaining the public ear. Young writers are buoyed up by the hope and the belief that they have only to throw that poem at the world's feet to get back in return the laurel-crown ; that they have only to push that novel into print to be acknowledged at once as a new light in literature. You can never convince a young author that the editors of magazines and the publishers of books are a practical body of men, who are by no means frantically anxious about placing the best literature before the public. Nay, that for the most part they are mere brokers, who conduct their business on the hardest lines of a Profit and Loss account. But supposing your book fairly launches, its perils are only beginning. You have to run the gauntlet of the critics. To a young author, again, this seems to be as terrible an ordeal as passing down the files of Sioux or Comanche Indians, each one of whom is thirsting for your scalp. When you are a little older, you will find that criticism is not much more serious than the bye-play of clowns in a circus, when they beat around the ring the victim with bladders slung at the end of long poles. A time comes in the life of every author when he regards critics as comical rather than formidable, and goes his way unheeding. But there are sensitive souls that yield under the chastisement and, perhaps after suffering much silent torture, abandon the profession of the pen for ever. Keats, perhaps, is the saddest example of a fine spirit hounded to death by savage criticism ; because, whatever his biographers may aver, that furious attack of Gifford and Terry undoubtedly expedited his death. But no doubt there are hundreds who suffer keenly hostile and unscrupulous criticism, and who have to bear that suffering in silence, because it is a cardinal principle in literature that the most unwise thing in the world for an author is to take public notice of criticism in the way of defending himself. Silence is the only safeguard, as it is the only dignified protest against insult and offence.

—P.A. Sheehan

QUESTIONS

1. Why is the Literary Life mostly an unhappy one ?
2. What are the ambitions of a young author ?
3. Are editors and publishers sympathetic to young authors ?
4. What are some of the ordeals awaiting the young authors from the critics?
5. What attitude should an author adopt in the face of bitter critics ?
6. Explain : Sioux Indians ; abandon the profession of the pen ; laurel-crown ; to run the gauntlet ; hounded to death.
7. Write in simple English : the pangs of composition ; buoyed up by the hope ; mere brokers; thirsting for your scalp.

8

Then one day there passed by that way a Pashupata ascetic. And he said to the Brahman : "My son, what are you doing here ?" So he replied : "Reverend Sir, I am performing penance, for the expiation of sin, on the banks of the Ganges." Then the ascetic said: "What has this miserable puddle to do with the Ganges." And the Brahman said :"Is this then, not

the Ganges ?" And the ascetic laughed in his face, and said :"Truly, old as I am, I did not think that there had been folly like this in the world. Wretched man, who has deluded you ? The Ganges is hundreds of miles away, and resembles this contemptible brook no more than Mount Meru resembles an ant-hill." Then the Brahman said :"Reverend Sir, I am much obliged to you." And taking his pot and staff, he went forward, till at length he came to a broad river. And he rejoiced greatly, saying : "This must be the sacred Ganges." So he settled on its banks and remained there for five years, bathing every day in its waters. Then one day there came by a Kapalika, who said to him, "Why do you remain here, wasting precious time over a river of no account or sanctity, instead of going to the Ganges ?" But the Brahman was amazed, and said ; "And is this, then not the Ganges ?" Then the Kapalika replied :"This is the Ganges ! Is a jackal, lion or a Chandala a Brahman ? Sir, you are dreaming." Then the Brahman sighed deeply. And he said, "Sir, I am enlightened by you." And he took his pot and staff, and went forward.

But he was now very old and feeble. And long penance had weakened his frame and exhausted his energies. And as he toiled on in the heat of the day over the burning earth, the sun beat on his head like the thunderbolt of Indra, and struck him with fever. Still he gathered himself together and struggled on, growing weaker and weaker day by day, till at last he got no further, but fell down and lay dying on the ground. But collecting all his remaining strength, with a last desperate effort he dragged himself up a low hill in front of him. And lo! there before him rolled the mighty stream of Ganges, with countless numbers of pilgrims doing penance on its banks and bathing in its stream. And in his agony he cried aloud : "O Mother Ganges ! alas ! alas ! I have pursued you all my life and now I die here helpless in sight of you." So his heart broke, and he never reached its shore.

—F.W. Bain

QUESTIONS

1. Explain the allusion to Mount Meru and the comparison between it and an ant-hill. What was "the thunderbolt of Indra" ?
2. What is a "Pashupata" ascetic, a Kapalika or a Chandala ?
3. What do you surmise is the intiention of the author in telling this very sad story ? Quote phrases from the text to show the pathos.
4. Comment on the significance and the author's use of the following expressions.

   (*a*) "This is the Ganges ! Is a jackal a lion ____?"

   (*b*) "O Mother Ganges ! alas ! alas !"
5. What is the purpose of the words : "Reverend Sir, I am performing penance, for the expiation of sin ____?

9

One common mistake that many people have made is this : they have thought that it would be a very good thing if everybody had exactly the same amount of money, no matter whether they worked hard or lived quite idly. They forget that very few people would work at all if it were not for the money their work brings them, and that without work there would be no money. And they have imagined that if all the money in the country were equally divided everybody would be rich. Now that is a very great mistake, because there simply is not enough money to make everybody rich. If it were shared equally all round every one then would, on the basis of the calculations made in 1935, receive only about Rs. 65 a year. Today with a rise in the price level it might be Rs. 150 a year. That may be more than you receive now or it may be less, but would certainly not make you really rich. It is quite true that there are in this country a small number of very rich people ; but they are so few in comparison with the whole population that even if they were to share out all their wealth among the rest, it would make very little difference. It is said that if you flattened out that great French mountain Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe, and spread it over the whole of France you would only raise the level of the land by about six inches. See if you can think out what that has to do with the question I have been talking about.

Many people, unfortunately, seem to think also that Government can always pay out money quite easily and in any quantity, and they forget, or else they do not know, that the Government can only pay out money that it has received in taxes—money that the tax-payer has had to work for.

And now here is one final mistake that I should like to warn you against. Don't ever imagine that there is any thing to be ashamed of, or anything undignified, to grumble about in having to work hard for your living. If when you start work you can go into a job that suits you, so that you can really enjoy the work itself, so much the better : I hope that is what will happen. But if the work is not exactly the kind that you would choose, you must try to remember that you are helping to produce the things that other people need ; you are "doing your bit" and playing your part in the work of the world. You are like a wheel, even if it is only a very tiny wheel, in the great world-machinery of trade and industry that is always busily at work providing for the wants of hundreds of millions of people, and you must "put your back into it" and see to it that your particular task is always done as well as you can possibly do it.

—Ernest F. Row

QUESTIONS

1. Why is it really necessary to work ?
2. If all the money in the world were equally divided, everybody would be very happy. Do you agree ?
3. The author tells us about flattening Mont Blanc and the little difference it would make in raising the level of France. What is his point in giving us this example ?
4. Which is the best job in the world ? Why must you embrace it lovingly?
5. What is the meaning of :"put your back into it ?" :"doing your bit"?
6. Paraphrase "You are like a wheel.....millions of people."

10

All Great Thinkers live and move on a high plane of thought. It is only there they can breathe freely. It is only in contact with spirits like themselves they can live harmoniously and attain that serenity which comes from ideal companionship. The studies of all great thinkers must range along the highest altitudes of human thought. I cannot remember the name of any illuminative genius who did not drink his inspiration from fountains of ancient Greek and Hebrew writers ; or such among the moderns as were pupils in ancient thought, and, in turn, became masters in their own. I have always thought that the strongest argument in favour of the Baconian theory was, that no man, however indubitable his genius, could have written the plays and sonnets that have come down to us under Shakespeare's name who had not the liberal education of Bacon. How this habit of intercourse with the gods makes one impatient of mere men. The magnificent ideals that have ever haunted the human mind, and given us our highest proofs of a future immortality by reason of the impossibility of their fulfilment here, are splintered into atoms by contact with life's realities. Hence comes our sublime discontent. You will notice that your first sensation after reading a great book is one of melancholy and dissatisfaction. The ideas, sentiments, expressions, are so far beyond those of ordinary working life that you cannot turn aside from one to the other without an acute sensation and consciousness of the contrast. And the principles are so lofty, so super-human that it is a positive pain, if once you become imbued with them, to come down and mix in the squalid surroundings of ordinary humanity. It may be spiritual or intellectual pride that is engendered on the high plane of intellectual life . But whatever it is, it becomes inevitable. A habitual meditation on the vast problems that underline human life, and are knit into human destinies—thoughts of immortality, of the littleness of mere man, of the greatness of man's soul, of the splendours of the universe that are invisible to the ordinary traffickers in the street, as the vastness of St. Peter's is to the spider that weaves her web in a corner of the dome—these things do not fit men to understand the average human being, or tolerate with patience the sordid wretchedness of the unregenerate masses. It is easy to understand, therefore, why such thinkers fly to the solitude of their own thoughts, or the silent companionship of the immortals ; and if they care to present their views in prose or verse to the world, that these views take a sombre and melancholy setting from "the pale cast of thought" in which they were engendered.

—P.A. Sheehan

QUESTIONS

1. On what plane must great thinkers live and move ?
2. Is a liberal education necessary to produce great literature ?
3. Why does the reading of a great book, according to the author, make one melancholy and disappointed ?
4. What are the things that make it hard to understand the average human being?

11

Although religion does not inhibit the acquistion of wealth, although it does not hold up large fortunes as evil,the tenor of its teaching, by and large, is to induce an attitude of indifference to worldly things, things which gratify one's lower self and keep one engrossed in money-making. The student should be made to realize that the real goods of life are spiritual, love of things of the spirit and service of one's fellowmen, joy of an ordered disciplined life. These are blessings money cannot buy. What is wealth before such things of the spirit ? Of all religious teachers Jesus Christ has dealt more comprehensively than any other with the problem of wealth in all its aspects. He may be called the greatest exponent of the science of the wealth. With only four words "Blessed are ye poor!" he changed altogether the values which man attached to human existence and human happiness and acquisition and possession of wealth. Real bliss consisted, he taught, not in riches nor in anything else which the world regarded as prosperity or felicity, but in the joy and happiness derived from being at peace with one's fellowmen through perfect love and fellowship and selfless service and sacrifice.

The word "poor" on the lips of the Master had a spiritual significance—the poor so far as they were poor in spirit, humble before God, simple, God-fearing, teachable, faithful. It could surely not have been his intention to hold up destitution and privation as a blessing in itself. That would have turned life into a terrible ordeal and it would have been heartless to exhort the poor to believe that money was not necessary for one's sustenance or the joys and blessings of life. Even things of the spirit cannot be had without money. Extreme poverty is as liable to lead to the stagnation and impoverishment of the soul as excessive wealth. Not outward poverty but inward spirit was what Jesus Christ desired and demanded. Every religion asks a man to regard his wealth as a trust. Giving in charity for the relief of the poor and public welfare is not merely an act of compassion, not merely a religious duty, but also an act of social justice. All the gospels of wealth are based on the fundamental concept that none can claim an absolute or inherent right to property. Everyone holds it in trust from God to promote the good of mankind. All rights to private property are subject to this primary obligation to God and man.

—R.P. Masani

QUESTIONS

1. What, according to the author, is the meaning of "indifference" ? Is it applicable to all religions ?
2. Which are some of the real goods of spiritual living ? Is it easy to make the student realise this ?
3. In what sense can it be said that Jesus Christ has dealt more comprehensively with the problem of wealth ? Did Mahatma Gandhi teach a similar doctrine ?
4. What do you understand by the phrase : "poor in spirit" ? In that case, would it be more perfect to give away all your belongings and property and live like a pauper ?
5. Describe some of the drawbacks of poverty and show how money is absolutely necessary in life.
6. Write a short paragraph in which you develop the idea contained in the following : "Every religion asks a man to regard his wealth as a trust."
7. Bernard Shaw has said that poverty is a crime. Do you agree ?

12

The third great defect of our civilization is that it does not know what to do with its knowledge. Science has given us powers fit for the gods, yet we use them like small children. For example, we do not know how to manage our machines. Machines were made to be man's servants ; yet he has grown so dependent on them that they are in a fair way to become his masters. Already most men spend most of their lives looking after and waiting upon machines. And the machines are very stern masters. They must be fed with coal, and given petrol to drink, and oil to wash with, and they must be kept at the right temperature. And if they do not get their meals when they expect them, they grow sulky and refuse to work, or burst with rage, and blow up, and spread ruin and destruction all round them. So we have to wait upon them very attentively and do all that we can to keep them in a good temper. Already we find it difficult either to work or play without the machines, and a time may come when they will rule us altogether, just as we rule the animals.

And this brings me to the point at which I asked, "What do we do with all the time which the machines have saved for us, and the new energy they have given us ?" On the whole, it must be admitted, we do very little. For the most part we use our time and energy to make more and better machines ; but more and better machines will only give us still more time and still more energy, and what are we to do with them ? The answer, I think, is that we should try to become mere civilized. For the machines themselves, and the power which the machines have given us, are not civilization but aids to civilization. But you will remember that we agreed at the beginning that being civilized meant making and linking beautiful things, thinking freely, and living rightly and maintaining justice equally between man and man. Man has a better chance today to do these things than he ever had before ; he has more time, more energy, less to fear and less to fight against. If he will give his time and energy which his machines have won for him to making more beautiful things, to finding out more and more about the universe, to removing the causes of quarrels between nations, to discovering how to prevent poverty, then I think our civilization would undoubtedly be the greater, as it would be the most lasting that there has ever been.

—C.E.M. Joad

QUESTIONS

1. Instead of making machines our servants the author says they have become our masters. In what sense has this come about ?
2. The use of machines has brought us more leisure and more energy. But the author says that this has been a curse rather than a blessing. Why ?
3. What exactly is the meaning of "civilization" ? Do you agree with the author's views ?
4. "Making more beautiful things" – What does this expression mean? Make a list of the beautiful things that you would like to make and how you would make them.
5. Mention some plans you may have to prevent poverty in the world. Who would receive your most particular attention, and why ?
6. The author uses phrases like "fed with coal" ; "given petrol to drink"; "oil to wash" ; "kept at the right temperature". What machines would require these things?

13

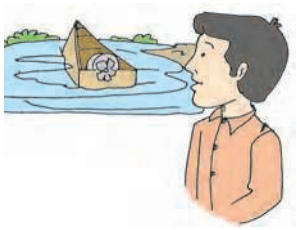

The other day we heard someone smilingly refer to poets as dreamers. Now, it is accurate to refer to poets as dreamers, but it is not discerning to infer, as this person did, that the dreams of poets have no practical value beyond the realm of literary diversion. The truth is that poets are just as practical as people who build bridges or look into microscopes ; and just as close to reality and truth. Where they differ from the logician and the scientist is in the temporal sense alone ; they are ahead of their time, whereas logicians and scientists are abreast of their time. We must not be so superficial that we fail to discern the practicableness of dreams. Dreams are the sunrise streamers heralding a new day of scientific progress,

another forward surge. Every forward step man takes in any field of life, is first taken along the dreamy paths of imagination. Robert Fulton did not discover his steamboat with full steam up, straining at a hawser at some Hudson River dock; first he dreamed the steamboat, he and other dreamers, and then scientific wisdom converted a picture in the mind into a reality of steel and wood. The automobile was not dug out of the ground like a nugget of gold ; first men dreamed the automobile and afterward, long afterward, the practical-minded engineers caught up with what had been created by winging fantasy. He who looks deeply and with a seeing eye into the poetry of yesterday finds there all the cold scientific magic of today and much which we shall not enjoy until some tomorrow. If the poet does not dream so clearly that blueprints of this vision can immediately be drawn and the practical conversions immediately effected, he must not for that reason be smiled upon as merely the mental host for a sort of harmless madness. For the poet, like the engineer, is a specialist. His being, tuned to the life of tomorrow, cannot be turned simultaneously to the life of today. To the scientist he says, "Here, I give you a flash of the future." The wise scientist thanks him, and takes that flash of the future and makes it over into a fibre of today.

—Glen Falls

QUESTIONS

1. Are poets dreamers ? In what sense ?
2. Is a poet a practical man ? In what way ?
3. Are dreams, according to the author, useful to the world ? Why ?
4. What was Fulton's achievement ?
5. If the poet did not dream, what would happen ?
6. In what way is the poet a specialist ?

14

This romantic life in Kashmir was drawing to its end after three glorious months. Miss Joan was leaving a week earlier than Mrs. Rhodes, and about two days before she left I took her alone to the hotel for dinner. We walked to the hotel in perfect silence, a silence so heavy that I could hardly breathe. The hotel seemed to be far away and yet not far enough. That night, as I served her at table the temptation to touch her was overpowering, and I had almost forgotten myself when I dropped her coffee cup, which made me pull myself together and realize my position and my caste. On the way home there was a bridge over the canal to be crossed. She stopped on the bridge without a word, so I stopped beside her looking on to the calm water of the canal shining between the gigantic chenar trees. In the distance a gramophone was playing and the music floated over the water. We stood for a long time without saying a word to each other. I think the parting was disturbing her. There was something which she could not have explained and which she was trying to express. It might have been just a fancy of her own, or it may have been the subconscious knowledge of the secret, consuming passion of her attendant that was affecting her on this calm and beautiful night as we tarried on the bridge. It seemed to me that we stood there for ages, as if neither of us dare break the magic spell of night and music. Our houseboat was only a few yards from the bridge, and the Goodnight was the only word that passed between us as we parted—everything then went into the darkness. The Mail lorry came up to the bridge to take her away from the romantic city of Srinagar—and away from me. After she had taken her seat I put a woollen rug over her knees to keep her warm on the journey, and she handed me a ten-rupee note as a parting gift and sweetly said Good-bye. I watched her wave her hand till the lorry was out of sight. Then I realized what I had lost, and lost for ever.

—Hazari

QUESTIONS

1. What was the matter with the attendant as he walked with Miss Joan to the hotel ? Why did they not talk to each other ?
2. After reading the passage can you give reasons to show what caste the attendant belonged to ?
3. The author mentions the chenar trees of Kashmir. Give a brief but graphic description of these trees.
4. "I think the parting was disturbing her." Was it the roamantic atmosphere of the surroundings, the thought of having to leave Kashmir, the kindness of her attendant, or thoughts of home that were the cause of the disturbance ?
5. Why does the author call Srinagar a romantic city ? Give the meaning of "romantic." Show how it may apply to Srinagar.
6. Why did Miss Joan give the attendant a ten-rupee note ? Do friends do such things?

15

Long years ago we made a tryst with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom. A moment comes, which comes but rarely in history, when we step out from the old to the new, when an age ends, and when the soul of a nation, long suppressed, finds utterance. It is fitting that at this solemn moment we take the pledge of dedication to the service of India and her people and to the still larger cause of humanity.

At the dawn of history India started on her unending quest, and trackless centuries are filled with her striving and the grandeur of her success and her failures. Through good and ill fortune alike she has never lost sight of that quest or forgotten the ideals which gave her strength. We end today a period of ill fortune and India discovers herself again. The achievement we celebrate today is but a step, an opening of opportunity, to the greater triumphs and achievements that await us. Are we brave enough and wise enough to grasp this opportunity and accept the challenge of the future ?

Freedom and power bring responsibility. That responsibility rests upon this Assembly, a sovereign body representing the sovereign people of India. Before the birth of freedom we have endured all the pains of labour and our hearts are heavy with the memory of this sorrow. Some of those pains continue even now. Neverthless, the past is over and it is the future that beckons to us now. That future is not one of ease or resting but of incessant striving so that we may fulfil the pledges we have so often taken and the one we shall take today. The service of India means the service of the millions who suffer. It means the ending of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality of opportunity. The ambition of the greatest man of our generation has been to wipe every tear from every eye. That may be beyond us, but as long as there are tears and suffering , so long our work will not be over.

—Jawaharlal Nehru

QUESTIONS

1. Express in your own words : (*a*) we made a tryst with destiny ;
   (*b*) at the stroke of the midnight hour ; (*c*) when the world sleeps ;
   (*d*) when we step out from the old to the new ; (*e*) we take the pledge of dedication ;
   (*f*) at the dawn of history ; (*g*) India discovers herself again ; (*h*) with the memory of sorrow.
2. In what does the "service of India" consist, according to the author ?
3. What are the ideals which India has never forgotten ?
4. Mention some of the responsibilities of freedom and power.
5. This speech is concerned with the living as well as the dead. In what way does Nehru appeal to his listeners ? What motive urges Nehru to rouse the India of today to action ?
6. Quote the line that has a direct reference to Mahatma Gandhi.

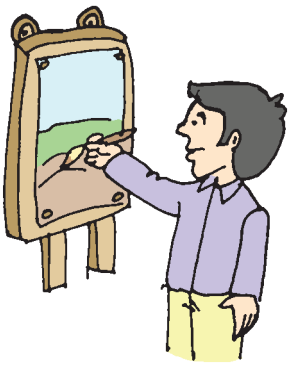

The Artist co-operates with God in making increasingly larger numbers of people see the beauty of the world which these people could never see for themselves. The world is, of course, God's artistic masterpiece ; but it is the artist who lends people eyes to see it with. Browning's Fra Lippo has the last word on the subject :—

For, don't you mark, we're made so that we love

First when we see them painted, things we have passed

Perhaps a hundred times nor cared to see ?

In this sense, Oscar Wilde's paradox is perfectly true : that Nature imitates Art; for the majority of men see in Nature what Art has taught them to see in Nature. The fogs of London, said Wilde, were the invention of Whistler. To love beauty therefore becomes to the artist, as an artist, his first duty. To love beauty, that is, to see it for himself first, and then to communicate it to others ; for love implies at once vision and reproduction. It must be the first article in an artist's creed, as an artist, that beauty is the best interpreter of God to man ; that, when he has got hold of beauty, he has got hold of the surest key to the knowledge of God. Keats has said that Beauty is Truth. Now, this is not true. But to us here, Beauty is, as Plato said, the splendour of Truth. The artist, as an artist, must be content with the splendour and, through this splendour strive to convey the truth. He has no business with truth as such as the philosopher, for instance, has. He has no concern with conduct as such, as the moralist, for instance, has. It is not his function to exhort men to good works, or to prove things ; but merely to exhibit them. Plato thought a picture, for instance, was just a copy of an object—a copy of the idea. It was Aristotle, Plato's pupil, who pointed out that, though a picture was in one sense certainly a copy and therefore something *less* than the object, in another sense it was something *more* than the object. It was, briefly, the *idea* of the object made visible to the eye. Art, therefore, does not consist merely in line and colour, sound and image ; but primarily in *ideas.* Beauty may not be useful. Beauty may not improve our minds. But beauty must *please.* Indeed, such is the inherent delightfulness of beauty that, by its magic touch, not only the ugly becomes pleasureable, but even sorrow becomes a joy. That is the explanation of the pleasure we feel in tragedy. What would shock us in actual life gives us pleasure in a tragedy. For tragedy makes experience significant ; and by making it significant, it makes it beautiful ; and by making it beautiful, it makes it pleasant. And yet, it does not *aim* at pleasing ; it only aims at exhibiting. Pleasure is not its aim ; it is its effect.

—Armando Menezes

QUESTIONS

1. What does the artist do for most of us ?
2. Why does the artist "lend" his eyes to people ?
3. Explain : "Nature imitates Art."
4. What is the artist's first duty ? Why ?
5. What is the surest key to the knowledge of God ? Why ?
6. What is the artist's real function ?
7. In what does Art primarily consist ?
8. When does sorrow become a joy ?

Chapter 38 PRECIS-WRITING

A precis* is a summary, and precis-writing means summarising. Precis-writing is an exercise in compression. A precis is the gist or main theme of a passage expressed in as few words as possible. It should be lucid, succinct, and full (*i.e.*

including all essential points), so that anyone on reading it may be able to grasp the main points and general effect of the passage summarised.

Precis-writing must not be confused with paraphrasing. A paraphrase should reproduce not only the substance of a passage, but also all its details. It will therefore be at least as long as, and probably longer than, the original. But a precis must always be much shorter than the original ; for it is meant to express only the main theme, shorn of all unimportant details, and that as tersely as possible. As the styles of writers differ, some being concise and some diffuse, no rigid rule can be laid down for the length of a precis ; but so much may be said, that a precis should not contain more than a third of the number of words in the original passage.

I. Uses of Precis-Writing

1. Precis-writing is a very fine exercise in *reading*. Most people read carelessly, and retain only a vague idea of what they have read. You can easily test the value of your reading. Read in your usual way a chapter, or even a page, of a book ; and then, having closed the book try to put down briefly the substance of what you have just read. You will probably find that your memory of it is hazy and muddled. Is this because your memory is weak ? No; it is because your attention was not fully centred on the passage while you were reading it. The memory cannot retain what was never given it to hold ; you did not remember the passage properly because you did not properly grasp it as you read it. Now precis-writing forces you to pay attention to what you read ; for no one can write a summary of any passage unless he has clearly grasped its meaning. So summarizing is an excellent training in concentration of attention. It teaches one to read with the mind, as well as with the eye, on the page.
2. Precis-writing is also a very good exercise in *writing* a composition. It teaches one how to express one's thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively. It is a splendid corrective of the common tendency to vague and disorderly thinking and loose and diffuse writing. Have you noticed how an uneducated person tells a story ? He repeats himself, brings in a lot of irrelevant matter, omits from its proper place what is essential and drags it in later as an after-thought, and takes twenty minutes to say what a trained thinker would express in five. The whole effect is muddled and tedious. In a precis you have to work within strict limits. You must express a certain meaning in a fixed number of words. So you learn to choose your words carefully, to construct your sentences with an eye to fullness combined with brevity, and to put your matter in a strictly logical order.
3. So practice in precis-writing is of great value for *practical life.* In any position of life the ability to grasp quickly and accurately what is read, or heard, and to reproduce it clearly and concisely, is of the utmost value. For lawyers, businessmen, and government officials it is essential.

II. Method of Procedure

You must make up your mind from the beginning that precis-writing means intensive brain-work. There is no easy short cut to summarising a passage. To tear the heart out of a passage means concentrated thought, and you must be prepared for close attention and hard thinking.

1. **Reading** ***(a)*** First read the passage through carefully, but not too slowly, to get a general idea of its meaning. If one reading is not sufficient to give you this clearly, read it over again, and yet again. The more you read it, the more familiar will it become to you, and the clearer will be ***(i)*** its subject, and ***(ii)*** what is said about that subject. Ask yourself, "What is it I am reading ? What does the author mean ? What is his subject ? What is he saying about it ? Can I put in a few words the pith of what he says ?"

   (b) Usually you are required to supply a *title* for your precis. This is a good stage at which to do this. Think of some word, phrase or short sentence that will sum up briefly the main subject of the passage. Sometimes this is supplied by what we may call a *key-sentence.* This key-sentence may be found at the beginning or at the end of the passage. For example, look at Exercise 148, No. 20, in which the first sentence gives the subject, all the rest of the passage being an expansion and illustration of it : "Hospitality is a virtue for which the natives of the East in general are highly and deservedly admired". This at once suggests the short title of "Eastern Hospitality". But you will not always find such convenient key-sentences in the passage you have to summarise. In their absence, you must get a clear idea of the subject from the passage as a whole, and then sum it up in a suitable heading.

The effort to find a suitable title at this stage will help you to define in your mind what exactly the subject, or main theme, of the passage is.

(*c*) Further reading is now necessary to ensure that you understand the *details* of the passage as well as its main purport. Take it now sentence by sentence, and word by word. If the meanings of any words are not clear, look them up in a dictionary. Detailed study of this kind is necessary, because a phrase, a sentence, or even a single word, may be of prime importance, and the misunderstanding of it may cause you to miss the whole point of the passage.

(*d*) You should now be in a position to decide what parts of the passage are essential and what parts are comparatively unimportant and so can be omitted without any loss. This process of *selection* is not so easy as some people think. Beginners select ; but they often select in a haphazard or mechanical way. It requires some practice to be able to say, "*This* is essential to the meaning of the passage, and *that* is only incidental and unimportant." The best guide, of course, is the subject or main theme of the passage. If you have a clear and correct idea of that you will soon see what is important and what is unimportant.

At this stage it is useful to jot down your conclusions in brief notes—writing down the subject, the title, and the details which you consider essential or important. (This is a better plan than underlining sentences and phrases in the original.)

2. Writing ***(a) Rough Drafts***—You should now be ready to attempt the writing of the precis ; but be sure of the limits within which it must be compressed. If the number of words is given you, this is easy; but if you are told to reduce the passage to say, a third of its length, count the number of words in the passage and divide by three. You may use fewer words than the number prescribed, but in no case may you exceed the limit.

It is not likely that your first attempt will be a complete success. The draft will probably be too long. In fact you may have to write out several drafts before you find how to express the gist of the passage fully within the limits set. A good deal of patience and revision will be required before you get it right. It is a good plan to write the first draft without having the actual words of the originial passages before one's eyes.

(*b*) ***Important Points***—The following points must be kept in mind:

(*i*) The precis should be *all in your own words.* It must not be a patchwork made up of phrases and sentences quoted from the original.

(*ii*) The precis must be *a connected whole.* It may be divided into sections or paragraphs, according to changes in the subject-matter, but these must not appear as separate notes, but must be joined together in such a way as to read continuously.

(*iii*) The precis must be *complete* and *self-contained* ; that is, it must convey its message fully and clearly without requiring any reference to the original to complete its meaning.

(*iv*) It is only the gist, main purport, or general meaning of the passage which you have to express. There is no room in a precis for colloquial expressions, circumlocutions, periphrasis or rhetorical flourishes. All redundancies of expression must be rigorously pruned. If faithful reproduction of the main theme is the first essential of a summary, *conciseness* is the second.

(*v*) The precis must be in simple, direct grammatical and idiomatic English.

(*c*) ***The Art of Compression***—You are not bound to follow the orginal order of thought to the passage to be summarised, if you can express its meaning more clearly and concisely by transposing any of its parts.

In *condensing,* aim rather at remodelling, than at mere omission. We may omit mere repetitions, illustrations and examples ; but we change figures of speech into literal expressions, compress wordy sentences, and alter phrases to words.

Take a few examples:

"His courage in battle might without exaggeration be called lion-like". He was very brave in battle.

"The account the witness gave of the incident moved everyone that heard it to laughter."

The witness's story was absurd.

"There came to his recollection."
He remembered.
"The clerk who is now in his employ."
His present clerk.
"They acted in a manner that rendered them liable to prosecution."
They acted illegally.
"He got up and made a speech on the spur of the moment."
He spoke off-hand.
"John fell into the river and, before help could reach him, he sank."
John was drowned in the river.
"He was hard up for money and was being pressed by his creditor."
He was in financial difficulties.

"The England of our own days is so strong and the Spain of our own days is so feeble, that it is not possible, without some reflection and care, to comprehend the full extent of the peril which England had from the power and ambition of Spain in the 16th century." (51 words.)

We cannot nowadays fully realise what a menace Spain was to England in the 16th century.
(16 words.)

(*d*) ***Indirect Speech***—As a rule, a precis should be written in indirect speech, after a "verb of saying" in the past tense. For example:

"Whether we look at the intrinsic value of our literature, or at the particular situation of this country, we shall see the strongest reason to think that of all foreign tongues the English tongue is that which would be the most useful to our native subjects." —*Macualay*

Condensed in indirect speech:

Lord Macaulay said that England's noble literature and the universality of her language made English the foreign language most useful for India.

The change from direct to indirect speech calls for attention to the following points:

(*i*) Correct sequence of tenses after the "verb of saying" in the past tense.

(*ii*) Clear differentiation of the various persons mentioned in the passage. Care must be taken with pronouns *he, she* and *they*. To avoid confusion proper names should be used occasionally.

(*iii*) Correct use of adverbs and other words indicating time.

(*iv*) Proper choice of "verbs of saying", to indicate questions, commands, warnings, threats or exhortations.

Great care must be taken to avoid lapsing into direct speech—a very common fault.

Some passages, however, are best summarised in direct speech.

3. **Revision**—When you have made your final draft, carefully *revise* it before you write out the fair copy. Be sure that its length is within the limits prescribed. Compare it with the original to see that you have not omitted any important point. See whether it reads well as a connected whole, and correct any mistakes in spelling and punctuation, grammar and idiom.

Then write out the fair copy neatly, prefixing the title you have chosen.

III. To Sum Up

1. First carefully read the passage, if necessary, several times, apprehend clearly its main theme or general meaning.
2. Examine the passage in detail, to make sure of the meaning of each sentence, phrase and word.
3. Supply a short title which will express the subject.
4. Select and note down the important points essential to the expression of the main theme.

5. Note the length of number of words prescribed for the precis, and write out a first draft.
6. In doing this remember that you are to express the gist of the passage in your own words, and not in quotations from the passage ; that you should condense by remodelling than by mere omission ; and that your precis must be self-contained and a connected whole. Add nothing ; make no comment ; correct no facts.
7. Revise your draft. Compare it carefully with the original to see that you have included all the important points. If it is too long, still further compress it by omitting unnecessary words and phrases or by remodelling sentences. Correct all mistakes in spelling, grammar and idiom, and see that it is properly punctuated. Let the language be simple and direct.
8. Write out neatly the fair copy under the heading you have selected.

SPECIMEN — 1

One great defect of our civilization is that it does not know what to do with its knowledge. Science, as we have seen, has given us powers fit for the gods, yet we use them like small children.

For example, we do not know how to manage our machines. Machines were made to be man's servants; yet he has grown so dependent on them that they are in a fair way to become his masters. Already most men spend most of their lives looking after and waiting upon machines. And the machines are very stern masters. They must be fed with coal, and given petrol to drink, and oil to wash with, and must be kept at the right temperature. And if they do not get their meals when they expect them, they grow sulky and refuse to work, or burst with rage, and blow up, and spread ruin and destruction all round them. So we have to wait upon them very attentively and do all that we can to keep them in a good temper. Already we find it difficult either to work or play without the machines, and a time may come when they will rule us altogether, just as we rule the animals.

(C.E.M. Joad)

Summary

Men and Machines

We do not know what to do with our knowledge. Science has given us superhuman powers, which we do not use properly. For example, we are unable to manage our machines. Machines should be fed promptly and waited upon attentively; otherwise they refuse to work or cause destruction. We already find it difficult to do without machines. In the course of time they may rule over us altogether.

SPECIMEN — 2

A stamp is, to many people, just a slip of paper that takes a letter from one town or country to another. They are unable to understand why we stamp collectors find so much pleasure in collecting them and how we find the time in which to indulge in our hobby. To them it seems a waste of time, a waste of effort and a waste of money. But they do not realise that there are many who do buy stamps, many who find the effort worth-while and many who, if they did not spend their time collecting stamps, would spend it less profitably. We all seek something to do in our leisure hours and what better occupation is there to keep us out of mischief than that of collecting stamps? An album, a packet of hinges, a new supply of stamps, and the time passes swiftly and pleasantly.

Stamp-collecting has no limits and a collection never has an end; countries are always printing and issuing new stamps to celebrate coronations, great events, anniversaries and deaths. And the fascination of collecting is trying to obtain these stamps before one's rivals. Every sphere of stamp-collecting has its fascination — receiving letters from distant countries and discovering old stamps in the leaves of dusty old books. A stamp itself has a fascination all its own. Gazing at its little picture we are transported to the wilds of Congo, the homes of the Arabs, and the endless tracks of the Sahara desert. There is a history in every stamp. The ancient Roman Empire and the Constitution of America, India's Independence and the Allied victory, are all conveyed to our mind's eye by means of stamps. We see famous men, pictures, writers, scientists, soldiers, politicians and famous incidents. Stamps, so small and minute, contain knowledge that is vast and important.

Summary

Stamp-collecting

To many people a stamp is merely something necessary for sending a letter. They regard stamp-collecting as a waste of time, effort and money. But there are many people who love buying stamps and find this hobby worthwhile and more profitable than other leisure pursuits. Collecting stamps helps to pass the time quickly and pleasantly.

Stamp-collecting is limitless and endless. Countries are always issuing stamps to celebrate important events. It is fascinating to receive letters from distant countries and to discover stamps in old books. A stamp itself has a charm. Stamps show us geographical and historical pictures, famous people and incidents. These small things contain vast knowledge.

EXERCISE 148

Write summaries of the following passages of about one-third of the original length.

1. In every country people imagine that they are the best and the cleverest and the others are not so good as are not so good as they are. The Englishman thinks that he and his country are the best; the Frenchman is very proud of France and everything French. The Germans and Italians think no less of their countries and many Indians imagine that India is in many ways the greatest country in the world. This is wrong. Everybody wants to think well of himself and his country. But really there is no person who has not got some good and some bad qualities. In the same way, there is no country which is not partly good and partly bad. We must take the good wherever we find it and try to remove the bad wherever it may be. We are, of course, most concerned with our own country, India. Unfortunately, it is in a bad way today. Many of our people are poor and unhappy. They have no joy in their lives. We have to find out how we can make them happier. We have to see what is good in our ways and customs and try to keep it, and whatever is bad we have to throw away. If we find anything good in other countries, we should certainly take it.

2. There are hundreds of superstitions which survive in various parts of the country, and the stury of them is rather amusing. We are told, for example, that it is unlucky to point to the new moon or to look at it through glass, but if we bow nine times to it we shall have a lucky month.

   Now suppose you tell a scientist that you believe a certain superstition — let us say, that the howling of a dog is a sign of death. The scientist will immediately require evidence before he can accept your belief. He will want figures to prove it. It will be useless to quote two or three cases; he will want hundreds. He will want also to know (*a*) if it ever happens that the howling of dogs is not followed by a death, (*b*) if ever a person's death is predicted by the howling of dogs. The answer to the former question is in the affirmative, and to the latter in the negative. Your superstition will not bear investigation. It may impress an ignorant person; but it cannot face the light of facts. Your case would not carry conviction in a court of law.

   Apart from this process of testing by results, any intelligent man will want to know the "reason why". What connection can there be between a howling dog and an approaching death? Can it be cause and effect? Can it be that the dog has a gift of foreseeing such events? Or is the dog the instrument employed by some uncanny power that moves invisibly in our midst?

3. Over-eating is one of the most wonderful practices among those who think that they can afford it. In fact, authorities say that nearly all who can get as much as they desire, over-eat to their disadvantage. This class of people could save a great more food than they can save by missing one meal per week and at the same time they could improve their health.

   A heavy meal at night, the so-called "dinner", is the fashion with many and often it is taken shortly before retiring. It is unnecessary and could be forgone, not only once a week but daily without loss of strength. From three to five hours are needed to digest food. While sleeping, this food not being required to give energy for work, is in many cases converted into excess fat, giving rise to over-weight. The evening meal should be light, taken three or four hours before retiring. This prevents over-eating, conserves energy and reduces the cost of food.

4. Trees give shade for the benefit of others and while they themselves stand in the sun and endure scorching heat, they produce the fruit by which others profit. The character of good men is like that of trees. What is the use of this perishable body, if no use of it is made for the benefit of mankind? Sandalwood — the more it is rubbed the more scent does it yield. Sugarcane — the more it is peeled and

cut into pieces, the more juice does it produce. Gold — the more it is burnt, the more brightly does it shine. The men who are noble at heart do not lose these qualities even in losing their lives. What does it matter whether men praise them or not? What difference does it make whether riches abide with them or not? What does it signify whether they die at this moment or whether their lives are prolonged? Happen what may, those who tread in the right path will not set foot in any other. Life itself is unprofitable to a man who does not live for others. To live for the mere sake of living one's life is to live the life of dogs and cows. Those who lay down their lives for the sake of a friend, or even for the sake of a stranger, will assuredly dwell forever in a world of bliss.

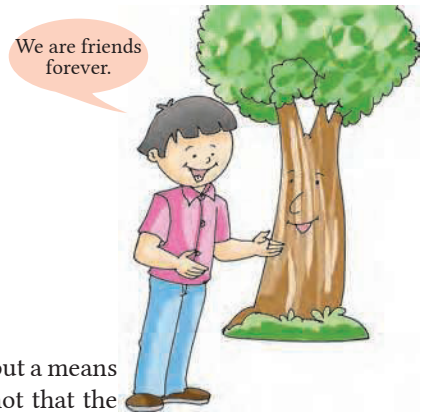

5. We must insist that free oratory is only the beginning of free speech; it is not the end, but a means to an end. The end is to find the truth. The practical justification of civil liberty is not that the examination of opinion is one of the necessities of man. For experience tells us that it is only when freedom of opinion becomes the compulsion to debate that the seed which our forefathers planted has produced its fruit. When that is understood, freedom will be cherished not because it is a vent for our opinions but because it is the surest method of correcting them.

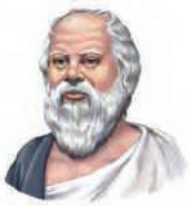

'The unexamined life', said Socrates, 'is unfit to be lived by man'. This is the virtue of liberty, and the ground on which we may best justify our belief in it, that it tolerates error in order to serve the truth. When more men are brought face to face with their opponents, forced to listen and learn and mend their ideas, they cease to be children and savages and begin to live like civilized men. Then only is freedom a reality, when men may voice their opinions because they must examine their opinions.

The only reason for dwelling on all this is that if we are to preserve democracy we must understand its principles. And the principle which distinguishes it from all other forms of government is that in a democracy the opposition not only is tolerated as constitutional but must be maintained because it is in fact indispensable.

The democratic system cannot be operated without effective opposition. For, in making the great experiment of governing people by consent rather than by coercion, it is not sufficient that the party in power should have a majority. It is just as necessary that the party in power should never outrage the minority. That means that it must listen to the minority and be moved by the criticisms of the minority.

6. I designed, after my first voyage, to spend the rest of my days at Baghdad, but it was not long ere I grew weary of an indolent life, and I put to sea a second time, with merchants of known probity. We embarked on board of a good ship, and after recommending ourselves to God, set sail. One day we landed on an Island covered with several sorts of fruit-trees, but we could see neither man nor animal. We walked in the meadows, along the streams that watered them. Whilst some diverted themselves with gathering flowers, and others fruits, I took my wine and provisions, and sat down near a stream betwixt two high trees, which afforded a delightful shade. I made a good meal, and afterwards fell asleep. I cannot tell how long I slept, but when I awoke the ship was no longer in view.

In this sad condition, I was ready to die with grief. I cried out in agony, beat my head and breast, and threw myself upon the ground, where I lay some time, overwhelmed by a rushing current of thoughts, each more distressing than the last. When I gazed towards the sea I could discern nothing but sky and water ; but looking over the land I beheld something white ; and coming down, I took what provision I had left, and went towards the object, which was so distant that at first could not distinguish what it was.

As I approached, I thought it to be a white dome, of a prodigious height and extent. I drew near to it, and walked round it ; but found no door to it ; and I found that I had not strength nor activity to climb it, on account of its exceeding smoothness. I made a mark at the place where I stood, and went round the dome, measuring its circumference ; and lo ! it was fifty full paces ; and I meditated upon some means of gaining an entrance into it ; but no means of accomplishing this occurred to me.

By this time the sun was about to set, and all of a sudden the sky became as dark as if it had been covered with a thick cloud. I was much astonished at this sudden darkness but much more when I found it occasioned by a bird of a most extraordinary size, that came flying towards me. I remembered that I had often heard mariners speak of a miraculous bird called the roc, and conceived that the great dome which I so much admired must be her egg. Shortly afterwards, the bird alighted, and sat over the egg.

7. It is very easy to acquire bad habits, such as eating too many sweets or too much food, or drinking too much fluid of any kind, or smoking. The more we do a thing, the more we tend to like doing it ; and, if we do not continue to do it, we feel unhappy. This is called the *force of habit,* and the force of habit should be fought against.

Things which may be very good when only done from time to time, tend to become very harmful when done too often and too much. This applies even to such good things as work or rest. Some people form a bad habit of working too much, and others of idling too much. The wise man always remembers that this is true about himself, and checks any bad habit. He says to himself, "I am now becoming idle," or "I like too many sweets," or "I smoke too much" and then adds, "I will get myself out of this bad habit at once."

One of the most widely spread of bad habits is the use of tobacco. Tobacco is now smoked or chewed by men, often by women, and even by children, almost all over the world. It was brought into Europe from America by Sir Walter Raleigh, four centuries ago, and has thence spread everywhere. I very much doubt whether there is any good in the habit, even when tobacco is not used to excess ; and it is extremely difficult to get rid of the habit when once it has been formed.

Alcohol is taken in almost all cool and cold climates, and to a very much less extent in hot ones. Thus, it is taken by people who live in the Himalaya Mountains, but not nearly so much by those who live in the plains of India. Alcohol is not necessary in any way to anybody. Millions of people are beginning to do without it entirely ; and once the United States of America have passed laws which forbid its manufacture or sale throughout the length and breadth of their vast country. In India it is not required by the people at all, and should be avoided by them altogether. The regular use of alcohol, even in small quantities, tends to cause mischief in many ways to various organs of the body. It affects the liver, it weakens the mental powers, and lessens the general energy of the body.

8. The great advantage of early rising is the good start it gives us in our day's work. The early riser has done a large amount of hard work before other men have got out of bed. In the early morning the mind is fresh, and there are few sounds or other distractions, so that work done at that time is generally well done. In many cases the early riser also finds time to take some exercise in the fresh morning air, and this exercise supplies him with a fund of energy that will last until the evening. By beginning so early, he knows that he has plenty of time to do thoroughly all the work he can be expected to do, and is not tempted to hurry over any part of it. All his work being finished in good time, he has a long interval of rest in the evening before the timely hour when he goes to bed. He gets to sleep several hours before midnight, at the time when sleep is most refreshing and after a sound night's rest, rises early next morning in good health and spirits for the labours of a new day.

It is very plain that such a life as this is far more conducive to health than that of the man who shortens his waking hours by rising late, and so can afford in the course of the day little leisure for necessary rest. Any one who lies in bed late, must, if he wishes to do a full day's work, go on working to a correspondingly late hour, and deny himself the hour or two of evening exercise that he ought to take for the benefit of his health. But, in spite of all his efforts, he will probably produce as good results as the early riser, because he misses the best working hours of the day.

It may be objected to this that some find the perfect quiet of midnight by far the best time for working. This is no doubt true in certain cases. Several great thinkers have found by experience that their intellect is clearest, and they can write best, when they burn the midnight oil. But even in such cases the practice of working late at night cannot be commended. Few men, if any, can exert the full power of their intellect at the time when nature prescribes sleep, without ruining their health thereby ; and of course the injury done to the health must in the long run have a bad effect on the quality of the work done.

9. The human race is spread all over the world, from the polar regions to the tropics. The people of which it is made up, eat different kinds of food, partly according to the climate in which they live, and partly according to the kind of food which their country produces. Thus, in India, the people live chiefly on different kinds of grain, eggs, milk, or sometimes fish and meat. In Europe the people eat more flesh and less grain. In the Arctic regions, where no grain and fruits are produced, the Eskimo and other races live almost entirely on flesh, especially fat.

The men of one race are able to eat the food of another race, if they are brought into the country inhabited by the latter ; but as a rule they still prefer their own food, at least for a time—owing to custom. In hot climates, flesh and fat are not much needed ; but in the Arctic regions they seem to be very necessary for keeping up the heat of the body.

The kind of food eaten also depends very often on custom or habit, and sometimes upon religion. Brahmins will not touch meat ; Mohammedans and Jews will not touch the flesh of pigs. Most races would refuse to eat the flesh of many unclean animals, although, quite possibly, such flesh may really be quite wholesome.

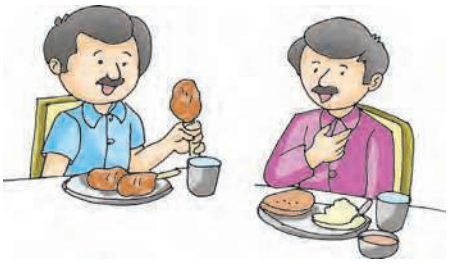

All races of mankind have their own different ideas on this matter. Thus the English used to laugh at the French because the latter ate frogs' legs and some kind of snails; the Australians dislike rabbits although the English eat them ; and the Burmese eat the flesh of crocodiles and elephants.

Neverthless there are many reasons for these likes and dislikes. Thus, swine in eastern countries are very dirty feeders, whereas in Europe they are kept on clean food. The result is that their flesh is eaten in Europe but not in India. Men dislike eating the flesh of all draught animals. Hence the Englishman will not eat horse-flesh, and the Hindu will not touch the flesh of cattle.

Lastly, certain savage peoples used to be cannibals—that is to say, they ate human flesh—though this custom has now fortunately almost ceased throughout the whole world.

There is another reason for disliking certain kinds of flesh, and a very good reason too. It is because these kinds are apt to contain dangerous parasites, which may get into the blood of those who eat the flesh. Certain kinds of swine, for example, are dangerous as food, as their flesh contains a parasite in the form of a little worm.

10. Dear boy, now that you are going a little more into the world I will take this occasion to explain my intentions as to your future expenses, that you may know what you have to expect from me, and make your plan accordingly. I shall neither deny nor grudge you any money that may be necessary for either your improvement or pleasures ; I mean the pleasures of a rational being. Under the head of improvement I mean the best books, and the best masters cost what they will ; I also mean all the expense of lodgings, coach, dress, servants, etc., which, according to the several places where you may be, shall be respectively necessary to enable you to keep the best company. Under the head of rational pleasures I comprehend, first, proper charities to real and compassionate objects of it ; secondly, proper presents to those to whom you are obliged, or whom you desire to oblige ; thirdly, a conformity of expense to that of the company which you keep ; as in public spectacles, your share of little entertainments, a few pistoles at games of mere commerce and other incidental calls of good company. The only two articles which I will never supply are, the profusion of low riot, and the idle lavishness of negligence and laziness. A fool squanders away without credit or advantage to himself, more than a man of sense spends with both. The latter employs his money as he does his time, and never spends a shilling of the one, nor a minute of the other, but in something that is either useful or rationally pleasing to himself or others. The former buys whatever he does not want, and does not pay for what he does want. He cannot withstand the charms of a toy-shop ; snuff-boxes, watches, heads or canes, etc., are his destruction. His servants and tradesmen conspire with his own indolence to cheat him, and in a very little time he is astonished, in the midst of all the ridiculous superfluities, to find himself in want of all the real comforts and necessaries of life. Without care and method the largest fortune will not, and with them almost the smallest will, supply all necessary expenses. Keep an account in a book, of all that you receive, and of all that you pay ; for no man, who knows what he receives and what he pays, ever runs out.

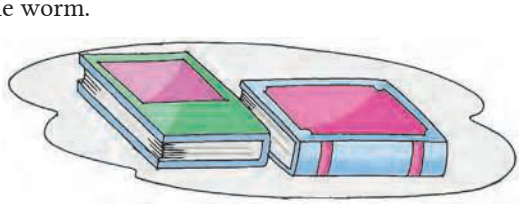

11. A great part of Arabia is desert. Here there is nothing but sand and rock. The sand is so hot that you cannot walk over it with your bare feet in the daytime. Here and there in the desert are springs of water that come from deep down under the ground—so deep that the sun cannot dry them up. These springs are few and far apart, but wherever there is one, trees grow tall and graceful, making a cool, green, shady place around the spring. Such a place is called an oasis.

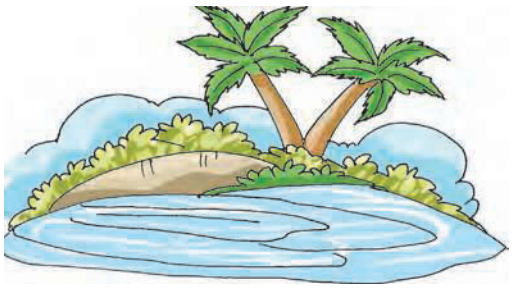

The Arabs who are not in the cities live in the desert all the year round. They live in tents that can be put up and taken down very easily and quickly so that they can move from one oasis to another, seeking grass and water for their sheep, goats, camels and horses. These desert Arabs eat ripe, sweet figs, and also the dates that grow upon the palm trees ; they dry them, too, and use them as food all the year round.

These Arabs have the finest horses in the world. An Arab is very proud of his riding horse, and loves him almost as much as he loves his wife and children. He never puts heavy loads upon his horse, and often lets him stay in the tent with his family.

The camel is much more useful to the Arab than his beautiful horse, however, for he is much larger and stronger. One camel can carry as much as or more than two horses. The Arab loads the camel with goods and rides him, too, for miles and miles across the desert—just as if he were really the "Ship of the Desert," which he is often called.

12. Ferdinand and Isabella, informed of the return and discoveries of their admiral, awaited him at Barcelona with honour and munificence worthy of the greatness of his services. The nobility came from all the provinces to meet him. He made a triumphal entry as a prince of future kingdoms. The Indians brought over as a living proof of the existence of new races in these newly-discovered lands, marched at the head of the procession, their bodies painted with divers colours, and adorned with gold necklaces and pearls. The animals and birds, the unkonwn plants, and the precious stones collected on these shores, were exhibited in golden basins, carried on the heads of Moorish or Negro slaves. The eager crowd pressed close upon them, and wondrous tales were circulated about the officers and companions of Columbus. The admiral himself, mounted on a richly charger presented by the king, next appeared, accompanied by a numerous caparisoned cavalcade of courtiers and gentlemen. All eyes were directed toward the man inspired of Heaven, who first had dared lift the veil of Ocean. People sought in his face for a sign of his mission and thought they could discern one. The beauty of his features, the majesty of his countenance, the vigour of eternal youth joined to the dignity of age the combination of thought with action, of strength with experience, a thorough appreciation of his worth combined with piety, made Columbus then appear (as those relate who saw him enter Barcelona) like a prophet, or a hero of Holy Writ or Grecian story.

"None could compare with him," they say ; "all felt him to be the greatest or most fortunate of men."

Ferdinand and Isabella received him on their throne, shaded from the sun by a golden canopy. They rose up before him, as though he had been an inspired messenger. They then made him sit on a level with themselves, and listened to the circumstantial account of his voyage. At the end of his recital, which habitual eloquence had coloured with his exuberant imagination, the king and queen, moved to tears, fell on their knees and repeated the *Te Deum,* a thanksgiving for the greatest conquest the Almightly had yet vouchsafed to sovereigns.

13. Up the River Hudson in North America are the Catskill Mountains. In a certain village at the foot of these mountains, there lived long ago a man named Rip Van Winkle. He was a simple and good-natured person, a very kind neighbour and a great favourite among all the good wives of the village. Whenever there was a squabble in the family of Rip, the women in the village always took his part and laid all the blame on Dame Van Winkle.

The children of the village too would shout with joy, whenever they saw him. He helped at their sports, made playthings for them, taught them to fly kites and shoot marbles and told them long stories of ghosts, witches and Indians.

Rip had no love for labour, if it would bring him profit. He would sit for a whole day on a wet rock and fish without a murmur, even though he did not catch a single fish. He would carry a light gun on his shoulder for hours together and shoot only a few squirrels or wild pigeons.

He would never refuse to assist a neighbour even in roughest toil. The women of the village often employed him to run their errands and to do little jobs for them. In a word, Rip was ready to attend to anybody's business but his own. He was, however, one of those men who take the world easy. He would eat coarse bread or fine, whichever could be got with least thought or trouble. And he would rather starve on a penny than work for a pound.

If left to himself, Rip would have whistled away life in perfect contentment. But his wife always kept drumming in his ears about his idleness, his carelessness and the ruins he was bringing on his family. Rip had but one way of replying to all her lectures—he shook his head, cast up his eyes and said nothing. He had one good friend at home and that was his dog Wolf which was as idle as the master.

14. The man who is perpetually hesitating which of the two things he will do first, will do neither. The man who resolves, but suffers his resolution to be changed by the first counter-suggestion of a friend, — who fluctuates from opinion to opinion, from plan to plan, and veers like a weather-cock to every point of the compass, with every breath of caprice that blows—can never accomplish any thing great or useful. Instead of being progressive in any thing, he will be at best stationary, and more probably retrograde in all. It is only the man who first consults wisely, then resolves firmly, and then executes his purpose

with flexible perseverance, undismayed by those petty difficulties which daunt a weaker spirit, that can advance to eminence in any line. Take your course wisely, but firmly ; and having taken it, hold upon it with heroic resolution, and the Alps and Pyrenees will sink before you.

15. Nature seems to have taken a particular care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world with an eye to this mutual intercourse and traffic among mankind, that the natives of the several parts of the globe might have a kind of dependence upon one another, and be united together by their common interest. Almost every degree produces something peculiar to it. The food often grows in one country, and the sauce in another. The fruits of Portugal are corrected by the products of Barbadoes, and the infusion of a China plant is sweetened by the pith of an Indian cane. The Philippine islands give a flavour to our European bowls. The single dress of a woman of quality is often the product of a hundred climates. The muff and the fan come together from the different ends of the earth. The scarf is sent from the torrid zone, and the tippet from beneath the pole. The brocade petticoat rises out of the mines of Peru, and the diamond necklace out of the bowels of Indostan.

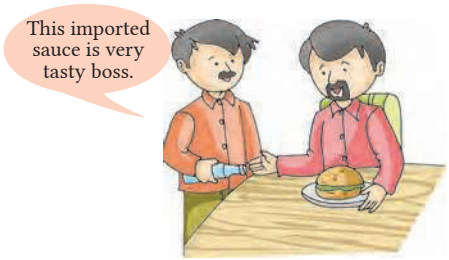

16. It is the height of selfishness for men, who fully appreciate in their own case the great advantage of a good education, to deny these advantages to women. There is no valid argument by which the exclusion of the female sex from the privilege of education can be defended. It is argued that women have their domestic duties to perform, and that, if they were educated, they would bury themselves in their books and have little time for attending to the management of their households. Of course it is possible for women, as it is for men, to neglect necessary work in order to spare more time for reading sensational novels. But women are no more liable to this temptation than men, and most women would be able to do their household work all the better for being able to refresh their minds in the intervals of leisure with a little reading. Nay, education would even help them in the performance of the narrowest sphere of womanly duty. For education involves knowledge of the means by which health may be preserved and improved, and enables a mother to consult such modern books as will tell her how to rear up her children into healthy men and women and skilfully nurse them and her husband when disease attacks her household. Without education she will be not unlikely to listen with fatal results to the advice of superstitious quacks, who pretend to work wonders by charms and magic.

But according to a higher conception of woman's sphere, woman ought to be something more than a household drudge. She ought to be able not merely to nurse her husband in sickness, but also to be his companion in health. For this part of her wifely duty education is necessary, for there cannot well be congenial companionship between an educated man and an uneducated wife, who can converse with her husband on no higher subjects than cookery and servants' wages. Also one of a mother's highest duties is the education of her children at the time when their mind is most amenable to instruction. A child's whole future life, to a large extent, depends on the teaching it receives in early childhood, and it is needless to say, that this first foundation of education cannot be well laid by an ignorant mother. On all these grounds female education is a vital necessity.

17. The effect produced on the mind by travelling depends entirely on the mind of the traveller and on the way in which he conducts himself. The chief idea of one very common type of traveller is to see as many objects of interest as he possibly can. If he can only after his return home say that he has seen such and such a temple, castle, picture gallery, or museum, he is perfectly satisfied. Therefore, when he arrives at a famous city, he rushes through it, so that he may get over as quickly as possible the task of seeing its principal sights, enter them by name in his note-book as visited or, in his own phraseology 'done', and then hurry on to another city which he treats in the same unceremonious way.

Another kind of traveller in all he sees finds entertainment for his foolish spirit of ridicule. The more hallowed any object is from historical and religious associations or artistic beauty, the more he delights to degrade it by applying to it familiar terms of vulgar slang that he mistakes for

wit. Such a one brings disgrace upon his nation by the rude insolence with which he laughs at foreigners and their ways, and everything else that attracts the notice of his feeble understanding. At the end of his wanderings he returns to his home a living example, showing

How much the fool that hath been taught to roam

Excels the fools that hath been kept at home.

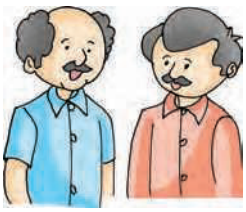

Far different is the effect of travels upon who leave their native country with minds prepared by culture to feel intelligent admiration for all the beauties of nature and art to be found in foreign lands. Their object is not to see much, but to see well. When they visit Paris or Athens or Rome, instead of hurrying from temple to museum, and from museum to picture gallery, they allow the spirit of the place to sink into their minds, and only visit such monuments as the time they have at their disposal allows them to contemplate without irreverent haste. They find it more profitable and delightful to settle down for a week or so at centres of great historical and artistic interest or of remarkable natural beauty, than to pay short visits to all the principal cities that they pass by. In this way they gain by their travels refreshment and rest for their minds, satisfaction to their intellectual curiosity or artistic tastes, and increased knowledge of the world and its inhabitants. Such people, who have travelled with their eyes open, return to their native land with a greater knowledge of its glories and defects than the stay-at-home can ever have.

18. It is in the temperate countries of northern Europe that the beneficial effects of cold are most manifest. A cold climate seems to stimulate energy by acting as an obstacle. In the face of an insuperable obstacle our energies are numbed by despair ; the total absence of obstacles, on the other hand leaves no room for the exercise and training of energy ; but a struggle against difficulties that we have a fair hope of overcoming, calls into active operation all our powers. In like manner, while intense cold numbs human energies, and a hot climate affords little motive for exertion, moderate cold seems to have a bracing effect on the human race. In a moderately cold climate man is engaged in an arduous, but no hopeless struggle with the inclemency of the weather. He has to build strong houses and procure thick clothes to keep himself warm. To supply fuel for his fires, he must hew down trees and dig coal out of the bowels of the earth. In the open air, unless he moves quickly, he will suffer pain from the biting wind. Finally, in order to replenish the expenditure of bodily tissue caused by his necessary exertions, he has to procure for himself plenty of nourishing food.

Quite different is the lot of man in the tropics. In the neighbourhood of the equator there is little need of clothes or fire, and it is possible with perfect comfort and no danger to health, to pass the livelong day stretched out on the bare ground beneath the shade of a tree. A very little fruit or vegetable food is required to sustain life under such circumstances, and that little can be obtained without much exertion from the bounteous earth.

We may recognize much the same difference between ourselves at different seasons of the year, as there is between human nature in the tropics and in temperate climes. In hot weather we are generally languid and inclined to take life easily ; but when the cold season comes, we find that we are more inclined to vigorous exertion of our minds and bodies.

19. One of the peculiarities which distinguish the present age is the multiplication of books. Everyday brings new advertisements of literary undertakings, and we are flattered with repeated promises of growing wise on easier terms than our progenitors.

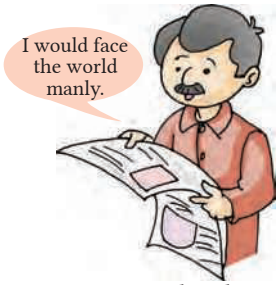

How much either happiness or knowledge is advanced by this multitude of authors, is not very easy to decide.

He that teaches us anything which we know not before, is undoubtedly to be loved as a benefactor; and he that supplies life with innocent amusement, will be certainly caressed as a pleasing companion.

But few of those who fill the world with books, have any pretensions to the hope either of pleasing or instructing. They have often no other task than to lay two books before them out of which they compile a third, without any new materials of their own, and with little application of judgement to those which former authors have supplied.

That all compilations are useless, I do not assert. Particles of science are often very widely scattered upon topics very remote from the principal subject, which are often more valuable than formal treatises, and which yet are not known because they are not promised in the title. He that collects those under proper heads is very laudably employed ; for though he exerts no great abilities in the work, he facilitates the progress of others, and, by making that easy of attainment which is already written, may give some mind more vigorous or more adventurous than his own, leisure for new thoughts and original designs.

But the collections poured lately from the press have seldom been made at any great expense of time or inquiry, and therefore only serve to distract choice without supplying any real want.

20. Hospitality is a virtue for which the natives of the East in general are highly and deservedly admired ; and the people of Egypt are well entitled to commendation on this account. A word which signifies literally "a person on a journey" ("musafir") is the term most commonly employed in this country in the sense of a visitor or guest. There are very few persons here who would think of sitting down to a meal, if there were a stranger in the house without inviting him to partake of it unless the latter were a menial ; in which case, he would be invited to eat with the servants. It would be considered a shameful violation of good manners if a Muslim abstained from ordering the table to be prepared at the usual time because a visitor happened to be present. Persons of the middle classes in this country, if living in a retired situation, sometimes take their supper before the door of their house, and invite every passenger of respectable appearance to eat with them. This is very commonly done among the lower order. In cities and large towns, claims on hospitality are unfrequent ; as there are many wekalehs, or khans, where strangers may obtain lodging ; and food is very easily procured ; but in the villages, travellers are often lodged and entertained by the Sheykh or some other inhabitant ; and if the guest be a person of the middle or higher classes, or even not very poor he gives a present to his host's servants, or to the host himself. In the desert, however, a present is seldom received from a guest. By a Sunneh law, a traveller may claim entertainment from a person able to afford it to him, for three days.

21. Day by day her influence and dignity increased. First of all she received the title of *Noor Mahal,* 'Light of the Harem' but was afterwards distinguished by that of *Noor Jahan Begam*, 'Light of the World.' All her relations and connexions were raised to honour and wealth.....No grant of lands was conferred upon any one except under her seal. In addition to giving her the titles that other kings bestowed, the Emperor granted Noor Jahan the rights of sovereignty and government. Sometimes she would sit in the balcony of her palace, while the nobles would present themselves, and listen to her dictates. Coin was struck in her name, with this superscription :'By order of the King Jehangir, gold has a hundred splendours added to it by receiving the impression of the name of Noor Jahan, the Queen Begam.' On all *farmans* also receiving the Imperial signature, the name of 'Noor Jahan, the Queen Begam,' was jointly attached. At last her authority reached such a pass that the King was such only in name. Repeatedly he gave out that he had bestowed the sovereignty on Noor Jahan Begam, and would say, 'I require nothing beyond a *sir* of wine and half a *sir* of meat.' It is impossible to describe the beauty and wisdom of the Queen. In any matter that was presented to her, if a difficulty arose, she immediately solved it. Whoever threw himself upon her protection was preserved from tyranny and oppression ; and if ever she learnt that any orphan girl was destitute and friendless, she would bring about her marriage, and give her a wedding portion. It is probable that during her reign not less than 500 orphan girls were thus married and portioned.

22. Dante was of moderate height and after reaching maturity, was accustomed to walking somewhat bowed, with a slow and gentle pace, clad always in such sober dress as befitted his ripe years. His face was large, and the lower lip protruded beyond the upper. His complexion was dark, his hair and beard thick, black, and curled, and his expression ever melancholy and thoughtful.

In both his domestic and his public demeanour he was admirably composed and orderly, and in all things courteous and civil beyond any other. In food and drink he was most temperate, both in partaking of them at the appointed hours and in not passing the limits of necessity. Nor did he show more epicurism in respect of one thing than another, He praised delicate viands, but ate chiefly of plain dishes, and censured beyond measure those who bestow a great part of their attention upon possessing choice things, and upon the extremely careful preparation of the same, affirming that such persons do not eat to live, but rather live to eat.

None was more vigilant than he in study and in whatever else he undertook, insomuch that his wife and family were annoyed thereby, until they grew accustomed to his ways, and after that they paid no heed thereto. He rarely spoke unless questioned, and then thoughtfully, and in a voice suited to the matter whereof he treated. When, however, there was cause he was eloquent and fluent in speech, and possessed of an excellent and ready delivery. In his youth he took the greatest delight in music and song, and enjoyed the friendship and intimacy of all the best singers and musicians of his time. Led on by this delight he composed many poems, which he made them clothe in pleasing and masterly melody.

23. People moan about poverty as a great evil ; and it seems to be an accepted belief that if people only had plenty of money, they would be happy and useful and get more out of life. As a rule, there is more genuine satisfaction in life and more obtained from life in the humble cottage of the poor man than in the palaces of the rich. I always pity the sons and daughters of rich men, who are attended by servants, and have governesses at a later age ; at the same time I am glad to think that they do not know what they have missed.

It is because I know how sweet and happy and pure the home of honest poverty is, how free from perplexing care and from social envies and jealousies—how loving and united its members are in the common interest of supporting the family that I sympathize with the rich man's boy and congratulate the poor man's son. It is for these reasons that from the ranks of the poor so many strong, eminent, self-reliant men have always sprung and always must spring. If you will read the list of the "Immortals who were not born to die," you will find that most of them have been born poor.

It seems nowadays a matter of universal desire that poverty should be abolished. We should be quite willing to abolish luxury ; but to abolish honest, industrious, self-denying poverty would be to destroy the soil upon which mankind produces the virtues that will enable our race to reach a still higher civilization than it now possesses.

24. The situation of Columbus was daily becoming more and more critical. In proportion as he approached the regions where he expected to find land, the impatience of his crews augmented. The favourable signs which increased his confidence were decided by them as delusive ; and there was danger of their rebelling and obliging him to turn back, when on the point of realizing the object of all his labours. They beheld themselves with dismay still wafted onward over the boundless wastes of what appeared to them a mere watery desert surrounding the habitable world. What was to become of them should their provisions fall ? Their ships were too weak and defective even for the great voyage they had already made, but if they were still to press forward, adding at every moment to the immense expanse behind them, how should they ever be able to return, having no intervening port where they might victual and refit? Were they to sail in until they perished, or until all return became impossible ? In such case they would be the authors of their own destruction.

On the other hand, should they consult their safety and turn back before too late, who would blame them ? Any complaints made by Columbus would be of no weight ; he was a foreigner, without friends or influence ; his schemes had been condemned by the learned and discountenanced by people of all ranks. He had no party to uphold him, and a host of opponents whose pride of opinion would be gratified by his failure. Or, as an effectual means of preventing his complaints, they might throw him into the seas and give out that he had fallen overboard while busy with his instruments contemplaing the stars, a report which no one would have either the inclination or the means to controvert.

Columbus was not ignorant of the mutinous disposition of his crew, but he still maintained a serene and steady countenance—soothing some with gentle words, endeavouring to stimulate the pride or avarice of others, and openly menacing the refractory with signal punishment, should they do anything whatever to impede the voyage.

25. The great Roman orator, Cicero, in his celebrated treatise on Friendship, remarks with truth that it increases happiness and diminishes misery by the doubling of our joy and the dividing of our grief. When we do well, it is delightful to have friends who are so proud of our success that they receive as much pleasure from it as we do ourselves. For the friendless man the attainment of wealth, power, and honour is of little value. Such possessions contribute to our happiness most by enabling us to do good to others but if all those whom we are able to benefit are strangers, we take far less pleasure in our beneficence than if it were exerted on behalf of friends whose happiness is as dear to us as our own. Further, when we do our duty in spite of temptation, the mental satisfaction obtained from the approval of our consciences is heightened by the praise of our friends ; for their judgement is as it were a second conscience, encouraging us in good and deterring us from evil. Our amusements have little zest and soon pall upon us if we engage in them in solitude, or with uncongenial companions, for whom we can feel no affection. Thus in every case our joys are rendered more intense and more permanent by being shared with friends.

It is equally true that, as Cicero points out, friendship diminishes our misery by enabling us to share the burden of it with others. When fortune has inflicted a heavy unavoidable blow upon us, our grief is alleviated by friendly condolence, and by the thought that as long as friends are left to us, life is still worth living.

But many misfortunes which threaten us are not inevitable and in escaping such misfortunes, the advice and active assistance of our friends may be invaluable. The friendless man stands alone, exposed, without protection to his enemies and to the blows of fortune ; but whoever has loyal friends is thereby provided with a strong defence against the worst that fortune can do to him.

26. The best friend a man has in this world may turn against him and become his enemy. His son or his daughter, that he has reared with loving care, may prove ungrateful. Those who are nearest and dearest to us, those whom we trust with our happiness and our good name, may become traitors to their faith.

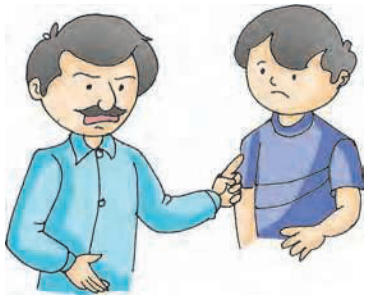

The money that a man has he may lose. It flies away from him perhaps when he needs it most.

A man's reputation may be sacrificed in a moment of ill-considered action. The people who are prone to fall on their knees to do us honour when success is with us, may be the first to throw stones of malice when failure settles its cloud upon our heads.

The one absolutely unselfish friend that man can have in this selfish world, the one that never deserts him, the one that never proves ungrateful or treacherous is his dog.

A man's dog stands by him in prosperity and in poverty, in health and in sickness. He will sleep on the cold ground, where the wintry winds blow and the snow drives fiercely, if only he may be by his master's side. He will kiss the hand that has no food to offer, he will lick the wounds and sores that come in encounter with the roughness of the world.

He guards the sleep of his pauper master as if he was a prince. When all other friends desert he remains.

When riches take wings and reputation falls to pieces, he is as constant in his love as the sun in its journey through the heavens. If fortune drives the master forth an outcast in the world, friendless, homeless, the faithful dog asks no higher privilege than that of accompanying him to guard against danger, to fight against his enemies. And when the last scene of all comes, and death takes the master in his embrace, and his body is laid away in the cold ground, no matter if all other friends pursue their way, there by the graveside will the noble dog be found, his head between his paws, his eyes sad but open in alert watchfulness, faithful and true even to death.

Chapter 39 EXPANSION OF PASSAGES

This exercise is the exact opposite of Precis-writing. In Precis-writing we have to compress; and in these exercises we have to expand. A sentence, or a short passage, has to be enlarged into a paragraph by the fuller and more elaborate expression of its meaning, or by adding illustrations, details or proofs to a simple statement. Such exercise practically amounts to the writing of miniature essays on the subject of the original sentence or passage. No strict rule can be laid down for the length of the expansion ; it must not be too short, or it will scarcely be an expansion, or so long as to become an essay. On the average, eighty to one hundred words should be aimed at.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

1. Carefully read the original sentence or passage, until you feel that you clearly understand its meaning. (It is a good practice to try to express the main idea in a word or a phrase ; *e.g.,* the real subject of the second specimen is, "Pride in One's Work.")
2. Having grasped the subject and meaning of the passage, proceed to expand it by adding details, illustrations, proofs, examples etc., until it is a tiny essay only long enough to make a paragraph.
3. The expansion must contain all that was in the original passage; and more can be added, so long as it is *strictly relevant to the subject.* [For instance, in Specimen No. 3 (Let thy secret, unseen acts, etc.) the story of the Greek sculptor is not in the original, but it well illustrates the meaning of the passage.]
4. The sentence for expansion is a conclusion or finished product: and it is your work to trace the steps by which this thought has been arrived at.
5. If it is a metaphor, explain its full meaning in plain language, and give reasons to support it.
6. Your expansion should read as a complete piece of composition, expressed in good English ; such that it can be clearly understood apart from the original passage. So, when you have written it, go over it carefully to see that nothing essential has been omitted or left obscure.
7. Correct all mistakes in spelling, grammar and punctuation.

SPECIMENS

1

A great deal of talent is lost in the world for the want of a little courage.

EXPANSION

SELF-CONFIDENCE

Timidity and self-distrust are almost as great faults as conceit and over-confidence. There are many people who have real talent in different lines, and yet who never accomplish anything, because they are afraid to make the first venture ; and in this way good and useful things are lost to the world. A reasonable amount of confidence in one's own powers is necessary for success.

2

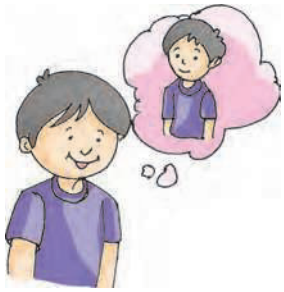

If I were a cobbler, it would be my pride
The best of all cobblers to be ;
If I were a tinker, no tinker beside
Should mend an old kettle like me.

EXPANSION

PRIDE IN ONE'S WORK

It is a great thing to take a pride in our work. Anything that is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. Even in the humblest task we should be ambitious to do it as well as we can, if possible better than anyone else. For example, a cobbler should not think that because his job is a humble one, it can be scamped and done anyhow ; he should be determined to make better shoes than any other cobbler ; and a tinker should take pride in mending even an old kettle better than any other tinker can.

3

Let thy secret, unseen acts,
Be such as if the men thou prizest most
Were witnesses around thee.

EXPANSION
TOWARD GOODNESS

A Greek sculptor, when he was asked why he carved the backs of his statues, which no man would ever see, as carefully as he carved the front, said : "The gods will see them !" So it is not enough for us to live outwardly good lives while in secret we allow evil in our hearts, for God knows even if men do not ! We should never do in secret what we should be ashamed of doing in the presence of our most valued friends.

4

However mean your life is, meet it and live it ; do not shun it and call it hard names.

EXPANSION
MAKING THE BEST OF LIFE

Men who are always grumbling about their poverty, complaining of their difficulties, whining over their troubles, and thinking that their lot in this world is mean and poor, will never get any happiness out of life or achieve any success. However mean our life may be, if we face it

bravely and honestly and try to make the best of it, we shall find that after all it is not so bad as we thought : and we may have our times of happiness and the joys of success. There is nothing common or unclean, until we make it so by the wrong attitude we adopt towards it.

5

Peace hath her victories
No less renowned than war.

EXPANSION
THE VICTORIES OF PEACE

The word victory is generally associated in our minds with war, and calls up visions of battles, bloodshed, and conquest by force : and we think of war as a glorious thing because of its famous victories and splendid triumphs. But when we think of the achievements of great men–statesmen, scholars, social reformers, scientists, philanthropists, explorers, discoverers and honest workers–for the betterment of the human race and the progress and civilization of the world, we realize that the victories of peace are even more glorious than the victories of war.

EXERCISE 149

Expand the idea contained in each of the following.

1. It is a great loss to a man when he cannot laugh.
2. Charity is a universal duty, which it is in every man's power sometimes to practise.
3. Slow and steady wins the race.
4. He who follows two hares catches neither.
5. A great city is, to be sure, the school for studying life.
6. Mid pleasures and palaces though we may roam,
   Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.
7. The noblest men that live on earth,
   Are men whose hands are brown with toil.
8. Where there's a will there's a way.
9. Perseverance is the very hinge of all virtues.
10. Honour and shame from no condition rise :
    Act well your part ; there all the honour lies.
11. They are slaves who dare not be
    In the right with two or three.
12. Great talkers are never great doers.
13. The crown and glory of life is Character.
14. Life indeed would be dull, if there were no difficulties.
15. Only the actions of the just
    Smell sweet, and blossom in their dust.
16. Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
    Life is but an empty dream.
17. To anyone who wishes to amend his life there is no time like the present.
18. The real dignity of a man lies, not in what he *has,* but in what he *is.*
19. He that is humble, ever shall
    Have God to be his guide.
20. What is this life, if full of care,
    We have no time to stand and stare?

21. Home-keeping youths have ever homely wits.
22. Houses are built to live in and not to look on.
23. Nothing was ever achieved without enthusiasm.
24. Train up a child in the way he should go.
25. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.
26. Custom reconciles us to everything.
27. Do the work that's nearest,
    Though it's dull at whiles,
    Helping when we meet them,
    Lame dogs over stiles.
28. Each man's belief is right in his own eyes.
29. The good are always the merry, save by an evil chance.
30. The heights by great men reached and kept,
    Were not attained by sudden flight ;
    But they, while their companions slept,
    Were toiling upwards in the night.

31. One crowded hour of glorious life.
    Is worth an age without a name.
32. Breathes there the man with soul so dead
    Who never to himself hath said,
    This is my own, my native land ?
33. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
    The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear ;
    Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
    And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

Chapter 40 ESSAY-WRITING

The word Essay is defined in "The Concise Oxford Dictionary" as "a literary composition (usually prose and short) on any subject." Properly speaking, it is a written composition giving expression to one's own personal ideas or opinions on some topic ; but the term usually covers also any writtten composition, whether it expresses personal opinions, or gives information on any given subject, or details of a narrative or description.

In fact the word "Essay" is somewhat loosely applied to a variety of compositions, from Bacon's compressed "Essays" on the one hand, to those so called "Essays" of Macaulay, some of which are lengthy articles, almost as big as small books, on the other.

[Addison's Essays are good models for Indian students, because of their brevity and simple directness of style.]

So far as we are concerned here, an essay is an exercise in composition ; and it is well to remember that the word *essay* means, literally, an *attempt.* (Compare the verb "to essay", with the accent on the second syllable, meaning to attempt or try.) The essays you write at school are trial exercises or "attempts" to express your thoughts in good English. (School essays of this kind are sometimes called "themes," from the fact that such an essay is a composition written upon a given theme, or subject).

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD SCHOOL ESSAY

1. ***Unity.*** An essay must be a *unity,* developing one theme with a definite purpose. The subject must be clearly defined in the mind and kept in view throughout. Nothing that is not relevant to it should be admitted to the essay. At the same time, the subject may be treated in a variety of ways and from different points of view.
2. ***Order.*** The essay should follow a certain ordered line of thought and come to a definite conclusion. It should not consist of haphazard reflections put down anyhow. There should be not only unity of subject but also unity of treatment. Hence the necessity for thinking out a line of thought before beginning to write.
3. ***Brevity.*** School essays should not be long. The limit should be about three hundred words ; though, of course, there can be no strict rule as to length, which will depend a good deal on the nature of the subject. But an essay should be a brief exercise, concisely expressed.
4. ***Style.*** In friendly letters, the style should be conversational—easy, natural and familiar ; and in writing such letters we may use colloquial terms which would be out of place in a book. But the style of an essay must be more dignified and literary. Slang, colloquial terms and free and easy constructions are not proper in an essay. At the same time it is a mistake to attempt any flights of fine writing. The language and sentence construction should be simple, direct and natural. The secret of clear writing is clear thinking. "If you clearly understand all about your matter, you will never want thoughts, and thoughts instantly become words." This was said by Cobbett, a writer whose style is a model of clearness, simplicity and directness.
5. ***The Personal Touch.*** An essay should reveal the personal feelings and opinions of the writer. It should have his individuality in it. Strictly speaking, as has been already said, an essay is a written composition giving expression to one's personal ideas or opinions on a subject ; and this personal touch should not be lost, or the essay will be colourless and devoid of individuality. So do not be afraid to express in your essays your own views, and do not be content with repeating the opinions of others. Let there be a note of sincerity in all that you write.

To sum up: An essay must be a *unity,* treating in *an orderly manner* of one subject ; it should be *concisely written* and *not too long,* and the style should by *simple, direct and clear ;* and it should have an individuality, or show the *personal touch* of the writer.

Three features are necessary in a good essay—suitable subject-matter, proper arrangement, and adequate power of expression. Where all these three are present, the essay will be a success.

CLASSIFICATION OF ESSAYS

Essays may be classified as Narrative Essays, Descriptive Essays, Expository Essays, Reflective Essays and Imaginative Essays. The classification is useful, so long as it is remembered that these classes are not mutually exclusive, and that some essays may partake of the peculiarities of more than one class. For example, a narrative essay may contain a good deal of description ; and essays of all classes should be more or less reflective, for the original idea of this form of composition is an expression of the writer's own feelings and opinions about a given subject. For this reason, let us begin with–

1. ***Reflective Essays***–A reflection is a thought on some subject—on an idea arising in the mind. So a reflective essay consists of reflections or thoughts on some topic, which is generally of an abstract nature ; for example ; *(a) habits, qualities,* etc., such as truthfulness, thrift, temperance, cowardice, heroism, patriotism, industry, etc., *(b) social, political and domestic topics,* such as riches and poverty, caste, democracy, liberty, government, family life, education, marriage, business, etc., *(c) philosophical subjects,* such as right and wrong, reality, consciousness, the meaning of the universe, etc. ; or *(d) religious and theological topics.*

   In treating such themes, you should try *(i)* to explain, for example, the importance or advantages of possessing good habits and qualities, and the risks and disadvantages of lacking them ; and quote stories, fables, or historical or literary references in support of your statements; *(ii)* discuss the importance of social institutions etc. *; (iii)* expound and discuss philosophical and theological theories. You should *reason* and support your statements with arguments and facts.

2. ***Narrative Essays***–A narrative essay consists mainly in the narration of some event, or series of events. I say "mainly" because a narrative essay must not be confused with a short story or bits of history. The narrative it relates should be treated as a subject for thought and comment, and so the essay should be more or less reflective. Narrative essays may treat of–*(a) historical stories* or *legends* (*e.g.,* the reign of Akbar, the story of Rama and Sita) ; *(b) biographies* (*e.g.,* life of Shivajee, or of Babar) ; (*c*) *incidents* (*e.g.,* a street quarrel, a festival, a marriage) ; *(d) an accident* or *natural disaster* (*e.g.,* a flood, a fire, a ship-wreck, an earthquake ; (*e*) *a journey* or *voayge* ; (*f*) *a story* (real or imaginary).

3. ***Descriptive Essays***– A descriptive essay consists of a description of some place or thing ; *e.g.,* (*a*) *animals, plants, minerals* (such as the elephant, the pipal tree, coal); (*b*) *towns, countries, buildings,* etc., (*e.g.,* Mumbai, Italy, the Taj Mahal); (*c*) *aspects and phenomena of nature* (such as volcanoes, the monsoon, sunlight, organic life); and (*d*) *manufactured articles* (such as motor-cars, steam-engines, silk, paper, etc.).

4. ***Expository Essays***–An expository (or explanatory) essay consists of an exposition or explanation of some subject; *e.g.* : (*a*) *institutions, industries, occupations* (*e.g.,* parliament, the press, silk-weaving, farming, etc.): (*b*) *scientific topics* (such as gravitation, evolution, astronomy, etc.) ; (*c*) *literary topics* (such as the nature of poetry, prose styles, the genius of Shakespeare, the novels of Scott, history of fiction, etc.).

5. ***Imaginative Essays***–Essays on subjects such as the feelings and experiences of the sailor wrecked on a desert island may be called imaginative Essays. In such the writer is called to place himself in imagination in a position of which he has had no actual experience. Such subjects as "If I were a king," or "The autobiography of a horse," would call for imaginative essays.

HINTS ON ESSAY-WRITING

1. ***General Preparation***–One of the chief difficulties young people feel in essay-writing is lack of matter. They do not easily find anything to say about a subject. This is natural, because their experience and general reading are limited. But it may be remedied by reading, and by training the power of observation.

   (*a*) ***Reading***–Bacon said, "Reading maketh a full man"; that is, a person who reads much and widely stores his mind with a large variety of facts, thoughts, illustrations and general information. If you want to write good essays you must acquire a love of reading–not simply reading stories for amusement, but reading good books of history, travel, biography and science. Fill your mind with fine thoughts and

accurate information. By so doing you will become "a full man", and "a full man" can always find plenty to say on most subjects.

(*b*) ***Observation***–But all knowledge does not come from books. We may learn much from the life around us—what we see and hear and observe for ourselves. Keep eyes and ears open, and learn from your own experience. Practise writing short descriptions of what you see in everyday life—the people you meet, bits of scenery that strike you, buildings, street scenes, trees and flowers, hills and valleys, the habits of animals and birds. Don't be content with reading other people's description of such things, but see them for yourself. It is surprising what a lot may be learnt from personal observation.

(*c*) ***Conversation***–Books are written by men and women ; and if we can learn from the books they write, we can learn also from the words they say. Listen to people's conversation ; get them to talk to you about the things they know, and discuss subjects that interest you, with your friends. In this way, also, you may learn much.

A writer reads, observes, and gets people to talk ; and in these ways he is always enriching his mind with ideas and knowledge.

2. ***Special Preparation***–Now we come to the special preparation needed for writing an essay on some particular subject ; and the first thing we must do is to define the subject.

(*a*) ***Defining the Subject***–It is very important that you should have a clear and accurate conception of the subject of the essay before you attempt to write on it—what exactly it is and (equally important) what it is not. Some subjects are so simple that you can scarcely make a mistake about them ; but some want looking into to define them exactly. For example, "The Uses of Computers". The subject is not how computers work. Nor is it the history of computers. Yet some students, carelessly reading the subject, might easily take up a large part of their essay with such topics. In a short school-essay there is no room for irrelevant matter. You have to come to the point at once, and start away with the subject. The subject in this case is the uses of computers in offices, in industries, in aircraft, in spacecraft, etc. It is, therefore, very necessary that you should define the subject clearly in your own mind, or you may waste much time and paper in writing on more or less irrelevant matters.

(*b*) ***Collecting materials***–(*i*) **Reading up the Subject**–When you have got a clear idea of your subject, the next step will be to think of what you can say about it. Some subjects are so simple that a little reflection should supply you with sufficient material for a short essay ; but for others, special information will be needed for which you may have to do some special reading. For instance, if you have to write about some historical subjects, or give a description of some country you have seen, you will have to get hold of some book and read the subject up. But in any case, you have to *collect materials* for your essay before you can write it. In schools, class-discussions on the subject, under the guidance of the teacher, are very helpful in this stage of special preparation. In any case, do not attempt to write the essay before you have given some time to thinking over what you can say on the subject. The common habit of beginning to write down the first thing that comes into one's head, without knowing what is to come next, is fatal to good essay-writing.

(*ii*) ***Collection***–As you think over the subject, ideas, facts, and illustrations will pass through your mind. But if you don't catch them as they come, you may forget them just when you want them. So, as you catch birds and put them in a cage, catch and cage these fleeting thoughts by jotting them down on a piece of paper just as they come into your head, without troubling yourself at this stage about their order or suitability. You can examine the birds thus caught at your leisure later. (To save time afterwards, and for convenience of reference, number these notes as you jot them down.)

(*iii*) ***Selection***–When you think you have collected enough material for your essay, or you can't think of any more points, read over the notes you have jotted down to *select* the points most suitable for

your purpose. Examine at your leisure the birds in the cage, to see what they are worth. You may find that some points are not very relevant or won't fit in; cross them out. You may find that some are mere repetitions of others ; and others may be simply illustrations to be brought under main heads. This process of selection will probably suggest to you in a general way the line of thought you may follow in the essay.

(*c*) ***Logical Arrangement***–Now you should be ready to decide on the line of thought of the essay, *i.e.,* the logical order in which you can arrange the points you have selected. The necessity of thus arranging your thoughts according to some ordinary plan cannot be too strongly insisted upon. Without it, the essay will probably be badly arranged, rambling, disproportioned, and full of repetitions and irrelevancies.

(*i*) **Making the outline**–Bearing your subject definitely in your mind and with your purpose clearly before you, sketch out a bare outline of the main heads, under which you will arrange your various materials in a natural, logical and convincing order—from a brief Introduction to an effective Conclusion.

(*ii*) **Filling in the Outline**–Having thus mapped out the main points with which you are going to deal, arrange the ideas you have collected each under its proper main head, rejecting all those not really relevant to your subject or which simply repeat other thoughts, and taking care that each really belongs to the division in which you place it.

You will now have a full outline, which is to be a guide to you in writing the essay. But this is not the essay, but only its well-articulated skeleton. You must now clothe the skeleton with flesh, and (most difficult of all) breathe into it the breath of life, before you can call your production an essay.

EXAMPLE

To illustrate this method of collecting materials and drawing up an outline, let us work out together a simple example for an essay on, say, "The Elephant."

The subject is so simple that we need not spend any time defining it. What is wanted is evidently a Descriptive Essay, and all we have to do is to think of all we can say about the Elephant.

So we can set to work at once catching and caging our birds, or, in other words, jotting down, as they come into our mind, all we can remember about elephants. The thoughts may come to us something like this, and we will put them down and number them as they occur to us.

THE ELEPHANT

1. Largest of all animals.
2. Used in tiger-hunting.
3. Revengeful–story of tailor and elephant.
4. Its trunk and large ears.
5. Found in India and Africa–two kinds.
6. Its skill in piling logs.
7. Its great strength.
8. In India, used in state processions.
9. How caught and tamed.
10. Mad elephants.
11. Elephant grass.
12. Its tusks–hunted for ivory.
13. Howdah and mahout.
14. Story of blind men and elephant.
15. In old times used in war.
16. Its intelligence.
17. Feeds on leaves and grass.

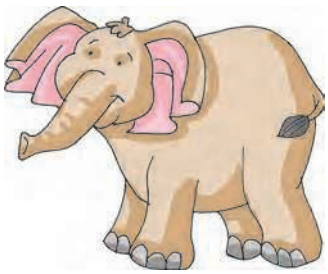

18. Decoy elephants, and *Keddahs.*

19. Can draw heavy loads.

Here is plenty of material ; but it is in no order, and it will want a lot of sifting before it can be used. We must examine all these details to see which are suitable and arrange them.

A little scrutiny will show that they may be *arranged in groups* under different headings.

Nos. 1, 4, 7, 12, and 16 are parts of a *description* of an elephant.

Nos. 2, 6, 8 (with 13), 12, 15 and 19 refer to different ways in which elephants are of *use* to man.

Nos. 7 and 16 give reasons why the elephant is useful to man.

Nos. 9, 12 and 18 refer to the *hunting* of the elephant.

Nos. 5 and 17 mention the *habitat* and food of the elephant.

We have now classified all the points except Nos. 3, 10, 11 and 14. As to No. 11, it is of no use to us, as the grass referred to gets its name simply from its great size. No. 14 would be too long ; and besides the story is not so much about the elephant as an illustration of the fact that truth is many-sided. No. 10 might be brought in incidentally, and perhaps taken along with No. 3 ; but we may have more than enough material without them.

Already something like an outline is emerging from the disorderly mass of material. We see how we may group the different items under such heads as Description, Habitat, Uses, Hunting, etc. Very soon some such provisional bare outline as this may suggest itself.

BARE OUTLINE

1. Description
2. Habitat and food
3. How and why hunted
4. Strength and intelligence, making elephant useful to man
5. Its different uses

Now we must fill in this bare outline by grouping the various points under the main heads. In doing this, we may find occasion to modify or alter the bare outline, and additional details may suggest themselves.

FULL OUTLINE
THE ELEPHANT

1. *Description*–(Nos. 1, 4, 7, 12)
   Great size and strength ; trunk (its uses) ; big ears ; small tail ; tusks ; speed
2. *Habitat*–(Nos. 5 and 17)
   Found in Africa and India ; two kinds ; lives in herds ; feeds on leaves and grass in jungles
3. *Of great use to man* (because of its strength and intelligence)–(Nos. 7 and 16)
   Different uses :
   (*a*) Draws heavy loads (No. 19)
   (*b*) Piles logs (No. 6)
   (*c*) Used in tiger-hunting (No. 2) ; howdah and mahout (No. 13)
   (*d*) Used in battles in old days (No. 15)
   (*e*) Used in state processions in India (No. 8)
4. *Elephant hunting*–Why and how
   (*a*) Hunted for ivory with elephant guns (No. 12)

(*b*) Caught alive to be tamed (No. 9)–Decoy elephants entice herd into *Keddahs* (No. 18)

The outline will be quite long enough for an ordinary school essay; so we had better omit some of the points we first jotted down and marked as doubtful, *viz.,* Nos. 3, 10, 11 and 14. This illustrates the necessity for selection.

When we come to write the essay, we must keep this outline before us as a guide ; but, unless we are required to do so, the outline should not appear in the fair copy of the essay. (In examinations, the outline can be written on the left-hand page of the answer-book, on which scribbling is allowed.)

WRITING THE ESSAY

1. ***Paragraphs***–Every essay should be divided into paragraphs, and each heading should have at least one paragraph to itself. An essay not thus paragraphed looks unattractive, and is not easy to read.

   [A paragraph is a group of related sentences that develop a single point. In constructing a paragraph these principles should be kept in view :–(*i*) *Unity.* The paragraph must treat of one subject only. (*ii*) *Variety.* Paragraphs should not all be of the same length or of the same monotonous structure . (*iii*) *Logical sequence of thought.* (*iv*) *Topical sentence.* The most important sentences of a paragraph are the first and the last. In many paragraphs the first sentence states the subject, and is called the *topical sentence* (or key-sentence). The concluding sentence may sum up effectively what has been said in the paragraph.]

2. ***Structure of an Essay***–We may divide an essay into three parts—the Introduction, the Body of the Essay, and the Conclusion.

   (*a*) ***The Introduction***–This, in a short essay, must be very brief. It would be absurd to have the porch bigger than the building itself. It may be simply a sentence, or a very short paragraph. But it should always be arresting and pertinent to the subject. The introduction may consist of a definition or a quotation, proverb, very brief story, or general remark, leading up to the subject.

   (*b*) ***The Body of the Essay***–This is really the essay itself—the house to which the introduction is the front door, and the conclusion the back door, or exit.

   In arranging the body of the essay *observe proportion* ; that is, let each part have due weight given to it. If the subject is "The good and bad influence of Newspapers," do not devote three-quarters of the essay to good influences and so leave only a quarter for the bad. Closely follow your full outline throughout.

   The *paragraphs* should be well constructed and should be related to one another according to the direction of your outline ; and, as far as possible, the connection between one and another should be shown. Avoid "padding" and keep to the point.

   Take pains in selecting *words* and *phrases* which exactly express the ideas which you have in mind ; and frame your *sentences* so that they are quite clear and forceful.

   Avoid the use of unneccessary words. In revising your essay, look out for useless repetitions and redundant expressions, and strike them out.

   Match the words to the sense, and adapt the style to the subject-matter. Do not write frivolously on a serious subject, or ponderously on a light and humorous subject.

   (c) ***The Conclusion***–As the introduction should arouse interest, the conclusion should satisfy it. An effective and satisfying end to an essay is as important as an arresting beginning. An abrupt or feeble ending may spoil the whole effect of the essay. A good conclusion may consist of :– (*a*) a summing up of the arguments of the essay ; (*b*) final conclusion drawn from the subject-matter ; (*c*) a suitable quotation ; (*d*) a sentence that strikingly expresses the main point you want to drive home.

3. **Finally, a few words about your *Style in Writing***–To acquire a simple, direct and forceful style in writing calls for constant practice. It does not come "by nature." As the poet Pope says:

   "True ease in writing comes from art, not chance ;

   As those move easiest who have learned to dance.''

   The secret of clear writing is clear thinking. So, be perfectly clear about what you want to say, and then *say it*–as directly, as simply, as concisely as possible. *Be direct* : use short sentences in preference to long and involved periods. *Be simple* : don't attempt any oratory or flowery language but use simple words and constructions and avoid elaborate and superfluous words ; say what you want to say as tersely as is consistent with making your

meaning clear. Never use two words where one (the *right* one) will do. *Be natural* : don't try to imitate any author's style, however eloquent, but *be yourself.*

SUMMARY OF METHOD OF PROCEDURE

To sum up:

1. Clearly define your subject in your own mind.
2. Think over it, until ideas about it come into your mind, and jot the points down on paper as they occur to you–numbering them.
3. Classify these points in groups under suitable headings, rejecting any that are unsuitable.
4. Arrange these headings in a bare outline.
5. Fill in the ouline, making a full outline.
6. Now begin to write the essay, dividing it into paragraphs.
7. The essay should consist of introduction, body and conclusion.
   (*a*) Make the introduction arresting.
   (*b*) Keep the parts of the body of the essay in proper proportion; and take pains in choosing words, constructing sentences and building up paragraphs.
   (*c*) Make the conclusion effective and satisfying.
8. Write in a simple, concise, clear, direct and natural style.

1. HOLIDAYS

There is not much need of proving to most schoolboys that holidays are necessary. They are quite convinced that they are–and most desirable, too. They welcome a holiday from school with hilarious joy, and plague the headmaster on the least excuse to let them off their lessons. It would be more in place to try to convince them of the necessity of work and study. Yet it may be desirable to show that regular intervals of rest, recreation, or a change of occupation are really necessary. As the old rhyme says,

> "All work and no play,
>
> Makes Jack a dull boy.''
>
> Holidays at proper intervals are especially necessary for young people, and for those engaged in hard mental work ; for continuous work, without a break, will injure the health, and may cause a nervous breakdown. A short holiday, rightly used, will send us back to our work with renewed zest and vigour.

"Rightly used." It all depends upon that. For holidays may be abused. If the holiday is spent in stupid idleness, or in an exhausting round of exciting amusements, or shut up in close stuffy rooms drinking and playing, or in any other unhealthy way, the boy or man will come back to his work tired, listless, and uninterested. The holiday, instead of doing good, has done harm, much more harm than steady work could ever do.

How can a holiday, then, be best used, so that at the end of it we shall come back to or work with energies renewed and interest keener than ever ? If we are students, or have been shut up in stuffy offices, we should get away into the pure air of the country and live a healthy, open air life, enjoying games or sports. We should avoid unhealthy amusement, keep early hours and get plenty of refreshing sleep. And we should not be completely idle. Change of occupation is a rest. And if we have a little regular work to do, work that we take an interest in, it will make our holiday not only healthier, but more enjoyable.

2. BOOKS AND READING

Happy is the man who acquires the habit of reading when he is young. He has secured a life-long source of pleasure, instruction and inspiration. So long as he has his beloved books, he need never feel lonely. He always has a pleasant occupation of leisure moments, so that he need never feel bored. He is the possessor of wealth more precious than gold. Ruskin calls books. "Kings' Treasures"–treasuries filled, not with gold and silver and precious stones, but

with riches much more valuable than these–knowledge, noble thoughts and high ideals. Poor indeed is the man who does not read, and empty is his life.

The blessings which the reading habit confers on its possessor are many provided we choose the right kind of books. Reading gives the highest kind of pleasure. Some books we read simply for pleasure and amusement–for example, good novels. And novels and books of imagination must have their place in everybody's reading. When we are tired, or the brain is weary with serious study, it is a healthy recreation to lose ourselves in some absorbing story written by a master hand.

But to read nothing but books of fiction is like eating nothing but cakes and sweetmeats. As we need plain, wholesome food for the body, so we must have serious reading for the mind. And here we can choose according to our taste. There are many noble books on history, biography, philosophy, religion, travel, and science which we ought to read, and which will give us not only pleasure but an education. And we can develop a taste for serious reading, so that in the end it will give us more solid pleasure than even novels and books of fiction. Nor should poetry be neglected, for the best poetry gives us noble thoughts and beautiful imaginings clothed in lovely and musical language.

Books are the most faithful of friends. Our friends may change, or die ; but our books are always patiently waiting to talk to us. They are never cross, peevish, or unwilling to converse, as our friends sometimes are. No wonder a reader becomes a "book-lover."

3. A VISIT TO A BOOK FAIR

The year 2002 was declared "The year of Books" by the National Book Trust of India. With this note the nation's capital played the host to the World Book Fair at the Trade Fair Pragati Maidan.

On hearing this my friends and I expressed our eagerness to go and watch this mega festival. Our principal readily agreed and students went by batches to be a part of this grand event. The inaugural day was marked with a walk from the Parliament House to the Trade Fair Grounds.

The book fair was indeed a spectacle to watch. There were hoardings everywhere "All for books and books for all". Each hall was segmented into many stalls managed by the respective publishing houses. Over the years I was told by our principal about the increasing number of publishing houses. We had local publishers, national publishers and international publishers. The book fair attracted a large number of men and women and a much larger number of children.

While the stalls, had the art of finesse, each stall was a delight to watch. They displayed children's books, subject oriented books, books on language and literature, books on performing arts, science and technology books, software and hardware books, books on Finance and Management, books on anatomy and medicine, books on law and income tax, academic books and sponsored books. To top them all was a huge collection of dictionaries.

While every stall was impressive, what attracted us most was the special seating arrangement made for enthusiastic readers by S. Chand and Company Ltd,. To add to this we were all served with a cup of coffee, everyone of us. The coffee relieved our fatigue and we were two steps and thirty miles away from the rest of the world. There were cafeterias and ice cream parlours, I bought some books which appealed to me. As the clock struck eight. I walked home with the feeling of Francis Bacon's memorable words: "Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man and writing an exact man".

I wish we hosted to such book fairs three times a year so that we can be stimulated to read more and more books and broaden our visions.

4. A HOUSE ON FIRE

I had never seen a house on fire before. So, one evening when I heard fire engines with loud alarm bells rushing past my house, I quickly ran out and, a few streets away, joined a large crowd of people ; but we could see the fire only from a distance because the police would not allow any one near the building on fire.

What a terrible scene I saw that day ! Huge flames of fire were coming out of each floor, and black and thick smoke spread all around. Every now and then tongues of fire would shoot up almost sky-high, sending huge sparks of fire round-about.

Three fire engines were busily engaged and the firemen in their dark uniform

were playing the hose on various parts of the building. The rushing water from several hoses soaked the building but it did not seem to have any effect on the flames. Then the tall red ladders of the fire engine were stretched upwards and I could see some firemen climbing up with hoses in their hands. On reaching almost the top of the ladder, they began to pour floods of water on the topmost part of the building. This continuous flooding brought the fire under control but the building was completely destroyed.

While fire is a blessing in many ways, it can also be a great danger to human life and property.

5. THE ELEPHANT

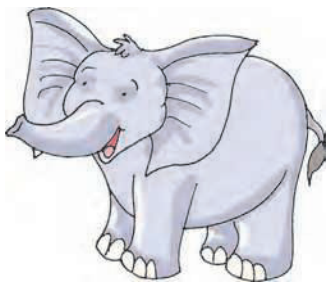

Now that the mammoth is extinct, the elephant is the largest of all animals living. and the strongest. It is a strange-looking animal, with its thick legs, huge sides and back, large hanging ears, small tail, little eyes, long white tusks, and, above all, its long nose, called the trunk. The trunk is the elephant's peculiar feature, and it puts it to various uses. It draws up water by its trunk, and can squirt it all over its body like a shower bath; and with it, it picks leaves from the trees and puts them into its mouth. In fact, its trunk serves the elephant as a long arm and hand. Elephants look very clumsy and heavy, and yet they can move very quickly when they like.

Elephants are found in India and in Africa. The African elephant differs in some points from the Indian, being larger, with longer tusks and bigger ears. In fact, the two are considered to be different species. In both countries, they live in herds in the jungles, and are naturally shy animals that keep away from men. Elephants, with their great size and strength, are fine advertisement for vegetarianism, for they live entirely on leaves of trees, grass, roots and bulbs.

The elephant is a very intelligent animal, and its intelligence combined with its great strength, makes it, when tamed, a very useful servant to man ; and it has been trained to serve in various ways.

Elephants can carry heavy loads about a thousand seers each ; and they are used to draw heavy wagons and big guns that would require many horses. They are very skilful, too, in piling timber. The trained elephant will kneel down, lift a heavy log of wood with its tusks, carry it to the place where it is wanted, and lay it exactly in position.

Elephants are also trained for tiger-hunting. The huntsmen sit in the *howdah* on the back of the elephant, which is driven and guided by the driver, called the *mahout,* who squats on its neck. In this way the hunters are carried through the thickest, and at such a height that they can see and fire at the tiger when it is driven out.

In old days elephants were used in battles, and all Indian Rajas had their regiments of trained fighting elephants. And they still have their place in state processions, when they are painted with bright colours and covered with silk and velvet clothes.

In Africa elephants are hunted mainly for their tusks, which are made of ivory and are very valuable. Their skins are so thick that an ordinary bullet will not pierce them ; and so large guns, called elephant-guns, are used to kill the animals.

Many elephants are caught alive to be tamed and trained. But catching elephants alive is difficult and dangerous work ; for, though the elephant is a shy, wild animal when left alone, it can be a dangerous enemy when attacked. Elephants are generally caught alive in great traps or enclosures, called *keddahs.* They are either driven into these *keddahs,* or led into them by tame elephants, called decoys, which are trained to lead their wild brothers into captivity.

6. POPULATION GROWTH

One major problem that faces the world today is the rapid growth of population, often referred to as population explosion. Until about 800 AD the world's population stayed below 200 million. Since then it has risen dramatically. The rise has been greatest in the 20th century. The population has recently risen to about six billion: it is three times as large as it was in 1960. It is not so much the actual population as its rate of increase that is alarming. Experts predict that by 2020 there will be about ten billion people, causing serious problems of hunger, overcrowding and environmental pollution.

This enormous increase of population is due to better food, better hygiene and, above all, the advances made in medicine. Rapid developments in modern medicine have

conquered many diseases and consequently the death rate has decreased. Until the beginning of the 19th century most people died before the age of 50. Today in developed countries the average lifespan has risen to more than 70 years. The population goes on increasing at an alarming rate in spite of the practice of birth control in many parts of the world. Thomas Malthus, a British mathematician and economist, went to the extent of declaring that, if unchecked, human population would grow in geometric progression (*i.e.* 1, 2, 4, 8 and so on) while food production could only grow in arithmetic progression (*i.e.* 1, 2, 3, 4 and so on). He was, of course, very pessimistic.

With a population of over one billion, India is the second most populous country in the world. (China is the first.) India's population has risen drastically since 1950: the population today is 2½ times as large as it was in 1950. It is rising by 2.9 per cent per year, and in consequence, every year an extra 26 million people have to be provided for. The government is taking measures to check the population growth and a large percentage of people practise birth control. Recent advances in farming have made the country productive enough to feed the present population. Failure to arrest further increase of population may have disastrous effects, though there seems to be some truth in the statement made by Julian Simon of the University of Maryland: according to him, although population growth means there will be more mouths to feed, there will be "more hands to work and more brains to think."

7. "SPREADING GREENERY FOR A HEALTHY LIVING"

'A thing of beauty is a joy for ever'

John Keats

The grandeur of a drawing room and a living room is best felt when there is an element of nature's pride possession - a tree, or an indoor plant, or even for that matter a sapling. Children as of now get to see less of greenery and more of technologically driven software parks. Fortunately we have come to a point where we can bring the world of flora to our homes.

In the emerging world scenario, interior decoration has become a passion and a dictum for healthy living. The art of planting in small pots with its branches neatly trimmed gives rise to small neat structures of plants. These plants are easy to grow indoors as long as they have soil, air, light and water. Plants can be grown in the house all year round. Of late Bonsai have attracted the attention of one and all. Botanists say that bonsai are ornamental trees or shrubs grown in a pot and artifically prevented from reaching their normal size. The Japanese specialise in bonsai and Ikebana. The latter flowers are displayed according to strict rules.

EXERCISE 150

Write a short essay on:

1. Old Custom. 2. The Kangaroo. 3. School Games. 4. Fairy Tales. 5. Space Travel. 6. The Pleasures of Reading. 7. Popular Superstitutions. 8. The Use and Abuse of Leisure. 9. Life in a Big City : Its Advantages and Disadvantages. 10. Advertising : Its Uses and Abuses. 11. The Book You Like Best. 12. Travel as a Part of Education. 13. My Role Model. 14. The Best Way of Spending Holidays. 15. The Telephone. 16. The Internet. 17. Pollution. 18. The Narmada. 19. Traffic Jams. 20. Your Favourite Hobbies. 21. Counselling in Schools. 22. The Importance of the Study of Geography. 23. No Man is a Judge of His Own Merits. 24. Safety First. 25. The Use and Abuse of Strikes. 26. Scouting for Boys. 27. The Uses of Paper. 28. India in the New Millennium. 29. Hijacking of an Aeroplane. 30. My Greatest Wish. 31. The Influence of Cable Television Network in India. 32. The Cyber Revolution. 33. Nuclear Disarmament. 34. A Metro Station. 35. A Wet Day. 36. The Uses of Rubber. 37. A Visit to a Place of Historic Interest. 38. India in 2020.

EXERCISE 151

Write a short essay on:

1. Should boys learn to cook ? 2. Is life for us better than it was for our forefathers ? 3. The Olympic Games. 4. Is life in the city preferable to life in the country ? 5. Street hawkers. 6. Should games be compulsory for schoolboys ? 7. An important day in my life. 8. How you hope to continue your education when you leave school? 9. What do you think is the most enjoyable month of the year ? Say why you think so. 10. Playing the game. 11. Examination day. 12. Good manners. 13. How to keep fit? 14. The conquest of the air. 15. Ghosts and ghost stories. 16. An Excursion. 17. The dream I should like to have. 18. Milk. 19. Adventure in a Space Craft. 20. Fresh air. 21. Pocket-money. 22. My country. 23. Aeroplanes. 24. The care of the teeth. 25. Our duty to the backward communities in our country. 26. Some desirable improvements in your home town. 27. An English dictionary. 28. Walking tours. 29. The influence of the cinema. 30. Electricity in the service of man.

31. The Influence of Television on our Lives. 32. The value and purpose of a school debating society. 33. The housing of the working classes. 34. "The man who will succeed in life is he who can adapt himself easily." 35. Some wonders of modern science. 36. The educational possibilities of "broadcasting." 37. "Gluttony kills more than a sword."
38. The fascination of a great city.

Chapter 41 AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

A Biography is the history of the life of a person written by someone else (*e.g.,* Southey's "Life of Nelson," Boswell's "Life of Johnson," etc.). An Autobiography is the history of the life of a person written by himself (*e.g.,* John Stewart Mill's "Autobiography").

In the following exercises, the pupil is asked to use his imagination by pretending to be another person, an animal, or an inanimate object, and to invent an autobiography of him or it. He must consider himself to be the animal or object, and, in the first person, write as that particular animal or object might be supposed to tell its own story.

The story must be made as interesting as possible and told in simple language, such as in everyday talk.

SPECIMENS

1. THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A EURO

As soon as I entered this fascinating world I was looked upon with great expectations. The world was full of racism yet [and even if I occupy a place] I was held in high esteem. People from the United States of America to Antartica looked at me as I soon rolled out from the parentage of Europeans. Since economists, raging bulls and bears did not know much about me, I caught the apprehension of my parents, the share market holders, the financial experts, scholars, students and so on. On my birth I was placed on the lap of my mother the Federal Bank.

Frankly, my brother Lira, my sister sterling and my extended family members like the Deutsche Mark the Yen were quite jealous of me. I know my worth I reveal this secret of mine. I am a form of money held or traded outsided the country, in whose currency its value is stated. In future I would be globally acceptable by the members of all the the nations.

I now take pride of place in the Euromarket, a financial market which deals with European currencies. I do not want to roll over but I'd love to be accepted by the developing as well as underdeveloped nations.

2. THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A HORSE

Now that I am getting old and stiff in the joints, I like to meditate, while grazing in the pasture, on my foal days. I think that was the happiest part of my life. I had no work to do, and could run about after my mother, who was a fine white Arab mare, without any restraint. Most of my time was spent in the fields, where I nibbled the tender grass and capered about, while my mother was steadily grazing.

But that could not last for ever. When I was old enough, the trainer came and, to my great indignation, fastened a long rope to my head, and then began driving me round and round in circles with his long whip. I was frightened and angry, but he went on till I was so tired that I could scarcely stand. However, my mother told me that it was no use my resisting, and to make a long story short, I was at last thoroughly trained as a riding-horse.

I was bought by a young officer as a polo pony, and I soon got to love the game. He was a kind master, and a good rider ; and in the end I would do anything for him, and was quite proud when his side won the game. But he got into debt, and had to sell me ; and I was bought by a gentleman and a lady who kept a buggy, and was trained to run in shafts. I hated this work ; and I am afraid I gave a lot of trouble, by going as slowly as I could.

When my driver gave me the whip, I started shying at any object on the road. And then I found that jibbing was a very good trick, and whenever I was whipped, I simply backed. My owner got disgusted at last, and sold me to a gentleman who was fond of hunting.

I was delighted to get back to saddle-work ; and thoroughly enjoyed my gallops with the hounds after the jackal in open country. But an accident put a stop to that jolly life; for one day my master pressed me to a big jump which I knew I could not do. I did my best but fell short, and fell. My master was thrown and broke his arm, and I badly sprained one of my legs.

I was in hospital for weeks, and then was sold to a gentleman who wanted a quiet riding-horse. He was a kind master, and used me well ; and I was in his service for a good number of years. Now I am old, he gives me very little work, and I spend most of my time grazing in the pasture, and leading a quiet, contented life.

EXERCISE 152

Write autobiographies of the following.

1. **A Bee**–(Read up something about the habits of hive-bees ; then bring in the various duties of the worker-bee ; feeding and tending larvae (young), strong honey, sweeping hive, guarding, fetching nectar from flowers to make honey, etc.)
2. **An Ant**–(On the same lines.)
3. **A St. Bernard Dog**–(Training as a puppy by monks of St. Bernard to rescue travellers lost in snow ; describe the dog ; sent out with flask of brandy fastened round its neck ; some of the dog's adventures)
4. **A Sheep Dog**–(Training by the shepherd to look after flock ; as young dog, imitates his mother in her work; learns to understand the shepherd's sign and verbal orders ; knows each sheep, and can pick out and bring whichever the shepherd wants ; can separate certain numbers from others ; drives sheep to pastures, and into fold at night ; guards flock against enemies)
5. **An Elephant**–(Wildlife in jungle when young ; how caught in *keddah* by decoy; training ; its work : carrying loads, piling logs, drawing carts, carrying hunters in tiger-shooting, marching in state processions, etc.)
6. **A Rose Tree**–[Early cultivation ; the first pruning resented ; learns later it is necessary for producing fine flowers ; gets rich manure ; learns that cultivation makes it different from wild rose ; suffers from disease, like greenfly, blight, etc. ; how gardener cures it ; produces splendid red roses ; much admired ; next year, some blooms gain prize at Flower Show ; cuttings taken (its children), etc.]
7. **A Watch**–(Describe–silver watch ; in jeweller's shop ; other watches its companions ; *e.g.,* proud gold watch, humble gun-metal watch, repeating watches, wrist watches, etc. Bought as present for young man ; stolen out of his pocket ; sold by thief; put in pawnshop ; bought by man ; falls sick and goes to hospital. *i.e.,* jeweller's–new main spring)
8. **A River**–(Rises as spring in mountains, or from a glacier ; mountain torrent, rocky bed, water-falls, tributaries, swollen when snow melts ; reaches plains ; slow steady river ; cultivated fields on banks ; irrigation canals taken off ; passes villages and small towns ; flows through a big town ; pollution of waters ; boats and ships; fall into sea at big port, etc.)
9. **A Kite or Hawk**–(Young in a nest in a tall tree, fed by mother and fatherkite ; how it learns to fly ; hunting its prey–mice, chickens, small birds ; teased by crows and minas ; chooses mate ; builds nest ; etc.)
10. **A Fish** (Salmon)–(Its youth as a smelt in river ; journey to the sea ; returns up river leaping weirs ; chooses a mate ; grows big ; fished for ; how it is deceived by bait; nearly hooked ; escapes and vows to take no more baits; its enemies ; proud of being king of river fishes, etc.)

EXERCISE 153

Write autobiographies of:

1. A Camel. 2. A Spider. 3. A Donkey. 4. A Tiger. 5. A Seagull 6. A Kingfisher. 7. A Caterpillar and Butterfly. 8. A Sword. 9. A Steam-engine. 10. A House. 11. A Motor-car. 12. An Aeroplane. 13. A Crocodile. 14. A Crow. 15. A Steamship. 16. A Cobra. 17. A Buffalo. 18. A Plough. 19. A Child's Toy. 20. A Rifle.

EXERCISE 154

Tell the life-story of each one of the following as told by itself.

1. A Piece of Coal. 2. An Owl. 3. A Pariah Dog. 4. A Parrot. 5. A Cocoanut Tree. 6. A Banyan Tree. 7. A Television 8- Supermarket 9. An Airport. 10. A Stadium.

Chapter 42 DIALOGUE-WRITING

A Dialogue literally means "talk between two people". Dialogue-writing is a useful form of composition, especially for the Indian student who is trying to gain a command of spoken English. Under proper guidance, it should introduce him to the colloquial way of talking English, and train him to express his thoughts in easy and natural constructions. The spoken English of the Indian school-boy is too often rather stilted and bookish, owing to the fact that he has not much chance of talking with English people ; and anything that will help him to acquire naturalness and ease in speaking in English is of value.

To write a dialogue successfully, calls for a little dramatic power; for the writer has not only to see both sides of a question, but has also to put himself, so to speak, inside two imaginary persons so as to make them express their opposite opinions naturally and in keeping with their characters. He has in turn to be each one, and see the point of view of each on the question.

A written dialogue should be so composed that it appears to be spontaneous or impromptu. The reader of it should not feel that it is premeditated, stilted and dull.

At the same time, careful preparation is necessary for writing a dialogue, though this must not appear. The writer must have the art to conceal his art. It is always advisable to make a plan or outline of the dialogue before beginning to write ; otherwise the dialogue may be rambling and pointless.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

1. Carefully think over the subject given, and jot down briefly the arguments or opinions about it which might reasonably be expressed by the imaginary persons who are supposed to be talking.
2. Arrange these ideas in some logical order, so that one will arise naturally from another in the course of the conversation. (It is well to write down these points in the form of an outline, or numbered heads, as a guide to follow in writing the dialogue.)
3. Try to imagine what would be the way in which each character in the dialogue would express his views. To do this, you must have in your mind a clear idea of the imaginary persons taking part in the conversation, so as to make them speak in character. (For instance, in Specimen No. 2, Swarup, the bookish student talks in a different way from Dulip Singh, the athletic student.)
4. Keep in mind that your dialogue, when completed, should read like a real, spontaneous conversation. So try to make your imaginary characters talk in an easy, familiar and natural manner. Avoid stilted and bookish phrases. Try to remember how real people talk in friendly conversation, and reproduce that conversational style as well as you can.

SPECIAL HINTS

1. (*a*) Don't let any of your characters monopolize the conversation, as if he were giving a public lecture. Give all a chance, and keep the ball rolling. Let the conversation be brisk and rapid.

   (*b*) In real conversation, one person sometimes interrupts the other, or breaks in on what he is saying. A sparing use of such interruptions in written dialogue is quite permissible, and adds to its naturalness.

For example:

A.–"I am perfectly certain he would never do such thing. Why, only the other day he told me–"
B.–"I don't care what he told you ! I know for a fact that he did it."

(*c*) In real conversation, a speaker often answers a question by asking another ; or sometimes, seeing what is coming, he answers a question before it is asked. You may enliven your dialogue by making your characters do the same now and then.

For example:

(*i*) A.–"What will you do if he does not answer your letter ?"

B.–"Well, what would *you* do ?"

(*ii*) D.–"I heard something about you the other day, John."

J.–"I know ! You are going to ask me why I was absent from office last Monday. Well, I will tell you–etc."

(*d*) In real conversation, people often use exclamations, surprise (*e.g.,* "My word !" "Good heavens !" "You don't say so !" "Well" etc.); irritation (*e.g.,* "Bother !" "O dear !" "Confound it !"); pleasure ("How nice !" "Splendid !")–and so on. Such interjections may be introduced from time to time, *sparingly ;* but the use of them should not be overdone. (*Note*–Slang and profane words should be avoided.)

2. The dialogue should begin in an interesting way, so that the reader's attention may be arrested from the very first. And the conversation should lead up to some definite conclusion. It should not end abruptly and in the air, so to speak. Special attention should be paid to the opening sentences and the conclusion.

3. The fact that language should be as far as possible colloquial does not, of course, mean that it may be ungrammatical. However free-and-easy the style in which the persons in the dialogue are made to talk, they must talk good English. They must not, for example, be made to use such expressions as, "He asked my brother and *I* to tea," or "Can I give you *an advice*?"

4. Keeping these points in view, write your dialogue in as natural, interesting and realistic a manner as possible. The whole conversation should be brief, and the questions and replies as concise and pointed as possible.

SPECIMENS

1. *A conversation between two boys, one of whom is habitually despondent and thinks that luck is against him, whereas the other is of a more practical turn of mind.*

Nasarullah Jan–Come, Hussain, you are taking your failure too much to heart. I know it is a great disappointment, and I sympathize with you ; but you must not allow it to make you so unhappy.

Mohd. Hussain–It is all very well for a lucky chap like you, Nasarullah. You have passed the first time, and this is my second failure. You would not feel so cheery if you were in my place.

N.J.–I know ; but you must pull yourself together, and make up your mind you will pass next time. Remember the old saying "If at first you don't succeed, try, try, again!"

M.H.–I think the other version of the saying has more sense in it,"If at first you don't succeed, quit, quit, quit, at once !"

N.J.–Oh nonsense ! You'll never do anything if you don't persevere. Now why do you think you failed ?

M.H.–All this year fate has been against me. First, I was ill with enteric, which lost me a whole term. Then just before my examination, my father died, and that so upset me that I could not prepare properly.

N.J.–Well, you certainly did have bad luck, I am sorry. But I am sure you will succeed next time ; so you must make up your mind to win through.

M.H.–It's no use. I think I was born unlucky. I seem to fail in everything I touch. I tried several times to get a scholarship, but some other boy always got it instead. I shall give it up.

N.J.–Indeed, you must not. Remember it's the darkest hour before the dawn. Often when things are at the worst, they begin to improve. I don't believe in all the talk about bad and good luck. A brave man makes his own luck. You have a year before you ; you have brains, and if you will only pull yourself together and put your heart into your work, you will win through.

M.H.–I wish I had your disposition. Still, I will take your advice and have another try.

N.J.–That's the style ! And I am sure you will succeed and break your so-called "bad luck" once for all.

2. *An imaginary conversation between a bookish student and an athletic student on the comparative merits of mental and physical culture.*

Dulip Singh–Hello, Swarup ! Swotting away as usual. Come out, man ; shut up your old books, and come and have a game of tennis.

Swarup–I am sorry I cannot do that, Dulip. The examination is drawing near, and I want every hour I can get for study.

Dulip Singh–Oh! hang all examinations ! I do not worry about mine. What is the use of them, anyway ?

Swarup–Well, you can't get a degree if you don't pass the examination; and I have set my heart on being a B.A.

Dulip Singh–And pray what good will B.A. do you ? You may get a clerkship in a government office ; but that's all. And there are hundreds of fellows who have got their degrees, and are no nearer getting jobs of any sort.

Swarup–That may be so; but I am not studying so much to pass my examination and obtain my degree, as to store my mind with knowledge and develop my intellectual faculties.

Dulip Singh–My word ! How fine you "highbrows" can talk !Develop my intellectual faculties,! I tell you, all a man wants to get on in the world is some brains, plain common sense, and plenty of push. And you can't learn these things from books. And while you are "developing your intellectual faculties," you are spoiling your health. You will soon be a thin, white, narrow-chested, half-blind weakling if you stick to your beloved books like this. Look at my broad chest and feel my biceps ! Anyway, I am developing my physical powers with my games and athletics.

Swarup–Well, if I have to choose, I would rather have a learned and cultivated mind than a strong and well-developed body ; for the mind is far more important than the body.

Dulip Singh–Oh ! I see ! You mean to say that a man who plays football and hockey and is as strong as a horse, cannot have any brains ?

Swarup–I did not say that ; but you may remember what Kipling said about "Muddied oafs and flannelled fools."

Dulip Singh–Well, I must say you are very complimentary ! Kipling must have been an ass if he said that. Anyway I would rather be "a muddied oaf" than a whitefaced, spectacled bookworm, as blind as an owl.

Their teacher (coming in).–Hello! What are you two fellows quarreling about?

[*They explained.*]

Teacher–I see. Well, you are both right and both wrong. Swarup, a little more physical exercise will do you good and will not interfere with your mental culture ; and Dulip Singh, a little more study will not in any way spoil your physical strength. So, go and have a game of tennis, Swarup ; and afterwards you, Dulip, settle down to a few hours' study.

3. *A dialogue between a countryman and a townsman, bringing out the comparative advantages of town and country life.*

Smith–Good morning, Mr. Jones. It is a long time since I saw you in town. Are you staying long ?

Jones–Good morning. No, Mr. Smith, I only came up on business for a few hours, and hope to get home again this evening.

Smith–Running away so soon ? Why not stay a few days and enjoy yourself ?

Jones–Not me. I don't find much enjoyment in the smoky air of a town, and all its noise and racket. Give me the clean air, the sunshine, and the quiet of the country.

Smith–Well, I grant you have the advantage of purer air in the ountry; but as for noise, you soon get used to it. In fact, I could not stand your quiet–it would drive me crazy. I like to feel plenty of life and movement about me.

Jones–Really ? Why, I could not get a wink of sleep in a noisy town. And towns are so ugly–nothing to see but ugly smoke-grimed houses, dreary streets, hideous advertisements on every hoarding, factory chimneys belching smoke, and a dull, smoky sky. I have the beauty of the green fields and shady woods and flowery meadows of the country.

Smith–Ah ! my friend, but do not forget what Dr. Johnson said : "When you have seen one green field you have seen all green fields ; come with me down Fleet Street and study man."

Jones–Well, all I can say is that Dr. Johnson never saw a green field in his life, or he would have known that there is an infinite variety in nature if you have the eyes to see it.

Smith–But what in the world do you do with yourself in your village ? It must be a very dull and slow life, with no theatres, no concerts, no cinemas, no public lectures, no exciting political meetings. You must lead a stupid vegetable life, like a cabbage.

Jones–Not so stupid and dull as you imagine. I have my garden, which is a great source of pleasure ; and there is fishing, and a little hunting. And then I love tramping over the hills, and seeing the beautiful scenery. And in the evenings I have my books.

Smith–Well, every man to his taste ; but to me yours would be a dull life.

Jones–Dull or not, it is much healthier. In the pure country, we do not get the epidemics and dirt-produced diseases you have in the towns. And our quiet habits give us longer lives.

Smith–Yes, you may live longer in the country. But you don't get so much out of life as we do in town. A short life and a merry one, I say.

4. *A dialogue between two boys discussing their hobbies.*

George–I am in luck, Will. My uncle has just sent me a letter from Japan, where he is on business, with some Japanese stamps. He knows I collect them and often sends me foreign stamps from the places he visits.

Will–They look rather nice. Are you going to paste them in your album ?

George–Yes, here it is. I have got quite a nice collection now.

Will–What a lot ! French, Italian, Dutch, German, American, Turkish. You seem to have some from almost every country.

George–Oh ! there are a lot I have not got yet. And some rare ones are very expensive, and cost pounds of money.

Will–But what is the use of collecting stamps ?

George–Oh ! Well, it's a hobby. And it teaches you some geography ; and sometimes it brings money.

Will–How is that ?

George–Why, a really good collection sometimes sells for hundreds of pounds. Why don't you go in for stamp-collecting ?

Will–I like something more active. My hobby is collecting ferns and wild flowers. And to get these you have to go long country walks, and explore the woods, and climb the hills. It is quite an adventure when you find a rare plant or fern in some wild place.

George–But what do you do with them when you get them ?

Will–I press them, and then mount them neatly on sheets of paper, and name them. I have got quite a nice collection.

George–How do you press them ?

Will–I lay the fern or plant between sheets of blotting-paper, and put them in a press, or under a board with heavy weights. You have to change the blotting-paper every day, and in about a week the plant is dried and pressed, and will last like that for years.

George–And what is the good of your hobby ?

Will–Well, it teaches me a lot of botany ; and takes me into beautiful country; and does me good physically, because it means exercise in the open air.

5. *A dialogue between a master and a pupil on public speaking.*

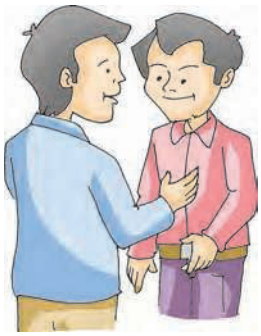

Master–Well Ram Narain, I hear you are taking part in the speaking competition.

Pupil–Yes, Sir ; and I came to ask you to give me some hints on the art of the public speaking.

Master–With pleasure, Ram Narain. Have you prepared your speech ?

Pupil–Yes, Sir ; and now I am learning it by heart.

Master–Oh ! but that is a great mistake. Always carefully prepare what you want to say, but never try to learn it off by heart.

Pupil–But why, Sir ?

Master–Because when you are speaking, you should watch your audience to see whether they are following what you say. You can see by their faces whether they understand and are interested ; and if they are not, you can then win their attention by adding, or emphasizing, or changing something. But if your speech is learnt by heart, you can't alter it.

Pupil–But it seems so much easier to learn it.

Master–It is not so in the end. Memorising is a great strain. Also, if you forget one sentence, you may break down altogether.

Pupil–Well, I might manage if I could have my notes with me when I speak.

Master–At first you may take a short note of outline, or main points, of your speech, lest you should forget; but when you get used to speaking in public, it is best to do without notes altogether.

Pupil–But if I don't use notes, and must not learn my speeches off by heart how can I remember what to say?

Master–You must prepare carefully, and think out what you want to say ; and learn the main points, or outline, of your speech. Then, when you get up to speak, you will find that the words will come.

Pupil–But I feel so nervous when I have to speak.

Master–That is natural, especially at first. But as you get used to speaking in public, you will overcome that. Even practised speakers often feel very nervous before they begin to speak ; but when they get on to their feet, they forget all about it.

Pupil–When I am nervous, I think I speak too fast.

Master–Well, you must practise speaking slowly and distinctly. And don't shout–it strains your voice and prevents people hearing you ; and don't speak too low. Speak naturally, so that all can hear.

Pupil–Thank you, Sir, for your hints. I will try to follow them.

6. *A dialogue on the choice of a profession–law or medicine.*

Jai Dyal–Thank goodness ! our examinations are over at last.

Sain Das–What a relief ! I hope I shall pass ; for I have just got a letter from my father promising to send me to the Medical College if I get through Class 12.

Jai Dyal–Oh ! are you going to be a doctor ?

Sain Das–Yes ; and I am very glad. My father is a doctor, you know, and I have always wanted to be one too. It seems a very interesting profession. What are you going to do ?

Jai Dyal–My ambition is to be a lawyer ; and when I have got my B.A., I am to go to the Law College to study for my LL.B.

Sain Das–Law ! That never had any attractions for me. Why do you want to be a lawyer ?

Jai Dyal–Well, it is a very respectable profession. One can be a gentleman and hold a good position, anyway.

Sain Das–So can a doctor. The medical profession is just as respectable as the legal.

Jai Dyal–Oh ! yes, of course. But I think a lawyer can make more money than a doctor.

Sain Das–I am not so sure of that. A few lawyers who get to be leaders of the bar, of course, do make fortunes. But what about the crowd of pleaders and even barristers who can scarcely make a living ? The law is terribly overcrowded.

Jai Dyal–Oh ! well, there is always plenty of room at the top, you know.

Sain Das–What I like about the medical profession, apart from its scientific interest, is that the work is so humanitarian. A doctor is always doing good to his fellows–relieving suffering, curing diseases, restoring health, and so making folk happy. This makes a doctor's life a sort of social service.

Jai Dyal–Well, a lawyer is doing good work too. He is helping to detect and prevent crime, defending the innocent from false charges, and helping people in distress.

Sain Das–Yes; but a lawyer's life is full of temptations. He is tempted to defend criminals for big fees, and to get them off from just punishment. I don't see how a lawyer can help being a liar, too !

Jai Dyal–Now you are joking. It is as possible for a lawyer to be an honest man as it is for a doctor to be a rogue.

EXERCISE 155

Compose imaginary conversations on the following subjects:

1. Between a father and his son on thrift.

   (*Hints*–The son has been wasting his allowance extravagantly and got into debt ; his father rebukes him, and warns him of the danger of extravagance, telling him how to spend economically, and save for his old age.)

2. Between a temperance advocate and a young man on the evils of intemperance.

   (*Hints*–The young man sees no harm in drinking ; argues it is a jolly social custom, makes him lively and happy, drowns care, revives him when tired, is a manly habit, etc. The temperance man warns him against danger of becoming a drunkard ; the terrible power of the drink craving ; argues alcoholic drink is a slow poison, and damages health; appeals to him to set an example to others by signing the pledge,etc.)

3. Between a soldier and a shopkeeper on the merits of their respective occupations.

   (*Hints*–The soldier argues that his is a noble profession ; superior to civilian in rank ; calls for courage and manly qualities ; he is the defender of his country ; whereas a tradesman's job is mean and despised ; no job for a man, etc. The shopkeeper argues that the soldier produces nothing ; he simply destroys ; it is a butcher's job ; food for powder, etc. ; whereas the tradesman is a useful member of society, who is doing a public service ; can become rich, while a soldier must always be poor, etc. The dignity of labour.)

4. Between a huntsman and a gardener on their respective pursuits.

   (*Hints*–The huntsman defends his sport as manly, exciting, and needing courage ; tries to show the benefits others by killing pests like tigers and bears ; says gardening is a tame and effeminate hobby. The gardener argues hunting is a cruel sport ; it means killing and torturing many of God's innocent creatures ; purely destructive. Whereas he is productive ; making two blades of grass grow where only one grew before ; making the world more beautiful. (*Hints.*–The refining effect of gardening.)

EXERCISE 156

Write a short imaginary conversation:

1. Between a horse and an ass.
2. Between a cage-bird and a crow.
3. Between a pen and a pencil.
4. Between a pet-dog and a pariah-dog.
5. Between a film actor and yourself.
6. Between an aeroplane and a train.
7. Between a gas stove and a microwave oven.

8. Between an the president of the BCCI and you.
9. Between a spider and a fly.
10. Between Cinderella and her two sisters just before the ball.

EXERCISE 157

Write in the form of a dialogue:

1. The table of "The Hare and the Tortoise".
2. The fable of "The Lion and the Mouse."
3. The fable of "The Country Mouse and the Town Mouse."
4. The fable of "The Blind Man and the Lame Man."
5. The fable of "The Dog in the Manger."
6. The fable of "The Ant and the Grasshopper."
7. The fable of "The Wolf and the Lamb."
8. The story of "The Sun and the Wind".

EXERCISE 158

Write a short dialogue:

1. Between two friends about dreams.
2. Between a miser and a spendthrift.
3. Between a railway-guard and an engine-driver.
4. Between two class-fellows about the visit of the Inspector..
5. Between two boys discussing their hobbies.
6. Between a credulous man and an impostor.
7. Between two friends on a topic of common interest.
8. Between two friends–the one a believer, and other a disbeliever, in ghost stories.
9. Between two boys about the approaching examination.
10. Between two class-fellows on a poem they have read in the class.
11. Between a hypochondriac and his friend.
12. Between two boys who have just come out of the Examination Hall.
13. Between two friends who have lost their way in a jungle.
14. Between two friends discussing holiday plans.
15. Between two friends about their neighbours.
16. Between two boys caught in a shower on their way from school. One looks on the bright side of matters, and the other on the dark side.
17. Between two friends on life in flats.
18. Between two friends discussing the "theatre-manners" of latecomers, who mar the pleasure of the audience.
19. Fan and an airconditioner.
20. An earthquake and a cyclone.

EXERCISE 159

Write short dialogues on the following.

1. The use and abuse of athletics.
2. The advantages and disadvantages of solitude.
3. The uses and abuses of advertisement.
4. The advantages and disadvantages of cheap literature.
5. The pleasures and perils of speed.
6. The pleasures and disadvantages of life in a school hostel.
7. The advantages and disadvantages of life in a great city.

8. The influence of the Cinema.
9. The necessity to save Religious Institutions.
10. The advantages and disadvantages of life in a great city.
11. The influence of Television Channels
12. Terrorism and Fanaticism.

EXERCISE 160

Discuss in the form of a dialogue the pros and cons of the following subjects.

1. Prohibition.
2. Alms-giving.
3. Corporal punishment.
4. The caste system.
5. Luck.
6. The United Nations.
7. Lotteries.
8. Hand-industries.
9. Asceticism.
10. Geography as a class-subject.
11. Entrance Examinations.
12. Making Global Friendship through the Internet.
13. Awards and Recognitions.

EXERCISE 161

Discuss each of the following subjects in the form of a dialogue.

1. Is luxury an evil ?
2. Is poverty a handicap ?
3. Which should be the medium of education in our school–English or the vernaculars ?
4. Ought everyboy to become a Scout ?
5. Which is worse–flood or fire ?
6. Which should we use in a big town–well water or tap-water ?
7. Which is better–hockey or cricket ?
8. War–is it necessary ?
9. Which is better–to wear out or to rust out ?
10. Should Hygiene be made a compulsory school-subject ?

EXERCISE 162

Finish the following conversations.

Krishna–Hurrah ! only ten days to the holidays !
Rama–I know. I have been counting the days. I am just sick of school.
Krishna–So am I. What are you going to do with yourself in the holidays ?
Patient–Good morning, doctor ! Can you spare me a few minutes ?
Doctor–Certainly ! Come in and sit down. Now, what is the matter with you?
Abdul–What is that roaring noise ? It sounds like a train.
Kabali–More likely an aeroplane. Yes ! Up there ! Six of them.
Bepin–Oh, yes ! They seem to be a great height up.
Feroz Din–Well, Abdul Latif, only three weeks more to the Matriculation examination!

Abdul Latif–Yes, it is coming very near now. I wish it were all over.

F.D.–So do I ! And then, no more school.

A.L.–Hurrah ! What are you going to do when you leave school, Feroz Din ?

Father–I am sorry to hear you have failed the examination, Hari.

Hari–So am I, father ; it was just my bad luck. Look at Govind–lucky fellow! He passed in the second division.

Father–So you think it is all a matter of good luck and bad luck ?

Rashid–Here is a puzzle for you, Ghulam ; which would you rather be–a sick millionaire or a healthy beggar?

Ghulam–Well, that wants some thinking over. I suppose you mean, which is more important for our happiness–health or wealth ?

Bepin–So you object to corporal punishment in schools ?

Ramesh–Yes, I do. I think it ought to be abolished.

Bepin–But why ?

Chapter 43 THE APPRECIATION OF POETRY

What is poetry ? : Though many have tried to define poetry, no one has succeeded in giving a satisfactory definition of it. Poetry seems to elude all attempts to describe it. Yet we should know something about poetry, and learn to cultivate our feeling for it, so that we may gradually come to recognize it, and know when it is present. The best we can do is to point out some essential characteristics of true poetry.

Before we discuss these essential characteristics, let us try and understand the connection between poetry and verse. Verse is the *form* of poetry. Poets generally (but not always) write their poetry in verse-form. But there is a lot of verse written which is no poetry at all. Verse is the body, and the poetry is the soul ; and body without a soul is a dead body. We shall undestand this better as we go on.

Verse is usually printed in a particular way, so that you can tell it from prose at a glance. But it is the ear, not the eye, which is the true test of verse ; for when verse is read aloud it *sounds* quite different from prose. Just listen to the different sounds of these two passages, one in prose and the other in verse:–

(*i*)"The untrodden snow lay all bloodless on Linden, when the sun was low; and the flow of Iser, rolling rapidly, was dark as winter."

(*ii*) "On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow ;
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.''

The two passages are exactly the same in meaning. In fact, the very words are the same. No. (*ii*) contains the first four lines of Campbell's poem called "Hohenlinden". No. (*i*) contains the same lines with the same words differently arranged. Yet how differently they sound when read aloud ! If we can *hear* this difference, we shall soon be able to tell the difference between prose and verse.

The first two points about the *verse-form* of the passage that we notice are its–

(1) Regular Rhythm–As you read it, can you not *hear* the regular beat of sound, like the regular tramp of soldiers marching ; or the regular beat of the feet of people dancing ? There is nothing like this regular swing in prose passage. It is caused by the fact that the poet arranges his words in such a way that the accented syllables, on which we naturally lay stress in speaking, come at equal intervals. If all the accented syllables in the first line are italicized you will see that every *second* syllable must be pronounced more loudly or emphatically than the others.

"On *Linden when* the *sun* was *low.*"

The regular rising and falling in the flow of sounds in poetry, these recurring intervals of strong and light sounds, like the beat of a drum regulating dance movements, is called *rhythm ;* and rhythm is the chief, and an essential characteristic of verse, as distinguished from prose. This will be made clear later on.

(2) Rhyme–The next point we notice is that the words at the end of the first three lines all have the same sound–*low, snow, flow.* When words have the same vowel sound and end with the same consonant sound, they are said to *rhyme, e.g., keep, peep; jump, lump; hate, late; crew, few ; glide, slide.* Rhyme is not necessary to verse (*i.e.,* you can have verse without rhyme) ; but generally verse is rhymed. Rhyme serves two purposes; it makes verse more musical, by giving it pleasing sounds, like the chimes of bell ; and it serves to preserve the verse-form in which the poem is arranged by marking the ends of the lines.

Stanzas–If you look at the whole of the poem, "The Daffodils", given on page 399, you will notice another characteristic of verse. You will see that the poem is divided up into units and that all the units are exactly alike in form. Each unit is of six lines, the first line rhyming with the third, the second with the fourth and the fifth with the sixth. Such units or divisions in a poem are called stanzas. Most poems, though not all, are written in stanzas all of which are of the same pattern.

Verse, then, is characterized by regular rhythm, rhyme and stanzas. Of these characteristics, *rhythm* is essential. You cannot have verse or poetry without rhythm. But while most poems have rhyme and stanza-forms, these are not essential characteristics of poetry, for we have poems written in blank verse, *i.e.,* verse in which each line has ten syllables but there are no rhymes at the end.

Having discussed the connection between verse and poetry, we shall now consider some essential characteristics of true poetry.

(1) Music–The first Characteristic of poetry is *verbal music.* The poet chooses instinctively words of beautiful sound, and so arranges them that the words near each other will harmonise in sound, so as to produce what may be called "word music." And he varies this music to suit the subject, so that the sound of the lines helps to make their meaning clearer.

But verbal music depends not only on the musical sound of the words, but also on rhythm. It is the combination of lovely rhythms with sweet-sounding words that gives us the music of poetry. Here are two verses from Dryden's "Song for St. Cecilia's Day". The rapid rhythm of the first verse well expresses the excitement caused by the war alarm given by trumpet and drum ; the slow and quiet rhythm of the second verse suits the soft and tender music of the flute and the lute.

"The trumpet's loud clangour
Excites us to arms,
With shrill notes of anger,
And mortal alarms.
The double double double beat
Of the thundering drum
Cries, Hark ! the foes come ;
Charge, charge, 'tis too late to retreat
The soft complaining flute,
In dying notes, discovers
The woes of hopeless lovers,
Whose dirge is whisper'd by the warbling lute.''

Now let us examine in detail how poets obtain some of the musical effects.

(*a*) *Rhyme*–Words rhyming together give a musical chime of sound, and this is one reason why rhyme is so much used in poetry. Listen to the chime of the rhymes in this verse :–

"Strew on her roses, roses,

And never a spray of yew,

In quiet she reposes :

Ah ! would that I did too !'' (*M. Arnold*)

Internal rhymes (*i.e.,* rhymes written within a line and not merely at the ends of lines) also add music (and a slight apparent acceleration of the rhythm) to a verse ; *e.g.,*

"The ice was here, the ice was there,

The ice was all around ;

It cracked and growled, and roared and howled.

Like noises in a swound !'' (*Coleridge)*

(*b*) ***Vowel and Consonant Sounds***–Words with long open vowels and soft consonants (like l, m, n, v, w, z, etc.) produce sweet, soft, soothing music in these lines :–

"Season of mists and mellow fruitfulness." (*Keats*)

"Then in a wailful choir the small gnats mourn." (*Keats*)

"To dream and dream, like yonder amber light." (*Tennyson*)

"The murmurous haunt of flies on summer eves." (*Keats*)

(*c*) ***Onomatopoeia***–This is the name given to the figure of speech by which the sound of the words is made to suggest or echo the sense. There are many onomatopoeic words in English ; *e.g.,* roar, bang, crash, clap, bump, bubble, screen, pop, moan, hum, murmur, etc. When they are talking of sounds, poets will use words to represent those sounds if they can. For instance :–

"The moan of doves in immemorial elms

And murmuring of innumerable bees.'' (*Tennyson*)

Can you not hear the cooing of the doves and the humming of the bees ? How is it done ? Some of the words are onomatopoeic, *e.g.,* moan, murmuring ; in others the soft vowels, and above all the *m* and *n* sounds, give a humming murmur, *e.g.,* immemorial, innumerable.

(*d*) ***Alliteration***–This is another figure of speech used in poetry. It brings together words which begin with the same consonant (or vowel) sound. For example :–

"The fair breeze below, the white foam flew

The furrow followed free.'' (*Coleridge*)

Here the *f* sounds give the impression of wind blowing.

"I hear *l*ake water lapping with *l*ow sounds by the shore." (*Yeats*)

Here the *l* sounds represent the liquid sounds of little waves, and the *s* and *sh* sounds help.

A *r*eeling *r*oad, a *r*olling *r*oad, that *r*ambles *r*ound the shire.''

(*Chesterton)*

The *r* sounds help the description of a wandering road.

(*e*) ***Repetition***–Repetition of words and phrases not only serves to emphasise the meaning, but often also to increase the musical effect of a poem.

"*The woods decay, the woods decay* and fall." (*Tennyson*)

"What hope of answer, or redress ?

Behind the veil, behind the veil..'' (*Tennyson*)

"A *weary* time ! A *weary* time !

How glazed each weary eye !'' (*Coleridge*)

"In ever climbing up a *climbing* wave." (*Tennyson*)

"The western tide crept up along the sand.

And o'er and o'er *the sand.*'' (*Kingsley*)

And round and round *the sand.*''

(*f*) ***Refrains.***– A refrain is a form of repetition. In some poems the same line, or part of it, is repeated at the end of each verse. Such a repeated line or phrase is called a *burden* or *refrain.*

(2) Vision. The second characteristic of poetry is vision. A great poet is a "seer", *i.e.,* a "see-er" ; one who has spiritual insight and can see truths that others do not. The ordinary unimaginative man is aware only of what he perceives by his senses, and sees only the outward aspect of what he sees. But the poets see much more. They have, in moments of vision, the power of understanding, by a kind of instinct, things, their qualities and the relations between them, which ordinary people cannot see. All true poetry is the product of vision or imagination for it is the expression of it.

Wordsworth wrote a poem about a matter-of-fact, unimaginative man, called Peter Bell. Peter Bell saw nothing but what he saw with his physical eyes. He had no "vision."

"A primrose by a river's brim

A yellow primrose was to him,

And it was nothing more.''

Now see what a primrose, or any common wild flower, is to a real poet. Wordsworth himself says :–

"To me the meanest flower that blows can give

Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.

The poet idealises the real. He helps us to see natural objects "Apparelled in celestial light, the glory and the freshness of a dream."

There is suggestiveness in great poetry. It suggests or implies much more than it says. It has a depth of meaning that cannot be fathomed by one or two readings.

(3) Imagery. The suggestion of vivid mental pictures, or images, by the skillful use of words, is called "imagery." A poet can create or suggest beautiful *sight-effects*, as well as beautiful sound-effects, by means of words. This capacity is, of course, part of a poet's gift of imagination. Poetry, much more than prose, produces much of its effect by images. It often talks in pictures. The poet's pictures may be drawn from the real world, or the ideal world of imagination in which he dwells.

Poets have three ways of making us see mental pictures.

(*a*) ***By Description***– He may, as a prose-writer does, describe a scene, real or ideal, in words. Here is Gray's description of the evening of a summer day :–

"The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,

The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,

The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,

And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight,

And all the air a solemn stillness holds.

Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,

And drowsy tinklings lull the distant folds.''

[For examples of verbal descriptions see, "The Sands of Dee" (2nd verse); "Hohenlinden", "Rain in Summer."]

(*b*) By certain Figures of Speech such as *simile, metaphor,* and *personification* about which you have learnt in Chapter 29. Read carefully the examples of *simile, metaphor* and *personification* given in that chapter. A poet compares one thing with another, and so suggests some important point about it by an image.

(c) By Picturesque Epithets–A poet can also call up a picture with a single illuminating word or phrase. Just examine the epithets of adjectives in these lines–

"All in a hot and *copper* sky,
The *bloody* sun, at noon.'' (*Coleridge*)

–What a picture of colour these two epithets call up !

(4) Emotion–The third essential of poetry is emotion. Ordinary prose writing (other than fiction) appeals more to the head than to heart; but the function of poetry is to touch the heart ; that is, to arouse emotion. Who can read such lines as these without emotion ?

"And the stately ships go on
To their haven under the hill;
But O for the touch of a vanish'd hand,
And the sound of a voice that is still !'' (*Tennyson*)

But it is only emotion that can rouse emotion. If the poet feels nothing when he writes a poem, his readers will feel nothing when they hear it. Heart must speak to heart.

To sum up, therefore, the essentials of poetry are music, vision (including imagery), and emotion. So we may say that *poetry springs from imagination roused by emotion, and is expressed in music and imagery.* This is not a definition for, as we have seen, we cannot define poetry, but a description of its essential characteristics.

Let us now take the well-known poem "Daffodils" by William Wordsworth to try and find out what essentials of good poetry are contained in it.

I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host of golden daffodils,
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.
Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the milky way,
They stretched in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay :
Ten thousand saw I at a glance
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.
The waves beside them danced, but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee :
A poet could not but be gay
In such a jocund company !
I gazed–and gazed–but little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought.
For oft when on my couch I lie
In vacant or in pensive mood,
They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude ;
And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.

APPRECIATION OF THE POEM

(1) *Substance* The first thing we must do is to read the poem through, carefully. Then we must ask ourselves : What is it all about ? What is the subject ? And what does the poet say about the subject ?

The poet tells us that as he was taking a solitary walk beside a lake one bright and breezy Spring morning, he suddenly came upon a sight that filled him with delighted wonder at its beauty, and with gaiety of heart. There stretched before his wondering gaze thousands and thousands of yellow daffodils under the trees beside the sparkling waters of the lake, "Fluttering and dancing in the breeze." The sight filled him with pleasure ; but he did not know at the time all that the experience had added to his life. For many times afterwards, memory brought back that beautiful scene as a mental picture, which gave him over and over again the same sense of gladness.

(2) *Language* The poem is in very simple language and there are really no difficult words. (*Daffodil* is a bulbous plant of the lily family bearing a yellow trumpet-shaped flower that grows wild in English woods and flowers in Spring).

(3) *Imagery*–(*a*) The first three verses are a description of a host of daffodils under the trees by the side of a lake, lit up by the sun and dancing in the wind.

(*b*) There are two *similes* : The comparison between the solitary poet and a lonely cloud in the first stanza, and the comparison between the endless line of daffodils and innumerable stars in the milky way given in the second stanza.

(*c*) There is also an example of *personification* in the second stanza and again in the third stanza. The daffodils are described as dancing in glee and tossing their heads like human beings and are said to be "such a jocund company."

The statement, "Ten thousand saw I at a glance", is a figure of speech known as *hyperbole*; it is a poetic exaggeration not intended to be taken literally.

(4) *Sound effects* (*a*) The quickened movement of line 6 of the first stanza, in comparison with the stately movement of the preceding lines, well echoes and reinforces the sense.

(*b*) There is an example of *alliteration* in line 6 of the fourth stanza. "And dances with the daffodils". Note also the *repetition* in line 5 of the third stanza, "I *gazed*–and *gazed*"; it emphasises the length of time the poet stood looking in delighted wonder at the beautiful scene.

(5) *Striking lines* The most striking lines are lines 3 and 4 of the last stanza. The "inward eye" is the faculty of visualising, or calling up mental pictures from memory or the imagination. Such mind-pictures give us joy when we are alone and at leisure.

We have given here a somewhat detailed appreciation of the poem, "The Daffodils". The points amplified above in connection with Wordsworth's beautiful poem will make you understand what you should look for in good poetry in order that you may enjoy in a better way. But at the high school stage, a continuous description of all the essential qualities of a good poem is not required. A student's appreciation of a particular piece of poetry may be judged by asking specific questions like the following : What is the central idea of the poem? What is the poet's attitude to life, or to nature, or to whatever is the subject of the poem ? What is the significance of certain given lines or expressions in the poem ? What picture is sketched in the lines specified ? How are certain sound effects produced by the poet ? What figures of speech are to be found in the poem and how can they be explained ? What title (or alternative title) can be given to the poem ?

SPECIMENS

Here are two short poems with certain questions on appreciation given below each of them and the answers worked out.

(*a*) She dwelt among the untrodden ways
Beside the springs of Dove ;
A maid whom there were none to praise
And very few to love.
A violet by a mossy stone
Half-hidden from the eye !
–Fair as a star, when only one

Is shining in the sky.
She lived unknown, and few could know
When Lucy ceased to be ;
But she in her grave, and, oh,
The difference to me

–W. Wordsworth

QUESTIONS

1. Give a suitable title to the poem.
2. Name and explain the figure of speech used in the second stanza.
3. Which lines in the poem show intense feeling ? What feeling has the poet expressed in these lines ?
4. What do you think of the language used in the poem ?

ANSWERS

1. "The Lost Love" or "She Dwelt Among the Untrodden Ways."
2. The figure of speech is *simile*. The girl is compared to the half hidden violet and the lonely star to emphsise (*a*) her solitude and obscurity, and (*b*) her beauty of soul as well as body.
3. The last two lines. They express the feeling of love and bereavement.
4. The most striking feature of the language is its simplicity. The poet has used simple, everyday words, mostly of one syllable; yet they produce a poem that has a magic charm.

(*b*) Laugh and be merry, better the world with a song.
Better the world with a blow in the teeth of a wrong.
Laugh, for the time is brief, a thread the length of a span.
Laugh and be proud to belong to the old proud pageant of man.
Laugh and be merry : remember, in olden time,
God made Heaven and Earth for joy. He took in a rhyme,
Made them, and filled them with the strong red wine of His mirth.
The splendid joy of the stars ; the joy of the earth.
So we must laugh and drink from the deep blue cup of the sky.
Join the jubilant song of the great stars sweeping by,
Laugh, and battle, and work, and drink of the wine outpoured
In the dear green earth, the sign of the joy of the Lord.
Laugh and be merry together, like brothers akin,
Guesting awhile in the rooms of a beautiful inn,
Glad till the dancing stops, and the lilt of the music ends.
Laugh till the game is played : and be you merry, my friends.

–John Masefield

QUESTIONS

1. What is the central idea of the poem ?
2. What is the "blow" with which the poet wants us to better the world ?
3. Quote three striking examples of *metaphors* used in the poem.
4. Explain:
   (*a*) "the old proud pageant of man."
   (*b*) "Guesting awhile in the rooms of a beautiful inn."

ANSWERS

1. Life is short and we must therefore laugh and be cheerful, and enjoy all the beauty and happiness that can be found on this earth.
2. It is our laughter and merriment that will serve as a blow and hit out boldly against wrong and injustice in the world.
3. (*i*) "Laugh, for the time is brief, a *thread* the length of a span."
   (*ii*) "Made them and filled them with the *strong red wine* of *His mirth*."
   (*iii*) "Laugh till the *game is played*."
4. (*a*) We are part of the spectacular progress of mankind which is marked with many glorious achievements.
   (*b*) We should be happy and cheerful together during the short time we are in this beautiful world in the same way as brothers who are staying for a short while in a beautiful inn where there is dancing and music.

EXERCISE 163

Read each of the following poems and answer the questions set below it.

1. What is this life if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare ?
No time to stand beneath the boughs
And stare as long as sheep or cows ?
No time to see, when woods we pass,
Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass ?
No time to see, in broad daylight,
Streams full of stars, like skies at night ?
No time to turn at Beauty's glance,
And watch her feet, how they can dance ?
No time to wait till her mouth can
Enrich that smile her eyes began ?
A poor life this if, full of care,
We have no time to stand and stare.

–William Henry Davies

(*a*) What kind of life does the poet condemn ?
(*b*) What are the "stars" of which the streams are full ?
(*c*) Name and explain the figures of speech in lines 9-10.
(*d*) Explain :
"No time to wait till her mouth can
Enrich that smile her eyes began".

2. My days among the Dead are past ;
Around me I behold,
Wherever these casual eyes are cast,
The mighty minds of old ;
My never-failing friends are they,
With whom I converse day by day;
With them I take delight in weal
And seek relief in woe ;
And while I understand and feel
How much to them I owe,
My cheeks have often been bedew'd
With tears of thoughtful gratitude.

–Robert Southey

(*a*) What is the central idea of the poem ?
(*b*) Who are the "mighty minds" ?

(*c*) Who are the poet's friends and how are they never-failing ?
(*d*) Explain :
My cheeks have often been bedew'd
With tears of thoughtful gratitude."

3. We scatter seeds with careless hand
And dream we ne'er shall see them more :
But for a thousand years
Their fruit appears
In weeds that mar the land,
Or healthful store.
The deeds we do–the words we say
Into still air they seem to float ;
We count them ever past–
But they shall last,
In the dread judgement, they
And we shall meet !

(*a*) What is the central idea of the poem ?
(*b*) Explain the imagery of the first stanza.
(*c*) Show how wrong we are about the consequences of our words and our deeds.
(*d*) Explain :
"In the dread judgement, they
And we shall meet."

4. Oh, sweet content, that turns the labourer's sweat
To tears of joy, and shines the roughest face;
How often have I sought you high and low
And found you still in some quiet place ;
Here in my room, when full of happy dreams
With no life heard beyond that merry sound
Of moths that on my lighted ceiling kiss
Their shadows as they dance and dance around;
Or in a garden, on a summer's night
When I have seen the dark and solemn air
Blink with the blind bat's wings, and heaven's bright face
Twitch with the stars that shine in thousands there.

(*a*) Where does the poet seek sweet content ? Where does he find it ?
(*b*) What striking word-pictures are contained in the poem ?
(*c*) Name and explain the figures of speech in the last two lines.
(*d*) Give a suitable title to the poem.

5. Much have I travell'd in the realms of gold
And many goodly states and kingdoms seen;
Round many western islands have I been
Which bards in fealty to Apollo hold.
Oft of one wide expanse had I been told.
That deep-brow'd Homer ruled as his demesne;
Yet did I never breathe its pure serene
Till I heard Chapman speak out loud and bold;
Then felt I like some watcher of the skies
When a new planet swims into his ken ;
Or like stout Cortez, when with eagle eyes
He stared at the Pacific–and all his men

Look'd at each other with a wild surmise–
Silent, upon a peak in Darien.

–John Keats

(*a*) What idea is expressed in the first four lines of the sonnet ?
(*b*) Explain the significance of the phrase "deep-browed Homer".
(*c*) What striking pictures are presented in the last six lines of the poem ?
(*d*) Quote the line which you think produces the greatest musical effect.
(*e*) Explain : "pure serene"; "eagle eyes"; "wild surmise".

6. Strew on her roses, roses,
And never a spray of yew !
In quiet she reposes;
Ah, would that I did too ;
Her mirth the world required;
She bathed it in smiles of glee
But her heart was tired, tired,
And now they let her be.
Her life was turning, turning,
In mazes of heat and sound.
But for peace her soul was yearning,
And now peace laps her round,
Her cabin'd, ample spirit,
It flutter'd and fail'd for breath.
To-night it doth inherit
The vasty hall of death.

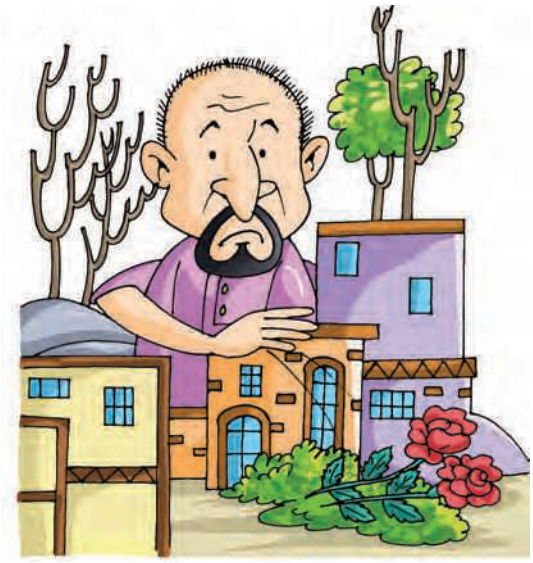

–Matthew Arnold

(*a*) Does the poet show any grief at the person's death ?
What exactly are his feelings on the occasion ?
(*b*) Quote examples of *repetition* from the poem.
(*c*) What do you gather about the life of the dead person from the poem ?
(*d*) Explain :
(*i*) "Her cabin'd, simple spirit,
It flutter'd and fail'd for breath."
(*ii*) "To-night it doth inherit
The vasty hall of death."

7. Books ! 'tis a dull and endless strife :
Come, hear the woodland linnet,
How sweet his music ! on my life
There's more of wisdom in it.
And hark ! how blithe the throstle sings,
He too is no mean preacher :
Come forth into the light of things,
Let Nature be your teacher...
Enough of Science and of Art;
Come forth, and bring with you a heart
That watches and receives.
(*a*) Name and explain the figure of speech in the sixth line.
(*b*) What feelings does the poet seek to awaken in you by the following exclamations?
"Books!" "hark!"
(*c*) What kind of teaching does Nature give ?
(*d*) Explain : "the light of things"; "a heart that watches and receives".

–S.S.C. Examination

8. They tell us of an Indian tree
Which, howsoe'er the sun and the sky
May tempt its boughs to wander free
And shoot and blossom wide and high
Far better loves to bend its arms
Downwards again to that dear earth,
From which the life that fills and warms
Its grateful being first had birth.
'Tis thus, though wooed by flattering friends
And fed with fame (if fame it be),
This heart, my own dear mother, bends
With love's true instinct back to thee.

(*a*) Name the figures of speech in the second and third lines.
(*b*) Why is the tree considered "grateful" ?
(*c*) In what respect is the poet like the tree ?
(*d*) Explain : "Wooed by flattering friends"; "Shoot and blossom wide and high."

–S.S.C. Examination

Chapter 44 PARAPHRASING

The word "parapharse" (from the Greek, meaning literally "equivalent sentence") is defined as "restatement of the sense of a passage in other words." It is "the reproduction in one's own natural idiom or style of the full sense of a passage written in another idiom or style.''

I. USES OF PARAPHRASING

Someone has said, with a sneer, that paraphrase "usually takes the form of converting good English into bad." But this need not be so; and if in any case it is so, then the paraphrase in question is a bad paraphrase. It should be the aim of the pupil to improve his English by the practice of paraphrasing, and of the teacher to see that the English in which his pupil's paraphrases are written is good English.

Paraphrasing has two important uses :–

(*a*) *As an Exercise in Composition.* (*i*) It is, first, a good test of a pupil's ability to understand what he reads; and is, therefore, an excellent method of training the mind to concentrate on what one reads and so to *read intelligently.* For it is impossible to paraphrase any passage without a firm grasp of its meaning.

(*ii*) It is, secondly, a fine training in the art of *expressing,* what one wants to say, simply, clearly and directly. Incidentally, it gives valuable practice in grammatical and idiomatic composition.

A man who has once acquired the art of *intelligent reading* and of *lucid expression,* has received no mean measure of education.

(*b*) A second use of paraphrase is that it forms a valuable method of *explanation.* Indeed, it is often the best way of explaining an involved or ornate passage of prose or of an obscure piece of poetry. So annotators of poems often make use of it. For example, take the note in Palgrave's "Golden Treasury" (Oxford University Press) on this verse from Browning's "Rabbi Ben Ezra" :–

Enough now, if the Right
And Good and Infinite
Be named here, as thou callest thy hand thine own.
With knowledge absolute,
Subject to no dispute.
From fools that crowded youth, nor let these feel alone.

Note—"It is enough if in age we can get as absolute a knowledge of Right and Wrong, Good and Evil, the Changing and the Eternal, as we have of our own hands."

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD PARAPHRASE

1. Translation–Paraphrasing is really a species of *translation* ; for though a paraphrase is not a translation from one tongue into another (as from Urdu or Tamil into English), it is a translation of one man's words into the words of another in the same language. And as a translation must be accurate and explanatory to be of any value, so a paraphrase must faithfully reproduce and interpret the thought of the original passage.

A passage written in a very terse or compressed style has to be expanded in translation. For instance, this saying from Bacon's "Essays." :–

Prosperity doth best discover vice, but Adversity doth best discover virtue.

Paraphrase.–When a man is prosperous, there is more chance of his bad qualities coming to light ; but when he is unfortunate or in trouble, his good qualities are more likely to show themselves.

A verbose passage needs compression in translation. Here is a humorous illustration given by Ruskin in a lecture at Oxford. He said that, whereas in his youth he might have informed a man that his house was on fire in the following way–"Sir, the abode in which you probably passed the delightful days of your youth is in danger of inflammation," then, being older and wiser, he would say simply, "Sir, your house is on fire."

In the following passage by Sydney Smith, the long words and humorously ornate sytle need translating into simple language :–

Whoever had the good fortune to see Dr. Parr's wig, must have observed that, while it trespasses a little on the orthodox magnitude of perukes in the anterior parts, it scorns even episcopal limits behind, and swells out into a boundless convexity of frizz.

Paraphrase.–All who have seen Dr. Parr's wig must have been struck with its enormous size. Even in front it is larger than the usual style of wig; but behind it is fuller even than the wigs worn by bishops, and swells out into a gigantic round of curls.

2. Fullness–Paraphrasing differs from summarising or precis-writing, inasmuch as a paraphrase must reproduce, not only the substance or general meaning, but also the details, of a passage. Nothing in the original may be left unrepresented in the paraphrase. It is, therefore, a *full reproduction.* The difference between a summary and a paraphrase may be illustrated by giving both of the following verse:–

The glories of our blood and state
Are shadows, not substantial things :
There is no armour against fate ;
Death lays his icy hand on kings ;
Sceptre and Crown
Must tumble down.
And in the dust be equal made
With the poor crooked scythe and spade.

Summary.–High birth and rank are nothing ; for in death, which claims all, peasants are equal with kings.

Paraphrase.–Nobility of birth and exalted rank, of which men so proudly boast, are mere illusions and quickly pass away. They cannot protect their proud possessors from the common fate of all mankind–death. Even kings, like the meanest of their subjects, must die ; and in the grave the poor peasant is equal with the haughty monarch.

While nothing in the original is to be unrepresented in the paraphrase, nothing is to be added to it. To insert ideas or illustrations of your own is not allowed. The paraphrase must be "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth."

There is no rule for the length of a paraphrase as compared with the length of the original passage ; but, as in paraphrasing we have frequently to expand concise sentences to make their meaning clear, a paraphrase is usually as long as, and is often longer than, the original. In the above example, for instance, the verse has 45 words, the summary 17 but the paraphrase has 56.

3. Wholeness–In paraphrasing, the passage to be paraphrased must be treated *as a whole.* The practice of taking the original line by line, or sentence by sentence, and simply turning these into different words is not paraphrasing at all. Until the passage is grasped as a whole, no attempt should be made to paraphrase it. What we have to try to do is to get behind the words to the idea in the author's mind which begot them. This is not an easy task, and calls for imagination and concentration of thought ; but unless we can do it, we shall never produce a good paraphrase.

Suppose, for example, you are asked to paraphrase this sonnet :

Much have I travelled in the realms of gold,
  And many goodly states and kingdoms seen ;
  Round many western islands have I been
Which bards in fealty to Apollo hold.
Oft of one wide expanse had I been told
  That deep-browed Homer ruled as his demesne ;
  Yet did I never breathe its pure serene
Till I heard Chapman speak out loud and bold ;
–Then felt I like some watcher of the skies
  When a new planet swims into his ken ;
Or like stout Cortez, when with eagle eyes
He stared at the Pacific–and all his men
  Looked at each other with a wild surmise–
Silent, upon a peak in Darien. *–J. Keats*

The mechanical line by line method of paraphrasing is of no use here. Before any satisfactory paraphrase can be produced *the central meaning of the whole* must be grasped. What is it ? Well, it may be expressed thus :

Keats had read widely in English literature, especially poetry, but he knew nothing of the poetic literature of ancient Greece until he read Chapman's translation of Homer's *Illiad.* This was a revelation to him ; and as he read, he felt all the wonder and joy felt by an astronomer when he discovers a new star, or an explorer when he discovers an unknown ocean.

4. A Complete Piece of Prose–Lastly, a good paraphrase is so well constructed and written that it will read as an independent and complete composition in idiomatic English. It should in itself be perfectly clear and intelligible, without any reference to the original passage. A paraphrase should be a piece of good prose that anyone would understand and read with pleasure, even if he had never seen the original upon which it is based.

Note— Explanatory notes, either attached to, or inserted in the body of, the paraphrase, must *never* be resorted to. All the explanation required must be in the paraphrase itself. The insertion of explanatory notes is a confession of failure in paraphrasing.

To be successful in paraphrasing, it is necesary to keep these four points always in mind; for, if they are forgotten, the mere changing of the words and constructions of a passage will never make a real paraphrase. If your paraphrase is not a faithful translation of the original passage into your own words ; if it does not reproduce all the details, omitting nothing if it does not reproduce the passage as a whole; and if it is not a self-contained composition, intelligible without reference to the original–then, your paraphrase is a failure.

III. THE PARAPHRASE OF POETRY

These are some special points in the paraphrasing of poetry that may be explained separately.

One thing must be made clear to start with and that is that, as poetry in one language can never be translated into another without losing much, if not all, of its charm, so poetry can never be *translated* into prose. It is impossible to give in prose the same *impression* as is conveyed by a poem. The reason for this is that the matter and the form, the spirit and the letter, the soul and the body, of a poem are so inextricably intermingled that you cannot change the form

without losing the spirit–that is, the poetry itself. The rhythm and the verbal music in which lies much of the magic of poetry, must be lost. Even the finest prose paraphrase of a poem is not, and can never be, a poem. All that a paraphrase can convey is the *meaning* of a poem. Nevertheless, the paraphrasing of poetry is a useful exercise in composition, and may often be a valuable help in interpreting the meaning of poems.

The peculiar difficulty of paraphrasing poetry lies in the difference between the language of verse and prose.

(a) Difference in words–Poets often use archaic or unusual words that are no longer in use in colloquial speech, and which are not generally found in prose writing. Examples :–*brand,* for sword ; *carol,* for song ; *a cot,* for a cottage ; *argosy,* for merchantship ; *ere,* for before; *o'er,* for over ; of *yore,* for in the past ; I *ween,* for I think ; *oft-times,* for often; I *trow,* for I am of opinion ; *aught,* for anything ; *anent,* for about ; *chide,* for scold ; *save,* for except; *forefathers,* for ancestors ; *perchance, belike* and *haply,* for perhaps ; *albeit,* for although ; *damsel,* for girl ; *dame,* for lady ; *sire,* for father; *quoth,* for said ; *withal,* in addition; *to boot,* as well ; *well-nigh,* almost–and many more. Modern poets generally avoid such words, but they are frequent in older poetry. In paraphrasing, modern equivalents should always be substituted for such words.

(b) Difference in the order of words–Inversion, *i.e.,* any change in the normal grammatical order of words in a sentence–subject, verb, object–is much more common in poetry than in prose.

For example :

"Mine be a cot beside a hill;"
instead of,–May a cot beside a hill be mine.
"A barking sound the shepherd hears;"
instead of,–The shepherd hears a barking sound.
"Not, Celia, that I juster am
Or better than the rest;''
instead of,–Not that I am juster, etc.

Note–This getting rid of inversion is the chief thing we have to do in giving the *prose order* of a verse. In "prose order" exercises we retain all the words of the original, simply rearranging them in the usual grammatical sequence. Words may be added here and there to complete the grammatical construction where necessary. These should be put in brackets. Of course this is not paraphrasing. For example, take this verse:

"On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow
And dark as winter was the flow
Of Iser, rolling rapidly.''

There is an inversion in each sentence. Change these, and the prose order will be :

The untrodden snow lay all bloodless on Linden when the sun was low, and the flow of (the) rapidly rolling Iser was (as) dark as winter.

(c) *Flowery and ornamental language.* Such language, frequent in verse, should be simplified in prose. For example :

"Now the golden morn aloft
Waves her dew-bespangled wing,
With vermile cheek and whisper soft
She woos the tardy Spring.''

(d) *Rhythm and Rhyme*, so characteristic of verse, have no place in prose, and must be avoided in paraphrasing.

IV. SPECIAL HINTS

(a) Direct and Indirect Speech–A paraphrase may be written in either; but (unless indirect speech is definitely required), it is better to use direct speech, for indirect speech (especially for Indian students writing in English) is full of traps for the unwary.

(b) Metaphors– The best way to deal with metaphors, is to resolve them into similes. For example–

"Silently, one by one, in the infinite *meadows* of Heaven,

Blossomed the lovely stars, the *forget-me-nots* of the angels.''

This might be paraphrased thus–

The stars came out one by one silently in the vast sky, like forget-me-nots flowering in the fields.

In some cases the metaphor may be dropped altogether, and the literal meaning given instead. For instance, the first line of Keats' sonnet (see above, p. 407-408), "Much have I travelled in the realms of gold" may be rendered,–I have read widely in classical literature.

(*c*) *Abstract used for concrete*–When the abstract is used for the concrete, the concrete should be restored. For example, "Let not ambition mock their useful toil," should become,– Ambitious men should not despise the useful labour of poor peasants.

(*d*) *Rhetorical questions*–These should be changed into direct affirmations or negations. For example, "Are we not better armed than our foes ?" should become,–We are better armed than our enemies; and, "Is thy servant a dog that he should do this thing ?" may be paraphrased,–I am not so contemptible a creature as to commit such a crime.

(*e*) *Exclamations*–These should be turned into simple statements. For example, "O for a lodge in some vast wilderness !" can be paraphrased,–I wish I had a secluded refuge remote from human society.

(*f*) *Apostrophe*–In paraphrasing poems addressed in the second person, it is better to use the plural *you* than the singular *thou,* partly because *thou* is not used in ordinary prose, and partly because the construction of verbs in the second person plural is simpler. But whichever is adopted, must be kept to consistently throughout. It is a very bad form to begin with *thou* and later drop into *you.* Such passages may be rendered in the third person also; for instance, the first line of Matthew Arnold's sonnet *Shakespeare,* "Others abide our question–Thou art free !" may be rendered,–We can freely criticise other authors, but Shakespeare is beyond our criticism.

V. METHOD OF PROCEDURE

1. Because *no one can paraphrase a passage which he does not undestand,* first *read the passage* slowly and carefully until you feel you have firmly grasped its *general meaning.* If one reading does not make this clear, read it again and yet again, and study it until you thoroughly understand it. This first step is all important. (It is a good thing to write down at this stage a brief summary, concisely expressing the gist or main theme of the passage.)
2. Next, read the passage again *with a view to its details.* Note all uncommon or difficult words, and all idioms and unusual grammatical constructions, metaphors and figures of speech, remembering that you are to express, not only the substance, but also the details, of the passage in your own way.
3. Now, keeping clearly in mind the main purport of the passage, prepare to reproduce the passage in your own words, in simple and direct English, not leaving anything in the original unrepresented in your paraphrase.
4. Treat the passage *as a whole.* Do not work word by word, or line by line ; but from the beginning keep the end in view.
5. You may rearrange the order of sentences, and even of the whole passage, if this can make the meaning clear.
6. Break up a long sentence into several short ones, or combine several short sentences into one long, if by so doing you can make the whole more easily understood.
7. Do not change words simply for the sake of change. No word can ever *precisely* take the place of another ; and when a word in the original is perfectly simple in meaning and the best word in that place, it is a mistake to alter it. But all words and phrases that are at all archaic, obscure, technical, or uncommon should be changed into suitable synonyms. **N.B.**–Never substitute a difficult or unusual word for a simple and familiar word ; *e.g.,* do not put "ratiocination" for "argument."
8. Explanatory notes are altogether out of place in a paraphrase, and their presence is a confession of failure in paraphrasing. All explanations of difficulties must be intrinsic parts of the paraphrase itself. If any sentence in the paraphrase requires a note to explain it, you must rewrite the sentence until it explains itself.
9. A common fault in using indirect speech is the constant repetition of the "saying verb"–*e.g.,* "The poet says that'–''The poet further says'–'' The poet again remarks that', and so on. The "verb of saying', if used at all, should come once, at the beginning and not again.
10. Write out a rough draft of your paraphrase first. (You may have to write several drafts before you get the paraphrase to your satisfaction.) Revise this carefully, comparing it with the original to see that you have omitted nothing, over- (or under-) emphasised

nothing, nor imitated the original too closely. Correct any mistakes in spelling, punctuation, grammar or idiom. Read it *aloud* (for the ear sometimes can detect a blemish which the eye overlooks) to hear if it reads well as a piece of good English.

11. If, after taking pains, you feel the paraphrase is as good as you can make it, finally write out the fair copy neatly and legibly.

SPECIMENS

1

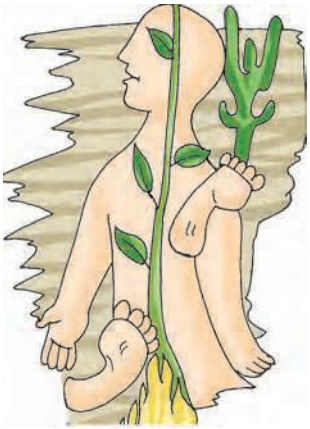

Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land ?
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burn'd.
As home his footsteps he hath turn'd.
From wandering on a foreign strand ?
If such there breathe, go, mark him well ;
For him no Minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim;
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentred all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung.
Unwept, unhonour'd, and unsung.

–Scott

PARAPHRASE

It is difficult to believe that any man can be so spiritually dead as to have no love for his native country after travelling in foreign lands. But if such an unpatriotic person does exist, take careful note of his career ; and you will find that he will never inspire poets to celebrate him in deathless song. He may be a man of high rank, of noble family and of riches beyond the dreams of avarice; but these great advantages will not save him from oblivion. In spite of them all, he will win no fame during his lifetime; and when he dies he will die in a double sense. His body will return to the dust whence it came, and his name will be forgotten. None will weep for him, none will honour him, and no poet will keep his name alive in immortal poetry.

2

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
All but the page prescribed, their present state :
From brutes what men, from men what spirits know;
Or who could suffer being here below ?
The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play ?
Pleas'd to the last, he crops the flow'ry food,
And licks the hand just rais'd to shed his blood.
Oh, blindness to the future ! kindly giv'n,
That each may fill the circle mark'd by Heav'n,
Who sees with equal eyes, as God of all,
A hero perish, or a sparrow fall.

–Pope

PARAPHRASE

It would be impossible for us to continue living in this world if each of us knew exactly what fate had in store for him. So God in His mercy conceals the future from all His creatures, and reveals only the present. He hides from the animals what men know, and He hides from men what the angels know. For example, if a lamb had reason like a man, it could not gambol happily, knowing it was destined to be killed for human food. But, being quite ignorant of its fate,

it is happy to the last minute of its short life contentedly grazing in the flowery meadow, and even in its innocence licks the hand of the butcher who is about to slaughter it. What a blessing it is that we are ignorant of the future ! God, to Whom the death of a sparrow is of equal importance with the death of a hero, has in His mercy thus limited our knowledge, so that we might fulfil our duty in the sphere to which He has appointed us.

3

Perseverance is the very hinge of all virtues. On looking over the world, the cause of nine-tenths of the lamentable failures which occur in men's undertakings, and darken and degrade so much of their history, lies not in the want of talents, or the will to use them, but in the vacillating and desultory mode of using them, in flying from object to object, in staring away at each little disgust, and thus applying the force which might conquer any one difficulty to a series of difficulties, so large that no human force can conquer them. The smallest brook on earth, by continuing to run, has hollowed out for itself a considerable valley to flow in. Commend me therefore to the virtue of perseverance. Without it all the rest are little better than fairy gold, which glitters in your purse, but when taken to market proves to be slate or cinders.

–Carlyle

PARAPHRASE

All the virtues depend on the one virtue of perseverance. It is lack of perseverance, not lack of ability, that is the cause of most of the sad failures that stain the history of mankind. It is because men do not persevere in overcoming one difficulty at a time, that they fail. Instead of sticking to one aim in life until it is realized, they hesitate, get discouraged at every small rebuff, change from one aim to another, and so create for themselves such a series of difficulties as can never be overcome by human power. Hence they fail to accomplish anything. Even a small stream will carve out for itself a deep and wide channel simply by constantly flowing. Without perseverance, all the other virtues are like the deceitful fairy gold of the fairy-tales, which turns to worthless stones when you try to use it as money in the shops.

EXERCISE 164

Paraphrase the following.

1. Some murmur, when their sky is clear
   And wholly bright to view,
   If one small speck of dark appear
   In their great heaven of blue :
   And some with thankful love are filled,
   If but one streak of light,
   One ray of God's good mercy, gild
   The darkness of their night.

–Trench

2. Lives of great men all remind us
   We can make our lives sublime,
   And, departing, leave behind us,
   Footprints on the sands of time;
   Footprints, that perhaps, another,
   Sailing o'er life's solemn main;
   A forlorn and shipwreck'd brother
   Seeing, shall take heart again.

–Longfellow

3. More things are wrought by prayer
   Than this world dreams of. Wherefore, let thy voice
   Rise like a fountain for me night and day.
   For what are men better than sheep or goats
   That nourish a blind life within the brain,
   If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer.
   Both for themselves and those who call them friends !

–Tennyson

4. In such a world ; so thorny, and where none
Finds happiness unblighted; or, if found,
Without some thistly sorrow at its side;
It seems the part of wisdom, and no sin
Against the law of love, to measure lots
With less distinguish'd than ourselves, that thus
We may with patience bear our moderate ills,
And sympathize with others suffering more.

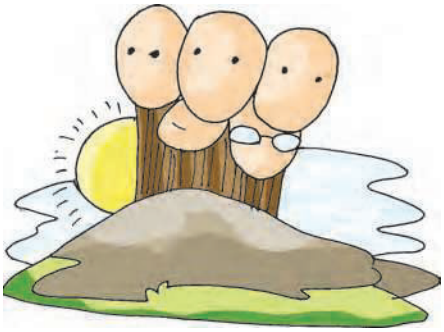

–Cowper

5. Children we are all
Of one great father, in whatever clime
Nature or chance hath cast the seeds of life–
All tongues, all colours; neither after death
Shall we be sorted into languages
And tints, white, black, and tawny, Greek and Goth,
Northmen, and offspring of hot Africa ;
The All-father, He in Whom we live and move;
He, the indifferent Judge of all, regards
Nations, and hues, and dialects alike :
According to their works shall they be judged
When even-handed Justice in the scale
Their good and evil weighs.

–Southey

6. Beside yon straggling fence that skirts the way,
With blossom'd furze unprofitably gay,
There, in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule,
The village master taught his little school ;
A man severe he was, and stern to view,–
I knew him well, and every truant knew,
Well had the boding tremblers learn'd to trace
The day's disasters in his morning face;
Full well they laugh'd with counterfeited glee,
At all his jokes,–for many a joke had he;
Full well the busy whisper, circling round,
Convey'd the dismal tidings when he frown'd;
Yet he was kind; or if severe in aught,
The love he bore to learning was in fault.

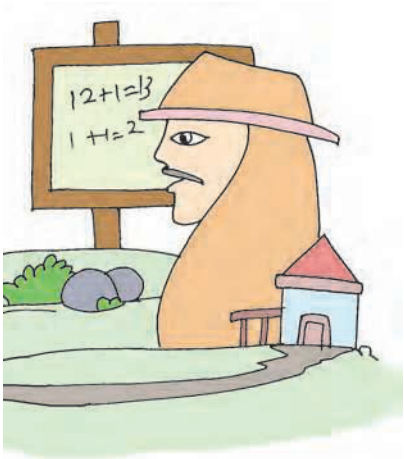

7. Hark ! 'tis the twanging horn. O'er yonder bridge,
That with its wearisome but needful length
Bestrides the wintry flood, in which the moon
Sees her unwrinkled face reflected bright,
He comes, the herald of a noisy world,
With spattered boots, trappped waist and frozen locks.
News from all nations lumbering at his back,
True to his charge, the close-packed load behind,
Yet careless what he brings, his one concern
Is to conduct it to the destined inn,
And, having dropped the expected bag, pass on
He whistles as he goes, light-hearted wretch,
Cold and yet cheerful : messenger of grief
Perhaps to thousands and of joy to some,
To him indifferent whether grief or joy.

–Cowper

8. Be it a weakness, it deserves some praise,
We love the play-place of our early days,
The scene is touching and the heart is stone
That feels not at the sight, and feels at none;
The wall on which we tried our graving skill,
The very name we carved subsisting still,
The bench on which we sat while deep-employed.
Though mangled, hacked, and hewed, not yet destroyed;
The little ones, unbuttoned, glowing hot,
Playing our games and on the very spot;
The pleasing spectacle at once excites
Such recollection of our own delights,
That viewing it, we seem almost to obtain
Our innocent sweet simple years again.

–Cowper

9. Since trifles make the sum of human things,
And half our misery from our foibles springs ;
Since life's best joys consist in peace and ease,
And few can save or serve, but all may please;
Oh ! let th' ungentle spirit learn from hence,
A small unkindness is a great offence.
Large bounties to restore, we wish in vain,
But all may shun the guilt of giving pain.
To bless mankind with tides of flowing wealth,
With power to grace them, or to crown with health,
Our little lot denies, but heaven decrees
To all the gift of minist'ring ease ;
The mild forbearance at another's fault ;
The taunting word, suppress'd as soon as thought ;
On these Heaven bade the bliss of life depend,
And crush'd ill fortune when it made a friend.

–Hanmah More

10. Now came still Evening on, and Twilight grey
Had in her sober livery all things clad.
Silence accompanied–for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, those to their nests,
Were slunk–all but the wakeful nightingale ;
She all night long her amorous descant sung.
Silence was pleased. Now glow'd the firmament
With living sapphires. Hesperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon,
Rising in clouded majesty at length.
Apparent queen, unveil'd her peerless light,
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.

11. These few precepts in thy memory
See thou character. Give thy thoughts no tongue,
Nor any unproportioned thought his act :
Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel;
But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
Of each new-hatched, unfledged comrade. Beware
Of entrance to a quarrel, but being in,
Bear't that the opposed may beware of thee.
Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice,

Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgement.
Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy,
But not expressed in fancy; rich, not gaudy;
For the apparel often proclaims the man.
Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
For loan oft loses both itself and friend,
And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.

12. If misery be the effect of virtue, it ought to be reverenced; if of ill-fortune, to be pitied; and if of vice, not to be insulted; because it is, perhaps, itself a punishment adequate to the crime by which it was produced; and the humanity of that man can deserve no panegyric who is capable of reproaching a criminal in the hands of the executioner.

–Johnson

13. We are all short-sighted, and very often see but one side of a matter ; our views are not extended to all that has a connection with it. From this defect I think no man is free. We see but in part, and we know but in part, and therefore it is no wonder we conclude not right from our partial views. This might instruct the proudest esteemer of his own parts how useful it is to talk and consult with others, even such as come short of him in capacity, quickness, and penetration; for since no one sees all, and we generally have different prospects of the same thing, according to our different, as I may say, positions to it, it is not incongruous to think, nor beneath any man to try, whether another man may not have notions of things which have escaped him, and which his reason would make use of if they came into his mind.

–Locke

14. All the performances of human art, at which we look with praise or wonder, are instances of the resistless force of perseverance; it is by this that the quarry becomes a pyramid, and that distant countries are united by canals. If a man was to compare the effect of a single stroke of a pickaxe, or of one impression of the spade, with the general design and last result, he would be overwhelmed by the sense of their disproportion; yet those petty operations, incessantly continued, in time surmount the greatest difficulties, and mountains are levelled, and oceans bounded, the slender force of human beings. *–Johnson*

15. The proverbial oracles of our parsimonious ancestors have informed us that the fatal waste of fortune is by small expenses, by the profusion of sums too little singly to alarm our caution, and which we never suffer ourselves to consider together. Of the same kind is prodigality of life; he that hopes to look back hereafter with satisfaction upon past years must learn to know the present value of single minutes, and endeavour to let no particle of time fall useless to the ground. An Italian philosopher expressed in his motto that time was his estate; an estate indeed, that will produce nothing without cultivation, but will always abundantly repay the labours of industry, and satisfy the most extensive desires, if no part of it be suffered to lie waste by negligence, to be overrun by noxious plants, or laid out for show rather than for use.

–Johnson

16. Mr. Hampden was a gentleman of a good extraction and a fair fortune, who from a life of great pleasure and license had on a sudden retired to extraordinary sobriety and strictness, and yet retained his usual cheerfulness and affability; which, together with the opinion of his wisdom and justice and the courage he had shewed in opposing the ship-money, raised his reputation to a very great height, not only in Buckinghamshire where he lived, but generally throughout the kingdom. He was not a man of many words, and rarely began than discourse, or made the first entrance upon any business that was assumed; but a very weighty speaker, and after he had heard a full debate, and observed how the House was like to be inclined, took up the argument, and shortly and clearly and craftily so stated it that he commonly conducted it to the conclusion he desired; and if he found he could not do that, he was never without the dexterity to divert the debate to another time and to prevent the determining of anything in the negative which might prove inconvenient in the future.

–Clarendon

COMMON ABBREVIATIONS

A, ampere; argon.
Å, angstrom unit.
A.A.A., Amateur Athletic Association.
A.B., Bachelor of Arts (L *artium baccalaureus*).
A.E.A., Atomic Energy Authority.
A.F.C., A.F.M., Air Force Cross (Medal)
Ag, silver.
Al, aluminium.
As, arsenic.
Aslib, Association of Special Libraries and Infor-mation Bureaux.
Au, gold.
B, boron.
B.A., Bachelor of Arts.
Ba, barium.
Be, beryllium.
Bi, bismuth.
b.p., boiling point.
Br., bromine.
C, carbon.
c., L *circa, about* (with dates, numbers etc.).
Ca, calcium.
CaCO3, calcium, carbonate, chalk.
CaO, calcium oxide, lime.
cal., calorie.
Cantab., of Cambridge University (L *Canta-brigiensis*).
Cb, columbium.
c.c., cm3, cubic centimetre.
C.C.P.R., Central Council of Physical Recreation.
Cd, cadmium.
Cdr, Commander.
Ce, cerium.
cg, centigram(s).
c.g.s., centimetre-gram-second system of units.
Cl, chlorine.
C.I.S., Common wealth of Independent States.
Cm, curium.
cm, centimetre(s).
Co, cobalt.
C.P., Communist Party.
Cr, chromium.
Cs, caesium.
Cu, copper.
d.c., direct current.
D.g., by the grace of God (L *Dei gratia*).
D.Lit., Doctor of Literature.
D.Litt., Doctor of Letters (L *doctor literarum*).
D.M., Doctor of Medicine.
DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid.
D.P.H., Diploma in Public Health.
D.Ph., D.Phil., Doctor of Philosophy.
D.Sc., Doctor of Science.
ECG, electrocardiogram.
EEC, electro-encephalogram.
E.P.N.S., electroplated nickel silver.
E.P.T., excess profits tax.
Esro, European Space Research Organization.
e.s.u., electrostatic unit(s).
eV, electron volt(s).
F, fluorine.
F.A., Football Association.
F.A.O., Food and Agriculture Organization.
F.C.A., Fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants.
Fe, iron.
Fr, Father.
F.R.S., Fellow of the Royal Society.
F.W.A., Family Welfare Association.
F.Z.S., Fellow of the Zoological Society.
g, acceleration due to gravity; gram(s).
GATT, Gatt, General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.
Ge, germantum.
gm, gram(s).
G.P., general practitioner.
gr, grain(s).
H, hydrogen.
H.A., hardy annual.
Hants, Hampshire.
HCL, hydrochloric acid.
He, helium.
Hf, hafnium.
Hg, mercury.
h.t., high tension.
H.W.M., high-water mark.
I, iodine.
I.L.O., International Labour Organization.
I.M.F., International Monetary Fund.
Ind., Indiana.
I.Q., intelligence quotient.
K, potassium.
kc/s, kilocycles per second.
kg, kilo(s), Kilogram(s).
kilo-, a thousand.
km, kilometre(s).
K.O., knock-out.
Kr, krypton.
kV, kilovolt(s).
kW, kilowatt(s).
kWh, kilowatt-hour(s).
La, lanthanum; Louisiana.
Li, lithium.
Linn., Linnaean system of classification.
Lit, Hum., Literae Humanpres, see dictionary.
L.T.A., Lawn Tennis Association.
L.W.M., low-water mark.
M, (in metric units) mega–, a million; (in Roman numerals) 1,000.
m, micro-, × 10–6. one-millionth; micron.
mm, micromicro-, × 10–12, one billionth.
M.B., Bachelor of Medicine (L *medicinae baccalaureus*).
mb, millibar(s).
M.C.C., Marylebone Cricket Club.
M.Ch., Master of Surgery (L *magister chirurgiae*).
M.D., Doctor of Medicine (L *medicinae doctor*):
MeV, million electron-volts.
Mg, magnesium.
mg, milligram(s).
M.I., Military Intelligence.
Mich., Michigan.
Minn., Minnesota.
ml, millilitre(s).
M.M., Military Medal.
mm, millimetre(s).
Mn, manganese.
Mo, molybdenum; Missouri.
M.O.H., Medical Officer of Health.
m.p., melting point.
M.R.C.P., M.R.C.S., M.R.C.V.S., Member of the Royal College of Physicians (Surgeons. Veterinary Surgeons).
M.Sc., Master of Science.
Mus. B., Mus.D., Mus.M., Bachelor (Doctor, Master) of Music (L musicae baccalaureus, etc.).

Mx, Middlesex.
N, Nitrogen.
n.a., not available; not applicable.
Na, sodium.
NaCl, sodium chloride, common salt.
Ne, neon.
Neb., Nebr., Nebraska.
N.F.S., National Fire Service.
N.H.I., National Health Insurance.
N.H.S., National Health Service.
Ni, nickel.
n.p., net personality.
N.P.L., National Physical Laboratory.
N.T., New Testament; National Trust.
N.U.R., National Union of Railwaymen.
N.U.T., National Union of Teachers.
O, Oxygen.
O., Ohio.
Okla., Oklahoma.
O.M., Order of Merit.
Ont., Ontario.
O.R., other ranks.
Ore., Oreg., Oregon.
Os, osmium.
O.T., Old Testament.
P, phosphorus.
Pa, Penn., Pennsylvania.
Pb, Lead.
P.C., Privy Councillor.
p.d., (elect.) potential difference.
Pd. palladium.
P.D.S.A., People's Dispensary for Sick Animals.
P.E.P., Political and Economic Planning.
Ph.D., Doctor of Philosophy (L *philosophiae doctor*)
P.L.A., Port of London Authority.
P.N.E.U., Parents National Educations Union.
P.O.W., prisoner of war.
P.R., proportional representation; public relations.
P.R.O., public relations officer.
Pt., platinum.
Pu, plutonium.
Q.B., Queen's Bench.
Q.C., Queen's Counsel.
Que., Quebec.
Ra, radium.
R.A.D.A., Royal Academy of Dramatic Art.
Rb, rubidium.
R.B.A., Royal (Society of) British Artists.
R.D., refer (cheque) to drawer.
R.D.C., Rural District Council.
R.I., Rhode Island.
R.I.P., may he/she/they rest in peace (L *requiesca(n) t in pace*).
R.M., Royal Marines; Royal Mail; Resident Magistrate.
R.M.A., Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst (formerly Woolwich).
R.M.C., Royal Military College, Sandhurst (now R.M.A.).
Rn, randon.
RNA, ribonucleic acid.
R.N.(V).R., Royal Naval (Volunteer) Reserve.
R.N.Z., Royal New Zealand (A.f., etc.).
R.O.C., Royal Observer Corps.
R/T., radio-telegraphy, -telephony.
Ru, ruthenjum.
S, Sulphur.
Sb, antimony.
Sc, scandium.
Sc.D., Doctor of Science (L *scientiae doctor*).
S.C.R., Senior Common (Combination) Room.
Se, selenium.
Seato, South East Asia Treaty Organization.
SF, science fiction.
Si, silicon.
Sn, tin.
S.P.G., Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.
Sr, strontium.
STD, subscriber trunk dialling.
s.t.p., standard temperature and pressure.
s.v., (see) under the word (specified), L *sub verbo or sub voce.*
T.A., Territorial Army.
Tenn., Tennessee
Tex., Texas.
Th, thorium.
Ti, titanium.
U, uranium; upper-class usage.
U.A.E., United Arab Emirates.
UHF, ultra-high frequency.
Uno, United Nations Organization.
V, vanadium; volt.
Va, Vuginia.
V.A.D., Voluntary Aid Detachment.
VE, Victory in Europe (VE day, May 8, 1945).
VHF, very high frequency, see dictionary under VERY.
V.I.P., very important person, see dictionary under VERY.
v.l., variant reading. alternative version (L *varia Lectio*).
vt, Vermont.
Vulg., Vulgate.
W, tungsten (wolfram).
W.A.A.F., Women's
Auxiliary Air Force.
W.D., War department.
WHO, World Health Organization.
Xe, xenon.
Yb, ytterbium.
Y.H.A., Youth Hostels Association.
Yt, yttrium.
Zn, zinc.
Zr, zirconium.

English for general competitions

from Plinth to Paramount

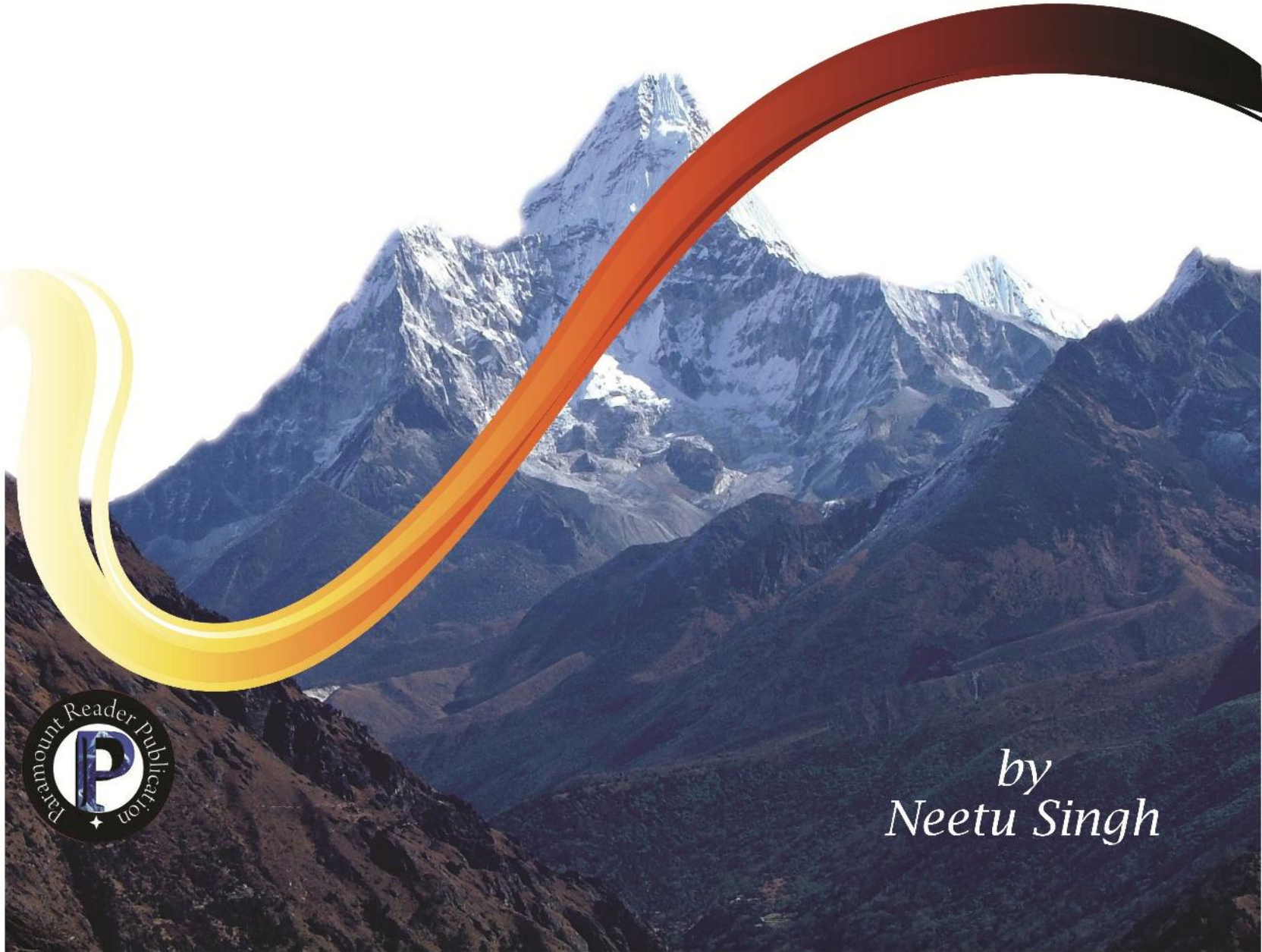

by
Neetu Singh

Paramount Reader Publication

ENGLISH

For General Competitions

from

Plinth

to

Paramount

Indispensable for-
All Competitive Exams

By
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(Director)
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Delhi

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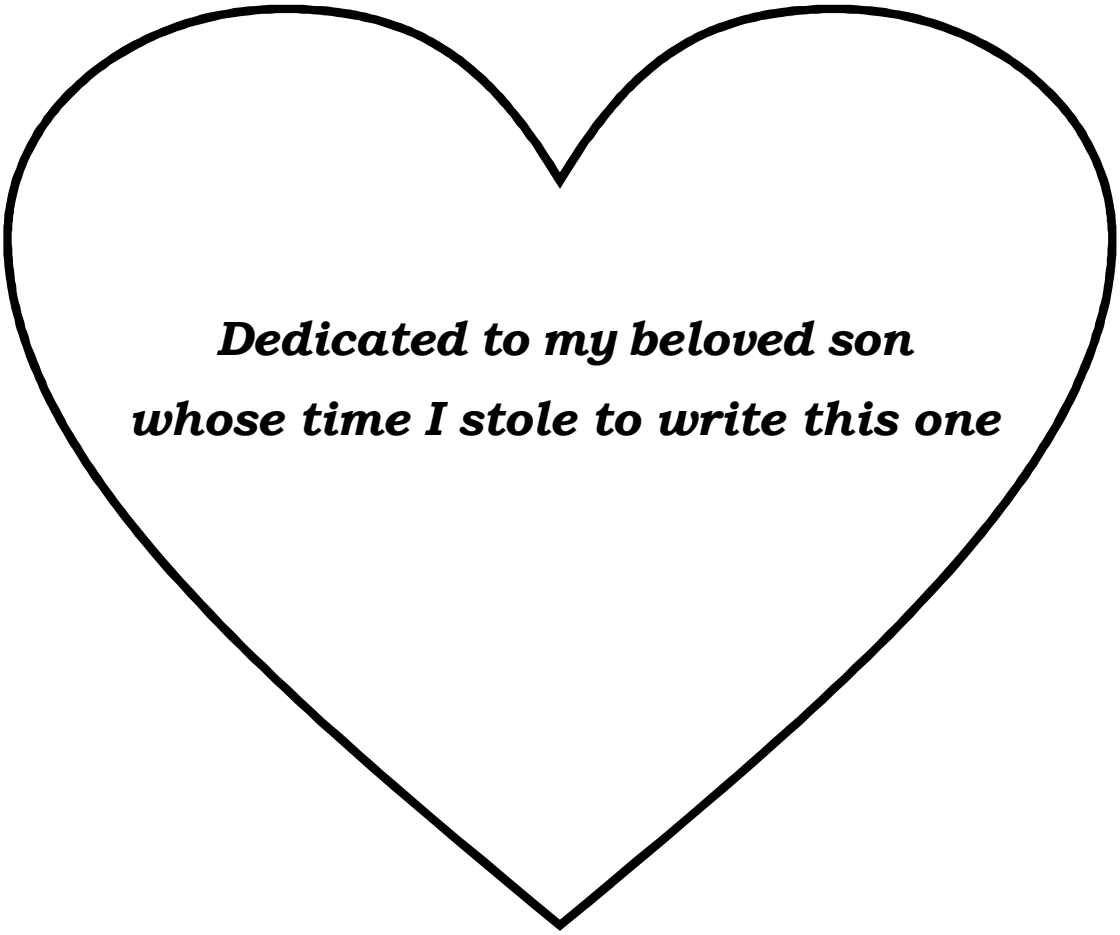
Dedicated to my beloved son
whose time I stole to write this one

PREFACE

To the First Edition

This book ***' English for General Competitions- from Plinth to Paramount'*** *is my gift to the aspirants of competitive exams who will surely be benefited by the approach of this book alongwith the numerous questions given at the end of every chapter carefully picked from different question papers of various competitive exams. The solution of every question has detailed explanation for easy understanding . All the latest questions especially of Passive Voice and Narration have been incorporated to help the students know the lattest pattern of the questions being asked in different competitive exams. In nutshell, I would like to say that this book is an attempt to fill the void that aspirants of Hindi Medium felt when it came to preparing English for Competitive Exams.*

I earnestly thank the students of Paramount Coaching Centre Pvt. Ltd. who helped me detect all the typographical and other mistakes, that might have crept inadvertently, had they not detected them with their keen sight.

Our students' constructive feedback and suggestions are most welcome which have always remained and will remain our guiding light . I will be highly obliged if you message/mail me your feedback or suggestion on 8860330003 or on paramount.no1@gmail.com.

Neetu Singh

May 31, 2012

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इस किताब में प्रयुक्त *abbreviations*

S/ Sub → Subject
O/Obj → Object
V → Verb
S.V → Singular Verb
P.V → Plural Verb
N → Noun
S.N → Singular Noun
P.N → Plural Noun

P → Pronoun
S.P → Singular Pronoun
P.P → Plural Pronoun
Adj. → Adjective
Adv. → Adverb
Prep → Preposition
H.V → Helping Verb
M.V → Main Verb

V_1 → First Form of Verb
V_2 → Second Form of Verb
V_3 → Third Form of Verb
Aux. Verb → Auxilliary Verb
U.N → Uncountable Noun
S.C.N. → Singular Countable Noun
P.C.N. → Plural Countable Noun

1 VERB *(BASIC)*

CHAPTER

Verb कार्य का होना दर्शाता है। अत: verb को '**doing word**' भी कहते हैं।

Verb को दो वर्गों में बाँटा जा सकता है-

Verb

- **Helping Verb**
  - **Modals**
    - जो Main verb का कार्य नहीं कर सकते हैं।
    - **जैसे:** Can, Could, May, etc.
    - **नोट:** **Need, dare** एवं **used** to (Marginal Auxiliary Verbs) **Need** एवं **Dare** modal एवं main verb दोनों का कार्य कर सकते हैं।
  - **Primary Auxiliary Verbs (Be, Do, Have)**
    - जो Helping verb एवं Main verb दोनों का कार्य कर सकते हैं।
- **Main Verb**
  - Main verb के अन्तर्गत हम उन verbs को पढ़ते हैं जो वाक्य के मुख्य क्रिया के स्थान पर आते हैं।

Used to modal एवं adjective दोनों का कार्य कर सकता है।

AUXILIARY VERBS: वे **verbs जो अन्य verbs के साथ प्रयक्त** होते है **Auxiliary verbs** कहलाते हैं। इन्हें **helping verbs** भी कहा जाता है।

1. **MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS : Can, Could, May, Might, Shall, Will, Would, Should, Must, Ought to** Modal Auxiliary Verbs है। इनका प्रयोग **सिर्फ helping verb के रूप में** ही किया जा सकता है।

जैसे: 1. (a) She $\underbrace{\textbf{can}}_{\textbf{Modal}}$ $\underbrace{\text{run}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ fast.

(b) You $\underbrace{\textbf{should}}_{\textbf{Modal}}$ $\underbrace{\text{study}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ English.

2. **MARGINAL AUXILIARY VERBS : Used to, need, dare Marginal Auxiliary Verbs** हैं। ये ऐसे Modals है जिनका प्रयोग वाक्य में **Main Verb (need एवं dare)** और **adjective (used to)** के रूप में भी हो सकता है।

जैसे: 1. I $\underbrace{\text{am}}_{\text{H.V.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{used to}}_{\textbf{Adjective}}$ $\underbrace{\text{sleeping}}_{\text{Gerund}}$ late at night.

2. (a) I $\underbrace{\textbf{need}}_{\textbf{M.V.}}$ you.

(b) You $\underbrace{\textbf{need}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ not $\underbrace{\text{come}}_{\text{Direct infinitive}}$ tomorrow.

3. (a) She does not $\underbrace{\textbf{dare}}_{\textbf{M.V.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{to come}}_{\text{Infinitive}}$ home late.

(b) I $\underbrace{\textbf{dare}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ not $\underbrace{\text{enter}}_{\text{Direct infinitive}}$ his room without permission.

AUXILIARY VERBS के कुछ मख्य बिन्द

Rule (1): Modal Auxiliary Verbs का प्रयोग **Main Verbs के रूप में नहीं** होता है। इसका प्रयोग Helping Verbs के रूप में होता है। जैसे:

I $\underbrace{\textbf{can}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{lift}}_{\text{M.V}}$ this box

He $\underbrace{\textbf{should}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{work}}_{\text{M.V}}$ hard.

Rule (2): Modal Auxiliary verbs का **V_1, V_2, V_3, ing-form या s/es-form नहीं** होते हैं। इसका **प्रयोग सभी Numbers तथा persons के Subjects के साथ हमेशा एक ही रूप में** होता है। अर्थात इसके रूप (form) में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होता है।

जैसे: She **can** $\underbrace{\text{help}}_{V_1}$ you.

You **should** $\underbrace{\text{understand}}_{V_1}$ you friends.

Rule (3): Ought तथा Used के बाद Infinitive 'to + V_1' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: We **ought** $\underbrace{\text{to respect}}_{\text{to} + V_1}$ our parents.

He **used** $\underbrace{\text{to come}}_{\text{to} + V_1}$ late.

USE OF MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS

CAN एवं COULD

Rule (1): Can का प्रयोग **power (शक्ति). ability (योग्यता) तथा capacity (सामर्थ्य/क्षमता)** को अभिव्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है। Could का प्रयोग **Past ability/ power/ capacity (भतकाल की योग्यता/शक्ति/सामर्थ्य)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: 1. He **can** lift the box.
2. I **could** not come yesterday.

Rule (2): Can का प्रयोग **permission (अनमति) देने के भाव** को अभिव्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: 1. You **can** go now.

Rule (3): Can का प्रयोग **theoretical possibility (सैद्धांतिक सम्भावना)** को अभिव्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: Everyone **can** make a mistake.

Rule (4): Could का प्रयोग **remote possibility** व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: There **could** be a bomb under your seat.

Rule (5): Can का प्रयोग **'दोस्ताना निवेदन'** करने वाले प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में किया जाता है एवं **Could 'औपचारिक निवेदन'** करने वाले प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में।

जैसे: 1. **Can** I take your scooter?
2. **Could** I talk to Mr. Shukla?

Note: 'able to' का प्रयोग 'can/could' के साथ न करें क्योंकि दोनों क्षमता दर्शाते है।

I cannot be able to come tomorrow. (×)

नोट: ऐसा करके हम अपने वाक्य को **superfluous** बना देते है। **'superfluous'** के अर्थ है **'more than what is needed'.**

इस वाक्य का सही formation होगा-

I **cannot** come tomorrow. (✓)

I will not be **able to** come tomorrow. (✓)

MAY, MIGHT , oa MUST

Rule (1): May का प्रयोग **संभावना/अनिश्चितता के भाव** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: It **may** rain tonight.

Rule (2): May का प्रयोग **इच्छा को व्यक्त करने** के लिए **optative sentence** में होता है।

जैसे: **May** you live long !

Rule (3): यदि **Principal clause Present Tense** में हो तथा **subordinate clause that/so that/ in order that** से प्रारंभ हो तथा इससे **purpose (उद्देश्य) का बोध** हो तो **subordinate clause में may का प्रयोग** होता है।

जैसे: We eat **so that** we **may** live.

Rule (4): Might का प्रयोग less possibility (कम संभावना) के भाव को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है। जबकि **may का प्रयोग more possibility (ज्यादा संभावना)** के भाव को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: He **might** pass the exam but seeing his intelligence, I do not have much hope.

Rule (5): अगर **सम्भावना बहुत अधिक हो तो Must का प्रयोग** करें ।

जैसे: He stays in five-star hotels and travels by flight. He **must** be very rich.

Rule (6): 'May' का प्रयोग सम्मान के साथ निवेदन करने के लिए प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में किया जाता है।

जैसे: May I come in sir?

नोट: May एवं Might के साथ 'Possibly' एवं 'likely' का प्रयोग न करें क्योंकि दोनों सम्भावना दर्शाते हैं।

We may possibly come tomorrow. (×) (Superfluous)

We **may** come tomorrow. (✓)

We will **possibly** come tomorrow. (✓)

SHALL , oa WILL

Rule (1): Shall का प्रयोग first person के Subjects I/We के साथ future के किसी कार्य को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है। **बाकी subjects के साथ 'will' का का प्रयोग** करें ।

जैसे: I **shall** go to college tomorrow and he **will** come with me.

➢ Modern English में हम **'I'** एवं **'we'** के साथ **'will'** का प्रयोग कर सकते है जो अब स्वीकार्य है लेकिन **interrogative sentence** में अब भी **'I'** एवं **'we'** के साथ **'shall'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Will I go? (×)

Shall I go? (✓)

नोट: **Shall का प्रयोग second person के Subject – you तथा third person के Subjects – He, she, it, they, के साथ command (आदेश), promise (वादा) threat (धमकी), determination (दृढ़ संकल्प), compulsion (अनिवार्यता) एवं Advice (सलाह) को व्यक्त करने के लिए** किया जाता है। इसी प्रकार के वाक्यों में **will का प्रयोग I एवं We के साथ** होता है।

जैसे: **(a) Command (आदेश)**

You shall leave the room at once.

(b) Promise (प्रतिज्ञा/वादा)

You shall be awarded.

I will help you come what may.

(c) Threat (धमकी)

Trespassers shall be prosecuted.

I will punish you.

(d) Determination (दढ संकल्प)

I will work hard and score good marks.

(e) Compulsion (अनिवार्यता)

You shall be here for the meeting.

I will have to finish this work.

Rule (2): Let us/ let's से शरू होने वाले Imperative sentences के question tags में भी 'shall' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: **Let us** dance together, **shall we ?**

Rule (3): Shall का प्रयोग **suggestions (सुझावों) को व्यक्त करने वाले Interrogative sentence में first person के subjects के साथ** होता है

जैसे: **Shall** we talk to the management?

नोट: **'Shall'** एवं **'will'** का प्रयोग निम्नलिखित प्रकार के वाक्यों में नहीं होता है–

1. **अगर वाक्य past से शरू हो–**

जैसे: He hoped that he ~~will~~ **would** pass the test.

अगर **वाक्य past से शुरू हो तो 'Will/ shall' नहीं 'would/ should' का प्रयोग** होगा।

दरअसल ये नियम तब भी लाग होते है जब 'will/shall' के स्थान पर कोई और Modal या verb का प्रयोग हआ हो।

जैसे: He said that he ~~is~~ **was** coming.

2. अगर **दो कार्य भविष्य में एक के बाद एक** हो और **दूसरे कार्य पहले कार्य के होने पर निर्भर करे** तो **पहला कार्य Simple Present Tense में** होगा और **दूसरा simple future tense में** । हमें हिन्दी से English Translation करने की आदत होती है जिसकी वजह से हम पहले कार्य को भी simple future में प्रयोग कर लेते है।

जैसे: अगर मैं आऊँगी तो आप से मिलँगी।

If I will come, I will meet you. (×)

If I come, I will meet you. (✓)

➢ निम्नलिखित शब्दों को देखे। इनके तुरंत बाद simple future tense का प्रयोग नहीं होता है बल्कि simple present tense का प्रयोग होता है।

If, as soon as, in case, provided, unless, until, before, after, when. (Conditional Sentence Chapter देखें)

WOULD

Rule (1): Would का प्रयोग **Past habit** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: I **would** go to school by bus.

Rule (2): 'Would' का प्रयोग **'preference' (पसंद/प्राथमिकता) या 'choice' (पसंद/चनाव)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है। सामान्यत: ऐसे वाक्यों में **'rather'** का भी प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He **would rather** die **than** beg.

Rule (3): अगर **वाक्य का आरम्भ Past से हो** तो **वाक्य आगे Past में ही रहेगा** और **'Will'** का Past Tense **'Would'** होता है।

जैसे: He hoped that he ~~will~~ would pass.

Rule (4): 'Would', 'used to' एवं 'Simple Past tense' तीनों का प्रयोग भतकाल के Routine Action को दर्शाने के लिए भी किया जाता है।

जैसे: I $\underbrace{\textbf{used to go}}_{\textbf{used to + V}_1}$ to school by bus. I $\underbrace{\textbf{would return}}_{\textbf{would + V}_1}$ on foot. We $\underbrace{\textbf{played}}_{\textbf{V}_2}$ for hours before returning home.

Rule (5): Would का प्रयोग **Present या Past के कोरी कल्पना को व्यक्त करने वाले वाक्यों के principal clause में** होता है।

जैसे: If I were a bird, I **would** fly in the sky.

नोट: अगर वाक्य **काल्पनिक पद** से संबंधित हो तो सभी subjects के साथ **were** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: I wish, I **were** a bird.

निम्नलिखित शब्दों से वाक्य के काल्पनिक होने का आभास होता है। इनके साथ **'was' का प्रयोग नहीं** होगा।

जैसे: **I wish, as though, if, as if, would that एवं suppose.**

Rule (6): 'Would' का प्रयोग **'will' के Past form** के रूप में **Indirect speech में** होता है। जैसे:

He said, "He **will** go there." ***(Direct)***

He said that he **would** go there. ***(Indirect)***

Rule (7): Would का प्रयोग **Polite request** को व्यक्त करने के लिए प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में होता है।

जैसे: **Would** you help me ?

Rule (8): Would का प्रयोग **Probability (संभावना)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: He **would** be sleeping.

Rule (9): Would का प्रयोग **wish (इच्छा)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: I wish, India **would** become a developed country soon.

Rule (10):'Would like to' का प्रयोग भी **wish (इच्छा)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए होता है।

जैसे: I **would like to** talk to the manager

SHOULD

Rule (1): Should का प्रयोग **suggestion (सलाह)** देने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: You **should** study English.

Rule (2): 'Should' का प्रयोग **'advice'** देने के भाव को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: You **should** not laugh at his mistakes.

Rule (3): Should का प्रयोग **lest के बाद negative purpose (नकारात्मक उद्देश्य) को व्यक्त करने के लिए** किया जाता है।

जैसे: He ran fast **lest** he **should** miss the train.

नोट: lest के साथ Simple present tense का भी प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: Take care lest you fall.

OUGHT TO

Rule (1): Ought to का प्रयोग **moral obligation (नैतिक कर्त्तव्य) या duty** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: We **ought to** love our country.

MUST

Rule (1): Must का प्रयोग **compulsion (बाध्यता)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: Candidates **must** write in ink.

Rule (2): Must का प्रयोग **fixed determination (पक्का इरादा/दढ संकल्प)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: India **must** win the world cup.

Rule (3): Must का प्रयोग **duty (कर्त्तव्य)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: A soldier **must** fight for his country.

USED TO

Used to का प्रयोग **Past habit/situation (भतकाल की आदत/अवस्था)** को व्यक्त करने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: He **used to** study till 10 PM.

(ii) **'Use to' or 'uses to' का प्रयोग Present routine action को व्यक्त करने के लिए नहीं होता** है बल्कि

Present routine action को व्यक्त करने के लिए Simple Present Tense का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He uses to study till 10 p.m and then goes to bed. (×)

He studies till 10 p.m and then goes to bed. (✓)

नोट: (i) Used to का प्रयोग **affirmative, negative तथा Interrogative sentences** में इस प्रकार होता है। जैसे:

(a) Affirmative

He **used to** come here.

(b) Negative

He **used not to** come here.

He **did not use to** come here.

(c) Interrogative

Used he to come here?

Did he use to come here?

नोट: **'Verb + used to'** के बाद **'V_1 + ing'** का प्रयोग होता है और ये **'habitual action'** को दर्शाता है।

जैसे: I **am used to** $\underbrace{\text{getting}}_{V_1+ing}$ up late in the morning.

नोट: कई **Verbs/adjective/phrase** के बाद **'to'** का प्रयोग होता है। यहाँ **to के बाद V_1 का प्रयोग नहीं** होगा बल्कि **'V_1 + ing'** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: **Be used to, accustomed to, averse to, with a view to, addicted to, devoted to, in addition to, look forward to, object to, owing to, given to, taken to, prone to.**

जैसे:
1. He is **addicted to** smoking.
2. I am **looking forward to** meeting you.
3. He was **used to** driving on the right when he was in London.

DARE , oa NEED

➢ 'Dare' दुस्साहस व्यक्त करता है और **'Need'** जरूरत।

➢ **Dare तथा Need का प्रयोग Main Verb एवं modal दोनों ही रूप में** होता है।

जैसे: (1) He $\underbrace{\textbf{needs}}_{\textbf{M.V}}$ me.

(2) She does not $\underbrace{\textbf{dare}}_{\textbf{M.V}}$ to go there.

(3) You $\underbrace{\textbf{need}}_{\textbf{Modal}}$ not come tomorrow.

➢ **Need** एवं **Dare** का प्रयोग **modal के रूप में +ve वाक्यों में नहीं होता।**

जैसे: (1) $\underbrace{\text{I}}_{\text{Sub.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{need}}_{\text{modal}}$ $\underbrace{\text{help}}_{V_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{\text{Obj.}}$. (×)

(2) I $\underbrace{\textbf{need}}_{\textbf{M.V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{to help}}_{\text{Infinitive}}$ him. (✓)

➢ अगर '**dare**' एवं '**need**' का प्रयोग **+ve वाक्यों** में हो तो उसके बाद '**to + V_1**' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (1) He **needs to work** hard.

(2) He **will not dare** to come here.

➢ अगर need एवं dare का प्रयोग helping verb के रूप में हो तो **-ve वाक्यों में need एवं dare के बाद 'to'** का प्रयोग **नही** होता।

जैसे: (1) I **need not** come tomorrow.

(2) He **dare not** cheat anyone again.

निवेदन करने के लिए निम्नलिखित Modals का प्रयोग किया जाता है-

Modals	Use	Example
Can	Friendly request	Can I take your bike?
Could	Formal request	Could I talk to Mr. Singh?
May	Request with respect	May I come in Sir?
Would	Polite Request	Would you help me?

विभिन्न काल एवं Voice में Modals अलग-अलग formulae में प्रयक्त होते है। नीचे दिए गए सारणी में इनका प्रयोग देखे:-

MODALS	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
Indefinite	Sub+modal+V_1+obj.	Obj + modal + be + V_3 + by + sub.
Continuous	Sub + modal + be + V_1 + ing + obj.	×××××
Perfect	Sub + modal + have + V_3 + obj.	Obj + modal + have + been + V_3 + by + sub.
Perfect Continuous	Sub + modal + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for / since + time.	×××××

➢ ऊपर दिए गये सभी formulae को देखें। आप पाऐंगे कि **Modal के तरंत बाद verb का प्रयोग 'V_1' form में होता है।**

➢ **Modals** का प्रयोग '**Perfect**' में नीचे दिए गये **formula** में देखे और उसका **विशेष अर्थ** भी उदाहरण में देखें।

Sub + modal + have +V_3 + obj

➢ कई बार जब हम **Modal + have + V_3** का प्रयोग करते हैं, (जैसे: should have come, could have gone, need not have seen इत्यादि) तो वाक्य में एक **छिपा हुआ अर्थ** भी होता है जो **वाक्य के अर्थ के विपरीत** होता है।

जैसे: (1) I **could** score good marks. **(Meaning-I had the ability)**

(2) I **could have** scored good marks. **(Hidden meaning -I didn't score though I had the ability)**

(3) You **should** work hard. **(Just a suggestion)**

(4) You **should have** worked hard. **(Hidden Meaning - You didn't)**

PRIMARY AUXILIARY VERBS: Do, Have, Be Primary Auxiliary Verbs है। इन verbs का प्रयोग **Main Verb एवं Helping Verb दोनों ही रूप में** किए जा सकते है।

जैसे: 1. **Do** का forms इस प्रकार है- $\underbrace{\text{Do/Does}}_{V_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{Did}}_{V_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{Done}}_{V_3}$

(a) I $\underbrace{\textbf{do}}_{\textbf{M.V.}}$ my work.

(b) I $\underbrace{\textbf{did}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ not $\underbrace{\text{know}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ him.

2. **Have** के forms इस प्रकार है- $\underbrace{\text{Has/have}}_{V_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{Had}}_{V_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{Had}}_{V_3}$

(i) Have का प्रयोग **possession (अधिकार)** दर्शाने के लिए किया जाता है।

I $\underbrace{\textbf{have}}_{\textbf{M.V.}}$ a car.

(ii) Have का प्रयोग '**helping verb**' के रूप में **Perfect** एवं **Perfect continuous tense** में होता है।

(a) I $\underbrace{\textbf{have}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ not $\underbrace{\text{seen}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ him.

(b) I $\underbrace{\textbf{had}}_{\text{H.V.}}$ been $\underbrace{\text{waiting}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ for him for a long time.

(ii) **Have + infinitive** का प्रयोग **forced action (दवाब में किया जाने वाले कार्य)** दर्शाने के लिए किया जाता है।

जैसे: (a) I **have to** work hard.

(b) She **had to** leave her job.

3. **Be** के forms इस प्रकार है- $\underbrace{\text{Be, is, am, are}}_{V_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{was, were}}_{V_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{been}}_{V_3}$

अब **H.V.** एवं **M. V.** के रूप में इनका प्रयोग देखे-

(a) I $\underbrace{\textbf{am}}_{\textbf{M.V}}$ a doctor

(b) He $\underbrace{\textbf{was}}_{\textbf{H.V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{working}}_{\text{M.V}}$ hard.

(b) He $\underbrace{\text{has}}_{\text{H.V}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{been}}_{\textbf{M.V}}$ to London.

MAIN VERB

I. MAIN VERBS: वे **Verbs** जो **Sentence में Main verbs के रूप में** प्रयुक्त होते हैं और **जिनके V_1, V_2, V_3, ing-form, तथा s/es-form वाक्य में प्रयक्त होते हैं Main verb कहलाते हैं।**

जैसे: I $\underbrace{\textbf{know}}_{\textbf{V}_1}$ you.

I $\underbrace{\textbf{knew}}_{\textbf{V}_2}$ you.

I have $\underbrace{\textbf{known}}_{\textbf{V}_3}$ you for two years.

➢ **'Main verb' वाक्य के tense के अनसार विभिन्न forms में परिवर्तित होते हैं।**

FORMS OF VERB

1. Present (1st form)
2. Past (2nd form)
3. Past Participle (3rd form)
4. Present Participle (-ing form)

GROUP - I

Present (1st Form)	अर्थ	Past (2nd Form)	P. Participle (3rd Form)	– ing Form	s/es Form
Arise	उठना	arose	arisen	arising	arises
Awake	जागना	awoke	awaken	awaking	awakes
Be	होना	was, were	been	being	is/was
Bear	जन्म देना	bore	born	bearing	bears
Bear	सहन करना	bore	borne	bearing	bears
Become	बनना	became	become	becoming	becomes
Begin	आरंभ करना	began	begun	beginning	begins
Bite	दाँत से काटना	bit	bitten	biting	bites
Blow	हवा का चलना	blew	blown	blowing	blows
Bind	बाँधना	bound	bound	binding	binds
Bid	आज्ञा देना/बोली लगाना	bade	bidden	bidding	bids
Break	तोड़ना	broke	broken	breaking	breaks
Choose	चुनना	chose	chosen	choosing	chooses
Cling	चिपटना	clung	clung	clinging	clings
Come	आना	came	come	coming	comes
Dig	खोदना	dug	dug	digging	digs
Do	करना	did	done	doing	does
Draw	खींचना	drew	drawn	drawing	draws
Drink	पीना	drank	drunk	drinking	drinks
Drive	चलाना	drove	driven	driving	drives
Eat	खाना	ate	eaten	eating	eats
Fall	गिरना	fell	fallen	falling	falls
Find	पाना	found	found	finding	finds
Fly	उड़ना, उड़ाना	flew	flown	flying	flies
Forbid	मना करना	forbade	forbidden	forbidding	forbids
Forget	भूल जाना	forgot	forgotten	forgetting	forgets
Freeze	जमाना/जमना	froze	frozen	freezing	freezes
Get	पाना	got	got	getting	gets
Give	देना	gave	given	giving	gives
Grind	पीसना	ground	ground	grinding	grinds
Grow	बढ़ना, उगना	grew	grown	growing	grows
Hang	लटकाना	hung	hung	hanging	hangs

Hide	छिपाना/छिपना	hid	hidden	hiding	hides
Hold	थामना	held	held	holding	holds
Know	जानना	knew	known	knowing	knows
Lie	लेटना	lay	lain	lying	lies
Ride	सवारी करना	rode	ridden	riding	rides
Ring	बजना/बजाना	rang	rung	ringing	rings
Rise	उठना/उगना	rose	risen	rising	rises
See	देखना	saw	seen	seeing	sees
Shake	हिलाना	shook	shaken	shaking	shakes
Shine	चमकना	shone	shone	shining	shines
Shoot	फोटो निकालना/गोली मारना	shot	shot	shooting	shoots
Shrink	सिकुडना	shrank	shrunk	shrinking	shrinks
Sing	गाना	sang	sung	singing	sings
Sink	डूबना	sank	sunk	sinking	sinks
Sit	बैठना	sat	sat	sitting	sits
Slay	वध करना	slew	slain	slaying	slays
Speak	बोलना	spoke	spoken	speaking	speaks
Spit	थूकना	spat	spat	spitting	spits
Stand	खड़ा होना	stood	stood	standing	stands
Steal	चुराना	stole	stolen	stealing	steals
Stick	चिपकना	stuck	stuck	sticking	sticks
Strike	चोट मारना/ हडताल करना	struck	struck	striking	strikes
Swear	शपथ लेना	swore	sworn	swearing	swears
Swim	तैरना	swam	swum	swimming	swims
Swing	झूलना	swung	swung	swinging	swings
Take	लेना	took	taken	taking	takes
Tear	फाड़ना	tore	torn	tearing	tears
Wear	पहनना	wore	worn	wearing	wears
Weave	बुनना	wove	woven	weaving	weaves
Win	जीतना	won	won	winning	wins
Wind	चाबी लगाना	wound	wound	winding	winds
Write	लिखना	wrote	written	writing	writes
Wring	निचोडना	wrung	wrung	wringing	wrings

GROUP – II

नीचे दिए गए Verbs में 2nd form एवं 3rd form एक जैसे हैं और 1st form में ed, en अथवा t लगाकर 2nd एवं 3rd form बनाए गये हैं।

Present (1st Form)	**अर्थ**	**Past (2nd Form)**	**P. Participle 3rd Form)**	**– ing Form**	**s/es Form**
Abuse	गाली देना/दुपर्योग करना	abused	abused	abusing	abuses
Act	काम करना/अभिनय करना	acted	acted	acting	acts

Add	जोड़ना	added	added	adding	adds
Admire	प्रशंसा करना	admired	admired	admiring	admires
Advise	उपदेश देना	advised	advised	advising	advises
Allow	अनुमति देना	allowed	allowed	allowing	allows
Answer	उत्तर देना	answered	answered	answering	answers
Appoint	नियुक्त करना	appointed	appointed	appointing	appoints
Appear	प्रकट होना	appeared	appeared	appearing	appears
Arrive	पहुंचना	arrived	arrived	arriving	arrives
Arrest	गिरफ्तार करना	arrested	arrested	arresting	arrests
Ask	पूछना/कहना	asked	asked	asking	asks
Attack	आक्रमण करना	attacked	attacked	attacking	attacks
Bark	भौंकना	barked	barked	barking	barks
Bathe	स्नान करना	bathed	bathed	bathing	bathes
Beg	भीख माँगना	begged	begged	begging	begs
Believe	विश्वास करना	believed	believed	believing	believes
Behave	व्यवहार करना	behaved	behaved	behaving	behaves
Bleed	खून बहना	bled	bled	bleeding	bleeds
Bless	आशीर्वाद देना	blessed	blessed	blessing	blesses
Break	तोड़ना/टटना	broke	broken	breaking	breaks
Bring	लाना	brought	brought	bringing	brings
Boil	उबालना	boiled	boiled	boiling	boils
Boast	डींगें मारना	boasted	boasted	boasting	boasts
Borrow	उधार लेना	borrowed	borrowed	borrowing	borrows
Build	बनाना/ निर्माण करना	built	built	building	builds
Burn	जलना / जलाना	burnt	burnt	burning	burns
Buy	खरीदना	bought	bought	buying	buys
Call	पुकारना	called	called	calling	calls
Carry	ले जाना	carried	carried	carrying	carries
Catch	पकड़ना	caught	caught	catching	catches
Clean	साफ करना	cleaned	cleaned	cleaning	cleans
Close	बंद करना	closed	closed	closing	closes
Change	बदलना	changed	changed	changing	changes
Check	रोकना/जाँच करना	checked	checked	checking	checks
Climb	चढ़ना	climbed	climbed	climbing	climbs
Clap	ताली बजाना	clapped	clapped	clapping	claps
Copy	नकल करना	copied	copied	copying	copies
Collect	इकट्ठा करना	collected	collected	collecting	collects
Complain	शिकायत करना	complained	complained	complaining	complains
Cook	पकाना	cooked	cooked	cooking	cooks
Count	गिनना	counted	counted	counting	counts
Confuse	उलझन में डाल देना	confused	confused	confusing	confuses

Consult	सलाह देना	consulted	consulted	consulting	consults
Cover	ढ़कना	covered	covered	covering	covers
Crow	बांग लगाना	crowed	crowed	crowing	crows
Cross	पार करना	crossed	crossed	crossing	crosses
Creep	रेंगना	crept	crept	creeping	creeps
Cry	चिल्लाना	cried	cried	crying	cries
Decorate	सजाना	decorated	decorated	decorating	decorates
Dance	नाचना	danced	danced	dancing	dances
Deceive	धोखा देना	deceived	deceived	deceiving	deceives
Defeat	हराना	defeated	defeated	defeating	defeats
Decide	निर्णय करना	decided	decided	deciding	decides
Desire	इच्छा करना	desired	desired	desiring	desires
Discover	खोज करना	discovered	discovered	discovering	discovers
Dip	डुबोना	dipped	dipped	dipping	dips
Die	मरना	died	died	dying	dies
Divide	बाँटना	divided	divided	dividing	divides
Dream	स्वप्न देखना	dreamed	dreamed	dreaming	dreams
Dry	सुखना/सखाना	dried	dried	drying	dries
Drown	डुबाना	drowned	drowned	drowning	drowns
Dye	रंगना	dyed	dyed	dyeing	dyes
Earn	कमाना	earned	earned	earning	earns
Enter	प्रवेश करना	entered	entered	entering	enters
Employ	काम पर रखना	employed	employed	employing	employs
Explain	समझाना	explained	explained	explaining	explains
Face	सामना करना	faced	faced	facing	faces
Fail	असफल होना	failed	failed	failing	fails
Fear	डरना	feared	feared	fearing	fears
Feed	खिलाना	fed	fed	feeding	feeds
Feel	महसूस/ अनभव करना	felt	felt	feeling	feels
Fell	गिराना	felled	felled	felling	fells
Flee	भागना	fled	fled	fleeing	flees
Fight	लड़ना	fought	fought	fighting	fights
Finish	समाप्त करना	finished	finished	finishing	finishes
Fine	जुर्माना लगाना	fined	fined	fining	fines
Float	तैरना (सतह पर)	floated	floated	floating	floats
Graze	चरना	grazed	grazed	grazing	grazes
Gather	इकट्ठा करना/होना	gathered	gathered	gathering	gathers
Have	रखना/प्राप्त करना	had	had	having	has
Hate	घृणा करना	hated	hated	hating	hates
Hang	फांसी लगाना	hanged	hanged	hanging	hangs

Hear	सुनना	heard	heard	hearing	hears
Help	सहायता करना	helped	helped	helping	helps
Improve	सुधारना/ बेहतर होना	improved	improved	improving	improves
Invite	निमंत्रण देना	invited	invited	inviting	invites
Join	साथ में होना.	joined	joined	joining	joins
Jump	कूदना	jumped	jumped	jumping	jumps
Keep	रखना	kept	kept	keeping	keeps
Kill	जान से मारना	killed	killed	killing	kills
Knit	बुनना	knitted	knitted	knitting	knits
Kneel	घुटनों के बल झुकना	knelt	knelt	kneeling	kneels
Lay	रखना/(अंडा) देना. न्योछावर करना	laid	laid	laying	lays
Lie	झूठ बोलना	lied	lied	lying	lies
Laugh	हंसना	laughed	laughed	laughing	laughs
Learn	याद करना. सीखना	learned	learned	learning	learns
Leave	छोड़ना	left	left	leaving	leaves
Lend	उधार देना	lent	lent	lending	lends
Lose	खोना/हारना	lost	lost	losing	loses
Like	चाहना	liked	liked	liking	likes
Listen	सुनना (ध्यान से)	listened	listened	listening	listens
Look	देखना	looked	looked	looking	looks
Live	रहना	lived	lived	living	lives
Love	प्रेम करना	loved	loved	loving	loves
Lead	मार्ग दिखाना	led	led	leading	leads
Marry	विवाह करना	married	married	marrying	marries
Make	बनाना	made	made	making	makes
Mean	अर्थ लगाना	meant	meant	meaning	means
Meet	मिलना	met	met	meeting	meets
Move	हिलना	moved	moved	moving	moves
Melt	पिघलना. पिघलाना	melted	melted	melting	melts
Mend	सुधारना	mended	mended	mending	mends
Mix	मिलाना, मिलना	mixed	mixed	mixing	mixes
Name	नाम रखना	named	named	naming	names
Need	आवश्यकता होना	needed	needed	needing	needs
Nip	सख्ती से कुचलना	nipped	nipped	nipping	nips
Obey	आज्ञा मानना	obeyed	obeyed	obeying	obeys
Open	खोलना	opened	opened	opening	opens
Order	आदेश देना	ordered	ordered	ordering	orders
Oppose	विरोध करना	opposed	opposed	opposing	opposes
Pay	चकाना	paid	paid	paying	pays

Play	खेलना	played	played	playing	plays
Pray	प्रार्थना करना	prayed	prayed	praying	prays
Praise	प्रशंसा करना	praised	praised	praising	praises
Preach	उपदेश करना	preached	preached	preaching	preaches
Peep	झाँकना	peeped	peeped	peeping	peeps
Plant	पौधा लगाना	planted	planted	planting	plants
Pluck	तोड़ना(जैसे फल तोडते है)	plucked	plucked	plucking	plucks
Prepare	तैयार करना	prepared	prepared	preparing	prepares
Pull	खींचना	pulled	pulled	pulling	pulls
Prevent	रोकना	prevented	prevented	preventing	prevents
Punish	दण्ड देना	punished	punished	punishing	punishes
Prove	सिद्ध करना	proved	proved	proving	proves
Promise	वचन देना	promised	promised	promising	promises
Push	धक्का देना	pushed	pushed	pushing	pushes
Plough	खेत जोतना	ploughed	ploughed	ploughing	ploughs
Quarrel	झगड़ना	quarrelled	quarrelled	quarrelling	quarrels
Rain	वर्षा होना	rained	rained	raining	rains
Reply	जबाब देना	replied	replied	replying	replies
Reach	पहुँचना	reached	reached	reaching	reaches
Receive	पाना, प्राप्त करना	received	received	receiving	receives
Refuse	इंकार करना	refused	refused	refusing	refuses
Rest	आराम करना	rested	rested	resting	rests
Resign	त्यागपत्र देना	resigned	resigned	resigning	resigns
Repair	मरम्मत करना	repaired	repaired	repairing	repairs
Remember	याद करना	remembered	remembered	remembering	remembers
Return	लौटाना, लौटना	returned	returned	returning	returns
Roar	गरजना	roared	roared	roaring	roars
Say	कहना	said	said	saying	says
Seek	अपेक्षा करना/ढँढना	sought	sought	seeking	seeks
Sell	बेचना	sold	sold	selling	sells
Save	बचाना	saved	saved	saving	saves
Saw	आरे से चीरना	sawed	sawed	sawing	saws
Send	भेजना	sent	sent	sending	sends
Select	चुनना (छांटकर)	selected	selected	selecting	selects
Sleep	सोना	slept	slept	sleeping	sleeps
Stand	खड़ा होना	stood	stood	standing	stands
Stay	ठहरना	stayed	stayed	staying	stays
Spend	खर्च करना	spent	spent	spending	spends
Stop	रोकना	stopped	stopped	stopping	stops

Sweep	झाड़ू देना	swept	swept	sweeping	sweeps
Study	पढ़ना	studied	studied	studying	studies
Slip	फिसलना	slipped	slipped	slipping	slips
Talk	बात करना	talked	talked	talking	talks
Tell	कहना	told	told	telling	tells
Teach	पढ़ाना/सिखाना	taught	taught	teaching	teaches
Think	सोचना	thought	thought	thinking	thinks
Tie	बांधना	tied	tied	tying	ties
Touch	छूना	touched	touched	touching	touches
Try	प्रयत्न करना	tried	tried	trying	tries
Trust	विश्वास करना	trusted	trusted	trusting	trusts
Use	इस्तेमाल करना	used	used	using	uses
Understand	समझना	understood	understood	understanding	understands
Walk	चलना	walked	walked	walking	walks
Wash	धोना	washed	washed	washing	washes
Wait	प्रतीक्षा करना	waited	waited	waiting	waits
Weep	रोना	wept	wept	weeping	weeps
Work	काम करना	worked	worked	working	works
Watch	निगरानी करना	watched	watched	watching	watches
Wish	चाहना	wished	wished	wishing	wishes
Wander	घूमना	wandered	wandered	wandering	wanders
Waste	नष्ट करना	wasted	wasted	wasting	wastes
Wed	विवाह करना	wedded	wedded	wedding	weds
Wound	घायल करना	wounded	wounded	wounding	wounds
Worship	पूजा करना	worshipped	worshipped	worshipping	worships
Wonder	हैरान होना	wondered	wondered	wondering	wonders
Wrap	लपेटना	wrapped	wrapped	wrapping	wraps
Yield	झकना/ पैदा करना	yielded	yielded	yielding	yields

GROUP – III

नीचे दिए गए Verbs के सभी forms एक जैसे है।

Present (1st Form)	**अर्थ**	**Past (2nd Form)**	**P. Participle (3rd Form)**	**– ing Form**	**s/es Form**
Bid	बोली लगाना	bid	bid	bidding	bids
Bet	शर्त लगाना	bet	bet	betting	bets
Burst	फटना	burst	burst	bursting	bursts
Cast	फेंकना/डालना	cast	cast	casting	casts
Cost	मूल्य लगाना	cost	cost	costing	costs
Cut	काटना	cut	cut	cutting	cuts
Hurt	पीडा पहँचाना	hurt	hurt	hurting	hurts

Let	करने देना	let	let	letting	lets
Put	रखना	put	put	putting	puts
Read	पढ़ना *	read	read	reading	reads
Set	अस्त होना	set	set	setting	sets
Shed	बहाना/त्याग देना	shed	shed	shedding	sheds
Shut	बंद करना	shut	shut	shutting	shuts
Spread	फैलाना	spread	spread	spreading	spreads
Thrust	ठूँसना/थोपना	thrust	thrust	thrusting	thrusts
Quit	छोडना	quit	quit	quitting	quits

* Read एवं Study में अंतर है। **Study का अर्थ अध्ययन करना है** जबकि **Read हम Magazine, newspaper इत्यादि को करते है।**

CONFUSING PAIR

1.	Bear	bore	born	→	पैदा करना
	Bear	bore	borne	→	बर्दाश्त करना
2.	Fall	fell	fallen	→	गिरना
	Fell	felled	felled	→	गिराना
3.	Find	found	found	→	पाना
	Found	founded	founded	→	स्थापित करना
4.	Grind	ground	ground	→	पीसना
	Ground	grounded	grounded	→	जमीन पर लाना/ उडान भरने पर पाबंदी लगाया
5.	Hang	hanged	hanged	→	फांसी पर चढ़ाना
	Hang	hung	hung	→	टांगना, लटकाना
6.	Lie	lied	lied	→	झूठ बोलना
	Lie	lay	lain	→	लेटना
	Lay	laid	laid	→	क्षैतिज (Horizontally) रखना न्यौछावर करना Hens lay eggs
7.	Rend	rent	rent	→	चीरना/फाड़ना
	Rent	rented	rented	→	किराये पर देना
8.	Rise	rose	risen	→	उगना, बढना, उठना, तरक्की करना
	Raise	raised	raised	→	उठाना (मुद्दा. प्रश्न इत्यादि)
	Raze	razed	razed	→	ध्वस्त करना
9.	See	saw	seen	→	देखना
	Saw	sawed	sawed/sawn	→	आरी से चीड़ना/ काटना
10.	Wind	wound	wound	→	मोड़ना/ लपेटना/ चाबी लगाना
	Wound	wounded	wounded	→	घायल करना
11.	Fly	flew	flown	→	उड़ना
	Flow	flowed	flowed	→	बहना

VERBS CONFUED WITH VERB/ NOUN/ ADJECTIVE

1. Practice (Noun) – Practise (Verb)
   अभ्यास – अभ्यास करना
2. Advice (Noun) – Advise (Verb)
   सलाह – सलाह देना
3. Complain (Verb) – Complaint (Noun)
   शिकायत करना – शिकायत
4. Affect (Verb) – Effect (Noun/ Verb)
   असर करना– परिणाम/ बदलाव लाना
5. Assure (Verb) – Ensure (Verb) – Insure (Verb)
   तसल्ली देना – सनिश्चित करना – बीमा करना
6. Hear (Verb) – Listen (Verb)
   सनना – ध्यान से सनना
7. Heal (Verb) – Heel (Noun)
   ठीक होना – ऐडी
   (घाव या जख्म का)
8. Prescribe (Verb) – Proscribe (Verb)
   सलाह देना – पाबंदी लगाना
9. Adopt (Verb) – Adapt (Verb) – Adept (Adj.)
   गोद लेना – ढालना – निपण
10. Allude (Verb) – Elude (Verb)
    के संदर्भ में उल्लेख करना – से बचना
11. Amend (Verb) – Emend (Verb)
    संशोधन करना – अशद्धियाँ निकाल देना
12. Bought (V_2 & V_3 form of buy) – Brought (V_2 & V_3 form of bring)
    खरीदना – लाना
13. Compose (Verb) – Comprise (Verb)
    बनाना – से बना होना
14. Deface (Verb) – Efface (Verb)
    विकत करना – मिटा देना
15. Deprecate (Verb) – Depreciate (Verb)
    नापसंद करना – मल्य कम होना
16. Envelop (Verb) – Envelope (Noun)
    ढकना (आवरण करना) – लिफाफा
17. Excite (Verb) – Incite (Verb)
    उत्तेजित करना – भडकाना
18. Flout (Verb) – Flaunt (Verb)
    उल्लंघन करना – दिखावा करना
19. Hoard (Verb) – Horde (Noun)
    छिपा कर जमा करना– लोगों का समह
20. Loathe (Verb) – Loath (Adj.)
    नापसंद करना – अनिच्छक

21. Lose (Verb) – Loss (Noun) – Loose (Adj.)
खोना / हारना – घाटा / हानि – ढीला

22. Mitigate (Verb) – Militate (Verb)
बेहतर करना (कम कर के) – प्रतिकल होना

23. Pour (Verb) – Pore (Noun)
उडेलना – छिद्र

24. Proceed (Verb) – Precede (Verb)
आगे बढना – से पहले आना

25. Pray (Verb) – Prey (Verb, Noun)
प्राथना करना – शिकार करना शिकार

26. Rout (Verb) – Route (Noun) – Root (Noun)
आसानी से हराना – रास्ता – जड

27. Censure (Verb) – Censor (Verb)
निंदा करना – पाबंदी लगाना

28. Wave (Noun/Verb) – Waive (Verb)
लहर (N)/ लहराना (V)– छट देना

29. Tow (Verb) – Toe (Noun) – Tiptoe (Verb)
खींच कर ले जाना – पैर की अंगलियाँ – पैर की अंगुलियो पर चलना

30. Site (Noun) – Sight (Noun) – Cite (Verb)
निर्माण स्थल – नजारा या दष्टि – उल्लेख करना

31. Defuse (Verb) – Diffuse (Verb)
तनाव कम करना – फैलाना

32. Desert (Noun, Verb) – Dessert (Noun)
रेगिस्तान त्याग देना – Meals के बाद का sweet dish

33. Sever (Verb) – Severe (Adj) – Sewer (Noun)
काट के अलग कर देना – तीव्र – नाला

34. See (Verb) – Look (Verb/Noun) – Stare (Verb) – Peep (Verb) – Glare / Glower (Verb/Noun) – Glance (Verb/Noun) – Glimpse (Noun)
देखना – ताकना/नजर डालना – घूरना – झाँकना(V) – गस्से से देखना(V)- एक झलक देखना(V) –एक झलक देखना (V)
Appearance(N)– चपके से देखना(V)–गस्से से भरी नजर(N)–एक झलक (N) – एक झलक(N)

35. Light (Adj, Noun, Verb) – Burn (Verb, Noun)
हल्का रोशनी प्रज्वलित करना जलाना जला हआ भाग (शरीर का)

36. Catch (Verb/Noun) – Hold (Verb/Noun)
किसी गतिशील को पकडना (V) – ठहरी हुई चीज को थामना (V)
पकड (N) पकड (N)

37. Canvass (Verb) – Canvas (Noun)

घम-घम के वोट मांगना - मोटा कपडा (जिससे जते एवं टेंट बनते हैं)

38. Refuse (Verb) – Deny / Refute (Verb) – Decline (Verb)

मना करना - खंडन करना - अस्वीकार करना/ कम होना

39. Peddle (Verb) – Pedal (Noun/Verb)

घम-घम के सामान बेचना - साइकिल में जिस पर पैर रख कर घमाते है। (N), Pedal चलाना (V)

40. Ride (Verb/Noun) – Drive (Verb/Noun)

सैर (N) / दोपहिये व जानवर की सवारी करना (V) - सैर (N) / चार पहिये की सवारी करना (V)

41. Wither (Verb) – Weather (N) – Whether (Conj.) – Whither (Adj.)

मुरझाना - दिन-प्रतिदिन का मौसम - या ..... या ना ('Whether ... or' Co-relative है) - Where (कहाँ) [पुराने काल की अंग्रेजी भाषा में]

42. Sink (Verb) – Drown (Verb)

डबना (निर्जीव का) - डबाना/डबना

43. Cease (Verb) – Seize (Verb)

रूकना - जब्त करना

44. Invent (Verb) – Discover (Verb)

अविष्कार करना - खोज करना

vc uhps fn, x;s dk0;ksa esa mi;ksx 'k0 ksa ds iz;ksx ns[ksa&

जैसे: 1. The servant **hung** ~~hanged~~ the picture on the wall

2. Lay your books aside and **lie** ~~lay~~ down to rest.

3. **Practice** (Noun) makes a man perfect.

4. **Practise** (Verb) the questions given in the assignment.

5. I need your **advice**. (Noun)
6. Do not **advise** me. (Verb)
7 I have lodged a **complaint** against him. (Noun)
8. He **complained** against me. (Verb)
9. Bad weather **affects** your health and the **effect** is cough and cold. (Verb) (Noun)
10. Many songs are not worthlistening to [नोट: listen के बाद 'to' का प्रयोग होता है लेकिन 'worthlistening' (सनने के लायक) के बाद नहीं। अत: 'to' हटा दें]
11. He **lighted** the candle and **burnt** the papers.
12. The thief **eluded** arrest. (Verb)
13. The earth's atmosphere comprises of three layers (Active voice में comprise के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग नहीं होता अत: 'of' हटा दें)
14. Mirabai **composed** many songs.
15. I **refused** to help him.
16. The thief **denied** the charges.
17. I **declined** the offer.
18. Silence **precedes** the storm.
19. This is a good **site** for school.
20. Please **cite** an example.

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) He was so inquisitive/ (b) that he rose many/ (c) questions in the class ./ (d) No error.
2. (a) He was borne of poor parents,/ (b) but brought up/ (c) in an affluent family./ (d) No error.
3. (a) The university was/ (b) found in 1950/ (c) when India was not self dependent in many aspects./ (d) No error.
4. (a) I complaint against him/ (b) as in spite of my repeated warnings/ (c) he failed to mend his ways./ (d) No error.
5. (a) Failure must not have/ (b) permanent affect on a person/ (c)because only the tough survives./ (d) No error.
6. (a) I keep my cool/ (b) and never loose my temper/ (c) even when provoked/ (d) No error.
7. (a) He lied on the grass/ (b) for hours/ (c) enjoying the cool breeze./ (d) No error.
8. (a) During the rainy season/ (b) many rivers overflew their banks/ (c) and caused great difficulty./ (d) No error.
9. (a) He lay his luggage/ (b) aside and lay down/ (c) to rest for a while ./ (d) No error.

10. (a) When calamity fell the village,/ (b) they faced it/ (c) bravely./ (d) No error.
11. (a) The assassin was convicted/ (b) and ordered to/ (c) be hung./ (d) No error.
12. (a) If I leave now,/ (b) I will not be able to/ (c) return back before 9 p.m ./ (d) No error.
13. (a) When the company offered him a purse on his retirement/ (b) he refused to/ (c) agree it ./ (d) No error.
14. (a) The timid creature was driven/ (b) into a narrow lane/ (c) where it was slewed by the kidnapper./ (d) No error.
15. (a) Being implicated in a murder case,/ (b) he was conclusively suspected/ (c) for all the unsovled murder cases./ (d) No error.
16. (a) My brother thinks/ (b) that somebody must have dared/ (c) him steal the scooter./ (d) No error.
17. (a) When I was young,/ (b) I can run/ (c) faster than Mohan./ (d) No error.
18. (a) Harish needs not/ (b) come here/ (c) as it is getting dark./ (d) No error.
19. (a) He dare/ (b) not to/ (c) go there/ (d) No error.
20. (a) I use to/ (b) play Hockey/ (c) when I was ten year old./ (d) No error.
21. (a) A soldier/ (b) could fight/ (c) for his country and save his country's honour./ (d) No error.
22. (a) I would rather/ (b) die/ (c) then beg./ (d) No error.
23. (a) Run fast/ (b) lest you/ (c) will miss the train/ (d) No error.
24. (a) He hoped/ (b) that he will/ (c) pass the exam with flying colours./ (d) No error.
25. (a) You need to work hard/ (b) but you need not/ (c) to waste time on unimportant lessons/ (d) No error.
26. (a) She would broke/ (b) a plate every day/ (c) when she came to Delhi last month./ (d) No error.
27. (a) The old lady/ (b) prayed that he/ (c) may live long./ (d) No error.
28. (a) Rama must not to/ (b) have treated his mistress/ (c) like that./ (d) No error.
29. (a) Waste material/ (b) should be recycle/ (c) if possible/ (d) No error.
30. (a) The Government cannot/ (b) be able to contain/ (c) Encephalitis by spending just 1% of GDP on Health sector./ (d) No error.
31. (a) The police think/ (b) that he may be there/ (c) yesterday at the scene of crime./ (d) No error.
32. (a) "He may live long"/ (b) his sad mother/ (c) prayed./ (d) No error.
33. (a) He returned the purse/ (b) though he could keep/ (c) it very easily./ (d) No error.
34. (a) When you were young/ (b) you ought to learn/ (c) good habits./ (d) No error.
35. (a) If you get good marks/ (b) I shall happy/ (c) as much as you./ (d) No error.
36. (a) We ought to/ (b) honest/ (c) in our dealings./ (d) No error.
37. (a) It is very cold here/ (b) I should bring/ (c) my woolen clothes but I didn't./ (d) No error.
38. (a) Are you/ (b) used to get/ (c) up early./ (d) No error.
39. (a) Our knowledge of history does not come to our help/ (b) and sometimes we even fail to remember/ (c) who invented America./ (d) No error.
40. (a) I think/ (b) the news/ (c) might true./ (d) No error.

41. (a) Very soon/ (b) I realised/ (c) that he is at fault/ (d) No error.
42. (a) He remembered/ (b) that his visa/ (c) will be expired in a month/ (d) No error.
43. (a) I wasn't/ (b) at the last meeting and/ (c) neither was you/ (d) No error.
44. (a) In any case no disciplinary action/ (b) are required/ (c) to be taken/ (d) No error.
45. (a) The capital of Yemen/ (b) is situating/ (c) 2190 metres above the sea level/ (d) No error.
46. (a) Owing to the heavy rains,/ (b) the ship drowned/ (c) in the middle of the ocean./ (d) No error.
47. (a) If your jogging clothes/ (b) were not made of/ (c) permeable fabric you will drown/ (d) in your sweat.

Answers with explanation

1. (b) 'rose' (rise का V_2) का अर्थ है 'उठना'। 'कई सवाल उठाना' के लिए 'raised many questions का प्रयोग करें।
2. (a) 'Bear' (पैदा करना) का V_3 'born' होता है। 'Bear' (सहन करना) का V_3 'borne' होता है।
3. (b) 'found' के स्थान पर 'founded' का प्रयोग करें। 'found' (स्थापित करना) का V_3 founded होता है।
4. (a) Complain (V_1) का V_2 एवं V_3 'Complained' है। 'Complaint' (Noun) का अर्थ शिकायत है।
5. (b) 'Affect' (V) के स्थान पर 'effect' (N) का प्रयोग करें।
6. (b) 'loose' (adj.) का अर्थ है 'ढीला'। यहाँ Lose (V) का प्रयोग करें। 'Lose my temper' का अर्थ है 'आपा खोना'।
7. (a) 'lie' (लेटना) का V_2 'lay' होता है। 'Lie' (झठ बोलना) का V_2 'lied' होता है।
8. (b) 'Overflow' का V_2 'overflowed' होता है।
9. (a) 'lay' (रखना) का V_2 laid होता है।
10. (a) यहाँ 'fell' के स्थान पर 'befell' का प्रयोग करें। 'Befall' का अर्थ है 'किसी घटना का होना / आ पड़ना।
11. (c) 'hang' (टाँगना) का 'V_2' एवं 'V_3' hung है। 'Hang' (फाँसी लगाना) का 'V_2' एवं 'V_3' 'hanged' होगा।
12. (c) 'return' के साथ 'back' का प्रयोग न करें।
    नोट: इसी प्रकार 'repeat' के साथ 'again' एवं 'enter' के साथ 'into' का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता।
13. (c) 'agree' के स्थान पर 'accept' का प्रयोग करें।
14. (c) 'Slay' का V_3 'slain' होता है न कि 'slewed'.
15. (b) 'Conclusively' का अर्थ है 'putting an end to debate, question or doubt'. 'Suspect' शब्द के साथ 'conclusively' का प्रयोग वाक्य के अर्थ को 'self contradictory' बना देता है।
16. (c) 'steal' के पहले 'to' का प्रयोग करें। 'Dare' अगर 'main verb' है तो उसके बाद 'infinitive' 'to + V_1' का प्रयोग होता है। अत: 'to steal' का प्रयोग सही होगा।
17. (b) 'Past Tense' में 'ability' दर्शाने के लिए 'can' के स्थान पर 'could' का प्रयोग करें।
18. (a) यहाँ 'needs' Main verb नहीं बल्कि modal है अत: 'needs' के स्थान पर 'need' का प्रयोग करें।
19. (b) यहाँ 'dare' का प्रयोग modal के रूप में हो रहा है अत: 'to go' का नहीं बल्कि 'go' का प्रयोग होगा। Modal के बाद 'V_1' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'to + V_1' का।
20. (a) 'I used to' का प्रयोग 'I use to' के स्थान पर होगा। भतकाल के routine action को दर्शाने के लिए

'used to + V_1' का प्रयोग होगा।

21. (b) यहाँ 'could' के स्थान पर 'must' का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।
22. (c) 'then' के स्थान पर 'than' का प्रयोग करें। 'would rather' के साथ 'than' का प्रयोग होता है।
23. (c) 'will' के स्थान पर 'should' का प्रयोग होगा। 'lest' के साथ 'should' का प्रयोग होता है।
24. (b) 'will' के स्थान पर 'would' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य 'Past Tense' में है। अत: 'would' का प्रयोग होना चाहिए न कि 'will' का।
25. (c) 'to waste' के स्थान पर सिर्फ 'waste' का प्रयोग होगा। 'need not' के साथ 'V_1' का प्रयोग होता है।
26. (a) 'would' के बाद 'V_1' का प्रयोग होता है न कि V_2 का। 'broke' के स्थान पर 'break' का प्रयोग करें।
27. (c) 'may' के स्थान पर 'might' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य 'Past' में है।
28. (a) 'To' हटा दे। वाक्य, का structure होगा 'must + not + have + V_3.'
29. (b) 'should be' के बाद 'V_3' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'V_1' का। 'recycle' को 'recycled' में परिवर्तित करें।
30. (b) 'be able to' हटा दें। 'Cannot' क्षमता दर्शाता है। अत: 'be able to' का प्रयोग जरूरी नहीं जो क्षमता ही दर्शाता है।
31. (b) 'May' को 'Might' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि 'yesterday' से ज्ञात होता है कि वाक्य 'Past' में है।
32. (a) 'May he live long' सही प्रयोग है क्योंकि वाक्य 'wish' है।
33. (b) 'Could keep' को 'could have kept' में परिवर्तित करें।
34. (b) 'Ought to learn' को 'Ought to have learnt' में परिवर्तित करें।
35. (b) 'Shall' के बाद Main verb 'be' का प्रयोग करें।
36. (a) 'Ought to' के बाद 'be' का प्रयोग करें।
37. (b) 'Should bring' को 'should have brought' में परिवर्तित करें।
38. (b) 'get' को 'getting' में परिवर्तित करें। वाक्य 'habitual action' है।
39. (c) 'invented' को 'discovered' में परिवर्तित करें।
40. (c) 'Might' के बाद 'be' लगायें।
41. (c) 'is' को 'was' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि वाक्य 'Past Tense' में है।
42. (c) 'will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि वाक्य 'Past Tense' में है।
43. (c) 'was' को 'were' में परिवर्तित करें। 'You' के साथ 'were' का प्रयोग होता है।
44. (b) 'are' को 'is' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि subject 'disciplinary action' singular है।
45. (b) 'situating' को 'situated' में परिवर्तित करें।
46. (b) निर्जीव के डबने को 'sink' कहते है यहाँ 'drowned' के स्थान पर 'sank' (V_2) का प्रयोग करें।
47. (c) 'will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि वाक्य 'Past Tense' में है।

2 TENSE

CHAPTER

Tense किसी **कार्य के समय एवं अवस्था** को व्यक्त करता है।

TENSE

1. **Present**
2. **Past**
3. **Future**

Sub-Division:- • **Indefinite** • **Continuous** • **Perfect** • **Perfect Continuous**

नोट: प्रश्न सामान्यत: formula अथवा confusing जोडे पर आधारित होते हैं।

CONFUSING PAIR :

(1)	**Simple Present**	**and**	**Present Continuous**
(2)	**Continous**	**and**	**Perfect Continuous**
(3)	**Present Perfect**	**and**	**Simple Past**
(4)	**Simple Past**	**and**	**Past Perfect**

(1) **PRESENT INDEFINITE:** Present Indefinite के अंतर्गत हम विभिन्न प्रकार के कार्यो को रख सकते है।

(i) **Routine action**
- **Regular action (नियमित कार्य)** - *I come here daily.*
- **Irregular action (अनियमित कार्य)** - *Earthquakes come in Japan.*
- **Habits (आदत)** - *He smokes.*
- **Universal truth (सार्वभौमिक सत्य)** - *The sun rises in the east.*

(ii) ***नोट:*** **Newspaper के headlines** और **sports** के **commentary** में भी simple present tense का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: PM signs deal.
Sachin strikes the ball and off it goes across the boundary line.

(iii) **निकट भविष्य के किसी planned कार्य** को व्यक्त करने के लिए भी simple present tense का प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: The Prime Minister leaves for China next week.

Formulae: + ve → Sub + V_1 + obj. (अगर Sub I, we, they, you अथवा plural हो)
- ve → Sub + do not (don't) + V_1 + obj.
Ques → Do + Sub + V_1 + obj?
Do + Sub + not+ V_1 + obj?
Don't + Sub + V_1 + obj?

+ ve → Sub + V_1 + s/es + obj. (अगर sub he, she, it, name वा singular हो)
- ve → Sub + does not (doesn't) + V_1 + obj.
Ques → Does + Sub + V_1 + obj?
Does + Sub + not+ V_1 + obj?
Doesn't + Sub + V_1 + obj?

Correct the following sentences:-

जैसे: (1) What he knows about you? (×)
What **does he know** about you?.(✓)
(2) I don't know what he knows about you.(✓)
(3) The **appeal** of the victims to transfer the cases related to riots to some other States **do** not affect the merit of the case. (change do to **does**)

वाक्य 1 एवं 2 की व्याख्या

पहले वाक्य में '**what**' का प्रयोग सवाल पुछने के लिए किया जा रहा है। अत: '**what**' के बाद '**Question form**' का प्रयोग करें। दसरे वाक्य में '**what**' दो वाक्यों को जोड रहा है। अत: '**what**' के बाद '**sentence form**' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'question form' का।

वाक्य 3 की व्याख्या

(3) एक वाक्य में **verb** उस **sub** के अनुसार होना चाहिए जो वाक्य का **main sub** हो। हम अक्सर verb को नजदीक वाले Subject से match कर देते है लेकिन ऐसा करना गलत है।

SIMPLE PAST

➢ जो **कार्य खत्म हो चका** वह simple past के अंर्तगत आता है।

जैसे: I saw you but you did not see me.

Formulae: **Sub + V_2 + obj**
Sub + did not (didn't) + V_1 + obj
Did + Sub + V_1 + obj ?
Did + Sub + not + V_1 + obj ?
Didn't + sub + V_1 + obj ?

नोट: अगर वाक्य कि शुरूआत **'It's time'** या **'It's high time'** से हो और उसके बाद **sub** का प्रयोग हो तो **sub** के बाद **verb के 2nd form** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: It's time you should study. (×)

It's time you studied. (✓)

➢ लेकिन अगर **'It's time'** के बाद **to** का प्रयोग हो तो **to** के बाद **verb का Ist form** आएगा।

जैसे: It's time to study.

नोट: (1) You do $\underbrace{\text{come}}_{V_1}$ here everyday. (✓)

(2) He did $\underbrace{\text{make}}_{V_1}$ a mistake. (✓)

➢ सामान्यत: एक वाक्य में **do, does** एवं **did** का प्रयोग **Helping verb** के रूप में **positive** वाक्य में **नहीं** होता। लेकिन अगर **main verb पर जोर** देना हो तो हम **do, does एवं did का प्रयोग main verb के पहले करते है।** ऐसे वाक्य में **main verb 'v$_1$' form** में होना चाहिए।

नोट: अगर वाक्य में **भतकाल के समय का उल्लेख हो** तो **Past Tense** का प्रयोग हाता है।

जैसे: I have come yesterday (×)

I came yesterday (✓)

SIMPLE FUTURE

➢ जो कार्य **भविष्य** में होगा वह **Simple Future tense** के अंतर्गत आता है।

जैसे: I shall meet you.

Formulae:

+ ve → Sub + shall/ will + V_1 + obj

-ve → Sub + shall/ will + not + V_1 + obj

Sub + shan't/ won't + V_1 + obj

Ques → Shall/will + sub + V_1 + obj ?

Shall/ will + sub + not + V_1 + obj ?

Shan't/ won't + sub + V_1 + obj ?

नोट: Shall/will का प्रयोग Modals में विस्तार से दिया गया है।

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

➢ जो कार्य वर्तमान में यानी **वाक्य को बोलते समय हो रहा हो** वह **Present Continuous tense** के अंतर्गत आता है।।

जैसे: (1) I am studying Tense now.

➢ कई बार कार्य जारी अवस्था में होते हए भी दिखाई नहीं देते। परन्त उन्हें भी 'Present Continuous Tense' के अंतर्गत रखा जा सकता है।

जैसे: (1) Coastal areas are getting submerged.

(2) Population is increasing day by day.

नोट: **निकट भविष्य में होने वाले** किसी कार्य को व्यक्त करने के लिए भी हम **Present Continuous Tense** का प्रयोग करते हैं।

जैसे: I am going to Mumbai tomorrow.

Formulae: **+ ve → Sub + is/ am/ are + v_1 + ing+ obj**
- ve → Sub + is/ are/ am/ + not + v_1 + ing+ obj
Sub + isn't/ aren't/ am not + v_1 + ing+ obj
Ques → Is/ am/ are + S + v_1 + ing+ obj?
Is/ am/ are + S + not + v_1 + ing+ obj?
Isn't/ aren't + S + v_1 + ing+ obj?

नोट: '**am not**' का कोई contracted form नहीं होता है लेकिन Question Tag में **aren't** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: I am fine, **aren't** I ?

➢ **Is/am/are का प्रयोग**

Is – he/she/it/name/singular के साथ

Am – I के साथ

Are – you/we/they/all/plural के साथ

नोट: My father is working in a bank and my brother is studying is a school. (×)
My father works in a bank and my brother studies in a school. (✓)

➢ जब वाक्य '**routine**' हो तो **Present Continuous का प्रयोग न करें** बल्कि '**simple present**' **का प्रयोग** करें। लेकिन अगर कार्य ऐसा हो जो **कुछ अवधि के लिए ही routine action रहे तो present continuous tense का प्रयोग** कर सकते है।

जैसे: I am preparing for competitive exams now-a-days.

PAST CONTINUOUS

➢ जो कार्य **भतकाल में हो रहा था** वह **Past Continuous tense** के अंतर्गत आता है।

जैसे: I was waiting for you

Formulae: **+ Ve → Sub + was/were + V_1 + ing + obj**
- Ve → Sub + was/were + not + V_1 + ing + obj
Sub + wasn't/weren't + V_1 + ing + obj
Ques → Was/were + Sub + V_1 + ing + obj?
Was/were + Sub + not+ V_1 + ing + obj?
Wasn't/weren't + Sub + V_1 + ing + obj?

➢ **Was/were का प्रयोग**

Was → He/she/it/name/singular/I के साथ

Were → You/we/they/plural/all के साथ

➢ काल्पनिक वाक्यों में सभी **sub** के साथ '**were**' का प्रयोग होता है चाहें '**were**' का प्रयोग '**helping verb**' के रूप में हो या '**main verb**' के रूप में।

जैसे: 1. I wish, I $\underbrace{\textbf{were}}_{\textbf{M.V.}}$ a bird.

2. He pretended as if he $\underbrace{\textbf{were}}_{\textbf{H.V.}}$ sleeping.

FUTURE CONTINUOUS

➢ जो कार्य **भविष्य में हो रहा होगा** वह **Future Continuous tense** के अंतर्गत आता है।

जैसे: We shall be taking the exam at this time, next month.

Formulae:

+ Ve → **Sub + shall/ will + be + V_1 + ing + obj**

- Ve → **Sub + shall/ will + not + be + V_1 + ing + obj**

Sub + shan't/ won't + be + V_1 + ing + obj

Ques → **Will/shall + Sub + be+V_1 + ing + obj?**

Will/shall + Sub + not+ be+ V_1 + ing + obj?

Won't/shan't + Sub +be+ V_1 + ing + obj?

नोट: कुछ **verbs** का प्रयोग हम **continuous tense** में नहीं कर सकते क्योंकि कछ ऐसे **verbs** होते है जिनका प्रयोग सामान्यत: **'ing' form** में नहीं होता।

,sls VERBS dh lwph

(1) Verbs of Perception- See, taste, smell, hear, prefer, please, notice, recognize.

(2) Verbs of Thinking Process- Think, know, mean, mind, remember, suppose.

(3) Verbs Showing Possession- Own, have, belong, comprise, possess, contain, consist.

(4) Verbs expressing Feelings or State of Mind- Believe, like, dislike, love, adore, want, wish, desire, hate, agree, trust, imagine.

(5) Verbs in General- Look, seem, appear, affect, resemble, cost, require, become, hope, refuse.

उदाहरण देखें-

जैसे: 1. He is owing a car. (×)
He owns a car. (✓)

2. This house is belonging to me. (×)
This house belongs to me. (✓)

3. I am not meaning anything wrong. (×)
I don't mean anything wrong. (✓)

4. I am seeing a man standing there. (×)
I see a man standing there. (✓)

नोट: अगर **'have'** का अर्थ **'अधिकार होना'** हो तो **'have'** में **'ing'** का प्रयोग नहीं होगा। अगर **'have'** का अर्थ निकलता है **खाना/ enjoy करना** तो **'have'** में **'ing'** का प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: I am having a piece of cake. (✓)
I am having a car. (×)
I have a car. (✓)

➢ हम **Think, remember, feel, look, appear** etc. (जिनका प्रयोग सामान्य वाक्यों में **'ing'** में नहीं होना चाहिए) का प्रयोग अगर **भावनाओं को दर्शाने** के लिए करते है तब उनका प्रयोग **'ing' form** में किया जा सकता है। (eg- 2 एवं 4 देखें)

जैसे: 1. I am thinking you are right. (×)
I think you are right. (✓)
2. I am thinking of you. (✓)
3. It was appearing as if they were going to kill us. (×)
It appeared as if they were going to kill us.(✓)
4. You are looking good. (✓)

2. **Gerund** एवं **Present participle** में **verb 'ing' form** में होते हैं।

जैसे: (1) Being ill, I could not come.
(2) Getting a job is easy now-a-days.
(3) Seeing is believing.
(4) Swimming is a good exercise.

नोट: विस्तार से जानकारी के लिए Verb (Advance) देखें–

3. सभी **preposition** के बाद अगर **verb** का प्रयोग होता है तो **verb 'ing' form** में होना चाहिए।

जैसे: (1) Bats are capable <u>of</u> $\underbrace{\text{hearing}}_{V_1+ing}$ the ultrasonic waves.

(2) We must keep away <u>from</u> $\underbrace{\text{smoking}}_{V_1+ing}$.

PRESENT PERFECT

➢ जो कार्य **अभी-अभी या हाल फिलहाल खत्म** हआ हो वह **Present Perfect Tense** के अन्तर्गत आता है।

जैसे: He has come to Delhi recently.

➢ जब **कार्य महत्त्वपर्ण हो न कि कार्य होने का समय एवं कार्य होने के समय का उल्लेख भी नहीं हो** तब **Present perfect Tense** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: We have progressed a lot.
We have reached the moon.

Formulae: **+ Ve →** **Sub + has/ have + V_3 + obj**

- Ve → **Sub + has/ have + not + V_3 + obj**
Sub + hasn't/ haven't + V_3 + obj
Ques → **Has/ have + Sub + V_3 + obj ?**
Has/ have + Sub +not+ V_3 + obj ?
Hasn't/ haven't + Sub + V_3 + obj ?

Has/have के प्रयोग

has - He/ She/ It/ Name/Singular के साथ

have- I/ We/ They/ You/ Plural/ All के साथ

अंतर देखे:

1. Science has given us many new inventions. (✓)
2. We have reached the moon. (✓)

1. Science has given us many new inventions in the 19th century. (×)
2. We have reached the moon on 22nd Oct, 2008. (×)

➢ अगर **भूतकाल के समय का उल्लेख हो तो Present perfect नहीं Simple past tense का प्रयोग** करें। यानि ऊपर दिए गए दोनों वाक्यों के सही रूप होगें।

1. Science gave us many life saving drugs in the 19th century. (✓)
2. We reached the moon on 22nd Oct, 2008. (✓)

नोट: 1. I have had enough problems here (✓)
He has had his breakfast (✓)

एक वाक्य में **have के किसी भी form** (यहाँ have के forms helping verb होगें) **के बाद had** (had main verb होगा) का प्रयोग हो सकता है। क्योंकि ये **Present perfect एवं Past perfect के Formulae में fit** होते हैं।

2. सामान्यत: **recently, already, yet, so far का प्रयोग perfect tense** में होता है। **'yet'** का प्रयोग **perfect tense -ve वाक्य** में होता है।

जैसे: He has not reached home yet (present perfect)
He had not done any work so far. (past perfect)

3. अगर **since** के बाद **simple past** का प्रयोग हो तो **since** के पहले **present perfect** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\text{I haven't seen him}}_{\text{Present perfect}}$ **since** $\underbrace{\text{he left India}}_{\text{Simple past}}$.

नोट: 1. ऐसे वाक्यों में **present perfect** के स्थान पर कोई **modal** भी **perfect form** में आ सकता है।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\text{He may have grown old}}_{\text{Modal in perfect form}}$ **since** $\underbrace{\text{she last saw him}}_{\text{Simple past}}$.

2. अगर **since** का प्रयोग वाक्य के शरूआत में कर लिया जाए तो **simple past** भी **since** के साथ वाक्य के प्रथम भाग में आ जाएगा।

जैसे: **Since** $\underbrace{\text{he joined the army}}_{\text{Simple past}}$, $\underbrace{\text{he has not taken any leave}}_{\text{Present perfect}}$.

PAST PERFECT

नीचे दिए गये विभिन्न वाक्यों को देखें:-

1. I saw him **before** he stopped his car. (×)
   I had seen him **before** he stopped his car. (✓)
2. **Before** he understood anything the robber fled. (×)
   Before he understood anything the robber had fled. (✓)
3. I met him **after** I finished my work. (×)
   I met him **after** I had finished my work. (✓)
4. **By the time** I reached the theatre, the show started. (×)
   By the time I reached the theatre, the show had started. (✓)
5. When Anand reached his village, he found that the news about him had preceded him. (✓)

➢ प्रथम वाक्य का formation निम्न प्रकार से है-

$$\frac{\textbf{1}^{\textbf{st}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Past Perfect}}\ \textbf{before}\ \frac{\textbf{2}^{\textbf{nd}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Simple Past}}$$

➢ द्वितीय वाक्य का formation निम्न प्रकार से है-

Before का प्रयोग अगर शरू में हो तो $\frac{\textbf{2}^{\textbf{nd}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{S.Past}}, \frac{\textbf{1}^{\textbf{st}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Past Perfect}}$

➢ तीसरे वाक्य का formation निम्न प्रकार से है-

$$\frac{\textbf{2}^{\textbf{nd}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Simple Past}}\ \textbf{after}\ \frac{\textbf{1}^{\textbf{st}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Past Perfect}}$$

➢ चौथे वाक्य का formation निम्न प्रकार से है-

$$\textbf{By the time}\ \frac{\textbf{2}^{\textbf{nd}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Simple Past}}, \frac{\textbf{1}^{\textbf{st}}\textbf{ action}}{\textbf{Past Perfect}}$$

➢ अगर **दो कार्य Past में एक के बाद एक हो. तो पहला कार्य Past perfect में होगा। और दसरा Simple Past tense.**

Formulae:

+ Ve → **Sub + had + V_3 + obj**
- Ve → **Sub + had + not (hadn't) + V_3 + obj**
Ques → **Had + sub + V_3 + obj ?**
Had + sub +not + V_3 + obj ?
Hadn't + sub + V_3 + obj ?

नोट: वाक्य 5 को देखें:-

When Anand reached his village, he found that the news about him had preceded him.

वाक्य की व्याख्या-

➢ जब Anand गाँव पहुँच **(Simple Past)** तो पाया कि उसके बारे में जो News थी वह उससे पहले पहुँच चुकी थी। **(Precede का अर्थ है 'से पहले आना')**। अगर कोई action **'simple past' से पहले** होता है तो वह **'past perfect tense'** में होता है। अत: 'news का पहँचना' Past perfect tense में होगा।

FUTURE PERFECT

➢ जो कार्य **भविष्य में खत्म हो चका होगा** वह **Future Perfect** के अन्तर्गत आता है।

जैसे: You will have finished your syllabus by this time next year.

नोट: नीचे दिया गया sentence formation देखें-

जैसे: $\underbrace{\text{By the time}}_{\textbf{By the time,}}$ $\underbrace{\text{I reach the station,}}_{\text{Simple Present}}$ $\underbrace{\text{the train will have left,}}_{\text{Future Perfect}}$

By the time, <u>Simple Present</u>, <u>Future Perfect</u>

Formulae:

+ Ve → **Sub + will/shall + have + V_3 + obj**

- Ve → **Sub + will/shall + not + have + V_3 + obj**

Sub + won't/shan't + have + V_3 + obj

Ques → **Will/shall + Sub + have+ V_3 + obj ?**

Will/shall + Sub + not + have + V_3 + obj ?

Won't/shan't + Sub +have + V_3 + obj ?

अंतर देखें:-

1. **By the time** $\underbrace{\text{I reach the station,}}_{\text{Simple Present}}$ $\underbrace{\text{the train will have left.}}_{\text{Future Perfect}}$

2. **By the time** $\underbrace{\text{I reached the station}}_{\text{Simple Past}}$, $\underbrace{\text{the train had left.}}_{\text{Past Perfect}}$

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

➢ जो कार्य **भूतकाल में शरू हुआ हो और अभी भी चल रहा हो** वह **Present Perfect Continuous tense** के अंतर्गत आता है।

जैसे: I have been living in Delhi for five years.

Formulae:

+ Ve → **Sub + has/ have + been + V_1 + ing + obj+ for/ since + time.**

- Ve → **Sub + has/ have + not + been + V_1 + ing + obj+ for/ since + time.**

Sub + hasn't/ haven't + been + V_1 + ing + obj+ for/ since + time.

Ques → **Has/ have + Sub + + been + V_1+ ing + obj + for/ since + time?**

Has/have + Sub +not+ been + V_1+ing + obj + for/since +time?

Hasn't/ haven't + Sub + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time?

जैसे: I am teaching you since an hour. (×)

I have been teaching you for an hour. (✓)

➢ **For- जब समय की अवधि का उल्लेख हो तब 'For' का प्रयोग करें।**

जैसे: For two hours, for last 2 years
For five days, for last 2 months
For 10 years, for last 3 weeks

➢ **Since- जब शरूआती समय का उल्लेख हो तब since का प्रयोग करें।**

जैसे: Since monday, since the beginning
Since 2008, since time immemorial
Since 7 P.M., since last year

Since का प्रयोग- **केलेण्डर, घडी, दिन के पहर एवं जीवन की अवस्थाओं** के साथ **'since'** का प्रयोग होता है-

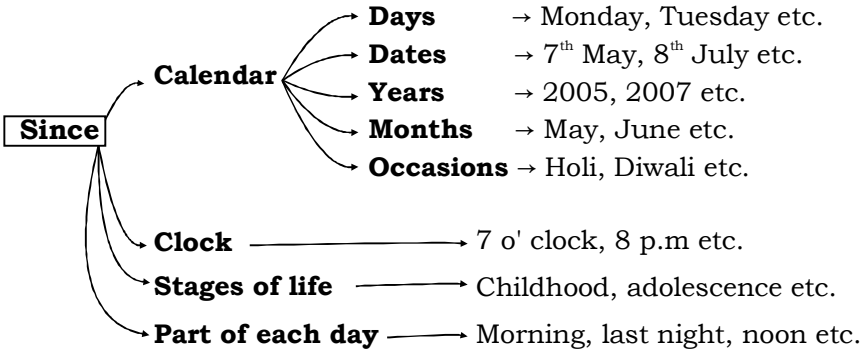

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

➢ जो **कार्य भूतकाल में शरू हुआ, चला और भतकाल में खत्म हो गया** वे **Past Perfect Continuous Tense** के अंर्तगत आते है।

जैसे: I had been waiting for you since morning.

Formulae: **+ Ve →** **Sub + had + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time.**
-Ve → **Sub + had + not (hadn't) + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time.**
Ques → **Had + sub + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time ?**
Had + sub + not+ been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time ?
Hadn't + sub + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ since + time ?

FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS

➢ जो **कार्य भविष्य के किसी समय तक जारी रहेगा** वह **Future Perfect Continuous tense** के अर्न्तगत आता है

जैसे: I shall have been living in Delhi for five years by the end of this year.
He will have been playing from 2 O' clock

Formulae: **+ Ve →** **Sub + shall/will + have + been + V_1 +ing + obj +for/ from+time**
- Ve → **Sub + shall/will + not + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/from + time**
Sub + shan't/won't + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ from + time
Ques → **Will/shall+sub + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ from+time?**
Will/shall + sub + not + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/from + time ?
Won't/shan't + sub + have + been + V_1 + ing + obj + for/ from + time ?

नोट: 1. जिन verbs का प्रयोग सामान्यत: **'ing'** में **नहीं** होता, उनका प्रयोग **continuous/perfect continuous** दोनों तरह के **tense** में **नहीं** हो सकता क्योंकि दोनों में **verb 'ing' form** में होते हैं। अगर ऐसे **'verbs' continuous tense** में हो तो उन्हें **indefinite tense** में परिवर्तित कर दें।

जैसे: I am knowing you. (×)
I know you. (✓)

2. अगर ऐसे verbs **'perfect continuous'** में हो तो उन्हें **'Perfect Tense'** में परिवर्तित कर दे।

जैसे: I have been knowing him for five years. (×)
I have known him for five years. (✓)

3. **For/Since** का **प्रयोग perfect** and **perfect continuous** दोनों प्रकार के tense में होते हैं।

जैसे: I have been living in Delhi for five years. (✓)
I had known him for two years. (✓)

4. अगर वाक्य में **Since + time** का **प्रयोग** होता है तो **वाक्य सिर्फ perfect या perfect continuous tense** में ही होने चाहिए।

जैसे: I ate nothing since morning. (×)
I have eaten nothing since morning. (✓)

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) I have not seen him since twenty years/ (b) and so I cannot say with certainty/ (c) whether he is alive or dead./ (d) No error
2. (a) When he did not find his cook in the kitchen/ (b) he asked his wife/ (c) where had he gone./ (d) No error
3. (a) Although I am playing cricket/ (b) for more than three years/ (c) I have not been able to score a century/ (d) No error
4. (a) I do not know where could he have gone/ (b) so early/ (c) in the morning./ (d) No error
5. (a) By the time/ (b) we got our tickets and entered the cinema theatre,/ (c) the show was already begun./ (d) No error
6. (a) By the time/ (b) we will get our tickets and enter the cinema theatre,/ (c) the show will have already begun./ (d) No error
7. (a) Gowri told me/ (b) his name after/ (c) he left./ (d) No error

8. (a) we have been/ (b) celebrating many festivals/ (c) since centuries./ (d) No error
9. (a) Old age and infirmity/ (b) had began to/ (c) catch up with him./ (d) No error
10. (a) The passer-by told us/ (b) where was the marriage hall/ (c) and even led us to it./ (d) No error
11. (a) I have passed / (b) the examination/ (c) two years ago/ (d) No error
12. (a) Since he joined/ (b) this post, he did not take/ (c) any bribe./ (d) No error
13. (a) Perhaps you know/ (b) that I have passed/ (c) the examination in 1990./ (d) No error
14. (a) He has read four plays/ (b) written by Shakespeare/ (c) by the end of his vacation./ (d) No error
15. (a) When they stole / (b) the money/ (c) and where did they hide it?./ (d) No error
16. (a) The teacher/ (b) has took/ (c) the responsibility/ (d) No error.
17. (a) For time immemorial/ (b) sea shells have been used by man/ (c) in many ways./ (d) No error
18. (a) The river is in spate/ (b) and it has overflown/ (c) its banks./ (d) No error
19. (a) The little boy/ (b) had been waiting for his turn/ (c) since a long time./ (d) No error
20. (a) This T.V. serial/ (b) is going on/ (c) for 3 years./ (d) No error
21. (a) In the early years of the renaissance of Bharatanatyam, hereditary dancers have their own set of accompanists/ (b) who lived with the dancers and travelled with them from place to place/ (c) when they gave performances./ (d) No error
22. (a) This is turned out to be/ (b) one of our most successful projects/ (c) and we have made quite/ (d) a large profit from it./ (e) No error
23. (a) He is given me/ (b) a lot of documents/ (c) to read before/ (d) the presentation tomorrow./ (e) No error
24. (a) Since the trip home/ (b) was expensive I/ (c) did not went home/ (d) during the holidays./ (e) No error
25. (a) As she is late/ (b) for work yesterday she decided/ (c) to skip breakfast and/ (d) leave for office./ (e) No error
26. (a) As soon as the CEO entered the office, the/ (b) union leaders approached him/ (c) and report the matter to him./ (d) No error
27. (a) The college/ (b) is running a computer course/ (c) since 2007./ (d) No error
28. (a) Did he tell you/ (b) why he hasn't/ (c) come yesterday?/ (d) No error
29. (a) Last night I dream/ (b) I was a Sheikh on the 169th floor/ (c) of Burj Khalifa./ (d) No error
30. (a) She and her sister/ (b) were working here/ (c) since 1983./ (d) No error

31. (a) Nobody saw him/ (b) since the fire broke/ (c) in his locality./ (d) No error
32. (a) By this time next year/ (b) Ramesh will take/ (c) his degree./ (d) No error
33. (a) The families/ (b) are living in Gulmohar Park/ (c) for the last two decades./ (d) No error
34. (a) My uncle/ (b) has left/ (c) for Bombay last Saturday./ (d) No error
35. (a) Good heavens !/ (b) How has she/ (c) grown !/ (d) No error
36. (a) I ate/ (b) nothing/ (c) since morning/ (d) No error
37. (a) He/ (b) is having/ (c) many friends here/ (d) No error
38. (a) When I went there/ (b) Charles is playing/ (c) a game of chess/ (d) No error
39. (a) The vaccine/ (b) when hit the market/ (c) is dogged by controversy/ (d) No error
40. (a) The victim tried to tell us/ (b) what has happened but/ (c) his voice was not audible./ (d) No error
41. (a) Our history can be seen as a long evolutionary dialectical development/(b) in which there have been/ (c) a painstaking forging of rational and moral self./(d) No error
42. (a) Last year two Italian prisoners of war/ (b) escapes from a prison camp/ (c) in Kenya during the war./ (d) No error
43. (a) Madhuri Dixit/ (b) is having/ (c) a large fan following./ (d) No error
44. (a) No one heard anything/ (b) about him since/ (c) he left India for good./ (d) No error
45. (a) Before the teacher/ (b) could finish the question/ (c) the students gave the correct answer./ (d) No error
46. (a) She did not prepare/ (b) her/ (c) breakfast yet./ (d) No error
47. (a) Perhaps you do not know/ (b) I am owning/ (c) a farm house besides two bungalows./ (d) No error
48. (a) When Anand reached his village/ (b) he found that / (c) the news about him preceded him./ (d) No error
49. (a) She will already return/ (b) home/ (c) when he arrives./ (d) No error
50. (a) Each one of them/ (b) has have his share/ (c) of joy and sorrow./ (d) No error
51. (a) This custom/ (b) has come down/ (c) since times immemorial./ (d) No error
52. (a) Since his arrival in India,/ (b) he is visiting as many villages as he can/ (c) to acquire a firsthand knowledge of the rural India./ (d) No error.
53. (a) Believe me, I/ (b) am believing/ (c) whatever you have said./ (d) No error.
54. (a) It is time/ (b) we should have done/ (c) something useful/ (d) No error.
55. (a) Mother said,/ (b) "Son,/ (c) you have finished your homework?"/ (d) No error.
56. (a) I am going to buy/ (b) a computer/ (c) when the prices comes down./ (d) No error.
57. (a) I wish/ (b) I have learnt swimming/ (c) when I was young./ (d) No error.

Answers with explanation

1. (a) 'twenty years' अवधि है अत: 'since' नही 'for' का प्रयोग करें।
2. (c) 'he' के बाद had का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि वाक्य प्रश्न नहीं है। प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में helping verb का प्रयोग subject के पहले होता है।
3. (a) 'am' को 'have been' में परिवर्तित करें। वाक्य present perfect continuous tense' में है।
4. (a) He के बाद could का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि वाक्य प्रश्न नहीं है।
5. (c) was के स्थान पर 'had' का प्रयोग करें। अगर भूतकाल में दो कार्य एक के बाद एक हो तो पहले होने वाला कार्य 'Past perfect tense' में होता है और उसके बाद होने वाला कार्य 'simple past tense'में होता है।
6. (b) 'will' हटा दे। 'we get our tickets' सही formation है। अगर दो कार्य भविष्य में एक के बाद एक हो तो बाद में होने वाला कार्य 'simple present tense' में होता है और उसके पहले जो कार्य हो चका होगा वह 'future perfect tense में।
7. (c) 'he had left' सही formation है।

   $\underbrace{\text{Simple Past}}_{2^{nd}\text{ Action}}$ after $\underbrace{\text{Past Perfect}}_{1^{st}\text{ Action}}$
8. (c) 'since' के स्थान पर 'for' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'centuries' अवधि है।
9. (b) had के साथ V_3 'begun' का प्रयोग करें।
10. (b) marriage hall के बाद 'was' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 2 की व्याख्या देखें)
11. (a) I passed (Simple past) सही formation है।
    अगर भतकाल के समय का उल्लेख हो तो present perfect नहीं Simple past tense का प्रयोग करें।
12. (b) 'He did not take के स्थान पर 'he has not taken' का प्रयोग करें।

    Since $\underbrace{S + V_2}_{S.Past}$ $\underbrace{S + has + V_3}_{Pres.Perf.}$ (Present Perfect का आखिरी point देखें)
13. (b) 'I passed' सही formation है। (वाक्य II की व्याख्या देखें)।
14. (a) 'He will have read' का प्रयोग 'He has read' के स्थान पर होगा। जो कार्य भविष्य के किसी समय तक हो चका होगा वह future perfect tense के अंर्तगत आता है।
15. (a) 'When they stole' के स्थान पर 'When did they steal' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि वाक्या प्रश्न है।
16. (b) has के साथ V_3 'taken' का प्रयोग करें।
17. (a) Time immemorial (अनंत काल) शरूआती समय को दर्शाता है ना कि अवधि को। अत: 'for' के स्थान पर 'since' का प्रयोग करें।
18. (b) 'Overflow' का V_3 overflowed है।
19. (c) 'since' के स्थान पर 'for' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'a long time' अवधि है।
20. (b) Is going के स्थान पर 'has been going' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य present perfect Continuous tense का है।
21. (a) 'early years of renaissance' से ज्ञात होता होता है कि वाक्य भतकाल का है। अत: hereditary dancers के बाद 'have' के स्थान पर 'had' का प्रयोग करें।
22. (a) 'This is turned out' के स्थान पर ' this has turned out' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य present perfect

tense में है।

23. (a) 'He is given me' के स्थान पर 'he has given me' का प्रयोग करें।
24. (c) did not के साथ V_1 का प्रयोग होता है। 'went' के स्थान पर 'go' का प्रयोग करें।
25. (a) 'She is late' के स्थान पर 'she was late' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि yesterday भतकाल के समय को दर्शाता है।
26. (c) 'report' के स्थान पर 'reported' का प्रयोग करें verb 'report' को छोडकर सभी verb 'V_2' form में है।
27. (b) is 'running' के स्थान पर 'has been running' का प्रयोग करें।
28. (b) 'he hasn't ' के स्थान पर 'he hadn't' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 11 की व्याख्या देखें)।
29. (a) 'last night के साथ V_2 का प्रयोग करें। यानि dream के स्थान पर dreamed या dreamt का।
30. (b) 'were' के स्थान पर 'had been' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि वाक्य में since + time (since 1983) का प्रयोग हो रहा है। वाक्य Past Perfect Continuous tense में होना चाहिए।
31. (a) 'Nobody has seen him' का प्रयोग करें। Since के बाद 'simple past' है तो Since के पहले 'Present perfect' का प्रयोग होगा।
32. (b) 'Ramesh will take' के स्थान पर 'Ramesh will have taken' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 14 की व्याख्या देखें)।
33. (b) 'are' के स्थान पर 'have been' का प्रयोग करें।
34. (b) has left के स्थान पर 'left' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 11की व्याख्या देखें)।
35. (b) 'has she' के स्थान पर 'she has' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य प्रश्न नहीं है।
36. (a) 'I ate' के स्थान पर I have eaten' का प्रयोग करें। 'Since/for + time' का प्रयोग perfect एवं perfect Continuous tense में ही होता है।
37. (b) 'is having' के स्थान पर 'has' का प्रयोग करें। अगर 'have' का अर्थ होता है 'to possess' तो 'have' के साथ 'ing' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।
38. (b) 'is' के स्थान पर 'was' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'When I went there' से स्पष्ट है कि वाक्य भतकाल का है।
39. (c) 'is' के स्थान पर was का प्रयोग करें। vaccine when hit' से स्पष्ट है वाक्य simple past tense में है।
40. (b) 'has' के स्थान पर 'had' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि victim (पीडित) ने जब बोलने की कोशिश की उस से पहले उसके साथ हादसा हो चका था। यानि घटना Past Perfect tense में होना चाहिए।
41. (b) 'have' के स्थान पर 'has' का प्रयोग करें।
42. (b) 'escapes' के स्थान पर 'escaped' का प्रयोग करें।
43. (b) 'is having' के स्थान पर 'has' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 37 को देखें)।
44. (a) 'No one heard' के स्थान पर 'no one has heard' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 12 की व्याख्या देखें)।
45. (c) 'the students gave' के स्थान पर 'the students had given' का प्रयोग करें।

Before $\underbrace{\text{Simple Past}}_{2^{nd}\text{ Action}}$, $\underbrace{\text{Past Perfect}}_{1^{st}\text{ Action}}$ (Past Perfect देखें)।

46. (a) 'She did not prepare' के स्थान पर 'she has not prepared' का प्रयोग करें। 'yet' का प्रयोग सामान्यत: 'Present perfect negative sentences में होता है।
47. (b) 'I am owning' को 'I own' में परिवर्तित करें।
48. (c) 'Preceded' के स्थान पर 'had preceded का प्रयोग करें। (47 एवं 48 की व्याख्या के लिए Past Perfect देखें)।
49. (a) 'Will have already returned' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 6 की व्याख्या देखें।)।
50. (b) 'has' के बाद V_3 'had' का प्रयोग होगा।
51. (c) 'times' को 'time' में परिवर्तित करें।
52. (b) 'is' के स्थान पर 'has been' का प्रयोग करें।
53. (b) 'am believing' को 'believe' में परिवर्तित करें।
54. (b) 'we should have done' को 'we did' में परिवर्तित करें।
55. (c) 'you have' को 'have you' में परिवर्तित करें। वाक्य प्रश्नात्मक है।
56. (c) 'Prices comes' को 'price comes' में परिवर्तित करें।
57. (b) 'have' को 'had' में परिवर्तित करें। क्योंकि वाक्य Past का है।

3 PASSIVE VOICE

CHAPTER

- **Verb** का वह रूप **Voice** कहलाता है जिससे पता चलता है कि **कर्ता कोई काम करता है या कर्ता पर कोई काम होता है।**

ACTIVE VOICE

- **Verb** का वह रूप **active voice** कहलाता है जिससे ये ज्ञात हो कि **कर्ता (Sub) किसी क्रिया (verb) को किसी कर्म (obj) पर करता है।**

General Formula:- **Sub + verb + obj**

PASSIVE VOICE

- **Verb** का वह रूप **Passive Voice** कहलाता है जिससे ये ज्ञात होता है कि **कर्म (obj) पर किसी क्रिया (verb) का प्रभाव पड़ता है।**

General Formula:- **Obj + $\underbrace{\text{Helping Verb}}_{\text{Tense के अनुसार परिवर्तित}}$ + V_3 + by + sub**

- **Passive Voice का प्रयोग कहाँ होता है?**

1. **जब क्रिया स्वतः नहीं होता बल्कि उसे किया जाता है।**

जैसे: Tea grows both in Assam and Ceylon. (×)
Tea is grown both in Assam and Ceylon. (✓)

2. **जब क्रिया महत्त्वपूर्ण हो यानि 'घटना'।**

जैसे: He was rushed to the hospital where he was declared brought dead.

- इस वाक्य में 'घटना' महत्त्वपूर्ण है यानि किसी 'दुर्घटना के बाद घायल व्यक्ति को तुरंत अस्पताल ले जाना और उसे मृत घोषित किया जाना। यहाँ घायल को अस्पताल ले जाने वाले 'लोग' और ये घोषणा करने वाले 'डॉक्टर' कि घायल को मृत लाया गया अप्रासंगिक (irrelevant) है।

3. **जब कर्त्ता का पता नहीं या ये महत्त्वपूर्ण नहीं कि कर्ता ज्ञात हो।**

जैसे: People were relocated from the flood affected villages.

*अब विभिन्न **Tense** के **Active** एवं **Passive Voice** देखें-*

INDEFINITE TENSE

Indefinite Tense	Active	Passive
Simple Present	Sub + V_1 + obj	Obj + is/am/are + V_3 + by + sub.
Simple Past	Sub + V_2 + obj	Obj + was/were + V_3 + by + sub.
Simple Future	Sub + shall/will + V_1 + obj	Obj + shall/will + be+ V_3 + by + sub.
Modal	Sub + modall + V_1 + obj	Obj + modal + be+ V_3 + by + sub.

CHANGE THE VOICE

	Active	***Passive***
जैसे:	1. Police arrested him.	1. He was arrested.
	2. People speak english all over the world.	2. English is spoken all over the world.
	3. A teacher teaches English here.	3. English is taught here.
	4. No one desire riots.	4. Riots are not desired.
	5. I will not tolerate this nonsense.	5. This nonsense will not be tolerated by me.

Explanation of sentences no. 1, 2 & 3.

- कुछ क्रियायें निश्चित sub के द्वारा किए जाते है। ऐसे वाक्यों में **active voice** में उसी **sub** का प्रयोग करे जो **सामान्यतः वह कार्य करता हो** अगर **passive voice** में sub का उल्लेख नहीं हो (वाक्य 1 से 3 देखें)।
- इसी प्रकार क्रियायें अगर किसी **indefinite pronoun** या **vague noun** के द्वारा किये जाएं तो **Passive voice** में '**by + sub**' का प्रयोग **न** करें। (वाक्य 2 एवं 4 देखें)। ऐसा तब भी किया जाता है जब 'sub' इतना obvious हो कि उसका उल्लेख करना जरूरी नहीं हो। (वाक्य 2 देखें)।
- **Be (या उसके forms)** अगर **main verb** के स्थान पर हो तो वाक्य **passive voice** में **नहीं** हो सकता।

जैसे: 1. I $\underbrace{\text{am}}_{\text{m.v.}}$ happy. (A.V)

2. He should $\underbrace{\text{be}}_{\text{m.v.}}$ polite. (A.V)

- इन दोनों वाक्यों का passive voice नहीं बन सकता।

CONTINUOUS TENSE

Continuous Tense	Active	Passive
Present Continuous	Sub + is/ am/ are/ V_1 + ing + obj	obj + is/am/are + being + V_3 + by + sub
Past Continuous	Sub + was / were + V_1 + ing + obj	obj + was/were + being + V_3 + by + sub
Future Continuous	Sub + shall/will + be + V_1 + ing + obj	Future Continuous का Passive नहीं बनाया जा सकता है।
Modal Continuous	Sub + modal + be + V_1 + ing + obj	Modal Continuous का Passive नहीं बनाया जा सकता है।

नोट: अगर **Passive Voice 'Continuous Tense'** में हो तो '**being**' का प्रयोग करना न भूलें।

CHANGE THE VOICE

जैसे: 1. The committee is looking into the matter. (Active)
The matter is being looked **into** by the committee. (Passive)

नोट: **Verb** के बाद आने वाले **preposition** को **P.V.** में लगाना **न भुले**।

2. They are laughing at you. (Active)
You are being laughed **at** by them. (Passive)
3. The accused is being produced before the court. (Passive)
The police are producing the accused before the court. (Active)
4. Right to protest peacefully is being demanded by the revolutionaries. (Passive)
The revolutionaries are demanding right to protest peacefully. (Active)
5. You were not taking the exam seriously. (Active)
The exam was not being taken seriously by you. (Passive)

PERFECT TENSE

Perfect Tense	Active	Passive
Present Perfect	Sub + has/have + V_3 + obj	Obj + has / have + been + V_3 + by + sub
Past Perfect	Sub + had + V_3 + obj	Obj + had + been + V_3 + by + sub
Future Perfect	Sub + shall/ will + have + V_3 + obj	Obj + shall / will + have + been + V_3 + by + sub
Modal Perfect	Sub + Modal + have + V_3 + obj	Obj + modal + have + been + V_3 + by + sub

नोट: अगर **Passive Voice** '**Perfect Tense**' में हो तो '**been**' का प्रयोग करना न भूलें।

CHANGE THE VOICE

जैसे: 1. **Who** has seen him? *(Active)*
By whom has he been seen? *(Passive)*
2. The news has surprised us. *(Active)*
We have been surprised **at** the news. *(Passive)*
3. He will have understood your ulterior motive by that time. *(Active)*
Your ulterior motive will have been understood by him by that time. *(Passive)*
4. The committee had looked into the matter impartially before he was found guilty.
The matter had been looked into by the committee impartially before it found him guilty.

नोट: कुछ ऐसे **verbs** होते है जिनके बाद **fixed preposition** आते है।
known **to**, surprised **at**, amazed **at**, astonished **at**, startled **at**, vexed **at**, annoyed **with** somebody, annoyed **at** something, contained **in**, embodied **in**, crammed **with**, decorated **with**, filled **with**, ornamented **with**, thronged **with**, tired **of**. engulfed **in**.

जैसे: 1. The fire engulfed the building.
The building was engulfed **in** the fire.
2. This box contains ten cigars.
Ten cigars are contained **in** this box.

WH-QUESTIONS:

➢ **Yes/No Questions** का **Passive** बनाकर उसके पहले **Interrogative Words** जोड़ देने से **Wh-Questions** बन जाता है।

जैसे: Active: Have you broken the glass?
Passive: Has the glass been broken by you?

➢ अब इन **Yes/No Questions** के पहले **Interrogative Word** जोड़कर देखें-

Active: Why have you broken the glass?

Passive: Why ↓ Interrogative word | has the glass been broken by you? ↓ Yes/ No Question

➢ यह Rule - **Why, How, When, Where, What** आदि के साथ लागू होते हैं। किन्तु, **Who** या **Whom** आदि से शुरू होने वाले Questions के Passive को देखें-

Active: **Who** wrote the Ramayana?
Passive: **By whom** was the Ramayana written?
or
Who was the Ramayana written by?

[Whom was the Ramayana written by? कहना गलत है।]

Active: **Whom** have you invited?
Passive: **Who** has been invited by you?

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

1. With obj

(i) Shut the door (A.V.)

1st way Let the door be shut. (P.V.)

Let + obj + be + V_3

2nd way You are ordered to shut the door. (P.V.)

You are ordered/ requested/ forbidden etc. + to + V_1 + obj.

2. Without obj

(i) Go away. (A.V.)

You are ordered to go away. (P.V.)

You are ordered/ requested/ forbidden etc. + to + V_1 + obj.

Moral Suggestion

(i) Help the poor. (A.V.)

The poor should be helped. (P.V.)

Obj + should + be + V_3

INFINITIVE (TO + V_1)

Active: **To + V_1**

Passive: **To + be + V_3**

1. Active : I am to do it.
   Passive : It is to be done by me.
2. Active: You are to write it in ink.
   Passive: It is to be written in ink.

नोट: '**to + V_1**' को passive voice में '**to + be + V_3**' में परिवर्तित कर देते है पर ये हमेशा नहीं किया जा सकता। अगर '**to + V_1**' को करने वाले **subject** का उल्लेख '**to + V_1**' से **पहले** हो चुका हो तो '**to + V_1**' को '**to + be + V_3**' में परिवर्तित न करें ।

जैसे: Active: The teacher gave me a book to read.
Passive: I was given a book to read by my teacher.

'HAVE/HAS/HAD + TO + V_1

Active: **S + have / has/ had + to + V_1 + Obj**

Passive: **Obj + have / has / had + to + be + V_3 + by + sub.**

जैसे: (i) Active:

I	have	to	finish	this work.
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
S	have	to	V_1	Obj

Passive:

This work	has	to	be	finished	by	me
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Obj	has	to	be	V_3	by	sub

(ii) Active: You have to choose a dress.
Passive: A dress has to be chosen by you.

VERB- LET, BID, HELP, MAKE

➢ Verb- **Let, bid, help** और **make** का प्रयोग **active voice** में **direct infinitive (बिना 'to' के)** के साथ होता है।

जैसे:
1. She let me go.
2. I bade him leave the room.
3. They must help me finish the work.
4. I made him wash all the clothes

➢ **Bid, help** और **make** का प्रयोग **passive voice** में '**to**' के साथ होगा।

जैसे:
1. He was bidden to leave the room by me.
2. I must be helped to finish the work.
3. He was made to wash all the clothes by me.

नोट: '**Let**' का **प्रयोग** वाक्य में **अलग-अलग अर्थ** में हो सकता है। Passive voice में भी उसी अनुसार परिवर्तन होगें।

जैसे:
1. Let me play (अनुमति)
   I may be allowed to play.
2. Let him do this work.
   Let this work be done by him.
3. Let us organize a party (सलाह, वाक्य में object भी है)
   A party should be organized.
4. Let us help the poor. (नैतिक सलाह)
   The poor should be helped.

VERBS FOLLOWED BY ADJECTIVES.

Rose smells sweet. (Active)

Rose is sweet when it is smelt. (Passive)

Sub + $\underbrace{\text{verb}}_{\text{according to tense and number}}$ + adjective + when + $\underbrace{\text{pronoun}}_{\text{according to number}}$ + $\underbrace{\text{H.V}}_{\text{according to tense and number}}$ + $\underbrace{\text{V}_3}_{\text{M.V in } V_3 \text{ form.}}$

जैसे: 1. Quinine tastes bitter. (Active)
Quinine is bitter when it is tasted. (Passive)

2. Those mangoes tasted sour. (Active)
Those mangoes were sour when they were tasted. (Passive)

PRACTICE SET

Directions: A sentence has been given in Active/Passive Voice. Out of the four alternatives suggested below, select the one which best expresses the same sentence in Passive/Active Voice.

1. What amused you?
(a) What you are made to amuse by?
(b) By what are you being amused?
(c) By what were you amused?
(d) By what have you been amused?

2. Smoke and flames engulfed the area and made rescue operations difficult.
(a) The area was engulfed in smoke and flames and make rescue operations difficult.
(b) The area was engulfed in smoke and flames making rescue operations difficult.
(c) The area has been engulfed in smoke and flames and made rescue operations difficult.
(d) The area was engulfed in smoke and flames and rescue operations were made difficult.

3. He asked me to finish the work in time.
(a) I was asked that I should finish the work in time.
(b) He asked me that I should finish the work in time.
(c) I was asked to finish the work in time.
(d) I was asked to finished the work in time by him.

4. Quinine tastes bitter.
(a) Quinine is bitter when it is tasted.
(b) Quinine is bitter tested.
(c) The taste of quinine is bitter.
(d) Quinine is tasted bitter.

5. The vintage cars hold a special place in the hearts of their owners.
(a) A special place in the hearts of the vintage car owners is held by them.
(b) A special place was held by the vintage cars in the hearts of their owners.
(c) A special place is held by the vintage cars in the hearts of their owners.
(d) A special place is being held by the vintage cars in the hearts of their owners.

6. The accountant took the cheque from the customer.

(a) The cheque is taken from the customer by the accountant.
(b) The cheque was taken from the customer by the accountant.
(c) The customer was taken the cheque by the accountant.
(d) The cheque had been taken from the customer by the accountant.

7. The gatekeeper refused him admittance.

(a) He was refused admittance by the gatekeeper.
(b) Admittance is refused to him by the gatekeeper.
(c) Admittance was refused by the gatekeeper .
(d) Admittance is refused him by the gatekeeper.

8. Sohan was interviewing the political leaders.

(a) The political leaders were being interviewed by Sohan.
(b) The political leader was being interviewed by Sohan.
(c) The political leaders are being interviewed by Sohan.
(d) The political leaders is being interviewed by Sohan.

9. The builders have built a perfect dam across the stream.

(a) A perfect dam has built by the builders across the stream.
(b) A perfect dam has been built by the builders across the stream.
(c) A perfect dam have been built by the builders across the stream.
(d) A perfect dam was being built by the builders across the stream.

10. They should follow all the instructions carefully.

(a) All the instructions are carefully followed by them.
(b) All the instructions should be carefully followed by them.
(c) All the instructions have to be followed by them.
(d) All the instructions can be carefully followed by them.

11. Shut the door and leave.

(a) Let the door be shut and you are ordered to leave.
(b) Let the door be shutted and you are ordered to leave.
(c) Let the door be shut and you be left.
(d) Let be the door shut and you are ordered to leave.

12. Who knows you?

(a) By whom are you known?
(b) Whom are you known by?
(c) To whom are you known?
(d) Who are you known?

13. Help others but do not expect anything in return.

(a) You are advised to help others and expect anything in return.
(b) Let others be helped and expect nothing in return.
(c) You were advised to help others and expect anything in return.
(d) You are advised to help others but forbidden to expect anything in return.

14. We are taught English here.

(a) A teacher teaches us English here.
(b) English is taught here.
(c) A lady teaches us English here.
(d) You teach us English here.

15. The news surprised us.

(a) We were surprised at the news.
(b) We were surprised by the news.
(c) We were surprised with the news.
(d) We were surprised on the news.

16. Spain expected to win the world cup.

(a) The world cup was expected to be won by Spain.
(b) It was expected by Spain to win the World Cup.
(c) To win the World Cup has been expected by Spain.
(d) Spain expected that the World Cup be won by it.

17. After taking her to the hospital, I dropped her at her place.

(a) After being taken to the hospital, she was dropped at her place by me.
(b) After been taken to the hospital, she was dropped at her place by me.
(c) After being taken she was sent to hospital and dropped at her place by me.
(d) After being taken to the hospital, she was dropped on her place by me.

18. Have this lock broken.

(a) Break this lock.
(b) Get someone to break this lock.
(c) Let this lock be broken.
(d) Have broken this lock be.

19. Think before you speak.

(a) Let thinking be done before you speak.
(b) Let speaking be not done before you think.
(c) You are advised to think before you speak.
(d) You are requested to think before you speak.

20. The case is being investigated by the police alongwith the CBI.

(a) The police alongwith the CBI are investigating the case.
(b) The police alongwith the CBI is investigating the case.
(c) The police alongwith the CBI was investigating the case.
(d) The police alongwith the CBI were investigating the case.

21. He doesn't like people to call him cheat.

(a) He doesn't like to be called a cheat.
(b) He doesn't like to be call is a cheat.
(c) He doesn't like anyone to call him cheat.
(d) To call cheat is not liked by him.

22. At Paramount every question is answered as we believe that even Einstein asked questions.

(a) At Paramount every question is answered as we believe that even questions were asked by Einstein.

(b) At Paramount every question is answered as that is believed by us that Einstein even asked question.

(c) At Paramount we answer every question as it is believed by us that questions were asked by even Einstein.

(d) Every question is answered by Paramount as we believe that Einstein asked even questions.

23. You must hit the nail on the head.

(a) The nail must hit on the head.

(b) The nail must be hit on the head.

(c) The nail has to be hit on the head.

(d) The nail on the head must be hit.

24. Those mangoes smell sweet.

(a) Those mangoes are sweet when they are smell.

(b) Those mangoes are sweet when they are smelt

(c) Those mangoes were sweet when those are smelt.

(d) Sweet are smelt by those mangoes.

25. The little boy asked the man the way to Athens.

(a) The man has been asked the way to Athens by the little boy.

(b) The man was asked the way to Athens by the little boy.

(c) The man was being asked the way to Athens by the little boy.

(d) The way to Athens was asked by the man from the little boy.

26. Shut the door and go away.

(a) Let the door be shut and you are ordered to go away.

(b) You are ordered to go away and shut the door.

(c) Let the door be shut and let you be gone.

(d) Shut the door and let you be gone.

27. Your proposal was objected to and everyone laughed at you.

(a) Everyone objected your proposal and laughed at you.

(b) Everyone objected to your proposal and you were laughed at.

(c) Everyone objected to and laughed at you and your proposal.

(d) Your proposal was objected and you were laughed.

28. Let everyone be given a chance.

(a) Give everyone a chance.

(b) Give a chance for everyone.

(c) Let a chance be given to everyone.

(d) I will give up a chance.

29. Do not make a noise.

(a) Let a noise be made not.
(b) You are requested to not make a noise.
(c) You are ordered to not make a noise.
(d) You are forbidden to make a noise.

30. People are raising a hue and cry and are breaking the furniture.

(a) A hue and cry is being raised and the furniture is being broken by the people.
(b) A hue and cry is being raised and the furniture are being broken by the people.
(c) Hue and cry and the furniture is being broken.
(d) A hue and cry has been raised and the furniture has been broke.

31. The fur coats were imported from Sweden by us.

(a) Sweden imported the fur coats.
(b) Sweden was imported the fur coats.
(c) We imported the fur coats from Sweden.
(d) We had imported the fur coats from Sweden.

32. A bullet in the chest is adored by the brave.

(a) The brave adores a bullet in the chest.
(b) The brave adore a bullet in the chest.
(c) The brave adored a bullet in the chest.
(d) The brave have adored a bullet in the chest.

33. Decisions must be taken.

(a) Decisions should be taken.
(b) We must take decisions.
(c) It is good to take decisions.
(d) We should take decisions.

34. Are they not cheating us?.

(a) Are we not being cheated?
(b) Are not we being cheated?
(c) Are we being not cheated?
(d) Are we being cheated?

35. The room was cleaned.

(a) The cleaner cleaned the room.
(b) The room should be cleaned.
(c) I cleaned the room.
(d) Someone cleaned the room.

36. I should have met him yesterday.

(a) He should have met by me yesterday.
(b) He should be meeting me yesterday.
(c) He should have been meeting by me yesterday.
(d) He should have been met by me yesterday.

37. One could see her lying on the flowerbeds.

(a) Flowerbeds could be seen lying on her.
(b) She could see on lying on flowerbeds.
(c) She could be seen lying on flowerbeds.
(d) She could be lying on flowerbeds seen.

38. We expect good news.

(a) Good news is expected by us.
(b) Let good news be expected.
(c) Let us expect good news.
(d) Expecting good news from them.

39. My teacher gave me a journal to read.

(a) I was given a journal by my teacher to be read.
(b) A journal to read was given to me by my teacher.
(c) A journal was given me to read by my teacher.
(d) I was given a journal by my teacher to read.

40. It is impossible to do this.

(a) This is impossible to be done.
(b) To do this by it is impossible.
(c) It is impossible to have done this.
(d) It can't be done.

41. Physically challenged people should not be laughed at by the public.

(a) Physically challenged people should not laugh at the public.
(b) The public will not be laughing at physically challenged people.
(c) The public shall not be laughing at physically challenged people.
(d) The public should not laugh at physically challenged people.

42. They say that people live on distant planets .

(a) It was said that people live on distant planets .
(b) It is being said that people live on distant planets .
(c) It is said that people live on distant planets .
(d) It is saying that people live on distant planets .

43. Can we send the parcel tomorrow?

(a) Can be the parcel sent by us tomorrow?
(b) Can we be sent by the parcel tomorrow?
(c) Can the parcel be sent by us tomorrow?
(d) Can the parcel sent by us tomorrow?

44. A detective arrested him as soon as he got home.

(a) An arrest was made by a detective as soon as he got home.
(b) He was arrested by a detective as soon as he got home.
(c) A detective was arrested by him as soon as he got home.
(d) An arrest was detected by him as soon as he got home.

45. They cooked the food and sent it to the orphanage.

(a) They cooked food was sent to the orphanage by them.
(b) The food was cooked and sent to the orphanage by them.
(c) The food was sent to the orphanage by them.
(d) The food was cooked and sent by them.

46. Where were they playing the cricket match?

(a) Where was the cricket match played?
(b) Where has the cricket match been played?
(c) Where will the cricket match be played?
(d) Where was the cricket match being played?

47. They say he can teach almost anything in this world.

(a) It is said that almost anything in this world can be taught by him.
(b) It was said that almost anything could be taught by him.
(c) They say almost anything could be taught by him.
(d) They say anything almost will be taught by him.

48. Please enter by the left door.

(a) Let the left door be entered by you.
(b) You are requested to enter by the left door.
(c) Let it be entered by the left door.
(d) The left door is requested to be entered.

49. I would advise you not to get on the wrong side of your boss.

(a) It would be advised by me not to get on the wrong side of your boss.
(b) It would be my advice not to get on the wrong side of your boss.
(c) You would be advised by me not to get on the wrong side of your boss.
(d) My advice to you would be not to get on the wrong side of your boss.

50. They have done this to defuse the crisis.

(a) The crisis has been defused by them.
(b) This has been done by them to defuse the crisis .
(c) To defuse the crisis this was done by them.
(d) To defuse the crisis this is done by them.

51. Open the door.

(a) The door must be opened.
(b) The door will be opened.
(c) The door is opened.
(d) Let the door be opened.

52. I did not trust anybody.

(a) Nobody was trusted by me.
(b) Anybody had been trusted by me.
(c) Nobody would be trusted by me.
(d) Nobody has been trusted by me.

53. Did he remember the date and time?

(a) Are the date and time remembered by him?
(b) Was he remembering the date and time?
(c) Were the date and time remembered by him?
(d) Did the date and time be remembered by him?

54. The boys were digging a hole in the ground.

(a) A hole was being dug in the ground by the boys.
(b) In the ground, the boys dug a hole.
(c) A hole in the ground has been dug by the boys.
(d) A hole in the ground has been dug by the boys.

55. We must now deal with these problems.

(a) These problems must now be dealt with by us.
(b) These problems must now be dealing with by us.
(c) These problems must now deal with by us.
(d) These problems are to be dealt with by us.

56. The audience loudly cheered the leader's speech.

(a) The leader's speech was loudly cheered by the audience.
(b) The leader's speech in loudly cheered by the audience.
(c) The audience loudly cheered the leader for his speech.
(d) The speech of the leader was loudly cheered by the audience.

57. Someone is following us.

(a) We are following by someone.
(b) We are being followed by someone.
(c) We were being followed by someone.
(d) We had been followed by someone.

58. He hasn't slept in his bed.

(a) His bed hasn't been slept in.
(b) He had not been slept in his bed.
(c) His bed had been slept in.
(d) His bed had not been slept in.

59. I was recommended another lawyer.

(a) Somebody recommended another lawyer.
(b) Somebody recommended me to another lawyer.
(c) Somebody recommended me another lawyer.
(d) Somebody recommends me another lawyer.

60. Many a person has been saved from the man-eaters by these hunters.

(a) These hunters will save many a person from the man-eaters.
(b) These hunters say many a person from the man-eaters.
(c) These hunters saved many a person from the man-eaters.
(d) These hunters have saved many a person from the man-eaters.

61. Must we cut this tree?

(a) Must this tree will cut?
(b) Must this tree be cut?
(c) Must his tree was cut?
(d) Must his tree is cut?

62. You will be looked after well.

(a) They will look after you well.
(b) They can't look after you well.
(c) They may look after well.
(d) They shall look after you well.

63. Didn't they tell you to be here by six o'clock?

(a) Weren't you told to be here by six o'clock?
(b) Haven't they told you to be here by six o'clock?
(c) You were expected to be here by six o'clock.
(d) They expected you to be here by six O'clock.

64. Don't touch this switch.

(a) This switch does not be touched.
(b) This switch must not be touched.
(c) This switch don't be touched.
(d) This switch need not be touched.

65. One cannot gather grapes from thistles.

(a) Thistles cannot be gathered from grapes.
(b) Grapes cannot be gathered from thistles.
(c) Grapes and thistles cannot be gathered by one.
(d) Grapes cannot be gathered by them.

66. They will have completed the work by the time we get there.

(a) The work will be completed by the time we get there.
(b) The work will have been completed by the time we get there.
(c) The work will have completed by the time we get there.
(d) The work will have been completed by the time we have got there.

67. You will have to pull down this sky-scraper as you have not complied with the town planning regulations.

(a) This sky-scraper will have to be pulled down as the town planning regulations have not been complied with.
(b) This sky-scraper will have to be pulled down by you as the town planning regulations have not been complied by you.
(c) This sky-scraper will be pulled down as the town planning regulations have not been complied with.
(d) This sky-scraper will have to be pulled down as the town planning regulations have not been complied.

68. He has written a poem which fascinates every one.

(a) A poem has been written by him which fascinates every one.
(b) Everyone is fascinated by the poem which has been written by him.
(c) Poem written by him fascinates everyone.
(d) Every one fascinates the poem which is written by him.

69. Will those happy days be ever forgotten by me?

(a) Will I ever forget those happy days?
(b) Shall I ever forget those happy days?
(c) Would I forget these happy days?
(d) Ever shall I forget those happy days?

70. You are requested to permit him.

(a) Please permit him.
(b) I request you to permit me.
(c) He requests to permit him.
(d) I plead you to permit him.

71. I am not going to tolerate this nonsense anymore.

(a) This nonsense is not going to be tolerated by me anymore.
(b) This nonsense is not being gone to be tolerated by me anymore.
(c) This nonsense is not being going to be tolerated by me anymore.
(d) Tolerate is not being going to be done by me of this nonsense.

72. The boys were being laughed at by the passers-by on the busy thoroughfare last evening.

(a) The passers-by laughed at the boys on the busy thoroughfare last evening.
(b) The passers-by were laughing at the boys on the busy thoroughfare last evening.
(c) The boys were laughing at the passers-by on the busy thoroughfare last evening.
(d) None of the above.

73. The police are questioning Mr. and Mrs. Sharma.

(a) Mr. and Mrs. Sharma are questioned by the police.
(b) Mr. and Mrs. Sharma have been questioning the police.
(c) Mr. and Mrs. Sharma have been questioned by the police.
(d) Mr. and Mrs. Sharma are being questioned by the police.

74. Before they invented printing, people had to write everything by hand.

(a) Before printing was invented everything had to be written by hand.
(b) Before printing was invented by them, everything had to be written.
(c) Before printing was invented people had to write everything by hand.
(d) Before printing was invented everything was written by hand.

75. Did any one ever make it clear how one operates the machine?

(a) Was it ever made clear how the machine is operated?
(b) Did any one ever make it by clear how the machine is operated?

(c) Was ever it made clear how to operate the machine?
(d) Was how to operate the machine ever made clear?

76. Why did your father refuse to give the money to you?
(a) Why was your father refused money to you?
(b) Why was the money not given to you by your father?
(c) Why was the money refused to be given to you by your father?
(d) Why the money was refused to be given to you by your father?

77. Do you expect your parents to come from Hyderabad today?
(a) Did your parents come today from Hyderabad?
(b) Were your parents expected to come from Hyderabad today?
(c) Are your parents expected to come today from Hyderabad?
(d) Do your parents are expected to come today from Hyderabad?

78. Why are you raising a hue and cry?
(a) Why are a hue and cry being raised by you?
(b) Why is a hue and cry being raised by you?
(c) Why a hue and cry are being raised by you?
(d) Why a hue and cry is being raised by you?

79. They say that there are living beings on Mars.
(a) They say that Mars has living beings.
(b) It is said that there are people living on Mars.
(c) On Mars, there are living beings.
(d) It is said that there are living beings on Mars.

80. A fortnight after he was convicted for the rape and murder of his classmate, the Delhi High Court sentenced him to death on Monday.
(a) A fortnight after he had been convicted for the rape and murder of his classmate he had been sentenced to death by the Delhi High Court on Monday.
(b) A fortnight after he was convicted for the rape and murder of his classmate he has been sentenced to death by the Delhi High Court on Monday.
(c) A fortnight after he was convicted for the rape and murder of his classmate he was sentenced to death by the Delhi High Court on Monday.
(d) A fortnight after he was been convicted for the rape and murder of his classmate he was sentenced to death by the Delhi High Court on Monday.

81. Their dog bit our neighbour yesterday.
(a) Our neighbour bit their dog yesterday.
(b) Our neighbour bitten by their do yesterday.
(c) Our neighbour was bitten by their dog yesterday.
(d) Our neighbour were bit by their dog yesterday.

82. The MD told us about the new project.
(a) We were told about the new project by the MD.
(b) We are told about the new project by the MD.

(c) We told by MD about the new project.
(d) We had been told by MD about project.

83. The Minister had already informed his Cabinet about his decision.
(a) His Cabinet was already informed about the Minister's decision.
(b) His Cabinet has already informed the Minister about his decision.
(c) His Cabinet had already been informed about his decision by the Minister.
(d) His Cabinet will have already been informed about the Minister's decision.

84. Sayali gave the beggar an old sari.
(a) An old sari was given to Sayali by the beggar.
(b) An old sari was given to the begger by Sayali.
(c) The begger was being given on old sari by Sayali.
(d) The begger had to be given on old sari by Sayali.

85. They are going to perform "Hamlet".
(a) "Hamlet" is going to be performed by them.
(b) "Hamlet" is going to perform by them.
(c) "Hamlet" is to perform.
(d) "Hamlet" has to be performed.

86. I was shocked by the letter.
(a) They shocked me with the letter.
(b) I am shocked.
(c) The letter shocked me.
(d) I shocked with the letter.

87. Somebody stole my car last week.
(a) Last week my car was steal by somebody.
(b) My car was stolen last week by somebody.
(c) My car was stolen that week by somebody.
(d) Somebody last week has stolen my car.

88. Do they sell construction material?
(a) Does construction material sold by them?
(b) Is construction material selling by them?
(c) Is construction material sold by them?
(d) Does construction material sell by them?

89. Sharma was cleaning the house.
(a) The house was cleaned by Sharma.
(b) The house will be cleaned by Sharma.
(c) The house was being cleaned by Sharma.
(d) The house is being cleaned by Sharma.

90. I bought a new shirt last week.
(a) Last week a new shirt was bought by I.
(b) Last week a new shirt is bought by I.

(c) Last week a new shirt was bought by me.
(d) Last week a new shirt had been bought by me.

91. The plants have been watered by the gardener.
(a) The gardener is watering the plants.
(b) The gardener has been watering the plants.
(c) The gardener has watered the plants.
(d) The gardener have watered the plants.

92. The children could use the place always.
(a) The place can be used by children always.
(b) The place is used by children always.
(c) The place could always be used by children.
(d) The place has been used by children always.

93. They say that the earth is round.
(a) It has been said that the earth is round.
(b) That the earth is round is said by them.
(c) It is said that the earth is round.
(d) It was said that the earth was round.

94. This machine must not be used after 5.30 p.m.
(a) You can't use the machine after 5.30 p.m.
(b) You mayn't use the machine after 5.30 p.m.
(c) You need not you the machine after 5.30 p.m.
(d) You must not use the machine after 5.30 p.m.

95. Tiny houses dot the landscape.
(a) The landscape was dotted by tiny houses.
(b) The landscape is being dotted by tiny houses.
(c) The landscape is dotted by tiny houses.
(d) The landscape has been dotted by tiny houses.

96. Dogs always chase cats.
(a) Cats are always chasing dogs.
(b) Cats have been always chased by dogs.
(c) Cats are always chased by dogs.
(d) Cats are being always chased by dogs.

97. The farmer prepared the field.
(a) The field was prepared by the farmer.
(b) The field was being prepared by the farmer.
(c) The field were prepared by the farmer.
(d) The field were being prepared by the farmer.

98. Teachers should be respected.
(a) Teachers deserve respect.
(b) Teachers are to be respected.

(c) We shall respect teaches.
(d) We should respect teachers.

99. He will do the work tomorrow.
(a) The work will be done by him tomorrow.
(b) The work would be done by him tomorrow.
(c) The work could be done by him tomorrow.
(d) The work will have been done by him tomorrow.

100. She gave me a book.
(a) I was given a book by her.
(b) She was given a book.
(c) A book is given by her to me.
(d) I was given her a book.

101. I have bought a new car.
(a) A new car was bought by me.
(b) A new car is brought by me.
(c) A new car has been bought by me.
(d) A new car had been bought by me.

102. Teachers might have given their students some concessions.
(a) Their students might have given some concessions to their teachers.
(b) Their students might be given some concessions by their teachers.
(c) Their students might be giving some concessions to their teachers.
(d) Students might have been given some concessions by their teachers.

103. You should not offer meat to vegetarians.
(a) Vegetarians should not be offered meat.
(b) Meat should be offered to non-vegetarians.
(c) Vegetarians should not offer meat.
(d) You should offer no meat to non-vegetarians.

104. You must write off all those bad debts.
(a) You must be written off by all those bad debts.
(b) All those bad debts must be written off by you.
(c) Write off all those bad debts .
(d) All those bad debts could be written off.

105. Are they receiving the chief guest at the station ?
(a) Was the chief guest being received at the station ?
(b) Is the chief guest being received at the station ?
(c) Will they be received by the chief guest at the station ?
(d) Will the chief guest be received at the station ?

106. We make butter from milk.
(a) Butter is make from milk by us.
(b) Butter is made from milk by us.

(c) Butter is make with milk by us.
(d) From milk butter is made by us.

107. I don't like people telling me what to do.
(a) I don't like being told what to do.
(b) People telling me what to do was not liked by me.
(c) I do not like being told by the people.
(d) People don't like telling me what to do.

108. The meeting has been called off by the chairman.
(a) The chairman called off the meeting.
(b) The chairman has called off the meeting.
(c) The chairman is calling off the meeting.
(d) The chairman had called off the meeting.

109. The police arrested 200 students on the University campus.
(a) 200 students had been arrested on the University campus by the police.
(b) 200 students has been arrested by the police on the University campus.
(c) 200 students were arrested by the police on the University campus.
(d) 200 students are arrested on the University campus by the police.

110. Why do you like him so much ?
(a) Why has he been liked so much by you ?
(b) Why was he liked by you so much?
(c) Why is he liked by you so much ?
(d) Why he is liked by you so much ?

111. The invitation cards will be sent today.
(a) They will sent the invitation cards today.
(b) They will have sent the invitation cards today.
(c) They will send the invitation cards today.
(d) They will be sending the invitation cards today.

112. She has baked several cakes for her friends.
(a) She has several cakes to be baked for her friends.
(b) Her friends had several cakes baked by her.
(c) Several cakes have been baked by her for her friends.
(d) Her friends baked several cakes for her.

113. We believe that God gives us misery.
(a) It was believed that God gave us misery.
(b) It has been believed that God gives us misery.
(c) It is believed that God gives us misery.
(d) It is a belief that God gives us misery.

114. A lot of saplings have been planted by the chief guest.
(a) The chief guest is planting a lot of saplings.
(b) The chief guest has planted a lot of saplings.

(c) The chief guest have planted a lot of sapling.
(d) The chief guest has been planting a lot of saplings.

115. The Prime Minister has discussed the matter with the other ministers.
(a) The matter was discussed by the Prime Minister with the other ministers.
(b) The matter is discussed- by the Prime Minister with the other ministers.
(c) The matter had been discussed by the Prime Minister with the other ministers.
(d) The matter has been discussed by the Prime Minister with the other ministers.

116. The Principal will meet the students this evening.
(a) The students will be met by the Principal this evening.
(b) The students could be met by the Principal this evening. .
(c) The students would be met by the Principal this evening.
(d) The students will be meeting the Principal this evening. .

117. The Chief Justice of India is appointed by the President.
(a) The President "of India appointed the Chief Justice.
(b) The President appoints the Chief Justice of India.
(c) The President appointed the Chief Justice of India.
(d) The appointment order of the Chief Justice of India was given by the President.

118. A meeting was convened by the Principal.
(a) The Principal convened a meeting.
(b) The Principal was convening a meeting.
(c) The Principal has convened a meeting
(d) The Principal is convening a meeting.

119. Someone has stolen my suitcase.
(a) My suitcase is stolen by someone.
(b) Someone has been stolen my suitcase.
(c) My suitcase has someone been stolen.
(d) My suitcase has been stolen by someone.

120. Anu is interviewing Radhika and Sarath Kumar.
(a) Radhika and Sarath Kumar are being interviewed by Anu.
(b) Radhika and Sarath Kumar are interviewing Anu.
(c) Radhika and Sarath Kumar were interviewed by Anu.
(d) Radhika is being interviewed by Sarath Kumar and Ami.

121. Our task had been completed before sunset.
(a) We completed our task before sunset.
(b) We have completed our task before sunset.
(c) We complete our task before sunset.
(d) We had completed our task before sunset.

122. The boy laughed at the beggar.
(a) The beggar was laughed by the boy.
(b) The beggar was being laughed by the boy.

(c) The beggar was being laughed at by the boy.
(d) The beggar was laughed at by the boy.

123. The government has launched a massive tribal welfare programme in Jharkhand.
(a) A massive tribal welfare programme is launched by the government in Jharkhand.
(b) A massive tribal welfare programme has been launched by the government in Jharkhand.
(c) Jharkhand government has launched a massive tribal welfare programme.
(d) The government in Jharkhand has launched a massive tribal welfare programme.

124. The boys were playing cricket.
(a) Cricket had been played by the boys.
(b) Cricket has been played by the boys.
(c) Cricket was played by the boys.
(d) Cricket was being played by the boys.

125. They drew a circle in the morning.
(a) A circle was being drawn by them in the morning.
(b) A circle was drawn by them in the morning.
(c) In the morning a circle have been drawn by them.
(d) A circle has been drawing since morning.

126. They will demolish the entire block.
(a) The entire block is being demolished.
(b) The block may be demolished entirely.
(c) The entire block will have to be demolished by them.
(d) The entire block will be demolished by them.

127. The burglar destroyed several items in the room. Even the carpet has been torn.
(a) Several items destroyed in the room by the burglar. Even the carpet he has torn.
(b) Several items in the room were destroyed by the burglar. Even the carpet has been torn.
(c) Including the carpet, several items in the room have been torn by the burglar.
(d) The burglar, being destroyed several items in the room, also carpet has torn.

128. We must respect the elders.
(a) The elders deserve respect from us.
(b) The elders must be respected.
(c) The elders must respected by us.
(d) Respect the elders we must.

129. We have warned you.
(a) You have been warned.
(b) We have you warned.

(c) Warned you have been.
(d) Have you been warned.

130. Has anybody answered your question ?

(a) Your question has been answered ?
(b) Anybody has answered your question ?
(c) Has your question been answered ?
(d) Have you answered your question ?

131. The shopkeeper lowered the prices.

(a) The prices lowered the shopkeeper.
(b) The prices were lowered by the shopkeeper.
(c) Down went the prices.
(d) The shopkeeper got down the prices.

132. One must keep one's promises.

(a) One's promises are kept.
(b) One's promises must kept.
(c) One's promises were kept.
(d) Promises must be kept.

133. The government has not approved the new drug for sale.

(a) The government approval for the sale of the new drug has not been given.
(b) The new drug has not been approved for sale by the government.
(c) For the sale of the new drug we have not been given the approval.
(d) The new drug was not approved by the government.

134. They have published all the details of the invention.

(a) All the details of the invention have been published by them.
(b) The publication of the details of invention was done by them.
(c) All the details have been invented by the publishers.
(d) All the inventions have been detailed by them.

135. He teaches us grammar.

(a) Grammar was taught to us by him.
(b) We are taught grammar by him.
(c) Grammar will be taught to us by him.
(d) We were teached grammar by him.

136. The manager could not accept the union leader's proposals.

(a) The union leader's proposals could not be accepted by the manager.
(b) The union leader's proposals were not accepted by the manager.
(c) The union leader's proposals will not be accepted by the manager.
(d) The union leader's proposals would not be accepted by the manager.

137. Prepare yourself for the worst.

(a) You be prepared for the worst.
(b) The worst should be prepared by yourself.

(c) Be prepared for the worst.
(d) For the worst, preparation should be made by you.

138. Please shut the door and go to sleep.
(a) The door is to be shut and you are to go to sleep.
(b) Let the door be shut and you be asleep.
(c) You are requested to shut the door and *go* to sleep.
(d) The door is to be shut and you are requested to sleep.

139. Small strokes fell great oaks.
(a) Great oaks are fallen by small oaks.
(b) Great oaks are felled by small oaks.
(c) Great oaks are fell by small oaks.
(d) Great oaks were fallen by small oaks.

140. We must take care of all living species on Earth.
(a) All living species on Earth are taken care of by us.
(b) All living species on Earth must be taken care of by us.
(c) All living species on Earth had been taken care of by us.
(d) All living species on Earth will be taken care of by us.

141. People call him a fool.
(a) He has been called a fool.
(b) He is called a fool by the people.
(c) The people have been calling him a fool.
(d) We all people have called him a fool.

142. It is being read by us.
(a) We are reading it.
(b) It will be read by us.
(c) We can read it.
(d) We have to read it.

143. He had committed a mistake.
(a) A mistake had committed by him.
(b) A mistake was committed by him.
(c) A mistake had been committed by him.
(d) A mistake has been committed by him.

144. The most useful training of my career was given to me by my boss.
(a) My boss has been giving me the most useful training of my career.
(b) My boss gives me the most useful training.
(c) My boss is giving me the most useful training.
(d) My boss gave me the most useful training of my career.

145. We have decided to open a new branch.
(a) To open a new branch was decided by us.
(b) To be opened a new branch has been decided.

(c) It has been decided to open a new branch.
(d) It may be decided to open a new branch by us.

146. The loan will be sanctioned by the bank.
(a) The bank sanctioned the loan.
(b) The bank is going to sanction the loan.
(c) The bank would sanction the loan.
(d) The bank will sanction the loan.

147. Paint the windows.
(a) Windows should be painted.
(b) Let the windows be painted.
(c) Let be the windows painted.
(d) Windows are let to be painted.

148. The traitors should be shot dead.
(a) They should have shot the traitors dead.
(b) They shall shoot the traitors dead.
(c) They should shoot the traitors dead.
(d) They shot the traitors dead.

149. Rahul is teaching the children in the slum areas.
(a) The children in the slum areas are taught by Rahul.
(b) The children are taught by Rahul in the slum area.
(c) In the slum areas the children are learning from Rahul.
(d) The children in the slum areas are being taught by Rahul.

150. One cannot expect children to understand these problems.
(a) Children cannot be expected to understand these problems.
(b) Children to understand these problems cannot be expected.
(c) Children cannot be expected to be understood these problems.
(d) To understand these problems cannot be expected from children by one.

151. Why did she break the garden wall ?
(a) Why the garden wall was broken by her?
(b) Why had the garden wall been broken by her ?
(c) Why was the garden wall broken by her?
(d) Why will the garden wall be broken by her ?

152. The students were laughing at the old man.
(a) The old man was being laughed at by the students.
(b) The old man was laughed at by the students.
(c) The old man was being laughed by the students.
(d) The old man is laughing at the students.

153. He admonished her for the error.
(a) She was admonished by him for the error.
(b) She has been admonished by him for the error.

(c) She would be admonished by him for the error.
(d) She is admonished by him for the error.

154. Can we send this big parcel by air ?
(a) Can this big parcel be sent by air?
(b) Can this big parcel sent by air ?
(c) Could this big parcel be sent by air?
(d) Could this big parcel sent by us by air?

155. The boys saved many elders from drowning.
(a) Many elders are saved from drowning by the boys.
(b) Many elders are being saved from drowning by the boys,
(c) Many elders were saved from drowning by the boys.
(d) Many elders have .been saved from drowning by the boys.

156. He was refused admittance.
(a) The guards refuse him admittance.
(b) The guards refused him for admittance.
(c) The guards have refused him admittance.
(d) The guards refused him admittance.

157. You will be taken care of by me.
(a) I will be taking care of you.
(b) I would take care of you.
(c) I will take care of you.
(d) I will being take care of you.

158. Promises should be kept.
(a) You must keep the promises.
(b) We must keep their promises.
(c) Kept the promises.
(d) One should keep one's promises.

159. Circumstances forced him to resign his post.
(a) Circumstances make him to resign his post.
(b) He was forced to resign his post.
(c) He is forced to resign his post.
(d) He is forced and resigned his post. .

160. He would have written this essay in time.
(a) The essay was written on time.
(b) This essay would haye been written by him in time.
(c) The essay was written by him in
(d) He wrote the essay on time.

161. I give alms to the poor on Saturdays.
(a) Alms are given to the poor by me on Saturdays.
(b) Alms is given to the poor by me on Saturdays.

(c) Alms are given to the poors by me on Saturdays.
(d) Alms were given to the poor by me on Saturdays.

162. God helps the brave.
(a) The brave is helped by God
(b) The brave are helped by God
(c) The brave are help by God
(d) The brave helped by God

163. I haven't read Three Muskeeters.
(a) Three Muskeeters have not been read by me.
(b) Three Muskeeters has not been read by me.
(c) Three Muskeeters has been not read by me.
(d) Three Muskeeters has not been readed by me.

164. I am going to buy new spectacles tomorrow.
(a) New spectacles are going to be bought by me tomorrow.
(b) New spectacles is going to be bought by me tomorrow.
(c) New spectacles are being bought by me tomorrow.
(d) New spectacles are to be bought by me tomorrow.

165. Our mothers use tongs while making chapaties.
(a) Tongs are used by our mothers while making chapaties.
(b) Tongs is used by our mothers while making chapaties.
(c) Tongs are used by our mothers while chapaties are being made.
(d) Tongs are use by our mothers while making chapaties.

166. I play Billiards during my free time.
(a) Billiards are played by me during my free time.
(b) Billiards were played by me during my free time.
(c) Billiards are being played by me during my free time.
(d) Billiards is played by me during my free time.

167. Have the car painted black.
(a) Paint the car black.
(b) I have painted the car black.
(c) Get someone to paint the car black .
(d) Black has been painted by the car.

168. Who has stolen my binoculars?
(a) By whom my binoculars have been stolen?
(b) By whom have my binoculars been stolen?
(c) By whom has my binoculars been stolen?
(d) By whom my binoculars has been stolen?

169. He has been arrested and sent to jail.
(a) The police arrested him and the court sent him to jail.
(b) The police has arrested him and the court have sent him to jail.

(c) The police have arrested him and the court has sent him to jail.
(d) The police has arrested him and the court has sent him to jail.

170. Anna and his team hope to fight corruption with Jan Lokpal Bill.

(a) It is hoped by Anna and his team that they would fight corruption by Jan Lokpal Bill .
(b) To fight corruption is been hoped by Anna and his team by Jan Lokpal Bill.
(c) To fight corruption was being hoped by Anna and his team by Jan Lokpal Bill.
(d) To fight corruption is being hoping by Anna and his team by Jan Lokpal Bill.

171. The Greeks expected to conquer Carthrage.

(a) People expected the Greeks to conquer Carthrage.
(b) It was expected by the Greeks to conquer Carthrage.
(c) To conquer Carthrage was expected by the Greeks.
(d) Carthrage was expected to be conquered by the Greeks.

172. Rome was not built in a day.

(a) They did not build Rome in a day.
(b) They could not build Rome in a day.
(c) The Romans did not build Rome in a day.
(d) They have not built Rome in a day.

173. The ship is being taken to safe water by the Captain and not his crew.

(a) The Captain and not his crew is taking the ship to safe water.
(b) The Captain and not his crew are taking the ship to safe water.
(c) The Captain and not his crew have taken the ship to safe water.
(d) The Captain and not his crew is being taking the ship to safe water.

174. Strong Anti-Corruption law is liked by neither the Central Government nor the State Governments.

(a) Neither the Central Government nor the State Governments likes strong Anti-Corruption law.
(b) Neither the Central Government nor the State Governments like strong Anti-Corruption law.
(c) Neither the Central Government nor the State Governments liked strong Anti-Corruption law.
(d) Neither the Central Government nor the State Governments are liking strong Anti-Corruption law.

175. If you cannot change the master, you cannot change the destiny.

(a) The destiny cannot be changed if masters cannot change.
(b) The destiny could not be changed if masters cannot be changed.
(c) The destiny cannot change if masters cannot be changed.
(d) The destiny cannot be changed if masters cannot be changed.

176. The curd smelt sour.

(a) The curd is sour when smelt.
(b) The curd was sour when it was smelling.
(c) The curd was sour when it was smelt.
(d) The curd is sour when it was smelt.

177. People are not going to tolerate Government's despotism.

(a) Government's despotism is not going to be tolerated by people.
(b) Government's despotism was not going to be tolerated by people.
(c) Government's despotism is not being tolerated by people.
(d) Government's despotism is not to be tolerated by people.

178. He is writing a letter.

(a) A letter is being written by him.
(b) A letter is written by him.
(c) A letter has been written by him.
(d) Let a letter be written by him.

179. The man cut the tree into thin strips.

(a) The tree was cut into thin strips by the man.
(b) The tree cut itself into thin strips by the man.
(c) The tree has cut into thin strips by the man.
(d) The tree can be cut into thin strips by the man.

180. My father gave me a hundred rupee note yesterday.

(a) A hundred rupee note was given to me by my father yesterday.
(b) A hundred rupee note was being given to me by my father.
(c) A hundred rupee note had been given to me by my father.
(d) Yesterday, my father was given a hundred rupee note by me.

181. The pilot landed the plane safely.

(a) The plane had been landed safely by the pilot.
(b) The plane was landed safely by the pilot.
(c) The plane has been landed safely by the pilot.
(d) The plane was to be landed safely by the pilot.

182. Abha sent me a card.

(a) A card will be send to me by Abha.
(b) A card was sent to me by Abha.
(c) A card will be sent to me by Abha.
(d) A card is sent to me by Abha.

183. He will never forget it.

(a) It will never be forgotten by him.
(b) It can never be forgotten by him.
(c) It should never be forgotten by him.
(d) It may never be forgotten by him.

184. Let not his insulting words be minded.

(a) Don't be insulted his words.
(b) Don't mind his insulting words.
(c) Don't insult him with his words.
(d) Do mind his insulting words.

185. The students have been punished by the teacher for negligence of duty.

(a) The teacher has punished the students for negligence of duty.
(b) The teacher had punished the students for negligence of duty.
(c) The teacher punished the students for negligence of duty.
(d) The teacher have punished the students for negligence of duty.

186. The storm has destroyed twelve houses.

(a) Twelve houses had been destroyed by the storm.
(b) Twelve houses have been destroyed by the storm.
(c) Twelve houses were destroyed by the storm.
(d) Twelve houses have been stormed.

187. She is reading a novel.

(a) A novel is being read by her.
(b) A novel has been read by her.
(c) A novel is read by her.
(d) A novel was being read by her.

188. The whole village was ravaged by the man-eater.

(a) The man-eater ravages the whole village.
(b) The whole village is ravaged by the man-eater.
(c) The man-eater ravaged the whole village.
(d) The whole village is being ravaged by the man-eater.

189. The purity of justice is maintained by the reports of proceedings in the law courts.

(a) The law courts maintain purity of justice in the reports of the proceedings.
(b) The reports of the proceedings in the law courts maintain the purity of justice.
(c) Pure justice is maintained in the proceedings of the law courts.
(d) The maintenance of justice is pure in the proceedings of the law courts.

190. Newton wrote this letter yesterday.

(a) Yesterday was written letter by Newton.
(b) This letter is written by Newton Yesterday.
(c) This letter was written by Newton yesterday.
(d) This letter was wrote by Newton yesterday.

191. An awareness is being created among the people by the Government about the importance of trees.

(a) The Government is creating an awareness among the people about the importance of trees.
(b) The Government are creating an awareness among the people about the importance of trees.
(c) The Government creates an awareness among the people about the importance of trees.
(d) The Government created an awareness among the people about the importance of trees.

192. Ads on TV increase the sale of any commodity.

(a) The sale of any commodity is being increased by ads on TV.
(b) The sale of any commodity are increased by ads on TV.
(c) The sale of any commodity are being increased by ads on TV.
(d) The sale of any commodity is increased by ads on TV.

193. The Indian Government is encouraging the Europeans to visit India.

(a) The Europeans are encouraged by the Indian Government to visit India.
(b) The Europeans are encouraging by the Indian Government to visit India.
(c) The Europeans are being encouraged by the Indian Government to visit India.
(d) The Europeans is being encouraged by the Indian Government to visit India.

194. He handed her a chair.

(a) She was handed a chair by him.
(b) He handed a chair to her.
(c) He will hand a chair to her.
(d) A chair will be handed to her by him.

195. Call the police at once.

(a) Let the police be called at once.
(b) The police was to be called at once.
(c) The police is to be called at once.
(d) Let the police called at once.

196. Post the letter.

(a) The letter is posted.
(b) The letter was posted.
(c) Let the letter be posted.
(d) The letter will be posted.

197. Who painted it?

(a) It was painted?
(b) Was it painted?
(c) Had it been painted by?
(d) By whom was it painted?

Answer key

1.	(c)	2.	(b)	3.	(c)	4.	(a)	5.	(c)	6.	(b)	7.	(a)	8.	(a)	9.	(b)
10.	(b)	11.	(a)	12.	(c)	13.	(d)	14.	(a)	15.	(a)	16.	(b)	17.	(a)	18.	(b)
19.	(c)	20.	(a)	21.	(a)	22.	(c)	23.	(b)	24.	(b)	25.	(b)	26.	(a)	27.	(b)
28.	(a)	29.	(d)	30.	(a)	31.	(c)	32.	(b)	33.	(b)	34.	(a)	35.	(a)	36.	(d)
37.	(c)	38.	(a)	39.	(d)	40.	(a)	41.	(d)	42.	(c)	43.	(c)	44.	(b)	45.	(b)
46.	(d)	47.	(a)	48.	(b)	49.	(c)	50.	(b)	51.	(d)	52.	(a)	53.	(c)	54.	(a)
55.	(a)	56.	(a)	57.	(b)	58.	(a)	59.	(c)	60.	(d)	61.	(b)	62.	(a)	63.	(a)
64.	(b)	65.	(b)	66.	(b)	67.	(a)	68.	(b)	69.	(b)	70.	(a)	71.	(a)	72.	(b)
73.	(d)	74.	(a)	75.	(a)	76.	(c)	77.	(c)	78.	(b)	79.	(d)	80.	(c)	81.	(c)
82.	(a)	83.	(c)	84.	(b)	85.	(a)	86.	(c)	87.	(b)	88.	(c)	89.	(c)	90.	(c)
91.	(c)	92.	(c)	93.	(c)	94.	(d)	95.	(c)	96.	(c)	97.	(a)	98.	(d)	99.	(a)
100.	(a)	101.	(c)	102.	(d)	103.	(a)	104.	(b)	105.	(b)	106.	(b)	107.	(a)	108.	(b)
109.	(c)	110.	(c)	111.	(c)	112.	(c)	113.	(c)	114.	(b)	115.	(d)	116.	(a)	117.	(b)
118.	(a)	119.	(d)	120.	(a)	121.	(d)	122.	(d)	123.	(b)	124.	(d)	125.	(b)	126.	(d)
127.	(b)	128.	(b)	129.	(a)	130.	(c)	131.	(b)	132.	(d)	133.	(b)	134.	(a)	135.	(b)
136.	(a)	137.	(c)	138.	(c)	139.	(b)	140.	(b)	141.	(b)	142.	(a)	143.	(c)	144.	(d)
145.	(c)	146.	(d)	147.	(b)	148.	(c)	149.	(d)	150.	(a)	151.	(c)	152.	(a)	153.	(a)
154.	(a)	155.	(c)	156.	(d)	157.	(c)	158.	(d)	159.	(b)	160.	(b)	161.	(a)	162.	(b)
163.	(b)	164.	(a)	165.	(a)	166.	(d)	167.	(c)	168.	(b)	169.	(c)	170.	(a)	171.	(b)
172.	(c)	173.	(a)	174.	(b)	175.	(d)	176.	(c)	177.	(a)	178.	(a)	179.	(a)	180.	(a)
181.	(b)	182.	(b)	183.	(a)	184.	(b)	185.	(a)	186.	(b)	187.	(a)	188.	(c)	189.	(b)
190.	(c)	191.	(a)	192.	(d)	193.	(c)	194.	(a)	195.	(a)	196.	(c)	197.	(d)		

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16. (a) नहीं हो सकता क्योंकि इससे वाक्य का ये अर्थ निकलता है कि ये उम्मीद की जा रही थी कि Spain वर्ल्ड कप जीतेगी। Question 16. में ये स्पष्ट है कि Spain को वर्ल्ड कप जीतने की उम्मीद थी। अत: उत्तर (b) होगा जिसका अर्थ Question 16 के अर्थ से मेल खाता है।

18. (b) वाक्य में 'Have' Causative Verb है। यहाँ कार्य किया नहीं करवाया जा रहा है। अत: (b) उपयुक्त उत्तर होगा।

32. (b)'The brave' plural common noun है। अगर brave, poor, rich इत्यादि जैसे adjectives के पहले article 'the' का प्रयोग किया जाए तो वह plural common noun बन जाता है एवं plural verb के साथ आता है।

35. (a) जब Passive Voice में 'by + sub' का उल्लेख नहीं हो तो इसका अर्थ है कि कर्ता सामान्यत: उस कार्य की करता है जिसका उल्लेख करना जरूरी नहीं। अत: उत्तर (a) होगा।

39. (d) अगर 'to read' के स्थान पर 'to be read' का प्रयोग किया जाए तो 'by + sub' का option खुल जाता है जबकि 'to read' का sub. 'I' का उल्लेख पहले हो चुका है। अत: 'to read' का ही प्रयोग करना उपयुक्त होगा।

161. (a) Alms (दान) Plural Noun है। अत: Plural verb 'are' का प्रयोग करें।

164. (a) Spectacles plural noun है। अत: spectacles के साथ 'are' का प्रयोग होगा।

165. (a) Tongs plural noun है। अत: tongs के साथ plural verb 'are' का प्रयोग होगा।

166. (d) Billiards form से plural है परन्तु एक खेल का नाम है। अत: अर्थ से singular है। अत: singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग होगा।

167. (c) वाक्य Passive voice में है और वाक्य में Causative verb 'have' का प्रयोग है। अत: Sub (कर्ता) के स्थान पर someone का उल्लेख है।

168. (b) Binoculars plural noun है। अत: binoculars के साथ plural verb का प्रयोग होगा।
169. (c) Police plural noun है। अत: plural के साथ plural verb का प्रयोग होगा।
171. (b) वाक्य 16 की व्याख्या देखें।
173. (a) जब दो subjects को 'and not' से जोड़ा जाता है तो verb 1st sub के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होता है। अत: 'the captain' के अनुसार verb 'is' का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।
174. (b) जब दो sub को 'neither.....nor' से जोड़ा जाता है तो verb नजदीक वाले subject के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होता है। अत: verb 'State Governments' (Plural noun) के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होगा।

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) The officers/ (b) who were on inspection in this factory / (c) were discovered many discripancies. /(d) No error.
2. (a) The teacher asked / (b) the students whether they could/ (c) tell the name of the man who had been invented steam engine. / (d) No error.
3. (a) He held a bomb / (b) in his hand which was totally hiding / (c) in the long cloak that he was wearing. / (d) No error.
4. (a) I was surprise / (b) at his brazenness/ (c) as he was considerd an obedient student / (d) No error.
5. (a) Had the police not/ (b) reached here / (c) on time, the traders would have robbed . / (d) No error.
6. (a)He seriously wounded / (b) during the cross fire and / (c) was rushed to hospital / (d) No error.
7. (a) Police Officers sent / (b) to the theatre and every nook and corner /(c) was throughly checked. /(d) No error.
8. (a) When the minister was shot dead,/ (b) people were run here and there / (c) to save themselves. /(d) No error.
9. (a) Mother's milk / (b) cannot substituted by / (c) any thing else./(d) No error.
10. (a) When the thief broke into their house / (b) they raised a hue and cry / (c) and the thief caught immediately by the people. / (d) No error
11. (a)The city / (b) was tore / (c) by riots./(d) No error.
12. (a) It was suggested / (b) by him that the baby / (c) should be immediately taken care. / (d) No error.
13. (a) The truck driver was accused / (b) the lady for walking / (c) in the middle of the road./(d) No error.
14. (a) Some passengers / (b) were flew/ (c) to Paris on the last trip./(d) No error.
15. (a) By the time he arrived, / (b) everybody had / (c) been gone./(d) No error.
16. (a) I am extremely annoyed / (b) by/ (c) the mismanagement./(d) No error.
17. (a) The mall was / (b) engulfed/ (c) by the fire/ (d) No error.
18. (a) It believed earlier / (b) that the sun/ (c) revolved round the earth./(d) No error.
19. (a) As she was wearing / (b) skimpy clothes/ (c) she was stared./(d) No error.

20. (a) You behave in such / (b) a weird manner that / (c) everybody disgusted with you./ (d) No error.
21. (a) Ten mangoes / (b) are contained / (c) by this box./(d) No error.
22. (a) A gang of robbers were arrested/ (b) by the police / (c) last night near the island./ (d) No error.
23. (a) The streets of Rome / (b) were thronged/ (c) by the common people./(d) No error.
24. (a) Everyone says that/ (b) he born / (c) of poor parents./(d) No error.
25. (a)The ship sank / (b) and everyone / (c) aboard drowned./(d) No error.
26. (a) If motorists do not observe the traffic regulations, (b) they will be stopped, ticketed / (c) and have to pay a fine. / (d) No error
27. (a) There will be no more supplies/ (b) unless all arrears of payment / (c) were cleared by next Monday. / (d) No error
28. (a) The news of his father's death / (b) was not declared / (c) so far. / (d) No error

Answers with Explanation

1. (c) 'were' हटा दें। वाक्य 'Past Indefinite' के Active Voice में है। अत: V_2 का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'were + V_3' का।
2. (c) 'been' हटा है। वाक्य Active Voice में है। अत: 'had + V_3' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'had + been + V_3' जिसका प्रयोग Past Perfect Tense के Passive Voice में होता है।
3. (b) 'hiding' को 'hidden' में परिवर्तित करें। 'which was totally hiding' का अर्थ होगा जो सम्पूर्ण रूप से छिप रहा था। 'which was totally hidden' का अर्थ है जो 'सम्पूर्ण रूप से छिपा हुआ था'।
4. (a) 'Surprise' को 'surprised' में परिवर्तित करें Passive Voice में Main Verb हमेशा V_3 form में होना चाहिए।
5. (c) 'would have' के बाद 'been' का प्रयोग करें। 'traders would have robbed' का अर्थ है 'traders' ने लूट किया होता। वाक्य को अर्थपूर्ण बनाने के लिए 'traders would have been robbed' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ होगा 'traders' लूट लिए गये होते।
6. (a) 'He was seriously wounded' का प्रयोग करें 'He wounded' का अर्थ होगा। 'उसने घायल कर दिया। 'He was wounded' का अर्थ होगा 'वह घायल हो गया।'
7. (a) 'sent' के पहले 'were' का प्रयोग करें।
8. (b) 'were run' को 'ran' में परिवर्तित करें।
9. (b) Cannot के बाद 'be' का प्रयोग करें। Passive Voice में 'Cannot + be + V_3' का प्रयोग होगा।
10. (c) 'thief was caught' का प्रयोग करें। 'thief caught का अर्थ निकलेगा 'चोर ने पकड़ लिया' जबकि होना चाहिए 'चोर पकड़ा गया'।
11. (b) 'was' के साथ 'V_3' का प्रयोग होगा अगर वाक्य। passive voice में है तो। अत: torn (tear का V_3 form) का प्रयोग करें।
12. (c) 'Care' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग करें। Passive Voice में 'Preposition' का ध्यान रखें।
13. (a) यहाँ 'truck driver' subject है। अत: 'was' हटा दें। वाक्य passive voice में नहीं है।
14. (b) 'were' के बाद 'V_3' का प्रयोग करें। 'fly' का V_3 form 'flown' होता है।
15. (c) 'been' हटा दें।
16. (b) 'by' को 'at' में परिवर्तित करें। 'annoyed' के साथ 'at' का प्रयोग होता है अगर 'something' का उल्लेख हो। Eg- 'annoyed at the mismanagement.' अगर 'someone' का प्रयोग हो तो 'annoyed' के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होगा। 'Eg- annoyed with you'.

17. (c) 'by' के स्थान पर 'in' का प्रयोग होगा। Indirect Speech में 'Simple Present', 'Simple Past' में परिवर्तित हो जाता है।
18. (a) 'It was believed' का प्रयोग करें 'Engulfed' के साथ 'in' का प्रयोग होता है।
19. (c) 'Stared' के बाद preposition 'at' का प्रयोग करें।
20. (c) 'everybody is disgusted' का प्रयोग सही होगा।
21. (c) 'by' के स्थान पर 'in' का प्रयोग करें। Contained के साथ 'in' का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।
22. (a) 'Gang' Collective noun है। अत: 'were' के स्थान पर 'was' का प्रयोग होगा।
23. (c) 'Thronged' के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'by' का। 'By' के स्थान पर 'with' का प्रयोग करें।
24. (b) 'he was born' का प्रयोग करें।
25. (c) 'drowned' के पहले 'was' का प्रयोग करें।
26. (c) 'and will have to' सही formation है। 'and' के बाद sentence formation 'active voice' में परिवर्तित हो जा रहा है। अत: 'and' से पहले आने वाला helping verb 'will' का प्रयोग 'and' के बाद के भाग के लिए नहीं है।
27. (c) 'Were' के स्थान पर 'are' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य 'future conditional' का है। अगर दो कार्य भविष्य में एक के बाद एक हो और दूसरे कार्य का होना पहले कार्य के होने पर निर्भर करें तो पहला कार्य simple present में होगा (arreas of payment are cleared) और दूसरा कार्य simple future tense (there will be no more supplies)में होगा।
28. (b) 'Was not declared' के स्थान पर 'has not been declared का प्रयोग करें। 'So far' का प्रयोग सामान्यत: 'Present Perfect' में होता है।

4 NARRATION

CHAPTER

Narration के अंतर्गत हम Direct एवं Indirect Speech पढ़ते है।

DIRECT SPEECH

➢ जब कोई व्यक्ति किसी वक्ता के कहे हुए कथन को **बिना किसी परिवर्तन** के अभिव्यक्त कर दें तो वह **Direct Speech** कहलाता है।

जैसे: Ram $\underbrace{\text{says}}_{\text{Reporting Verb}}$, " $\underbrace{\text{I work hard}}_{\text{Reported Speech}}$."

INDIRECT SPEECH

➢ जब कोई व्यक्ति किसी वक्ता के **कथन को अपने शब्दों में कुछ जरूरी परिवर्तन** कर प्रस्तुत करें तो वह **Indirect Speech** कहलाता है।

जैसे: Ram says that he works hard.

ASSERTIVE SENTENCES (कथनात्मक वाक्य)

(1) He says, "I work hard." (Direct Speech)
He says that he works hard. (Indirect speech)

ASSERTIVE SENTENCES को DIRECT ls INDIRECT SPEECH esa ifjorZu djus ds fu;e

(1) **Comma** एवं **inverted commas** को हटाऐं और **Conjunction 'that'** का प्रयोग करें।

(2) **Pronoun** नीचे दिए गए **नियमानुसार परिवर्तित** करें।

S	O	N
1	2	3

यानि

Sub	Obj	No
1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person
I, we	you	he, she, it, they

जैसे: **1.** He says, " **I** work hard"
sub. *1st Person*
according to *changes to*
He says that **he** works hard.

2. He says to me, " **You** work hard."

sub. *obj* *2nd Person*

according to *changes to*

He tells me that **I** work hard

3. He says to me, "**She** works hard."

3rd Person

no change

He tells me that **she** works hard.

(3) **Say/said** को **indirect speech** में **यथावत रहने दें**। लेकिन **'say to'** को **'tell'** बना दे और **'said to'** को **'told'**

जैसे: He says to me, "you work hard".
He tells me that I work hard.

नोट:- 1. **tell** और **told** के बाद **to** का **प्रयोग नहीं** किया जाता है।
2. **tell** और **told** के बाद **obj का प्रयोग करना जरूरी** होता है। इसी प्रकार **ordered, requested, forbade इत्यादि के बाद भी एक object का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।**

(4) अगर **Reporting verb present** अथवा **future tense** में हो, तो **reported speech** के **tense** में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होगा।

जैसे: He says, "I come here ".
He says that he comes here.

(5) अगर **Reporting verb past** में हों लेकिन **reported speech universal truth / Idiom / Phrase/ habitual action** अथवा **historical fact** हो तो **reported speech** के **tense** में **कोई परिवर्तन नहीं** किया जाता है।

जैसे: He said, "The Sun is a star"
He said that the Sun is a star

(6) अगर **Reporting verb past में हो** और **Reported speech idiom / phrase** इत्यादि **नहीं** हो तो **Reported Speech** में निम्नलिखित परिवर्तन किये जाते हैं।

जैसे: He said, "I came here yesterday".
He said that he had come there the previous day.

(1) CHANGE IN TENSE

- **Simple present** (V_1/ do/ does) → **Simple past** (V_2/ did) → **Past perfect** (had+ V_3) → **No change**
- **Present continuous** (is/ am/ are) → **Past continuous** (was/ were) → **Past perfect continuous** (had been) → **No change**
- **Present perfect / present perfect continuous** (has/ have) → **Past perfect / past perfect continuous** (had) → **No change**

(2) CHANGE OF MODALS

shall/will* → *should / would
may* → *might
can* → *could

(3) CHANGE IN TIME AND PLACE

today → that day, tomorrow → the next day, yesterday → the previous day/ the day before, tonight → that night, Last → the previous, here → there, this → that, these → those, ago → before, now → then.

Examples

1. She said, "I cannot help you at this time."
   She said that she couldn't help me at that time.
2. He said to me, "I shall come to meet you tomorrow."
   He told me that he would come to meet me the next day.
3. Ram said, "I haven't taken any exam this year but I intend to take two exams the next year"
   Ram said that he hadn't taken any exam that year but he intended to take two exams the next year.
4. He said, "Virtue is its own reward"
   He said that virtue is its own reward (वाक्य phrase है)
5. Our teacher said, "We have to finish this work today as we know that tomorrow never comes."
   Our teacher said that we had to finish that work that day as we know that tomorrow never comes.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES (iz'ukRed okD;)

Questions

He said to me, "Are you coming?" (जवाब हाँ या ना में हो सकता है।)	He said to me, "when are you coming?" (सवाल wh family का है।)
He asked me whether I was coming.	He asked me when I was coming.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES dks DIRECT ls INDIRECT SPEECH esa ifjorZu djus ds fu;e

(1) **'Said to'** को **asked, questioned, enquired, interrogated** इत्यादि में परिवर्तित करें।

(2) **Question mark (?)** को **full stop (.)** में परिवर्तित करें।

(3) वाक्य का **formation interrogative नहीं** होगा । यानि **helping verb** का प्रयोग **subject के बाद** होगा।

(4) **Tense, pronoun** इत्यादि में **परिवर्तन नियमानुसार** होंगे।

(5) अगर **सवाल का जवाब 'हाँ' या 'ना'** में दिया जा सकता है तो **conjunction 'if' या 'whether'** का प्रयोग करें। **'wh family'** के सवाल में **कोई conjunction का प्रयोग नहीं** होगा।

Examples-

1. He said to me, "Do you know me?"
   He asked me if I knew him.
2. She said to him, "What are you doing now?"
   She asked him what he was doing then.
3. He said to him, "Did you intend to come with me?"
   He asked him if he had intended to come with him.
4. He said to her, "Haven't you seen this movie?"
   He asked her if she hadn't seen that movie.
5. He said to her, "Madam, can I help you?"
   She said, "no"
   He asked her respectfully if he could help her.
   She answered in the negative.
6. He said to me, "When will the train arrive?"
   He enquired of me when the train would arrive

Explanation to sentence 5:

5. अगर **Direct Speech में Sir/Madam / Your Honour** जैसे **सम्मानसूचक शब्दों** का प्रयोग हो तो **Indirect Speech** में इन्हें हटा दें और '**respectfully**' शब्द का प्रयोग करें।

➢ लेकिन अगर **Dear / Darling / My beloved** जैसे **प्रेमसूचक शब्दों** का प्रयोग हो तो उन्हें हटाकर '**lovingly**' या '**affectionately**' शब्द का प्रयोग करें।

➢ अगर जवाब '**yes**' हो तो '**answered in the affirmative**' का प्रयोग करें और अगर जवाब '**No**' है तो '**answered in the Negative**' का प्रयोग करें।

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES (vkKklwpd okD;)

He said to me, "Go away."
He ordered me to go away.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES dks DIRECT ls INDIRECT SPEECH esa ifjorZu djus ds fu;e

1. '**Said to**' को जरूरत के अनुसार **ordered / requested/ forbade / suggested** इत्यादि में परिवर्तित करें।
2. Conjunction '**to**' का प्रयोग करें।
3. '**To**' के बाद $\mathbf{V_1}$ आता है।
4. **Tense, pronoun** इत्यादि में **परिवर्तन नियमानुसार** होंगे।

Examples-

1. She said to me, "Do not come here"
   She forbade me to come there.
   or
   She ordered me not to come there.
2. He said, "call the first witness now."
   He ordered them to call the first witness then.
3. She said, "Spread the clothes in the sunlight and do not wash anything else."
   She ordered him to spread the clothes in the sunlight and not to wash anything else.
4. The captain said to the soldiers, "Stand at ease."
   The captain commanded the soldiers to stand at ease.
5. My mother said to me, "Help others but do not expect anything in return."
   My mother advised me to help others but not to expect anything in return."

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES (foLe;kfncks/d okD;)

She said, "Alas! I am undone."
She exclaimed with sorrow that she was undone.

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES dks DIRECT ls INDIRECT SPEECH esa ifjorZu djus ds fu;e

1. **(a) Said + Alas !** $\xrightarrow{\text{changes to}}$ **exclaimed with sorrow.**

   Said + Hurray ! $\xrightarrow{\text{changes to}}$ **exclaimed with joy**

   Said + Fi ! / Ugh ! $\xrightarrow{\text{changes to}}$ **exclaimed with despise/disgust.**

   Said + Wow ! $\xrightarrow{\text{changes to}}$ **exclaimed with joy.**

   Said + Oh ! $\xrightarrow{\text{changes to}}$ **exclaimed with surprise / regret.**

2. Conjunction '**that**' का प्रयोग करें
3. **Tense, pronoun** इत्यादि में **परिवर्तन नियमानुसार** होंगे।

Examples:

1. She said, "Hurray ! we have won this match."
   She exclaimed with joy that they had won that match.
2. She said, "How beautiful is the rain!"
   She exclaimed with joy that the rain was very beautiful.
3. He said,"Bravo ! you have done well."
   He applauded him saying that he had done well
4. She said, "What a pleasant surprise!"
   She exclaimed that it was a pleasant surprise.

OPTATIVE SENTENCES (bPNklwpd okD;)

He said, "May God bless you."
He prayed that God might bless me.

OPTATIVE SENTENCES dks DIRECT ls INDIRECT SPEECH esa ifjofrZr djus ds fu;e

1. '**Said**' को '**wished**' अथवा '**prayed**' में परिवर्तित करें।
2. **Conjunction** '**that**' का प्रयोग करें।
3. **Tense, pronoun** इत्यादि में नियमानुसार परिवर्तन करें।

Examples:

1. She said, "May, God pardon him."
   She prayed that God might pardon him.
2. They said, "long live the king."
   They prayed that the king might live long.

<u>कुछ अन्य महत्वपूर्ण बिन्दु:</u>

1. **Need not, used to, would rather, would better, had rather, had better** में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होता है।

जैसे: He said, "I used to go to school by bus."
He said that he used to go to school by bus.

2. **अगर past continuous का प्रयोग time clause में हो तो tense में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होगा।**

जैसे: He said to me, "While I was studying, you were playing."
He told me that while he was studying, I was playing.

3. **अगर past indefinite tense का प्रयोग time clause में हो तो tense में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होगा।**

जैसे: He said, "When I met him, he was playing."
He said that when he met him, he was playing.

4. **जब past indefinite का प्रयोग दो simultaneous actions में हो तो tense में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होगा।**

जैसे: She said, "I prepared the tea and he fried the chips."
She said that she prepared the tea and he fried the chips.

5. **जब past indefinite का प्रयोग historical (ऐतिहासिक) घटना के लिए हो तो tense में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होगा।**

जैसे: He said, "Gandhiji started the Quit India Movement."
He said that Gandhiji started the Quit India movement.

6. **Will/ shall का परिवर्तन would/ should में होता है पर will/ shall का परिवर्तन 'should' में होगा अगर वाक्य सलाह सम्बन्धित हो।**

जैसे:
1. He said, "I shall come tomorrow."
   He said that he would come the next day.
2. She said to me, "What shall I do after the exam?"
   She asked me what she should do after the exam.

7. **वाक्य के अर्थ को देखते हुए कई बार modals में परिवर्तन किए जाते है।**

जैसे:
1. She said, "If I get selected, I need not take any exam further."
   She said that if she got selected, she would not have to take any exam further.
2. He said, "Need I send an e-mail?'
   He asked me if he had to send an e-mail.
3. He said, "When I was a kid, I could not go out alone," (यहाँ 'could' का प्रयोग अनुमति के लिए हुआ है।)
   He said that when he was a kid, he was not allowed to go out alone.
4. She said, "Rohit, you must be prudent." (यहाँ 'must' का प्रयोग आदेश के लिए हुआ है।)
   She ordered Rohit to be prudent.

PRACTICE SET

Directions: A sentence has been given in direct/Indirect form. Out of the four alternatives suggested, select the one which best expresses the same sentence in Indirect/Direct form.

1. **"Call the first witness", said the Judge.**
   (a) The judge commanded to call the first witness.
   (b) The judge commanded them to call the first witness.
   (c) The judge commanded that the first witness be called.
   (d) The judge commanded the first witness to be called.
2. **The queen said to her son, "You must go to the forest and remain there till your father calls you back."**
   (a) The queen ordered her son to go to the forest and remain there till his father calls him back.
   (b) The queen told her son that he must go to the forest and remain there till his father called him back.
   (c) The queen told his son that you must go to the forest and remain there till your father called you back.
   (d) The queen told her son to go to the forest and remained there till his father called him back.
3. **I said to her, "All your faults will be pardoned if you confess them."**
   (a) I told her that all her faults will be pardoned if you confess them.
   (b) I told her that all her faults would be pardoned if she confessed them.
   (c) I told her that all her faults will have to be pardoned if she confessed them.
   (d) I told her that all her faults would have to be pardoned if she confessed them.
4. **He said to Sita, "When do you intend to pay back the money you borrowed from me?"**
   (a) He enquired Sita when did she intend to pay back the money she borrowed from him.
   (b) He enquired Sita when she intended to pay back the money she borrowed from him.
   (c) He enquired Sita when she intended to pay back the money she had borrowed from him.
   (d) He enquired when Sita intended to pay back the money she borrowed from him.
5. **"Let's give a party", said Jaya.**
   "Let's not", said her husband.
   (a) Jaya suggested giving a party but her husband answered in the negative.
   (b) Jaya suggested giving a party but her husband opposed the idea.
   (c) Jaya suggested giving a party but her husband contradicted her.
   (d) Jaya suggested giving a party but her husband refused.
6. **The old man of Latur said, "Alas! my only son is dead."**
   (a) The old man of Latur exclaimed with sorrow that his only son was dead.
   (b) The old man of Latur told with pain that his only son was dead.

(c) The old man of Lature expressed with anguish that his only son was dead.
(d) The old man of Latur sorrowfully narrated that his only son was dead.

7. She said to the girl, "Did you do this ?"
(a) She asked the girl that she did that.
(b) She asked the girl if she did that.
(c) She asked the girl if she had done that.
(d) She told the girl that she had done that.

8. "Many happy returns of your birthday", we said.
(a) We greeted him on his birthday.
(b) We said that many happy returns of your birthday.
(c) We wished him many happy returns of his birthday.
(d) We prayed for many happy returns of his birthday.

9. "Doctor", the patient cried, "please tell me how much time I have."
(a) The patient pleaded the doctor how much time he will have.
(b) The patient exclaimed to the doctor that how much time he had.
(c) The patient pleaded with the doctor to tell him how much time he had.
(d) The patient cried to the doctor that how much time had he.

10. "So help me Heaven!" he cried, "I never steal again."
(a) He wanted Heaven to help him so that he would never steal again.
(b) She exclaimed to heaven that he would never steal again.
(c) He exclaimed heaven to help him that he would never steal again.
(d) He called upon heaven to witness his resolve never to steal again.

11. She said, "I'll give you Rs. 100/- to keep your mouth shut."
(a) She said that she would give him Rs. 100/- to keep his mouth shut.
(b) She offered him Rs. 100/- to keep his mouth shut.
(c) She suggested to him that she would give him Rs. 100/- to keep his mouth shut.
(d) She proposed that she would give him Rs. 100/- to keep his mouth shut.

12. From one of the windows of my flat I can see the Qutub Minar', said my friend.
(a) My friend told that from one of the windows of his flat he could see the Qutub Minar.
(b) My friend said that from one of the windows of his flat he can see the Qutub Minar.
(c) My friend said that from one of the windows of his flat he could see the Qutub Minar.
(d) My friend told that from one of the windows of his flat he can see the Qutub Minar.

13. The teacher said to the student, "Why were you absent yesterday?"
(a) The teacher asked the student why had been he absent the previous day.
(b) The teacher asked the student why had he been absent the previous day.
(c) The teacher informed the student that why he had been absent the next day.
(d) The teacher asked the student why he had been absent the previous day.

14. The teacher said to Ashok, "I shall report the matter to the Principal if you misbehave again."

(a) The teacher told Ashok that he would be reporting the matter to the Principal if he misbehaved again.
(b) The teacher warned Ashok that he would report the matter to the Principal if he misbehaved again.
(c) The teacher threatened Ashok to report the matter to the Principal if he misbehave again.
(d) The teacher cautioned Ashok about reporting the matter to the Principal if he misbehaved again.

15. "Fi! A soldier and afraid of fighting!" said Babar.

(a) Babar exclaimed with surprise that a soldier should be afraid of fighting.
(b) Addressing a soldier, Babar cursed him that he should be afraid of fighting.
(c) Babar cursed the soldier who was afraid of fighting.
(d) Babar cursed and exclaimed that a soldier should not be afraid of fighting.

16. The teacher said to Ram, "Would you like to go on a trip to Kashmir?" Ram said, "Yes."

(a) The teacher asked if Ram would like to go on a trip to Kashmir and Ram replied yes.
(b) The teacher asked Ram if he would like to go on a trip to Kashmir and Ram replied yes.
(c) The teacher asked Ram if he would have like to go on a trip to Kashmir and Ram replied in the affirmative.
(d) The teacher asked Ram if he would like to go on a trip to Kashmir and Ram replied in the affirmative.

17. Everybody said, "How well she sings!"

(a) Everybody told us that she sings very well.
(b) Everybody exclaimed that she sings very well.
(c) Everybody exclaimed that she sang very well.
(d) Everybody told us that how she sang very well.

18. "Suppose your children go out for a nice long walk", she said.

(a) She proposed that his children went out for a nice long walk.
(b) She advised that his children go out for a nice long walk .
(c) She suggested that his children go out for a nice long walk.
(d) She suggested that his children should go out for a nice long walk.

19. I said, "When it gets dark, light the lantern and hang it out."

(a) I said that when it got dark he light the lantern and hung it out.
(b) I requested that when it got dark he may light the lantern and hang it out.
(c) I said that when it got dark he should light the lantern and hung it out.
(d) I said that when it got dark he should light the lantern and hang it out.

20. "Do as you wish, but don't come and ask me for help if you get into difficulties.", He said to me

(a) He told me to do as he wished or he wouldn't come and help me if I got into difficulties.
(b) He told me to do as I wished, but not to come and ask him for help if I got into difficulties.
(c) He ordered me to do as I wished, but not to come and ask him for help if I got into difficulties.
(d) He told me that unless I did as I wished he would not come and help me if I got into difficulties.

21. "May you live long and prosper", said the old lady to her son.
(a) The old lady blessed her son with long life and wished him prosperity.
(b) The old lady prayed for her son's long life and prosperity.
(c) The old lady prayed for her son and said that he might live long and prosper.
(d) The old lady blessed her son and prayed for his long life and prosperity.

22. Socrates said, "Virtue is its own reward."
(a) Socrates said that virtue had its own rewards.
(b) Socrates says that virtue is its own reward.
(c) Socrates said that virtue is its own reward.
(d) Socrates said that virtue was its own reward.

23. He said to the interviewer, "Could you please repeat the question?"
(a) He requested the interviewer if he could please repeat the question.
(b) He requested the interviewer to please repeat the question.
(c) He requested the interviewer to repeat the question.
(d) He requested the interviewer if he could repeat the question.

24. He said, "It used to be a lovely, quiet street."
(a) He said that it used to be a lovely, quiet street.
(b) He pointed out that it had used to be a lovely, quiet street.
(c) He said that there used to be a lovely, quiet street.
(d) He inquired whether there was a lovely, quiet street.

25. The Prime Minister said that no one would be allowed to disturb the peace.
(a) The Prime Minister said, "We shall not allow any one to disturb the peace."
(b) The Prime Minister said, "We would not allow any one to disturb the peace."
(c) The Prime Minister said, "No one will disturb the peace."
(d) The Prime Minister said, "No one can disturb the peace."

26. The spectators said, "Bravo ! Well done, players."
(a) The spectators shouted that the players were doing very well.
(b) The spectators exclaimed with joy that the players were doing very well.
(c) The spectators applauded the players saying that they had done well.
(d) The spectators applauded the players joyfully to do well.

27. I said to my friend, "Good Morning.Let us go for a picnic today."
(a) I told good morning to my friend and asked to go for a picnic that day.
(b) I wished my friend good morning and proposed that we should go for a picnic that day.
(c) I wished my friend good morning and proposed that they should go for a picnic

that day.

(d) I told good morning to my friend and suggested to go for a picnic today.

28. The new student asked the old one, "Do you know my name?"

(a) The new student asked the old one if he knew his name.

(b) The new student asked the old one that whether he knew his names.

(c) The new student asked the old one did he know his name.

(d) The new student asked the old one if he knows his name.

29. I warned her that I could no longer tolerate her coming late.

(a) I said to her, "You can no longer tolerate my coming late."

(b) I said to her, "I can no longer tolerate your coming late."

(c) I said to her, "He can no longer tolerate her coming late".

(d) I said to her, "I can no longer tolerate she coming late."

30. I said to my mother, "I will certainly take you to Bangalore this week."

(a) I told my mother he would certainly take her to Bangalore that week.

(b) I told my mother that I would certainly take her to Bangalore that week.

(c) I told my mother that she would certainly take her to Bangalore that week.

(d) I told to my mother that I would take you to Bangalore that week.

31. "How clever of you to have solved the puzzle so quickly!" said the mother.

(a) The mother exclaimed admiringly that it was very clever of him to have solved the puzzle so quickly.

(b) The mother expressed that he was so clever to have solved the puzzle quickly.

(c) The mother told that he was very clever in solving the puzzle so quickly.

(d) The mother exclaimed with joy that he was clever enough to solve the puzzle so quickly.

32. He said that he went for a walk every morning.

(a) He said, "I went for a walk every morning".

(b) He said, "I go for a walk every morning".

(c) He said, "I will go for a walk morning".

(d) He said, "he went for a walk every morning".

33. I reiterated, "I don't care about the job".

(a) I reiterated I didn't care about the job.

(b) I said again and again I didn't care about the job.

(c) I reiterated that I did not care about the job.

(d) I repeatedly said that I cared about the job.

34. I said to my brother, "Let us go to some hill station for a change."

(a) I suggested to my brother that they should go to some hill station for a change.

(b) I suggested to my brother that we should go to some hill station for a change.

(c) I suggested to my brother that let us go to some hill station for a change.

(d) I suggested to my brother that let them go to some hill station for a change.

35. I wondered how many discoveries went unheeded.

(a) I said, "How many discoveries have gone unheeded?"

(b) I said, "How many discoveries went unheeded?"
(c) I said, "Do discoveries go unheeded?"
(d) I said, "How many discoveries go unheeded?"

36. Gopan said to me, "Can you do these sums for me?"
(a) Gopan asked me if I could do those sums for him.
(b) Gopan asked me if I can do those sums for him.
(c) Gopan asked me if I can do those sums for him.
(d) Gopan asked if I could do these sums for him.

37. The boss said, "It's time we began planning our work".
(a) The boss said that it was time they had begun planning their work.
(b) The boss said that it was time we had began planning our work.
(c) The boss said that it was time they began planning their work.
(d) The boss said that it was time we began planning his work.

38. He said to the judge, "I did not commit this crime."
(a) He told the judge that he did not commit the crime.
(b) The told the judge that he had not committed the crime.
(c) He told the judge that he had not committed that crime.
(d) He told the judge that he had not committed this crime.

39. Rahul said, "I will do it now or never".
(a) Rahul said that he will do it now or never.
(b) Rahul said that he will now or never do it.
(c) Rahul said that he would do it then or never.
(d) Rahul said that he would now or never do it.

40. My father once said to me, "If I can't trust my people, then I don't want to be doing this."
(a) His father once told him that if he couldn't trust his people then he didn't want to be doing that.
(b) My father once told me that if he couldn't trust his people then he didn't want to be doing that.
(c) My father once told me that if he couldn't trust my people then he didn't want to be doing that.
(d) My father once told me that if he couldn't trust his people then he didn't want to be doing this.

41. Doshi said to his wife, "Please select one of these necklaces."
(a) Doshi requested his wife to select one of these necklaces.
(b) Doshi said to his wife to please select one of these necklaces.
(c) Doshi told his wife to please select one of these necklaces.
(d) Doshi requested his wife to select one of those necklaces.

42. He wrote in his report, "The rainfall has been scanty till now."
(a) He reported that the rainfall has been scanty till now.

(b) He reported that the rainfall had been scanty till now.
(c) He reported that the rainfall has been scantly till then.
(d) He reported that the rainfall had been scanty till then.

43. "Govind," said the manager sternly, "I command you to tell me what the old man said."
(a) The manager sternly commanded Govind to tell him what the old man had said.
(b) The manager commanded sternly to Govind to tell him what the old man had to say.
(c) The manager commanded Govind to tell him what the old man said.
(d) The manager told Govind to tell him what the old man said.

44. He says, "I am going to the market now."
(a) He says that he is going to the market now.
(b) He said that he was going to the market then.
(c) He says that he was going to the market then.
(d) He said that he was going to the market now.

45. She said to Rita, "Please help me with my homework."
(a) She requested Rita to help her in her homework.
(b) Rita requested her to help her with her homework.
(c) She requested Rita to help her with her homework.
(d) She requested Rita to help her homework.

46. He said to me, "Do not run after money and then you will see money running after you."
(a) He told to me that I did not run after money and then I would see money running me.
(b) He advised me not to run after money and then I would see money running after me.
(c) He warned me not to run after money and then I will see money running after me.
(d) He warned me not to run after money and then money would run after me.

47. He said to me, "Do you know English?"
(a) He asked me if I did know English.
(b) He asked me if I knew English.
(c) he asked me that if I know English.
(d) He asked me if I know English.

48. My father said to me, "Bravo! You have done well."
(a) My father applauded me saying that I had done well.
(b) My father applauded me saying that I have done well.
(c) My father applauded me saying that I did well.
(d) My father applauded me saying that you had done well.

49. Tom said that he had had a strange experience the day before.
(a) Tom said, "I have a strange experience yesterday."

(b) Tom said, "I have had a strange experience yesterday."
(c) Tom said, "I had a strange experience yesterday."
(d) Tom said, "I had had a strange experience yesterday."

50. Our teacher said to us, "I am not going to tolerate your nonsense anymore."
(a) Our teacher warned us that she is not going to tolerate our nonsense anymore.
(b) Our teacher warned us that she was not going to tolerate our nonsense anymore.
(c) Our teacher told us that she was not going to be tolerate our nonsense anymore.
(d) Our teacher said that she was not going to tolerate our nonsense anymore

51. Sheela said, "I am going to finish this work now before I start a new work tomorrow."
(a) Sheela told me that she was going to finish that work then before she started a new work the next day.
(b) Sheela said that she was going to finish that work then before she started a new work the next day.
(c) Sheela said that she is going to finish that work then before she started a new work the next day.
(d) Sheela told that she was going to finish that work then before she started a new work the next day.

52. "Do you suppose you know better than your own father?" shouted her angry mother.
(a) Her angry mother shouted and asked that she supposed whether she knew better than her own father.
(b) Her angry mother shouted and asked that she supposed that she knew better than her own father.
(c) Her angry mother shouted whether she supposed that she known better than her own father.
(d) Her angry mother shouted and asked her whether she supposed that she knew better than her own father.

53. "So help me, Heaven !" he cried "I will never drive recklessly".
(a) He called upon Heaven to see his resolve never to drive recklessly.
(b) He called upon Heaven to witness his resolve never to drive recklessly.
(c) He called upon Heaven to witness his resolved never to drive recklessly.
(d) He ordered Heaven to witness his resolve never to drive recklessly.

54. The dwarf said to her, "Promise me that when you are a queen you will give me your first-born child."
(a) The draft advised her to promised that when she was a queen she would give him her first born child.
(b) The draft requested her to promise that when she had been a queen she would give him her first born child.
(c) The draft requested her to promise that when she is a queen she would give

him her first born child.

(d) The draft asked her to promise him that when she was a queen she would give him her first born child.

55. "Dear bird", she said, stroking its feathers, "have you come to comfort me in my sorrow?"

(a) Stroking the bird's feathers, she asked affectionately that she had come to comfort her in her sorrow.

(b) Stroking the bird's feathers, she asked affectionately whether it had come to comfort in her sorrow.

(c) Stroking the bird's feathers, she asked affectionately whether they had come to comfort her in her sorrow.

(d) Stroking the bird's feathers, she asked affectionately whether it had come to comfort her in her sorrow.

56. He said, "My God ! I am ruined."

(a) He exclaimed sadly that he was ruined.

(b) He exclaimed that he was ruined.

(c) He exclaimed sadly that he had been ruined.

(d) He exclaimed sadly that he ruined.

57. "Ah me!"exclaimed the man, "What a rash and bloody deed you have done!"

(a) The man exclaimed that he had done a very rash and bloody deed.

(b) The man exclaimed sadly that he had done a very rash and bloody deed.

(c) The man exclaimed with sorry that you had done a very rash and bloody deed.

(d) The man exclaimed with sorrow that they had done a very rash and bloody deed.

58. Bhishma said, "Boys! Boys! Remember you are playing a game. If it be Arjuna's turn let him have it."

(a) Bhishma asked the boys to remembered that they were playing a game. If it was Arjuna's turn he must have it.

(b) Bhishma asked the boys to remembered that they were playing a game. If it is Arjuna's turn he must have it.

(c) Bhishma asked the boys to remember that they were playing a game. If it was Arjuna's turn he must have it.

(d) Bhishma asked the boys to remember that we were playing a game. If it was Arjuna's turn he must have it.

59. "What are you doing, grandma?"said the little boy. "I'm planting saplings, my little prince." "Ah, how interesting! Let me try , if I can also do so."

(a) The little boy said to his grandma what she was doing. She replied affectionately that she was planting saplings. The boy exclaimed that it was very interesting and wanted to try if he could also do so.

(b) The little boy asked his grandma what she was doing. She replied affectionately

that she was planting saplings. The boy exclaimed that it was very interesting and wanted to try if he could also do so.

(c) The little boy asked his grandma that she was doing. She replied affectionately that she was planting saplings. The boy exclaimed that it was very interesting and wanted to try if he could also do so.

(d) The little boy asked his grandma what was she doing. She replied affectionately that she was planting saplings. The boy exclaimed that it was very interesting and wanted to try if he could also do so.

60. "You say," said the judge, "that the bag you lost contained one hundred and ten pounds". "Yes, your honour," replied the cheat. "Then as this one contains one hundred pounds it cannot be yours."

(a) The judge asked the cheat if the bag he had lost contained one hundred and ten pounds. The cheat replied respectfully in the affirmative. Then the judge concluded that as that one contained one hundred pounds it could not be his.

(b) The judge ordered the cheat if the bag he had lost contained one hundred and ten pounds. The cheat replied respectfully in the affirmative. Then the judge concluded that as that one contained one hundred pounds it could not be his.

(c) The judge ordered the cheat that the bag he had lost contained one hundred and ten pounds. The cheat replied respectfully in the affirmative. Then the judge concluded that as that one contained one hundred pounds it could not be his.

(d) The judge asked the cheat that the bag he had lost contained one hundred and ten pounds. The cheat replied in the affirmative. Then the judge concluded as this one contained one hundred pounds it could not be his.

61. The child said, 'Mommy, can you bring the moon for me?' Mommy said, 'No.'

(a) The child asked his mommy if she could bring the moon for him. Mommy replied in the negative.

(b) The child told his mommy if she could bring the moon for him. Mommy replied in the negative.

(c) The child asked his mommy if she could bring the moon for him. Mommy replied no.

(d) The child said to his mommy that she could bring the moon for him. Mommy replied in the negative.

62. He said, "Fi!" and vomited

(a) He exclaimed with disgust and had vomited

(b) He exclaimed with disgust and vomited

(c) He exclaimed with sorrow and vomited

(d) He exclaimed with disgust and then had vomited

63. The captain said to the soldiers, " Stand at ease."

(a) The captain commanded the soldiers to stand at ease.
(b) The captain said the soldiers to stand at ease.
(c) The captain told the soldiers to stand at ease.
(d) The captain commanded the soldiers that they stand at ease.

64. "I can show no mercy," said the king, "except permitting you to choose what kind of death you wish to die."

(a) The king asked that he could show no mercy except permitting him to choose what kind of death he wished to die.
(b) The king advised that he could show no mercy except permitting him to choose what kind of death he wished to die.
(c) The king ordered that he could show no mercy except permitting him to choose what kind of death he wished to die.
(d) The king said that he could show no mercy except permitting him to choose what kind of death he wished to die.

65. Kausalya said to Rama, " Do not desire, O my child, to possess the stars, because they are thousands of miles off."

(a) Kaushalya forbade her child Rama to desire to possess the stars because they were thousands of miles off.
(b) Kaushalya requested her child Rama to desire to possess the stars because they were thousands of miles off.
(c) Kaushalya ordered her child Rama to not desire to possess the stars because they were thousands of miles off.
(d) Kaushalya said to her child Rama not to desire to possess the stars because they were thousands of miles off.

66. "What a stupid fellow you are!" she remarked.

(a) She exclaimed that what a stupid fellow he was.
(b) She exclaimed that he was a very stupid fellow.
(c) She exclaimed in disgust how he could be so stupid.
(d) She asked him what a stupid fellow he was

67. The police said to the thief, "Don't move."

(a) The police ordered the thief not to move.
(b) The police ordered the thief that he should not move.
(c) The police told the thief that he did not move.
(d) The police ordered to the thief to not move.

68. He said, "I am going to college just now."

(a) He said that he was going to college just now.
(b) He asked that he was going to college just then.
(c) He said that he was going to college just then.
(d) He asked that he was going to college just now.

69. The teacher said to the student "Can you explain this?"

(a) The teacher asked the student whether he can explain this.
(b) The teacher asked the student whether he can explain that.
(c) The teacher asked the student whether he could explain this.
(d) The teacher asked the student whether he could explain that.

70. Ramu said, "My master is planning to build a huge house in Khandala."

(a) Ramu said that his master planned to build a huge house in Khandala.
(b) Ramu said that his master is planning to build a huge house in Khandala.
(c) Ramu said that his master's plan is to build a huge house in Khandala.
(d) Ramu said that his master was planning to build a huge house in Khandala.

71. Nandita said to Nitin, "Can you solve this sum?"

(a) Nandita asked Nitin if could he solve this sum.
(b) Nandita asked Nitin if could he solve that sum.
(c) Nandita asked Nitin if he could solve this sum.
(d) Nandita asked Nitin if he could solve that sum.

72. He said, "How lovely the scene is!"

(a) He exclaimed that the scene is very lovely.
(b) He exclaimed that how the scene was lovely.
(c) He exclaimed that the scene was very lovely.
(d) He exclaimed that the scene is indeed lovely.

73. Bill said, "I am here to help you all."

(a) Bill said that he is here to help you all.
(b) Bill said that he was there to help us all.
(c) Bill said that he was here to help us all.
(d) Bill said that he is there to help us all.

74. The kids yelled in a loud voice, "We love our family."

(a) The kids yelled loudly that they love our family.
(b) The kids yelled in a loud voice that they loved their family.
(c) The kids yelled in a loud voice that they loved our family.
(d) The kids were shouting loudly that they loved their family.

75. He said to me, "Please visit my company tomorrow".

(a) He said to me to visit his company tomorrow.
(b) He requested me to visit his company tomorrow.
(c) He requested me to visit his company the next day.
(d) He said to me to visit his company the next day.

76. He said, "My parents are arriving tomorrow".

(a) He said that his parents are arriving the next day.
(b) He said that his parents were arriving the next day.
(c) He said that his parents are arriving tomorrow.
(d) He said that his parents have arrived the next day.

77. He said, "How cruel of him!"

(a) He remarked that it was very cruel of him.
(b) He remarked on his great cruelty.
(c) He remark that it was very cruel of him.
(d) He remarked that it is very cruel of him.

78. "How did it get here?" She wanted to know.

(a) She wanted to know how did it get here.
(b) She wanted to know how it had got there.
(c) She wanted to know how did it got there.
(d) She wanted to know how it get there.

79. The author said, "It took me three years to finish the novel."

(a) The author said that it took him three years to finish the novel.
(b) The author said that it had taken me three years to finish the novel.
(c) The author said that it would take him three years to finish the novel
(d) The author said that it had taken him three years to finish the novel.

80. "Go away!" she said to the man, "do not trouble your family anymore".

(a) She asked the man to go away and not trouble the family any more.
(b) She asked the man not to trouble the family that was away, any more.
(c) She asked the man not to trouble your family any more and go away.
(d) She asked the man to go away and not to trouble his family any more.

81. He asked me, "Have you finished reading the magazine?"

(a) He asked me whether I had finished reading the magazine.
(b) He asked me if had I finished reading the magazine.
(c) He asked me if I have finished reading the magazine.
(d) He asked me whether I finished reading the magazine.

82. He said, "We have done our work."

(a) He said that he had done his work.
(b) He said that they have done their work.
(c) He said that they had done their work.
(d) He said that they should do their work.

83. "I'm sorry I'm unable to repay the loan in time," said the customer.

(a) The customer regrets that he was unable to repay the loan in time.
(b) The customer regretted that he is unable to repay the loan in time.
(c) The customer regretted that he was unable to repay the loan in time.
(d) The customer said that he could be unable to repay the loan in time.

84. "Please, take me to the officer," said the visitor.

(a) The visitor requested them to take him to the officer.
(b) The visitor told them to take him to the officer.
(c) The visitor requested for the officer to be taken.
(d) The visitor wanted the officer to take him there.

85. Nitin said, "What a pleasant atmosphere this place has!"

(a) Nitin exclaimed with joy that that place was a pleasant atmosphere.
(b) Nitin exclaimed with joy that was a pleasant atmosphere in that place.
(c) Nitin exclaimed with joy that that place had a pleasant atmosphere.
(d) Nitin exclaimed with joy that what a pleasant atmosphere that place had.

86. Aarti said, "I am in a hurry today."

(a) Aarti said that she was in a hurry that day.
(b) Aarti said that I am in a hurry today.
(c) Aarti said that she is in a hurry today.
(d) Aarti said that she is in a hurry that day.

87. They said, "We are practising for the next match."

(a) They said that they are practising for the next match.
(b) They said that they practised for the next match.
(c) They said that they were practising for the next match.
(d) They said they were going to practise for the next match.

88. He said, " May you live long."

(a) He suggested that my life might be long.
(b) He prayed that my life might be long.
(c) He prayed that my life may be longer.
(d) He declared that my life is longer.

89. "When did you meet my brother?" She asked me.

(a) She wanted to know when did I meet her brother.
(b) She asked when did I meet my brother.
(c) She asked me when I had met her brother.
(d) She wants to know when I had met my brother.

90. Ruby requested me to lend her Rs. 1000 the next day.

(a) Ruby said to me, "Please lend me Rs. 1000 the next day."
(b) Ruby said to me, "Please lend her Rs. 1000 the next day."
(c) Ruby said to me, "Please lend her Rs. 1000 tomorrow."
(d) Ruby said to me, "Please lend me Rs. 1000 tomorrow."

91. "You'd better leave the dog along," the man said.

(a) The man said to me to leave the dog alone.
(b) The man told me to better leave the dog alone.
(c) the man warned me to leave the dog alone.
(d) The man said I should leave the dog alone.

92. "I'd have enjoyed the journey more if the man next to me hadn't snored all the time," said John.

(a) John said that he enjoyed the journey but the man next to me snored.
(b) John said that he would have enjoyed the journey more if the man next to him hadn't snored all the time.

(c) John said that he would have enjoyed the journey if the next man hadn't snored all the time.
(d) John said that he would have enjoyed the journey if the man next to him did not snore.

93. A poet said, "The night is dark and I am far from home."
(a) A poet said that the night was dark and he was far from home.
(b) A poet told his friend that the night is dark and that he is far from home.
(c) The friend was told by the poet that the night was dark and he was far from home.
(d) A poet said that the night is dark and he is far from home.

94. The players reported that the spectators were cheering while they were playing.
(a) "The spectators have been cheering while we played.", said the players.
(b) "The spectators cheered while we were playing.", said the players.
(c) "The spectators were cheering while we were playing.", said the players.
(d) "The spectators played while we cheered.", said the players.

95. She requested the boys to listen to what she was saying.
(a) She said to the boys, "Please listen to what I am saying."
(b) I said to the boys, "Listen to what I am saying."
(c) She said, "Boys, listen to what I was saying."
(d) She said, "I requested you to listen to what I am saying."

96. "Do you want balloons ?" he said to the child.
(a) He asked the child if it wanted balloons.
(b) He asked the child whether it had wanted balloons.
(c) He asked the child did it want balloons.
(d) He asked the child if it would want balloons.

97. She said, "How ugly I look in this dress!"
(a) She said that how ugly she was looking in that dress.
(b) She exclaimed how ugly she looked in that dress.
(c) She expressed how ugly she looked in that dress.
(d) She exclaimed that she looked very ugly in that dress.

98. She said "You can leave the books here."
(a) She said that they can leave the books there.
(b) She said that they could leave the books there.
(c) She said that they can leave the books here.
(d) She said that they could leave the books here.

99. My friend said "I am leaving today."
(a) My friend said that he is leaving today.
(b) My friend said that he was leaving today.
(c) My friend said that he leaves today.
(d) My friend said that he was leaving that day.

100. Mukta said to Puneet, "My mother is a good cook."

(a) Mukta told Puneet that her mother was a good cook.
(b) Mukta told Puneet that my mother was a good cook.
(c) Mukta told to Puneet that her mother is a good cook.
(d) Mukta asked Puneet that her mother is a good cook.

101. The commander said to the army, "March forward".

(a) The commander asked the army march forward.
(b) The commander ordered the army to march forward.
(c) The commander requested the army to go forward.
(d) The army requested the commander to march.

102. He promised, "I will do it tomorrow."

(a) He promised that he will do it tomorrow.
(b) He promised that he will do it the next day.
(c) He promised that he would do it tomorrow.
(d) He promised that he would do it the next day.

103. Geeta said, "I did not do this deliberately."

(a) Geeta said that I had not done that deliberately.
(b) Geeta said that she had not done that deliberately.
(c) Geeta said that she has not done this deliberately.
(d) Geeta said that I have not done this deliberately.

104. She said, "I'm afraid we are rather late!"

(a) She exclaimed that they were frightened of being late.
(b) She exclaimed that she was afraid that they were rather late.
(c) She shouted that they were scared that they would be late.
(d) She screamed that she was worried that they would all be late.

105. She said to me, "What can I do for you ?"

(a) She asked me what she could do for me.
(b) She asked me what can she do for me.
(c) She asked me what she can do for me.
(d) She asked me whether she can do anything for me.

106. He said, 'Alas! I am undone !'

(a) He said that it was his undoing.
(b) He exclaimed pathetically that he was undone.
(c) He stated that he was undone.
(d) He cried that he was being undone.

107. "I shall unlock the secrets of their success," he said.

(a) He said that he shall unlock the secrets of their success.
(b) He said that he should unlock the secrets of their success.
(c) He said that he would unlock the secrets of their success.
(d) He said that he will unlock the secrets of their success.

108. "I wonder what he wants of us," said Quint.

(a) Quint said that he was wondering what he wanted of them.
(b) Quint said that he wondered what he wanted of us.
(c) Quint said he wondered what he wants of them.
(d) Quint said that he wondered what he wanted of them.

109. Dinesh said, "I want to eat a good mango one of these days."

(a) Dinesh said he wants to eat a good mango one of these days.
(b) Dinesh said that he wanted to eat a good mango one of those days.
(c) Dinesh said that he wants to eat a good mango one of those days.
(d) Dinesh said that he wanted to eat a good mango one of these days.

110. He said, "I intend to leave for Delhi tonight."

(a) He said that he will intend to leave for Delhi tonight.
(b) lie said that he should intend to leave for Delhi that night.
(c) He said that he intended to leave for Delhi that night.
(d) He said that his intention is to leave for Delhi tonight.

111. He said, "The Sun rises in the east."

(a) He said that the Sun rised in the east.
(b) He said that the Sun rises in the east.
(c) He said that the Sun will rise in the east.
(d) He said that the Sun may rise in the east.

112. Ram asked Krishna, "Where are you going today?"

(a) Ram asked Krishna where he was going that day.
(b) Ram asked Krishna as to where he was going on the previous day.
(c) Ram asked Krishna where was he going the next day.
(d) Ram asked Krishna where was he going the day before.

113. He said, "What a fool Tom is!"

(a) He exclaimed that he was a big fool.
(b) He exclaimed that Tom was a big fool.
(c) He wondered what kind of a fool Tom was.
(d) He claimed that Tom was a big fool.

114. "What kind of scheme do you have ?" Amif said to the insurance agent.

(a) Amit asked the insurance agent what kind of scheme he/she had.
(b) Amit asked the insurance agent what kind of scheme he/she has.
(c) Amit asked the insurance agent what kind of scheme he/she is having.
(d) Amit asked the insurance agent what kind of scheme he/she was having.

115. The doctor said to the patient, "Take complete rest."

(a) The doctor told to the patient that take complete rest.
(b) The doctor advised the patient to take complete rest.
(c) The doctor suggested the patient to take complete rest.
(d) The doctor asked the patient take complete rest.

116. Mini said to me, "I have bought this flat for my mother."

(a) Mini told that she had bought that flat for her mother.
(b) Mini said that she bought that flat for her mother.
(c) Mini said she has bought that flat for her mother.
(d) Mini told me that she had bought that flat for her mother.

117. He said, "I will come again."

(a) He said that he will come again.
(b) He says he is coming again.
(c) He says he'll come again.
(d) He said that he would come again.

118. "Don't do any more work until you have had a rest," her mother said to her.

(a) Her mother advised her not to do any more work until she has had a rest.
(b) Her mother advised her not to do any more work until she had had a rest.
(c) Her mother advised her that she not do any more work until she had had a rest.
(d) Her mother advised her that she need not do any more work until she had had a rest.

119. "Make me another suit like this," he said to the tailor.

(a) He asked the tailor to make him another suit like this.
(b) He asks the tailor to make him another suit like this.
(c) He told the tailor to make him another suit like that.
(d) He told the tailor to make me another suit like this.

120. My Principal told me, "Don't conduct any test tomorrow."

(a) My Principal told me not to conduct any test tomorrow.
(b) My Principal told me not to conduct any test tomorrow.
(c) My Principal ordered me don't conduct any test.
(d) My Principal ordered me not to conduct any test the next day.

121. Kiran said to me, "Did you see the cricket match on television last night?

(a) Kiran asked me if I saw the cricket match on television the earlier night
(b) Kiran asked me if I had seen the cricket match on television the previous night
(c) Kiran asked me did I see the cricket match on television last night
(d) Kiran asked me whether I had seen the cricket match on television last night

122. David said to Anna, "Mona will leave for her native place tomorrow."

(a) David told Anna that Mona will leave for her native place tomorrow
(b) David told Anna that Mona left for her native place the next day
(c) David told to Anna that Mona would be leaving for her native place tomorrow
(d) David told Anna that Mona would leave for her native place the next day

123. I said to him, "Why are you working so hard ?"

(a) I asked him why he was working so hard
(b) I asked him why was he working so hard

(c) I asked him why he had been working so hard
(d) I asked him why had he been working so hard

124. Pooja said, "Ridhi, do you want another cake?"
(a) Pooja asked Ridhi do you want another cake.
(b) Pooja asked Ridhi if she wanted another cake.
(c) Pooja said to Ridhi you wanted another cake.
(d) Pooja said if you wanted another cake.

125. The tailor said to him, "Will you have the suit ready by tomorrow evening?"
(a) The tailor asked him that he will have the suit ready by the next evening
(b) The tailor asked him that he would had the suit ready by the next evening
(c) The tailor asked him if he would have the suit ready by the next evening
(d) The tailor asked him if he will like to have the suit ready by the next evening

126. He ordered his servant to do as he was told.
(a) He ordered his servant, "Do as you are told."
(b) He said to his servant, "Do as you are told."
(c) He said to his servant, "Do as I told you."
(d) He said to his servant, "Do as you were told."

127. He said, "Be quiet and listen to my words."
(a) He urged them to be quiet and listen to his words
(b) He urged them and said be quiet and listen to words
(c) He said they should be quiet and listen to his words
(d) He said you should be quiet and listen to my words

128. He said to me, "I have often told you not to play with fire."
(a) He said that he has often been telling me not to play with fire
(b) He told me that he had often told me not to play with fire
(c) He reminded me that he often said to me not to play with fire
(d) He said to me that he often told me not to play with fire

129. "I have seen the film before" Sunita says.
(a) Sunita said that she had seen the film before.
(b) Sunita says that she has seen the film before.
(c) Sunita said that the film was seen by her before.
(d) Sunita said that she saw the film earlier.

130. Pawan said to me, "If I hear any news, I'll phone you."
(a) Pawan told me that if he heard any news, he will phone me
(b) Pawan told me that if he will hear any news, he will phone me
(c) Pawan told me if he had heard any news, he would phone me
(d) Pawan told me that if he heard any news, he would phone me

131. The teacher said to Mahesh, "Congratulations ! Wish you success in life."
(a) The teacher congratulated Mahesh and said wish you success in life
(b) The teacher wished congratulations and success in life to Mahesh

(c) The teacher said congratulations to Mahesh and wished him success life
(d) The teacher congratulated Mahesh and wished him success in life

132. The poor examinee said, "O God! take pity on me."
(a) The poor examinee prayed God to take pity on him
(b) The poor examinee, invoking God, implored him to take pity on him
(c) The poor examinee exclaimed that God take pity on him
(d) The poor examine asked God to take pity on him

133. "Where will you be tomorrow," I said, "in case I have to ring you ?"
(a) I asked where you will be the next day in case I will ring him
(b) I asked where he would be the next day in case I had to ring him
(c) I said to him where he will be in case I have to ring him
(d) I enquired about his whereabouts the next day in case I would have to ring up

134. Seeta said to me, "Can you give me your pen ?"
(a) Seeta asked me can I give her my pen
(b) Seeta asked me if I can give me your pen
(c) Seeta asked me if I could give her my pen
(d) Seeta asked me if I gave her my pen

135. The father warned his son that he should be beware of him.
(a) The father warned his son, "Beware of him !"
(b) The father warned his son, "Watch that chap !"
(c) The father warned his son, "Be careful about him."
(d) The father warned his son, "Don't fall into the trap."

136. Manna said to Rohan, "Have you sat in a trolley bus before ?"
(a) Manna asked Rohan whether he had sat in a trolley bus earlier.
(b) Manna asked Rohan had he sat in a trolley bus before.
(c) Manna asked Rohan-if he sat on a trolley bus before.
(d) Manna asked Rohan if he has ever sat in a trolley bus

137. Farhan said to Geeta, "Could you lend me a hundred rupees until tomorrow ?"
(a) Farhan asked Geeta whether she could lend him a hundred rupees until tomorrow.
(b) Farhan asked Geeta whether she could lend him a hundred rupees until the next day.
(c) Farhan asked Geeta whether she could lend me a hundred rupees until the next day.
(d) Farhan asked whether Geeta could lend me a hundred rupees until the next day.

138. "What about going for a swim," he said, "It's quite fine now."
(a) He asked me what about going for a swim as it was quite fine then
(b) He proposed going for a swim as it was quite fine.
(c) He suggested going for a swim as it was quite fine.
(d) He advised me to go for a swim as it was quite fine.

139. "You can't bathe in this sea," he said to me, "it's very rough."
(a) He said that I can't bathe in this sea because it's very rough.
(b) He said that you couldn't bathe in that sea if it was very rough.

(c) He said that I couldn't bathe in that sea as it was very rough.
(d) He said that you can't bathe in this sea since it was very rough.

140. Jagdish said, "We passed by a beautiful lake when we went on a trip to Goa."
(a) Jagdish said that they passed by a beautiful lake when they had gone on a trip to Goa.
(b) Jagdish said that they had passed by a beautiful lake when they went on a trip to Goa.
(c) Jagdish said that they had passed by a beautiful lake when they had gone on a trip to Goa.
(d) Jagdish said they passed by a beautiful lake when they went on a trip to Goa.

141. He said to me, "I expect you to attend the function."
(a) He told me that he had expected me to attend the function.
(b) He told me that he expected me to attended the function.
(c) He told me that he expected me to have attended the function.
(d) He told me that he expected me to attend the function.

142. He said, "Why didn't you send your application to me ?"
(a) He enquired why I had not sent my application to him.
(b) He enquired why I did not send my application to him.
(c) He enquired why had I not sent my application to him.
(d) He enquired why did I not send my application to him.

143. Dinesh asked, "Are you going to the party tomorrow, Eliza ?"
(a) Dinesh asked whether Eliza was going to the party the next day.
(b) Dinesh asked Eliza whether you are going to the party the next day.
(c) Dinesh asked Eliza whether she was going to the party the next day.
(d) Dinesh asked Eliza are you going to the party tomorrow.

144. John said, "How long will it take to travel from Germany to South Africa?"
(a) John asked how long it will take to travel from Germany to South Africa.
(b) John asked how long would it take to travel from Germany to South Africa.
(c) John asked how long it would take to travel from Germany to South Africa.
(d) John was asking how long must it take to travel from Germany to South Africa.

145. "What did you see at the South Pole ?" Ashok asked Anil.
(a) Ashok asked Anil if he saw anything at the South Pole.
(b) Ashok asked Anil what he had. seen at the South Pole.
(c) Ashok asked Anil what did he see at the South Pole.
(d) Ashok asked Anil that he saw anything at the South Pole.

146. "Do you want some more sweets ?" asked my friend.
(a) My friend asked me if I want some more sweets.
(b) My friend said to me if I wanted some more sweets.
(c) My friend asked me whether I wanted some more sweets.
(d) My friend asked me that I wanted some more sweets.

147. I said to my sister, "I brought you a doll yesterday."

(a) I told my sister that I brought you a doll the previous day.
(b) I told my sister that I had brought her a doll the previous day.
(c) I told my sister that I had brought her a doll yesterday.
(d) I told my sister that I brought her a doll yesterday.

148. The captain said to the army, "March forward, now."

(a) The captain said to the army that march forward now.
(b) The captain ordered the army to march forward then.
(c) The captain ordered the army to march on that day.
(d) The captain ordered the army to attack the enemy.

149. They said, "We've lived here for a long time."

(a) They said that they have lived there for a long time.
(b) They said that they lived here for a long time.
(c) They said that they had lived there for a long time.
(d) They said that they have lived for a long time.

150. "Would you open the door please ?"

(a) She asked me to please open the door.
(b) She requested me to open the door.
(c) She requested me to please open the door.
(d) She asked me open the door.

151. The teacher said, "Gandhiji was born in India."

(a) The teacher said that Gandhiji had been born in India.
(b) The teacher says that Gandhiji was born in India.
(c) The teacher said that Gandhiji had born in India.
(d) The teacher said that Gandhiji was bom in India.

152. "Where do you live ?" asked the stranger.

(a) The stranger asked where I lived.
(b) The stranger enquired where I was living.
(c) The stranger questioned where did live.
(d) The stranger wanted to know where I live.

153. I said to him, "How do you know this ?"

(a) I asked him how I knew that.
(b) I asked him that how he knew that.
(c) I told him how I knew that.
(d) I asked him how he knew that.

154. He said, "We are all sinners."

(a) He said that we are all sinners.
(b) He said they were all sinners.
(c) He said that he was a sinner.
(d) He said all were sinners.

155. "Would you mind taking off your shoes before entering the house ?" He said to the foreigner.

(a) He requested the foreigner to take off his shoes before entering the house.
(b) He told the foreigner that he must take off his shoes before entered the house.
(c) He said the foreigner that to take off His shoes before entered the house.
(d) Before entering the house he said that shoes must be taken off.

156. "I lost my book yesterday", she said to her teacher.

(a) She admitted to her teacher that she had lost her book the previous day.
(b) To her teacher she was admitted that she has lost her book the previous day.
(c) She admitted losing her book to her teacher yesterday.
(d) She said to her teacher that I have lost my book the previous day.

157. They said, "The boy will soon be found and we will bring him."

(a) They said that boy would be found and brought.
(b) They said that the boy would soon be found, and that they would bring him.
(c) They informed him that the boy would soon be found, and they ought to bring him.
(d) They told that the boy will be found soon and they will bring him.

158. "Stop talking children," said the teacher.

(a) The teacher ordered the children to stop talking.
(b) The teacher asked the children to stop talking.
(c) The teacher told to the children to stop talking.
(d) The teacher said the children to stop talking.

159. The teacher said that the Earth moves round the Sun.

(a) The teacher stated: "The Earth has been moving round the Sun.
(b) The teacher said, "The Earth is moving round the Sun."
(c) The teacher said, "The Earth will move round the Sun."
(d) The teacher said, "The Earth moves round The Sun."

160. The lady said that they had been witnessing the programme.

(a) The lady said, "We were witnessing the programme."
(b) The lady says, "We are witnessing the programme."
(c) The lady said, "We witnessed the programme."
(d) The lady says, "We had witnessed the programme."

161. The Principal told us, "Wait here till I return."

(a) The Principal told us wait here till her return.
(b) The Principal told us to wait there till he returned.
(c) The Principal told us to wait there till I return.
(d) The Principal told us please wait here till he returned.

162. My mother said to me, "Who is your best friend?"

(a) My mother questioned me as to who my best friend was.
(b) My mother asked me who was my best friend.
(c) My mother asked me who my best friend was.
(d) My mother asked me who my best friend is.

163. The teacher said to the boys, "If you do your best you will surely pass."

(a) The teacher asked the boys to work hard so that they can pass.
(b) The teacher told the boys that unless they work hard they will not pass.
(c) The teacher requested the boys that if they work better, they will surely pass.
(d) They teacher told the boys that if they did their best they would surely pass.

164. The boy pleaded that he had not stolen the book.

(a) The boy said, "I don't steal the book."
(b) The boy said, "I didn't steal the book."
(c) They boy said, "I hadn't stolen the book."
(d) The boy said, "I haven't stolen the book."

165. Kavitha said, "I saw the photograph."

(a) Kavitha told that she saw the photograph.
(b) Kavitha said that she had seen the photograph.
(c) Kavitha said that the photograph was seen by her.
(d) Kavitha said that she has seen the photograph.

166. The king said to his man, "Put the man in prison."

(a) The king implored his men to put the man in prison.
(b) The king commanded his men to put the man in prison.
(c) The king requested his men to put the man in prison.
(d) The king informed his men to put the man in prison.

167. He said, "I have made a kite."

(a) He says that he made a kite.
(b) He will say that he had made a kite.
(c) He said that I had made a kite.
(d) He said that he had made a kite.

168. Dravid's neighbour said, "Do you like to play golf?"

(a) Dravid's neighbour questioned him and said if he liked to play golf.
(b) Dravid's neighbour asked him to like golf.
(c) Dravid's neighbour asked him if he would like to play golf.
(d) Dravid's neighbour asked him if he liked to play golf.

169. She announced that they had selected Pradeep as their leader.

(a) She said, "Pradeep is our leader."
(b) She announced, "We have selected Pradeep as our leader."
(c) She announced, "Let us select Pradeep as our leader."
(d) She declared, "Pradeep had been selected as our leader."

170. He told the boy not to sit there.

(a) "Didn't sit here," he said to the boy.
(b) "Don't sit there," he said to the boy.
(c) "Didn't sit there," he said to the boy.
(d) "Don't sit here," he said to the boy.

ANSWER KEY

1. (b)	2. (b)	3. (b)	4. (c)	5. (b)	6. (a)	7. (c)	8. (c)	9. (c)	
10. (d)	11. (a)	12. (c)	13. (d)	14. (b)	15. (d)	16. (d)	17. (c)	18. (a)	
19. (d)	20. (b)	21. (c)	22. (c)	23. (c)	24. (a)	25. (a)	26. (c)	27. (b)	
28. (a)	29. (b)	30. (b)	31. (a)	32. (a)	33. (c)	34. (b)	35. (d)	36. (a)	
37. (a)	38. (c)	39. (c)	40. (b)	41. (d)	42. (d)	43. (a)	44. (a)	45. (c)	
46. (b)	47. (b)	48. (a)	49. (c)	50. (b)	51. (b)	52. (d)	53. (b)	54. (d)	
55. (d)	56. (a)	57. (b)	58. (c)	59. (b)	60. (a)	61. (a)	62. (b)	63. (a)	
64. (d)	65. (a)	66. (b)	67. (a)	68. (c)	69. (d)	70. (d)	71. (d)	72. (c)	
73. (b)	74. (b)	75. (c)	76. (b)	77. (a)	78. (b)	79. (d)	80. (d)	81. (a)	
82. (c)	83. (c)	84. (a)	85. (c)	86. (a)	87. (c)	88. (b)	89. (c)	90. (d)	
91. (c)	92. (b)	93. (a)	94. (c)	95. (a)	96. (a)	97. (d)	98. (b)	99. (d)	
100. (a)	101. (b)	102. (d)	103. (b)	104. (b)	105. (a)	106. (b)	107. (c)	108. (d)	
109. (b)	110. (c)	111. (b)	112. (a)	113. (b)	114. (a)	115. (b)	116. (d)	117. (d)	
118. (b)	119. (c)	120. (d)	121. (b)	122. (d)	123. (a)	124. (b)	125. (c)	126. (b)	
127. (a)	128. (b)	129. (b)	130. (d)	131. (d)	132. (b)	133. (b)	134. (c)	135. (a)	
136. (a)	137. (b)	138. (a)	139. (c)	140. (c)	141. (d)	142. (a)	143. (c)	144. (c)	
145. (b)	146. (c)	147. (b)	148. (b)	149. (c)	150. (b)	151. (d)	152. (a)	153. (d)	
154. (a)	155. (a)	156. (a)	157. (b)	158. (a)	159. (d)	160. (a)	161. (b)	162. (c)	
163. (d)	164. (d)	165. (b)	166. (b)	167. (d)	168. (d)	169. (b)	170. (d)		

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) He said/ (b) that / (c) he will come. / (d) No error
2. (a) He said/ (b) that / (c) I shall work hard if I want to pass. / (d) No error
3. (a) He asked me/ (b) that if / (c) I was fine./ (d) No error
4. (a) He asked me/ (b) that what / (c) had happened./ (d) No error
5. (a) He asked me/ (b) what / (c) did I say about him./ (d) No error
6. (a) He told to me / (b) that / (c) the Sun is a star./ (d) No error
7. (a) The king commanded to / (b) call the/ (c) first witness./ (d) No error
8. (a) The judge asked me / (b) if I knew the / (c) accused or not./ (d) No error
9. (a) Ram was telling / (b) that everyone / (c) was happy with the bonus./ (d) No error
10. (a) My teacher said that / (b) a bad carpenter / (c) fights with his tools./ (d) No error
11. (a) She ordered the servant shut / (b) the door / (c) and leave the room./ (d) No error
12. (a) She exclaimed with surprise / (b) that / (c) how tall has she grown./ (d) No error
13. (a)The teacher asked the little boy/(b) if he knows the / (c) correct answer to the question./(d) No error
14. (a) Mother allowed me to / (b) go wherever/ (c) I want./ (d) No error
15. (a) The father forbade his son / (b) not to make the / (c) same mistake again./ (d) No error
16. (a) He exclaimed with sorrow / (b) that his father died just two / (c) months before. / (d) No Error.
17. (a) She requested him/ (b) to take her to the doctor / (c) as she has very high fever. / (D) No Error
18. (a) When my boss said / (b) that he was coming to see / (c) me the next day, I wondered what problems he will have with me. / (d) No Error
19. (a) I suggested that she should / (b) stay at home if it / (c) rained but she does not give any answer. / (d) No Error
20. (a) He asked me / (b) why had I gone to office / (c) when I knew there would be fewer buses on road that day. / (d) No Error
21. (a) My friend asked me / (b) what could she do/ (c) for me in that critical situation. / (d) No Error
22. (a) The Government warned the multiplexes that if / (b) they continue charging prices higher than MRP , their / (c) licences would be cancelled. / (d) No Error
23. (a) My father told me / (b) that if I work for the / (c) betterment of mankind, God would certainly do good to me . / (d) No Error
24. (a) My teacher wanted to know / (b) if I had done / (c) the homework or not. / (d) No Error
25. (a) She says, "I studied / (b) hard so that I / (c) may get good marks/ (d) No Error
26. (a) She said that she was going to / (b) theatre and wanted to know that I could / (c) accompany him. / (E) No Error
27. (a) She requested me / (b) to wait for her / (c) until she returns from school. / (d) No Error

28. (a) The players exclaimed / (b) with joy that / (c) they have won the match / (d) No Error
29. (a) The Principal said / (b) that the gates should / (c) be locked as the classes have started. / (d) No Error
30. (a) He told us / (b) that / (c) he has not read the book. / (d) No Error

Answers with explanation

1. (c) will के स्थान पर would का प्रयोग करें। Said (Reporting Verb) Past में है। अत: reported speech (he will come) भी past में होना चाहिए।
2. (c) Shall के स्थान पर should का प्रयोग करें और want के स्थान पर wanted का। (वाक्य 1 की व्याख्या देखें)
3. (b) 'that' एवं 'if' का प्रयोग एक साथ नहीं होता। यहाँ 'that' हटा दें। अगर कोई सवाल पुछा जाता है और सवाल 'wh family' का नहीं होता है तो Conjunction 'if' अथवा 'whether' का प्रयोग होता है।
4. (b) 'that' एवं 'what' का प्रयोग एक साथ नहीं होगा। यहाँ 'that' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा। अगर सवाल 'wh family' का हो तो किसी भी Conjunction का प्रयोग नही होता है।
5. (c) Reported speech में Question form का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। अत: 'did I say' के स्थान पर 'I said' का प्रयोग करें।
6. (a) 'Tell' एवं 'told' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
7. (a) Commanded के बाद एक object (them/ him इत्यादि) का प्रयोग जरूरी होता है। Commanded के अलावा reporting verbs tell , told, advise, forbid इत्यादि के बाद भी एक object का उल्लेख होना जरूरी होता है।
8. (b) 'if' के स्थान पर 'whether' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य के अंत में 'or not' का प्रयोग हो रहा है। 'whether.....or' Co-relative है। 'If' का जोड़ा 'or' नहीं होता है।
9. (a) Telling के बाद एक object का उल्लेख होना चाहिए। (वाक्य 7 की व्याख्या देखें)
10. (d) वाक्य सही है। Reported speech एक कहावत (idiom) है। अत: यह Present tense में हो सकता है।
11. (a) shut के पहले 'to' का प्रयोग करें। Imperative sentences (आदेश व निवेदन वाले वाक्य) में Conjunction 'to' का प्रयोग होगा ।
12. (c) 'How tall has she grown' interrogative form में है। सही formation होगा 'She has grown very tall'.
13. (b) Knows के स्थान पर knew का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 1 की व्याख्या देखें)
14. (c) 'I want' को 'I wanted में परिवर्तित करें। to के बाद तो V_1 का प्रयोग (go) सही है लेकिन उसके बाद नियमानुसार V_2 का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।
15. (b) 'forbade' का अर्थ है 'मना करना' / अगर शब्द अर्थ में नकारात्मक हो तो उसके साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता। अन्य शब्द जिनके साथ not का प्रयोग नहीं होता- Until, Unless, deny, decline एवं lest।

    नोट:- Both के साथ ही 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।

    जैसे:- Both of them did not go. (×)

    Neither of them went. (✓)
16. (b) 'died' के पहले 'had' का प्रयोग करें। 'Simple Past' 'past perfect' में परिवर्तित हो जाता है।
17. (c) 'has' के स्थान पर 'had' का प्रयोग होगा। Indirect Speech में 'Simple Present', 'Simple Past' में परिवर्तित हो जाता है।

18. (c) 'Will' का 'would' में परिवर्तित करें। Indirect Speech में will/shall को would/should में परिवर्तित कर दिया जाता है।
19. (c) 'does not' को 'did not' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Simple Present', 'Simple Past' में परिवर्तित कर दिया जाता है।
20. (b) 'had' का प्रयोग 'I' के बाद करें। Indirect Speech में 'Question Form' नहीं बल्कि 'sentence form' का प्रयोग किया जाता है।
21. (b) 'She' के बाद 'Could' का प्रयोग करें। Indirect Speech में 'Question Form' का।
22. (b) 'Continue' का Past 'Continued' होगा। Indirect Speech में 'Simple Present' 'Simple Past' में परिवर्तित हो जाता है।
23. (b) 'Work' को 'worked' में परिवर्तित करें (वाक्य 22 की व्याख्या देखें)
24. (b) 'if' को 'whether' में परिवर्तित करें। 'if' का जोड़ा 'or' नहीं बल्कि 'whether....or' सही pair है।
25. (c) 'May' को 'Might' में परिवर्तित करें।
26. (b) 'that' को 'if' में परिवर्तित करें।
27. (c) 'returns' को 'returned' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Simple Present' का 'Simple Past' में परिवर्तित करें।
28. (c) 'have' को 'had' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Indirect Speech' में 'Present Perfect' को 'Past Perfect' में परिवर्तित करें।
29. (c) 'have' को 'had' में परिवर्तित करें। (वाक्य 28 की व्याख्या देखें।)
30. (c) 'has' को 'had' में परिवर्तित करें। (वाक्य 28 की व्याख्या देखें।)

5 QUESTION TAG

CHAPTER

Ram works hard, **doesn't he**?

He is not coming, **is he**?

➢ किसी भी **वाक्य के बाद आने वाला एक छोटा सवाल**, '**Question tag**' कहलाता है।

QUESTION TAG cukus ds fu;e

1. **वाक्य** एवं **Question tag** एक ही **tense** में होने चाहिए।
2. अगर '**वाक्य**' **positive** हो तो '**Question tag**' **negative** होना चाहिए और अगर '**वाक्य**' **negative** हो तो '**Question tag**' **positive** होना चाहिए।
3. **Question tag** में हमेशा **Pronoun** का प्रयोग करें।
4. **Negative question tag** में **helping verb** एवं **not** के **contracted form** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: **didn't, hadn't, won't** इत्यादि।

नोट:

1. सामान्यत: '**am not**' का **contracted form नहीं** होता है। लेकिन **Question tag** में '**aren't**' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: I am fine, aren't I?

2. **Everyone, everybody, no one, none, each, every** इत्यादि **form** से **singular** है। इनके साथ **singular verb, singular pronoun** इत्यादि का प्रयोग होता है। लेकिन **Question tag** में ये **बहुवचन** के रूप में प्रयोग किये जाते हैं।

जैसे: Everyone has come, **hasn't he?** (×)

Everyone has come, **haven't they?** (✓)

None of your friends likes her, **do they?** (✓)

Everybody can speak English, **can't they?** (✓)

3. **Collective noun** का प्रयोग **singular form** में होता है। इनके **Question Tag** में **singular verb** एवं **singular pronoun** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: The jury $\underbrace{\text{has}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ taken $\underbrace{\text{its}}_{\text{S.P.}}$ decision, **hasn't it**?

4. लेकिन अगर **collective noun** में **मतभेद** हो या हम प्रत्येक व्यक्ति की बात करें, तब **plural verb** एवं **plural pronoun** प्रयुक्त होंगे।

जैसे: The committee $\underbrace{\text{are}}_{\text{P.V.}}$ divided in $\underbrace{\text{their}}_{\text{P.P.}}$ opinion, **aren't they**?

The audience $\underbrace{\text{have}}_{\text{P.V.}}$ taken $\underbrace{\text{their}}_{\text{P.P.}}$ seats, **haven't they**?

5. कुछ शब्द जैसे **hardly, seldom, scarcely** इत्यादि **अर्थ से नकारात्मक** होते है हालांकि इनमें '**not**' स्पष्ट रूप से नहीं दिखता। इनके **Question tag positive** होंगे।

जैसे: 1. He **hardly** does any work, **does he?**

2. He has **barely** anything to eat, **has he?**

3. He is **seldom** absent, **is he?**

6. अगर sentence की शुरूआत '**Let us**'/**Let's**' से किया जाए तो **Question tag** '**shall we**' होगा।

जैसे: Let us go to party tonight, **shall we** ?

7. (a) **आदेश/निवेदन वाले वाक्यों (Imperative sentences)** में आग्रह के लिए **Question Tag** में '**won't you?**' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Come in, **won't you?**

(b) किसी व्यक्ति से **कोई कार्य करने को कहने के लिए** या कुछ **offer** करते समय भी '**will you/ would you?**' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. Open the door, **would you?**

2. Have some more tea,**would you?**

(c) '**Can't you?**' **बेसब्र अवस्था (impatience)** को दर्शाता है।

जैसे: Shut your mouth, **can't you**?

(d) **Negative imperative** वाक्यों में '**will you?**' का प्रयोग '**Question tag**' के रूप में होता है।

जैसे: Don't worry, **will you?**

8. अगर वाक्य में '**there**' subject के रूप में प्रयुक्त हो तो '**there**' के **बाद आने वाला verb** एवं '**there**' **question tag** के रूप में प्रयुक्त होगें।

जैसे: There is no water, **is there?**

There weren't good schools, **were there?**

9. **Question Tag** हमेशा वाक्य के मुख्य भाग के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होना चाहिए।

जैसे: I think, he is right, **isn't he?**

PROVIDE SUITABLE QUESTION TAG FOR THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES

Find the meaning of the difficult words and learn them by heart

1. I am happy,
2. I don't write letter,
3. I didn't go to college yesterday,
4. It is very cold,
5. You haven't eaten anything,
6. She doesn't drive carelessly,
7. I have called him up,
8. The boys are quite boisterous,
9. My friend Ram is an egoist,
10. God is Omnipotent, omnipresent and Omniscient,
11. The mob killed the District Magistrate,
12. Bhim was a glutton,
13. We see somnambulists in movies very often,
14. Bhagat Singh was a martyr,
15. We see conjurors in circus,
16. Asthma is not a contagious disease,
17. We used to see epidemic in villages earlier,
18. Sanjivini was considered to be a panacea,
19. We find too many monologues in Shakespeare's plays,
20. We hadn't got any remuneration,
21. Polygamy has been banned in many countries,
22. Charles Shobraj was an imposter,
23. Hindus practise idolatry,
24. My nephew is an ambidextrous,
25. He is a pessimist,
26. Everyone has come late today,
27. The mob has lynched the thief,
28. The audience have taken their seats,
29. Have some more tea,
30. Wait for me,
31. Let's go out for a walk,
32. He has barely anything to wear,
33. Somebody entered the room,
34. I think, you are right,
35. I feel, he is hungry,
36. There are many boys in this school,
37. Nobody bothers,
38. It hardly rains here,
39. The jury was unanimous in its decision.
40. I am tired,

Answers

1. aren't I?
2. do I?
3. did I?
4. isn't it?
5. have you?
6. does she ?
7. haven't I?
8. aren't they?
9. isn't he?
10. isn't he?
11. didn't it
12. wasn't he?
13. don't we?
14. wasn't he.
15. don't we?
16. is it?
17. didn't we?
18. wasn't it?
19. don't we?
20. had we?
21. hasn't it?
22. wasn't he?
23. don't they?
24. isn't he?
25. Isn't he?
26. haven't they?
27. hasn't it?
28. haven't they?
29. will /would you?
30. will you?/can you?
31. Shall we?
32. Has he?
33. didn't they?
34. aren't you?
35. Isn't he?
36. aren't there?
37. do they?
38. does it?
39. wasn't it?
40. aren't I?

6 SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT

CHAPTER

➢ किसी भी **Sentence** में **Subject** के **Number** तथा **Person** के अनुसार **Verb** का प्रयोग **Subject-Verb Agreement** कहलाता है।

1. $\underbrace{\text{He}}_{\text{S.S}}$ $\underbrace{\text{comes}}_{\text{S.V}}$. (यदि **Subject 'Singular'** हो तो **Verb 'Singular'** प्रयुक्त होता है।)

2. $\underbrace{\text{They}}_{\text{P.S}}$ $\underbrace{\text{come}}_{\text{P.V}}$. (यदि **Subject 'Plural'** हो तो **Verb 'Plural'** प्रयुक्त होता है।)

➢ Verb का सही रूप में प्रयोग करने के लिए यह आवश्यक है कि आप **Singular** व **Plural Verb** को पहचानें।

Singular Verb	Plural Verb		Singular Verb	Plural Verb
is	are		was	were
has	have		V_1+s/es (plays, goes etc.)	V_1 (play, go etc.)

Verb एवं Noun के बीच का अंतर

Noun + s/ es → Plural Noun (**Noun** में **s/es** लगाने पर वह **Plural** बन जाता है)

Verb + s/ es → Singular Verb (**Verb** में **s/es** लगाने पर वह **Singular** बन जाता है)

RULE 1

➢ अगर दो **Sub.** को **'and'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **Plural Verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: (1) Ram **and** Shyam $\underbrace{\text{are}}_{\text{P.V}}$ coming.

RULE 2

➢ यदि दो या दो से अधिक **Nouns** या **Adjectives** को **'and'** से जोड़ा जाये लेकिन वे **एक** ही **व्यक्ति , वस्तु या idea** को प्रदर्शित करें तो **Singular verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

My friend, philosopher and guide have come. (change 'have' to **'has'**)

Slow and steady win the race. (change 'win' to **'wins'**)

Fish and chips **is** my favorite dish.(✓)

नोट: (i) यदि दो **uncountable nouns 'and'** से जुड़कर **sentence** के **subject** के रूप में प्रयुक्त हों तथा इससे अलग-अलग **sub.** का बोध हो तो इसके साथ **plural verb** का प्रयोग होता है। जैसे-

(1) $\underbrace{\text{Poverty}}_{\text{U.N}}$ **and** $\underbrace{\text{misery}}_{\text{U.N}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{come}}_{\textbf{P.V}}$ together. (✓)

RULE 3

➢ यदि दो Sub को **'as well as', 'with', 'alongwith', 'together with', 'and not', 'In addition to', 'but', 'besides', 'except', 'rather than', 'accompanied by', 'like', 'unlike', 'no less than', 'nothing but'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **'verb' पहले sub** के **अनुसार** प्रयोग होना चाहिये।

जैसे: (1) Ram (S. S.) **as well as** his parents **is** (S.V.) coming.

(2) The Captain (S. S.) **along with** the sailors **was** (S.V.) drowned.

(3) My **father** (S.S.) **unlike** my uncles **is** (S.V.) very strict.

RULE 4

➢ अगर **Article** का प्रयोग सिर्फ **1st sub** के पहले हो तो इसका अर्थ होगा **एक ही व्यक्ति अथवा वस्तु।** अत: **singular verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: (1) **A** white and black gown **was** (S.V.) bought by her.

(2) Churchil was a great orator and a great politician of his time.(×)
Churchil was a great orator and politician of his time.(✓)

लेकिन अगर **Article** का प्रयोग **सभी Sub. के पहले** हो तो इसका अर्थ होगा **अलग-अलग व्यक्ति अथवा वस्तु।** अत: **plural verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: **The** director and **the** producer **have** (P.V.) come.(✓)

RULE 5

➢ यदि दो subject को **'neither.....nor', 'either.....or', 'not only'.....'but also', 'nor', 'or'** या **'none-but'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **verb नजदीक वाले sub** के अनुसार प्रयोग होना चाहिये।

जैसे: (1) **Neither** Ram **nor** Shyam (S. S.) **has** (S.V.) come.

(2) **Either** Ram **or** his friends (P. S.) **have** (P.V.) come.

(3) **Has** (S.S.) Ram (S.S.) **or** Shyam come?

RULE 6

➢ **'Neither of .....'** का अर्थ **'दो में से एक भी नहीं'**। 'दो से अधिक' में से 'एक भी नहीं' के लिए 'none of'

का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: Neither of his four sons looked after him. (×)
None of his four sons looked after him. (✓)

➢ **'Either of .....'** का अर्थ है 'दो में से एक। 'दो से अधिक' में से 'एक' के लिए 'One of' का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: Either of the five members is at fault. (×)
One of the five members is at fault. (✓)

नोट: **'Both'** के साथ **'not'** का प्रयोग नहीं होता क्योंकि **'दो में से एक भी नहीं'** के लिए **'neither of** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Both of them did not take the exam. (×)
Neither of them took the exam. (✓)

RULE 7

➢ कुछ **'Noun'** form से **Plural** होते है लेकिन अर्थ में **Singular**. इनके साथ **singular Verb** का प्रयोग करते हैं।

जैसे: **(a) बीमारियों का नाम: Measles, Mumps, Rickets, Shingles etc.**
(b) खेल के नाम: Billiards, Darts, Draughts, etc.
(c) देश के नाम: The United States, The West Indies, etc.
(d) पुस्तकों के नाम: The Arabian Nights, Three Muskeeters, etc.
(e) विषयों के नाम: Physics, Economics, Civics, Statistics, Politics,Linguistics.

जैसे: (1) Mathematics **is** (S.V.) an interesting subject.
(2) Politics **is** (S.V.) not my cup of tea.

नोट: यदि **'Statistics'** से हमारा तात्पर्य **'data'** हो, **'Mathematics'** से हमारा तात्पर्य **'Calculation'** हो और **'Politics'** से हमारा तात्पर्य **'राजनीतिक विचारों'** से हों, तो इनका प्रयोग बहुवचन के रूप में होगा।

जैसे: Statistics **have** (P.V.) revealed multiple scams in the organisation of Commonwealth Games.

RULE 8

➢ एक वाक्य में **verb** उस **subject** के अनुसार होना चाहिए जो वाक्य का **main subject** हो । हम अक्सर verb को नजदीक वाले subject से match करते हैं पर ऐसा करना गलत होता है।

जैसे: (1) The quality of apples **is** good.
(2) He and not his parents **is** guilty.
(3) The appeal of the victims for the transfer of the cases related to riots to some other States **has** been accepted.

RULE 9

➢ **Collective Noun** के साथ हमेशा **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: (1) The **herd** (S.S.) of cows **is** (S.V.) grazing in the field.

(2) The $\underbrace{\text{committee}}_{\text{S. S.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{has}}_{\textbf{S.V.}}$ unanimously taken $\underbrace{\textbf{its}}_{\textbf{S.P.}}$ decision.

नोट: लेकिन अगर **Collective Noun** में मतभेद हो या प्रत्येक व्यक्ति की बात की जाये तो '**Plural verb**' एवं '**Plural Pronoun**' का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: (1) The jury $\underbrace{\textbf{are}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ divided in $\underbrace{\textbf{their}}_{\textbf{P.P.}}$ opinion.

(2) The audience $\underbrace{\textbf{have}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ taken $\underbrace{\textbf{their}}_{\textbf{P.P.}}$ seats.

RULE 10

➢ **Plural संख्या** के साथ **plural verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Hundred boys $\underbrace{\textbf{are}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ in my class.

नोट: अगर **Cardinal Adjectives (one, two, three, four...etc.)** के बाद **Plural Noun** का प्रयोग हो तथा **Plural Noun** से **certain amount (निश्चित रकम) certain weight (निश्चित वजन), certain period (निश्चित अवधि), certain distance (निश्चित दूरी), certain height (निश्चित ऊँचाई)** का बोध हो, तो इसके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है न कि **Plural Verb** का। यानि अगर **Plural संख्या** को **Singular unit** के रूप में प्रयोग करें तो **singular verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: (1) Hundred rupees $\underbrace{\textbf{is}}_{\textbf{S.V.}}$ in my pocket.

(2) Ten miles $\underbrace{\textbf{is}}_{\textbf{S.V.}}$ a long distance to cover on foot.

नोट: लेकिन, **Cardinal Adjectives** के बाद प्रयुक्त **Plural Noun** से **अलग-अलग unit** का बोध हो या कराना हो, तो इसे **Plural** माना जाता है तथा इसके साथ **Plural Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Hundred rupees $\underbrace{\textbf{are}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ to be distributed among the students. (✓)

Note the difference

- $\underbrace{\text{Five thousand}}_{\text{Numeral (Adj.)}}$ $\underbrace{\text{rupees}}_{\text{P. N.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{is}}_{\textbf{S.V.}}$ a handsome amount.
- $\underbrace{\text{Five thousand}}_{\text{Numeral (Adj.)}}$ $\underbrace{\text{rupees}}_{\text{P. N.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{have}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ been spent on different useful commodities.

RULE 11

➢ अगर एक **Relative Pronoun(who, which, that इत्यादि)** के द्वारा एक **sub** को एक **verb** से जोड़ा जाये तो **verb** उस **sub** के अनुसार होना चाहिए जो उस **Relative Pronoun** का **antecedent** हो।

जैसे: (1) She is one of the noblest **women** $\underbrace{\text{that}}_{\text{R.P}}$ $\underbrace{\cancel{\textbf{has}}}_{\textbf{have}}$ ever lived on this earth.

(2) I am not one of **those** $\underbrace{\textbf{who}}_{\textbf{R.P}}$ will trust everyone whom $\underbrace{\cancel{\textbf{I meet}}}_{\textbf{they meet}}$.

➢ हमेशा वाक्य के अर्थ को समझे । दूसरे वाक्य का अर्थ है **"मैं उन लोगों में से नहीं हुँ जो उन सभी पर भरोसा कर लेते हैं जिन से वे मिलते है।"** अत: **'I meet'** नहीं **'They meet'** का प्रयोग करें।

RULE 12

➢ **Each, Every, Everyone, Someone, Somebody, Nobody, None, One, Any, Many a, More than one अर्थ से Singular** हैं। इनके साथ **Singular verb, Singular noun** व **Singular pronoun** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (1) **Each** student **has** come.

(2) **Each** boy and **each** girl **has** come.

(3) **One** must tolerate **one's** friend as well as ~~**his**~~ (**one's**) enemy.

(4) **Many a** student ~~**have**~~ (**has**) not done ~~**their**~~ (**his**) home work.

(5) **More than one** **man** (**S.N**) **was** (**S.V**) present there.

नोट: '**Many**' का प्रयोग निम्नलिखित वाक्यों में देखें:-

जैसे: (1) **Many a** man (S.N.) has (S.V.) come.

(2) **Many** men (P.N.) have (P.V.) come.

(3) **A great/ A good many** men (P.N.) have (P.V.) come.

RULE 13

➢ अगर **each, every, one** इत्यादि **के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग** होता है, तो **'of' के बाद आने वाला Noun** अथवा **Pronoun** तो **plural** होता है लेकिन उ**सके बाद आने वाला Verb, Pronoun** इत्यादि **Singular** होगा।

जैसे: One of the boys/them (Noun/Pronoun (Plural)) has (S.V.) done his (S.P.) work.

RULE 14

Plural Noun या **Plural Pronoun** के बाद **each** का प्रयोग हो, तो इसे **Plural** माना जाता है तथा इसके साथ **Plural Verb** का प्रयोग होता हैं।

जैसे: We (P.S.) each **have** (**P.V.**) a duty towards our nation. (✓)

RULE 15

Indefinite Pronoun – 'One' का प्रयोग **Sentence** के **Subject** के रूप में हो, तो इसके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है तथा इसके लिए **Singular Pronouns – one, one's, oneself** का प्रयोग होता है न कि he, him, his, himself का।

जैसे: **One** should keep his promise. (×)

One should keep **one's** promise. (✓)

RULE 16

➢ **काल्पनिक वाक्य** प्राय: **if, as if, as though, suppose, I wish, in case** अथवा **would that** से शुरू

होते हैं। इन शब्दों के बाद चाहे किसी भी Number तथा Person के Subject का प्रयोग हो, **Plural Verb 'were'** का ही प्रयोग होता है न कि 'was' का।

जैसे: (1) I wish, I **were** a bird.
(2) If he **were** rich, he would help others.

RULE 17

➢ **Optative Sentence** में **Singular Subject** के साथ भी **Plural Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (1) God (S.S.) **save** (**P.V.**) the king!

(2) Long **live** (**P.V.**) the Queen (S.S.) !

RULE 18

➢ **A number of/A large number of/A great number of** का प्रयोग **Plural Countable Noun** के साथ होता है तथा इसके साथ **Plural Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: A number of **students** (**P.S.**) **were** (**P.V.**) present. (✓)

नोट: लेकिन, **The number of** का प्रयोग एक निश्चित संख्या, के अर्थ में होता है इसके बाद **Plural Sub.** का प्रयोग होता है तथा इसका प्रयोग **Sentence के Subject** के रूप में होने पर, इसके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The number of **boys** (**P.S.**) **are** (**P.V.**) fifty. (×)

The number of boys (**P.S.**) **is** (**S.V.**) fifty. (✓)

RULE 19

➢ अगर **'Amount of/quantity of' Uncountable Noun** के साथ प्रयोग होतें हैं तब इनका प्रयोग **Sentence** के **Subject** के रूप में होने पर इनके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: **The amount of** money (U. N.) are (P.V.) not sufficient.(×)

The amount of money (U. N.) **is** (**S.V.**) not sufficient. (✓)

RULE 20

➢ **All** का प्रयोग **uncountable** के अर्थ में हो तो, इसे **Singular** माना जाता है, तथा इसके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: **All** **is** (**S.V**) well that **ends** (**S.V**) well.

➢ लेकिन, **'All'** का प्रयोग **'व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं की संख्या'** का बोध कराने के लिए हो, तो इसे **Plural** माना जाता है, तथा इसके साथ **Plural verb** के प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: All **are** (**P.V**) well at home. (✓)

RULE 21

➢ **Furniture, advice, work, evidence, equipment, news, information, luggage, baggage, percentage, poetry, knowledge, dirt, dust, traffic, electricity, music, breakage, stationary, scenery, confectionery, pottery, bakery, crockery, behaviour का प्रयोग Uncountable Nouns** के रूप में होता है। इसलिए इसके साथ **Singular Verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (1) The $\underbrace{\textbf{scenery}}_{\text{S.N.}}$ of Kasmir $\underbrace{\textbf{has}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ enchanted us.

(2) I passed but the $\underbrace{\textbf{percentage}}_{\text{S.N.}}$ of marks $\underbrace{\textbf{was}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ not good.

RULE 22

➢ **कुछ Nouns** का **प्रयोग हमेशा Plural form** में ही होता है। इन Nouns के **अन्त में लगे s को हटाकर, इन्हें Singular नहीं बनाया जा सकता** है। ये दिखने में भी Plural लगते हैं, एवं इनका **प्रयोग भी Plural की तरह** होता है। ऐसे Nouns निम्न हैं:

Scissors, tongs (चिमटा), **pliers, pincers, bellows** (फूँकनी),

trousers, pants, pajamas, shorts,

gallows (फाँसी का फंदा), **fangs** (डंक),

spectacles, goggles,binoculars (दूरबीन), **sunglasses,**

Alms (दान), **amends** (संशोधन), **archives** (ऐतहासिक दस्तावेज), **arrears, auspices, congratulations, embers** (राख), **fireworks, lodgings, outskirts, particulars, proceeds, regards, riches, remains, savings, shambles, surroundings, tidings, troops, tactics, thanks, valuables, wages,belongings, braces, etc.**

जैसे: (a) Where are my **pants**?
(b) Where are the **tongs**?
(c) The **proceeds** were deposited in the bank.
(d) All his **assets** were seized.
(e) **Alms** were given to the beggars.
(f) The **embers** of the fire were still burnings.

RULE 23

➢ कुछ **Nouns दिखने में Plural** लगते हैं लेकिन अर्थ में **Singular** होते है। इनका **प्रयोग** हमेशा **Singular** में ही होता है। जैसे: **News, Innings, Politics, Summons, Physics, Economics, Ethics, Mathematics, Mumps, Measles, Rickets,Shingles, Billiards, Athletics** etc.

जैसे: (a) No **news** is good news.
(b) **Politics** is a dirty game.
(c) **Economics** is an interesting subject.
(d) **Ethics** demands honesty.

RULE 24

➢ कुछ **Nouns दिखने में Singular** लगते हैं, लेकिन इनका प्रयोग हमेशा **Plural** में होता है। जैसे: **cattle, cavalry, infantry, poultry, peasantry, children, gentry, police, people,** etc. इनके साथ कभी भी 's' नहीं लगाया जाता, जैसे: cattles, childrens लिखना गलत है।

जैसे: (a) **Cattle** are grazing in the field.
(b) Our **infantry** have marched forward.
(c) **Police** have arrested the thieves.

नोट: **'People'** का अर्थ है **'लोग'**। **'Peoples'** का अर्थ है **'विभिन्न मूलवंश के लोग'**।

RULE 25

➢ कुछ **Nouns** का **प्रयोग**, **केवल Singular form** में ही किया जाता है। ये Uncountable Nouns हैं। इनके साथ Article A/An का प्रयोग भी नहीं किया जाता है। जैसे:

Scenery, Poetry, Furniture, Advice, Information, Hair, Business, Mischief, Bread, Stationery, Crockery, Luggage, Baggage, Postage, Knowledge, Wastage, Money, Jewellery, Breakage, Equipment,Work, Evidence, Word (जब **'word'** का अर्थ वाद, संदेश या परिचर्चा हो), **Fuel** एवं **Paper.**

जैसे: (a) The **scenery** of Kashmir is very charming.
(b) I have no **information** about her residence.
(c) The **mischief** committed by him is unpardonable.
(d) His **hair** is black.
(e) I have bought some **equipment** that I needed for the project.

(i) इन *Nouns* का बहुवचन नहीं बनाया जा सकता। जैसे: *Sceneries, informations, furnitures, hairs* इत्यादि लिखना गलत है।

(ii) यदि उक्त *Noun* का ***Singular* या *Plural* दोनों *forms* में आवश्यकता हो** तो, इनके साथ **कुछ शब्द जोड़े** जाते हैं।

नीचे दिए गये उदाहरण देखें:

(a) He gave me **a piece of** information.
(b) **All pieces of** information given by her were reliable.
(c) **Many kinds of** furniture are available in that shop.
(d) I want **a few articles of** jewellery.
(e) He ate **two slices of** bread.
(f) Please show me **some items of** office stationery.
(g) The Police have found **a strand of** hair in the car.

RULE 26

➢ कुछ Nouns, **Plural एवं Singular दोनों में एक ही रूप में** रहते हैं। जैसे: **deer,sheep, series , species, fish, crew, team, jury, aircraft, counsel** etc.

जैसे: (a) Our team **is** the best.
(b) Our team **are** trying their new uniform.
(c) There are two fish in the pond.
(d) There are many fishes in the aquarium.('Fishes' का अर्थ है विभिन्न प्रजातियों के fish)

RULE 27

➢ नीचे दिये गए **Table** को ध्यान से पढ़ें-

S.N	WORDS	+NOUN/PRONOUN	VERB
1.	No	+ U. N	Singular Verb
2.	No	+ S. C. N	Singular Verb
3.	One-third of / three-fourths of / The rest of / A quarter of / Part of / Ten percent of / Twenty Percent of	+ U. N.	Singular Verb
4.	One-third of / three-fourths of/ Part of / Ten percent of / Twenty percent of	+ P. C. N.	Plural Verb
5.	Most of / Some / Some of / Half of/ Enough / Enough of / Not enough of/ Plenty of / A lot of/ Lots of	+ U. N.	Singular Verb
6.	Most of / Some / Some of /Half of/ Enough / Enough of / Not enough of/ Plenty of / A lot of/ Lots of	+ P. C. N.	Plural Verb
7.	The percentage of	+ U.N./P.C.N.	Singular Verb
8.	More than one	+ S. C. N.	Singular Verb
9.	More than two/three. etc.	+ P. C. N.	Plural Verb
10.	More	+ P. C. N. + than one	Plural Verb

नीचे दिए गए उदाहरण देखे:-

1. No air is present on the Mars.
2. No student was interested in taking the exam.
3. One-third of the work has been finished.
4. One- third of the students have passed.
5. Ninety percent of the work is done.
6. Most of the knowledge is gained by experience.
7. Most of the girls are absent today.
8. Ninety percent of the students have passed with good marks.
9. Half of the candidates have passed with flying colours.
10. Some of the students have not taken the exam.
11. The percentage of unsuccessful candidates is ten.
12. More than one city was in ruins.
13. More cities than one were in ruins.
14. More than two theives have been caught red handed.
15. More plans than one were made.

नोट: वाक्य 12 एवं 13 के बीच का अंतर देखें।

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) Neither of them/ (b) are going to attend/ (c) the party on 10th October./ (d) No error
2. (a) He walked five miles which are really a great distance/ (b) for a man like him who is not only old but also ill./ (d) No error

3. (a) Either my colleague/ (b) or a peon are coming home/ (c) with the material today./ (d) No error
4. (a) The rise and fall/ (b) of the tide are due/ (c) to lunar influence./ (d) No error
5. (a) Many a man/ (b) have succumbed/ (c) to this temptation./ (d) No error
6. (a) The introduction of tea, coffee/ (b) and such other beverages/ (c) have not been without some effect./ (d) No error
7. (a) The newer type of automatic machines/ (b) wash/ (c) clothes faster./ (d) No error
8. (a) Each of the students in the computer class/ (b) has to type/ (c) their own research paper this semester./ (d) No error
9. (a) Everyone of the films/ (b) you suggested/ (c) are not worth seeing./ (d) No error
10. (a) The Secretary and Principal of the college/ (b) are attending/ (c) the District Development Council Meeting at the Collectorate./ (d) No error
11. (a) There is/ (b) only one of his novels/ (c) that are interesting./ (d) No error
12. (a) Knowledge of/ (b) at least two languages/ (c) are required to pass the examination./ (d) No error
13. (a) It is I/ (b) who is to blame/ (c) for this bad situation./ (d) No error
14. (a) Romansticism of melancholy/ (b) in art and literature are the reason/ (c) for insensitivity to those suffering from depression./ (d) No error
15. (a) Patience as well as perseverance (b) are necessary/ (c) for success./ (d) No error
16. (a) In Singapore/ (b) my brother-in-law with his wife/ (c) were present at the function./ (d) No error
17. (a) A hot and/ (b) a cold spring/ (c) was found near each other./ (d) No error
18. (a) Either of the roads/ (b) lead/ (c) to the park/ (d) No error
19. (a) One of my desires/ (b) are to become/ (c) a doctor./ (d) No error
20. (a) The whole block of flats/ (b) including two shops were/ (c) destroyed in fire./ (d) No error
21. (a) The sum and substance/ (b) of his poem/ (c) are as follows./ (d) No error
22. (a) Neither of the/ (b) five accused/ (c) could be convicted./ (d) No error
23. (a) The strain of all/ (b) the difficulties, vexations and anxieties/ (c) were more than he could beat./ (d) No error
24. (a) Everybody/ (b) it must be admitted/ (c) has their ups and downs./ (d) No error
25. (a) Every woman in the world/ (b) fervently hopes that their child/ (c) will be a normal and healthy baby/ (d) No error
26. (a) Neither of them/ (b) sent their papers/ (c) in time for the last seminar/ (d) No error
27. (a) This is a strange world/ (b) where each one pursues their own golden bubble/ (c) and laughs at others for doing the same./ (d) No error
28. (a) If it were possible to get near when/ (b) one of the volcanic eruptions take place/ (c) we would see a grand sight./ (d) No error

29. (a) A rise in rents and wages/ (b) have been found/ (c) to go together./ (d) No error
30. (a) He is one of those few post-colonial writer who believes/ (b) that this talk about colonialism has gone too far/ (c) and has turned into a cliche./ (d) No error
31. (a) One of the peculiarities/ (b) which distinguishes the present age/ (c) is the multiplication of books/ (d) No error
32. (a) Neither of them/ (b) are going to attend/ (c) the party on 10th October/ (d) No error
33. (a) Ten miles are/ (b) a long distance / (c) to cover on foot./ (d) No error
34. (a) If Mahatma Gandhi/ (b) was alive, he would feel sorry for the poor and downtrodden who/(c) still struggle everyday to make both ends meet. / (d) No Error
35. (a) Having acquired some experience/ (b) she is no longer one of those who believes/ (c) every explanation they are given./ (d) No error
36. (a) With regard to implementation of the/ (b) details of the proposal, the committee was divided/ (c) in their opinion./ (d) No error
37. (a) Most of the funds/ (b) we get from/ (c) America is used to build roads and bridges./ (d) No error
38. (a) The tiger was not/ (b) the only dangerous animal/ (c) in the forest there was hyenas too./ (d) No error
39. (a) She immediately quit/ (b) the job in which/ (c) neither skill nor knowledge were required./ (d) No error
40. (a) The type of qualities you acquire/ (b) depend upon your company/ (c) and so you associate yourselves with simple and good natured people./ (d) No error
41. (a) Our success or our failure/ (b) largely depend/ (c) upon our actions./ (d) No error
42. (a) He is/ (b) one of the tallest boy/ (c) in the class./ (d) No error
43. (a) That day when they brought her back for the last time/ (b) there was many old-timers/ (c) who were shocked and fearful./ (d) No error
44. (a) A computer virus works exactly/ (b) like the biological variety/ (c) which invade the human body./ (d) No error
45. (a) Many a boy/(b) have not done their/ (c) homework properly./ (d) No error
46. (a) Two miles beyond/ (b) that building was seen dozens/ (c) of antisocial elements/ (d) No error
47. (a) Along the northern frontier/ (b) of India is seen/ (c) the beautiful and mighty Himalayas./ (d) No error
48. (a) A body of volunteers/ (b) have helped in/ (c) making this celebration a great success/ (d) No error
49. (a) There appears/ (b) a number of problems/ (c) and I really do not know how to solve them. (d) No error
50. (a) Shingles are a disease/ (b) in which a person develops/ (c) lots of inflamed spots round the waist./ (d) No error
51. (a) Whether she should get married/ (b) or whether she should remain/ (c) single are her personal problem./ (d) No error

52. (a) Two and two/ (b) makes/ (c) four./ (d) No error.
53. (a) Many a men/ (b) attended the meeting/ (c) last night./ (d) No error.
54. (a) The perquisites/ (b) to this job makes it/ (c) even more attractive than the salary indicated/ (d) No error.
55. (a) Either you/ (b) or he/ (c) are happy./ (d) No error.

***Note:** 21-26 से संबंधित प्रश्नों के लिए **Noun** देखें।*

Answers with explanation

1. (b) के स्थान पर 'is' का प्रयोग करें। 'Neither of के बाद आने वाले 'noun/pronoun' तो plural होता है। (अत: 'them *(Pl. Pronoun)* ' तक का वाक्य तो सही है) लेकिन उसके बाद आने वाले verb इत्यादि singular होना चाहिए।
2. (a) इस वाक्य में 'five miles' plural होने के बावजूद singular unit के रूप में प्रयुक्त हुआ है। अत: five miles के साथ singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'are' का।
3. (b) 'are' को 'is' में परिवर्तित करें। जब दो subjects को either . . . . or, neither. . . . nor, 'or' अथवा 'nor' से जोड़ा जाए तो verb निकटतम 'sub' के अनुसार प्रयोग होगा। Peon (S.S.) के साथ S.V. 'is' का प्रयोग करें।
4. (b) 'The rise and fall' एक singular subject है जिसके साथ singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग करें।
5. (b) 'Many a' singular pronoun है। इसके साथ noun, verb व pronoun के singular form प्रयुक्त होगें। have (P.V.) के (S.V.) में परिवर्तित करें।
6. (c) एक वाक्य में 'verb' उस वाक्य के मुख्य 'sub' के अनुसार प्रयोग किया जाना चाहिए। मुख्य sub 'introduction' singular है। अत: verb भी singular होगा यहाँ 'has' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'have' का।
7. (b) Verb मुख्य sub 'newer type' के अनुसार प्रयोग होगा। verb singular होगा यानि 'washes' का प्रयोग होगा।
8. (c) 'Each of ....' के बाद आने वाले verb एवं pronoun singular होगा। अत: 'their' के बदले 'his' का प्रयोग करें।
9. (c) Verb मुख्य sub 'everyone' के अनुसार प्रयोग होगा। 'Everyone' singular है अत: singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग करें।
10. (b) यहाँ 'the' का प्रयोग सिर्फ 'Secretary' के पहले हुआ है। इसका अर्थ है कि एक ही व्यक्ति को Secretary एवं Principal दोनों का पद प्राप्त है। चुँकि 'sub' singular है अत: verb भी singular 'is' होगा।
11. (c) 'Are' के स्थान पर 'is' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'Novels' में से 'one' का बात की जा रही है। 'One' singular sub है अत: Verb भी singular होगा।
12. (c) यहाँ languages मुख्य sub नहीं है बल्कि 'knowledge' मुख्य sub है। अगर knowledge के अनुसार verb का प्रयोग किया जाता है तो verb 'are' नहीं 'is' होगा।
13. (b) 'is' के स्थान पर 'am' का प्रयोग करें। यदि who, which तथा that का प्रयोग Relative Pronouns के रूप में हो तो इनके बाद प्रयुक्त verb इनके antecedents के number व person पर निर्भर करता है।
14. (b) Verb 'is' का प्रयोग 'are' के स्थान पर होगा क्योंकि मुख्य sub 'Romansticism' है जो singular sub है।
15. (b) जब दो subjects को 'as well as' से जोड़ा जाता है तब verb 1st subject के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होता है। 'Patience' singular subject है। अत: verb 'are' नहीं 'is' *(s.v.)* का प्रयोग करें।

16. (c) Were के स्थान पर 'was' का प्रयोग करें। जब दो subjects को 'with' के द्वारा जोड़ा जाता है, तो verb पहले sub के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होता है। 'Brother-in-law' singular subject है। अत: verb भी singular प्रयुक्त होगा।
17. (c) 'was' के स्थान पर 'were' का प्रयोग करें। अगर दो subjects को and से जोड़ा जाए और दोनों sub के पहले 'article' का प्रयोग हो, तो इसका अर्थ होगा अलग-अलग sub। अत: Plural verb का प्रयोग होगा।
18. (b) 'Either of .....' के बाद आने वाला noun/pronoun तो plural होता है, लेकिन उसके पश्चात आने वाला verb/pronoun singular होता है।
Either of the roads/ them leads to the park.
↓ ↓ ↓
Plural Plural Singular
Noun Pronoun Verb
19. (b) 'One of .....' के बाद भी उसी नियम का पालन करें जो 'Either of .....' पर लागू होता है।
(प्रश्न 20 की व्याख्या देखें)
यहीं नियम neither of ....., none of ...., any of ....., everyone of ....., each of ..... इत्यादि पर भी लागू होता है।
20. (b) 'were' को 'was' में परिवर्तित करें। यहाँ मुख्य sub 'shops' नहीं है बल्कि block है। हम अक्सर verb को नजदीकी sub से match कर देते है जो गलत है। verb के उस sub से match करना चाहिए जो वाक्य का मुख्य sub हो।
Block was
Singular Sub Singular Verb.
21. (c) The sum and substance' का अर्थ है 'सारांश'। अत: verb 'are' नहीं 'is' का प्रयोग करें। अगर दो या दो से अधिक subjects को 'and' से जोड़ा जाए लेकिन उनका तात्पर्य एक ही व्यक्ति, वस्तु अथवा भाव से हो तो verb भी singular form में होगा।
22. (a) 'Neither of' के स्थान पर 'none of' का प्रयोग करें। 'Neither of' का प्रयोग 'दो में से एक भी नहीं' के संदर्भ में होता है।
23. (c) 'Were' के स्थान पर 'was' का प्रयोग करें। 'Strain' singular है, अत: verb भी singular होगा।
24. (c) Everybody singular sub है। अत: singular pronoun 'his' का प्रयोग करें।
25. (b) 'Their' के स्थान पर 'her' का प्रयोग करें। 'Every woman' singular subject है। अत: pronoun भी singular होगा।
26. (b) 'Neither of P.N./P.P .....' के बाद verb/pronoun इत्यादि singular होगा। 'Their' के स्थान पर 'his' का प्रयोग करें।
27. (b) 'Each one' के साथ 'his' का प्रयोग करें।
28. (b) 'One of ....' के साथ singular verb का प्रयोग करें। 'Take' के बदले 'takes' का प्रयोग होता। परन्तु वाक्य Past Tense में है। अत: 'took' का प्रयोग करें।
29. (b) Verb 'have' (Plural verb) के स्थान पर 'has' (singular verb) का प्रयोग करें।
30. (a) 'One of .....' के साथ Plural noun 'writers' का प्रयोग करें। 'believes' के स्थान पर 'believe' का प्रयोग करें।
31. (b) 'Which' का antecedent 'perculiarities' है जो Plural noun है। अत: Which के बाद आने वाला verb plural होगा। Distinguishes' को 'distinguish' में परिवर्तित करें
32. (b) 'Neither of .....' के साथ singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'are' का।
33. (a) 'Ten miles' एक Plural संख्या है जिसका प्रयोग Singular unit के रूप में हो रहा है। अत: singular

verb 'is' का प्रयोग होगा।

34. (b) If के साथ 'was' का प्रयोग कभी नहीं होता। 'were' का प्रयोग करें।
35. (b) 'Those' relative pronoun 'who' का antecedent है। who के बाद आने वाला verb those (Pl. Sub) के अनुकूल होगा। Believes (S.V.) के स्थान पर believe (P.V.) का प्रयोग करें।
36. (b) Was the स्थान पर Plural verb 'were' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि committee में मतभेद है।
37. (c) 'is' के स्थान पर 'are' का प्रयोग होगा। क्योंकि मुख्य sub 'funds' plural noun है।
38. (c) 'Hyenas' plural noun है। अत: Plural verb 'were' का प्रयोग 'Hyenas' के पहले करें।
39. (c) जब दो subjects को 'Neither ..... Nor' से जोड़ा जाता है तो verb नजदीकी sub के अनुसार प्रयोग होता है। अत: 'were' नहीं 'was' का प्रयोग करें।
40. (b) The type, (singular sub) के अनुसार verb 'depends' (singular verb) का प्रयोग होना चाहिए।
41. (b) अगर दो sub को 'or' से जोड़ा जाए तो verb nearest sub के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होना चाहिए। 'failure' के अनुसार verb 'depends' होना चाहिए।
42. (b) 'One of .....' के साथ 'noun' plural होता है। 'Boys' का प्रयोग करें।
43. (b) Many old timers के साथ plural verb 'were' का प्रयोग होगा। There के बाद 'was' नहीं 'were' का प्रयोग करें।
44. (c) Which का antecedent 'variety' (Singular noun) है। इसके साथ singular verb 'invades' का प्रयोग करें।
45. (b) 'Many a' के साथ noun, pronoun एवं verb singular form में प्रयोग किये जाते है। 'have' के स्थान पर 'has' एवं 'their' के स्थान पर 'his' का प्रयोग करें।
46. (b) 'Was' के स्थान पर 'were' का प्रयोग करें। क्योंकि 'dozens' (Plural sub) के साथ were (plural verb) का प्रयोग होगा।
47. (b) 'is' के स्थान पर 'are' का प्रयोग करें। इस वाक्य में 'verb' का प्रयोग sub (Himalayas) के पहले हो रहा है। ऐसे वाक्य में Confusion हो सकता है। लेकिन वाक्य के अर्थ से ये स्पष्ट है कि India के लिए 'is seen' का प्रयोग नहीं हो रहा बल्कि Himalayas के लिए हो रहा है। 'Himalayas' के साथ 'is seen' नहीं 'are seen' का प्रयोग होगा।
48. (b) Body, group, class इत्यादि के साथ singular verb का प्रयोग होगा। अत: 'have' के स्थान पर 'has' का प्रयोग करें।
49. (a) यहाँ verb 'appears' (s.v.) के स्थान पर 'appear' (p.v.) का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि sub (a number of problems) plural form में है।
50. (a) 'Shingles' form में plural है लेकिन अर्थ में singular। अत: singular verb 'is' का प्रयोग करें।
51. (c) 'are' के स्थान पर 'is' का प्रयोग करें। क्योंकि निर्णय का विषय (विवाह) एक ही मुद्दा है।
52. (b) 'makes' को 'make' में परिवर्तित करें।
53. (a) 'Many a' के साथ 'man' का प्रयोग होगा।
54. (b) 'makes' को 'make' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Perquisites' plural noun है।
55. (c) 'are' को 'is' में परिवर्तित करें।

7 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

CHAPTER

➢ जब **एक कार्य का होना दूसरे कार्य के होने पर निर्भर** करे तब वाक्य **conditional sentence** कहलाता है।

जैसे: आप सफल होंगे **बशर्ते** आप मेहनत करे तो।

You will succeed **provided** you work hard.

➢ ऊपर दिये गये वाक्य में सफल होना कड़ी मेहनत पर निर्भर कर रहा है।

➢ Conditional Sentences में नीचे दिए गये कुछ **शर्तसूचक शब्द** अवश्य दिखते है।

1. **अगर .....तो**
   If.....,
   .....
2. **वशर्ते**
   provided
3. **जैसे ही.....वैसे ही**
   as soon as.....,
   no sooner.....than
4. **जब .....तब**
   when .....,
5. **जबतक .....तब तक**
   Unless.....,
   Until.....,

Conditional Sentence के दो भाग होते हैं-

1. **If Clause**
2. **Main Clause**

Conditional Sentences मुख्यत: **तीन प्रकार** के होते हैं-

A. **'If clause' in present tense.**
B. **'If clause' in past tense.**
C. **'If clause' in past perfect tense.**
D. **Other types of conditional sentences.**

A. 'IF CLAUSE' IN PRESENT TENSE

General Formula— **If + Simple Present, Simple Future**

➢ ऐसे Conditional Sentences में **'If Clause' Simple Present में** होता है और **'Main Clause' simple future में** होता है।

अगर मैं दिल्ली आऊँगा तो आपसे मिलूँगा।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\text{If I will come to Delhi}}_{\text{I}^{st}\text{ action}}$, $\underbrace{\text{I will meet you}}_{\text{II}^{nd}\text{ action}}$. (×)

If I come to Delhi, I will meet you. (✓)

➢ अगर **दो कार्य भविष्य में एक के बाद एक** हो और **दूसरे कार्य का होना पहले कार्य के होने पर निर्भर** करे तो **पहला कार्य Simple Present Tense में** होगा और **दूसरा Simple Future Tense में**।

नीचे दिए गयें कुछ उदाहरण देखें:-

1. She will come to meet you as soon as you will reach Delhi. (×)
   She will come to meet you **as soon as** you reach Delhi. (✓)
2. If the government will become strict, corruption will surely finish. (×)
   If the government becomes strict, corruption will surely finish. (✓)
3. I will help him provided he will mend his ways. (×)
   I will help him **provided** he mends his ways. (✓)
4. Unless he will not take care of his health, he will not recover. (×)
   Unless he takes care of his health, he will not recover. (✓)
5. There will be rush at the platform when the train will arrive. (×)
   There will be rush at the platform **when** the train arrives. (✓)

➢ उपरोक्त वाक्यों में **If वाले भाग में will/shall/would का प्रयोग न** करें -

नोट: नीचे दिये गये शब्द देखे, इनके तुरंत बाद sub + will / shall का प्रयोग नहीं होना चाहिए।

If, as soon as, provided, before, after, until, unless, in case, when, lest.

1. **Unless or until के साथ not का भी प्रयोग नहीं** होता। (वाक्य 4 देखें)
2. Conditional Sentences में **when के बाद will/shall का प्रयोग नहीं** होगा। (वाक्य 5 देखें)

➢ लेकिन अगर **वाक्य पूर्णतः वर्तमान का हो तो 'Main Clause' Simple Present में भी** हो सकता है।

जैसे: 1. If it rains, the schools remain closed.

➢ अगर **वाक्य संभावना का हो तो 'will' के स्थान पर may/might का प्रयोग** होगा।

जैसे: 1. If it rains, the students **may** not come for class.
2. If the fog remains, the plane **may** get late.

➢ अगर **वाक्य अनुमति देता हो तो 'will' के स्थान पर 'May' का प्रयोग** हो सकता है।

जैसे: 1. If you finish your work, you **may** go home.

➢ अगर **वाक्य में सलाह/उपदेश हो तो 'will' के स्थान पर should/must का प्रयोग** करें।

जैसे: 1. If you want to remain healthy, you **should** exercise daily.
2. If you do not know him, you **must** not open the door.

➢ अगर **वाक्य शिष्टाचार संबंधित निवेदन का हो तो could, may इत्यादि का जरूरतानुसार प्रयोग** करें।

जैसे: 1. If you meet him, **could** you tell him to call me up?
2. If you come to Delhi, **would** you come to meet me?

➢ **'If' clause में simple present tense के स्थान पर present continuous tense भी** आ सकता है।

जैसे: 1. If you are waiting for the bus, you **should** better take a taxi.
2. If you are not reading the newspaper, you **should** let others read it.

➢ **'If' Clause में Present perfect tense का भी प्रयोग** हो सकता है।

जैसे: 1. If you have finished the work, you **may** leave.

2. If they have bought tickets, they **will** surely go to see the movie.

PAST CONDITIONAL

B. 'IF' CLAUSE IN PAST TENSE

General Formula— **If + Simple Past, Subject + would+ V_1**

जैसे: If I had money, I would lend it to you.

➢ ऐसे वाक्य '**improbability**' व्यक्त करते हैं यानि '**If clause' में जिस कार्य का उल्लेख है वह नहीं हुआ**।

➢ उपरोक्त वाक्य में **If I had money** से ये स्पष्ट है कि पैसे नहीं थे।

C. 'IF' CLAUSE IN PAST PERFECT TENSE

General Formula— **If + Past Perfect, Sub + would + have + V_3**

जैसे: If I had seen you, I would have stopped my car.

➢ ऐसे वाक्य में '**If clause**' में जिस कार्य का उल्लेख होता है उस कार्य का न होना दर्शाया जाता है। यानि '**If I had seen you**' से तात्पर्य है कि '**I had not seen you.**'

➢ ऐसे वाक्यों में '**If' को 'had' से replace किया जा सकता है**। तब Formula होगा-

Had + Subject + V_3+ obj, Subject + would + have + V_3

जैसे: Had I seen you, I would have stopped my car.

THREE IMPORTANT FORMULAE

- **If + Present Indefinite** , **Simple Future**
- **If + S + had + V_3** , **S + would + have + V_3**
- **If + S + V_2** , **S + would + V_1**

D. OTHER TYPES OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

(i) काल्पकि पद

General Formula— **If + subject + were, subject + would + V_1**

जैसे: If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky.

➢ **काल्पनिक पद (Post) के लिए सभी subjects के साथ 'were' का प्रयोग** किया जाता है।

नीचे दिए गये शब्दों के साथ '**was**' का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता है।

If, as though, in case, as if, would that एवं I wish.

Ex. He scolded me as if he was my father. (×)

He scolded me **as if** he **were** my father.(✓)

(ii) **'If' Clause में हम 'Unless' so long, as soon as, when, provided, suppose, in case, but , for इत्यादि का भी प्रयोग कर** सकते हैं।

जैसे: (1) **Unless** you work hard, you will not pass.

नोट: **Unless के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।** Unless you work hard से हमारा तात्पर्य है 'If you do not work hard.' यानि '**Unless + affirmative = If + negative.**

2. I shall support him **so long as** I am alive.
3. **As soon as** the train comes, there will be rush for seats.
4. **When** he comes to Delhi, I will go to meet him.

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) If he came to me / (b) I would have given/ (c) him my car. / (d) No error
2. (a) Had he invited me / (b) I would have attended / (c) the function. / (d) No error
3. (a) If he had called me up (b) I would inform/ (c) him ./ (d) No error
4. (a) If he will work hard / (b)/ he will surely / (c) get the job of his choice. / (d) No error
5. (a) Unless I do not / (b) see his ticket, / (c) I will not let him sit here. / (d) No error
6. (a) Before the police will come / (b) You should better / (c) get the anticipatory bail. / (d) No error
7. (a) We will come to know the truth / (b) after / (c) the investigation finished. / (d) No error
8. (a) Until the train will not get the signal , (b) it will not / (c) leave the platform. / (d) No error
9. (a) If I had money/ (b) I will have lent / (c) it to her. / (d) No error
10. (a) If I was you/ (b) I would not tolerate him / (c) for a moment. / (d) No error
11. (a) Suppose she does not agree/ (b)what could/ (c) we do ? / (d) No error
12. (a) Supposing if you do not reach / (b) the station in time,/ (c) what will you do? / (d) No error
13. (a) If you saw a tiger / (b) what will your / (c) reaction be?/ (d) No error
14. (a) If I had two houses, / (b) I would have given / (c) one to you./ (d) No error
15. (a) If we will heat dry ice / (b) it turns / (c) to vapour. / (d) No error
16. (a) "Suppose if you are / (b) late, you will be / (c) in trouble." / (d) No error.

17. (a) Unless / (b) he will not understand the concept/ (c) he will not be able to solve the questions. / (d) No error
18. (a) If he tried again,/ (b) he can pass the exam/ (c) with flying colours. / (d) No error
19. (a) I will wait for you / (b) unless / (c) you come. / (d) No error
20. (a) If I was you / (b) I would teach/ (c) him a lesson. / (d) No error
21. (a) If I were the Prime Minister of India / (b) I will work for the / (c) welfare of the poor. / (d) No error
22. (a) If she would have come to me / (b) I would have given her the / (c) money she needed / (d) No error
23. (a) If he drove fast/ (b) he can reach the station / (c) in time / (d) No error
24. (a) If I was a millionaire/ (b) I would support / (c) the millinium project / (d) No error
25. (a) If both of you stood / (b) on the table/ (c) it would have broken/ (d) No error
26. (a) If she would have worked hard , / (b) she would / (c) have passed. / (d) No error
27. (a) If you had seen me, / (b) you should have stopped your car / (c) and come to help me. / (d) No error
28. (a) If the Government will make strict law/ (b) the law and order situation / (c) will improve. / (d) No error
29. (a) But for his help / (b) the patient would / (c) have died. / (d) No error
30. (a) But for his prompt action / (b) many people would/ (c) have lost their savings. / (d) No error
31. (a) I will not come / (b) in case / (c) it will rain. / (d) No error
32. (a) Had the river overflown its bank,/ (b) flood would / (c) have come. / (d) No error
33. (a) Had I known him, / (b) I would allow him / (c) to enter my house. / (d) No error
34. (a) You will not get well / (b) unless you will not / (c) follow the doctor's instructions. / (d) No error
35. (a) Supposing if he refuses / (b) to meet you, / (c) what will you do? / (d) No error
36. (a) I shall take you for a long drive /(b) after you /(c) will return from the meeting. / (d) No error
37. (a) When you complete your service / (b) you will be / (c) retired on pension / (d) No error
38. (a) Were she I, / (b) she will not allow/ (c) you to go anywhere at this time of crisis./ (d) No error
39. (a) I told her when / (b) she came to Delhi,/ (c) I would show her all historical monuments. / (d) No error
40. (a) You can scale this high peak, / (b) provided you/ (c) will wear the right kind of shoes. / (d) No error
41. (a) Had you / (b) worked hard/ (c) you will have passed./ (d) No error
42. (a) When I shall see him/ (b) I shall/ (c) tell him/ (d) No error.
43. (a) He will tell you/ (b) about it when/ (c) he will come back/ (d) No error.
44. (a) When I will get back/ (b) I shall pay back/ (c) the money that I borrowed/ (d) from you last month

45. (a) I will/ (b) meet him/ (c) when he will come./ (d) No error.
46. (a) Had I realized/ (b) your house was such a long way off, / (c) I would take a taxi./ (d) No error.

Answers with Explanation

1. (a); 'If he had come' का प्रयोग करें।
2. (d);
3. (b); 'I would have informed' का प्रयोग करें। अगर 'if cluase' sub + had + v_3 हो तो main clause 'sub + would + have + v_3' में होना चाहिए।
4. (a); 'If he works hard' का प्रयोग करें। 'If clause' में will नहीं आता है।
5. (a); 'do not' हटा दें। 'Unless के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
6. (a); 'Before the police come' का प्रयोग करें। 'Before' के बाद 'will/ shall' का प्रयोग गलत है।
7. (c); 'the investigation has finished' का प्रयोग करें।
8. (a); 'Until the train gets' का प्रयोग करें। 'Until' के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
9. (b); 'will have lent' को 'would lend' में परिवर्तित करें। 'If clause' past tense में है। अत: 'main clause' भी past tense में होगा।
10. (a); 'If I were you' का प्रयोग करें। 'If clause' में 'was' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। काल्पनिक वाक्यों में सभी 'subjects' के साथ 'were' का प्रयोग होता है।
11. (b); 'could' को 'can' में परिवर्तित करें। 'If clause' present tense में है। अत: main clause भी present tense में होगा।
12. (a); 'Supposing' एवं 'if' का प्रयोग एक साथ न करें। दोनों का अर्थ एक है।
13. (b); 'will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें। (प्रश्न 9 की व्याख्या देखें)
14. (b); 'I would give' का प्रयोग करें। (प्रश्न 1 की व्याख्या देखें)
15. (a); 'will' हटा दें। (प्रश्न 4 की व्याख्या देखें)
16. (a); 'Supposing' एवं 'if' का प्रयोग एक साथ न करें। दोनों का अर्थ एक है।
17. (b); 'he understands' का प्रयोग करें। (प्रश्न 5 की व्याख्या देखें)
18. (b); 'Can' को 'Could' में परिवर्तित करें क्योंकि 'If clause' past tense में है।
19. (b); 'Unless' को 'Until' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Until' 'समय सूचक' होता है और 'Unless' 'शर्त सूचक'।
20. (a); 'Was' के स्थान पर 'were' का प्रयोग करें। (प्रश्न 10 की व्याख्या देखें)
21. (b); 'Will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें। (प्रश्न 9 की व्याख्या देखें)
22. (a); 'If she had come to me' सही प्रयोग होगा।

    Formula → If + Sub + had + V_3, Sub. + would + have + V_3
23. (b); 'Can' को 'Could' में परिवर्तित करें।
24. (a); 'Was' को 'were' में परिवर्तित करें। (प्रश्न 10 की व्याख्या देखें)
25. (c); 'it would break' का प्रयोग करें।

    Formula → If + Sub + V_2, Sub. + would + V_1

26. (a); 'If she had worked hard' का प्रयोग करें (प्रश्न 22 देखें)
27. (d);
28. (a); 'If the government makes' का प्रयोग होगा। (प्रश्न 4 की व्याख्या देखें)
29. (d); यहाँ 'but' का अर्थ है 'without'.
30. (d);
31. (c); 'it rains' का प्रयोग करें।
32. (a); 'overflow' का V_3 'overflowed' होता है।
33. (b); 'I would have allowed him' का प्रयोग करें। (प्रश्न 3 की व्याख्या देखें)
34. (b); 'Unless' के साथ 'will' एवं 'not' का प्रयोग न करें। 'Unless you follow' सही प्रयोग होगा।
35. (a); 'Supposing' एवं 'If' में से एक को हटा दें।
36. (c); 'will return' को 'have returned' में परिवर्तित करें।
37. (a); 'when you have completed your service' सही प्रयोग होगा।
38. (b); 'will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें।
39. (a); 'I told her' के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग करें।
40. (c); 'will' हटा दें।
41. (c); 'will' को 'would' में परिवर्तित करें।
42. (a); 'when I see him' सही 'formation' होगा।
43. (c); 'he will come' को 'he comes' में परिवर्तित करें।
44. (a); 'when I will get back' के स्थान पर 'when I get back' का प्रयोग करें।
45. (c); 'when he will come' के स्थान पर 'when he comes' का प्रयोग करें।
46. (c); 'I would take' को 'I would have taken' में परिवर्तित करें।

8 VERB (*ADVANCE*)

CHAPTER

KINDS OF VERB

1. **FINITE VERBS**
2. **Non-Finite Verbs**
3. **Transitive Verbs**
4. **INTRANSITIVE VERBS**

1. FINITE VERBS: Finite Verbs का एक Sub होता है और ये **Subject की संख्या एवं Person के अनुसार** प्रयुक्त होते हैं।

जैसे: He is **playing**.
They are **playing**.

2. NON-FINITE VERBS: Non-Finite Verbs **किसी Person या संख्या से limited नहीं** होते हैं।

जैसे: I like **watching** television.
She wants **to go** abroad.

NON-FINITE VERBS:- तीन प्रकार के होते है-

(A) INFINITIVE
(B) GERUND
(C) PARTICIPLE

(A) INFINITIVE: 'to + V_1' Infinitive **एक प्रकार का noun है जिसमें verb के भी गुण होते हैं**। अत: हम infinitive को **verb-noun** भी कह सकते है।

जैसे: 1. **To err** is human
2. I want **to study**
3. I want **to study** English.

ऊपर दिए गये वाक्य देखें-

वाक्य (1) में **'to err' (to + V_1) subject के रूप में** प्रयुक्त हैं।

वाक्य (2) में **'to study' (to + V_1) object के रूप में** प्रयुक्त हैं।

वाक्य (3) में **'to study'** want (verb) का object है लेकिन अगर 'English' को object के रूप में लिया जाए तो **'to study' verb** का कार्य कर रहा है।

➢ अत: **'to + V_1' को हम noun एवं verb दोनों के रूप में** प्रयुक्त कर सकते हैं।

(B) GERUND: 'V_1 + ing' Gerund एक प्रकार का verb है जो **'ing' में खत्म** होता है और जिसमें **noun के भी गुण** होते है।

जैसे: 1. **Swimming** is a good exercise.
2. I learnt **driving**.
3. I love **watching** television.

ऊपर दिए गये वाक्य देखें-

वाक्य (1) में **'Swimming' (V_1 + ing) subject के रूप में** प्रयुक्त है ।

वाक्य (2) में **'driving' (V_1 + ing) object के रूप में** प्रयुक्त है ।

वाक्य (3) में **'watching'** love (verb) का object है लेकिन अगर television को object के रूप में लिया जाए तो **'watching' verb** का कार्य कर रहा है। अत: **'V_1 + ing'** को हम **'noun' एवं 'verb' दोनों के रूप में** प्रयुक्त कर सकते हैं।

नोट: कई **Verbs/adjective/phrase** के बाद **'to'** का प्रयोग होता है। यहाँ 'to' के बाद 'V_1' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा बल्कि **'V_1 + ing'** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: **Verb + used to, accustomed to, averse to, with a view to, addicted to, devoted to, in addition to, look forward to, object to, owing to, given to, taken to, prone to.**

जैसे: 1. He is **addicted to** smoking.
2. I am **looking forward to** meeting you.
3. He was **used to** driving on the right when he was in London.

➢ दूसरे शब्दो में कहा जाए तो अगर कोई **Phrasal verb 'to' में खत्म हो तो उसके बाद 'V_1' नहीं, 'V_1 + ing' का प्रयोग** करें।

जैसे: (a) I am looking forward to $\underbrace{\text{meeting}}_{V_1+ing}$ you.

(b) He is given to $\underbrace{\text{drinking}}_{V_1+ing}$.

(c) He is prone to $\underbrace{\text{making}}_{V_1+ing}$ the same mistake again and again.

(d) He got used to $\underbrace{\text{driving}}_{V_1+ing}$ on the right when he was in London.

लेकिन **modals में 'used to' के बाद V_1** का प्रयोग होता है।

(e) I used to $\underbrace{\text{drive}}_{V_1}$ on the right.

वाक्य d एवं e के बीच का अंतर:

Sentence (d)		Sentence (e)	
(1)	अगर used to के पहले verb हो तो used to के बाद V_1+ing लगायें	(1)	अगर used to के पहले verb नहीं हो तो used to के बाद V_1 लगायें।
(2)	ये आदतन् क्रिया को दर्शाता है।	(2)	ये past के routine action को दर्शाता है।
(3)	ये किसी भी tense में हो सकते हैं और Used to के पहले आने वाला verb वाक्य के tense का निर्धारण करता है।	(3)	ये सिर्फ Past tense में होंगें

(C) PARTICIPLE: जो शब्द '**verb**' एवं '**adjective**' दोनों का कार्य करें वह **Participle** है।

(i) PRESENT PARTICIPLE (V_1 + ING)

जैसे: 1. **Hearing** the noise, we rushed out of the restaurant.

2. **Thinking** all is well, he went to bed.

➢ ऊपर दिए गए दोनों वाक्यों में '**V_1 + ing**' का प्रयोग किसी घटना को **incomplete या होता हुआ** दर्शाने के लिए हो रहा है। यह

'**V_1 + ing**' **Present Participle** है।

(ii) PAST PARTICIPLE (V_3)

जैसे: 1. **Driven** by poverty, he committed suicide.

2. **Deceived** by his best friend, he was left in the lurch.

➢ ऊपर दिए गए दोनों वाक्यों में '**V_3**' का प्रयोग किसी घटना को **Complete** दर्शाने के लिए किया गया है। इस '**V_3**' **form** को **Past Participle** कहते हैं।

(iii) PERFECT PARTICIPLE (HAVING V_3)

जैसे: 1. **Having done** with it, they got down to work.

2. **Having rested**, they started their journey again.

➢ ऊपर दिए गये दोनों वाक्यों में किसी कार्य को **भूतकाल में ही Complete** होता दर्शाया गया है। ऐसा करने के लिए '**having + V_3**' यानि **Perfect Participle** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

3. TRANSITIVE VERB- जब वाक्य में **क्रिया के बाद एक कर्म (obj.) की आवश्यकता पड़े** तो क्रिया **transitive verb** कहलाता है।

जैसे: 1. I $\underbrace{\text{write}}_{\text{V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{essay}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

2. Children $\underbrace{\text{fly}}_{\text{V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{kites}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

4. INTRANSITIVE VERB- जब वाक्य में **क्रिया के बाद कर्म (obj.) की आवश्यकता न पड़े** तो क्रिया **intransitive verb** कहलाता है।

जैसे: Birds $\underbrace{\text{fly}}_{\text{v}}$.

She $\underbrace{\text{slept}}_{\text{v}}$.

नोट: अगर verb transitive (t.v.) होता है तो verb के उल्लेख मात्र से **'क्या'** जैसे सवाल उठते है।

जैसे: 1. He killed (क्या?)

He $\underbrace{\text{killed}}_{\text{t.v.}}$ a $\underbrace{\text{rabbit}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

2. I helped (किसे ?)

I $\underbrace{\text{helped}}_{\text{t.v.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

CAUSATIVE VERB

➢ **Have, Get** एवं **Make** का प्रयोग **'Causative verb'** के रूप में किया जाता है। सामान्यत: कर्त्ता (sub) किसी क्रिया (verb) को क्रम (obj.) पर करता है।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\text{He}}_{\text{Sub.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{helps}}_{\text{Verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{the poor}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

➢ लेकिन जब **'sub' ही verb को experience** करे यानि **क्रिया का फल क्रम पर न पड़ कर कत्ता पर पड़े** तो Causative verb का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. He got caught.
2. The environment gets polluted due to our ignorance.

➢ कई बार वाक्य से ये तात्पर्य निकलता है कि **कर्त्ता किसी कार्य को करता नहीं बल्कि कराता है** यानि यहाँ **S_1 (कार्य करने वाला) एवं S_2 (कार्य कराने वाला का)** प्रत्यक्ष अथवा अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से मौजूद होते हैं।

जैसे: 1. $\underbrace{\text{I}}_{S_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{made}}_{\text{'Make' according to tense}}$ $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{S_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{do}}_{V_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{the whole work}}_{\text{obj.}}$.

2. $\underbrace{\text{We}}_{S_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{got}}_{\text{'Get' according to tense}}$ $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{\text{obj.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{arrested}}_{V_3}$ by the $\underbrace{\text{police}}_{S_1}$.

3. $\underbrace{\text{Have}}_{\text{'Have' according to tense}}$ $\underbrace{\text{the box}}_{\text{obj.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{opened}}_{V_3}$.

4. $\underbrace{\text{We}}_{S_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{have to make}}_{\text{'make' according to tense}}$ $\underbrace{\text{the system}}_{S_1}$ $\underbrace{\text{work}}_{V_1}$.

5. $\underbrace{\text{I}}_{S_2}$ $\underbrace{\text{cannot get}}_{\text{'get' according to tense}}$ $\underbrace{\text{your work}}_{\text{obj.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{done}}_{V_3}$ by $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{S_1}$.

नोट: Make/Have एवं Get के प्रयोग के बीच का अंतर:

1. **Get/Have** के प्रयोग के बाद **S_1 का उल्लेख by + S_1 के form** में होता है। लेकिन **Passive voice के तरह ही S_1 का प्रयोग किया भी जा सकता है और नहीं भी।**
   Make के बाद **S_1** का प्रयोग करना आवश्यक होता है।
2. **Get/Have** के बाद **V_3** का प्रयोग होता है।
   Make के बाद **V_1** का प्रयोग होता है।

➢ वाक्य में **'Get'/'Have'** एवं **'Make' tense के अनुसार परिवर्तित** होते हैं।

Verb का प्रयोग विभिन्न Pattern में हो सकता है। नीचे दिए गये कुछ patterns में verb का प्रयोग देखें-

PATTERN - 1

Subject + Verb

➢ ये **'Verb'** के प्रयोग का सब से साधारण Pattern है। ऐसे sentence formation में **sub के बाद अकर्मक क्रिया (intransitive verb)** का प्रयोग होता है। **वाक्य का अर्थ किसी कर्म (object) के बिना भी स्पष्ट होता है।** इस sentence pattern to **passive voice में परिवर्तित नहीं** किया जा सकता है।

S.N	Subject	Verb
1.	Birds	fly.
2.	The moon	is shining
3.	The baby	is sleeping.
4.	I	was going

PATTERN - 2

Subject + verb + subject complement

➢ ऐसे 'sentence form' में complement या तो Noun होता है, या pronoun या फिर adjective. इस sentence pattern को भी **passive voice में परिवर्तित नहीं** किया जा सकता है।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Subject Complement
1.	This	is	a pen.
2.	It	is	I
3.	He	looks	happy.
4.	My father	got	angry.

PATTERN - 3

Subject + verb + direct object

➢ कई **'verbs' सकर्मक क्रिया (transitive verb)** होते हैं। **Transitive verbs के बाद object का उल्लेख होना जरूरी** होता है वर्ना वाक्य का अर्थ स्पष्ट नहीं होता।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Direct Object
1.	I	know	him.
2.	She	opened	the door.
3.	You	should help	yourself.

PATTERN - 4

Subject+verb + indirect object + direct object

➢ जब वाक्य में **दो 'objects'** हो, तो **Indirect object** (जो सामान्यत: सजीव होता है) **का उल्लेख पहले** होता है और **फिर direct object** का।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Indirect Object	Direct Object
1.	I	gave	her	my book.
2.	I	bought	her	a purse
3.	He	showed	me	his notes.

PATTERN - 5

Subject + verb + direct object + preposition + prepositional object

➢ अगर pattern 4 को हम इस तरह परिवर्तित करना चाहे कि **direct object** का उल्लेख पहले हो तो **direct object** के बाद एक **preposition** का प्रयोग होगा और फिर **indirect object** का।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Direct Object	Preposition	Prepositional object
1.	I	gave	my book	to	her.
2.	I	bought	a purse	for	her.
3.	He	showed	his notes	to	me and my friends.

➢ कोई verbs का प्रयोग pattern 4 एवं 5 दोनों में किया जा सकता है। **Pattern 5 का प्रयोग ज्यादा उचित होता है अगर direct object कम महत्त्वपूर्ण हो या फिर indirect object ज्यादा लम्बा हो।**

PATTERN - 6

Subject + verb + noun/ pronoun + adjective

➢ ऐसे sentence form में **adjective उस अवस्था को दर्शाता है जो क्रिया के वजह से हुआ** या फिर **noun एवं adjective को मिला के object** बनाया जाता है।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Direct Object	Adjective
1.	He	pushed	the door	open.
2.	She	washed	the plates	clean.
3.	I	like	my tea	strong.

➢ इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले verbs है- **get, keep, beat, drive, make, paint, leave, turn, find, like, wish.**

PATTERN - 7

Subject + verb + preposition + prepositional object.

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Preposition	Prepositional object
1.	This car	belongs	to	me.
2.	She	met	with	an accident.
3.	He	succeeded	in	his attempt.

PATTERN - 8

Subject + verb + to-infinitive (as object of the verb)

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Infinitive
1.	She	wants	to sleep.
2.	He	forgot	to take his medicine.
3.	I	hoped	to pass the exam.

- इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले verbs हैं- **like, love, prefer, begin, start, agree, try, attempt, choose, continue, intend, propose, desire, wish, want, hate, dislike, hope, expect, promise, fear, remember, forget, offer, learn.**

PATTERN - 9

Subject + verb + noun/ pronoun + infinitive.

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Infinitive + etc.
1.	I	want	you	to help him.
2.	The doctor	advised	him	to rest.
3.	I	allowed	Rohit	to go.

- इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले मुख्य verb है- **ask, tell, order, command, persuade, encourage, urge, want, wish, request, intend, expect, force, tempt, teach, invite, help, warn, like, love, hate, allow, permit, remind, cause, mean, dare.**

PATTERN - 10

Subject + verb + gerund.

- इस pattern में **Gerund वाक्य के object का कार्य** करता है।

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Gerund, etc.
1.	She	started	singing.
2.	He	has finished	talking.
3.	I	love	teaching.

- इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले मुख्य शब्द है- **begin, start, love, like, hate, stop, finish, enjoy, prefer, fear, remember, forget, mind, miss, suggest, practice, try, understand, keep, help, advise, admit, avoid, consider, intend, delay, deny, detest, can't help, rest, defer, worth, risk , it is noun/good, propose, regret, anticipate.**

PATTERN - 11

Subject + verb + noun/ pronoun + present participle.

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Present Participle
1.	I	saw	him	crossing the bridge.
2.	I	heard	him	shouting
3.	You	kept	me	waiting

- इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले verbs है- **see, hear, smell, feel, watch, notice, find, observe, listen, get, catch, keep, leave, set, start.**

PATTERN - 12

Subject + verb + noun/ pronoun + plain infinitive.

tSs%

S.N.	Subject	Verb	Noun/ Pronoun	Plain Infinitive
1.	I	will not let	you	go
2.	We	made	him	finish the work.
3.	I	bade	the boy	leave the room.

➢ इस pattern में प्रयुक्त होने वाले मुख्य verbs है- **see, watch, notice, observe, hear, listen, feel, make, let, help, bid.**

VERB ds dqN IMPORTANT RULES ftu ls iz'u iwNs tkrs gSa%

1. (i) Being ill, I could not come. (✓)
   (ii) Being a rainy day, I could not come (×)
   (iii) Walking along the road, my pen fell down. (×)

(i) अगर पहले वाक्य में being के पहले किसी subject का उल्लेख नहीं हो तो 2nd भाग का sub 'I' पहले भाग का भी sub बन जाता है। और वाक्य (i) का अर्थ सही निकलता है।

(ii) अगर दूसरे वाक्य में 'being' के पहले sub 'it' का प्रयोग न किया जाए तो 'I', rainy day का भी sub बन जाता है और इससे वाक्य का अर्थ गलत हो जाता है। अत: **'It being a rainy day'** का प्रयोग करें।

(iii) इसी प्रकार तीसरे वाक्य में भी **walking के लिये उपयुक्त sub.** का प्रयोग करें अन्यथा 'my pen' पहले भाग का sub बन जायेगा।

अत: **'While I was walking along the road'** का प्रयोग करें।

2. (i) The girls watched intendly as the model applied her make-up with a practiced hand.(×)

किसी **क्रिया (Verb) का प्रयोग विशेषण (adjective) के रूप में किसी Noun की विशेषता बताने के लिये किया जाता है तो क्रिया 3rd form में ही होना चाहिये। अत: Practised (v) form का प्रयोग करें। 'Practice' noun है।**

अन्य उदाहरण: **Spoken** English
Revised edition
Written document

➢ उपरोक्त उदाहरण में **English, edition व document** संज्ञा **(Noun)** है जिनकी विशेषता बताने के लिए 'verb' का प्रयोग हो रहा है। अत: Verb **3rd form** में है।

➢ लेकिन अगर क्रिया **(Verb)** को जारी **(continuous)** अवस्था में दर्शाया जाये तो verb **'ing'** form में होना चाहिये।

जैसे: (i) **Rising** price.
(ii) **Developing** country.
(iii) **Steaming** cup of tea.

3. अगर क्रिया का प्रयोग noun form में किया जाये तो उसे **'ing form' (Gerund)/ 'to+V_1 form' (Infinitive)/** में होना चाहियें।

जैसे: (i) $\underbrace{\text{Smoking}}_{\text{obj}}$ is prohibited here.

(ii) $\underbrace{\text{Swimming}}_{\text{sub}}$ is a good exercise.

(iii) $\underbrace{\text{To err}}_{\text{Sub.}}$ is human.

4. क्रिया कैसे हुआ, ये adverb of manner बताता है और **adverb of manner सामान्यतः 'ly' में खत्म** होता है।

जैसे: (i) He $\underbrace{\text{works}}_{\text{Verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{honestly}}_{\text{Adv}}$.

(ii) He $\underbrace{\text{talks}}_{\text{Verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{politely}}_{\text{Adv}}$.

➢ अगर **verb हमारी पांचों इंद्रियों से सम्बंधित हो तो उसके बाद adverb नहीं, adjective का प्रयोग** करें।

जैसे: (i) He $\underbrace{\textbf{looks}}_{\textbf{Verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{honest}}_{\text{Adj}}$.

(ii) He $\underbrace{\textbf{sounds}}_{\textbf{Verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{polite}}_{\text{Adj}}$.

नीचे दिए गये सात क्रियाऐं verbs of sensation हैं-

Look, seem, sound, appear, smell, taste, feel

➢ **Verbs of sensation** के अलावा **be, become, turn, get, grow, keep** (रहना), **make** एवं **prove** को भी **adverbs** नहीं बल्कि **adjective modify** करते हैं।

जैसे: When he heard the news, he **became** $\underbrace{\text{sad}}_{\text{adj}}$.

5. We adapt to the environment. (×)
We **adapt ourselves** to the environment. (✓)

➢ Adapt के जैसे **कुछ ऐसे verbs होते है जिनके बाद एक Reflexive Pronoun का आना जरूरी** होता है।

ऐसे verbs की सूची-

Acquit (to do better than expected), absent, avail, reconcile (to accept a situation reluctantly), amuse, resign, avenge, enjoy, exert, apply (to work hard on something), adapt, adjust, pride

1. The officers **acquitted themselves** well during the crisis.
2. She has **reconciled herself** to the demands of her in laws.
3. The students **exert themselves** a lot at the time of examination.
4. You will have to **apply yourself** to this task whole heartedly.
5. I **pride myself** on being able to work smoothly under pressure too.
6. You should **avail yourself** of this opportunity.
7. He **resigned** himself to yet another day without food.

नोटः (1) They **enjoyed** the party. (reflexive pronoun की जरूरत नहीं है)
They **enjoyed** during vacation. ('themselves' का प्रयोग enjoyed' के बाद करें)

➢ **अगर enjoy के बाद object का उल्लेख हो तो reflexive pronoun न लगायें परन्तु अगर object का उल्लेख नहीं हो तो reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग करें।**

(2) He was **absent.** (✓)
He **absented** himself. (✓)

अगर **absent का प्रयोग verb के रूप में हो तभी reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग** करें।

नोट: (i) अगर '**acquit**' का अर्थ है **'बरी करना'** तो '**acquit' के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग न करें।**

जैसे: The court acquitted him.

➢ अगर '**acquit**' का अर्थ है **'व्यवहार करना'** तो '**acquit' के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग होगा।**

जैसे: He **acquitted himself** well during the riot.

➢ अगर '**recorncile**' का अर्थ है **'सुलह करना'** तो **reconcile के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।**

जैसे: I reconciled with him after the bitter argument.

➢ अगर '**reconcile**' का अर्थ है **'बेमन से ही सही पर स्वीकार कर लेना'** तो **reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग होगा।**

जैसे: He **reconciled himself** to the arrogant attitude of his boss.

➢ संक्षेप में कहा जाए तो अगर **sub ही क्रिया का receiver हो** तो **ऊपर दिए गये verbs के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग होगा।**

(b) (1) Keep yourself away from bad company. (×)
Keep away from bad company. (✓)
(2) He hid himself in the room. (Drop 'himself').

➢ keep के जैसे **कुछ ऐसे verbs होते है जिनके बाद Reflexive Pronoun का प्रयोग नहीं होता** है।

ऐसे verbs की सूची

Keep, stop, turn, qualify, bathe, move, rest, hide.

6. (i) I prefer tea than coffee. (×)
I **prefer** tea **to** coffee. (✓)
(ii) He invited me on/for tea. (×)
He **invited** me **to** tea. (✓)

➢ **Verb के बाद आने वाला preposition या तो fixed होता है या फिर किसी preposition का प्रयोग नहीं होता** है। verb के बाद आने वाला Preposition Hindi Translation के अनुसार नहीं होना चाहिये। (Preposition देखें)

7. (i) The poor had no bed to sleep **in.**
(ii) He had no pen to write **with.**
(iii) Do you have a chair to sit **on?**

➢ जब **किसी noun (bed, pen इत्यादि) को कोई infinitive (to sleep, to write इत्यादि) qualify करें**, तो '**infinitive' के बाद preposition (in, with इत्यादि) का प्रयोग** होता है।

8. (i) I have never and will never cheat you. (×)

I have never $\underbrace{\text{cheated}}_{V_3}$ and will never $\underbrace{\text{cheat}}_{V_1}$ you. (✓)

(ii) Nothing has or will be more tragic than his demise. (×)

Nothing has $\underbrace{\text{been}}_{V_3}$ or will $\underbrace{\text{be}}_{V_1}$ more tragic than his demise. (✓)

➢ अगर एक वाक्य में **एक verb के दो forms की जरूरत हो तो दोनों forms का प्रयोग करें।** हम एक form से काम नहीं चला सकते।

9. (i) If he was a millionaire, he would help the millennium project. (×)
   It he were a millionaire, he would help the millennium project. (✓)

➢ **काल्पिनिक** पद के लिये सभी sub के साथ **were** का प्रयोग करें।

10. (i) Long $\underbrace{\text{live}}_{\text{P.V.}}$ the $\underbrace{\text{king}}_{\text{S.S.}}$! (✓)

➢ **optative वाक्यों में singular subject के साथ भी plural verb का प्रयोग होता है।**

11. ऐसे **कई verbs है जिनके पहले article का प्रयोग करके उसे Noun का रूप दिया जाता है।**

जैसे: (i) He is $\underbrace{\text{walking}}_{\text{verb}}$.

(ii) He is going for a $\underbrace{\text{walk}}_{\text{noun}}$.

(iii) He $\underbrace{\text{rides}}_{\text{verb}}$ a horse.

(iv) He went for a $\underbrace{\text{ride}}_{\text{noun}}$.

12. अगर **अलग-अलग verb के साथ अलग-अलग preposition की जरूरत पड़े तो सभी preposition का प्रयोग** करें।

जैसे: (i) Amphibians can live **on** land and **in** water.
(ii) He was acquitted **of** and absolved **from** all the charges of corrution.

13. (i) I am having a car. (×)
   I have a car. (✓)

➢ कुछ ऐसे verbs होते है जिनका प्रयोग सामान्यत: 'ing' form में नहीं किया जा सकता।

<u>ऐसे verbs की सूची</u>

(1) Verbs of Perception- See, taste, smell, hear, prefer, please, notice, recognize.

(2) Verbs of Thinking Process- Think, know, mean, mind, remember, suppose.

(3) Verbs Showing Possession- Own, have, belong, comprise, possess, contain, consist.

(4) Verbs expressing Feeling or State of Mind- Believe, like, dislike, love, adore, want, wish, desire, hate, agree, trust, imagine.

(5) Verbs in General- Look, seem, appear, affect, resemble, cost, require, become, hope, refuse.

(विस्तार से जानकारी के लिए Tense में Continous भाग देखें)

14. (A) Adverb **'as'** का प्रयोग नीचे दिए गये verbs के साथ किया जा सकता है।
'regard, describe, define, treat, view, know'.
(B) Adverb **'as'** का प्रयोग नीचे दिए गये verbs के साथ **न** करें।
'name, elect, think, consider, call, appoint, make, choose.'

जैसे: 1. I **regard** him my brother. (Add 'as' after 'him')

2. Biology has been **defined** the study of organism. (Add 'as' after 'defined')
3. She is **considered** as the best student of my class. (Drop 'as' after 'considered')
4. The teacher **called** him as stupid. (Drop 'as')
5. The principal **appointed** him as a lecturer. (Remove 'as')
6. He **thinks** her as a fool. (Remove 'as')

15. अगर वाक्य में **'It is high time' या फिर 'it's time' का प्रयोग हो और उसके बाद 'sub' का उल्लेख हो तो sub के बाद 'V_2'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: It's high time you **did** something.

16. कई noun का प्रयोग एक निश्चित verb के साथ किया जाता है-

जैसे:

Have —	**take —**	**make —**	**अन्य उदाहरण**
lunch etc.	an exam	a demand	
a good time	advantage	a gesture	**Launch** scheme
a shower	an action	a noise	**Render** help
a dream	risk	a promise	**Impart** education
a conversation	your time	a request	
		a mistake	

17. **'To' के बाद 'V_1'** का प्रयोग होता है। परन्तु **अन्य सभी Prepositions के बाद अगर 'verb' का प्रयोग होता है तो verb 'v_1+ing' form** में होना चाहिए।

जैसे:
1. He is afraid **to** $\underbrace{\textbf{do}}_{V_1}$ anything against his boss.
2. He is afraid **of** $\underbrace{\textbf{going}}_{V_1+ing}$ out after sunset.

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) Walking along the road/ (b) a car knocked/ (c) him down./(d) No error.
2. (a) Having done my homework/ (b) my mother allowed me/ (c) to go out and play./(d) No error.
3. (a) Being a rainy day,/ (b) I had to cancel/ (c) all my appointments./ (d) No error.
4. (a) A few selfish leaders/ (b) are bent to harm/ (c) the very foundation of Democracy./ (d) No error.
5. (a) As I have worked hard,/ (b) I am confident to pass/ (c) with flying colours ./ (d) No error.
6. (a) We went to that place/ (b) with a view to help/ (c) the earthquake victims./ (d) No error.
7. (a) You should avoid/ (b) to go to school/ (c) as you have severe eye infection./ (d) No error.
8. (a) I have/ (b) no achievement/ (c) to boast./ (d) No error.
9. (a) One must avail of/ (b) every opportunity/ (c) that comes in life./ (d) No error.
10. (a) Have the letter/ (b) send/ (c) by someone who is trustworthy./ (d) No error.
11. (a) Would you please order/ (b) for tea and buiscuits/ (c) for all of us./ (d) No error.
12. (a) Everyone considered him as/ (b) a brave man/(c) but he fled from the battlefield./ (d) No error.

13. (a) My father does not mind/ (b) to be disturbed/ (c) while he is reading the newspaper./(d) No error.
14. (a) Perhaps you do not know/ (b) I am having a car and a jeep/ (c) besides a big house in a good locality./ (d) No error.
15. (a) The lawyer asked me/ (b) if it were worth to take/ (c) the matter to court./ (d) No error.
16. (a) I bade him/ (b) to submit all the important documents/ (c) before he left the job./ (d) No error.
17. (a) He thinks/ (b) himself/ (c) as a great scholar ./ (d) No error.
18. (a) All the candidates/ (b) will give/ (c) a test on Friday./ (d) No error.
19. (a) Mrs Dorai would rather/ (b) spend a quiet evening/ (c) than attending a party./ (d) No error.
20. (a) The audience/ (b) watched the clowns/ (c) performed their act ./ (d) No error.
21. (a) The life-guard would not/ (b) let the children/ (c) to swim at the deep end of the pool ./ (d) No error.
22. (a) He denied/ (b) to help/ (c) me./ (d) No error.
23. (a) Walking along the/ (b) bank of the river/ (c) the road began to rise./ (d) No error.
24. (a) It is time you/ (b) decide on your next/ (c) course of action ./ (d) No error.
25. (a) As I was feeling sleepy/ (b) I asked for/ (c) a steamed cup of tea./ (d) No error.
26. (a) I remember/ (b) meet him/ (c) five years ago./(d) No error.
27. (a) I have always/ (b) and will always/ (c) be faithful to you./ (d) No error.
28. (a) I am afraid/ (b) I did a mistake/ (c) in the calculation./ (d) No error.
29. (a) The lights went out/ (b) while we/ (c) took the examination./ (d) No error.
30. (a) His assistants have and/ (b) are still doing/ (c) excellent work for the organization./ (d) No error.
31. (a) After the teacher had told the boys/ (b) how to pronounce the word/ (c) all of them in one voice repeated the word again ./ (d) No error.
32. (a) The company is not doing well./ (b) Isn't it time you/ (c) sell off your shares in it?./ (d) No error.
33. (a) He caught the boy/ (b) steal/ (c) the parcel./ (d) No error.
34. (a) I declined the invitation/ (b) not because I did not want to go,/ (c) but because I have no time./ (d) No error.
35. (a) It is a known fact/ (b) that time does not return back/ (c) once it is lost./ (d) No error.
36. (a) Even after sixty years of independence/ (b) lakhs of people/ (c) do not have bed to sleep./ (d) No error.
37. (a) The dinosaurs could not/ (b) adapt to the/ (c) changing environment./ (d) No error.

38. (a) The students were/ (b) looking forward to/ (c) meet the eminent scientist./ (d) No error.
39. (a) The lady made the/ (b) little boy to wash/ (c) all the clothes./ (d) No error.
40. (a) We must get this letter/ (b) send/ (c) as soon as possible./ (d) No error.

Answers with explanation

1. (a) 'walking' के पहले 'while he was' जोड़े। ऐसा न करने पर 'a car' पहले verb का भी subject बन जाएगा यानि 'walking' का और फिर वाक्य का अर्थ गलत हो जाएगा।
2. (a) After I had done my homework' का प्रयोग करें। ऐसा न करने पर my mother पहले भाग (having done my homework) का भी subject बन जाएगा और वाक्य का अर्थ गलत हो जाएगा।
3. (a) 'Being' के पहले 'it' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 1 एवं 2 की व्याख्या देखें)
4. (b) 'Bent on harming' का प्रयोग 'bent to harm' के स्थान पर करें। 'Bent on' का अर्थ है 'determined to do' 'Bent on' के बाद 'harming' (V_1 + ing) का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि 'bend on' जैसे कुछ verbs/ phrases के बाद 'Gerund' (V_1 + ing) का प्रयोग होता है।
5. (b) 'Confident to pass' के स्थान पर 'Confident of passing' का प्रयोग करें। Confident के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग होता है और 'of' के बाद 'V_1 + ing' (Gerund) का।
6. (b) 'with a view to' के बाद 'V_1 + ing' का प्रयोग होता है। अत: 'help' के स्थान पर 'helping' का प्रयोग करें।
7. (b) 'to go' के स्थान पर 'going' का प्रयोग करें। 'Avoid' के बाद 'gerund (V_1 + ing)' का प्रयोग होता है।
8. (c) 'boast' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग करें। अगर 'noun' को कोई 'infinitive qualify' करता है तो 'infinitive' के बाद उपयुक्त preposition का प्रयोग होता है।
9. (a) 'Avail' के बाद एक 'reflexive pronoun' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ 'one' subject के रूप में प्रयुक्त हुआ है। अत: 'avail' के बाद 'oneself' का प्रयोग करें।
10. (b) 'Send' के स्थान पर V_3 'sent' का प्रयोग करें। 'Get' एवं 'Have' का प्रयोग अगर 'Causative Verb' के रूप में हो तो Main Verb 'V_3' form में होगा।

    Eg: Have it $\underbrace{\text{painted}}_{V_3}$.

    Get it $\underbrace{\text{done}}_{V_3}$.
11. (b) 'Order' के साथ 'for' का प्रयोग न करें।
12. (a) 'Considered' के साथ 'as' का प्रयोग करना गलत है। 'as' हटा दें। (Chapter adverb देखें)
13. (b) 'Mind' के बाद 'Gerund' का प्रयोग होगा। 'to be' के स्थान पर 'being' का प्रयोग करें।
14. (b) 'Have' का अर्थ अगर 'to possess' हो तो 'have' के साथ 'ing' का प्रयोग नहीं होता। 'I am having' के स्थान पर 'I have' का प्रयोग करें।
15. (b) 'worth' के बाद 'V_1 + ing' का प्रयोग करना सही होगा। 'worth taking' का प्रयोग करना सही होगा।
16. (b) 'bade' (bid का V_2) के बाद plain infinitive (V_1) का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'infinitive' (to + V_1) का। 'to' हटा दें।
17. (c) 'as' हटा दे। 'think' के साथ 'as' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
18. (b) हिन्दी में हम कहते है प्रत्याशी परीक्षा देंगे। इसका 'transtation' कर के English में कहते है 'Candidates

will give test'। ये गलत वाक्य है। 'Give' के स्थान पर 'take' का प्रयोग होगा।

19. (c) 'than' के बाद 'attend' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'would rather' के बाद भी verb 'V_1' form में है।
20. (c) 'watch' के बाद या तो 'gerund' (V_1 + ing) का प्रयोग होता है या फिर plain infinitive (V_1) का। 'Performed' के स्थान पर या तो 'performing' का प्रयोग करें या फिर 'perform' का।
21. (c) 'Let' के बाद V_1 का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'to + V_1' का। 'to' हटा दें।
22. (b) 'to help' के स्थान पर 'helping' का प्रयोग करें। 'Deny' के बाद 'gerund' का प्रयोग होता है।
23. (a) 'while I was' का प्रयोग 'walking along' के पहले करें (वाक्य 1 एवं 2 की व्याख्या देखें)
24. (b) 'decide' को 'decided' में परिवर्तित करें। 'It is time + sub' के बाद 'V_2' का प्रयोग होता है।
25. (c) 'steamed' से 'action complete' का आभास होता है। Action still going on दर्शाने के लिए 'V_1 + ing' का प्रयोग adjective के रूप में करें। 'Steaming' के प्रयोग से (भांप निकलता हुआ यानि गर्म चाय) 'action in continuation' का आभास होता है।
26. (b) 'remember' के बाद 'Gerund' का प्रयोग होगा। 'Meet' के स्थान पर 'meeting' का प्रयोग करें।
27. (a) have के साथ 'V_3' का प्रयोग होता है और will के साथ 'V_1' का। 'will always' के बाद 'be' का प्रयोग है। अत: have always के बाद 'V_3' 'been' का प्रयोग करें।
28. (b) 'Mistake' के साथ 'do' का प्रयोग नहीं होता बल्कि 'make' का होता है। अत: 'did' के स्थान पर 'made' का प्रयोग करें।
29. (c) 'took' के स्थान पर 'were taking' का प्रयोग करें। 'while' का अर्थ है 'के दौरान'। ये कार्य को Continuous Tense में दर्शाता है।
30. (a) 'have' के बाद 'done' का प्रयोग करें। अगर एक वाक्य में एक 'verb' (यहाँ-do) के अलग-अलग forms की जरूरत पड़े (यहाँ 'done' एवं 'doing') तो दोनों 'forms' का प्रयोग करें। हम एक form से काम नहीं चला सकतें।
31. (c) 'repeat' के साथ 'again' का प्रयोग न करें। (वाक्य 1 एवं 2 की व्याख्या देखें)
32. (c) 'sell' को 'sold' में परिवर्तित करें। 'It's time + sub' के बाद 'V_2' का प्रयोग करें।
33. (b) 'steal' को 'stealing' में परिवर्तित करें। 'catch' के बाद 'Verb ing' form में होगा।
34. (c) 'have' to 'had' में परिवर्तित करें। वाक्य past में है।
35. (b) 'Return back' superfluous English है। 'back' हटा दें।
36. (c) 'Sleep' के बाद 'in' लगायें। Noun के बाद अगर infinitive का प्रयोग हो तो infinitive के बाद उपयुक्त preposition लगाता है।
37. (b) 'adapt' के बाद 'themselves' लगायें।
38. (c) 'Meeting' (V_1 + ing) का प्रयोग 'looking forward to' के साथ होगा।
39. (b) 'to' हटा दे। 'make' के बाद plain infinitive 'V_1' का प्रयोग होगा।
40. (b) 'Send' का 'sent' में परिवर्तित करें। 'Get' के बाद verb V_3 form में होता है।

9 NOUN

CHAPTER

'किसी **व्यक्ति, वस्तु, स्थान, गुण, कार्य या अवस्था के नाम को Noun (संज्ञा)** कहा जाता है।'

A **noun** is a **wor**d used as **a name of a person, place or thing.**

Noun पाँच प्रकार के होते हैं:

1. **Proper Noun** (व्यक्तिवाचक)
2. **Common Noun** (जातिवाचक)
3. **Collective Noun** (समूहवाचक)
4. **Material Noun** (द्रव्यवाचक)
5. **Abstract Noun** (भाववाचक)

(1) PROPER NOUN

➢ **Proper noun** से हमारा तात्पर्य किसी **व्यक्ति, वस्तु तथा स्थान के नाम** से होता है।

जैसे: Ram, Delhi, Gita etc.

(a) **Ram** is my friend.

(b) I live in **Delhi.**

(2) COMMON NOUN

➢ जिस Noun (संज्ञा) से एक **वर्ग** अथवा **जाति** के व्यक्ति या वस्तु का बोध हो, उसे **Common Noun (जातिवाचक संज्ञा)** कहते हैं। जैसे- King, boy, girl, city etc.

(a) According to the **boy,** the nearest **town** is very far.

(b) The **boys** are going to the nearest **village.**

(3) COLLECTIVE NOUN

➢ जिस Noun (संज्ञा) से **समूह** का बोध हो, उसे **Collective Noun (समूहवाचक संज्ञा)** कहते हैं। जैसे: Team, Committee, Army etc.

सामान्यत: **Collective Noun** का प्रयोग **Singular** में होता है। इनका प्रयोग **Plural** में तभी किया जाता है जब **मतभेद** दर्शाया जाए या फिर **प्रत्येक सदस्य** के बारे में कुछ कहा जाए।

(a) The **flock** of geese $\underbrace{\textbf{spends}}_{\text{s.v.}}$ most of its time in the pasture.

(b) The **jury** $\underbrace{\textbf{is}}_{\text{s.v.}}$ deciding the matter.

(c) The **committee** $\underbrace{\textbf{meets}}_{\text{s.v.}}$ every week.

(d) The **team** $\underbrace{\textbf{are}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ divided over the issue of captainship. (मतभेद)

(e) The **audience** $\underbrace{\textbf{have}}_{\textbf{P.V.}}$ taken $\underbrace{\textbf{their}}_{\textbf{P.P.}}$ seats. (प्रत्येक व्यक्ति)

(4) MATERIAL NOUN

➢ जिस Noun (संज्ञा) से ऐसे **पदार्थ** का बोध हो जिससे दूसरी वस्तुएं बन सकें, उसे **Material Noun (पदार्थवाचक संज्ञा)** कहते हैं।

जैसे: Silver, iron, wood etc.

(a) The necklace is made of **gold.**
(b) She has purchased a tea set of **silver.**
(c) He got his furniture made of teak **wood.**

➢ *Material Nouns,* ***Countable*** नहीं होते हैं अर्थात् इनकी गिनती नहीं की जा सकती है। इन्हें मापा या तौला जा सकता है। इनके साथ सामान्यत: ***Singular verb*** का प्रयोग किया जाता है एवं इनके पहले ***Article*** का प्रयोग नहीं किया जाता है।

(5) ABSTRACT NOUN

➢ *Abstract Noun,* ऐसे **गुण, भाव, क्रिया एवं अवस्था** को व्यक्त करता है जिन्हें **छूआ नहीं** जा सकता है, देखा नहीं जा सकता है, बल्कि **केवल महसूस** किया जा कसता है।

जैसे: Honesty, bravery (quality), hatred, laughter (action), poverty, youth (state).

➢ ***Abstract Noun*** का प्रयोग सामान्यत: ***Singular*** में किया जाता है।

जैसे: **(a)** People respect his **sincerity.**
(b) Honesty is the best policy**.**

➢ **Noun** को **(A) Countable** एवं **(B) Uncountable में भी बाँटा जा सकता है।**

(A) Countable Nouns

➢ **Countable Noun** वह **Noun** होता है, जिसकी **गणना की जा सके।**

जैसे: **(a)** We bought **six** tables.
(b) I have a **few** friends.
(c) She saw **many** movies last month.

(B) NON-COUNTABLE NOUNS

➢ **Uncountable Noun** वह **Noun** होता है, जिसकी **गणना न की जा सके।**

जैसे: (a) J. Priestly discovered **oxygen.**
(b) They decided to sell the **furniture.**
(c) Much **money** was wasted on the show.

	Countable Noun		Uncountable Noun
Eg:-	Stars, Seconds, Rupees etc.		Money, time, knowledge etc.
Verb-	Singular with Singular Noun	Plural with Plural Noun	Singular Verb
Adjective-	Many, few, a number of, the number of.		Much, little, quantity of
Article -	A/An/ the can be used.		only 'the' can be used

IMPORTANT POINTS

RULE 1

➢ **कुछ Nouns** का **प्रयोग हमेशा Plural form** में ही होता है। इन Nouns के **अन्त में लगे s को हटाकर, इन्हें Singular नहीं बनाया जा सकता** है। ये दिखने में भी Plural लगते हैं, एवं इनका **प्रयोग भी Plural की तरह** होता है। ऐसे Nouns निम्न हैं:

Scissors, tongs (चिमटा), pliers, pincers, bellows (फूँकनी), trousers, pants, pajamas, shorts, gallows (फाँसी का फंदा), fangs (डंक), spectacles, goggles,binoculars (दूरबीन), eyeglasses, Alms (दान), amends (संशोधन), archives (ऐतहासिक दस्तावेज), arrears, auspices, congratulations, embers (राख), fireworks, lodgings, outskirts, particulars, proceeds, regards, riches, remains, savings, shambles, surroundings, tidings, troops, tactics, thanks, valuables, wages,belongings etc.

जैसे: (a) Where are my **pants**?
(b) Where are the **tongs**?
(c) The **proceeds** were deposited in the bank.
(d) All his **assets** were seized.
(e) **Alms** are given to the beggars.
(f) The **embers** of the fire were still burning.

नोट: 'Wages' का प्रयोग **singular एवं plural दोनो forms में** किया जा सकता है। निम्नलिखित वाक्यों को देखें–

	अर्थ	Form	Example
Wages	मजदूरी	Plural	Wages **are** (P.v) paid in cash.
	परिणाम	Singular	Wages of hard work **is** (S.v) sweet.

RULE 2

➢ कुछ **Nouns दिखने में Plural** लगते हैं लेकिन अर्थ में **Singular** होते है। इनका **प्रयोग** हमेशा **Singular** में ही होता है। जैसे: **News, Innings, Politics, Summons, Physics, Economics, Ethics, Mathematics, Mumps, Measles, Rickets,Shingles, Billiards, Athletics** etc.

जैसे: (a) No **news** is good news.
(b) **Politics** is a dirty game.
(c) **Economics** is an interesting subject.
(d) **Ethics** demands honesty.

RULE 3

➢ कुछ **Nouns दिखने में Singular** लगते हैं, लेकिन इनका प्रयोग हमेशा **Plural** में होता है। जैसे: **cattle, cavalry, infantry, poultry, peasantry, children, gentry, police, people,** etc. इनके साथ कभी भी 's' नहीं लगाया जाता, जैसे: cattles, childrens लिखना गलत है।

जैसे: (a) **Cattle** are grazing in the field.

(b) Our **infantry** have marched forward.
(c) **Police** have arrested the thieves.

नोट: **'People'** का अर्थ है **'लोग'**। **'Peoples'** का अर्थ है **'विभिन्न मूलवंश (different races) के लोग'**।

RULE 4

➢ कुछ **Nouns** का **प्रयोग**, **केवल Singular form** में ही किया जाता है। ये Uncountable Nouns हैं। इनके साथ Article A/An का प्रयोग भी नहीं किया जाता है। जैसे:

Scenery, Poetry, Furniture, Advice, Information, Hair, Business, Mischief, Bread, Stationery, Crockery, Luggage, Baggage, Postage, Knowledge, Wastage, Jewellery, Breakage, Equipment,Work (**Works** का अर्थ है साहित्य लेख), **Evidence, Word** (जब **'word'** का अर्थ वाद, संदेश या परिचर्चा हो), **Fuel,** एवं **Cost.**

जैसे: (a) The **scenery** of Kashmir is very charming.
(b) I have no **information** about her residence.
(c) The **mischief** committed by him is unpardonable.
(d) His **hair** is black.
(e) I have bought some **equipment** that I needed for the project.

(i) इन *Nouns* का बहुवचन नहीं बनाया जा सकता। जैसे: *Sceneries, informations, furnitures, hairs* इत्यादि लिखना गलत है।

(ii) यदि उक्त *Noun* का ***Singular* या *Plural* दोनों *forms* में आवश्यकता हो** तो, इनके साथ **कुछ शब्द जोड़े** जाते हैं।

नीचे दिए गये उदाहरण देखें:

(a) He gave me **a piece of** information.
(b) **All pieces of** information given by her were reliable.
(c) **Many kinds of** furniture are available in that shop.
(d) I want **a few articles of** jewellery.
(e) He ate **two slices of** bread.
(f) Please show me **some items of** office stationery.
(g) The Police have found **a strand of** hair in the car.

नोट: **Money** का plural form **'Monies'** हो सकता है जिसका अर्थ निकलता है **'sums of money'**.

जैसे: Monies have been collected and handed to the women's welfare society.

RULE 5

➢ कुछ Nouns, **Plural एवं Singular दोनों में एक ही रूप में** रहते हैं। जैसे: **deer,sheep, series , species, fish, crew, team, jury, aircraft, counsel** etc.

जैसे: (a) Our team **is** the best.
(b) Our team **are** trying their new uniform.
(c) There **are** two fish in the pond.
(d) There **are** many fishes in the aquarium.('Fishes' का अर्थ है विभिन्न प्रजातियों के fish)

RULE 6

➢ **Hyphenated noun** का प्रयोग कभी भी **plural form** में **नहीं** होता।

जैसे: (a) He gave me two hundred-rupees notes. (rupees को rupee में परिवर्तित करें)
(b) He stays in five- stars hotels. (stars को star में परिवर्तित करें)

RULE 7

➢ कुछ nouns का प्रयोग लोग बोल-चाल की भाषा में करते है लेकिन वास्तव में उनका **प्रयोग** करना बिलकुल **गलत** होता है।

उदाहरण:	गलत प्रयोग	सही प्रयोग
1.	**Cousin brother** ***or*** **Cousin sister**	**Cousin**
2.	**Pickpocketer**	**Pickpocket**
3.	**Good name**	**Name**
4.	**Big/small blunder**	**Blunder (Blunder का अर्थ होता है बड़ी भूल। अत: big का प्रयोग गलत है।**
5.	**Strong breeze**	**Strong wind (Breeze हमेशा light एवं gentle होता है)**
6.	**Bad dream**	**Nightmare**

➢ **निम्नलिखित nouns में भी हमें confusion रहता है -**

1.	**Floor** फर्श	**Ground** जमीन
2.	**Skill** सीख कर प्राप्त करते है	**Talent** Inborn(जन्म से होता है)
3.	**Envy** ईष्या जो दूसरो के चीज़ो का देख कर हो	**Jealously** ईष्या जो अपनी चीज़ो के खोने के डर से हो

RULE 8

➢ कुछ **Nouns** जो **अर्थ में तो Plural** होते हैं लेकिन यदि इनके **पूर्व किसी निश्चित संख्यात्मक विशेषण (Definite numeral adjective)** का प्रयोग किया जाता है तो इन **Noun को Pluralise नहीं** किया जाता है। जैसे : **Pair, score, gross, stone, hundred, dozen, thousand, million, billion,** etc.

जैसे: (a) I have two **pairs** of shoes.
(b) I have **two hundred** rupees only.
(c) She purchased **three dozen** pencils.
(d) He has already donated **five thousand** rupees.

➢ लेकिन यदि इनके साथ **Indefinite countable** का प्रयोग हो तो इन्हें **Pluralise** किया जाता है।

जैसे: d**ozens of women, hundreds of people, millions of dollars, scores of shops, many pairs of shoes** etc.

जैसे: (a) **Hundreds of people** came to see the fair.
(b) He donated **millions of rupees**.

RULE 9

➢ यदि किसी **Noun के बाद Preposition** का प्रयोग हो और फिर वहीं **'Noun' repeat** हो तो वह **'Noun' Singular form** में होना चाहिए। जैसे:

जैसे: (a) **Town after town** was devastated.
(b) **Row upon row** of marble looks beautiful.
(c) He enquired from **door to door**.
(d) **Ship after ship** is arriving.

➢ इस तरह के वाक्यों में Towns after towns, Rows upon rows, doors to doors या ships after ships लिखना गलत है।

RULE 10

➢ Common Gender Nouns जैसे: **Teacher, student, child, clerk, advocate, worker, writer, leader, musician** etc. ऐसे nouns हैं जिनका प्रयोग **male एवं female** दोनों के लिए किया जाता है। इन्हें **Dual Gender** भी कहा जाता है। जब इस तरह के Noun का प्रयोग Singular में किया जाता है तो **सामान्यत: he/his/him** का प्रयोग किया जाता है। जैसे:

(1) Every **leader** should perform **his** duty.

(2) A **teacher** should perform **his** duty sincerely.

यहाँ विवाद का विषय यह है कि हम Masculine Gender (He/His etc.) का ही प्रयोग क्यों करें?

➢ इस सम्बन्ध में यदि matter legal हो तो his या her तो भी आवश्यक हो उसे स्पष्ट कर देना चाहिये।

WORDS DENOTING GROUPS

1. A band of musicians.
2. A **board** of directors, etc.
3. A **bevy** of girls, women, officers etc.
4. A **bunch** of grapes, keys, etc.
5. A **bundle** of sticks and hay.
6. A **caravan** of Merchants, pilgrims, travellers.
7. A **chain/range** of mountains or hills.
8. A **choir** of singers.
9. A **class** of students.
10. A **retinue** of servants/ attendants.
11. A **clump/grove** of trees.
12. A **code** of laws.
13. A **cluster** / **constellation/ galaxy** of stars.
14. A **company/regiment/army** of soldiers.
15. A **convoy** of ships, cars etc.moving under an escort.
16. A **course** or **series** of lectures.
17. A **crew** of sailors.
18. A **crowd/mob** of people.
19. A **curriculum** of studies.
20. A **flight** of steps, stairs.
21. A **fleet** of ships or motorcars.
22. A **flock** of geese, sheep and birds.
23. A **gang** of robbers, labourers.
24. A **garland/bunch/bouquet** of flowers.
25. A **heap** of ruins, sand, stones.
26. A **herd** of cattle.
27. A **litter** of puppies.
28. A **pack** of hounds, cards.
29. A **pair** of shoes, scissors, compasses, trousers.
30. A **series** of events.
31. A **sheaf** of corn, arrows.
32. A **swarm** of ants, bees or flies.
33. A **train** of carriages, followers etc.
34. A **troop** of horses (cavalry) scouts; etc.
35. A **volley** of shots, bullets
36. A **forum** of people (discussing issues)
37. A **congregation** of people (discussing religious issues)

NOUN-GENDER

Gender को चार भागों में विभाजित किया गया है:

(1) **Masculine Gender (पुल्लिंग):** ऐसे Noun जो **male sex** को व्यक्त करते हैं, **Masculine Gender** कहलाते हैं। जैसे: **Tiger, Power, Violence, Father, Sun, Summer, Time, Thunder** etc.

(2) **Feminine Gender (स्त्रीलिंग):** ऐसे Noun जो **Female sex** को व्यक्त करते हैं, **Feminine Gender** कहलाते हैं। ऐसे: **Tigress, Woman, Lioness, Mother, Sister, Peace, Nature, Earth, Goddess** etc.

(3) **Common Gender (उभय लिंग)** ऐसे Noun जो स्त्री एवं पुरुष दोनों के लिए प्रयुक्त होते हैं, **Common Gender** कहलाते हैं। जैसे: **Child, Baby, Teacher, Servant, Student, Cousin, Infant, Thief, Neighbour** etc.

(4) **Neuter Gender (नपुंसक लिंग):** ऐसे Noun जो उन **निर्जीव वस्तुओं** को व्यक्त करते हैं जो न male हैं और **न ही female हैं, Neuter Gender** कहलाते हैं। जैसे: **Copy, Book, Room, Paper, T.V., Box,** etc.

RULES FOR CHANGING MASCULINE NOUN TO FEMININE NOUN

RULE 1

➢ कुछ cases में Masculine Noun के बाद **'ess'** लगाने से Feminine Noun बनाया जा सकता है। जैसे:

Masculine	Feminine
Author (लेखक)	Authoress
Host (मेजबान)	Hostess
Jew	Jewess
Mayor	Mayoress
Poet (कवि)	Poetess
Tutor	Tutoress
Shepherd(गड़ेड़िया)	Shepherdess
Giant (दानव)	Giantess
Heir (उत्तराधिकारी)	Heiress
Lion	Lioness
Priest(पुजारी)	Priestess
Tailor (दर्जी)	Tailoress

RULE 2

➢ कुछ cases में Masculine Noun के **अन्तिम vowel एवं उसके पहले आने वाले consonant को हटाकर 'ess'** जोड़ने से भी Feminine Noun बन जाता है। जैसे:

Masculine	Feminine
Actor	Actress
Benefactor(उपकार करने वाला)	Benefactress
Hunter (शिकारी)	Huntress
Prince (राजकुमार)	Princess
Waiter	Waitress
Ambassador	Ambassadress
Director	Directress
Negro	Negress
Tiger	Tigress

RULE 3

➢ कुछ cases में Masculine Noun के **शब्दों में कुछ change किया जाता है एवं अन्त में 'ess'** लगाने पर भी Feminine Noun बन जाता है। जैसे:

Masculine	Feminine
Emperor(राजा)	Empress
Governor	Governess
Duke	Duchess
God	Goddess
Master	Mistress
Sorcerer (जादूगर)	Sorceress

RULE 4

➢ कुछ cases में Compound Masculine Noun के **first अथवा second शब्द में कुछ परिवर्तन** किये जाता है। जैसे:

Masculine	Feminine
Man-servant	Maid - servant
Washerman	Washerwoman
Buck-rabbit	Doe-Rabbit
Brother-in law	Sister-in-law
He-bear	She-bear
Bull-calf	Cow-calf
Jack-ass	Jenny-ass
Headmaster	Headmistress
Milkman	Milkmaid
Postmaster	Postmistress
Peacock	Peahen
Landlord	Landlady
Father-in-law	Mother-in-law
Step-Father	Step-Mother
He-goat	She-goat
Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow
Dog-wolf	Bitch-wolf
Stepbrother	Stepsister
Grandson	Granddaughter

RULE 5

➢ Foreign words एवं अन्य विविध शब्दों के Masculine एवं Feminine gender नीचे दिये गये हैं। **इनको किसी विशेष नियम के तहत परिवर्तित नहीं करते हैं** As:

Masculine	Feminine
Administrator	Administratrix
Executor (कार्यान्वित करने वाला)	Executrix
Lad(लड़का)	Lass

Prosecutor	Proscutrix
Sultan	Sultana
Boar (बनैला सूअर)	Sow
Brother	Sister
Colt(बछड़ा)	Filly
Dog	Bitch
Buck (मृग)	Doe
Earl	Countess
Monk	Nun
Gander(हंस)	Goose
Hart (हिरण)	Roe
Horse	Mare
King	Queen
Man	Woman
Mr.	Miss
Sheep	Ewe
Son	Daughter
Uncle	Aunt
Fox	Vixen
Ox	Cow
Czar	Czarina
Hero	Heroine
Testator(वसीयतकर्ता)	Testatrix
Bachelor	Maid
Boy	Girl
Cock	Hen
Drake (बत्तक)	Duck
Drone (नर मक्खी)	Bee
Bull	Cow
Father	Mother
Bridegroom	Bride
Gentleman	Lady
He	She
Husband	Wife
Lord	Lady
Male	Female
Nephew (भतीजा)	Niece
Sir	Madam/ Dame
Widower (विद्युर)	Widow
Wizard (जादूगर)	Witch

NOUN-NUMBER (SINGULAR-PLURAL)

Singular Noun: इससे **एक व्यक्ति, एक स्थान या एक वस्तु** का बोध होता है। जैसे: Boy, Girl, Table.

Plural Noun: इससे **एक से अधिक व्यक्ति, स्थान या वस्तुओं** का बोध होता है जैसे: Cities, Boys, Girls.

Changing Singular to Plural: Some Rules

RULE 1

➢ कुछ Noun के अन्त में **'s'** लगाने से वह Plural बन जाता है। जैसे: Boy, Girl, Kite, Telephone etc.

RULE 2

➢ जिन Noun के अन्त में **s, ss, ch, sh, z या x** आता है उनका Plural बनाने के लिए अन्त में **es** जोड़ दिया जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Bus	Buses	Fox	Foxes
Watch	Watches	Switch	Switches
Ass	Asses	Canvas	Canvases
Fix	Fixes	Class	Classes
Church	Churches	Quiz	Quizes
Tax	Taxes	Dish	Dishes
Box	Boxes	Coach	Coaches

➢ इसके कुछ Exceptions भी हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Stomach	Stomachs	Radius	Radii
Locus	Loci	Ox	Oxen

RULE 3

➢ कुछ Noun के अन्त में **'o'** आता है एवं उससे **पूर्व** कोई **व्यंजन (consonant) हो** तो, उसका Plural बनाने के लिए **Noun के अन्त में 'es'** लगाते हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Hero	Heroes	Potato	Potatoes
Mosquito	Mosquitoes	Mango	Mangoes
Cargo	Cargoes	Echo	Echoes

➢ इससे कुछ Exceptions भी हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Dynamo	Dynamos	Memento	Mementos
Ratio	Ratios	Piano	Pianos
Solo	Solos	Photo	Photos

RULE 4

➢ यदि किसी Noun के **अन्त में double vowel** लगे हुए हों तो उसका Plural बनाने के लिए उसके **अन्त में s** लगा दिया जाता है जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Bee	Bees	Tree	Trees
Zoo	Zoos	Radio	Radios
Woe	Woes	Portfolio	Portfolios

RULE 5

➢ यदि Noun के **अन्त में 'y'** आये एवं **'y' से पूर्व** कोई **व्यंजन(consonant)** आता है तो **'y' की जगह 'ies'** लगाने से उसका plural बन जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Cry	cries	Country	countries
Family	families	Pony	ponies
City	cities	Dictionary	dictionaries
Lorry	lorries	Reply	replies

RULE 6

➢ यदि Noun के **अन्त में 'y'** आये एवं **'y' से पूर्व** कोई **Vowel** आता हो तो **'s'** लगाने से उसका **Plural** बन जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Key	Keys	Donkey	Donkeys
Ray	Rays	Monkey	Monkeys
Way	Ways	Valley	Valleys
Toy	Toys	Storey	Storeys

RULE 7

➢ यदि Noun के अन्त में **'f'** या **'fe'** आये तो **Plural** बनाने के लिए **'f'** या **'fe'** को हटाकर **'ves'** लगाते हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Calf	Calves	Half	Halves
Wife	Wives	Thief	Thieves
Wolf	Wolves	Life	Lives
Leaf	Leaves	Knife	Knives
Shelf	Shelves	Loaf	Loaves

➢ इसके कुछ Exceptions भी हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Belief	Beliefs	Chief	Chiefs
Cliff	Cliffs	Dwarf	Dwarfs
Grief	Griefs	Gulf	Gulfs
Proof	Proofs	Roof	Roofs
Safe	Safes	Scarf	Scarfs
Turf	Turfs	Brief	Briefs

RULE 8

➢ Compound noun में **मुख्य शब्द** के साथ **'s'** लगाने पर उसका **Plural** बन जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural
Brother-in-law	Brothers-in-law
Bed-room	Bed-rooms
Commander-in-chief	Commanders-in-chief
Step-daughter	Step-daughters
Maid-servant	Maid-servants
Pea-hen	Pea-hens
Peacock	Peacocks
Mother-in-law	Mothers-in-law
Sister-in-law	Sisters-in-law
Member of Parliament	Members of Parliament
Man hater	Man haters
Woman lover	Woman lovers
Man lover	Man lovers

RULE 9

➢ निम्न Nouns ऐसे हैं जिनका **Plural** बनाने के लिए **Inside Vowels** में **परिवर्तन** करते हैं।

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Man	Men	Woman	Women
Foot	Feet	Tooth	Teeth
Mouse	Mice	Louse (जूं)	Lice
Goose	Geese	Oasis	Oases

RULE 10

➢ निम्नलिखित Nouns ऐसे हैं जिनका Plural बनाने के लिए '**en**' **जोड़ते** हैं। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Child	Children	Ox	Oxen

RULE 11

➢ कुछ Nouns के दो तरह के Plural बनते हैं जिनका अर्थ भी अलग होता है। जैसे:

(1) Brother
- **Brothers** - Sons of the same parents.
- **Brethren** - Members of a society, community or a religious group.

(2) Cloth
- **Cloths** - Unstitched cloth.
- **Clothes** - Stitched clothes (Garments)

(3) Die
- **Dies** - Stamps used for printing and coining.
- **Dice** - Small cubes used in games.

(4) Index
- **Indexes** - tables of contents in a book.
- **Indices** - Signs used in algebra.

SOME TYPICAL PLURAL NOUNS (NUMBER)

(A) **Latin words**: Latin के कुछ शब्द, जिनके **अन्त में 'um'** आता है, **एकवचन** होते हैं। इनको Plural बनाने के लिए '**um**' **हटाकर 'a'** लगाया जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural
Datum	Data
Ovum	Ova
Agendum	Agenda
Dictum	Dicta
Memorandum	Memoranda
Stratum	Strata

IMPORTANT

➢ **Latin** के निम्न शब्दों पर ध्यान दें: इन शब्दों के पीछे **'um'** आता है, लेकिन इनके **Plural** बनाने हेतु **पीछे 's'** लगाया जाता है।

Singular	Plural
Asylum	Asylums
Museum	Museums
Premium	Premiums
Forum	Forums
Pendulum	Pendulums

(B) कुछ **Latin words** के अन्त में '**us**' आता है। इनका Plural **'us' को 'i'** के बदलकर बनाया जाता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Radius	radii	Syllabus	syllabi

(C) कुछ **Greek** शब्दों के अन्त में **'is'** आता है इनका Plural **'is' को 'es'** में बदलकर बनाया जाता है।

Singular	Plural
Analysis	Analyses
Crisis	Crises
Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Basis	Bases
Thesis	Theses

(D) कुछ **Greek** शब्दों के अन्त में **'on'** आता है इनका Plural **'on' को 'a' में बदलने** से बनता है। जैसे:

Singular	Plural
Phenomenon	Phenomena
Criterion	criteria

(E) अन्य कई **Nouns** के **Plural निम्न प्रकार** बनते हैं:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
If	Ifs	I	I's
5	5s	P	P's
BA	BAs	ATM	ATMs
But	Buts	T	T's
10	10s	MP	MPs
MA	MAs	UPC	UPCs

(F) कुछ Nouns के **Singular** एवं, **Plural forms** के **अर्थ पूर्णतया** अलग होते है, अत: इनका **प्रयोग सावधानीपूर्वक करना** चाहिए।

जैसे:	**Singular**	**Meaning**	**Plural**	**Meaning**
	Air	(हवा)	Airs	(दिखावटी व्यवहार)
	Return	(वापसी)	Returns	(आय का हिसाब)
	Iron	(लोहा)	Irons	(जंजीरें)
	Sand	(रेत)	Sands	(रेगिस्तान)
	Wood	(लकड़ी)	Woods	(जंगल)
	Abuse	(दुरुपयोग)	Abuses	(कुरीतियाँ)
	Good(adj)	(अच्छा)	Goods	(सामान)
	Water	(पानी)	Waters	(समुद्र)
	Work	(काम)	Works	(साहित्य लेख)
	Fruit	(फल जैसे सेब इत्यादि)	Fruits	(नतीजा (मेहनत इत्याद का))
	Wit	(वाक्पटुता)	Wits	(बुद्धिमता)

(G) कुछ **Nouns का Singular form में एक अर्थ** होता है परन्तु **Plural Form में एक से अधिक।**

Singular	**Meaning**	**Plural**	**Meaning**
Custom	रिवाज़	Customs	रिवाज़, सीमा शुल्क
Manner	तरीका	Manners	तरीके, शिष्टाचार
Pain	दर्द	Pains	दर्द ,अथक प्रयास
Quarter	एक-चौथाई	Quarters	एक-चौथाई, आवास
Letter	अक्षर, चिट्ठी	Letters	अक्षर, चिट्ठी, साहित्य

NOUN ds lkFk OF/ APOSTROPHE dk iz;ksx

(A) **Apostrophe** का प्रयोग **Possessive case** के लिए निम्न स्थिति में करना ही उचित है। जैसे:

(1) **जीवित वस्तु**

जैसे: (a) Mohan's book (b) a cow's horn (c) a woman's purse

(2) **जब किसी निर्जिव का मानवीयकरण (Personification) किया जाए।**

जैसे: (a) Sun's fury (b) Nature's love

(3) **समय, भार एवं जगह संबंधित Nouns के साथ।**

जैसे: (a) a day's leave. (b) arm's length. (c) a pound's weight.

(4) **कुछ सम्मानजनक Nouns के साथ।**

जैसे: (a) court's orders (b) at duty's call

(5) **कुछ Phrases के साथ।**

जैसे: (a) at one's wit's end. (b) at a stone's throw

(6) **भौगोलिक पिण्ड के साथ**

जैसे: (a) Earth's atmosphere.

(B) **यदि Plural शब्द का अन्तिम अक्षर 's' है तो apostrophe का प्रयोग करते समय 's' नहीं लगाते हैं, केवल apostrophe (') का ही प्रयोग करते हैं।**

जैसे: (a) Boys' college (b) Girls' school (c) Working women's hostel

(C) जब Noun **सिस्कार ध्वनि (hissing sound)** से खत्म हो में भी **'s' नहीं** लगता है।
for peace' sake, for conscience' sake, for goodness' sake, for Jesus' sake, Ganesh' book.

नोट: God's sake.

(D) **Possessive Pronoun (his, hers, yours, ours, theirs) के साथ apostrophe नहीं** लगाते हैं।

जैसे: Yours faithfully, Yours truly.

(E) निम्न **titles के साथ apostrophe अन्तिम शब्द के साथ** ही लगाते हैं।

जैसे: (a) **Commander-in-chief's** orders.
(b) My **son-in-law's** sister.

(F) निर्जीव वस्तु के साथ **'s** का प्रयोग नहीं करते है **'Of'** का प्रयोग करते है।

जैसे: **Table's leg** के स्थान पर **Leg of table** का प्रयोग करें।

(G) **'Double apostrophe'** का प्रयोग न करें

जैसे: (a) My wife's secretary's mother has expired. (×)
इसकी जगह हमें लिखना चाहिये।
The mother of my **wife's secretary** has expired.
(b) Mrs. Sharma the society's chairman's proposal was rejected by the members of the society. (×)
The proposal of Mrs. Sharma, the chairperson of society, was rejected by the members of the society. (✓)

(H) **anybody/ Nobody/ Everybody/ Somebody/ Anyone/Someone/No one/Everyone के साथ 's का प्रयोग** किया जा सकता है।

जैसे: (a) **Everyone's** concern is no one's concern.
(b) **Everybody's** business is nobody's business.

➢ यदि इनके बाद *else* का प्रयोग हो तो ***apostrophe* को *else* के साथ लगाते** हैं

जैसे: (a) I can rely on your words, not **somebody else's.**
(b) I obey your orders and **nobody else's.**
(यहाँ Somebody's else या Nobody's else लिखना गलत होगा।)

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) My sister / (b) has read / (c) pages after pages of the Bible./ (d) No error
2. (a) I went to the temple / (b) with my parents, aunts / (c) and cousin sisters. / (d) No error
3. (a) He / (b) takes pain / (c) over his work./ (d) No error
4. (a) The Manager put forward / (b) a number of criterions / (c) for the post./ (d) No error
5. (a) I like / (b) the poetries / (c) of Byron and Shelley./ (d) No error

6. (a) The beautiful / (b) surrounding of the place / (c) enchanted me./ (d) No error
7. (a) No Porter being available/ (b) he carried / (c) all his luggages himself./ (d) No error
8. (a) The table's legs / (b) have been / (c) elaborately carved./ (d) No error
9. (a) The sceneries / (b) of Kashmir / (c) is very charming./ (d) No error
10. (a) The driver showed / (b) great talent in keeping / (c) the damaged car under control./ (d) No error
11. (a) When I entered the bedroom / (b) I saw a snake crawling / (c) on the ground./ (d) No error
12. (a) Alms / (b) are given/ (c) to the poors./ (d) No error
13. (a) Lasers are / (b) indispensable tools / (c) for the delicate eyes surgery./ (d) No error
14. (a) If you have a way with words / (b) a good sense of design and administration ability / (c) you may enjoy working in high pressure world of advertising./ (d) No error
15. (a) Last week's sharp hike in the wholesale price of beef / (b) is a strong indication for / (c) higher meat costs to come./ (d) No error
16. (a) Whenever he goes to Mumbai / (b) he stays in/ (c) five-stars hotels./ (d) No error
17. (a) The company has ordered / (b) some / (c) new equipments./ (d) No error
18. (a) A strong breeze / (b) blew his / (c) cap off./ (d) No error.
19. (a) One of her firmest belief among the Hindus is that/ (b) Karma affects their / (c) life and also the life after death./ (d) No error
20. (a) He was advised to take/ (b) two spoonsful of / (c) medicine times a day./ (d) No error
21. (a) It is a big blunder/(b) but we had /(c) to ignore it/(d)No error
22. (A) The police have received / (b) two important informations / (c) that can help them solve the triple murder case (E) No error
23. (a) The sheafs / (b) of the wheat plants were too heavy / (c) for the weak farmer to carry them on his head./ (d) No error
24. (a) The population of India /(b) is divided into two classes- / (c) Haves and Haves not./ (d) No error
25. (a) All his sister-in laws /(b) are extremely co- operative / (c) and she doesn't miss her real sisters at all./ (d) No error
26. (a) Envy strikes a woman / (b)when she sees her husband / (c) talking to another woman./ (d) No error
27. (a) Two summons have been issued by the court / (b) but he has not / (c) yet appeared before the court./ (d) No error
28. (a) The Vaidya's / (b) have been living here / (c) for about a decade./ (d) No error.
29. (a) You are among those/ (b) man who earned name and fame not by / (c) chance but by hard work ./ (d) No error
30. (a) Children are playing / (b) and making mischiefs/ (c) as their holidays have started./ (d) No error.

31. (a) Sheeps are economically useful/ (b) and so they are reared/ (c) for wool and meat./ (d) No error.
32. (a) I read the letter/ (b) and made him aware/ (c) of its content./ (d) No error.
33. (a) I shall not go to party tonight/ (b) since I have many works to complete/ (c) before I give presentation tomorrow./ (d) No error.
34. (a) One must be always/ (b) true to one's words/ (c) if one wants to get respect from everyone./ (d) No error.
35. (a) Even after the enactment of several Acts and Provisions /(b) we can see five years old boys/ (c) working in hazardous factories./ (d) No error.
36. (a) The fan's blade / (b) has broken/ (c) and we must buy a new fan before disposing it of./ (d) No error.
37. (a) She wears spectacle/ (b) and so she was unable to see the gansgter/ (c) that attacked her last night./ (d) No error.
38. (a) All the furnitures have been/ (b) sold for a song/ (c) as we were in a hurry to leave the town./ (d) No error.
39. (a) The angry mob/ (b) attacked the police officers/ (c) when they came to raze the illegal construction./ (d) No error.
40. (a) They left/ (b) their luggages/ (c) at home by mistake and went to the railway station./ (d) No error.
41. (a) The car could not/ (b) ascend the steep hill/ (c) because it was in the wrong gears./ (d) No error.
42. (a) The ticket window/ (b) remained closed / (c)throughout the day./ (d) No error.
43. (a) Satyajit Ray, who conceived, co-authored / (b) and directed a number of good films, was/ (c) one of India's most talented film maker./ (d) No error.
44. (a) I think this/ (b) is not your book. / (c) It is some body's else./ (d) No error.
45. (a) You should not put/ (b) your sign on any paper / (c) that you haven't read./ (d) No error.
46. (a) Towns after towns were/ (b) conquered / (c) by him but he found no peace./ (d) No error.
47. (a) When we reached the fair/ (b) we found that there / (c) was no place to stand./ (d) No error.
48. (a) All the evidences were/ (b) against him and he was / (c) held guilty./ (d) No error.
49. (a) My cousin brother is a cheater/ (b) and he / (c) cheats his family members and friends too./ (d) No error.
50. (a) The committee/ (b) could not come to/ (c) a final conclusion./ (d) No error.
51. (a) The cattle in the meadow/ (b) was terrified to hear/ (c) the roar of a lion which appeared to be wild with anger./ (d) No error.
52. (a) There should be/ (b) no furnitures/ (c) in my room./ (d) No error.
53. (a) That house/ (b) is built of/ (c) stones./ (d) No error.
54. (a) Santosh lives/ (b) by the principals/ (c) he professes./ (d) No error.
55. (a) The astronomer/ (b) who predicts the future/ (c) has arrived./ (d) No error.
56. (a) He told me that/ (b) it was/ (c) his friend's Sankar's house./ (d) No error.

Answers with explanation

1. (c) 'Page after page' का प्रयोग सही होगा। अगर किसी preposition के पहले और के बाद same noun का प्रयोग होता है तो noun का प्रयोग 'singular form' में करें।
2. (c) 'Cousin sisters' कहना गलत होता है। Cousins का प्रयोग करें।
3. (b) takes pains का प्रयोग करें। इस phrase का अर्थ है 'काफी प्रयास करना'।
4. (b) 'Criterion' का plural form 'Criteria' है।
5. (b) 'Poetry' uncountable noun है। इसका बहुवचन नहीं बनाया जा सकता।
6. (b) 'Surroundings' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ है आस-पास की जगह। 'Surrounding' surround (verb) का 'ing' form है।
7. (c) 'Luggage' का प्रयोग करें। 'Luggage' uncountable noun है और इसका कोई plural form नहीं है।
8. (a) table's legs के स्थान पर 'Legs of table' का प्रयोग करें। सामान्यत: निर्जीव वस्तु के साथ s का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
9. (a) 'Scenery' का प्रयोग करें। 'Scenery' uncountable noun है।
10. (b) 'talent' के स्थान पर 'skill' का प्रयोग करें। Talent का अर्थ है natural ability to do something. 'Skill' का अर्थ है 'type of activity that requires special training and knowledge'.Driving skill का प्रयोग सही होता है।
11. (c) Ground का अर्थ है 'मकान के बाहर की धरती का उपरी सतह'। Ground के स्थान पर 'floor' का प्रयोग करें। floor का अर्थ 'मकान के अंदर का फर्श' होता है।
12. (c) 'the poors' के स्थान पर 'the poor' का प्रयोग करें। 'The poor' का अर्थ है गरीब वर्ग। 'Poor' adjective है। इस में 's' का प्रयोग न करें। 'The poor' plural common noun है।
13. (c) 'eyes surgery' के स्थान पर 'eye surgery' का प्रयोग करें। 'Eyes' noun है परन्तु यहाँ 'eyes' surgery की विशेषता बता रहा है एवं adjective का कार्य कर रहा है। अगर noun adjective का कार्य करें तो वह singular form में होता है। अत: 'eyes' नहीं 'eye' का प्रयोग होगा।
14. (b) 'administration' noun है। यहाँ हमें 'ability' की विशेषता बताने वाले 'adjective' का प्रयोग करना चाहिए। administration का adjective form 'administrative' का प्रयोग करें।
15. (c) 'Costs' के स्थान पर 'Cost' का प्रयोग करें। Noun के रूप में 'Cost' uncountable noun है और इसका बहुवचन नहीं हो सकता।
16. (c) 'five-stars' hyphenated noun है जो कभी भी plural form में नहीं होता। 'five star' का प्रयोग करें।
17. (c) 'Equipment' uncountable noun है जिसका plural form नहीं होता।
18. (a) 'breeze' हमेशा gentle होता है। तेज़ हवा के लिए 'Strong wind' शब्द का प्रयोग करे।
19. (a) 'One of the' के बाद आने वाला 'noun plural form में होता है। अत: 'One of the firmest beliefs' का प्रयोग करें।
20. (b) 'Spoonsful' नहीं 'Spoonfuls' का प्रयोग करें।

21. (a) 'blunder' का अर्थ होता है 'big mistake.' अत: blunder के साथ 'big' का प्रयोग गलत होगा।
22. (b) 'Information' uncountable noun है। इसका plural बनाने के लिए 'pieces of information' का प्रयोग करें।
23. (a) 'Sheaf' का plural form 'Sheaves' होता है न कि 'Sheafs'।
24. (c) 'Have nots' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ होता है रहित वर्ग।
25. (a) 'Sisters-in-law' का प्रयोग करें। 'Sister-in-law' का बहुवचन 'Sisters-in-law' होता है।
26. (a) जो हमारा है और उसे खाने के डर से हमें ईष्या होती है तो Jealousy का प्रयोग किया जाता है। जब उस वस्तु के लिए ईष्या हो जो हमारा नहीं तो envy का प्रयोग किया जाता है।
27. (a) 'Summons' एक Countable noun है और Singular है। इसका plural summonses होता है। अत: 'two summonses' का प्रयोग करें।
28. (a) Vaidyas का प्रयोग करें। apostrophe (') हटा दें।
29. (b) 'men' का प्रयोग होगा। 'Those' के साथ plural countable noun का प्रयोग होगा।
30. (b) 'Mischief' uncountable noun है। इसका plural form नहीं हो सकता है।
31. (a) 'Sheep' का singular तथा plural form 'sheep' ही होता है। 'Sheeps' के स्थान पर Sheep का प्रयोग करें।
32. (c) Content के स्थान पर 'Contents' का प्रयोग करें। 'Contents' का अर्थ है 'things contained in something'.
33. (b) 'work' uncountable noun है। 'Many pieces of work' का प्रयोग करें।
34. (b) 'true to one's word' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ होता है 'जुबान का पक्का'।
35. (b) 'five year old boys' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ five year adjective का कार्य कर रहा है। अत: यह plural form में नहीं होगा।
36. (a) fan निर्जीव है। अत: 's' का प्रयोग 'fan' के साथ न करें। 'The blade of fan' का प्रयोग करना सही होगा।
37. (a) 'Spectacles' का प्रयोग करें।
38. (a) 'furniture' का प्रयोग करें। साथ ही ध्यान रखें कि 'furniture' singular noun है अत: singular verb 'has' का प्रयोग होगा।
39. (a) 'angry mob का प्रयोग गलत है। 'Mob' का प्रयोग करें। क्योंकि Mob का अर्थ होता है- उग्र भीड़। Angry के साथ mob का प्रयोग superfluous होगा।
40. (b) 'luggage' का प्रयोग luggages के स्थान पर करें।
41. (c) 'wrong gear' का प्रयोग करें। Car एक समय में एक ही gear में हो सकती है।
42. (a) 'ticket window' के स्थान पर 'ticket counter' का प्रयोग करें।
43. (c) 'One of' के बाद आने वाला noun plural form में होना चाहिए। अत: 'One of' के साथ 'film makers' होगा न कि 'film maker'
44. (c) 'Somebody else's' सही प्रयोग है।
45. (b) 'Sign' verb है। your के बाद noun का प्रयोग होगा यानि signature का
46. (a) 'Town after town' का प्रयोग करें। अगर किसी preposition के पहले और बाद में same noun का प्रयोग हो तो noun singular form में होना चाहिए।

47. (c) 'no place' के स्थान पर 'no room' का प्रयोग करें। 'Room' का noun के अर्थ 'enough empty space for people or things to be fitted in' भी होता है।
48. (a) 'evidence' uncountable noun है अत: इसका कोई plural form (evidences) नहीं हो सकता। साथ ही singular verb 'was' का प्रयोग करें।
49. (a) 'Cousin brother' एवं 'Cheater' दोनों ही ऐसे nouns है जो लोग बोल-चाल की भाषा में अक्सर प्रयोग करते है परन्तु ऐसा करना गलत होता है। Cousin एवं Cheat का प्रयोग करें।
50. (c) 'final' शब्द हटा दें। Conclusion सदा final होता है।
51. (b) 'Cattle' plural noun है। अत: 'was' नहीं 'were' का प्रयोग करें।
52. (b) 'furniture' के साथ 's' का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता है।
53. (c) 'stones' को 'stone' में परिवर्तित करें। यहाँ 'Stone' से हमारा तात्पर्य उस material से है जिससे house का निर्माण हुआ है।
54. (b) 'principals' (प्रधानाचार्य) को 'principles' (सिद्धान्त) में परिवर्तित करें।
55. (a) 'Astronomer' को 'astrologer' में परिवर्तित करें। 'furure predict' करने वाले को 'astrologer कहते हैं।
56. (c) 'friend's' को 'friend' में परिवर्तित करें। एक साथ 'double apostrophe' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।

10 PRONOUN

CHAPTER

- **Pronoun (सर्वनाम):** A **word** used **in place of a Noun**.
- **Noun के बदले** प्रयुक्त होने वाले शब्द को **Pronoun** कहते हैं।
- **Noun के repetition से बचने के लिए ही Pronoun का प्रयोग किया जाता है।** किसी भी वाक्य में एक ही Noun का प्रयोग बार-बार करने से वाक्य की सुन्दरता खत्म हो जाती है। यही मुख्य कारण है, कि Noun के बदले Pronoun का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: Mrs. Shukla, being a good teacher, she is liked by all the students. (**She हटा दें।** Noun के स्थान पर pronoun का प्रयोग होता है न कि Noun के साथ)

PRONOUNS ds izdkj%

1. **PERSONAL PRONOUNS (पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम):** I, me, we, us, you, he, him, she, her, it, they, them.
2. **POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS (अधिकारवाचक सर्वनाम):** Mine, ours, yours, his, hers, theirs.
3. **DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (संकेतवाचक सर्वनाम):** This, that, these, those.
4. **DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS (व्यष्टिवाचक सर्वनाम):** each, either, neither, every, none etc.
5. **RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS (पारस्परिक-सम्बन्ध वाचक सर्वनाम):** each other, one another.
6. **REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS (निजवाचक सर्वनाम):** Myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves, oneself.
7. **EMPHATIC OR EMPHASIZING PRONOUNS (दबावसूचक सर्वनाम):** Myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves, oneself का प्रयोग जब subject (कर्त्ता) पर दबाव डालने के लिए किया जाता है, तब ये **Emphatic** या **Emphasizing Pronouns** कहलाते हैं।

जैसे: You, **yourself** are responsible for your problems.
He hurt **himself.**

8. **INDEFINITE PRONOUNS (अनिश्चयवाचक सर्वनाम):** everybody, somebody, nobody, anybody, everybody, someone, no one, anyone, everything, something, nothing, anything, all, some, any, both, another, much, few, little.
9. **RELATIVE PRONOUNS (संबंधवाचक सर्वनाम):** Who, whom, whose, which, that इत्यादि। ये जोड़ने के लिए प्रयुक्त होते हैं।
10. **INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS (प्रश्नवाचक सर्वनाम):** Who, whom, whose, which इत्यादि। ये प्रश्न पूछने के लिए प्रयुक्त होते हैं।

The Case of Personal Pronouns		Subject	Object	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronouns
First Person	Singular	I	me	my	mine
	Plural	We	us	our	ours
Second Person	Singular/ Plural	You	you	your	yours
Third Person	Singular	She, He, It	her, him, it	her, his, its	hers, his, ---
	Plural	They	them	their	theirs

अब सभी प्रकार के Pronoun को विस्तार से देखे-

1. USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUN

➢ वे Pronouns जो तीनों Pronouns जैसे **First person, Second person** तथा **Third person** में प्रयुक्त होते हैं **Personal pronouns** कहलाते हैं।

PERSONAL PRONOUN

Nominative Case	Objective Case	Nominative Case	Objective Case
I	me	He	him
She	her	It	it
They	them	You	you
We	us		

RULE1

किसी sentence के **verb** के पहले Pronoun का प्रयोग हो तो वह **Nominative case** में होता है। अगर Pronoun का प्रयोग **verb** के बाद हो तो **Objective Case** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (1) I (Sub.) teach (Verb) him (Obj.). (Active Voice) — के पहले / के बाद

(2) He is taught by me (Passive) — के पहले / के बाद

RULE 2

जब विभिन्न Pronouns एक ही sentence में प्रयुक्त हों और किसी बुरी बात का आभास **न** हो, तो उन्हें 231 के क्रम में लगाते हैं, पहले 2nd Person, फिर 3rd Person और अंत में 1st Person.

1. **You, he** and **I** shall study for the exam. (231)
2. **He** and **I** have finished our work. (31)
3. **You** and **he** have done a great job. (23)

RULE 3

एक ही वाक्य में विभिन्न **Pronouns** का प्रयोग करते समय यदि उसमें अपना **दोष** स्वीकार किया गया हो अथवा कोई बुरी बात कही गई हो, तो Pronouns को **123** के **क्रम** में रखते हैं,

जैसे: 1. **I, you** and **he** have made a blunder. (123)
2. **You** and **he** have done this mischief. (23)

RULE 4

जब Pronoun बहुवचन में हो तो Pronoun **123** के क्रम में होना चाहिए यानि पहले 1st **Person,** फिर **2nd Person** और फिर **3rd Person.**

1. **We, You** and **they** should now get down to work.

RULE 5

Let, like, between, but, except एवं **prepositions** के बाद **Objective Case** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: 1. Let **me** do this work.
2. There is no problem between she and I. (×)
There is no problem between **her** and **me.** (✓)
3. Everybody but **him** was present for the meeting. (✓)
4. He laughed at I. (×)
He laughed at **me**. (✓)
5. Everyone attended the party except he. (×)
Everyone attended the party except **him**. (✓)

RULE 6

यदि **दो nominatives के बीच तुलना हो** तो **As/than** के बाद **Nominative Case के Pronoun** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. He is **as** fast **as** $\underbrace{\text{me}}_{\text{Objective Case}}$. (×)
2. He is **as** fast **as** $\underbrace{\text{I}}_{\text{Nominative Case}}$. (✓)
3. I run faster **than** $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{\text{Objective Case}}$. (×)
4. I run faster **than** $\underbrace{\text{he}}_{\text{Nominative Case}}$. (✓)

➢ ऊपर दिये गए उदाहरण में दो **subjects के बीच तुलना** किया गया है। अत: दोनों Pronoun **'nominative case'** में होना चाहिए।

नोट: लेकिन **दो objects के बीच तुलना** होने पर, **'as/than' के बाद Objective Case के Pronoun** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: I know you as much as **him**. (✓)

अर्थ: I know you as much as I know him.

RULE 7

अगर **'It'** का प्रयोग **subject** के रूप में हो और उसके बाद **'be'** के किसी **'form'** का प्रयोग हो तो उसके बाद pronoun के nominative case का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: It is $\underbrace{\textbf{I}}_{\textbf{Nominative case}}$ who am to blame.

USE OF 'IT'

RULE 1

It का प्रयोग **जानवर, निर्जीव पदार्थ, देश व शिशु** के लिए होता है। '**It**' का बहुवचन '**they**' होता है।

जैसे: **America** is a developed country. **It** is a super power.

Sri Lanka and Pakistan are developing countries. **They** are facing internal terrorism.

RULE 2

It का प्रयोग **time, weather (मौसम), temperature (तापमान) तथा distance (दूरी) या अन्य प्राकृतिक घटना** को express (अभिव्यक्त) करने के लिए **Introductory subject** के रूप में होता है। इस case में **'it'** को '**empty 'it'** कहा जाता है क्योंकि इसका कोई अर्थ नहीं होता है।

जैसे: It is raining. It is morning.
It is winter. It is 6 o'clock.
It is March. It is Monday.

RULE 3

It का प्रयोग **Infinitive, Gerund** तथा **Clause के बदले** में भी होता है।

जैसे: **It** is easy to solve it.

It is said that virtue is its own reward.

Rule 4: It का प्रयोग **sentence के subject के रूप में noun या pronoun पर जोर डालने** के लिए होता है।

जैसे: **It** was $\underbrace{\text{he}}_{\text{Pron.}}$ who made this mistake.

RULE 5

It का प्रयोग **Phrase** या **clause** को **introduce** करने के लिए होता है।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\textbf{That the record will break today}}_{\textbf{Clause}}$ is probable.

= It is probable that the record will break today.

Differences Between 'This' and 'It'

- **This** का प्रयोग किसी **व्यक्ति/वस्तु के नाम/पहचान/परिचय/समीपता** आदि का बोध कराने के लिए होता है, न कि It का।

जैसे: **This** is a book.

This is a pen.

- **It** का प्रयोग **समय, दूरी, मौसम, आदि का बोध** कराने के लिए होता है न कि This का।

जैसे: **It** is 10 a.m.

It is winter.

It is night

नोट: (1) **This** के बाद **noun** का प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: **This** $\underbrace{\text{book}}_{\text{Noun}}$ is mine.

➢ **It के बाद 'noun'** का **प्रयोग नहीं** हो सकता क्योंकि noun के स्थान पर pronoun का प्रयोग होता है।
It book is mine (×)
It is my book (✓)

➢ **This** का प्रयोग किसी **singular noun** के तरह **इंगित** करने के लिए किया जाता है **जब वह noun समीप हो**।

जैसे: **This boy** is very intelligent.

➢ **It** का प्रयोग **किसी singular निर्जीव वस्तु/शिशु के लिए pronoun के रूप में** होता है।

जैसे: **It** is a splendid monument.

➢ (1) **This के बाद noun** का **प्रयोग** हो सकता है।

जैसे: **This** book is mine.

USE OF THE PRONOUNS OF POSSESSIVE CASE

Nominative Case	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
I	my	mine
We	our	ours
You	your	yours
He	his	his
She	her	hers
It	its	×
They	their	theirs

RULE 1

'Possessive pronouns का **प्रयोग noun के पहले नहीं** होता है।

जैसे: Ours $\underbrace{\text{school}}_{\text{Noun}}$ was closed for four days. (×)

Our school was closed for four days. (✓)

नोट: **(i) : Possessive adjectives** का प्रयोग **Noun के पहले** होता है।

जैसे: **This** is **my** book.

(ii) अगर **Noun का उल्लेख हो चुका हो** या वह **पहले से ज्ञात हो** तो उसका **उल्लेख फिर से नहीं** करना चाहिए तथा **Possessive Pronoun** का प्रयोग किया जाना चाहिए।

जैसे: This book is **mine**.

Possessive pronouns	Meaning (Possessive Adjective + Noun)
Mine	My + noun
Ours	Our + noun
Yours	Your + noun
His	His + noun
Hers	Her + noun
Theirs	Their + noun

(iii) **His** का प्रयोग **Possessive Adjective एवं Possessive Pronoun** दोनों ही रूप में होता है।

(iv) **Its** का प्रयोग **Possessive Adjective के रूप में** होता है। इसका प्रयोग **Possessive Pronoun के रूप में नहीं** होता है।

RULE 2

Possessive Pronouns का प्रयोग किसी **sentence के verb के subject के रूप में होता है।**

जैसे: **Yours** $\underbrace{\text{is}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ a new car.

अर्थ: **Your car** is a new car.

Hers $\underbrace{\text{is}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ a beautiful house.

अर्थ: **Her house** is a beautiful house.

RULE 3

Possessive Pronouns का प्रयोग किसी **sentence के verb के object के रूप में** होता है।

जैसे: He $\underbrace{\text{has lost}}_{\text{Verb}}$ **my books** as well as yours.

अर्थ: He has lost my books as well as your books.

Save **your time** and $\underbrace{\text{mine}}_{\text{Obj.}}$ too.

अर्थ: Save your time and my time too.

RULE 4

Possessive Pronouns का प्रयोग **किसी sentence में preposition के object के रूप में** होता है।

जैसे: (1) I prefer your help $\underbrace{\text{to}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{her}}_{\text{Obj.}}$. (×)

I prefer your help $\underbrace{\text{to}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{hers}}_{\textbf{Obj.}}$. (✓)

(2) Your house is better $\underbrace{\text{than}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{my}}_{\text{Obj.}}$. (×)

Your house is better $\underbrace{\text{than}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{mine}}_{\textbf{Obj.}}$. (✓)

RULE 5

'Separation, leave, excuse, mention, report, pardon, sight, favour' के साथ **Possessive case का प्रयोग गलत** है।

उदाहरण देखे-

1. Your separation is very painful to me. (**'separation from you'** का प्रयोग करें।)
2. At his sight the robbers fled. (**'At the sight of him'** का प्रयोग करें।)

3. I need your favour, please. ('**favour of/from you**' का प्रयोग करें।)
4. She did make **mention of you**. (✓)

RULE 6

Possessive Pronoun में '**s**' के पहले '**apostrophe**' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। **your's, her's, it's** इत्यादि का प्रयोग करना गलत होता है।

जैसे: 1. The bear had a ring around it's nose. (×)
2. The bear had a ring around its nose. (✓)

RULE 7

Gerund के पहले '**possessive adjective**' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. I was confident of **my** winning the match.
2. She was not confident of **her** doing well in the examination.

USE OF REFLEXIVE PRONOUN

जब वाक्य में **'स्वंय'**, **'खुद ही'**, **'खुद को'**, **'अपने आप'** जैसे शब्दों का प्रयोग हो तो Reflexive Pronoun का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The poor man poisoned himself and his children.

RULE 1

'Acquit (प्रशंसाजनक व्यवहार करना), avail (लाभ उठाना), reconcile (बेमन से ही पर स्वीकार कर लेना), amuse (मनोरंजन करना), resign (हथियार डाल देना/बेमन से ही पर स्वीकार कर लेना), avenge (बदला लेना), exert (काफी मेहनत करना), apply (ध्यान लगाना), adapt (ढ़ालना), adjust, pride, absent एवं enjoy के बाद reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: 1. The officers **acquitted themselves** well during the crisis.
2. She has **reconciled herself** to the demands of her in-laws.
3. The students **exert themselves** a lot at the time of examination.
4. You will have to **apply yourself** to this task whole-heartedly.
5. I **pride myself** on being able to work smoothly under pressure too.
6. You should **avail yourself** of this opportunity.

नोट: नीचे दिए गए वाक्यों को देखें-

1. They enjoyed the party. (reflexive pronoun की जरूरत नहीं है)
2. They enjoyed during vacation. (**'themselves' का प्रयोग enjoyed' के बाद करें**)

➢ अगर **enjoy के बाद object का उल्लेख हो तो reflexive pronoun न लगायें** परन्तु **अगर object का उल्लेख नहीं हो तो reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग करें।**

नोट: नीचे दिए गए वाक्यों को देखें-

He was absent. (✓)
He absented himself. (✓)

➢ अगर **absent का प्रयोग verb के रूप में हो तभी reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग करें।**

RULE 2

Keep, stop, turn, qualify, bathe, move, rest एवं hide के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग नहीं होता।

जैसे: You should keep yourself away from bad boys. ('yourself' हटा दें).
He hid himself in the room. ('himself' हटा दें).

RULE 3

Subject अथवा **object** के रूप में एक **reflexive pronoun** का प्रयोग तब तक नहीं हो सकता जब तक उसके पहले सम्बन्धित **noun/pronoun** का उल्लेख ना हो।

जैसे: 1. Myself Ramesh from Delhi. ('myself' के स्थान पर '**I am**' का प्रयोग करे')
2. Yourself and he reached there in time. ('yourself' के स्थान पर '**you**' का प्रयोग करे')
3. **I myself** did this work(✓)
4. Rohit will do this work for myself ('myself' के स्थान पर '**me**' का प्रयोग करे')

USE OF DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUN

RULE 1

Either का प्रयोग **'दो में से कोई एक' के अर्थ में** होता है।

जैसे: Either of these three friends is naughty. (×)
Either of these **two** pens is red. (✓)

नोट: लेकिन **'दो से अधिक व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं में से कोई एक' के अर्थ में 'any' या 'one'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: One of these three friends is naughty.(✓)

RULE 2

'Neither' का प्रयोग **'दो से से कोई भी नहीं'** के अर्थ में होता है।
Neither of these **two** girls is active. (✓)

नोट: लेकिन **'दो से अधिक व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं में से कोई भी नहीं' के अर्थ में 'none'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Neither of his four sons looked after him. (×)
None of his **four** sons looked after him. (✓)

USE OF RECIPROCAL PRONOUN

- **'Each other' तथा 'one another'** को **'Reciprocal pronoun'** कहते है। ये **पारस्परिक संबंध को व्यक्त** करते हैं।

RULE1

'Each other' का प्रयोग **दो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं** के लिए होता है, जबकि **'one another'** का प्रयोग **दो से अधिक व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं** के लिए होता है।

जैसे: 1. He was so afraid that his knees knocked one another ('one another' को **'each other'** में परिवर्तित करें)
2. After the farewell, the students of class XII bade each other goodbye. (each other को **one another** में परिवर्तित करें)

USE OF DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN

- वे **Pronouns** जो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं को **point out** या **demonstrate (संकेतित/प्रदर्शित)** करने के लिए प्रयुक्त होते हैं, **Demonstrative Pronouns** कहलाते हैं। जैसे- **This, that, these, those, such, the same.**
- इनका प्रयोग जब **nouns के पहले** होता है तो ये **Demonstrative Adjectives** कहलाते हैं।

RULE 1

'This' का प्रयोग **समीप की एक व्यक्ति या वस्तु** के लिए होता है, जबकि **'These'** का प्रयोग **समीप की एक से अधिक व्यक्ति या वस्तु** के लिए होता है।

जैसे: **This** is a $\underbrace{\text{cat}}_{\text{S. N.}}$.

These are $\underbrace{\text{cats}}_{\text{P. N.}}$.

RULE 2

'That' का प्रयोग **दूर की एक व्यक्ति या वस्तु** के लिए होता है, जबकि **'those'** का प्रयोग **दूर की एक से अधिक व्यक्ति या वस्तु** के लिए होता है।

जैसे: **That** is a $\underbrace{\text{book}}_{\text{S. N.}}$.

Those are $\underbrace{\text{books}}_{\text{P. N.}}$.

➢ **Singular noun के repetition को रोकने** के लिए **'that of'** तथा **plural noun के repetition को रोकने** के लिए **'those of'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The climate of Pune is better than **that** (अर्थ: climate) **of** Mumbai.

The streets of Delhi are wider than **those** (अर्थ: streets) **of** Mumbai.

RULE 5

किसी **sentence** में **Singular Countable Noun को दोबारा लिखने से बचने के लिए 'one' का प्रयोग** होता है, जबकि **Plural Countable Noun को दुबारा लिखने से बचने के लिए 'ones' का प्रयोग** होता है न कि one's का।

जैसे: 1. **This** is the new version, but that is an old **one**.

2. **These** are new books, but those are old **ones**.

USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUN

➢ वे **Pronouns** जो **जोड़ने का कार्य** करते हैं **Relative pronouns** कहलाते हैं। जैसे- **who, which, that, what, why** इत्यादि।

I met Veena, **who** was returning from school.

RULE 1

Relative Pronouns (who/which/that) का प्रयोग **subordinate clause** के **subject** के रूप में होता है।

जैसे: The boy $\underbrace{\text{who}}_{\text{Subj.}}$ came here is a player.

RULE 2

Relative Pronouns (whom/which/that) का प्रयोग **subordinate clause** में **verb के object** के रूप में होता है।

जैसे: I have a son $\underbrace{\text{whom}}_{\text{Obj.}}$ I $\underbrace{\text{love}}_{\text{Verb}}$ very much.

RULE 3

अगर **'and'** से जुड़कर **दो antecedents** का प्रयोग हो, **जिनमें से एक मनुष्य तथा दूसरा जानवर या वस्तु हो**, तो इसके बाद **Relative Pronoun 'that'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The man and his dog **that** I saw yesterday have been kidnapped.

RULE 4

Superlative degree के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Mr. Mishra is the **most** laborious man **that** I have ever seen.

RULE 5

All का प्रयोग व्यक्ति के लिए हो, तो इसके बाद **'who/that'** का प्रयोग होता है, न कि whom/which का।

जैसे: All **who/that** are interested to do this work can start now.

RULE 6

All का प्रयोग वस्तु के लिए हो, तो इसके बाद **'that'** का प्रयोग होता है, who, whom, which का नहीं।

जैसे: All **that** glitters is not gold.

नोट: **All + Uncountable Noun के बाद that** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: All the money **that** I gave her has been spent.

RULE 7

Everything, nothing, the only, any, all, everyone, none, no, nobody, much, little, the same, the few, the little के बाद that का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: My father has given me **everything that** I needed.

This is **the only** pen **that** I bought yesterday.

My wife has spent **the little** money **that** I gave her.

RULE 8

Verb के स्पष्ट रहने पर 'the same + Noun' के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: This is the same man **that** $\underbrace{\text{deceived}}_{\text{Verb (स्पष्ट)}}$ me.

USE OF INTERROGATIVE PROUNOUN

➢ वे **Pronouns** जो **प्रश्न पूछने के लिए प्रयुक्त** होते हैं, **Interrogative pronouns** कहलाते हैं।

जैसे: **Who, whom, whose, which** इत्यादि **Interrogative pronouns** हैं।

RULE 1

A, B तथा C को ध्यान से देखें-

(A) **Who** का प्रयोग **subject का पता करने के लिए** होता है।

जैसे: **Who** is playing ?

(B) **Whom** का प्रयोग **object का पता करने के लिए** होता है।

जैसे: **Whom** has he invited?

(C) **Whose** का प्रयोग **मालिक का पता करने के लिए** होता है।

जैसे: **Whose** book is this?

RULE 2

Preposition + whom का प्रयोग होता है, लेकिन Preposition + who का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।

जैसे: (A) **By whom** was the Ramayana written?

नोट: लेकिन **Preposition का प्रयोग वाक्य के अंत में करने/होने पर who का प्रयोग वाक्य के शुरूआत में** होता है- यह प्रचलित है।

जैसे: **Who** was the Ramayana written **by**?

अन्तर देखें:

1. Who $\underbrace{\text{are}}_{\text{V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{you}}_{\text{sub.}}$? (✓)
2. I don't know who are you. (×)

   I don't know who $\underbrace{\text{you}}_{\text{sub.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{are}}_{\text{V}}$. (✓)

RULE 3

जब **दो या दो से अधिक में से एक का चुनाव** करना हो तो **'which'** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: 1. Who is your brother in the crowd? (×)
Which is your brother in the crowd?(✓)

2. Who of the servants do you want? (×)
Which of the servants do you want? (✓)

➢ **'Questions'** में **'wh' family के बाद tense का interrogative form** लगाये यानि **sub के बाद verb/helping verb. (वाक्य 1 देखें)** लेकिन अगर 'wh' family दो वाक्यों को जोड़ रहा हो यानि relative pronoun हो तो **relative pronoun के बाद tense का assertive form** का प्रयोग करें। यानि

subject के पहले helping verb/ verb.

RULE 4

'**Whose**' का प्रयोग निर्जीव वस्तु के लिए नहीं होता है।

जैसे: 1. Whose book is this? (✓)

2. This is the flyover whose inaugration was done by the transport minister. (×)
This is the flyover **the inaugration of which** was done by the transport minister? (✓)

PRONOUN IN RELATION TO SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT

➢ 'Pronoun' के संबंधित प्रश्न 'subject-verb agreement' अध्याय से भी पूछे जाते हैं।

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN

RULE 1

जब **दो subjects** को **'as well as', 'with', 'alongwith', 'together with', 'and not', 'In addition to', 'but', 'besides', 'except', 'rather than', 'accompanied by', 'like', 'unlike', 'no less than', 'nothing but'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **Possessive Pronoun 1st subject के अनुसार** होगा।

जैसे: (1) Rita **as well as her friends** has done **her** work.

(2) My friend Reena **along with** her sister is doing **her** job at Delhi.

RULE 2

जब **दो Subjects** को **either-or, neither-nor, not only-but also, none-but**'. से जोड़ा जाए तो **possessive pronoun nearest subject के अनुसार** होगा।

जैसे: **Neither** the staff members **nor** the manager was taking his task seriously.

RULE 3

जब **'each, every, neither, either, anyone'** का **प्रयोग subject के रूप में** हो तो **possessive case third person singular** के अनुसार होना चाहिए।

जैसे: **Neither of** the two brothers has brought their luggage. (our के स्थान पर '**his**' का प्रयोग करें।)

Each one of us is doing our duty properly. ('Our' के स्थान पर '**his**' का प्रयोग करें)

RULE 4

यदि **collective noun** जैसे- **Jury, army, fleet, crew,** का प्रयोग **sentence के subject के रूप में** हो

तथा इससे **'समूह' का बोध** हो तो इसके लिए **singular pronoun तथा adjective** जैस **it, its, itself** का प्रयोग जरुरत के अनुसार होता है।

जैसे: The jury has given their verdict. (×)

The jury **has** given **its** verdict. (✓)

RULE 5

यदि **collective noun का प्रयोग sentence के subject के रूप में** हो तथा इससे **separate individuals (अलग-अलग व्यक्तियों या सदस्यों) का बोध हो** तो इसे **plural** माना जाता है तथा इसके लिए **plural pronoun** तथा **plural adjective – they, them, their, theirs, themselves** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The team are divided in its opinion. (×)

The team are divided in their opinion. (✓)

RULE 6

यदि दो या **दो से अधिक singular nouns 'and' से जुड़कर प्रयुक्त** हों तो इसके लिए **plural pronoun तथा adjective (they, them, their, theirs, themselves) का प्रयोग** होता है।

जैसे: Ram **and** Shyam do **their** work. (✓)

RULE 7

यदि **दो singular nouns 'and' से जुड़े हों** तथा **सिर्फ पहले singular noun के पूर्व Article या Possessive Adjectives का प्रयोग हुआ हो** तो **इससे एक ही व्यक्ति या वस्तु का बोध होता है** तथा इसके लिए **singular pronoun तथा adjective – he, him, his, himself का प्रयोग व्यक्ति के लिए तथा it, its, itself का प्रयोग वस्तु के लिए।** होता है, न कि they, them, their, theirs, themselves का।

जैसे: **The** secretary and treasurer is negligent of their duty. (×)

The secretary and treasurer is negligent of **his** duty. (✓)

RULE 8

यदि **दो singular nouns 'and' से जुड़े हों** तथा **प्रत्येक singular noun के पहले article या possessive adjective का प्रयोग हो** तो इससे **दो विभिन्न व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं का बोध होता है तथा इसके लिए Plural pronouns और Adjective – They, them their, theirs, themselves का प्रयोग जरुरत के मुताबिक होता है।**

जैसे: **The** secretary and **the** treasurer did not do his work. (×)

The secretary and **the** treasurer did not do **their** work. (✓)

RULE 9

यदि **दो या दो से अधिक singular nouns 'and' से जुड़े हों** तथा **प्रत्येक singular noun के पहले each या every का प्रयोग** हुआ हो तो वाक्य में **singular pronoun, singular adjective एवं singular verb का प्रयोग** होता है न कि plural pronoun एवं plural adjective का।

जैसे: **Every** soldier and **every** sailor was in their place. (×)

Every soldier and **every** sailor was in **his** place. (✓)

RULE 10

Many a/an + Singular noun का प्रयोग sentence के **subject के रूप में** हो तो इसके लिए **singular pronoun** व **adjective का प्रयोग** होता है।

जैसे: **Many a** $\underbrace{\text{soldier}}_{\text{S. N.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{has}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ met $\underbrace{\text{his}}_{\text{S.P.}}$ death in the battlefield. (✓)

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

RULE 1

Each of / Either of / Neither of के **बाद plural noun** या **plural pronoun** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Each of the boy has a note book. (×)

Each of the $\underbrace{\text{boys}}_{\text{P. N.}}$ has a note book.(✓)

RULE 2

Each of / either of / neither of के **बाद** प्रयुक्त **plural noun** के पहले **'the'** का प्रयोग होता है।

➢ **Each, either, neither, any** के लिए **singular pronoun** एवं **singular verb** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Each of the boys has their own book. (×)

Each of the $\underbrace{\text{boys}}_{\text{P. N.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{has}}_{\text{S.V.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{his}}_{\text{S.P.}}$ own book. (✓)

RULE 3

यदि **each** का प्रयोग **subject के लिए** हो तो **each** का प्रयोग **subject के बाद** अर्थात् **auxiliary verb के पहले** होता है।

जैसे: We have each advised him to give up smoking. (×)

$\underbrace{\text{We}}_{\text{Sub.}}$ **each** $\underbrace{\text{have}}_{\text{Aux. Verb}}$ advised him to give up smoking. (✓)

नोट: ऐसे वाक्यों में **'verb' sub के अनुसार** प्रयुक्त होना चाहिए।

RULE 4

Both का प्रयोग **दो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं** के लिए होता है।

जैसे: All of the two students are guilty. (×)

Both of the two students are guilty. (✓)

➢ **Both** का प्रयोग **नाकारात्मक वाक्य में नहीं** होता है।

Both of them are not going. (×)

Neither of them is going. (✓)

USE OF INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

RULE 1

यदि **'One'** का प्रयोग **sentence के subject** के रूप में हो, तो इसके लिए **Nominative case – one** तथा **Objective pronoun - oneself** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. **One** should do **one's** duty **oneself.**

2. **One** should keep **one's** promise.

नोट: 'Pronoun' से संबंधित सवाल 'Question Tag' अध्याय से भी आते है। **'Question Tag' अध्याय देखें।**

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) Unless two or more members object/ (b) to him joining the club, we shall have to/ (c) accept his application for membership./ (d) No error.
2. (a) I was surprised and pleased (b)/ when I was informed of me (c) winning the contest./ (d) No error.
3. (a) Our dog may look/ (b) fierce but/ (c) that wouldn't hurt a fly./ (d) No error.
4. (a) No one can/ (b) challenge destiny,/ (c)isn't it?/ (d) No error.
5. (a) All the doubts are cleared/ (b) between/ (c) you and I./ (d) No error.
6. (a) The front page story was about a school girl/ (b) that had hurt herself/ (c) while saving a child in an accident./ (d) No error.
7. (a) The last thing that the fond mother/ (b) gave her only son/ (c) was his blessing./ (d) No error.
8. (a) It is not/ (b) I who is/ (c) to blame./ (d) No error.
9. (a) I shall avail of/ (b) this opportunity/ (c) to meet you there./ (d) No error.
10. (a) Put you in my position/ (b) and you will realise/ (c) the problems faced in my profession./ (d) No error.
11. (a) Each of them/ (b) has to understand/ (c) their responsibility/ (d) No error.
12. (a) We are proud to announce/ (b) that every one of us have earned/ (c) a good name./ (d) No error.
13. (a) Here is/ (b) the man whom I think/ (c) committed the crime./ (d) No error.
14. (a) He took/ (b) his younger sister/ (c) with himself./ (d) No error.
15. (a) The company is in debt/ (b) and has been unable/ (c) to pay their employees' salaries/ (d) for the past six months./ (e) No error.
16. (a) The company has appointed/ (b) consultants to help them/ (c) increase its revenue and/ (d) improve its financial position./ (e) No error.
17. (a) You cannot change/ (b) people, but you/ (c) can definitely/ (d) change own./ (e) No error.
18. (a) Governments and business houses must reduce/ (b) its own energy use/ (c) and promote conservation/ (d) to their citizens and employees./ (e) No error.
19. (a) Even those which/ (b) have no previous/ (c) work experience have/ (d) applied for this job./ (e) No error.
20. (a) He talked on the phone/ (b) for hours together/ (c) who really irritated/ (d) his

parents a lot./ (e) No error.

21. (a) Instead of laying off/ (b) the workers, the company/ (c) decided to ask them/ (d) to avail voluntary retirement./ (e) No error.
22. (a) The two sisters shouted/ (b) at one another/ (c) in public./ (d) No error.
23. (a) We must supplement/ (b) our diet with vitamins and minerals/ (c) in order to keep/ (d) oneself fit.
24. (a) Mrs. Pratap, being a good teacher/ (b) she is selected/ (c) for the National Award./ (d) No error
25. (a) The poor man/ (b) poisoned him/ (c) and his own children./ (d) No error.
26. (a) It was in 2006/ (b) that we first flew/ (c) to the United States./ (d) No error.
27. (a) I was driving under the bridge/ (b) as a football/ (c) hit my window./ (d) No error.
28. (a) Many a student/ (b) have passed/ (c) the I.I.T. examination./ (d) No error.
29. (a) It was me who was/ (b) responsible for/ (c) making all the arrangements for the successful completion of his studies./ (d) No error.
30. (a) I wonder/ (b) why are you tinkering with the wire./ (c) You might get a shock./ (d) No error.
31. (a) John, I and Hari/ (b) have finished/ (c) our studies./ (d) No error.
32. (a) He doesn't/ (b) know/ (c) to swim./ (d) No error.
33. (a) All the dresses/ (b) looked good and so I/ (c) bought all of it./ (d) No error.
34. (a) Those people who/ (b)do not work hard/ (c) they do not succeed in life./ (d) No error.
35. (a) He bathed himself/ (b) in/ (c) a river./ (d) No error.
36. (a) She could not/ (b) bear/ (c) his separation./ (d) No error.
37. (a) If you want this job/ (b) you will need/ (c) his favour./ (d) No error.
38. (a) Both of them will not/ (b) refute/ (c) the charges./ (d) No error.
39. (a) She is the kind / (b) of woman whom every body knows/ (c) is benign and magnanimous./ (d) No error.
40. (a) The master did not know/ (b) who of the servants/ (c) broke the expensive dinner set/ (d) No error.
41. (a) The Congress Party stood/ (b) for implementation of the Nuclear Liabilty Bill/ (c) and was ready to stake their political existence/ (d) No error.
42. (a) He is not one of those/ (b) who will help every Tom, Dick and Harry/ (c) whom he meets/ (d) No error.
43. (a) It is not easy for anyone to command/ (b) respect from both one's friends and critics/ (c) as Mahatma Gandhi did/ (d) No error.
44. (a) He, You and I/ (b) shall arrange everything/ (c) and shall not ask them for help/ (d) No error.
45. (a) Was it me/ (B) who had to face/ (c) the music?/ (d) No error.
46. (a) The audience/ (b) are requested/ (c) to be in its seats and stay away from the track/ (d) No error.
47. (a) The number of vehicles/ (B) plying on the roads of Delhi/ (c) is more than on the roads of Bangalore/ (D) No error.
48. (A) Being a destitute/ (b) I admitted him/ (c) to an ophanage/ (d) No error.

49. (a) One should keep/ (b) his promise/ (c) if one wants respect from both friends and enemies/(d) No error.
50. (a) Last summer I went to Shimla/ (b) and enjoyed very/ (c) much/ (d) No error.
51. (a) If I were him/ (b) I would teach/ (c) him a lesson/ (d) No error.
52. (a) Being a/ (b) rainy day I/ (c) could not go to school/ (d) No error.
53. (a) One of them/(b) forgot to take their passport/ (c) and found himself in a difficult situation/(d) No error.
54. (a) Mr. Sharma, our representative,/ (b) he will attend the meeting/ (c) on our behalf./ (d) No error.
55. (a) Each girl was/ (b) given a packet of sweets/ (c) and she was happy/ (d) No error.
56. (a) Myself and he/ (b) will manage/ (c) everything/ (d) No error.
57. (a) The Ganga is a river/ (b) whose origin/ (c) has always been a matter of speculation/ (d) No error.
58. (a) My friend/ (b) is laborious and intelligent, (c) isn't it?/ (d) No error.
59. (a) It is difficult to say/ (b) who is the better/ (c) of the two players/ (d) No error.
60. (a) It is the best/ (b) which the government can do/ (c) for the downtrodden/ (d) No error.
61. (a) Neither of the two friends/ (b) has got their money back/ (c) from the company/ (d) No error.
62. (a) This is the road/ (b) whose inaugration/ (c) was done by the President/ (d) No error.
63. (a) Many women/ (b) reconcile to the/ (c) demands of their in-laws./ (d) No error.
64. (a) May I know/ (b) to who/ (c) I am speaking?/ (d) No error.
65. (a) The person who/ (b) I met yesterday/ (c) was my classmate./ (d) No error.
66. (a) Owing to me being a new comer/ (b) I was unable/ (c) to get a good house./ (d) No error.
67. (a) A good friend of/ (b) me has been/ (c) in London for twenty years/ (d) No error.
68. (a) It was him/ (b) who came running/ (c) into the classroom./ (d) No error.
69. (a) I and Raju/ (b) left for Delhi/ (c) last summer./ (d) No error.
70. (a) I will certainly/ (b) avail of your offer/ (c) when the occasion arises./ (d) No error.
71. (a) The book/ (b) is well illustrated/ (c) and attractively bound/ (d) making altogether an attractive volume
72. (a) Besides me/ (b) many other/ (c) were present./ (d) No error.
73. (a) My house/ (b) is farther/ (c) than her's./ (d) No error.
74. (a) He is the person,/ (b) whom, everyone thought,/ (c) has stolen the ring./ (d) No error.

Answers with explanation

1. (b) 'his joining' का प्रयोग करें। 'Joining' के पहले possessive adjective 'his' का प्रयोग होगा।
2. (b) Winning के पहले possessive adjective 'my' का प्रयोग करें।

3. (c) 'Dog' के लिए Pronoun 'it' का प्रयोग करें।
4. (c) Isn't it?' के स्थान पर 'Can they' का प्रयोग करें।
5. (c) 'Between ..... and' के साथ pronoun के objective form का प्रयोग होगा।
6. (b) 'that के स्थान पर 'who' का प्रयोग करें। 'School girl' का प्रयोग subject के रूप में हो रहा है। इसके साथ relative pronoun 'who' का प्रयोग होगा ।
7. (c) 'Mother' के लिए possessive pronoun 'her' का प्रयोग होगा।
8. (b) 'is' के स्थान पर 'am' का प्रयोग करें। Relative pronoun के बाद आने वाला verb relative pronoun के antecedent से match करना चाहिए। 'I' (जो relative pronoun 'who' का antecedent है) के अनुसार verb 'am' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'is' का।
9. (a) 'Avail' के साथ एक 'reflexive pronoun' का प्रयोग करना जरूरी होता है। यहाँ 'I' के कारण 'myself' का प्रयोग होगा।
10. (a) 'You' के स्थान पर 'yourself' का प्रयोग करें।
11. (c) their के स्थान पर 'his' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 61 की व्याख्या देखें)
12. (b) 'everyone' के साथ singular verb 'has' का प्रयोग होगा।
13. (b) 'the man' subject है। अत: इसके लिए relative pronoun 'who' का प्रयोग होगा। ध्यान रहे ऐसे वाक्यों में ये अवश्य देखें कि क्रिया किसके द्वारा की जा रही है। यहाँ 'I think' से Confusion पैदा होती है और हम 'whom' का प्रयोग करने की गल्ती कर बैठते है।
14. (c) 'himself' के स्थान पर 'him' का प्रयोग करें।
15. (c) 'Company' singular noun है। इसके लिए singular possessive pronoun 'its' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'their' का।
16. (b) 'them' के स्थान पर 'it' का प्रयोग करें। Company singular noun है। इसके लिए singular pronoun 'it' का प्रयोग होगा।
17. (d) 'Own' के स्थान पर 'yourself' का प्रयोग करें।
18. (b) 'its' के स्थान पर 'their' का प्रयोग करें। 'Governments and business houses' मिल कर plural noun होते हैं। अत: plural pronoun 'their' का प्रयोग होगा।
19. (a) Which के स्थान पर 'who' का प्रयोग करें।
20. (c) 'यहाँ बात करने की क्रिया' के लिए relative pronoun 'who' का प्रयोग हो रहा है 'who' के स्थान पर 'which' का प्रयोग करें।
21. (d) Avail के साथ एक reflexive pronoun और preposition 'of' का प्रयाग करना जरूरी होता है। 'Avail' के बाद 'themselves of' का प्रयोग करें।
22. (b) 'One another' के स्थान पर 'each other' का प्रयोग करें।
23. (d) 'Oneself' के स्थान पर 'ourselves' का प्रयोग करें। Reflexive pronoun 'sub' के अनुसार प्रयुक्त होता है। 'we' के अनुसार 'ourselves' प्रयुक्त होगा। लेकिन Keep के साथ reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। (देखें- Page 172 में Rule 2) अत: 'Ourselves' हटा दें।
24. (b) 'She' हटा दे। एक ही वाक्य में noun (Mrs. Pratap) एवं pronoun (she) का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।
25. (b) 'Him' के स्थान पर 'himself' का प्रयोग करें।
26. (b) 'That' के स्थान पर 'when' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि '2006' समय है।
27. (b) 'as' के स्थान पर 'when' का प्रयोग करें।

28. (b) 'Many a' singular है। इसके साथ singular verb 'has' का प्रयोग होगा।
29. (a) 'It was I' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ 'I' sub है।
30. (b) 'You' के बाद 'are' का प्रयोग करें। वाक्य प्रश्नात्मक नहीं है।
31. (a) 231 के नियम के अनुसार 1st person सभी के बाद आना चाहिए। अत: John, Hari and I सही क्रम होगा।
32. (c) 'know' और 'wonder' के बाद 'wh' family का प्रयोग करना जरूरी होता है। 'to swim' के स्थान पर 'How to swim' का प्रयोग करें।
33. (c) 'All of it' के स्थान पर 'all of them' का प्रयोग करें।
34. (c) 'They' हटा दे। 'Those people' और 'they' का प्रयोग एक ही वाक्य में एक ही subject के लिए करना गलत होगा।
35. (a) 'Bathe' के बाद reflexive pronoun का प्रयोग नहीं होगा। 'Himself' हटा दे।
36. (c) 'His separation' का प्रयोग गलत है। 'Separation from him' का प्रयोग करें।
37. (c) 'his favour' के स्थान पर favour from/of him' का प्रयोग करें।
38. (a) 'Both' के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग न करें। 'Both of them will not के स्थान पर 'Neither of them will' का प्रयोग करें।
39. (b) 'Whom' के स्थान पर 'who' का प्रयोग करें।
40. (b) 'who' के स्थान पर 'which' का प्रयोग करें। 'of' के पहले सिर्फ 'which' का प्रयोग हो सकता है 'who और 'whom' का नहीं।
41. (c) 'their' के स्थान पर 'its' का प्रयोग करें। Congress Party (Singular noun) के लिए singular possessive pronoun 'its' का प्रयोग होगा।
42. (c) 'he meets' के स्थान पर 'they meet' का प्रयोग होगा।
43. (b) Critics के पहले one's का प्रयोग करें।
44. (a) नियम 231 के अनुसार 'you, he and I' का प्रयोग करना सही होगा।
45. (a) 'Was it I' का प्रयोग करें।
46. (c) 'its' के स्थान पर 'their' का प्रयोग करें। जब Collective noun का प्रयोग प्रत्येक व्यक्ति के संदर्भ में हो तो Plural Pronoun एवं Plural verb का प्रयोग होता है।
47. (c) 'than' के बाद 'that of' का प्रयोग करें। 'the number of vehicles' (Delhi में) की तुलना 'number of vehicles' (Bangalore में) से होनी चाहिए। लेकिन 'number of vehicles' repeat करने के बदले 'that of' का प्रयोग होगा।
48. (a) 'Being' के पहले 'he' का प्रयोग करें। अगर 'destitute' का sub 'he' न लगाया जाए तो 'I' destitute के 'sub' का भी कार्य करने लगता है जिससे वाक्य का अर्थ गलत हो जाता है।
49. (b) 'his' के स्थान पर one's का प्रयोग करें। 'One' का possessive pronoun one's होता है।
50. (b) Enjoyed के बाद 'myself' का प्रयोग करें। अगर 'enjoy' के बाद 'object' नहीं हो तो एक 'reflexive pronoun' का प्रयोग होगा।
51. (a) 'Him' के स्थान पर 'he' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ 'him' कोई object नहीं है जिसपर 'I' (sub) कोई क्रिया 'were' कर रहा हो।
52. (a) Being के पहले 'it' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 48 की व्याख्या देखें)

53. (b) 'their के स्थान पर 'his' का प्रयोग करें। 'One' singular pronoun है। अत: 'One of them' के लिए singular possessive pronoun 'his' का प्रयोग होगा।
54. (b) 'He' हटा दे। एक ही वाक्य में जब noun 'Mr Sharma' का प्रयोग हो चुका हो तो उसके लिए pronoun 'he' का प्रयोग न करें।
55. (c) 'She was' के स्थान पर 'they were' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ 'and' के बाद वाक्य परिवर्तित हो जा रहा है और अब सभी लड़कियों की बात की जा रही है।
56. (a) 'Myself' के स्थान पर 'I' का प्रयोग करें। 'Myself' का प्रयोग subject के रूप में नहीं हो सकता। 231 नियम के अनुसार he and I का प्रयोग होगा।
57. (b) 'Whose origin के स्थान पर 'the origin of which' का प्रयोग करें। 'Whose का प्रयोग 'non-living के लिए नहीं हो सकता।
58. (c) 'Isn't it?' के स्थान पर 'Isn't he?' का प्रयोग करें। 'My friend is .....' का Question tag 'isn't he?' होगा।
59. (b) 'Who' के स्थान पर 'which' का प्रयोग करें। 'of' के पहले 'which' का प्रयोग होगा। 'of' के पहले who अथवा whom का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता।
60. (b) best के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होगा। Superlative Degree के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होता है।
61. (b) 'Their' के स्थान पर 'his' का प्रयोग करें। Neither of/Either of/Each of इत्यादि के बाद आने वाला noun अथवा pronoun तो plural होगा लेकिन उसके बाद आने वाला verb/pronoun इत्यादि singular होगा।

    Neither of the $\underbrace{\text{two friends}}_{\text{Plural Noun}}$ $\underbrace{\text{has}}_{\text{Singular Verb}}$ got $\underbrace{\text{his}}_{\text{Singular Pronoun}}$ money back.

62. (b) 'Whose inaugration' के स्थान पर 'the inauguration of which' का प्रयोग करें। (वाक्य 57 की व्याख्या देखें)
63. (b) Reconcile के बाद एक reflexive pronoun का होना जरूरी होता है। Reconcile के बाद themselves का प्रयोग करें।
64. (b) 'who' के स्थान पर 'whom' का प्रयोग होगा।
65. (a) 'who' के स्थान पर 'whom' का प्रयोग होगा।
66. (a) 'being' यानि 'V_1 + ing' के पहले possessive case 'my' का प्रयोग होगा।
67. (b) 'me' के स्थान पर 'mine' का प्रयोग करें।
68. (a) 'him' के स्थान पर 'he' का प्रयोग होगा।
69. (a) '231' के नियम के अनुसार 'Raju and I' का प्रयोगा होगा।
70. (b) 'avail' के साथ एक 'reflexive pronoun' का प्रयोग होगा। यहाँ 'myself' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि subject 'I' है।
71. (c) 'making' के बाद 'it' का प्रयोग होगा।
72. (b) 'many' के साथ plural pronoun 'others' का प्रयोग होगा।
73. (c) 'her's' को 'hers' में परिवर्तित करें।
74. (b) 'whom' को 'who' में परिवर्तित करें।

11 ADJECTIVE

CHAPTER

Adjective (विशेषण): An adjective is **a word used to qualify a Noun or a Pronoun**.

➢ **Adjective** किसी **Noun या Pronoun** की **विशेषता** बताता है।
Ram is a **good** boy.
He is **intelligent**.

➢ ऊपर दिए गये वाक्यों में **'good'** एवं **'intelligent'** 'Ram' एवं 'he' की विशेषता बता रहे है। अत: वे **Adjective** हैं। **Adjective** का प्रयोग **noun के पहले या verb के बाद** होता है।

THE ADJECTIVE: KINDS

Adjective आठ प्रकार के है:

1. **Adjective of Quality (गुणवाचक)**
2. **Proper Adjective (व्यक्तिवाचक)**
3. **Adjective of Quantity (परिमाणवाचक)**
4. **Adjective of Number (संख्यावाचक)**
5. **Demonstrative Adjective (संकेतवाचक)**
6. **Distributive Adjective (विभागसूचक)**
7. **Interrogative Adjective (प्रश्नवाचक)**
8. **Possessive Adjective (संबंधवाचक)**

1. Adjective of Quality (गुणवाचक): वह **Adjective** जो **Noun का गुण, या दोष या रंग-रूप प्रकट** करता है, उसे **Adjective of Quality (गुणवाचक विशेषण)** कहते है। जैसे: an **honest** man. यहाँ **'honest' गुणवाचक विशेषण** है।

➢ **Adjective of Quality (गुणवाचक विशेषण) :** निम्नलिखित दो प्रकार से वाक्य में प्रयुक्त हो सकते हैं:

(i) Attributive use: जब किसी **Adjective का प्रयोग Noun के पहले** होता है, तो **Adjective के ऐसे प्रयोग को Attributive use** कहते हैं।

जैसे: Solomon was a **wise** $\underbrace{\text{king}}_{\text{Noun}}$.

➢ ऊपर दिए गए वाक्य में **king के पहले wise** का प्रयोग हुआ है, जो **Attributive** है।

(ii) Predicative use: जब किसी **Adjective** का प्रयोग **Verb के बाद** होता है, तो **Adjective के ऐसे प्रयोग को Predicative use** कहते हैं।

जैसे: The weather $\underbrace{\text{is}}_{\text{Verb}}$ **pleasant**

➢ ऊपर दिए गए वाक्य में **pleasant** का प्रयोग **Predicative part** में हुआ है।

2. **Proper Adjective (व्यक्तिवाचक): Proper Noun से बनने वाले Adjective** को **Proper Adjective (व्यक्तिवाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं: जैसे:**Buddhist** Monastery, **British** rule.

यहाँ **'Buddhist'** एवं **'British' Proper adjective** है।

3. **Adjective of Quantity (परिमाणवाचक):** जिस **Adjective से वस्तु की मात्रा ज्ञात** हो,उसे **Adjective of Quantity (परिमाणवाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं: जैसे:**Some** milk; **enough** oil; **sufficient** sugar; **no** manners. यहाँ **'some', 'enough', 'sufficient'** एवं **'no' adjective of quantity** है।

4. **Adjective of Number (संख्यावाचक):** जिस शब्द से **वस्तु की संख्या ज्ञात** हो, उसे **Adjective of Number (संख्यावाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं।

ये दो प्रकार के होते हैं: **(i) Definite** **(ii) Indefinite**

➢ जब **वे निश्चित संख्या/व्यक्ति** को संबोधित करे तो वे **definite adjective of number** कहलाते है।

जैसे: **Five** boys, **fifth** class.

(i) Indefinite: जब **वे निश्चित संख्या व्यक्त न करें** तो वे **Indefinite adjective of number** कहलाते हैं।

जैसे: **Few** girls, **several** boys.

(a) **Cardinal Adjectives (निश्चित संख्यावाचक विशेषण): निश्चित संख्या** जैसे one, two three, four का **बोध** कराने वाले **Adjectives** को **Cardinal Adjective** कहते हैं।

जैसे: He has **four** pens.
She has **two** books.

(b) **Ordinal Adjectives (निश्चित क्रमवाचक विशेषण): निश्चित क्रम (order)** का बोध कराने वाले **Adjectives** को **Ordinal Adjectives** कहते हैं।

जैसे: **First, second, third, fourth**.... etc.
The **first** chapter of this book is on verb.

➢ Article **'the'** का प्रयोग **ordinal के पहले** होता है, **cardinal के पहले नहीं**।

जैसे: Lesson **one** is on verb.
The **first** lesson is on verb.

5. **Demonstrative Adjective (संकेतवाचक):** जो **Adjective** अपने **तुरंत बाद** प्रयुक्त **Noun की ओर संकेत** करें, उसे **Demontrative Adjective (संकेतवाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं।

जैसे: **This** boy, t**hat** group, **these** people, **those** countries.

नोट: यदि **this, that, these, those** के **तुरंत बाद Noun** है, तो ये शब्द **Demonstrative Adjectives** होंगे और यदि इनके **तुरंत बाद Verb** है तो ये शब्द **Demonstrative Pronouns** होंगे;

जैसे: **Demonstrative Adjective** | **Demonstrative Pronoun**

This girl is good. | **This** is a good girl.

That pen is new. | **That** is a new pen.

These shirts are white. | **These** are white shirts.

6. Distributive Adjective (विभागसूचक): जो **Adjective किसी वर्ग की प्रत्येक वस्तु या व्यक्ति को सम्बोधित** करे, उसे **Distributive Adjective (विभागसूचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं।

जैसे: **Each** candidate is honest.

Every boy is present today.

नोट: **Each, every, either, neither** के **तुरन्त बाद यदि Noun है**, तो ये शब्द **Distributive Adjectives** होंगे; और यदि **each, every, either, neither के तुरन्त बाद कोई अन्य शब्द है**, तो ये शब्द **Distributive Pronouns** होंगे:

जैसे, **Distributive Adjective** | **Distributive Pronoun**

Each boy took the test. | **Each** of the boys took the test.

7. Interrogative Adjective (प्रश्नवाचक): जो **Adjective प्रश्न पूछने का कार्य करे**, उसे **Interrogative Adjective (प्रश्नवाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं,

जैसे: **Which** room is hers?

Whose book is this?

नोट: **What, which, whose के तुरन्त बाद यदि Noun** है, तो ये शब्द **Interrogative Adjectives** होंगे और यदि उनके **तुरन्त बाद Verb** है, तो ये शब्द **Interrogative Pronouns** होंगे;

जैसे: **Interrogative Adjective** | **Interrogative Pronoun**

What colour is your bag? | **What** did you do?

8. Possessive Adjectives (संबंधवाचक विशेषण) : जो **Adjectives किसी व्यक्ति अथवा वस्तु से संबंध बताते हैं**, उसे **Possessive Adjectives (संबंधवाचक विशेषण)** कहते हैं,

जैसे: **My** book, **our** class.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

- **Adjective** का प्रयोग तीन **degrees** में किया जाता है- **Positive, Comparative** एवं **Superlative degree.**
- जब एक (व्यक्ति, वस्तु, समूह इत्यादि) की विशेषता का वर्णन करना हो तो **Positive degree** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He is a **good** boy.

- जब एक की तुलना दूसरे से की जाए तो **Comparative degree** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He is **better** than you.

- जब सभी में से एक का चुनाव किया जाए तो **superlative degree** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: He is the **best** student of my class.

RULE 1

सामान्यत: **किसी adjective का comparative degree बनाने के लिए positive degree में 'er' लगाया** जाता है और **superlative degree बनाने के लिए positive degree में 'est' लगाया** जाता है।

I.	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	Bold	Bolder	Boldest
	Deep	Deeper	Deepest
	High	Higher	Highest
	Strong	Stronger	Strongest
	Thick	Thicker	Thickest
	Weak	Weaker	Weakest

RULE 2

यदि **positive degree के अंत में 'e' हो तो comparative में केवल 'r' ओर superlative में 'st'** लगाते है।

II.	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	Able	Abler	Ablest
	Brave	Braver	Bravest
	Fine	Finer	Finest
	Noble	Nobler	Noblest
	True	Truer	Truest
	Wise	Wiser	Wisest

RULE 3

जब **positive degree consonant में खत्म हो और उसके पहले कोई short vowel आये तो consonant को double करने के बाद क्रमश: 'er' एवं 'est' लगाकर comparative एवं superlative degree** बनाया जाता है।

III.	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	Big	Bigger	Biggest
	Fit	Fitter	Fittest
	Hot	Hotter	Hottest
	Sad	Sadder	Saddest
	Thin	Thinner	Thinnest
	Wet	Wetter	Wettest

RULE 4

जब **positive degree का अंत 'y' में हो और उसके पहले एक consonant हो तो 'y' को 'i' में परिवर्तित करें और Comparative एवं superlative बनाने के लिए क्रमश: 'er' एवं 'est'** लगायें।

IV.	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	Dry	Drier	Driest
	Happy	Happier	Happiest
	Heavy	Heavier	Heaviest

Pretty	Prettier	Prettiest
Merry	Merrier	Merriest

नोटः अगर **'y' के पहले vowel हो तो सिर्फ 'er' एवं 'est' लगायें।**

Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
Grey	Greyer	Greyest

RULE 5

दो शब्द खण्ड (syllables) के कई adjectives एवं दो से अधिक शब्द खण्ड के सभी adjectives के comparative एवं superlative क्रमशः 'more' एवं 'most' लगा कर बनाये जाते है।

V.	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
	Beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
	Courageous	more courageous	most courageous
	Intelligent	more intelligent	most intelligent
	Pleasant	more pleasant	most pleasant

नोटः **कुछ adjectives किसी भी नियम का पालन नहीं करते। वे पूरी तरह से परिवर्तित हो जाते है।**

Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
Good/well	better	best
Bad/ill	worse	worst
Little	less/lesser	least
Fore	former	foremost/first
Late	later/latter	last/latest
Far	farther	farthest
Near	nearer	nearest/next
Old	older/elder	oldest/eldest
Much/many	more	most

CORRECT USE OF SOME ADJECTIVES

1. Use of 'some' and 'any'

➢ **Some/ any का अर्थ कोई, कुछ और थोड़ा** होता है, पर दोनों के प्रयोग में **फर्क** है।

(a) **Some का प्रयोग Affirmative Sentence में Uncountable Noun (U.N.) के पहले मात्रा (quantity) का बोध** कराने के लिए होता है, तथा **Plural Countable Noun (P.C.N.) के पहले संख्या (number) का बोध कराने के लिए** होता है।

जैसेः I have **some** $\underbrace{\text{water}}_{\text{U.N.}}$.

I have **some** $\underbrace{\text{friends}}_{\text{P.C.N.}}$.

➢ **Some** का **प्रयोग सामान्यतः +ve वाक्यों में** होता है।

➢ **Any** का **प्रयोग सामान्यतः -ve वाक्यों और Questions में** होता है।

जैसेः 1. I have **some** problems.

2. I do not have **any** problem.

3. Do you have **any** problem?

➢ जब हम **जवाब की उम्मीद 'हाँ' में करते है तो भी Questions में 'some' का प्रयोग कर सकते है।**

जैसे: Do you have **some** food?

नोट: **'no any' का प्रयोग एक साथ नहीं हो सकता।**

2. USE OF FEW, LITTLE, MUCH AND MANY.

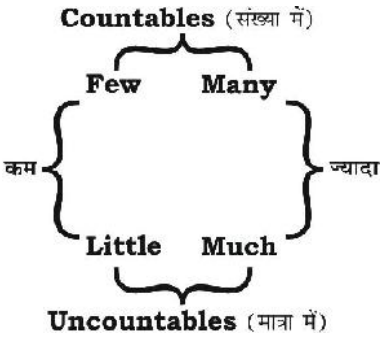

Few
- a few **(संख्या में कम है लेकिन है)**
- few **(संख्या में इतना कम की ना के बराबर है)**
- the few **(संख्या में कम लेकिन निर्धारित व जिसके तरफ हम इंगित कर सकते है।)**

Little
- a little **(मात्रा में कम है लेकिन है)**
- little **(मात्रा में इतना कम की ना के बराबर है)**
- the little **(मात्रा में कम लेकिन निर्धारित व जिसके तरफ हम इंगित कर सकते है।)**

FILL IN THE BLANKS USING FEW/LITTLE, A FEW/A LITTLE OR THE FEW/ THE LITTLE.

1. _____ Knowledge is a dangerous thing.
2. The doctor advised him to rest for _____ days.
3. _____ water I kept for you has been finished by him.
4. The show was cancelled as ____ people turned up to see it.
5. I cannot prepare tea for you. There is ____ milk in the refrigerator.

Answer:-

1. A little (यहाँ वाक्य का अर्थ ये है कि अगर जानकारी अधूरी हो तो खतरा बढ़ जाता है यानि Knowledge है लेकिन थोड़ा है)
2. a few. (days countable noun है अत: few का इस्तेमाल होगा न कि little का। Doctor ने कुछ एक दिन आराम करने की सलाह दी है अत: a few का प्रयोग होगा)
3. The little. ('water' uncountable है लेकिन जो थोड़ा सा पानी मैंने आप के लिए रखा था वह definite है अत: 'the little' का प्रयोग होगा)
4. Few (जब न के बराबर लोग आयेंगे तभी show cancel होगा अत: few का प्रयोग होगा)
5. Little. (जब milk न के बराबर हो तभी चाय नहीं बन सकती)

➢ **'Quantity'** एवं **'Number'** शब्द के साथ **'Little'** एवं **'Few'** शब्द का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता है । **इनके साथ 'small' का प्रयोग** होता है।

जैसे: Little quantity of food was wasted. (×)
Small quantity of food was wasted. (✓)

ADJECTIVE ds dqN lgh iz;ksx

RULE 1

'as ..... as'and 'so .....as' के बीच **adjective/adverb के positive degree** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: He is **as** $\underbrace{\text{good}}_{\text{Adj.}}$ **as** his brother

He ran **as** $\underbrace{\text{fast}}_{\text{Adv.}}$ **as** he could.

RULE 2

Comparative degree में **'adjective + er.... than'** का प्रयोग होता है। **Than** के पहले हमेशा **comparative degree** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: He is better **than** his brother.
Comparative degree के बाद **'than'** का प्रयोग **हो** भी सकता है और **नहीं** भी।
Today I am feeling **better**.

RULE 3

Superlative degree' के पहले article **'the'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He is **the best** player of the team.

RULE 4

अगर **सिर्फ दो व्यक्ति/वस्तु** इत्यादि के **बीच** में से **एक का चुनाव** किया जाये **हो तो superlative degree का प्रयोग** नहीं **comparative degree का प्रयोग करें जिसके पहले article 'the'** और **जिसके बाद preposition 'of '** लगाये।

जैसे: She is the best of the two sisters. (×)
She is the **better** of the two sisters.(✓)

➢ अगर सभी में से एक का चुनाव किया जाये तो **'superlative degree'** का प्रयोग होगा जिसके पहले भी **article 'the'** का प्रयोग होगा और जिसके बाद **preposition 'of '** का।

जैसे: He is **the best of** all the players.

RULE 5

जब एक **Noun या Pronoun** की **दो विशेषताओं** के बीच तुलना हो तो Comparative degree नहीं **more+ positive degree** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: He is wiser than intelligent (×)
He is **more wise** than intelligent. (✓)

RULE 6

तुलना करते समय दूसरा पहले को या अन्य सभी को exclude करने के लिए 'any other' का प्रयोग करता है।

जैसे: Gold is more precious than any metal. (×)
Gold is more precious than **any other** metal. (✓)
नीचे दिये गये वाक्य देखें-
Diamond is more precious than any metal. (✓)
ऊपर दिये गये वाक्य बिलकुल सही है क्योंकि Diamond metal नहीं है।

RULE 7

'ior' में खत्म होने वाले adjectives के बाद 'than' नहीं 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: **superior, inferior, senior, junior, prior, anterior, posterior.**
He is senior than me. (replace 'than' by **'to'**)

RULE 8

adjectives - interior, exterior, ulterior, major, minor, empty, excellent, circular, extreme, chief, entire, complete, perfect, final, last, unique, universal, round, square, triangular, eternal, everlasting ideal, absolute, impossible एवं supreme का प्रयोग comparative या superlative degree में नहीं होता।

जैसे: 1. This is more inferior to that. (×)
2. This is inferior to that. (✓)
3. Good deeds are more everlasting (more हटा दे)

RULE 9

कुछ adjectives का प्रयोग सिर्फ positive एवं superlative degree में होता Comparative में नहीं।

Positive	**Superlative**
top	topmost
northern	northernmost
southern	southernmost
eastern	easternmost
western	westernmost

RULE 10

Adjective "preferable" का प्रयोग **सिर्फ Comparative degree** में होता है।

➢ इसके साथ **'to'** प्रयुक्त होता है न कि 'than' और 'more' का प्रयोग इसके साथ नहीं हो सकता। **Prefer(v)** के साथ भी **'to'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: This is more preferable than that. (×)
This is preferable **to** that. (✓)

➢ 'prefer' के साथ **'to'** के स्थान पर **'rather than'** का भी प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: I prefer tea to coffee.
or
I prefer tea rather than coffee. (नोट: 'prefer' के साथ **'to'** के स्थान पर **'rather than'** भी स्वीकार्य है।)

RULE 11

अगर **एक ही noun या pronoun के लिए दो adjectives का प्रयोग हो** और **दोनों को एक Conjunction से जोड़ा जाए** तो **दोनों adjectives एक ही degree में** होने चाहिए।

जैसे: Gandhiji was the noblest and wiser of all the leaders . (×)
Gandhiji was the **noblest** and **wisest** of all the leaders. (✓)

RULE 12

कुछ adjectives के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करने पर adjective plural common noun बन जाता है। **इनके बाद Plural verb का प्रयोग होता** है।

जैसे: **rich, poor, needy, aged, blind, dead, meek, wicked,** etc.
The rich (rich people) usually exploit **the poor** (poor people).

RULE 13

सामान्यत: **verbs** को **adverbs modify** करते है।

जैसे: He $\underbrace{\text{works}}_{\text{V}}$ $\underbrace{\text{honestly}}_{\text{adv.}}$.

➢ **Adjective** में **'ly'** लगा कर **Adverb** बनाया जाता है। (कुछ अपवादों को छोड़ कर)

जैसे:

Adjective	**Adverb**
Polity	Politely
Bad	Badly
Sincere	Sincerely

➢ लेकिन **Verbs of sensation(seem, look, appear, feel , taste, sound** और **smell)** के बाद **adverb** नहीं **adjective** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: He feels badly. (×)
He feels **bad**. (✓)
The soup smells deliciously. (×)
The soup smells **delicious**. (✓)

➢ **Verbs of sensation** के अलावा **be, become, turn, get, grow, keep, make** एवं **prove** को भी **adverbs** नहीं बल्कि **adjective modify** करते हैं।

जैसे: When he heard the news, he became $\underbrace{\text{sad}}_{\text{adj}}$.

RULE 14

कई noun hyphenated या Compound adjectives के भाग होते है। ये कभी भी plural में नहीं हो सकते।

जैसे: I delivered a two–hours lecture. (×)
I delivered a **two–hour** lecture. (✓)
He gave me two hundred–rupees notes. (×)
He gave me two **hundred–rupee** notes. (✓)

RULE 15

अगर कोई Noun Adjective का कार्य करें तो वह Plural form में नहीं हो सकता।

जैसे: Lasers are indispensable tools for delicate eyes surgery. (eyes को **'eye'** में परिवर्तित करें)

RULE 16

कुछ adjectives अर्थ में confusing होते है। अत: इनका प्रयोग सावधानीपूर्वक करना चाहिए।

(1) Farther एवं Further

Farther का अर्थ है **'दूरी में और अधिक'**।

जैसे: She lives at the **farther** end of the lane.

Further का अर्थ है 'और'।

जैसे: I did not receive any **further** order.

(2) Last एवं Latest

Last का अर्थ है **'आखिरी'**।

जैसे: The **last** ruler of Mughal Empire was Bahadur Shah Jafar.

Latest का अर्थ है **'नवीनतम'**।

जैसे: What is the **latest** score?

(3) Elder एवं Older

Elder/Eldest का अर्थ है **'खुन के रिश्ते में बड़ा'**।

जैसे: He is my **elder** brother

Older/Oldest का अर्थ है **'उम्र में बड़ा'**।

जैसे: He is **older** than his friend.

(4) Nearest एवं Next

Nearest का अर्थ है **'सबसे नजदीक'**।

जैसे: **Which** is the **nearest** hospital?

Next का अर्थ है **'अगला'**।

जैसे: The bank is in the **next** building.

(5) Later एवं Latter

Later का अर्थ है **'बाद में'**।

जैसे: I will call you **later.**

Latter का अर्थ है **'बाद वाला'**।

जैसे: The **latter** part of the movie was boring.

Latter का **opposite 'former'** होता है।

RULE 17

'All' एवं **'Both'** के बाद ही possessive case का प्रयोग हो सकता है।

जैसे: My all friends have got selected. (×)

All my friends have got selected. (✓)

RULE 18

अगर एक वाक्य में **adjective** के **positive** एवं **Comparative degree** दोनों का प्रयोग हो तो **'as... as'** एवं **'than'** दोनों का प्रयोग होगा। **'As ..... as'** एवं **'so ..... as'** के साथ **positive degree** का प्रयोग होता है एवं **'than'** के साथ **'Comparative degree'** का।

जैसे: He is **as** intelligent **as** if not more **than** his brother.

RULE 19

अगर हम **'times'** शब्द को प्रयोग कर ले तो फिर Comparative degree का प्रयोग नहीं कर सकते हैं।

जैसे: My house is four times bigger than yours. (×)
My house is four times as big as yours. (✓)

RULE 20

अगर **adjective of size, colour, age** इत्यादि का प्रयोग एक साथ हो तो वे निम्नलिखित क्रम में होंगे।

$\underbrace{\textbf{Size}}_{1} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{shape}}_{2} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{age}}_{3} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{colour}}_{4} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{emotion}}_{5} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{nationality}}_{6} \rightarrow \underbrace{\textbf{material}}_{7} \rightarrow$ noun

जैसे: 1. The police arrested a $\underbrace{\textbf{twenty two year-old}}_{\text{age}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{black}}_{\text{colour}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{American}}_{\text{nationality}}$ Negro.

2. The thief flashed a $\underbrace{\textbf{big}}_{\text{size}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{sharp}}_{\text{shape}}$ knife and asked the cashier to fill the $\underbrace{\textbf{black}}_{\text{colour}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{leather}}_{\text{material}}$ bag with money.

RULE 21

दो Comparative एवं दो Superlative degree का प्रयोग एक साथ नहीं होता है।

जैसे: 1. He is the most cleverest of all the officers. (×)
He is the cleverest of all the officers. (✓)
2. This is more better than that. (×)
This is better than that. (✓)

RULE 22

जब दो **Adjectives** के साथ **अलग-अलग prepositions की आवश्यकता हो**, तो उपयुक्त prepositions का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: He is senior and more experienced than you. (×)
He is senior **to** and more experienced **than** you. (✓)

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) Anurag is eclipsed by his wife, / (b) who is cleverer and / (c) amusing than he is. /(d) No error
2. (a) The two first to arrive / (b) were the lucky recipients / (c) of a surprise gift. /(d) No error

3. (a) Of the billions of stars in the galaxy, (b) how much are / (c) suitable for life? / (d) No error
4. (a) A few word of / (b) gratitude are enough / (c) to express your / (d) feelings sincerely. / (e) No error.
5. (a) He feels his troubles / (b) as much or / (c) even more than they. / (d) No error
6. (a) I like reading / (b) more than / (c) to play games. / (d) No error
7. (a) There is not many traffic / (b) along the street / (c) where I live. / (d) No error
8. (a) The police arrived and discovered / (b) a large number of hoarded sugar/ (c) in his shop. / (d) No error
9. (a) As a dramatist / (b) Shaw is superior than / (c) any other twentieth century writer. / (d) No error
10. (a) Of the two great cities/ (b) the former is / (c) biggest. / (d) No error
11. (a) A non banking financial company is a / (b) financial institution similarly to a bank / (c) but it cannot issue cheque books to customers. / (d) No error
12. (a) Everyone agrees that / (b) the Ganga is the holiest / (c) of all other rivers of India. / (d) No error.
13. (a) Krishna ran to the / (b) nearing grocery store to / (c) buy biscuits as his parents were expecting guests. / (d) No error
14. (a) While giving a loan/ (b) you must check / (c) if the borrower has sufficiently collateral to repay it. / (d) No error
15. (a) Although his speech / (b) was not very clearly everyone understood / (c) the underlying meaning. / (d) No error
16. (a) He is the most / (b) intelligent and also / (c) the very talented student of the college. / (d) No error
17. (a) Having been found / (b) guilty of the theft / (c) Sunny was sentenced to five year's imprisonment. / (d) No error
18. (a) The Railways have made / (b) crossing the tracks / (c) a punished offence. / (d) No error
19. (a) Alms / (b) are given / (c) to the poors. / (d) No error
20. (a) Lasers are / (b) indispensable tools / (c) for the delicate eyes surgery. / (d) No error
21. (a) The number of applications has risen / (b) this year by / (c) as many as 50%. / (d) No error
22. (a) Two lakh of people / (b) attended the meeting / (c) held in parade ground. / (d) No error
23. (a) These sort of men / (b) attain success by hook or by crook / (c) so they do not deserve any applause. (d) No error
24. (a) Can you tell me how / (b) many eggs and / (c) milk he has brought / (d) No error
25. (a) Whole the chapter / (b) is full of printing errors which are the outcome / (c) of the proof reader's carelessness. (d) No error

26. (a) Her black long / (b) hair adds / (c) glamour to her looks. (d) No error
27. (a) I trembled when I saw / (b) a sharp long knife / (c) in his hand. / (d) No error
28. (a) I saw / (b) an anxious pale girl / (c) who was fidgetting near the ICU / (d) No error
29. (a) Mumbai is / (b) further from / (c) Delhi than / (d) Patna. (e) No error
30. (a) This book is / (b) undoubtedly preferable than / (c) that and its printing / (d) is also comparatively good. (e) No error
31. (a) You can trust / (b) this channel/ (c) for the last news of this hour. (d) No error
32. (a) Everybody knows / (b) that Radha is the most unique / (c) singer of this college / (d) No error
33. (a) The faster he completes / (b) the work given to / (c) him, the largest will be his profit. / (d) No error.
34. (a) He does not have / (b) some money to buy a new machine so he is / (c) anxious / (d) No error
35. (a) This young lady is / (b) more beautiful but not so cultured / (c) as her sister. (d) No error
36. (a) Now-a-days, / (b) the weather / (c) is getting cold and colder. / (d) No error
37. (a) This photograph / (b) was comparatively better / (c) than that which he had kept in his purse. / (d) No error
38. (a) Ram is as good, / (b) if not better than / (c) they./ (d) No error
39. (a) Gopal felt happily / (b) to learn that I / (c) had got a job in the Bank./ (d) No error
40. (a) He is comparatively / (b) weaker / (c) in maths / (d) no error.
41. (a) Many a / (b) boys are / (c) absent today / (d) no error.
42. (a) Honest are / (b) rewarded / (c) sooner or later / (d) no error.
43. (a) My all / (b) friends will come / (c) tomorrow to meet me / (d) no error.
44. (a) He is wiser / (b) enough to / (c) understand your trick / (d) no error.
45. (a) Ramayana is more / (b) sacred than / (c) all the mythologies of Hindus / (d) no error.
46. (a) He offered / (b) me a / (c) steamed cup of tea / (d) no error.
47. (a) I will buy / (b) the book when / (c) the revise edition will come / (d) no error.
48. (a) He ran so fastly / (b) that he reached / (c) the destination in just two minutes. / (d) No error.
49. (a) I am sure that / (b) all my monthly expenses / (c) would exceed the income if I do not economise. / (d) No error.
50. (a) I am more lonelier/ (b) here than/ (c) I was in the USA./ (d) No error.
51. (a) To me it appears that/ (b) Anthropology is the more interesting/ (c) of all the subjects./ (d) No error.
52. (a) The circulation of The Statesman/ (b) is greater than/ (c) that of any newspaper/ (d) No error.

53. (a) In the garden/ (b) were the more beautiful flowers/ (c) and silver bells./ (d) No error.
54. (a) In his old age,/ (b) a person is likely to get/ (c) more weak day by day./ (d) No error.

Answers with Explanation

1. (c) amusing के पहले more लगायें। Cleverer के साथ more amusing प्रयुक्त होगा क्योंकि Conjunction से जुड़ने वाले दोनों adjectives एक ही degree में होने चाहिए।
2. (a) two first को first two में परिवर्तित करें।
3. (b) much को many में परिवर्तित करें। Stars countable noun है।
4. (a) Word की जगह words का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि a few का प्रयोग plural countable noun के साथ होगा।
5. (b) correct use 'as much as' है
6. (c) Reading के तरह playing भी 'Gerund' form में होगा।
7. (a) Traffic uncountable है। अत: many नहीं much का प्रयोग करें।
8. (a) Sugar uncountable है। अत: 'large number' के बदले 'large quantity' प्रयुक्त करें।
9. (b) Superior के साथ 'to' प्रयुक्त होता है न कि 'than'.
10. (c) biggest को 'the bigger' में परिवर्तित करें। जब दो के बीच तुलना हो तो Comparative degree का प्रयोग होता है।
11. (b) similarly adverb है जो verb की विशेषता बताता है। यहाँ similar प्रयुक्त होगा।
12. (c) all other rivers की जगह all the rivers का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि superlative degree के sentence में other का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
13. (b) 'Nearing' verb near का 'ing' form है। 'Nearby' adjective है। 'Nearing' के बदले 'nearby' शब्द प्रयुक्त करें।
14. (c) Collateral की विशेषता sufficient (adjective) बताता है न कि sufficiently (adverb).
15. (b) Clearly adverb है जो किसी verb की विशेषता बताता है। Speech (noun) की विशेषता clear (adjective) बताता है। अत: Clear प्रयुक्त होगा।
16. (c) Very को most में परिवर्तित करें। अगर Conjunction से दो adj को जोड़ा जाए तो दोनों adjectives एक ही degree में होने चाहिए। अत: 'the most intelligent के साथ the most talented प्रयुक्त होगा।
17. (c) five-year imprisonment प्रयुक्त होगा। Hyphenated adjective हमेशा singular form में होता है।
18. (c) Punish का adjective form punishable है।
19. (c) the poor का अर्थ है गरीब लोग। poors गलत शब्द है।
20. (c) eyes surgery में eyes noun है जो surgery से पहले प्रयुक्त हो कर adjective का कार्य कर रहा है। जब noun adjective का कार्य करें तो उसे singular form में होना चाहिए। अत: eyes नहीं eye प्रयुक्त होगा।

21. (c) 50% के साथ much प्रयुक्त होगा।
22. (a) Definite numeral adjective के साथ 'of' प्रयुक्त नहीं होता है। जैसे:- Two lakh people.
Indefinite numeral adjective के साथ 'of' प्रयुक्त होता है। जैसे:- Lakhs of people.
23. (a) These के साथ plural noun का प्रयोग होता है। अत: sort को sorts में परिवर्तित करें।
24. (c) 'Eggs' countable है अत: many का इस्तेमाल सही है पर 'milk' uncountable है। अत: 'milk' के साथ 'how much' प्रयुक्त होगा।
25. (a) the का प्रयोग whole के पहले होता है न कि whole के बाद। 'The whole chapter' का प्रयोग करें।
26. (a) 'black long' को 'long black' में परिवर्तित करें। जब भी किसी noun के लिए adj of size और adjective of colour का प्रयोग होता है तो पहले adjective of size आता है और उसके बाद adjective of colour.

$\underbrace{\text{Long}}_{\text{Adj. of size}}$ $\underbrace{\text{black}}_{\text{Adj. of colour}}$ hair.

27. (b) 'Sharp long knife' को 'long sharp knife में परिवर्तित करें।
28. (b) 'An anxious pale girl' के बदले 'a pale anxious girl' का प्रयोग करे। Adjective of human emotion/personality का प्रयोग adjective of colour के बाद होता है।

a $\underbrace{\text{pale}}_{\text{Adj. of colour}}$ $\underbrace{\text{anxious}}_{\text{Adj. of emotion}}$ girl.

29. (b) यहाँ दूरी की बात की जा रही है। अत: 'further' नहीं 'farther' का प्रयोग करें।
30. (b) Preferable के साथ 'than' नहीं 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।
31. (c) Last के बदले Latest का प्रयोग करें। हम नवीनतम (Latest) news सुनना चाहते है।
32. (b) Unique का प्रयोग superlative अथवा comparative degree में नहीं होता। Rule 8 देखें। unique के पहले a का प्रयोग करें।
33. (c) largest की जगह larger का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि समानान्तर वृद्धि (increase) या ह्रास (decrease) को express करने के लिए double comparative degree का प्रयोग होता है।
34. (b) Some के जगह पर any का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि negative वाक्य में सामान्यत: 'any' का प्रयोग होता है।
35. (b) more beautiful के बाद than का प्रयोग करें।
36. (c) Cold को colder में परिवर्तित करें। जब किसी gradual development को दर्शाया जाता है तो comparative degree का प्रयोग होता है।
37. (b) Comparatively के साथ comparative degree का प्रयोग नहीं होता। better के बदले good का प्रयोग करें।
38. (a) 'as good' के बाद as का प्रयोग करें।
39. (a) happily (adv) के बदले happy (adj) का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि verbs of sensation (look, sum, appear, feel, smell, taste और sound) के बाद adj का प्रयोग होता है न कि adverb का।
40. (b) Comparatively के साथ comparative degree का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। weaker के बदले weak का प्रयोग करें।
41. (b) Many a के साथ singular noun एवं singular verb का प्रयोग करें। 'Boys are' को 'boy is' में

परिवर्तित करें।

42. (a) Honest adjective है। इसका प्रयोग noun की तरह तभी हो सकता है जब ये article 'the' के साथ प्रयुक्त हो। यानि 'the honest' जिसका अर्थ होता है इमानदार लोग।

43. (a) 'All my' का प्रयोग होना चाहिए न कि 'My all' का।

44. (a) Wiser को wise में परिवर्तित करें। enough के पहले positive degree का प्रयोग होता है।

45. (c) All other mythologies का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि Ramayana को exclude करना है।

46. (c) Steamed cup of tea का अर्थ होगा भांप लगा हुआ cup of tea. 'Steamed momos' का प्रयोग सही है परन्तु यहाँ गर्म (भांप निकलता हुआ) cup of tea का उल्लेख है। अत: steaming cup of tea का प्रयोग करें।

47. (c) revise को revised में परिवर्तित करें। यहाँ edition already revise हो चुका है अत: revised edition का प्रयोग सही होगा।

48. (a) fastly की जगह fast का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि अंग्रेजी भाषा में fastly का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। fast का प्रयोग Adjective or Adverb के रूप में होता है।

49. (b) all का प्रयोग नहीं होगा क्योंकि Monthly expenses में सभी प्रकार के खर्च शामिल हैं।

50. (a) 'more' हटा दे। दो comparative degrees का प्रयोग एक साथ नहीं होता है।

51. (b) Superlative degree 'most' का प्रयोग होगा।

52. (c) 'any newspaper' के स्थान पर 'any other newspaper लगायें। 'Any newspaper' में 'The Statesman' भी आ जाता है।

53. (b) 'more' को 'most' में परिवर्तित करें।

54. (c) 'more weak' के स्थान पर 'weaker' का प्रयोग करें।

12 CONJUNCTION

CHAPTER

➢ **Conjunction** वह **शब्द** या **शब्द समूह** है जो दो या दो से अधिक **शब्दों (Words), शब्द समूहों (Phrases), वाक्यांशों (Clauses)** तथा **वाक्यों (Sentences)** को जोड़ता है;

जैसे: 1. **Ram** and **Shyam** will come.
↑___Words___↑

2. **People's ignorance** and **population explosion** are two inter-related problems.
↑_____Phrases_____↑

3. **She said** that **she would come**.
↑_____Clauses_____↑

➢ यहाँ वाक्य (1) में **'and'** दो शब्दों **'Ram'** तथा **'Shyam'** को जोड़ता है, वाक्य (2) में **'and'** दो शब्द समूहों **'people's ignorance'** तथा **'population explosion'** को जोड़ता है, तथा वाक्य (3) में 'that' दो वाक्यों **'she said'** तथा **'she would come'** को जोड़ता है। अत: **'and'** तथा **'that'** Conjunctions हैं।

Some Common Conjunctions	Meaning in Hindi	Some Common Conjunctions	Meaning in Hindi
And	और	**As well as**	साथ ही साथ
Otherwise, or else	नहीं तो	**So, hence**	इसीलिए
Therefore, Consequently	अत: इसलिए	**Either.....or**	या तो ..... या
Neither... nor	न तो ..... न	**Both.... and**	दोनों ..... और
So....that	इतना ..... कि	**Too....to**	इतना ..... कि
So.....as	इतना ..... जितना	**As.....as**	इतना ..... जितना
Whether.....or	या ..... या	**As.....so**	जैसा ..... वैसा
As soon as	जैसे ही ..... वैसे ही	**But**	पर, परन्तु , लेकिन,
Or.....	या, अथवा, नहीं तो	**No sooner.....than**	जैसे ही ..... वैसे ही
Not only.....but also	न ही सिर्फ ..... बल्कि	**Scarcely.....when**	मुश्किल से..... कि
		Hardly.....when	मुश्किल से ..... कि
		Where	जहाँ
Wherever	जहाँ कहीं भी	**When**	जब
Whenever	जब कभी भी	**Until/Unless....,**	तब तक ..... जब तक
While	के दौरान	**Because**	क्योंकि
As.... ,	क्योंकि ..... इसलिए	**Lest.....should**	ऐसा न हो कि, वर्ना,

Such.....that	इतना ..... कि	**If**	यदि
Provided	बशर्ते	**As if**	मानो ..... कि
Though	यद्यपि ..... फिर भी/तथापि	**Although**	यद्यपि ..... फिर भी/तथापि
Whereas	जबकि	**Nevertheless**	के बावजूद (**in spite of**)
As though	मानो	**As far as**	जहाँ तक

TYPES OF CONJUNCTION

***Conjunctions** निम्नलिखित दो प्रकार के होते हैं:*

1. **Co-ordinating Conjunction.**
2. **Subordinating Conjuncion.**

1. CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTION:- नीचे दिए गये वाक्यों को पढ़े:

1. He read the notes **and** returned it to me.
2. He came to meet me, **but** I was not at home.
3. She worked hard **yet** she failed.

➢ इन वाक्यों में **'and', 'but', 'yet'** नामक Conjunctions द्वारा दो ऐसे वाक्यों को जोड़ा गया है, जो स्वयं अपना अलग-अलग अर्थ प्रकट कर सकते हैं। अब यदि इन वाक्यों को अलग-अलग clauses में बांटा जाए तो एक **Principal Clause** बनेगी और दूसरी **Co-ordinate Clause** बनेगी।

➢ जिस **Conjunction** से कोई **Co-ordinate Clause** बनी हो, उस Conjunction को **Co-ordinating Conjunction** कहते हैं।

Co-ordinating Conjunctions निम्नलिखित चार प्रकार के होते हैं:

(i) Cumulative conjunctions (संयोजक)

'And', 'also', 'both ..... and', 'as well as', 'now', 'too', 'no less than'.

➢ इन Conjunctions के द्वारा एक sentence को दूसरे sentence से या दो noun, दो pronoun को या दो adjectives इत्यादि को जोड़ा जाता है।

जैसे: 1. He is $\underbrace{\text{rich}}_{\text{adj.}}$ **and** $\underbrace{\text{happy}}_{\text{adj.}}$.

2. $\underbrace{\text{Ram}}_{\text{Noun}}$ **as well as** $\underbrace{\text{Shyam}}_{\text{Noun}}$ is coming.

(ii) Alternative Conjunctions (विकल्पक)

'Either . . . . . or', 'neither . . . . . nor', 'else', or, 'otherwise'.

➢ इन Conjunctions के द्वारा दो ऐसे sentences, nouns, pronouns इत्यादि को जोड़ा जाता है, जिनसे **दो विकल्पों में से एक को चुनने का बोध** होता है।

जैसे: 1. **Either** sit quietly **or** go away.

2. You must run fast **else** you will miss the train.

(iii) Adversative Conjunctions (विरोध दर्शक)

➢ **'But', 'yet', 'still', 'only', 'however', 'nevertheless', 'while', 'whereas'.** जैसे Conjunctions के द्वारा दो ऐसे वाक्यों को अथवा Nouns, Pronouns इत्यादि को जोड़ा जाता है जो **एक-दूसरे के विपरीत** हों।

जैसे: 1. He is rich **but** he is not happy.

2. He is industrious **still** he does not get good marks.

(iv) Illative Conjunctions (परिणामसूचक)

➢ इन conjunctions के द्वारा दो ऐसे वाक्यों को जोड़ा जाता है, जिनमें से **एक वाक्य दूसरे वाक्य का परिणाम** हो।

जैसे: I was ill **so** I could not come.

2. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION:- नीचे दिए गये वाक्यों को पढ़े:

1. **If** you work hard, you will succeed.
2. **Since** I was busy, I could not call you up.

➢ इन sentences में **'if', 'since'** के जैसे Conjunctions के द्वारा एक Clause को दूसरी ऐसी Clause से जोड़ा गया है, जिसके बिना वह अपना अर्थ व्यक्त नहीं कर पाती अर्थात् वह उस पर पूरी तरह से आश्रित है। यदि इन sentences को Clause में बांटा जाए, तो एक **Principal Clause** बनेगी और दूसरी **Subordinate (आश्रित) Clause**.

➢ जिस **Conjunction** के द्वारा **Subordinate Clause** बनी हो, उसे **Subordinating Conjunction** कहते हैं।

Subordinating conjunctions अपने अर्थ के अनुसार निम्नलिखित बात प्रकट करते हैं:

(i) Time:- When, whenever, till, until, before, since, while, as soon as, as long as, just as.

1. **When** I saw him, I stopped my car.
2. **As soon** as it rains, the farmers will sow the seeds.

(ii) Place (स्थान): Where, wherever,

1. You can go **wherever** you want.

(iii) Cause (कारण): Since, because, as,

1. She came **because** I called him up.
2. **As** he is a miser, no one likes him.

(iv) Purpose (उद्देश्य): That, so that, in order that, lest

1. We eat **so** that we may live.
2. Run fast **lest** you should miss the train.

(v) Result (परिणाम): So . . . . ., that, such . . . that

1. He is **so** weak **that** he cannot even stand.
2. He is **such** a fool **that** he doesn't understand anything.

(vi) Condition (शर्त): If, supposing, unless, provided.

1. He cannot succeed **unless** he works hard.
2. I will help him **provided** he mends his ways.

(vii) Manner (ढंग): As, as if, as though, as far as.

1. He scolded me **as if** he were my father.

नोट: अगर **'as' the अर्थ 'चुकिं' हो तो उसके बाद 'so' का प्रयोग न करें।**

As I was ill, so I could not come (Remove 'so')

➢ **'Since' के साथ भी 'so' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।**

Since he is a liar , so I do not trust him (Remove 'so')

(viii) Comparison (तुलना): As, as ..... as, so.....as, than

1. A wise enemy is better **than** a foolish friend.
2. He is **as good as** she at English.

नोट: (1) **So . . . as/As. . . as** का प्रयोग दो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं की **तुलना** के लिए किया जाता है। ध्यान रखें-

(A) **So . . . as** का प्रयोग **Negative वाक्य में** होता है; जैसे:

(i) He is *not* **so** good **as** you. (Negative)

➢ किन्तु **As . . . as** का प्रयोग **Affirmative** तथा **Negative** दोनों ही प्रकार के वाक्यों में किया जाता है; जैसे:

(i) He is **as** good **as** you. (Affirmative)

(ii) He is **not as** good **as** you. (Negative)

(ix) Contrast (अंतर): Though, although, however

1. **Though** he worked hard, he failed.
2. I tried very hard **however** I could not win the race.

3. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTION:- जो Conjunctions **जोड़े (pair)** में प्रयुक्त होते हैं, उन्हें Correlatives (संकेतबोधक) कहते हैं। जैसे: **'Either ..... or', 'neither ..... nor', 'both ..... and', 'not only ..... but also', 'though .... yet', 'whether...or'**

जैसे: **Neither** his friends **nor** his parents knew about his evil intention.
I do not know **whether** he will come **or** not.

4. COMPOUND CONJUCTION:- Conjunctions जब शब्दों का समूह हो तो **Compound Conjunction** कहलाते है।

In order that.	The announcement was made **in order that** all might know the new date of exam.
On condition that	I will give you money **on condition that** you will not misuse it.
Even if	She will succeed in life **even if** she faces some initial failures.
So that	We eat **so that** we may live.
Provided that	You can take any dress **provided that** you return it after the party.
As though	He shows off **as though** he is very rich.
As well as	Ram **as well as** his friends has come to the party.
As soon as	The farmers will sow the seeds **as soon as** it rains.
As if	He scolded me **as if** he were my father.

CONJUNCTION ds dqN IMPORTANT RULES ftu ls iz'u iwNs tkrs gSa%

RULE 1

1. **And**
2. **as well as**
2. **Both ——— and**
3. **Not only ——— but also**

➢ इन चारों conjunctions का प्रयोग **Noun , Pronoun** इत्यादि को जोड़ने के लिये किया जाता है लेकिन जहाँ तक adjective का प्रश्न है ये सिर्फ दो **desirable adjectives** को या फिर **दो undesirable adjectives** को जोडतें है।

जैसे: He is **both** intelligent **and** hard working.
He is **not only** dishonest **but also** lazy.

RULE 2

➢ यदि दो Sub को **'as well as'/'with'/'alongwith'/ 'and not'/ 'In addition to'/ 'but'/ 'besides'/'except'/ 'rather than'/'accompanied by'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **verb** का प्रयोग **पहले sub के अनुसार** होना चाहिये। (Subject - Verb Agreement देखें)

Ram as well as his friends is coming.

He and not his parents is guilty.

RULE 3

➢ कई बार Conjunction गलत स्थान पर प्रयोग कर लिए जाते है।

जैसे: Not only he cheated his friends but also his parents. (×)

He cheated **not only** his $\underbrace{\text{friends}}_{1^{st}\text{Noun}}$ **but also** his $\underbrace{\text{parents}}_{2^{nd}\text{Noun}}$. (✓)

➢ इस वाक्य में '**his friends**' एवं '**his parents**' दो विकल्प है। **'not only' 'his friends'** के पहले प्रयोग करें और **'but also'** '**his parents**' के पहले।

अन्य उदाहरण:

(1) Sit either quietly or go away. (×)

(2) Neither the poor villagers grow nor eat vegetables. (×)

➢ दोनो वाक्य गलत हैं क्योंकि **Conjunctions** जब **जोड़े में** हो **(Co-Relatives)** तो उनका **प्रयोग वाक्य में मौजूद विकल्प के ठीक पहले** होना चाहिए।

जैसे: (1) **Either** $\underbrace{\text{sit}}_{1^{st}\text{Verb}}$ quietly **or** $\underbrace{\text{go}}_{2^{nd}\text{Verb}}$ away. (✓)

(2) The poor villagers **neither** $\underbrace{\text{grow}}_{1^{st}\text{Verb}}$ **nor** $\underbrace{\text{eat}}_{2^{nd}\text{Verb}}$ vegetables. (✓)

RULE 4

➢ Conjunctions जब जोड़े में हो तो **जोड़ा सही** होना चाहिये।

जैसे:

Though	**Yet/,**
Although	**Yet/,**
No sooner	**than**
Hardly/Scarcely	**when**
As	**as**
So	**as**
Lest	**should**
Too	**to**
So	**that**
Between	**and**
From	**to**
Else	**but**
Other/Rather	**than**
Such	**that**
Whether	**or**
The same	**that**
Both	**and**
Not only	**but also**

जैसेः (1) Though he worked hard but he failed. (×)
Though he worked hard **yet** he failed. (✓)
(2) He is both intelligent as well as industrious. (×)
He is **both** intelligent **and** industrious. (✓)
(3) The party is **between** 7 p.m **and** 9 p.m. (✓)
(4) The party is **from** 7 p.m **to** 9 p.m. (✓)
(5) I have **no other** aim but to succeed in life. (×)
(6) I have **no other** aim **than** to succeed in life (✓)
(7) Nothing **else but** arrogance ruined him. (✓)
(8) He asked me if I was coming or not. (×)
(9)He asked me **whether** I was coming or not. (✓)

RULE 5

So ..... that
too.. .....to
इतना ..... कि

जैसेः (1) I am so happy. (×)
I am **very** happy. (✓)
(2) 1. He is **so** tired **that** he can't walk.('so—that के स्थान पर 'too ..... to' का भी प्रयोग हो सकता है अगर वाक्य देखें)
He is **too** tired **to** walk.
2. It is **too** hot **to** go out.
It is **so** hot **that** we cannot go out.
3. She is **so** weak **that** she cannot walk.
She is **too** weak **to** walk.
4. This problem is **so** complicated **that** no one can solve it.
This problem is **too** complicated for anyone **to** solve it.

➢ अगर **'to solve'** के पहले for **'any one'** का उल्लेख नहीं किया जाये तो **solve** का sub **'problem'** हो जायेगा और वाक्य का अर्थ गलत निकलेगा। ध्यान रहे अगर **'that'** के बाद **'sub'** परिवर्तित हो जाऐं तो **'to + v_1'** के पहले 2nd Sub का उल्लेख होना आवश्यक है।

5. It is **so** expensive **that** I cannot buy it.
It is **too** expensive **for** me to buy it.

➢ ***दूसरा तरीकाः*** वाक्य 3 एवं 4 में अगर हम वाक्य के दूसरे भाग को **Passive voice** में लिखें तो कर्ता का उल्लेख **by + Sub** के रूप में हो सकता है। तब **2nd sub** जो **1st sub** से **भिन्न** है **'by+sub'** के form में आ जाएगा और वाक्य का अर्थ सही निकलेगा।

to + V_1 (infinitive) active voice है।
to + be + V_3 - Passive voice है।
4. This problem is too complicated **to be solved** by anyone.
5. It is too expensive **to be bought** by me.

RULE 6

neither.....nor (दो में से एक भी नहीं)
either.....or (दो में से एक)

Neither Ram **nor** Shyam (S.S.) has (S.V.) come.

Neither Ram **nor** his friends (P.S.) have (P.V.) come.

Has (S.V.) Ram (S.S.) **or** his friends come?

➢ यदि दो sub को **'Neither.....nor', 'either.....or', 'nor'** अथवा **'or'** से जोड़ा जाये तो **verb अपने से नजदीक वाले subject के अनुसार होगा।** (Sub-Verb Agreement देखें)

RULE 7

➢ **Neither of ... का अर्थ है दो में से एक भी नहीं।** अगर **दो से अधिक** मौजूद हो तो **'None of'** का प्रयोग करें।

➢ **Either of ... का अर्थ है दो में से एक** - अगर **दो से अधिक** मौजूद हो तो **'one of'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: Neither of his four sons looked after him. (×)
None of his four sons looked after him. (✓)
Either of the students of your class has done this mischief. (×)
One of the students of your class has done this mischief. (✓)

RULE 8

as soon as .....,
जैसे ही वैसे ही
As soon as he will come, I will call you up.(×)
As soon as he comes, I will call you up. (✓)

➢ **अगर दो कार्य, भविष्य में एक के बाद एक हो और दूसरे कार्य का होना पहले कार्य के होने पर निर्भर करे तो पहला कार्य Simple Present Tense में होगा और दूसरा Simple future tense में होगा। (Future Conditional Sentences देखें)**

RULE 9

नोट: **If/when** का जोड़ा **then नहीं** होता है ।

जैसे: When I come, ~~then~~, I will meet you.

➢ इसी प्रकार **Since/as/because** के साथ **so/therefore** का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।

जैसे: Since I was ill, I could not come.

नोट: As you sow, so shall you reap में as के साथ so का प्रयोग होता है।

RULE 10

No sooner ..... than
Hardly ..... when
Scarcely ..... when

नोट: (1) इन तीनों **Co-relatives** में **जोड़ा सही** होना चाहिये।

जैसे: **No sooner** did he see me when he ran away (when हटा कर **than** का प्रयोग करें)
No Sooner had the thief seen the police then he ran away.(change 'then' to **'than'**)

(2) इन **तीनों co-relatives** का प्रयोग केवल **Past Tense** में करें।

(3) अगर वाक्य की शुरूआत **Hardly, Scarcely etc.** से हो तो उसके बाद वाक्य का **formation interrogative** के तरीके से होगा यानि **Helping verb + Sub + main verb (Had + S + V_3 or Did + S + V_1)** लेकिन इससे वाक्य प्रश्न नहीं बन जाता है।

Hardly I saw him when I stopped my car. (×)
Hardly did I see him **when** I stopped my car. (✓)

RULE 11

Lest..... Should
.....or.....
.....else.....
.....otherwise.....
सही जोड़े का प्रयोग करें।

Run fast lest you will miss the train. (×)
Run fast **lest** you **should** miss the train. (✓)

RULE 12

Unless , Until and Till

1. **Until** तथा **unless** में फर्क यह है कि **until समय सूचक** है तथा **unless शर्त सूचक है।**

जैसे: **Until** the light turns red, no one will stop.
Unless you work hard, you won't succeed.

2. हम **till से वाक्य की शुरूआत नहीं** करतें।

जैसे: Till the train gets the signal, it will not proceed (×) (Till को **Until** में परिवर्तित करें)

RULE 13

➢ **'Until / Unless'** के साथ **not का प्रयोग नहीं** होता है।

जैसे: Until the train will not get the signal, it will not run. (×)
Until the train gets the signal, it will not run. (✓)

नोट: **Until** एवं **Unless** के साथ **will/would/shall का भी प्रयोग नहीं** होता।

जैसे: Unless the Government will not take action , corruption will not stop. (×)
Unless the Government takes action , corruption will not stop. (✓)

नोट: कई बार शब्दों पर **जोर** देने के लिए **दो Conjuctions, Prepositions, Pronouns** या **Adjectives** का प्रयोग **एक साथ** किया जाता हैं हालांकि दोनों का अर्थ लगभग **एक** ही होता है।

जैसे: 1. **Unless and until** you work hard, you won't succeed.
2. The selling price of every commodity was **over and above** the M.R.P.

3. The **first and foremost** duty of every citizen is to respect his country.
4. **Each and every** student must take the exam.

RULE 14

- **Doubt** के बाद **affirmative sentence** में **if/whether** का प्रयोग होता है, जबकि **negative** व **Interrogative sentence** में **doubt** के बाद **that** का प्रयोग होता है।
- **Doubtful** के बाद भी '**Affirmative sentence**' में '**if/whether**' का प्रयोग होता है, जबकि **Negative** व **Interrogative sentence** में **doubtful** के बाद **that** का प्रयोग होता है। जैसे:

AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCE	**NEGATIVE / INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE**
Doubt——— if/whether	**Doubt——— that**
Doubtful——— if/whether	**Doubtful——— that**

जैसे: 1. He doubts that she will help him. (×)
He **doubts if/whether** she will help him.(*Affirmative Sentence)*
2. I have no doubt if/whether he will cheat me.(×)
I have **no doubt that** he will cheat me. *Negative*
3. I am doubtful that my parents will allow me to go to the party. (×)
I am **doubtful if/whether** my parents will allow me to go to the party. (*Affirmative Sentence)*
4. He is not doubtful if/whether I will finish his work in time (×)
He is **not doubtful that** I will finish his work in time. (*Negative Sentence)*

RULE 15

- **'The same'** के बाद Relative Pronouns **'that'** या **'as'** का प्रयोग होता है।
- **'The same'** के बाद **'that'** का प्रयोग होता है जब इसके बाद **Verb स्पष्ट** हो।

जैसे: (i) This is **the same** book **that** I $\underbrace{\text{wanted}}_{\text{Verb}}$.

(ii) He is **the same boy that** $\underbrace{\text{met}}_{\text{Verb}}$ me in the market

- किन्तु '**the same**' के बाद **'as'** का प्रयोग तब होता है जब **Verb स्पष्ट** नहीं हो।

जैसे: (i) This is **the same** book **as** mine. (as के बाद verb का प्रयोग स्पष्ट रूप से नहीं है)
'the same' के बाद who/which आदि का प्रयोग न करें।

RULE 16

(i) **As .... as** एवं **so .... as** का प्रयोग **तुलना करने के लिए** किया जाता है। **As ..... as** का प्रयोग **Positive** एवं **negative** वाक्यों में होता है और **so....as** का प्रयोग सिर्फ **negative** वाक्यों में होता है।

जैसे: 1. He is **as i**ntelligent **as** you. (+ve वाक्य)
2. He is not **as** intelligent **as** you. (-ve वाक्य)
3. He is not **so** intelligent **as** you. (-ve वाक्य)

(ii) **As....as** एवं **so .... as** के साथ **adverb** एवं **adjective के सिर्फ Positive Degree** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. He ran **as** faster **as** he could. (faster को **fast** में परिवर्तित करें)

2. He is **as** better **as** you. (better को **good** में परिवर्तित करें)

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) You are quite cynical/ (b) when you say that the reason why we have/ (c) such a large turnout is because we are serving refreshments./ (d) No error.
2. (a) That store/ (b) hadn't hardly/ (c) any of those goods./ (d) No error.
3. (a) I needed that money/ (b) so desperately, it was/ (c) like manna from heaven when it arrived./ (d) No error.
4. (a) The period/ (b) between 1980 to 1990/ (c) was very significant in my life./ (d) No error.
5. (a) No sooner had the hockey match started/ (b) when it began/ (c) to rain./ (d) No error.
6. (a) She is very/ (b) beautiful/ (c) but intelligent./ (d) No error.
7. (a) Your success in the IAS examinations depends not only on/ (b) what papers you have selected/ (c) but on how you have written them/ (d) No error.
8. (a) No sooner had/ (b) he arrived then/ (c) he was asked to leave again./ (d) No error.
9. (a) I haven't been/ (b) to New York before and/ (c) neither my sister./ (d) No error.
10. (a) Scarcely had/ (b) I arrived than/ (c) the train left./ (d) No error.
11. (a) The reason why/ (b) he was rejected/ (c) was because he was too young./ (d) No error.
12. (a) Unless you do not give/ (b) the keys of the safe/ (c) you will be shot./ (d) No error.
13. (a) None of the diplomats at the conference/ (b) was able either to/ (c) comprehend or solve the problem./ (d) No error.
14. (a) I have found that he is/ (b) neither willing/ (c) or capable./ (d) No error.
15. (a) We are extremely pleased/(b) for excited as well to invite you/(c) to attend the meeting./(d) No error.
16. (a) When her son got a job/ (b) then she was/ (c) very happy./ (d) No error.
17. (a) Bread and butter/ (b) is/ (c) all we want./ (d) No error.
18. (a) The cost of the new/ (b) machines is likely to/ (c) be so high as ten/ (d) times the existing ones./ (e) No error.
19. (a) He walked as faster/ (b) as he could so that/ (c) he would not miss the train to work./ (d) No error.
20. (a) She was running/ (b) a very high fever/(c) and thus her mother takes her to the doctor./(d) No error.
21. (a) No sooner the teacher/ (b) enter the class/ (c) than the students stood up./ (d) No error.
22. (a) Unless/ (b) you will work hard,/ (c) you cannot pass./ (d) No error.
23. (a) Keep him at an arm's lenght/ (b) lest you may not repent/(c) in the long run./

(d)No error.

24. (a) The briefing/ (b) will be held/ (c) between 2 P.M. to 3 P.M./ (d) No error.
25. (a) Unless you do not meet/ (b) all the requirements/ (c) your application will be rejected./ (d) No error.
26. (a) How do you manage to speak/ (b) to her with/ (c) so great patience./ (d) No error.
27. (a) No sooner she had realized/ (b) her blunder than she began/ (c) to take corrective measures./ (d) No error.
28. (a) She was not/ (b) so well versed in/ (c) English that we had expected./ (d) No error.
29. (a) Mr. Sinha, my friend, philosopher and guide not only stopped coming/ (b) here but also going to any place/ (c) which is related to his wife's life./ (d) No error.
30. (a) Neither the doctor nor the nurses/ (b) were asleep when/ (c) the injured was brought to the hospital./ (d) No error.
31. (a) As soon as the peon rings the bell, then all/ (b) the students come to the assembly room/ (c) for prayer./ (d) No error.
32. (a) Hardly had he come out of the bus/ (b) then the bomb exploded/ (c) and shattered the bus into pieces./ (d) No error.
33. (a) Scarcely had I bought/ (b) the ticket when the train/ (c) left the platform with a hissing sound./ (d) No error.
34. (a) Many of the freedom fighters/ (b) are so respectful as Gandhiji/ (c) if not more. / (d) No error.
35. (a) This is perhaps the same place who/ (b) was chosen by us/ (c) for the picnic./ (d) No error.
36. (a) She asked me that why I was/ (b) not preparing for the/ (c) Civil Service Examinations./ (d) No error.
37. A) Run fast/ (b) lest you will/ (c) lose the race/ (d) No error.
38. (a) As Amir Khan is a perfectionist,/ (b) so he always insists/ (c) on retakes till he is satisfied with the shot./ (d) No error.
39. (a) You must either/ (b) work hard/ (c) else be prepared to lead a miserable life./ (d) No error.
40. (a) I don't know if any of the students/ (b) of our school is going/ (c) to pay any heed to the principal's order or not./ (d) No error.
41. (a) This is not such a/ (b) complicated problem who cannot be solved/ (c) with determination./ (d) No error.
42. (a) Although these books/ (b) are not useful but the students buy them/ (C) because their seniors did so./ (d) No error.
43. (a) He did not/ (b) succeed in the examination,/ (c) yet he had worked hard and had adopted the right strategy./ (d) No error.
44. (a) He has lots/ (b) of money and/ (c) he will not help any one/ (d) No error.
45. (a) Because he is intelligent,/ (b) therefore he gets good/ (c) marks in all the examinations./ (d) No error.
46. (a) Both the rich alongwith/ (b) the poor are affected equally/ (c) when prices of petrol and diesel increase./ (d) No error.

47. (a) I cannot say/ (b) if he has paid/ (c) the fee or not./ (d) No error.
48. (a) Ten years have passed/ (b) that I returned from/ (c) America and settled in India./ (d) No error.
49. (a) It was almost/ (b) ten years ago since he wrote/ (c) a letter to me enquiring about my well being/ (d) No error.
50. (a) He would not/ (b) have died when you had/ (c) helped him in time./ (d) No error.
51. (a) Scarcely we had/ (b) reached the office/ (c) when it started raining cats and dogs./ (d) No error.
52. (a) The labourers/ (b) relax/ (c) between 4.00 p.m. to 5. 00 p.m./ (d) No error.

Answers with Explanation

1. (c) 'the reason why' के साथ 'because' का प्रयोग नहीं किया जाता।
2. (b) 'Hardly' अर्थ से नकारात्मक है। इसके साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता। Hadn't को हटा कर 'had' का प्रयोग करें। Hardly had' का प्रयोग करें।
3. (b) 'So' के साथ 'that' का प्रयोग होना आवश्यक है। 'So desperately' के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग करें।
4. (b) Between के साथ 'and' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'to' का।
5. (b) 'No sooner' के साथ 'than' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'when' का।
6. (c) 'but' को 'and' में परिवर्तित करें।
7. (c) 'Not only' के साथ 'but also' का प्रयोग होता है। 'but' के साथ 'also' लगायें।
8. (b) 'No sooner' के साथ 'than' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'then' का।
9. (c) 'Neither' के बाद पहले helping verb का प्रयोग होता है फिर sub का। 'neither has my sister' सही प्रयोग होगा।
10. (b) 'Scarcely' के साथ 'when' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'than' का।
11. (c) 'The reason why' के साथ 'because' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
12. (a) Unless के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता। 'unless you give' होना चाहिए।
13. (b) वाक्य में 'Comprehend' और 'solve' दो verb का प्रयोग हो रहा है तो 'comprehend' के पहले 'either' का प्रयोग होगा। 'Either' 'to' के बाद आएगा।
14. (c) 'neither' के साथ 'nor' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'or' का।
15. (b) 'for' के बदले 'and' का प्रयोग करें।
16. (b) 'when' के साथ 'then' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। 'then' हटा कर ',' लगायें।
17. (c) यहाँ 'all' के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होगा।
18. (c) So . .. . as का प्रयोग negative वाक्यों में होता है। यहाँ 'as . . . . . as' का प्रयोग करें।
19. (a) as . . . . . as के बीच adjective/adverb के positive degree 'fast' का प्रयोग होगा।

20. (c) 'Thus her mother takes' को 'So her mother took' में परिवर्तित करें।
21. (a) 'No sooner' के बाद 'helping verb' का प्रयोग होगा और फिर 'sub' का। 'No sooner did the teacher enter' सहीं होगा।
22. (b) Unless/ if/ until/ provided/ before/ after/ in case/ as soon as के साथ 'will/ shall/would' का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता। 'you will study hard' के स्थान पर 'you study hard the प्रयोग करें।
23. (a) 'may not' के स्थान पर 'should' का प्रयोग करें ।
24. (c) 'Between' के साथ 'and' का प्रयोग होगा। 'from' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।
25. (a) 'Unless' के साथ 'not' का प्रयोग नहीं होता। 'Unless you meet' सही formation होगा।
26. (c) 'So' के साथ 'that' का प्रयोग होना जरूरी है।
27. (a) 'No sooner' के बाद 'had' का प्रयोग होगा और फिर sub 'she' का।
28. (c) 'So . . . . . as' सही pair है। 'that' के स्थान पर 'as' लगायें।
29. (a) 'not only' का प्रयोग गलत स्थान पर हुआ है। 'Not only' का प्रयोग 'coming' के पहले होगा।
30. (d)
31. (a) 'As soon as' के साथ 'then' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
32. (b) 'Hardly' के साथ 'When' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'then' का।
33. (d)
34. (b) 'So . . . .as का प्रयोग नकारात्मक वाक्यों में होता है। 'as . . . . as' का प्रयोग करें
35. (a) 'The same' के साथ 'that' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'who' का।
36. (a) 'Wh family' के पहले 'that' का प्रयोग गलत है। यहाँ 'why' के पहले कोई Conjunction नहीं आएगा।
37. (b) Lest के साथ should का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'will' का।
38. (b) अगर 'As' का अर्थ क्योंकि/चुँकि हो तो 'as' के साथ कोई Conjunction का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। 'So' हटा दे। 'As. . . .so' का प्रयोग 'जैसा. . .वैसा' का संदर्भ में होता है। Eg- 'As you sow, so shall you reap.'
39. (c) 'Either' का जोड़ा 'or' होता है न कि 'else'
40. (a) If के स्थान पर 'whether' का प्रयोग करें। 'Whether' के साथ 'or' का प्रयोग होता है 'if' के साथ नहीं।
41. (b) Such के साथ 'that' का प्रयोग होगा ।
42. (b) 'Although' के साथ 'but' का नहीं 'yet' का प्रयोग होता है।
43. (c) 'Yet' के स्थान पर 'though का प्रयोग होगा।
44. (b) 'and' के स्थान पर 'but' का प्रयोग करें।
45. (b) 'Because' के साथ 'therefore' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है। Because / as/ since आदि Conjunctions of Reason है। इनके साथ so/therefore का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
46. (a) 'Both' का जोड़ा 'and' है न कि along with'
47. (b) 'Whether' के साथ 'or' प्रयुक्त होता है। 'if' के स्थान पर 'whether' का प्रयोग करें।
48. (b) 'that' के स्थान पर 'since' का प्रयोग होगा। Since का प्रयोग 'जब से' के अर्थ में होता है।

ऐसे वाक्यों में वाक्य के formation का भी ध्यान रखें।

Present Perfect	+	**Since**	+	**Simple Past**
Ten years have passed		since		I returned

49. (b) 'since' के स्थान पर 'when' का प्रयोग होगा।
50. (b) 'when' के स्थान पर 'if' का प्रयोग होगा। वाक्य Conditional sentence है।
51. (a) 'we had' को 'had we' में परिवर्तित करें।
52. (c) 'between' के साथ 'and' का प्रयोग होता है। 'from' के साथ 'to' का।

13 ARTICLE

CHAPTER

'A', 'An' एवं 'The', 'Articles कहलाते हैं। **A/An को Indefinite** तथा **'The' को Definite article** कहते हैं।

ARTICLE

(A) Indefinite - A/An | **(B) Definite-The**

(a) यह कुर्सी है।	This is **a** chair.
(b) सीता ने गाना गाया।	Sita sang **a** song.
(c) यह छतरी है।	This is **an** umbrella.

- इन हिन्दी वाक्यों में 'एक' नहीं होते हुए भी, इनका अंग्रेजी अनुवाद करते समय हमने '**A/An**' का प्रयोग किया है।
- वाक्यों में ***Singular Countable Noun* से पूर्व, (यदि वह अनिश्चित है) *Article 'A/An'* का प्रयोग** अवश्य किया जाता है। इन वाक्यों का यह अनुवाद गलत है:

(a) This is chair.	*(Incorrect)*
(b) Sita sang song.	*(Incorrect)*
(c) This is umbrella.	*(Incorrect)*

ARTICLE dk iz;ksx dgk¡ gksrk gS\

She is _____ excellent.

- कई लोग 'excellent' देख तुरंत 'an' का प्रयोग कर देते है परन्तु इस वाक्य में कोई article का प्रयोग नहीं होगा क्योंकि 'excellent' के बाद कोई noun नहीं है।

जैसे: She is <u>an</u> excellent student.

- Article का प्रयोग **noun के पहले** होता है।

जैसे: She is **a** $\underbrace{\text{student}}_{\text{noun}}$.

- अगर noun की विशेषता बताने वाला adjective वाक्य में मौजूद हो तो article का प्रयोग **adjective के पहले** होगा।

जैसे: She is **an** $\underbrace{\text{excellent}}_{\text{adj}}$ $\underbrace{\text{student}}_{\text{noun}}$.

➢ अगर adjective की विशेषता बताने वाला adverb भी मौजूद हो तो article का प्रयोग **adverb के पहले** होगा।

जैसे: She is **a** $\underbrace{\text{very}}_{\text{adv}}$ $\underbrace{\text{excellent}}_{\text{adj}}$ $\underbrace{\text{student}}_{\text{noun}}$.

A, An का प्रयोग कहाँ किया जाता है?

1. A/An का प्रयोग अनिश्चित (Indefinite) Singular Noun से पूर्व किया जाता है। (निश्चित होने पर Noun के पूर्व 'The' का प्रयोग किया जाता है) इसलिए A/An को Indefinite articles कहा जाता है; जैसे:

(a) I have **a** car. (b) He sang **a** song.

(c) This is **an** orange. (d) Ram is **a** student.

2. जिस शब्द के पूर्व 'A/An' का प्रयोग करना है, यदि उस शब्द के उच्चारण की प्रथम ध्वनि (First sound of pronunciation) स्वर है तो 'An' का प्रयोग होगा। यदि यह **ध्वनि व्यंजन** है, तो **'a'** का प्रयोग होगा।

(a) अंग्रेजी भाषा में **A, E, I, O, U,** को स्वर **(Vowels)** माना गया है। कई शब्द इन **Vowels** से शुरू तो हो सकते है, लेकिन मुख्य बात है, उस शब्द के **उच्चारण** की। हिन्दी वर्णमाला के **अ, आ, इ, ई, उ, ऊ, ए, ऐ, ओ, औ स्वर** माने जाते हैं।

An umbrella	-अम्ब्रेला	**A university**	-यूनिवर्सिटी
A union	-यूनियन	**A ewe**	-यू
A one rupee note	-वन	**An honest man**	-ऑनेस्ट

➢ शब्द का प्रथम letter क्या है ,यह महत्त्वपूर्ण नहीं है। महत्त्पूर्ण है, उसके उच्चारण की प्रथम ध्वनि **(First Sound of pronunciation)|**

(b) अंग्रजी भाषा में एक अक्षर, कई प्रकार की ध्वनि हेतु प्रयुक्त होते है। जिन अक्षरों को **स्वर (A, E, I, O, U)** माना गया है, उनका **उच्चारण** बहुत बार **व्यंजन (Consonants)** की तरह होता है। बहुत से व्यंजन (Consonants) स्वर का उच्चारण देते हैं। हो सकता है शब्द का प्रथम अक्षर M, F, H इत्यादि हो, लेकिन **उच्चारण** की **प्रथम ध्वनि स्वर** हो तो ऐसे शब्दों के पूर्व **an** का प्रयोग होगा।

ABBREVIATION esa Hkh mPpkj.k ds vuqlkj pysaA

जैसे:

(a) He is **an** MLA/ MP	(एम.एल.ए./ एम.पी.)
(b) He lodged **an** FIR.	(एफ.आई.आर.)
(c) He is **an** IAS officer.	(आइ.ए.एस.)
(d) He is **an** SDO.	(एस.डी.ओ.)
(e) I have **an** x-ray machine.	(एक्स-रे)
(f) She in **an** LLB.	(एल.एल.बी.)
(g) I have been waiting for **an** hour.	(ऑवर)
(h) He is **an** heir to the throne.	(एयर)
(i) Ram is **an** honest person.	(ऑरेस्ट)

dqNvU; mnkgj.k

1. **An** hour.
2. **An** honour.
3. **An** honourable person.
4. **An** honest man
5. **An** heir.
6. **A** house
7. **An** honorarium.
8. **A** historical monument.
9. **A** young man.
10. **A** ewe.
11. **An** eagle.
12. **A** European.
13. **A** university.
14. **A** unit.
15. **A** union.
16. **An** Umbrella
17. **A** unique planet.
18. **A** useful book.
19. **A** year.
20. **A** one-rupee note.
21. **A** one-eyed man.
22. **An** orange
23. **An** F.O.
24. **A** forest officer.
25. **An** M.P
26. **A** Member of Parliament.

USE OF INDEFINITE ARTICLE A/AN

1. **Singular Countable noun से पूर्व A/An** का प्रयोग किया जाता है। **Countable का अर्थ है जिसकी गिनती की जा सकती है;** अगर **Noun** का प्रयोग न हो तो **Article** का भी प्रयोग नहीं होगा।

जैसे: (a) I have **a** pen (b) She has **a** car. (b) Ram has **an** umbrella. (d) She is **a** house wife.

नोट: 'Noise' uncountable Noun है। फिर भी इसके साथ Article **'a'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: Do not make **a** noise.

2. **Exclamatory वाक्यों में 'What/How'** के बाद व **Singular Countable nouns** से **पूर्व A/An** का प्रयोग किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) What **a** grand building!
(b) What **a** pretty girl!

3. **'प्रति माह' या 'प्रति वस्तु कीमत' के सन्दर्भ में** प्रयोग करने पर **A/An** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: (a) This car runs twenty kilometers **a** litre.
(b) I earn Rs. ten thousand **a** month.
(c) This train runs seventy kms. **an** hour.

4. **कुछ गिनती बताने वाले शब्द जैसे: hundred, thousand, million, dozen, couple से पूर्व 'a'** लगता है।

जैसे: (a) **A** dozen pencils were bought by her.
(b) I have **a** hundred pens.

5. **Half से पूर्व a** का प्रयोग निम्न प्रकार से किया जाता है; जैसे:

जैसे: (a) $2\frac{1}{4}$ Metre -two and **a** quarter metre.

(b) $3\frac{1}{2}$ Kilo-three and **a** half kilo.

(c) She has to run half **a** mile every day.

6. जब वाक्य में **Verb (क्रिया)** का **प्रयोग Noun** की तरह किया जाता है, उससे पहले **A/An** लगाया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) He goes for **a** walk daily.
(b) He has gone for **a** ride.
(c) I had **a** long talk with them.
(d) I want to have **a** drink.

7. **Many/rather/quite/such** के **बाद** यदि **singular noun** आता है तो **noun** के **पूर्व A/An** का प्रयोग किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) Many **a** citizen would welcome such a change.
(b) It is rather **a** pity.
(c) It was quite **an** impossible task.
(d) It was such **a** foolish decision.

8. **कुछ विशेष Phrases में A/An का प्रयोग होता है;**
In a fix, in a hurry, in a nutshell, make a noise, make a foot, keep a secret, as a rule, at a stone's throw, a short while ago, at a loss, take a fancy to, take an interest in, take a liking, a pity, tell a lie.

जैसे: (a) Never tell **a** lie.
(b) Do not make **a** noise.
(c) Twelve inches make **a** foot.

➢ **कुछ phrases के साथ article का प्रयोग नहीं होता ह;**
to lose heart, to set foot, to give ear, at home, last but not least, to catch fire, in hand, set on fire, by car/bus etc, at last, by mistake, in danger, to take heart.

जैसे: (a) I am at home.
(b) The house was set on fire.
(c) I go to college by bus.

A/AN dk iz;ksx fuEufLFkfr esa ugha djuk pkfg,%

(1) किसी भी **Plural noun** से पूर्व **A/An** का प्रयोग नहीं किया जाता है।

जैसे: A $\underbrace{\text{boys}}_{\text{pl.n.}}$ have come (×)
Boys have come (✓)
The boys have come (✓)

(2) **Uncountable nouns** से पूर्व *A/An* का प्रयोग सामान्यत: नहीं किया जाता है; जैसे: **Advice, Accommodation, Baggage, Luggage, News, Permission, Progress, Scenery, Weather, Traffic, Knowledge, Music, Wine, Equipment,Information, Poetry, Furniture, Hair, Business, Mischief, Bread, Stationery Crockery, Postage, Wastage, Money, Jewellery, Breakage, Work, Evidence.**

जैसे: (a) He gave me an advice (remove *'an'*)
(b) I will buy a furniture today (remove *'a'*)

➢ **Uncountable nouns** के पूर्व जब **A/An** का प्रयोग किया जाता है तो इनके साथ कुछ **शब्दों** का प्रयोग करके उन्हें **Countable Noun बनाया जाता है।**

जैसे: (a) I have **a piece of information** for you.
(b) I ate **a slice of bread**.
(c) He gave me **a piece of work** to do.

➢ Article का प्रयोग **'kind of', 'sort of', 'type of', 'variety of'** के बाद प्रयुक्त **Nouns के पहले नहीं**

होता है।

जैसे: What sort of a man is he ! (×)

What sort of man is he ! (✓)

USE OF DEFINITE ARTICLE 'THE'

➢ **'The'** का प्रयोग उस **noun** से **पूर्व** किया जाता है, जो **निश्चित** है या जिसकी **चर्चा पहले की जा चुकी है। 'The'** को इसी कारण **Definite article** कहा जाता है।

'The' का प्रयोग करने के नियम-

➢ **जब किसी पूर्व निर्धारित वस्तु के बारे में कहा जाता है; जैसे:**

जैसे: Once upon a time there lived **a** king. **The** king was very kind. One day he met **an** old man. **The** old man was very poor.

(a) प्रथम वाक्य में **king** से पूर्व सर्वप्रथम **'a'** का प्रयोग किया गया है, क्योंकि **introduction** के समय से पहले हमें ये ज्ञात नहीं था कि कहानी किस की सुनाई जा रही है। बाद में **'the'** का प्रयोग किया गया है, क्योंकि **introduction** के बाद **king** निश्चित हो गया है। इसी प्रकार **old man** से पहले सर्वप्रथम **'a'** का प्रयोग किया गया लेकिन बाद में **'the'** का, क्योंकि तीसरे वाक्य में **old man** का **उल्लेख पहली बार** हो रहा है लेकिन चौथे वाक्य में वह **already introduced** हो चुका है।

(b) **The** man in white shirt is my brother.

(c) **The** boy standing near the gate is my brother .

वाक्य (b) एवं (c) में 'the' का प्रयोग, **एक निश्चित, निर्धारित Noun** के तरफ **इंगित** करता है।

USE OF ARTICLE WITH DIFFERENT KINDS OF NOUN

PROPER NOUN:

1. किसी भी व्यक्ति अथवा स्थान के नाम के साथ Article का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता है।

जैसे: Ram was an ideal son.

Rome is an ancient city.

अपवाद:

➢ **निम्न स्थिति में Proper Noun से पूर्व A/An** का प्रयोग किया जा सकता है-

जैसे: (a) **A** Mr Sharma has come to meet you.

(b) This book is written by **a** Suresh Mishra.

'Mr. Sharma' proper noun हैं, जब ये वक्ता के लिए अनजान हैं तो इनसे पूर्व **'a'** के प्रयोग का अर्थ किसी (कोई) Mr. Sharma हो जाता है।

➢ अगर किसी व्यक्ति अथवा स्थान को **उसके गुण या दोष की वजह से उदाहरण स्वरूप प्रयोग किया जाये** तो उस नाम के पहले **Article** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: He is **the** Ram of modern India.

Jaipur is **the** Rome of India.

He is **a** Hitler.

➢ कुछ स्थान के नाम के साथ Article **'The'** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: **The** Ukraine
The Great Britain
The Netherlands
The Hague.

2. राज्यों के नाम के साथ Article का प्रयोग नहीं होता । अपवाद -**The** Punjab.

3. किसी भी **देश के नाम** के साथ **Article** का प्रयोग **नही** होता।

जैसे: America, Russia.

➢ लेकिन यदि देश के नाम में **Union, United, Republic** या **Kingdom** शब्द का प्रयोग हो तो Article **'The'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: **The** Soviet Union, **the** United States, **the** Irish Republic

4. **पर्वत श्रृंखला** के साथ **'The'** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: **The** Himalayas, **the** Alps,

➢ लेकिन **पर्वत की चोटी के नाम** के साथ **Article** का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता है।

जैसे: Mt. Everest, Mt. Abu.

5. **Nationality (राष्ट्रीयता)** व्यक्त करने वाले शब्दों से पूर्व **'The'** का प्रयोग करें लेकिन **भाषा** के साथ **Article** का प्रयोग **न** करें।
The English speak English.
The English defeated **the** French.

6. **बिमारियों के नाम** के साथ **Article** का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता।

अपवाद:
The Measles, **the** Rickets, **the** Mumps , **the** Plague, **the** Flu.

7. **नीचे दिए गये Proper Noun के साथ Article** 'The' **का प्रयोग करें। साथ में कुछ उदाहरण प्रत्येक बिन्दु को स्पष्ट करने के लिए दिए गए हैं**

(a) नदियों के नाम: जैसे- **The** Yamuna, **the** Ganga, **the** Godawari, **the** Sutlej.

(b) समुंद्र के नाम: जैसे- **The** Arabian sea, **the** Caribbean sea.

(c) महासागर के नाम: जैसे- **The** Indian Ocean, **the** Pacific Ocean, **the** Atlantic Ocean.

(d) द्वीप के समूह: जैसे- **The** lakshdweep, **the** Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

(e) भौगोलिक पिण्ड के नाम- जैसे: **The** Sun, **the** Venus, etc.

नोट: जो वस्तु **Unique** हैं, उससे **पूर्व 'the'** का प्रयोग होता है; जैसे:

➢ **The** world, **the** universe, etc. लेकिन Heaven, Hell, God, Parliament के पूर्व **'article'** का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता है;

जैसे: (a) The world is in danger due to green house effect.
(b) Go to hell.
(c) God resides in heaven.
(d) The Bill was passed in Parliament.

➢ **Environment** एवं **Atmosphere** से **पूर्व 'The'** का प्रयोग किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) The atmosphere consists of three layers.

(b) We must protect the environment.

➢ जब **Space** का अर्थ **'अंतरिक्ष'** होता है, तो **Space** से **पूर्व article** का प्रयोग नहीं होता है, लेकिन यदि **Space 'जगह'** के **अर्थ** में प्रयुक्त हुआ है तो **'The'** का प्रयोग होगा;

जैसे: (a) Many astronauts dream of going to space.

(b) He tried to park his car but **the** space was not sufficient.

8. **दिशाओं के नाम:** जैसे- **The** East, **the** West, etc.

लेकिन यदि इनके **साथ** किसी **Place का नाम जोड़ा गया हो तो 'The' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।** जैसे: **West Bengal.**

➢ **इसी तरह Northern, Southern, Eastern, Western से पूर्व article** नहीं आता है; जैसे: **Western India.**

कुछ अन्य उदाहरण-

जैसे: 1. **The** sun rises in **the** east.

2. He is going to **North America.**

3. Rajasthan is in **Western India.**

4. Sweden is in **Northern Europe.**

9. **खाड़ी के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Bay of Bengal

10. **रेगिस्तान के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Sahara desert

11. **नहरों के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Suez Canal

12. **समाचार पत्र के नाम:** जैसे- **Th**e Hindu, **The** Times of India

13. **पवित्र ग्रंथ के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Gita, **the** Bible

➢ लेकिन **Valmiki's Ramayan, Banabhatt's Kadambiri,** जैसी स्थिति में, इनके पूर्व **'The' नहीं** लगता है क्योंकि यहाँ धार्मिक ग्रंथ के नाम के पहले उसके लेखक का भी नाम जुड़ा हुआ है।

14. **ऐतिहासिक इमारतो के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Taj Mahal, **the** Red Fort.

➢ बहुत-सी **महत्त्वपूर्ण Buildings एवं Monuments** के **नाम दो शब्दों** से मिलकर बने होते हैं। जिनमें से **एक शब्द किसी व्यक्ति या स्थान का नाम** होता है, **ऐसे नाम के साथ 'The'** का प्रयोग **नहीं** किया जाता; जैसे: **Delhi Airport, Victoria Palace, London Zoo, Jai Singh Palace, Indira Gandhi Airport**

15. **आंदोलन के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Quit India movement

16. **संगठन के नाम:** जैसे- **The** United Nations,

17. **रेल/हवाई मार्ग के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Jet Airways, **the** Intercity, **the** Rajdhani Express.

18. **राजनैतिक पार्टियों के नाम:** जैसे- **The** B.J.P, **the** Congress, **the** Communist Party.

19. **अधिनियम/संवैधानिक इकाई के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Indian Penal Code, **the** Legislature

20. **वाद यंत्र के नाम:** जैसे- **The** Flute, **the** Violin

21. **धार्मिक समुदायों के नामः** जैसे- **The** Hindus, **the** Muslims, **the** Sikhs.

22. **व्यक्ति के पद के पूर्वः** जैसे- **The** Chairman, **the** Director ***(अगर 'एक' के संदर्भ में पद का उल्लेख हो तो a director, an author इत्यादि भी हो सकता है। यानि a/an का भी प्रयोग हो सकता है।)***

23. **किसी आविष्कार (Invention) के नाम के पूर्वः** जैसे- **The** telescope.

24. **समिति, क्लब तथा ट्रस्ट के नाम के पूर्वः** जैसे- **The** Lions' Club, **The** Rotary Club.

25. **वंशजों के नामः** जैसे- **The** Marathas, **the** Peshwas.

26. **शरीर के अंगों (Parts of the body)** के **पूर्व 'the' का प्रयोग तभी होता है जब possessive adjective (my, his, etc.) के स्थान पर Article** का प्रयोग **हो;** जैसे- He was wounded in **his/the** eye.

27. **तारीख के साथः** जैसे- **The** 10th of May.

28. **सशस्त्र बल के साथः** जैसे- **The** Army, **the** Police.

29. **ग्रहों (Planets) के नाम के साथः** जैसे- **The** Venus, **the** Mars.

30. **होटल के नाम के साथः** जैसे- **The** Taj Hotel.

31. **खेल की टॉफी एवं कप के नाम के साथः** जैसे- **The** World Cup.

32. **युद्ध, क्रांति एवं सदी के नाम के साथः** जैसे- **The** French revolution,the Middle Ages.

➢ नीचे दिये गये **Proper Noun** के साथ **Article** का प्रयोग **न** करें।

1. **महीने के नामः** June, July, September etc.

2. **दिन के नामः** Sunday, Monday, Tuesday etc.

3. **विषयों के नामः** Mathematics, Physics etc.

4. **मार्ग के नामः** M.G. Road, Mall Road etc.

5. **Meals के नामः** Lunch, Dinner, etc.

6. **भाषा के नामः** English, Hindi, etc.

7. **Hobbies के साथः** Gardening, singing.

8. **खेल के नाम के साथः** Hockey, Cricket.

9. **Noun Complement के पहले; appoint, make, elect, select के साथ।**

जैसेः They elected him ~~**the**~~ president.

COMMON NOUN:

1. जब कोई वस्तु **Understood** होती है तो उससे **पूर्व 'The'** का प्रयोग होता है; जैसेः

(a) Kindly return **the** book. *(That I gave you)*

(b) Can you turn off **the** light? *(The light in the room.)*

2. अगर **Singular Common Noun** के पहले **Article** का प्रयोग किया जाये तो वह **पूरी प्रजाति** का उल्लेख कर सकता है पर इनके साथ **Singular verb** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसेः **A** dog **is** a faithful animal.

नोटः- सिर्फ **man** के उल्लेख मात्र से अर्थ मानव जाति निकलता है।

जैसेः Man is mortal.

3. जब कोई **Noun किसी व्यक्ति के अंदर मौजूद गुण, भाव या अभिव्यक्ति को व्यक्त करे**, तो उससे **पूर्व article** का प्रयोग होता है;

जैसे: (a) **The** judge (moral of judge) in him, prevailed upon **the** father (Love of father for his son) and he sentenced his son to death.

(b) **A** mother (feelings of motherhood) was born in her when she saw the baby.

4. जब **स्कूल, कॉलेज, मन्दिर** इत्यादि का उल्लेख उनके **प्राथमिक उद्देश्य** के संदर्भ में हो तब **article** का प्रयोग **न** करें।

जैसे: Children should go to school.
I go to temple every morning.

➢ लेकिन जब **स्कूल, कॉलेज** इत्यादि का उल्लेख किसी बिल्डिंग या स्थान के संदर्भ में हो तब Article का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: My house is behind a school.
The college is next to the temple.

ABSTRACT/MATERIAL NOUN:

➢ **Abstract/Material noun** के साथ **सामान्यतः Article का प्रयोग** नहीं होता। वैसे भी ये **Uncountable Nouns** है। **A/An का प्रयोग तो हो भी नहीं सकता है।**
Gold is precious.
Honesty is the best policy.

➢ लेकिन अगर हम इन Noun का प्रयोग नीचे दिये गये **Sentence formation** में करें तो तब Article **'The'** का प्रयोग होगा।

Article + Noun + of + ...

The cotton of Egypt is known for its superior quality.
The honesty of this boy is liked by all.

USE OF ARTICLE WITH ADJECTIVE

1. Superlative degree से पूर्व 'the' का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे: (a) He is **the best** student of our class.

(b) She is **the most** beautiful girl of the town.

2. Comparative Degree से पूर्व article 'the' का प्रयोग किया जाता है जब दो comparative degree को एक दूसरे से directly या inversely proportional दिखाया जाए;

जैसे: (a) **The more** electricity you use, **the higher** your bill will be.

(b) **The higher** you rise, **the greater** is the fall.

3. अगर दो में से एक का चुनाव किया जाए तो Comparative degree का प्रयोग होता है जिसके पहले 'the' और जिसके बाद 'of' का प्रयोग होगा;

जैसे: (a) He is **the stronger of** the two wrestlers.

(b) She is **the better of** the two players.

➢ अगर **सभी में से एक का चुनाव** किया जाए तो **superlative degree का प्रयोग** होगा। **Superlative Degree के पहले भी article 'the'** और उसके बाद **'of'** का प्रयोग होगा।

जैसे: She is **the best of** all the players.

4. **जब Adjectives जैसे honest, rich, poor, meek इत्यादि के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग किया जाता है तो वह पूरे वर्ग को सम्बोधित करता है। इनके साथ Plural Verb का प्रयोग किया जाता है ।**

जैसे: (a) The honest are always rewarded.
(b) The rich exploit the poor.
(c) The young and the old, the poor and the rich, all demand corruption free India.

5. **किसी Proper noun के बाद या साथ जब कोई Adjective/Noun उसी Noun को qualify करते हुए लगाया जाता है तो Proper Noun के बाद 'the' का प्रयोग होता है;**

जैसे: Ashoka, **the great, the great Akbar.**
Napolean, **the warrior.**

6. **Ordinals से पूर्व 'The' का प्रयोग किया जाता है। first, second, third...ordinals तथा one, two, three...cardinals कहलाते हैं;**

जैसे: (a) Chapter **two** of this book is very difficult.
(b) **The second** chapter of this book is very difficult.
(c) Volume **one** is on verbs.
(d) **The first** volume is on verbs.

7. **Adjective 'same' एवं 'whole' के पहले और 'all' एवं 'both' के बाद article 'the' का प्रयोग किया जाता है।**

जैसे: (a) He is **the same** boy that met me in the market.
(b) **The whole** period was wasted.

8. **Few एवं little के साथ 'a'** एवं **'the'** लगाने पर उनके **अर्थ परिवर्तित** हो जाते हैं।

Few
- a few **(संख्या में कम है लेकिन है)**
- few (संख्या में इतना कम की ना के बराबर है)
- the few **(संख्या में कम लेकिन निर्धारित व जिसके तरफ हम इंगित कर सकते है।)**

Little
- a little **(मात्रा में कम है लेकिन है)**
- little (मात्रा में इतना कम की ना के बराबर है)
- the little **(मात्रा में कम लेकिन निर्धारित व जिसके तरफ हम इंगित कर सकते है।)**

9. **यदि Adjective से पहले so, as, too, how, quite** का प्रयोग होता है तो उसके **बाद A/An (Indefinite Article)** का प्रयोग किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) It is too heavy **a** box for me to carry.
(b) Rohit is not so big **a** businessman as you think.

USE OF ARTICLE ACCORDING TO SUBJECT – VERB AGREEMENT

1. **यदि दो या दो से अधिक Noun एक ही व्यक्ति के लिए प्रयुक्त हुए हों तो 'The' का प्रयोग प्रथम Noun के पूर्व किया जाता है;**

जैसे: (a) The secretary and treasurer was present there.
(b) The director and Producer has come for the shooting.

➢ यहाँ Secretary and treasurer तथा director and producer एक ही व्यक्ति है।
लेकिन अगर अलग-अलग व्यक्ति को सम्बोधित करना हो तो article 'the' का प्रयोग सभी पद के पहले करें।

जैसे: (a) The secretary and the treasurer were present there.

➢ यहाँ secretary एवं treasurer अलग-अलग व्यक्ति है।

A/AN ,oa ONE ds chp dk varj

1. **A/An Article हैं, जबकि One एक Adjective है।**
2. **प्रतिदिन, प्रति सप्ताह, प्रति किलो, कीमत या दर** के लिए **'a'** का प्रयोग ही किया जायेगा **'one'** का नहीं।
   Ten rupees a kilo, four times a day, Sixty kilometers an hour, Twelve rupees a dozen.
3. **'a'** एवं **'one' का noun** के साथ प्रयोग करने पर भिन्न-भिन्न अर्थ निकलता है। **A/An का अर्थ any या every** से भी होता है;

जैसे: One cow is not enough for the family's requirement. *(We need two or more cows.)*
A cow is a useful animal. *(Cows are useful.)*

4. **'One'** का प्रयोग **another/other** के साथ किया जा सकता है, **'a'** का प्रयोग नहीं;

जैसे: (a) One student wants to study, another wants to play.
(b) One day he comes, the other day he does not.

5. **'One' का प्रयोग day/week/month/year/summer/winter etc.** के नाम के पूर्व किया जा सकता है जो उस दिन/समय होने वाली किसी घटना के सन्दर्भ में प्रयुक्त होता है;

जैसे: (a) One night there was a terrible storm.
(b) One day Ravana came to Sita's cottage.

6. **One day** का प्रयोग **'किसी दिन'** के अर्थ में किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) **One day** you'll realise your mistake.
(b) **One day** you will feel sorry for what you have done.

7. **'One'** का प्रयोग **'a/an' के pronoun** के समरूप भी किया जाता है;

जैसे: (a) Did you get any berth? Yes, I managed to get **one**.

➢ 'One' का बहुवचन (plural) उक्त प्रयोग में **'some'** होगा;

जैसे: Did you get berths? Yes I managed to get **some**.

8. 'Noun' के 'repetition' से बचने के लिए pronoun 'one' the का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: (a) This car is better than that one.

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) The loss of jobs/ (b) is regarded by some as an necessary evil/ (c) in the fight against inflation./ (d) No error.
2. (a) It is a/ (b) quarter to ten/ (c) by my watch./ (d) No error.
3. (a) Gita doesn't usually/ (b) wear jewellery but yesterday/ (c) she wore ring./ (d) No error.

4. (a) The police asked us/ (b) about our movements/ (c) on a night of crime./ (d) No error.
5. (a) In science the credit goes to a man/ (b) who convinces the world,/ (c) not to the man to whom the idea first occurs./ (d) No error.
6. (a) It is only after/ (b) the match is over/ (c) that people realize/ how exciting it is./ (d) No error.
7. (a) Of the two/ (b) sisters, she/ (c) is better./ (d) No error.
8. (a) It is unfortunate enough/ (b) to lose few friends we make/ (c) during our school days./ (d) No error.
9. (a) There were a number of intelligent gentlemen at the party/ (b) but it was Mr. Subramaniam, an eminent scientist,/ (c) who remained a centre of attraction./ (d) No error.
10. (a) I have been/ (b) informed that/ (c) Mr. Sharma, the director and the chairman will visit Patna the following month./ (d) No error.
11. (a) He is/ (b) the best worker/ (c) of the factory but unfortunately least paid./ (d) No error.
12. (a) He has come out/ (b) with an unique proposal/ (c) for his friends (d) No error.
13. (a) When the house was/ (b) set on the fire, all the people/ (c) started shouting at the top of their voices./ (d) No error.
14. (a) Little knowledge/ (b) of medicine that he possessed/ (c) proved to be a blessing for him when he was in great pain./ (d) No error.
15. (a) It was/ (b) by a mistake/ (c) that he injured her hand./ (d) No error.
16. (a) These orders of/ (b) the Manager/ (c) may put the lives of two thousand workers in a danger./ (d) No error.
17. (a) I inspired him/ (b) to take the heart/ (c) in all adverse situations and deserve to be called a real hero./ (d) No error.
18. (a) The most happy/ (b) marriage would be/ (c) a union of a deaf man and a blind woman./ (d) No error.
19. (a) John suggested to/ (b) the children of his village that they should/ (c) go to the school regularly and do their home work sincerely./ (d) No error.
20. (a) Some people say that/ (b) her husband is in the jail/ (c) and so she lives alone./ (d) No error.
21. (a) The Greek peoples/ (b) are considered/ (c) very brave/ (d) No error.
22. (a) His father/ (b) asked him to go/ (c) to the temple every morning/ (d) No error.
23. (a) There was little/ (b) milk in the refrigerator and she gave it/ (c) to her crying son./ (d) No error.
24. (a) He leads/ (b) a very luxurious life / (c) so he goes to every part of India by a car./ (d) No error.
25. (a) Thanks to an effort/ (b) and persistence of the doctors, the victims of the blast/ (c) have been able to start a normal life again./ (d) No error.
26. (a) In a hour's time/ (b) I will be back/ (c) but now I have to go./ (d) No error.
27. (a) Terrorist organizations/ (b) kill innocent people/ (c) to spread a violence./ (d) No error.
28. (a)Whole world is/ (b) today facing the threat of extinction/ (c) due to the inventions of Science./ (d) No error.
29. (a) The answer/ (b) to all the sufferings of / (c) human beings lies in the Science./ (d) No error.
30. (a) The police should exercise/ (b) their authority with little/ (c) bit of sensitivity

and humanity./ (d) No error.

31. (a) This is/ (b) most important/ (c) lesson which we will have to study very carefully./ No error.
32. (a)The Ganges/ (b) is for North India/ (c) what Krishna is for South India./ (d) No error.
33. (a) I like to travel/ (b) by the air as/ (c) I am a very busy person./ (d) No error.
34. (a) The Chairman and the Trustee/ (b) was removed from his/ (c) post because he had misappropriated the fund./ (d) No error.
35. (a) She found/ (b) herself in a trouble/ (c) when she saw the stalker following her persistently./ (d) No error.
36. (a) All the people/ (b) of India know that/ (c) Gandhi ji was a very wise and a noble soul./ (d) No error.
37. (a) The man/ (b) is the only creature/ (c) that is endowed with the art of humour./ (d) No error.
38. (a) It is very difficult/ (b) to find out the number of/ (c) the creatures living on the earth./ (d) No error.
39. (a) While climbing/ (b)the hill, to his amazement , the/ (c) poor man found the box of pearls./ (d) No error.
40. (a) The blast derailed the lives / (b)of many people but in an year/ (c) time leaving apart the victims,no one remembered anything/ (d) No error.
41. (a)Cowards die/ (b) several times,/ (c) the braves die but once/ (d) No error.
42. (a) Akbar became a heir/ (b)to the throne at/ (c) a young age of thirteen/ (d) No error.
43. (a) The both brothers/ (b) are safe now/ (c) and are recuperating./ (d) No error.
44. (a) When the principal entered the classroom/ (b) all boys shook/ (c) in their shoes/ (d) No error.
45. (a) Father in him/ (b) could not bear the condition of/ (c) his ailing daughter/ (d) No error.
46. (a) Let judge in you/ (b) decide what/ (c) punishment should be given to him/ (d) No error.
47. (a) My teacher said that/ (b) Sun is a/ (c) star/ (d) No error.
48. (a) Due to its beauty/ (b) Kashmir is known as/ (c) Switzerland of India/ (d) No error.
49. (a) Most of the people of Southern India/ (b) do not know/ (c) the Hindi/ (d) No error.
50. (a) He went for the lunch/ (b) at 1 p.m. and then/ (c) returned/ (d) No error.
51. (a) The honesty/ (b) is/ (c) a virtue./ (d) No error.
52. (a) Every morning the Sun/ (b) rises/ (c) in east/ (d) No error.
53. (a) He is/ (b) best player/ (c) in India./ (d) No error.
54. (a) When I met him/ (b) the couple of days back/ (c) he was writing a new book,/ (d) No error.

Answers with explanation

1. (b) 'necessary evil' के पहले 'an' नहीं 'a' का प्रयोग करें। 'necessary' vowel नहीं consonant sound से शुरू होता है।
2. (a) 'Quarter to ten' के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।

3. (c) 'ring' singular countable noun है जिसका पहली बार जिक्र हो रहा है। अत: 'a' का प्रयोग करें।
4. (c) 'night of crime' वह निश्चित रात है जिस रात crime हुआ। अत: definite article 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
5. (a) जिस व्यक्ति ने world को convince किया वह निश्चित व्यक्ति है। अत: definite article 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
6. (b) यहाँ किसी निश्चित match की बात नहीं की जा रही है अत: 'the' का प्रयोग गलत है। वाक्य का अर्थ है कि जब कोई match खत्म हो जाता है तब लोग समझ पाते है वह match कितना exciting था। अत: match के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग करें।
7. (c) better के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें। अगर दो में से एक का चुनाव किया जाता है तो comparative degree का प्रयोग होता है जिसके पहले 'the' का प्रयोग होता है।
8. (b) यहाँ 'few' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग होगा। यहाँ उन कुछ दोस्तों की बात हो रही है जिन्हें हम school days में दोस्त बना लेते है। वे दोस्त निश्चित noun है अत: definite article 'the' का प्रयोग होगा।
9. (c) 'centre of attraction' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें। क्योंकि 'Mr. Subramaniam' निश्चित noun है अत: definite article 'the' का प्रयोग होगा।
10. (c) यहाँ एक ही व्यक्ति Mr. Sharma को दो पद उपलब्ध है। अत: सिर्फ director के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें, Chairman के पहले नहीं। (sub-verb agreement देखे)
11. (c) 'Least' superlative degree of adjective है। अत: least के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि adjective के superlative degree के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग होता है।
12. (b) Unique 'यू' sound से शुरू होता है। अत: 'an' नहीं 'a' का प्रयोग करें।
13. (b) 'Set on fire' उपयुक्त Phrase है।
14. (a) यहाँ 'little' का प्रयोग 'थोड़ा सा' के संदर्भ में प्रयुक्त हो रहा है 'न' के बराबर के संदर्भ में नहीं। फिर 'medicine' शब्द से ये definite भी हो जा रहा है अत: 'the little' का प्रयोग करें। वैसे यहाँ 'a little' का भी प्रयोग करना ठीक रहेगा।
15. (b) 'By mistake' सही प्रयोग है।
16. (c) 'in danger' सही प्रयोग होता है।
17. (b) 'to take heart' सही phrase है। इसका अर्थ है आशावादी होना।
18. (c) 'Union' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ किसी एक 'union' की बात नहीं हो रही है।
19. (c) अगर 'school' से हमारा तात्पर्य 'पढ़ाई करना' है तो 'school' के पहले article का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।
20. (b) यहाँ 'jail' से हमारा तात्पर्य jail के प्राथमिक उद्देश्य सजा से है अत: jail के पहले article का प्रयोग न करें।
21. (a) 'Peoples' का अर्थ है विभिन्न नस्ल के लोग। 'The Greeks/The Greek people' से हम पूरे Greek नस्ल को सम्बोधित करते है। अत: 'peoples' शब्द का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।
22. (c) यहाँ 'temple' से हमारा तात्पर्य पूजा है। अत: temple के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।
23. (a) यहाँ हमारा तात्पर्य थोड़ा सा दूध है जिसे बच्चे को दिया गया अत: 'a little' का प्रयोग करें।
24. (c) 'By car' सही प्रयोग होगा।
25. (a) 'effort' के पहले 'the' लगाये। यहाँ एक effort की बात नहीं हो रही है।
26. (a) 'hour' का उच्चारण 'अ' से शुरू होता है। अत: hour के पहले 'a' नहीं 'an' का प्रयोग करें।
27. (c) 'Violence' Countable नहीं है। अत: 'violence' के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग नहीं होगा।

28. (a) Whole के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग होता है।
29. (c) किसी भी विषय के नाम के साथ article का प्रयोग नहीं होता। 'Science' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग न करें।
30. (b) little के पहले a का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि 'a little' का अर्थ होता है 'थोड़ा-सा' और 'little' का अर्थ होता है 'न के बराबर'।
31. (b) 'most' superlative degree है। अत: most के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
32. (c) Krishna के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें क्योंकि नदियों के नाम के साथ 'the' का प्रयोग होता है।
33. (b) 'by air' सही प्रयोग है।
34. (a) वाक्य से ज्ञात होता है कि दोनों पद एक ही व्यक्ति को हासिल है। अत: 'the' का प्रयोग सिर्फ पहले पद (chairman) के लिए करें। 'Trustee' के पहले का 'the' हटा दें।
35. (b) 'trouble' uncountable noun है। अत: उसके पहले 'a' का प्रयोग नहीं हो सकता।
36. (c) Gandhiji (एक व्यक्ति) के दो विशेषताओं का उल्लेख हो रहा है। अत: 2nd adjective 'noble' के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग गलत है।
37. (a) 'Man' का अर्थ होता है मानव जाति। अत: 'man' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग न करें।
38. (c) 'Creatures' के पहले का 'the' हटा दे। 'number of' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग हो चुका है।
39. (c) 'a box of pearls' सही प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि उस 'poor' man' का इसकी जानकारी नहीं थी अत: box of pearls उसके लिए definite नहीं था।
40. (b) 'year' के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग होता है। year का उच्चारण 'इ' से नहीं 'य' से शुरू होता है।
41. (c) 'The brave' का अर्थ है सभी वीर। 'brave' adjective है। Adjective का बहुवचन नहीं बनाया जा सकता 'Cowards' noun है।
42. (a) 'heir' का उच्चारण 'ए' से शुरू होता है। अत: 'heir' के पहले 'an' का प्रयोग करें। यहाँ 'the' का प्रयोग भी उपयुक्त रहता।
43. (a) Both के बाद 'the' का प्रयोग होता है।
44. (b) 'All' के बाद 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
45. (a) 'father' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें। जब किसी व्यक्ति के अंदर मौजूद किसी व्यक्तित्व का उल्लेख करना हो तो उसके पहले article का प्रयोग होता है।
46. (a) प्रश्न 45 की व्याख्या देखें।
47. (b) 'sun' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
48. (c) 'Switzerland' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
49. (c) 'Hindi' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग न करें।
50. (a) 'lunch' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग न करें।
51. (a) 'The' हटा दे। Abstract noun के साथ 'article' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
52. (c) 'east' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग करें।
53. (b) 'best' के पहले 'the' का प्रयोग होगा।
54. (b) 'The' को 'a' में परिवर्तित करें।

14 PREPOSITION

CHAPTER

Preposition वह **शब्द** या **शब्द समूह** है जो किसी **Noun या Pronoun के पहले प्रयुक्त** होकर उस **Noun** या **Pronoun** का अन्य शब्दों के साथ संबंध बताता है; जैसे-

(i) There is a cat sitting **under** the table.
(ii) We need a roof **over** us.
(iii) I go to school **by** bus

नोट: **Preposition** का प्रयोग **Noun या Pronoun के पहले नहीं भी** हो सकता है;

जैसे: (i) Who was he talking **to**?
(ii) He does not have a pen to write **with**.

CONFUSING PAIR OF PREPOSITION

Between	-	**Among**	**Beside**	-	**Besides**	**For**	-	**Since**
Across	-	**Through**	**on**	-	**upon**	**on**	-	**over**
in	-	**into**	**in**	-	**within**	**by**	-	**with**
before	-	**in front of**	**at**	-	**in**	**in spite of**	-	**despite**

(1) Among Between

➢ **Among** का प्रयोग हमेशा दो से अधिक के संदर्भ में होता है।

जैसे: 1. A lot of co-operation is needed among the different States to combat naxalism.
between ✗

2. Alms were distributed **among** the beggars.
3. The teacher distributed sweets **among** them.

➢ **Between** का अर्थ है 'दो के बीच में'।

जैसे: The match will be played between India and Australia.
among ✗

➢ **Between** का प्रयोग **दो से अधिक** के लिए भी होता है बशर्ते **उनमें पारस्परिक संबंध (Mutual relationship)** हो;

जैसे: (i) There is a tournament to be played **between** India , Australia and New Zealand**.**
(ii) There is an alliance **between** the **three European nations.**

➢ **Between** के बाद हमेशा **objective case** का प्रयोग होता है;

जैसे: (i) There is no enmity **between him** and **me** (न कि he and I)

➢ **Between** के बाद **'and'** Conjunction का प्रयोग किया जाता है;

जैसे: (i) The meeting will be held **between** 10 a.m. **and** 4 p.m.

➢ **Between के बाद Noun या Pronoun हमेशा Plural form** में होता हैं;

जैसे: (i) Between **the countries.**
(ii) Between **the students.**
(iii) Between **them.**
(iv) Between **us.**

➢ **Between के बाद कभी भी each, every आदि का प्रयोग नहीं होता हैं;**

जैसे: (i) Between **each boy.** (×)
(ii) Between **every girl.** (×)

➢ **Amongst** का प्रयोग among के अर्थ में होता है। दोनों के प्रयोग के बीच का अंतर देखें:-

(a) 'The' से पहले 'amongst' एवं 'among' दोनो का प्रयोग हो सकता है;

जैसे: (i) **Among the** boys.
या,
(ii) **Amongst the** boys.

➢ **'Among' का प्रयोग Consonant Sound से शुरू होने वाले शब्दों के पहले तथा amongst का प्रयोग Vowel Sound से शुरू होने वाले शब्दों के पहले** होता है;

जैसे: (i) **among** them
(ii) **amongst** us

➢ **Amid** तथा **Amidst** का प्रयोग भी दो से अधिक के लिए होता है। इनके प्रयोग में वही अन्तर है जो among तथा amongst के प्रयोग में है। **Amid** एवं **amidst** का प्रयोग **uncountable noun के साथ** भी होता है।

जैसे: (i) The Bill was passed **amid** pandemonium.
(ii) You are sitting **amidst** us and talking against us.

(2) Beside **Besides**
के बगल में **के अलावा या के अतिरिक्त**

जैसे: (i) He sat **beside** me.
(ii) **Besides** his children, his nephews and nieces were also present at the ceremony.

(3) For **Since**

➢ जब अवधि का उल्लेख हो तो **Perfect** एवं **Perfect Continuous Tense** में **'for'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: 1. I have eaten nothing **for** a long time.
2. She has been living here **for** ten years.

➢ जब शुरूआती समय का उल्लेख हो तो **Perfect** एवं **Perfect Continuous Tense** में **'since'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: I haven't seen him **since** 2009.

➢ **Since** का प्रयोग **'चुकिं/ क्योंकि'** के अर्थ में भी होता है।

जैसे: **Since** he drove recklessly, he met with an accident.

➢ **Since, because** एवं **as** का Pair **so** नहीं होता है।

since....., (✓), since ..... so /therefore(×)
as ....., (✓), as..... so /therefore (×)
because ....., (✓), because..... so/therefore (×)

जैसे: **Since** I was ill so I could not come. (×)
Since I was ill , I could not come. (✓)

नोट: **As** you sow, **so** shall you reap
उपरोक्त Phrase में **as** के साथ **so** का प्रयोग होता है। यहाँ **as.....so** का अर्थ **'जैसा ..... वैसा'** निकलता है।

➢ **'For'** का अर्थ **'के लिए'** भी होता है।

जैसे: The police is **for** our safety.

(4) **Across** **Through**

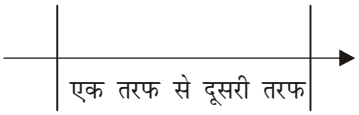

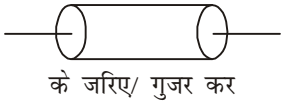

जैसे: 1. I swam **across** the river.

1.The message was conveyed to me by him **through** her.
2.The train passed **through** the tunnel.

Across का प्रयोग भी कई अर्थों में होता है—

➢ **उस पार (on the opposite side of)**
(i) He is waiting for me **across** the road.

➢ **दोनों तरफ (both sides)**
(i) A tree fell **across** the railway line that caused the accident.

➢ **come across (अचानक मुलाकात होना)**
(i) When I was going to college, I **suddenly came across** my childhood friend.(×)

नोट: (1) ध्यान रखें कि **'come across'** का अर्थ है **'अचानक मुलाकात होना'**। अत: **'come across'** के साथ **'suddenly'** का प्रयोग न करें।
When I was going to college, I **came across** my childhood friend. (✓)
(2) **come across** के साथ **with** का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।

जैसे: (i) I came across with him. (×)
(ii) I came across him. (✓)

(5) **on** **upon**

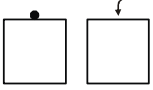

जैसे: 1.The book is **on** the table. (यहाँ **on का अर्थ है- के ऊपर - एक दूसरे के स्पर्श में** हैं)
2.The cat jumped **upon** the rat. (यहाँ **upon का अर्थ है- के ऊपर - motion में**।)

(6) over

जैसे: We need a roof **over** our head. (यहाँ **over का अर्थ है- के ऊपर पर स्पर्श में नहीं**।)

➢ अगर किसी वस्तु पर किसी चीज का **आवरण** हो तो **'over'** का प्रयोग करे चाहे वो touch में हो या नहीं।

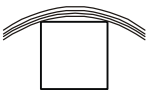

जैसे: 1. The bridge was built **over** the river.
2. Put a blanket **over** the baby.

(7) Over तथा Under का प्रयोग vertical position बताने के लिए होता है;

Over **Under**

जैसे: (i) There is a fan **over** your head.
(ii) A cat is sitting **under** the table.

(8) In Into

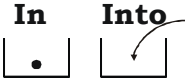

जैसे: 1. We are sitting **in** the classroom. (यहाँ **in का अर्थ है- में/ के अंदर**)
2. The boy jumped **into** the river . (यहाँ **into का अर्थ है- के अंदर आता हुआ- motion में**)

नोट: Enter के साथ 'into' का प्रयोग नहीं होता। यहाँ 'Throw' के साथ भी 'into' नहीं 'in' का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: He entered ~~into~~ the room. (into हटा दें)
He threw the ball into the well. (into के स्थान पर **in** का प्रयोग करें)

नोट: **Enter into agreement/alliance** एंव **enter on/upon** (अर्थ: **to undertake**) का प्रयोग करना सही है।

(9) On time In time
समय पर समय से

जैसे: 1. We reach the examination centre **in** time.
2. The examination starts **on** time.
3. We thought that the train would be late but it arrived exactly ~~in~~ **on** time.

(10) By With
के द्वारा से (औजार या हथियार)

जैसे: 1. The paper was signed **by** him **with** a parker pen **in** black ink.
2. The snake was killed **by** the man **with** a stick.
3. You cannot catch a big fish **with** a small rod.

(11) Before In front of
के पहले/ के समक्ष के सामने

के पहले:

जैसे: I came **before** you.

के समक्ष:

जैसे: India raised the issue of cross-border terrorism **before** the U.N.

In front of:

के सामने

जैसे: Don't park your car **in front of** my gate.

(12) At - In

➢ सापेक्ष रूप से छोटे स्थान के साथ '**at**' का प्रयोग करे और बड़े स्थान के साथ '**in**' का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: I live **at** Mukherji Nagar **in** Delhi.

(13) In spite of **Despite**

के बावजूद के बावजूद

जैसे: **In spite of** working hard, he failed.

नोट: '**Despite**' के साथ '**of**' लगा कर error दिए जाते है। '**Despite**' **के साथ** '**of**' **का प्रयोग न करें**।

जैसे: **Despite** being rich, he is not happy.

(14) By - In

जैसे: 1. I am sitting **in** the car. (✓)
2. I am going in car. (×)
3. I am going **by** car. (✓)

➢ किसी भी वाहन से यात्रा करते हुए दर्शाया जाये तो '**By + vehicle**' का प्रयोग किया जाता है लेकिन अगर पैदल यात्रा करने की बात की जाये तब '**on foot**' का प्रयोग करते है।

जैसे: I go to Paramount **on** foot.

(15)

exact time (hour)	month	year	Day	Date
at	**in**	**in**	**on**	**on**

जैसे: I reached Delhi **at** 7 O' clock
in May
in 2005
on Monday
on 7th September

➢ '**At**' का प्रयोग निम्नलिखित समय के साथ करें।
at dawn, **at** dusk, **at** day break, **at** sunrise, **at** noon, **at** sunset, **at** night, **at** midnight etc.

नोट: **Morning/evening के साथ in** का **प्रयोग होता है। Morning/evening के साथ यदि date/day का प्रयोग हो, तो इनके पहले भी 'on' का प्रयोग** होता है;

जैसे: (i) **in** the morning.
(ii) **in** the evening.
(iii) **on** sunday morning.
(iv) **on** the evening of May, the 2nd.

➢ **today, tomorrow, yesterday, the following day, the next day, yesterday evening, yesterday afternoon, last night, this morning, this afternoon, tonight, tomorrow**

morning, tomorrow evening आदि कि पहले Preposition का प्रयोग नहीं किया जाता है;

जैसे: (i) He will go there on **tomorrow.** ('on' हटा दें)

(ii) They arrived here on last night. ('on' हटा दें)

(16) After (के बाद) तथा **Before** (के पहले):

जैसे: (i) He returned India **after** a long time.

(ii) I left America **before** Christmas.

(17) Till/until का प्रयोग **Point of Time** के साथ होता है;

जैसे: (i) The Government will not pass any Bill **until/till** next session.

(18) By का प्रयोग **Preposition of Time के रूप में Point of Time के साथ** होता है;

जैसे: (i) We shall have finished the syllabus **by** the end of next month.

(19) During का प्रयोग **अवधि (duration)** बताने के लिए किया जाता है;

जैसे: (i) **During** the strike, many people died.

(20) Up Down Upto

↑ ↓ ↑

जैसे: 1. He climbed **up** the tree.

2. He ran **down** the stairs.

3. Children can get free education **upto** the age of 14.

dqN vU; PREPOSITION-

(1) TO का प्रयोग लक्ष्य **(destination)** के लिए किया जाता है;

जैसे: (i) Ram is going **to** college

(ii)Send him **to** school.

(2) Towards का अर्थ है **'की ओर' (in the direction of)**; यह दिशा बताता है, न कि लक्ष्य;

जैसे: (i) He is going **towards** the college.

(3) For का प्रयोग भी **Preposition of direction** के रूप में लक्ष्य **(destination)** के लिए होता है;

जैसे: (i) He is leaving **for** America tonight.

(4) Along (समानान्तर)

➢ जब किसी एक को किसी दूसरी वस्तु के समानान्तर दर्शाना हो तब **along** का प्रयोग करते है।

जैसे: 1. I walked **along** the railway line.

2 .He walks **along** the road. (न कि on the road)

जब दो साथ-साथ समानान्तर हो तब **alongwith** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: come **alongwith** me.

(5) Against का प्रयोग कई अर्थों में है-

➢ (a) **प्रतिकूल (opposite)**

जैसे: It is difficult to sail **against** current.

➢ (b) **के विरूद्ध**

जैसे: I am **against** terrorism.

➢ (c) **सहारा लेकर या टेक लगाकर**

जैसे: Do not stand **against** the railing. You may fall down.

(6) Onto

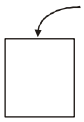

He jumped **onto** his horse and rode away.

(7) With

के साथ

जैसे: I am **with** you through all thick and thin.

(8) Beyond

के बाहर/ के परे

जैसे: The case is **beyond** the jurisdiction of the court.

(9) About का प्रयोग कई अर्थों में है–

➢ (a) **के बारे में**

जैसे: I know **about** him.

➢ (b) **लगभग**

जैसे: It is **about** 100 kms. away from Delhi.

➢ (c) **'about + Infinitive' (कार्य तुरंत होने का भाव)**

जैसे: I am **about to** start a new lesson.

➢ **'about + to+V_1'** के स्थान पर **'going + to+V_1'** या **'$\underbrace{\text{be}}_{\text{any form}}$ + to + V_1'** का भी प्रयोग करने से वाक्य के भावार्थ में कोई परिवर्तन नहीं होता है।

जैसे: 1. I am **going to** start a new lesson now.
2. The minister **is to** deliver a speech.

(10) Above तथा Below का प्रयोग level बताने के लिए होता है; किसी मानक (standard), स्तर (level) या चिन्ह (mark) से ऊपर Above का प्रयोग और उनसे नीचे Below का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: (i) The river is flowing **above** the danger level.
(ii) His English is **below** average.
(iii)The selling price of every commodity in the Multiplex is **above** MRP.
(vi) The score was **below** hundred when the last batsman was declared out.

(11) Of

➢ **'Of'** का प्रयोग निर्जीव का अधिकार दर्शाने के लिये किया जाता है।

जैसे: 1. Table's wood (×)
Wood **of** table (✓)

2. Chair's leg (×)
Leg **of** chair (✓)

➢ **Of** का प्रयोग विभिन्न अर्थों में होता है-

➢ **(a) स्रोत (origin)**

जैसे: (i) He comes **of** a royal family.

➢ **(b)** बिमारी से मरना - 'die **of**'. कारण से मरना - 'die **from**' .

जैसे: (i) He died **of** cancer.
(ii) He died **from** thirst.

➢ **(c) संबंध (relation)**

जैसे: (i) The problems **of** Delhi.

(12) Off से अलगाव (separation) का बोध होता है;

जैसे: (i) Keep the dog **off** the flower beds.

(13) Behind (पीछे)

जैसे: (i) The police are running **behind** the thief.
(ii) She hid **behind** the curtain.

PREPOSITION ds ckjs esa dqN vko' ;d rF;

(1) Preposition के बाद Objective Case का प्रयोग होता है;

जैसे: (i) I do not depend $\underbrace{\text{on}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{him}}_{\text{Objective Case}}$.

(ii) She relies $\underbrace{\text{on}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{me}}_{\text{Objective Case}}$.

(2) यदि दो ऐसे शब्दों को किसी **Conjunction (and, or)** आदि से जोड़ना हो जिनके बाद **भिन्न-भिन्न Prepositions** लगते हैं तो **इन शब्दों के साथ प्रयुक्त होने वाले Prepositions को स्पष्ट** कर देना चाहिए;

जैसे: (i) She is **conscious of** and **engaged in** her work.
(ii) I was **surprised at** as well as **pleased with** her performance.
(iii) He is senior and older **than** I. (Use **'to'** after 'senior')
(iv) His watch is different and cheaper **than** mine. (Use **'from'** after 'different')
(v) She is younger and taller **than** her brother. (✓)

(3) अगर Prepositions के बाद 'verb' का प्रयोग होता है तो verb 'v_1+ing' form में होना चाहिए।

जैसे: I am **looking forward to** $\underbrace{\textbf{going}}_{V_1+\text{ing}}$ to London.

जैसे: He is afraid **of** $\underbrace{\textbf{going}}_{V_1+ing}$ out after sunset.

(4) **Home** शब्द के पहले किसी **Preposition का प्रयोग नहीं** होता यदि इसके पहले निम्नलिखित में से किसी भी verb का प्रयोग हो;

जैसे: **Bring, go, get, arrive, reach.**

(i) I went home by car.

नोट: किन्तु, यदि '**home**' के पहले कोई '**Possessive Case**' के Adjective (जैसे: **my, your, his, her, our, their**) या **noun** के साथ '**s** (जैसे: Ram's, Rohit's) आदि का प्रयोग हो तो **home** के पहले '**to**' का प्रयोग होता है;

जैसे: (i) I went **to his home.**

(ii) I decided to go **to Ram's home.**

(5) **Stress, emphasise, investigate, comprise, accompany, consider, violate, pervade, precede, succeed, invade, resist, enter, eschew, direct, join, sign, affect, ensure, board, discuss, describe, reach, order, tell, demand, attack, control, resemble, और ridicule.**

जब ये **verbs 'Active Voice' में प्रयोग किये जा रहें हों तो इनके बाद किसी Preposition का प्रयोग नहीं** होगा।

जैसे:
1. The teacher emphasised on the need of discipline in life. (Drop 'on').
2. I have ordered for a cup of tea. (Drop 'for')
3. I shall discuss about the problem with you. (Drop 'about')
4. (a) He described/ (b) about the incident/ (c) in his story./ (d) No error
   [(b) में 'about' का प्रयोग गलत है।]

(6) संवाद (Communication) में प्रयोग किए जाने वाले verb (जो किसी कर्म (object) के पहले आता हो) के साथ to का प्रयोग न करें। ये verb है: **advise, tell, ask, beg, command, encourage, request, inform, order** etc.

जैसे: (i) I advised ***to*** him to go. (Drop 'to')

(ii) I informed ***to*** the police of the accident. (Drop 'to')

(7) **Say / suggest / propose के बाद हमेशा 'to'** Preposition का प्रयोग होता है यदि इसके बाद **Object के रूप में कोई व्यक्ति** का प्रयोग हो;

जैसे: (i) You **suggested to him** that he should leave the place.

(ii) She **said to me** that she would help me.

(8) **Speak, reply, explain, complain, talk, listen, write** आदि **के बाद** भी हमेशा '**to**' **Preposition का प्रयोग** होता है यदि **इसके बाद Object के रूप में कोई व्यक्ति का प्रयोग** हो;

जैसे: (i) He did not **reply to** me.

(9) Preposition के दृष्टिकोण से verb के साथ प्रयुक्त उपयुक्त objects (Direct/Indirect) पर ध्यान दें-

(i) **'Furnish, Intrust, Present, Provide, Supply'** इत्यादि के प्रयोग।

जैसे: I provided him money. (Incorrect)

I provided him **with** money. (Correct)

or I provided money **to** him.

(ii) Object के अनुसार निम्न verbs के सही प्रयोग को ध्यान से देखें:-

Compensate, Explain, Fine, Propose, Recommend, Rob, Suggest, इत्यादि।

(i) Rob a person **of** something.

(ii) We informed the police **of** an accident.

(iii)I explained the matter **to** him.

(iv) He robbed her **of** her jewellery.

SOME PHRASE PREPOSITION:

(1) According to- के अनुसार

जैसे: **According to** the terms and conditions, he will have to finish it in two days.

(2) By dint of- के बल पर

जैसे: I passed the exam **by dint of** hard work.

(3) In case of- अगर

जैसे: **In case of** emergency, call 100.

(4) by virtue of- के बल पर

जैसे: The judge can pass the order **by virtue of** his powers.

(5) Owing to - के कारण

Owing to एवं **Due to** अर्थ में एक ही है। दोनों के बीच मुख्यत: दो अंतर है-

(1) वाक्य की शुरूआत 'owing to' से करें 'due to' से नहीं ।

जैसे: Due to heavy rains, I could not come. (×)

Owing to heavy rains, I could not come.(✓)

(2) 'Be' के किसी भी form के बाद 'due to' का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: The accident $\underbrace{\text{was}}_{\text{form of 'be'}}$ owing to heavy rains.(×)

The accident $\underbrace{\text{was}}_{\text{form of 'be'}}$ due to heavy rains.(✓)

(6) With reference to- के सन्दर्भ में

जैसे: **With reference to** your letter, dated 27th July 2011, I hereby submit my reply.

(7) In order to- ताकि

जैसे: We vacated the premises **in order to** avoid litigation.

(8) In course of- के दौरान

जैसे: **In course of** time, I faced many problems

(9) On behalf of- के स्थान पर

जैसे: He came to receive the award **on behalf of** his brother.

(10) Agreeably to- के अनुसरण में

जैसे: **Agreeably to** the terms of the agreement, we will pay you ` 1 lakh.

(11) By means of- के सहायता से

जैसे: He amassed a lot of money **by means of** sharp practices.

(12) For the sake of- के वास्ते

जैसे: Save plants atleast **for the sake of** your children.

(13) In favour of- के पक्ष में

जैसे: He voted **in favour of** his friend.

(14) In lieu of- के बदले में

जैसे: He got fifty thousand rupees **in lieu of** his claim.

(15) On account of- के कारण

जैसे: **On account of** his negligence, the company suffered heavy loss.

(16) In relation to- के संबंध में

जैसे: There are some rules **in relation to** the organization of the match.

vU;jns[ksa:-

1. I acted **according to** your order.
   I acted **in accordance with** your order.
2. Mother Teresa had **affection for** all.
   Mother Teresa was **affectionate to** all.
3. He has **ambition for** fame.
   He is **ambitious of** fame.
4. I am **capable of** doing hard work.
   I have **capacity for** doing hard work.
5. I have **confidence in** myself.
   I am **confident about** myself.
6. He has **desire for** money and fame.
   He is **desirous of** money and fame.

USE OF APPROPRIATE PREPOSITIONS

*****A*****

Abhorrence **of** ..... से नफरत
Abhorrent **to** ..... से नफरत होना
Absorbed **in** ..... में व्यस्त
Abstemious **in** ..... में पहरेज
Abstinence **from** ..... से पहरेज
Acceptable **to** ..... को स्वीकार्य
Access **to** ..... तक पहुँच होना
Accessible **to** ..... तक पहुँच
Accession **to** ..... किसी पद तक पहुँचना
Accomplished **in** ..... में निपुण
Accurate **in** ..... में सटीक

Accused **of** ..... में आरोपी होना
Accustomed **to** ..... का आदी होना
Acquaintance **with** ..... से वाकिफ
Acquainted **with** ..... से वाकिफ होना
Acquit **of** ..... से बरी होना
adapted **to** ..... के अनुकूल होना
Addicted **to** ..... का लत होना
Adjacent **to** ..... के बगल में
Affable **to** ..... प्रिय/मित्र होना
Affection **for** ..... से लगाव
Affectionate **to** ..... से लगाव होना
Afflicted **with** ..... से त्रस्त होना
Afraid **of** ..... से डरना
Agreeable **to** ..... के अनुकूल
agree **with** someone ..... किसी व्यक्ति से सहमत होना
Agree **to** something ..... किसी चीज/योजना से सहमत होना
Akin **to** ..... के जैसा होना
alarmed **at** ..... से/पर स्तब्ध होना
Alien **to** ..... से अंजान/अंभिज्ञ होना
Allegiance **to** ..... वफादार/पक्ष में होना
Alliance **with** ..... से सन्धि/संबंध होना
Alternative **to** ..... का विकल्प होना
Ambition **for** ..... का लक्ष्य होना
Amenable **to** ..... इच्छुक होना
Analogous **to** ..... के जैसा होना
angry **with** (someone) ..... किसी व्यक्ति से गुस्सा होना
Angry **at** (something) ..... किसी बात/चीज पर गुस्सा होना
annoyed **at** (something) ..... किसी चीज़ से परेशान हो/चिढ़ जाना
annoyed **with** (someone) ..... किसी व्यक्ति से परेशान हो/चिढ़ जाना
Antidote **to** ..... किसी जहर का काट होना
Antipathy **to** ..... से नफरत होना
Anxiety **for** ..... की चिन्ता होना
anxious **about** something ..... किसी कारण चिन्तीत होना
Apologise **for** a fault. ..... गल्ती के लिए माफी माँगना
Apologise **to** a person. ..... किसी से माफी माँगना
Apology **for** ..... का खेद होना
Appetite **for** ..... का भुख होना
Applicable **to** ..... पर लागू होना

Apply **for** a post etc. ..... पद के लिए आवेदन करना
Apply **to** a person, office etc. ..... किसी को आवेदन करना
Appoint **to** a post ..... किसी पद पर नियुक्ति होना
Apprehensive **of** ..... की आशंका होना
Apprise **of** ..... के बारे में सूचित करना
Approach **to** ..... को संपर्क करना
Appropriate **to** ..... के अनुकूल होना
Approve **of** ..... की स्वीकृति देना
Argue **before** someone ..... बहस करना (के सामने)
Argue **with** a person ..... किसी से बहस करना
Arrive **at** (a place) ..... पहुँचना (जगह पर)
Arrive **in** (a country) ..... पहुँचना (देश में)
Ashamed **of** ..... के लिए लज्जित होना
Ask **for** (a thing) ..... माँग करना (किसी चीज़ का/किसी से)
Ask **of** or **from** somebody **for** something. ..... माँग करना (किसी से) किसी चीज़ के लिए
Assent **to** ..... की स्वीकृति देना
Assiduous **in** ..... में मेहनती होना
Associated **with** ..... के साथ/सहयोगी हो जाना
Assurance **of** ..... का भरोसा
Assure **of** ..... का भरोसा दिलाना
Astonished **at** ..... पर अचंभित होना
Attachment **to** ..... से लगाव होना
Attend **to** (duty etc.) ..... निभाना (कर्तव्य इत्यादि)
Attention **to** ..... के तरफ ध्यान देना
Attract **to** or **towards** (a person or thing) ..... के तरफ आकर्षित होना
Avail **of** (opportunity etc.) ..... का लाभ उठाना
Averse **to** ..... नापसंद होना
Aware **of** ..... से वाकिफ होना
Abound **in** (mineral etc.) ..... में सम्पन्न होना
Abound **with** (things) ..... से भरा
Absolve **from** (guilt, promise, duty etc.) ..... से मुक्त/बरी होना
Absorb **in** (work) ..... में व्यस्त
Abstain **from** (bad habits) ..... से परहेज
Accede **to** (a request or proposal) ..... मांन जाना (किसी निवेदन को)
Adhere **to** (rules) ..... का अनुपालन करना
Approve **of** (proposal) ..... की स्वीकृति देना
Acquaint **with** ..... से अवगत
Attain **to** (a position/post) ..... पर पहुँचना

Attraction **for** (a thing or person) ..... के प्रति आकर्षण
Aloof **from** (bad company) ..... से अलग
Abide **by** (rules) ..... का पालन करना
Admit **to** (school etc.) ..... में भर्ती करना
Admit **of** ..... की गुंजाइश
Alight **on** (the ground) ..... पर उतरना
Alight **from** (a bus, car, train) ..... से उतरना
Amuse **at** ..... का मजाक उड़ाना
Amuse **with** ..... के साथ लुत्फ उठाना
Answer **to** (a person) ..... को जवाब देना
Answer **for** (etc.) ..... का जवाबदेह होना
Antipathy **to** (a thing) ..... किसी चीज से विरक्ति
Antipathy **against** (a person) ..... किसी व्यक्ति से विरक्ति
Affiliated **to** (a University or Board) ..... से सम्बद्ध
Affiliated **with** (a party) ..... से साथ होना
Attend **to** ..... के तरफ ध्यान देना
Antidote **to** (poison) ..... का नाशक
Antidote **against** ..... का इलाज
Agree **with** (a person) ..... किसी से सहमत होना
Agree **on** (a point) ..... किसी मुद्दे पर सहमत होना
Agree **to** (views) ..... किसी विचार से सहमत होना
Atone **for** (a fault, sin) ..... का प्रायश्चित करना
Acquiesce **in** ..... में सहमति देना
Act **upon** (advice etc.) ..... का अनुपालन करना
Adept **in** (art etc) ..... में निपुण
Adept **at** (thing) ..... (किसी कार्य में) निपुण
Adapt **to** (environment) ..... के अनुकूल बनना
Aspire **after** (fame) ..... (प्रसिद्धि) की लालसा करना
Aspire **at** (the post) ..... (पद) की लालसा करना
Attracted **to** ..... के तरफ आकर्षित होना
Avail **of** ..... का लाभ उठाना
Abide **by** ..... नियमों का अनुपालन करना
Admit **to** ..... में दाखिल/ भर्ती होना
Alight **at** ..... उतरना
Account **for** ..... विवरण देना, व्याख्या करना
Allowance **for** ..... गुंजाईश करना, स्वीकार करना
Aptitude **for** ..... में प्रतीभा दर्शाना

*****B*****

Backward **in** ..... में पिछड़ा होना
Bargain **with** ..... से मोल-भाव करना
Bathe **in** ..... में नहाना
Beg **for** (a thing) ..... किसी चीज़ का भीख माँगना
Beg **of** (a person) ..... किसी से भीख माँगना
Begin **with** ..... से शुरू करना
Belong **to** (a person, place, etc) ..... कहीं से/का होना
Beneficial **to** ..... के लिए लाभकारी होना
Bent **on** (doing something) ..... तुल जाना
Bereft **of** ..... से वंचित होना
Beset **with** ..... से ग्रस्त होना
Bestow (something) **upon** (a person) ..... नवाज़ना/देना
Beware **of** (something) ..... से सावधान होना
Bigoted **in** ..... में अंधा हो जाना (धर्म/विचार में)
Blame **for** ..... का आरोप लगाना
Blind **in** (love etc) ..... में अँधा होना
Blind **in** an eye. ..... आँख से अँधा होना
Blind **to** (something) ..... किसी चीज़ के प्रति अँधा होना
Born **of** parents/Born **in** family ..... पैदा होना (Parents के साथ **'of'** और family के साथ **'in'** लगेगा)
Born **to** them (past participle when used passively) Passive voice में **'born to'** का प्रयोग होता है।
Borrow **of** or **from** a person. ..... से उधार लेना
Break **into** (a building etc.) ..... जबरन/बिना अनुमति दाखिल देना
Break **with** (a person) ..... से संबंध खत्म करना
Burdened **with** (work etc.) ..... काम का भार पड़ना
Busy **with** ..... में व्यस्त होना
Blush **at** (praise) ..... से झेंप जाना
Blush **for** (a fault) ..... के कारण लज्जित होना
Benefit **by** ..... से लाभांवित होना
Believe **in** ..... में विश्वास/ श्रद्धा रखना
Benefit **from** ..... से फायदा/ लाभ उठाना

*****C*****

Callous **to** ..... के प्रति क्रूर होना
Candidate **for** ..... का प्रत्याशी होना
Capacity **for** ..... की क्षमता होना
Care **for** or **about** (something) ..... किसी चीज़ का परवाह होना
(take) Care **of** child etc. ..... ध्यान रखना
Careful **about** ..... को लेकर सावधान रहना
Cautious **of** ..... से सावधान होना

Certain **of** ..... सुनिश्चित होना
Characteristic **of** ..... की विशेषताएँ
Charge **of** ..... नेतृत्व में होना
Charge **with** (responsibility, blame etc.). ..... की जिम्मेदारी/ इल्जाम डालना
Cheat a person **of** money etc. ..... व्यक्ति के साथ cheat में कोई Preposition नहीं लगता है। चीज़ के साथ cheat के बाद of लगायें।
Cling **to** (a seat, job or place) ..... से चिपकना
Command **on** (language) ..... पर पकड़ होना
Common **to** ..... आम होना
Comparable **to** ..... की तुलना में
Comparison **with** ..... से तुलना
Compassion f**or** ..... के प्रति हमदर्दी
Compatible **with** ..... के अनुकूल होना
Compensation **for** ..... के लिए मुआवजा
Compete **with** (a person/etc.) ..... से प्रतिर्स्पधा करना
Competent **for** a job. ..... में सक्षम होना
Complain **against** (someone) ..... (व्यक्ति) के विरूद्ध शिकायत करना
Complain **of** (something) ..... (चीज़) के विरूद्ध शिकायत करना
Complain **to** (a person) ..... को शिकायत करना (Complain (verb) के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।)
Complaint **with** ..... (Complaint (Noun) के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग
Comply **with** (rules, wishes etc.) ..... के अनुसार चलना/ का अनुसरण करना
Composed **of** ..... से बना होना
Concede **to** (a request) ..... निवेदन मान लेना
Concession **to** ..... को रियायत
Condemned **to** ..... अवांछित स्थिति में डाल देना
Conducive **to** (health) ..... लाभकारी होना
Confer honour **on** (a person) ..... को सम्मान से नवाज़ना
Confidence **in** a person. ..... में विश्वाश होना
Confident **of** ..... सुनिश्चित होना
Confined **to** ..... में सीमित होना
Conformity **with/to** ..... अनुरूपता होना
Congenial **to** ..... के अनुकूल होना
Conscious **of** ..... से अवगत/वाकिफ़ होना
Consent **to** (a proposal) ..... की स्वीकृति देना
Consistent **with** ..... अटल/एक सा
Contempt **for** ..... के प्रति असम्मान होना
Content **with** ..... से संतुष्ट होना
Contrary **to** ..... के विपरीत

Conversant **with** ..... से वाकिफ
Convicted **of** ..... का दोषी
Convinced **of** ..... से संतुष्ट/ निश्चित
Convulsed **with** ..... से ऐंठ जाना
Copy **from** a book. ..... से उतारना/नकल करना
Copy **of** something. ..... का प्रतिलिपि होना
Count **on** something. ..... पर निर्भर रहना
Covetous **of** ..... का अभिलाषी
Craving **for** ..... का लालायित होना
Cure **for** ..... का इलाज होना
Cured **of** (disease) ..... (बिमारी से) ठीक होना
Compensate **for** (loss etc.) ..... की क्षतिपूर्ति करना
Cure **of** (a disease) ..... से रोगमुक्त होना
Cure **for** (treatment) ..... का इलाज
Compete **with** (person) ..... से प्रतिस्पर्धा करना
Cling **to** (something/someone) ..... से चिपक कर रहना
Cordone **off** ..... हर तरफ से घेर कर सुरक्षित किया जाना
Commit **to** (a promise, pledge, sentence) ..... के प्रति वचनबद्ध होना
Confide **in** (a person) ..... को राज बताना
Consist **in** ..... में होना
Consist **of** ..... से बना होना
Commence **with** ..... से शुरू होना
Clamour **for** ..... के लिए जोरदार तरीके से माँग करना
Clamour **against** ..... का विरोध करना
Cause **for** ..... का कारण होना
Cause **of** ..... का नतीजा होना
Condole **with** (a person) ..... के साथ सहानुभूति रखना
Count **on** ..... पर निर्भर
Charge **of** (noun) ..... (किसी कुकृत्य) का इल्जाम
Charge **with** (verb) ..... (किसी कुकृत्य को करने) का इल्जाम लगना
Cope **with** ..... का मुकाबला करना/ सामना करना
Cash **in on** ..... का लाभ उठाना
Contribute **to** ..... सहभागी बनना/ भाग लेना
Commence (**On** a day, **at** time, **in** a month) ..... शुरू होना
Concern **for** ..... को ले कर चिन्तित होना/गम्भीर होना
Concerned **with** ..... से सम्बन्ध या मतलब होना
Congratulate **on** ..... पर बधाई देना

*****D*****

Deaf **to** ..... के प्रति बहरा होना

Deal **in** (a commodity) ..... में व्यापार करना
Deal **with** (a subject or person) ..... से निपटना
Defective **in** ..... में श्रुटिपूर्ण होना
Defend **from** or **against** danger. ..... से बचाना
Deficient **in** ..... की कमी होना
Delight **in** ..... में खुशी पाना
Delighted **with** ..... से खुश होना
Deliverance **from** ..... से छुटकारा पाना
Deluged **with** ..... से सराबोर होना
Depend **on** or **upon** something. ..... पर निर्भर करना
Deprive **of** (advantage, right etc.) ..... से वंचित होना
Derogatory **to** ..... के प्रति अपमानजनक होना
Descent **from** ..... का वंशज होना
Desire **for** ..... का इच्छा होना
Desirous **of** ..... का अभिलाषी होना
Destitute **of** ..... से वंचित होना
Detrimental **to** ..... हानिकारक होना
Devoid **of** (certain quality) ..... से वंचित
Devoted **to** ..... को समर्पित होना
Die **for** (a cause) ..... के लिए मरना
Die **from** (reason like thirst/ hunger etc.) ..... (कारण) से मरना
Die **of** (some disease.) ..... (बिमारी) से मरना
Differ **from** a thing. ..... से अलग होना
Differ **on** a point. ..... पर (मुद्दा) अलग मत रखना
Differ **with** a person. ..... से (व्यक्ति) अलग मत होना
Different **from** ..... से अलग
Diffident **of** ..... में हिचकिचाहट
Diligent **in** ..... में मेहनती होना
Disastrous **to** ..... के लिए दुर्भाग्यपूर्ण
Disgrace **to** ..... के लिए लज्जाजनक
Disgusted **with** ..... से चिढ़ा होना
Displeased **with** ..... से नाखुश होना
Distinguish **between** two things. ..... के बीच अंतर करना
Distinguish one thing **from** another. ..... एक का दूसरे से अंतर बताना
Divide **into** shares, parts. ..... में बाँटना
Doubt **of** ..... में शंका होना
Drenched **with** ..... से सराबोर होना
Due **to** ..... के कारण
Duty **to** (parents etc.) ..... के प्रति कर्तव्य होना

Dwell **in** (a house etc.) ..... में निवास करना
Disappoint **of** (hopes) ..... से निराश होना
Despair **of** (hopes) ..... से निराश होना
Dabble **in/at** (art, politics etc.) ..... में हल्का दिलचस्पी लेना
Destined **for** (some future) ..... के लिए नियत होना
Disgrace **on** (family etc.) ..... के लिए कलंक
Dispense **with** ..... से छुटकारा पाना
Dispense ..... बाँटना (कोई Prep का प्रयोग नहीं)
Dispose **of** ..... बेच देना/दे देना
Disposed **to** ..... के प्रति झुकाव होना
Decamp **with** (cash etc.) ..... चम्पत हो जाना/भाग जाना
Disgust **with** (a person, life) ..... से परेशान
Disgust **at** (an act) ..... (किसी काम/ घटना) से परेशान
Discriminate **against** ..... से दुर्व्यवहार करना
Discriminate **between** ..... के बीच भेदभाव करना
Disappoint **of** ..... निराश होना
Dabble **in** (art/politics etc) ..... हल्का दिलचस्पी लेना
Dwell **on/upon** ..... पर विस्तृत रूप से लिखना/ बोलना

*****E*****

Eligible **for** (appointment/ election etc.) ..... के योग्य होना
Enamoured **of** ..... से मोहित होना
Endowed **with** ..... से लैस/सम्पन्न होना
Enmity **to** ..... से दुश्मनी होना
Enquire **into** (a matter) ..... किसी मामले में छान बीन करना
Enquire **of** (a person) ..... से (व्यक्ति) पूछताछ करना
Entitled **to** ..... का अधिकार प्राप्त होना/के लायक होना
Entrust a person **with** a responsibility, work etc. .. काम सौंपना
Enveloped **in** ..... से ढ़का होना
Envious **of** ..... से इष्या रखना
Equal **to** ..... के बराबर होना
Escape **from** ..... से बच निकलना
Essential **to** (health, etc.) ..... जरूरी होना
Exception **to** ..... अपवाद होना
Exemption **from** ..... से छूट प्राप्त होना
Experience **of** ..... का अनुभव रखना
Experienced **in** ..... में अनुभव रखना
Embark **on** (venture) ..... किसी काम में लग जाना
Enter (place) ..... किसी Prep का प्रयोग नहीं
Enter **into** (alliance, agreement) ..... शामिल होना (समझौता इत्यादि में)

Enrage **at** (a thing, an act) ..... (किसी चीज़/ घटना) से गुस्सा होना
Enrage **with** (a person) ..... (किसी व्यक्ति) से गुस्सा होना
Enlarge **upon/on** ..... ज्यादा कहना या लिखना
Enamoured **with** (a person) ..... मोहित होना/आसतिन

*****F*****

Failed **in** ..... में असफल होना
Failure **of** ..... की असफलता
Faithful **to** ..... के प्रति वफादार होना
False **to** (promise) ..... (वादे का) झूठा
Familiar **to** ..... से अवगत होना
Familiar **with** (a subject). ..... (किसी विषय) से अवगत होना
Famous **for** (something) ..... (किसी कारण) प्रसिद्ध होना
Fatal **to** (life/ future prospects etc.) ..... घातक होना
Fatigued **with** ..... से थकावट होना
Favourable **to** ..... के अनुकूल होना
Fearful **of** ..... से डरना
Fertile **in** ..... में उपजाऊ होना
Fond **of** ..... पसंद होना
Fondness **for** ..... पसंद
Foreign **to** ..... से अनजान होना
Fought **against** ..... से लड़ना
Free **from** (worries). ..... (चिन्ता) से मुक्त होना
Free **of** cost. ..... बिना कीमत के
Full **of** ..... से भरा होना
False **of** (heart) ..... से झूठा
Fascinated **by** (a thing) ..... किसी चीज से मोहित
Fascinated **with** (a person) ..... किसी व्यक्ति से मोहित
Fly **into** (anger) ..... अचानक गुस्से में आना
Feed **on** (live on) ..... पर जिंदा रहना
For lack **of** ..... कुछ (कमी) के कारण
For short **of** ..... कुछ (कमी) के कारण
For want **of** ..... कुछ (कमी) के कारण

*****G*****

Get **at** (the truth). ..... (सच) तक पहुँचना
Get **on** (with a person). ..... से अच्छा तालमेल होना
Get out **of** (gate etc.) ..... से बाहर जाना
Get **over** (the difficulty). ..... (कठिनाई) से उबरना
Gifted **with** ..... से समृद्ध/धनी होना

Good **at** (English/singing etc). ..... में अच्छा
Grateful **to** a person. ..... के प्रति कृतज्ञ् होना
Greedy **of** (wealth etc.) ..... का लालची होना
Guilty **of** (an offence) ..... का दोषी होना
Grieve **for** (a person) ..... किसी (व्यक्ति) का मातम मनाना
Grieve **over** (a thing) ..... किसी (चीज) का मातम मनाना
Grieve **at** (an event) ..... किसी (घटना) का मातम मनाना
Guard **against** (mistakes, temptations) ..... गलती/लुभावन से सचेत करना
Guard **from** (a danger, a thing etc.) ..... किसी खतरे/चीज से बचाना
Glance **at** (someone etc.) ..... पर एक नजर डालना
Glance **through** (letter etc.) ..... पढ़ना
Good **for** (nothing) ..... किसी काम का नहीं

*****H*****

Hatred **of** or **for** something. ..... के प्रति नफरत होना
Heedless **of** ..... से असावधान
Heir **to** (the throne). ..... का उत्तराधिकारी होना
Honest **in** ..... में ईमानदार
Hope **for** (good or success etc). ..... की आशा रखना
Hopeful **of** (some result) ..... के प्रति आशांवित होना
Hostile **to** ..... से प्रति शत्रुतापूर्ण
Hurtful **to** ..... के प्रति हानिकर/चोट पहुँचाने वाला
Hear **from** (a person) ..... से कोई खबर मिलना
Hear **of** (something) ..... के बारे में सुनना
Hear **by** (post, communication) ..... ज्ञात होना (किसी श्रोत से)
Hard **by** ..... नजदीक
Hard **up** ..... तंगी होना
Hanker **after** ..... के पीछे पड़ना
Healed **of** (a disease) ..... ठीक होना (बिमारी से)

*****I*****

Ignorant **of** ..... से अनभिज्ञ होना
Ill **with** ..... से बिमार
Immaterial **to** ..... के लिए महत्त्वहीन
Impertinent **to** ..... के प्रति गुस्ताख
Impervious **to** ..... के लिए अभेध
Implicated **in** ..... में फंसना/आरोपित होना
Inclined **to** ..... के प्रति झुकाव
Indebted **to** ..... के प्रति कृतज्ञ्य
Indifference / indifferent **to** ..... के प्रति उदासीन/ उदासीन होना
Indigenous **to** ..... का मूल निवासी होना

Indispensable **to** ..... के लिए अपरिहार्य होना
Indulge **in** ..... में लिप्त होना
Infaturated **with** ..... से आकर्षित होना
Infected **with** ..... से ग्रस्त होना
Inference **from** ..... से निष्कर्ष
Inferior **to** (something or somebody) ..... से खराब (quality में)होना
Infested **with** ..... से ग्रस्त (काफी अधिक संख्या में)
Informed **of** ..... सूचित
Inimical **to** ..... का विरोधी
Injurious **to** ..... के लिए हानिकारक होना
Innocent **of** ..... से दोषमुक्त
Inquired **of** ..... का पुछताछ करना
Insensible **to** ..... के प्रति संवेदनहीन
Insist **on** ..... पर जोर देना
Inspired **with** ..... से प्ररित
Interested **in** ..... में दिलचस्पी
Interfere **in** a matter. ..... में दखल देना
Intimacy **with** ..... से घनिष्टता
Intimate **with** ..... से घनिष्ठ होना
Introduce **to** ..... किसी से परिचय करवाना
Inured **to** ..... प्रतिरोधी होना
Invitation **to** ..... का आमंत्रण
Invite **to** ..... पर आमंत्रित करना
Involved **in** ..... में शामिल
Irrelevant **to** ..... के लिए अप्रासंगिक
Irrespective **of** ..... का ध्यान/विचार किए बिना
Impress **with** (a thing) ..... से प्रभावित होना
Impress **upon** (a person) ..... पर छाप/प्रभाव छोड़ना
Inquire **for/about** (a thing) ..... किसी चीज के बारे में पुछताछ करना
Inquire **after** (welfare) ..... का हालचाल पुछना
Inquire **of** (ask a person) ..... किसी व्यक्ति से पुछताछ करना
Inquired **into** (investigate) ..... जाँच पड़ताल करना
Interfere **in** (a thing) ..... टाँग अड़ाना
Interfere **with** (course of justice etc.) ..... अड़चन डालना
Influenced **with** (a person) ..... से प्रभावित होना
Influence **over** (the people) ..... पर प्रभाव (किसी व्यक्ति का)
Influence **of** something **on** someone ..... किसी चीज का प्रभाव किसी पर
Intrude **into** (room) ..... बिना इजाजत अंदर आना
Intrude **on** (privacy) ..... Privacy में दखल देना
Incensed **at** (thing) ..... गुस्सा होना

Indignant **at** (thing) ..... से रूष्ट होना
Insight **into** (reality, situation) ..... में अंतरदृष्टि
Impress (**with** a thing) ..... प्रभावित करना
Invest **with** (authority) ..... के साथ।
Influence **on** (a thing) ..... प्रभाव/असर
Irritated **at** (thing) ..... चिढ़ जाना/खीज जाना
Irritated **against** (person) ..... चिढ़ जाना/खीज जाना

*****J*****

Jealous **of** (a person) ..... से ईष्या होना
Junior **to** (a person) ..... से कनिष्ठ होना
Judge **of** (things) ..... राय देना
Judge **by** ..... आँका जाना
Jump **to** (conclusion) ..... तुरंत निष्कर्ष पर पहुँचना
Jump **at** (an offer) ..... उछल पड़ना
Jeer **at** (a thing) ..... का मजाक उड़ाना
Jest **at** (a thing) ..... का मजाक उड़ाना

*****K*****

Key **to** ..... की कुंजी
Kind **to** (a person) ..... के प्रति दयालु होना
Knock **at** (the gate) ..... खटखटाना
Known **to** ..... Passive voice में known के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।
Known **by** ..... के कारण जाना जाता हो
Known **for** (a quality) ..... के लिए जाना जाता हो
Knock **at** (the door) ..... खटखटाना (अगर 'knock' verb हो तो)
Knock **on** ..... खटखटाहट (अगर 'knock' noun हो तो)

*****L*****

Lame **of** (a leg) ..... से लंगड़ा
Laugh **at** (a person or thing) ..... पर हँसना
Lax **in** ..... में शिथिल होना
Lean **against** ..... पर (टेक लगा कर) झुकना
Leniency **to** ..... के प्रति नर्मी
Liable **to** ..... के प्रति उत्तरदायी
Liable **to** (punishment) ..... (सजा कर) हकदार होना
Liking **for** ..... की चाहत
Limited **to** ..... में सीमित
Listen **to** ..... को ध्यान से सुनना
Live **by** (hard labour). ..... मेहनत कर जीना

Live **on** (a meagre income/ food). ..... पर (संसाधन) जीना / पर निर्वाह करना
Live **within** (means etc). ..... (संसाधन इत्यादी) के अंदर जीना
Look **after** ..... ख्याल रखना
Look **at** something. ..... किसी चीज़ के तरफ देखना
Look **for** ..... खोजना
Look **into** ..... जाँच-पड़ताल करना
Lost **to** (one's opponent) ..... हार जाना
Loyal **to** ..... के प्रति वफादार
Laugh **with** (others) ..... के साथ हँसना
Laugh **at** ..... पर हँसना
Lean **on** (someone) ..... पर निर्भर करना
Lean **to** ..... के तरफ झुकाव होना
Live **in** (region, area, country) ..... रहना (जब बड़े स्थान का उल्लेख हो)
Live **at** (indicate the place) ..... रहना (जब छोटे स्थान का उल्लेख हो)
Live **by** (livelihood, manner) ..... (आजीविका व रीति-रिवाज) के अनुसार जीना
Live **off** (source) ..... (श्रोत) पर जीना
Liable **for** ..... का जिम्मेदार होना
Liable **to** (punishment) ..... का हकदार होना
Lacking **in** ..... कुछ (कमी)
Likeness **to** ..... समानता
Limit **to** ..... सीमित होना/मर्यादा में होना

*****M*****

Mad **after/about/for/on** (a thing or subject) ..... के लिए पागल होना
Mad **with** anger. ..... गुस्से से पागल होना
Malice **against** a person. ..... किसी व्यक्ति के प्रति दुर्भावना होना
Match **for** ..... की बराबरी
Material **to** /Immaterial **to** ..... के लिए महत्त्व रखना/महत्त्वहीन होना
Menace **to** ..... के लिए समस्या/हानिकारक
Motive **for** ..... का मंशा
Muse **upon** a subject. ..... पर विचार करना
Move **to** (tears) ..... रो पड़ना
Move **with** (pity) ..... (दया से) पिघल जाना
Married **to** (a woman) ..... से विवाह (जब पुरूष स्त्री से करें)
Married **with** (a man) ..... से विवाह (जब स्त्री पुरूष से करें)
Mix **with** (a thing) ..... मिलना
Mock **at** (a thing) ..... का मजाक उड़ाना
Meditate **on** (past act) ..... भूतकाल की घटना पर विचार करना
Meditate (future act) ..... भविष्य काल की घटना पर विचार करना

Menace **to** ..... के लिए खतरा/ समस्या होना।

*****N*****

Natural to ..... के लिए स्वभाविक
Necessary **to** ..... के लिए जरूरी
Need **for** ..... की जरूरत
Negligent /neglectful **of** one's duty. ..... के प्रति लापरवाह होना
Neglectful **of** (a person, work, a thing) ..... से लापरवाह
Negligent **in** (duty) ..... में लापरवाह होना
Neglectful **of** (a person, working a thing) ..... उदासीन होना
Need **of** ..... इच्छा/जरूरत होना

*****O*****

Obedience **to** ..... के प्रति फर्माबरदारी
Obedient **to** a person. ..... का आज्ञाकारी होना
Objected **to** ..... के खिलाफ आपत्ति करना
Objection **to** ..... का विरोध/एतराज
Obliged **by** or **to** a person. ..... से/के प्रति कृतज्ञ् होना
Obstruction **to** ..... के लिए रूकावट
Offensive **to** ..... के लिए अपमानजनक
Opportunity **for** ..... के लिए अवसर
Opposite **to** ..... के विरूद्ध
Originate **in** ..... में उत्पन्न होना
Overwhelmed **with** (joy) ..... से अभिभूत होना
Originate **in** (place as a source) ..... में उत्पन्न होना
Originate **with** (a person) ..... को पहली बार सुझना
Occupied **in** (doing a thing) ..... (काम) करने में व्यस्त
Occupied **with** (a thing) ..... (कोई काम) में व्यस्त
Operate **on/upon** (leg etc.) ..... का ऑपरेशन करना
Oblivious **of** ..... से बेखबर
Offend **at** (thing) ..... (कारण) से अप्रसन्न
Offend **with** (person) ..... (व्यक्ति) से अप्रसन्न
Overwhelm **with** (feelings) ..... (भावनाओं) से भर जाना
Overwhelm **by** (a book etc.) ..... (किताब) से प्रभावित होना

*****P*****

Painful **to** ..... के लिए कष्टदायक
Part **from** (a person) ..... से (व्यक्ति) जुदा होना
Parted **with** (something) ..... से (चीज़) अलग होना

Partial **to** ..... के प्रति पक्षपातपूर्ण
Passion **for** ..... के लिए अत्यन्त लगाव
Peculiar **to** ..... निज का
Penetrate **into** something. ..... में समाना
Pertinent **to** ..... प्रासंगिक
Pity **for** ..... के लिए तरस/दया
Pledged **to** ..... का शपथ लेना
Popular **with** ..... के बीच प्रसिद्ध
Postscript **to** ..... का उपलेख
Pray **to** God **for** something. ..... भगवान को प्राथना करना (किसी चीज़ के लिए)
Precaution **against** (disease) ..... (बिमारी) से बचाव करना
Predilection **for** ..... के प्रति झुकाव
Preface **to** ..... का प्रस्तावना
Prefer **to** ..... के तुलना ज्यादा पसंद करना
Preferable **to** ..... से श्रेयस्कर
Prejudicial **to** ..... के प्रति पूर्वाग्रही
Prepared **for** ..... की तैयारी करना
Preside **over** ..... की अध्यक्षता करना
Pretext **for** ..... के बहाने
Prevent **from** (doing an act.) ..... से बचना / रोकना
Prior **to** ..... से पहले
Productive **of** ..... का फलप्रद
Proficient **in** ..... में कुशल
Profit **by** ..... से लाभांवित होना
Profitable **to** ..... के लिए लाभदायक
Prone **to** ..... के प्रति रूक्षान/झुकाव
Proof **of** ..... का सबूत
Proud **of** ..... के लिए गौरवान्वित/पर गर्व
Provide **with** ..... उपलब्ध कराना
Partiality **for** (a thing) ..... पसंद होना
Partiality **to** (a person) ..... के पक्ष में होना
Perish **by** (famine, sword) ..... नष्ट होना/मारा जाना
Perish **with** (hunger) ..... से (भुख) से नष्ट होना/ मर जाना
Point **at** ..... आरोप लगाना
Point **to** ..... उल्लेख करना
Preside **at** (a party) ..... का मुख्य अतिथि होना
Preside **over** (meeting, president) ..... का अध्यक्षता करना
Provided **against** (adversity) ..... उपलब्ध कराना (प्रतिकूल समय के लिए)
Provided **for** (family etc.) ..... के लिए उपलब्ध कराना
Pine **for** ..... का लालसा करना

Pine **away** ..... शोक से मर जाना
Play **at** (cards) ..... (ताश) खेलना
Play **upon** (a musical instrument) ..... (वाद यन्त्र)बजाना
Partake **of** (food) ..... में अपना हिस्सा लेना
Prey **on** ..... शोषण करना
Passion **for** ..... तीव्र लालसा होना
Feel(Pity) **for** (noun) ..... दया करना
Take(Pity) **on** (noun) ..... दया करना
Pity (verb) ..... Pity अगर verb है तो कोई Prep का प्रयोग नहीं होता
Pride **on** (verb) ..... पर गर्व करना
Pride **in** (noun) ..... पर गर्व होना
Prompt **in** ..... पर तुरंत/फूर्तीला
Prevail **against** (a thing, face) ..... सामना करना व जीतना
Prevail **on/upon** (a person, to compel) ..... बहकाना/मजबूर करना/जोर देना
Popular **for** (a good quality) ..... प्रसिद्ध व लोकप्रिय होना
Popular **with** (the people) ..... के बीच लोकप्रिय

*****Q*****

Quarrel **over** (some affair) ..... किसी मुद्दे पर लड़ना
Quarrel **with** (some person) ..... से लड़ना
Quest **for** (knowledge) ..... (ज्ञान) की लालसा होना
Quick **at** (a thing) ..... में फूर्तीला
Quick **in** (doing a thing) ..... (काम) करने में फूर्तीला

*****R*****

Rebel **against** (government , customs etc.) ..... का विरोध करना
Recovered **from** ..... से उबरना
Reduced **to** ..... घट कर होना
Reference **to** ..... के संदर्भ में
Refrain **from** (an act) ..... से बचना/परहेज करना
Regard **for** ..... के प्रति सम्मान होना
Regardless **of** ..... के तरफ बिना ध्यान दिए
Rejoice **at** (success). ..... खुशी मनाना
Related **to** ..... से संबंधित
Relations **with** ..... से संबंध
Relevant **to** ..... के लिए प्रासंगिक
Remorse **for** ..... का पश्चाताप होना
Remarkable **for** ..... के लिए विशिष्ट
Remiss **in** ..... में सुस्त
Replete **with** ..... से भरना/पूरा करना
Reply **to** ..... का जवाब

Repugnance **to** ..... के लिए अरूचिकर
Repugnant **to** ..... के प्रति अरूचिकर होना
Reputation **for** ..... के लिए नाम होना/जाना जाना
Resemblance **to** ..... का प्रतिरूप
Respite **from** ..... से मुक्ति
Responsible **to** ..... के प्रति जिम्मेदार
Restricted **to** ..... में सीमित
Result **of**..... का परिणाम
Revenge **on** (a person or anything) ..... का बदला लेना
Revolt **against** (king, dictatorship, etc.) ..... के विरूद्ध बगावत करना
Revenge oneself (a person) ..... से बदला लेना
Revenge **for** (noun) (an injury) ..... का बदला लेना
Reconcile oneself **to** (a thing) ..... (हालात इत्यादी) को स्वीकार कर
Reconcile **with** (a person) ..... से
Reckon **on/upon** ..... पर निर्भर करना
Remonstrate **with** (a person) ..... विरोध प्रकट करना
Remiss **in** (duty) ..... में लापरवाह होना
Reason **with** (a person) ..... तर्क करना/बहस करना/सोंच-विचार करना
Replace **by**..... नई से बदलना/बदलना
Repent **of**..... पश्चाताप/प्रायश्चित करना
Recourse **to**..... उपाय/सहारा/सहायता

*****S*****

Sacred **to**..... के लिए पावन
Sanguine **of** ..... के प्रति आशांवित
Satiated **with** ..... से तृप्त
Satisfied **with**..... से संतुष्ट होना
Save **from** ..... से बचाना
Search **for** (something). ..... की खोज करना
Search **into** (a matter) ..... (मामले में) पड़ताल करना
See **into** (a case) ..... जाँच-पड़ताल करना
Sensible **of**..... से वाकिफ
Sensitive **to** ..... के प्रति संवेदनशील
Sentenced **to** (imprisonment/death/etc.) ..... सजा प्राप्त करना
Sequel **to** (a film etc.) ..... का अगला भाग
Short **of** (funds) ..... की कमी होना
Sick **of** ..... से ग्रस्त/परेशान/बिमार
Smiled **on**..... पर खुश होना
Sorry **for**..... के लिए अफसोस करना
Stick **to** (promise, etc.) ..... पर अडिग रहना

Subject **to** (conditions etc.) ..... सशर्त
Submission **to** ..... के समक्ष अधीनता
Subsist **on** ..... पर निर्वाह
Succession **to** ..... के अनुक्रम
Suffering **from** ..... से ग्रस्त होना
Sufficient f**or** (a purpose). ..... के लिए प्रचुर होना
Suit **to** (a purpose). ..... के लिए उपयुक्त होना
Suitable **to** ..... के लिए उपयुक्त
Superior **to** ..... से बेहतर होना
Supplement **to** ..... का अनुपूरक
Sure **of** ..... के प्रति आश्वस्त
Surprised **at** ..... पर आश्चर्य चकित होना
Surrender **to** (a person). ..... समर्पण करना
Susceptible **to** ..... का ग्रहणशील
Suspicious **of** ..... का संदेही होना
Sympathise **with** ..... से संवेदना व्यक्त करना
Show **off** ..... दिखावा करना
Speak **for** (someone) ..... के पक्ष में बोलना
Speak **of** (praise) ..... का तारीफ करना
Start **on** (journey) ..... (यात्रा) शुरू करना
Strive **for** ..... की कोशीश करना
Strive **with** ..... से प्रतिस्पर्धा करना
Side **with** (someone) ..... का पक्ष लेना
Search **for** (a thing) ..... खोजना
Seek (shelter) ..... की कोशीश करना
Seek **after** ..... माँग होना
Suffer (loss) ..... सहना (घाटा)
Suffer **from** (disease) ..... ग्रस्त होना (बिमारी से)
Smile at ..... का मजाक उड़ाना
Smile **on** ..... पर मेहरबान होना
Substitute **for** (for old object) ..... कि विकल्प
Shoot **at**, Strike **at**, Hit **at**, Catch **at** (unsuccessful in attempt)जब प्रयास असफल हो
Shoot, strike, hit, catch (successful in attempt) .... जब प्रयास सफल हो
Spark **off** ..... शुरू करना
Seek **for** ..... जीतने का प्रयत्न करना
Seething **with** (anger etc.) ..... (गुस्से से) बोखलाना/उबलना
Slow **at** ..... धीमा
Scare **of** ..... भयभीत करना/डराना

Sentence **to** (death, etc.) ..... दण्डित करना/दण्ड देना

*****T*****

Talk **over** (a matter) ..... किसी मामले पर बात करना
Talk **to** someone ..... से बात करना
Tantamount **to** ..... के समान होना
Taste **for** ..... का परख होना
Teeming **with** ..... से भरा होना
Temperate **in** (one's behaviour) ..... में शान्त
Temptation **to** ..... के लिए प्रलोभव
Think **of** ..... के बारे में सोचना
Think **over** (a matter) ..... किसी मामले पर सोचना
Threaten **with** (revolver/bad consequences, etc.) . से डराना
Tired **of** (bad person/continued sickness, etc.) ..... से त्रस्त हो जाना/थक जाना
Tired **with** (hard labour). ..... (मेहनत) से थक जाना
Tolerant **of** ..... के प्रति सहनशील
Touched **with** ..... से द्रवित होना
Trade **in** commodity ..... का व्यापार करना
Trade **with** someone. ..... से व्यापार करना
Traitor **to** ..... के प्रति गद्दार
Triumph **over** (enemy etc.) ..... पर विजय प्राप्त करना
True **to** (one's word/one's soil) ..... का सच्चा
Trust **in** ..... में विश्वास करना
Turn **to** a direction. ..... के तरफ मुड़ना
Trifle **with** ..... मजाक उठाना
Trespass **on** land ..... अनाधिकृत प्रवेश करना
Tresspass **against** (law) ..... का उल्लंघन करना
Treat **of** (a subject) ..... उपाय/संसाधित करना/समाधान निकालना

*****U*****

Useful **for** ..... में लाभदायक होना
Useful **to** (a person) ..... किसी व्यक्ति के लिए लाभदायक होना
Usher **in** ..... परिचय करवाना/संचालन करना

*****V*****

Versed **in** ..... में दक्ष
Victory **over** (enemies etc.) ..... पर विजय प्राप्त करना
Void **of** ..... से रहित

Vote **for** (a person) ..... को वोट देना
Vote **on** (resolution) ..... पर वोट देना
Vote **to** (power) ..... जीतना
Vain **of** ..... का घमंड होना
Vexed **with** (person) ..... (व्यक्ति) से परेशान होना
Vexed **at** (a thing) ..... (वस्तु) से परेशान होना
Venture **upon** ..... जोखिम उठाना

*****W*****

Wait **for** a person, etc. ..... का इन्तजार करना
Want **of** ..... की कमी
Warn **of** (danger/bad consequences etc.) ..... की चेतावनी देना
Weary **of** ..... से थका
Wonder **at** ..... पर अचंभित होना
Worthy **of** (trust, etc.) ..... के लायक
Wait **for** (person, thing) ..... का इंतजार करना
Weary **of** (a thing) ..... से थक जाना
Warn **against** (fault, danger) ..... से सावधान करना
Warn **of** (danger) ..... से सावधान करना
Wish **for** (a thing) ..... की कामना करना
Ward **off** (evils etc.) ..... को दूर रखना
Warn **of** ..... खतरे से सतर्क करना
Wanting **in** ..... की कमी होना

*****Y*****

Yield **to** (force/ threat, etc.) ..... हार मान जाना
Yearn **for** ..... की लालसा करना

*****Z*****

Zeal **for** (social reform etc.) ..... उत्साह होना

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) He took/ (b) leave of/ (c) four days/ (d) No error.
2. (a) Children/ should always/ (b) listen the advice of their elders/ (c) and well wishers./ (d) No error.
3. (a) He will not/ (b) listen/ (c) what you say./ (d) No error.
4. (a) Nobody denies/ (b) that my ideas/ (c) are different than yours./ (d) No error.
5. (a) It was I who was responsible of/ (b) making all the arrangements for the/ (c)successful completion of his studies./ (d) No error.
6. (a) She was in the courtyard/ (b) when the burglars/ (c) entered into her house./ (d) No error.
7. (a) Our teacher/ (b) emphasised on/ (c) the use of correct grammar./ (d) No error.
8. (a) On the time/ (b) of the opening ceremony of the theatre/ (c) a large crowd had assembled/ (d) No error.
9. (a) While they were returning/ (b) from school,/ (c) a stalker attacked on them with a knife./ (d) No error.
10. (a) The decline of his moral values/ (b) has caused a lot/ (c) of pain to his parents/ / (d) No error.
11. (a) Without thinking/ (b) for a moment he/ (c) entrusted me in all the responsibilities ./ (d) No error.
12. (a) Sudha fell in/ (b) the well and nobody / (c) tried to save him./ (d) No error.
13. (a) I / (b) prefer coffee/ (c) than tea/ (d) No error.
14. (a) Suresh is busy / (b) in his work/ (c) for his presentation/ (d) No error.
15. (a) While crossing the road/ (b) an old man was/ (c) run out by a bus/ (d) No error.
16. (a) Amphibians / (b) can live / (c) in water as well as land./ (d) No error.
17. (a) My mother is fond off/ (b) cooking different / (c) types of dishes/ (d) No error.
18. (a) Our teacher/ (b) cannot/ (c) control on the students./ (d) No error.
19. (a) The lawyer has been waiting/ (b) for the prisoner / (c) since two hours / (d) No error.
20. (a) Mr. Bacon has / (b) great affection to/ (c) his family./ (d) No error.
21. (a) Rekha has a great/ (b) enmity for her/ (c) brother's friend./ (d) No error.
22. (a) He threw the bucket/ (b) into the river/ (c) and returned home without any water./ (d) No error.
23. (a) There appears/ (b) to be very little/ (c) understanding among the two brothers / (d) No error.
24. (a) She was/ (b) angry on me because I/ (c) had not invited her to party./ (d) No error.
25. (a) He got a prestigious job though/ (b) he was not worthy/ (c) for it./ (d) No error.
26. (a) He described about/ (b) the incident/ (c) in a very interesting way./ (d) No error.
27. (a) My father/ (b) deals/ (c)with garments/ (d) No error.
28. (a) I cannot / (b) deal from/ (c) those unruly students/ (d) No error.
29. (a) Despite of / (b)working hard/ (c) he failed/ (d) No error.
30. (a) Ashok/ (b) married with/ (c) Rekha last month./ (d) No error.
31. (a) The earth's atmosphere/ (b)comprises of/ (c) three layers/ (d) No error.
32. (a) The court held/ (b) the local MLA responsible/ (c) for the loss or damage to any public property./ (d) No error.

33. (a)He was debarred to attend/ (b) the monsoon session/ (c)of the Parliament./ (d) No error.
34. (a) We will have to await for/ (b) the result/ (c) as the managent is on strike./ (d) No error.
35. (a) He should refrain/ (b) to associate himself with any party/ (c) because people have faith in his integrity./ (d) No error.
36. (a) The songs of / (b) the old movies are/ (c) worthlistening to./ (d) No error.
37. (a) It should be obvious to you/ (b)that if you persist bothering him,/ (c) he will get angry with you/ (d) No error.
38. (a) I certainly/ (b) differ with you/ (c) in this matter (d) No error.
39. (a)He had a suspected fracture, / (b) so he was/ (c)admitted into the hospital/ (d) No error.
40. (a) If you put your / (b) heart to it,/ (c) you will be a winner/ (d) No error.
41. (a) He walked/ (b) ten miles/ (c) by foot/ (d) No error.
42. (a) He is good / (b) in mathematics/ (c)but his friend isn't./ (d) No error.
43. (a) Those who are in power/ (b) have to be sensitive of/ (c)the sufferings of the poor/ (d) No error.
44. (a) Which newspaper/ (b) do you/ (c) subscribe for?/ (d) No error.
45. (a) We thought that the train/ (b) would be late but/ (c) it arrived exactly in time./ (d)No error.
46. (a) Despite of repeated warnings, / (b) he touched a live electric wire,/ (c) and was electrocuted./ (d) No error.
47. (a)It is my pleasure / (b) to congratulate you for your success/ (c) in the Civil Services Examination/ (d) No error.
48. (a) I will avail/ (b) myself with/ (c) this golden opportunity/ (d) No error.
49. (a) It is half/ (b) past two/ (c) in my watch/ (d) No error.
50. (a) She can / (b) cope up with any difficult situation/ (c) as she is a braveheart./ (d) No error.
51. (a) Ravi/ (b) told to his friend/ (c) to buy a car./ (d) No error.
52. (a) He is/ (b) accused with/ (c) committing the murder./ (d) No error.
53. (a) The poet/ (b) described about/ (c) the spring season./ (d) No error.
54. (a) The atmosphere/ (b) comprises of/ (c) many inert gases also./ (d) No error.
55. (a)We disposed off / (b) our old furniture/ (c) before moving to Mumbai./ (d) No error.
56. (a)He was/ (b) bereft from / (c) all his possession./ (d) No error.
57. (a) He assented of/ (b) my proposal/ (c) as it was very attractive./ (d) No error.
58. (a) A large sign near/ (b) the entrance warns the visitors/ (c) to beware about bears./ (d) No error.
59. (a) The teacher was tense/ (b) when he entered/ (c) the class which comprised of/ (d) a hundred students.
60. (a) There is no rule/ (b) regarding the length of a precis/ (c) with relation to/ (d) that of the original passage.
61. (a) He/ (b) is suffering/ (c) with flu./ (d) No error.
62. (a) He wanted to go/ (b) to home/ (c) as he was sick./ (d) No error.

Answers with Explanation

1. (b); 'leave for four days' का प्रयोग करें।
2. (b); 'listen' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग करें।
3. (b);
4. (c); 'different के साथ 'from' का प्रयोग करें।
5. (a); 'responsible' के साथ 'for' का प्रयोग होगा।
6. (c); 'entered' के साथ 'into' का प्रयोग न करें।
7. (b); 'emphasised' के साथ 'on' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
8. (a); 'On' के स्थान पर 'at' का प्रयोग करें।
9. (c); 'attack' के साथ 'on' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
10. (a); 'decline' के साथ 'in' का प्रयोग होता है।
11. (c); 'entrusted' के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होगा।
12. (a); 'fell into' का प्रयोग करें।
13. (c); 'than' के स्थान पर 'to' का प्रयोग करें। 'Prefer' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग होता है।
14. (b); busy के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'in' का।
15. (c); 'run out' के स्थान पर 'run over' का प्रयोग करें। 'Run over' का अर्थ है 'कुचला जाना'।
16. (c); Land के पहले 'on' का प्रयोग करें।
17. (a); Fond के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'off' का।
18. (c); अगर 'Control' verb हो तो उसके साथ 'on' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
19. (c); 'Since' के स्थान पर 'for' का प्रयोग करें। 'two hours' अवधि है।
20. (b); 'affection' के साथ 'for' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'to' का।
21. (b); 'enmity' के साथ 'towards' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'for' का।
22. (b); 'threw' के साथ 'in' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'into' का।
23. (c); 'among' के स्थान पर 'between' का प्रयोग होगा।
24. (b); 'angry' के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होता है जब किसी व्यक्ति का उल्लेख हो।
    नोटः- angry with someone.
    angry at something.
25. (c); 'worthy' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'for' का।
26. (a); 'describe' के साथ किसी 'preposition' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
27. (c); अगर 'deal' का अर्थ है 'व्यापार करना' तो 'deal' के साथ 'in' का प्रयोग होगा।
28. (b); अगर 'deal' का अर्थ है 'fuiVuk' तो deal के साथ 'with' का प्रयोग होगा।
29. (a); 'Despite' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
30. (c); 'with' हटा दें।
31. (b); 'Active Voice' में 'Comprise' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
32. (c); 'Loss' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग करें।
33. (a); 'debarred from attending' का प्रयोग करें।
34. (a); 'await for' के स्थान पर 'wait for' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'to' का।
35. (b); 'Refrain' के बाद 'preposition' 'from' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'to' का।
36. (c); 'listen' के बाद 'to' का प्रयोग होता है 'worthlistening' के बाद नहीं।

37. (b); 'persist' के बाद 'in' का प्रयोग करें।
38. (b); 'differ' के साथ 'from' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'with' का।
39. (c); 'admitted to' का प्रयोग करें।
40. (b); 'put your heart into it' (मन लगाना) सही चीतेंम है।
'to' को 'into' में परिवर्तित करें।
41. (c); 'on foot' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ है पैदल।
42. (b); 'Good' के साथ 'at' का प्रयोग होता है।
43. (b); 'Sensitive' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग करें।
44. (c); 'subscribe' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग करें।
45. (c); 'On time' का अर्थ है ठीक समय पर और 'in time' का अर्थ है समय से। Exactly का प्रयोग 'On time' को ज्यादा उपयुक्त विकल्प बना रहा है।
46. (a); 'Despite' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग न करें।
47. (b); 'Congratulate' के साथ 'on' का प्रयोग करें।
48. (b); 'avail' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग होता है। 'Avail myself of this' का प्रयोग करें।
49. (c); 'in' के स्थान पर 'by' का प्रयोग करें।
50. (b); 'Cope with' (अर्थ- to handle) का प्रयोग करें।
51. (b); 'told' एवं 'tell' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।
52. (b); 'accused' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'with' का।
53. (b); 'described' के साथ 'about' का प्रयोग न करें।
54. (b); अगर वाक्य active voice में हो तो 'comprise' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग न करें ।
55. (a); 'disposed' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग होता है न कि 'off' का।
56. (b); 'bereft' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग होता है।
57. (a); 'assented' के साथ 'to' का प्रयोग करें न कि 'of' का ।
58. (c); 'beware' के साथ 'of' का प्रयोग करें न किया 'about' का।
59. (c); अगर वाक्य active voice में हो तो 'comprised' के बाद 'of' का प्रयोग न करें ।
60. (c); 'with relation to' को 'in relation to' में परिवर्तित करें।
61. (c); 'with' को 'from' में परिवर्तित करें। 'suffer' के साथ 'from' का प्रयोग होता है।
62. (b); 'to' हटा दे। 'Get, arrive, reach, go, come' के साथ अगर 'home' का प्रयोग होता है तो बीच में कोई 'preposition' नहीं आता है।

FILL IN THE BLANKS WITH APPROPRIATE PREPOSITION

1. He drove from Maharashtra _____ Karnataka without stopping to rest.
(a) is (b) to (c) into (d) towards.
2. Bill's fight _____ hunting put 26 professional shikar companies out of jobs.
(a) towards (b) for (c) over (d) against
3. The court has absolved him _____ all the charges leveled against him.
(a) off (b) with (c) in (d)of

4. you are welcome to partake _____ their light refreshment.
(a) in (b) for (c) at (d) of
5. We met a lot of people _____ our holidays.
(a) on (b) in (c) during (d) at
6. The firm has been dealing _____ luxury goods for more than two decades.
(a) in (b) with (c) out (d) on
7. Today students should be reconciled _____ the way things are changing.
(a) with (b) to (c) for (d) at
8. That week the dollar dropped _____ its lowest levels.
(a) to (b) at (c) into (d) by
9. He went _____ sea alone.
(a) in (b) to (c) into (d) on
10. Everyone in this world is accountable to God _____ his actions.
(a) actions (b) for (c) to (d) over
11. Speed is ____ essence in a project of this type.
(a) in (b) for (c) about (d) of
12. A wise man profits _____ the mistakes of others.
(a) through (b) from (c) with (d) by
13. Ram agreed _____ my proposal .
(a) with (b) for (c) on (d) to
14. He is addicted _____ smoking.
(a) to (b) with (c) on (d) for
15. He sat ____ the shade of a tree.
(a) under (b) into (c) in (d) on
16. There is something wonderful _____ him
(a) of (b) about (c) for (d) in side
17. When will you hand _____ your assignment?
(a) in (b) back (c) down (d) into
18. A new minister has taken _____ after the election.
(a) to (b) over (c) off (d) down
19. There is a bridge _____ the river.
(a) over (b) on (c) down (d) across
20. Please make yourself ____ home.
(a) with (b) at (c) in (d) on
21. The brave youth immediately jumped _____ the river to save the drowning child.
(a) in (b) into (c) inside (d) to
22. We can make no progress if we continue working _____ these conditions.
(a) into (b) with (c) under (d) for

23. Keep your dog ____ the flower beds. It may damage the flowers.
(a) out (b) from (c) beside (d) off
24. _____ a moment she felt disappointed for no stockings hung from the fire place.
(a) just (b) for (c) at (d) since
25. We were completely taken ____ by the estate agent who turned out to be a crook.
(a) for (b) on (c) off (d) in
26. Dr. Sharma concluded his speech _____ explaining the importance of charity.
(a) by (b) with (c) at (d) in
27. Shivaji Maharaj fought _____ every kind of aggression.
(a) against (b) to (c) with (d) at
28. Don't depend _____ others; you must stand on your own feet.
(a) at (b) on (c) to (d) for
29. Our life promises a lot _____ pleasure and we must learn to enjoy it.
(a) with (b) for (c) of (d) at
30. He travelled all _____ the world when he was eighty years old.
(a) in (b) over (c) with (d) of
31. My father lives _____ Delhi
(a) in (b) at (c) inside (d) on
32. Madhav is good _____ English.
(a) in (b) at (c) on (d) with
33. Naina did not disclose the fact _____ her husband.
(a) to (b) before (c) from (d) on
34. The child did not approve _____ the father's plan.
(a) to (b) by (c) of (d) with
35. The tribes lived _____customs different from the English had ever seen.
(a) on (b) by (c) off (d) with
36. The strike has been called _____ .
(a) of (b) at (c) off (d) by
37. We warned her _____the danger
(a) from (b)about (c) against (d) of
38. We laughed _____ the affair.
(a) over (b) about (c) for (d) on
39. Put a blanket _____ the baby.
(a) over (b) about (c) at (d) on
40. Stay_____ your limits.
(a) within (b) in (c) at (d) on
41. She was happy to partake_____ the festivities.
(a) in (b) of (c) at (d) for

42. I can cope _____ any problem.
(a) up with (b) with (c) up (d) from
43. His manners _____ him.
(a) speak of (b) speak out (c) speak up (d) speak for
44. A thorough search of the aircraft was carried _____ in the airport.
(a) out (b) off (c) on (d) along
45. Discrimination _____ any form should be avoided.
(a) of (b) by (c) from (d) in
46. A large number of people have fallen victim _____ dengue fever.
(a) to (b) of (c) from (d) with
47. She scoffed _____ the idea of revolution.
(a) for (b) at (c) about (d) on
48. This work of art is worthy _____ praise.
(a) of (b) for (c) for (d) to
49. It is our duty to get _____ the truth.
(a) to (b) over (c) into (d) at
50. For a child, a blow _____ self-esteem is a terrible thing.
(a) of (b) with (c) to (d) on
51. He is a descendent _____ the Mughal royalty.
(a) of (b) from (c) in (d) for
52. Fate smiled _____ him in all his ventures.
(a) above (b) below (c) on (d) at
53. Don't put _____ until tomorrow what you can do today.
(a) up (b) of (c) on (d) off
54. The train is arriving _____ platform number 4.
(a) at (b) on (c) before (d) upon
55. The criminal was totally taken _____ when the police recognized him.
(a) aback (b) up (c) for (d) away
56. The examination will begin _____ Monday.
(a) from (b) in (c) at (d) on
57. You must apologise _____ him for this.
(a) with (b) to (c) of (d) for
58. She seems cursed _____ bad luck.
(a) by (b) with (c) for (d) on
59. He was brought _____ by his aunt as his mother had died when he was just a lad.
(a) up (b) put (c) off (d) with
60. As she became tired, errors began to creep _____ her work.
(a) with (b) into (c) off (d) up.

61. Small pox has been eradicated _____ India.
    (a) in (b) from (c) within (d) out of

62. I complimented him _____ his success.
    (a) about (b) for (c) on (d) at

Answer Key

1.	(b)	2.	(d)	3.	(d)	4.	(d)	5.	(c)	6.	(a)	7.	(a)	8.	(a)	9.	(b)	10.	(b)
11.	(d)	12.	(b)	13.	(d)	14.	(a)	15.	(c)	16.	(b)	17.	(a)	18.	(b)	19.	(a)	20.	(b)
21.	(b)	22.	(c)	23.	(d)	24.	(b)	25.	(d)	26.	(a)	27.	(a)	28.	(b)	29.	(c)	30.	(b)
31.	(a)	32.	(b)	33.	(a)	34.	(c)	35.	(b)	36.	(c)	37.	(d)	38.	(a)	39.	(a)	40.	(a)
41.	(a)	42.	(b)	43.	(d)	44.	(a)	45.	(d)	46.	(a)	47.	(b)	48.	(a)	49.	(d)	50.	(c)
51.	(a)	52.	(c)	53.	(d)	54.	(a)	55.	(a)	56.	(d)	57.	(b)	58.	(b)	59.	(a)	60.	(b)
61.	(b)	62.	(c)																

15 ADVERB

CHAPTER

ADVERB og 'kCn gS tks&

(i) किसी **क्रिया (Verb)** की विशेषता बताता है।

जैसे: He $\underbrace{\text{works}}_{\text{verb}}$ $\underbrace{\textbf{hard}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$

(ii) किसी **विशेषण (Adjective)** की विशेषता बताता है।

जैसे: He is $\underbrace{\textbf{very}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{good}}_{\text{Adj.}}$.

(iii) किसी **क्रिया-विशेषण (Adverb)** की विशेषता बताता है।

जैसे: She works $\underbrace{\textbf{very}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{hard}}_{\text{Adv.}}$.

(iv) किसी **Preposition** की विशेषता बताता है।

जैसे: The helicopter hovered $\underbrace{\textbf{exactly}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{over}}_{\text{Prep.}}$ his house.

(v) किसी **Conjunction** की विशेषता बताता है

जैसे: He likes her $\underbrace{\textbf{simply}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{because}}_{\text{Conj.}}$ she has a clear conscience.

(vi) किसी **वाक्य (Sentence)** की विशेषता बताता है।

जैसे: $\underbrace{\textbf{Fortunately,}}_{\textbf{Adv.}}$ $\underbrace{\text{no one was hurt}}_{\text{Sentence}}$.

(vii) सामान्यत: **Noun या Pronoun की विशेषता बताने का काम Adjectives करते हैं**, किन्तु **कुछ ऐसे Adverbs हैं जो किसी Noun या Pronoun की विशेषता भी बताते है**। ये adverbs हैं- **Only, even, at last, almost;**

जैसे: 1. **Only** (Adv.) I (Pronoun) know the truth.

2. **Only** (Adv.) Rohit (Noun) can help you.

ADVERB rhu izdkj ds gksrs gSa%&

1. **Simple Adverb**
2. **Relative Adverb**
3. **Interrogative Adverb**

1. SIMPLE ADVERB

➢ Simple Adverb के द्वारा **समय (time), स्थान (place), संख्या (number or frequency), ढंग (manner), कारण (reason), परिमाण (degree), स्वीकृति अथवा निषेध (affirmation or negation)** का बोध होता है।

ये सात प्रकार के हैं:-

(a) Adverb of Manner

➢ Adverb of manner shows **how (ढंग)**- ये कार्य होने का **तरीका** बताता है।

जैसे: He works **honestly**.
He walks **slowly**.

Remember: Adjectives से बनने वाले Adverbs जिनके अंत में **-ly** होता है, प्राय: **Adverbs of Manner** कहलाते हैं।

Adjective	***Adverb***
Slow	Slowly
glad	gladly
Honest	Honestly.

नोट: **Miser, Niggard एवं Coward** ऐसे **nouns** है जिनके **adjective forms** को हम **adverb forms** मानने की गलती कर बैठते है। इन nouns के adjective एवं adverb forms इस प्रकार है।

Noun	**Adjective Form**	**Adverb Form**
Coward	Cowardly	In a cowardly manner
Niggard	Niggardly	In a niggardly manner
Miser	Miserly	In a miserly manner
Scholar	Scholarly	In a scholarly manner

नीचे दिए गये उदाहरण देखें:-

(1) He is miser. (×) (miser noun है। अत: miser के पहले 'a' का प्रयोग करें।)

He is a miser. (✓)

(2) He is a miser man. (×) (man की विशेषता बताने के लिए adjective 'miserly' का प्रयोग करें।)

He is a miserly man.(✓)

(3) He behaved miserly. (×)('behaved' verb है। क्रिया की विशेषता बताने के लिए adjective 'miserly' नहीं बल्कि adverb 'in a miserly manner' का प्रयोग करें।)

He behaved in a miserly manner. (✓)

Remember:

1. कुछ शब्द एक ही रूप **(Form)** में **Adverb** और **Adjective** की तरह प्रयोग हो जाते हैं; **'Fast, straight, outright, direct, hard, late', 'high', 'safe', quiet** इत्यादि **adjective एवं adverb दोनों है।**

जैसे:

Adverb	***Adjective***
He works **hard.**	This is a **hard** task.
He wakes up **early.**	He came by an **early** flight.
Do not talk **loud.**	We should not speak in a **loud** tone.
Run **fast.**	He is a **fast** runner.
He waited **long** for me.	He went on a **long** journey.
Come **near.**	He is of my **near** relation.

2. किन्तु कुछ **Adverbs** के **दो रूपों** का **अर्थ भिन्न** होता है;

(a) Late Lately
देर से हाल-फिलहाल

जैसे: 1. I haven't seen Akila **lately**.

2. He came **late** for the meeting.

(b) Hard Hardly
मेहनत से मुश्किल से

जैसे: 1. She works hardly to make both ends meet. (×)

She works **hard** to make both ends meet. (✓)

2. He **hardly** does any work. (✓)

(c) Free Freely
मुफ्त में स्वतंत्रता से

जैसे: 1. We can move about **freely** in India.

2. Rides are provided **free** in this water park.

➢ **'Loudly'** and **'Aloud'** adverbs है लेकिन अर्थ में भिन्न । **Aloud** का अर्थ है **इतनी तेज आवाज ताकि वक्ता audible** हो परन्तु **Loudly** का अर्थ है **'with a lot of noise'.**

(b) <u>Adverb of Time</u>

➢ Adverb of Time shows **when (समय)**- ये कार्य होने का **समय** बताता है।

जैसे: I came **late**.

➢ **समय** दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:

after, ago, early, late, now, then, soon, today, tomorrow आदि।

(c) <u>Adverb of Place</u>

➢ Adverb of place shows **where (स्थान)**- ये कार्य होने का **स्थान** बताता है।

जैसे: I could not find him **anywhere**.

➢ **स्थान** दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverb निम्नलिखित हैं:

here, there, in, out, up, down, within above, below आदि।

(d) <u>Adverbs of Frequency or Number</u>

➢ Adverb of Frequency or Number shows **how often (कितनी बार)**- ये कार्य होने की **frequency (आवृति)** बताता है।

जैसे: I can **never** do so.
She **seldom** goes there.
She **often** comes to meet me.

➢ **'Frequency'** को दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:

once, twice, thrice, always, never, seldom, often, frequently आदि।

(e) <u>Advers of Degree</u>

➢ Adverb of degree shows **how much (परिमाण)**- ये बताता है कार्य **कितना अधिक हुआ या कितना कम** हुआ।

जैसे: The work is **almost** complete.
I am **quite** well.

➢ **'Degree'** को दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:

very, much, more, too, quite, little, almost आदि।

(f) <u>Adverb of Reason</u>

➢ Adverb of Reason shows **why (कारण)**- ये **कारण** बताता है।

जैसे: I could not come **because** I was not well.
I don't like him **since** he has cheated many people.

➢ **'Reason'** को दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:

So, hence, therefore, on account of, consequently आदि।

(g) 1. <u>Adverbs of Affirmative</u> (स्वीकारात्मक)

जैसे: She will **truly** help you.
I will **surely** repay the loan.

➢ **'Affirmation'** को दर्शाने वाले Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:

surely, certainly, truly आदि।

2. <u>Adverbs of Negation</u> (निषेधात्मक)

जैसे: She did **not** reply to my letter.
I have **never** cheated anybody.

➢ **'Negation'** को दर्शाने वाले मुख्य Adverbs निम्नलिखित हैं:
No, not, never आदि।

2. RELATIVE ADVERBS

➢ **Relative Adverb** वाक्यों को जोड़ता है। अपने **antecedent** (पूर्व प्रयुक्त Noun या Pronoun) की ओर संकेत करते हुए **time, place, reason** और **manner** बताता है। Relative Adverbs हैं- **When, Where, Why और How.**

जैसे: I don't know **where** he has gone.
He will come **when** I call him.

3. INTERROGATIVE ADVERBS

➢ Interrogative Adverbs हैं- **Why, when, where, how.**

जैसे: **Why** are you surprised?
Where has she seen me?

Adverb: Comparison

➢ Adjectives की भांति कुछ Adverbs की भी **Degree of Comparison** होती हैं।

जैसे:

	Positive	**Comparative**	**Superlative**
(a)	Hard	harder	hardest
	Fast	faster	fastest
	Soon	sooner	soonest
	near	nearer	nearest
	early	earlier	earliest
(b)	Beautifully	more Beautifully	most beautifully
	Carefully	more carefully	most carefully
	Swiftly	more swiftly	most swiftly
	Slowly	more slowly	most slowly
	Wisely	more wisely	most wisely
(c)	Ill, Badly	worse	worst
	Forth	further	furthest
	Far	farther	farthest
	Late	later	latest, last
	Little	less	least
	Much	more	most
	Well	better	best

POSITION OF ADVERBS

➢ Adverb सदैव **उस शब्द के निकट रखा** जाता है, जिसको यह **modify** करता है। यदि Adverb के Position को बदल दिया जाए तो वाक्य का अर्थ ही बदल जाता है।

जैसे: **Only** she saw my dress. **केवल उसने** किसी और ने नहीं।
She **only** saw my dress. **केवल देखा,** और कुछ नहीं किया।
She saw **only** my dress. **केवल मेरी** dress, किसी और की नहीं।
She saw my **only** dress. **एकमात्र** dress जो मेरे पास थी।
She saw my dress **only**. **केवल** dress, पुस्तक या कुछ और नहीं।

1. वाक्य के आरंभ में (At the beginning)

(i) **Interrogative Adverb** का प्रयोग सदैव **sentences के आरंभ** में होता है।

जैसे: **When** are you returning home?

(ii) **सारे वाक्य को modify** करने के लिए Adverb **आरंभ में** प्रयुक्त होता है।

जैसे: **Surely,** I will take care of you.

(iii) **Emphasis** के लिए भी **Adverb आरंभ** में प्रयुक्त होता है।

जैसे: **Off** she goes.
Here comes the prince.

2. दो वाक्यों के मध्य में (In the Middle)

(i) कुछ **Adverbs of Time (always, never, ever, often, seldom, sometimes** आदि) उन **Verbs से पहले** प्रयुक्त होते हैं, **जिनको ये modify** करते हैं।

जैसे: She **never** comes here.
I **seldom** go there.

(ii) जब sentences में Auxiliary Verb दे रखा हो, तो **Adverb** का प्रयोग **Auxiliary Verb** और **Main Verb** के बीच में होता है।

जैसे: He $\underbrace{\text{will}}_{\text{H.V.}}$ **never** $\underbrace{\text{come}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ here.

I $\underbrace{\text{have}}_{\text{H.V.}}$ **seldom** $\underbrace{\text{gone}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ there.

(iii) Verb **'to be'** का प्रयोग **Main Verb** की तरह हो **या Helping Verb** की तरह, Adverb का प्रयोग **Verb के बाद** ही किया जाता है।

जैसे: She $\underbrace{\text{is}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ **always** happy.

I $\underbrace{\text{am}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ **never** sad.

He $\underbrace{\text{is}}_{\text{H.V.}}$ always $\underbrace{\text{praised}}_{\text{M.V.}}$ for his sweet voice.

SEE THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES

I. He comes often every Sunday. (Place 'often' before 'comes')

II. He goes usually to shop every Sunday. (Place 'usually' before 'goes')

III. He is always happy. (✓)

USE OF SOME ADVERBS

1. Very तथा Much के प्रयोग में अन्तर एवं समानता:-

(A) **Very** का प्रयोग **Positive degree** के साथ होता है; जैसे - very good, very wise, very lucky, very honest लेकिन **much** का **Comparative Degree** के साथ; जैसे: much better, much wiser, much luckier, much more honest etc.

नोट: **very much** + **comparative degree** का प्रयोग होता है; जैसे - Very much better, very much wiser, very much luckier etc.

(B) **Very** या **much** का प्रयोग **Superlative Degree** के साथ भी होता है।

(a) $\underbrace{\text{The}}_{\text{The+}}$ $\underbrace{\text{very}}_{\text{very+}}$ $\underbrace{\text{best}}_{\text{Sup.}}$ boy.

(C) **Very** का प्रयोग **Present Participle** के पहले होता है; जैसे: very interesting, very daring, very confusing, very boring, very entertaining. किन्तु **much** का **Past Participle** के साथ; जैसे: much surprised, much grieved, much admired etc.

नोट: Very का प्रयोग Past Participle के पहले नहीं होता है किन्तु **निम्नलिखित Past Participles के पहले Very** का प्रयोग होता है

very tired, very dejected, very contented, very discontented, very pleased, very drunk, very limited, very delighted.

2. Quite का अर्थ है **'perfectly या completely' (पूर्णतया, पूर्णरूपेण)** और इसका प्रयोग **'very' की जगह नहीं** होता है। अत:

(i) She is quite lovely. (×)

(ii) You are quite handsome. (×)

इन वाक्यों का शुद्ध रूप है-

(i) She is **very lovely.**

(ii) You are **very handsome.**

3. Fairly तथा Rather

(A) **Fairly** का प्रयोग **Positive Degree** के साथ होता है। जैसे: fairly wise, fairly good, etc.

➢ किन्तु, **Rather** का प्रयोग **Positive** तथा **Comparative Degree** के साथ होता है; जैसे: rather bad, rather difficult, rather worse, rather hotter, etc.

(B) **Fairly** के बाद **too** का प्रयोग **नहीं** होता है जबकि **Rather** के बाद **too** का प्रयोग भी **होता है;** जैसे:

(i) fairly too good कहना गलत है। लेकिन, rather too good कहना बिल्कुल सही है।

(C) **Fairly** के बाद **Pleasant Adjectives** का प्रयोग होता है; जैसे:

fairly wise, fairly beautiful, etc.

- **Rather** के बाद **unpleasant adjectives** का; जैसे:rather wicked, rather difficult, rather troublesome, rather dull etc. किन्तु, rather amusing, rather good, rather clever, rather pretty, rather beautiful का प्रयोग किया जा सकता है।

4. Too

(a) Too = का अर्थ है **also**

जैसे: I **too** was invited to tea.

(b) Too – का अर्थ है **more than required (आवश्यकता से अधिक)**

- इसका प्रयोग **Unpleasant Adjectives** के साथ होता है। जैसे: **too bad, too naughty, too wicked, too fat, too dull, etc.**

  अत: too glad, to happy, to pleased, too healthy आदि कहना गलत है।

- I am too glad to meet you का अर्थ है 'मैं आपसे मिलकर इतना खुश हूँ जितना नहीं होना चाहिए'। इस वाक्य का शुद्ध रूप होगा।

जैसे: I am **very glad** to meet you.

(c) **Too .... to** पर आधारित वाक्यों में too के बाद अर्थ के अनुसार **Pleasant Adjective** का प्रयोग भी हो सकता है।

जैसे: (i) He is **too** intelligent **to** be cheated. (=He is so intelligent that he cannot be cheated.)

Too + Adjective

1. He is **too** tall. (वह इतना ज्यादा लंबा है जितना नहीं होना चाहिए।)
2. She is **too** slim. (वह इतनी ज्यादा दुबली-पतली है जितना नहीं होना चाहिए।)
3. It is **too** cold. (इतनी अधिक ठंड है जितना नहीं होना चाहिए।)

Verb + Adjective

1. He is **very** tall. (वह बहुत लंबा है।)
2. She is **very** slim. (वह बहुत दुबली-पतली है।)
3. It is **very** cold. (बहुत ठंड है।)

5. So

- **'So'** का प्रयोग **'very'** के स्थान पर नहीं हो सकता। **'So'** के बाद **'that'** का एवं **'Too'** के बाद **'to'** का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

जैसे:
1. I am **so** happy (Incorrect)
2. I am **very** happy (Correct)
3. I am **so** happy **that** I am unable to control my feelings (Correct)

6. Enough

(A) **'Enough' adjective** एवं **adverb** दोनों ही रूप में कार्य कर सकता है। जब **'enough'** adverb का कार्य करता है तो इसका प्रयोग उस **adjective** के बाद होता है जिसके लिए ये प्रयुक्त हुआ हो। **Adjective** के रूप में इसका प्रयोग उस **Noun** के पहले होता है जिसके लिये ये प्रयुक्त हुआ है।

- इसका प्रयोग **Noun** से पहले परंतु **Adjective** या **Adverb** के तुरंत बाद लगाया जाता है।

जैसे:
1. She is wise **enough** to understand your intention.
2. He has enough **money** to buy this car. (Correct)

➢ **Enough** के पहले हमेशा **Adjective** या **Adverb** के **Positive Degree** का प्रयोग होता है।

जैसे: 1. (A) He is / (B) faster enough / (C) to defeat / (D) you. / (E) No Error.

2. (A) He is bravest / (B) enough to be / (C) selected for / (D) the post of soldier. / (E) No Error.

➢ वाक्य (i) के Part (B) में faster के बदले fast तथा वाक्य (ii) के Part (A) में bravest के बदले brave का प्रयोग होगा क्योंकि **Positive Degree + enough** का प्रयोग होता है।

7. Yet

➢ **Yet** का प्रयोग **'अब तक'** अर्थात् **'बोलने के समय तक' (up to the moment/time of speaking)** के अर्थ में **Interrogative** तथा **Negative Sentence** में verb के बाद या verb + object के बाद होता है।

नोट: Yet का प्रयोग present perfect के -ve वाक्य में होता है न कि Past Tense में।

जैसे: 1. The postman did not come yet. (×)
2. The postman has not come yet. (✓)
3. Didn't the postman come yet? (×)
4. Hasn't the postman come yet? (✓)

SOME RULES

RULE 1

'Else' के बाद 'but' का प्रयोग करें

➢ **'Rather', 'Other'** एवं **'otherwise'** के बाद **'than'** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: 1. I would rather die than beg.
2. It is nothing else than sheer foolishness. (Use 'but' in place of 'than')
3. Rahul had no other alternative but to work hard. (Use 'than' in place of 'but')
4. Rohit has no one else to talk to except his wife. (Use 'but' in place of 'except')

RULE 2

➢ Adverbs **'Seldom, nowhere, never, nothing,hardly, scarcely, neither, barely, rarely'** के **अर्थ नकारात्मक** होते है। अत: इनका **प्रयोग किसी दूसरे नकारात्मक शब्द के साथ न** करें।

जैसे: 1. I **rarely** went to meet nobody. (Use **'anybody'** in place of 'nobody')
2. She **hardly** knows nothing about me. (Use **'anything'** in place of 'nothing')
3. I **hardly** know somebody in the city. (Say **'anybody'** in place of 'somebody')

RULE 3

➢ Negative, शब्द जैसे **'not'** व **'never'** का प्रयोग **'deny, forbid, Unless, Until, lest,too .... to** और **'both'** के साथ न करें।

1. She denied that she had not done anything wrong. (Delete 'not')
2. Both of us are not going there. (×)
   Neither of us is going there. (✓)
3. Unless he will not come, I will not go. (×)
   Unless he comes, I will not go. (✓)

RULE 4

(A) Adverb **'as'** का प्रयोग नीचे दिए गये verbs के साथ किया जा सकता है।
'regard, describe, define, treat, view, know'.

(B) Adverb **'as'** का प्रयोग नीचे दिए गये verbs के साथ **न** करें।
'name, elect, think, consider, call, appoint, make, choose.' e.g.,

1. I **regard** him my brother. (Add 'as' after 'him')
2. Biology has been **defined** the study of organism. (Add 'as' after 'defined')
3. She is **considered** as the best student of my class. (Drop 'as' after 'considered')
4. The teacher **called** him as stupid. (Drop 'as')
5. The principal **appointed** him as lecturer. (Remove 'as')
6. He **thinks** her as a fool. (Remove 'as')

RULE 5

➢ **वाक्य में 'adverb' के बाद 'Helping verb' का प्रयोग करें और फिर 'subject' का।**

1. Seldom he comes to Delhi. (×)
   Seldom does he come to Delhi. (✓)
2. Never I'll go there. (×)
   Never shall I go there. (✓)
3. No sooner she reached the station than the train left. (×)
   No sooner did she reach the station than the train left. (✓)
4. Hardly she had reached the station when the train arrived. (×)
   Hardly had she reached the station when the train arrived. (✓)
5. So quickly she ran that she overtook her friends. (×)
   So quickly did she run that she overtook her friends. (✓)
6. His wife comes here and **so** does he.
7. He doesn't know any one here and **neither** do I.

RULE 6

(A) **'Too'** and **'as well'** का प्रयोग **'Besides', in 'addition to', 'also'** के रूप में **affirmative sentences** में किया जाता है। **'Also' का प्रयोग वाक्य के अंत में नहीं** करना चाहिए।

जैसे: She found her bag and money **too/as well.**

RULE 7

➢ **'Seldom or never', 'seldom, if ever', 'little or nothing', 'little, if anything'** का प्रयोग वाक्य में किया जाता है परन्तु **'seldom or ever'** या **'little or anything'** कहना गलत होगा।

जैसे: He **seldom or never** goes to see movies.

RULE 8

➢ **Verbs of sensation (Taste, Smell, Feel, Appear, Seem, Sound, एवं Look)** हमारे पाँचों इंद्रियों से संबंधित होते है। इनके बाद **adverb** नहीं **adjective** का प्रयोग करें।

जैसे: I $\underbrace{\text{look}}_{\text{Verb of sensation}}$ $\underbrace{\text{honest.}}_{\text{Adjective}}$

I $\underbrace{\text{work}}_{\text{ordinary verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{honestly.}}_{\text{adverb}}$

I $\underbrace{\text{felt}}_{\text{verb of sensation}}$ $\underbrace{\text{bad.}}_{\text{adj}}$

I $\underbrace{\text{sing}}_{\text{Ordinary verb}}$ $\underbrace{\text{badly.}}_{\text{Adv}}$

➢ कुछ **अन्य Verbs जिनके साथ adverb नहीं adjective का प्रयोग** होता है वे हैं- **be, become, turn, get, grow, keep, make** और **prove.**

जैसे: He got $\underbrace{\text{angry}}_{\text{adj}}$.

RULE 9

➢ **Manly, masterly, slovenly, friendly, orderly, gentlemanly, sickly, weekly, monthly** Adjectives हैं। **'ly'** में अंत होने के वजह से हम इन्हें adverb मानने की भूल कर बैठते हैं।

जैसे: He behaved friendly. (×)
He behaved in a friendly manner. (✓)

SPOTTING THE ERROR

1. (a) A soldier is/ (b) taught never to/(c) fight cowardly/(d) No error.
2. (a) A man of fifty/ (b) cannot be called/ (c) as young./ (d) No error.
3. (a) He is being/(b) very politely/ (c) for the reason best known to him. /(d) No error.
4. (a) He is enough tall/(b) to be selected as Sub Inspector/ (c) in Delhi Police/(d) No error.
5. (a) He is niggard/ (b) and saves each/(c) and every paise/(d) No error.
6. (a) I am full of energy/(b) today because I /(c) soundly slept last night/(d) No error.
7. (a) I did not know hardly/(b) anyone in the college/ (c) and so I felt lonely all the time/(d) No error.
8. (a) I have never seen/ (b) a coward man /(c) like Sohan/(d) No error.
9. (a) I never remember/(b) to have met a more intelligent/(c) man in my life/(d) No error.
10. (a) I refused to accompany him/(b) because he was/(c) so boring/(d) No error.
11. (a) I refused to consider/(b) him as an honest boy /(c) as he had cheated many

people/(d) No error.

12. (a) I see him often/(b) at the/(c) bus terminal/(d) No error.
13. (a) Mangoes taste /(b) more sweetly than /(c) any other fruit of this world/(d) No error.
14. (a) My father /(b) is very quicker than/(c) I at Chess/(d) No error.
15. (a) Never in the history/(b) there has been/ (c) as shrewd a mentor as Chanakya/ (d) No error.
16. (a) Outright rejection/(b) of my plea /(c) disappointed me/(d) No error.
17. (a) She did her job/ (b) as better as she/(c) could do/(d) No error.
18. (a) She does her/(b) work good as she/(c) is a trained nurse/(d) No error.
19. (a) She had barely/(b) nothing to wear/(c) when she came to me for help/(d) No error.
20. (a) She is either/(b) dumb or deaf,/ (c) if not both/(d) No error.
21. (a) She knows/(b) riding/ (c) a horse/(d) No error.
22. (a) Great leaders tried / (b) to eradicate social evil practices/(c) with tooth and nail/ (d) No error.
23. (a) It rained/ (b)like cats and dogs/ (c)throughout the night./(d) No error
24. (a) The State Government/(b) appointed him as /(c) officer-in-charge/(d) No error.
25. (a) The teacher asked/ (b) the students to/(c) talk loudly/(d) No error.
26. (a) Though he was brave,/ (b) he could not face the ups and downs/(c) of life manly/ (d) No error.
27. (a) We must try /(b) to save our hardly /(c) earned money/(d) No error.
28. (a) We seldom or ever/(b) go out these days /(c) because it is too hot now-a-days/ (d) No error.
29. (a) We should /(b) keep our belongings/(c) orderly/(d) No error.
30. (a) Vijay could not scarcely conceal/ (b) his happiness /(c) at my resignation./ (d) No error.
31. (a) When I read his biography,/(b) I hardly found something/(c)in his character that I could admire/(d) No error.
32. (a) When she received the good news,/ (b) she ran straightly /(c) to call up her parents/ (d) No error.
33. (a) You always /(b) come lately/ (c) to class/(d) No error.
34. (a) You have /(b) acted nobler than/(c) all of us/(d) No error.
35. (a) You should have/(b) sufficiently collateral/(c) to pay back the loan d) No error.
36. (a) Veena worked /(b)very hardly /(c)as she wanted to be a surgeon/(d) No error.
37. (a) She sounded /(b)very sadly after /(c)the death of her pet/(d) No error.
38. (a) Her speech was not clearly /(b)but we understood /(c)the underlying meaning/ (d) No error

39. (a) All the pupils/ (b) stood up respectively/ (c) as the Guru entered the room./ (d) No error.

Answers with Explanation

1. (c); fight क्रिया है जिसकी विशेषता adverb बताता है। 'Cowardly' adjective है। अत: adverb form 'in a cowardly manner' का प्रयोग करें।
2. (c); 'as' हटा दें। 'call' के साथ 'as' का प्रयोग गलत है।
3. (c); 'politely' के स्थान पर 'polite' का प्रयोग करें।
4. (a); enough का प्रयोग 'adjective' के बाद होता है। अत: tall के बाद 'enough' का प्रयोग करें।
5. (a); 'Niggard' noun है। अत: niggard के पहले article 'a' का प्रयोग करें।
6. (c); Slept (verb) के बाद soundly (adverb) का प्रयोग करें।
7. (a); Hardly एवं not का प्रयोग एक साथ न करें क्योंकि दोनों ही अर्थ में नकारात्मक हैं। 'I hardly knew anyone' का प्रयोग करना सही होगा।
8. (b); 'Man' noun है जिसकी विशेषता adjective बताता है। 'Cowardly' का प्रयोग सही होगा।
9. (a); Never का प्रयोग 'remember' के बाद होगा।
10. (c); 'So' के प्रयोग के बाद 'that' का प्रयोग होना जरूरी होता है। अत: 'So' के स्थान पर 'very' का प्रयोग करें।
11. (b); Consider के साथ 'as' का प्रयोग गलत है।
12. (a); Often the प्रयोग main verb 'see' के पहले होगा।
13. (b); 'taste' verb of sensation है। इसके बाद 'adverb' नहीं 'adjective' का प्रयोग करें। Sweetly को 'Sweet' में परिवर्तित करें।
14. (b); Comparative degree (quicker) के साथ 'very' नहीं 'much' का प्रयोग होगा।
15. (b); Never (adv) से शुरू होने वाले वाक्य के बाद पहले helping verb (यहाँ-has) का प्रयोग करें फिर Sub (यहाँ-there)का।
16. (d);
17. (b); As.....as के बीच हमेशा adjective/adverb का positive degree का प्रयोग करें। 'as well as' सही प्रयोग है।
18. (b); 'Good' adjective है। यहाँ adverb 'well' का प्रयोग करें।
19. (b); 'Barely' negative शब्द है। इसके साथ दूसरा negative शब्द 'nothing' का प्रयोग न करें।
20. (c); If not both के जगह पर 'if neither'.
21. (b); Know एवं wonder दो ऐसे verbs है जिनके बाद 'wh' family का प्रयोग होना जरूरी है। 'knows how to ride' का प्रयोग सही होगा।
22. (c); 'with' हटा दे।
23. (b); 'like' हटा दे।
24. (b); appoint के साथ 'as' का प्रयोग नहीं होता।
25. (c); loudly के स्थान पर aloud शब्द का प्रयोग करें। 'Aloud' शब्द उपयुक्त है क्योंकि इसका अर्थ है- audible voice में (सुनने लायक आवाज में) जबकि loudly का अर्थ है शोर से भरा हुआ। (with a lot of noise)
26. (c); Manly के स्थान manfully शब्द का प्रयोग करें। Manly adjective है जिसका अर्थ है brave/strong.

27. (b); Hardly के स्थान पर hard earned money का प्रयोग करें। Hardly का अर्थ है मुश्किल से। Hard का अर्थ है मेहनत से।
28. (a); Seldom के साथ never का प्रयोग करें।
29. (c); Orderly adjective है। 'In an orderly manner' का प्रयोग करें।
30. (a); 'Scarcely' negative शब्द है। इसके साथ दूसरा negative शब्द 'not' का प्रयोग न करें।
31. (b); 'hardly' के साथ 'anything' का प्रयोग करें।
32. (b); 'Straight' adjective एवं adverb दोनों है। 'Straightly' कोई शब्द नहीं है।
33. (b); 'Lately' का अर्थ है हाल-फिलहाल। 'late' का प्रयोग करें जिसका अर्थ है देर से।
34. (b); 'more nobly' का प्रयोग होगा न कि 'nobler' का।
35. (b); 'Collateral' noun है। इसकी विशेषता 'sufficient' (adj) बताता है न कि 'sufficiently' (adv).
36. (b); 'Hard' का प्रयोग करें।
37. (b); Sound (verb of sensation) के साथ 'sad' (adj) का प्रयोग होगा।
38. (a); 'Clearly' के स्थान पर 'clear' का प्रयोग करें। 'Speech' noun है। इसकी विशेषता 'clear' (adj) बताता है न कि 'clearly' (adv).
39. (b); 'respectively' को 'respectfully' में परिवर्तित करें।

16 WORD OFTEN CONFUSED & MISUSED

CHAPTER

S.N.	WORD	हिन्दी में अर्थ	Meaning in English
1.	**Accept**	स्वीकार करना	To receive a thing.
	Except	के अलावा	Leaving apart or excluding.
2.	**Expect**	उम्मीद करना	To hope
	Suspect	आशंका करना	To apprehend
3.	**Adopt**	अपनाना/गोद लेना	To accept/to take another person's child legally.
	Adept	निपुण	Proficient
	Adapt	ढ़ालना	To change accordingly.
4.	**Allude**	उल्लेख करना	Refer to
	Elude	बचना	To escape
5.	**Alternate**	एक छोड़ कर एक	One after another.
	Alternative	विकल्प	Available instead /substitute
6.	**Aural**	कान से संबंधित	Of ear
	Oral	मौखिक	Verbal
7.	**Access**	पहुँच	Approach
	Excess	प्रचुरता में	More than due.
8.	**Averse**	नापसंद करना	To dislike
	Adverse	विपरीत	Unfavourable
9.	**Advice (N)**	सलाह	An opinion
	Advise (V)	सलाह देना	To offer an opinion.
10.	**Affect (V)**	असर करना	To influence
	Effect (N)	परिणाम	Result
11.	**Apposite**	उपयुक्त	Proper
	Opposite	के सामने/विपरीत	In front of/ contrary
12.	**Amend**	संशोधन करना	To improve
	Emend	अशुद्धियाँ निकाल देना	To remove the mistakes
13.	**Amoral**	निनैतिक	Having no moral sense.
	Immoral	अनैतिक	Not conforming to moral standards.

14.	**Antics**	हँसाने के लिए की गई हरकत	Tricks
	Antiques	प्राचीन कला की वस्तुऐं	Ancient pieces of art.
15.	**Appraise**	मूल्यांकन करना	Assess the quality/ value of.
	Apprise	सूचित करना	Inform
16.	**Allusion**	संदर्भ में (अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से)	Indirect reference
	Illusion	भ्रम	Deception
17.	**Beside**	के बगल में	By the side of
	Besides	के अलावा	Apart from
18.	**Bridle**	लगाम	Headgear of horse
	Bridal	दुल्हा/दुल्हन से संबंधित	Related to bride/ bridegroom
19.	**Beneficial**	लाभदायक	Useful
	Beneficiary	लाभान्वित व्यक्ति	One who receives benefit.
20.	**Boar**	सुअर	A pig
	Bore	बर्दाश्त करना/ पैदा करना	To tolerate or to produce (V_2 of bear)
21.	**Bought**	खरीदना	V_2 and V_3 of buy.
	Brought	लाना	V_2 and V_3 of bring.
22.	**Catch**	गतिशील को पकड़ना	To take hold of something when it is moving.
	Hold	थामना	To take hold of something when it is static.
23.	**Childish**	बेवकूफी भरा	Foolish
	Childlike	मासूम	Innocent
24.	**Continual**	नियमित रूप से	Happening repeatedly
	Continuous	लगातार	Without break
25.	**Credible**	विश्वसनीय	Believable
	Creditable	सम्मानीय	Praiseworthy, honourable
26.	**Censure**	निन्दा करना	To criticise
	Censor	प्रतिबन्धित करना	Official licensing of films etc.
27.	**Canon**	नियम	Rule
	Cannon	तोप	A powerful gun fixed to wheels.
28.	**Canvas**	मोटा कपड़ा	Coarse cloth
	Canvass	घूम-घूम के वोट माँगना	Visit houses to get political support.
29.	**Cemetery**	कब्रगाह	A burial place
	Symmetry	एक सा	Harmony
30.	**Casual**	उदासीन, अनौपचारिक	Not formal, not taking much interest.
	Causal	कारक संबंधी	Relating to cause
31.	**Climactic**	उत्कर्ष से संबंधित	Relating to climax

	Climatic	जलवायु संबंधित	Relating to climate
32.	**Coarse**	भद्दा/ मोटा/ समतल नहीं	Rough
	Course	किसी कार्य का सिलसिलेवार रास्ता	A line of action.
33.	**Confidant**	राजदार	A person who is entrusted with secrets.
	Confident	आत्मविश्वास के साथ	Sure and certain.
34.	**Contagious**	बिमारी जो छूने से फैले	A disease that spreads by contact.
	Contiguous	सिमांत	Near
	Infectious	बिमारी जो हवा एवं पानी से फैले	A disease that spreads by air or water.
35.	**Corps**	सेना की टुकडी	A division of army.
	Corpse	मृत शरीर (इंसान का)	A dead body.
	Carcass	किसी बड़े जानवर का मृत शरीर	The dead body of a large animal.
36.	**Conscious**	अवगत	To know
	Conscientious	ज़मीरवाला	With a sense of duty.
37.	**Complain (V)**	शिकायत करना	To say that something is wrong or not satisfactory.
	Complaint (N)	शिकायत	A report of a problem.
38.	**Complacent**	आत्म संतुष्ट	Self-satisfied.
	Complaisant	आज्ञाकारी	Obedient and compliant.
39.	**Complement**	पूरक	N-a thing that completes or improves. V-add to something in a way that it improves.
	Compliment	तारीफ	A remark of admiration.
40.	**Custom**	सामाजिक नियम	Social usage.
	Habit	आदत	Personal usage.
41.	**Compose**	बनाना	Make up the whole.
	Comprise	से बना होना	Consist of.
42.	**Career**	पेशा	Course through life.
	Carrier	सामान ढ़ोने की गाड़ी	That which carries.
43.	**Credible**	विश्वसनीय	Believable
	Credulous	जो आसानी से विश्वास कर ले	Too ready to believe.
44.	**Discreet**	(सचेत ताकि किसी को व्यवहार या भाषा से चोट न पहुँचे)	Careful not to cause offence by speech or behaviour.
	Discrete	(पृथक)	Separate, distinct.
45.	**Disease**	बिमारी	Ailment or illness.
	Decease	मृत्यु	Death.
46.	**Decent**	सभ्य	Nice, respectable.
	Descent	ढ़लान	Downward motion.
	Dissent	मतभेद	Difference of opinion.

47.	**Dual**	दोहरा	With two parts.
	Duel	द्वंद्व युद्ध	A fight between two persons using guns or swords.
48.	**Deface**	विकृत करना	Disfigure.
	Efface	मिटा देना	Wipe out.
49.	**Deny**	खंडन करना	To declare untrue.
	Decline	अस्वीकार करना	Refuse to accept an offer.
	Refuse	इन्कार करना	Show unwillingness towards.
	Refute	खंडन करना (सबूत के साथ)	Prove wrong.
50.	**Defy**	उल्लंघन करना	To break the law.
	Deify	ईश्वर बना देना	To make someone or something a god.
51.	**Defuse**	तनाव कम करना	Remove the tension.
	Diffuse	फैलाना/अस्पष्ट	Spread out; not clear or concise.
52.	**Desert**	N- रेगिस्तान, V- त्याग देना	N- An area where there is little rain. V- To leave someone.
	Dessert	भोजन के बाद का मीठा व्यंजन	Sweet dish eaten at the end of a meal.
53.	**Depression**	गड्डा/अवसाद	Hollow/ A mental state of despair.
	Depreciation	मूल्य कम होना	Undervalue.
54.	**Disinterested**	निष्पक्ष	Impartial.
	Uninterested	दिलचस्पी ना होना	Not interested.
55.	**Delightful**	प्रसन्नतादायक	Very pleasant.
	Delicious	स्वादिष्ट	Pleasing to taste.
56.	**Deprecate**	नापसंद करना	To hate.
	Depreciate	मुल्य कम करना	To reduce in value.
57.	**Defective**	त्रुटिपूर्ण	Having a certain imperfection.
	Deficient	कमी होना	Lacking something.
58.	**Decided**	निर्णय किया हुआ (निश्चित)	Clear and definite.
	Decisive	निर्णायक	Deciding.
59.	**Effective**	असरदार	Producing effect.
	Efficacious	जो निश्चित ही उत्तम परिणाम दे	Able to produce the desired result.
	Efficient	कार्यकुशल	Competent.
60.	**Elicit**	उत्पन्न कर पाना	To get or produce something.
	Illicit	अवैध	Illegal or disopproved of by society.
61.	**Economical**	कम खर्च वाला	Involving less expenditure.
	Economic	अर्थव्यवस्था सम्बन्धित	Relating to economy.
62.	**Enduring**	लम्बे समय तक कायम	Existing for a long time.
	Endurable	सहन करने लायक	Bearable.

63.	**Emigrant**	प्रवासी	A person who leaves his country to settle in another.
	Immigrant	अप्रवासी	One who comes to another country.
64.	**Enormity**	अति, घोर	Extreme seriousness.
	Enormousness	ज्यादा होना	Great in size or scale.
65.	**Ensure**	सुनिश्चित करना	To make sure.
	Insure	बीमा करना	To protect against risk.
	Assure	दिलासा देना	To make certain of.
66.	**Envelop**	(ढ़क देना)	To cover or surround something completely.
	Envelope	(लिफाफा)	A flat usually square paper container for a letter.
67.	**Especially**	विशेष कर	In particular, above all.
	Specially	किसी विशेष अवसर के लिए	For a special purpose.
68.	**Excite**	उत्तेजित करना	To arouse feelings of happiness or enthusiasm.
	Incite	उकसाना / भड़काना	To arouse unpleasant or violent feelings.
69.	**Expedient**	सही/ लाभदायक	Helpful or useful in a particular situation.
	Expeditious	शीघ्र/ फुर्ती से	Prompt.
70.	**Extinct**	विलुप्त	No longer existing.
	Instinct	मूल प्रवृत्ति	Inborn impulse.
71.	**Flair**	जन्मजात प्रवृत्ति	Natural ability.
	Flare	धधकना, फैलना	A burst of flame or light/ to become angry.
72.	**Flaunt**	दिखावा करना	Display ostentatiously/to show off.
	Flout	उल्लंघन करना	Disregard a rule or custom.
73.	**Fortuitous**	आकस्मिक	Happening by change.
	Fortunate	भाग्यशाली	Lucky.
74.	**Felicity**	प्रसन्नता	A blessing, happiness.
	Facility	सुविधा	Ease or comfort
	Faculty	कार्यशक्ति/ कॉलेज का विभाग /कॉलेज के अध्यापकगण	Ability/departments of college/ the people who teach
75.	**Fatal**	घातक	Deadly
	Fateful	महत्त्वपूर्ण/परन्तु नकारात्मक परिणामयुक्त	Important but with usually negative effect.
76.	**Fain**	खुशी से	Gladly
	Feign	दिखावा करना (जो सच नहीं है)/बहाना बनाना	To pretend to feel something.

77.	**Floor**	फर्श	The flat surface of room on which we walk.
	Ground	जमीन	The surface of earth outside the room.
78.	**Graceful**	भव्य	Handsome or attractive
	Gracious	दयालु	Merciful
79.	**Gate**	द्वार	An entrance
	Gait	चलने का तरीका	A particular way of walking.
80.	**Gourmand**	पेटू	A glutton
	Gourmet	पाक कला का पारखी	A food connoisseur.
81.	**Hear**	सुनना	To receive sound.
	Listen	ध्यान से सुनना	To hear carefully.
82.	**Hoard**	छिपाकर संग्रह करना	To store in a secret place.
	Horde	एक बड़ा समूह	A large group of people.
83.	**Humility**	विनम्रता	The quality of being humble.
	Humiliation	अपमान	Disrespect
84.	**Historic**	महत्त्वपूर्ण	Important
	Historical	ऐतिहासिक	Relating to history
	Histrionic	नाटकीय एवं बढ़ा चढ़ाकर	Dramatic and exaggerated
85.	**Human**	मानव	Relating to man
	Humane	दयालु	Kind
86.	**Illegal**	गैरकानूनी	Against the law
	Illicit	अवैध	Disapproved of by society.
87.	**Incredible**	अविश्वसनीय	Unbelievable
	Incredulous	जो विश्वास न करें	Not ready to believe something/ someone.
88.	**Ingenious**	बढ़िया एवं नई युक्ति भरा	Clever and involving new ideas.
	Ingenuous	निष्कपट, सरल	Honest and sincere.
89.	**Intense**	तीव्र	Extreme and forceful.
	Intensive	गहन	Involving a lot of effort.
90.	**Invent**	आविष्कार करना	To create something which never existed before.
	Discover	खोज करना	To find something for the first time which nobody was aware of.
91.	**Industrial**	उद्योग संबंधी	Relating to industry
	Industrious	मेहनती	Hard-working
92.	**Imperious**	दबंग	Haughty
	Imperial	राजसी	Majestic, relating to empire.
93.	**Incumbent**	जरूरी	To be necessary
	Recumbent	लेटा हुआ	Lying down
94.	**Jealous**	ईर्ष्यालु (जब वस्तु हमारी हो)	When we are afraid of losing the person/ thing we love, we feel jealous.

	Envious	ईर्ष्यालु (जब वस्तु हमारी नहीं हो)	When we wish we had what someone else have, we feel envious. Envy and jealously are slightly different in meaning.
95.	**Judicial**	न्याय संबंधी	Relating to a judge or justice.
	Judicious	समझदार	Wise, Prudent
96.	**Light**	V- जलाना-प्रकाशित करने के लिए N- रोशनी, Adj- हल्का	*Verb*-to start flames in order to spread light/ *Noun*-radiance/*Adj*-not heavy.
	Burn	V- जलाना-नाश करने के लिए, N- फफोला	*V*-to start flames to destroy something/*N*-the part of body damaged due to heat.
97.	**Lightening**	उजाला करना, हल्का करना, गोरा करना	To make bright/ less heavy/ pale/ less serious.
	Lightning	बिजली-जो आसमान में दिखती है	A flash of bright light seen in the sky.
	Lighting	बिजली की व्यवस्था	The arrangement of lights.
98.	**Loath**	अनिच्छुक	Reluctant, unwilling
	Loathe	घृणा करना	To hate
99.	**Loose**	ढ़ीला	Not tight.
	Lose	खोना/हारना	Be defeated.
	Loss	घाटा/हानि	The state of not in posession of something or having it less than before.
100.	**Luxuriant**	प्रचुरता में उगना	Strong in growth
	Luxurious	विलासितापूर्ण	Very comfortable and expensive.
101.	**Lovely**	प्यारा, सुंदर	Beautiful
	Lovable	प्यार करने योग्य	Worthy of love
102.	**Metal**	धातु	A chemical element. Eg-gold, iron etc.
	Mettle	क्षमता	Ability.
103.	**Metre**	लम्बाई की इकाई	A unit of length.
	Meter	एक यंत्र	A device used to measure the amount of something that is used.
104.	**Negligent**	लापरवाह	Careless
	Negligible	नगण्य	Very little
105.	**Momentary**	क्षणिक	Short-lived
	Momentous	महत्त्वपूर्ण	Very important
106.	**Minor**	नाबालिग	Underage
	Miner	खदान कर्मी	One who works in mines.
107.	**Militate**	प्रतिकूल होना	To hinder
	Mitigate	तीव्रता कम करना/शान्त करना	Make less severe.
108.	**Naval**	नेवी संबंधित	Relating to a navy.

	Navel	नाभी	Small round part in the middle of the stomach.
109.	**Notable**	ध्यान देने लायक	Important and deserving attention.
	Notorious	कुख्यात	Known for bad qualities.
	Famous	प्रसिद्ध	Well known
	Eminent	प्रसिद्ध एवं सम्माननीय	Well known and respected
110.	**Official**	आधिकारिक	Relating to an office.
	Officious	सलाह देने के लिए तत्पर	Too eager to tell others what to do.
111.	**Ordinance**	अध्यादेश	A law made by the government.
	Ordnance	सेना का साजो-सामान	Military material such as weapons, ammunition etc.
112.	**Pane**	खिड़की/दरवाजे का काँच	A flat piece of glass used in a window/ door.
	Pain	दर्द	Feeling of physical suffering.
	Pains	अथक प्रयास	A lot of efforts.
113.	**Palate**	तालू	The roof of the mouth/ the sense of taste.
	Palette	रंग मिलाने का बर्तन	An artist's mixing board.
	Pellet	किसी चीज़ का छोटा गोला	A small ball of any substance.
114.	**Pedal**	पैर से चलाने वाला	A foot-operated lever.
	Peddle	घूम-घूम कर सामान बेचना	To sell goods by going from one place to another.
115.	**Perpetrate**	करना (गुनाह)	To commit (a crime).
	Perpetuate	किसी कार्य/हालात के जारी रहने का कारण बनना	To cause something to continue.
116.	**Personal**	निजी	Private
	Personnel	कर्मी	Staff
117.	**Pore**	छेद	Small hole.
	Pour	बहना, उड़ेलना	Flow, cause to flow.
118.	**Practice (N)**	अभ्यास	Regular activity.
	Practise (V)	अभ्यास करना	To do something regularly.
119.	**Practicable**	व्यवहारिक	Able to be done.
	Practical/ Pragmatic	वास्तव में/प्रयोगात्मक	Effective or realistic.
120.	**Prescribe**	सलाह देना (के रूप में)	To recommend
	Proscribe	गैर कानूनी करार देना	Forbid or condemn.
121.	**Proceed**	आगे बढ़ना	To continue
	Precede	पहले आना	To come before/happen before.
122.	**Popular**	प्रसिद्ध	Liked by all.

	Populous	घनी आवादी वाला	Thickly populated.
123.	**Pray**	प्रार्थना करना	To offer prayer to God.
	Prey	(V) शिकार करना/(N) शिकार	Hunt and kill/ victim
124.	**Principal**	प्रधानाचार्य/ मुख्य	One who is in charge of a school/ first in order of importance.
	Principle	सिद्धान्त	Most important basic idea / moral rule.
125.	**Quite**	पूर्ण/थोड़ा	Completely/a little/ ***Note:*** *both meanings are different from each other*
	Quiet	चुप	To be silent
	Quit	छोड़ देना	to give up
126.	**Respectable**	सम्माननीय	Worthy of respect.
	Respectful	सम्मानजनक	Showing respect
	Respective	विशिष्ट, अलग-अलग	Particular
127.	**Resource**	संसाधन	Means
	Recourse	रास्ता	Resort
128.	**Refute**	खण्डन करना	Prove to be wrong.
	Repudiate	सही या सच मानने से इंकार करना	Refuse to accept as true or correct.
129.	**Regrettable**	खेदजनक	Causing regret, undesirable.
	Regretful	दुखी	Feeling sorry
130.	**Rise**	उठना/जागना/तरक्की करना	To get up, to progress.
	Raise	उठाना	To lift
	Raze	ध्वस्त करना	To demolish
	Rage	गुस्सा	Anger
131.	**Ride**	दोपहिया या जानवर की सवारी करना	To sit on an animal or two-wheeler and travel.
	Drive	चार-पहिया की सवारी करना	To travel by a four-wheeler.
132.	**Rout**	धराशाही करना	To defeat completely and easily.
	Route	रास्ता	Path
	Root	जड़	The underground part of a plant.
133.	**Septic**	एक चिकित्सा संबंधी समस्या	A medical term involving sepsis.
	Sceptic	संदेही	Doubtful of an idea or belief.
134.	**See**	देखना	Perceive with eyes.
	Look	ताकना/नजर डालना	To direct the eyes in order to see.
	Watch	देखना (कुछ अंतराल तक)/ नजर रखना	To look at something for a period of time/ to keep an eye on.
	Stare	घूरना	To look continuously for a long time.
	Peep	झाँकना	To see secretly or through a hole.
	Glance	नजर डालना	To give a quick short look.
	Glare	गुस्से में घूरना	To stare angrily.
	Glimpse	एक झलक देखना	To see someone very briefly.
	Glower	गुस्से से देखना	To see angrily.

135.	**Sever**	अलग करना	To break/ to separate.
	Amputate	शरीर के किसी बाहरी अंग (हाथ या पैर)को काट कर अलग करना, क्योंकि वह स्थायी रूप से क्षतिग्रस्त हो चुका है	Cut off a body part that is permanently damaged.
	Maim	शरीर के किसी अंग को स्थायी रूप से क्षतिग्रस्त करना	To damage any body part permanently.
	Severe	तीव्र	Extreme
	Sewer	नाला	Drain
136.	**Story**	कहानी	Account of any event.
	Storey	तल	Floor
137.	**Suit**	वाद/अभियोग	Action in a law court.
	Soot	कालिख	Black substance in smoke.
	Suite	सेट	A set of rooms / furniture.
138.	**Statue**	मूर्ति	Image
	Statute	लिखित कानून	Written law
139.	**Straight**	सीधा	Extending without a curve.
	Strait	जलसंधि	Narrow passage of water.
140.	**Stationary**	स्थिर	Not moving.
	Stationery	पैन, कॉपी इत्यादि	Things needed for writing.
141.	**Sight**	दृष्टि/ नजारा	Ability to see/view.
	Site	कार्यस्थल	A place of construction.
	Cite	उल्लेख करना	To mention.
142.	**Shear**	काटना (बाल, इत्यादि)	To cut off-hair, wool etc.
	Sheer	पूर्ण रूप से	Utter, complete
143.	**Toe**	पैर की ऊँगली	Any of the five separate parts at the end of the foot.
	Tow	खींच कर गाड़ी ले जाना	To pull a vehicle using a rope or chain tied to another vehicle.
144.	**Temper**	गुस्सा	Anger, rage
	Tamper	छेड़-छाड़ करना (किसी चीज से)	To interfere with.
145.	**Temporary**	क्षणिक, तत्कालिक	Short lived
	Temporal	सांसारिक	Earthly or worldly
146.	**Titillate**	उत्तेजित करना	Stimulate or excite especially in a sexual way.
	Titivate	सुन्दरता बढ़ाना	To make smarter or more pretty.
147.	**Topical**	प्रासंगिक/आधुनिक विषय से	Related to present time.
	Tropical	उष्ण	With hot climate
148.	**Vain**	बेकार में/घमंडी	Not successful/arrogant.
	Vein	नाड़ी	Tube that carries blood to the heart in our body.

149.	**Verbal**	शाब्दिक	Relating to words
	Verbose	शब्दों से भरा	Containing more words than necessary
	Oral	मौखिक	Spoken
	Verbiage	जरूरत से ज्यादा शब्दों भरा जिससे अर्थ समझना कठिन हो जाए	Use of too many words due to which it becomes difficult for one to understand the speech or article.
150.	**Virtuous**	नैतिक रूप से अच्छा	Having good moral qualities
	Virtual	आभासीय	In effect, though not in fact
151.	**Vile**	नीच	Immoral
	Wile	युक्ति	Tricks
152.	**Vale**	घाटी	Valley
	Veil	नकाब, घूँघट	Cover of face
	Wail	रोना	Weep
153.	**Vocation**	व्यवसाय	Profession
	Vacation	अवकाश	Holidays
154.	**Violence**	हिंसा, प्रहार	Force
	Violation	नियम की अवहेलना	Infringement of law
155.	**Wither**	मुरझा जाना	To fade
	Whither	कहाँ	Where
	Weather	मौसम	Atmospheric condition (of a short period)
	Whether	या.....या	'Whether ..... or' is a co-relative
156.	**Wave**	लहर (N)/ लहराना (V)	Raised mass of water in sea/ to move.
	Waive	त्याग देना	To give up

17 VOCABULARIES

CHAPTER

S.N.	WORD	हिन्दी में अर्थ	Meaning in English
1.	**Abase**	नीचा दिखाना	Degrade.
2.	**Abash**	लज्जित करना	To embarrass.
3.	**Abattoir**	बूचड़ खाना	Place where animals are killed.
4.	**Abdicate**	त्याग देना	Give up.
5.	**Aberrant**	असामान्य	Abnormal.
6.	**Abetment**	दूषप्रेरण	The act of helping someone in wrongdoing.
7.	**Abeyance**	निलंबित अवस्था	Suspended action.
8.	**Abhor**	घृणा करना	Detest, dislike, hate.
9.	**Abject**	बुरी हालत में	Extremely poor or unhappy.
10.	**Abjure**	सौगन्ध खा कर त्याग करना	Renounce upon oath.
11.	**Ablution**	शुद्धि हेतु स्नान	The act of washing oneself.
12.	**Abnegation**	त्याग देना-अधिकार या दावा	To give up a right or a claim.
13.	**Abode**	निवास	The place where someone lives.
14.	**Abolish**	उन्मूलन करना	To put an end to.
15.	**Abominable**	घृणित	Very bad or unpleasant.
16.	**Aboriginal**	आदिवासी	Native.
17.	**Abortive**	निष्फल	Fruitless, futile.
18.	**Abrasive**	घिसने का सामान	Substance used for rubbing.
19.	**Abridge**	संक्षिप्त करना	Shorten.
20.	**Abrogate**	खत्म करना (किसी परम्परा/ कानून को)	Abolish some custom etc.
21.	**Abscission**	चीरा	Cutting off.
22.	**Abscond**	भाग जाना	Depart secretly.
23.	**Absolute**	पूर्ण रूप से	Complete.
24.	**Absolve**	दोष से मुक्त करना	Pardon.
25.	**Abstain**	रोकना, परहेज करना	Refrain from.
26.	**Abstract**	संक्षेप दस्तावेज/सिर्फ भावना के रूप में ही मौजूद	A shortened form of speech/existing as an idea or feeling only.

27. **Abstruse** ..... मुश्किल, कठिन ..... Difficult to understand.
28. **Abysmal** ..... बहुत बुरा ..... Not measurable, very bad.
29. **Accede** ..... मान जाना ..... Agree to do.
30. **Acclaim** ..... प्रशंसा करना ..... Applaud.
31. **Accolade** ..... पुरस्कार ..... Award of merit.
32. **Accomplice** ..... गुनाह का साथी ..... Partner in crime.
33. **Accord** ..... सामंजस्य से ..... Do something in complete agreement.
34. **Accused** ..... आरोपी ..... One who is under trial in a court.
35. **Acme** ..... शिखर ..... Peak.
36. **Acquit** ..... बरी करना ..... Declared to be not guilty.
37. **Adapt** ..... अनुकूल बनाना ..... To change to suit different environment.
38. **Adept** ..... निपुण ..... Proficient.
39. **Adolescent** ..... किशोर ..... One who is growing into an adult.
40. **Adulteration** ... मिलावट ..... Mixing some undesired commodity.
41. **Adultery** ..... विवाहेत्तर संबंध, व्याभिचार ..... To have sex outside marriage.
42. **Adverse** ..... प्रतिकूल ..... Unfavourable.
43. **Aftermath** ..... किसी अप्रिय घटना के बाद का समय .... The period which follows an undesired event.
44. **Aghast** ..... हतप्रभ रह जाना ..... Sudden feeling of shock and worry.
45. **Agile** ..... लचीला ..... Able to move your body quickly.
46. **Agony** ..... दर्द ..... Extreme sufferings.
47. **Aisle** ..... सीट के श्रृँखला के बीच जाने-आने का .. रास्ता ..... Narrow, long space between the two rows of seats.
48. **Alchemist** ..... पारस ..... One who tries to turn other base metal into gold.
49. **Alimony** ..... तलाक पश्चात दी जाने वाली रकम ..... Money paid usually to a wife after break-down of marriage.
50. **Altar** ..... बेदी ..... Table/place where offerings are put in a religious place.
51. **Altercation** ..... वाक युद्ध, कहा-सुनी ..... A loud argument.
52. **Ambiguous** ..... अस्पष्ट, द्विअर्थी ..... Having more than one possible meaning.
53. **Amenable** ..... सुझाव स्वीकार करने को तैयार ..... Willing to accept a suggestion.
54. **Amiable** ..... दोस्ताना ..... Pleasant and friendly behaviour.
55. **Angst** ..... चिन्ता ..... Great anxiety.
56. **Anguish** ..... वेदना, व्यथा ..... Extreme unhappiness.

57. Annotate ..... टिप्पणी ..... To add a brief explanation.
58. Anonymous ..... गुमनाम ..... Made/done by someone unknown.
59. Antecedent ..... पूर्वगामी ..... Something/someone existing before.
60. Apathy ..... उदासीनता ..... Lack of interest/enthusiasm/ emotion.
61. Appalling ..... बहुत भयावह ..... Very bad and shocking.
62. Appeasement .. तुष्टीकरण ..... The act of giving advantage to one party.
63. Archives ..... ऐतिहासिक/ सरकारी दस्तावेज जहाँ रखा जाए . Place where historical records are kept.
64. Argumentative बहस करने वाला ..... Often arguing or ready to argue.
65. Articulate ..... अच्छा वक्ता ..... A good orator.
66. Asceticism ..... सन्यास/ वैराग्य ..... Religious beliefs and avoidance of life of pleasure.
67. Assault ..... मारपीट करना ..... A violent attack.
68. Asset ..... सम्पत्ति ..... Valuables.
69. Atrocities ..... जुल्म ..... Violent and cruel act.
70. Attenuate ..... शान्त करना ..... To calm or soothe.
71. Attrition ..... सनिघर्षण ..... The gradual weakening of something.
72. Augment ..... बढ़ाना ..... Add to/increase.
73. August ..... महत्त्वपूर्ण/राजसी ..... Important/Magestic.
74. Aura ..... आभा ..... A feeling or character a person/place seems to have.
75. Averse ..... नापसंद ..... Strong disliking.
76. Awful ..... अत्यंत बुरा ..... Hateful.
77. Babble ..... बड़बड़ाना ..... Talk in a way which is difficult to understand.
78. Bacchanalian .. शराबी ..... Drunken.
79. Backbite ..... चुगली करना ..... To speak something at the back of someone.
80. Badger ..... परेशान करना ..... Annoy.
81. Badinage ..... मजाक में चिढ़ाना ..... playful teasing/banter.
82. Baffle ..... चकरा देना ..... Confuse.
83. Bait ..... चारा ..... Snare, Trap, Decoy.
84. Baleful ..... घातक, हानिकारक ..... Deadly.
85. Balk ..... अनिच्छुक होना ..... To be unwilling to do something.
86. Balmy ..... गर्म ..... Pleasantly warm.

87. **Bane** ..... अभिशाप ..... Curse.
88. **Banter** ..... मजाक में चिढ़ाना ..... Conversation which is funny and not serious.
89. **Barb** ..... काँटा ..... Sharp projection from fish hook.
90. **Barbaric** ..... बर्बर ..... Savagely cruel.
91. **Bard** ..... कवि ..... Poet.
92. **Barefaced** ..... बेशर्म ..... Shameless.
93. **Baroque** ..... सजा हुआ ..... Highly ornate.
94. **Barrage** ..... बाँध ..... Structure built across a river.
95. **Beeline** ..... सीधी रेखा/रास्ता ..... Direct or quick route.
96. **Beget** ..... पैदा करना ..... To father or produce.
97. **Begrudge** ..... बेमन से देना ..... To give unwillingly.
98. **Beguile** ..... दिशा भ्रमित करना ..... Cheat or mislead.
99. **Behemoth** ..... बहुत बड़ा जीव ..... Huge creature.
100. **Behest** ..... के निवेदन/ आदेश पर ..... At the request or order of.
101. **Benevolence** ... दया ..... Kindness.
102. **Betray** ..... धोखा देना ..... To be disloyal/ to deceive.
103. **Blackguard** ..... आवारा, अनैतिक व्यक्ति ..... A man who has no moral principles.
104. **Blatant** ..... बेशर्मी के साथ खुलेआम ..... Open and unashamed.
105. **Blister** ..... फफोला ..... Swellings on skin.
106. **Blizzard** ..... बर्फीला तूफान ..... Stormy weather.
107. **Blunder** ..... बहुत बड़ी गलती ..... A big mistake.
108. **Blush** ..... शर्म से लाल होना ..... To become pink in the face due to shyness.
109. **Boisterous** ..... शोर-गुल मचाने वाला, जोश से भरा ..... Noisy and full of energy.
110. **Bombast** ..... बढ़ी-चढ़ी बात ..... Pompous language with little meaning.
111. **Boost** ..... बढ़ाना ..... To improve/increase.
112. **Booze** ..... शराब पीना ..... To take alcoholic drink.
113. **Brickbat** ..... बक-झक ..... An insult, spoken attack.
114. **Brutal** ..... बर्बर ..... Savagely violent
115. **Buckle** ..... दवाब में टूट जाना ..... Crumble under pressure.
116. **Bully** ..... परेशान करना/ डराना ..... To hurt/frighten someone.
117. **Bunk** ..... बिना अनुमति के चले जाना ..... To leave without permission.
118. **Butcher** ..... हत्या करना ..... To kill/murder someone.
119. **Cabal** ..... षड्यन्त्र करने वाला समूह ..... Group of people who plan secretly.

120. Cache ..... छिपाने का स्थान ..... Hiding place.
121. Cacophony ..... शोरगुल ..... Harsh mixture of sound.
122. Cadaver ..... शव ..... A dead human body.
123. Cadence ..... स्वर का उतार चढ़ाव ..... Regular rise and fall of voice.
124. Cahoots ..... षड्यन्त्र ..... Acting together generally for a dishonest purpose.
125. Calamity ..... संकट ..... Disaster.
126. Caldron ..... कढ़ाई ..... Large kettle.
127. Calibre ..... क्षमता ..... Ability.
128. Calligraphy ..... सुंदर लेखन कला ..... Art of writing beautifully.
129. Callous ..... निर्दयी ..... Cruel.
130. Callow ..... अनुभवहीन ..... One with little experience or knowledge.
131. Canvass ..... घूम-घूम कर वोट माँगना ..... Seek votes.
132. Capitalize ..... पूँजी उपलब्ध कराना ..... To supply money to a business.
133. Capitulate ..... आत्मसर्मपण करना ..... Surrender.
134. Capricious ..... सनकी ..... Fickle-minded.
135. Carcass ..... मृत शरीर (जानवर का) ..... A dead body of a large animal.
136. Cardinal ..... प्रमुख ..... most important.
137. Careen ..... तेजी से आगे बढ़ते हुए बाएं-दाएं हिलना Sway from side to side while moving forward quickly.
138. Carnage ..... जनसंहार ..... Slaughter/massacre.
139. Casanova ..... दिलफेंक ..... One who has lots of sexual relationship.
140. Catastrophe .... विपत्ति, संकट ..... A sudden destructive event/ unpleasant and disastrous.
141. Cave (V) ..... दवाब में टूट जाना ..... Collapse/give in to demands.
Cave (N) ..... गुफा ..... A large hole on the side of a hill.
142. Censor ..... प्रतिबंधित करना ..... To ban unacceptable parts.
143. Censure ..... निन्दा करना ..... Strongly criticise.
144. Chaos ..... अव्यवस्था ..... Complete disorder.
145. Charismatic .... आर्कषक ..... Attractive.
146. Chaste ..... पवित्र ..... Pure.
147. Chauvinism .... बड़प्पन की भावना (अपनी नस्ल/ मर्द होने पर) .... Feeling of superiority due to race or gender.

148. Cheat ..... धोखेबाज/ धोखा देना ..... One who cheats or deceives/the act of deceiving.
149. Chide ..... डाँटना ..... To reprimand and to speak severely to someone.
150. Clamour ..... शोर मचा कर माँग या शिकायत करना .. To make a loud complaint or demand.
151. Clandestine .... गुप्त ..... Planned/done in secret.
152. Clasp ..... जोर से थामना ..... To hold something firmly.
153. Cloak ..... लम्बा चोगा/ छिपाना ..... Long gown/ to hide.
154. Coalition ..... साझा ..... A temporary alliance.
155. Coddle ..... कुछ ज्यादा ही देखभाल करना ..... To protect something/ someone too much.
156. Collate ..... क्रम में रखना, गलती ढूढ़ने हेतु मिलान करना To put in proper order.
157. Collision ..... टक्कर ..... The act of hitting something with other thing.
158. Combat ..... लड़ाई ..... A fight especially during a war.
159. Commendable . प्रशंसनीय ..... Praiseworthy.
160. Commute ..... यात्रा करना जो नियमित हो/ बदल देना ... To make the same journey regularly/ to change.
161. Complement ... पूरक ..... A thing that improves.
162. Conceal ..... छिपाना ..... To hide.
163. Concede ..... स्वीकार कर लेना ..... Admit to be true.
164. Concurring ..... सहमत होना ..... To agree with someone.
165. Condolence ..... संवेदना व्यक्त करना ..... Sympathy for the family of a person who has recently died.
166. Confrontation टकराव ..... Fight/argument.
167. Consecrate ..... पवित्र बनाना/पवित्र घोषित करना ..... Make or declare sacred.
168. Conspicuity ..... प्रत्यक्ष होना ..... Clarity.
169. Conspirator ..... षड्यंत्रकारी ..... One who plans something illegal.
170. Contemplate ... विचार करना ..... Think of a particular thing for a long time.
171. Convalesce ..... स्वास्थ्य लाभ करना ..... Regain health after illness.
172. Conversant ..... ज्ञान होना ..... Having knowledge of.
173. Convict ..... दोषी सिद्ध करना/दोषसिद्ध व्यक्ति ..... One proved guilty/to be proved guilty.
174. Conviviality .... दोस्ताना ..... Friendly.
175. Corporal ..... शारीरिक ..... Bodily.
176. Corpse ..... मुर्दा शरीर ..... A dead body of a person.
177. Corroborate ..... पुष्टि करना ..... Confirm or support.

178. Countenance ... चेहरे का भाव ..... The expression of the face.
179. Couplet ..... एक सुर की दो पंक्तियाँ ..... Two successive rhyming lines of verse.
180. Cramp ..... बाधा डालना/मरोड़ ..... Hamper or restraint/painful involuntary tightening of a muscle.
181. Credentials ..... योग्यता एवं अनुभव ..... Qualities/documents proving ability and experience.
182. Crooked ..... बेईमान/ सीधा नहीं ..... Dishonest/not forming a straight line.
183. Culminate ..... तक पहुँचना तब खत्म होना ..... To reach a point and then finish.
184. Culprit ..... दोषी ..... Someone who has done something wrong.
185. Curb ..... अंकुश लगाना ..... To check/restrain.
186. Dab hand ..... किसी काम में निपुण ..... An expert in something.
187. Dabble ..... सिर्फ ऐसे ही कोई कार्य करना ..... Work in non-serious way.
188. Daft ..... मूर्ख ..... Silly or stupid.
189. Dainty ..... छोटा एवं सुन्दर ..... Small and graceful.
190. Dally ..... कोई कार्य धीरे-धीरे करना ..... Procrastinate/to waste time or do something slowly.
191. Damsel ..... अविवाहित युवती ..... A young unmarried girl.
192. Dank ..... भीगा हुआ ..... Damp/wet.
193. Dapper ..... साफ-सुथरा ..... Neat and tidy.
194. Dappled ..... चितकबरा ..... Spotted.
195. Daub ..... लेपना ..... Smear.
196. Daunt ..... डराना ..... Intimidate, frighten.
197. Dauntless ..... निडर ..... Bold.
198. Dearth ..... कमी ..... Lack of.
199. Debauched ..... पथभ्रष्ट (शराब, सेक्स इत्यादि में लिप्त) One who is given to sex, alcohol etc.
200. Debilitate ..... कमजोर बनाना ..... Weaken.
201. Debonair ..... दोस्ताना ..... Friendly.
202. Debunk ..... कम महत्वपूर्ण ठहरना ..... To show that some thing is less important.
203. Debut ..... पहला अवसर ..... Something performed for the first time.
204. Decency ..... सभ्य तरीका ..... good and moral behavior.
205. Decimate ..... हत्या करना ..... Kill/destroy.
206. Decipher ..... किसी लिखित दस्तावेज को पढ़ कर अर्थ स्पष्ट करना Decode.

207. Declivity ..... ढ़ाल ..... Downward slope.
208. Deface ..... बदशक्ल बनाना ..... Disfigure.
209. Defacto ..... वास्तविक ..... Existing in fact.
210. Defeatist ..... निराशावादी ..... One who accepts defeat easily.
211. Deference ..... सम्मान ..... Respect.
212. Defiant ..... अवज्ञाकारी ..... Disobedient.
213. Deforestation .. जंगल साफ करना ..... Cutting down of trees in a large area.
214. Defuse ..... तनाव कम करना ..... Reduce tension.
215. Deluge ..... बाढ़ ..... A large amount of rain/water.
216. Demographer .. जन्म का विवरण रखने वाला ..... A person who studies changes in number of births.
217. Denounce ..... निन्दा करना ..... To criticize strongly.
218. Deplorable ..... घृणित ..... Very bad.
219. Deposition ..... बयान ..... A testimony.
220. Derail ..... पटरी से उतरना ..... To come off the railway track.
221. Desecration ..... पवित्रता भंग करना ..... Treatment of something sacred with disrespect.
222. Desperate ..... किसी कार्य या चीज के लिए तीव्र इच्छा . Feeling involving great willingness.
223. Despicable ..... घृणित ..... Unpleasant, causing strong feeling of dislike.
224. Detente ..... तनाव की कमी ..... The easing of hostility between countries.
225. Deterrent ..... हत्तोसाहित करने वाला ..... Discouragement from action.
226. Detrimental .... नुकसानदायक ..... Harmful.
227. Diffuse ..... फैल जाना ..... Spread over a wide area.
228. Dine ..... रात्रि भोज करना ..... Eat dinner.
229. Discord ..... सामंजस्य की कमी ..... Lack of agreement.
230. Disembarked ... उतरना जहाज से ..... To leave a ship/plane after the journey.
231. Disillusion ..... निराशा/मोह भंग ..... Disappointment.
232. Disinterested .. निष्पक्ष ..... Impartial.
233. Disparagement उपेक्षा ..... Insult/abuse.
234. Dispassionate . तटस्थ ..... Not influenced by emotion.
235. Dispense with . छुटकारा पाना ..... Get rid of or manage without.
236. Disseminate .... फैलना ..... Spread widely.
237. Docile ..... आज्ञाकारी ..... Obedient.

238. Dolorous ..... दुखी ..... Sad.
239. Draconian ..... अत्यंत कठोर ..... Extremely severe.
240. Drain ..... बहा देना, नाला ..... (V) removing things; (N) pipes and sewage.
241. Drizzle ..... बूँदा-बाँदी होना ..... Rain in very small light drops.
242. Drowsy ..... झपकी ..... Sleepy.
243. Ebb ..... घट जाना/ पीछे हटना ..... Recede.
244. Ebullient ..... उत्साहित ..... Very energetic and positive.
245. Eccentric ..... सनकी ..... Of strange behaviour.
246. Eclectic ..... विभिन्न श्रोतो से चुने हुऐ ..... Selected from various sources.
247. Ecstasy ..... अत्यन्त खुशी ..... A state of extreme happiness.
248. Edict ..... राज्य घोषणा ..... Official command, order.
249. Edify ..... शिक्षित करना खास कर नैतिक व आध्यात्मिक विकास के लिए ..... To educate morally or spiritually.
250. Eerie ..... डरावना ..... Weird/strange in a frightening way.
251. Efface ..... मिटा देना ..... Wipe out.
252. Effect ..... परिणाम ..... Result.
253. Effeminate ..... औरताना गुण ..... Having womanly traits.
254. Effete ..... कमजोर ..... Weak and without power.
255. Effigy ..... पुतला ..... A model representing someone, Dummy.
256. Effluvium ..... बदबू ..... Noxious smell.
257. Effrontery ..... अत्यन्त असम्मान ..... Extreme rudeness.
258. Egalitarian ..... समतावादी ..... Believing all people are equal.
259. Egregious ..... कुख्यात/बहुत बुरा ..... Notorious/extremely bad.
260. Egress ..... निकासी ..... Exit.
261. Elated ..... खुश ..... Overjoyed.
262. Elicit ..... स्पष्ट करना ..... Draw out by discussion.
263. Elite ..... कुलीन ..... A superior group.
264. Elope ..... भाग जाना (शादी हेतु) ..... To leave home secretly to get married.
265. Elucidate ..... स्पष्ट करना ..... To make clear and easy to understand.
266. Elusive ..... पकड़ में न आनेवाला/अवर्णनीय ..... Difficult to find/discribe.
267. Emaciated ..... दुर्बल ..... Thin and weak.
268. Emanate ..... निकालना ..... Emitting/ejecting.
269. Emancipate ..... मुक्त करना ..... Set free.

270. Embark ..... शुरू करना ..... To begin .
271. Embarrass ..... शर्मिन्दा करना ..... To cause someone feel uncomfortable.
272. Embellish ..... सुशोभित करना ..... To ornate or decorate.
273. Embolden ..... साहसी बनाना ..... To make someone brave.
274. Eminent ..... प्रतिष्ठित ..... Known and respected .
275. Emulate ..... बराबरी करना ..... Try to be equal.
276. Endangered ..... संकटग्रस्त ..... To put at risk.
277. Endear ..... प्रिय बनाना ..... To cause someone to be liked.
278. Enmity ..... दुश्मनी ..... Animosity, a feeling of hatred.
279. Enormity ..... विशालता ..... Of very great size or importance.
280. Enthrall ..... मोहित करना ..... Attract.
281. Enthusiastic ... उत्साहित ..... Causing excitement.
282. Envisage ..... पर विचार करना ..... To expect as a possibility.
283. Eradicate ..... उन्मूलन करना ..... Remove/destroy completely.
284. Errand ..... दूतकार्य (ऐसा काम जिसमें आना-जाना पड़े) .. A short journey to deliver/collect something.
285. Errant ..... पथभ्रष्ट, गुमराह ..... One who does something wrong.
286. Escalate ..... बढ़ाना ..... To increase/to expand step by step.
287. Espouse ..... समर्थन करना ..... Support/adopt a cause or way of life.
288. Estrange ..... त्याग देना ..... No longer friendly.
289. Etch ..... साफ झलकना ..... Make clearly defined.
290. Ethical ..... नैतिक ..... Beliefs which control behaviour.
291. Eunuch ..... हिजड़ा ..... A person who is neither a man nor a woman.
292. Exasperate ..... क्रोध/ रोष पैदा करना ..... To irritate
293. Exceptionable . आपत्तिजनक ..... Objectionable.
294. Exceptional ..... अपवाद ..... Unusual.
295. Excruciating ... अत्यंत तकलीफदेह ..... Extremely painful.
296. Executioner .... जल्लाद ..... One who carries the job of executing someone.
297. Exhaust ..... खर्च कर देना/थका देना ..... To spend/to make tired.
298. Exhilarate ..... आनन्दित करना ..... Cause to feel very happy.
299. Expostulate .... विरोध प्रकट करना ..... Disagree strongly.
300. Extravaganza .. फिजूलखर्ची ..... Exciting and expensive event.
301. Fad ..... फैशन में होना ..... A craze.
302. Falter ..... हिचकिचाना ..... Hesitate.

303. Fanatic ..... कट्टर ..... Extremely enthusiastic of one's religion, belief etc.
304. Fancier ..... जो जानवरों का प्रजनन करवाता हों ..... Breeder or dealer of animals.
305. Farce ..... तमाशा के जैसी घटना ..... An absurd event.
306. Fatal ..... घातक ..... Having serious and deadly effect.
307. Fate ..... भाग्य ..... Destiny.
308. Fateful ..... महत्त्वपूर्ण पर दुर्भाग्यपूर्ण ..... Having important but negative effect.
309. Fatuous ..... मूर्खतापूर्ण ..... Foolish.
310. Fauna ..... किसी क्षेत्र के जानवर ..... Animals of a particular area.
311. Faux pas ..... सामाजिक गलती ..... Word/behavior that is social mistake.
312. Feasible ..... व्यवहारिक ..... Practical.
313. Feeble ..... कमजोर ..... Weak and without energy.
314. Feign ..... नखरे करना ..... To pretend.
315. Felicity ..... खुशी ..... Happiness/ bliss.
316. Felony ..... जघन्य अपराध ..... A major criminal act.
317. Feral ..... जंगली ..... Wild.
318. Ferry ..... नदी को पार कराना, नाव ..... To transport people or goods/a boat for transportation.
319. Fetter ..... बेड़ी अथवा सीमा में रखना ..... To keep someone within limits.
320. Fiends ..... पिशाच, पिशाच तुल्य ..... An evil person.
321. Finesse ..... कुशलता ..... Great skill or style.
322. Flabbergast ..... विस्मित करना ..... Dumbfound/astonished.
323. Flare ..... भड़कना ..... To start suddenly such as violence, pain or anger.
324. Flaunt ..... दिखावा करना ..... Display ostentatiously.
325. Flex ..... भुजा का माँस कठोर कर दिखाना ..... Tighten a muscle.
326. Flog ..... चाबुक या डण्डे से मारना ..... To beat with a whip or stick.
327. Flout ..... उल्लंघन करना ..... To disobey rule/law.
328. Folly ..... गलती/बेवकूफी ..... Foolishness.
329. Foresee ..... पहले से जान जाना ..... Predicting something.
330. fragile ..... आसानी से टूट जाने वाला ..... Which can be easily broken.
331. Fraught ..... अप्रिय चीज़ों से पूर्ण/ ओतप्रोत ..... Full of unpleasant things.
332. Frown ..... भोहें चढ़ा कर देखना/ गुस्सा करना ..... Facial expression showing anger/ annoyance.
333. Furore ..... गुस्सा ..... An outbreak of public anger.
334. Gag ..... मुँह में कुछ ठूँस देना ..... To put cloth etc in the mouth.

335. Gallantry ..... साहस ..... Bravery.
336. Garish ..... बहुत अधिक रंगीन ..... Overbright in colour/gaudy.
337. Garner ..... इकट्ठा करना ..... Store up, gather.
338. Gawk ..... बेवकूफ की तरह देखना ..... Stare foolishly.
339. Genesis ..... शुरूआत ..... The origin of something.
340. Gigantic ..... विशाल ..... Extremely large.
341. Glare ..... घूरकर देखना ..... A long angry look.
342. Glee ..... खुशी ..... Great delight.
343. Glimmer ..... मंद रोशनी/आशा की किरण ..... A faint light/a slight sign of something good.
344. Glum ..... दुखी/निराश एवं चुप ..... Disappointed or unhappy and quiet.
345. Glutton ..... पेटू ..... One who eats too much.
346. Gourmet ..... पाक कला का पारखी ..... A person who knows a lot about food and cooking.
347. Grandeur ..... भव्य ..... The quality of being very beautiful and attractive.
348. Grapple ..... संघर्ष करना ..... Wrestle.
349. Grievous ..... तकलीफदेह/ गंभीर ..... Having very serious effect or causing pain.
350. Grotesque ..... विकृत, भद्दा ..... Unpleasant /distorted.
351. Grumble ..... बड़बड़ाना (गुस्से में) ..... To complain about something in an annoyed way.
352. Guffaw ..... ठहाका ..... Noisy laughter.
353. Haggard ..... थका/बिमार सा ..... Looking ill or tired.
354. Hailstorm ..... ओले के साथ तूफान ..... A sudden heavy fall of hail.
355. Hallucination .. भ्रम ..... To see or feel something or someone that does not exist.
356. Hapless ..... बेचारा ..... Unlucky/ helpless.
357. Hard hearted ... पत्थर दिल ..... A person who is not kind.
358. Harrowing ..... परेशान करने वाला ..... Extremely upsetting.
359. Harry ..... परेशान करना ..... To annoy.
360. Hasten ..... जल्दी करना ..... Hurry and do things quickly.
361. Hatch ..... करना (षड्यंत्र) ..... To make (a secret plan).
362. Haughty ..... घमंडी ..... Arrogant.
363. Hazardous ..... खतरनाक ..... Dangerous.
364. Head Strong .... जिद्दी ..... Stubborn.

365. Heckle ..... सवाल अथवा वक्तव्य से परेशान करना. To interrupt with loud unfriendly questions or statements.
366. Heinous ..... जघन्य ..... Atrocious.
367. Heir ..... उत्तराधिकारी ..... One who legally receives money or title.
368. Hermetic ..... वायुरूद्ध ..... Air-tight.
369. Hermitage ..... मठ ..... Home of a hermit.
370. Hideous ..... भद्दा ..... Extremely ugly/bad.
371. Hobble ..... लँगड़ा कर चलना ..... To walk in a way as if the leg is injured.
372. Homage ..... श्रद्धाँजलि ..... Deep respect shown.
373. Honorary ..... अवैतनिक ..... To work without salary.
374. Honourable ..... आदरणीय ..... Respectable.
375. Horde ..... समूह ..... A large group of people.
376. Horrendous ..... भयावह ..... Horrifying.
377. Hulk ..... बेडौल ..... Large and heavy.
378. Hurdle ..... रूकावट ..... Obstacle.
379. Hush up ..... रफा-दफा करना ..... Trying to prevent the discovery of particular facts.
380. Ideal ..... आदर्श ..... Without fault/to be perfect.
381. Idle ..... बेकार, बिना काम का ..... Not working.
382. Illegal gratification नाजायज रूप से प्राप्त संतुष्टि ..... Unlawful satisfaction.
383. Illegible ..... अपठनीय ..... Which cannot be read.
384. Illicit ..... अवैध ..... Disapproved by the society.
385. Imbecility ..... मूर्खता ..... Stupidity.
386. Imbibe ..... सोख लेना ..... To absorb/receive.
387. Immerse ..... डुबाना ..... To become completely absorbed.
388. Imminent ..... तुरंत ..... Likely to happen very soon.
389. Immolate ..... जला कर बलि देना ..... Offer as a sacrifice by burning.
390. Immune ..... प्रतिरक्षित होना ..... Resistant to.
391. Immure ..... बन्दी बनाना ..... Imprison.
392. Immutable ..... अपरिवर्तनीय ..... Unchangeable.
393. Impairment ..... अक्षम ..... Handicap and disabled.
394. Impalpable ..... जो आसानी से समझ में न आए ..... Difficult to feel or understand.
395. Impasse ..... अंधा मोड़ ..... A deadlock.
396. Imperialism ..... साम्राज्यवाद ..... System in which a country rules other countries.

397. Implicate ..... किसी अपराध में फँसाना ..... To show that somone is involved in a crime.
398. Impound ..... जब्त कर लेना ..... Seize and take legal possession of something.
399. Impromptu ..... बिना तैयारी के ..... Done/said without preparation.
400. Impulse ..... कुछ करने का आवेग ..... Sudden urge to do something.
401. Impunity ..... दण्ड से रहित ..... Freedom from punishment.
402. Incarnate ..... मानव रूप में ..... In human form.
403. Incessant ..... लगातार ..... Never stopping.
404. Incision ..... चीरा ..... An opening made by a sharp tool.
405. Incongruous .... बेमेल ..... Unusual/different from others.
406. Inconspicuous . जो आसानी से दिखाई न दे ..... Not easily noticed or seen.
407. Incumbent ..... आवश्यक ..... Necessary as a duty.
408. Incur ..... कुछ अप्रिय अनुभव करना जैसे-घाटा ..... To experience something usually unpleasant.
409. Indelible ..... स्थायी ..... Unable to be removed.
410. Indigence ..... गरीबी ..... Poverty.
411. Inducement ..... प्रलोभन ..... Act done to persuade someone or something.
412. Indulge ..... आसक्त होना ..... Allow oneself something enjoyable.
413. Inhibition ..... हिचक ..... A feeling preventing one from acting naturally.
414. Insane ..... पागल ..... Mentally ill.
415. Instigate ..... उकसाना ..... To urge to do some action.
416. Interlocutor .... वार्तालाप करने वाला ..... Someone involved in a conversation.
417. Intermittent ... रूक-रूक के ..... Not happening regularly or continuously.
418. Intertwined ..... गूँथा हुआ ..... To be twisted together.
419. Intimidate ..... डराना ..... Frighten.
420. Intruder ..... घुसपैठिया ..... One who enters a place without permission.
421. Irony ..... विड़म्बना ..... Meaning opposite but in a sarcastic manner.
422. Irrevocable ..... जो बदला ना जा सके ..... Impossible to change.
423. Isolate ..... अलग-थलग करना ..... To place apart or alone.
424. Jack ..... उठाना ..... To raise something/increase the price.

425. Jamboree ..... जमावड़ा (खुशी मनाने के लिए) ..... A large gathering to have fun.
426. Jeopardy ..... खतरे में ..... In danger.
427. Jittery ..... परेशान, घबराया हुआ ..... Nervous.
428. Jovial ..... हँसमुख ..... Good natured.
429. Jubilation ..... जश्न ..... Rejoicing.
430. Juncture ..... जोड़ ..... Joining point.
431. kneed ..... गूँथना ..... To prepare dough.
432. Knotty ..... जटिल ..... Difficult to solve.
433. Languor ..... शांतिपूर्ण ..... Quiet/peaceful.
434. Lanky ..... लम्बा-पतला ..... Long and thin (not attractive).
435. Latent ..... गुप्त ..... Dormant.
436. Laud ..... तारीफ करना ..... To praise.
437. Laurels ..... सम्मान/ तारीफ ..... Honour/praise.
438. Lax ..... लापरवाह ..... Careless.
439. Lechery ..... विलासिता ..... Lustfulness.
440. Leery ..... शंकित ..... Suspicious.
441. Legend ..... पुरानी और प्रसिद्ध कथा ..... Very old and popular story.
442. Legitimate ..... जायज ..... Allowed by law.
443. Lenient ..... उदारात्मक ..... Not strict.
444. Lessen ..... कम करना ..... To make less strong.
445. Lethargic ..... आलसी ..... Lacking energy/lazy.
446. Liability ..... दायित्व ..... Legally responsible.
447. Lopsided ..... तिरछा ..... With one side lower than the other.
448. Loquacious ..... बातूनी ..... Talkative/Garrulous.
449. Lunacy ..... पागलपन ..... Insanity.
450. Macho ..... मर्दाना ..... Masculine.
451. Magnitude ..... तीव्रता ..... The large size or importance of something.
452. Majestic ..... शक्तिशाली/ राजसी ..... Powerful/dignified and impressive.
453. Malady ..... बिमारी ..... An illness.
454. Malcontent ..... असंतुष्ट ..... Person dissatisfied with existing state of affairs.
455. Malign ..... हानिकारक ..... Baleful, harmful, Deadly.
456. Mammoth ..... विशाल ..... Huge.
457. Maniac ..... सनकी ..... A person who behaves in an uncontrolled manner.

458. Manifestation . अभिव्यक्ति ..... Clear to become noticeable.
459. Marine ..... समुद्रीय ..... Related to sea.
460. Massacre ..... नरसंहार ..... An act of killing many people.
461. Maze ..... जाल ..... A complicated set of path or passages.
462. Melancholy ..... दुखी ..... Sad.
463. Menace ..... समस्या ..... A dangerous or troublesome person/ situation.
464. Milestone ..... मील का पत्थर ..... An important event in the history of someone/something.
465. Miniscule ..... काफी छोटा ..... Very small.
466. Mirth ..... खुशी ..... Laughter, happiness.
467. Miscreant ..... बदमाश ..... One who behaves badly/doesn't obey rules.
468. Mitigate ..... कम करना ..... To make/become less severe.
469. Momentum ..... संवेग, बल ..... The force that keeps motion on.
470. Monstrous ..... विशाल/ भयावह ..... Like a monster (cruel and/or very big).
471. Morbidity ..... विकृत/ अस्वस्थ ..... Unpleasant and strange.
472. Moron ..... बेवकूफ ..... A stupid person.
473. Mounting ..... बढ़ता हुआ ..... Gradually increasing.
474. Mow ..... कुचल देना ..... Kill by knocking down with vehicle.
475. Mull ..... विचार करना ..... To think carefully about something.
476. Muster ..... एकत्र करना ..... Gather together/sum up a feeling.
477. Mutilate ..... नाश करना ..... To damage severely.
479. Mythology ..... प्राचीन कथा ..... Myths in general.
480. Myth ..... मिथक ..... Ancient story.
481. Nadir ..... निचला स्तर ..... The worst moment/the lowest point.
482. Nape ..... गर्दन ..... The back of the neck.
483. Nemesis ..... प्रतिद्वन्दी जिसे हराना मुश्किल हो ..... Rival that is difficult to defeat.
484. Neologism ..... किसी शब्द का नया अर्थ ..... New meaning.
485. Neophyte ..... नौसिखिया ..... Beginner, novice.
486. Nexus ..... साठ-गांठ ..... Connection.
487. Nightmare ..... दुस्वप्न ..... Frightening dream/an unpleasant experience.
488. Nocturnal ..... निशाचर ..... Occurring/ active at night.
489. Nomad ..... अस्थायी आवास वाले जनजाति के सदस्य Member of a tribe who travels from place to place.

490. Nonchalant ..... उदासीन/भाव हीन ..... Careless/ lacking interest.
491. Oblivion ..... विस्मृति ..... The state of being unaware/ forgotten.
492. Obnoxious ..... घृणित ..... Unpleasant.
493. Obscene ..... अश्लील ..... Rude or shocking.
494. Obsessive ..... तीव्र इच्छा रखना ..... Related to thinking about something constantly.
495. Obsolete ..... पुराना ..... Not in use any more.
496. Obstinate ..... हठी ..... Stubborn.
497. Occlude ..... बंद करना ..... close up or block.
498. Occult ..... गुप्त (जादू-टोना से सम्बन्धित) ..... Secret, mysterious, relating to magical power.
499. Ogre ..... शैतान ..... A frightening character of children's stories who eats children.
500. Ombudsman .... लोकपाल ..... Officer who deals with complaints.
501. Ominious ..... कुछ बुरा होने का आभास ..... Suggesting that something unpleasant is likely to happen.
502. Opportunist ..... अवसरवादी ..... One who grabs every opportunity.
503. Optimistic ..... आशावादी ..... One who is hopeful.
504. Orator ..... वक्ता ..... A skilled speaker.
505. Ordain ..... आदेश देना ..... Order officially.
506. Ostensible ..... दिखावटी ..... Showy.
507. Oust ..... निकाल देना ..... Force out from the position of power.
508. Outrage ..... बेइज्जती करना ..... Insult/offence.
509. Overestimate .. ज्यादा आकलन करना ..... To think that one is greater than he really is.
510. Palate ..... तालु/ स्वाद परखने की शक्ति ..... The top part of the inside of your mouth/Appreciation for food or drink.
511. Palatial ..... महलनुमा ..... A huge and splendid house.
512. Paltry ..... मूल्यहीन ..... Worthless.
513. Pan ..... आलोचना करना ..... Criticise harshly.
514. Panacea ..... रामवाण ..... A remedy for all diseases.
515. Panache ..... निपुणता ..... Confidence/elegance/style.
516. Pandemic ..... व्यापक ..... Widespread.
517. Pandemonium . शोर शराबा ..... Great confusion/noisy disorder.
518. Panic ..... डर ..... Sudden uncontrolled fear.
519. Paramount ..... सर्वोच्च ..... Supreme, zenith.

520. Parched ..... सूखा ..... Dried out due to heat.
521. Pariah ..... सामाजिक बहिष्कार ..... Social outcast.
522. Parley ..... सम्मेलन ..... Conference.
523. Parochial ..... संकीर्ण नजरिया वाला ..... Narrow in outlook.
524. Patronage ..... संरक्षण ..... The support given to an organization.
525. Pawn ..... प्यादा ..... People of little importance.
526. Peck ..... हल्का चुम्बन ..... Kiss lightly.
527. Peddler ..... रेहड़ी वाला ..... One who travels door to door to sell something.
528. Pellet ..... छोटा गोला ..... A small ball of something.
529. Pelt ..... फेंकना ..... Throw.
530. Perfidious ..... विश्वासघाती ..... Unable to be trusted.
531. Persevere ..... मेहनत करना (मुश्किलों के बावजूद) ..... Continue inspite of difficulty.
532. Persist ..... जारी रहना ..... Continue and last.
533. Personify ..... मानवीकरण करना ..... Represent in human form.
534. Perspire ..... पसीना बहाना ..... To sweat.
535. Perturb ..... तंग करना ..... Disturb.
536. Perverse ..... विकृत/भ्रष्ट ..... Contrary to what is accepted or expected.
537. Pessimist ..... निराशावादी ..... One who is not hopeful by nature.
538. Pious ..... धार्मिक ..... Religious.
539. Pivotal ..... मुख्य ..... Central and important.
540. Plaint ..... याचिका ..... A legal complaint.
541. Plight ..... परेशानी/दुख ..... Unpleasant condition.
542. Polygamy ..... बहु-विवाह ..... To have more that one wife/ husband.
543. Pomp ..... धूमधाम ..... Splendid and colourful ceremony.
544. Populace ..... आम जनता ..... Ordinary people.
545. Posthumously . मृत्यु-उपरान्त ..... Awarded/published after death.
546. Pragmatic ..... व्यवहारिक ..... Practical.
547. Precedent ..... पूर्वगामी ..... An action already taken place/ decision already taken.
548. Precincts ..... जहाँ कार इत्यादि ले जाना वर्जित है/ अहाता ..... Part of a city where vehicles are not allowed/limits.
549. Predicament ... अप्रिय हालात जिससे निकालना मुश्किल है An unpleasant situation, which is difficult to get out of.

550. Prejudice ..... पूर्वाग्रह ..... Unfair opinion.
551. Preposterous ... बेवकूफी भरा ..... Very foolish/ridiculous.
552. Prey ..... शिकार ..... Victim/an animal hunted by another for food.
553. Proclivity ..... झुकाव ..... Tendency or inclination.
554. Proliferation ... प्रचुर मात्रा में उत्पन्न होना ..... Increasing greatly and suddenly in number.
555. Promising ..... आशाजनक ..... Showing signs of being successful in future.
556. Propensity ..... बुरे बर्ताव के तरफ झुकाव ..... Tendency towards behaving badly.
557. Provocative ..... उकसाने वाला ..... Causing an angry reaction/ inciting.
558. Prudence ..... समझदारी ..... Wisdom.
559. Pugnacious ..... युद्धप्रिय ..... Quarrelsome.
560. Punitive ..... दण्डात्मक ..... Intended as a punishment.
561. Purge ..... छुटकारा पाना/ शुद्ध करना ..... To get rid of people you don't like/to make free for harmful things.
562. Pyre ..... चिता ..... A large pile of wood on which a dead body is burnt.
563. Quantum ..... किसी चीज की इकाई ..... Unit of something.
564. Quell ..... रोकना ..... To stop something especially by using force.
565. Quench ..... बुझाना (प्यास) ..... satisfy (thirst).
566. Query ..... शंका/सवाल ..... A question/doubt.
567. Quiescent ..... सुप्त ..... Dormant, at rest.
568. Quietude ..... शांति ..... Tranquility.
569. Quotidian ..... साधारण ..... Common/ordinary.
570. Racial ..... नस्लवाद से संबंधित ..... Connected with a particular race or country.
571. Rancor ..... नफरत ..... Bitterness, hatred.
572. Rankle ..... परेशान करना ..... Irritate.
573. Rapport ..... तालमेल ..... Harmony.
574. Ratify ..... अंगीकार करना ..... Confirm formally by signing it or voting for it.
575. Ravenous ..... बहुत भुखा ..... Extremely hungry.
576. Raze ..... नष्ट करना ..... To destroy.
577. Rebellious ..... विरोधी ..... One who opposes the system.

578. Rebuff ..... सहायता स्वीकार करने से मना करना ..... To refuse a helpful suggestion.
579. Rebuke ..... बुरी तरह से डॉटना ..... Scold harshly.
580. Recalcitrant .... उद्दण्ड ..... One who is unwilling to obey orders.
581. Reckless ..... असावधान ..... Without caring for the result of an action.
582. Recluse ..... अकेला ..... One who lives alone.
583. Recuperate ..... ठीक होना बिमारी के बाद ..... To recover from illness.
584. Redundant ..... गैर जरूरी ..... Unnecessary.
585. Refute ..... खण्डन करना ..... To say/prove that a person opinion is wrong.
586. Regime ..... शासन ..... Rule of.
587. Reign ..... शासन ..... The monarch's period of rule.
588. Rein ..... लगाम/ लगाम लगाना ..... Piece of leather which helps you to control the headgear of a horse/to bridle/to restrain.
589. Relegate ..... अवनति करना ..... Place in a lower position.
590. Reluctant ..... अनिच्छुक ..... Unwilling.
591. Remorse ..... अफसोस ..... Feeling of guilt or regret.
592. Renewable ..... नवीनीकरणीय ..... Which can be used again and again.
593. Repent ..... पछताना ..... To be sorry for something.
594. Repercussions . परिणाम ..... Consequence.
595. Replica ..... हु-ब-हु ..... An exact copy of an object.
596. Reprehensible . निन्दनीय ..... Deserving condemnation.
597. Reprieve ..... बचाव ..... An escape from a bad situation.
598. Repugnant ..... प्रतिकूल/ निराशाजनक ..... Unpleasant behavior or belief.
599. Resentment .... नापसंद ..... Feeling of dislike.
600. Respite ..... बचाव ..... Relief from something.
601. Resurgence ..... किसी विचारधारा का फिर से सर उठाना . A new increase of idea which had been forgotten for some time.
602. Resurrect ..... फिर से जीवित करना ..... To bring someone back to life.
603. Retrieve ..... फिर से प्राप्त करना ..... To find and bring back something.
604. Reverence ..... सम्मान ..... Respect.
605. Rhetoric ..... प्रभावशाली भाषण (परन्तु जरूरी नहीं कि ईमानदार भी) Effective speech but not essentially sincere.
606. Rumour ..... अफवाह ..... Piece of news that may or may not be true.

607. Ruthless ..... क्रूर ..... Cruel.
608. Sacrament ..... धार्मिक कार्य ..... An important religious ceremony.
609. Sadist ..... परपीड़क ..... One who obtains pleasure by hurting others.
610. Salubrious ..... स्वास्थ्य के लिए लाभदायक ..... Good for health.
611. Salvation ..... मोक्ष ..... The act of saving someone from danger, loss sin etc.
612. Sanctity ..... पवित्रता ..... The quality of being holy.
613. Sanguine ..... आशांवित ..... Hopeful.
614. Sarcasm ..... व्यंग्यकारी ..... Scornful remarks.
615. Scant ..... अपर्याप्त/ कम ..... Barely enough.
616. Scrap ..... टुकड़ा/बकझक ..... Small pieces /Argument.
617. Scum ..... गंदगी (तरल पदार्थ के सतह पर) ..... Dirt (on the surface of liquid).
618. Seasoned ..... परिपक्व ..... Having a lot of experience.
619. Sensuous ..... इन्द्रिय सम्बन्धी (शारीरिक रूप से आकर्षक) ..... Relating to physical senses./ Physically attractive.
620. Severity ..... तीव्रता ..... Extremity.
621. Shambles ..... बुरी हालत में ..... A state of confusion/untidiness.
622. Shirk ..... जी चुराना ..... To avoid work/ duty.
623. Shrewd ..... धूर्त ..... Based on clear understanding and Judgement.
624. Shroud ..... छिपाना ..... Hide.
625. Shrug ..... कन्धे उचका कर अनभिज्ञता/उदासीनता जाहिर करना ..... To raise and then lower the shoulder to show lack of knowledge/interest.
626. Site ..... भवन-निर्माण आदि का स्थल ..... Place where something is built.
627. Sizzle ..... काफी गर्म होना ..... (of food) make a hissing sound when being fried.
628. Skeptical ..... सन्देही ..... Doubtful.
629. Slay ..... हत्या करना ..... Murder.
630. Solace ..... दिलासा ..... Comfort in time of distress.
631. Solidarity ..... सर्मथन ..... Support.
632. Solitary ..... अकेला ..... The only person/thing in given place.
633. Spectre ..... संदेह ..... The idea of something unpleasant that may happen in future.
634. Spinster ..... कुँवारी महिला ..... A woman who is not married.
635. Sporadic ..... अनियमित रूप से ..... Occurring at irregular intervals.
636. Spouse ..... जीवन साथी ..... Life partner.

637. Spurious ..... संदेहास्पद ..... False and not what it appears to be.

638. Squirm ..... छटपटाना ..... To move from side to side in an awkward way because of nervousness, pain etc.

639. Stack ..... एक के ऊपर एक रखना ..... Pile on one another.

640. Stagger ..... लड़खड़ाना ..... To walk showing imbalance.

641. Strangle ..... गला घोंट कर मारना ..... To kill by pressing the throat.

642. Stringent ..... कठोर ..... Strict and demanding.

643. Stroke ..... थपकी/घड़ी की घंटे की घंटी ..... An act of hitting/a sound of a striking clock.

644. Subdue ..... तीव्रता कम करना ..... To reduce the force of something.

645. Substantiate ... वक्तव्य को प्रमाणित करना ..... To support a claim.

646. Subterfuge ..... कुछ हासिल करने का गलत तरीका ..... A trick or a dishonest way of achieving something.

647. Subtle ..... सूक्ष्म/बारीक लेकिन महत्त्वपूर्ण ..... Small but important.

648. Succour ..... समय पर सहायता ..... Help given to someone in need.

649. Sully ..... दाग लगाना ..... Stain/to spoil someone's perfect reputation.

650. Sultry ..... उमस भरा ..... Warm and moist.

651. Sumptuous ..... भरपूर ..... Luxurious/showing wealth.

652. Suo-moto ..... खुद ही ..... On its own.

653. Surge ..... तीव्रता से बढ़ना ..... A sudden or great increase.

654. Swathe ..... कपड़े/जमीन का चौड़ा टुकड़ा ..... Broad strip of cloth/land.

655. Sycophancy ..... चापलूसी ..... Attempt to win favour by flattery.

656. Symposium ..... विचार-गोष्ठी ..... Official meeting.

657. Synchronize .... एक ही समय पर होना ..... To (Cause to) happen at the same time.

658. Tangible ..... जिसे छू कर महसूस किया जा सके ..... Real, which can be touched or experienced.

659. Tawdry ..... सस्ता एवं भड़कीला ..... Cheap and gaudy.

660. Temerity ..... हिम्मत ..... Boldness.

661. Temperate ..... संयम रखने वाला ..... Self controlled.

662. Tempestuous .. प्रबल भावना से ओत-प्रोत ..... Full of strong emotion.

663. Tendentious .... किसी मत का पक्षधर होना ..... Supporting a particular opinion.

664. Tenements ..... निवास स्थान ..... A large building divided into apartments.

665. Terse ..... संक्षिप्त ..... Concise/using few words.
666. Thumping ..... महत्त्वपूर्ण ..... Extremely great or important.
667. Thunder ..... गर्जन ..... Sudden large noise from the sky.
668. Thunderbolt .... बिजली का कड़कना एवं बादल का गर्जन A flash of lightening and sound of thunder.
669. Timid ..... डरपोक ..... Lacking courage/ cowardly.
670. Tiptoe ..... पैरो के ऊँगलियों पर चलना ..... To walk on toes with heels not touching the ground.
671. Tormentor ..... शोषक ..... One who causes sufferings.
672. Tout ..... दलाल ..... The act/the person encouraging sale of anything.
673. Toxic ..... जहरीला ..... Poisonous.
674. Traffic ..... गैर कानूनी चीज का व्यापार ..... Illegal trade.
675. Trail ..... रास्ता / धीरे चलना ..... Path/ to follow the path of someone/ to move slowly.
676. Traitor ..... गद्दार ..... A person who is not loyal.
677. Trauma ..... मानसिक आघात ..... Severe emotional shock.
678. Treason ..... गद्दारी ..... The act of being not loyal.
679. Triumph ..... बड़ी जीत ..... A great success.
680. Twitch ..... फड़कना ..... Any part of body making sudden, small movement.
681. Unanimous ..... सर्वसम्मत ..... To agree/support together.
682. Uncanny ..... विचित्र ..... Strange/impossible to explain.
683. Under-privileged गरीब ..... Poor.
684. Underestimate कम करके आँकना ..... To estimate that one is inferior to what he really is.
685. Uninterested ... दिलचस्पी ना होना ..... Not interested.
686. Unison ..... एक साथ ..... Two/more things happening at same time.
687. Unruly ..... अनियंत्रित ..... Not easy to control.
688. Upbeat ..... आशावादी ..... Cheerful, optimistic.
689. Uproar ..... शोर-शराबा ..... A loud noise or disturbance.
690. Uproot ..... जड़ से उखाड़ देना ..... To remove from their home place/ root.
691. Vague ..... अस्पष्ट ..... Not clearly expressed.
692. Valediction ..... विदाई भाषण ..... Speech in which one says goodbye.
693. Validate ..... प्रमाणित करना ..... Confirm, Ratify.
694. Vandalism ..... संपत्ति नष्ट करने की क्रिया ..... Crime of damaging property.

695. Veil ..... नकाब/घूँघट ..... Thing that hides or disguises.
696. Vengeance ..... बदले की भावना ..... Revenge.
697. Vengeful ..... बदले की भावना वाला ..... To have strong desire to punish someone who has hurt one or one's dear ones.
698. Venom ..... जहर ..... Poison.
699. Verbose ..... बातों से भरा ..... Using more words than necessary.
700. Verily ..... सत्यतः/वस्तुतः ..... In a completely truthful way.
701. Vestige ..... अवशेष ..... A still existing small part of something.
702. Veteran ..... अनुभवी ..... A person who has a lot of experience.
703. Vicarious ..... प्रतिनिधिक/सीधे तौर पर नहीं ..... Experienced in one's imagination rather than directly.
704. Vicious ..... बुरा/दुष्ट ..... Violent and aggressive.
705. Victimize ..... सताना ..... To treat someone in a cruel and unfair manner.
706. Vigorous ..... ऊर्जावान ..... Energetic.
707. Virtuous ..... नैतिक गुण वाला ..... Having good moral qualities.
708. Volatile ..... क्षणिक ..... Likely to change suddenly.
709. Voluminous ..... भारी-भरकम ..... Loose and full.
710. Vow ..... कसम ..... Solemn promise.
711. Vulnerable ..... जिसे आसानी से चोट पहुँचाया जा सकता है। Prone to physical/ emotional hurt.
712. Vie ..... प्रतिस्पर्धा करना ..... To compete with other people to obtain something.
713. Wan ..... कमजोर ..... Weak/pale/tired-looking.
714. Wanderlust ..... घूमने की इच्छा रखना ..... Strong desire to travel.
715. Wholeheartedly पूरे दिल से ..... With complete interest and enthusiasm.
716. Witty ..... वाकपटु ..... Using words in a clever manner.
717. Wizard ..... जादुगर ..... Magician.
718. Woes ..... दुख ..... Sorrow/distress.
719. Wretch ..... अभागा ..... An unhappy person.
720. Yawn ..... उबासी लेना ..... To breathe taking in a lot of air with mouth open.
721. Yearn ..... लालसा करना ..... Crave.
722. Zealous ..... उत्साहित ..... Enthusiastic, causing excitement.

18 SYNONYMS

CHAPTER

Directions: in questions no. 1 to 274, out of the four alternatives, choose the one which best expresses the meaning of the given word and mark it in the answer sheet.

1. **Irrevocable**
   (a) Change
   (b) Done
   (c) Unalterable
   (d) Reversible
2. **Adorn**
   (a) Trust
   (b) Writer
   (c) Suspect
   (d) Beautify
3. **Repose**
   (a) Place
   (b) Keep
   (c) Rest
   (d) Replace
4. **Commotion**
   (a) Cheer
   (b) Imbalance
   (c) Disturbance
   (d) Movement
5. **Nurture**
   (a) To encourage
   (b) To grow
   (c) To see
   (d) To maintain
6. **Deny**
   (a) Regain
   (b) Refuse
   (c) Repair
   (d) Reduce
7. **Abuse**
   (a) Use
   (b) Praise
   (c) Scorn
   (d) Raise
8. **Docile**
   (a) Submissive
   (b) Stubborn
   (c) Strong
   (d) Changeable
9. **Considerate**
   (a) Agreeable
   (b) Kind
   (c) Like-minded
   (d) Thoughtful
10. **Irresolute**
    (a) Undecided
    (b) Angry
    (c) Ignorant
    (d) Firm
11. **Frugal**
    (a) Economical
    (b) Miserly
    (c) Splendid
    (d) Hungry
12. **Motive**
    (a) Reason
    (b) Occasion
    (c) Intention
    (d) Preparation
13. **Pity**
    (a) Offence
    (b) Mercy
    (c) Kindness
    (d) Joy
14. **Quash**
    (a) Question
    (b) Pledge
    (c) Reject
    (d) Slash
15. **Restrict**
    (a) Curtail
    (b) Prohibit
    (c) Retain
    (d) Retail
16. **Anticipate**
    (a) Antagonise
    (b) Expect
    (c) Accept
    (d) Hope
17. **Tremendous**
    (a) Awesome
    (b) Remarkable
    (c) Considerable
    (d) Excessive
18. **Meticulous**
    (a) Correct
    (b) Clean
    (c) Methodical
    (d) Painstaking
19. **Abundant**
    (a) Sufficient
    (b) Plentiful
    (c) Significant
    (d) Vibrant
20. **Acquaint**
    (a) Arouse
    (b) Introduce
    (c) Appoint
    (d) Acquire
21. **Change**
    (a) Alter
    (b) Renew
    (c) Review
    (d) Repeat

22. Surreptitiously
(a) Calmly
(b) Secretly
(c) Suggestively
(d) Quitely

23. Forebode
(a) Alarm
(b) Foretell
(c) Failure
(d) Forefront

24. Genuine
(a) Good
(b) Real
(c) Attractive
(d) Lovable

25. Adverse
(a) Negative
(b) Facilitating
(c) Decorative
(d) Derogative

26. Elastic
(a) Rubbery
(b) Flexible
(c) Expensive
(d) Exciting

27. Vacillate
(a) Waver
(b) Never
(c) Quiver
(d) Queer

28. Impeccable
(a) Perfect
(b) Fair
(c) Faultless
(d) Criminal

29. Impediment
(a) Clear
(b) Ailment
(c) Incapable
(d) Obstruction

30. Advance
(a) Reduce
(b) Halt
(c) Progress
(d) Extend

31. Prognosis
(a) Diagnosis
(b) Forecast
(c) Preface
(d) Identity

32. Poach
(a) Catch
(b) Hunt
(c) Preach
(d) Plunder

33. Repartee
(a) Refuse
(b) Celebrate
(c) Quick witty reply
(d) Question

34. Exhort
(a) Recommend
(b) Coax
(c) Urge
(d) Push

35. Lurid
(a) Happy
(b) Abundant
(c) Bright
(d) Shocking

36. Familiar
(a) Well-known
(b) Familial
(c) Relative
(d) Common

37. Dessert
(a) Wasteland
(b) Abandon
(c) Sweet-dish
(d) Broth

38. Affiliate
(a) Control
(b) Associate
(c) Copy
(d) Discriminate

39. Explicit
(a) Clear
(b) Obvious
(c) Cautious
(d) Exorbitant

40. Diligent
(a) Intelligent
(b) Energetic
(c) Modest
(d) Industrious

41. Infuriate
(a) Burn
(b) Disgrace
(c) Threaten
(d) Enrage

42. Prospective
(a)Preceded
(b) Prosperous
(c) Perplexed
(d) Possible

43. Lousy
(a) Unbearable
(b)Awful
(c) Loose
(d) Stinking

44. Accentuated
(a) Accent
(b) Devalued
(c) Mitigated
(d) Sharpened

45. Predominantly
(a) Emphatically
(b) Forcefully
(c) Mostly
(d) Profoundly

46. Paucity
(a) Sincerity
(b) Shortfall
(c) Publicity
(d) Downfall

47. Avert
(a) Hide
(b) Obey
(c) Excuse
(d) Avoid

48. Pensive
(a) Careless
(b) Thoughtful
(c) Penitent
(d) Unattached

49. Cordial
(a) Smooth
(b) Friendly
(c) Sophisticated
(d) Reserved

50. Provisional
(a) Casual
(b) Lucky
(c) Visible
(d) Temporary

51. Horrendous
(a) Very huge
(b) Greatly unpleasant
(c) Mildly sincere
(d) Most pleasant

52. Authentic
(a) Admirable
(b) Genuine
(c) Adjustable
(d) None of the above

53. Rectify
(a) Correct
(b) Alter
(c) Erase
(d) Continue

54. Miraculous
(a) Mysterious
(b) Sudden
(c) Amazing
(d) Unexpected

55. Warranty
(a) Threat
(b) Guarantee
(c) Order for arrest
(d) Issue

56. Knave
(a) Emperor
(b) Enchanter
(c) Soldier
(d) Scoundrel

57. Prodigal
(a) Huge
(b) Prodigious
(c) Enormous
(d) Wasteful

58. Impost
(a) Fertilizer
(b) Dispatch
(c) Tax
(d) Postage

59. Coarse
(a) Academic
(b) Grain
(c) Rough
(d) Training

60. Forego
(a) Renounce
(b) Disown
(c) Leave
(d) Accumulate

61. Recipients
(a) Creators
(b) Donors
(c) Receivers
(d) Instigators

62. Frontier
(a) Edge
(b) Landmark
(c) Boundary
(d) Corner

63. Rout
(a) Death
(b) Defeat
(c) Loss
(d) Crash

64. Irreproachable
(a) Remarkable
(b) Extraordinary
(c) Faultless
(d) Immense

65. Felicity
(a) Prosperity
(b) Honesty
(c) Bliss
(d) Sorrow

66. Judicious
(a) Biased
(b) Sensible
(c) Exact
(d) Honest

67. Transpired
(a) Was communicated
(b) Was discussed
(c) Happened
(d) Conspired

68. Obstinate
(a) Foolish
(b) Unyielding
(c) Unreasonable
(d) Mischievous

69. Sundry
(a) Countless
(b) Various
(c) Certain
(d) Several

70. Menial
(a) Lowly
(b) Tough
(c) Dangerous
(d) Low-paid

71. Impetus
(a) Financial support
(b) Accelerated growth
(c) Retarded growth
(d) Driving force

72. Emulate
(a) Praise
(b) Find out
(c) Follow
(d) Assess

73. Boast
(a) Cry
(b) Abuse
(c) Hate
(d) Brag

74. Mass murder
(a) Patricide
(b) Fratricide
(c) Regicide
(d) Genocide

75. Executioner
(a) Executive engineer
(b) Explorer
(c) Experimenter
(d) One who inflict capital punishment

76. Maiden speech
(a) Farewell speech
(b) Short speech
(c) First speech
(d) Speech about women

77. Interfere
(a) Meddle
(b) Help
(c) Object
(d) Copy

78. Tedious
(a) Tiresome
(b) Dull
(c) Interesting
(d) Exciting

79. Magnificent
(a) Magnanimous
(b) Modest
(c) Generous
(d) Splendid

80. Spirited
(a) Heated
(b) Drunk
(c) Enthusiastic
(d) Possessed

81. Gloomy
(a) Misty
(b) Morose
(c) Murky
(d) Shadowy

82. Grumble
(a) To scold
(b) To complain
(c) To sheer
(d) To fight

83. Crude
(a) Unrefined
(b) Cruel
(c) Rude
(d) Savage

84. Hostile
(a) Poor
(b) Antagonistic
(c) Delinquent
(d) Reticent

85. Friendly
(a) Gentle
(b) Amiable
(c) Considerate
(d) Industrious

86. Veil
(a) Seclude
(b) Moan
(c) Conceal
(d) Repent

87. Recurrent
(a) Flowing backward
(b) Healing quickly
(c) Happening repeatedly
(d) Timely

88. Peculiar
(a) Same
(b) Strange
(c) Surprising
(d) Tiring

89. Prosper
(a) Cherish
(b) Promote
(c) Thrive
(d) Rich

90. Eminent
(a) Confident
(b) Authentic
(c) Ingenious
(d) Illustrious

91. Fortitude
(a) Composure
(b) Confidence
(c) Courage
(d) Produce

92. Sanitise
(a) Pleasant
(b) Disinfect
(c) Pious
(d) Crazy

93. Favourite
(a) Preferred
(b) Focused
(c) Pleasurable
(d) Disliked

94. Novice
(a) Beginner
(b) Virtuous
(c) Trainer
(d) Learner

95. Adversary
(a) Poverty
(b) Contestant
(c) Opponent
(d) Intruder

96. Dishonour
(a) Infamy
(b) Glory
(c) Uncouth
(d) Wicked

97. Erudite
(a) Scholarly
(b) Friendly
(c) Miserly
(d) Lovely

98. Idea
(a) Comprehension
(b) Notion
(c) Emotion
(d) Gist

99. Takes after
(a) Follows
(b) Comes after
(c) Resembles
(d) Imitates

100. Ill-favoured
(a) Unlucky
(b) Weak in health
(c) Short-tempered
(d) Ugly

101. Homage
(a) Humility
(b) Tribute
(c) Obedience
(d) Allegiance

102. Clue
(a) Hint
(b) Inkling
(c) Intimation
(d) Signal

103. Amazement
(a) Shock
(b) Wander
(c) Surprise
(d) Suspicion

104. Consistency
(a) Constancy
(b) Competence
(c) Permanence
(d) Uniformity

105. Electrifying
(a) Attractive
(b) Fearsome
(c) Exciting
(d) Disturbing

106. Refrain
(a) Dissuade
(b) Desist
(c) Prevent
(d) Curb

107. Merited
(a) Deserved
(b) Encouraged
(c) Prompted
(d) Supported

108. Candid
(a) Overconfident
(b) Frank
(c) Arrogant
(d) Careless

109. Zealous
(a) Ardent
(b) Jealous
(c) Furious
(d) Impatient

110. Industrious
(a) Indolent
(b) Industrial
(c) Hard-working
(d) Economic

111. Feasible
(a) Practical
(b) Rejoice
(c) Accentuate
(d) Accurate

112. Atrocity
(a) Envy
(b) Violence
(c) Jealousy
(d) Absurdity

113. Fortify
(a) Create
(b) Generate
(c) Prohibit
(d) Strengthen

114. Pacify
(a) Calm down
(b) Satisfy
(c) Rouse
(d) Rejoice

115. Barren
(a) Good
(b) Wholesome
(c) Unproductive
(d) Profitable

116. Infamy
(a) Notoriety
(b) Glory
(c) Integrity
(d) Familiarity

117. Intrepid
(a) Hesitant
(b) Fearless
(c) Extrovert
(d) Familiarity

118. Perspicuous
(a) Relevant
(b) Precise
(c) Brief
(d) Clear

119. Sufficient
(a) Full
(b) Complete
(c) Enough
(d) Less

120. Benevolent
(a) Beneficial
(b) Kind
(c) Helpful
(d) Supportive

121. Ancestors
(a) Extinct tribes
(b) Relatives
(c) Forefathers
(d) Old people

122. Embrace
(a) Impress
(b) Except
(c) Embarrass
(d) Accept

123. Meek
(a) Light-hearted
(b) Serious
(c) Submissive
(d) Benign

124. Cajole
(a) Insist
(b) Persuade
(c) Direct
(d) Recommend

125. Fragrance
(a) Taste
(b) Aroma
(c) Sight
(d) Touch

126. Fictitious
(a) False
(b) Frail
(c) Foul
(d) Flattering

127. Obscene
(a) Dirty
(b) Unhealthy
(c) Indecent
(d) Unwanted

128. Imitate
(a) Follow
(b) Copy
(c) Think
(d) Allude

129. Enigmatic
(a) Magnetic
(b) Automatic
(c) Speeding
(d) Puzzling

130. Despondent
(a) Deserted
(b) Dejected
(c) Rejected
(d) Repentant

131. Aversion
(a) Aggression
(b) Assertion
(c) Dislike
(d) Impudence

132. Desperation
(a) Depression
(b) Jubilation
(c) Fascination
(d) Hopelessness

133. Jubilant
(a) Brilliant
(b) Proud
(c) Ecstatic
(d) Gloomy

134. Liberty
(a) Freedom
(b) Equality
(c) Charity
(d) Democracy

135. Blister
(a) Chatter
(b) Travel
(c) Attack
(d) Wound

136. Trauma
(a) Accident
(b) Art form
(c) Type of medicine
(d) Emotional shock

137. Fabulous
(a) Beautiful
(b) Marvellous
(c) Interesting
(d) Charming

138. Laudable
(a) Sincere
(b) Praiseworthy
(c) Benevolent
(d) Welcome

139. Surpass
(a) Outdo
(b) Pass over
(c) Overdo
(d) Pass by

140. Defer
(a) Indifferent
(b) Deft
(c) Differ
(d) Postpone

141. Cease
(a) Begin
(b) Stop
(c) Create
(d) Dull

142. Pious
(a) Religious
(b) Sympathetic
(c) Afraid
(d) Faithful

143. Abandon
(a) Forsake
(b) Keep
(c) Cherish
(d) Enlarge

144. Intimidate
(a) Calm down
(b) View
(c) Leave
(d) Frighten

145. Regard
(a) Respect
(b) Liking
(c) Love
(d) Suspicion

146. Swap
(a) Snap
(b) Exchange
(c) Break
(d) Exclude

147. Prudent
(a) Wise
(b) Cunning
(c) Frank
(d) Severe

148. Genius
(a) A generous person
(b) A foreigner
(c) An intellect
(d) An athlete

149. Culmination
(a) Conclusion
(b) Climax
(c) Abyss
(d) Cultivation

150. Sporadic
(a) Surviving
(b) Sweeping
(c) Irregular
(d) Persistent

151. Crass
(a) Casual
(b) Formal
(c) Unrefined
(d) Sterile

152. Accomplish
(a) Amass
(b) Acquire
(c) Adhere
(d) Achieve

153. Cursory
(a) Little
(b) Quick
(c) Eager
(d) Tender

154. Envisaged
(a) Ensured
(b) Idealized
(c) Contemplated
(d) Imagined

155. Clandestine
(a) Awkward
(b) Inconsistent
(c) Secret
(d) Ugly

156. Resentment
(a) Annoyance
(b) Dispatch
(c) Disagreement
(d) Dismissal

157. Obdurate
(a) Angry
(b) Calm
(c) Obsessed
(d) Adamant

158. Obscure
(a) Unknown
(b) Neglectful
(c) Occasional
(d) Old

159. Reluctant
(a) Unwilling
(b) Forego
(c) Redundant
(d) Amendable

160. Revelation
(a) Anticipation
(b) Imagination
(c) Revel in
(d) Disclosure

161. Ostracise
(a) Censure
(b) Sentence
(c) Banish
(d) Berate

162. Appalled
(a) Shocked
(b) Saddened
(c) Scared
(d) Alarmed

163. Imbecility
(a) Stupidity
(b) Rusticity
(c) Verbosity
(d) Incoherence

164. Collusion
(a) Conflict
(b) Secret agreement
(c) Consultation
(d) Misunderstanding

165. Hesitant
(a) Antagonistic
(b) Grumbling
(c) Contradict
(d) Undecided

166. Deceptive
(a) Disagreeable
(b) Misleading
(c) Mistake
(d) Debatable

167. Palpable
(a) Obvious
(b) Immense
(c) Sufficient
(d) Hidden

168. Laid-back
(a) Lie in wait
(b) Sorry state
(c) Lame
(d) Easy-going

169. Sauntering
(a) Jogging
(b) Brisk walking
(c) Travelling
(d) Strolling

170. Pompous
(a) Grandiose
(b) Polished
(c) Modest
(d) Skilled

171. Poignant
(a) Showy
(b) Sad
(c) Silly
(d) Snobbish

172. Querulous
(a) Critical
(b) Curious
(c) Quarrelsome
(d) Ambiguous

173. Audacious
(a) Brilliant
(b) Powerful
(c) Bold
(d) Frightening

174. Perilous
(a) Hazardous
(b) Rigorous
(c) Resilient
(d) Requisite

175. Reverie
(a) Determination
(b) Day-dream
(c) Reality
(d) Realization

176. Genial
(a) Cordial
(b) Unselfish
(c) Careful
(d) Specific

177. Accrue
(a) Accumulate
(b) Accommodate
(c) Grow
(d) Suffice

178. Loquacious
(a) Talkative
(b) Slow
(c) Content
(d) Unclear

179. Vindictive
(a) Imaginative
(b) Accusative
(c) Spiteful
(d) Aggressive

180. Inclement
(a) Selfish
(b) Active
(c) Unfavourable
(d) Inactive

181. Hostility
(a) Illness
(b) Enmity
(c) Disturbance
(d) Derogatory

182. Indifferent
(a) Dissimilar
(b) Various
(c) Interference
(d) Unconcerned

183. Condemn
(a) Censure
(b) Despair
(c) Kill
(d) Hit

184. Defect
(a) Loss
(b) Harm
(c) Shortcoming
(d) Delicate

185. Jealous
(a) Envious
(b) Unhappy
(c) Regretful
(d) Remorse

186. Weary
(a) Careless
(b) Shivering
(c) Troubled
(d) Weak

187. Plausible
(a) Pleasing taste
(b) Seemingly true
(c) Manageable
(d) Cannot be proved

188. Creditable
(a) Able to lend money
(b) Bringing praise
(c) Able to repay a loan
(d) Fit to be believed

189. Salient
(a) Most important
(b) Salt-like taste
(c) Pleasing
(d) Satisfactory

190. Fragile
(a) Soft
(b) Smooth
(c) Flexible
(d) Easily broken

191. Reticent
(a) Sensitive
(b) Secretive
(c) Not feeling well
(d) Not saying much

192. Reciprocal
(a) Formal
(b) Favorable
(c) Mutual
(d) Sustainable

193. Apprise
(a) Inform
(b) Estimate
(c) Admire
(d) Require

194. Consensus
(a) Awareness
(b) General agreement
(c) Careful observation
(d) Praiseworthy

195. Unceremonious
(a) Impolite
(b) Informal
(c) Incomplete
(d) Irregular

196. Treason
(a) Absurdity
(b) Disloyalty
(c) Dishonesty
(d) Deception

197. Amiable
(a) Popular
(b) Generous
(c) Friendly
(d) Reasonable

198. Lucid
(a) Fluent
(b) Clear
(c) Musical
(d) Familiar

199. Ravaged
(a) Destroyed
(b) Spoiled
(c) Conquered
(d) Robbed

200. Perplexed
(a) Annoyed
(b) Disappointed
(c) Puzzled
(d) Ruined

201. Anonymity
(a) Reputation
(b) Publicity
(c) Being unknown
(d) Wrong address

202. Ephemeral
(a) Disturbing
(b) Filthy
(c) Short-lived
(d) Poverty-stricken

203. Caption
(a) Joke
(b) Definition
(c) Meaning
(d) Title

204. Battered
(a) Destroyed
(b) Dashed on
(c) Struck hard
(d) Struck off

205. Extravagant
(a) Hardworking
(b) Good
(c) Extraordinary
(d) Spendthrift

206. Redundant
(a) Superfluous
(b) Uninterested
(c) Introspective
(d) Knowledgeable

207. Hindered
(a) Damaged
(b) Disturbed
(c) Obstructed
(d) Protested

208. Concealed
(a) Covered
(b) Closed
(c) Sealed
(d) Hidden

209. Relish
(a) Realize
(b) Taste
(c) Enjoy
(d) Reveal

210. Acute
(a) Dull
(b) Drowsy
(c) Unpleasant
(d) Sharp

211. Solicit
(a) Command
(b) Request
(c) Sympathize
(d) Agree

212. Surmount
(a) Discount
(b) Surround
(c) Overcome
(d) Capture

213. Pertinent
(a) Indirect
(b) Relevant
(c) Direct
(d) Important

214. Nebulous
(a) Revolutionary
(b) Vague
(c) Starting
(d) Idiotic

215. Ubiquitous
(a) Omnipresent
(b) Omnipotent
(c) Omniscient
(d) Affluent

216. Corroborate
(a) Collaborate
(b) Substantiate
(c) Co-operate
(d) Correlate

217. Adequate
(a) Necessary
(b) Sufficient
(c) Procured
(d) Additional

218. Solecism
(a) Abuse
(b) Witty quip
(c) Clever argument
(d) Grammatical error

219. Delirious
(a) Delicious
(b) Pleasing
(c) Desperate
(d) Excited

220. Licentious
(a) Immoral
(b) Intellectual
(c) Moral
(d) Without license

221. Squander
(a) Expensive
(b) Waste
(c) Litter
(d) Economical

222. Abated
(a) Reduced
(b) Vanished
(c) Increased
(d) Stabilized

223. Abrogate
(a) Repeal
(b) Destroy
(c) Delay
(d) Dismiss

224. Abstemious
(a) Resistant
(b) Temperate
(c) Superstitions
(d) Careful

225. Allegiance
(a) Servility
(b) Obedience
(c) Loyalty
(d) Passivity

226. Amicable
(a) Poisonous
(b) Co-operative
(c) Satisfying
(d) Heartening

227. Ample
(a) Meagre
(b) Quantitative
(c) Sufficient
(d) Tasty

228. Baleful
(a) Harmful
(b) Doubtful
(c) Useful
(d) Helpful

229. Benevolence
(a) Ill will
(b) Morbidity
(c) Kindness
(d) Vision

230. Camouflage
(a) Hide
(b) Reveal
(c) Disguise
(d) Pretend

231. Chivalrous
(a) Crude
(b) Gallant
(c) Handsome
(d)Tinkering

232. Covenant
(a)Case
(b) Coupon
(c) Contract
(d) Settlement

233. Dainty
(a)Carefree
(b)Feminine and happy
(c)Delicacy
(d)Small and graceful

234. Deference
(a) Indifference
(b) Sympathy
(c) Respect
(d) Flattery

235. Dormant
(a) Sleeping
(b) Humble
(c) Quick
(d) Active

236. Dramatic
(a) Unprecedented
(b)Thrilling
(c) Spectacular
(d) Effective

237. Dubious
(a) Doubtful
(b) Disputable
(c) Duplicate
(d) Dangerous

238. Duplicity
(a) Repetition
(b) Artlessness
(c) Deception
(d) Cleverness

239. Eternal
(a) Innumerable
(b) Immeasurable
(c) Prolonged
(d) Perpetual

240. Evince
(a) Look
(b) Try
(c) Apply
(d) Show

241. Evoked
(a) Escaped
(b) Called forth
(c) Produced
(d) Summoned

242. Flabbergasted
(a) Scared
(b) Embarrassed
(c) Dumbfounded
(d) Humiliated

243. Flimsy
(a) Weak
(b) Strong
(c) Justified
(d) Impulsive

244. Garish
(a) Unusual
(b) Exciting
(c) Confused
(d) Gaudy

245. Implacable
(a) Relentless
(b) Unappeasable
(c) Dangerous
(d) Courageous

246. Indict
(a) To accuse
(b) Entrapment
(c) Indoctrination
(d) Inducement

247. Indigent
(a) Indian men
(b) Poor
(c) Guilty
(d) Untried

248. Innocuous
(a) Abominable
(b) Harmless
(c) Harmful
(d) Useful

249. Innuendoes
(a) Indications
(b) Inspiring quotes
(c) Witty remarks
(d) Insinuations

250. Insolent
(a) Violent
(b) Polite
(c) Insulting
(d) Frivolous

251. Irreverence
(a) Disrespect
(b) Cruelty
(c) Unkindness
(d) Invalidity

252. Latent
(a)Primitive
(b) Hidden
(c) Potent
(d) Talented

253. Massive
(a) Tall
(b) Large in size
(c) Total
(d) Little

254. Obnoxious
(a) Depressing
(b) Disgusting
(c) Arrogant
(d) Filthy

255. Panacea
(a) Flatter
(b) Praise
(c) Inactivity
(d) Cure-all

256. Pragmatic
(a) Practical
(b) Playful
(c) Causal
(d) Clever

257. Reparation
(a) Compensation
(b) Co-relation
(c) Aspersion
(d) Delegation

258. Salutary
(a) Premature
(b) Terrible
(c) Disastrous
(d) Beneficial

259. Shrink
(a) Contract
(b) Physician
(c) Reduce
(d) Shrivel

260. Soporific
(a) Soothing
(b) Terrific
(c) Supreme
(d) Sleep-inducing

261. Vagary
(a)Lapse of memory
(b) Companionship
(c) gang
(d) impulse

262. Coax
(a) Pacify
(b) Punish
(c) Persuade
(d) Please

263. Renowned
(a) Notorious
(b) Great
(c) Brave
(d) Famous

264. Blaze
(a) Rage
(b) Rush
(c) Fire
(d) Mark

265. Tangential
(a) partly
(b) forcefully
(c)superficial relevance
(d) fitfully

266. Transparent
(a) Translucent
(b) Opaque
(c) Clear
(d) Sharp

267. Fruitless
(a) Successful
(b) barren
(c) Useless
(d) Insufficient

ANSWER KEY

1.	(c)	2.	(d)	3.	(c)	4.	(c)	5.	(b)	6.	(b)	7.	(c)	8.	(a)	9.	(d)	10.	(a)
11.	(b)	12.	(c)	13.	(b)	14.	(c)	15.	(b)	16.	(b)	17.	(d)	18.	(d)	19.	(b)	20.	(b)
21.	(a)	22.	(b)	23.	(b)	24.	(b)	25.	(a)	26.	(b)	27.	(a)	28.	(c)	29.	(d)	30.	(c)
31.	(b)	32.	(b)	33.	(c)	34.	(c)	35.	(d)	36.	(a)	37.	(c)	38.	(b)	39.	(a)	40.	(d)
41.	(d)	42.	(d)	43.	(b)	44.	(a)	45.	(c)	46.	(b)	47.	(d)	48.	(b)	49.	(b)	50.	(d)
51.	(b)	52.	(b)	53.	(a)	54.	(c)	55.	(b)	56.	(d)	57.	(d)	58.	(c)	59.	(c)	60.	(a)
61.	(c)	62.	(c)	63.	(b)	64.	(c)	65.	(c)	66.	(b)	67.	(c)	68.	(b)	69.	(b)	70.	(a)
71.	(b)	72.	(c)	73.	(d)	74.	(d)	75.	(d)	76.	(c)	77.	(a)	78.	(b)	79.	(d)	80.	(c)
81.	(b)	82.	(b)	83.	(a)	84.	(b)	85.	(b)	86.	(c)	87.	(c)	88.	(b)	89.	(c)	90.	(d)
91.	(c)	92.	(b)	93.	(a)	94.	(a)	95.	(c)	96.	(a)	97.	(a)	98.	(b)	99.	(c)	100.	(a)
101.	(b)	102.	(a)	103.	(c)	104.	(d)	105.	(c)	106.	(b)	107.	(a)	108.	(b)	109.	(a)	110.	(c)
111.	(a)	112.	(b)	113.	(d)	114.	(a)	115.	(c)	116.	(a)	117.	(b)	118.	(d)	119.	(c)	120.	(b)
121.	(c)	122.	(d)	123.	(c)	124.	(b)	125.	(b)	126.	(a)	127.	(c)	128.	(b)	129.	(d)	130.	(b)
131.	(c)	132.	(d)	133.	(c)	134.	(a)	135.	(d)	136.	(d)	137.	(b)	138.	(b)	139.	(a)	140.	(d)
141.	(b)	142.	(a)	143.	(a)	144.	(d)	145.	(a)	146.	(b)	147.	(a)	148.	(c)	149.	(b)	150.	(c)
151.	(c)	152.	(d)	153.	(b)	154.	(d)	155.	(c)	156.	(a)	157.	(d)	158.	(a)	159.	(a)	160.	(d)
161.	(c)	162.	(a)	163.	(a)	164.	(b)	165.	(d)	166.	(b)	167.	(a)	168.	(d)	169.	(d)	170.	(a)
171.	(b)	172.	(c)	173.	(c)	174.	(a)	175.	(b)	176.	(b)	177.	(a)	178.	(a)	179.	(c)	180.	(c)
181.	(b)	182.	(d)	183.	(a)	184.	(c)	185.	(a)	186.	(c)	187.	(b)	188.	(b)	189.	(a)	190.	(d)
191.	(d)	192.	(c)	193.	(a)	194.	(b)	195.	(a)	196.	(b)	197.	(c)	198.	(b)	199.	(a)	200.	(c)
201.	(c)	202.	(c)	203.	(d)	204.	(a)	205.	(d)	206.	(a)	207.	(c)	208.	(d)	209.	(c)	210.	(d)
211.	(b)	212.	(c)	213.	(b)	214.	(b)	215.	(a)	216.	(b)	217.	(b)	218.	(d)	219.	(d)	220.	(a)
221.	(b)	222.	(a)	223.	(a)	224.	(d)	225.	(c)	226.	(b)	227.	(c)	228.	(a)	229.	(c)	230.	(a)
231.	(b)	232.	(c)	233.	(d)	234.	(c)	235.	(a)	236.	(c)	237.	(a)	238.	(c)	239.	(d)	240.	(d)
241.	(b)	242.	(c)	243.	(a)	244.	(d)	245.	(b)	246.	(a)	247.	(b)	248.	(b)	249.	(d)	250.	(c)
251.	(a)	252.	(b)	253.	(b)	254.	(b)	255.	(d)	256.	(a)	257.	(a)	258.	(d)	259.	(d)	260.	(d)
261.	(d)	262.	(c)	263.	(d)	264.	(c)	265.	(c)	266.	(c)	267.	(c)						

19 ANTONYMS

CHAPTER

Directions: in questions no. 1 to 298 choose the word opposite in meaning to the given word and mark it in the answer sheet.

1. Fastidious
(a) Fussy
(b) Cooperative
(c) Promising
(d) Adjustable

2. Shallow
(a) High
(b) Long
(c) Wide
(d) Deep

3. Explicit
(a) Elusive
(b) Allusive
(c) Ambidextrous
(d) Ambiguous

4. Immune
(a) Free
(b) Vulnerable
(c) Powerful
(d) Weak

5. Bleak
(a) Dull
(b) Dark
(c) Bright
(d) Exposure

6. Veneration
(a) Fear
(b) Reverence
(c) Remorse
(d) Disrespect

7. Insolent
(a) Ignorant
(b) Proud
(c) Laudable
(d) Humble

8. Urban
(a) Rustic
(b) Rural
(c) Civil
(d) Foreign

9. Incredible
(a) Possible
(b) Believable
(c) Enjoyable
(d) Imaginary

10. Concur
(a) Disagree
(b) Disappear
(c) Disarrange
(d) Discourage

11. Quiet
(a) Strong
(b) Pandemonium
(c) Incomplete
(d) Violent

12. Vague
(a) Clear
(b) Dull
(c) Unknown
(d) Shady

13. Inevitable
(a) Avoidable
(b) Unnecessary
(c) Inseparable
(d) Uncertain

14. Humility
(a) Dignity
(b) Cruelty
(c) Anger
(d) Pride

15. Rapidly
(a) Lazily
(b) Secretly
(c) Slowly
(d) Firmly

16. Extol
(a) Heckle
(b) Censure
(c) Hate
(d) Scold

17. Make
(a) Liberate
(b) Break
(c) Emancipate
(d) Bind

18. Terminate
(a) Hasten
(b) Depart
(c) Begin
(d) Change

19. Successor
(a) Failure
(b) Loser
(c) Predecessor
(d) Predator

20. Demolish
(a) Shift
(b) Build
(c) Repeat
(d) Hide

21. Genial
(a) Stupid
(b) Stingy
(c) Boorish
(d) Unkind

22. Prevent
(a) Protect
(b) Black
(c) Hinder
(d) Induce

23. Plausible
(a) Inplausible
(b) Unplausible
(c) Implausible/ Unbelievable
(d) Displausible

24. Frailty
(a) Energy
(b) Intensity
(c) Vehemence
(d) Strength

25. Flair
(a) Spreading outward
(b) Inability
(c) Spotlight
(d) Taste

26. Collapse
(a) Rise
(b) Handicap
(c) Crush
(d) Crumble

27. Dormant
(a) Acute
(b) Active
(c) Able
(d) Ablaze

28. Anxious
(a) Crafty
(b) Light
(c) Carefree
(d) Careless

29. Hazy
(a) Plain
(b) Light
(c) Clear
(d) Dull

30. Thrifty
(a) Clean
(b) Loyal
(c) Wasteful
(d) Reverent

31. Fantastic
(a) Old
(b) Ordinary
(c) Classic
(d) Rational

32. Innovate
(a) Sell
(b) Buy
(c) Close
(d) Copy

33. Asceticism
(a) Comfort
(b) Luxury
(c) Anti-semitism
(d) Humility

34. Enduring
(a) Fleeting
(b) Painful
(c) Permanent
(d) Long lasting

35. Dissolution
(a) Retribution
(b) Establishment
(c) Persuasion
(d) Compliance

36. Progressive
(a) Repressive
(b) Retrogressive
(c) Repulsive
(d) Aggressive

37. Unnerved
(a) Confident
(b) Nervous
(c) Hopeful
(d) Anxious

38. Vague
(a) Unclear
(b) Sharp
(c) Precise
(d) Actual

39. Harmony
(a) Disagreement
(b) Melody
(c) Confusion
(d) Concord

40. Purposely
(a) Half-heartedly
(b) Timidly
(c) Unintentionally
(d) Hesitatingly

41. Guilty
(a) Innocent
(b) Ignorant
(c) Irreverent
(d) Immature

42. Brave
(a) Sorry
(b) Bold
(c) Timid
(d) Boisterous

43. Duplicity
(a) Complexity
(b) Honesty
(c) Serenity
(d) Originality

44. Opaque
(a) Brilliant
(b) Bright
(c) Transparent
(d) Lustrous

45. Jocular
(a) Merry
(b) Morose
(c) Jugular
(d) Juggler

46. Hinder
(a) Encourage
(b) Acknowledge
(c) Prohibit
(d) Instruct

47. Uncompromising
(a) Courteous
(b) Flexible
(c) Awesome
(d) Soft

48. Zeal
(a) Disinterest
(b) Apathy
(c) Carelessness
(d) Hatred

49. Desecration
(a) Consecration
(b) Discouragement
(c) Despondency
(d) Expectation

50. Shimmering
(a) Gloomy
(b) Glimmering
(c) Refreshing
(d) Repining

51. Far-fetched
(a) Wise
(b) Prudent
(c) Located for
(d) Realistic

52. Takes off
(a) Travels
(b) Falls
(c) Explodes
(d) Lands

53. Niggardly
(a) Hastily
(b) Lavishly
(c) Likely
(d) Gorgeously

54. Melodious
(a) Harmonious
(b) Tuneless
(c) Odious
(d) Mellifluous

55. Advanced
(a) Progressed
(b) Outpaced
(c) Receded
(d) Run back

56. Enlightened
(a) Slander
(b) Bemoan
(c) Ignorant
(d) Before

57. Exceptional
(a) Great
(b) Occasional
(c) Common
(d) Absorbing

58. Permanent
(a) Long
(b) Short
(c) Durable
(d) Temporary

59. Moderate
(a) Abnormal
(b) Weak
(c) Extreme
(d) Separate

60. Diffidence
(a) Boldness
(b) Outspokenness
(c) Fluency
(d) Obstinacy

61. Superficial
(a) Careful
(b) Of surface
(c) Thorough
(d) Casual

62. Reckless
(a) Careful
(b) Frank
(c) Diffident
(d) Smart

63. Scorn
(a) Contempt
(b) Joy
(c) Admiration
(d) Pity

64. Grandiose
(a) Simple
(b) False
(c) Ideal
(d) Proud

65. Trivial
(a) Serious
(b) Violent
(c) Wild
(d) Unimportant

66. Lurid
(a) Dismal
(b) Mild
(c) Murky
(d) Mysterious

67. Loquacious
(a) Reserved
(b) Miserly
(c) Eloquent
(d) Healthy

68. Unscrupulous
(a) Conscientious
(b) Dedicated
(c) Single-minded
(d) Superfluous

69. Confiscate
(a) Produce
(b) Release
(c) Destroy
(d) Exhibit

70. Contaminate
(a) Sanctify
(b) Invigorate
(c) Taint
(d) Purify

71. Often
(a) Usually
(b) Rarely
(c) Sometimes
(d) Occasionally

72. Frugal
(a) Economical
(b) Extravagant
(c) Miserly
(d) Greedy

73. Eminent
(a) Illustrious
(b) Notorious
(c) Intelligent
(d) Known

74. Barbarous
(a) Civilized
(b) Modern
(c) Polite
(d) Praiseworthy

75. Embark upon
(a) Launch
(b) Analyse
(c) Break off
(d) Conclude

76. Falling off
(a) Shrinkage
(b) Erosion
(c) Improvement
(d) Descent

77. Depressed
(a) Satisfied
(b) Elated
(c) Impressed
(d) Affected

78. Yield to
(a) Submit to
(b) Persuade
(c) Resist
(d) Seek terms with

79. Paucity
(a) Overflow
(b) Inflow
(c) Plenty
(d) Grim

80. Conclusive
(a) Powerful
(b) Indecisive
(c) Exclusive
(d) Partial

81. Triggered
(a) Choked
(b) Tapered off
(c) Diluted
(d) Ignited

82. Parallel
(a) Divergent
(b) Difficult
(c) Similar
(d) Crooked

83. Manifested
(a) Displayed
(b) Concealed
(c) Suppressed
(d) Marked

84. Blocked
(a) Facilitated
(b) Started
(c) Checked
(d) Promoted

85. Vindictive
(a) careless
(b) forgiving
(c) heedless
(d) refined

86. Turn coat
(a)Loyal
(b) Disappointing
(c) Thrilling
(d) Nail-biting

87. Inaugurate
(a) Terminate
(b) Inculcate
(c) Facilitate
(d) Ameliorate

88. Embellish
(a) Dishonour
(b) Demolish
(c) Spoil
(d) Suffice

89. Detest
(a) Test
(b) Dislike
(c) Like
(d) Interest

90. Intentional
(a) Accidental
(b) Undecided
(c) Concentrated
(d) Broken

91. Commence
(a) Start
(b) Schedule
(c) Conclude
(d) Dissolve

92. Expand
(a) Contract
(b) Contrast
(c) Consist
(d) Controvert

93. Prosperity
(a) Propriety
(b) Property
(c) Adversity
(d) Perspicacity

94. Stimulate
(a) Encourage
(b) Discourage
(c) Tempt
(d) Instigate

95. Deliberate
(a) Unconditional
(b) Unintentional
(c) Unilateral
(d) Emotional

96. Perilous
(a) Pitiable
(b) Difficult
(c) Safe
(d) Comfortable

97. Disputable
(a) Undisputable
(b) Indisputable
(c) Nondisputable
(d) Adisputable

98. Audacious
(a) Cautious
(b) Timid
(c) Rude
(d) Proud

99. Meticulous
(a) Unmerited
(b) Unimaginative
(c) Carefree
(d) Careless

100. Repel
(a) Attract
(b) Interest
(c) Tempt
(d) Like

101. Dim
(a) Transparent
(b) Luminous
(c) Opaque
(d) Dazzling

102. Genuine
(a) Genius
(b) Honest
(c) Affected
(d) Fictitious

103. Ham-fisted
(a) Simple
(b) Adroit
(c) Difficult
(d) Vague

104. Implicit
(a) Explicit
(b) Implied
(c) Explained
(d) Exquisite

105. Capture
(a) Catch
(b) Detain
(c) Liberate
(d) Stop

106. Repulsive
(a) Attractive
(b) Offensive
(c) Defensive
(d) Pensive

107. Misery
(a) Sorry
(b) Careless
(c) Joy
(d) Content

108. Escalate
(a) Decrease
(b) Descend
(c) Deliver
(d) Derive

109. Anarchy
(a) Curfew
(b) Permanence
(c) Wholesome
(d) Order

110. Commotion
(a) Transmission
(b) Tranquillity
(c) Transparency
(d) Transition

111. Monotony
(a) Enthusiasm
(b) Repetitiveness
(c) Variety
(d) Singularity

112. Latter
(a) Earlier
(b) Before
(c) Later
(d) Former

113. Dynamic
(a) Stable
(b) Still
(c) Lazy
(d) Static

114. Diligent
(a) Intelligent
(b) Lazy
(c) Boastful
(d) Notorious

115. Hereditary
(a) Carried
(b) Acquired
(c) Possessed
(d) Regained

116. Philistine
(a) Cultured
(b) Libertine
(c) Sober
(d) Educated

117. Heretical
(a) Contradictory
(b) Doubtful
(c) Impious
(d) Orthodox

118. Ingest
(a) Disrupt
(b) Disgorge
(c) Dismiss
(d) Display

119. Implicate
(a) Exonerate
(b) Impersonate
(c) Complicate
(d) Impose

120. Laceration
(a) Convalescence
(b) Recouperation
(c) Healing
(d) Palpitation

121. Liberty
(a) Serenity
(b) Slavery
(c) Serfdom
(d) Subordinate

122. Disorderly
(a) Chaotic
(b) Organized
(c) Adjusted
(d) Arranged

123. Elevation
(a) Reduction
(b) Humiliation
(c) Increment
(d) Debasement

124. Glossy
(a) Dull
(b) Shining
(c) Weary
(d) Tired

125. Boon
(a) Dull
(b) Bane
(c) Hurt
(d) Harsh

126. Accomplish
(a) Fail
(b) Improper
(c) Disagreeable
(d) Scatter

127. Famous
(a) Obscure
(b) Eminent
(c) Lenient
(d) Fabulous

128. Orderly
(a) Unclear
(b) Valueless
(c) Chaotic
(d) Incomplete

129. Gloomy
(a) Radiant
(b) Fragrant
(c) Melodious
(d) Illusory

130. Strife
(a) War
(b) Peace
(c) Anger
(d) Woe

131. Isolation
(a) Segregation
(b) Association
(c) Seclusion
(d) Deportation

132. Antique
(a) Common
(b) Recent
(c) Innovative
(d) Youthful

133. Contented
(a) Dissatisfied
(b) Emptied
(c) Happy
(d) Unfriendly

134. Rapid
(a) Happy
(b) Fall
(c) Slow
(d) Abnormal

135. Severe
(a) Sharp
(b) Mild
(c) Important
(d) Cut

136. Initiated
(a) Complicated
(b) Simplified
(c) Concluded
(d) Commenced

137. Consensus
(a) Accept
(b) Opinion
(c) Disagreement
(d) Permission

138. Fatigued
(a) Weakened
(b) Energised
(c) Tired
(d) Activated

139. Autonomy
(a) Slavery
(b) Subordination
(c) Dependence
(d) Submissiveness

140. Flexible
(a) Rigid
(b) Cruel
(c) Humble
(d) Easy

141. Artificial
(a) Artful
(b) Machine-made
(c) Artistic
(d) Natural

142. Delete
(a) Regress
(b) Interpolate
(c) Infer
(d) Include

143. Benefactor
(a) Helper
(b) Victor
(c) Disciple
(d) Enemy

144. Evanescent
(a) Clean
(b) Tight
(c) Eternal
(d) Cheap

145. Barren
(a) Fertile
(b) Rich
(c) Prosperous
(d) Positive

146. Virtue
(a) Vice
(b) Failure
(c) Fault
(d) Offence

147. Nervous
(a) Flawless
(b) Immature
(c) Smooth
(d) Composed

148. Confident
(a) Worried
(b) Pessimistic
(c) Diffident
(d) Depressed

149. Evident
(a) Suspected
(b) Disagreed
(c) hidden
(d) Unimportant

150. Adamant
(a) Yielding
(b) Permissive
(c) Liberal
(d) Tolerant

151. Professional
(a) Novice
(b) Amateur
(c) Dabbler
(d) Apprentice

152. Callous
(a) Persuasive
(b) Caring
(c) Gentle
(d) Sensitive

153. Cessation
(a) Commencement
(b) Renewal
(c) Ongoing
(d) Interruption

154. Procrastinate
(a) Experiment
(b) Expedite
(c) Exclude
(d) Propagate

155. Potent
(a) Inefficient
(b) Soft
(c) Fragile
(d) Weak

156. Probity
(a) Dishonesty
(b) Timidity
(c) Treachery
(d) Insincerity

157. Gregarious
(a) Recluse
(b) Social
(c) Laudatory
(d) Rustic

158. Sporadic
(a) Surviving
(b) Sweeping
(c) Restrained
(d) Continual

159. Implication
(a) Consideration
(b) Exoneration
(c) Conclusion
(d) Interpretation

160. Apposite
(a) Intemperate
(b) Inappropriate
(c) Indecent
(d) Incriminatory

161. Gregarious
(a) Indecent
(b) Unsociable
(c) Above reproach
(d) Unlovable

162. Chivalry
(a) Cawardish
(b) Discourtesy
(c) Disobedience
(d) Disaffection

163. Dismal
(a) Bright
(b) Indifferent
(c) Fast
(d) Energetic

164. Sanguine temper
(a) Despairing nature
(b) Peaceful temperament
(c) Rude behaviour
(d) Selfish nature

165. Meagre
(a) Extravagant
(b) Abandon
(c) Prosperous
(d) Surplus

166. Imperil
(a) Safeguard
(b) Construct
(c) Create
(d) Brighten

167. Flamboyant
(a) Elaborately
(b) Really
(c) Not showy
(d) Sensibly

168. Consolidated
(a) Disjointed
(b) Broken
(c) Weakened
(d) Lost

169. Chronic
(a) Pathetic
(b) Characteristic
(c) Temporary
(d) Mild

170. Vituperative
(a) Joyous
(b) Laudatory
(c) Critical
(d) Virtuous

171. Awkward
(a) Awful
(b) Satisfactory
(c) Graceful
(d) Easy

172. Smug
(a) Satisfied
(b) Dissatisfied
(c) Serious
(d) Delighted

173. Oppressive
(a) Gentle
(b) Harsh
(c) Smooth
(d) Orderly

174. Obscure
(a) Inconspicuous
(b) Veiled
(c) Clear
(d) Distinct

175. Clinch
(a) Lose
(b) Clasp
(c) Deal
(d) Seal

176. Enervate
(a) Decelerate
(b) Strengthen
(c) Push forward
(d) Aggravate

177. To put up with
(a) To stay together
(b) To talk politely
(c) To dislike
(d) To move along with

178. Autonomous
(a) Self-government
(b) Dependent
(c) Defensive
(d) Neutral

179. Deceitful
(a) Sincere
(b) Useful
(c) Plain
(d) Honest

180. Exonerate
(a) Admit
(b) Release
(c) Convict
(d) Reject

181. Exaggerate
(a) Underwrite
(b) Understate
(c) Ignore
(d) Condemn

182. Controversial
(a) Indisputable
(b) Restrained
(c) Controlled
(d) Appeasing

183. Synthetic
(a) Natural
(b) Plastic
(c) Cosmetic
(d) Apathetic

184. Accord
(a) Disagreement
(b) Welcome
(c) Disrespect
(d) Conformity

185. Infirmity
(a) Employment
(b) Indisposition
(c) Strength
(d) Weakness

186. Feasible
(a) Useful
(b) Impractical
(c) Uneven
(d) Important

187. Deny
(a) Accept
(b) Proceed
(c) Hold
(d) Promote

188. Acquit
(a) Inform
(b) Release
(c) Abuse
(d) Condemn

189. Benediction
(a) Best wishes
(b) Use
(c) Curse
(d) Blessing

190. Affluence
(a) Not being fluent
(b) Poverty
(c) Difficult
(d) Unhealthy

191. Forbid
(a) Defy
(b) Dislike
(c) Permit
(d) Understand

192. Harmonious
(a) Selfish
(b) Aggressive
(c) Mechanical
(d) Discordant

193. Inconspicuous
(a) Open-hearted
(b) Open-minded
(c) Prominent
(d) Smooth

194. Factual
(a) Actual
(b) Idealistic
(c) Unrealistic
(d) Verbal

195. Abandon
(a) Assert
(b) Retain
(c) Produce
(d) Twist

196. Assent
(a) Breakdown
(b) Misunderstand
(c) Dispatch
(d) Disagreement

197. Fickle
(a) Constant
(b) Convenient
(c) Questionable
(d) Faithful

198. Discreet
(a) Worthy
(b) Wishful thinking
(c) Honest
(d) Careless in behaviour

199. Articulate
(a) Unable to understand
(b) Unable to express oneself
(c) Unable to agree
(d) Unable to live

200. Unjust
(a) Serious
(b) Self-centred
(c) Fair-minded
(d) Considerable

201. Humble
(a) Rich
(b) Powerful
(c) Haughty
(d) Strong

202. Exemptions
(a) Generalisation
(b) Liberalisation
(c) Exclusions
(d) Inclusions

203. Prominent
(a) Unknown
(b) Treason
(c) Loyalty
(d) Distrust

204. Alleviate
(a) Intensity
(b) Magnify
(c) Mitigate
(d) Aggravate

205. Disperse
(a) Converge
(b) Smile
(c) Dispense
(d) Sing

206. Ambiguous
(a) Truthful
(b) Lucid
(c) Logical
(d) Systematic

207. Hilarious
(a) Unworthy
(b) Unpleasant
(c) Ill-fated
(d) Serious

208. Tolerance
(a) Loathing
(b) Brawl
(c) Plea
(d) Forbid

209. Steadfast
(a) Staunch
(b) Feeble
(c) Faint
(d) Wavering

210. Conceited
(a) Proud
(b) Honest
(c) Modest
(d) Modern

211. Deterrent
(a) Determinant
(b) Detriment
(c) Encouragement
(d) Enrichment

212. Spurious
(a) Truthful
(b) Authentic
(c) Credible
(d) Original

213. Slander
(a) Gain
(b) Profit
(c) Praise
(d) Loss

214. Reveal
(a) Appeal
(b) Relax
(c) Recover
(d) Conceal

215. Admonish
(a) Condemn
(b) Bless
(c) Praise
(d) Congratulate

216. Adulation
(a) Flattery
(b) Encomium
(c) Confession
(d) Condemnation

217. Affirmation
(a) Denial
(b) Refusal
(c) Opposition
(d) Obstruction

218. Affluent
(a) Poor
(b) Ordinary
(c) Infamous
(d) Backward

219. Agony
(a) Ecstasy
(b) Laughter
(c) Humdrum
(d) Ecstasy

220. Appalling
(a) Shocking
(b) Consoling
(c) Scaring
(d) Horrifying

221. Candid
(a) Frank
(b) Diplomatic
(c) Reserved
(d) Impertinent

222. Comaraderies
(a) Curiosity
(b) Ferocity
(c) Impetuosity
(d) Animosity

223. Convicted
(a) Charged
(b) Relieved
(c) Dismissed
(d) Acquitted

224. Convoluted
(a) Simple
(b) Complicated
(c) Difficult
(d) Majestic

225. Curtail
(a) Lengthen
(b) Shorten
(c) Entail
(d) Close

226. Dense
(a) Scarce
(b) Slim
(c) Sparse
(d) Lean

227. Diminished
(a) Created
(b) Rose
(c) Increased
(d) Lessen

228. Ephemeral
(a) Eternal
(b) Transitory
(c) Mortal
(d) Temporal

229. Escalating
(a) Fixed
(b) Fluctuating
(c) Falling
(d) Reasonable

230. Esteem
(a) Power
(b) Guess
(c) Contempt
(d) Estimate

231. Exotic
(a) Wonderful
(b) Cosmopolitan
(c) Irrelevant
(d) Common

232. Fetter
(a) Restore
(b) Liberate
(c) Exonerate
(d) Distract

233. Flourish
(a) Perish
(b) Degenerate
(c) Decay
(d) Dismiss

234. Futile
(a) Waste
(b) Expensive
(c) Useful
(d) Cheap

235. Garrulous
(a) Vociferous
(b) Eloquent
(c) Taciturn
(d) Vocal

236. Gratuitous
(a) Uncharitable
(b) Grand appearance
(c) Warranted
(d) Being grateful

237. In toto
(a) Bluntly
(b) Partially
(c) Entirely
(d) Strongly

238. Fleeting
(a) Glossy
(b) Perpetual
(c) Aspiring
(d) Sufficient

239. Inert
(a) Active
(b) Lazy
(c) Strong
(d) Resolute

240. Initial
(a) Terminal
(b) Commencing
(c) Delayed
(d) Disastrous

241. Intimidating
(a) Authoritative
(b) Casual
(c) Non-serious
(d) Friendly

242. Jest
(a) Gravity
(b) Grim
(c) Genial
(d) Sport

243. Latent
(a) Unspoken
(b) Later
(c) Implicit
(d) Obvious

244. Maladroit
(a) Authoritative
(b) Skilful
(c) Maladjusted
(d) Malevolent

245. Malevolence
(a) Tenderness
(b) Kindness
(c) Benefiting
(d) Indulgence

246. Malice
(a) Sympathy
(b) Goodwill
(c) Friendship
(d) Attraction

247. Monotonous
(a) Disastrous
(b) Terrifying
(c) Terrible
(d) Interesting

248. Obscene
(a) Disobedient
(b) Decent
(c) Dislocate
(d) Cautious

249. Opposed
(a) Resistant
(b) Against
(c) Favouring
(d) Similar

250. Ostracise
(a) Amuse
(b) Welcome
(c) Entertain
(d) Host

251. Parsimonious
(a) Prodigious
(b) Selfless
(c) Extravagant
(d) Ostentatious

252. Predilection
(a) Acceptance
(b) Attraction
(c) Dislike
(d) Choice

253. Profound
(a) Deep
(b) Superficial
(c) Hollow
(d) Fallow

254. Protean
(a) Amateur
(b) Catholic
(c) Unchanging
(d) Rapid

255. Quiescent
(a) Restless
(b) Exempt
(c) Malignant
(d) Mendicant

256. Perilous
(a) Safe
(b) Developed
(c) Sophisticated
(d) Communicative

257. Revelation
(a) Rejection
(b) Elimination
(c) Concealment
(d) Introduction

258. Repulsion
(a) Attraction
(b) Disapproval
(c) Disparagement
(d) Denigration

259. Segregate
(a) Sever
(b) Unite
(c) Separate
(d) Aggregate

260. Significant
(a) Substantial
(b) Miniscule
(c) Incoherent
(d) Unimportant

261. Despair
(a) Sneer
(b) Compliment
(c) Irony
(d) Hope

262. Validate
(a) Disprove
(b) Authenticate
(c) Ingenuine
(d) Legalise

263. Vicious
(a) Godly
(b) Virtuous
(c) Sublime
(d) Friendly

ANSWER KEY

1.	(d)	29.	(c)	55.	(c)	81.	(a)	107.	(c)	133.	(a)	159.	(b)	185.	(c)	211.	(c)	237.	(b)
2.	(d)	30.	(c)	56.	(c)	82.	(d)	108.	(a)	134.	(c)	160.	(b)	186.	(b)	212.	(b)	238.	(b)
3.	(d)	31.	(b)	57.	(c)	83.	(b)	109.	(d)	135.	(b)	161.	(b)	187.	(a)	213.	(c)	239.	(a)
4.	(b)	32.	(d)	58.	(d)	84.	(a)	110.	(b)	136.	(c)	162.	(a)	188.	(d)	214.	(d)	240.	(a)
5.	(c)	33.	(b)	59.	(c)	85.	(b)	111.	(c)	137.	(c)	163.	(a)	189.	(c)	215.	(c)	241.	(d)
6.	(d)	34.	(a)	60.	(a)	86.	(a)	112.	(d)	138.	(b)	164.	(a)	190.	(b)	216.	(d)	242.	(b)
7.	(d)	35.	(b)	61.	(c)	87.	(a)	113.	(d)	139.	(c)	165.	(d)	191.	(c)	217.	(a)	243.	(d)
8.	(b)	36.	(b)	62.	(a)	88.	(c)	114.	(b)	140.	(a)	166.	(a)	192.	(d)	218.	(a)	244.	(b)
9.	(b)	37.	(a)	63.	(c)	89.	(c)	115.	(b)	141.	(d)	167.	(c)	193.	(c)	219.	(a)	245.	(b)
10.	(a)	38.	(c)	64.	(a)	90.	(a)	116.	(a)	142.	(d)	168.	(a)	194.	(c)	220.	(b)	246.	(b)
11.	(b)	39.	(a)	65.	(a)	91.	(c)	117.	(d)	143.	(d)	169.	(c)	195.	(b)	221.	(c)	247.	(d)
12.	(a)	40.	(c)	66.	(b)	92.	(a)	118.	(b)	144.	(c)	170.	(b)	196.	(d)	222.	(d)	248.	(b)
13.	(a)	41.	(a)	67.	(a)	93.	(c)	119.	(a)	145.	(a)	171.	(c)	197.	(a)	223.	(d)	249.	(c)
14.	(d)	42.	(c)	68.	(a)	94.	(b)	120.	(c)	146.	(a)	172.	(b)	198.	(d)	224.	(a)	250.	(b)
15.	(c)	43.	(b)	69.	(b)	95.	(b)	121.	(b)	147.	(d)	173.	(a)	199.	(b)	225.	(a)	251.	(c)
16.	(b)	44.	(c)	70.	(d)	96.	(c)	122.	(b)	148.	(c)	174.	(c)	200.	(c)	226.	(a)	252.	(c)
17.	(b)	45.	(b)	71.	(b)	97.	(b)	123.	(a)	149.	(c)	175.	(a)	201.	(c)	227.	(c)	253.	(b)
18.	(c)	46.	(a)	72.	(b)	98.	(b)	124.	(a)	150.	(a)	176.	(b)	202.	(d)	228.	(a)	254.	(c)
19.	(c)	47.	(b)	73.	(b)	99.	(d)	125.	(b)	151.	(b)	177.	(c)	203.	(a)	229.	(c)	255.	(a)
20.	(b)	48.	(b)	74.	(a)	100.	(a)	126.	(a)	152.	(d)	178.	(b)	204.	(d)	230.	(c)	256.	(a)
21.	(d)	49.	(a)	75.	(d)	101.	(b)	127.	(a)	153.	(a)	179.	(d)	205.	(a)	231.	(d)	257.	(c)
22.	(d)	50.	(a)	76.	(c)	102.	(d)	128.	(c)	154.	(b)	180.	(c)	206.	(b)	232.	(b)	258.	(a)
23.	(c)	51.	(d)	77.	(b)	103.	(b)	129.	(a)	155.	(d)	181.	(b)	207.	(d)	233.	(a)	259.	(b)
24.	(d)	52.	(d)	78.	(c)	104.	(a)	130.	(b)	156.	(a)	182.	(a)	208.	(b)	234.	(c)	260.	(d)
25.	(b)	53.	(b)	79.	(c)	105.	(c)	131.	(b)	157.	(a)	183.	(a)	209.	(d)	235.	(c)	261.	(d)
26.	(a)	54.	(b)	80.	(b)	106.	(a)	132.	(b)	158.	(d)	184.	(a)	210.	(c)	236.	(a)	262.	(a)
27.	(b)																	263.	(b)
28.	(c)																		

20 ONE WORD SUBSTITUTION

CHAPTER

S.N.	WORD	हिन्दी में अर्थ	Meaning in English
1.	**Abattoir**	कसाईखाना	Place where animals are killed for food.
2.	**Abbot**	मठाधिकारी/ मठाधीश	A man who is the head of a monastery or an abbey.
3.	**Abbreviation**	संक्षेप/ लघुरूप	A shortened form of a word or phrase.
4.	**Abdication**	औपचारिक रूप से त्याग देना	To formally give up.
5.	**Ablution**	धार्मिक स्नान	Ritual washing of the body.
6.	**Abstruse**	समझने में मुश्किल	Hard to understand.
7.	**Abundance**	आधिक्य/ प्रचुरता	A quantity that is more than enough.
8.	**Accentuate**	जोर देना	Give more force or importance to.
9.	**Accomplice**	सह-अपराधी	Helper in a wrong deed or crime.
10.	**Acronym**	प्रथमाक्षरी नाम	Word formed from initial letters of a name.
11.	**Addendum**	परिशिष्ट	Thing to be added at the end of a book, etc.
12.	**Advertisement**	विज्ञापन	A public notice offering or asking for goods, services, etc.
13.	**Afforestation**	वनारोपन	The act of forestation by planting many trees.
14.	**Agenda**	घोषणा पत्र	Items of business for consideration at a meeting.
15.	**Aggressor**	आक्रमणकर्ता	Someone who attacks first.
16.	**Agnosticism**	जो ईश्वर के अश्तित्व पर शंका करे.	Doubtful about the existence of God.
17.	**Alien**	गैर नागरिक	One who belongs to different country, race of group.
18.	**Alimony**	तलाक पश्चात् की जीवन वृति	Allowance fixed after divorce to a wife.
19.	**Allegory**	प्रतीक कथा	Story in which ideas are symbolized as people.
20.	**Alliteration**	अनुप्रास	Commencement of adjacent words with the same letter.

21. **Altruist** ..... परोपकारी ..... One who lives and works for the welfare of others.
22. **Amateur** ..... गैर पेशेवर ..... Lacking professional skill or expertise.
23. **Ambassador** ..... राजदूत ..... A diplomatic representative of one country in another.
24. **Ambidextrous** ..... दोनों हाथों से निपुण ..... Equally skillful with each hand.
25. **Ambiguous** ..... अस्पष्ट/ दो अर्थो वाला ..... Having more than one possible meaning
26. **Amnesia** ..... विस्मरण ..... Partial or total loss of memory.
27. **Amnesty** ..... अपराधक्षमा ..... A general pardon of political offenders.
28. **Amphibian** ..... उभयचर ..... Animals which live both on land and in water.
29. **Amphitheatre** ..... अखाड़ा/ रंगभूमि ..... A designated section of seats in any part of a theater.
30. **Analgesia** ..... दर्द की अनुभूति न होना ..... The loss of ability to feel pain while still conscious.
31. **Anarchist** ..... अराजक ..... One who wishes to destroy all established government's law and order.
32. **Anarchy** ..... अराजकता ..... The absence of government in a country.
33. **Anecdote** ..... किस्सा ..... Short amusing story about some real person or event.
34. **Anniversary** ..... साल गिरह ..... Yearly return of the date of an event.
35. **Annual** ..... सालाना ..... That which happens once in a year.
36. **Anomaly** ..... असाधारण ..... Deviation or departure from common rule or standard or what is normal.
37. **Anonymous** ..... गुमनाम ..... A book or a work of art whose author is not known.
38. **Antagonist** ..... विरोधी ..... One that opposes other.
39. **Antidote** ..... जहर-नाशक ..... A medicine to cure the effect of poison.
40. **Aphasia** ..... वाचाघात ..... Loss of ability to understand speech.
41. **Apostate** ..... धर्म त्यागी ..... One who abandons his religious faith.
42. **Aquatic** ..... जलीय ..... Animals which live in water.
43. **Arbitrator/ Arbiter** .. मध्यस्थ ..... Someone chosen to judge and decide a disputed issue.
44. **Aristocracy** ..... कुलीन तंत्र ..... A government by the nobles.
45. **Armistice** ..... युद्ध विराम ..... The cessation of warfare before a treaty is signed.
46. **Ascetic** ..... सन्यासी ..... One who practices self denial as a spiritual discipline.

47. Assassination ..... राजनैतिक कारण से हत्या .... Killing or murder for political reasons.

48. Astrology ..... ज्योतिष शास्त्र ..... Science of the influence of the stars on human affairs.

49. Astronomy ..... खगोल विज्ञान ..... Science of universe with sun, moon, stars and planets.

50. Atheist ..... नास्तिक ..... A person who does not believe in the existence of God.

51. Audience ..... श्रोता गण ..... An assembly of listeners.

52. Autobiography ..... आत्म जीवनी ..... The life-history of a man written by himself.

53. Autocracy ..... एकतंत्र ..... A government by one person.

54. Avaricious ..... लालची ..... One who is greedy.

55. Bachelorhood ..... कुवांरापन ..... The state of being unmarried (of a man).

56. Bankrupt/Insolvent . दिवालिया ..... A person unable to pay his debts.

57. Bay ..... खाड़ी ..... A part of the sea/ lake enclosed by a wide curve of the shore.

58. Beach ..... समुद्र तट ..... A stretch of sand/ stones along the edge of the sea/ lake.

59. Bellicose ..... लड़ाकू..... A person who is fond of fighting.

60. Belligerent ..... युद्धरत ..... Engaged in war/fight.

61. Benefactor ..... धर्मोपकारी ..... One who gives financial help to a school, hospital, etc.

62. Bibliophile ..... पुस्तक प्रेमी ..... One who loves and collects books.

63. Biennial ..... द्विवर्षीय ..... That which happens once in two years.

64. Bigamy ..... दो विवाह प्रथा ..... The custom of having two wives or two husbands.

65. Bigot ..... कट्टर ..... One who is filled with narrow and prejudiced opinion.

66. Bilingual ..... द्विभाषिय ..... One who can speak two languages.

67. Biography ..... जीवनी ..... The life-history of a man written by someone else.

68. Biped ..... दोपाया ..... Animal with two-feet.

69. Blaspheme ..... ईश्वर के खिलाफ बोलना..... Speaking irreverently about God or sacred things.

70. Bliss ..... चरमसुख ..... Perfect happiness.

71. Bohemian ..... स्वेच्छाचारी ..... One who does not follow the usual norms of social life.

72. Bookworm/Bibliophilic किताबी कीड़ा ..... One who is interested in reading books and nothing else.

73.	**Boorish**	गंवार	Person who is rough and ill mannered.
74.	**Botany**	वनस्पति विज्ञान	The science of vegetable life.
75.	**Brittle**	भंगुर	A thing which can be easily broken.
76.	**Bureaucracy**	नौकरशाही	A government by the officials.
77.	**Cabaret**	कैबरे नृत्य	A series of cabre dance/ acts at a night club.
78.	**Cabby, Cabdriver**	ट्रैक्सी चालक	The driver of a taxi cab.
79.	**Cacophony**	श्रुति कटुत्व	Harsh sound.
80.	**Cajole**	खुशामद करना	Persuade by flattery.
81.	**Calligraphy**	सुलेखन	Art of beautiful hand writing.
82.	**Cannibal**	नरभक्षी	The man who can eat human flesh.
83.	**Cannibal**	नरभक्षक/ राक्षस	One who eats human flesh.
84.	**Capsize**	पलटना	Overturn in water.
85.	**Carnage**	हत्याकांड	Killing of large numbers of people.
86.	**Carnival**	मनोरंजन मेला	Public merry making and feasting.
87.	**Cartographer**	मानचित्रकार	A person who draws maps and charts.
88.	**Cartography**	मानचित्र कला	Art of map making.
89.	**Catalogue**	पुस्तक सूची	List of books and other articles.
90.	**Celibate**	ब्रह्मचारी	One who has taken a vow not to have sex.
91.	**Cemetery**	कब्रिस्तान	The place for corpses to be buried.
92.	**Centenary**	शताब्दी	Hundredth anniversary.
93.	**Chronological**	समय के क्रमानुसार	According to sequence of time.
94.	**Circumlocution**	घुमा-फिरा के बात करना	A roundabout way of expression.
95.	**Cloakroom**	माल गोदाम	The place for luggage at a railway station.
96.	**Coerce**	मजबूर करना	Compel to a course of action.
97.	**Cognate**	एक ही उत्पत्ति के	Having the same source or origin.
98.	**Colleagues**	सहकर्मी	Persons working in the same department.
99.	**Collusion**	कपट सन्धि	Secret agreement for a fraudulent purpose.
100.	**Conflagration**	भीषण अग्निकांड	Huge destructive fire.
101.	**Congregation**	धर्म-संगति	Gathering of worshippers.
102.	**Congruent**	सर्वांगसम	Identical in all respect.
103.	**Connoisseur**	कला का पारखी	One who is well-versed in any subject/ art.
104.	**Conscription**	अनिवार्य सैनिक सेवा	Compulsory enlistment for military or other services.

105. Contagious ..... संक्रामक ..... Which spreads by physical touch or contact.

106. Contemporary ..... समकालीन ..... Of the same time.

107. Contiguous ..... समीपस्थ ..... Two countries or States touching a common boundary.

108. Contrite ..... पश्चात्तापी ..... Showing deep sorrow for wrong doing.

109. Convalescence ..... पुन:स्वास्थ्य प्राप्ति के बाद .... The period of gradual recovery of health after illness.

110. Conventicle ..... गुप्त व गैरकानूनी धर्मसभा.... Secret and illegal religious meeting.

111. Coquette ..... दिलफेंक महिला ..... A seductive woman who uses her sex appeal to exploit men.

112. Coronation ..... राज्याभिषेक ..... Ceremony of crowning a king.

113. Cosmopolitan ..... पूरी दुनिया का निवासी ..... A person who regards the whole world as his country.

114. Credulous ..... आशुविश्वासी ..... One who is simple and easily believes whatever is told.

115. Crematory ..... शमशान घाट ..... The place for corpses to be burnt.

116. Cripple ..... अपंग/अपंग बनाना ..... Someone who is unable to walk normally because of an injury or disability to the legs or back.

117. Curfew ..... कर्फ्यू ..... An order that certain activities/ movement are prohibited.

118. Cynosure ..... आकर्षण-बिन्दु ..... Centre of attraction.

119. Dead ..... मृत/ बेकार/ बेजान..... A language that is no longer spoken.

120. Demagogue ..... जनोत्तेजक ..... Political leader who delivers sentimental speeches.

121. Democracy ..... लोकतंत्र ..... A government by the people, of the people, and for the people.

122. Denizen ..... निवासी ..... A person, an animal or a plant that lives, grows or is often found in a particular place.

123. Depraved ..... चरित्र भ्रष्ट ..... Morally bad or evil.

124. Deprecate ..... विरोध करना ..... Express earnest disapproval of.

125. Dermatology ..... त्वचा विज्ञान ..... The medical study of the skin and its diseases.

126. Despondency ..... निराशा..... Loss of complete hope.

127. Destitution ..... अभावग्रस्तता ..... Lacking basic necessities of life.

128. Detrimental ..... हानिकर ..... Causing harm or damage.

129. Dexterous ..... कुशल ..... Skilful at handling things.

130. Diatribe ..... कटु-निन्दा ..... Bitter and violent attack in words or writing.

131. Dictatorship ..... तानाशाही/ निरंकुशता ..... Government carried on by an absolute ruler.

132. Diplomacy ..... कूटनीति ..... The skill and policy of a country's statesmen and politicians/ skill in dealing with people.

133. Discrepancy ..... विसंगति ..... Difference between two things that should be the same.

134. Dissimulate ..... छिपाना ..... To hide or disguise.

135. Diurnal ..... दैनिक ..... Of the daytime.

136. Draper ..... जुलाहा ..... A shopkeeper selling cloth and clothing.

137. Draw ..... अनिर्णित ..... The result of the match where neither party wins.

138. Dwarf ..... बौना ..... A person, plant or animal who/which is below the usual size.

139. Dynasty ..... वंश ..... Succession of rulers belonging to one family.

140. Eavesdropper ..... चुपके से निजी वार्तालाप ..... One who witnesses secretly to private

141. Economical ..... किफायती ..... One who is careful in the use of money/ fuel etc.

142. Edible ..... खाने योग्य ..... That which is fit to be eaten.

143. Effeminate ..... औरताना गुण होना ..... A man who is womanish in his habits.

144. Egalitarianism ..... समतावाद ..... Belief that all people are equal and have the same rights and opportunities.

145. Egoist ..... स्वार्थी/ अहंकारी ..... A lover of one's ownself/supercilious.

146. Eligible ..... योग्य ..... Fit to be chosen; qualified.

147. Emergency ..... आपातकाल ..... A sudden serious situation requiring immediate action.

148. Emeritus ..... ससम्मान सेवामुक्त व्यक्ति .... One who is honourably discharged from service.

149. Emigrant ..... प्रवासी ..... A person who goes to another country to live.

150. Emissary ..... गुप्तचर/ जासूस ..... A person sent on a mission (usually official).

151. Epicure ..... अच्छा खाने का शौकीन ..... Person fond of delicious food.

152. Epidemic ..... संक्रामक रोग ..... Disease affecting many people at the same place and time.

153. Epilogue ..... नाटक के बाद का भाषण ..... A speech or a poem recited at the end of a play.

154. Episode ..... कड़ी/ कथांश ..... Part of story (especially T.V. or Radio show story)

155. Episodic ..... कभी-कभी होने वाली घटना . Happening only some times and irregularly.
156. Epistle ..... धर्मपत्र/ काव्यपत्र ..... A letter.
157. Epitaph ..... कब्र पर इंगित शब्द ..... Words which are inscribed on the grave.
158. Epithet ..... उपाधि विशेषक ..... Adjective added to a person's name usually to criticise or praise him.
159. Epitome ..... सटीक उदाहरण ..... A perfect example.
160. Epitomize ..... सटीक उदाहरण होना ..... To be a perfect example.
161. Equanimity ..... धैर्य ..... Calmness of mind and temper.
162. Erotica ..... अश्लील ग्रन्थ ..... Books, pictures, etc. intended to arouse sexual desire.
163. Erudite ..... विद्वान पुरुष ..... A learned or scholarly person.
164. Espionage ..... जासूसी ..... Practice of spying.
165. Eternal ..... अनंत ..... Existing for ever — without any beginning or end.
166. Etymology ..... शब्द निर्माण विज्ञान ..... The science which deals with derivation of words.
167. Euphemism ..... आडंबर शैली ..... Bombastic style of writing.
168. Euphonious ..... सुरीला ..... Sounding pleasant.
169. Euphoria ..... अत्यन्त खुशी ..... A strong feeling of happiness.
170. Evanescent ..... अस्थायी ..... Of a very short duration or period. / Ephemeral/Transient
171. Explicable ..... विवेचनात्मक ..... That which can be explained.
172. Extempore ..... बिना तैयारी का भाषण ..... A speech delivered without any preparation.
173. Extravaganza ..... अतिशयी नाटक ..... Public activity which takes place in a very elaborate, colourful and expensive way.
174. Fallacy ..... भ्रम ..... False or mistaken belief.
175. Fanatic ..... कट्टर ..... One who is filled with excessive and mistaken enthusiasm.
176. Fastidious ..... नखरेबाज ..... One who is hard to please.
177. Fatal or mortal ..... जानलेवा ..... Resulting in death.
178. Fatalist ..... भाग्यवादी ..... One who believes in destiny.
179. Fauna ..... प्राणिजात ..... Animals of a certain region.
180. Feminist ..... नारीवादी ..... One who works for the welfare of women.
181. Fiasco ..... पूर्ण असफलता ..... Complete failure.
182. Flagstaff ..... ध्वजदण्ड ..... A long pole on which a flag is flown.
183. Flora ..... वनस्पति ..... All the plants of a particular area or period of time.

184. Fluke ..... आकस्मिक सफलता ..... Stroke of good luck.
185. Forgery ..... जालसाजी ..... Counterfeiting of document.
186. Fratricide ..... भ्रातृहत्या ..... Killing/killer of one's brother.
187. Frenzy ..... उन्माद ..... A state of extreme excitement.
188. Frostbite ..... शीतदंश ..... Injury to the nose, fingers or toes, caused by extreme cold.
189. Gallery ..... प्रदर्शनी स्थल ..... A room or building for showing works of art.
190. Gamble ..... जुआ ..... To play games of chance, etc. for money.
191. Gastronomy ..... उत्तम आहार विज्ञान ..... Science and art of preparing and appreciating good food.
192. Genocide ..... जन संहार ..... Extermination of a race or community.
193. Geology ..... भूगर्भ विज्ञान ..... The science of earth's history and rocks.
194. Germicide ..... जीवाणु नाशक ..... A substance that kills germs.
195. Glutton ..... पेटू ..... One who eats too much.
196. Gobble ..... लालची की तरह खाना ..... Eat fast, noisly and greedily.
197. Gratis/Gratuitous ... निःशुल्क ..... Done or obtained without payment.
198. Gregarious ..... समूह में रहने वाले ..... Animals that live in flocks.
199. Hallucinogen ..... भ्रमित करने की दवा ..... A drug that causes one to hallucinate.
200. Hedonism ..... सुखवाद ..... Belief that the most important thing in the world is pleasure.
201. Henchman ..... सेवक ..... Faithful supporter.
202. Herbivorous ..... शाकाहारी ..... Animals which feed on vegetation.
203. Herculean ..... अति पराक्रमी ..... Having enormous strength or size.
204. Heterogeneous ..... विषम ..... Things which contain elements of different nature.
205. Hexagon ..... षट्कोणीय ..... A plane figure with six sides and angles.
206. Holocaust ..... पूर्णाहूति ..... Large scale destruction by fire.
207. Homicide ..... मानव हत्या ..... Murder or murderer of a man.
208. Homogeneous ..... समांग ..... Things which contain elements of the same nature.
209. Honorary ..... अवैतनिक ..... A post for which no salary is paid.
210. Horticulture ..... बागवानी ..... Art of growing vegetables, fruit, etc.
211. Hospitable ..... मेहमाननवाज ..... Fond of entertaining guests.
212. Hypochondria ..... काल्पनिक बीमारी ..... Imaginary ailments.
213. Iconoclast ..... गैर-परम्परावादी ..... One who opposes established institutions or beliefs.

214. Idolatry ..... मूर्ति पूजन ..... The worship of idols or images.
215. Illegal ..... अवैध ..... Contrary to law.
216. Illegible ..... अपठनीय ..... Incapable of being read.
217. Illicit ..... अवैध ..... A trade or act prohibited by law.
218. Illiterate ..... अनपढ़ ..... One who does not know reading and writing.
219. Imaginary ..... काल्पनिक ..... Existing only in the mind.
220. Immigrant ..... अप्रवासी ..... A person who comes to one country from another in order to settle there.
221. Immune ..... प्रतिरक्षित ..... Free from infection.
222. Impalpable ..... स्पर्शातीत ..... Incapable of being perceived by touch.
223. Impenetrable ..... अप्रवेश्य ..... That which cannot be penetrated.
224. Imperceptible ..... अदृश्य ..... That which cannot be perceived by sense.
225. Imperialism ..... साम्राज्यवाद ..... Policy of extending a country's empire and influence.
226. Impertinent ..... गुस्ताख ..... Not showing proper respect.
227. Impiety ..... सम्मान की कमी ..... Lack of respect or religious reverence.
228. Imponderable ..... असोचनीय ..... That which cannot be guessed or calculated.
229. Imposter ..... बहुरूपिया ..... One who assumes a character or title not his own to deceive others.
230. Impracticable ..... अव्यवहारिक ..... Incapable of being practised.
231. Impregnable ..... अजेय ..... Too strong to be overcome or defeated.
232. Impregnable ..... अजेय/ अभेद्द ..... That which cannot be taken by force of arms.
233. Impresario ..... संयोजक ..... A manager or director of a ballet, a concert, a theatre or an opera company.
234. Impromptu ..... बिना तैयारी का ..... Something said or done without preparation.
235. Impudent ..... रूखे व्यवहार वाला ..... Rude and not respectful.
236. Impunity ..... दंड मुक्ति ..... Freedom from punishment.
237. Inaccessible ..... जहाँ पहुँचा ना जा सके ..... Incapable of being reached.
238. Inadmissible ..... अस्वीकार्य ..... That which cannot be admitted or allowed.
239. Inaudible ..... जो सुनाई ना दे ..... A sound that cannot be heard.
240. Incendiary ..... जो आग/ गुस्सा भड़काऐं ..... Designed to cause fire/likely to cause violence.
241. Incombustible ..... जो जले नहीं ..... That which cannot be burnt.
242. Incomparable ..... अतुलनीय/ अतुल्य ..... That which cannot be compared.

243. Incorrigible ..... जो सुधारा नहीं जा सकते .... Incapable of being corrected.
244. Incredible ..... अविश्वसनीय ..... Which can't be believed.
245. Incurable ..... असाध्य ..... Which cannot be cured.
246. Indefatigable ..... जो थके नहीं ..... Incapable of being tired.
247. Indefensible ..... असुरक्षित ..... Which cannot be defended.
248. Indelible ..... अमिट ..... Which cannot be erased or forgotten.
249. Indemnity ..... मुआवजा ..... Compensation for loss.
250. Indestructible ..... अनश्वर ..... That which cannot be destroyed.
251. Indignant ..... अन्याय के कारण क्रुद्ध ..... Angry at injustice.
252. Indispensable ..... अपरिहार्य ..... That without which one can't do.
253. Indivisible ..... अविभाज्य ..... That which cannot be divided.
254. Ineligible ..... अयोग्य ..... Not suitable to be elected or selected under the rules.
255. Inevitable ..... अटल ..... Incapable of being avoided.
256. Inexcusable ..... अक्षम्य ..... That which cannot be excused.
257. Inexplicable ..... अवर्णनीय ..... Which cannot be explained.
258. Inexplicit ..... अप्रकट ..... Not definitely or clearly expressed.
259. Inexpressible ..... अवर्णनीय ..... That which cannot be expressed in words.
260. Infallible ..... जो गलती न करें ..... Never wrong.
261. Infanticide ..... शिशुहत्या ..... Killing of an infant.
262. Infectious ..... संक्रामक ..... A disease which spreads through air and water.
263. Inflammable ..... ज्वलनशील ..... Which catches fire easily.
264. Inimitable ..... जो अनुकरणीय न हो ..... Incapable of being imitated.
265. Insecticide ..... कीटनाशक ..... A substance that kills insects.
266. Insolvent ..... दिवालिया ..... A person who is unable to pay his debt.
267. Insurrection ..... बगावत ..... Rising in arms against an established government.
268. Intercede ..... सिफारिश करना ..... Plead to obtain a favour to save someone else.
269. Intercept ..... रोकना ..... To check or stop on way.
270. Intrigue/conspire ... साजिश करना ..... Make or carry out secret planning.
271. Introspection ..... आत्म निरिक्षण ..... Examination of self thought or feeling.
272. Invincible ..... अजय ..... That which cannot be defeated.
273. Invisible ..... अदृश्य ..... That which cannot be seen.
274. Invulnerable ..... सुरक्षित ..... Incapable of being harmed.
275. Irreconcilable ..... असंगत ..... Impossible to find agreement between.
276. Irrecoverable ..... वापस न मिल सकने योग्य ... That which cannot be recovered.

277. Irreparable ..... अपूरणीय ..... Incapable of being repaired.
278. Irrevocable ..... अपरिवर्तनीय..... That which cannot be altered.
279. Itinerant ..... घुमक्कड़ ..... One who travels from place to place.
280. Journal ..... अखबार ..... A newspaper or magazine that deals with a particular subject or professional activity.
281. Juxtapose ..... सन्निधान करना ..... Placing a thing beside another.
282. Lagoon ..... समुद्रताल ..... Salt water lake separated from the sea by sand banks.
283. Lexicographer ..... शब्द कोष बनाने वाला..... A person who compiles a dictionary.
284. Linguist ..... बहुभाषाविद् (विदेशी भाषा) .. One who speaks many foreign languages.
285. Logic ..... तर्क..... The science of reasoning.
286. Maidenhood ..... कुवाँरापन (लड़की का) ..... The state of being unmarried (of a girl).
287. Mammals ..... स्तनपायी ..... Animals which give birth to babies and feed them with their milk.
288. Manuscript ..... हस्तलिपि ..... Matter written by hand.
289. Mariticide ..... पति हत्या ..... Killing of one's husband.
290. Martyr ..... शहीद ..... One who dies for a noble cause.
291. Masque ..... डांस-ड्रामा ..... A play or a dramatic performance in verse, with music, dance and fine costumes.
292. Massacre ..... भीषण नरसंहार..... Killing of large numbers of people.
293. Materialist..... भौतिकवादी ..... A person for whom money is the most important consideration.
294. Matins..... सुबह की प्रार्थना ..... Morning prayer.
295. Matricide ..... मातृहत्या ..... Killing of one's own mother.
296. Matrimony ..... विवाह ..... Marriage.
297. Maxim ..... कहावत..... A short statement of a general truth.
298. Memento..... निशानी ..... Something kept to remember place or event.
299. Mercenary ..... किराए का टट्टू ..... One who acts only for money.
300. Metamorphosis ..... रूपांतरण ..... Complete change in appearance.
301. Meticulous..... निपुण..... Very particular about small details.
302. Migration..... प्रवास..... Movement from one country to another.
303. Misandrist ..... पुरूषद्रोही..... One who hates males.
304. Misanthrope ..... मानवता द्रोही..... A hater of mankind.
305. Misogamist ..... विवाह से घृणा करने वाला ... Hater of marriage.
306. Misogynist ..... महिला से घृणा करने वाला .. A hater of womankind.
307. Misologist ..... ज्ञान से घृणा करने वाला ..... Hater of learning.

308. Misoneist ..... पुरातनवादी ..... Hater of new things.
309. Missionary ..... धर्म प्रचारक ..... A person sent to teach Christian religion
310. Monastery ..... मठ ..... Place where monks live.
311. Monogamy ..... एक पत्नी प्रथा ..... The practice of keeping only one wife.
312. Mortal ..... नश्वर/ प्राणघातक ..... Subject to death.
313. Mortuary ..... शवगृह ..... A place where dead bodies are kept before post-mortem.
314. Mutilation ..... शरीर के अंग को काटना ..... Cutting off body parts.
315. Naive ..... सीधा-सादा ..... Having natural simplicity of nature.
316. Narcotics ..... नशीली दवाईयाँ ..... A medicine that induces sleep.
317. Naturalism ..... प्रकृतिवाद ..... Adherence or attachment to what is natural.
318. Neogamist ..... नवविवाहित ..... One who is recently married.
319. Nepotism ..... भाई-भतीजा वाद ..... Undue favour shown to one's own relatives.
320. Neurotic ..... अत्यंत संवेदनशील या चिंतित . Excessive sensitive, anxious or obsessive.
321. Newfangled ..... नई अनजानी चीज़ ..... Newly developed and unfamiliar.
322. Nonentity ..... अस्तित्वहीन ..... Person of no importance.
323. Nonpareil ..... अद्वितीय ..... Person or thing which has no equal.
324. Notorious ..... कुख्यात/ बदनाम ..... Having an evil reputation.
325. Nuance ..... सूक्ष्म भेद ..... Subtle difference in colour, meaning etc.
326. Numismatics ..... सिक्को की पढ़ाई ..... The study of coins.
327. Nursery ..... पौधशाला ..... The place where young plants are grown.
328. Obscurantist ..... ज्ञानोन्नति विरोधी ..... Person who is opposed to enlightment.
329. Obsequies ..... अंतिम संस्कार ..... Funeral rites.
330. Obsolete ..... पुराना, अब प्रयोग में नहीं .... That which is no longer in use.
331. Octagon ..... अष्टकोण ..... A plane figure with eight sides and angles.
332. Oligarchy ..... अल्पजनाधिपत्य ..... A government by a small group of powerful persons.
333. Omniform ..... सर्वाकृतिक ..... Having every form or shape.
334. Omnigenous ..... सब प्रकार का ..... Comprising all kinds.
335. Omnipotent ..... सर्वशक्तिमान ..... All-powerful (God).
336. Omnipresent ..... सर्वविधायमान ..... Present everywhere (God).
337. Omniscient ..... सर्वज्ञानी ..... Knowing everything (God).

338. Opaque ..... अपारदर्शी ..... That which cannot be seen through.
339. Optimist ..... आशावादी ..... A person who looks to the bright side of things.
340. Orator ..... वक्ता ..... One who makes an eloquent public speech.
341. Orchard ..... फलों का बगीचा ..... A garden of fruits.
342. Orphan ..... अनाथ ..... A child whose parents are dead.
343. Ostracize ..... समाज से निकालना ..... To turn out of society.
344. Oviparous ..... अंड प्रजक ..... Bearing eggs and not young ones.
345. Pacifist ..... शान्ति दूत ..... A person who believes in the total abolition of war.
346. Pageant ..... तमाशा/ लीला/ नुमाइश ..... Elaborate public spectacle.
347. Palatable ..... स्वादिष्ट ..... Food or drink that has a pleasant taste.
348. Panacea ..... रामबाण ..... A remedy for all kinds of diseases.
349. Pandemonium ..... शोरगुल ..... A wild and noisy disorder.
350. Panegyric ..... प्रशंसा पत्र ..... Piece of writing full of praise.
351. Pantomime ..... मूक अभिनय ..... Dramatic performance with dumb show.
352. Paramour ..... जिस से शारीरिक संबंध हो ... Sexual partner or lover.
353. Parasite ..... परजीवी ..... One who entirely depends on another.
354. Parasol ..... रंगीन छाता ..... A lady's umbrella.
355. Parricide ..... माँ व पिता का हत्यारा ..... Killing of both the parents.
356. Patricide ..... पितृहत्या ..... Killing of one's own father.
357. Patrimony ..... पैतृक ..... Inherited from father or male ancestor.
358. Patriot ..... देशभक्त ..... One who loves one's country.
359. Patronymic ..... पितृ नाम ..... Name derived from that of father or ancestor.
360. Pauper ..... कंगाल ..... One who has no means of livelihood.
361. Peculation ..... गबन ..... Use of public money for one's own benefit.
362. Pedantic ..... ज्ञान दर्शाने वाला लेख ..... A style in which a writer makes a display of his knowledge and learning.
363. Pedestrian ..... पैदल यात्री ..... One who walks on foot.
364. Peninsula ..... प्रायद्वीप ..... Area of land almost surrounded by sea.
365. Pentagon ..... पंचभुज ..... A plane figure with five sides and angles.
366. Perceptible ..... इन्द्रियगोचर ..... That can be perceived by the senses.
367. Peroration ..... उपसंहार/ नतीजा ..... Concluding part of a speech.
368. Perseverance ..... लगन ..... Constant efforts to achieve something.

369. Perspicacious ..... तिक्ष्ण बुद्धिवाला ..... Quick in judging and understanding.
370. Perversion ..... विकृति ..... Change to something abnormal or unnatural.
371. Pessimist ..... निराशावादी ..... A person who looks at the dark side of things.
372. Philanderer ..... दिलफेंक ..... A man who amuses himself by love-making.
373. Philanthropist ..... मानवता प्रेमी ..... A lover of mankind.
374. Philatelist ..... डाक टिकट संग्राहक ..... Collector of stamps.
375. Philistine ..... कला के प्रति उदासीन ..... Person who is indifferent to art and literature.
376. Philogynist ..... औरतों से प्रेम करने वाला .... A lover of womankind.
377. Philology ..... भाषा का अध्ययन ..... Science of study of language.
378. Pilgrim ..... तीर्थयात्री ..... One who travels to a sacred place.
379. Pioneer ..... अग्रसर ..... One who leads others in any field.
380. Piquant ..... मसालेदार/दिलचस्प ..... Pleasant or sharp to the taste/ interesting.
381. Placard/Poster ..... विज्ञापन ..... Written or printed notice pasted in public places.
382. Plagiarism ..... साहित्यिक चोरी ..... The practice of borrowing words and ideas from other authors and using them as one's own; literary theft.
383. Platitude ..... घिसी-पिटी बात ..... Statement that is obviously true and hence dull or not stimulating.
384. Plutocracy ..... कुलीनतंत्र ..... A government by a rich and powerful class.
385. Polyandry ..... बहुपति प्रथा ..... The custom of having more than two husbands at the same time.
386. Polygamy ..... बहु-विवाह प्रथा ..... The custom of having more than two spouses at the same time.
387. Polyglot ..... बहुभाषाविद् ..... Person having command over many languages.
388. Polygon ..... बहुभुज ..... A figure with many angles or sides.
389. Posthumous ..... मरणोपरांत ..... Received after death.
390. Postscript ..... पश्चलेख ..... Anything written in a letter after it is signed.
391. Predicament ..... दुर्दशा ..... Difficult or dangerous situation.
392. Prejudiced ..... पूर्वाग्रही ..... Be biased against.
393. Premonition ..... पूर्वाभास ..... Forewarning of an impending danger.
394. Prerogative ..... विशेषाधिकार ..... Absolute right.
395. Prodigy ..... प्रतिभा संपन्न बालक ..... A child with unusual or remarkable talent.
396. Prognostication ..... भविष्यवाणी ..... Act of forecasting by examining present conditions.

397. Prologue ..... मंगलाचरण ..... A speech or a poem recited at the beginning of a play.

398. Promiscuous ..... अति कामुक ..... Having a lot of different sexual partners.

399. Proponent ..... प्रस्तावक ..... Person who proposes something.

400. Propriety ..... मर्यादा ..... State of being correct in behavior or moral.

401. Protagonist ..... समर्थक/मुख्य पात्र ..... An important supporter of an idea or political system/Chief actor or character in a story or drama.

402. Protectorate ..... संरक्षित राज्य ..... Country under the protection of a more powerful country.

403. Prudent ..... समझदार ..... Wise.

404. Pseudonym ..... कृत्रिम नाम ..... Name taken by an author instead of his real name

405. Punctitious ..... अतिशिष्टाचारी ..... Very careful to behave correctly.

406. Pyrotechnic ..... आतिशबाजी निर्माण-कला .... Art of making fireworks.

407. Quadruped ..... चौपाया ..... Four footed-animal.

408. Rebel ..... द्रोही ..... One who takes up arms against the government.

409. Recapitulate ..... संक्षेप में दोहराना ..... Repeat the main points.

410. Recluse ..... एकांतवासी ..... One who lives alone and avoids company.

411. Reconcile ..... मेल-मिलाप करना ..... Bring about harmony or agreement.

412. Reconnaissance ..... किसी स्थान का सैन्य सर्वेक्षण .. Information gathering activity about enemy forces.

413. Red tapism ..... लाल फीताशाही ..... Too much official formality.

414. Redundancy ..... अनावश्यकता ..... When something is unnecessary because it is more than what is needed.

415. Regicide ..... राजा की हत्या ..... Killing of a king.

416. Relegate/Demote ... दर्जा घटाना ..... Reduce to a lower position.

417. Reluctant ..... अनिच्छुक ..... Unwilling

418. Remission ..... क्षमा ..... Pardon or forgiveness for breaking religious laws.

419. Rendezvous ..... मिलन-स्थल ..... Place fixed for meeting or assembling

420. Renegade ..... धर्मपरित्यागी ..... Person who changes his religious belief/support to someone else or some other nation.

421. Repartee ..... हाजिर जवाबी ..... Witty and clever answers.

422. Repercussion ..... प्रभाव ..... Effect of some event, action or decision.
423. Replica ..... प्रतिकृति ..... Copy or reproduction of a work of art.
424. Repository ..... गोदाम ..... Place where things are stored for safety.
425. Republic ..... गणतंत्र..... A political system in which the supreme power lies in a body of citizens who can elect people to represent them.
426. Requiem ..... शांति-यज्ञ ..... Prayer for the dead.
427. Restitution ..... खोयी/चोरी हुई वस्तु की वापसी . Return of object stolen or lost.
428. Retaliate ..... बदला लेना ..... Return the same sort of ill-treatment.
429. Reticent/Taciturn .. अल्पभाषी ..... Person who does not speak too much.
430. Retrospective ..... पुर्वगामी ..... An effect which has a reference to the past.
431. Rumous/Hearsay .... अफवाह ..... Unverified information.
432. Sacrilege ..... पवित्रता भंग करना..... Treating something holy without respect.
433. Sarcasm ..... ताना ..... Bitter and ironical remark.
434. Savage..... जंगली ..... Violent and uncivilized.
435. Scapegoat ..... बलि का बकरा..... One who is blamed for the mistakes of others.
436. Sceptic ..... संदेही ..... One who is doubtful.
437. Screech ..... चीखना ..... Cry out in shrill voice.
438. Scrimmage ..... खींचातानी ..... Confused struggle or fight.
439. Scurry ..... छोटे कदमों से तेजी से चलना... Move hurriedly with short steps.
440. Sedition ..... राजसत्ता के विरुद्ध आंदोलन.. Act or speech for inciting the public against the government.
441. Senility ..... जीर्णावस्था..... Extreme old age when a man behaves like a fool.
442. Siesta ..... दोपहर का आराम..... Period of rest or sleep after lunch.
443. Simultaneous ..... साथ-साथ ..... Occurring at the same time.
444. Sinecure ..... जहाँ कम काम में ज्यादा पैसे मिले . An office for which high salary is paid for little or no work or responsibility.
445. Smother ..... दम घोंटना..... Kill by suffocation (especially by covering the face with something).
446. Sojourn..... थोड़ी देर के लिए रूकना..... Stay for a short time.
447. Soliloquy..... स्वयं से एकांत में बाते करना Speaking aloud while alone.
448. Somnambulist ..... नींद में चलने वाला ..... One who walks in sleep.
449. Somniloquist ..... नींद में बोलने वाला..... One who talks in sleep.
450. Sonorous ..... सुरीला ..... Having a deep and pleasant sound.
451. Sorocide ..... बहन की हत्या ..... Killing of one's own sister.

452. Spendthrift ..... फिजूलखर्ची ..... One who spends one's money recklessly.
453. Spinster ..... कुवाँरी महिला ..... An unmarried woman.
454. Spiritualist ..... अध्यात्मिक ..... A person who believes in spiritual things.
455. Sporadic ..... छिटपुट ..... Occurring irregularly.
456. Stoic ..... तटस्थ: ..... A person who is indifferent to pleasure and pain.
457. Strangulate ..... गला घोंटना/दबाना ..... Kill by putting pressure on the throat/ to apply pressure.
458. Subdue ..... काबू में करना ..... To bring under control.
459. Subjugate ..... अधीन करना ..... To bring under control.
460. Suicide ..... आत्महत्या ..... Taking of one's own life.
461. Supercilious ..... घमंडी ..... Thinking oneself superior to others.
462. Sycophant ..... चापलूस ..... Person who tries to win a favour by flattering other.
463. Synagogue ..... यहूदी उपासनागृह ..... Place where Jews worship.
464. Talkative/Garrulous .. बातूनी ..... Person who is fond of talking.
465. Tantrum ..... आवेश ..... Fit of bad temper or anger.
466. Teetotaller ..... मद्यनिषेधी ..... One who abstains from alcoholic drinks.
467. Theist ..... आस्तिक ..... A person who believes in existence of God.
468. Theocracy ..... पादरीतंत्र ..... A government by religious leaders.
469. Thermometer ..... तापमापक यंत्र ..... An instrument for measuring temperature.
470. Traitor ..... देशद्रोही ..... One who betrays one's country.
471. Transgressor ..... पापी/ अपराधी ..... One who violets a rule or law.
472. Transmigration ..... आत्मा का शरीर बदलना ..... The passage of soul after death from one body to the other.
473. Transmogrification . कायाकल्प ..... Complete change in appearance or character (especially in a magical or surprising way).
474. Transparent ..... पारदर्शी ..... That allows the passage of rays of light.
475. Truant ..... कामचोर ..... One who stays away from school/work without permission.
476. Truism ..... स्वत: सिद्ध ..... A truth which is often repeated.
477. Turncoat ..... गद्दार ..... Disloyal.
478. Unanimous ..... एकमत ..... Consent of all.

479. Unavoidable ..... अपरिहार्य ..... That which cannot be avoided.
480. Unique ..... अनोखा ..... The only one of its type.
481. Universal ..... विश्वव्यापी ..... Belonging to all parts of the world.
482. Usurper ..... सम्पत्ती हड़पने वाला ..... One who grabs somebody's else property or title.
483. Uxoricide ..... पत्नी हत्या ..... Killing of one's wife.
484. Uxorious/Henpecked जोरू का गुलाम ..... Foolishly fond of one's wife.
485. Vacuous ..... बुद्धिहीन ..... Suggesting absence of thought or intellect.
486. Vendetta ..... वंशानुगत/ पुश्तैनी झगड़ा ..... Feud in which the relatives of the dead or injured take revenge.
487. Verbatim ..... शब्दशः ..... Repetition of a writing, word for word.
488. Verbose ..... बातों से भरा ..... Using or containing more words than are necessary.
489. Versatile ..... बहुमुखी ..... One who possesses many talents.
490. Verso ..... वामपृष्ठ ..... Any left hand page of an open book.
491. Vespers ..... शाम की प्रार्थना ..... Evening prayer in the church.
492. Veteran ..... अनुभवी ..... One who has grown old in or has long experience of (specially military) service or occupation.
493. Vincible ..... जिसे जीता जा सके ..... That which can be conquered.
494. Vindictive/Vengeful .. प्रतिशोधी ..... Having or showing a desire for revenge.
495. Virulent ..... जहरीला ..... Highly poisonous effect.
496. Viviparous ..... सजीव प्रजक ..... Bearing living young ones and not eggs.
497. Volte-face ..... आकस्मिक परिवर्तन ..... Sudden change from one set of beliefs to other.
498. Voluntary ..... स्वेच्छिक ..... Of one's own free will.
499. Voyage ..... समुद्री यात्रा ..... Journey by water or sea.
500. Vulnerable ..... आघात योग्य ..... That which can be easily damaged or hurt.
501. Widow ..... विधवा ..... A woman whose husband is dead.
502. Widower ..... विधुर ..... A man whose wife is dead.
503. Wreathe ..... पुष्पहार ..... Flowers fastened in a circle.
504. Zealot ..... मताग्रही ..... Person who shows great and uncompromising enthusiasm for a religion, party, cause, etc.

21 ONE WORD SUBSTITUTION

CHAPTER

Directions: In question nos.1 to 225, out of the four alternatives, choose the one which can be substituted for the given words/sentence and choose the appropriate alternative which best expresser the sentences.

1. A person who has no money to pay off his debts

(A) Insolvent (B) Poor
(C) Destitute (D) Pauper

2. Words uttered impiously about God

(A) amoral (B) philosophy
(C) logic (D) blasphemy

3. A number of ships.

(a) fleet (b) galaxy
(c) constellation (d) group

4. One who compiles a dictionary

(A) geographer (B) lexicographer
(C) lapidist (D) linguist

5. A test in which cells from diseased organs are removed and tested

(A) Biopsy (B) Autopsy
(C) Operation (D) Amputation

6. A small room in a big house, hotel, ship etc. where glasses, dishes, spoons, food etc. are kept.

(A) Portico (B) Pantry
(C) Mezzanine (D) Kitchen

7. A foreigner who settles in a country.

(A) Immigrant (B) Emigrant
(C) Alien (D) Visitor

8. Doing something according to one's own free will.

(A) Willfully (B) Obligingly
(C) Voluntarily (D) Compulsorily

9. Place that provides refuge

(A) shelter (B) house
(C) country (D) asylum

10. A person who gambles or bets

(A) punter (B) backer
(C) customer (D) client

11. Art of writing for newspapers and magazines

(A) Literature (B) Journalism
(C) Biography (D) Artistry

12. An abandoned child of unknown parents who is found by somebody.

(A) Foundling (B) Sibling
(C) Urchin (D) Orphan

13. Parts of a country behind the coast or a river bank.

(A) Swamps (B) Marshes
(C) Hinterland (D) Isthmuses

14. A written statement about someone's character, usually provided by an employer

(A) testimonial (B) memorandum
(C) certificate (D) license

15. One who does not make mistakes

(A) Pessimist (B) Optimist
(C) Infallible (D) Hypocrite

16. Able to use the left hand and right hand equally well

(A) ambivert (B) ambidextrous
(C) ambivalent (D) ambitious

17. One who hates women

(A) philanthropist (B) ascetic
(C) misogamist (D) misogynist

18. a system of naming things

(A) horticulture (B) miniature
(C) genocide (D) nomenclature

19. A raised passageway in a building

(A) walkway (B) walkout
(C) walkabout (D) walkover

20. A cure for all diseases

(A) laxative (B) panacea
(C) antidote (D) purgative

21. One who cannot speak

(A) deaf (B) dumb
(C) visionless (D) lame

22. Pertaining to cattle

(A) Canine (B) Feline
(C) Bovine (D) Verminous

23. To look at someone in an angry or threatening way

(A) Glower (B) Gnaw
(C) Gnash (D) Grind

24. A post with little work but high salary

(A) Director (B) Trustee
(C) Sinecure (D) Ombudsman

25. Something that causes death

(A) Dangerous (B) Fatal
(C) Brutal (D) Horrible

26. A person who writes decoratively

(A) Calligrapher (B) Colliery
(C) Choreographer (D) Cartographer

27. A person who loves mankind

(A) misanthrope (B) anthropologist
(C) philanthropist (D) mercenary

28. Capable of being interpreted in two ways

(A) confusing (B) unclear
(C) ambiguous (D) ambivert

29. One who has narrow and prejudiced religious views

(A) religious (B) fanatic
(C) bigot (D) god-fearing

30. The action of looking within or into one's own mind

(A) observation (B) examination
(C) introspection (D) introvert

31. To confirm with the help of evidence

(A) corroborate (B) implicate
(C) designate (D) extricate

32. One who is a dabbler in arts, science or literature:

(A) Dilettante (B) Aesthete
(C) Maestro (D) Connoisseur

33. The time between midnight and noon:

(A) Afternoon (B) Antipodes
(C) Ante – meridiem (D) Antenatal

34. Still existing and known :

(A) Extent (B) Extant
(C) Eternal (D) Immanent

35. Fear of height:

(A) Agoraphobia (B) Hydrophobia
(C) Acrophobia (D) Pyrophobia

36. The highest point

(A) zenith (B) height
(C) zeal (D) ridge

37. Feeling inside you which tells you what is right and what is wrong :

(A) cleverness (B) conscience
(C) consciousness (D) fear

38. Release of a prisoner from jail on certain terms and condition

(A) Parole (B) Parley
(C) Pardon (D) Acquittal

39. Loss of memory

(A) Ambrosia (B) Amnesia
(C) Insomnia (D) Forgetting

40. To struggle helplessly

(A) Flounder (B) Founder
(C) Fumble (D) Finger

41. One who tends to take a hopeful view of life

(A) Magnate (B) creator
(C) pacifist (D) optimist

42. Belonging to all parts of the world
(A) Common (B) universal
(C) worldly (D) international

43. To be known for bad acts
(A) Famous (B) notorious
(C) criminal (D) terrorist

44. Words of similar meaning
(A) Homonyms (B) pseudonyms
(C) antonyms (D) synonyms

45. Instrument to measure atmospheric pressure
(A) Metronome (B) compass
(C) pedometer (D) barometer

46. A speech delivered without previous preparation
(A) Soliloquy (B) Extempore
(C) Rhetoric (D) Expression

47. One who pretends to be what he is not
(A) crocodile (B) flatterer
(C) hypocrite (D) counterfeiter

48. Study of heavenly bodies
(A) astrology (B) astronomy
(C) stargazing (D) astrophysics

49. An official call to appear in a court of law
(A) summon (B) notice
(C) memorandum (D) petition

50. To cut apart a person's body
(A) amputate (B) mutilate
(C) ambush (D) mitigate

51. Murder of a brother
(A) Patricide (B) Fratricide
(C) Homicide (D) Parricide

52. One who is filled with excessive and mistaken enthusiasm about his religion
(A) Fatalist (B) Lunatic
(C) Fanatic (D) Stoic

53. A list of items to be transacted at a meeting
(A) Menu (B) Agenda
(C) Minutes (D) Records

54. An involuntary action under a stimulus is described as a
(A) complex (B) reflex
(C) reflection (D) response

55. A continuous process of change is known as
(A) transformation (B) metamorphosis
(C) flux (D) dynamism

56. The use of many words where only a few are necessary.
(A) circumlocution (B) circumspection
(C) circumscription (D) circumvention

57. Circular building or hall with a dome.
(A) edifice (B) palace
(C) rotunda (D) spire

58. One who is a citizen not of a country but of the world.
(A) Bohemian (B) Cosmopolitan
(C) Philanthropist (D) Internationalist

59. An order requiring a person to attend a court.
(A) Courtship (B) Agreement
(C) Subpoena (D) Command

60. An imaginary name assumed by an author for disguise.
(A) Facsimile (B) Surname
(C) Alias (D) Pseudonym

61. An extreme fear of being in a small confined place.
(A) Hydrophobia (B) Paraphernalia
(C) Claustrophobia (D) Progeria

62. An inscription on a tomb.
(A) epitaph (B) crypt
(C) obituary (D) legacy

63. Allowance due to a wife from her husband on separation.
(A) patrimony (B) antimony
(C) parsimony (D) alimony

64. Practice of employing spies in war.
(A) Esplanade (B) Espionage
(C) Espadrille (D) Estrangement

65. A fixed territory in which authority can be exercised.

(A) Jurisdiction (B) judiciary
(C) jurisprudence (D) juristic

66. An appearance of objects often simulating the appearance of water:

(A) image (B) mirage
(C) reflection (D) refraction

67. The art of making fireworks :

(A) Chromatics (B) Numismatics
(C) Pyrotechnics (D) Cosmetics

68. Give off bubbles of gas :

(A) efface (B) effervesce
(C) effloresce (D) effuse

69. A system of governance controlled by persons of high intellectual ability :

(A) oligarchy (B) democracy
(C) meritocracy (D) snobbery

70. Sudden and violent change :

(A) Cataclysm (B) Catalysis
(C) Catacombs (D) Catechism

71. A small waterfall or group of waterfalls flowing down a Rocky hill side is called :

(A) Hurricane (B) Stream
(C) Volcano (D) Cascade

72. One who eats human flesh

(A) non-vegetarian (B) vegetarian
(C) cannibal (D) man-eater

73. Instrument which records earth's tremor:

(A) Monograph (B) Geographer
(C) Seismograph (D) Barometer

74. The practice of a woman having more than one husband at the same time:

(A) Polygamy (B) Polyphony
(C) Polyandry (D) Polygyny

75. Specializes in nose diseases :

(A) Otologist (B) Rhinologist
(C) Endocrinologist (D) Gerentologist

76. Boundary of an area

(A) Porch (B) Periphery
(C) Balcony (D) Verandah

77. A war of religions

(A) Calligraphy (B) Contraband
(C) Cavalry (D) Crusade

78. The Government by the nobility

(A) Bureaucracy (B) Aristocracy
(C) Autocracy (D) Oligarchy

79. To store and stock

(A) Hail (B) Hide
(C) Hoard (D) Horde

80. Study of relations of organisms to one another and to their surroundings

(A) Biology (B) Ecology
(C) Psychology (D) Physiology

81. A body of persons appointed to hear evidence and give their verdict in trials.

(A) association (B) council
(C) bar (D) jury

82. A person who dishonestly pretends to be somebody else :

(A) Imperialist (B) Impressionist
(C) Implorer (D) Impostor

83. Violent storm:

(A) weather (B) rains
(C) breeze (D) tempest

84. Careful and thorough enquiry :

(A) Investigation (B) Interview
(C) Examination (D) Exploration

85. A situation that stops an activity from progressing :

(A) Bypass (B) Breach
(C) Bottleneck (D) Block head

86. A disease which is spread by direct contact

(A) Contagious (B) Infectious
(C) Epidemic (D) Endemic

87. The study of ancient civilizations

(A) History (B) Anthropology
(C) Ethnology (D) Archaeology

88. An animal story with a moral

(A) Fable (B) Tale
(C) Anecdote (D) Parable

89. A thing likely to be easily broken

(A) vulnerable (B) flexible
(C) brittle (D) delicate

90. Body of singers

(A) Coir (B) Quorum
(C) Quire (D) Choir

91. Very dramatic

(A) Histrionic (B) Hippocratic
(C) Hirsute (D) Hoary

92. A figure of speech by which a thing is spoken of as being that which it only resembles

(A) Metaphor (B) Simile
(C) Personification (D) Alliteration

93. The process by which a person or an organization reduces the amount of money it spends

(A) budgeting (B) retrenchment
(C) saving (D) closure

94. An established principle of practical wisdom :

(A) Marxism (B) Maxim
(C) Neologism (D) Platonism

95. Person with whom one works

(A) contemporary (B) companion
(C) colleague (D) partner

96. Honesty of character

(A) integrity (B) rectitude
(C) honour (D) dignity

97. Expressions of sympathy

(A) congratulation (B) condolence
(C) compliment (D) condemnation

98. An instrument used to record sound

(A) gramophone (B) hydrophone
(C) phonograph (D) megaphone

99. Pertaining to horses

(A) Equine (B) equestrian
(C) equinox (D) equation

100. One who cannot be corrected

(A) Incurable (B) incorrigible
(C) hardened (D) vulnerable

101. Difficult or impossible to read

(A) Illogical (B) illegible
(C) ineligible (D) legible

102. An unexpected piece of good fortune

(A) Turnstile (B) Windfall
(C) Philanthropy (D) Benevolence

103. Those who go on to someone else's land without the owner's permission

(A) Delinquents (B) trespassers
(C) offenders (D) culprits

104. Something that cannot be taken away.

(A) inalienable (B) edible
(C) legible (D) natural

105. Scale used for measuring the strength of an earthquake.

(A) Celsius (B) Newtons
(C) Richter (D) Linear

106. Something kept as a reminder of an event.

(A) Trophy (B) Souvenir
(C) Prize (D) Antique

107. One who practises one of the fine arts:

(A) painter (B) artist
(C) designer (D) architect

108. A general pardon of offenders.

(A) Parley (B) Amnesty
(C) Parole (D) Acquittal

109. Place where wine is made

(A) bakery (B) cloakroom
(C) tannery (D) brewery

110. A paper written by hand

(A) handicraft (B) handiwork
(C) manuscript (D) thesis

111. The art of preserving skin of animals, birds and fish

(A) taxonomy (B) taxidermy
(C) philology (D) seismology

112. Related to moon

(A) solar (B) moony
(C) lunar (D) honeymoon

113. Sum of money to be paid for freeing a person from captivity.

(A) Ransom (B) Compensation
(C) Tribute (D) Penalty

114. Book giving information about every branch of knowledge.

(A) Directory (B) Dictionary
(C) Encyclopedia (D) Dissertation

115. Member of a tribe that wanders from place to place with no fixed home.

(A) Vagabond (B) Nomad
(C) Wanderer (D) Truant

116. Fit to be chosen.

(A) Eligible (B) Capable
(C) Suitable (D) Valuable

117. An animal or plant living in or upon another.

(A) master (B) dependant
(C) insect (D) parasite

118. Strong dislike between two persons

(A) aversion (B) antipathy
(C) apathy (D) despair

119. The killing of whole group of people

(A) genocide (B) germicide
(C) patricide (D) suicide

120. The plants and vegetation of a region

(A) fauna (B) flora
(C) landscape (D) environment

121. That which is without opposition

(A) unaware (B) verdict
(C) unanimous (D) spontaneous

122. Animal that feeds on plants

(A) Carnivorous (B) Herbivorous
(C) Insectivorous (D) Graminivorous

123. A number of stars grouped together

(A) Orbit (B) Constellation
(C) Solar system (D) Comet

124. Lasting only for a very short while

(A) Transparent (B) Temporal
(C) Temporary (D) Temperate

125. Murder of a man

(A) Regicide (B) Fratricide
(C) Homicide (D) Genocide

126. Use of force or threats to get someone to agree to something

(A) Coercion (B) Conviction
(C) Confession (D) Cajolement

127. A place where gambling is practised

(A) hotel (B) casino
(C) restaurant (D) theatre

128. An object or portion serving as a sample

(A) Specification (B) Spectre
(C) Spectacle (D) Specimen

129. The practice of submitting a proposal to popular vote

(A) Election (B) Reference
(C) Popularity (D) Referendum

130. Code of diplomatic etiquette and precedence

(A) Statesmanship (B) Diplomacy
(C) Hierarchy (D) Protocol

131. To renounce a high position of authority or control

(A) Abduct (B) Abandon
(C) Abort (D) Abdicate

132. Talking about the affairs of other people

(A) teasing (B) gossiping
(C) criticising (D) slandering

133. Medical examination of the body after death

(A) diagnosis (B) irradiation
(C) corpse (D) autopsy

134. A person born or living at the same time as another

(A) corollary (B) accessory
(C) contemporary (D) auxiliary

135. Bad beyond reform

(A) irreversible (B) irrevocable
(C) irredeemable (D) irreparable

136. That which is certain to happen

(A) inevitable (B) invincible
(C) incorrigible (D) immediate

137. The process of deciding the nature of a disease by examination

(A) test (B) perusal
(C) diagnosis (D) operation

138. That which makes it difficult to recognise the presence or real nature of somebody or something.

(A) cover (B) comouflage
(C) pretence (D) mask

139. To bear a hand

(A) interfere (B) join
(C) assist (D) rejoice

140. One who makes an official examination of accounts

(A) auditor (B) accountant
(C) clerk (D) official

141. A government by the officials

(A) Plutocracy (B) Aristocracy
(C) Bureaucracy (D) Monarchy

142. One who offers his services without charging for it

(A) Philanderer (B) Volunteer
(C) Mercenary (D) Missionary

143. A tank where fish or water plants are kept

(A) aviary (B) aquarium
(C) nursery (D) sanatorium

144. Avoiding wastage

(A) economic (B) economical
(C) minimal (D) optimational

145. Sole right to make and sell some invention

(A) Franchise (B) Authorize
(C) Dealership (D) Patent

146. The scientific study of living organisms

(A) Biochemistry (B) Zoology
(C) Organic chemistry (D) Biology

147. One who lives for more than a hundred years

(A) saint (B) meteorologist
(C) demagogue (D) centenarian

148. Detaining and confining someone

(A) Interruption (B) Interrogation
(C) Interment (D) Internment

149. An underhand device resorted to in order to justify misconduct

(A) Subterfuge (B) Manoeuvre
(C) Stratagem (D) Complicity

150. Science of the races of mankind

(A) Genealogy (B) Etiology
(C) Ethnology (D) Sociology

151. Impossible to describe

(A) Miraculous (B) Ineffable
(C) Stupendous (D) Appalling

152. One who criticises popular beliefs which he thinks is mistaken or unwise

(A) Philistine (B) Iconoclast
(C) Imposter (D) Cannibal

153. One who hides away on a ship to obtain a free passage.

(A) Compositor (B) Stoker
(C) Stowaway (D) Shipwright

154. Clues available at a scene

(A) Circumstantial (B) derivative
(C) inferential (D) suggestive

155. An emolument over and above fixed income or salary.

(A) Honorarium (B) Sinecure
(C) Perquisite (D) Prerogative

156. The animals of a particular region.

(A) Flora (B) Museum
(C) Zoo (D) Fauna

157. A person who is physically dependent on a substance.

(A) Criminal (B) Martyr
(C) Gladiator (D) Addict

158. A child born after the death of its father is called.

(A) A deprived child (B) An orphan
(C) A posthumous child (D) A waif

159. A legal agreement by which a person borrows money from a bank usually to buy a house.

(A) Document (B) Mortgage
(C) Lease (D) Invoice

160. Failing to discharge one's duty.

(A) Debacle (B) Dereliction
(C) Determination (D) Deterrent

161. A movement of part of the body to express an idea or feeling.

(A) Jibe (B) Gesture
(C) Pose (D) Mimicry

162. To surround a place with the intention of capturing it

(A) Bivouac (B) Besiege
(C) Invade (D) Intern

163. To send back a person to one's country

(A) Repatriate (B) Expatriate
(C) Migrate (D) Emigrate

164. One who is opposed to intellectual progress

(A) Impostor (B) Chaperon
(C) Prospector (D) Obscurant

165. A woman with dark brown hair

(A) Blonde (B) Brunette
(C) Termagant (D) Coiffure

166. One who has special skill in judging art, music, tastes, etc.

(A) Connoisseur (B) Raconteur
(C) Sybarite (D) Amateur

167. One who devotes his life to the welfare and the interests of other people

(A) Minion (B) Martyr
(C) Altruist (D) Fugitive

168. A place where animals are kept alive, and nearly as possible as in their natural state

(A) Vivarium (B) Orchard
(C) Paddock (D) Zoo

169. One who hates mankind

(A) Misanthropist (B) Misnomer
(C) Misogynist (D) Philanthropist

170. The period between two reigns

(A) Interregnum (B) Interval
(C) Interdict (D) Intercept

171. One who walks in one's sleep.

(A) dreamer (B) somnambulist
(C) neomatic (D) ignorant

172. A place where money is coined.

(A) mint (B) press
(C) treasury (D) bank

173. The house of an Eskimo.

(A) hamlet (B) downy
(C) igloo (D) hut

174. One who collects postage stamp.

(A) philatelist (B) stamp collector
(C) vendor (D) lexicographer

175. What cannot be heard.

(A) inaudible (B) audible
(C) unheard (D) ineffaceable

176. A poem of mourning.

(A) elegy (B) sonnet
(C) lyric (D) epic

177. A game in which no one wins.

(A) abandoned (B) drawn
(C) postponed (D) obsolete

178. Too much official formality.

(A) delayed (B) officiousness
(C) formality (D) red tapism

179. One who knows many languages.

(A) linguist (B) polyglot
(C) stylist (D) debator

180. That which can be carried.

(A) portable (B) edible
(C) potable (D) bearable

181. A writer who steals ideas from others.

(A) plagiarist (B) copier
(C) editor (D) translator

182. Examination of a dead body.

(A) autopsy (B) surgery
(C) operation (D) tanning

183. A speech made to oneself.

(A) dialogue (B) speech
(C) soliloquy (D) monologue

184. A commonplace remark.

(A) platitude (B) ramark
(C) statement (D) epigram

185. That which cannot be captured.

(A) impregnable (B) incorrigible
(C) imperishable (D) invincible

186. The study of birds

(A) ornithology (B) philology
(C) ontology (D) geology

187. An insect with many legs is called.

(A) centipede (B) mammal
(C) herbivorous (D) vertebrate

188. Government in which all religions are honoured.

(A) fanatic (B) secular
(C) catholic (D) progressive

189. One who lives among strangers.

(A) recluse (B) alien
(C) stoic (D) rustic

190. A word no longer in use.

(A) extant (B) obsolete
(C) out-dated (D) nervous

191. A sneering person who always finds faults.

(A) cupid (B) kleptomaniac
(C) cynic (D) crone

192. A place for keeping bees.

(A) aviary (B) apiary
(C) cage (D) nest

193. A long journey, especially by sea.

(A) flight (B) voyage
(C) odyssey (D) safari

194. A short walk for pleasure or exercise.

(A) stroll (B) gallop
(C) jog (D) promenade

195. A place where government or public records are kept.

(A) attic (B) museum
(C) cellar (D) archive

196. A person who kills somebody especially for political reasons.

(A) criminal (B) assassin
(C) murderer (D) hangman

197. A person who opposes another.

(A) soldier (B) fighter
(C) antagonist (D) prophet

198. A person who does not want to see the realities of life and tries to escape.

(A) escapist (B) hovel
(C) plunderer (D) scavenger

199. A person who is very selective, disgusted easily, and is hard to please.

(A) misanthrope (B) fastidious
(C) selector (D) ambiguous

200. A person who can be cheated easily.

(A) credulous (B) faithful
(C) client (D) egoist

201. A sweet music.

(A) lullaby (B) melody
(C) folk song (D) duet

202. A place where everything is perfect.

(A) heaven (B) platoon
(C) cosmos (D) utopia

203. Decision that cannot be taken back.

(A) irrevocable (B) rigid
(C) order (D) brief

204. Fear of strangers.

(A) sitophobia (B) hydrophobia
(C) xenophobia (D) whoopee

205. Physical features of an area.

(A) geography (B) sociology
(C) contour (D) topography

206. Scientific study of fungi.

(A) mycology (B) botany
(C) physiology (D) zoology

207. A funeral bell.

(A) knell (B) replica
(C) windfall (D) call

208. A person who is pure and clean.

(A) immaculate (B) neat
(C) clean (D) irrevocable

209. A person who has just started learning.

(A) novice (B) foreman
(C) supervisor (D) apprentice

210. A person who is appointed by two parties to solve a dispute.

(A) judge (B) arbitrator
(C) advocate (D) barrister

211. A person who wishes to throw over all establishments.

(A) anarchist (B) hooligan
(C) criminal (D) rebel

212. A person who is bad in spelling.

(A) cacographist (B) linguist
(C) calligraphist (D) pedant

213. A person leaving his native country to settle in another.

(A) immigrant (B) emigrant
(C) traveller (D) nomad

214. A person who is always dissatisfied.

(A) heresy (B) malcontent
(C) felon (D) surrogate

215. A person who enters without any invitation.

(A) thief (B) burglar
(C) vandal (D) intruder

216. A person who is talkative.

(A) garrulous (B) faithful
(C) client (D) egoist

217. One who cuts precious stones.

(A) lapidist (B) philatelist
(C) teweller (D) drover

218. A hospital for recuperation or for the treatment of chronic diseases

(A) sanatorium (B) asylum
(C) funny farm (D) bedlam

219. A professional rider in horse races

(A) horse rider (B) jockey
(C) screw (D) rider

220. One who champions the cause of women

(A) lover (B) beloved
(C) feminist (D) womanizer

221. A man who hates marriage

(A) polyandrist (B) bigot
(C) misogamist (D) widower

222. Thick skinned animal

(A) pachyderm (B) prehensile
(C) monotreme (D) hand-skinned

223. Cow - like

(A) aquiline (B) bovine
(C) feline (D) vulpine

224. The words with opposite meanings used together

(A) oxymoron (B) irony
(C) pun (D) alliteration

225. Specialist of kidney

(A) nephrologist (B) paediatrist
(C) orthopaedist (D) oncologist

ANSWER KEY

1.	(A)	24.	(C)	47.	(C)	70.	(A)	93.	(B)	116.	(A)	139.	(C)	162.	(B)	185.	(A)	208.	(A)
2.	(D)	25.	(B)	48.	(B)	71.	(D)	94.	(B)	117.	(D)	140.	(A)	163.	(A)	186.	(A)	209.	(A)
3.	(A)	26.	(A)	49.	(A)	72.	(C)	95.	(C)	118.	(B)	141.	(C)	164.	(D)	187.	(A)	210.	(B)
4.	(B)	27.	(C)	50.	(B)	73.	(C)	96.	(B)	119.	(A)	142.	(B)	165.	(B)	188.	(B)	211.	(A)
5.	(A)	28.	(C)	51.	(B)	74.	(C)	97.	(B)	120.	(B)	143.	(B)	166.	(A)	189.	(B)	212.	(A)
6.	(B)	29.	(C)	52.	(C)	75.	(B)	98.	(C)	121.	(C)	144.	(B)	167.	(C)	190.	(B)	213.	(B)
7.	(A)	30.	(C)	53.	(B)	76.	(B)	99.	(A)	122.	(B)	145.	(D)	168.	(A)	191.	(C)	214.	(B)
8.	(C)	31.	(A)	54.	(B)	77.	(D)	100.	(B)	123.	(B)	146.	(D)	169.	(A)	192.	(B)	215.	(D)
9.	(D)	32.	(A)	55.	(B)	78.	(B)	101.	(B)	124.	(C)	147.	(D)	170.	(A)	193.	(B)	216.	(A)
10.	(A)	33.	(C)	56.	(A)	79.	(C)	102.	(B)	125.	(C)	148.	(D)	171.	(B)	194.	(A)	217.	(A)
11.	(B)	34.	(B)	57.	(C)	80.	(B)	103.	(B)	126.	(A)	149.	(B)	172.	(A)	195.	(D)	218.	(A)
12.	(A)	35.	(C)	58.	(B)	81.	(D)	104.	(A)	127.	(B)	150.	(C)	173.	(C)	196.	(B)	219.	(B)
13.	(C)	36.	(A)	59.	(C)	82.	(D)	105.	(C)	128.	(D)	151.	(B)	174.	(A)	197.	(C)	220.	(C)
14.	(A)	37.	(B)	60.	(D)	83.	(D)	106.	(B)	129.	(D)	152.	(B)	175.	(A)	198.	(A)	221.	(C)
15.	(C)	38.	(A)	61.	(C)	84.	(A)	107.	(B)	130.	(D)	153.	(C)	176.	(A)	199.	(B)	222.	(A)
16.	(B)	39.	(B)	62.	(A)	85.	(C)	108.	(B)	131.	(D)	154.	(A)	177.	(B)	200.	(A)	223.	(B)
17.	(D)	40.	(A)	63.	(D)	86.	(A)	109.	(D)	132.	(B)	155.	(C)	178.	(D)	201.	(B)	224.	(A)
18.	(D)	41.	(D)	64.	(B)	87.	(D)	110.	(C)	133.	(D)	156.	(D)	179.	(B)	202.	(D)	225.	(A)
19.	(A)	42.	(B)	65.	(A)	88.	(A)	111.	(B)	134.	(C)	157.	(D)	180.	(A)	203.	(A)		
20.	(B)	43.	(B)	66.	(B)	89.	(C)	112.	(C)	135.	(C)	158.	(C)	181.	(A)	204.	(C)		
21.	(B)	44.	(D)	67.	(C)	90.	(D)	113.	(A)	136.	(A)	159.	(B)	182.	(A)	205.	(D)		
22.	(C)	45.	(D)	68.	(B)	91.	(A)	114.	(C)	137.	(C)	160.	(B)	183.	(C)	206.	(A)		
23.	(A)	46.	(B)	69.	(C)	92.	(A)	115.	(B)	138.	(B)	161.	(B)	184.	(A)	207.	(A)		

22 IDIOMS AND PHRASES -I

CHAPTER

S.N.	PHRASES	हिन्दी में अर्थ	Meaning in English
1.	**Achilles' heels**	कमजोर पक्ष	A small but fatal weakness.
2.	**Add fuel to fire**	आग में घी डालना	To make a matter worse.
3.	**An arm chair job**	आसान एवं अच्छी आय वाली नौकरी	Good income job with high comfort.
4.	**An axe to grind**	स्वार्थ से भरा उद्देश्य	Something done for selfish reasons.
5.	**An iron-will**	दृढ़ इच्छा शक्ति	Strong will power.
6.	**An old flame**	पुराना प्यार	A person, one had a romantic relationship with, in the past.
7.	**An old head on young shoulders**	अपनी उम्र से ज्यादा समझदार होना	A child or young person who thinks and talks like an older and experienced person.
8.	**An olive branch**	शांति निवेदन	Peace request/ peace treaty.
9.	**Apple of discord**	झगड़े का कारण	Matter of dispute.
10.	**Apple of one's eye**	दुलारा, प्यारा	Very lovable/ dearest one.
11.	**Apple-pie-order**	बिल्कुल ठीक हालत में	In good condition
12.	**At a loss**	निर्णय न ले पाना	To be unable to decide.
13.	**At a pinch**	समस्या में होना	In a trouble.
14.	**At arm's length**	दूर रखना (दोस्ती न रखना)	Avoid becoming too friendly.
15.	**At daggers drawn**	कट्टर दुश्मनी होना	To have bitter enmity.
16.	**At ease**	चिन्ता रहित	Free from pain and anxiety.
17.	**At one's finger's ends**	पूर्ण जानकारी होना	To have complete knowledge.
18.	**At one's wit's end**	चकित	Puzzled / confused / perplexed.
19.	**At sixes and sevens**	अस्त-व्यस्त	In disorder.
20.	**At stake**	दाव पर	At risk and insecured.
21.	**At the eleventh hour**	अन्तिम समय में	At the last moment.
22.	**Back stairs gossip**	नौकरो के बीच का गपशप	Talk among servants/ unfair talks.

23.	**Bad blood**	शत्रुता	Enmity/ bitter relations.
24.	**Bag and baggage**	बोरिया-बिस्तर समेत	With all belongings.
25.	**Baker's dozen**	संख्या में तेरह	Thirteen in number.
26.	**Be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth**	धनी परिवार में पैदा होना	To be born in a rich family.
27.	**Be in the driving seat**	सारी जिम्मेदारी का भार उठाना	Bearing all responsibilities.
28.	**Bear the brunt of**	परिणाम भुगतना	To bear the main part of something unpleasant.
29.	**Beat about the bush**	घुमा-फिरा कर बातें करना	To talk in a roundabout manner/ circumlocution.
30.	**Beat black and blue**	अत्यधिक पिटाई करना	Beating mercilessly.
31.	**Beat hollow**	काफी आसानी एवं बुरी तरह से पराजित करना	To defeat thoroughly and convincingly.
32.	**Beck and call**	आज्ञा में रहना	Ready to obey order instantly.
33.	**Bed of roses**	आनंद से भरपूर	Pleasant situation of comfort.
34.	**Bed of thorns**	दु:ख एवं तकलीफ से भरपूर	A situation of extreme difficulty.
35.	**Beggar description**	अवर्णनीय	A person with no resource.
36.	**Bell the cat**	जोखिम उठाना	Taking first step at personal risk.
37.	**Between the devil and the deep sea**	दो गंभीर परेशानियों के बीच	Between two difficult situations.
38.	**Big gun**	ऊँची पहुँच वाला व्यक्ति	An influential person
39.	**Bird of passage**	यदा-कदा आनेवाला	One who comes occasionally.
40.	**Bird's eye view**	सरसरी निगाह	Overview.
41.	**Birds of feather**	एक ही प्रवृति के लोग	People with the same idea, charact-eristics and interests.
42.	**Bite the dust**	पराजित होना	To be defeated.
43.	**Black sheep**	ऐसा व्यक्ति जो परिवार / टीम के लिए शर्मींदगी का कारण बनें	A person who is regarded as disgrace for his family/ team etc.
44.	**Blind alley**	कार्य जिसमें आगे प्रगति संभव नही	A situation in which no further progress can be made.
45.	**Blind date**	किसी अंजान व्यक्ति से मिलना	A meeting between a girl and a boy, who have not met before.
46.	**Blow one's own trumpet**	अपने मुँह मियाँ मिट्ठू	To praise oneself.
47.	**Blue blood**	शाही व्यक्ति	Royal or aristocratic descent.
48.	**Blue book**	सरकारी रिर्पोट	Government report.
49.	**Body and soul**	पूर्णतया	Entirely.
50.	**Bolt from the blue**	आकस्मिक विपत्ति	Unexpected problem.
51.	**Bone of contention**	झगड़े की वस्तु/कारण	Subject of a dispute.

52.	**Boon/blessing in disguise**	छिपा हुआ वरदान	Hidden blessing.
53.	**Bosom friend**	जिगरी दोस्त	Fast friend.
54.	**Break the ice**	चुप्पी तोड़ना	To start a conversation.
55.	**Breathe one's last**	मर जाना	To pass away/ to die.
56.	**Broad day light**	दिन-दहाड़े	In day light (when crime cannot be hidden).
57.	**Broken reed**	अविश्वासी व्यक्ति	A weak, unreliable person.
58.	**Brown study**	विचारमग्नता	A state of deep thought.
59.	**Bull in the china shop** ...	जो जगह के अनुकूल न हो	One who is out of place in a delicate situation.
60.	**Burn a hole in the pocket**	शीघ्रता से खर्च करना	Money spent quickly.
61.	**Burn one's fingers**	खुद का नुकसान कर बैठना.....	To get oneself into trouble.
62.	**Burn the candle at both ends**	फिजूलखर्ची करना	To waste money.
63.	**Burn the midnight oil** ...	देर रात तक मेहनत करना	Labouring/studying till late night.
64.	**Burning question**	ज्वलन्त प्रश्न	Hot issue.
65.	**Bury the hatchet**	दुश्मनी खत्म करना	To end a hostility.
66.	**By fits and starts**	रुक-रुक कर अनियमित रूप से	Irregularly.
67.	**By hook or by crook**	गलत या सही किसी भी ढंग से..	By any means, right or wrong.
68.	**By leaps and bounds**	दिन दूनी और रात चौगुनी.....	At a rapid pace.
69.	**By the skin of one's teeth/ by a whisker**	थोड़े से अंतराल से	Narrowly/by a hair breadth
70.	**Carry the coal to newcastle**	बेवजह मेहनत करना	Spending time and energy in doing something that is useless and wastage of energy.
71.	**Cast pearls before swine**	बंदर के हाथ में नारियल ..... (किसी वस्तु को ऐसे व्यक्ति को देना जो उसका मूल्य न समझे)	A right thing in a wrong hand.
72.	**Castles in the air**	हवाई किला बनाना	Day dream/ a hope or desire unlikely to be realized.
73.	**Cat and dog life**	कलहपूर्ण जीवन	Troublesome life.
74.	**Catch a tartar**	शत्रु या बहुत बड़ी परेशानी से ... सामना होना	To grapple with a unexpectedly. formidable opponent.
75.	**Cat's paw**	निजी स्वार्थ के पूर्ति में जिस..... व्यक्ति का प्रयोग किया जाए.....	A person used by another as a dupe or tool.
76.	**Chew the cud**	मनन करना	To ponder over / meditate.
77.	**Chicken hearted**	कायर	Lacking courage / cowardly.
78.	**Cock-and-bull story**	मनगढ़ंत कहानी	A concocted story.
79.	**Crocodile tears**	दिखावटी आँसू	An false display of grief.

80.	**Cross swords**	लड़ना	To quarrel or fight.
81.	**Cry for the moon**	किसी असंभव वस्तु की कामना करना	To desire the unattainable.
82.	**Cry over spilled milk**	व्यर्थ पछताना.....	Regret in vain for what cannot be undone.
83.	**Cut a sorry figure**	अपने प्रयास से तनिक भी प्रभाव न छोड़ना	To give a poor show.
84.	**Cut both ways**	दोनों ही पार्टी के पक्ष में तर्क करना	Argue in favour of both sides.
85.	**Cut no ice**.....	कोई असर नहीं डालना	To fail to make an impression.
86.	**Cut one's coat according to one's cloth .....**	अपनी आय के अनुसार व्यय करना	To live within one's means.
87.	**Dance to one's tune**	हुक्म का पालन करना	Obeying one's order.
88.	**Dark horse**	जो अप्रत्याशित रूप से जीत जाए..	One who wins unexpectedly.
89.	**Dead letter**	कानून, जो कभी लागू था लेकिन अब लागू नहीं है।	A law or ordinance that is no longer enforced.
90.	**Democle's sword**.....	सिर पर मंडराता खतरा.....	Constant threat.
91.	**Die a dog's death**.....	लज्जाजनक मौत मरना.....	To die a shameful death.
92.	**Die in harness**	अपने कार्यावधि के दौरान ही मृत्यु होना	Die while in service.
93.	**Dog in the manger**	जो दूसरो को उस सुख का भोग करने नहीं देता है जो उसके किसी काम का नहीं	A person who prevents others from enjoying what he cannot.
94.	**Donkey's years**.....	काफी समय बाद	A long time.
95.	**Draw a line**	मर्यादा तय करना	Set a limit.
96.	**Duck in a thunder storm**	व्यथा में	In a painful condition.
97.	**Eagle eyed**	तेज नजर वाला	With keen eye sight.
98.	**Eat humble pie**	शर्मीन्दगी झेलना	To apologize.
99.	**Eat one's words**	शब्द वापस लेना.....	Take a statement back.
100.	**Elbow room**	काम करने की स्वतंत्रता	Sufficient scope to move or function.
101.	**End in smoke**	कोई परिणाम न निकलना.....	Come to nothing.
102.	**Escape one's lips**.....	बोल जाना	Speak unintentionally or unexpectedly.
103.	**Fabian policy**	सावधानीपूर्ण मन्दगति नीति.....	Deliberate slow policy/ policy of delaying decisions.
104.	**Fair and square**	निष्पक्ष	In an honest way .
105.	**Fair sex**	नारी जाति	Women.
106.	**Fair weather friend**	मुसीबत में साथ न	Selfish friends who are with us

	देने वाला मित्र	only in comfortable situation.
107. Fancy price	मुंहमांगी कीमत	At any cost/ at demanded price.
108. Feather in the cap	अच्छी उप्लब्धि	Additional success.
109. Feather one's nest	अपने पद का लाभ उठा कर कमाई करना, भविष्य के लिए जुगाड़ करना	To enrich oneself by taking advantage of one's position.
110. Fight shy of	टालना	To attempt to avoid a thing or person.
111. Fish in troubled waters	विषम परिस्थिति का लाभ उठाना	To take advantage of the problems of others.
112. Fish out of water	कष्टप्रद अवस्था में	Out of one's usual and comfortable place.
113. Fly in the ointment	असुविधा	A slight unpleasant thing that obstruct the enjoyment of something.
114. Fool's paradise	झुठी उम्मीद में खुश होना	A state of being happy for foolish or unfounded reasons.
115. Forty winks	झपकी	A nap.
116. French leave	बिना सूचना के अनुपस्थित होना	A leave without information or permission.
117. Fringe benefits	वेतन के अलावा मिलने वाला लाभ	An additional benefit apart from salary.
118. From hand to mouth	सिर्फ गुजारा भर	Providing only bare essentials.
119. Gala day	आनंदोत्सव का दिन	Celebration day.
120. Get away with	बच निकलना	To escape.
121. Get down to	काम गंभीरतापूर्वक आरंभ करना	To attend to work seriously.
122. Get into a soup	झंझट में पड़ना	Get into trouble.
123. Get into hot water	समस्या में फँसना	Get into trouble.
124. Get off scot free	अदण्डित निकल जाना	To escape without punishment.
125. Get on one's nerves	तंग करना	To irritate or annoy.
126. Gibble-gabble	मूर्खतापूर्ण वार्तालाप	Foolish talk.
127. Gift of the gab	चतुराईपूर्वक धारा प्रवाह बोलने की शक्ति	Talent for speaking.
128. Give a piece of mind	डाँटना	To rebuke or scold.
129. Go through fire and water	कोई भी खतरा मोल लेना	To brave any danger.
130. Go to dogs	व्यर्थ होना	To deteriorate/ degenerate.
131. Go to rack and ruin	विनाश होना	To decay or get destroyed.
132. Good Samaritan	दयालु व्यक्ति	A person who helps and pays

		sympathy to those in distress.
133. Grass widow	ऐसी विवाहिता जिस का पति उससे दूर हो	A woman who is separated, divorced or lives apart from her husband.
134. Grease the palm	रिश्वत देना	To bribe.
135. Green room	अभिनेता का भेष-भूषा का कमरा	A lounge in a theater or studio for the performers to get ready.
136. Grist to one's mill	फायदेमंद	Something that can be used for one's advantage.
137. Halcyon days	खुशगवार दिन	Peaceful days.
138. Hammer and sickle	समाजवाद का प्रतीक	A symbolic representation of commu-nism in general.
139. Hammer and tongs	बहुत अधिक मेहनत से	With great effort or energy.
140. Hand and glove with	अच्छे सहयोग से	In close co-operation.
141. Hang by a thread	बहुत नाजुक स्थिति में होना	Be in a risky situation.
142. Hard nut to crack	जटिल समस्या/ व्यक्ति	A difficult problem to solve/ A person difficult to understand.
143. Haul over the coals	कोसना, भर्त्सना करना	To take to task, to reprimand.
144. Have finger in the pie	किसी कार्य में शामिल रहना	To be involved in something.
145. Have one's hands full	काम की कमी नहीं होना	To be completely occupied.
146. Have one's way	अपनी इच्छा के अनुसार	The way one wants.
147. Have several irons in the fire	एक ही समय कई कार्यों में शामिल होना	To be involved in many projects or activities at the same time.
148. Hen-pecked husband	जोरू का गुलाम	Admirer of one's own wife in a servile manner.
149. Herculean task	बहुत कठिन कार्य	Task requiring tremendous effort.
150. High and dry	अकेला	In a deprived situation (alone).
151. High handed	निरंकुश	Overbearing.
152. High living	ऐश आराम की जिन्दगी	Living with comfort and ease.
153. Hit below the belt	गलत तरीके से प्रहार करना	To strike unfairly.
154. Hit the jackpot	बड़ी कामयाबी मिलना	Gaining a big/ great success (speci-ally by luck).
155. Hit the nail on the head	सही समय पर सही बात/कार्य करना	To do the right thing at the right time
156. Hobson's choice	कोई विकल्प न होना	No alternative.
157. Hole and corner policy	गुप्त नीति	Secret policy.
158. Hue and cry	हो-हल्ला	Any loud public outcry.

159. Hush money	किसी बात को गुप्त रखने के लिए दिया जाने वाला पैसा	Money given to someone to keep something secret.
160. In a nutshell	संक्षेप में	In very brief form.
161. In black and white	लिखित में	In printed or written form.
162. In full swing	पूरे जोरों पर	At the height of activity.
163. In the blues	दुःख/संताप में	In dumps depressed.
164. In the long run	अन्ततः	Ultimately.
165. In the nick of time	ठीक समय पर	At the last possible moment.
166. In the same boat	एक ही हालात में	Sharing the same problems.
167. In vogue	प्रचलित	In the current fashions.
168. Ins and outs	विस्तृत विवरण	Intricacies or complications/ full detail.
169. Iron hand/ Iron fist	कड़ाई से	Rigorous control.
170. Itching palm	रिश्वत लेने की आदत होना	Craving for bribe.
171. Itsy bitsy	अत्यन्त छोटा	Very small or tiny.
172. Jack of all trades and master of none	जो आदमी किसी भी काम में निपुण न हो, लेकिन सभी कार्यों की जानकारी रखता हो	A person who knows many different kinds of work but is a master of none.
173. Jail bird	जो जेल में हो या पहले रह चुका हा	A person who is or has been confined to jail.
174. Jaundiced eye	पक्षपातपूर्ण दृष्टिकोण	To look at something with a prejudiced view.
175. Judas kiss	झूठा प्यार	False love.
176. Jump to a conclusion	बिना सोचे-समझे नतीजे पर पहुँच जाना	To come to a conclusion prematurely.
177. Kangaroo court	गैर-कानूनी न्यायालय	An illegal court.
178. Keep one's cards close to one's chest	किसी बात को छिपाना	Hiding something.
179. Keep one's fingers crosses	किसी अच्छी घटना के होने की कामना करना	To wait expectantly.
180. Keep one's word	प्रतीज्ञा पूरी करना	To keep one's promise.
181. Keep the ball rolling	जारी रखना	To maintain the progress of a project or plan.
182. Keep the wolf from the door	दरिद्रता से संघर्ष करना	To avert poverty/ starvation.
183. Kill two birds with one stone	एक कार्य करके दो समस्याओं से निपट लेना	Doing two things at the same time while effort is made for one
184. Kith and kin	बन्धु-बान्धव	Blood relations.

185. Knit one's brow	त्यौरियाँ चढ़ाना (गुस्सा करना) ..	To frown.
186. Lady's man	जो महिलाओं के संगत में रहना पसंद करता हो	A man who is fond of the company of women.
187. Lame excuse	असंतोषजनक बहाना	False excuse/ baseless excuse.
188. Left- handed compliment	प्रशंसा के रूप में अपमान	An insult disguised as a compliment.
189. Lion's share	सबसे बड़ा हिस्सा.....	Large part.
190. Live in an ivory tower ...	सम्पन्नता में जीना एवं आम लोगों के दु:ख से खुद को दूर रखना	Living in comfort and being unaware of realities of others' miseries.
191. Loaves and fishes.....	व्यक्तिगत लाभ	Material benefit.
192. Look off colours	अस्वस्थ दिखाई देना	Look ill or unhealthy.
193. Look through coloured glasses	झूठे आवरण से देखना.....	To see with different/ wrong views.
194. Lump in the throat	गला भर जाना (भावनात्मक क्षण में)	A tight or uncomfortable feeling in throat due to emotions.
195. Mad as a march hare.....	सिरफिरा	Crazy and insane.
196. Make a clean breast.....	सच कबूल लेना	To confess especially something bad or illegal.
197. Maiden name	विवाहिता स्त्री का विवाह से पूर्व का नाम	A women's surname before marriage.
198. Maiden speech	प्रथम सार्वजनिक भाषण.....	First speech.
199. Make a hash	गड़बड कर देना	To mess up.
200. Make a mountain out of a mole hill.....	बात का बतंगड़ बनाना	To exaggerate a minor difficulty.
201. Make both ends meet ...	आय के अंदर ही गुजारा करना ..	To live within one's means.
202. Make hay while the sun shines	मौके का लाभ उठाना	To take the benefit of an opportunity.
203. Make or mar	बनाना या बिगाड़ना	To make or destroy.
204. Make the best of both the worlds.....	दोनों हाथ में लड्डू.....	Getting benefited from both the sides.
205. Make up one's mind.....	निश्चय करना	To decide.
206. Man of means	समृद्ध व्यक्ति	A wealthy man.
207. Man of iron	दृढ़ इच्छा शक्ति वाला	Man with strong will-power.
208. Man of letter.....	विद्वान आदमी.....	Learned person.
209. Man of parts.....	सुयोग्य व्यक्ति	A man of qualities.
210. Man of spirit	उत्साहित व्यक्ति.....	A man full of enthusiasm.
211. Man of straw	वह आदमी जिसका कोई मत न हो	A weak person.

212. Man of the world	अनुभवी व्यक्ति.....	An experienced person.
213. Man of word	जुबान का सच्चा	True to one's word.
214. Mare's nest	झूठी अफवाह	A false invention.
215. Midas touch	जादूई शक्ति (जिस काम में हाथ लगाए वह लाभदायक सिद्ध हो)	A man with extraordinary power or capacity to make any venture profitable.
216. Mince matters	ज्यादा सख्त शब्दों के प्रयोग से बचना	To moderate or restrain one's language.
217. To Mind one's P's ..... and Q's	शिष्टाचार का पूरा ध्यान रखना ..	Taking care of behaviour properly.
218. Miss the beat	अवसर खोना	To lose an opportunity.
219. Mother wit	आम जानकारी	Common sense.
220. Move heaven and earth	आकाश-पाताल एक करना	To try one's best.
221. Much cry and little wool/ Much ado about nothing.....	राई का पहाड़ बनाना	Lot of fanfare for something which has very little importance.
222. Narrow escape/Close Shave	बाल-बाल बचना	To escape by a little margin.
223. Nig-nag	जो लगातार परेशान करें ..... (African-American के लिए नस्ल-सूचक शब्द के रूप में प्रयुक्त शब्द)	A noun used to address someone (with joke or frustation).
224. Nine day's wonder	कम समय का सुख (चार ..... दिन की चाँदनी)	Something that arouses great interest but for a very short period.
225. Nip in the bud	आरंभ में ही नष्ट कर देना.....	To put on end to something in its initial stage.
226. Null and void	बेकार	Ineffective.
227. Nurse a grudge	शत्रुता भाव कायम रखना	Bear resentment for long period.
228. Oily tongue	खुशामद की भाषा	Flattering words.
229. On one's guard	सावधान/सचेत रहना.....	Vigilant.
230. On one's last legs	खत्म होने की स्थिति में होना ...	Close to collapsing.
231. Once for all.....	हमेशा के लिए (काम ..... खत्म करना)	For the last time/ Conclusively.
232. Open question	सवाल जिस का एक से अधिक . उत्तर हो सकता है।	A question which may have more than one answer.
233. Palmy days.....	अच्छे व शांतिपूर्ण दिन	Prosperous/ affluent days.
234. Pandora's box	समस्याओं का भंडार ..... (जिससे वाकिफ न हो)	A source of extensive but unforeseen troubles.
235. Part and parcel.....	आवश्यक अंग.....	Inseparable part.

236. Past master	विशेषज्ञ	An expert.
237. Pay the piper	खर्च वहन करना	To bear the cost of something/ some service rendered.
238. Pay through his nose	अत्यधिक खर्च वहन करना	To pay dearly.
239. Penny wise pound foolish	छोटे खर्च में किफायत करना और बड़ी रकम उड़ाना	Careful about trifles but wasteful in large ventures.
240. Pick up the gauntlet	चैलेंज कबूल कर लेना	To accept the challenge.
241. Play ducks and drakes	पैसे बर्बाद करना	To waste money.
242. Play second fiddle	निचला स्थान स्वीकारना	To be at a subordinate position.
243. Play truant	बिना इजाजत काम से गायब रहना	To be absent from duty without permission.
244. Poison someone's ears	कान भरना	To speak against one to another.
245. Poke one's nose	टाँग अड़ाना	To Interfere.
246. Pour oil on troubled waters	क्रोध शांत करना	To pacify the matters.
247. Pros and cons	पक्ष और विपक्ष	For and against.
248. Pull ones' legs	टाँग खिंचना (मजाक उड़ाना)	To make fun of or to tease.
249. Pull the wool over somebody's eyes	धोखा देना	To mislead.
250. Put a spoke in one's wheel	तंग करना/ बाधा उत्पन्न करना	To obstruct.
251. Put in cold storage	काम को लम्बित कर देना	To keep a work pending.
252. Put one's foot down	अपने प्राधिकार को दर्शाना	To act firmly.
253. Put one's shoulders to the wheel	स्वयं अपने प्रयासो से किसी कार्य को करना	To work or exert oneself heavily.
254. Put the cart before the horse	कोई काम उल्टे सिरे से प्रारंभ करना	To do things wrongly.
255. Put the cat among pigeons	गलत काम/ बात से काफी लोगो का गुस्सा भड़का देना	To say/ do something that causes trouble or make many very angry.
256. Quarrel with one's bread and butter	जहाँ से रोजी-रोटी मिलती है, वहाँ के वरिष्ठ अधिकारी से लड़ना	To fight with the executive or employer, who is providing one's means of living.
257. Queer fish	अजीब व्यवहार वाला व्यक्ति	Strange person.
258. Rain cats and dogs	तेज बारिश होना	Rain very heavily.
259. Rainy day	आर्थिक कष्ट के दिन	Future time of need, especially financial need.
260. Read between the lines	छिपा हुआ अर्थ समझ जाना	To understand the hidden meaning.

261. Red handed	अपराध करते समय	Exactly while committing a crime or doing something wrong
262. Red letter day	सौभाग्य का अत्यन्त महत्त्वपूर्ण दिन	A memorably important or happy occasion.
263. Red tapism	लाल फीताशाही	Strict adherence to excessive paper work and official formalities.
264. Rest on one's laurels	भूतकाल के उपलब्धि पर निर्भर रहना	Depending on the achievement made in the past.
265. Rhyme or reason	किसी भी कारण से	Sense, logic or meaning.
266. Right hand man	मुख्य सहायक व्यक्ति	One's most valuable assistant or supporter.
267. Rise like a phoenix from its ashes	बहुत बड़ी समस्या से उबर कर निकल आना	To make a miraculous comeback after a seemingly insurmountable setback.
268. Rock the boat	संतुलन बिगाड़ना	To disturb a situation which was otherwise stable.
269. Rolling stone	जो स्थिरता के साथ कार्य नहीं करता है	A restless person.
270. Royal road	आसान रास्ता	An easy or direct way of achieving a desired result.
271. Rule the roost	रोब जमाना	To dominate.
272. Run amuck	सनक सवार होना	Mad with murderous frenzy.
273. Run in the same groove	संबंधो को मधुर बनाए रखना	Maintaining a sweet relationship.
274. Run-of-the mill	सामान्य	Average/ common.
275. Run the gauntlet	बुरे अनुभव से गुजरना	To go through an unpleasant experience.
276. Sail under false colours	धोखा देना	To pretend to be something that you are not.
277. Save ones' skin	स्वयं को बचाना	To save oneself.
278. See eye-to-eye	पूर्णतः सहमत होना	Showing agreement/ to agree.
279. See pink elephants	अत्यधिक नशा के कारण उन चीज़ों को देखना जो वास्तव में न हो	Any visual hallucination arising due to intoxication.
280. See red	गुस्से में होना	Be very angry.
281. See through	समझ जाना	Comprehend/ understand.
282. Set at naught	असम्मान करना	To disregard or treat as of no importance.
283. Set one's face against	कड़ा विरोध करना	To oppose with determination.

284. Set one's heart on	बहुत चाहना	To have as one's ambition to obtain something.
285. Set one's teeth on edge.	परेशान करना.....	To irritate or annoy someone.
286. Set the Thames on fire .	आश्चर्यजनक कार्य करना.....	To achieve something amazing.
287. Shoulder to shoulder	पूर्ण सहयोग के साथ	With united effort.
288. Show white feather	भय प्रदर्शित करना	To show cowardice.
289. Sine die	अनिश्चित काल के लिए.....	Indefinitely.
290. Sit on the fence.....	किसी का पक्ष नहीं लेना.....	Refuse to take side in a dispute.
291. Slip of the tongue	जुबान फिसलना	Spoken unintentionally.
292. Slow coach	आलसी व्यक्ति	A person with lazy approach of working.
293. Small fry	गैर महत्वपूर्ण व्यक्ति	Insignificant person.
294. Smell a rat	कुछ गलत है-ये..... महसूस कर लेना	To suspect of something wrong done.
295. Smooth sailing.....	परेशानी के बिना	Easy progress.
296. Snake in the grass	आस्तीन का सांप/ कपटी मित्र ...	A secret enemy.
297. Shake in the shoes	डर से काँपना	A tremble with fear or apprehension.
298. Sow the dragon's teeth .	भविष्य के लिए पेरशानी ..... इक्ट्ठा करना	To create future troubles for yourself or others.
299. Speak one's mind.....	मन की बात करना.....	Speak what one really thinks.
300. Spick and span	साफ-सुथरा	In order/ neat and clean.
301. Stand on one's own legs	आत्म-निर्भर होना	To be self dependent.
302. Stand/Stick to one's guns	अटल रहना	To be strict and determined.
303. Stand somebody in good stead	लाभदायक सिद्ध होना	To be of great use and benefit to someone.
304. Steal a march	चुपके से लाभ प्राप्त कर लेना...	To obtain an advantage by secret means.
305. Step into another's shoes	किसी दूसरे की जगह लेना.....	To take over a job/responsibility of some other person.
306. Stiff-necked person	ढ़ीट	Stubborn or arrogant.
307. Stir a finger.....	कोशिश करना	Making effort.
308. Stone's throw	बहुत नजदीक.....	Very near.
309. Street Arabs	बेघर एवं अनाथ.....	A homeless person (especially who survives by begging).
310. Sum and substance	सारांश	Main idea or gist.
311. Swan song	मरने/ सेवानिवृति के पहले की... बिदाई संगीत या समारोह	The last ceremony or farewell.

312. Sweat of one's brow	कड़ी मेहनत	Hard labour.
313. Swelled head	घमंडी	Grand opinion of oneself/ conceited.
314. Sworn enemies	कट्टर दुश्मन	People hating each other a lot.
315. Take away one's breath.	भौचक्का कर देना	To overwhelm with surprise.
316. Take by storm	अचानक प्रभावित करना	To surprise unexpectedly.
317. Take into account	पर विचार करना	To consider.
318. Take one at one's word ..	किसी के कहने पर विश्वास करना	To be convinced of one's sincerity and act in accordance with his/her statement.
319. Take the bull by the horns	संकट का सीधा एवं खतरनाक तरीके से सामना करना ...	To adopt the most direct but the most dangerous way of facing adifficulty.
320. Take to one's heels	भाग जाना	To run away.
321. Talk big	डींगें मारना	To boast or brag.
322. Talk of the town	चर्चित बात	To be the person or subject everyone is talking about.
323. The printer's devils	छपाई त्रुटि	Error in printing.
324. Think twice	सोच समझ कर निर्णय लेना	To consider carefully before deciding.
325. Through thick and thin .	सभी परिस्थितियों में	In good and bad times.
326. Throw cold water upon ..	हतोत्साहित करना	To discourage.
327. Throw down the gauntlet	चैलेंज करना	To challenge.
328. Tooth and nail	पूरी ताकत से	Violently.
329. True to one's salt	वफादार/ नमक हलाल	Loyal person.
330. Turn a deaf ear to	अनसुना करना	Not to pay attention to.
331. Turn over a new leaf	बुरे आचरण छोड़ अच्छी दिशा में पूर्ण रूप से बदलना ..	To be entirely changed (for good).
332. Turn the corner	किसी कार्य में आये संकटपूर्ण स्थिति से उबर जाना ...	To pass through a critical point in a process.
333. Turn turtle	उलट-पलट जाना	To overturn.
334. Turn up one's nose at	नीचा समझना	To take lightly with contempt.
335. Under the nose of	आँखों के सामने, नाक के नीचे .	Right in front of someone.
336. Under the thumb of	के वश में होना	Under the power or influence of.
337. Up and doing	काम में सक्रिय रूप से लगना ...	Active in work.
338. Up one's sleeves	छिपा के रखी गई वस्तु जिसका प्रयोग जरूरत पड़ने पर करें .	An item kept hidden and used whenever required.

339. Uphill task ..... बहुत कठिन कार्य ..... Difficult task.

340. Upon one's sweet will .... अपनी इच्छा पर..... On self desire or wish.

341. Ups and downs ..... उतार-चढ़ाव ..... Good and bad times.

342. Utopian scheme ..... आदर्श किन्तु कार्यान्वित न होने वाली योजना ..... A visionary scheme though Impractical.

343. Weather the storm ..... समस्या से मुकाबला कर सुरक्षित बाहर निकलना ..... Survive by coming out of difficulties.

344. Well-to-do ..... सम्भ्रांत ..... Affluent.

345. Wet blanket ..... मजा किरकिरा करने वाला ..... One who spoils the enjoyment.

346. Wheels within wheels ... जटिल कार्य का और जटिल होना ..... A series of intricately connected events

347. White elephant ..... महंगा परंतु बेकार ..... Expensive but of no use.

348. White lie ..... छोटा एवं गैर-महत्त्वपूर्ण झूठ ..... A minor lie.

349. Will O' the wisp ..... भ्रामक उम्मीद ..... Elusive/ unreal.

350. Windfall ..... ऐसा लाभ जिस की उम्मीद ना हो ..... Sudden gain received unexpectedly.

351. With a grain of salt ..... स्वीकार करना लेकिन शंका के साथ To accept with misgiving.

352. With one accord/ in one voice एक स्वर में ..... Unanimously.

353. Wolf in sheep's clothing मित्रता जताने वाला खतरनाक आदमी ..... A malicious person in harmless or benevolent disguise.

354. Word for word ..... शब्दशः..... In exactly the same word.

355. Word of mouth ..... अनौपचारिक वार्तालाप ..... Informal oral communication.

356. Yeoman's service ..... अति उत्तम..... Excellent work.

23 IDIOMS AND PHRASES - 2

CHAPTER

'LET'S USE THEM IN SENTENCES'

1. **Above board** *(honest and straightforward, ईमानदारी एवं नि:छल)*- Gandhi ji was above board and hence had nothing to hide.
2. **Adam's ale** *(pure water, शुद्ध जल)*- In the remotest parts of Rajasthan, people walk miles for Adam's ale.
3. **Add a new feather in one's cap** *(to acquire a new honour or distinction, कोई नया सम्मान प्राप्त करना)*- Paramount Coaching Centre has added a new feather in its cap by starting Paramount Reader Publication .
4. **Add insult to injury** *(to harm as well as humiliate, जले पर नमक छिड़कना)*- She has added insult to injury by returning the gift and sending a 'get lost' note.
5. **After one's own heart** *(similar to you, जो आप के जैसा ही है)*- Seeing your inclination towards art and Literature, I can say that you are clearly a person after my own heart.
6. **An eye wash** *(a pretence, दिखावा)*- The whole investigation was just an eye wash as no one was held guilty.
7. **An hair-breadth escape** *(very narrow escape, बाल-बाल बचना)*- He had a hair-breadth escape when his bike skid on the oil drenched road.
8. **An old flame** *(long time love, पुराना प्यार)*- He met his old flame in the market yesterday but prudently avoided eye contact .
9. **An old head on young shoulders** *(to be more matured than one's own age, अपनी उम्र से ज्यादा समझदार होना)*- He is an old head on young shoulders as he teaches Physics at a university at an young age of 25 .
10. **As fit as a fiddle** *(strong and healthy, स्वस्थ)*- He feigned illness but I knew that he was as fit as a fiddle.
11. **Assume airs** *(to pretend superiority, बड़प्पन दिखाना)*- After becoming an IAS officer he has assumed airs.
12. **At a stone's throw** *(at a little distance, थोड़ी दूरी पर)*- Lal Quila is at a stone's throw from my house.
13. **At large** *(absconding, कानून के गिरफ्त से दूर)*- Many terrorists are at large and posing serious threat to the security of India.
14. **At logger heads** *(to be at strife, शत्रुता की अवस्था)*- Congress is always at logger heads with the BJP.

15. **At naught** *(to disregard or treat as of no importance, असम्मान करना)*- Leaders today set Gandhiji's ideals at naught.
16. **At odds** *(in disagreement, असहमत होना)*- Various political parties are at odds in the matter of Women Reservation Bill.
17. **At sea** *(to be confused, उलझन में)*- He was at sea when he saw the question paper.
18. **At one's beck and call** *(at service, आज्ञा में हाजिर रहना)*- The servants were always at the beck and call of the rich merchant.
19. **Back stairs influence** *(improper and private influence, ऐसा प्रभाव जो असार्वजनिक हो एवं सही नहीं हो)*- He tried to get a government job by back stair influence.
20. **Bad egg** *(a worthless person, अवांछनिय व्यक्ति)*- Often a prodigal son of a rich father becomes a bad egg for the society.
21. **Bandy words** *(to argue, जुबान लड़ाना)*- The two neighbourers usually bandy words and create a lot of nuisance.
22. **Bank upon** *(depend on, count on, पर निर्भर होना)*- You can bank upon us at the time of need.
23. **Bated breath** *(holding your breath, in anxiety, चिंता इत्यादि से साँस रूकना)*- We waited for the good news outside the delivery room with bated breath.
24. **Caught red-handed** *(to be caught while committing a crime, रंगे हाथ पकड़े जाना)*- My brother felt ashamed when he was caught red handed reading my personal diary.
25. **Be in bad books of** *(out of favour, कृपा पात्र न होना)*- She is in bad books of her parents as she went to see a movie without informing them.
26. **Be in bad odour of** *(to be out of favour, किसी की बुरी राय में होना)*- A corrupt minister is always in bad odour of the public.
27. **Be in good books of** *(to be in kind favour, कृपा पात्र होना½*- She is in good books of her employer as she is very efficient and hardworking.
28. **Be in good odour of** *(to be in good favour, किसी की अच्छी राय में होना)*- An honest minister is always in good odour of the public.
29. **Be in the driving seat** *(to take the whole responsibility, सारी जिम्मेदारी का भार उठाना)*- Ramesh is the eldest son and so he is in the driving seat after his father's death.
30. **Bear the palm** *(to be victorious, विजयी होना½*- Our school bore the palm in the dance competition held at the district level.
31. **Beat the air** *(to make useless efforts, व्यर्थ प्रयास करना)*- Trying to reform a hard-core criminal is like beating the air.
32. **Bed of roses** *(an easy and comfortable situation, सरल और आराम की स्थिति)*- The life of the prince was a bed of roses.
33. **Bee in one's bonnet** *(go on talking about something which other people think is not important, राग अलापना उस बात का जो दूसरों के लिए महत्वपूर्ण नहीं हो)*- She has a bee in her bonnet about recycling of waste material.
34. **Behind the scene** *(secretly, छिपे रूप में)*- The minister is the mastermind behind the scene and the police are arresting small fries.
35. **Below the belt** *(to strike unfairly, गलत तरीके से प्रहार करना)*- One must compete with others in a fair manner and should not hit anyone below the belt.

36. **Beside oneself** *(to feel extremely nervous or worried, बहुत अधिक चिन्तीत या व्याकल होना)*- Before any exam I am beside myself.
37. **Beside the mark** *(irrelevant, अप्रासंगिक)*- The judge did not hear any argument that was beside the mark.
38. **Between Scylla and Charybdis** *(between two great dangers, दो कठिन परिस्थितियों के बीच)*- She is between Scylla and Charybdis: If she obeys her mother-in-law she will lose her job and if she does not she will lose her family.
39. **Bid defiance** *(to defy, अवज्ञा करना)*- The army is bidding defiance by going against the government.
40. **Bite the dust** *(to be defeated, हार जाना)*- In every match , the Pakistani team bit the dust.
41. **Blaze the trail** *(to be pioneer and make path for others, दूसरो के लिए रास्ता बनाना)*- Only a man of iron can blaze the trail.
42. **Blessing in disguise** *(something intrinsically good but having a bad appearance, ऊपर से बुरी दिखने वाली पर वास्तव में अच्छी बात)*- He missed the train but it was a blessing in disguise as the train met with an accident.
43. **Blow one's own trumpet** *(to praise one's ownself, अपनी ही शेखी बघारना)*- Every political party always blows its own trumpet and denounces the other political parties.
44. **Blue stocking** *(an educated intellectual lady, पढ़ी लिखी महिला)*- A blue stocking was rarely found in Medieval India.
45. **Book worm** *(a bibliophilic person, किताबी कीड़ा)*- She is not a book worm but still comes first.
46. **Break the ice** *(to break silence by speaking first, निस्तब्धाता तोड़ना)*- Shyam broke the ice by talking to me after a long time.
47. **Bring down the house** *(receive great applause, भरपूर तारीफ पाना)*- The performance of Lata Mangeshkar brought the house down.
48. **Bring home** *(to explain, समझाना)*- I was unable to bring my views home before my parents.
49. **Bring to book** *(to punish, सजा देना)*- The guilty should be brought to book.
50. **Bring to light** *(to disclose, पता लगाना, छिपी बात को प्रका'ा में लाना)*- The CBI has brought many indiscripancies to light in many high profile cases.
51. **Brow beat** *(to intimidate, डराना)*- The Government must not brow beat the social reformers if they protest against any unjust law.
52. **Burn one's boats** *(point of no return, वापसी का रास्ता बंद कर देना)*- By signing the agreement he burnt his boat. Now he will have to work in this organization for two more years.
53. **By and by** *(gradually, धीरे-धीरे)*- You will learn the norms of this organization by and by.
54. **By and large** *(on the whole, संपूर्ण रूप से देखने पर½*- My friend is by and large an honest person.
55. **By dint of** *(by means of, के बल पर)*- You can succeed by dint of hard work only.

56. **By fair or foul means** *(by any way right or wrong, सही या गलत किसी भी प्रकार से)*- He will try to get a job by fair or foul means but will ultimately lose his peace of mind.
57. **By the rule of thumb** *(according to practical experience, व्यवहारिक रूप से)*- By rule of thumb we must not allow children to take major decisions.
58. **Call a spade and spade** *(to be frank, मुंहफट बात करना½-* He never hesitated in calling a spade a spade and hence he has few friends.
59. **Call names** *(to abuse, गाली देना½-* He has a bad habit of calling names.
60. **Capital punishment** *(death penalty, मौत की सजा)*- Capital punishment should be abolished as it is the cruelest form of punishment.
61. **Carrot and stick policy** *(reward and punishment policy, इनाम और सजा की पॉलिसी)*- The multinational companies adopt carrot and stick policy to get maximum output.
62. **Carry matters with a high hand** *(to deal with a person strictly, सख्ती से निपटना)*- The police carry matters with high hand.
63. **Cast a slur** *(to bring disgrace, अपय'ा का कारण बनना½-* Taking bribe could cast a slur on the honour of your family.
64. **Cave in** *(yield, झुक जाना)*- One must not cave in under pressure or temptation.
65. **Chapter and verse** *(in full detail, पूर्ण विवरण के साथ)*- I cannot narrate the whole incident in chapter and verse.
66. **Cheek by jowl** *(close together, साथ-साथ)*- Many poor people live cheek by jowl in a small room.
67. **Child's play** *(a very easy task, बच्चों का खेल½-* It is not a child's play to address a crowd.
68. **Clinch the issue** *(to clear the controversy, विवाद खत्म करना)*- The college administration clinched the issue by accepting the demands of the students.
69. **Clip one's wings** *(to weaken the power, पर कतरना)*- Sonia Gandhi clipped the wings of some ministers by withdrawing the powers delegated to them.
70. **Close shave** *(a narrow escape, बाल-बाल बचना½-* His family had a close shave in the bus accident.
71. **Cloven hoof** *(symbol of disgrace or evil intention, असम्मान या शैतानी इरादे का प्रतीक)*- Usually some or other leader of the BJP shows cloven hoof to the BJP leadership.
72. **Cock a snook** *(to show impudent contempt, असम्मान प्रकट करना)*- He refused to accept the award, cocking a snook at the Filmfare Award jury.
73. **Cock sure** *(very sure and certain, सुनिश्चित होना)*- I am cock sure, we will win the match.
74. **Cold reception** *(not a hearty welcome, जो गर्मजो'ी से भरा स्वागत नहीं हो)*- We were very unhappy when we were given cold reception at his marriage party.
75. **Come across** *(meet by chance, अचानक मुलाकात होना½-* I came across a problem when I was solving the equation.
76. **Come home to** *(to understand, समझ में आना)*- At last, it came home and we got the correct answer.
77. **Come in handy** *(to be useful, काम का होना)*- This opener comes in handy when we need to open this container.
78. **Come to a pass** *(a difficult situation, किसी घटना का होना)*- The accident came to pass due to the negligence of the driver.

79. Come true *(to prove true, सही साबित होना)*- My dreams have come true as I have got selected.

80. Cool one's heels *(to be kept waiting, इन्तजार कराया जाना)*- We sat down and cooled our heels for the minister who didn't turn up.

81. Corporal punishment *(bodily punishment, शारीरिक दण्ड)*- Corporal punishment is banned in schools.

82. Count chickens before they are hatched *(To anticipate profit before hand, पहले से लाभ का वि' वास कर लेना)*- Don't dream of profit now as it is futile to count your chickens before they are hatched.

83. Cross one's mind *(to occur to oneself, अचानक दिमाग में आना)*- I was resting when suddenly a new idea crossed my mind.

84. Curry favour *(to win favour by flattery, खुशामद करके के कृपा का पात्र बनना)*- Many developing countries curry favour with America.

85. Curtain lecture *(a private scolding by wife to her husband, अकेले में पति को दी गई डाँट)*- Don't tell me that your father has never got any curtain lecture in his life.

86. Cut both ends *(to argue in support of both sides of the issue, दोनों पक्षो के तरफ से तर्क देना)*- Mahesh always cuts both ends and hence he has neither friends nor foes.

87. Cut the Gordian knot *(to solve a difficult problem, किसी कठिन समस्या का हल निकालना½*- The national leaders cut the Gordian knot by making India a secular country.

88. Cut throat *(tough, कठीन)*- We face cut throat competition in every field.

89. Damp squib *(complete failure though earlier thought to be exciting, पूर्ण असफलता, जो लगता था उत्तेजनात्मक होगा)*- The performance of team India turned out to be a damp squib.

90. Dance attendance upon *(to be in servile attitude all the time, चापलूसी करना/ हाजिरी बज़ाना½*- The mother-in-law wanted the lady to dance attendance upon her.

91. Dark Horse *(unexpected winner, अप्रत्याशित विजेता)*- An unknown independent candidate came out as a dark horse after the election.

92. Days of reckoning *(a time when the effects of one's past mistakes or misdeed catch up with one, जब भूतकाल में की गई गल्तियों का असर दिखने लगे)*- You have been manipulating the account for a long time. Now days of reckoning have come.

93. Dead broke *(penniless, दिवालिया)*- Due to recession he has become a dead broke.

94. Die-hard *(obstinately resistant to change, परिवर्तन के खिलाफ दृढ़ता से होना)*- He is a die-hard fan of Devanand.

95. Dig one's own grave *(to do something which causes you harm, ऐसा कृत्य जो मुसीबत में डाल दे)*- You are digging your own grave by writing your pass word in your diary.

96. Dog's life *(very miserable life, कष्टदायक जीवन)*- Due to unchecked inflation, the poor are living a dog's life.

97. Double dealing *(deceitful actions, धोखेबाजी के कार्य)*- The double dealing of the lawyer was exposed by a sting operation.

98. Double-edged sword *(act that will harm oneself as well as the others, ऐसा कार्य जो दूसरे को और स्वयं को भी नुकसान पहुंचा सके)*- Corruption is a doubled edged sword for the public as well as the Government.

99. Down and out *(lacking funds, resources or prospects, फण्ड, संपदा इत्यादि की कमी होना)*- He was down and out when his factory was burnt to the ground.

100. Down in the mouth *(filled with melancholy and despondency, दुख एवं निराशा से भरा होना)*- She was down in the mouth when she saw her husband's dead body.

101. Draconian law *(extremely severe law, अत्यन्त क्रूर कानून)*- There are still many draconian laws in under developed countries.

102. Draw the long bow *(to tell large stories or to exaggerate, लम्बी कहानियाँ बनाना या बढ़ा-चढ़ा कर कुछ बताना)*- Come to the point. Don't draw a long bow.

103. Drawn battle / match *(a battle or match in which no party wins, बराबर की बाजी होना)*- The drawn battle created a lot of excitement till the last ball.

104. Drop in the ocean *(very insignificant amount, अत्यन्त ही थोड़ी मात्रा)*- My knowledge about Archeology is only a drop in the ocean.

105. Ducks and drakes *(to waste money, पैसे बर्बाद करना)*- I cannot allow you to play ducks and drakes with my hard earned money.

106. Dutch courage *(bravery under alcoholic influence, शराब के नशे में दिखाये जाना वाला साहस)*- His dutch courage will vanish when he will gain his sense.

107. Easy money *(bribe, रिश्वत)*- Many officers make easy money.

108. Eat one's word *(to admit that something you said in the past was wrong, ये स्वीकार करना कि कही हुई बात गलत थी)*- Those who said that Amitabh Bachhan's charm was over had to eat their word after the success of Kaun Banega Crorepati.

109. Egg on *(to urge somebody to do some thing that is generally wrong, कुछ गलत कार्य करने के लिए प्रोत्साहित करना)*- He egged me on to drive faster.

110. Eke out *(to support (existence) with difficulty and effort or to add (something insufficient), especially with effort, बहुत मुश्किल से कुछ उपलब्ध कराना)*- He is trying *to eke out an income by doing over time.*

111. Elixir of life *(nectar of life, जीवन का अमृत)*- Contentment is the elixir of life.

112. Enough and to spare *(plentiful, प्रचुर मात्रा में)*- He earns enough and to spare.

113. Ever and Anon *(now and then, जब-तब)*- The night was dark and we could hear the howling of dogs ever and anon.

114. Every dog has his day *(good fortune comes sooner or later, अच्छा दिन सबका आता है)*- When he bagged three movies in a row, he realized that every dog has his day.

115. Every Inch *(Completely, पूर्ण रूप से½*- She is an honest person by every inch .

116. Eye wash *(ineffective remedy which is just for show, सिर्फ दिखावे का)*- The committee set up to look into the multiple scams was just an eye wash.

117. See eye-to-eye *(showing agreement/ to agree, पूर्णतः सहमत होना)*- The two competitiors never see eye to eye.

118. Face the music *(to face opposition, कठिनाई या विरोध का सामना करना½*- Every leader has to face the music if he doesn't fulfill promises made by him.

119. Fan the flame *(to aggravate, बदतर बनाना½*- I don't want to fan the flame of the tension between the husband and the wife.

120. Few and far between *(very rare, बहुत कम)*- The houses in this remote village are few and far away.

121. Fight to the finish *(to fight to the end, आखिरी नतीजे तक लड़ना)*- When she was blamed and sued without any rhyme or reason, she pledged to fight the case to the finish.

122. Fish in troubled waters *(to take advantage of the difficulties of others, दूसरों की परेशानी का लाभ उठाना)*- Many lawyers don't hesitate from fishing in troubled waters.

123. Fit to hold a candle to *(match for, equal in quality, बराबरी का होना)*- He is such a miser that he is not fit to hold a candle of such a lavish reception.

124. Flash in the pan *(something or someone that became successful quickly and is unlikely to be repeated, अस्कमात सफलता पाना जो क्षणिक हो और भविष्य में फिर शायद न हो)*- The success of Kumar Gaurav in his debut movie 'Love Story' was a flash in the pan.

125. Flesh and blood *(human nature or physical existence, together with its weaknesses / substance and depth in artistic portrayal, हाड़-माँस का होना/ किसी कला में पायी जाने वाली गहराई)*- The movies of late seventies lacked flesh and blood with their ketchup blood and round the tree romance.

126. Flog a dead horse *(to waste one's energy, बेकार की कोशीश करना)*- Trying to reform a terrorist is like flogging a dead horse.

127. Fly in the face of *(to defy/ to brave/ to withstand, अवज्ञा करना/ साहस से सामना करना)*- The theory about the existence of heaven and hell flies in the face of all logic and common sense.

128. Fly into a passion *(to be enraged, क्रोधित होना)*- He flies into a passion within seconds if someone ignores his instructions.

129. Fool's errand *(a fruitless mission or undertaking, निष्फल कार्य)*- Many projects of Mohammad -bin-tuglaq were fool's errand.

130. Foot the bill *(bear expenses, खर्च वहन करना)*- You had ordered these tasteless pizzaz . Now you will have to foot the bill.

131. For good *(for ever, हमेशा के लिए)* He educated him and sent him to America for good.

132. For the rainy day *(precaution for emergency, कठिन परिस्थितियों के लिये प्रबन्ध)*- I have kept some money in the bank for the rainy days.

133. Foul Play *(treachery, धोखाधड़ी)*- Foul play destroys the fun of life.

134. French leave *(leave without information, बिना सूचना के अनुपस्थित होना)*- If you take french leave, you will be fined.

135. From the bottom of one's heart *(very sincerely, अन्तर मन से)*- I thanked him from the bottom of my heart for his timely help.

136. Gain ground *(to progress/ advance, तरक्की करना/ वर्चस्व बढ़ाना)*- Due to the misgovernance by the ruling party, the opposition is gaining ground.

137. Gentleman at large *(wealthy man with time on his hands, धनी व्यक्ति जिसके पास समय की कमी न हो)*- Here he was, talking like a gentleman at large who was free to come and go and roam about the world at pleasure,

138. Get down to brass tacks *(discuss the basic facts or realities/ to deal with the matter straight, किसी मुख्य विषय पर चर्चा करना)*- After avoiding the thorny question of tax reforms for months, the ruling party finally got down to brass tacks last week and drafted a preliminary proposal.

139. Get into a scrape *(find oneself in a difficult or awkward situation, खुद को मुश्किल हालात में पाना)*- By signing the bond he will get into a scrape.

140. Get the better of *(to overcome, काबू पा लेना)*- At last he got the better of his problems and opponents.

141. Get wind of *(to know the secret, भेद जान लेना½*- The opposition got the wind of the plans of the ruling party.

142. Gird up the loin *(to be well prepared for some difficult task, किसी कठिन कार्य को करने के लिए कमर कस कर तैयार होना½*- If we all gird up the loin, we can remove illiteracy.

143. Give a wide berth *(to give ample space or distance to avoid an unwanted consequence, किसी अवांछनिय नतीजे से बचने के लिए दूरी बनाये रखना)*- Being an understanding father, you should give a wide berth to your son and wait for the right time to talk to him.

144. Give cold shoulder *(pay no attention to, ध्यान न देना)*- He went to the police for help but they gave him cold shoulder.

145. Give somebody enough rope (to hang themselves) *(to allow someone to do what he wants to, knowing that he will probably fail or get into trouble, किसी को कुछ करने की अनुमति दे देना ये जानते हुए कि वह असफल हो जाएगा।)*- Don't stop him.Give him enough rope to hang. He will be rejected for his poor performance and will return home.

146. Give the devil his due *(even the wicked person should be given the credit due to him, बुरे आदमी की भी उचित प्रशंसा करना½*- In spite of being so rude, he helped me in need. The devil should be given his due.

147. Give up the ghost *(to die, मर जाना)*- My grandfather gave up to ghost last Sunday.

148. Give vent to *(to express one's thoughts or feelings, अपने विचारों या भावनाओं को प्रकट करना)*- Every Indian is free to give vent to his thoughts.

149. Wool-gathering *(to engage in fanciful daydreaming, मनभावन कल्पना में खोए रहना)*- Work hard. Wool gathering will not help you in any way.

150. Go back on one's word *(to change one's mind about/ repudiate, बात से पीछे हट जाना)*- She has decided to do charity and she should not go back on her word.

151. Go broke *(become bankrupt, दिवालिया होना)*- He has gone broke and is unable to make both ends meet..

152. Whole hog *(the whole way/ Completely, पूर्ण रूप से)*- She went the whole hog and checked the account of the whole month in one go.

153. Golden opportunity *(very favourable opportunity or chance, सुनहरा अवसर½*- He missed the golden opportunity by declining the offer.

154. Green horn *(an inexperienced or immature person, especially one who is easily deceived,अनुभवहीन व्यक्ति जिसे बेवकूफ बनाना आसान हो)*- He incurred heavy loss because he relied on the green horn who was his own nephew.

155. Hang in balance *(have two equally possible results/ be uncertain, अनिश्चिय की स्थिति)*- After the opposition party won the election, whether or not the new highway will be built, hangs in the balance.

156. Hang over one's head *(to have something bothering or worrying one, परेशानी या समस्या का बने रहना)*- He committed suicide because troubles and court cases hung over his head.

157. Hard and fast *(definite, निश्चित)*- There is no hard and fast rule for solving these numericals.

158. Harp on the same string *(to keep on talking on the same topic, एक ही विषय पर बात करते रहना)*- Some obsessed people have the habit of harping on the same string.

159. At the nick of time *(at the last possible moment, ठीक समय पर)*- I reached the examination hall at the nick of time.

160. Heart and soul *(with complete faith and dedication, सच्चे दिल से)*- He has put heart and soul in his work.

161. Heart to heart *(very frankly, पूरे दिल से, खुले रूप से)*- The two friends had a heart to heart talk as they met after many years.

162. Hen-pecked husband *(admirer of one's own wife in a servile manner, जोरू का गुलाम)*- Every boy boasts, "I will never become a hen pecked husband."

163. Himalayan blunder *(a serious mistake, गंभीर गलती)*- He committed a Himalayan blunder by leaving for work without his body guards and was shot dead.

164. Hit the nail on the head *(to act in the right way, ठीक नि'ाने पर चोट मारना)*- You have hit the nail on the head by making the bid at the right time.

165. Hold good *(valid/ applicable, लागू/ उचित ठहराना)*- Rule of triple talaq doesn't hold good even in the Islamic countries.

166. Hold one's ground *(to stand firm, दृढ़ता से डटे रहना)*- The Indian soldiers held their ground to the end.

167. Hold one's jaw *(to stop talking, बोलना बन्द होना)*- Please hold your jaw else I shall go away.

168. Hold the fort *(to stand firm on one's position, अपने स्थान पर डटे रहना)*- Our soldiers held the fort and proved their valour.

169. Hold the scales even *(to be impartial, निष्पक्ष रहना)*- The Judge must hold the scales even.

170. Hold water *(to stand up to critical examination, सही साबित होना)*- Your argument does not hold water.

171. Hot water *(trouble, परेशानियां)*- Your cousin is in hot water due to his controversial speech.

172. In a fix *(in a difficult mental state, मानसिक उलझन में)*- He was in a fix when he saw his mother in ICU.

173. In a tight corner *(in difficult situation, मुश्किल हालात में)*- I found myself in a tight corner when I lost my journey ticket.

174. In doldrums *(to be depressed, निराशा में)*- He was found in doldrum when he could not succeed even in his third attempt.

175. In embryo *(immature/ in the making, अविकसित अवस्था में)*- My plan of expanding my business is still in embryo.

176. In no time *(in a very short time, थोड़ी ही देर में)*- He can solve any mathematical problem in no time.

177. In one's teens *(from thirteen to nineteen years of age, तैरह से उन्नीस साल तक)*- A person in his teen is spirited, full of dreams and optimistic.

178. In the air (in circulation/ in people's thoughts, चर्चा में)- News of his cold blooded murder is very much in the air.

179. Down in the dumps *(unhappy, depressed, दुखी/ निराश)*- He is down in the dumps after his father's death.

180. In the family way (pregnant, *गर्भवती)*- She has applied for leave as she is in the family way.

181. In the good books of *(to be in favour with a person, पक्ष में करना)*- People usually flatter their boss to remain in their good books.

182. In the jaws of *(in the grip of, दांतों के बीच, किसी के कब्जे में)*- The boy was in the jaws of the kidnappers.

183. In the limelight *(at the centre of attention, आर्कषण का केन्द्र)*- Film stars are habitual of remaining in the lime light.

184. In the lurch *(in a difficult and embarrassing position, मुश्किल एवं बीच मंझधार वाली स्थिति में)*- when the experiment failed, the sub-ordinates left the eminent scientist in lurch.

185. Melting pot *(a place where immigrants of different cultures or races form an integrated society, ऐसा स्थान जहाँ अप्रवासी लोग अपनी-अपनी सभ्यता के साथ एक समाज बनाते है)*- With immigrants from all over the world getting an easy passage to India, our country is becoming a melting pot.

186. In the red (in debt, *कर्ज में)*- The company is in the red due to its unfeasible projects.

187. In the teeth of *(in opposition to or defiance of/ facing danger or threats, के विरूद्ध/ खतरे का सामना करना)*- The tribe was in the teeth of starvation.

188. In the twinkling of an eye *(in a moment/ in no time, क्षण भर में)*- The house came down in the twinkling of an eye.

189. To fish in troubled waters *(to take advantage of the problems of others, विषम परिस्थिति का लाभ उठाना)*- Many self-centred lawyers fish in troubled water.

190. For all intents and purposes *(for all practical purposes, हर व्यावहारिक उद्देश्य के लिए)*- This dictionary is useful for all intents and purposes.

191. Snake in the grass *(a secret enemy, आस्तीन का सांप/ कपटी मित्र)*- Politicians playing caste based politics are snakes in the grass.

192. Keep abreast of *(not to fall behind, पीछे न रह जाना)*- We must keep ourselves abreast of the latest development in technology.

193. Keep an eye on *(to watch, नजर रखना)*- It is very necessary for us to keep an eye on our growing children.

194. Keep an open table *(to entertain all, सब का स्वागत करना)*- It is not very difficult to keep an open table in a party.

195. Keep at an arm's length *(to keep at a distance, दूरी बना कर रखना)*- You must keep bad habits at arm's length.

196. Keep at bay *(To keep someone at a distance, दूर रखना)*- He held the police at bay with a gun for several hours.

197. Keep body and soul together *(to be able to pay for just those things that you need in order to live, सिर्फ जीवन-यापन भर का जुगाड़ कर पाना)*- They can barely keep body and soul together on what he earns.

198. Keep the pot boiling *(to keep going on actively, जीवन चर्या जारी रखना)*- One has to keep the pot boiling inspite of all odds one has to face in life.

199. Keep up appearance *(to keep one's prestige/ to maintain outward show, बाहरी दिखावा बनाये रखना)-* Inspite of being a bankrupt, he is able to keep up his appearance.

200. Kick one's heels *(wait impatiently to be summoned, बुलावे के लिए बेसब्री से इंतजार करना)-* The whole day we kicked our heels outside the court room.

201. Kick the bucket *(to die, मर जाना)-* He kicked the bucket and left his family in extreme financial difficulty.

202. Kill the fat calf for *(to arrange a lavish reception for someone, किसी का धूमधाम से स्वागत करना½-* India killed the fat calf for the Common Wealth Games.

203. Kiss the dust *(to be humiliated, अपमानित होना)-* In Indo-Pak war our enemies had to kiss the dust.

204. Knock against *(to hit against, टक्कर खाना)-* I couldn't see the transparent door and knocked against it.

205. Lapped in luxury *(brought up in luxury, विलासिता में पलना)-* Great people are generally not lapped in luxury.

206. Laugh in one's sleeves *(to laugh secretly, चुपके से)-* Our neighbours laughed in their sleeves when they saw my grand father wearing a pair of fashionable googles.

207. Lead by the nose *(to lead someone by coercion/ to guide someone very carefully, दवाब में या मार्गदर्शन करने हेतु किसी को रास्ता दिखाना)- I had to lead him by the nose to the meeting. He will never find his way through the admission form unless you lead him by the nose.*

208. Lead to the altar *(to marry, शादी करने जाना)-* He promised her to lead her to the altar.

209. Leap in the dark *(to do something though there is uncertainty about the outcome, अनिश्चित परिणाम होने पर भी कोई कार्य करना)-* To play lottery is to leap in the dark.

210. Leave no stone unturned *(to make all possible efforts, कोई भी प्रयत्न बाकी न छोड़ना)-* He worked very hard to pass the Civil Services Exams and left no stone unturned.

211. Leave one in the lurch *(to leave one in difficulties, किसी का कठिनाईयों में साथ छोड़ देना)-* He kicked the bucket and left his family in the lurch.

212. Let by-gones be by-gones *(to forget old things, पुरानी बातों को भूल जाना)-* India and Pakistan must start bi-lateral talks and let by-gones be by-gones.

213. Lick the dust *(to get defeated, हार जाना)-* The team licked the dust in the final match.

214. Lie in wait *(wait in hiding to attack,घात लगाये बैठे रहना)-* The policemen were lying in wait for the kidnappers.

215. Live in an Ivory tower *(where one can be aloof from the realities of life , जहाँ जीवन की वास्तविकता से दूर रहते हैं)-* The queen lived in an ivory tower and did not know the meaning of poverty.

216. Long and short *(all that can or need be said., सारांश)-* The long and short of the whole discussion will be made available to all in black and white.

217. Look down upon *(To hate a person, किसी व्यक्ति से घृणा करना)-* I hate those people who look down upon the poor.

218. Lose the day *(to be defeated, हार जाना)-* My favourite football team lost the day.

219. Make a fortune *(To grow rich, धनी बन जाना)-* He made a fortune by selling smuggled goods.

220. Make after *(to pursue or chase, पीछा करना)*- The people made after the chain snatcher and caught him.

221. Make amends *(to compensate, हर्जाना देना)*- He had to make amends for his bad behavior.

222. Make head or tail of *(to understand, समझना)*- The doctor could not make the head or tail of his illness.

223. Make one's mark *(to achieve distinction, अपना प्रभाव छोड़ना)*- India has made its mark in the field of technology.

224. Make out *(to understand, समझ लेना)*- I could not make out what he was saying.

225. Make up the leeway *(struggle out of a bad position, especially by recovering lost time, गवां चुके समय की क्षतिपूर्ति करके बुरे हालात से निकलना)*- The Government will have to make up the leeway by taking remedial actions immediately.

226. Make up one's mind (To determine, निश्चय करना½- She has made up her mind to divorce her cruel husband.

227. Make a clean breast *(to confess especially something bad or illegal, किसी गुनाह का सच कबूल लेना)*- After months of lying about the money, he decided to make a clean breast of it and tell the truth.

228. Man in the street *(common man, साधारण व्यक्ति)*- The life of a man in the street has become very difficult because of rising price.

229. Man of iron *(man with strong will-power, दृढ़ इच्छा शक्ति वाला)*- Nothing can deter a man of iron .

230. Meet half-way *(to be prepared for compromise, समझौते के लिए राजी होना½-* We were ready to meet the other party half way and settle all litigation.

231. Milk of human kindness *(human compassion, मानवता से भरा हृदय)*- Milk of human kindness is necessary for the existence of humanity.

232. Narrow circumstances *(hard days/ poverty, गरीबी के दिन)*- After his father's death, he is living in narrow circumstances.

233. Neither chick nor child *(no child, कोई बच्चे का न होना)*- She feels very lonely because she has neither chick nor child.

234. No love lost *(having no love, किसी प्रकार का प्रेम/मित्रता का न होना)*- There is no love lost between these two neighbours who are fighting an endless court case.

235. Nook and corner *(at every place, प्रत्येक स्थान पर)*- I searched for my book at every nook and corner of the house.

236. Oil someone's hands *(to bribe, रिश्वत देना)*- We should stop oiling the officials' hands.

237. Beauty is only skin deep (*physical beauty is not important, बाहरी सुन्दरता महत्वपूर्ण नहीं)*- She took a wrong decision by not marrying this gentleman.She doesn't know that beauty is only skin deep.

238. On and on *(to continue, जारी रखना)*- She went on and on but nobody listened to her.

239. On the horns of a dilemma *(to face a difficult situation between two problems, मुसीबत में फंसना, दो कठिन अवस्थाओं के बीच में)*- The demolition drive has put many shops on the horns of a dilemma because if they do not shut down, their shops will be sealed and if they do, they lose their means of livelihood.

240. On the wrong side of *(one's age being more than, अधिक उम्र का होना)-* He is on the wrong side of fifty now.

241. Open secret *(known to all, सर्वविदित)-* He is bankrupt and this is an open secret now.

242. Order of the day *(some common things of the time, कोई प्रचलित बात)-* Following new fashion is the order of the day.

243. Out of the wood *(out of difficulties, मुसीबत से छुटकारा)-* At last India came out of the wood and got independence.

244. Pay one back in one's own coin *(tit for tat, जैसे को तैसा)-* The person doing wrong should be paid back in his own coin.

245. Pell mell *(very fast and not organised, बहुत जल्द और अस्त-व्यस्त तरीके से)-* Every thing was done pell mell as we got the order at the eleventh hour.

246. Petticoat-Government *(undue influence of women, स्त्रियों का अनुचित दबाव)-* Petticoat-government may adversaly influence your whole project.

247. Pick holes in *(to find fault with, दूसरों में दोष निकालना½-* My boss has the habit of picking holes in our performance.

248. Pin prick *(troubles that are for short time, जो समस्याएं कुछ सिर्फ समय के लिए हो)-* We should ignore such pin pricks and get on with the job.

249. Play a double game *(to act dubiously, धोखाधाड़ी करना)-* My friend was playing a double game.

250. Play fast and loose *(be unreliable, अविश्वसनीय होना)-* How can you trust a man who plays fast and loose changing his statement every minute?

251. Play one false *(to deceive, किसी को धोखा देना)-* He played her false and married again.

252. Play one's cards well *(to do the correct things to achieve a desired result, समझदारी से काम करना)-* If you play your cards well, you will get selected..

253. Play the fool *(to act foolishly, बेवकूफी करना)-* Why do you play the fool when it comes to spending money?

254. Pocket an insult *(to bear insult, अपमान सहन कर लेना)-* Indians had to pocket much insult during their fight for Independence.

255. Poison one's ears against *(to set a person against another, किसी के विरुद्ध कान भरना)-* She has poisoned the ears of my mother-in-law.

256. Past master *(an expert, किसी क्षेत्र का विशेषज्ञ)-* He is a past master in cheating others.

257. Pour oil on troubled waters *(to pacify the anger of others, क्रोध को शान्त करने का प्रयत्न)-* He solved the matter by pouring oil on troubled waters with his good behaviour.

258. Pull the string *(to exercise secret influence, छिपे रूप से प्रभाव डालना)-* When I saw extreme level of red-tapism in the organization, I had to pull my strings to get my work done.

259. Pull to pieces *(to criticise severely, कटु आलोचना करना)-* The leader of opposition has pulled the ruling party to pieces.

260. Put an end to *(to finish, समाप्त कर देना)-* She has put an end to her unfeasible ideas.

261. Put pen to paper *(to start writing, लिखना आरम्भ कर देना)-* In my board examination I put my pen to paper without wasting a second.

262. Put the saddle on the right horse *(to blame the really guilty person, सही अपराधी पर आरोप लगाना)* The court put the saddle on the right horse and passed the right order.

263. Put to the sword *(to kill, मार देना)-* Nadir Shah put even children to the sword.

264. Put up with *(to tolerate, सहन करना)-* Maharana Pratap could not put up with insult.

265. Rank and file *(lower middle class people, साधारण श्रेणी के लोग)-* The extra-ordinary speeches of the great orators cannot be appreciated by the rank and file.

266. Red rag to a bull *(something that will surely produce a violent reaction, निश्चित ही उत्तेजित करने वाली बात)-* The racial comments against the Indians proved to be a red rag to a bull and the riot took place.

267. Rise to the occasion *(to show that you can deal with a difficult situation, ये दिखा देना कि आप मुश्किल हालात का सामना कर सकते है)-* Mahatma Gandhi rose to the occasion and dared the British.

268. Roll up one's sleeves *(to be prepared for hard work, कड़ी मेहनत के लिये तैयार रहना)-* We will have to roll up our sleeves as the time of examination has come.

269. Rub shoulders with *(to meet and spend time with, किसी के निकट सम्पर्क में आना)-* He claims to have rubbed shoulders with Salman Khan during his journey to Sydney.

270. Run down *(reduced in health/to criticize, स्वास्थ्य में गिरावट/ निन्दा करना)-* I was worried because she looked run down .
Do not run down your friends in public.

271. Run short/ Hard up *(not proving sufficient, shortage of money/ something, किसी चीज/ पैसे की कमी)-* I am running short of money these days.
If you are hard up, you can come to me.

272. Scratch one's head *(to be perplexed, परेशान हो जाना)-* I scratched my head when I saw the puzzles in the PO exam.

273. Screw up one's courage *(to gather courage, साहस बढ़ाना)-* Working women have to screw up their courage to handle eve teasing incidents at their working places.

274. Seal of love *(kiss, चुम्बन)-* They validated their marriage with a seal of love.

275. See the light *(to be born, जन्म लेना)-* Many female babies are aborted before they see the light.

276. Set price on one's head *(to offer reward for killing or helping in the arrest of a criminal, किसी अपराधी को मारने या पकड़वाने में मदद करने पर इनाम की घोषणा½-* The government of America had set price on Osama's head.

277. Show a clean pair of heels *(to run away, भाग जाना)-* The chain snatcher showed a clean pair of heels and the people were unable to catch him.

278. Sink fast *(to deteriorate in quality or condition, बद से बदतर होना)-* The patient was sinking fast.

279. Slip of the pen *(a small unintentional mistake in writing, लिखने में अनजाने में की जाने वाली गलती)-* The slip of the pen created a lot of confusion.

280. Snake in the grass *(some hidden enemy, अज्ञात शत्रु)-* Many leaders are snake in the grass creating disharmony in the society.

281. Sow wild oats *(indulgence in youthful follies, युवावस्था की बेवकूफियां करना)-* Mothers always keeps an eye on their daughters to see that they do not sow wild oats.

282. Square meal *(full meal, पेट भर भोजन)-* A poor person does not get even one square meal a day.

283. Stand in good stead *(to be of great service, बहुत सहायक होना)-* Your experience will always stand in good stead when you join a full time job.

284. Storm in a tea cup *(much hue and cry over a little matter, छोटी सी बात पर बहुत शोरगुल करना)-* Do not worry about these silly rows. They are just storm in a tea cup.

285. Strain every nerve *(to make every possible effort, हर प्रकार का प्रयत्न करना)-* I strained every nerve to get out of the problem.

286. Sword of Damocles *(an imminent danger, सिर पर लटकी तलवार)-* Terrorism is a sword of Damocles hanging over the whole world.

287. Take a leaf out of another man's book *(to imitate another person, नकल करना)-* He has no originality of thought; he only takes a leaf out of another man's book to make quick money.

288. Take an exception to *(to be offended by something, किसी बात का बुरा मानना)-* She took an exception to his joke.

289. Take into one's head *(to suddenly decide to do some thing, often silly or surprising, कुछ बेवकूफी भरी हरकत करने का अचानक निर्णय लेना)-* It took into their heads to get married next sunday.

290. Take pains *(to work hard, कठिन परिश्रम करना)-* She took pains to bring up her children after her husband's death.

291. Take the bull by the horns *(to face danger with courage, खतरे का हिम्मत से सामना करना)-* Bhagat Singh took the bull by the horns and bravely challenged the British empire.

292. Take to one's heels *(to run away, भाग जाना)-* when the police came, the robber took to his heels.

293. Tall talk *(boasting, शेखी मारना)-* One of my friends Rajesh is famous for his tall talks.

294. The Fourth Estate *(the press, प्रेस)-* Today the fourth estate can influence the court proceedings of any case.

295. The knock down price *(very low price, बहुत कम कीमत)-* I bought every thing at the mega sale at knock down prices.

296. Sheet anchor *(a person or thing to be relied upon in an emergency, आपातकाल में काम आने वाला व्यक्ति अथवा वस्तु)-* His uncle proved to be his sheet anchor after his father's death.

297. Thick-skinned person *(not easily offended, insensitive, लज्जाहीन या संवेदनहीन व्यक्ति)-* He is such a thick- skinned person that he laughed when people cursed and abused him.

298. Think lightly *(not to be serious about a thing, मजाक के रूप में लेना)-* Don't think of your married life lightly.

299. Throw light on *(to make something easier to understand, किसी विषय पर प्रकाश डालना)-* I wanted to throw light on the pitiful life of the bar dancers.

300. Throw mud at *(try to make a low opinion of someone by saying unpleasant things about him, बदनाम करना)-* Companies should think carefully before slinging mud at someone who may respond with a libel action costing it crores of rupees.

301. Tool in the hands of *(under the authority of another, दूसरे के हाथ में कठपुतली की भांति)-* The whole legal system has become a tool in the hands of the politicians.

302. Turn one's coat *(to change one's party, दल बदल लेना)-* Some people are so ambitious that they often turn their coat.

303. Turn the tables *(to change the situation completely, स्थिति को बिलकुल बदल देना)*- The ruling party had an easy victory in the last Lok sabha election but inflation and corruption have totally turned the table.

304. Under a cloud *(under suspicious conditions, संदेहपूर्ण स्थिति में)*- Ever since the rumours of corruption started, the former chief minister has been under a cloud .

305. Under the rose *(secretly, गुप्त रूप से)*- He is selling confidential documents under the rose.

306. Under the thumb of (completely under one's power or influence, *किसी के वर्चस्व में दबा होना)*- He is under the thumb of his mother and does not listen to the problems of his wife.

307. Upto the mark *(up to standard, उचित स्तर तक)*- I have to watch my staff all the time to keep them up to the mark.

308. Vexed question *(much debated and discussed, जिस प्रश्न पर काफी बहस हो चुकी हो)*- 'Mercy killing should be granted or not' has become a vexed question.

309. Wash dirty linen in public *(to expose private affairs in public, व्यक्तिगत बातों को बाहर उछालना)*- There is nothing as bad as washing one's dirty linen in public.

310. Wash one's hand of *(to be free from, किसी बात से मुक्त हो जाना)*- Police have washed their hands of the kidnapping case.

311. Wear a long face *(to look gloomy, उदास दिखाई देना)*- Inspite of losing his job, he did not wear a long face.

312. Wild goose chase *(useless efforts, व्यर्थ का प्रयत्न)*- Pakistan's efforts to grab Kashmir have proved to be a wild goose chase.

313. Win laurels *(to win honours, य'ा प्राप्त करना)*- Sachin won laurels for India.

314. Without rhyme or reason *(without any justification, अकारण)*- Don't shout at anyone without rhyme or reason.

24 IDIOMS AND PHRASES

CHAPTER

(PRACTICE SET)

Directions : In questions 1 to 300, four alternatives are given for the idiom/ phrase underlined in the sentence. Choose the alternative which best expresses the meaning of the idiom/phrase and mark it in the Answer Sheet.

1. To strain every nerve
(A) to make utmost efforts
(B) to feel weak and tired
(C) to be a diligent worker
(D) to be methodical in work

2. To flog a dead horse
(A) to whip a dead horse
(B) attempt to do the impossible
(C) waste one's efforts
(D) to take advantage of a weakness

3. To show a clean pair of heels
(A) to hide (B) to escape
(C) to pursue (D) to follow

4. To die in harness
(A) premeditated murder
(B) dying young in an accident
(C) to die while in service
(D) to be taken by surprise

5. To feather one's nest
(A) to make a residential house
(B) something that lasts for a short time
(C) to profit in a dishonest way
(D) none of the above

6. To doctor the accounts
(A) to make changes in account books
(B) to clear the doctors' bill
(C) to verify the accounts in detail
(D) to manipulate the accounts

7. She could never <u>measure up to</u> her parent's expectation.
(A) Reach the level
(B) Work as hard
(C) Assess the amount
(D) Increase her height

8. The little girl with her flawless performance <u>stole the show</u>.
(A) Stole something from the show
(B) Crept into the show
(C) Won everybody's praise
(D) Disappeared from the show

9. The thief was <u>on good term</u>s with the police.
(A) Kept terms and conditions
(B) Was friendly
(C) Followed the rules
(D) Agreed with them

10. John's offer of help was <u>turned down</u> by the police.
(A) Sent back
(B) Twisted around
(C) Refused
(D) Handed over

11. To be all at sea
(A) a family voyage
(B) lost and confused
(C) in the middle of the ocean
(D) a string of islands

12. To take to one's heels
(A) to walk slowly
(B) to run away
(C) to march forward
(D) to hop and jump

13. To bite the dust
(A) eat voraciously
(B) have nothing to eat
(C) eat roots
(D) to fail

14. A bolt from the blue
(A) a delayed event
(B) an inexplicable event
(C) an unexpected event
(D) an unpleasant event

15. Cold comfort
(A) absurdity
(B) deception
(C) slight satisfaction
(D)foolish proposal

16. The reputed company is in the red due to the recession.
(A) making money
(B) losing money
(C) in danger
(D) spending money

17. When the Principal was entering the class, all my friends quietly disappeared, leaving me alone <u>to face the music</u>.
(A) to listen to him
(B) to enter into the class
(C) to bear the criticism
(D) to listen to a favourable comment

18. The Kenyan team proved to be the <u>dark horse</u> in the ICC World Cup Cricket.
(A) a strong intruder
(B) a skilled team
(C) the most powerful
(D) an unexpected winner

19. Having no arguments to defend his point, the speaker began <u>to beat about the bush</u>.
(A) wander across the words
(B) speak in a haphazard manner
(C) speak in a round-about manner
(D) make use of irrelevant reference

20. They were offered six months' rent <u>in lieu of</u> notice to vacate the building.
(A) in spite of
(B) in place of
(C) despite of
(D) in addition to

21. We know that he is the one responsible for the discord but as he is well - connected all we can do is <u>send him to Coventry</u>.
(A) transfer him
(B) commend him
(C) boycott him
(D) dismiss him

22. The noble man <u>gave up the ghost</u>.
(A) left the ghost
(B) lived like a ghost
(C) invited ghost
(D) died

23. A Prime Minister cannot <u>ride roughshod</u> over his ministerial colleagues for long.
(A) deal unkindly with
(B) take for granted
(C) be high-handed with
(D) exploit wilfully

24. He was <u>down in the mouth</u> as he was defeated in the elections.
(A) unable to speak
(B) very depressed
(C) very angry
(D) very confused

25. They say, join the Army t<u>o drink life to the lees</u>.
(A) to have the best of fun and fortune
(B) to enjoy a life of drinking and dancing
(C) to have a life full of adventures
(D) to have the best of life

26. The car in the backyard is proving to be a white elephant.
(A) very huge item
(B) costly and useless possession
(C) very expensive investment
(D) useful material

27. He takes leave once in a blue moon.
(A) regularly
(B) often
(C) rarely
(D) once a fortnight

28. The meeting has been put off indefinitely.
(A) cancelled
(B) postponed
(C) advanced
(D) announced

29. The rules of the deal are set forth in the brochure.
(A) stated
(B) accepted
(C) contradicted
(D) printed

30. She bought her new house for a song.
(A) very cheaply
(B) on loan
(C) at a loss
(D) very easily

31. Raju had given up doing exercise after surgery.
(A) learned (B) started
(C) continued (D) stopped

32. The chairman tried to get his point across, but the members just wouldn't listen.
(A) give them a lesson
(B) insist on
(C) make them understand
(D) motivate them

33. Ashok had all fair-weather friends.
(A) friends who face difficulties calmly.
(B) favourable friends
(C) friends who desert you in difficulties
(D) reliable friends

34. Since the company has lost a good deal of time and money, you will have to make good the loss.
(A) make a good effort
(B) try to minimize the loss
(C) compensate for the loss
(D) ensure that there are no forth losses

35. a damp squib
(A) rainy weather
(B) a disappointing result
(C) a skirt in a laundry
(D) none of the above

36. in cold blood
(A) angrily
(B) deliberately
(C) excitedly
(D) slowly

37. to take someone for a ride
(A) to give a ride to someone
(B) to deceive someone
(C) to be indifferent
(D) to disclose a secret

38. to move heaven and earth
(A) to cause an earthquake
(B) to try everything possible
(C) to pray to all Gods
(D) to travel in a rocket

39. to smell a rat
(A) to smell foul
(B) to see a rat
(C) to chase a rat
(D) to be suspicious

40. The possession of Jerusalem is a bone of contention between Israel and Palestine.
(A) a subject of peace
(B) a subject of trade
(C) a subject of dispute
(D) a subject of exports

41. My friend turned a deaf ear to my tale of loss and refused to help me.
(A) paid no heed
(B) went far away
(C) listened carefully
(D) turned his ear away

42. Helena was over head and ears in love with Demetrius.
(A) carefully (B) completely
(C) brilliantly (D) cautiously

43. Gopi works by fits and starts.
(A) consistently
(B) irregularly
(C) in high spirits
(D) enthusiastically

44. Naresh Goyal had to stand on his feet very early in his life.
(A) to be physically strong
(B) to be independent
(C) to stand erect
(D) to be successful

45. It is high time he came out of his shell.
(A) appeared suddenly
(B) became more sociable
(C) became a loser
(D) removed his clothes

46. Every political party is at present playing to the gallery.
(A) adopting cheap tactics
(B) befooling the common man
(C) fighting for votes
(D) appeasing the masses

47. His blood ran cold when he heard his uncle was murdered.
(A) He was frightened
(B) He was horrified
(C) He was disgusted
(D) He was depressed

48. This is so simple that even a man in the street can understand it.
(A) an ordinary person
(B) an illiterate person
(C) an unknown person
(D) a stranger

49. When he went to claim insurance for his car, the agent said he hadn't a leg to stand on.
(A) had been injured in an accident
(B) was lame
(C) did not have much hope of getting it
(D) would have to wait for some time

50. to cast aspersions
(A) to act as the pillar of support
(B) to raise aspirations
(C) to make unpleasant remarks
(D) to dissolve all the differences

51. on the cards
(A) impossible
(B) shocking
(C) evident
(D) anticipated

52. To turn over a new leaf
(A) to change for the better
(B) to start writing a new book
(C) to work on a novel idea
(D) to clear the garden

53. To keep up one's appearances
(A) to make public appearances now and then.
(B) to maintain one's looks and appearance.
(C) to keep up an outward show of prosperity.
(D) to make it appear that one is not concerned.

54. Off and on
(A) repeatedly
(B) always
(C) occasionally
(D) never

55. To take with a grain of salt
(A) to make more palatable
(B) to take a small quantity of
(C) to make something meaningful
(D) to accept with misgiving

56. To talk through one's hat
(A) to talk carefully
(B) to talk softly
(C) to talk nonsense
(D) to talk secretively

57. Ins and outs
(A) entrances and exits
(B) details and complexities
(C) passages and pathways
(D) rules and regulations

58. The thief <u>passed himself off</u> as a ticket examiner.
(A) described himself
(B) deceived everyone
(C) disguised himself
(D) was regarded

59. A brave soldier will never <u>show the white feather</u> in the face of his enemy.
(A) show signs of cowardice
(B) act arrogantly
(C) show intimacy
(D) act impudently

60. The poor man moved <u>from pillar to post</u> to get money.
(A) went to pillars
(B) went to post
(C) went to money lender
(D) tried his best

61. You have to be tactful in handling the sensitive matters rather than <u>putting the cart before the horse</u>.
(A) treating these indifferently
(B) behaving thoughtlessly
(C) dealing with these in haste
(D) tackling things in the wrong way

62. The boys cried <u>with one voice</u> that the examination should be postponed.
(A) unanimously
(B) vehemently
(C) loudly
(D) strongly

63. The scheme appears worthless <u>at the first blush</u>.
(A) first attempt (B) first sight
(C) first step (D) first phase

64. His pronunciation was so bad and his voice so low that the speech he made was <u>all Greek</u> to me.
(A) strange
(B) incomprehensible
(C) inaudible
(D) uninteresting

65. He <u>looked blank</u> when he was informed about his dismissal.
(A) was without any emotion
(B) was puzzled and surprised
(C) was uninterested
(D) was unhappy

66. That fellow <u>trumped up</u> a story
(A) translated
(B) sang with the music of a trumpet
(C) concocted
(D) copied

67. Though he is not a scholar, he wins arguments because he has the <u>gift of the gab</u>.
(A) gifts from many people
(B) a lot of money
(C) talent for speaking
(D) a good memory

68. The A.T.S. <u>set the bait</u> to arrest the terrorists.
(A) laid the trap
(B) announced the reward
(C) set the record
(D) put the bet

69. I have decided <u>to give it a shot</u>.
(A) click a picture
(B) try something
(C) pose for a picture
(D) injure someone

70. He <u>turned a blind eye</u> to his son's pranks.
(A) pretended not to notice
(B) paid special attention to
(C) covered up for
(D) punished severely

71. All his schemes to murder the king <u>ended in smoke</u>.
(A) fructified gradually
(B) came to nothing
(C) were discarded
(D) were partially carried out

72. This fashion of long flowing skirts will run its course.
(A) continue for a long time
(B) become very popular
(C) develop and then come to its usual end
(D) end very soon

73. The police caught the thief red-handed.
(A) in a red uniform
(B) with blood in hands
(C) at the time of committing the crime
(D) after reading the rules

74. I was so disappointed when my close friend left me in the lurch.
(A) went away without waiting for me
(B) helped me in difficult times
(C) abandoned me when I needed help
(D) stopped helping me in emergency

75. His position in the company was on the brink of disaster.
(A) at the top of
(B) at the point of
(C) on the side of
(D) on the back of

76. The car broke down just as it reached the edge of a cliff. It was indeed a close shave.
(A) to share one's brand
(B) very risky
(C) narrow escape from danger
(D) to be happy

77. The parents are in high spirits as their son has got a decent job.
(A) in good position (B) drunk
(C) cheerful (D) shocked

78. When she realised that she had bought a fake product, she knew that her money had gone down the drain.
(A) was lost forever
(B) dropped in the drain
(C) got washed away
(D) her money was safe

79. Even though the new clerk was given a difficult task, he remained cool as a cucumber.
(A) not nervous or emotional
(B) caught cold
(C) was happy
(D) was scared

80. Some people do not grease anybody's palm on any account.
(A) bribe (B) flatter
(C) cheat (D) fight

81. I had to pull strings to put up a good show.
(A) play music
(B) use personal influence
(C) use the instrument
(D) play a song

82. You can easily overcome this situation if you keep your head.
(A) keep faith in
(B) remain calm
(C) believe in
(D) trust the others

83. It is clear that the ideas of both reformers ran in the same groove.
(A) promoted each other
(B) clashed with each other
(C) moved in harmony
(D) moved in different directions

84. This place affords a bird's eye view of the green valley below.
(A) a beautiful view
(B) a narrow view
(C) an overview
(D) an ugly view

85. To foam at one's mouth
(A) to brush properly
(B) to get very angry
(C) to salivate on seeing food
(D) none of the above

86. To feel like a fish out of water
(A) disgusted
(B) uncomfortable
(C) disappointed
(D) homeless

87. At the eleventh hour
(A) too late
(B) too early
(C) immediately
(D) at the last moment

88. to burn one's fingers
(A) to get hurt physically
(B) to suffer financial losses
(C) to find work
(D) to suffer nervous breakdown

89. to add fuel to fire
(A) to investigate (B) to insulate
(C) to initiate (D) to incite

90. To bring to light
(A) to reveal
(B) to conceal
(C) to provide luminescence
(D) to appeal

91. To hit the jackpot
(A) to gamble
(B) to get an unexpected victory
(C) to be wealthy
(D) to make money quickly

92. To burn the candle at both ends
(A) to spend cautiously
(B) to be stingy
(C) to be extravagant
(D) to survive difficulty

93. Status quo
(A) unchanged position
(B) excellent place
(C) unbreakable statue
(D) long queue

94. By fair means or foul
(A) without using common sense
(B) without difficulty
(C) in any way, honest or dishonest
(D) having been instigated

95. at one's beck and call
(A) to attend a call
(B) to be helped by someone
(C) to be useful to someone
(D) to be dominated by someone

96. to explore every avenue
(A) to search all streets
(B) to scout the wilderness
(C) to find adventure
(D) to try every opportunity

97. a red letter day
(A) a dangerous day in one's life
(B) a sorrowful day in one's life
(C) an important or joyful occasion in one's life
(D) both a dangerous and sorrowful day in one's life

98. to have something up one's sleeve
(A) to hide something in the sleeve
(B) to play a magician trick
(C) to have a secret plan
(D) to play hide and seek

99. on the spur of the moment
(A) to act at once
(B) to ride a horse in a race
(C) to act deliberately
(D) to act at the appointed time

100. When my friend was in Kolkata, he <u>ran into</u> an old friend at the theatre.
(A) hit
(B) met accidentally
(C) planned to meet
(D) invited

101. The news of the President's death <u>spread like wild fire</u>.
(A) spread rapidly
(B) caused a major confusion
(C) was a wild rumour
(D) set the nation on fire

102. Going abroad for a holiday was <u>out of the question</u>.
(A) undesirable
(B) impossible
(C) unpleasant
(D) irresistible

103. As a businessman, my father always maintained that his transactions constituted <u>an open book</u>.
(A) an account book always open
(B) a book of open confessions
(C) an opening for new ventures
(D) straight forward and honest dealings

104. The project advanced <u>by leaps and bounds</u>.
(A) rapidly (B) slowly
(C) sharply (D) simply

105. She is <u>too fond of her own voice</u>.
(A) loves singing
(B) very selfish
(C) does not listen properly to anyone else
(D) very talkative

106. Indian police is, on the whole, <u>high handed</u> in dealing with citizens.
(A) kind
(B) overbearing
(C) prompt
(D) adept

107. I <u>take exception</u> to your statement that I am bad tempered.
(A) do not agree
(B) feel unhappy
(C) object
(D) feel angry

108. His speech <u>fell short</u> on the audience.
(A) had no effect
(B) moved the audience
(C) impressed the audience
(D) was quite short

109. The officer <u>called for</u> an explanation from the cashier for the shortage of cash.
(A) asked (B) begged
(C) served a notice (D) demanded

110. We wanted the gift to be a surprise for my mother, but my sister <u>gave the game away</u>.
(A) lost the game
(B) gave out the secret
(C) gave away the gift
(D) withdrew from the plan

111. The actress <u>took cue from</u> her brother and became successful.
(A) some help
(B) a hint
(C) some money
(D) learnt acting

112. Let us have <u>a heart to heart talk</u> to solve this problem.
(A) good talk
(B) emotional talk
(C) frank talk
(D) loving talk

113. To miss the bus
(A) to miss the bus that one regularly takes
(B) to miss an opportunity
(C) to have something to fall back upon
(D) to find fault with others

114. Birds of the same feather
(A) persons of same caste
(B) persons of same colour
(C) birds with same type of feather
(D) persons of same character

115 To fight tooth and nail
(A) to fight a losing battle
(B) to fight heroically
(C) to fight cowardly
(D) to make every possible effort

116. To call a spade a spade
(A) to be frank
(B) to be sly
(C) to be rude
(D) to be diplomatic

117. by putting two and two together
(A) to mix several things
(B) to make an arithmetical calculation
(C) to keep people in pairs
(D) to deduce from given facts

118. to look down one's nose
(A) to show anger
(B) to retaliate
(C) to insult in the presence of others
(D) to regard with contempt

119. to shed crocodile tears
(A) to weep profusely
(B) to pretend grief
(C) to grieve seriously
(D) to mock something

120. To call it a day
(A) to conclude proceedings
(B) to initiate proceedings
(C) to work through the day
(D) None of the above

121. To put up with
(A) to accommodate (B) to adjust
(C) to understand (D) to tolerate

122. To take to heart
(A) to be encouraged
(B) to grieve over
(C) to like
(D) to hate

123. Yeoman's service
(A) medical help
(B) excellent work
(C) social work
(D) hard work

124. to go scot-free
(A) to walk like a native of Scotland
(B) to get something free
(C) to escape without punishment
(D) to save tax

125. to see red
(A) get broke
(B) get angry
(C) feel lucky
(D) become rich

126. in the nick of time
(A) in an unexpected time
(B) after some time
(C) at a time when it was too late
(D) precisely in the right time

127. the stage has been set
(A) the conditions are beyond control
(B) the platform for meeting is ready
(C) the situation is getting worse
(D) the situation is conducive

128. on this side of the grave
(A) outside the grave
(B) by the side of the grave
(C) in this world
(D) before going to grave

129. A man who, while pretending to be your friend, sets a spy to watch your activities is indeed <u>a snake in the grass</u>.
(A) secret enemy
(B) mean fellow
(C) dangerous man
(D) cunning fellow

130. The audience was greatly impressed though I spoke <u>off the cuff</u>.
(A) away from the mike
(B) without preparation
(C) off the subject
(D) about the cuff

131. After listening to the student's statements, the teacher had <u>to eat her words</u>.
(A) withdraw her words
(B) stop speaking
(C) apologize
(D) quarrel

132. to lose ground
(A) to become less powerful
(B) to become less popular
(C) to lose foundation
(D) to be without a leader

133. to make both ends meet
(A) to buy costly articles
(B) live a luxurious life
(C) to live within one's income
(D) to please all people

134. to fall back on
(A) to oppose something important
(B) to suffer an injury on the back in an accident
(C) to fail to do something important in time
(D) to seek support out of necessity

135. to make one's blood boil
(A) to make somebody furious
(B) to develop fever
(C) to get excited
(D) to make someone nervous

136. She decided that she would get this job by hook or by crook.
(A) by compromising or other responsi-bilities
(B) by impressing the interviewers
(C) by any means, right or wrong
(D) by becoming a specialist in the field

137. In a debate, no one is allowed to sit on the fence.
(A) to avoid taking sides
(B) to insult a speaker
(C) to relax while others speak
(D) to agree with everyone

138. The matter has been sorted out.
(A) revised (B) supported
(C) resolved (D) changed

139. The soldiers carried out the orders of the General very effectively.
(A) exited (B) executed
(C) supported (D) applied

140. They set off by car for Mumbai late in the evening.
(A) started (B) travelled
(C) entered (D) resonated

141. Once his crime was discovered, he had no option but to come clean.
(A) to deny the crime
(B) to confess to the crime
(C) to accuse someone else of the crime
(D) to apologize for the cirme

142. The employees were kept in the dark about the latest developments.
(A) were informed after office hours
(B) were informed when it was too late
(C) were given secret information
(D) were not informed at all

143. When things go wrong, everyone starts passing the buck.
(A) analyses the problem
(B) prepares to resign
(C) pays a bribe
(D) blames someone else

144. To keep the wolf away from the door.
(A) to avoid a bad person
(B) to clean the house
(C) to avoid extreme poverty
(D) to visit the zoo

145. To break the ice
(A) to clear the snow
(B) to start quarreling
(C) to commence an interaction
(D) to revive old enmity

146. Spick and span
(A) neat and clean
(B) hard-working
(C) kitchen implements
(D) calm and quiet

147. The pros and cons
(A) good and evil
(B) first and last
(C) fair and foul
(D) for and against

148. Build castles in the air
(A) waste time (B) daydream
(C) build houses (D) work hard

149. Sought after
(A) highly paid
(B) pursued by
(C) in great demand
(D) with great talent

150. All at sea
(A) very proud (B) overjoyed
(C) puzzled (D) excited

151. To hit below the belt
(A) to punish
(B) to tie with a belt
(C) to hit with a belt
(D) to attack unfairly

152. Pot-luck dinner
(A) dinner where everybody brings something to eat
(B) dinner where everybody brings his food
(C) dinner where only soup is served
(D) dinner where people eat and play games at the same time

153. His friends beat the boy to <u>pay off old scores</u>.
(A) to refund old dues.
(B) to take revenge.
(C) to force him to be a scorer in a match.
(D) because he had not scored well earlier.

154. Chintan is so innocent that he <u>wears his heart on his sleeve</u>.
(A) Wears dress that does not match.
(B) Expresses his feelings openly.
(C) Wears colourful dresses.
(D) Expresses his feelings with the shape of a heart printed on its sleeve.

155. Tagore was <u>a man of letters</u>.
(A) of wide contacts.
(B) an excellent letter dictator.
(C) a great writer of letters.
(D) proficient in literaterary art.

156. The poor subordinates are made <u>scapegoats</u> by their superiors.
(A) punished for others' misdeeds.
(B) developed poor relations.
(C) treated humbly and respectfully.
(D) scolded with arrogant reactions.

157. She was <u>on the horns of a dilemma</u> as she had either to leave her job or divorce her husband.
(A) in nervous condition
(B) in terrible mood
(C) in difficult situation
(D) in suspense

158. Brown study
(A) to study sincerely
(B) to study uselessly
(C) deep in thought
(D) practical advantage

159. The young boy was <u>kicking his heels</u> inspite of his mother's stern warnings.
(A) playing happily
(B) kicking someone
(C) forced to wait
(D) passing a gesture of disrespect

160. She denied <u>point-blank</u> her involvement in the crime.
(A) directly
(B) desperately
(C) stubbornly
(D) rudely

161. It is hard to <u>strike a bargain</u> with a woman.
(A) to finalize a deal
(B) to negotiate a deal
(C) to negotiate
(D) to deal

162. He <u>took</u> his father's advice <u>to heart</u>.
(A) casually (B) patiently
(C) seriously (D) quietly

163. Can you <u>give me a hand</u> with this luggage?
(A) keep a watch on
(B) handle
(C) provide me with
(D) help me with

164. Fling away
(A) to have an affair (B) to flare up
(C) to throw violently (D) to swing

165. Stick by
(A) to adhere closely
(B) stand by someone
(C) to paste
(D) to pass by

166. Wink at
(A) to tease somebody
(B) to like someone
(C) to pretend not to see
(D) to stare at

167. To be on the wane
(A) to complain
(B) to be sick
(C) to be on boat
(D) to be diminishing

168. To give a person the cold shoulder
(A) to offer someone ice-cream
(B) to be humble
(C) to threaten
(D) to treat coldly

169. To get one's back up
(A) to become irritated or angry
(B) to sit straight
(C) to act proud
(D) to give support

170. To strike oil
(A) to have found an oil well
(B) to have lucky success
(C) to have a close escape
(D) to be unsuccessful

171. To talk shop
(A) to talk a lot
(B) to use phrases peculiar to one's employment
(C) to like to shop
(D) to lie

172. To draw a line
(A) to fix a limit
(B) to caution someone
(C) to be stern
(D) to insult someone

173. A swan song
(A) melodious song
(B) disharmonious display
(C) utterance/statement made just before death or retirement
(D) concocted tale

174. Knit one's brows
(A) to disappoint somebody
(B) to frown
(C) to have a headache
(D) to express discontentment

175. To plough the sands
(A) to be extremely accomplished
(B) to be resourceful
(C) to be dejected
(D) to busy oneself in an unprofitable proposition

176. To rip up old sores
(A) to destroy something
(B) to act cruelly
(C) to reopen a quarrel
(D) to inflict pain on someone

177. To rate soundly
(A) to censure strongly
(B) to acquire heavy profits
(C) to be at peace
(D) to assure somebody

178. To be no spring chicken
(A) to be brave
(B) to be honest
(C) to be no longer young
(D) to be childish

179. To take to one's bed
(A) to be very attached to one's belongings
(B) to lie in bed due to illness
(C) to fight with one's husband
(D) to agree with someone

180. To stand on ceremony
(A) to celebrate an occasion in a grand way
(B) to be extravagant
(C) to get married
(D) to insist on excessive formality

181. To be at sixes and sevens
(A) a state of total confusion and disorder
(B) to be a great success
(C) to be certain
(D) to give away generously

182. To break the ice
(A) a strong man
(B) to start a quarrel
(C) to break the awkward silence
(D) to become violent

183. Put one's foot down
(A) to demand
(B) to take rest
(C) to be firm about something
(D) to do something stupid

184. Backstairs influence
(A) one who is easily influenced
(B) influential person
(C) influence exerted secretly
(D) wife's influence on her husband

185. Long in the tooth
(A) distant journey (B) rather old
(C) ailment (D) young

186. A brazen-faced fellow
(A) cruel person
(B) ugly person
(C) dark-complexioned person
(D) impudent fellow

187. To see pink elephants
(A) to dream
(B) to anticipate luck
(C) to be afraid of
(D) to have hallucination due to excessive alcoholic intake.

188. Elbow room
(A) opportunity for freedom of action
(B) special room for the guest
(C) to give enough space to move or work in
(D) to add a new room to the house

189. French leave
(A) a person who does not take leave
(B) leave without permission
(C) to take long leave
(D) to take a day off and have fun

190. To commit to memory
(A) to learn by heart
(B) to tax one's memory
(C) to be forgetful
(D) to commit oneself totally to a task

191. To burn a hole in the pocket
(A) to steal from someone's pocket
(B) to destroy other's belongings
(C) to be very miserly
(D) money that is spent quickly

192. To bury the hatchet
(A) to have found a treasure
(B) to make peace
(C) to purchase something without discretion
(D) to act in a suspicious manner

193. To beggar description
(A) something of least importance
(B) something beyond description
(C) to describe a beggar
(D) an accurate description

194. To beat the air
(A) efforts that are vain or useless
(B) to be satisfied with one's performance
(C) to be extremely relieved
(D) to be very happy

195. To provide against a rainy day
(A) to provide plentiful
(B) to provide for a possible future, in time of difficulty or need
(C) to store for the family
(D) to store for the rainy season

196. To be all eyes
(A) to be cautious
(B) watching closely and attentively
(C) to be amazed
(D) to be non-plussed

197. Swollen headed
(A) to be suffering from illness
(B) to be conceited
(C) to be narrow-minded
(D) to be dumb

198. To stir up a hornet's nest
(A) to excite the hostility of people
(B) to do some social service
(C) to be totally at a loss in a situation
(D) to be bankrupt

199. My hands are full
(A) I am having a lot of things to carry
(B) I am having lots of money
(C) I am very busy
(D) I am anxious

200. No love lost between them
(A) to have a fight
(B) to dislike each other
(C) to be as friendly as ever
(D) to be upset

201. To be hand and glove with someone
(A) to be social
(B) to be playful
(C) to be annoyed
(D) to be intimate

202. To play fast and loose
(A) to deceive someone
(B) to be agile
(C) say one thing and do another
(D) to be efficient

203. To take stock of
(A) to imagine (B) to supply
(C) to survey (D) to attract

204. A man of straw
(A) a man of no substance
(B) a man without means
(C) a man of character
(D) a generous man

205. Wolf in sheep's clothing
(A) to act on the sly
(B) to be a good actor
(C) to be a hypocrite
(D) to be money-minded or materialistic

206. To cut someone short
(A) to oblige someone
(B) to assist someone
(C) to interrupt someone
(D) to insult someone

207. To stick to one's colours
(A) to refuse to yield
(B) to be patriotic
(C) to be notorious
(D) to be straightforward

208. An old head on young shoulders
(A) to be old before one's age
(B) to be wise beyond one's age
(C) to be youthful in spite of one's old age
(D) to maintain good health

209. To snap one's fingers at
(A) to honour someone
(B) to greet someone
(C) to beckon someone
(D) to treat with contempt

210. Falling foul of
(A) quarrelling with
(B) becoming friends with
(C) being dishonest with
(D) being scared of

211. Harp on the same string
(A) to play music
(B) to dwell tediously on the same subject
(C) to beat someone
(D) to acknowledge

212. Keep a good table
(A) to have an artistic taste
(B) to throw a party
(C) to be a good host
(D) to be extravagant

213. Take up the cudgels
(A) to take notice
(B) to accept a present
(C) to defend someone vigorously
(D) to accept a challenge

214. Splitting hairs
(A) to be worried
(B) to be venturesome
(C) to trouble someone
(D) to dispute over petty points

215. A great hand at
(A) to be a good artist
(B) to be an expert
(C) to be a good player
(D) to be generous

216. To make a pile
(A) to make a fortune
(B) to make a mess
(C) to be absent-minded
(D) to be corrupt

217. Under someone's wing
(A) to work under someone
(B) to be under someone's protection
(C) to be alert
(D) to be in the army

218. To sow one's wild oats
(A) to swear
(B) to be at ease
(C) to engage in youthful excesses
(D) to till the land

219. An olive branch
(A) an offer of peace
(B) an idea
(C) a lady
(D) a wicked person

220. Not worth a rap
(A) worth nothing
(B) very expensive
(C) worth a lot
(D) modestly priced

221. In merry pin
(A) perplexed
(B) merry making
(C) embarrassed
(D) in a cheerful mood

222. To leap the pale
(A) to throw a bucket
(B) to get into debt, to spend more than one's income
(C) to have much of fear
(D) to become pale

223. To cut the gordian knot
(A) to perform the opening ceremony
(B) to be present at the opening ceremony
(C) to solve a difficult problem
(D) to get a sharp cut

224. To sow the wind and reap the whirlwind
(A) to enjoy the fruits of hard work
(B) to be deprived of one' s reward
(C) to act wisely
(D) to suffer for one's foolish conduct

225. To play possum
(A) to play hide and seek
(B) to feign ignorance or pretend the be sleeping or dead
(C) to cheat somebody
(D) to play seriously

226. A grass widow
(A) a young widow
(B) widow who has illicit relations with men
(C) a woman whose husband is temporarily away from her
(D) a working old woman

227. Mad as a March hare
(A) sane
(B) intoxicated
(C) as mad as a hare in spring
(D) slightly touched in the brain

228. Halcyon days
(A) long days
(B) short days
(C) happy and peaceful days
(D) disturbed days

229. Mother wit
(A) to have an intelligent mother
(B) university
(C) silly
(D) common sense

230. A blind date
(A) a cloudy day
(B) unknown future
(C) meeting with someone you do not know
(D) death-day

231. Much ado about nothing
(A) to take something seriously
(B) to play false
(C) to make a fuss
(D) to add

232. Judas' kiss
(A) wooing
(B) a narrow escape
(C) hypocritical affection
(D) a religious person

233. To have no truck with
(A) have no means of conveyance
(B) scientifically backward
(C) to have no trade with
(D) to have no dealings with

234. To clean the Augean stables
(A) to purge/ clean the administration of its abuses
(B) to buy horses
(C) to sell horses
(D) to improve working conditions

235. A fly in the ointment
(A) to clean a thing
(B) to sterilise
(C) Small annoyance that spoils a pleasant experience.
(D) an unsuccessful attempt

236. Of the deepest dye
(A) of the worst/ extreme type
(B) of the best type
(C) of the most colourless type
(D) of the colourless type

237. To throw up the sponge
(A) to accept the challenge
(B) to forget the past offences
(C) to admit defeat
(D) to send message

238. To rule the roost
(A) to measure the height of something
(B) to measure the depth
(C) to strike with a stick
(D) to dominate

239. Bats in the belfry
(A) to be mad
(B) something needed cleanliness
(C) an impending danger
(D) to be deceived

240. To have a jaundice eye
(A) to have jaundice
(B) to have fever
(C) to be prejudiced
(D) to lose colour

241. Rank and file
(A) Common people
(B) Officers
(C) People of high rank
(D) Army personnel

242. To egg on
(A) to egg on slowly
(B) to destroy slowly
(C) to give a walk over
(D) to instigate/ cause to proceed further

243. To haul over the coals
(A) to walk over the fire
(B) to burn
(C) to scold for something done wrong
(D) to throw into fire

244. To draw a bead on
(A) to say prayers
(B) to count the beads
(C) to do one's best
(D) to take careful aim at

245. Fabian policy
(A) dictatorial policy
(B) democratic policy
(C) systematic policy
(D) policy of cautious persistence

246. To play to the gallery
(A) to try to get the appreciation from the least intelligent people
(B) to try to win appreciation of intelligent people
(C) to play in the gallery
(D) to disturb people sitting in the gallery

247. Pyrrhic victory
(A) Permanent victory
(B) Defeat
(C) Easy victory
(D) Victory at high cost

248. Go the whole hog
(A) to do something thoroughly
(B) sleep
(C) to neglect duty
(D) to mishandle the case

249. To bite one's lips
(A) to feel sorry
(B) to repress one's anger or other emotions
(C) laugh at others
(D) to have doubt

250. To hold someone in leash
(A) to restrain
(B) to be firm
(C) to be unsure
(D) to touch the exact point

251. To cool one's heels
(A) to give a cold treatment to somebody
(B) to be kept waiting for sometime
(C) a closed chapter
(D) a hot issue

252. Bag of bones
(A) a bag full of bones
(B) a dead person
(C) a person about to die
(D) an extremely weak person

253. All moonshine
(A) show
(B) lighted only by moon
(C) false
(D) far from reality

254. To shake the dust off one's feet
(A) to wash feet
(B) to walk fast
(C) to leave a place with a sense of resentment
(D) to rest after a long journey

255. Off hand
(A) Without preparation
(B) Out of hand
(C) Rehearsed
(D) In hand

256. A bird of passage
(A) a flying bird
(B) an unreliable person
(C) one who stays for a short time
(D) bad time

257. Count on
(A) Depend on
(B) as a result of
(C) ceremonially
(D) to wait for the benefactor

258. With a string
(A) not to give any aid
(B) to give unconditional aid
(C) gift or aid with condition
(D) to accept aid

259. To set stores by
(A) to value highly
(B) to hoard a large quantity of something
(C) to set up store
(D) fix a price

260. To draw the long bow
(A) to shoot
(B) to exaggerate
(C) to criticize
(D) to admire

261. To know the ropes
(A) to recognize the lost things
(B) to do rigging
(C) to know the procedure of doing a job
(D) to flog

262. To give the devil his due
(A) to be just to a person even though he does not deserve such treatment
(B) to surrender oneself willingly when one's mistake is detected
(C) to punish an innocent person
(D) to punish a guilty person

263. In the swim
(A) knowing latest current things
(B) to cross a river by a boat
(C) to cross a river by swimming
(D) to be in the river

264. To knuckle under
(A) to be in a crisis
(B) to submit
(C) to take rest
(D) to go to bed

265. To have a dig at
(A) to criticise someone
(B) to sow seeds
(C) to weed out
(D) to praise someone

266. In vogue
(A) in fashion
(B) fair
(C) smooth
(D) total absence

267. Three R's
(A) radiogram, radiograph, radio telescope
(B) rabble, rattle, razzle
(C) reading, writing, arithmetic
(D) rail, radar, raft

268. A wild goose chase
(A) foolish and useless enterprise
(B) to hunt
(C) a violent chase
(D) to speak harshly

269. To rest on one's laurels
(A) to cease to strive for further glory
(B) to be lazy
(C) to be proud of one's victory
(D) to die

270. Raw deal
(A) unjust treatment
(B) unripe fruit
(C) early stage of business
(D) contract not yet finally decided

271. A forlorn hope
(A) a plan which has remote chances of success
(B) hope about unforeseeable future
(C) hope of a single person
(D) hope of a silly person

272. Printer's devil
(A) an apprentice in a printing office
(B) blunder
(C) low type of printed material
(D) delay in printing

273. To call on the carpet
(A) subject to criticism
(B) to summon for a scolding
(C) a heartfelt welcome
(D) on the ground

274. To bring the house down
(A) to appeal greatly to the audience
(B) to pull down a building
(C) to defame one's family
(D) to pass a bill unanimously

275. To have an edge on
(A) to cut with a knife
(B) to threaten to wound
(C) to be slightly better than
(D) to be in a dangerous situation

276. In sackcloth and ashes
(A) to cremate
(B) in a state of great mourning
(C) dirty clothes
(D) cheap clothes

277. To put two and two together
(A) to progress steadily
(B) to compare the debit and credit
(C) to conclude keeping in view the merits and demerits
(D) to oppose as a last resort

278. To weather the storm
(A) to face a crisis
(B) to survive a crisis
(C) to be the victim of a crisis
(D) to create crisis

279. Lump in the throat
(A) to be hoarse
(B) a highly emotional state
(C) food of low type
(D) wind-pipe

280. To fight shy of
(A) to keep aloof from
(B) to fight social evils
(C) to be bold
(D) to fight and win

281. Hobson's choice
(A) lion's share
(B) the best choice
(C) option of taking the one offered or nothing
(D) the last chance

282. To hit it off
(A) to quarrel
(B) to be hostile
(C) to agree or be congenial
(D) to threaten

283. To whitewash
(A) to clean a place
(B) to work hard
(C) to retrieve damaged reputation
(D) to use cosmetics

284. Within an ace of
(A) very close
(B) within one's means
(C) within a narrow circle
(D) near centre

285. To keep an open mind
(A) to remember
(B) to forget
(C) to come to no decision on a subject until one knowns all the facts
(D) to be clear-headed

286. Open question
(A) a question put to all
(B) a question without any generally agreed answer
(C) a permanent problem
(D) a clearly-written/expressed question

287. On one's mettle
(A) roused to do one's best
(B) to put on an overcoat
(C) to safeguard against attack
(D) to use one's own money properly

288. To keep the pot boiling
(A) to maintain interest
(B) to heat
(C) to show anger
(D) to do experiments

289. Grist to one's mill
(A) grain to be ground
(B) useful for one's purpose
(C) income from will
(D) to work one's machine

290. Kangaroo court
(A) a group of kangaroos
(B) the young kangaroo
(C) unofficial court
(D) unofficial estimate

291. Wool gathering
(A) to become a shepherd
(B) to shear sheep
(C) to engage in idle or aimless day dreaming
(D) to live in the countryside

292. Between Scylla and Charybdis
(A) between two hills
(B) between two rivers
(C) between two enemies
(D) between two dangers

293. Achilles' heel
(A) bare-foot
(B) to run fast
(C) to wait on somebody
(D) one's vulnerable or susceptible spot

294. To know which side the bread is buttered on
(A) to know where one's interest lies
(B) to be a glutton
(C) to be fond of rich diet
(D) to know how to increase one's income

295. To eke out
(A) to subtract
(B) to supplement
(C) to etch
(D) to oust

296. To be in the doldrums
(A) to be in low spirits
(B) to be within doors
(C) to praise loudly
(D) to be in a crisis

297. Wild cat strike
(A) a furious attack
(B) strike not approved by the trade union
(C) a strike in which violence is committed
(D) to face a strong enemy

298. Blind alley
(A) blindness due to old age
(B) a dark room
(C) unprofitable action
(D) to continue to make efforts in spite of confusion

299. Tied to the apron strings of
(A) be independent
(B) to be dominated by
(C) to live together
(D) to fall in love with

300. Our school is <u>within a stone's throw</u> from the railway station
(A) Very far-off
(B) with a certain radius
(C) at a short distance
(D) within a definite circumference

ANSWER KEY

1.	(A)	31.	(D)	61.	(D)	91.	(D)	121.	(B)	151.	(D)	181.	(A)	211.	(B)	241.	(A)	271.	(A)
2.	(B)	32.	(C)	62.	(A)	92.	(C)	122.	(A)	152.	(B)	182.	(C)	212.	(C)	242.	(D)	272.	(A)
3.	(B)	33.	(C)	63.	(B)	93.	(A)	123.	(B)	153.	(B)	183.	(C)	213.	(C)	243.	(C)	273.	(B)
4.	(C)	34.	(C)	64.	(B)	94.	(C)	124.	(C)	154.	(B)	184.	(C)	214.	(D)	244.	(D)	274.	(A)
5.	(C)	35.	(B)	65.	(A)	95.	(D)	125.	(B)	155.	(D)	185.	(B)	215.	(B)	245.	(D)	275.	(C)
6.	(D)	36.	(A)	66.	(C)	96.	(D)	126.	(D)	156.	(A)	186.	(D)	216.	(A)	246.	(A)	276.	(B)
7.	(A)	37.	(B)	67.	(C)	97.	(C)	127.	(D)	157.	(C)	187.	(D)	217.	(B)	247.	(D)	277.	(C)
8.	(C)	38.	(B)	68.	(A)	98.	(C)	128.	(C)	158.	(C)	188.	(C)	218.	(C)	248.	(A)	278.	(B)
9.	(B)	39.	(D)	69.	(B)	99.	(A)	129.	(A)	159.	(C)	189.	(B)	219.	(A)	249.	(B)	279.	(B)
10.	(C)	40.	(C)	70.	(A)	100.	(B)	130.	(B)	160.	(A)	190.	(A)	220.	(A)	250.	(A)	280.	(A)
11.	(B)	41.	(A)	71.	(B)	101.	(A)	131.	(A)	161.	(A)	191.	(D)	221.	(D)	251.	(B)	281.	(C)
12.	(B)	42.	(B)	72.	(C)	102.	(B)	132.	(B)	162.	(C)	192.	(B)	222.	(B)	252.	(D)	282.	(C)
13.	(D)	43.	(B)	73.	(C)	103.	(D)	133.	(C)	163.	(D)	193.	(B)	223.	(C)	253.	(D)	283.	(C)
14.	(D)	44.	(B)	74.	(C)	104.	(A)	134.	(D)	164.	(C)	194.	(A)	224.	(D)	254.	(C)	284.	(A)
15.	(C)	45.	(B)	75.	(B)	105.	(D)	135.	(A)	165.	(A)	195.	(B)	225.	(B)	255.	(A)	285.	(C)
16.	(C)	46.	(D)	76.	(C)	106.	(B)	136.	(C)	166.	(C)	196.	(B)	226.	(C)	256.	(C)	286.	(B)
17.	(C)	47.	(A)	77.	(C)	107.	(C)	137.	(A)	167.	(D)	197.	(B)	227.	(C)	257.	(A)	287.	(A)
18.	(D)	48.	(A)	78.	(A)	108.	(A)	138.	(C)	168.	(D)	198.	(A)	228.	(C)	258.	(C)	288.	(A)
19.	(C)	49.	(C)	79.	(A)	109.	(D)	139.	(B)	169.	(A)	199.	(C)	229.	(D)	259.	(A)	289.	(B)
20.	(B)	50.	(C)	80.	(A)	110.	(B)	140.	(A)	170.	(B)	200.	(C)	230.	(C)	260.	(B)	290.	(C)
21.	(C)	51.	(D)	81.	(B)	111.	(B)	141.	(B)	171.	(B)	201.	(D)	231.	(C)	261.	(C)	291.	(C)
22.	(D)	52.	(A)	82.	(B)	112.	(C)	142.	(D)	172.	(A)	202.	(C)	232.	(C)	262.	(A)	292.	(D)
23.	(C)	53.	(C)	83.	(C)	113.	(B)	143.	(D)	173.	(C)	203.	(C)	233.	(D)	263.	(A)	293.	(D)
24.	(B)	54.	(C)	84.	(C)	114.	(D)	144.	(C)	174.	(B)	204.	(A)	234.	(A)	264.	(B)	294.	(A)
25.	(C)	55.	(D)	85.	(C)	115.	(D)	145.	(C)	175.	(D)	205.	(C)	235.	(C)	265.	(A)	295.	(B)
26.	(B)	56.	(C)	86.	(B)	116.	(A)	146.	(A)	176.	(C)	206.	(C)	236.	(A)	266.	(A)	296.	(A)
27.	(C)	57.	(B)	87.	(D)	117.	(D)	147.	(D)	177.	(A)	207.	(A)	237.	(C)	267.	(C)	297.	(B)
28.	(B)	58.	(C)	88.	(B)	118.	(D)	148.	(B)	178.	(C)	208.	(B)	238.	(D)	268.	(A)	298.	(C)
29.	(A)	59.	(A)	89.	(D)	119.	(B)	149.	(C)	179.	(B)	209.	(D)	239.	(A)	269.	(A)	299.	(B)
30.	(A)	60.	(D)	90.	(A)	120.	(A)	150.	(C)	180.	(D)	210.	(A)	240.	(C)	270.	(A)	300.	(C)

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रैपिडैक्स इंगलिश स्पीकिंग कोर्स

आपका चहेता 'रैपिडैक्स इंगलिश स्पीकिंग कोर्स' अब नए रूप में आपके हाथों में है। इस नए रैपिडैक्स इंगलिश स्पीकिंग कोर्स को तैयार करने के लिए जहां हमने हजारों लोगों के बीच सर्वेक्षण किया, उनकी समस्याओं को पहचाना वहीं अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के जानकार, अनुभवी शिक्षकों की सलाह लेकर इसे आज और आने वाले कल — नई सदी, दोनों के लिए समान रूप से उपयोगी बनाने का प्रयास किया। इसमें अब भाषा व पाठ्यसामग्री की दृष्टि से सभी कुछ नया है — अपनी पुरानी सभी विशेषताओं के साथ। और वह नयापन पुस्तक पढ़ने के बाद आपको स्वयं महसूस होगा।

इस नए कोर्स में यद्यपि अंग्रेज़ी सिखाने की 'रैपिडैक्स' पद्धति को ही अपनाया गया है (क्योंकि यह पद्धति आज भी पूरी तरह से सार्थक है), लेकिन समयानुसार, अच्छी तरह से सुधार कर।

इस नए कोर्स के कन्वर्सेशन सेक्शन में भाषा की दृष्टि से अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में नए स्वीकृत व स्वीकार किए जा रहे शब्दों को अपनाने का प्रयास किया गया है, ताकि आज और आने वाले कल में आपको किसी भी तरह के पिछड़ेपन का अहसास न हो। इस तरीके से आपमें, कम शब्दों में अपनी पूरी बात कह सकने की योग्यता भी आ जाएगी।

बातचीत को और अधिक उपयोगी बनाने के लिए चुनाव करते समय इस बात का विशेष ध्यान रखा गया है कि वह ज्यादा-से-ज्यादा ऐसे क्षेत्रों को छुए, जो व्यक्तिगत और सामाजिक तो हों ही साथ ही करियर से जुड़े हुए हों। इस प्रकार एक सामान्य गृहिणी हो या आधुनिक महिला, स्कूल-कॉलेज का विद्यार्थी हो या करियर तलाशता युवा, स्टेनो हो या अफ़सर, माल बेचता हुआ दुकानदार हो या ग्राहक यह कोर्स सभी के लिए एक समान उपयोगी है।

बीच-बीच में कुछ वाक्यों को बोल्ड टाइप में दिया गया है, ताकि उनका अभ्यास करके कम-से-कम कामचलाऊ अंग्रेज़ी तो आप बोल ही सकें। वैसे ऐसा करने की सलाह हम नहीं देंगे, हम तो चाहेंगे कि आप पूरी पुस्तक को पढ़कर उसका अभ्यास करें तथा सही और अच्छी-खासी अंग्रेज़ी बोलें — आपको इस योग्य बनाना ही इस पुस्तक का उद्देश्य भी है।

इस नए कोर्स में कुछ ऐसे तरीके भी बताए गए हैं, जिन्हें अपना कर आप सही वक्त पर सही शब्द न चुन पाने की परेशानी से भी बच सकते हैं, जैसे कि ऐसी स्थिति में अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों की जगह अपनी मातृभाषा के शब्दों का प्रयोग कर। इस तरह सिर्फ आप अपनी कमी को ही नहीं छिपा लेते, आधुनिक अंग्रेज़ी बोलने वालों की श्रेणी में भी आ जाते हैं।

इस नई कोर्स किट के साथ 'रैपिडैक्स एजूकेशनल कन्वर्सेशन कैसेट' दी जा रही है। इस कैसेट की 'ए' साइड में अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों, सप्ताह-महीनों के नाम व 1 से 100 तक की गिनती के सही उच्चारण और अभिवादन, धन्यवाद, शुभकामनाएं, खेद, सहमति-असहमति, स्वीकृति-अस्वीकृति जैसे भावों को प्रकट करने वाले ऐसे जरूरी वाक्य हैं, जिनका प्रयोग हम रोज अक्सर किया करते हैं। और साइड 'बी' में परिचय, पार्टी, रास्ता

पूछना, सेक्रेटरी-बॉस, दुकानदार को शिकायत, इंटरव्यू, लड़के-लड़की की शादी संबंधी बातचीत, कॉलेज में लड़के-लड़की जैसी विशेष अवसरों पर होने वाली बातचीत के वाक्य हैं।

पुस्तक को पढ़ने के बाद, दिए गए निर्देशों के अनुसार यदि कैसेट के साथ आप अभ्यास करेंगे, तो हमारा विश्वास है कि आपकी अंग्रेज़ी बोलने की हिचक बिल्कुल खत्म हो जाएगी। इस प्रकार यह कैसेट आपको जहां अंग्रेज़ी का सही उच्चारण सिखाएगी, वहीं बोलने में अटक और हिचक को खत्म करने में भी सहायक सिद्ध होगी।

अपनी अनूठी विशेषताओं के कारण यह नया 'रैपिडैक्स इंगलिश स्पीकिंग कोर्स' भविष्य में सफल जीवन के लिए एक जरूरी कोर्स बन जाएगा, यदि यह कहा जाए तो अतिशयोक्ति न होगी, क्योंकि अब यह कोर्स सिर्फ आपको अंग्रेज़ी बोलना-लिखना ही नहीं सिखाएगा, बल्कि आपके समूचे व्यक्तित्व का विकास भी करेगा।

आपने जिस तरह 28 वर्षों से इस कोर्स को सराहा है और इसकी लंबी विकास-यात्रा में समय-समय पर दिए गए सुझावों और प्रतिक्रियाओं द्वारा सहयोग दिया है, हमें आशा है कि वैसा ही स्नेह इस पूरी तरह से संशोधित व परिवर्द्धित संस्करण को भी मिलेगा।

आपके सफल भविष्य की शुभकामनाए हैं — —प्रकाशक

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5 . डायरेक्ट और इनडायरेक्ट स्पीच (Direct and Indirect Speech)
6 . कुछ चुनी हुई क्रियाओं के 3 प्रकार (Three forms of Selected Verbs)
7. 25 आवश्यक समूहार्थक शब्द (25 Important Collective Phrases)
8 . कुछ जानवरों के बच्चों के नाम (Young Ones of Some Animals)

9. 40 जंतुओं की आवाजें (40 Important Words Denoting the Cries of Animals)
10 . जो शब्द सुने तो बहुत जाते हैं पर अधिकतर समझे नहीं जाते (Words Mostly Heard but Not Mostly Known)
11. 75 स्थानापन्न एक-शब्द (75 One-Word Substitutes)
12 . जंतुओं के नाम का मुहावरेदार प्रयोग (Idiomatic use of Names of Animals)
13 . विपरीतार्थक या विलोम शब्द (Antonyms or Words of opposite meaning)
14 . राष्ट्रीयता बताने वाले शब्द (Words Denoting Nationality)
15 . कुछ महत्वपूर्ण वाक्यांश (Some Important Phrases)
16 . ऐसे शब्द जिनसे लोग भ्रमित हो जाते हैं (Words which Commonly Confuse)
17 . शब्दों के प्रयोग में सामान्य अशुद्धियां (Common Errors in the Use of Words)
(i) संज्ञा-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Nouns)
(ii) सर्वनाम-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां(Errors in the Use of Pronouns)
(iii) विशेषण-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां(Errors in the Use of Adjectives)
(iv) क्रिया-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Verbs)
(v) क्रिया-विशेषण शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Adverbs)
(vi) योजक-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Conjunctions)
(vii) संबंध-सूचक शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Prepositions)
(viii) A, an, the शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (Errors in the Use of Articles)
18 . अंग्रेज़ी में शब्द निर्माण (Word-Building in English)
19 . प्रमुख इंगलिश, फ़्रैंच, लैटिन तथा ग्रीक उपसर्ग (Prefixes)
20 . प्रमुख इंगलिश, फ़्रैंच, लैटिन तथा ग्रीक प्रत्यय (Suffixes)

शब्द ज्ञान की कुंज़ी (Key to Word-Power)

1. द्विशब्दात्मक क्रिया (Two-Word Verbs)
2 . मुहावरे तथा वाक्यांश (Idioms and Phrases)

वर्गीकृत शब्दावली अंग्रेज़ी-हिंदी शब्दकोश (Vocabulary and Dictionary)

1 . वर्गीकृत शब्दावली (Classified Vocabulary)

2 . अंग्रेज़ी-हिंदी शब्दकोश (English-Hindi Dictionary)
3 . वर्तनी-सुधार (Words often Misspelt)

परिशिष्ट- II (APPENDIX-II)

पत्र-लेखन (Letter Writing)

1 . शुभकामना-पत्र (Letters of Greetings)
2 . बधाई-पत्र (Letters of Congratulations)
3 . सहानुभूति-पत्र (Letters of Sympathy)
4 . खेद-पत्र (Letters of Regret)
5 . अवकाश-पत्र (Leave Application)
6 . धन्यवाद-पत्र (Letters of Thanks)
7 . संवेदना-पत्र (Letters of Condolence)
8 . प्रेम-पत्र (Love Letters)
9 . आमंत्रण-पत्र (Letters of Invitation)
10 . शिक्षा-संबंधी-पत्र (Letters on Educational Matters)
11 . वैवाहिक विज्ञापन के उत्तर (Reply to Matrimonial Advertisements)
12 . वैवाहिक विज्ञापनों द्वारा प्राप्त पत्रों के उत्तर (Letters to the Responses Received from Matrimonial Ads)
13 . पारिवारिक पत्र: बराबर वालों के बीच (Family Letters: between Equals)
14 . पारिवारिक पत्र: बड़े-छोटे के बीच (Family Letters: from Elder to Younger)
15 . पारिवारिक पत्र: छोटे-बड़े के बीच (Family Letters: from Younger to Elder)
16 . नियुक्ति/इंटर्व्यू आदि से संबंधित पत्र (Letters Supplementing the Queries Arising out of Your Receiving of the Interview Letters)
17 . नौकरी हेतु प्रार्थना पत्र (Job Applications)
18 . शिकायत-पत्र (Letters of Complaints)
19 . होटल में आवास-उपलब्धि संबंधी पत्र (Letters of Enquiry Regarding Hotel Accommodation)
20 . बैंकों से पत्र-व्यवहार (Letters to Bank)
21 . बीमा कंपनी को भेजे जाने वाले पत्र (Letters to an Insurance Company)
22 . शिकायत पत्र: व्यापारिक (Letters of Complaints: Business)
23 . क्षमा-याचना के पत्र (Letters of Apology)
24 . कार्यालय संबंधी पत्र (Letters on Official Matters)
25 . मकान-मालिक का किरायेदार को पत्र (Letters from the Landlord to the Tenant)
26 . किरायेदार का पत्र मालिक को (Letters from the Tenant to the

Landlord)

आइए, शुरू करें!

दोस्तो, इस कोर्स में आपका हार्दिक स्वागत है!

यह कोर्स आम कोर्स नहीं है, क्योंकि हज़ारों लोगों के बीच की गई खोज और अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के विशेषज्ञ शिक्षकों के बरसों के अनुभवों का निचोड़ है यह। इसी के साथ, आप पाठकों की प्रतिक्रियाओं और सुझावों के अनुसार इसमें बहुत कुछ नया जोड़ा गया है, जिसे आप सिर्फ पढ़कर व दिए गए निर्देशों के अनुसार अभ्यास करके ही महसूस कर सकेंगे।

60 दिनों के इस कोर्स को तैयार करते समय हमने दो बातों को अपने सामने प्रमुख रूप से रखा था, एक तो यह कि आप धाराप्रवाह अंग्रेज़ी बोलने लगें और दूसरे अंग्रेज़ी भाषा की प्रकृति, वाक्य-विन्यास, स्पेलिंग, विराम चिह्न आदि लेखन की समस्याओं की आपको क्रमिक जानकारी हो। इस प्रकार यह कोर्स आपको अंग्रेज़ी बोलना और लिखना दोनों ही सिखाएगा।

इस कोर्स द्वारा आप 60 दिनों की यात्रा तय करेंगे, जिसके छह पड़ाव होंगे। हर दिन की एक इकाई (यूनिट) है। इस तरह इसकी छह इकाइयां या यूनिट्स हुईं। प्रत्येक इकाई का आखिरी दिन, अर्थात् 10वां, 2वां, 30वां आदि, अभ्यास-दिवस है। इन्हीं दिनों में आपको नई या अतिरिक्त जानकारी भी मिलेगी। इनमें exercises, tests और tables की सहायता से आप अपनी परीक्षा भी स्वयं ले सकेंगे कि आपने कितना सीखा है।

वैसे तो इस कोर्स में शामिल किए गए सभी वाक्य बहुत जरूरी और उपयोगी हैं, पर कुछ ऐसे वाक्यों को जो दिन-प्रतिदिन के जीवन में बार-बार प्रयोग में आते हैं और ऐसे ही कुछ और अधिक प्रचलित वाक्यों को बोल्ड टाइप में दिया गया है। संख्या में कम होने के कारण इन वाक्यों को जल्दी और आसानी से याद किया जा सकता है। आप इनका आम बातचीत में इस्तेमाल कर लोगों पर अपनी धाक जमा सकते हैं।

किसी भी भाषा का अच्छा जानकार उस भाषा में पूरे आत्मविश्वास के साथ बोल पाए यह जरूरी नहीं। जब तक मन में यह भय बना रहेगा 'कि लोग क्या कहेंगे' तब तक आप बातचीत में अटकेंगे। इसी प्रकार यदि आपका उच्चारण सही नहीं होगा, तो आप 'लोग हंसी न उड़ाएं' इस डर से बोलने में हिचक महसूस करेंगे या फिर सही समय पर सही बात नहीं कह पाएंगे। बातचीत में होने वाली इन्हीं परेशानियों से आपको बचाने के लिए पुस्तक के साथ जो ऑडियो कैसेट आपको दी गई है, उसका 16 पृष्ठों का स्क्रिप्ट भी पुस्तक के अंत में दिया गया है। इसके शुरू में जो निर्देश दिए गए हैं, आप उन्हें पढ़े और कैसेट के साथ-साथ सही उच्चारण का अभ्यास करें, निश्चय ही कुछ समय के अभ्यास के बाद आपको अपने में आत्मविश्वास महसूस होगा और अंग्रेज़ी बोलना इतना स्वाभाविक लगेगा, मानो आप अपनी मातृभाषा बोल रहे हों।

यहां एक बात विशेषरूप से ध्यान देने योग्य है कि पुस्तक को बिना पढ़े कैसेट का प्रयोग न करें, इससे लाभ के स्थान पर हानि हो सकती है, क्योंकि यह कैसेट पुस्तक का ही एक हिस्सा है, आपको अंग्रेज़ी सिखाने के लिए अपने-आप में यह कैसेट पूर्ण नहीं है।

इस कोर्स को तैयार करते समय क्योंकि पूरी तरह से मनोवैज्ञानिक सोच को सामने रखा गया है, इसलिए आपको 60 दिनों के बाद सुखद आश्चर्य होगा यह महसूस करके कि अंग्रेज़ी बोलना और लिखना तो कोई समस्या ही नहीं था। लेकिन यह 60 दिनों के बाद का अनुभव है। यहां तक पहुंचने के लिए आपको पहले इन शर्तों को निभाना होगा — 1 . सबसे पहले **संकल्प** करना होगा, फिर

2 . उस संकल्प को पूरा करने के लिए **प्रयत्न** करना होगा, और

3 . उस प्रयत्न को तब तक **जारी रखना** होगा, जब तक कि आप अपने लक्ष्य तक भली-भांति पहुंच नहीं जाते।

और हमें यह पूरा विश्वास है कि इन तीनों शर्तों को मानने की अवस्थाओं में से गुज़रने के लिए आप पूरी तरह से तैयार हैं। बस समझ लीजिए आप अंग्रेज़ी बोलने की कला में निपुण हो गए। अंग्रेज़ी में एक उक्ति है — Well begun is half done — अर्थात् कोई भी काम ठीक विधि से शुरू किया जाए, तो समझना चाहिए कि आधा काम पूरा हो गया।

तो आइए चलिए मेरे साथ पहले अभियान पर, इसमें आपका परिचय होगा अंग्रेज़ी में अभिवादन, शिष्टाचार, भावबोधक शब्दावली, सरल-संक्षिप्त वाक्यों, क्रिया के तीनों काल (tenses) से उनके अंग्रेजी की कुछ सहायक और विध्यर्थक क्रियाओं से, व्याकरण की माथापच्ची किए बिना। इसी के साथ अब आगे प्रत्येक दिन कुछ बोलने के लिए होगा, कुछ सीखने के लिए होगा और कुछ होगा पक्का करने के लिए, जो कि आपको साथ-साथ समझाया जाएगा।

हमारी शुभकामनाएं हैं कि आपकी यह यात्रा शुभ हो!

—प्रकाशक

1 पहला दिन
st Day

पहला अभियान (1st Expedition)

आइये, पहला दिन अभिवादन से शुरू करें। भारत में सभी अवसरों पर 'नमस्ते' या 'नमस्कार' कहकर अभिवादन किया जाता है। मुसलमान, 'अस्सलामालेकुम' तथा सिख आपस में मिलने पर 'सत श्री अकाल' कहते हैं। पर अंग्रेज़ी में ऐसा नहीं है। इसमें दिन के अलग-अलग समय पर अलग-अलग शब्दों द्वारा अभिवादन करने का चलन है।

बोलचाल में अभिवादन के वाक्य

अपने से बड़ों, रिश्तेदारों व पद में ऊंचे अधिकारियों के साथ

उषाकाल से लेकर दोपहर बारह बजे तक

1. नमस्ते, दादाजी !	**Good morning,** Grandpa! गुड मॉर्निंग, ग्रैंडपा !
2. नमस्ते, पिताजी !	Good morning, Dad! गुड मॉर्निंग, डैड !
3. नमस्ते, सर !	Good morning, Sir! गुड मॉर्निंग, सर !

दोपहर बारह बजे से शाम पांच बजे तक

4. नमस्ते, दादीजी !	**Good afternoon,** Grandma! गुड आफ़्टरनून, ग्रैंडमां !
5. नमस्ते, माताजी !	Good afternoon, Mummy! गुड आफ़्टरनून, मम्मी !
6. नमस्ते, बेटी !	Good afternoon, dear! गुड आफ़्टरनून, डियर !

सायं पांच बजे के बाद

7. नमस्ते, चाचाजी !	**Good evening,** Uncle! गुड ईवनिंग, अंकल !
8. नमस्ते, चाचीजी !	Good evening, Auntie! गुड ईवनिंग, आन्टी !
9. नमस्ते, बेटे !	Good evening, dear! गुड ईवनिंग, डियर !

रात को विदाई के समय

10. शुभ रात्रि !	**Good night!** गुड नाइट !
	Sweet dreams, darling! स्वीट ड्रीम्ज़, डार्लिंग !

दिन में किसी समय

11. अच्छा सर, चलते हैं!	**Good day** to you, Sir! गुड डे टु यू, सर!

भेंट के समय

12. आपसे मिलकर बहुत खुशी हुई!	Pleased to meet you! प्लीज़्ड टु मीट यू!

किसी भी समय (Informal greetings) अपने मित्रों व बराबरी के लोगों के साथ

1. हाय सिमी!	**Hi** Simi! हाइ सिमी!
2. हाय अंकुर!	Hi Ankur! हाइ अंकुर!
3. हलो अंकल!	**Hello** Uncle! हलो अंकल!
4. हलो निशि!	Hello Nishi! हलो निशि!
5. हलो कुश!	Hello Kush! हलो कुश!
6. हलो मिसिज़ मेहरा!	Hello Mrs. Mehra! हलो मिसिज़ मेहरा!

Note : यदि संबंध बेतकल्लुफ़ी का हो तो 'हलो' और 'हाइ' का प्रयोग अपने से बड़ों के साथ भी किया जा सकता है।

विदाई के समय

1. अच्छा चलते हैं, बच्चो!	Goodbye, children! गुडबाइ, चिल्ड्रन!
2. अच्छा !	**Bye, bye!** बाइ-बाइ!
3. चलते हैं, प्रिय!	Farewell, dear! फ़ेयरवेल, डियर!
4. अच्छा, फिर मिलेंगे!	Bye, see you/so long! बाइ, सी यू./सो लौंग!

याद रखें (Remember)

हिन्दी और अंग्रेज़ी में सम्बोधन का अंतर

A

अंग्रेज़ी में

1. Grandfather को संक्षेप में Grandpa कहते हैं।
2. Father के लिए Dad या Daddy शब्दों का भी प्रयोग किया जाता है।
3. Grandmother को संक्षेप में Grandma कहते हैं।
4. Mother के लिए Mom या Mummy शब्द का भी प्रयोग किया जाता है।

B

अंग्रेज़ी में

1 . चाचा, ताया, मामा, मौसा, फूफा — सभी को अंकल (Uncle) कहा जाता है।
2 . चाची, ताई, मामी, मौसी, बूआ — सभी को आंट या आंटी (Aunt, Aunty or Auntie) कहा जाता है।
3 . किसी भी पुरुष के लिए आदरसूचरक शब्द ‘सर’ (Sir) का प्रयोग किया जाता है।
4 . किसी भी महिला के लिए आदरसूचक शब्द ‘मैडम’ (Madam) का प्रयोग किया जाता है।
5 . चचेरे, ममेरे, मौसेर या फुफेरे भाई या बहिन, किसी के लिए भी केवल ‘कज़न’ (Cousin)शब्द प्रयोग में आता है, कज़न ब्रदर या कज़न सिस्टर (Cousin Brother/Cousin Sister) नहीं।
6 . विवाहित महिला के नाम या उपनाम से पहले मिसेज़ (Mrs) तथा अविवाहित महिला के लिए मिस (Miss) का प्रयोग किया जाता है। मिस (Ms) का प्रयोग अविवाहित या विवाहित किसी भी स्त्री के नाम या उपनाम से पहले किया जा सकता है।

2 दूसरा दिन
nd Day

अंग्रेज़ी में शिष्टाचार (Good Manners in English)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा सीखने के साथ-साथ इसके शिष्टाचार की जानकारी भी ज़रूरी है। अंग्रेज़ बात और व्यवहार में तहज़ीब का बहुत ध्यान रखते हैं। बार-बार कुछ विशेष नम्र शब्दों का प्रयोग करना उनकी बातचीत का ज़रूरी हिस्सा है। उनका हर बात को कहने का एक विशेष तरीका है। किस बात को कैसे कहें, किन शब्दों का इस्तेमाल करें, ऐसी ही कुछ ज़रूरी बातों की जानकारी इस पाठ में दी गई है।

A

हिन्दी भाषा की तरह, अंग्रेज़ी में बात-बात में नाम के साथ 'जी' लगाने का रिवाज नहीं है, और न ही इसमें 'आप' या 'वे' जैसे आदरसूचक शब्दों का प्रयोग किया जाता है। इसमें 'मैं' के लिए 'हम' कहने की प्रथा भी नहीं है इसीलिए कई हिन्दी भाषी लोगों को यह कहते हुए सुना गया है कि अंग्रेज़ी रूखी भाषा है, क्योंकि इसमें अपने से बड़ों से भी बातचीत करते हुए 'तुम', (You) 'यू' शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाता है।

लेकिन वास्तव में ऐसी बात नहीं है। हालांकि अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में 'आप' और 'वे' शब्द नहीं हैं, पर अंग्रेज़ी में बात-बात पर शिष्टाचार जताने की प्रथा है। सच्ची एवं स्वाभाविक अंग्रेज़ी सीखने के लिए इस बात का हमेशा ध्यान रखिए।

अंग्रेज़ी के इन शब्दों को मन में दोहराइए। इन शब्दों में पूरी अंग्रेज़ जाति का शिष्टाचार समाया हुआ है। ये अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के बड़े महत्वपूर्ण शब्द हैं: 1. Please प्लीज़

2. Thanks थैंक्स
3. Welcome वेल्कम
4. Kindly काइन्डली
5. Allow me अलाउ मी
6. After you आफ़्टर यू
7. Sorry सॉरी

8. Excuse me एक्सक्यूज़ मी
9. Pardon पार्डन
10. That is alright दैट इज़ ऑलराइट
11. It’s my pleasure इट्स माइ प्लेज़र

1 . यदि आपको किसी से पेन लेना हो, या एक गिलास पानी मांगना हो, अथवा किसी से समय पूछना हो, या फिर किसी को उत्तर में ‘हां’ कहना हो, तो वाक्य में **Please** प्लीज़ शब्द का प्रयोग करना होगा। यदि आप केवल **Please** प्लीज़ कह देंगे तो भी चलेगा, परन्तु यदि आप **Please** या **Kindly** आदि समान अर्थ वाले शब्द का प्रयोग नहीं करते हैं, तो आप **‘अभद्र’** कहलाएंगे। हिन्दी में आप यूं भी कह देते हैं: 1 . ज़रा अपना पेन देना।

2 . एक गिलास पानी।
3 . क्या बजा है?
4 . हां, पी लूंगा।

लेकिन हिन्दी की तरह यदि आप अंग्रेज़ी में भी निम्न वाक्य बोलेंगे, तो कोई भी अंग्रेज़ पहचान लेगा कि या तो आप असभ्य हैं, या कोई विदेशी, जो कि उनके शिष्टाचार से परिचित नहीं है: 1. Give me your pen . गिव मी योर पेन.

2. Give me a glass of water . गिव मी अ गलास ऑफ़ वॉटर.
3. What is the time ? वॉट इज़ द टाइम?
4. Yes, I will drink it . येस, आइ विल ड्रिंक इट.

और यदि आप कहेंगे: 1. May I have your pen, please ? मे आइ हैव योर पेन, प्लीज़?

2. A glass of water, please . अ ग्लास ऑफ़ वॉटर, प्लीज़.
3. Time please ? टाइम प्लीज़?
4. Yes, please . येस प्लीज़.

या, यदि आप इन वाक्यों को इस प्रकार भी कहेंगे, तो भी यह समझा जाएगा कि आप सभ्य हैं: 1. May I borrow your pen, please ? मे आइ बॉरो योर पेन, प्लीज़?

2. Give me a glass of water, please . गिव मी अ ग्लास ऑफ़ वॉटर, प्लीज़.
3. What is the time, please ? वॉट इज़ दि टाइम, प्लीज़?

2 . (a) यदि किसी व्यक्ति ने आपका मामूली-सा भी कोई काम किया है, उदाहरण के लिए — आपने टाइम पूछा या मकान का पता पूछा और उसने बता दिया, आपने तनिक-सी बात पूछी और उसने बता दी, तो उसे **Thank you** थैंक्यू कहना न भूलिए। हां, आप Thanks (थैंक्स) भी कह सकते हैं। यदि आप अधिक अहसान प्रकट करना चाहें, तो कह सकते हैं: Many many thanks to you. मेनी मेनी थैंक्स टु यू.

या

Thank you very much. थैंक्यू वेरी मच.

(b) कोई आपसे कुछ और लेने के लिए कहे और आप न लेना चाहते हों, तो आप हिन्दी की तरह मत कहिए — मैं और नहीं लेना चाहता, I don't want to take more. आइ डोन्ट वांट टु टेक मोर, बल्कि संक्षेप में कहिए — **No, thanks .** नो, थैंक्स.

3 . आपने किसी का कोई छोटा-सा-काम किया और बदले में उसने आपको कहा 'Thank you' तो अंग्रेज़ी में बात यहीं पर खत्म नहीं हो जाती। यदि आप Thanks सुनकर चुप रह जाएंगे, तो आप अभद्र या घमण्डी कहलाएंगे। इस पर आपको कहना पड़ेगा: **It's * all right . इट्स ऑल राइट (सब ठीक है).**

या 1. No mention. नो मैन्शन (कोई बात नहीं).

या 2. It's fine. इट्स फ़ाइन (सब ठीक है).

या 3. My pleasure. माइ प्लेज़र (इसमें मेरी खुशी है).

या 4. Welcome/you're welcome. वेल्कम/यू आर वेल्कम (ऐसी तकलीफ़ फिर दें).

ऊपर की पांच अभिव्यक्तियों में से आप स्वयं ही समझ सकते हैं कि पांचवीं अभिव्यक्ति सबसे अधिक नम्रता-सूचक है। वैसे ऊपर की दोनों अभिव्यक्तियां भी बोलचाल में खूब प्रचलित हैं।

4 . यदि कोई आपसे कोई वस्तु मांगे और वह आप देना चाहते हों, तो हिन्दी में आप कहेंगे — ले लीजिए। पर अंग्रेज़ी में यदि आपने कहा — Take it, तो अंग्रेज़ी में इसे शिष्टाचार नहीं माना जाएगा इसलिए आप कहेंगे — **Yes, you are welcome .** यस, यू आर वेल्कम या **With great pleasure .** विद ग्रेट प्लेज़र.

5 . यदि आप किसी को कोई छोटी-सी सेवा या सहायता करना चाहें तो उसे कहने का अंग्रेज़ी में एक अपना तरीका है, उदाहरण के लिए आप किसी महिला की गोद से बच्चा लेने या किसी वृद्ध का थैला उठाने की पेशकश करने के लिए यूं कहेंगे — **Allow me .** अलाउ मी... या **May I help you ?** मे आइ हेल्प यू... अर्थात् मुझे अवसर दें... अर्थात् क्या मैं आपकी सहायता कर सकता हूं? किसी शो रूम या प्रदर्शनी में यदि आप सेल्समेन हैं या गाइड हैं तो विजिटर्स ग्राहकों को भी **May I help you** कहकर अपनी ओर आकर्षित कर सकते हैं।

6 . किसी महिला या किसी वृद्ध को रास्ता देते समय आप कह देते हैं — 'पहले आप', जबकि अंग्रेज़ी बातचीत में आप **' First you '** फ़र्स्ट यू नहीं कहेंगे। अंग्रेज़ी में कहेंगे — **' After you '** . आफ़्टर यू.

7 . अंग्रेज़ी में बात-बात पर खेद प्रकट करने का रिवाज है। हिन्दी में भी हम खेद प्रकट करते हैं या क्षमा मांगते हैं, पर तब, जब हमसे वस्तुत: कोई बड़ी भूल हो जाए, जैसे हम किसी से समय लेकर फिर समय पर नहीं पहुंचें, तो खेद प्रकट करते हैं, और समय लेकर उस दिन बिल्कुल न पहुंचें, तो अपने इस अपराध के लिए क्षमा मांगते हैं। पर अंग्रेज़ी में छोटी-छोटी बातों में भी **Sorry** सॉरी, **Excuse me** एक्सक्यूज़ मी, **Pardon** पार्डन आदि शब्दों का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे: (a) आपका किसी से हाथ छू जाए, तो आपको झट कहना होगा, **Sorry** सॉरी।

(b) दो आदमी रास्ते में खड़े-खड़े बात कर रहे हों और आपको बीच में से गुज़रना हो, तो आप कहेंगे — **Excuse me** एक्सक्यूज़ मी। इसी तरह लोगों के बीच से उठकर आपको

किसी काम से थोड़ी देर के लिए जाना है, तो आप बिना कुछ कहे नहीं उठेंगे, बल्कि कहेंगे — ‘ **Excuse me ’.** किसी व्यक्ति का ध्यान अपनी ओर आकर्षित करने के लिए भी **Excuse me** कहकर आप अपनी बात कह सकते हैं।

(c) आप टेलीफ़ोन सुन रहे हैं या आमने-सामने किसी से बातचीत कर रहे हैं, आपको बात सुनाई नहीं देती और आप उसे फिर से सुनना चाहते हैं, तो आप ऐसे नहीं कहेंगे — ‘ऊंचा बोलो न! मुझे कुछ सुनाई नहीं देता।’ Speak loudly! I cannot hear anything. बल्कि इसके स्थान पर आप अंग्रेज़ी में केवल यह कहेंगे — **‘ Pardon ’** पार्डन या **I beg your pardon** आइ बेग योर पार्डन. और सामने वाला व्यक्ति इससे समझ जाएगा कि आपको बात सुनाई नहीं दी है।

(d) कोई कमरे में बैठा है। आप उसके मकान पर उससे मिलने गए हैं, तो बिना सूचना दिये या आज्ञा लिये आपको अन्दर दाखिल नहीं होना चाहिए, बल्कि अंग्रेज़ी में आप इस आशय का वाक्य कहेंगे — **May I come in, please ?** मे आइ कम इन, प्लीज़ (क्या मैं अन्दर आ सकता हूं?) और वह पलट कर कहेगा — Yes please come in येस प्लीज़ कम इन (अवश्य) या With great pleasure विद ग्रेट प्लेज़र (खुशी से) या Of course ऑफ़ कोर्स (अवश्य)।

ऐसी है औपचारिकता, अथवा शिष्टाचार से पूर्ण अंग्रेज़ी भाषा! अपने वाक्य बनाते समय इस भाषा की रीति को सदा याद रखना चाहिए।

B

शिष्टाचार के कुछ वाक्य (Some Polite Phrases)

1. मैंने मिलने का समय दिया था, परन्तु मैं आ नहीं सका, मुझे माफ करें।	I'm sorry, I couldn't make it that day. आइम सॉरी, आइ कुडन्ट मेक इट दैट डे.
2. मैं ठीक समय पर नहीं आ सका, इसके लिए मैं माफी मांगता हूं।	I'm sorry, I couldn't make it in time. आइम सॉरी, आइ कुडन्ट मेक इट इन टाइम.
3. माफ कीजिए, मुझे थोड़ी-सी देर हो गई है।	**I'm sorry, I got a little late.** आइम सॉरी, आइ गॉट अ लिटिल लेट.
4. मेरी ओर से माफी मांग लीजिए।	Please convey my apologies. प्लीज़ कनवे माइ अपॉलोजीज़.
5. ऐसा गलती से हो गया। माफ कीजिए।	It was all by mistake. Please excuse me. इट वॉज़ ऑल बाइ मिस्टेक। प्लीज़ एक्सक्यूज़ मी.
6. मुझे बड़ा दु:ख है।	I 'm very sorry. आइम वेरी सॉरी.
7. माफ करें, मैंने आपके काम में बाधा डाली।	Sorry to have disturbed you.सॉरी टु हैव डिस्टर्ब्ड यू.
8. माफ कीजिए।	**I beg your pardon.** आइ बेग योर पार्डन.
9. आपकी आज्ञा से कहना चाहता हूं।	Allow me to say. अलाउ मी टु से.
10. ज़रा ध्यान दीजिए।	**May I have your attention, please?** मे आइ हैव योर अटेन्शन, प्लीज़?
11. इसे अपनी ही चीज़ समझें।	It's all yours. इट्स आल योर्ज़.
12. ज़रा मुझे बोलने दें।	Will you please permit me to speak? विल यू प्लीज़ परमिट मी टु स्पीक?
13. अपने काम में मेरी मदद ले लीजिए।	Let me also help you. लेट मी ऑल्सो हैल्प यू.
14. क्या आप थोड़ा खिसकेंगे?	Will you please move a bit? विल यू प्लीज़ मूव अ बिट?
15. ज़रा धीरे बोलें।	Will you please speak slowly? विल यू प्लीज़ स्पीक स्लोली?
16. ज़रा धीमा बोलने की कृपा करें।	Will you mind speaking a bit softly, please? विल यू माइन्ड स्पीकिंग ए बिट सॉफ़्टली, प्लीज़?
17. क्या आप मुझे बैठने देंगे?	Will you please let me sit? विल यू प्लीज़ लेट मी सिट?
18. क्या मैं आपका थोड़ा-सा समय ले सकता हूं?	Could you spare a few moments for me? कुड यू स्पेअर अ फ़्यू मोमेन्ट्स फ़ॉर मी?
19. जैसी आपकी मर्ज़ी।	As you please. ऐज़ यू प्लीज़.
20. आराम से बैठिए।	Please make yourself comfortable. प्लीज़ मेक योरसेल्फ़ कम्फ़र्टेबल.

21. कष्ट के लिए क्षमा करें।	Sorry for the inconvenience. सॉरी फ़ॉर दि इन्कन्वीन्यन्स.
22. आपकी बड़ी कृपा है।	That's very/so kind of you. दैट्स वेरी/सो काइंड ऑफ़ यू.
23. लीजिए।	Please help yourself. प्लीज़ हेल्प योरसेल्फ़.
24. आपसे मिलकर खुशी हुई।	Glad to meet you. ग्लैड टु मीट यू.
25. आपकी अच्छी सलाह के लिए धन्यवाद।	Thanks for your kind/valuable advice. थैंक्स फ़ॉर योर काइंड एडवाइस.
26. मैं पूरी कोशिश करूंगा/करूंगी।	I will try my level best. आइ विल ट्राइ माइ लैवल बेस्ट.
27. आशा है आप मज़े में हैं।	Hope you are enjoying yourself/yourselves. होप यू आर एन्जॉइंग योरसेल्फ़/योरसेल्व्ज़.

याद रखें (Remember)

A

1 . प्रत्येक देश में सभ्यता एवं शिष्टाचार प्रकट करने का अलग-अलग ढंग होता है। हिन्दी में नाम के बाद 'जी' लगाकर आदर प्रकट करने का रिवाज़ है, बड़ों को आदर देने के लिए बहुवचन का प्रयोग भी किया जाता है, जबकि अंग्रेज़ी में आदरसूचक में भी एकवचन (Singular सिंग्युलर) ही रहता है। उदाहरण के लिए: श्री केदारनाथ **जी आए हैं।** Mr. Kedarnath has come. (मि. केदारनाथ हैज़ कम.) 2 . हिन्दी में मध्यम पुरुष में आदर प्रकट करने के लिए 'तुम' की जगह 'आप' का प्रयोग होता है, परन्तु अंग्रेज़ी में 'तुम' और 'आप' दोनों के लिए 'यू' (You) का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे: **आप** क्या चाहते हैं? What do you want? (वॉट डू यू वॉन्ट?) इसी प्रकार हिन्दी में अन्यपुरुष में आदर की दृष्टि से 'वह' के स्थान पर 'वे' का प्रयोग होता है, जबकि अंग्रेज़ी में एकवचन का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे: **वे** रात को आ सकते हैं। He may come at night. (ही मे कम ऐट नाइट.)

B

क्षमा मांगने के अर्थ में अंग्रेज़ी में कई शब्द हैं जिनका बातचीत में व्यवहार किया जाता है। इन शब्दों के वास्तविक अर्थों को यहां दिया जा रहा है:

1. Excuse (V*.) — क्षमा करना, साधारण अर्थ में प्रयोग होता है। मुझे माफ करें (Please excuse me.)
2. Forgive (V.) — दण्डित करने की भावना को सदा के लिए मन से निकाल देना, हृदय से क्षमा कर देना, जैसे — गलती करना इंसान का काम है, उसे क्षमा करना परमात्मा का (To err is human, to forgive is divine).
3. Pardon (V.) — अपराधी को मिले हुए दण्ड से मुक्त करना। मेरी गलती के लिए मुझे क्षमा करें (Please pardon me for my mistake.)
4. Mistake (V.) — गलत समझना। गलती से मुझे आप डॉक्टर समझ रहे हैं (Don't mistake me for a doctor.)
5. Sorry (Adj.) — मुझे खेद है। मुझे देर से आने का अफसोस है (I am sorry for being late.)

आजकल साधारण बोलचाल में I beg your pardon का हल्के-फुल्के शिष्टाचार वाक्य के रूप में आम प्रयोग होने लगा है। फ़ोन पर जब आपको आवाज सुनाई नहीं देती, तो आप कहते हैं, I beg your Pardon या ' Pardon ' तो उसका यह आशय होता है कि आप तो ठीक बोल रहे हैं, पर मुझे सुनाई नहीं दे रहा है। कृपया दोबारा कहें — ' Please repeat it ' — यह भी चलेगा पर आपको मूल अर्थ भी ज्ञात होना चाहिए।

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* अंग्रेज़ी में short forms (शब्दों के संक्षिप्त रूप) बहुत प्रचलित हैं, जैसे It is के लिए It's और You are के लिए you're का बातचीत में बहुत प्रयोग होता है। कुछ और उदाहरण नीचे दिये गये हैं:

I am — I'm	He is — He's
I have — I've	She is — She's
We are — We're	Is not/are not — Isn't/aren't

इनके प्रयोग से बातचीत में गति और सहजता आती है।

* V का अर्थ 'क्रिया' या 'Verb' से है।

3 तीसरा दिन

rd Day

भावबोधक (Exclamation)

अंग्रेज़ी में मन के अलग-अलग भावों को प्रकट करने का अपना ही तरीका है। यह सरल भी है और सुन्दर भी। हैरानी, खुशी, दुख, नाराज़गी और भी दूसरे कई भावों को छोटे-छोटे वाक्यों व दो-तीन शब्दों में बहुत अच्छे ढंग से कहा जा सकता है। इन शब्दों और वाक्यों का हम आम बोलचाल में बार-बार प्रयोग कर सकते हैं।

1. वाह, वाह !	Marvellous! मार्वलस !
2. **शाबाश!**	**Well done!** वेल डन !
3. अति सुन्दर !	Beautiful! ब्यूटिफ़ुल !
4. अरे !	Hey! हे !
5. **वाह!**	**Wow!** वाउ !
6. हे राम !	My/Oh God ! माइ/ओ गॉड !
7. आपने तो कमाल कर दिया !	Wonderful ! वन्डरफ़ुल
8. **बेशक!**	**Of course !** ऑफ़ कोर्स !
9. **ईश्वर का धन्यवाद !**	**Thank God !** थैंक गॉड !
10. ईश्वर की कृपा से !	By God's grace ! बाइ गॉड्स ग्रेस !
11. खुदा आपको बरकत दे !	May God bless you ! मे गॉड ब्लेस यू !
12. **आपको भी!**	**Same to you !** सेम टु यू !
13. **बहुत बढ़िया!**	**Excellent !** एक्सीलेन्ट !
14. **बड़े दुख का समाचार!**	**How sad !** हाउ सैड !
15. बड़ी खुशी का समाचार !	That is a good news ! दैट इज़ अ गुड न्यूज़ !
16. कितनी बड़ी विजय !	What a great victory ! वॉट ए ग्रेट विक्ट्री !
17. प्रभु मेरे ! (आश्चर्य में)	Good heavens ! गुड हेवन्ज़ !
18. सुनिए !	Hello ! Listen ! हलो ! लिसिन !
19. **फटाफट करिए!**	**Hurry up, please !** हरी अप, प्लीज़ !
20. कितनी बुरी बात !	How terrible ! हाउ टैरिबल !
21. कितने अपमान की बात है !	How disgraceful ! हाउ डिसग्रेसफ़ुल !
22. बड़ी फिजूल बात है !	How absurd ! हाउ एब्सर्ड !
23. **उसकी इतनी हिम्मत!**	**How dare he !** हाउ डेअर ही !
24. क्या खूब !	How sweet ! हाउ स्वीट !
25. कितना सुन्दर !	How lovely ! हाउ लवली !
26. ऐसा कहने की तुम्हें हिम्मत कैसे हुई !	How dare you say that ! हाउ डेअर यू से दैट !
27. प्यारे !	Oh dear ! ओ डियर !
28. जल्दी चलो !	Hurry up ! हरी अप ! वॉक फ़ास्ट !

29. **चुप रहिए!**	**Quiet, please/Please keep quiet !** क्वायट प्लीज़! प्लीज़ कीप क्वायट!
30. हां, ऐसा ही!	Yes, it is ! येस इट इज़!
31. **सचमुच!**	**Really !** रिअली!
32. सच!	Is it ! इज़ इट !
33. धन्यवाद!	Thanks ! थैंक्स!
34. **आपका धन्यवाद!**	**Thank you !** थैंक यू!
35. भगवान का लाख शुक्र है!	Thank God ! थैंक गॉड!
36. **यह दिन बार-बार आए!**	**Many happy returns of the day !** मैनी हैपी रिटर्न्ज़ ऑफ़ द डे!
37. **आहा! मैंने मैच जीत लिया!**	**Hurrah ! I have won !** हुर्रे, आइ हैव वन!
38. आपके स्वास्थ्य के लिए!	For your good health ! फ़ॉर योर गुड हेल्थ!
39. **बधाई!**	**Congratulations !** कौंग्रेच्युलेशन्ज़!
40. **कितनी बेहूदगी है!**	**What nonsense !** वॉट नॉनसेन्स!
41. कितनी शर्म की बात है!	What a shame ! वॉट अ शेम!
42. कितनी दु:खद बात है!	How tragic ! हाउ ट्रैजिक!
43. **कितना सुखद आश्चर्य!**	**What a pleasant surprise** वॉट अ प्लेज़ेन्ट सरप्राइज़!
44. आश्चर्यजनक!	Wonderful ! वन्डरफ़ुल!
45. छि: छि:!	How disgusting ! हाउ डिसगस्टिंग!
46. खबरदार!	Beware ! बीवेअर!
47. कितने दुख की बात है!	What a pity ! वॉट अ पिटी!
48. **कितनी बढ़िया सूझ है!**	**What an idea !** वॉट ऐन आइडिया!
49. **आपका स्वागत है!**	**Welcome sir !** वेल्कम सर!
50. आपके स्वागत के लिए!	Cheers ! चिअर्ज़!
51. क्या मुसीबत है!	What a bother ! वॉट अ बॉदर!
52. सावधानी से/संभल कर!	Watch out ! वॉच आउट!
53. कहीं नज़र न लगे!	Touch wood ! टच वुड!
54. अब चाहे जो हो!	Come what may ! कम वॉट मे!

याद रखें (Remember)

1 . सामान्य वाक्य में जहां अल्पविराम (,) या पूर्ण विराम (।) लगता है, वहां भावबोधक वाक्य में विस्मयादि बोधक चिह्न (!) Exclamatory Sign लगता है, जैसे — Really! Wonderful ! आदि।

2 . लज्जा, दु:ख, आश्चर्य, हर्ष, क्रोध आदि अनेकानेक भावों को प्रकट करने के लिए What, How आदि शब्दों का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे — What a shame! How wonderful ! आदि।

3 . विस्मयादिबोधक वाक्य (Exclamatory sentence) बोलते समय ध्वनि में आश्चर्य आदि भावों का स्वर देना चाहिए।

4 चौथा दिन
th Day

छोटे-छोटे वाक्यांश (Phrases)

अंग्रेज़ी में वाक्य की जगह कई बार वाक्यांश अथवा केवल दो-एक शब्दों से काम चलाया जाता है। उदाहरण के तौर पर Yes, Sir ! (येस, सर), No sir ! (नो सर), Very good, sir ! (वेरी गुड, सर) आदि। ये वाक्यांश इतने अधिक प्रचलित हैं कि अंग्रेज़ी बोलने और समझने के इच्छुक प्रत्येक व्यक्ति को इनसे परिचित होना अत्यन्त आवश्यक है। ये वाक्यांश बहुत सरल भी हैं, क्योंकि ये व्याकरण के पेचीदा नियमों से बंधे हुए नहीं हैं।

A

1. **मैं अभी आ रहा हूं।**	**Just coming.** जस्ट कमिंग.
2. बहुत अच्छा।	Very well. वेरी वेल.
3. अच्छी बात है।	**Fine**/Very good. फ़ाइन / वेरी गुड.
4. जैसी आपकी मर्ज़ी।	As you like/**As you please.** ऐज़ यू लाइक/ ऐज़ यू प्लीज़.
5. **और कुछ?**	**Anything else?** एनीथिंग एल्स?
6. **बस, रहने दो।**	**That's enough.** दैट्स एनफ़.
7. इस सम्मान के लिए धन्यवाद।	Thanks for this honour. थैंक्स फ़ार दिस ऑनर.
8. **अच्छा।**	**O.K.** ओ.के.
9. क्यों नहीं?	Why not? वाइ नॉट?
10. थोड़ा-सा भी नहीं।	Not a bit. नॉट अ बिट.
11. **ध्यान रखना।**	**Take care.** टेक केअर.
12. **कल मिलेंगे।**	**See you tomorrow.** सी यू टुमॉरो.
13. हां, जरूर!	Yes, by all means! येस, बाइ ऑल मीन्ज़!
14. बहुत है।	That is too much. दैट इज़ टू मच.
15. **हां, सर।**	**Yes, Sir !** येस, सर!
16. नहीं, कभी नहीं।	No, not at all. नो, नॉट ऐट ऑल.
17. **कोई बात नहीं।**	**Never mind/Doesn't matter.** नेवर माइन्ड/डज़न्ट मैटर.
18. **और कुछ नहीं।**	**Nothing else.** नथिंग एल्स.
19. कोई खास बात नहीं।	Nothing special. नथिंग स्पेशल.
20. **आइए।**	**Welcome!** वेल्कम!
21. **भरोसा रखें।**	**Rest assured.** रेस्ट अश्योर्ड.
22. बहुत दिन से देखा नहीं।	Long time no see. लौंग टाइम नो सी.
23. अच्छा चलते हैं/ गुड बाइ!	Goodbye ! गुड बाइ!
24. आपको भी विदा!	Bye bye ! बाइ बाइ!
25. ज़रा-सा भी नहीं!	Not the least ! नॉट द लीस्ट!

ये लगभग सभी वाक्यांश हैं, पूर्ण वाक्य नहीं, पर इनसे पूर्ण वाक्य जैसा काम लिया जाता है।

B

आज्ञा या आदेश के वाक्य (Sentences of Command/Order)

1. रुको।	**I say stop.** स्टॉप.
2. बोलो।	**Speak.** स्पीक.
3. सुनो।	**Listen.** लिसन.
4. यहां ठहरो।	**Wait here.** वेट हिअर.
5. इधर आओ।	**Come here.** कम हिअर.
6. इधर देखो।	**Look here.** लुक हिअर.
7. यह लो।	**Take it.** टेक इट.
8. पास आओ।	**Come near.** कम निअर.
9. बाहर इंतज़ार करो।	**Wait outside.** वेट आउटसाइड.
10. ऊपर जाओ।	**Go up.** गो अप.
11. नीचे जाओ।	**Go Down.** गो डाउन.
12. उतर जाओ।	**Get off.** गेट ऑफ़.
13. तैयार हो जाओ।	**Be Ready./Get ready.** बी रेडी/गेट रेडी.
14. चुप रहो।	**Keep quiet.** कीप क्वायट.
15. सावधान रहो।	**Be careful./Be cautious.** बी केअरफ़ुल/बी कॉशस.
16. धीरे चलो।	**Go slowly./Walk slowly.** गो स्लोली/वॉक स्लोली.
17. तुरन्त जाओ।	**Go at once.** गो एट वन्स.
18. यहां रुको।	**Stop here.** स्टॉप हिअर.
19. सीधे जाओ।	**Go straight.** गो स्ट्रेट.
20. चले जाओ/निकल जाओ।	**Go away/Get out.** गो अवे/गेट आउट.

कर्त्ता न होते हुए भी ये पूर्ण वाक्य हैं, क्योंकि इनमें क्रियाएं अपने स्थान पर हैं। ये आदेश (Command) के वाक्य हैं। इनमें You (तुम) यानि कि कर्त्ता अर्थ को देखते हुए अपनी ओर से लगाना पड़ता है — अर्थात्, 'You' understood है।

याद रखें (Remember)

1 . ऊपर B भाग में सभी आज्ञा या आदेश के वाक्य हैं। आप इन्हें थोड़े से प्रयत्न से प्रार्थनासूचक वाक्यों में भी बदल सकते हैं। ऊपर के सभी वाक्यों से पहले ' Please ' जोड़ें। पहला वाक्य इस प्रकार बनेगा — Please stop . (ज़रा रुकिए). इसी तरह सभी वाक्य बनेंगे। इस तरह इन वाक्यों की क्रियाओं का अर्थ आदर सूचक हो जायेगा।

2 . जब आप अपने अधिकारी से अवकाश मांगें या ऐसी ही कोई और प्रार्थना करें, वहां Please के स्थान पर Kindly का प्रयोग करें, जैसे — (i) कृपया मुझे एक दिन का अवकाश प्रदान करें. Kindly grant me leave for one day. (ii)

कृपया मामले की जांच-पड़ताल करें Kindly look into the matter . इन दोनों वाक्यों में Please शब्द का प्रयोग उचित नहीं है, Kindly शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाना चाहिए।

3. Don’t — Do not शब्द का संक्षिप्त रूप है तथा can’t — can not का।

4 . आदेश और प्रार्थना के वाक्य 9 वें दिन में देखिए।

5 पांचवां दिन
th Day

वर्तमान काल (Present Tense)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में Present Tense की क्रिया को चार रूपों में बांटा गया है: 1. Ram studies . (राम स्टडीज़.) राम पढ़ता है। 2. Ram is studying . (राम इज़ स्टडींग) राम पढ़ रहा है। 3. Ram has studied . (राम हैज़ स्टडीड) राम ने पढ़ लिया है। 4. Ram has been studying since morning . (राम हैज़ बीन स्टडींग सिंस मॉर्निंग.) राम सुबह से पढ़ रहा है। यहां पहले वाक्य में क्रिया वर्तमान काल की तो है, पर समय निश्चित नहीं है। Ram studies . राम पढ़ता है, परन्तु यह पता नहीं कि कब से पढ़ता है? दूसरे वाक्य में वर्तमान काल की क्रिया 'चल रही है' Ram is studying . यानि राम इस समय पढ़ रहा है। तीसरे भेद में — Ram has studied — राम ने पढ़ लिया है, अर्थात् क्रिया पूरी हो चुकी है, पर उसे अधिक समय नहीं बीता। और चौथे भेद में Ram has been studying since morning . — अर्थात् क्रिया एक निश्चित समय से चल रही है। इन्हें क्रमश: Present Indefinite, Present Continuous, Present Perfect और Present Perfect Continuous कहा जाता है।

A

— Does/Do —

मनीष : क्या, तुम अंग्रेज़ी पढ़ते हो?	**Manish :** *Do* you study English? डू यू स्टडी इंगलिश?
श्यामल : हां।	**Shyamal :** Yes, I *do*. येस, आइ डू.
मनीष : क्या लता तुम्हारे घर आती है?	**Manish :** *Does* Lata come to your house? डज़ लता कम टु योर हाउस?
श्यामल : हां, वह कभी-कभी आती है।	**Shyamal :** Yes, she comes sometimes. येस, शी कम्ज़ समटाइम्ज़.
मनीष : क्या दूसरे मित्र भी तुम्हारे पास आते हैं?	**Manish :** *Do* other friends also come to you? डू अदर फ्रेंन्ड्ज़ ऑल्सो कम टु यू?
श्यामल : हां, वे भी आते हैं।	**Shyamal :** Yes, they *do*. येस दे डू.
मनीष— क्या तुम मुम्बई रहते हो ?	**Manish :** *Do* you stay in Mumbai? डू यू स्टे इन मुम्बई ?
श्यामल — नहीं, मैं कोलकाता रहता हूं।	**Shyamal :** No, I stay in Kolkata. नो, आइ स्टे इन कोलकाता.

B

— Is/Are/Am —

बाला : क्या यही पुस्तक तुम्हें चाहिए?	**Bala :** *Is* this the book you are looking for ? इज़ दिस द बुक यू आर लुकिंग फ़ॉर?
मधु : हां, यही पुस्तक मुझे चाहिए।	**Madhu :** Yes, this *is* it. येस, दिस इज़ इट.
बाला : क्या रीटा फ़िल्म देख रही है?	**Bala :** *Is* Rita watching a movie? इज़ रीटा वॉचिंग अ मूवी?
मधु : नहीं, वह वीडियो गेम खेल रही है !	**Madhu :** No, she *is* playing a Video game. नो, शी इज़ प्लेइंग अ वीडियो गेम.
बाला : क्या तुम अब बाज़ार नहीं जा रही हो?	**Bala :** *Are* you not going to market now? आर यू नॉट गोइंग टू मार्केट नाउ?
मधु : नहीं !	**Madhu :** No, I *am* not. नो आइ ऐम नॉट.
बाला : क्या तुम्हारे पिता जी सरकारी नौकरी करते हैं?	**Bala :** *Is* your father in government service? इज़ योर फ़ादर इन गवर्नमेण्ट सर्विस?
मधु : नहीं, मेरे पिताजी व्यापारी हैं।	**Madhu :** No, he *is* a businessman. नो, ही इज़ ए बिज़नेसमैन.
बाला : क्या तुम्हारा भाई किसी परीक्षा की तैयारी कर रहा है?	**Bala :** *Is* your brother preparing for some examination? इज़ योर ब्रदर प्रिपेरिंग फ़ॉर सम इग्ज़ैमिनेशन
मधु : हां, वह आई. ए. एस. परीक्षा की तैयारी कर रहा है।	**Madhu :** Yes, he *is* preparing for the I. A. S. examination. येस, ही इज़ प्रिपेरिंग फ़ॉर दि आई. ए. एस. इग्ज़ैमिनेशन.

C

— Has/Have —

मोहन : क्या तुमने राधा को कोई पत्र लिखा है?	**Mohan :** *Have* you written any letter to Radha? हैव यू रिटन एनी लेटर टु राधा?
भानु : हां!	**Bhanu :** Yes, I *have*. येस, आइ हैव.
मोहन : क्या उसने तुम्हारे पत्र का उत्तर दिया है?	**Mohan :** *Has* she replied to your letter? हैज़ शी रिप्लाइड टु योर लेटर?
भानु : नहीं।	**Bhanu :** No, She *hasn't*. नो, शी हैज़न्ट.
मोहन : क्या तुमने खाना खा लिया है?	**Mohan :** *Have* you taken your meals? हैव यू टेकन योर मील्ज़?
भानु : नहीं, मैंने सुबह का नाश्ता काफी भारी किया था।	**Bhanu :** No, I had a heavy breakfast in the morning. नो, आइ हैड ए हैवी ब्रेकफ़ास्ट इन द मॉर्निंग.
मोहन : क्या, तुम उसके घर गये थे?	**Mohan :** Did you go to his place? डिड यू गो टू हिज़ प्लेस?
भानु : नहीं, अभी मुझको जाना है।	**Bhanu :** No, I *have* yet to go. नो, आइ हैव येट टु गो.

D

— Has been/Have been —

श्याम : तुम सुबह से क्या कर रहे हो?	**Shayam :** What have you been doing since morning? वॉट हैव यू बीन डूइंग सिंस मॉर्निंग?
गोपाल : यह किताब पढ़ रहा हूं।	**Gopal :** *I have been* reading this book. आइ हैव बीन रीडिंग दिस बुक.
श्याम : क्या कल से यहां भी बरसात हो रही है?	**Shyam :** Has it been raining here also since yesterday? हैज़ इट बीन रेनिंग हिअर ऑल्सो सिंस येस्टरडे?
गोपाल : हां, हो तो रही है, पर रुक-रुक कर।	**Gopal :** Yes, it *has been*, but not continuously. येस, इट हैज़ बीन, बट नॉट कन्टिनुअसलि.
श्याम : क्या पानी काफी देर से उबल रहा है?	**Shyam :** *Has* the water been boiling for long? हैज़ द वॉटर बीन बॉयलिंग फ़ॉर लौंग.
गोपाल : नहीं, अभी थोड़ी देर से ही उबल रहा है।	**Gopal :** No, it *has been* boiling only for a little time. नो, इट हैज़ बीन बॉयलिंग ओन्ली फ़ॉर अ लिटिल टाइम.
हम इस घर में दस वर्षों से रह रहे हैं।	We *have been* living in this house for ten years. वी हैव बीन लिविंग इन दिस हाउस फॉर टेन ईयर्ज़.
वह पिछली जनवरी से एक नये प्रोजेक्ट पर काम कर रहा है।	He *has been* working on a new project since January. ही हैज़ बीन वर्किंग ऑन अ न्यू प्रोजेक्ट सिन्स जैनुअरी.

याद रखें (Remember)

इन वाक्यों को ध्यान से देखिए: 1. You are writing a letter (यू आर राइटिंग अ लेटर). तुम पत्र लिख रहे हो।

2. You have written a letter (यू हैव रिटन अ लेटर). तुम पत्र लिख चुके हो।

ये दोनों सकारात्मक (Affirmative) वाक्य हैं, इनको नकारात्मक (Negative) तथा प्रश्नात्मक (Interrogative) वाक्यों में इस प्रकार बदला जा सकता है:

नकारात्मक (Negative)	प्रश्नात्मक (Interrogative)
1. You are **not** writing a letter.	1. **Are** you writing a letter?
2. You have **not** written a letter.	2. **Have** you written a letter?

आपने देखा कि सकारात्मक वाक्यों को नकारात्मक वाक्य बनाने के लिए सहायक क्रिया are, have के बाद not जोड़ना पड़ता है। इसी तरह प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में सहायक क्रियाएं, are, have वाक्य के शुरू में आ गई हैं। इससे हमने सीखा कि Present Continuous Tense तथा Present Perfect Tense में सकारात्मक से नकारात्मक तथा प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य आसानी से बनाये जा सकते हैं।

अब Present Indefinite Tense के उदाहरण लीजिए: 1. You write a letter (यू राइट अ लेटर). तुम पत्र लिखते हो।

2. I read English (आइ रीड इंगलिश). मैं अंग्रेज़ी पढ़ता हूं।

अब इनके नकारात्मक तथा प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य देखिए:

नकारात्मक (Negative)	प्रश्नात्मक (Interrogative)
1. You **do not** write a letter.	1. **Do** you write a letter?
2. I **do not** read English.	2. **Do** I read English?

इस Tense में Do या Does जोड़ा जाता है, तभी नकारात्मक या प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य बनते हैं। Do का प्रयोग बहुवचन कर्ता के साथ और Does का प्रयोग एकवचन कर्ता के साथ होता है, पर I तथा You दोनों के साथ Do का ही प्रयोग होता है Does का कभी भी नहीं।

6 छठा दिन
th Day

भूतकाल (Past Tense)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में भूतकाल की क्रिया को भी (वर्तमान की तरह) मुख्य चार भेदों में बांटा गया है: 1. Ram studied . (राम स्टडीड). 2. Ram was studying . (राम वॉज़ स्टडींग). 3. Ram had studied . (राम हैड स्टडीड). 4. Ram had been studying since morning . (राम हैड बीन स्टडींग सिंस मॉर्निंग), अर्थात् क्रमश: राम पढ़ा, राम पढ़ रहा था, राम ने पढ़ लिया था तथा राम सुबह से पढ़ रहा था। Ram Studied — राम पढ़ा, इससे पता चलता है कि क्रिया बीते समय में पूरी हो गई, पर यह पता नहीं लगता कि कब हुई (Past Indefinite); Ram was studying — राम पढ़ रहा था, इससे ज्ञात होता है कि क्रिया ज़ारी थी, खत्म नहीं हुई थी (Past Continuous); Ram had studied — राम ने पढ़ लिया था अर्थात् क्रिया बहुत पहले पूरी हो गई थी (Past Perfect); Ram had been studying since morning — राम सुबह से पढ़ रहा था अर्थात् क्रिया एक निश्चित समय से चल रही थी (Past Perfect Continuous)।

E

— Did —

अध्यापिका : क्या तुम कल जल्दी उठीं?

Teacher : *Did* you get up early yesterday?
डिड यू गेट अप अर्ली येस्टर्डे?

उमा : जी मैडम।

Uma : Yes, madam, I *did.* येस मैडम, आइ डिड.

अध्यापिका : क्या तुमने डबल रोटी और मक्खन खाया?

Teacher : *Did* you have bread and butter?
डिड यू हैव ब्रेड ऐंड बटर?

उमा : जी हां मैडम। खाया।

Uma : Yes madam, I *did.* येस मैडम, आइ डिड.

अध्यापिका : क्या रजनी तुम्हारे पास दोपहर को आयी थी?

Teacher : *Did* Rajni come to you at noon?
डिड रजनी कम टु यू ऐट नून?

उमा : नहीं।

Uma : No, she *didn't.* नो, शी डिडन्ट.

अध्यापिका : क्या तुमने रात को यह निबन्ध लिखा?

Teacher : *Did* you write this essay at night?
डिड यू राइट दिस एसे ऐट नाइट?

उमा : मैंने नहीं, मेरे भाई ने लिखा।

Uma : No, I *didn't,* my brother did. नो आइ डिडन्ट, माइ ब्रदर डिड.

अध्यापिका : क्या तुमने स्कूल आने से पहले अपना बिस्तर ठीक किया?

Teacher : *Did* you make your bed before coming to school?
डिड यू मेक योर बेड बिफ़ोर कामग टु स्कूल?

उमा : जी मैडम मैंने किया?

Uma : Yes madam, I *did.* येस मैडम, आइ डिड.

अध्यापिका : क्या तुमने कल अपना पाठ याद किया?

Teacher : *Did* you learn your lesson yesterday?
डिड यू लर्न योर लेसन यस्टर्डे?

उमा : नहीं, मैंने नहीं किया।

Uma : No, I *didn't.* नो आइ डिडन्ट.

F

— Was/Were —

अध्यापक : क्या कल तुम बाज़ार गए थे?

Teacher : *Were* you out shopping yesterday?
वर यू आउट शॉपिंग येस्टरडे?

रमेश : जी सर! मैं मार्केट गया था।

Ramesh : Yes sir, I *was.* येस सर, आइ वॉज़.

अध्यापक : क्या तुम चलते-चलते पुस्तक नहीं पढ़ रहे थे?

Teacher : *Were* you not reading a book while walking?
वर यू नॉट रीडिंग ए बुक वाइल वॉकिंग?

रमेश : जी, पढ़ रहा था।

Ramesh : Yes Sir, I *was.* येस सर, आइ वॉज़.

अध्यापक : क्या रमा भी चलते-चलते पढ़ रही थी?

Teacher : *Was* Rama also reading while walking?
वॉज़ रमा ऑल्सो रीडिंग वाइल वॉकिंग?

रमेश : नहीं, वह केवल सुन रही थी।

Ramesh : No, she *was* just listening. नो, शी वॉज़ जस्ट लिसनिंग.

अध्यापक : क्या तुम्हारे घर में तुम्हारी बुआ गा रही थी?

Teacher : *Was* your aunt singing at your house?
वॉज़ योर आन्ट सिंगिंग ऐट योर हाउस?

रमेश : नहीं, मेरी बहिन गा रही थी।

Ramesh : No, it *was* my sister. नो इट वॉज़ माइ सिस्टर.

राधा : क्या तुम अखबार पढ़ रही थीं?

Radha : *Were* you reading the newspaper? वर यू रीडिंग द न्यूज़ पेपर?

सुधा : हां, पढ़ रही थी।

Sudha : Yes, I *was.* येस आइ वॉज़.

G

— Had —

कमल : क्या तुम सिनेमा नहीं गए थे?	**Kamal :** *Had* you not gone to the Cinema? हैड यू नॉट गॉन टु द सिनेमा?
विमल : नहीं।	**Vimal :** No I *had* not. नो, आइ हैड नॉट.
रमा : क्या वह दुकान बंद कर चुका था?	**Rama :** *Had* he closed the shop? हैड ही क्लोज़्ड द शॉप?
राधा : हां, कर चुका था।	**Radha :** Yes, he *had*. येस, ही हैड.
राम : क्या वह आपको कल तक नहीं मिला था?	**Ram :** *Had* he not met you till yesterday? हैड ही नॉट मेट यू टिल येस्टरडे?
श्याम : नहीं, वह कल तक मुझे नहीं मिला था।	**Shyam :** No, he *hadn't*. नो, ही हैडन्ट.
रमन : क्या तुम कल खेलने नहीं गए थे?	**Raman :** *Had* you not gone to play yesterday? हैड यू नॉट गॉन टु प्ले येस्टरडे?
सुधीर : नहीं, मैं नहीं गया था।	**Sudhir :** No, I *had* not. नो, आइ हैड नॉट.
सचिन : क्या तुम रोहित से पहले कहीं मिल चुके थे?	**Sachin :** *Had* you met Rohit anywhere before. हैड यू मेट रोहित एनीवेअर बिफ़ोर?
अनुज़ : हां मैं उसे दो साल पहले शिमला में मिला था।	**Anuj :** Yes, I *had* met him in Shimla two years ago. येस आइ हैड मेट हिम इन शिमला टू ईयर्ज़ अगो.
नीरज : क्या तुम्हारे स्टेशन पहुंचने से पहले गाड़ी जा चुकी थी?	**Neeraj :** *Had* the train left before you reached the station? हैड द ट्रेन लेफ़्ट बिफ़ोर यू रीच्ड द स्टेशन?
सौरभ : हां जा चुकी थी।	**Saurabh :** Yes, it *had*. येस इट हैड.
सीमा : क्या तुम्हारी मां तुम्हारे घर पहुंचने से पहले बाज़ार जा चुकी थीं?	**Seema :** *Had* your mother gone to market before you reached home? हैड योर मदर गॉन टु मार्किट बिफ़ोर यू रीच्ड होम?
मीरा : नहीं, वे नहीं जा चुकी थीं।	**Meera :** No, she *hadn't*. नो शी हैडन्ट.

H

— Had been —

नरेश : क्या तुम कल पिछले दो घंटे से पढ़ रहे थे ?

Naresh : *Had* you been studying for the last two hours yesterday? हैड यू बीन स्टडींग फ़ॉर द लास्ट टू आवर्ज़ येस्टरडे ?

रमेश : हां, क्योंकि मैं अपना काम खत्म करके पिक्चर देखने की योजना बना रहा था।

Ramesh : Yes, because I *had been* planning to see a film after finishing my work. येस, बिकॉज़ आइ हैड बीन प्लैनिंग टु सी अ फ़िल्म आफ़्टर फ़िनिशिंग माइ वर्क.

नरेश : पर तुम्हारे साथ राम भी क्यों पढ़ रहा था ?

Naresh : But, Why *had* Ram also been studying with you? बट, वाइ हैड राम ऑल्सो बीन स्टडींग विद यू ?

रमेश : क्योंकि वह भी मेरे साथ पिक्चर के लिए जाने की जिद कर रहा था।

Ramesh : Because, he *had* also *been* insisting on going with me for the film. बिकॉज़, ही हैड ऑल्सो बीन इंसिस्टिंग ऑन गोइंग विद मी फ़ॉर द फ़िल्म.

नरेश : पर तुम्हारी माताजी तो कह रहीं थीं कि तुम कुछ दोस्तों के साथ घूमने का प्रोग्राम बना रहे थे।

Naresh : But, your mother was saying that you *had been* planning to go out with some friends. बट, योर मदर वॉज सेइंग दैट यू हैड बीन प्लैनिंग टु गो आउट विद सम फ्रेंड्ज.

रमेश : हां, पहले हम ऐसा ही कुछ सोच रहे थे, पर बाद में प्रोग्राम बदल गया।

Ramesh : Yes, previously we *had been* planning something of the sort, but later we changed our programme. येस, प्रीवियसली वी हैड बीन प्लैनिंग समथिंग ऑफ़ द सोर्ट, बट लेटर वी चेंज्ड आवर प्रोग्राम.

याद रखें (Remember)

अब हम Past Tense के सकारात्मक (Affirmative) वाक्यों से नकारात्मक (Negative) तथा प्रश्नात्मक (Interrogative) वाक्य बनाते हैं। नियम वही है कि Past Indefinite Tense में did सहायक क्रिया बढ़ाई जाती है। Past Continuous Tense में was, were तथा Past Perfect Tense में had के बाद निषेधात्मक वाक्यों में not बढ़ जाता है। इसी प्रकार प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों में यही सहायक क्रियाएं did, was, were तथा had वाक्यों में सबसे पहले प्रयोग में आती हैं।

Affir: I ate bread and butter. (आइ एट ब्रेड ऐंड बटर). मैंने डबलरोटी और मक्खन खाया।
Neg: I did not eat bread and butter. **Int:** Did I eat bread and butter?
Affir: You were reading a book.(यू वर रीडिंग अ बुक). तुम पुस्तक पढ़ रहे थे।
Neg: You were not reading a book. **Int:** Were you reading a book?
Affir: You had read a book. (यू हैड रेड अ बुक). तुमने पुस्तक पढ़ ली थी।
Neg: You had not read a book. **Int:** Had you read a book?

7सातवां दिन
th Day

भविष्यत् काल (Future Tense)

भविष्यत् काल की क्रिया को भी, अंग्रेज़ी में मुख्य चार भेदों में बांटा गया है: 1. Ram will study. (राम विल स्टडी) 2. Ram will be studying. (राम विल बी स्टडींग) 3. Ram will have studied. (राम विल हैव स्टडीड) 4. Ram will have been studying since morning. (राम विल हैव बीन स्टडींग सिंस मॉर्निंग) वर्तमान काल, भूतकाल और भविष्यत्काल की तरह इन्हें क्रमश: Future Indefinite, Future Continuous, Future Perfect और Future Perfect Continuous कहा जाता है।

I

— Will/Shall —

गोविन्द : क्या तुम खेलोगे?	**Govind :** *Will* you play? विल यू प्ले?
राम : नहीं, खेलूंगा।	**Ram :** No, I *Won't.* नो, आइ वोन्ट.
गोविन्द : क्या तुम कल आओगे?	**Govind :** *Will* you come tomorrow? विल यू कम टुमॉरो?
राम : हां, आऊंगा।	**Ram :** Yes, *I will.* येस, आइ विल.
गोविन्द : क्या तुम रात को यहां ठहरोगे?	**Govind :** *Will* you stay here tonight? विल यू स्टे हिअर टुनाइट?
राम : नहीं, मैं लौट जाऊंगा।	**Ram :** No, *I'll* go back. नो, आइल गो बैक.
गोविन्द : क्या तुम शुक्रवार को राजा से मिलोगे।	**Govind :** *Will* you see Raja on Friday? विल यू सी राजा ऑन फ्राइडे?
राम : नहीं, मैं घर पर तुम्हारी प्रतीक्षा करूंगा।	**Ram :** No, *I'll* Wait for you at home. नो, आइल वेट फ़ॉर यू ऐट होम.

J

— Will be/Shall be —

अमिताभ : क्या कल तुम इस समय गाड़ी में यात्रा कर रहे होगे?

Amitabh : *Will you be* in the train at this time tomorrow? विल यू बी इन द ट्रेन ऐट दिस टाइम टुमॉरो?

राकेश : हां, मैं कल इस समय कानपुर पहुंच रहा होऊंगा।

Rakesh : Yes, *I'll be* about to reach Kanpur at this time tomorrow. येस, आइल बी अबाउट टु रीच कानपुर ऐट दिस टाइम टुमॉरो.

अमिताभ : क्या हम कल इस समय मैच नहीं खेल रहे होंगे?

Amitabh : *Shall* we not be playing a match at this time tomorrow? शैल वी नॉट बी प्लेइंग अ मैच ऐट दिस टाइम टुमॉरो?

राकेश : हां।

Rakesh : Yes, *we will be.* येस, वी विल बी.

अमिताभ : क्या हम शिमला बार-बार आते रहेंगे?

Amitabh : *Shall* we *be* coming to Simla again and again? शैल वी बी कमिंग टु शिमला अगेन ऐंड अगेन?

राकेश : नहीं।

Rakesh : No, we *Won't be.* नो, वी वोन्ट बी.

K

— Will have/Shall have —

मीनाक्षी : क्या वह जा चुकी होगी?

Meenakshi : *Will* she *have* gone? विल शी हैव गॉन?

रजनी : नहीं।

Rajni : No, she *won't* have. नो, शी वोन्ट हैव.

मीनाक्षी : क्या तुम अगले मास तक कालका से आ चुकी होओगी।

Meenakshi : *Will* you have come back from Kalka by next month? विल यू हैव कम बैक फ्रॉम कालका बाइ नेक्स्ट मन्थ?

रजनी : हां, मैं तब तक वहां से आ चुकी होऊंगी।

Rajni : Yes, *I'll have* come back by then. येस, आइल हैव कम बैक बाइ देन.

मीनाक्षी : क्या कल इस समय तक तुम परीक्षा दे चुकी होगी?

Meenakshi : *Will* you *have* taken your test by this time tomorrow? विल यू हैव टेकन योर टेस्ट बाइ दिस टाइम टुमॉरो.

रजनी : हां, मैं अपने जीवन का एक महत्त्वपूर्ण अध्याय समाप्त कर चुकी होऊंगी।

Rajni : Yes, I *will have* finished an important chapter of my life. येस, आइ विल हैव फ़िनिश्ड एन इम्पॉर्टेन्ट चैप्टर ऑफ़ माइ लाइफ़.

मीनाक्षी : क्या तेरा भाई कनाडा से आ चुका होगा?

Meenakshi : *Will* your brother *have* returned from Canada? विल योर ब्रदर हैव रिटर्न्ड फ्रॉम कैनेडा?

रजनी : नहीं, वे कनाडा से नहीं आ चुके होंगे।

Rajni : No, he *won't have.* नो, ही वोन्ट हैव.

L

— Will have been/Shall have been —

प्रभात : क्या कल तुम इस समय सो रहे होगे?

Prabhat : *Will* you *have been* sleeping at this time tomorrow? विल यू हैव बीन स्लीपिंग ऐट दिस टाइम टुमॉरो?

सुधीर : नहीं, शायद मैं इस समय पढ़ रहा होऊंगा।

Sudhir : No, probably I *shall have been* studying at this time. नो, प्रोबैब्ली आइ शैल हैव बीन स्टडींग ऐट दिस टाइम.

प्रभात : और, तुम्हारा भाई राजीव क्या कर रहा होगा?

Prabhat : And, What *will* your brother, Rajiv *have been* doing? ऐंड, वॉट विल योर ब्रदर, राजीव हैव बीन डूइंग?

सुधीर : वह शिमला जाने की तैयारी कर रहा होगा।

Sudhir : He *will have been* preparing to leave for Simla. ही विल हैव बीन प्रिपेरिंग टु लीव फ़ॉर शिमला.

याद रखें (Remember) इन वाक्यों पर ध्यान दीजिए (A) I shall not play. आइ शैल नॉट प्ले. (B) He will not play. ही विल नॉट प्ले. पहले वाक्य में 'I' के साथ shall आया है और दूसरे वाक्य में 'He' के साथ will आया है। ये साधारण भविष्यत् काल की क्रिया को सूचित करते हैं। नियम यह है कि साधारणतया अन्य पुरुष He, She, They, It, Ram आदि और मध्यम पुरुष you के साथ will का प्रयोग किया जाता है, और उत्तम पुरुष I, We के साथ Shall का, लेकिन यदि I, We के साथ will का तथा He, She, It, They, You आदि के साथ shall का प्रयोग होता है, तो वहां उसका अर्थ निकलता है कि बात को अधिक ज़ोर देकर कहा जा रहा है, जैसे: (1) I will not play tomorrow. (2) You shall not return. इन वाक्यों का अर्थ इस प्रकार है: 1. मैंने कल न खेलने का निश्चय किया है अथवा में कल बिलकुल नहीं खेलूंगा। 2. तुम लौटोगे कतई नहीं।

8 आठवां दिन

th Day

कुछ महत्वपूर्ण सहायक क्रियाएं (Some Important Helping Verbs) Can, Could, May, Might, Must/Ought (to), Should/Would **अब तक आपने तीनों कालों (Tenses) की क्रियाओं का अभ्यास किया है। वहां भी आपने सहायक क्रियाओं (Special Verbs अर्थात् helping Verbs) का सहारा लिया था। चलिए, अब कुछ और सहायक क्रियाओं का अभ्यास करें। Can (कैन) और May (में) ये सहायक क्रियाएं हैं, दोनों का अर्थ है — 'सकना'। पर इस 'सकना' के अर्थों में भेद है, जिसे आप नीचे दिये गये वाक्यों में स्वयं समझ सकेंगे। ' Could ' Can का भूतकाल है। ' Might have ' may का भूतकाल है। Could और would से वाक्य शुरू करने पर request या आग्रह का भाव आता है।**

— Can —

रजनी : क्या तुम सितार बजा सकती हो?

Rajni : *Can* you play sitar? कैन यू प्ले सितार?

शशि : हां, मैं बांसुरी भी बजा सकती हूं।

Shashi : yes, I *can* play the flute as well.
येस आइ कैन प्ले द फ़्लूट ऐज़ वैल.

रजनी : क्या तुम मेरी पुस्तकें लौटा सकती हो?

Rajni : *Can* you return my books? कैन यू रिटर्न माइ बुक्स?

शशि : नहीं, मैं वे अभी नहीं लौटा सकती।

Shashi : No, I *can't* return them yet. नो आइ कान्ट रिटर्न देम येट.

रजनी : क्या तुम संस्कृत पढ़ सकती हो?

Rajni : Can you read Sanskrit? कैन यू रीड संस्कृत?

शशि : हां।

Shashi : yes, I *can.* येस, आइ कैन.

— May —

छात्र : क्या मैं अन्दर आ सकता हूं।

Student : *May* I come in Sir? मे आइ कम इन सर?

अध्यापक : हां, आओ।

Teacher : Yes, you *may.* येस, यू मे.

छात्र : क्या मैं बाल सभा में सम्मिलित हो सकता हूं?

Student : *May* I attend Bal Sabha, Sir?
मे आइ अटेण्ड बाल सभा, सर?

अध्यापक : हां, बड़ी खुशी से।

Teacher : Yes, with great pleasure/of course.
येस, विद ग्रेट प्लेज़र/ऑफ़ कोर्स.

छात्र : क्या मैं सुरेश के साथ जा सकता हूं, सर?

Student : Sir, *may* I accompany Suresh? सर, मे आइ अकम्पनी सुरेश?

अध्यापक : नहीं। तुम पहले अपना काम पूरा करो।

Teacher : No. You better finish your work first.
नो. यू बेटर फ़िनिश योर वर्क फ़र्स्ट.

— Could —

राजू : क्या तुम यह काम अकेले कर सके?	**Raju :** *Could* you do this work alone? कुड यू डू दिस वर्क अलोन?
सुरेश : नहीं, मैं इसे अकेला नहीं कर सका।	**Suresh :** No, I *couldn't.* नो, आइ कुडन्ट.
राजू : क्या वह समय पर तुम्हारी मदद कर सकी?	**Raju :** *Could* she help you in time? कुड शी हेल्प यू इन टाइम?
सुरेश : हां, कर सकी।	**Suresh :** Yes, she *could.* येस, शी कुड.
राजू : क्या तुम मेरे लिए पानी ला सकते हो?	**Raju :** *Could* you bring me a glass of water? कुड यू ब्रिंग मी अ ग्लास ऑफ़ वॉटर?
सुरेश : खुशी से।	**Suresh :** With *pleasure.* विद प्लेज़र.

— Might/Must/Ought (to)/Would/should —

शायद सोहन ने उसकी मदद की।	Sohan *might* have helped him. सोहन माइट हैव हेल्प्ड हिम.
शायद वह यहां आया होगा।	He *might* have come here. ही माइट हैव कम हिअर.
मुझे उसके विवाह पर अवश्य जाना चाहिए।	I *must* attend his marriage. आइ मस्ट अटेण्ड हिज़ मैरिज.
मुझे दस बजे तक घर अवश्य पहुंच जाना चाहिए।	I *must* reach home by 10 O'clock. आइ मस्ट रीच होम बाइ टेन ओ' क्लॉक.
हमें अपने से छोटों से प्यार करना चाहिए।	We *ought* to love our youngers. वी ऑट टू लव आवर यंगर्ज़.
ज़रा यह चिट्ठी पोस्ट कर देंगे?	*Would* you post this letter please? वुड यू पोस्ट दिस लेटर प्लीज़?
तुम्हें कक्षा में अधिक नियमित रूप से जाना चाहिए।	You *should* attend the class more regularly. यू शुड अटेण्ड द क्लास मोर रेगुलरली.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. (a) Can I walk? (a) May I walk?
   (b) Can you do this job? (b) May I do this job?
   (c) Can you sing a song? (c) May I sing a song?

   ऊपर दिये गये Can वाले वाक्यों में शक्ति, समर्थता आदि भावों का बोध होता है, और May वाले वाक्यों से अनुमति, आज्ञा मांगने अथवा इच्छा आदि भाव प्रकट होते हैं। Can I walk? का अर्थ है कि क्या मुझमें चलने-फिरने की शक्ति है? इसी तरह May I walk? का मतलब इजाज़त मांगने से है — क्या मैं सैर कर लूं?

   वैसे तो लोग कहीं-कहीं May के अर्थ में Can का प्रयोग करते हैं। यह बोलचाल में तो चलता है, पर उचित नहीं है।

   2. जैसा कि पहले भी बताया गया है, could और might शब्द can और may के भूतकाल के रूप हैं, इसी तरह ought और should का प्रयोग कर्तव्य भाव (करना चाहिए) को प्रकट करने के लिए किया जाता है। इन शब्दों के अर्थ को, वाक्यों में इनका प्रयोग करके अच्छी तरह समझ लेना चाहिए।

9नवां दिन
th Day

आज्ञा और प्रार्थना के वाक्य (Sentences of Order and Request)

नीचे आज्ञा तथा प्रार्थना के कुछ वाक्य दिये गये हैं। ये विध्यर्थक वाक्य अर्थात् imperative mood के वाक्य कहलाते हैं। उक्त 'मूड' (Mood) में कोई 'टेन्स' (Tense) नहीं लगाना पड़ता। प्राय: क्रिया (Verb) के मूल रूप के साथ ही वाक्य रचना हो जाती है। इनका अभ्यास सरलता से किया जा सकता है।

विध्यर्थक क्रियाएं (Imperative Mood)

A

1. सामने देखो।	Look ahead. लुक अहेड.
2. आगे बढ़ो।	Go ahead. गो अहेड.
3. गाड़ी धीरे चलाओ।	Drive slowly. ड्राइव स्लोली.
4. अपना काम करो।	Mind your own business. माइंड योर ओन बिजनेस.
5. वापस जाओ।	Go back. गो बैक.
6. उसका ख़याल रखना।	Take care of him/her. टेक केअर ऑफ़ हिम/हर.
7. सुनिए तो।	Just listen. जस्ट लिसन.
8. जल्दी आना।	Come soon. कम सून.
9. मुझे देखने दो।	Let me see. लेट मी सी.
10. तैयार रहना	Be ready. बी रेडी.
11. एक तरफ़ हो जाओ।	Move aside. मूव असाइड.
12. सोच-समझ कर बोलो।	Think before you speak. थिंक बिफ़ोर यू स्पीक.
13. अवश्य आना।	Do come. डू कम.

B

14. उसकी खबर देना।	Inform me about her/him. इन्फ़ार्म मी अबाउट हर/हिम.
15. मज़ाक मत करो।	Don't cut jokes. डोन्ट कट जोक्स.
16. बकवास मत करो।	Don't talk nonsense. डोन्ट टॉक नॉन्सेन्स.
17. **कुछ परवाह न करो।**	**Never mind.** नेवर माइण्ड.
18. **मुझे अकेला छोड़ दो।**	**Leave me alone.** लीव मी अलोन.
19. **जाने दो।**	**Let it be.** लेट इट बी.
20. कुछ तो ख़याल करो।	Have a heart हेव अ हार्ट.
21. **ज़रा रुको/रुकिए।**	**Hold on.** होल्ड ऑन.
22. कभी मत भूलो।	Never forget. नेवर फ़ोरगेट.
23. **फिक्र मत करो।**	**Don't worry.** डोन्ट वरी.

C

25. ज़रा फिर कोशिश करो।	Please try again. प्लीज़ ट्राइ अगेन.
26. ज़रा ठहरिए।	Please wait a bit. प्लीज़ वेट अ बिट.
27. **आइए।**	**Please come in.** प्लीज कम इन.
28. **बैठिए।**	**Please be seated.** प्लीज़ बी सीटिड.
29. उत्तर दीजिए।	Please reply. प्लीज़ रिप्लाइ.
30. ज़रा और ठहरिए।	Please stay a little longer. प्लीज़ स्टे ए लिटिल लौंगर.
31. **मुझे शर्मिंदा मत कीजिए।**	**Please don't embarrass me.** प्लीज़ डोन्ट इमबैरस मी.
32. जैसी आपकी मर्जी।	As you like/As you please. ऐज़ यू लाइक / ऐज़ यू प्लीज़.
33. **फिर ज़रूर आइएगा।**	**Do come again.** डू कम अगेन.

D

34. असली बात पर आओ, इधर-उधर की बातें छोड़ो।	Come to the point, don't beat about the bush./Stop rambling and come to the point. कम टु द पॉइंट, डोन्ट बीट अबाउट द बुश./स्टॉप रैम्बलिंग एंड कम टु द पॉइंट.
35. **पागल मत बनो।**	**Don't be silly.** डोन्ट बी सिली.
36. यह खुराक लो।	Take this dose. टेक दिस डोस.
37. मेरे पीछे आओ।	Follow me/Come with me. फ़ॉलो मी./कम विद मी.
38. काम के समय काम करो, खेल के समय खेलो।	Work while you work, and play while you play. वर्क वाइल यू वर्क, ऐंड प्ले वाइल यू प्ले.
39. उचित समय पर प्रयास करो।	Strike the iron when it is hot. स्ट्राइक द आयरन वेन इट इज़ हॉट
40. जगह खाली करो।	Vacate the place. वैकेट द प्लेस.
41. ख़याल मत करो।	Never Mind. नेवर माइंड.
42. ज़ुबान पर काबू रखो।	Hold your tongue/Mind your words. होल्ड योर टंग/माइंड योर वर्ड्स.
43. **इसे फ़ैक्स कर दो।**	**Fax it.** फ़ैक्स इट.

E

44. सम्पर्क बनाये रखियेगा।	Please keep in touch. प्लीज़ कीप इन टच.
45. अपने आप पर भरोसा रखो।	Have faith in yourself. हैव फ़ेथ इन योरसेल्फ़.
46. अपने काम से काम रखो।	Mind your own business. माइंड योर ओन बिज़नेस.
47. अपने मन की बात कहो।	Speak your mind. स्पीक योर माइंड.
48. तकल्लुफ़ की ज़रूरत नहीं है।	Please don't be formal. प्लीज़ डोन्ट बी फॉर्मल.
49. यह पैकिट कूरिअर से भेज दो।	Send this packet by courier. सेंड दिस पैकिट बाइ कूरिअर.
50. दिल खोल कर दान दें।	Donate generously. डोनेट जेनरसली.
51. कृपया मेरी सहायता करें।	Please help me. प्लीज़ हेल्प मी.
52. सावधानी से काम लो।	Be careful. बी केअरफ़ुल.
53. ज़रा हाथ लगाना।	Lend me a hand please. लेंड मी अ हेंड प्लीज़.
54. समझने की कोशिश करो।	Try to understand. ट्राइ टु अंडरस्टैंड.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. आपने देखा कि is, are, am, was, were, has, had, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, do, did, might आदि यदि वाक्य के आरम्भ में आएं, तो प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनते हैं और बीच में (Subject के बाद) आएं, तो साधारण वाक्य, जैसे कि:

A	B
(1) Am I a fool?	I am not a fool.
(2) Were those your books?	Those were your books.
(3) Can I walk for a while?	You can walk for a while.
(4) May I come in?	You may come in.

2. Do और Did का प्रयोग नकारात्मक और प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य बनाने के लिए आवश्यक है। नीचे दिये वाक्यों को ध्यान से पढ़ें:

(1) मैं प्रात: जल्दी उठता हूं।	I get up early in the morning.
(2) मैं प्रात: जल्दी उठा।	I got up early in the morning.

अब इनके नकारात्मक वाक्य बनाइए:

(3) मैं प्रात: जल्दी नहीं उठता हूं।	I do not get up early in the morning.
(4) मैं प्रात: जल्दी नहीं उठा।	I did not get up early in the morning.

आपने देखा कि नकारात्मक वाक्य बनाने के लिए क्रमश: do not और did not जोड़ना पड़ा। प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाने के लिए यही do और did सबसे पहले लगता है। जैसे:

(5) क्या मैं जल्दी उठता हूं ?	Do I get up early in the morning?
(6) क्या मैं जल्दी उठा ?	Did I get up early in the morning?

10 दसवां दिन

th Day

आप बिना रुके, बिना झिझके, साफ और सही अंग्रेज़ी बोलना चाहते हैं। रैपिडैक्स कोर्स का भी यही लक्ष्य है। इसके लिए हम कुछ सुझाव नीचे दे रहे हैं। उन्हें मान कर आप ज़ल्दी और अधिक आसानी से अंग्रेज़ी भाषा सीख सकते हैं तथा बातचीत में कुशलता और आत्मविश्वास पा सकते हैं।

1. बातचीत के लिए एक साथी बनाइये। ध्यान से रैपिडैक्स में दिये वाक्यों को पढ़िए। इस्तेमाल करने के निर्देशों का भी ध्यान रखिए। अब साथी के साथ इन वाक्यों को बोलने का अभ्यास कीजिए। बातचीत प्रश्न-उतर के रूप में की जा सकती है। ग़लतियां होंगी, पर निराश न हों। एक-दूसरे की ग़लती बता कर उसे सुधारने की कोशिश करें। धीरे-धीरे ग़लतियां कम होती जायेंगी और बातचीत की भाषा सुधरती जायेगी।
2. शीशे के सामने बैठ कर वाक्यों को बोलिए-सही भाव तथा उच्चारण के साथ बार-बार बोलिए। अभ्यास के साथ आपकी भाषा, आपका उच्चारण सुधरेगा और आपका विश्वास बढ़ेगा।

दसवें दिन के इस भाग में कुछ टेस्ट व कुछ Exercises दी गई हैं। उन्हें करने से आपका भाषा का ज्ञान बढ़ेगा और आप खुद ही जांच व परख सकेंगे कि आपने कितना सीखा है और कहां सुधार की ज़रूरत है।

अभ्यास तालिकाएं (Drill Tables)

तालिका [Table]—1

1	2	3
He She	is	ready.
I	am	hungry. thirsty.
They You We	are	tired.

तालिका [Table]—2

1	2	3
He She I	was	rich. poor.
They you We	were	pleased. sorry.

(i) तालिका 1 और 2 से 24-24 वाक्य बोलिए। फिर बोलकर किसी दूसरे को उनके अर्थ बताइए।

(ii) ऊपर की दोनों तालिकाओं के अड़तालीस वाक्य सकारात्मक (Affirmative) हैं। इनके नकारात्मक (Negative) वाक्य बनाने के लिए आप क्या करेंगे? ठीक है, is, am, are,

was, were क्रियाओं के बाद not जोड़ेंगे। उदाहरण के रूप में — She is not ready. इसी प्रकार आप दोनों तालिकाओं से नकारात्मक वाक्य बनाएं।
(iii) तालिका-2 के सकारात्मक (Affirmative) वाक्यों के प्रश्नात्मक (interrogative) वाक्य बनाइए।

तालिका [Table]— 3

1	2	3
	did not	
	can	
	may	use this train.
The boy	must not	do as I say.
His friends	ought to	go for hunting.
	should	enter the cave.
	will	
	can not	

ऊपर दी हुई तालिका-3 में 64 वाक्य दिये गये हैं। अपने मित्र को तालिका में से पढ़कर सुनाइए।

तालिका [Table]— 4

	1	2
(i)	Be	day after tomorrow?
(ii)	Go	Sanskrit?
(iii)	Have you written	Ramesh, sir?
(iv)	Did you wake up	this problem?
(v)	Will you come	at once.
(vi)	Can you read	to Radha?
(vii)	May I accompany	early yesterday?
(viii)	Could Rama solve	your own business.
(ix)	Mind	ready.
(x)	Don't	befool me.

तालिका-4 में 1 और 2 कॉलमों में तोड़कर दस वाक्य दिये गये हैं। ये वाक्य आपके पिछले पाठों में से लिये गये हैं। इन्हें इस प्रकार जोड़ें कि ये सभी सार्थक वाक्य बन जाएं। फिर उनका अनुवाद कीजिए।

अभ्यास (Practice)

पहला दिन

1. इन वाक्यों में कुछ गलतियां हैं। गलतियां सुधारिए और वाक्यों का अभ्यास कीजिए: 1. Good night uncle, how are you ? (शाम छ: बजे)
   2. Is he your cousin brother ?

3. She is not my cousin sister .

4. Good afternoon, my son . (प्रात: नौ बजे) 5. Good morning, mother . (दो बजे दोपहर) 2 . इन वाक्यों के अंग्रेज़ी और हिन्दी के रूपों पर ध्यान दीजिए और समझिए कि दोनों भाषाओं के वाक्यों के वचन (Number) में क्या अन्तर है?

1 . पिता **जी आए हैं।** Father **has** come .

2 . शर्मा **जी** अभी-अभी **गए हैं।** Mr. Sharma **has** just left .

3 . **उन्होंने आपको** फिर बुलाया है। **He** has called **you** again .

देखा अंतर? हिन्दी वाक्य 'पिताजी आए हैं' का अंग्रेज़ी में Father has come (पिता आया है) अनुवाद हुआ है। इसी प्रकार दूसरे और तीसरे वाक्य में 'जी', 'गए हैं', 'उन्होंने आपको' — ये सभी शब्द एक व्यक्ति (एकवचन) 'पिता' और 'तुम' से सम्बोधित हैं, 'बहुवचन' से नहीं, इसलिए जब भी आप हिन्दी से अंग्रेज़ी में वाक्य बनाने लगें, सबसे पहले मन में आदरसूचक वाक्य को सीधा कर लें — '(श्री) शर्मा अभी-अभी **गया है। उसने तुम्हें** बुलाया है।' फिर ऊपर लिखे वाक्य का अंग्रेज़ी में अनुवाद करने में कठिनाई नहीं होगी। (देखिए, पहला दिन, Tail Box).

दूसरा दिन

3 . शिष्टाचार की कुछ बातों को दोहरा लीजिए।

(a) आप किसी के यहां जाएं और वह आपकी बड़ी खातिर करे, तो आप कहेंगे — Thanks for your hospitality. (आपकी मेहमानवाज़ी का शुक्रिया)।

(b) I **am** very grateful to you. I **shall be** very grateful to you. You have been a great help. इन तीनों वाक्यों को पढ़कर देखिए कि इनमें क्या अन्तर है? कहां किस वाक्य का प्रयोग करना चाहिए?

कोई व्यक्ति आपके लिए आपके कहने पर, आपका कोई काम कर दे, तो आप कहेंगे — I am very grateful to you. (मैं आपकी/आपका बहुत अहसानमंद हूं)। You have been a great help. (आपने मेरी बहुत मदद की)।

इसी प्रकार जब आप किसी से अपना कोई काम करने के लिए कहें तो 'आप पहले से ही' में धन्यवाद देने के लिए कहेंगे — I shall be very grateful to you. (मैं आपका बड़ा शुक्रगुज़ार होऊंगा)।

(c) कोई आपके ही मुंह पर आपकी प्रशंसा करने लगे तो आप उसके उत्तर में कह सकते हैं — Oh, I don't deserve this praise. (मैं इस प्रशंसा के योग्य नहीं हूं)।

तीसरा दिन

4 . इन शब्दों पर ध्यान दीजिए — (a) God, gods; (b) good, goods . ये दो जोड़े हैं। God अर्थात् परमात्मा, खुदा या ईश्वर gods अर्थात् उनके देवता। ईश्वर यानी खुदा या परमात्मा एक ही है, जबकि देवता या देवदूत अनेक हैं, हर धर्म के। Good (विशेषण है) अर्थात् अच्छा, goods (संज्ञा है) अर्थात् सामान।

5 . इन शब्दों को शब्दकोश में देखिए और इनके अर्थ दोहराइए — Marvellous, Splendid, Disgraceful, Absurd, Excellent, Nonsense .

6 . इन शब्दों का आशय समझिए कि ये किस-किस भाव को प्रकट करते हैं — Nasty, Woe, Hello, Hurrah .

चौथा दिन

7 . इन वाक्यों पर ध्यान दीजिए — (a) Well begun, half done. (b) To err is human, to forgive divine. (c) Thank you. (d) Just coming . ये वाक्य देखने में अधूरे लगते हैं। a और b , वाक्यों में क्रिया गायब है। c व d वाक्यों में कर्ता गायब है। बोलचाल में ये वाक्य ऐसे ही बोले जाते हैं, परन्तु ये संक्षिप्त या अधूरे वाक्य हैं, जो पूर्ण वाक्य का काम देते हैं। अंग्रेज़ी में ऐसे वाक्यों को eliptical sentences कहा जाता है। ऐसे वाक्यों का अंग्रेज़ी में बड़ा प्रचलन है।

8. Just coming . का चौथे दिन के पहले वाक्य में अर्थ दिया है — 'मैं अभी आ रहा हूं, यहां आप पूछ सकते हैं कि क्या इसका अर्थ 'वह अभी आ रहा है' नहीं हो सकता? उत्तर होगा 'हो सकता है'। ठीक है। मान लीजिए कोई आपके घर आए और आपसे आपके भाई के बारे में पूछे। आप अंदर जाएंगे और उसे उसके मित्र के आने की सूचना देकर जल्दी से वहां लौटेंगे और कहेंगे — Just coming . यहां पूर्ण वाक्य होगा — He is just coming .

पांचवां दिन

9 . इन वाक्यों को ध्यान से देखिए — (i) You speak English. (ii) do you speak English ? पहला सकारात्मक (Positive) वाक्य है, दूसरा प्रश्नात्मक (Interrogative)।

पहले वाक्य में 'do' special (सहायक) क्रिया आरंभ में जोड़ने से प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य बन गया है। ऐसे ही do और does सहायक क्रियाएं जोड़ कर नीचे लिखे वाक्यों से प्रश्नात्मक वाक्य बनाइये और उन प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों का अर्थ हिन्दी में भी लिखीए — (1) You go to school. (2) You play hockey. (3) She is back from office at 6 p. m. (4) Mother takes care of her children. (5) They go for a morning walk. (6) I always work hard.

10 . प्रश्न 11 में छपे सकारात्मक वाक्यों का हिन्दी में अनुवाद कीजिए।

11 . वर्तमान काल की अन्य Special (सहायक) Verbs में से कुछ विशेष हैं — is, am, are, has, have . नीचे दिये वाक्यों में इन्हीं का प्रयोग हुआ है।

(i)	The moon *is* shining.	*Is* the moon shining?
(ii)	We *are* listening to you.	*Are* we listening to you?
(iii)	*My father* has gone out.	*Has* my father gone out?
(iv)	I *have* seen it.	*Have* I seen it?

आमने-सामने के दोनों वाक्यों को देखिए और ध्यान दीजिए कि ये Positive से Interrogative कैसे बने हैं, क्योंकि is, are, am, has, have ये सभी special verbs वाक्यों में सबसे पहले निकालकर रखे जाते हैं और लिखने के अन्त में प्रश्नवाचक चिह्न लगाते हैं। इन्हें बोलते समय tone या लहज़ा प्रश्नवाचक रखा जाता है।

अब ऊपर के आठों वाक्यों को हिन्दी में अनुवाद करके पढ़िए।

12. नीचे दिये वाक्यों को प्रश्नवाचक बनाइए और साथ ही उनका हिन्दी में रूपान्तर कीजिए: (1) Someone is knocking at the door. (2) Your friends are enjoying themselves. (3) I am reading a comic. (4) It is Friday today. (5) Your hands are clean. (6) The train has just arrived. (7) We have studied English. (8) It has rained for two hours. (9) They have gone to bed. (10) You have already finished your dinner.

छठे से नवां दिन

13. अंग्रेज़ी में 24 सहायक क्रियाएं हैं: (i) do, does, did, is, are, am, was, were, has, have, had, will shall, (ii) would, should, can, could may, might, must, ought (to) (iii) need, dare, used (to) (i) पहली 13 क्रियाएं प्राय: Tenses में काम आती हैं। इनका प्रयोग आप पांचवें, छठे व सातवें दिन में देख सकते हैं।

(ii) would, should, could और might का परिचय आप आठवें दिन में प्राप्त कर चुके हैं।

आपने देखा है कि प्राय: ये सभी क्रियाएं प्रधान क्रिया की सहायता करती हैं, जैसे — I may go. प्रश्नसूचक (Interrogative) वाक्य बनाना हो तो प्राय: ये सब वाक्य के आरम्भ में आ जाती, जैसे — May I go? नकारात्मक (Negative) वाक्य बनाना हो तो इन सहायक क्रियाओं के बाद और मुख्य क्रियाओं से पहले not जुड़ता है, जैसे — I may not go.

14. नीचे दिये गये प्रश्नात्मक वाक्यों का हिन्दी में अनुवाद कीजिए: (1) Must I tell you again? (2) Must she write first? (3) Can’t you find your book? (4) Could they repair it for me? (5) Could you show me the way? (6) Won’t she be able to get the cinema tickets? (7) Won’t you be able to come to see us? (8) Should he go to bed

early? (9) Should not the rich help the poor? (10) Dare I do it? (11) Need you be told to be careful? (12) May I have the room? (13) May I accompany you? (14) Should I ask him first? (15) Would you wait for a few minutes? (16) Did he give you money often?

15. अब आप जानते हैं कि must, ought, need, dare, used (to) ये सहायक क्रियाएं (special verbs) अन्य क्रियाओं के समान ही प्रयोग में आती हैं।

नीचे के सकारात्मक (Positive) और नकारात्मक (Negative) वाक्यों का अनुवाद कीजिए और साथ ही इस बात को समझने का प्रयत्न कीजिए कि ये क्रियाएं किस तरह प्रयोग में आती हैं।

(1) I need a towel. (2) She needn't go to the bank. (3) You needed rest, didn't you? (4) I might go to Qutab Minar? (5) You needn't worry. (6) I ought to sleep now. (7) You needn't go there. (8) I must save money. (9) There isn't any need to discuss this. (10) He won't attend the meeting, will he?

16. आगे प्रश्न तथा उनके संक्षिप्त उत्तर दिये गये हैं। इनका अभ्यास कीजिए। इससे आप नए अपरिचित प्रश्नों के उत्तर भी दे सकेंगे।

(1)	Can you speak correct English?	No, I can't.
(2)	Will you speak to her?	No, I won't.
(3)	*Could* they *have* gone there alone?	Yes, they could have.
(4)	*Should* I wait for you at the station?	No, you shouldn't.
(5)	Does she tell a lie?	No, she doesn't.
(6)	*Do* you speak the truth?	Yes, I do.
(7)	*May* we go now?	Yes, you may.
(8)	*Weren't* you off to the market?	Yes, I was.
(9)	Hadn't she finished her work?	Yes, she had.
(10)	Must they work hard?	No, they needn't.

17. प्रश्नों का उत्तर दो प्रकार से दिया जा सकता है — 1. पूर्ण (Complete) रूप से, 2. संक्षिप्त रूप से। उदाहरण के रूप में: **Q.** Do you read English? (Question)

A. Yes, I read English. (Complete Answer) **A.** Yes, I do. (Short Answer).

आम बातचीत में संक्षिप्त उत्तरों का प्रयोग करना ठीक रहता है। जब कभी हम ज़ल्दी में होते हैं, फोन पर बात करते हैं या दुकान पर ग्राहकों के प्रश्नों का उत्तर देते हैं तो संक्षिप्त उत्तर ही अधिक स्वाभाविक और अच्छे लगते हैं। इससे बातचीत की गति बढ़ती है और समय की बचत भी होती है।

अब नीचे दिये गये वाक्यों से 'संक्षिप्त उत्तर वाक्य' बनाइए: (1) No, I am not going there .

(2) Yes, I have written to her .
(3) No, she has not replied to my letter .
(4) Yes, Madam, I woke up early .
(5) Yes, I ate chat .
(6) Yes sir, I was reading a book while walking .
(7) No, I had not gone to cinema .
(8) No, I shall not play .
(9) No, we shall not be coming again and again .
(10) No, she will not have gone .

18. नीचे दिये हिन्दी के वाक्यों का अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद कीजिए, फिर नीचे छपे अंग्रेज़ी अनुवाद से मिलान कीजिए: 1. क्या तुम जानते हो? 2. आप उसे जानते हैं क्या? 3. क्या आप उनका पता जानते हैं? 4. चोट तो नहीं आई है? 5. तुम्हें कुछ और कहना है? 6. क्या आप नाराज़ हैं? 7. क्या आप बाज़ार जा रहे हैं? 8. क्या टमाटर ताज़े हैं? 9. क्या उसने तुम्हारा मकान देखा है? 10. क्या उसका कोई पत्र आया है? 11. क्या वह आपको जानता था? 12. क्या आपने दवा ली? 13. कुछ मिला तुम्हें क्या? 14. मैं कुछ निवेदन करूं? 15. सब ठीक-ठाक है? 16. क्या यह सच है? 17. क्या वह आपको जानती है? 18. क्या अब मैं घर जाऊं? 19. क्या हम यह पत्रिका आपके लिए मंगवा दें। 20. क्या आप एक कृपा करेंगे? 21. आप सैर करने चलेंगे? 22. क्या यह बस मद्रास होटल रुकेगी? 23. क्या उसे बुलाऊं? 24. क्या उसे मिलने जाऊं? 25. क्या तुम एक दिन नहीं रह सकते? 26. क्या तुम अपनी पुस्तक एक सप्ताह के लिए नहीं दे सकते? 27. क्या मैं प्रकाश से मिल सकता हूं?

(1) Do you know? (2) Do you know him? (3) Do you know his address? (4) You haven’t got hurt, have you? (5) Have you anything else to say? (6) Are you annoyed? (7) Are you going to the market?/ Are you going out for shopping? (8) Are the tomatoes fresh? (9) Has he seen your house? (10) Has he written to you? (11) Did he know you? (12) Have you taken the medicine? (13) Did you get something? (14) May I make a request? (15) Is everything fine? (16) Is it true? (17) Does she know you? (18) May I go home now? (19) Shall we get this magazine for you? (20) Will you do me a favour? (21) Will you go for a walk? (22) Will this bus stop at Madras Hotel? (23) Should I call him/her? (24) Should I visit him/her? (25) Can’t you stay for a day? (26) Ca’nt you lend me your book for a week? (27) Can I see Mr. Prakash?

निर्देश: इस तरह आप अंग्रेज़ी के कई वाक्य अपने आप बनाएं। आप मित्रों और परिचितों के साथ इन्हें बोलने का अभ्यास कीजिए।

11 ग्यारहवां दिन

th Day

दूसरा अभियान (2nd Expedition)

पिछले दस दिनों में आप एक पड़ाव पर पहुंचे हैं। अब आपको उससे आगे बढ़ना है। अब तक हम आपको अंग्रेज़ी बोलचाल की प्रारम्भिक जानकारी दे रहे थे। अब ग्यारहवें दिन हम आपको उन सभी बातों से परिचित कराना चाहते हैं, जिन्हें जाने बिना आप अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के व्यवहार को नहीं समझ सकते। आने वाले पांच दिनों में आपको रोमन लिपि की वर्तनी, अक्षरों की बनावट, अक्षर-लेखन, रोमन लिपि में हिन्दी लेखन, अंग्रेज़ी-स्वर-व्यंजनों के विशिष्ट उच्चारण तथा अनुच्चरित वर्णों (Silent Letters) आदि विषयों की आवश्यक जानकारी दी जायेगी। इसके पश्चात् 16 वें से 19 वें दिनों में आप प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य रचना तथा नकारात्मक वाक्यों संबंधी जानकारी प्राप्त करेंगे। आइये, शुरू करें दूसरा अभियान।

रोमन लिपि की वर्णमाला

अंग्रेज़ी की लिपि रोमन है, हिन्दी की देवनागरी।
अंग्रेज़ी में A से Z तक कुल 26 वर्ण होते हैं, जबकि हिन्दी में अ से ह तक 46 वर्ण होते हैं।
अंग्रेज़ी वर्णमाला में वर्ण (Letters) दो प्रकार के होते हैं — बड़े (Capital) जैसे — A और छोटे (Small) जैसे — a आदि। फिर ये सभी वर्ण छापे में भिन्न-भिन्न आकार के होते हैं, और लिखने में भिन्न-भिन्न आकार के। इस प्रकार वर्ण चार प्रकार के हुए: (1) छापे के बड़े (Capital) वर्ण

(2) छापे के छोटे (Small) वर्ण
(3) लिखने के बड़े (Capital) वर्ण
(4) लिखने के छोटे (Small) वर्ण

वर्णमाला (Alphabet)

रोमन क्रम से

छापे के बड़े अक्षर (Capital Letters)								छापे के छोटे अक्षर (Small Letters)							
A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
ए	बी	सी	डी	ई	एफ़	जी	एच	ए	बी	सी	डी	ई	एफ़	जी	एच
I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p
आइ	जे	के	एल	एम	एन	ओ	पी	आइ	जे	के	एल	एम	एन	ओ	पी
Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x
क्यू	आर	एस	टी	यू	वी	डब्ल्यू	एक्स	क्यू	आर	एस	टी	यू	वी	डब्ल्यू	एक्स
			Y	Z							y	z			
			वाइ	ज़ैड							वाइ	ज़ैड			

1 . बीच की दो पंक्तियों में लिखे जाने वाले वर्ण — a, c, e, i, m, n, o, r, s, u, v, w, x, z = 14 वर्ण
2 . ऊपर की तीन पंक्तियों में लिखे जाने वाले वर्ण — b, d, h, k, l, t = 6 वर्ण
3 . चार पंक्तियों में लिखे जाने वाले वर्ण — f = 1 वर्ण
4 . नीचे की तीन पंक्ति में लिखे जाने वाले वर्ण — g, j, p, q, y = 5 वर्ण

बहुत से लोग अंग्रेज़ी में अपना भद्दा लेख देखकर सिर धुनने लगते हैं और यह समझते हैं कि उनका लेख इतना खराब है कि उसमें सुधार नहीं हों सकता। कुछ लोग आशावादी होते हैं, वे अपना लेख सुधारने का यत्न करते हैं और उन्हें पूरी सफलता मिलती है। ऐसे हज़ारों उदाहरण आपको देखने को मिलेंगे। परन्तु सुलेख का रहस्य क्या है — क्या आप जानते हैं?

अंग्रेज़ी की लिपि रोमन है। रोमन बड़ी स्टायलिश (Stylish) भाषा है। इसकी लिखाई के नियम हैं। इसके अक्षरों की चौड़ाई कम-ज्यादा होती है। आप यह अभ्यास अच्छी तरह कर लें कि कौन-सा वर्ण 2, 3 या 4 पंक्तियों में लिखा जाने वाला है। पहले आप अच्छी तरह चार लाइनों वाली कापी पर अभ्यास कीजिए। जब आपका हाथ सध जाए तो फिर यदि आप सिंगल लाइन वाली कापी में भी लिखेंगे तो भी आपका हाथ ठीक से चलेगा।

अभ्यास करने पर आप देखेंगे कि आपका लेख पहले से काफी सुधर रहा है। ग्यारहवें दिन की यह सीख अपनाइए और चार लाइनों वाली कापी में एक पृष्ठ प्रतिदिन लिखिए, भले ही आप हाईस्कूल पास हों या ग्रेजुएट, अच्छी बात सीखने के लिए हर उम्र ठीक है। केवल पक्के इरादे की ज़रूरत है। लेख को सुधारने का अभियान शुरू कीजिए, हमारी शुभकामना आपके साथ है।

अंग्रेज़ी के लिखित कर्सिव (Cursive) अक्षर

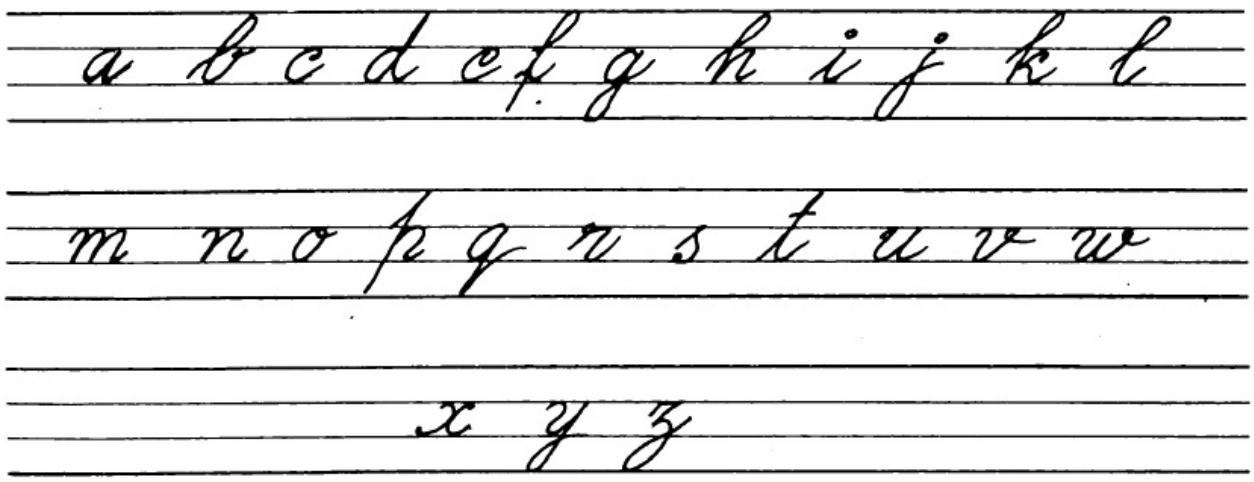

याद रखें (Remember)

1. अंग्रेज़ी में बड़े (Capital) और छोटे (Small) दो तरह के वर्ण होते हैं। बड़े वर्णों का प्रयोग वाक्य के आरम्भ में, व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञा में (जैसे Delhi) शब्दों के संक्षिप्त रूपों में (जैसे Doctor के लिए Dr.) तथा महीनों व दिनों के नाम (जैसे March, Saturday) आदि के लिए होता है। बड़े (Capital) वर्णों के होने से भाषा देखने में अच्छी लगती है (बारहवें दिन में और देखें)।

सोचिए, यदि अंग्रेज़ी में Capital लैटर न होते, तो 'मैं' के लिए 'i' लिखा जाता, 'I' नहीं।

2. हिन्दी (देवनागरी लिपि में) लाइन पर शिरोरेखा डाली जाती है जबकि अंग्रेज़ी (रोमन लिपि में) लाइन के ठीक ऊपर लिखी जाती है।

12 बारहवां दिन

th Day

अंग्रेज़ी के स्वर और व्यंजन

अंग्रेज़ी में स्वर (Vowels) और व्यंजन (Consonants) दो तरह के वर्ण होते हैं — बड़े (Capital) और छोटे (Small)। इनका ग्यारहवें दिन में उल्लेख हो चुका है। अब यहां स्वरों और व्यंजनों के भिन्न-भिन्न उच्चारणों के बारे में बताया जा रहा है। साथ ही आप नागरी लिपि के माध्यम से रोमन वर्णमाला सीखेंगे।

अंग्रेज़ी में पांच स्वर वर्ण (vowels वावल्ज़) हैं और इक्कीस व्यंजन वर्ण (Consonants कॉन्सोनेन्ट्स)। ये वर्ण इस प्रकार हैं: Vowels: A E I O U Consonants: B C D F G H J K L M N P Q R S T V W X Y Z

अंग्रेज़ी में कई Vowels तथा Consonants का अकेले रूप में भिन्न उच्चारण होता है, पर शब्दों के बीच में प्रयुक्त होने पर उनका भिन्न उच्चारण होता है, जैसे — G, H, L, M, N, P आदि वर्ण अकेले में जी, एच, एल, एम, एन, पी आदि बोले जाते हैं, परन्तु शब्दों में प्राय: इनका उच्चारण क्रमश: ग, ह, ल, म, न, प आदि होता है।

अंग्रेज़ी वर्णों का उच्चारण

अंग्रेज़ी वर्णमाला के वर्णों को बोलने में जो-जो उच्चारण होते हैं, वे उदाहरण के रूप में इस प्रकार हैं:

अंग्रेज़ी वर्ण	आवाज़ एवं शब्द	अंग्रेज़ी वर्ण	आवाज़ एवं शब्द
A (ए)	आ (Car कार); ए (Way वे)	N (एन)	न (Nose नोज़)
	ऐ (Man मैन)	O (ओ)	ओ (Our आवर)
B (बी)	ब (Book बुक)		ओ (Open ओपन)
C (सी)	क (Cat कैट); स (Cent सेन्ट)	P (पी)	प (Post पोस्ट)
D (डी)	ड (Did डिड)	Q (क्यू)*	क (Quick क्विक)
E (ई)	ई (She शी); ए (Men मेन)	R (आर)	र (Remind रिमाइन्ड)
F (एफ़)	फ (Foot फ़ुट)	S (एस)	स (Sand सैन्ड)
G (जी)	ग (Good गुड); ज (George जॉर्ज)	T (टी)	ट (Teacher टीचर)
H (एच)	ह (Hen हेन)	U (यू)	अ (Up अप, Cup कप)
			ऊ (Salute सलूट)
I (आइ)	इ (India इण्डिया); आइ (Kind काइण्ड)	V (वी)	व (Value वैल्यू)
J (जे)	ज (Joke जोक)	W (डब्ल्यू)	व (Walk वॉक)
K (के)	क (Kick किक)	X (एक्स)	(X-ray एक्सरे)
L (एल)	ल (Letter लेटर)	Y (वाइ)	य (Young यंग); आइ (My माइ)
M (एम)	म (Man मैन)	Z (ज़ैड)	ज़ (Zebra ज़ेबरा)

अंग्रेज़ी के संयुक्त अक्षर: Ch च, th थ; ठ; ph फ़; sh श; gh ग; gh के पूर्व दीर्घ (Vowel) स्वर हो, तो gh का उच्चारण मूक (Silent) होता है, जैसे — Right (राइट) अन्यथा 'ग' होता है, जैसे ghost (गोस्ट) — भूत, आत्मा। कभी-कभी gh से फ़ का उच्चारण भी आता है, जैसे rough रफ़।

बड़े और छोटे अक्षरों का प्रयोग

अंग्रेज़ी की वाक्य-रचना में छोटे (Small) और बड़े (Capital) दोनों अक्षरों का प्रयोग होता है। बड़े वर्णों (Capital) का प्रयोग निम्न स्थानों पर होता है:

1. प्रत्येक वाक्य का पहला अक्षर।	This is a box. When did you come? etc. etc.
2. किसी व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञा शब्द का पहला अक्षर।	The Ganges, The Taj, Mathura, Ram Nath, etc.
3. अंग्रेज़ी कविता के हर एक चरण का प्रथम अक्षर।	His coat is ragged, And blown away. He drops his head, And he knows not why?
4. संक्षिप्त शब्द के लिए प्रयुक्त अक्षर के लिए।	P. T, O., N. B.
5. महीने व सप्ताह के दिनों के नाम का पहला अक्षर।	January, March, Sunday, Monday, etc.
6. मनुष्य की उपाधि के प्रथम अक्षर।	B. A., LL. B., M. Com, etc.
7. ईश्वर के नाम तथा उसके लिए प्रयोग में आने वाले सर्वनाम के पहले अक्षर।	God, Lord, He, His.
8. अंग्रेज़ी में 'मैं' के लिए।	How can I ever forget What you have done for me?
9. पत्र शुरू करते समय संबोधन (Salutation) का तथा समापन वाक्यांश (Complementary clause) का पहला अक्षर।	Dear kavita/Aunt/Sir, Yours sincerely, / Affectionately yours,
10. Quotation mark के अंदर वाक्य शुरू करते समय, वाक्य का पहला अक्षर।	He said, "Don't forget to inform me the date of your interview."

याद रखें (Remember)

(i) 'क' के लिए अंग्रेज़ी (रोमन) वर्णमाला में c, k, q वर्ण आते हैं। कहीं-कहीं 'क' के लिए ck भी (block ब्लॉक) आता है। c का 'स' भी उच्चारण होता है (Cease सीज़); (ii) ग् के लिए बहुधा g आता है (good) और 'ज्' के लिए j (jam), पर कई बार ज के लिए g भी आता है (germ जर्म, generation जेनरेशन); (iii) 'व' के लिए अंग्रेज़ी में v और w प्रयुक्त होते हैं, जैसे — very वेरी, wall वॉल; (iv) फ् के लिए f प्रयोग में आता है, ph भी अंग्रेज़ी में फ् के लिए प्रयुक्त होता है e. g fruit, Philosophy पर अंग्रेज़ी में उच्चारण हमेशा 'फ' नहीं (फ़) होता है।

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* q के साथ सदा u लगता है, जैसे — quick, Cheque आदि।

13 तेरहवां दिन

th Day

अंग्रेज़ी उच्चारण (English Pronunciation)

अंग्रेज़ी स्वरों (Vowels) का उच्चारण समझना बहुत महत्वपूर्ण है। अंग्रेज़ी स्वरों के उच्चारण में बड़ी विविधता होती है, जैसे — A का उच्चारण आ, ए, ऐ, ए होता है; E का ए, इ तथा ई (लम्बा उच्चारण); I का उच्चारण ई, आई, अ, आइ; O का उच्चारण ऑ, आ, उ, ऊ, अ; और U का उ, ऊ और अ आदि। यहां आपको इन सबकी बड़ी ही मनोरंजक जानकारी प्रात होगी।

प्राय: देखा गया है कि लोग अंग्रेज़ी के उच्चारण में बड़ी भूल करते हैं। अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के उच्चारण के कुछ विशेष नियम हैं, जिन्हें जानना प्रत्येक अंग्रेज़ी सीखने वाले के लिए आवश्यक है। हम पहले स्वरों (Vowels) के उच्चारण के विषय में विचार करते हैं।

अंग्रेज़ी स्वरों के उच्चारण

A के उच्चारण के नियम

A (a) के उच्चारण बहुधा ये होते हैं — ऐ, आ, ए।

A = ऐ (ै)

An (ऐन) एक
At (ऐट) पर
Lad (लैड) लड़का
Rat (रैट) चूहा
Man (मैन) मनुष्य
Stand (स्टैंड) खड़े होना
Mad (मैड) पागल
Ban (बैन) मनाही

A = ऑ (ॉ)

All (ऑल) सब
Wall (वॉल) दीवार
Fall (फ़ॉल) गिरना
War (वॉर) युद्ध
Call (कॉल) बुलाना
Small (स्मॉल) छोटा

A = आ

Far (फ़ार) दूर, Are (आर) हैं, Star (स्टार) तारा

A = एअ

Ware (वेअर) बर्तन
Spare (स्पेअर) अतिरिक्त
Fare (फ़ेअर) किराया
Care (केअर) परवाह
Dare (डेअर) साहस करना
There (देअर) वहां
Share (शेअर) हिस्सा बांटना

A = ए

यदि A के बाद Y या I का प्रयोग होता हो, तो उसका उच्चारण 'ए' के समान हो जाता है। पर यह 'ए' कुछ लम्बा उच्चारण देता है: Pay (पे) वेतन
Way (वे) मार्ग
Stay (स्टे) ठहरना
Gay (गे) प्रसन्न
Brain (ब्रेन) दिमाग
Main (मेन) मुख्य

E के उच्चारण के नियम

E (e) के बहुधा ये उच्चारण होते हैं — ए (े), इ, ई।

E = ए (े)

Net (नेट) जाल
Men (मेन) मनुष्य (बहुवचन) Sell (सेल) बेचना
Well (वेल) कुआं, अच्छा
Leg (लेग) टांग
Then (देन) तब
Wet (वेट) गीला
When (वेन) कब, जब

E = ई

Be (बी) होना
We (वी) हम
He (ही) वह (पुलिंग) She (शी) वह (स्त्रीलिंग)

EE = ई (दीर्घ उच्चारण)

See (सी) देखना
Weep (वीप) रोना
Bee (बी) मधुमक्खी
Sleep (स्लीप) सोना

EA = ई

Clean (क्लीन) साफ या साफ करना
Sea (सी) समुद्र
Heat (हीट) गर्मी या गर्म करना
Meat (मीट) मांस

E = अपनी कोई ध्वनि नहीं

यदि किसी शब्द के अन्त में e आये तो उसका अपना कोई उच्चारण नहीं होता, और उससे पहले आये एक या एक से अधिक व्यंजनों (Consonants) को छोड़कर जो अन्य स्वर (Vowel) होता है, उसका उच्चारण लंबा हो जाता है। नीचे पूर्ववर्ती स्वर A, I, O, U के साथ अंतिम स्वर E के प्रयोग के उदाहरण नीचे दिये जाते हैं: **(a) यदि पूर्ववर्ती स्वर ' A ' हो, तो ' A '** का उच्चारण 'ए' होता है और **E** का अपना कोई उच्चारण नहीं होता।

Shame (शेम) लज्जा
Name (नेम) नाम
Lame (लेम) लंगड़ा
Same (सेम) वही

(b) यदि पूर्ववर्ती स्वर ' I ' हो, तो ' I ' का उच्चारण 'आई' होता है और अंतिम **' E '** का अपना कोई उच्चारण नहीं होता।

Wife (वाइफ़) पत्नी
Nine (नाइन) नौ (9) White (वाइट) सफेद
Line (लाइन) लकीर

(c) यदि पूर्ववर्ती स्वर ' O ' हो, तो ' O ' का उच्चारण 'ओ' होता है और अंतिम E का अपना कोई उच्चारण नहीं होता।

Nose (नोज़) नाक
Hope (होप) आशा
Smoke (स्मोक) धुआं
Joke (जोक) मज़ाक

(d) यदि पूर्ववर्ती स्वर ' U ' हो तो ' U ' का उच्चारण 'ऊ' या यू होता है और अंतिम E का अपना कोई उच्चारण नहीं होता।

Rule (रूल) नियम
Tune (ट्यून) ध्वनि
June (जून) जून
Tube (ट्यूब) नली

EW = इयू

Few (फ़्यू) कुछ
Mew (म्यू) म्याऊं-म्याऊं
New (न्यू) नया

Dew (ड्यू) ओस

I के उच्चारण के नियम

I (i) के बहुधा ये उच्चारण होते हैं — ई. आइ। कभी-कभी ‘अ’ जैसा भी उच्चारण होता है।

I = इ (ह्रस्व उच्चारण)

Ill (इल) बीमार
Kill (किल) मार डालना
Big (बिग) बड़ा
With (विद) साथ
Ink (इंक) स्याही
Ship (शिप) जहाज़

I = आइ

Kind (काइन्ड) दयालु
Mild (माइल्ड) नर्म
Behind (बिहाइंड) पीछे
Mike (माइक) माइक्रोफोन
Bind (बाइंड) बांधना
Mile (माइल) मील

I = आइ या आई

यदि I के बाद GH आए, तो I का उच्चारण आइ (या आई) होता है: Right (राइट) ठीक
Sight (साइट) दृष्टि
Light (लाइट) रोशनी
High (हाई) ऊंचा

I = अ

Firm (फर्म) संस्था
First (फ़र्स्ट) पहला

I = आय

Fire (फ़ायर) आग
Admire (एडमायर) प्रशंसा करना/सराहना

IE = ई, EI = ई (दीर्घ)

Brief (ब्रीफ़) संक्षिप्त
Siege (सीज) घेरा
Achieve (अचीव) प्राप्त करना
Receive (रिसीव) लेना
Deceive (डिसीव) धोखा देना

O के उच्चारण के नियम

O (0) के बहुधा उच्चारण ये होते हैं — ऑ, ओ, उ, ऊ, अ।

O = ऑ (ह्रस्व उच्चारण)

Ox (ऑक्स) बैल
On (ऑन) पर
Fox (फ़ॉक्स) लोमड़ी
Hot (हॉट) गर्म
Pot (पॉट) बर्तन
Spot (स्पॉट) दाग़
Top (टॉप) ऊपरी भाग
Drop (ड्रॉप) गिरना, गिराना
Dot (डॉट) बिन्दु
Soft (सॉफ़्ट) मुलायम
Not (नॉट) नहीं
God (गॉड) ईश्वर
Got (गॉट) पाया

O = ओ (दीर्घ उच्चारण)

Open (ओपन) खोलना
So (सो) ऐसा
Hope (होप) आशा
No (नो) नहीं
Old (ओल्ड) पुराना
Gold (गोल्ड) सोना
Home (होम) घर
Most (मोस्ट) सर्वाधिक
Joke (जोक) मज़ाक
Post (पोस्ट) डाक

OW = ओ (दीर्घ उच्चारण)

आगे W के होने पर
Low (लो) नीचा
Show (शो) प्रदर्शन
Row (रो) पंक्ति
Crow (क्रो) कौआ
Sow (सो) बीज बोना

OO = उ (ह्रस्व उच्चारण)

Look (लुक) देखना

Book (बुक) पुस्तक
Took (टुक) लिया
Good (गुड) अच्छा

OO = ऊ (दीर्घ उच्चारण)

Room (रूम) कमरा
Moon (मून) चांद
Boot (बूट) जूता
Noon (नून) दोपहर
Do (डू) करना
Root (रूट) जड़

O = अ (ह्रस्व उच्चारण)

Son (सन) पुत्र
Come (कम) आना

OW = आऊ

How (हाउ) कैसे
Now (नाउ) अब
Cow (काउ) गाय

OY = ऑय

Joy (जॉय) हर्ष
Boy (बॉय) लड़का
Toy (टॉय) खिलौना

OU = आव

Our (आवर) हमारा
Sour (सावर) खट्टा
Hour (आवर) घंटा

U के उच्चारण के नियम

U (U) के उच्चारण होते हैं — अ, उ, यू, यो।

U = अ (ह्रस्व उच्चारण)

Up (अप) ऊपर
Cup (कप) प्याला
Hut (हट) झोपड़ी
Fun (फ़न) मज़ा
Mud (मड) कीचड़
Sun (सन) सूर्य

U = उ

Put (पुट) रखना
Pull (पुल) खींचना
Push (पुश) दबाना
Puss (पुस) बिल्ली

U = यू, यो

Duty (ड्यूटी) कर्तव्य
Sure (श्योर) पक्का
Durable (ड्यूरेबल) टिकाऊ
Pure (प्योर) शुद्ध

Y के उच्चारण के नियम

कहीं-कहीं व्यंजन भी स्वर का काम करता है। दरअसल पुरानी अंग्रज़ी में तो यह स्वर था, लेकिन अब धीरे-धीरे इसका स्थान I ने ले लिया है। सिर्फ कहीं-कहीं अब भी यह स्वर का काम करता है, जैसे:

Y = ई

Polygamy (पॉलीगैमी) बहु-विवाह
Felony (फ़ेलनी) घोर अपराध
Policy (पॉलिसी) नीति

Y = आय

Tyre (टायर) टायर
Typhoid (टायफ़ॉइड) मियादी बुखार

Y = आई

Dyke (डाइक) खाड़ी
Dynasty (डाइनेस्टी) वंश

इस प्रकार आपने स्वरों के विविध उच्चारणों की जानकारी पा ली है। अभ्यास करके आप इसमें दक्षता प्राप्त कर सकते हैं। आगे व्यंजनों के उच्चारण पर प्रकाश डाला जाएगा।

मूक अक्षर (Silent letters)

अंग्रेज़ी के बहुत से शब्दों में कई अनुच्चारित या मूक अक्षर होते हैं। स्वर या व्यंजन दोनों में से कोई भी अनुच्चारित हो सकता है। इस विषय में अधिक विस्तृत जानकारी पंद्रहवें दिन के पाठ में दी गई है। नीचे उदाहरण के लिए मूक अक्षरों वाले कुछ शब्द आपके ज्ञान व अभ्यास के लिए दिये जा रहे हैं।

A Silent

Caesar (सीज़र) रोमन सम्राट
Haemoglobin (हीमोग्लोबिन) लाल रक्त कण

B Silent

Crumbs (क्रम्स) खाना, रोटी आदि के छोटे-छोटे टुकड़े
Indebted (इन्डेटिड) ऋणी
Plumber (प्लमर) नल आदि ठीक करने वाला
Succumb (सकम) हार जाना, मर जाना

C Silent

Sceptre (सेप्टर) राज दंड
Scissors (सिज़र्ज़) कैंची

D Silent

Budget (बज़ट) बज़ट
Bridge (ब्रिज़) पुल
Midget (मिज़ट) बौना

G Silent

Benign (बिनाइन) दयालु, हानिरहित
Design (डिज़ाइन) नमूना
Malign (मलाइन) बदनाम करना

H Silent

Honorary (ऑनरेरी) अवैतनिक
Honorariam (ऑनरेरियम) सम्मान के लिए दिया गया पारिश्रमिक

K Silent

Knife (नाइफ़) चाकू
Knock (नॉक) खटखटाना
Knuckle (नकल) उंगली का जोड़

L Silent

Alms (आम्ज़) दान / भीख
Balm (बाम) दर्दनाशक मरहम

P Silent

Psyche (साइका) आत्मा, मानस
Psychiatrist (साइक्याट्रिस्ट) मनोचिकित्सक

T Silent

Tsar (ज़ार) रूसी शासक
Fasten (फ़ासन) बांधना
Nestle (नेसल) प्यार से चिपकाना

R Silent

Iron (आयन) लोहा, प्रेस
World (वर्ल्ड) संसार

W Silent

Wrath (रैथ) क्रोध
Wrap (रैप) लपेटना
Wreck (रेक) तोड़ना, टूटा हुआ

याद रखें (Remember)

1. Fan, Fall, Fail, Far — इन शब्दों में क्रमश: A का उच्चारण फ़ैन (ऐ), फ़ॉल (ऑ), फ़ेल (ए), फ़ार (आ) होता है। ऐसे और शब्दों को ढूंढिए और सामान्य नियम जानने की कोशिश भी कीजिए।
2. Wet, Be, See — इन शब्दों में क्रमश: E का उच्चारण वेट, बी, सी होता है, अर्थात (ए, ई, ई)। Shame, Line, Hope में 'ई' का उच्चारण कुछ नहीं होता। पहला स्वर (क्रमश: a, i, o) कुछ और दीर्घ हो जाता है।
3. I का 'अ' भी उच्चारण होता है, क्या आपको पता है? देखिए, Firm (फ़र्म)। इसके अतिरिक्त I का 'आय' उच्चारण भी होता है, जैसे — Fire (फ़ायर)।
4. OO का 'ऊ' उच्चारण तो होता ही है — Room (रूम),छोटा 'उ' भी होता है — (Book बुक, look लुक आदि)।
5. O का उच्चारण 'ओ' तथा U का 'उ' तो होता ही है, O या U का 'अ' भी होता है। देखिए, Son सन (पुत्र), Son सन (सूर्य)।

इस पाठ के आधार पर आप सभी स्वरों के नए उच्चारण पुस्तकों में से ढूंढते रहने की आदत डालिए। आप देखेंगे कि आपके सामने अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के नए-नए रहस्य खुलकर आएंगे। मूक अक्षरों का भी ध्यान रखिए।

14 चौदहवां दिन

th Day

अंग्रेज़ी व्यंजनों के उच्चारण

स्वरों की तरह कुछ अंग्रेज़ी के व्यंजनों (Consonants) के उच्चारण में भी भिन्नता पाई जाती है, जैसे — C का उच्चारण 'स' और 'क' होता है; G का 'ग' और 'ज'; S का 'ज़', स और श; T का श, च, थ, द आदि—ये उच्चारण होते हैं। यदि आप दिये गये विवरण के अनुसार अंग्रेज़ी व्यंजनों के उच्चारण पर थोड़ा ध्यान देंगे, तो आपके लिए अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों के उच्चारण की कोई समस्या नहीं रह जायेगी।

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में ये व्यंजन हैं

B	C	D	F	G	H	J	K	L	M	N
ब	स	ड	फ़	ग	ह	ज	क	ल	म	न
P	Q	R	S	T	V	W	X	Y	Z	
प	क	र	स	ट	व	व	क्स	य	ज़	

मोटे रूप में, अंग्रेज़ी के इन वर्णों का उच्चारण लगभग वैसा ही होता है जैसा कि उनके नीचे दिये गये हिन्दी के वर्णों का होता है। परन्तु यदि आप अंग्रेज़ी के व्यंजनों का ठीक-ठीक उच्चारण जानना चाहते हैं, तो हम आपसे केवल यही कह सकते हैं कि यदि आप बारीकी से ध्वनि को पहचानने की कोशिश करें, तो आप देखेंगे कि इन सभी अंग्रेज़ी व्यंजनों का उच्चारण भिन्न-भिन्न होता है।

आप किसी अंग्रेज़ से, जिसकी मातृभाषा अंग्रेज़ी हो, इन व्यंजनों का उच्चारण सुनेंगे, तो इस निष्कर्ष पर पहुंचेंगे कि K, P, T बिल्कुल क, प, ट के समान नहीं हैं। बल्कि ये क-ख, प-फ, त-ट के बीच में कहीं बोले जाते हैं। इसी प्रकार J 'ज' की तरह न होकर कुछ-कुछ 'ड' (Job ड्जाब) की तरह बोला जाता है। पर यह इतना सूक्ष्म अन्तर है कि बहुत बार ध्यान देने पर ही पकड़ में आ सकता है। इसके लिए आप टेलीविज़न पर या रेडियो पर प्रसारित होने वाले समाचार सुनिए या जब कभी कोई अंग्रेज़ टेलीकास्ट या ब्राडकास्ट कर रहा हो, तो ध्यान से सुनिए। यह अंतर आपको सुनाई देगा। वैसे भारतीय अंग्रेज़ी की अपनी ही पहचान है। हमें पूरी तरह अंग्रेज़ी उच्चारण की नकल करने की ज़रूरत नहीं है।

अब R को लीजिए, हम 'अर्र' बोलते हैं, तब जीभ में थिरकन पैदा होती है। हम 'धर्म' बोलते हैं, तब भी 'र' बोलते समय जीभ में थिरकन पैदा होती है। अंग्रेज़ी के R का कुछ ऐसा ही उच्चारण है — Round, Real, Roll, Run इसका अन्तर भी आप बार-बार सुन कर ज्ञात कर सकते हैं।

R के पहले स्वर (Vowel) हो और R के बाद व्यंजन हो, तो R लगभग अनुच्चरित (Silent) रहता है, और पहला स्वर बोलने में दीर्घ बोला जाता है — Form (फ़ॉम), Arm

(आ ’म), Art (आ ’ट)।
S का उच्चारण ‘स’ की तरह होता तो है, पर ‘स’ ऐसे बोला जाता है जैसे सीटी बजाते समय ध्वनि निकलती है — Sweet (स्वीट)।

C	F	H	L	M	N	Q	V	W	X	Y	Z
स, क	फ़	ह	ल	म	न	क	व	व	क्स	य	ज़

इन व्यंजनों का उच्चारण लगभग नागरी वर्णों के उच्चारण की तरह ही होता है।

F और Ph दोनों वर्णों का ‘फ़’ उच्चारण ही होता है ‘फ़’ नहीं, जैसे — Fall (फ़ॉल), Philosophy (फ़िलॉसफ़ी) आदि।

अक्षरों का क्रम बदल जाने से उच्चारण में भेद

हिन्दी में ‘स’ आदि कोई भी वर्ण किसी भी क्रम से पड़ा हो उसका उच्चारण एक-सा ही रहता है, किन्तु अंग्रेज़ी में ऐसा नहीं है, इसमें Cent का उच्चारण होगा — ‘सेंट’ पर Cant को ‘कैन्ट’ पढ़ा जाएगा। ऐसे शब्दों के कुछ नियम तथा उदाहरण नीचे दिये जा रहे हैं।

‘ C ’ के उच्चारण

‘ C ’ के उच्चारण हैं — स और क।

1. C के बाद E, I, Y आये, तो C का उच्चारण ‘स’ होगा, जैसे: Receive (रिसीव) प्राप्त करना
Rice (राइस) चावल
Cinema (सिनेमा) चित्रपट
Cyclone (साइक्लोन) तूफान
Niece (नीस) भतीजी
Piece (पीस) टुकड़ा
Icy (आइसी) बर्फ़ीला
Celebrate (सेलिब्रेट) उत्सव मनाना
Century (सेंचुरी) शताब्दी
Certificate (सर्टिफ़िकेट) प्रमाणपत्र
Circle (सर्कल) घेरा
Citizenship (सिटिज़नशिप) नागरिकता
Force (फ़ोर्स) शक्ति

2. C के बाद A, O, U, K, R, T , आदि कोई वर्ण हो, तो प्राय: C का उच्चारण ‘क’ होगा, जैसे: Cot (कॉट) चारपाई
Cap (कैप) टोपी
Cow (काउ) गाय
Cat (कैट) बिल्ली

Candidate (कैंडीडेट) सदस्य
Cattle (कैटल) पशु/जन्तु
Back (बैक) पीठ
Cock (कॉक) मुर्गा
Lock (लॉक) ताला
Dock (डॉक) बंदरगाह
Cutting (कटिंग) काटना
Curse (कर्स) कोसना
Custom (कस्टम) रिवाज
Cruel (क्रुअल) क्रूर

3 . कभी-कभी C के बाद IA या EA , हो, तो 'श' की ध्वनि देते हैं, जैसे: Social (सोशल) सामाज़िक
Ocean (ओशन) समुद्र
Musician (म्यूज़िशियन) संगीतकार

' G ' के उच्चारण

' G ' के दो उच्चारण हैं— ग और ज।

1 . जब किसी शब्द के अन्त में ' GE ' हो, तो इसका उच्चारण 'ज' होता है, जैसे: Age (एज) आयु
Page (पेज) पृष्ठ
Rage (रेज) गुस्सा
Cage (केज) पिंजरा
Sage (सेज) महात्मा
Gauge (गेज) माप-यंत्र

इसी प्रकार इनमें भी 'ज' बोला जाता है, जैसे: Ginger (जिंजर) अदरक
Imagine (इमेजिन) कल्पना करना
Germ (जर्म) कीटाणु
Pigeon (पिजन) कबूतर
Gist (जिस्ट) सार
Gem (जेम) कीमती पत्थर

2 . शेष स्थलों पर बहुधा 'ग' का उच्चारण होता है, जैसे: Big (बिग) बड़ा
Bag (बैग) थैला
Hang (हैंग) लटकाना

Go (गो) जाना
Gold (गोल्ड) सोना
Hunger (हंगर) भूख
Give (गिव) देना
Finger (फ़िंगर) अंगुली
Forget (फ़ॉरगेट) भूलना

‘ S ’ के उच्चारण

‘ S ’ के प्रमुख तीन उच्चारण हैं— ज़, स, श।

1 . शब्द के अन्त में BE, G, GG, GE, IE, EF, Y आदि आएं, तो इनके बाद लगे S का उच्चारण ‘ज़’ होता है, जैसे: Tribes (ट्राइब्ज़) जातियां
Bags (बैग्ज़) थैले
Eggs (एग्ज़) अण्डे
Ages (एजिज़) युग
Heroes (हीरोज़) नायक
Stories (स्टोरीज़) कहानियां
Rupees (रुपीज़) रुपये
Toys (टॉयज़) खिलौने
Rays (रेज़) किरणें

2 . शब्द के अन्त में F, P, KE, GHT, PE, TE आदि वर्ण हों, तो उनके बाद लगे S का उच्चारण ‘स्’ होता है, जैसे: Roofs (रूफ़्स) छतें
Chips (चिप्स) टुकड़े
Hopes (होप्स) आशाएं
Lips (लिप्स) होंठ
Kites (काइट्स) पतंगें
Ships (शिप्स) जहाज़
Jokes (जोक्स) मज़ाक
Nights (नाइट्स) रातें

3 . शब्द में S या SS के बाद IA, ION हों, तो प्राय: S ‘श’ की ध्वनि देता है, जैसे:
Asia (एशिया) महाद्वीप का नाम
Pension (पेन्शन) पेंशन
Session (सेशन) कार्यकाल
Aggression (एग्रेशन) हमला
Mansion (मैंशन) महल

Russia (रशिया) रूस

‘ T ’ के उच्चारण

‘ T ’ के स्थिति के हिसाब से ये उच्चारण होते हैं— श, च, थ, द।

1 . शब्द में T के बाद IA, IE, IO आदि हों, तो T को ‘श’ बोला जाता है, जैसे: Initial (इनिशियल) प्रारम्भिक
Patient (पेशंट) रोगी
Illustration (इलस्ट्रेशन) चित्र
Portion (पोर्शन) भाग
Promotion (प्रमोशन) वृद्धि
Ratio (रेशो) अनुपात

2 . यदि शब्द में S के बाद TION आये, या T के बाद URE आये तो T का उच्चारण ‘च’ जैसा होता है: Question (क्वेश्चन) प्रश्न
Culture (कल्चर) सभ्यता
Nature (नेचर) प्रकृति
Future (फ़्यूचर) भविष्य
Capture (कैप्चर) कैद करना
Picture (पिक्चर) तस्वीर
Creature (क्रीचर) जन्तु

3 . यदि शब्द में T के बाद H आये, तो कभी-कभी ‘थ’ की ध्वनि होती है, तो कई बार ‘द’ की

th = थ

Thick (थिक) मोटा
Thin (थिन) पतला
Three (थ्री) तीन
Thread (थ्रेड) धागा

th = द

This (दिस) यह
That (दैट) वह
Then (देन) तब
There (देअर) वहां

4 . कई बार TH हिन्दी का अक्षर ‘ट’ (T) की ध्वनि देता है, जैसे: Thames (टेम्स) टेम्ज़ नदी

Thomas (टॉमस) व्यक्ति का नाम

याद रखें (Remember)

The को कई लोग ‘द’ बोलते हैं कई ‘दि’ — दोनों सही हैं। आमतौर पर ‘स्वर’ से शुरू होने वाले शब्द से पहले ‘दि’ बोला जाता है (जैसे दि एग, दि आंसर आदि) और व्यंजन से शुरू होने वाले शब्द से पहले ‘द’ e.g . द कैट, द रैट आदि!

15 पन्द्रहवां दिन
th Day

शब्दों में अनुच्चरित अक्षर (Silent Letters in Words)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में कुछ शब्दों के कुछ अक्षर मूक (Silent) होते हैं, जिनका उच्चारण पता न होने के कारण भारतीय विद्यार्थियों के लिए एक समस्या बन जाते हैं। यहां ऐसे शब्दों को बड़े रोचक ढंग से प्रस्तुत किया गया है। आप अध्ययन और अभ्यास के द्वारा ऐसे शब्दों पर अधिकार (mastery) प्राप्त कर सकेंगे।

1

क्या शब्दों का पहला अक्षर भी 'साइलेंट' होता है?

जी हां, कई बार शब्दों का पहला अक्षर भी Silent अर्थात् अनुच्चरित या मूक होता है। इन शब्दों को बोलिए तथा हिज्जों और उच्चारण को याद कीजिए: G nat (नैट) लड़ाकू विमान P sychology (साइकॉलॉजी) मनोविज्ञान

H onour (आनर) सम्मान W rite (राइट) लिखना

H our (आवर) घंटा K nowledge (नॉलिज) ज्ञान

P neumonia (न्यूमोनिया) फेफड़ों की सूजन

आपने देखा कि इन शब्दों के प्रथम अक्षर का शब्द में उच्चारण नहीं होता। अब इन शब्दों का उच्चारण करें: Wrong, Know, Knitting, Honest, Psalm, रौंग, नो, निटिंग, ऑनेस्ट, साम।

अब देखिए कि Knitting में K और दूसरी T का उच्चारण नहीं हुआ, बोलने में niting ही आया। इसी प्रकार Psalm में P और L दोनों Silent हैं।

2

High का उच्चारण है 'हाई' ओर Right का उच्चारण है 'राइट'। उक्त आधार पर इन

शब्दों का उच्चारण करें: Sigh (आह भरना) Fight (लड़ाई) Might (शक्ति) Flight (उड़ान) Thigh (जांघ) Light (प्रकाश) Night (रात) Delight (आनन्द) Though (यद्यपि) Bright (चमकीला) Tight (कसा हुआ) Knight (शूरवीर) Through (द्वारा) Slight (थोड़ा-सा) Fright (भय) Sight (नज़ारा) इन शब्दों से आप भलीभांति परिचित हैं। अच्छा बताइए, इनमें कौन-से ऐसे दो वर्ण हैं, जो सबमें एक समान Silent हैं? ठीक है — 'gh' और Knight में K भी अनुच्चरित अर्थात् silent है।

अब नीचे दी गयी शब्दों की तालिका में देखिए, कौन -कौन से वर्ण अनुच्चरित हैं। फिर इन शब्दों व स्पेलिंग्स को याद कीजिए और लिखकर उनका अभ्यास भी कीजिए।

B Silent Comb (कोम) कंघा

Lamb (लैम) मेमना

Thumb (थम) अंगूठा

C Silent Scent (सेन्ट) इत्र

Science (साइंस) विज्ञान

Scene (सीन) दृश्य

G Silent Sign (साइन) चिह्न

Design (डिज़ाइन) रचना

Resign (रिज़ाइन) इस्तीफा देना

H Silent Honour (ऑनर) इज़्ज़त

Hour (आवर) घंटा

Thomas (टॉमस) टामस

K Silent Knock (नॉक) खटखटाना

Knife (नाइफ़) चाकू

Knot (नॉट) गांठ

L Silent Palm (पाम) हथेली

Calm (काम) शान्ति

Half (हाफ़) आधा

Walk (वाक) चलना

Folk (फ़ोक) जनसमूह

Talk (टॉक) बातचीत

Should (शुड) चाहिए

Would (वुड) जाएगा

Could (कुड) सकना

N Silent Autumn (ऑटम) पतझड़

Condemn (कंडेम) निन्दा करना

Hymn (हिम) स्तोत्र

Column (कालम) पृष्ट का भाग

Damn (डैम) बद्दुआ देना

T Silent Hasten (ह्रेसन) जल्दी करना

Listen (लिसन) सुनना

Often (ऑफ़न) प्राय: Soften (सॉफ़न) कोमल करना

U Silent Guard (गार्ड) चौकीदार

Guess (गेस) अनुमान

Guest (गेस्ट) अतिथि

W Silent Wrong (रौंग) गलत

Answer (आन्सर) उत्तर

Sword (सोर्ड) तलवार

और अब ज़रा नीचे दिये गये अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों का उच्चारण करके अपना मनोरंजन कीजिए और पता लगाइए कि कौन से अक्षर अनुच्चरित (silent) हैं?

Asthma, Heir, Island, Doubt, Reign, Wrapper, Wednesday जी नहीं, ये अस्थमा, हेयर, इज़लैण्ड, डाउब्ट, रिअग्न, व्रापर, वेडनसडे नहीं है, ये हैं ऐस्मा (दमा), एअर (उत्तराधिकारी), आइलैंड (टापू), डाउट (शक), रेन (राज्य), रैपर (लपेटने का कागज़ व कपड़ा), वेंसडे (बुधवार)।

डिक्शनरी में ऐसे ही दूसरे शब्द ढूंढिए और उनका अभ्यास कीजिए।

16 सोलहवां दिन

th Day

प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य-रचना में What, Who, How आदि का प्रयोग

बीच में रोमन लिपि की वर्तनी और वर्णों के उच्चारण का प्रसंग आ गया था, जिनका ज्ञान होना हमारे लिए आवश्यक है। अब फिर पीछे जहां छोड़ा था, वहां से आगे चलें। छठे से आठवें दिन में हमने सीखा था कि तीनों कालों के वाक्यों में उपक्रिया या सहायक क्रिया को वाक्य में सबसे पहले लाकर प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाये जा सकते हैं, जैसे — Does he know? Was Gopal reading? Will you play ? आदि। अब हम यहां इतना और जोड़ना चाहते हैं कि जब इन्हीं प्रश्नवाचक वाक्यों के शुरू में What, Who, How, Which, When, Where या Why आदि लगते हैं, तो ये वाक्य व्यापक अर्थ देने लगते हैं। इसे आप पहले एक-एक करके और फिर मिले-जुले रूप में 16 वें से 18 वें दिन के कोर्स में पाएंगे। आइए, अभ्यास करें।

What	A
1. **प्र. तुम क्या चाहते हो?**	**Q. *What* do you want?** वॉट डू यू वॉन्ट?
उ. एक गिलास दूध।	A. *A* glass of milk. अ ग्लास ऑफ़ मिल्क.
2. **प्र. तुम क्या लिख रहे हो?**	**Q. *What* are you writing?** वॉट आर यू राइटिंग?
उ. पत्र लिख रहा हूं।	A. *A* letter. अ लेटर.
3. **प्र. तुम क्या कहना चाहते हो?**	**Q. *What* do you want to say?** वॉट डू यू वॉन्ट टु से?
उ. कुछ नहीं।	A. Nothing. नथिंग.
4. **प्र. तुम्हारा नाम क्या है?**	**Q. **What's* your name?** वॉट्स योर नेम?
उ. अमिताभ।	A. *Amitabh.* अमिताभ.
5. **प्र. तुम्हारे पिताजी क्या काम करते हैं?**	**Q. *What's* your father?** वॉट्स योर फ़ादर?
उ. वे एक सम्पादक हैं।	A. *He's an editor.* हीज़ ऐन एडिटर.
6. प्र. तुम्हारी माताजी क्या करती हैं?	Q. *What's* your mother? वॉट्स योर मदर?
उ. वे घर का काम संभालती हैं।	A. *She* is a housewife. शी इज़ अ हाउसवाइफ़.
7. **प्र. तुम इन दिनों क्या कर रही हो?**	**Q. *What* are you doing these days?** वॉट आर यू डूइंग दीज़ डेज़?
उ. पढ़ रही हूं।	A. *Studying.* स्टडींग
8. प्र. तुमने आगरा में क्या देखा है?	Q. *What* have you seen in Agra? वॉट हैव यू सीन इन आगरा?
उ. ताजमहल।	A. *The* Taj Mahal. द ताजमहल.
9. प्र. तुमने पिताजी को क्या लिखा?	Q. *What* did you write to your father? वॉट डिड यू राइट टु योर फ़ादर?
उ. नतीजे के बारे में लिखा।	A. About my result. अबाउट माइ रिजल्ट.
10. प्र. वह मुम्बई में क्या कर रही थी?	Q. *What* was she doing in Mumbai? वॉट वॉज़ शी डूइंग इन मुम्बई?
उ. एक प्राइमरी स्कूल में अध्यापिका थी।	A. *She* was teaching in a primary school. शी वॉज़ टीचिंग इन ए प्राइमरी स्कूल.
11. प्र. दसवीं कक्षा उत्तीर्ण करके तुम क्या करोगे?	Q. *What* do you intend doing after passing High School वॉट डू यू इन्टेंड डूइंग आफ़्टर पासिंग हाई स्कूल?
उ. आगे पढ़ूंगा।	A. *I'll* study further. आइ विल स्टडी फ़रदर।

Who

12. प्र. आप कौन हैं?
    उ. मैं एक व्यापारी हूं।
13. प्र. वे कौन हैं?
    उ. मेरे संबंधी हैं।
14. प्र. गीत किसने गाया?
    उ. लता ने।
15. प्र. मार्किट में कौन जाएगा?
    उ. मैं जाऊंगा।
16. प्र. इस काम को कौन कर सकता है?
    उ. राधा।
17. प्र. उसे किससे मिलना है?
    उ. अपनी मां से।
18. प्र. इस मकान का मालिक कौन है?

    उ. मेरे पिता।

How

19. प्र. वह विद्यालय कैसे जाता है?
    उ. स्कूल बस से।
20. **प्र. आपके पिता जी कैसे हैं?**
    उ. वे स्वस्थ नहीं हैं।
21. प्र. तुम शिमला कैसे गये?
    उ. रेलगाड़ी से।
22. प्र. तुम कैसे लौटे?
    उ. बस से।
23. प्र. शिमला में आपका स्वास्थ्य कैसा था?
    उ. मैं वहां बिल्कुल ठीक था।
24. **प्र. वहां मौसम कैसा था?**
    उ. काफी ठंडा था।
25. **प्र. आपके पुत्र की कितनी आयु है?**
    उ. वह बारह वर्ष का है।
26. प्र. यहां से कनॉट प्लेस कितनी दूर है?

    उ. करीब छः किलोमीटर।
27. प्र. अब तुम कैसा महसूस कर रहे हो?
    उ. पहले से बहुत अच्छा

B

Q. *Who* are you? हू आर यू?
A. *I* am a businessman. आइम अ बिज़नेसमैन।
Q. *Who* are they? हू आर दे?
A. *They* are my relatives. दे आर माइ रिलेटिव्ज़.
Q. *Who* sang the song? हू सैंग द सौंग?
A. Lata did. लता डिड.
Q. *Who* will go to the market? हू विल गो टु द मार्किट?
A. *I* will. आइ विल.
Q. *Who* can do this work? हू कैन डू दिस वर्क?
A. *Radha* can. राधा कैन.
Q. *Whom* does she want to meet? हूम डज़ शी वॉन्ट टु मीट?
A. *Her* mother. हर मदर.
Q. *Who* is the owner of this house?
हू इज़ द ओनर ऑफ़ दिस हाउस?
A. *My* father. माइ फ़ादर.

C

Q. *How* does he go the school? हाउ डज़ ही गो टु स्कूल?
A. *By* bus. बाइ बस.
Q. *How* is your father? हाउ इज़ योर फ़ादर?
A. *He's* not well. हीज़ नॉट वेल.
Q. *How* did you go to Simla? हाउ डिड यू गो टु शिमला?
A. *By* train. बाइ ट्रेन.
Q. *How* did you return? हाउ डिड यू रिटर्न?
A. *By* bus. बाइ बस.
Q. *How* was your health in Simla? हाउ वॉज़ योर हैल्थ इन शिमला?
A. I *was* perfectly alright there. आइ वॉज़ परफेक्टली ऑलराइट देअर.
Q. *How* was the weather there? हॉउ वॉज़ द वेदर देअर?
A. *It* was quite cold. इट वॉज़ क्वाइट कोल्ड.
Q. *How* old is your son? हाउ ओल्ड इज़ योर सन?
A. *He* is twelve. ही इज़ ट्वेल्व।
Q. *How* far is Connaught Place from here?
हाउ फ़ार ईज़ कनॉट प्लेस फ्रॉम हिअर?
A. About six kilometres. अबाउट सिक्स किलोमीटर.
Q. *How* are you feeling now? हाउ आर यू फ़ीलिंग नाउ?
A. Much better. मच बेटर.

याद रखें (Remember)

A	B
1. What do you say?	I do not know what you say.
2. What did you say?	I do not remember what you said.
3. What had you said?	I do not remember what you had said.
4. What is this?	Tell me, what this is?
5. What was that?	Tell me, what that was.

A वाले वाक्य प्रश्नसूचक हैं, B वाले सीधे हैं। प्रश्नवाचक वाक्यों को सामान्य वाक्य में बदलने के लिए (1) सहक्रियाएं do, did आदि हट जाती हैं और इन सामान्य क्रियाओं का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे — What do you say का you say और What did you say का What you said आदि (2) प्रश्नसूचक वाक्यों में सहायक क्रिया is, was, had आदि हो तो वह क्रिया object के बाद चली जाती है। इसी प्रकार इन साधारण वाक्यों के प्रश्नसूचक वाक्य इस प्रकार बनेंगे।

A	B
1. I do not know *who* he is.	*Who* is he?
2. Tell me *whom* you want.	*Whom* do you want?
3. Tell me whose book that was.	*Whose* book was that?
4. I do not know how old you are.	*How* old are you.
5. Tell me *how* she knew.	*How* did she know?
6. You did not say *whom* you had promised.	*Whom* had you promised?

प्रश्नवाचक वाक्यों में साधारण वाक्य, साधारण वाक्यों से प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाने का अभ्यास कीजिए और इन्हें ऊंचे स्वर से बोलकर एक-दूसरे को सुनाइए।

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* 'What is' का छोटा रूप (Shortened forms) what's हैं। What's का बोलचाल की भाषा में अधिक प्रयोग होता है। अब लिखने में भी इन 'Shortened form' का काफी प्रयोग होने लगा है। ऐसे दूसरे उदाहरण हैं, It is के लिए It's, you are के लिए You're, I have के लिए I've आदि!

17 सत्रहवां दिन

th Day

प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य-रचना में Which, When, Where, Why आदि का प्रयोग

आप पीछे — What, Who, How शब्दों का प्रयोग करना सीख चुके हैं। अब यहां Which, When, Where, When, Why का प्रयोग सीखिए। Which शब्द का प्रयोग प्राय: बेजान वस्तुओं के संबंध में होता है। When काल बोधक शब्द है और Where स्थानबोधक। इसी प्रकार Why कारण को सूचित करता है। इन सब शब्दों के प्रयोग की एक विशेषता यह है कि इनके साथ do, did या कोई अन्य helping verb अवश्य लगाना पड़ता है।

Which

1. प्र. तुमने कौन सा गाना ज़्यादा पसंद किया– लता का या आशा का?
   उ. मुझे वही पसंद है, जो तुम्हें पसंद आया है।
2. प्र. तुम कौन सी पुस्तक पढ़ रहे हो?
   उ. वह उपन्यास जो तुमसे कल मांगकर लाया था।
3. प्र. तुम्हारी मनपसंद फ़िल्म कौन-सी है?
   उ. साउंड ऑफ़ म्यूज़िक।

When

4. प्र. तुम अपना पाठ कब दोहराते हो?
   उ. सवेरे।
5. **प्र. तुम हमारे यहां कब आ रहे हो?**
   उ. जैसे ही समय मिलेगा
6. प्र. तुम संजय से कब मिले?
   उ. मैं उससे पिछले शनिवार को मिला था, जब वह दिल्ली आया था।

D

Q. *Which* song did you prefer— Lata's or Asha's?
विच सौंग डिड यू प्रिफ़र— लता'ज़ ऑर आशा'ज?
A. I like what you have liked.आइ लाइक वॉट यू हैव लाइक्ड.

Q. *Which* book are you reading? विच बुक आर यू रीडिंग?
A. It's the novel *which* I borrowed from you yesterday.
इट्स द नॉवल विच आइ बॉरोड फ्रॉम यू येस्टरडे.

Q. *Which* is your favourite movie? विच इज़ योर फ़ेवरिट मूवी?
A Sound of Music. साउंड ऑफ़ म्यूज़िक.

E

Q. *When* do you revise your lesson? वेन डू यू रिवाइज़ योर लेसन?
A. In the morning. इन द मॉर्निंग.

Q. *When* are you coming to us? वेन आर यू कमिंग टू अस?
A. *As* soon as I get time. एज़ सून एज़ आइ गेट टाइम.

Q. *When* did you meet Sanjay? वेन डिड यू मीट संजय?
A. Last Saturday, when he came to Delhi.
लास्ट सैटर्डे वेन ही केम टु डेलही.

Where | **F**

7. प्र. आप कहां काम करते हैं?
   उ. एक सरकारी दफ़्तर में।

Q. *Where* do you work? वेअर डू यू वर्क?
A. In a government office. इन अ गवर्नमेण्ट ऑफ़िस.

8. प्र. आप पुस्तकें कहां से खरीदते हैं?
   उ. पुस्तक महल, दरियागंज।

Q. *From where* do you buy books? फ्रॉम वेअर डू यू बाइ बुक्स?
A. *From* Pustak Mahal, Daryaganj. फ्रॉम पुस्तक महल, दरियागंज.

9. **प्र. आप कहां रहते हैं?**
   उ. रूप नगर में?

Q. *Where* do you live? वेअर डू यू लिव?
A. In Roop Nagar. इन रूप नगर.

10 **प्र. आपने अपना सूट कहां से खरीदा?**
   उ. कनॉट प्लेस से?

Q. *From where* did you buy your suit?
फ्रॉम वेअर डिड यू बाइ योर सूट?
A. *From* Connaught Place. फ्रॉम कनॉट प्लेस.

Why | **F**

11. प्र. आप प्रतिदिन दूध क्यों पीते हैं?
   उ. अपना स्वास्थ्य बनाये रखने के लिए।

Q. *Why* do you drink milk daily? वाइ डू यू ड्रिन्क मिल्क डेली?
A. To maintain good health. टु मेन्टेन गुड हेल्थ.

12. प्र. मीनाक्षी की अध्यापिका इतनी कठोर क्यों है?
   उ. क्योंकि वह अपनी छात्राओं की उन्नति चाहती है?

Q. *Why* is Meenakshi's teacher so strict?
वाइ इज़ मीनाक्षी'ज़ टीचर सो स्ट्रिक्ट?
A. *Because* she is interested in the progress of her students.
बिकॉज़ शी इज़ इन्ट्रेस्टिड इन द प्रोग्रेस ऑफ़ हर स्टूडेन्ट्स.

13. प्र. तुम यहां क्यों बैठे हो?
   उ. अपने मित्र मनीष की प्रतीक्षा कर रहा हूं।

Q. *Why* are you sitting here? वाइ आर यू सिटिंग हिअर?
A. I'm wating for my friend Manish.
आइम वेटिंग फ़ॉर माइ फ्रेंड मनीष.

याद रखें (Remember)

Who और Which इन दोनों के अर्थ के अन्तर को समझिए। Who का अर्थ है कौन और Which का कौन-सा/कौन-सी। Who मनुष्यों के लिए प्रयोग होता है और Which पशुओं तथा बेजान वस्तुओं के लिए। इस बात को नीचे दिये गये उदाहरण से अच्छी तरह मन में बैठा लीजिए:

Who:	1. वहां कौन है ?	Who's there?
	2. आगरा कौन गया ?	Who went to Agra?
	3. यहां कौन आएगा ?	Who will come here?
Which:	4. मेज़ पर कौन-सी पुस्तक है ?	Which book is on the table?
	5. कौन-सी पुस्तक मेरी है ?	Which book is mine?
	6. आपका कौन-सा कुत्ता है ?	Which is your dog?

Who और Which का एक-एक अर्थ और भी है — 'जो'। नियम वही है। मनुष्यों के लिए Who = जो और बेजान वस्तुओं के लिए Which = जो, जैसे:

1. मैं उस लड़की से मिला जो मॉनीटर है।	I met the girl who is the monitor.
2. वह लड़की जो पियानो बजा रही है, मेरी बहन है।	The girl, who is playing the piano, is my sister.
3. जो पुस्तक तुम चाहते हो, चुन लो।	Select the book, which you want.

* Where’s—where is का संक्षिप्त बोलचाल का रूप है।

18 अठारहवां दिन

th Day

प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य-रचना (मिश्रित Miscellaneous)

प्रश्नवाचक रचना को दोहराइए। अब what, where आदि शब्दों के साथ is, are, am, was, were, has, have, had, will-shall, would, should आदि क्रियाओं को भी दोहरा लीजिए। इन क्रियाओं के प्रयोग से प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनते हैं। यह बात आप पीछे भी देख चुकें हैं, अब फिर से दोहराइए।

1. क्या हुआ?	What happened? वॉट हैपन्ड?
2. क्या आपने मुझे बुलाया था?	Had you asked for me? हैड यू आस्क्ड फ़ॉर मी?
3. मैं जाऊं?	May I go? मे आइ गो?
4. मैं भी चलूं?	May I accompany you? मे आइ अकम्पनी यू?
5. क्या तुम आ रहे हो?	Are you coming? आर यू कमिंग?
6. मैं लाऊं?	Should I bring it? शुड आइ ब्रिंग इट?
7. मिजाज़ कैसे हैं?/आप कैसे हैं?	How are you? हाउ आर यू?
8. समझे?	Did you understand?/ Understood? डिड यू अंडरस्टैण्ड?/अंडरस्टुड?
9. क्या मतलब?	What do you mean? वॉट डू यू मीन?
10. क्या साहब अंदर हैं?	Is the boss in? इज़ द बॉस इन?
11. कौन है?	Who is it? हू इज़ इट?
12. क्या है?	What's the matter? वॉट्स द मैटर?
13. दिनेश कहां है?	Where is Dinesh? वेअर इज़ दिनेश?
14. कब आये?	When did you come? वेन डिड यू कम?
15. शुरू करें?	Do/shall we begin? डू/शैल वी बिगिन?
16. एक काम करोगे?	Will you do one thing? विल यू डू वन थिंग?
17. क्या आज छुट्टी है?	Is it a holiday today? इज़ इट अ होलिडे टु डे?
18. तुम्हें मालूम है?	Do you know? डू यू नो?
19. तुम जाओगे नहीं?	Won't you go? वोन्ट यू गो?
20. क्या गड़बड़ है?	What's the trouble? वॉट्स द ट्रबल?
21. आप नाराज़ हैं क्या?	Are you angry? आर यू एंग्री?
22. बाल-बच्चे अच्छे हैं न?	How is the family? हाउ इज़ द फ़ैमिली?
23. मैं आपकी क्या सेवा करूं?	What can I do for you? वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?
24. हम अब कहां पर हैं?	Where are we now? वेअर आर वी नाऊ?
25. कैसे तकलीफ़ की?	What brings you here? वॉट ब्रिंग्ज यू हिअर?
26. क्या उसके पास कार है?	Has he got a car? हैज़ ही गॉट अ कार?
27. आपको मुझसे कुछ काम है?	Have you any business with me? हैव यू एनी बिज़नेस विद मी?

28. **कौन आ रहा है?**	**Who's coming?** हूज़ कमिंग?
29. रात के भोजन में क्या-क्या है?	What's the menu for dinner? वॉट्स द मेन्यू फ़ॉर डिनर?
30. यह किसका टेलीफ़ोन नंबर है?	Whose telephone number is this? हूज़ टेलीफ़ोन नंबर इज़ दिस?
31. **हम कहां मिलेंगे?**	**Where shall we meet?** वेअर शैल वी मीट?
32. **तुम वापस कैसे आ गये हो?**	**How have you come back?** हाउ हैव यू कम बैक?
33. तुमने पढ़ना क्यों छोड़ दिया?	Why have you dropped your studies? वाइ हैव यू ड्राप्ड योर स्टडीज़?
34. अब आपकी मां का क्या हाल है?	How is your mother now? हाउ इज़ योर मदर नाउ?
35. आप कैसे हैं?	How do you do? हाउ डू यू डू?*
36. यहां सबसे अच्छा होटल कौन-सा है?	Which is the best hotel here? विच इज़ द बेस्ट होटल हिअर?
37. **यह कौन है?**	**Who's this?** हू'ज़ दिस?
38. वागीश कहां है?	Where is Vagish? वेअर इज़ वागीश?
39. **क्या ख़बर है?**	**What's the news?** वॉट्स द न्यूज़?
40. अब फिर भेंट कब होगी?	When shall we meet again? वेन शैल वी मीट अगेन?
41. **तुम्हारी उम्र क्या है? या आपकी उम्र क्या है?**	How old are you? हाउ ओल्ड आर यू?
42. इस कोट में कितना खर्च पड़ा है? या इस कोट पर क्या लागत लगी है?	How much did this coat cost you? हाउ मच डिड दिस कोट कॉस्ट यू?
43. आप यहां कब से हैं?	For how long have you been here? फ़ॉर हाउ लौंग हैव यू बीन हिअर?
44. **कितना समय लगेगा?**	**How long will it take?** हाउ लौंग विल इट टेक?
45. आप क्यों तकलीफ़ करते हैं?	Why do you trouble yourself? वाइ डू यू ट्रबल योरसेल्फ़?
46. सड़क बन्द क्यों है?	Why is the road closed? वाइ इज़ द रोड क्लोज़्ड?
47. आज कौन सी पिक्चर लगी है?	What movie is on today? वॉट मूवी इज़ ऑन-टुडे?
48. **आप क्या ढूंढ रहे हैं?**	**What are you looking for?** वॉट आर यू लुकिंग फ़ॉर?
49. आप इतने गंभीर क्यों हैं?	Why are you so serious? वाइ आर यू सो सीरियस?
50. मैं आज की पार्टी में क्या पहनूं?	What should I wear in the party tonight? वॉट शुड आइ वेअर इन द पार्टी टुनाइट?
51. मैं आपसे कहां संपर्क करूं?	Where should I contact you? वेअर शुड आइ कॉन्टेक्ट यू?
52. क्या कोई परेशानी है?	Is there any problem? इज़ देअर एनी प्रॉब्लम?
53. क्या आज आप देर से आयेंगे?	Are you going to be late tonight? आर यू गोइंग टु बी लेट टुनाइट?
54. क्या मैं आपके साथ डांस कर सकता हूं?	May I have a dance with you? मे आइ हैव अ डांस विद यू?
55. क्या आप हमारे साथ बैठेंगे?	Would you like to join us? वुड यू लाइक टु जॉइन अस?
56. अब मुझे क्या करना चाहिए?	What should I do now? वॉट शुड आइ डू नाउ?
57. तुम मेरी बात क्यों नहीं सुनते?	Why don't you listen to me? वाइ डोंट यू लिसन टु मी?
58. इन दिनों पोशाकों में से कौन-सी मुझ पर अधिक फ़बेगी?	Which of these two dresses will suit me better? विच ऑफ़ दीज़ टू ड्रेसिज़ विल सूट मी बेटर?

59. मुझे उसे कहां ढूंढ़ना चाहिए?	Where should I look for him? वेअर शुड आइ लुक फॉर हिम?
60. मैं तुम्हारे लिए क्या कर सकता हूं?	What can I do for you? वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?
61. क्या मैं आपका फ़ोन इस्तेमाल कर सकता हूं?	May I use your phone? मे आइ यूज़ योर फ़ोन?
62. क्या आप उसे पहचानते हैं?	Do you recognize him? डू यू रेकोग्नाइज़ हिम?

याद रखें (Remember)

(i) आपने देखा कि is, am, are, was, were, had, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might आदि यदि वाक्य के आरम्भ में आएं तो प्रश्नसूचक वाक्य बनते हैं और बीच में (Subject के बाद) आएं तो साधारण वाक्य बनाते हैं, जैसे कि:

A	B
1. Am I a fool?	I am not a fool.
2. Were those your books?	Those were your books.
3. Had you gone there?	You had gone there.
4. Can I walk for a while?	I Can walk for a while.
5. May I come in?	I may come in.

(ii) नीचे दिये गये साधारण वाक्य ध्यान से देखिए:

1. मैं सुबह जल्दी उठता हूं।	I get up early in the morning.
2. मैं सुबह जल्दी उठा।	I got up early in the morning.

अब इनके नकारात्मक (Negative) वाक्य बनाइए:

3. मैं सुबह जल्दी नहीं उठता हूं।	I do not get up early in the morning.
4. मैं सुबह जल्दी नहीं उठा।	I did not get up early in the morning.

आपने देखा कि नकारात्मक वाक्य बनाने के लिए क्रमश: do और did जोड़ने पड़े। प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाने के लिए अन्दर वाला यही do और did सबसे पहले लगता है, जैसे:

5. क्या मैं जल्दी उठता हूं ?	Do I get up early in the morning?
6. क्या मैं जल्दी उठा ?	Did I get up early in the morning?

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* 'How do you do? का प्रयोग किसी से पहली बार मिलने पर किया जाता है। खासतौर पर जब दो व्यक्तियों का आपस में

परिचय कराया जाये। ‘हाउ डू यू डू’? के जवाब में ‘हाउ डू यू डू’ ही कहा जाता है।

19उन्नीसवां दिन
th Day

पीछे आपने सभी कालों (Tenses) में क्रियाओं के रूप दोहराये हैं। सोलहवें और सत्रहवें दिनों में आपने प्रश्नवाचक वाक्यों की रचना भी की है। क्या आप बतला सकते हैं कि सकारात्क (Assertive) वाक्यों को प्रश्नवाचक (Interrogative) वाक्य बनाने के लिए आपको क्या करना पड़ा है? आपने सभी कालों (Tenses) में सहायक क्रियाओं को वाक्य में सबसे पहले लाकर प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाये हैं। (1) अब आप ध्यान दीजिए कि नकारात्मक (negative) वाक्य कैसे बनते हैं। वाक्य में do, did, is, are, was, were, have, had, will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might आदि क्रियाओं के साथ not जोड़ा जाता हैं, इससे नकारात्मक वाक्य बनते हैं। (2) लिखने में do not, did not, were not, have not, can not, will not, shall not, should not, would not आदि प्राय: ये रूप आते हैं, किन्तु बोलने में अधिकतर संक्षिप्त रूपों का प्रयोग होता है, जो क्रमश: इस प्रकार हैं: don't, didn't, weren't, can't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't आदि। वैसे आजकल लिखने व बोलने में दोनों रूप प्रचलित हैं, do not की तरह पूरे और don't की तरह संक्षिप्त भी। आइए, इनका अभ्यास करें।

नकारात्मक वाक्य (Negative Sentences)

1. मैं नहीं जानता।	I do not know. आइ डू नॉट नो.
2. मैं कुछ नहीं पूछता।	I don't ask anything. आइ डोन्ट आस्क एनिथिंग.
3. वह यहां नहीं आती।	She does not come here. शी डज़ नॉट कम हिअर.
4. वह चाय बनाना नहीं जानती।	She doesn't know how to make tea. शी डज़न्ट नो हाउ टु मेक टी.
5. कल उससे बस नहीं छूटी।	He did not miss the bus yesterday. ही डिड नॉट मिस द बस येस्टरडे.
6. हमने यह समाचार नहीं सुना है।	We haven't heard this news. वी हैवन्ट हर्ड दिस न्यूज.
7. आज ठंड नहीं है।	It's not cold today. इट्स नॉट कोल्ड टुडे.
8. वह स्त्री शादीशुदा नहीं है।	She isn't married. शी इज़न्ट मैरिड.
9. आज हम लेट नहीं हैं।	We are not late today. वी आर नॉट लेट टुडे.
10. वह दिल्ली में नहीं थी।	She wasn't in Delhi. शी वॉज़न्ट इन डेलही.
11. हमने लेक्चर नहीं सुना।	We didn't attend the lecture. वी डिडन्ट अटेंड द लैक्चर.
12. उसके लड़का नहीं है।	She doesn't have a son. शी डज़न्ट हैव अ सन.
13. मुझे चिट्ठी नहीं मिली।	I didn't get the letter. आइ डिडन्ट गेट द लेटर.
14. उनके पास सवारी नहीं थी।	They didn't have a conveyance. दे डिडन्ट हैव अ कन्वेयन्स.
15. घबराओ नहीं, पिताजी नाराज़ नहीं होंगे।	Don't worry, father won't be angry. डोन्ट वरी, फ़ादर वोन्ट बी ऐंग्री.
16. पिता जी कल घर पर नहीं होंगे।	Father won't be at home tomorrow. फ़ादर वोन्ट बी एट होम टुमॉरो.
17. हमें कल देरी नहीं होगी।	We shan't (shall not) be late tomorrow. वी शान्ट (शैल नॉट) बी लेट टुमॉरो.
18. मैं मोटर साइकिल नहीं चला सकता।	I can't ride a motor cycle. आइ कान्ट राइड अ मोटर साइकिल.
19. आपको अपनी कार फ़ुटपाथ पर नहीं चलानी चाहिए।	You must not drive the car on the footpath. यू मस्ट नॉट ड्राइव द कार ऑन द फ़ुटपाथ.
20. मैं परसों समय पर नहीं पहुंच सका।	I couldn't reach in time day before yesterday. आइ कुडन्ट रीच इन टाइम डे बिफ़ोर येस्टरडे.
21. आपको वहां जाने की आवश्यकता नहीं है।	You needn't go there. यू नीडन्ट गो देअर.
22. कोई समस्या नहीं।	No problem. नो प्रॉब्लम.
23. अब हमें अपनी दुकान बंद नहीं करनी चाहिए न।	Now we shouldn't close our shop, should we? नाउ वी शुडन्ट क्लोज़ आवर शॉप, शुड वी?

प्रश्नवाची नकारात्मक वाक्य (Interrogative-cum-Negative Sentences)

1. अंग्रेज़ी में It’s hot today, is’nt it- ‘आज बड़ी गर्मी है, ना?’ अथवा It’s not cold today, is it? ‘आज ठंड नहीं हैं, ना?’ इस तरह के वाक्य बहुत प्रचलित हैं। इन्हें अंग्रेज़ी में Tail Questions कहा जाता है। ये वाक्य के अन्त में छोटे से प्रश्न के रूप में रहते हैं। यदि वाक्य सकारात्मक होता है, तो Tail Question नकारात्मक होता है, जैसे —It’s hot today, isn’t it? (देखिए वाक्य 26, 28) और यदि वाक्य, नकारात्मक होता है, तो Tail Question सकारात्मक होता है, जैसे — It is not cold today, is it? (देखिए वाक्य 27, 30)।

2. वाक्य के पहले भाग में सहायक क्रिया (helping verb) के साथ not पृथक या मिला हुआ दोनों चलते हैं, जैसे— is not, isn’t. परन्तु Tail Question में isn’t आदि

संक्षिप्त रूप ही अधिक मान्य हैं, वही प्राय: प्रयुक्त होते हैं। इसे नीचे दिये वाक्यों से आप भलीभांति समझ सकते हैं।

24. आज बड़ी गर्मी है, है ना?	It is very hot today, isn't it? इट इज़ वेरी हॉट टुडे, इज़न्ट इट?
25. वे विदेशी हैं, है ना?	They are foreigners, aren't they? दे आर फ़ॉरिनर्ज़, आर्न्ट दे?
26. तुम खुश नहीं थे, है ना?	You weren't pleased, were you? यु वर्न्ट प्लीज़्ड, वर यू?
27. कल रविवार होगा, है ना?	It will be Sunday tomorrow, won't it? इट विल बी सन्डे टुमॉरो, वोन्ट इट?
28. हम जल्दी तैयार हो जाएंगे, है ना?	We'll be ready soon, won't we? वील बी रेडी सून, वोन्ट वी?
29. मैं यह कभी नहीं भूल सकता, है ना?	I can never forget it, can I? आइ कैन नेवर फ़ोरगेट इट, कैन आइ ?
30. कल मैं तुम्हारे साथ नहीं होऊंगा, है ना?	I Won't be with you tomorrow, will I? आइ वोन्ट बी विद यू टुमॉरो, विल आइ?
31. हम पहले मिल चुके हैं, है ना?	We have met before, haven't we? वी हैव मेट बिफ़ोर, हेवन्ट वी?
32. तुमने अपना काम समाप्त कर लिया था, है ना?	You had finished your work, hadn't you? यू हैड फ़िनिश्ड योर वर्क, हैडन्ट यू?
33. तुम मेरे लिए पुस्तक नहीं ढूंढ सके, है ना?	You couldn't find the book for me, could you? यू कुडन्ट फ़ाइन्ड द बुक फ़ॉर मी, कुड यू?
34. मीनाक्षी को देर से नहीं सोना चाहिए, है ना?	Meenakshi shouldn't go to bed late, should she? मीनाक्षी शुडन्ट गो टु बेड लेट, शुड शी?
35. अमिताभ को 12 बजे तक अवश्य प्रतीक्षा करनी चाहिए, है ना?	Amitabh must wait till 12 O'clock, mustn't he? अमिताभ मस्ट वेट टिल ट्वेल्व ओ क्लॉक, मसन्ट ही?
36. उसने अंग्रेज़ी नहीं सीखी है, है ना?	She hasn't learnt English, has she? शी हैज़न्ट लर्न्ट इंगलिश, हैज़ शी?
37. तुम अंग्रेज़ी बोल सकते हो, है ना?	You can speak English, can't you? यू कैन स्पीक इंग्लिश, कान्ट यू?
38. महान व्यक्ति समय खराब नहीं करते, है ना?	Great men don't waste their time, do they? ग्रेट मेन डोन्ट वेस्ट देअर टाइम, डू दे?
39. तुम्हें इस तरह की बात नहीं करनी चाहिए, है ना?	You should not talk like this, should you? यू शुड नॉट टॉक लाइक दिस, शुड यू?
40. कितना सुहावना मौसम है, है ना?	How pleasant it is, isn't it? हाउ प्लेज़ेंट इट इज़, इज़न्ट इट?
41. तुम अपने को बहुत होशियार समझते हो, है ना?	You think yourself to be very clever, don't you? यू थिंक योरसेल्फ टु बी वेरी क्लेवर, डोंट यू?
42. वह जल्दी ही यहां आ जायेगी, है ना?	She will reach here soon, won't she? शी विल रीच हिअर सून, वोन्ट शी?
43. वह फिर घर देर से पहुंची, है ना?	She reached home late again, didn't she? शी रीच्ड होम लेट अगेन, डिडन्ट शी?
44. हम अपना बचपन कभी नहीं भूलते, है ना?	We never forget our childhood, do we? वी नेवर फॉरगेट ऑवर चाइल्डहुड, डू वी?

याद रखें (Remember)

A

A. अंग्रेज़ी में कुछ संयुक्त शब्दों के संक्षिप्त रूप (Short forms) बोलने में अत्यंत प्रचलित हैं, इन्हें बोलने व लिखने का अभ्यास कीजिए: do + not = don't does + not = doesn't did+ not = didn't is + not = isn't are + not = aren't was + not = wasn't were + not = weren't has + not = hasn't have + not = haven't had + not + hadn't will + not = won't shall + not = shan't can + not + can't must + not = mustn't could + not = couldn't need + not = needn't would + not = wouldn't should + not = shouldn't B. n't forms में n पर लगे संकेत ('n') को Apostrophe कहते हैं।

B

Tail-Question वाले वाक्यों में से विपरीतार्थी जोड़े काम आते हैं। इनको एक साथ स्मरण कीजिए: I did—didn't I?
He is— isn't he?
We are— aren't we?
He was—wasn't he?
You were—weren't you?
They had—hadn't they?
We can—can't we?
You will—won't you?
I shall—shan't I?
I must—mustn't I?
You would—wouldn't you?
She could—couldn't she?
She does not— does she?
You do not—do you?
अब इनका अभ्यास कीजिए: I am— I'm आइम
We are— We're वी'अर
You are—You're यू'अर
They are— They're दे'अर
He is—He's ही'ज़
She is—She's शी'ज़

इसी प्रकार से I have, you have, she/he has के लिए I've आइ' व, यू'अव, शी.'ज/ही.'ज तथा We have और They have के लिए We've वी'अव, They've दे'अव आदि का प्रयोग होता है।

21 इक्कीसवां दिन

st Day

तीसरा अभियान (3rd Expedition)

तीसरे अभियान में हम आपको अंग्रेज़ी व्याकरण के कुछ आवश्यक पहलुओं का ज्ञान कराने जा रहे हैं। यदि आप इन्हें जान लेंगे तो आपको, मोटे रूप से, अंग्रेज़ी समझ आ जायेगी। 21 वें से 30 वें दिन के इस सेट में इन विषयों पर ध्यान दिया गया है: **Pronouns, Prepositions, Co-relatives, Active and Passive Voices, Temporals, Countable Nouns, Emphasis and some notable usages .** अन्त में प्रचलित **Idioms** भी दिये गये हैं। प्रत्येक दिन के अन्त में इन विषयों से संबंधित टिप्पणियां भी दी गयी हैं, जो विषय को समझने में बड़ी सहायक होंगीं।

आप एक-एक दिन में एक-एक करके अभ्यास कीजिए और फिर देखिए कि आप कहां-से-कहां पहुंच गये हैं। सबसे पहले सर्वनाम शब्दों का प्रयोग देखिए।

He, She, It, This, That, You, I, Each, None आदि सर्वनाम शब्दों का प्रयोग

a, an, the — articles (सामान्य प्रयोग)

1. यह हमीद है।	*This* is Hamid. दिस इज़ हमीद.
2. वह अंजु है।	*That* is Anju. दैट इज़ अंजु.
3. यह उसकी पुस्तक है।	*This* is *his* book. दिस इज़ हिज़ बुक.
4. वह उसकी डायरी है।	*That* is *her* diary. दैट इज़ हर डायरी.
5. वह लड़का है।	*He* is a boy. ही इज़ अ बॉय.
6. वह लड़की है।	*She* is a girl. शी इज़ अ गर्ल.
7. तुम एक छात्र हो।	*You* are a student. यू आर अ स्टूडेंट.
8. मैं एक क्लर्क हूं।	*I* am a clerk. आइ ऐम अ क्लर्क.
9. यह एक कलम है।	*This* is *a* pen. दिस इज़ अ पेन.
10. यह एक सेब है।	*This* is *an* apple. दिस इज़ ऐन ऐपल.
11. वह एक संतरा है।	*That's an* orange. दैट्स ऐन ऑरेन्ज.
12. मैं एक भारतीय हूं।	*I* am *an* Indian. आइ ऐम ऐन इण्डियन.
13. यही कैमरा मैं चाहता हूं।	*This* is *the* camera *I* need. दिस इज़ द कैमरा आइ नीड.
14. वही पेन मैंने भी खरीदा है।	*I* have also bought *the* same pen. आइ हैव आल्सो बॉट द सेम पेन.
15. यह पेन्सिल है, और यह मेरी है।	*This* is a pencil, and *it's mine*. दिस इज़ अ पेन्सिल, ऐंड इट्स माइन.
16. वह मेरी बकरी है।	*That* is *my* goat. दैट इज़ माइ गोट.
17. ये मेरी पुस्तकें हैं। वे तुम्हारी पुस्तकें हैं।	*These* are *my* books. *Those* are *your* books. दीज़ आर माइ बुक्स. दोज़ आर योर बुक्स.
18. ये पुस्तकें मेरी हैं। वे पुस्तकें तुम्हारी हैं।	*These* books are *mine*. *Those* books are *yours*. दीज़ बुक्स आर माइन. दोज़ बुक्स आर योर्ज़.
19. ये तुम्हारी कापियां हैं। वे मेज़ पर हैं।	*These* are *your* notebooks. *They* are on the table. दीज़ आर योर नोटबुक्स. दे आर ऑन द टेबल.

20. वे मेरे कंचे हैं। वे कई रंगों के हैं।	*Those* are *my* marbles. *They* are of different colours. दोज़ आर माइ मारबल्ज़. दे आर ऑफ़ डिफ़रेंट कलर्ज़.
21. भारत हमारा देश है। हम उसके वासी हैं।	India is *our* country. *We* are *her* inhabitants. इण्डिया इज़ आवर कन्ट्री. वी आर हर इनहैबिटेन्ट्स.
22. श्री शर्मा तुम्हारे टीचर हैं।	Mr. Sharma is *your* teacher. मि. शर्मा इज़ योर टीचर.
23. मीता और नीता बहनें हैं। उनकी मां टीचर है।	Meeta and Neeta are sisters. *Their* mother is a teacher. मीता ऐंड नीता आर सिस्टर्ज़. देअर मदर इज़ अ टीचर.
24. इन लड़कों में से हरेक खेल खेलता है।	*Each* of *these* boys plays games. ईच ऑफ़ दीज़ बॉयज़ प्लेज़ गेम्ज़.
25. वहां हममें से कोई न गया।	*None* of *us* went there. नन ऑफ़ अस वेन्ट देअर.
26. हमने छुट्टियों के दौरान आनन्द मनाया।	*We* enjoyed ourselves during the holidays. वी एंजॉयड आवर- सेल्व्ज़ ड्यूरिंग द हॉलीडेज़.
27. जो कोई सबसे बढ़िया रहेगा, उसे पुरस्कार मिलेगा।	*Whoever* is the best, will get a prize. हूएवर इज़ द बेस्ट, विल गेट अ प्राइज़.
28. वह मुझसे बुद्धिमान है।	*He* is wiser than *me*. ही इज़ वाइज़र दैन मी.
29. मेरी लिखाई मेरे भाई की लिखाई से अच्छी है।	*My* handwriting is better than *that* of *my* brother. माइ हैंडराइटिंग इज़ बेटर दैन दैट ऑफ़ माइ ब्रदर.
30. वह क्या है? वह एक कंप्यूटर है।	What is *that?—That's* a computer. वॉट इज़ दैट? दैट्स अ कंप्यूटर.
31. वे क्या हैं? वे कैसेट्स हैं।	What are *those?— Those* are cassettes. वॉट आर दोज़? दोज़ आर कैसेट्स.
32. यह एक बक्सा है। ये इसके कोने हैं।	*This* is a box. *These* are *its* corners. दिस इज़ अ बॉक्स, दीज़ आर इट्स कॉर्नर्ज़.
33. वह कौन है? वह मेरा सहकर्मी है।	*Who* is *that?— He* is *my* colleague. हू इज़ दैट?—ही इज़ माइ कोलीग.
34. यह किसकी कापी है?	*Whose* notebook is *this?* हूज़ नोटबुक इज़ दिस?
35. यह उसकी है।	It's *hers*. इट्स हर्ज़.
36. यह गाय हमारी है।	*This* cow is *ours*. दिस काउ इज़ आवर्ज़.
37. वे दुकानें उनकी हैं।	*Those* shops are *theirs*. दोज़ शॉप्स आर देअर्ज़.
38. यह घड़ी मेरी है।	*This* watch is *mine*. दिस वॉच इज़ माइन.
39. यह घर आपका है।	*This* house is *yours*. दिस हाउस इज़ योर्ज़.
40. यह घर उसका है।	*This* house is *his*. दिस हाउस इज़ हिज़.
41. तुम्हारी पेंटिंग सबसे अच्छी है।	*Your* painting is the best. योर पेंटिंग इज़ द बेस्ट.
42. मैं तुम्हारी बात ध्यान से सुन रहा हूं।	*I* am listening to you attentively. आइ एम लिसनिंग टु यू अटेंटिवली.
43. दरवाज़ा कौन खटखटा रहा है।	*Who* is knocking at the door? हू इज़ नॉकिंग एट द डोर?
44. वह किसका सामान है?	*Whose* luggage is this? हूज़ लगेज इज़ दिस?
45. वह बिल्कुल दूसरी बात है।	*That's* a different matter altogether. दैटस अ डिफ़रेंट मैटर ऑलटुगेदर.
46. उसे समय की कीमत नहीं मालूम है।	*She* doesn't know the value of time. शी डज़न्ट नो द वैल्यू ऑफ़ टाइम.
47. तुम उन पर भरोसा कर सकते हो।	*You* can trust them. यू कैन ट्रस्ट देम.
48. मैं आपका बहुत एहसानमंद हूं।	*I* am very thankful to *you*. आइ ऐम वेरी थैंकफुल टु यू.

49. उसके रुखे व्यवहार से मुझे धक्का पहुंचा।	*His* rude behaviour shocked *me*. हिज़ रूड बिहेविअर शॉक्ड मी.
50. मुझे तुमसे ऐसी आशा कभी न थी।	*I* never expected this from *you*. आइ नेवर एक्सपेक्टिड फ्रॉम यू.
51. ये किताबें मेरे किसी काम की नहीं हैं।	*These* books are of no use to *me*. दीज़ बुक्स आर ऑफ़ नो यूज़ टु मी.
52. हमें अभी तुरंत जाना है।	*We* have to leave at once. वी हैव टु लीव ऐट वन्स.
53. उनके दिल्ली में अपने मकान हैं।	*They* have their own houses in Delhi. दे हैव देअर ओन हाउसिज़ इन डेल्ही.
54. वह दुकान मेरे चाचा जी की है।	*That* shop belongs to *my* uncle. दैट शॉप बिलोंग्ज़ टु माइ अंकल.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. He (She) और That इन सभी का अर्थ 'वह' होता है, पर He, She पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम हैं, ओर That निश्चयवाचक सर्वनाम है अर्थात् He और She क्रमश: पुरुष और स्त्री का बोध कराते हैं, पर That (वह)उस वस्तु का निश्चय करता है — यह नहीं, वह लाओ Bring that, not this.
2. This, That निश्चयवाचक सर्वनाम हैं। These (This का) बहुवचन रूप है और Those (that) का।
3. This (यह) That (वह) — इन दोनों के बदले अगले वाक्यों में (प्रसंग में) It का प्रयोग होता है।
4. These (ये), Those (वे) — इन दोनों के बदले अगले वाक्यों में (प्रसंग रूप में) They आता है।
5. A, an, the— ये articles कहलाते हैं। A, an अनिश्चयवाची है; the निश्चयवाची? सामान्यतया जिन संज्ञा शब्दों की गिनती हो सकती है (countable), उनके आगे a या an लगता है, जैसे — a book, a cat, an animal, an egg आदि। जिन Countable शब्दों का पहला वर्ण a, e, i, o, u, में से कोई हो या जो वावल या स्वर की ध्वनि से शुरू हो, वहां प्राय: 'an' लगता है, जैसे — an animal, an Indian आदि। जिन शब्दों में पहला वर्ण व्यंजन होता है, वहां a लगता है — a man, a cat आदि।
6. The निश्चयवाची article किसी व्यक्ति या वस्तु विशेष को इंगित करने के लिए प्रयोग में आता है, जैसे —This is the book I need. यह है (वही) पुस्तक जिसकी मुझे आवश्यकता है, आदि। इसका विस्तृत प्रयोग आगे देखें।

This, that, these, those are called Demonstrative adjectives when

they are used with nouns. For example: This book, that dog, these shops, those houses etc.

22 बाईसवां दिन

nd Day

स्थान सूचक (Platial) शब्दों से बने वाक्य

[on, at, into, in, of, to, by, with, besides, beside, between, among, over]

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा की वाक्य-रचना में Prepositions का बड़ा महत्त्व है। अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के शिक्षार्थियों को बड़ी सावधानी से इनका ठीक-ठाक प्रयोग सीखना चाहिए। कुछ Prepositions का संबंध स्थान, समय, विधि आदि के साथ होता है, और कुछ का कारण और गति के साथ। इन सबका अभ्यास बड़े ध्यान से करना चाहिए। Prepositions प्राय: संज्ञा, सर्वनाम या संज्ञार्थक अन्य शब्दों का दूसरे शब्दों के साथ संबंध बताती हैं। ये प्राय: संज्ञा आदि शब्दों से पहले लगती हैं, और कभी-कभी बाद में भी जोड़ी जाती हैं। इनका अच्छी तरह अभ्यास करके आप इन्हें आसानी से सीख सकते हैं।

1. पुस्तक बक्से पर है।	The book is on the box. द बुक इज़ ऑन द बॉक्स.
2. कंप्यूटर मेज पर है।	The computer *is* on the table.द कम्प्यूटर इज़ ऑन द टेबल.
3. क्लर्क सीट पर बैठा है।	The clerk is *at* the seat. द क्लर्क इज़ ऐट द सीट.
4. दरवाज़े पर हरा पेन्ट है।	There is green paint *on* the door. देअर इज़ ग्रीन पेन्ट ऑन द डोर.
5. पिताजी दरवाजे पर खड़े हैं।	Father is standing *at* the door. फ़ादर इज़ स्टैंडिंग ऐट द डोर.
6. मैं आपको घर पर मिलूंगा।	I'll see you *at* home. आइल सी यू ऐट होम.
7. नेहा कमरे में आ रही है।	Neha is coming *into* the room. नेहा इज़ कमिंग इन्टू द रूम.
8. रिषभ और रिचा दोनों कमरे में हैं।	Rishabh and Richa, both are *in* the room. रिषभ ऐंड रिचा बोथ आर इन द रूम.
9. मैं गिलास में थोड़ा-सा और पानी डालूंगा।	I'll pour some more water *into* the glass. आइल पोर सम मोर वॉटर इन्टू द ग्लास.
10. लोग नदी में स्नान करते हैं।	People bathe *in* the river. पीपल् बेद इन द रिवर.
11. हम बेन्च पर बैठते हैं, किन्तु पिताजी आराम कुर्सी पर बैठते हैं।	We sit *on* the bench, but father sits *in* the arm-chair. वी सिट ऑन द बेन्च, बट फ़ादर सिट्स इन दी आर्म-चेयर.
12. आप मेज़ पर क्यों नहीं बैठते?	Why don't you sit *at* the table. वाइ डोन्ट यू सिट ऐट द टेबल?
13. फ़्लॉपी को कंप्यूटर में डाल दो।	Feed the floppy *into* the Computer. फ़ीड द फ़्लॉपी इनटू द कम्प्यूटर.
14. वह अपने मकान के अंदर गया।	He went *into* his house. ही वेन्ट इन्टू हिज़ हाउस.
15. पत्र कूरियर द्वारा भेजा गया।	The letter was sent *by* Courier. द लेटर वॉज़ सेन्ट बाइ कूरियर.
16. इसका हिन्दी से अंग्रेज़ी में अनुवाद कीजिए।	Please translate this from Hindi *into* English. प्लीज़ ट्रान्सलेट दिस फ्रॉम हिन्दी इन्टू इंगलिश.
17. हिमाचल प्रदेश उत्तर भारत में है।	Himachal Pradesh is *in* Northern India. हिमाचल प्रदेश इज़ इन नॉर्दर्न इंडिया.
18. नेपाल भारत के उत्तर की ओर है।	Nepal is *to* the North of India. नेपाल इज़ टु द नॉर्थ ऑफ़ इण्डिया.
19. किसी व्यक्ति को उसके कपड़ों से मत जानो।	Don't judge a person *by* his clothes. डोन्ट जज अ पर्सन बाइ हिज़ क्लोद्ज़.

20. मैंने दूध से बोतल भरी।	I filled the bottle *with* milk. आइ फ़िल्ड द बॉटल विद मिल्क.
21. बाघ शिकारी द्वारा मारा गया (बाघ शिकारी ने मारा)।	The tiger was killed by the hunter. द टाइगर वॉज़ किल्ड बाइ द हंटर.
22. वह अपने भाई के पास खड़ा हुआ।	He stood *beside* his brother. ही स्टुड बिसाइड हिज़ ब्रदर.
23. मैं हॉकी के अलावा फ़ुटबाल खेलता हूं।	I play football *besides* hockey. आइ प्ले फ़ुटबॉल बिसाइड्ज़ हॉकी.
24. मिठाई को कीर्ति और सौरभ के बीच बांट दो।	Divide the sweets *between* Kirti and Saurabh. डिवाइडं द स्वीट्स बिटवीन कीर्ति ऐंड सौरभ.
25. शिमला पहाड़ों के बीच स्थित है।	Simla is situated *amongst* the mountains. शिमला इज़ सिचुएटेड अमंगस्ट द माउंटेन्ज़.
26. वह सिद्धान्तप्रिय व्यक्ति है।	He is a man *of* principles. ही इज़ ए मैन ऑफ़ प्रिंसिपल्ज़.
27. यमुना नदी पर पुल है।	There is a bridge *over* the Yamuna river. देअर इज़ अ ब्रिज ओवर द यमुना रिवर.
28. गेंद को दीवार से ऊपर फेंको।	Throw the ball *over* the wall. थ्रो द बॉल ओवर द वॉल.
29. पक्षी पुल के ऊपर उड़ रहे हैं।	Birds are flying *over* the bridge. बर्ड्ज़ आर फ़्लाइंग ओवर द ब्रिज़.
30. नावें पुल के नीचे हैं।	Boats are *under* the bridge. बोट्स आर अंडर द ब्रिज़.
31. अमर, राज और विकास के बीच में खड़ा है।	Amar is standing *between* Raj and Vikas. अमर इज़ स्टैंडिंग बिटवीन राज ऐंड विकास.
32. राम सीता से आगे हैं। सीताजी राम के पीछे खड़ी हैं।	Ram is in *front* of Sitaji, Sitaji is standing *behind* him. राम इज़ इनफ्रन्ट ऑफ़ सीताजी, सीताजी इज़ स्टैंडिंग बिहाइण्ड हिम.
33. हम दुविधा में हैं। पैसा मेरी जेब में है। मछलियां समुद्र में हैं। अन्दर कौन है?	We are *in* confusion. The money is *in* my pocket. Fishes are *in the sea*. Who is *inside?* वी आर इन कन्फ़्यूज़न. द मनी इज़ इन माइ पॉकेट. फ़िशेज़ आर इन द सी. हू इज़ इनसाइड?

याद रखें (Remember)

1. at, on, in, with, by आदि prepositions का प्रयोग प्राय: स्थानवाची (platial) और कालवाची (temporal) शब्दों के रूप में होता है। ऊपर आपने

स्थानवाची अर्थ में इनके प्रयोग देखे हैं।

2. on और at दोनों का अर्थ 'पर' है तथा by और with का अर्थ 'साथ' है। पर इन शब्दों के अर्थ में बड़ा अन्तर है। 'on the table' का अर्थ है 'मेज के ऊपर', और 'at the table' का अर्थ है मेज पर। by का अर्थ 'के द्वारा' (से) तथा with का अर्थ 'के साथ' (से) है।

3. between दो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं के लिए आता है। among दो से अधिक व्यक्तियों के साथ प्रयोग में आता है।

4. Kamla is going in her room. (X)

Kamla is going into her room. (✓) ऊपर के दो वाक्यों में दूसरा वाक्य ठीक है। यहां अर्थ है बाहर से कमरे के अंदर जाना न कि अंदर चलना-फिरना, इसलिए into प्रयोग किया गया है। in का प्रयोग वहां होता है, जहां यह अर्थ निकले कि वह कमरे के अंदर ही कोई काम कर रही है। उदाहरण के लिए नीचे दिये वाक्य पढ़िए:

कमला अपने कमरे के अंदर है।	Kamla is in her room. कमला इज़ इन हर रूम.
कमला अपने कमरे के अंदर सो रही है।	Kamla is sleeping in her room. कमला इज़ स्लीपिंग इन हर रूम.

23 तेईसवां दिन
rd Day

Co-relatives and Temporals अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में कहीं-कहीं वाक्यों में एक-दूसरे के पूरक शब्द (Co-relatives) प्रयोग में आते हैं। ये शब्द एक-दूसरे से संबंधित होते हैं। दो पदों में से एक के थोड़ा भी बदल जाने से वाक्य अशुद्ध हो जाता है, इसलिए इनका ठीक से अभ्यास कर लेना चाहिए, जैसे — no sooner-than, scarcely-when, hardly-when आदि। कुछ शब्द अपने साथ दूसरा पूरक शब्द नहीं रखते, जैसे — As soon as we reached the bus stop, the bus left , यहां as soon as के साथ कोई शब्द नहीं आया। इसी पाठ के (B) भाग में काल सूचक शब्दों (Temporals) का प्रयोग करना सिखलाया गया है।

A

वाक्यों में एक-दूसरे के पूरक शब्द (Co-relatives)

as soon as —x	as long as—x	unless—x	As far as—x
x— until	x—till	x—so that	no sooner—than
hardly— when	not only—but also	either—or	neither—nor
although—	Scarcely—when	rather—than	no less—than
thé—the			

1. जैसे ही हम स्टेशन पर पहुंचे, गाड़ी चल पड़ी।	As *soon as* we reached the staion, the train left. ऐज़ सून ऐज़ वी रीच्ड द स्टेशन, द ट्रेन लेफ़्ट.
2. ज्योंही वह अपना भाषण देने के लिए उठा, हाल तालियों से गूंजने लगा।	*No sooner* did he get up to deliver his speech than the hall began to resound with cheers. नो सूनर डिड ही गेट अप टु डिलिवर हिज़ स्पीच दैन द हॉल बिगैन टु रिज़ाउन्ड विद चिअर्ज़.
3. हम अभी स्कूल पहुंचे ही थे कि घंटी बज गयी।	We had *scarcely* reached the school *when* the bell rang. वी हैड स्कैर्सली रीच्ड द स्कूल वेन द बेल रैन्ग.
4. वह अभी घर से निकला ही था कि बारिश शुरू हो गयी।	He had *hardly* left his house *when* it started raining. ही हैड हार्डली लेफ़्ट हिज़ हाउस वेन इट स्टार्टिड रेनिंग.
5. जब तक आप तेज़ न दौड़ेंगे, गाड़ी को नहीं पकड़ सकेंगे।	*Unless* you run fast, you will not be able to catch the train. अनलेस यू रन फ़ास्ट, यू विल नॉटबी एबल टु कैच द ट्रेन.
6. जब तक मैं वापिस न आऊं, कृपया आप मेरा इंतज़ार कीजिए।	Please wait for me *until* I return. प्लीज़ वेट फ़ॉर मी अंटिल आइ रिटर्न.
7. जब तक मैं यहां हूं, आपको किसी बात की चिंता करने की ज़रूरत नहीं।	*As long* as I am here, you needn't worry about anything. ऐज़ लौंग ऐज़ आइ ऐम हिअर, यू नीडन्ट वरी अबाउट एनिथिंग.
8. यद्यपि वह गरीब है, वह ईमानदार है।	*Although* he is poor, he is honest. ऑल्दो ही इज़ पुअर, ही इज़ ऑनेस्ट.
9. जहां तक मुझे याद है, वह कल यहां पर था।	*As far as* I remember, he was here yesterday. ऐज़ फ़ार ऐज़ आइ रिमेम्बर, ही वॉज हिअर येस्टरडे.
10. छत की मरम्मत करा लो ताकि वह चू न पड़े।	Get the roof repaired *before* it *should* leak. गेट द रूफ़ रिपेअर्ड बिफ़ोर इट शुड लीक.

11. प्रथम आने की तो बात ही क्या, वह तो परीक्षा में पास भी नहीं हो सकता?	*What to speak of* standing first, he cannot even pass the examination. वॉट टु स्पीक ऑफ़ स्टैंडिंग फ़र्स्ट, ही कैननॉट ईवन पास द इग्ज़ैमिनेशन?
12. वह असफल हो जाएगा, परंतु नकल नहीं करेगा।	He would *rather* fail *than* copy. ही वुड रादर फ़ेल दैन कॉपी.
13. प्रदेश के मुख्य मंत्री से कम महत्त्वपूर्ण व्यक्ति ने राष्ट्रीय झंडा नहीं फहराया।	*No less* a person *than* the Chief Minister of the state hoisted the National Flag. नो लेस अ परसन दैन द चीफ़ मिनिस्टर ऑफ़ द स्टेट होइस्टेड द नैशनल फ़्लैग.
14. वह इतना बीमार है कि बिस्तर से उठ नहीं सकता।	He is *so* ill *that* he cannot rise from his bed. ही इज़ सो इल दैट ही कैननॉट राइज़ फ़्रॉम हिज बेड.
15. वह परिश्रम करता है ताकि पुरस्कार पाये।	He works hard *so that* he may win a prize. ही वर्क्स हार्ड सो दैट ही मे विन अ प्राइज़.
16. जितना ऊंचा चढ़ें, उतनी ठंडक बढ़ती जाती है।	*The* higher you go *the* colder it is. द हायर यू गो, द कोल्डर इट इज़.
17. तुम या तुम्हारा भाई दोषी है।	*Either* you *or* your brother is guilty. आइदर यू ऑर योर ब्रदर इज़ गिल्टी.
18. वह इतनी कमज़ोर है कि चल नहीं सकती।	She is *too* weak *to* walk. शी इज़ टू वीक टु वॉक.
19. वह इतनी कमज़ोर है कि वह चल नहीं सकती।	She is *so* weak *that* she cannot walk. शी इज़ सो वीक दैट शी कैननॉट वॉक.
20. मैं सिर्फ़ अंग्रेज़ी ही नहीं, फ़्रैन्च भी पढ़ता हूं।	I study *not only* English *but* French *also*. आइ स्टडी नॉट ओन्ली इंगलिश बट फ़्रेंच ऑल्सो.
21. न समीर और न ही उसका भाई इस पार्क में खेलता है।	*Neither* Samir *nor* his brother plays in this park. नाइदर समीर नॉर हिज़ ब्रदर प्लेज़ इन दिस पार्क.

B

कालसूचक शब्दों (Temporals) से बने वाक्य

22. आज जनवरी उन्नीस सौ सतहत्तर (1977) है, वह मार्च में आयेगा।	It is January nineteen hundred and seventy seven (1977). He will come *in* March. इट इज़ जैनवरी नाइन्टीन हंड्रेड ऐंड सेवंटी सेवन (1977) ही विल कम इन मार्च.
23. आपको उसका पत्र तीन दिनों में मिलेगा।	You will receive his letter *in* three days. यू विल रिसीव हिज़ लेटर इन थ्री डेज़.
24. आपको उसका पत्र तीन दिनों के अन्दर मिलेगा।	You will receive his letter *within* three days. यू विल रिसीव हिज़ लेटर विदिन थ्री डेज़.
25. हम 20 फरवरी को मुंबई के लिए रवाना हुए।	We left for Mumbai *on* 20th February. वी लेफ़्टफ़ॉर मुंबई ऑन ट्वेन्टियथ फ़ेब्रुअरी.
26. तुम साढ़े तीन बजे आये।	You came *at* half past three. यू केम ऐट हाफ़ पास्ट थ्री.
27. दुकान सवेरे 9.30 बजे से शाम 7.00 बजे तक खुलती है।	The shop remains open *from* 9.30 A.M. to 7 P.M. द शॉप रिमेन्ज़ ओपन फ्रॉम नाइन थर्टी ए.एम. टु सेवन पी.एम.
28. वह कल यहां 5 बजे तक थी।	She was here *till* 5.00 P.M. yesterday. शी वॉज हिअर टिल फ़ाइव पी.एम. येस्टरडे.
29. लड़के प्रतिदिन एक घंटा खेलते हैं।	The boys play every day *for* one hour. द बॉयज़ प्ले एवरी डे फ़ॉर वन ऑवर.
30. वह कल से यहां रह रहा है।	He has been staying here *since* yesterday. ही हैज़ बीन स्टेइंग हिअर सिंस येस्टरडे.
31. वह यहां 1770 से है।	She has been living here *since* 1970. शी हैज़ बीन लिविंग हिअर सिंस नाइन्टीन सेवंटी.
32. आप कितने अरसे से अंग्रेज़ी सीख रहे हैं?	*How long* have you been learning English? हाउ लौंग हैव यू बीन लर्निंग इंगलिश?
33. मैंने उसे पहले ही लिख दिया है।	I have *already* written to her/him. आइ हैव ऑलरेडी रिटन टु हर/हिम.
34. वह अभी नहीं आई।	She hasn't come *yet*. शी हैज़न्ट कम येट.
35. शो शुरू होने वाला है।	The show is *about* to start. द शो इज़ अबाउट टु स्टार्ट.
36. मैं अपना काम अगले शुक्रवार तक समाप्त कर लूंगा।	I shall finish my work *by* next Friday. आइ शैल फ़िनिश माइ वर्क बाइ नेक्स्ट फ्राइडे.
37. वह अपना काम लगभग चार घंटों में पूरा कर लेगा।	He'll finish his work *in about* four hours. ही 'ल फ़िनिश हिज़ वर्क इन अबाउट फ़ोर आवर्ज़.
38. मैं वहां लगभग तीन बजे पहुंचा।	I reached there *around* 3 o'clock. आइ रीच्ड देअर अराउण्ड थ्री ओ 'क्लॉक.
39. जब राधा आयी, तो माधव चला गया।	*When* Radha came, Madhav left. वेन राधा केम, माधव लेफ़्ट.
40. उषा होने तक उसकी सांस उखड़ने लगी।	He was breathing his last *by* dawn. ही वॉज़ ब्रीदिंग हिज़ लास्ट बाइ डॉन।
41. मैं उसे अगले महीने मिलूंगा।	I'll meet him *next* month. आइल मीट हिम नेक्स्ट मन्थ.

30. वह कल से यहां रह रहा है।	He has been staying here *since* yesterday. ही हैज़ बीन स्टेइंग हिअर सिंस येस्टरडे.
31. वह यहां 1770 से है।	She has been living here *since* 1970. शी हैज़ बीन लिविंग हिअर सिंस नाइन्टीन सेवंटी.
32. आप कितने अरसे से अंग्रेज़ी सीख रहे हैं?	*How long* have you been learning English? हाउ लौंग हैव यू बीन लर्निंग इंगलिश?
33. मैंने उसे पहले ही लिख दिया है।	I have *already* written to her/him. आइ हैव ऑलरेडी रिटन टु हर/हिम.
34. वह अभी नहीं आई।	She hasn't come *yet*. शी हैज़न्ट कम येट.
35. शो शुरू होने वाला है।	The show is *about* to start. द शो इज़ अबाउट टु स्टार्ट.
36. मैं अपना काम अगले शुक्रवार तक समाप्त कर लूंगा।	I shall finish my work *by* next Friday. आइ शैल फ़िनिश माइ वर्क बाइ नेक्स्ट फ्राइडे.
37. वह अपना काम लगभग चार घंटों में पूरा कर लेगा।	He'll finish his work *in about* four hours. ही'ल फ़िनिश हिज़ वर्क इन अबाउट फ़ोर आवर्ज़.
38. मैं वहां लगभग तीन बजे पहुंचा।	I reached there *around* 3 o'clock. आइ रीच्ड देअर अराउण्ड थ्री ओ'क्लॉक.
39. जब राधा आयी, तो माधव चला गया।	*When* Radha came, Madhav left. वेन राधा केम, माधव लेफ़्ट.
40. उषा होने तक उसकी सांस उखड़ने लगी।	He was breathing his last *by* dawn. ही वॉज़ ब्रीदिंग हिज़ लास्ट बाइ डॉन।
41. मैं उसे अगले महीने मिलूंगा।	I'll meet him *next* month. आइल मीट हिम नेक्स्ट मन्थ.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. No sooner did Rajendra reach the School than the bell started ringing.

इस प्रकार के वाक्यों में शब्दों के जोड़े बरते जाते हैं। No sooner अकेला नहीं आ सकता। इसके साथ than का लगना आवश्यक है। शब्दों का यह जोड़ा मिलकर वाक्य के दो भागों did Rajendra reach the school और bell started ringing को जोड़ता है इसीलिए ऐसे जुड़वां शब्दों को co-relatives या co-relative conjunctions (पूरक संयोजक) कहते हैं।

2. महीनों के नाम के साथ in, वारों के नाम के साथ on, समय बतलाने में at का प्रयोग होता है — जैसे in February, on Tuesday, at 6.30 A.M. इसी प्रकार morning और evening के पूर्व in, और noon और night से पूर्व at लगता है — in the morning, in the evening, at night, at noon आदि।
3. जहां कार्य आरंभ होने का निश्चित दिन या समय दिया हो, वहां since का प्रयोग होता है, जैसे — since 1974, since last Tuesday, since 4 A.M., और जहां समय की केवल अवधि दी गयी हो, वहां for लगता है जैसे — for two months, for three years. आदि।

24 चौबीसवां दिन

th Day

क्रिया तथा अन्य शब्दों के साथ आवश्यक Prepositions का प्रयोग

(from, by, with, in, of, for, in, into, against, on, over, about)

अंग्रेज़ी में शब्दों के साथ कुछ खास Prepositions लगाने का नियम है। तो आइए, शब्दों के साथ कुछ और Preposition लगाने का अभ्यास करें। आप देखेंगे कि Preposition लगाने के पीछे कोई-न-कोई नियम काम कर रहा है। समझिए, सीखिए और प्रयोग कीजिए।

From

1. लड़का स्कूल से अनुपस्थित था।	The boy was absent *from* school. द बॉय वॉज़ ऐब्सेंट फ्रॉम स्कूल.
2. **आपको धूम्रपान से बचना चाहिए।**	You must abstain/refrain *from* smoking. यू मस्ट एब्सटेन/रिफ्रेन फ्रॉम स्मोकिंग. You must *avoid* smoking. यू मस्ट अवॉइड स्मोकिंग.
3. मेरे चाचा आसाम से आये हैं।	My uncle has come *from* Assam. माइ अंकल हैज़ कम फ्रॉम आसाम.
4. वह मुझे वहां जाने से रोकता है।	He prevents/stops me *from* going there. ही प्रिवेंट्स/स्टॉप्स मी फ्रॉम गोइंग देअर.

By

5. उसकी कम्पनी दिन दूनी रात चौगुनी उन्नति कर रही है।	His company is progressing *by* leaps and bounds. हिज़ कंपनी इज़ प्रोग्रेसिंग बाइ लीप्स ऐंड बाउंड्स.
6. मेरे पिताजी मेरे साथ थे।	I was *accompanied by* my father. आइ वॉज अकम्पनीड बाइ माइ फ़ादर.
7. इस खबर से घबराइए नहीं।	Please don't *get disturbed by* this news. प्लीज डोन्ट गेट डिस्टर्ब्ड बाइ दिस न्यूज़.
8. मेरी कहानी सुनकर उसका बड़ा मनोरंजन हुआ।	He was *highly amused by* my story. ही वॉज़ हाइली अम्यूज़्ड बाइ माइ स्टोरी.
9. यह पैकिट सोमवार तक मुंबई पहुंच जाना चाहिए।	This packet should reach Mumbai *by* Monday. दिस पैकिट शुड रीच मुंबई बाइ मंडे.

With

10. तुम दूसरों से व्यवहार करना नहीं जानते। You don't know how to *deal with* others.
यू डोन्ट नो हाउ टु डील विद अदर्ज़.

11. हमें अंग्रेज़ी भाषा से परिचित होना चाहिए। We should be *acquainted with* the English language.
वी शुड बी अक्विन्टेड विद दि इंगलिश लैंगुएज.

12. वह चित्रकला की प्रतिभा से संपन्न था। He was *gifted with* a talent for painting.
ही वॉज़ गिफ़्टेड विद ए टैलेण्ट फ़ॉर पेंटिंग.

13. हम उसके व्यवहार से उकता गये। We got *fed up with* his behaviour.
वी गॉट फ़ेड अप विद हिज़ बिहेवियर.

14. मेरा अधिकारी (बॉस) मुझ पर मेहरबान था। My boss was *pleased with* me. माइ बॉस वॉज़ प्लीज़्ड विद मी.

In

15. वह अपने काम में तल्लीन था। He was *absorbed/busy in* his work.
ही वॉज़ एब्ज़ॉर्ब्ड/बिज़ी इन हिज़ वर्क.

16. शीला एक कान से बहरी है। Shiela is *deaf in* one ear. शीला इज़ डेफ़ इन वन इअर.

17. तुम्हें अपने व्यवहार में नम्र होना चाहिए। You must be *polite in* your behaviour.
यू मस्ट बी पुलाइट इन योर बिहेवियर.

18. वह संगीत में दक्ष है। He is *well versed in* music. ही इज़ वेल वर्स्ड इन म्यूज़िक.

Of

19. उसे सफलता का पूरा भरोसा था। He was *sure of* success. ही वॉज़ श्योर ऑफ़ सक्सैस.

20. वह अपनी कमज़ोरी को पूरी तरह जानता है। He is fully *aware of* his weakness.
ही इज़ फुली अवेयर ऑफ़ हिज़ वीकनेस.

21. उसे आम बहुत भाते हैं। He is *fond of* mangoes. ही इज़ फ़ौंड ऑफ़ मैंगोज़.

22. उसे देखकर मुझे उसके भाई की याद आती है। He *reminds* me of his brother. ही रिमाइंड्स मी ऑफ़ हिज़ ब्रदर.

23. **यह मेरे लिए बड़े सम्मान की बात है।** It's a matter *of* great honour for me.
इट्स अ मैटर ऑफ़ ग्रेट ऑनर फ़ॉर मी.

For

24. क्या वह परीक्षा के लिए तैयारी कर रही है? Is she *preparing/studying* for the test?
इज़ शी प्रिपेअरिंग/स्टडींग फ़ॉर द टेस्ट?

25. मैं हमेशा उसका खयाल रखता हूं। I always *care for* him. आइ ऑलवेज़ केअर फ़ॉर हिम.

26. उसने अपने दुर्व्यवहार के लिए मुझसे क्षमा मांगी। He *apologized* to me *for* his misbehaviour.
ही अपोलोजाइज़्ड टु मी फ़ॉर हिज़ मिसबिहेविअर.

27. उसे पैसे का हिसाब देना होगा। He'll have to *account for* the money.
ही 'इल हैव टु एकाउण्ट फ़ॉर द मनी.

To

28. **वह धूम्रपान का आदी हो गया है।** — He is *addicted to* smoking. ही इज़ एडिक्टेड टु स्मोकिंग.

29. उसने नियमों के विरुद्ध आचरण किया। — He acted *contrary to* the rules. ही एक्टेड कॉन्ट्रेरी टु द रूल्स.

30. कुछ लोग स्वास्थ्य की हानि करके पैसा कमाते हैं। — Some people *prefer* wealth *to* health.
सम पीपल् प्रिफ़र वेल्थ टु हैल्थ.

31. उसने मामला उच्चाधिकारियों के सामने रख दिया। — He *referred* the matter *to* the higher authorities.
ही रेफ़र्ड द मैटर टु द हायर अथॉरिटीज़.

Into

32. **पुलिस ने मामले की जांच-पड़ताल की।** — The police *inquired/looked into* the matter.
द पोलिस इनक्वॉयर्ड/लुक्ड इन्टु द मैटर.

33. हमने अपनी पुस्तकें अपने बस्तों में डालीं। — We *put* our books *into* our bags.
वी पुट आवर बुक्स इन्टु आवर बैग्स.

34. वह कमरे में गया। — He went *into* the room. ही वैन्ट इन्टु द रूम.

Against

35. मैं तुम्हारे शत्रुओं के विरुद्ध तुम्हें सदा चेताता हूं। — I always *warn* you *against* your enemies.
आइ ऑलवेज़ वॉर्न यू अगेंस्ट योर एनीमीज़.

36. डॉक्टर ने उसे बहुत अधिक काम करने के विरुद्ध चेतावनी दी। — The doctor *warned* him *against* working too hard.
द डॉक्टर वॉर्न्ड हिम अगेंस्ट वर्किंग टू हार्ड.

On

37. उसकी आलोचना तथ्यों पर आधारित नहीं है। — His criticism is not *based on* facts.
हिज़ क्रिटिसिज़्म इज़ नॉट बेस्ड ऑन फ़ैक्ट्स.

38. **आप वहां जाने पर क्यों तुले हुए हो?** — Why are you *bent on* going there? वाइ आर यू बेंट ऑन गोइंग देअर?

39. **हम उस पर भरोसा नहीं कर सकते।** — We cannot *rely on* him. वी कैननॉट रिलाइ ऑन हिम.

Over

40. बर्फ सड़क पर फैली है। — Snow/Ice is *scattered over* the road.
स्नो/आइस इज़ स्कैटर्ड ओवर द रोड.

41. पुल नदी के ऊपर है। — The bridge is *over* the river. द ब्रिज इज़ ओवर द रिवर.

About

42. मां अपने लड़के के स्वास्थ्य के बारे में चिंतित है। — The mother is worried about her son's health.
द मदर इज़ वरीड अबाउट हर सन्ज़ हैल्थ.

43. वह सीमा के बारे में पूछ रही थी। — She was enquiring *about* Seema.
शी वॉज इन्क्वॉयरिंग अबाउट सीमा.

[Phrase Prepositions]

44. **मैं जाने ही वाला था।**	I was *about* to go. आइ वॉज़ अबाउट टु गो.
45. वह कठिन परिश्रम के फलस्वरूप सफल हुआ।	He succeeded *by dint of* hard work. ही सक्सीडिड बाइ डिंट ऑफ़ हार्ड वर्क.
46. हमें अपने देश के लिए हर वस्तु का त्याग करने के लिए तैयार रहना चाहिए।	We should be prepared to sacrifice everything *for the sake of* our country. वी शुड बी प्रिपेअर्ड टु सैक्रीफ़ाइस एवरीथिंग फ़ॉर द सेक ऑफ़ आवर कंट्री.
47. हमें अपने मित्रों की भलाई में रहना चाहिए।	We should act *in favour of* our friends. वी शुड एक्ट इन फ़ेवर ऑफ़ आवर फ्रेंड्ज़.
48. हमें जीने के लिए काम करना होगा।	We must work *in order* to live. वी मस्ट वर्क इन आर्डर टु लिव.
49. बहुत व्यस्त होने के बावजूद भी मेरा मित्र मुझसे मिलने आया।	My friend came to see me inspite of being very busy. माइ फ्रेंड केम टु सी मी इन्स्पाइट ऑफ बींग वेरी बिज़ी.
50. क्या तुम मेरी घड़ी के बदले में अपनी साइकिल दे सकते हो?	Can you give me your bicycle in exchange for my watch? कैन यू गिव मी योर बाइसिकल इन एक्सचेंज फ़ॉर माइ वॉच?
51. उसे मीटिंग के बीच में से अचानक जाना पड़ा।	He had to leave suddenly in the midst of meeting. ही हैड टु लीव सडन्ली इन द मिड्स्ट ऑफ अ मीटिंग.
52. पंकज को पैसे की कमी की वजह से पढ़ाई छोड़नी पड़ी।	Pankaj had to give up studies for want of money. पंकज हैड टु गिव अप स्टडीज़ फ़ॉर वॉन्ट ऑफ़ मनी.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. क्रिया आदि शब्दों के साथ में कुछ खास Prepositions का प्रयोग होता है। उनका अच्छी तरह से अभ्यास कर लेना चाहिए। प्राय: abstain, prevent, recover के साथ में from का प्रयोग होता है। इसी प्रकार accompany, replace, deal, please, satisfy के साथ में with का; prepare, care, apologise के साथ में for का; addict, prefer, refer के साथ to का; base, rely के साथ on का प्रयोग होता है। इनके बारे में ऊपर के उदाहरणों से आप अच्छी तरह समझ सकते हैं।
2. Prepositions के कुछ प्रयोग बहुत पक्के हो गये हैं। Phrase Prepositions ज्यों-के-त्यों प्रयोग में आते हैं। उदाहरण के लिए 'by dint of', 'for the sake of', 'in order to', 'in the midst', 'on the eve of', आदि के प्रयोग ऊपर के वाक्यों में देखिए। ऐसे सैकड़ों Phrase prepositions अंग्रेज़ी में प्रचलित हैं। इनसे सीखने वाले को शब्द भंडार बढ़ाने में बड़ी सहायता मिलती है।

25 पच्चीसवां दिन

th Day

कर्तृवाच्य और कर्मवाच्य (Active Voice And Passive Voice)

हम बात को दो प्रकार से कह सकते हैं — (i) कर्त्ता (doer) पर बल देते हुए, जैसे — Hari learns the first lesson . (हरि पहला पाठ याद करता है); (ii) कर्म (receiver) पर बल देते हुए, जैसे — The first lesson is learnt by Hari . (पहला पाठ हरि द्वारा याद किया जाता है)। पहले प्रकार के वाक्य को कर्तृवाच्य (active voice) और दूसरे प्रकार को कर्मवाच्य (passive voice) कहते हैं। बातचीत करते समय कहने वाले को अपने आशय के अनुसार वाक्य का चुनाव करना चाहिए। इनका अभ्यास कीजिए और बोलने की अपनी योग्यता को बढ़ाइए।

Active Voice	Passive Voice
1. वह गीत गाता है। He sings a song. ही सिंग्ज़ अ सॉन्ग.	उससे गीत गाया जाता है। A song is sung by him. अ सॉन्ग इज़ संग बाइ हिम.
2. मैंने संदेश पहुंचा दिया। I delivered the message आइ डिलिवर्ड द मैसिज.	संदेश पहुंचा दिया गया। The message was delivered. दि मैसिज वॉज़ डिलिवर्ड.
3. वे क्रिकेट खेलेंगे। They'll play cricket. देइल प्ले क्रिकेट.	क्रिकेट उनके द्वारा खेली जाएगी। Cricket will be played by them. क्रिकेट विल बी प्लेड बाइ देम.
4. क्या तुम चिट्ठी लिख रहे हो? Are you writing a letter? आर यू राइटिंग अ लेटर?	क्या तुमसे पत्र लिखा जा रहा है? Is a letter being written by you? इज़ अ लेटर बींग रिटन बाइ यू?
5. मज़दूर नहर खोद रहे थे। Labourers were digging a canal. लेबरर्ज़ वर डिगिंग अ कैनाल.	मज़दूरों द्वारा नहर खोदी जा रही थी। A canal was being dug by the labourers. अ कैनाल वॉज़ बींग डग बाइ द लेबर्ज़.
6. क्या तुमने यह काम कर लिया है? Have you finished this job? हैव यू फ़िनिश्ड दिस जॉब?	क्या यह काम तुम्हारे द्वारा किया गया है? Has this job been finished by you? हैज़ दिस जॉब बीन फ़िनिश्ड बाइ यू?
7. क्या गाड़ी आने से पहले तुम अपना सामान बांध चुके होगे? Will you have packed your luggage before the train's arrival? विल यू हैव पैक्ड योर लगेज बिफ़ोर द ट्रेन्ज़ अराइवल?	क्या गाड़ी आने से पहले तुम्हारा सामान बांधा जा चुका होगा? Will your luggage have been packed before the train's arrival? विल योर लगेज़ हैव बीन पैक्ड बिफ़ोर द ट्रेन्ज़ अराइवल?
8. उसकी मदद करो। Help him. हेल्प हिम.	(तुम) अपने द्वारा उसकी सहायता होने दो। Let him be helped. (By you). लेट हिम बी हेल्प्ड. (बाइ यू).

वाच्य बदलने के लिए अर्थात् कर्ता के स्थान, पर कर्म को प्रमुख बनाने के लिए दो बातें की जाती हैं, 1. वाक्य में कर्ता को कर्म तथा कर्म को कर्ता बना दिया जाता है, जैसे — (i) राम (कर्ता) ने रावण (कर्म) को मारा। Rama killed Ravana. (ii) कर्मवाच्य में यह हो जाएगा — रावण राम द्वारा मारा गया। Ravana was killed by Rama. 2. क्रिया का रूप बदल जाता है अर्थात् किसी भी काल (Tense) का कर्तृवाच्य हो उसमें मुख्य क्रिया Participle के रूप में हो जाती है, जैसे — do, doing आदि बदलकर done हो जाएंगे और दूसरे इसके साथ एक सहायक क्रिया is, was, be being, has been आदि और जुड़ जाती है। ऊपर दिये गये वाक्यों में विभिन्न कालों के रूप देखिए।

नीचे कुछ वाक्य दिये गये हैं जो कर्मवाच्य हैं, लेकिन इनमें कर्ता गायब है, अत: कर्ता न होने के कारण इनको कर्तृवाच्य में बदलना संभव नहीं है। ऐसे वाक्यों में कर्ता ज़रूरी नहीं होता। इस प्रकार के बहुत से वाक्य हो सकते हैं, यह ध्यान रहे।

कर्मवाच्य (Passive Voice)

9. ताजमहल बहुत खर्च करके बनवाया गया था।	The Taj *was built* at an enormous cost. द ताज वॉज़ बिल्ट ऐट ऐन इनॉर्मस कॉस्ट.
10. मकई वर्षा ऋतु में बोई जाती है।	Maize *is sown* in the rainy season. मेज़ इज़ सोन इन द रेनी सीज़न.
11. आपको आपकी लापरवाही की सज़ा दी जाएगी।	You *will be punished* for your negligence. यू विल बी पनिश्ड फ़ॉर योर नेग्लिजेंस.
12. उस पर चोरी का दोष लगाया गया था।	He *was accused of* theft. ही वॉज़ अक्यूज़्ड ऑफ़ थेफ़्ट.
13. सभी पेपर देखे जा चुके होंगे।	All the papers *will have been marked.* ऑल द पेपर्स विल हैव बीन मार्क्ड.
14. क्या आपको धोखा दिया गया है?	*Have* you *been cheated.* हैव यू बीन चीटेड.
15. क्या उसे सूचना दे दी गयी है?	*Has* he *been* informed? हैज़ ही बीन इन्फ़ॉर्म्ड?
16. वह चीनी आक्रमणकारियों से लड़ता हुआ मारा गया।	He *was killed* fighting the Chinese aggressors. ही वॉज़ किल्ड फ़ाइटिंग द चाइनीज़ अग्रैसर्ज़.
17. गांधीजी का जन्म 2 अक्तूबर, 1869 के दिन हुआ।	Gandhiji *was born* on 2nd October 1869. गांधीजी वॉज़ बोर्न ऑन सैकिण्ड ऑक्टूबर एटीन सिक्सटी-नाइन.
18. नौचंदी का मेला हर साल मेरठ में लगता है।	The Nauchandi fair *is held* every year at Meerut. द नौचण्डी फ़ेयर इज़ हेल्ड एवरी ईयर ऐट मेरठ.
19. दिल्ली से कई दैनिक समाचार पत्र प्रकाशित होते हैं।	Many dailies *are published* from Delhi. मेनी डेलीज़ आर पब्लिश्ड फ्रॉम डेलही.
20. उन्हें आपसे मिलकर खुशी होगी।	He *will be pleased/happy* to see you. ही विल बी प्लीज़्ड/हैपी टु सी यू.
21. मैं बाढ़ का प्रकोप देखकर दंग रह गया।	I *was surprised* to see the fury of the floods. आइ वॉज़ सरप्राइज़्ड टु सी द फ़्यूरी ऑफ़ द फ़्लड्ज़.
22. कहा जाता है कि शिवाजी भगवान शिव के अवतार थे।	*It is said/believed* that Shivaji was an incarnation of Lord Shiva. इट इज़ सैड/बिलीव्ड दैट शिवाजी वॉज़ ऐन इनकार्नेशन ऑफ़ लॉर्ड शिवा.

Imperative Sentences (a) आज्ञार्थक एवं प्रार्थनापरक (Imperative mood) कर्तृवाच्य के वाक्य कर्मवाच्य में बदलने के लिए 'let' का प्रयोग वाक्य के शुरू में होता है। (b) कई बार कर्तृवाच्य (active voice) वाक्यों में आशय के अनुसार (request ओर should) आदि शब्द जोड़कर कर्म वाच्य (passive voice) के वाक्य बनाये जाते हैं। दोनों का अभ्यास कीजिए। उदाहरण के लिए आगे दिये वाक्य ध्यान से पढ़िए।

23. यह काम करो। Do this work. डू दिस वर्क.	वह काम होने दो। Let this work be done (by you). लेट दिस वर्क बी डन (बाइ यू).
24. उसे बैठने को कहो। **Ask him to sit down.** आस्क हिम टु सिट डाउन.	उसे बैठने को कहा जाए। Let him be asked to sit down. लैट हिम बी आस्क्ड टु सिट डाउन.
25. उसे दण्ड दो। Punish him. पनिश हिम.	उसे दण्ड दिया जाए। Let him be punished (by you) उसे दण्ड दिया जाए।
26. रिक्त स्थान का विज्ञापन दो। **Advertise the post.** ऐडवर्टाइज़ द पोस्ट.	रिक्त स्थान का विज्ञापन दिया जाए। Let the post be advertised. लैट द पोस्ट बी ऐडवर्टाइज़्ड.
27. **कृपया धूम्रपान न कीजिए।** Please don't smoke. प्लीज़ डोन्ट स्मोक.	आपसे धूम्रपान न करने का अनुरोध किया जाता है। You are requested not to smoke. यू आर रिक्वेस्टिड नॉट टु स्मोक.
28. अनुशासनहीनता को प्रोत्साहन मत दो। Don't encourage indiscipline. डोन्ट एन्करेज इन्डिसिप्लिन.	अनुशासनहीनता को प्रोत्साहित न किया जाए। Indiscipline shouldn't be encouraged. इन्डिसिप्लिन शुडन्ट बी एन्करेज्ड.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. (a) Rama killed Ravana.
(b) Ravana was killed by Rama.
पहला वाक्य कर्तृवाच्य (Active Voice) का है; दूसरा वाक्य कर्मवाच्य (Passive Voice)। कर्तृवाच्य में कर्ता (राम) प्रधान है, और कर्मवाच्य में कर्म (रावण)।
2. कर्तृवाच्य से कर्मवाच्य में बदलने पर कई बार by का प्रयोग किया जाता है, जैसे — (i) Ravana was killed by Rama (ii) Cricket will be played by them. आदि।
3. कई बार कर्मवाच्य में by का प्रयोग नहीं होता, जैसे — (i) Let your lesson be learnt. (ii) He was charged with theft. आदि।

एक बात अच्छी तरह समझ लीजिए — कर्मवाच्य बहुधा वहां प्रयोग में आता है, जहां कथन में कर्म पर बल दिया जाता है। उदाहरण के रूप में यदि कोई छात्र कहना नहीं मानता तो कहा जाता है — You will be punished for your negligence . (तुम्हारी लापरवाही पर तुम्हें दंड दिया जाएगा)। आप (कर्तृवाच्य में) ऐसे भी कह सकते थे — The teacher will punish you for your negligence . (अध्यापक तुम्हारी लापरवाही पर तुम्हे दंड देगा)। आप ध्यान देंगे तो आपको पता चलेगा कि इसका वह प्रभाव

नहीं पड़ता जैसा पहले वाक्य का पड़ता है, क्योंकि यहां महत्त्व दंड देने वाले का नहीं है, 'दंड' का है, इसीलिए दंड 'क्रिया' पर बल दिया जाना चाहिए।

26 छब्बीसवां दिन

th Day

वाक्य-परिवर्तन (Transformation of Sentences)

हम एक ही बात को एक से अधिक तरीकों से कह सकते हैं। जब हम एक बात को दूसरे तरीके से कहते हैं, तो हम देखते हैं कि वाक्य बदल गये हैं, पर अर्थ वही है। इसी क्रिया को वाक्य-परिवर्तन (transformation of sentences) कहते हैं।
पीछे कर्तृवाच्य और कर्मवाच्य (Active Voice and Passive Voice) की जानकारी दी गई थी, वह भी वाक्य परिवर्तन का एक प्रकार है। अब यहां हम दूसरे प्रकारों के बारे में जानकारी हासिल करते हैं।
वाक्य के कई प्रकार हैं — प्रश्नवाचक (Interrogative), निश्चयात्मक (Assertive), विस्मयादिबोधक (Exclamatory), विध्यर्थक (Imperative), सकारात्मक (Affirmative), नकारात्मक (Negative) आदि। आइए, एक प्रकार के वाक्य को दूसरे प्रकार में बदलें और फिर देखें कि अर्थ में कितनी समानता है। इस विधि से आप अपनी बात को एक से अधिक तरीकों से कहने की क्षमता बढ़ा सकते हैं।

प्रश्नवाचक (Interrogative)	निश्चयात्मक (Assertive)
1. कोई इतना अपमान सह सकता है क्या? Can anybody/anyone bear such an insult? कैन एनीबडी/एनीवन बेअर सच ऐन इन्सल्ट? Who can bear such an insult? हू कैन बेअर सच ऐन इन्सल्ट?	कोई व्यक्ति इतना अपमान नहीं सह सकता। Nobody/No one can bear such an insult. नोबडी/नो वन कैन बेअर सच ऐन इन्सल्ट.
2. क्या स्वास्थ्य धन से अधिक मूल्यवान नहीं है? Is not health more precious than wealth? इज़ नॉट हेल्थ मोर प्रेशस दैन वेल्थ?	स्वास्थ्य धन से अधिक मूल्यवान है। Health is more precious than wealth. हेल्थ इज़ मोर प्रेशस दैन वेल्थ.
3. क्या पार्टी में उन्हें आनंद नहीं आया? Did they not enjoy at the party? डिड दे नॉट एन्जॉय ऐट द पार्टी?	उन्हें पार्टी में आनंद आया। They enjoyed the party. दे एन्जॉयड ऐट द पार्टी.
4. क्या हम कभी इन भले दिनों को भूल सकेंगे? Shall we ever forget these good days. शैल वी एवर फ़ॉरगेट दीज़ गुड डेज़?	हम इन भले दिनों को कभी नहीं भूल सकेंगे। We'll never be able to forget these good days. वी 'इल नैवर बी एबल टु फ़ॉरगेट दीज़ गुड डेज़.
विस्मयादिबोधक (Exclamatory)	**सकारात्मक (Affirmative)**
5. कितना सुंदर दृश्य था वह! What a beautiful scene/lovely sight it was! वॉट अ ब्यूटिफ़ुल सीन/लवली साइट इट वॉज़!	दृश्य बहुत सुंदर था। It was a beautiful scene/lovely sight. इट वॉज़ अ ब्यूटिफ़ुल सीन/लवली साइट.
6. रात को कितनी ठंड है! What a cold night it is! वॉट अ कोल्ड-नाइट इट इज़!	रात को बड़ी ठंड है। It is a bitterly/terribly cold night. इट इज़ अ बिटर्ली/टैरिब्ली कोल्ड नाइट.

7. हम कितना कठिन जीवन व्यतीत करते हैं!
What a hard life we live/lead!
वॉट अ हार्ड लाइफ़ वी लिव/लीड!

हम बड़ा कठिन जीवन व्यतीत करते हैं।
We live/lead a very hard life.
वी लिव/लीड अ वेरी हार्ड लाइफ़.

विध्यर्थक (Imperative)

8. **कृपया दरवाज़ा खोलिए।**
Please open the door.
प्लीज़ ओपन द डोर.

9. कृपया एक कप दूध लीजिए।
Please have a cup of milk.
प्लीज़ हैव अ कप ऑफ़ मिल्क.

10. चुप रहो।
Please keep quiet.
प्लीज़ कीप क्वायट.

प्रश्नवाचक (Interrogative)

क्या आप कृपया दरवाज़ा खोलेंगे?
Will you please open the door?
विल यू प्लीज़ ओपन द डोर?

आप एक कप दूध लेंगे?
Will you please have a cup of milk?
विल यू प्लीज हैव अ कप ऑफ़ मिल्क?

क्या तुम चुप रहोगे?
Will you please keep quiet?
विल यू प्लीज़ कीप क्वायट?

प्रथमावस्था (Positive) — द्वितीयावस्था (Comparative)

एक ही बात को तुलना की दो या तीन अवस्थाओं में रखा जा सकता है। केवल शब्द बदलते हैं अर्थ पहले की तरह समान रहता है।

11. अमिताभ उतना ही लंबा है जितना संजय।
Amitabh is as tall as Sanjay.
अमिताभ इज़ ऐज़ टॉल ऐज़ संजय.

संजय अमिताभ की अपेक्षा लम्बा नहीं है।
Sanjay is not taller than Amitabh.
संजय इज़ नॉट टॉलर दैन अमिताभ.

12. हमारे देश में कुछ ही नगर उतने बड़े हैं जितना मुंबई।
Very few cities in India/our country are as big as Mumbai.
वेरी फ़्यू सिटीज़ इन इण्डिया/आवर कंट्री आर ऐज़ बिग ऐज़ मुंबई.

मुंबई हमारे देश के बहुत से नगरों की अपेक्षा बड़ा शहर है।
Mumbai is bigger than most other cities in India/ our country.
मुंबई इज़ बिगर दैन मोस्ट अदर सिटीज़ इन इण्डिया/आवर कंट्री.

13. दूसरा कोई व्यक्ति इतना शक्तिशाली नहीं था जितना भीम।
No other man was as strong as Bhim.
नो अदर मैन वॉज़ एज़ स्ट्रॉन्ग एज़ भीम.

भीम किसी भी व्यक्ति से अधिक शक्तिशाली था।
Bhim was stronger than any other man.
भीम वॉज़ स्ट्रॉन्गर दैन ऐनी अदर मैन.
Bhim was the strongest man.
भीम वॉज़ द स्ट्रॉन्गेस्ट मैन.
भीम सबसे अधिक शक्तिशाली व्यक्ति था।

14. बहुत कम भारतीय संत थे जो विवेकानंद जैसे लोकप्रिय थे।
Very few Indian saints were as popular/ famous as Vivekanand.
वेरी फ़्यू इंडियन सेंट्स वर ऐज़ पॉपुलर/फ़ेमस ऐज़ विवेकानन्द.

विवेकानंद भारत के कई दूसरे संतों से अधिक लोकप्रिय थे।
Vivekanand was more popular/famous than many other saints in India.
विवेकानंद वाज़ मोर पॉपुलर/फ़ेमस दैन मैनी अदर सेंट्स इन इंडिया.

Vivekanand was one of the most popular/famous saints in India.
विवेकानंद वॉज़ वन ऑफ़ द मोस्ट पापुलर/फ़ेमस सेंट्स इन इंडिया.
विवेकानंद भारत के सर्वाधिक लोकप्रिय संतो में से एक थे।

नकारात्मक (Negative)	सकारात्मक (Affirmative)

नकारात्मक (Negative) वाक्यों को भी सकारात्मक (Affirmative) वाक्यों में बदला जा सकता है। इसमें प्राय: विपरीतार्थक शब्दों का प्रयोग करके दोनों वाक्यों का आशय एक समान रखा जाता है।

15. कोई मनुष्य अमर नहीं है। No man is immortal. नो मैन इज़ इम्मॉर्टल.	मनुष्य नाशवान है। Man is mortal. मैन इज़ मॉर्टल.
16. आबिदा उतनी सुंदर नहीं है जितनी सोनिया। Abida is not as beautiful as Sonia. आबिदा इज़ नॉट ऐज़ ब्यूटिफुल ऐज़ सोनिया.	सोनिया आबिदा से अधिक सुन्दर है। Sonia is more beautiful than Abida. सोनिया इज़ मोर ब्यूटिफ़ुल दैन आबिदा.
17. कोई उपलब्धि बिना श्रम के नहीं मिलती। There is no gain without hard work. देअर इज़ नो गेन विदाउट हार्ड वर्क.	श्रम किया जाता है तो उपलब्धि भी होती है। Where there is hard work there is gain. वेअर देअर इज़ हार्ड वर्क देअर इज़ गेन.
18. वह अपने रोज़ के काम की कभी उपेक्षा नहीं करती। She never neglects her daily routine work. शी नेवर निग्लेक्ट्स हर डेली रूटीन वर्क.	वह अपने रोज़ के काम पर पूरा ध्यान देती है। She always pays attention to her daily/routine work. शी ऑलवेज पेज़ अटैन्शन टु हर डेली/रूटीन वर्क.
19. मैं स्टेशन पर पहुंचा भी न था कि गाड़ी छूट गई। *No sooner* had I reached the station *than* the train left. **नो सूनर** हैड आइ रीच्ड द स्टेशन **दैन** द ट्रेन लेफ़्ट.	मुश्किल से मैं स्टेशन पर पहुंचा ही था जब गाड़ी छूट गयी। *Scarcely* had I reached the station *when* the train left. स्केर्सली हैड आइ रीच्ड द स्टेशन वेन द ट्रेन लेफ्ट.

याद रखें (Remember)

(a) India is our country. We are her citizens .

ऊपर के वाक्य में 'country' कंट्री (देश) शब्द आया है। इसके साथ अंग्रेज़ी में प्राय: स्त्रीलिंग प्रयोग होता है, इसीलिए यहां her (हर) शब्द आया है।

1. अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में tree ट्री (पेड़), spider स्पाइडर (मकड़ी) इत्यादि को नंपुसक लिंग (neuter gender न्यूटर जैन्डर) में रखा गया है, परन्तु हैं तो ये जीवधारी, और वैज्ञानिकों के अनुसार इनमें भी नर और मादा होते हैं। जो भी हो ये मामूली जीवों से सम्बन्धित हैं, इसलिए इन्हें नपुंसक लिंग में रखा गया है, इनकी बात करते हुए it शब्द का प्रयोग होता है। इसी प्रकार निम्नलिखित शब्द भी नपुंसक लिंग हैं: ice आइस (बर्फ़) sugar शुगर (चीनी) water वॉटर (पानी) flower फ़्लावर (फूल) grass ग्रास (घास) bread ब्रेड (डबल रोटी) 2. इसके विपरीत कुछ ऐसे शब्द भी हैं जो जीवधारी नहीं, परन्तु उन्हें या तो स्त्रीलिंग (feminine gender) में रखा गया है या फिर पुल्लिंग (masculine gender) में, उदाहरण के लिए — The ship hasn't come yet. She is probably late. द शिप हैज़न्ट कम येट, शी इज़ प्रॉबैब्ली लेट. (जहाज अभी तक नहीं आया है, शायद वह लेट है)। इस वाक्य में ship एक निर्जीव वस्तु है, परन्तु इसे feminine gender दिया गया है। इसी प्रकार sun (सूरज) तथा death डेथ (मौत) पुल्लिंग शब्द हैं।

27 सत्ताईसवां दिन
th Day

गणना एवं मात्रासूचक शब्द

कुछ संज्ञा-शब्द गिने जा सकते हैं और कुछ नहीं गिने जा सकते। गिनने योग्य और न गिनने योग्य शब्दों का अलग-अलग अभ्यास कीजिए। मोटेतौर से समझ लीजिए कि जातिवाचक संज्ञाएं गिनी जा सकती हैं (Countable), पर द्रव्यवाचक संज्ञाएं तथा भाववाचक संज्ञाएं नहीं गिनी जा सकतीं। यह भी याद रखें, कि केवल (Countable nouns) गणना की संज्ञाएं ही एक वचन (Singular) या बहुवचन (Plural) हो सकती हैं। e.g. Boy (Singular) Boys (Plural).

A

गणना के शब्द (Countable Words)

1. क्लास में कुछ स्टूडेंट्स हैं।	There are *some/a few* students in the class. देअर आर सम/अ फ़्यू स्टूडेंट्स इन द क्लास.
2. क्या हॉल में कोई लड़की है?	Is there *any* girl in the hall'? इज़ देअर एनी गर्ल इन द हॉल?
3. मैदान में कोई लड़का नहीं है।	There is *no* boy in the playground. देअर इज़ नो बॉय इन द प्लेग्राउंड.
4. इन लड़कियों में से कोई भी वहां मौजूद नहीं थी।	*None* of these girls was present there. नन ऑफ़ दीज़ गर्ल्ज़ वॉज़ प्रेज़ेंट देअर.
5. क्या तुममें से कोई फ़ुटबाल खेला?	Did *any* of you play football? डिड एनी ऑफ़ यू प्ले फ़ुटबॉल?
6. लड़कों में से बहुत-से कल स्कूल नहीं आये थे।	*Many* of the boys hadn't come to school yesterday. मेनी ऑफ़ द बॉयज़ हैडन्ट कम टु स्कूल येस्टरडे.
7. टोकरी में कितने आम हैं?	How many mangoes are there in the basket? हाउ मेनी मैंगोज़ आर देअर इन द बास्किट?
8. शायद ही कोई लड़की उसे पसंद करेगी।	*Hardly* would any girl like him. हार्डली वुड एनी गर्ल लाइक हिम.
9. इस पुस्तक में इस पुस्तक की अपेक्षा अधिक पृष्ठ है।	That book has *more* pages than this book. दैट बुक हैज़ मोर पेजिज़ दैन दिस बुक.
10. उसके हाथों कई लोगों ने दु:ख उठाया है।	*Many a* man has suffered at his hands. मेनी अ मैन हैज़ सफ़र्ड ऐट हिज़ हैंड्ज़.
11. दोनों व्यक्तियों में से कोई नहीं आया है।	*Neither* man has come. नाइदर/नीदर मैन हैज़ कम.
12. उसे थोड़ा वेतन मिलता है।	He gets *a small* salary. ही गेट्स अ स्मॉल सैलरी.

B

मात्रा सूचक शब्द (Uncountable Words)

13. क्या बोतल में बिल्कुल दूध नहीं है?	Isn't there *any* milk in the bottle? इज़ंट देअर एनी मिल्क इन द बॉटल?
14. क्या बोतल में कुछ दूध है?	Is there *any* milk in the bottle? इज़ देअर एनी मिल्क इन द बॉटल?
15. ज़रा मुझे थोड़ा-सा पानी दीजिए।	Get me *some* water, please./Let me have *some* water please. गेट मी सम वॉटर प्लीज़. लेट मी हैव सम वॉटर प्लीज़.
16. गिलास में कितना दूध है?	How *much* milk is there in the glass? हाउ मच मिल्क इज़ देअर इन द ग्लास?
17. तुम्हारे गिलास में मेरे गिलास से कम दूध है।	Your glass has *less* milk than mine. योर ग्लास हैज़ लेस मिल्क दैन माइन.
18. क्या मैं तुम्हें थोड़ा दूध और दूं?	Shall I give you *some more* milk?/ Will you have *some more* milk? शैल आइ गिव यू सम मोर मिल्क?/विल यू हैव सम मोर मिल्क?
19. नदी में बहुत पानी था।	There was *a lot of* water in the river. देअर वॉज़ अ लॉट ऑफ़ वॉटर इन द रिवर.
20. क्या यह उसका ठीक आधा है?	Is it exactly *half*-of that? इज़ इट एक्ज़ैक्टली हाफ़ ऑफ़ दैट?

C

अर्थ में बल (The Emphasis)

21. कल ज़रूर आना-भूल न जाना।	*Do* come tomorrow—*Don't* forget./You *must* come tomorrow. डू कम टुमॉरो—डोन्ट फ़ॉर्गेट./यू मस्ट कम टुमॉरो.
22. कमला और उसका भाई-दोनों मुझे देखने आये।	*Both* Kamla and her brother came/dropped in to see me. बोथ कमला ऐंड हर ब्रदर केम/ड्राप्ड इन टु सी मी.
23. मैं इसे कभी माफ नहीं करूंगा।	I will never forgive him. आइ विल नेवर फॉरगिव हिम.
24. मैं वाकई प्रसन्न हूं।	*Indeed/Of course*, I am happy. इनडीड/ऑफ़ कोर्स आइ ऐम हैपी.
25. तुम पढ़ाई में सख्त मेहनत नहीं कर रहे हो, न?	You *don't* study hard, do you? यू डोन्ट स्टडी हार्ड, डू यू?
26. निस्संदेह मैं करता हूं।	*Of course*, I do. ऑफ़ कोर्स आइ डू.
27. चुप भी रहिए।	*Please* keep quiet/ *Please* be quiet. प्लीज़ कीप क्वायट./प्लीज़ बी क्वायट.
28. अपने पिताजी को चिट्ठी ज़रूर लिख दो।	*Do* write to your father. डू राइट टू योर फ़ादर.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. विशेषण (Adjective) की तीन degrees होती हैं, पहली positive, जैसे — poor, दूसरी comparative, जैसे — poorer और तीसरी superlative, जैसे — poorest.
2. Ram is poorer than Mahesh.
He is more careful than his brother.
Comparative degree का प्रयोग करते समय poorer आदि विशेषणों के बाद than अवश्य लगता है।
3. Superlative degree का प्रयोग करते समय the को विशेषण से पहले रखते हैं, जैसे — Manohar is the oldest boy in the class.

28 अट्ठाईसवां दिन
th Day कुछ फुटकर प्रयोग (Miscellaneous Uses)

A

It और That के प्रयोग

1. **वह कौन है?**	Who is *that/he/she?* हू इज़ दैट/ही/शी?
2. वह मेरा दोस्त है।	*It's* my friend. इट्स माइ फ्रेंड.
3. यह ठीक उत्तर नहीं था।	*It* was not the correct answer. इट वॉज़ नॉट द करेक्ट आन्सर.
4. यह पुस्तक तुम्हारी है। वह मेरी है।	This is your book. *That is* mine. दिस इज़ योर बुक. दैट इज़ माइन.
5. **वहां कौन है?**	Who is there? हू इज़ देअर?
6. मैं हूं।	*It's* me. इट्स मी.
7. क्या मुझसे ही मिलना चाहते हैं?	Is *it* me you want to see. इज़ इट मी यू वॉन्ट टु सी?
8. क्या आप मुझे ही बुला रही हैं?	Is *it* me you are calling? इज़ इट मी यू आर कॉलिंग?
9. उसके जीवन का वह सबसे बड़ा खुशी का दिन था।	*It* was the happiest day of her life. इट वॉज़ द हैपिएस्ट डे ऑफ़ हर लाइफ़.
10. **इससे कोई फ़र्क नहीं पड़ता।**	*It* doesn't make any difference. इट डज़'न्ट मेक एनी डिफ़रेंस.
11. इससे मुझे फर्क नहीं पड़ता।	*It* doesn't matter to me. इट डज़'न्ट मैटर टु मी.
12. चार बजे हैं।	*It's* four o'clock. इट्स फ़ोर ओ'क्लॉक.

B

13. क्या आप मुझे एक पेन या एक पेंसिल देंगे?	Will you please give me *either* a pen *or* a pencil? विल यू प्लीज़ गिव मी आइदर अ पेन ऑर अ पेंसिल?
14. दोनों उत्तर ठीक हैं।	Both the answers are correct. बोथ दी आन्सर्ज़ आर करेक्ट.
15. यह न तो अध्यापिका है, न ही छात्रा।	She is *neither* a teacher *nor* a student. शी इज़ नाइदर अ टीचर नॉर अ स्टूडेंट.
16. दोनों कैदियों में से कोई अपराधी नहीं हैं।	None of the two prisoners is guilty. नन ऑफ़ द टू प्रिज़नर्स इज़ गिल्टी.
17. कक्षा में बहुत से लड़के हैं।	*There* are many/a number of *students* in the class. देअर आर मेनी/अ नम्बर ऑफ़ स्टूडेन्ट्स इन द क्लास.
18. रजनी और मीनाक्षी दोनों को मेहनत करनी चाहिए।	Both Rajni and Meenakshi should work hard. बोथ रजनी ऐंड मीनाक्षी शुड वर्क हार्ड.
19. मेरी कमीज़ सफेद है, तुम्हारी कमीज़ भी सफेद है।	My shirt is white. Your shirt is white too. माइ शर्ट इज़ वाइट. योर शर्ट इज़ वाइट टू.
20. मेरा कोट काला नहीं है, तुम्हारा कोट भी काला नहीं है।	My coat is not black. Your coat is not black *either*. माइ कोट इज़ नॉट ब्लैक. योर कोट इज़ नॉट ब्लैक आइदर.

C

21. यहां के दृश्य सुंदर हैं।	The scenery here is nice/beautiful/lovely. द सीनरी हिअर इज़ नाइस/ब्यूटिफ़ुल/लवली.
22. मैंने इस पुस्तक को दो-तिहाई पढ़ लिया है।	I have finished *two-thirds* of this book. आइ हैव फ़िनिश्ड टू-थर्ड्स ऑफ़ दिस बुक.
23. मजिस्ट्रेट ने उसकी गिरफ़्तारी का आदेश दिया।	The magistrate *ordered* his arrest. द मैजिस्ट्रेट आर्डर्ड हिज़ अरेस्ट.
24. जब मैं मुंबई जाऊंगा, तो उसे मिलूंगा।	I'll see him when I go to Mumbai. आइल सी हिम वेन आइ गो टु मुंबई.
25. मैंने खाना खा लिया है।	I *have had* my food/meals. आइ हैव हैड माइ फ़ूड/मील्ज़.
26. समय कीमती है।	Time is money. टाइम इज़ मनी.
27. क्या तुम्हें सौ रुपये का मासिक भत्ता मिला?	Did you get *a* monthly allowance of *a* hundred rupees? डिड यू गेट अ मंथली एलाउंस ऑफ़ अ हंड्रेड रुपीज़?
28. मैं पैंतालीस बरस का हूं।	I am forty-five. आइ ऐम फ़ोर्टी फ़ाइव.
29. अब क्या किया जा सकता है?	What *can be done* now?/What's *to be done* now? वॉट कैन बी डन नाउ? वॉट्स टु बी डन नाउ?
30. मेरे दोनों हाथ ज़ख्मी हो गये हैं।	*Both my* hands have been injured. बोथ माइ हैंड्ज़ हैव बीन इंजर्ड.
31. मैंने चित्रकला छोड़ दी है।	I have *given up painting*. आइ हैव गिवन अप पेंटिंग.

याद रखें (Remember) सर्वनाम (pronoun प्रोनाउन) it का कई प्रकार से प्रयोग किया जाता है, जैसे: 1. किसी Lower animal (छोटे पशु) या छोटे बच्चों के लिए, जैसे — After dressing the wound of the dog, the doctor patted it and sent it home. (कुत्ते के ज़ख्म

पर पट्टी करने के बाद डॉक्टर ने उसे थपथपाया और घर भेज दिया.) As soon as the child saw its mother, it jumped towards her. (जैसे ही बच्चे ने अपनी माता को देखा, वह उसकी तरफ लपक पड़ा.) 2. किसी Noun या Pronoun पर ज़ोर देने के लिए — It was Gandhiji, who started the Civil Disobedience Movement. (गांधी जी ने ही नागरिक अवज्ञा आंदोलन चलाया था.) 3. मौसम के बारे में बात करने के लिए — It is hot गर्मी है, It is cold सर्दी है, It is raining outside बाहर वर्षा हो रही है।

4. Object के रूप में Children find it difficult to sit quietly. (बच्चों के लिए चुपचाप बैठना कठिन है.) 5. पहले हुई बात के लिए — He was wrong and he realises it. (वह गलत था और वह इस बात को महसूस करता है.) इस वाक्य में It का प्रयोग he was wrong के लिए किया गया है।

29 उनतीसवां दिन
th Day

A

गणना और मात्रा-सूचक वाक्य (Countables & Uncountables)

1. इस मेज़ पर रखी सभी पुस्तकें नीली हैं।	*All* the books on this table are blue. ऑल द बुक्स ऑन दिस टेबल आर ब्लू.
2. भीड़ का हर व्यक्ति स्तब्ध खड़ा था।	*Everyone* in the crowd was stunned. एवरीवन इन द क्राउड वॉज़ स्टंड.
3. उनमें हर एक की अपनी कार है।	*Each* of them has his own car. ईच ऑफ़ देम हैज़ हिज़ ओन कार.
4. मैंने चार पेंसिलें पंद्रह पैसे हर एक पेंसिल के हिसाब से खरीदीं।	I bought four pencils at fifteen paise *each*. आइ बॉट फ़ोर पेन्सिल्ज़ ऐट फ़िफ़्टीन पैसे ईच.
5. सोनिया और रीना एक-दूसरे को चाहती हैं।	Sonia and Rina are fond of *each other*. सोनिया ऐंड रीना आर फ़ॉन्ड ऑफ़ ईच अदर.
6. राजीव अपनी माताजी को हर दूसरे सप्ताह देखने जाता है।	Rajiv visits his mother *every other* week. राजीव विज़िट्स हिज़ मदर एवरी अदर वीक.
7. इन दोनों में से कोई भी चाभी ताले में लग जाएगी।	*Either* of these two keys will fit the lock. आइदर ऑफ़ दीज़ टू कीज़ विल फ़िट द लॉक.
8. **मुझे कुछ खाने को दो।**	Give me *something* to eat. गिव मी समथिंग टु ईट.
9. तुम्हारी जेब में कुछ हो तो निकाल लो।	Take out *anything* you have in your pocket. टेक आउट एनीथिंग यू हैव इन योर पॉकेट.
10. मैंने बहुत सी चीजें गुम की हैं।	I've lost *many a thing*. आइ 'व लॉस्ट मेनी अ थिंग.
11. **क्या कोई आया है?**	Has *someone* come? हैज़ समवन कम?
12. हां, कोई आपका इंतज़ार कर रहा है।	Yes, *somebody* is waiting for you. येस, समबडी इज़ वेटिंग फ़ॉर यू.
13. घर-घर में शोर मचा हुआ था।	There was commotion/uproar in *every* house. देअर वॉज़ कमोशन/अपरोर इन एवरी हाउस.
14. क्या और कोई आदमी आया था?	Had *anybody/anyone* else come? हैड एनीबडी/एनीवन एल्स कम?
15. **यहां कोई नहीं आया।**	*Nobody/No one* came here. नोबडी/नो वन केम हिअर.
16. इस घर की हरेक वस्तु आपके लिए हाज़िर है।	*Everything* in this house is at your disposal./You can use anything in this house. एवरीथिंग इन दिस हाउस इज़ ऐट योर डिस्पोज़ल./यू कैन यूज़ एनीथिंग इन दिस हाउस.
17. मेरे घर में हर एक बीमार है।	*Everyone* in my house is ill. एवरीवन इन माइ हाउस इज़ इल.
18. वे सारा समय बाग में रहे।	They were in the garden *all* the time./They spent *all* the time in the garden. दे वर इन द गार्डन ऑल द टाइम/ दे स्पेंट ऑल द टाइम इन द गार्डन.
19. हमने सारे बाग का चक्कर लगाया।	We went *all around* the garden. वी वेंट ऑल अराउण्ड द गार्डन.
20. उन्होंने देश-भर की यात्रा की।	They travelled *all over* the country. दे ट्रैवल्ड ऑल ओवर द कंट्री.
21. इस सारे वक्त मैं उसकी प्रतीक्षा करता रहा।	*All* this while I waited for her. ऑल दिस वाइल आइ वेटेड फ़ॉर हर.

B

मुहावरेदार वाक्य (Idiomatic Sentences)

22. बुरी आदतें शुरू में ही रोक देनी चाहिए।	Bad habits should be *nipped in the bud.* बैड हैबिट्स शुड बी निप्ड इन द बड.
23. मोहन का कठिनता से निर्वाह होता है।	Mohan lives from *hand to mouth.* मोहन लिव्ज़ फ्रॉम हैंड टू माउथ.
24. डाकू अभी तक नहीं पकड़े गये।	The dacoits are still *at large.* द डेकॉइट्स आर स्टिल ऐट लार्ज.
25. खूनी रंगे हाथों पकड़ा गया।	The murderer was caught *red handed.* द मर्डर वॉज़ कॉट रेड-हैंडिड.
26. मुझे इस बात का पता लग गया।	I *got* wind of this matter. आइ गॉट विंड ऑफ़ दिस मैटर.
27. उसकी मृत्यु बिलकुल निकट है।	His *days are numbered.* हिज़ डेज़ आर नम्बर्ड.
28. खयाली पुलाव पकाने से क्या लाभ है?	*Building castles in the air* won't help. बिल्डिंग कासल्ज़ इन द एयर वोन्ट हेल्प.
29. वह लारी की दुर्घटना में बाल-बाल बचा।	He had a *narrow escape* in the lorry accident. ही हैड अ नैरो एस्केप इन द लॉरी ऐक्सीडेंट.
30. हमें इतनी छोटी-छोटी बातों पर आपे से बाहर नहीं होना चाहिए।	We should not *lose our temper* over trifles. वी शुड नॉट लूज़ आवर टेम्पर ओवर ट्राइफ़ल्ज़.
31. उसने जीवन के बहुत उतार-चढ़ाव देखे हैं।	He has seen many *ups and downs* in his life. ही हैज़ सीन मेनी अप्स ऐंड डाउन्ज़ इन हिज़ लाइफ़.
32. मैं लगातार बारह घंटे काम कर सकता हूं।	I can work for twelve hours *at a stretch.* आइ कैन वर्क फ़ॉर ट्वेल्व आवर्ज़ ऐट ए स्ट्रेच.
33. वह किसी भी तरह सबसे ऊंचे पद पर पहुंचना चाहता है।	He wants to reach the top *by hook or by crook.* ही वॉन्ट्स टु रीच द टॉप बाइ हुक और बाइ क्रुक.

याद रखें (Remember)

1. प्रत्येक भाषा में बोलते-बोलते कुछ शब्द बहुत रूढ़ हो जाते हैं। कुछ तो इतने प्रचलित हो जाते हैं कि वे अपना मूल अर्थ छोड़कर अन्य अर्थ देने लगते हैं। इन्हें मुहावरा या Idiom कहते हैं।

यदि हम किसी भाषा को ठीक से सीखना चाहते हैं तो उसके मुहावरों को बिलकुल ठीक उसी रूप में हमें याद करना होगा, तभी हम उस भाषा के जानकार कहला सकेंगे।

2. कुछ लोग मुहावरे के शब्दों में हेर-फेर कर देते हैं यह गलत है, जैसे यदि कोई कहे — 'Mohan lives from foot to mouth' तो इसे अशुद्ध माना जाएगा। ठीक प्रयोग होगा — 'Mohan lives from hand to mouth' मुहावरों का प्रयोग भाषा में बहुत ध्यान से करना चाहिए।

30 तीसवां दिन

th Day

अभ्यास तालिकाएं (Drill Tables)

ये अभ्यास तालिकाएं वाक्यों को बार-बार दोहराने के लिए हैं। आप जितनी अधिक बार दोहरा सकते हैं, दोहराइए। इससे आपकी ज़ुबान पर अंग्रेज़ी के ये और ऐसे वाक्य बखूबी चढ़ जाएंगे। इस प्रकार आप बिना रुके नये-नये वाक्य बोल सकेंगे। तालिका 8 में his, her, their, your आदि सर्वनाम शब्द, संज्ञा-शब्द house से पहले आए हैं (सार्वनामिक संबंध सूचक विशेषणों के रूप में)। ये शब्द प्राय: इसी प्रकार प्रयोग में आते हैं। पर तालिका 8-B में his, hers, theirs, yours, mine or ours शब्द वाक्य के अंत में अकेले आये हैं possessive pronouns (संबंध सूचक सर्वनामों) के रूप में। Possessive pronouns के साथ संज्ञा का प्रयोग नहीं होता।

Example: This is my pen. (Possessive Adjective) This pen is <u>mine</u> . (Possessive pronoun) इस अंतर को हमेशा याद रखना चाहिए।

इक्कीसवां दिन

तालिका (TABLE)— 8

(a) 12 वाक्य (b) 12 वाक्य

	1	2	3
A	This is That isn't	his her their your my our	house.

	1	2
B	This house is That house isn't	his. hers. theirs. yours. mine. ours.

Mr. Ram's का अर्थ है-मिस्टर राम का। Apostrophe'+s ('s) का प्रयोग किसी वस्तु या व्यक्ति का दूसरे व्यक्ति से संबंध बताने के लिए होता है। This is Mr. Mehta's

house. She is Meena's sister. ज़्यादातर प्रयोग प्राणवान वस्तुओ के साथ होता है। पर कभी-कभी प्राणहीन पदार्थों के साथ भी इसका प्रयोग मान्य माना जाता है — a day's work, a month's supply, a year's growth आदि। ये इसीलिए शुद्ध अथवा सही माने जाते हैं, क्योंकि ये expressions भाषा में काफी प्रचलित हो गए हैं। इन्हें अशुद्ध कहकर निकाला नहीं जा सकता।

बाईसवां दिन

तालिका [TABLE]— 9

तालिका-9 में in, under, on, near स्थानवाची शब्द (Platial Words) वाक्य में प्रयोग हुए हैं।

384 वाक्य

1	2	3	4	5
It	is	in	that	bag.
Your plate		under	this	
The bottle		on	your	basket.
The cup	isn't		Mr. Ram's	table.
		near		

तेईसवां दिन

तालिका-10 में too—to संबंधित शब्दों (Linking Words) का अभ्यास दिया जाता है। I am too tired to do such heavy work का अर्थ है-मैं **इतना** अधिक थक गया हूं **कि** ऐसा कठिन काम नहीं कर सकता। इसी प्रकार अन्य वाक्यों में इन शब्दों का अर्थ समझना चाहिए।

तालिका [TABLE]— 10

27 वाक्य

1	2	3	4	5
I am		tired		do such heavy work.
The little boy was	too	hungry	to	go back so soon.
You will be		weak		answer their questions.

तालिका-11 में when, as well as, after, before शब्दों का अभ्यास दिया गया है। **इनके साथ** Linking Words नहीं जुड़ते, सीधे दूसरी Clause जुड़ जाती है, जैसे When we arrived (then नहीं आता) it began to rain. आदि।

तालिका [TABLE]— 11

64 वाक्य

1	2	3
When	we arrived	it began to rain.
As soon as	the train left	he started crying.
After	they came	the lights went out.
Before	she noticed	he moved away.

तालिका-12 में since और for के सकारात्मक (Positive) वाक्य दिये गये हैं।

तालिका [TABLE]— 12

64 वाक्य

1	2	3	4
She	has been		
He		discussing this matter	since morning.
		quarrelling over it	for many days.
		playing hockey	since 2 P.M.
I	have been	reading a novel	for two hours.
You			

चौबीसवां दिन

तालिका-13 में prepositions के उलट-पुलट वाक्य दिये गये हैं। उन्हें ठीक से मिलाकर सार्थक वाक्य बनाइये। एक Preposition का प्रयोग एक से अधिक वाक्य में हो सकता है। कठिनाई होने पर संबंधित पाठ की सहायता लीजिए।

तालिका [TABLE]— 13

24 वाक्य

1	2	3
You must refrain	by	my story
He was highly amused	into	working too hard
He prevents me	against	her son's health
The mother is worried		music
His work is progressing		his work
We got fed up		the matter
He was absorbed	about	his behaviour
The police looked	in	smoking
He is well versed		going there
My boss is pleased	with	leaps and bounds
She went		my work
The doctor warned him	from	the room

पच्चीसवां दिन

तालिका-14 में कर्मवाच्य (Passive Voice) के वाक्य दिये गये हैं। इनको बोलकर अच्छी तरह अभ्यास कीजिए और इसका अर्थ मन में बैठाइए। सहायक क्रियाओं (is, is being, has been) के साथ प्रधान क्रिया की 3rd form जुड़ती है।

तालिका [TABLE]— 14

165 वाक्य

1	2	3
	is	
	is being	
	has been	collected.
The money	is going to be	kept in a secret place.
	was	
The jewellery	was being	
	had been	sent away.
The body of the lion	will be	
	will not be	buried in my garden.
	will have been	
	should be	moved from here.

तालिका-15 में be (infinitive) के साथ कर्मवाच्य (Passive Voice) के वाक्यों की रचना को गयी है।

छब्बीसवां दिन

तालिका-16 में विशेषणों की द्वितीयावस्था (Comparative Degree) के वाक्यों का अभ्यास दिया गया है। इसमें than का प्रयोग होता है।

तालिका [TABLE]— 15

60 वाक्य

1	2	3	4	5
		wicked		any one else.
He was		honest		she was.
	more	cruel	than	you were.
		willing		I was.
They were		cheerful		we were.
		foolish		

तालिका-17 में विशेषणों की तृतीयावस्था (Superlative Degree) के वाक्य दिये गये हैं। इनमें 'best of' आदि शब्द प्रयोग किये जाते हैं।

तालिका [TABLE]— 16

48 वाक्य

1	2	3	4	5	6
Your coat			thickest		all.
This one	is	the	worst	of	those in the shop.
That one			best		the lot.
			finest		any I have seen.

सत्ताईसवां दिन

तालिका-18-4 में गणनासूचक (Countable) शब्दों के प्रश्न-वाक्य दिये गये हैं।

तालिका-18-B में मात्रा सूचक (Uncountable) शब्दों के प्रश्न वाक्य? Many गणनासूचक (Countable) शब्द हैं, much मात्रा सूचक (Uncountable)। ध्यान दीजिए — cup, knife, pen, pencil, book गणना-योग्य (Countable) वस्तुएं हैं, जबकि money, oil, bread, tea, sand मात्रा सूचक (Uncountable) शब्द।

तालिका [TABLE]— 17

(a) 15 वाक्य (b) 15 वाक्य

A

1	2	3	4
How many	cups knives pens pencils books	are there	on the table? in the store? in the cupboard?

B

1	2	3	4
How much	money oil salt tea sand	is there	in the house? in his possession? for use?

अटठाईसवां दिन

तालिका-19 में सर्वनाम 'it' के विभिन्न उपयोगों का अभ्यास दिया गया है।

तालिका [TABLE]— 18

14 वाक्य

1	2	3
It	is was	my friend. not my turn. four O'clock. not noon yet. not true. very easy.

तालिका-20 में दो प्रकार के कर्ता हैं — नकारात्मक (Negative) और सकारात्मक। Nobody (Negative) नकारात्मक है। Somebody तथा everybody (Positive) सकारात्मक हैं। Nobody took anything last time का अर्थ है — किसी ने पिछली बार कोई वस्तु नहीं ली, जबकि Somebody took something last time का अर्थ है — किसी ने पिछली बार कुछ वस्तु ली।

नकारात्मक वाक्य में प्राय: anything और सकारात्मक वाक्य में something शब्द का प्रयोग आता है।

उनतीसवां दिन

तालिका [TABLE]— 19

1	2	3	4
No one Nobody one of us None of you	wrote wanted cared for	anything	at that time.
Everybody Somebody Some of you A few of us	noticed took	something	before breakfast. last time.

अभ्यास (Practice)

I. नीचे प्रश्नवाक्य और उत्तरवाक्य दिये गये हैं। प्रश्न या उत्तर में से अधिकांश वाक्य 21 से 29 दिनों के वाक्यों में से लिये गये हैं, पर कुछ वाक्यों को बदल दिया गया है। आप अपने साथी से कहें कि वह आपसे प्रश्न पूछे। आप उसका उत्तर दें। फिर वह Answer वाक्य बोले और आप प्रश्नवाक्य बनाएं। इस तरह दोहरा अभ्यास कीजिए।

प्रश्न (Question)	उत्तर (Answer)
21 वां दिन	
1. What are vou?	I'm a clerk. (8)
2. What's your nationality?	Indian. (12)
3. Is this the book you need?	Yes, this is it. (13)
4. Who went there?	None of us. (25)
22 वां दिन	
5. Where is the book?	On the table. (2)
6. Where is the clerk?	At the table/seat. (3)
7. Where is Kamla going?	Into the room. (7)
8. Where is Kamla?	In the room. (8)
9. What do you play besides hockey?	Football. (23)
10. Who is inside? (33)	My brother.
23 वां दिन	
11. Why does he work hard?	Because he wants to win a prize.
12. Can she walk easily?	No, she is quite weak. (20) or She can't.
13. Who is guilty?	Either you or your brother. (19)
14. For how long have you been learning English? (35)	For the last two years.
15. When shall I receive his letter?	Within three days. (27)

24 वां दिन

16. Was the boy absent from school? Yes, he was. (1)
17. Does he know his weakness? Yes, he is fully conscious/aware of it. (22)
18. Are you sure of your success? (19) Yes, I'm dead sure.
19. Are his remarks based on facts? No, they aren't (37)
20. Why do you want to leave? To try for a better job or For better prospects.

25 वां दिन

21. What's to be done? Let the post be advertised. (26)
22. What am I requested to do? You are requested not to smoke. (27)

26 वां दिन

23. Shall we ever forget these good days? (4) No, we'll never forget them or No, how can we?
24. Is man immortal? No, he is not. (19)
25. Is there any gain without hard work? No, there isn't

27 वां दिन

26. Did any of you play football? (5) No, none of us did.
27. Isn't there any milk in the bottle? No, there isn't.
28. Shall I give you some more milk? (14) No, thank you./I need no more.
29. Will you give whatever I want? (18) With great pleasure./Yes, of course.

28 वां दिन

30. Who is that? (1) It's my friend. (2)
31. Is it me you are calling? (10) Yes, I need you.
32. How many boys are there in the class? There are many.(19)

29 वां दिन

33. Had anybody else come? (15) No, nobody.
34. For how long did you stay in the garden? (20) We stayed there all the time.
35. How much money can you lend me? At the most I can lend you ten rupees.

II . प्रश्न I के प्रश्न और उत्तर दोनों वाक्यों का सरल हिंदी में अनुवाद कीजिए: **III .** (i) Lata does come.

(ii) Lata comes .

(iii) Lata did come.

(iv) Lata came .

ऊपर के वाक्यों को ध्यान से देखिए और बताइए कि कौन से शुद्ध हैं? आप कहेंगे कि पहला और तीसरा वाक्य अशुद्ध है। हमारा कहना है, ये चारों वाक्य बिलकुल शुद्ध हैं।

आप पूछेंगे कि यदि ये चारों वाक्य शुद्ध हैं, तो आपस में इनके अर्थ में क्या अंतर है। हां, जो अंतर है उसे समझिए — Lata does come और Lata did come — दोनों वाक्य 'आना' (come) क्रिया के अर्थ में बल (emphasis) देते हैं। ऊपर के दोनों वाक्यों का अर्थ होगा — (1) 'लता अवश्य आती है', और 'लता अवश्य आई।' या-'लता आती तो है', और

‘लता आयी तो थी’।

दूसरे और चौथे वाक्य Lata comes और Lata came — का अर्थ होगा — ‘लता आती है,’ और ‘लता आयी।’ ये दोनों सामान्य अर्थ वाली क्रियाएं हैं।

सकारात्मक वाक्यों (Positive Sentences) में do, does और did के प्रयोग के विषय में ऊपर जो कुछ कहा गया है, उसके अनुसार नीचे दिये वाक्यों का हिन्दी में अर्थ बताइए: (i) My mother does like children.

(ii) Children do like to play.

(iii) The labourers did shout loudly.

(iv) Do come tomorrow.

IV . निम्नलिखित रिक्त स्थानों को कोष्ठक में दिये गये शब्दों में से उपयुक्त शब्द चुनकर भरिए: 1. He is...(a, an) American. 2. The train is late by half...(a, an) hour. 3. Is he...(a, an) Russian? 4. Qutab Minar is...(a, an, the) highest tower in India. 5. Sonepat is...(a, an, the) small town in Haryana. 6. These pictures...(is, are) mine. 7. He has gone...(to, out) of Delhi. 8. Are you going...(to, for) sleep? 9. Put on a raincoat lest you...(will, shall, should) get wet. 10. Neither Mahesh nor Ramesh...(play/plays) football. 11. Is she...(known, knew) to you? 12. They pray every day...(for, till) fifteen minutes. 13. Either Sati or Mati...(is, are) to blame. 14. She is...(too, so), weak to walk. 15. I am...(too, so) weak that I can’t walk.

ठीक उत्तर ये हैं: 1. (an), 2. (an), 3. (a), 4. (the), 5. (a), 6. (are) 7. (out), 8. (to), 9. (should), 10. (plays), 11. (known), 12. (for), 13. (is), 14. (too), 15. (so).

V. नीचे दो-दो वाक्यों में एक-एक वाक्य शुद्ध है। ध्यान से पढ़कर शुद्ध वाक्यों का चुनाव कीजिए:

1.	(A) He looks older to his years/age.	(B) He looks older than his years/age.
2.	(A) My mother is right now.	(B) My mother is alright now.
3.	(A) Mother as well as father is happy.	(B) Mother as well as father are happy.
4.	(A) I couldn’t understand but a few words.	(B) I could understand but a few words.
5.	(A) He was capable to support himself.	(B) He was capable of supporting himself.
6.	(A) I always see you with one particular person.	(B) I always see you with one certain person.

ठीक उत्तर ये हैं: 1. B, 2. B, 3. A, 4. B, 5. B, 6. A.

VI . निम्नलिखित वाक्यों को शुद्ध करके लिखिए: 1. This is a ass. 2. That is a book. Thats my book. 3. We travelled by ship. It is a fine ship. 4. I

am taller than he. 5. He was looking me. 6. He had hardly finished the work then his friend came. 7. Either you are thief or a robber. 8. I have been studying this subject since ten years. 9. He spent plenty of money at his wedding. 10. I no sooner left the house when it began to rain. 11. Though his arms were week, but his legs were strong. 12. Neither you nor I are lucky. 13. It is too hot for work. 14. Have you much toys? 15. This is a bread. Bread is a food. 16. She is too weak that she can't walk. 17. He works hard lest he will fail. 18. Somebody spoke to me, I forget whom. 19. He is a man whom I know is corrupt. 20. Put everything in their place. 21. None of them were available there. 22. There is misery in the life of all men. 23. Are you senior from him?

शुद्ध रूप नीचे छपे हैं परंतु सीधे: 1. This is an ass. 2. That is a book. It is my book. 3. We travelled by ship. It was a fine ship. 4. I am taller than him . 5. He was looking at me. 6. He had hardly finished the work when his friend came. 7. You are either a thief or a robber. 8. I have been studying this subject for ten years. 9. He spent plenty of money on his wedding. 10. No sooner did I leave the house than it began to rain. 11. Though his arms were weak, his legs were strong. 12. Neither of us is lucky. 13. It is too hot to work. 14. Do you have many toys? 15. This is bread . Bread is food . 16. She is too weak to walk. 17. He works hard lest he should fail. 18. Somebody spoke to me, I forget who. 19. He is the man who I know is corrupt. 20. Put everything in its place. 21. None of them was available there. 22. There is misery in the lives of all men. 23. Are you senior to him?

31 इकत्तीसवां दिन

st Day

चौथा अभियान (4th Expedition)

अब शुरू हुआ आपकी यात्रा का चौथा अभियान — जहां से आप व्याकरण की भूलभुलैया से निकल कर व्यावहारिक भाषा के प्रयोग को समझेंगे। पिछले तीन सेटों में आपको शुद्ध-अशुद्ध का परिचय प्राप्त हुआ। आपने जाना कि शब्दों को वाक्य में कैसे रखें ताकि सार्थक वाक्य बन सकें। अब आप सीखेंगे विषयानुसार छोटे-छोटे वाक्यों का बोलना-चालना। आपने पिछले तीन पड़ावों में जो कुछ सीखा है, उसके सहारे आपको आगे बढ़ना है। इस पाठ में दिये गये वाक्य, रोज़ की ज़िन्दगी में काम आने वाले वाक्य हैं। इन्हें सीख कर, इनका अभ्यास कीजिए और बातचीत में प्रयोग करना शुरू कर दीजिए। अभ्यास के लिए साथ दिये गये उच्चारण को सीख लेने पर आप सरलता से वाक्यों को बोल सकेंगे और अंग्रेज़ी में बात कर पाने का आनंद उठा सकेंगे। धीरे-धीरे आपकी झिझक खत्म हो जाएगी और विश्वास बढ़ता जाएगा। आइए, सबसे पहले निमंत्रण के वाक्यों को सीखें।

1 . निमंत्रण (Invitation)

1. **अंदर आइए।**	**Come in please.** कम इन प्लीज़.
2. **कुछ ठंडा लीजिए।**	**Please have something cold.** प्लीज़ हैव समथिंग कोल्ड.
3. क्या आप ज़रा यहां आएंगे?	Will you please come over here? विल यू प्लीज़ कम ओवर हिअर?
4. टहलने के लिए आइए।	Come for a walk please./Let's have a stroll. कम फ़ॉर अ वॉक प्लीज़./ लेट्स हैव अ स्ट्रोल.
5. क्या आप हमारे साथ सिनेमा देखने चलेंगे?	Would you like to come with us to the cinema?/Would you like to see a film/movie with us. वुड यू लाइक टु कम विद अस टु द सिनेमा?/वुड यू लाइक टु सी अ फ़िल्म/मूवी विद अस?
6. क्या आप सारा दिन हमारे साथ बितायेंगे?	Will you spend the whole day with us? विल यू स्पेंड द होल डे विद अस?
7. मुझे वैसा करने में खुशी होगी।	I'll be glad/pleased to do so. आइल बी ग्लैड/प्लीज़्ड टु डू सो.
8. आओ बस में चलें।	*Let's go by bus. लेट्स गो बाइ बस.
9. क्या आप मेरे साथ नाचेंगी?	Would you join me in the dance?/May I dance with you? वुड यू जॉइन मी इन द डांस/मे आइ डांस विद यू?
10. नहीं, मैं नहीं नाचती।	No, I don't dance. नो, आइ डोन्ट डान्स.
11. नहीं, मैं ताश खेलना नहीं जानता।	No, I don't know how to play cards. नो, आइ डोन्ट नो हाउ टु प्ले कार्ड्स.
12. आप अगला रविवार हमारे यहां बिताइए।	Please, spend next Sunday with us. प्लीज़, स्पेन्ड नेक्स्ट संडे विद अस.
13. खाने पर आपके निमंत्रण के लिए धन्यवाद। हम समय पर आने की कोशिश करेंगे।	Thanks for your invitation to dinner. We'll try to be punctual. /Thanks for inviting us to dinner. We'll try to come in time. थैंक्स फ़ॉर योर इन्विटेशन टु डिनर. वी'ल ट्राइ टु बी पंक्चुअल./थैंक्स फ़ॉर इन्वाइटिंग अस टु डिनर. वी'ल ट्राइ टु कम इन टाइम.
14. **खाने पर आपका निमंत्रण स्वीकार नहीं कर सकता हूं। इसका मुझे दु:ख है। आपने याद किया, उसके लिए धन्यवाद।**	I'm sorry, I can't accept your invitation to dinner./Thank you for remembering me. आइम सॉरी, आइ कान्ट ऐक्सेप्ट योर इन्विटेशन टु डिनर/थैंक यू फ़ॉर रिमेम्बरिंग मी.
15. क्या आप फ़तेहपुर सीकरी तक टैक्सी में हमारे साथ चलेंगे?	Will you come with us in taxi to Fatepur Sikri? विल यू कम विद अस इन टैक्सी टु फ़तेहपुर सीकरी?
16. आपके आमंत्रण के लिए बहुत धन्यवाद। आपका टैक्सी-टूर का सुझाव बड़ा ही अच्छा है। मैं जरूर साथ में चलूंगा।	Many thanks for your kind invitation. Your idea of a taxi-tour is really grand. I'll surely join you. मैनी थैंक्स फ़ॉर योर काइंड इन्विटेशन. योर आइडिया ऑफ़ अ टैक्सी-टुअर इज़ रिअली ग्रैण्ड. आइल श्योर्ली जॉइन यू.

2 . भेंट और विदा (Meeting & Parting)

17. सलाम! नमस्कार! सत श्री अकाल! (प्रात:काल में)	Good morning! गुड मार्निंग!
18. **आप कैसे हैं?**	**Hello, how are you?** हलो, हाउ आर यू?
19. **बहुत बढ़िया, शुक्रिया आपका। आप कैसे हैं?**	**Very well, thank you. And you?** वेरी वेल, थैंक्यू. ऐंड यू?
20. **मैं ठीक-ठाक हूं।**	**I'm fine.** आइम फ़ाइन.
21. **आपसे मिलकर मुझे बड़ी खुशी हुई।**	**I'm glad to see you.** आइम ग्लैड टु सी यू.
22. **यह मेरे लिए खुशी की बात है।**	**It's my pleasure.** इट्स माइ प्लेज़र.
23. बहुत दिनों बाद मिले हैं।	It's been a long time since we met. इट्स बीन अ लौंग टाइम सिन्स वी मेट.
24. मैंने आपके बारे में बहुत सुना है।	I've heard a lot about you. आइव हर्ड अ लॉट अबाउट यू.
25. देखो, कौन है?	Look, who is it?/Who is here? लुक, हू इज़ इट?/हू इज़ हिअर?
26. क्या आप मुझे देखकर चकित हो रहे हैं?	Are you surprised to see me? आर यू सरप्राइज़्ड टू सी मी?
27. वाकई, मैं सोचता था कि आप लंदन में हैं।	Really, I thought/was under the impression that you were in London. रियली, आइ थॉट/वाज़ अण्डर दी इम्प्रेशन दैट यू वर इन लंडन.
28. मैं वहां था, पर मैं वहां से पिछले सप्ताह लौटा हूं।	I was there, but I returned/came back last week. आइ वॉज़ देअर, बट आइ रिटर्न्ड/केम बैक लास्ट वीक.
29. **अच्छा! फिर मिलेंगे।**	**O.K. See you again.**/O.K., we'll meet again. ओ.के. सी यू अगेन./ ओ.के., वील मीट अगेन.
30. क्या आप अब जरूर जाएंगे?	Must you go/leave now? मस्ट यू गो/लीव नाउ?
31. **आपकी यात्रा अच्छी हो!**	**Have a pleasant/nice journey!** हैव अ प्लेज़ेन्ट/नाइस जर्नी!
32. ईश्वर आप पर कृपा करे।	God bless you. गॉड ब्लेस यू.
33. कृपया पिताजी से मेरा नमस्कार कहिएगा।	Please convey my regards/compliments to your father. प्लीज़ कन्वे माइ रिगार्ड्/कॉम्पलीमेंट्स टु योर फ़ादर.
34. भाग्य आपके साथ हो।	May luck be with you. Best of luck. मे लक बी विद यू. बेस्ट ऑफ लक.
35. अच्छा चलें। (रात को)	Good night. गुड नाइट.
36. नमस्ते (विदा में नमस्ते का उत्तर)	Bye bye./Goodbye. बाइ बाइ./गुडबाइ.

3 . आभार (Gratitude)

37. **बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद!**	Thanks a lot. थैंक्स अ लॉट.
38. **आपकी सलाह के लिए धन्यवाद।**	**Thanks for your advice.** थैंक्स फ़ॉर योर ऐडवाइस.
39. भेंट के लिए धन्यवाद।	Thanks for the present/gift. थैंक्स फ़ॉर द प्रेज़ेंट/गिफ़्ट
40. यह बहुत कीमती भेंट है।	This is a very costly/expensive present. दिस इज़ अ वेरी कॉस्टली/ एक्सपेन्सिव प्रेज़ेंट.
41. मैं आपका बहुत आभारी हूं।	I'm much/very obliged/grateful to you. आइम मच/वेरी ऑब्लाइज़्ड/ ग्रेटफुल टु यू.
42. आप बहुत दयालु हैं।	You are very kind. So kind of you. यू आर वेरी काइंड. सो काइंड़ ऑफ यू.
43. बिल्कुल नहीं, मुझे तो खुशी हुई।	Not at all. It's my pleasure. नॉट ऐट ऑल, इट्स माइ प्लेज़र.
44. यह कृपा की बात नहीं, इससे मुझे प्रसन्नता होगी।	This is no matter of kindness. It will rather please me. दिस इज़ नो मैटर ऑफ़ काइंडनेस. इट विल रादर प्लीज़ मी.

4 . बधाई एवं आशीष (Congratulations & Good Wishes)

45.	**हम आपके लिए नये वर्ष की शुभ कामना करते हैं।**	**Wish you a happy new year.** विश यू अ हैपी न्यू ईयर.
46.	आपके जन्म दिन पर हार्दिक अभिनंदन।	Hearty felicitations on your birthday. हार्टी फ़ेलिसिटेशन्ज़ ऑन योर बर्थडे.
47.	यह दिन बार-बार आये।	Many happy returns of the day. मेनी हैपी रिटर्न्ज़ ऑफ़ द डे.
48.	आपकी सफलता पर बधाई।	Congratulations on your success. कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़ ऑन योर सक्सैस.
49.	आपके विवाह पर बधाई।	Congratulations on your wedding. कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़ ऑन योर वेडिंग.
50.	आप पर भाग्य सदा मुस्कुराये।	May you always be lucky./May luck always shine on you. मे यू ऑलवेज़ बी लकी./मे लक ऑलवेज़ शाइन ऑन यू.
51.	आपको परीक्षा में सफलता प्राप्त हो।	Hope you do well in the examination. होप यू डू वेल इन दि इग्ज़ैमिनेशन.
52.	मैं आपको सबकी ओर से बधाई देता हूं।	I congratulate you on behalf of all. आइ कौंग्रैच्युलेट यू ऑन बिहाफ़ ऑफ़ ऑल.
53.	**आप सफल हों!**	**Wish you all the best.** विश यू ऑल द बेस्ट.

5 . मिले-जुले वाक्य (Miscellaneous Sentences)

54.	आओ, अब खाना खाएं।	Let's have food now. लेट्स हैव फूड नाउ.
55.	आप क्या पसंद करेंगे, चाय या कॉफ़ी।	What would you like, tea or coffee? वॉट वुड यू लाइक, टी और काफ़ी ?
56.	मैं आपको स्टेशन तक छोड़ने चलूंगा।	I will come to the station to see you off. आइ विल कम टु द स्टेशन टु सी यू ऑफ.
57.	जब भी आप दिल्ली आएं, मुझसे मिलिएगा।	Please look me up whenever you come to Delhi. प्लीज़ लुक मी अप वेन ऐवर यू कम टु डेल्ही.
58.	आइए, मैं आपको अपने परिवार से मिलाऊं।	Let me introduce you to my family. लेट मी इन्ट्रोड्यूस यू टु माई फैमिली.
59.	मेरी पत्नी निशा, मेरी बेटी किटी और बेटे सुमित से मिलिए।	Please meet my wife, my daughter Kitty and son Sumit. प्लीज़ मीट माइ वाइफ़, माइ डाटर किटी ऐंड सन सुमित.
60.	आपके बच्चे बहुत प्यारे हैं।	You have lovely children. यू हैव लवली चिल्ड्रन.
61.	मुझे लगता है, हम पहले मिल चुके हैं।	I think we have met before. आइ थिंक वी हैव मेट बिफ़ोर.
62.	**ऐसी भी क्या जल्दी है, थोड़ा रुको न।**	**What's the hurry? Please stay a little more. वॉट्स द हरी? प्लीज़ स्टे अ लिटिल मोर.**
63.	**मेरे पास आपको धन्यवाद देने के लिए शब्द नहीं हैं।**	**I have no words to express my thanks to you. आइ हैव नो वर्ड्स टु एक्सप्रेस माइ थैंक्स टु यू.**
64.	आपने वाकई मुझे बचा लिया.	You really saved my life. यू रिअली सेन्ड माइ लाइफ़।
65.	आपका विवाहित जीवन लम्बा, सुखी व समृद्ध हो।	May you have a long, happy and prosperous married life. मे यू हैव अ लौंग हैपी ऐंड प्रास्परस मैरिड लाइफ़.

याद रखें (Remember)

* प्रार्थना (request) करने के लिए would और please दोनों का एक साथ प्रयोग करना चाहिए, जैसे — Would you please lend me one rupee ? वुड यू प्लीज़ लेंड मी वन रूपी? (क्या आप मुझे एक रुपया उधार देंगे?) में अधिक शिष्टाचारयुक्त नम्रता है। ऐसी नम्रता Will you please lend me one rupee ? में नहीं है।

** केवल Thanks कहना रूखापन दर्शाता है। इससे बेहतर प्रयोग है Thank you. Thanks के साथ for भी लगता है। ऐसा प्रयोग भी अच्छा है, यद्यपि यह कुछ लंबा है — I thank you, sir, for your interest in my family . (आप जो रुचि मेरे परिवार में लेते हैं, उसके लिए मैं आपका धन्यवाद करता हूं।) परंतु केवल I thank you कदापि न कहिए। यह अपेक्षाकृत रूखा प्रयोग हैं।

*** Congratulations और Felicitations के साथ on लगता है, for और at नहीं. Congratulations for/at your success गलत है। आपको कहना चाहिए Congratulations on your success .

किसी भी बधाई के अवसर पर हम सिर्फ Congratulations या Congrats ही कहें, तो भी ठीक है।

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* ‘Let’s’ let us का संक्षिप्त रूप है।

32 बत्तीसवां दिन

nd Day

6 . अस्वीकृति (Refusal)

1. **मैं नहीं आ सकूंगा।**	**I won't be able to come.** आइ वोन्ट बी एबल टु कम.
2. आप जो चाहते हैं, वह मैं नहीं कर सकूंगा।	I won't be able to do as you wish. आइ वोन्ट बी एबल टु डू ऐज़ यू विश.
3. मैं आना नहीं चाहता।	I don't want to come. आइ डोन्ट वॉन्ट टु कम.
4. मुझे अफ़सोस है, लेकिन मुझे इन्कार करना पड़ रहा है।	I'm sorry to refuse. आइम सॉरी टु रिफ़्यूज़.
5. वे इससे सहमत नहीं होंगे।	They won't agree to this. दे वोन्ट अग्री टु दिस.
6. **यह संभव नहीं है।**	**It's not possible/impossible.** इट्स नॉट पॉसिबल/इम्पॉसिबल.
7. अफ़सोस है, मैं यह प्रस्ताव मंज़ूर नहीं कर सकता।	I regret, I can't accept this proposal. आइ रिग्रेट, आइ कांट ऐक्सेप्ट दिस प्रपोज़ल.
8. आप मेरे विचार से सहमत नहीं हैं, न?	You don't agree with me, do you? यू डोन्ट अग्री विद मी, डू यू?
9. **इसका प्रबंध नहीं हो सकता है।**	**It can't be arranged.** इट कांट बी अरेंज्ड.
10. उसे यह पसंद नहीं है।	She's averse to this idea/to it./She does not like it. शी'ज अवर्स टु दिस आइडिया/टु इट./शी डज़ नॉट लाइक इट.

7 . विश्वास (Believing)

1. क्या आप विश्वास नहीं करते?	Don't you believe it? डोन्ट यू बिलीव इट?
2. यह केवल अफ़वाह है।	It's only a rumour. इट्स ओन्ली अ र्यूमर.
3. यह सुनी-सुनायी बात है।	It's only a hearsay/rumour. इट्स ओन्ली अ हिअरसे/र्यूमर.
4. क्या हमें इस टैक्सी ड्राइवर का विश्वास करना चाहिए?	Should/Can we trust this taxi driver? शुड/कैन वी ट्रस्ट दिस टैक्सी ड्राइवर?
5. आप उनका पूरी तरह विश्वास कर सकते हैं।	You can trust them fully. यू कैन ट्रस्ट देम फ़ुली.
6. **मुझे उस पर पूरा भरोसा है।**	**I have full faith in him.** आइ हैव फ़ुल फ़ेथ इन हिम.

8 . प्रार्थना (Request)

1. ज़रा ठहरिए।*	Please wait. प्लीज़ वेट.
2. वापस आइए।	Please come back. प्लीज़ कम बैक.
3. जाने दीजिए।**	Let it be. लेट इट बी.
4.. ज़रा यहां आना।	Please come here. प्लीज़ कम हिअर.
5. उत्तर दीजिए।	Please reply/answer. प्लीज़ रिप्लाइ/आन्सर.
6. **ज़रा उसे जगाइए।**	**Please wake him up.** प्लीज़ वेक हिम अप.
7. **आशा है, तुम पत्र लिखोगे।**	**Hope to hear from you.** होप टु हिअर फ्रॉम यू.
8. **मेरा एक काम करोगे?**	**Will you do me a favour?** विल यू डू मी अ फ़ेवर?
9. मुझे काम करने दो।**	Let me work. लेट मी वर्क.
0. . जरा देखने तो दो।	Let me see. लेट मी सी.
11. **उन्हें आराम करने दीजिए।**	**Let them relax.** लेट देम रिलैक्स.
2. . जरा कागज़-पेंसिल दीजिए।	Please give me a pencil and paper. प्लीज़ गिव मी अ पेंसिल ऐंड पेपर.
13. परसों ज़रूर आइएगा। भूलिएगा नहीं।	Please do come day after tomorrow. Don't forget. प्लीज़ डू कम डे आफ़्टर टुमॉरो. डोन्ट फ़ॉरगेट.
14. **फिर से कहिए।**	**Please repeat./Pardon./ I beg your pardon.** प्लीज़ रिपीट./ पार्डन./आइ बेग योर पार्डन.
15. **थोड़ा खिसक सकते हैं आप?**	**Could you move/shift a little.** कुड यू मूव/शिफ़्ट अ लिटिल.
16. क्या आप मुझसे परसों मिल सकते हैं?	Can you see me day after tomorrow? कैन यू सी मी डे आफ़्टर टुमॉरो?
17. **मुझे माफ करें।**	**Please forgive me.** प्लीज़ फ़ॉरगिव मी.
18. . ज़रा खिड़की खोल दीजिए।	Will you please open the window. विल यू प्लीज़ ओपन द विण्डो.
19. **सभी से प्रार्थना है कि समय पर पहुंचें।**	**All are requested to reach in time.** ऑल आर रिक्वेस्टेड टु रीच इन टाइम.

याद रखें (Remember)

* अंग्रेज़ी वार्तालाप में please का स्थान बहुत महत्त्वपूर्ण है। इसके प्रयोग से व्यक्ति के शिष्ट व्यवहार का पता चलता है, इसलिए please का अधिकाधिक प्रयोग कीजिए। केवल yes (हां) कहना बहुत रूखा और धृष्ट उत्तर है। इसके विपरीत yes please (हां जी) बहुत स्निग्ध और शिष्ट उत्तर है। किसी व्यक्ति से वार्तालाप करते समय please कहना न भूलिए। Give me a glass of water (मुझे एक गिलास पानी दो)। मत कहिए बल्कि इसके स्थान पर Please give me a glass of water (मुझे ज़रा एक गिलास पानी दीजिए) कहिए।

** (i) Let का प्रयोग सदा first person और third person के साथ होता है, जैसे — What a fine weather! Let us go to the river bank . (कितना सुहावना मौसम है! आओ नदी किनारे चलें।) Let them play football . (उन्हें फुटबॉल खेलने दो।) Second person के साथ let का प्रयोग नहीं होता, जैसे — Let you go for a walk . कहना गलत होगा। पर यदि Second Person के साथ First Person भी हो तो हम कह सकते हैं Let us go for a walk . (आओ मैं और

तुम घूमने चलें)

33 तेंतीसवां दिन

rd Day

9 . आहार (Meals)

1. **मुझे भूख लग रही है।**	**I am feeling hungry.** आइ ऐम फ़ीलिंग हंग्री.
2. **आप क्या खाएंगे?**	**What will you like to eat?** वॉट विल यू लाइक टु ईट?
3. आपके पास कौन-कौन से अचार हैं?	Which pickles do you have? विच पिकल्ज़ डू यू हैव?
4. **क्या आपने नाश्ता कर लिया है?**	**Have you had your breakfast?** हैव यू हैड योर ब्रेकफ़ास्ट?
5. अभी तक नहीं, रमा।	Not yet, Rama. नॉट येट रमा.
6. नाश्ता तैयार कर लो।	Prepare/make the breakfast. प्रिपेअर/मेक द ब्रेकफ़ास्ट.
7. **आओ, हम लोग एक साथ नाश्ता करें।**	**Let's have breakfast together.** लेट्स हैव ब्रेकफ़ास्ट टुगेदर.
8. **चखकर देखो।**	**Just taste it.** जस्ट टेस्ट इट.
9. नहीं, मुझे एक पार्टी में जाना है।	No, I have to attend a party. नो, आइ हैव टु अटेंड अ पार्टी.
10. आपके पास मीठी चीज़ें क्या हैं?**	What sweet dishes do you have? वॉट स्वीट डिशिज़ डू यू हैव?
11. क्या लता ने खाना खा लिया है?	Has Lata finished her meals? हैज़ लता फ़िनिश्ड हर मील्ज़?
12. **जल्दी आओ, खाना परोस दिया गया है।**	**Hurry up, food has been served.** हरी अप फ़ूड हैज़ बीन सर्व्ड.
13. क्या आपको सिगरेट का एक पैकेट चाहिए?	Do you want a packet of cigarettes? डू यू वॉन्ट अ पैकेट ऑफ़ सिगरेट्स?
14. मैं सिगरेट से सिगार अधिक पसंद करता हूं।	I prefer cigar to cigarettes. आइ प्रिफ़र सिगार टु सिगरेट्स.
15. **तुमने तो कुछ खाया ही नहीं।**	**You hardly ate/had anything./You ate very little.** यू हार्डली एट/हैड एनिथिंग./यू एट वेरी लिटिल.
16. **थोड़ा और लीजिए।**	**Have a little more./Please have some more.** हैव अ लिटिल मोर./प्लीज़ हैव सम मोर.
17. क्या आप भी सिगरेट पीते हैं?	Do you also smoke? डू यू ऑल्सो स्मोक?
18. **आप चाय लेंगे या कॉफ़ी?**	**Would you have tea or coffee?** वुड यू हैव टी और कॉफ़ी?
19. **मुझे एक प्याला कॉफ़ी ला दो।**	**Bring/Get me a cup of coffee.** ब्रिंग/गेट मी अ कप ऑफ़ कॉफ़ी.
20. **कॉफ़ी डालिए।**	**Pour the coffee.** पोर द कॉफ़ी.
21. **चम्मच साफ नहीं है, बैरा।**	**Waiter, the spoon is dirty/not clean.** वेटर, द स्पून इज़ डर्टी/नॉट क्लीन.
22. **ज़रा नमक पकड़ाइए।**	**Pass me the salt, please.** पास मी द सॉल्ट, प्लीज़.
23. मुझे थोड़ा-सा ताज़ा मक्खन दीजिए।	Give me some fresh butter, please. गिव मी सम फ्रेश बटर, प्लीज़.
24. थोड़ा और लाइए।	Get/Bring some more, please. गेट/ब्रिंग सम मोर, प्लीज़.
25. **अपने-आप खाइए।**	**Help yourself, please.** हेल्प योरसेल्फ़, प्लीज़.
26. प्लेटें बदलिए।	Change the plates, please. चेंज द प्लेट्स, प्लीज़.
27. **क्या आप वेजीटेरियन (शाकाहारी) हैं?**	**Are you a vegetarian?** आर यू अ वेजिटेरियन?
28. नहीं, मैं नॉन-वेजिटेरियन (मांसाहारी) हूं।	No, I am a non-vegetarian. नो, आइ ऐम अ नॉन-वेजिटेरियन.

29. आज मेरा खाना बाहर ही है।	I'll dine out today./I'll have my dinner out today. आइल डाइन आउट टुडे./आइल हैव माइ डिनर आउट टुडे.
30. क्या आप दूध पीएंगे?	Would you like some milk? वुड यू लाइक सम मिल्क?
31. मैं खाना खाने को अभी बैठा हूं।	I have just sat down to have my meals. आइ हैव जस्ट सैट डाउन टु हैव माइ मील्ज़.
32. मैं चावल नहीं खाता।	I'm not fond of rice./I don't eat rice. आइम नॉट फ़ॉण्ड ऑफ़ राइस./आइ डोन्ट ईट राइस.
33. **खाने के बाद मीठा क्या है?**	**What is there for dessert?** वॉट इज़ देअर फ़ॉर डिज़र्ट?
34. दो रोटियों से तो मेरी भूख नहीं मिटी।	Two chappatis were not enough for me. टू चपातीज़ वर नॉट इनफ फ़ॉर मी.
35. आलू तथा मटर मेरा मन पसंद खाना है।	Alu-mutter is my favourite dish. आलू-मटर इज़ माइ फ़ेवरिट डिश.
36. खाने का समय हो गया है। तैयार हो जाओ।	It is dinner time. Get ready. इट इज़ डिनर टाइम, गेट रेडी.
37. सब्ज़ी में नमक कम है।	There is less salt in the vegetable/curry. देअर इज़ लेस सॉल्ट इन द बेजिटेबल/करी.
38. खाली पेट पानी न पियो।	Don't take water on an empty stomach. डोन्ट टेक वॉटर ऑन एन एम्प्टी स्टमक.
39. आज क्या दाल-भाजी बनी है?	What dishes are cooked today? वॉट डिशिज़ आर कुक्ड टुडे?
40. अपनी माता जी से चुटकी-भर नमक लाओ।	Bring a pinch of salt from your mother. ब्रिंग अ पिंच ऑफ़ सॉल्ट फ्रॉम योर मदर.
41. आलू के अलावा यहां कुछ नहीं मिलता।	Potatoes is all we get here. पटेटोज़ इज़ ऑल वी गेट हिअर.
42. मेरी प्यास अभी नहीं बुझी।	I'm still thirsty. आइम स्टिल थर्स्टी.
43. **उन्होंने मुझे दोपहर के खाने पर बुलाया है।**	**They have invited me to lunch.** दे हैव इन्वाइटिड मी टु लन्च.
44. **आप रात का खाना मेरे साथ खाइए।**	**Please have your dinner with me.** प्लीज़ हैव योर डिनर विद मी.
45. उबले हुए अंडे लेंगे या तले हुए?	Will you have boiled or fried eggs ? विल यू हैव बॉइल्ड ऑर फ्राइड एग्ज़
46. उनकी पार्टी में सात प्रकार के खाने परोसे गये।	There were seven items/dishes at their party. देअर वर सेवन आइटम्ज़/डिशिज़ ऐट देअर पार्टी.
47. नीना अच्छा खाना बनाती है।	Nina is an expert cook. नीना इज़ एन एक्सपर्ट कुक.
48. थोड़ी तरी और दीजिए।	May I have little/some more gravy? मे आइ हैव लिटिल/सम मोर ग्रेवी?
49. मुझे तंदूरी चिकन बहुत पसंद है।	I like tandoori/grilled chicken very much. आइ लाइक तंदूरी/ग्रिल्ड चिकन वेरी मच.
50. **वह बड़ा पेटू है।**	**He's a glutton.** ही 'ज़ अ ग्लटन.

याद रखें (Remember)

* Feel के साथ विशेषण लगता है, संज्ञा नहीं लगती। उदाहरण के लिए, I'm feeling thirsty . आइम फ़ीलिंग थर्स्टी. (मुझे प्यास लगी है।) कहा जाता है; हिन्दी की नकल करते हुए I feel thirst . नहीं कहा जाता।

** पकवान के लिए dish शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाता है। वैसे इसका अर्थ तश्तरी भी होता है। उदाहरण के लिए — आपके यहां क्या खाना मिलता है? के लिए कहेंगे, What dishes do you serve ?

***अंग्रेज़ी में आमतौर पर खाने के लिए eat और पीने के लिए drink शब्दों का प्रयोग नहीं किया जाता। इसके विपरीत खाने और पीने के लिए take शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाता है, जैसे — Do you take tea ? (क्या आप चाय पीते हैं?) और Do you take fish ? (क्या आप मछली खाते हैं?) Drink का साधारण अर्थ होता है, शराब पीना।

34 चौंतीसवां दिन

th Day

10 . समय (Time)

1. आपकी घड़ी में क्या बजा है?*	What's the time by your watch? वॉट्स द टाइम बाइ योर वॉच?
2. साढ़े सात बजे हैं।	It's half past seven. इट्स हाफ़ पास्ट सेवन.
3. तुम कब उठते हो?	When do you wake up? वेन डू यू वेक अप?
4. मैं रोज सुबह साढ़े छः बजे उठता हूं।	I wake up every morning at half past six. आइ वेक अप एवरी मॉर्निंग ऐट हाफ़ पास्ट सिक्स.
5. मेरी बहिन लगभग आठ बजे नाश्ता करती है।	My sister has her breakfast around eight o'clock. माइ सिस्टर हैज़ हर ब्रेकफास्ट अराउण्ड एट ओ'क्लॉक.
6. टीचर स्कूल में कब पहुंचती हैं?	When does the teacher come to the school? वेन डज़ द टीचर कम टु द स्कूल?
7. नौ बजे से थोड़ा पहले।	A little before nine. अ लिटिल बिफ़ोर नाइन.
8. उसके स्कूल में पढ़ाई कब खत्म होती है?	When are the classes over in her school? वेन आर द क्लासिज़ ओवर इन हर स्कूल?
9. सवा तीन बजे।	At quarter past three. ऐट क्वार्टर पास्ट थ्री.
10. आप रात का भोजन कब करते हैं?	When do you have your dinner? वेन डू यू हैव योर डिनर?
11. साढ़े सात बजे।	At half past seven. ऐट हॉफ़ पास्ट सेवन.
12. मैं घर पौने चार बजे पहुंचता हूं।	I reach home at quarter to four. आइ रीच होम ऐट क्वार्टर टु फ़ोर.
13. इस वक्त तीन बजकर दस मिनट हुए हैं।	It's ten past three now. इट्स टेन पास्ट थ्री नाउ.
14. मुझे चार बजने से बीस मिनट पहले जाना है।	I have to go/leave at twenty to four/at three-forty. आइ हैव टु गो/लीव ऐट ट्वेंटी टु फ़ोर/ऐट थ्री फ़ोर्टी.
15. आपके पिता जी रात को घर में कितने बजे तक आ जाते हैं?	By what time does your father usually come home every night? बाइ वॉट टाइम डज़ योर फ़ादर यूज़ुअली कम होम एवरी नाइट?
16. वे अपने दफ़्तर से कितने बजे छुट्टी करते हैं?	At what time does he leave his office? ऐट वॉट टाइम डज़ ही लीव हिज़ ऑफ़िस?
17. वे अपने दफ्तर से पांच बजे छुट्टी कर लेते हैं।	He leaves his office at/by five o'clock. ही लीव्ज़ हिज़ ऑफ़िस ऐट/बाइ फ़ाइव ओ'क्लॉक.
18. **आज क्या तारीख है?**	**What's the date today?** वाट्स द डेट टुडे?
19. आज 15 दिसम्बर 1976 है।	It is fifteenth of December, nineteen seventy-six. इट इज़ फ़िफ़्टीन्थ ऑफ़ डिसेम्बर, नाइन्टीन सेवन्टी-सिक्स.
20. तुम्हारा जन्मदिन कब होता है?	When is your birthday? वेन इज़ योर बर्थडे?
21. मैं नहीं जानता सर।	I don't know, sir. आइ डोन्ट नो, सर.
22. मेरी घड़ी रोज दो मिनट आगे हो जाती है।	My watch gains two minutes daily. माइ वाच गेन्ज़ टू मिनिट्स डेली.
23. अपने समय का पूरा लाभ उठाओ।	Make the best use of your time. मेक द बेस्ट यूज़ ऑफ़ योर टाइम.

24. अब उसे समय की कीमत पता लग गई है।	Now he values punctuality/time./Now he knows the importance of time. नाउ ही वैल्यूज़ पन्क्चुअलिटी/टाइम./नाउ ही नोज़ द इम्पॉर्टेन्स ऑफ़ टाइम.
25. वह अपना समय बर्बाद करता है।	He wastes his time. ही वेस्ट्स हिज़ टाइम.
26. वह एक-एक मिनट का पाबंद है।	He is punctual to the minute. ही इज़ पंक्चुअल टु द मिनट.
27. **समय कितनी तेज़ी से बीतता है।**	**How time flies!** हाउ टाइम फ़्लाइज़!
28. मेरी घड़ी टूट गयी है।	My watch has broken. माइ वाच हैज़ ब्रोकन.
29. **उठने का समय हो गया है।**	**It is time to wake up.** इट इज़ टाइम टु वेक अप.
30. उसे देर नहीं हुई है।	He is quite in time. He isn't late. ही इज़ क्वाइट इन टाइम. ही इज़न्ट लेट.
31. वह ठीक समय पर आ गया।	He came at the right time. ही केम ऐट द राइट टाइम.
32. आपको आधा घंटा देर हो गयी है।	You are late by half an hour. यू आर लेट बाइ हाफ़ ऐन आवर.
33. **हमारे पास बहुत समय है।**	**We have enough time./We have plenty of time.** वी हैव इनफ़ टाइम./वी हैव प्लेन्टी ऑफ़ टाइम.
34. करीब-करीब आधी रात है।	It's almost mid-night. इट्स ऑलमोस्ट मिड-नाइट.
35. हम बहुत जल्दी आ गये हैं।	We are too early. वी आर टू अर्ली.
36. आप बिल्कुल समय से आये हैं। एक मिनट में मैं चला गया होता।	You are just in time. I would have left in another minute. यू आर जस्ट इन टाइम. आइ वुड हैव लेफ़्ट इन अनदर मिनिट.
37. अच्छे दिन आएंगे।	Better days will come./Good days are ahead. बेटर डेज़ विल कम./ गुड डेज़ आर अहेड.
38. मैं तो एक-एक क्षण बचाने की कोशिश कर रहा हूं।	I am trying to save each/every moment. आइ ऐम ट्राइंग टु सेव ईच/एवरी मोमेन्ट.
39. हर चीज़ का सही समय होता है।	There is a time for everything. देअर इज़ अ टाइम फ़ॉर एवरीथिंग.
40. क्या आप कुछ समय दे सकते हैं?	Can you spare a little time? कैन यू स्पेअर अ लिटिल टाइम?
41. गया वक्त फिर हाथ नहीं आता।	Time once lost can never be regained. टाइम वन्स लॉस्ट कैन नेवर बी रिगेन्ड.

11 . अनुमति (Permission)

1. शुरू करें?*	Do/Should we begin? डू/शुड वी बिगिन?
2. मैं चलूं?**	May I go/leave? मे आइ गो/लीव?
3. मैं भी चलूं?	May I join you?/May I also come along? मे आइ जॉइन यू? मे आइ ऑल्सो कम अलॉन्ग?
4. मुझे जाने दो।	Let me go. लेट मी गो.
5. अब आप जा सकते हैं।	You may go/leave now. यू मे गो/लीव नाउ.
6. अब, मुझे जाने की इजाज़त दीजिए।	Please permit/allow me to go now. प्लीज़ परमिट/अलाउ मी टु गो नाउ.
7. क्या मैं टेलीफ़ोन कर लूं?	Can I use your phone? कैन आइ यूज़ योर फ़ोन?
8. क्या मैं बिजली बंद कर दूं?	Can I switch off the light? कैन आइ स्विच ऑफ़ द लाइट?
9. क्या मैं तुम्हारी वीडियो गेम खेल सकता हूं?	May I play your video game? मे आइ प्ले योर वीडियो गेम?
10. क्या मैं अंदर आ सकता हूं?	May I come in, please? मे आइ कम इन, प्लीज़?
11. क्या मैं अपनी पुस्तकें तुम्हारे पास छोड़ जाऊं?	Can I leave my books with you? कैन आइ लीव माइ बुक्स विद यू?
12. **क्या हम तुम्हारे कमरे में सिगरेट पी सकते हैं?**	**Can we smoke in your room?** कैन वी स्मोक इन योर रूम?
13. हां, बड़ी खुशी से।	Of course, with great pleasure. ऑफ़ कोर्स, विद ग्रेट प्लेज़र.
14. **क्या आप मुझे अपनी कार में ले चलेंगे?**	**Will you please give me a lift/take me in your car?** विल यू प्लीज़ गिव मी अ लिफ़्ट/टेक मी इन योर कार?
15. क्या मैं थोड़ी देर के लिए आपकी साईकल ले सकता हूं?	May I borrow your bike for a while? मे आइ बॉरो योर बाइक फ़ॉर ए वाइल?
16. **क्या मैं आपको तकलीफ़ दे सकता हूं?**	**Can I disturb you?** कैन आइ डिस्टर्ब यू?
17. क्या मैं इस कमरे में ठहर सकता हूं?	Can I stay in this room? कैन आइ स्टे इन दिस रूम?
18. क्या हम यहां थोड़ा सुस्ता लें?	May we rest here for a while? मे वी रेस्ट हिअर फ़ॉर ए वाइल?
19. क्या मैं आज पिक्चर देखने जा सकता हूं?	May I go to see a movie today? मे आइ गो टु सी अ मूवी टुडे?

याद रखें (Remember)

* प्रश्न दो प्रकार से बनाये जा सकते हैं। एक तो प्रश्नवाचक सर्वनामों (pronouns) की सहायता से, जैसे What is your name, please ? (आपका नाम क्या है?) और दूसरे Auxiliary Verb (सहायक क्रिया) को वाक्य से पहले रख कर, जैसे — Are you going ? (क्या आप जा रहे हैं?) इस दूसरे तरीके का प्रयोग अंग्रेज़ी में होता है, हिंदी में नहीं। इसी प्रकार दूसरी सहायक क्रियाएं, जैसे — is, has, have, will, shall आदि को वाक्य में पहले रख कर प्रश्नवाचक वाक्य बनाये जा सकते हैं, जैसे — Is she unwell ? (इज़ शी अनवेल) क्या वह बीमार है? Have you a pen ? (हैव यू अ पेन) क्या तुम्हारे पास पेन है? Shall we go ? (शैल वी गो) क्या हम चलें? आदि!

** आज्ञा मांगने के लिए अंग्रेज़ी में may शब्द का प्रयोग होता है। इसका यह अर्थ नहीं कि आज्ञा के लिए यही एकमात्र शब्द है। कुछ और शब्द भी हैं, जिनके द्वारा आज्ञा मांगी जा सकती है, जैसे — Shall we set out now ? (क्या हम अब चल पड़ें?)। कई बार तो may शब्द द्वारा मांगी हुई आज्ञा सही नहीं लगती है, जैसे — मान लीजिए कि

आंधी आ गई हो तो उसे देखते हुए May I shut the window ? न कह कर Should I shut the window ? कहना सही व उपयुक्त होगा। हिंदी में दोनों वाक्यों का अर्थ है, क्या मैं खिड़की बंद कर दूं?

35 पैंतीसवां दिन

th Day

12. (A) निर्देश/आज्ञा (Instruction/Order)

1. आप अपना काम करें	Do your work. डू योर वर्क.
2. उसे स्टेशन तक छोड़ आओ।	See him off at the station. सी हिम ऑफ़ ऐट द स्टेशन.
3. सच कहना, झूठ न बोलना।	Speak the truth, don't lie. स्पीक द ट्रूथ, डोन्ट लाइ.
4. यह कोट पहन कर देखो।	Try this coat on. ट्राइ दिस कोट ऑन.
5. दिल लगाकर काम करो।	Work wholeheartedly. वर्क होलहार्टिडली.
6. शराब मत पिओ।	Don't drink. डोंट ड्रिंक.
7. मेरे लिए एक गिलास ताज़ा जल लाओ।	Fetch/get me a glass of fresh water. फ़ेच/गेट मी अ ग्लास ऑफ़ फ्रेश वॉटर.
8. ज़रा नर्मी से बात करो।	Talk politely./Be polite. टॉक पोलाइटली./बी पोलाइट.
9. इस चिट्ठी का जवाब वापसी डाक से दो।	Reply by return post. रिप्लाइ बाइ रिटर्न पोस्ट.
10. हिसाब चेक कर लो।	Check the accounts. चेक दी एकाउंट्स.
11. गर्म चाय को धीरे-धीरे पीओ।	Sip the hot tea slowly. सिप द हॉट टी स्लोली.
12. अड्डे से तांगा लाओ।	Get a tonga from the tonga-stand. गेट अ टांगा फ्रॉम द टांगा स्टैंड.
13. **यहां गाड़ी खड़ी करना मना है।**	**Parking is not allowed here.** पार्किंग इज़ नॉट अलाउड हिअर.
14. दो संतरे निचोड़ दो।	Squeeze two oranges. स्क्वीज़ टू आरेन्जेज़.
15. बायें हाथ चलो।	Keep to the left. कीप टु द लेफ़्ट.
16. **मुझे सुबह उठा देना।**	**Wake me up early in the morning.** वेक मी अप अर्ली इन द मॉर्निंग.
17. **अपने-आपको सुधार लो।**	**Mend your ways.** मेंड योर वेज़.
18. परदा कर दो।	Draw the curtain. ड्रॉ द कर्टन.
19. उसे सारा शहर दिखा दो।	Take him round the city. टेक हिम राउंड द सिटी.
20. मेहमान को अंदर ले आओ।	Bring the guest in. ब्रिंग द गेस्ट इन.
21. सबके साथ नरमी से बोलो।	Be polite to all./Speak politely with everybody. बी पोलाइट टु ऑल./स्पीक पोलाइट्ली विद एवरीबडी.
22. यह बात मुझे समय पर याद दिला देना।	Remind me of it at the proper time. रिमाइंड मी ऑफ़ इट ऐट द प्रॉपर टाइम.
23. मेरे साथ पैर मिलाकर चलो।	Keep pace with me. कीप पेस विद मी.
24. बच्चे को सुला दो।	Put the child to sleep/bed. पुट द चाइल्ड टु स्लीप/बेड.
25. मुझे कल इसकी याद दिलाना।	Remind me about it tomorrow. रिमाइंड मी अबाउट इट टुमॉरो.
26. **सब बंदोबस्त कर रखना।**	**Keep everything ready.** कीप एवरीथिंग रेडी.
27. **संभल कर चलना।**	**Walk cautiously.** वॉक कॉशसली.
28. बाद में आ जाना।	Come afterwards. कम आफ़्टरवर्ड्ज़.
29. मुझे पांच बजे जगा देना।	Wake me up at 5 o'clock. वेक मी अप ऐट फ़ाइव ओ'क्लॉक.
30. **चलना हो तो तैयार हो जाओ।**	**Get ready if you want to come along.** गेट रेडी इफ़ यू वॉन्ट टु कम अलॉन्ग.

31. जब तक मैं न आ जाऊं यहीं बैठे रहना।	Wait here until I'm back. वेट हिअर अंटिल आइम बैक.
32. ऐसी बात नहीं कहते।	Don't speak like this. डोन्ट स्पीक लाइक दिस.
33. अपना काम ध्यान से करो।	Work carefully. वर्क केअरफ़ुली.
34. अपना काम करो।	Do your own work. डू योर ओन वर्क.
35. अब तुम जाओ, मुझे काम है।	You may go now, I have some work. यू मे गो नाउ, आइ हैव सम वर्क.
36. इसे लिख लो।	Note this down. नोट दिस डाउन.
37. **जल्दी वापस आना।**	**Come back soon.** कम बैक सून.
38. फिर कभी आकर मिलना।	Come and see me some other time. कम ऐंड सी मी सम अदर टाइम.
39. अपना काम देखिये।	Please mind your own business. प्लीज़ माइंड योर ओन बिज़निस.
40. **जरा सब्र करो।**	**Have patience.** हैव पेशेंस.
41. बड़ों का आदर करो।	Respect your elders. रिस्पेक्ट योर एल्डर्ज़.
42. तुम वहीं रहना।	You stay there. यू स्टे देअर.
43. अच्छे समय की आशा करो।	Hope for good times. होप फ़ॉर गुड टाइम्ज़.
44. **बच्चे का ध्यान रखना।**	**Take care of the baby.** टेक केअर ऑफ़ द बेबी.

याद रखें (Remember)

* हिन्दी में, और विशेषकर संस्कृत में, एक ही मूल शब्द से उपसर्गों की सहायता से अनेक भिन्न-भिन्न अर्थ वाले शब्द रचे जाते हैं। उदाहरण के लिए, आहार, विहार, प्रहार, संहार, परिहार आदि भिन्नार्थक शब्द 'हार' में आ, वि, प्र, सं, और परि उपसर्ग लगाने से बने हैं। अंग्रेज़ी में भी ऐसा होता है। उदाहरण के लिए Adjudge, misjudge, prejudge, subjudge आदि शब्द judge में ad, mis, pre, sub , उपसर्ग (prefix) लगाने से बने हैं, परंतु अंग्रेज़ी में एक विशेषता ऐसी है, जो हिन्दी में नहीं। अंग्रेज़ी में एक ही क्रिया के साथ अनेक अव्यय (preposition) लगा कर अनेक अर्थों का बोध कराया जाता है, जैसे — go (जाना) मूल क्रिया को लीजिए। Go out का अर्थ है बुझना — The light went out during the storm . (तूफान के दौरान बत्तियां बुझ गयीं।) Go off का अर्थ है धमाके के साथ फटना — The gun went off by itself . (बंदूक अपने आप चल पड़ी) Go through का अर्थ है ध्यानपूर्वक पढ़ना — He went through the whole book, but could not discover anything new in it . (उसने सारी

पुस्तक पढ़ डाली, परंतु उसमें से कुछ भी नई बात नहीं निकली) इन वाक्यों में Go के स्थान पर उसका Past Tense ‘ Went ’ लिया गया है।

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th Day

12. (B) निर्देश/आज्ञा (Instruction/Order)

45. **तुम्हीं जाओ।**	**Go yourself.** गो योरसेल्फ़.
46. तैयार रहना।	Be ready. बी रेडी.
47. दीया जलाना।	Light the lamp. लाइट द लैम्प.
48. **बिजली जला दो।**	**Switch on the light.** स्विच ऑन द लाइट.
49. लैम्प बुझा दो।*	Put off the lamp. पुट ऑफ़ द लैम्प.
50. **बिजली बुझा दो।**	**Switch off the light.** स्विच ऑफ़ द लाइट.
51. पंखा चला दो।	Switch on the fan. स्विच ऑन द फ़ैन.
52. **किसी को भेजकर उसे बुलाओ।**	**Send for him.** सेण्ड फ़ॉर हिम.
53. इन लोगों को अपना काम करने दो।	Let these people do their work. लेट दीज़ पीपल डू देअर वर्क.
54. **हाथ धोओ।**	**Wash your hands.** वाश योर हैंड्ज़.
55. जल्दी आओ।	Come soon. कम सून.
56. गाड़ी रोको।	Stop the car. स्टॉप द कार.
57. वापस जाओ।	Go back. गो बैक.
58. **देर मत करो।**	**Don't delay./Don't be late.** डोन्ट डिले./डोन्ट बी लेट.
59. पेंसिल से मत लिखो।	Don't write with a pencil. डोन्ट राइट विद अ पेंसिल.
60. पेन से लिखो।	Write with a pen. राइट विद अ पेन.
61. दूसरों की नकल न करो।	Don't copy others. डोन्ट कॉपी अदर्ज़.
62. कोई किराये की मोटर कर लो।	Hire a taxi. हायर अ टैक्सी.
63. कोट के बटन बंद करो।	Button up your coat. बटन अप योर कोट.
64. आग बुझने न देना।	Keep the fire going. कीप द फ़ायर गोइंग.
65. घोड़े को घास डाल दो।	Feed the horse with grass. फ़ीड द हॉर्स विद ग्रास.
66. जाओ, नाक साफ करो।	Go, and blow your nose. गो, ऐंड ब्लो योर नोज़.
67. **मुझे खबर देना मत भूलना।**	**Don't forget to inform me.** डोन्ट फ़ॉरगेट टु इन्फ़ॉर्म मी.
68. बूट के तसमें कस कर बांधो।	Tighten your shoe-laces. टाइटन योर शू लेसिज़.
69. स्वास्थ्य को बिगाड़ कर मत पढ़ो।	Don't study at the cost of your health. डोन्ट स्टडी ऐट द कॉस्ट ऑफ़ योर हेल्थ.
70. विस्तार के साथ चिट्ठी लिखो।	Write a detailed letter./Write a long letter. राइट अ डिटेल्ट लेटर./राइट अ लौंग लेटर.
71. भविष्य में ऐसा मत करना।	Don't do so in future./Let this not happen in future. डोन्ट डू सो इन फ़्यूचर./लैट दिस नॉट हैपन इन फ़्यूचर.
72. तुम खुद चिट्ठी डाल कर आओ।	Post this letter yourself. पोस्ट दिस लेटर योरसेल्फ़.

73. समय का पालन करो।	Be punctual. बी पंक्चुअल.
74. **इधर-उधर की बातें न करो।**	**Don't beat about the bush.** डोन्ट बीट अबाउट द बुश.
75. फूल मत तोड़ो।	Don't pluck the flowers. डोन्ट प्लक द फ़्लावर्ज़.
76. खराब आदतें छोड़ दो।	Give up bad habits. गिव अप बैड हैबिट्स.
77. खाना अच्छी तरह चबाकर खाओ।	Chew your food well. च्यू योर फ़ूड वेल.
78. दांतों को ब्रश कर लो।	Brush your teeth. ब्रश योर टीथ.
79. बक-बक न करो।	Don't chatter./Don't talk nonsense. डोंट चैटर./डोन्ट टॉक नॉनसेंस.
80. प्रत्येक वस्तु क्रम से रखो।	Arrange/keep everything in order. अरेन्ज/कीप एवरीथिंग इन ऑर्डर.
81. स्याही से लिखो।	Write in ink. राइट इन इंक.
82. **मूर्ख मत बनो।**	**Don't be silly.** डोन्ट बी सिली.
83. मेहमानों की सेवा करो।	Look after the guests. लुक आफ़्टर द गेस्ट्स.
84. **तुम अपने कार्य में ध्यान दो।**	**Mind your own business.** माइंड योर ओन बिज़निस.
85. **दोनों हाथों से पकड़े रहो।**	**Hold with both hands.** होल्ड विद बोथ हैंड्ज़.
86. देश सेवा में जान दे दो।	Sacrifice your life for the Motherland/country. सैक्रिफ़ाइस योर लाइफ़ फ़ॉर द मदरलैंड./कंट्री.
87. काम में रुकावट मत डालो।	Don't hold up the work. डोन्ट होल्ड अॅप द वर्क.
88. **बुरी आदतों से सावधान रहना चाहिए।**	**Be careful against bad habits.** बी केयरफ़ुल अगेंस्ट बैड हैबिट्स.
89. **कम्प्यूटर रीसेट करो।**	**Reset the computer.** रीसेट द कम्प्यूटर.
90. **इस रेज़गारी को रखो।**	**Keep the change.** कीप द चेन्ज.

याद रखें (Remember)

* अंग्रेज़ी में Put क्रिया का अर्थ होता है रखना। परंतु यह बात देखने योग्य है कि अव्ययों (Prepositions) के जोड़ने से put के कैसे विचित्र अर्थ बन जाते हैं, उदाहरण के लिए, निम्न वाक्यों को ध्यान से पढ़िए: Put down का अर्थ है लिखना: Please put down all that I say. (जो मैं कहता हूं उसे लिख लीजिए।) Put forward का अर्थ है पेश करना: He hesitated to put forward his plan. (वह अपनी योजना पेश

करने में हिचकिचाया।) Put off का अर्थ है स्थगित करना: For want of a quorum the meeting was put off. (कोरम के अभाव में सभा स्थगित कर दी गयी।) Put on का अर्थ है कपड़े पहनना: He put on new clothes on the Id day. (उसने ईद के दिन नए कपड़े पहने।) Put out का अर्थ है बुझाना: Put out the fire lest it should spread around. (आग को बुझा दो कहीं यह आसपास फैल न जाए।)

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th Day

13 . प्रोत्साहन (Encouragement)

1. **विश्वास रखिये।**	**Rest assured.** रेस्ट अश्योर्ड.
2. चिन्ता मत करो।	Stop worrying. स्टॉप वरीइंग.
3. बच्चों की तरह मत रोओ।	Don't cry like children. डोन्ट क्राइ लाइक चिल्ड्रन.
4. तुम्हें चिंता किस बात की है?	What's bothering you? वॉट्स बॉदरिंग यू?
5. **मेरी चिंता न करो।**	**Don't worry about me.** डोन्ट वरी अबाउट मी.
6. **डरो मत।***	**Don't be scared.** डोन्ट बी स्केअर्ड.
7. फ़िक्र की कोई बात नहीं।	There is no need to worry. देअर इज़ नो नीड टु वरी.
8. मुझे इसकी परवाह नहीं।	I'm not bothered about it. आइम नॉट बॉदर्ड अबाउट इट.
9. कोई कठिनाई हो तो पूछिए।	You can ask me if there is any difficulty. यू कैन आस्क मी इफ़ देअर इज़ एनी डिफ़िकल्टी.
10. **जिस चीज़ की ज़रूरत पड़े वह ले जाना।**	**Take whatever you need.** टेक वॉटेवर यू नीड.
11. आप फ़िजूल परेशान हो रहे हैं।	You are unnecessarily worried. यू आर अन्नेसेसरिली वरीड.
12. **मुझे आप पर गर्व है।**	**I'm proud of you.** आइम प्राउड ऑफ़ यू.
13. **हिचकिचाओ नहीं।**	**Don't hesitate.** डोन्ट हेज़िटेट.
14. कोई हर्ज़ नहीं।	It doesn't matter. इट डज़ंट मैटर.

14 . सान्त्वना (Consolation)

15. बड़े अफ़सोस की बात है।	It's a pity./It's very sad. इट्स अ पिटी/इट्स वेरी सैड.
16. **उसे सान्त्वना दो।**	**Console him.** कन्सोल हिम.
17. संसार का कुछ ऐसा ही नियम है।	That's the way things are. दैट्स द वे थिंग्ज़ आर.
18. **ईश्वर की यही इच्छा थी।**	**It was God's will.** इट वाज़ गॉड्ज़ विल.
19. **जिस कष्ट का इलाज नहीं हो सकता उसे सहना ही पड़ता है।**	**What cannot be cured must be endured.** वॉट कैननॉट बी क्योर्ड मस्ट बी एन्ड्योर्ड.
20. ईश्वर पर भरोसा रखो, संकट टल जाएगा।	Have faith in God, misfortune will pass. हैव फ़ेथ इन गॉड, मिसफ़ॉर्च्यून विल पास.
21. ईश्वर तुम्हें इस गहरे धक्के को सहन करने की शक्ति दे।	May God give you strength to bear this terrible blow. मे गॉड गिव यू स्ट्रेंथ टु बेअर दिस टेरिबल ब्लो.
22. हम अपनी संवेदना प्रकट करते हैं।	We offer our condolences. वी ऑफ़र अवर कंडोलेंसिज़.
23. हम उसके पिता के देहांत पर दु:खी हैं।	We are deeply grieved at the death of her father. वी आर डीप्ली ग्रीव्ड ऐट द डेथ ऑफ़ हर फ़ादर.

15 . नाराज़गी (Annoyance)

24. **आप अभी तक काम में क्यों नहीं लगे?**	**Why haven't you begun/started the work yet?** वाइ हैवन्ट यू बिगन/स्टार्टिड द वर्क येट?
25. **आप मेरी बात को क्यों काटते हैं?**	**Why do you contradict me?** वाइ डू यू कॉन्ट्रडिक्ट मी?
26. आप मेरी ओर क्यों घूरते हैं?	Why do you stare at me? वाइ डू यू स्टेअर ऐट मी?
27. आप बेकार गुस्सा हो रहे हैं।	You are angry for nothing./You are unnecessarily getting annoyed. यू आर ऐंग्री फ़ॉर नथिंग./यू आर अननैसेसरिली गेटिंग अनोइड.
28. **तुम बेकार में समय खोते हो।**	**You just/simply waste your time.** यू जस्ट/सिम्पली वेस्ट योर टाइम.
29. **किसका दोष है?**	**Who is to blame?** हू इज़ टु ब्लेम?
30. **क्या मैंने आपको चोट पहुंचायी है?**	**Have I hurt you?** हैव आइ हर्ट यू?
31. **कैसी शर्म की बात है!**	**What a shame!** वॉट अ शेम!
32. मैं यह विश्वास नहीं कर सका कि तुम ईमानदार नहीं हो।	I couldn't believe that you are not an honest person! आइ कुडन्ट बिलीव दैट यू आर नॉट ऐन ऑनेस्ट पर्सन!
33. मैं किसका विश्वास करूं?	Whom can I trust? हूम कैन आइ ट्रस्ट?
34. **यह मेरा कसूर नहीं था।**	**It was not my fault.** इट वॉज़ नॉट माइ फ़ॉल्ट.
35. दरअसल ऐसा गलती से हो गया।	Actually, it was done by mistake. एक्चुअली, इट वॉज़ डन बाइ मिस्टेक.
36. **उसने नाक में दम कर रखा है।**	**He is a nuisance.** ही इज़ अ न्यूसन्स.
37. उसने मेरे विश्वास को ठेस पहुंचायी।	He has let me down. ही हैज़ लेट मी डाउन.
38. **मुझे उससे चिढ़ आती है।**	**He irritates me.** ही इरीटेट्स मी.
39. उसने मुझे धोखा दिया।	He has betrayed/cheated me. ही हैज़ बिट्रेड/चीटिड मी.

16 . स्नेह-प्रशंसा (Affection)

40. तुमने बड़े साहस का काम किया है।	That was very brave of you. दैट वॉज़ वेरी ब्रेव आफ़ यू.
41. शाबास!	Well done! Good show! Keep it up! वैल डन!/गुड शो! / कीप इट अप!
42. कमाल कर दिया।	That's wonderful. दैट्स वण्डरफ़ुल.
43. तुम्हारा काम तारीफ़ के काबिल है।	Your work is praiseworthy. योर वर्क इज़ प्रेज़वर्दी.
44. **तुम कितने अच्छे हो।**	**You are so nice./How nice you are.** यू आर सो नाइस./हाउ नाइस यू आर.
45. **आपने मेरी बड़ी सहायता की।**	**You have been a great help to me.** यू हैव बीन अ ग्रेट हेल्प टु मी.

याद रखें (Remember)

* Don't be afraid (डरो मत) में Don't डोन्ट दो शब्दों के मेल से बना शब्द है। Don't=Do+not — यह दिखाने के लिए not का o लुप्त करके उसके स्थान पर apostrophe (') लगा देते हैं। Won't=Wo+not नहीं है, बल्कि Won't=Will + not है। इस प्रकार इन शब्दों की बनावट का कोई एक नियम नहीं है। हां not का सदा n't लिखा जाता है। इसी प्रकार can't 'कान्ट' cannot का संक्षिप्त रूप है। याद रखिए कि यद्यपि cannot का अर्थ can not है, परंतु इसे अधिकतर एक ही शब्द के रूप में लिखा जाता है, अलग-अलग can और not नहीं। इसी प्रकार बने कुछ और प्रचलित शब्द निम्नलिखित हैं: Doesn't = does + not Shan't = Shall + not Wouldn't = would + not Aren't = Are + not Weren't = were + not Couldn't =

could + not Shouldn’t = should + not Needn’t = need + not Didn’t = did + not उपरोक्त शब्दों का उच्चारण पहले शब्द का पूरा उच्चारण करके ‘न्ट’ लगाने से बनता है, जैसे वुडन्ट, कुडन्ट, शुडन्ट, नीडन्ट आदि।

38 अड़तीसवां दिन

th Day

17 . निषेध (Negation)

1. मैं आपका कहना नहीं मान सकता।	I can't accept what you say. आइ कान्ट ऐक्सेप्ट वॉट यू से.
2. मैं इस बारे में कुछ नहीं जानता।	I know nothing in this connection. आइ नो नथिंग इन दिस कनेक्शन.
3. ऐसी शरारत फिर न करना।	Don't do such a mischief again. डोन्ट डू सच ए मिस्चिफ़ अगेन.
4. **ऐसा नहीं है।**	**It's not so/like that.** इट्स नॉट सो/लाइक दैट.
5. उसे छुट्टी नहीं मिल सकी।	He couldn't manage to get leave. ही कुडन्ट मैनेज टु गेट लीव.
6. **मुझे कोई शिकायत नहीं।**	**I have no complaints. / I don't have any complaint.** आइ हैव नो कम्पलेन्ट्स./आइ डोन्ट हैव ऐनी कम्प्लेन्ट.
7. ऐसा नहीं हो सकता।	It's impossible./It can't be so. इट्स इम्पॉसिबल./इट कान्ट बी सो.
8. **नहीं, मैं नहीं जा सका।**	**No, I couldn't go.** नो, आइ कुडन्ट गो.
9. **मैं नहीं जानता।**	**I don't know.** आइ डोन्ट नो.
10. मुझे कुछ नहीं चाहिए।	I don't want anything. आइ डोन्ट वॉन्ट एनीथिंग.
11. **कुछ नहीं।**	**Nothing.** नथिंग.
12. यह मैं कैसे कर सकता हूं!	How can I do this! हाउ कैन आइ डू दिस!
13. **मुझसे यह काम नहीं होगा।**	**I can't do this.** आइ कान्ट डू दिस.
14. मैं नहीं मानता।	I don't agree/believe. आइ डोन्ट अग्री/बिलीव.
15. **यह सच नहीं है।**	**This is not true.** दिस इज़ नॉट ट्रू.
16. तुम्हें इस बात की इजाज़त नहीं देनी चाहिए।	You should not allow this. यू शुड नॉट अलाउ दिस.
17. दूसरों की आलोचना न करो।	Don't find fault with others./Don't criticise others. डोन्ट फ़ाइंड फ़ॉल्ट विद अदर्ज़/डोन्ट क्रिटिसाइज़ अदर्ज़.
18. अपने धन का घमंड न करो।	Don't be proud of your riches/money. डोन्ट बी प्राउड ऑफ़ योर रिचिज़/मनी.
19. किसी को धोखा न दो।	Don't cheat anybody. डोन्ट चीट ऐनीबॉडी.
20. लंबी घास पर मत चलो।	Don't walk on the tall grass. डोन्ट वॉक ऑन द टॉल ग्रास.
21. **ज़िद्दी मत बनो।**	**Don't be stubborn.** डोन्ट बी स्टबर्न.
22. **मैं इसे खरीद नहीं सकता।**	**Sorry, I can't buy/afford it.** सॉरी, आइ कान्ट बाइ/अफ़ोर्ड इट.
23. **मेरे पास रेज़गारी नहीं है।**	**Sorry, I don't have any change.** सॉरी, आइ डोन्ट हैव एनी चेंज.
24. **मैं गाना नहीं जानता।**	**I don't know how to sing.** आइ डोन्ट नो हाउ टु सिंग.
25. **गुस्सा मत करो।**	**Don't be angry./Don't lose your temper.** डोन्ट बी ऐंग्री./डोन्ट लूज़ योर टेम्पर.
26. किसी आदमी के साथ रूखा मत बोलो।	Don't be rude to anybody./Don't speak harshly with anybody. डोन्ट बी रूड टु एनीबडी. डोन्ट स्पीक हार्शली विद एनीबडी.

18 . सहमति (Consent)

1. **जैसी आपकी मर्ज़ी।**	**As you like/As you please** ऐज़ यू लाइक/ऐज़ यू प्लीज़।
2. **आपका कहना ठीक है।**	**You are right.** यू आर राइट.
3. **मुझे कोई एतराज़ नहीं है।**	**I have no objection./I don't have any objection.** आइ हैव नो ऑब्जेक्शन./आइ डोन्ट हैव एनी ऑब्जेक्शन.
4. कोई हर्ज़ नहीं।	It doesn't matter. इट डज़न्ट मैटर.
5. ऐसा ही होगा।	It will be so. इट विल बी सो.
6. **मैं आपसे सहमत हूं।**	**I agree with you.** आइ अग्री विद यू.
7. **मैं आपके साथ हूं।**	**I am with you.** आइ ऐम विद यू.
8. हां, यह सच है।	Yes, it's true. येस, इट्स ट्रू.
9. **मैं आपकी सलाह के मुताबिक काम करूंगा।**	**I'll follow your advice.** आइल फ़ॉलो योर ऐडवाइस.
10. मैं आपका निमंत्रण स्वीकार करता हूं।	I accept your invitation. आइ ऐक्सेप्ट योर इन्विटेशन.
11. मैं इसके लिए अपनी स्वीकृति देता हूं।	I give my consent to this. आइ गिव माइ कनसेंट टु दिस.
12. अपने पिता का कहा करो।	Do as your father says. डू ऐज़ योर फ़ादर सेज़.
13. मैं आपके ऊपर ज़बरदस्ती अपनी मर्ज़ी लादने की कोशिश नहीं कर रहा हूं।	I'm not trying to impose my will on you. आइम नॉट ट्राइंग टु इम्पोज़ माइ विल ऑन यू.
14. तुम मेरे साथ सहमत नहीं लगते।	You don't seem to agree with me. यू डोन्ट सीम टु अग्री विद मी.

19 . दु:ख (Sadness)

1. क्षमा करें/माफ़ कीजिए/माफ़ी चाहता हूं।	Excuse me/Forgive me/Pardon me. एक्सक्यूज़ मी/फ़ॉरगिव मी/पार्डन मी.
2. खेद है, मेरी वजह से आपको कष्ट हुआ।	I'm sorry, you had to suffer because of me. आइम सॉरी, यू हैड टु सफ़र बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ मी.
3. मुझे यह सुनकर बड़ा दुख हुआ।	I'm very sorry to hear this. आइम वेरी सॉरी टु हियर दिस.
4. **मेरी सहानुभूति आपके साथ है।**	**My sympathies are with you.** माइ सिम्पथीज़ आर विद यू.

याद रखें (Remember)

* Give का अर्थ है देना। अब देखिए Prepositions का कमाल। Give up का अर्थ है त्यागना — Maulaua Abdul gave up all hopes of recovering from his illness . (मौलाना अब्दुल ने अपनी बीमारी से छुटकारा पाने की सभी आशाएं त्याग दीं।) Give in = हारना — Inspite of Akbar's larger resources Maharana Pratap refused to give in . (अकबर के अधिक साधनों के बावजूद महाराणा प्रताप ने हार मानने से इनकार कर दिया।) इसी प्रकार Give way = बैठना (अधिक भार से पुल आदि का); give out = बताना, प्रकट करना; give off = छोड़ना; give ear = सुनना; give a piece of one's mind = झिड़कना; give oneself airs = शान बघारना; give chase = पीछा करना; give around = पीछे हटना, आदि।

39 उनतालीसवां दिन

th Day

20 . झगड़ा (Quarrel)

1. आप आपे से बाहर क्यों हो रहे हैं?	Why are you losing* your temper? वाइ आर यू लूज़िंग योर टेम्पर?
2. सावधान, यह दोबारा मुख से न निकालना!	Beware, don't utter it again! बिवेअर, डोन्ट अटर इट अगेन!
3. तुम बड़े चिड़चिड़े स्वभाव के हो।	You are very short-tempered. यू आर वेरी शॉर्ट टेम्पर्ड.
4. **उसने मेरी नाक में दम कर रखा है।**	**He has got* on my nerves.** ही हैज़ गॉट ऑन माइ नर्व्ज़.
5. **जो हो सो हो।**	**Come what may!** कम वॉट मे!
6. मैंने तुम्हारा क्या बिगाड़ा है।	What harm/wrong have I done to you? वॉट हार्म/रौंग हैव आइ डन टु यू?
7. तुम्हें अपने को सुधारना पड़ेगा।	You'll have to mend your ways. यू'ल हैव टु मेन्ड योर वेज़.
8. क्यों इससे व्यर्थ में झगड़ा मोल लेते हो?	Why do you quarrel with him unnecessarily? वाइ डू यू क्वॉरल विद हिम अननैसेसरिली?
9. आवेश में न आओ।	Don't get worked up/excited. डोन्ट गेट वर्क्ड अप/एक्साइटिड.
10. अब किसी-न-किसी तरह बात को निबटाओ।	Now settle the matter somehow. नाउ, सेटल द मैटर समहाउ.
11. **क्या आपके होश ठिकाने हैं?**	**Are you in your senses?** आर यू इन योर सैंसिज़?
12. **मेरी आंखों से दूर हो जाओ?****	**Get out of my sight./Get lost.** गेट आउट ऑफ़ माइ साइट./गेट लौस्ट.
13. आपका हमारी बातों से क्या संबंध!	How are you concerned with our affairs! हाउ आर यू कन्सर्न्ड विद आवर अफ़ेअर्ज़!
14. बात को अधिक न बढ़ाओ।	Now, put an end to controversy./Don't stretch the matter further. नाउ पुट ऐन ऐंड टु कॉन्ट्रोवर्सी./डोन्ट स्ट्रेच द मैटर फ़र्दर.
15. **भाड़ में जाओ।**	**Go to hell.** गो टु हेल.
16. इन्हें दोनों पक्षों के बीच फैसला कराने दो।	Let him mediate between the two parties. लेट हिम मीडिएट बिटवीन द टू पार्टीज़.
17. झगड़े का फैसला हो गया।	The quarrel is settled./The matter ends here! द क्वॉरल इज़ सेटल्ड./द मैटर एंड्ज़ हिअर!
18. अब एक-दूसरे से मिलो।	Now be friends. नाउ बी फ्रेंड्ज़.

21 . क्षमा-प्रार्थना (Apologies)

1. आप बुरा न मानें।	**Please don't mind this./Please don't feel bad about it.** प्लीज़ डोन्ट माइंड दिस./प्लीज़ डोन्ट फ़ील बैड अबाउट इट.
2. मैं तो मज़ाक कर रहा था।	**I was just joking.** आइ वॉज़ जस्ट जोकिंग.
3. माफ़ कीजिए, मैं समय पर नहीं आ सका।	I'm sorry, I got late. आइम सॉरी, आइ गॉट लेट.
4. मुझे यह जानकर दु:ख हुआ।	I was sorry/pained to hear this. आइ वॉज़ सॉरी/पेन्ड टु हिअर दिस.
5. कोई गलती हो गयी हो तो क्षमा करना।	Excuse me if there has been any mistake. एक्सक्यूज़ मी इफ़ देअर हैज़ बीन एनी मिस्टेक.
6. मैं आपसे माफ़ी चाहता हूं।	I beg your pardon. आइ बेग योर पार्डन.
7. मेरे गलत उच्चारण को माफ़ करें।	Please excuse my incorrect pronunciation. प्लीज़ एक्सक्यूज़ माइ इनकरेक्ट प्रनन्सिएशन.
8. **बीच में बोलने के लिए मुझे माफ़ करें।**	**I'am sorry for interrupting you.** आइम सॉरी फ़ॉर इन्ट्रप्टिंग यू.
9. माफ़ कीजिए, मैं टेलीफ़ोन नहीं कर सका।	I'm sorry, I couldn't call you. आइम सॉरी, आइ कुडन्ट कॉल यू.
10. **मेरी ओर से माफ़ी मांग लीजिए।**	**Apologize on my behalf.** अपॉलोजाइज़ ऑन माइ बिहाफ़.
11. माफ़ी मत मांगिए। कोई बात नहीं।	Don't apologize. It does not matter. डोन्ट अपॉलोजाइज़. इट डज़ नॉट मैटर.
12. यह तो केवल गलती से हो गया।	It was merely done by mistake. इट वॉज़ मियरली डन बाइ मिस्टेक.
13. मुझे बहुत अफ़सोस है।	I am very sorry. आइ ऐम वेरी सॉरी.
14. आप चिंता न करें। कोई हानि नहीं हुई।	Don't worry. No harm is done. डोन्ट वरी. नो हार्म इज़ डन
15. अगर अनजाने में मैंने आपको दु:ख पहुंचाया है, तो मुझे खेद है।	I'm very sorry if I have unknowingly hurt you. आइम वेरी सॉरी इफ़ आइ हैव अननोइन्गली हर्ट यू.
16. यह अनजाने में हुआ था।	It was done unknowingly. इट वॉज़ डन अननोइंगली.
17. यह आपका दोष नहीं था।	It was not your fault. इट वॉज़ नॉट योर फ़ॉल्ट.
18. मुझे बड़ा अफ़सोस है जो आपको इतनी देर तक मेरा इंतजार करना पड़ा।	I am awfully sorry to have kept you waiting so long. आइ ऐम ऑफ़ुली सॉरी टु हैव केप्ट यू वेटिंग सो लौंग.
19. कोई हर्ज़ नहीं।	That's all right. दैट्स ऑल राइट.

22 . क्रोध (Anger)

1. **चुल्लूभर पानी में डूब मरो।**	You should be ashamed of yourself./Shame on you. यू शुड बी अशेम्ड ऑफ़ योरसेल्फ़./शेम ऑन यू.
2. तुम्हें शर्म आनी चाहिए।	You should be ashamed of yourself. यू शुड बी अशेम्ड ऑफ़ योरसेल्फ़.
3. तुम बड़े चलते-पुर्ज़े हो।	You are too clever/smart. यू आर टू क्लेवर/स्मार्ट.
4. तुम बड़े चालू आदमी हो।	You are an extremely cunning man. यू आर ऐन एक्स्ट्रीम्ली कनिंग मैन.
5. **लानत है तुम पर।**	**Shame on you.** शेम ऑन यू.
6. तुम बड़े नीच/धूर्त हो।	You are a mean/cunning fellow. यू आर अ मीन/कनिंग फ़ेलो.
7. मैं तुम्हारी सूरत देखना नहीं चाहता।	I don't want to see your face./Don't show me your face again. आइ डोन्ट वॉन्ट टु सी योर फ़ेस./डोन्ट शो मी योर फ़ेस अगेन.
8. बक-बक मत करो।	Don't talk nonsense/Stop yapping. डोन्ट टॉक नॉनसेन्स/स्टॉप यैपिंग.
9. **यह सब तुम्हारे कारण हुआ है।**	**It's all because of you.** इट्स ऑल बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ यू.
10. **यह सब तुम्हारी करतूत है।**	**It's all your doing.** इट्स ऑल योर डूइंग.
11. **तुम इससे बच नहीं सकते।**	**You can't get away like this./You can't escape from this.** गेट कान्ट गेट अवे लाइक दिस./यू कान्ट एस्केप फ्रॉम दिस.
12. तुम्हें कभी माफ़ नहीं किया जा सकता।	You don't deserve forgiveness./You can never be forgiven. यू डोन्ट डिज़र्व फ़ॉरगिवनेस./यू कैन नेवर बी फ़ॉरगिवन.
13. उसके ज़िम्मेदार तुम हो।	You're responsible for this/that. यू आर रिस्पॉन्सिबल फ़ॉर दिस/दैट.

याद रखें (Remember)

* उच्चारण की दृष्टि से lose लूज़ (खोना) और loose लूस (ढीला) एक समान नहीं हैं। अर्थ भी एकदम भिन्न हैं। हम भारतीय उच्चारण के अनुसार spelling करने के अभ्यस्त होने के कारण lose के स्थान पर loose [समानान्तर शब्द goose (बत्तख), noose (फांसी का फंदा) को दृष्टिगत रखते हुए] लिख दिया करते हैं। इस गलती से सावधान रहिए।

** Get गेट (प्राप्त करना) क्रिया के साथ विभिन्न विभक्ति-अव्यय (Preposition) लगाकर कैसे-कैसे विचित्र अर्थ बन जाते हैं, यह देखने योग्य है।

Get about का अर्थ है चलना-फिरना: He gets about with difficulty since his illness . (अपनी बीमारी के समय से वह कठिनाई से चल-फिर सकता है।) Get back = वापस आना: When will you get back ? (आप वापस कब आएंगे?) Get down = उतरना: She climbed the tree but then couldn't get down again . (वह पेड़ पर चढ़ तो गयी, परंतु फिर उतर न सकी।) Get going = शुरू करना: They wanted to get going on the construction of the house . (वे मकान बनाना शुरू करना चाहते थे।) Get in = प्रवेश करना: " Please get in the train ," said the guard . " The train is about to start ". (गाड़ी के अंदर आइये।) Get off = उतरना: He got off the noon train . (वह दोपहर की गाड़ी से उतरा।) Get out = निकलना: He couldn't get out of the

room . (वह कमरे से बाहर नहीं निकल सका।) Get up = सोकर जागना: It is a good habit to get up early in the morning . (सुबह जल्दी उठना एक अच्छी आदत है।) Get together = इकट्ठे होना: We are planning a get together to celebrate our friend’s marriage . (हम अपने मित्र के विवाह पर इकट्ठे होने की सोच रहे हैं।) Get through = सफल होना — He got through his examination . (वह परीक्षा में उत्तीर्ण हो गया।) आदि।

40 चालीसवां दिन
th Day यहां कुछ Tests दिए गए हैं।

आइए, अब इनसे अपनी योग्यता को परखिए। 20 वाक्यों के 20 अंक हैं। आपके 16 या इससे अधिक वाक्य ठीक हों तो आपकी स्थिति 'अति-उत्तम' (very good), 12 या इससे अधिक वाक्य ठीक हों तो उत्तम (fair) है।

Test No. 1

31 से 35 दिन

I. नीचे कुछ वाक्य दिये गये हैं, जिनमें कोई ऐसी अशुद्धि है, जिसे बोलने या लिखने की लोग प्राय: गलती करते हैं। आप इन्हें शुद्ध कीजिए। फिर 31 से 35 दिनों के वाक्यों से मिलाकर देखिए और समझिए कि इनके पीछे नियम क्या है। **(विषय संख्या और वाक्य संख्याएं वाक्यों के साथ दी गयी हैं)** :

1. Would you like to come with us to cinema? [1:5]. 2. Let us go through bus. [1:8]. 3. No, I don't know to play it. [1: 11]. 4. It's mine pleasure. [2:22]. 5. Have nice journey. [2:31]. 6. Thanks for present. [3:39]. 7. Wish you new year. [4:45]. 8. Congratulations for your success. [4:48]. 9. Please wake up him. [7:6]. 10. Let me do work. [7:9]. 11. Please repeat again. [7:14]. 12. What sweet dishes you have? [8:10]. 13. Have little more. [8:16]. 14. Are you an vegetarian? [8:27]. 15. He is glutton. [8:50]. 16. When you have dinner? [9:11]. 17. You are late by half hour. [9:36]. 18. May we rest here for while? [10:19]. 19. Tell the truth and speak no lies. [11:3]. 20. Note down this. [11:36].

Test No. 2

36 से 39 दिन

II . नीचे जो वाक्य दिये गये हैं, इन्हें आपने पिछले दिनों में थोड़े-बहुत परिवर्तनों के साथ देखा है। अब आप इन्हें ध्यान से पढ़िए और जहां कहीं गलती हो उसे सुधार कर कारण ज्ञात

कीजिए। **(वाक्यों के साथ Topic No . और Sentence No . दिया गया है):** 1. Don't write in pencil. please write with pen. [12:59-60]. 2. Chew your food good. [12:77]. 6. It was God will. [14:18]. 7. Whom I should trust? [15:33]. 8. He is nuisance. [15:36]. 9. I can't accept what do you say. [17:1]. 10. How I can do this! [17:12]. 11. Don't be proud for your riches. [17:20]. 12. Do not walk at the grass. [17:22]. 13. I don't know to sing. [17:26]. 14. Don't angry. [17:27]. 15. I entirely agree to you. [18:8]. 16. Yes, that is truth. [18:10]. 17. I'll follow your advices. [18:12]. 18. Forgive me to interrupt you sir! [21:8]. 19. It was merely done with mistake. [21:12]. 20. I am awfully sorry for kept you waiting so long. [21:18].

Test No. 3

III . नीचे दिये गये वाक्यों में कोई-न-कोई अशुद्धि है। उसे शुद्ध करके लिखें। गलतियां टेढ़े (Italics) टाइप वाले शब्दों में हैं।

1. Be careful not to loose your money. 2. Has the clerk weighted the letter? 3. Physics are not easy to learn. 4. You have a poetry to learn by heart. 5. My luggages are at the station. 6. You have five thousands rupees. 7. When she entered the room, she saw a notebook on the ground . 8. Let us see a theater tonight. 9. Which is the street to the village? 10. My younger brother is five and a half feet high . 11. Are you interesting in your work? 12. I have now left cricket. 13. Madam, will I go home to get my exercise book? 14. She sometimes puts on red shoes. 15. She wears her clothes in the morning. 16. There is a lot of flowers on this tree. 17. How many paper do you want? 18. He has given up smoking, isn't it ? 19. Why he not sees a film? 20. What does elephants eat?

शुद्ध उत्तर: 1. lose, 2. weighed, 3. is, 4. poem, 5. luggage is, 6. thousand, 7. floor, 8. play, 9. road, 10. tall, 11. interested, 12. given up, 13. may, 14. wears, 15. puts on, 16. are, 17. much, 18. hasn't he, 19. doesn't he see, 20. what do.

Test No. 4

IV . निम्नलिखित वाक्यों में रिक्त स्थान के आगे कोष्ठक में शब्द दिये गये हैं। उनमें उपयुक्त शब्द चुनकर रिक्त स्थान भरिए: 1. ... (shall, will) you please help me out of this difficulty? 2. She was over-joyed... (to, into) see her lost

baby. 3. Thanks... (to, for) your good wishes. 4. We congratulated him... (at, on) his success. 5. ... (Get, Let) me go home. 6. Are you feeling... (thirst, thirsty)? 7. Do you... (drink, take) milk or tea? 8. What... (is, are) the news. 9. remind him... (of, on) his promise. 10. Switch... (out, off) the light. 11. Go... (on, in) person to post this important letter. 12. Give... (in, up) smoking; it's harmful. 13. Is there any need... (for, to) worry? 14. Do not find fault... (on, in, with) others. 15. Are you angry... (on, with) me? 16. I know very little... (of, in, on) this connection. 17. Get out (from, of) my sight. 18. You are... (loosing, losing) your temper. 19. We... (may, shall) have some coffee. 20. We must avoid... (smoking, to smoke).

ठीक पूरक शब्द: 1. will, 2. to, 3. for, 4. on, 5. Let, 6. thirsty, 7. take, 8. is, 9. of, 10. off, 11. in, 12. up, 13. to, 14. with, 15. with, 16. in, 17. of, 18. losing, 19. shall, 20. smoking.

Test No. 5

V . निम्नलिखित वाक्यों का हिन्दी में अनुवाद कीजिए: 1. No, I don't take tea. 2. I won't be able to attend his birthday party. 3. He does not agree with me. 4. They didn't come. 5. The lion killed two Shepherds. 6. The Yamuna was flooded. 7. Raise the curtain. 8. Don't they run fast? 9. How can it be so? 10. The tiger in the cage frightened the children. 11. I want your kind help. 12. He did it. 13. Who plays football in the park? 14. He lives only on milk. 15. Isn't he twelve years old?

Test No. 6

VI . प्रश्न **V** के नकारात्मक वाक्यों को सकारात्मक वाक्यों में और सकारात्मक वाक्यों को नकारात्मक वाक्यों में नीचे दिये गये उदाहरणों के अनुसार बदलिए:

दिया गया वाक्य	दिये हुये वाक्य का उलटा
He didn't play cricket.	He played cricket.
She sings very well.	She doesn't sing very well.

Test No. 7

VII . इन शब्दों का शुद्ध उच्चारण नागरी लिपि में लिखिए, जैसे — would — वुड।

invite, invitation, pleasure, journey, hearty, rumour, success, little, stomach, quarrel, minutes, forty, fourteen, receipt, honest.

Test No . 8

VIII . (i) नीचे कुछ क्रियाएं दी गयी हैं। उनके अर्थ लिखिए: to fetch, to enjoy, to meet, to burst, to bring, to enter, to chew, to cheat, to want, to agree, to obey, to move, to forget, to forgive, to hire, to abstain.

(ii) इन दोनों में क्या अंतर है? लिखिए, believe—belief, (to) check—cheque, (to) speak—speech, (to) agree—agreement, cool—cold, (to) invite—invitation, (to) pride—proud, (to) accept—except.

(iii) इनके विपरीतार्थक शब्द लिखिए, जैसे — possible — impossible Patience, come, accept, clean, improper, without, switch off, back, early, disagree, many, able, empty.

Test No. 9

IX . अंग्रेजी क्रिया go के बाद विभिन्न prepositions लगाने से विभिन्न अर्थ हो जाते हैं। इस प्रकार के मुहावरेदार प्रयोग प्रत्येक भाषा की अपनी विशेषता होती है। हम go के कुछ बहुप्रचलित मुहावरेदार प्रयोग नीचे दे रहे हैं। इनको याद करें और अभ्यास के लिए वाक्यों में प्रयोग करें।

go on = ज़ारी रखना
go in for = किसी काम में जुटना
go into = छानबीन करना।
go down = डूबना
go with = साथ, मेल खाना
go back on = न निभाना
go out = बुझना
go about = किसी काम में लगना

41 इकतालीसवां दिन

st Day

पांचवां अभियान (5th Expedition)

चौथे अभियान में हमने निमंत्रण, अभिवाादन, स्वीकृति, अस्वीकृति, आज्ञा, अनुमति, झगड़ा, नाराज़गी, क्षमा, प्रार्थना आदि अनेक प्रसंगों पर बोले जा सकने वाले वाक्यों को अंग्रेज़ी में बोलना सीखा है। पांचवें अभियान में हम स्वास्थ्य, मौसम, चरित्र, वेशभूषा, पढ़ाई-लिखाई, खेलकूद तथा घर में और घर से बाहर किसी से मिलने पर अथवा शॉपिंग करते समय इस्तेमाल हो सकने वाले अंग्रेज़ी वाक्यों को बोलना सीखेंगे। जहां इन वाक्यों के माध्यम से आप मौके के अनुसार अंग्रेज़ी में बात कर सकेंगे वहीं पाठ के अंत में दी गयी टिप्पणियों की सहायता से नये शब्दों को पढ़ना तथा प्रत्यय लगाकर बनाये गये तरह-तरह के शब्दों का ठीक-ठीक प्रयोग भी आप जान सकेंगे।

23 . घर में (At Home)

1. देखो, यहां बिस्तर लगा दो।	Look, make the bed over here. लुक, मेक द बेड ओवर हिअर.
2. **दूध फट गया है।**	**The milk has turned sour.** द मिल्क हैज़ टर्न्ड सावर.
3. ठहरो, मैं गाय बांध आऊं।	Let me tether the cow. लैट मी टेथर द काउ.
4. कमरा साफ़ रखो।	Keep the room clean/dusted. कीप द रूम क्लीन/डस्टिड.
5. कोयले जल कर राख हो गये।	The coals were burnt to ashes. द कोल्ज़ वर बर्न्ट टु ऐशिज़.
6. **आपके कितने बच्चे हैं?**	**How many children do you have?** हाउ मेनी चिल्ड्रन डू यू हैव?
7. हमारे यहां आलू रोज़ पकते हैं।	We cook potatoes everyday for our meals. वी कुक पटेटोज़ एवरीडे. फ़ॉर ऑवर मील्ज़.
8. आज नई वस्तु क्या पकी है?	What new dish is made today? वॉट न्यू डिश इज़ मेड टुडे?
9. धोबी पिछली धुलाई कब ले गया था?	When did the washerman last take the clothes for washing? वेन डिड द वॉशरमैन लास्ट टेक द क्लोद्ज़ फ़ॉर वॉशिंग?
10. इस कोट को फिर इस्तरी कराओ।	Get this coat ironed again. गेट दिस कोट आयन्ड अगेन.
11. **गीले कपड़े धूप में डाल दो।**	**Put wet clothes in the sun.** पुट वेट क्लोद्ज़ इन द सन.
12. **मैं ज़रा तैयार हो लूं।**	**Let me get ready.** लेट मी गेट रेडी.
13. **तुम बड़ी देर लगा रहे हो।**	**You are taking too long./You are being very slow.** यू आर टेकिंग टू लौंग./यू आर बींग वेरी स्लो.
14. **हम वहां वक्त से पहले पहुंचेंगे।**	**We'll reach there before time.** वी'ल रीच देअर बिफ़ोर टाइम.
15. उसकी सास अच्छे स्वभाव की महिला है, परंतु उसकी बहुएं बुरे स्वभाव की हैं।*	Her mother-in-law is good-natured, but not her daughters-in-law. हर मदर-इन-लॉ इज़ गुड नेचर्ड बट नॉट हर डॉटर्ज़-इन-लॉ.
16. आपका स्वागत है।	You are welcome. यू आर वेल्कम.
17. तुम्हें अपने वायदे से नहीं फिरना चाहिए।	You should not go back on your words./You should keep your word. यू शुड नॉट गो बैक ऑन योर वर्ड्ज़/यू शुड कीप योर वर्ड.
18. **उसने बहुत रूखा बर्ताव किया।**	**He behaved very rudely./He was impudent/rude.** ही बिहेव्ड वेरी रूडली./ही वॉज़ इम्प्यूडेन्ट/रूड.

19. अपने बर्तनों को कलई करा लो।	Get your utensils tinned. गैट योर युटेन्सिल्ज़ टिन्ड.
20. **अब मैं ज़्यादा इंतजार नहीं कर सकता।**	**I can't wait any longer.** आइ कांट वेट एनी लौंगर.
21. मैं सुबह का घर से निकला हूं।	I have been out since morning. आइ हैव बीन आउट सिन्स मॉर्निंग.
22. मुझे नींद आ रही है।	I'm feeling sleepy. आइम फ़ीलिंग स्लीपी.
23. रात खूब नींद आयी।	I had a sound sleep last night. आइ हैड अ साउंड स्लीप लास्ट नाइट.
24. **अंदर कोई नहीं है।**	**There is nobody inside.** देअर इज़ नोबडी इन्साइड.
25. **बस, अब सो जाओ।**	**Now go to sleep/bed.** नाउ गो टु स्लीप/बेड.
26. तुमने बड़ी देर लगाई।	You took a long time. यू टुक अ लौंग टाइम.
27. **मैं अभी तैयार होता हूं।**	**I'll be ready in a moment.** आइल बी रेडी इन अ मोमेंट.
28. आपने मुझे जगा क्यों नहीं लिया?	Why didn't you wake me up?. वाइ डिडन्ट यू वेक मी अप.
29. मैंने आपको जगाना मुनासिब नहीं समझा।	I didn't think it proper to wake you up. आइ डिडन्ट थिंक इट प्रॉपर टु वेक यू अप.
30. **मैं ज़रा आराम कर लूं।**	**I'll relax/rest for a while.** आइल रिलैक्स/रेस्ट फ़ॉर अ वाइल.
31. कुर्सी लीजिए।	Pull/Have a chair, please. पुल/हैव अ चेअर प्लीज़.
32. **आप अभी तक जाग रहे हैं!**	**You are still awake!** यू आर स्टिल अवेक!
33. **दरवाज़ा कौन खटखटा रहा है?**	**Who is knocking at the door?** हू इज़ नॉकिंग ऐट द डोर?
34. आज सुबह मेरी आंख देर से खुली।	I woke up late this morning. आइ वोक अप लेट दिस मॉर्निंग.
35. **आपसे कोई मिलने आया है।**	**Someone has come/There is someone to see you.** समवन हैज़ कम/देअर इज़ समवन टु सी यू.
36. अंदर आइये!	Please come in. प्लीज़ कम इन.
37. **बैठिए!**	**Please be seated. Please have a seat./Please sit down.** प्लीज़ बी सीटिड./प्लीज़ हैव अ सीट./प्लीज़ सिट डाउन.
38. अनुपम कहां है?	Where is Anupam? वेअर इज़ अनुपम?
39. मालूम नहीं कहां है।	I don't know where he is. आइ डोंट नो वेअर ही इज़.
40. क्या है?	What's it? वॉट्स इट?
41. कौन है?	Who's it? हू'ज़ इट?
42. मैं मनीष हूं।	It's me, Manish. इट्स मी, मनीष.
43. अरुण अंदर है क्या?	Is Arun in? इज़ अरुण इन?
44. दिन बहुत चढ़ आया है।	The day is far advanced. द डे इज़ फ़ार एडवांस्ड.
45. **आजकल मेरा हाथ तंग है।**	**I'm hard up/tight these days.** आइम हार्ड अप/टाइट दीज़ डेज़.
46. कोई बढ़िया बावर्ची रख लो।	Engage some expert cook. इंगेज़ सम ऐक्सपर्ट कुक.
47. **मैं बहुत थका हूं।**	**I am dead/terribly tired.** आइ ऐम डैड/टेरिब्ली टायर्ड.
48. **आओ, गप्प लगाएं।**	**Let's have a chat.** लेट्स हैव अ चैट.
49. **द्वार की चटकनी लगा दो।**	**Bolt the door.** बोल्ट द डोर.
50. अब जाने का समय है।	It's time to depart now. इट्स टाइम टु डिपार्ट नाउ.
51. घर की चीज़ों को ठीक से रखो।	Keep the household things in their place. कीप द हाउसहोल्ड थिंग्ज़ इन देअर प्लेस.
52. आज रात यहीं आराम करें।	Take rest/Relax here tonight. टेक रेस्ट/रिलैक्स हिअर टुनाइट.
53. आप तो ऊंघ रहे हैं।	You are dozing. यू आर डोज़िंग.

54. **मेरा बिस्तर बना दो।**	**Make my bed.** मेक माइ बेड.
55. तुम्हारी नाक बह रही है।	Your nose is running. योर नोज़ इज़ रनिंग.
56. हम बहुत देर तक बातें करते रहे।	We kept talking/chating till very late. वी केप्ट टॉकिंग/चैटिंग टिल वेरी लेट.
57. **डॉक्टर साहब को फ़ोन करो।**	**Ring up the doctor.** रिंग अप द डॉक्टर.
58. मेरे मामा मुझसे मिलने आये हैं।	My maternal uncle has come to see me. माइ मैटरनल अंकल हैज़ कम टु सी मी.
59. **इनको आपसे कुछ काम है।**	**This gentleman has some work with you.** दिस जेन्टलमैन हैज़ सम वर्क विद यू.
60. मुझे उसके घर जाना है।	I have to go to his house./I have to call on him. आइ हैव टु गो टु हिज़ हाउस/आइ हैव टु कॉल ऑन हिम.
61. वह अपने माता-पिता से अलग है।	He lives separately from his parents. ही लिव्ज़ सेपरेटली. फ्रॉम हिज़ पैरेन्ट्स.
62. अगर उसने मुझसे कहा होता, तो मैं रुक गया होता।	Had he asked me, I would have stayed. हैड ही आस्क्ड मी, आइ वुड हैव स्टेड.
63. मैं रोज सवेरे फव्वारे के नीचे नहाता हूं।	I take/have a shower-bath every morning. आइ टेक/हैव ए शॉवर बाथ एवरी मार्निंग.

याद रखें (Remember)

* अंग्रेज़ी में शब्द के अंत में s लगाकर बहुवचन बनाते हैं, परंतु कुछ शब्दों के साथ s बड़ी सावधानी से लगाना पड़ता है। उदाहरण के लिए, son-in-law सन-इन-लॉ (दामाद) का बहुवचन sons-in-law सन्ज़-इन-लॉ है, son-in-laws सन-इन-लॉज़ नहीं। इसी प्रकार निम्नलिखित शब्दों के बहुवचन बनते हैं:

Father-in-law (फ़ादर-इन-लॉ) ससुर	Fathers-in-law
Brother-in-law (ब्रदर-इन-लॉ) बहनोई; साला; देवर; जेठ	Brothers-in-law
Mother-in-law (मदर-इन-लॉ) सास	Mothers-in-law
Sister-in-law (सिस्टर-इन-लॉ) भाभी; साली; सलहज	Sisters-in-law
Governor-General (गवर्नर-जनरल) शासनाध्यक्ष	Governors-General
Commander-in-chief (कमांडर-इन-चीफ़) प्रधान सेनापति	Commanders-in-chief

देखना यह होता है कि शब्द समूह में जो अधिक महत्त्वपूर्ण शब्द हो उसी के साथ s जोड़ा जाए। इसी नियम के अनुसार step-son स्टेप-सन (सौतेला पुत्र) का बहुवचन step-sons स्टेप सन्स बनता है और maidservant मेडसर्वेंट का बहुवचन maidservants मेडसर्वेंट्स।

42 बयालीसवां दिन

nd Day

24 . घर से बाहर (Out of Home)

1. **यह जूता बहुत तंग है।**	**This shoe is very tight.** दिस शू इज़ वेरी टाइट.
2. यह सड़क किधर जाती है?	Where does this road lead to? वेअर डज़ दिस रोड लीड टु?
3. यह सड़क रोहतक जाती है।	This road leads to Rohtak. दिस रोड लीड्ज़ टु रोहतक.
4. ज़रा मेरी साइकिल पकड़ना।	Just hold my cycle/bike. जस्ट होल्ड माइ साइकल/बाइक.
5. मुझे रात को जागना पड़ता है।	I have to keep awake/wake up at night. आइ हैव टु कीप अवेक/वेक अप ऐट नाइट.
6. सदा बायें हाथ चलो।	Always keep to the left. ऑलवेज़ कीप टु द लेफ़्ट.
7. सदा फ़ुटपाथ पर चलो।	Always walk on the footpath. आलवेज़ वॉक ऑन द फ़ुटपाथ.
8. **जेबकतरों से बचो।**	**Beware of pickpockets.** बिवेअर ऑफ़ पिकपॉकिट्स.
9. मुझे नाटक देखने का शौक नहीं है।	I am not fond of theatre/seeing plays. आइ ऐम नॉट फ़ौंड ऑफ़ थियेटर/सीइंग प्लेज़.
10. **मैंने अपना मकान बदल लिया है।**	**I have changed my house/I've shifted from the old place.** आइ हैव चेंज्ड माइ हाउस/आइव शिफ्टिड फ्रॉम दि ओल्ड प्लेस.
11. **क्या यहां कोई किराये की मोटर मिल सकती है?***	**Can one get a taxi/cab here?** कैन वन गेट अ टैक्सी/कैब हिअर?
12. चाहे कुछ हो, हमें मीटिंग में ठीक समय पर पहुंच जाना चाहिए।	Come what may, we must reach the meeting in time. कम वॉट मे, वी मस्ट रीच द मीटिंग इन टाइम.
13. यह सड़क लोगों के लिए बंद है।	This road is closed to the public. दिस रोड इज़ क्लोज़्ड टु द पब्लिक.
14. बिना आज्ञा अंदर आना मना है।	No entry without permission. नो एन्ट्री विदाउट परमिशन.

25 . नौकर से (To Servant)

1. यहां आओ लड़के!	Come here, boy. कम हिअर, बॉय.
2. खाना लाओ।	Bring the food. ब्रिंग द फ़ूड.
3. **एक गिलास पानी लाओ।**	**Get me a glass of water.** गेट मी अ ग्लास ऑफ़ वॉटर.
4. वहां जाओ और चिट्ठियां लेटर बॉक्स में डालो।	Go and post these letters. गो ऐंड पोस्ट दीज़ लेटर्ज़.
5. कपड़े धोओ।	*Wash the clothes. वॉश द क्लोद्ज़.
6. जल्दी करो।	Hurry up./Make haste. हरी अप./मेक हेस्ट.
7. बंडल उठाओ।	Lift/Pick up/Carry the bundle. लिफ़्ट/पिक अप/कैरी द बंडल.
8. मुझे आधी (डबल) रोटी दो।	Give me half a bread / chapati. गिव मी हाफ़ अ ब्रेड / चपाती.
9. अब तुम जाओ, मुझे कुछ काम करना है।	You go now, I have to do some work. यू गो नाउ, आइ हैव टु डू सम वर्क.
10. रास्ता दिखाओ।	Show the way. शो द वे.
11. इन्हें बाहर छोड़ आओ।	Show him out. शो हिम आउट.
12. **बीच में मत बोलो।**	**Don't interrupt.** डोन्ट इंट्रप्ट.
13. ज़रा सुनो।	Just listen. जस्ट लिसन.
14. घबराओ नहीं।	Don't worry. डोन्ट वरी.
15. थोड़ी देर ठहरो।	Wait a bit. वेट अ बिट.
16. पंखा चला दो।	Switch on the fan. स्विच ऑन द फ़ैन.
17. **शोर मत मचाओ।**	**Don't make a noise. डोंट मेक अ नॉइज़.**
18. देखो, बालक क्यों रो रहा है।	Go and see why the child is weeping/crying. गो ऐंड सी वाइ द चाइल्ड इज़ वीपिंग.
19. जरा कागज़-पेंसिल देना।	Give me a pencil and a piece of paper. गिव मी अ पेंसिल ऐंड अ पीस ऑफ़ पेपर.
20. जब तक मैं न आऊं यहीं बैठे रहो।	Wait here until I'm back. वेट हिअर अंटिल आइम बैक.
21. **अब तुम जा सकते हो।**	**You may go now.** यू मे गो नाउ.
22. मुझे चार बजे जगा देना।	Wake me up at 4 o'clock. वेक मी अप ऐट फ़ोर ओ'क्लॉक.
23. लैम्प जलाओ (मिट्टी के तेल वाला)	Light the lamp. लाइट द लैम्प.
24. बिजली जलाओ / बुझाओ।	Switch on / off the light. स्विच ऑन / ऑफ द लाइट.
25. **एक तरफ़ हो जाओ।**	**Move aside.** मूव असाइड.
26. अपनी अक्ल से काम लो।	Use your mind/brains. यूज़ योर माइंड/ब्रेन्ज.
27. कल जल्दी आना न भूलना।	Don't forget to come early tomorrow. डोन्ट फ़ॉर्गेट टु कम अर्ली टुमॉरो.
28. बस, अब थोड़ा आराम करो।	Go and relax for a while. गो ऐंड रिलैक्स फ़ॉर अ वाइल.

याद रखें (Remember)

* संज्ञाओं की तरह अनेक विशेषणों के केवल अंतिम भाग को देखकर पहचाना जा सकता है। Articles of daily use are now available in the market . (रोज़मर्रा काम में आने वाली चीज़ें अब बाज़ार में मिलती हैं) avail क्रिया के आगे able लगाकर available विशेषण बनाया गया है। इसी प्रकार agreeable (अच्छा लगने वाला), comfortable (आरामदेह), dependable (जिस पर निर्भर रह सकें), eatable (खाने योग्य), manageable (प्रबंध करने योग्य), payable (जिसका

भुगतान किया जा सके), saleable (बेचने योग्य), washable (जो धोया जा सके) मूल शब्द (संज्ञा या क्रिया) में able लगाने से बने हैं। कई बार able का कार्य करने के लिए ible भी लगता है, जैसे combust (जलना) से combustible (ज्वलनशील), eligible (चुने जाने योग्य), illegible (जो पढ़ा न जा सके)।

कुछ संज्ञाओं और क्रियाओं आदि के अंत में al लगाकर भी विशेषण बनते हैं, जैसे: brute से brutal (क्रूर) centre से central (केंद्रीय) continue से continual (लगातार) term से terminal (अंतिम भाग का) ऐसे में शब्द के अंत में यदि ‘ e ’ हो तो वह हट जाता है।

(i) Clothes (क्लोद्ज़) सिले हुए कपड़ों को कहते हैं, Cloth (क्लॉथ) बिना सिले कपड़ों को।
(ii) Clothe (क्लोद्) क्रिया भी है अर्थात् कपड़े पहनना या पहनाना।

43 तेंतालीसवां दिन

rd Day

26 . मिलने पर (On Meeting)

1. आपके आने से बड़ा आनंद रहा।	It's been nice seeing you. इट्स बीन नाइस सीइंग यू.
2. अब कब मुलाकात होगी?	When do I see you again?/When shall we meet again? वेन डू आइ सी यू अगेन?/वेन शैल वी मीट अगेन?
3. आपसे मिलकर बड़ी खुशी हुई।	I am glad to see you. आइ एम ग्लैड टु सी यू.
4. एक ज़रूरी काम आ गया है।	There is something important to do. देअर इज़ समथिंग इंपार्टेंट टु डू.
5. **आप उस दिन क्यों नहीं आये?**	**Why didn't you come that day?** वाइ डिडन्ट यू कम दैट डे?
6. **तुम गलती पर हो।**	**You are mistaken./You are at fault.** यू आर मिस्टेकन./यू आर ऐट फ़ॉल्ट.
7. **तुम बहुत दिनों से नज़र नहीं आये।**	**Long time no see. (informal)/Didn't see you for a long time.** लौंग टाइम नो सी./डिडन्ट सी यू फ़ॉर अ लौंग टाइम.
8. **उन्होंने आपको याद किया है।**	**He has asked for you.** ही हैज़ आस्क्ड फ़ॉर यू.
9. अभी मेरा काम खत्म नहीं हुआ।	My work is not yet over. माइ वर्क इज़ नॉट येट ओवर.
10. मैं आपसे सलाह लेने आयी हूं।	I've come to seek your advice. आइ 'व कम टु सीक योर ऐडवाइस.
11. मुझे तुमसे बातें करनी हैं।	I wish to talk to you. आइ विश टु टॉक टु यू.
12. आपका बड़ा इंतज़ार किया।	I waited long for you. आइ वेटिड लौंग फ़ॉर यू.
13. आप आधा घंटा देर से हैं।	You are late by half an hour.* यू आर लेट बाइ हाफ़ ऐन आवर.
14. हम बहुत ही जल्दी आ गये हैं।	We have come too early. वी हैव कम टू अर्ली.
15. **आपका क्या हाल-चाल है?**	**How are you?** हाउ आर यू?
16. **उससे मेरा परिचय करा दो।**	**Introduce me to him.** इंट्रोड्यूस मी टु हिम.
17. अपनी राज़ी-खुशी का तार दो।	Wire about your welfare. वायर अबाउट योर वेलफ़ेयर.
18. हर रोज़ व्यायाम अवश्य करो।	Take exercise daily/everyday. टेक एक्सरसाइज़ डेली/ऐवरीडे.
19. **बहुत समय से उसकी कोई खबर नहीं आयी है।**	**I haven't heard about him for long.** आइ हैवन्ट हर्ड अबाउट हिम फ़ॉर लौंग.
20. कोई अच्छी खबर सुनाइये।	Let's have some good news. लेट्स हैव सम गुड न्यूज़.
21. आपका पत्र अभी-अभी मिला है।	Your letter has just been received. योर लेटर हैज़ जस्ट बीन रिसीव्ड.
22. **जाते ही चिट्ठी लिखना।**	**Write immediately on reaching.** राइट इमीजिएटली ऑन रीचिंग.
23. **कहीं भूल न जाना।**	**Don't forget it./Keep it in mind.** डोन्ट फ़ॉरगेट इट./कीप इट इन माइंड.
24. उनके आ जाने पर मुझे खबर देना।	Let me know when he comes. लेट मी नो वेन ही कम्ज़.
25. फिर मिलेंगे।	See you again. सी यू अगेन.
26. उन्हें मेरा प्रणाम लिख देना।	Give/Convey my regards to him. गिव/कन्वे माइ रिगार्ड्ज़ टु हिम.
27. कभी-कभी चिट्ठी ज़रूर डाल दिया करो।	Do write to me sometimes/off and on. डू राइट टु मी समटाइम्ज़ ऑफ़ ऐंड ऑन.

28. मुझे अपना पता देते जाइये।	Please give me your address. प्लीज़ गिव मी योर अड्रेस.
29. अगले इतवार मुझे मिलो।	Meet me next Sunday. मीट मी नेक्स्ट संडे.
30. क्या तुमने उसके साथ मुलाकात तय कर ली है?	Have you arranged/fixed up a meeting with her/him? हैव यू अरेंज्ड फ़िक्स्ड अप अ मीटिंग विद हर/हिम?
31. उनसे मिलकर बड़ी खुशी हुई।	It was nice meeting him. इट वॉज़ नाइस मीटिंग हिम.
32. **आप किसी समय भी आइये।**	**You are always welcome.** यू आर ऑलवेज़ वेलकम.
33. **तकल्लुफ़ मत कीजिए।**	**There is no need for formality./Don't be formal.** देअर इज़ नो नीड फ़ॉर फ़ॉरमेलिटी./डोन्ट बी फ़ॉर्मल.
34. **मेरे उसके साथ संबंध बिगड़े हुए हैं।**	**I am not on good terms with him.** आइ ऐम नॉट ऑन गुड टर्म्ज़ विद हिम.
35. हमारे आपसी संबंध बहुत अच्छे हैं।	We have an excellent / perfect relationship with each other. वी हैव ऐन एक्सीलेंट / पर्फ़ेक्ट रिलेशनशिप विद ईच अदर।
36. आज की सुहावनी शाम के लिए धन्यवाद!	Thanks for a pleasant/wonderful / lovely evening! थैंक्स फ़ॉर अ प्लेज़ंट / वंडरफ़ुल / लवली इवनिंग!

याद रखें (Remember)

अंग्रेज़ी में कुछ ऐसे शब्द हैं जिनका बहुवचन में प्रयोग करने पर अर्थ थोड़ा भिन्न हो जाता है। उदाहरण के लिए Rich का अर्थ धनी है पर Riches, Rich का बहुवचन नहीं। Example: (1) He is a richman . वह एक अमीर आदमी है, Riches make men proud रिचेज़ मेक मेन प्राउड (दौलत लोगों को घमंडी बना देती है)। इसी प्रकार निम्नलिखित शब्द सदा बहुवचन ही होते हैं: alms आम्ज़ (दान), spectacles स्पेक्टेक्ल्ज़ (ऐनक), trousers ट्राउज़र्ज़ (पैंट), scissors सीज़र्ज़ (कैंची), shorts शॉर्ट्स (निक्कर)।

कुछ शब्द ऐसे भी हैं जो हैं तो बहुवचन के, परंतु सदा एकवचन शब्द के समान प्रयोग में लाये जाते हैं, जैसे कि — Mathematics is difficult मैथेमैटिक्स इज़ डिफ़िकल्ट (गणित कठिन विषय है)। इसी प्रकार ये शब्द बहुवचन शब्द की तरह प्रयुक्त होते हैं — इनका अच्छी तरह अभ्यास कीजिए: Innings इनिंग्ज़ (पारी), news न्यूज़ (समाचार), means मीन्ज़ (उपाय), corps कोर (सेना की टुकड़ी), series सीरीज़ (ग्रन्थमाला)।

* आधे घंटे के लिए half an hour प्रयोग होता है।

44 चवालीसवां दिन

th Day

27 . खरीदारी (Shopping)

1. वह तो एक साधारण दुकानदार है।	He is a petty/an ordinary shopkeeper. ही इज़ अ पेटि/ऐन ऑर्डिनरी शॉप-कीपर.
2. छाबड़ी वाले ऊंची आवाज़ से चिल्ला रहे हैं।	The hawkers are shouting at the top of their voice. द हॉकर्ज़ आर शाउटिंग ऐट द टॉप ऑफ़ देअर वॉइस.
3. **यह चावल घटिया दर्ज़े का है।**	**This rice is of an inferior quality.** दिस राइस इज़ ऑफ़ ऐन इनफ़ीरिअर क्वॉलिटी.
4. यह वस्तु तो कौड़ियों के भाव बिक रही है।	This article is selling at a throw-away price. दिस आर्टिकल इज़ सेलिंग ऐट अ थ्रो-अवे प्राइस.
5. **आजकल व्यापार में मंदा है।**	**There is a depression in trade these days./There is a slump in business these days.** देअर इज़ अ डिप्रेशन इन ट्रेड दीज़ डेज़./देअर इज़ अ स्लम्प इन बिज़नेस दीज़ डेज़.
6. यह पुस्तक धड़ाधड़ बिक रही है।	This book is selling like hot cakes. दिस बुक इज़ सेलिंग लाइक हॉट केक्स.
7. **मेरे पास पचास पैसे कम हैं।**	**I am short by fifty paise.** आइ ऐम शॉर्ट बाइ फ़िफ़्टी पैसे.
8. यह हलवाई बासी वस्तुएं बेचता है।	This confectioner sells stale stuff/things. दिस कनफ़ेक्शनर सेल्ज़ स्टेल स्टफ़/थिंग्ज़.
9. तुमने मुझे एक रुपया कम दिया है।	You have given me one rupee less. यू हैव गिवन मी वन रुपी लेस.
10. **यह कपड़ा धोने पर सिकुड़ जाता है।**	**This cloth shrinks on washing.** दिस क्लॉथ श्रिंक्स ऑन वॉशिंग.
11. यह आम अधिक पका हुआ है।	This mango is over-ripe. दिस मैंगो इज़ ओवर-राइप.
12. हड़ताल के कारण सब काम बंद है।	Everything is closed because of the strike. एवरीथिंग इज़ क्लोज़्ड बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ द स्ट्राइक.
13. हर प्रकार का कपड़ा इस दुकान से मिल सकता है।	All varieties of cloth are available at this shop. ऑल वैरायटीज़ ऑफ़ क्लॉथ आर अवेलेबल ऐट दिस शॉप.
14. **यह पुस्तक खूब चलती है।**	**This book is very popular.** दिस बुक इज़ वेरी पॉपुलर.
15. **भाव गिर रहे हैं।**	**The prices are falling.** द प्राइसेज़ आर फ़ॉलिंग.
16.यह कोट तंग है।	This coat is tight for me. दिस कोट इज़ टाइट फ़ॉर मी.
17.यह कुर्सी साठ रुपये में बहुत सस्ती है।	This chair is quite cheap for sixty rupees. दिस चेअर इज़ क्वाइट चीप फ़ॉर सिक्सटी रुपीज़.
18.**बाल बहुत छोटे न काटना।**	**Don't cut the hair too short.** डोन्ट कट द हेअर टू शॉर्ट.
19. उधार कभी मत खरीदो।	Don't buy on credit. डोन्ट बाइ ऑन क्रेडिट.
20. **मेरा हिसाब चुका दो।**	**Clear my accounts.** क्लीअर माइ अकाउंट्स.
21. बाज़ार से बीस रुपये का आटा ले आओ।	Bring flour for twenty rupees from the bazaar/market. ब्रिंग फ़्लावर फ़ॉर ट्वेन्टि रुपीज़ फ्रॉम द बाज़ार/मार्किट.

22. मेरी पतलून ढीली / तंग है।	My trousers are loose / tight. माइ ट्राउज़र्ज़ आर लूस / टाइट.
23. मेरी घड़ी को तेल और सफ़ाई चाहिए।	My watch needs cleaning and oiling. माइ वॉच नीड्ज़ क्लीनिंग ऐंड ऑयलिंग.
24. **क्या तुम्हें अपना जूता पांव में लगता है?**	**Does your shoe pinch you?** डज़ योर शू पिंच यू?
25. **यह कपड़ा कोट के लिए पूरा है।**	This cloth is enough for a coat. दिस क्लॉथ इज़ इनफ़ फ़ॉर अ कोट.
26. मेरा नाप लो।	Take my measurements. टेक माइ मैज़रमेन्ट्स.
27. मुझे कुछ अच्छी पुस्तकें दीजिए।	Give me some good books. गिव मी सम गुड बुक्स.
28. डॉक्टर साहब का काम खूब चलता है।	The doctor has a large practice. द डॉक्टर हैज़ ए लार्ज प्रैक्टिस.
29. **इस कमीज़ के ठीक-ठीक दाम ले लो।**	**Charge a reasonable price for this shirt.** चार्ज अ रीज़नेबल प्राइस फ़ॉर दिस शर्ट.
30. **क्या माल अच्छा है?**	**Is the stuff good?** इज़ द स्टफ़ गुड?
31. **रंग पक्का है न?**	**Is the colour fast?** इज़ द कलर फ़ॉस्ट?
32. **यहां से बाज़ार कितनी दूर है?**	**How far is the market from here?** हाउ फ़ार इज़ द मार्किट फ्रॉम हिअर?
33. **काफी दूर है।**	**It's quite far.** इट्स क्वाइट फ़ार.
34. अगर तुम एक ही स्थान से सभी चीजें खरीदना चाहते हो, तो सुपर बाज़ार में जाओ।	If you wish to buy everything from one place, go to Super Bazaar. इफ़ यू विश टु बाइ एवरीथिंग फ्रॉम वन प्लेस, गो टु सुपर बाज़ार.
35. यह दुकानदार मिलावट की हुई चीज़ें बेचता है।	This shopkeeper sells adulterated stuff/things. दिस शॉपकीपर सेल्ज़ एडल्टरेटिड स्टफ़/थिंग्ज़.
36. **क्या आप चेक स्वीकार करते हैं?**	**Do you accept cheques?** डु यू अक्सेप्ट चेक्स?
37. **यह मैला है।**	**It's soiled/dirty.** इट्स सॉयल्ड/डर्टी.
38. **यह फटा हुआ है।**	**It's torn.** इट्स टॉर्न.
39. **यह बिलकुल नया है।**	**It's brand new.** इट्स ब्रैण्ड न्यू.
40. यह दुकानदार उधार चीजें नहीं बेचता।	This shopkeeper doesn't sell things on credit. दिस शॉपकीपर डज़ंट सेल थिंग्ज़ ऑन क्रेडिट.

Describing People/things

1. वह लंबा है।	He is tall. ही इज़ टॉल.
2. वह छोटे कद की है।	She is short. शी इज़ शॉर्ट.
3. समीर मंझले कद का है।	Sameer is of medium height. समीर इज़ ऑफ़ मीडियम हाइट.
4. ममता मोटी है।	Mamta is fat. ममता इज़ फ़ैट
5. किटी दुबली-पतली है।	Kitty is slim. किटी इज़ स्लिम.
6. नितिन का शरीर सुडौल है।	Nitin is well built. नितिन इज़ वेल बिल्ट.
7. नेहा सुंदर है।	Neha is pretty/beautiful. नेहा इज़ प्रिटी/ब्यूटिफ़ुल.
8. विपिन सुंदर है।	Vipin is handsome. विपिन इज़ हैंडसम.
9. सिमी गोरी है।	Simi is fair. सिमी इज़ फ़ेअर.
10. सौरभ सांवला/काला है।	Saurabh is dark. सौरभ इज़ डार्क.
11. उसका रंग गेहुंआ है।	His complexion is wheatish. हिज़ कॉम्प्लेक्शन इज़ वीटिश.
12. नितिन के मूंछ है।	Nitin has mustache. नितिन हैज़ मुस्टैश.
13. मि. सिंह की दाढ़ी / मूंछ है।	Mr. Singh has a beard / moustache. मि. सिंह हैज़ ए बियर्ड / मुस्टैश.
14. प्रदीप की दाढ़ी-मूंछ नहीं है।	Pradeep is clean shaved. प्रदीप इज़ क्लीन शेव्ड.
15. यह बक्सा भारी है।	This box is heavy. दिस बॉक्स इज़ हेवी.
16. यह पैकिट हल्का है।	This packet is light. दिस पैकिट इज़ लाइट
17. यह मेज़ गोल है।	This table is round. दिस टेबल इज़ राउंड.
18. मेरा पर्स चौकोर है।	My purse is square. माइ पर्स इज़ स्क्वेयर.
19. यह टोकरी अंडाकार है।	This basket is oval. दिस बास्किट इज़ ओवल.
20. यह पुस्तक वृत्ताकार है।	This book is circular. दिस बुक इज़ सरकुलर.
21. यह कुआं बहुत गहरा है।	This well is very deep. दिस वेल इज़ वेरी डीप.
22. यह तालाब उथला है।	This pond is shallow. दिस पौंड इज़ शैलो.
23. यह रास्ता लंबा पर सुरक्षित है।	This route is long but safe. दिस रूट इज़ लौंग बट सेफ़.
24. यह रास्ता छोटा पर खतरनाक है।	This route is short but risky/dangerous. दिस रूट इज़ शॉर्ट बट रिस्की/डेंजरस.
25. चपाती बासी और कड़ी है।	This chapati is stale and hard. दिस चपाती इज़ स्टेल ऐंड हार्ड.
26. डबल रोटी ताज़ी और नर्म है।	The bread is fresh and soft. द ब्रेड इज़ फ्रेश ऐंड सॉफ़्ट.
27. खाना बहुत स्वादिष्ट है।	The food is delicious. द फ़ूड इज़ डिलिशयस.
28. दो घरों के बीच ऊंची दीवार है।	There is a high wall between the two houses. देअर इज़ अ हाइ वॉल बिटवीन द टू हाउसिज़.
29. इस कमरे की छत नीची है।	This room has a low ceiling. दिस रूम हैज़ अ लो सीलिंग.

याद रखें (Remember)

जिन शब्दों के अंत में ant होता है, वे संज्ञा अथवा विशेषण होते हैं, जैसे abundant (प्रचुर मात्रा में उपलब्ध), distant (दूर का), ignorant (अनभिज्ञ), important (महत्त्वपूर्ण)। ये शब्द विशेषण हैं, परंतु applicant (प्रार्थी), servant (नौकर) आदि संज्ञा हैं, यद्यपि इनके अंत में भी ant है।

ent में समाप्त होने वाले शब्द भी (ant में समाप्त होने वाले शब्दों के समान) संज्ञा — जैसे कि ascent (चढ़ाई), comment (टिप्पणी) — भी होते हैं और विशेषण भी, जैसे — content (संतुष्ट), dependent (निर्भर), excellent (अत्युत्तम), intelligent (प्रतिभाशाली), violent (हिंसक) आदि।

विशेषण की मोटी पहचानों में से एक यह है कि शब्द के अंत में ful हो। उदाहरण के लिए, This is a beautiful garden . (यह सुंदर बाग है।)। यहां beauty में ful लगाया गया है और y बदलकर i हो गया है। कुछ और उदाहरण: awe से awful (ऑफ़ुल), भयानक

colour से colourful (कलरफ़ुल), रंगीन

power से powerful (पावरफ़ुल), बलवान

bash से bashful (बैशफ़ुल), लज्जाशील

delight से delightful (डिलाइटफ़ुल), प्रफ़ुल्ल

truth से truthful (ट्रूथफ़ुल), सच्चा आदि।

45 पैंतालीसवां दिन

th Day

28 . अध्ययन (Study)

1. जैसा हम परिश्रम करेंगे, वैसा ही हमें उसका पुरस्कार मिलेगा।	As we labour, so shall we be rewarded./Our reward will depend on our labour. ऐज़ वी लेबर, सो शैल वी बी रिवॉर्डिड./आवर रिवॉर्ड विल डिपेन्ड ऑन आवर लेबर.
2. आपने अंग्रेज़ी की कौन-कौन सी पुस्तकें पढ़ी हैं?	Which books in English have you read? विच बुक्स इन इंगलिश हैव यू रेड?
3. मैं इतना थक गया हूं कि अपनी क्लास में पढ़ने नहीं जा सकता।	I'm too tired to attend the class. आइम टू टायर्ड टु अटेंड द क्लास.
4. **उसकी परीक्षा कब से है?**	**When does her examination begin?** वेन डज़ हर इग्ज़ैमिनेशन बिगिन?
5. **मैं इस वर्ष बी.ए. पास कर लूंगा।**	**I'll pass my B.A. this year./I'll be a graduate this year.** आइल पास माइ बी.ए. दिस ईयर./आइल बी अ ग्रेजुएट दिस ईयर.
6. **आज मैं कुछ नहीं पढ़ सका।**	**I couldn't study anything today.** आइ कुडन्ट स्टडी एनिथिंग टुडे.
7. **वह बी.ए. परीक्षा में असफ़ल हो गया।**	**He failed in the B.A. examination.** ही फ़ेल्ड इन द बी.ए. इग्ज़ैमिनेशन.
8. **प्रश्न बड़ा आसान है।**	**The question is very easy.** द क्वेश्चन इज़ वेरी ईज़ी.
9. न तो आशा और न ही उसकी बहन लगातार स्कूल आती है।	Neither Asha nor her sister comes to school regularly. नाइदर आशा नॉर हर सिस्टर कम्ज़ टु स्कूल रेग्युलर्ली.
10. **मैं ज़रूर पास हो जाऊंगा।**	**I'll definitely pass/get through.** आइल डेफ़िनिटली पास/गेट थ्रू.
11. मैंने पिछली रात बड़ी मज़ेदार पुस्तक पढ़ी	I read a very interesting book last night. आइ रेड अ वेरी इंट्रेस्टिंग बुक लास्ट नाइट.
12. वह हिन्दी में कमज़ोर है।	He is weak in Hindi. ही इज़ वीक इन हिन्दी.
13. आजकल क्लास जल्दी लग जाती है।	Classes start early nowadays/these days. क्लासेज़ स्टार्ट अर्ली नाउअडेज़/दीज़ डेज़.
14. **हमने अपनी पढ़ाई पूरी कर ली है।**	**We have completed/finished our studies.** वी हैव कम्पलीटेड /फ़िनिश्ड आवर स्ट्डीज़.
15. तुम या तो उससे माफ़ी मांगो या फिर ज़ुर्माना अदा कर दो।	Either you beg his pardon, or pay the fine. आइदर यू बेग हिज़ पार्डन, ऑर पे द फ़ाइन.
16. **उसे कुछ नहीं आता-जाता।**	**He doesn't know anything./He's good for nothing.** ही डज़न्ट नो एनिथिंग./ही इज़ गुड फ़ॉर नथिंग.
17. वह बुधवार से हाज़िर नहीं है।	She has been absent since Wednesday. शी हैज़ बीन ऐबसेंट सिन्स वेन्ज़डे.
18. मेरे पास अपना काम पूरा करने का समय नहीं था।	I had no time to finish my work. आइ हैड नो टाइम टु फ़िनिश माइ वर्क.
19. **इसका अर्थ क्या है।**	**What does it mean?** वॉट डज़ इट मीन?
20. वह अच्छी तरह मन लगाकर पढ़ती है।	She takes keen interest in her studies. शी टेक्स कीन इंट्रेस्ट इन हर स्टडीज़.

21. स्टूडेंट्स को रिज़ल्ट कल पता चलेगा।	The students will know the result tomorrow. द स्टूडेंट्स विल नो द रिज़ल्ट टुमॉरो.
22. **तुम परीक्षा में पास हो गये।**	**You have passed the examination.** यू हैव पास्ड दी इग्ज़ैमिनेशन.
23. **मुझे पढ़ने क्यों नहीं देते?**	**Why don't you let me read/study?** वाइ डोन्ट यू लेट मी रीड/स्टडी?
24. यदि तुम पास हुए, तो तुम्हारे माता-पिता खुश होंगे।	If you pass, your parents will be happy. इफ़ यू पास, योर पेरेंट्स विल बी हैपी.
25. **मैं अंग्रेज़ी बोलना जानती हूं।**	**I know how to speak English.** आइ नो हाउ टु स्पीक इंगलिश.
26. **तुम किस कॉलेज में पढ़ते हो?**	**In which college are you?** इन विच कॉलिज आर यू?
27. तुम्हारी पढ़ाई कैसी चल रही है?	How are you getting on with your studies? हाउ आर यू गेटिंग ऑन विद योर स्टडीज़?
28. मैं इस कॉलेज में दो साल से हूं।	I have been in this college for two years. आइ हैव बीन इन दिस कॉलिज फ़ॉर टू ईयर्ज़.
29. मैं इस कॉलेज में सन् 1980 से हूं।	I have been in this college since 1980. आइ हैव बीन इन दिस कॉलिज सिंस 1980.
30. तुम्हारा स्कूल अच्छा है।	Your school is good. योर स्कूल इज़ गुड.
31. **वह अंग्रेज़ी में अच्छा है।**	**He is good at English.** ही इज़ गुड ऐट इंगलिश.
32. वह इस वर्ष परीक्षा में नहीं बैठेगा।	He is dropping out of the examination this year. ही इज़ ड्रॉपिंग आउट आफ़ दि इग्ज़ैमिनेशन दिस ईयर.
33. **वह खेलों में बहुत होशियार है।**	**He is a good sportsman.** ही इज़ अ गुड स्पोर्ट्समैन.
34. **तुम्हारी लिखाई अच्छी नहीं है।**	**Your handwriting is not good.** योर हैन्डराइटिंग इज़ नॉट गुड.
35. पुस्तक अभी अपने पास ही रहने दो।	Keep the book with you for the present. कीप द बुक विद यू फ़ॉर द प्रेज़ेंट.
36. वह अक्सर स्कूल से भाग जाता है।	He often runs away from the school. ही ऑफ़न रन्ज़ अवे फ्रॉम स्कूल.
37. **आपका ध्यान किस ओर है?**	**What are you looking at?/Why don't you pay attention?** वॉट आर यू लुकिंग ऐट?/वाइ डोन्ट यू पे अटेंशन?
38. क्या आपका हेडमास्टर पर कोई प्रभाव नहीं?	Don't you have any influence on the headmaster? डोन्ट य हैव एनी इन्फ्लुऐंस ऑन द हेडमास्टर?
39. **हमारे स्कूल में कल छुट्टियां हो जाएंगी।**	**Our school will be closed for vacation from tomorrow.** आवर स्कूल विल बी क्लोज़्ड फ़ॉर वेकेशन फ्रॉम टुमॉरो.
40. **लड़को, समय समाप्त हो गया, पर्चे दे दो।**	**Boys, time is over, hand in your papers.** बॉयज़, टाइम इज़ ओवर, हैंड इन योर पेपर्ज़.
41. **नया टाइम-टेबल पहली मई से चालू होगा।**	**The new time-table will come into force from 1st May.** द न्यू टाइम-टेबल विल कम इन्टु फ़ोर्स फ्रॉम फ़र्स्ट मे.
42. बकवास क्यों करते हो, मुंह बंद करो।	Why do you chatter/speak nonsense? Hold your tongue./Keep shut. वाइ डू यू चैटर/स्पीक नॉन्सन्स. होल्ड योर टंग./कीप शट.
43. मेरे पास फालतू पेंसिल नहीं है।	I don't have a spare pencil. आइ डोन्ट हैव अ स्पेअर पेंसिल.
44. **हमारी आपस में बोलचाल नहीं है।**	**We are not on speaking terms.** वी आर नॉट ऑन स्पीकिंग टर्म्ज़.
45. **हमारा एक-दूसरे के घर आना-जाना नहीं है।**	**We are not on visiting terms.** वी आर नॉट ऑन विज़िटिंग टर्म्ज़.

46. यह स्टूडेंट दसवीं क्लास में नहीं चल सकेगा।	This boy won't be able to get on in the 10th class. दिस बॉय वोन्ट बी एबल टु गेट ऑन इन द टेन्थ क्लास.
47. बक-बक मत करो।	Don't speak nonsense./Stop yapping. डोन्ट स्पीक नॉन्सन्स./स्टॉप यैपिंग.
48. क्या हाज़री लग गयी है?	Has the roll been called? हैज़ द रोल बीन कॉल्ड?
49. **गणित तो मेरे लिए हौवा है।**	**Mathematics is my bugbear.** मैथेमैटिक्स इज़ माइ बगबेअर.
50. सारी कोशिशें असफ़ल रहीं।	All the efforts failed. ऑल दी एफ़र्ट्स फ़ेल्ड.
51. नरेन क्लास का सबसे होशियार बालक है।	Naren is the best boy in the class. नरेन इज़ द बेस्ट बॉय इन द क्लास.
52. **वह मुझसे एक साल पीछे है।**	**He is junior to me by one year.** ही इज़ जूनियर टु मी बाइ वन ईयर.
53. अच्छा विद्यार्थी कक्षा का नाम रोशन करता है।	A good boy brings credit to his class अ गुड बॉय ब्रिंग्ज़ क्रेडिट टु हिज़ क्लास.
54. वह गणित में मुझसे आगे है।	He is ahead of me in Mathematics. ही इज़ अहेड ऑफ़ मी इन मैथेमैटिक्स.
55. **यह पेपर किसने बनाया है?**	**Who has set this paper?** हू हैज़ सेट दिस पेपर?
56. **स्कूल जाने का समय हो गया है।**	**It is time for school.** इट इज़ टाइम फ़ॉर स्कूल.
57. लड़का स्कूल नहीं आया।	The boy did not come to school. द बॉय डिड नॉट कम टु स्कूल.
58. **लड़के ने कविता सुनायी।**	**The boy recited a poem.** द बॉय रिसाइटिड अ पोएम.
59. क्या कोई फालतू कॉपी आपके पास है?	Do you have a spare exercise book/notebook? डू यू हैव अ स्पेअर एक्सरसाइज़ बुक/नोट बुक?
60. हेडमास्टर ने मेरा ज़ुर्माना माफ़ कर दिया।	The headmaster exempted my fine. द हेडमास्टर इग्ज़ैम्प्टेड माइ फ़ाइन.
61. **उसे अंग्रेजी में डिस्टिंक्शन मिली है।**	**He has got a distinction in English.** ही हैज़ गॉट अ डिस्टिंक्शन इन इंग्लिश.
62. **तुम्हारे पास आर्ट्स के विषय हैं या साइंस के?**	**Have you offered arts or science?** हैव यू ऑफ़र्ड आर्ट्स ऑर साइंस?
63. मेरे पास फ़िज़िक्स, केमिस्ट्री और बायोलोजी है।	I have offered physics, chemistry and biology. आइ हैव ऑफ़र्ड फ़िज़िक्स, केमिस्ट्री ऐंड बायोलोजी.

याद रखें (Remember)

This loan is repayable within twenty years (यह ऋण बीस साल में लौटा दिया जाना चाहिए।), He recalled his school days (उसने अपने स्कूल के दिन याद किये।), When will you return ? (आप कब लौटेंगे?) इन वाक्यों में:

repayable	=	re + payable
recall	=	re + call
return	=	re + turn

re तीन शब्दों के प्रारंभ में है। 're' का अर्थ है 'वापस' जिससे:

re = payable	=	वापस + देय अर्थात् लौटाने योग्य
re + call	=	वापस + बुलाना अर्थात् याद करना
re + turn	=	वापस + मुड़ना अर्थात् वापस आना

re को prefix (उपसर्ग) कहते हैं। इसके योग से बने कुछ और शब्द

remark (रिमार्क)-टिप्पणी देना
remove (रिमूव)-हटाना
rejoin (रिजॉइन)-दोबारा सम्मिलित होना
replace (रिप्लेस)-एक के बदले दूसरे को रखना
remind (रिमाइण्ड)-याद कराना
reform (रिफ़ॉर्म)-सुधारना, सुधरना

46 छियालीसवां दिन

th Day

29. (A) स्वास्थ्य (Health)

1. **कल रात मुझे बुखार हो गया था।**	**I had fever last night.** आइ हैड फ़ीवर लास्ट नाइट.
2. बुखार उतरने पर तीन बार कुनैन खाना।	Take quinine thrice after the fever is down. टेक क्विनीन थ्राइस आफ़्टर द फ़ीवर इज़ डाउन.
3. **मुझे अपनी सेहत की चिंता है।**	**I am worried about my health.** आइ ऐम वरिड अबाउट माइ हेल्थ.
4. **वह आंखों का डॉक्टर है।**	**He is an eye specialist.** ही इज़ ऐन आइ स्पेशलिस्ट.
5. उसका स्वास्थ्य बिगड़ गया है।	He is run down in health. ही इज़ रन डाउन इन हेल्थ.
6. मेरे पैर के अंगूठे पर चोट आयी है।	I've hurt my big toe. आइ 'व हर्ट माइ बिग टो.
7. उसके सब दांत ठीक हैं।	All his teeth are intact. ऑल हिज़ टीथ आर इन्टैक्ट.
8. **वह काना है।**	**He is blind in one eye.** ही इज़ ब्लाइंड इन वन आइ.
9. **वह लंगड़ा है।**	**He is lame.** ही इज़ लेम.
10. **मुझे प्राय: कब्ज़ रहती है।**	**I often have constipation.** आइ ऑफ़न हैव कॉन्स्टीपेशन.
11. **मेरा पेट खराब है।**	**My digestion is bad./My stomach is upset.** माइ डाइजेशन इज़ बैड./माइ स्टमक इज़ अप्सेट.
12. धीरे-धीरे मेरा सिर दबा देना। इससे मुझे आराम मिलता है।	Press my head gently. It's comforting. प्रेस माइ हेड जेंटली. इट्स कम्फ़र्टिंग.
13. **उसकी आंखें दुखतीं हैं और पानी बहता है।**	**His eyes are sore and watering.** हिज़ आइज़ आर सोर ऐंड वॉटरिंग.
14. उसके सारे शरीर पर फोड़े हैं।	His body is covered with boils. हिज़ बॉडी इज़ कवर्ड विद बॉइल्ज़.
15. आजकल शहर में हैज़ा फैल गया है।	These days/Nowadays cholera has spread in the city. दीज़ डेज़/नाउ अ डेज़ कॉलरा हैज़ स्प्रेड इन द सिटी.
16. व्यायाम सभी रोगों की अचूक दवा है।	Exercise is a panacea for all diseases. एक्सर्साइज इज़ अ पैनेसिआ फ़ॉर ऑल डिज़ीज़िज़.
17. **उसे दिल की बीमारी है।**	**He has heart trouble.** ही हैज़ हार्ट ट्रबल.
18. दवाई कड़वी होती है, परंतु रोगी को ठीक करती है।	Medicine is bitter but it cures the patient. मेडिसन इज़ बिटर बट इट क्योर्ज़ द पेशंट.
19. आजकल ज्वर ज़ोर पर है, डॉक्टर पैसा बना रहे हैं।	Nowadays fever is raging violently and the doctors are minting money. नाउअडेज़ फ़ीवर इज़ रेजिंग वॉयलेंटली ऐंड द डॉक्टर्ज़ आर मिन्टिंग मनी.
20. क्या तुम्हें थर्मामीटर देखना आता है।	Can you read the thermometer? कैन यू रीड द थरमॉमीटर?
21. शहर में चेचक तथा बुखार बहुत ज़ोर पर है।	Small pox and fever are raging in the city. स्मॉल पॉक्स ऐंड फ़ीवर आर रेजिंग इन द सिटी.
22. आपके भाई को कब से बुखार है?	How long has your brother been down with fever? हाउ लौंग हैज़ योर ब्रदर बीन डाउन विद फ़ीवर?

23. कुनैन मलेरिया की असरदार दवा है।	Quinine is an effective remedy for malaria. क्विनीन इज़ ऐन इफ़ेक्टिव रेमेडी फ़ॉर मलेरिया.
24. **मुझे बुखार लग रहा है।**	**I'm feeling feverish.** आइम फ़ीलिंग फ़ीवरिश.
25. **किसी डॉक्टर को दिखाओ।**	**Consult a/some doctor.** कंसल्ट अ/सम डॉक्टर.
26. उसे पुराना बुखार है।	He has chronic fever. ही हैज़ क्रॉनिक फ़ीवर.
27. **उसका बुखार उतर गया है।**	**His fever is down.** हिज़ फ़ीवर इज़ डाउन.
28. महिला की बीमारी ठीक हो गयी।	The lady recovered from her illness. द लेडी रिकवर्ड फ्रॉम हर इलनेस.
29. **अब रोगी खतरे से बाहर है।**	**Now the patient is out of danger.** नाउ द पेशेंट इज़ आउट ऑफ़ डेंजर.
30. **उसको बहुत चोट लगी है।**	**He is badly hurt.** ही इज़ बैडली हर्ट.
31. आपको नियम से व्यायाम करना चाहिए।	You should exercise regularly. यू शुड एक्सरसाईज़ रेग्युलरली.
32. ज़्यादा कार्य ने इसका स्वास्थ्य बिगाड़ दिया है।	Overwork has ruined his health. ओवरवर्क हैज़ रूइंड हिज़ हेल्थ.
33. उसे बदहज़मी है।	He has indigestion. ही हैज़ इन्डाइजेशन.
34. मच्छरों ने नाक में दम कर रखा है।	Mosquitoes are a menace. मॉस्किटोज़ आर अ मेनेस.
35. मेरा बुखार उतर गया है।	I have recovered from fever. आइ हैव रिकवर्ड फ्रॉम फ़ीवर.
36. **उसकी तबीयत ढीली है।**	**He is not feeling well.** ही इज़ नॉट फ़ीलिंग वेल.
37. वह एक तंदुरुस्त बच्चा है।	He is a healthy child. ही इज़ अ हेल्दी चाइल्ड.
38. मुझे कुछ आंतों की तकलीफ़ है।	I am suffering from some intestinal disorder. आइ ऐम सफ़रिंग फ्रॉम सम इंटेस्टाइनल डिसॉर्डर.
39. **इलाज से परहेज़ अच्छा है।**	**Prevention is better than cure. प्रिवेंशन इज़ बेटर दैन क्योर.**
40. दिन में आकर सो जाइए। रात को खाकर घूम आइए।	After lunch sleep a while. After dinner walk a mile. आफ़्टर लंच स्लीप अ वाइल./आफ़्टर डिनर वॉक अ माइल.
41. वह मासिक धर्म से है।	She is in her period. शी इज़ इन हर पीरियड.
42. वह अपना वज़न कम करने की कोशिश कर रही है।	She is trying to reduce her weight. शी इज़ ट्राइंग टु रिड्यूस हर वेट.
43. वहीदा बहुत कमज़ोर है।	Waheeda is very weak. वहीदा इज़ वेरी वीक.
44. रानी बहुत कमज़ोर है।	Rani is very weak. रानी इज़ वेरी वीक.
45. सेहत के लिए खुशी सबसे अच्छी खुराक चीज है।	Happiness is the best tonic/thing for health. हैपिनेस इज़ द बेस्ट टॉनिक/थिंग फ़ॉर हैल्थ.

याद रखें (Remember)

Action (क्रिया), Collection (संग्रह), protection (रक्षा) इत्यादि संज्ञाएं हैं। इन सबके अंत में tion है। और ये सभी ‘ t ’ में समाप्त होने वाली क्रियाओं से बनी हैं (act, collect, protect आदि)। कई बार ऐसी क्रियाओं से भी tion द्वारा संज्ञाएं बनती हैं जिनके अंत में ‘ t ’ न हो जैसे: attend से attention (ध्यान)

convene से convention (समिति)

destroy से destruction (विनाश)

receive से reception (स्वागत)

describe से description (वर्णन)

Timely action by the engine driver prevented a major railway accident (इंजन चालक द्वार समयोचित कार्रवाई ने बड़ी दुर्घटना से बचा लिया) कहना ठीक है क्योंकि act से action संज्ञा बनती है। परंतु his total investment amounts to rupees one lac (उसका कुल विनियोजन एक लाख रुपये है) में invest शब्द, जिनके अंत में ‘ t ’ है, में ment जोड़कर संज्ञा investment बनी है, न कि अंत में tion लगाकर। स्पष्ट है कि t में समाप्त होने वाली क्रिया से कई बार ment जोड़कर संज्ञा बनती है, जैसे — adjust से adjustment (समझौता), assort से assortment (चयन) इत्यादि।

47 सैंतालीसवां दिन

th Day

29. (B) स्वास्थ्य (Health)

46. **मेरा जी मतला रहा है।**	**I feel like vomiting. / I am feeling sick.** आइ फ़ील लाइक वॉमिटिंग./ आइ ऐम फ़ीलिंग सिक.
47. दवा की खुराक हरेक चार घंटे पीते रहो।	Take a dose of the medicine every four hours. टेक अ डोस ऑफ़ द मेडिसिन एवरी फ़ोर आवर्ज़.
48. शुद्ध हवा हमारी शक्ति को बढ़ाती है।	Fresh air is rejuvenating. फ्रेश एअर इज़ रिजूविनेटिंग.
49. आज मेरा जी ठीक नहीं है।	I am not feeling well today. आइ ऐम नॉट फ़ीलिंग वेल टुडे.
50. चलते-चलते उसके पैर में सूजन आ गयी।	His feet are swollen because of walking. हिज़ फ़ीट आर स्वोलन बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ वॉकिंग.
51. मेरी सेहत बिगड़ी हुई है।	My health is down. माइ हेल्थ इज़ डाउन.
52. जुलाब ले लो।	Take a purgative. टेक अ परगेटिव.
53. वह बीमारी से तंग आया हुआ है।	He is fed up with his illness. ही इज़ फ़ेड अप विद हिज़ इल्नेस.
54. नीम-हकीमों से बचो।	Beware of/Avoid quacks. वीवेयर ऑफ़/अवोइड क्वैक्स.
55. डॉक्टर उसकी बीमारी मालूम न कर सका।	The doctor could not diagnose his disease. द डॉक्टर कुड नॉट डाएग्नोज़ हिज़ डिज़ीज़.
56. तुम्हारी नाक बह रही है।	Your nose is running. योर नोज़ इज़ रनिंग.
57. मेरी बांह की हड्डी टूट गयी है।	My arm-bone has got fractured. माइ आर्म-बोन हैज़ गॉट फ्रैक्चर्ड.
58. मैं थक कर चूर हो गया हूं।	I am dead/extremely tired. आइम डेड/एक्सट्रीमली टायर्ड.
59. वह आज कैसा है?	How is he today? हाउ इज़ ही टुडे?
60. वॉलीबाल खेलते-खेलते उसका हाथ उतर गया।	His hand was dislocated while playing volleyball. हिज़ हैंड वॉज़ डिसलोकेटिड वाइल प्लेइंग वॉलीबॉल.
61. वह कल से आज अच्छा है।	Today he is better than yesterday./He is feeling better today. टुडे ही इज़ बेटर दैन येस्टर्डे./ही इज़ फ़ीलिंग बेटर टुडे.
62. यह दवा आपके बुखार को उतार देगी।	This medicine will bring your fever down. दिस मेडिसिन विल ब्रिंग योर फ़ीवर डाउन.
63. उसके सिर में दर्द है।	He has a headache. ही हैज़ अ हेडेक.

30 . मौसम (Weather)

1. कल रात भर थोड़ी-थोड़ी वर्षा होती रही।	It kept drizzing throughout the night. इट केप्ट ड्रिज़लिंग थ्रुआउट द नाइट.
2. आकाश पर काले बादल छाये हुए हैं।	The sky is overcast. द स्काइ इज़ ओवरकास्ट.
3. **आज तो बड़ी गर्मी / सर्दी है।**	**It is very/terribly hot/cold today.** इट इज़ वेरी/टेरिबली हॉट / कोल्ड टुडे.
4. गर्मी से सिर चक्कर खा रहा है।	The heat has made me giddy. द हीट हैज़ मेड मी गिडी.
5. अधिक वर्षा में छाता भी काम नहीं देता।	Even an umbrella is useless in heavy rain. ईवन ऐन अम्ब्रेला इज़ यूसलेस इन हेवी रेन.
6. **दिन-प्रतिदिन सर्दी बढ़ रही है।**	**It is getting colder day by day.** इट इज़ गेटिंग कोल्डर डे बाइ डे.
7. शिमला में आजकल कड़ाके की सर्दी पड़ रही है।	It is biting cold in Simla these days. इट इज़ बाइटिंग कोल्ड इन शिमला दीज़ डेज़.
8. तेज़ हवा के कारण दिया बुझ जाएगा इसे अंदर ही रहने दो।	The lamp will go off/blow off because of strong wind. Let it remain inside. द लैम्प विल गो ऑफ़/ब्लो ऑफ़ बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ स्ट्रांग विण्ड. लेट इट रिमेन इन्साइड.
9. आजकल बड़ी लू चल रही है।	Hot winds are blowing these days. हॉट विंड्ज़ आर ब्लोइंग दीज़ डेज़.
10. आपको पसीना आ रहा है।	You are perspiring. यू आर पर्स्पाइरिंग.
11. **मैं ठिठुर रहा हूं।**	**I am shivering.** आइ ऐम शिवरिंग.
12. मैं नहीं भीगा।	I did not get drenched. आइ डिड नॉट गेट ड्रेंच्ड.
13. बहुत धूल है।	It's terribly dusty. इट्स टेरिबली डस्टी.
14. आशा करता हूं, मौसम अच्छा रहेगा।	I hope the weather will remain pleasant. आइ होप द वेदर विल रिमेन प्लेज़ण्ट.
15. हवा में ठंडक है।	There is a nip in the air. देअर इज़ अ निप इन दी एअर.
16. बाहर तूफ़ान आ रहा है। मौसम बहुत खराब हो गया है।	A storm is raging outside. The weather has turned bad. अ स्टॉर्म इज़ रेजिंग आउटसाइड. द वेदर हैज़ टर्न्ड बैड.
17. ज़ोरों की वर्षा हो रही है।	It's raining heavily. इट्स रेनिंग हैविली.
18. आज सुबह ओले पड़े थे।	There was a hail-storm this morning./It hailed this morning. देअर वॉज़ अ हेल-स्टॉर्म दिस मॉर्निंग./इट हेल्ड दिस मॉर्निंग.
19. **उमस बहुत बढ़ गई है।**	**It's very humid.** इट्स वेरी ह्यूमिड.
20. गर्मी बहुत है और हवा बिल्कुल बंद है।	It's sultry. इट्स सल्ट्री.
21. हवा लगभग बंद है।	The wind is almost still. द विंड इज़ ऑल्मोस्ट स्टिल.
22. हवा में हल्की ठंड है।	Cool wind is blowing. कूल विंड इज़ ब्लोइंग.
23. वर्षा के कारण मैं नहीं गई।	The rain prevented me from going. द रेन प्रिवेंटिड मी फ्रॉम गोइंग.

याद रखें (Remember)

A patriot would gladly lay down his life for the sake of his country . (कोई भी देशभक्त अपने देश के लिए खुशी-खुशी जान दे देगा), The camel walks very clumsily (ऊंट बड़े भद्दे ढंग से चलता है), में — glad से gladly, clumsy से clumsily; glad और clumsy विशेषणों में ly लगाकर ये शब्द बने हैं। ये adverb या क्रिया-विशेषण कहलाते हैं। उदाहरण के लिए:

able	से ably (योग्यतापूर्वक)	glad	से gladly (खुशी से)
aimless	से aimlessly (उद्देश्यहीनता)	humble	से humbly (नम्रता से)
bad	से badly (बुरी तरह से)	intelligent	से intelligently (बुद्धिमानी से)
calm	से calmly (शांतिपूर्वक)	kind	से kindly (दयापूर्वक)
efficient	से efficiently (कार्यकुशलता से)	honest	से honestly (ईमानदारी से)
wrong	से wrongly (गलत ढंग से)	right	से rightly (ठीक से) आदि।

48 अड़तालीसवां दिन

th Day

31 . जीव-जंतु (Animals)

1. प्र० कौन से जानवर हमें दूध देते हैं?
   उ० गाय, भैंस और बकरी।
   Q. Which animals give us milk? विच ऐनिमल्ज़ गिव अस मिल्क?
   A. The cow, buffalo and goat. द काउ, बफ़लो ऐंड गोट.
2. प्र० कौन सा जानवर भौंकता है?
   उ० कुत्ता।
   Q. Which animal barks? विच ऐनिमल बार्क्स?
   A. The dog. द डॉग.
3. प्र० कौन से जानवर की गर्दन लंबी होती है?
   उ० जिराफ़ की।
   Q. Which animal has a long neck? विच ऐनिमल हैज़ अ लौंग नेक?
   A. The giraffe. द जिराफ़.
4. प्र० कौन सा जानवर हमें ऊन देता है?
   उ० भेड़।
   Q. Which animal gives us wool? विच ऐनिमल गिव्ज़ अस वुल?
   A. The sheep. द शीप.
5. प्र० किस जानवर की पूंछ झाड़ी की तरह होती है?
   उ० गिलहरी की।
   Q. Which animal has a bushy tail? विच ऐनिमल हैज़ अ बुशी टेल?
   A. The squirrel has a bushy tail. द स्क्विरल हैज़ ए बुशी टेल.
6. प्र० कौन सा जानवर आधा घोड़ा और आधा गधा होता है?
   उ० खच्चर।
   Q. Which animal is a cross between horse and donkey? विच ऐनिमल इज़ अ क्रॉस बिटवीन हॉर्स ऐंड डॉन्की.
   A. The mule. द म्यूल.
7. प्र० खच्चर किस काम आते हैं?
   उ० बोझा ढोने के।
   Q. What do mules do? वॉट डू म्यूल्ज़ डू?
   A. They carry load. दे कैरी लोड्ज़.
8. प्र० कौन से जानवर की सूंड होती है?
   उ० हाथी की।
   Q. Which animal has a trunk? विच ऐनिमल हैज़ अ ट्रंक?
   A. The elephant*. दी ऐलिफ़ेंट.
9. प्र० कौन से जानवर की पीठ पर कूबड़ होता है?
   उ० ऊंट की पीठ पर।
   Q. Which animal has a hump on its back? विच ऐनिमल हैज़ अ हम्प ऑन इट्स बैक?
   A. The camel. द कैमेल.
10. प्र० किस जानवर के सींग होते हैं?
    उ० गाय के।
    Q. Which animal has horns? विच ऐनिमल हैज़ हॉर्न्ज़?
    A. The cow. द काउ.
11. प्र० कौन सा जानवर गाड़ी खींचता है?
    उ० टट्टू।
    Q. Which animal pulls wagons? विच ऐनिमल पुल्ज़ वैगन्स?
    A. The cart-horse/mule. द कार्ट-हार्स/म्यूल.
12. प्र० कौन सा जंतु छत्ते में रहता है?
    उ० शहद की मक्खियां.
    Q. Which insect lives in a hive? विच इनसेक्ट लिव्ज़ इन अ हाइव?
    A. Bees. बीज़.
13. प्र० रात को कौन सा पक्षी चीखता है?
    उ० उल्लू।
    Q. Which bird hoots at night? विच बर्ड हूट्स ऐट नाइट?
    A. The owl. 'दि आउल'.
14. प्र० कौन सा जानवर मनुष्य से मिलता-जुलता है?
    उ० बंदर।
    Q. Which animal resembles human beings? विच ऐनिमल रिज़ेम्बल्ज़ ह्यूमन बींग्ज़.
    A. The ape resembles human beings. दी एप रिज़ेम्बल्ज़ ह्यूमन बींग्ज़.
15. प्र० कौन सा जीव जाला बुनता है?
    उ० मकड़ी।
    Q. Which insect weaves webs? विच इनसेक्ट वीव्ज़ वैब्ज़?
    A. The spider. द स्पाइडर.
16. प्र० शिकारी जानवर कौन से हैं?
    उ० सिंह, भेड़िया, चीता आदि।
    Q. Which are the beasts of prey? विच आर द बीस्ट्स ऑफ़ प्रे?
    A. Lion, wolf, leopard etc. लायन, वुल्फ़, लैपर्ड एटसेटरा.

31 . खेल-क्रीड़ा (Games)

1. रमा खेल रही है।	Rama is playing. रमा इज़ प्लेइंग.
2. आपको ज़्यादा चोट तो नहीं आयी?	Hope, you are not hurt badly. होप, यू आर नॉट हर्ट बैडली.
3. मैं सवारी को पैदल चलने से अच्छा समझता हूं।	I prefer* riding to walking. आइ प्रिफ़र राइडिंग टु वॉकिंग.
4. मैं पतंग उड़ा रहा हूं।	I am flying a kite. आइ ऐम फ़्लाइंग अ काइट.
5. आज हम शतरंज खेलेंगे।	We'll play chess today. वी'ल प्ले चेस टुडे.
6. **कौन जीता?**	**Who won? हू वन?**
7. तुम कौन से खेल खेलते हो?	What games do you play? वॉट गेम्ज़ डू यू प्ले?
8. **आओ, ताश खेलें।**	**Come, let's play cards.** कम, लेट्स प्ले कार्ड्ज़.
9. **तुम पत्तों को मिलाओ, मैं काटता हूं।**	**You shuffle the cards and I'll cut.** यू शफ़ल द कार्ड्ज़ ऐंड आइल कट.
10. हमारी टीम जीती है।	Our team has won. आवर टीम हैज़ वन.
11. क्या तुम्हें लाठी चलानी आती है?	Can you wield a lathi? कैन यू वील्ड अ लाठी?
12. चलो, खेलें।	Come, let's play. कम, लेट्स प्ले.
13. **खेल शुरू हो गया।**	**The game has started.** द गेम हैज़ स्टार्टिड.
14. खेलना उतना ही आवश्यक है जितना कि पढ़ना।	Games are as important as studies. गेम्ज़ आर ऐज़ इम्पॉर्टेंट ऐज़ स्टडीज़.
15. छलांग लगाते हुए मुझे मोच आ गयी।	I sprained my ankle while jumping. आइ स्प्रेन्ड माइ ऐंकल वाइल जम्पिंग.
16. उसने ऊंची कूद में रिकार्ड कायम किया है।	He has set a record in high jump. ही हैज़ सेट अ रिकार्ड इन हाइ जम्प.
17. वह तेज दौड़ने वाला है।	He is a fast sprinter/racer. ही इज़ अ फ़ास्ट स्प्रिंटर/रेसर.
18. क्या तुम्हारे स्कूल में व्यायाम सिखाते हैं?	Do they teach you exercise/gymnastics in your school? डू दे टीच यू एक्सरसाईज़/जिमनास्टिक्स इन योर स्कूल?
19. हमारे स्कूल का खेलने का मैदान काफी बड़ा है।	Our school has a big playground. आवर स्कूल हैज़ अ बिग प्लेग्राउण्ड.
20. तुम्हारी बेसबॉल टीम का कप्तान कौन है?	Who is the captain of your baseball team? हू इज़ द कैप्टेन ऑफ़ योर बेसबॉल टीम?
21. क्या मैं बैडमिंटन तुम्हारे बल्ले से खेल लूं?	Can I play badminton with your racket? कैन आइ प्ले बैडमिंटन विद योर रैकिट?
22. क्या तुम्हारी टीम भी राष्ट्रीय फ़ुटबाल प्रतियोगिता में भाग ले रही है।	Is your team also playing/taking part in the national foot ball tournament? इज़ योर टीम ऑल्सो प्लेइंग/टेकिंग पार्ट इन द नेशनल फ़ुटबाल टूर्नामेंट?
23. मुझे नाव चलाना अच्छा लगता है।	I like rowing. आइ लाइक रोइंग.
24. वह टीम के लिए लगातार खेलती है।	She plays regularly for the team. शी प्लेज़ रेग्युलरली फ़ॉर द टीम.
25. हम हफ़्ते में एक बार ड्रिल करते हैं।	We do drill once a week. वी डू ड्रिल वन्स अ वीक.

याद रखें (To Remember)

आपने पिछले पाठ में पढ़ा है कि ' ly ' विशेषण को क्रिया विशेषण में बदल देता है,

जैसे — kind से kindly । यही ‘ ly ’ संज्ञा को विशेषण में भी बदल देता है, जैसे — ‘ His brotherly behaviour endeared him to all his colleagues (उसके भाई के समान व्यवहार ने उसे अपनी सभी सहयोगियों का प्रिय बना दिया) में brother संज्ञा में ly लगाने से brotherly विशेषण बन गया, इसी प्रकार: father से fatherly (पिता जैसा) mother से motherly (माता जैसा) sister से sisterly (बहन जैसा) body से bodily (शारीरिक) man से manly (मर्द जैसा) woman से womanly (स्त्री जैसा) king से kingly (बादशाह जैसा) scholar से scholarly (विद्वान जैसा) It was a windy day (उस दिन हवा चलती रही), A fish has a scaly body (मछली के बदन पर छिलके होते हैं) में wind से windy (हवादार), scale से scaly (छिलकों वाला) विशेषण wind or scale संज्ञाओं में y जोड़ने से बने हैं। इसी प्रकार बने कुछ विशेषण ये हैं: breeze से breezy (हल्की हवा वाला) craft से crafty (चालाक)

greed से greedy (लालची)
rain से rainy (वर्षा युक्त) hand से handy (उपयोगी)
dust से dusty (धूलभरा)
room से roomy (खुला)
sun से sunny (धूपवाला)

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* “The elephant” का उच्चारण ‘दि ऐलिफ़ैन्ट होता है’, The का उच्चारण स्वरों पर “The owl” का ‘दि आउल’ तथा “The ape” का ‘दि एप’ “The Cow, the Giraffe” का उच्चारण ‘द काउ और द जिराफ़’ होता है।

जैसे a, e, o आदि से पहले ‘दि’ तथा व्यंजन जैसे क, ज, र आदि से पहले ‘द’ होता है।
* Prefer क्रिया के बाद में जो बातें आती हैं उनमें पहली बात को दूसरी से अच्छा समझा जाता है।

49 उनचासवां दिन

th Day

33 . व्यक्ति और आयु (Person & Age)

1. आपका नाम?	Your name, please?/What is your good name? योर नेम, प्लीज़?/वॉट इज़ योर गुड नेम?
2. कृपया अपना परिचय दें।	Please introduce yourself.? प्लीज़ इन्ट्रोड्यूस योरसेल्फ़.
3. आपकी उम्र क्या है?	What is your age?/How old are you? वॉट इज़ योर एज?/हाउ ओल्ड आर यू?
4. मैंने अभी बीस साल पूरे किये हैं।	I have just completed twenty. आइ हैव जस्ट कम्पलीटिड ट्वेंटी.
5. आप मुझसे बड़े / छोटे हैं?	You are older / younger than me? यू आर ओल्डर / यंगर दैन मी?
6. **मैं अविवाहित हूं।**	**I am a bachelor.** आइ ऐम अ बैचलर.
7. वह विवाहिता है।	She is married. शी इज़ मैरिड.
8. उसके केवल दो लड़कियां हैं।	She has only two daughters. शी हैज़ ओन्ली टू डॉटर्ज़.
9. आपके पिता क्या करते हैं?	What is your father?/What does your father do? वॉट इज़ योर फ़ादर/वॉट डज़ योर फ़ादर डू?
10. वह सरकारी नौकरी से रिटायर हो चुके हैं।	He has retired from Government service. ही हैज़ रिटायर्ड फ्रॉम गवर्नमेंट सर्विस.
11. वह अधिक उम्र के लगते हैं।	He looks aged. ही लुक्स एज्ड.
12. उनके बाल सफ़ेद हैं।	He has grey hair.* ही हैज़ ग्रे हेअर.
13. क्या वह अपने बालों को डाइ करती है?	Does she dye her hair? डज़ शी डाइ हर हेअर?
14. **क्या आपका संयुक्त परिवार है?**	**Do you have a joint family?/Is yours a joint family?** डू यू हैव अ जॉइंट फ़ैमिली?/इज़ योर्ज़ अ जॉइंट फ़ैमिली?
15. हां।	Yes it is. येस इट इज़.
16. **आप कितने भाई हैं?**	**How many brothers do you have?** हाउ मेनी ब्रदर्ज़ डू यू हैव?
17. आपकी कितनी बहनें हैं?	How many sisters do you have? हाउ मेनी सिस्टर्ज़ डू यू हैव?
18. हमारे बड़े भाई अलग रहते हैं।	Our eldest brother lives separately. आवर एल्डेस्ट ब्रदर लिव्ज़ सेपेटली.
19. **वह बच्चा है।**	**He is just a kid.** ही इज़ जस्ट अ किड.
20. **आप अपनी उम्र से कम दिखाई देते हैं।**	**You look younger than your age./You look young for your age.** यू लुक यंगर दैन योर ऐज़./यू लुक यंग फ़ॉर योर ऐज़.
21. मेरा भाई सोलह साल का है।	My brother is sixteen years old. माइ ब्रदर इज़ सिक्सटीन ईयर्ज़ ओल्ड.

34 . चरित्र (Character)

1. गुस्सा करना कमज़ोरी की निशानी है।	To get angry is to show weakness. टु गेट ऐंग्री इज़ टु शो वीकनेस.
2. आलसी आदमी अधमरे के समान है।	An idle man is as good as half-dead. ऐन आइडल मैन इज़ ऐज़ गुड ऐज़ हाफ़ डेड.
3. न उधार लो, न दो।	Neither borrow nor lend. नाइदर बॉरो नॉर लेंड.
4. तुम्हें सच बात बता देनी चाहिए।	You must come out with the truth./You must tell/speak the truth. यू मस्ट कम आउट विद द ट्रुथ./यू मस्ट टेल/स्पीक द ट्रुथ.
5. नि:स्वार्थ सेवा में बड़ा आनंद है।	There is great joy in selfless* service. देअर इज़ ग्रेट जॉय इन सेल्फ़लेस सर्विस.
6. उसने अपने पाप का प्रायश्चित किया है।	He has atoned for his sin. ही हैज़ अटोन्ड फ़ॉर हिज़ सिन.
7. न धोखा दो, न खाओ।	Neither deceive, nor be deceived. नाइदर डिसीव, नॉर बी डिसीव्ड.
8. सिर्फ नेक लोग ही सुखी हैं।	The virtuous alone are happy. द वर्चुअस अलोन आर हैपी.
9. खाली दिमाग शैतान की दुकान है।	An idle mind is a devil's workshop. ऐन आइडल माइंड इज़ अ डेविल्ज़ वर्कशॉप.
10. ज़िन्दगी औरों की सेवा के लिए है।	Life is for others' service. लाइफ़ इज़ फ़ॉर अदर्ज़ सर्विस.
11. किसी से कुछ न मांगो।	Don't ask anything from anybody. डोन्ट आस्क ऐनिथिंग फ्रॉम एनीबडी.
12. मेरा ज़मीर इजाज़त नहीं देता।	My conscience doesn't permit. माइ कॉनशन्स डज़न्ट परमिट.
13. आराम हराम है।	To rest is to rust. टु रेस्ट इज़ टु रस्ट.
14. जो मेहनत किये बगैर खाता है, चोरी करता है।	He who eats without earning is committing a theft. ही हू ईट्स विदाउट अर्निंग इज़ कामिटिंग अ थेफ़्ट.
15. वह हर समय बात करती रहती है।	She always keeps on talking. शी ऑलवेज़ कीप्स ऑन टॉकिंग.
16. वह अपनी बहन से बहुत ईर्ष्या करती है।	She is very jealous of her sister. शी इज़ वेरी जेलस ऑफ़ हर सिस्टर.
17. हमें तुम्हारी ईमानदारी पर पूरा भरोसा है।	We are sure of your honesty. वी आर श्योर ऑफ़ योर ऑनेस्टी.
18. वह ऐसे दिखाता है कि जैसे सब कुछ जानता है।	He pretends to know everything. ही प्रीटेन्ड्ज़ टु नो एवरीथिंग.

35 . वेशभूषा (Dress)

1. यह कपड़ा बारह रुपये मीटर है।	This cloth is twelve rupees a/per metre. दिस क्लोथ इज़ ट्वेल्व रूपीज़ अ/पर मीटर.
2. कृपया बरसाती कोट पहनना मत भूलें।	Please don't forget to wear a rain-coat. प्लीज़ डोन्ट फ़ॉर्गेट टु वेअर अ रेन-कोट.
3. यह कपड़ा बहुत गर्म है।	This cloth is extremely/very warm. दिस क्लॉथ इज़ एक्स्ट्रीमली/वेरी वॉर्म.
4. भारतीय महिलाएं प्राय: साड़ी पहनती हैं।	Indian women usually/mostly wear sarees. इंडियन विमेन युज़्वली/मोस्टली वेअर सारीज़.
5. गीले कपड़े न पहनो।	Don't wear/put on wet clothes. डोन्ट वेअर/पुट ऑन वेट क्लोद्ज़.
6. पुराना कोट पहनो, नई किताब खरीदो।	Wear old coat, buy a new book. वेअर ओल्ड कोट, बाइ अ न्यू बुक.
7. मैं कपड़े बदल कर आता हूं।	I will come after changing my clothes. आइ विल कम आफ़्टर चेन्जिंग माइ क्लोद्ज़.
8. आजकल के युवक नये फ़ैशन के कपड़े पहनते हैं।	Nowadays the youth wear clothes of the latest fashion. नाउ अ डेज़ द यूथ वेअर क्लोदज़ ऑफ़ द लेटेस्ट फ़ैशन.
9. वह रेशमी साड़ी पहने हुई थी।	She was wearing/clad in a silk sari. शी वॉज़ वेअरिंग/क्लैड इन अ सिल्क सारी.
10. मेरे कपड़े धोबी के पास गये हैं।	My clothes have gone to the laundry. माइ क्लोद्ज़ हैव गॉन टु द लॉन्ड्री.
11. वह नीली वर्दी पहने हुए था।	He was wearing a blue uniform. ही वॉज़ वेअरिंग अ ब्लू यूनीफ़ॉर्म.
12. ये कोट पानी से नहीं भीगता।	It is a water-proof coat. इट इज़ अ वॉटर-प्रूफ़ कोट.
13. यह कपड़े आपके लिए हैं।	These dresses are for you. दीज़ ड्रेसेज़ आर फ़ॉर यू.
14. मनुष्य की पहचान उसके कपड़ों से की जाती है।	A man is judged by his clothes/by the clothes he wears. अ मैन इज़ जज्ड बाइ हिज़ क्लोद्ज़/बाइ द क्लोद्ज़ ही वेअर्ज़.
15. यह ड्रेस मुझे कुछ तंग है।	This dress is a little tight for me. दिस ड्रेस इज़ अ लिटिल टाइट फ़ॉर मी.
16. यह कोट कमर से ढीला है।	This coat is loose at the waist. दिस कोट इज़ लूस ऐट द वेस्ट.
17. **आपके पास कमीज़ों का कपड़ा है?**	**Do you have shirtings?** डू यू हैव शर्टिंग्ज़?
18. जी हां, हमारे पास सूट के अच्छे कपड़े भी हैं	Yes we have good suitings also. येस वी हैव गुड सूटिंग्ज़ ऑल्सो.
19. मेरा सूट तुम्हारे सूट से भिन्न है।	My suit is different from yours./Your suit is not like mine. सूट इज़ डिफ़रेंट फ़्रॉम योर्ज़/योर सूट इज़ नॉट लाइक माइन.
20. उसकी कमीज़ मेरी कमीज़ जैसी नहीं है।	His shirt is not like mine/similar to mine. हिज़ शर्ट इज़ नॉट लाइक माइन/सिमिलर टु माइन.

याद रखें (Remember)

* किसी शब्द के अंत में ' less ' आए तो उसे नकारात्मक विशेषण समझिए, जैसे — He is a shameless person (यह निर्लज्ज आदमी है); needless to say that you are a thorough gentleman (यह कहना अनावश्यक है कि आप सज्जन व्यक्ति हैं); cloudless sky in the month of ' Sawan ' can really worry the poor Indian farmers (सावन के महीने में बादल विहीन आकाश भारत के गरीब किसानों को सचमुच चिंतित कर सकता है); Astronauts remain weightless while travelling in space . अंतरिक्ष यात्री, अंतरिक्ष यात्रा के

दौरान भारहीन रहते हैं। less का अर्थ है बिना या हीन।

कई ऐसे शब्द हैं, जिनके साथ full लगाया जा सकता है तथा less भी लगाया जा सकता है। उदाहरण के लिए merciful (दयालु), merciless (निर्दय), colourful (रंगीन), colourless (बेरंग), careful (सावधान), careless (लापरवाह), pitiful (दयालु), pitiless (निर्दय), आदि। ‘ full ’ और ‘ less ’ से बने विपरीतार्थक शब्दों के जोड़े हैं, पर सभी शब्दों में जिनके साथ ‘ less ’ लगाया जा सकता है ‘ full ’ नहीं लगाया जा सकता, जैसे — Friendless (मित्रहीन) और landless (भूमिहीन) इनके साथ full लगाकर friendful और landful नहीं बनाया जा सकता। ध्यान रहे कि किसी दूसरे शब्द के साथ जोड़ने पर ‘ ful ’ में single ‘ l ’ लिखा जाता है double ‘ ll ’ नहीं।

50 पचासवां दिन
th Day Test No. 1

कुल अंक 20

41 से 45 दिन

16 या इससे अधिक very good; 12 या इससे अधिक fair I. नीचे दिये वाक्यों से मिलते-जुलते वाक्य आपने पीछे सीखे हैं। इनमें कोई-न-कोई छोटी-मोटी अशुद्धि है। उसे ठीक करके अपनी भाषा ज्ञान की परीक्षा लीजिए और टेढ़े टाइप वाले (italics) अशुद्ध शब्दों का नीचे दिये गये शुद्ध शब्दों से मिलान करके जांचिए।

1. The milk has become sour. 2. Why didn't you wake me on ? 3. You should not go back from your words. 4. Sonia is taller of a two girls. 5. Wait the bit. 6. I saw the woman whom the boss said was away. 7. This rice is on inferior quality. 8. I am short for fifty paise. 9. This chair is quite cheap at sixty rupees. 10. Do not buy at credit. 11. Does your shoe pinches you? 12. Show me a shoe with an narrow toe. 13. As we labour, so shall we be reward . 14. I am so tired to attend the class. 15. The question is so easy. 16. He is week in Hindi. 17. She has been absent for Wednesday. 18. Should you pass, your parents will be happy. 19. I have been in this college since two years. 20. He is junior than me by one year.

Test No. 1 . —शुद्ध शब्द: 1. turned, 2. up, 3. on, 4. the, 5. a, 6. who, 7. of, 8. by, 9. for, 10. on, 11. pinch, 12. a, 13. rewarded, 14. too, 15. very, 16. weak, 17. since, 18. if, 19. for, 20. to.

Test No. 2

कुल अंक 20

46 से 49 दिन

16 या इनसे अधिक very good; 12 या इनसे अधिक fair II . इन वाक्यों में छोटी-मोटी अशुद्धियां हैं। अपनी भाषा ज्ञान का टैस्ट लीजिए और वाक्यों के अंत में दिये गये उत्तरों से मिलान करके अपनी योग्यता जांचिए।

1. He is a eye specialist. 2. All his tooth are intact. 3. He is

blind from one eye. 4. Nothing for worry. 5. Can you see thermometer? 6. He is bad hurt. 7. Prevention is better to cure. 8. Happiness is a best tonic. 9. I am not feeling good . 10. How are you getting of in your business? 11. My health has gone for on account of hardwork. 12. The patient is shivering from cold. 13. Many people died from malaria. 14. It's getting cold day by day. 15. Sheeps give us wool. 16. I prefer riding to walk . 17. Who did win the match? 18. Is your a joint family? 19. My brother is sixteen year old. 20. We are quite sure for your honesty.

Test No. 2 . —शुद्ध शब्द: 1. an, 2. teeth, 3. of, 4. to, 5. read, 6.badly, 7. than, 8. the, 9. well, 10. on, 11. down, 12. with, 13. of, 14. colder, 15. Sheep, 16. walking, 17. won, 18. yours, 19. years, 20. of.

Test No. 3

कुल अंक 20

41 से 49 दिन

16 या इनसे अधिक very good; 12 या इनसे अधिक fair III . नीचे दिये अधूरे वाक्यों के बीच में दो-दो विकल्प दिये गये हैं। उनमें से उचित शब्द निकालकर वाक्य पूरे करें। साथ ही, इनमें जो सिद्धांत काम कर रहा है, उसे भी समझें।

1. I...(have passed/passed) the B.A. examination in 1976. 2. How...(many/much) letters did she write to me? 3. They have not spoken to each other...(for/since) two weeks. 4. She has been looking for a job...(for/since) July 1975. 5. I...(had/have) already bought my ticket, so I went in. 6. He was found guilty...(for/of) murder. 7. They are leaving...(for/to) America soon. 8. She was married...(with/to) a rich man. 9. This shirt is superior... (than/to) that. 10. Write the letter... (with/in) ink. 11. She cannot avoid... (to make/making) mistakes. 12. The train... (left/had left) before I arrived. 13. She (finished/had finished) her journey yesterday. 14. You talk as if you... (know/knew) everything. 15. She is (taller/tallest) than her sister. 16. It will remain a secret between you and...(I/me). 17. A girlfriend of...(his/him) told us this news. 18. Vagish and...(myself/I) were present there. 19. Amitabh played a very good... (game/play). 20. I played well yesterday... (isn't it/didn't I?) **Test No. 3 —शुद्ध शब्द:** 1. passed, 2. many, 3. for, 4. since, 5. had, 6. of, 7. for, 8. to, 9. to, 10. in, 11. making, 12. had left, 13. finished, 14. know, 15. taller, 16. me, 17. his 18. I, 19. game, 20.

didn’t I?

Test No. 4

IV . कोष्ठकों में दिये गये शब्दों में से उपयुक्त शब्द चुनकर रिक्त स्थान भरिए: 1. How... (much, more, many) children do you have? 2. Custard is my favourite... (food, dish). 3. Where does this road... (lead, go) to? 4. Is he a... (dependible, dependable) person? 5. He is an... (important, importent) minister. 6. When does your examination... (start, begin, commence)? 7. ...(if, Should) you pass, your parents... (will, shall) be happy. 8. The boy is so weak in mathematics that he will not be able to get... (up, on, in) with the class. 9. Good boys bring credit... (to, for) their school. 10. A little girl... (recalled, recounted, recited) a beautiful poem. 11. The squirrel has a... (wooly, hairy, bushy) tail. 12. The sun is bright because the sky is... (cloudy, cloudless). 13. As he is a... (shameful, shameless) person he pays for a good deed with a bad one. 14. She had... (wore, worn) a simple sari. 15. Children need... (protection, defence) from traffic hazards. 16. ... (Quitely, Quietly) he went out of the convention hall. 17. Hamid and Majid help... (each other, one another) 18. Small children help... (each other, one another). 19. Minakshi has not come... (too, either). 20. They went for a... (ride, walk) on their bicycles.

वाक्यों के पूरक शुद्ध शब्द: 1. many, 2. dish, 3. lead, 4. dependable, 5. important, 6. commence, 7. if-will, 8. on, 9. to, 10. recited, 11. bushy, 12. cloudless, 13. shamless, 14. worn, 15. protection, 16. Quietly, 17. each other, 18. one another. 19. either, 20. ride.

Test No. 5

V. (i) इन वाक्यों का हिंदी में अनुवाद कीजिए: 1. Do you have books? 2. Did the dhobi take the last wash? 3. Did you wake me up? 4. Is Anupam there? 5. Shall we meet again? 6. Why do you say this? 7. When will your college reopen? 8. Why don’t you allow me to read? 9. Why are you looking at him?

Test No. 6

VI . अंग्रेजी में अनुवाद कीजिए:

(1) मैं उससे पीछा छुड़ाना चाहता हूं। (2) बक-बक बंद करो। (3) जल्दी सोओ, जल्दी उठो। (4) उसका बुखार उतर गया है। (5) उसे किसी डॉक्टर को दिखाइए। (6) उसके सिर में

दर्द है। (7) मैं कांप रहा हूं। (8) मैं जीता। (9) आओ, खेलें। (10) मैं अविवाहित हूं। (11) हम वक्त से पहले पहुंचेंगे। (12) कोई मिलने आया है। (13) मैं बहुत थका हुआ हूं। (14) मैंने अपना मकान बदल लिया है। (15) उन्होंने आपको याद किया है। (16) कभी-कभी चिट्ठी ज़रूर डाल दिया करो। (17) रंग पक्का है न? (18) क्या आप चेक स्वीकार करते हैं? (19) वह गणित में कमज़ोर है। (20) मैं अंग्रेज़ी में अच्छा हूं।

Test No. 7

VII. (i) नीचे कुछ शब्द दिये गये हैं। उनके आरंभ में नया वर्ण जोड़कर एक नया शब्द बनाइए, जैसे — old से gold आदि।

now, he, ox, our, an, how, hen, ear, all, refer.

(ii) इन विशेषण शब्दों के तुलनात्मक रूप लिखिए — (जैसे, old से old, older, oldest आदि।) good, young, pretty, bad, fine, strong, hard, wealthy.

(iii) इन शब्दों का उच्चारण नागरी लिपि में लिखकर अर्थ बताइए: year, psalm, of, off, man, men, in, inn, to, too, answer, station, cloth, clothe, Mrs., bath, bathe, dare, dear, car, idea, idiom, white, who.

निम्न शब्दों के साथ 'more' or 'most' लगाकर तुलनात्मक रूप बनाइए, जैसे! beautiful से beautiful, more beautiful आदि।

peaceful, difficult, careful, intelligent, stupid.

Test No. 8

VIII. (i) इन शब्दों के (plural) बताइए: knife, journey, city, woman, ox, tooth, mouse, sheep, deer, foot, child, brother, church, fly, day, brother-in-law, myself.

(ii) इन क्रियाओं के present, past और past participle के रूप लिखिए — (जैसे go क्रिया के go, went, gone. आदि।) to light, to lose, to mean, to pay, to say, to write, to throw, to win, to beat, to begin, to lie, to lay, to know, to hurt, to put, to cut, to hold, to forget, to shut, to take.

(iii) नीचे कुछ प्रचलित शब्दों के संक्षिप्त रूप (short forms) दिये गये हैं। आप इन शब्दों को अच्छी तरह जानते हैं। इनके पूरे शब्द सामने लिखिए:

Jan.	Mar.	Aug.	Oct.	Dec.	Mon.	Wed.	Fri.
Feb.	Apr.	Sept.	Nov.	Sun.	Tues.	Thurs.	Sat.
No.	Nos.	P.S.	P.P.	Co.	P.T.O.	K.M.	Dr.

ऊपर दी गई exercises में किसी तरह की कठिनाई आने पर डिक्शनरी की सहायता लीजिए।

51 इक्यावनवां दिन

st Day

छठा अभियान (6th Expedition)

आप अपने पांच अभियान पूरे कर चुके हैं। काफी कुछ आप जान चुके हैं। कुछेक महत्त्वपूर्ण विषय अभी शेष हैं जिनसे संबंधित बातचीत हर समय नागरिक को करनी पड़ती है, जैसे — शिष्टाचार की बातें, ऑफिस में होने वाली बातचीत, कानूनी विषयों, लेन-देन एवं व्यापार आदि से संबंधित विचारों को अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में प्रकट करने के वाक्य आदि। इसी प्रकार के उपयोगी वाक्य छठे अभियान में दिये गये हैं। इसके अलावा कुछ प्रचलित मुहावरे व कहावतें भी इस भाग में शामिल किये गये हैं।

36 . सभ्यता-शिष्टाचार (Etiquette)

1. **इतना काफ़ी है।**	**That will do./This/It is enough.** दैट विल डू./दिस/इट इज़ एनफ़.
2. **आप क्यों तकलीफ़ करते हैं।**	**Please, don't bother.** प्लीज़, डोन्ट बॉदर.
3. इसमें कोई तकलीफ़ नहीं।	No trouble at all. नो ट्रबल ऐट ऑल.
4. मेरी फ़िक्र न कीजिए।	Don't worry about me. डोन्ट वरी अबाउट मी.
5. **आपकी कृपा है।**	**So kind/nice of you.** सो काइंड/नाइस ऑफ़ यू.
6. आपकी बड़ी कृपा होगी।	It would be very kind of you. इट वुड बी वेरी काइंड ऑफ़ यू.
7. मैं आपकी क्या सेवा करूं?	How can I help you? हाउ कैन आइ हेल्प यू?
8. आपने कैसे कष्ट किया?	Why did you trouble yourself? वाइ डिड यू ट्रबल योरसेल्फ़?
9. बस, इतना बहुत है।	This is sufficient. दिस इज़ सफ़ीशेन्ट.
10. तकलीफ़ मत कीजिए।	Don't bother. डोन्ट बॉदर.
11. ज़रा और ठहरिए।	Please stay a little more. प्लीज़ स्टे अ लिटिल मोर.
12. **माफ़ कीजिए।**	**Please excuse me.** प्लीज़ एक्सक्यूज़ मी.
13. मुझे खेद है।	I'm sorry. आइम सॉरी.
14. **तकल्लुफ़ मत कीजिए।**	**Don't be formal.** डोन्ट बी फ़ॉर्मल.
15. मैं कुछ अर्ज़ करूं?	May I say something? मे आइ से समथिंग?
16. बुरा न मानियेगा।	Don't mind. डोन्ट माइन्ड.
17. मैं आपकी सेवा में हाज़िर हूं।	I'm at your service/disposal. आइम ऐट योर सर्विस/डिस्पोजल.
18. हम आपकी अच्छी खातिर न कर सके।	We couldn't entertain you properly. वी कुडन्ट एन्टरटेन यू प्रॉपरली.
19. क्या मैं यहां बैठ सकता हूं?	May I sit here? मे आइ सिट हिअर?
20. आपकी मदद के लिए धन्यवाद!	Thanks for your help! थैंक्स फ़ॉर योर हेल्प!
21. हम पर आपका एहसान है।	We are grateful to you. वी आर ग्रेटफ़ुल टु यू.
22. इसमें कृपा की कोई बात नहीं, बल्कि इससे मुझे खुशी होगी।	No question of kindness.* It would rather please me. नो क्वेश्चन ऑफ़ काइंडनेस. इट वुड रादर प्लीज़ मी.
23. आपकी नेक सलाह के लिए धन्यवाद!	Thank you for your sensible/good advice. थैंक यू फ़ॉर योर सेन्सिबल/गुड ऐडवाइस.

24. हार्दिक प्रेम और शुभकामनाओं सहित आपका परम मित्र, उमेश।	With love and best wishes—yours sincerely, Umesh. विद लव ऐंड बेस्ट विशिज़-योर्ज़ सिन्सिअरली, उमेश.
25. कृपा करके कष्ट के लिए माफ़ करें।	Kindly excuse me for the trouble. काइंडली एक्सक्यूज़ मी फ़ॉर द ट्रबल.
26. बहनों को नमस्ते और बच्चों को प्यार!	Regard to sisters and love to children! रिगार्ड टु सिस्टर्ज़ ऐंड लव टु चिल्ड्रन!
27. मैं आपका अत्यंत अहसानमंद होऊंगा, यदि आप मेरा यह काम करा देंगे।	I'll feel highly obliged, if you get this work done. आइल फ़ील हाइली ऑब्लाइज्ड, इफ़ यू गेट दिस वर्क डन.
28. मैं आपकी क्या सेवा करूं?	What can I do for you? वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?
29. कभी आइये न।	Please drop in sometime. प्लीज़ ड्रॉप इन समटाइम.
30. आराम से बैठिए।	Please make yourself comfortable. प्लीज़ मेक योरसेल्फ़ कम्फ़र्टेबल.

37 . चेतावनी/संकेत (Signals)

1. धीरे चलिये।	Drive slowly. ड्राइव स्लोली.
2. बायीं ओर रहिये।	Keep to the left. कीप टु द लेफ़्ट.
3. आगे खतरनाक मोड़ है।	Dangerous turn ahead. डेंजरस टर्न अहेड.
4. यहां गाड़ी खड़ी न कीजिए।	No parking here. नो पार्किंग हिअर.
5. यहां से उस पार जाइये।	Cross from here. क्रॉस फ्रॉम हिअर
6. कुत्ते अंदर नहीं आ सकते।	Dogs not permitted. डॉग्ज़ नॉट परमिटिड.
7. अंदर आने का रास्ता नहीं।	No entrance.** नो एन्ट्रेंस.
8. बाहर जाने का रास्ता।	Exit. एग्ज़िट.
9. अंदर जाने का रास्ता।	Entrance. एन्ट्रेंस.
10. घास पर न चलिए।	Keep off the grass. कीप ऑफ़ द ग्रास.
11. बिना आज्ञा अंदर आना मना है।	No entry without permission. नो एंट्री विदाउट परमिशन.
12. धूम्रपान न कीजिए।	No smoking. नो स्मोकिंग.
13. ज़ंजीर खींचिए।	Pull the chain. पुल द चेन.
14. किराये के लिए खाली है।	To let. टु लेट.
15. आगे स्कूल है।	School ahead. स्कूल अहेड.
16. सड़क बंद है।	Road closed. रोड क्लोज़्ड.
17. आगे रास्ता बंद है।	Dead end ahead. डेड एंड अहेड.
18. गुसलखाना।	*W.C. डब्ल्यू.सी.
19. विश्रामगृह।	Waiting Room. वेटिंग रूम.
20. एक पंक्ति में खड़े हों।	**Please stand in a queue.** प्लीज़ स्टैंड इन अ क्यू.
21. केवल महिलाओं के लिए।	For ladies only. फ़ॉर लेडीज़ ओन्ली.
22. भारी गाड़ियों को चलाने की आज्ञा नहीं।	Heavy vehicles are not allowed. हेवी वेहिकल्स आर नॉट अलाउड.
23. फ़ोटो लेना मना है।	Photography is prohibited. फ़ोटोग्राफी इज़ प्रोहिबिटिड.
24. कुत्तों से सावधान!	Beware of dogs. बीवेअर ऑफ़ डॉग्ज़.
25. आरक्षित	Reserved. रिज़र्व्ड.
26. गाड़ी पार्क न करें।	Tow Away Zone. टो अवे ज़ोन.

याद रखें (Remember)

* संज्ञा की पहचान कई बार बहुत सरल होती है। उदाहरण के लिए जिस शब्द के अंत में ness हो वह शब्द संज्ञा होता है, जैसे — Long illness has made him weak (लंबी बीमारी ने उसे कमजोर बना दिया है) में illness संज्ञा है। ये शब्द विशेषण में ness लगाने से बनते हैं। उदाहरण के लिए कुछ शब्द नीचे दिये जा रहे हैं, ध्यान दें: जैसे ill से illness good से goodness sad से sadness thick से thickness great से greatness इत्यादि।

** Assistance (सहायता) भाव वाचक संज्ञा यहां assist क्रिया से बनी है। स्पष्ट है कि assist क्रिया पद को संज्ञा में बदलने के लिए ance जोड़ा गया है। इसी प्रकार बने कुछ अन्य शब्द नीचे दिये जा रहे हैं: allow से allowance (भत्ता) ally से

alliance (गठजोड़) (यहां ance जोड़ने से पहले y का i में बदला गया है।) clear से clearance (सफ़ाई) pursue से pursuance (पैरवी) (ance लगाने से pursue का अंतिम e हट गया है।)

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* W.C. दरअसल Water Closet का संक्षिप्त रूप है। आजकल शौचालय के लिए अधिकतर Gentlemen's जेंटिलमैन्ज़ या Men मेन (पुरुषों के लिए) और Ladies लेडीज़ या Women विमेन (स्त्रियों के लिए) प्रयोग किया जाता है। वैसे तो बोलचाल में शौचालय के लिए Toilet (टॉयलेट) या Lavatory (लैवेटरी) शब्द का प्रयोग किया जाता है, पर सार्वजनिक प्रयोग के लिए W.C. या Gentlemen's आदि शब्दों का प्रयोग ही शोभनीय समझा जाता है।

52 बावनवां दिन

nd Day

38 . दफ़्तर (Office)

1. यह पंजाब नेशनल बैंक का चेक है।	This is a Punjab National Bank cheque. दिस इज़ अ पंजाब नैशनल बैंक चेक.
2. यह क्लर्क अफ़सरों के मुंह लगा हुआ है।	This clerk is a favourite of the officers. दिस क्लर्क इज़ अ फ़ेवरिट ऑफ़ दि ऑफ़िसर्ज़.
3. तुम्हें कितने दिनों की छुट्टी लेनी पड़ेगी?	For how many days would you have to take leave? फ़ॉर हाउ मेनी डेज़ वुड यू हैव टु टेक लीव?
4. **आजकल काम का ज़ोर है।**	**Work pressure is very heavy these days.** वर्क प्रेशर इज़ वेरी हेवी दीज़ डेज़.
5. **मुझे टेलीफ़ोन पर बात करनी है।**	**I want to make a call.** आइ वॉन्ट टु मेक अ कॉल.
6. **नोटिस को नोटिस-बोर्ड पर लगा दो।**	**Put up the notice on the notice-board.** पुट अप द नोटिस ऑन द नोटिस-बोर्ड.
7. साहब हैं?	Is the boss in? इज़ द बॉस इन?
8. **यहां साइन कीजिए।**	**Please sign here.** प्लीज़ साइन हिअर.
9. मेरी ऐप्लिकेशन मंज़ूर हो गयी।	My application has been accepted. माइ ऐप्लीकेशन हैज़ बीन अक्सेप्टिड.
10. उसे छुट्टी नहीं मिली।	He didn't/couldn't get leave. ही डिडन्ट/कुडन्ट गेट लीव.
11. उसे वार्निंग दे दी गयी है।	He has been warned. ही हैज़ बीन वॉर्न्ड.
12. **मैं इस मामले पर सोचूंगा।**	**I'll think over this matter.** आइल थिंक ओवर दिस मैटर.
13. उसने इस्तीफ़ा दे दिया है।	He has resigned. ही हैज़ रिज़ाइन्ड.
14. इस विषय पर कोई बात नहीं हुई।	This point was not touched. दिस पॉइंट वॉज़ नॉट टच्ड.
15. **मैं जरूर इस बात का ख्याल रखूंगा।**	**I'll surely keep this in mind.** आइल श्योर्ली कीप दिस इन माइंड.
16. आप जो कुछ कह रहे हैं, मैं सब समझ रहा हूं।	I follow all what you say./I am following whatever you are saying. आइ फ़ॉलो ऑल वॉट यू से./आइ ऐम फ़ॉलोइंग वॉट यू आर सेइंग.
17. इस दफ़्तर में हेडक्लर्क ही सब कुछ है।	The head clerk is all in all in this office. द हेड क्लर्क इज़ ऑल इन ऑल इन दिस ऑफ़िस.
18. उसका इस्तीफ़ा मंज़ूर हो गया है।	His resignation has been accepted. हिज़ रेज़िग्नेशन हैज बीन अक्सेप्टिड.
19. सिगरेट पीना मना है।	No smoking.* नो स्मोकिंग.
20. क्या तुम यह ग्राफ़िक डिज़ाइन कंप्यूटर पर बना सकते हो?	Can you make this graphic design on Computer? कैन यू मेक दिस ग्राफ़िक डिज़ाइन ऑन कंप्यूटर?
21. **मेरी घड़ी बंद हो गयी है।**	**My watch has stopped.** माइ वाच हैज़ स्टॉप्ड.
22. **क्या देर हो गयी है?**	**Is it late?** इज़ इट लेट?

23. आप एक घंटा देर से हैं।	You are late by an hour. यू आर लेट बाइ ऐन आवर.
24. यह पत्र जल्दी से टाइप करो।	Type this letter fast. टाइप दिस लेटर फ़ास्ट.
25. **आज क्या तारीख है?**	**What's the date today?** वॉट्स द डेट टडे?
26. वह आज ही नौकरी पर आयी है।	She has joined only today. शी हैज़ जॉइन्ड ओनली टुडे!
27. क्या मेरे लिए कोई फ़ोन है?	Is there any phone call for me? इज़ देअर एनी फ़ोन कॉल फ़ॉर मी?
28. मैंने डायरेक्टर साहब से तीन बजे की अपॉइंटमेंट ली है।	I have fixed an appointment with the director at 3 O'Clock. आइ हैव फ़िक्स्ड ऐन अपॉइंटमैंट विद द डायरेक्टर ऐट थ्री ओ'क्लॉक.
29. क्या तुम उस ऑफ़िस में नौकरी करते हो?	Are you working in that office? आर यू वर्किंग इन दैट ऑफ़िस?
30. बेहतर होगा कि आप रिज़ाइन कर दें।	It's better if you resign. इट्स बेटर इफ़ यू रिज़ाइन.
31. **आप किस पोस्ट पर हैं?**	**What post do you hold?** वॉट पोस्ट डू यू होल्ड?
32. उसे अपनी सफ़लता पर बड़ा घमंड है।	Success has gone to his head. सक्सेस हैज़ गॉन टु हिज़ हेड.
33. **आज मुझे बहुत काम है।**	**I'm very busy today.** आइम वेरी बिज़ी टुडे।

39 . वस्तुएं (Things)

1. यह बड़ी अच्छी तस्वीर है।	This is a very fine/nice/beautiful picture. दिस इज़ अ वेरी फ़ाइन/नाइस/ब्यूटिफ़ुल पिक्चर.
2. कृपया चेंज दीजिए।	Please give change. प्लीज़ गिव चेंज.
3. तुमने मुझे अपना फ़ोटो नहीं दिखाया।	You have not shown me your photograph. यू हैव नॉट शोन मी योर फ़ोटोग्राफ़.
4. ज़रा यह सामान मेरे होटल में पहुंचा दीजिए।	Please deliver the goods at my hotel. प्लीज़ डिलीवर द गुड्ज़ ऐट माइ होटेल.
5. मुझे चश्मा बदलवाना है।	I have to get my spectacles changed. आइ हैव टु गेट माइ स्पेक्टेक्ल्ज़ चेन्ज्ड.
6. मुझे एक और कंबल चाहिए।	I need another blanket. आइ नीड अनदर ब्लैंकिट.
7. मेरी घड़ी बनने गयी है।	My watch has been sent for repairs. माइ वॉच हैज़ बीन सेंट फ़ॉर रिपेअर्ज़.
8. मुझे चावल, दाल और करी चाहिए।	I want rice, pulses and curry. आइ वॉन्ट राइस, पल्सिज़ ऐंड करी.
9. मैं एक दर्जन सिगार और दो दर्जन सिगरेट चाहता हूं।	I want one dozen cigars and two dozen cigarettes. आइ वॉन्ट वन डज़न सिगार्ज़ ऐंड टू डज़न सिगरेट्स.
10. मुझसे शीशा टूट गया।	The mirror was broken by me. द मिरर वॉज़ ब्रोकन बाइ मी.
11. **कुछ ठंडा लीजिये।**	**Please have something cold.** प्लीज़ हैव समथिंग कोल्ड.
12. मैंने तुम्हारी किताब नहीं देखी।	I haven't seen your book. आइ हैवन्ट सीन योर बुक.
13. यह बक्सा बड़ा भारी है।	This box is very heavy. दिस बॉक्स इज़ वेरी हेवी.
14. इन सब चीजों को ले आओ।	Bring/Get all these things. ब्रिंग/गेट ऑल दीज़ थिंग्ज़.
15. इन चीजों को बांध दो।	Pack these things/articles. पैक दीज़ थिंग्ज़/आर्टीकल्ज़.
16. अपना बिस्तरबंद उठा लीजिए।	Please carry your holdall. प्लीज़ कैरी योर होल्डॉल.
17. वह अपना सब सामान लेकर घर से चला गया।	He left his house with bag and baggage. ही लेफ़्ट हिज़ हाउस विद बैग ऐंड बैगेज.
18. सामान कम लेकर चलें।	You should travel light. यू शुड ट्रैवल लाइट.
19. उसको सुंदर चीज़ों से बहुत लगाव है।	He is fond of beautiful things. ही इज़ फ़ौंड ऑफ़ ब्यूटिफ़ुल थिंग्ज़.
20. यह कपड़ा मज़बूत लगता है।	This cloth appears durable. दिस क्लॉथ अपियर्ज़ ड्यूरेबल.
21. बर्तनों को वापस शेल्फ़ पर रख दो।	Put the utensils back on the shelf. पुट द यूटेन्सिल्ज़ बैक ऑन द शेल्फ़.
22. आप अपने कमरे में हरा रंग करा लीजिए।	Get your room painted green. गेट योर रूम पेन्टिड ग्रीन.
23. क्या आपने अपने घर में सफ़ेदी करा ली?	Have you got your house white-washed? हैव यू गॉट योर हाउस वाइट-वॉश्ड?
24. मुझे अपने फ़र्नीचर की मरम्मत करानी है।	I have to get my furniture repaired. आइ हैव टु गेट माइ फ़र्नीचर रिपेयर्ड.

याद रखें (Remember)

* 1. (a) 'यह आम बहुत मीठा है' (b) एक टोकरी में पचास आम आते हैं, इन वाक्यों से स्पष्ट हो जाता है कि पहले वाक्य में आम शब्द एकवचन संज्ञा है और दूसरे वाक्य में यही शब्द (बिना परिवर्तन के) बहुवचन संज्ञा है। हिंदी के 'आम' आदि शब्दों की तरह अंग्रेज़ी में भी अनेक शब्द हैं, जिनका एकवचन (singular number सिंग्यूलर नंबर) बहुवचन (Plural number प्लूरल नंबर) के समान होता है। देखिए The hunter

ran after the deer . द हंटर रैन आफ़्टर द डिअर (शिकारी हिरन के पीछे दौड़ा) और The deer are fine looking animals . द डिअर आर फ़ाइन लुकिंग ऐनिमल्ज़ (हिरन देखने में बहुत सुंदर पशु हैं) में deer का plural number भी deer ही है। इसी प्रकार इन शब्दों पर ध्यान दीजिए: sheep (शीप) भेड़ Chinese (चायनीज़) चीनी hair (हेअर) बाल.

a sheep, एक भेड़ (many) sheep, कई भेड़े; a hair, एक बाल; (many) hair, कई बाल आदि।

2. Dozen (डज़न) दर्जन, score (स्कोर) कौड़ी, gross (ग्रॉस) ग्रुस, (144 वस्तुएं), hundred (हंड्रेड) सौ, thousand (थाउज़ेंड) हज़ार आदि संख्या-वाचक शब्द अंग्रेज़ी में जब विशेषण के रूप में आते हैं तो वे एकवचन ही रहते हैं, जैसे, two dozen eggs, five hundred rupees, three thousand soldiers . लेकिन जब क्रिया विशेषण के रूप में प्रयोग किये जाते हैं तब बहुवचन हो जाते हैं, जैसे — dozens of eggs, hundreds of rupees आदि।

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* कहीं-कहीं 'No Smoking' की जगह Smoking not allowed भी लिख दिया जाता है। दरअसल. दोनों वाक्यांश हैं पूरे वाक्य नहीं।

53 तिरेपनवां दिन

rd Day

40 . कानून (Law)

1. **उस पर खून का इल्ज़ाम लगाया गया।**	**He was accused of murder.** ही वॉज़ अक्यूज़्ड ऑफ़ मर्डर.
2. वह दो दिन जेल में रहा।	He was in the police lock-up for two days. ही वाज़ इन द पुलिस लॉक-अप फ़ॉर टू डेज़.
3. उसने इस घटना की रिपोर्ट पुलिस को दी।	He reported this incident to the police. ही रिपोर्टिड दिस इन्सीडेंट टु द पुलिस.
4. अपराधी बरी कर दिया गया।	The accused was acquitted. द अक्यूज़्ड वॉज़ अक्विटिड.
5. **वह फ़रार हो गया।**	**He absconded.** ही ऐब्सकॉन्डिड.
6. **वह ज़मानत पर छोड़ दिया गया है।**	**He was released on bail.** ही वॉज़ रिलीज़्ड ऑन बेल.
7. शहर में बदअमनी फैली हुई है।	Lawlessness prevails in the city. लॉलेसनेस प्रिवेल्ज़ इन द सिटी.
8. तुमने गैर-कानूनी काम किया है।	Your act is illegal. योर एक्ट इज़ इल्लीगल.
9. इन्साफ़ का यही तकाज़ा था।	Justice demanded it. जस्टिस डिमांडिड इट.
10. **आप मेरे गवाह हैं।**	**You are my witness.** यू आर माइ विटनेस.
11. यह कानून के खिलाफ़ है।	This is against the law. दिस इज़ अगेन्स्ट द लॉ.
12. **वह बिल्कुल बेगुनाह है।**	**He is innocent.** ही इज़ इनोसेंट.
13. आप ही इंसाफ़ करें।	It's for you to judge. इट्स फ़ॉर यू टु जज.
14. ये सब नकली दस्तावेज़ हैं।	These are all forged documents.* दीज़ आर ऑल फ़ोर्ज्ड डॉकूमेंट्स.
15. **उसने मेरे विरुद्ध केस किया।**	**He filed a suit against me.** ही फ़ाइल्ड अ सूट अगेंस्ट मी.
16. वकीलों ने गवाहों से प्रश्न किये।	The lawyers cross-examined the witnesses. द लॉयर्ज़ क्रॉस-इग्ज़ैमिंड द विटनेसिज़.
17. आजकल मुकदमेबाज़ी बढ़ गयी है।	Nowadays litigation is on the increase. नाउ अ डेज़ लिटिगेशन इज़ ऑन द इनक्रीज़.
18. **पुलिस इस विषय में छानबीन कर रही है।**	**The police is investigating the matter.** द पुलिस इज़ इनवेस्टिगेटिंग द मैटर.
19. मैंने उसके विरुद्ध क्रिमिनल केस कर दिया।	I have filed a criminal case against him. आइ हैव फ़ाइल्ड अ क्रिमिनल केस अगेंस्ट हिम.
20. मजिस्ट्रेट ने अपराधी पर अपराध लगा दिया।	The magistrate convicted the accused. द मैजिस्ट्रेट कन्विक्टेड द अक्यूज़्ड.
21. अंत में, अभियुक्त और अभियोग करने वाले ने समझौता कर लिया।	At last the plaintiff and the defendant reached a compromise. ऐट लास्ट द प्लेंटिफ़ ऐंड द डिफ़ेन्डेंट रीच्ड अ काम्प्रोमाइज़.
22. **उसको मृत्यु-दंड मिला।**	**He got a death sentence.** ही गॉट अ डेथ सेन्टेन्स.
23. ज्यूरी ने अभियुक्त के पक्ष में निर्णय दिया।	The jury gave its verdict in favour of the accused. द ज्यूरी गेव इट्स वर्डिक्ट इन फ़ेवर ऑफ़ द अक्यूज़्ड.

24. खूनी को फांसी मिल चुकी है।	The murderer has been hanged. द मर्डरर हैज़ बीन हैंग्ड.
25. कानून न जानना, कोई बहाना नहीं।	Ignorance of law is no excuse. इग्नोरेंस ऑफ़ लॉ इज़ नो एक्सक्यूज़.
26. जज ने चोर को सज़ा दी।	The judge punished the thief. द जज पनिश्ड द थीफ़.
27. **मुकदमे का क्या फ़ैसला हुआ?**	**What was the judgement* in the case?** वॉट वॉज़ द जजमेंट इन द केस?
28. **वह चश्मदीद गवाह है।**	**He is an eye-witness.** ही इज़ ऐन आई-विटनेस.
29. **वह कानून का मानने वाला है।**	**He is a law abiding man.** ही इज़ अ लॉ अबाइडिंग मैन.
30. इन्साफ़ में देर का मतलब अंधेर है।	Justice delayed is justice denied. जस्टिस डिलेड इज़ जस्टिस डिनाइड.
31. सफ़ाई के वकील ने बहुत बढ़िया पैरवी की।	The defence counsel argued the case well. द डिफ़ेंस काउन्सल आर्ग्यूड द केस वेल.

41 . रेडियो/टी.वी./डाकखाना (Radio/T.V./Post Office)

1. मैंने रंगीन टेलीविज़न ख़रीदा है।	I have bought a colour television. आइ हैव बॉट अ कलर टेलीविज़न.
2. आपका टी.वी. चल रहा है।	Your T.V. is on. योर टी.वी. इज़ ऑन.
3. मेरा रेडियो बंद है।	My radio is off. माइ रेडियो इज़ ऑफ़.
4. समाचार सभी स्टेशनों से एक साथ प्रसारित होते हैं।	News bulletin is broadcast simultaneously from all radio stations. न्यूज़ बुलेटिन इज़ ब्रॉडकास्ट साइमल्टेनिअसली फ्रॉम ऑल रेडियो स्टेशन्ज़.
5. मैं टी.वी. देखने का बड़ा शौकीन हूं।	I'm very fond of watching T.V. आइम वेरी फ़ौंड आफ़ वॉचिंग टी.वी.
6. **अब चैनल ज़ी लगा दो।**	**Now switch on/tune in to channel zee.** नाउ स्विच ऑन/ट्यून इन टु चैनल ज़ी.
7. डाकिया चिट्ठियां छांट रहा है।	The postman is sorting out the letters. द पोस्टमैन इज़ सॉर्टिंग आउट द लैटर्ज़.
8. **अगली डाक साढ़े चार बजे निकलेगी।**	**The next clearance is due at 4.30 P.M.** द नैक्स्ट क्लिअरेंस इज़ ड्यू ऐट फ़ोर-थर्टी पी.एम.
9. डाक दिन में दो समय बंटती है।	The mail is delivered twice a day. द मेल इज़ डिलिवर्ड ट्वाइस अ डे.
10. मैंने पचास रुपये मनीऑर्डर द्वारा भेजे।	I sent Rs. 50 by money order. आइ सेन्ट रूपीज़ फ़िफ़्टी बाइ मनीआर्डर.
11. रजिस्टर्ड पैकिट पर पूरे टिकट नहीं हैं।	The registered packet needs more stamps. द रजिस्टर्ड पैकेट नीड्ज़ मोर स्टैम्प्स.
12. कृपया मनीऑर्डर की रसीद भेजना।	Please acknowledge the money order. प्लीज़ अक्नॉलिज द मनीऑर्डर.
13. टेलीविज़न का हमारे जीवन में बहुत महत्त्वपूर्ण योगदान है।	The television plays an important role in our daily life. द टेलीविज़न प्लेज़ ऐन इम्पॉर्टेंट रोल इन आवर डेली लाइफ़.
14. **मेरा रेडियो बड़ी साफ़ आवाज़ पकड़ता है।**	**My radio has a very clear/sharp reception.** माइ रेडियो हैज़ अ वेरी क्लीअर/शार्प रिसेप्शन.
15. **क्या तुमने पार्सल का वज़न कर लिया है?**	**Have you weighed the parcel?** हैव यू वेड द पार्सल?
16. मुझे डाकखाने से कुछ लिफ़ाफ़े तथा इनलैंड शीट्स खरीदने हैं।	I have to buy some envelopes and inland sheets from the post office. आइ हैव टु बाइ सम ऐनवेलप्स ऐंड इनलैंड शीट्स फ्रॉम द पोस्ट ऑफ़िस.
17. इस चैनल में गड़बड़ी है।	This channel is disturbed. दिस चैनल इज़ डिस्टर्ब्ड.
18. तुमने इसे ठीक से ट्यून नहीं किया है।	You haven't tuned it properly. यू हैवन्ट ट्यून्ट इट प्रॉपर्ली.
19. डाक विभाग के कर्मचारी हड़ताल पर हैं।	The workers in the postal department are on strike. द वर्कर्ज़ इन द पोस्टल डिपार्टमेंट आर ऑन स्ट्राइक.
20. इस पत्र पर कितने की टिकट लगेगी?	What will the stamp on this letter cost? वॉट विल द स्टैम्प ऑन दिस लेटर कॉस्ट?

याद रखें (Remember)

* Here's a good government after decades (आज कई दशकों के बाद अच्छी सरकार बनी है) में govern क्रिया में ment लगाने से संज्ञा government बनी है। इसी प्रकार कुछ अन्य संज्ञाएं निम्नलिखित हैं —

agree से agreement (समझौता)
amaze से amazement (आश्चर्य)
amend से amendment (सुधार)
argue से argument (तर्क) [यहां argue की e का लोप हो गया है।]
employ से employment (नौकरी)
excite से excitement (जोश)
settle से settlement (निपटना)

He is a civil servant . (वह एक अधिकारी है) इस वाक्य में servant संज्ञा है। अंत में ant वाली कुछ और संज्ञाएं हैं— accountant (लेखापाल), applicant (प्रार्थी), consonant (व्यंजन), defendant (प्रतिवादी), merchant सौदागर आदि। ऊपर दिए गए शब्दों में servant, defendant तथा accountant जैसे शब्द क्रमश: serve, defend तथा account में ‘ ant ’ तथा apply में ‘ cant ’ लगाने से बने हैं। पर कुछ शब्द जैसे merchant और consonant अलग हैं, किसी दूसरे शब्द में जोड़ने से नहीं बने हैं। इसी तरह ‘ important ’ के अंत में ‘ ant ’ है, पर यह संज्ञा नहीं विशेषण है।

54 चौवनवां दिन

th Day

42 . यात्रा (Travel)

1. जल्दी चलिए।	Hurry up please. हरी अप प्लीज़.
2. **हम रास्ता भूल गये।**	**We have lost our way.** वी हैव लॉस्ट आवर वे.
3. **यात्रा लंबी है।**	**It's a long journey.** इट्स अ लौंग जर्नी.
4. मुझे आगरा जाना है।	I have to go to Agra. आइ हैव टु गो टु आगरा.
5. **तुम शीघ्र ही क्यों वापस आ गये?**	**Why did you come back so soon?** वाइ डिड यू कम बैक सो सून?
6. आप कहां ठहरे हुए हैं?	Where are you staying? वेअर आर यू स्टेइंग?
7. क्या आपने टिकट ले लिया?	Have you bought the ticket? हैव यू बॉट द टिकिट?
8. क्या जोधपुर मेल समय पर आ रही है।	Is the Jodhpur Mail arriving on time. इज़ द जोधपुर मेल अराइविंग ऑन टाइम.
9. मैं साढ़े दस बजे की गाड़ी से कोलकाता जाऊंगा।	I'll go to Kolkata by the 10.30 train. आइल गो टु कोलकाता बाइ द टेन-थर्टी ट्रेन.
10. **हम साथ-साथ चलेंगे।**	**We'll go together.** वी'ल गो टुगेदर.
11. इस वर्ष बद्रीनाथ मंदिर जून में खुलेगा।	Badrinath temple will reopen in June this year. ब्रदीनाथ टेम्पल विल रीओपन इन जून दिस ईयर.
12. पंजाब मेल किस समय छूटती है?	When does the Punjab Mail leave? वेन डज़ द पंजाब मेल लीव?
13. **हम समय पर पहुंच जाएंगे।**	**We'll reach in time.** वी'ल रीच इन टाइम.
14. **गाड़ी किस प्लेटफ़ार्म पर आयेगी?**	**On which platform will the train arrive?** ऑन विच प्लेटफ़ॉर्म विल द ट्रेन अराइव?
15. रेलवे स्टेशन यहां से कितनी दूर है?	How far is the railway station from here? हाउ फ़ार इज़ द रेलवे स्टेशन फ्रॉम हिअर?
16. जल्दी कीजिये, नहीं तो गाड़ी छूट जाएगी।	Hurry up, otherwise you'll miss the train. हरी अप, अदरवाइज़ यू'ल मिस द ट्रेन.
17. गाड़ी अब दिखाई नहीं देती।	The train is out of sight now. द ट्रेन इज़ आउट ऑफ़ साइट नाउ.
18. मैं अपने भाई को स्टेशन पर सी ऑफ़ करने जा रहा हूं।	I am going to the station to see off my brother. आइ ऐम गोइंग टु द स्टेशन टु सी ऑफ़ माइ ब्रदर.
19. **पैदल तो केवल दस मिनट का रास्ता है।**	**It is only ten minutes walk.** इट इज़ ओनली टेन मिनिट्स वॉक.
20. मैं उन्हें लेने स्टेशन जा रहा हूं।	I'm going to the station to receive them. आइम गोइंग टु द स्टेशन टु रिसीव देम.
21. यह आम रास्ता नहीं है।	It's no thoroughfare. इट्स नो थॉरोफ़ेअर.
22. हम शिकार के लिए जंगल में गये।	We went to the forest for hunting. वी वेन्ट टु द फ़ॉरेस्ट फ़ॉर हंटिंग.
23. **सड़क मरम्मत के लिए बंद है।**	**The road is closed for repairs.** द रोड इज़ क्लोज़्ड फ़ॉर रिपेयर्ज़.
24. **वे गाड़ी में न चढ़ सके।**	**They couldn't catch the train.** दे कुडन्ट कैच द ट्रेन.
25. अगले पहिये में हवा कम थी।	The front wheel had less air. द फ्रंट वील हैड लेस एअर.

26. **मोटर का टायर फट गया।**	**The tyre of the car burst.** द टायर ऑफ़ द कार बर्स्ट.
27. मैं साइकिल चलाने का शौकीन हूं।	I'm fond of cycling. आइम फ़ौंड ऑफ़ साइक्लिंग.
28. मैंने सहारनपुर में गाड़ी बदली।	I changed the train at Saharanpur. आइ चेंज्ड द ट्रेन ऐट सहारनपुर.
29. टिकट-घर दिन-रात खुला रहता है।	The booking office remains open twenty-four hours. द बुकिंग ऑफ़िस रिमेन्ज़ ओपन ट्वेन्टी-फ़ोर आवर्ज़.
30. क्या यह गाड़ी सीधी कोलकाता जाती है ?	Is this a direct train to Kolkata? इज़ दिस अ डायरेक्ट ट्रेन टु कोलकाता ?
31. मैं आपके साथ स्टेशन चलूंगा।	I'll accompany you to the station. आइल अकम्पना यू टु द स्टशन.
32. अगले हफ़्ते मैं काश्मीर में होऊंगा।	I'll be in Kashmir next week. आइल बी इन काश्मीर नेक्स्ट वीक.
33. रेल की पटरी पर से जाना मना है।	Crossing the railway tracks is prohibited. क्रॉसिंग द रेलवे ट्रैक्स इज़ प्रोहिबिटेड.
34. अब आगे दिल्ली का स्टेशन है।	The next station is Delhi. द नेक्स्ट स्टेशन इज़ डेलही.
35. अभी गाड़ी चलने में आधा घंटा है।	There is still half an hour for the train to start. देअर इज़ स्टिल हाफ़ ऐन आवर फ़ॉर द ट्रेन टु स्टार्ट.
36. **जल्दी करो, गाड़ी यहां थोड़ी देर ठहरती है।**	**Hurry up, the train stops here for a short while.** हरी अप, द ट्रेन स्टॉप्स हिअर फ़ॉर अ शार्ट वाइल.
37. **गाड़ी का ठीक समय साढ़े ग्यारह बजे है।**	**The train is due at half-past eleven.** द ट्रेन इज़ ड्यू ऐट हाफ़-पास्ट इलेवन.
38. **मार्ग में हमारी मोटर खराब हो गयी।**	**Our car broke down on the way.** आवर कार ब्रोक डाउन ऑन द वे.
39. वह सोमवार को मुंबई उतरेगा।	He will land in Mumbai on Monday. ही विल लैंड इन मुंबई ऑन मंडे.
40. कुली जहाज़ से सामान उतार रहे हैं।	The porters are unloading the cargo. द पोर्टर्ज आर अनलोडिंग द कार्गो.
41. मैंने एक घोड़ा किराये पर लिया।	I hired a horse. आइ हायर्ड अ हॉर्स.
42. क्या यहां कोई किराये की मोटर मिल जाएगी?	Is a taxi/cab available here? इज़ अ टैक्सी/कैब अवेलेबल हिअर?
43. गाड़ी तो प्लेटफ़ार्म पर पहुंच चुकी है।	The train has already reached the platform. द ट्रेन हैज़ ऑलरेडी रीच्ड द प्लेटफ़ार्म.
44. यह डिब्बा तो सैनिकों के लिए रिज़र्व है, हम तो स्लीपर में जा रहे हैं।	This bogey is reserved for soldiers, we are travelling by the sleeper coach. दिस बोगी इज़ रिज़र्व्ड फ़ॉर द सोल्ज़र्ज़, वी आर ट्रैवलिंग बाइ द स्लीपर कोच.
45. इस वर्ष आप गर्मी की छुट्टियां कहां बिता रहे हैं?	Where will you spend your summer vacation this year? वेअर विल यू स्पेंड योर समर वेकेशन दिस ईयर?
46. मैं किसी पहाड़ी स्थान पर जाऊंगा, शायद श्रीनगर को।	I'll go to some hill station, probably to Srinagar. आइल गो टु सम हिल स्टेशन, प्रॉबेब्ली टु श्रीनगर.

याद रखें (Remember)

* Our school will reopen tomorrow (हमारा स्कूल कल खूलेगा), Curzon Road in New Delhi has been renamed Kasturba Gandhi Marg (नई दिल्ली में कर्ज़न रोड का नाम बदलकर कस्तूरबा गांधी मार्ग रखा गया है) में reopen = re + open, renamed = re + named . यहां re उपसर्ग का अर्थ है, पुन:। इस अर्थ वाले कुछ शब्द ये हैं:

rebound (उछल कर वापस आना)	re-enter (फिर से प्रवेश करना)	replant (फिर से लगाना — पौधा आदि)
reclaim (फिर से प्राप्त करना)	refill (फिर से भरना)	reprint (फिर से छापना)
recoil (पीछे धकेला जाना)	refund (लौटाना)	retake (फिर से लेना)
recount (फिर से गिनना, वर्णन करना)	reload (फिर से भरना)	retrace (उसी मार्ग पर लौटना)
re-cross (फिर से पार करना)	remake (फिर से बनाना)	rejoin (फिर से मिलना)

55 पचपनवां दिन

th Day

43 . मनोरंजन (Recreation)

1. **हम गाना सुन रहे थे।**	**We were listening to music.** वी वर लिस्निंग टु म्यूज़िक.
2. वह सिनेमा पर तुम्हारा इंतज़ार करेगी।	She will wait for you at the cinema. शी विल वेट फ़ॉर यू ऐट द सिनेमा.
3. वह पियानो बजा सकती है पर वायलिन नहीं।	She can play the piano but not the violin. शी कैन प्ले द पिआनो बट नॉट द वायलिन.
4. मैं हरेक रविवार सिनेमा जाया करता था।	I used to go to see a film every Sunday. आइ यूज़्ड टु गो टु सी अ फ़िल्म एवरी सण्डे.
5. **टिकटें इकट्ठी करना मेरा शौक है।**	**Stamp collecting/philately is my hobby.** स्टैम्प् कलेक्टिंग/फ़िलेटली इज़ माइ हॉबी.
6. मैंने अपनी कुछ टिकटें अमिताभ को दिखाईं।	I showed some of my stamps to Amitabh. आइ शोड सम ऑफ़ माइ स्टैम्प्स टु अमिताभ.
7. बहुत मधुर गीत था।	It was a sweet/melodious song. इट वॉज़ अ स्वीट/मेलोडियस सौंग।
8. यह बड़ी मज़ेदार कहानी थी।	It was a very interesting story. इट वॉज़ अ वेरी इंट्रेस्टिंग स्टोरी.
9. **क्या आज का ड्रामा देखने लायक है?**	**Is today's play worth seeing?** इज़ टुडे'ज़ प्ले वर्थ सीइंग?
10. 'कर्म' फ़िल्म जल्दी ही दिखायी जाएगी।	The film 'Karm' will be released shortly द फ़िल्म कर्म विल बी रिलीज़्ड शॉर्टली.

44 . ऐसा मत कीजिए (Don'ts)

1. काम से जी मत चुराओ।	Don't shirk work. डोन्ट शर्क वर्क.
2. जल्दी न करो।	Don't be in a hurry. डोन्ट बी इन अ हरी.
3. दूसरों की बुराई मत करो।	Don't speak ill of others. डोन्ट स्पीक इल ऑफ़ अदर्ज़.
4. दूसरों की हंसी मत उड़ाओ।	Don't laugh at others. डोन्ट लाफ़ ऐट अदर्ज़.
5. दूसरों से झगड़ा मत करो।	Don't quarrel with others. डोन्ट क्वॉरल विद अदर्ज़.
6. दूसरों पर निर्भर मत रहो।	Don't depend upon others. डोन्ट डिपेन्ड अपॉन अदर्ज़.
7. **नंगे पैरों से बाहर मत जाओ।**	**Don't go out barefooted.** डोन्ट गो आउट बेअरफ़ुटिड.
8. अपना समय नष्ट मत करो।	Don't waste your time. डोन्ट वेस्ट योर टाइम.
9. दूसरों की कोई चीज़ मत चुराओ।	Don't steal others' things. डोन्ट स्टील अदर्ज़ थिंग्स.
10. अपना संतुलन मत खोओ।	Don't lose your balance. डोन्ट लूज़ योर बैलंस.
11. **बेकार मत बैठो।**	**Don't sit idle.** डोन्ट सिट आइडल.
12. काम करते हुए मत ऊंघो।	Don't doze while working. डोन्ट डोज़ वाइल वर्किंग.
13. फूल मत तोड़ो।	Don't pluck flowers. डोन्ट प्लक फ़्लावर्ज़.
14. फ़र्श पर मत थूको।	Don't spit on the floor. डोन्ट स्पिट ऑन द फ़्लोर.
15. **दूसरों के काम में दखल मत डालो।**	**Don't disturb others.** डोन्ट डिस्टर्ब अदर्ज़.
16. पन्नों के कोने न मोड़ो।	Don't turn the corners of the pages. डोन्ट टर्न द कॉरनर्ज़ ऑफ़ द पेजिज़.
17. अपनी किताब पर कुछ न लिखो।	Don't write anything on your books. डोन्ट राइट एनीथिंग ऑन योर बुक्स.

45 . ऐसा कीजिए (Do's)

1. **जितना हो सके, साफ़ लिखो।**	**Write as neatly as you can.** राइट ऐज़ नीटली ऐज़ यू कैन.
2. पुस्तक पढ़ते समय हाथ हमेशा साफ़ रखो।	Handle a book with clean hands. हैंडल अ बुक विद क्लीन हैंड्ज़.
3. सड़क के बायीं ओर चलो।	Keep to the left. कीप टु द लेफ़्ट.
4. हमेशा अपने दायें हाथ से दूसरों से हाथ मिलाओ।	Always shake hands with your right hand. ऑल्वेज़ शेक हैंड्ज़ विद योर राइट हैंड.
5. मेहनत करने की आदत डालो।	Be hard working/Cultivate the habit of working hard. बी हार्ड वर्किंग./कल्टीवेट द हैबिट ऑफ़ वर्किंग हार्ड.
6. हमेशा मूर्खों को अपने से दूर रखो।	Always keep the idiots off. ऑल्वेज़ कीप द ईडियट्स ऑफ़.
7. **बड़ों के साथ सम्मानपूर्वक बात करो।**	**Talk respectfully with elders.** टॉक रिसपैक्टफ़ुली विद एल्डर्ज़.
8. **अपने मतभेदों को भुला दो।**	**Sink your differences.** सिंक योर डिफ़रेंसिज़.
9. सुबह जल्दी उठा करो।	Wake up early in the morning. वेक अप अर्ली इन द मॉर्निंग.
10. सुबह और शाम सैर के लिए जाया करो।	Go out for a walk in the mornings and evenings. गो आउट फ़ॉर अ वॉक इन द मार्निंग्ज़ ऐंड इवनिंग्ज़.
11. दोनों वक्त खाने के बाद दांत साफ़ किया करो।	Brush your teeth after both the meals. ब्रश योर टीथ आफ़्टर बोथ द मील्ज़.
12. **सीधे खड़े रहो, झुको नहीं।**	**Stand upright, don't bend.** स्टैंड अपराइट, डोन्ट बेंड.
13. **अपने झगड़े निबटाओ।**	**Patch up your disputes.** पैच अप योर डिस्प्यूट्स.
14. अपनी आदतें सुधारो।	Mend your ways. मेन्ड योर वेज़.
15. अपने से बड़ों का कहना मानो।	Obey your elders. ओबे योर एल्डर्ज़.
16. अपने से छोटों को प्यार करो।	Love your youngers. लव योर यंगर्ज़.
17. अपने बराबर वालों का आदर करो।	Give due regard to your equals. गिव ड्यू रिगार्ड टु योर ईक्वल्ज़.
18. समय पर काम करो और ध्यान दो।	Be punctual and attentive. बी पंक्चुअल ऐंड अटैंटिव.
19. खाना पूरी तरह चबा कर खाओ।	Chew your food properly. च्यू योर फ़ूड प्रॉपर्ली.
20. **मज़बूती से पकड़ो।**	**Hold firmly.** होल्ड फ़र्मली.

याद रखें (Remember)

I dislike mangoes (मैं आम पसंद नहीं करता), Do you give discount on your sales ? (क्या आप बेचे जाने वाले माल पर डिस्काउन्ट देते हैं?), He is a dishonest person (वह बेईमान आदमी है), इन वाक्यों में dislike = dis + like, discount = dis + count, dishonest = dis + honest आदि शब्दों में dis का मतलब है opposite (उल्टा)। इसी प्रकार like (पसंद करना) का उल्टा यानी dis + like (नापसंद करना) इत्यादि।

dis उपसर्ग (prefix) से बने कुछ और शब्द ये हैं:

dis उपसर्ग (prefix) से बने कुछ और शब्द ये हैं:

disable अयोग्य बनाना	disprove गलत साबित करना
disagree असहमत होना	displace स्थान से हटाना
displease अप्रसन्न करना	disarm हथियार छीनना
disobey आज्ञा न मानना	disgrace अपमान करना

ध्यान रहे ‘ dis ’ से शुरु होने वाले सभी शब्द विपरीतार्थक नहीं होते! उदाहरण के लिए ‘ distance ’, disturb आदि अपने आप में स्वतंत्र शब्द हैं ‘ tance ’ या ‘ turb ’ के विपरीतार्थक नहीं!

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th Day

46 . लेन-देन (Dealings)

1. हिसाब साफ़ रखो।	Keep the accounts clear. कीप द अकाउंट्स क्लीअर.
2. अनाज का क्या भाव है?	How is the grain market? हाउ इज़ द ग्रेन मार्केट?
3. **पैसे गिन लीजिए।**	**Please count the money.** प्लीज़ काउंट द मनी.
4. मैं उसके धोखे में आ गया।	I got duped by him. आइ गॉट ड्यूप्ट बाइ हिम.
5. **यह खोटा सिक्का है।**	**This is a base coin.** दिस इज़ अ बेस कॉइन.
6. उसने अपना धन व्यापार में लगा दिया।	He invested all the money in trade/business. ही इनवेस्टिड ऑल द मनी इन ट्रेड/बिज़नेस.
7. मज़दूरी ठीक कर लो।	Settle the wages. सेटल द वेजिज़.
8. आपका बिज़नेस कैसा चल रहा है?	How is your business going? हाउ इज़ योर बिज़नेस गोइंग?
9. इन लड़कों को दो-दो रुपये दीजिए।	Give the boys two rupees each. गिव द बॉयिज़ टू रुपीज़ ईच.
10. तुम्हारी मज़दूरी मिल गयी।	Did you get your wages? डिड यू गेट योर वेजिज़?
11. अब मेरा आपका हिसाब साफ़ है।	Now I'm square with you. नाउ आइम स्क्वेअर विद यू.
12. एडवांस रुपया देना होगा।	Advance money will have to be paid. एडवांस मनी विल हैव टु बी पेड.
13. **आप मेरे लिए कितना रुपया दे सकते हैं?**	**How much money can you spare for me?** हाउ मच मनी कैन यू स्पेअर फ़ॉर मी?
14. आमदनी से ज़्यादा खर्च न करो।	Don't spend more than you earn. डोन्ट स्पेंड मोर दैन यू अर्न.
15. **क्या उसने तुम्हारा वेतन दे दिया?**	**Has he paid your salary?** हैज़ ही पेड योर सैलरी?
16. **बस, बिल बना दीजिए।**	**That's all, please make the bill.** दैट्स ऑल, प्लीज़ मेक द बिल.
17. **इन दिनों मुझे पैसे की तंगी है।**	**I'm hard up/tight these days.** आइम हार्ड अप/टाइट दीज़ डेज़.
18. उधार मत दो, क्योंकि इससे न केवल रुपया जाता है बल्कि दोस्त भी।	Don't lend, for a loan often loses both itself and a friend. डोन्ट लेंड, फ़ॉर अ लोन ऑफ़न लूज़िज़ बोथ इटसेल्फ़ ऐंड अ फ्रेंड.
19. **मेरे पास नकद रुपया नहीं है।**	**I don't have any cash.** आइ डोन्ट हैव एनी कैश.
20. हम अपना सारा रुपया बैंक में जमा करा देंगे।	We'll deposit all our money in the bank. वी'ल डिपॉजिट ऑल आवर मनी इन द बैंक.
21. रुपये की कमी है।	There is a shortage of funds/cash. देअर इज़ अ शॉर्टेज ऑफ़ फ़ंड्ज़/कैश.
22. आपके पास कितनी नकदी है?	How much is the cash in hand? हाउ मच इज़ द कैश इन हैंड?
23. मैं पैसों का भूखा नहीं हूं।	I am not after money. आइ ऐम नॉट आफ़्टर मनी.
24. मैं बिज़नेस में अपनी सारी पूंजी लगा दूंगा।	I'll invest everything in the business. आइल इनवेस्ट एवरीथिंग इन द बिज़नेस.
25. सब रुपये खर्च हो गये।	All the money has been spent. ऑल द मनी हैज़ बीन स्पेंट.
26. **क्या आप मुझे सौ रुपये उधार देंगे?**	**Can you lend me hundred rupees?** कैन यू लेंड मी हंड्रेड रुपीज़?
27. मुझे कई बिलों का पैसा चुकाना है।	I have to pay several bills. आइ हैव टु पे सेवरल बिल्ज़.

47 . व्यापार (Business)

1. क्या उनसे आपका कोई लेन-देन है?	Do you have any dealings with him? डू यू हैव एनी डीलिंग्ज़ विद हिम?
2. **आप नौकरी करते हैं या बिज़नेस?**	**Are you in service or business?** आर यू इन सर्विस ऑर बिज़नेस?
3. आजकल बिज़नेस की अच्छी हालत है।	Business is flourishing these days. बिज़नेस इज़ फ़्लरिशिंग दीज़ डेज़.
4. स्टेशन से पार्सल छुड़ा लाओ।	Get the parcel delivered from the station. गेट द पार्सल डिलीवर्ड फ्रॉम द स्टेशन.
5. **आओ, हम सौदा करें।**	**Let us have a deal.** लेट अस हैव अ डील.
6. मेरा पेमेंट दिलवाइये।	Please arrange for the payment of my wages. प्लीज़ अरेंज फ़ॉर द पेमेंट ऑफ़ माइ वेजिज़.
7. पैसों से पैसा कमाया जाता है।	Money begets money. मनी बिगेट्स मनी.
8. ज़रा सौ रुपया एडवांस दीजिए।	Kindly give me hundred rupees in advance. काइंडली गिव मी हंड्रेड रुपीज़ इन एडवांस.
9. क्या तुम कोई बिज़नेस करते हो?	Are you in business? आर यू इन बिज़नेस?
10. मेरे ऊपर कर्ज़ है।	I am under debt. आइ ऐम अंडर डेट.
11. **कितने पैसे हुए?**	**How much is the bill?** हाउ मच इज़ द बिल?
12. **इस चीज़ का दाम क्या है?**	**How much does it cost?** हाउ मच डज़ इट कॉस्ट?
13. यह चेक कैश कराना है।	This cheque is to be encashed. दिस चेक इज़ टु बी इनकैश्ड.
14. **ये चिट्ठियां लेटर बॉक्स में डालो।**	**Post these letters.** पोस्ट दीज़ लेट्र्ज़.
15. आजकल बिज़नेस को बहुत कठिनाई का सामना करना पड़ रहा है।	Business is bad these days. बिज़नेस इज़ बैड दीज़ डेज़.
16. आपका काम क्या है?	What is your profession? वॉट इज़ योर प्रोफ़ेशन?
17. इस कंपनी में कितने हिस्सेदार हैं?	How many shareholders are there in this company? हाउ मेनी शेअर-होलडर्ज़ आर देअर इन दिस कम्पनी ?
18. वह इम्पोर्ट-एक्सपोर्ट का बिज़नेस करता है।	He is in the import-export trade. ही इज़ इन द इम्पोर्ट-एक्सपोर्ट ट्रेड.
19. हम ब्रोकर हैं।	We are brokers. वी आर ब्रोकर्ज़.
20. क्या आपने माल का इनवॉइस भेज दिया है?	Have you sent an invoice for the goods? हैव यू सेंट ऐन इन्वॉयस फ़ॉर द गुड्ज़?
21. उसका काम कैसे चल रहा है?	How is he doing. हाउ इज़ ही डूइंग?

याद रखें (Remember)

Lectureship is a respectable profession — (लेक्चरशिप सम्मानजनक पेशा है), यहां lecturer (जातिवाचक) संज्ञा ship प्रत्यय लगाने से नई संज्ञा (भाववाचक संज्ञा) lectureship बनायी गयी है। ship प्रत्यय (suffix) में समाप्त होने वाले शब्द बहुधा भाववाचक संज्ञा होते हैं, जैसे — scholarship (विद्वत्ता, छात्रवृत्ति), membership (सदस्यता), kinship (संबंध), hardship (कठिनाई), friendship (मित्रता) आदि।

जिन शब्दों के अंत में ' hood ' प्रत्यय (suffix) हो, वे भी भाववाचक संज्ञा होते हैं, जैसे — I know him from childhood . इस रूप वाले कुछ अन्य शब्द ये हैं:

father से fatherhood (पितृत्व)	boy से boyhood (लड़कपन)
mother से motherhood (मातृत्व)	girl से girlhood (बालापन)
man से manhood (पुरुषत्व)	Parent से parenthood(मातृत्व/पितृत्व दोनों के लिए आता है।)

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th Day

48 . नीतिवाक्य (Sayings)

1. सच्ची बात सबको कड़वी लगती है।	Truth is bitter. ट्रुथ इज़ बिटर.
2. परिश्रम ही सबसे बड़ा धन है।	Hard work always pays. हार्ड वर्क ऑल्वेज़ पेज़.
3. सुस्ती सभी रोगों की जड़ है।	Idleness is the root cause of all ills. आइडलनेस इज़ द रूट कॉज़ आफ़ ऑल इल्ज़.
4. जिस घर में फूट हो, वह खड़ा नहीं हो सकता।	A divided house can not stand. अ डिवाइडिड हाउस कैन नॉट स्टैन्ड.
5. हमेशा सच की विजय होती है।	Truth always wins. ट्रुथ ऑलवेज़ विन्ज़.
6. अधिक आना-जाना इज़्ज़त खो देता है।	Familiarity breeds contempt. फ़ैमिलिएरिटी ब्रीड्ज़ कन्टेम्प्ट.
7. खुशहाली मित्र बनाती है, परंतु विपदा उनको परखती है।	Prosperity gains friends, but adversity tries them. प्रॉस्पेरिटी गेन्ज़ फ्रेंड्स, बट एडवर्सिटी ट्राइज़ दैम.
8. ईमानदारी सबसे अच्छी नीति है।	Honesty is the best policy. ऑनेस्टी इज़ द बेस्ट पॉलिसी.
9. मुंह पर की गई प्रशंसा खुशामद होती है।	Extolling/praising you at your face is flattery. इक्सटॉलिंग/प्रेज़िंग यू ऐट योर फ़ेस इज़ फ़्लैटरी.
10. विद्या में विवाद होना स्वाभाविक है।	Learning breeds controversy. लर्निंग ब्रीड्ज़ कॉन्ट्रोवर्सी.
11. **पांचों उंगलियां बराबर नहीं होतीं।**	**All are not alike.** ऑल आर नॉट अलाइक.
12. संसार में कुछ भी स्थायी नहीं है।	Nothing is permanent in this world. नथिंग इज़ पर्मानेंट इन दिस वर्ल्ड.
13. काम को काम सिखाता है।	Experience teaches the unskilled. एक्सपीरियेन्स टीचिज़ द अनस्किल्ड.
14. आदमी पेट का दास है।	Man is slave to his stomach. मैन इज़ स्लेव टु हिज़ स्टॅमक.
15. खोटा सिक्का सदा लौट आता है।	A base coin never runs. अ बेस कॉइन नेवर रन्ज़.
16. **प्रेम और युद्ध में सभी कुछ सही है।**	**All is fair in love and war.** ऑल इज़ फ़ेअर इन लव ऐंड वॉर.
17. धीरज में प्राप्ति है।	Perseverance prevails. परसीवियरेन्स प्रिवेल्ज़.
18. **शराफ़त में कुछ खर्च नहीं होता।**	**Courtesy costs nothing.** कर्टसी कॉस्ट्स नथिंग.
19. मर गये, मुकर गये।	Death pays all debts. डेथ पेज़, ऑल डेट्स.
20. हर गधे को अपनी आवाज़ सुरीली लगती है।	Every ass loves his bray. एवरी ऐस लव्ज़ हिज़ ब्रे.
21. किसी को मारना हो, तो इल्ज़ाम लगा कर मारो।	Give a dog a bad name and hang him. गिव अ डॉग अ बैड नेम ऐंड हैंग हिम.
22. सुंदर वह, जो सुंदर काम करे।	Handsome is, that handsome does. हैंडसम इज़, दैट हैंडसम डज़.

Miscellaneous Sentences

1. **गैस खत्म हो गयी है।**	**The gas has finished.** द गैस हैज़ फ़िनिश्ड.
2. शहर में स्थिति तनावपूर्ण है।	The situation in the city is tense. द सिचुएशन इन द सिटी इज़ टेन्स.
3. कमरे में सन्नाटा छाया हुआ है।	There is pin drop silence in the room. देअर इज़ पिनड्रॉप सायलेंस इन द रूम.
4. आजकल अच्छी नौकरी पाने के लिए कंप्यूटर आना जरूरी है।	Computer knowledge is essential these days to get a good job. कंप्यूटर नॉलिज़ इज़ इसेंशल दीज़ डेज़ टु गेट अ गुड जॉब.
5. नलिन एक सादा और साफ़ बात करने वाला आदमी है।	Nalin is a simple and straightforward man. नलिन इज़ अ सिम्पल ऐंड स्ट्रेट फ़ॉरवर्ड मैन.
6. वह एकमत से चुना गया।	He was elected unanimously. ही वॉज़ इलेक्टिड यूनेनिमसली.
7. आपको तैयार होने में कितनी देर लगेगी।	How long will you take to get ready. हाउ लौंग विल यू टेक टु गेट रेडी.
8. कानून और व्यवस्था दिन-पर-दिन बिगड़ रही है।	The law and order situation is deteriorating day by day. द लॉ ऐंड ऑर्डर सिचुएशन इज़ डिटीरियोरेटिंग डे बाइ डे.
9. दुश्मन को कभी कम न समझो।	Never underestimate the enemy. नेवर अंडरेस्टिमेट दि एनिमी.
10. आजकल शेयरों के बाज़ार में मंदा चल रहा है।	There is a slump in the share market these days. देअर इज़ अ स्लम्प इन द शेयर मार्किट दीज़ डेज़.
11. शेयरों के दाम बढ़ रहे हैं।	There is a boom in the share market. देअर इज़ अ बूम इन द शेयर मार्किट.
12. **वह हर समय भुनभुनाती रहती है।**	**She is grumbling all the time.** शी इज़ ग्रम्बलिंग ऑल द टाइम.
13. पेट्रोल बहुत जल्दी आग पकड़ता है।	Petrol is highly inflammable. पेट्रोल इज़ हाइली इनफ़्लेमेबल.
14. **उसकी पसंद अच्छी है।**	**He is a man of good taste.** ही इज़ अ मैन ऑफ़ गुड टेस्ट.
15. **मुझे इस तरह से मत देखो।**	**Don't look at me like this.** डोन्ट लुक ऐट मी लाइक दिस.
16. इंदिरा गांधी का व्यक्तित्व प्रभावशाली था।	Indira Gandhi had an impressive personality. इंदिरा गांधी हैड ऐन इंप्रेसिव पर्सनेलिटी.
17. **मौके का पूरा फ़ायदा उठाइए।**	**Make the most of the opportunity.** मेक दी मोस्ट ऑफ़ दि अपोर्च्युनिटी.
18. उससे बात करना मेरी शान के खिलाफ़ है।	Talking to him is below my dignity. टॉकिंग टु हिम इज़ बिलो माइ डिग्निटी.
19. दोनों देशों ने शांति समझौते पर दस्तखत किये।	The two countries signed a peace treaty. द टू कंट्रीज साइंड अ पीस ट्रीटी.

याद रखें (Remember)

यहां कुछ ऐसे वाक्य दिये जा रहे हैं, जिनमें क्रियाओं के अंत में ive और ous लगाकर विशेषण बनाये गये हैं। अगर आप ज़रा भी ध्यान देंगे, तो निस्संदेह आप भी क्रिया और संज्ञा से विशेषण बनाने में माहिर हो जाएंगे।

This soap comes in several attractive shades. Attract + ive = Attractive This is a preventive medicine. Prevent + ive = Preventive Even at seventy he leads an active life. Act + ive = Active .

ऊपर के वाक्यों में attract से attractive, prevent से preventive, act से active , विशेषण बने हैं। इन सबके अंत में ive लगा है। कुछ और उदाहरण — defend से defensive (रक्षात्मक), destroy से destructive (संहारात्मक),

elect से elective (चयनात्मक), impress से impressive (प्रभावशाली) आदि हैं।

It is dangerous to drive fast (गाड़ी तेज़ चलाना खतरनाक है), The Nilgiris is a mountainous district (नीलगिरि एक पहाड़ी ज़िला है), The cobra is a poisonous snake (फ़न वाला सांप ज़हरीला होता है), Ramayan is a famous epic (रामायण एक प्रसिद्ध ग्रंथ है।) Danger + ous = dangerous, mountain + ous = mountainous, Poison + ous = poisonous, fame + ous = famous आदि (fame में ous जोड़ने से पहले ‘ e ’ हट गया है)। ‘ ous ’ में खत्म होने वाले नीचे दिए गए विशेषण enormity (विशालता), nerve (नाड़ी), prosperity (वैभव), humour (हास्य) आदि संज्ञाओं से बने हैं: enormous (विशालकाय), nervous (घबराया हुआ), prosperous (समृद्ध), humorous (मज़ाकिया)

58 अट्ठावनवां दिन

th Day

49 . विवाह-समारोह में (Attending a Wedding)

1. **बारात कहां से आयी है?**	**Where has the barat come from?** वेअर हैज़ द बारात कम फ्रॉम?
2. **बारात कहां जाएगी?**	**Where will the barat be going?** वेअर विल द बारात बी गोइंग?
3. क्या आप लोगों में दहेज की प्रथा है?	Do you have the dowry system? डू यू हैव द डावरी सिस्टम?
4. **विवाह का मुहूर्त कब का है?**	**When is the muhurat for wedding?** वेन इज़ द मुहूर्त फ़ॉर वेडिंग?
5. मैं दुल्हा-दुल्हन को देखना चाहता (चाहती) हूं।	I want to/would like to see the bride and groom. आइ वॉन्ट टु/वुड लाइक टु सी द ब्राइड ऐंड ग्रूम.
6. **शादी/पार्टी बहुत अच्छी रही।**	**The wedding/party was very good.** द वेडिंग/पार्टी वॉज़ वेरी गुड.
7. यह छोटा तोहफ़ा स्वीकार करें।	Please accept this small/little gift. प्लीज़ एक्सेप्ट दिस स्मॉल/लिटिल गिफ़्ट.

50 . सिनेमा में (In the Cinema)

1. यहां कौन-सी फ़िल्म लगी है?	Which film/movie is running in this cinema hall? विच फ़िल्म/मूवी इज़ रनिंग इन दिस सिनेमा हॉल?
2. क्या यह फ़िल्म अच्छी है?	Is this a good movie? इज़ दिस अ गुड मूवी?
3. इस फ़िल्म में कौन-कौन से कलाकार हैं?	Who all are acting in this movie?/What is the cast in this movie? हू ऑल आर ऐक्टिंग इन दिस मूवी? वॉट इज़ द कास्ट इन दिस मूवी.
4. बालकनी का एक टिकट दे दीजिए।	Please give me a ticket for the balcony. प्लीज़ गिव मी अ टिकट फ़ॉर द बैलकनी.
5. फ़िल्म किस समय शुरू होगी?	At what time/when will the film/movie start? ऐट वॉट टाइम/वेन विल द फ़िल्म/मूवी स्टार्ट?

51 . खेल के मैदान में (On the Playground)

1. मैं आज फ़ुटबॉल/हॉकी/क्रिकेट मैच देखना चाहता (चाहती) हूं।	I want to see a football/hockey/cricket match today. आइ वॉन्ट टु सी अ फ़ुटबाल/हॉकी/क्रिकेट मैच टुडे.
2. मैच किन टीमों के बीच हो रहा है?	Which teams are playing the match? विच टीम्ज़ आर प्लेइंग द मैच?
3. मैच किस समय शुरू होगा?	When will the match start? वेन विल द मैच स्टार्ट?
4. उस खिलाड़ी का नाम क्या है?	Who is that player? हू इज़ दैट प्लेअर?
5. कल खेल में कौन जीता?	Who won the match yesterday? हू वन द मैच येस्टरडे?
6. आपको कौन से खेल पसंद हैं?	What games do you like? वॉट गेम्ज़ डू यू लाइक?

52 . पर्यटन कार्यालय में (In the Tourist Office)

1. इस शहर में कौन-कौन सी जगह देखने लायक हैं?	Which are the worth seeing places in this city? विच आर द वर्थ सीइंग प्लेसिज़ इन दिस सिटी?
2. मैं अजंता और एलोरा की गुफ़ाएं देखना चाहता/चाहती हूं।	I would like to see/visit the Ajanta and Ellora Caves. आइ वुड लाइक टु सी/विज़िट द अजन्ता ऐंड एलोरा केव्ज़.
3. मथुरा जाने के लिए ट्रेन ठीक रहेगी या बस?	What's the best transport to Mathura—train or bus? वॉट्स द बेस्ट ट्रांसपोर्ट टु मथुरा—ट्रेन ऑर बस?
4. आगरा में कहां ठहरना चाहिए।	Where should I stay in Agra? वेअर शुड आइ स्टे इन आगरा?
5. मुझे दिल्ली बहुत अच्छा शहर लगा।	I liked Delhi a lot. आइ लाइक्ड डेलही अ लॉट.
6. मुझे एक टूरिस्ट गाइड चाहिए, कहां मिलेगा?	I want a tourist guide. Where will I get one? आइ वॉन्ट अ टूरिस्ट गाइड. वेअर विल आइ गेट वन?

53 . होटल में (In the Hotel)

1. क्या कोई कमरा खाली है?	Is there any room available in this hotel? इज़ देअर एनी रूम अवेलेबल इन दिस होटल?
2. सिंगल/डबल बेड के कमरे का क्या किराया होगा?	What do you charge for a single/double bed room? वॉट डू यू चार्ज फ़ॉर अ सिंगल/डबल बेड रूम?
3. मेरा सामान कमरा नंबर छह में ले जाओ।	Take my baggage/luggage to room no. 6, please. टेक माइ बैगिज/ लगिज टु रूम नं० 6, प्लीज़.
4. मेरा नाश्ता/खाना कमरे में भेज दीजिए।	Please send my breakfast/lunch/dinner in my room. प्लीज़ सेंड माइ ब्रेकफ़ास्ट/लंच/डिनर इन माइ रूम.
5. मैं एक घंटे के लिए बाहर जा रहा/रही हूं।	I'm going out for an hour (or so). आइ ऐम गोइंग आउट फ़ॉर ऐन आवर (ऑर सो).
6. मेरा कोई पत्र/फ़ोन तो नहीं आया।	Was there a call for me?/Is there any letter for me? वॉज़ देअर अ कॉल फ़ॉर मी?/इज़ देअर एनी लेटर फ़ॉर मी?
7. कोई मिलने आये तो कमरे में भेज दें।	Please send my visitors to my room. प्लीज़ सेंड माइ विज़िटर्ज़ टु माइ रूम.
8. मुझे गर्म/ठंडा पानी चाहिए।	Get me some hot/cold water. गेट मी सम हॉट/कोल्ड वाटर.
9. प्रेसवाला अभी तक नहीं आया।	The laundry-man hasn't come yet. द लॉन्ड्री-मैन हैज़ंट कम येट.

54 . नौकर से (With the Servant)

1. बाज़ार से सब्ज़ी ले आओ।	Get some vegetables from the market. गेट सम वेजीटेबल्ज़ फ्रॉम द मार्किट.
2. सामान कोऑपरेटिव से लाना।	Get the stuff/things from the Co-operative store. गेट द स्टफ़/थिंग्ज़ फ्रॉम द कोऑपरेटिव स्टोर.
3. मुझे पांच बजे जगा देना।	Wake me up at five o'clock. वेक मी अप ऐट फ़ाइव ओ क्लॉक.
4. यह चिट्ठी लेटर बॉक्स में डाल आओ।	Go and post this letter. गो ऐंड पोस्ट दिस लेटर.
5. कपड़े धुल कर आ गए क्या?	Are the clothes back from the laundry? आर द क्लोद्ज़ बैक फ्रॉम द लॉन्ड्री?
6. **एक कप चाय बना दो।**	**Make me a cup of tea.** मेक मी अ कप ऑफ़ टी.
7. **क्या खाना तैयार है?**	**Is the food/lunch/dinner ready?** इज़ द फ़ूड/लंच/डिनर रेडी?

55 . डॉक्टर से (With the Doctor)

1. मुझे बुखार है। खांसी भी आती है।	I have some temperature/fever and also cough. आइ हैव सम टेम्प्रेचर/फ़ीवर ऐंड ऑल्सो कॉफ़.
2. यह दवा दिन में कितनी बार लेनी है?	How many times a day should I take this medicine? हाउ मेनी टाइम्ज़ अ डे शुड आइ टेक दिस मेडिसिन?
3. खाने में क्या-क्या ले सकता/सकती हूं?	What all can I eat? वॉट ऑल कैन आइ ईट?
4. आपको हर महीने अपने वज़न का रिकार्ड रखना चाहिए।	You should keep a monthly record of your weight. यू शुड कीप अ मन्थली रिकार्ड ऑफ़ योर वेट.
5. आपका ब्लड प्रेशर नॉर्मल है।	Your blood-pressure is normal. योर ब्लड-प्रेशर इज़ नॉर्मल.
6. नमक और चीनी कम खाएं।	Cut down on sugar and salt. कट डाउन ऑन शुगर ऐंड सॉल्ट.
7. हरी सब्ज़ी आपको अधिक लेनी चाहिए।	You should eat lots of green vegetables. यू शुड ईट लॉट्स ऑफ़ ग्रीन वेजीटेबल्ज़.
8. एक्सरे के लिए किधर जाना होगा?	Where should/does one go for X-ray?/Where is the X-ray department? वेअर शुड/डज़ वन गो फ़ॉर एक्स-रे?/वेअर इज़ द एक्स-रे डिपार्टमेंट?
9. यहां पेशेंट से पैसा नहीं लिया जाता।	This is a free dispensary./Medical care is free here/in this hospital./There is no consultation fee./We don't charge the patients anything. दिस इज़ अ फ्री डिस्पेंसरी./मेडिकल केअर इज़ फ्री हिअर/इन दिस हॉस्पिटल./देअर इज़ नो कन्सलटेशन फ़ी./वी डोन्ट चार्ज द पेशेन्ट्स एनीथिंग.

57 . सामान्य प्रसंग (General Topics)

1. **उसके काम से मैं खुश नहीं था।**	**His work was quite disappointing.** हिज़ वर्क वॉज़ क्वाइट डिसेपॉइंटिंग.
2. **उससे पीछा छुड़ाकर मैं प्रसन्न होऊंगा।**	**I'll be glad to get rid of him.** आइल बी ग्लैड टु गेट रिड ऑफ़ हिम.
3. तुम्हारा कोट मेरे कोट जैसा नहीं है।	Your coat is not like mine. योर कोट इज़ नॉट लाइक माइन.
4. तुम गलतियां ठीक नहीं कर सकते।	You cannot correct the mistakes. यू कैन्नॉट करेक्ट द मिस्टेक्स.
5. इसी ने मैच जीता।	He's the one who won the match. ही 'ज़ द वन हू वन द मैच.
6. दो लड़कियों में से कौन सी लंबी है?	Who is taller of the two girls? हू इज़ टॉलर ऑफ़ द टू गर्ल्ज़?
7. ज़्यादातर लोग इस बात को मानते हैं।	Most of the people would agree with it. मोस्ट ऑफ़ द पीपल वुड अग्री विद इट.
8. मैंने उससे पूछा कि वह मार्केट जा रही थी या नहीं।	I asked her whether she was going to the market or not. आइ आस्क्ड हर वेदर शी वॉज़ गोइंग टु द मार्केट ऑर नॉट.
9. यदि वह आएगी तो क्या तुम उससे बोलोगे?	Will you speak to her if she comes? विल यू स्पीक टु हर इफ़ शी कम्ज़?
10. बेचारा गोली से मारा गया।	The unfortunate/poor man was shot dead. द अनफ़ार्च्यूनेट/पूअर मैन वॉज़ शॉट डेड.
11. उसकी शक्ल उसकी मां से मिलती है?	He resembles his mother? ही रिज़ेम्बल्ज़ हिज़ मदर?
12. **चांदी एक मूल्यवान धातु है।**	**Silver is a precious metal.** सिल्वर इज़ अ प्रेशियस मेटल.
13. मुझे आठ सौ बयालीस रुपये मिले।	I got/received eight hundred and forty two rupees. आइ गॉट/रिसीव्ड एट हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़ोर्टी टू रुपीज़.
14. वह रविवार को चर्च जाती है।	She goes to church on Sunday. शी गोज़ टु चर्च ऑन संडे.
15. मैं सुबह टहलता हूं।	I go for a walk in the morning. आइ गो फ़ॉर अ वॉक इन द मॉर्निंग.
16. मैंने यह किताब तीन रुपये में खरीदी।	I bought this book for three rupees. आइ बॉट दिस बुक फ़ॉर थ्री रुपीज़.
17. वे अंग्रेजी के अलावा जर्मन पढ़ेंगे।	They will study German besides English. दे विल स्टडी जर्मन बिसाइड्ज़ इंगलिश.
18. **मैंने पक्का इरादा किया है कि मैं जाऊंगा।**	**I'm determined to go.** आइम डिटरमिन्ड टु गो.
19. **मैंने पक्का इरादा किया है कि वह जाएगा।**	**I've made up my mind to send him.** आ 'इव मेड अप माइ माइंड टु सेन्ड हिम.

20. हमने तस्वीर दीवार पर टांग दी।	We hung the picture on the wall. वी हंग द पिक्चर ऑन द वॉल.
21. खूनी पकड़ा गया और फांसी पर चढ़ा दिया गया।	The murderer was caught and hanged. द मर्डरर वॉज़ कॉट ऐंड हैंग्ड.
22. क्या आप मुझे अपना पेन थोड़ी देर के लिए देंगे?	Will you please lend me your pen for a while? विल यू प्लीज़ लेंड मी योर पेन फ़ोर अ व्हाइल?
23. **क्या मैं आपसे पेन उधार ले सकता हूं।**	**Can I borrow a pen from you.** कैन आइ बॉरो अ पेन फ्रॉम यू.
24. मीटिंग जल्दी शुरू होगी।	The meeting will start early. द मीटिंग विल स्टार्ट अर्ली.
25. मैं मीटिंग में भाग लूंगा।	I'll attend the meeting. आइल अटेण्ड द मीटिंग.
26. मैं रात जल्दी लेट गया था पर मुझे नींद नहीं आयी।	I went to bed early last night but couldn't sleep. आइ वेन्ट टु बेड अर्ली लास्ट नाइट बट कुडन्ट स्लीप.
27. **तुम कब सोते हो?**	**When do you go to bed? वेन डु यू गो टु बेड?**
28. क्या वह अपना पैसा बैंक में रखती है?	Does she keep her money in the bank? डज़ शी कीप हर मनी इन द बैंक?
29. यहां गर्मियों में बहुत गर्मी पड़ती है।	It is very hot here in the summer. इट इज़ वेरी हॉट हिअर इन द समर.
30. यहां इस समय इतनी गर्मी है कि हॉकी का खेल नहीं खेला जा सकता।	It is too hot here to play hockey. इट इज़ टू हॉट हिअर टु प्ले हॉकी.
31. मद्रास कलकत्ता से ज़्यादा दूर है।	Madras is farther than Calcutta. मैड्रॉस इज़ फ़ारदर दैन कैल्कटा.
32. हम और ज़्यादा सूचना प्राप्त करेंगे।	We'll collect/get/gather more information. वी'ल कलेक्ट/गेट गैदर मोर इन्फ़ॉरमेशन.
33. तुम घर मुझसे देरी से आये।	You came home later than I. यू केम होम लेटर दैन आइ.
34. दिल्ली और मुंबई दोनों बड़े शहर हैं दूसरा समुद्र के किनारे बसा है।	Delhi and Mumbai both are big cities, the latter is situated by the sea. देहली ऐंड मुंबई बोथ आर बिग सिटीज़, द लैटर इज़ सिचुएटिड बाइ द सी.
35. इस पंसारी के बहुत से कस्टमर हैं।	This grocer has good business. दिस ग्रोसर हैज़ गुड बिज़नेस.
36. इस वकील के बहुत से क्लायंट्स हैं।	This lawyer has many clients. दिस लॉयर हैज़ मेनी क्लायंट्स.
37. मेरी मां ने मुझे अच्छी सलाह दी।	The mother gave me a good piece of advice. माइ मदर गेव मी अ गुड पीस ऑफ़ एडवाइस.
38. यह की-बोर्ड ठीक से काम नहीं कर रहा है।	This keyboard is not functioning well दिस की-बोर्ड इज़ नॉट फ़ंक्शनिंग वेल.
39. रुक्साना के बाल लंबे हैं।	Ruksana has long hair. रुक्साना हैज़ लौंग हेअर.
40. मेरे पास फल काफ़ी नहीं हैं।	I don't have enough fruit. आइ डोन्ट हैव एनफ़ फ्रूट.
41. क्या तुम दो दर्जन केले खरीदना चाहते हो?	Do you want to buy two dozen bananas? डु यू वॉन्ट टु बाइ टू डज़न बनानाज़?
42. इस फ़्लॉपी में वाइरस है।	This floppy is virus infected. दिस फ़्लॉपी इज़ वाइरस इन्फ़ेक्टिड.
43. यहां एक भेड़ है और वहां एक हिरन।	Here is a sheep and there is a deer. हिअर इज़ अ शीप ऐंड देअर इज़ अ डिअर.
44. गड़रिये के पास बीस भेड़ें और दो हिरन हैं।	The shepherd has twenty sheep and two deer. द शेफ़र्ड हैज़ ट्वेंटी शीप ऐंड टू डिअर.
45. उसका वेतन कम है।	Her wages are low. हर वेजिज़ आर लो.
46. सुमन और रीता यहां आ रही हैं।	Suman and Rita are coming here. सुमन ऐंड रीटा आर कमिंग हिअर.
47. विद्यार्थी कम हो रहे हैं।	The number of students is decreasing. द नंबर ऑफ़ स्टूडेंट्स इज़ डिक्रीज़िंग.
48. बहुत से स्टूडेंट्स आज आये नहीं हैं।	Many students are absent today. मेनी स्टूडेंट्स आर ऐबसेंट टुडे.

49. कल हम रात को खाने में मछली/चिकन खायेंगे।	We will eat fish/chicken at dinner tomorrow. वी विल ईट फ़िश/चिकन ऐट डिनर टुमॉरो.
50. मैंने इस किताब को डेढ़ घंटे में पढ़ा।	This book took me one hour and a half./I read this book in one and a half hour. दिस बुक टुक मी वन आवर ऐंड अ हाफ़/आइ रेड दिस बुक इन वन ऐंड अ हाफ़ ऑवर.
51. ज़रा हाथ लगाना।	Lend me a hand.. लेन्ड मी अ हैंड.
52. वह हमेशा अपनी बात पर कायम रहेगा।	He will always honour his word. ही विल ऑलवेज़ ऑनर हिज़ वर्ड.
53. तुम मेरी जासूसी कर रहे हो?	Are you spying on me? आर यू स्पाइंग ऑन मी?
54. तुमने तो कमाल कर दिया।	You have done wonders/marvels. यू हैव डन वंडर्ज़/मार्वल्ज़.
55. वह तो बिलकुल छुई-मुई है।	She is a touch/me/not.. शी इज़ अ टच मी नॉट.
56. तुम मेरी बात क्यों नहीं सुनते?	Why don't you listen to me? वाइ डोंट यू लिसन टु मी?

याद रखें (Remember)

*संबंध कारक The genetive or possessive case दर्शाने के लिए अंग्रेज़ी में एक सरल विधि है जिसे apostrophe अपॉस्ट्रफ़ी (') और s कहते हैं, उदाहरण के लिए, The boy destroyed the bird's nest (द ब्वाय डिस्ट्रॉयड द बर्ड्ज़ नेस्ट) लड़के ने पक्षी का घोंसला उजाड़ दिया। विशेष ध्यान देने की बात यह है कि यदि उस शब्द के बहुवचन के अंत में s हो जिसका कारक बनता है तो केवल apostrophe लगाते हैं जैसे — The boy destroyed the bird's nest . लड़के ने पक्षियों का घोंसला उजाड़ दिया। जो निर्जीव पदार्थों के नाम होते हैं उनके नाम के साथ apostrophe और s नहीं बरते जाते। वहां संबंध कारक दर्शाने के लिए preposition प्रपोज़िशन (अव्यय) का प्रयोग करते हैं जैसे — The doors of the gateway are made of iron . फ़ाटक के किवाड़ लोहे के बने हुए हैं। फिर भी इस नियम के कुछ अपवाद हैं, जैसे — a week's leave, a month's pay, a day's journey, to their heart's content, in my mind's eye, a hair's breadth, a stone's throw, sun's rays आदि। वाक्यों में प्रयोग करके इन वाक्यांशों को मन में बैठा लेना चाहिए।

59 उनसठवां दिन

th Day

58 . मुहावरे (Idioms)

1. दुनिया में हर एक अपना उल्लू सीधा करना चाहता है।	In this world everybody wants to grind his own axe. इन दिस वर्ल्ड ऐव्रीबडी वॉन्ट्स टू ग्राइंड हिज़ ओन ऐक्स.
2. काम को काम सिखाता है।	Practice makes a man perfect. प्रेक्टिस मेक्स अ मैन परफ़ैक्ट.
3. **जो हुआ सो हुआ, आगे ध्यान रखिये।**	**Let bygones be bygones, take care in future.** लेट बाइगॉन्ज़ बी बाइगॉन्ज़, टेक केअर इन फ़्यूचर.
4. इनमें तू-तू, मैं-मैं हो गयी।	They exchanged hot words. दे एक्सचेन्जड हॉट वर्ड्ज़.
5. लगता है कि उसके होश ठिकाने नहीं।	It appears, he is off his wits. इट अपिअर्ज़, ही इज ऑफ़ हिज़ विट्स.
6. नारों से आसमान गूंज उठा।	The shouts rent the sky. द शाउट्स रेंट द स्काइ.
7. मैंने उसकी प्रशंसा के पुल बांध दिये।	I praised him to the skies. आइ प्रेज़्ड हिम टु द स्काइज़.
8. आजकल आपकी पांचों उंगलियां घी में हैं।	Nowadays your bread is buttered. नाउ अ डेज योर ब्रेड इज़ बटर्ड.
9. वह खुश-मिज़ाज़ है।	He is a jolly fellow. ही इज़ अ जॉली फ़ेलो.
10. अपना बोरिया-बिस्तर बांध लो।	Pack up your bag and baggage. पेक अप योर बैग ऐंड बैगेज.
11. मुझमें और आपमें आसमान-ज़मीन का फ़र्क है।	We are poles apart. वी आर पोल्ज़ अपार्ट.
12. **तुमने इस लड़के को बड़ा सिर चढ़ा कर रखा है।**	**You have given a long rope to this boy.** यू हैव गिवन अ लौंग रोप टु दिस बॉय.
13. आजकल टी.वी. खूब बिक रहे हैं।	Nowadays T.V. sets are selling like hot cakes. नाउ अ डेज़ टी.वी. सेट्स आर सेलिंग लाइक हॉट केक्स.
14. डाकू रत्नाकर ने जीने का ढंग बदल दिया और साधु बन गया।	Ratnakar dacoit turned over a new leaf and became a saint. रत्नाकर डेकोएट टर्न्ड ओवर अ न्यू लीफ़ ऐंड बिकेम अ सेंट.
15. अवसर को हाथ से न जाने दो, फिर क्या, सफ़लता तुम्हारी है।	Take the time by the forelock and success is yours. टेक द टाइम बाइ द फ़ोरलॉक ऐंड सक्सैस इज़ योर्ज़.
16. अवसरवादी उगते हुए सूरज की खुशामद करने में नहीं चूकते।	Opportunists never hesitate to worship the rising sun. अपॉर्चुनिस्ट्स नेवर हैज़िटेट टु वर्शिप द राइज़िंग सन.
17. वह आजकल बड़ी मौज में है।	He is making merry/thriving these days. ही इज़ मेकिंग मेरी/थ्राइविंग दीज़ डेज.
18. मोहन चालीस वर्ष से कम का है।	Mohan is on the right side of forty. मोहन इज़ ऑन द राइट साइड ऑफ़ फ़ोर्टी.
19. चोर चोरी करते समय पकड़ा गया है।	The thief was caught red-handed. द थीफ़ वॉज़ कॉट रेड हैंडिड.
20. बच्चा अपने चाचा की देख-रेख में है।	The child is under his uncle's care. द चाइल्ड इज़ अंडर हिज़ अंकल'ज़ केअर.
21. स्टेशन मेरे गांव से बहुत नज़दीक है।	The station is within a stone's throw from my village. द स्टेशन इज़ विदिन अ स्टोन्ज़ थ्रो फ्रॉम माइ विलिज़.

22. लड़का प्रधानाचार्य की आंखों में चढ़ गया है।	The boy is in the good books of the principal. द बॉय इज़ इन द गुड बुक्स ऑफ़ द प्रिंसिपल.
23. वह मेरी आंख का तारा है।	He is an apple of my eye. ही इज़ ऐन एपल ऑफ़ माइ आइ.
24. भले आदमी जल्दी ही भगवान को प्यारे हो जाते हैं।	Whom God loves die young. हूम गॉड लव्ज़ डाइ यंग.
25. कमाये धोती वाला, खाये टोपी वाला या अंडे सेवे कोई, बच्चे लेवे कोई।	One beats the bush, another takes the bird. वन बीट्स द बुश, अनदर टेक्स द बर्ड.
26. बूढ़े आदमी पैसे को हवा नहीं लगने देते, या बुढ़ापे में पैसे का मोह बढ़ जाता है।	The older the goose, the harder to pluck. दी ओल्डर द गूस, द हार्डर टु प्लक.

59 . लोकोक्तियां (Proverbs)

1. जहां का पीवे पानी, वहां की बोले बानी।	While in Rome do as Romans do. वाइल इन रोम डू ऐज़ रोमन्ज़ डू.
2. जैसी करनी, वैसी भरनी।	As you sow, so shall you reap. ऐज़ यू सो, सो शैल यू रीप.
3. जंगल में मोती की कदर नहीं होती।	A thing is valued where it belongs. अ थिंग इज़ वैल्यूड वेअर इट बिलोंग्ज़.
4. आप भला तो जग भला।	To the good the world appears good. टु द गुड द वर्ल्ड अपीअर्ज़ गुड.
5. थोथा चना बाजे घना।	An empty vessel makes much noise. ऐन एम्पटी वेसल मेक्स मच नॉयज़.
6. तंदुरुस्ती हज़ार नियामत है।	Health is wealth. हेल्थ इज़ वेल्थ.
7. काया को दु:ख दिये बिना कोई काम नहीं सुधरता।	No pain, no gain. नो पेन, नो गेन.
8. गया वक्त फिर हाथ नहीं आता।	Time once lost cannot be regained. टाइम वन्स लॉस्ट कैन्नॉट बी रिगेन्ड.
9. खरबूजे को देखकर खरबूज़ा रंग बदलता है।	Society moulds man. सोसाइटी मोल्ड्ज़ मैन.
10. एक और एक ग्यारह होते हैं।	Union is strength. यूनियन इज़ स्ट्रेंथ.
11. गधे को गधा खुजलाता है।	Fools praise fools.फ़ूल्ज़ प्रेज़ फ़ूल्ज़.
12. अपनी-अपनी डफ़ली, अपना-अपना राग।	Many heads many minds. मेनी हेड्स, मेनी माइंड्ज़.
13. जो गरजते हैं सो बरसते नहीं।	Barking dogs seldom bite. बार्किंग डॉग्ज़ सेल्डम बाइट.
14. मन के लड्डुओं से भूख नहीं मिटती।	It is no use building castles in the air. इट इज़ नो यूस बिल्डिंग कासल्ज़ इन दि एअर.
15. गंवार गन्ना न दे, भेली दे।	Penny wise pound foolish. पेनी वाइज़ पाउण्ड फ़ुलिश.
16. उधार दीजे, दुश्मन कीजे।	Give loan, enemy own. गिव लोन, एनिमी ओन.
17. एक थैली के चट्टे-बट्टे।	Birds of a feather flock together. बर्ड्ज़ ऑफ़ अ फ़ैदर फ़्लॉक टुगेदर
18. जहां चाह-वहां राह।	Where there is a will, there is a way. वेअर देअर इज़ अ विल, देअर इज़ अ वे.
19. नाच न जाने आंगन टेढ़ा।	A bad carpenter quarrels with his tools. अ बैड कारपेंटर क्वॉरल्ज़ विद हिज़ टूल्ज़.
20. चुप माने, आधी मरजी।	Silence is half consent. साइलेंस इज़ हाफ़ कन्सेन्ट.
21. अधजल गगरी छलकत जाए।	An empty vessel makes much noise. ऐन एम्पटी वेसल मेक्स मच नॉयज़.
22. आदमी पेट का दास।	A man is a slave to his stomach. अ मैन इज़ अ स्लेव टु हिज़ स्टमक.
23. आगे दौड़, पीछे छोड़।	The more haste, the worse speed. द मोर हेस्ट, द वर्स स्पीड.

24. दूध का जला छाछ (मट्ठा) फूंक-फूंक कर पीता है।	A burnt child dreads the fire./Once bitten twice shy. अ बर्न्ट चाइल्ड ड्रेड्ज़ द फ़ायर./वन्स बिटन ट्वाइस शाइ.
25. मुख में राम, बगल में छुरी।	A honey tongue, a heart of gall. अ हनी टंग, अ हार्ट ऑफ़ गॉल.
26. नीम हकीम खतरा-ए-जान।	A little knowledge is a dangerous thing. अ लिटिल नॉलेज इज़ अ डेंजरस थिंग.
27. अंत भला तो सब भला।	All's well that ends well. आल'ज़ वेल दैट एंड्ज़ वैल.
28. कपड़े देखकर इज़्ज़त मिलती है।	Style makes the man. स्टाइल मेक्स द मेन.
29. कांटे से कांटा निकलता है।	One nail drives another. वन नेल ड्राइव्ज़ अनदर.
30. मोती गहरे पानी में होता है।	Truth lies at the bottom of a well. ट्रुथ लाइज़ ऐट द बॉटम ऑफ़ अ वेल.
31. हर चीज़ का वक्त होता है।	There is a time for everything. देअर इज़ अ टाइम फ़ॉर एवरीथिंग.
32. झूठ का अंत नहीं।	One lie leads to another. बन लाइ लीड्ज़ टु अनदर.
33. इस संसार में हर तरह के लोग होते हैं।	It takes all sorts to make the world. इट टेक्स ऑल सार्ट्स टु मेक द वर्ल्ड.
35. ताली दोनों हाथों से बजती है।	It takes two to make a quarrel. इट टेक्स टू टु मेक अ क्वॉरल.
36. मित्र वही जो मुसीबत में काम आए।	A friend in need is a friend indeed. अ फ्रेंड इन नीड इज अ फ्रेंड इन्डीड.

याद रखें (Remember)

यदि ऐसे शब्द का संबंध कारक बनाना है जिसका अन्तिम पदांश ' s ' से शुरु हो और ' s ' में ही समाप्त हो तो केवल apostrophe लगाते हैं, जैसे — Moses'laws are found in the Bible (मोज़िज लॉज आर फाउण्ड इन द बाइबल) (हज़रत मूसा के नियम बाइबिल में लिखे हुए हैं)। पर जिस शब्द का अन्तिम पदांश ' s ' में समाप्त हो परन्तु ' s ' से प्रारम्भ न हो तो apostophe और s का प्रयोग करते हैं — Porus's army was large पोरस'ज़ आर्मी वाज़ लॉर्ज (पोरस की सेना विशाल थी)। कई बार उस संज्ञा से आगे वाली संज्ञा को छोड़ देते हैं जिसका सम्बन्ध कारक बना है। उदाहरण के लिए, I stopped at my uncle's last night आइ स्टॉप्ड ऐट माइ अंकल्'ज़ लास्ट नाइट) (मैं कल रात अपने चाचा जी के ('घर') ठहर गया था)। इस वाक्य में uncle's का अर्थ है

— uncle’s house . इसमें house को छोड़ दिया गया है।

60 साठवां दिन

th Day

Test No. 1

51 से 55 दिन

16 से ऊपर very good; 12 से ऊपर fair

नीचे के वाक्यों में टेढ़े टाइप वाले (Italics) शब्दों की अशुद्धियां हैं। इस तरह के वाक्य आप पीछे भी सीख आये हैं। इन्हें ठीक करके अपनी योग्यता की परीक्षा लें। शुद्ध शब्द नीचे दिये गये हैं।

1. Please do not trouble myself . 2. Please stay for little more. 3. Put up the notice at the notice board. 4. He is very proud for his promotion. 5. He was accused for murder 6. He has been released at bail. 7. He was sentenced for death. 8. My radio is stopped. 9. Now switch on for Vividh Bharati. 10. Have you weighted the parcel? 11. You can new your driving licence from the transport office. 12. We have loosed our way. 13. Why did you came back? 14. The road is close for repair. 15. The train is due on half past eleven. 16. We were listening at music. 17. It was a very interested story. 18. Do not depend on others. 19. Do not spit at the floor. 20. Go for an walk in the morning and evening.

Test No. l — शुद्ध शब्द: 1. me 2. a 3. on 4. of 5. of 6. on 7. to 8. has 9. to 10. weighed 11. renew 12. lost 13. come 14. closed 15 at 16. to 17. interesting 18. upon 19. on 20.a.

Test No. 2

56 से 59 दिन

16 से ऊपर very good; 12 से ऊपर fair

ये वाक्य आप पीछे भी पढ़ आये हैं, पर यहां पर वे थोड़े से बदले हुए और गलत हैं। टेढ़े टाइप वाले शब्द अशुद्ध हैं। उन्हें सुधारिए और अभी तक की जानकारी को कसौटी पर कसिए। शुद्ध शब्द नीचे दिये गये हैं।

1. Have the account clear ? 2. Did you got your wages? 3. There is shortage on money. 4. How is he getting at with his work? 5. Honesty is a best policy. 6. The man is the slave to his stomach. 7. Your coat is cleaner to mine. 8. Will you speak to her if she come . 9. Will you please borrow me a pen? 10. Come home

behind me. 11. The number of the students are decreasing. 12. I read this book in a hour and a half. 13. Sita and Rita is coming here. 14. My mother gave me some good advices . 15. The unfortunate was shoot dead. 16. They will study German beside English. 17. The murderer was caught and hung . 18. A dog is a wolf in his lane. 19. All's well that end's well. 20. A crow in hand is worth two in the bush.

Test No. 2 — शुद्ध शब्द: 1. cleared 2. get 3. of 4. on. 5. the 6. a 7. than 8. comes 9. lend 10. after 11. is 12. an 13. are 14. advice 15. shot 16. besides 17. hanged 18. lion 19. ends 20. bird.

Test No. 3

12 से ऊपर very good; 8 से ऊपर fair

कुछ लोग अंग्रेज़ी बोलते समय व्याकरण को अशुद्धियां (Grammatical mistakes) कर जाते हैं। उन्हें बड़ी सावधानी से सुधार कर याद करना चाहिए। कुछ अशुद्ध वाक्य दिये गये हैं। इनमें व्याकरण की अशुद्धियों को ठीक कीजिए: 1. He speak English very well. 2. This film will be played shortly. 3. your elder brother is five and a half feet high . 4. The player plays very good . 5. Many homes have been built up. 6. She is coward girl . 7. We had a nice play of football. 8. I have no any mistakes in my dictation. 9. Strong air blew my clothes away. 10. I hurt a finger of my right foot. 11. She doesn't look as her brother. 12. I have a plenty work to do. 13. She spent the rest day at home. 14. His father was miser . 15. After they went home for dinner.

Test No. 3 — शुद्ध शब्द: 1. speaks 2. released 3. tall 4. well 5. houses 6. a coward 7. game 8. haven't any 9. wind 10. toe 11. like 12. lot of 13. the rest of the day 14. a miser 15. afterwards.

Test No. 4

12 से ऊपर very good; 8 से ऊपर fair

(i) निम्नलिखित अधूरे वाक्यों में जहां ज़रूरी हो वहां a, an या the लगाइए: 1. ... wheat grown in this area is of a good quality. 2. Is lead ... heavier than iron? 3. I like to have/eat... apple daily. 4. This is ... cheque drawn on the Overseas Bank. 5. This is ... very fine picture. 6. ...

murderer has been hanged. 7. She is ... honest lady. 8. All ... letters have been stamped. 9. She'll wait for you at... cinema hall. 10. Make ... habit of working hard.

Test No. 4 : (i) (I) The (2) nil (3) an (4) a (5) a (6) the (7) an (8) the (9) the (10) a (ii) कोष्ठक में दिये गये शब्दों का सही रूप में प्रयोग कीजिये: 1. What is the cause of your ... (sad). 2. His ... has turned grey though he is still young (hair). 3. This ... not enough (be) 4. Ram ... not get leave (do) 5. Your watch ... stopped (have) 6. There are more than a dozen... in the zoo. (deer). 7. Has he ... your salary (pay) 8. Let... strike a bargain. (we) 9. You can avoid... mistakes. (make) 10. yesterday I... the letter in an hour and a half. (write).

Test No. 4 (ii) (1) Sadness (2) hair (3) is (4) did (5) has (6) deer (7) paid (80 us (9) making (10) wrote.

Test No. 5

(i) for, into, of, in, by , with, to, from, besides, after में से उपयुक्त शब्द लेकर निम्नलिखित वाक्य पूरे कीजिए: 1. What was the Judgement ... the case? 2. Billoo is fond ... cycling. 3. The road is closed ... repairs. 4. Do not quarrel... others. 5. I fell ... his trap. 6. I am not ... money. 7. Right ... his childhood he has been very kind to others. 8. They'll study German ... English. 9. Your coat is not similar ... mine. 10. The letter is sent ... post.

Test No. 5 : (I) in (2) of (3) for (4) with (5) into (6) after (7) from (8) besides (9) to (10) by निम्नलिखित प्रश्नों के उत्तर verb के उसी रूप में दें, जिसमें प्रश्न पूछा गया है।

उदाहरण: प्र॰ When are you going home ?

उ॰ I am going around 6 O'clock (ii) 1. When will you go to office? 2. What will you be doing during the holidays? 3. How much money do you have? 4. Who will pay for the tickets tonight? 5. Are they leaving tomorrow? 6. When will you pay back the loan? 7. Have you written to her? 8. Do you like Delhi? 9. Will you please lend me some money? 10. Did he finish his work yesterday?

Test No. 6

निम्नलिखित वाक्यों को पूरा कीजिए: उदाहरण: Barking dogs ... (दिया हुआ अपूर्ण वाक्य)

Barking dogs seldom bite . (पूर्ण किया हुआ वाक्य)

1. Practice makes a man ... 2. ... is a friend indeed. 3. While in Rome ... 4. ... is strength. 5. As you sow ... 6. ... no gains. 7. Penny wise ... 8. ... dreads the fire. 9. All's well ... 10. ... is wealth. 11. A little knowledge is a ... 12. Where there is a will ... 13. Barking dogs seldom... 14. Time and tide wait ... 15. ... vessel makes much noise.

Test No. 7

नीचे दो-दो वाक्य दिये गये हैं। उनमें से ठीक वाक्य का चुनाव कीजिए: 1. (a) They were not three. (b) They were but three. 2. (a) His opinion was contrary to ours. (b) His opinion was contrary of ours. 3. (a) He acted in a couple school plays. (b) He has acted in a couple of school plays 4. (a) He refused to except my excuse. (b) He refused to accept my excuse. 5. (a) I failed in English. (b) I was failed in English. 6. (a) Get into the room. (b) Get in the room. 7. (a) He is always into some mischief. (b) He is always up to some mischief. 8. (a) I made it a habit of reading. (b) I made a habit of reading. 9. (a) It will likely rain before night. (b) It is likely to rain before night. 10. (a) She needn't earn her living. (b) She needs not earn her living.

Correct sentences : 1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (b) 5. (a) 6. (a) 7. (b) 8. (b) 9. (b) 10 (a)

Test No. 8

(a) इन शब्दों के अर्थ लिखिए और आपस में अन्तर स्पष्ट कीजिए: always, usually; never, rarely; addition, edition; ready, already; anxious, eager; both, each breath, breathe; cease, seize; couple, pair, fair, fare; habit, custom; its, it's; legible, readable; whose, who's. (अर्थ न समझ आने पर डिक्शनरी की सहायता लीजिए.) (b) नीचे दो-दो वाक्य दिये गये हैं, दोनों में थोड़ा क्रम का ही अन्तर है, समझिए कि अर्थ में क्या अन्तर पड़ता है?

1. (i) I don't try to speak loudly .
   (ii) I try not to speak loudly .
2. (i) The young men carry a white and a blue flag .
   (ii) The young men carry a white and blue flag .
3. (i) I alone can do it .
   (ii) I can do it alone .

4. (i) The mother loves Amitabh better than me .
   (ii) The mother loves Amitabh better than I .
5. (i) He forgot to do the exercise .
   (ii) He forgot how to do the exercise .
6. (i) She was tired with riding .
   (ii) She was tired of riding .

PRONUNCIATION IN RAPIDEX

(a)	a	–	अ
	an, am	–	ऐन, ऐम
	allow	–	अलाउ
	auntie	–	आन्टी
	at, as	–	ऐट, ऐज़
	any	–	ऐनी
	and	–	ऐंड
	another	–	अनदर
	agree	–	अग्री
	appear	–	अपीअर
(b)	being	–	बींग
	by, buy, bye	–	बाइ
	boy	–	बॉय
	bed	–	बेड
	bread	–	ब्रेड
(c)	care	–	केअर
	chair	–	चेअर
	congratulations	–	कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़
(d)	don't	–	डोन्ट
(e)	eye	–	आइ
	ear	–	इअर
	egg	–	एग
	examination	–	इग्ज़ैमिनेशन
	expect	–	एक्सपेक्ट
	explain	–	एक्सप्लेन
(f)	four	–	फ़ोर
	forty	–	फ़ोर्टी
	for	–	फ़ॉर
	far	–	फ़ार
(h)	happy	–	हैपी
	hi	–	हाइ
	high	–	हाइ
	hot	–	हॉट
	here	–	हिअर
	hear	–	हिअर
	hand	–	हैंड
	hello	–	हलो
	how	–	हाउ
(i)	i	–	आइ
	I'm	–	आइम
	I'll	–	आइल
(l)	long	–	लौंग
(m)	Mrs	–	मिसिज़
	many	–	मेनी
(n)	now	–	नाउ
	not	–	नॉट
	near	–	निअर
(o)	oh	–	ओ
	or	–	ऑर
	on	–	ऑन
	of	–	ऑफ
	oil	–	ऑयल
(p)	pair	–	पेअर
	prepare	–	प्रिपेअर
	phases	–	फेज़िज़
(s)	studying	–	स्टडींग
(t)	to	–	टु
	two, too	–	टू
	there	–	देअर
	then	–	देन
	than	–	दैन
(w)	where	–	वेअर
	wear	–	वेअर
	ware	–	वेअर
	why	–	वाइ
	while	–	वाइल
	which	–	विच
	when	–	वेन
	wrong	–	रौंग
(y)	yes	–	येस
	yet	–	येट
	yesterday	–	येस्टर्डे
	year	–	ईयर
	your	–	योर

GENERAL : the’ is pronounced (दि) before a vowel and (द) before a consonent.

Example: The egg (दि एग) The cat (द कैट) F’ in English is (फ़) not (फ).
S’ after ‘p’, ‘k’, ‘t’, ‘f’ is pronounced ‘स’. After other sounds ‘ज़’.

Pronunciation of ‘ ed ’ in like ‘ interested ’ is इंट्रेस्टिड (इड) not (ऐड) and words ending in ‘ es ’ like promises will <u>end</u> in ‘इज़’ not ‘एज़’.

वार्तालाप से पहले

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा से अब आपका परिचय साठ दिन पुराना है। इन साठ दिनों में आपने अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के नियमों, शिष्टाचार व भिन्न-भिन्न अवसरों पर प्रयोग करने योग्य उचित और उपयोगी वाक्यों, मुहावरों तथा कहावतों आदि का ज्ञान प्राप्त किया है। दस-दस दिनों में बंटे हुए इस कोर्स के हर अंतिम अध्याय में आपने अपने ज्ञान का अभ्यास तथा परीक्षा भी की है।

हमें विश्वास है कि अब तक अंग्रेज़ी आपको एक परिचित मित्र-सी लगने लगी होगी। मन से डर और झिझक निकल कर नयी रुचि और आत्मविश्वास जगा होगा। अब आपको अपनी रुचि को बनाये रखते हुए अपने आत्मविश्वास को और बढ़ाना है। इसके लिए नीचे दिए गए सुझावों को ध्यान से पढ़िए:

- पक्के निश्चय के साथ, उठते-बैठते, घर-बाहर, दफ्तर में और मित्रों के बीच अंग्रेज़ी बोलने का अभ्यास कीजिए।
- बोलते समय झिझकिए मत। याद रखिए, बहुत सी गलतियां ज्ञान की नहीं, विश्वास की कमी से होती हैं।
- गलतियों से मत घबराइये। बोलते रहिए। धीरे-धीरे भाषा सुधरेगी और विश्वास भी बढ़ेगा।
- शुरुआत छोटे-छोटे उपयोगी वाक्यों से कीजिए, जैसे — अभिवादन, शिष्टाचार, प्रार्थना तथा आज्ञासूचक वाक्यांश आदि।
- एक साथी बनाइये। फोन पर या आमने-सामने बैठकर नियम से अंग्रेज़ी में कुछ बातचीत कीजिए। हर रोज कम-से-कम 5-10 नये वाक्यों का अभ्यास कीजिए तथा पुराने वाक्यों को भी दोहराइये।
- साथी न हो तो भी, शीशे के सामने बैठ कर स्वयं अपने आपसे, उचित टोन व हाव-भाव के साथ बात करने का अभ्यास कीजिए। हर रोज वार्तालाप के लिए एक नया विषय चुनिये।

वार्तालाप की इसी क्रिया को मनोरंजक व सरल बनाने के लिए दिन-प्रतिदिन के जीवन में उपयोगी विषयों पर वार्तालाप के कुछ नमूने अगले पृष्ठों में दिये जा रहे हैं। इन संवादों को ध्यान से पढ़कर बोलने का अभ्यास कीजिए। आप पायेंगे कि बहुत से वाक्यों को हूबहू, आप अपनी दिनचर्या में उपयोग कर सकते हैं। इन्हीं संवादों को अपने साथी के साथ बांट कर, एक छोटी-सी नाटिका के रूप में बोल सकते हैं। इससे मनोरंजन भी होगा और अंग्रेज़ी-ज्ञान भी बढ़ेगा।

संवादों को आपस में बदल कर बोलने से दोहरा अभ्यास होगा। उदाहरण के लिए, यदि आप ग्राहक व दुकानदार के बीच संवादों का अभ्यास कर रहे हैं — आपका मित्र ग्राहक है और आप दुकानदार, तो दूसरी बार रोल बदल लीजिए और आप ग्राहक बन जाइए।

एक बात सदा याद रखिए। अंग्रेज़ी एक विदेशी भाषा है। इसमें कभी-कभी अटक जाना कोई शर्म की बात नहीं है। अच्छे-अच्छे धाराप्रवाह अंग्रेज़ी बोलने वाले भी कई बार सही शब्द याद न कर पाने के कारण अटक जाते हैं। ऐसे में आप भी वही करिए जो सभी होशियार लोग करते हैं। बड़ी सहजता से अंग्रेज़ी वाक्य के बीच में हिंदी या किसी भी भाषा का शब्द जोड़ दीजिए। जब हम हिंदी के बीच में अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों का प्रयोग बड़ी सहजता व विश्वास से कर लेते

हैं तो अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों के बीच हिंदी शब्दों के प्रयोग में हिचक क्यों? यह सुनने में कतई बुरा नहीं लगता। आजकल कॉलेज के लड़के-लड़कियां भाषा का प्रवाह बनाए रखने के लिए इस तकनीक का बखूबी इस्तेमाल करते हैं। टी. वी. प्रोग्रामों में भी अंग्रेज़ी व हिंदी संवादों का मिश्रण आजकल काफी प्रचलित हो रहा है।

परंतु याद रखिए कि दो भाषाओं के शब्दों को मिलाते हुए घबराहट या झिझक नहीं सहजता से काम लेना चाहिए। उदाहरण के लिए देखिए बातचीत के ये कुछ नमूने।

[1]

Seema: Hi Rita, what a lovely dress!
Rita: Thank you! It's a birthday present.
Seema: Really! किसने दी है?
Rita: My uncle, he sent it from Mumbai.

[2]

Sohan: ज़रा सुनिए, Where is Kamal Colony please.
Rohit: Go बिलकुल straight. You will see a बड़ा-सा gate to your left. अंदर चले जाइए। That is Kamal Colony.
Sohan: Thank you.
Rohit: You are welcome.

[3]

Mrs. Gupta: Hello Mrs. Sharma, कैसी हैं?
Mrs. Sharma: Fine, thank you. आप कैसी हैं?
Mrs. Gupta: ठीक हूं। Coming from the market?
Mrs. Sharma: जी हां। Went to buy some सब्ज़ी-भाज़ी।
Mrs. Gupta: आइये न come for a while.
Mrs. Sharma: Thank you फिर कभी. I am expecting some guests actually.
Mrs. Gupta: Oh I see! अच्छा, बाइ Mrs. Sharma.

कुछ इस तरह के वाक्यांश भी युवा वर्ग के बीच अक्सर सुनाई देते हैं:

He is a महा बोर.
Let's do some मौज-मस्ती / हंगामा.
Everything is उल्टा-पुल्टा here.
Do it फ़टाफ़ट.
Let me have a देखो at इट, वगैरह-वगैरह.

Let me have a देखो at इट, वगैरह-वगैरह.

ऊपर के उदाहरणों में आपने देखा कि सहज ढंग से अंग्रेज़ी के बीच में जोड़े गए हिंदी शब्द या वाक्यांश आम बोलचाल में बिलकुल भी अटपटे नहीं लगते, बल्कि भाषा के प्रवाह को बनाए रखने में सहायक होते हैं।

समय-समय पर भाषा व वार्तालाप विशेषज्ञों ने बातचीत को प्रभावशाली बनाने के कुछ गुर बताए हैं। जिन्हें ध्यान में रख कर आप लोगों के बीच में अपना स्थान बना सकते हैं। ऐसी ही कुछ महत्वपूर्ण बातों को एक तालिका के रूप में नीचे दिया जा रहा है।

	Dos (ऐसा करें)	Don'ts (ऐसा न करें)
1.	सदा नम्रता से बात करें। (Always talk politely)	अपनी मत हांकें। (Don't blow your own trumpet)
2.	सोच-समझ कर बात करें। (Think before you speak)	बिना बात तर्क में मत पड़ें। (Don't argue unnecessarily)
3.	दूसरों की बात ध्यान से सुनें। (Listen to others carefully)	लोगों के बीच व्यक्तिगत कमेंट्स न दें। (Avoid giving personal comments in public)
4.	अपनी आवाज और चेहरे के भावों को बात करते समय काबू में रखें। (Keep your voice and facial expressions under control while talking)	अश्लील भाषा का प्रयोग न करें। Avoid using obscene language. बढ़ा चढ़ा कर बात न करें। (Avoid exaggeration)
5.	दूसरों में दिलचस्पी लें। (Show interest in others)	दूसरों की प्रशंसा करने में कभी न हिचकिचाएं। (Never hesitate to praise and compliment others!)
6.	दूसरों की बात सहानुभूतिपूर्वक सुनें। (Listen to others sympathetically)	व्यंग्यात्मक भाषा का प्रयोग न करें। (Avoid making sarcastic remarks)
7.	बातचीत में मित्र बनाएं, शत्रु नहीं। (Make friends not enemies while you talk)	स्लैंग का अत्यधिक प्रयोग न करें। (Avoid excessive use of slang)
8.	बातचीत में शिष्टाचार का हमेशा ध्यान रखें। (Be mannered while talking)	बुदबुदाएं मत, साफ बात करें। (Avoid mumbling, always speak clearly)
9.	हंसमुख बनें पर दूसरों की भावनाओं को ध्यान में रखें। (Be humorous, without hurting others emotions)	अनावश्यक रूप से आत्मीयता दिखाने का प्रयत्न न करें। (Never try to be overintimate)
10.	उम्र और पद में बड़े लोगों से सदा आदर से बात करें। Always be respectful while talking to elders / seniors.	अर्थ समझे बिना किसी शब्द का प्रयोग कभी न करें। (Never use a word without understanding meaning)

सफल और लोकप्रिय वक्ता बनने के लिए ऊपर दी गई बातों को ध्यान में रखना बहुत आवश्यक है।

आगे दिए गए वार्तालाप के नमूने भी दैनिक उपयोगिता को ध्यान में रखते हुए लिखे गए हैं। सभी संवादों का इंगलिश उच्चारण हिंदी में दिया गया है। स्वर के उतार-चढ़ाव व सही उच्चारण के अभ्यास में रैपिडैक्स कैसेट आपकी बहुत सहायता करेगी। हमें विश्वास है कि पक्के निश्चय व सतत अभ्यास से आप शीघ्र ही धाराप्रवाह अंग्रेजी बोलने लगेंगे।

हमारी शुभकामनाएं आपके साथ हैं।

परिचय : अपना व दूसरों का

Introducing Self and Others
(इन्ट्रोड्यूसिंग सेल्फ ऐंड अदर्ज़)

(राघव और सुधीर पहली बार एक बस में मिलते हैं। देखिए, वे किस तरह एक-दूसरे से जान-पहचान करते हैं।)

राघव : माफ़ कीजिए, क्या मैं यहां बैठ सकता हूं?

Raghav : Excuse me, can I sit here please?
एक्सक्यूज मी कैन आइ सिट हिअर प्लीज़.

सुधीर : जी हां।

Sudhir : Yes please. येस प्लीज़.

राघव : धन्यवाद। हलो, मैं राघव राय हूं।

Raghav : Thank you. Hello, I am Raghav Rai.
थैंक्यू. हलो, आइ ऐम राघव राय.

सुधीर : मैं सुधीर सेन हूं।

Sudhir : I am Sudhir Sen. आइ ऐम सुधीर सेन.

राघव : मिस्टर सेन आप क्या करते हैं?

Raghav : What do you do Mr. Sen? वॉट डू यू डू मिस्टर सेन?

सुधीर : मैं मेगा इलेक्ट्रिकल्ज़ में सेल्ज़मैन हूं। और आप?

Sudhir : I am a sales man in Mega Electricals. What about you?
आइ ऐम अ सेल्ज़ मैन इन मेगा इलेक्ट्रिकल्ज़ वॉट अबाउट यू?

राघव : मैं बैंक ऑफ़ इंडिया में एकाउंटेंट हूं।

Raghav : I am an accountant in the Bank of India.
आइ एम ऐन अकाउंटेंट इन द बैंक ऑफ़ इंडिया.

सुधीर : आप कहां से हैं?

Sudhir : Where are you from? वेअर आर यू फ्रॉम?

राघव : मैं मुंबई का रहने वाला हूं, पर अब मैं दिल्ली में ही बस गया हूं। और आप?

Raghav : I am from Mumbai. But now I am settled in Delhi. And you? आइ ऐम फ्रॉम मुंबई. बट नाउ आइ एम सैटल्ड इन डेलही. ऐंड यू?

सुधीर : मैं दिल्ली का ही रहने वाला हूं।

Sudhir : I am from Delhi itself. आइ ऐम फ्रॉम डेलही इटसेल्फ़.

राघव : मेरा स्टॉप आ गया। अच्छा, बाइ सुधीर।

Raghav : My stop. O.K. Bye Sudhir.
माइ स्टॉप. ओ.के. बाइ सुधीर.

सुधीर : बाइ।

Sudhir : Bye. बाइ.

(राघव और सुधीर एक पार्टी में दोबारा मिलते हैं व अपने परिवारों का आपस में परिचय कराते हैं)

सुधीर : हलो राघव, कैसे हो?

Sudhir : Hello Raghav. How are you? हलो राघव. हाउ आर यू?

राघव : मैं अच्छा हूं, धन्यवाद। तुम कैसे हो?

Raghav : Fine, thank you. And you? फ़ाइन थैंक्यू, ऐंड यू?

सुधीर : अच्छा हूं, राघव मेरी पत्नी मीता से मिलो। ये मेरा बेटा रोहित है और मेरी बेटी नेहा।

Sudhir : Fine. Here, meet my wife Meeta, my son Mohit and my daughter Neha. फ़ाइन. हिअर, मीट माइ वाइफ़ मीता, माइ सन मोहित ऐंड माइ डॉटर नेहा.

राघव : हलो मिसिज़ सेन, हलो बच्चो। मेरी पत्नी शेफाली से मिलिये। यह है मेरी बेटी सोमा।

Raghav : Hello Mrs. Sen, hello children. My wife Shefali and my daughter Soma. हलो मिसिज़ सेन. हलो चिल्ड्रन. माइ वाइफ़ शेफाली ऐंड माइ डॉटर सोमा.

सुधीर : हलो।

Sudhir : Hello. हलो.

मीता : *(शेफाली से)* आपसे मिलकर अच्छा लगा।

Meeta : *(to Shefali)* Hello, nice meeting you. हलो, नाइस मीटिंग यू.

शेफाली : मुझे भी।

Shefali : Nice meeting you too. नाइस मीटिंग यू टू.

मीता : शेफाली, आप कहीं काम करती हैं क्या?

Meeta : Do you work Shefali? डू यू वर्क शेफाली?

शेफाली : नहीं, मैं तो बस एक गृहणी हूं। अपने बारे में बताइये।

Shefali : No, I am a housewife. What about you? नो आइ ऐम अ हाउस वाइफ़. वॉट अबाउट यू?

मीता : मैं एक स्कूल में पढ़ाती हूं।

Meeta : I teach in a school. आइ टीच इन अ स्कूल.

शेफाली : किस स्कूल में?

Shefali : Which School? विच स्कूल.

मीता : नेहरू पब्लिक स्कूल।

Meeta : Nehru Public School. नेहरू पब्लिक स्कूल.

शेफाली : वह कहां है?

Shefali : Where is that? वेअर इज़ दैट?

मीता : पंजाबी बाग में।

Meeta : In Panjabi Bagh. इन पंजाबी बाग।

शेफाली : आप कहां रहती हैं?

Shefali : Where do you live? वेअर डू यू लिव?

मीता : शालीमार बाग में। और आप?

Meeta : We are in Shalimar Bagh. And you? वी आर इन शालीमार बाग. ऐंड यू?

शेफाली : मॉडल टाउन में। कभी आइयेगा।

Shefali : In Model Town. Please drop in sometime. इन मॉडल टाउन. प्लीज़ ड्रॉप इन सम्टाइम.

मीता : ज़रूर आप भी।

Meeta : Sure, you too. श्योर, यू टू.

मां और बेटा

Mother and Son (मदर ऐंड सन)

मां : उठो नलिन पांच बज गए।

Mother : Get up Nalin. It's five O'clock.
गेट अप नलिन. इट्स, फ़ाइव ओ क्लॉक.

नलिन : अभी बहुत जल्दी है, मम्मी।

Nalin : It's too early mummy. इट्स टू अर्ली मम्मी.

मां : आज तुम्हारा साइंस का इम्तिहान है। उठो और अपना कोर्स दोहरा लो।

Mother : You have your science exam today. Get up and revise your course. यू हैव योर साइंस इग्ज़ैम, टुडे. गेट अप ऐंड रिवाइज़ योर कोर्स.

नलिन : अच्छा मम्मी, दो मिनट में उठता हूं।

Nalin : O.K. mummy, I will get up in two minutes.
ओ.के. मम्मी, आइ विल गेट अप इन टू मिनट्स।

मां : जल्दी उठ कर मुंह धो लो। तब तक मैं तुम्हारे लिए दूध लाती हूं।

Mother : Hurry up and wash your face. Meanwhile I'll get milk for you. हरी अप ऐंड वॉश योर फ़ेस. मीनवाइल आइ विल गेट मिल्क फ़ॉर यू.

नलिन : अच्छा।

Nalin : O. K. ओ.के.

मां : नलिन तुमने रात को अपने कपड़े निकाल कर रखे थे?

Mother : Did you take out your clothes last night Nalin?
डिड यू टेक आउट योर क्लोद्ज़ लास्ट नाइट नलिन?

नलिन : हां, रखे थे।

Nalin : Yes, I did. येस, आइ डिड.

मां : और तुम्हारे जूते? उन्हें पॉलिश किया था?

Mother : And your shoes? Did you polish them?
ऐंड योर शूज़? डिड यू पॉलिश देम?

नलिन : नहीं, मैं जूते पॉलिश करना भूल गया था। अभी किये लेता हूं।

Nalin : No, I forgot to polish the shoes. I'll do it now.
नो आइ फ़ॉरगॉट टु पॉलिश द शूज़. आइल डू इट नाउ.

मां : नहीं, बाद में करना। पहले पढ़ाई खत्म कर लो।

Mother : Do that later. First finish your revision.
डू दैट लेटर. फ़र्स्ट फ़िनिश योर रिवीज़न.

मां : अभी तक पूरा नहीं हुआ नलिन?

Mother : Haven't you finished yet Nalin?
हैवन्ट यू फ़िनिश्ड येट नलिन?

नलिन : हो गया।

Nalin : Yes, I have. येस, आइ हैव.

मां : सब कुछ अच्छी तरह दोहरा लिया है

Mother : Have you revised everything well?
हैव यू रिवाइज़्ड एवरीथिंग वेल?

नलिन : हां मम्मी, मुझे सब कुछ याद है।

Nalin : Yes mummy, I remember everything.
येस मम्मी आइ रिमैम्बर एवरीथिंग.

मां : अच्छा है। अब तैयार हो जाओ। मैं तुम्हारे लिए नाश्ता बनाती हूं।

Mother : Good! Now get ready. I'll prepare breakfast for you. गुड! नाउ गेट रेडी. आइल प्रिपेअर ब्रेकफ़ास्ट फ़ॉर यू.

नलिन : नाश्ते में क्या है?

Nalin : What is there for breakfast. वॉट इज़ देअर फ़ॉर ब्रेकफ़ास्ट?

मां : परांठा और दही।

Mother : Parantha and curd. परांठा ऐंड कर्ड.

नलिन : मुझे परांठा नहीं चाहिए।

Nalin : I don't want parantha. आइ डोंट वॉन्ट परांठा.

मां : क्या चाहिए? ब्रेड और बटर?

Mother : What do you want? Bread and butter? वॉट डू यू वॉन्ट. ब्रेड ऐंड बटर?

नलिन : और ऑमलेट.

Nalin : And omelette. ऐंड ऑमलेट.

मां : ठीक है। चलो ज़ल्दी से तैयार हो जाओ। साढ़े सात तो बज गये हैं।

Mother : Fine, go get ready fast. It is 7.30 already. फ़ाइन, गो गेट रेडी फ़ास्ट. इट इज़ सेवन थर्टी ऑलरेडी.

नलिन : अभी मुझे अपने जूते पॉलिश करने हैं। उसके बाद मैं नहाने जाऊंगा।

Nalin : I have to polish my shoes yet. Then I'll go and have a bath. आइ हैव टु पॉलिश माइ शूज़ येट. देन आइल गो ऐंड हैव अ बाथ.

मां : मैंने तुम्हारे जूते पॉलिश कर दिये हैं।

Mother : I have polished your shoes. आइ हैव पॉलिश्ड योर शूज़.

नलिन : ओह थैंक्यू मम्मी!

Nalin : Oh thank you mummy! ओ थैंक्यू मम्मी!

मां : अब मैं जाकर नाश्ता बनाती हूं। नलिन तुम झटपट तैयार हो जाओ।

Mother : I'll go and prepare the breakfast now. Get ready fast Nalin. आइल गो ऐंड प्रिपेअर द ब्रेकफ़ास्ट नाउ. गेट रेडी फ़ास्ट नलिन.

नलिन : अच्छा मम्मी।

Nalin : Yes mummy. येस मम्मी.

मां : आओ नलिन, नाश्ता कर लो। देर हो रही है।

Mother : Nalin come, have your breakfast. It is getting late. नलिन कम, हैव योर ब्रेकफ़ास्ट. इट इज़ गेटिंग लेट.

नलिन : मैं तैयार हूं मां।

Nalin : I am ready mummy. आइ ऐम रेडी मम्मी.

मां : भगवान से प्रार्थना की?

Mother : Did you pray to God. डिड यू प्रे टु गॉड?

नलिन : हां मम्मी।

Nalin : Yes Mummy. येस मम्मी.

मां : बहुत अच्छे! बेटे पेपर ध्यान से पढ़ना और समय से खत्म करना। टीचर को देने से पहले, पेपर ठीक से दोहराना मत भूलना। ठीक है?

Mother : Very Good! Read the paper carefully son and finish it in time. Don't forget to revise it before handing it to the teacher. O.K? वेरी गुड! रीड द पेपर केअरफ़ुली सन ऐंड फ़िनिश इट इन टाइम। डोंट फ़ॉरगेट टु रिवाइज़ इट बिफ़ोर हैंडिंग इट टु द टीचर, ओ.के?

नलिन : अच्छा!

Nalin : O.K. ओ.के.

मां : तुम्हारी घड़ी कहां है?

Mother : Where is your watch? वेअर इज़ योर वॉच?

नलिन : ये रही। और मम्मी आज मैं टिफ़िन नहीं ले जाऊंगा। मैं जल्दी वापिस आऊंगा।

Nalin : Here it is. And mummy, no tiffin today. I will come back early. हिअर इट इज़. ऐंड मम्मी नो टिफ़िन टुडे. आइ विल कम बैक अर्ली.

मां : मुझे मालूम है। अब जल्दी से खालो।

Mother : Yes I know. Now finish eating quickly. येस आइ नो. नाउ फ़िनिश ईटिंग क्विकली.

नलिन : मैं जा रहा हूं।

Nalin : I am going mummy. आइम गोइंग मम्मी.

मां : अच्छा बेटे-मेरी शुभकामनाएं।

Mother : O.K. son. Best of luck. ओ.के. सन. बेस्ट ऑफ़ लक.

नलिन : थैंक्यू मम्मी, बाइ।

Nalin : Thank you mummy, bye. थैंक्यू मम्मी, बाइ.

विद्यार्थी से बातचीत — Talking to a Student (टॉकिंग टु अ स्टूडेंट)

आदमी : तुम्हारा नाम क्या है?
Man : What is your name? वॉट इज़ योर नेम?

लड़का : मैं रवि हूं।
Boy : I am Ravi. आइ ऐम रवि.

आदमी : पढ़ते हो?
Man : Do you study. डू यू स्टडी?

लड़का : जी अंकल।
Boy : Yes uncle. येस अंकल.

आदमी : कौन सी क्लास में?
Man : In which class? इन विच क्लास?

लड़का : बारहवीं।
Boy : Twelfth. ट्वेल्फ़्थ.

आदमी : तुम साइंस के स्टूडेंट हो या आर्ट्स के।
Man : Are you a student of science or Arts?
आर यू अ स्टूडेंट ऑफ़ साइंस ऑर आर्ट्स?

लड़का : साइंस का।
Boy : Science. साइंस.

आदमी : रवि तुम्हारा सबसे प्रिय विषय क्या है?
Man : Which is your favourite subject Ravi?
विच इज़ योर फ़ेवरिट सबजेक्ट रवि?

लड़का : फ़िज़िक्स।
Boy : Physics. फ़िज़िक्स.

आदमी : जीवन में तुम क्या बनना चाहते हो।
Man : What do you want to be in life?
वॉट डू यू वॉन्ट टु बी इन लाइफ़?

लड़का : मैं इलेक्ट्रोनिक्स इंजीनियर बनना चाहता हूं।
Boy : I want to be an electronics engineer.
आइ वॉन्ट टु बी एन इलेक्ट्रोनिक्स इंजीनियर.

आदमी : तुम्हारे पिता क्या करते हैं।
Man : What does your father do? वॉट डज़ योर फ़ादर डू?

लड़का : वे केमिस्ट हैं।
Boy : He is a chemist. ही इज़ अ केमिस्ट.

आदमी : और तुम्हारी मां।
Man : And your mother? ऐंड योर मदर?

लड़का : वे अध्यापक हैं।
Boy : She is a teacher. शी इज़ अ टीचर.

आदमी : क्या तुम कोई खेल खेलते हो?
Man : Do you play any games? डू यू प्ले ऐनी गेम्ज़?

लड़का : जी हां, मैं हॉकी और क्रिकेट खेलता हूं।
Boy : Yes, I play hockey and cricket.
येस, आइ प्ले हॉकी ऐंड क्रिकेट.

आदमी : तुम्हारा प्रिय खेल कौन सा है?
Man : Which is your favourite game? विच इज़ योर फ़ेवरिट गेम?

लड़का : क्रिकेट।
Boy : Cricket. क्रिकेट.

आदमी : तुम्हारा प्रिय खिलाड़ी कौन सा है?
Man : And who is your favourite player?
ऐंड हू इज़ योर फ़ेवरिट प्लेयर?

लड़का : सचिन तेंदुलकर।
Boy : Sachin Tendulkar. सचिन तेंदुलकर.

आदमी : क्या तुम्हें पढ़ने का शौक है?
Man : Do you like reading? डू यू लाइक रीडिंग?

लड़का : जी हां मैं रहस्य और रोमांच भरी किताबें पढ़ना पसंद करता हूं। मैं अखबार भी रोज़ नियम से पढ़ता हूं।
Boy : Yes, I like reading mysteries and adventure books. I also read the newspaper regularly. येस, आइ लाइक रीडिंग मिस्ट्रीज़ ऐंड ऐडवेंचर बुक्स. आइ ऑलसो रीड द न्यूज़पेपर रेग्युलरली.

आदमी : बहुत अच्छी बात है। क्या तुम्हें टी.वी. देखना अच्छा लगता है?
Man : That's very good. Do you like watching T.V.?
दैट्स वेरी गुड. डू यू लाइक वॉचिंग टी.वी.?

लड़का : जी हां, बहुत अच्छा लगता है।
Boy : Oh yes! I love it. ओ येस! आइ लव इट.

आदमी : तुम्हारे मनपसंद चैनल्ज़ कौन-कौन से हैं?
Man : Which are your favourite channels?
विच आर योर फ़ेवरिट चैनल्ज़?

लड़का : ज़ी, मेट्रो और सिटी क़ेबल। मुझे प्राइम स्पोर्ट्स भी पसंद है।

Boy : Zee, Metro and Siticable. I also like Prime Sports.
ज़ी, मेट्रो ऐंड सिटी केबल. आइ ऑलसो लाइक प्राइम स्पोर्ट्स.

आदमी : खाली समय में और क्या करते हो?

Man : What else do you do in your spare time?
वॉट एल्स डू यू डू इन योर स्पेअर टाइम?

लड़का : मैं कम्प्यूटर गेम्ज़ खेलता हूं।

Boy : I play computer games. आइ प्ले कम्प्यूटर गेम्ज़

आदमी : क्या तुम स्कूल में कम्पयूटर सीखते हो?

Man : Do you learn computers at school?
डू यू लर्न कम्पयूटर्ज़ एट स्कूल?

लड़का : जी हां यह हमारे सिलेबस का एक हिस्सा है।

Boy : Yes it's a part of our syllabus.
येस इट्स अ पार्ट ऑफ़ आवर सिलेबस.

आदमी : अच्छा रवि। तुमसे बात करके बहुत अच्छा लगा। मेरी शुभकामनाएं तुम्हारे साथ हैं।

Man : O. K. Ravi. It was great talking to you. I wish you all the best in life. ओ.के. रवि. इट वॉज़ ग्रेट टॉकिंग टु यू. आइ विश यू ऑल द बेस्ट इन लाइफ़.

लड़का : धन्यवाद अंकल, बाइ।

Boy : Thank you uncle, bye. थैंक्यू अंकल बाइ.

जाने की तैयारी

Getting Ready to Go (गेटिंग रेडी टु गो)

पत्नी : आज ऑफ़िस नहीं जाना क्या?

Wife : Aren't you going to office today?
आरन्ट यू गोइंग टु ऑफ़िस टुडे?

पति : बिल्कुल जाना है। वक्त क्या हुआ है?

Husband : Of course I am. What's the time?
ऑफ़ कोर्स आइ ऐम. वॉट्स द टाइम?

पत्नी : उठिये फिर। साढ़े सात बज गये हं।

Wife : Get up then. It's seven thirty.
गेट अप देन। इट्स सेवन थर्टी.

पति : अरे नहीं!

Husband : Oh no! ओ नो!

पत्नी : जल्दी करिए, नहीं तो बस निकल जायेगी।

Wife : Hurry up, otherwise you will miss the bus.
हरी अप, अदरवाइज़ यू विल मिस द बस.

पति : *(उठते हुए)* ठीक। बाथरूम में कौन है?

Husband : *(Getting up)* Right. Who is in the bathroom?
राइट. हू इज़ इन द बाथरूम?

पत्नी : सौरभ।

Wife : Saurabh. सौरभ.

पति : सौरभ जल्दी करो। मुझे देर हो रही है।

Husband : Saurabh hurry up. I am getting late.
सौरभ हरी अप। आइ एम गेटिंग लेट.

सौरभ : आता हूं, पापा।

Saurabh : Coming, Papa. कमिंग, पापा.

पति : *(पत्नी से)* रीना, मुझे गर्म पानी दे दो। मैं तब तक शेव कर लेता हूं। मेरा तौलिया कहां है?

Husband : *(to wife)* Reena give me hot water. I'll shave in the meanwhile. Where is my towel? रीना गिव मी हॉट वॉटर. आइल शेव इन द मीनवाइल. वेअर इज़ माइ टॉवल?

पत्नी : यह वाला ले लो। वह गन्दा है।

Wife : That is dirty. Take this one. दैट इज़ डर्टी. टेक दिस वन.

पति : मेरे कपड़े प्रेस हो गये क्या?

Husband : Have my clothes been ironed?
हैव माइ क्लोद्ज़ बीन आयरन्ड?

पत्नी : हां, मैंने तुम्हारी अलमारी में रख दिये हैं।

Wife : Yes, I have put them in your cupboard.
येस, आइ हैव पुट देम इन योर कबर्ड।

पति : मेरी नीली जुर्राबें नहीं मिल रहीं। रीना, क्या तुमने उन्हें कल धोया था?

Husband : I can't find my blue socks. Reena, did you wash them yesterday? आइ कान्ट फ़ाइन्ड माइ ब्लू सॉक्स. रीना, डिड यू वॉश देम येस्टर्डे?

पत्नी : परसों धोया था। तुम्हारी सारी जुर्राबें तुम्हारी अल्मारी के दूसरे ड्रॉअर में हैं। अब मुझे खाना बना लेने दो।

Wife : I washed them the day before. All your socks are in the second drawer of your cupboard. Now let me finish cooking. आइ वॉश्ड देम द डे बिफ़ोर. ऑल योर सॉक्स आर इन द सेकण्ड ड्रॉवर ऑफ़ योर कबर्ड. नाउ लेट मी फ़िनिश कुकिंग.

सौरभ : पापा आप बाथरूम में जा सकते हैं। मम्मी मेरी यूनिफ़ॉर्म कहां है?

Saurabh : You can go into the bathroom papa. Mummy, where is my uniform? यू कैन गो इंटु द बाथरूम पापा. मम्मी, वेअर इज़ माइ यूनिफ़ॉर्म?

मां : तुम्हारे बिस्तर पर। और तुम्हारे जूते मेज़ के नीचे हैं।

Mother : On your bed. And your shoes are under the table. ऑन योर बेड. ऐंड योर शूज़ आर अंडर द टेबल.

सौरभ : अच्छा मम्मी।

Saurabh : O.K. Mummy. ओ.के. मम्मी.

पति : *(बाथरूम में जाते हुए)* रीना प्लीज़ मेरा नाश्ता और खाने का डिब्बा तैयार रखना। मैं पद्रंह मिनट में आ जाऊंगा।

Husband : *(going into the bathroom)* Reena please keep my breakfast and the tiffin ready. I'll be back in fifteen minutes. रीना प्लीज़ कीप माइ ब्रेकफ़ास्ट ऐंड द टिफ़िन रेडी. आइल बी बैक इन फ़िफ़्टीन मिनट्स.

पत्नी : फिक्र मत करो। सब तैयार है। सौरभ जल्दी करो। किसी मिनट भी तुम्हारी बस आ जायेगी।

Wife : Don't worry. Everything is ready. Saurabh, hurry up. Your bus must be coming any moment. डोन्ट वरी. एवरीथिंग इज़ रेडी. सौरभ, हरी अप. योर बस मस्ट बी कमिंग एनी मोमेंट.

सौरभ : मम्मी मैं तैयार हूं।

Saurabh : I'm ready mummy. आइ ऐम रेडी मम्मी.

मां : ये लो, दूध पी लो।

Mother : Here, drink the milk. हिअर ड्रिंक द मिल्क.

सौरभ : मम्मी मेरा लंच बॉक्स कहां है?

Saurabh : Where is my lunch box? वेअर इज़ माइ लंच बॉक्स?

मां : तुम्हारे बस्ते में। और, अपनी पानी की बोतल मत भूल जाना।

Mother : In your bag. And, don't forget the water bottle. इन योर बैग। ऐंड डोन्ट फ़ॉर्गेट द वॉटर बोटल.

सौरभ : मम्मी आज पैरेन्ट टीचर्स मीटिंग है। भूल मत जाना।

Saurabh : Mummy don't forget the Parent Teachers Meeting today. मम्मी डोन्ट फ़ॉर्गेट द पेरेंट टीचर्स मीटिंग टुडे.

मां : अच्छा किया जो याद दिला दिया। मेरे दिमाग से निकल गया था।

Mother : Good, you reminded me. It had slipped out of my mind. गुड यू रिमाइंडिड मी. इट हैड स्लिप्ड आउट ऑफ़ माइ माइंड.

सौरभ : मेरी बस। बाइ मम्मी।

Saurabh : My bus. Bye Mummy. माइ बस. बाइ मम्मी.

मां : बाइ बेटे।

Mother : Bye son. बाइ सन.

पति : रीना, मेरा नाश्ता?

Husband : My breakfast Reena? माइ ब्रेकफ़ास्ट रीना?

पत्नी : खाने की मेज़ पर रखा है। और यह रहा तुम्हारा लंच। सुनो, बिजली का बिल देना मत भूल जाना। और गैस के लिए भी फ़ोन कर देना। किसी वक्त भी खत्म हो सकती है।

Wife : It's on the dining table. And this is your lunch. Listen, don't forget to pay the electricity bill. And also phone for the gas please. It can finish anytime. इट्स ऑन द डाइनिंग टेबल. ऐंड दिस इज़ योर लंच. लिसन, डोंट फ़ॉर्गेट टु पे दि इलेक्ट्रिसिटी बिल. ऐंड ऑलसो फ़ोन फ़ॉर द गैस प्लीज़. इट कैन फ़िनिश ऐनी टाइम.

पति : हां, हां कर दूंगा। रीना ज़रा एक साफ़ रुमाल ला देना।

Husband : Yes, Yes I will do that. Reena, Please get me a clean hanky. येस, येस आइ विल डू दैट. रीना, प्लीज़ गेट मी अ क्लीन हैंकी।

पत्नी : ये रहा और तुम्हारी घड़ी भी। रोज़ बाथरूम में भूल जाते हो।

Wife : Here it is. And also your watch. You always forget it in the bathroom. हिअर इट इज़. ऐंड ऑलसो योर वॉच. यू ऑलवेज़ फ़ॉर्गेट इट इन द बाथरूम.

पति : थैंक्यू रीना। मैं ज़ल्दी में हूं। बाइ।

Husband : Thank you Reena. I have to rush now. Bye. थैंक्यू रीना. आइ हैव टु रश नाउ. बाइ.

रास्ते की पूछताछ — Asking the Way (आस्किंग द वे)

(रोहित दिल्ली में नया है। वह एक्सप्रेस बिल्डिंग पहुंचना चाहता है।)

रोहित : *(एक आदमी से)* माफ़ कीजिए। क्या आप मुझे एक्सप्रेस बिल्डिंग का रास्ता बता सकते हैं?

Rohit : *(to a man)* Excuse me. Could you tell me the way to the Express Building please? एक्सक्यूज़ मी. कुड यू टेल मी द वे टु द एक्सप्रेस बिल्डिंग प्लीज़?

आदमी : जी हां, सीधे जाइये, पहला बायां मोड़ मुड़िए और चलते जाइये। आप बहादुरशाह ज़फ़र मार्ग पहुंच जायेंगे। एक्सप्रेस बिल्डिंग उसी सड़क पर पड़ेगी।

The man : Yes, go straight, take the first left turn and keep walking. You will reach Bahadurshah Zafar Road. The Express Building is on that Road. येस, गो स्ट्रेट, टेक द फ़र्स्ट लेफ़्ट टर्न ऐंड कीप वॉकिंग. यू विल रीच बहादुरशाह ज़फ़र रोड. द एक्सप्रेस बिल्डिंग इज़ ऑन दैट रोड.

रोहित : धन्यवाद।

Rohit : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

रोहित : *(एक स्त्री से)* माफ कीजिए मैडम मुझे कनॉट प्लेस की बस कहां से मिलेगी?

Rohit : *(to a lady)* Excuse me Madam. From where can I get a bus to Connaught Place? एक्सक्यूज़ मी मैडम. फ्रॉम वेअर कैन आइ गेट अ बस टु कनॉट प्लेस?

स्त्री : पुल के पास उस बस स्टॉप से।

Lady : From that bus stop near the bridge. फ्रॉम दैट बस स्टॉप निअर द ब्रिज.

रोहित : धन्यवाद।

Rohit : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

रोहित : *(कंडक्टर से)* क्या यह बस जंतर मंतर जा जा रही है?

Rohit : *(to the conductor)* Is this bus going to Jantar Mantar? इज़ दिस बस गोइंग टु जंतर मंतर?

कंडक्टर : हां।

Conductor : Yes. येस.

रोहित : *(दूसरे आदमी से)* क्या आप मुझे जंतर मंतर पहुंचने पर बता देंगे?

Rohit : *(to a man)* Would you please tell me when we reach Jantar Mantar? वुड यू प्लीज़ टेल मी वेन वी रीच जंतर मंतर?

आदमी : हां, बता दूंगा।

The Man : Yes, I will. येस, आइ विल.

रोहित : क्या मुझे वहां से शालीमार बाग के लिए बस मिल सकती है।

Rohit : Can I get a bus to Shalimar Bagh from there? कैन आइ गेट अ बस टु शालीमार बाग फ्रॉम देअर?

आदमी : आसानी से! *(थोड़ी देर बाद)* यह है जंतर मंतर।

The Man : Yes, easily. येस ईज़िली. *(after sometime)* This is Jantar Mantar. दिस इज़ जंतर मंतर.

रोहित : धन्यवाद।

Rohit : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

(रोहित नीचे उतर कर बस स्टाप पर इंतज़ार करता है। एक बस आती है।)

रोहित : क्या ये शालीमार बाग जा रही है?

Rohit : Is it going to Shalimar Bagh?
इज़ इट गोंइग टु शालीमार बाग?

कंडक्टर : नहीं।

Conductor : No. नो.

(एक और बस आती है)

रोहित : शालीमार बाग?

Rohit : Shalimar Bagh? शालीमार बाग?

कंडक्टर : हां।

Conductor : Yes. येस.

(रोहित शालीमार बाग उतरता है)

रोहित : *(एक आदमी से)* माफ़ कीजिए, डेसू कॉलोनी किधर पड़ेगी?

Rohit : *(to a man)* Excuse me, which side is DESU colony? एक्सक्यूज़ मी, विच साइड इज़ डेसू कॉलोनी?

आदमी : सॉरी, मुझे नहीं मालूम।

Man : Sorry, I don't know. सॉरी, आइ डोन्ट नो.

रोहित : *(एक दुकानदार से)* ज़रा डेसू कॉलोनी का रास्ता बतायेंगे?

Rohit : *(to a shopkeeper)* How to reach DESU colony please? हाउ टु रीच डेसू कॉलोनी प्लीज़?

दुकानदार : सीधे चलते जाइये। थोड़ी देर में बाईं ओर बड़ा सा लोहे का फाटक आयेगा। अंदर चले जाइये। वही देसू कॉलोनी है।

Shopkeeper : Go straight. After sometime you'll see a big iron gate on the left side. Go inside. That is DESU colony. गो स्ट्रेट. आफ़्टर समटाइम यू विल सी अ बिग आयरन गेट ऑन द लेफ़्ट साइड. गो इनसाइड. दैट इज़ डेसू कॉलोनी.

रोहित : *(गेट पर चौकीदार से)* डेसू कॉलोनी यही है?

Rohit : *(to the gatekeeper)* Is this DESU colony? इज़ दिस देसू कॉलोनी?

चौकीदार : जी हां।

Gatekeeper : Yes Sir. येस सर.

रोहित : सी ब्लॉक किधर पड़ेगा?

Rohit : Where is C-Block? वेअर इज़ सी ब्लॉक?

चौकीदार : वो पार्क देखते हैं न। उसके चारों ओर सी ब्लॉक है।

Gatekeeper : Do you see that park? The area around is C-Block. डू यू सी दैट पार्क? द एरिया अराउंड इज़ सी ब्लॉक.

रोहित : 695 नम्बर किधर पड़ेगा?

Rohit : Which side will be number 695? विच साइड विल बी नम्बर सिक्स नाइन्टी फ़ाइव?

चौकीदार : सीधे जाइये और बाईं तरफ मुड़ जाइये। उसके बाद सीधे हाथ को पहला मोड़ लीजिए। 695 उसी गली में होना चाहिए। मेरे ख्याल से 695 हैपी पब्लिक स्कूल से अगला नम्बर है।

Gatekeeper : Go straight and turn left. Then take the second right turn. 695 should be in that lane. I think it is next to Happy Public School. गो स्ट्रेट ऐंड टर्न लेफ़्ट. देन टेक द सेकंड राइट टर्न. सिक्स नाइंटी फ़ाइव शुड बी इन दैट लेन. आइ थिंक इट इज़ नेक्स्ट टु हैपी पब्लिक स्कूल.

रोहित : बहुत-बहुत शुक्रिया।

Rohit : Thank you very much. थैंक्यू वेरी मच.

मरीज़ के बारे में पूछताछ Inquiry About a Patient (इन्क्वॉयरी अबाउट अ पेशेंट)

प्रशान्त : हलो दीपक, कैसे हो?

Prashant : Hello Deepak, how are you?
हलो दीपक, हाउ आर यू?

दीपक : मैं तो ठीक हूं, पर मेरे पिता बीमार हैं।

Deepak : I am fine, but my father is not well.
आइ एम फ़ाइन. बट माइ फ़ादर इज़ नॉट वेल.

प्रशान्त : अच्छा! क्या तकलीफ़ है?

Prashant : Oh, I am sorry to hear that! What's wrong?
ओ, आइ एम सॉरी टु हिअर दैट! वॉट्स रौंग?

दीपक : डॉक्टर का कहना है कि उनका लिवर ठीक से काम नहीं कर रहा है।

Deepak : The doctor says his liver is not functioning properly.
द डॉक्टर सेज़ हिज़ लिवर इज़ नॉट फ़ंक्शनिंग प्रॉपर्ली.

प्रशान्त : किस डॉक्टर को दिखाया है?

Prashant : Which doctor have you consulted?
विच डॉक्टर हैव यू कनसल्टिड?

दीपक : डा. खन्ना को। उन्होंने कुछ टेस्ट्स बताये थे।

Deepak : Doctor Khanna. He had recommended some tests.
डॉक्टर खन्ना. ही हैड रिकमेन्डिड सम टेस्ट्स.

प्रशान्त : रिपोर्ट्स मिल गईं?

Prashant : Have you got the reports? हैव यू गॉट द रिपोर्ट्स?

दीपक : हां, और डाक्टर ने इलाज़ भी शुरू कर दिया है।

Deepak : Yes, and the doctor has already started the treatment. येस, ऐंड द डॉक्टर हैज़ ऑलरेडी स्टार्टिड द ट्रीटमेंट.

प्रशान्त : अच्छा। तो कुछ फ़ायदा हुआ क्या?

Prashant : Oh I see. Has there been any improvement?
ओ आइ सी. हैज देअर बीन एनी इंम्प्रूवमेंट?

दीपक : हां, पर बहुत धीरे-धीरे फ़र्क पड़ रहा है।

Deepak : Yes, but the progress is very slow.
येस, बट द प्रोग्रेस इज़ वेरी स्लो.

प्रशान्त : तुमने इस बारे में डॉक्टर से बात की क्या?

Prashant : Did you speak to the doctor about it?
डिड यू स्पीक टु द डॉक्टर अबाउट इट?

दीपक : हां की तो। वह कहता है, हमें थोड़ा धीरज रखना चाहिए।

Deepak : Yes I did. But he says we have to be a little patient.
येस आइ डिड. बट ही सेज़ वी हैव टु बी अ लिटल पेंशेंट.

प्रशान्त : खाने में कोई परहेज़ आदि?

Prashant : Any restrictions about diet, food etc.?
ऐनी रिस्ट्रिक्शन्ज़ अबाउट डायट, फ़ूड एटसेट्रा?

दीपक : हां, डॉक्टर ने केवल उबला खाना और अधिक से अधिक पीने की चीजें लेने के लिए कहा है। चाय और कॉफ़ी के लिए मनाही की है।

Deepak : Yes, the doctor has recommended only boiled food, lots of liquids and no tea or coffee. येस, द डॉक्टर हैज रिकमेन्डिड ओनली बॉइल्ड फ़ूड, लॉट्स ऑफ़ लिक्विड ऐंड नो टी ऑर कॉफ़ी.

प्रशान्त : ज़रा खाने-पीने में पूरी सावधानी रखना।

Prashant : Please be careful about the diet.
प्लीज़ बी केअरफ़ुल अबाउट द डायट.

दीपक : कोशिश तो पूरी है।

Deepak : Yes we are doing our best.
येस वी आर डूइंग आवर बेस्ट.

प्रशान्त : दीपक, मैं कुछ कर सकता हूं तो बताओ।

Prashant : Anything I can do Deepak?
ऐनिथिंग आइ कैन डू दीपक?

दीपक : धन्यवाद, कुछ नहीं प्रशान्त। बस कभी आओ।

Deepak : No thanks, Prashant. Just drop in sometime.
नो थैंक्स, प्रशान्त. जस्ट ड्रॉप इन समटाइम.

प्रशान्त : ज़रूर, अच्छा। बाइ दीपक।

Prashant : Yes, sure. Bye Deepak. येस, श्योर. बाइ दीपक.

डॉक्टर से बातचीत

मरीज़ : नमस्ते डॉक्टर साहब।

डॉक्टर : नमस्ते, बैठिए। क्या तकलीफ़ है?

मरीज़ : मुझे बुखार है और गला खराब है।

डॉक्टर : लाइये देखें। ज़रा मुंह खोलिए। हां इनफ़ेक्शन तो है। बुखार कितना है?

मरीज़ : घर से चला था तो 101° था।

डॉक्टर : *(बुखार लेता है)* अभी भी उतना ही है। सर्दी लग रही है क्या?

मरीज़ : ज़्यादा तो नहीं।

डॉक्टर : खांसी है?

मरीज़ : हां जी। खासतौर पर रात को तो मैं खांसी के मारे सो ही नहीं सकता।

डॉक्टर : और कोई तकलीफ़?

मरीज़ : सिर में दर्द है।

डॉक्टर : वह बुखार के कारण है। ठीक है, पांच दिन तक ये कैप्सूल दिन में तीन बार खाइए। और ये गोलियां हर 6 घंटे के बाद तीन दिन तक।

मरीज़ : दवाई किसके साथ खाऊं?

डॉक्टर : गर्म पानी के साथ। यह खांसी की दवा भी हर 6 घंटे बाद लेनी है।

मरीज़ : कितनी?

डॉक्टर : दो चाय के चम्मच। दिन में चार-पांच बार गरम पानी के गरारे से बहुत फ़ायदा होगा।

मरीज : खाने में कोई परहेज़ डॉ. साहब?

डॉक्टर : ज़्यादा तेल और मसालेदार खाना मत खाइएगा। ठंडा पानी और दूसरा ठंडा भी मत पीयें उससे गले में तकलीफ़ होगी। आराम करिए, 2-3 दिन में तबीयत ठीक हो जायेगी।

मरीज : ठीक है डॉ. साहब धन्यवाद।

Talking to a Doctor (टॉकिंग टु अ डॉक्टर)

Patient : Good Morning doctor. गुड मॉर्निंग डॉक्टर.

Doctor : Good Morning, please sit down. Yes, what's the problem? गुड मॉर्निंग, प्लीज़ सिट डाउन. येस वॉट्स द प्रॉब्लम?

Patient : I have fever and sore throat.
आइ हैव फ़ीवर ऐंड सोर थ्रोट.

Doctor : Let me see. Open your mouth please. Yes there is infection. How much is the fever? लेट मी सी. ओपन योर माउथ प्लीज़. येस देअर इज़ इनफ़ेक्शन। हाउ मच इज़ द फ़ीवर?

Patient : It was 101° when I started from home.
इट वॉज़ 101° वेन आइ स्टार्टिड फ्रॉम होम.

Doctor : It's the same even now. Are you feeling cold?
इट्स द सेम ईवन नाउ. आर यू फ़ीलिंग कोल्ड?

Patient : Not much. नॉट मच.

Doctor : Do you have cough? डू यू हैव कॉफ़.

Patient : Yes, specially at night I can't sleep because of it.
येस स्पेश्यली ऐट नाइट, आइ कान्ट स्लीप बिकॉज़ ऑफ़ इट.

Doctor : Any other problem? एनी अदर प्रॉब्लम?

Patient : I have a headache. आइ हैव अ हेडेक.

Doctor : That's because of fever. O.K. Take these capsules thrice daily for five days and these tablets six hourly for three days. दैट्स बिकॉज ऑफ़ फ़ीवर. ओ.के. टेक दीज़ केप्स्यूल्स थ्रॉइस डेली फ़ॉर फ़ाइव डेज़ ऐंड दीज़ टैब्लेट्स सिक्स आवरली फ़ॉर थ्री डेज़.

Patient : How to take the medicine? हाउ टु टेक द मेडिसन?

Doctor : With warm water. Also take this cough mixture six hourly. विद वॉर्म वॉटर. ऑलसो टेक दिस कॉफ़ मिक्सचर सिक्स आवरली.

Patient : How much? हाउ मच?

Doctor : Two teaspoons. Hot water gargles 4 to 5 times a day will help you a lot. टू टीस्पून्ज़. हॉट वॉटर गार्गल्स फ़ोर टु फ़ाइव टाइम्स अ डे विल हेल्प यू अ लॉट.

Patient : Any restrictions about food?
एनी रिस्ट्रिक्शन्ज़ अबाउट फ़ूड?

Doctor : Don't eat oily or spicy food. Avoid cold water and cold drinks that will irritate the throat. Take rest and you will be alright in two-three days. डोन्ट ईट ऑइली ऑर स्पाइसी फ़ूड. अवॉइड कोल्ड वॉटर ऐंड कोल्ड ड्रिंक्स दैट विल इरिटेट द थ्रोट. टेक रेस्ट ऐंड यू विल बी ऑलराइट इन टू-थ्री डेज़।

Patient : O.K. Doctor, thank you very much.
ओ.के. डॉक्टर, थैंक्यू वेरी मच.

जनरल स्टोर में

ग्राहक : मुझे दो लक्स की टिक्कियां चाहिए। कितने पैसे?

दुकानदार : दस रुपये। और क्या दूं?

ग्राहक : दस रुपये क्यों? लक्स की टिक्की चार रुपये की है। यह देखिए यहां छपा है।

दुकानदार : ठीक है आठ रुपये ही दे दीजिए। और क्या चाहिए आपको?

ग्राहक : रिफ़ाइंड ऑयल है आपके पास?

दुकानदार : जी हां, आपको कौन सा चाहिए?

ग्राहक : एक किलो धारा दे दो और एक किलो चीनी।

दुकानदार : ये रहा धारा। मगर चीनी खत्म हो गई है। आपको कल मिल जायेगी।

ग्राहक : मुझे एक अच्छा सा शैम्पू भी देना।

दुकानदार : कौन सा चाहिए? ये हर्बल शैम्पू दे दूं?

ग्राहक : कितने का है?

दुकानदार : 65 रु. का। इस पर 5 रु. की छूट है। आपको 60 का पड़ेगा।

ग्राहक : ठीक है एक दे दो। तुम्हारे पास आटा कौन सा है?

दुकानदार : सूरज ब्रैंड, राज भोग, कुकवेल सब हैं। आपको कौन सा चाहिए?

ग्राहक : पिछली बार मैंने सूरज ब्रांड लिया था। मुझे पसंद नहीं आया।

दुकानदार : इस दफ़ा राजभोग इस्तेमाल करके देखिए। बिल्कुल घर के आटे जैसा है।

ग्राहक : ठीक है 10 किलो दे दो। पर क्या तुम इसे घर पहुंचवा दोगे?

दुकानदार : पांच किलोमीटर तक घर पहुंचाने का ज़िम्मा हमारा है।

ग्राहक : मैं पास ही रहती हूं।

दुकानदार : आपका पता?

ग्राहक : C-95 कमल कॉलोनी।

दुकानदार : कोई दिक्कत नहीं। आप पैसे दीजिए। मैं अभी आपके घर लड़के से सामान भिजवा देता हूं।

ग्राहक : धन्यवाद।

दुकानदार : जी, और कोई सेवा बताइए।

At the General Store (ऐट द जनरल स्टोर)

Customer : I want two cakes of lux soap. How much? आइ वॉन्ट टू केक्स ऑफ़ लक्स सोप. हाउ मच?

Shopkeeper : Ten rupees. What else? टेन रुपीज़. वॉट एल्स?

Customer : Why ten rupees? Lux is four rupees a cake! Look it is printed here! वाइ टेन रुपीज़? लक्स इज़ फ़ोर रुपीज़ अ केक! लुक इट इज़ प्रिंटिड हिअर!

Shopkeeper : Alright pay eight rupees. What else do you want? ऑल राइट पे एट रुपीज़. वॉट एल्स डू यू वॉन्ट?

Customer : Do you have refined oil? डू यू हैव रिफ़ाइंड ऑयल?

Shopkeeper : Yes, which one do you want? येस, विच वन डू यू वॉन्ट?

Customer : Dhara one kg. pack and sugar one kg. धारा वन केजी. पैक ऐंड शुगर वन केजी.

Shopkeeper : This is Dhara one kg. but sugar is out of stock. You will get it tomorrow. दिस इज़ धारा वन केजी. बट शुगर इज़ आउट ऑफ़ स्टॉक. यू विल गेट इट टुमॉरो.

Customer : Give me a good shampoo also. गिव मी अ गुड शैम्पू ऑलसो.

Shopkeeper : Which one do you want? Should I give this herbal Shampoo? विच वन डू यू वॉन्ट? शुड आइ गिव दिस हर्बल शैम्पू?

Customer : What is the price? वॉट इज़ द प्राइस?

Shopkeeper : Sixty five rupees. There is five rupees discount on it. It will cost you sixty rupees. सिक्सटी फ़ाइव रुपीज़. देअर इज़ फ़ाइव रुपीज़ डिस्काउंट ऑन इट. इट विल कॉस्ट य सिक्सटी रुपीज़.

Customer : Alright give me one. Which flour do you have? ऑलराइट गिव मी वन. विच फ़्लावर डू यू हैव?

Shopkeeper : We have all, Suraj brand, Rajbhog and Cook-well. Which one do you want? वी हैव ऑल, सूरज ब्रैंड, राजभोग ऐंड कुकवैल. विच वन डू यू वॉन्ट?

Customer : Last time I used Suraj brand. I didn't like it. लास्ट टाइम आइ यूज़्ड सूरज ब्रैंड. आइ डिडन्ट लाइक इट.

Shopkeeper : Try Rajbhog this time. It is like the real home made flour. ट्राइ राजभोग दिस टाइम. इट इज़ लाइक द रिअल होम मेड फ़्लावर.

Customer : Alright give 10 kilos. Do you have home delivery. ऑल राइट गिव टेन किलोज़। डू यू हैव होम डिलिवरी?

Shopkeeper : Yes, up to 5 kilometres. येस अपटु फ़ाइव किलोमीटर्स.

Customer : I live close by. आइ लिव क्लोज़ बाइ.

Shopkeeper : What is your address? वॉट इज़ योर ऐड्रेस?

Customer : C-95, Kamal colony. C-95, कमल कॉलोनी.

Shopkeeper : No problem. You make the payment. I'll just send the delivery boy to your house. नो प्रॉब्लम. यू मेक द पेमेंट. आइ विल जस्ट सेंड द डिलिवरी बॉय टु योर हाउस.

Customer : Thank you. थैंक्यू।

Shopkeeper : At your service madam. ऐट योर सर्विस मैडम.

उपहार की खरीदारी

Buying a Present (बाइंग अ प्रेज़ेंट)

दुकानदार : मैं आपकी क्या सेवा कर सकता हूं मैडम?

Shopkeeper : Yes, can I help you madam?
येस, कैन आइ हेल्प यू मैडम?

स्त्री : मैं एक अच्छी घड़ी खरीदना चाहती हूं।

Lady : I want a nice watch. आइ वॉन्ट अ नाइस वॉच.

दुकानदार : लेडीज़ या जेन्ट्स?

Shopkeeper : Lady's or gent's? लेडीज़ और जेन्ट्स?

स्त्री : लेडीज़।

Lady : Lady's. लेडीज़.

दुकानदार : हमारे पास बहुत वैराइटी है। ज़रा यहां देखिए। इस शोकेस में टाइटन, ऑलविन और एच.एम.टी. की घड़ियां हैं। उससे अगले वाले में सभी इम्पोर्टिड स्विस घड़ियां हैं।

Shopkeeper : We have a large variety. Please look here. In this showcase we have Titan, Allwyn and H.M.T. In the next one we have imported Swiss watches. वी हैव अ लार्ज वैराइटी प्लीज़ लुक हिअर. इन दिस शोकेस वी हैव टाइटन, ऑलविन ऐंड एच.एम.टी. इन द नेक्स्ट वन वी हैव इम्पोर्टिड स्विस वॉचिज़.

स्त्री : ज़रा यह दिखाइये। पांचवीं लाइन में तीसरी।

Lady : Please show me this one. The third in the fifth row.
प्लीज़ शो मी दिस वन. द थर्ड इन द फ़िफ़्थ रो।

दुकानदार : ज़रूर, ये टाइटन की है, बहुत बढ़िया घड़ी है।

Shopkeeper : Yes ofcourse. This is a Titan, a very nice watch. watch. येस ऑफ़कोर्स. दिस इज़ अ टाइटन, अ वेरी नाइस वॉच.

स्त्री : कीमत क्या है?

Lady : What is the price? वॉट इज़ द प्राइस?

दुकानदार : यह पर्ची पर लिखी है। केवल बारह सौ पचास रुपये।

Shopkeeper : It's here on the tag. Twelve hundred and fifty rupees only. इट्स हिअर ऑन द टैग. ट्वैल्व हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़िफ़्टी रुपीज़ ओनली.

स्त्री : नहीं, मुझे इतनी महंगी घड़ी नहीं चाहिए।

Lady : No, I don't want such an expensive watch. नो, आइ डोन्ट वॉन्ट सच एन एक्सपेन्सिव वॉच.

दुकानदार : फिर यह देखिए, कुल पांच सौ पचास की।

Shopkeeper : Then look at this one, five hundred and fifty only. दैन लुक एट दिस वन, फ़ाइव हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़िफ़्टी ओनली.

स्त्री : कौन सा ब्रांड है?

Lady : Which brand is it? विच ब्रैंड इज़ इट?

दुकानदार : एच.एम.टी. बहुत चलेगी।

Shopkeeper : H.M.T. very durable. एच.एम.टी. वेरी ड्यूरेबल.

स्त्री : नहीं, मुझे इसका डिज़ाइन पसंद नहीं है। वह दिखाइये तीसरी लाइन में, चौथी घड़ी।

Lady : No, I don't like the design. What about that one, the fourth in the third row. नो आइ डोन्ट लाइक द डिज़ाइन. वॉट अबाउट दैट वन, द फ़ोर्थ इन द थर्ड रो.

दुकानदार : ये वाली?

Shopkeeper : This one? दिस वन?

स्त्री : हां, कौन सा ब्रांड है?

Lady : Yes, what brand is that. येस, वॉट ब्रैंड इज़ दैट.

दुकानदार : टेंपल. यह एक नई कम्पनी है, जापान की सीको के साथ मिलकर घड़ियां बनाती है।

Shopkeeper : Temple. It is a new company in collaboration with Seiko Japan. टेंपल. इट इज़ अ न्यू कम्पनी इन कोलेबरेशन विद सीको जापान.

स्त्री : यह कैसी है।

Lady : How is it? हाउ इज़ इट?

दुकानदार : अच्छी है। इस पर दस पर्सेंट छूट भी है।

Shopkeeper : It's good. They are also offering 10% discount. इट्स गुड. दे आर ऑलसो ऑफ़रिंग टेन पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट.

स्त्री : इसकी क्या कीमत है।

Lady : What is the price? वॉट इज़ द प्राइस?

दुकानदार : सात सौ रुपये। पर 10% कंसेशन के बाद आपको छः सौ तीस की पड़ेगी।

Shopkeeper : Seven hundred rupees. But after 10% discount it will cost you six hundred and thirty only. सेवन हंड्रेड रुपीज़. बट आफ़्टर टेन पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट, इट विल कॉस्ट यू सिक्स हंड्रेड ऐंड थर्टी ओनली.

स्त्री : इसकी कोई गारंटी है?

Lady : Is there any guarantee? इज़ देअर एनी गारंटी?

दुकानदार : जी हां, दो साल की।

Shopkeeper : Yes, two years. येस टू ईयर्ज़.

स्त्री : गारंटी में क्या है?

Lady : What does the guarantee include? वॉट डज़ द गारंटी इन्क्लूड?

दुकानदार : दो साल के लिए छोटी-मोटी शिकायत की मुफ़्त मरम्मत। कोई बड़ा मशीनी नुक्स होने पर घड़ी बदलकर दूसरी मिलेगी।

Shopkeeper : Free repair of minor faults for two years and full replacement if there is a major manufacturing defect. फ़्री रिपेअर ऑफ़ माइनर फ़ॉल्ट्स फ़ॉर टू ईयर्ज़ ऐंड फ़ुल रिप्लेसमेंट इफ़ देअर इज़ अ मेजर मेन्युफ़ेक्चरिंग डिफ़ेक्ट.

स्त्री : ठीक है, मैं यह खरीदूंगी। इसके साथ केस मिलेगा न?

Lady : O.K. I will buy this one. Shall I get a case with the watch. ओ.के. आइ विल बाइ दिस वन. शैल आइ गेट अ केस विद द वॉच?

दुकानदार : जी हां, एक सुन्दर केस मिलेगा।

Shopkeeper : Yes, a beautiful case. येस, अ ब्यूटिफ़ुल केस.

स्त्री : इसको उपहार की तरह पैक करवा दें।

Lady : Please get it gift wrapped. प्लीज़ गेट इट गिफ़्ट रैप्ड.

दुकानदार : जी मैडम। आप उस काउंटर पर पैसे दें। और यह रहा आपका गारंटी कार्ड। इसे खोइयेगा मत।

Shopkeeper : Yes madam, please pay at that counter. And this is your guarantee card. Please don't lose it. येस मैडम, प्लीज़ पे ऐट दैट काउंटर, ऐंड दिस इज़ योर गारंटी कार्ड. प्लीज़ डोंट लूज़ इट.

स्त्री : जी धन्यवाद।

Lady : Yes, thank you. येस, थैंक्यू.

मनोरंजन: फिल्मों और टी.वी. प्रोग्रामो के बारे में बातचीत

Entertainment: Discussing Movies and T.V. Programmes
ऐन्ट्रटेनमेंट: डिस्कसिंग मूवीज़ ऐंड टी.वी. प्रोग्राम्ज़

(दो सहेलियां निमा और मेघा आपस में फ़िल्मों और टी. वी. प्रोग्रामों के बारे में बातचीत करती हैं।)

निमा : हाइ मेघा।

Nima : Hi Megha. हाइ मेघा.

मेघा : हाइ निमा, कैसी हो?

Megha : Hi Nima. How are you? हाइ निमा, हाउ आर यू?

निमा : ठीक हूं। क्या चल रहा है?

Nima : Fine. What's going on? फ़ाइन. वॉट्स गोइंग ऑन.

मेघा : कुछ नहीं, बस टी.वी. देख रही हूं।

Megha : Nothing, just watching T.V. नथिंग, जस्ट वॉचिंग टी.वी.

निमा : कौन सा प्रोग्राम?

Nima : Which Programme. विच प्रोग्राम?

मेघा : फ़िलिप्स टॉप टेन। मुझे बहुत पसंद है।

Megha : Philips Top Ten. I just love the programme. फ़िलिप्स टॉप टेन. आइ जस्ट लव द प्रोग्राम.

निमा : मुझे भी। मुझे सा रे गा मा और क्लोज़ अप अंताक्षरी भी बहुत अच्छे लगते हैं।

Nima : Me too. I also like Sa Re Ga Ma and Close up Antakshari. मी टू. आइ ऑलसो लाइक सा रे गा मा ऐंड क्लोज़ अप अंताक्षरी.

मेघा : मुझे भी, तुम्हें कौन सा टी. वी. सीरियल सबसे ज़्यादा पसंद है?

Megha : Same here. Which T.V. serial do you like most? सेम हिअर. विच टी.वी. सीरियल डू यू लाइक मोस्ट?

निमा : मुझे तो दास्तान अच्छा लगता है। इसके अलावा श्रीमान श्रीमती भी मुझे पसंद है। बढ़िया कॉमेडी है। है न?

Nima : Well, I like Daastan. Also I like Shriman Shrimati, a lovely comedy, isn't it? वेल, आइ लाइक दास्तान. ऑलसो आइ लाइक श्रीमान श्रीमती, अ लवली कॉमेडी, इज़न्ट इट?

मेघा : मेरे मनपसंद हैं जुनून और स्वाभिमान। वैसे मुझे डिस्कवरी और टर्निंग पॉइंट भी पसंद हैं।

Megha : My favourite are Junoon and Swabhiman. I also like Discovery and Turning Point. माइ फ़ेवरिट आर जुनून ऐंड स्वाभिमान. आइ ऑलसो लाइक डिस्कवरी ऐंड टर्निंग पॉइंट.

निमा : वे मुझे भी अच्छे लगते हैं। मेघा, तुमने दिलवाले दुल्हनियां ले जाएंगे देखी है?

Nima : I like them too. Megha, have you seen Dilwale Dulhaniya le Jayenge? आइ लाइक देम टू. मेघा, हैव यू सीन दिलवाले दुल्हनियां ले जाएंगे?

मेघा : अरे हां तीन बार। बहुत प्यारी फ़िल्म है, है न? शाहरुख कितना क्यूट लगता है और काजोल कितनी सुन्दर।

Megha : Oh yes, thrice. It's a beautiful movie, isn't it? Shahrukh is so cute and Kajol looks so pretty. ओ येस थ्राइस. इट्स अ ब्यूटिफुल मूवी, इजन्ट इट? शाहरुख इज़ सो क्यूट ऐंड काजल लुक्स सो प्रिटी.

निमा : वाकई! और अनुपम खेर का तो जवाब ही नहीं! हमारे यहां उससे बढ़िया हास्य अभिनेता नहीं है।

Nima : Really! And Anupam Kher is simply fantastic! He is the best comedian we have. रिअली! ऐंड अनुपम खेर इज़ सिम्पली फ़ैंटास्टिक! ही इज़ द बेस्ट कॉमेडियन वी हैव.

मेघा : बेशक! मालूम है, इस बार सारे पुरस्कार इसी फ़िल्म को मिले हैं? सबसे बढ़िया फ़िल्म, सबसे बढ़िया एक्टर, एक्ट्रैस, संगीत करीब-करीब सभी कुछ।

Megha : Yes ofcourse! You know the movie bagged all the awards this year? The best movie, best actor, best actress, best music, almost everything. येस ऑफ़कोर्स! यू नो द मूवी बैग्ड ऑल द अवार्ड्स दिस ईयर? द बेस्ट मूवी, बेस्ट ऐक्टर, बेस्ट ऐक्ट्रेस, बेस्ट म्यूज़िक, ऑलमोस्ट एवरीथिंग.

निमा : वे वाकई इस सबके हकदार थे, थे न? भगवान का शुक्र है हवा बदल रही है। मैं तो सेक्स और हिंसा से भरपूर फ़िल्मों से तंग आ गई हूं।

Nima : And they deserved every bit of it, didn't they? Thank God the trend is changing. I am fed up with movies full of sex and violence. ऐंड दे डिज़र्व्ड एवरी बिट ऑफ़ इट, डिड्न्ट दे? थैंक गॉड द ट्रेंड इज़ चेन्जिंग. आइ एम फ़ेड अप विद मूवीज़ फ़ुल ऑफ़ सेक्स ऐंड वॉयलेंस?

मेघा : वाकई। मुझे खुद ऐसी फ़िल्में बेहद उबाने वाली लगती हैं। पूरे परिवार के साथ बैठ कर तो फ़िल्म देखी ही नहीं जा सकती।

Megha : Really, I too find such movies very boring. You can't sit and watch them with family. रिअली, आइ टू फ़ाइंड सच मूवीज वेरी बोरिंग. यू कान्ट सिट ऐंड वॉच देम विद फ़ैमिली.

निमा : डी. डी. वन पर चित्रहार आ रहा है। देखोगी।

Nima : There is Chitrahaar on D.D. 1. Do you want to see? देअर इज़ चित्रहार ऑन डी. डी. वन. डू यू वॉन्ट टू सी?

मेघा : ठीक है, देख लेते हैं। कभी-कभी अच्छे गाने दिखाते हैं।

Megha : O.K. Let's see. Sometimes they show good songs? ओ.के. लेट्स सी. समटाइम्स दे शो गुड साँ++ग्ज़.

अतिथि सत्कार

Entertaining a Guest (एन्ट्रटेनिंग अ गेस्ट)

मेज़बान : ओह आइये-आइये, स्वागत है। लाइये सामान इधर दीजिए।

Host : Oh hello! Welcome, please come in. Let me help you with the luggage. ओ हलो! वेलकम, प्लीज़ कम इन. लेट मी हेल्प यू विद द लगेज.

मेहमान : नहीं-नहीं रहने दीजिए। बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद।

Guest : No-No. It's alright. Thank you very much. नो-नो इट्स ऑल राइट. थैंक्यू वेरी मच.

मेज़बान : यहां आराम से बैठिए। कैसे हैं?

Host : Please make yourself comfortable. How are you? प्लीज़ मेक योरसेल्फ़ कम्फ़र्टेबल. हाउ आर यू?

मेहमान : मैं ठीक हूं। आप कैसे हैं।

Guest : I am fine and you? आइ ऐम फ़ाइन ऐंड यू?

मेज़बान : मैं भी ठीक हूं। आपके परिवार में सब कैसे हैं?

Host : I am fine too. How is the family? आइ ऐम फ़ाइन टू. हाउ इज़ द फ़ैमिली.

मेहमान : सभी ठीक हैं। धन्यवाद।

Guest : Everybody is fine. Thank you. एवरीबडी इज़ फ़ाइन. थैंक्यू.

मेज़बान : आपका सफ़र कैसा रहा?

Host : How was the journey? हाउ वॉज़ द जर्नी?

मेहमान : मैं आराम से आया। कोई दिक्कत नहीं हुई।

Guest : It was comfortable. No problems. इट वॉज़ कम्फ़र्टेबल. नो प्रॉब्लम्ज़.

मेज़बान : क्या लेना पसंद करेंगे? चाय या कॉफ़ी?

Host : What would you like to have? Tea or coffee. वॉट वुड यू लाइक टू हैव? टी और कॉफ़ी?

मेहमान : मैं पहले नहाना चाहूंगा।

Guest : I would like to have bath first. आइ वुड लाइक टू हैव बाथ फ़र्स्ट.

मेज़बान : ज़रूर, ज़रूर। आइये आपको बाथरूम दिखा दूं।

Host : Yes, ofcourse. Let me show you the bathroom. येस ऑफ़कोर्स. लेट मी शो यू द बाथरूम.

मेहमान : जी, शुक्रिया।

Guest : Yes, thanks. येस, थैंक्स.

मेज़बान : कुछ चाहिए आपको?

Host : Do you need anything? डू यू नीड एनीथिंग?

मेहमान : जी नहीं।

Guest : No thanks. नो थैंक्स.

(नहाने के बाद)

मेज़बान : नाश्ते में आप क्या पसंद करेंगें?

Host : What would you like to have for breakfast?
वॉट वुड यू लाइक टु हैव फ़ॉर ब्रेकफ़ास्ट?

मेहमान : कुछ भी चलेगा।

Guest : Anything will do. एनीथिंग विल डू.

मेज़बान : आपको आलू के भरवां परांठे पसंद हैं?

Host : Do you like stuffed potato paranthas?
डू यू लाइक स्टफ़्ड पोटेटो परांठाज़?

मेहमान : जी हां, बहुत पसंद हैं।

Guest : Oh yes! I like them very much.
ओ येस! आइ लाइक देम वेरी मच.

मेज़बान : लीजिए।

Host : Here, please help yourself. हिअर, प्लीज़ हेल्प योरसेल्फ़.

मेहमान : धन्यवाद।

Guest : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मेज़बान : दही लीजिएगा?

Host : Do you like curd? डू यू लाइक कर्ड?

मेहमान : जी हां, थोड़ा सा लूंगा।

Guest : Yes, I'll take a little. येस, आइल टेक अ लिटल.

मेज़बान : थोड़ा सा मक्खन भी लीजिए।

Host : Please take some butter. प्लीज़ टेक सम बटर.

मेहमान : जी मैं मक्खन नहीं लेता।

Guest : No thanks, I avoid that. नो थैंक्स, आइ अवॉइड दैट.

मेज़बान : पीने के लिए क्या लेंगे?

Host : What would you like to drink?
वॉट वुड यू लाइक टु ड्रिंक?

मेहमान : जी चाय।

Guest : Tea please. टी प्लीज़.

मेज़बान : चीनी?

Host : Sugar? शुगर?

मेहमान : जी चीनी नहीं।

Guest : No sugar please. नो शुगर प्लीज़.

मेज़बान : क्यों कोई खास बात?

Host : Why, any problems? वाइ, ऐनी प्रॉब्लम्ज़?

मेहमान : जी नहीं, बस थोड़ी सावधानी बरत रहा हूं।

Guest : No, just taking precautions. नो, जस्ट टेकिंग प्रिकॉशन्ज़.

मेज़बान : अच्छी बात है।

Host : That's good. दैट्स गुड.

मेहमान : परांठे बहुत अच्छे बने हैं।

Guest : The paranthas are very good. द परांठाज़ आर वेरी गुड.

मेज़बान : शुक्रिया, एक और लीजिए न।

Host : Thank you, please have one more. थैंक्यू, प्लीज़ हैव वन मोर.

मेहमान : जी बस। धन्यवाद।

Guest : No thanks. I have had enough.
नो थैंक्स. आइ हैव हैड इनफ़.

मेज़बान : तो थोड़ा फल लीजिए।

Host : Take some fruit then. टेक सम फ्रूट देन.

मेहमान : *(सेब लेता है)* जी, शुक्रिया।

Guest : *(takes an apple)* Yes, thanks. येस, थैंक्स.

मेज़बान : दिन में आपका क्या प्रोग्राम है?

Host : What's your programme for the day?
वॉट्स योर प्रोग्राम फ़ॉर द डे?

मेहमान : बस अभी तैयार होकर कुछ काम से निकलूंगा।

Guest : I will get ready now and go out for some work.
आइ विल गेट रेडी नाउ ऐंड गो आउट फ़ॉर सम वर्क.

मेज़बान : किस समय तक वापस आने की उम्मीद है?

Host : What time should we expect you back.
वॉट टाइम शुड वी एक्सपेक्ट यू बैक.

मेहमान : लंच पर तो वापस नहीं आ सकूंगा। पर शाम को सात बजे से पहले आ जाऊंगा।

Guest : I won't be back for lunch. But in the evening, I'll come back before seven. आइ वॉन्ट बी बैक फ़ॉर लंच. बट इन द ईवनिंग, आइल कम बैक बिफ़ोर सेवन.

मेज़बान : डिनर में क्या खाना पसंद करेंगे? मेरा मतलब कोई खास, दाल या सब्जी जो अच्छी लगती हो।

Host : What would you like for dinner? I mean any vegetable or dal you prefer. वॉट वुड यू लाइक फ़ॉर डिनर? आइ मीन ऐनी वेजीटेबल ऑर दाल यू प्रिफ़र.

मेहमान : मुझे सब कुछ पसंद है। कृपया सादा खाना ही बनाइएगा।

Guest : I like everything. Please cook a simple meal.
आइ लाइक एवरीथिंग. प्लीज़ कुक अ सिम्पल मील.

मेज़बान : जी। आपको बस के रास्ते आदि की जानकारी है?

मेहमान : कुछ तो है। पर यदि कोई दिक्कत हुई तो ऑटो ले लूंगा। मेरे ख्याल से अब मुझे तैयार हो जाना चाहिए।

Host : O.K. Are you familiar with the bus routes?
ओ.के. आर यू फ़ैमिलिअर विद द बस रूट्स?

Guest : Yes I know some. But in case of any problem, I will take an auto. I think, I should get ready now. येस आइ नो सम. बट इन केस ऑफ़ ऐनी प्रॉब्लम, आइ विल टेक ऐन ऑटो. आइ थिंक आइ शुड गेट रेडी नाउ.

(शाम को)

मेज़बान : कैसा रहा आपका दिन?

मेहमान : अच्छा था। पर काफ़ी भागदौड़ रही।

मेज़बान : थक गए हैं न?

मेहमान : जी। मैं जल्दी सोऊंगा।

मेज़बान : जी ज़रूर। चलिए पहले खाना खा लें।

Host : How was your day? हाउ वॉज़ योर डे?

Guest : It was good but hectic. इट वॉज़ गुड बट हेक्टिक.

Host : Tired? टायर्ड?

Guest : Yes, I'll go to bed early. येस, आइल गो टु बेड अर्ली.

Host : Yes sure. Let's have dinner first.
येस श्योर. लेट्स हैव डिनर फ़र्स्ट.

(खाने की मेज़ पर)

मेहमान : आपने तो पूरी दावत कर डाली। आपको इतनी सारी चीजें नहीं बनानी चाहिए थीं।

Guest : It's a real feast. You shouldn't have prepared so many dishes. इट्स अ रिअल फ़ीस्ट. यू शुडन्ट हैव प्रिपेअर्ड सो मैनी डिशिज़.

मेज़बान : इतना कुछ नहीं है। लीजिए।

Host : It's nothing much. Please help yourself. इट्स नथिंग मच. प्लीज़ हेल्प योरसेल्फ़.

मेहमान : चिकन देख कर तो भूख लग गई है।

Guest : The chicken looks very appetizing. द चिकन लुक्स वेरी ऐपिटाइज़िंग.

मेज़बान : दाल और सब्ज़ियां भी लीजिए। आपको क्या पसंद है, पूरी या चपाती?

Host : Take the dal and vegetables also. Do you like, puri or chapati? टेक द दाल ऐंड वेजीटेबल्ज़ ऑलसो. डू यू लाइक, पूरी ऑर चपाती?

मेहमान : जी चपाती।

Guest : Chapati please. चपाती प्लीज़.

मेज़बान : चावल?

Host : Rice? राइस?

मेहमान : धन्यवाद, बाद में ले लूंगा। ज़रा नमक पकड़ा देंगे?

Guest : I'll take rice later. Would you pass some salt please? आइल टेक राइस लेटर. वुड यू पास सम साल्ट प्लीज़?

मेज़बान : ये लीजिए। थोड़ा चिकन और लीजिए न।

Host : Here you are. Please have some more chicken. हिअर यू आर. प्लीज़ हैव सम मोर चिकन.

मेहमान : बस थोड़ा ही।

Guest : Just a little please. जस्ट अ लिटल प्लीज़.

मेज़बान : डाइटिंग कर रहे हैं क्या?

Host : Are you dieting. आर यू डाइटिंग?

मेहमान : अरे नहीं, मैंने बहुत खा लिया। खाना वाकई बहुत स्वादिष्ट है।

Guest : Oh no ! Actually, I have eaten very well. The food is really delicious. ओ नो ! ऐक्चुअली, आइ हैव ईटन वेरी वेल. द फ़ूड इज़ रिअली डिलिश्यस.

मेज़बान : धन्यवाद, मीठा लीजिए।

Host : Thank you, Take the dessert. थैंक्यू, टेक द डिज़र्ट.

मेहमान : यह क्या है।

Guest : What is it? वॉट इज़ इट?

मेज़बान : खीर।

Host : Kheer. खीर.

मेहमान : खीर तो मेरी कमज़ोरी है।

Guest : Kheer is my weakness. खीर इज़ माइ वीकनेस.

मेज़बान : इतनी थोड़ी क्यों? और लीजिए न।

Host : Why so little? Take some more. वाइ सो लिटल? टेक सम मोर.

मेहमान : जी बस, मेरा पेट वाकई भर गया है।

Guest : No thanks, I am really full. नो थैंक्स, आइ ऐम रिअली फ़ुल.

मेज़बान : थोड़ी चाय या कॉफ़ी लेंगे?

Host : Would you like some tea or coffee? वुड यू लाइक सम टी ऑर कॉफ़ी?

मेहमान : जी नहीं। रात को नहीं लेता। नहीं तो सो नहीं सकूंगा।

Guest : No, I avoid that at night. I won't be able to sleep then. नो आइ अवॉयड दैट ऐट नाइट. आइ वॉन्ट बी एबल टु स्लीप देन.

मेज़बान : ठीक। अगर आराम करना चाहें, तो आपका बिस्तर तैयार है।

Host : O.K. Your bed is ready in case you want to rest now. ओ.के. योर बेड इज़ रेडी इन केस यू वॉन्ट टु रेस्ट नाउ.

मेहमान : जी थोड़ी देर में।

Guest : Yes, after a short while. येस, आफ़्टर अ शॉर्ट वाइल.

(सोने से पहले)

मेज़बान : किसी चीज की ज़रूरत तो नहीं?

Host : Do you need anything? डू यू नीड ऐनीथिंग?

मेहमान : जी नहीं, धन्यवाद।

Guest : Nothing, thanks. नथिंग, थैंक्स.

मेज़बान : ठीक है, आराम कीजिए। गुड नाइट.

Host : Alright, please take rest then. Goodnight. ऑलराइट, प्लीज़ टेक रेस्ट देन. गुड नाइट.

जन्मदिन की पार्टी — A Birthday Party (अ बर्थडे पार्टी)

(सुधीर और माधुरी अपनी बेटी ऋतु का जन्मदिन मना रहे हैं। मि. और मिसिज़ राव अपनी बेटी मिनि के साथ आते हैं।)

मिनि : *(उपहार देते हुए)* जन्मदिन मुबारक हो ऋतु!

Mini : *(Giving the Gift)* Happy Birthday Ritu! हैपी बर्थडे ऋतु!

ऋतु : थैंक्यू मिनी।

Ritu : Thank you Mini. थैंक्यू मिनि.

मिसिज़ राव : भगवान करे, यह दिन बार-बार खुशियां लाए.

Mrs. Rao : Many happy returns of the day Ritu. मेनी हैपी रिटर्न्ज़ ऑफ़ द डे ऋतु.

ऋतु : थैंक्यू आंटी।

Ritu : Thank you auntie. थैंक्यू आंटी.

मि. राव : *(सुधीर से)* बधाई हो।

Mr. Rao : *(To Sudhir)* Congratulations. कौंग्रैच्युलेशंज़.

सुधीर : बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद, आइये बैठिए।

Sudhir : Thank you very much, please be seated. थैंक्यू वेरी मच, प्लीज़ बी सीटिड.

(दूसरे मेहमान और बच्चे आते हैं तथा ऋतु और उसके माता-पिता को बधाई देते हैं।)

माधुरी : *(मेहमानों से)* प्लीज़ कुछ ठंडा लीजिए।

Madhuri : *(to the guests)* Please have cold drinks. प्लीज़ हैव कोल्ड ड्रिंक्स.

ऋतु : पापा मेरे सारे दोस्त आ गये। क्या मैं अब केक काट लूं?

Ritu : Papa, all my friends have come. Can I cut the cake now? पापा, ऑल माइ फ्रेंड्ज़ हैव कम. कैन आइ कट द केक नाउ?

सुधीर : ठीक है। अपनी मम्मी और सभी मेहमानों को मेज़ के पास बुलाओ।

Sudhir : All right. Call your Mummy and all the guests to the table. ऑल राइट. कॉल योर मम्मी ऐंड ऑल द गेस्ट्स टु द टेबल.

ऋतु : सभी लोग प्लीज़ टेबल के पास आइये।

Ritu : Everybody, please come to the table. एवरीबडी, प्लीज़ कम टु द टेबल.

माधुरी : ऋतु आओ, ये चाकू लो और केक काटो।

Madhuri : Ritu come here, take this knife and cut the cake. ऋतु कम हिअर, टेक दिस नाइफ़ ऐंड कट द केक.

(ऋतु केक काटती है, सभी ताली बजाते हैं, और 'हैपी बर्थडे टु यू' गाते हैं।)

सुधीर : बहुत अच्छे, अब ये खाओ।

Sudhir : Very good, now eat this. वेरी गुड, नाउ ईट दिस.

माधुरी : ऋतु, लो ये केक के टुकड़े सभी में बांट दो।

Madhuri : Ritu give these cake pieces to everybody. ऋतु गिव दीज़ केक पीसिज़ टु एवरीबडी.

ऋतु : पापा अब हम खेल खेलेंगे।

Ritu : Papa I want to play games now. पापा आइ वॉन्ट टु प्ले गेम्ज़ नाउ.

सुधीर : कौन से खेल खेलना चाहती हो?

Sudhir : What games do you want to play? वॉट गेम्ज़ डू यू वॉन्ट टु प्ले?

ऋतु : पास द पासर्ल और म्यूज़िकल चेयर्ज़।

Ritu : Pass the parcel and musical chairs. पास द पार्सल ऐंड म्यूज़िकल चेअर्ज़.

सुधीर : ठीक है चलो।

Sudhir : All right. Let's go. ऑल राइट. लेट्स गो.

माधुरी : मैं तब तक खाना लगाती हूं।

Madhuri : I will lay the table in the meanwhile. आइ विल ले द टेबल इन द मीनवाइल.

माधुरी : ऋतु आओ। अपने दोस्तों को खाने के लिए बुलाओ। *(मेहमानों से)* प्लीज़ खाने के लिए आइये।

Madhuri : Ritu come. Call your friends for food now. ऋतु कम. कॉल योर फ्रेंड्ज़ फ़ॉर फ़ूड नाउ. *(To other guests)* Please come for food. प्लीज़ कम फ़ॉर फ़ूड.

(ऋतु और दूसरे बच्चे भागते हुए आते हैं।)

ऋतु : मम्मी बड़ा मज़ा आया।

Ritu : Mummy, we had a lot of fun. मम्मी, वी हैड अ लॉट ऑफ़ फ़न.

मिनी : *(मां से)* मम्मी मुझे पास द पार्सल में फ़र्स्ट प्राइज़ मिला।

Mini : *(to her mother)* Mummy I won the first prize in Pass the Parcel. मम्मी, आइ वन द फ़र्स्ट प्राइज़ इन पास द पार्सल.

दूसरा बच्चा : मुझे म्यूज़िकल चेअर्ज़ में फ़र्स्ट प्राइज़ मिला।

Another child : I won the first prize in the Musical Chairs. आइ वन द फ़र्स्ट प्राइज़ इन द म्यूज़िकल चेअर्ज़.

माधुरी : भई वाह! आओ अब कुछ खा लो।

Madhuri : Wonderful! Come and eat something now. वंडरफ़ुल! कम ऐंड ईट समथिंग नाउ.

मिसिज़ कंवर : माधुरी ये रसगुल्ले बहुत बढ़िया हैं। कहां से मंगवाये?

Mrs. Kanwar : Madhuri, these Rasgullas are very nice. Where did you buy them from? माधुरी, दीज़ रसगुल्लाज़ आर वेरी नाइस. वेअर डिड यू बाइ देम फ्रॉम?

माधुरी : सुंदर स्वीट्स से।

Madhuri : From Sunder sweets. फ्रॉम सुंदर स्वीट्स.

मिसिज़ शर्मा : तुम्हारे सैंडविचिज़ भी बहुत टेस्टी बने हैं।

Mrs. Sharma : Your sandwitches are also very tasty. योर सैंडविचिज़ आर ऑल्सो वेरी टेस्टी.

माधुरी : थैंक्यू और लीजिए न।

Madhuri : Thank you, please have some more. थैंक्यू, प्लीज़ हैव सम मोर.

(पार्टी के बाद)

मि. शर्मा : थैंक्यू सुधीर, बहुत मज़ा आया। अच्छा बाइ।

Mrs. Sharma : Thank you Sudhir. We really enjoyed ourselves. O.K. bye. थैंक्यू सुधीर. वी रिअली एन्जॉयड आवरसेल्व्ज़. ओ.के. बाइ.

सुधीर : आने के लिए धन्यवाद मि. शर्मा। बाइ।

Sudhir : Thank you for coming Mr. Sharma. Bye.
थैंक्यू फ़ॉर कमिंग मि. शर्मा. बाइ.

मिनी : ऋतु तुम्हारी पार्टी बहुत अच्छी थी। बाइ।

Mini : Ritu, your party was very nice. Bye.
ऋतु, योर पार्टी वॉज़ वेरी नाइस. बाइ.

ऋतु : थैंक्यू मिनी, बाइ।

Ritu : Thank you Mini. Bye. थैंक्यू मिनि, बाइ.

ऋतु : मम्मी, क्या अब मैं अपने उपहार खोल कर देख सकती हूं?

Ritu : Mummy, can I open my gifts now?
मम्मी, कैन आइ ओपन माइ गिफ़्ट्स नाउ?

माधुरी : हां, खोल लो।

Madhuri : Yes, you can. येस, यू कैन.

ऋतु : चलिए पापा, हम उपहार खोलें।

Ritu : Come papa, let's open the gifts.
कम पापा, लेट्स ओपन द गिफ़्ट्स.

बस स्टॉप पर

एक आदमी : *(दूसरे से)* ज़रा सुनिए, दिल्ली गेट के लिए बस कहां से मिलेगी?

दूसरा आदमी : यहीं इंतज़ार कीजिए। आपको इसी बस स्टॉप से बस मिलेगी।

पहला आदमी : धन्यवाद. दिल्ली गेट पहुंचने में कितना समय लगता है?

दूसरा आदमी : करीब 15 मिनट।

पहला आदमी : अगली बस कितनी देर में आयेगी?

दूसरा आदमी : कहना मुश्किल है। 5 मिनट में भी आ सकती और हो सकता है 25 मिनट में भी न आये।

पहला आदमी : दिल्ली में बसों से सफ़र करनेवालों की हालत बहुत खराब है।

दूसरा आदमी : आप ठीक कहते हैं। यहां तो कोई भी ट्रैफ़िक के नियमों का पालन नहीं करता। बसों से सफ़र करना दिन पर दिन मुश्किल होता जा रहा है।

पहला आदमी : पर आम लोगों के पास और कोई रास्ता भी तो नहीं है।

दूसरा आदमी : जी हां, मजबूरी है। हालांकि पिछले सालों में बसों की संख्या बढ़ी है। यात्रियों की संख्या उससे कहीं ज़्यादा बढ़ गई है।

पहला आदमी : सड़क दुर्घटनाएं भी बढ़ती जा रही हैं।

दूसरा आदमी : सभी अंधाधुंध गाड़ी चलाते हैं। बड़े शहरों में सड़कों पर जीवन बहुत असुरक्षित हो गया है।

पहला आदमी : वाकई। एक बस आ रही है। क्या ये दिल्ली गेट जाएगी?

दूसरा आदमी : हां जाएगी। ज़ल्दी से चढ़ जाइए।

At the Bus Stop (ऐट द बस स्टॉप)

A man : *(to another)* Excuse me. Where can I get a bus to Delhi Gate? एक्सक्यूज़ मी. वेअर कैन आइ गेट अ बस टु डेल्ही गेट?

Second Man : Wait here. Many buses from here go to Delhi Gate. वेट हिअर. मेनी बसिज़ फ्रॉम हिअर गो टु डेल्ही गेट.

First Man : Thank you. How long does it take to reach Delhi Gate? थैंक्यू, हाउ लौंग डज़ इट टेक टु रीच डेल्ही गेट?

Second Man : About 15 minutes. अबाउट फ़िफ़्टीन मिनट्स.

First Man : When will the next bus come? वेन विल द नेक्स्ट बस कम?

Second Man : Difficult to say. It may come in five minutes or it may not come for another twenty five minutes. डिफ़िकल्ट टु से. इट मे कम इन फ़ाइव मिनट्स ऑर इट मे नॉट कम फ़ॉर अनदर ट्वेन्टी फ़ाइव मिनट्स.

First Man : The condition of bus passengers in Delhi is very bad. द कंडीशन ऑफ़ बस पैसेन्जर्स इन डेल्ही इज़ वेरी बैड.

Second Man : You are right. Here nobody cares for the traffic rules. Travelling by buses is getting harder day by day. यू आर राइट. हिअर नोबडी केअर्ज़ फ़ॉर द ट्रैफ़िक रूल्ज़. ट्रैवलिंग बाइ बसिज़ इज़ गेटिंग हार्डर डे बाइ डे.

First Man : Yes, but common people have no other alternative. येस, बट कॉमन पीपल हैव नो अदर ऑल्टरनेटिव.

Second Man : Yes, we are helpless. Although the number of buses has increased in the past years. The number of passengers has increased far more. येस, वी आर हेल्पलेस. ऑलदो द नम्बर ऑफ़ बसिज़ हैज़ इनक्रीज़्ड इन द पास्ट ईयर्ज़. द नम्बर ऑफ़ पैसेंजर्स हैज़ इन्क्रीज़्ड फ़ार मोर.

First Man : Road accidents are on the increase too. रोड एक्सीडेंट्स आर ऑन द इनक्रीज़ टू.

Second Man : Everybody drives carelessly. Life is really insecure on the roads in big cities. एवरीबडी ड्राइव्ज़ केअर-लेसली. लाइफ़ इज़ रिअली इनसिक्योर ऑन द रोड्स इन बिग सिटीज़.

First Man : Yes, that's true. A bus is coming. Will it go to Delhi Gate? येस, दैट्स टू. अ बस इज़ कमिंग. विल इट गो टूडेल्ही गेट?

Second Man : Yes it will. Get in quickly. येस इट विल. गेट इन क्विकली.

रेलवे स्टेशन पर — At the Railway Station (ऐट द रेलवे स्टेशन)

यात्री : दिल्ली मेल कब आती है जी?

Passenger : When does the Delhi mail come?
वेन डज़ द डेल्ही मेल कम?

क्लर्क : सात बजे।

Clerk : At seven O'clock. ऐट सेवन ओ क्लॉक.

यात्री : दिल्ली के लिए कब चलती है?

Passenger : When does it leave for Delhi?
वेन डज़ इट लीव फ़ॉर डेल्ही?

क्लर्क : साढ़े सात बजे.

Clerk : At seven thirty. ऐट सेवन थर्टी.

यात्री : किस प्लैटफ़ॉर्म से?

Passenger : From which platform please?
फ्रॉम विच प्लैटफ़ॉर्म प्लीज़?

क्लर्क : प्लैटफ़ॉर्म नम्बर चार।

Clerk : Platform number 4. प्लैटफ़ॉर्म नम्बर 4.

यात्री : जी टिकिट कहां से मिलेगी?

Passenger : From where can I buy the ticket please?
फ्रॉम वेअर कैन आइ बाइ द टिकिट प्लीज़?

क्लर्क : खिड़की नम्बर तीन से।

Clerk : From window number 3. फ्रॉम विंडो नम्बर 3.

यात्री : धन्यवाद।

Passenger : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

टिकिट खिड़की पर — At the ticket window (ऐट द टिकिट विंडो)

यात्री : दिल्ली का एक टिकिट दे दीजिए।

Passenger : A ticket to Delhi please. अ टिकिट टु डेल्ही प्लीज़.

क्लर्क : किस क्लास का? कौन सी गाड़ी?

Clerk : Which class? What train? विच क्लास? वॉट ट्रेन?

यात्री : सेकंड क्लास, दिल्ली मेल। कितना?

Passenger : Second class, Delhi mail. How much?
सेकंड क्लास, डेल्ही मेल. हाउ मच?

क्लर्क : नब्बे रुपये।

Clerk : Ninety rupees. नाइंटी रुपीज़.

यात्री : थैंक्यू।

Passenger : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

प्लेटफ़ॉर्म पर — At the Platform (ऐट द प्लैटफ़ार्म)

पहला यात्री : *(दूसरे से)* क्या समय हुआ है?

Passenger : *(to another)* What is the time please?
वॉट इज़ द टाइम प्लीज़?

दूसरा यात्री : छः पैंतालिस.

Second Passenger : 6:45. सिक्स फ़ोर्टी फ़ाइव.

पहला यात्री : पंद्रह मिनट रहते हैं। गाड़ी समय पर आ रही है न?

First Passenger : Fifteen minutes left. Is the train on-time?
फ़िफ़्टीन मिनट्स लेफ़्ट. इज़ द ट्रेन ऑन-टाइम?

दूसरा यात्री : मेरे ख्याल से तो आनी चाहिए. देरी की घोषणा तो नहीं हुई है।

Second Passenger : I think so. They haven't announced any delay. आइ थिंक सो. दे हैवन्ट अनाउन्स्ड ऐनी डिले.

पहला यात्री : ये दिल्ली कब पहुंचती है?

First Passenger : What time does it reach Delhi?
वॉट टाइम डज़ इट रीच डेल्ही?

दूसरा यात्री : सुबह साढ़े पांच बजे, यदि समय से पहुंचे तो। पिछली बार छः घंटे लेट हो गई थी।

Second Passenger : 5.30 in the morning, if it is on-time. Last time it was six hours late. फ़ाइव थर्टी इन द मॉर्निंग इफ़ इट इज़ ऑन-टाइम. लास्ट टाइम इट वॉज़ सिक्स आवर्ज़ लेट.

पहला यात्री : हां पक्का तो कुछ भी नहीं है।

First Passenger : Yes you can never be sure.
येस यू कैन नेवर बी श्योर.

दूसरा यात्री : क्या आप ज़रा मेरे सामान पर नज़र रखेंगे? मैं जल्दी से सफ़र में टाइम पास करने के लिए एक मैगज़ीन ले कर आता हूं।

Second Passenger : Could you please keep an eye on my luggage? I 'll soon be back with a magazine to pass time in the journey. कुड यू प्लीज़ कीप ऐन आइ ऑन माइ लगेज? आइल सून बी बैक विद अ मैगज़ीन टु पास टाइम इन द जर्नी.

पहला यात्री : जी हां, कोई बात नहीं।

First Passenger : Yes, no problem. येस, नो प्रॉब्लम.

पार्टी में — In a Party (इन अ पार्टी)

(मिस्टर और मिसिज़ मेहता के बेटे रोहित के विवाह की रिसेप्शन पार्टी है। मिस्टर और मिसिज़ मेहता मेहमानों का स्वागत करते हैं।)

एक मेहमान : बधाई हो।

A guest : Congratulations. कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़.

मि. मेहता : धन्यवाद, आइये स्वागत है।

Mr. Mehta : Thank you and welcome. थैंक्यू ऐंड वेल्कम.

दूसरा मेहमान : नये दूल्हा-दुल्हन कहां हैं?

Another guest : Where are the newly weds?
वेअर आर द न्यूली वेड्ज़?

मिसिज़ मेहता : अंदर हॉल में।

Mrs. Mehta : There in the hall. देअर इन द हॉल.

एक महिला : बधाई हो रोहित, तुम्हारी दुल्हन तो वाकई बहुत प्यारी है।

A lady : Congratulations Rohit. Your bride is really lovely.
कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़ रोहित. योर ब्राइड इज़ रिअली लवली.

रोहित : थैंक्यू आंटी।

Rohit : Thank you auntie. थैंक्यू आंटी.

(मेहमान आपस में बात करते हैं।)

मि. मेहरा : हलो मि. शर्मा कैसे हैं?

Mr. Mehra : Hello, Mr. Sharma. How are you?
हलो मिस्टर शर्मा. हाउ आर यू?

मि. शर्मा : मैं ठीक हूं। थैंक्यू मि. मेहरा। आप कैसे हैं?

Mr. Sharma : Fine thank you Mr. Mehra, and you?
फ़ाइन थैंक्यू मिस्टर मेहरा, ऐंड यू?

मि. मेहरा : ठीक हूं। मिसिज़ शर्मा कहां हैं?

Mr. Mehra : Fine. Where is Mrs. Sharma?
फ़ाइन. वेअर इज़ मिसिज़ शर्मा?

मि. शर्मा : वे यहां नहीं हैं। चंडीगढ़ अपनी बहन की शादी में गई हैं। मैं भी आज रात को जा रहा हूं।

Mr. Sharma : She isn't in town. She has gone to Chandigarh to attend her sister's wedding. Even I am leaving tonight.
शी इज़न्ट इन टाउन. शी हैज़ गॉन टु चंडीगढ़ टु अटेंड हर सिस्टर्ज़ वेडिंग. ईवन आइ ऐम लीविंग टुनाइट.

मि. मेहरा : अच्छा अच्छा। हां, इन दिनों काफ़ी शादियां हो रही हैं।

Mr. Mehra : Oh I see. Yes, this is the marriage season.
ओह आइ सी. येस, दिस इज़ द मैरिज सीज़न.

मीना : हलो दीपा बहुत दिनों से नहीं दिखाई दीं?

Meena : Hello Deepa. Long time no see.
हलो दीपा. लौंग टाइम नो सी.

दीपा : वाकई बहुत दिन हो गए। कैसी हो?

Deepa : Long time really. How are you?
लौंग टाइम रिअली. हाउ आर यू?

मीना : ठीक हूं। समीर और बच्चे कहां है?

Meena : Fine. Where are Sameer and children?
फ़ाइन. वेअर आर समीर ऐंड चिल्ड्रन?

दीपा : समीर यहीं हैं पर बच्चों की परीक्षाएं हैं। इसलिए वे घर पर हैं।

Deepa : Sameer is around but the children are having their exams. So they are at home. समीर इज़ अराउंड बट द चिल्ड्रन आर हैविंग देअर एग्ज़ैम्ज़. सो दे आर ऐट होम.

मीना : ओह अच्छा! परीक्षाएं कब खत्म होंगी?

Meena : Oh I see! When will the exams be over?
ओह आइ सी! वेन विल द इग्ज़ैम्ज़ बी ओवर?

दीपा : इक्कीस तारीख को। तुम्हारा बेटा सुमित कैसा है? हॉस्टल में मन लग गया उसका?

Deepa : On the twenty first. How is your son Sumit? Has he adjusted in the hostel? ऑन द ट्वेन्टी फ़र्स्ट. हाउ इज़ योर सन सुमित? हैज़ ही ऐडजस्टिड इन द हॉस्टल?

मीना : हां बहुत अच्छी तरह से। पर कभी-कभी घर को याद करता है। मुझे भी उसकी बहुत याद आती है।

Meena : Yes he has adjusted very well. But he feels a little homesick at times. I too miss him very much. येस ही हैज़ एडजस्टिड वेरी वेल. बट ही फ़ील्ज़ अ लिटल होमसिक ऐट टाइम्ज़. आइ टू मिस हिम वेरी मच.

दीपा : वह तो स्वाभाविक है।

Deepa : That's but natural. दैट्स बट नैचुरल.

एक महिला : हलो दीपा।

A Lady : Hello Deepa. हलो दीपा.

दीपा : हाइ सीमा। कैसी हो? आओ मीना प्रसाद से मिलो। और मीना, ये सीमा अग्रवाल है।

Deepa : Hi Seema. How are you? Here, meet Meena Prasad. And Meena, this is Seema Aggrawal. हाइ सीमा. हाउ आर यू? हिअर, मीट मीना प्रसाद. ऐंड मीना, दिस इज़ सीमा अग्रवाल.

मीना : हलो।

Meena : Hello. हलो.

सीमा : हलो।

Seema : Hello. हलो.

दीपा : *(सीमा से)* बहुत सुंदर नेकलेस है। नया है?

Deepa : *(to Seema)* Beautiful necklace! Is it new?
ब्यूटिफ़ुल नेकलेस! इज़ इट न्यू?

सीमा : हां, मेरी मां ने दिया था।

Seema : Yes, my mother gave it to me.
येस, माइ मदर गेव इट टु मी.

मीना : आओ बैठते हैं।

Meena : Come, let us sit down. कम, लेट अस सिट डाउन.

दीपा : हां चलो।

Seema : Yes, let's go. येस, लेट्स गो.

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : *(बेयरे से)* मुझे ज़ुकाम है। कोई गर्म चीज़ है क्या? जैसे कोई सूप?

Mrs. Saxena : *(to the waiter)* I have a cold. Is there some thing hot? Some soup? आइ हैव अ कोल्ड. इज़ देअर समथिंग हॉट? सम सूप?

वेटर : जी मैडम, मैं आपके लिए सूप लाता हूं।

The waiter : Yes madam, I'll get soup for you.
येस मैडम, आइल गेट सूप फ़ॉर यू.

मि. राय : और साहनी बिज़नेस कैसा चल रहा है?

Mr. Rai : So Sahni, how is business?
सो साहनी, हाउ इज़ बिज़नेस?

मि. साहनी : बस ठीक-ठीक।

Mr. Sahni : Well, so-so. वेल सो-सो.

मि. राय : बाज़ार में बड़ा सख्त कॉम्पटीशन है।

Mr. Rai : There is a cut throat competition in the market.
देअर इज़ अ कट थ्रोट कॉम्पटीशन इन द मार्किट.

मि. साहनी : हां, कई नई-नई चीज़ें आ गई हैं। पर अच्छी क्वॉलिटी की चीज़ अभी भी बिकती है।

Mr. Rai : Yes, many new products have been launched. But quality still sells. येस, मेनी न्यू प्रोडक्ट्स हैव बीन लौंच्ड. बट क्वॉलिटी स्टिल सेल्ज़.

मि. राय : जी हां, बेशक।

Mr. Rai : Yes, ofcourse. येस, ऑफ़कोर्स.

मि. शर्मा : मि. मेहता का बेटा क्या करता है।

Mr. Sharma : What does Mr. Mehta's son do?
वॉट डज़ मि. मेहताज़ सन डू?

मि. राय : चार्टर्ड अकाउंटेंट है।

Mr. Rai : He is a Chartered Accountant.
ही इज़ अ चार्टर्ड अकाउंटेंट.

मि. शर्मा : काम कहां करता है?

Mr. Sharma : Where does he work? वेअर डज़ ही वर्क?

मि. राय : मेरे ख्याल से नवल इंडस्ट्रीज़ में।

Mr. Rai : In Naval Industries, I think.
इन नवल इंडस्ट्रीज़, आइ थिंक.

मि. शर्मा : अच्छा! लड़का वाकई होशियार है।

Mr. Sharma : I see. The boy is really bright.
आइ सी. द बॉय इज़ रिअली ब्राइट.

मि. मेहता : *(मेहमानों से)* आप लोग एन्जॉय तो कर रहे हैं न? कुछ ड्रिंक्स, स्नैक्स वगैरह और लीजिए न।

Mr Mehta : *(to the guests)* Hope you are enjoying yourselves. Please have some more drinks and snacks. होप यू आर एन्जॉइंग योरसेल्व्ज़. प्लीज़ हैव सम मोर ड्रिंक्स ऐंड स्नैक्स?

मि. साहनी : शुक्रिया, हम लोगों ने काफी खाया है। आपका इंतज़ाम बहुत बढ़िया है।

Mr. Sahni : Thank you, we have had enough. The arrangement is very good. थैंक्यू, वी. हैव हैड इनफ़. द अरेंजमेंट इज़ वेरी गुड.

मिसिज़ मेहता : शुक्रिया, देखिए खाना खाये बिना कोई मत जाइयेगा।

Mrs. Mehta : Thank you very much. Nobody should go without having food please. थैंक्यू वेरी मच. नोबडी शुड गो विदाउट हैविंग फ़ूड प्लीज़.

(खाना खाते समय)

मि. खन्ना : खाना बहुत अच्छा है। खास तौर पर नॉनवेज तो कमाल का है। जाने केटरर्ज़ कौन से हैं?

Mr. Khanna : The food is very nice. Specially the nonveg. is superb. I wonder who are the caterers? द फ़ूड इज़ वेरी नाइस. स्पेश्यली द नॉनवेज इज़ सुपर्ब. आइ वंडर हू आर द केटरर्ज़?

मि. राय : मैं मि. मेहता से पूछूंगा। मैं अपनी बेटी की शादी में इन्हीं केटरर्ज़ को बुलाऊंगा।

Mr. Rai : I will ask Mr. Mehta. I would like to engage the same caterers for my daughter's wedding. आइ विल आस्क मि. मेहता. आइ वुड लाइक टु इंगेज द सेम केटरर्ज़ फ़ॉर माइ डॉटर्ज़ वेडिंग.

मिसिज़ मेहरा : शादी कब है?

Mrs. Mehra : When is the marriage? वेन इज़ द मैरिज?

मि. राय : पच्चीस मार्च की।

Mr. Rai : On the 25th of March. ऑन द ट्वेन्टी फ़िफ़्थ ऑफ़ मार्च.

मि. मेहरा : अभी तो काफी समय है।

Mr. Mehra : There is still enough time.
देअर इज़ स्टिल इनफ़ टाइम.

मि. राय : हां है तो। पर ये लोग काफ़ी पहले से बुक हो जाते हैं।

Mr. Rai : Yes, but these people are booked heavily in advance. येस, बट दीज़ पीपल आर बुक्ड हेविली इन एडवान्स.

मि. खन्ना : अच्छा मि. मेहता। एक बार फिर से मुबारक हो। बहुत मज़ा आया।

Mr. Khanna : O.K. Mr. Mehta congratulations once again. We had a wonderful time. ओ.के. मि. मेहता कौंग्रैच्युलेशन्ज़ वन्स अगेन. वी हैड अ वन्डरफ़ुल टाइम.

मि. मेहता : शुक्रिया।

Mr. Mehta : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ मेहता : *(मिसिज़ खन्ना से)* खाना खाया आपने?

Mrs. Mehta : *(to Mrs. Khanna)* Did you have food?
डिड यू हैव फ़ूड?

मिसिज़ खन्ना : जी हां, बहुत बढ़िया खाना था।

Mrs. Khanna : Oh yes, it was delicious!
ओह येस, इट वाज़ डिलीश्यस!

मि. राय : अच्छा मि. मेहता। बाइ, गुडनाइट।

Mr. Rai : O.K. Mr. Mehta. Bye,Goodnight.
ओ.के. मि. मेहता. बाइ गुडनाइट.

मि. मेहता : बाइ, गुडनाइट।

Mr. Mehta : Bye, Goodnight. बाइ, गुडनाइट.

टेलीफ़ोन पर बातचीत

Talking on the Phone (टॉकिंग ऑन द फ़ोन)

(घर पर)

मोना : हलो, 7109212 से बोल रही हैं?

Mona : Hello, is that 7109212?
हलो, इज़ दैट सेवन वन ज़ीरो नाइन टू वन टू?

रोमा : जी हां।

Roma : Yes. येस.

मोना : ज़रा नेहा से बात करा दीजिए।

Mona : May I speak to Neha please? मे आइ स्पीक टु नेहा प्लीज़?

रोमा : नेहा तो घर पर नहीं है। आप कौन बोल रही हैं?

Roma : Neha isn't around. Who is speaking please?
नेहा इज़न्ट अराउंड. हू इज़ स्पीकिंग प्लीज़?

मोना : मोना सेठ।

Mona : Mona Seth. मोना सेठ.

रोमा : मोना, मैं नेहा की बहन रोमा बोल रही हूं। नेहा मम्मी के साथ शॉपिंग के लिए गई है। कोई मैसिज़ है क्या?

Roma : Mona, I am Roma, Neha's sister. Neha is out shopping with mummy. Can I take a message for her? मोना, आइ एम रोमा, नेहाज़ सिस्टर. नेहा इज़ आउट शॉपिंग विद ममी. कैन आइ टेक अ मैसिज फ़ॉर हर?

मोना : जैसे ही वह आये उससे कहना कि मुझसे बात कर ले।

Mona : Could you please ask her to call me as soon as she is back? कुड यू प्लीज़ आस्क हर टु कॉल मी एज़ सून एज़ शी इज़ बैक?

रोमा : ठीक है। उसके पास तुम्हारा नम्बर है?

Roma : O.K. does she have your number?
ओ.के. डज़ शी हैव योर नम्बर?

मोना : ज़रा लिख लेना। मैं अपने अंकल के यहां से बोल रही हूं।

Mona : Please note it down. I am calling from my uncle's house. प्लीज़ नोट इट डाउन. आइ एम कॉलिंग फ्रॉम माइ अंकल्ज़ हाउस.

रोमा : एक मिनट, हां बोलो।

Roma : Just a moment, yes please. जस्ट अ मोमन्ट, येस प्लीज़.

मोना : 6821515.

Mona : It is 6821515. इट इज़ सिक्स एट टू वन फ़ाइव वन फ़ाइव.

रोमा : 6821515 ठीक है न?

Roma : 6821515 is that right? 6821515 इज़ दैट राइट?

मोना : हां थैंक्यू रोमा, बाइ।

Mona : Yes thank you Roma, bye. येस थैंक्यू रोमा, बाइ.

(2)

रोमेश : हलो, 2241291 से?

Romesh : Hello, is that 2241291?
हलो, इज़ दैट डबल टू फ़ोर वन टू नाइन वन?

सचिन : जी हां, आप कौन बोल रहे हैं?

Sachin : Yes, Who is speaking please?
येस, हू इज़ स्पीकिंग प्लीज़?

रोमेश : रोमेश। ज़रा सचिन से बात करा दीजिए।

Romesh : Romesh. Can I speak to Sachin please?
रोमेश. कैन आइ स्पीक टु सचिन प्लीज़?

सचिन : हाइ रोमेश, सचिन बोल रहा हूं।

Sachin : Hi Romesh, Sachin here. हाइ रोमेश, सचिन हिअर.

रोमेश : हाइ सचिन, क्या हो रहा है?

Romesh : Hi Sachin, what's up? हाइ सचिन, वॉट्स अप?

सचिन : कुछ खास नहीं, बस बोर हो रहा हूं।

Sachin : Nothing much, just getting bored.
नथिंग मच, जस्ट गेटिंग बोर्ड.

रोमेश : मूवी देखने के बारे में क्या ख्याल है?

Romesh : What about going to a movie?
वॉट अबाउट गोइंग टु अ मूवी?

सचिन : ख्याल तो बुरा नहीं। कौन सी?

Sachin : Not a bad idea. Which one?
नॉट अ बैड आइडिआ. विच वन?

रोमेश : प्रिया पर एक नई इंग्लिश मूवी लगी है। उसे देख सकते हैं।

Romesh : There is a new English movie at Priya. We can see that. देअर इज़ अ न्यू इंग्लिश मूवी ऐट प्रिया. वी कैन सी दैट.

सचिन : पर टिकटें?

Sachin : But what about the tickets? बट वॉट अबाउट द टिकिट्स?

रोमेश : उसकी फ़िक्र मत करो। आज दोपहर के शो की टिकटें मैं मंगवा लूंगा।

Romesh : Don't worry about that. I'll get the tickets for the afternoon show. डोंट वरी अबाउट दैट. आइल गेट द टिकिट्स फ़ॉर द आफ़्टरनून शो.

सचिन : भई वाह! तो फिर मैं तुम्हें कहां मिलूं?

Sachin : Great! Where should I meet you then?
ग्रेट! वेअर शुड आइ मीट यू देन?

रोमेश : लॉबी में, पूरे 3 बजे।

Romesh : In the lobby, at 3 O'clock sharp.
इन द लॉबी, ऐट थ्री ओ क्लॉक शार्प.

सचिन : पक्का, मैं समय से पहुंच जाऊंगा।

Sachin : Sure, I'll be there on time.
श्योर, आइल बी देअर ऑन टाइम.

रोमेश : फिर मिलते हैं, बाइ।

Romesh : See you then, bye. सी यू देन, बाइ.

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(विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़ ऑफ़िस फ़ोन की घंटी बजती है। ऑपरेटर उठाती है।)

एक आदमी : हलो, प्राइम इंटर्नेशनल से बोल रहे हैं?

Caller : Hello, is that Prime International?
हलो, इज़ दैट प्राइम इंटर्नेशनल?

ऑपरेटर : सॉरी, गलत नम्बर है।

Operator : Sorry, wrong number. सॉरी, रौंग नम्बर.

(इंटरकॉम पर मटीरियल्ज़ मैनेजर मि. साहनी)

मि. साहनी : हलो नीना।

Mr. Sahni : Hello Nina. हलो नीना.

ऑपरेटर : जी सर?

Operator : Yes sir? येस सर?

मि. साहनी : ज़रा जयभारत केमिकल्ज़ मिलाना। मुझे मार्केटिंग मैनेजर, संजीव गुप्ता से बात करनी है।

Mr. Sahni : Please get me Jai Bharat Chemicals. I want to speak to the Marketing Manager Sanjeev Gupta. प्लीज़ गेट मी जय भारत केमिकल्ज़. आइ वॉन्ट टु स्पीक टु द मार्केटिंग मैनेजर संजीव गुप्ता।

ऑपरेटर : हलो, जयभारत केमिकल्ज़ से बोल रहे हैं?

Operator : Hello, is that Jai Bharat Chemicals? हलो, इज़ दैट जय भारत केमिकल्ज़?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जी हां।

Receptionist : Yes please. येस प्लीज.

ऑपरेटर : जरा मार्केटिंग मैनेजर मिस्टर संजीव गुप्ता से बात करा दीजिए।

Operator : Can I speak to Mr. Sanjeev Gupta the Marketing Manager please? कैन आइ स्पीक टु मिस्टर संजीव गुप्ता द मार्केटिंग मैनेजर प्लीज़?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जी किसको बात करनी है?

Receptionist : May I know who is calling please? मे आइ नो हू इज़ कॉलिंग प्लीज़?

ऑपरेटर : विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़ से मिस्टर साहनी को।

Operator : Mr. Sahni from Wimco Textiles. मिस्टर साहनी फ्रॉम विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़।

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जरा होल्ड कीजिए। *(संजीव गुप्ता से)* सर विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़ से मिस्टर साहनी का फ़ोन है।

Receptionist : Please hold on. प्लीज़ होल्ड ऑन. *(to Sanjeev Gupta)* Sir, Mr. Sahni from Wimco Textiles wants to speak to you. सर, मिस्टर साहनी फ्राम विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़ वॉन्ट्स टु स्पीक टु यू.

मि. गुप्ता : हां, बात करवा दो।

Mr. Gupta : O.K. Put him through. ओ.के. पुट हिम थ्रू.

मि. साहनी : हलो संजीव, साहनी बोलता हूं। भई हमारे केमिकल्ज़ और डाईज़ के ऑर्डर का क्या हुआ?

Mr. Sahni : Hello Sanjeev, Sahni here. What about our order of chemicals and dyes? हलो संजीव, साहनी हिअर. वॉट अबाउट आवर ऑर्डर ऑफ़ केमिकल्ज़ ऐंड डाईज़?

मि. गुप्ता : कल, पक्का पहुंच जायेंगे।

Mr. Gupta : You will get them tomorrow without fail. यू विल गेट देम टुमॉरो विदाउट फ़ेल.

(विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़। फ़ोन की घंटी फिर बजती है)

एक आदमी : हलो, विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़?

Caller : Hello, is that Wimco Textiles?
हलो, इज़ दैट विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़?

ऑपरेटर : जी हां।

Operator : Yes. येस.

आदमी : जी ज़रा जी.ऐम. साहब के पी.ए. से बात करवा दीजिए।

Caller : Can I speak to the P.A. to G.M. please?
कैन आइ स्पीक टु द पी.ए. टु जी.ऐम. प्लीज़?

ऑपरेटर : आप कौन बोल रहे हैं?

Operator : Who is speaking please? हू इज़ स्पीकिंग प्लीज़?

आदमी : मैं, स्पेस सॉफ़्टवेअर इंडस्ट्रीज़ से, अमित सहगल बोल रहा हूं।

Caller : Amit Sehgal from Space Software Industries.
अमित सहगल फ्रॉम स्पेस सॉफ़्टवेअर इंडस्ट्रीज़.

ऑपरेटर : ज़रा होल्ड कीजिए। *(पी.ए. से)* हलो, मि. चंद्रा आपके लिए फ़ोन है।

Operator : Please hold on. *(to the P.A.)* Hello, Mr. Chandra call for you. प्लीज़ होल्ड ऑन. हलो, मि. चंद्रा कॉल फ़ॉर यू.

मि. चंद्रा : हलो, चंद्रा बोल रहा हूं।

Mr. Chandra : Hello, Chandra here. हलो, चंद्रा हिअर.

आदमी : मि. चंद्रा नमस्कार। मैं स्पेस सॉफ़्टवेअर इंडस्ट्रीज़ से अमित सहगल बोल रहा हूं। मुझे जी.एम. साहब के साथ अपॉइंटमेंट चाहिए।

Caller : Mr. Chandra good morning. I am Amit Sehgal from Space Software Industries. I want an appointment with the G.M. please. मि. चंद्रा गुड मॉर्निंग. आइ एम अमित सहगल फ्रॉम स्पेस सॉफ़्टवेअर इंडस्ट्रीज़. आइ वॉन्ट ऐन अपॉइंटमेंट विद द जी.ऐम. प्लीज़.

मि. चंद्रा : आप उनसे कब मिलना चाहते हैं?

Mr. Chandra : When do you want to see him?
वेन डू यू वॉन्ट टु सी हिम?

आदमी : हो सके तो कल सुबह साढ़े ग्यारह बजे।

Caller : If possible, tomorrow at 11.30 in the morning.
इफ़ पॉसिबल, टुमॉरो ऐट इलेवन थर्टी इन द मॉर्निंग.

मि. चंद्रा : सॉरी, कल तो जी.ऐम. साहब शहर से बाहर जा रहे हैं। 25 तारीख को चार बजे ठीक रहेगा?

Mr. Chandra : Sorry. Tomorrow the G.M. is out of town. Is 25th at 4 pm O.K. सॉरी, टुमॉरो द जी.ऐम. इज़ आउट ऑफ़ टाउन. इज़ ट्वेन्टी फ़िफ़्थ एट फ़ोर पी.ऐम. ओ.के.?

आदमी : जी ठीक है। थैंक्यू मि. चंद्रा।

Caller : All right. Thank you Mr. Chandra.
ऑल राइट. थैंक्यू मि. चंद्रा।

(फिर से घंटी बजती है।)

ऑपरेटर : हलो विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़, गुड आफ़्टरनून।

Operator : Hello Wimco Textiles, good afternoon.
हलो विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़, गुड आफ़्टरनून.

आदमी : गुड आफ़्टरनून। ज़रा जी.ऐम. साहब से बात करवा दीजिए।

Caller : Good afternoon. Can I speak to the G.M. please?
गुड ऑफ़्टरनून. कैन आइ स्पीक टु द जी.ऐम. प्लीज़?

ऑपरेटर : ज़रा बताएंगें कि आप कौन बोल रहे हैं?

Operator : May I know who is speaking please?
मे आइ नो हू इज़ स्पीकिंग प्लीज़?

आदमी : सागर इंटर्नेशनल से के.ऐल. राना।

Caller : K.L. Rana from Sagar International.
के.ऐल. राना फ्रॉम सागर इंटर्नेशनल.

ऑपरेटर : सॉरी सर, जी.ऐम. साहब एक मीटिंग में बिज़ी हैं। आप 3 बजे के बाद फ़ोन कर लीजिए।

Operator : Sorry sir, the G.M. is busy in a meeting right now. Could you please call after 3 p.m.? सॉरी सर, द जी.ऐम. इज़ बिज़ी इन अ मीटिंग राइट नाउ. कुड यू प्लीज़ कॉल ऑफ़्टर थ्री पी.ऐम.?

(3 बजे के बाद)

राना : हलो विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़?

Rana : Hello, is that Wimco Textiles?
हलो, इज़ दैट विम्को टेक्सटाइल्ज़?

ऑपरेटर : जी हां, बताइए?

Operator : Yes please, can I help you?
येस प्लीज़, कैन आइ हेल्प यू?

राना : क्या मैं जी.ऐम. साहब से बात कर सकता हूं?

Rana : Can I speak to the G.M. please?
कैन आइ स्पीक टु द जी.ऐम. प्लीज़?

ऑपरेटर : आप कौन बोल रहे हैं।

Operator : Who is speaking please? हू इज़ स्पीकिंग प्लीज़?

राना : सागर इंटर्नेशनल से के.ऐल. राना।

Rana : K.L. Rana from Sagar International.
के.ऐल. राना फ्रॉम सागर इंटर्नेशनल.

ऑपरेटर : ज़रा रुकिए। *(जी.ऐम. से)* सर, सागर इंटर्नेशनल से मिस्टर के.ऐल. राना आपसे बात करना चाहते हैं।

Operator : Please hold on. *(to the G.M.)* Sir, Mr. K.L. Rana from Sagar International wants to speak to you. प्लीज़ होल्ड ऑन. सर, मिस्टर के.ऐल. राना. फ्रॉम सागर इंटर्नेशनल वॉन्ट्स टु स्पीक टु यू.

जी.ऐम. : हां, बात करवा दो।

G.M. : Yes, put him through. येस, पुट हिम थ्रू.

ऑपरेटर : जी सर। मि. राना प्लीज़ जी.ऐम. साहब से बात कीजिए।

Operator : Yes sir. Mr. Rana, the G.M. is on the line please.
येस सर. मिस्टर राना, द जी.ऐम. इज़ ऑन द लाइन प्लीज़.

राना : हलो, गुड ऑफ़्टरनून सर। राना बोल रहा हूं।

Rana : Hello, Good afternoon sir. Rana here.
हलो, गुड ऑफ़्टरनून सर. राना हिअर.

जी.ऐम. : हलो राना, कैसे हो?

G.M. : Hello Rana, how are you? हलो राना, हाउ आर यू?

राना : जी ठीक हूं। थैंक्यू। आपको बताना चाहता हूं कि जर्मनी से हमारी कंसाइनमेंट भेज दी गई है। 10-15 दिनों में यहां पहुंच जानी चाहिए।

Rana : Fine! Thank you sir. I want to inform you that the consignment from Germany has been sent. It should be here in about 15 days time. फ़ाइन थैंक्यू सर. आइ वॉन्ट ट इनफ़ॉर्म यू दैट द कंसाइनमेंट फ्रॉम जर्मनी हैज़ बीन सेन्ट. इट शुड बी हिअर इन अबाउट फ़िफ़्टीन डेज़ टाइम.

जी.ऐम. : थैंक्यू राना, ये तो अच्छी खबर है। फिर कब मिलते हो?

G.M. : Thank you Rana, that's a good news. So, when do I see you? थैंक्यू राना. दैट्स अ गुड न्यूज़. सो, वेन डू आइ सी यू?

राना : क्या मैं कल सुबह आ जाऊं?

Rana : Can I come tomorrow morning?
कैन आइ कम टुमॉरो मॉर्निंग?

जी.ऐम. : कल दोपहर चार बजे आओ तो बेहतर है।

G.M. : 4 O'clock in the afternoon will be better.
फ़ोर ओ क्लॉक इन द आफ़्टरनून विल बी बेटर.

राना : जी मैं आ जाऊंगा। बाइ सर।

Rana : O.K. I will be there. Bye sir.
ओ.के. आइ विल बी देअर. बाइ सर.

जी.ऐम. : अच्छा तो मिलते हैं।

G.M. : Bye, see you. बाइ, सी यू.

कैम्पस में पहला दिन First Day at the Campus (फ़र्स्ट डे ऐट द कैम्पस)

(रीना ने बी.ए. फ़र्स्ट ईयर में ऐडमिशन लिया है। यह उसका कैम्पस में पहला दिन है।)

रीना : *(एक लड़की से)* सुनिए, मुझे टाइम टेबल कहां मिलेगा?

Reena : *(to a girl)* Excuse me, where should I look for the time table please? एक्सक्यूज़ मी, वेअर शुड आइ लुक फ़ॉर द टाइम टेबल प्लीज़?

लड़की : उस कॉरीडोर में नोटिस बोर्ड पर।

Girl : On the notice board in that corridor. ऑन द नोटिस बोर्ड इन दैट कॉरीडोर.

रीना : थैंक्यू।

Reena : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

रीना : *(सहेली से)* हलो नेहा।

Reena : *(to her friend)* Hello Neha. हलो नेहा.

नेहा : हाइ रीना। कैसी हो?

Neha : Hi Reena. How are you? हाइ रीना. हाउ आर यू?

रीना : ठीक हूं और तुम?

Reena : Fine and you? फ़ाइन ऐंड यू?

नेहा : अच्छी हूं, लो सोनिया से मिलो। और सोनिया, ये रीना है।

Neha : Fine, here meet Sonia. And Sonia this is Reena. फ़ाइन, हिअर मीट सोनिया. ऐंड सोनिया दिस इज़ रीना.

सोनिया : हाइ।

Sonia : Hi. हाइ.

रीना : हाइ सोनिया।

Reena : Hi Sonia. हाइ सोनिया.

सोनिया : क्या तुम भी फ़र्स्ट ईयर में हो रीना?

Sonia : Are you also in the first year Reena? आर यू ऑलस्मो इन द फ़र्स्ट ईयर रीना?

रीना : हां. तुम कौन सा कोर्स कर रही हो?

Reena : Yes. What course are you doing? येस. वॉट कोर्स आर यू डूइंग?

सोनिया : मैं इंग्लिश ऑनर्ज़ कर रही हूं।

Sonia : I am doing English honours. आइ एम डूइंग इंग्लिश ऑनर्ज़.

रीना : और नेहा तुम?

Reena : And you Neha? ऐंड यू नेहा?

नेहा : कॉमर्स। और तुम?

Neha : Commerce. What about you? कॉमर्स. वॉट अबाउट यू?

रीना : मैं पासकोर्स कर रही हूं। इंग्लिश, ज्योग्रफ़ी और हिस्ट्री के साथ।

Reena : I am doing pass-course with English, Geography and History. आइ ऐम डूइंग पासकोर्स विद इंग्लिश, ज्योग्रफ़ी ऐंड हिस्ट्री.

सोनिया : क्या तुमने टाइम टेबल नोट कर लिया?

Sonia : Have you noted down the time table? हैव यू नोटिड डाउन द टाइम टेबल?

रीना : नहीं, करने जा रही थी।

Reena : No, I was going to. नो, आइ वॉज़ गोंइग टु.

नेहा : चलो, हम सब साथ चलें?

Neha : Come, let's go together. कम, लेट्स गो टुगेदर.

(नोटिस बोर्ड से वे टाइम टेबल और अपने-अपने रूम नंबर्ज़ नोट करती हैं।)

रीना : मैं सेक्शन ए में हूं। और मेरा पहला पीरिएड रूम न. तीन में है।

Reena : I am in section A. And my first period is in room number three. आई ऐम इन सेक्शन ए. ऐंड माइ फ़र्स्ट पीरिएड इज़ इन रूम नंबर थ्री.

नेहा : मेरा रूम नं. दस में है।

Neha : Mine is in room number ten. माइन इज़ इन रूम नंबर टेन.

सोनिया : मेरा पहला पीरिएड फ्री है।

Sonia : I'm free in the first period. आइ ऐम फ्री इन द फ़र्स्ट पीरिएड.

रीना : अच्छा सोनिया, बाद में मिलते हैं, बाइ, चल नेहा अपनी क्लास में चलें।

Reena : O.K. Sonia, see you later, bye. Come Neha let's go to our classes. ओ.के. सोनिया, सी यू लेटर, बाइ. कम नेहा लेट्स गो टु आवर क्लासिज़.

नेहा : *(एक लड़की से)* ज़रा सुनिए, रूम नं. 10 कहां होगा?

Neha : *(to a girl)* Excuse me. Where is the room number ten please? एक्सक्यूज़ मी. वेअर इज़ द रूम नंबर टेन प्लीज़?

लड़की : पहली मंजिल पर।

The girl : It is on the first floor. इट इज़ ऑन द फ़र्स्ट फ़्लोर.

नेहा : थैंक्यू।

Neha : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

रीना : और रूम नं. तीन कहां पड़ेगा प्लीज़?

Reena : And room number three please? ऐंड रूम नंबर थ्री प्लीज़?

लड़की : वहां, उस वरांडे में।

The girl : There, in that verandah. देअर, इन दैट वरांडा.

रीना : थैंक्यू। अच्छा नेहा।

Reena : Thank you. O.K. Neha. थैंक्यू. ओ.के. नेहा.

नेहा : बाइ रीना, सी यू।

Neha : Bye Reena, see you. बाइ रीना, सी यू.

रीना : *(दरवाजे पर)* मैम, क्या मैं अंदर आ सकती हूं।

Reena : *(at the door)* May I come in Ma'am. मे आइ कम इन मैम.

लेक्चरर : हां आओ। क्या रोल नं. है?

Lecturer : Yes come in. What's your Roll number please? येस कम इन. वॉट्स योर रोल नंबर प्लीज़?

रीना : जी एक सौ पैंतालीस।

Reena : One forty five ma'am. वन फ़ोर्टी फ़ाइव मैम.

लेक्चरर : *(हैरानी से)* एक सौ पैंतालिस। कौन सी क्लास?

Lecturer : *(Surprised)* One forty five. Which class? वन फ़ोर्टी फ़ाइव. विच क्लास?

रीना : जी बी.ए. फ़र्स्ट ईयर।

Reena : B.A. Ist year. बी.ए. फ़र्स्ट ईयर.

लेक्चरर : अच्छा तभी। पर ये तो बी.ए. फ़ाइनल है।

Lecturer : Oh, I see! But this is B.A. final. ओ, आइ सी! बट दिस इज़ बी.ए. फ़ाइनल.

रीना : ओ सॉरी मैम। मैं ग़लती से ग़लत कमरे में आ गई।

Reena : Oh I'm sorry ma'am. I came to the wrong room by mistake. ओ आइ एम सॉरी मैम! आइ केम टु द रौंग रूम बाइ मिस्टेक.

लेक्चरर : कोई बात नहीं। तुम्हें कौन से कमरे में जाना है?

Lecturer : Never mind. Which room number are you looking for? नेवर माइन्ड. विच रूम नम्बर आर यू लुकिंग फ़ॉर?

रीना : जी रूम नं. तीन में।

Reena : Room number three please. रूम नंबर थ्री प्लीज़.

लेक्चरर : इसी वरांडे में, दूसरे कोने से तीसरे कमरे में जाओ।

Lecturer : Go to the third room from the other end of this verandah. गो टु द थर्ड रूम फ्रॉम द अदर एंड ऑफ़ दिस वरांडा.

रीना : ओह थैंक्यू वेरी मच मैम।

Reena : Oh thank you very much ma'am. ओ थैंक्यू वेरी मच मैम.

एक लड़के और लड़की की बातचीत A Boy Talks to a Girl (अ बॉय टॉक्स टु अ गर्ल)

(यूनिवर्सिटी कैम्पस में लड़के और लड़कियां आपस में बात करते हैं।)

मोना : हाइ रीना।

Mona : Hi Reena. हाइ रीना.

रीना : हाइ मोना। कैसी हो?

Reena : Hi Mona. How are you? हाइ मोना. हाउ आर यू?

मोना : ठीक हूं।

Mona : Fine. फ़ाइन।

सुमित : हलो मोना।

Sumit : Hello Mona. हलो मोना.

मोना : हाइ सुमित, बहुत दिनों में दिखाई दिए।

Mona : Hi Sumit, long time no see. हाइ सुमित, लौंग टाइम नो सी.

सुमित : हां, बाहर गया हुआ था। और सब कैसा चल रहा है?

Sumit : Yes, I was out of station. How is everything? येस आइ वॉज़ आउट ऑफ़ स्टेशन. हाउ इज़ एवरीथिंग?

मोना : ठीक है। आओ मेरी सहेली रीना से मिलो।

Mona : Fine. Here meet my friend Reena. फ़ाइन. हिअर मीट माइ फ्रेंड रीना.

सुमित : हलो।

Sumit : Hello. हलो.

रीना : हाइ।

Reena : Hi. हाइ.

सुमित : तुम यहां नई आई हो क्या?

Sumit : Are you new here? आर यू न्यू हिअर?

रीना : हां, मैंने पिछले हफ्ते ही दाखिला लिया है। इससे पहले मैं चंडीगढ़ थी।

Reena : Yes, I joined last week only. Earlier I was at Chandigarh. येस, आइ जॉइन्ड लास्ट वीक ओनली. अर्लिअर आइ वॉज़ ऐट चंडीगढ़.

(कोई मोना को आवाज देता है। मोना जाती है।)

मोना : एक्सक्यूज मी।

Mona : Excuse me. एक्सक्यूज़ मी.

सुमित : रीना, तुम कौन सा कोर्स कर रही हो?

Sumit : What course are you doing Reena? वॉट कोर्स आर यू डूइंग रीना?

रीना : पास कोर्स, मैं सेकंड ईयर में हूं।

Reena : Pass Course, I am in Second Year. पास कोर्स, आइ एम इन सेकंड ईयर.

सुमित : तुम्हारे सब्जेक्ट्स कौन से हैं?

Sumit : What are your subjects? वॉट आर योर सब्जेक्ट्स?

रीना : इंग्लिश, हिस्ट्री और इक्नॉमिक्स। सुमित तुम क्या कर रहे हो?

Reena : English, History and Economics. What are you doing Sumit? इंग्लिश, हिस्ट्री ऐंड इक्नॉमिक्स. वॉट आर यू डूइंग सुमित?

सुमित : मैं बी.कॉम फ़ाइनल में हूं। रीना, तुम्हें दिल्ली कैसी लगी?

Sumit : I am in B.Com final. How do you like Delhi, Reena? आइ ऐम इन बी.कॉम फ़ाइनल. हाउ डू यू लाइक डेल्ही, रीना?

रीना : ठीक है। पर थोड़ी ज़्यादा ही हड़बड़ी है यहां।

Reena : O.K. but a bit too hectic. ओ.के. बट अ बिट टू हेक्टिक.

सुमित : मैं चंडीगढ़ गया हूं। अच्छा शहर है पर मुझे तो थोड़ा सुस्त-सा लगा।

Sumit : I have been to Chandigarh. Nice city, but a little dull I think. आइ हैव बीन टु चंडीगढ़. नाइस सिटी, बट अ लिटल डल आइ थिंक.

रीना : मुझे तो दिल्ली में बहुत शोर-शराबा लगता है। ज़िंदगी की रफ्तार यहां वाकई बहुत तेज है।

Reena : Well, I find Delhi too noisy. Life here is real fast. वेल, आइ फ़ाइंड डेल्ही टू नॉइज़ी. लाइफ़ हिअर इज़ रीअल फ़ास्ट.

सुमित : तुम्हें जल्दी ही इसकी आदत पड़ जाएगी।

Sumit : Soon, you will get used to it. सून, यू विल गेट यूज़्ड टु इट.

रीना : देखते हैं। *(घंटी बजती है)* मेरी क्लास है। अच्छा बाइ सुमित।

Reena : I hope so. आइ होप सो. *(the bell rings)* I have a class. O.K. Bye Sumit. आइ हैव अ क्लास. ओ.के. बाइ सुमित.

सुमित : अच्छा, फिर मिलते हैं।

Sumit : Bye, see you. बाइ, सी यू.

(रीना और सुमित फिर मिलते हैं।)

सुमित : हाइ रीना!	**Sumit :** Hi Reena! हाइ रीना!
रीना : हाइ! कैसे हो?	**Reena :** Hi! How are you? हाइ! हाउ आर यू?
सुमित : अच्छा हूं और तुम?	**Sumit :** Fine and you? फ़ाइन ऐंड यू?
रीना : अच्छी हूं, थैंक्स।	**Reena :** Fine, thanks. फ़ाइन, थैंक्स.
सुमित : कहां जा रही हो?	**Sumit :** Where are you going? वेअर आर यू गोइंग?
रीना : दरअसल मैं इस पीरिएड में खाली हूं। सोच रही थी क्या करूं?	**Reena :** Actually I'm free in this period. I was just wondering what to do. एक्चुअली, आइम फ्री इन दिस पीरिअड. आइ वॉज़ जस्ट वंडरिंग वॉट टु डू.
सुमित : मैं कैंटीन जा रहा था। चलोगी?	**Sumit :** I was going to the canteen. Care to join me? आइ वॉज़ गोइंग टु द केंटीन. केअर टु जॉइन मी?
रीना : ठीक है।	**Reena :** O.K. ओ.के.

(केन्टीन में)

सुमित : तुम क्या लोगी, कोक या कुछ और?

Sumit : What do you like, coke or something else?
वॉट डू यू लाइक, कोक और समथिंग एल्स?

रीना : कोक ठीक है।

Reena : Coke is fine. कोक इज़ फ़ाइन.

सुमित : ये लो।

Sumit : Here you are. हिअर यू आर.

रीना : थैंक्स।

Reena : Thanks. थैंक्स.

सुमित : रीना तुम कहां रहती हो?

Sumit : Where do you live Reena? वेअर डू यू लिव रीना?

रीना : मॉडल टाउन में और तुम?

Reena : In Model Town and you? इन मॉडल टाउन ऐंड यू?

सुमित : जनकपुरी में। क्या तुम पांचवें पीरिएड में ज़्यादातर खाली होती हो?

Sumit : In Janakpuri. Are you mostly free in the fifth period?
इन जनकपुरी. आर यू मोस्टली फ्री इन द फ़िफ़्थ पीरिअड?

रीना : हां ज़्यादातर, शुक्रवार को छोड़कर। शुक्रवार को ट्यूटोरियल्ज़ होते हैं। अब मुझे जाना है। कोक के लिए थैंक्स सुमित। बाइ।

Reena : Yes mostly, except on Fridays when we have tutorials. I have to go now. Thanks for the coke Sumit. Bye. येस मोस्टली, एक्सेप्ट ऑन फ्राइड्ज़ वेन वी हैव ट्यूटोरियल्ज़. आइ हैव टु गो नाउ. थैंक्स फ़ॉर द कोक सुमित. बाइ.

सुमित : बाइ, फिर मिलते हैं।

Sumit : Bye, see you. बाइ, सी यू.

(सुमित और रीना लायब्रेरी के सामने)

सुमित : हाइ रीना, लायब्रेरी से आ रही हो?

Sumit : Hi Reena. Coming from the library?
हाइ रीमा. कमिंग फ्रॉम द लायब्रेरी.

रीना : हां, कैसे हो?

Reena : Yes. How are you? येस. हाउ आर यू?

सुमित : ठीक हूं। रीना, इस इतवार को क्या कर रही हो?

Sumit : Fine. Reena, what are you doing this Sunday?
फ़ाइन. रीना, वॉट आर यू डूइंग दिस संडे?

रीना : कुछ खास नहीं, क्यों?

Reena : Nothing special, Why? नथिंग स्पेशल, वाइ?

सुमित : हम कुछ दोस्त मिल कर इस इतवार को पिक्चर देखने का प्रोग्राम बना रहे हैं। तुम साथ में आना चाहोगी?

Sumit : We friends are planning to see a movie this Sunday. Want to join us. वी फ्रेंड्ज़ आर प्लैनिंग टु सी अ मूवी दिस संडे. वॉन्ट टु जॉइन अस?

रीना : कौन सी मूवी?

Reena : Which movie? विच मूवी?

सुमित : अभी सोचा नहीं है। चाणक्य पर एक नई इंग्लिश मूवी लगी है। शायद वही देखें।

Sumit : We haven't decided yet. May be the new English movie on Chanakya. वी हैवन्ट डिसाइडिड येट. मे बी द न्यू इंग्लिश मूवी ऑन चाणक्या.

रीना : कितने लोग जा रहे है?

Reena : How many persons are there? हाउ मेनी पर्सन्ज़ आर देअर?

सुमित : पांच, दो लड़के और तीन लड़कियां। मोना भी आ रही है।

Sumit : Five, two boys and three girls. Mona is also coming.
फ़ाइव, टू बॉयज़ ऐंड थ्री गर्ल्ज़. मोना इज़ ऑलसो कमिंग.

रीना : ठीक है। क्या मैं अपनी एक सहेली साथ में ला सकती हूं?

Reena : O. K. Can I bring a friend along?
ओ.के. कैन आइ ब्रिंग अ फ्रेंड अलौंग?

सुमित : ज़रूर।

Sumit : Yes of course. येस ऑफ़कोर्स.

रीना : टिकिट के कितने पैसे दूं?

Reena : How much for the ticket? हाउ मच फ़ॉर द टिकिट?

सुमित : पैसे मैं टिकिट खरीदने के बाद ले लूंगा।

Sumit : I'll take the money after we buy the tickets.
आइल टेक द मनी आफ़्टर वी बाइ द टिकिट्स.

रीना : ठीक है। फिर जल्दी मिलते हैं।

Reena : Fine. See you soon. Bye Sumit.
फ़ाइन. सी यू सून. बाइ सुमित.

सुमित : बाइ रीना।

Sumit : Bye, Reena. बाइ, रीना.

होटल में कमरे की बुकिंग

Booking a Room in a Hotel
(बुकिंग अ रूम इन अ होटल)

सुधीर : गुड मॉर्निंग।

Sudhir : Good morning. गुड मॉर्निंग.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : गुड मॉर्निंग सर. कहिए क्या सेवा करूं?

Receptionist : Good morning Sir. What can I do for you? गुड मॉर्निंग सर. वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?

सुधीर : मुझे कमरा चाहिए।

Sudhir : I want a room. आइ वॉन्ट अ रूम.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : सिंगल या डबल?

Receptionist : Single or Double? सिंगल ऑर डबल?

सुधीर : सिंगल। क्या किराया है?

Sudhir : Single. What are your charges? सिंगल. वॉट आर योर चार्जिज़?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : दो सौ पचास रुपए प्रतिदिन।

Receptionist : Two hundred and fifty rupees per day. टू हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़िफ़्टी रुपीज़ पर डे।

सुधीर : आपके रेट बहुत ज़्यादा हैं। पिछले महीने ही मैंने 175 रु. प्रतिदिन के हिसाब से कमरा लिया था।

Sudhir : Your rates are very high. Only last month, I paid one seventy five for a single room. योर रेट्स आर वेरी हाइ. ओनली लास्ट मंथ, आइ पेड वन सेवंटी फ़ाइव फ़ॉर अ सिंगल रूम.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : आप कितने दिन रुकेंगे।

Receptionist : How many days, do you want to stay sir? हाउ मेनी डेज़ डू यू वॉन्ट टु स्टे सर?

सुधीर : दो दिन।

Sudhir : Two days? टू डेज़.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : हमारे कमरे बहुत अच्छे हैं। खैर आपके लिए मैं 200 रु. प्रति दिन लगा दूंगा।

Receptionist : Our rooms are very nice sir. Anyhow for you, I'll make it two hundred per day. आवर रूम्ज़ आर वेरी नाइस सर. एनीहाउ फ़ॉर यू, आइल मेक इट टू हंड्रेड पर डे.

सुधीर : ठीक है। आपका चेक आउट टाइम क्या है?

Sudhir : Alright. What is the check out time? ऑलराइट. वॉट इज़ द चेक आउट टाइम?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : दोपहर 12 बजे। कृपया इस पेज पर अपना नाम पता आदि भर दें। और यहां साइन कर दें।

Receptionist : 12 O'clock. Please fill in your particulars on this page and sign here. ट्वेल्व ओ'क्लॉक. प्लीज़ फ़िल इन योर पर्टीकुलर्ज़ ऑन दिस पेज ऐंड साइन हिअर.

सुधीर : आपके यहां रूम सर्विस है?

Sudhir : Do you have room service. डू यू हैव रूम सर्विस?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जी हां।

Receptionist : Yes sir. येस सर.

सुधीर : और क्या आप शहर घूमने के लिए सवारी का इंतज़ाम करवा सकते हैं?

Sudhir : And can you arrange transport for a local tour? ऐंड कैन यू अरेंज ट्रांसपोर्ट फ़ार अ लोकल टूर?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जी हां, कई टूर एजेन्सीज़ से हमारा सम्पर्क है। वे हमारे यहां ठहरने वालों को डिस्काउंट भी देते हैं।

Receptionist : Yes sir, we are in touch with many tour agencies. They also give our clients discount. येस सर, वी आर इन टच विद मैनी टूर एजेंसीज़. दे ऑलसो गिव आवर कलायंट्स डिस्काउंट.

सुधीर : ठीक है। क्या आप मुझे सुबह 6 बजे उठा देंगे?

Sudhir : O.K. Could you please wake me up at six in the morning. ओ.के. कुड यू प्लीज़ वेक मी अप एट सिक्स इन द मॉर्निंग?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : जी ज़रूर! आपकी चाबियां सर! दूसरी मंज़िल पर कमरा नम्बर 85।

Receptionist : Yes sure. Your keys sir. Room number eighty-five on the second floor. येस श्योर. योर कीज़ सर. रूम नम्बर एटी फ़ाइव ऑन द सेकंड फ़्लोर.

सुधीर : थैंक्यू।

Sudhir : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : आपका ठहरना सुखद हो।

Receptionist : Have a nice stay sir! हैव अ नाइस स्टे सर!

बच्चे के ऐडमिशन के लिए इंटर्व्यू

An Interview for the Child's Admission
(ऐन इंटर्व्यू फ़ॉर द चाइल्ड्ज़ ऐडमिशन)

(माता पिता बच्चे के साथ प्रिंसिपल के ऑफिस में आते हैं।)

पिता : गुड मॉर्निंग सर।

Father : Good morning Sir. गुड मॉर्निंग सर.

प्रिंसिपल : गुड मॉर्निंग। बैठिए।

Principal : Good morning, please sit down.
गुड मॉर्निंग, प्लीज़ सिट डाउन.

पिता : मैं.परेश खन्ना हूं और ये मेरी पत्नी सुनीता।

Father : I am Paresh Khanna. My wife Sunita.
आइ ऐम परेश खन्ना. माइ वाइफ़ सुनीता.

प्रिंसिपल : आप क्या करते हैं मि. खन्ना?

Principal : What do you do Mr. Khanna?
वॉट डू यू डू मिस्टर खन्ना?

पिता : मैं तिरुपति फ़र्टिलाइज़र्ज़ में असिस्टेंट मैनेजर हूं।

Father : I am assistant manager in Tirupati Fertilizers.
आइ ऐम असिस्टेंट मैनेजर इन तिरुपति फ़र्टिलाइज़र्ज़.

प्रिंसिपल : आपकी क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन्ज़ क्या हैं?

Principal : What are your qualifications.
वॉट आर योर क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन्ज़?

पिता : जी मैं कैमिस्ट्री में ऐम.ऐससी. हूं।

Father : M.Sc. Chemistry. ऐम.ऐससी. केमिस्ट्री.

प्रिंसिपल : और मिसिज़ खन्ना, आप क्या करती हैं?

Principal : And you Mrs. Khanna, What do you do?
ऐंड यू मिसिज़ खन्ना, वॉट डू यू डू?

मां : जी मैं एक हाउसवाइफ़ हूं।

Mother : I am a housewife. आइ ऐम अ हाउसवाइफ़.

प्रिंसिपल : आप कहां तक पढ़ी हैं?

Principal : What are your qualifications?
वॉट आर योर क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन्ज़?

मां : मैं बी.ऐससी. हूं।

Mother : I am a B.Sc. आइ ऐम अ बी.ऐससी.

प्रिंसिपल : बच्चे को घर में कौन पढ़ाता है?

Principal : Who teaches the child at home?
हू टीचिज़ द चाइल्ड ऐट होम?

पिता : हम दोनों।

Father : Both of us. बोथ ऑफ़ अस.

प्रिंसिपल : मि. खन्ना आप बच्चे के साथ कितना समय बिताते हैं?

Principal : How much time do you spend with the child Mr. Khanna. हाउ मच टाइम डू यू स्पेंड विद द चाइल्ड मिस्टर खन्ना?

पिता : कम-से-कम दो घंटे रोज़। मैं ऑफ़िस से करीब 6 बजे घर लौटता हूं। साढ़े छः बजे से साढ़े आठ बजे तक मैं स्मिता से खेलता व उसे पढ़ाता हूं।

Father : At least two hours daily. I come back from office around 6 O'clock in the evening. From 6.30 to 8.30 I play with Smita and teach her. ऐट लीस्ट टू आवर्ज़ डेली. आइ कम बैक फ्रॉम ऑफ़िस अराउन्ड सिक्स ओ क्लॉक इन द ईवनिंग. फ्रॉम सिक्स थर्टी टु ऐट थर्टी आइ प्ले विद स्मिता ऐंड टीच हर.

प्रिंसिपल : अच्छा। और आप मिसिज़ खन्ना? आप उसे कब पढ़ाती हैं?

Principal : I see. And you Mrs. Khanna, when do you teach her? आइ सी. ऐंड यू मिसिज़ खन्ना, वेन डू यू टीच हर?

मां : ज़्यादातर दोपहर में, जब मैं घर के काम से खाली होती हूं।

Mother : Mostly in the afternoon. After I'm free from the household chores. मोस्टली इन द आफ़्टर नून. आफ़्टर आइ ऐम फ्री फ्रॉम द हाउसहोल्ड चोर्ज़.

प्रिंसिपल : आप बच्चे को इसी स्कूल में क्यों भर्ती कराना चाहते हैं?

Principal : Why do you want to admit your child here?
वाइ डू यू वॉन्ट टु ऐडमिट योर चाइल्ड हिअर?

मां : इस स्कूल का काफी नाम है। इसके अलावा यह हमारे घर के पास है।

Mother : This school has a very good reputation. Besides it is close to our house. दिस स्कूल हैज़ अ वेरी गुड रेप्यूटेशन. बिसाइड्ज़ इट इज़ क्लोज़ टु आवर हाउस.

(प्रिंसिपल बच्ची स्मिता से बात करता है।)

प्रिंसिपल : बच्चे तुम्हारा नाम क्या है?

Principal : What's your name child. वॉट्स योर नेम चाइल्ड?

स्मिता : स्मिता खन्ना।

Smita : Smita Khanna. स्मिता खन्ना.

प्रिंसिपल : और तुम्हारे पापा का नाम?

Principal : And your Father's name? ऐंड योर फ़ादर्ज़ नेम?

स्मिता : मिस्टर परेश खन्ना।

Smita : Mr. Paresh Khanna. मिस्टर परेश खन्ना.

प्रिंसिपल : तुम कहां रहती हो?

Principal : Where do you live? वेअर डू यू लिव?

स्मिता : ए-796, लक्ष्मी नगर।

Smita : A-796, Laxmi Nagar. ए-796, लक्ष्मी नगर.

प्रिंसिपल : तुम्हें पहाड़े आते हैं?

Principal : Do you know tables? डू यू नो टेबल्ज़?

स्मिता : जी 2 से 10 तक।

Smita : Yes two to ten. येस टू टु टेन.

प्रिंसिपल : कोई नर्सरी राइम याद है।

Principal : Do you know any nursery rhyme? डू यू नो ऐनी नर्सरी राइम?

स्मिता : जी कई।

Smita : Yes many. येस मेनी.

प्रिंसिपल : एक सुनाओ।

Principal : Recite one. रिसाइट वन.

(बच्ची ट्विंकल-ट्विंकल लिटल स्टार सुनाती है।)

प्रिंसिपल : *(एक फोटो दिखाकर)* यह क्या है?

Principal : *(Showing a picture)* What is this? वॉट इज़ दिस?

स्मिता : ऐरोप्लेन (हवाईजहाज़)।

Smita : An aeroplane. ऐन ऐरोप्लेन.

प्रिंसिपल : स्पेलिंग बता सकती हो।

Principal : Can you spell the word? कैन यू स्पेल द वर्ड?

स्मिता : जी।

Smita : Yes. येस. *(स्पेलिंग बताती है)*

प्रिंसिपल : अच्छा बताओ गर्म कपड़े कब पहनते हैं?

Principal : O.K. tell me when do you wear woollen clothes? ओ.के. टेल मी वेन डू यू वेअर वुलन क्लोद्ज़?

स्मिता : सर्दी में।

Smita : In winter. इन विन्टर.

प्रिंसिपल : हम बारिश में बाहर जाते हुए क्या लेकर जाते हैं?

Principal : What do you carry when you go out in rain? वॉट डू यू कैरी वेन यू गो आउट इन रेन?

स्मिता : अम्ब्रेला (छाता)।

Smita : Umbrella. अम्ब्रेला.

प्रिंसिपल : ट्रैफ़िक लाइट में कितने रंग होते हैं?

Principal : How many colours are there in a traffic light? हाउ मैनी कलर्ज़ आर देअर इन अ ट्रैफ़िक लाइट?

स्मिता : तीन।

Smita : Three. थ्री.

प्रिंसिपल : नाम बताओ।

Principal : Name them. नेम देम.

स्मिता : हरा, पीला और लाल।

Smita : Green, yellow and red. ग्रीन, यलो ऐंड रेड.

प्रिंसिपल : ट्रैफ़िक के लिए हरे का क्या मतलब है?

Principal : What does green mean for traffic? वॉट डज़ ग्रीन मीन फ़ॉर ट्रैफ़िक.

स्मिता : चलो।

Smita : Go. गो.

प्रिंसिपल : और लाल का?

Principal : And the red. ऐंड द रेड.

स्मिता : रुको।

Smita : Stop. स्टॉप.

प्रिंसिपल : तुम सड़क कब पार करते हो?

Principal : When do you cross the road? वेन डू यू क्रॉस द रोड?

स्मिता : जब बत्ती लाल होती है।

Smita : When the light is red. वेन द लाइट इज़ रेड.

प्रिंसिपल : सड़क पार करते हुए कहां पर चलना चाहिए?

स्मिता : ज़ेब्रा क्रॉसिंग पर।

प्रिंसिपल : शाबाश! ठीक है मि. खन्ना, हम आपकी बच्ची को दाखिला देंगे।

पिता : धन्यवाद सर।

Principal : Where do you walk while crossing the road? वेअर डू यू वॉक वाइल क्रॉसिंग द रोड?

Smita : On the zebra crossing. ऑन द ज़ेब्रा क्रॉसिंग.

Principal : Good! O.K. Mr. Khanna, we will admit your child? गुड! ओ.के. मिस्टर खन्ना, वी विल ऐडमिट योर चाइल्ड.

Father : Thank you sir. थैंक्यू सर.

क्लास टीचर से बातचीत With the Class Teacher (विद द क्लास टीचर)

बच्चे की मां : नमस्कार, मिसिज़ सेन. मैं क्षिप्रा शर्मा की मां पूनम शर्मा हूं। शिप्रा ने बताया कि आप मुझसे मिलना चाहती थीं।

Mother : Good afternoon Mrs. Sen. I'm Poonam Sharma, Kshipra Sharma's mother. Kshipra told me, you wanted to see me. गुड आफ़्टर नून मिसिज़ सेन. आइ ऐम पूनम शर्मा, क्षिप्रा शर्माज़ मदर. शिप्रा टोल्ड मी, यू वॉन्टिड टु सी मी.

क्लास टीचर : जी बैठिए। ये रही क्षिप्रा की मासिक रिपोर्ट। वह दो सब्जेक्ट्स में फ़ेल है।

Class Teacher : Yes, please sit down. Here is Shipra's monthly progress report. She has failed in two subjects. येस, प्लीज़ सिट डाउन. हिअर इज़ क्षिप्राज़ मन्थली प्रोग्रेस रिपोर्ट. शी हैज़ फ़ेल्ड इन टू सब्जेक्ट्स.

मां : जी, वह मैथ्स के टेस्ट में बीमार थी।

Mother : Yes, she was unwell during the Math's test. येस, शी वॉज़ अनवेल ड्यूरिंग द मैथ्स टेस्ट.

क्लास टीचर : ठीक है। पर इंग्लिश में क्या हुआ? उसे 10 में से कुल 3 नम्बर मिले हैं। सोशल स्टडीज़ में भी वह मुश्किल से पास हुई है।

Class Teacher : Fine, but what about English? She got only 3 marks out of 10. In Social Studies also, she has barely got pass marks. फ़ाइन, बट वॉट अबाउट इंग्लिश? शी गॉट ओनली थ्री मार्क्स आउट ऑफ़ टेन. इन सोशल स्टडीज़ ऑलसो शी हैज़ बेअरली गॉट पास मार्क्स.

मां : हां। दरअसल, मैं भी उसके बारे में काफी परेशान हूं। क्षिप्रा पढ़ाई में दिलचस्पी नहीं लेती।

Mother : Yes. Actually, even I'm quite worried about her. Shipra doesn't take interest in studies. येस. ऐक्चुअली, ईवन आइम क्वाइट वरीड अबाउट हर. क्षिप्रा डज़न्ट टेक इंट्रेस्ट इन स्टडीज़.

क्लास टीचर : मेरे ख्याल से उसकी सेहत कमज़ोर है।

Class Teacher : I think, she is quite weak physically. आइ थिंक शी इज़ क्वाइट वीक फ़िज़िकली.

मां : जी आप ठीक कहती हैं। अक्सर वह सिर दर्द की भी शिकायत करती है।

Mother : Yes, you are right. She also complains of a head-ache very often. येस, यू आर राइट. शी ऑलसो कम्प्लेंज़ ऑफ़ अ हेडेक वेरी ऑफ़न.

क्लास टीचर : आप उसकी आंखें टेस्ट करवाइये। मैंने नोट किया है कि वह ब्लैक बोर्ड ठीक से नहीं पढ़ पाती।

Class Teacher : Please get her eyes tested. I have noticed that she is unable to read the blackboard properly. प्लीज़ गेट हर आइज़ टेस्टिड. आइ हैव नोटिस्ड दैट शी इज़ अनेबल टु रीड द ब्लैक बोर्ड प्रोपर्ली.

मां : मैं आज ही उसे आंखों के डॉक्टर के पास ले जाऊंगी, मैं डाक्टर से उसके सामान्य स्वास्थ्य के बारे में भी सलाह करूंगी.

Mother : I will take her to an eye specialist today itself. I'll also consult the doctor regarding her general health. आइ विल टेक हर टु एन आइ स्पेशलिस्ट टुडे इटसेल्फ़. आइ विल ऑल्सो कंसल्ट द डॉक्टर रिगार्डिंग हर जनरल हेल्थ।

क्लास टीचर : इसके अलावा, क्षिप्रा को मैथ्स और इंग्लिश में अलग से सहायता की भी ज़रुरत है। घर में उसे कौन पढ़ाता है?

Class Teacher : Besides, Kshipra needs extra coaching in Maths and English. Who teaches her at home? बिसाइड्ज़ क्षिप्रा नीड्ज़ एक्स्ट्रा कोचिंग इन मैथ्स ऐंड इंग्लिश. हू टीचिज़ हर ऐट होम?

मां : मैं ही पढ़ाती हूं। पर मैं मानती हूं कि मैं उसे नियम से नहीं पढ़ाती।

Mother : I do. But I must admit that I am not very regular. आइ डू. बट आइ मस्ट ऐडमिट दैट आइ ऐम नॉट वेरी रेग्युलर.

क्लास टीचर : कृपया आगे से नियम से पढ़ाइये। क्षिप्रा की लिखाई भी काफी खराब है। उसके लिए घर पर लिखाई की प्रैक्टिस ज़रूरी है।

Class Teacher : Please be regular in future. Kshipra's handwriting is very bad. She must practise handwriting, at home. प्लीज़ बी रेग्युलर इन फ़्यूचर. शिप्राज़ हैन्डराइटिंग इज़ वेरी बैड. शी मस्ट प्रैक्टिस हैन्डराइटिंग ऐट होम.

मां : मैं अब निश्चय ही उसकी तरफ पहले से अधिक ध्यान दूंगी।

Mother : Yes, I'll definitely pay more attention to her now. येस, आइल डेफ़िनिटली पे मोर अटेंशन टु हर नाउ.

क्लास टीचर : कृपया ऐसा ही कीजिए। क्षिप्रा एक होशियार और अच्छे व्यवहार वाली बच्ची है। थोड़ी कोशिश से ही उसमें अवश्य सुधार आयेगा।

Class Teacher : Please do that. Kshipra is an intelligent and well-behaved girl. With a little effort, she will definitely improve. प्लीज़ डू दैट. शिप्रा इज़ ऐन इंटेलिजेंट ऐंड वेल-बिहेव्ड गर्ल. विद अ लिटल एफ़र्ट, शी विल डेफ़िनिटली इम्प्रूव.

मां : मैं पूरी कोशिश करूंगी। मिसिज़ सेन आपका बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद। कृपया उसकी प्रगति के बारे में मुझे सूचित करती रहा करें।

Mother : I will try my best. Thank you very much Mrs. Sen. Please keep me informed about her progress. आइ विल ट्राइ माइ बेस्ट. थैंक्यू वेरी मच मिसिज़ सेन. प्लीज़ कीप मी इन्फ़ॉर्म्ड अबाउट हर प्रोग्रेस.

क्लास टीचर : जी ज़रूर।

Class Teacher : Yes, ofcourse. येस, ऑफ़कोर्स.

मां : अच्छा, नमस्कार मिसिज़ सेन।

Mother : O.K. Bye Mrs. Sen. ओ.के. बाइ मिसिज़ सेन.

शिकायतें

Complaints (कम्प्लेंन्ट्स)

बिजली फ़ेल होने पर

मि. लाल : *(फोन पर)* इलेक्ट्रिसिटी कम्पलेंट्स शाहदरा से। बोल रहे हैं?

क्लर्क : जी हां।

मि. लाल : नमस्ते, मैं न्यू कॉलोनी से बोल रहा हूं। हमारे मुहल्ले में पिछले 10 घंटे से बिजली गई हुई है।

क्लर्क : जी हां, ब्रेक डाउन हो गया है। हमारे आदमी काम पर लगे हैं।

मि. लाल : कब तक बिजली आने की उम्मीद करें?

क्लर्क : करीब एक घंटे में।

मि. लाल : अच्छा, धन्यवाद।

Electricity failure (इलेक्ट्रिसिटी फ़ेल्यर)

Mr. Lal : *(On the phone)* Is that Electricity Complaints Shahdara? इज़ दैट इलेक्ट्रिसिटी कम्प्लेंट्स शाहदरा?

Clerk : Yes. येस.

Mr. Lal : Good morning, I am speaking from New Colony. There is no electricity in our locality for the last ten hours. गुड मॉर्निंग, आइ ऐम स्पीकिंग फ्रॉम न्यू कॉलोनी. देअर इज़ नो इलेक्ट्रिसिटी इन आवर लोकैलिटी फ़ॉर द लास्ट टेन आवर्ज़.

Clerk : Yes, there has been a break down. Our men are at work. येस, देअर हैज़ बीन अ ब्रेक डाउन. आवर मेन आर ऐट वर्क.

Mr. Lal : In how much time should we expect the electricity? इन हाउ मच टाइम शुड वी एक्सपेक्ट द इलेक्ट्रिसिटी?

Clerk : In about an hour. इन अबाउट एन आवर.

Mr. Lal : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

टेलीफ़ोन की गड़बड़ी

मि. खुराना : *(पब्लिक टेलीफोन पर)* टेलीफ़ोन कम्प्लेंट्स दरियागंज से बोल रहे हैं?

क्लर्क : जी हां।

मि. खुराना : मैं एफ़/385 दरियागंज से बोल रहा हूं। हमारा टेलीफ़ोन खराब है।

क्लर्क : अपना टेलीफ़ोन नम्बर बताइये?

मि. खुराना : 3345703. मुझे कम्प्लेंट नम्बर देंगे प्लीज़?

क्लर्क : डी-76.

मि. खुराना : धन्यवाद, ज़रा जल्दी ठीक करा दीजिए।

क्लर्क : जी हां, ज़ल्दी करा देंगे।

Telephone Disorder (टेलीफ़ोन डिसऑर्डर)

Mr. Khurana : *(calling from P.C.O.)* Is that Telephone Complaints Daryaganj? इज़ दैट टेलीफ़ोन कम्प्लेंट्स दरियागंज?

Clerk : Yes. येस.

Mr. Khurana : I am speaking from F/385 Daryaganj. Our telephone is out of order. आइ ऐम स्पीकिंग फ्रॉम एफ़/385 दरियागंज. आवर टेलीफ़ोन इज़ आउट ऑफ़ ऑर्डर.

Clerk : What is your telephone number? वॉट इज़ योर टेलीफ़ोन नम्बर?

Mr. Khurana : 3345703. Could you give me a complaint number please? 3345703. कुड यू गिव मी अ कम्प्लेंट नम्बर प्लीज़?

Clerk : D-76. डी-सेवन्टी सिक्स.

Mr. Khurana : Thank you. Please get it repaired fast. थैंक्यू. प्लीज़ गेट इट रिपेअर्ड फ़ास्ट.

Clerk : Yes, it will be done soon. येस, इट विल बी डन सून.

मशीन में नुक्स की शिकायत

सेल्ज़मेन : *(ग्राहक से)* गुड मॉर्निंग मैडम, क्या सेवा करूं?

ग्राहक : मैं एक शिकायत लेकर आई हूं।

सेल्ज़मेन : जी कहिए?

ग्राहक : मैंने पिछले हफ्ते, आपकी दुकान से यह मिक्सर ग्राइंडर खरीदा था। यह ठीक से काम नहीं करता।

सेल्ज़मेन : दिखाइये, क्या शिकायत है?

ग्राहक : ग्राइंडर शोर बहुत मचाता है और कुछ भी महीन नहीं पीसता। ब्लेंडर भी ठीक से काम नहीं करता है।

सेल्ज़मेन : अच्छा। इसकी गांरटी है?

ग्राहक : जी हां, एक साल।

सेल्ज़मेन : क्या आपके पास रसीद है?

ग्राहक : जी हां, यह देखिए।

सेल्ज़मेन : ठीक है मैडम। आप मशीन हमारे पास छोड़ दीजिए। मैं इसे कम्पनी की वर्कशॉप में मरम्मत के लिए भेज दूंगा।

ग्राहक : आप पीस ही क्यों नहीं बदल देते या फिर पैसे वापस कर दें।

सेल्ज़मेन : अगर नुक्स ठीक न हुआ तो पीस बदल देंगे। पर पैसे वापस नहीं हो सकते.

ग्राहक : तो फिर मैं कब आऊं।

सेल्ज़मेन : अगले हफ्ते बुधवार।

ग्राहक : ठीक है। धन्यवाद।

Complaining about a Faulty Gadget
(कम्प्लेनिंग अबाउट अ फ़ॉल्टी गैजट)

Salesman : *(to the customer)* Good morning madam. Can I help you? गुड मॉर्निंग मैडम. कैन आइ हेल्प यू?

Customer : Yes, I have a complaint. येस, आइ हैव अ कम्प्लेंट.

Salesman : Yes please. येस प्लीज़?

Customer : I bought this mixer-grinder last week from your shop. It doesn't work properly. आइ बाट ादस ामक्सर ग्राइडर लास्ट वीक फ्रॉम योर शॉप. इट डज़न्ट वर्क प्रोपर्ली.

Salesman : Let me see. What is the problem madam? लेट मी सी. वॉट इज़ द प्रॉब्लम मैडम?

Customer : The grinder makes too much noise and doesn't grind anything fine. And the blender doesn't mix anything properly. द ग्राइंडर मेक्स टू मच नॉइज़ ऐंड डज़न्ट ग्राइन्ड ऐनीथिंग फ़ाइन. ऐंड द ब्लेंडर डज़न्ट मिक्स ऐनीथिंग प्रॉपर्ली.

Salesman : I see. Does it have a guarantee? आइ सी. डज़ इट हैव अ गारंटी?

Customer : Yes, one year. येस, वन ईयर.

Salesman : Do you have the receipt please? डू यू हैव द रिसीट प्लीज?

Customer : Yes, here it is. येस, हिअर इट इज़.

Salesman : Alright madam. Leave the machine with us. I will send it to the company's workshop for repair. ऑलराइट मैडम. लीव द मशीन विद अस. आइ विल सेंड इट टु द कम्पनीज़ वर्कशॉप फ़ॉर रिपेअर.

Customer : Can't you change the piece or refund the money? कान्ट यू चेन्ज द पीस ऑर रिफ़ंड द मनी?

Salesman : We will change the piece if the fault can't be repaired. But we can't refund the money. वी विल चेन्ज़ द पीस इफ़ द फ़ॉल्ट कान्ट बी रिपेअर्ड. बट वी कान्ट रिफ़न्ड द मनी.

Customer : When should I come back? वेन शुड आइ कम बैक?

Salesman : Next week Wednesday. नेक्स्ट वीक वेंज़डे.

Customer : Alright. Thank you. ऑलराइट. थैंक्यू.

दिन-प्रतिदिन की शिकायतें

मिसिज़ शर्मा : हलो मिसिज़ कार्तिक।

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : हलो मिसिज़ शर्मा, कैसी हैं?

मिसिज़ शर्मा : ठीक हूं। कहां से आ रही हैं?

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : बाज़ार से, और आप?

मिसिज़ शर्मा : मैं भी बाज़ार गई थी। उफ़! चीजें कितनी महंगी हो गई हैं।

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : वाकई बड़ी बुरी हालत है। हर रोज़ महंगाई बढ़ रही है।

मिसिज़ शर्मा : आजकल तो ज़िंदा रहना मुश्किल है। आपकी नौकरानी वापस आ गई?

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : जी नहीं। वह फिर से पैसे बढ़ाने को कह रही है। अभी पिछले महीने ही मैंने उसकी तन्ख्वाह बढ़ाई थी।

मिसिज़ शर्मा : आज कल कोई काम तो करना ही नहीं चाहता। बस ज़्यादा से ज़्यादा पैसे चाहिए।

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : ठीक कहती हैं आप। हे भगवान। उफ़ कितनी गर्मी है!

मिसिज़ शर्मा : जी हां, और ऊपर से हमारी कॉलोनी बिजली नहीं है।

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : ये पावर कट्स (बिजली की कटौतियां) तो बर्दाश्त से बाहर हैं। मैंने कम्प्लेंट्स को फ़ोन किया था, पर कोई फ़ोन ही नहीं उठा रहा।

मिसिज़ शर्मा : मेरा फ़ोन पिछले 15 दिनों से खराब पड़ा है। मेरे हस्बैंड ने 3-4 बार शिकायत की है पर कोई नतीजा नहीं निकला।

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : सभी महकमों में धांधली है। हर किसी को रिश्वत चाहिए।

मिसिज़ शर्मा : आप ठीक कहती हैं। *(एक कार तेज़ी से गुज़रती है)* देखिए तो ज़रा, कैसे गाड़ी चला रहा है। पैदल चलने वालों की तो किसी को फिक्र ही नहीं है।

Complaining about Things in General
(कम्प्लेनिंग अबाउट थिंग्ज़ इन जनरल)

Mrs. Sharma : Hello Mrs. Kartik. हलो मिसिज़ कार्तिक.

Mrs. Kartik : Hello Mrs. Sharma. How are you? हलो मिसिज़ शर्मा. हाउ आर यू?

Mrs. Sharma : Fine. Where are you coming from? फ़ाइन. वेअर आर यू कमिंग फ्रॉम?

Mrs. Kartik : Market. And you? मार्किट, ऐंड यू?

Mrs. Sharma : I too went to market. God! How expensive the things have become! आइ टू वेंट टु मार्किट. गॉड! हाउ एक्स्पेंसिव द थिंग्ज़ हैव बिकम!

Mrs. Kartik : It's terrible really. The prices are shooting up everyday. इट्स टेरिबल रिअली. द प्राइसिज़ आर शूटिंग अप ऐवरीडे.

Mrs. Sharma : It's hard to survive these days. Has your servant returned? इट्स हार्ड टु सरवाइव दीज़ डेज़. हैज़ योर सर्वेंट रिटर्न्ड?

Mrs. Kartik : No. She is asking for a raise again. Last month only I increased her salary. नो. शी इज़ आस्किंग फ़ॉर अ रेज़ अगेन. लास्ट मंथ ओनली आइ इनक्रीज़्ड हर सैलरी.

Mrs. Sharma : Nobody wants to work these days. All they want is to get paid more and more. नोबडी वॉन्ट्स टु वर्क दीज़ डेज़. ऑल दे वॉन्ट इज़ टु गेट पेड मोर ऐंड मोर.

Mrs. Kartik : You are right. Oh God! How hot it is! यू आर राइट. ओह गॉड! हाउ हॉट इट इज़!

Mrs. Sharma : Yes, and on top of it, no electricity in our colony. येस, ऐंड ऑन टॉप ऑफ़ इट, नो इलेक्ट्रिसिटी इन आवर कॉलोनी.

Mrs. Kartik : These power cuts are unbearable. I called the complaints but nobody is lifting the phone. दीज़ पावर कट्स आर अनबेअरेबल. आइ कॉल्ड द कंम्प्लेंट्स बट नोबडी इज़ लिफ़्टिंग द फ़ोन.

Mrs. Sharma : My phone has been out of order for the last fifteen days. My husband lodged the complaint 3-4 times but there is no response. माइ फ़ोन हैज़ बीन आउट ऑफ़ ऑर्डर फ़ॉर द लास्ट फ़िफ़्टीन डेज़. माइ हस्बैंड लॉज्ड द कम्पलेंट थ्री-फ़ोर टाइम्ज़ बट देअर इज़ नो रिस्पोंस.

Mrs. Kartik : There is corruption in all the departments. Everybody wants his palm to be greased. देअर इज़ करप्शन इन ऑल द डिपार्टमेंट्स. एवरीबडी वॉन्ट्स हिज़ पाम टु बी ग्रीज़्ड.

Mrs. Sharma : You are right. *(A car speeds by)* Look at the way he's driving. There's no consideration for the pedestrians. यू आर राइट. लुक ऐट द वे ही इज़ ड्राइविंग. देअर्ज़ नो कंसीडरेशन फ़ॉर द पेडस्ट्रियन्ज़.

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : और देखा आपने गाड़ी से कितना धुआं निकल रहा था? ट्रैफ़िक और पॉल्यूशन कन्ट्रोल के इतने सारे शोर का कोई मतलब नहीं है।

Mrs. Kartik : Did you see the amount of exhaust coming out of the vehicle? All this talk about traffic and pollution control has no meaning. डिड यू सी दि अमाउंट ऑफ़ एग्ज़ास्ट कमिंग आउट ऑफ़ द वीकल? ऑल दिस टॉक अबाउट ट्रैफ़िक ऐंड पॉल्यूशन कन्ट्रोल हैज़ नो मीनिंग.

मिसिज़ शर्मा : बड़े शहरों की ज़िंदगी तो खतरों से भरी पड़ी है।

Mrs. Sharma : Life in big cities is full of hazards. लाइफ़ इन बिग सिटीज़ इज़ फ़ुल ऑफ़ हैज़र्ड्ज़.

मिसिज़ कार्तिक : हां, पर और रास्ता भी क्या है। अच्छा मिसिज़ शर्मा कभी आइये न।

Mrs Kartik : Yes, but we have no choice. O.K. Mrs. Sharma please drop in sometime. येस, बट वी हैव नो चॉइस. ओ.के. मिसिज़ शर्मा प्लीज़ ड्रॉप इन समटाइम.

मिसिज़ शर्मा : जी हां, आप भी मिसिज़ कार्तिक। अच्छा तो फिर मिलते हैं, बाइ।

Mrs. Sharma : Yes, you too, Mrs. Kartik. Bye, see you. येस, यू टू, मिसिज़ कार्तिक. बाइ, सी यू.

भावी वर के बारे में पूछताछ

Inquiring About the Prospective Bridegroom
(इन्क्वॉयरिंग अबाउट द प्रॉस्पेक्टिव ब्राइडग्रूम)

मि. दत्त : अरे वाह मिस्टर पुरी! आइये, अन्दर आइये, बैठिए!

Mr. Dutt : Hello Mr. Puri what a surprise! Please come in and have a seat. हलो मिस्टर पुरी वॉट अ सरप्राइज़! प्लीज़ कम इन ऐंड हैव अ सीट.

मि. पुरी : धन्यवाद, मिस्टर दत्त।

Mr. Puri : Thank you Mr. Dutt. थैंक्यू मिस्टर दत्त.

मि. दत्त : और क्या हालचाल है?

Mr. Dutt : So, how is everything? सो, हाउ इज़ एवरीथिंग.

मि. पुरी : ठीक है, अब आपका स्वास्थ्य कैसा है?

Mr. Puri : Fine, how is your health now? फ़ाइन, हाउ इज़ योर हेल्थ नाउ?

मि. दत्त : पहले से काफी अच्छा है, धन्यवाद। क्या पसंद करेंगे, चाय या कॉफ़ी?

Mr. Dutt : Much better, thank you. What would you like to have, tea or coffee? मच बेटर, थैंक्यू. वॉट वुड यू लाइक टु हैव, टी और कॉफ़ी.

मि. पुरी : कुछ भी नहीं। मिस्टर दत्त, दरअसल मुझे आपकी कुछ मदद चाहिए।

Mr. Puri : Nothing, thanks. Actually Mr. Dutt I need your help in something. नथिंग, थैंक्स. ऐक्चुअली मिस्टर दत्त आइ नीड योर हेल्प इन समथिंग.

मि. दत्त : जी हां बताइये, क्या कर सकता हूं?

Mr. Dutt : Yes what can I do for you? येस वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?

मि. पुरी : आपके ऑफ़िस में एक मि. कपूर हैं, असिस्टेंट मैनेजर। क्या आप उन्हें जानते हैं?

Mr. Puri : Do you know Mr. Kapoor, the Assistant Manager in your office? डू यू नो मिस्टर कपूर, द असिस्टेंट मैनेजर इन योर ऑफ़िस?

मि. दत्त : जी हां।

Mr. Dutt : Yes. येस.

मि. पुरी : और उनके परिवार को भी?

Mr. Puri : And also the family? ऐंड ऑलसो द फ़ैमिली?

मि. दत्त : जी हां, जानता हूं।

Mr. Dutt : Yes, I know them. येस, आइ नो देम.

मि. पुरी : दरअसल, मि. कपूर के बेटे और मेरी बेटी रेनू के बीच रिश्ते की बात चल रही है।

Mr. Puri : Actually, we are considering a match between Mr. Kapoor's son and my daughter Renu. एक्चुअली, वी आर कंसीडरिंग अ मैच बिटवीन मिस्टर कपूर्ज़ सन ऐंड माइ डॉटर रेनू.

मि. दत्त : ओह अच्छा।

Mr. Dutt : Oh I see. ओह आइ सी.

मि. पुरी : क्या आप लड़के और उसके परिवार के बारे में कुछ बताएंगे?

Mr. Puri : Could you give me some information regarding the boy and the family? कुड यू गिव मी सम इनफ़ॉर्मेशन रिगार्डिंग द बॉय ऐंड द फ़ैमिली?

मि. दत्त : जी, अच्छे-खासे इज़्ज़तदार लोग हैं। कपूर साहब भी अच्छे और मदद करने वाले आदमी हैं।

Mr. Dutt : Well, the Kapoors are very respectable people. Mr. Kapoor also is a nice and helpful person. वेल, द कपूर्ज़ आर वेरी रिस्पेक्टेबल पीपल. मिस्टर कपूर ऑलसो इज़ अ नाइस ऐंड हेल्पफ़ुल पर्सन.

मि. पुरी : परिवार में कितने लोग हैं?

Mr. Puri : How many members are there in the family? हाउ मेनी मेम्बर्ज़ आर देअर इन द फ़ैमिली?

मि. दत्त : पांच. मि. और मिसिज़ कपूर, उनके दो बच्चे राहुल और प्रिया और मि. कपूर की मां जो उनके साथ ही रहतीं हैं।

Mr. Dutt : Five. Mr. and Mrs. Kapoor, their two children Rahul and Priya and Mr. Kapoor's mother who also stays with him. फ़ाइव. मिस्टर ऐंड मिसिज़ कपूर, देअर टू चिल्ड्रन राहुल ऐंड प्रिया ऐंड मिस्टर कपूर्ज़ मदर हू ऑलसो स्टेज़ विद हिम.

मि. पुरी : राहुल क्या करता है?

Mr. Puri : What does Rahul do? वॉट डज़ राहुल डू?

मि. दत्त : नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़ में मार्केटिंग एग्ज़ीक्यूटिव है।

Mr. Dutt : He is a marketing executive in Navyug Industries. ही इज़ अ मार्केटिंग एग्ज़ीक्यूटिव इन नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़.

मि. पुरी : उसका ऑफ़िस कहां है?

Mr. Puri : Where is his office? वेअर इज़ हिज़ ऑफ़िस?

मि. दत्त : नौएडा में।

Mr. Dutt : In Noida. इन नौएडा.

मि. पुरी : क्या उम्र होगी उसकी?

Mr. Puri : What must be his age? वॉट मस्ट बी हिज़ एज?

मि. दत्त : मेरे ख्याल से छब्बीस या सत्ताइस के करीब।

Mr. Dutt : About 26 or 27. अबाउट ट्वेन्टी सिक्स ऑर ट्वेन्टी सेवन.

मि. पुरी : अंदाजन उसकी तन्ख्वाह क्या होगी?

Mr. Puri : What must be his approximate salary? वॉट मस्ट बी हिज़ एप्रॉक्सीमेट सैलरी?

मि. दत्त : मेरे ख्याल से पांच हज़ार के आस-पास।

Mr. Dutt : Around 5000/- I think. अराउंड फ़ाइव थाउज़न्ड आइ थिंक.

मि. पुरी : उसके स्वभाव के बारे में कुछ बता सकते हैं?

Mr. Puri : Could you tell me something about his nature? कुड यू टेल मी समथिंग एबाउट हिज़ नेचर?

मि. दत्त : अच्छा लड़का है। बड़ी इज़्ज़त से व्यवहार करता है।

Mr. Dutt : He is a nice boy. Very respectful. ही इज़ अ नाइस बॉय. वेरी रिस्पेक्टफ़ुल.

मि. पुरी : मि. कपूर की माली हालत के बारे में कुछ बताइये।

Mr. Puri : Please tell me something about Mr. Kapoor's financial status. प्लीज़ टेल मी समथिंग अबाउट मिस्टर कपूर्ज़ फ़ाइनेंश्यल स्टेटस.

मि. दत्त : मेरे ख्याल से अच्छे खाते-पीते लोग हैं। अकेले मि. कपूर की तन्ख्वाह ही 8000/- के करीब होगी। पंजाबी बाग में अपने मकान में रहते हैं।

Mr. Dutt : I think they are quite well to do. Mr. Kapoor's salary alone must be around 8000/-. They live in their own house in Punjabi Bagh. आइ थिंक दे आर क्वाइट वेल टु डू. मिस्टर कपूर्ज़ सैलरी अलोन मस्ट बी अराउंड ऐट थाउज़ेंड. दे लिव इन देअर ओन हाउस इन पंजाबी बाग.

मि. पुरी : उनकी बेटी शादीशुदा है?

Mr. Puri : Is their daughter married? इज़ देअर डॉटर मैरिड?

मि. दत्त : नहीं कॉलेज में पढ़ रही है। राहुल से छोटी है।

Mr. Dutt : No, She is in college. She is younger to Rahul. नो, शी इज़ इन कॉलेज. शी इज़ यंगर टु राहुल.

मि. पुरी : परिवार में सिगरेट-शराब आदि के चलन के बारे में?

Mr. Puri : What about drinking and smoking in the family? वॉट अबाउट ड्रिंकिंग ऐंड स्मोकिंग इन द फ़ैमिली?

मि. दत्त : देखिए, मेरे ख्याल में तो मि. कपूर और राहुल में से कोई सिगरेट नहीं पीता। पीने के बारे में कुछ कहना मुश्किल है।

Mr. Dutt : Well, as far as I know neither Mr. Kapoor nor Rahul smokes. About drinking, I don't know. वेल, एज़ फ़ार एज़ आइ नो नाइदर मि. कपूर नॉर राहुल स्मोक्स. अबाउट ड्रिंकिंग, आई डोंट नो.

मि. पुरी : जी हां, मैं समझता हूं। बस एक आखिरी बात और। आपका क्या ख्याल है लड़के की शादी में, उन्होंने बड़ी उम्मीदें लगा रखी होंगी?

Mr. Puri : Yes, I understand. Just one last question. Do you think they will have high expectations in their son's marriage? येस, आइ अंडरस्टैंड. जस्ट वन लास्ट क्वेश्चन. डू यू थिंक दे विल हैव हाइ एक्सपेक्टेशन्ज इन देअर सन्ज़ मैरिज?

मि. दत्त : इस मामले में मैं क्या कह सकता हूं। आपका उनसे बात करना ही ठीक रहेगा।

Mr. Dutt : What can I say about that? It would be better if you ask them yourself. वॉट कैन आइ से अबाउट दैट? इट वुड बी बेटर इफ़ यू आस्क देम योरसेल्फ़.

मि. पुरी : आप ठीक कहते हैं। मि. दत्त आपकी मदद के लिए बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद।

Mr. Puri : You are right. Thank you very much Mr. Dutt for your kind help. यू आर राइट. थैंक्यू वेरी मच मि. दत्त फ़ॉर योर काइन्ड हेल्प.

मि. दत्त : नहीं, कोई बात नहीं।

Mr. Dutt : You are welcome. यू आर वेल्कम.

मि. पुरी : अच्छा अब मैं चलूंगा। कभी आइएगा।

Mr. Puri : O.K. I'll take your leave now. Please drop in sometime. ओ.के. आइल टेक योर लीव नाउ. प्लीज़ ड्रॉप इन समटाइम.

मि. दत्त : जी ज़रूर. बाइ मि. पुरी।

Mr. Dutt : Yes sure. Bye Mr. Puri. येस श्योर. बाइ मिस्टर पुरी.

विवाह संबंधी बातचीत — Marriage Negotiation (मैरिज नेगोशिएशन)

लड़के व लड़की के माता-पिता के बीच पहली मुलाकात — First Meeting between the Boy's and the Girl's Parents (फ़र्स्ट मीटिंग बिटवीन द बॉयज़ ऐंड द गर्ल्ज़ पेरेन्ट्स)

(मि. और मिसिज पुरी, कपूर साहब के बेटे राहुल से अपनी बेटी रेनू के रिश्ते की बात चलाने, पहली बार उन के घर आते हैं। मि. कपूर दरवाज़ा खोलते हैं।)

मि. पुरी : नमस्कार। जी मैं रमेश पुरी हूं।

Mr. Puri : Namaskar. I am Ramesh Puri.
नमस्कार. आइ ऐम रमेश पुरी.

मि. कपूर : ओह मि. पुरी! मैं सोमेश कपूर हूं। आइये, आइये, अंदर आइये।

Mr. Kapoor : Oh, Mr. Puri! I am Somesh Kapoor. Please come in. ओ, मि. पुरी! आइ ऐम सोमेश कपूर. प्लीज़ कम इन.

मि. पुरी : ये मेरी पत्नी गीता हैं।

Mr. Puri : Please meet my wife Geeta.
प्लीज़ मीट माइ वाइफ़ गीता.

मि. कपूर : नमस्कार मेरी पत्नी मीरा।

Mr. Kapoor : Namaskar. My wife Meera.
नमस्कार. माइ वाइफ़ मीरा.

मि. और मिसिज़ पुरी : नमस्कार।

Mr. & Mrs. Puri : Namaskar. नमस्कार.

मिसिज़ कपूर : नमस्कार।

Mrs. Kapoor : Namaskar. Please sit down.
नमस्कार. प्लीज़ सिट डाउन.

(सभी बैठते हैं)

मि. पुरी : मि. कपूर आप क्या खास दिल्ली के ही रहने वाले हैं?

Mr. Puri : Do you originally belong to Delhi Mr. Kapoor?
डू यू ओरिजिनली बिलोंग टु डेल्ही मि. कपूर?

मि. कपूर : जी शुरू से नहीं। मेरे माता-पिता अमृतसर से थे। पर हम पिछले बीस साल से दिल्ली में ही बसे हैं। और आप?

Mr. Kapoor : Not originally. My parents belonged to Amritsar. But we have lived here for the last twenty years. What about you? नॉट ऑरिजिनली. माइ पेरेन्ट्स बिलौंग्ड

टु अमृतसर. बट वी हैव लिव्ड हिअर फ़ॉर द लास्ट ट्वेन्टी ईयर्ज़. वॉट अबाउट यू?

मि. पुरी : जी हम तो दिल्ली से ही हैं। मेरे मातापिता पार्टीशन के बाद यहीं आ कर बस गए थे।

Mr. Puri : We belong to Delhi. My parents migrated here after partition. वी बिलोंग टु डेल्ही. माइ पेरेन्ट्स माइग्रेटिड हिअर आफ़्टर पार्टीशन.

मि. कपूर : अच्छा अच्छा। आप निगम साहब को कैसे जानते हैं?

Mr. Kapoor : I see. How do you know. Mr. Nigam? आइ सी. हाउ डू यू नो मि. निगम?

मि. पुरी : जी हम पड़ोसी हैं। दरअसल मैंने एक बार उनसे अपनी बेटी रेनू के लिए कोई अच्छा लड़का बताने के लिए कहा था। उन्होंने आपके बेटे व परिवार की बड़ी प्रशंसा की और आपका फ़ोन नं. भी दिया।

Mr. Puri : We are neighbours. Actually I once asked him to suggest a match for my daughter Renu. He spoke very highly of your son and your family and also gave me your phone number. वी आर नेबर्ज़. एक्चुअली आइ वन्स आस्क्ड हिम टु सजेस्ट अ मैच फ़ॉर माइ डॉटर रेनू. ही स्पोक वेरी हाइली ऑफ़ योर सन ऐंड योर फ़ैमिली ऐंड ऑलसो गेव मी योर फ़ोन नंबर.

मि. कपूर : जी हां, निगम और मैने दस साल साथ काम किया था। हम अच्छे दोस्त हैं। कैसे हैं वे?

Mr. Kapoor : Yes, Nigam and I worked together for ten years. We are good friends. How is he? येस, निगम ऐंड आइ वर्क्ड टुगेदर फ़ॉर टेन ईयर्ज़. वी आर गुड फ्रेंड्स. हाउ इज़ ही?

मि. पुरी : बिलकुल ठीक हैं। उन्होंने आपको नमस्कार कहा है।

Mr. Puri : Very well. He has sent you his regards. वेरी वेल. ही हैज़ सेन्ट यू हिज़ रिगार्ड्ज़.

मि. कपूर : कृपया मेरी ओर से भी उन्हें नमस्कार कहिएगा।

Mr. Kapoor : Please convey the same on my behalf. प्लीज़ कन्वे द सेम ऑन माइ बिहाफ़.

(मिसिज़ कपूर चाय व कुछ नाश्ता लेकर आती हैं)

मिसिज़ कपूर : जी, चाय लीजिए।

Mrs. Kapoor : Please have tea. प्लीज़ हैव टी.

मिसिज़ पुरी : इस तकलीफ की क्या ज़रूरत थी।

Mrs. Puri : There was no need for taking the trouble. देअर वॉज़ नो नीड फ़ॉर टेकिंग द ट्रबल.

मिसिज़ कपूर : नहीं जी, तकलीफ की क्या बात है। लीजिए, थोड़ा नमकीन लीजिए।

Mrs. Kapoor : No trouble at all. Please have some Namkeen. नो ट्रबल एट ऑल. प्लीज़ हैव सम नमकीन.

मि. पुरी : *(लेते हुए)* धन्यवाद। कपूर साहब, आप क्या अभी भी एन.के. इंडस्ट्रीज़ में ही हैं।

Mr. Puri : *(taking it)* Thank you. Are you still with N.K. Industries Mr. Kapoor? थैंक्यू. आर यू स्टिल विद ऐन.के. इन्डस्ट्रीज़ मि. कपूर?

मि. कपूर : जी नहीं, अब मैं श्रीकांत इंडस्ट्रीज़ में हूं। मैं वहां असिस्टेंट मैनेजर हूं।

Mr. Kapoor : No, I am with Shrikant Industries now. I am Assistant Manager there. नो, आइ ऐम विद श्रीकांत इंडस्ट्रीज़ नाउ. आइ ऐम असिस्टेंट मैनेजर देअर.

मि. पुरी : ओह अच्छा! मेरे मित्र जगदीश भास्कर भी वहीं हैं। वे अकाउंट्स में हैं।

Mr. Puri : Oh, I see! My friend Mr. Jagdish Bhasker is also there. He is in accounts. ओ, आइ सी! माइ फ्रेंड मि. जगदीश भास्कर इज़ ऑलसो देअर. ही इज़ इन अकाउंट्स.

मि. कपूर : जी हां, मैं भास्कर को अच्छी तरह जानता हूं। आप क्या करते हैं मि. पुरी?

Mr. Kapoor : Yes, I know Bhasker very well. What do you do Mr. Puri? येस, आइ नो भास्कर वेरी वेल. वॉट डू यू डू मिस्टर पुरी?

मि. पुरी : जी मैं स्टेट बैंक ऑफ़ इंडिया में अकाउंट्स मैनेजर हूं। मेरे परिवार में, हमारी दो बेटियां और एक बेटा है। बड़ी बेटी की शादी हो चुकी है।

Mr. Puri : I am Accounts Manager in the State Bank of India. As for my family, we have two daughters and one son. Our elder daughter is already married. Sumit, my

हमारा बेटा सुमित सबसे छोटा है।

son is the youngest. आइ ऐम अकाउंट्स मैनेजर इन द स्टेट बैंक ऑफ़ इंडिया. एज़ फ़ॉर माइ फ़ैमिली, वी हैव टू डॉटर्स ऐंड वन सन. आवर एल्डर डॉटर इज़ ऑलरेडी मैरिड. सुमित, माइ सन इज़ द यंगेस्ट.

मि. कपूर : और आपकी छोटी बेटी क्या कर रही है?

Mr. Kapoor : And what is your younger daughter doing? ऐंड वॉट इज़ योर यंगर डॉटर डूइंग?

मि. पुरी : वह बी.ए. फ़ाइनल में पढ़ रही है।

Mr. Puri : She is studying in B.A. final. शी इज़ स्टडींग इन बी.ए. फ़ाइनल.

मिसिज़ पुरी : साथ ही वह इंटीरियर डेकोरेशन का एक कोर्स भी कर रही है। वह गोरी, सुंदर और बहुत समझदार लड़की है।

Mr. Puri : She is also doing a course in interior decoration, these days. She is fair, beautiful and a very sensible girl. शी इज़ ऑलसो डूइंग अ कोर्स इन इंटीरियर डेकोरेशन, दीज़ डेज़. शी इज़ फ़ेयर, ब्यूटिफ़ुल ऐंड अ वेरी सेंसिबल गर्ल.

मिसिज़ कपूर : हमारा बेटा राहुल भी बड़ा होशियार और समझदार लड़का है।

Mr. Kapoor : Our son Rahul also is a very intelligent and sensible boy. आवर सन राहुल ऑलसो इज़ अ वेरी इंटेलिजेंट ऐंड सेंसिबल बॉय.

मि. पुरी : कपूर साहब, राहुल कहां काम करता है?

Mr. Puri : Where is Rahul working, Mr. Kapoor? वेअर इज़ राहुल वर्किंग, मि. कपूर?

मि. कपूर : नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़ में मार्केटिंग एग्ज़ीक्यूटिव है।

Mr. Kapoor : He is Marketing Executive in Navyug Industries. ही इज़ मार्केटिंग एग्ज़ीक्यूटिव इन नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़.

मि. पुरी : वहां कबसे काम कर रहा है?

Mr. Puri : How long has he been working there? हाउ लौंग हैज़ ही बीन वर्किंग देअर?

मि. कपूर : करीब तीन साल से।

Mr. Kapoor : About three years. अबाउट थ्री ईयर्ज़.

मि. पुरी : राहुल ने कौन सा कोर्स किया है?

Mr. Puri : What course has Rahul done? वॉट कोर्स हैज़ राहुल डन?

मि. कपूर : जी वह फ़र्स्ट क्लास बी.कॉम है। उसके बाद उसने सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग में डिप्लोमा किया है।

Mr. Kapoor : He is a first class commerce graduate. After that, he has done a diploma in sales and marketing. ही इज़ अ फ़र्स्ट क्लास कॉमर्स ग्रैजुएट. आफ़्टर दैट, ही हैज़ डन अ डिप्लोमा इन सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग.

मि. पुरी : अच्छा अच्छा। राहुल घर पर है, क्या?

Mr. Puri : Oh, I see. Is Rahul around Mr. Kapoor? ओ, आइ सी. इज़ राहुल अराउंड मि. कपूर?

मिसिज़ कपूर : जी हां, बस अभी आ रहा है।

Mrs. Kapoor : Yes, he is just coming. येस, ही इज़ जस्ट कमिंग.

(राहुल आता है)

मि. कपूर : *(मि. और मिसिज़ पुरी से)* मेरा बेटा राहुल।

Mr. Kapoor : *(To Mr. & Mrs. Puri)* My son Rahul. माइ सन राहुल.

राहुल : *(बैठता है)* नमस्कार।

Rahul : *(sits down)* Namaskar. नमस्कार.

मि. पुरी : तो राहुल, कैसा चल रहा है?

Mr. Puri : So Rahul, how is everything? सो राहुल, हाउ इज़ एवरीथिंग?

राहुल : जी सब ठीक है, धन्यवाद।

Rahul : Very well, thank you. वेरी वेल, थैंक्यू.

मि. पुरी : राहुल, तुम्हारी नौकरी किस तरह की है?

Mr. Puri : What is your job profile Rahul? वॉट इज़ योर जॉब प्रोफ़ाइल राहुल?

राहुल : जी मैं अपनी कंपनी की कंज़्यूमर गुड्स (उपभोक्ता वस्तुओं) की सेल्ज़, प्राइसिंग, डिस्ट्रीब्यूशन और एडवर्टाइज़िंग आदि का काम संभालता हूं।

Rahul : I look after sales, pricing, distribution and advertising of our consumer goods. आइ लुक आफ़्टर सेल्ज़, प्राइसिंग, डिस्ट्रीब्यूशन ऐंड एडवर्टाइजिंग ऑफ़ आवर कंज़्यूमर गुड्स.

मि. पुरी : कौन-कौन से इलाकों में?

Mr. Puri : Which areas do you cover? विच एरिआज़ डू यू कवर?

राहुल : दिल्ली, यू.पी., पंजाब और हरियाणा।

Rahul : Delhi, U.P., Punjab and Haryana.
डेल्ही, यू.पी., पंजाब ऐंड हरियाणा.

मि. कपूर : राहुल का काम बहुत अच्छा चल रहा है जी। इसकी सालाना आमदनी सत्तर हजार के करीब है। और ज़ल्दी ही तरक्की भी होने वाली है।

Mr. Kapoor : Rahul is doing very well. His annual package is about 70,000. And his next promotion is also expected very soon. राहुल इज़ डूइंग वेरी वेल. हिज़ ऐनुअल पैकेज इज़ अबाउट 70,000. ऐंड हिज़ नेक्स्ट प्रमोशन इज़ ऑलसो एक्सपेक्टिड वेरी सून.

मि. पुरी : ये तो बहुत अच्छी बात है। राहुल क्या तुम काफी बाहर रहते हो?

Mr. Puri : That's very good. Do you travel a lot Rahul?
दैट्स वेरी गुड. डू यू ट्रैवल अ लॉट राहुल?

राहुल : जी, महीने में करीब दस दिन।

Rahul : Yes, about ten days a month.
येस, अबाउट टेन डेज़ अ मन्थ.

मि. पुरी : अच्छा अच्छा. तुम्हारा ऑफ़िस यहां से कितनी दूर है?

Mr. Puri : Oh I see. How far is your office from here?
ओ आइ सी. हाउ फ़ार इज़ योर ऑफ़िस फ्रॉम हिअर?

राहुल : जी करीब दस किलोमीटर।

Rahul : About ten kilometres. अबाउट टेन किलोमीटर्स.

मि. पुरी : भविष्य के लिए तुम्हारा क्या इरादा है?

Mr. Puri : What are your future plans Rahul?
वॉट आर योर फ़्यूचर प्लैन्ज़ राहुल?

राहुल : अभी तो मैं नवयुग में खुश हूं। पर बेहतर भविष्य के लिए तो हमेशा चेन्ज के बारे में सोचा जा सकता है।

Rahul : For the time being, I am happy in Navyug. But for better prospects I can always consider a change. फ़ॉर द टाइम बींग, आइ एम हैपी इन नवयुग. बट फ़ॉर बेटर प्रॉस्पेक्ट्स. आइ कैन ऑलवेज़ कंसीडर अ चेन्ज.

मि. पुरी : *(मि. कपूर से)* सो तो है। आप सबसे मिल कर वास्तव में बड़ी खुशी हुई। अब हमें चलना चाहिए ये मेरा पता और टेलीफोन नं. है। जल्दी ही मैं आपसे फिर सम्पर्क करूंगा।

Mr. Puri : *(to Mr. Kapoor)* Yes quite true. It's a real pleasure meeting you all. We will make a move now. Here this is my address and telephone number. Soon I'll get in touch with you again. येस क्वाइट ट्रू. इट्स अ रिअल प्लेज़र मीटिंग यू ऑल. वी विल मेक अ मूव नाउ. हिअर दिस इज़ माइ एड्रेस ऐंड टेलीफ़ोन नम्बर. सून आइ विल गेट इन टच विद यू अगेन.

मि. कपूर : जी अच्छा। थैंक्यू।

Mr. Kapoor : O.K. Thank you. ओ.के. थैंक्यू.

मि. और मिसिज़ पुरी : *(मिसिज़ कपूर से)* अच्छा जी।

Mr. & Mrs. Puri : *(to Mrs. Kapoor)* O.K. Namaskar.
ओ.के. नमस्कार.

राहुल और मिसिज़ कपूर : नमस्कार।

Rahul & Mrs. Kapoor : Namaskar. नमस्कार.

(मि. और मिसिज़ पुरी बाहर आकर बात करते हैं)

मि. पुरी : गीता क्या ख्याल है तुम्हारा?

Mr. Puri : What do you think Geeta? वॉट डू यू थिंक गीता?

मिसिज़ पुरी : लगते तो ठीक हैं। पर तुम बात पक्की करने से पहले जगदीश भास्कर से बात ज़रूर करना।

Mrs. Puri : They seem to be O.K. but you must speak to Jagdish Bhaskar before finalizing anything. दे सीम टु बी ओ.के. बट यू मस्ट स्पीक टु जगदीश भास्कर बिफ़ोर फ़ाइनैलाइ-ज़िंग एनीथिंग.

मि. पुरी : बिलकुल, वह तो है ही!

Mr. Puri : Oh yes, ofcourse! ओ येस, ऑफ़कोर्स!

विवाह संबंधी बातचीत — Marriage Negotiation (मैरिज नेगोशिएशन)

लड़के और लड़की की मुलाकात — The Boy Meets the Girl (द बॉय मीट्स द गर्ल)

(मि. और मिसिज़ कपूर अपने बेटे राहुल और बेटी प्रिया के साथ पुरीज़ की बेटी रेनू को देखने के लिए आते हैं।)

मि. कपूर : नमस्कार मि. पुरी।

Mr. Kapoor : Good evening (Namaskar) Mr. Puri.
गुड ईवनिंग (नमस्कार) मिस्टर पुरी.

मि. पुरी : नमस्कार। स्वागत है, आइये।

Mr. Puri : Good evening. Welcome, please come in.
गुड ईवनिंग. वेल्कम, प्लीज़ कम इन.

मिसिज़ पुरी : नमस्कार। आइये बैठिए।

Mrs. Puri : Namaskar. Please be seated.
नमस्कार. प्लीज़ बी सीटिड.

(सब बैठते हैं)

मि. कपूर : ये मेरी बेटी प्रिया है।

Mr. Kapoor : This is my daughter Priya.
दिस इज़ माइ डॉटर प्रिया.

प्रिया : नमस्कार।

Priya : Namaskar. नमस्कार.

मि. पुरी : मेरा बेटा सुमित।

Mr. Puri : This is my son Sumit. दिस इज़ माइ सन सुमित.

सुमित : नमस्कार।

Sumit : Namaskar. नमस्कार.

(नौकर ठंडा लेकर आता है)

मिसिज़ पुरी : लीजिए ठंडा लीजिए।

Mrs. Puri : Please have something cold.
प्लीज़ हैव समथिंग कोल्ड.

मि. कपूर : और मि. पुरी, सब कैसा चल रहा है।

Mr. Kapoor : So, how is everything Mr. Puri?
सो, हाउ इज़ एवरीथिंग मिस्टर पुरी?

मि. पुरी : ईश्वर की कृपा से सब ठीक-ठाक है। धन्यवाद।

Mr. Puri : Fine, by God's grace. Thank you.
फ़ाइन, बाइ गॉड्स ग्रेस. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ कपूर : रेनू की परीक्षाएं तो हो गई हैं न?

Mrs. Kapoor : I think Renu's exams are over.
आइ थिंक रेनूज़ इग्ज़ैम्ज़ आर ओवर.

मिसिज़ पुरी : जी। इस महीने की 20 तारीख को खत्म हो गईं थीं।

Mrs. Puri : Yes. They were over on the twentieth of this month. येस. दे वर ओवर ऑन द ट्वेन्टीअथ ऑफ़ दिस मन्थ.

(नौकर चाय, मिठाई, नमकीन आदि लेकर आता है)

मिसिज़ पुरी : सुमित, सभी को नमकीन, मिठाई आदि दो।

Mrs. Puri : Sumit, offer snacks and sweets to everyone.
सुमित, ऑफ़र स्नैक्स ऐंड स्वीट्स टु एवरीवन.

प्रिया : *(चाय नहीं लेती)* जी नहीं आंटी, मैं चाय नहीं पीती।

Priya : *(refuses tea)* No thanks Auntie, I don't take tea.
नो थैंक्स आंटी, आइ डोन्ट टेक टी.

मिसिज़ पुरी : तो और कुछ लो न। थोड़ा कोक और ले लो।

Mrs. Puri : Have something else then. Have some more coke. हैव समथिंग एल्स देन. हैव सम मोर कोक.

प्रिया : जी नहीं, धन्यवाद।

Priya : No, thanks. नो, थैंक्स.

मिसिज़ पुरी : अच्छा ये बर्फी और थोड़ा नमकीन तो लो।

Mrs. Puri : O.K. Have some burfi, and namkeen.
हैव सम बरफी ऐंड नमकीन.

प्रिया : *(एक टुकड़ा लेती है)* धन्यवाद।

Priya : *(picks up one piece)* Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ कपूर : रेनू कहां है?

Mrs. Kapoor : Where is Renu? वेअर इज़ रेनू?

मिसिज़ पुरी : मैं उसे बुलाती हूं।

Mrs. Puri : I'll call her. आइल कॉल हर.

(अन्दर से रेनू को बुलाकर लाती है)

रेनू : नमस्कार।

Renu : Namaskar. नमस्कार.

मिसिज़ कपूर : आओ रेनू मेरे पास बैठो। तुम्हारी परीक्षाएं तो हो गईं न?

Mrs. Kapoor : Renu come sit near me. रेनू कम सिट निअर मी. So, your exams are over? सो, योर इग्ज़ैम्ज़ आर ओवर?

रेनू : जी हां।

Renu : Yes. येस.

मिसिज़ कपूर : आजकल क्या कर रही हो?

Mrs. Kapoor : What are you doing these days? वॉट आर यू डूइंग दीज़ डेज़.

रेनू : जी मैं इंटीरियर डेकोरेशन (घर के अंदर की सजावट) का एक छोटा-सा कोर्स कर रही हूं। इसके अलावा मुझे खाना बनाने और तरह-तरह के कपड़े डिज़ाइन करने व सिलने का भी शौक है।

Renu : I am doing a short course in interior decoration. Besides I like cooking and designing clothes also. आइ एम डूइंग अ शॉर्ट कोर्स इन इंटीरिअर डेकोरेशन. बिसाइड्ज़ आइ लाइक कुकिंग ऐंड डिज़ाइनिंग क्लोद्ज़ ऑलसो.

मिसिज़ पुरी : जी, रेनू बहुत ही बढ़िया खाना बनाती है। अधिकतर खाना बनाने और घर की सार-सम्भाल की ज़िम्मेवारी इसी पर है।

Mrs. Puri : Renu is a very good cook. Most of the cooking and household work is managed by her only. रेनू इज़ अ वेरी गुड कुक. मोस्ट ऑफ़ द कुकिंग ऐंड हाउसहोल्ड वर्क इज़ मैनेज्ड बाइ हर ओनली.

मिसिज़ कपूर : यह तो बहुत अच्छी बात है। लड़की को यह सब आना बहुत ज़रूरी है।

Mrs. Kapoor : That's very good. For a girl it is very important to know all this. दैट्स वेरी गुड. फ़ॉर अ गर्ल इट इज़ वेरी इम्पॉर्टेंट टु नो ऑल दिस.

प्रिया : मम्मी, क्यों न हम भैया और रेनू को आपस में अकेले थोड़ी बातचीत करने दें।

Priya : Mummy why don't we let Renu and Bhaiya talk to each other alone for a while. मम्मी वाइ डोन्ट वी लेट रेनू ऐंड भैया टॉक टु ईच अदर अलोन फ़ॉर अ वाइल.

मिसिज़ कपूर : *(मिसिज़ पुरी से)* मेरी राय में ठीक बात है क्या हम थोड़ी देर के लिए कहीं और बैठ सकते हैं?

Mrs. Kapoor : *(to Mrs. Puri)* I think it is a good idea. Can we sit somewhere else for sometime. आइ थिंक इट इज़ अ गुड आइडिया. कैन वी सिट समवेअर एल्स फ़ॉर समटाइम?

मिसिज़ पुरी : हां, हां, क्यों नहीं। आइये मैं आपको घर दिखाती हूं, फिर हम दूसरे कमरे में बैठते हैं।

Mrs. Puri : Yes, why not. Let me show you around. Then we can sit in the other room. येस, वाइ नॉट. लेट मी शो यू देन वी कैन सिट इन द अदर रूम.

मिसिज़ कपूर : *(मि. कपूर से)* आइये हम दूसरे कमरे में चलें। थोड़ी देर राहुल और रेनू को आपस में बात करने देते हैं।

Mrs. Kapoor : *(to Mr. Kapoor)* Come, let us sit in the other room. Let Rahul and Renu talk to each other. कम, लेट अस सिट इन द अदर रूम. लेट राहुल ऐंड रेनू टॉक टु ईच अदर.

मि. कपूर : ठीक है।

Mr. Kapoor : Alright. ऑलराइट.

(सभी जाते हैं। राहुल और रेनु आपस में बात करते हैं।)

राहुल : आप कौन से कॉलेज में पढ़ी हैं?

Rahul : Which college did you attend? विच कॉलेज डिड यू अटेंड?

रेनू : गार्गी कॉलेज में।

Renu : Gargi college. गार्गी कॉलेज.

राहुल : आपके पास कौन से सब्जेक्ट्स थे?

Rahul : What were your subjects? वॉट वर योर सब्जेक्ट्स?

रेनू : हिस्ट्री, इक्नॉमिक्स और इंग्लिश।

Renu : History, Economics and English. हिस्ट्री, इक्नॉमिक्स ऐंड इंग्लिश.

राहुल : आपकी हॉबीज़ क्या हैं?

Rahul : What are your hobbies? वॉट आर योर हॉबीज़?

रेनू : खाना बनाना और तरह-तरह की डिज़ाइन के कपड़े बनाना। खाली समय में मुझे नॉवल पढ़ना और म्यूज़िक सुनना भी अच्छा लगता है।

Renu : Cooking and designing clothes. In my spare time I also read novels and listen to music. कुकिंग ऐंड डिज़ाइनिंग क्लोद्ज़. इन माइ स्पेअर टाइम आइ ऑलसो रीड नॉवल्ज़ ऐंड लिसन टु म्यूज़िक.

राहुल : कैसा म्यूज़िक पसंद है?

Rahul : What type of music? वॉट टाइप ऑफ़ म्यूज़िक?

रेनू : हल्का-फुल्का फ़िल्मी गीत, गज़ल आदि।

Renu : Light film songs and gazals. लाइट फ़िल्म सौंग्ज़ ऐंड गज़ल्ज़.

राहुल : *(थोड़ा शर्माते हुए)* अपने पति से आपकी क्या आशाएं हैं।

Rahul : *(shyly)* What are your expectations from a husband? वॉट आर योर एक्सपेक्टेशन्ज़ फ्रॉम अ हस्बैंड?

रेनू : *(शर्माते हुए)* वह प्यार करने वाला, मेरा ख्याल रखने वाला व मुझे समझने वाला होना चाहिए।

Renu : *(shyly)* He should be loving, caring and understanding. ही शुड बी लविंग, केअरिंग ऐंड अंडरस्टेंडिंग.

राहुल : क्या आप शादी के बाद काम करना चाहती हैं?

Rahul : Do you want to work after marriage? डू यू वॉन्ट टु वर्क आफ़्टर मैरिज?

रेनू : यह तो मेरी ससुराल वालों और शादी के बाद की परिस्थितियों पर निर्भर करता है।

Renu : That depends on my in-laws and the circumstances after marriage. दैट डिपेंड्ज़ ऑन माइ इनलॉज़ ऐंड द सर्कम्स्टैंसिज़ आफ़्टर मैरिज.

राहुल : एक आखिरी पर बड़ा ज़रूरी सवाल। मैं अपने मां-बाप का इकलौता बेटा हूं इसलिए हमेशा उनके साथ रहूंगा। क्या आप परिवार के साथ मिलजुल कर रह सकेंगी।

Rahul : One last but very important question. Being the only son I'll always stay with my parents. Can you adjust in the family? वन लास्ट बट वेरी इंम्पॉर्टेंट क्वेश्चन. बींग द ओनली सन आइ विल ऑलवेज़ स्टे विद माइ पेरेन्ट्स. कैन यू एडजस्ट इन द फ़ैमिली.

रेनू : जी, ज़रूर।

Renu : Yes sure. येस श्योर.

राहुल : अब आप भी मुझसे जो चाहें पूछ सकती हो।

Rahul : Now you too can ask me whatever you want. नाउ यू टू कैन आस्क मी वॉटएवर यू वॉन्ट.

रेनू : मैं भी जानना चाहूंगी कि आप अपनी पत्नी से क्या-क्या आशाएं रखते हैं।

Renu : I would also like to know about your expectations from your wife. आइ वुड ऑलसो लाइक टु नो अबाउट योर एक्स्पेक्टेशन्ज़ फ्रॉम योर वाइफ़.

राहुल : मैं चाहता हूं कि वह मेरी सच्ची दोस्त व जीवन साथी हो।

Rahul : I want her to be my true friend and life partner. आइ वॉन्ट हर टु बी माइ ट्रू फ्रेन्ड ऐंड लाइफ़ पार्टनर.

(दोनों के मां-बाप वापस आते हैं।)

मिसिज़ कपूर : आपका घर काफी अच्छा व बड़ा है।

Mrs. Kapoor : You have a nice and spacious house. यू हैव अ नाइस ऐंड स्पेश्यस हाउस.

मिसिज़ पुरी : जी शुक्रिया।

Mrs. Puri : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ कपूर : *(राहुल और रेनू से)* हां, तुम दोनों ने आपस में कुछ बातचीत की क्या?

Mrs. Kapoor : *(To Rahul and Renu)* Yes, did you talk to each other? येस, डिड यू टॉक टु ईच अदर?

मिसिज़ पुरी : और एक कप चाय या कुछ ठंडा लीजिए न।

Mrs. Puri : Please have another cup of tea or something cold. प्लीज़ हैव अनदर कप ऑफ़ टी ऑर समथिंग कोल्ड.

मि. कपूर : जी नहीं, बस, धन्यवाद। मेरे ख्याल से अब चलेंगे। आशा है जल्दी ही फिर मुलाकात होगी।

Mr. Kapoor : No thanks, I think we will make a move now. We hope to meet again soon. नो थैंक्स, आइ थिंक वी विल मेक अ मूव नाउ. वी होप टु मीट अगेन सून.

मि. पुरी : आपके पास मेरा फ़ोन नम्बर तो है न?

मि. कपूर : जी हां, है।

राहुल : *(रेनू से)* बाइ। फिर मिलते हैं।

रेनू : बाइ।

Mr. Puri : You have my phone number I hope?
यू हैव माइ फ़ोन नम्बर आइ होप?

Mr. Kapoor : Yes, I have. येस, आइ हैव.

Rahul : *(to Renu)* Bye. See you. बाइ. सी यू.

Renu : Bye. बाइ.

करिअर संबंधी बातचीत Talking About Careers (टॉकिंग अबाउट करिअर्ज़)

सेल्ज़ और मार्केटिंग Sales And Marketing (सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग)

(नीरज अपने अंकल प्रोफेसर कौशिक के पास सलाह के लिए जाता है कि वह बारहवीं के बाद किस करिअर का चुनाव करे।)

नीरज : गुड ईवनिंग अंकल।

Neeraj : Good evening uncle. गुड ईवनिंग अंकल.

प्रो. कौशिक : गुड ईवनिंग नीरज। कैसे हो?

Prof. Kaushik : Good evening Neeraj. How are you? गुड ईवनिंग नीरज. हाउ आर यू?

नीरज : जी अच्छा हूं, धन्यवाद। अंकल, मुझे आपकी एक ज़रूरी सलाह चाहिए।

Neeraj : Fine, thank you. Uncle, I need your advice on something very important. फ़ाइन, थैंक्यू. अंकल, आइ नीड योर एडवाइस ऑन समथिंग वेरी इंपोर्टेंट.

प्रो. कौशिक : हां नीरज, कहो क्या बात है?

Prof. Kaushik : Yes Neeraj, what is it? येस नीरज, वॉट इज़ इट?

नीरज : अंकल आपको तो पता ही है, इस वर्ष मैंने बारहवीं की परीक्षा दी है। मेरा रज़ल्ट अगले महीने में आने की आशा है। क्या आप मुझे सलाह देंगे कि बारहवीं के बाद मैं किस करिअर का चुनाव करूं?

Neeraj : You know uncle, I have appeared in the twelfth class examination this year. My result is expected next month. Could you please advise me on what career to choose after twelfth? यू नो अंकल, आइ हैव अपीअर्ड इन द टवेल्फ़्थ क्लास इग्ज़ैमिनेशन दिस ईयर. माइ रज़ल्ट इज़ एक्सपेक्टिड नेक्स्ट मंथ. कुड यू प्लीज़ एडवाइज़ मी ऑन वॉट करिअर टु चूज़ आफ़्टर टवेल्फ़्थ?

प्रो. कौशिक : तुम्हारे सब्जेक्ट्स क्या हैं?

Prof. Kaushik : What are your subjects? वॉट आर योर सबजेक्ट्स?

नीरज : कॉमर्स.

Neeraj : Commerce. कॉमर्स.

प्रो. कौशिक : तुम्हारे पेपर कैसे हुए हैं?

Prof. Kaushik : How have you done your papers? हाउ हैव यू डन योर पेपर्ज़?

नीरज : अंकल, बहुत अच्छे नहीं हुए हैं। मुझे साठ प्रतिशत से ऊपर मार्क्स की उम्मीद नहीं है।

Neeraj : Not very well uncle. I don't expect to get more than sixty per cent marks. नॉट वेरी वेल अंकल. आइ डोन्ट एक्सपेक्ट टु गेट मोर दैन सिक्सटी पर्सेन्ट मार्क्स.

प्रो. कौशिक : अच्छा, कोई बिज़नेस शुरू करने के बारे में तुम्हारा क्या ख्याल है? कभी इस बारे में सोचा है?

Prof. Kaushik : I see. What about starting some business? Have you given it a thought? आइ सी. वॉट अबाउट स्टार्टिंग सम बिज़नेस? हैव यू गिवन इट अ थॉट.

नीरज : जी मेरा ऐसा रुझान नहीं है। मैं कोई ऐसा कोर्स करना चाहूंगा जिससे मुझे अच्छी नौकरी मिले।

Neeraj : I don't think I have an aptitude for that. I'll prefer doing some good job oriented course. आइ डोन्ट थिंक आइ हैव ऐन ऐप्टिट्यूड फ़ॉर दैट. आइल प्रिफ़र डूइंग सम जॉब ओरिएंटिड कोर्स.

प्रो. कौशिक : अच्छा! तुम मैथ्स में कैसे हो नीरज?

Prof. Kaushik : I see. How are you in maths Neeraj? आइ सी. हाउ आर यू इन मैथ्स नीरज?

नीरज : मेरे ख्याल से तो मैं मैथ्स में ठीक हूं।

Neeraj : I think, I am reasonably good in maths. आइ थिंक आइ ऐम रीज़नेबली गुड इन मैथ्स.

प्रो. कौशिक : तब तो तुम, फ़ाइनैंस मैनेजमेंट का कोर्स कर सकते हो या फिर सेल्ज़ और मार्केटिंग का।

Prof. Kaushik : In that case, you can do a course in finance management or alternatively a course in sales and marketing. इन दैट केस, यू कैन डू अ कोर्स इन फ़ाइनैंस मैनेजमेंट ऑर ऑल्टरनेटिवली अ कोर्स इन सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग.

नीरज : अंकल, इन कोर्सिज में कितना समय लगता है?

Neeraj : What is the duration of these courses, uncle? वॉट इज़ द ड्यूरेशन ऑफ़ दीज़ कोर्सिज़, अंकल?

प्रो. कौशिक : फ़ाइनैंस मैनेजमेंट का कोर्स तो एक साल का है। पर मेरी सलाह है कि तुम्हें 2 या 3 साल का सेल्ज ऐंड मार्केटिंग का कोर्स करना चाहिए। उसके बाद तुम कम्प्यूटर अकाउन्टेंसी का कोर्स कर सकते हो।

Prof. Kaushik : Finance management is a one year course. But I will suggest, you should go in for a 2 or 3 year course in sales and marketing. Later you can do a course in computer accountancy. फ़ाइनैंस मैनेजमेंट इज़ अ वन ईयर कोर्स. बट आइ विल सजेस्ट, यू शुड गो इन फ़ॉर अ टू ऑर थ्री ईयर कोर्स इन सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग. लेटर यू कैन डू अ कोर्स इन कंप्यूटर अकाउंटेंसी।

नीरज : क्या इन कोर्सिज़ के बाद मुझे अच्छी नौकरी मिल जायेगी?

Neeraj : Do these courses have good job prospects? डू दीज़ कोर्सिज़ हैव गुड जॉब प्रोस्पेक्ट्स?

प्रो. कौशिक : हां काफी अच्छी।

Prof. Kaushik : Yes quite good. येस क्वाइट गुड.

नीरज : क्या आप मुझे कुछ अच्छे इंस्टीट्यूट्स के बारे में बता सकते हैं?

Neeraj : Could you suggest the names of some institutes? कुड यू सजेस्ट द नेम्ज़ ऑफ़ सम इंस्टीट्यूट्स?

प्रो. कौशिक : नैशनल इंस्टीट्यूट ऑफ़ सेल्ज़ का सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग का कोर्स काफी अच्छा है। जहां तक कंप्यूटर अकाउंटेसी का सवाल है, किसी भी कंप्यूटर इंस्टीट्यूट में ऐसे कोर्स किये जा सकते हैं।

Prof. Kaushik : National Institute of Sales offers a very good course in sales and marketing. As for computer accountancy all the computer institutes offer courses in that. नैशनल इंस्टीट्यूट ऑफ़ सेल्ज़ ऑफ़र्ज़ अ वेरी गुड कोर्स इन सेल्ज़ ऐंड मार्केटिंग. ऐज़ फ़ॉर कम्प्यूटर अकाउंटेंसी, ऑल द कम्प्यूटर इंस्टीट्यूट्स ऑफ़र कोर्सिज़ इन दैट.

नीरज : थैंक्यू अंकल, आपने वाकई मुझे बहुत अच्छी सलाह दी है।

Neeraj : Thank you very much uncle. You have really given me valuable advice. थैंक्यू वेरी मच अंकल. यू हैव रिअली गिवन मी वैल्यूएबल एडवाइस.

(संदीप ने इंग्लिश ऑनर्ज़ फ़ाइनल ईयर की परीक्षा दी है। वह अपने करिअर के बारे में सलाह लेने के लिए प्रोफ़ेसर कौशिक के पास आता है।)

संदीप : गुड मार्निंग सर।

Sandeep : Good morning sir. गुड मॉर्निंग सर.

प्रो. कौशिक : गुड मार्निंग संदीप। आजकल क्या कर रहे हो?

Prof. Kaushik : Good morning Sandeep. What are you doing these days? गुड मॉर्निंग संदीप. वॉट आर यू डूइंग दीज़ डेज़?

संदीप : जी, रज़ल्ट का इंतज़ार। सर, दरअसल मैं आपसे ग्रैजुएशन के बाद अपने करिअर के बारे में कुछ सलाह करना चाहता हूं।

Sandeep : Waiting for the result sir. Actually, I came to seek your advice on what career to take up after graduation. वेटिंग फ़ॉर द रज़ल्ट सर. ऐक्चुअली, आइ केम टु सीक योर एडवाइस ऑन वॉट करिअर टु टेक अप आफ़्टर ग्रैजुएशन.

प्रो. कौशिक : तुम इंग्लिश ऑनर्स कर रहे हो न?

Prof. Kaushik : You are doing English honours, isn't it? यू आर डूइंग इंग्लिश ऑनर्ज़, इज़न्ट इट?

संदीप : जी, पर मैं इंग्लिश में ऐम.ए. नहीं करना चाहता। क्या आप मुझे ग्रैजुएशन के बाद किसी अच्छे प्रोफ़ेशनल कोर्स के बारे में सलाह दे सकते हैं?

Sandeep : Yes sir, but I am not interested in M.A. English. Could you suggest me some professional course, I can do after my graduation? येस सर, बट आइ ऐम नॉट इंट्रेस्टिड

इन ऐम.ए. इंग्लिश. कुड यू सजेस्ट मी सम प्रोफ़ेशनल कोर्स, आइ कैन डू आफ़्टर माइ ग्रैजुएशन?

प्रो. कौशिक : जर्नलिज़्म के बारे में तुम्हारी क्या राय है? मेरे ख्याल से तुम अच्छा लिखते भी हो।

Prof. Kaushik : What about journalism? I think you have a flair for writing. वॉट अबाउट जर्नलिज़्म? आइ थिंक यू हैव अ फ़्लेअर फ़ॉर राइटिंग.

संदीप : जी सर, मैं कॉलिज मैगज़ीन के इंग्लिश सेक्शन का एडीटर भी रहा हूं। मेरे कुछ लेख लोकल अखबार और पत्रिकाओं में भी छपे हैं।

Sandeep : Yes sir, I have also been the editor of the English section of our college magazine. Some of my articles have also been published in local newspapers and magazines. येस सर, आइ हैव ऑलसो बीन दि एडीटर ऑफ़ दि इंग्लिश सेक्शन ऑफ़ आवर कॉलिज मैग्ज़ीन. सम ऑफ़ माइ आर्टिकल्ज़ हैव ऑलसो बीन पब्लिश्ड इन लोकल न्यूज़ पेपर्ज़ ऐंड मैग्ज़ीन्ज़.

प्रो. कौशिक : मेरे विचार से तो तुम्हारे लिए जर्नलिज़्म अच्छा कोर्स है।

Prof. Kaushik : Well, in my opinion journalism is a good course for you. वेल, इन माइ ओपीनिअन, जर्नलिज़्म इज अ गुड कोर्स फ़ॉर यू.

संदीप : इस कोर्स में समय कितना लगता है सर?

Sandeep : What is the duration of this course sir?
वॉट इज़ द ड्यूरेशन ऑफ़ दिस कोर्स सर?

प्रो. कौशिक : दो साल। पर सादा जर्नलिज़्म करना काफी नहीं है। मेरे विचार में तो तुम्हें प्रिंट मीडिया, इलेक्ट्रोनिक मीडिया और एडवर्टाइजिंग के क्षेत्र में विशेषता प्राप्त करनी चाहिए। जर्नलिज़्म की इन सभी ब्रांचिज़ का भविष्य बहुत उज्ज्वल है।

Prof. Kaushik : Two years. But simple journalism is not enough. I suggest, you should go in for specialized courses in print media, electronic media or advertising. All these branches of journalism have very good job prospects. टू ईयर्ज़. बट सिम्पल जर्नलिज़्म इज़ नॉट इनफ़. आइ सजेस्ट, यू शुड गो इन फ़ॉर स्पेश्यलाइज़्ड कोर्सिज़ इन प्रिंट मीडिया, इलेक्ट्रॉनिक मीडिया ऑर एडवर्टाइजिंग. ऑल दीज़ ब्रांचिज़ ऑफ़ जर्नलिज़्म हैव वेरी गुड जॉब प्रॉस्पेक्ट्स.

संदीप : उसके बाद मुझे किस तरह की नौकरी मिलेगी?

Sandeep : What kind of job will I get after that?
वॉट काइंड ऑफ़ जॉब विल आइ गेट आफ़्टर दैट?

प्रो. कौशिक : उसके बाद तुम अखबारों, पत्रिकाओं या टी. वी. के लिए काम कर सकते हो। पांच-छः साल के अनुभव के बाद तुम स्वतंत्र रूप से कंसलटेंट (सलाहकार) की हैसियत से भी काम कर सकते हो।

Prof. Kaushik : You can work for magazines and newspapers or T.V. After you have gained 5-6 years of experience you can also work independently as a consultant. यू कैन वर्क फ़ॉर मैगजीन्ज़ ऐंड न्यूज़पेपर्ज़ ऑर टी.वी. आफ़्टर यू हैव गेन्ड फ़ाइव-सिक्स ईयर्ज ऑफ़ एक्सपीरिअन्स यू कैन ऑलसो वर्क इंडिपेंडेंटली ऐज़ अ कंसल्टेंट.

संदीप : इस कोर्स के लिए आप कौन से इंस्टीट्यूट्स की सलाह देते हैं?

Sandeep : Which Institutes do you recommend for the course? विच इंस्टीट्यूट्स डू यू रिकमेंड फ़ॉर द कोर्स?

प्रो. कौशिक : दिल्ली यूनिवर्सिटी और जवाहरलाल नेहरू यूनिवर्सिटी दोनों में ही जर्नलिज़्म के कई प्रकार के कोर्सिज़ उपलब्ध हैं। इसके अलावा भारतीय विद्या भवन का भी जर्नलिज़्म के क्षेत्र में बड़ा नाम है।

Prof. Kaushik : Both Delhi University and Jawaharlal Nehru University offer a variety of courses in journalism. Bhartiya Vidya Bhawan also has a good reputation. बोथ डेल्ही यूनिवर्सिटी ऐंड जवाहरलाल नेहरू यूनिवर्सिटी ऑफ़र अ वेराइटी ऑफ़ कोर्सिज़ इन जर्नलिज़्म. भारतीय विद्या भवन ऑलसो हैज़ अ गुड रेप्युटेशन.

संदीप : बहुत बहुत धन्यवाद सर। मेरे ख्याल में जर्नलिज़्म ही मेरे लिए सही करिअर है।

Sandeep : Thank you very much sir. I think journalism is the right career for me. थैंक्यू वेरी मच सर. आइ थिंक जर्नलिज़्म इज़ द राइट करिअर फ़ॉर मी.

(बारहवीं कक्षा (साइंस) का एक छात्र रोहित भी प्रो. कौशिक के पास करिअर संबंधी सुझाव के लिए आता है।)

रोहित : गुड ईवनिंग सर।

Rohit : Good evening sir. गुड ईवनिंग सर.

प्रो. कौशिक : गुड ईवनिंग रोहित, कैसे हो?

Prof. Kaushik : Good evening Rohit, how are you?, गुड ईवनिंग रोहित, हाउ आर यू?

रोहित : जी ठीक हूं। सर, बारहवीं के बाद मैं क्या करिअर अपनाऊं, इसके लिए आपकी सलाह चाहता हूं।

Rahul : Fine, thank you. Sir, I need your advice on what career to take up after twelfth. फ़ाइन, थैंक्यू. सर, आइ नीड योर एडवाइस ऑन वॉट करिअर टु टेक अप आफ़्टर ट्वेल्फ़्थ.

प्रो. कौशिक : तुम्हारे पास कौन से सब्जेक्ट्स हैं?

Prof. Kaushik : What are your subjects? वॉट आर योर सब्जेक्ट्स.

रोहित : जी साइंस, नॉनमेडिकल।

Rahul : Science, Non-medical. साइंस, नॉनमेडिकल.

प्रो. कौशिक : क्या तुम इंजीनियर नहीं बनना चाहते?

Prof. Kaushik : Don't you want to be an engineer? डोन्ट यू वॉन्ट टु बी एन इंजीनियर?

रोहित : जी दरअसल, मुझे बहुत अच्छे नंबरों की आशा नहीं है। मेरे लिए इंजीनियरिंग कॉलेज में ऐडमिशन (दाखिला) पाना बहुत कठिन होगा।

Rohit : Actually sir, I am not expecting very good marks. It will be difficult for me to get admission in an Engineering College. एक्चुअली सर, आइ एम नॉट एक्सपेक्टिंग वेरी गुड मार्क्स. इट विल बी डिफ़िकल्ट फ़ॉर मी टु गेट ऐडमिशन इन ऐन इंजीनियरिंग कॉलेज.

प्रो. कौशिक : तुमने बिज़नेस के बारे में सोचा है?

Prof. Kaushik : What about business? Have you given it a thought? वॉट अबाउट बिज़नेस? हैव यू गिवन इट अ थॉट?

रोहित : जी नहीं सर। मेरा बिज़नेस की तरफ ज़रा भी रुझान नहीं है।

Rohit : No sir, I don't think I have an aptitude for business. नो सर, आइ डोन्ट थिंक आइ हैव ऐन ऐप्टिट्यूड फ़ॉर बिज़नेस.

प्रो. कौशिक : अच्छा। तो रोहित तुमने स्कूल में कम्प्यूटर सीखा है?

Prof. Kaushik : I see. Have you done computers at school Rahul? आइ सी. हैव यू डन कम्प्यूटर्ज़ ऐट स्कूल राहुल?

रोहित : जी सर। वह तो हमारे सिलेबस का हिस्सा था।

Rohit : Yes sir. It was a part of our syllabus. येस सर. इट वॉज़ अ पार्ट ऑफ़ आवर सिलेबस.

प्रो. कौशिक : क्या तुम्हें कम्प्यूटर्ज़ में रुचि है?

Prof. Kaushik : Are you interested in computers? आर यू इंट्रेस्टिड इन कम्प्यूटर्ज़?

रोहित : जी सर, मुझे कम्प्यूटर्ज़ में मज़ा आता है।

Rohit : Yes sir, I find computers quite interesting. येस सर, आइ फ़ाइन्ड कम्प्यूटर्ज़ क्वाइट इंट्रेस्टिंग.

प्रो. कौशिक : फिर तो तुम कम्प्यूटर्ज़ को ही अपने करिअर के रूप में अपना सकते हो।

Prof. Kaushik : In that case, you can go in for a career in computers. इन दैट केस, यू कैन गो इन फ़ॉर अ करिअर इन कम्प्यूटर्ज़.

रोहित : क्या आप मेरे लिए किसी कोर्स का सुझाव दे सकते हैं?

Rohit : Could you suggest me some course sir? कुड यू सजेस्ट मी सम कोर्स सर?

प्रो. कौशिक : दिल्ली यूनिवर्सिटी और दूसरे इंस्टीट्यूट्स में तरह-तरह के कम्प्यूटर कोर्सिज़ उपलब्ध हैं। तुम कम्प्यूटर प्रोग्रामिंग में डिप्लोमा कर सकते हो या फिर दूसरे व्यावसायिक कोर्सिज़ — जैसे सेक्रेटेरियल या हार्डवेयर कोर्सिज़ आदि।

Prof. Kaushik : There are a variety of computer courses offered by Delhi University and various other computer institutes. You could go in for a diploma course in computer programming or opt for specialized courses like secretarial or hardware courses. देअर आर अ वेराइटी ऑफ़ कम्प्यूटर कोर्सिज़ ऑफ़र्ड बाइ डेल्ही यूनिवर्सिटी ऐंड वेरियस अदर कम्प्यूटर इन्स्टीट्यूट्स. यू कुड गो इन फ़ॉर अ डिप्लोमा कोर्स इन कम्प्यूटर प्रोग्रामिंग ऑर ऑप्ट फ़ॉर स्पेश्यलाइज़्ड कोर्सिज़ लाइक सेक्रेटेरिअल ऑर हार्डवेअर कोर्सिज़.

रोहित : इन कोर्सिज़ में कितना समय लगता है?

Rohit : What is the duration of these courses sir?
वॉट इज़ द ड्यूरेशन ऑफ़ दीज़ कोर्सिज़ सर?

प्रो. कौशिक : डिप्लोमा कोर्सिज़ में 2 से 3 साल तक का समय लगता है पर छोटे व्यावसायिक कोर्सिज़ की अवधि अलग-अलग इंस्टीट्यूट्स (संस्थाओं) पर निर्भर करती है।

Prof. Kaushik : Diploma courses are mostly of 2 to 3 years duration. But in case of short term job oriented courses, the duration may vary institute wise. डिप्लोमा कोर्सिज़ आर मोस्टली ऑफ़ टू टु थ्री ईयर्ज़ ड्यूरेशन. बट इन केस ऑफ़ शॉर्ट टर्म जॉब ओरिएन्टिड कोर्सिज़, द ड्यूरेशन मे वेरी इन्स्टीट्यूट वाइज़.

रोहित : सर क्या आप मुझे कुछ इंस्टीट्यूट्स के नाम बता सकते हैं?

Rohit : Could you suggest the names of some Institutes sir?
कुड यू सजेस्ट द नेम्ज़ ऑफ़ सम इंस्टीट्यूट्स सर?

प्रो. कौशिक : सभी बड़ी यूनिवर्सिटीज़ में कम्प्यूटर के अलग-अलग तरह के कोर्सिज़ उपलब्ध हैं। प्राइवेट संस्थाओं में ऐन.आइ.आइ.टी. एक नामी संस्था है। इसके अलावा ऐपटेक, अपट्रॉन, ब्रिलिएंट आदि सभी के डिप्लोमा कोर्सिज़ हैं, जिन्हें कर लेने पर अच्छी नौकरियों की संभावनाएं बनती हैं।

Prof. Kaushik : All major universities offer courses in various branches of computers. Among the private institutes N.I.I.T. has a very good name. Besides, Aptech, Uptron and Brilliant also offer diploma courses with good job prospects. ऑल मेजर यूनिवर्सिटीज़ ऑफ़र कोर्सिज़ वेरियस ब्रान्चिज़ ऑफ़ कम्प्यूटर्ज़. अमंग द प्राइवेट इंस्टीट्यूट्स ऐन.आइ.आइ.टी हैज़ अ वेरी गुड नेम. बिसाइड्ज़, ऐपटेक, अप्ट्रॉन ऐंड ब्रिलिएंट ऑलसो ऑफ़र डिप्लोमा कोर्सिज़ विद गुड जॉब प्रॉस्पेक्ट्स.

रोहित : सर, मेरी ड्रॉइंग काफी अच्छी है। क्या कोई ऐसा कम्प्यूटर कोर्स है जिसमें मेरे इस टैलेंट का इस्तेमाल हो सकता है।

Rohit : Sir, I can draw very well. Is there a computer course, where this ability of mine can be utilized? सर, आइ कैन ड्रॉ वेरी वेल. इज़ देअर अ कम्प्यूटर कोर्स, वेअर दिस एबिलिटी ऑफ़ माइन कैन बी यूटिलाइज़्ड?

प्रो. कौशिक : क्यों नहीं। तुम ग्राफ़िक्स ऐंड ऐनिमेशन में डिप्लोमा कर सकते हो।

Prof. Kaushik : Yes of course. You can do a diploma in Graphics and Animation. येस ऑफ़ कोर्स. यू कैन डू अ डिप्लोमा इन ग्राफ़िक्स ऐंड ऐनिमेशन.

रोहित : जी आपकी गाइडेंस (पथप्रदर्शन) के लिए बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद। मेरे विचार में मुझे कम्प्यूटर कोर्स में ही दाखिला लेना चाहिए।

Rohit : Thank you very much for your guidance sir. I think, I should join a computer course. थैंक्यू वेरी मच फ़ॉर योर गाइडेंस सर. आइ थिंक, आइ शुड जॉइन अ कम्प्यूटर कोर्स.

किराये के मकान के लिए प्रॉपर्टी डीलर से बातचीत

Talking to a Property Dealer for Renting a Flat (टॉकिंग टु अ प्रॉपर्टी डीलर फ़ॉर रेंटिंग अ फ़्लैट)

ग्राहक : गुड मॉर्निंग (नमस्ते)।

Customer : Good morning. गुड मॉर्निंग.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : गुडमॉर्निंग सर। आइये बैठिए। जी, कहिए।

Property dealer : Good morning sir. Please have a seat. Yes, what can I do for you? गुड मॉर्निंग सर. प्लीज़ हैव अ सीट. येस, वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?

ग्राहक : मुझे किराए पर.मकान चाहिए।

Customer : I want to rent a flat. आइ वॉन्ट टु रेंट अ फ़्लैट.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : जी किस जगह?

Property dealer : In which area sir? इन विच एरिया सर?

ग्राहक : पश्चिम विहार में.

Customer : In Pashchim Vihar. इन पश्चिम विहार.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : ज़रा अपना नाम बताएंगे?

Property dealer : May I know your name sir? मे आइ नो योर नेम सर?

ग्राहक : प्रशान्त श्रीवास्तव.

Customer : Prashant Shrivastav. प्रशान्त श्रीवास्तव.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : जी आप क्या काम करते हैं?

Property dealer : What do you do sir? वॉट डू यू डू सर?

ग्राहक : मैं ऐन.पी. इंडस्ट्रीज़ में असिस्टेंट मैनेजर हूं।

Customer : I am assistant manager in N.P. Industries. आइ ऐम असिस्टेंट मैनेजर इन ऐन.पी. इंडस्ट्रीज़.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : आप कैसा फ़्लैट चाहते हैं?

Property dealer : What type of flat do you want? वॉट टाइप ऑफ़ फ़्लैट डू यू वॉन्ट?

ग्राहक : मुझे दो बेडरूम्ज़ का ड्रॉइंग, डाइनिंग और किचन वाला फ़्लैट चाहिए। टॉयलेट्स मुझे दो चाहिए और एक अच्छी बालकनी भी।

Customer : A two bedroom flat with drawing, dining and kitchen. I want two toilets and also a good balcony. अ टू बेडरूम फ़्लैट विद ड्रॉइंग, डाइनिंग ऐंड किचन. आइ वॉन्ट टू टॉयलेट्स ऐंड ऑलसो अ गुड बालकनी.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : आपका बजट क्या होगा?

Property dealer : What is your budget? वॉट इज़ योर बजट?

ग्राहक : करीब पच्चीस सौ रुपए महीना।

Customer : About 2500/- per month. अबाउट टू थाउज़ंड फ़ाइव हंड्रेड पर मंथ.

प्रापर्टी डीलर : कौन सा फ़्लोर चाहिए?

Property dealer : Which floor do you want? विच फ़्लोर डू यू वॉन्ट?

ग्राहक : हो सके तो पहला। मकान हवादार, खुली धूप वाला और अच्छे पड़ोस में होना चाहिए।

Customer : Preferably, first floor. I want an airy and sun facing house in a good neighbourhood. प्रिफ़रेबली फ़र्स्ट फ़्लोर. आइ वॉन्ट एन ऐअरी ऐंड सन फ़ेसिंग हाउस इन अ गुड नेबरहुड.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : मकान कब देखना चाहते हैं?

Property dealer : When do you want to see the flat? वेन डू यू वॉन्ट टु सी द फ़्लैट?

ग्राहक : जितनी जल्दी आप दिखा सकें। देखिए मुझे महीने के अंत तक मकान ज़रूर बदलना है।

Customer : As soon as you can show me. You see, I have to shift positively by the end of this month. एज़ सून एज़ यू कैन शो मी. यू सी, आइ हैव टु शिफ़्ट पॉज़िटिवली बाइ द ऐंड ऑफ़ दिस मंथ.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : अच्छा, अच्छा। आप मुझे अपना पता और टेलीफ़ोन नं. नोट करवा दीजिए।

Property dealer : Oh, I see. Let me note down your address and telephone number? ओ, आइ सी। लेट मी नोट डाउन योर एड्रेस ऐंड टेलीफ़ोन नंबर.

ग्राहक : सी-894, आज़ादपुर। और मेरा टेलीफ़ोन नंबर है 7513450।

Customer : C-894, Azadpur. And my telephone number is 7513450. सी-894, आज़ादपुर. ऐंड माइ टेलीफ़ोन नंबर इज़ 7513450.

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : ठीक है श्रीवास्तव साहब। मुझे थोड़ा सा वक़्त दीजिए। मैं आपके लिए अच्छा सा फ़्लैट ढूंढ दूंगा।

Property dealer : O.K. Mr. Srivastav. Give me some time. I will find a nice flat for you. ओ.के. मिस्टर श्रीवास्तव. गिव मी सम टाइम. आइ विल फ़ाइंड अ नाइस फ़्लैट फ़ॉर यू.

ग्राहक : कितना समय लगेगा?

Customer : How much time will you take? हाउ मच टाइम विल यू टेक?

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : मैं एक दो दिन में ही आपसे संपर्क करूंगा।

Property dealer : I'll get back to you in a day or two. आइ विल गेट बैक टु यू इन अ डे ऑर टू.

ग्राहक : ठीक है। आपका कमीशन क्या है?

Customer : O.K. What is your commission? ओ.के. वॉट इज़ योर कमीशन?

प्रॉपर्टी डीलर : जी दो महीने का किराया।

Property dealer : Two months rent sir. टू मंथ्स रेंट सर.

ग्राहक : अच्छा चलता हूं। ज़रा ज़ल्दी कुछ कीजिएगा।

Customer : Alright. Please do something quickly. ऑलराइट. प्लीज़ डू समथिंग क्विक्ली.

प्रॉपटी डीलर : जी, आप बिल्कुल फिक्र मत करें।

Property dealer : Yes, Yes. Don't worry at all. Bye sir. येस, येस. डोन्ट वरी ऐट ऑल. बाइ सर.

नौकरी के लिए इंटर्व्यू

सीमा : सर क्या मैं अंदर आ सकती हूं?

मैनेजर : जी हां।

सीमा : गुड मॉर्निंग सर।

मैनेजर : गुड मॉर्निंग, प्लीज़ बैठिए।

सीमा : थैंक्यू (धन्यवाद)।

मैनेजर : आपका नाम?

सीमा : सीमा विस्वास।

मैनेजर : आप विवाहित हैं या अविवाहित?

सीमा : विवाहित।

मैनेजर : आपने पर्सनल असिस्टेंट की नौकरी के लिए एप्लाइ किया है। ठीक है न?

सीमा : जी सर।

मैनेजर : आपकी क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन्ज़ (शैक्षणिक योग्यताएं) क्या हैं?

सीमा : जी मैं बी.ऐससी. हूं। इसके अलावा मैंने गवर्नमैंट पॉलीटेक्नीक गाज़ियाबाद से टाइपिंग और शॉर्टहैंड में डिप्लोमा तथा सेक्रेटेरियल कोर्स भी किया है।

मैनेजर : टाइपिंग और शॉर्टहैंड में आपकी क्या स्पीड है?

सीमा : जी सत्तर शब्द प्रति मिनट।

मैनेजर : क्या आप कम्प्यूटर पर काम कर सकती हैं?

सीमा : जी, मैं कम्प्यूटर पर वर्ड प्रोसेसिंग का काम कर सकती हूं।

मैनेजर : क्या आपने इससे पहले किसी ऑफ़िस में काम किया है?

सीमा : जी हां, मैंने जे.के. इंडस्ट्रीज़ में मैनेजर के पी.ए. के पद पर काम किया है।

मैनेजर : क्या अब आपने वहां नौकरी छोड़ दी है?

सीमा : जी नहीं। पर अब मैं नौकरी बदलना चाहती हूं।

मैनेजर : क्यों?

सीमा : वह जगह बहुत दूर है। इसके अलावा वेतन भी काफी नहीं है?

An Interview for a Job (ऐन इंटर्व्यू फ़ॉर अ जॉब)

Seema : May I come in sir? मे आइ कम इन सर?

Manager : Yes please. येस प्लीज़.

Seema : Good morning sir. गुड मॉर्निंग सर.

Manager : Good morning, please sit down.
गुड मॉर्निंग, प्लीज़ सिटडाउन.

Seema : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

Manager : What is your name? वॉट इज़ योर नेम?

Seema : Seema Viswas. सीमा विस्वास.

Manager : Married or unmarried? मैरिड ऑर अनमैरिड?

Seema : Married. मैरिड.

Manager : You have applied for the post of a personal assistant. Right? यू हैव ऐप्लाइड फ़ॉर द पोस्ट ऑफ़ अ पर्सनल असिस्टेंट. राइट?

Seema : Yes sir. येस सर.

Manager : What are your qualifications?
वॉट आर योर क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन्ज़?

Seema : I am B.Sc. I have also done a diploma in typing and shorthand and a secretarial course from the Govt. Polytechnic Gaziabad. आइ ऐम बी.ऐस.सी. आइ हैव ऑलसो डन अ डिप्लोमा इन टाइपिंग ऐंड शॉर्टहैंड, ऐंड अ सेक्रेटेरिअल कोर्स फ्रॉम द गवर्नमेंट पॉलीटेक्नीक गाज़ियाबाद.

Manager : What is your speed in typing and shorthand?
वॉट इज़ योर स्पीड इन टाइपिंग ऐंड शॉर्टहैंड?

Seema : Seventy words per minute. सेवन्टी वर्ड्ज़ पर मिनट.

Manager : Can you work on a computer?
कैन यू वर्क ऑन अ कम्प्यूटर?

Seema : Yes, I can do the word processing on it.
येस, आइ कैन डू द वर्ड प्रोसेसिंग ऑन इट.

Manager : Have you worked in an office before?
हैव यू वर्क्ड इन ऐन ऑफ़िस बिफ़ोर?

Seema : Yes, I have worked as P.A. to the manager in J.K. Industries. येस, आइ हैव वर्क्ड ऐज़ पी.ए. टु द मैनेजर इन जे.के. इंडस्ट्रीज़.

Manager : Have you left them? हैव यू लेफ़्ट देम?

Seema : No. But I am looking for a change now?
नो. बट आइ ऐम लुकिंग फ़ॉर अ चेन्ज नाउ.

Manager : Why? वाइ?

Seema : The place is very far. Besides the salary is not enough.
द प्लेस इज़ वेरी फ़ार. बिसाइड्ज़ द सैलरी इज़ नॉट इनफ़.

मैनेजर : अब आपका वेतन कितना है?

Manager : What is your present salary per month?
वॉट इज़ योर प्रेज़ेंट सैलरी पर मंथ?

सीमा : इक्कीस सौ रुपये महीना।

Seema : Twenty one hundred rupees per month.
ट्वेन्टी वन हंड्रेड रुपीज़ पर मंथ.

मैनेजर : आप कितने वेतन की आशा रखती हैं।

Manager : What salary do you expect?
वॉट सैलरी डू यू एक्सपेक्ट?

सीमा : करीब तीन हज़ार।

Seema : Around 3000/-. अराउंड थ्री थाउज़ेंड.

मैनेजर : क्या आप अच्छी तरह से अंग्रेज़ी में बातचीत कर सकती हैं?

Manager : Can you communicate in English fluently?
कैन यू कम्यूनिकेट इन इंग्लिश फ़्लुएंटली?

सीमा : जी हां बिल्कुल।

Seema : Ofcourse I can. ऑफ़कोर्स आइ कैन.

मैनेजर : एक आखिरी पर बहुत अहम सवाल। पर्सनल असिस्टेंट को कभी-कभी ऑफ़िस में देर तक रुकना पड़ सकता है। क्या आप रुक सकती हैं?

Manager : One last but very important question. A personal assistant may have to stay back late in office sometimes. Can you do that? वन लास्ट बट वेरी इम्पॉर्टेन्ट क्वेश्चन. अ पर्सनल असिस्टेंट मे हैव टु स्टे बैक लेट इन ऑफ़िस समटाइम्ज़. कैन यू डू दैट?

सीमा : जी केवल कभी-कभी रुक सकती हूं। हमेशा नहीं। मेरा छोटा सा बच्चा है।

Seema : Only once in a while sir, not always. I have a small baby. ओनली वन्स इन अ वाइल सर, नॉट ऑलवेज़. आइ हैव अ स्मॉल बेबी.

मैनेजर : ठीक है मिसिज़ विस्वास। इतना काफी है। हम जल्दी ही आपको बता देंगें।

Manager : All right Mrs. Viswas. That will do. We will let you know soon. ऑल राइट मिसिज़ विस्वास. दैट विल डू. वी विल लेट यू नो सून.

सीमा : थैंक्यू सर।

Seema : Thank you sir. थैंक्यू सर.

घर-घर बिक्री Door to Door Selling (डोर टु डोर सेलिंग)

(एक सेल्ज़गर्ल एक घर की घंटी बजाती है। गृहिणी दरवाज़े से झांकती है।)

गृहिणी : हां क्या बात है?

Housewife : Yes, what's it? येस, वॉट्स इट?

सेल्ज़गर्ल : *(मुस्कुराते हुए)* गुडमॉर्निंग मैडम. मैं हेल्दी हार्ट्स से अनूपा मिश्रा हूं। हमारी कम्पनी ने एक ब्रेकफ़ास्ट सीरियल (नाश्ता जैसे कॉर्नफ़्लेक्स) निकाला है। बहुत ही पौष्टिक, स्वादिष्ट और दिल के लिए अच्छा है।

Salesgirl : *(Smiling pleasantly)* Good morning madam. I am Anupa Mishra from Healthy Hearts. Our company has brought out a breakfast cereal. Its very nourishing, delicious and good for heart. गुड मॉर्निंग मैडम. आइ ऐम अनूपा मिश्रा फ्रॉम हेल्दी हार्टस. आवर कम्पनी हैज़ ब्रॉट आउट अ ब्रेकफ़ास्ट सीरिअल. इट्स वेरी नरिशिंग, डिलीश्यस ऐंड गुड फ़ॉर हार्ट.

गृहिणी : देखो, इस समय मुझे बहुत काम है।

Housewife : Look, I am very busy right now.
लुक, आइ ऐम वेरी बिज़ी राइट नाउ.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : जी मैं समझती हूं। मैं बस ज़रा सा समय लूंगी। ये देखिए, अपने प्रोडक्ट की बिक्री बढ़ाने के लिए हम आपसे बहुत कम कीमत ले रहे हैं। 750 ग्राम का डब्बा 500 ग्राम की कीमत में मिलेगा। और ऊपर से ही ये एअरटाइट डब्बा 750 ग्राम के पैक के साथ बिल्कुल मुफ़्त।

Salesgirl : I appreciate madam. But just spare a moment and please look here. For the product's promotion we are offering a bargain price. You will get 750 grams for the price of 500 grams. Besides, this airtight container comes free with the 750 grams pack. आइ अप्रीशिएट मैडम. बट जस्ट स्पेअर अ मोमंट ऐंड प्लीज़ लुक हिअर. फ़ॉर द प्रोडक्ट्स प्रमोशन वी आर ऑफ़रिंग अ बारगेन प्राइस. यू विल गेट सेवन फ़िफ़्टी ग्राम्ज़ फ़ार द प्राइस ऑफ़ फ़ाइव हंड्रेड ग्राम्ज़. बिसाइड्ज़, दिस ऐअरटाइट कंटेनर कम्ज़ फ्री विद द सेवन फ़िफ़्टी ग्राम्ज़ पैक.

गृहिणी : क्या कीमत है?

Housewife : What is the price? वॉट इज़ द प्राइस?

सेल्ज़गर्ल : जी कुल चालीस रुपये। दुकान पर ये पैक पचास रुपये का है।

Salesgirl : Only forty rupees. At the counter, the same pack is selling for fifty rupees. ओनली फ़ोर्टी रुपीज़. ऐट द काउंटर द सेम पैक इज़ सेलिंग फ़ॉर फ़िफ़्टी रुपीज़.

गृहिणी : चालीस रुपये तो बहुत हैं।

Housewife : Forty rupees is too much. फ़ोर्टी रुपीज़ इज़ टू मच.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : यकीन मानिए मैडम, ये हमारा बचत पैक है। और अगर आप अभी खरीदेंगी तो ये रंग-बिरंगे बॉलपेन आपको ऐक्स्ट्रा गिफ़्ट (अतिरिक्त उपहार) में मिलेंगे।

Salesgirl : Believe me madam it is our economy pack. And if you buy now, I will give these colourful ballpens as extra gifts to you. बिलीव मी मैडम इट इज़ आवर इकॉनॉमी पैक. ऐंड इफ़ यू बाइ नाउ, आइ विल गिव दीज़ कलरफ़ुल बॉलपेन्ज़ ऐज़ एक्स्ट्रा गिफ़्ट्स टु यू.

गृहिणी : पर मैंने इसे पहले कभी इस्तेमाल नहीं किया।

Housewife : Well, I have never tried it before. वेल, आइ हैव नेवर ट्राइड इट बिफ़ोर.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : लीजिए ज़रा-सा चख कर देखिए, आपकी फ़ैमिली को इसका स्वाद बहुत पसंद आयेगा। यह वाकई बहुत अच्छी चीज़ है। मैं अभी इसी कॉलोनी में 20 पैकिट बेच चुकी हूं।

Salesgirl : Here please, taste it. Your family will love the taste. It is really very good. I have already sold 20 packs in the colony. हिअर प्लीज़ टेस्ट इट. योर फ़ैमिली विल लव द टेस्ट. इट इज़ रिअली वेरी गुड. आइ हैव ऑलरेडी सोल्ड ट्वेन्टी पैक्स इन द कॉलोनी.

गृहिणी : ठीक है मैं खरीदूंगी।

Housewife : Alright I'll take it. ऑलराइट आइल टेक इट.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : कितने पैकिट मैडम?

Salesgirl : How many packs madam. हाउ मेनी पैक्स मैडम.

गृहिणी : केवल एक।

Housewife : Just one. जस्ट वन.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : जी ज़रूर. ज़रा अपना नाम बताएंगी?

Salesgirl : Sure, madam. Your name please? श्योर मैडम. योर नेम प्लीज़?

गृहिणी : मोहिनी सेठ। मैं पैसे लाती हूं।

Housewife : Mohini Seth. Let me get the money. मोहिनी सेठ. लेट मी गेट द मनी.

सेल्ज़गर्ल : थैंक्यू। आपका दिन शुभ हो मैडम, बाइ।

Salesgirl : Thank you. Have a good day madam, bye. थैंक्यू. हैव अ गुड डे मैडम, बाइ.

ऑफ़िस में बिक्री

सेल्ज़मैन : *(रिसेप्शनिस्ट से)* गुड आफ़्टरनून मैडम। मैं धीरज शर्मा हूं न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज़ से। मुझे परचेज़ मैनेजर से मिलना है।

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : आपकी अपॉइंटमेंट है क्या?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी मैडम।

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : *(इंटरकॉम पर)* सर, न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज़ से मि. धीरज शर्मा आपसे मिलना चाहते हैं।

मैनेजर : ठीक है, भेज दो।

Selling in Offices (सेलिंग इन ऑफ़िसिज़)

Salesman : *(to receptionist)* Good afternoon madam. I am Dheeraj Sharma from Newlook Stationers and Printers. I want to see the Purchase Manager please. गुड आफ़्टरनून मैडम. आइ ऐम धीरज शर्मा फ्रॉम न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज़. आइ वॉन्ट टु सी द परचेज़ मैनेजर प्लीज़.

Receptionist : Do you have an appointment? डू यू हैव ऐन अपॉइंटमेंट?

Salesman : Yes madam. येस मैडम.

Receptionist : *(on the intercom)* Sir, Mr. Dheeraj Sharma from Newlook Stationers and Printers wants to see you. सर, मिस्टर धीरज शर्मा फ्रॉम न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज़ वॉन्ट्स टु सी यू.

Manager : Alright, send him in. ऑलराइट, सेंड हिम इन.

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : *(सेल्ज़मैन से)* आप अंदर जा सकते हैं।

Receptionist : *(to the salesman)* You can go in please.
यू कैन गो इन प्लीज़.

सेल्ज़मैन : ऑफ़िस किस तरफ है?

Salesman : Which way is the office madam?
विच वे इज़ द ऑफ़िस मैडम?

रिसेप्शनिस्ट : सीधे चले जाइये। बाएं हाथ को तीसरा कमरा।

Receptionist : Go straight. Third room on the left.
गो स्ट्रेट. थर्ड रूम ऑन द लेफ़्ट.

सेल्ज़मैन : थैंक्यू।

Salesman : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

सेल्ज़मैन : *(परचेज़ मैनेजर से)* गुड आफ़्टरनून सर।

Salesman : *(to the Purchase Manager)* Good afternoon sir.
गुड आफ़्टरनून सर.

मैनेजर : गुड ऑफ़्टरनून, बैठिए।

Manager : Good afternoon, please sit down.
गुड आफ़्टरनून, प्लीज़ सिट डाउन.

सेल्ज़मैन : सर, मैं धीरज शर्मा हूं न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज से। हमारे यहां हर तरह की स्टेशनरी और प्रिंटिंग सर्विसिज़ मिलती हैं।

Salesman : Sir, I am Dheeraj Sharma from Newlook Stationers and Printers. We provide all kinds of stationery and printing services. सर, आइ ऐम धीरज शर्मा फ्रॉम न्यूलुक स्टेशनर्ज़ ऐंड प्रिंटर्ज. वी प्रोवाइड ऑल काइंड्ज़ ऑफ़ स्टेशनरी ऐंड प्रिंटिंग सर्विसिज़.

मैनेजर : आप सैम्पल्ज़ (नमूने) लाये हैं?

Manager : Have you brought any samples?
हैव यू ब्रॉट ऐनी सैम्पल्ज़?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी हां। ये रहे स्टेशनरी आइटम्ज़ और ये हैं कुछ कार्ड और ब्रोशर्ज़ जो हमने छापे हैं सर, ज़रा हमारे कागज़ की क्वालिटी और प्रिंट देखिए।

Salesman : Yes sir. These are some stationery items and these are some cards and brochures printed by us. Kindly look at the quality of print and the paper used by us. येस सर. दीज़ आर सम स्टेशनरी आइटम्ज़ ऐंड दीज़ आर सम कार्ड्ज़ ऐंड ब्रोशर्ज़ प्रिंटिड बाइ अस. काइंडली लुक ऐट द क्वॉलिटी ऑफ़ प्रिंट एंड द पेपर यूज़्ड बाइ अस.

मैनेजर : रेट्स क्या हैं?

Manager : What are the rates? वॉट आर द रेट्स?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी सर, ये रही रेट लिस्ट.

Salesman : This is the rate list, sir. दिस इज़ द रेट लिस्ट, सर.

मैनेजर : आप क्या डिस्काउंट देंगे?

Manager : What is the discount? वॉट इज़ द डिस्काउंट?

सेल्ज़मैन : हम प्रति हज़ार की खरीद पर 10% डिस्काउंट देते हैं। मैं आपको प्रिंटिड रेट्स पर भी दस पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट दे सकता हूं।

Salesman : We offer 10% discount sir, on a purchase of Rs. 1000. I can also offer you 10% discount on the printed rates sir. वी ऑफ़र टेन पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट सर, ऑन अ परचेज़ ऑफ़ वन थॉउज़ंड. आइ कैन ऑलसो ऑफ़र यू टेन पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट ऑन द प्रिंटेड रेट्स सर.

मैनेजर : आपकी कीमतें बहुत ज़्यादा हैं।

Manager : Your rates are quite high. योर रेट्स आर क्वाइट हाइ.

सेल्ज़मैन : हमारी चीज़ों की क्वालिटी बहुत बढ़िया है सर? और हम स्टील टैब्ज़ इस्तेमाल करते हैं जबकि दूसरी कंपनियां लोहे के टैब्ज़ इस्तेमाल करती हैं। हम अपनी फ़ाइलों में ए ग्रेड प्लास्टिक इस्तेमाल करते हैं। कलर्ज़ में भी हमारे पास काफी वैराइटी है। इसके अलावा हम अस्सी जी.ऐस.ऐम. पेपर इस्तेमाल करते हैं। जबकि आमतौर पर दूसरे सत्तर जी.ऐस.ऐम. पेपर इस्तेमाल करते हैं।

Salesman : We offer quality items and service sir. We use steel tabs in place of iron ones used by other companies. We use A grade plastic in our files, offering a large variety in colours. Besides the paper we use is 80 G.S.M. instead of 70 G.S.M. commoly used by others. वी ऑफ़र क्वॉलिटी आइटम्ज़ ऐंड सर्विस सर. वी यूज़ स्टील टैब्ज़ इन प्लेस ऑफ़ आयरन वन्ज़ यूज़्ड बाइ अदर कंपनीज़. वी यूज़ 'ए' ग्रेड प्लास्टिक इन आवर फ़ाइल्ज़, ऑफ़रिंग अ लार्ज वेराइटी इन कलर्ज़. बिसाइड्ज़ द पेपर वी यूज़ इज़ एट्टी जी.ऐस.ऐम. इनस्टेड ऑफ़ सेवन्टी जी.ऐस.ऐम. कॉमनली यूज़्ड बाइ अदर्ज़.

मैनेजर : फिर भी मुझे कीमतें बहुत ज़्यादा लग रही हैं।

Manager : Still, I find the rates very high.
स्टिल, आइ फ़ाइंड द रेट्स वेरी हाइ.

सेल्ज़मैन : सर, दरअसल हम आपकी कंपनी से बिज़नेस ज़रूर करना चाहते हैं। इसलिए मैं खास आपके लिए पांच पर्सेंट का और डिस्काउंट दे सकता हूं।

Salesman : Sir, actually we are very keen on doing business with your company. I can therefore, offer an additional 5% discount specially for you. सर, एक्चुअली वी आर वेरी कीन ऑन डूइंग बिज़नेस विद योर कंपनी. आइ कैन देअरफ़ोर, आफ़र एन ऐडीशनल फ़ाइव पर्सेंट डिस्काउंट स्पेश्यली फ़ॉर यू.

मैनेजर : ठीक है आप अपने सैम्पल्ज़ और ब्रोशर्ज़ यहां छोड़ जाइये और अगले हफ्ते मुझसे फ़ोन पर बात कर लीजिए।

Manager : Alright. You can leave your brochures and samples here and call me next week. ऑलराइट. यू कैन लीव योर ब्रोशर्ज़ ऐंड सैम्पल्ज़ हिअर ऐंड कॉल मी नेक्स्ट वीक.

सेल्ज़मैन : जी अच्छा, बहुत-बहुत शुक्रिया। गुड डे सर। (आपका दिन शुभ हो)

Salesman : Fine sir, thank you very much and good day sir.
फ़ाइन सर, थैंक्यू वेरी मच ऐंड गुड डे सर.

किटी पार्टी | Kitty Party (किटी पार्टी)

(मीरा भार्गव के यहां पार्टी है। मिसिज़ मेहता, मिसिज़ शर्मा, सुनीता, मिसिज़ देशमुख और कविता आती हैं।)

मीरा : *(मेहमानों से)* हलो, आइये स्वागत है। प्लीज़ बैठिये।

Meera : *(to the guests)* Hello, welcome! Please be seated. हलो, वेल्कम! प्लीज़ बी सीटिड.

(मीरा की सहेली दीप्ति दो और महिलाओं के साथ आती है।)

दीप्ति : हाइ मीरा। कैसी हो?

Dipti : Hi Meera! How are you? हाइ मीरा! हाउ आर यू?

मीरा : हाइ! मैं ठीक हूं, तुम सुनाओ कैसी हो?

Meera : Hi! I am fine and you? हाइ! आइ ऐम फ़ाइन ऐंड यू?

दीप्ति : ठीक हूं। इनसे मिलो सुचेता मेहरा और नम्रता सेन। ये हमारी नई मेम्बर हैं।

Dipti : Fine. Here meet Sucheta Mehra and Namrata Sen, our new members. फ़ाइन. हिअर मीट सुचेता मेहरा ऐंड नम्रता सेन, आवर न्यू मेम्बर्ज़.

मीरा : हलो, आइये स्वागत है।

Meera : Hello and Welcome! हलो ऐंड वेल्कम!

(कुछ और महिलाएं आकर बैठती हैं।)

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : *(मिसिज़ शर्मा से)* मिसिज़ शर्मा आपकी साड़ी बहुत सुंदर है।

Mrs. Saxena : *(to Mrs. Sharma)* Your sari is very beautiful Mrs. Sharma. योर सारी इज़ वेरी ब्यूटिफ़ुल मिसिज़ शर्मा.

मिसिज़ शर्मा : थैंक्यू।

Mrs. Sharma : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : कहां से ली?

Mrs. Saxena : Where did you buy it? वेअर डिड यू बाइ इट?

मिसिज़ शर्मा : मोहिनी साड़ी पैलेस, लाजपत नगर से।

Mrs. Sharma : Mohini Sari Palace, Lajpat Nagar. मोहिनी सारी पैलेस, लाजपत नगर.

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : कितने की है।

Mrs. Saxena : What is the price? वॉट इज़ द प्राइस?

मिसिज़ शर्मा : 950 रु. की।

Mrs. Sharma : Nine hundred and fifty. नाइन हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़िफ़्टी.

सुधा : *(दीप्ति से)* हलो दीप्ति बड़ी स्मार्ट लग रही हो।

Sudha : *(to Dipti)* Hello Dipti, looking very smart! हलो दीप्ति, लुकिंग वेरी स्मार्ट!

दीप्ति : थैंक्यू।

Dipti : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

सुधा : ये नया हेअर स्टाइल तुम पर खूब फ़ब रहा है। कहां से बाल कटवाती हो?

Sudha : This new hair style is suiting you very much. Where do you go for cutting? दिस न्यू हेअर स्टाइल इज़ सूटिंग यू वेरी मच. वेअर डू यू गो फ़ॉर कटिंग?

दीप्ति : शाहिदा के यहां से।

Dipti : At Shahida's. एट शाहिदाज़.

सुधा : काफी महंगी है न?

Sudha : Isn't she expensive? इज़न्ट शी एक्सपेंसिव?

दीप्ति : हां, पर काम अच्छा करती है।

Dipti : Yes, but she is good. येस, बट शी इज़ गुड.

सुधा : हां वह तो है।

Sudha : Yes, that's true. येस, दैट्स ट्रू.

मिसिज़ मेहता : मेरे ख्याल से सभी आ गये हैं। चलो शुरू करें।

Mrs. Mehta : I think we all are here. Let us start. आइ थिंक वी ऑल आर हिअर. लेट अस स्टार्ट.

दीप्ति : मिसिज़ नायर नहीं आई है। पर उन्होंने अपने हिस्से के पैसे भेज दिए हैं।

Dipti : Mrs. Nayar hasn't come, but she has sent her contribution. मिसिज़ नायर हैज़न्ट कम, बट शी हैज़ सेन्ट हर कॉन्ट्रीब्यूशन.

मिसिज़ मेहता : ठीक है। सुधा तुम पैसे इकट्ठे कर रही हो न?

Mrs. Mehta : Alright. Sudha are you making the collection? ऑलराइट. सुधा आर यू मेकिंग द कलेक्शन?

सुधा : जी हां। हम 20 मेम्बर हैं। हरेक के पांच सौ मिलाकर हुए 10 हज़ार। ये लो मीरा तुम्हारे पैसे।

Sudha : Yes I am. We are twenty members. Five Hundred each makes ten thousand. Here Meera, take the money. येस आइ ऐम. वी आर ट्वेन्टी मेम्बर्ज़. फ़ाइव हंड्रेड ईच मेक्स टेन थाउज़न्ड. हिअर मीरा, टेक द मनी.

मीरा : थैंक्यू। मैं अभी आई।

Meera : Thank you. Please excuse me. थैंक्यू. प्लीज़ एक्सक्यूज़ मी.

(अंदर जाती है)

मिसिज़ मेहता : सुधा अगली किटी किसकी निकली है?

Mrs. Mehta : Sudha who has got the next kitty? सुधा हू हैज़ गॉट द नेक्स्ट किटी?

सुधा : मिसिज़ पुरी की. लेडीज़ ज़रा सुनें, अगली पार्टी मिसिज़ पुरी के यहां है।

Sudha : Mrs. Puri. Ladies attention please. The next party is at Mrs. Puri's house. मिसिज़ पुरी. लेडीज़ अटेंशन प्लीज़. द नेक्स्ट पार्टी इज़ एट मिसिज़ पुरीज़ हाउस.

दीप्ति : चलो अब तम्बोला खेलें।

Dipti : Let us play Tombola now. लेट अस प्ले तम्बोला नाउ.

सुधा : ठीक है। लेडीज़ प्लीज़ तम्बोला के लिए 20-20 रुपये जमा करें।

Sudha : All right. Ladies please contribute twenty rupees each for Tombola. ऑल राइट. लेडीज़ प्लीज़ कॉन्ट्रीब्यूट ट्वेन्टी रुपीज़ ईच फ़ॉर तम्बोला.

(खेल पूरा होने के बाद)

मीरा : लेडीज़ प्लीज़ लंच के लिए आइये।

Meera : Ladies please come for lunch. लेडीज़ प्लीज़ कम फ़ॉर लंच.

सुधा : मीरा तुम्हारी बेक्ड वेजीटेबल तो बहुत टेस्टी (स्वादिष्ट) बनी है।

Sudha : Your baked vegetable is very tasty Meera. योर बेक्ड वेजीटेबल इज़ वेरी टेस्टी मीरा.

मीरा : थैंक्यू, मुझे तुम्हारे यहां भरवां टमाटर बहुत पसंद आये थे।

Meera : Thank you, I liked the stuffed tomatoes very much at your place. थैंक्यू, आइ लाइक्ड द स्टफ़्ड टमैटोज़ वेरी मच ऐट योर प्लेस.

सुधा : हम एक-दूसरे से बनाने का तरीका सीखेंगे।

Sudha : We will exchange the recipes. वी विल एक्सचेंज़ द रेसिपीज़.

मीरा : हां पक्का। *(मेहमानों से)* और लीजिए न।

Meera : Yes sure. *(to guests)* Please have some more. येस श्योर. प्लीज़ हैव सम मोर.

मिसिज़ देशमुख : *(प्रीति से)* बड़ी स्लिम (दुबली पतली) लग रही हो प्रीति।

Mrs. Deshmukh : *(to Preeti)* Looking very slim Preeti. लुकिंग वेरी स्लिम प्रीति.

प्रीति : थैंक्यू।

Preeti : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

मिसिज़ देशमुख : डाइटिंग कर रही हो क्या?

Mrs. Deshmukh : Have you been dieting? हैव यू बीन डाइटिंग?

प्रीति : नहीं तो। पर मैंने योगा और कुछ व्यायाम करना शुरू किया है।

Preeti : Not really. But I have started some Yoga and exercise. श्नॉट रिअली. बट आइ हैव स्टार्टिट सम योगा ऐंड एक्सर्साइज़.

मिसिज़ देशमुख : हां उससे बहुत फर्क पड़ता है।

Mrs. Deshmukh : Yes that is very effective. येस दैट इज़ वेरी इफ़ेक्टिव.

मिसिज़ मेहता : *(मिसिज़ सक्सेना से)* तुम हमारे पड़ोसी सिंह परिवार को तो जानती हो न?

Mrs. Mehta : *(to Mrs. Saxena)* Do you know Singhs our neighbours. डू यू नो सिंग्ज़ आवर नेबर्ज़?

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : हां क्यों?

Mrs. Saxena : Yes why? येस वाइ?

मिसिज़ मेहता : कल रात तो उनके यहां काफी तमाशा हुआ।

Mrs. Mehta : There was a big scene at their place last night. देअर वॉज़ अ बिग सीन ऐट देअर प्लेस लास्ट नाइट.

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : क्यों क्या हुआ?

Mrs. Saxena : Why what happened? वाइ वॉट हैपन्ड?

मिसिज़ मेहता : हम अभी मुश्किल से सोये ही थे कि ज़ोर-ज़ोर से आवाज़ें सुनाई दीं। मि. और मिसिज़ सिंह आपस में लड़ रहे थे और ज़ोर-ज़ोर से एक-दूसरे पर चिल्ला रहे थे।

Mrs. Mehta : We had hardly gone to sleep, when we heard loud voices. Mr. and Mrs. Singh were fighting and shouting at each other. वी हैड हार्डली गॉन टु स्लीप, वेन वी हर्ड लाउड वॉइसिज़. मि. ऐंड मिसिज़ सिंह वर फ़ाइटिंग ऐंड शाउटिंग ऐट ईच अदर.

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : अच्छा क्या बात थी?

Mrs. Saxena : What was the matter. वॉट वॉज़ द मैटर?

मिसिज़ मेहता : भगवान जाने पर है तो बुरी बात, है न?

Mrs. Mehta : God knows but that's very bad, isn't it? गॉड नोज़ बट दैट्स वेरी बैड, इज़न्ट इट?

मिसिज़ सक्सेना : हां बिल्कुल।

Mrs. Saxena : Yes ofcourse. येस ऑफ़कोर्स.

दीप्ति : *(मीरा से)* किटी के रुपयों से क्या खरीदोगी?

Dipti : *(to Meera)* What are you going to buy with the kitty money. वॉट आर यू गोइंग टु बाइ विद द किटी मनी?

मीरा : अभी सोचा नहीं है। तुमने क्या खरीदा?

Meera : I haven't thought yet. What did you buy? आइ हैवन्ट थॉट येट. वॉट डिड यू बाइ?

दीप्ति : कपड़े धोने की मशीन।

Dipti : Washing machine. वॉशिंग मशीन.

मीरा : कौन सी?

Meera : Which one? विच वन?

दीप्ति : वीडिओकॉन।

Dipti : Videocon. वीडिओकॉन.

मीरा : अच्छी चल रही है?

Meera : Is it working well? इज़ इट वर्किंग वेल.

दीप्ति : हां बहुत अच्छी।

Dipti : Yes very well. येस वेरी वेल.

मीरा : मैं देखने के लिए आऊंगी।

Meera : I will come to see it. आइ विल कम टु सी इट.

दीप्ति : हां ज़रूर, कल आओ न।

Dipti : Yes sure. Come tomorrow. येस श्योर. कम टुमॉरो.

मीरा : ठीक है।

Meera : O.K. ओ.के.

मिसिज़ देशमुख : अच्छा मीरा चलते हैं। भई बड़ा मज़ा आया।

Mrs. Deshmukh : O.K. Meera. We had a very nice time, bye. ओ.के. मीरा. वी हैड अ वेरी नाइस टाइम, बाइ.

मीरा : थैंक्यू, फिर आइएगा।

Meera : Thank you, please come again. थैंक्यू, प्लीज़ कम अगेन.

सुधा : मीरा बड़ा अच्छा लंच खिलाया तुमने। अच्छा, बाइ।

Sudha : O.K. Meera, thank you for the nice lunch, bye. ओ.के. मीरा, थैंक्यू फ़ॉर द नाइस लंच, बाइ.

मीरा : आने का शुक्रिया, बाइ।

Sudha : Thanks for coming, bye. थैंक्स फ़ॉर कमिंग, बाइ.

दीप्ति : अच्छा मीरा मैं भी चलती हूं।

Dipti : O.K. Meera I too will leave now. ओ.के. मीरा आइ टू विल लीव नाउ.

मीरा : क्यों? थोड़ी देर ठहरो न।

Meera : Why? Stay for sometime. वाइ? स्टे फ़ॉर समटाइम.

दीप्ति : नहीं, बच्चे ट्यूशन से वापिस आ गये होंगे। कल मिलते हैं।

Dipti : No, children must be back from tuition. See you tomorrow. नो, चिल्ड्रन मस्ट बी बैक फ्रॉम ट्यूशन. सी यू टुमॉरो.

मीरा : अच्छा बाइ, फिर मिलते हैं।

Meera : O.K. Bye, see you. ओ.के. बाइ, सी यू.

बैंक में

At the Bank (एट द बैंक)

कस्टमर : ज़रा सुनिए। मैं इस बैंक में अकाउंट खोलना चाहता हूं।

Customer : Excuse me. I want to open an account here. एक्सक्यूज़ मी. आइ वॉन्ट टु ओपन ऐन अकाउन्ट हिअर.

बैंक कर्मचारी : कृपया, उस कैबिन में जाइए।

Bank Employee : Please go to that cabin. प्लीज़ गो टु दैट कैबिन.

कस्टमर : क्या मैं अन्दर आ सकता हूं?

Customer : May I come in. मे आइ कम इन?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : जी हां। बताइए, मैं आपके लिए क्या कर सकता हूं?

Bank Officer : Yes please. What can I do for you? येस प्लीज़. वॉट कैन आइ डू फ़ॉर यू?

कस्टमर : मैं यहां खाता खोलना चाहता हूं। बचत खाते के लिए कम-से-कम कितना जमा करना पड़ता है?

Customer : I want to open an account here. What is the minimum deposit for a savings account? आइ वॉन्ट टु ओपन ऐन अकाउन्ट हिअर. वॉट इज़ द मिनिमम डिपॉज़िट फ़ॉर अ सेविंग्ज़ अकाउन्ट?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : आप कम-से-कम 250 रुपए जमा करके एक साधारण बचत खाता खोल सकते हैं। लेकिन चेकबुक वाले खाते में कम-से-कम 500 रुपए जमा करने होंगे।

Bank Officer : You can open an ordinary savings account with a minimum deposit of two hundred and fifty rupees. But for a cheque book account one needs to deposit five hundred rupees. यू कैन ओपन ऐन ऑर्डिनरी सेविंग्ज़ अकाउन्ट विद अ मिनिमम डिपॉज़िट ऑफ़ टू हंड्रेड ऐंड फ़िफ़्टी रुपीज़. बट फ़ॉर अ चेकबुक अकाउन्ट वन नीड्ज़ टु डिपॉज़िट फ़ाइव हंड्रेड रुपीज़.

कस्टमर : हफ्ते में कितनी बार हम बैंक से पैसा निकाल सकते हैं?

Customer : How many times a week can we withdraw money? हाउ मेनी टाइम्ज़ अ वीक कैन वी विद्ड्रॉ मनी?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : हमारे बैंक में हफ्ते में दो बार से अधिक नहीं।

Bank Officer : In our bank not more than twice a week. इन आवर बैंक नॉट मोर दैन ट्वाइस अ वीक.

कस्टमर : बचत खाते में ब्याज कितना मिलेगा?

Customer : What is the rate of interest on a savings account? वॉट इज़ द रेट ऑफ़ इंट्रेस्ट ऑन अ सेविंग्ज़ अकाउन्ट?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : पांच परसेंट।

Bank Officer : Five percent. फ़ाइव परसेंट.

कस्टमर : ठीक है। मैं यहां खाता खोलना चाहता हूं।

Customer : Alright. I want an account here. ऑलराइट. आइ वॉन्ट ऐन अकाउन्ट हिअर.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : ठीक है। इस फ़ॉर्म को भरिए। आप अकाउन्ट सिंगल (अकेले) चाहते हैं या जॉइन्ट (किसी के साथ)?

Bank Officer : O.K. Fill up this form please. Do you want it single or joint? ओ.के. फ़िल अप दिस फ़ॉर्म प्लीज़. डू यू वॉन्ट इट सिंगल ऑर जॉइन्ट?

कस्टमर : मैं अपनी पत्नी के साथ जॉइन्ट चाहता हूं।

Customer : I want it in a joint name with my wife. आइ वॉन्ट इट इन अ जॉइन्ट नेम विद माइ वाइफ़.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : तब आप दोनों को यहां साइन करना होगा। क्या आप किसी को जानते हैं जो गवाह के रूप में साइन कर सकता है?

Bank Officer : In that case you both have to sign here. Do you know somebody to sign as witness? इन दैट केस, यू बोथ हैव टु साइन हिअर. डू यू नो समबॉडी टु साइन ऐज़ विटनेस?

कस्टमर : जी हां। मेरे पड़ोसी मिस्टर शर्मा का आपके बैंक में खाता है।

Customer : Yes my neighbour Mr. Sharma has an account in this bank. येस माइ नेबर मिस्टर शर्मा हैज़ ऐन अकाउन्ट इन दिस बैंक.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : ठीक है। उन्हें यहां साइन करने को कहें।

Bank Officer : Fine, please ask him to sign here. फ़ाइन, प्लीज़ आस्क हिम टु साइन हिअर.

कस्टमर : और इसके बाद?

Customer : And after that? ऐंड आफ़्टर दैट?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : कैशियर के पास रकम जमा कीजिए। उसके बाद आपको अकाउन्ट नंबर और पासबुक दोनों मिल जायेंगे।

Bank Officer : Deposit the amount with the cashier. After that you will get your account number and the pass-book. डिपॉज़िट द अमाउन्ट विद द कैशियर. आफ़्टर दैट यू विल गेट योर अकाउन्ट नम्बर ऐंड द पासबुक.

कस्टमर : बहुत-बहुत धन्यवाद।

Customer : Thank you very much. थैंक्यू वेरी मच.

दूसरा कस्टमर : मुझे एक ड्राफ़्ट बनवाना है।

Another Customer : I want a draft, please. आइ वॉन्ट अ ड्राफ़्ट, प्लीज़.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : काउन्टर नम्बर तीन पर जाइए।

Bank Officer : Please go to the counter number three. प्लीज़ गो टु द काउन्टर नम्बर थ्री.

कस्टमर : *(काउन्टर पर)* मुझे एक ड्राफ़्ट बनवाना है।

Customer : *(at the counter)* I want a draft, please. आइ वॉन्ट अ ड्राफ़्ट, प्लीज़.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : आपका यहां खाता है?

Bank Officer : Do you have an account here. डू यू हैव एन अकाउन्ट हिअर?

कस्टमर : नहीं।

Customer : No. नो.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : इस फ़ॉर्म को भरिए और काउन्टर नंबर छह पर पैसे जमा कीजिए।

Bank Officer : Fill up this form and deposit the money at counter number six. फ़िल अप दिस फ़ॉर्म ऐंड डिपॉज़िट द मनी ऐट काउन्टर नंबर सिक्स.

कस्टमर : कितना समय लगेगा?

Customer : How much time will it take? हाउ मच टाइम विल इट टेक?

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : करीब दो घंटे।

Bank Officer : About two hours. अबाउट टू आवर्ज़.

कस्टमर : ज़रा जल्दी कर दीजिए।

Customer : Please try to make it early. प्लीज़ ट्राइ टु मेक इट अर्ली.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : कोशिश करूंगा।

Bank Officer : I will try. आइ विल ट्राइ.

कस्टमर : थैंक्यू।

Customer : Thank you. थैंक्यू.

एक और कस्टमर : इस चेक को कैश करना है।

Another Customer : I want to encash this cheque please. आइ वॉन्ट टु एन्कैश दिस चेक प्लीज़.

बैंक ऑफ़िसर : काउन्टर नंबर छः पर जाएं।

Bank Officer : Counter number six please. काउन्टर नंबर सिक्स प्लीज़.

दूसरा कस्टमर : थैंक्यू।

Another Customer : Thank you. थैंक्यू।

कस्टमर : मुझे फ़िक्स्ड डिपॉज़िट अकाउन्ट खोलना है।

Customer : I want a fixed deposit account. आइ वॉन्ट अ फ़िक्स्ड डिपॉज़िट अकाउंट.

ऑफ़िसर : कितनी रकम का?

Officer : For what amount? फ़ॉर वॉट अमाउंट?

कस्टमर : दस हज़ार रुपए का।

Customer : For ten thousand rupees. फ़ॉर टेन थाउजंड रुपीज़.

ऑफ़िसर : कितने वर्ष के लिए?

Officer : And for how many years? ऐंड फ़ॉर हाउ मैनी ईयर्ज़?

कस्टमर : तीन वर्ष के लिए।

Customer : For three years. What is the interest? फ़ॉर थ्री ईयर्ज़. वॉट इज़ द इंट्रेस्ट?

ऑफ़िसर : इस चार्ट को पढ़िए।

Officer : Please study this chart. प्लीज़ स्टडी दिस चार्ट.

कस्टमर : रिकरिंग डिपॉज़िट के लिए कम्पाउंड इन्ट्रेस्ट है क्या?

Customer : Is there compound interest for the recurring deposit? इज़ देअर कम्पाउंड इंट्रेस्ट फ़ॉर द रिकरिंग डिपॉज़िट.

ऑफ़िसर : चार्ट में लिखा है।

Officer : It is there in the chart please. इट इज़ देअर इन द चार्ट प्लीज़.

बॉस और सेक्रेटरी

सेक्रेटरी : गुड मार्निंग सर।

बॉस : गुड मार्निंग टीना। ये लेटर लिखो और फौरन फ़ैक्स कर दो।

सेक्रेटरी : जी ठीक है। सर, एन.के. इंडस्ट्रीज़ के मि. मेहता के साथ आज आपकी साढ़े ग्यारह बजे अपॉइंटमेंट है।

बॉस : ठीक है मुझे ग्यारह बजे याद करवा देना।

सेक्रेटरी : जी अच्छा। ये उनकी कम्पनी का लेटर है और यह हमारे जवाब की कॉपी।

बॉस : ठीक है, मुझे इसकी फ़ाइल भी भेज दो।

सेक्रेटरी : ये दो अर्जियां हैं। मिस्टर साहिल बीमार हैं और मिसिज़ चौधरी छुट्टी बढ़ाना चाहती हैं।

बॉस : कितने दिन की?

सेक्रेटरी : तीन दिन, 25 से 28 अप्रैल तक। ये इलेक्ट्रीशियन का बिल है। और सर मैंने प्लंबर को बुलवाया है। टॉयलेट फ़्लश फिर से खराब हो गया है।

बॉस : ठीक है। तुमने मेघराज ऐंड सन्ज़ को रिमाइंडर भेज दिया?

सेक्रेटरी : जी।

(फोन बजता है।)

सेक्रेटरी : हलो, विशाल इंडस्ट्रीज़। जी ज़रा होल्ड कीजिए।
सर, स्टैंडर्ड पब्लिशर्ज़ से मिसिज़ डिसूज़ा बोल रही हैं। आज दोपहर में किसी समय आप से मिलना चाहती हैं।

बॉस : और कोई अपॉइंटमेंट है?

सेक्रेटरी : जी नहीं सर।

Boss And Secretary (बॉस ऐंड सेक्रेटरी)

Secretary : Good morning sir. गुड मॉर्निंग सर.

Boss : Good morning Teena. Please take down this letter and fax it immediately. गुड मॉर्निंग टीना. प्लीज़ टेक डाउन दिस लेटर ऐंड फ़ैक्स इट इमीजिएटली.

Secretary : O.K. Sir, you have an appointment with Mr. Mehta of N.K. Industries at 11.30 today. ओ.के. सर, यू हैव ऐन अपॉइंटमेंट विद मिस्टर मेहता ऑफ़ ऐन.के. इंडस्ट्रीज ऐट इलेवन थर्टी टुडे.

Boss : Alright, remind me about it at eleven O'clock. ऑलराइट, रिमाइंड मी अबाउट इट ऐट इलेवन ओ क्लॉक.

Secretary : Yes sir. This is the letter from their company and a copy of the reply sent by us. येस सर. दिस इज़ द लेटर फ्रॉम देअर कंपनी ऐंड अ कॉपी ऑफ़ द रिप्लाइ सेंट बाइ अस.

Boss : Alright, send me the concerned file. ऑलराइट, सेंड मी द कन्सर्न्ड फ़ाइल.

Secretary : These are two applications. Mr. Sahil has reported sick and Mrs. Choudhary has applied for an extension of her leave. दीज़ आर टू ऐप्लीकेशन्ज़. मिस्टर साहिल हैज़ रिपोर्टिड सिक ऐंड मिसिज़ चौधरी हैज़ एप्लाइड फ़ॉर ऐन एक्स्टेंशन ऑफ़ हर लीव.

Boss : How many days? हाउ मेनी डेज़?

Secretary : Three days, 25th to 28th. This is the electrician's bill. And also, I've sent for the plumber. The toilet flush is not working again. थ्री डेज़, ट्वेन्टी फ़िफ़्थ टु ट्वेन्टी एट्थ. दिस इज़ द इलेक्ट्रीशियन्ज़ बिल. ऐंड ऑलसो, आइ हैव सेन्ट फ़ॉर द प्लंबर. द टॉयलट फ़्लश इज़ नॉट वर्किंग अगेन.

Boss : O.K. Have you sent the reminder to Meghraj and Sons? ओ.के. हैव यू सेंट द रिमाइंडर टु मेघराज ऐंड सन्ज़?

Secretary : Yes sir. येस सर.

(फोन बजता है।)

Secretary : Hello, Vishal Industries. Please hold on. Sir, this is Mrs. D'souza from Standard Publishers. She wants an appointment, this afternoon. हलो, विशाल इंडस्ट्रीज़. प्लीज़ होल्ड ऑन. सर, दिस इज़ मिसिज़ डिसूज़ा फ्रॉम स्टेन्डर्ड पब्लिशर्ज़. शो वॉन्ट्स ऐन अपॉइंटमेंट, दिस आफ़्टरनून.

Boss : Is there any other appointment? इज़ देअर ऐनी अदर अपाइंटमेंट?

Secretary : No sir. नो सर.

बॉस : ठीक है। चार बजे बुला लो।

Boss : Alright. Call her at 4 O'clock. ऑलराइट. कॉल हर ऐट फ़ोर ओ क्लॉक.

सेक्रेटरी : ठीक है मिसिज़ डिसूज़ा आप आज दोपहर चार बजे आ सकती हैं।

Secretary : O.K. Mrs. D'souza you can come at four O'clock this afternoon. ओ.के. मिसिज़ डिसूज़ा यू कैन कम ऐट फ़ोर ओ. क्लॉक दिस आफ़्टरनून.

बॉस : हमारे नए ब्रोशर्ज़ आ गये?

Boss : Have our new brochures arrived?
हैव आवर न्यू ब्रोशर्ज़ अराइव्ड?

सेक्रेटरी : जी सर। ये उन कम्पनीज़ की लिस्ट है, जिन्हें हम ब्रोशर्ज़ भेज रहे हैं।

Secretary : Yes sir. This is the list of the companies we are sending them to. येस सर. दिस इज़ द लिस्ट ऑफ़ द कम्पनीज़ वी आर सेंडिंग देम टु.

बॉस : आज पक्का भेज दो। और ये पैकेट कूरिअर से भेज दो।

Boss : O.K. send all the brochures today without fail. Also send this packet by courier. ओ.के. सेन्ड ऑल द ब्रोशर्ज़ टुडे विदाउट फ़ेल. ऑलसो सेंड दिस पैकिट बाइ कूरिअर.

सेक्रेटरी : जी अच्छा।

Secretary : Yes sir. येस सर.

सेल्ज़मैन की बॉस को रिपोर्ट

The Salesman Reporting to his Boss
(द सेल्ज़मैन रिपोर्टिंग टु हिज़ बॉस)

सेल्ज़मैन : गुड इवनिंग सर।

Salesman : Good evening sir. गुड ईवनिंग सर.

बॉस : गुड ईवनिंग अमित। दिन कैसा रहा?

Boss : Good evening Amit. How was the day today?
गुड ईवनिंग अमित. हाउ वॉज़ द डे टुडे?

सेल्ज़मैन : काफ़ी अच्छा रहा सर। मैं उन सभी कम्पनियों और ऑफ़िसों में गया जो आज के लिए निश्चित किए गए थे।

Salesman : Quite good sir. I visited all the companies and offices scheduled for today. क्वाइट गुड सर. आइ विज़िटिड ऑल द कम्पनीज़ ऐंड ऑफ़िसिज़ शिड्यूल्ड फ़ॉर टुडे.

बॉस : क्या तुम सावन ऐन्टरप्राइज़िज़ में रहमान साहब से मिले?

Boss : Did you meet Mr. Rahman in Sawan Enterprises?
डिड यू मीट मिस्टर रहमान इन सावन एन्टरप्राइज़िज़.

सेल्ज़मैन : जी हां। मैंने उन्हें आपका रेफ़रेंस भी दिया।

Salesman : Yes sir. I gave him your reference.
येस सर. आइ गेव हिम योर रेफ़रेंस.

बॉस : उनका रिसपॉन्स कैसा था?

Boss : How was his response? हाउ वॉज़ हिज़ रिसपॉन्स?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी काफी पॉज़िटिव (ठीक) था। उन्होंने मुझे सैम्पल्ज़ और ब्रोशर्ज़ छोड़ने और अगले सप्ताह सम्पर्क करने को कहा है। उन्होंने इस महीने के अंत तक हमें ऑर्डर देने का विश्वास भी दिलाया है।

Salesman : Very positive. He asked me to leave the samples and brochures and to contact him next week. He has assured me that he'll place an order by the end of this month. वेरी पॉज़िटिव. ही आस्क्ड मी टु लीव द सैम्पल्ज़ ऐंड ब्रोशर्ज़ ऐंड टु कॉन्टेक्ट हिम नेक्स्ट वीक. ही हैज़ अश्योर्ड मी दैट ही विल प्लेस ऐन ऑर्डर बाइ द ऐंड ऑफ़ दिस मन्थ.

बॉस : अगले हफ्ते मिस्टर रहमान से ज़रूर मिलना।

Boss : Make it a point to see Mr. Rahman next week.
मेक इट अ पॉइन्ट टु सी मिस्टर रहमान नेक्सट वीक.

सेल्ज़मैन : जी बिल्कुल। सर, हमें राजीव इंडस्ट्रीज़ से 5 लाख रुपये का ऑर्डर मिला है। पर उन्हें सात दिनों के अंदर डिलीवरी चाहिए।

Salesman : Definitely sir. Sir, we got an order of five lakhs from Rajeev Industries. But they want delivery within seven days. डेफ़िनिटली सर. सर, वी गॉट ऐन ऑर्डर ऑफ़ फ़ाइव लैक्स फ्रॉम राजीव इंडस्ट्रीज़. बट दे वॉन्ट डिलीवरी विदिन सेवन डेज़.

बॉस : इसका इंतजाम हो जाएगा। एन.के. एन्टरप्राइज़िज़ का क्या हुआ?

Boss : That can be arranged. What about N.K. Enterprises?
दैट कैन बी अरेंज्ड. वॉट अबाउट ऐन.के. एंटरप्राइज़िज़ ?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी उनका रिस्पॉन्स बहुत अच्छा नहीं था।

Salesman : Their response was a little lukewarm sir.
देअर रिस्पॉन्स वॉज़ अ लिटल लूकवॉर्म सर.

बॉस : क्यों?

Boss : Why? वाइ?

सेल्ज़मैन : उनकी शिकायत थी कि पिछली बार डिलीवरी समय पर नहीं हुई थी। वे हमारे पेपर की क्वालिटी से भी बहुत खुश नहीं थे।

Salesman : They complained that last time the delivery wasn't on time. They also seemed to be dissatisfied with the quality of our paper. दे कम्प्लेन्ड दैट लास्ट टाइम द डिलीवरी वॉज़न्ट ऑन टाइम. दे ऑलसो सीम्ड टु बी डिस्सेटिस्फ़ाइड विद द क्वॉलिटी ऑफ़ आवर पेपर.

बॉस : तुमने उन्हें मनाने की कोशिश नहीं की?

Boss : Didn't you try to convince them?
डिडन्ट यू ट्राइ टु कन्विन्स देम?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी की थी। मैंने उनसे वायदा किया कि डिलीवरी आगे से समय पर होगी। मैंने उन्हें यह भी बताया कि अब हमारी कागज की क्वॉलिटी पहले से बेहतर है। मैंने खुद परचेज़ मैनेजर से बात की।

Salesman : Yes sir I did. I promised them on-time delivery in future. I also told them that we are offering better quality paper now. I spoke to the purchase manager myself. येस सर आइ डिड. आइ प्रॉमिस्ड देम ऑन-टाइम डिलीवरी इन फ़्यूचर. आइ ऑलसो टोल्ड देम दैट वी आर ऑफ़रिंग बेटर क्वॉलिटी पेपर नाउ. आइ स्पोक टु द परचेज़ मैनेजर माइसेल्फ़.

बॉस : फिर?

Boss : Then. देन.

सेल्ज़मैन : उन्होंने कहा कि वे सोचेंगे।

Salesman : He said he would think about it.
ही सेड ही वुड थिंक अबाउट इट.

बॉस : ठीक है। कल तुम बेहतर क्वालिटी के कागज़ और स्टेशनरी सैम्पल्ज़ के साथ उनसे दोबारा मिलो। उन्हें लिखित रूप में माफीनामा भिजवाओ और वायदा करो कि आगे से उन्हें कोई शिकायत नहीं होगी।

Boss : Alright, tomorrow you go to them with the new samples of the improved quality of paper and stationery. Also send them a written apology, that they won't have any complaint in future. ऑलराइट, टुमॉरो यू गो टु देम विद द न्यू सैम्पल्ज़ ऑफ़ द इम्प्रूव्ड क्वालिटी आफ़ पेपर ऐंड स्टेशनरी. ऑलसो सेंड देम अ रिटन अपॉलोजी, दैट दे वोन्ट हैव ऐनी कम्प्लेन्ट इन फ़्यूचर.

सेल्ज़मैन : जी, मैं ऐसा ही करूंगा।

Salesman : Alright, I will do that. ऑलराइट, आइ विल डू दैट.

बॉस : और तुम कौन-कौन सी कम्पनियों में गए।

Boss : Which other companies did you visit today?
विच अदर कम्पनीज़ डिड यू विज़िट टुडे?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी मैं रोहन एन्टरप्राइज़िज और नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़ में गया। मैंने नवल इंडस्ट्रीज़ नौएडा के परचेज़ मैनेजर से भी कल मुलाकात का वक्त लिया है। ये उन सभी जगहों की डीटेल्ज़ हैं जहां मैं गया और जहां से मुझे ऑर्डर्ज़ मिले हैं।

Salesman : I went to Rohan Enterprises and Navyug Industries. I have also got an appointment with the purchase manager of Naval Industries Noida tomorrow. These are the details of all the places I visited today and the orders I have secured. आइ वेन्ट टु रोहन एन्टरप्राइज़िज़ ऐंड नवयुग इंडस्ट्रीज़. आइ हैव ऑलसो गॉट ऐन अपॉइंटमेंट विद द परचेज़ मैनेजर ऑफ़ नवल इंडस्ट्रीज़ नौएडा टुमॉरो. दीज़ आर द डीटेल्ज ऑफ़ ऑल द प्लेसिज़ आइ विज़िटिड टुडे ऐंड द ऑर्डर्ज़ आइ हैव सिक्योर्ड.

बॉस : *(कागज़ पढ़ते हुए)* बहुत अच्छे। कल कहां-कहां जाओगे?

Boss : *(Looking at the paper)* Well done. Which areas will you cover tomorrow. वेल डन. विच एरियाज़ विल यू कवर टुमॉरो?

सेल्ज़मैन : जी नौएडा और ईस्ट देहली सर।

Salesman : Noida and East Delhi sir. नौएडा ऐंड ईस्ट डेल्ही सर.

बॉस : मोहन एंटरप्राइज़िज़ ज़रूर जाना। मुझसे मि. राजेश मोहन के लिए रेफ़रेंस लेटर भी ज़रूर ले कर जाना।

Boss : Make it a point to visit Mohan Enterprises tomorrow. Also take from me the reference letter for Mr. Rajesh Mohan. मेक इट अ पॉइंट टु विज़िट मोहन एंटरप्राइज़िज़ टुमॉरो. ऑलसो टेक फ्रॉम मी द रेफ़रेंस लेटर फ़ॉर मिस्टर राजेश मोहन.

सेल्ज़मैन : आप उन्हें कैसे जानते हैं सर?

Salesman : In what capacity do you know him sir.
इन वॉट कपेसिटी डू यू नो हिम सर. .

बॉस : हमारे पुराने बिज़नेस रिलेशंज़ हैं। इसके अलावा वे मेरे दोस्त भी हैं। वे हमें बिज़नेस ज़रूर देंगे।

Boss : We have old business relations. Besides he is a personal friend. He will definitely give us business. वी हैव ओल्ड बिज़नेस रिलेशंज़. बिसाइड्स ही इज़ अ पर्सनल फ्रेंड. ही विल डेफ़िनिटली गिव अस बिज़नेस.

सेल्ज़मैन : जी अच्छा सर। गुड नाइट।

Salesman : Alright sir. Good night. ऑलराइट सर. गुड नाइट.

APPENDIX परिशिष्ट

अंग्रेज़ी में शब्द-निर्माण
WORD-BUILDING IN ENGLISH

1. क्रियाओं के आगे ance या ence प्रत्यय लगाने पर भाववाचक संज्ञाएं बनती हैं।

Admit (v) (एडमिट) प्रवेश करना	[-ance] Admittance (n) (एडमिटेन्स) प्रवेश।
Utter (v) (अटर) बोलना	[-ance] Utterance (n) (अटरेन्स) उच्चारण।
Grieve (v) (ग्रीव) शोक करना	[-ance] Grievance (n) (ग्रीवेन्स) कष्ट।
Guide (v) (गाइड) मार्ग दिखाना	[-ance] Guidance (n) (गाइडेन्स) मार्ग-दर्शन।
Interfere (v) (इंटरफ़ियर) दखल देना	[-ence] Interference (n) (इंटरफ़ियरेन्स) हस्तक्षेप।
Differ (v) (डिफ़र) मतभेद करना	[-ence] Difference (n) (डिफ़रेन्स) मतभेद।
Prefer (v) (प्रेफ़र) प्राथमिकता देना	[-ence] Preference (n) (प्रिफ़रेन्स) प्राथमिकता।
Occur (v) (अकर) घटित होना	[-ence] Occurrence (n) (अकरेन्स) घटना।

इसी प्रकार इन शब्दों के आगे -ance या -ence लगाएं—depend, refer, indulge, reside में [-ence] और contrive, endure, insure, observe में [-ance] प्रत्यय लगता है।

2. अनेक बार भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने के लिए-ment प्रत्यय (suffix) लगाया जाता है। जैसे improve से improvement आदि।

अब नीचे दिए गए क्रिया शब्दों के साथ -ment लगा कर नये शब्द बनाएं और उनके अर्थ शब्दकोश में ढूंढें।

Achieve (एचीव) प्राप्त करना,	Announce (एनाउन्स) घोषित करना
Amuse (एम्यूज़) आनन्द करना,	State (स्टेट) कहना
Postpone (पोस्टपोन) स्थगित करना,	Settle (सैटल) फैसला करना
Move (मूव) हिलना	Measure (मेज़र) मापना
Advertise (एडवरटाइज़) विज्ञापन देना	Excite (एक्साइट) उत्तेजित होना

N. B .: ऊपर दिए गए शब्दों में ment लगाया जाता है। achieve + ment = achievement.

अपवाद (exception) - 1. नीचे दिये गए शब्द में -ment मिलाने पर क्रिया शब्द के अन्तिम e का लोप हो जाता है।

Argue (आरग्यू) तर्क करना Argue + ment = Argument

3. Y के अंत वाली क्रियाओं के आगे प्रत्यय (suffix) लगाने पर y का i हो जाता है। नीचे दी हुई तालिका से उसका सम्यक अभ्यास कीजिए।

Ally (v) (एलाइ) साथ देना	[-ance] Alliance (n) (एलायन्स) साथ, सहयोग
Carry (v) (कैरी) उठा ले जाना	[-age] Carriage (n) (कैरिज) भार उठाने वाली गाड़ी
Marry (v) (मैरी) विवाह करना	[-age] Marriage (n) (मैरिज) विवाह
Envy (v) (एन्वी) ईर्ष्या करना	[-ous] Envious (n) (एन्वियस) ईर्ष्यालु
Apply (v) (एप्लाई) प्रार्थना पत्र देना	[-cation] Application (n) (एप्लिकेशन) प्रार्थनापत्र
Qualify (v) (क्वालीफ़ाइ) योग्य होना	[-cation] Qualification (n) (क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन) योग्यता
Try (v) (ट्राई) यत्न करना	[-al] Trial (n) (ट्रायल) यत्न
Deny (v) (डिनाई) इन्कार करना	[-al] Denial (n) (डिनायल) अस्वीकृति

but किन्तु

betray (v) (बिट्रे) धोखा देना

betrayal (n) (बिट्रेयल) धोखा

4. अनेक बार भाव वाचक संज्ञा -al प्रत्यय (suffix) लगाकर बनाई जाती है— जैसे refuse + al = refusal अस्वीकृति। शब्द के अन्त में e हो तो उसका लोप हो जाता है (जैसे refusal में refuse के e का हुआ है।) अब आगे दिये गए शब्दों में -al प्रत्यय लगाएं और नये शब्दों को शब्दकोश में ढूंढें— Approve (स्वीकार करना), arrive (आना, पहुंचना), dispose (बेचना), propose (प्रस्तावित करना), betray (धोखा देना।) 5. कई बार विशेषण भी -al प्रत्यय (suffix) लगा कर बनाए जाते हैं।

जैसे—centre + al = central (centre की अन्तिम e का लोप हो गया है।) अब नीचे दिये शब्दों के विशेषण -al प्रत्यय जोड़ कर बनाएं और शब्द कोश में उनके अर्थ भी ढूंढें।

Continue (जारी रखना), fate (भाग्य), nature (प्रकृति), universe (संसार), practice (अभ्यास करना) 6. Y के अन्त वाले विशेषण-शब्दों के आगे प्रत्यय (suffix) लगने पर y का i हो जाता है।

Adj. विशेषण	Adv. क्रिया विशेषण	Noun संज्ञा
Busy (बिज़ी) व्यस्त	busily व्यस्तता पूर्वक	business व्यस्तता
Easy (ईज़ी) आसान	easily आसानी के साथ	easiness सरलता
Heavy (हैवी) भारी	heavily भारीपन से	heaviness भारीपन
Happy (हैप्पी) प्रसन्न	happily प्रसन्नता के साथ	happiness प्रसन्नता
Lucky (लकी) भाग्यवान	luckily भाग्य से	luckiness भाग्यशालिता
Ready (रैडी) प्रस्तुत, तैयार	readily एकदम	readiness तैयारी
Steady (स्टैडी) स्थिर	steadily स्थिरता के साथ	steadiness स्थिरता

देखते ही देखते अब आपको विशेषण से क्रिया विशेषण तथा संज्ञाएं बनाना आ गया है। इसी प्रकार अब स्वयं ही विशेषण से संज्ञाएं बनाने का अभ्यास कर सकते हैं।

7. नीचे दिए उपसर्गों से नये शब्द बनाने का अभ्यास कीजिये। अर्थ भी मन में बैठाइए। फिर लिखिए।

in (= नहीं)	dependent	independent
	dependence	independence
	definite	indefinite
	justice	injustice
-im (= नहीं)	practicable	impracticable
	possible	impossible
	proper	improper
	patience	impatience
	moral	immoral
	mortal	immortal
-irr(= नहीं)	reversible	irreversible
	responsible	irresponsible
	removable	irremovable
-il (+ नहीं)	legible	illegible
-mis (= बुरा)	deed	misdeed
	conduct	misconduct
	management	mismanagement

विराम चिन्ह

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITAL LETTERS

किसी नगर के मेयर एक बार किसी स्कूल का मुआइना करते हुए उस कक्षा में पहुंचे जहां punctuation और capital letters का विषय पढ़ाया जा रहा था। वे बहुत नाराज़ हुए और बोले कि एक मूर्ख के सिवा और कोई भी व्यक्ति ऐसा निरर्थक विषय नहीं पढ़ा सकता। अध्यापक महोदय ने शांत रहते हुए blackboard पर यह लिखा—The Mayor says, "The teacher is a fool." अर्थात् मेयर कहते हैं कि अध्यापक मूर्ख है। इससे मेयर बहुत प्रसन्न हुए। अब अध्यापक महोदय ने मेयर से कहा कि अब मैं इस वाक्य में केवल punctuation और capital letters बदलूंगा और तब पूर्वोक्त वाक्य को ऐसे लिखा— "The Mayor", says the teacher, "is a fool". अर्थात् अध्यापक कहते है कि मेयर मूर्ख है। वाक्य का एकदम विपरीत अर्थ होता देख कर मेयर महोदय बहुत शर्मिंदा हुए और उन्होंने punctuation और capital letters के महत्त्व को स्वीकार किया। हमें भी ऐसे ही करना चाहिए। प्रमुख विराम चिन्ह नीचे दिये गए हैं।

Full Stop — हर assertive और imperative वाक्य के अन्त में तथा abbreviations और initials के बाद लगता है, जैसे— (i) Alexander invaded India .

(ii) Sit down .

(iii) Shri S. N. Mishra is a prominent M.P. from Bihar .

Question Mark — हर interrogative वाक्य के अन्त में, जैसे— Have you seen the Taj?

Exclamation Mark — हर exclamatory वाक्य के अंत में, जैसे—

What a marvel the newspaper is!

Semicolon — यह full stop से आधे समय को प्रकट करता है, जैसे—

Her mind was still untouched by any doubt as to what she ought to do; and she felt at rest in the assurance that Nala still loved her better than his own soul.

Colon — यह semicolon से लम्बा ठहराव प्रकट करता है, और यह गणना को प्रारम्भ करने के काम आता है, जैसे— These are the important rivers of India: the Indus, the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Cauvery.

Quotations or Inverted Commas — वक्ता के शब्दों के लिए, जैसे— Ram says, "Dev bowls well".

Apostrophe — Possession या missing letter/letters के लिए, जैसे—

Mohan doesn't sit on his father's chair.

Comma — इसके विविध उपयोग हैं, जैसे—

(i) Yes, I know him .

(ii) Monday, 15th January. January 20, 1939 .

(iii) Ravana, the king of Sri Lanka, kidnapped Sita, the wife of Rama .

(iv) Mohan, get me a glass of water . (सम्बोधित व्यक्ति का नाम अलग करने के लिए).

(v) In the south the Godavari, the Krishna and the Cauvery are the longest rivers. (and द्वारा न जुड़े हुए समान शब्दों को अलग करने हेतु).

(vi) Light and fresh air are in abundance in villages, but they are shut out from the house. (Conjunction द्वारा जुड़ी हुई coordinate clauses अलग करने हेतु).

(vii) The teacher said , " Ice floats on water ".
" Help me to get the Golden fleece ," said Jason to Medra. (Direct speech को main verb से अलग करने के लिए).

(viii) When he doesn't have any work in the off season, he idles away his time . (वाक्य के प्रारम्भ में आने वाली adverb clause को अलग करने हेतु).

(ix) Damayanti, that was the name of the Princess, entered the pavilion with a garland in her hands . (वाक्य के बीच में आए parenthetical यानी कोष्ठकों में रखे जाने वाले शब्दों को अलग करने हेतु).

(x) The time being favourable, Buddha quietly slipped away from the palace. (nominative absolute अलग करने के लिए).

(xi) The evil spirit, who had only been seen by Nala, disappeared from sight. (adjective clause को main clause से अलग करने हेतु).

(xii) Believing the words of the fox, the goat jumped into the well. (participle वाली या adjective का काम करने वाली phrases अलग करने हेतु).

Capitals — अंग्रेज़ी में capital यानी बड़े अक्षरों के निम्नलिखित प्रयोग हैं:— (i) वाक्य प्रारम्भ करने हेतु, जैसे— India has produced many great men and women .

(ii) Proper noun दर्शाने हेतु— It takes two hours to reach Meerut by train .

(iii) Title (ख़िताब) दर्शाने के लिए— Alexander, The Great, invaded India .

(iv) Initials यानी नाम के प्रारम्भिक अक्षरों के लिए, जैसे— This article is from the pen of M. K. Gandhi :

(v) परमात्मा या भगवान के नाम और संबन्धित सर्वनामों के लिए— My God and king, to thee I bow my head .

(vi) I यानी मैं के लिए, जैसे— It was over nine years ago when I visited

Hardwar .

(vii) Poetry की हर line के प्रारंभ में, जैसे— Now is the time to study hard; Work will bring its own reward; Then work, work, work !

(viii) Quotation marks के अन्दर वाक्य शुरू करते समय, जैसे— I said to you , “ I want your help .”

शब्दों के संक्षिप्त रूप

ABBREVIATIONS

abbr.	abbreviated
	abbreviation
adj.	adjective, adjourned, adjustment
Advt.	Advertisement
A.M.	*ante meridiem* (before noon)
amt.	amount
ans.	answer
Apr.	April
Aug.	August
B.A.	Bachelor of Arts
B.B.C.	British Broadcasting Corporation
B.C.	Before Christ
B.Com.	Bachelor of Commerce
B.Sc.	Bachelor of Science
B.P.	Blood Pressure
B.O.A.C.	British Overseas Airways Corporation
Capt.	Captain
Cf.	confer, compare
Chap.	chapter
Chq.	cheque
C.I.D.	Criminal Investigation Department
cm.	centimetre(s)
Co.	company
c/o.	care of
cp.	compare
D.	dollar
Dec.	December
deg.	degree(s)
dft.	draft
dict.	dictionary
dis.	discount, discoverer
D.Litt.	Doctor of Literature
D.L.O.	Dead Letter Office
do	ditto (the same as aforesaid)
D. Phil.	Doctor of Philosophy
dpt.	department
Dr.	debtor, doctor
D.C.	direct current, deputy commissioner

E.	East
E. and O.E.	errors and omissions excepted
Ed.	editor, education
Eng.	England, English
Engr.	engineer
esp.	especially
Esq./Esqr.	esquire,
Est.	established
E.T.	English Translation
etc.	*et cetera,* and the other,
ex.	example
F. (Fahr)	Fahrenheit
f.	following
fam.	family
Feb.	February
fem.	feminine
ff.	folios (pl), following (pl)
Fig.	figure
f. o. r.	free on rail
ft.	foot, feet, fort
g.	gram
gaz.	gazette, gazetteer
Gen.	General
gen.	gender
G.P.O.	General Post Office
Gr.	Greek
H.	Hydrogen
h., hr.	hour
Hon.	Honourable
H.Q.	headquarters
I.A.	Indian Army
ib.	*ibid., ibidem,* in the same place
id.	idem, the same
i.e.	*id. est* (that is)
I.G.	Inspector General
inst.	instant, the present month
int.	interest, interior, interpreter
intro., introd.	introduction
inv.	invoice
ital.	italic
J.	Judge, Justice
Jan.	January
Junc.	junction
kc.	kilocycle
kg.	kilogram
km.	kilometre
kw.	kilo watts

Lat.	Latin
lat.	latitude
lab.	laboratory
lang.	language
lb.	libra, pound
Lt.	Lieutenant
Lt.-Gen.	Lieutenant-General
Ltd.	Limited
Lt.-Gov.	Lieutenant Governor
mag.	magazine
Maj.	Major
Mar.	March
marg.	margin, marginal
mas., masc.	masculine
M.B.	Medicinae Baccalaureus, Bachelor of Medicine
M.D.	Medicinae Doctor, Doctor of Medicine
med.	medical, medicine, mediaeval
Messrs.	*Messieurs* (Fr.) Sirs, used as plural of Mr.
min.	minimum, minute
misc.	miscellaneous
ml.	millilitre
M.L.A.	Member of Legislative Assembly
M.L.C.	Member of Legislative Council
mm.	millimetre(s)
M.O.	Medical Officer, Money Order
morn.	morning
M.P.	Member of Parliament
m.p.h.	miles per hour
Mr.	Master, Mister
Mrs.	Mistress
M.S.	Manuscript(s), Master of Surgery
mth.	month
N.	North, Northern
n.	name
N. B., n.b.	*nota bene,* note well, or take notice
n.d.	no date, not dated
neg.	negative
No., no.	numero, in number
Nos. nos.	numbers (pl)
Nov.	November
O	Oxygen
ob.	obituary, died
obj.	object, objective
Oct.	October
off.	official
O.K.	Orl Korrect, All correct
o.p.	out of print

opp.	opposite
ord.	order, ordinary, ordinance
Oz.	ounce(s)
p.	page, pp. pages (pl)
P.C.	post card
per cent.	per centum, by the hundred
Ph. D.	Doctor of Philosophy
plu., plur.	plural
P.M.	post meridiem (after noon)
P.O.	Post Office
P.T.	physical training
P.T.O.	please turn over
P.W.D.	Public Works Department
Q.	query, question,
Q	queue
qr.	quarter
qt.	quantity
Rd.	road
Re.	Rupee
recd.	received
recpt.	receipt
ref.	reference
Rep.	representative, report, reporter
retd.	retired, returned
Regt.	Regiment
Rs.	Rupees
R.S.V.P.	*repondez s'll vous plait* (Fr.), reply if you please
S.	South, seconds
Sa., Sat.	Saturday
s.c.	small capital
s.d.	*sine die,* without a day (fixed)
SEATO	South-East Asia Treaty Organisation
Sec., Secy.	Secretary
sec.	second
Sep., Sept.,	September
sig.	signature
sing.	singular
Sq., sq.	square
St.	Street
st.	stone
sub., subj.	subject
T.B.	tuberculosis
tech.	technical, technology
tel.	telegraph
T.O.	turn over
tr.	translator, transpose
TV	television
U.S.A.	United States of America
U.S.S.R.	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
U.	uranium, universal
U.D.C.	upper division clerk
U.K.	United Kingdom
U.P.	United Provinces, Uttar Pradesh
Vs.	versus, against
vb.	verb
vid.	vide, see
viz.	videlicet, namely
V.I.P.	Very Important Person
V.P.	Vice President
vt.	verb transitive
W.	West
Wed.	Wednesday
w.e.f.	with effect from
w.f.	wrong fount
WHO	World Health Organisation
wt.	weight
X.	Roman numeral for ten
X., Xt.	Christ
Xm., Xmas.	Christmas
y. yr.	year
Y.M.C.A.	Young Men's Christian Association
Zn.	Zinc
&	et, and

संख्याएं

NUMERALS

हिन्दी अंक	उच्चारण	अंक	अंग्रेज़ी लिपि	उच्चारण	रोमन अंक	हिन्दी अंक	उच्चारण	अंक	अंग्रेजी लिपि	उच्चारण	रोमन अंक
१	एक	1	One	वन	I	५१	इक्यावन	51	Fifty one	फ़िफ़टी वन	LI
२	दो	2	Two	टू	II	५२	बावन	52	Fifty two	फ़िफ़टी टू	LII
३	तीन	3	Three	थ्री	III	५३	तिरपन	53	Fifty three	फ़िफ़टी थ्री	LIII
४	चार	4	Four	फ़ोर	IV	५४	चौवन	54	Fifty four	फ़िफ़टी फ़ोर	LIV
५	पांच	5	Five	फ़ाइव	V	५५	पचपन	55	Fifty five	फ़िफ़टी फ़ाइव	LV
६	छः	6	Six	सिक्स	VI	५६	छप्पन	56	Fifty six	फ़िफ़टी सिक्स	LVI
७	सात	7	Seven	सेवन	VII	५७	सत्तावन	57	Fifty seven	फ़िफ़टी सेवन	LVII
८	आठ	8	Eight	एट	VIII	५८	अट्ठावन	58	Fifty eight	फ़िफ़टी एट	LVIII
९	नौ	9	Nine	नाइन	IX	५९	उनसठ	59	Fifty nine	फ़िफ़टी नाइन	LIX
१०	दस	10	Ten	टेन	X	६०	साठ	60	Sixty	सिक्सटी	LX
११	ग्यारह	11	Eleven	इलेवन	XI	६१	इकसठ	61	Sixty one	सिक्सटी वन	LXI
१२	बारह	12	Twelve	ट्वेल्व	XII	६२	बासठ	62	Sixty two	सिक्सटी टू	LXII
१३	तेरह	13	Thirteen	थर्टीन	XIII	६३	तिरेसठ	63	Sixty three	सिक्सटी थ्री	LXIII
१४	चौदह	14	Fourteen	फ़ोर्टीन	XIV	६४	चौंसठ	64	Sixty four	सिक्सटी फ़ोर	LXIV
१५	पन्द्रह	15	Fifteen	फ़िफ़्टीन	XV	६५	पैंसठ	65	Sixty five	सिक्सटी फ़ाइव	*LXV
१६	सोलह	16	Sixteen	सिक्सटीन	XVI	६६	छियासठ	66	Sixty six	सिक्सटी सिक्स	LXVI
१७	सत्रह	17	Seventeen	सेवनटीन	XVII	६७	सड़सठ	67	Sixty seven	सिक्सटी सेवन	LXVII
१८	अठारह	18	Eighteen	एटीन	XVIII	६८	अड़सठ	68	Sixty eight	सिक्सटी ऐट	LXVIII
१९	उन्नीस	19	Nineteen	नाइनटीन	XIX	६९	उनहत्तर	69	Sixty nine	सिक्सटी नाइन	LXIX
२०	बीस	20	Twenty	ट्वेंटी	XX	७०	सत्तर	70	Seventy	सेवंटी	LXX
२१	इक्कीस	21	Twenty one	ट्वेंटी वन	XXI	७१	इकहत्तर	71	Seventy one	सेवंटी वन	LXXI
२२	बाईस	22	Twenty two	ट्वेंटी टू	XXII	७२	बहत्तर	72	Seventy two	सेवंटी टू	LXXII
२३	तेईस	23	Twenty three	ट्वेंटी थ्री	XXIII	७३	तिहत्तर	73	Seventy three	सेवंटी थ्री	LXXIII
२४	चौबीस	24	Twenty four	ट्वेंटी फ़ोर	XXIV	७४	चौहत्तर	74	Seventy four	सेवंटी फ़ोर	LXXIV
२५	पच्चीस	25	Twenty five	ट्वेंटी फ़ाइव	XXV	७५	पचहत्तर	75	Seventy five	सेवंटी फ़ाइव	LXXV
२६	छब्बीस	26	Twenty six	ट्वेंटी सिक्स	XXVI	७६	छिहत्तर	76	Seventy six	सेवंटी सिक्स	LXXVI
२७	सत्ताईस	27	Twenty seven	ट्वेंटी सेवन	XXVII	७७	सतहत्तर	77	Seventy seven	सेवंटी सेवन	LXXVII
२८	अठाईस	28	Twenty eight	ट्वेंटी एट	XXVIII	७८	अठत्तर	78	Seventy eight	सेवंटी एट	LXXVIII
२९	उनतीस	29	Twenty nine	ट्वेंटी नाइन	XXIX	७९	उन्यासी	79	Seventy nine	सेवंटी नाइन	LXXIX
३०	तीस	30	Thirty	थर्टी	XXX	८०	अस्सी	80	Eighty	एटी	LXXX
३१	इकत्तीस	31	Thirty one	थर्टी वन	XXXI	८१	इक्यासी	81	Eighty one	एटी वन	LXXXI
३२	बत्तीस	32	Thirty two	थर्टी टू	XXXII	८२	बयासी	82	Eighty two	एटी टू	LXXXII
३३	तेंतीस	33	Thirty three	थर्टी थ्री	XXXIII	८३	तिरासी	83	Eighty three	एटी थ्री	LXXXIII
३४	चौंतीस	34	Thirty four	थर्टी फ़ोर	XXXIV	८४	चौरासी	84	Eighty four	एटी फ़ोर	LXXXIV
३५	पैंतीस	35	Thirty five	थर्टी फ़ाइव	XXXV	८५	पच्चासी	85	Eighty five	एटी फ़ाइव	LXXXV
३६	छत्तीस	36	Thirty six	थर्टी सिक्स	XXXVI	८६	छियासी	86	Eighty six	एटी सिक्स	LXXXVI
३७	सैंतीस	37	Thirty seven	थर्टी सेवन	XXXVII	८७	सत्तासी	87	Eighty seven	एटी सेवन	LXXXVII
३८	अड़तीस	38	Thirty eight	थर्टी एट	XXXVIII	८८	अट्ठासी	88	Eighty eight	एटी एट	LXXXVIII
३९	उनतालीस	39	Thirty nine	थर्टी नाइन	XXXIX	८९	नवासी	89	Eighty nine	एटी नाइन	LXXXIX
४०	चालीस	40	Forty	फ़ोर्टी	XL	९०	नब्बे	90	Ninety	नाइन्टी	XC
४१	इकतालीस	41	Forty one	फ़ोर्टी वन	XLI	९१	इक्यानवे	91	Ninety one	नाइन्टी वन	XCI
४२	बयालीस	42	Forty two	फ़ोर्टी टू	XLII	९२	बानवे	92	Ninety two	नाइन्टी टू	XCII
४३	तेंतालीस	43	Forty three	फ़ोर्टी थ्री	XLIII	९३	तिरानवे	93	Ninety three	नाइन्टी थ्री	XCIII
४४	चौवालीस	44	Forty four	फ़ोर्टी फ़ोर	XLIV	९४	चौरानवे	94	Ninety four	नाइन्टी फ़ोर	XCIV
४५	पैंतालीस	45	Forty five	फ़ोर्टी फ़ाइव	XLV	९५	पचानवे	95	Ninety five	नाइन्टी फ़ाइव	XCV
४६	छियालीस	46	Forty six	फ़ोर्टी सिक्स	XLVI	९६	छियानवे	96	Ninety six	नाइन्टी सिक्स	XCVI
४७	सैंतालीस	47	Forty seven	फ़ोर्टी सेवन	XLVII	९७	सतानवे	97	Ninety seven	नाइन्टी सेवन	XCVII
४८	अड़तालीस	48	Forty eight	फ़ोर्टी एट	XLVIII	९८	अट्ठानवे	98	Ninety eight	नाइन्टी ऐट	XCVIII
४९	उनचास	49	Forty nine	फ़ोर्टी नाइन	XLIX	९९	निन्यानवे	99	Ninety nine	नाइन्टी नाइन	XCIX
५०	पचास	50	Fifty	फ़िफ़्टी	L	१००	सौ	100	Hundred	हण्ड्रेड	C

हिन्दी उच्चारण अंक		अंग्रेज़ी अंक	लिपि		रोमन अंक
२००	दो सौ	200	Two Hundred	टू हंड्रेड	CC
३००	तीन सौ	300	Three Hundred	थ्री हंड्रेड	CCC
४००	चार सौ	400	Four Hundred	फ़ोर हंड्रेड	CD
५००	पांच सौ	500	Five Hundred	फाइव हंड्रेड	D
६००	छह सौ	600	Six Hundred	सिक्स हंड्रेड	DC
७००	सात सौ	700	Seven Hundred	सेवन हंड्रेड	DCC
८००	आठ सौ	800	Eight Hundred	एट हंड्रेड	DCCC
९००	नौ सौ	900	Nine Hundred	नाइन हंड्रेड	CM
१०००	एक हज़ार	1000	Thousand	थाउज़ैन्ड	M
१०,०००	दस हज़ार	10,000	Ten Thousand	टेन थाउज़ैन्ड	I
१,००,०००	एक लाख	1,00,000	Hundred Thousand	हंड्रेड थाउज़ैन्ड	X
१०,००,०००	दस लाख	10,00,000	Million	मिलियन	M
१,००,००,०००	करोड़	1,00,00,000	Ten Million	टेन मिलियन	—
१०,००,००,०००	दस करोड़	10,00,00,000	Hundred Million	हंड्रेड मिलियन	—
१,००,००,००,०००	अरब	1,00,00,00,000	Thousand Million	थाउज़ैन्ड मिलियन	—
१०,००,००,००,०००	दस अरब	10,00,00,00,000	Billion	बिलियन	—

क्रमवाचक गिनती

पहला—First (फ़र्स्ट)
दूसरा—Second (सेकंड)
तीसरा—Third (थर्ड)
चौथा—Fourth (फ़ोर्थ)
पांचवां—Fifth (फ़िफ़्थ)
छठा—Sixth (सिक्स्थ)
सातवां—Seventh (सेवन्थ)
आठवां—Eighth (एट्थ)
नौवां—Ninth (नाइन्थ)
दसवां—Tenth (टेंथ)

गुणवाचक गिनती

एक गुना—Single (सिंगल)
दुगुना—Double (डबल)
तिगुना—Three fold (थ्री फ़ोल्ड)
चौगुना—Four fold (फ़ोर फ़ोल्ड)
पांच गुना—Five fold (फ़ाइव फ़ोल्ड)
छह गुना—Six fold (सिक्स फ़ोल्ड)
सात गुना—Seven fold (सेवन फ़ोल्ड)
आठ गुना—Eight fold (एट फ़ोल्ड)
नौ गुना—Nine fold (नाइन फ़ोल्ड)
दस गुना—Ten fold (टेन फोल्ड)

अंशवाचक गिनती

1/2 आधा—Half (हॉफ़)
3/4 तीन चौथाई—Three fourth (थ्री फ़ोर्थ)
2/3 दो तिहाई—Two third (टू थर्ड)
1/4 चौथाई—One fourth (वन फ़ोर्थ)
1/5 पांचवां भाग—One fifth (वन फ़िफ़्थ)
1/6 छठा भाग—One sixth (वन सिक्स्थ)
1/7 सातवां भाग—One seventh (वन सेवंथ)
1/8 आठवां भाग—One eighth (वन एट्थ)
1/9 नौवां भाग—One ninth (वन नाइन्थ)
1/10 दसवां भाग—One tenth (वन टेन्थ)

DIRECT & INDIRECT SPEECH

"I don't know how to swim", said the monkey. यह वाक्य बंदर और मगरमच्छ की प्रसिद्ध कहानी से सम्बंधित है। इसमें बंदर ने जैसे कहा उसे वैसे ही लिखकर 'उद्धरण चिह्नों' के बीच में रख दिया गया है, कि यह बात बंदर ने कही है। इस प्रकार का कथन, direct speech कहलाता है। इस की सरल पहचान है 'उद्धरण चिह्न' जिन्हें inverted commas या quotation marks कहते हैं।

ऊपर कही गई बात ऐसे भी कही जा सकती है — The monkey said that he didn't know how to swim. ऐसे कथन को indirect speech कहा जाता है।

1. Harbhajan said to me, "I'm going to help you."
2. Harbhajan said to you, "I'm going to help you."
3. Harbhajan said to Sajan, "I'm going to help you."

Direct speech के इन तीन वाक्यों को indirect speech में ऐसे लिखा जाएगा — 1. Harbhajan told me that he was going to help me.

2. Harbhajan told you that he was going to help you.
3. Harbhajan told Sajan that he (Harbhajan) was going to help him (Sajan).

स्पष्ट है कि indirect speech बनाते समय — (**1**) quotation marks के बाहर subject का जो person हो वही person quotation marks के भीतर वाले subject का भी कर दिया जाता है। ऊपर Harbhajan third person है इसलिए indirect speech में 'I' को 'he' बनाया गया है। (**2**) quotation marks के बाहर object का जो person हो वही person quotation marks के भीतर वाले object का भी कर दिया जाता है। ऊपर वाक्य 1 में बाहर object, me का first person है इसलिए quotation marks के भीतर second person के object, you को first person के me में बदल दिया गया है। इस प्रकार 2 में you को you और 3 में you को he में बदल दिया गया है। (**3**) यदि quotation marks के बाहर past tense क्रिया में हो तो अंदर की present or future tense की क्रिया को past tense में बदल देते हैं और बाहर के said to को told में। ऊपर present continuous के am going to

help को was going to help में बदला गया है।

ऊपर लिखे वाक्यों से स्पष्ट हो जाता है कि जब बात past tense में कही गई हो तब indirect speech बनाते समय निम्नलिखित बातों को ध्यान में रखते हैं— (**1**) Quotation marks के बाहर वाले subject का जो person (पुरुष) होता है वही person, quotation marks के अंदर वाले subject का भी कर देते हैं, जैसे ऊपर I का he। अपवाद के लिए देखिए (i) आगे। **(2)** बाहर वाले object का जो person होता है वही person अंदर वाले object का कर देते हैं, जैसे (1) में you का me, (2) में you का you और (3) में you का him. अपवाद के लिए देखिए (ii) आगे। (**3**) अंदर वाली क्रिया या क्रियाओं के present tense या future tense को correspoding past tense में बदल देते हैं, जैसे ऊपर am going to help to को was going to help में बदल दिया गया है। (**4**) बाहर वाले said को told में बदलते हैं। (**5**) बाहर वाले said को said ही रहने देते हैं।

1. Mahesh says, “I met the teacher on the way.”
2. Ram says, “Bhatt writes well.”
3. Ali says, “The train will arrive soon.”
4. The teacher will say, “There is no school tomorrow.”
5. My father will say to me, “You upset my plan.”
6. The Government will say, “Exploitation in any form whatsoever shall be punishable.”

इन वाक्यों से स्पष्ट है कि यदि बाहर वाली क्रिया (reporting verb) का present tense या future tense हो तो indirect speech बनाते समय इन बातों का ध्यान रखते हैं — i) जो person बाहर वाले subject का हो वही अंदर वाले subject का करते हैं जैसे 1. में I का he।

ii) यदि अंदर subject हो you तो अंदर वाले subject को बाहर वाले subject के अनुरूप बदलते हैं। जो person बाहर वाले object का हो वही person अंदर वाले object का करते हैं। अपवाद यह है कि यदि अंदर subject हो you तो उसे बाहर के object के अनुसार बदलते हैं, जैसे 5 में you को I में।

iii) अंदर की क्रिया का tense नहीं बदलते।

My teacher said, “The earth is round.” की indirect speech है My teacher said that the earth is round. शाश्वत सच्चाइयों आदि से संबंधित क्रिया tense का नहीं बदला जाता। हां person का नियम लगता है।

कुछ चुनी हुई क्रियाओं के 3 प्रकार
(3 FORMS OF SOME SELECTED VERBS)

अंग्रेज़ी में क्रियाओं की तीन forms होती हैं। उनका कालसूचक रूपों (Tenses) के साथ गहरा सम्बन्ध है। विभिन्न Tenses में विभिन्न forms लगती हैं। यहाँ कुछ क्रियाओं को वर्गीकृत करके, उनके तीनों forms के रूप आपकी सुविधा और अभ्यास के लिए दिए जा रहे हैं।

1. अंग्रेज़ी में अनेक क्रियाएं ऐसी हैं जिनकी II और III forms एक जैसी होती हैं; जैसे allow की II और III दोनों forms allowed हैं। ये क्रियाएं। ग्रुप में रखी गई हैं—

I फॉर्म Present tense, Pronunciation & Meaning	II फॉर्म Past tense	III फॉर्म Past Participle
1. allow (अलाउ) आज्ञा देना	allowed	allowed
2. appear (एपिअर) प्रकट होना	appeared	appeared
3. build (बिल्ड) बनाना	built	built
4. borrow (बॉरो) उधार लेना	borrowed	borrowed
5. boil (बॉयल) उबालना	boiled	boiled
6. burn (बर्न) जलाना	burnt	burnt
7. catch (कैच) पकड़ना	caught	caught
8. copy (कॉपी) नकल करना	copied	copied
9. carry (कैरी) ले जाना	carried	carried
10. clean (क्लीन) साफ करना	cleaned	cleaned
11. climb (क्लाइम) चढ़ना	climbed	climbed
12. close (क्लोज़) बन्द करना	closed	closed
13. cook (कुक) पकाना	cooked	cooked
14. care (केयर) परवाह करना	cared	cared
15. cross (क्रॉस) पार करना	crossed	crossed
16. complete (कम्पलीट) पूरा करना	completed	completed
17. dig (डिग) खोदना	dug	dug
18. deceive (डिसीव) धोखा देना	deceived	deceived
19. decorate (डैकोरेट) सजाना	decorated	decorated
20. die (डाइ) मरना	died	died
21. divide (डिवाइड) बांटना	divided	divided
22. earn (अर्न) कमाना	earned	earned
23. enter (एंटर) अन्दर आना	entered	entered
24. fight (फ़ाइट) लड़ना	fought	fought
25. find (फ़ाइंड) पाना	found	found
26. feed (फ़ीड) खिलाना	fed	fed
27. finish (फ़िनिश) समाप्त करना	finished	finished
28. fear (फ़िअर) डरना	feared	feared
29. hang (हैंग) लटकना	hung	hung
30. hang (हैंग) फांसी देना	hanged	hanged

31. hold (होल्ड) पकड़ना	held	held
32. hire (हायर) किराये पर लेना	hired	hired
33. hunt (हंट) शिकार करना	hunted	hunted
34. iron (आयरन) इस्त्री करना	ironed	ironed
35. invite (इनवायट) निमन्त्रण देना	invited	invited
36. jump (जम्प) उछलना	jumped	jumped
37. knock (नॉक) खटखटाना	knocked	knocked
38. kick (किक्) ठोकर लगाना	kicked	kicked
39. lend (लैंड) उधार देना	lent	lent
40. lose (लूज़) खो देना	lost	lost
41. light (लाइट) जलाना, रौशनी करना	lighted/lit	lighted/lit
42. learn (लर्न) सीखना	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
43. marry (मैरी) विवाह करना	married	married
44. move (मूव) हिलना	moved	moved
45. open (ओपन) खोलना	opened	opened
46. obey (ओबे) आज्ञा पालन करना	obeyed	obeyed
47. order (ऑर्डर) आज्ञा देना	ordered	ordered
48. pick (पिक) चुनना	picked	picked
49. pray (प्रे) प्रार्थना करना	prayed	prayed
50. pull (पुल) खींचना	pulled	pulled
51. punish (पनिश्) दण्ड देना	punished	punished
52. prepare (प्रिपेअर) तैयार करना	prepared	prepared
53. plough (प्लो) हल चलाना	ploughed	ploughed
54. please (प्लीज़) खुश करना	pleased	pleased
55. push (पुश) धक्का देना	pushed	pushed
56. quarrel (क्वॉरल) लड़ना	quarrelled	quarrelled
57. rain (रेन) वर्षा	rained	rained
58. reach (रीच) पहुंचना	reached	reached
59. refuse (रिफ़्यूज़) इन्कार करना	refused	refused
60. ruin (रुइन) नष्ट करना	ruined	ruined
61. shine (शाइन) चमकना	shone	shone
62. sell (सैल) बेचना	sold	sold
63. shoot (शूट) गोली मारना	shot	shot
64. sleep (स्लीप) सोना	slept	slept
65. sweep (स्वीप) झाड़ू देना	swept	swept
66. smell (स्मैल) सूंघना	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
67. spend (स्पैंड) खर्च करना	spent	spent
68. thank (थैंक) धन्यवाद करना	thanked	thanked
69. tie (टाइ) बांधना	tied	tied
70. test (टैस्ट) परीक्षा लेना	tested	tested
71. wait (वेट) प्रतीक्षा करना	waited	waited
72. work (वर्क) काम करना	worked	worked

73. wish (विश) चाहना	wished	wished
74. win (विन्) जीतना	won	won
75. wind (वाइंड) चाबी देना	wound	wound
76. weep (वीप) रोना	wept	wept
77. weigh (वे) वजन करना	weighed	weighed
78. wring (रिंग) निचोड़ना	wrung	wrung
79. yield (यील्ड) हार मानना	yielded	yielded
80. yoke (योक) जोड़ना	yoked	yoked

2. कई क्रियाएं ऐसी हैं जिनकी II और III forms एक समान नहीं होतीं; साथ ही III form में धातु के साथ प्राय: 'en' या 'n' जुड़ता है; जैसे—'arise' से 'arose' और arisen. इन सभी में beaten, broken, bitten आदि रूप III form में बनते हैं।

81. arise (एराइज़) उठना	arose	arisen
82. beat (बीट) मारना	beat	beaten
83. break (ब्रेक) तोड़ना	broke	broken
84. bite (बाइट) काटना	bit	bitten
85. bear (बेअर) जन्म देना	bore	born
86. bear (बेअर) सहना	bore	borne
87. be (is, am, are) (बी) होना	was, were	been
88. choose (चूज़) चुनना	chose	chosen
89. drive (ड्राइव) हांकना, गाड़ी चलाना	drove	driven
90. draw (ड्रॉ) खींचना	drew	drawn
91. forget (फ़ॉर्गेट) भूलना	forgot	forgotten
92. fall (फ़ॉल) गिरना	fell	fallen
93. freeze (फ्रीज़) जम जाना	froze	frozen
94. fly (फ़्लाइ) उड़ना	flew	flown
95. give (गिव) देना	gave	given
96. grow (ग्रो) उगना	grew	grown
97. hide (हाइड) छिपना	hid	hidden
98. know (नो) जानना	knew	known
99. lie (लाइ) लेटना	lay	lain
100. ride (राइड) सवारी करना	rode	ridden
101. rise (राइज़) उठना	rose	risen
102. see (सी) देखना	saw	seen
103. shake (शेक) हिलाना	shook	shaken
104. steal (स्टील) चोरी करना	stole	stolen
105. speak (स्पीक) बोलना	spoke	spoken
106. swear (स्विएर) शपथ लेना	swore	sworn
107. tear (टिअर) फाड़ना	tore	torn
108. take (टेक) लेना	took	taken
109. throw (थ्रो) फैंकना	threw	thrown
110. wake (वेक) जागना	woke	woken
111. wear (वियर) पहनना	wore	worn
112. weave (वीव) बुनना	wove	woven
113. write (राइट) लिखना	wrote	written

3. कई क्रियाएं ऐसी हैं जिनकी II और III forms एक समान नहीं होतीं; पर II form के रूप का a III form में प्राय: u बन जाता है; जैसे—drank और rang के III form हैं drunk और rung आदि।

114. begin (बिगिन) शुरू करना	began	begun
115. drink (ड्रिंक) पीना	drank	drunk
116. ring (रिंग) घंटी बजाना	rang	rung
117. run (रन) दौड़ना	ran	run
118. sink (सिंक) डूबना	sank	sunk
119. sing (सिंग) गाना	sang	sung
120. spring (स्प्रिंग) उछलना	sprang	sprung
121. swim (स्विम) तैरना	swam	swum
122. shrink (श्रिंक) सिकुड़ना	shrank	shrunk

4. अंग्रेज़ी में कुछ क्रियाएं ऐसी हैं जिनके तीनों फॉर्म के रूप एक समान होते हैं। तीन वाक्यों का अर्थ देखिऐ—

(i) You bet now. तुम अब शर्त लगाते हो।

(ii) You bet yesterday. तुमने कल शर्त लगाई।

(iii) You have bet. तुमने शर्त लगाई है।

ऐसी क्रियाओं को विशेष रूप से स्मरण कीजिऐ ताकि बातचीत में गलत प्रयोग करके आप लोगों के बीच हंसी के पात्र न बनें।

123. bet (बैट) शर्त लगाना	bet	bet
124. bid (बिड) बोली लगाना	bid	bid
125. burst (बर्स्ट) फटना, टूटना	burst	burst
126. cut (कट) काटना	cut	cut
127. cast (कास्ट) फेंकना	cast	cast
128. cost (कॉस्ट) मूल्य होना	cost	cost
129. hit (हिट) चोट लगाना	hit	hit
130. hurt (हर्ट) चोट लगाना	hurt	hurt
131. knit (निट) बुनना	knit	knit
132. put (पुट) रखना	put	put
133. rid (रिड) छुटकारा पाना	rid	rid
134. read* (रीड) पढ़ना	read*	read*
135. spit (स्पिट) थूकना	spit	spit

25 आवश्यक समूहार्थक शब्द
(25 IMPORTANT COLLECTIVE PHRASES)

हरेक भाषा की अपनी परम्परागत शब्दावली बन जाती है और उसी रूप में शब्दों का प्रयोग करना अभीष्ट होता है। यहां कुछ समूहात्मक हिन्दी शब्दों के अंग्रेज़ी पर्याय दिये गऐ हैं। अंग्रेज़ी भाषा के व्यवहार में इन शब्दों का अभ्यास कीजिऐ। ' a bouquet of grapes ' नहीं, बल्कि a bunch of grapes कहेंगे। इसी प्रकार अन्य सभी शब्दों का उचित प्रयोग करना होगा।

1. चाभियों का गुच्छा	A *bunch* (बंच) of keys.
2. अंगूरों का गुच्छा	A *bunch* (बंच) of grapes.
3. फूलों का गुलदस्ता	A *bouquet* (बुके) of flowers.
4. लकड़ियों का गट्ठर	A *bundle* (बंडल) of sticks.
5. लोगों की भीड़	A *crowd* (क्राउड) of people.
6. पहाड़ों की श्रृंखला	A *chain* (चेन) of mountains.
7. भेड़ों का रेवड़	A *flock* (फ्लॉक) of sheep.
8. पक्षियों का दल	A *flight* (फ्लाइट) of birds.
9. द्वीपों का समूह	A *group* (ग्रुप) of islands.
10. तारों का समूह	A *galaxy* (गैलैक्सी) of stars.
11. पेड़ों का झुण्ड	A *grove* (ग्रोव) of trees.
12. मज़दूरों की टोली	A *gang* (गैंग) of labourers.
13. हिरनों का झुण्ड	A *herd* (हर्ड) of deer
14. सुअरों का झुण्ड	A *herd* (हर्ड) of swine.
15. मक्खियों (मधुमक्खियों) का समूह	A *hive* (हाइव) of bees.
16. **जानवरों का झुण्ड**	A *herd* (हर्ड) of cattle.
17. कूड़े का ढेर	A *heap* (हीप) of rubbish.
18. बजरी या रेता का ढेर	A *heap* (हीप) of stones or sand.
19. शिकारी कुत्तों का झुण्ड	A *pack* (पैक) of hounds.
20. जूतों का जोड़ा	A *pair* (पेअर) of shoes.
21. सैनिकों की टुकड़ी	A *regiment* (रेजीमेंट) of soldiers.
22. चोटियों की श्रृंखला	A *range* (रेंज) of cliffs.
23. मक्खियों का झुण्ड	A *swarm* (स्वॉर्म) of flies.
24. घटनाओं की श्रृंखला	A *series* (सीरीज़) of events.
25. घोड़ों की टुकड़ी	A *troop* (ट्रूप) of horses.

कुछ जानवरों के बच्चों के नाम (YOUNG ONES OF SOME ANIMALS)

जन्तु	जन्तु का बच्चा
ass (ऐस) गधा	foal (फ़ोल)
cow (काउ) गाय	calf (काफ़)
dog (डॉग) कुत्ता	puppy (पपी)
hen (हेन) मुर्गी	chicken (चिकेन)
bear (बेयर) रीछ	cub (कब)
cat (कैट) बिल्ली	kitten (किट्टन)
frog (फ्रॉग) मेंढक	tadpole (टैडपोल)

जन्तु	जन्तु का बच्चा
horse (हॉर्स) घोड़ा	colt (कोल्ट)
goat (गोट) बकरी	kid (किड)
sheep (शीप) भेड़	lamb (लैम)
wolf (वुल्फ़) भेड़िया	cub (कब)
lion (लायन) शेर	cub (कब)
tiger (टाइगर) चीता	cub (कब)

40 जन्तुओं की आवाजें (40 IMPORTANT WORDS DENOTING THE CRIES OF ANIMALS) हिन्दी भाषा में पशुओं की आवाज़ के लिऐ कुछ विशिष्ट शब्द हैं; जैसे रेंकना, भिनभिनाना, चहचहाना। 'रेंकना' कहते ही गधे की आवाज़ का, 'भिनभिनाना' में मक्खियों की आवाज का तथा 'चहचहाना' से पक्षियों के कलरव का बोध होता है। इसी तरह अंग्रेज़ी में भी पशुओं की आवाज़ों के लिऐ अलग-अलग शब्द हैं।

1. Asses bray. (ऐसेस ब्रे) गधे रेंकते हैं (ढींचू-ढींचू करते हैं)।
2. Bears growl. (बियर्स ग्राउल) भालू घरघराते हैं।
3. Bees hum. (बीज़ हम्) मक्खियां भिनभिनाती हैं।
4. Birds chirp. (बर्ड्स चर्प) पक्षी चहचहाते हैं।
5. Camels grunt. (कैमल्स ग्रंट) ऊंट गुड़गुड़ाते हैं।
6. Cats mew. (कैट्स म्यू) बिल्लियां म्याऊं-म्याऊं करती हैं।
7. Cattle low. (कैटल लो) जानवर रंभाते हैं।
8. Cocks crow. (कॉक्स क्रो) मुर्गे कुक्कड़ूँ करते हैं।
9. Crows caw. (क्रोज़ कॉ) कौए कांय-कांय करते हैं।
10. Dogs bark (डॉग्स बार्क) कुत्ते भौंकते हैं।

11. Doves coo. (डॅव्ज़ कू) फाख्ता कूं-कूं करती हैं।
12. Ducks quack. (डक्स क्वैक) बत्तख कैं-कैं करती हैं।
13. Elephants trumpet. (एलिफैंट्स ट्रम्पेट) हाथी चिंघाड़ते हैं।
14. Flies buzz. (फ़्लाइज़ बज़) मक्खियां भिनभिनाती हैं।
15. Frogs croak. (फ़ॉग्स क्रोक) मेंढक टर्राते हैं।
16. Geese cackle. (गीज़ कैकल्) हंस कुड़कुडाते हैं।
17. Hawks scream. (हॉक्स स्क्रीम) बाज चीखते हैं।
18. Hens cackle. (हैन्स कैकल्) मुर्गियां कुड़कुड़ाती हैं।
19. Horses neigh. (हॉर्सेस नी) घोड़े हिनहिनाते हैं।
20. Jackals howl. (जैकॉल्स हाउल) गीदड़ रोते हैं।
21. Kittens mew. (किटैन्स म्यू) बिल्ली के बच्चे म्याऊं-म्याऊं करते हैं।
22. Lambs bleat. (लैम्स ब्लीट) मेमने बां-बां करते हैं।
23. Lions roar. (लायन्स रोर) शेर दहाड़ते हैं।
24. Mice squeak. (माइस स्क्वीक) चूहे चूं-चूं करते हैं।
25. Monkeys chatter. (मंकीज़ चैटर) बन्दर गुर्राते हैं।
26. Nightingales sing. (नाइटिंगेल्स सिंग) बुलबुलें गाती हैं।
27. Owls hoot. (आउल्स हूट) उल्लू हू-हू करते हैं।
28. Oxen low. (ऑक्सन लो) बैल डकारते हैं।
29. Parrots talk. (पैरट्स टॉक) तोते टांय-टांय करते हैं।
30. Pigeons coo. (पिजन्स कू) कबूतर गुटरगूं करते हैं।
31. Pigs grunt. (पिग्स ग्रंट) सूअर घुरघुराते हैं।
32. Puppies yelp. (पप्पीज़ यैल्प) पिल्ले भूंकते हैं।
33. Sheep bleat. (शीप ब्लीट) भेड़ें मिमियाती हैं।
34. Snakes hiss. (स्नेक्स हिस) सांप फुंकारते हैं।
35. Sparrows chirp. (स्पैरोज़ चर्प) चिड़ियां चहचहाती हैं।
36. Swallows twitter. (स्वैलोज़ ट्विटर) अबाबील चहचहाती है।
37. Swans cry. (स्वैन्स क्राइ) बत्तखें कूजती हैं।
38. Tigers roar. (टाइगर्स रोर) बाघ दहाड़ते हैं।
39. Vultures scream. (वल्चर्स स्कीम) गिद्ध चीखते हैं।
40. Wolves yell. (वुल्व्ज़ यैल) भेड़िये चीखते हैं।

जो शब्द सुने तो बहुत जाते हैं, पर अधिकतर समझे नहीं जाते (WORDS MOSTLY HEARD BUT NOT MOSTLY KNOWN) आप गाव या शहर, जहां भी रहते हों

—यदि आप आधुनिक जगत के मॉर्डन व्यक्ति बनना चाहते हैं तो आपको भाषा के मामले में भी आधुनिकतम (अप-टू-डेट) व्यक्ति बनना होगा। हम में से बहुत से व्यक्ति ऐसे कई शब्द सुनते हैं और स्वयं भी इनका इस्तेमाल करते हैं; पर विचित्र बात यह है कि हम इनका ठीक-ठीक अर्थ नहीं जानते। आप इन शब्दों को सीखिए। आप देखेंगे कि दूसरे आपकी धाक मानने लगे हैं।

ज्ञान के क्षेत्र के 10 शब्द (Ten words about spheres of knowledge)

1. Anthropology (ऐंथ्रोपॉलॉजी) मनुष्य के स्वभाव, इतिहास और सभ्यता का अध्ययन
2. Archaeology (आर्किओलॉजी) प्राचीन वस्तुओं का अध्ययन—पुरातत्व
3. Astrology (एस्ट्रॉलॉजी) तारों और नक्षत्रों का अध्ययन—व्यावहारिक गणित ज्योतिष
4. Entomology (एंटोमॉलॉजी) कीट-पतंगों का अध्ययन—कीट शास्त्र
5. Etymology (एटिमॉलॉजी) शब्द-व्युत्पति के अभ्यास का अध्ययन—भाषा विज्ञान
6. Geology (जिओलॉजी) पृथ्वी की आन्तरिक बनावट का अध्ययन—भूगर्भशास्त्र
7. Philology (फिलॉलॉजी) भाषा के विकास का अध्ययन—भाषा-विज्ञान
8. Psychology (साइकॉलॉजी) मनुष्य के मन और उसके व्यवहार का अध्ययन—मनोविज्ञान
9. Radiology (रेडियोलॉजी) क्ष-किरण विद्या अर्थात् एक्स-रे विज्ञान
10. Sociology (सोशिओलॉजी) मनुष्य-समाज के विकास और उसके उद्भव का अध्ययन—समाजशास्त्र

ऊपर दिऐ गये शब्द आपको सुनने में कुछ कठिन लग सकते हैं। पर एक बार आपकी समझ में आ जाएंगे तो दूसरों पर आपका बड़ा प्रभाव पड़ेगा।

व्यक्तित्व प्रकट करने वाले 10 शब्द (Ten words showing personality)

नीचे कुछ शब्द दिऐ गए हैं जो व्यक्ति के स्वभाव को दर्शाते हैं। आप इस तरह के लोगों से भली-भांति परिचित हैं। ये शब्द आपने बिल्कुल न सुने हों—ऐसी बात नहीं है। फिर क्यों न आप थोड़ा उन्हें स्मरण रखने की कोशिश करें।

1. Blase (ब्लाज़) लोगों और सांसारिक पदार्थों से उकताया हुआ
2. Dogmatic (डॉग्मैटिक) वाणी और कर्म में अपनी बात सबसे ऊपर रखने वाला व्यक्ति

3. Diffident (डिफ़िडेंट) शर्मीला और झेंपू व्यक्ति
4. Extrovert (एक्सट्रोवर्ट) अपने से बाहर की वस्तुओं और व्यक्तियों में रुचि लेने वाला व्यक्ति
5. Gregarious (ग्रेगेरियस) हर समय दूसरे लोगों की संगति में रहने की इच्छा करने वाला व्यक्ति
6. Inhibited (इन्हिबिटेड) अपनी बात को दो-एक व्यक्तियों या भीड़ के सामने न कह सकने वाला व्यक्ति
7. Introvert (इंट्रोवर्ट) अपने आप में ही सीमित रहने वाला व्यक्ति—जो दूसरों से मिलने-जुलने में कठिनाई अनुभव करता हो
8. Quixotic (क्विक्ज़ोटिक) कल्पना के मंसूबे बांधने वाला व्यक्ति
9. Sadistic (सेडिस्टिक) दूसरों को सताने अथवा उन पर शासन करने में प्रसन्न होने वाला व्यक्ति
10. Truculent (ट्रुकुलेंट) चरित्र में जंगली और रूखा व्यक्ति

जीवन, कला और दर्शन से सम्बन्धित मतवाद (Theories about life, art & philosophy)

नीचे कुछ मतों (ISM) के नाम दिऐ गऐ हैं। कुछ आपने सुन रखे हैं, कुछ नहीं। इन्हें जानिए और अपना ज्ञान बढ़ाइए।

1. Altruism (एलट्रुइज़्म) परोपकारवाद—इसमें हर काम दूसरे के हित के लिऐ किया जाता है।
2. Atheism (एथिइज़्म) नास्तिकतावाद—इसमें 'ईश्वर नहीं है' ऐसा विश्वास होता है।
3. Chauvinism (शॉविनिज्म) अतिराष्ट्रीयतावाद—इसमें मनुष्य की अपने देश के प्रति अत्यधिक गर्व की भावना रहती है।
4. Conservatism (कन्ज़र्वेटिज़्म) पुरातनवाद (अनुदारतावाद)—इसमें ऐसी धारणा रहती है कि जो कुछ है वही सर्वश्रेष्ठ है और किसी परिवर्तन की आवश्यकता नहीं है।
5. Liberalism (लिबरॅलिज्म) उदारतावाद—राज्य तथा धर्म के क्षेत्र में स्वतंत्र विचार रखने की धारणा।
6. Radicalism (रैडिकलइज़्म) परिवर्तनवाद—इसके अन्तर्गत यह धारणा होती है कि हिंसात्मक परिवर्तनों से सर्वश्रेष्ठ शासन स्थापित किया जा सकता है।
7. Realism (रिअलइज़्म) यथार्थवाद—इसके अन्तर्गत यह विचार रहता है कि हर वस्तु को यथार्थ जीवन के अनुरूप होना चाहिए।
8. Romanticism (रोमैंटिसिज़्म) रोमांसवाद—अर्थात् कला और साहित्य को प्रकृति और यथार्थता की आदर्शपूर्ण और भावात्मक तस्वीर खींचनी चाहिए।
9. Skepticism (स्कैप्टिसिज़्म) संशयवाद—अर्थात् समस्त ज्ञान अनिश्चित है इसलिऐ संसार की किसी वस्तु के बारे में कुछ भी निश्चित रूप से नहीं कहा जा सकता।
10. Totalitarianism (टोटैलिटेरियनिज़्म) सर्वसत्तावाद—अर्थात् राज्य ही सब कुछ

है नागरिक कुछ भी नहीं। मनुष्य का अस्तित्व केवल राज्य के लिऐ है।

मन की 10 असाधारण स्थितियां (Ten abnormal conditions of mind)

आप पढ़े-लिखे और बौद्धिक लोगों के बीच बैठेंगे तो ये शब्द आपके वार्तालाप की शोभा बढ़ाएंगे।

1. Alexia (ऐलेक्सिया) पढ़ने में असमर्थता
2. Amnesia (ऐम्नेज़िया) स्मृति का नाश
3. Aphasia (ऐफेशिया) बोलने की शक्ति का नाश
4. Dementia (डेमेंशिया) मनोविज्ञान में मनोदशा का बिगड़ जाना
5. Dipsomania (डिप्सोमैनिया) मद्यपान करने की प्रबल एवं अदम्य इच्छा का उत्पन्न होना
6. Hypochondria (हाइपोकोंड्रिया) किसी के स्वास्थ्य के बारे में भय, चिन्ता या घबराहट होना
7. Insomnia (इन्सोम्निया) लगातार नींद का न आना
8. Kleptomania (क्लेप्टोमैनिया) कोई वस्तु चुराने की प्रबल इच्छा होना
9. Megalomania (मेगलोमैनिया) अपनी महानता के बारे में भ्रान्त विश्वास
10. Melancholia (मेलनकोलिया) दु:ख और निराशा की निरन्तर मनोदशा

डॉक्टरी पेशे के 10 शब्द (Ten words about doctors' profession) जब आप किसी से विशेषज्ञ डाक्टरों से परामर्श करने की बात करते हैं तो आपको हरेक प्रमुख बीमारी के लिऐ प्रयुक्त होने वाले अलग-अलग शब्दों का ज्ञान होना चाहिए। ये शब्द सुनने में बड़े अपरिचित, किन्तु बड़े प्रभावशाली लगते हैं। इन्हें मन में बैठाइये और दूसरे पर अपनी भाषा-ज्ञान की धाक बैठाइए।

1. Dermatologist (डर्मेटोलॉजिस्ट) चर्म रोगों का विशेषज्ञ
2. Gynaecologist (गाइनिकॉलॉजिस्ट) स्त्री रोगों का विशेषज्ञ
3. Internist (इंटरनिस्ट) शरीर के आन्तरिक अंगों की बीमारियों का विशेषज्ञ
4. Obstetrician (ऑब्स्टेट्रिशियन) जच्चा विशेषज्ञ
5. Ophthalmologist (ऑफ्थैलमोलॉजिस्ट) आंखों के रोगों का डाक्टर
6. Orthodontist (ऑरथोडैन्टिस्ट) दांतो का विशेषज्ञ डाक्टर जो टेढ़े दांतों को सीधा करता है।
7. Pathologist (पैथॉलॉजिस्ट) प्राकृतिक रोगों के कारणों को जानने वाला डाक्टर
8. Paediatrician (पीडीएटरिशिअन) केवल शिशुओं और छोटे बच्चों का डाक्टर
9. Podiatrist (पोडिएट्रिस्ट) पांव की छोटी-मोटी बीमारियों का डाक्टर
10. Psychiatrist (साइकिएट्रिस्ट) मानसिक रोगों का विशेषज्ञ-मनोचिकित्सक

75 (स्थानापन्न एक-शब्द)
(75 ONE-WORD SUBSTITUTES)

शेक्सपियर ने कहा है: 'संक्षिप्तता बुद्धि की आत्मा है', और यह बात भाषा के विषय में एक बहुत बड़ा सत्य है। जहां थोड़े शब्दों से काम चल सकता हो, वहां वाक्यांश या वाक्य-प्रयोग करना न केवल शक्ति का अपव्यय है, बल्कि इसमें समय भी नष्ट होता है। अंग्रेज़ी में ऐसे अनेक शब्द हैं जो अकेले पूरे-पूरे वाक्यांश के लिए प्रयुक्त होते हैं। इन शब्दों का अभ्यास संक्षेप-लेखन, तार और तकनीकी विषयों के लेखन में तो काम आएगा ही, साथ ही बोलचाल में इन शब्दों से शब्द-गरिमा भी बढ़ जाती है।

1. **Abdicate** (एब्डीकेट) **पदत्याग, सिंहासन त्याग** — To give up a throne voluntarily—शासन-भार को स्वेच्छा से त्याग देना
2. **Autobiography** (ऑटोबायग्राफ़ी) **आत्मकथा** — Life story of a man written by himself—अपने आप लिखी हुई आत्म/अपनी कहानी
3. **Aggressor** (ऐग्रेस्सर) **आक्रान्ता, आक्रमणकर्त्ता** —A person who attacks first—जो व्यक्ति पहले हमला करे
4. **Amateur** (ऐमेचर) **शौकियाना** —One who pursues some art or sport as hobby—जो किसी कला या खेल में शौकिया काम करता हो
5. **Arbitrator** (आर्बिट्रेटर) **मध्यस्थ** — One appointed by two parties to settle disputes between them—जिसे दो पक्षों द्वारा उनके बीच के विवाद को निपटाने के लिए नियुक्त किया जाए
6. **Adolescence** (ऐडोलेसेंस) **किशोरावस्था** —Stage between boyhood and youth—बचपन और जवानी के बीच की अवस्था
7. **Bibliophile** (बिब्लिओफाइल) **पुस्तक-प्रेमी** — A great lover of books —पुस्तकों का बड़ा अनुरागी
8. **Botany** (बॉट्नी) **वनस्पति विज्ञान** —The science of plant life—पेड़-पौधों का विज्ञान
9. **Bilingual** (बाइलिंगुअल) **दुभाषिया** —People who speak two languages—वे लोग जो दो भाषाएं बोलते हैं
10. **Catalogue** (कैटालॉग) **सूचीपत्र** —A list of books—पुस्तकों की सूची
11. **Centenary** (सैंटेनरी) **शताब्दी** —Celebration of a hundredth year —सौ वर्ष बाद किया गया समारोह
12. **Colleague** (कोलीग) **सहकारी, सहयोगी** —A co-worker or a fellow-worker in the same institution—एक संस्था में साथ-साथ या सहयोगी के रूप में काम-करने वाला
13. **Contemporaries** (कंटैम्परेरीज़) **समकालीन** —Persons living in the

same age—एक ही काल में रहने वाले व्यक्ति

14. **Credulous** (क्रेडुलस) **आशुविश्वासी** —A person who readily believes in whatever is told to him—जो कुछ कहा जाए उस पर बहुत जल्दी विश्वास कर लेने वाला व्यक्ति
15. **Callous** (कैलस) **कठोर** —A man devoid of kind feeling and sympathy—कोमल भावना एवं सहानुभूति से रहित व्यक्ति
16. **Cosmopolitan** (कॉस्मोपोलिटन) **सर्वदेशीय** —A man who is broad and international in outlook—जो व्यक्ति विचारधारा में उदार और अन्तर्राष्ट्रीय हो
17. **Celibacy** (सेलिबेसी) **ब्रह्मचर्य** —To abstain from sex— यौन सम्बन्ध से दूर रहना
18. **Deteriorate** (डिटेरिओरेट) **बदतर होना** —To go from bad to worse—बद से बदतर होना
19. **Democracy** (डेमॉक्रेसी) **प्रजातन्त्र** —Government of the people, for the people, by the people —जनता का शासन
20. **Monarchy** (मोनार्की) **राजतंत्र** —Government by one— एक राजा का शासन
21. **Drawn** (ड्रान) **बराबर** —A game or battle in which neither party wins—एक ऐसा खेल अथवा युद्ध जिसमें कोई भी पक्ष नहीं जीतता
22. **Egotist** (ईगोटिस्ट) **अहंवादी** —A person who always thinks of himself—जो सदा अपने बारे में सोचता हो
23. **Epidemic** (ऐपीडैमिक) **महामारी** —A disease mainly contagious which spreads over huge area—ऐसा महारोग जो एक बड़े क्षेत्र में एक साथ फैल जाए
24. **Extempore** (एक्सटेम्पोर) **तत्काल-भाषित** —A speech made without previous preparation—बिना पहले से तैयार किया हुआ (अचानक दिया हुआ) भाषण
25. **Etiquette** (एटिकेट) **शिष्टाचार** —Established manner or rules of conduct—शिष्टाचार के स्थापित नियम और तौर-तरीके
26. **Epicure** (एपिक्योर) **अभिजात रुचि** —A person fond of refined enjoyment—जो श्रेष्ठ रुचि का व्यक्ति हो
27. **Exonerate** (एक्ज़ॉनरेट) **दोषमुक्त** —To free a person of all blames in a case—किसी अभियोग से किसी व्यक्ति को बिल्कुल मुक्त करना
28. **Eradicate** (एरैडिकेट) **उन्मूलन** —To root out an evil or a bad practice etc.—बुराई अथवा बुरी आदत को जड़ से उखाड़ना
29. **Fastidious** (फ़ास्टीडियस) **दुराध्य** —A person difficult to please—जिसे प्रसन्न करना कठिन हो

30. **Fatalist** (फेटेलिस्ट) **भाग्यवादी** —A person who believes that all events are predetermined or subject to fate—जो भाग्य को सब कुछ मानता है।
31. **Honorary** (ऑनरेरी) **अवैतनिक** —A post which doesn't carry any salary—ऐसा काम, जिसे बिना कोई वेतन लिए किया जाए
32. **Illegal** (इल्लीगल) **अवैध** —That which is against law—जो कानून के विरुद्ध हो
33. **Illiterate** (इल्लिटरेट) **निरक्षर** —A person who cannot read or write—जो व्यक्ति न पढ़ सकता हो, न लिख सकता हो
34. **Hostility** (होस्टिलिटी) **शत्रुता** —State of antagonism—दुश्मनी की दशा
35. **Incorrigible** (इनकोरिजिबल्) **अशोध्य** —That which is past correction—जिसे शुद्ध नहीं किया जा सकता
36. **Irritable** (इरिटेबल) **आशुक्रोधी** —A man who is easily irritated—जो व्यक्ति जल्दी गुस्से में आ जाता है
37. **Irrelevant** (इर्रैलेवैंट) **अनर्गल** —Not to the point—विषय से हटकर (कहना)
38. **Invisible** (इन्विज़िबल्) **अदृश्य** —That which cannot be seen—जिसे देखा न जा सके
39. **Inaudible** (इन्ऑडिबल्) **अश्रव्य** —That which cannot be heard—जिसे सुना न जा सके
40. **Incredible** (इनक्रैडिबल्) **अविश्वसनीय** —That which cannot be believed—जिस पर विश्वास न किया जा सके
41. **Irreadable** (इर्रिडेबल) **अपठनीय** —That which cannot be read—जिसे पढ़ा न जा सके
42. **Impracticable** (इंम्प्रेक्टिकेबल्) **अव्यवहार्य** —That which cannot be practised—जिसे व्यवहार में न लाया जा सके
43. **Invincible** (इन्विंसिबल्) **अजेय** —That which cannot be conquered—जिस पर विजय न पाई जा सके
44. **Indispensable** (इन्डिस्पैंसेबल) **अनिवार्य** —That which cannot be ignored—जिसके बिना काम न चल सके
45. **Inevitable** (इन्एविटेबल) **अपरिहार्य** —That which cannot be avoided—जिससे बचा न जा सके
46. **Irrevocable** (इर्रीवोकेबल) **अपरिवर्तनीय** —That which cannot be changed—जिसे बदला या परिर्वितत न किया जा सके
47. **Illicit** (इल्लीसिट) **अवैध** —A trade which is prohibited by law—वह व्यापार जो गैरकानूनी हो
48. **Insoluble** (इन्सॉल्यूबल्) **असमाधेय** —A problem which cannot be

solved—वह समस्या जो हल न की जा सके

49. **Inflammable** (इन्फ़्लैमेबल्) **प्रज्वलनशील** —Liable to catch fire easily—वह वस्तु जो आसानी से आग पकड़ सके
50. **Infanticide** (इंफेंटिसाइड) **शिशुहंता या शिशुहत्या** —Murderer of infants or killing of infants—शिशुओं की हत्या करने वाला या शिशुओं की हत्या
51. **Matricide** (मैट्रीसाइड) **मातृहंता या मातृहत्या** —The murderer or murder of one’s own mother—अपनी माता की हत्या करने वाला या अपनी माता की हत्या
52. **Patricide** (पैट्रिसाइड) **पितृहंता या पितृहत्या** —The murderer or murder of one’s own father—अपने पिता की हत्या करने वाला या अपने पिता की हत्या
53. **Kidnap** (किडनैप) **अपहरण** —To carry away a person forcibly—किसी व्यक्ति को जबर्दस्ती उठा ले जाना
54. **Medieval** (मैडिएवल) **मध्ययुगीन** —Belonging to the middle ages—मध्ययुग से सम्बन्धित
55. **Matinee** (मैटिनी) **दोपहर बाद का शो** —A cinema show which is held in the afternoon—सिनेमा शो, जो दोपहर बाद शुरू हो
56. **Notorious** (नटोरियस) **कुख्यात** —A man with evil reputation—वह व्यक्ति जो बदनाम हो
57. **Manuscript** (मैनुस्क्रिप्ट) **पाण्डुलिपि** —Hand written pages of a literary work—साहित्यिक कृति के हाथ से लिखे पृष्ठ
58. **Namesake** (नेमसेक) **नाम राशि, समनाम** —Person having the same name—जिसका नाम दूसरे से मिलता-जुलता हो या एक समान हो
59. **Novice** (नोविस) **नौसिखिया** —One who is new to some trade or profession—जो किसी व्यापार या धन्धे में नया हो
60. **Omnipotent** (ओम्निपोटेंट) **सर्वशक्तिमान** —One who is all powerful —जो सब प्रकार की शक्ति से पूर्ण हो
61. **Omnipresent** (ओम्निप्रेज़ेंट) **सर्वव्यापक** —One who is present everywhere—जो सब जगह विद्यमान हो
62. **Optimist** (ऑप्टिमिस्ट) **आशावादी** —One who looks at the bright side of a thing—जो किसी वस्तु के उजले पक्ष को ही देखता हो
63. **Panacea** (पैनेसिया) **रामबाण औषध** —A remedy for all diseases—सभी रोगों का इलाज
64. **Polyandry** (पोलियैंड्री) **बहुपतित्व** —Practice of having more than one husband at a time—एक समय में एक से अधिक पतियों से विवाह करने की क्रिया

65. **Polygamy** (पोलिगैमी) **बहुपत्नीत्व** —Practice of having more than one wife at a time—एक समय में एक से अधिक पत्नियों का होना
66. **Postmortem** (पोस्टमार्टम) **मरणोपरान्त चीर-फाड़** —Medical examination of a body held after death—मृत्यु के बाद शव की डाक्टरी जाच
67. **Pessimist** (पैसिमिस्ट) **निराशावादी** —One who looks at the dark side of things—जो किसी वस्तु के खराब पक्ष को ही देखता है
68. **Postscript** (पोस्टस्क्रिप्ट) **पश्चलेख** —Any thing written in the letter after it has been signed—किसी पत्र के लिखे जाने और हस्ताक्षर होने के बाद जोड़े गये शब्द
69. **Red-tapism** (रैडटेपिज़्म) **लालफीताशाही** —Too much official formality—बहुत अधिक दफ्तरी औपचारिकता
70. **Synonyms** (सिनॉनिम्स) **पर्यायवाची** —Words which have the same meaning—जिन शब्दों के अर्थ एक समान हो
71. **Smuggler** (स्म्गलर) **तस्कर** —The importer or exporter of goods without paying customs duty—निषिद्ध माल या चुंगी का महसूल दिये बिना माल को विदेशों से लाने वाला और यहां से बाहर ले जाने वाला
72. **Vegetarian** (वैजिटेरियन) **शाकाहारी** —One who eats vegetables only—जो केवल शाक-सब्ज़ियां खाते हैं,पर जो अण्डा, मच्छली, मांस नहीं खाते
73. **Venial** (वीनियल) **क्षम्य** —A pardonable fault—वह अपराध जो क्षमा करने योग्य हो
74. **Veteran** (वैटरन) **अनुभवी** —A person possessing long experience of military service or of any occupation—वह व्यक्ति जिसे सैनिक सेवा का या किसी पेशे का अच्छा-खासा अनुभव हो
75. **Zoology** (जुओलॉजी) **जन्तु विज्ञान** —The science dealing with the life of animals—पशुओं के जीवन से सम्बन्धित विज्ञान

जन्तुओं के नाम का मुहावरेदार प्रयोग
(IDIOMATIC USE OF ANIMAL NAME)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में जन्तुओं को लेकर बहुत से मुहावरेदार प्रयोग प्रचलित हैं। नीचे कुछ ऐसे प्रमुख प्रयोग दिए गए हैं। इनके द्वारा कोई भी अंग्रेज़ी सीखने का इच्छुक व्यक्ति अपनी भाषा को समृद्ध बना सकता है।

मुहावरेवार उक्ति उच्चारण सहित Phrases with Pronunciation	लाक्षणिक अर्थ Idiomatic Meaning	शाब्दिक अर्थ Literal Meaning
1. A bear (ए बेयर)	एक अशिष्ट व्यक्ति	एक रीछ
2. A cat (ए कैट)	एक खराब औरत	एक बिल्ली
3. A drone (ए ड्रोन)	एक निठल्ला व्यक्ति	एक नर मक्खी
4. A dotterel (ए डॉटेरेल)	एक मूढ़ व्यक्ति	एक टिटहरी
5. A dog (एक डॉग)	एक घृणास्पद व्यक्ति	एक कुत्ता
6. A fox (ए फॉक्स)	एक धूर्त व्यक्ति	एक नर लोमड़ी
7. A goose (ए गूज़)	एक मूर्ख व्यक्ति	एक हंस
8. A gull (ए गल)	एक भोंदू इन्सान	एक मुर्गाबी
9. A lamb (ए लैम)	अबोध और हानिरहित व्यक्ति	एक मेमना
10. A monkey (ए मंकी)	नकलची व्यक्ति	एक बंदर
11. A parrot (ए पैरॅट)	रट्टामार इन्सान	एक तोता
12. A pig (ए पिग)	पेटू	एक सुअर
13. A scorpion (ए स्कॉर्पियन)	खतरनाक व्यक्ति	एक बिच्छू
14. A viper (ए वाइपर)	धूर्त व्यक्ति	एक ज़हरीला सांप
15. A vixen (ए विक्सन)	धूर्त महिला	एक लोमड़ी

जानवरों को लेकर कुछ आलंकारिक उक्तियां भी अंग्रेज़ी में प्रचलित हैं। इन्हें समझिए और मन में बैठाइए—

1. crocodile tears (क्रॉकोडाइल टिअर्स)	झूठे आंसू
2. dirt-cheap (डर्ट-चीप)	बहुत सस्ता
3. dog-cheap (डौग-चीप)	कौड़ियों के मोल
4. horse-laugh (हॉर्स-लाफ़)	ऊंची भद्दी हंसी की आवाज़
5. hen-pecked (हैन-पेक्ड)	जोरू का गुलाम
6. pig-headed (पिग-हेडेड)	मूर्ख और जड़
7. chicken-hearted (चिकन-हार्टेड)	डरपोक

विपरीतार्थक या विलोम शब्द

(ANTONYMS OR WORDS OF OPPOSITE MEANING) शब्दों के विपरीतार्थक शब्द जानना भाषा की समृद्धि के लिए बड़ा उपयोगी है। आप इस तरह बड़ी आसानी से अपना शब्द-ज्ञान बढ़ा सकते हैं। कुछ शब्दों में Prefix (उपसर्ग)

बदलने से विलोम शब्द बन जाने हैं। नीचे कुछ शब्द दिए गए हैं—

शब्द, उच्चारण एवं अर्थ Words, Pronunciation & Meaning	विपरीतार्थक शब्द, उच्चारण एवं अर्थ Opposite Words, Pronunciation & Meaning
ability (एबिलिटी) योग्यता	inability (इन्-एबिलिटी) अयोग्यता
happy (हैप्पी) प्रसन्न	unhappy (अनहैप्पी) अप्रसन्न
import (इंम्पोर्ट) आयात	export (एक्सपोर्ट) निर्यात
interior (इंटीरियर) भीतरी	exterior (एक्सटीरियर) बाहरी
maximum (मैक्सिमम) अधिकतम	minimum (मिनिमम) न्यूनतम
include (इन्क्लूड) शामिल करना	exclude (एक्सक्लूड) निकालना
junior (जूनियर) अवर, छोटा	senior (सीनियर) प्रवर, बड़ा
majority (मेजौरिटी) बहुमत	minority (माइनौरिटी) अल्पमत
optimist (ऑप्टिमिस्ट) आशावादी	pessimist (पैसीमिस्ट) निराशावादी
superior (सुपीरियर) बढ़िया	inferior (इन्फ़ीरियर) घटिया

बहुत-से शब्दों के विलोम शब्द बनाने के लिए दूसरे शब्द ढूंढने पड़ते हैं। अर्थात् वे भिन्न-भिन्न शब्द होते हैं, पर उनके अर्थ ठीक उल्टे होते हैं। ऐसे शब्द नीचे दिए जाते हैं।

above (एबव्) ऊपर
accept (ऐक्सैप्ट) स्वीकार करना
acquire (ऐक्वायर) पाना
ancient (एनशियंट) प्राचीन
agree (ऐग्री) सहमत होना
alive (एलाइव) जीवित
admire (ऐडमायर) प्रशंसा करना
barren (बैरन) बंजर
big (बिग) बड़ा
blunt (ब्लंट) कुंद
bold (बोल्ड) साहसी
bright (ब्राइट) चमकदार
broad (ब्रॉड) चौड़ा
civilised (सिविलाइज्ड) सभ्य
care (केयर) देखभाल
clean (क्लीन) साफ
confess (कन्फैस) स्वीकार करना
cool (कूल) ठंडा
cruel (क्रूएल) क्रूर
domestic (डोमैस्टिक) पालतू
difficult (डिफ़िकल्ट) कठिन
danger (डेंजर) खतरा
dark (डार्क) अंधियारा
death (डैथ) मृत्यु
debit (डैबिट) उधार खाता
early (अर्ली) जल्दी
earn (अर्न) कमाना
empty (एम्पटी) खाली
enjoy (एन्जॉय) मौज मनाना
freedom (फ्रीडम) स्वतन्त्रता

below (बिलो) नीचे
refuse (रिफ़्यूज़) अस्वीकार करना
lose (लूज़) खोना
modern (मॉडर्न) नवीन
differ (डिफ़र) असहमत होना
dead (डैड) मृत
despise (डिस्पाइज़) निन्दा करना
fertile (फ़र्टाइल) उपजाऊ
small (स्मॉल) छोटा
sharp (शार्प) तेज़
timid (टिमिड) कायर
dim (डिम) धुंधला
narrow (नैरो) तंग
savage/barbaric (सैवेज/बारबैरिक) असभ्य
neglect (निग्लैक्ट) लापरवाही
dirty (डर्टी) गंदा
deny (डिनाइ) इन्कार करना
warm (वॉर्म) गर्म
merciful/kind (मर्सीफुल/काइंड) दयालु
wild (वाइल्ड) जंगली
easy (ईज़ी) आसान
safety (सेफ्टी) सुरक्षा
bright (ब्राइट) उजाला
birth (बर्थ) जन्म
credit (क्रैडिट) जमा खाता
late (लेट) देर
spend (स्पैंड) खर्च करना
full (फुल) भरा हुआ
suffer (सफ़र) तकलीफ़ सहना
slavery (स्लेव्री) दासता

fierce (फीअर्स) निर्दय	gentle (जैंटल) सदय
false (फॉल्स) झूठा	true (ट्रू) सच्चा
fat (फैट) मोटा	thin (थिन) पतला
fine (फ़ाइन) उम्दा	coarse (कोर्स) घटिया
foolish (फ़ूलिश) मूर्ख	wise (वाइज़) बुद्धिमान
fresh (फ्रैश) ताज़ा	stale (स्टेल) बासी
fear (फ़िअर) भय	courage (करेज) साहस
guilty (गिल्टी) दोषी	innocent (इन्नोसैंट) निर्दोष
gain (गेन) लाभ	loss (लॉस) हानि
good (गुड) अच्छा	bad (बैड) बुरा
guide (गाइड) पथ प्रदर्शन करना	misguide (मिसगाइड) भटकाना
handsome (हैंडसम) सुन्दर	ugly (अग्ली) भद्दा
high (हाई) ऊंचा	low (लो) नीचा
humble (हंबल) विनम्र	proud, arrogant (प्राउड/ऐरोगैन्ट) घमण्डी
honour (ऑनर) सम्मान करना	dishonour (डिसऑनर) अनादर करना
joy (जॉय) हर्ष	sorrow (सॉरो) विषाद
knowledge (नॉलेज) ज्ञान	ignorance (इग्नोरेन्स) अज्ञान
kind (काइंड) दयालु	cruel (क्रुएल) क्रूर
lie (लाइ) झूठ	truth (ट्रूथ) सच
little (लिटिल) थोड़ा	much (मच) ज्यादा
masculine (मैस्क्यूलिन) पुल्लिग (नर)	feminine (फ़ेमिनिन) स्त्रीलिंग (मादा)
make (मेक) निर्माण करना	mar (मार) विनाश करना/break (ब्रेक) तोड़ना
natural (नैचरल) कुदरती	artificial (आर्टिफ़िश्ल) बनावटी
noise (नॉयज़) शोर	silence (साइलैन्स) शान्ति
oral (ओरल) मौखिक	written (रिटेन) लिखित
pride/arrogance (प्राइड/ऐरोगैन्स) घमण्ड	humility (ह्यूमिलिटी) विनम्रता
permanent (परमानेंट) स्थायी	temporary (टैंपरेरी) अस्थायी
presence (प्रेज़ेन्स) उपस्थिति	absence (ऐबसैन्स) अनुपस्थिति
profit (प्रॉफ़िट) लाभ	loss (लॉस) हानि
prose (प्रोज़) गद्य	poetry (पोइट्री) पद्य
quick (क्विक) तेज़	slow (स्लो) धीरे
receive (रिसीव) प्राप्त करना	give (गिव) देना
reject (रिजेक्ट) अस्वीकार करना	accept (एक्सैप्ट) स्वीकार करना
ripe (राइप) पक्का	raw (रॉ) कच्चा
rough (रफ़) खुरदरा	smooth (स्मूथ) चिकना
remember (रिमैम्बर) याद करना	forget (फ़ॉर्गेट) भूलना
rich (रिच) धनी	poor (पुअर) गरीब
superior (सुपीरियर) बढ़िया	inferior (इन्फ़ीरियर) घटिया
sharp (शार्प) तेज़	dull (डल) कुन्द
thick (थिक) मोटा	thin (थिन) पतला
tragedy (ट्रैजेडी) दुःखान्त	comedy (कॉमेडी) सुखान्त
universal (युनिवर्सल) सर्वजनीन	particular (पर्टिकुलर) व्यक्तिगत

victory (विक्ट्री) विजय	defeat (डिफ़ीट) पराजय
wild (वाइल्ड) जंगली	tame/domestic (टेम/डोमैस्टिक) पालतू
weak (वीक) कमज़ोर	strong (स्ट्रौंग) मज़बूत
wisdom (विज़्डम) बुद्धिमत्ता	folly (फ़ॉली) मूर्खता
youth (यूथ) युवक	aged (एजेड) अधेड़

राष्ट्रीयता बताने वाले शब्द
(WORDS DENOTING NATIONALITY)

हिन्दी में जैसे चीन, बर्मा, अमैरिका और रूस आदि देश के वासी को क्रमश: चीनी, बर्मी, अमरिकी और रूसी आदि कहते हैं, इसी प्रकार अंग्रेज़ी में क्रमश: चाइनीज़, बर्मन, अमैरिकन, रशियन आदि कहते हैं। अंग्रेज़ी सीखने वाले व्यक्तियों को अंग्रेज़ी में इन देशों और इनके

देशवासियों के लिए प्रयुक्त शब्द, जिससे अंग्रेज़ी का रंग उनकी जुबान पर पड़ सके, नीचे दिए जा रहे हैं—

देश Countries	निवासी Inhabitants	देश Countries	निवासी Inhabitants
America अमैरिका	American अमैरिकन	Iraq ईराक	Iraqi ईराकी
Argentina (अर्जेन्टिना)	Argentine अर्जेंटाइन	Ireland आयरलैंड	Irish आयरिश
Belgium बेल्जियम	Belgian बेल्जियन	Israel इस्रायल	Israeli इस्रायली
Bhutan भूटान	Bhutanese भूटानीज़	Italy इटली	Italian इटैलियन
Burma बर्मा	Burmese बर्मीज़	Kuwait कुवैत	Kuwaiti कुवैती
Canada कैनेडा	Canadian कैनेडियन	Malaya मलाया	Malayan मलेयन
Ceylon सीलोन	Ceylonese सीलोनीज़	Morocco मोरौक्को	Moroccan मोरौक्कन
China चाइना	Chinese चाइनीज़	Nepal नेपाल	Nepalese नेपालीज़
Egypt ईजिप्ट	Egyptian ईजिप्शियन	Pakistan पाकिस्तान	Pakistani पाकिस्तानी
England इंग्लैंड	English इंग्लिश	Poland पोलैंड	Pole पोल
France फ्रांस	French फ्रैंच	Russia रशिया	Russian रशियन
Greece ग्रीस	Greek ग्रीक	Sweden स्वीडन	Swede स्वीड
India इंडिया	Indian इंडियन	Turkey टर्की	Turk टर्क
		Yugoslavia यूगोस्लाविया	Yugoslav यूगोस्लाव

कुछ महत्त्वपूर्ण वाक्यांश
(SOME IMPORTANT PHRASES)

कुछ मुहावरेदार उक्तियों में एक प्रकार के (जोड़े) शब्द प्रयोग में आते हैं। ये एक तरह से मुहावरे का रूप धारण कर लेते हैं अत: इनके शब्दों में तनिक भी हेर-फेर नहीं होना चाहिए। ये मुहावरेदार उक्तियां अभिव्यक्ति के स्वर को और तीक्ष्ण बना देती हैं।

1. **Again and again** (एगेन एण्ड एगेन)—**बार-बार**
   We shouldn't commit mistakes again and again—हमें बार-बार गलतियां नहीं करनी चाहिएं।
2. **Now and again** (नाउ एण्ड अगेन)—**कभी-कभी, कभी-कभार**
   Now and again, a genius is born—महान प्रतिभा कभी-कभार उत्पन्न होती है।
3. **All in all** (**ऑल इन ऑल)—सर्वेसर्वा, अर्थात् सभी कुछ**
   In his sister's marriage, Mohan was all in all—अपनी बहन की शादी पर मोहन सर्वेसर्वा था।

4. **All and sundry** (ऑल एण्ड संड्री)—**व्यक्तिगत रूप में और सामूहिक रूप में आये लोग**
   All and sundry came to the meeting—बहुत से लोग व्यक्तिगत रूप में अथवा सामूहिक रूप में सभा में उपस्थित हुए।
5. **Back and belly** (बैक एण्ड बैली)—**कपड़ा और रोटी**
   The days have gone when the problems of a labourer concerned only back and belly—वे दिन चले गये जब मज़दूरों की समस्या केवल कपड़ा और रोटी की थी।
6. **Bag and Baggage** (बैग एण्ड बैगेज)—**बोरिया-बिस्तर के साथ**
   The British left India in 1947 bag and baggage—ब्रिटेनवासी 1947 में बोरिया-बिस्तर के साथ भारत छोड़ गये।
7. **Before and behind** (बिफ़ोर एण्ड बिहाइंड)—**आगे बढ़कर**
   In World War II our soldiers fought before and behind—द्वितीय महायुद्ध में हमारे सैनिक बॉर्डर पर आगे बढ़कर लड़े।
8. **Betwixt and between** (बिटविक्स्ट एण्ड बिट्वीन)—**आपस में आधा-आधा**
   Whatever they earn, they will share betwixt and between—जो कुछ वे कमाएंगे, वे आपस में आधा-आधा बांटेंगे।
9. **Bread and butter** (ब्रैड एण्ड बटर)—**जीविका अर्थात् रोज़ी रोटी**
   One should be satisfied if one gets bread and butter these days—इन दिनों यदि कोई रोज़ी-रोटी कमा लेता है, तो उसे संतुष्ट रहना चाहिये।
10. **Fetch and carry** (फ़ैच एण्ड कैरी)—**अधीनस्थ अथवा छोटे रूतबे वाला होना**
    I'm content to fetch and carry, for uneasy lies the head that wears a crown—मैं छोटी हस्ती का कर्मचारी होने पर संतुष्ट हूं, क्योंकि जो सत्ता का भार संभालता है वह चैन की नींद नहीं सो सकता।
11. **Goods and chattel** (गुड्स एण्ड चैटल)—**चल सम्पत्ति**
    We bought goods and chattel when we migrated to India—जब हम भारत में आये तो हमने चल सम्पत्ति खरीदी।
12. **Chock-a-block** (चॉक-ए-ब्लॉक)—**एक दूसरे से सटे हुए, टेढ़े-मेढ़े**
    Chock-a-block houses have made Indian cities ugly. टेढ़े-मेढ़े मकानों ने भारतीय शहरों को बदसूरत बना दिया है।
13. **Pick and choose** (पिक एण्ड चूज़)—**ध्यान से चुनना**
    We must pick and choose our career before it is too late—हमें अपना भविष्य समय रहते सावधानी से चुन लेना चाहिए।
14. **Every now and again** (एवरी नाउ एण्ड एगेन)—**बीच-बीच में आना**
    She comes to see me every now and again-वह मुझे देखने के लिए

बीच-बीच में आती है।

15. **See eye to eye** (सी-आइ टु आइ)—**पूर्ण रूप से सहमत होना**
He didn't see eye to eye with me on many issues. वह कई बातों पर मुझसे असहमत रहा।
16. **Face to face** (फ़ेस टु फ़ेस)—**आमने-सामने**
We have had a face to face talk, so now we can understand each other's point of view—हमने आमने-सामने बातचीत की है अत: हम एक-दूसरे का दृष्टिकोण समझ सकते हैं।
17. **Fair and square** (फ़ेअर एण्ड स्क्वयर)—**शुद्ध और उचित**
Let all our actions be fair and square— हमारे सभी आचरण शुद्ध और उचित हों।
18. **Fee-faw-fum** (फ़ी-फ़ॉ-फ़ॅम)—**बच्चों को डराने के लिए हुड़दंग मचाना**
India is not to be cowed down by Pakistan's fee-faw-fum—पाकिस्तान के बचकाने हुड़दंग से भारत को डराया-धमकाया नहीं जा सकता।
19. **Flux and reflux** (फ्लक्स एण्ड रिफ्लक्स)—**बड़ा बहस-मुबाहिसा अथवा वाद-विवाद**
There was a great flux and reflux in the drawing room—बैठक में बड़ा-वाद-विवाद होता रहा।
20. **Give and take** (गिव एण्ड टेक)—**आदान-प्रदान**
It's always give and take in life. जीवन में सदैव आदान-प्रदान चलता रहता है।
21. **Goody-goody** (गुडी-गुडी)—**ऊपर से अच्छे दिखाई देने वाले लोग**
The world is full of goody-goody people, but hardly a good man—दुनिया ऊपर ही से अच्छे दिखाई देने वाले लोगों से भरी पड़ी है, पर कोई अच्छा व्यक्ति बड़ी मुश्किल से मिलता है।
22. **Hand in hand** (हैंड इन हैंड) **सद्भावपूर्वक, हाथ से हाथ मिलाकर**
They walked hand in hand—वे हाथ से हाथ मिलाकर अर्थात् सद्भाव से मिलकर चले।
23. **Haves and have-nots** (हैव्स एण्ड हैव-नॉट्स)—**धनी और निर्धन**
There has always been a conflict between the haves and have-nots—सदा धनियों और निर्धनों के बीच द्वन्द्व रहा है।
24. **Hodge-podge** (हॉज-पॉज)—**अस्त-व्यस्त अथवा गड़बड़ करना**
While trying his hand at cooking for the first time, he made a hodge-podge of everything—पहली बार खाना बनाने की कोशिश में उसने सब कुछ गड़बड़ कर दिया।
25. **Humpty-dumpty** (हम्प्टी-डम्प्ती)—**लड़खड़ाता हुआ**
Capitalism is humpty-dumpty these days—साम्राजयवाद लड़खड़ा रहा

है (अब गिरा तब गिरा)

26. **Ins and outs** (इन्स ऐंड आउट्स)—**छोटी से छोटी बातें जानना**
    He knows all the ins and outs of this profession—वह इस व्यवसाय की छोटी से छोटी बातें जानता है।
27. **Law and order** (लॉ एण्ड ऑर्डर)—**अनुशासन एवं व्यवस्था**
    There can not be any democracy without law and order—अनुशासन एवं व्यवस्था के बिना प्रजातंत्र का अस्तित्व नहीं।
28. **Off and on** (ऑफ़ एण्ड ऑन)—**जब-तब**
    He comes to your shop off and on—वह तुम्हारी दुक़ान पर जब-तब आता है।
29. **Rain or shine** (रेन और शाइन)—**चाहे कैसा भी मौसम क्यों न हो**
    Rain or shine, we must attend to our duties—वर्षा हो या कड़कती धूप हमें अपने काम पर जाना चाहिए।
30. **Really and truly** (रियली एण्ड ट्रूली)—**निश्चित रूप से**
    Really and truly, I'll do your work. निश्चित रूप से मैं आपका काम कर दूंगा।
31. **Tit for tat** (टिट् फ़ॉर टैट)—**जैसे को तैसा (करना)**
    Tit for tat cannot end a dispute—जैसे को तैसा करने से झगड़ा समाप्त नहीं हो सकता।
32. **Tittle-tattle** (टिटल-टैटल)—**फुसफुस करना**
    We just waste time in tittle-tattle. फुसफुस करने से हम केवल समय नष्ट करते हैं।
33. **Ups and downs** (अप्स एण्ड डाउन्स)—**जीवन की विषमताएं**
    The great men rise through the ups and downs of life—महान् व्यक्ति जीवन की विषमताओं के बीच में से ऊंचा उठते हैं।

ऐसे शब्द जिनसे लोग भ्रमित हो जाते हैं (WORDS WHICH COMMONLY CONFUSE)

किसी भाषा में शब्दों का उचित प्रयोग एक मुख्य बात है। इसके लिय निरन्तर अभ्यास और प्रयत्न की आवश्यकता है। हमें शब्द का प्रयोग करने से पूर्व उसका अर्थ आना चाहिए। कुछ शब्द ऐसे होते हैं जो होते अलग-अलग हैं, पर दोनों के अर्थ पास-पास होते हैं। ऐसे शब्दों को भली-भांति मन में बैठाइए और फिर दोनों के अर्थ में जो अन्तर है, उसे वाक्यों के द्वारा स्पष्ट रूप से समझ लीजिए।

1. **admit** (ऐडमिट)—सत्य के रूप में स्वीकार करना
   confess (कन्फ़ैस)—गलती स्वीकार करना
   (a) I admit that you are abler than I am —मैं यह स्वीकार करता हूं कि तुम मुझसे अधिक योग्य हो।
   (b) He confessed his guilt before the judge —उसने जज के सामने अपना दोष स्वीकार किया।
2. **among** (एमंग)— दो से अधिक व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं के बीच
   between (बिट्वीन)—दो व्यक्तियों या वस्तुओं के बीच
   (a) The property was divided among four children —सम्पत्ति को चार बच्चों में बांटा गया।
   (b) The property was divided between two children —सम्पत्ति को दो बच्चों में बांटा गया।
3. **amount** (एमाउंट)— अर्थात् ऐसी मात्रा जिसे एक-एक करके गिना नहीं जा सकता।
   number (नंबर)— अर्थात् ऐसी मात्रा जिसे एक-एक करके गिना जा सकता है।
   (a) A large amount of rice was delivered to the store-house —स्टोर को चावल की काफी मात्रा दी गयी।
   (b) A large number of bags of rice was delivered —चावल की बहुत सी बोरियां दी गयीं।
4. **anxious** —(ऐंक्शस) अर्थात् चिन्तित या चिन्तातुर
   eager (ईगर)—अर्थात् उत्सुक या बहुत अधिक उत्कंठित
   (a) We were anxious about his health —हम उसकी सेहत के बारे में चिन्तित थे।
   (b) We are eager to see him healthy again —हम उसे दुबारा सेहतमंद देखने के लिये उत्सुक हैं।
5. **apt** (एप्ट)—प्रवृति (adjective)
   liable (लाइब्ल)—जिम्मेदार (adjective)
   (a) He is apt to get into mischief —शरारत करना उसकी प्रवृति है।
   (b) If you drive rashly, you are liable to a heavy fine —यदि तुम गाड़ी तेज चलाओगे तो तुम भारी जुर्माने के जिम्मेदार हो।
6. **artisan** (आर्टिज़न)—जो किसी दस्तकारी का काम करता हो, अर्थात् दस्तकार
   artist (आर्टिस्ट)—जो किसी कला में प्रवीण हो, अर्थात् कलाकार
   (a) That carpenter is a good artisan —वह बढ़ई एक अच्छा दस्तकार है।
   (b) Kalidas was a good artist —कालिदास एक अच्छा कलाकार था।
7. **as** (ऐज़)—जैसा (योजक-शब्द,जिसके बाद क्रिया लगती है।)
   like (लाइक)—जैसा (पूर्व विभक्ति या कारक चिन्ह के रूप में प्रयोग होता है।
   (a) Do as I do, not as as I say —जैसा मैं करता हूं वैसा करो, जैसा मैं कहता

हूं वैसा नहीं।

(b) Try not to behave like a child —बच्चों की तरह व्यवहार करने का यत्न न करो।

8. **audience** (ऑडिअन्स)—अर्थात् श्रोताओं का समूह
spectators (स्पैक्टेटर्स)—अर्थात् दर्शकों का समूह
(a) The speaker bored the audience with his long speech —भाषणकर्ता ने लम्बे भाषण से श्रोतागणों को उकता दिया।
(b) The slow hockey game bored the spectators —हॉकी के धीमे खेल से दर्शक उकता गये।

9. **better** (बैटर)—अर्थात् पहले कुछ स्वस्थ (पूरी तरह स्वस्थ नहीं)
well (वैल)—अर्थात् पूरी तरह स्वस्थ
(a) She is better today than she was a week ago —वह एक हफ्ता पहले की अपेक्षा आज अधिक स्वस्थ है।
(b) In a month or two she will be quite well —एक-दो महीनों में वह पूर्णत: स्वस्थ हो जाएगी।

10. **both** (बोथ)—अर्थात् दोनों (ये दोनों आपस में सम्बन्धित होते हैं)
each (ईच)—प्रत्येक अर्थात् दो या दो से अधिक लोगों में से हर एक
(a) Both the sisters are beautiful —दोनों बहनें सुन्दर हैं।
(b) Each girl has a new book —हरेक लड़की के पास एक नई पुस्तक है।

11. **Bring** (ब्रिंग)—अर्थात् लाना
take (टेक)—अर्थात् ले जाना
(a) Bring a bread from the bazaar —बाजार से एक डबल रोटी ले आओ।
(b) Take your breakfast with you when you go to the school —जब तुम स्कूल जाओ तो अपना नाश्ता साथ लेते जाओ।

12. **Can** (कैन)—अर्थात् शारीरिक रूप में समर्थ
May (मे)—आज्ञा या अनुमति के अर्थ में
(a) She is so weak that she cannot walk —वह इतनी कमज़ोर है कि चल फिर नहीं सकती।
(b) May I come in —क्या मैं अन्दर आ सकती हूं?

13. **climate** (क्लाइमेट)—एक औसत मौसम जो कि सालों से एक निश्चित समय में रहता हो अर्थात् आबो-हवा।
weather (वैदर)—वातावरण की दिन-प्रतिदिन की स्थिति अर्थात् मौसम
(a) I like the climate of Simla more than that of Dehradun —मैं देहरादून की आबो-हवा की अपेक्षा शिमला की आबो-हवा अधिक पसन्द करता हूं।
(b) The weather was stormy —आंधी का मौसम था।

14. **couple** (कपल)—जोड़ा
pair (पेअर)—जोड़ा अर्थात् दो ऐसी (एक-सी) वस्तुएं

(a) Two couples remained on dance floor —दो जोड़े नाच के फर्श पर रह गये।
(b) I have a new pair of shoes —मेरे पास एक नया जूते का जोड़ा है।

15. despise (डिसपाइज़)—घृणा करना [1]
detest (डिटैस्ट)—पसंद न करना [1]
(a) Some people despise the poor [2] —कुछ लोग गरीबों से घृणा करते हैं।
(b) I detest hot weather -मैं गर्मी का मौसम पसन्द नहीं करता।

16. each other (ईच अॅदर)—आपस में (दो व्यक्तियों में)
one another (वन अनेदर)—एक-दूसरे से (दो व्यक्तियों से अधिक व्यक्तियों में)
(a) Kavita and Savita have known each other for ten years —कविता और सविता आपस में दस बरसों से परिचित हैं।
(b) These four girls have known one another for ten years —ये चार लड़कियां एक दूसरी से दस बरसों से परिचित हैं।

17. former (फ़ॉर्मर)—अर्थात् दो में से पहला
latter (लैटर)—अर्थात् दो में से दूसरा
(a) The former half of the film was dull —फ़िल्म का पहला आधा भाग नीरस था।
(b) The latter half of the film was interesting —फिल्म का दूसरा आधा भाग रोचक था।

18. habit (हैबिट)—अर्थात् व्यक्तिगत स्वभाव अथवा आदत
custom (कस्टम)—अर्थात् समाजगत चलन अथवा प्रथा
(a) Gambling is a habit with him —उसे जुआ खेलने की आदत है।
(b) It is a custom among Hindus to cremate the dead —हिन्दुओं में मृत व्यक्ति को जलाने की प्रथा है।

19. if (इफ़)—शर्त-सूचक अव्यय, यदि
whether (वैदर)—विकल्प-सूचक अव्यय, गोया
(a) She'll get through the examination if she works hard —यदि वह मेहनत करेगी तो उतीर्ण हो जायेगी।
(b) She asked me whether I intended to go to cinema —उस (महिला) ने मुझसे पूछा कि क्या मैं सिनेमा जाना चाहता था।

20. if it was (इफ़ इट वॉज़)—अर्थात् यदि ऐसा था
if it were (इफ़ इट वर)—अर्थात् यदि ऐसा होता (वस्तुत: है नहीं) (a) If it was there in the morning, it should be there now —यदि वह वस्तु प्रात: वहां थी तो अब भी वहीं होनी चाहिए।
(b) If I were the Prime Minister of India, I would remove poverty —अगर मैं भारत का प्रधान मंत्री होता, तो गरीबी हटा देता।

21. in (इन्)—में, के अन्दर (इसमें गति नहीं होती)
into (इन्टु)— में, के अन्दर (इसमें एक जगह से दूसरी जगह गति या हरकत होती है)
(a) The papers are in my drawer —कागज़ात मेरी दराज़ में हैं।
(b) You put the papers into my drawer —तुमने मेरी दराज़ में कागज़ात रखे।

22. learn (लर्न)—अर्थात् ज्ञान प्राप्त करना
teach (टीच)—अर्थात् ज्ञान देना
(a) They learn to read English .—वे अंग्रेज़ी पढ़ना सीखते हैं।
(b) They teach English —वे अंग्रेज़ी सिखाते हैं।

23. leave (लीव)—अर्थात् छोड़ना (यह मुख्य क्रिया है)
let (लैट)—अर्थात् अनुमति देना (यह सहायक क्रिया है। इसके साथ कोई न कोई क्रिया लगती है) (a) Leave this room at once —इस कमरे को तुरन्त छोड़ दो।
(b) Let me go now —अब मुझे जाने दो। (इस वाक्य में let सहायक क्रिया के साथ go मुख्य क्रिया आई है)

24. legible (लैजिबल)—अर्थात् पढ़ा जा सकने वाला (लेख)
readable (रिडेबल)—अर्थात् पठनीय या रोचक
(a) Your handwriting is not legible —तुम्हारा हस्तलेख पढ़ा नहीं जाता।
(b) This book being on technical subject is not readable —यह पुस्तक तकनीकी विषय की होने के कारण रोचक नहीं है।

25. many (मैनी)—अर्थात् (संख्या वाची) बहुत; जैसे—बहुत-से लोग
much (मच)—अर्थात् (परिमाणवाची) बहुत; जैसे—बहुत-सा दूध
(a) There were many students in the class —कक्षा में बहुत से छात्र थे।(गणना)
(b) We haven't much milk —हमारे पास अधिक दूध नहीं है (मात्रा—ढेर-सा दूध) **26. may** (से)—सकना; सम्भावना के अर्थ में। वर्तमान काल (Past tense) में प्रयुक्त।
might (माइट)—सकना; सम्भावना के अर्थ में। भूतकाल (Past tense) में प्रयुक्त
(a) He may come today —वह आज आ सकता है।
(b) He might have come if you had written a letter —यदि तुमने पत्र लिखा होता तो वह अवश्य आ जाता।

27. patron (पेट्रन)—अर्थात् उपकारक, संरक्षक
customer (कस्टमर)—अर्थात् खदीददार।
(a) The artist thanked his patrons who eagerly awaited his paintings . कलाकार ने अपने उन प्रशंसकों को धन्यवाद दिया जो उसके चित्रों की प्रतीक्षा करते थे।
(b) The shopkeeper attended his customers —दुकानदार ने अपने

ग्राहकों को सौदा दिया।

28. **people** (पीप्ल)—अर्थात् लोग (व्यक्तियों का संघात्मक रूप, जिसे अलग नहीं किया जा सकता)
persons (पर्सन्स)—अर्थात् बहुत से व्यक्ति (जो आपस में अलग-अलग हैं, सम्बद्ध नहीं) (a) The people of India were poor —भारत के लोग गरीब थे।
(b) Only thirteen persons remained in the cinema-hall after the interval —मध्यान्तर के बाद केवल तेरह व्यक्ति सिनेमा हाल में रह गए।

29. **recruitment** (रिक्रूटमैंट)—भर्ती (noun)
employment (इम्प्लॉयमैण्ट)-नौकरी (noun)
(a) The recruitment of soldiers is going on —सैनिकों की भर्ती की जा रही है।
(b) Suman is in search of employment —सुमन नौकरी की तलाश में है।

30. **rob** (रौब)—अर्थात् किसी व्यक्ति से बलपूर्वक कोई वस्तु छीनना
steal (स्टील)—अर्थात् कोई वस्तु चुराना
(a) The robbers rob wayfarers usually at night —लुटेरे प्राय: रात में यात्रियों को लूटते हैं।
(b) Bad boys steal books of their class-fellows —बुरे लड़के दूसरे सहपाठियों की पुस्तकें चुराते हैं।

31. **shall** (शैल)—भविष्यकाल की I, we के साथ लगने वाली सहायक क्रिया, जैसे, I shall, we shall
will (विल)—भविष्यकाल की he, she, it, they, you के साथ लगने वाली सहायक क्रिया, जैसे he will, they will ; किन्तु दृढ़ निश्चय प्रकट करना हो तो shall और will आपस में बदल जाते हैं, जैसे—
(a) I will reach in time —मैं समय पर ही (अवश्यमेव) पहुंचूंगा।
(b) You Shall not reach in time —तुम समय पर (निश्चित रूप से) नहीं पहुंचोगे।

32. **state** (स्टेट)—अर्थात् औपचारिक रूप से घोषित करना या रखना
say (से)—अर्थात् सामान्य रूप से कहना
(a) Indian ambassador stated the terms for a cease-fire agreement —भारतीय राजदूत ने युद्धविराम/सन्धि के लिये शर्तें रखी।
(b) You say that you won’t complete the job —तुम कहते हो कि तुम काम पूरा नहीं करोगे।

33. **stay** (स्टे)—अर्थात् ठहरना (पर यात्रा समाप्त करना नहीं)
Stop (स्टॉप)—अर्थात् समाप्त करना
(a) we stayed at the hotel for two days only हम केवल दो दिन के लिये होटल में ठहरे।
(b) We stopped the work and returned home —हमने अपना काम

रोका और घर लौटे।

34. tender (टैंडर)—अर्थात् औपचारिक रूप से प्रस्तुत करना

give (गिव)—स्वेच्छापूर्वक देना अथवा दान करना

(a) On the orders of his boss, he tendered an apology for his misbehaviour . अपने अफ़सर आदेश पर उसने अपने दुर्व्यवहार के लिए क्षमा मांगी।

(b) He gave testimony readily before the Jury —उसने न्याय-सभा के सामने स्वेच्छापूर्वक प्रमाण दिए।

35. testimony (टैस्टिमनी)—अर्थात् केवल मौखिक रूप से दी गई सूचना अथवा प्रमाण

evidence (एविडैंस)—अर्थात् मौखिक रूप से या लिखित रूप से दिया गया प्रमाण

(a) He readily gave testimony to the jury उसने न्याय सभा के सामने स्वेच्छापूर्वक प्रमाण प्रस्तुत किए।

(b) The defendant presented written evidence to prove that he was not present at the scene —प्रतिवादी ने यह सिद्ध करने के लिए कि वह घटना के समय वहां उपस्थित नहीं था, लिखित प्रमाण प्रस्तुत किया।

36. Win (विन)—अर्थात् खेल में जीतना

beat (बीट)—अर्थात् दूसरे खिलाड़ी को हराना।

(a) Hurrah! We won the match —अहा! हमने मैच जीत लिया।

(b) I beat you while playing cards —मैं ताश में तुम्हें हरा देता हूं।

अंग्रेज़ी में बहुत से शब्द ऐसे प्रचलित हैं, जिनकी ध्वनि तो एक-दूसरे से मिलती है, पर उनके अर्थ अलग-अलग होते हैं। ऐसे शब्दों में अच्छे पढ़े-लिखे व्यक्ति भी भूल कर बैठते हैं। आपका या हमारा अंग्रेज़ी भाषा का ज्ञान कितना भी अच्छा क्यों न हो, यदि आप या हम में से कोई व्यक्ति ऐसी दो-चार गलतियां भी करता है तो उसके भाषा ज्ञान का प्रभाव दूसरों पर अच्छा नहीं पड़ सकता। इन शब्दों के अर्थ-भेद को समझिए और मन में बैठाइए।

37. accept (एक्सैप्ट)—स्वीकार करना (verb)

except (इक्सैप्ट)—छोड़कर (prep .)

(a) He accepted my advice in this matter —उसने इस विषय में मेरी राय स्वीकार कर ली।

(b) The entire staff except juniors has been called —छोटे कर्मचारियों को छोड़कर सारे कर्मचारी बुलाए गये हैं।

38. access (एक्सेस)—अर्थात् पहुंच (noun)

excess (एक्सेस)—अर्थात् अधिकता (noun)

(a) He was a poor man and had no access to the higher

authorities —वह एक गरीब आदमी था और बड़े अधिकारियों तक उसकी पहुंच न थी।

(b) Excess of every thing is bad —किसी भी चीज़ की अधिकता बुरी है।

39. adapt (एडप्ट)—अनुकूल बनाना या नया रूप देना (verb)
adopt (ऐडॉप्ट)—अपनाना (verb)
adept (ऐडैप्ट)—कुशल (adjective)

(a) One must learn to adapt oneself to circumstances —व्यक्ति को अपने-आपको परिस्थितियों के अनुकूल बनाना सीखना होगा।

(b) He adopted a child from orphanage —उसने अनाथालय से एक बच्चा गोद लिया।

(c) He is an adept carpenter —वह एक कुशल बढ़ई है।

40. addition (ऐडिशन)—अर्थात् बढ़ोत्तरी (noun)
edition (ऐडिशन)—अर्थात् पुस्तक का संस्करण (noun)

(a) Some alterations and additions have been made in this book —इस पुस्तक में कुछ परिवर्तन और परिवर्धन किये गए हैं।

(b) Third and latest edition of the Bhagavad Gita has been published —भगवद्गीता का तीसरा और आधुनिकतम संस्करण प्रकाशित हो गया है।

41. adverse (ऐडवर्स)—अर्थात् दुर्भाग्यपूर्ण या अवांछनीय (adjective)
averse (ऐवर्स)—अर्थात् किसी कार्य को करने में अनिच्छुक (adjective)

(a) True friends never leave in adverse conditions . दुर्भाग्य में सच्चे मित्र कभी साथ नहीं छोड़ते।

(b) In modern time, most of the students are averse to hard work —आधुनिक समय में अधिकतर छात्र कठिन श्रम करने से बचते हैं।

42. affect (ऐफ़ेक्ट)—प्रभावित करना. (verb)
effect (इफ़ेक्ट)—प्रभाव (noun)
effect (इफ़ेक्ट)—लागू करना (verb)

(a) Your behaviour should affect others —तुम्हारे व्यवहार से दूसरों को प्रभावित होना चाहिए।

(b) His speech didn’t produce any effect on the audience —उसके भाषण का श्रोताओं पर कोई प्रभाव नहीं पड़ा।

(a) The old rule is still in effect —पुराना नियम अब भी लागू है।

43. all ready (ऑल रेडी)—अर्थात् सभी लोग और सभी चीज़ें तैयार
already (आल्रैडी)—अर्थात् पहले से ही

(a) We were all ready to go when the class-teacher arrived —जब अध्यापक पहुंचे तो हम सब जाने को तैयार थे।

(b) We had already begun writing when the class-teacher

arrived —अध्यापक के पहुंचने से पहले ही हमने लिखना शुरू कर दिया था।

44. all together (ऑल टुगैदर)—सभी लोग मिलकर
altogether (आलटुगेदर)—पूरी तरह से
(a) The boys and girls sang all together — सभी लड़के और लड़कियों ने मिलकर गाया।
(b) This was altogether strange for a person of my type —मेरे जैसे आदमी के लिए यह बात पूरी तरह से अजीब थी।

45. all ways (ऑल वेज़)—अर्थात् सभी तरह से
always (ऑल्वेज़)—अर्थात् सदा
(a) The scheme was in all ways acceptable to the masses — योजना सभी तरह से आम जनता को स्वीकार्य थी।
(b) Always help the poor . गरीबों की हमेशा मदद करो।

46. altar (ऑल्टर)—अर्थात् पूजा की वेदी (noun)
alter (ऑल्टर)—अर्थात् बदलना (verb)
(a) He knelt before the altar and took a vow not to touch wine all his life —वह पूजा की वेदी के सामने झुका और प्रतिज्ञा की कि वह जीवन-भर शराब नहीं छुएगा।
(b) I can’t alter my plans now —अब मैं अपनी योजनाएं बदल नहीं सकता।

47. amend (अमैंड)—सुधार करना (verb)
emend (अमैंड)—किसी साहित्यिक कृति का संशोधन अथवा सम्पादन करना (verb)
(a) You must amend your ways —तुम्हें अपने व्यवहार में सुधार करना चाहिए।
(b) Before publication, first part of the book had to be emended —प्रकाशन से पहले, पुस्तक का पहला भाग सम्पादित किया जाना था।

48. alternate (ऑल्टर्नेट)—एक दिन छोड़कर (adjec .)
alternative (ऑल्टर्नेटिव)—विकल्प (noun)
(a) The doctor comes to see him on every alternate day — डाक्टर एक दिन छोड़कर उसे देखने आता है।
(b) There was no other alternative , so I agreed to the terms —दूसरा कोई विकल्प न था, अत: मैंने शर्तें स्वीकार कर लीं।

49. bazaar (बाज़ार)— बाज़ार अर्थात् मार्केट जहां वस्तुओं का क्रय-विक्रय होता है (noun)
bizarre (बिज़ार)—भद्दा या विचित्र (adjective)
(a) She went to bazaar for shopping —वह वस्तुएं खरीदने के लिए बाज़ार गई।

(b) She dresses in a bizarre manner —वह विचित्र ढंग से कपड़े पहनती है।

50. berth (बर्थ)—सोने की जगह (noun)
birth (बर्थ)—जन्म (noun)
(a) She got a berth reserved for herself in the Kalka Mail — उसने कालका मेल में अपने लिए जगह सुरक्षित कराई।
(b) What's your date of birth ?—तुम्हारी जन्मतिथि क्या है?

51. beside (बिसाइड)—समीप (Preposition)
besides (बिसाइड्स)—के अतिरिक्त (Adverb)
(a) He was sitting beside me . वह मेरे पास बैठा है।
(b) The agents get commission besides their salary —प्रतिनिधि अपने वेतन के अतिरिक्त कमीशन प्राप्त करते हैं।

52. boar (बोर)—जंगली सुअर (noun)
bore (बोर)—छेद करना (verb)
(a) The hunter shot a wild boar —शिकारी ने एक जंगली सुअर का शिकार किया।
(b) They bore a hole in the soil to take out oil —उन्होंने तेल निकालने के लिये ज़मीन में छेद किया।

53. born (बॉर्न)—उत्पन्न होना (verb)
borne (बोर्न)—उठाना (verb)
(a) I don't know when I was born —मैं कब पैदा हुआ, मैं नहीं जानता।
(b) We have borne our burdens with patience —हमने अपने बोझ (अर्थात् उत्तरदायित्व) धीरजपूर्वक उठाए।

54. breath (ब्रेथ)—सांस (noun)
breathe (ब्रीद्)—सांस लेना (verb)
breadth (ब्रेड्थ)—चौड़ाई (noun)
(a) Before you dive in, take a deep breath गोता लगाने से पहले एक लम्बी साँस लो।
(b) Breathe deeply in open air : खुली हवा में गहरी साँस लो।
(c) In a square, the breadth is equal to the length —चौकोर में चौड़ाई लम्बाई के समान होती है।

55. Canvas (कैन्वस)—कैन्वस (मोटा कपड़ा) (noun)
canvass (कैन्वस)—वोट मांगना (verb)
(a) Canvas bags are very strong —कैन्वस के थैले बहुत मज़बूत होते हैं।
(b) Students were canvassing for the Congress candidate — छात्र काँग्रेस के उम्मीदवार के लिए वोट मांग रहे थे।

56. cease (सीज़)—बंद करना, रोकना (verb)

seize (सीज़)—बरामद होना, पकड़ना (verb)
(a) At last the war has ceased . आखिरकार युद्ध बंद हो गया।
(b) The policeman seized the stolen articles —सिपाही ने चोरी का सामान बरामद कर लिया।

57. cent (सैंट)—एक सिक्का (noun)
scent (सैंट)—सुगन्धि (noun)
(a) Cent is a small coin of America —सैंट अमेरिका का एक छोटा सिक्का है।
(b) The scen t of flowers is very pleasant —फूलों की सुगन्ध बड़ी सुखद है।

58. childish (चाइल्डिश)—बच्चों जैसा अर्थात् बचकाना (स्वभाव: बुरा अर्थ में)
childlike (चाइल्डलाइक)—भोला-भाला (स्वभाव: अच्छे अर्थ में) (a) You have childish habits and are not yet mature —तुम्हें बचकानी आदतें हैं।
(b) We like his childlike habits —हम उसकी बच्चों जैसी आदतें पसन्द करते हैं।

59. choose (चूज़)—चुनना या चुनाव करना (verb)
chose (चोज़)—चुनना choose (क्रिया का भूत कालिक रूप, अर्थात् चुना) (Verb)
(a) Choose what you want —जो चाहते हो, चुन लो।
(b) I finally chose singing for a career —मैंने अन्त में संगीत को पेशे के रूप में चुन लिया।

60. cite (साइट)—दृष्टान्त देना या उद्धत करना (verb)
sight (साइट)—दृश्य (noun)
site (साइट)—स्थान (noun)
(a) He was fond of citing from the Ramayana —वह रामायण से उद्धृत करने का शौकीन था।
(b) The Taj presents a pleasant sight in full moon —ताज पूर्णमासी के दिन एक सुखद दृश्य उपस्थित करता है।
(c) His father is looking for a site for his new shop —उसके पिता अपनी नई दुकान के लिए स्थान ढूंढ रहे हैं।

61. comic (कॉमिक)—मज़ाकिया, अर्थात् जानबूझकर बनाया गया रूप जिससे हंसी आए (adjective)
Comical (कॉमिकल)—भद्दा-फूहड़ रूप, अर्थात् बिना यत्न के बना ऐसा रूप जिसे देखकर हंसी आए (adjective)
(a) Comic scenes are put in a drama —नाटक में मज़ाकिया दृश्य रखे जाते हैं।

(b) The peculiar dress she wore gave her a comical appearance —विचित्र वेशभूषा पहनकर उसका रूप भद्दा हो गया।

62. complement (कॉम्पलीमैंट)—पूरक भाग, जिससे पूरा हो (noun)
compliment (कॉम्पलीमैंट)—प्रशंसा करना (noun)
compliment (कॉम्पलीमैंट)—प्रणाम करना (noun)

(a) This book is complement to that one —यह पुस्तक उस पुस्तक की पूरक है।
(b) Her husband paid her a compliment —उसके पति ने उसकी प्रशंसा की।
(c) Pay my compliments to your parents —अपने माता-पिता को मेरा प्रणाम कह दीजिये।

63. conscience (कॉन्शंस)—विवेक, अन्त:करण (noun)
cautious (कॉशस)—सावधान (adjective)
conscious (कॉन्शस)—सचेत (adjective)

(a) One should have a clear conscience —आदमी का विवेक स्पष्ट होना चाहिए।
(b) One should be extremely cautious while driving —गाड़ी चलाते समय आदमी को बहुत सावधान रहना चाहिए।
(c) He was conscious that he was being followed —उसे मालूम था कि उसका पीछा किया जा रहा है।

64. consistently (कन्सिस्टैंट्ली)—दृढ़तापूर्वक (adverb)
constantly (कौंस्टैंटैली)—निरन्तर (adverb)

(a) If you want to give advice to others, first act consistently with that yourself —यदि आप दूसरों को उपदेश देना चाहते हैं तो उस उपदेश के अनुसार पहले स्वयं आचरण करो।
(b) He constantly argued with me —वह निरन्तर मेरे साथ बहस करता रहा।

65. continual (कंटिन्युअल)—थोड़ा रूककर अर्थात् बार-बार (adjective)
continuous (कांटिन्युअस)—लगातार (adjective)

(a) The teacher gave the class continual warning —अध्यापक ने कक्षा को बार-बार चेतावनी दी।
(b) We had continuous rain yesterday for many hours —कल हमारे यहां कई घण्टों लगातार वर्षा होती रही।

66. contract (कौंट्रैक्ट)—संधि या इकरारनामा
contract (कौंट्रैक्ट)—सिकुड़ना

(a) He has signed a contract for going abroad —उसने विदेश जाने के लिए एक इकरारनामे पर हस्ताक्षर किये।

(b) Some metals contract on cooling —कुछ धातु ठंडा होने पर सिकुड़ जाते हैं।

67. course (कोर्स)—पाठ्यक्रम, पथ (noun)
coarse (कोर्स)—तुच्छ, घटिया (adjective)
(a) What is the course of your studies —तुम्हारी शिक्षा का पाठ्यक्रम क्या है?
(b) This cloth is very coarse —यह कपड़ा बहुत घटिया है।

68. credible (क्रैडिबल)—विश्वास के योग्य (adjective)
creditable (क्रैडिटेबिल)—प्रशंसा के योग्य (adjective)
credulous (क्रैडुलस)—शीघ्र विश्वासी अर्थात् जो कहा जाए उस पर जल्दी ही विश्वास कर लेने वाला (adjective)
(a) The story does not appear credible —कहानी विश्वास के योग्य नहीं लगती।
(b) His success in the examination is creditable —परीक्षा में उसकी सफलता प्रशंसा के योग्य है।
(c) Shiela is very credulous . She believes in what she is told —शीला बड़ी शीघ्र-विश्वासी है। उसे जो कहा जाए, वह उसी पर विश्वास कर लेती है।

69. decease (डिसीज़)—मृत्यु (noun)
disease (डिसीज़)—बीमारी (noun)
(a) The deceased person has been taken from the hospital —मृत व्यक्ति को अस्पताल से ले जाया गया है।
(b) That man died of an incurable disease —उस व्यक्ति की मृत्यु एक असाध्य रोग के कारण हुई।

70. deference (डैफ़रेंस)—सम्मान (noun)
difference (डिफ़रेंस)—अन्तर (noun)
(a) In deference to his father’s memory, we did not play yesterday —उसके पिता की स्मृति के सम्मान में हम कल नहीं खेले।
(b) There is difference of opinion on this subject —इस विषय पर विचारों में अन्तर है।

71. desert (डैज़र्ट)—मरूस्थल (noun)
desert (डिज़र्ट)—छोड़ना (noun)
dessert (डिज़र्ट)—भोजन के बाद परोसे गए फल या मिष्ठान (noun)
(a) Rajasthan is mostly a desert —राजस्थान अधिकांशत: मरुस्थल प्रदेश है।
(b) An ideal husband must not desert his wife —आदर्श पति को अपनी पत्नी को नहीं छोड़ना चाहिए।

(c) The party was served with apples and fruit-cream as dessert —पार्टी को भोजन के उपरांत खाद्य के रूप में सेब और फ्रूट-क्रीम दी गई।

72. disinterested (डिस्इंटेरेस्टिड)—स्वार्थरहित अर्थात् तटस्थ या निष्पक्ष (adjective)

uninterested (अन्इंटेरेस्टिड)—रुचिहीन अथवा जिसे रुचि न हो (adjective)

(a) The judge must always be a disinterested party in a trial —किसी विवाद में न्यायधीश को सदा निष्पक्ष रहना चाहिए।

(b) I was uninterested in games, so I returned home early — मेरी खेलों में रुचि नहीं थी, अत: मैं घर जल्दी लौट आया।

73. dual (डुअल)—दोगला अर्थात् दो तरह का (adjective)

duel (डुएल)—दो व्यक्तियो का द्वन्द्व युद्ध (noun)

(a) Some persons have dual personality. They say something and do otherwise —कुछ लोगों का व्यक्तित्व दोगला होता है। वे कहते कुछ हैं और करते कुछ हैं।

(b) They fought a duel and one person was severely injured —उन्होंने द्वन्द्व युद्ध किया और एक व्यक्ति बुरी तरह घायल हो गया।

74. eligible (एलिजिबल)—चुना जाने योग्य (adjective)

illegible (इल्लेजिबल)—अस्पष्ट अर्थात् जिसे पढ़ा न जा सके (adjective)

(a) Only a graduate is eligible for this post —केवल बी.ए. पास व्यक्ति ही इस पद के लिए चुने जाने योग्य है।

(b) Your handwriting is illegible —तुम्हारा हस्तलेख अस्पष्ट है। (जो पढ़ा नहीं जा सकता) **75. expand** (एक्सपैंड)—फैलाना (verb)

expend (एक्सपेंड)—खर्च करना (verb)

(a) As the work increases, we shall have to expand our office space —जैसे काम बढ़ेगा, हमें अपने दफ्तर की जगह बढ़ानी होगी।

(b) We shouldn’t expend beyond our limit —हमें अपनी सामर्थ के बाहर खर्च नहीं करना चाहिए।

76. fair (फ़ेयर)—मेला (noun)

fair (फ़ेयर)—उचित (adjective)

fair (फेयर)—साफ़ (adjective)

(a) Many people attend the National Book Fair —बहुत से लोग राष्ट्रीय पुस्तक मेले में जाते हैं।

(b) We must always play a fair game —हमें सदा उचित तरीके से खेल खेलना चाहिए।

(c) She is fair - complexioned and fair - haired —वह गोरे रंग तथा हल्के भूरे बालों की है।

77. fare (फ़ैयर **)—** किराया (noun)
fare (फ़ैयर)—प्रगति (verb)
(a) What is the rail fare from Delhi to Agra —दिल्ली से आगरा का रेल का किराया कितना है?
(b) How did you fare in your examinations —परीक्षा में तुम्हारी प्रगति कैसी रही?

78. farther (फ़ार्दर) **—** दूर (adverb)
(further (फ़र्दर)) **—** आगे (adverb)
(a). Bombay is farther from Delhi than Banaras —बम्बई बनारस की अपेक्षा दिल्ली से अधिक दूर है।
(b) Proceed further , please —कृपया आगे बढ़िए।

79. feel good (फ़ील गुड)—प्रसन्न होना (verb)
feel well (फ़ील वे'ल)—स्वस्थ होना (verb)
(a) She feels very good amidst her friends —वह अपनी सहेलियों के मध्य प्रसन्न रहती है।
(b) She is feeling well now —वह अब स्वस्थ महसूस कर रही है।

80. fewer (फ़्यूअर)—कम व्यक्ति या वस्तुएं जो कि गिनी जा सकें। (adjective)
less (लैस)—कम वस्तु जो कि ढेर में कम दिखाई दे। (adjective)
(a) The doctor attended fewer patients than last week —डाक्टर ने पिछले सप्ताह की अपेक्षा कम मरीज़ देखे।
(b) I have less money in my pocket than you have —तुम्हारी अपेक्षा मेरी जेब में कम राशि है।

81. floor (फ़्लोर)—फ़र्श (noun)
flour (फ़्लॉअर)—आटा (noun)
(a) She is sitting on the floor —वह फ़र्श पर बैठी है।
(b) We make chapaties (bread) of flour —हम आटे की चपातियां बनाते हैं।

82. formally (फ़ॉर्मली)—औपचारिक रूप से (adverb)
formerly (फ़ॉर्मली)—भूतपूर्व, अर्थात् पहले समय का (adverb)
(a) The letter was written formally by me —पत्र मेरे हाथों औपचारिक रूप से लिखा गया था।
(b) He was formerly a minister —पहले वह एक मंत्री था।

83. forth (फ़ॉर्थ)—आगे (adverb)
fourth (फ़ोर्थ)—चौथा (adjective)
(a) They went forth like ancient warriors —वे पुराने योद्धाओं की तरह आगे बढ़े।
(b) The fourth of every month is our pay day —हर महीने की चार

तारीख हमारे वेतन का दिन होता है।

84. hair (हेयर)—बाल (noun)
heir (ऐअर)—उत्तराधिकारी (noun)
hare (हैअर)—खरगोश (noun)
(a) The colour of Shiela's hair is golden —शीला के बाल सुनहरी हैं।
(b) The eldest prince is the heir to the throne —बड़ा राजकुमार राजगद्दी का उत्तराधिकारी है।
(c) The hare runs very fast —खरगोश बहुत तेज भागता है।

85. hanged (हैंग्ड)—(आदमी को) लटकाना; फांसी देना (verb)
hung (हंग)—(किसी वस्तु को) लटकाना (verb)
(a) The prisoner was hanged at dawn —कैदी सूर्य उदय होते ही फांसी पर चढ़ा दिया गया।
(b) The picture was hung on the wall —चित्र दीवार पर टंगा था।

86. holy (होली)—पवित्र (adjective)
wholly (होली)—सम्पूर्ण रूप से (adverb)
(a) Diwali is our holy festival —दीवाली हमारा पवित्र त्यौहार है।
(b) I wholly agree with your decision —मुझे आपका फैसला पूर्णत: मंजूर है।

87. however (हाउएवर)—इस पर भी; तो भी
how ever (हाउ एवर)—कैसी भी
(a) I don't recommend this book however, you can read it —मैं इस पुस्तक की सिफारिश तो नहीं करता, फिर भी आप इसे पढ़ सकते हैं।
(b) I am certain that , how ever you decide to work, you will succeed —मुझे विश्वास है कि तुम कैसे भी काम करने का निश्चय करो तुम सफल रहोगे।

88. its (इट्स)—इसका (Pronoun)
it's (इट्स)—अर्थात् It is यह है
(a) The shed lost its roof —शेड की छत गिर गई।
(b) It's an old house —यह एक पुराना घर है।

89. last (लास्ट)—अन्तिम (adjective)
latest (लेटेस्ट)—आधुनिकतम (adjective)
(a) Last date of admission is near. So we should hurry up —प्रवेश की अन्तिम तारीख पास है। अत: हमें शीघ्रता करनी चाहिए।
(b) The latest edition of the book is underprint —पुस्तक का आधुनिकतम संस्करण छप रहा है।

90. least (लीस्ट)—सबसे छोटा/कम (adjective)
less (लैस)—दो में से छोटा/कम (adjective)

(a) He walked the least distance of all —वह सब से कम दूरी चला।
(b) Tea is less desirable for me than milk —चाय मेरे लिए दूध की अपेक्षा कम वांछनीय है।

91. lightening (लाइटनिंग)—हल्का करना
lightning (लाइटनिंग)—बिजली चमकना (noun)
lighting (लाइटिंग)—प्रकाश व्यवस्था (noun)
(a) He is lightening my burden —वह मेरा भार हल्का कर रहा है।
(b) Last night there was flash of lightning in the sky —पिछली रात आसमान में बिजली कड़की।
(c) There was good lighting arrangement at the marriage —विवाह के अवसर पर प्रकाश व्यवस्था अच्छी थी।

92. loan (लोन)—उधार (noun)
lend (लैंड)—उधार देना (verb)
(a) The bank granted him a loan of five thousand rupees —बैंक ने उसे पाँच हज़ार रूपये का ऋण दिया।
(b) Lend me some money —मुझे कुछ रुपये उधार दो।

93. moral (मॉरल)—आचार-व्यवहार (noun)
morale (मॉराल्)—मनोबल (noun)
(a) He is man of good moral —वह एक अच्छे आचार-व्यवहार वाला व्यक्ति है।
(b) The morale of the troops on the front is very high —अग्र भाग की टुकड़ियों का मनोबल बहुत ऊंचा है।

94. most (मोस्ट)—अत्यधिक (सबसे अधिक)—विशेषण (adjective) की तीसरी अवस्था
almost (आलमोस्ट)—लगभग (adjective)
(a) Mohan Das Gandhi was the most honest boy in the class —मोहनदास गांधी अपनी कक्षा का सर्वाधिक ईमानदार बालक था।
(b) It’s almost time to go for a walk —यह लगभग घूमने जाने का समय है।

95. notable (नोटेबल)—उल्लेखनीय विख्यात (अच्छे अर्थ में) (adjective)
notorious (नॉटोरियस)—कुख्यात (बुरे अर्थ में प्रसिद्ध) (adjective)
(a) August 15, 1947 is a notable day in the history of India —भारत के इतिहास में 15 अगस्त 1947 का दिन उल्लेखनीय है।
(b) He is a notorious gambler —वह एक कुख्यात जुआरी है।

96. Once (वन्स)—एक बार (adverb)
one’s (वन्’स)—एक व्यक्ति का, किसी व्यक्ति का (pronoun)
(a) I have been there once —मैं वहां एक बार हो आया हूं।

(b) One should obey one’s conscience —आदमी को अपने विवेक पर चलना चाहिए।

97. **ordinance** (ऑर्डिनैंस)—विशेष आदेश (noun)
ordnance (ऑर्डनैंस)—युद्ध-सामग्री (noun)
(a) The President has issued an ordinance today —राष्ट्रपति ने आज एक अध्यादेश जारी किया।
(b) He is employed in the ordnance department —वह युद्ध-सामग्री विभाग में नौकर है।

98. **passed** (पास्ड)—व्यतीत हुआ, (verb) Pass का IInd और IIIrd form
past (पास्ट)—पिछला, इससे पहला (adjective)
(a) The month passed away very soon —महीना बहुत जल्दी से गुज़र गया।
(b) The past month was very enjoyable —पिछला महीना बहुत आनन्ददायक था।

99. **peace** (पीस)—शान्ति (noun)
piece (पीस)—टुकड़ा (noun)
(a) A treaty of peace was signed between two countries —दोनों देशों के बीच शान्ति की सन्धि हुई।
(b) The teacher asked for a piece of chalk —अध्यापक ने एक चॉक का टुकड़ा मांगा।

100. **persecute** (पर्सेक्यूट)—अनुचित रूप से तंग करना (verb)
prosecute (प्रॉसेक्यूट)—अभियोग चलाना (verb)
(a) The jews were persecuted in Nazi Germany —यहूदी लोगों को नाज़ी जर्मनी में तंग किया गया।
(b) Tresp assers will be prosecuted —ग़ैर कानूनी प्रवेश करने वालों को दण्ड दिया जाएगा।

101. **personal** (पर्सनल)—व्यक्तिगत (adjective)
personnel (पर्सो’नल)—कर्मचारी वर्ग(noun)
(a) It is my personal matter. Please don’t interefere —यह मेरा व्यक्तिगत मामला है। कृपया दखल न दें।
(b) The officer maintained the morale of the personnel in his division —अफ़सर ने अपने विभाग के कर्मचारी वर्ग के मनोबल को बनाए रखा।

102. **physic** (फ़िज़िक)—दवा (old use) (noun)
physique (फ़िज़ीक)—शरीर की बनावट (noun)
(a) No physic can cure the patient, if he is careless —अगर रोगी लापरवाह हो तो कोई दवा काम नहीं कर सकती।
(b) He has a fine physique —उसके शरीर की बनावट अच्छी है।

103. pore (पोर)—छिद्र (noun)
pour (पोर)—डालना (verb)
(a) Sweat comes out from the pores of the skin —पसीना त्वचा के छिद्रों में से निकलता है।
(b) Pour some water in my glass —मेरे गिलास में थोड़ा पानी डालो।

104. portable (पोर्टेबल)—हाथ से उठा कर ले जाने योग्य (adjective)
potable (पोटेबल)—पीने योग्य (adjective)
(a) she has brought a portable television from Germany —वह जर्मनी से हाथ से उठाकर ले जाने वाला टैलिविज़न लाई है।
(b) Pond water is not potable —तालाब का पानी पीने योग्य नहीं होता।

105. prescribe (प्रिसक्राइब)—(दवा का) निर्देश देना
proscribe (प्रोसक्राइब)—कानूनी संरक्षण से अलग करना
(a) The doctor prescribed a very costly medicine —डॉक्टर ने एक बहुत महंगी दवा लिखी है।
(b) That man has been proscribed by law —उस व्यक्ति को कानून से निष्कासित कर दिया गया है।

106. president (प्रैसिडैन्ट)—राष्ट्रपति (noun)
precedent (प्रिसिडैन्ट)—पूर्व घटना या उदाहरण (noun)
(a) The President of India has gone to England for two weeks —भारत के राष्ट्रपति दो हफ़्तों के लिए इंगलैंड गये हुए हैं।
(b) She has set a good precedent for others to follow —उसने दूसरे लोगों के लिए एक अच्छा उदाहरण रखा है।

107. price (प्राइस)—दाम (noun)
prize (प्राइज़)—ईनाम (noun)
(a) The price of paper has gone up —कागज़ का दाम बढ़ गया है।
(b) Anil got the first prize in the race —अनिल को दौड़ में पहला पुरस्कार मिला।

108. principal (प्रिंसिपल)—प्रधानाचार्य (noun)
principle (प्रिंसिपल्)—सिद्धातं (noun)
(a) Who is the principal of your college —आपके कालेज (अथवा महाविद्यालय) के प्रधानाचार्य कौन हैं?
(b) My uncle was a man of principles —मेरे चाचाजी सिद्धांतप्रिय व्यक्ति थे।

109. propose (प्रोप्रोज़)—प्रस्तावित करना (verb)
purpose (पर्पज़)—इरादा (noun)
(a) Let them propose the subject for their debate —उन्हें अपने वाद-विवाद का विषय स्वंय प्रस्तावित करने दो।

(b) I had come with a purpose to see you —मैं तुम्हें देखने के इरादे से आया था।

110. rain (रेन)—वर्षा होना (verb)
reign (रेन)—शासन करना (verb)
rein (रेन)—लगाम (noun)
(a) It’s raining —वर्षा हो रही है।
(b) The queen reigned over England —रानी ने इंगलैंड पर शासन किया।
(c) When the reins were pulled tightly, the horse stopped —जब लगाम ज़ोर से खींची गई तो घोड़ा रुक गया।

111. recollect (रिक्लैक्ट)—किसी भूली वस्तु को याद करना (verb)
remember (रिमैंबर)—याद करना (verb)
(a) I often recollect my childhood and feel amused —मैं प्राय: अपने बचपन की याद करता हूं और आनंदित होता हूं।
(b) I remember my lesson every day —मैं प्रतिदिन अपना पाठ स्मरण करता हूं।

112. respectable (रिस्पैक्टेबल)—प्रतिष्ठित (adjective)
respectful (रिस्पैक्टफ़ुल)—सम्मानपूर्ण (adjective)
respective (रिस्पैक्टिव)—अपनी-अपनी (adjective)
(a) Our boss is a respectable gentleman —हमारे अफ़सर एक प्रतिष्ठित सज्जन हैं।
(b) You should be respectful to your parents —तुम्हें अपने माता-पिता के प्रति सम्मानपूर्ण होना चाहिए।
(c) After the lecture was over, the students returned to their respective classes —व्याख्यान के समाप्त होने के बाद छात्र अपनी-अपनी कक्षाओं को लौट गए।

113. root (रूट)—जड़ (noun)
route (रूट)—यात्रा का रास्ता (noun)
(a) Love of money is the root of all evils —धन से प्रेम सभी बुराइयों की जड़ है।
(b) What is the railway route between Delhi and Bombay —दिल्ली और बम्बई का रेलवे का रास्ता क्या है?

114. rout (राउट)—हार, पराजय (noun)
riot (राइट)—झगड़ा, (noun)
(a) The morale of the enemy was very low, because of its rout —पराजय के कारण शत्रु का मनोबल कम हो गया था।
(b) There is a great disturbance in the town because of the Hindu-Muslim riot —हिन्दू-मुस्लिम झगड़े के कारण शहर में बड़ी अशांति

फैली हुई है।

115. **shoot** (शूट)—कोपल (noun)
shoot (शूट)—शिकार करना (verb)
(a) A shoot has sprung up from the plant —पौधे में से एक कोपल निकल आई है।
(b) That man has gone to shoot duck —वह आदमी बत्तख का शिकार करने को गया है।

116. **sole** (सोल)—जूते का तला, पैर का तलवा (noun)
soul (सोल)—आत्मा (noun)
(a) Get the sole of the shoe changed —जूते का तला बदलवा लो।
(b) A good soul goes to heaven —अच्छी आत्मा स्वर्ग को जाती है।

117. **stationary** (स्टेशनरी)—स्थिर, ठहरा हुआ (adjective)
stationery (स्टेशनरी)—पढ़ने-लिखने की वस्तुएं (noun)
(a) The sun is stationary —सूर्य स्थिर अथवा जड़ है।
(b) He deals in stationery —वह स्टेशनरी (कागज़, कापी आदि) बेचता है।

118. **table** (टेबल)—मेज़ (noun)
table (टेबल)—तालिका (noun)
(a) There is a book on the table —मेज़ पर एक पुस्तक है।
(b) There is a table in chapter six of this book —पुस्तक के छठे अध्याय में एक तालिका है।

119. **tasteful** (टेस्टफ़ुल)—मधुर, सुरुचिपूर्ण (adjective)
tasty (टेस्टी)—स्वादिष्ट (adjective)
(a) The house of our madam was decorated in a tasteful manner —हमारी अध्यापक का घर बड़ी सुरुचिपूर्ण रीति से सजा हुआ था।
(b) Our madam served us very tasty meals —हमारी अध्यापक ने हमें बड़ा स्वादिष्ट भोजन कराया।

120. **two** (टू)—दो (adjective) .
to (टु)—को; की ओर (preposition)
too (टू)—भी; इतना अधिक (adverb)
(a) There are two sides of everything —हरेक वस्तु के दो पक्ष होते हैं।
(b) Come to me, I'll advise you —मेरे पास आना, मैं तुम्हें सलाह दूंगा।
(c) She is too weak to walk —वह इतनी अधिक कमज़ोर है कि चल-फिर नहीं सकती।

121. **uninterested** (अनइंडरेस्टिड)—रुचि न रखना (रुचिहीन होना) (adjective)
disinterested (डिसइंटरेस्टिड)—निष्पक्ष (adjective)
(a) I am uninterested in inactive games —मैं निष्क्रिय खेलों में रुचि नहीं रखता।

(b) Let us ask any disinterested man to settle our dispute — हम अपना विवाद सुलझाने के लिए किसी निष्पक्ष व्यक्ति को कहें।

122. valuable (वैल्युएबल)—बहुमूल्य (adjective)

invaluable (इन्वैल्युएबल)—अमूल्य (adjective)

(a) This is a valuable manuscript —यह एक बहुमूल्य पाण्डुलिपि है।

(b) Kohinoor is an invaluable diamond —कोहीनूर एक अमूल्य हीरा है।

123. whose (हूज़)—किसका

who's (हू'ज़)—कौन है (who is)

(a) Whose pen is this ?—यह किसका पैन है।

(b) Who's at the door ?—द्वार पर कौन है?

शब्दों के प्रयोग में सामान्य अशुद्धियां (COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF WORDS)

अंग्रेज़ी बोलचाल में कुछ गलतियां ऐसी हैं जिन्हें हम-आप सभी अधिकतर करते हैं। आप छोटी-मोटी हैसियत के कर्मचारी हों या ऊंचे पदाधिकारी, औरत हों या मर्द, छात्र हों या व्यवसायी, दुकानदार हों या कोई कारीगर—आपस की बातचीत में आपको इन गलतियों से वास्ता पड़ता है। आपकी सुविधा के लिए नीचे दो कालमों में शुद्ध और अशुद्ध वाक्य दिए गए हैं। इन्हें मन में बैठाइए।

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
1. My *hairs are* black.	My *hair is* black.
2. I need a *blotting*.	I need a *blotting paper*.
3. He works better than *me*.	He works better than *I*.
4. I *availed* of the opportunity.	I *availed myself* of the opportunity.
5. The two brothers are quarrelling with *one another*.	The two brothers are quarrelling with *each other*.
6. He is guilty. Isn't *it?*	He is guilty. Isn't *he?*
7. I beg *you leave*.	I beg *leave of you*.
8. He is *more cleverer* than his brother.	He is *cleverer* than his brother.
9. *The* Gold is a precious metal.	Gold is a precious metal.
10. She has *got* headache.	She has *got a* headache.
11. *Stop* to write.	*Stop* writing.
12. It *is raining* for four hours.	It *has been raining* for four hours.
13. I live *in* Lajpat Nagar *at* New Delhi.	I live *at* Lajpat Nagar *in* New Delhi.
14. Work hard *lest* you *may not* fail.	Work hard *lest* you *should* fail.
15. The boy is *neither* fool *or* lazy.	The boy is *neither* fool *nor* lazy.

ऊपर के इन पन्द्रह वाक्यों में पहले कॉलम में अशुद्ध वाक्य दिए गए हैं और दूसरे कॉलम में शुद्ध। इन वाक्यों में भिन्न-भिन्न प्रकार की अशुद्धियां हैं जिन्हें हरेक भाषा सीखने वाले व्यक्ति को समझना और मन में बैठाना है। अंग्रेज़ी एक बड़ी भाषा है। इसमें शब्द-प्रयोगों का क्षेत्र भी बहुत व्यापक होना स्वाभाविक है।

हिन्दी भी एक समृद्ध भाषा है। उसमें भी ऐसे प्रयोग होते हैं जो भाषा सीखने वाले विद्यार्थी के लिए समझने इतने आसान नहीं होते। किन्तु हिन्दी हमारी मातृभाषा है, इसलिए उसकी पेचीदगियां उतनी महसूस नहीं होतीं जितनी कि अंग्रेज़ी भाषा की होती हैं।

अब तनिक ऊपर के पन्द्रह वाक्यों को ध्यान से पढ़िए। आप सभी को एक कठिनाई समान रूप से होती है। इस कठिनाई से हम भली-भांति परिचित हैं।

और वह कठिनाई क्या है, हम आपको बताएं?—जब आप पहले कॉलम का वाक्य पढ़ते हैं तब आपको वह ठीक-सा मालूम होता है। पर जब आप दूसरे कॉलम का वाक्य पढ़ते हैं तो फिर आप थोड़ा चौंकते हैं। कभी, थोड़ी देर में आपको भूल महसूस होने लगती है और कभी आप समझ ही नहीं पाते कि दूसरा वाक्य शुद्ध कैसे है।

ठीक है न यही बात! आप बिल्कुल मत घबराइए और इस उक्ति का भावार्थ अपने मन में बैठा लीजिए—"सर्वशुद्ध भाषा सीखना संसार का कठिनतम कार्य है। यह हिमालय चढ़ने जैसा है। किन्तु यदि आप इस पर धीरे-धीरे चढ़ना शुरू करेंगे तो आप इसकी ऊंचाईयों को एक-एक करके नाप सकते हैं।"

क्या आप इसके लिए तैयार हैं? यदि हां, तो आइए, एक-एक कदम आगे बढ़ें।

संज्ञा-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF NOUNS)

(1) (a) Scenery, issue, hair, furniture, machinery, fruit, (b) poor, rich, bread, work शब्द एक वचन (singular form) में रहते हैं।

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
1. The *sceneries* of Simla *are* very charming.	The *scenery* of Simla *is* very charming.
2. Sarla has no *issues*.	Sarla has no *issue*.
3. She had gone to buy *fruits*.	She had gone to buy *fruit*.
4. Her *hairs are* jet black.	Her *hair is* jet black.
5. The mother feeds the *poors*.	The mother feeds the *poor*.
6. I told *these news* to my father.	I told *this news* to my father.
7. The fleet *were* destroyed by the enemy.	The fleet *was* destroyed by the enemy.
8. These buildings are made of *bricks* and *stones*.	These buildings are made of *brick* and *stone*.
9. I have no more *breads* to give to the beggars.	I have no more *bread* to give to the beggars.
10. I'll go to the town *on feet*.	I'll go to the town *on foot*.
11. All her *furnitures have* been sold.	All her *furniture has* been sold.
12. The *machineries* are not functioning properly.	The *machinery* is not functioning properly.
13. I have *many works* to do.	I have *much work* to do.

(2) Advice, mischief, abuse, alphabet —ये शब्द singular में ही रहते हैं, advices आदि बहुवचन प्रयुक्त नहीं होते बल्कि इस प्रकार कहा जाता है— pieces of advice आदि।

14. The teacher gave us many *advices*.	The teacher gave us many *pieces of advice*.
15. My younger brother did many *mischiefs*.	My younger brother did many *acts of mischief*.
16. The boys were shouting *abuses*.	The boys were shouting *words of abuse*.
17. I have learnt the *alphabets*.	I have learnt the *letters of the alphabet*.

(3) Rupee, dozen, mile, year, foot —ये शब्द जब संख्यावाची शब्द (numeral) के बाद आते हैं तो सदा एकवचन (singular) में ही प्रयोग होते हैं जैसे— five rupee note होगा, five rupees note नहीं।

18. I have a five *rupees* note.	I have a five *rupee* note.
19. We bought two *dozens* pencils.	We bought two *dozen* pencils.
20. He ran in a two *miles* race.	He ran in a two *mile* race.
21. Abida is a ten *years* old girl.	Abida is a ten *year* old girl.
22. It's a three *feet-rule*.	It's a three *foot-rule*.

(4) Vegetables (सब्जी या सब्जियां), spectacles (ऐनक), trousers (पतलून या पाजामा), Himalayas (हिमालय), people (लोग), orders (आदेश), repairs (मरम्मत)—ये शब्द सदा बहुवचन (plural) में ही प्रयोग होते हैं, एकवचन (singular) में नहीं।

23. I had gone to buy *vegetable.*	I had gone to buy *vegetables.*
24. The road is closed for *repair.*	The road is closed for *repairs.*
25. The judge passed *order* for his release.	The judge passed *orders* for his release.
26. Very few *peoples* are hard-working.	Very few *people* are hard-working.
27. His *spectacle is* very expensive.	His *spectacles are very expensive.*
28. The *scissor is blunt.*	The *scissors are blunt.*
29. Your *trouser is not loose.*	Your *trousers are* not loose.
30. The *Himalaya is* the highest *mountain.*	The *Himalayas are* the highest *mountains.*

(5) Fish . (मछली या मछलियां), deer (हिरन), sheep (भेड़ या भेड़ें), cattle (पशु)—ये शब्द बहुवचन के अर्थ में भी एकवचन (singular) में ही प्रयोग होते हैं।

31. The fisherman catches many *fishes* in the pond.	The fisherman catches many *fish* in the pond.
32. I saw many *sheeps* and *deers* in the jungle.	I saw many *sheep* and *deer* in the jungle.
33. The *cattles are* returning to the village.	The *cattle is* returning to the village.

(6) Gentry (सभ्य लोग) शब्द का प्रयोग बहुवचन में होता है, एकवचन में नहीं।

34. The *gentry* of the town *has* been invited.	The *gentry* of the town *have* been invited.

कई बार लोग बातचीत में अधूरी शब्दावली प्रयोग करते हैं। ऐसी शब्दावली सभ्य समाज में वक्ता को हंसी का पात्र बना देती है। ऐसी अशुद्धियां करने से बचना चाहिए—

35. This is not my *copy.*	This is not my copy-book.
36. Bring some *blotting* from the office.	Bring some *blotting paper* from the office.
37. She lives in the *boarding.*	She lives in the *boarding house.*
38. Please, put your *sign* here.	Please, put your *signature* here.

अधूरी शब्दावली की तरह हमें बोलचाल एंव लेखन में फालतू शब्दावली से भी बचना चाहिए—

39. Your servant is a *coward boy.*	Your servant is a *coward.*
40. She is my *cousin sister.*	She is my *cousin.*

सर्वनाम-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF PRONOUNS)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
41. It is *me*.	It is *I*.
42. *I, you* and *he* will go to Calcutta tomorrow.	*You, he* and *I* will go to Calcutta tomorrow.
43. You are wiser than *me*.	You are wiser than *I*.
44. Let her and *I* do this work.	Let her and *me* do this work.
45. *One* should do *his* duty.	*One* should do *one's* duty.
46. *Everyone* must do *their* best.	*Every one* must do *his* best.
47. *Every man* and boy is busy with *their* work.	*Every man* and boy is busy with *his* work.
49. These *two* sisters love *one another*.	These *two* sisters love *each other*.
48. These *three* sisters love *each other*.	These *three* sisters love *one another*.
50. *Neither* Kanta *nor* Abida *are* in the class.	*Neither* Kanta *nor* Abida *is* in the class.
51. *Neither you nor I are* lucky.	*Neither of us is* lucky.
52. She has studied *neither* of these ten books.	She has studied *none* of these ten books.
53. *Who* is this *for?*	*For whom* is this?
54. *Who* are you expecting now?	*Whom* are you expecting now?
55. Say *whom* you think will get the prize.	Say *who* you think will get the prize.
56. *Who* do you think we met?	*Whom* do you think we met?
57. I am *enjoying* now.	I am *enjoying myself* now.
58. Jasbir *hid* behind the wall.	Jasbir *hid herself* behind the wall.
59. Thy *resigned* to the will of God.	They *resigned themselves* to the will of God.
60. We *applied* heart and soul to the task before us.	We *applied our* heart and soul to the task before us.
61. *Which* is cleverer, Rajiv or Rakesh?	*Who* is cleverer, Rajiv or Rakesh?
62. Please, bring *mine* pen.	Please, bring *my* pen.
63. This pen is *my*.	This pen is *mine*.
64. I do not like *any* of these two books.	I do not like *either* of these two books.
65. I like *not any* of these two books.	I like *neither* of these two books.

(1) जब मैं, तू और वह शब्द अंग्रेज़ी में एक साथ प्रयोग किए जाते हैं तो वे इस क्रम में आते हैं- you (तुम), he (वह) and I मैं।

(2) Let के साथ him, her और me (Pronoun) आते हैं, he, she, I नहीं।

(3) Everyone, every man शब्दों के बाद सम्बन्ध कारक his या her लगता है, their नहीं। किन्तु one (Pronoun) के बाद one's लगता है; his, her या their नहीं।

(4) दो व्यक्तियों के लिए each other आता है और तीन या तीन से अधिक व्यक्तियों के लिए one another .

(5) Neither-nor के साथ singular क्रिया (is आदि) लगती है और ये शब्द दो व्यक्तियों के अर्थ में प्रयोग होते हैं।

(6) बहुत वस्तुओं के बीच में 'कोई भी नहीं' अर्थ के लिए none आता है, neither नहीं।

(7) Enjoy, hid, resign, apply, avail, absent —इन क्रियाओं के बाद himself, herself, themselves, yourself, myself, ourselves

आदि लगते हैं।

(8) My और mine का अर्थ है मेरा, your और yours का अर्थ है तुम्हारा, और our व ours का अर्थ है हमारा। किन्तु प्रयोग में (a) my, your, our तब आते हैं जब इनके बाद कोई संज्ञा (Noun) शब्द रहता है; जैसे— my pen, your father, our mother; (b) जब इन सर्वनामों के बाद में कोई संज्ञा शब्द नहीं होता तो प्राय: mine, yours, ours आदि जुड़ते हैं।

विशेषण-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
66. You are *more stronger* than I.	You are *stronger* than I.
67. She is growing *weak* and *weak* everyday.	She is growing *weaker* and *weaker* everyday.
68. Mohan is *elder* than Salim	Mohan is *older* than Salim.
69. Delhi is *older* than other cities in India.	Delhi is the *oldest* city in India.
70. Bombay is *further* from Delhi than Amritsar.	Bombay is *farther* from Delhi than Amritsar.
71. Have you *any* ink?	Do you have *some* ink?
72. Have she *much* books?	Does she have *many* books?
73. Lila was her *oldest* daughter.	Lila was her *eldest* daughter.
74. Lila was the *eldest* of the two sisters.	Lila was the *elder* of the two sisters.
75. He is the *youngest* and *most* intelligent of my two sons.	He is *younger* and *more* intelligent of my two sons.
76. I visited many *worthseeing places.*	I visited many *places worthseeing.*
77. I told you the *last* news.	I told you the *latest* news.
78. You are junior than I.	You are junior *to me.*
79. I have *less* worries than Mohan.	I have *fewer* worries than Mohan.
80. No *less* than fifty persons died of cholera.	No *fewer* than fifty persons died of cholera.
81. This is the *worst* of the two.	This is *worse* of the two.
82. After lunch we had no *farther* talk.	After lunch we had no *further* talk.
83. He wasted *his all* wealth.	He wasted *all his* wealth.
84. I prefer cycling *more than* walking.	I prefer cycling *to* walking.
85. I am *more stronger* than he.	I am *stronger* than he.
86. He is *the weakest* boy of the two.	He is *the weaker* boy of the two.
87. I have got *few* books.	I have got *a few* books.

(1) Elder और older दोनों का अर्थ होता है दो में से बड़ा। किन्तु elder सगे रिश्ते में ही आता है; जैसे elder brother, elder sister . जब दो व्यक्ति या वस्तुएं भिन्न-भिन्न हों तो older प्रयोग होता है जैसे— Mohan is older than Salim .

(2) Eldest और oldest दोनों का अर्थ होता है सबसे बड़ा। पर elder की तरह eldest सगे रिश्ते में आता है।
(3) Further (अगला) और farther (दो में से दूर वाला) इन शब्दों का समझकर प्रयोग करना चाहिए।
(4) Many संख्यावाची विशेषण है, जैसे many books (बहुत-सी पुस्तकें) और much परिमाणवाचक विशेषण है जैसे much water (बहुत-सा पानी)।
(5) विशेषण की तीन अवस्थाओं (three degrees) का प्रयोग समयानुसार सावधानी से करना चाहिए।
(6) Many की तरह few संख्यावाची है और much की तरह less परिमाणवाची है। इनका प्रयोग सावधनी से करना चाहिए।

क्रिया-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF VERBS)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
88. Her father told me that honesty *was* the best policy.	Her father told me that honesty *is* the best policy.
89. The cashier-cum-accountant *have* come.	The cashier-cum-accountant *has* come.
90. The cashier and the accountant *has* come.	The cashier and the accountant *have* come.
91. *Can* I come in, sir?	*May* I come in, sir?
92. I'm so weak that I *may not* walk.	I'm so weak that I *cannot* walk.
93. Tell me why *are you* abusing him.	Tell me why *you are* abusing him.
94. Pushpa *as well as* her other sisters *are* beautiful.	Pushpa *as well as her other sisters* is beautiful.
95. I *am* ill for two weeks.	I *have been* ill for two weeks.
96. The ship *was drowned.*	The ship *sank*.
97. He *has stole* a pen.	He *has stolen* a pen.
98. Dhulip *sung* well.	Dhulip *sang* well.
99. Mohamed has often *beat* me at tennis.	Mohamed has often *beaten* me at tennis.
100. I *laid* in bed till eight in the morning.	I *lay* in bed till eight in the morning.
101. I *will* be drowned and nobody *shall* save me.	I *shall* be drowned and nobody *will* save me.
102. You *will* leave this place at once.	You *shall* leave this place at once.
103. We *shall* not accept defeat.	We *will not* accept defeat.
104. I should learn to ride if I *buy* a cycle.	I should learn to ride if I *bought* a cycle.
105. I never *have*, and I never *will* do it.	I *have* never *done*, and I *will* never do it.
106. Neither he *came* nor he *wrote*.	Neither *did* he *come* nor *did* he *write*.
107. Seldom I go to the hills.	Seldom *do* I go to the hills.
108. This food is hard to *be digested.*	This food is hard to *digest*.
109. He ordered *to withdraw the army*.	He ordered *his army to withdraw*.
110. Each and every father *love their* children.	Each and every father *loves his* children.

(1) Can और may का अर्थ है सकना। किन्तु can का प्रयोग शक्ति के अर्थ में होता है और may का आज्ञा के अर्थ में। देखिए वाक्य— 91, 92 .

(2) As well as से पहले का कर्ता यदि एकवचन में हो तो क्रिया भी एकवचन की होती है। देखिए वाक्य— 94 .

(3) जब वाक्य why आदि शब्दों के साथ Indirect form में रहता है तो ' why are you 'की जगह ' why you are 'होता है। ऐसे वाक्य में प्रश्नचिन्ह भी नहीं लगता। देखिए वाक्य— 93 .

(4) Drown और sink दोनों का अर्थ है डूबना, किन्तु प्राणवान वस्तु के डूबने के अर्थ में drown आता है और बेजान वस्तु के डूबने के अर्थ में sink आता है। देखिए वाक्य— 96 और 101 .

(5) सामान्य भविष्यत् को बताने के लिए I, we के साथ shall और he, she, they तथा you के साथ will लगता है, देखिए वाक्य— 101 . किन्तु यदि 'दृढ़ निश्चय' या 'धमकी' प्रकट करनी हो तो उल्टा प्रयोग होता है— I, we के साथ will तथा he, she, they, you के साथ shall .देखिए वाक्य— 102-103 .

(6) Shall का past tense का रूप should होता है। जिस वाक्य में should का इस अर्थ में प्रयोग हो, उस वाक्य में दूसरी क्रिया भी past tense की आएगी। देखिए वाक्य— 104 .

(7) Neither, seldom नकारात्मक (negative) शब्द हैं। वाक्य में इनके प्रयोग में (अन्य negative वाक्यों की तरह), do, did का प्रयोग होता है। देखिए वाक्य— 106-107 .

(8) ज़रा सोचिए कि वाक्य 110 में his children क्यों आया, their children क्यों नहीं? [ठीक है his का सम्बन्ध father से है, children से नहीं, इसलिए यहां his ठीक है।]

क्रिया विशेषण-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF ADVERBS)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
111. I play basket-ball *good.*	I play basket-ball *well.*
112. I am *very much* sorry.	I am *very* sorry.
113. It is *much* cold today.	It is *very* cold today.
114. The horse is *too* tired.	The horse is *very* tired.
115. This girl is *very* poor *to* pay her dues.	This girl is *too* poor *to* pay her dues.
116. She is *too* weak *for* walk.	She is *too* weak *to* walk.
117. I am *too* pleased.	I am *much* pleased.
118. We *slowly walked.*	We *walked slowly.*
119. We should *only* fear *God.*	We should fear *God only.*
120. This house is *enough large* for them.	This house is *large enough* for them.
121. He doesn't know *to* swim.	He doesn't know *how to* swim.
122. I don't know *to* do it.	I don't know *how to* do it.
123. Don't run *fastly.*	Don't run *fast.*
124. She is not *clever* to do it.	She is not *clever enough* to do it.
125. He explained *clearly his case.*	He explained *his case clearly.*
126. You have done it very *quick.*	You have done it very *quickly.*
127. It's *too* hot.	It's *very* hot.
128. It's *very* hot to play tennis.	It's *too* hot to play tennis.
129. Poona is *known* for its figs.	Poona is *well known* for its figs.
130. I went *directly* to school.	I went *direct* to school.
131. I feel *comparatively better* today.	I feel *better* today.
132. He runs *fastly.*	He runs *fast.*
133. The child walks *slow.*	The child walks *slowly.*
134. I am *very* delighted to see you.	I am *much* delighted to see you.
135. He is now *too strong to* walk.	He is now *strong enough* to walk.

(1) Well (adverb) की जगह good (adjective) का प्रयोग अच्छा नहीं है। वाक्य— 111 .

(2) Too और very दोनों का अर्थ है—बहुत। पर (a) too के बाद सम्बन्धित (relative) शब्द to जुड़ता है; जैसे— She is too weak to walk (वह इतनी अधिक कमज़ोर है कि चल-फिर नहीं सकती।) देखिए वाक्य— 116 .

(b) बहुत के अर्थ में सामान्यतया very या much जुड़ता है देखिए वाक्य— 117, 127 .

(3) Slowly, clearly आदि सभी adverbs प्राय: क्रिया के बाद जुड़ते हैं। देखिए वाक्य— 118, 125 .

(4) कई लोग ' comparatively better 'कहते हैं। ज़रा सोचिए, जब better में ही दो में से अच्छा होने का भाव है तो comparatively क्यों? देखिए वाक्य—

131 .

(5) ज़रा बताइए तो वाक्य 135 क्यों गलत है— He is now too strong to walk . [हां, यह वाक्य इसलिए गलत हैं क्योंकि इसका अर्थ होगा—वह इतना शक्तिशाली है कि चल-फिर नहीं सकता। अर्थ इससे उल्टा है, इसलिए ' too strong ' की जगह strong enough लगेगा।

योजक-शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
136. *Though* he works hard *but* he is weak.	*Though* he works hard *yet* he is weak.
137. The teacher asked *that why* I was late.	The teacher asked *why* I was late.
138. Wait here *till* I *do not* come.	Wait here *till* I come.
139. *No sooner* we reached the station, the train started.	*No sooner did* we reach the station, *than* the train started.
140. *Not only* he *abused* me *but also* beat me.	*Not only did* he *abuse* me *but* beat me also.
141. We had *hardly gone out before* it began to rain.	We had *hardly* gone out *when* it began to rain.
142. Run fast *lest* you *should not* be late.	Run fast *lest* you *should* be late.
143. *As* Satish is fat *so* he walks slowly.	*As* Satish is fat, he walks slowly.
144. I doubt *that* she will pass this year.	I doubt *whether* she will pass this year.
145. *When* I reached there *then* it was raining.	*When* I reached there, it was raining.
146. *Although* he is poor, *but* he is honest.	*Although* he is poor, *yet* he is honest.
147. Wait here *until* I do not come.	Wait here *till* I come.
148. *Unless* you *do not* try, you will never succeed.	*Unless* you try, you will never succeed.
149. There is no *such* country *which* you mention.	There is no *such* country *as you mention.*
150. He had *scarcely* reached the station *than* the train started.	He had *scarcely* reached the station *when* the train started.

(a) कुछ योजक शब्द परस्पर एक साथ प्रयोग होते हैं, जैसे though—yet; no sooner—than; not only—but also; hardly—when; lest—should; although—yet; such—as तथा scarcely—when आदि। [though आदि के साथ yet आदि ही आएगा, but आदि नहीं।]

(2) No sooner, not only नकारात्मक (negative) शब्द हैं। अत: do, did का प्रयोग इनके बाद होता है। वाक्य— 139, 140 .

(3) Lest का अर्थ है—'ऐसा न हो कि'। अत: lest के बाद should आएगा,

should not नहीं। देखिए वाक्य— 142 .

(4) As के साथ सम्बन्धित (relative) शब्द के रूप में so नहीं जुड़ता। देखिए वाक्य— 143 .

(5) अंग्रेज़ी में when के आगे then नहीं जुड़ता जैसे हिन्दी में जुड़ता है। देखिए वाक्य— 145 .

सम्बन्ध-सूचक शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां
(ERRORS IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
(i) कोई सम्बन्ध-सूचक नहीं लगता	
151. My mother loves *with* me.	My mother loves me.
152. He reached *at* the station.	He reached the station.
153. He ordered *for* my dismissal.	He ordered my dismissal.
154. Rajiv married *with* your cousin.	Rajiv married your cousin.
155. Amitabh entered *into* the room.	Amitabh entered the room.
(ii) by का प्रयोग	
156. What is the time *in* your watch?	What's the time *by* your watch?
157. They went to Banaras *in* train.	They went to Banaras *by* train.
158. She was killed *with* a robber.	She was killed *by* a robber.
(iii) with का प्रयोग	
159. He is angry *upon* me.	He is angry *with* me.
160. Are you angry *on* her?	Are you angry *with* her.
161. My principal is pleased *from* me.	My principal is pleased *with* me.
162. Wash your face *in* water.	Wash your face *with* water.
163. The dacoit was killed *by* a sword.	The dacoit was killed *with* a sword.
164. Compare Akbar *to* Rana Pratap.	Compare Akbar *with* Rana Pratap.
165. She covered her face *by* her shawl.	She covered her face *with* her shawl.
(iv) at का प्रयोग	
166. Open your book *on* page ten.	Open your book *at* page ten.
167. Ram lives *in* Sonepat.	Ram lives *at* Sonepat.
168. Why did you laugh *on* the beggar.	Why did you laugh *at* the beggar.
169. Who is knocking *on* the door.	Who is knocking *at* the door.
170. The train arrived *on* the platform.	The train arrived *at* the platform.
(v) on का प्रयोग	
171. We go to school *by* foot.	We go to school *on* foot.
172. We congratulate you *for* your success.	We congratulate you *on* your success.
173. The rioters set the house *to* fire.	The rioters set the house *on* fire.
174. The house was built *over* the ground.	The house was built *on* the ground.
175. Father spent a lot of money *at* her wedding.	Father spent a lot of money *on* her wedding.

(vi) to का प्रयोग

176. Vimal was married *with* Shyam.	Vimal was married *to* Shyam.
177. You are very kind *on* me.	You are very kind *to* me.
178. We should pray God every day.	We should pray *to* God every day.
179. I won't listen what you say.	I won't listen *to* what you say.
180. I object *at* your statement.	I object *to* your statement.

(vii) in का प्रयोग

181. Swatantra Kumari lives *at* Bombay.	Swatantra Kumari lives *in* Bombay.
182. He was walking *into* the garden.	He was walking *in* the garden.
183. Please, write *with* ink.	Please, write *in* ink.
184. I have no faith *upon* your story.	I have no faith *in* your story.
185. The rain will cease *after* a little while.	The rain will cease *in* a little while.

(viii) into का प्रयोग

186. Divide the cake *in* five parts.	Divide the cake *into* five parts.
187. Please look *in* the matter.	Please look *into* the matter.
188. She jumped *in* the river.	She jumped *into* the river.
189. I fear that she will fall *in* the hands of robbers.	I fear that she might fall *into* the hands of robbers.
190. Translate this passage *in* Hindi.	Translate this passage *into* Hindi.

(ix) of का प्रयोग

191. She died *from* plague.	She died *of* plague.
192. We are proud *on* our country.	We are proud *of* our country.
193. The child is afraid *from* you.	The child is afraid *of* you.
194. Hamida is not jealous *to* Abdul.	Hamida is not jealous *of* Abdul.
195. We should take care *for* our books.	We should take care *of* our books.
196. He died *from* hunger.	He died *of* hunger.

(x) from का प्रयोग

197. My shirt is different *to* your.	My shirt is different *from* yours.
198. His mother prevented him *of* going to cinema.	His mother prevented him *from* going to cinema.
199. I commenced work *since* 14th July.	I commenced work *from* 14th July.
200. He hindered me *to* do this.	He hindered me *from* doing this.

(xi) for का प्रयोग

201. He won't be there *before four months.*	He won't be there *for* four months.
202. The employer blames her *of* carelessness.	The employer blames her *for* carelessness.

203. Three scholarships are competed.	Three scholarships are competed *for*.
204. Free meals should be provided *with* the poor children.	Free meals should be provided *for* the poor children.
205. Who cares *of* you?	Who cares *for* you?

(xii) between, among, since, up, against आदि का प्रयोग

206. Distribute the fruit *among* Kamla and Vimla.	Distribute the fruit *between* Kamla and Vimla.
207. Divide this money *between* these girls.	Divide this money *among* these girls.
208. Rakesh has been absent from college *from* last Monday.	Rakesh has been absent from college *since* last Monday.
209. He tore *away* the bills.	He tore *up* the bills.
210. The English fought *with* the Russians.	The English fought *against* Russians.

जहां तक सम्बन्ध-सूचक (prepositions) शब्दों की क्रियाओं के साथ प्रयोग का प्रश्न है, ये इसलिए प्रयोग होती हैं क्योंकि अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में इनका इसी तरह प्रयोग होता है। इसमें तर्क-वितर्क की अधिक गुंजाइश नहीं है। अत: अंग्रेज़ी सीखने के इच्छुक व्यक्तियों को इनका शुद्ध प्रयोग मन में बैठाना चाहिए।

हिन्दी में भी कारक चिन्हों का प्रयोग जैसा कहीं रूढ़ हो गया है, उसी को आज शुद्ध माना जाता है। यह बात हर भाषा में थोड़ी कम-ज्यादा होती है, अत: इसे अनिवार्य मानकर समझने का प्रयत्न करना चाहिए।

A, an, the शब्दों के प्रयोग में अशुद्धियां (THE ERRORS IN THE USE OF ARTICLES)

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
(i) the का प्रयोग	
211. *The* Delhi is the capital of India.	Delhi is the capital of India.
212. She met me in *the* Faiz Bazaar.	She met me in Faiz Bazaar.
213. He has failed in *the* English.	He has failed in English.
214. She was suffering from *the* typhoid.	She was suffering from typhoid.
215. *The* union is strength.	Union is strength.
(ii) ऐसे शब्दों से पूर्व the जुड़ता है—	
216. This is *a* best player I have ever met.	This is *the* best player I have ever met.
217. Ganga flows into Bay of Bengal.	*The* Ganga flows into *the* Bay of Bengal.
218. Rose is sweetest of all flowers.	*The* rose is *the* sweetest of all *the* flowers.
219. Rich are happy but poor are unhappy.	*The* rich are happy but *the* poor are unhappy.
220. Ramayana and Mahabharata are epics of India.	*The* Ramayana and the Mahabharata are *the* epics of India.

1 . व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञा शब्द (जैसे Delhi, Faiz Bazaar, English language) , द्रव्यवाचक संज्ञा शब्द (जैसे gold, silver आदि), भाववाचक संज्ञा शब्द (union, honesty आदि) एवं रोगों के नाम आदि में साथ the का प्रयोग नहीं होता।

2 . विशेषण की तीसरी अवस्था में पर्वतों प्रदेशों, नदियों, समुद्रों आदि के नामों (the Ganga, the Himalayas आदि) से पूर्व; पुस्तकों के नामों (the Ramayana, the Mahabharata आदि) से पूर्व; संज्ञा के रूप में प्रयुक्त विशेषण शब्दों (the rich, the poor आदि) से पूर्व the जुड़ता है। साथ ही किसी वस्तु या व्यक्ति पर दबाव देना हो तो वहां (the rose, the flower, the epic) भी the लगाते हैं।

(iii) ऐसी अवस्थाओं में a नहीं जुड़ता —	
221. *A* man is mortal.	Man is mortal.
222. Your sister is in *a* trouble.	Your sister is in trouble.
223. He made a rapid progress.	He made rapid progress.
224. There is *a* vast scope for improvement.	There is vast scope for improvement.
225. He writes *a* good poetry.	He writes good poetry.

3 . वाक्य 221 में किसी व्यक्ति (a man) की बात नहीं है— बल्कि मनुष्य मात्र की है। अत: a नहीं जुड़ेगा। वाक्य 222 में trouble (संकट) संख्यात्मक शब्द नहीं है अत: a नहीं जुड़ेगा। इसी प्रकार भाववाचक एवं द्रव्यवाचक संज्ञाओं से पूर्व सामान्यतया a या an नहीं जुड़ेगा।

अशुद्ध (Incorrect)	शुद्ध (Correct)
226. Don't make noise.	Don't make *a* noise.
227. The English *is* brave nation.	The English is *a* brave nation.
228. I got headache.	I got *a* headache.
229. Your words are not worth penny.	Your words are not worth *a* penny.
230. He is an European.	He is *a* European.

(v) जिन शब्दों का आरंभ स्वर (vowel) से होता है या उच्चारण स्वर का होता है वहां an लगता है।

231. She was not *a* Indian.	She was not *an* Indian.
232. Please buy a umbrella from the bazaar.	Please buy *an* umbrella from the bazaar.
233. I'll finish with my work in *a* hour.	I'll finish with my work in *an* hour.
234. He was *a* M. L. A.	He was *an* M. L. A.
235. She is *a* M. A.	She is *an* M. A.

4. a और an समान बल के articles हैं। केवल अन्तर यह है कि (a) जिन शब्दों का पहला वर्ण व्यंजन (consonant) होता है वहां a जुड़ता है और (b) जिन शब्दों का पहला वर्ण स्वर (vowel) होता है वहां an जुड़ता है। जैसे— a: a book, a nation, a noise आदि।
   an: an Indian, an umbrella, an apple आदि।
5. an के प्रयोग में कुछ अपवाद भी हैं। अंग्रेज़ी में कुछ शब्द ऐसे हैं जिनका पहला वर्ण अनुच्चरित (silent) होता है; जैसे: hour (आवर), honour (ऑनर), honest (ऑनेस्ट)।
   ऐसे शब्दों के साथ an लगेगा, a नहीं; जैसे — an hour, an honour, an honest आदि।
6. an के प्रयोग की बात यहीं समाप्त नहीं होती; आगे चलिए। कुछ लघु रूप (शार्ट फॉर्म) शब्द देखिए M.A., M.L.A. , अब सोचिए, इनके साथ a जुड़ेगा या an ? आप सोच रहे होंगे कि दोनों में पहला व्यंजन M है अत: a जुड़ेगा। पर बात ऐसी नहीं है, क्योंकि M.A. और M.L.A. दोनों में m का उच्चारण ए स्वर (vowel) जैसा है, अत: यहां an M.A. और an M.L.A. होगा। देखिए वाक्य 234 और 235 .
7 . अब 230 वां वाक्य पढ़िए। वहां ' a European ' क्यों ठीक माना जाता है। उत्तर वही है जो' an hour ' के बारे में था। 'ए यूरोपियन' में E silent है और u का उच्चारण भी 'यू' (Solid) है,हिंदी के यू जैसा। इसे भी अपवाद समझना चाहिए।

अन्त में हम आपसे एक बात कहना चाहेंगे। वह यह है कि आप अपने और अपने आपसी व्यवहार में आने वाली अंग्रेज़ी में ऐसी सामान्य अशुद्धियों पर ध्यान

दीजिए। जब आप भाषा के सम्बन्ध में ऐसा दृष्टिकोण बनाएंगे तो अशुद्धियां अपने आप ही, आपके सामने खुलती चली जाएंगी—और आप अनुभव करेंगे कि अच्छी अंग्रेज़ी में बातचीत करना न केवल आपके व्यवसाय के लिए ही लाभदायक है, बल्कि यह तो आपके लिए बहुत आनंददायक भी है।

हमारी शुभ कामनाएं आपके साथ हैं।

अंग्रेज़ी में शब्द-निर्माण
(WORD BUILDING IN ENGLISH)

अंग्रेज़ी भाषा में शब्द दो प्रकार के होते हैं—साधारण (Simple) और व्युत्पन्न (Derived)।

(a) साधारण शब्दों को आदिम (Primitive) भी कहते हैं। ऐसे शब्दों को सार्थक खण्डों में अलग-अलग नहीं किया जा सकता; **जैसे** —man, good, fear आदि।

(b) व्युत्पत्ति से बने हुए शब्दों को व्युत्पन्न (Derived या Derivative) शब्द कहते हैं। ऐसे शब्द चार प्रकार से बनते हैं: (i) साधारण शब्द में थोड़ा-सा परिवर्तन करके; ऐसे शब्दों को प्रारंभिक व्युत्पन्न (Primary Derivative) शब्द कहते हैं। उदाहरणस्वरूप— hot से heat, tale से tell, full से fill आदि।

(ii) साधारण शब्द से पूर्व उपसर्ग जोड़कर; जैसे— wise से पहले un उपसर्ग जोड़कर unwise, side से पहले out या in जोड़कर outside या inside आदि शब्द।

(iii) साधारण शब्द के आगे प्रत्यय जोड़कर; जैसे— man के आगे hood प्रत्यय लगाने से manhood, good के आगे ness प्रत्यय लगाने से goodness, fear के आगे less प्रत्यय लगाने से fearless आदि शब्द। दूसरे और तीसरे प्रकार के शब्दों को Secondary Derivative Words कहते हैं।

(iv) एक शब्द के साथ दूसरा शब्द जोड़ने से; ऐसे शब्दों को संयुक्त शब्द (compound words) कहते हैं; जैसे— footpath, midday, sometimes आदि।

नीचे इन चारों प्रकार के शब्दों का विस्तृत विवरण दिया जाता है। इनके अभ्यास से आप अपना शब्द-ज्ञान (Vocabulary) जितनी चाहें उतनी बढ़ा सकते हैं।

1 . प्रारंभिक व्युत्पन्न (Primary Derivative) शब्द, कई तरह से बनते हैं।

(i) क्रिया-शब्दों में संज्ञा शब्द बनाना—

क्रिया	उच्चारण	अर्थ	संज्ञा	उच्चारण	अर्थ
feed	फीड	भोजन करना	food	फ़ूड	भोजन
die	डाइ	मरना	death	डैथ	मृत्यु
strike	स्ट्राइक	प्रहार करना	stroke	स्ट्रोक	प्रहार
write	राइट	लिखना	writ	रिट	लेख
speak	स्पीक	बोलना	speech	स्पीच	भाषण
believe	बिलीव	विश्वास करना	belief	बिलीफ़	विश्वास
break	ब्रेक	उल्लंघन करना	breach	ब्रीच	उल्लंघन

(ii) विशेषण-शब्दों से संज्ञा-शब्द बनाना—

विशेषण	उच्चारण	अर्थ	संज्ञा	उच्चारण	अर्थ
grave	ग्रेव	गंभीर	grief	ग्रीफ़	दु:ख
proud	प्रॉउड	घमण्डी	pride	प्राइड	घमण्ड
hot	हॉट	गर्म	heat	हीट	गर्मी

(iii) संज्ञा-शब्दों से विशेषण-शब्द बनाना—

संज्ञा	उच्चारण	अर्थ	विशेषण	उच्चारण	अर्थ
wisdom	विज़डम	बुद्धिमता	wise	वाइज़	बुद्धिमान
milk	मिल्क	दूध	milch	मिल्च	दुधारू

(iv) संज्ञा शब्दों से क्रिया-शब्द बनाना—

संज्ञा	उच्चारण	अर्थ	क्रिया	उच्चारण	अर्थ
blood	ब्लड	रक्त	bleed	ब्लीड	रक्त बहना
gold	गोल्ड	सोना	gild	गिल्ड	सोना चढ़ाना
tale	टेल	कथा, कहानी	tell	टैल	कहना
food	फ़ूड	भोजन	feed	फीड	भोजन खिलाना
wreath	रीथ	माला	wreathe	रीद	माला पहनाना
cloth	क्लॉथ	कपड़ा	clothe	क्लोद्	कपड़ा पहनना
bath	बाथ	स्नान	bathe	बेद्	स्नान करना
breath	ब्रैथ	सांस	breathe	ब्रीद्	सांस लेना

(v) विशेषण-शब्दों से क्रिया-शब्द बनाना—

विशेषण	उच्चारण	अर्थ	क्रिया	उच्चारण	अर्थ
full	फुल	पूर्ण	fill	फिल	पूर्ण करना, भरना.
grave	ग्रेव	गंभीर	grieve	ग्रीव	दु:खी होना
frosty	फ्रॉस्टी	पाले से ढका	frost	फ्रॉस्ट	पाला पड़ना
hale	हेल	स्वस्थ	heal	हील	स्वस्थ होना
half	हाफ़	आधा	halve	हाव	दो हिस्से करना
beautiful	बियूटिफुल	सुन्दर	beautify	बियूटीफ़ाइ	सुन्दर बनाना
striking	स्ट्राइकिंग	मोहक	strike	सट्राइक	ध्यान आकर्षित करना
flattering	फ्लैटरिंग	खुशामदी	flatter	फ्लैटर	चापलूसी करना
killing	किलिंग	घातक	kill	किल	हत्या करना
permissible	परमिसिबल	अनुमति योग्य	permit	परमिट	आज्ञा देना
penal	पीनल	दण्डनीय	penalise	पिनलाइस	दण्डित करना

2 . अंग्रेज़ी में ऐंग्लो-सैक्सन, लैटिन और फ्रैंच तथा ग्रीक भाषा के शब्द बहुत अधिक प्रचलित हैं। इसलिए इन शब्दों से इनके अलग-अलग उपसर्ग (prefix) प्रयोग में आते हैं। इनका परिचय प्राप्त कीजिए।

प्रमुख इंगलिश, फ्रैंच, लैटिन तथा ग्रीक उपसर्ग (prefixes)

उपसर्ग	अर्थ	उदाहरण
A-	पर, रहित, परे, हीनता	*a*shore, *a*way, *a*pathy
Ab-	परे, दूर, अलग, अ-	*ab*normal
Ad-	सं-, अधि-,	*ad*here, *ad*vocate
After-	बाद में, पश्चात्	*after*wards, *after*growth
Al-	सर्व-, पूर्ण-	*Al*mighty, *al*most, *al*together
Amphi-	दोनों, द्वय, उभय	*amphi*bious, *amphi*theatre
An-	गैर, बिना	*an*archy
Ana-	पर, ऊपर, पुनः	*ana*lyse, *ana*tomy
Ant-, Anti-,	विरुद्ध, विरोधी, प्रति-	*ant*agonist, *anti*pathy
Ante-	पहले, पूर्व	*ante*cedent, *ante*date, *ante* meridian
Arch-, Archi-	प्रथम, प्रधान, प्रमुख	*arch*bishop, *archi*tect
Auto-	स्व-, आत्म	*auto*vehicle, *auto*biography, *auto*graph
Bi-	दो, दोनों	*bi*nocular, *bi*lingual, *bi*centenary
By-	उप-	*by*election, *by*name, *by*law, *by*path, *by*product
Circum-	गोलाकार वस्तु के संदर्भ में	*circum*ference, *circum*navigation, *circum*scribe
Circu-	चारों ओर	*circu*s, *circu*lar, *circu*it
Contra-	विरुद्ध, विरोधी, प्रति-	*contra*dict, *contra*band
Counter-		*counter*act, *counter*balance, *counter*feit, *counter*foil
Contro-		*contro*versy, *contro*vert
De-	नीचे, अप, अव-	*de*scend, *de*fame, *de*crease
Demi-	आधे, अर्ध-	*demi*god, *demi*structure
Dia-	द्वारा	*dia*logue, *dia*meter
Dis-	विपरीत या नकारात्मक अर्थ में	*dis*order, *dis*obey, *dis*grace
E-	फ्रेंच मूल का एक उपसर्ग जो विशेष ध्वन्यात्मक प्रभाव पैदा करता है	*e*state, *e*squire, *e*special
Em-, En-	में, के अंदर	*em*bark, *en*list
Epi-,	ऊपर, पर	*epi*taph, *epi*logue, *epi*dermis
Ex-,	पूर्व-, पृथक, बाहर	*ex*-student, *ex*-minister, *ex*clude
Extra-	अतिरिक्त	*extra*ordinary, *extra*judicial
Fore-	पूर्व-, अग्र, भविष्य	*fore*see, *fore*warn, *fore*word, *fore*thought
Gain-	विरुद्ध	*gainsay*

Hetero-	वि-, कु-, खराब अर्थ में	*hetero*dox, *hetero*geneous,
Homo-	नर-, मनुष्य-, सम-	*homo*geneous, *homo*sexual
Homoeo-	समान, जैसा	*homoeo*pathy
Hyper-	अतिरिक्त, अधिक	*hyper*sensitivity, *hyper*tension
In-	नहीं, में	*in*convenience, *in*clude, *in*ward
Inter-, Intro-	अंतर-, मध्य में	*inter*national, *inter*continent, *intro*duce
Mal-, Male-	बुरा, खराब, कु-	*mal*treatment, *mal*content; *male*factor, *male*diction
Mid-	बीच, मध्य	*mid*night, *mid*wife
Mis-	दुर्-, दुस्, बुरा, खराब	*mis*fortune, *mis*use, *mis*behaviour
Non-	नहीं, नकारात्मक, निर्-	*non*sense, *non*payment
Off-	से परे, अलग	*off*shoot, *off*shore
On-	ऊपर, पर	*on*looker
Out	बाहर	*out*side, *out*come, *out*cast
Over-	ऊपर	*over*coat, *over*done, *over*look
Para-	परा-, बाहर,	*para*phrase, *para*-psychology
Post-	बाद, पीछे	*post*dated, *post*script
Pre-	पहले, पूर्व	*pre*arrange, *pre*caution, *pre*dict
Re-	पुनः, दोबारा,	*re*set, *re*sound, *re*tract, *re*arrange
Sub-	उप-	*sub*-heading, *sub*-editor, *sub*branch
Super-,	अति-, अधि-	*super*natural, *super*power, *super*man
'Sur	अति, अधि	surpass, surcharge, surplus
Tele-	दूर-	*tele*phone, *tele*vision, *tele*graph
Trans-	परे, पार	*trans*form, *trans*port
Un-	विपरीत या विरोधी अर्थ में	*un*wise, *un*ripe, *un*able
Vice-	उप-	*Vice*-chancellor, *vice*-principal
We.	अच्छा, सु-	*wel*come, *wel*done, *wel*fare
With	पीछे	*with*stand, *with*draw.

3 . उपसर्गों की तरह अंग्रेज़ी में ऐंग्लो-सैक्सन, लैटिन, फ्रैंच और ग्रीक के प्रत्यय (suffixes) भी प्रयोग में आते हैं। इनका परिचय भी प्राप्त कीजिए।

प्रमुख इंगलिश, फ्रैंच, लैटिन तथा ग्रीक प्रत्यय (suffixes)

प्रत्यय	अर्थ तथा व्याख्या	उदाहरण
-able, -ible	के योग्य (संस्कृत के 'अनीयर' प्रत्यय के समकक्ष, आदर + अनीयर् = आदरणीय)	respect*able*, port*able*, service*able*, resist*ible*, revers*ible*
-acy	की अवस्था यह दोनों प्रत्यय भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने में	suprem*acy*
-age	कीं अवस्था प्रयोग किए जाते हैं	bond*age*
-archy	-तंत्र, -शासन	hier*archy*, mon*archy*
-ary	इस प्रत्यय से विशेषण और संज्ञावाचक शब्द बनते हैं	arbitr*ary*, diction*ary*, exempl*ary*

-cide	-हत्या, हत्यारा	geno*cide*, homi*cide*
-cracy	-तंत्र (यह प्रत्यय ग्रीक भाषा की धातुओं में जोड़ा जाता है)	demo*cracy*, pluto*cracy*
-craft	-कला, -कौशल	wood*craft*, book*craft*
-crat	किसी तंत्र का समर्थक या सदस्य	demo*crat*, pluto*crat*, bureau*crat*
-cule	छोटा या छोटेपन का सूचक	mole*cule*, animal*cule*
-dom	श्रेणी, अवस्था, क्षेत्र का द्योतक	free*dom*, king*dom*, bore*dom*
-ed	-संज्ञा को विशेषण बनाने वाला प्रत्यय	tail*ed*, feather*ed*
-ee	कर्मवाची (passive voice) संज्ञा बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है	trust*ee*, employ*ee*, pay*ee*
-en	(i) छोटेपन का अर्थ देने वाला	chick*en*
	(ii) स्त्रीलिंग का अर्थ देने वाला	vix*en*
	(iii) बहुवचन का अर्थ देने वाला	ox*en*
	(iv) संज्ञा शब्दों को विशेषण बनाने वाला	gold*en*, wood*en*
	(v) विशेषण शब्दों को क्रिया बनाने वाला	deep*en*, moist*en*
-er, -or	(i) क्रियाओं से संज्ञा बनाने वाला	preach*er*, teach*er*, sail*or*
	(ii) तुलनात्मक विशेषण बनाने वाला	great*er*, big*ger*
-ess	स्त्रीबोधक संज्ञाओं में	prin*cess*, govern*ess*
-et	कर्ता कारक बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है	proph*et*, po*et*
-ette	लघुतासूचक, प्राचीन अंग्रेज़ी शब्दों में	cigar*ette*
-fold	-गुना, संख्यावाची शब्दों में जोड़ा जाता है	mani*fold*, four*fold*, ten*fold*
-ful	-वाला, -युक्त, -पूर्ण	delight*ful*, cheer*ful*, grace*ful*
-hood	अवस्था का द्योतक	child*hood*, boy*hood*
-ian	व्यक्तिवाचक संज्ञाओं से विशेषण बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है	Christ*ian* , Arab*ian*, Ind*ian*
-il	विशेषण बनाने वाला	civ*il*, utens*il*
-ing	(i) रहे, रहा, रही = continuous tense की क्रिया में	kill*ing*, read*ing*
	(ii) क्रियात्मक संज्ञाएं बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है,	(mass) killing
-ion	यह प्रत्यय भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है,	relig*ion* , tens*ion*, opin*ion*
-ise	संज्ञा बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है	franch*ise*, exerc*ise*
-ish	संज्ञा शब्दों से विशेषण बनाने में प्रयुक्त होता है,	blu*ish*, child*ish*, boy*ish*
-ism	(i) विशेष आचरण व दशा का सूचक	ego*ism*, hero*ism*
	(ii) -वाद	Commun*ism*, Capital*ism*, Naz*ism*
-ist	(i) कर्ता व करने वाले के अर्थ में	novel*ist*, art*ist*
	(ii) -वादी, -विचारधारा का अनुयायी	Commun*ist*, impression*ist*
-ite	'संबंधित' के अर्थ में, हीनताबोधक	Israel*ite*
-ive	प्रवृति का बोध करने वाला	act*ive*, pass*ive*
-kin	लघुता के अर्थ में	lamb*kin*
-ling	लघुता के अर्थ में	duck*ling*
-less	-रहित या बिना	guilt*less*, home*less*
-let	लघुता के अर्थ में	leaf*let*
-ly	-के जैसा, -की तरह, विशेषताबोधक	home*ly*, man*ly* wicked*ly*
-ment	क्रिया शब्दों से संज्ञा बनाने में	establish*ment*, nourish*ment*
-most	चरम स्थिति का सूचक	top*most*, super*most*, inner*most*

-ness	विशेषणों से भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने में	good*ness*, kind*ness*, sweet*ness*
-ock	लघुता के अर्थ में	bull*ock*, hill*ock*
-ouo	-बहुल, -आत्मक, -युक्त, -सहित	religi*ous*, glori*ous*
-red	(की) अवस्था	hat*red*
-right	बिलकुल, पूरी तरह के अर्थ में	out*right*
-ry	किसी कार्य या क्रिया के परिणाम का बोध	poet*ry*, slav*ery*
-se	विशेषण से सकर्मक क्रिया बनाने हेतु	(clean से) clean*se*
-ship	भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने में	friend*ship*, hard*ship*
-some	संज्ञा व क्रिया शब्दों से विशेषण बनाने में	whole*some*, hand*some*, trouble*some*
-th	(i) संज्ञा शब्दों में भौतिक अवस्था का ज्ञान	streng*th*, bread*th*
	(ii) संख्याओं के साथ 'वां' के अर्थ में	ten*th*, four*th*
-tor	क्रियाओं से कर्तावाचक संज्ञा बनाने वाला	conduc*tor*, crea*tor*, trai*tor*
-ty	भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने वाला	digni*ty*, prior*ity*, senior*ity*
-ule	लघुता के अर्थ में	glob*ule*, gran*ule*, pust*ule*
-ward	ओर, की ओर	way*ward*, home*ward*
-way	अवस्था, स्थिति या दिशा सूचक	straight*way*
-y	(i) भाववाचक संज्ञा बनाने में	family, memory
	(ii) -युक्त, -सहित, विशेषण बनाने में	mighty, dirty
	(iii) संज्ञा के अर्थ में	army, deputy, treaty

4 . संयुक्त शब्द (Compound Words) —संयुक्त शब्द कई प्रकार के होते हैं— (a) संयुक्त संज्ञा शब्द, (b) संयुक्त विशेषण शब्द और (c) संयुक्त क्रिया शब्द।

(a) संयुक्त संज्ञा शब्द (Compound nouns)

(i) संज्ञा से पूर्व संज्ञा मिलाने से संयुक्त संज्ञा शब्द बनते हैं, उदाहरणस्वरूप—

दो शब्द	संयुक्त शब्द	अर्थ
foot + path	foot-path	पगडंडी
mother + land	mother-land	मातृभूमि
fountain + pen	fountain-pen	बिना डुबाए चलने वाला पेन
sun + beam	sun-beam	सूर्य की किरण
sun + shade	sun-shade	धूप से बचने के लिए छप्पर

(ii)संज्ञा से पूर्व संज्ञा को छोड़कर अन्य शब्द मिलाने से नए संयुक्त शब्द बनते हैं, जैसे—

दो शब्द	संयुक्त शब्द	अर्थ
he + goat	he-goat	बकरा
she + wolf	she-wolf	मादा भेड़िया
blotting + paper	blotting-paper	स्याही चूस
looking + glass	looking-glass	दर्पण,
spend + thrift	spend-thrift	मितव्ययी
mid + day	mid-day	दोपहर, मध्यान्ह
gentle + man	gentle-man	सज्जन

(b) संयुक्त विशेषण शब्द (Adjectives)

दो शब्द	संयुक्त शब्द	अर्थ
child + like	child-like	बच्चे की तरह
life + long	life-long	जीवन पर्यन्त
home + made	home-made	घर की बनी
out + spread	out-spread	बाहर फैली हुई
out + come	out-come	नतीजा
bare + foot	bare-foot	नंगे पांव

(c) संयुक्त क्रिया शब्द (Compound Verbs)

दो शब्द	संयुक्त शब्द	अर्थ
back + bite	back-bite	चुगलखोरी करना
full + fill	ful-fil	पूरा करना
put + on	put-on *	पहनना
switch + off	switch-off *	बिजली बुझाना
switch + on	switch-on *	बिजली जलाना,

TWO-WORDS VERBS

(A)

Act for — किसी के बदले उसके स्थान पर कार्य करना
The senior clerk was asked to act for head clerk when he went on leave .

Act upon— 1. प्रभावित करना
Heat acts upon bodies and causes them to expand .
2 . भरोसा रखना, भरोसा रखकर कार्यवाही करना
Acting upon a witness' evidence the police caught the thief .

Agree with — उपयुक्त, योग्य होना
Oil does not agree with my stomach .

Answer for — जिम्मेदार होना
Every man must answer for his actions to God .

Ask after — किसी व्यक्ति के बारे में पूछताछ करना
He was asking after you when I met him this morning .

Ask for — मांग लेना
You can ask for anything you need .

Attend on — सेवा, सत्कार करना
Acting as a good hostess she attended on her guests well .

(B)

Back out —दिए हुए वचन से मुकर जाना
He had promised me two hundred rupees but later he backed out from his words .

Back up — सहमत होना, सहमति देना
Let us all back up his demands .

Be off — चले जाना
I'll be off to the railway station now .

Be on — चालू, घटित होना
The concert will be on till nine p.m .
Be over — समाप्त होना
After the picture is over we will go home .
Be up— 1. समाप्त होना (समय)
Time is going to be up . hand over your answer copies .
2 . बिस्तर से उठना
He will be up at five in the morning .
Bear down — जबर्दस्ती उखाड़ फेंकना या दबा देना
The dictator bore down all opposition. The president bore down all dissent .
Bear on — साथ संबंधित होना
Does this book bear on the same subject as that ?
Bear out — साबित करना, आधार देना
If the evidence bears out the charge, Mahesh will be convicted for armed robbery .
Bear with — बर्दाश्त करना
It is very difficult to bear with Rani's bad temper .
Beat back —पीछे हटना
The flames beat back the firemen .
Beat off — हमले का डटकर मुकाबला करना और हमलावर को पीछे हटाना
In the battle of Waterloo the British beat off Napoleon .
Believe in —विश्वास करना
I do not believe in astrology .
Bid fair — अच्छी संभावना होना
His coaching has been so good that he bids fair to win the race .
Bind over —कानूनी बंधन रखना
The man was bound over by the court not to indulge in any criminal activity for at least six months .
Blow down —तूफान से गिरना
The storm last night blew down many big trees .
Blow out —बुझाना
On her birthday she blew out fifteen candles on her cake .
Blow over — नुकसान न करते हुए चले जाना अथवा खत्म होना
We hope that this crisis will blow over and be forgotten .
Blow up — 1 . विस्फोट करना/होना

The retreating army blew up all the bridges .
2 . अचानक गुस्सा होना
I did not understand why he blew up at my answer .

Border upon — निकट होना
His ranting bordered upon madness .

Break away — अपने को बंधन से छुड़ाकर भागना
The horseman tried to hold the horse by the bridle, but the horse broke away .

Break down — 1 . (यंत्र का) खराबी के कारण बन्द पड़ना, रूकना
Our car broke down on the way to Agra .
2 . भावना के उद्वेग से रो पड़ना
She broke down at his departure .
3 . विश्लेषण करना, अलग-अलग सूची बनाना
If you break down the figures you will find out your mistake .

Break in— 1. (घोड़े को) सिखाना
How much time will you need to break in this horse ?
2 . (दरवाज़ा आदि) जबर्दस्ती खोलना
We had to break in the room when there was no response from her .

Break into — चोरी से अथवा जबर्दस्ती अन्दर घुसना
The thieves broke into the bank and stole the money from its lockers .

Break loose— 1 . खुल जाना, बंधन टूटना
During the storm the boat broke loose from its anchor and was washed away by strong current .
2 . भागना
The buffalo broke loose the rope and ran away .

Break off — अचानक रुकना, खत्म करना
She was saying something, but broke off as she saw him .

Break out — अचानक आरम्भ होना
No one could tell the police how the fire broke out .

Break up— 1 . लड़ाई-झगड़ा रोकना
He intervened to break up the quarrel .
2 . तितर-बितर होना, करना
The police resorted to a lathi-charge to break up the crowd .

Break off — मैत्री टूटना/तोड़ना
Vijay and Arun were close friends, but they seem to have

broken off now .

Bring about — बनाना, घटित करना

The new government brought about many reforms .

Bring forward — प्रस्ताव रखना

The proposal he brought forward did not seem practical .

Bring in — इकट्ठा करना, बिक्री से कमाना

How much does your monthly sale bring in ?

Bring off — कठिन एंव अनपेक्षित कार्य सम्पन्न कर दिखाना

The touring Indian cricket team in England brought off a spectacular victory .

Bring on — पैदा करना

Dirt often brings on diseases .

Bring out — बाहर निकालना

War brings out the worst in people .

Bring to — सचेतन करना, होश में लाना

The unconscious man was brought to consciousness by a passer-by through artificial respiration .

Bring under — दबाना, ऊपर अधिकार जमाना

The king brought under the rebels and established peace in his kingdom .

Bring up — (बच्चे का) लालन-पालन करना

Anil was brought up by his uncle .

Brush off — अशिष्टता से किसी को चलता करना

As he became irritating she had to brush him off .

Buckle to — काम में जुट जाना

With his examinations round the corner Ramesh has to buckle to at once .

Build up — बढ़ाना, मजबूत करना

You need a good tonic to build up your strength after your recent illness .

Burn down — जलकर नष्ट होना या करना

The house was completely burnt down in the great fire in the city .

(C)

Call at— 1 . घर पर मिलने जाना

I called at my friend’s place to inquire about his health .

2 . रुकना
This ship does not call at Cochin .

Call for— 1 . लेने के लिए आना
The washerman called for the wash .

Correspond to — समान दिखना
The bird’s wing corresponds to the man’s arm .

Cry out — चिल्लाना
She cried out for help when she saw a car speeding towards her child .

Count in — समाविष्ट करना
If you are planning to make a trip to Simla you can count me in .

Count on — भरोसा रखना
You can always count on my help .

Count out — समाविष्ट न करना
If you are planning any mischief, please count me out .

Cover for — दूसरे के काम की ज़िम्मेदारी लेना
Go and take your coffee break, I’ll cover for you until you return .

Cross out — काट देना, निकाल देना
She crossed out his name from invitees’ list .

Cut down — मात्रा कम करना
If you want to reduce your weight you must cut down on starchy and oily food .

Cut in — बीच में बोल पड़ना
Don’t cut in while I am speaking to someone .

Cut off — बीच में रोकना, रोक लगाना
Our army cut off the enemy’s escape route .

Cut out — निकाल देना
You can safely cut out the last paragraph of this article .

Cut short — समय से पहले समाप्त करना
The meeting was cut short as the chief speaker suddenly fell ill .

Cut up— 1 . दु:खी होना
He was greatly cut up by his failure in the examination .
2 . सख्त आलोचना करना, छोटा करना
The reviewers mercilessly cut up his autobiographical novel .

(D)

Dash off— 1 . कहीं जल्दी से जाना
The horse dashed off down the street .
2 . जल्दी में लिखना
He dashed off three letters in half an hour .

Dawn on— समझ में आना
It only later dawned on me that he was all this while pulling my leg .

Deal in — व्यापार करना
My friend deals in ready-made garments .

Deal out — बांटना
Justice Ram Nath Bajaj of Delhi High Court is famous for dealing out equal justice to all .

Deal with— 1 . किसी के साथ व्यापार करना
I've had bad experience with him. I won't deal with him any further .
2 . संबंधित होना
This book deals with foreign policy matters .

Deliver from — बचाना
Oh God , deliver us from evil !

Die away — कम होना, खत्म होना
After a while the sounds died away .

Die down — कम होना, खत्म होना
After a while the noise died down .

Die off— नष्ट होना
As the civilisation advanced, many backward tribes died off .

Die out — नष्ट होना
As the night advanced the fire died out .

Dip into — किसी पुस्तक के इधर-उधर के पृष्ठ पढ़ना, निकालना
I have not read this book; I have only dipped into it./ I had to dip into my savings to buy a motor cycle .

Dish out — आसानी से प्रशंसा, निंदा या आलोचना करना, निकालना
The flattery he dishes out would turn anyone's head./Everybody, please dish out Rs. 10 each for this trip .

Dispense with — किसी व्यक्ति के बिना काम चलाना
You can easily dispense with his services .

Dispose of — बेच देना

The rich man disposed of all his property and became a sadhu .

Do for — किसी वस्तु के स्थान पर काम आना

This plot of land is fairly large and will do for a playground .

Do over — फिर से करना

You will have to do over this sum, as you have made a mistake .

Do up — कमरा ठीक-ठाक करना

If you do up this place it will look beautiful .

Do without — किसी चीज़ के बिना काम चलाना

We will have to do without many facilities at this village .

Draw back — पीछे हटना, मुकर जाना

I cannot draw back from my promise .

Draw in — अंदर की तरफ ले लेना

The cat drew in its paws and curled up on the floor .

Draw near — पास आना

As winter draws near , people start wearing woollen clothes .

Draw on — नज़दीक आना

As the time of the concert drew on the audience got anxious .

Draw out — किसी को अपना विचार देने के लिए तैयार करना

He was reluctant to comment on Anil’s behaviour, but in the end I managed to draw him out .

Draw toward — किसी के प्रति आकर्षित होना

Kumar finds Asha very charming and feels drawn towards her .

Draw up —तैयार करना, बनाना

Let us draw up a list of all the people we want to invite .

Drive at — लक्ष्य करना

I listened to his rambling talk and could not make out what he was driving at .

Drop in — यूं ही मिलना

I dropped in on Prakash on my way to market .

Drop out — छोड़ देना

Arun dropped out of the medical course as he found it very laborious .

Dwell on — किसी बात पर अधिक देर तक बोलना

In his speech he dwelt on the importance of prompt action .

(E)

Eat into — ज़ंग खाना, ज़ंग से कट जाना
Rust eats into iron .

Egg on— प्रोत्साहित करना (साधारणतया बुरे काम के लिए)
He is a well-behaved boy, but he was egged on by Kumar to fight with Ashok .

Enlarge upon — किसी विषय पर लंबा व्याख्यान देना
The lawyer enlarged upon this part of the evidence and treated it as of great importance .

Explain away — बहाना बनाना, झूठमूठ विवरण देना
Although he was at fault yet he tried to explain away his mistake .

(F)

Fall back — पीछे हटना
When our army charged, the enemy fell back .

Fall behind — पिछड़ना, प्रगति न करना
On account of a prolonged illness, she fell behind in her studies .

Fall flat— यशस्वी या आकर्षक न होना
Although she is an accomplished dancer her performance last week fell flat .

Fall for — आकर्षित होना
Usha fell for the pretty sari displayed in a window shop .

Fall in — कतार में खड़े
The captain ordered the soldiers to fall in .

Fall off— कम होना
On account of the heavy snowfall, attendance at the evening class has fallen off considerably .

Fall on — हमला करना
The angry mob fell on the running thief .

Fall out — झगड़ा करना
Anil and Sunil were good friends, but now they seem to have fallen out .

Fall through — किसी काम का अधूरा या असफल रहना

We had been planning to go to Nainital this summer but for want of money the programme fell through .

Fall under — समाविष्ट होना

This entire district falls under my jurisdiction .

Feel for — सहानुभूति रखना

I deeply feel for you in your suffering .

Feel like— इच्छा होना

I feel like taking a long walk .

Figure on— अंदाजा लगाना, अपेक्षा करना

I had figured on your attending the meeting .

Figure out— समझना, अर्थ लगाना, सुलझाना

His lecture was long and boring and I couldn't figure out what he was driving at .

Figure up — हिसाब या अंदाज़ लगाना

Have you figured up the cost of this entire project ?

Fill in — किसी दूसरे ही जगह लेना

As the principal was on leave, the vice-principal filled in for him .

Fill out — फार्म भरना

For the marketing management examination the candidates had to fill out several forms .

Fit out — सामान को सजाना

Today, she is very busy fitting out her house for the big party .

Fix up — मरम्मत करना

We decided to fix up the old house ourselves .

Flare up — अचानक क्रोध करना

It is immature to flare up on trifles .

Fly at — अचानक क्रोध प्रकट करना

I asked him to lend me five rupees and at once he flew at me .

Fly off — जल्दी करना

He was slightly late so he flew off to the railway station in the hope of catching the train .

Fly open — ज़ोर से खुलना

Suddenly the door flew open and he ran out .

Fly out — जल्दी में बाहर भागना

As the fire spread all the people flew out of the burning house .

Follow suit — अनुकरण करना

She asked the speaker a probing question and gradually everyone followed the suit .

Fool around — हंसी मज़ाक करना

Stop fooling around and get to work .

Fool away — व्यर्थ गंवा देना

Don’t fool away your time like this .

Front for — अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से किसी का प्रतिनिधित्व करना

The chairman is the real boss in this company but the general manager fronts for him .

(G)

Get about — घूमना, इधर-उधर जाना

For last two months he was bedridden on account of typhoid. Now, he is getting about again .

Get across — समझाना

At last I was able to get across my point .

Get ahead — प्रति करना, आगे बढ़ना, आगे निकल जाना

Unless you work hard how will you get ahead of others in studies ?

Get along — घुल मिलकर रहना, दोस्ती रखना

She is highly sociable and can get along with everybody .

2 . प्रगति करना

How is Mr. Rao getting along in his new job ?

Get around — टालना

He tried to get around the policeman’s inquiries .

Get at — प्रयास से प्राप्त करना

Our enquiry’s object is to get at the truth .

Get away — निकल कर भागना

Despite vigilance of the policeman the thief got away .

Get back — वापस आना

He has just got back from his tour after two months .

Get by — प्रयासपूर्वक करना

You will have to somehow get by with this work .

Get down — किसी सवारी से उतरना, शुरू करना

Let us get down at the next stop.
The exams are approaching fast. Let’s get down to studies .

Get off — बस या मोटर गाड़ी से उतरना
We have to get off the bus at the next stop .

Get on— 1 . बस या गाड़ी पर सवार होना
I saw him get on to the bus at the last stop .
2 . प्रगति करना
Ashok is quite industrious and sure to get on in the world .

Get over — किसी बीमारी से मुक्त होना
Have you got over your cold ?

Get round — किसी व्यक्ति को खुशामद से राज़ी करना
I’m sure he’ll somehow get round the money lender for a loan .

Get througt — पूरा करना
When will you get through with your work ?

Get to — पहुंचना
Balrampur is a remote village in Madhya Pradesh and very difficult to get to .

Get up — बिस्तर अथवा कुर्सी से उठ बैठना
He got up from his seat to receive me .

Give away— 1 . बांटना
The chief guest gave away the prizes .
2 . रहस्य खोलना
He gave away Ram’s name as he had drawn teacher’s cartoon .

Give in — हार मानना
He knew he was losing the match, but he refused to give in .

Give off— बाहर फेंकना
Some gases give off a pungent smell .

Give out — ज़ाहिर करना
He gave out that he had got nominated on the Welfare Board .

Give up — हार मानना
When he realised that he would not be able to win the race, he gave up .

Give way — टूट पड़ना
Ashok kept on kicking the door vigorously and finally it gave

way .

Gloss over — दोष छिपाना

In Ram Chandra’s biography the writer has glossed over many of his shortcomings .

Go around — पर्याप्त होना

I am afraid we do not have enough chairs to go around .

Go back — मुकर जाना

He promised to lend me his history notes but now he has gone back on his word .

Go down — विश्वास करना

Yours story is highly unconvincing and will not go down with the authorities .

Go for — हमला करना

The boys went for the poor dog with stone .

Go off — धमाके से फूटना या उड़ना

The Gun went off with a loud bang .

Go on— 1 . बनना, घटित होना

What’s going on here ?

2 . जारी रखना

Java went on reading and did not pay attention to her friends .

Go out — बुझना

The lights went out as Sanjeev entered the room .

Go over — स्मरण करना

I went over the events of the day as I lay in bed at night. Go over this chapter again and again until you have learnt it thoroughly .

Go through — तकलीफ उठाना, सहन करना

You will never know what she went through to give her children good education .

Go upon — किसी आधार पर चलना

Is this the principle you always go upon ?

Go with — मेल खाना

A blue cardigan will not go with a green sari .

Go without — किसी चीज़ के बिना काम चलाना

How long can you go without food ?

Go wrong — खराब होना

What has gone wrong with your car ?

Grow upon — आदत लगाना

The habit of taking drugs is growing upon college boys .

(H)

Hand down — न्यायालय में सज़ा सुनाना

The judge handed down his verdict in the case .

Hand in — दे देना

Time is up, please hand in the answer books .

Hand out — बांटना

The examiner handed out the question papers to the candidates .

Hand over — सौंपना

The retiring sales engineer handed over the charge to the new engineer .

Hang about — किसी स्थान के इर्द-गिर्द घूमना

A suspicious-looking man was seen hanging about the house last night .

Hang around — बिना काम के किसी व्यक्ति या स्थान के इर्द-गिर्द घूमना

I have often seen him hanging around her house .

Hang back — पीछे रहना

I asked him to receive the chief guest, but he hung back .

Hang on — लटकना, लटके रहना

Hang on to the rope lest you should fall down .

Hang up — टेलीफोन नीचे रख देना

I rang him up but as soon as he heard my voice he hung up .

Hang upon — ध्यान से सुनना

The audience hung upon every word of the distinguished speaker .

Happen on — अचानक दिखना

During my Himalayan trek I happened on a tiger in a forest .

Have on — पहने हुए होना

What sari did she have on when you saw her ?

Hear of — पता चलना

Have you heard of the bus accident at Okhla in which ten persons got killed .

Hit upon — संयोग से पता चला

To begin with I tried quite a bit and finally by sheer luck I hit upon the right solution .

Hold forth— लंबा-चौड़ा भाषण देना

He held forth on his favourite topic for one full hour .

Hold good — चालू रहना

The promise I made you last week still holds good .

Hold off — कोई निर्णय करने में देर लगाना

Everybody in the office is wondering why Mr. Rao is holding off his decision ?

Hold on— कस कर पकड़ रखना

Hold on to the rope, lest you should fall down .

Hold out — प्रतिकार जारी रखना

Despite massive strength of the enemies our soldiers held out to the last .

Hold over — देर लगाना

In view of the fresh evidence available the judge has decided to hold over the case till the next month .

Hold still — स्थिर रहना

How can I take your photograph if you do not hold still ?

Hold together —एकत्र रहना

This chair is so rickety that it will not hold together if you sit in it .

Hold true— सत्य होना

Newton’s Law of Gravitation will always hold true on earth .

Hold up — 1 . देर लगाना, रोक देना

Your late arrival has held up the work .

2 . डाका डालना

Two armed robbers held up the bank staff .

Hunt for — ढूंढना

What were you hunting for in the newspaper ?

Hunt up — प्रयासपूर्वक ढूंढना

I am hunting up material for my new book on politicking in India .

(I)

Inquire after— कुशल पूछना

Since last week Ashok had not been feeling well so I went to

his place to inquire after him .

Introduce into — नई चीज़ बीच में लाना

He introduced into the debate a fresh approach .

Issue from — किसी स्थान या वस्तु से बाहर निकलना

Water issued from a small crack in the stream .

(J)

Join in — सम्मिलित होना, हिस्सा लेना

At first he kept aloof from our games, but later joined in .

Join with— बांट लेना

I'll join with you in the expenses of the trip .

Join up — सेना में भर्ती होना

When the war was declared the government appealed to all young men to join up .

Jump at— उत्सुकता से स्वीकारना

When I suggested that we could go for picnic tomorrow he jumped at the proposal .

Jump to — जल्दबाजी में निष्कर्ष निकालना

Don't be hasty in judging him and jumping to the conclusion that he is hostile to you .

(K)

Keep at — करते रहना

If he only keeps at his work, he will soon finish with it .

Keep back — छुपाना

I won't keep back anything from you .

Keep away — दूर रहना

We should advise our children to keep away from bad company .

Keep house — घर संभालना

He wants his wife only to keep house and not work in an office .

Keep off — दूर रखना

The curtains will keep off the mosquitoes .

Keep on — जारी रखना, चलते रखना

It was a long journey and he was tired, but he kept on going .

Keep out — बाहर रखना

The woollen cloths are warm enough to keep out the cold .

Keep to— 1 . जारी रखना, करते रहना

Unless you keep to the job you are doing, you will never be able to finish with it .

2 . वचन का निर्वाह करना

You must learn to keep to your word .

Keep together— साथ-साथ रहना

I asked my children to keep together in the crowd .

Keep up — गति बनाये रखना

India must keep up with the development and progress in the world of science .

Knock down — नीचे गिराना

The boxer struck his opponent a heavy blow and knocked him down .

Knock off — काम बंद करना

He did not take long to knock off the work .

Knock out — पूरी तरह से हारना, बेसुध करना

A heavy blow on the nose by his opponent knocked out the boxer .

Knuckle under — हार मानना

We thought it would be a tough bout, but it was not long before one of the boxers was knuckling under .

(L)

Lay about — चारों ओर से पिटाई करना

As the watchman spotted a man stealing watches from a shop he laid about him with his cane .

Lay down — त्याग पत्र देना

After ten long years he laid down the chairmanship of the company .

Lay off —कुछ समय के लिए काम से निकाल देना

If the sales continue to fall like this we may have to lay off one or two people .

Lay on — ज़ोर से पिटाई करना

Taking up a stick he caught the mischievous boy and laid on vigorously .

Lay open — राज खोलना

I shall not rest till I've laid open the whole conspiracy .

Lay out — रचना करना

The garden was laid out by an expert .

Lay up — भविष्य में प्रयोग में लाने के लिए इकट्ठा करना

The squirrel was busy laying up nuts .

Leave alone— साथ छोड़ना

How can you leave me alone in my hard times ?

Leave out — छोड़ देना

It will be unfair to leave him out of the picnic programme .

Let down — निराश करना, धोखा देना

I was counting on your help, but you let me down .

Let off — छोड़ देना

You must prepare hard. Interviewers won't let you off so easily

Let on — बता देना

Don't let on to Dev that we are going to a movie tonight .

Let out — किराये पर देना

As I am hard up nowadays I had to let out a portion of my house .

Let up— कम होना

If the rain lets up we will go to the market .

Light on — संयोग से पता चलना

While wandering in the jungle the boys suddenly lighted on a secret cave .

Live on — किसी चीज़ पर निर्वाह करना

Squirrels live on nuts .

Look after — संभालना, ध्यान देना

Will you please look after the house in my absence ?

Look for —ढूंढना

I looked for my lost watch everywhere in the house, but couldn't find it .

Look in — यूं ही थोड़े समय के लिए मिलने जाना

Do look in after dinner if you are free .

Look into — जांच करना

Have the police looked into the matter relating to theft at your house .

Look out— सावधान रहना

Look out there is a car coming .

Look over — जांच अथवा मूल्यांकन करना

The examiner was looking over the students' answer papers .

Look up — 1 . अर्थ या संदर्भ ढूंढना

Suresh looked up the word in the dictionary as he did not know its meaning .

2 . बढ़ना

Prices of cooking oil are looking up .

(M)

Make after — पीछे दौड़ना

The policemen made after the thief very fast .

Make believe — विश्वास करने के लिए भूमिका बनाना

Arun made believe that he was sick to take a leave from school .

Make clear — समझाना, विवरण देना

The teacher made clear to me my mistake .

Make faces — मुंह टेढ़ा करके दिखाना

Stop making faces at me .

Make for — किसी तरफ जाना

The thief entered the house and made for the safe .

Make good — पदोन्नति होना

Being a hard worker he is sure to make good in that new job .

Make of— समझ पाना I cannot make anything of this statement .

Make merry— मौज मनाना

As we have now an unexpected holiday, so let us make merry .

Make out — कठिनाई से समझ पाना

Can you make out his handwriting ?

Make over — 1 . सुपुर्द करना

He has made over all his property to his son .

2 . मरम्मत करना

She is an efficient housewife and makes over all her old clothes .

Make room — जगह बनाना

I cannot make room for anything more in this trunk .

Make sense— सार्थक होना

How can you be so foolish in dealing with your clients? It doen’t make sense to me .

Make towards — किसी तरफ जाना

The swimmer made towards the right bank of the river .

Make up — बनाना, रचना, गढ़ना

Don’t make up such silly excuses for your absence yesterday .

Make way — रास्ता देना

The crowd hurriedly made way for the leader as he arrived .

Mix up -गडबड़ घोटाला करना

As they were introduced to me in a hurry I mixed up their names and called him by the wrong name .

(O)

Occur to — विचार में आना

As I always considered him an honest person it never occurred to me that he was lying .

Offend against — अशोभनीय लगना

There was nothing in his speech to offend against good taste .

(P)

Pack off— जल्दी में चलता कर देना

As he was getting on my nevers I packed him off .

Palm off — ठगना

He tried to palm off a forged hundred-rupee note on me .

Part with — दे देना

Nobody likes to part with one’s property .

Pass away — मरना

Kumar’s father passed away yesterday .

Pass for — समझ लिया जाना

Our villagers being largely illiterate he passes for a learned man in our village .

Pass out — सुध-बुध खोना

She could not bear the sight of accident and passed out .

Pass over — ख्याल न करना

I passed over many candidates before I could choose this one

.

Pay attention — ध्यान देना

The teacher asked the student to pay attention to him .

Pay off — हिसाब चुका कर छुट्टी दे देना

He was not happy with his servant so he paid him off .

Pick on — चिढ़ाना, झगड़ा मोल लेना

The quarrelsome boy always picked on fights with small children .

Pick out — चुनना, पसंद करना

Anil spent a long time picking out a nice gift for Anita .

Pick up— थोड़ा-सा ज्ञान प्राप्त करना

The children don’t take long to pick up what they see around .

Play down — महत्त्व को कम करना

Some newspapers played down the significance of disturbances in Poland .

Play off — एक को दूसरे से भिड़ाना

The crooked man played off the two friends against each other for his own benefit .

Play on — 1 . बजाना

Can you play on a violin ?

2 . शब्दों का होशियारी से प्रयोग करना

His skill to play on words makes him a very forceful speaker .

Play with— छेड़खानी करना

It is dangerous to play with fire .

Prevail over — प्रभावित करना

None of these considerations prevailed over his prejudices .

Prevail with— मनाना

He is a difficult person. So, I found difficult to prevail with him .

Proceed against — किसी के खिलाफ कार्यवाही करना

I have decided to proceed against him in a court of law .

Provide against — किसी बुरे दिन के लिए प्रबंध कर रखना

A wise man takes care to provide against emergencies .

Pull in — आना

The coolies started running towards the train as it pulled in .

Pull out — चले जाना, निकलना

At the guard’s signal the train pulled out of the station .

Pull through — बच जाना

Although he was seriously ill and doctors had given up hope he pulled through .

Pull together — सहमत होना, मिलकर कार्य करना

The partners of Adarsh Enterprise have been fighting together. If they manage to pull together they’ll succeed .

Pull up — रूकना

The taxi pulled up at the entrance of the hotel .

Push off — चल पड़ना

I’m getting quite late so I must push off now .

Push on— कठिनाई से आगे बढ़ना

He was exhausted and ill, but he pushed on .

Put across — समझाना, स्वीकृत कराना

He put across his arguments very eloquently and convincingly .

Put away — किसी सही स्थान पर रख देना

The workmen put away their tools and left the factory .

Put down — दबाना

The army easily put down the revolt .

Put forward — विचारार्थ प्रस्ताव रखना

He put forward his suggestions for our consideration .

Put off — स्थगित करना

The match had to be put off because of bad weather .

Put on— 1 . कपड़े पहनना

She put on her best dress for the party .

2 . दिखाना

Don’t put on as if you don’t know anything .

Put out— 1 . बुझाना

He put out the light and went to sleep .

2 . कष्ट पहुंचाना

You should take care not to put out people by your irresponsible behaviour .

3 . प्रकाशित करना

The party put out a pamphlet to explain its economic policy .

Put right — मरम्मत करना

Ask the carpenter to put right this broken table .

Put together— जोड़ना, इकट्ठा करना
The child took the watch apart, but couldn't put it together again .
Put up — रहना, निवास करना
Where should I put up in Bombay ?

(R)

Rail against — शिकायत, भर्त्सना करना
It is useless railing against your master's orders .
Rail at — शिकायत करना
He has always railed at his parents for not understanding him .
Rake up — पुराना झगड़ा फिर से शुरू करना
Please do not rake up old quarrels at this critical juncture .
Rank with — समान होना
There is scarcely any poet who can rank with Kalidas .
Reason with — तर्क करना, समझाने की कोशिश करना.
I had to reason hard with him for my proposal's acceptance .
Reckon on — भरोसा रखना
I was reckoning on her presence at the function .
Reflect on — बुरा प्रभाव पड़ना
Your misconduct will reflect on your character .
Relate to — संबंधित होना
Please get me the file that relates to this matter .
Resort to — सहायता लेना
As the crowd became unruly the police had to resort to lathi-charge .
Rest on — आधार रखना
His whole theory rests on a wrong assumption .
Ride out — तूफान से बचकर निकलना
Fortunately our ship rode out the storm .
Root out — उखाड़ फेंकना, समूल नष्ट करना
The government is determined to root out corruption .
Rout out — जबर्दस्ती बाहर निकालना I routed him out of bed early in the morning .
Rule out — निकाल देना, न मानना
The police has ruled out the possibility of sabotage in this

train accident ?

Run across — संयोग से मिलना अथवा पाना

I was quite surprised to run across him in the market .

Run after — पीछे दौड़ना

Running after money does not speak well of you .

Run against — चुनाव में खिलाफ खड़ा होना

She ran against her husband in the municipal elections .

Run down — नीचा दिखाना

Certain malicious reviewers will run down even the best book ever written .

Run errands — संदेशा पहुंचाना

Ramesh is of obliging nature and runs errands for all the neighbours .

Run for — चुनाव लड़ना

He ran for presidentship in the college elections .

Run into — 1 . संयोग से मुलाकात होना

I ran into an old friend yesterday at the cinema hall .

2 . अविवेक के कारण मोल लेना

If you spend your money so recklessly you will soon run into debt .

Run out — खत्म होना

We were afraid that we might run out of our food supply at the excursion .

Run over — गाड़ी के नीचे आना

The unlucky dog was run over by a car .

Run short of — समाप्त होना

If we run short of food we will get more from some restaurant .

Run through — जल्दी से देख लेना

I had to run through the book in an hour .

(S)

Search out — ढूंढ निकालना

Our aim in this inquiry is to search out the truth .

See about — प्रबंध करना

I am badly tied up with other things so you will have to see about the catering arrangements at the party .

See off — विदा करना

I went to the airport to see off my friend who left for U.S.A. last night .

See through — 1 . कठिनाइयों के बावजूद संपन्न करना

He saw through the entire job by himself .

2 . भेद जान जाना

He was trying to be clever, but I saw through his trick .

See to — जिम्मेदारी लेना

Will you please see to the catering arrangements for the function ?

Seek out —प्रयासपूर्वक ढूंढ निकालना

Ramesh and Vikas have gone to the nearby wood to seek out the place of rabbits .

Sell out — मलकियत बेच देना

He sold out his business as he could not make a profit .

Send away — किसी को चलता करना

He was becoming a nuisance, so I had to send him away .

Send for — बुला भेजना

She has fallen unconscious. Please send for a doctor immediately .

Send word — संदेश भेजना

He sent word to me that he would come in a week’s time .

Serve out — पूरे समय तक काम करना

The apprentice has served out his period of apprenticeship so he is due for an increment .

Serve up — परोसना

She served up a tasty meal .

Set about — कार्य आरम्भ करना

As your examination is near you should set about your work without delay .

Set apart — सुरक्षित रखना

One day in the week is set apart as the rest day .

Set aside —रद्दो-बदल करना,

The Supreme Court set aside the verdict of the High Court in Bihari Lal case .

Set down — नोट करना

The Magistrate set down in writing the witness statement .

Set forth — प्रस्तुत करना
He set forth his views with clarity and force .
Set in — आरंभ होना
Just as I was about to go out, the rain set in .
Set off — निकल पड़ना
As we have to go a long distance we will set off early in the morning .
Set up — प्रबंध करना
The state government has set up a new auditorium at Mehta Chowk to encourage performing arts .
Set upon — हमला करना
As the poor old beggar approached the corner house two dogs set upon him .
Set out — निकल पड़ना
He set out on his travels .
Set to — कार्य आरंभ करना
You have a lot to do so you should set to work at once .
Settle down — स्थायी रूप से निवास करना
After retirement now I have settled down in Delhi .
Settle on — अनिश्चय के बाद किसी निष्कर्ष पर पहुंचना
Finally, she settled on a blue sari .
Show off — नुमाइश करना
She went to the party as she was quite keen to show off her new dress .
Show up — 1 . आ पहुंचना
I have been waiting for him for more than an hour, but he has not yet shown up .
2 . पोल खोलना
If he provokes me further, I will have to show him up .
Shut in — अंदर बंद रखना
As night came the shepherd shut his flock of sheep in .
Shut off —कोई यंत्र बंद कर देना
There appeared to be some trouble with his car so he shut off its engine .
Shut up — जबर्दस्ती चुप कराना
As the boy was chattering a lot the teacher asked him to shut up .

Side with — पक्ष लेना
No matter what happens I will always side with you .
Sit out — समाप्त होने तक बैठे रहना
I sat out his long lecture .
Sit up — उठ बैठना
The poor old man was too weak to sit up .
Sleep off — सोकर ताज़गी प्राप्त करना
I was exhausted after the day’s work so I decicied to sleep off my fatigue .
Slow down — धीरे-धीरे गति कम करना
The train slowed down as it approached the station .
Smart under — अपमान अथवा दुर्वचन सहना
The clerk was smarting under the officer’s rebuke .
Snap at — उत्सुकता से स्वीकारना
He snapped at the offer I made to him .
Speak up — ज़ोर से बोलना
As the audience could not hear the speaker, it requested him to speak up .
Spell out — विस्तार से बताना
He spelt out his treking plan in detail and asked me to accompany him .
Stamp out — दबा देना
The government tried its best to stamp out the rebellion .
Stand against — प्रतिकार करना
Parashuram was so powerful that no king could stand against him .
Stand by — इंतजार करना
Please stand by for an important announcement .
Stand for — 1 . प्रतिनिधित्व करना
The stars in the American flag stand for fifty states .
2 . चुनाव लड़ना
My uncle stood for chairmanship of the Municipality .
3 . बर्दाश्त करना
I will not stand for such a rude behaviour .
Stand out — ध्यान आकर्षित करना
She stood out in the crowd because of her beauty .
Stand up — सहन करना

How can you stand up to such tremendous pressure of work ?

Start for — चल पड़ना

When did he start for Bombay ?

Stay up — रूके रहना

I had to finish with some work last night so I stayed up till one o’clock .

Stay with — किसी के साथ रहना

When you come to Bombay, please stay with me .

Step down — पद छोड़ना

Next month our company’s president will step down in favour of his son .

Step up — गति बढ़ाना I stepped up the speed of my car .

Stick around — उसी स्थान पर बने रहना

After dinner we requested our guest to stick around for the movie on the TV .

Stick at — हिचकिचाना

He will stick at nothing to fulfil his ends .

Stick by — साथ देना Stick by your friends in their difficulty .

Stick out — बाहर निकालना

I went to the doctor with a stomach complaint and he asked me to stick out my tongue .

Stick to — एक ही बात पर डटे रहना

Despite interrogation.he stuck to his story till the end .

Stir up — उकसाना, उत्तेजित करना

He tried to stir up trouble between the management and the workers .

Stop short — अचानक रूकना

He was talking about Naresh, but suddenly stopped short as he saw him coming .

Strike down — अवैध घोषित करना

The court struck down the government’s ordinance as unconstitutional .

Strike off — सूची से निकाल देना

At the last moment something came into her mind and she struck off his name from the list of invitees .

Strike up — संगीत शुरू करना

At the end of the programme the band struck up the national

anthem .

Strike work — हड़ताल करना

The factory workers struck work to demand higher wages .

Subscribe to — किसी विचार से सहमत होना

Do you subscribe to the philosophy of Karma ?

Subsist on — जीवन निर्वाह करना

The sadhu subsisted on nuts and roots for many weeks .

Succeed to — किसी के बाद पदासीन होना

The prince will succeed to the throne on the king’s death .

Sue for — न्यायालय में हक मांगना

As he developed after-operation complication he sued the Verma Nursing Home for damages to the extent of ten thousand rupees .

(T)

Take after — समान दिखना

She has taken after her mother .

Take apart — पुर्जे अलग करना, कोई यंत्र खोलना

Can you take apart a watch ?

Take down —लिख लेना

Take down carefully whatever I say .

Take for — समझ बैठना I took him for a doctor .

Take in — धोखा देना, धोखा खाना

He tried to play a trick on me, but I couldn’t be taken in .

Take off — 1 . कपड़े उतारना

He took off his coat .

2 . उड़ान भरना

We watched the plane take off .

Take on — नौकरी पर रखना

They are taking on many new workers at that factory .

Take over — 1 . ज़िम्मेदारी संभालना

After the Chairman retired the Managing Director took over as the new Chairman .

2 . अधिकार जमाना

They defeated the enemy and took over the fort .

Take place — घटित होना

Where did the meeting take place ?

Take to — आकर्षित होना
I took to Anil right from the very beginning .
Take turns — बारी-बारी से कोई काम करना
During the trip Jeevan and I took turns at car driving .
Take up — पढ़ाई आरम्भ करना
After completing school he took up mechanical engineering .
Talk back — बेअदबी से जवाब देना
It is very rude to talk back to your elders .
Talk over — विचार-विमर्श करना
The committee is talking over our report .
Talk shop — अपने काम के बारे में बातचीत करना
The two lawyers always talk shop .
Taste of — वैसा ही स्वाद होना
This coffee is no good it tastes of kerosene .
Tear down — गिराना, नष्ट करना
They brought bulldozers to tear down the building .
Tell against — खिलाफ जाना
The new evidence relating to this case tells against the accused .
Tell off — भर्त्सना करना
The headmaster told off the rowdy student .
Tell on — चुगली करना
It is unfair to tell on others .
Tell upon — प्रभावित करना, दर्शाना
You must not work so hard. It will tell upon your health .
Think of — राय होना
What did you think of the movie ?
Think out — सोच-समझ कर योजना बनाना
They will have to think out some good idea to produce this kind of advertisement .
Think up — सोचकर खोज निकालना
You will have to think up a good excuse for the delay .
Throw out — नामंजूर करना, बाहर निकालना
He was making a nuisance of himself, so he was thrown out of the lecture hall .
Throw up — त्याग पत्र देना
Why have you thrown up your job ?

Tide over — निभा लेना

Will this amount enable you to tide over your financial difficulties ?

Touch at — बहुत थोड़े समय के लिए रूकना

The Rajdhani Express between Delhi and Bombay touches at Baroda .

Touch on — संक्षेप में जिक्र करना

Your lecture was illuminating but did not touch on the problem of casteism in the country .

Touch up — थोड़ा ठीक करना

The photographer touched up my photograph .

Trade in — बदले में लेना-देना

I traded in my old car for a new one

Trade on — फायदा उठाना

I traded on his good nature to help me out of my financial difficulties .

Trifle with — मजाक उड़ाना

It is cruel to trifle with anybody’s feelings .

Trump up — झूठमूठ बात बनाना

The story you have trumped up is not at all convincing .

Try on — पहन कर देखना

The tailor asked me to try on the coat .

Try out — जांच के लिए चलाकर देखना

You should try out that TV set before you finally buy it .

Turn about — उल्टी दिशा में मुंह करना

The moment she saw him coming she turned about .

Turn against — किसी के खिलाफ खड़े हो जाना

We have been such good friends and I had no idea that he would turn against me .

Turn around — पूरा घूमना

Being a novice he could not turn around the car in the narrow lane .

Turn aside — मार्ग से विचलित होना

Never turn aside from the path of truth .

Turn away — वापिस भेजना

He has turned away three applicants for the new post of purchase-officer .

Turn back — पीछे हटना, हटाना

Please turn back from the edge of the water .

Turn down — 1 . इन्कार करना

I'm counting a lot on this so please do not turn down my request .

2 . कम करना

Please turn down the volume of the radio .

Turn in — प्रस्तुत करना

He turned in his answer paper and came out of the examination hall .

Turn on —चालू करना

Please turn on the light .

Turn out — 1 . उत्पादन करना

How many cars does this factory turn out everyday ?

2 . सिद्ध होना

To begin with he looked like any other carpenter, but later he turned out to be a very talented one .

Turn tail — भाग जाना

The enemy had to turn tail as it could not hold against the massive attack of our army .

Turn up — 1 . अचानक आ पहुंचना

Everybody was surprised to see him turn up at the meeting .

2 . ज़ाहिर होना

Some interesting facts have turned up during the inquiry .

(U)

Used to — आदत डालना

I am quite used to driving in crowded places .

Use up — प्रयोग कर खत्म करना

Have you used up all the paper I had given you ?

(W)

Wade into — हमला करना

Ram could not tolerate Shyam's insulting remark. He waded into him and knocked him down .

Wade through — लंबा काम हाथ में लेना

Today I have to wade through a lot of correspondence .

Wait for — इंतजार करना
I'll wait for you at my office till you come .
Wait on — सेवा करना, परोसना
She waited on us efficiently .
Wash out — धोकर निकाल देना
Can this stain be washed out .
Watch over — निगरानी करना, रक्षा करना
The dog faithfully watched over his master's sleeping child .
Wear off — धुंधला पड़ना
This colour will wear off soon .
Wear out — फेंकने लायक बनाना
Constant use will wear out any machine .
While away — समय नष्ट करना
Get to work. Don't while away your time in trifles .
Wind up — 1 . खत्म करना, बंद कर देना
Recurring losses compelled him to wind up his business .
2 . घड़ी की चाबी देना
I wound up my watch when I went to bed .
Wink at — अनदेखी करना
I can wink at his faults no longer .
Work away — काम करते रहना
He is a hard working man. He can work away at his job for hours at a stretch .
Work into — प्रयासपूर्वक अंदर घुसना
The miner's drill worked into the hard rock .
Work open — किसी तरीके से खोलना I had lost my suitcase's key, but somehow I managed to work it open .
Work out — सुलझाना, उत्तर ढूंढ निकालना
Could you work out that problem ?
Work up — उत्तेजित करना
Why are you so worked up ?

(Y)

Yield to — स्वीकार करना, मान लेना
It took me long to persuade him to yield to my request .

IDIOMS & PHRASES

(A)

Abounding in — से भरपूर
Sea abounds in all kinds of animals .
Above all — मुख्यत:, खासकर
Above all , don’t mention this to Hari .
Abreast with — जानकारी रखना
He keeps himself abreast with the latest developments in the world of science .
Absent-minded person — असावधान व्यक्ति
Our professor is a very absent-minded person .
Accessary to — सहायक
This man was accessary to the crime .
Affect ignorance — कुछ पता न होने का दिखावा करना
You cannot affect ignorance of the law and escape punishment .
Aghast at — हक्का-बक्का होना
As she entered the hospital she looked aghast at the bed of the wounded .
Agreeable to — पसंद/अनुकूल होना
He being very fussy, the plan was not agreeable to his wishes .
Alive to — जानकारी रखना, सचेत रहना
He is not at all alive to the current economic problems .
All at once — अचानक
All at once the sky became dark and it began to rain .
All moonshine — बिल्कुल झूठा, मनगढ़ंत
What you are saying is all moonshine .
All of a sudden —अचानक
All of a sudden the walls of the room started shaking .
All the same — फिर भी
Although your agreements appear convincing all the same it will not happen .
Animal spirits — जोशीली प्रकृति
Young children are by nature full of animal spirits .
Apple of discord — झगड़े का परिणाम/कारण
Ever since their father’s death this property has been an

apple of discord between the two brothers .

Apple of one's eye —बहुत प्रिय

His lovely little daughter is the apple of his eye .

Ask for something — नुकसान या खतरा मोल लेना

Now you are complaining about the cut in your salary. You had asked for it by regularly coming late .

At all —थोड़ा सा भी

He told me that he did not have any money at all.

At daggers drawn — दुश्मनी होना

Once upon a time they were friends, but now they are at daggers drawn over the issue of money .

At large — बंधनमुक्त रहना, पकड़ा न जाना

A convict who had escaped from prison last month is still at large .

At once — तुरन्त

The boss was furious over secretary's mistake and asked him to come to his room at once .

At the eleventh hour — अन्तिम क्षण पर, ऐन मौके पर

The mob was getting out of control, but at the eleventh hour the police arrived and averted a riot .

At times — कभी-कभी

At times she feels a little better. but then again relapses into her old condition .

Aware of — जानकारी होना

I was not aware of his intentions .

(B)

Back out of —दिये हुए वचन से मुकर जाना

He backed out of the promise he had given me .

Backstairs influence — छुपा, नाजायज़ प्रभाव

He managed to get the job through backstairs influence .

Bad blood — दुश्मनी

There is bad blood between the two neighbours .

Be a party to something — पक्ष लेना, सहमत होना

I disagree with your proposals so I won't be a party to this agreement .

Be all ears — बहुत ध्यान से सुनना

The children were all ears as I began to tell the story of Alibaba .

Be beside oneself — भावना से बेकाबू होना

She was beside herself with grief when she heard about her son’s death .

Be born with a silver spoon in one’s mouth — अत्यन्त धनवान होना

Pandit Nehru was born with a silver spoon in his mouth .

Be bound to — निश्चित रूप से

We are bound to be late if you don’t hurry .

Be bound for — किसी निश्चित स्थान को जाना

This ship is bound for London .

Be ill at ease — परेशान होना

The whole night mosquitoes kept on biting him and he was quite ill at ease .

Be in the way — रास्ता रोकना

Is this chair in your way ?

Be no more — मर जाना

Since her husband is no more she feels quite lost .

Be off — चले/निकल जाना

I was tired of his chattering and asked him to be off .

Be out of the question — असंभव होना

Without oxygen life is out of question .

Be under age — नाबालिग होना

You cannot vote as you are under age .

Be up something — कोई योजना बनाने में व्यस्त रहना

These boys have suspicious movements. I am sure they are upto something .

Be well-off — धनवान होना

They own a house and a car, so they certainly are well-off .

Be worth its weight in gold — बहुत कीमती होना

In the desert a bottle of water is worth its weight in gold .

Bear down upon — हमला करना (युद्धपोत का) Our warship bore down upon the enemy convoy .

Beast of burden — सामान ढोने वाला जानवर

Mules are used as beasts of burden by the Indian Army .

Beast of prey — शिकार करने वाला जानवर

A tiger is a beast of prey .

Beat about the bush — इधर-उधर की बातें करना

Come to the point. Don’t beat about the bush .

Beck and call — बुलाने पर हाज़िर होना

You cannot expect me to be at your beck and call everytime .

Bed of roses — सुख चैन की अवस्था

Life is no bed of roses .

Beggar description — वर्णन करने के परे होना

Her beauty beggared description .

Behind the scenes — छुपके

The leaders had been discussing behind the scenes for long, and finally they arrived at an agreement .

Bent on — प्रवृत्त, उद्यत

I am sure the two boys are bent on some mischief .

Better half — पत्नी

His better half takes good care of him .

Bide his time — अनुकूल अवसर के लिए शांति से प्रतीक्षा करना

The hunter bided his time till the tiger approached the pond for a drink .

Big deal — स्वयं के बारे में बड़प्पन की झूठी भावना

You think you can beat me! A big deal !

Birds’s eye view — विहंगावलोकन

We had a bird’s eye view of the city from the plane .

Birds of a feather — समान स्वभाव के लोग

Birds of a feather tend to flock together .

Black sheep — बदनाम आदमी

Ramesh is the black sheep of the family .

Blind alley — एक तरफ से बंद गली

They had to turn back as they had entered a blind alley .

Blind to — अनदेखी करना

He is blind to his son’s actions .

Blow one’s own trumpet — अपना बड़प्पन कहते फिरना

Blowing one’s own trumpet speaks of ill breeding .

Blow one’s top — बहुत गुस्से में होना

Ram has not been caring for his studies at all. Naturally, his father had to blow his top .

Blue stocking — साहित्यकार, विदुषी स्त्री

She has made a name for herself in society as a blue stocking .

Body and soul — ज़ी ज़ान से

He gave himself body and soul to the pursuit of learning .

Boil down — सारांश, मतलब होना

It all boils down to a clear case of murder .

Bolt upright — बिल्कुल सीधा

As he was suddenly awakened by a passing procession's noise he got up and sat bolt upright .

Bosom friend — ज़िगरी दोस्त

Arun and Anil are bosom friends .

Brazen-faced fellow — अशिष्ट आदमी

I cannot stand that brazen-faced fellow .

Break cover — छुपने के स्थान से बाहर आना

The enemy resumed heavy firing as the soldiers broke cover .

Break in — ज़बर्दस्ती दाखिल होना

The thief quietly broke in when everyone was asleep

Break the ice — चुप्पी भंग करने की खातिर बातें छेड़ना

They sat in awkward silence till I broke the ice .

Break the news — कोई समाचार देना

Ram had drowned and somebody had to break the sad news to his family somehow .

Breathe one's last — मर जाना

The nation plunged into grief as the beloved leader Pandit Nehru breathed his last .

Bring to light — राज़ खोलना

The C.I.D. brought to light a hideous conspiracy to assassinate the police chief .

Bring to the hammer — नीलाम करना

As he went bankrupt, all his goods were brought to the hammer .

Broad daylight — दिन दहाड़े

Yesterday the bank near our house was robbed in broad daylight .

Brown study — विचारों में मग्न रहना

Shyam is in the habit of getting into brown study .

Build castles in the air — हवा में महल बनाना

Be content with what you have. There is no point in building castles in the air .

Burning question — ज्वलंत प्रश्न

In the world today, issue of Poland is a burning question .

Burn the candle at both ends — अपनी शक्ति या धन का अधिक व्यय/ खर्च करना

If you burn the candle at both ends like this, you will soon land up in the hospital .

Bury the hatchet — दुश्मनी भूलकर मित्रता करना

The two warring nations reached a truce and at last buried the hatchet .

By and By — आहिस्ता-आहिस्ता

By and by people began to come into the lecture hall .

By heart — कंठस्थ

I know many passages from Shakespeare by heart.

By himself — अकेले

I have often seen him walking all by himself in the woods .

By the way — बात-बात में यूं ही

By the way , are you married ?

(C)

Call a spade a spade — साफ-साफ कह देना

I am not rude but at the same time I don’t hesitate to call a spade a spade .

Call to order — सभा, बैठक प्रारंभ करना

The chairman called the meeting to order .

Capital crime — मौत की सज़ा जैसा गुनाह

Murder is a capital crime .

Capital idea — उत्कृष्ट कल्पना

Going on a picnic this Sunday is a capital idea .

Capital punishment — मौत की सज़ा

The murderer was awarded capital punishment .

Carry one’s point — विरोध समाप्त करना

In the beginning Mohan was slightly vague in his speech but gradually he succeeded in carrying his point .

Carry the day — यशस्वी बनना

The opener scored a century and carried the day .

Cast about for — इंतज़ार में रहना
He will cast about for an opportunity to take revenge on you .
Catch one's eye — ध्यान खींचना
I could not catch his eye , else I would have greeted him .
Chicken-hearted fellow — डरपोक आदमी
A chicken-hearted man like you will never make a soldier .
Clear off — जाना, भागना
Don't bother me ? Clear off !
Close-fisted man — कंजूस
Alhough having lot of money, he is a close-fisted man .
Close shave — बाल-बाल बचना
My car was just about to dash against the lamp post. It was quite a close shave .
Cock and bull story — मनगढ़ंत कहानी
Who would believe such a cock and bull story ?
Cold-blooded murder — घृणित हत्या
Karan had committed a cold-blooded murder so, the judge didn't show any mercy in awarding death sentence .
Cold feet — डर जाना
At the sight of his opponent he got cold feet .
Cold reception — ऊपरी मन से सत्कार
I wonder why she gave him such a cold reception .
Cold shoulder — किसी का साथ अप्रिय लगना
He tried to talk to her, but she gave him the cold shoulder .
Come of age — बालिग हो जाना
Now that you have come of age , you should take your own decisions .
Come off it —अवांछित आदत को छोड़ना
Come off it , don't start with that boasting again .
Come to an end — समाप्त होना
It was such a boring film that I thought it would never come to an end .
Come to light — पता चलना
The conspiracy came to light at the right time and plotters were arrested .
Come up to — बराबर होना
The profit from this deal with M/s Renuka Enterprise has not

come up to my expectations .

Come up with — उत्तम विचार होना

I must say you have Come up with an excellent idea .

Commanding view — ऊंचाई से दिखने वाला दृश्य

Come we can go up and get a commanding view of the harbour from the hill top .

Confirmed bachelor — नामजद कुंआरा

Is he going to marry late or is he a confirmed bachelor ?

Corresponding to — मिलता-जुलता होना

While digging in the field other day I found an old coin corresponding to the one shown in this picture .

Cover a lot of ground — विस्तार से कहना

In his very first lecture the professor covered a lot of ground .

Creature comforts — शारीरिक सुख-चैन की चीज़ें

Being rich he would equip his mansion with all creature comforts .

Crocodile tears — बनावटी आंसू

He shed crocodile tears at the loss incurred by his friend .

Crux of a problem — समस्या का मुख्य भाग

The crux of the problem is how we are going to raise the funds we require for this project .

Cry over spilt milk — व्यर्थ खेद करना

In the beginning only, I had told you that was a bad bargain. It is no use crying over spilt milk now .

Curtain lecture — एकांत में पत्नी का पति को कोसना

The henpecked husband had to endure a curtain lecture every night .

Cut a sorry figure — अयोग्य सिद्ध होना

When asked to make a speech he cut a sorry figure .

Cut out for — योग्य होना

Vikas is not cut out for army .

Cut to the quick — मर्मभेदी बात कहना

Your reproaches cut him to the quick .

(D)

Dance attendance on one — आगे-पीछे घूमना

He danced attendance on her all the time, but she ignored

him .

Day in , day out — रोज़-रोज़

He worked , day in, day out to pass his C. A. Examination .

Dead against — बिल्कुल खिलाफ़

Her mother is dead against her acting in the films .

Dead letter — 1 . गलत पते के कारण डाक घर में पड़ा रहने वाला पत्र

As there was no address on the letter it went to the dead letter office .

2 . लागू नहीं किया जाने वाला कानून

Several enactments still on the statute book are now a dead letter .

Dead loss — कतई पूरा न होने वाला नुकसान

He invested quite a lot of money in paper business but it proved to be a dead loss .

Dead of night — आधी रात को

The thief entered the house at dead of night .

Dead silence — पूर्ण स्तब्धता

There was dead silence in the deserted house .

Dead tired — बहुत थका हुआ

Having walked four miles I felt dead tired and immediately fell asleep .

Dish something out — बहुत सफाई से आलोचना करना

He is a glib talker and very good at dishing out flattery .

Do a city — शहर में घूमकर आकर्षक स्थान देखना

While I do the city you can relax in the hotel and watch the television .

Do away with — नष्ट करना

The murderer seems to have done away with the body .

Done to death — मार डालना

The poor man was done to death by repeated lathi blows on the head .

Do well — प्रगति करना, यश पाना

He is doing quite well in his new business .

Dog-eared book — जिस पुस्तक में पन्नों के कोने खास वाक्यों या परिच्छेदों की निशानी के तौर पर मुड़े हुए हों

This dog-eared book suggests that you have read it carefully and marked the important pages .

Down and out — हतोत्साह होना

He was without money and without food. In short, just down and out .

Draw out a person — किसी व्यक्ति की इच्छा के विरुद्ध चतुराई से उससे जानकारी प्राप्त करना

For a long time he was reluctant to say anything, but in the end I managed to draw him out .

Draw a line — मर्यादा तय करना

I can at the most give you one thousand rupees. And then I must draw a line .

Drop a line — छोटा सा पत्र लिखना

As soon as I get to Bombay, I'll drop you a line .

Drop a subject — किसी विषय पर विवाद बंद करना

We don't seem to agree, so let us drop the subject .

Drop in on — मिलने जाना

Do drop in on me whenever you have the time .

Drop out of — छोड़ देना

He had to drop out of the race when his car broke down .

Dutch courage — शराब पीकर आने वाली झूठी वीरता

He showed a lot of Dutch courage , but got frightened as the drink wore off .

(E)

Ease someone out —शिष्टतापूर्वक नौकरी से निकालना

After the two companies merged a number of their officers had to be eased out .

Easy Come, easy go —बिना प्रयास प्राप्त होना/खर्च हो जाना

He inherited great wealth but spent it all foolishly. It was a case of easy Come, easy go .

Eat humble pie — गर्व त्यागना, विनम्र हो जाना

He used to boast about his intelligence. Now with such bad examination results he has to eat the humble pie .

Eat one's words — शब्द वापिस लेना

He was vehemently insisting on his point, but finally had to eat his words , when the truth came out .

Eat out — होटल में भोजन करना

When you eat out , what restaurant do you generally go to ?

Elbow room — काम करने की स्वतंत्रता
He is a go-getter and needs just elbow room to succeed .
Err on the safe side — दो पर्यायों में नुकसान न देने वाला पर्याय-गलत हो तो भी स्वीकारना
To err on the safe side , I gave him fifty-five when he asked seventy pieces .
Escape notice — ध्यान न जाना I read this copy very carefully, but don't know how this mistake escaped my notice .
Escape one's lips — बोल जाना
Never let that abusive word escape your lips again .
Every now and then — अक्सर, बहुधा
We are very good friends and visit each other , every now and then .

(F)

Fast living — ऐश आराम की ज़िन्दगी
Rich men's children generally like fast living .
Feather one's nest —अवैध तरीके से कमाई करके रखना
The corrupt people are always busy feathering their nests .
Fed up with — तंग आ जाना I am fed up with this daily drudgery .
Feel up to — स्वयं को समर्थ पाना
Do you feel up to writing letters after a have working day ?
Fellow feeling — भाईचारा, अपनापन
One should have fellow feelings for all .
Few and far between — बहुत कम
His visits to our place are now few and far between .
Fight shy of — टालना I fight shy of air travel as it makes me sick .
Fill one in — जानकारी देना
As Ramesh could not attend the meeting he asked me to fill him in .
Fish out of water — अप्रिय परिस्थिति में लोगों के बीच होना
I felt like a fish out of water in the company of those scientists .
Flowery style — बहुत लालित्यपूर्ण भाषा शैली
Flowery style is not suited to every kind of writing .
Fly in the face of — जान बूझ कर उल्टा व्यवहार करना
Why should you recklessly fly in the face of danger ?

Fly off at a tangent — बीच में कोई असंबद्ध बात छेड़ना
Stick-to the point. Don’t fly off at a tangent .
For good — हमेशा के लिए
He proposes to leave India for good .
For long — बहुत समय के लिए I cannot go on with this boring work for long.
Force one’s hand — मन की बात प्रकट करने के लिए मजबूर करना
I forced his hand to learn the real motive behind his plan .
Forty winks — बहुत थोड़ी देर के लिए झपकी लेना
After lunch I must have my forty winks .
Fill in for — किसी की जगह लेना
Our manager has not been keeping well. So I have filled in for him .
For the time being — कुछ समय के लिए
For the time being I am staying at a hotel, but I propose to rent a flat shortly **Free-lance —** कहीं नौकरी न करने वाला पत्रकार
He is a free-lance and contributes to several papers and magazines .
French leave — बिना बताये चले जाना
The boss is angry with him for taking french leave .
Fresh lease of life —पुनर्जीवित करना
The heart patient ws almost dying. But now through the relentless efforts of doctor he has got a fresh lease of life .
Fringe benefits — वेतन के अलावा मिलने वाला लाभ
His salary is small, but he gets good fringe benefits .
Face up to — किसी अप्रिय बात को स्वीकारना
You have to face up to the fact that you are not capable of handling this job .
Fair play — न्यायसंगत वर्ताव I know him well and can count on his sense of fair play .
Fair sex — नारी जाति
She was the only representative of the fair sex at the meeting .
Fair weather friend — मुसीबत में साथ न देने वाला मित्र
Most of the people you are associating with these days are just fair weather friends .
Fall a prey to — ठग जाना

The innocent man fell a prey to the designs of the cheat .

Fall back upon — किसी चीज का सहारा लेना

If I don't do well as a businessman I'll have to fall back upon my old profession of journalism .

Fall behind in — पिछड़ जाना

He fell ill and had to miss his college for a month. As a result he fell behind in his studies .

Fall foul of — किसी से दुश्मनी मोल लेना

If this new clerk continues with his criticism like this he will soon fall foul of the manager .

Fall in with — सहमत होना

He found my plan very profitable and so readily fell in with it .

Fall out of use — प्रयोग बंद हो जाना

As a language grows new words are added and many old ones fall out of use .

Fall out with — झगड़ा करना

It is indeed sad to see that you have fallen out with your best friend .

Fall to one's lot — नसीब में होना

I fell to my lot to become a writer .

Fall to work — काम आरंभ करना

He fell to work with enthusiasm and completed the job in an hour .

Family likeness — पारिवारिक समानता

There is a family likeness between the two cousins .

Family tree — वंश तालिका

Our family tree is rooted in eighteenth century .

Fan the flame — किसी बुरी बात को प्रोत्साहन देना

Although outwardly he professed loyalty, in secret he was fanning the flame of sedition .

Fancy price — बहुत अधिक मूल्य का होना

He has recently bought an imported TV set at a fancy price .

(G)

Gain ground — धीरे-धीरे प्रगति करना

India lost the first two matches, but began to gain ground gradually .

Game is not worth the candle —कष्ट की मात्रा में प्रर्याप्त लाभ न होना
If you have to send your article to a dozen editors to get it published, I must say that the game is not worth the candle .
Get ahead of — आगे निकल जाना
Ram has got ahead of Shyam in mathematics .
Get all dolled up — बहुत सजधज कर तैयार होना
She gets all dolled up when she gets ready to go to parties .
Get along with — मित्रवत रहना
He has the knack for getting along with all sorts of people .
Get away with — बुरा काम करके सजा से मुक्त रहना
You can’t cheat me like that and get away with it .
Get by heart — ज़बानी याद करना
Have you got the whole poem by heart ?
Get down to — काम गंभीरतापूर्वक आरम्भ करना
Now as we have had an hour’s rest let us get down to business .
Get even with — बदला लेना
The other day Arun made a fool of Anil. And now Anil wants to get even with him .
Get hold of — मतलब समझ पाना
I was quite far from the stage and couldn’t get hold of what the speaker was saying .
Get into a soup — झंझट में पड़ना
You will get into a soup if you neglect your studies like this .
Get into the swing of things — नई परिस्थिति में घुल मिल जाना
Many of the Indian students don’t take long to get into the swing of things in the U. S. A
Get on one’s nerves — तग करना
She talks so much that she gets on my nerves .
Get on with — 1 . काम चालू करना
2 . साथ होना
Get on with your work. Naresh and I get on with each other quite well .
Get out of — बाहर निकल जाना
Sita is a very affectionate mother and does not let her children get out of her sight .
Get out of line — अनुशासन भंग करना

The headmaster warned unruly Gopal that he would be expelled if he got out of line in future .

Get rid of — छुटकारा पाना

Don’t ask what all I had to do to get rid of a bore like Vinay .

Get the better of — विजय पाना, मात करना

He easily got the better of her in the argument .

Get the sack — नौकरी से हटाया जाना

He is thoroughly incompetent and I know that one day he will get the sack .

Get the upper hand — मात करना, प्रमुखता प्राप्त करना

It was a keenly fought match, but in the end I got the upper hand .

Get through with — काम पूरा करना

When will you get through with your homework ?

Get wind of — रहस्य का पता लगाना

There was a well-guarded conspiracy, but somehow the government got wind of it .

Get word — संदेश मिलना

I got word that my brother had suddenly become ill .

Gift of the gab — भाषण कला

He has a gift of the gab and can hold his audience spellbound .

Give a break — अवसर देना

Considering the fact that it was his first offence the judge gave him a break and let him off only with a warning .

Give a piece of mind — कोसना

He is so negligent in his work that I had to give him a piece of my mind .

Give a ring — टेलीफोन करना

I’ll give you a ring as soon as I get there .

Give a wide berth — टालना, दूर रखना

He is not to be trusted. You should always give him a wide berth.

Give chapter and verse — साबित होना

I can give you chapter and verse for every statement I am making .

Give currency to — फैलाना, ज़ाहिर करना

Many new words in English have got currency . of late .

Give into — मान लेना, सहमत होना

He gave into her wishes .

Give quarter — सहानुभूति दिखाना

The conqueror gave no quarter to the defeated .

Give the go by — भूलना, टालना

There are many old religious practices to which we have now given the go by .

Give the slip — चकमा देकर भाग जाना

As the thief saw the policeman he gave him the slip by getting into a nearby lane .

Given to — व्यसन होना

I was sorry to see that he was given to heavy drinking .

Go a long way — काफी हद तक उपयुक्त होना

This amount will go a long way in defraying your trip’s expenses .

Go hand-in-hand — साथ-साथ चलना

Going hand-in-hand with this expansion programme of the company is a massive plan of modernisation .

Go in for — रुचि लेना

What sports do you go in for ?

Go off the deep end — जल्दी से कुछ कर बैठना

Think with a cool mind. There is no need to go off the deep end and act foolishly .

Go through channels — योग्य मार्ग से

You will have to go through the channels if you want your representation for promotion to be considered .

Go through fire and water — कोई भी खतरा मोल लेना

A patriot is ready to go through fire and water to serve his motherland .

Go through with — कोई काम अंत तक करते रहना

Do you have the determination enough to go through with this job ?

Go to law — कानून का सहारा लेना

In the western countries people go to law on very petty issues .

Go to rack and ruin — विनाश होना

The government must do something to save this sick sugar mill from going to rack and ruin .

Go to town —कोई काम ध्यानपूर्वक करना

The interior decorator went to town on my flat and made it like a palace .

Go without saying — स्पष्ट होना

It goes without saying that honesty pays in the long run .

Going concern — अच्छी तरह चलने वाला व्यवसाय

He has expanded his business and it is now a going concern .

Golden mean — बीच का मार्ग

We shall not go to the extremes, rather find a golden mean between the two .

Golden opportunity — बहुत अनुकूल परिस्थिति, स्वर्णिम अवसर

It was a golden opportunity for me to show my mettle .

Good deal — बहुत मात्रा में

This sofa set has cost me a good deal of money .

Good hand — 1 . कुशल, प्रवीण

She is quite a good hand at knitting .

2 . अच्छी लिखावट

You have a good hand .

Good humour — प्रसन्नचित्त होना

He has got a promotion today so he is in good humour .

Good offices — सहयोग से

This dispute between the two countries can be resolved only through the good offices of Irrigation Ministers .

Green room — नैपथ्य, अभिनेता का भेष-भूषा का कमरा

After the play was over I went to the green room to see the hero .

Grow grey — एक ही काम में जिंदगी बिताना

Prasad began working at the age of twenty, and has grown grey in the same office .

Grow out of — आयु बढ़ने के साथ कोई आदत छूटना

As child he used to stutter, but now has grown out of it .

(H)

Hall mark — उत्कृष्टता की निशानी

He is generally a good painter, but Batik painting is one of his

hall marks .

Hammer and tongs — बड़े ज़ोर-ज़ोर से

The opposition went for the government’s policies hammer and tongs .

Hang by a thread — बहुत नाजुक स्थिति में होना

Naresh has been badly injured in the train accident and he is still hanging by a thread .

Hang fire — देर होना

This matter had been hanging fire for more than a month .

Hard boiled — व्यवसाय के आगे भावना की कीमत न रखना

He is a hard-boiled businessman .

Hard of hearing — कुछ हद तक बहरा

You will have to speak a little louder, as Mr. Rao is hard of hearing

Hard up — रुपयों की तंगी होना

Ever since he has left his job he has been quite hard up .

Haul over the coals — कोसना, भर्त्सना करना

The boss hauled him over the coals for his insubordination .

Have a brush with — थोड़ी सी अनबन होना

Our union’s president had a brush with the general secretary in a meeting last week .

Have a finger in the pie — किसी चीज़ में हिस्सा होना

Why should you be so interested in what he is being paid? Do you have a finger in the pie ?

Have a mind — राज़ी होना, दिल करना

He can be very funny if he has a mind .

Have a thing at one’s finger tips — पूर्णत: ज्ञान होना

He has the Maratha history at his finger tips .

Have an easy time of it — आराम होना

As long as Mr. Rao was there as the manager the staff had an easy time of it , but now things have changed .

Have another guess coming — ग़लत होना

If you think I’ll be with you in this mischief you have another guess coming .

Have been to — किसी स्थान का हो आना

Have you been to Bombay of late .

Have clean hands — निर्दोष पाना

You can’t suspect him of taking bribery. I am sure his hands are clean .

Have in hand — कोई काम हाथ में होना

What job do you have in hand at present ?

Have it out with — झगड़ा करना

I am sure he has cheated me, and I am going to have it out with him .

Have an eye on a thing — किसी वस्तु पर दृष्टि रखना

Be content with what you have. Don’t have an eye on others things .

Have one’s hands full — किसी काम में व्यस्त होना

Please do not ask me to do anything more, my hands are already full .

Have one’s heart set on — बहुत इच्छा रखना

Ever since he had heard of accounts of the U.S.A. from his brother he has his heart set on going abroad .

Have one’s way — अपनी ही बात करना

Little children must have their way in everything .

Have the right ring — ठीक महसूस होना

The statesman’s speech about the problem had the right ring about it .

Have too many irons in the fire — एक ही साथ अनेक काम करने की कोशिश करना

Beware of your health breaking down under the strain of overwork; I think you have too many irons in the fire .

Help oneself to — स्वयं ले लेना

Please help yourself to whatever you would like to have .

Henpecked husband — जोरू का गुलाम

Prakash is known among his friends as an henpecked husband .

Herculean task — बहुत कठिन कार्य

Preparing such a big report in such a short time was indeed a herculean task .

Hide one’s light under a bushel — गुण छुपाकर रखना

To keep such a learned man in his present obscure position is like hiding his light under a bushel .

High and low — सर्वत्र

I searched for my pen high and low .

High-flown style — पांडित्यपूर्ण शैली

He has a high-flown style which does not cater to masses .

High living — ऐश आराम की ज़िन्दगी

Many diseases are brought on by high living .

High noon — मध्याह्न

At high noon during summer in Delhi people generally keep indoors .

High time — ठीक समय होना

It is high time to get up .

Hit it off — घुल-मिल जाना

She and her husband do not seem to hit it off .

Hit the nail on the head — सही बात कहना

The reviewer hit the nail on the head when he wrote that the main shortcoming of the book was the author’s ignorance of the subject .

Hold on to — मजबूती से पकड़े रहना

he held on to the rope for fear of falling .

Hold one’s own — अपना स्थान जमा के रखना

Will you be able to hold your own in front of a great player like him ?

Hold one’s tongue — खामोश रहना

She talked so much that I had to ask her to hold her tongue .

Hold out against — प्रतिकार जारी रखना

Although our force was small we held out against a large number of enemies .

Husband one’s resources — किसी गाढ़े समय के लिए सामग्री बचाकर रखना

We were careful to husband our resources for our journey across the desert .

Hush money — रिश्वत

A lot of hush money passed between the minister and his favourite business house .

(I)

Idle compliment — झूठी प्रशंसा

Although he praised my work yet I knew it was an idle compliment .

In a bad way — स्वास्थ्य चिन्ताजनक होना
Rajiv had an accident yesterday and now he is in a had way .
In a body — सब मिलाकर
The boys went in a body to the headmaster to request him to declare a holiday on account of their winning a cricket match .
In a fair way — अच्छी सम्भावना होना
The doctor thinks that Ramesh is in a fair way to recovery .
In a fix — दुविधा में पड़ना
I could not decide whether to leave or stay— I was in a fix .
In a mess — संकट में पड़ना
Do your work properly, else you'll get into a mess .
In a person's good books — किसी का प्रिय होना
Ram is a bright boy and naturally in his teacher's good books .
In a temper — गुस्से में होना
The boss seems to be in a temper today .
In a word — संक्षेप में
In a word he doesn't care for your company .
In an instant — एक ही क्षण में
In an instant the panther leapt onto its prey .
In all — सब मिलाकर
In all there were thirty students in the class .
In a bad taste — अप्रिय होना
You should not have criticised him so viciously. It was in a bad taste .
In course of time — समय बीतने पर
In course of time the little boy grew into a fine young man .
In keeping with — अनुकूल
I knew he would help you. This is in keeping with his character .
In one's element — अनुकूल परिस्थिति में होना
Everyone at the party laughed at his jokes and I could see that he was in his element .
In one's line — पेशे के अनुकूल होना
He writes quite well. After all this is in his line .
In one's teens — किशोर अवस्था में होना

Some girls get married while still in their teens .

In the air — किसी खबर की अफवाह उड़ाना

It’s in the air that he is going to become a minister .

In the chair — सभापति के स्थान पर

Who was in the chair at the meeting ?

In the doldrums — प्रगति रुक जाना

On account of trade recession his business is in the doldrums for more than a year .

In the same boat — समान परिस्थिति में होना

Don’t get worked up about financial problems. We are in the same boat .

In time — समय पर

Did you reach office in time ?

In the long run — अंत में

You will find that he proves to be your best friend in the long run .

In the van — सबसे आगे

Kalidas will always be in the van of Sanskrit poets .

In vain — व्यर्थ में

The doctor’s all efforts went in vain and the patient could not be saved .

Ins and outs — पूरा विवरण

Only Prakash knows the ins and outs of this affair .

Iron hand — कठोरता

The despots usually rule their kingdom with an iron hand .

Iron will — बलवती इच्छा

Sardar Patel is known as a man of an iron will .

(J)

Jack of all trades — सब काम कर सकने वाला व्यक्ति

Anand is a jack of all trades and master of none .

Jail bird — बार-बार जेल जाने वाला अपराधी

He being a notorious jail bird the judge did not show any mercy to him .

Join in with — हिस्सा लेना

We requested him to join in with us, but he preferred to act independently .

Jaundiced eye — पूर्वाग्रह ग्रसित दृष्टि
Don’t look at the proposal with a jaundiced eye .
Jump to a conclusion — पूरा विचार न करते हुए
Don’t jump to the conclusion that Ravi does not care for you only because he could not help you this time .
Just the thing — बिलकुल सही
You are being critical but in my opinion Arun’s appointment to this post is just the thing .

(K)

Keep a thing to oneself — राज़ न खोलना
I knew he did not mean what he was saying, so I kept the whole thing to myself .
Keep an eye on — निगरानी रखना
Please keep an eye on my suitcase while I buy my ticket .
Keep body and soul together — जीवित रहना
His income is just enough to keep his body and soul together .
Keep company with — संगत करना
If you keep company with bad people you will automatically acquire bad habits .
Keep good time — ठीक समय बताना
My watch always keeps good time .
Keep in mind — न भूलना
Please keep in mind that you promised to phone her this evening .
Keep in the dark — जानकारी न देना
Why did you keep me in dark about your illness .
Keep in touch with — संपर्क बनाए रखना
He promised to keep in touch with us while he was abroad .
Keep late hours — देर तक जगे रहना
If you keep late hours , you will ruin your health .
Keep on with — एक ही काम करते रहना
I asked him to check these proofs and he has kept on with it for the last four hours .
Keep one’s head — गाढ़े समय में धैर्य रखना
When I saw a thief enter the room I kept my head and bolted

the door from outside .

Keep out of the way — दूर रखना

Keep selfish people like Govind out of the way .

Keep pace with — उसी गति से

Jeewan is really fast in Mathematics. I cannot keep pace with him .

Keep someone at arm’s length — पास फटकने न देना

He is a cheat so I take care to keep him at arm ’s length .

Keep the wolf from the door — दरिद्रता से संघर्ष करना

The poor man found it hard to keep the wolf from the door .

Keep to the house — घर से बाहर न जाना

He has not been keeping well of late so he keeps to the house.

Keep track of — नोट करके रखना

We are going to keep track of all our expenses while we are in the U.S.A.

Keep up with — उसी गति से चलना

Ram walks so fast that it is difficult to keep up with him .

Kick a habit — आदत छोड़ देना

He used to be quite a heavy smoker. I wonder how Come he has kicked this habit .

Kick something around — किसी प्रस्ताव पर विचार करना

They will first kick around with many proposals and then finally settle on one .

Kill two birds with one stone — एक ही समय में दो काम करना

While in New Delhi I’ll call on a friend and also do some shopping. Thus, I’ll kill two birds with one stone .

Knock off — कोई काम खत्म करना

You have been working since morning—now knock it off .

Know by sight — शक्ल से पहचानना

Although I haven’t been introduced to our new neighbour, yet I know him by sight .

knowing look — सारगर्भित दृष्टिक्षेप

He gave me a knowing look , when I said I was busy in the evening .

(L)

Laid up with — बीमार होकर बिस्तर पर पड़े रहना

He was out in the rain yesterday and now is laid up with cold and fever .

Lame excuse — न जंचने वाला बहाना

Whenever Virendra is late for office he gives some lame excuse .

Land on one’s feet — किसी खतरे से बच निकलना

It was dangerous dive in the air, but he finally landed on his feet .

Laugh in one’s sleeve — मन में हंसना

He was wearing a funny dress at the party. And everyone was laughing in his sleeve .

Laughing stock — हंसी मज़ाक का निशाना बनना

He talked nonsense and made himself the laughing stock at the party .

Lay bare — राज खोलना

I can’t rest until I’ve laid bare this conspiracy .

Lay down the law — हुक्म चलाना

In his house his wife lays down the law .

Lay hands on — जबर्दस्ती पकड़ना

The bandit laid hands on the poor travellers .

Lay one’s hand on — ज़रूरत की चीज़ का मिल जाना

I hope I’m lucky to lay my hand on the history book, I’m looking for .

Lay oneself open to — स्वयं को खतरे में डालना

Fault finders lay themselves open to attack if they make a slip anywhere .

Lay up for a rainy day — गाढ़े वक्त के लिए इंतजाम कर रखना

Don’t spend your money so lavishly. You should lay up something for a rainy day .

Lay waste — नष्ट करना

During the World War II many cities in Europe were laid waste by continuous bombardment .

Lead a charmed life — बड़े-बड़े खतरों से बच निकलना

I wonder how he has come out unscathed from this dangerous mission. He seems to be leading a charmed life .

Lead a person a dance — किसी को ज़रूरत से ज्यादा तकलीफ देना

Why don’t you pay him his dues instead of leading him a dance ?

Lead by the nose — किसी को अपने हुक्म के नीचे रखना

He is quite a henpecked husband and is led by nose by his wife .

Leading question — जिसका उत्तर प्रश्न में ही निहित है

The lawyer asked the witness many a leading question .

Leave in the lurch — कठिनाई में साथ छोड़ देना

He stood by me as long as all was well, but left me in the lurch the moment he sensed danger .

Leave much to be desired — संतोषजनक न होना

The arrangements they made for the function left much to be desired .

Leave the beaten track — घिसी-पिटी लकीर से हटना

This author has left the beaten track and suggested a fresh look on the age-old problem of casteism .

Leave to oneself — अकेले छोड़ना

At times I prefer to be left to myself .

Left-handed compliment — उल्टा अर्थ निकलने वाली प्रशंसा

It is no left-handed compliment . You really acted very well .

Legal tender — सरकारी मान्यता प्राप्त

Thousand rupee notes are not legal tender any more .

Lend a hand — सहायता करना

Let us all lend him a hand in carrying these books to the basement .

Lend one’s ear — ध्यान से सुनना

Friends , lend me your ears .

Let bygones be bygones — बीती बातें भूल जाना

We are now friends, so let bygones be bvgones .

Let fly — ज़ोर से फेंकना

The boy let fly a stone in the direction of the dog .

Let go of — छोड़ देना

Don’t let go of the rope until I tell you .

Let loose — खुला छोड़ना

The dogs were let loose on the running thief .

Let the cat out of the bag — भेद खोलना

Ramesh let the cat out of the bag when he said Renu was just

pretending to be ill because she did not want to go to school .

Let the grass grow under your feet — किसी काम में विलंब करना

Do this work quickly; don’t let the grass grow under your feet .

Lie in one’s power — समर्थ होना

I will do whatever lies in my power to get you the job .

Lie in wait for — इन्तज़ार में रहना

The tiger hid and lay in wait for its prey .

Light-fingered gentry — पाकिटमार

As he reached his trousers’ pocket for his wallet he realised that he had fallen a victim to the light fingered gentry .

Light reading — उपन्यास आदि हलका साहित्य

I think I’ll do some light reading during train journey to pass time .

Light sleeper — आसानी से जगने वाला व्यक्ति

I am a light sleeper and even a slight sound can wake me up .

Lion’s share — बहुत बड़ा हिस्सा होना

The lion ’s share of his profit was appropriated by his financier .

Little by little — धीरे-धीरे

His health is improving, but little by little .

Live from hand to mouth — मुफलिसी में गुजारा करना

Majority of Indian population lives from hand to mouth .

Live it up — ऐश आराम की ज़िंदगी बिताना

The rich man’s son went to America and lived it up .

Live up to — वचन का निर्वाह करना

Kuldip had great expectations of his son but he did not live up to them .

Long and short — संक्षेप में

The long and short of what I have to say to you is that you are inefficient .

Long winded — भाषण का लम्बा होना

The audience visibly appeared bored with his long winded speech .

Look a gift horse in the mouth — मिले हुए उपहार की आलोचना करना

You should not say that the book Mohan has gifted you is rubbish. It is improper to look a gift horse in the mouth .

Look back on — स्मरण करना
It is usually pleasant to look back on the childhood memories .
Look daggers at someone — किसी को बहुत गुस्से से घूरना
What have I done? Why are you looking daggers at me ?
Look down upon — घृणा करना
We should not look down upon him just because he is poor .
Look every inch — सही-सही लगना
He looks every inch a king .
Look forward to — उत्सुकता से प्रतीक्षा करना
We are all looking forward to your visit to Bombay .
Look out for — खोज में होना
I am on the look out for a good second hand car .
Look up to — आदर करना
When Gandhiji was alive everybody used to look up to him .
Lord it over — शासन करना
Try to be independent. Don't let others lord over you .
Lose ground — पिछड़ जाना
To begin with he was ahead of others in the race; but later he lost ground .
Lose heart — धीरज खोना
Don't lose heart , everything will be all right in due course .
Lose one's cool — उत्तेजित होना
One should not lose one's cool even in the most difficult situation .
Lose one's head — संयम खो बैठना
You are of course in a fix but still you must not lose your head .
Lose one's touch — पहले की कुशलता
I'm afraid I will not be able to play well anymore; I seem to have lost my touch .
Lose one's way — रास्ता भूलना
We had gone for hunting, but while returning lost our way in the woods .

(M)

Maiden name — विवाहित स्त्री का विवाहपूर्व नाम

What is the maiden name of Mrs. Kapur ?

Maiden speech — पहला भाषण

The new M.P . of our area promised to bring electricity in our town in his maiden speech .

Make a clean breast of something — सब कुछ बता देना

The accused made a clean breast of everything .

Make a hash — गड़बड़ घोटाला कर देना

Don’t meddle in my cooking. You will make a hash of everything .

Make a mountain of a molehill — छोटी सी बात को बढ़ा चढ़ाकर पेश करना

This job will not take you more than a few minutes. So don’t make a mountain of a molehill .

Make a living — जीविका चलाना

In India it is difficult to make a living as an artist .

Make a point — कोई काम निश्चित रूप से करने का विचार रखना

I make it a point of buying a new book every month .

Make a virtue of necessity — कोई अप्रिय कार्य मजबूरी में करना, लेकिन कर्तव्य-पालन का आभास दिलाना

Knowing that the landlord was about to drive him out he vacated the house himself. Thus making a virtue of necessity .

Make an example of — उदाहरण देना या मिलना

I must make an example of behaving in the same rude manner as he does with others .

Make amends for — क्षति-पूर्ति करना

By his good deed today he had made amends for past misbehaviour .

Make away with — चोरी से भाग जाना

The thief made away with a thousand rupees .

Make believe — विश्वास दिलाना

The little girl made believe that she was a princess .

Make bold to — जिसको करने के लिए ढ़ाढस की आवश्यकता है, ऐसा कार्य करना

We made bold to call directly on the minister to present our memorandum of demands .

Make both ends meet — आय में गुजारा कर पाना

In a poor country like India a lot of people find it difficult to

make both ends meet .

Make common cause with — किसी कार्य में किसी को सहयोग देना

I will make common cause with you in your efforts to eradicate the evil of casteism from the country .

Make fun of — किसी का मज़ाक उड़ाना

Anita had made a very funny hairdo for the party and everybody made fun of it.

Make hay while the sun shines — परिस्थिति अनुकूल होने का फायदा उठाना

When business was good he worked hard and made money; he believes in making hay while the sun shines .

Make it up with — सुलह करना

I had quarrelled with Ram yesterday, but now I have made it up with him .

Make light of — विशेष महत्त्व न देना

Although Naresh had committed a serious mistake in the ledger yet he tried to make light of it .

Make much ado about nothing — छोटी सी बात का बहुत शोर मचाना

I am only five minutes late, so don’t make much ado about nothing .

Make much of — बहुत महत्त्व देना

Every mother makes much of her children .

Make neither head nor tail — कुछ भी समझ में न आना

He was so confused that I could make neither head nor tail of what he said .

Make no bones about — किसी बात को साफ-साफ कह देना

She made no bones about her distaste for mathematics .

Make off with — चोरी से लेकर भाग जाना

The thief made off with a thousand rupees .

Make one fire — साहसिक कार्य करना

I am amazed at your capacity for hard work and I wonder what makes you fire .

Make his mark — गुणों से सम्मान प्राप्त करना

It did not take him long to make his mark at the college .

Make their mouth water — मुंह में पानी भरना

As I was hungry the sight of cakes made my mouth water .

Make his way — प्रतिकूल परिस्थिति में धीरे-धीरे प्रगति करना, आगे जाना

I made my way through the great crowd .

Make oneself at home — अपना ही घर समझकर बिना संकोच व्यवहार करना

Please make yourself at home ; there is no need to be formal .

Make oneself scarce — चले जाना

Don’t trouble me . Make yourself scarce .

Make short of — जल्द खत्म कर देना

Our lawyer was quite smart and made short of the defence counsel’s arguments .

Make the best of — प्रतिकूल परिस्थिति को खुशी से झेलना

If we cannot find a larger apartment we will continue living here and make the best of what we have .

Make the best of a bad bargain — निराशाजनक परिस्थिति का यथासम्भव लाभ उठाना

As the cloth was little damaged, I got it very cheap; thus making the best of a bad bargain .

Make up for — क्षतिपूर्ति करना

You will have to make up for the loss you have caused .

Make up one’s mind — सोचकर कार्य की दिशा तय करना

Have you made up your mind about my proposal to go to Simla this summer ?

Make up to — खुशामद करना

Ramkrishan has been making up to the manager in the hope of a promotion .

Man in a thousand — हज़ारों में एक

I like Ramesh very much; in my opinion he is a man in a thousand .

Man in the street — सर्वसाधारण व्यक्ति/प्रतिनिधि

The critics praised him as a great author but the man in the street did not think much of him .

Man of letters — साहित्यकार

He started writing at a very young age and is now an acknowledged man of letters .

Man of parts — विविध गुणों वाला व्यक्ति

He is a singer, a dancer and a musician; in short a man of parts .

Man of straw — जिसमें कुछ दम नहीं, ऐसा व्यक्ति

Gulzar is a man of straw. You cannot possibly rely on him .

Meet one half way — समझौता करना

I cannot accept, but I am prepared to meet you half way .

Middle age — चालीस से साठ के दरम्यान की आयु

Although he is middle aged yet he looks quite young .

Milk of human kindness — दया का भाव

She is full of the milk of human kindness .

Mind one's own business — दूसरों के काम में दखल न देना, अपना ही काम करना

Mind your own business ; don't interfere in my personal affairs .

Miss the boat — अवसर खोना

It was a golden opportunity for him to make a profit, but choosy as he is, he missed the boat .

Moot point — विवाद का विषय

Whether school children should be given sex education or not is a moot point .

Move heaven and earth — किसी काम के लिए अत्यधिक प्रयत्न करना

He will move heaven and earth to find out about the murderer .

(N)

Naked eye — किसी उपकरण की सहायता के बिना देखना

You can not look straight at the sun at noon with naked eye .

Narrow escape — बाल-बाल बचना

No sooner did we run out of the burning house than it collapsed. It was indeed a narrow escape .

Never mind — कोई बात नहीं, कष्ट करने की कोई ज़रूरत नहीं

Never mind , if you cannot arrange for the books I had asked for .

Next to nothing — करीब-करीब कुछ भी नहीं

The children have eaten the entire loaf of bread and there is next to nothing left .

Nine days wonder — केवल थोड़े ही दिनों के लिए ध्यान आकर्षित करने वाली कोई नयी चीज़

Many a scientific inventions have proved just nine day's wonders .

Nip in the bud — कोई चीज़ प्रारंभ में ही/बाल्यावस्था में ही खत्म कर देना
The government nipped the revolt in the bud .

No love lost between — अनबन/दुश्मनी होना
Although Mr. Sharma and Mr. Verma do not quarrel openly there is no love lost between them .

No matter — कुछ भी हो तो भी
No matter where the thief tries to hide, the police will find him out .

Not fit to hold a candle — निचले दर्जे का होना
Most of the English dramatists are not even fit to hold a candle to Shakespeare .

Not on your life — बिल्कुल नहीं
I asked Ashok if he was interested in joining politics and he retorted : “ not on your life ”.

Not worth his salt — नालायक व्यक्ति
I had employed him as he had brought good certificates, but I soon found out that he was really not worth his salt .

Now and then — कभी-कभी
I don’t often fall ill, but now and then I do catch cold .

Null and void — व्यर्थ
This offer is open for six months, after which it will become null and void .

(O)

Of a piece — समान, सदृश
Ram and Shayam are of a piece in their general conduct .

Of late — आजकल
Of late many girls have started dressing like boys .

Off and on — कभी-कभी, अनियमित रूप से
He drops in off and on for a chat with me .

Off one’s head — बुद्धि भ्रष्ट होना
How can you say I won’t help you? Are you off your head ?

Oily tongue — खुशामद की भाषा
I have seen many people falling prey to his oily tongue .

On edge — उत्सुकता से बेचैन होना
Expecting his examination result any moment he was on an edge throughout .

On one’s guard — सावधान/सचेत रहना
He tried to trick me, but I was on my guard .
On one’s last legs — खत्म होने की तैयारी में होना
This hotel project is on its last legs now .
On purpose — जानबूझकर
I suspect he made that mistake on purpose .
On the alert — सावधान
The commander asked the guards to be on the alert .
On the double — एकदम, जल्द
Double up to your quarters soldiers .
On the eve of — किसी कार्य का समय आ पहुंचने पर
On the eve of his marriage he fell ill .
On the look out — सावधान/सचेत रहना
The police inspector asked all constables to be on the look out for the thief .
On the spot — तत्काल, उसी क्षण
During police firing one man died on the spot .
On the wane — प्रभाव कम होते जाना
The British Empire’s influence is now on the wane .
On the whole — साधारणतया
I have slight doubts about certain things, but on the whole , I agree with you .
On time — समय पर
Did you reach office on time today ?
Once and for all — आखिरी बार निश्चित रूप से
I am warning you once and for all to mend your ways .
Once in a while — कभी-कभी, एकाध बार
Earlier I used to see a film every Sunday, but now I go only once in a while .
Once upon a time — प्राचीन काल में (किसी समय)
Once upon a time there was a king, who was very powerful .
One and all — सबके सब
The soldiers one and all were drunk .
Open fire — गोली चलाना प्रारंभ करना
As the enemy approached, we opened fire .
Open-handed man — रुपए उदारता से ख़र्च करने वाला व्यक्ति
He is an open-handed man and will certainly help you with

money .

Open-hearted man — खुले दिल का आदमी

He is an open-hearted person and liked by all .

Open mind — किसी बात पर निर्णय पर न पहुंचना

I have an open mind on this question .

Open one's mind — अपने (गुप्त) विचार बता देना

She opened her mind to me and told me that she was in love with him .

Open question — अनिर्णीत बात

Whether the government will accept opposition's this proposal or not is an open question .

Open secret — ऐसा राज़ जो सबको मालूम हो गया है

It is an open secret that this film star is bald and wears a wig .

Order of the day — कोई चीज़ या कार्य प्रचलित होना

Nowadays jeans are the order of the day among youth .

Out and out — पूरी तरह से

He is out and out a docile character .

Out at elbows — गरीब, निर्धन

He has suffered heavy losses in business and is now out at elbows .

Out of breath — थक जाना, जोर-जोर से सांस लेना

He ran very fast and was out of breath , when he reached here .

Out of date — पुराना

Double-breasted coats are now out of date .

Out of doors — घर के बाहर

One must spend some time out of doors everyday .

Out of favour — खफा होना

Mr. Sharma, once a great favourite of our boss, now seems to be out of favour with him .

Out of hand — बिना विलम्ब, तत्काल

If you do this job out of hand you will be free in the evening .

Out of one's mind — पागल हो जाना

You are shouting and screaming as if you are out of your mind .

Out of order — काम न करने वाला यंत्र

I had to take a taxi because my car was out of order .

Out of pocket — पैसे न होना

I’m sorry I cannot lend you any money as I am out of pocket myself .

Out of sight, out of mind — कोई चीज़ अथवा कोई कार्य सामने न होने से/ दिखने से भूल जाना

Even when I was in Bombay I remembered you always. It was not a question of out of sight, out of mind .

Out of sorts — स्वास्थ्य थोड़ा सा ठीक न होना

I feel out of sorts today .

Out of step — असामयिक अथवा असंबद्ध

Your remark is quite out of step in what we are discussing .

Out of temper — गुस्से में होना

Be on your guard, the boss seems to be out of temper today .

Over and over — बार-बार

He is such a dull boy that I have to explain to him the same thing over and over .

Over head and ears — दिलोजान से (प्यार करना)

He is over head and ears in love with her .

Over night — रात में

It’s quite late, why don’t you stay here over night ?

Over and above — इसके अलावा

Over and above this consideration, there is another I wish to mention .

Over one’s head — समझ में न आना

The speech of chairman was so pedantic that it went over the heads of the audience .

(P)

Part and parcel — उसी का अंग होना

Every person is part and parcel of the society .

Passing strange — अत्यधिक आश्चर्यजनक

Rakesh has turned out to be spy for the enemy! It’s passing strange .

Pay one back in his own coin — जैसे को तैसा

Don’t play tricks on him, otherwise he will pay you back in your own coin .

Pick a lock — कुंजी के बिना ताला खोलना

The burglar picked the lock and broke into the house .

Pick a quarrel with — किसी के साथ उलझना

The soldier was furious over his insulting remark and was determined to pick a quarrel with the sailor .

Pick holes — त्रुटियां निकालना

Scientists tried to pick holes in his theory .

Pick pocket — पाकिट मारना

A young boy was arrested by the police for picking a man’s pocket .

Pick up the tale — दूसरे का बिल चुकाना

When he went abroad to attend an international conference, his company picked up the tale .

Pin something on — किसी को ज़िम्मेदार ठहराना

Despite his best efforts the public prosecutor could not pin the robbery on the accused .

Pink of condition — उत्तम स्वास्थ्य होना

If you want to make a name as an athlete you must be in the pink of condition .

Piping hot — बहुत गर्म/ताज़ा

I always prefer to have my tea piping hot .

Play a trick on — किसी के साथ मज़ाक करना

The boys tried to play a trick on the professor, but he was too clever for them .

Play fast and loose with — काम पूरा न करने की परवाह न करना

You promised to stitch my shirt by today. But you haven’t. How can you play fast and loose with your promises like this .

Play second fiddle — निचला स्थान स्वीकारना

He always plays second fiddle .

Play something by the ear — अन्दाज़ से कार्यवाही करना

As I did not know much of subject, I decided to play it by the ear rather than show my ignorance by asking a lot of questions .

Play the game — नियमानुसार करना

Whatever you do, always play the game .

Play truant — भाग जाना

Playing truant is a bad practice among school children which should be checked at a proper stage .

Play up to — खुशामद करना
Ravi plays up to every girl he meets .
Plume oneself on — डींग मारना
Vikas always plumes himself on his record in mathematics .
Pocket an insuit — अपमान सहकर खामोश रहना
A debtor, unable to pay, has to often pocket insults from his creditor .
Poet laureate — राजकवि
Wordsworth was the poet laureate for England during the early nineteenth century .
Point blank — तत्काल
When I asked him to loan me 200 rupees, he refused point blank .
Poison the mind — किसी के खिलाफ दिमाग में ज़हर घोलना
Ramesh tried to poison my mind against Umesh .
Pros and cons — किसी समस्या के परस्पर विरोधी अंग
Don’t pester me about your appointment. I shall take a decision only after weighing the pros and cons of the matter .
Provide against a rainy day — बुरे दिन के लिए बचत करना
Wise men save to provide against a rainy day .
Pull one’s punches — नर्म आलोचना करना
When I complained to the neighbour about his vicious dog, I did not pull any punches .
Pull one’s weight — ज़िम्मेदारी निभाना
If you do not pull your weight you will be sacked .
Pull oneself together — स्वयं पर काबू पाना
You can’t go on weeping like this over bad results . Pull your self together .
Pull well with — मिलजुलकर काम करना
I resigned my job because I could not pull well with my ill-tempered boss .
Put a spoke in one’s wheel — प्रगति में रुकावट
Babu Ram was getting on well in business till Lala Ram opened a rival establishment and thus put a spoke in his wheel .
Put down in black and white — लिखकर रखना
I am not lying. The evidence is here in black and white .

Put it to one — राय के लिए पेश करना

I put it to you , is it wise to squander money like this .

Put on trial — केस करना

Although Ram hadn’t stolen any money he was put on trial .

Put one on his guard —किसी को सावधान करना

As the robber saw the watchman he put his accomplice on his guard .

Put one out of countenance —लज्जित करना

My friendly response to his hostile attitude put him out of countenance .

Put one’s foot down — सख्त मनाही करना

I did not mind my son spending some money on clothes, but when he asked for a hundred rupees for a new tie, I had to put my foot down .

Put one’s foot in it — बहुत बड़ी गलती करना

He put his foot in it when he addressed the chief guest by the wrong name .

Put one’s hand to a thing — कोई कार्य हाथ में लेना

Once you put your hand to this job you won’t find it very difficult .

Put one’s shoulder to the wheel — स्वयं खूब प्रयास करना

It was a very tough job to be handled by one person, but he put his shoulder to the wheel .

Put something by for a rainy day — बचत करना

Don’t be in a hurry to spend all your money ; put something by for a rainy day .

Put the cart before the horse — कोई काम उल्टे सिरे से प्रारंभ करना

How can you prepare the plan before you have got the loan sanctioned. It’s like putting the cart before the horse .

Put the screw — ज़बर्दस्ती रोकना

Unless you put the screw on your extravagant expenditure you’ll be in debt soon .

Put things ship shape — ठीक जंचाकर रखना

Clean the room and put everything ship shape .

Put to bed — सुलाना

She put her children to bed .

Put to flight — भगाना

During 1971 war the Indian Army put up a tremendous show and put the enemy to flight .

Put to sea — समुद्री यात्रा आरम्भ करना

That ship will be put to sea tomorrow .

Put to shame — लज्जित करना

I had been unfair to him, but he put me to shame by his generous behaviour .

Put to the sword — कत्ल करना

Nadir Shah put many innocent Indians to sword.

Put up to — उकसाना

Who put you up to this mischief ?

Put up with — बर्दाश्त करना

How do you put up with that kind of noise whole day ?

(Q)

Quarrel with one's bread and butter —जहां से रोटी मिलती है वहां के वरिष्ठ अधिकारी से झगड़ा करना

Giving it back to your superiors is just like quarrelling with your bread and butter .

Queer fish — अस्थिर व्यक्ति

You never know how he might behave. He's a queer fish .

Quick of understanding — तेज़ बुद्धि वाला I didn't think much of him, but he was quick of understanding and easily grasped the subject .

Quite a few — बहुत सारे

Quite a few students were absent in our class today .

(R)

Rack one's brains — बहुत अधिक सोचना I racked my brains over this algebra problem for two hours, but could not find a solution .

Racy style — विशिष्ट शैली

He writes in a racy style .

Read between the lines — अतिरिक्त मतलब समझ जाना

His speech was very simple, but if you read between the lines you can find it was full of biting criticism .

Read upon — जानकारी एकत्र करना

I am reading upon Canada as I shall be shortly visiting it .

Ready money — नकद रुपया

Do you have ready money to make the payment ?

Ready pen — जल्द लिखने की क्षमता

A journalist has to have a ready pen .

Real estate — मकान आदि अचंल संपत्ति

The most safe investment these days is the one in the real estate .

Red letter day — स्वर्ण दिन

August 1947 is a red letter day in Indian history .

Red tape — दफ्तरी कार्यवाही में विलम्ब होना

The red tape of government thwarts many a promising project .

Rest on one’s laurels — और यश प्राप्ति हेतु कोशिश न करना

It’s a great achievement to have secured a first position in University, but you must not rest on your laurels .

Rest on one’s oars — थोड़ा यश प्राप्ति के बाद कोशिश बंद करना

Don’t rest on your oars until you’ve reached the top .

Ride a hobby — अपने प्रिय विषय की ही बातें करते रहना

I tried to converse with him on various subjects, but he kept riding his hobby .

Right hand man — दाहिना हाथ होना, प्रमुख सहायक

Ram Prashad is minister’s right hand man so you can’t displease him .

Right here — इसी जगह

See me right here at this shop after half an hour .

Right now — तत्काल, इसी समय

Let us do it right now .

Rise like a phoenix from its ashes — नष्ट की हुई वस्तु का फिर से जीवित होना

Many times the tyrant stamped out revolt in his kingdom, but it kept on rising like a phoenix from its ashes .

Rise to the occasion — किसी विशेष अवसर का मुकाबला करना

During the Chinese aggression many people rose to the occasion and raised crores of rupees for war efforts .

Roaring business — बहुत तेज़ी का व्यवसाय

Till yesterday he was a small time shopkeeper. But ever since

he has started with book trade he has been doing roaring business .

Rough guess — मोटा अन्दाज़ा

At a rough guess I would say there were about fifty people at Shyam’s party .

Round dozen — पूरा दर्जन

This man has a round dozen of children .

Rule of thumb — योग्यता नहीं अनुभव के बल पर कार्य करना

He is an efficient mechanic although he does the job only by rule of thumb .

Rule the roost — दूसरों पर रोब डालना, अधिकार जमाना

I don’t like Ashok. He always tries to rule the roost .

Ruling passion — जीवन का स्थायी भाव

Love of money has been the ruling passion of his life .

Run away with — 1 . बह जाना

If you let your feelings run away with your judgement, you won’t make a good judge .

2 . एक ही भाव के लिए बैठे रहना

Don’t run away with the notion that I do not want to succeed .

Run in the blood — परिवार में आनुवंशिक होना

Acting runs in Kapoor family’s blood .

Run of good luck — अनकूल भाग्य का अवसर

In the beginning he had a run of good luck and made a big profit, but has been suffering losses now .

Run on a bank — लोगों की ओर से बैंक से तुरन्त रुपये निकालने का आग्रह

There was a run on the bank as the rumour spread that it was being closed down .

Run out of — समाप्त हो जाना

We ran out of petrol on our way to Agra .

Run riot — निरंकुश बर्ताव करना

The poet’s imagination has run riot in this poem .

(S)

Scot free — बचकर निकलना

As the police could not collect enough evidence against the robber he went scot free .

Search me — मुझे पता नहीं “ Why did she get so angry suddenly ?”

search me

Seasoned food — मसालेदार भोजन

Seasoned food is tasty, but not good for digestion .

See how the land lies — चारों ओर की परिस्थिति का अंदाज़ा लगाना

We’ll attack the enemy at night after seeing how the land lies .

See how the wind blows — परिस्थिति का अन्दाज़ा लगाना

We might launch the product in the market next month after seeing how the wind blows .

See the light — प्रकाशित होना

He says he has written a book. But if he has, it is vet to see the light .

See through coloured spectacles — पूर्वाग्रह, पूर्व दृष्टि

If you couldn’t do well in the hockey tournament you should not lose heart. Don’t see through coloured spectacles .

Send one about his business — किसी को तुच्छता पूर्वक चलता करना

As the salesman started getting on my nerves I sent him about his business .

Serve one right — योग्य सज़ा मिलना

He was trying to push Sanjay but fell himself. It served him right .

Set a scheme on foot — योजना आरम्भ करना

After we had worked out all the details we set the scheme on foot .

Set at defiance — परवाह न करना

He set the law of land at defiance and landed up in jail .

Set at liberty — रिहा करना

As the police could not prove the case against the prisoner he was set at liberty .

Set eyes on — देखना

While wandering in the woods yesterday I happened to set my eyes on a strange sight .

Set one on his legs again — दुखी: व्यक्ति को सहायता कर उसे फिर से खड़ा करना

After he sustained serious losses in his business I gave him a loan to set him on his legs again .

Set one’s face against — कड़ा विरोध करना

They tried their best to draw him in the conspiracy, but he set his face against it .

Set one’s heart on — बहुत चाहना

My son has set his heart on going abroad for higher studies .

Set one’s house in order — अपने कार्यक्रम की ठीक ढंग से व्यवस्था करना

Ever since Lal Singh’s son has taken over the business he has set the house in order .

Set one’s teeth — कठिनाई सहन करने का निश्चय करना

I know I had to suffer hardship, but I had set my teeth and determined not to give up .

Set one’s teeth on edge — घृणा पैदा करना

His disgusting behaviour set my teeth on edges .

Set sail — समुद्री यात्रा आरम्भ करना

Let us go on board, the ship is about to set sail .

Set store in — बहुत महत्त्व देना

You don’t seem to set store in his advice .

Settle an account — झगड़ा करना

I have to settle an account with Ram .

Sharp practice — अप्रमाणिक व्यवहार

It is said that he has made good money through sharp practice .

Shooting star — उल्का

Have you ever seen a shooting star ?

Short cut — नज़दीक का रास्ता

This lane is a short cut to my house .

Show a bold front — उठकर विरोध करने का भाव दिखाना

You only have to show a bold front and he will yield to your demand .

Show fight — लड़ने की तैयारी दिखाना

A bully is a coward, and he will back out if you show fight .

Shut one’s mouth — किसी को चुप कराना

You can easily shut his mouth if you remind him of his foolish behaviour in the last party .

Sick bed — बीमार व्यक्ति का बिस्तर

How did you get into sick bed ? Till yesterday you were alright .

Sick leave — बीमारी के कारण ली हुई छुट्टी

I am on sick leave for the last one week .

Side issue — गौण प्रसंग

We'll take up the side issues after we are through with the main problem .

Side line — मुख्य कार्य के अलावा कार्य

We are mainly dealers in ready-made garments, but sale of hosiery items is our side line .

Sight seeing — दृश्यावलोकन

During our halt in Madras we went sight seeing .

Single blessedness — अविवाहित अवस्था

Why should I marry? I don't want to give up the state of single blessedness .

Sink money — किसी व्यवसाय में सदा के लिए धन लगाना

He has sunk in a lot of money in a business of precious stones and nothing has come out of it .

Sink or swim — करो या मरो

Whatever be the situation I will never leave you. We shall sink or swim together .

Sit up with — बैठे रहना

As her husband was ill she sat up with him throughout the night .

Skin of one's teeth — बाल-बाल बचना

When the ship sank everybody drowned except Vimal who managed to escape with the skin of his teeth .

Sleeping partner —किसी व्यवसाय में सक्रिय भाग न लेने वाला भागीदार

I told him that I could invest some money in a joint venture with him, but as I was busy with my own affairs I could only be a sleeping partner .

Slip of the pen — लिखने में थोड़ी गलती होना

It was just a slip of the pen when I wrote 'boot' instead of 'foot '.

Slip of the tongue — बोलने में थोड़ी गलती होना I didn't mean to hurt you. It was just a slip of the tongue .

Slip through one 's fingers — हाथ से निकल जाना

Had you been a little careful this golden opportunity would not have slipped through your fingers .

Small arms — पिस्तौल आदि हथियार

Illegal distribution of small arms has given a fillip to crime in our area .

Small fry — छोटा/नगण्य

I have a factory of my own, but as compared to a big industrialist like you I am only a small fry .

Small hours — सुबह के पहले का समय

As I had to catch a flight I got up in the small hours of the morning .

Small talk — गपशप

We passed a pleasant hour in small talk .

Snake in the grass — आस्तीन का सांप

Don’t ever trust Mohan. He is a snake in the grass .

So far — अब तक So far I have completed only five chapters of this book .

Sound a person — किसी विचार का पता बताना

I learn you have been sounded for the general manager’s post .

Sound beating — अच्छी तरह पिटाई करना

The teacher caught on to Gopal’s mischief and gave him a sound beating .

Sour grapes — अंगूर खट्टे

The fox tried her best to reach the grapes but couldn’t. Finally she said that grapes were sour .

Sow one’s wild oats — युवावस्था में भ्रष्ट जीवन बिताना

After sowing his wild oats he has now got a job and finally settled down .

Spare time — आराम का समय

In my spare time I prefer to read .

Speak extempore — किसी मौके पर, बिना पहली तैयारी के भाषण देना

Although he spoke extempore it was a fine speech .

Speak for itself — खुद बोलना

I am not exaggerating by praising him. His work speaks for itself .

Speak for one — किसी की तरफ से बोलना

As he was too shy to put forward his case I had to speak for him .

Speak of one in high terms — खूब प्रशंसा करना

You speak of him in high term . But does he deserve so much praise ?

Speak one’s mind — साफ-साफ बताना

Since you have asked for my candid opinion. I shall speak my mind .

Speak volumes — अच्छी तरह साबित करना

It speaks volumes for her love for him that she left her home to marry him .

Speak well for — अच्छा अभिप्राय निकालना

The neatness of his writing speaks well for him .

Spin a yarn — कहानी कहना

Are you telling the truth or just spinning a yarn ?

Split hairs — बहुत बारीक फर्क निकालना

You should not split hairs , but take a broad view of the matter .

Spur of the moments — उसी क्षण

On the spur of the moment we decided to go to Simla for vacation .

Stand in another man’s shoes — किसी दूसरे की जगह में

In his absence I have to stand in his shoes .

Stand in good stead — बहुत काम आना

His regular habit of saving stood him in good stead in difficult times .

Stand on ceremony with — शिष्टाचार पालन करना

Please be at ease, you don’t have to stand on ceremony with me .

Stand one’s ground — अपनी बात पर डटे रहना

He put forth many objections to my proposal but I stood my ground .

Stand a chance — सम्भावना होना

Although the rival cricket team was quite good it did not stand a chance of beating us .

Stand out against — हार न मानना

We tried our best to take him along for the expedition, but he stood against all our efforts .

Stand to reason — समझदारी के अनुकूल होना

It stands to reason that he would side with you .

Stand up for — जोर से मांग करना

If you yourself don’t stand up for your rights, no one else will do it for you .

Standing joke — हमेशा के लिए हंसी मज़ाक का विषय

His so-called skill at horse riding has become a standing joke after his fall from the horse the other day .

Standing orders — हमेशा पालन करने के लिए बनाए गए नियम

Our standing orders are to answer all letters the same day .

Stare one in the face — कोई संकट सामने उपस्थित होना

During his trek across the desert he ran out of water supply and death stared him in the face .

Steer clear of — दूर रहना

Why do you get involved with bad characters? You should steer clear of them .

Stick at nothing — कुछ भी करने से न झिझकना

He is so ambitious that he will stick at nothing to get ahead of others .

Stick up for — पक्ष लेना

If anybody criticises you in the meeting I’ll stick up for you .

Stone deaf — पूर्णत: बहरा

My grandmother was already hard of hearing but, of late, she has become stone deaf .

Stone’s throw — बहुत थोड़ा फासला होना

The railway station is just at a stone’s throw from our house .

Strain every nerve — अत्यधिक कोशिश करना

Although he strained every nerve to get audience’s attention nobody listened to him .

Strait-laced person — संकुचित मनोवृद्धि का व्यक्ति

His ideas are too liberal for a strait-laced person like his father .

Strike a bargain — सौदा पटाना

The fruit seller was asking for eight rupees for one kilogram of grapes. But, I managed to strike a bargain and got them for six only .

Strike while the iron is hot — अवसर आने पर लाभ उठाना

Now that prices are rising let us sell our stocks. We should strike while the iron is hot .

Strong language — गुस्से से भरी भाषा

Don’t use such strong language in the company of ladies .

Sum and substance — कुल मिलाकर मतलब

The sum and substance of my argument is that it is now too late to do anything .

Swallow the bait — प्रयोजन से ठग जाना

Election time promises are made to catch votes and many illiterate and ignorant men swallow the bait .

Swan song — आखिरी वक्तव्य

Mr. Pronob Ghoshal, a leading communist leader, issued a statement to the press during his serious illness, which proved to be his swan song .

Sworn enemies — कट्टर दुश्मन

Nothing can bring these two sworn enemies together .

(T)

Take a fancy — बहुत पसन्द आना

Although there is nothing outstanding about this bed sheet, yet I have taken a fancy to it .

Take a leap in the dark — परिणाम की परवाह किए बगैर कोई खतरे का काम करना

You took a leap in the dark by going into partnership with a dishonest person like Kuldip .

Take advantage of — फायदा उठाना

I took advantage of the sale at “ Babulal and Company ” and bought some cheap shirts .

Take by storm — अचानक प्रभावित करना

Runa Laila, melodious singer , took the audience by storm .

Take into account — विचार में लेना

In judging his performance in the examination you should also take into account the fact he was ill for a month .

Take it easy — अधिक फ्रिक न करना

The test is still quite far. So , take it easy .

Take it ill — बुरा मानना

I hope you will not take it ill if I tell you the truth .

Take one at his word — किसी के कहने पर विश्वास करना

Taking him on his word I put in Rs. 10,000 in sugar business .

Take one’s time — जल्दी न करना
I am in no hurry to go out. You take your time .
Take oneself off —चले जाना
Munnu, don’t trouble me . Take yourself off .
Take sides — दो के झगड़े में किसी एक का पक्ष लेना
I would not like to take sides in this quarrel .
Take someone by surprise — आश्चर्यचकित करना
I didn’t know he could sing so well. He took me by surprise that day .
Take someone for — गलत समझ बैठना
He resembles you so much that I took him for your brother .
Take stock — परिस्थिति का जायज़ा लेना
It is time for us to take stock of the situation before we take any further steps .
Take the air — खुली हवा में घूमना
To improve your health you should take the air every morning .
Take the bull by the horns — संकट का डटकर मुकाबला करना
Finally he decided to take the bull by the horns and ask his boss for a promotion .
Take the law into one’s hands — किसी को अपने ही हाथों सज़ा देना
Even if he is guilty you can’t take law in your hands and beat him like this .
Take time off — छुट्टी लेना
Since I was not feeling well I took two days off last week .
Take to heart — हृदय से अनुभव करना
She has taken her father’s death to heart .
Tell to one’s face — मुंह पर विरोध करना
Do you have the courage to tell him to his face that he is a fool ?
Take to one’s heels — भाग जाना
As the thief heard policemen’s whistle he took to his heels .
Take to pieces — पुर्जे अलग-अलग करना
Only yesterday I bought Raja this toy train and today he has taken it to pieces .
Take to task — कोसना, भर्त्सना करना
Mother took Naresh to task for his idleness .

Take aback — आश्चर्य चकित होना
I was taken aback at a strange sight in the jungle .
Taken up with — व्यस्त रहना
My time is taken up with a lot of household jobs .
Take upon oneself — जिम्मेदारी लेना
I took upon myself to look after Gopal’s ailing father .
Tell time — घड़ी में क्या समय है यह बताना
My son could tell time when he was only four years old .
Tell two things/persons apart — दो वस्तुओं में फर्क समझना
The two brothers look so much alike that no one can tell them apart .
Through and through — पूर्णत: I was caught in the rain yesterday and by the time I reached home I was wet through and through .
Through thick and thin — प्रतिकूल परिस्थिति में
The two friends stayed together through thick and thin .
Throw away money — अंधाधुंध खर्च करना
If you throw away money like this you will soon be on the streets .
Throw cold water upon — हतोत्साहित करना
I was eager to set up a business in precious stones, but he threw cold water upon my enthusiasm by pointing out its minus points .
Throw dust in one’s eyes — आंखों में धूल झोंकना, ठगना
He outlined a grand plan and asked for a loan for it, but I knew he was trying to throw dust in my eyes .
Throw oneself on — किसी से प्रार्थना करना
He knew I could help him out of the tight corner so he threw himself on my mercy .
Throw people together — लोगों को एकत्र करना
The purpose of my party is to throw persons of like interests together .
Time after time — बार-बार
He applied for a professor’s job time after time but could not succeed .
Time hangs heavy — मुश्किल से समय बिताना
Time hangs heavy on my hands on a holiday .

To a man — सब के सब

They rose to a man and left the room agitatedly .

To and fro — आगे पीछे

Preoccupied with his emotional problems he walked to and fro about the room in a pensive mood .

Turn away from — निवृत करना

I tried to turn them away from their evil purpose, but was unsuccessful .

Turn over a new leaf — नया जीवन आरंभ करना

He gave up his bad habits and turned over a new leaf .

Turn the tables — किसी की वरिष्ठता को उलट देना

He was ahead of me in the terminal examination, but I turned the tables on him in the annual examination .

Turn up one's nose at — नीचा समझना

He is so poor that he hardly gets anything to eat, and yet he turns up his nose at the idea of working for a living .

(U)

Under a cloud — संशयास्पद होना

After his misbehaviour on the field in India Boycott is under a cloud .

Up in arms — लड़ने को तैयार होना

In Afghanistan many Pathans are up in arms against Russians .

Up-to-date — आधुनिक

He is very careful to keep up with up-to-date fashions .

Ups and downs of life — जीवन का उतार चढ़ाव

I have had my share of ups and downs of life .

(W)

Wash one's hand of — जिम्मेदारी समाप्त कर लेना

I don't think anything is going to come off your programme of going for a trek so I wash my hands of it .

Waste one's breath — निरर्थक कोशिश करना

Don't argue with Harish any longer. You are only wasting your breath .

Watch out for — नज़र रखना

One thief went inside while the other waited outside near the gate to watch out for the police .

What not — इत्यादि

She went to the market on a shopping spree and bought shirts, socks, ties and what not .

What’s what — किसी परिस्थिति में क्या उचित है

He is an intelligent person and knows what’s what .

Wheels within wheels — जटिल कार्य का और जटिल होना

To begin with I thought I could tackle this job, but then I found that there were wheels within wheels .

Wide awake — पूरा जगा हुआ

I thought Manmohan was asleep. But as I talked of the plan for a film he got up wide awake .

Wide of the mark — निशाना चूकना

His argument sounds impressive, but is wide of the mark .

With might and main — पूरी ताकत लगाकर

They pushed the huge rock with might and main and cleared the way .

With bated breath — बड़ी उत्सुकता से

They all waited with bated breath for the election results .

Within an ace — करीब-करीब He was within an ace of being killed by the tiger .

Wolf in sheep’s clothing — मित्रता जताने वाला खतरनाक आदमी

Beware of Suresh. He is a wolf in sheep’s clothing .

World of good — बहुत अच्छा असर होना

This ayurvedic medicine has done me a world of good to my stomach problem .

Worn out — राज़ पता लगा लेना

The spy pretended to be his friend and tried to worn his secret out of him .

Worship the rising sun — उगते सूर्य को नमस्कार करना

The newly appointed manager has taken over and the staff has been worshipping the rising sun .

वर्गीकृत शब्दावली

CLASSIFIED VOCABULARY

शरीर के अंग

(PARTS OF BODY) अक्कल दाढ़—Dens serotinous (डैंस सिरोटिनस) अनामिका—Ring finger (रिंग फिंगर) अंगुली (पैर की)—Toe (टो) अंगुली (हाथ की)—Finger (फ़िंगर) अंगूठा—Thumb (थम) आंख—Eye (आई) आंत, अंतड़ी —Intestine (इन्टेस्टाइन) उपास्थि—Cartilage (कार्टिलिज) ओंठ—Lip (लिप) एड़ी—Heel (हील) कंधा—Shoulder (शोल्डर) कनपटी—Temple (टैम्पल) कमर—Waist (वेस्ट) कर्णपटल—Eardrum (ईयरड्रम) कलाई—Wrist (रिस्ट) कान—Ear (ईयर) कानी अंगुली—Little finger (लिटिल फ़िंगर) कांख, ब ल—Armpit (आर्मपिट) कोहनी—Elbow (एल्बो) खोपड़ी—Skull (स्कल) गर्दन, ग्रीवा —Neck (नैक) गर्भाशय—Womb (वूम) गर्भाशय —Uterus (यूटेरस) गालमुच्छ—Whiskers (व्हिस्कर्स) गला—Throat (थ्रोट) गाल—Cheeks (चीक्स) गुदा—Anus (ऐनस) गुर्दा, वृक्क—Kidney (किडनी) गोद —Lap (लैप) घुटना—Knee (नी) चमड़ा—Skin (स्किन) चूचुक—Nipple (निपल) चूतड़—Rump (रम्प) चेहरा—Face (फ़ेस) छाती (पुरुष की)—Chest (चैस्ट) छाती (स्त्री की)—Breast (ब्रैस्ट) जठर, आमाशय—Stomach (स्ट्मक) जबड़ा —Jaw (जॉ) जांघ—Thigh (थाइ) जिगर—Liver (लिवर) जीभ—Tongue (टंग) जूड़ा बालों का—Bun (बन) टखना—Ankle (ऐंकल) जोड़—Joint (जायंट) ठुड्डी— Chin (चिन) तर्जनी—Index finger (इंडैक्स फ़िंगर) तलवा—Sole (सोल) तालू—Palate (पैलेट) थूथन—Snout (स्नाउट) दाढ़ (चबाने वाले दांत)—Molar teeth (मोलर टीथ) दाढ़ी—Beard (बिअर्ड) दांत, दंत—Tooth (टुथ) दिमाग—Brain (ब्रेन) धमनी—Artery (आर्टरी) नख या नाखून—Nail (नेल) नथुना—Nostril (नॉस्ट्रिल) नस—Vein (वेन) नाक—Nose (नोज़) नाड़ी—Pulse (पल्स) नाभि—Navel (नेवल) निगल नली—Gullet (गलेट) पलक—Eyelid (आइलिड) पसली—Rib (रिब) प्लीहा—Spleen (स्प्लीन) पिंडली—Calf (काफ़) पित्त—Bile (बाइल) पीठ—Back (वैक) पेट (बाहरी)—Belly (बैली) पेट (भीतरी)—Stomach (स्ट्मक) पेट—Abdomen (ऐब्डोमेन) पुतली (आंख की)—Eyeball (आइबॉल) पेशी (पुट्ठा)—Muscle (मस्ल) पैर—Foot (फ़ुट) फेफड़ा, फुफ्फस—Lung (लंग) बगल—Armpit (आर्मपिट) बरौनी—Eyelash (आइलैश) बाल—Hair (हेयर) बांह—Arm (आर्म) भग—Vagina

(वजिना) भगनास—Glans clitoris (ग्लैन्स क्लिटोरिस) भ्रूण—Embryo (एम्ब्रयो) भौंह, भृकुटि—Eyebrow (आइब्रो) मध्यमिक—Middle-finger (मिडल फ़िंगर) मसूड़ा—Gum (गम) मस्तिष्क—Brain (ब्रेन) मुट्ठी—Fist (फ़िस्ट) मुख—Mouth (माउथ) मूत्राशय—Urinary bladder (यूरिनरी ब्लेडर) मूंछ—Moustache (माउस्टेच) योनि—Vagina (वजिना) रग—Nerve (नर्व) रोमकूप—Pore (पोर) रौवां—Hair (हेयर) लट—Lock (लॉक) ललाट—Forehead (फ़ोरहेड) लार—Saliva (सैलिवा) लिंग—(शिश्न)—Penis (पीनिस) लोहू—Blood (ब्लड) श्वास नली, कंठनाल—Trachea (ट्रैचिया) शिश्न मुंड—Glans penis (ग्लैन्स पीनिस) स्कन्ध, मध्य धड़—Trunk (ट्रंक) हड्डी—Bone (बोन) हथेली—Palm (पाम) हंसुली की हड्डी—Collar-bone (कॉलर-बोन) हृदय—Heart (हॉर्ट) हृदयावरण—Pericardium (पेरीकार्डियम) हाथ—Hand (हैंड)

रोग और शारीरिक दशाएं

(AILMENTS & BODY CONDITIONS) अजीर्ण, बदहज़्मी—Indigestion (इंडाइजैश्न) अन्धा—Blind (ब्लाइंड) अल्पदृष्टि—Shortsightedness (शार्टसाइटिडनैस) अम्ल पित्त—Acidity (एसिडिटी) अतिसार—Diarrhoea (डायरिया) आतशक—Syphilis (सिफ़लिस) आंत उतरना—Hernia (हर्निया) आंसू—Tears (टिअर्स) उकवत—Eczema (एग्ज़िमा) उबासी—Yawn (यॉन) कद—Stature (स्टैचर) कै करना—Vomit (वौमिट) कामला—Jaundice (जॉन्डिस) काला ज्वर—Typhus (टाइफ़स) कास—Bronchitis (ब्रॉन्काइटिस) काना—One-eyed (वन-आइड) कुबड़ा—Hunchback (हन्चबैक) कोढ़, महाकुष्ठ—Leprosy (लेप्रोसी) कोष्ठबद्धता, कब्ज़—Constipation (कांस्टिपेशन) कृमि—Worm (वर्म) खसरा—Measles (मीज़ल्स) खाज—Scabies, (स्कैबीज़) खांसी—Cough (कफ़) खुज़ली—Itch (इच) खून की कमी—Anaemia (एनेमिया) खून का बहना—Bleeding (ब्लीडिंग) गठिया—Rheumatism (रूमेटिज़्म) गर्भपात—Abortion (एबॉर्शन) गरमी—Syphilis (सिफ़लिस) गलदाह—Sore throat (सोर थ्रोट) गला बैठना—Hoarseness (होर्सनैस) गलसुआ, गुटिका—Tonsil (टॉन्सिल) गांठ—Tumour (ट्यूमर) गिल्टी—Gland (ग्लैंड) गूंगा—Dumb (डम) गंजा—Bald (बॉल्ड) घाव—Wound (वून्ड) चक्कर आने की स्थिति—Giddiness (गिडीनैस) चर्बी बढ़ना—Obesity (ओबेसिटी) चोट —Hurt (हर्ट) छींकना—Sneezing (स्नीज़िंग) जहरबाद—Cancer (कैन्सर) जलोदर—Dropsy (ड्राप्सी) जुकाम—Coryza (कौरिज़ा) जूड़ी, शीतज्वर—Ague (ऐग्यू) जंभाई—Yawning (यॉनिंग) ज्वर, बुखार—Fever (फ़ीवर) ठंड—Chill (चिल) डकार— Belching (बैल्चिंग) तन्दुरुस्ती—Health (हैल्थ) थूक—Spittle (स्पिट्ल) दमा—Asthma (एस्थमा) दर्द—Pain (पेन) दर्द (सिर का)—Headache (हैडेक) दर्द (पेट का)—Stomachache (स्ट्म्कएक) दस्त—Loose-stool, motion (लूज़ स्टूल, मोशन) दाद—Ringworm (रिंगवर्म) दुबला—Lean (लीन) दुस्साध्य उन्माद—Psychosis (साइकोसिस) दूरदृष्टि—Long-sightedness (लांग-साइटिडनैस) धसंका, श्वासनली शोथ—Bronchitis (ब्रानकाइटिस) नकसीर—Epistaxis (एपिस्टैक्सिस) नस चटकाना, मोच—Sprain (स्प्रेन)

निद्रा रोग—Narcolepsy (नार्कोलैप्सी) नींद—Sleep (स्लीप) नींद न आना—Insomnia (इन्सोम्निया) पथरी—Stone (स्टोन) पसीना—Sweat (स्वैट) पागल—Mad (मैड) पागलपन, उन्माद—Lunacy (ल्यूनेसी) पीव (पीप)—Pus (पस) पेचिश—Dysentery (डाइसेंट्री) प्रदर—Leucorrhoea (लिकोरिया) प्यास—Thirst (थर्स्ट) प्लेग—Plague (प्लेग) फुन्सी, मुहांसा—Pimple (पिम्पल) फोड़ा—Boil (बॉयल) बलगम, कफ़—Phlegm (फ़्लेम) बवासीर—Piles (पाइल्स) बहुमूत्र, मधुमेह—Diabetes (डायबिटीज़) वृण—Sore (सोर) बौना—Dwarf (ड्वार्फ़) भगन्दर—Fistula (फिस्टुला) मन्दाग्नि—Lack of appetite (लैक ऑफ़ एपिटाइट) मरोड़ा—Griping (ग्राइपिंग) मलबन्ध, कब्ज़—Constipation (कांस्टीपेशन) मस्सा—Wart (वॉर्ट) महामारी—Plague (प्लेग) मिरगी—Epilepsy (एपिलैप्सी) मुंहासों का रोग—Acne (एक्नि) मूत्र—Urine (यूरिन) मोतियाबिन्द—Cataract (कैटेरेक्ट) मोतीझरा—Typhoid (टायफायड) यकृत शोथ—Hepatitis (हेपाटिटिस) योनिच्छद—Hymen vaginale (हाइमेन वैज़िनल) लार—Saliva (सैलिवा) लू लगना—Sunstroke (सनस्ट्रोक) विष्टा—Stool (स्टूल) रक्तक्षीणता—Anaemia (एनेमिया) राजयक्ष्मा—Tuberculosis (ट्युबरकुलोसिस) रोग—Disease (डिज़ीज़) लंगड़ा—Lame (लेम) लंगड़ा बुखार—Dengue (डैंगे) शीत ज्वर—Influenza (इन्फ्लुएन्ज़ा) शीतला—Small-pox (स्माल-पॉक्स) श्वेत कुष्ठ—Leucoderma (ल्यूकोडेर्मा) सांस—Breath (ब्रैथ) सूजन—Swelling (स्वैलिंग) सूरजमुखी—Albino (एल्बिनो) सूज़ाक—Gonorrhoea (गोनोरिया) संग्रहणी—Diarrhoea (डायरिया) स्वर—Voice (वॉयस) स्वस्थ—healthy (हैल्दी) हिचकी—Hiccup (हिक्कप) हैज़ा—Cholera (कॉलरा) हृदय—Heart (हार्ट) हृदय झिल्ली-शोथ—Pericarditis (पैरिकार्डिटिस) क्षय—Consumption (कन्सम्पशन) क्षुधा-अभाव (अरुचि)—Anorexia (ऐनोरेक्सिया) वेषभूषा

(DRESSES) अस्तर—Lining (लाइनिंग) आस्तीन—Sleeve (स्लीव) अंगिया (चोली)—Bodice (बॉडिस) अंग्रेज़ी टोपी (टोप)—Hat (हैट) ऊन—Wool (वूल) कपड़ा—Cloth (क्लॉथ) कपड़े—Clothes (क्लॉद्स) कमरबंद—Belt (बैल्ट) कमीज़—Shirt (शर्ट) कमीज़ का कपड़ा—Shirting (शर्टिंग) कम्बल—Blanket (ब्लैंकेट) टोपी—Cap (कैप) कश्मीरा—Cashmere (कैश्मीर) कामदानी—Diaper brocade (डिआपर ब्रोकेड) किनारा—Border (बॉर्डर) किरमिच—Canvas (कैनवस) कोट—Coat (कोट) कोट-पतलून—Suit (सूट) गद्दा—Mattress (मैट्रेस) गैलिस—Suspenders (सस्पैंडर्स) गुलूबन्द—Muffler (मफ़लर) घाघरा —Skirt (स्कर्ट) घूंघट—Veil (वेल) चादर—Sheet (शीट) छींट—Chintz (चिंट्स) छोटा मोज़ा—Socks (सॉक्स) जामदानी; बेलबूटेदार, रेशमी वस्त्र—Damask (डैमस्क) जाली—Gauze (गॉज़) जांघिया—Underwear (अंडरवियर) जीन—Drill (ड्रिल) जेब—Pocket (पॉकेट्) झालर—Trimming (ट्रिमिंग) टोपी—Cap (कैप) दुपट्टा—Scarf (स्कार्फ़) तसमें—Laces (लेसिस) तागा—Thread (थ्रैड) तौलिया—Towel (टॉवेल) दस्ताने—Gloves (ग्लव्स) दुशाला—Shawl (शॉल) पट्टा—Lace (लेस) पतलून—Trousers (ट्राउज़र्स), Pant

(पैंट) पाजामा—Pyjama (पाजामा) फतुही—Jacket (जैकट) फलालीन—Flannel (फ़्लैनेल) फीता—Tape (टेप) बटन—Button (बटन) बड़ा कोट—Chester, Overcoat (चेस्टर, ओवरकोट) मखमल—Velvet (वेल्वेट) मगजी—Border (बॉर्डर) मलमल—Linen (लिनेन) मोज़े—Stockings (स्टॉकिंग्स) मोमजामा—Oil-cloth (आइल-क्लॉथ) रज़ाई—Quilt (क्विल्ट) रफू—Darning (डार्निंग) रुई—Cotton (कॉटन) रूमाल—Handkerchief (हैंडकरचीफ़) रेशम—Silk (सिल्क) लबादा, चोगा—Gown (गाउन) लट्ठा—Longcloth (लौंगक्लाथ) लहंगा—Long skirt (लॉग्स स्कर्ट) वर्दी—Uniform (यूनिफ़ॉर्म) वासकट—Waist-coat (वेस्ट-कोट) सर्ज—Serge (सर्ज) साटन—Satin (सैटेन) साफा—Turban (टर्बन) सूत—Yarn (यार्न) सूट का कपड़ा—Suiting (सूटिंग) शोख रंग—Bright colour (ब्राइट कलर) हल्का रंग—Light colour (लाइट कलर)

सम्बन्ध और रिश्ते

RELATIONS

अतिथि, यजमान—Guest (गैस्ट) अध्यापक—Teacher (टीचर) अम्मा, माता—Mother (मदर) किराएदार—Tenant (टेनैंट) उप-पत्नी—Mistress (मिस्ट्रेस) गुरु—Preceptor (प्रिसैप्टर) ग्राहक—Customer (कस्टमर) चाचा—Uncle (अंकल) चाची—Aunt (आन्ट) चेला—Disciple (डिसाइपल) जमींदार—Landlord (लैंडलॉर्ड) साली, जेठानी, देवरानी, ननद—Sister-in-law (सिस्टर-इन-लॉ) दत्तक कन्या—Adopted daughter (ऐडॉप्टिड डॉटर) दत्तक पुत्र—Adopted son (ऐडॉप्टिड सन) दादा—Grandfather (ग्रैण्डफ़ादर) दादी—Grandmother (ग्रैण्डमदर) दामाद—Son-in-law (सन-इन-लॉ) दोस्त (मित्र)—Friend (फ्रैंड) नाना—Maternal-grandfather (मैटर्नल ग्रैण्डफ़ादर) नानी—Maternal-grandmother (मैटर्नल ग्रैण्डमदर) पति—Husband (हस्बैंड) पत्नी—Wife (वाइफ़) पतोहू—Daughter-in-law (डॉटर-इन-लॉ) पिता—Father (फ़ादर) पुत्र—Son (सन) पुत्री—Daughter (डॉटर) प्रेम—Love affection (लव अफ़ैक्शन) प्रेमी—Lover (लवर) बहन—Sister (सिस्टर) बहनोई—Brother-in-law (ब्रदर-इन-लॉ) भतीजा, भांजा—Nephew (नेफ़्यू) भतीजी, भांजी —Niece (नीस) भाई—Brother (ब्रदर) मामा—Maternal uncle (मैटर्नल अंकल) मामी—Maternal aunt (मैटर्नल आंट) मुवक्किल—Client (क्लाइंट) मौसी—Mother’s sister (मदर्स सिस्टर) रखैल—Concubine, keep, mistress (कौंक्युबाइन कीप, मिस्ट्रेस) रोगी—Patient (पेशेंट) वारिस—Heir (ऐयर) शिष्य—Pupil (प्यूपिल) सगा—Own (ओन) ससुर—Father-in-law (फ़ादर-इन-लॉ) सास—Mother-in-law (मदर-इन-लॉ) संबंध—Relation (रिलेशन) संबंधी—Relative (रिलेटिव) सौतेली कन्या—Step-daughter (स्टैप-डॉटर) सौतेला पुत्र—Step-son (स्टैप-सन) सौतेले पिता—Step-father (स्टैप-फ़ादर) सौतेली बहन—Step-sister (स्टैप-सिस्टर) सौतेला भाई—

Step-brother (स्टैप-ब्रदर) घरेलू सामान

(HOUSEHOLD ARTICLES) अलमारी—Almirah (एलमिरा) अलमारी (दीवार में)—Cupboard (कबर्ड) ओखली, खरल—Mortar (मॉर्टर) अंगारा—Cinder (सिंडर) अंगीठी—Hearth (हर्थ) अंगुश्ताना—Thimble (थिंम्बल) अंटी, फ़िरकी, अटेरन—Bobbin (बॉबिन) इस्त्री—Iron (आयरन) ईंधन—Fuel (फ़्यूल) कड़ाही—Cauldron (कॉल्ड्रन) कम्बल—Blanket (ब्लैंकेट) करछुल, थम्बल—Ladle (लेडल) कनस्तर—Canister (कैनिस्टर) कंघी—Comb (कोम) कुरसी—Chair (चेयर) कांटा—Fork (फ़ोर्क) कीप—Funnel (फ़न्नल) गगरा, मर्तबान—Jar (जार) चकला—Pastry-board (पेस्ट्री-बोर्ड) चटाई—Mat (मैट) चमचा—Spoon (स्पून) चलनी, छलनी—Sieve (सीव) चादर—Bed-sheet (बैड-शीट) चाभी—Key (की) चारपाई—Cot (कॉट) चिमटा—Tong (टौंग) चिमनी—Chimney (चिमनी) चूल्हा—Stove (स्टोव) चूल्हा (बिजली का)—Electric-stove (इलेक्ट्रिक-स्टोव) छड़ी—Stick (स्टिक) छाता—Umbrella (अंब्रेला) छोटा बक्स—Attache (case) (अटैची) जाला—Cobweb (कॉबवेब) जाली (चूल्हे की)—Grate (ग्रेट) झाड़ू—Broom (ब्रूम) झूला—Swing (स्विंग) ट्रे—Tray (ट्रे) टोकरी—Basket (बास्केट) डिब्बा—Box (बॉक्स) डोंगा—Bowl (बाउल) तकिया—Pillow (पिलो) तकिये का गिलाफ़—Pillow-cover (पिलो-कवर) तराजू—Balance (बैलेंस) तश्तरी—Saucer (सॉसर) तार—Wire (वायर) ताला—Lock (लॉक) तिजोरी—Safe (सेफ़) तन्दूर—Oven (ओवेन) थाली—Plate (प्लेट) दर्पण—Mirror (मिरर) दियासलाई की डिबिया—Match-box (मैच-बॉक्स) दियासलाई की तीली—Match-stick (मैच-स्टिक) दन्त-खोदनी—Toothpick (टुथपिक) दन्त-मंजन—Tooth-powder (टुथ-पाउडर) धागा—Thread (थ्रैड) धूपदानी—Censer (सैन्सर) नल्का—Tap (टैप) पलंग—Bed (बैड) पालकी—Palanquin (पैलंकुइन) पायदान—Door-mat (डोर-मैट) पीकदान—Spittoon (स्पिटून) प्याला—Cup (कप) फानूस—Chandelier (शैनडिलियर) फूलदान—Flower-vase (फ्लावर-वाज़) बच्चों की गाड़ी—Perambulator (पेरैम्बूलैटर) बत्ती—Wick (विक्) बर्तन—Pot (पॉट), Container (कंटेनर), Utensils (यूटैन्सिलस) बटन—Button (बटन) बरफ रखने का बक्स —Ice-box (आइस-बॉक्स) बाल्टी—Bucket (बकेट) बुरूश—Brush (ब्रश) बेलन—Rolling pin (रोंलिग पिन) बोतल—Bottle (बॉट्ल) बोरा—Sack (सैक) मथनी—Churner (चर्नर) मसनद, तकिया—Bolster (बोल्सट्र) मथने का पात्र—Churn (चर्न) मिट्टी का तेल—Kerosene oil (कैरोसिन ऑयल) मूसली—Pestle (पैस्ल) मेज़—Table (टेबल) मोमबत्ती—Candle (कैंडल) रकाबी, थाली—Dish (डिश) रज़ाई, लिहाफ—Quilt (क्वि्ल्ट) रस्सा—Rope (रोप) रस्सी—String (स्ट्रिंग) राख—Ash (ऐश) लेखनाधार—Table desk (टेबल डैस्क) लेखनी—Pen (पेन) लैंप—Lamp (लैंप) लोटा——Bowl (बाउल) वस्त्र टांगने की अलमारी—Wardrobe (वॉर्ड रोब) शीशी—Phial (फ़ाइल) सन्दूक

—Box (बॉक्स) सरौता —Nut cracker (नट-कैकर) सलाई —Knitting needle (निटिंग नीड्ल) साबुन —Soap (सोप) साबुनदानी —Soap-case (सोप-केस) सिंगारदान, मंजूषा —Casket (कास्केट) सुराही—Flagon (फ्लैगग्न) सुई—Needle (नीडैल) सँड़सी (चिमटी)—Pincers (पिंसर्स) हुक्का—Hubble-Bubble (हबल-बबल)/ Hookah (हुक्काह) गहने और आभूषण (ORNAMENTS AND JEWELS) अंगूठी—Ring (रिंग) कंगन, कड़ा—Bracelet (ब्रेसलेट) कड़ी—Chain (चेन) कांटा (साड़ी का)—Brooch (ब्रोच) कील, लौंग (नाक की)—Nose-pin (नोज़-पिन) कर्णफूल—Tops (टॉप्स) गोमेदक —Zircon (ज़िरकॉन) चांदी—Silver (सिल्वर) चिमटी—Clip (क्लिप) चूड़ी—Bangle (बैंगल) जवाहरात—Jewellery (जुएलरी) टीका (मांग)—Head-locket (हैड-लॉकेट) तमगा—Medal (मैडल) तल्ला (कान का)—Ear stud (ईयर स्टड) तोड़ा, कंगन, पहुंची—Wristlet (रिस्टलेट) नथ—Nose-ring (नोज़-रिंग) नीलम—Sapphire (सैफायर) पन्ना—Emerald (एमरैल्ड) पेटी—Belt (बेल्ट) पायज़ेब—Anklet (ऐंकलेट) पुखराज—Topaz (टोपैज़) पोलकी, दुधिया पत्थर—Opal (ओपल) फीरोजा—Turquoise (टर्क्वौइज़) बाजूबन्द—Armlet (आर्मलेट) बालों की सुई—Hair-pin (हैअर-पिन) बिल्लौर—Quartz (क्वॉरट्ज़) मानिक—Ruby (रूबी) माला, हार—Necklace (नैकलेस), Garland (गारलैण्ड) मुकुट—Tiara (टिआरा), Crown (क्राउन) मूंगा—Coral (कोरल) मोती—Pearl (पर्ल) मोती की सीप—Mother of pearl (मदर ऑफ़ पर्ल) लहसुनिया—Cat’s eye (कैट्स आई) हीरा—Diamond (डायमंड) संगीत/वाद्य (MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS) गिटार—Guitar (गिटार) घंटी—Bell (बैल) चंग, सारंगी—Harp (हार्प) झाँझ, छैना, करताल—Cymbal (सिम्बल) डफ—Tambourine (टैम्बरीन) डुगडुगी—Drumet (ड्रमेट) ढोल—Drum (ड्रम) ढोलक—Tomtom (टॉमटॉम) तबला—Tabor (टेबर) तुरही—Clarion (क्लैरियन) नगाड़ा—Drum (ड्रम) पियानो—Piano (पियानो) बैंजो—Banjo (बैंजो) बेला—Violin (वायलिन) बांसुरी—Flute (फ्लूट) बीन-बाजा—Mouth-organ (माउथ-ऑर्गन) मशक बीन—Bagpipe (बैगपाइप) मुरचंग—Jew’s harp (ज्यू’ज़ हार्प) शहनाई—Clarionet (क्लैरियनेट) शंख—Conch (कौंच) सरोद—Sarod (सरोद) सितार—Sitar (सितार) सिंघा या बिगुल—Bugle (ब्यूगल) सीटी—Whistle (व्हिसल) हारमोनियम—Harmonium (होरमोनियम) खाद्य-पदार्थ (CEREALS AND EATABLES) अचार—Pickle (पिकल) अनाज, धान्य, कर्ण, दाना—Grain (ग्रेन) अरहर—Pigeon pea (पिजिन पी) अरारूट—Arrowroot (ऐरोरूट) आटा—Flour (फ्लोर) इलायचीदाना—Comfit (काम्फ़िट) उड़द—Phaseolies mungo (फैसियोलीज़ मंगो) कढ़ी, रसा, शोरबा —Curry (करी) कहवा—Coffee (कॉफ़ी) कीमा—Minced meat (मिन्स्ड मीट) कुलफ़ी—Ice-cream (आइस-क्रीम), Kulfi (कुल्फी) ग्वार—Cluster

bean (क्लस्टर बीन) गेहूं—Wheat (वीट) घी—Clarified butter (क्लैरिफ़ाइड बटर), Ghee (घी) गोल मटर—Field pea (फ़ील्ड पी) चटनी—Sauce (सॉस) चना—Gram (ग्राम) चपाती—Chapati (चपाती) चावल—Rice (राइस) चाय—Tea (टी) चिड़वा—Beaten paddy (बीटन पैडी) चीनी—Sugar (शुगर) चोकर—Bran (ब्रेन) छना, पनीर—Cheese (चीज़) ज्वार, बाजरा इत्यादि मोटा अनाज—Millet (मिलैट) जलपान—Snacks (स्नैक्स) जई—Oat (ओट) जई का आटा—Oat-meal (ओट-मील) जौ—Barley (बारले) जुवार, चोलम—Great millet (ग्रेट मिलैट) जूस, यूष, शोरबा—Broth (ब्रॉथ) तरकारी, सब्ज़ी—Vegetable (वेजिटेबल) तिल—Sesame (सेसम) तेल—Oil (ऑयल) दलिया—Gruel (ग्रुएल) दही—Curd (कर्ड) दाल—Pulse (पल्स) दिन का भोजन—Lunch (लंच) दूध—Milk (मिल्क) धान—Paddy (पैडी) टमाटर की चटनी—Tomato ketchup/sauce (टोमैटो केचप/सॉस) पनीर—Cheese (चीज़) पाव रोटी—Loaf (लोफ़) पोस्त—Poppy (पॉपी) बबूल का गोंद—Gum acacia (गम अकेसिया) बरफ—Ice (आइस) बाजरा—Pearl millet (पर्ल मिलेट) बिस्कुट—Biscuit (बिस्किट) भुट्टा—Corn-ear (कॉर्न-ईयर) भोज, दावत—Feast (फ़ीस्ट) भोजन—Food (फूड) मकई—Maize (मैज़) मक्खन—Butter (बटर) मटर—Pea (पी) मट्ठा —Whey (व्हे) मलाई—Cream (क्रीम) मसूर—Lentil (लेन्टिल) मांस—Meat (मीट) मांस (गाय का)—Beef (बीफ़) मांस (बकरे का)—Mutton (मटन) मांस (सुअर का)—Pork (पोर्क) मिठाई—Sweetmeat (स्वीटमीट) मिश्री—Sugar-candy (शुगर-कैन्डी) मुरब्बा—murabba (मुरब्बा), Conserve (कनसर्व) मुरमुरा—Puffed rice (पफ़्ड राइस) मूंग—Kidney-bean (किडनी-बीन) मैदा—Maida (मैदा) मोथी—Buck-wheat (बक-व्हीट) राई, सरसों—Mustard (मस्टर्ड) रात का भोजन—Dinner (डिनर) रेंडी—Castor-seed (कैस्टर-सीड) रोटी, डबलरोटी—Bread (ब्रैड) शक्कर का डला—Loaf-sugar (लोफ़-शुगर) शर्बत—Syrup (सिरप) शीरा, राब, चाशनी—Treacle (ट्रीकल) शराब—Wine (वाइन) शहद—Honey (हनी) सरसों—Mustard (मस्टर्ड) सिरका—Vinegar (विनेगर) सूजी—Semolina (सेमोलिना) सफेद सरसों—White mustard (व्हाइट मस्टर्ड) मसाले (SPICES) अगर, मुसब्बर—Aloe (एलो) अजमोदा या खुरासानी अजवाइन—Parsley (पार्सली) अजवाइन—Caraway (कैरावे) अजवाइन का सत—Thymol (थाइमल) अदरक—Ginger (जिंजर) अलसी, अतसी—Linseed (लिनसीड) आंवला—Phyllanthus emblica (फिलेन्थस एम्बलिक) इलायची—Cardamom (कॉरडामॅम) कत्था, खैर—Catechu (कैटिचू) कपूर—Camphor (कैम्फर) कलमी शोरा—Nitre (नाइटर) कलौंजी—Nigella (नाइजेला) कस्तूरी—Musk (मस्क) कसीस—Vitriol (विट्रिआयल) काली मिर्च—Black pepper (ब्लैक पैपर) कूट फिटकरी—Pseudo-alum (स्यूडोएलम) केसर—Saffron (सैफरन) कोकेन—Cocain (कोकेन) खमीर—Yeast (यीस्ट) खसखस—Popy

seed (पॉपी सीड) चन्दन—Sandal (संदल) चिरायता—Chirata (चिराता) जायफल—Nutmeg (नटमेग) जावित्री—Mace (मेस) जीरा—Cumin seed (कमिन सीड) तिली, रामतिल—Niger (निगर) तुलसी—Basil (sacred basil) (बैसिल) तेजपात—Cassia (कैसिया) दालचीनी—Cinnamon (सिनामॅन) धनिया—Coriander seed (कोरिएंडर सीड) नमक—Salt (साल्ट) पोदीने का सत—Menthol (मैनथॉल) मजीठ—Indian madder (इंडियन मैडर) माजूफल—Gall-nut (गैल-नट) मिर्च—Red pepper, chilli (रेडपैपर, चिली) मुलैठी—Liquorice (लिकराइस) लौंग—Clove (क्लोव) शरत केसर—Madow saffron (मैडो सफरॉन) शिकाकाई—Origanum (आरीगनम) शोरा—Saltpetre (साल्टपीटर) सज्जीखार, क्षार—Alkali (अलकली) सफेदा—Litharge (लिथार्ज) स्त्री केसर—Pistil (पिस्टिल) सुपारी—Betel-nut (बीटल-नट) सनाय—Senna (सेन्ना) सौंठ—Dry ginger (ड्राइ जिंजर) सौंफ—Aniseed (ऐनीसीड) साबूदाना—Sago (सागो) हल्दी—Turmeric (टरमेरिक) हड़—Myrobalan (माइराबलन) हींग—Asafoetida (एसफेटिडा) खनिज पदार्थ

(MINERALS) अकीक—Cornelian (कोर्नेलियन) अभ्रक—Mica (माइका) कसौटी—Touchstone (टच्स्टोन) कोयला (पत्थर का)—Coal (कोल) खनिज लोहा—Iron ore (आयरन ओर) खड़िया—Chalk (चाक) गन्धक—Sulphur (सल्फ़र) गेरू—Red ochre (रेड ओकर) चकमक पत्थर— Flint (फ़्लिंट) चांदी—Silver (सिल्वर) जस्ता—Zinc (ज़िंक) तांबा—Copper (कॉपर) तूतिया, नीला थोथा—Blue vitriol (ब्लू विट्रियल) धूसर बंग—Grey tin (ग्रे टिन) नैट्रॉन—Natron (नैट्रोन) पक्का लोहा, फौलाद—Steel (स्टील) पारा—Mercury (मरकरी) बिटुमेन—Bitumen (बिटुमेन) भूर-तांबा—Grey copper (ग्रे कॉपर) मिट्टी का तेल—Kerosene oil (केरोसिन ऑयल) रांगा—Tin (टिन) रामरज—Yellow ochre (येलो ऑकर) लोहा—Iron (आयरन) शैल तेल, पेट्रोलियम—Rock oil (रॉक ऑयल) स्टिऐटाइड—Steatite (स्टिऐटाइड) सुरमा—Antimony (ऐंटीमनी) संखिया—Arsenic (आर्सेनिक) सज्जी, मुल्तानी मिट्टी—Fuller’s earth (फुलर्स अर्थ) सफेद अबरक, श्वेत अभ्रक—Muscovite (मस्कोवाइट) सलेटी पत्थर—Shale (शेल) सिंगरफ, सिंदूर—Cinnabar (सिन्नेबर) सीसा—Lead (लैड) सुघट्य मिट्टी—Plastic-clay (प्लास्टिक-क्ले) सफेदा—White lead (व्हाइट लेड) सेलखड़ी,—Soap stone (सोप स्टोन) संगमरमर—Marble (मार्बल) हरताल—Orpiment (ओर्पिमेंट) वृक्ष और उनके भाग

(TREES AND THEIR PARTS) अंकुर—Germ (जर्म) अमरूद—Guava (गुआवा) अशोक—Polyalthia (पौलयाल्थिया) आम—Mango (मैंगो) इमली—Tamarind (टेमारिंड) कलम—Graft (ग्राफ्ट) कली, मुकुल, कलिका—Bud (बड) कन्द—Bulb (बल्ब) काठ—Wood (वुड) कांटा—Thorn (थॉर्न) गुठली—Stone (स्टोन) गूदा—Pulp (पल्प) गोंद—Gum (गम) चीड़—Pine (पाइन) छाल

—Bark (बार्क) छिलका—Skin (स्किन) जटा (नारियल की)—Coir (कॉइर) जड़ —Root (रूट) जयांग—Pistil (पिसिल) झाऊ—Conifer (कॉनीफ़र) ताड़—Palm (पाम) टहनी, डाल—Branch (ब्रांच) धड, स्कन्ध—Stem (स्टेम) नस—Fibre (फाइबर) पराग —Pollen (पोलेन) पराग कण—Pollen-grain (पोलेन-ग्रेन) पराग नलिका—Pollen tube (पोलेन-ट्यूब) पत्ती—Leaf (लीफ़) पत्रकन्द—Bubil (बबिल) पुमंग—Stamen (स्टैमिन) प्रकन्द—Rootstalk (रूटस्टाक) फूल —Flower (फ्लावर) बरगद, बड़—Banyan (बैनिअन) बबूल—Acacia arabica (अकेसिया अरेबिका) बीज—Seed (सीड) बांस—Bamboo (बैम्बू) भोजपत्र—Birch (बर्च) रस—Juice (जूस) रेशा—Fibre (फाइबर) शाखा—Branch (ब्रांच) सरो, सरू—Cypress (साइप्रेस) सागवान—Teak (टीक) सिरस —Abbizzia labbek (ऐबिजिया लेबेक) सेहुर, थोर, सिज—Cactus (कैक्टस)

फूल, फल, मेवे और सब्जियां

(FLOWERS, FRUITS, DRY FRUITS & VEGETABLES) अखरोट—Chestnut (चेसनट) अदरक—Ginger (जिंजर) अनानास—Pineapple (पाइनएपिल) अनार, दाड़िम—Pomegranate (पॉमेग्रेनेट) अमरूद—Guava (गुआवा) अलूचा—Plum (प्लम) अंगूर—Grape (ग्रेप) अंजीर—Fig (फिग) आम, अम्ब—Mango (मैंगो) आड़ू —Peach (पीच) आलू—Potato (पोटैटो) आलू बुखारा—Bokhara plum (बोखारा प्लम) अलूचा—Plum (प्लम) इमली—Tamarind (टॉमरिंड) ईख—Sugarcane (शूगरकेन) ककड़ी, खीरा—Cucumber (कूकंबर) कटहल—Jack-fruit (जैक-फ्रूट) कद्दू—Pumpkin (पम्पकिन) कमरख—Carambola (कैरम्बोला) कनेर—Oleander (ओलेयेंडर) कमल—Lotus (लोटस) कमलिनी, कुमुदिनी—Lily (लिली) करेला—Bitter gourd (बिटर गुअर्ड) काजू—Cashewnut (कैश्यूनट) काशीफल—Red pumpkin gourd (रेड पम्पकिन गुअर्ड) किशमिश— Currant (करैंट) कुकुरमुत्ता —Mushroom (मशरूम) केतकी, केवड़ा—Pandanus (पंडानस) केला—Banana (बनाना) कोहड़ा, फूट—Cucurbit gourd (कूकरबिट गुअर्ड) खजूर—Date (डेट) खरबूजा—Musk melon (मस्क मेलन) खट्टा नीबू—Lime (लाइम) खट्टी चेरी—Sour cherry (सावर चेरी) खुबानी—Apricot (एप्रीकोट) गलगल, चकोतरा—Citron (सिट्रॉन) गाजर—Carrot (कैरट) गांठगोभी—Knolkhol (नोलखोल) गुलदाउदी—Chrysanthemum (क्रिसेंथेमम) गुलमेंहदी—Touch-me-not (टच-मी-नॉट) गुल बहार—Daisy (डेज़ी) गुलाब—Rose (रोज़) गूलर डोड़ा—Boll (बॉल) गेंदा—Marigold (मैरीगोल्ड) घास—Grass (ग्रास) घिया, तुरई—Luffa (लूफ़ा) घुंइया, अरबी—Colocesia antiquorum (कोलासेसिया ऐंटीकोरम) चिचिंडा—Snake gourd (स्नेक गुअर्ड) चमेली —Jasmine (जैसमिन) चम्पा—Magnolia (मैग्नोलिया) चिकनी तोरी—Luffa gourd (लूफ़ा गुअर्ड) चिलगोज़ा—Pinus gerardiana (पाइनस गेरर्डियाना) चीकू—Sapodilla (सैपोडिला) चुकन्दर—Sugar beet (शूगर बीट) चौलाई—Amaranthus (एमरैन्थस) जमीकन्द—Amorphophallus campanulatus (एमोर्फोफालस कैम्पानुलेटस) जंगली सेब—Crab apple (क्रैब ऐपल) जंगली चौलाई—Prickly amaranth (प्रिकली

एमारैंथ) जापानी अलूचा—Japanese plum (जैपनीज़ प्लम) जामुन—Black berry (ब्लैक बेरी) जैतून—Olive (ऑलिव) तम्बाकू—Tobacco (टोबैको) तरबूज—Water melon (वॉटर मेलोन) दाख—Currant (करेंट) धतूरा—Belladona (बेलाडोना) धनिया—Coriander (कोरिएंडर) नरगिस—Narcissus (नार्सिसस) नागफनी—Prickly pear (प्रिकली पियर) नागभिका—Cobra flower (कोबरा फ्लावर) नारियल—Coconut (कोकोनट) नारंगी—Orange (ऑरेंज) नीबू—Lemon (लेमन) पटुआ—Hemp (हेम्प) पपीता—Papaya (पपाया) पत्ता गोभी—Brassica-campestrice (ब्रासिका-कैम्पेस्ट्राइस) परवल—Trichosanthes dioica (ट्रिकोसैन्थेस डिओइका) पहाड़ी पपीता—Mountain papaya (माउंटेन पपाया) पान—Betel (बीटल) पालक—Spinach (स्पिनिच) पिंडार—Randia duentorum (रैंडिया डुएंटोरम) पिस्ता—Pistachio (पिस्टैशियो) पुदीना—Mint (मिंट) पोस्त—Poppy (पॉपी) प्याज़—Onion (अनियन) फूलगोभी—Cauliflower (कॉलीफ्लावर) फालसा—Grawia asiatica (ग्रेविया एशियाटिका) बकायन—Lilac (लिलैक) वग्गूंगोशा—Pyrus malus (पाइरस मैलस) बादाम—Almond (एलमंड) बनफशा—Sweet violet (स्वीट वायलेट) बन्दगोभी—Cabbage (कैबेज) बांस, केवड़ा, केतकी—Sisal-hemp (सीसल-हेम्प) बैंगन—Brinjal (ब्रिंजॉल) भिंडी—Lady finger (लेडी फिंगर) भुट्टा—Corn-ear (कार्न-ईयर) मटर—Pea (पी) मकोय—Night shade (नाइट-शेड) मखाना—Euryle forex (यूराइल फ़ोरेक्स) माल्टा—Malta (माल्टा) मिर्च—Chilli (चिल्ली) मीठी चेरी—Sweet cherry (स्वीट चेरी) मुनक्का—Raisin (रैज़िन) मूंगफली—Groundnut (ग्राउंडनट) मूली—Raddish (रैडिश) मौसम्बी—Mosambi (मोसम्बी) रतालू—Yam (याम) रूई—Cotton (कॉटन) रोज़ बैरी—Rose Berry (रोज़ बैरी) लीची—Lichi (लीची) शकरकन्द—Sweetpotato (स्वीटपोटैटो) शफतालू, सतालू, आड़ू—Peach (पीच) शरीफा—Custard apple (क्स्टर्ड ऐपल) शलजम—Turnip (टर्निप) शहतूत—Mulberry (मलबेरी) सन—Flax (फ्लैक्स) सरस फल—Berry (बैरी) सलाद (पत्ता)—Lettuce (लेटिस) साबूदाना—Sago (सागो) सिंघाड़ा—Water nut (वॉटर नट) सेम—Bean (बीन) सेब—Apple (ऐपल) संतरा—Orange (ऑरेंज) सेमल—Silk-cotton (सिल्क-कॉटन) भवन और उनके भाग

(BUILDINGS AND THEIR PARTS) अटारी, कोठा—Attic (ऐटिक) अनाथालय—Orphanage (ऑर्फेनेज) आला—Niche (निच) अंगीठी—Hearth (हर्थ) अस्पताल, चिकित्सालय—Hospital (हॉस्पिटल) आंगन—Courtyard (कोर्टयार्ड) इमारत—Building (बिल्डिंग) कमरा—Room (रूम) कसाईखाना, बूचड़खाना—Slaughter-house (स्लॉटर-हाउस) कारखाना—Factory (फैक्टरी) कारनिस, छजली, कंगनी—Cornice (कार्निस) किला—Fort (फोर्ट) कोनिया—Bracket (ब्रेकेट) खपरेल—Tile (टाइल) खलिहान—Granary (ग्रेनरी) खिड़की—Window (विंडो) खूंटी—Peg (पेग) खण्ड—Storey (स्टोरी) गलियारा—Gallery (गैलरी) गिरजाघर—Church (चर्च) गुम्बज़, गुम्बद—Dome (डोम) चबूतरा—Platform (प्लेटफार्म)/Parapet (पैरापेट) चिड़ियाखाना—

Aviary (ऐवियरी) चिड़ियाघर—**Zoo** (जू) चुंगीघर—**Octroi-post** (ऑक्ट्राय-पोस्ट) चौखट—**Door-frame** (डोर-फ्रेम) चौरस छत—**Terrace** (टैरेस) छड़—**Bar** (बार) छत (ऊपर की)—**Roof** (रूफ़) छत (अन्दर की)—**Ceiling** (सीलिंग) छप्पर—**Shed** (शेड) जाली—**Lattice** (लैटिस) जंगला—**Railing** (रेलिंग) जंजीर—**Chain** (चेन) झरोखा—**Peep-hole** (पीप-होल) झोपड़ी—**Cottage** (कॉटेज) ड्योढ़ी, दहलीज—**Threshold** (थ्रैशोल्ड) तहखाना—**Underground cell** (अंडरग्राउंड सैल) दरवाज़ा—**Door** (डोर) दफ्तर—**Office** (ऑफ़िस) देहली—**Door-sill** (डोर-सिल) धरन, शहतीर—**Beam** (बीम) धुंवाकश—**Chimney** (चिमनी) नाबदान—**Drain** (ड्रेन) नींव—**Foundation** (फाउंडेशन) टट्टी—**Latrine** (लैट्रिन) टिकट घर—**Booking office** (बुकिंग ऑफ़िस) पत्थर—**Stone** (स्टोन) पढ़ने का स्थान—**Reading room/Study room** (रीडिंग रूम/स्ट्डी रूम) परनाला—**Gutter** (गटर) पलस्तर—**Plaster** (प्लास्टर) पागलखाना—**Lunatic asylum** (ल्यूनैटिक असाइलम) पुस्तकालय—**Library** (लाइब्रेरी) पेशाबखाना—**Urinal** (यूरिनल) फर्श—**Floor** (फ्लोर) फुव्वारा—**Fountain** (फ़ाउंटेन) बन्द—**Plinth** (प्लिन्थ) बरफ़खाना—**Ice Factory** (आइस फ़ैक्टरी) बरसाती—**Portico/Attic** (पोर्टिको/एटिक) बरामदा—**Verandah** (वेरेण्डा) बैठक—**Sitting room/Drawing-room** (सिटिंग रूम/ ड्राइंग-रूम) बंगला—**Bungalow** (बंगलौ) भण्डार का कमरा—**Store room** (स्टोर रूम) मकान—**House** (हाउस) मचान—**Dais** (डायस) मठ—**Cloister** (क्लॉयस्टर) मन्दिर—**Temple** (टेम्पल) मस्जिद—**Mosque** (मॉस्क) महल——**Palace** (पैलेस) महाविद्यालय—**College** (कॉलिज) मीनार—**Steeple** (स्टीपल) मुंडेर—**Battlement** (बैटलमेंट) महराव—**Arch** (आर्च) रसायनशाला—**Laboratory** (लेबोरेटरी) रसोईघर—**Kitchen** (किचन) रोशनदान—**Ventilator** (वेंटिलेटर) विद्यालय—**School** (स्कूल) व्यायामशाला—**Gymnasium** (जिम्नेज़ियम) विश्वविद्यालय—**University** (यूनिवर्सिटी) शहतीर—**Rafter** (रैफ्टर) शयनागार—**Bedroom** (बेडरूम) सहन—**Courtyard** (कोर्टयार्ड) सराय—**Inn** (इन्न) स्नानगृह—**Bath-room** (बाथ-रूम) सिनेमा-घर—**Picture-hall** (पिक्चर-हॉल)/**Theatre** (थियेटर)/**Cinema hall** (सिनेमा हॉल) सीमेंट—**Cement** (सीमेंट) सीढ़ी—**Stair** (स्टेअर) सेना निवास—**Barrack** (बैरेक) औज़ार

(**TOOLS**) आरी—**Saw** (सॉ) कांटा (बांक)—**Clamp** (क्लैम्प) करघा—**Loom** (लूम) उस्तरा, खुर—**Razor** (रेज़र) कुतुबनुमा—**Compass** (कम्पास) कुदाली—**Spade** (स्पेड) कुल्हाड़ी—**Axe** (ऐक्स) कैंची—**Scissors** (सिज़र्स) कोल्हू—**Oil-mill** (ऑयल-मिल) कोल्हू (ईख पेरने वाला)—**Sugar mill** (शूगरमिल) गैंती—**Axe** (ऐक्स) गोनिया—**Trying-angle** (ट्राइंग-ऐंगल) गोलची—**Gauge** (गॉज) गोल रंदा—**Bead plane** (बीड प्लेन) चोसा—**Rasp** (रैस्प) छुरा—**Dagger** (डैगर) छेनी—**Cold chisel** (कोल्ड चिज़ेल) छेनी, टांकी, सवानी—**Stone**

chisel (स्टोन चिज़ेल) टेकुवा— **Awl** (ऑल) डांड़ा— **Oar** (ओर) तराजू— **Balance** (बैलेंस) दरांती— **Bagging hook** (बैगिंग हुक) दस्ती कैंची— **Pruning shear** (प्रूनिंग शियर) धारी रंदा—**Tooling plane** (टूलिंग प्लेन) धुरी —**Axis** (ऐक्सिस) दराती—**Sickle** (सिक्कल) नस्तर लगाने की छुरी—**Lancet** (लैन्सेट) निहाई—**Anvil** (एनविल) पतवार—**Rudder** (रॅडर) पताम रंदा— **Rebate plane** (रिबेट प्लेन) परकार—**Divider** (डिवाइडर) पाराबटाम— **Spirit-level** (स्पिरिट लेवल) पिचकारी—**Syringe** (सिरिंज) पेच, डिबरी— **Screw** (स्क्रू) पेचकस—**Screw-driver** (स्क्रू-ड्राइवर) फन्नी—**Cleat** (क्लीट) फाली—**Bar-shear** (बार-शीयर) फावड़ा, बेलचा फल—**Spade** (स्पेड) फर्मा (मोची का)—**Last** (लास्ट) कार—**Colter** (कोल्टर) फुंकनी—**Blowpipe** (ब्लोपाइप) बरमा—**Auger** (ऑगर) बरमी (छेदने की)—**Drill** (ड्रिल) बंसी— **Fishing-rod** (फिशिंग रॉड) बादिया—**Stock and dies** (स्टाक ऐंड डाइज़) बारीक रंदा—**Smoothing plane** (स्मूदिंग प्लेन) बांक—**Vice** (वाइस) बिरंजी— **Needle-point** (नीडल पॉइंट) भभका—**Still** (स्टिल) भाषी—**Bellows** (बेलोज़) भारोत्तोलदण्ड—**Lever** (लीवर) मझला रन्दा—**Trying plane** (ट्राइंग प्लेन) मुंगरी—**Mallet** (मेलेट) रन्दा (छोटा)—**Trying plane** (ट्राइंग प्लेन) रन्दा (बड़ा)—**Jack plane** (जैक प्लेन) रेती—**File** (फाइल) रंभा—**Dibble** (डिबल) लंगर—**Anchor** (ऐनकर) सिल्ली (शान लगाने की)—**Hone** (होन) साहुल— **Plumbine** (प्लमबाइन) शंकु—**Cone** (कोन) हथकल—**Spanner** (स्पैनर) हथौड़ी—**Hammer** (हैमर) हल—**Plough** (प्लाओ) हल का फार— **Ploughshare** (प्लाओशेयर) हाथबांक—**Hand vice** (हैंड वाइस) युद्ध सम्बन्धी (**WARFARE**) अणुबम—**Atom bomb** (ऐटम बॉम) अनिवार्य भर्ती— **Conscription** (कन्सक्रिप्शन) आक्रमण (चढ़ाई)—**Aggression** (ऐग्रेशन) आक्रमण (धावा)—**Attack** (अटैक) कवच—**Armour** (आरमर) कारतूस— **Cartridge** (कारट्रिज) किलाबन्दी—**Fortification** (फ़ोर्टीफ़िकेशन) खाई— **Trench** (ट्रेंच) गुरिला लड़ाई, छापामार युद्ध—**Guerilla warfare** (गुरिल्ला वॉरफेयर) गोला बारूद इत्यादि—**Ammunition** (एम्युनिशन) गोली—**Bullet** (बुलेट) गैस-नकाब—**Gas-mask** (गैस-मॉस्क) घरेलू युद्ध—**Civil-war** (सिविल-वार) घुड़सवार सेना, अश्वसेना—**Cavalry** (कैवलरी) घेरा—**Siege** (सीज़) जल सेना, नौसेना—**Navy** (नेवी) जंगी जहाज़—**Battleship** (बैटलशिप) तोप— **Cannon** (कैनन) तोप का गोला—**Cannon-ball** (कैनन-बॉल) धमाके से फटने वाला बम—**Explosive-bomb** (एक्सप्लोसिव-बॉम) नाकाबन्दी—**Blockade** (ब्लॉकेड) पनडुब्बी—**Submarine** (सबमेरीन) परमाणु युद्ध—**Atomic warfare** (अटॉमिक वारफेयर) पाशविक शक्ति—**Brute force** (ब्रूट फ़ोर्स) पेंदी तोड़ने वाला गोला फेंकने वाली नौका—**Torpedo boat** पैदल सेना, स्थल सेना— **Land force** (लैंड फोर्स) प्रस्थान (कूच)—**Expedition** (एक्सपीडिशन) बम— **Bomb** (बॉम) बम आक्रमण—**Bombardment** (बॉम्बार्डमेंट) बारूद—

Gunpowder (गनपाउडर) बारूदखाना—Magazine (मैगज़ीन) भोजन सामग्री —Provisions (प्रोविज़न्स) मनोबल—Morale (मोरेल) युद्ध—Battle, war (बैटल, वार) युद्ध के शस्त्र—Armaments (आरमामेंट्स) युद्ध-कौशल—Strategy (स्ट्रैटेजी) युद्ध-विराम —Cease-fire (सीज़-फ़ायर) युद्ध-बन्दी —Prisoners of war (प्रिज़नर्स ऑफ़ वॉर) युद्ध-मन्त्री —War minister (वॉर मिनिस्टर) युद्ध-प्रवृत्ति —Campaign (कैम्पेन) रक्तपात—Bloodshed (ब्लडशेड) रंगरूट की भर्ती—Recruitment (रिक्रूटमेंट) रक्षा—Defence (डिफेंस) रक्षा-मन्त्रालय—Defence-ministry (डिफेंस मिनिस्ट्री) रक्षा-कोष—Defence fund (डिफ़ेंस फ़ंड) रक्षा-कर्मचारी वर्ग—Defence service (डिफ़ेंस सर्विस) लड़ने वाले (योद्धा)—Combatants (कंबैटैंट्स) लड़ने वाला (राष्ट्र) —Belligerent nation (बेलिजरेंट नेशन) लगातार गोला छोड़ने वाली तोप—Machine-gun (मशीन-गन) लड़ाकू वायुयान—Fighter plane (फाइटर प्लेन) विद्रोह—Mutiny (म्युटिनी) वायुयान-भेदी तोप—Anti-aircraft gun (ऐंटी-एयरक्राफ्ट गन) विध्वंसक—Destroyer (डिस्ट्रायर) सन्धि—Treaty (ट्रीटी) सहायक सेना—Auxiliary force (आग्ज़िलियरी फ़ोर्स) सेना—Army, troops (आर्मी, ट्रूप्स) सेनागति—Operation (ऑपरेशन) सेनाभंग—Demobilization (डेमोबिलाइजेशन) सेनापति—Commander-in-chief (कमांडर-इन-चीफ़) सेना का प्रधान अधिकारी—Field-marshal (फ़ील्ड-मार्शल) शत्रु—Enemy (एनिमी) शीत युद्ध— Cold war (कोल्ड वॉर) पेशे और व्यवसाय (PROFESSIONS & OCCUPATIONS) अखबार वाला—Newspaper vendor (न्यूज़पेपर वेंडर) अध्यापक—Teacher (टीचर) अभियन्ता—Engineer (इंजिनियर) अहीर, ग्वाला—Milkman (मिल्कमैन) अहीरन, ग्वालन —Milkmaid (मिल्कमेड) औषधि बनाने वाला—Compounder (कम्पाउंडर) उपन्यासकार—Novelist (नॉवलिस्ट) कवि—Poet (पोएट) कसाई—Butcher (बुचर) कलाकार—Artist (आर्टिस्ट) कारीगर—Artisan (आर्टिज़न) कार-चालक—Chauffeur (शॉफ़र) किसान—Farmer (फ़ार्मर) कुम्हार—Potter (पोटर) कुंजड़ा—Green vendor (ग्रीन वेंडर) कुली—Coolie (कुली) कोचवान—Coachman (कोचमैन) खज़ांची—Treasurer (ट्रेज़रर) खरादने वाला—Turner (टर्नर) खुदरा फरोश—Retailer (रिटेलर) गद्य लेखक—Prose-writer (प्रोज़ राइटर) गन्धी—Perfumer (पर्फ्यूमर) गाड़ीवान—Coachman (कोचमैन) चपरासी—Peon (पिअन) ग्रन्थकार—Author (ऑथर) चित्रकार—Artist, painter (आर्टिस्ट, पेंटर) चेचक के टीके लगाने वाला—Vaccinator (वेक्सिनेटर) चौकीदार—Watchman (वाचमैन) जर्राह—Surgeon (सर्जन) जमींदार—Landlord (लैंडलार्ड) जादूगर—Magician (मेजिशियन) जिल्दसाज—Book-binder (बुक-बाइंडर) जुलाहा—Weaver (वीवर) जूता बनाने वाला—Shoemaker (शूमेकर) जौहरी—Jeweller (जुएलर) टाइप लगाने वाला—Compositor (कम्पोज़िटर) ठठेरा—Brasier (ब्रेसियर) ठेकेदार—Contractor (कॉन्ट्रैक्टर) डाक्टर—Doctor (डॉक्टर) डाकिया—Postman (पोस्टमैन) तबलची—Tabla player (तबला प्लेयर) तमोली, पनवाड़ी—

Betel-seller (बीटेल-सैलर) तेली—Oilman (ऑयलमैन) दर्जी—Tailor (टेलर) दलाल —Broker (ब्रोकर) दवा विक्रेता—Druggist (ड्रगिस्ट)/Chemist (केमिस्ट) दाई—Midwife (मिडवाइफ़) दन्त चिकित्सक—Dentist (डेंटिस्ट) दुकानदार—Shopkeeper (शॉपकीपर) दूत—Messenger (मैसेंजर) धाय—Nurse (नर्स) धुनिया—Carder (कार्डर) धोबी—Washerman (वाशरमैन) धोबिन—Washerwoman (वाशरवोमैन) नक्शानवीस—Draftsman (ड्राफ्ट्समैन) नाचने वाला—Dancer (डांसर) नाटककार—Dramatist (ड्रेमैटिस्ट) नानबाई—Baker (बेकर) निरीक्षक—Inspector (इंस्पेक्टर) नीलाम करने वाला—Auctioneer (ऑक्शनियर) परीक्षक—Examiner (एग्ज़ैमिनर) पुरोहित—Priest (प्रीस्ट) पुलिस का सिपाही, आरक्षक—Constable (कॉन्स्टेबल) प्रकाशक—Publisher (पब्लिशर) प्रबन्धकर्ता—Manager (मैनेजर) फेरीवाला—Hawker (हॉकर) फोटो खींचने वाला—Photographer (फोटोग्राफर) बढ़ई—Carpenter (कार्पेन्टर) बजाज—Draper (ड्रैपर) बस का टिकट देने वाला—Conductor (कंडक्टर) बीज विक्रेता—Seedsman (सीड्समैन) भण्डारी—Butler (बटलर) मछुवा—Fisherman (फ़िशरमैन) मशीन चलाने वाला—Operator (ओपरेटर) मशीन साफ रखने वाला—Cleaner (क्लीनर) मल्लाह—Boatman (बोटमैन) महरा—Water carrier (वाटर कैरियर) मांझी (जहाज़ी)—Sailor (सेलर) माल ढोने वाला—Carrier (कैरियर) मालिक—Proprietor (प्रोपराइटर) माली—Gardener (गार्डनर) मीनाकार—Enameller (इनेमलर) मिस्त्री—Mechanic (मकैनिक) मुनीम—Agent (एजेंट) मुद्रक—Printer (प्रिंटर) मुन्शी, लिपिक, मुहर्रिर—Clerk (क्लर्क) मेहतर (भंगी)—Sweeper (स्वीपर) मोची—Cobbler (कोबलर) रसायनी—Chemist (केमिस्ट) रसोइया—Cook (कुक) राज—Mason (मेसन) राजनीतिज्ञ—Politician (पोलिटिशियन) रोकड़िया (खज़ांची)—Cashier (कैशियर) रेल के टिकट देखने वाला—Train ticket examiner, T.T.E (ट्रेन टिकट एग्ज़ैमिनर, टीoटीoईo) रोशनाई वाला—Inkman (इंकमैन) रंगसाज—Painter (पेन्टर) रंगरेज—Dyer (डाइअर) लेखक—Writer (राइटर) लोहार—Blacksmith (ब्लैकस्मिथ) वकील—Advocate (एडवोकेट) वैद्य—Physician (फ़िज़िशियन) शिल्पकार—Artisan (आर्टिज़न) शल्य वैद्य—Surgeon (सर्जन) शिक्षक—Teacher (टीचर) शीशा लगाने वाला—Glazier (ग्लेज़ियर) संगीतकार —Musician (म्यूज़िशियन) साईस—Groom (ग्रूम) सफाई का दरोगा—Sanitary Inspector (सैनिटरी इंस्पैक्टर) सुनार—Goldsmith (गोल्डस्मिथ) सौदागर—Merchant (मर्चेण्ट) संगतराश (मूर्तिकार)—Sculptor (स्कल्पटर) सम्पादक—Editor (एडिटर) हज्जाम, नाई—Barber (बारबर) हलवाई—Confectioner (कन्फ़ेक्शनर)/Halwai (हलवाई) होटल में खाना खिलाने वाला—Waiter (वेटर)

व्यावसायिक शब्दावली

(BUSINESS) कीमतों का बढ़ना (मुद्रास्फीति)—Inflation (इनफ्लेशन) अग्रतिथि हुंडी—After date bill (आफ़्टर डेट बिल) अग्रप्रेषण पत्र—Forwarding letter (फारवर्डिंग लेटर) अग्रिम मांग अदायगी—Call in advance (काल इन एडवांस) अग्रिम राशि लेखा—Advances accounts (एडवांसिस एकाउंट्स)

अचल पूंजी—**Fixed capital** (फ़िक्स्ड कैपिटल) अदत्त चेक—**Open Cheque** (ओपन चेक) अदायगी क्षमता—**Paying capacity** (पेइंग केपैसिटी) अधिकरण पत्र—**Letter of authorisation** (लेटर ऑफ़ ऑथोराइज़ेशन) अधिकृत पूंजी—**Authorised capital** (ऑथोराइज़्ड कैपिटल) अधिमुद्रा—**Occupation money** (आक्युपेशन मनी) अनर्जित—**Unearned** (अनअर्न्ड) अनिवार्य नकद आरक्षित निधि—**Compulsory reserve** (कंपलसरी रिज़र्व) अनुमोदन, मंजूरी—**Endorsement** (एंडोर्समेंट) अनुमोदित मुद्रा—**Approved Currency** (एप्रूव्ड करेंसी) अप्राप्य ऋण, बट्टे-खाते का धन—**Bad debt** (बैड डैट) अप्राप्य ऋण लेखा—**Bad debt account** (बैड डैट एकाउंट) अर्थव्यवस्था, किफायत—**Economy** (एकॉनमी) अल्पकालिक उधार—**Short-term credit** (शार्ट-टर्म क्रेडिट) अविलम्ब कर्जा—**Demand loan** (डिमांड लोन) अविलम्ब दर—**Call rate** (काल रेट) असली आमदनी—**Net income** (नेट इनकम) अस्थायी ऋण—**Floating debt** (फ्लोटिंग डे’ट) आदेशी चेक—**Order cheque** (आर्डर चेक) आपाती उधार—**Emergency credit** (एमर्जेंसी क्रेडिट) आय, आमदनी—**Income** (इनकम) आरम्भिक लेखा—**Initial account** (इनिशियल अकाउंट) आवर्ती जमा—**Recurring deposit** (रेकॅरिंग डिपाज़िट) औद्योगिक बैंक—**Industrial bank** (इंडस्ट्रियल बैंक) औसत—**Average** (ऐवरेज) औसत दर—**Average rate** (एवरेज रेट) औसत दूरी—**Average distance** (ऐवरेज डिस्टेंस) उगाही बिल—**Bill of collection** (बिल ऑफ़ कलेक्शन) उचन्ती नाम—**Suspended debt** (सस्पेंडिड डैट) उत्तर तिथि चेक—**Postdated cheque** (पोस्टडेटिड चेक) उधार जमा—**Credit deposit** (क्रेडिट डिपॉज़िट) उधार-पत्र, साख-पत्र—**Letter of credit** (लेटर ऑफ़ क्रेडिट) उधार ब्रिकी—**Sale on credit** (सेल ऑन क्रेडिट) उधार लेखा—**Credit account** (क्रेडिट अकाउंट) उधार, ऋण—**Credit** (क्रेडिट) उपभोक्ता—**Consumer** (कन्ज़्यूमर) उपभोक्ता माल—**Consumer’s goods** (कन्ज़्यूमर्स गुड्स) कच्ची बही—**Rough day-book** (रफ़ डे-बुक) कम से कम कीमत—**Bottom price** (बॉटम प्राइस) कमाई, उपार्जन—**Earning** (अर्निंग) कर्ज़ा चालू करना—**Floatation** (फ्लोटेशन) कर्जा-शेष—**Loan balance** (लोन-बैलेंस) कर्जे के देनदार—**Debtors for loan** (डैटर्स फ़ॉर लोन) कर्जे के लेनदार—**Creditors for loan** (क्रैडिटर्स फ़ॉर लोन) कर्मचारी, नौकर—**Employee** (एम्प्लॉयी) कागज-पैमाना—**Paper scale** (पेपर स्केल) कागज मुद्रा—**Paper currency** (पेपर करेंसी) कारखाना—**Factory** (फ़ैक्टरी) कार्य—**Job** (जॉब) कार्यकर पूँजी—**Working capital** (वर्किंग कैपिटल) कालिक ऋण—**Time money** (टाइम मनी) कीमत, मूल्य—**Price** (प्राइस) कीमत-सूची—**Price list** (प्राइस लिस्ट) कुल कमाई—**Gross earning** (ग्रॉस अर्निंग) कुल हानि—**Gross loss** (ग्रॉस लॉस) कोरी बेचान—**Blank endorsement** (ब्लैंक एंडोर्समेंट) खजांची—**Cashier** (कैशियर) खड़ी जमा—**Standing credit** (स्टैंडिंग क्रेडिट) खड़ी हुंडी—**Overdue bill** (ओवरड्यू

बिल) खर्चे का बिल—Bill of costs (बिल ऑफ़ कॉस्ट्स) खर्चे के लेनदार—Creditors for expenses (क्रेडिट्र्स फ़ॉर एक्सपेंसिस) खाता उधार—Credit book (क्रेडिट बुक) खाता जमा—Book deposit (बुक डिपॉज़िट) खाता ऋण—Book debt (बुक डैट) खालिस आय, शुद्ध आय—Net income (नेट इन्कम) खुदरा रोकड़ बही—Petty cash book (पैटी कैश बुक) खुला चेक—Blank cheque (ब्लैंक चेक) खुली सुपुर्दगी (माल की)—Open delivery (of goods) ओपन डिलीवरी (ऑफ़ गुडस) खुले पन्नों का खाता—Loose leaf ledger (लूज़ लीफ़ लेजर) खुली हुण्डी—Lost bill of exchange (लॉस्ट बिल ऑफ़ एक्सचेंज) गाहक, गाहक—Customer (कस्टमर) ग्राहक खाता—Sales ledger (सेल्ज़ लैजर) ग्राहक लेखे—Customer's account (कस्टमर्स एकाउंट) घटत बढ़त दोलन—Fluctuation (फ्लक्चुएशन) चल उधार—Revolving credit (रिवाल्विंग क्रेडिट) चल प्रभार—Floating charge (फ्लोटिंग चार्ज) चालू उधार—Running credit (रनिंग क्रेडिट) चालू कर्जा—Current loan (करेंट लोन) चालू जमा—Current deposit (करेंट डिपॉज़िट) चालू लेखा, चालू खाता—Current account (करेंट एकाउंट) चार्टर लेखाकार—Chartered accountant (चार्टर्ड एकाउंटेंट) चुकाई हुंडी—Discharged bill (डिस्चार्ज्ड बिल) चुका कर्जा—Discharged loan (डिस्चार्ज्ड लोन) चैक जमानिक्षेप—Cheque deposit (चैक डिपॉज़िट) जमा करना—Crediting (क्रेडिटिंग) जमा कापी—Paying-in-book (पेइंग-इन-बुक) जमा खाता—Deposit ledger (डिपॉज़िट लैजर) जमानती हुंडी—Bill as security (बिल ऐज़ सेक्यूरिटी) जमा पर्ची—Pay-in-slip (पे-इन-स्लिप) जमा पत्र—Credit note (क्रेडिट नोट) जमा बैंक—Bank of deposit (बैंक ऑफ़ डिपॉज़िट) जमा मुद्रा—Deposit currency (डिपॉज़िट करेंसी) जमा रकम—Deposit amount (डिपॉज़िट एमांउट) जमा रजिस्टर—Deposit register (डिपॉज़िट रजिस्टर) जमा लेखा—Deposit account (डिपॉज़िट एकाउंट) जाली नोट—Forged note (फोर्ज्ड नोट) जोखिम पत्र—Risk note (रिस्क नोट) टकसाल दर—Mint par (मिंट पार) टीपान्तरण, खातान्तरण—Book transfer (बुक ट्रांसफ़र) टूट-फूट—Wear and tear (वियर ऐण्ड टियर) डूबी रकम—Bad debt (बैड डैट) तुरंत नगदी उधार खाता—Demand cash credit (डिमांड कैश क्रेडिट) थोक बाजार—Wholesale market (होलसेल मार्केट) दर्शनी हुंडी—Bill payable at sight (बिल पेएबल ऐट साइट) दर्शनी हुंडी की दर—Cheque rate (चेक रेट) दर्शनोत्तर हुंडी—Bill payable after sight (बिल पेएबल आफ़्टर साइट) दावे की राशि—Claimed amount (क्लेम्ड एमाउंट) दिवाला—Bankruptcy (बैंक्रप्ट्सी) दिवालिया—Bankrupt (बैंक्रप्ट) दुकान, श्रमालय—Shop (शॉप) दुर्लभ मुद्रा—Hard currency (हार्ड करेंसी) दुर्लभ रूपया—Tight money (टाइट मनी) देनगियां—Charges (चार्जेज़) देय-बिल—Bill payable (बिल पेएबल) देय बैंक लेखा—Payable bank draft (पेएबल बैंक

ड्राफ़्ट) देशी बैंक—**Indigenous bank** (इंडिजिनस बैंक) धनादेश—**Draft** (ड्राफ़्ट) नकद, नकदी रोकड़—**Cash** (कैश) नकद उधार—**Cash credit** (कैश-क्रेडिट) नकद जमा—**Cash deposit** (कैश डिपॉज़िट) नकद देन—**Cash payment** (कैश पेमेंट) नकद पर्ची—**Cash-memo** (कैश-मेमो) नकद बट्टा—**Cash discount** (कैश डिस्काउंट) नकद मूल्य—**Cash value** (कैश वैल्यू) नकदी अग्रदान—**Cash imprest** (कैश इम्प्रेस्ट) नकदी आदेश—**Cash order** (कैश ऑर्डर) नाम खाता—**Debit account** (डेबिट अकाउंट) नाम बाकी—**Debit balance** (डेबिट बैलेंस) निकाली रकम—**Withdrawn amount** (विदड्रॉन एमाउंट) निकासी, काम, उत्पादन—**Outturn** (आउटटर्न) निकासी ऐजेन्ट—**Clearing agent** (क्लियरिंग एजेंट) निधि—**Fund** (फ़ंड) निधिबद्ध कर्जा—**Funding loan** (फ़ंडिंग लोन) नियत कार्य लागत खाता—**Job cost ledger** (जॉब कास्ट लेजर) नियत दर—**Fixed rate** (फ़िक्स्ड रेट) नियत निधि—**Allotted fund** (एलौटिड फ़ंड) नियत प्रभार—**Fixed charges** (फ़िक्स्ड चार्जेज़) निर्माता का छाप—**Maker's brand** (मेकर्स ब्रांड) निर्यात, माल बाहर भेजना—**Export** (एक्सपोर्ट) निर्यात उधार—**Export credit** (एक्सपोर्ट क्रेडिट) निर्यात कर—**Export duty** (एक्सपोर्ट ड्यूटी) निरी हुंडी— **Clean bill** (क्लीन बिल) निर्मुक्त दिवालिया—**Discharged bankrupt** (डिस्चार्ज्ड बैंक्रप्ट) निलम्बिल लेखा, उचन्ती लेखा—**Suspense account** (सस्पेंस एकाउंट) निवल आय-व्यय लेखा—**Net revenue account** (नेट रेवेन्यू एकाउंट) निवल उत्पादन—**Net production** (नेट प्रोडक्शन) निवल कमाई—**Net earning** (नेट अर्निंग) निवल बिक्री—**Net selling, sale** (नेट सेलिंग, सेल) पड़ताल रजिस्टर—**Check register** (चेक रजिस्टर) परिपाक तिथि—**Date of maturity** (डेट ऑफ़ मैचुरिटी) परिमित साझेदार—**Limited partner** (लिमिटेड पार्टनर) पत्रक—**Letter card** (लेटर कार्ड) प्रतिबन्धी—**Restrictive duty** (रेस्ट्रिक्टिव ड्यूटी) प्रत्याभूति पत्र—**Letter of guarantee** (लेटर ऑफ़ गैरेंटी) प्रभार, खर्च, व्यय—**Charge** (चार्ज) प्रलेख पर अदायगी—**Cash against documents** (कैश अगेन्स्ट डॉकुमेंट्स) प्रलेख हुंडी—**Documentary bill** (डॉकुमेंटरी बिल) प्राप्त हुंडी—**Bill receivable** (बिल रिसीवेबल) प्राप्ति और अदायगी लेखा—**Receipts and payments account** (रिसीट्स ऐंड पेमेंट्स एकाउंट) प्राप्तियां, आय—**Receipts** (रिसीट्स) प्रार्थना पत्र—**Application** (ऐप्लिकेशन) पिछला हिसाब—**Account rendered** (एकाउंट रेंडर्ड) पुराना चेक—**Stale cheque** (स्टेल चेक) पूंजी, मूल, मूलधन—**Capital** (कैपिटल) पूंजी आरक्षित निधि—**Capital reserve fund** (कैपिटल रिज़र्व फ़ंड) पूजीकृत मूल्य—**Capitalised value** (कैपिटलाइज़्ड वैल्यू) पूंजीकृत लाभ—**Capitalised profit** (कैपिटलाइज़्ड प्रॉफेट) पूंजी का निर्गम—**Capital outflow** (कैपिटल आउटफ्लो) पूंजीगत और राजस्व लेखा—**Capital and revenue account** (कैपिटल ऐंड रेवेन्यू एकाउंट) पूंजीगत राशि—**Capital sums** (कैपिटल सम्स)

पूंजीगत लाभ—**Capital profit** (कैपिटल प्रोफ़िट) पूंजीपति—**Capitalist** (कैपिटलिस्ट) पूंजी पर प्रतिफल—**Return on capital** (रिटर्न ऑन कैपिटल) पूंजी परसम्पत्ति—**Capital asset** (कैपिटल एसेट) पूंजी बाज़ार—**Capital market** (कैपिटल मार्केट) पूंजी लेखा—**Capital account** (कैपिटल एकाउंट) फालतू रूपया—**Floating money** (फ्लोटिंग मनी) फुटकर कीमत—**Retail price** (रिटेल प्राइस) बकाया—**Arrears** (एरियर्स) बकाया मांग—**Call in arrears** (काल इन एरियर्स) बकाया या शेष निकालना—**Balancing** (बैलेंसिंग) बचम जमा—**Saving deposit** (सेविंग डिपॉज़िट) बट्टा—**Discount** (डिस्काउंट) बट्टा लेखा—**Discount account** (डिस्काउंट एकाउंट) बट्टे पर विनिमय—**Exchange at discount** (एक्सचेंट ऐट डिस्काउंट) बही खाता, लेखा पुस्तक—**Account book** (एकाउंट बुक) बाकी, शेष, बकाया—**Balance** (बैलेंस) बाकी या शेष निकालना—**Balancing** (बैलेंसिंग) बाज़ार—**Commodity market** (कॉमॉडिटी मार्केट) बाजार मूल्य—**Market price** (मार्केट प्राइस) बाहरी चेक—**Outstation cheque** (आउटस्टेशन चेक) बिक्री का माल—**Stock in trade** (स्टॉक इन ट्रेड) बिक्री खाता—**Sale account** (सेल एकाउंट) बिक्री बिल—**Bill of sale** (बिल ऑफ़ सेल) बिना मूल्य—**Free of charge** (फ्री ऑफ़ चार्ज) बीता कर्जा—**Expired loan** (एक्सपायर्ड लोन) बीमा—**Insurance** (इंश्योरेंस) बेचान कर्त्ता—**Endorser** (एंडोर्सर) बेचान चैक—**Endorsed cheque** (एंडोर्स्ड चेक) बेजमानती कर्जा—**Clean loan** (क्लीन लोन) बेमियादी कर्जा—**Morning loan** (मॉर्निंग लोन) बैंक अदायगी—**Banker's payment** (बैंकर्स पेमेंट) बैंक आदेश—**Banker's order** (बैंकर्सस ऑर्डर) बैंक उधार—**Banker's advance** (बैंकर्स एडवांस) बैंक उधार जमा—**Bank credit** (बैंक क्रेडिट) बैंक दर—**Bank rate** (बैंक रेट) बैंक दर का घटाना-बढ़ाना—**Manipulation of bank rate** (मैनीपुलेशन ऑफ़ बैंक रेट) बैंक प्रभार—**Bank charge** (बैंक चार्ज) बैंक-बंधक—**Banker's mortgage** (बैंकर्स मार्टगेज) बैंक रोकड़—**Bank cash** (बैंक कैश) बैंक लेखा—**Bank account** (बैंक एकाउंट) बैंक लेखा मांग—**Bank call** (बैंक काल) बैंक व्यवस्था—**Banking structure** (बैंकिंग स्ट्रक्चर) बैंक ऋण—**Banking debt** (बैंकिंग डैट) बैंक ऋणाधार—**Banker's security** (बैंकर्स सिक्योरिटी) भागी, साझेदार—**Partner** (पार्टनर) मज़बूत बाज़ार—**Firm market** (फ़र्म मार्केट) मन्दे की ओर झुकाव—**Bearish tendency** (बियरिश टेंडेन्सी) मध्यस्थ—**Arbitrator** (आर्बिट्रेटर) मंडी, बाज़ार, हाट—**Market** (मार्केट) मांग—**Demand** (डिमांड) मांग कर्जा—**Demand loan** (डिमांड लोन) मांग धनादेश—**Demand draft** (डिमांड ड्राफ़्ट) मांग-पत्र, लिखित मांग—**Demand note, indent** (डिमांड नोट, इंडेंट) मांग सूचना—**Call notice** (काल नोटिस) मानार्थ अदायगी—**Payment for honour** (पेमेंट फ़ॉर आनर) माल, सामग्री, पदार्थ—**Goods** (गुड्स) माल भाड़ा, वहन शुल्क—**Freight** (फ्रेट) माल रखने की सीमा—**Stock limit** (स्टॉक लिमिट) माल रोकड़ पुस्तक—**Goods**

cash book (गुड्स कैश बुक) माल-लेखा—**Stock account** (स्टॉक एकाउंट) मालिक, नियोजक—**Employer** (एम्पलायर) मियादी कर्जा—**Terminable loan** (टर्मिनेबल लोन) मियादी जमा—**Fixed deposit** (फिक्स्ड डिपोज़िट) मिश्रित पूंजी बैंक—**Joint stock bank** (जायंट स्टॉक बैंक) मुआवज़ा, प्रतिकर—**Compensation** (कम्पेन्सेशन) मुद्दती हुंडी—**Bill payable after date** (बिल पेएबल आफ़्टर डेट) मुद्रा, द्रव्य, रूपया, धन—**Currency, money** (करेंसी, मनी) मुद्रा अवस्फीति—**Deflation of currency** (डिफ़्लेशन ऑफ़ करेंसी) मुद्रांक शुल्क—**Stamp duty** (स्टाम्प ड्यूटी) मुद्रा का अन्तरण—**Currency transfer** (करेंसी ट्रांस्फ़र) मुद्रा प्रणाली—**Monetary system** (मोनेटरी सिस्टम) मुद्रा मूल्य ह्रास—**Depreciation of currency** (डेप्रिसिएशन ऑफ़ करेन्सी) मुद्रा विनिमय—**Currency exchange** (करेंसी एक्सचेंज) मुद्रा स्फीति—**Inflation of currency** (इन्फ्लेशन ऑफ़ करेन्सी) मूल्य ह्रास—**Depreciation** (डेप्रिसिएशन) मूल्य ह्रास लेखा—**Depreciation account** (डेप्रिसिएशन एकाउंट) यात्री साख पत्र—**Traveller's letter of credit** (ट्रैवलर्स लेटर ऑफ़ क्रेडिट) राजवित्त—**Public finance** (पब्लिक फ़ाइनेंस) राशि, रकम—**Amount** (एमाउंट) रूक्के पर उधार—**Credit paper** (क्रेडिट पेपर) रूपया बाज़ार—**Money market** (मनी मार्केट) रेखित चैक—**Crossed cheque** (क्रास्ड चेक) रेल तक निष्प्रभार—**Free on rail, F.O.R.** (फ्री ऑन रेल, एफ़o ओo आरo) रोकड़ जमा—**Opening balance** (ओपनिंग बैलेंस) रोकड़ बही—**Cash book** (कैश बुक) रोकड़ बाकी—**Cash balance** (कैश बैलेंस) रोकड़ लेखा—**Cash account** (कैश एकाउंट) रोकड़ सूची—**Cash scroll** (कैश स्क्रोल) रोक सूचना—**Notice of stoppage** (नोटिस ऑफ़ स्टॉपेज) लाभांश—**Bonus** (बोनस) लेखा, खाता, हिसाब—**Account** (एकाउंट) लेखा और बाकी—**Account and balance** (एकाउंट ऐंड बैलेंस) लेखाकार—**Accountant** (एकाउंटेंट) लेखा रखना—**Maintenance of account** (मैंटेनेंस ऑफ़ एकाउंट) लेखा-वर्ष—**Accounting year** (एकाउंटिंग ईयर) लेखा-शास्त्र, लेखा विधि—**Accountancy** (एकाउंटेंसी) लेनदार, ऋणदाता—**Creditor** (क्रेडिटर) लौटा चेक—**Returned cheque** (रिटर्न्ड चेक) व्यक्तिगत लेखा—**Individual account** (इंडिविजुअल एकाउंट) व्याख्या पत्र—**Covering letter** (कॅवरिंग लेटर) व्यापारिक माल—**Merchandise** (मर्चेन्डाइज़) व्यापारी, वणिक—**Merchant** (मर्चेंट) व्यापारी लेन-देन—**Trade creditor** (ट्रेड क्रेडिटर) व्यवसाय पूंजी—**Trading capital** (ट्रेडिंग कैपिटल) वाणिज्य बैंक—**Commercial bank** (कमर्शियल बैंक) वाणिज्य लेखा—**Commercial account** (कमशिर्यल एकाउंट) वायदा बाज़ार—**Free market** (फ्री मार्केट) वार्षिक निधि—**Annuity fund** (एनुइटी फ़ंड) वार्षिक लाभ—**Annual profit** (एनुएल प्राफ़ेट) वार्षिक लेखा—**Annual account** (एनुएल एकाउंट) वार्षिक विवरणी—**Annual return** (एनुएल रिटर्न) वार्षिक वेतन—**Annual pay**

(एनुएल पे) वार्षिक शुद्ध लाभ—**Annual net profit** (एनुएल नेट प्राफ़िट) वार्षिक पद्धति—**Annuity system** (एनुइटी सिस्टम) विक्रय विवरण—**Sales account** (सेल्स एकाउंट) विकास खर्च—**Development expenses** (डेवलॅपमेंट एक्सपेन्सिस) विक्रेता—**Salesman** (सेल्समैन) वित्त—**Finance** (फ़ाइनेंस) वित्त आभार—**Financial obligation** (फ़ाइनेंशियल ओबलीगेशन) वित्त दण्ड—**Financial penalty** (फ़ाइनेंशियल पेनल्टी) रूपया लगाने वाला—**Financer** (फ़ाइनेंसर) वित्तदाता बैंक—**Financial bank** (फ़ाइनेंशियल बैंक) वित्तदायी भागी—**Financing partner** (फ़ाइनेंसिंग पार्टनर) वित्तीय दायिता—**Financial liability** (फ़ाइनेंशियल लायबिलिटी) वित्तीय नियंत्रण—**Financial control** (फ़ाइनेंशियल कन्ट्रोल) वित्तीय प्रबन्ध—**Financial management** (फ़ाइनेंशियल मैनेजमेंट) वित्तीय रिपोर्ट देना—**Financial reporting** (फ़ाइनेंशियल रिपोर्टिंग) वित्तीय व्यवहार—**Financial transaction** (फ़ाइनेंशियल ट्रान्सेक्शन) वित्तीय वर्ष—**Financial year** (फ़ाइनेंशियल ईयर) वित्तीय विवरण—**Financial statement** (फ़ाइनेंशियल स्टेटमेंट) वित्तीय सलाह—**Financial advice** (फ़ाइनेंशियल एडवाइस) वित्तीय ज्ञापन—**Financial memorandum** (फ़ाइनेंशियल मेमोरेंडम) विदेशी मुद्रा—**Foreign exchange** (फ़ारेन एक्सचेंज) विनिमय—**Exchange** (एक्सचेंज) विनिमय दर—**Exchange rate** (एक्सचेंज रेट) विदेशी मुद्रा नियंत्रण—**Exchange control** (एक्सचेंज कन्ट्रोल) विनिमय-पत्र—**Letter of exchange** (लेटर ऑफ़ एक्सचेंज) विनिमय-बैंक—**Exchange bank** (एक्सचेंज बैंक) विनिर्माण क्रिया—**Manufacturing process** (मैनुफैक्चरिंग प्रौसेस) विशिष्ट (नाप तोल) कर—**Specific duty** (स्पेसिफ़िक ड्यूटी) वेतन, तनख्वाह—**Pay** (पे) वैधता-अवधि—**Validity period** (वैलिडिटी पीरियड) शुल्कदत्त दाम—**Duty paid price** (ड्यूटी पेड प्राइस) शुल्कदेय माल—**Dutiable goods** (ड्यूटीएबल गुड्स) शैयर बाज़ार—**Stock exchange** (स्टॉक एक्सचेंज) सक्रिय पूंजी—**Active capital** (एक्टिव कैपिटल) संचित निधि—**Consolidated fund** (कन्सोलिडेटिड फ़ंड) समशोधन—**Cash transfer clearing** (कैश ट्रांसफ़र क्लियरिंग) सम्मिलित खाता—**Joint account** (जॉइंट एकाउंट) स्वयं ही को देय—**Payable to self** (पेएबल टु सेल्फ़) सरकारी लेखा, सार्वजनिक लेखा—**Public account** (पब्लिक एकाउंट) सरकारी साख—**Public credit** (पब्लिक क्रेडिट) सराफ़ा बाज़ार—**Bullion exchange** (बुलियन एक्सचेंज) स्वीकृत लेखा—**Accounts stated** (एकाउंट्स स्टेटिड) सहकारी बैंक—**Cooperative bank** (कोऑपरेटिव बैंक) सहमति-पत्र—**Letter of consent** (लेटर ऑफ़ कॉन्सेंट) सशर्त कर्जा—**Tied loan** (टाइड लोन) सहायक लेखाकार—**Assistant accountant** (असिस्टैंट एकाउंटैट) साख-पत्र—**Bill of credit** (बिल ऑफ़ क्रेडिट) साहूकार—**Moneylender** (मनीलैंडर) सुनाम लेखा—**Goodwill account** (गुडविल एकाउंट) हानि, नुकसान—**Loss** (लॉस) हिसांब बन्द करना—**Closing of**

account (क्लोज़िंग ऑफ़ एकाउंट) हुण्डी, विपत्र—Bill (बिल) हुण्डी का पूर्व भुगतान—Retirement of bill (रिटायरमेंट ऑफ़ बिल) हुण्डी चुकाना—Clearing a bill (क्लियरिंग ए बिल) हुण्डी दलाल—Bill broker (बिल ब्रोकर) हुण्डी बही—Bill journal (बिल जर्नल) क्षतिपूर्ति का दावा—Claim for compensation (क्लेम फ़ॉर कम्पेन्सेशन) ऋण, उधार—Loan (लोन) ऋण लेखा—Debt account (डैट एकाउंट) स्टेशनरी (STATIONERY) अक्स कागज़—Tracing paper (ट्रेसिंग पेपर) अखबार (समाचारपत्र)—Newspaper (न्यूज़पेपर) अड्डा—Perch (पर्च) अलमारी—Almirah (ऐलमिरा) आधी रसीद (गुसन्ना)—Counterfoil (काउंटरफ़ॉयल) आराम कुर्सी—Easy-chair (ईज़ी-चेयर) आलपिन—Pin (पिन) आलपिन लगाने की गद्दी—Pin-cushion (पिन-कुशन) कलम—Pen (पेन) कागज़—Paper (पेपर) कागज़-तराश—Paper-cutter (पेपर-कटर) कागज़-दाब—Paper-weight (पेपर-वेट) काग—Cork (कॉर्क) कार्ड—Card (कार्ड) काली स्याही—Black ink (ब्लैक इंक) कोश—Dictionary (डिक्शनरी) खड़िया पेंसिल—Crayon (क्रेयन) रजिस्टर—Register (रजिस्टर) गोंद—Gum (गम) चिमटी—Clip (क्लिप) चौकी—Bench (बेंच) छिद्रण यन्त्र—Punching machine (पचिंग मशीन) छेद करने का सूआ—Bodkin (बॉडकिन) छेदनी—Punch (पंच) जीभी (नोक)—Nib (निब) जेबी किताब—Pocket-book (पॉकेट-बुक) टिकट (डाक)—Postage-stamp (पोस्टेज-स्टैंप) टिकट (रसीदी)—Revenue stamp (रेवेन्यू स्टैंप) टेबल—Table (टेबल) डोरी (कीलदार)—Tag (टैग) ड्राइंग पिन—Drawing-pin (ड्राइंग-पिन) तार—Wire (वायर) तिपाई—Stool (स्टूल) दवात—Inkpot (इंकपॉट) दैनिक-पत्र—Daily paper (डेली पेपर) नकल करने का कागज़ (कार्बन-कागज़)—Carbon-Paper (कार्बन-पेपर) नकल करने की पेंसिल—Copying pencil (कॉपिंग पेंसिल) नक्शा—Map (मैप) निमन्त्रण-पत्र—Invitation Card (इन्विटेशन कार्ड) नीली-काली स्याही—Blue-black ink (ब्लू-ब्लैक इंक) नीली स्याही—Blue ink (ब्लू इंक) परकार—Divider (डिवाइडर) पर की कलम —Quill pen (क्विल पेन) पुकारने की घंटी—Call-bell (कॉल-बेल) पेंसिल—Pencil (पेंसिल) पोस्टकार्ड—Post-card (पोस्ट-कार्ड) फाइल (मिसिल)—File (फाइल) फीता—Tape (टेप) भेंट-कार्ड—Visiting card (विज़िटिंग कार्ड) मासिक पत्रिका—Monthly Magazine (मंथली मैगज़िन) मोहर—Seal (सील) मोमी कपड़ा—Tracing cloth (ट्रेसिंग क्लॉथ) रबर—Eraser (इरेज़र) रबर की मोहर—Rubber-stamp (रबर-स्टैंप) रद्दी की टोकरी—Waste-paper basket (वेस्ट-पेपर बास्केट) रसीद बही—Receipt-book (रिसीट बुक) रूलर—Ruler (रूलर) रोशनाई—Ink (इंक) रोशनाई का गद्दा—Inkpad (इंकपैड) लपेटने का कागज़—Packing paper (पैकिंग पेपर) लाख मुहर लगाने की—Sealing-wax (सीलिंग-वैक्स) लिखने की पट्टी—Writing pad (राइटिंग पैड) लिफ़ाफ़ा—Envelope (एनबेलप) लेखा बही—Ledger (लैजर) सरेस—Glue (ग्लू) सादा

कागज़—Blank-paper (ब्लैंक-पेपर) साप्ताहिक पत्र—Weekly paper (वीकली पेपर) सोखता—Blotting-paper (ब्लॉटिंग-पेपर) होल्डर—Holder (होल्डर) जानवर

(ANIMALS) ऊंट—Camel (कैमल) कस्तूरी मृग—Musk-deer (मस्क-डियर) कंगारू—Kangaroo (कैन्गरू) कुत्ता—Dog (डॉग) कुतिया—Bitch (बिच) खच्चर—Mule (म्यूल) खरगोश (शशक)—Rabbit (रैबिट) खरहा—Hare (हेअर) खुर, शफ—Hoop (हूफ़) गधा—Ass (ऐस) गाय—Cow (कॉउ) गिलहरी—Squirrel (स्क्विरिल) गैंडा—Rhinoceros (रिनोसेरॅस) गोरखर (ज़ैबरा)—Zebra (ज़ेब्रा) घोड़ा—Horse (हॉर्स) घोड़ी—Mare (मेअर) घोड़े का बच्चा—Colt (कोल्ट) चीता—Panther (पैंथर) चींटीखोर—Ant eater (एंट-ईटर) चूहा—Mouse (माउस) छछूंदर—Mole (मोल) जंगली सूअर—Boar (बोअर) जिराफ़—Giraffe (जिराफ़) झबरा कुत्ता—Spaniel (स्पैनियल) टट्टू—Pony (पोनी) तेंदुआ—Leopard (लैपर्ड) नेवला—Mongoose (मोंगूज़) दुम—Tail (टेल) पशु—Beast (बीस्ट) पंजा—Claw (क्लॉ) प्रजनक सांड—Sire (सायर) पिल्ला—Puppy (पपी) बकरा—He-goat (ह्री-गोट) बकरी—She-goat (शी-गोट) बकरी का बच्चा—Kid (किड) बछड़ा—Calf (काफ़) बछिया—She-calf (शी-काफ़) बिल्ली—Cat (कैट) बिल्ली का बच्चा—Kitten (किटन) बन्दर —Monkey (मंकी) बनमानुष—Chimpanzee (चिम्पैंन्ज़ी) बाघ—Tiger (टाइगर) बारहसिंगा—Stag (स्टैग) बारहसिंगी—Hind (हाइंड) बैल—Ox (ऑक्स) भालू—Bear (बिअर) भेड़िया—Wolf (वुल्फ़) भेड़ (मेष)—Sheep (शीप) भेड़ी—Ewe (यू) भेड़ का बच्चा—Lamb (लैम) भैंस—Buffalo (बफ़लो) मेढ़ा—Ram (रैम) मेमना—Kid (किड) मूसा, चूहा—Rat (रैट) लोमड़ी—Fox (फॉक्स) लकड़बग्घा—Hyena (हायना) लंगूर—Ape (एप) शिकारी कुत्ता—Hound (हाउंड) सांड—Bull (बुल) साही—Porcupine (पोर्कुपाइन) सियार (गीदड़)—Jackal (जैकाल) सिंह—Lion (लायन) सींग—Horn (ह्रार्न) सुअर—Pig (पिग), Swine (स्वाइन) हिरन—Deer (डियर) हिरन का बच्चा—Fawn (फ़ॉन) हाथी—Elephant (एलिफैंट) कीट-पतंग (WORMS & INSECTS) अजगर—Boa (बोआ) कछुवा, कच्छप—Turtle (टर्टल) केंचुआ—Earthworm (अर्थवार्म) केकड़ा—Crab (क्रैब) खटमल—Bug (बॅग) गेहुवन सांप—Adder (ऐडर) गोबरीला—Beetle (बीटल) घोंघा—Snail (स्नेल) चीलर—Body-lice (बॉडी लाइस) छिपकली—Lizard (लिज़र्ड) ज़हर—Poison (पॉयज़न) जहर के दांत—Fangs (फ़ैंग्स) जुगनू—Glowworm (ग्लोवार्म) जूं—Lice (लाइस) जोंक—Leech (लीच) झींगुर—Cricket (क्रिकेट) टिड्डा—Grass-hopper (ग्रास-हौपर) टिड्डी—Locust (लोकस्ट) ततैया, भिड़—Wasp (वॉस्प) तितली—Butterfly (बटरफ़्लाइ) दरियाई घोड़ा—Hippopotamus (हिप्पोपौटेमस) दीमक—Termite (टर्माइट) नाग—Cobra (कोबरा) पिस्सू—Flea (फ्ली) फन—Hood (हुड) बिच्छू—Scorpion (स्कॉरपिअन) मक्खी—Fly (फ्लाइ) मकड़ी—Spider (स्पाइडर) मकड़े का जाला—Web (वैब) मगरमच्छ—Crocodile (क्रोकोडाइल) मच्छर—Mosquito (मास्किटो) मछली—

Fish (फ़िश) मधुमक्खी—Honey-bee (हनी-बी) मधुमक्खी (मादा)—Bee (बी) महाचिंग (झिंगा मछली)—Lobster (लॉब्स्टर) मूषक पिस्सू—Rat flea (रैट फ्ली) मेंढक—Frog (फ्रॉग) मेंढक का बच्चा—Tadpole (टैडपोल) रेशम का कीड़ा—Silk-worm (सिल्क-वार्म) रेशम का कोआ—Cocoon (कोकून) लीख—Nit (निट) सर्प मीन—Eel (ईल) शार्क, हंगुर—Shark (शार्क) सांप—Snake (स्नेक) सीप (शुक्ति, कस्तूरा मछली)—Oyster (ओइस्टर) पक्षी

(BIRDS) अबाबील—Swallow (स्वैलो) उल्लू—Owl (आउल) कठफोड़ा—Woodpecker (वुडपैकर) कबूतर (कपोत)—Pigeon (पिजिन) काला कौवा—Raven (रैवन) कोयल—Cuckoo (कुक्कू) कौवा—Crow (क्रो) गरूड़—Eagle (ईगल) गिद्ध—Vulture (वल्चर) गौरैया—Sparrow (स्पैरो) चमगादड़—Bat (बैट) चील—Kite (काइट) चूज़ा—Chicken (चिकन) तीतर—Partridge (पार्ट्रिज्) तोता—Parrot (पैरट) नीलकण्ठ—Magpie (मैग्पी) डैना (पर)—Wing (विंग) पंख—Feather (फ़ैदर) फ़ाख्ता—Dove (डव) बत्तख (नर)—Drake (ड्रेक) बत्तख का बच्चा—Duckling (डकलिंग) बत्तखी—Duck (डक) बुलबुल—Nightingale (नाइटिंगेल) बया—Weaver bird (वीवर बर्ड) बटेर—Quail (क्वेल) बाज़—Hawk (हॉक) मुर्गा—Cock (कॉक) मुर्गी—Hen (हेन) मुर्गी का बच्चा—Chicken (चिकन) मोर—Peacock (पीकॉक) मोरनी—Peahen (पीहैन) लवा—Lark (लार्क) सारस—Crane (क्रेन) हंस(राजहंस)—Swan (स्वैन)

* लिखने में read की वर्तनी अर्थात् स्पैलिंग तीनों फॉर्म में एक सी होती है; अत: इस क्रिया को इस वर्ग में रखा गया है। पर इस क्रिया के तीनों forms का उच्चारण इस प्रकार होता है— रीड; रैड, रैड।

1 'घृणा करना' और 'पसंद न करना' दो अलग-अलग वस्तुएं हैं।

2 Poor शब्द एक वचन और बहुवचन में एक समान रहता है।

* संयुक्त शब्द बनने के बाद भी ये दोनों शब्द पृथक् रहते हैं।

अंग्रेजी-हिंदी शब्दकोश (English-Hindi Dictionary)

A

aback —(अबैक) adv. backwards. पीछे; Taken abacksurprised. चकित.

abandon —(अबैण्डन्) v. t. to forsake, to give up to another. परित्याग करना, किसी के ऊपर छोड़ देना.

abandonment —(अबैण्डनमेण्ट) n. giving up completely, surrender. पूर्ण परित्याग.

abate —(अबेट) v. t. to diminish or weaken. कम करना, कमज़ोर करना, घटाना.

abatement —(अबेटमेण्ट) n. deduction, decrease. कमी, कटौती.

abbreviate —(एब्रीविएट) v. t. to make brief or short. संक्षिप्त करना, छोटा करना.

abbreviation —(एब्रीविएशन) n. making short specially a word or phrase. किसी शब्द या वाक्यांश को संक्षिप्त करना.

abide —(अबाइड) v. t. stand firm, continue, put up with. दृढ़ रहना, जारी रहना, सहना, टिकना.

abiding —(अबाइडिंग) adj. permanent. स्थायी.

ability —(एबीलिटी) n. capacity, skill, mental or physical power. योग्यता, क्षमता, कौशल.

abject —(एबजेक्ट) adj. mean, worthless. तुच्छ, निकम्मा.

ably —(एब्ली) adv. in a competent manner. योग्यतापूर्वक.

abnegate —(एबनीगेट) v. t. to deny oneself, to give up. अपने को वंचित करना या त्यागना.

abnegation —(एब्नीगेशन) n. denial, self sacrifice. त्याग.

abnormal —(एब्नॉर्मल) adj. irregular, not usual. अनियमित, असाधारण.

aboard —(अबोर्ड) prep. adv. on a ship, aircraft or train. जहाज़, हवाई जहाज़ या रेल गाड़ी के ऊपर.

abode —(अबोड) n. dwelling. निवास स्थान.

abolish —(अबॉलिश) v. t. to put an end to. समाप्त करना, हटाना (विशेषत:

कोई रीति, कानून या संस्था).

abomination —(एबॉमिनेशन्) n. an object of disgust, a hateful thing or habit. घृणित कार्य या आदत.

abortion —(एबॉरशन्) n. miscarriage before birth. गर्भपात.

above —(एबव) adv. in a higher place. ऊपर; prep. on the top of, more than. ऊपर, अधिक.

abridgement —(अब्रिजमेण्ट) n. shortening. छोटा, संक्षेप, कमी.

abrupt —(एब्रप्ट) adj. hasty, unexpected, sudden, unconnected. उतावला, आकस्मिक, अचानक, असम्बद्ध.

absence —(ऐब्सेन्स) n. being away from a place, non-existence. अनुपस्थिति, अभाव.

absent —(ऐब्सेण्ट) adj. not present. अनुपस्थित; absentminded, abstracted. खोया हुआ-सा.

absentee —(ऐब्सेण्टी) n. one away from a place or post of duty. जो किसी स्थान या कार्य पर उपस्थित न रहे, गायब रहने वाला.

absolutely —(एब्सोल्यूटली) adv. in an absolute way. पूर्ण रूप से, स्वतंत्रता पूर्वक.

absorb —(एब्ज़ॉर्ब) v. t. to take in, to incorporate, to engage. सोखना, हड़प कर लेना, लीन होना.

absorption —(ऐब्ज़ॉर्पशन) n. sucking in engrossment. तल्लीनता.

abstract —(ऐब्सट्रैक्ट) n. summary. सारांश, सार.

abstract —(एब्सट्रैक्ट) v. t. to abridge, to remove. संक्षेप करना, अलग करना.

absurd —(ऐब्सर्ड) adj. illogical, ridiculous. असंगत, हास्यास्पद.

abuse —(ऐब्यूज़) v. t. to ill treat, to insult. दुर्व्यवाहार करना, अपशब्द कहना.

accede —(एक्सीड) v. i. to agree, to consent, to comply with. स्वीकार करना, सहमत होना, मानना.

acceleration —(एक्सीलेरेशन) n. increase in speed. चाल में वृद्धि.

accept —(ऐक्सेप्ट) v. t. & i. to agree, to have, agree to a statement or proposal. कबूल करना, कार्य भार लेना, स्वीकार करना.

acceptable —(ऐक्सेप्टेबल) adj. fit to be accepted, welcome. स्वीकार करने योग्य, वांछनीय.

acceptance —(ऐक्सेप्टेन्स) n. approval of offer. स्वीकृति.

access —(ऐक्सेस) n. approach, passage. पहुंच, राह.

accessible —(ऐक्सेसिबिल) adj. easily approachable, easily influenced. जिससे आसानी से मिला जा सके या प्रभाव डाला जा सके.

accidental —(ऐक्सीडेण्टल) adj. happening by chance. अकारण या आकस्मिक.

acclaim —(अक्लेम) v. t. to applaud, to cheer. जयघोष द्वारा स्वीकार करना; n. acclaimer. प्रशंसक.

acclamation —(एक्लेमेशन) n. shoutings of applause. जयध्वनि.

accomplish —(अकम्प्लिश) v. t. fulfil, achieve, bring to completion. काम पूरा करना, पूरा करना.

accomplished —(अकम्प्लिश्ड) adj. perfect, graceful. कुशल, प्रवीण.

accomplishment —(अकम्प्लिश्मेण्ट) n. fulfilment, attainment. प्राप्ति, सिद्धि.

according —(अकार्डिंग) adv. consistent with. अनुकूल.

accordingly —(अकार्डिंगली) adv. as demanded by the circumstances. तदनुकूल.

account —(एकाउन्ट) v. t. reckon, to judge. गिनना, मूल्य करना; v. i. give reason. कारण बताना.

accumulation —(अक्यूम्युलेशन) n. collection, amassing. ढेर, संचय.

accurate —(अक्यूरेट) adj. exact. सही, यथार्थ.

accuracy —(अक्यूरेसी) n. exactness. शुद्धता, यथार्थता.

accuse —(अक्यूज़) v. t. blame, to charge. अभियोग लगाना, दोषारोपण करना.

accused —(एक्यूज़्ड) adj. or n. charged with crime, defendant. दोषी, अभियुक्त.

achieve —(अचीव) v. t. accomplish, to secure an end. काम पूरा करना, सफल होना.

achievement —(एचीवमेण्ट) n. deed, accomplishment, exploit. कार्य, पराक्रम, प्राप्ति.

acknowledgement —(एकनॉलेजमेण्ट) n. recognition, a receipt. स्वीकृति, रसीद.

acquaintance —(ऐक्वेन्टेन्स) n. familiarity, knowledge. परिचय, ज्ञान.

acquainted —(अक्वेन्टेड) adj. familiar. परिचित.

acquiesce —(एकविअस) v. i. to agree, to assent. मन ही मन सहमत.

acquire —(ऐक्वायर) v. t. to get, to obtain, to come in possession of. प्राप्त करना, अधिकार में करना.

acquisition —(ऐक्विज़िशन) n. the act of acquiring, gain, लाभ, उपलब्धि.

acquit —(एक्विट) v. t. to set free, to declare innocent, to release. दोष से मुक्त करना, छुटकारा देना, चरितार्थ करना.

action —(ऐक्शन) n. deed, a law suit, battle, activity. कार्य, मुकदमा, लड़ाई, क्रिया.

activity —(ऐक्टिविटी) n. the state of being active, action. क्रियाशीलता, कार्य.

actor —(ऐक्टर) n. dramatic performer, a doer. अभिनेता, कर्त्ता.

actress —(ऐक्ट्रेस) n. fem. female actor. अभिनेत्री.

actually —(ऐक्चुअली) adv. in fact. वस्तुत:

acute —(ऐक्यूट) adj. sharp, keen. तीक्ष्ण, तीव्र.

adapt —(एडैप्ट) v. t. to make suitable, to fit. ठीक करना, उपयुक्त बनाना.

add —(ऐड) v. t. to join, to sum up, to unite. जोड़ना, जुटाना.

addition —(ऐडिशन) n. act of adding, something added. योग, जमा.

additional —(एडिशनल) adj. extra, supplementary. अतिरिक्त, अधिक, पूरक.

addiction —(एडिक्शन) n. the state of being addicted. आसक्ति, व्यसन.

addressee —(ऐड्रेसी) n. a person to whom a letter etc. is addressed. जिसे पत्र लिखा जाए.

adequate —(एडिक्वेट) adj. fully sufficient, equal to requirement. पर्याप्त, योग्य, काफी.

adhere —(एड्हियर) v. t. to stick. चिपकना, लगे रहना.

Adherence —(एडहियरेंस) n. attachment. लगाव.

adjoin —(एडजॉइन) v. i. & v t. to join to. to be in contact with. समीप होना, संयुक्त करना.

adjourn —(ऐडजर्न) v. t. to put off till another day, to postpone. स्थगित करना, टालना, मुलतवी करना.

adjournment —(ऐडजर्नमेन्ट) n. putting off till another day, postponement. स्थगन, स्थगनकाल.

adjure —(एडज्यूर) v. t. to charge under oath. शपथ देकर बाध्य करना.

adjustment —(एडजस्टमेन्ट) n. putting in order, modify to suit purpose. समायोजन, व्यवस्था.

administer —(एडमिनिस्टर) v. t. to manage, to furnish, to act as administrator. प्रबंध करना, शासन करना, देना.

administration —(एडमिनिस्ट्रेशन) n. management of an office, agency or organization, Government department which manages public affairs. व्यवस्था, प्रबंध, प्रशासन.

administrator —(एडमिनिस्ट्रेटर) n. a governor. शासक.

admirable —(एडमिरेबल) adj. worthy of admiration. प्रशंसनीय, सराहने योग्य.

admire —(एडमायर) v. t. to prize highly, to wonder at. प्रशंसा करना, स्तुति करना.

admissible —(ऐडमिस्बल) adj. fit to be allowed. ग्राह्य, अंगीकार योग्य.

admission —(एडमिशन) n. access, introduction. प्रवेश.

adult —(एडल्ट) n. & adj. a grown up person. युवा पुरूष, बालिग.

adulterate —(एडल्टरेट) v. t. to make impure, to corrupt. अशुद्ध करना, मिलावट करना.

adulteration —(एडल्टरेशन) n. act of adulterating. मिश्रण, मिलावट.

advancement —(एडवांसमेण्ट) n. promotion, improvement. वृद्धि, उन्नति.

advantageous —(एडवाण्टेजियस) adj. beneficial. लाभदायक.

adventure —(एडवेन्चर) n. an enterprise, a risk or hazard. साहसिक कार्य; v. t. to risk, to dare. साहस करना.

adventurer —(एडवेन्चरर) n. one who seeks adventure, speculator. साहस या शौर्य का कार्य करने वाला, दांव लगाने वाला.

adventurous —(एडवेन्चरस) adj. enterprising. साहसी, प्रगतिशील, निर्भीक.

adverb —(एडवर्ब) n. a word that modifies an adjective, a verb or another adverb. क्रिया विशेषण.

adversary —(एडवर्सरी) n. an enemy, an opponent. बैरी, शत्रु, प्रतिवादी.

adverse —(एडवर्स) adj. opposing, contrary. विपरीत, विरूद्ध.

adversity —(एडवर्सिटी) n. misfortune. दुर्भाग्य.

advert —(एडवर्ट) v. t. to turn attention to, to allude. ध्यान देना, उद्देश्य करना.

Advertise (**ze**)—(एडवर्टाइज़) v. t. to make public. प्रकाशित करना, विज्ञापन देना.

advertisement —(एडवर्टाइजमेण्ट) n. a public notice. विज्ञापन.

advice —(एडवाइस) n. counsel, instruction. उपदेश, परामर्श.

advise —(एडवाइज़) v. t. **&** i. to give advice, to inform, to notify. उपदेश करना, सूचना देना, परामर्श करना.

aerogram —(एरोग्राम) n. wireless message. बिना तार द्वारा भेजा हुआ संदेश.

aesthetic —(ईस्थेटिक) adj. concerning appreciation of beauty. सौंदर्य की परख सबंधी, सुरूचिपूर्ण.

affect —(अफ़ेक्ट) v. t. to act upon, to move the feelings of, to pretend, to assume. प्रभावित करना, बनाना.

affectation —(अफ़ेक्टेशन) n. false pretence. बनावट, आडम्बर.

affected —(अफ़ेक्टेड) adj. not natural. कृत्रिम, बनावटी.

affective —(अफ़ेक्टिव) adj. emotional. भावपूर्ण.

affection —(अफ़ेक्शन) n. love, tender attachment प्रेम, अनुराग.

affiliate —(अफ़िलिएट) v. t. to bring into close association or connection. साथ मिलाना, शामिल करना.

afford —(एफ़ोर्ड) v. t. to give forth, to have means. खर्च करने की क्षमता रखना, खर्च उठा सकना.

aforesaid —(एफ़ोरसेड) adj. before mentioned. पूर्व कथित.

afraid —(अफ्रेड) adj. frightened. भयभीत, डरा हुआ.

afternoon —(ऑफ्टरनून) the time from noon until evening. दोपहर.

afterwards —(आफ़्टरवर्ड्स) adv. subsequently. बाद में.

again —(अगेन) adv. once more. दुबारा, एक बार और.

against —(अगेन्स्ट) prep , in opposition to, in contact with. प्रतिकूल, सामने, विरूद्ध, अभिमुख, खिलाफ.

age —(एज) n. period of life, maturity of years, generation. वय,

अवस्था, युग; to come of age. बालिग होना, वयस्क होना.

aged —(एजेड) adj. advanced in years. वयोवृद्ध, बुढ्डा.

agitate —(एजीटेट) v. t. to move, shake, discuss, excite feelings. हिलाना, झकझोरना, बहस करना, आंदोलन करना.

agitation —(एजीटेशन) n. moving, disturbance, public excitement. आंदोलन, सार्वजनिक वाद-विवाद.

agnostic —(एग्नॉस्टिक) n. & adj. one who believes that nothing can be known about God except material things. प्रत्यक्षवादी.

ago —(अगो) adj . & adv . past. पूर्व.

agree —(ऐग्री) v. t. & i. consent. राज़ी होना, सहमत होना.

agreeable —(अग्रीएबल) adj. pleasing, ready to agree. रूचिकर, अनुसार, सहमत.

agreement —(एग्रीमेण्ट) n. understanding, contract, treaty. एकरारनामा, समझौता, सन्धिपत्र.

agriculture —(एग्रीकल्चर) n. cultivation of land. कृषि, खेती.

aid —(ऐड) n. help, grant. सहायता, आर्थिक सहायता.

ailment —(एलमेण्ट) n. pain, disease. दर्द, बीमारी.

aim —(ऐम) n . & v. t. purpose, destination, to direct a blow, point. ध्येय, आदर्श, निशाना साधना, निशाना.

air —(एअर) n. the atmosphere, outward manner, a tune or melody. वायुमंडल, वायु, पवन, आकृति, चाल-ढाल, तान, सुर.

airmail —(एअरमेल) n. mail carried by aeroplane. हवाई जहाज़ से आने वाली डाक.

airport —(एअरपोर्ट) n. aerodrome. हवाई जहाज़ का अड्डा.

alcohol —(एलकोहॉल) n. intoxicating liquor. मदिरा.

alignment —(एलाइनमेण्ट) n. a row, plan of a road or railway. पंक्ति, सड़क या रेल की लाइन का नक्शा.

alike —(एलाइक) adj. & adv . like, in the same manner. सदृश, समान, एक प्रकार का.

alien —(एलियन) n. foreigner, stranger. विदेशी, अपरिचित.

alive —(एलाइव) adj. living, acting, full of. जीवित, सचेत, परिपूर्ण.

allegation —(एलीगेशन) n. assertion. अभियोग.

allegoric (al) —(एलिगोरिक) (ल) adj. figurative. रूपकमय.

alley —(ऐली) n. a narrow passage, a street. संकुचित मार्ग, संकरी गली.

alliance —(अलाइअन्स) n. relationship, union. सम्बन्ध, नाता, मेल.

alligate —(एलीगेट) v. t. to conjoin, to combine. साथ-साथ मिलाना, जोड़ना.

alliteration —(एलिटरेशन) n. coming of several words in a sentence with the same letter. अनुप्रास.

allocate —(एलोकेट) v. t. to assign, to allot. भाग नियत करना, बांटना.

allopathy —(एलोपैथी) n. a system of treatment of disease. चिकित्सा शैली, डाक्टरी इलाज.

allotment —(एलॉटमेण्ट) n. share distributed. अंश, विभक्त भाग.

allow —(एलाउ) v. t. to permit. आज्ञा देना.

allowable —(एलाएबिल) adj. suitable to be allowed. आज्ञा देने योग्य.

allowance —(एलाउन्स) n. permission, a grant, discount. आज्ञा, गुज़ारा, कटौती.

allure —(अल्यूर) v. t. to tempt, to entice. ललचाना, फुसलाना.

allusion —(अल्यूज़न) n. implied or indirect reference. उद्देश्य, संकेत.

almighty —(ऑलमाइटी) adj. having infinite power, omnipotent. सर्वशक्मिान.

almost —(ऑलमोस्ट) adj., adv. & n. nearly, all but. प्राय:, प्राय: सब.

alone —(एलोन) adj. single, solitary. अकेला, एक; adv. singly. अकेले, केवल.

alphabet —(एल्फाबेट) n. the letters of a language arranged in order. वर्णमाला.

already —(ऑलरेडी) adv. previously, by this time. पहिले ही से.

alter —(ऑल्टर) n. an elevated place for sacrifice or offerings. वेदी.

alter —(ऑल्टर) v. t. & i. to change, to make different. बदलना, भिन्न करना.

alteration —(ऑल्टरेशन) n. change. अदल-बदल, परिवर्तन.

alternate —(ऑल्टरनेट) adj. by turns. पक्षांतर, विकल्प; v. t. to follow in turns. पारी-पारी से.

alternative —(ऑल्टरनेटिव) n. a choice between two. पक्षांतर.

although —(ऑलदो) conj. though, supposing that. यद्यपि, मानो.

altitude —(ऐल्टीट्यूड) n. vertical height, elevation. ऊंचाई.

altogether —(ऑलटुगेदर) adv. entirely, quite. सर्वदा, पूर्णरूप से.

always —(ऑलवेज़) adv. at all times. सर्वदा, निरन्तर.

amateur —(अमेचर) n. one who cultivates an art, game etc. for pleasure sake. किसी शिल्प या विद्या का शौकिया अभ्यास करने वाला.

amazement —(अमेज़मेण्ट) n. astonishment. विस्मय, आश्चर्य.

ambiguous —(ऐम्बीग्युअस) adj. doubtful, indistinct, of more than one meaning. अस्पष्ट, संदिग्ध, एक से अधिक अर्थ वाला.

ambition —(एम्बिशन) n. an ardent or eager desire to rise in position or power. अभिलाषा, लालसा, महत्त्वाकांक्षा.

ambitious —(ऐम्बिशस) adj. strongly desirous. अधिक लालसा रखने वाला, महत्त्वाकांक्षी.

ambulance —(एम्बुलेंस) n. conveyance used for the wounded or sick persons. घायलों या बीमारों को अस्पताल में से ले जाने वाली गाड़ी.

ameliorate —(ऐमीलियोरेट) v. t. to improve, to make better. सुधारना, उन्नति करना.

amenable —(अमेनेबल) adj. responsible, submissive, liable to. आज्ञाकारी, उत्तरदाता.

amendment —(अमेण्डमेण्ट) n. improvement. संशोधन, उन्नति.

amiable —(एमीएबल) adj. of pleasing disposition, lovable. सुशील, मनोहर.

amicable —(एमीकेबल) adj. friendly, peaceable. मित्र-भाव का, सुशील, दोस्ताना.

amount —(अमाउण्ट) n. full value. पूरा मूल्य, जोड़; v. t. to be equivalent to. बराबर होना, परिणाम होना.

ample —(ऐमप्ल) adj. sufficient, spacious, abundant. पर्याप्त, विस्तृत, फैला हुआ.

amplification —(ऐम्प्लीफिकेशन) n. development. विस्तार.

amplifier —(ऐम्पलीफायर) n. an appliance for increasing force. शक्ति बढ़ाने का एक प्रकार का यंत्र.

amplify —(एम्पलीफ़ाई) v. t. to make bigger, to enlarge. बड़ा बनाना.

amputate —(एम्प्युटेट) v. t. to cut off the limb of a creature. किसी प्राणी का अंग काटना.

amusement —(अम्यूज़मेण्ट) n. a pastime. मन-बहलाव.

anaemia —(अनीमिया) n. poverty of blood. शरीर में रूधिर की कमी, कमजोरी, रक्तहीनता.

analysis —(अनालिसिस) n. (pl. ses. सीज़) the act of analysing, resolving into simple elements. परिच्छेद की क्रिया.

ancient —(एनशेंट) adj. of time long past, old, belonging to former age. प्राचीन, पुराना.

angel —(ऐंजेल) n. a messenger from heaven. देव दूत.

anger —(ऐंगर) n. rage, wrath. कोप, क्रोध; v. t. to make angry. क्रुद्ध करना.

angler —(ऐंग्लर) n. one who angles. मछली पकड़ने वाला.

anglo —(ऐंग्लो) pref. meaning English. "अंग्रेज़ी" अर्थ का उपसर्ग.

angry —(ऐंग्री) adj. wrathful. क्रोधी, कुपित.

anguish —(ऐंग्विश) n. extreme pain (of mind). मानसिक पीड़ा, वेदना.

animal —(ऐनीमल) n. a living and feeling creature. जन्तु, प्राणी, जीवधारी; adj. relating to life. प्राण सम्बन्धी.

annex —(अनेक्स) v. t. to append, to take possession. संयोग करना, जोड़ना, अधिकार में ले लेना.

annihilation —(ऐनिहिलेशन) n. total destruction. विनाश, संहार.

anniversary —(ऐनिवर्सरी) n. (ries pl.) an yearly celebration of an event. वार्षिकोत्सव.

announcement —(एनाउन्समेण्ट) n. proclamation. घोषणा, विज्ञापन.

annoy —(अनॉय) v. t. to worry, to trouble. कष्ट देना, चिढ़ाना.

annoyance —(अनॉयैन्स) n. worry. पीड़ा, बाधा, दु:ख, झुंझलाहट.

annual —(ऐनुअल) adj. yearly, happening every year. वार्षिक, प्रतिवर्ष हाने वाला; n. a plant that lives for one year only. एक वर्ष तक रहने वाला पौधा.

another —(अनअदर) adj. & pron. different, not the same, one more. दूसरा, भिन्न, दूसरा कोई, एक और.

anonymously —(एनॉनिमसली) adv. in a way where no name is mentioned. गुमनाम से, बिना नाम लिखे हुए.

answerable —(आनसरएब्ल) adj. that may be replied to. उत्तरदाता, जवाबदेह.

ante —(एण्टी) pref. before. पूर्व.

antecedent —(ऐण्टीसीडेण्ट) n. previous, preceding. पूर्वगामी, पहिले का.

antelope —(ऐण्टेलोप) n. a kind of deer. एक प्रकार का हिरन.

ante meridiem —(ऐण्टीमेरिडियम) (abbr. A. M.) before noon. मध्यान्ह के पहले का.

anterior —(ऐण्टीरियर) adj. former, previous. पूर्वकाल का, पहिले का.

anti —(ऐण्टी) prep, opposite to, against. भिन्न, विपरीत.

anticipate —(ऐण्टीसिपेट) v. t. & i. to do in advance, to foresee. पहिले से विचार करना, आशा करना.

anticipation —(ऐण्टीसिपेशन) n. expectation. आशा, पूर्व ज्ञान.

antique —(ऐण्टिक) adj. old fashioned. unusual. प्राचीन, अनोखा.

antiquity —(एण्टीक्विटी) n. relics of old times. प्राचीन काल के अवशेष.

antiseptic —(ऐण्टीसेप्टिक) adj. & n. preventing decay. सड़न रोकने वाली.

antonym —(ऐण्टोनिम) adj. a word of contrary meaning. विपरीत अर्थ का शब्द.

anxiety —(ऐंक्ज़ाइटी) n. uneasiness of mind, eager desire. चिन्ता, उत्कण्ठा, व्यग्रता.

anxious —(ऐंक्शस) adj. uneasy, troubled. चिन्तित, व्याकुल.

any —(एनी) pron. & adj. one, some. किसी, कोई, कुछ, कैसा ही.

apathy —(अपैथी) n. insensibility, indifference. अनुभव-शून्यता, उदासीनता.

apology —(अपॉलोजी) n. (pl. gies) an excuse, vindication. क्षमा, प्रार्थना.

apostrophe —(अपॉस्ट्रफी) n. sign of ommission of a letter ('), an exclamatory address. सम्बन्ध कारक का चिन्ह, सम्बोधन, आह्वान.

apparent —(अपैरेण्ट) adj. visible, clear, evident. प्रत्यक्ष, स्पष्ट.

appear —(अपीयर) v. t. to become visible, to show oneself, to seem. प्रकाशित होना, देख पड़ना, जान पड़ना.

appearance —(अपियरैन्स) n. a thing seen, outward aspect. आकृति, रूप, सम्भावना.

appendix —(अपेण्डिक्स) n. addition at the end in a document, a

tubular structure at end of large intestine. परिशिष्ट, एक रोग जो आंतो के बढ़ जाने से होता है.

appetite —(एपिटाइट) n. hunger. भूख.

appetize —(एपिटाइज़) v. t. to have hunger. भूख लगना.

appetizer —(एपिटाइज़र) n. a thing that gives appetite. भूख बढ़ाने वाला.

applause —(अप्लॉज़) n. approval, praise. प्रशंसा, स्तुति.

applicable —(ऐप्लीकेबल) adj. suitable. अनुकूल, उचित.

applicant —(एप्लीकैण्ट) n. one who applies. प्रार्थना करने वाला.

apply —(अप्लाई) v. t. & i. (p.t. Applied) to put close to, to employ, to fix mind upon. संयुक्त करना, लगाना, आरूढ़ होना.

appointment —(अपॉइण्टमेण्ट) n. engagement. नियुक्ति.

apposite —(अपोज़िट) adj. suitable. proper. योग्य, अनुकूल, ठीक.

appraise —(अप्रेज़) v. t. to estimate the worth of, to set price on. मूल्य ठहराना, दाम लगाना.

appreciable —(ऐप्रीशिएबल) adj. noticeable. जानने योग्य.

appreciate —(ऐप्रीशिएट) v. t. &. i. to estimate, to value highly, to rise or raise in value. गुण जानना, मान करना.

apprehension —(ऐप्रीहेन्शन) n. understanding, fear. अनुमान, भय.

approach —(अप्रोच) v. t. & i to come near, to ask, to make proposal, to advance. निकट आना, प्रस्ताव करना, मांगना, बढ़ना.

appropriate —(एप्रोप्रियेट) v. t. to take possession of, to set apart as fund for a certain person or purpose. अधिकार करना, अपनाना, अलग निकाल कर रख देना.

approval —(अप्रूवल) n. sanction. अनुमोदित.

approve —(अप्रूव) v. t. to sanction, to like, to commend. रूचना, अनुमोदन करना.

approximately —(एप्रोक्सीमेटली) adv. in an approximate manner, nearly. लगभग करीब-करीब.

apt —(ऐप्ट) adj. ready, quick to learn, suitable. तत्पर, उद्यत, उपयुक्त.

arbitrate —(आर्बिट्रेट) v. t. to act as a judge. पंचों का न्याय करना.

arbitration —(आर्बिट्रेशन) n. decision of an arbitrator. पंच का निर्णय.

arbitrator —(आरर्बिट्रेटर) n . one who arbitrates. पंच, मध्यस्थ.

architect —(आर्किटेक्ट) n. one skilled in planning and erecting buildings. शिल्पकार, गृहनिर्माण कला जानने वाला.

architecture —(आर्कीटेक्चर) n. art of building. शिल्प विद्या, घर बनाने की कला.

ardent —(आर्डेण्ट) adj. burning, eager. उत्सुक, उत्साहपूर्ण.

ardour —(आरडर) n. warmth of feeling, heat, zeal. उत्कंठा, उत्सुकता.

argue —(आर्ग्यू) v. t. & i. to discuss, to try, to prove. तर्क करना, विवाद से सिद्ध करना.

argument —(आर्ग्यूमेण्ट) n. reasoning, debate, subject. तर्क शास्त्रार्थ, विषय.

aristocrat —(एरिस्टोक्रेट) n. one of good birth. रईस, अमीर.

arithmetician —(अरिथमैटीशियन) n. one skilled in Arithmetic. गणितज्ञ.

armament —(आर्मामेण्ट) n. equipment for fighting. युद्ध सामग्री, शास्त्रास्त्र.

army —(आर्मी) n. a large body of men armed for war, a host. सेना, दलबल, फ़ौज.

around —(अराउण्ड) adv. in every direction, about, along. चारों ओर, आगे, सब ओर.

arrange —(एरेन्ज) v. t. to put in proper place, to settle, to adjust. उचित स्थान में लगाना, तैयारी करना.

arrear —(एरियर) n. state of being behind. पीछे रहने की स्थ्िति.

arrears —(एरियर्स) n. pl. money due but not paid. बकाया.

arrest —(अरेस्ट) v.t. to step, to seize by legal authority, to check motion. रोकना, पकड़ना; n. stoppage, imprisonment. गिरफ्तारी, रूकावट.

arrival —(अराइवल) n. act of reaching. आगमन, पहुंच.

arrive —(अराइव) v. t. to reach a place, to attain. पहुंचना, प्राप्त करना.

arrogant —(एरोगेण्ट) adj. haughty. अभिमानी.

art —(आर्ट) n. human skill or knowledge, cunning. शिल्प कला, कौशल चातुरी.

article —(आर्टीकल) n. a thing, a literary composition in grammar, the words a, an & the. वस्तु, लेख, धारा, व्याकरण में a, an और the.

artisan —(आर्टीज़न) n. mechanic. शिल्पकार.

artist —(आर्टिस्ट) n. one skilled in fine art. चित्रकार, निपुण कारीगर.

ascend —(असेण्ड) v. t. & i to go up, to rise, to mount. चढ़ना, बढ़ना, ऊपर जाना.

ascension —(असैन्शन) n. act of ascending. बढ़ती, चढ़ाव.

ascertain —(असर्टेन) v. t. to make certain, to find out. निश्चित करना, जांचना.

ash —(ऐश) n. name of a tree, dust or remains of anything burnt. एक प्रकार का पेड़, धूल, राख.

ashamed —(अशेम्ड) adj. abashed. लज्जित.

aside —(एसाइड) adv. on one side, away. एक ओर, अलग.

asleep —(अस्लीप) adj. in a state of sleep. निद्रा से सोते हुए.

aspiration —(ऐस्पिरेशन) n. intense desire. आकांक्षा, लालसा, उत्कंठा, इच्छा.

assail —(असेल) v. t. to attack, to assault. आक्रमण करना.

assassination —(असेसिनेशन) n. murder. हत्या.

assay —(असे) v. t. to try, to analyse. परीक्षा करना, जांच करना; n. trial, test of purity. परीक्षा, जांच, परख.

assembly —(असेम्बली) n. a meeting, a council. समाज, सभा, मजलिस.

assert —(एसर्ट) v. t. to state positively, to affirm. स्पष्ट रूप से व्यक्त करना, स्वीकार करना.

assertion —(एसर्शन) n. affirmation. स्वीकारोक्ति, स्पष्ट वचन.

assessment —(असेसमेण्ट) n. valuation. कर-निर्धारण, मूल्यांकन, निर्धारण.

assessor —(असेसर) n. one who estimates taxes. कर आंकने वाला, कर अधिकारी.

assets —(एसेट्स) n. pl. property of person sufficient to pay his legal debts. पूंजी, सम्पत्ति, विभव.

assign —(असाइंन) v. t. to ascribe, to allot, to refer. निर्दिष्ट करना, नियुक्ति करना, सौंपना.

assignation —(एसिग्नेशन) n. allotment. बटवारा, सौंपना, हिस्से में देना.

assistance —(एसिस्टेण्स) n. act of assisting, help. सहायता, मदद.

assistant —(असिस्टेन्ट) n. one who assists another. सहायक, नायब.

assume —(अस्यूम) v. t. to take for granted, to adopt. कल्पना करना, मान लेना, अख्तियार करना.

assumption —(एसम्पशन) n. act of assuming, supposition. कल्पना, मानी हुई बात, धारणा.

astonish —(एस्टॉनिश) v. t. to surprise greatly, to amaze. चकित करना, अचम्भे में डालना.

astrology —(ऐस्ट्रोलॉजी) n. the science of the influence of stars on human affairs. फलित ज्योतिष.

astrologer —(ऐस्ट्रॉलॉजर) n. a student of astrology. ज्योतिषी.

astronomy —(ऐस्ट्रोनॉमी) n. the science of the heavenly bodies. ज्योतिष विद्या.

atheism —(एथीज़्म) n. disbelief in God. नास्तिकता.

athlete —(एथलीट) n. a person trained in physical exercises. खिलाड़ी.

atomic —(एटॉमिक) adj. pertaining to atoms. परमाणु सम्बन्धी.

attachment —(अटैचमेण्ट) n. a fastening, great affection. बन्धन, कुर्की, अनुराग, प्रीती.

attack —(अटैक) v. t. to fall upon, to assault. आक्रमण करना, धावा करना; n. offensive operation. अभियोग, आक्रमण, हमला.

attain —(अटेन) v. t. & i . to reach, to gain, to achieve. प्राप्त करना, पहुंचना.

attendance —(अटेण्डेन्स) n. presence. उपस्थिति.

attendant —(अटेण्डेण्ट) n. a person attending. अनुचर, साथी.

attention —(अटेन्शन) n. act of applying one's mind. ध्यान, आकर्षण.

attest —(अटेस्ट) v. t. & i to bear witness, to affirm solemnly. प्रमाणित करना, सही करना.

Attestation —(अटेस्टेशन) n. testimony. गवाही, प्रमाण.

attitude —(एटीट्यूड) n. behaviour, posture of body. व्यवहार, भाव, आकृति.

attract —(अट्रैक्ट) v. t. to draw, to entice. आकर्षित करना, लुभाना.

auction —(ऑक्शन) n. a public sale of property to the highest bidder. नीलामी.

auctioneer —(ऑक्शनीयर) n. a holder of auction. नीलाम करने वाला.

audacity —(ऑडेसिटी) n. daring spirit. निर्लज्जता, धृष्ठता, दिलेरी.

audible —(ऑडिबल) adj. able to be heard. सुनाई देने योग्य.

audience —(ऑडिएन्स) n. a body of hearers, interview. श्रोतागण, सुनने वाले लोग, साक्षात्कार, भेंट.

auditor —(ऑडिटर) n. one who audits accounts. हिसाब-किताब जांचने वाला.

aught —(ऑट) n. & adv. anything, in any respect. कुछ, किसी प्रकार से.

authentic —(ऑथेण्टिक) adj. reliable, true. प्रामाणिक, सच्चा.

authenticity —(ऑथेण्टिसिटी) n. genuineness. प्रामाणिकता.

authority —(अथॉरिटी) n. power, right; (pl.) the person in power. प्रभाव, शक्ति, प्रभुत्व, अधिकारी पुरूष.

authorize —(ऑथोराइज) v. t. to give authority to. अधिकार देना.

auto —(ऑटो) pref. in the sense of one's own. “अपना, आप ही” अर्थ का उपसर्ग.

autobiography — (ऑटोबाओग्राफी) n. life of a person written by himself. आत्मकथा.

autocracy —(ऑटोक्रेसी) n. absolute government. अधिराज्य.

autograph —(ऑटोग्राफ) n. signature, स्वहस्तलेख, हस्ताक्षर.

automatic —(ऑटोमैटिक) adj. self acting. अपने आप चलने वाली.

autumn —(ऑटम) n. the third season of the year. शरद ऋतु.

auxiliary —(आक्ज़िलियरी) adj. n. (pl. ries) helping, a helper. सहायक, सहकारी.

available —(अवेलेबल) adj. accessive. उपयोगी; of no avail, useless. निरर्थक.

avarice —(एवरिस) n. greediness. लोभ, लालच.

avenue —(ऐवेन्यू) n. road or street with trees. वृक्ष पंक्ति से ढका हुआ मार्ग.

average —(ऐवरेज) n. an ordinary standard, prevailing rate or account. मध्यम अवस्था, प्रचलित, परिमाण, औसत; adj. of the ordinary standard. सामान्य, मध्यम.

avoid —(अवॉइड) v. t. to evade, to shun. त्यागना, टालना, बचा जाना.

avoidance —(अवॉयडेन्स) n. the act of avoiding. आनाकानी, बचाव, परिहार.

await —(अवेट) v. t. to wait for. प्रतीक्षा करना, इंतजार करना.

awake —(अवेक) v. t. & i. to get up, to become active, to rouse from sleep. जागृत होना, जागना, सचेत करना; adj. not asleep, vigilant. जागृत, सचेत.

award —(अवॉर्ड) n. judgement, thing awarded. निर्णय, न्यायालय का फैसला, पुरस्कार.

aware —(अवेयर) adj. knowing, conscious, informed, attentive. सचेत, सावधान, सतर्क.

away —(अवे) adj. & adv. at distance, constantly. दूर, निरन्तर; To go away. चले जाना.

awful —(ऑफुल) adj. terrible, dreadful. भयंकर, डरावना.

awhile —(एह्वाइल) adv. for a short time. क्षण भर के लिऐ, जरा देर के लिए.

awkward —(ऑकवर्ड) adj. clumsy, difficult to deal with. भद्दा, कुरूप, अकुशल.

axe —(एक्स) n. a chopping tool. फरसा, कुल्हाड़ी; An axe to grind—an ulterior object. स्वार्थ.

axiom —(ऐक्सिअम) n. a selfevident truth. स्वत: सिद्ध प्रमाण.

aye —(ए) interj. & n. an affirmative answer. हां.

B

baa —(बा) n. bleat of a sheep. भेड़ की मिमियाहट.

bachelor —(बैचलर) n. an unmarried man. अविवाहित (पुरूष).

backbite —(बैकबाइट) v. t. to speak evil of in the absence of a person. पीठ पीछे चुगली करना.

backbone —(बैकबोन) n. the spine, support, power to resist, रीढ़ की हड्डी, आधार, साहस, दम.

backdoor —(बैकडोर) n. door at the back of a house. मकान का पिछला दरवाजा, चोर दरव़ाजा.

background —(बैकग्राउण्ड) n. the ground or base specially of a scene. पृष्ठ भूमि, आधार.

backward —(बैकवर्ड) adj. behind in time, slow in learning. पीछे आने वाला, सीखने में सुस्त.

bacteria —(बैक्टीरिया) n. minute germs or organisms in air and water. जल और वायु में प्रविष्ट सूक्ष्म जीवाणु.

badge —(बैज) n. special mark. विशिष्ट चिन्ह.

badly —(बैडली) adv. in a bad way. बुरी तरह.

bagman —(बैगमैन) n. a commercial traveller. व्यवसायी यात्री.

balcony —(बैलकनी) n. portion of house jutting out. छज्जा.

bale —(बेल) n. bundle. गांठ.

baleful —(बेलफुल) adj. regrettable, causing sorrow or pain. शोचनीय, दुखद.

ball —(बॉल) n. a round object used in games, bullet. गेंद, गोली; a dance-party. अंग्रेज़ी नाच-पार्टी.

ballad —(बैलेड) n. a short story in verse. कविता में लिखी हुई कहानी.

ballet —(बैले) n. entertainment with music and dance. नृत्यमय प्रदर्शन.

balm —(बाम) n. an ointment. मरहम.

ban —(बैन) n. an order prohibiting some action, curse, sentence of outlawry. निषेध, शाप, देश निकाला.

banana —(बनाना) n. plant or its fruit. केले का पौधा या फल.

bandage —(बैण्डेज) n. band for binding wounds. घाव बांधने की पट्टी.

bangle —(बैंगल) n. an ornament, bracelet. कंगन, चूड़ी.

bank —(बैंक) n. margin of river, an establishment for keeping money. नदी, तट, बैंक.

bankrupt —(बैंक्रप्ट) n. an insolvent person. दिवालिया; Bankruptcy. दिवालियापन.

banner —(बैनर) n. a flag. देश का झंडा.

bar —(बार) n. a rod, a barrier, a check, place for prisoners at trial, a tribunal. डंडा, बन्धन, रोक थाम के लिए बनाई गई लाइन, न्यायालय मे वकीलों के लिए खड़े होने का स्थान, वकीलों का समुदाय; to be called to the bar-वकालत पेशे में दाखिल होना.

barbarism —(बारबैरिज़्म) n. absence of culture; savage life. असभ्यता, जंगलीपन.

barbarity —(बारबेरिटी) n. cruelty, savage behaviour. जंगलीपन, क्रूरता.

barbarous —(बारबेरस) adj. uncultured, uncivilised. असभ्य, जंगली, क्रूर.

barber —(बारबर) n. one who shaves and cuts hair. नाई, हज्जाम.

bare —(बेअर) adj. naked, undisguised, baled, unfurnished. नंगा, खुला, खाली, सजावट से हीन.

barely —(बेरली) adv. hardly. मुश्किल से, केवल, मात्र.

bargain —(बारगेन) n. agreement, contract. सौदा, इकरार, किसी वस्तु का बेचने या खरीदने का समझौता.

bark —(बार्क) n. sheath of tree, a ship, cry of a dog. पेड़ की छाल, नौका, कुत्ते का भौंकना.

barrack —(बैरेक) n. soldiers' quarters. फौजी सिपाहियों का घर.

baseless —(बेसलेस) adj. groundless. बिना किसी आधार के, आधारहीन.

basement —(बेसमेण्ट) n. storey below ground level. तहखाना.

baseness —(बेसनेस) n. meanness. तुच्छता, नीचता, कमीनापन.

basic —(बेसिक) adj. fundamental. आधारभूत.

bastard —(बैस्टर्ड) n. an illegitimate child. अवैध संतान.

batsman —(बैट्स्मैन) n. one who plays with the bat. क्रिकेट के खेल में बैट लेकर खेलने वाला.

batch —(बैच) n. a quantity produced at a time. समूह, समुदाय, धानी.

bath —(बाथ) n. a place for bathing or washing, water for bathing. स्नानागार, स्नान करने का जल.

bathe —(बेद) v. t. & i. to immerse in a liquid, to put in a bath, to wash the body all over. डुबोना, नहाना.

bathing —(बेदिंग) n. act of bathing. स्नान.

batter —(बैटर) v. t. to beat together. मंथन करना, फेटना; n. अच्छी तरह छना हुआ आटा.

beach —(बीच) n. the shore of a sea or lake. झील या समुद्र का किनारा; v. t. to put a vesel on shore. जहाज़ को किनारे पर लगाना.

beak —(बीक) n. the bill of a bird. पक्षी की चोंच.

beam —(बीम) n. ray of light. प्रकाश की किरण. v. t. to shine. चमकना.

bear —(बेअर) n. a thick-furred animal, an unmannerly person. भालू, अशिष्ट पुरूष.

bear —(बेयर) v. t. & i (p.t. Bore, p.p. Born) to carry, to support, to endure, to conduct oneself, to produce. ले जाना, सहारा देना, सहना, व्यवहार

करना, उत्पन्न करना.

beard —(बीयर्ड) n. hair that grow on cheek and chin, awn of plants. दाढ़ी, अनाज की बाल.

bearable —(बेयरेबल) adj. tolerable. सहन करने योग्य.

bearer —(बेयरर) n. a domestic servant. गृहस्थी का नौकर.

beargarden —(बीयरगार्डन) n. scene of uproar. उपद्रव, कोलाहल.

beast —(बीस्ट) n. a quadruped, a rude brutal person. पशु, निर्दयी, अशिष्ट पुरूष.

beauteous —(ब्यूटिअस) adj. beautiful, endowed with beauty. रमणीय, सुन्दर.

bedding —(बेडिंग) n. mattress and bed clothes. चटाई, बिछावन.

bedizen —(बिडाईज़ेन) v. t. to dress guadily. भड़कीला वस्त्र पहनना.

bee —(बी) n. an insect which produces honey and wax. मधुमक्खी.

beer —(बीयर) n. liquor prepared from barley, जौ की मदिरा.

befool —(बिफूल) v. t. to make a fool of. मूर्ख बनाना.

beforehand —(बिफोरहैण्ड) adv. before the time. समय से पहले.

beggar —(बैगर) n. one who begs. भिखारी, भिक्षु.

beginner —(बिगिनर) n. one who begins, a learner. आरम्भक, शुरू करने वाला.

behave —(बिहेव) v. t. to conduct oneself, to act. आचरण करना, व्यवहार करना.

behaviour —(बिहेवियर) n. conduct, manners, way of behaving. व्यवहार, बर्ताव, आचरण.

behind —(बिहाइंड) adv. prep. & n. in the rear, at one's back, further back, पीछे, पीठ की ओर.

behold —(बिहोल्ड) v. t. to see. देखना.

belief —(बिलीफ़) n. faith, confidence. trust, assurance. विश्वास, श्रद्धा, मत.

believable —(बिलीवेबिल) adj. that may be believed. विश्वास करने योग्य.

bell —(बेल) n. a hollow metallic vessel with a sounding tongue. घंटा.

belongings —(बिलौंगिग्स) n. pl. one's goods. किसी मनुष्य की सम्पत्ति.

beloved —(बिलवेड) n. very dear. प्रिय व्यक्ति, प्यारी.

beneath —(बिनीथ) adv. & prep, under, below. नीचे, नीचे की ओर.

beneficial —(बेनिफ़िशल) adj. useful, advantageous, serviceable. लाभदायक, गुणकारी, फायदा करने वाला.

benefit —(बेनिफ़िट) n. advantage, act of favour. सुविधा, उपकार, कृपा; v. t. & i. (p.t. benefited) to do good to. उपकार करना, लाभ उठाना.

benevolence —(बेनिवोलेन्स) n. goodwill, kind disposition. कृपा, दया, परोपकारिता.

benighted —(बिनाइटेड) adj. overtaken by darkness, ignorant. अन्धकार से आच्छादित, अनभिज्ञ.

benign —(बिनाइन) adj. kind, mild, gentle. दयालु, नम्र, सुशील.

benignly —(बिनाइनली) adv. mildly, in a gentle way. नम्रतापूर्वक.

bereavement —(बिरीव्मेण्ट) n. loss by death. विछोह.

beside —(बिसाइड) prep. near, by the side of. निकट, समीप.

besides —(बिसाइड्स) adv. prep. in addition to, otherwise. अधिक, और भी, सिवाय.

best —(बेस्ट) adj. & adv. (sup. of good or well) of the most excellent kind. उत्तम, श्रेष्ठ, सबसे अच्छा; to make the best of. अच्छा उपयोग करना; to do for the best. अच्छे अभिप्राय से करना.

bethink —(बिथिंक) v. t. (p.t. bethought) to call to mind. विचारना, सोचना.

betimes —(बिटाइम्स) adv. early, soon. शीघ्र, यथासमय.

betray —(बिट्रे) v. t. to disclose, to deliver by treachery. भेद खोलना, विश्वासघात़ करना, भंडा फोड़ना.

betrayal —(बिट्रेयल) n. breach of faith. विश्वासघात.

better —(बेटर) adj. adv. & n. (comp. of good or well) superior value, in a higher degree, improved. श्रेष्ठ उच्चतर, उन्नति; v. t. to improve. सुधारना; better half (one's wife) पत्नी.

between —(बिट्वीन) prep. & adv. in the middle of, along, across. मध्य में, अन्तर में.

bewail —(बिवेल) v. t. to lament. विलाप करना, शोक करना.

beware —(बीवेयर) v. t. to take heed, to be on one's guard. सावधान

होना, सचेत होना.

bias —(बाइस) n. prejudice, partiality. पक्षपात, तरफदारी.

big —(बिग) adj. haughty. घमंडी, अभिमानी.

bigamist —(बिगमिस्ट) n. having two husbands or wives at a time. दो पति वाली स्त्री, दो पत्नी वाला पुरूष.

billion —(बिलियन) n. a million millions. दस खरब की संख्या.

binding —(बाइंडिंग) n. & adj. the cover of a book, a bandage, obligatory. बन्धन, जिल्द, आवश्यक.

biograph —(बायोग्राफ) n. a moving picture machine, bioscope. चलचित्र, बाइस्कोप.

biographical —(बायोग्राफिकल) adj. pertaining to biography. जीवनी लेख सम्बन्धी.

biology —(बायोलॉजी) n. science of life. जीव विज्ञान, प्राणी विज्ञान; biologist (-जिस्ट) n. जीव-विज्ञान में निपुण.

birth —(बर्थ) n. origin, begining. जन्म, उत्पत्ति, आरम्भ.

birthright —(बर्थराइट) n. a right acquired by birth. जन्मसिद्ध अधिकार.

biscuit —(बिस्किट) n. a hard dry bread in small cakes. बिस्कुट.

bisect —(बाइसेक्ट) v. t. to divide into two parts. दो भाग करना.

bishop —(बिशप) n. a consecrated clergyman. बड़ा पादरी.

bit —(बिट) n. a small piece, a small coin, horse's curb. छोटा खंड, टुकड़ा, छोटा सिक्का, लगाम; a bit rather. थोड़ा सा.

bitch —(बिच) n. female of a dog or wolf. कुतिया.

bitter —(बिटर) adj. tasting hot and acrid, causing grief, painful, severe. कड़वा, तीता, कष्टदायक; to weep bitterly. फूट-फूट कर रोना.

blackmail —(ब्लैकमेल) n. to extort money by threats. जबरदस्ती पैसा लेना.

blamable —(बलेमेब्ल) adj. fit to be blamed. निन्दनीय.

blame —(ब्लेब) v. t. to find fault with. दोष लगाना; n. censure. दोष, अपराध.

blank —(ब्लैंक) adj. not written, empty, without rhymes. सादा, खाली, छूंछा, अनुप्रास रहित; n. an empty space. रिक्त स्थान.

blanket —(ब्लैंकेट) n. a soft woollen covering. कम्बल.

blaze —(ब्लेज़) n. a bright flame, fire of active display. प्रभा, चमक, दिखावा; v. i. to throw out flame. ज्वाला फेंकना.

bleed —(ब्लीड) v. t. & i. to emit blood, to draw blood. रूधिर निकालना.

blemish —(ब्लेमिश) n. a stain, a defect. धब्बा, कलंक, दोष; v. t. to spoil the beauty of. मलिन करना.

blessing —(ब्लेसिंग) n. an invocation of happiness or success. आशीर्वाद.

blockade —(ब्लॉकेड) n. & v. t. a blocking up. रोक, घेरना.

bloodshed —(ब्लेडशेड) n. slaughter. हत्याकांड.

blood-thirsty —(ब्लडथर्स्टी) adj. eager for slaughter. हत्यारा.

bloom —(ब्लूम) n. a blossom, freshness, perfection. फूल, विकास, पूर्णता.

blotting paper —(ब्लॉटिंग पेपर) n. a paper used for drying ink. स्याही सोख्ता.

blouse —(ब्लाउज़) n. an woman's upper garment. स्त्रियों की चोली.

blunder —(ब्लण्डर) n. a gross mistake. बड़ी भूल.

bluntly —(ब्लंटली) adv. roughly. गंवारपन से.

boast —(बोस्ट) v. i. to talk proudly. श्लाघा करना, गर्व करना.

boat —(बोट) n. a small open vessel for transport by water. नाव.

boating —(बोटिंग) n. act of making a boat sail. नाव चलाने की क्रिया.

bodice —(बॉडिस) n close fitting jacket worn by a woman. बॉडी, अंगिया, चोली.

bold —(बोल्ड) adj. courageous, brave, daring, steep. साहसी, वीर, हिम्मती, गहरा.

bombastic —(बॉम्बैस्टिक) adj. extravagant. असार, निरर्थक शब्दों से पूर्ण.

bone —(बोन) n. a white hard substance which constitutes the skeleton of a body. हड्डी.

bonus —(बोनस) n. an extra payment. बढ़ोतरी.

bookworm —(बुकवर्म) n. one who is much devoted to books. सर्वदा पुस्तक पढ़ने वाला, किताबी कीड़ा.

boot —(बूट) n. a covering for human foot, profit, advantage. जूता, लाभ.

borne —(बोर्न) (p. p. of bear) v. t to carry. ले जाना.

borrow —(बॉरो) v. t. to get loan. ऋण लेना, उधार लेना.

borrower —(बॉरोअर) n. one who takes loan. कर्ज़ लेने वाला, ऋणी.

bosom —(बूज़म) adj. dear, intimate. प्रिय, विश्वासी; n. the heart. हृदय, छाती.

botany —(बॉटेनी) n. the science of human life. वनस्पति विज्ञान.

both —(बोथ) pron. & adv. the two, equally. दोनों, बराबर से.

bother —(बॉदर) v. t. & i. to worry, to tease. तंग करना, खिजलाना.

bottom —(बॉटम) n. the lowest part, the base, keel of a ship, foundation. तल, अधो भाग, आधार, जहाज़ की पेंदी.

bough —(बाओ) n. branch of a tree. पेड़ की डाली, पेड़ की शाखा.

bounce —(बाउन्स) v. t. to jump, to boast. उछलना, अपनी बड़ाई करना.

bow —(बाओ) v. t. to bend, to curve. झुकना, घुमाना.

boy —(ब्वाय) n. a male child, a lad. बालक, कुमार, लड़का.

boycott —(बॉयकॉट) v. t. to refuse to have dealing with. बहिष्कार करना.

boyhood —(ब्वायहुड) adj. state of being a boy. बालकपन.

brain —(ब्रेन) n. nervous matter enclosed in the skull. मस्तिष्क.

brake —(ब्रेक) n. apparatus for checking motion. ब्रेक, गति रोकने वाला यंत्र.

branch —(ब्रांच) n. bough of tree, divisions of subjects, section, line of descent. शाखा, डाली, भाग, अंग, सन्तान.

brand —(ब्रैंड) n. mark made by a hot iron, a trade mark. छाप, व्यापार चिन्ह.

bravery —(ब्रेवरी) n. brave conduct. वीरता, साहस.

bravo —(ब्रेवो) (pl. bravoes) n. a bandit. डकैत; interj. well done. शाबाश.

bread —(ब्रेड) n. baked food, livelihood. आहार, जीविका.

breadth —(ब्रेड्थ) n. broadness, width. विस्तार, चौड़ाई.

breakable —(ब्रेकबल) adj. able to be broken. टूटने योग्य.

breakage —(ब्रेकेज) n. act of breaking. तोड़ने का कार्य.

breakfast —(ब्रेकफ़ास्ट.) v. t. to take breakfast. नाश्ता करना, सुबह का खाना

खाना, कलेवा करना.

breast —(ब्रेस्ट) n. front part of the chest. वक्षस्थल.

breath —(ब्रेथ) n. air inhaled and exhaled. श्वास, सांस.

breathe —(ब्रीद) v. i. to take breath. सांस लेना.

breezy —(ब्रीज़ी) adj. full of breeze. वायुमय, हवादार.

brevity —(ब्रेविटी) n. shortness. संक्षेप, छोटापन.

bribe —(ब्राइब) n. an illegal reward given to someone. घूस, उत्कोच; v. t. to give bribe to . घूस देना.

bribery —(ब्राइबरी) n. act of giving or receiving bribes. घूस देने या लेने का कार्य.

brick —(ब्रिक) n. moulded burnt clay used for building. ईट.

bride —(ब्राइड) n. a woman just married or going to be married. नववधू, दुलहिन.

bridegroom —(ब्राइडग्रूम) n. husband of a bride. दूल्हा, वर.

brilliant —(ब्रिलिएण्ट) adj. bright, splendid, clever. चमकीला, देदीप्यमान, बुद्धिमान; n. a gem of finest quality. पानीदार रत्न.

bring —(ब्रिंग) v. t. (p. t. & p. p brought) to carry, to produce. लाना, प्रस्तुत करना.

brink —(ब्रिंक) n. edge, bank, margin. तट, किनारा, छोर.

Britain —(ब्रिटेन) n. England, Wales and Scotland. इंगलैण्ड, ग्रेट ब्रिटेन से सम्बद्ध.

British —(ब्रिटिश) adj. pertaining to Britain. अंग्रेज़ी.

bronchitis —(ब्रॉन्काइटिस) n. inflammation of the branches of the windpipe. फेफड़े की सूजन.

bronze —(ब्रॉन्ज़) n. alloy of copper and zinc. कांसा.

brother —(ब्रदर) n. sons of the same parents. सहोदर, भाई.

brotherhood —(ब्रदरहुड) n. companionship. बंधुत्व.

brush —(ब्रश) n. tool of hair used in painting. बालों का बना हुआ ब्रुश.

brush —(ब्रश) v. t. to clean. साफ करना.

brutality —(बुटैलिटी) n. cruelty, rudeness. निर्दयता, असभ्यता.

brute —(ब्रूट) n. a beast, an unfeeling person. पशु, कठोर मनुष्य.

build —(बिल्ड) v. t. to construct, to form. बनाना, निर्माण करना.

bulk —(बल्क) n. size, magnitude, the main body. प्रमाण मात्रा, विस्तार.

bull —(बुल) n. a male ox. सांड.

bullet —(बुलेट) n. a metal ball for gun or pistol. बन्दूक से चलाने की गोली.

bulletin —(बुलेटिन) n. a short official statements. सरकारी समाचार पत्र (गज़ट).

bum —(बम) n. good for nothing. निरथर्क, व्यर्थ.

bump —(बम्प) n. a heavy blow a swelling. धमाका, सूजन.

bureau —(ब्यूरो) n. a writingdesk with drawers, office for public business. मेज़, कार्यालय, महकमा, केन्द्र.

burly —(बर्ली) adj. sturdy, bulky. स्थूल, मोटा.

burn —(बर्न) v.t. & i. (p. t. burnt, burned) to consume by fire, to be on fire. जलाना, जलना; n. injury by fire. अग्नि से जलना.

bushy —(बुशी) adj. full of bushes. झाड़ीदार.

busy —(बिज़ी) adj. fully occupied, diligent. कार्य में लीन, उद्योगी.

butter —(बटर) n. fatty substance made from cream. मक्खन.

buttermilk —(बटरमिल्क) n. liquid left after making butter. मट्ठा, छाछ.

by —(बाइ) prep. near, in the company, through, of. पास, साथ मे, से; by the bye (incidentally) संयोग से.

bygone —(बाइगॉन) adj. past. गुज़रा हुआ, बीता हुआ.

byproduct —(बाईप्रोडक्ट) n. anything of less value produced during the manufacture of another. अप्रधान रचना.

byword —(बाईवर्ड) n. a familiar saying, proverb. कहावत.

C

cablegram —(केबलग्रैम) n. a telegram sent by underwater cable. समुद्री तार.

cadet —(कैडेट) n. student of military school. सैन्य शिक्षा का विद्यार्थी.

cafe —(कैफ़े) n. restaurant. रेस्टोरेण्ट, खाना खाने तथा चाय पीने का स्थान.

cage —(केज) n. an enclosure for birds. पिंजड़ा, कटघरा; v. t. to shut in a cage. पिंजड़े में बन्द करना.

cake —(केक) v. t. to make a cake. केक बनाना.

calamity —(कैलेमिटी) n. misfortune, disaster. आपत्ति, संकट.

calibre —(कैलिबर) n. diameter, capacity. व्यास, महत्त्व.

calligraphy —(कैलीग्राफी) n. good handwriting. सुन्दर लेख.

callous —(कैलस) adj. hardhearted. कठोर हृदय.

calmly —(कामली) adv. in a peaceful way. शांतिपूर्वक.

calmness —(कामनेस) n. the state of being calm. शांति, स्थिरता.

calorie —(कैलोरी) n. unit of body heat. शरीर के तापमान की इकाई.

calumination —(कैल्मनिएशन) n. false charge. कलंक, निन्दा.

calumny —(कैल्मनी) n. false accusation, slander. निन्दा, कलंक.

campaign —(कैम्पेन) n. series of military operations, organized course of action. युद्धक्रम, नियमित कार्यक्रम.

cancel —(कैन्सेल) v. t. to cut out, to abolish, to annul. काटना, तोड़ना, मिटाना.

cancellation —(कैन्सेलेशन) n. act of cancelling. काटने या मिटाने की क्रिया.

candidature —(कैण्डिडेचर) n. one standing for election. निर्वाचन प्रार्थी.

cannon —(कैनन) n. a big gun. तोप; v. t. to fire with gun. तोप से उड़ाना.

canon —(कैनन) n. a law or church decree. धार्मिक नियम, गिरजाघर की व्यवस्था.

can't —(काण्ट) v. t. short form of ‘can not’. ‘कैन नाट’ का छोटा रूप.

canto —(कैण्टो) n. division of a poem. सर्ग, अध्याय, स्कन्ध.

cantonment —(केण्टूनमेण्ट) n. quarters for troops. छावनी.

capability —(कैपेबिलिटी) n. capacity. योग्यता, शक्ति.

capacity —(कैपेसिटी) n. power of grasping, ability. विस्तार, शक्ति, योग्यता.

capitalist —(कैपिटलिस्ट) n. one who has money. साहूकार, महाजन.

caprice —(केप्रिस) n. a change without reason, whim, fancy. अस्थिरता, इच्छा, मौज, सनक.

capture —(कैप्चर) n. arrest. ग्रहण, पकड़; v. t. to take prisoner. पकड़ना, बन्दी करना.

caretaker —(केयरटेकर) n. a person left in charge. जिसको देखरेख सौंपी

गई हो.

cartage —(कार्टेज) v. charges. भाड़ा.

carve —(कार्व) v. t. to cut, to engrave, to sculpture. काटना, खोदना.

carving —(कार्विंग) n. act or art of sculpture. पत्थर पर खुदाई करने की विद्या/कला.

cash —(कैश) n. money. currency. नकदी, रोकड़.

caste —(कास्ट) n. a class of society, social position. वर्ण, जाति, कुल.

casualty —(कैज़्युअल्टी) n. an accident. आकस्मिक घटना; pl . list of men killed or wounded. युद्ध में मरे या घायल सैनिकों की संख्या.

catalogue —(कैटेलॉग) n. a list of books. पुस्तकों का सूची-पत्र, विषयसूची.

catch —(कैच) v. t. & i. to seize, to grasp, to understand, to take captive, to reach in time. पकड़ना, बांधना, समझना, बन्दी करना, समय पर पहुंचना.

categorical —(कैटेगॉरिकल) adj. of category. वर्ग या श्रेणी का.

category —(कैटेगरी) n. class or rank, general heading. श्रेणी, पद, समान वर्ग.

cater —(केटर) v. t. to provide food or entertainment. भोजनादि का प्रबन्ध करना.

causeway —(कॉज़वे) n. raised footpath. पैदल चलने की ऊंची सड़क.

caution —(कॉशन) n. foresight, warning. सावधानी, बुद्धिमानी, चौकसी.

ceaseless —(सीज़लेस) adj. continual. नित्य, निरन्तर.

ceiling —(सीलिंग) n. the top surface of a room. कमरे के ऊपर की छत.

celebration —(सेलीब्रेशन) n. act of celebrating. प्रशंसा, अनुष्ठान.

celebrity —(सेलीब्रिटी) n. fame. यश, प्रसिद्धि.

celestial —(सेलेस्शल) adj. heavenly. दैवीय, स्वर्गीय.

cellar —(सेलर) n. an underground cell or room. भूमिगृह.

cement —(सीमेण्ट) n. a substance for sticking bond of union. चिपकाने का पदार्थ, जोड़ने का साधन.

censure —(सेन्शर) n. blame, reproof. दोष, निन्दा; v. t. to blame. दोष लगाना, निन्दा करना.

census —(सेन्सस) n. an official numbering of people. जनगणना.

centigrade —(सेण्टीग्रेड) adj. having a hundred degrees. सौ अंश का.

central —(सेण्ट्रल) adj. relating to the centre, principal. केन्द्र से सम्बन्धित, मुख्य.

centralize —(सेण्ट्रलाइज़) v. t. to concentrate. एक केन्द्र में स्थित करना.

centre —(सेण्टर) n. the middle point of anything, pivot, source. केन्द्र, मध्य भाग, धुरा, उद्गम.

century —(सेंचुरी) n. of hundred years, a hundred of something. सौ वर्ष, सौ.

cereal —(सिरियल) adj. relating to corn. अन्नसम्बन्धी; n. corn used as food. भोजन में प्रयोग करने का अन्न.

ceremonial —(सेरीमोनियल) adj. & n. with ceremony, a formality. विधिपूर्वक, शिष्टाचार.

ceremony —(सेरेमनी) n. reltgious rite. धार्मिक उत्सव.

certain —(सर्टेन) adj. settled, fixed, one or some. निश्चित, आवश्यक, कोई.

certainly —(सर्टेनली) adv. no. doubt बेशक, नि:सन्देह.

certainty —(सर्टेन्टी) n. settled fact. निर्णय, निश्चय.

certificate —(सर्टीफ़िकेट) n. a written declaration. प्रमाणपत्र.

certify —(सर्टीफ़ाई) v. t. to attest formally, to inform. प्रमाणित करना, सूचना देना.

challenge —(चैलेन्ज) v. t. to call to contest, to object to. ललकारना, निषेध करना; n. demand for something. ललकार.

chancellor —(चांसलर) n. state or law official, head of a university. प्रधान धर्माधिकारी, विश्वविद्यालय का प्रधान अध्यक्ष.

change —(चेन्ज) v. t. to alter, to exchange. बदलना, पलटना, त्यागना; n. small coin given for a larger one, alteration. रेज़गारी, परिवर्तन.

changeable —(चेन्जेजबल) adj. given to change. परिवर्तनशील.

chaos —(केऑस) n. confused state, disorder. विपल्व, उपद्रव.

character —(कैरेक्टर) n. actor's part, person in novel and drama. चरित्र, उपन्यास और ड्रामे के पात्र.

chargeable —(चार्जेबल) adj. liable to be charged. आरोपण करने योग्य, वसूलने योग्य.

charitable —(चैरिटेब्ल) adj. generous. दयालु, कृपालु.

charity —(चैरिटी) n. act of kindness, leniency, alms. दयालुता, कृपा,

उदारता, भिक्षा.

chaste —(चेस्ट) adj. pure, virtuous, refined, simple. शुद्ध, धार्मिक, पवित्रता, स्वच्छ.

chasten —(चेसेन) v. t. to refine. शुद्ध करना.

chastity —(चेस्टिटी) n. chasteness, purity of conduct. सतीत्व, शुद्धता.

chatter —(चैटर) v. t. to talkidly, to make a noise. बकवाद करना, कोलाहल करना; n. बकवाद.

cheap —(चीप) adj. low in price, worthless. स़स्ता, घटिया.

cheat —(चीट) v. t. to deceive. धोखा देना, छलना; n. deceiver. धूर्त, ठग.

check —(चेक) v. t. to stop, to restrain, to chide. रोकना, झिड़की देना; n. a sudden arrest, cross-lined pattern. संयम, अवरोध, रूकावट, चारखाना.

cheer —(चीयर) v. t. to make joyful applaud, to comfort. प्रसन्न करना, सांत्वना देना.

cheerful —(चीयरफुल) adj. in good spirits. प्रफुल्ल, प्रसन्न.

cheerfulness —(चीयरफुलनेस) n. happiness. प्रसन्नता.

cheese —(चीज़) n. curd of milk pressed and dried. पनीर.

chemistry —(केमिस्ट्री) n. the science of elements and their laws. रसायन शास्त्र.

cheque —(चैक) n. an order for money. हुंडी, चैक.

chew —(चिउ) v. t. & i. to grind with teeth. दांतों में चबाना.

chicken —(चिकेन) n. the young of a domestic fowl. मुर्गी का बच्चा.

chiefly —(चीफ़ली) adj. principally. प्रधान रूप से.

childhood —(चाइल्डहुड) n. the period of being a child. बाल्यावस्था.

childish —(चाइल्डिश) adj. like a child. शिशु के समान.

childlike —(चाइल्ड लाइक) adj. simple, good. सरल स्वभाव.

chill —(चिल) n. coldness. ठंडा.

chilly —(चिली) adj. cold. ठंडा.

chin —(चिन) n. front part of lower jaw. चिबुक, ठुड्डी.

chirp —(चर्प) v. t. to make sharp notes like a bird. कूजना; n. पक्षी की चहचहाहट.

chit-chat —(चिट-चैट) n. gossip. बातचीत, गपशप.

chloroform —(क्लोरोफॉर्म) n. a medicine for producing insensibility. संज्ञाहीन करने की एक औषधि.

chorus —(कोरस) n. band of singers. गाने वालों का समूह.

chorus —(कोरस) v. t. to sing together. साथ-साथ गाना, मिलकर गाना.

christ —(क्राइस्ट) n. the Messiah. ईसा मसीह.

christianity —(क्रिस्चियैनिटी) n. Christian religion. ईसाई धर्म.

chronic —(क्रोनिक) adj. lasting for a long time, lingering deep-seated. दीर्घ-स्थायी, पुराना, चिरकालीन.

chronicle —(क्रॉनिकल) n. a narrative, an account. इतिहास, वृत्तान्त.

circle —(सर्किल) n. a round figure, a ring, persons of a certain class. वृत्त, गोल, मण्डली.

circular —(सर्क्युलर) n. a business letter, a communication sent to many people. व्यवसायी पत्र, विज्ञापन.

circumstance —(सरकमस्टेन्स) n. event. घटना.

circumstances —(सरकमस्टेन्सेज़) n. plural. condition in life. स्थिति, दशा, हालत.

civilisation —(सिविलाइज़ेशन) n. state of being civilized. सभ्यता, आचार, शिष्टता.

clap —(क्लैप) n. pat. थपथपाहट; v. t. to applaud by striking the palm of hands together. ताली बजाना.

clarify —(क्लैरिफ़ाई) v. t. &. i. to make clear, purify. स्पष्टीकरण करना, स्वच्छ करना.

clarification —(क्लैरीफ़िकेशन) n. act of making clear. स्पष्टीकरण.

clash —(क्लैश) v. t. to make a clash, to disagree, to interfere. टकराने का शब्द करना, विरोध करना, विघ्न डालना.

class —(क्लास) n. division, rank, order, set of students taught together. वर्ग, श्रेणी, जाति, स्कूल की कक्षा.

classic —(क्लासिक) n. study of ancient languages. प्राचीन भाषाओं की शिक्षा.

classical —(क्लासिकल) adj. pertaining to ancient literature. प्राचीन साहित्य से सम्बन्धित.

classification —(क्लैसीफ़िकेशन) n. arrangement. वर्गीकरण.

cleanliness —(क्लीन्लीनेस) n. purity. स्वच्छता.

cleanse —(क्लीन्स) v. t. to make clean. पवित्र या स्वच्छ करना.

clearance —(क्लियरैन्स) n. removal of obstacles. निर्वारण.

clerical —(क्लैयरिकल) adj. pertaining to clergy or a clerk. पादरी या लिपिक सम्बन्धी.

clerk —(क्लर्क) n. a writer in an office. दफ़्तर का लेखक.

clever —(क्लेवर) adj. skilful, ingenious. चतुर, बुद्धिमान.

client —(क्लाएण्ट) n. one who employs a lawyer, customer. मुवक्किल, असामी, ग्राहक.

climax —(क्लाइमैक्स) n. the highest point, the greatest degree. शिखर, उत्कर्ष, वृद्धि.

climb —(क्लाइम) v. t. to ascend. चढ़ना.

clinical —(क्लिनिकल) adj. pertaining to the sick-bed. शय्याग्रस्त रोगी सम्बन्धी.

cloak —(क्लोक) n. a loose upper garment, that which conceals, a pretext. लबादा, ढापना, बहाना.

clock —(क्लॉक) n. a time-indicating instrument. बड़ी घड़ी.

closure —(क्लोज़र) n. closing, closing of debate. समाप्ति, वाद विवाद को बन्द करना.

cloth —(क्लॉथ) n. (pl. clothes) fabric made from wearing. कपड़ा.

clothe —(क्लोद) v. t. , p. t. or (p. p. clothed or clad) to dress, to cover. वस्त्र पहनना, ढांपना.

clothing —(क्लोदिंग) n. clothes. वस्त्र.

coalition —(कोलिशन) n. temporary combination between parties. भिन्न समाजों का अस्थायी मिलाप.

coarse —(कोर्स) adj. rough, rude, vulgar. रूक्ष, असभ्य, भद्दा.

cobbler —(कॉब्लर) n. a mender of shoes. जूते की मरम्मत करने वाला, मोची.

cock —(कॉक) n. male bird, male fowl, part of the lock of a rifle, a tap. नर चिड़िया, बन्दूक का घोड़ा, टोंटी.

cocktail —(कॉकटेल) n. a kind of horse, a mixed drink. एक प्रकार का घोड़ा, मिश्रित मदिरा.

coconut —(कोकोनट) n. the coco palm. नारियल का वृक्ष.

code —(कोड) n. a system of laws, rules or signals. नियम संग्रह, संकेत संग्रह.

co-education —(को-एजूकेशन) n. system of education where girls and boys study together. सहशिक्षा.

coerce —(कोअर्स) v. t. to compel, to restrain. रोकना, बाधित करना.

coin —(कॉयन) n. piece of money. मुद्रा, सिक्का; v. t. to make metal into coin, to inyeat. सिक्का बनाना, आविष्कार करना.

cold —(कोल्ड) adj. wanting in heat, spiritless, reserved. ठण्डा, निस्तेज़, गम्भीर, जुकाम.

collaborate —(कोलैबोरेट) v. t. to work together. मिलकर काम करना.

collaboration —(कलैबुरेशन) n. state of working together. दूसरे के साथ कार्य करने की अवस्था.

collapsible —(कुलाप्सैबिल) adj. fit for collapsing. तह हो जाने वाली.

collapsable —(कुलास्पेबिल) adj. same as collapsible.

collision —(कुलीज़न) n. state of being collided. टक्कर.

colloquial —(कोलोक्िअल) adj. conversational. बोलचाल का.

colon —(कोलन) n. the punctuation mark, part of large intestine. (:) विसर्ग चिन्ह, आंतों का विशिष्ट, भाग.

colour —(कलर) n. hue, tint, appearance, pretence. रंग, आकृति, बहाना; (pl.) paints, a flag. रंग, पताका; v. t. to give colour to. रंग देना.

comb —(कोम) n. an instrument with teeth for dressing hair, wool etc., crest of a cock. कंघी, मुर्गी की चोटी; v. t. to dress, to separate. कंघी करना, अलग करना.

comfortable —(कम्फर्टेबल) adj. promoting comfort. आनन्ददायक, सुखकर.

comic —(कॉमिक) adj. humorous. funny. हंसी लाने वाला, हास्यास्पद.

comma —(कॉमा) n. punctuation mark (,) अंग्रेज़ी का छोटा विराम; inverted commas ऐसे दोहरे चिन्ह (“ ”) जो किसी उक्ति के आगे और पीछे लगाये जाते हैं.

commanding —(कमाण्डिंग) adj. impressive. प्रभावशाली.

commandment —(कमाण्डमेण्ट) n. mandate, order. आज्ञा.

commence —(कमेन्स) v. t. to begin, to originate. आरम्भ करना.

commencement —(कमेन्समेण्ट) n. a beginning. आरम्भ.

comment —(कमेण्ट) v. t. to write explanatory notes on. टीका करना, व्याख्या करना; n. a collection of notes. टीका, व्याख्या.

commentator —(कमेण्टेटर) n. the writer of a commentary. विवरण प्रसारक.

commercial —(कमर्शियल) adj. pertaining to a trade. व्यवसाय सम्बन्धी.

commit —(कमिट) v. t. to entrust, to send, to be guilty. सौंपना, भेजना, अपराधी होना.

commitment —(कमिटमेण्ट) n. pledge. वचन, वायदा.

commodity —(कमॉडिटी) n. articles of trade, useful things. पदार्थ, सामग्री.

commoner —(कॉमनर) n. one of the people. सामान्य, मनुष्य.

communicate —(कम्यूनिकेट) v. t. to give information, to join. प्रकाशित करना, मिलाना.

communication —(कम्यूनिकेशन) n. act of giving information, information, message, correspondence. खबर देने का कार्य, सूचना, संदेश, पत्र व्यवहार.

communism —(कम्यूनिज़्म) n. vesting of property in common. सब सम्पत्ति को सर्वाधिकार में करने का सिद्धान्त, साम्यवाद.

companion —(कम्पैनियन) n. an associate, a mate. साथी, संगी.

comparable —(कम्पेयरेबल) adj. able to be compared. तुलना करने योग्य.

compare —(कम्पैयर) v. t. to find out points of likeness. तुलना करना.

comparison —(कम्पैरीसन) n. act of comparing. तुलना.

compassion —(कम्पैशन) n. pity, sympathy. दया, कृपा.

compensation —(कम्पेन्सेशन) n. recompense. प्रतिफल, क्षतिपूर्ति.

compete —(कम्पीट) v. t. to strive with others, to contend. स्पर्धा करना, बराबरी करना.

competent —(कम्पीटेण्ट) adj. of sufficient ability, suitable. योग्य, निपुण.

competition —(कॉम्पिटीशन) n. rivalry. स्पर्धा, बराबरी.

compile —(कम्पाइल) v. t. to collect matter from various authors. संकलित करना, संग्रह करना.

complain —(कम्प्लेन) v. t. to express displeasure, to find fault with. असन्तोष प्रकट करना, दोष निकालना.

complainant —(कम्लेनेण्ट) n. one who makes a charge against another. दोषी ठहराने वाला.

complaint —(कम्प्लेण्ट) n. accusation, ailment. अभियोग, रोग.

complement —(कॉम्प्लीमेण्ट) n. anything that completes. पूरक.

complementary —(कॉम्प्लीमेण्ट्री) adj. supplying a deficiency. कमी पूरी करने वाला.

complete —(कम्प्लीट) v. t. to finish, to perfect. समाप्त करना, पूर्ण करना.

completion —(कम्पलीशन) n. accomplishment. परिणाम, सिद्धि.

complex —(कॉम्प्लेक्स) adj. not simple, intricate. मिश्रित, पेचीदा.

complicacy —(कॉम्पलीकेसी) n. state of being complicated. उलझन.

complication —(कॉमप्लीकेशन) n. complicated situation. उलझन.

compliment —(कॉमप्लीमेण्ट) n. a polite praise or respect. अभिनन्दन, नमस्कार; v. t. to praise. प्रशंसा करना.

complimentary —(कॉमप्लीमेण्ट्री) adj. expressive of praise. प्रशंसात्मक.

composition —(कम्पोज़ीशन) n. a construction, literary production. रचना, बनावट, खेल.

comprehension —(कॉम्प्रीहेन्शन) n. understanding. समझ.

comprise —(कम्प्राइज़) v. t. to contain, to include. व्याप्त करना, मिलाना.

compromise —(कॉम्प्रोमाइज़) v. t. to settle by mutual consent. आपस में मिलकर झगड़ा तय करना; n. settlement. समझौता.

compulsion —(कम्पलज़न) n. force, obligation. दबाव, अनुरोध.

compulsory —(कम्पलसरी) adj. having no option. अनिवार्य.

compute —(कम्प्यूट) v. t. to reckon, to value. गणना करना, लेखा करना.

comrade —(कॉमरेड) n. a companion. मित्र, संगी, साथी.

conceal —(कंसील) v. t. to hide, to shelter. छिपाना; शरण देना.

conceivable —(कंसीवेबल) adj. able to be conceived. विचारने योग्य.

conception —(कंसेप्शन) n. thought, notion. विचार, कल्पना.

concentration —(कॉन्सेण्ट्रेशन) n. act of concentrating. एकाग्रता.

conception —(कनसेप्शन) n. concept, idea. विचार.

concern —(कन्सर्न) v. t. to relate to, to belong to, to have to do with. सम्बन्ध रखना, उद्देश्य होना; n. business or affair, anxiety. व्यवसाय,

व्याकुलता.

concise —(कन्साइज़) adj. short. अल्प, संक्षिप्त.

conclude —(कनक्लूड) v. t. to finish, to infer. समाप्त करना.

concord —(कॉनकॉर्ड) n. harmony, agreement. मेल, एकता.

condemn —(कण्डेम) v. t. to pronounce guilty, to censure. दण्ड देना, अपराधी ठहराना.

condemnation —(कण्डेम्नेशन) n. the act of condemning. अपराध का दण्ड.

condense —(कण्डेंस) v. t. to reduce in volume, to compress, to abbreviate. घना करना, गाढ़ा करना.

condensation —(कण्डेन्सेशन) n. act of making dense. गाढ़ा करने की क्रिया.

condition —(कण्डीशन) n. state, circumstance. दशा, अवस्था, स्थिति.

conditional —(कण्डीशनल) adj. depending on conditions. स्थिति पर निर्भर, दशा के साथ.

condole —(कण्डोल) v. t. to grieve, to sympathise. विलाप करना, सहानुभूति प्रकट करना.

condolence —(कण्डोलेन्स) n. grief expressed on other's loss. दूसरों के दु:ख पर प्रदर्शित की हुई सहानुभूति.

conduce —(कण्ड्यूस) v. t. to lead, to contribute. प्रवृत्त करना, बढ़ाना.

conducive —(कण्ड्यूसिव) adj. tending. प्रेरक.

conduct —(कण्डक्ट) v. t. to lead or guide, to direct, to manage, to behave, to carry. मार्ग दिखाना, प्रबन्ध करना, व्यवहार करना, ले जाना.

confectioner —(कन्फेक्शनर) n. a maker or seller of sweetmeats. हलवाई.

confess —(कन्फेस) v. t. & i. to acknowledge, to disclose. स्वीकार करना, प्रकाशित करना.

confession —(कन्फेशन) n. the acknowledgement of a fault or crime. अपराध या दोष का स्वीकरण.

confide —(कनफ़ाइड) v. t. to trust. विश्वास करना.

confidence —(कॉन्फ़िडेन्स) n. trust. विश्वास.

confident —(कॉन्फ़िडेण्ट) confidential. adj. trusted, private. विश्वस्त,

गुप्त

confirm —(कन्फ़र्म) v. t. to strengthen, to make sure, to ratify. पुष्ट करना, स्थिर करना, प्रमाणित करना.

confirmation —(कन्फ़र्मेशन) n. corroborating statement. प्रमाणीकरण.

conflict —(कॉनफ़्लिक्ट) v. t. to fight. युद्ध, कलह.

conform —(कन्फ़ॉर्म) v. t. to adopt, to make like, to comply with. अनुरूप करना, समान करना, स्वीकार करना.

conformation —(कन्फ़ॉर्मेशन) n. shape, structure. आकृति, बनावट.

confront —(कन्फ्रण्ट) v. t. to face. मुकाबला करना, सामना करना.

confuse —(कन्फ़्यूज़) v. t. to mix together, to perplex. गड़बड़ करना, भ्रम में डालना.

confusion —(कन्फ़्यूज़न) n. disorder. गड़बड़ी.

congratulate —(कांग्रेच्युलेट) v. t. to wish joy. अभिनंदन करना.

congratulation —(कॉन्ग्रेचुलेशन) n. expression of joy at the success. बधाई.

connect —(कनेक्ट) v. t. to join together, to associate. जोड़ना, मिलाना.

conquer —(कॉन्कर) v. t. to gain by force, to subdue. जीतना, अधीन करना.

conqueror —(कॉन्करर) n. one who conquers. विजयी, जीतने वाला.

conscience —(कॉन्शएन्स) n. the sense of right and wrong. अन्त:करण.

conscious —(कॉन्शस) adj. knowing, aware. सचेत, ज्ञानी.

consciousness —(कॉन्शसनेस) n. person's thoughts and feelings. चेतना.

consequence —(कॉन्सीक्वेन्स) n. result, importance. परिणाम, प्रभाव.

consider —(कन्सीडर) v. t . & i. to think. सोचना, विचार करना.

consider —(कन्सीडर) v. t. to contemplate, to reflect upon. विचार करना, मनन करना.

considerable —(कंसीड्रेबल) adj. great, important. मान्य, अधिक.

consist —(कंसिस्ट) v. t. to be composed of. निर्मित, बना होना.

consolation —(कंसोलेशन) n. alleviation of grief. धीरज, ढाढ़स.

consolidate —(कंसोलिडेट) v. t. to solidify together into a mass, to unite. ठोस करना, एक पिण्ड बनाना, जोड़ना.

conspire —(कॉन्स्पयार) v. t. to plot together. षडयंत्र रचना.

conspirancy —(कॉन्स्पीरेसी) n. a plot. षडयन्त्र.

constancy —(कॉन्स्टेंसी) n. firmness. स्थिरता, दृढ़ता.

constant —(कॉन्स्टैण्ट) adj. fixed, unchanging. अचल, स्थिर.

constipation —(कॉन्सस्टीपेशन) n. difficulty in evacuating the bowels. कब्ज़ी.

constituency —(कांस्टिटुएन्सी) n. body of electors in a place. निर्वाचन केन्द्र.

constituency —(कांस्टिटुएन्सी) n. body of electors in a region. निर्वाचन क्षेत्र.

constitution —(कांस्टिट्युशन) n . natural state of mind or body, formation, a system of laws. प्रकृति, शारीरिक अवस्था, रचना, संविधान.

consult —(कंसल्ट) v. t. to seek advice. सम्मति लेना.

consultation —(कंसल्टेशन) n. conference. आलोचना, परामर्श.

consume —(कंज्ूयूम) v. t. to eat up, to destroy. व्यय करना, नष्ट करना.

consumption —(कंज़म्प्शन) n. act of consuming, a wasting disease. खपत, क्षय का रोग.

contain —(कण्टेन) v. t. to hold, to include. सम्मिलित करना.

contempt —(कण्टेम्प्ट) n. scorn, disrespect. तिरस्कार, अनादर.

contending —(कण्टैण्डिंग) n. opposing. विरोधी.

content —(कण्टेण्ट) adj. satisfied. संतुष्ट.

contentment —(कण्टेण्टमेण्ट) n. satisfaction. सन्तोष.

contest —(कॉण्टेस्ट) v. t. to debate, to fight. झगड़ना; n. debate, strife. विवाद, कलह.

continental —(कॉण्टिनेंटल) adj. pertaining to a continent. महाद्वीप सम्बन्धी.

continutal —(कण्टीन्युअल) adj. occurring on every occasion. निरन्तर.

continuation —(कण्टीनुएशन) n. going on in a series or line. निरन्तर भाव.

continue —(कण्टीन्यू) v. t. & i . to remain, to maintain, to extend, to prolong. जारी रखना.

continuous —(कण्टीन्युअस) adj. uninterrupted. सतत, अनवरत.

contra —(कॉण्ट्रा) pref. in sense of “against” “विपरीत” अर्थ का उपसर्ग.

contradict —(कॉण्ट्राडिक्ट) v. t. to oppose. विरोध करना.

contrary —(कॉण्ट्रेरी) adj. opposite, opposing. विपरीत, प्रतिकूल.

contrast —(कॉण्ट्रास्ट) v. i. to set in opposition. भेद दिखलाना; n. opposing. विरोध, अन्तर.

contribution —(कॉण्ट्रीब्यूशन) n. act of contributing, a literary article. भागदान, लेख.

controversy —(कॉण्ट्रोवर्सी) n. a. discussion, a dispute. विवाद, कलह, झगड़ा.

convenience —(कनवीनिएन्स) n. suitableness, comfort. योग्यता, सुविधा.

convenient —(कनवीनिएण्ट) adj. suitable, handy. अनुकूल, उपयुक्त.

conventional —(कन्वेन्शनल) adj. customary. परम्परा के अनुसार, प्रथा के अनुसार.

conversant —(कन्वसेण्ट) adj. well acquainted with. निपुण, अति परिचित, कुशल.

conversation —(कन्वर्सेशन) n. talking. बातचीत, वार्तालाप.

conveyance —(कन्वेएन्स) n. act of carrying, a carriage. ले जाने की क्रिया, गाड़ी.

cooperate —(कोऑपरेट) v. t. to work together. मिलकर काम करना.

cooperation —(कोऑपरशेन) n. the act of cooperating. सहयोग.

cooperative —(कोऑपरेटिव) adj. on the basis of cooperation. सहयोगी.

coordinate —(कोऑर्डिनेट) adj. of the same order or rank. एक पद वाला; v. t. bring together. उचित सम्बन्ध में लाना.

coordination —(कोऑर्डिनेशन) n. act of coordinating. एकीकरण, सहकारिता.

copyright —(कॉपीराइट) n. legal right to print and publish books and articles. छापने का पूर्ण अधिकार.

cordially —(कॉरडियली) adj. warmly हार्दिक रूप से.

cordiality —(कॉरडिऐलिटी) n. state of being cordial. मित्र भाव, मधुरता.

corn —(कॉर्न) n. a grain seed, horny growth on toes. अन्न, धान्य, पैर का गोखरू.

corporal —(कॉरपोरल) n. an officer in an army next to a sergeant. सेना का एक छोटा अधिकारी, नायक; a. pertaining to body. शरीर सम्बन्धी.

corporation —(कॉर्पोरेशन) n. united body of persons. संघ, समाज.

corps —(कॉर) n. a division of an army. सेना का एक भाग, पलटन.

correction —(करेक्शन) n. amendment. सुधार, दण्ड.

correctness —(करेक्टनेश) n. state of being correct.accuracy. शुद्धि.

correlation —(कोरिलेशन) n. mutual relation. पारम्परिक सम्बन्ध.

correspondence —(कॉरेस्पॉण्डेंस) n. agreement, communication by letters. संसर्ग, पत्र.

correspondent —(कॉरेस्पॉण्डेंट) n. one who communicates by letter. संवाददाता.

corruption —(कर्प्शन) n. depravity. भ्रष्टता, खोटापन.

cosmetic —(कॉस्मेटिक) n. , adj. relating to personal adornment. श्रृंगार सम्बन्धी.

cost —(कॉस्ट) n. money, expense paid for things. मूल्य, व्यय, दाम.

costly —(कॉस्टली) adj. expensive. कीमती.

cottage —(कॉटेज) n. a small house. झोपड़ी.

councillor —(काउंसिलर) n. member of council. सभासद.

counteract —(काउण्टरएक्ट) v. t. to oppose, to defeat. विरोध करना, हराना.

counterattack —(काउंटरअटैक) n. attack done after enemy's action. शत्रु के आक्रमण के उत्तर में किया हुआ आक्रमण.

countercharge —(काउंटरचार्ज) n. charge in answer to another. अभियोग के उत्तर में लगाया हुआ अभियोग.

counterfoil —(काउंटरफ़्वायल) n. a corresponding part of a cheque etc. retained by the sender. प्रतिरूप, मुसन्ना.

courage —(करेज) n. bravery. साहस, वीरता.

courageous —(करेजिअस) adj. brave, bold. वीर, बहादुर, साहसी.

courtesy —(कर्टिसी) n. politeness. नम्रता.

cousin —(कज़िन) n. a child of one's uncle or aunt. चचेरा, ममेरा, मौसेरा या फुफेरा भाई या बहन.

coward —(कावर्ड) n. a faint hearted person. कायर, डरपोक मनुष्य.

cowardice —(कावर्डिस) n. timidty. भीरूता.

Craftsman —(क्राफ्ट्समैन) n. an artisan. शिल्पकार.

credible —(क्रेडिबल) adj. believable. विश्वास योग्य.

creditable —(क्रेडिटेब्ल) adj. praiseworthy. प्रशंसनीय.

credulous —(क्रेड्युलस) adj. ready to believe. विश्वास करने को उद्यत.

crimson —(क्रिम्सन) adj. of a deep red colour. गहरे लाल रंग का.

cripple —(क्रिप्ल) n. a lame person. लंगड़ा मनुष्य; v. t. to disable, to weaken. लंगड़ा करना, निर्बल करना.

crisis —(क्राइसिस) n. (pl . crises) a turning point, a decisive moment. संकट, निर्णायक क्षण.

critic —(क्रिटिक) n. one skilled in judging the quality of a thing. गुण-दोष निरूपक, समालोचक.

criticism —(क्रिटिसिज्ंम) n. a critical judgement. समालोचना.

critique —(क्रिटिक) n. a critical estimate. समीक्षा, आलोचनात्मक विचार.

crooked —(क्रुकेड) adj. bent. deformed, dishonourable. ऐंठा, टेढ़ा, कुरूप, अप्रतिष्ठित.

crossing —(क्रॉसिंग) n. an intersection of roads. चौरस्ता, चौराहा.

crystal —(क्रिस्टल) adj. clear as glass. कांच के समान स्वच्छ; n. clear transparent mineral. स्फटिक, बिल्लौर.

culmination —(कल्मिनेशन) n. state of having risen to the highest point. सर्वोच्च स्थिति की प्राप्ति.

culprit —(कलप्रिट) n. an accused person. अपराधी, दोषी मनुष्य.

cultivator —(कल्टीवेटर) n. one who cultivates. किसान, खेतिहर.

curiosity —(क्यूरीऑसिटी) n. state of being curious. आश्चर्य, कौतुक, अचम्भा.

curriculum —(करीक्युलम) (pl. curricula) n. course of study. पाठ्यक्रम.

curse —(कर्स) v. t. to call down evil. शाप देना; n. an utterance of destruction. शाप.

cursory —(कर्सरी) adj. hasty, without much care. सरसरी, जल्दी में.

curtail —(कर्टेल) v. t. to cut short. छोटा करना, संक्षेप करना.

curtain —(कर्टेन) n. a hanging screen. पर्दा, चिक; v. t. to.

curved —(कर्वड) adj. bent. झुकी हुई.

custard —(कस्टर्ड) n. a mixture of milk, eggs etc. पका हुआ अण्डा और दूध का मिश्रण.

cyclone —(साइक्लोन) n. circular storm, whirlwind. चक्करदार आंधी, तूफान.

cyclopaedia —(साइक्लोपीडिया) n. a guide to knowledge arranged alphabetically. विश्वकोष.

cyclostyle —(साइक्लोस्टाइल) n. an apparatus for printing copies from stencil-plate. हाथ की लिखावट छापने का यंत्र, चक्रमुद्रणयंत्र.

cylinder —(सिलिण्डर) n. a roller-shaped hollow or solid vessel. बेलन के आकार का पोला अथवा ठोस पदार्थ, रोलर.

cymbal —(सिम्बल) n. one of a pair of brass plates clashed together for sound. मजीरा.

cypher (**cipher**)—(साइफर) n. nothing. शून्य.

D

dacoit —(डकॉयट) n. one of a gang of robbers. डाकू.

dacoity —(डकॉयटी) n. a dacoit's work. डकैती.

dainty —(डेण्टी) adj. neat. delicious. स्वादिष्ट, ज़ायकेदार, अच्छा.

dais —(डायस) n. raised platform. मंच, चबूतरा.

damage —(डैमेज) n. injury, loss. नाश, हानि; v. t. to injure to defame. हानि करना, क्षति पहुंचाना.

dame —(डेम) n. the lady keeper of a boarding-house, wife of a baronet or knight. होस्टेल प्रबन्धिका, बैरोनेट या नाइट की पत्नी.

damnable —(डैमनेबिल) adj. hateful. घृणास्पद.

dangerous —(डेन्जरस) adj. perilous. भयंकर.

daring —(डेयरिंग) n. boldness. साहस; a. bold, fearless. वीर, निडर.

daughter —(डॉटर) n. a female child. पुत्री, बेटी; n. daughter-in-law (son's wife) पतोहू.

dauntless —(डॉण्टलेस) adj. fearless. निर्भय. accountbook of daily transsactions. प्रतिदिन का हिसाब लिखने का बही.

dazzle —(डैज़ल) v. t. to overpower with, to confound with brilliance. चकित करना, चौंधियाना.

de —(डी) pref. in sense of “down, away” “नीचे, दूर” अर्थ का उपसर्ग.

dealing —(डीलिंग्स) n. pl . a person's conduct or transactions. व्यवहार, लेनदेन.

dear —(डियर) adj. beloved. costly. प्यारा, मंहगा.

dearth —(डर्थ) n. state of scarcity, famine. कमी, अकाल.

debatable —(डिबेटेब्ल) adj. liable to be disputed. विवाद योग्य.

debate —(डिबेट) v. t. to argue, to discuss. बहस करना, झगड़ना; n. discussion. विवाद, तर्क.

debt —(डेट) n. sum owed to a person. ऋण, उधार.

debtor —(डैटर) n. person owing something to another. कर्जदार, देनदार, ऋणी.

decency —(डिसेन्सी)) n. goodness, beauty. अच्छाई, सौन्दर्य.

decent —(डिसेण्ट) adj. proper, respectable. योग्य, सभ्य, शिष्ट.

decision —(डिसिज़न) n. act of deciding, judgement. निर्णय.

declare —(डिक्लेयर) v. t. to assert, to decide in favour of. सूचित करना, घोषित करना.

decorate —(डेकोरेट) v. t. to beautify, to adorn. श्रृंगार करना.

decoration —(डेकोरेशन) n. ornamentation. अलंकार, सजावट.

dedicate —(डेडीकेट) v. t. to set apart for a holy purpose, to give wholly up to, to inscribe. भेंट करना, समर्पण करना.

deer —(डियर) n. animal with branched horns. हरिण मृग.

deface —(डिफ़ेस) v. t. to disfigure. रूप बिगाड़ना.

defacement —(डिफ़ेसमेण्ट) n. act of defacing. रूप का विनाश.

defamation —(डिफ़ेसमेशन) n. act of defaming. बदनामी, निन्दा, मान-हानि.

defame —(डिफ़ेम) v. t. to take accuse falsely. निन्दा करना, आपेक्ष करना.

default —(डिफ़ॉल्ट) n. neglect of duty. चूक, अपराध.

defaulter —(डिफ़ॉल्टर) n. one who fails in payment. ऋण न चुकाने वाला.

defeat —(डिफ़ीट) v. t. to subdue, to overcome. हराना.

defect —(डिफ़ेक्ट) n. want, imperfection. विकार, त्रुटि.

defence —(डिफ़ेंस) n. protection, justification, defendant's plea. रक्षा, बचाव, प्रत्युत्तर.

defend —(डिफेण्ड) v. t. to protect. to resist. रक्षा करना, बचाना.

defensive —(डिफ़ेंसिव) adj. serving to defend. रक्षात्मक.

defer —(डिफ़र) v. t. to put off, to lay, to submit, to yield. देर करना, टालना, मान लेना.

deference —(डिफ़रेंस) n. respectful conduct. विनीत आचरण.

deficiency —(डेफ़ीशिएंसी) n. lack, want. न्यूनता, कमी.

definable —(डिफ़ाइनेब्ल) adj. able to be defined. लक्षण, बतलाने योग्य.

definition —(डेफ़िनीशन) n. an exact statement of meaning. व्याख्या, परिभाषा.

deformity —(डिफ़ॉर्मिटी) n. ugliness. भद्दापन, कुरूपता.

degradation —(डिग्रेडेशन) n. disgrace. मानभंग.

degrade —(डिग्रेड) v. t. to lower in rank, to disgrace. पद नीचा करना, अपमान करना.

degree —(डिग्री) n. rank, proportion, academic proficiency, 360 part of a circle, part of right angle. पद, दशा, परिमाण, उपाधि, अंश.

deity —(डीटी) n. a god or goddess. देवता या देवी.

dejected —(डिजेक्टेड) adj. sad. उदासीन.

delay —(डिले) v. t. & i. to postpone, to hinder. टालना, देर करना; n. lingering. कालक्षेप.

delegate —(डेलीगेट) n. representative, deputy. प्रतिनिधि.

delegation —(डेलीगेशन) n. body of delegates. प्रतिनिधि.

delete —(डिलीट) v. t. to blot out, to erase. हटाना,मिटाना.

deliberation —(डेलीबरेशन) n. careful consideration. समुचित विचार, गौर.

deliberate —(डेलीबरेट) v. t. to reflect, to consider. सोचना, विचार करना.

delicacy —(डेलीकेसी) n. tenderness. state of being delicate. कोमलता, नजाकत.

deliver —(डिलीवर) v. t. to set free, to make an address. मुक्त करना,

त्यागना, व्याख्यान देना.

deliverence —(डेलीवरेंस) n. release. मुक्ति, छुटकारा.

delusion —(डिल्यूज़न) n. deception. भ्रम, भ्रान्ति.

demarcation —(डिमार्केशन) n. boundary, separation. सीमा, मर्यादा.

democracy —(डिमोक्रेसी) n. government by the people. जनसत्तात्मक सरकार.

demonstration —(डिमॉन्सट्रेशन) n. proof. प्रमाण, दिखाव.

demoralize —(डिमॉरलाइज़) v. t. to ruin the morals of, to cause fear. चरित्र भ्रष्ट करना, आतंकित करना.

denial —(डिनायल) n. act of refusing or denying. अस्वीकृति, निषेध.

dense —(डेंस) adj. thick, compact, dull. घना, मूर्ख.

density —(डेंसिटी) n. closeness of a substance, denseness. घनापन, ठोसपन.

dentist —(डेण्टिस्ट) n. a dental surgeon. दांत का वैद्य.

deny —(डिनाई) v. t. to refuse, to contradict. अस्वीकार करना, निषेध करना.

depart —(डिपार्ट) v. t. to go away, to leave. चला जाना, छोड़ना.

departure —(डिपाचर) n. act of departing. प्रस्थान.

dependable —(डिपेण्डेबिल) adj. reliable. निर्भर, विश्वसनीय.

dependant —(डिपेण्डेण्ट) n. a follower. आश्रित.

deponent —(डिपोनेण्ट) n. one who gives sworn testimony. साक्षी.

deposit —(डिपॉज़िट) v. t. to lay down, to entrust. जमा करना, धरोहर रखना.

depression —(डिप्रेशन) n. dejection, a hollow. उदासी, गड्ढा.

deprive —(डिप्राइव) v. t. to take away from, to rob of. हरण करना, छीन लेना.

depth —(डेप्थ) n. deep place, depression. गहराई.

deputation —(डेप्यूटेशन) n. person or persons appointed to act or speak for others. प्रतिनिधि, प्रतिनिधि मण्डल.

derangement —(डिरेंजमेण्ट) n. disturbance, disorder. अव्यवस्था.

descend —(डिसेण्ड) v. t. to come down, to be derived from, to invade. उतरना, वंश में होना, आक्रमण करना.

description —(डिष्क्रिप्शन) n. account in detail, verbal portraiture.

वर्णन, चित्रण.

deserving —(डिज़र्विंग) adj. meritorious. योग्य, प्रवीण.

desirable —(डिज़ायरेब्ल) adj. agreeable. इच्छित, वांछित.

desirous —(डिज़ायरस) adj. wishful. इच्छुक.

desperation —(डेस्पेरेशन) n. hopelessness. निराशा.

destination —(डेस्टीनेशन) n. place to be reached. ठिकाना, मंजिल.

destroy —(डिस्ट्रॉय) v. t. to lay waste to ruin. ध्वंस करना, नाश करना.

destructible —(डिस्ट्रक्टब्ल) adj. destroyable. नाश करने योग्य.

detective —(डिटेक्टिव) n. one employed in detecting criminals. जासूस, गुप्तचर.

deteriorate —(डिटीरियरेट) v. t. to become worse in quality. भ्रष्ट होना.

determination —(डिटर्मिनेशन) n. resolution. निश्चय.

determine —(डिटर्मिन) v. t. & i. to resolve, to fix. to influence. निर्णय करना, स्थिर करना, प्रभाव डालना.

develop —(डिवेलप) v. t. to unfold, to promote the growth of. पुष्ट करना, उन्नत करना.

development —(डिवेलपमेण्ट) n. gradual growth. उन्नति.

devil —(डेविल) n. evil spirit. शैतान.

devoted —(डिवोटेड) adj. ardent, zealous. सेवानिष्ठ, श्रद्धावान.

devotee —(डिवोटी) n. a devoted person. भक्त.

dew —(ड्यू) n. moisture deposited on cool surface. ओस.

diagnosis —(डायग्नोसिस) n. recognition of a disease by its symptoms. लक्षणों द्वारा रोग का निर्णय, निदान.

dialogue —(डायलॉग) n. conversation. बातचीत.

diary —(डायरी) n. a daily record of events. दिनचर्या का लेखा.

dictate —(डिक्टेट) v. t. to ask another to write. दूसरे को लिखाना.

dictation —(डिक्टेशन) n. act of dictating. बोल कर लिखवाना.

dictator —(डिक्टेटर) n. an absolute ruler. अनन्य शासक.

diet —(डाएट) n. a way of feeding, food. आहार, भोजन.

difference —(डिफ़रेंस) n. unlikeness, disagreement. भेद.

different —(डिफ़रेण्ट) adj. unlike. भिन्न.

differentiate —(डिफ़रेंशिएट) v. t. to discriminate. पृथक करना, अलग करना.

difficulty —(डिफ़िकल्टी) n. difficult situation, obstacle. कठिनता, क्लेश.

diffusion —(डिफ़्यूज़न) n. a spreading abroad, distribution. विस्तार, फैलाव, विसरण.

digest —(डाइजेस्ट) v. t. to make absorbable, to arrange, to think over. पचाना, संग्रह करना, विचारना; n. collection of laws, summary. विधि, संग्रह.

dignity —(डिग्निटी) n. honour, impressiveness. मान, प्रतिष्ठा.

dilemma —(डाइलेमा) n. a difficult position. दुविधा.

diligence —(डिलिजेंस) n. earnest effort. उद्योग, अभ्यास.

dilute —(डाइल्यूट) v. t. to make thin by mixing with water. पानी मिला कर पतला करना.

dimension —(डाइमेन्शन) n. size, extent. परिमाण, मात्रा.

dine —(डाइन) v. t. to take food. भोजन करना.

dining-room —(डाइनिंगरूम) n. a room used for meals. भोजनालय.

dinner —(डिनर) n. the chief meal of the day. a public feast. दिन का प्रधान भोजन.

diplomat —(डिप्लोमैट) n. tactful. चतुर.

direction —(डाइरेक्शन) n. course, address. लक्ष्य, पता, दिशा.

directive —(डाइरेक्टिव) adj. giv-ing instruction. आदेश.

disability —(डिसएबिलिटी) n. incapability. अयोग्यता.

disagreeable —(डिसअग्रीएब्ल) adj. unpleasant. अप्रिय.

disappear —(डिसअपीयर) v. t. to vanish. अदृश्य होना.

disappointment —(डिसअपॉइंटमेण्ट) n. failure of expectation. निराशा.

disapproval —(डिसअप्रूवल) n. state of rejecting. अस्वीकृति, नामंजूरी.

disarmament —(डिसआर्मामेण्ट) n. abandonment of warlike establishment. नि:शस्त्रीकरण.

disbelief —(डिसबिलीफ़) n. refusing to believe, no confidence. अविश्वास.

discharge —(डिसचार्ज) v. t. to unload, to acquit, to dismiss, to fire, to perform. भार हटाना, छोड़ना, मुक्त करना, कार्य करना.

disclose —(डिसक्लोज़) v. t. to uncover, to expose to view. स्पष्ट करना, प्रकट करना.

discomfit —(डिस्कम्फ़िट) v. t. to defeat, to frustrate. हराना, मात करना.

disconnect —(डिसकनेक्ट) v. t. to disunite, to separate. खोलना, सम्बन्ध विच्छेद करना.

discouragement —(डिसकरेजमेण्ट) n. act of discouraging. खिन्नता, हताश अवस्था.

discovery —(डिसकवरी) n. thing discovered. आविष्कार.

discussion —(डिसकशन) n. debate. विवाद, बातचीत.

disease —(डिसीज़) n. illness. बीमारी, रोग.

disengage —(डिसइंगेज़) v. t. to set free, to separate. निर्मुक्त करना, अलग करना.

disfavour —(डिसफ़ेवर) n. dislike, displeasure. घृणा, असन्तोष.

disgrace —(डिसग्रेस) v. t. to dishonour. अपमान करना.

disguise —(डिसगाइज़) v. t. to conceal, to misrepresent. छिपाना, वेष बदलना; n. स्वांग.

disgust —(डिसगस्ट) n. dislike, loathing. घृणा, उद्वेग; v. t. to excite aversion, अरूचि उत्पन्न करना.

dishonest —(डिसऑनेस्ट) adj. insincere. कपटी, धूर्त.

dishonour —(डिसऑनर) v. t. to disgrace. अपमान करना.

disinterested —(डिसइंटरेस्टेड) adj. without personal interest. स्वार्थहीन, निष्पक्ष, तटस्थ.

dislike —(डिसलाइक) v. t. to disapprove. नापसन्द करना.

dislocate —(डिसलोकेट) v. t. to displace. जगह से हटा देना.

dislodge —(डिसलॉज) v. t. to remove from a position. जगह से हटाना.

dismiss —(डिसमिस) v. t. to remove from office, to send away. पदच्युत करना, विदा करना.

dismissal —(डिसमिसल) n. act of dismissing. बरखास्त होना, पृथकत्व.

disobedient —(डिसओबीडिएण्ट) adj. one who does not obey. आज्ञा न मानने वाला.

disobey —(डिसओबे) v. t. to refuse to obey. आज्ञा न मानना.

disorder —(डिसऑर्डर) n. confusion. गड़बड़, अव्यवस्था, परेशानी.

dispatch —(डिसपैच) v. t. to send out, to dispose of. रवाना करना, तय करना, निपटाना.

dispensary —(डिसपेन्सरी) n. a druggist's room. औषधालय.

disperse —(डिसपर्स) v. t. to dismiss, to scatter about. विकेन्द्रित करना, इधर उधर हटाना.

displace —(डिसप्लेस) v. t. to put out of place. जगह से हटाना.

display —(डिसप्ले) v. t. to exhibit, to make a show of. प्रदर्शन करना.

displease —(डिसप्लीज़) v. t. to annoy. नाखुश करना. n. displeasure. नाखुशी.

disposal —(डिसपोज़ल) n. arrangement, settlement. प्रबन्ध.

dispute —(डिसप्यूट) v. t. to argue. विवाद करना, न मानना.

disreputable —(डिसरिप्यूटेबल) adj. of ill fame. बदनाम, कुख्यात.

disrepute —(डिसरिप्यूट) n. ill fame. बदनामी.

distance —(डिसटेन्स) n. remoteness. दूरी.

distant —(डिसटैण्ट) adj. far off. दूर.

distaste —(डिसटेस्ट) n. dislike, aversion. अरूचि, घृणा.

distemper —(डिसटेम्पर) n. derangement of body, paint for wall. तबीयत खराब होना, दीवार का रंग.

distillation —(डिस्टिलेशन) n. act of distilling. अर्क खीचने की क्रिया.

distort —(डिस्टॉर्ट) v. t. twisted to give false or twisted account. तोड़मरोड़ के वर्णन करना.

distortion —(डिस्टॉर्शन) n. twisted or false account. विकृत या असत्य रूप.

distribution —(डिस्ट्रीब्यूशन) n. division. वितरण, बांटना.

disturb —(डिस्टर्ब) v. t. to unsettle, to cause agitation. विचलित करना, गड़बड़ी पैदा करना.

disunite —(डिसयूनाइट) v. t. to separate, to cause dissension. विभेद करना, मतभेद कर देना, अलग करना.

ditto —(डिटो) n. adj. & adv. the same as above (in account or lists

etc.) वही जो ऊपर लिखा है.

diversity —(डाइवर्सिटी) n. being unlike, variety. विभिन्नता, अनमेल होना.

diversion —(डायवर्ज़न) n. diverting of attention, amusement, a military manoeuvre. ध्यान हटना, दिल बहलाव, एक सैनिक चाल.

divert —(डाइवर्ट) v. t. to turn aside, deflect, to change. निश्चित पथ से हटाना, राह बदल देना.

dividend —(डिविडेण्ड) n. number to be divided, sum payable as interest on loan, or profit. विभाजनीय संख्या, मुनाफा.

division —(डिविज़न) n. distribution, disagreement, classification, a unit in the army. वोट, मतभेद, वर्ग विभाजन, सैनिक टोली.

divorce —(डाइवोर्स) n. dissolution of marriage, v. t. to dissolve, marriage, sever. विवाह विच्छेद, तलाक देना, अलग करना.

docile —(डोसाइल) adj. submissive. सीधा, पालतू.

doctrine —(डॉक्ट्रिन) n. belief, religious or scientific teaching. सिद्धान्त.

document —(डॉक्यूमेण्ट) n. दस्तावेज, लेख.

dogma —(डॉग्मा) n. principle, rigid opinion. सिद्धान्त, निश्चित मत.

dogmatic —(डॉग्मैटिक) adj. doctrinal, authoritative. सैद्धान्तिक, प्रामाणिक, कट्टर.

domain —(डोमेन) n. estate, territory. राज, इलाका.

domestic —(डोमेस्टिक) adj. concerning the home. घरेलू.

domination —(डोमीनेशन) n. rule. राज्य, शासन.

donation —(डोनेशन) n. gift of money. दान.

donee —(डोनी) n. one who receives a gift. दान पाने वाला.

donor —(डोनर) n. giver. देने वाला.

doom —(डूम) n. condemn to hard fate, decree. कठोर सजा देना, दुर्भाग्य.

doubt —(डाउट) v. t. to distrust, to hesitate. संदेह करना, हिचकिचाना.

dowry —(डावरी) n. money or goods given to a daughter as marriage gift. दहेज.

dozen —(डज़न्) n. twelve. बारह, एक दर्जन.

drainage —(ड्रेनेज) n. a system of drains. नालियों की व्यवस्था.

dramatist —(ड्रैमैटिस्ट) n. writer of dramatic work. नाटककार.

drastic —(ड्रैस्टिक) adj. powerful, violent. सख्त.

drawback —(ड्रॉबैक) n. a disadvantage. कमी, त्रुटि.

drawing —(ड्राँइंग) n. a sketch, a picture. रेखा चित्र, चित्र.

dread —(ड्रेड) n. fear. डर; adj. fearful. भयानक; v. t. to be afraid, डरना.

dreamy —(ड्रीमी) adj. given to dream, full of vision. स्वप्निल, अवास्तविक.

dressing —(ड्रेसिंग) n. bandage. पट्टी.

drive —(ड्राइव) n. a ride, a road. सवारी, सड़क; v. t. & i. to push forward. ढकेलना, हांकना.

drizzle —(ड्रिज़िल) v. t. light rain. हल्की वर्षा.

drone —(ड्रोन) n. male bee. शहद की मक्खी.

drowsy —(ड्राउज़ी) adj. half asleep. निद्राशील.

dual —(डुअल) adj. of two, double. दोहरी.

duchess —(डचेस) n. wife of a duke. ड्यूक की पत्नी.

due —(ड्यू) adj. proper, owing, adequate. उचित, दिया जाने वाला, पर्याप्त; n. that which owed. कर्ज़ा.

duel —(ड्यूअल) n. fight between two persons. द्वन्द्व युद्ध.

duke —(ड्यूक) n. a noble of England. ड्यूक.

duly —(ड्यूली) adv. in due course of time. उपयुक्त समय पर.

dumb —(डम) n. speechless. गूंगा.

dunce —(डन्स) n. backward student, dullard. मन्द बुद्धि, कम अक्ल.

duplicate —(डयूप्लीकेट) n. second copy; adj. double; v. t. to make twice. दूसरी प्रतिलिपि, दोहरा, दोहराना.

duplicity —(ड्यूप्लीसिटी) n. double dealing. दोरंगी चाल.

durability —(ड्यूरेबिलिटी) n. the quality of being lasting. मज़बूत, टिकाऊपन.

durable —(ड्यूरेबल) adj. lasting. टिकाऊ.

duration —(ड्यूरेशन) n. time by which anything lasts. मियाद, अवधि, मुद्दत.

during —(ड्यूरिंग) prep. in the time of. में, बीच.

dusty —(डस्टी) adj. full of dust. धूल से भरा.

dutch —(डच) n. a man of Holland. हालैण्ड निवासी.

duty —(ड्यूटी) n. what one ought to do, deference due to superior, a tax on goods. कर्त्तव्य, चुंगी.

dwarf —(ड्वार्फ़) n. a very small man. बौना.

dwelling —(ड्वैलिंग) n. place to live in, house. मकान.

dynamite —(डाइनमाइट) n. an explosive substance. बारूद.

dynamo —(डाइनेमो) n. machine for creating electric energy. बिजली उत्पन्न करने का यन्त्र.

dysentery —(डिसेण्टरी) n. an upset of the bowels. अतिसार, आंव पड़ना.

E

each —(ईच) adj. every one. प्रत्येक.

eager —(ईगर) adj. earnest, keen. उत्सुक.

eagle —(ईगल) n. a big bird of prey. गिद्ध.

earmark —(ईअरमार्क) n. a mark of identification. पहचान का चित्र.

earnest —(अर्नेस्ट) n. part payment, as guarantee, पेशगी; adj. serious, determined, eager. धीर, गम्भीर, उत्सुक.

earnings —(अर्निग्ंस) n. wages earned. आमदनी.

earth —(अर्थ) n. soil, land. पृथ्वी, मिट्टी.

earthen —(अर्थन) adj. made of soil. मिट्टी के बने हुये.

earthly —(अर्थली) adv. worldly. सांसारिक.

earthquake —(अर्थक्वेक) n. a sudden, violent shaking of the earth. भूकम्प, जलजला.

ease —(ईज़) n. freedom from pain or difficulty. आराम, सुविधा; v. t. to render easy. सुविधाजनक बनाना.

easel —(ईसल) n. frame for supporting pictures during painting. चित्र का ढांचा.

easygoing —(ईज़ी गोइंग) adj. one who takes things easy. बेफ़िक्र, सरल प्रकृति का.

eatable —(ईटेब्ल) adj. fit for eating. खाने लायक.

echo —(ईको). n. repetition of sound. आवाज़ की गूंज.

echo —(ईको) v. t. to resound. गूंजना.

ecstacy —(एक्सटेसी) n. condition of extreme joy. अत्यधिक आनन्द.

eczema —(एक्ज़ेमा) n. a skin disease, inflammation of the skin. खुजली.

edge —(एज) n. border, sharp side of an instrument. किनारा, तेज़ धार.

edible —(एडिबिल) adj. fit for eating. खाने लायक, खाद्य.

edition —(एडिशन) n. the number of copies of a book published at a time. संस्करण.

editor —(एडीटर) n. one who edits. सम्पादक.

educative —(एजूकेटिव) adj. likely to prove instructive. ज्ञानवर्धक, शिक्षापूर्ण.

effect —(इफ़ेक्ट) n. result, influence. परिणाम, प्रभाव.

effective —(इफ़ेक्टिव) n. adj. powerful, having effect. कारगर, काम करने वाली.

efficiency —(इफ़ीशेन्सी) n. power, strength, competence. कौशल, निपुणता.

efficient —(इफ़ीशिण्ट) adj. competent, capable. निपुण, कुशल.

effigy —(एफ़ीजी) n. image, representation in dummy form. पुतला.

effort —(एफ़र्ट) n. exertion, endeavour. प्रयास.

egoism —(ईगोइज़्म) n. too much interest in oneself. अपने आप पर अधिक ध्यान देने की अवस्था, अहंभाव.

egotism —(ईगोटिज़्म) n. self absorption, speaking too much of oneself. आत्मचर्चा.

eighty —(एट्टी) n. eight times ten. अस्सी.

elastic —(इलैस्टिक) adj. springing back, able to recover former state quickly. लचीला.

elasticity —(इलैस्टिसिटी) n. the quality of tension. लचीलापन.

elder —(एल्डर) adj. older in age. ज्येष्ठ.

elderly —(एल्डरली) adj. grown old. वयस्क.

elect —(एलेक्ट) v. t. to choose or select. चुनना; adj. chosen. चुना हुआ.

electorate —(इलेक्टोरेट) n. the body of electors. मतदाताओं का समूह.

electropathy —(इलैक्ट्रोपैथी) n. medical treatment by means of electric current. बिजली द्वारा इलाज.

element —(एलीमेण्ट) n. component, part, substance incapable of analysing. तत्व, मूल. (elements n. plural.)

elementary —(एलीमेण्टरी) adj. simple, rudimentary. मौलिक, आधारभूत, सरल.

elephant —(एलीफ़ैण्ट) n. a huge quadruped with tusks. हाथी.

elevation —(एलीवेशन) n. raising, height above sea level. ऊंचाई, उन्नति.

eligible —(एलीजिबिल) adj. fit to be chosen, desirable. योग्य.

elopement —(इलोपमेण्ट) n. secret running away of a woman from her guardian with a lover. प्रेमी के साथ स्त्री का भाग निकलना.

elucidate —(एल्यूसीडेट) v. t. to explain. स्पष्ट करना, समझाना.

elusion —(एल्यूज़न) n. escape by deception. धोखा, कपट.

em -(एम) n. unit of measurement (in types) टाइप बैठाने की नाप.

embrace —(एम्ब्रैस) v. t. to hold in arms, to receive eagerly. आलिंगन करना, उत्साहपूर्वक स्वीकार करना; n. folding in arms, clasp. आलिंगन.

embroidery —(एम्ब्रॉयडरी). n. designs worked in a fabric with needles. बेल-बूटे का काम.

emergency —(इमर्जेन्सी) n. anything calling for prompt action. शीघ्र कार्य की आवश्यकता का समय.

emigrant —(एमिग्रैण्ट) n. one who emigrates. परदेशवासी, प्रवासी.

emotion —(इमोशन) n. agitation of mind, feeling. चित्त का आवेग, भावना.

employ —(इम्प्लॉय) v. t. to engage in service, to give work to. to use. नौकर रखना, काम में लगाना, व्यवहार करना.

employee —(इम्प्लॉई) n. one who is employed. सेवक.

employer —(इम्प्लॉयर) n. one who engages others for service. मालिक.

emporium —(एम्पोरियम) n. (pl . s. ria) a large stonehouse. centre of trade. बड़ा भण्डार, व्यावसायिक केन्द्र.

empower —(एम्पावर) v. t. to give authority to. अधिकार देना.

empress —(एम्प्रेस) n. wife of an emperor. महारानी, साम्राज्ञी.

emptiness —(एम्प्टीनेस) n. state of being empty. शून्यता

emulation —(एम्यूलेशन) n. ambition to rival another. स्पर्धा, डाह.

enclose —(एनक्लोज) v. t. to surround, to shut up. घेरना, बंद करना.

encounter —(एनकाउण्टर) v. t. to meet, to oppose, to light against. लड़ाई करना, भिड़ना.

encourage —(एनकरेज) v. t. to put courage into, to stimulate. प्रोत्साहित करना, हिम्मत बढ़ाना.

encyclopaedia —(एनसाइक्लोपीडिया) n. a dictionary of general knowledge. विश्वकोष.

endeavour —(एनडेवर) v. t. to attempt. प्रयत्न करना.

endeavourment —(एण्डेवरमेण्ट) n. attempt. प्रयत्न.

endorsement —(एण्डोर्समेण्ट) n. writing comments or signature on the back. मंजूरी, हस्ताक्षर.

endurance —(इण्ड्योरेन्स) n. power of enduring. सहन-शक्ति.

endure —(इण्ड्यूर) v. t. & i. to bear. सहना, बर्दाश्त करना.

enema —(एनिमा) n. injection of liquid into the rectum. एनिमा, पिचकारी.

energetic —(एनर्जेटिक) adj. full of energy. फुर्तीला.

enforce —(एन्फोर्स) v. t. to compel obedience. to impose action on. लागू करना, चलाना, बाध्य करना.

engagement —(एन्गेजमेण्ट) n. appointment, employment betrothal, light. काम, लड़ाई, सगाई.

enmity —(एनमिटी) n. hostility. शत्रुता, विरोध, बैर.

enormous —(इनोर्मस) adj. huge. बहुत बड़ा.

enough —(इनफ़) adj. & adv. sufficient. काफी, पर्याप्त रूप से.

enquire —(इन्क्वायर) v. t. to inquire. पूछना, मालूम करना.

entry —(एण्ट्री) n. act of entering. entrantce. item entered. प्रवेश, मार्ग प्रविष्टि. (entries plural.)

envelope —(एनवेलप) n. cover of a letter. लिफ़ाफ़ा.

enviable —(एनविएवल) adj. w orthy of envy. ईर्षा के योग्य, डाह उत्पन्न करने वाला.

envious —(एनवियस) adj. full of envy. इर्ष्या करने वाला.

envoy —(एनवॉय) n. messenger. दूत, एलची.

envy —(एन्वी) v. t. to have ill will. इर्ष्या करना.

epic —(एपिक) n. & adj. a poem in lofty style narrating a series of great events. वीर चरित्र वर्णन, महाकाव्य.

epidemic —(एपीडेमिक) n. an infectious disease prevalent in a community at the same time. संक्रामक या व्यापक रोग.

epistle —(इपिस्ल) n. a letter. पत्र, चिट्ठी.

epitaph —(एपीटाफ) n. an inscription on a tomb. समाधि (कब्र) के ऊपर का लेख.

equal —(ईक्वल) adj. of the same size. identical. समान, तुल्य, बराबर; v. t. & i. to make or be equal to. बराबर होना या करना.

equation —(इक्वेशन) n. reduction to cquality. समीकरण.

equi —(ईक्वी) in combination meaning "equal". **"** समान**"** अर्थ का उपसर्ग.

equilibrium —(ईक्वीलिब्रिअम) n. state of even balance. सन्तुलन, समभार.

equitable —(इक्विटेब्ल) adj. impartial, just. पक्षपात रहित न्यायपूर्ण.

equity —(इक्विटी) n. justice, fair dealing. न्याय, पक्षपात हीनता.

equivalent —(ईक्वीवलैण्ट) adj of equal value, corresponding to. बराबर का समान मूल्य का.

era —(इरा) n. a period of time. युग काल.

eradicaie —(इरैडीकेट) v. t. to uproot, to destroy utterly. जड़ से उखाड़ना, जड़ोन्मूलन करना.

erection —(इरेक्शन) n. act of erecting. निर्माण.

err —(अर) v. t. to wander from the right path. to make mistakes. अपराध करना, गलती करना.

error —(एरर) n. mistake. wrong opinion. भूल, गलती त्रुटि.

erst —(अर्स्ट), **erstwhile** —(अर्स्ट-वाइल) adv. of old. formerly. पुराना, पहले का.

escape —(इस्केप) v. t . & i. to get away from danger, to avoid. to hasten away. भागना, बचाना, भाग निकलना; n. evasion. छुटकारा.

essence —(एसेंस) n. intrinsic nature, a perfume. तत्व, सार, इत्र

essential —(एसेंशल) adj. necessary. सारभूत, आवश्यक.

establishment —(एस्टैब्लिशमेण्ट) n. household. house of business. गृहस्थी, निर्माणशाला.

estate —(एस्टेट) n. condition, state. property. अवस्था, दशा, सम्पत्ति.

esteem —(एस्टीम) v. t. to think highly of, to regard. आदर करना.

estimable —(एस्टीमेबल) adj. deserving good opinion. माननीय.

etching —(एचिंग) n. art of engraving. तेजाब की सहायता से खुदाई.

eternal —(इटर्नल) adj. without beginning or end. अनन्त, अनादि.

ethics —(एथिक्स) n. the science of conduct. आचारशास्त्र, नीति.

eulogy —(यूलॉजी) n. praise. प्रशंसा, स्तुति.

evacuate —(इवैकुएट) v. t. to make empty, to leave. शून्य करना, निकालना.

evade —(इवेड) v. t. to escape from, to avoid cunningly. हटाना; निकलना.

eve —(ईव) n. evening. सांय-काल.

even —(ईवन) n. (in poetry) evening. सांयकाल; adj. level. not odd. समतल, चौरस, बराबर.

event —(इवेण्ट) n. something that happens, an incident. वृत्तान्त, घटना.

everlasting —(ऐवरलास्टिंग) adj. perpetual. हमेशा रहने वाला.

evidence —(इविडेंस) n. testimony, a sign or token. प्रमाण, साक्षी.

evident —(एविडेण्ट) adj. obvious. clear. स्पष्ट, प्रकट.

evolution —(इवोल्यूशन) n. evolving, development. विकास.

exaggerate —(एग्ज़ेजरेट) v. t. to overstate. बढ़ाकर कहना.

exaggeraiion —(एग्ज़ेजरेशन) n. a statement in excess of the truth. अतिशयोक्ति, अत्युक्ति, अतिवर्णन.

examinee —(इग्जैमिनी) n. one who is examined. परीक्षार्थी.

examiner —(एग्ज़ैमिनर) n. one who tries or inspects. परीक्षक.

exceed —(एक्सीड) v. t. & i. to go beyond, to surpass. अधिक होना, बढ़ना.

excellent —(एक्सिलैन्ट) adj. very good. उत्तम, श्रेष्ठ.

exception —(एक्सेप्शन) n. not according to rule. objection. अपवाद, त्याग, विरोध.

exchange —(एक्सचेंज) v. t to change. बदलना.

exchangeable —(एक्सचेन्जेब्ल) adj. able to be exchanged. विनिमय योग्य, बदलने योग्य.

excise —(एक्साइज़) n. a tax on home products, money paid for a license. चुंगी राजकर.

excitement —(इक्साइटमेण्ट) n. stimulation. उत्तेजना.

exclaim —(एक्सक्लेम) v. t. to cry out, to speak aloud. चिल्लाना, पुकारना.

exclamation —(एक्सक्लेमेशन) n. outcry, expression of surprise and the like. विस्मय प्रकट करने के शब्द, चिल्लाहट.

exclude —(एक्सक्लूड) v. t. to shut out, to debar from. निकालना, पृथक, करना.

exclusion —(एक्सक्ल्यूज़न) n. act of rejecting. निषेध, वर्जन, पृथकत्व.

exclusive —(एक्सक्लूसिव) adj. having power to exclude. निषेधक.

excusable —(एक्सक्यूज़ेबल) adj. admitting of excuse. क्षमा योग्य.

excuse —(एक्सक्यूज़) v. i. to let off from punishment, to overlook a fault. क्षमा करना, बहाना करना;n. pretext. बहाना.

exempt —(एग्जेमप्ट) v. t. to make free, to free. त्यागना, मुक्त करना; adj. free from duty etc. कर से मुक्त.

exhaustion —(एग्ज्ॅहॉशन) n. the state of being exhausted. थकावट.

exhibit —(एग्ज़िहबिट) v. t. to show. दिखाना, प्रकट करना.

exbibitor —(एग्ज़िहबिटर) n. one who exhibits. प्रदर्शन करने वाला.

exist —(एग्जिस्ट) v. t. to be. to live. होना, जीना.

existence —(एग्जिस्टेंस) n. continued being. जीवन अस्तित्व.

expand —(एक्सपैण्ड) v. t. to spread out. to enlarge. बढ़ाना, फैलाना.

expansion —(एक्सपैंशन) n. act of expanding. फैलाव, विस्तार.

expect —(एक्सपेक्ट) v. t. to suppose, to anticipatc, to hope. आशा करना.

expectation —(एक्सपेक्टेशन) n. anticipation, hope. आशा.

expensive —(एक्स्पेंसिव) adj. valuable, costly. बहुमूल्य, मूल्यवान.

expedite —(एक्सपेडाइट) v. t. to hasten. शीघ्रता करना.

expedition —(एक्सपीडिशन) n. an undertaking. an enterprise. यात्रा, साहसिक यात्रा.

expel —(एक्सपेल) v. t. to drive out. to banish. बाहर निकालना, हटाना.

experiment —(एक्सपेरीमेण्ट) n. a trial to discover something. प्रयोग; v. t. परीक्षा करना.

experimental —(एक्सपेरीमेण्टल) adj. based on experiment. प्रयोग सम्बन्धी.

expire —(एक्सपायर) v. t. to die, to come to an end. मरना, अन्त होना.

expiry —(एक्सपायरी) n. end. अन्त.

explanation —(एक्सप्लेनेशन) n. the statement that explains. व्याख्या, टीका, जवाब.

explode —(एक्सप्लोड) v. t. to burst with a loud report. धड़ाके से फटना.

exploit —(एक्सप्लॉइट) n. a heroic act. बहादुरी का काम.

explore —(एक्सप्लोर) v. t . & i. to search carefully, to travel through new regions. खोजना, नये प्रदेश में यात्रा करना.

export —(एक्सपोर्ट) v. t. to send goods to another country. निर्यात करना; n. an exported article. निर्यात.

expose —(एक्सपोज़) v. t. to lay open. to subject to danger. प्रकाशित करना, आपत्ति में डालना.

express —(एक्सप्रेस) adj. definite. precise, going at a high speed. निश्चित, स्पष्ट, द्रुतगामी, तेज़ जाने वाला.

expressible —(एक्सप्रेसिबल) adj. fit to be expressed. वर्णन करने योग्य.

expression —(एक्सप्रेशन) n. utterance. a phrase, look. उच्चारण, उक्ति, अभिव्यक्ति.

expulsion —(एक्सपल्शन) n. banishment. निर्वासन.

extempore —(ऐक्सटमपरि) adv. & adj. expressed without previous preparation. बिना तैयारी के कहा हुआ, तात्कालिक.

extend —(एक्सटेण्ड) v. t , to stretch out, to enlarge. फैलाना.

extension —(एक्सटेंशन) n. extent, stretch. विस्तार, फैलाव.

extra —(एक्स्ट्रा) adv . unusually. अतिरिक्त, रूप से; adj. additional. अतिरिक्त, अधिक.

extract —(ऐक्स्ट्रैक्ट) n. passage from a book, essence. तत्व, निचोड़, पुस्तक से लिया हुआ अश.

extraordinary —(एक्स्ट्राऑर्डिनरी) adj. uncommon, remarkable. अपूर्व, अद्भुत, विलक्षण.

extravagance (एक्स्ट्रावैंगेंस) n. unnecessary expenditure. अपव्यय

extreme —(एक्सट्रीम) adj. outermost, remote. अत्यन्त, अन्तिम.

eyebrow —(आईब्रो) n. fringe of hairs over the eye. भौंह.

eyelid —(आईलिड) n. cover of the eye. पलक.

eye-witness —(आई-विटनेस) n. one who can testify from his own observation, one who sees a thing done. प्रत्यक्ष, साक्षी, चश्मदीद गवाह.

[L1330]**F**

facial —(फ़ेशल) adj. of the face. मुख सम्बन्धी.

facile —(फेसील) adj. easily done, ready with words. yielding. सुगम, वाकपट्ट, सीधा.

facilitate —(फेसिलिटेट) v. t. to make easy, to help. सुगम, बनाना, सहायता करना.

facility —(फ़ेसिलिटी) n. easiness. सुगमता, आसानी.

facilities —(फ़ेसिलिटीज़) n. pl . opportunities, good conditions. अवसर, अच्छे साधन.

fade —(फ़ेड) v. t. & i . to wither. मुर्झाना, सूखना.

faint —(फ़ेण्ट) adj. feeble, weak, inclined to swoon. कमज़ोर, निर्बल, मूर्छित.

faintness —(फ़ेण्टनेस) n. state of being senseless. मूर्च्छा.

faithful —(फ़ेथफुल) adj. loyal, true. विश्वासपात्र, सच्चा, ईमानदार.

fallacy —(फ़ैलेसी) n. a false argument, a wrong belief. भ्रमात्मक तर्क, भ्रान्ति.

famous —(फ़ेमस) adj. wellknown. प्रसिद्ध.

fantasy —(फ़ैन्टसी) n. imagination, fanciful invention, mental image. अनुमान, भूल, कल्पना.

farewell —(फ़ेयरवेल) n. words said at parting. leavetaking. विदाई.

fascinate —(फ़ैसीनेट) v. t. to charm, to attract. to enchant. मोह लेना, वशीभूत करना.

fatal —(फ़ैटल) adj. deadly. destructive. घातक, विनाशकारी.

fault —(फ़ॉल्ट्) n. an error, a wrong action, an imperfection. भूल. अपराध, अवगुण.

favourable —(फ़ेवरेवल) adj. suitable. helpful. उपयुक्त, अनुकूल, हितकारी, लाभदायक.

feasible —(फीज़िबल) adj. practicable, convenient. सार्थक, सुलभ.

feasibility —(फ़ीज़ीबिलिटी) n. practicability. सुलभता.

feature —(फ़ीचर) n. marked peculiarity. आकृति, लक्षण; pl . countenance**.** मुख की आकृति; v. t. to portray. दर्शाना.

feeble —(फ़ीब़ल) adj. weak. कमजोर.

female —(फ़ीमेल) n . & adj. a woman or a girl. लड़की, स्त्री, मादा.

feminine —(फ़ेमीनिन) adj. relating to women. स्त्रीजातीय.

festival —(फ़ेस्टीबल) n. a grand feast. time marked out for pleasure making. उत्सव, त्योहार.

festive —(फ़ेस्टिव) adj. of festival. त्योहार सम्बन्धी.

fever —(फ़ीवर) n. high temperature. बुखार.

fiction —(फ़िक्शन) n. something invented, false story, literature of stories. कल्पना, काल्पनिक साहित्य जैसे उपन्यास.

fictitious —(फ़िकटिशस) adj. imaginary, not genuine. काल्पनिक, नकली.

fidget —(फ़िजिट) v. t. to move uneasily. बेचैनी से अंग हिलाना; (y) adj . बेचैनी, अशान्त, अस्थिर.

fiend —(फ़ीण्ड) n. the devil, a cruel person. शैतान, पिशाच.

fierce —(फ़ियर्स) adj. violent, angry. क्रुद्ध, भयानक.

fiery —(फ़ायरी) adj. containing fire, ardent, irritable. आग की तरह, जोशीला, शीघ्रक्रोधी.

figurative —(फ़िगुरेटिव) adj. words used to denote thing other than that pointed out by the straight forward meaning. आलंकारिक, लाक्षणिक.

filthy —(फ़िल्थी) adj. unclean, dirty. गंदा, मैला.

finance —(फ़ाइनैन्स) n. (pl .) matters relating to money, revenue, science of controlling public money. अर्थ, आय-व्यय सम्बन्धी.

finely —(फ़ाइनली) adv . decently. उत्तम रीति से, अच्छी तरह से.

finish —(फ़िनिश) n. (no pl.) end. अन्त, इति.

firebrigade —(फ़ायरब्रिगेड) n. body of firemen. दमकल.

fireproof —(फ़ायरप्रूफ़) adj. that cannot be burnt in fire. आग में न जलने वाला.

fishery —(फ़िशरी) n. business of catching fish. मछली पकड़ने का काम.

fist —(फ़िस्ट) n. the clenched hand. मुट्ठी, मुक्का.

fitness —(फ़िटनेस) n. state of being fit. योग्यता, ठीक होने की अवस्था.

fixity —(फ़िक्सिटी) n. the state of being fixed, permanence. स्थिरता.

flagrant —(फ़्लैग्रेण्ट) adj. prominent, notorious. प्रमुख, कुख्यात.

flame —(फ्लेम) n. a blaże. ज्वाला.

flatter —(फ़्लैटर) v. t. to please with false praise. मिथ्या प्रशंसा करना, झूठी आशा दिलाना.

flavour —(फ़्लेवर) n. a distinguishing taste or smell. स्वाद, सुरस.

flawless —(फ्लॉलेस) adj. perfect, without any defect. पूर्ण, दोषरहित.

flexible —(फ़्लेक्सिबिल) adj. pliable, yielding, easily bent. लचीला.

flexibility —(फ्लैक्सिबिलिटी) n. state of being flexible. लचीलापन; ant. rigidity.

flight —(फ़्लाइट) n. the act of flying, flock of birds, series of steps. उड़ान, पक्षियों का समुदाय, सीढ़ियों का डंडा.

flirt —(फ़्लर्ट) v. t . to jerk, to show affection for amusement without serious intentions. हिलाना, झूठा प्यार दिखाना.

flirtation —(फ्लर्टेशन) n. playing at a courtship. दिखावटी प्यार.

flock —(फ्लॉक) n. a company of birds or animals. पक्षियों या जानवरों. का झुंड.

fluctuation —(फ्लक्चुएशन) n. unsteadiness. अस्थिरता, इधर उधर हिलना.

fluent —(फ्लुएण्ट) adj. flowing ready in speech. बहता हुआ.

fluidity —(फ्लुइडिटी) n. the quality of being fluid. तरलता, द्रवता.

foamy —(फ़ोमी) adj. covered with foam. झागदार.

foggy —(फ़ॉगी) adj. covered with fog.dim. कुहरे से ढका हुआ, धुंधला.

folio —(फ़ोलियो) n. a sheet of paper once folded, page number of a printed book, a volume having pages of the largest size. दो पर्त में मोड़ा हुआ कागज़, पुस्तक की पृष्ठ संख्या, बड़े आकार की पुस्तक.

folk-lore —(फ़ोक लोर) n. legendary tradition. पौराणिक कथा.

follower —(फ़ॉलोअर) n. one who follows. अनुसरण करने वाला.

following —(फ़ॉलोइंग) adj. succeeding. अगला, निम्नलिखित.

foolish —(फुलिश) adj. weak inellect. मूढ़, बुद्धिहीन.

forbade —(फॉरबेड) past tenseof forbid. इनकार किया, निषेध किया.

forbear —(फ़ॉरबेयर) v. i . & t . to refrain, to be patient. रोकना, धैर्य करना, n. ancestor. पूर्वज.

forbearance —(फ़ोरबेअरेन्स) n. exercise of patience. धैर्य.

forbid —(फ़ॉरविड) v. t. to tell not to do. to prohibit. रोकना, निषेध करना.

forcible —(फ़ोरसिबिल) adj. powerful. बलयुक्त.

forebode —(फ़ोरबोड) v. t. to predict. भविष्य बताना, अनुमान करना.

forecast —(फ़ोरकास्ट) v. t. to foresee. to predict. to conjecture beforehand. दूरदर्शिता, पहले से कल्पना करना.

forefather —(फोरफ़ादर) n. an ancestor. पुरखा, पुर्वज.

forego —(फ़ोरगो) v. t. to precede. to give up. आगे होना, छोड़ना.

foregoing —(फोरगोइंग) adj. preceding. पहले का.

foreigner —(फ़ारेनर) n. a stranger. an alien. विदेशी, अन्य देशीय.

forejudge —(फ़ोरजज) v. t. to judge beforehand. पहले से ही निर्णय का लेना.

forerun —(फ़ोररन) v. t. to precede. आगे जाना.

foresight —(फ़ोरसाइट) n. fore-knowledge. पूर्व ज्ञान.

forever —(फोरएवर) adv . always. हमेशा, सदैव.

foreword —(फ़ोरवर्ड) n. introductory remarks to a book. भूमिका, प्रस्तावना.

forfeit —(फ़ोरफ़ीट) v. t. to lose right to. to pay as penalty for. अर्थ दण्ड देना. अधिकार छोड़ना.

forgiveness —(फ़ोरगिवनेस) n. pardon. क्षमा.

forge —(फ़ोर्ज) n. furnace, smithy. अंगीठी, भट्टी.

forgettable —(फ़ॉर्गेटेबल) adj . apt to forget. not remembering. भूलने वाला.

formality —(फ़ॉर्मेलिटी) n. formal conduct. तकल्लुफ, रिवाज के अनुकूल आचरण.

formally —(फॉर्मली) adv. in a formal way. नियमानुसार, दिखावे के रूप में.

formulate —(फ़ॉरम्यूलेट) v. t. to express in clear and definite form. स्पष्ट शब्दों में कहना.

forsake —(फ़ॉरसेक) v. t. to abandon, to renounce. त्यागना.

fort —(फ़ोर्ट) n. a fortified place. किला, दुर्ग.

fortify —(फ़ॉर्टीफ़ाई) v. t. to encourage. दृढ़ करना, स्थिर करना.

forthwith —(फ़ोर्थवेद) adv. immediately. तुरन्त, झट से.

fortitude —(फ़ार्टीट्यूड) n. patient, firmness, strength of mind, endurance. साहस, पौरूष, धैर्य.

forty —(फ़ॉटी) adj. four times ten. चालिस.

forum —(फ़ोरम) n. a. market place, public place for meeting. हाट, सार्वजनिक स्थान.

forwards —(फ़ॉरवर्ड्स) adv. onwards. भविष्य में, आगे को.

foundation —(फ़ाउण्डेशन) n. basis. the act of establishing. नींव, आधार.

founder —(फ़ाउण्डर) n. one who establishes. स्थापित करने वाला.

foundry —(फ़ाउंड्री) n. a place for casting meta's. ढलाई का कार्यालय.

fourfold —(फ़ोरफ़ोल्ड) adj . four times of much. चौगुना.

frankly —(फ़्रैंकली) adv. without any hesitation. स्पष्ट रूप में, संकोच रहित होकर.

frankness —(फ़्रैंकनेस) n. state of being outspoken. स्पष्टता.

fraud —(फ़्रॉड) n. cheating. deception. छल, कपट, धोखा.

freehold —(फ़्री होल्ड) n. land hold free of rates. कर रहित भूमि.

freewill —(फ़्रीबिल) n. power of doing work voluntarily. liberty of choice. स्वेच्छा, अपनी मर्जी, मनमौजी.

freeze —(फ्रीज़) v. t. & i. to chill. to become ice. हिम होना ठंडा होना.

freight —(फ्रैट) n. hire of ship बोझ, माल का भाड़ा.

frequency —(फ्रीक्वेन्सी) n. frequent occurrence. बारम्बार होना.

fretful —(फ़्रेटफुल) adj. peevish irritable. व्यग्र, चिड़चिड़ा.

friendly —(फ़्रेंडली) adj. acting as a friend on amicable terms. अनुकूल, मित्रतापूर्ण.

frigidity —(फ़्रिजिडिटी) n. coolness. ठंडक, ठंडापन.

front —(फ्रण्ट) n. forehead, fore part. face. ललाट, अगला भाग, मुख.

frosty —(फ़्रॉस्टी) adj. full of frost. पाले से पूर्ण.

fruitful —(फ्रूटफुल) adj. productive. उपजाऊ.

fruition —(फ्रूईशन) n. fulfilment. सफलीभूत होना, सार्थकता.

fruity —(फ्रूटी) adj. of fruit. फल जैसा.

fulfil —(फुलफ़िल) v. t. to carryout, to complete, to bring, to pass. पूर्ण करना, सफल करना.

fulfilment —(फुलफ़िलमेण्ट) n. accomplishment. पूर्णता संतुष्टि.

fullstop —(फुलस्टाप) n. a punctuation mark used at the end of a sentence. पूर्ण विराम का चिन्ह.

fun —(फ़न) n. sport, amusement. क्रीड़ा, खेल.

function —(फंक्शन) n. a ceremony, special work. विशेष कार्य, व्यवहार.

fundamental —(फ़ण्डामेण्टल) adj. important, belonging to foundation, essential. प्रधान मौलिक, आवश्यक.

funny —(फ़नी) adj. full of fun, amusing, odd. हास्यजनक, विनोदशील, विचित्र.

furious —(फ्यूरियस) adj. very angry. अति क्रुद्ध.

furnishings —(फ़र्निशिंग्स) n. plural. furniture. सामान.

furniture —(फ़र्नीचर) n. equipment. सामान, असबाब जैसे मेज़, कुर्सी इत्यादि.

further —(फ़र्दर) adv . moreover. to a great distance or degree. आगे, और भी.

furthermore —(फ़र्दरमोर) adj . moreover. और भी आगे.

furthest —(फ़र्देस्ट) adj. & adv. farthest. सब से आगे.

fury —(फ्यूरी) n. rage, great anger, excitement. उत्तेजना रोष, क्रोध.

fusibility —(फ़्यूज़ीबिलिटी) n. the act of being melted or

amalgamated. द्रवशीलता, पिघलने की योग्यता.

fusible —(फ़्यूज़िब्ल) adj. capable of melting. गलने या गलाने योग्य.

fusion —(फ़्यूज़न) n. fused mass. act of fusing. एकरूपता.

fuss —(फ़स) n. tumult, bustle. गड़बड़, कोलाहल.

fussy —(फ़सी) adj. making a fuss. उपद्रवी.

future —(फ़्यूचर) n. going to be, about to happen. भविष्य, आगे होने वाला.

futurity —(फ्यूचरिटी) n. time to come. आगे आने वाला समय, आगामी संतति.

futile —(फ्यूटाइल) adj. useless, trifling. व्यर्थ, निरर्थक.

fy —(फ़ाई) int . same as fie. छी, छी, घृणा प्रकट करने वाला शब्द.

[L1469]**G**

gaby —(गेबी) n. foolish fellow, simpleton. मूर्ख.

gaiety —(गेयटी) n. cheerfulness. हर्ष, आनन्द.

gait —(गेट) n. manner of walking, bearing. चाल-ढाल

Gamble —(गैम्बल) v. i. to play for money. जुआ खेलना.

gambol —(गैम्बल) n. & v. i. a frolic, a skip. खेल कूद.

gaol —(जेल) n. jail. prison. बन्दीगृह.

garland —(गारलैण्ड) n. a wreath of flowers. माला.

garment —(गारमेण्ट) n. dress. कपड़ा, पोशाक, वस्त्र.

gathering —(गैदरिंग) n. crowd, assembly. भीड़, जमघट, सभा.

gaze —(गेज़) v. i. to look steadily at, a fixed look. ध्यान से देखना.

gem —(जेम) n. jewel, an object of great worth. रत्न हीरा, अमूल्य वस्तु.

generally —(जेनरली) adv. usually. सामान्य रूप से.

generate —(जेनरेट) v. t. to produce, to give birth, to originate. पैदा करना.

generation —(जेनरेशन) n. race, people of the same time. वंश, पीढ़ी.

generosity —(जेनरॉसिटी) n. nobleness, kindness. उदारता.

generous —(जेनरस) adj. kind, of liberal nature. दानी, उदार.

genius —(जीनियस) n. a person having extraordinary mental power. अत्यंत गुणी व्यक्ति, प्रतिभाशाली.

gentle —(जेण्ट्ल) adj. noble, kind. दयालु, भद्रजन.

gentleness —(जेण्ट्लनेस) n. mildness, goodness. नम्रता, भद्रता.

genuine —(जेनुइन) adj. pure, real. शुद्ध, पवित्र.

germ —(जर्म) n. that from which anything develops, productive element. बीज, अंकुर.

giant —(जायण्ट) n. a very tall man. एक दानव.

gifted —(गिफ़्टेड) adj. talented. गुणी.

ginger —(जिंजर) n. a hot spice. अदरक.

girdle —(गर्डल) v. t. to surround with girdle. पेटी से बांधना.

girlhood —(गर्लहुड) n. the state of being a girl. लड़कीपन.

girlish —(गर्लिश) adj. like a girl. लड़की की तरह.

gladly —(ग्लैडली) adv. cheerfully. प्रसन्नता पूर्वक.

glamour —(ग्लैमर) n. fascination. magic spell. आकर्षण, जादू टोना.

glare —(ग्लेयर) n. a dazzling light. चौंधियाने वाला प्रकाश.

glimps —(ग्लिम्प्स) n. a brief passing view. झलक.

globe —(ग्लोब) n. around body. a sphere, the earth. गोल, गोल पदार्थ.

glorious —(ग्लोरियस) n. magnificent, illustrious. प्रख्यात, गौरवपूर्ण.

glossary —(ग्लॉसरी) n. a list of words with their meanings. शब्दकोश.

God —(गॉड) n. a being or spirit having power over nature and human beings. ईश्वर.

godless —(गॉडलेस) adj. living without God. नास्तिक.

godly —(गॉडली) adj. pious. धार्मिक.

gold —(गोल्ड) n. a precious yellow metal, money, riches. सोना, धन.

goldsmith —(गोल्डस्मिथ) n. one who works in gold. सुनार.

goodbye —(गुडबाई) int. farewell. विदाई.

goodness —(गुडनेस) n. kindness, excellence. कृपा, दया.

goodwill —(गुडविल) n. a friendly feeling. popularity in trade. मित्र-भाव, सद्भावना व्यापार में लोकप्रियता.

gossip —(गॉसिप) n. idle talk. गपशप.

governable —(गवर्नेब्ल) adj. capable of ruling. राज्य करने योग्य.

grace —(ग्रेस) n. mercy. favour. pardon, politeness. दया, कृपा.
gradually —(ग्रैजुअली) adv. in a gradual manner. क्रमश:, धीरे-धीरे.
grand —(ग्रैण्ड) adj. supreme. magnificent. उत्तम, महान, शानदार.
grammarian —(ग्रैमेरियन) n. one versed in grammar. व्याकरणाचार्य.
grape —(ग्रेप) n. a fruit. अंगूर.
grasp —(ग्रास्प) v. t. to catch, to hold, to seize. समझना, कसकर पकड़ना.
gratitude —(ग्रैटीट्यूड) n. thankfulness. कृतज्ञता, धन्यवाद.
gratuity —(ग्रैच्युटी) n. a gift, a payment on discharge. भेंट, नौकरी समाप्त होने पर दिया जाने वाला वेतन.
greatness —(ग्रेटनेस) n. state of being great. महानता, बड़प्पन.
greediness —(ग्रीडीनेस) n. the quality of being greedy. लालचीपन.
greedy —(ग्रीडी) adj. intensely desirous. लालची.
greed —(ग्रीड) n. eager desire. लोभ.
greeting —(ग्रीटिंग) n. salutation. नमस्कार.
grey —(ग्रे) adj. & n. of mixed black and white colour. भूरा.
grievance —(ग्रीवैन्स) n. distress. injustice, hardship. दुख, अन्याय.
grip —(ग्रीप) v. t. to seize. पकड़ना
groaning —(ग्रोनिंग) n. deep sigh. विलाप.
groundnut —(ग्राउण्डनट) n. peanut. मूंगफली.
growth —(ग्रोथ) n. development. बढ़ती, उन्नति.
grumble —(ग्रम्बल) v. i. to murmur, to complain. भुनभुनाना.
guarantee —(गैरण्टी) n. a pledge. surety. बन्धक, जमानत.
guidance —(गाइडैन्स) n. direction, act of guiding. मार्ग प्रदर्शन.
gun —(गन) n. cannon. rifle, revolver etc. तोप, बन्दूक, पिस्तौल आदि.
gunsmith —(गनस्मिथ) n. one who makes gun. बन्दूक बनाने वाला.
gust —(गस्ट) n. a sudden blast of wind. प्रचण्ड वायु.
gutter —(गटर) n. a passage made for running water. नाली.
guy —(गाई) n. a rope to hold tents. रस्सी.
gymkhana —(जीमखाना) n. place for display of athletics. खेल-कूद का स्थान.

gymnastics —(जिमनैस्टिक) n. muscular, exercises. कसरत, व्यायाम.

[L1543]**H**

habitual —(हैबीचुअल) adj. customary, acquired by habit. अभ्यस्त, व्यावहारिक.

hale —(हेल) adj. healthy. stout. बलवान, शक्तिवान, स्वस्थ.

half —**hearted** —(हाफ़ हार्टेड) adj. indifferent. wanting in zeal. उदास, उत्साहहीन.

halt —(हाल्ट) v. t. to stop. रूकना, ठहरना; n. stopping. विश्राम, पड़ाव.

handful —(हैण्डफुल) n. quantity that fills the hand. हाथ भर, मुट्ठी भर.

handicap —(हैण्डीकैप) v. t. to place at a disadvantage. असुविधा

handicraft —(हैण्डीक्राफ़्ट) n. manual occupation. शिल्प-व्यवसाय.

handkerchief —(हैंकरचीफ़) n. a square cloth for wiping hands and face. रूमाल.

haphazard —(हैपहैज़र्ड) n. mere chance. अवसर मौका; adj. casual. आकस्मिक; adv. casually. अनियमित रूप से.

happiness —(हैपीनेस) n. the state of being happy, goodluck. आनन्द, सुख, सौभाग्य.

harmful —(हार्मफुल) adj. injurious. हानिप्रद, हानिकारक.

haste —(हेस्ट) n. hurry. rash, speed. वेग, जल्दी.

hasten —(हेस्न) v. t. to cause, to make haste. जल्दी करना.

hasty —(हेस्टी) adj. speedy. उतावला.

hateable —(हेटएबल) adj. detestable. घृणा करने योग्य.

hatred —(हेट्रेड) n. dislike. घृणा.

haughty —(हॉटी) adj. proud, arrogant. घमण्डी.

havoc —(हैवक) n. destruction. विनाश.

headache —(हैडेक) n. a pain in the head. सरदर्द.

heading —(हैडिंग) n. title. शीर्षक.

healthy —(हेल्थी) adj. in state of good health. स्वस्थ.

hearsay —(हियरसे) n. rumour. चर्चा, अफ़वाह

heartache —(हार्टेक) n. mental anguish. मानसिक व्यथा.

hearty —(हार्टी) adj. genial, sincere. स्नेहपूर्ण.

hectogram —(हेक्टोग्राम) n. a weight of 100 grams. 100ग्राम की तौल.

heir —(एअर) n. one who inherits other's property. उत्तराधिकारी, वारिस.

helpless —(हेल्पलेस) adj. wanting help. अभागा.

hence —(हेन्स) adv. therefore. from here. अत:, यहां से.

herd —(हर्ड) n. number of beasts assembled together. जानवरों का झुंड, रेवड़.

herdsman —(हर्ड्समैन) n. one who tends a herd. चरवाहा.

hereabout —(हियरअबाउट) adv. in this neighbourhood. इसी के आस पास.

hereafter —(हियरआफ़्टर) adv. in the future. भविष्य में.

heredity —(हेरीडिटी) n. handing of qualities to offspring. वंशगत या जन्मगत गुण.

hereunder —(हियरअंडर) adv. underneath this. इसके नीचे.

hereupon —(हियरअपॉन) adv. on this. इस पर.

herewith —(हियरविद) adv. with this. इसके साथ.

heritage —(हेरीटेज) n. inheritance. बपौती.

hero —(हीरो) n. the chief person in a play, brave. बहादुर, बलवान, नायक.

heroine —(हिरोइन) n. a female hero, supremely courageous. वीरांगना.

hesitation —(हैज़ीटेशन) n. act of hesitating. हिचकिचाहट.

hiatus —(हायटस) n. a break between two vowels. दो स्वर में भेद.

highway —(हाई वे) n. a road. सड़क.

himself —(हिमसेल्फ़) pron. reflexive form of him.

hinder —(हिण्डर) v. t. to check. to prevent, to retard. रोकना.

hindrance —(हिण्ड्रैंस) n. obstruction. रूकावट.

historian —(हिस्टोरियन) n. writer of history. इतिहासकार.

historical —(हिस्टोरिकल) adj. belonging to past, pertaining to history. ऐतिहासिक.

hitherto —(हिदरटू) adv. till now. अब तक.

hoarse —(होर्स) adj. harsh. कठोर.

hobby —(हॉबी) n. an interest, a favourite pursuit. शौक.

hoist —(होइस्ट) v. t. to lift, to raise. उठाना, फहराना. (Flag hoisting ceremony—झंडा अभिवादन.) **holiday** —(हॉलीडे) n. a festival, a day of recreation. छुट्टी.

hollow —(हॉलो) adj. false, empty, insincere. शून्य.

homeopath —(होमियोपैथ) n. a system of curing disease by minute drugs, one who use this system. होमियोपैथिक चिकित्सक.

homeopathy —(होमियोपैथी) n. Hahneman's system of curing disease by minute doses of drugs. होमियोपैथिक चिकित्सा.

honesty —(ऑनेस्टी) n. uprightness, sincerity. इमानदारी.

honeymoon —(हनीमून) n. the wedding holiday. विवाह के उपरान्त आनन्द करने का समय.

honorarium —(ऑनरेरीयम) n. a fee paid for professional services. मानदेय.

honorary —(ऑनरेरी) adj. holding office without pay. अवैतनिक.

honour —(ऑनर) n. dignity, pride. आदर, सम्मान.

honourable —(ऑनरेबल) adj. worthy of honour. माननीय, आदरणीय.

horizon —(होराइज़न) n. limit, a line where sky and earth seem to touch. क्षितिज.

horrible —(हॉरीब्ल) adj. fearful. भयानक.

horror —(हॉरर) n. fear, dislike. भय.

horticulture —(हॉटीकल्चर) n. gardening. बागवानी.

hosier —(होज़ियर) n. one who deals in hosiery. मोजे, बनियाईन आदि का व्यापारी.

hospitality —(हॉस्पिटैलिटी) n. kindness to guest. अतिथि-सत्कार.

host —(होस्ट) n. a person who entertains a guest, an innkeeper. मेहमानदारी करने वाला, सराय या होटल का मालिक.

hostel —(होस्टल) n. a residence for students. छात्रावास.

hostile —(होस्टाइल) adj. warlike, rude. वैरी.

hostility —(होस्टिलिटी) n. enmity. शत्रुता.

hour —(आवर) n. a period of sixty minutes. एक घंटा.

household —(हाउसहोल्ड) n. family, of family. कुटुम्ब.

housemaid —(हाउसमेड) n. a female servant. दासी, नौकरानी.

housewife —(हाउस-वाईफ़) n. mistress. गृहस्वामिनी.

however —(हाउएवर) adv. in whatever manner. तो भी.

howsoever —(हाउसोएवर) adv. although. यद्यपि.

human —(ह्यूमन) adj. pertaining to mankind. मानव.

humane —(ह्यूमेन) adj. kind. दयालु, मनुष्यतापूर्ण.

humanity —(ह्यूमैनिटी) n. human nature. मनुष्यत्व.

humbly —(हम्बली) adv. in a humble manner. नम्रता से.

humiliate —(ह्यूमीलिएट) v. t. to humble. निरादर करना, नीचा दिखाना.

humility —(ह्यूमीलिटी) n. humbleness. विनय.

humour —(ह्यूमर) n. wit, state of mind, inclination. हास, मनोदशा, झुकाव.

humorist —(ह्यूमरिस्ट) n. a man of playful fancy. मज़ाकिया.

hungry —(हंग्री) adj. suffering from hunger. भूख से पीड़ित.

hunter —(हण्टर) n. one who hunts. शिकारी.

hurriedly —(हरीडली) adv. in haste. जल्दी में.

hygiene —(हाईजीन) n. the science of health. स्वास्थ्य विज्ञान.

hygienic —(हाइजिनिक) adj. pertaining to health. स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी.

hygrometer —(हाइग्रोमीटर) n. an instrument for measuring moisture. आर्द्रता मापक यन्त्र.

hymn —(हिम) n. a song in praise of God. प्रार्थना के गीत, प्रार्थना.

hymnal —(हिमल) n. a hymnbook. प्रार्थना के गीतों की पुस्तक.

hypercritic —(**al**)—(हाइपर-क्रिटिक) adj. over critical. छिद्रान्वेषी, अत्यालोचनात्मक.

hypnotism —(हिप्नोटिज्म) n. artificially induced sleep. सम्मोहन.

hysteria —(हिस्टीरिया) n. a nervous affection accompanied with a convulsive fit. मूर्छा.

hysterical —(हिस्टेरिकल) adj. pertaining to hysteria. मूर्छा रोग सम्बन्धी.

[L1640]**I ibid** —(इबिड) adv. in the same place. उसी स्थान पर.

icon —(आइकॉन) n. statue image of a saint. प्रतिभा, मूर्ति.

ideal —(आइडिअल) n . standard of perfection. आदर्श; adj. perfect, faultless. पूर्ण, दोषरहित.

idealist —(आइडियलिस्ट) n . an upholder of idealism. आदर्शवादी.

identity —(आइडेण्टिटी) n. sameness. समानता.

idiom —(इडियम) n. peculiar but customary way of expression, मुहावरा.

idle —(आइडिल) adj. indolent, useless. बेकार, आलसी.

idler —(आइडलर) n. one who observes idleness. आलसी.

idol —(आइडल) n . an image, statue प्रतिमा.

idolator —(आइडोलेटर) n . one who worships idols. मूर्ति-पूजक.

if —(इफ़) conj. whether. यदि.

igneous —(इगनियस) adj. pertaining to fire, produce by fire. अग्नि सम्बन्धी.

ignitable —(इगनाइटेबल) adj. able to be ignited. जलाने योग्य.

ignite —(इगनाइट) v. t. & i. to set on fire. आग लगाना.

ignoble —(इग्नोबल).adj. mean, of low birth, dishonourable. नीच, तुच्छ.

ignorance —(इग्नोरैंस) n. want of knowledge, darkness. अज्ञानता.

ill —(इल) adj. evil, bad, sick. बुरा, बीमार, अस्वस्थ.

illegal —(इल्लीगल) adj. contrary to law. न्याय विरूद्ध, अवैध.

illegible —(इल्लेजिबल) adj. indistinct. अस्पष्ट.

illustrative —(इलस्ट्रेटिव) adj. serving as illustration. उदाहरण.

imagination —(इमैजीनेशन) n. idea, dream. कल्पना.

imbibe —(इम्बाइब) v. t. to absorb, to drink in. पीना, सोखना.

imitable —(इमिटेबल) adj. which can be imitated. अनुकरण योग्य.

imitate —(इमिटेट) v. t. to copy, to mimic. चिढ़ाना, नकल करना.

imitator —(इमीटेटर) n. one who imitates. अनुकरण या नकल करने वाला.

illusion —(इल्यूज़न) n. deception. माया, भ्रम.

illiteracy —(इल्लिटरेसी) n. want of knowledge, want of education. निरक्षरता.

illiterate —(इल्लिटरेट) adj. unable to read and write. निरक्षर.

illness —(इलनेस) n. bad health, disease. रोग.

illogical —(इल्लॉजिकल) adj. without reason. तर्कहीन.

immobile —(इम्मोबाइल) adj. unremovable. अचल.

immature —(इम्मैच्योर) adj. imperfect, not mature. अपूर्ण, कच्चा.

immeasurable —(इम्मेज़रेबल) adj. great, boundless. अपरिमित, अथाह.

immorality —(इम्मौरेलिटी) n. viciousness. sin. पाप, अधर्म.

immovable —(इम्मूवेबल) adj. which cannot move, fixed. अचल.

immune —(इम्यून) adj. free from obligation, free. मुक्त, उपकार रहित, सुरक्षित.

impassable —(इम्पासबल) adj. that cannot be penetrated into. अगम्य

impatience —(इम्पेशन्स) n. intolerance. अधीरता.

impatient —(इम्पेशण्ट) adj. restless. अधीर.

impeach —(इम्पीच) v. t. to accuse, to charge with crime. दोषी ठहराना.

imperfect —(इम्परफेक्ट) adj. defective, incomplete. अपूर्ण.

imperil —(इम्पेरिल) v. t. to bring into danger. विपदा में डालना, मुश्किल में डालना.

imperishable —(इम्पेरिशेबिल) adj. indestructible. अनश्वर, अविनाशी.

impiety —(इम्पाइटी) n. ungodliness. sin. अर्धम, पाप.

impolite —(इम्पोलाइट) adj. not civil, rude. अशिष्ट.

import —(इम्पोर्ट) v. t. to bring into country. विदेशी माल लेना, आयात.

impose —(इम्पोज़) v. t. to influence, to deceive. लगाना, प्रभाव डालना, धोखा देना.

imposture —(इम्पॉस्चर) n. deceit, fraud. छल, कपट.

impostor —(इम्पॉस्टर) n. a false character, a swindler. धोखेबाज, कपटी.

impotence —(इम्पोटेन्स) n. weakness. नामर्दी, शक्तिहीनता.

impracticable —(इम्प्रैक्टिकेबल) adj. not able to be done. असाध्य

impression —(इम्प्रेशन) n. an effect produced. मन पर पड़ा हुआ प्रभाव.

improper —(इम्प्रॉपर) adj. incorrect. अनुचित.

improvable —(इम्प्रूवेब्ल) adj. that can be improved. सुधारने योग्य.

improvement —(इम्प्रूवमेण्ट.) n. progress. उन्नति, सुधार.

impure —(इम्प्योर) adj. unchaste. अपवित्र
in —(इन) prep. into, against, towards. में या विपरीत.
inability —(इनएबिलिटी) n. incapacity. अयोग्यता, कमी.
inaccurate —(इनऐक्यूवरेट) adj. erroneous. अशुद्ध.
inactive —(इनऐक्टिव) adj. not active. आलसी
inapplicable —(इनऐप्लीकेब्ल) adj. irrelevant. अनुपयुक्त, अनुचित.
inattentive —(इनअटेण्टिव) adj. paying no heed. ध्यान न देने वाला.
inaudible —(इनऑडीबल) adj. that cannot be heard. जो सुना न जा सके.
inauguration —(इनऑग्युरेशन) n. formal ceremony, beginning. उद्घाटन, प्रतिष्ठापन.
inauspicious —(इनऑसपिशस) adj. unlucky, unfortunate. अशुभ.
incalculable —(इनकैलकुलेब्ल) adj. uncertain. अनिश्चित.
incapable —(इनकेपिबल) adj. not capable. अयोग्य.
incapacity —(इनकैपेसिटी) n. inability. अयोग्यता
incarnation —(इनकार्नेशन) n. embodiment in human form. अवतार
inch —(इंच) n. a unit of measure. 1, 12 foot, an island. एक इंच, टापू.
incident —(इन्सीडेण्ट) n. an occurrence. घटना.
include —(इन्क्ल्यूड) v. t. to contain, to regain. समावेश करना.
incoherent —(इन्कोहरेण्ट) adj. disconnected. अस्पष्ट.
incoming —(इनकमिंग) adj. coming in. आने वाले.
incommode —(इनकमोड) v. t. to annoy, to molest. दिक करना.
incomparable —(इनकम्पेरेबल) adj. matchless. अद्वितीय, अनुपम.
incompetent —(इनकॉम्पीटेण्ट) adj. not competent. अप्रवीण.
incomplete —(इनकम्प्लीट) adj. imperfect. अधूरा.
incontestable —(इनकॉन्टेन्टीब्ल) adj. indisputable. निर्विवाद.
inconvenient —(इन्कनवीनियण्ट) adj. unsuitable. अयोग्य.
incorrect —(इन्करेक्ट) adj. wrong. ग़लत.
incorrigible —(इन्कॉरीजिबल) adj. depraved, impossible to rectify. असाध्य.
incorruptible —(इनकरप्टिबल) adj. that cannot decay. अक्षय।

incredible —(इनक्रेडिबल) adj. hard to believe. अविश्वसनीय.

increment —(इन्क्रिमेण्ट) n. profit. increase. लाभ, उन्नति.

incurable —(इन्क्योरेब्ल) adj. that cannot be cured. असाध्य.

indecency —(इंडिसेंसी) n. immodesty. निर्लज्जता, धृष्टता.

indeed —(इनडीड) adv. really. वास्तव में.

index —(इण्डैक्स) n. & v. i. alphabetical list of names. Places etc संकेत-सूची.

indication —(इण्डिकेशन) n. hint. इशारा, संकेत.

indicator —(इण्डिकेटर) n. a guide. निर्देशक.

indifference —(इण्डिफ्रेन्स.) n. absence of interest. उदासीनता, उपेक्षा, लापरवाही.

indifferent —(इण्डिफ़ेरेण्ट) adj. neutral. उदासीन.

indigestion —(इण्डाइजेशन) n. want of proper digestion. मन्दाग्नि, अपच.

indirectly —(इनडाइरेक्टली) adv. अप्रत्यक्ष रूप से.

individual —(इण्डीविजुअल) n. special, person, peculiar, separate. व्यक्तिगत.

induct —(इण्डक्ट) v. t. to introduce. प्रारम्भ करना.

indulgence —(इण्डलजेन्स) n. gratification, tolerance. भोग, सहनशीलता.

industrial —(इण्डस्ट्रियल) adj. pertaining to industry. वाणिज्य सम्बन्धी.

industrious —(इण्डस्ट्रियस) adj. active, smart, diligent. परिश्रमी.

inequity —(इनइकुईटी) n. injustice. अन्याय.

inertia —(इनअर्शिया). n inactivity. निश्चलता.

inevitable —(इनएविटेबल) adj. unavoidable. अनिवार्य.

inferiority —(इनफीरिऔरिटी) the state of being inferior, हीनता, घटियापन.

infinite —(इनफिनिट) adj. endless. अनंत.

infirmity —(इन्फर्मिटी) n. weakness. कमज़ोरी.

inflammation —(इन्फ़्लैमेशन) n. a swelling on a part of body. सूजन.

inflammatory —(इन्फ़्लैमेटरी) adj. Lending to inflame or excite. दाहक.

inflate —(इनफ़्लेट) v. t. to increase, to blow up with air or gas. फूलना, बढ़ाना, हवा या गैस भरना.

infringement —(इन्फ्रिजमेण्ट) n. violation. उल्लंघन करना,

influence —(इन्फ्लुएन्स) n. the power of producing influence. प्रभाव.

influenza —(इन्फ़्लुएन्जा) n. a fever with severe cold. एक प्रकार का ज्वर.

informal —(इन्फ़ॉर्मल) adj. not in due form. अनियमित.

inhabitant —(इन्हैबीटैण्ट) n. a. dweller. निवासी.

inhale —(इन्हेल) v. t. to breathe. स्वास लेना.

inheritance —(इन्हेरिटैन्स) n. which is inherited. पैतृक सम्पत्ति.

inhuman —(इन्ह्यूमन) adj. brutal, barbarous. निर्दयी.

initial —(इनीशियल) adj. & n. primary, of the beginning. आदि का.

initiate —(इनीशिएट्) v. t. to introduce, to begin. प्रारम्भ. करना.

initiative —(इनीशिएटिव) n. self reliance, taking the first step. आत्मबल, पहला कदम.

injection —(इन्जेक्शन) n. act of injecting. सुई लगाने की विधि.

injury —(इन्जरी) n. harm, damage. नुकसान, चोट.

inland —(इनलैण्ड) adj. &. adv. of the country. देश के भीतर.

inmost —(इनमोस्ट) adj. most inward. सबसे भीतर.

inn —(इन) n. a shelter, a lodging for travellers. सराय.

innocence —(इनोसेन्स) n. simplicity, harmlessness. भोलापन, निर्दोषता.

innumerable —(इनन्यूमरेब्ल) adj. numberless. असंख्य.

inodorous —(इनओडोरस) adj. odourless. सुगन्धहीन.

inquire —(इन्क्वायरी) v. t. & i. to ask, to make an investigation. पूछ-ताछ करना, जांच करना.

inquiry —(इन्क्वायरी) n. investigation. जांच.

inquisition —(इनक्वीजीशन) n. a search, investigation. तलाशी.

inquisitive —(इनक्वीजीटिव) adj. inquiring. जिज्ञासु.

insanity —(इनसैनिटी) n. madness. पागलपन

inscription (इन्सक्रिप्शन) n. engraving. खुदा हुआ, नक्काशी किया हुआ.

inseparable —(इन्सेपेरेबल) adj. that cannot be separated न पृथक होने वाला.

insert —(इन्सर्ट) v. t. to place in. to introduce, लिखना, दर्ज करना.

insertion —(इनसर्शन) n. act of inserting. निवेश, प्रवेशन.

inside —(इनसाइड) n. , adj. & adv. within. भीतर की तरफ

insight —(इनसाइट) n. power of understanding through knowledge, परिज्ञान.

insistence —(इनसिसटेण्स) n. the act of insisting on. हठ, आग्रह.

insoluble —(इन्सॉल्यूबल) adj. that cannot be dissolved in fluid. जो घुल न सके.

insolvent —(इन्सॉलवेण्ट) adj. bankrupt. दिवालिया.

insomnia —(इनसॉमनिया) n. sleeplessness. अनिद्रा का रोग.

inspector —(इन्सपेक्टर) n. one who inspects, निरीक्षक.

inspiration —(इन्सपीरेशन) n. inhaling of air, divine influence. प्रोत्साहन, दैवी प्ररेणा.

instability —(इन्सटेबिलिटी) n. fickleness. चंचलता, अस्थिरता.

instance —(इन्सटैन्स) n. an example, suggestion. सुझाव, उदाहरण.

instant —(इन्सटैण्ट) adj. urgent immediate. तुरन्त.

instigate —(इन्सटीगेट) v. t. to urge on. to stimulate. बहकाना, उकसाना.

institute —(इन्सटीट्यूट) v. t. to set up. to establish. नींव डालना, प्रारम्भ करना.

instructor —(इन्स्ट्रक्टर) n. a teacher. शिक्षक.

insufficient —(इनसफीशेण्ट) adj. inadequate. अपर्याप्त.

insult —(इनसल्ट) n. dishonour. अपमान, अनादर.

insuperable —(इन्सुपरेबल) adj. not able to be overcome. अजेय.

insurance —(इन्श्योरेंस) a. contract, to indemnify insured things against loss. बीमा.

insure —(इनश्योर) v. t. to guarantee. निश्चित करना, बीमा करना.

integrity —(इनटेग्रिटी) n. honesty, सचाई, ईमानदारी.

intelligent —(इन्टेलीजेण्ट) adj. quick to learn. बुद्धिमान.

intelligible —(इण्टेलिजिबल) adj. comprehensible. समझ में आने योग्य, सुबोध, जो समझ में आ सकें.

intend —(इण्टैण्ड) v. t. to mean, to purpose. इच्छा करना.

intense —(इण्टेन्स) adj. extreme, eager, तीव्र, अत्यधिक.

interchange —(इण्टरचेंज) v. t. to change with another. आपस में बदलना.

interesting —(इण्टरेस्टिंग) adj. exciting interest. सुहावना, आकर्षक.

interfere —(इण्टरफियर) v. i. to obstruct. बाधा डालना.

interference —(इण्टरफियरेंस) n. obstruction. रुकावट, बाधा

interim —(इण्टेरिम) n. of the time, in between. मध्य का समय adj. temporary. अस्थायी, कुछ समय का.

interlink —(इण्टरलिंक) v. t. to connect together. कड़ियों को जोड़ना, आपस में मिलाना.

interlock —(इण्टरलॉक) v. t. to lock together. आपस में मिलाना.

intermediary —(इण्टरमीडियरी) n. & adj. mediator. मध्यस्थ.

intermingle —(इण्टरमिंगल) v. t. & i. to mix together. मिलाना.

intermission —(इण्टरमिशन) n. an interval. अवकाश.

intern —(इण्टर्न) v. t. to confine within the limits of a place. नज़रबंद करना.

internal —(इण्टरनल) adj. inward. अंदर का, भीतरी: am. external.

interpolation —(इण्टरपोलेशन) n. insertion of something new, not genuine. क्षेपक, मिथ्यारोपण, अनधिकृत प्रवेश.

interpreter —(इण्टरप्रिटर) n. one who interprets. व्याख्या कर्त्ता.

interrupt —(इण्टर्प्ट) v. t. to obstruct. बाधा डालना, रोकना.

interval —(इण्टरवैल) a. halt, stop. विराम.

intervention —(इण्टरवेन्शन) n. interference. हस्तक्षेप.

interview —(इण्टरव्यू) n. conference. a formal meeting for talk. भेंट, मुलाकात.

intestine —(इण्टेस्टाइन) n. the lower part of the digestive system. आंत.

intimacy —(इण्टीमेसी) n. a close familiarity. अति निकट संसर्ग.

intimate —(इण्टीमेट) adj. familiar. घनिष्ट.

intimation —(इण्टिमेशन) n. hint सूचना.

intimidate —(इण्टिमिडेट) v. t. . to terrify. डराना.

into —(इण्टू) prep. entrance within a thing. भीतर में.

intolerable —(इण्टॉलरेबल) adj. not to be endured. असह.

intonation —(इण्टोनेशन) n. the production of a musical tone. स्वरयुक्त पाठ, स्वरोत्पादन.

intoxication —(इण्टॉक्सीकेशन) n. state of being intoxicated. नशा.

intricacy —(इण्ट्रिकेसी) n. complication. गहनता.

intrigue —(इण्ट्रीग) v. t. to plot secretly, मंत्रणा करना, षड्यन्त्र.

introduction —(इण्ट्रोडक्शन) n. a formal presentation. परिचय.

intrude —(इण्ट्रूड) v. t. to enter uninvited. अनाधिकार प्रवेश करना, बिना बुलाये पहुंचना.

intuition —(इण्टुइशन) n. insight, instructive knowledge. सहज ज्ञान.

invalid —(इनवैलिड) n. ill, weak. बीमार, शक्तिहीन.

invariable —(इनवेरिएब्ल) adj. constant, without change. अपरिवर्तनीय.

invasion —(इनवेजन) n. an attack, encroachment. चढ़ाई, आक्रमण.

invention —(इन्वेन्शन) n. discovery. अन्वेषण.

investigate —(इन्वैस्टिगेट) v. t. to search out carefully. अनुसंधान करना, छान-बीन करना.

invigorate —(इनवीगोरेट) v. t. to put life. जीवनदान देना, शक्ति प्रदान करना.

invincible —(इनविनसिबल) adj. unconquerable. अजेय.

invisible —(इनविज़ीबल) adj. that cannot be seen, जिसे देखा न जा सके, अदृश्य.

invitation —(इनविटेशन) n. solicitation. बुलवाना.

invite —(इनवाइट) v. t. to request to come and participate. निमंत्रण देना, बुलाना.

invocation —(इनवोकेशन) n. the act of calling in prayer. प्रार्थना.

invoke —(इनवोक) v. t. to beg for protection. रक्षा के हेतु प्रार्थना.

inwardly —(इनवर्डली) adv. in the mind. मन में.

irk —(इर्क) v. t. to trouble, to annoy. तंग करना, परेशान करना.

iron —(आयरन) n. name of a metal. लोहा.

irony —(आयरनी) n. satire, state of affairs which is the opposite of what was desired. व्यंग.

irrecoverable —(इर्रिकवरेबल) adj. that cannot be recovered. अप्राप्य.

irreducible —(इर्रिड्यूसेबल) adj. not able to be lessened. न कम करने योग्य.

irregular —(इर्रेगुलर) adj. uneven. टेढ़ा-मेढ़ा.

irregularity —(इर्रेगुलैरिटी) n. the quality of being irregular. अनियमता, विषमता.

irrelevant —(इर्रेलेवेण्ट) adj. not to the point. असंगत.

irreparable —(इर्रिपेरेब्ल) adj. not able to be rectified. जिसका सुधार न हो सके.

irritable —(इर्रिटेब्ल) adj. easily angered. कुपित होने वाला.

irritate —(इरिटेट) v. t. to annoy, to make angry. क्रुद्ध करना, चिढ़ाना.

irritation —(इर्रिटेशन) n. vexation. सन्ताप, उत्तेजना.

island —(आईलैंड) n. land surrounded by water on all sides. द्वीप, टापू.

isle —(आइल) n. island. द्वीप.

islet —(आइलेट) n. a small island. छोटा द्वीप.

J

jabber —(जैबर) v. t. to chatter rapidly. तेज़ी से बोलना.

jack — (जैक) n. knave at card, flag, machine for lifting weights. ताश का गुलाम, झंडा, बोझ उठाने का यंत्र, जैक.

jackal —(जैकॉल) n. an animal related to dog. गीदड़.

jailer —(जेलर) n. the keeper of a prison. बन्दी गृह का मालिक.

jam —(जैम) n. fruit preserved by boiling with sugar. मुरब्बा, मीठा अचार.

jaundice —(जौडिंस) n. a kind of disease with yellowness of eyes and skin. पाण्डु रोग, पीलिया.

jealousy —(जैलसी) n. suspiciousness. डाह, ईर्ष्या.

jester —(जेस्टर) n. one who jests. मज़ाकिया.

jet black —(जेट ब्लैक) n. ivory black. चमकता हुआ काला रंग.

jew —(जिउ) n. a person of the Hebrew race. यहूदी.

jewel —(ज्वेल) n. a precious stone. रत्न, मणि.

jewellery —(ज्वेलरी) n. jewels in general, ornaments. जवाहरात, ज़ेवर.

journal —(जर्नल) n. a diary, a newspaper, a register. पत्र, बही खाता, रोजनामचा.

journalist —(जर्नलिस्ट) n. one who writes for or conducts a newspaper or magazine. पत्रकार.

journey —(जर्नी) n. & v. t. a travel. यात्रा.

joyously —(ज्वॉयसली) adv. merrily. आनन्द से.

judicial —(जूडीशिंयल) adj. pertaining to justice, impartial. न्याय सम्बन्धी, न्यायकारी, पक्षपात रहित.

juice —(जूस) n. the fluid part of the fruit. रस, अर्क.

juncture —(जंक्चर) n. a critical time. उचित बेला या समय.

juniority —(जूनिऑरिटी) n. the state of being junior. छोटापन.

juryman — (जूरीमैन). n. a member of jury. पंचों में से एक.

justice —(जस्टिस) n. equity, judge. न्याय, जज.

justify —(जस्टिफ़ाई) v. t. to prove to be just or right. उचित ठहराना.

juvenile — (जुवेनाइल) adj. youthful, childish. बचकाना.

juvenility — (जुवेनिलिटी) n. youthfulness. लड़कपन.

juxtaposition — (जक्सटापोजीशन) n . nearness, placing side by side. निकटता, समीपता.

K

kerchief —(करचिफ़) n. a square piece of cloth. रूमाल.

kernel —(कर्नल) n. inner part of nut, essential part. गोले की गिरी, मुख्य भाग.

kerosene — (किरोसीन) n. refined petroléum. मिट्टी का तेल.

kindergarten — (किंडरगार्टेन) n. an infant school. एक बच्चों का स्कूल.

kindle —(किण्डल) v. t. to inflame, to set on fire. जलाना, उत्तेजित करना.

kindly — (काइण्डली) adj. & adv. with kindness. दयालुता से.

kinship —(किनशिप) n. telationship. रिश्ता, नाता.

kiss —(किस) v. t. to touch with lips. प्यार करना, चूमना, पुचकारना.

kitchen —(किचेन) n. a place where cooking is done. रसोईघर.

knit —(निट) v. t. to weave into a net, to unite. बुनना.

knock —(नॉक) v. t. & i. to push, to clash, to strike. धक्का देना, प्रहार करना.

knot —(नॉट) n. a tie, a cluster. गांठ.

knowingly —(नोइंगली) adv. consciously. सोच-समझ कर.

knowledge —(नॉलिज) n. learning. ज्ञान, विद्या.

kodak —(कोडैक) n. a small camera. एक छोटा कैमरा.

kopeck —(कोपेक) n. a Russian coin. रूसी सिक्का.

kraal —(क्राल) n. an enclosure for cattle. बाड़ा.

L

laboratory —(लैबोरेट्री) n. place for experiments. प्रयोगशाला.

laborious —(लेबोरियस) adj. industrious. परिश्रमी.

labour —(लेबर) n. to work hard, to toil, to strive, work. परिश्रम, परिश्रम करना, काम.

laboured —(लेबर्ड) adj. unnatural. अस्वाभाविक.

lack —(लैक) v. i. & t. to be in need of, want. कमी.

lamb — (लैम) n. young of sheep. मेमना.

lame —(लेम) adj. imperfect. v. t. disabled in one or two limbs. लंगड़ा.

lament —(लैमेण्ट) v. i. to feel sorry. विलाप करना.

lamentation —(लैमेनटेशन) n. expression of sorrow; विलाप.

landlord — (लैण्डलॉर्ड) n. owner of land. जमींदार.

landscape —(लैण्डस्केप) n. a part of land seen from a point. नयनगोचर दृश्य.

lane —(लेन) n. a street. संकरी गली.

language —(लैंगुएज) n. faculty of human speech or of a nation. भाषा.

lantern —(लैण्टर्न) n. case for holding or carrying light. लालटेन.

largely —(लार्जली) adv. to a great extent. बढ़कर.

lastly —(लास्टली) adj. in the end. अंत में.

latrine —(लेट्रीन) n. toilet lavatory. टट्टी, सण्डास.

laudable — (लॉडेब्ल) adj. worthy of praise. सराहने योग्य.

laughable — (लाफ़ेबल) adj. funny, ridiculous. हंसने योग्य.

lavatory —(लैवेटरी) n. a place for washing hand and face. हाथ मुंह धोने का स्थान.

lavish —(लैविश) adj. extravagant, abundant. v. t. ज्यादती, अधिकता, खर्चीला.

lawful —(लॉफुल) adj. just, rightful. शास्त्रोक्त.

lawless —(लॉलेस) adj. against law, disobedient. न्यायविरूद्ध.

lawyer —(लॉइयर) n. pleader, a man of legal profession. वकील.

leap —(लीप) n. spring, jump, bound. v. i. उछलना, कूदना.

leavings —(लीविंग्स) n. plural. remaining portion. शेष भाग, बचा हुआ भाग.

lecture —(लेक्चर) n. a formal reproof, v. t. a discourse. उपदेश, व्याख्यान.

ledger —(लेजर) n. a book of accounts. बहीखाता.

legacy —(लेगसी) n. the money which is left by will. वसीयत द्वारा छोड़ा गया धन.

legal —(लीगल) adj. just, lawful. विधिपूर्ण.

legible —(लेजिबल) adj. clear. readable. स्वच्छ.

leisure —(लीज़र) n. a spare time. अवकाश.

length —(लेन्थ) n. the distance between two points, extension. लम्बाई.

lengthy —(लेन्थी) adj. long लम्बा.

leniency —(लीनियन्सी) n. mildness. कोमलता.

lenient —(लीनियण्ट) adj. mild, gentic. नम्र.

lessen —(लेसेन) v. t. & i. to diminish, to decrease. कम करना या होना.

lesson —(लेसन) n. instruction, something to be learnt. v. t. an example, punishment. पाठ, शिक्षा.

let —(लेट) v. t. aux. (verb) to allow, to permit, to give leave. आज्ञा देना.

liability —(लायबिलिटी) n. responsibility. उत्तरदायित्व.

liable — (लायबल) adj. accountable, responsible, probable. उत्तरदायी, जिम्मेदार.

liberal —(लिबरल) adj. kind, unselfish. उदार.

liberate —(लिबरेट) v. t. to set free. मुक्त करना.

liberty — (लिबर्टी) n . freedom, right to do as one likes. आज़ादी, स्वतंत्रता.

librarian —(लाइब्रेरियन) n. one who keeps a library. पुस्तकालय का मालिक.

licence —(लाइसेन्स) v. t. to authorize, to grant permission. आज्ञा देना, अधिकार देना; n. permission. आज्ञा.

licensee —(लाइसेन्सी) n. holder of licence. अधिकार पाने वाला.

lie —(लाइ) v. i. to utter falsehood. झूठ बोलना.

lifelong — (लाइफ़लांग) adv. during the life time. जीवन काल तक.

limited —(लिमिटेड) adj. bounded. सीमित.

linguist —(लिंगुइस्ट) n. one skilled in many languages. बहुत सी भाषाओ का ज्ञाता.

liquid —(लिक्विड) n. flowing. बहने वाली, द्रव.

liquidate —(लिक्विडेट) v. t. to settle, to clear up debts, to put an end. ऋण अदा करना, समाप्त करना.

liquidity — (लिक्विडिटी) n. state of being liquid. द्रवत्व.

liquor —(लिकर) n. a fermented drink. मदिरा.

listener —(लिस्नर) n. one who listens. सुनने वाला, ध्यान देने वाला.

literacy —(लिटरेसी) n. ability to read and write. पढ़ने लिखने की योग्यता.

livelihood — (लाइवलीहुड) n. means of living. जीविका.

liver —(लिवर) n. the gland by which the bile is secreted. यकृत, जिगर, कलेजा.

locality —(लोकैलिटी) n. position, situation. स्थान.

lockup —(लॉकअप) n. a place where prisoners are kept. बन्दीगृह.

loftiness — (लॉफ़्टीनेस) n. pride, height. अभिमान, ऊंचाई.

logic —(लॉजिक) n. art of reasoning. तर्क शास्त्र.

longevity —(लोंगेविटी) n. long life. दीर्घायु.

longitude — (लोंगीट्यूड) n. distance east or west from meridian. देशान्तर.

loom —(लूम) n. a machine for weaving. करघा; v. t. to appear indistinct. अस्पष्ट देख पड़ना.

lot —(लॉट) n. luck, choice. भाग्य.

lotus —(लोटस) n. water lily. कमल.

lovable — (लवेबल) adj. charming, worthy of love. प्यार करने योग्य.

love —(लव) n. affection. प्रेम; v. t. to like very much. प्यार करना.

loving —(लविंग) adj. affectionate. प्यारा.

low —(लो) adj. humble, not high. नम्र, नीचा.

loyalty —(लॉयल्टी) n. faithfulness. निष्ठा, भक्ति.

lubricant —(लुब्रीकैण्ट) n. substance used for lubricating. चिकना करने का पदार्थ.

lucidity — (ल्यूसिडिटी) n. brightness. स्पष्टता.

luminous —(ल्यूमिनस) adj. bright. clear. प्रकाशित, प्रकाश देने वाला.

lunatic —(लूनैटिक) n. a mad man. पागल मनुष्य.

lust —(लस्ट) n. eager desire. लोलुपता.

lustre —(लस्टर) n. brightness. आभा.

luxurious —(लक्जूरियस) adj. indulging in luxury. सुखभोगी.

luxury —(लक्ज़री) n. expensive living, easy going life. आन्नदमय जीवन.

M

machinery — (मशीनरी) n. machines in general. यन्त्रप्रणाली.

machinist —(मशीनिस्ट) n. a machine maker. यंत्र बनाने वाला.

mad — (मैड) adj. insane. पागल, दीवाना.

madam —(मैडम) n. a courteous form of address to a lady. श्रीमती.

magic —(मैजिक) n. witch craft conjuring. मंत्र, जादू.

magician —(मैजिशियन) n. one who knows magic. जादूगर.

mail —(मेल) n. bag of letters, post. डाक का थैला, डाक.

maintain —(मेनटेन) v. t. to affirm, to assert, to support. पालन, संभालना.

maintenance —(मेनटेनैन्स) n. keep in working order. अनुरक्षण.

majority —(मजारिटी) n. full of age, the greater number. वयस्कता, अधिक भाग.

maladministration —(मैलऐड-मिनिस्ट्रेशन) n. faulty administration. बुरा शासन.

malice —(मैलिस) n. spite, ill feeling. बुरी भावना, ईर्षा, द्वेष.

malpractice —(मैलप्रैक्टिस) n. improper conduct. कुचरित्र.

mammoth — (मैमथ) adj. huge, big, very large. बहुत बड़ा.

manage —(मैनेज) v. t. & i. to handle, to control, to contrive. व्यवस्था करना, इन्तजाम करना.

manageable —(मैनेजेबल) adj. fit for managing. प्रबन्ध करने योग्य.

management —(मैनेजमेण्ट) n. administration. प्रबन्ध.

manager —(मैनेजर) n. a controller. प्रबन्धक.

manhood —(मैनहुड) n. the state of being a man. मनुष्यत्व.

manifold —(मैनीफ़ोल्ड) adj. numerous and varied, complicated. पेचीदा.

mankind —(मैनकाइण्ड) n. the human species. मनुष्य जाति.

manoeuvre —(मैनूवर) n. skilful movement, stratagem. कुशलता, कपट प्रयोग v. t. to manage artfully. चतुराई से प्रबन्ध करना.

manual —(मैनुअल) n. a hand book. छोटी पुस्तक; adj. pertaining to or done with hand. हाथ का.

manufacture —(मैनुफ़ैक्चर) v. t. the making on a large scale. बड़ी मात्रा में शिल्प द्वारा बनाना.

marble —(मार्ब्ल) n. a very hard stone with polish, संगमरमर; v. t. to paint like marble. संगमरमर की भांति रंगना.

mariner —(मैरिनर) n. a sailor. नाविक.

mark —(मार्क) n. a sign of note, target. चिन्ह, लक्ष्य; v. t. to make a mark. देखना, अंक लगाना.

marking —(मार्किंग) n. impression with a mark. चिन्ह, छाप.

maroon —(मैरून) n. a brownish crimson colour. भूरा लाल रंग.

marriageable —(मैरिजेब्ल) adj. able to be married. शादी करने योग्य.

martyrdom —(मार्टिरडम) n. suffering of a martyr. बलिदान, कष्ट.

marvellous —(मार्वलस) adj. wonderful, astonishing. अद्भुत.

masculine —(मैस्कुलिन) adj. manly, of the male sex. पुरूष जाति का.

masque —(मास्क) n. an entertainment, consisting of pageantry, a masked person. ऐसा नाटक जिसमें पात्र मुख पर चेहरा लगाए रहते हैं, नकाबपोश.

massage — (मसाज) n. a form of cure by rubbing and kneading the body. मालिश.

massive —(मैसिव) adj. large, bulky, heavy. बड़ा, भारी.

masterpiece —(मास्टरपीस) n. greatest work in quality. सबसे बढ़िया काम.

match —(मैच) v. t. & i. to be of proper value, to correspond. अनुकूल होना, मुकाबिला करना.

mathematics —(मैथेमेटिक्स) n. the science of magnitude and number. गणित.

matinee —(मैटिनी) n. a show held in the day time. दिन का सिनेमा इत्यादि.

matrimony — (मैट्रीमनी) n. marriage. विवाह.

matron —(मेट्रन) n. married woman, female superintendent in a hospital, school etc. विवाहित स्त्री, अस्पताल, स्कूल आदि की अधीक्षिका.

matter —(मैटर) n. substance, cause of trouble, subject. पदार्थ, विषय, झगड़े का कारण, सार.

mature —(मैट्यूर) adj. ripe, fully developed. पूरा पक्का.

maturity —(मैच्यूरिटी) n. fully developed state. पक्कापन, बलिग होने की अवस्था.

mauve —(मोव) n. a bright purple dye. चमकीला बैंगनी रंग.

maxim —(मैक्सिम) n. a pro verb, maxim gun, a small gun. कहावत, बन्दूक.

maximum —(मैक्सिमम्) n. the greatest side or number. अधिक से अधिक.

meantime —(मीनटाइम) n. the interval between two given times.

मध्यकाल.

meanwhile —(मीनव्हाइल) n. in the interval. इसी बीच में.

measure —(मेज़र) n. that by which something is estimated. नाप.

measures —(मेज़रस) n. plural. means to an end. उपाय, तदबीर.

mechanic —(मेकैनिक) n. a skilled workman, an artisan. कारीगर; adj. relating to machines. यंत्र सम्बन्धी.

mechanical —(मेकैनिकल) adj. relating to machines, unintelligent. यंत्र सम्बन्धी.

medal —(मेडल) n. metal worked in the form of a coin. पदक.

meddle —(मेड्ल) v. i. to interfere. विघ्न डालना.

medium —(मीडियम) n. the middle, means, agent. मध्य, माध्यम.

melancholy —(मेलनकलि) n. & adj. sad feeling of dullness, gloomy. उदास, खिन्नता.

memorable —(मेमोरेबल) adj. able to be remembered. याद रखने योग्य.

memory —(मेमरी) n. remembrance. स्मरण शक्ति.

menses —(मेन्सेस) n. the monthly discharge from the uterus. स्त्रियों का मासिक धर्म, आर्तव.

mentality —(मेण्टैलिटी) n. intellectual power. मानसिक शक्ति.

mentionable —(मेन्शनेबल) adj. that may be mentioned. निर्देश या चर्चा करने योग्य.

menu —(मेनू) n. a list of dishes available. व्यन्जन सूची.

mercury —(मरकरी) n. a planet, quick silver. एक ग्रह, बुद्ध तारा, पारा.

merely —(मियरली) adv. simply. केवल.

merriment —(मेरीमेण्ट) n. enjoyment, mirth. विनोद.

mesmerize —(मेसमेराइज़) v. t. bring to a hypnotic state. सम्मोहित करना.

message —(मैसेज) n. communication. संदेश, समाचार, खबर.

messenger —(मैसेन्जर) n. one who brings message. दूत, समाचार लाने वाला.

metaphor —(मेटाफ़र) n. figurative use of words. रूपक, लक्षण.

mew —(म्यू) n. cry of cat, sound like cat; बिल्ली की आवाज़; v. i. to cry

like cat. बिल्ली की तरह रोना.

midnight —(मिडनाइट) n. the middle of night. मध्य रात्रि.

midst —(मिड्स्ट) n. the middle. मध्य; adv. in the middle. बीच में. (amidst—बीच में.).

midwife —(मिडवाइफ़) n. a woman who assists another in child birth. प्रसव के समय की सहायिका.

might —(माइट) n. power, strength. ताकत.

milky —(मिल्की) adj. of milk. दूध का.

miller —(मिलर) n. a worker of a mill. मिल में काम करने वाला.

million —(मिलियन) n. one thousand thousands. दस लाख.

millionaire —(मिलियनैर) n. a very rich person. धनी, लखपति.

minimize —(मिनिमाइज़) v. t. to reduce to the smallest amount. अति सूक्ष्म करना.

minimum —(मिनिमम) n. the least amount. अति सूक्ष्म परिमाण.

minor —(माइनर) adj. smaller, less, unimportant. छोटा, कम.

minority —(माइनॉरिटी) n. state of being a minor. नाबालिगी.

minute —(मिनिट) n . very small, trifling, of little consequence, exact. एक घंटे का साठवां अंश.

miracle —(मिरैकेल) n. a marvel, natural event. चमत्कार.

miraculous —(मिरैकुलस) adj. wonderful, surprising. विलक्षण.

mirror —(मिरर) n. a looking glass. दर्पण.

mirth —(मिर्थ) n . joy, glee. आनन्द, खुशी.

misguide —(मिसगाइड) v. t. to lead into error. भटकाना.

mislead —(मिसलीड) v. t. to lead, wrongly. भटकाना.

mismanage —(मिसमैनेज) v. t. to manage wrongly. कुप्रबन्ध करना.

misplace —(मिसप्लेस) v. t. to place in a wrong place. कुठौर में रखना.

misprint —(मिसप्रिंट) n. mistake in printing. छपाई की गल्ती; v. t. to print incorrectly. अशुद्ध छापना.

mistake —(मिसटेक) v. t. to understand wrongly. भ्रम में पड़ना.

misunderstanding —(मिसअंडरस्टैंडिंग). n. misconception. अशुद्ध विचार, गलत ख्याल, भ्रमपूर्ण धारणा.

mockery —(मॉकरी) n. ridicule. छल, हंसी, विडम्बना.

modernity —(मॉडर्निटी) n. the state of being modern. आधुनिक होने की स्थिति.

moist —(मॉइस्ट) adj. damp, slightly wet. तर, भीगा हुआ.

momentary —(मोमेण्टरी) adj. lasting for a moment. क्षणिक.

momentous —(मोमेण्टस) adj. important. महत्त्व का.

Monday —(मण्डे) n. the second day of the week. सोमवार.

mono —(मोनो) n. in the sense of single, alone. अकेला.

monogram —(मोनोग्राम) n. two or more letters interwoven in a figure. शब्दों के जोड़ से बना हुआ ठप्पा.

monologue —(मोनोलॉग) n. a speech spoken by one person alone. एक मनुष्य द्वारा बोली हुई उक्ति.

monopolize —(मोनोपलाइज़) v. t. to obtain monopoly of. एकाधिकार प्राप्त करना.

monopoly —(मोनौप्ली) n. the sole right of dealing in any thing. एकाधिकार.

monotony —(मोनोट्नी) n. uniformity of tone. स्वर की समानता, समता.

monthly —(मंथली) adj., adv. & n. recurring every month. मासिक.

moody —(मूडी) adj. in ill humour. बिगड़ी तबीयत का.

morality —(मोरैलिटी) n. virtue. सदाचार.

moreover —(मोरओवर) adv. besides, in addition. अलावा, इससे अधिक.

morn —(मॉर्न) n. poetical form of morning. प्रात: काल.

mortality —(मोर्टैलिटी) n. death, destruction. मरण, नाश.

mount —(माउण्ट) n. a hill. पहाड़ी, v. t. to rise, ascend. चढ़ना.

mourn — (मोर्न) v. t. to lament. शोक करना.

movables —(मूवेबल्स) n. personal property. चल सम्पत्ति.

movement —(मूवमेंट) n . change of position. हरकत, गति, चाल.

muddy —(मडी) adj. full of mud, dirty. कीचड़ से गन्दा.

multimillionaire — (मल्टीमिलियनएर) n. a person with millions of money. करोड़पति.

multitude —(मल्टीट्यूड) n. a large number, a crowd. भीड़, बड़ी संख्या.

mum —(मम) adj. silent. मूक.

murmur —(मरमर) n. a low indistinct sound, a complaint; v. t. to make a low continuous sound. बड़बड़ाना.

museum —(म्यूज़ियम) n . building where object of art and science are kept for show. अजायबघर.

mushroom —(मशरूम) n. a kind of plant fungus. कुकुरमुत्ता.

music —(म्यूज़िक) n. melody, pleasant sound. संगीत.

musician — (म्यूज़ीशियन) n. one who is skilled in the practice of music. गाने वाला.

mutiny —(म्यूटिनी) n. rebellion against constituted authority. विद्रोह, बगावत, गदर.

myself —(माइसेल्फ) pron. reflexive form of a writer or a speaker. मैं, स्वयं.

mythology —(माइथौलोजी) n . the science of myth. पुराण शास्त्र.

N

nab —(नैब) v. t. to catch, to arrest. पकड़ना.

nail —(नेल) n. a claw, a horny growth. नाखून; v. t. to fasten with nail. कील से जड़ना.

naive —(नेव) adj. unaffected, simplicity. प्राकृतिक, सीधा.

naked —(नेकेड) adj. bare. नंगा

namesake —(नेमसेक) n. one having the same name. नाम राशि.

napkin —(नैपकिन) n. a small cloth for wiping hand. तौलिया.

narration —(नैरेशन) n. act of relating. वर्णन, कथन.

narrow —(नैरो) adj. limited in size, of little width. संकुचित; v. t. & i. to make narrower. संकुचित करना.

nationality —(नैशनैलिटी) n. patriotic sentiment. राष्ट्रभक्ति.

nationalise —(नैशनलाइज़) v. t. to make national. राष्ट्रीय बनाना.

naturally —(नैचुरली) adv. according to nature. प्राकृतिक रूप से.

nature —(नेचर) n. innate character, the universe, essential qualities, natural disposition, kind. प्राकृतिक, प्रवृत्ति, प्रकृति, प्राकृतिक रूप से.

navigation —(नैवीगेशन) n. the act of navigating. समुद्री यात्रा, नौ परिवहन.

necessary —(नेसेसरी) adj. indispensable. आवश्यक.

necessity —(नेसेसिटी) n. imperative need, poverty. आवश्यक, गरीबी.

needle —(नीडल) n. a sharp pointed piece of steel for sewing. सूई.

negation —(निगेशन) n. a denial, refusal. निषेध.

neglect —(निग्लेक्ट) v. t. to have no care, to disregard, to leave undone. सुध न लेना, असावधानी करना.

negligence —(नेग्लीजेंस) n. carelessness. भूल.

negotiate —(निगोशिएट) v. t. to manage, to exchange for value. तय करना, व्यापार करना.

negotiation —(निगोशिएशन) n. transacting of business. सौदा.

neither —(नाइदर) adv. , conj. & pron. not either. दोनों में से कोई नहीं.

nerveless —(नर्वलेस) adj. useless, weak. निर्बल, कमज़ोर, बेकार.

net —(नेट) adj. free from all deductions. बिना दलाली या छूट का.

netting —(नेटिंग) n. the act of forming a network. जाली का काम.

neuter —(न्यूटर) adj. neither masculine nor feminine. बेजानदार, नपुंसक. (neuter gender—नपुंसक लिंग.) **new** —(न्यू) n. adj. fresh. नया.

news —(न्यूज़) n. tidings. समाचार.

nicely —(नाइसली) adv. finely. अच्छी तरह से.

nickname —(निकनेम) n. an added name, a by name. उपनाम, चिढ़ाने का नाम.

niece —(नीस) n. a daughter of one's brother or sister. भतीजी या भान्जी.

nightingale —(नाइटिंगेल) n. a small singing bird. बुलबुल.

nominee —(नॉमीनी) n. a designated person. नियुक्त पुरुष.

nonetheless —(ननदिलेस) adv. never the less. तथापि.

noon —(नून) n. midday. मध्यान्ह; adj. pertaining to noon. दोपहर सम्बन्धी.

normality —(नॉर्मैलिटी) n. regularity. नियमितता.

northward —(नॉर्थवर्ड) adj. towards the north. उत्तर की ओर.

notable —(नोटेब्ल) n. a famous person or thing. प्रसिद्ध मनुष्य या वस्तु.

noteworthy —(नोटवर्दी) adj. remarkable. विचार करने योग्य, उल्लेखनीय.

numerous —(न्यूमेरस) adj. many in numbers. अनेक.

nun —(नन) n. a woman who leads a religious secluded life. भक्तिन.

novelty —(नावेल्टी) n. something unusual. कौतुक वस्तु.

nowhere —(नोव्हेयर) adv. not anywhere. कहीं भी नहीं.

numberless —(नम्बरलेस) adj. countless. असंख्य.

nursery —(नर्सरी) n. a room for infants, a place where trees and plants are reared. शिशु पालनगृह, ज़खीरा, पौधाघर.

nurture —(नरचर) n. training. शिक्षा, पालन; v. t. to train, to nourish. पालना, शिक्षा देना.

nutrition —(न्यूट्रिशन) n. act or process of nourishing, food. आहार प्रक्रिया, पोषाहार.

nut —(नट) n. the fruit of a tree, a wooden or iron piece with screw. अखरोट फल, ढिबरी; v. t. to gather. इकट्ठा करना.

O

oath —(ओथ) n. a solemn affirmation to God. शपथ.

obedience —(ओबीडियन्स) n. submission to another's rule. आज्ञा पालन.

object —(ऑब्जैक्ट) n. end purpose, a thing which one causes or feels. प्रायोजन, उद्देश्य, कर्म.

objectionable —(ऑब्जैक्शनेब्ल) adj. disagreeable, unpleasant. आपत्तिजनक.

oblique —(ऑब्लीक) adj. slanting. झुका हुआ.

obscene —(ऑब्सीन) adj. indecent, lewd. अश्लील, गंदा.

observer —(ऑब्जर्वर) n. one who observes. निरीक्षक.

obstacle —(ऑब्सटेक्ल) n. an impediment, a hinderance. बाधा, रुकावट.

obstruction —(ऑब्सट्रक्शन) n. persistent opposition. रुकावट

obtain —(ऑबटेन) v. t. & i. to get, to gain, to prevail. प्राप्त करना.

obviously —(ऑबवियसली) adv. clearly, evidently. स्पष्ट रूप से.

occasional —(ओकेज़नल) adj. occurring at times. कभी-कभी होने वाला.

occupation —(ऑक्यूपेशन) n. employment, business, possession.

व्यवसाय, अधिकार.

occurrence —(अकरेन्स) n. an incident. घटना.

ocean —(ओशन) n. the main body of water on the earth. जलनिधि, समुद्र, सागर.

ochre —(ओकर) n. a kind of pale yellow clay and its colour. पीली मिट्टी.

odd —(ऑड) adj. not even, strange, peculiar. अनोखा, बेढंगा; at odds, in disagreement. विरोध में; odds and ends. फुटकर.

odorous —(ओडरस) adj. fragrant. सुगन्धित.

odour —(ओडर) n. smell, perfume. सुगन्ध.

of —(ऑफ़) prep. का.

off —(ऑफ़) adj. & adv. away farther. दूर, दूर का. (off hand—बिना तैयारी के.) (well off—धनी, मालदार.) **offensive** —(ऑफ़ेंसिव) adj. hateful, disgusting. घृणित, दुखदाई.

offering —(ऑफ़रिंग) n. a gift, a sacrifice. भेंट, वरदान, बलिदान.

official —(ऑफ़िशल) n. & adj. relating to an office. कार्यालय सम्बन्धी.

oil-painting —(ऑयलपेंटिंग) n. a painting in oil colours. तेल-चित्र.

ointment —(ऑइन्टमेण्ट) n. a greasy substance used for applying on wounds. लेप, मरहम.

omission —(ओमीशन) n. failure, neglect. त्याग, भूल.

omnipotent —(ऑम्नीपोटेण्ट) adj. almighty. सर्वशक्तिमान.

omniscient —(ऑम्नीसियण्ट) adj. all knowing. त्रिकाल दर्शी, सर्वज्ञ.

omnipresence —(ऑम्नीप्रेजेन्स) n. presence everywhere. सर्वव्यापकता

onwards —(ऑनवर्ड्स) adv. towards the front. आगे की ओर.

opaque —(ओपेक) adj. not transparent, not able to be seen through. अपारदर्शक.

operator —(ऑपरेटर) n. one who operates. संचालक, परिचालक.

opinion —(ओपीनियन) n. belief, notion, idea. राय, विचार.

opportunity —(ऑपॉरच्युनिटी) n. chance, favourable time or occasion. अवसर.

oppose —(अपोज़) v. t. to speak or act against, to resist. विरोध करना.

opposite —(अपोज़िट) adj. adverse, contrary. प्रतिकूल.

optimism —(ऑप्टिमिज़्म) n. hopefulness. आशावाद.

optional —(ऑपशनल) adj. according to one's choice. वैकल्पिक.

oral —(ओरल) adj. spoken, verbal. मौखिक.

orator —(ओरेटर) n. a good public speaker. व्याख्यान दाता.

ordinarily —(ऑर्डीनेरीली) adv. usually. साधारण रूप से.

organization —(ऑर्गैनाइज़ेशन) n. act of organizing, structure. रचना, निर्माण.

oriental —(ओरियण्टल) n. eastern, eastern country. adj. पूर्वी देश,

ornament —(ऑर्नामेण्ट) n. a thing that adorns. आभूषण.

orphan —(ऑर्फन) n. a parentless child. अनाथ बालक.

otherwise —(अदरवाइज़) adv. in another manner. नहीं तो.

ought —(ऑट) v. aux . to be bound in duty to need to be done. चाहना, योग्य होना.

our —(आवर) pron. belonging to us. हमारा.

ours —(आवर्स) pron. belonging to us. हम लोगों का.

outcome —(आउटकम) n. result. नतीजा, फल, परिणाम.

outdoor —(आउटडोर) adj. outside the house. बाहरी.

outing —(आउटिंग) n. an excursion. सैर.

outline —(आउटलाइन) n. boundary line, a description. बाह्यसीमा, रूपरेखा; v. t. to make sketch. आकार बनाना.

output —(आउटपुट) n. product, the quantity prepared at a time. पैदावार, उत्पादन.

outrage —(आउटरेज) v. t. to insult, to ravish. अपमान करना, पतित करना.

outright —(आउटराइट) adv. completely. पूर्णरूप से.

outrun —(आउटरन) v. i. to pass the line. सीमा के बाहर जाना.

outsider —(आउटसाइडर) n. a person outside a special class. परदेशी पुरूष.

outstanding —(आउटस्टैंडिग) adj. prominent, unpaid. प्रमुख, बिना चुकाया हुआ.

outward —(आउटवर्ड) adj. exterior. बाहरी.

outwit —(आउटविट) v. t. to defeat by superior wisdom. हरा देना, कान

काटना.

overact —(ओवरैक्ट) v. t. to act too much. अधिक काम करना.

overbid —(ओवरबिड) v. t. to offer more than value. अधिक कीमत लगाना, बढ़ कर बोली बोलना.

overhear —(ओवरहियर) v. t. to hear stealthily. छिपकर सुनना.

overlook —(ओवरलुक) v. t. to inspect, to forgive. निरीक्षण करना, क्षमा करना.

overnight —(ओवरनाइट) adv. on the preceding night. रात भर में.

oversight —(ओवरसाइट) n. a mistake. भ्रम, भूल.

overstate —(ओवरस्टेट) v. t. to exaggerate. बहुत बढ़कर कहना.

overtake —(ओवरटेक) v. t. to follow and catch. पीछा करके पकड़ना.

overtop —(ओवरटॉप) v. t. to rise above the top of. शिखर के ऊपर चढ़ना.

overweight —(ओवरवेट) n. excessive weight. अधिक भार.

overwhelm —(ओवरव्हैल्म) v. t. to win to conquer to overpower. जीतना.

ownership —(ओनरशिप) n. possession. अधिकार, स्वामित्व.

ox —(ऑक्स) n. bull. बैल.

oxygen —(ऑक्सीजन) n. gas in atmosphere essential to life. ऑक्सीजन, प्राणप्रद वायु.

P

pabulum —(पैब्यूलम) n. food. भोजन.

pace —(पेस) n. single step. पग, गति; v. i. & t . to walk, to regulate speed. गति ठीक करना.

pacify —(पैसीफ़ाई) v. t. to calm. शान्त करना.

package —(पैकेज) n. a small bundle. छोटी गठरी.

painting —(पेटिंग) n. a painted picture. रंगीन चित्र.

palace —(पैलेस) n. royal residence, stately mansion. महल, राजभवन.

palm —(पाम) n. the inner surface of the hand. हथेली.

palm —(पाम) n. a tree. ताड़ का पेड़.

palmist —(पामिस्ट) n. one versed in palmistry. हस्तरेखा का पंडित.

palpitation —(पैलपिटेशन) n. throbbing. धड़कन, कम्पन.

panacea —(पैनेसिया) n. cure for all ills, universal remedy. रामबाण, सब बीमारियों को ठीक करने की दवा.

panner —(पैनर) n. a general fault finder. सब का दोष खोजने वाला.

pantaloon —(पैंटलून) n. trousers. पायजामा, पैंट.

paper —(पेपर) n. material used for writing. कागज़.

parable —(पैरैब्ल) n. a proverb. कहावत.

paraffin oil —(पैराफ़िन ऑयल) n. refined petroleum. साफ पेट्रोल.

paragon —(पैरागॉन) n. a perfect pattern. आदर्श.

parallel —(पैरालेल) adj. similar. समानान्तर; v. t. to equal. समानान्तर करना.

paralysis —(पैरालीसिस) n. a total or partial loss of motion. लकवा रोग.

paramount —(पैरामाउण्ट) adj. supreme, chief. सर्वोच्च, प्रधान.

parasite —(पैरासाइट) n. a flatterer. चाटुवादी.

parliamentarian —(पारलियामेण्टरियन) n. an M.P. सांसद.

parody —(पैरोडी) n. a comical imitation. अनुकरण काव्य; v. t. to imitate ridiculously. बुरी तरह से नकल करना.

parity —(पैरिटी) n. equality. समानता.

paronym —(पैरोनिम) n. words alike in sound but different in spelling. एक उच्चारण के परन्तु भिन्न अर्थ के शब्द.

partiality —(पार्शिऐलिटी) n. a tendency to favour. पक्षपात.

participate —(पार्टिसिपेट) v. i. to have a part in. भाग लेना.

participation —(पार्टिसिपेशन) n. the sharing in common with other. बटवारा.

particle —(पार्टिकल) n. a very small part. एक भाग.

particular —(पार्टिक्यूलर) adj. special, careful. मुख्य, सावधान.

particularity —(पार्टिक्यूलैरिटी) n. exactness. विवरण.

particularly —(पार्टिक्यूलर्ली) adv. in detail. ब्योरेवार.

partner —(पार्टनर) n. a sharer. भागी.

partnership —(पार्टनरशिप) n. joint ownership. सहकारिता.

pass-book —(पास-बुक) n. a bankers book. रुपये लेने-देने की पुस्तक.

passenger —(पैसेन्जर) n. a traveller in a public vehicle. यात्री.

passion —(पैशन) n. deep feeling. उत्कण्ठा.

passionate —(पैशनेट) n. easily moved to anger, moved by strong emotions. क्रोधी, भावक.

pastime —(पास्टाइम) n. recreation. आमोद-प्रमोद, क्रीड़ा.

patent —(पेटेण्ट) n. permit given by Government. विशिष्ट आज्ञा.

paternal —(पैटर्नल) adj. fatherly. पैत्रिक.

path —(पाथ) n. a foot-way. राह, पगडंडी.

patience —(पेशेन्स) n. calmness, endurance. धैर्य adj. perserving. धैर्ययुक्त.

patient —(पेशेण्ट) n. a person under medical treatment. रोगी.

patricide —(पेट्रीसाइड) n. murder of father. पिता की हत्या.

patriotism —(पैट्रिऑटिज़्म) n. love of one's own country. स्वदेश प्रेम.

patron —(पेट्रन) n. protector. शुभ चिन्तक, संरक्षक, सहायक.

pattern —(पैटर्न) n. model. सांचा, नमूना.

payable —(पेएबल) adj. due. देय, कर्ज.

payee —(पेई) n. one to whom money is paid. धन पाने वाला.

payer —(पेयर) n. one who pays. रुपये देने वाला.

payment —(पेमेण्ट) n. act of paying. भुगतान.

peacemaker —(पीसमेकर) n. one who makes peace. शान्ति प्रदान करने वाला.

peacock —(पीकॉक) n. a kind of bird. मोर.

pearl —(पर्ल) n. a substance formed within the shell of an oyster. मोती.

pearly —(पर्ली) adj. resembling pearls. मोती की तरह.

peasant —(पैजैण्ट) n. a rustic, farmer. कृषक, किसान.

peasantry —(पैजेण्ट्री) n. peasants of a region. कृषकगण.

peculiar —(पिक्यूलियर) adj. strange. अजीब, विलक्षण.

pedant —(पीडैण्ट) n. who makes show of learning. पाण्डित्य दिखाने वाला.

penal —(पीनल) adj. pertaining to the punishment. दण्ड सम्बन्धी.

penalize —(पीनालाइज़) v. t. to lay under a penalty. दण्डनीय बनाना.

penance —(पीनैन्स) n. art of self mortification. तपस्या.

penetrate —(पेनिट्रेट) v. t. & i . to pierce into. प्रवेश करना.

penetration —(पेनिट्रेशन) n. act of piercing, insight, प्रवेश, बुद्धि.

penguin —(पेन्गुइन) n. a kind of sea fowl. समुद्री पक्षी.

pension —(पेन्शन) n. a payment after retirement. पूर्व सेवा वृत्त.

pensionable —(पेन्शनेब्ल) adj. able to obtain pension. पेन्शन पाने लायक.

peonage —(पिऑनेज) n. service. नौकरी.

perambulator —(पैरेम्ब्यूलेटर) n. a child's carriage. बच्चों की गाड़ी.

percept —(परसेप्ट) n. mental product. कल्पना.

percentage —(परसेण्टेज) n . प्रतिशत, दर.

perfect —(परफ़ेक्ट) adj. complete, exact. प्रवीण, पूरा, उचित, उत्तम; v. t. to render faultless. पूर्ण करना.

perfection —(परफ़ेक्शन) n. faultless. निर्दोषता.

perfumery —(परफ्यूमरी) n. perfumes in general. इत्र इत्यादि.

perhaps —(परहैप्स) adv. by chance. कदाचित.

period —(पिरियड) n. age, a portion of time. समय, काल, युग.

Periodic (al) —(पिरिऑडिक) n. happening at regular interval of time. नियत काल का.

perish —(पेरिश) v. i. to die. to decay. मरना, नष्ट होना.

perishable —(पेरिशेब्ल) adj. liable to perish. नाश होने योग्य.

permanent —(परमानेण्ट) adj. lasting. स्थाई.

permissible —(परमिसिब्ल) adj. allowable. आज्ञा पाने योग्य.

permission —(परमिशन) n. leave, consent. आज्ञा.

permissive —(परमिसिव) adj. allowing. आज्ञा योग्य.

permit —(परमिट) n. a written permission. आज्ञा पत्र; v. t. to allow. आज्ञा देना.

permittance —(परमीटैन्स) n. allowance. प्रवेश, आज्ञा.

perpetual —(परपेच्युअल) adj. everlasting. नित्य.

perpetuation —(परपेच्युएशन) n. continuity. स्थिरता.

perplex —(परप्लेक्स) v. t. to puzzle. उलझाना, परेशान करना.

perplexity —(परप्लेक्सिटी) n. puzzled state. व्याकुलता, घबराहट.

persevere —(पर्सीवियर) v. t. to persist, to try again & again. निरन्तर प्रयत्न करना, बारबार कोशिश करना.

personnel —(पर्सनेल) n. the persons employed in public service. अधिकारी वर्ग.

perturbed —(परटरब्ड) adj. agitated. व्याकुल.

perusal —(पेरुज़ल) n. careful reading. अध्ययन

pervert —(परवर्ट) v. t. to turn from right course. सन्मार्ग से विचलित होना.

pessimism —(पेसिमिज़्म) n. looking at the worst of things. सब पदार्थ में बुराई देखने का सिद्धान्त

petticoat —(पेटिकोट) n. garment worn by lady. पेटिकोट, धोती या साड़ी के नीचे पहनने का वस्त्र.

phantasm —(फैनटेज़्म) n. an illusion. दृष्टिभ्रम.

pharmacy —(फारमेसी) n. art of preparing medicine. औषधि बनाने की विद्या.

phenomenon —(फिनॉमिनन) n. anything remarkable. अद्भुत पदार्थ या व्यक्ति

philology —(फिलॉलॉज़ी) n. the study of languages. भाषा विज्ञान.

philosopher —(फिलॉसफर) n. expert in philosophy. दार्शनिक.

phone —(फोन) n. telephone. टेलीफोन

photography —(फोटोग्राफी) n. the art of producing pictures by photographic camera. चित्र खींचने की विधि.

physical —(फिज़िकल) adv. pertaining to physics, bodily. पदार्थ-विज्ञान सम्बन्धी, शारीरिक.

physician —(फीज़िशियन) n. a doctor of medicines. वैद्य.

pickle —(पिक्कल) n. vegetable preserved. अचार, मुरब्बा; v. t. to preserve in pickle. अचार या मुरब्बा बनाना.

pickpocket —(पिकपॉकेट) n. one who steals from another's pocket. जेबकतरा.

pictorial —(पिक्टोरियल) adj. of pictures चित्रमय, सचित्र.

picture —(पिक्चर) n. a beautiful object, a visible image. चित्र, आकर्षक वस्तु; v. t. to draw.

picturesque —(पिक्चेरैस्क) adj. vivid, effective like picture. स्पष्ट, सुन्दर, चित्र के समान.

pierce —(पियर्स) v. t. & i . to thrust into. छेदना.

pilgrim —(पिलग्रिम) n. one. who goes to holy places. तीर्थ यात्री.

pilgrimage —(पिलग्रिमेज) n. journey to holy places. तीर्थ यात्रा.

pillow —(पिलो) n. a soft cushion for the head. तकिया; v. t. to lay on pillow. तकिया लगाना.

pinch —(पिंच) v. t. & i . to nip, to urge, to distress. कष्ट देना.

Pisces —(पिसीज़) n. fish, the twelfth sign of zodiac. मीन, राशि.

pitcher —(पिचर) n. a vessel for carrying liquids. घड़ा.

pitiful —(पिटीफुल) adj. full of pity. दयापूर्ण, दर्दनाक, दया के योग्य.

pity —(पिटी) n . compassio. दया; v. t. to have pity. दया करना.

plaintiff —(प्लेनटिफ़) n. one who commences action at law. मुद्दई, वादी.

plan —(प्लैन) n. scheme, map, drawing, project, design. योजना, उपाय, नक्शा, ढ़ांचा.

plane —(प्लेन) n. a flat level surface. समतल.

playfellow —(प्लेफेलो) n. play mate. साथी, हमजोली, साथ-साथ खेलने वाले.

pleasant —(प्लैज़ैन्ट) adj. agreeable. मनोहर, रमणीय.

pleasure —(प्लैज़र) n. satisfaction, delight. आनंद, प्रसन्नता, संतोष.

pledge —(प्लेज) n. promise. प्रतिज्ञा; v. t. to pawn. गिरवी रखना.

p**lenty** —(प्लेण्टी) n. quite enough. अधिकता, बहुतायत.

plot —(प्लॉट) n. a plan, a piece of ground. योजना, भू-भाग; v. t. to conspire. षडयन्त्र करना.

plural —(प्लूरल) adj. consisting more than one. अनेक, बहुवचन.

pocketful —(पॉकेटफुल) n. as much as a pocket can hold. जेबभर.

poetry —(पोयट्री) n. poems. पद्य.

policy —(पॉलिसी) n. state-craft. नीति.

poisonous —(पॉयज़नस) adj. full of poison. ज़हर युक्त.

politeness —(पोलाइटनेस) n. courtesy. विनय.

politics —(पॉलिटिक्स) n. science of government, strife of parties. राजनीति.

politician —(पॉलिटिशिअन्) n. one versed in politics. नीतिज्ञ.

pollute —(पॉल्यूट) v. t. to defile. नष्ट करना, गन्दा करना.

pollution —(पॉलूशन) n. defilement. अपवित्रता, प्रदूषण.

polygon —(पॉलीगन) n. a five sided figure. पंचभुज क्षेत्र, बहुभुज.

pomade —(पॉमेड) n. a perfumed ointment for hair. बालों का सुगन्धित लेप या मलहम.

pompous —(पॉम्पस) adj. splendid, showy. शानदार, दिखावटी.

ponder —(पौण्डर) v. t. to think, meditate. सोचना, विचारना.

poorness —(पुअरनेस) n. lack of good quality. गुणों का अभाव.

popularity —(पॉपुलैरिटी) n. state of being liked or admired. सर्वप्रियता, शोहरत.

population —(पॉपुलेशन) n. the people of a country. जनसंख्या.

portable —(पोर्टेब्ल) adj. movable, light. उठाने योग्य, हल्का.

portfolio —(पोर्टफ़ोलियो) n. a portable case for keeping loose papers, office of a minister of state. बस्ता, कार्यभाग.

portrait —(पोरट्रेट) n. a photograph. चित्र.

positively —(पोज़िटिवली) adv. in a positive manner. स्पष्ट रूप से.

possession —(पज़ेशन) n. state of owning. अधिकार, कब्ज़ा.

possibly —(पॉसीब्ली) adv. perhaps. कदाचित.

postal —(पोस्टल) adj. connected with post. डाक सम्बन्धी.

poster —(पोस्टर) n. a placard. विज्ञापन.

post-date —(पोस्टर-डेट) v. t. to put on date after the actual time of writing. बाद की तिथि डालना.

post-mortem —(पोस्ट-मॉर्टेम) adj. examination after death. मृत्यु के बाद की जांच.

postpone —(पोस्टपोन) v. t. to adjourn, to delay. टालना, मुल्तवी करना, देरी करना.

potency —(पोटेन्सी) n. power. शक्ति.

poverty —(पावर्टी) n. the state of being poor. गरीबी.

practicable —(प्रैक्टिकेबल) adj. that may be carried out. साध्य, वास्तविक, सम्भव.

practical —(प्रैक्टिकल) adj. relating to practice. अभ्यास सम्बन्धी.

practise —(प्रैक्टिस) v. i. & t. to put in practice. साधना करना.

praying —(प्रेइंग) n. the act of praying. प्रार्थना.

preach —(प्रीच) v. t. & i. to advocate, to deliver sermon. उपदेश देना, शिक्षा देना, बताना.

precede —(प्रिसीड) v. i. to go before in time or rank. आगे होना.

precious —(प्रेशस) adj. costly, dear. बहुमूल्य.

precis —(प्रेसी) n. brief summary. सारांश.

precise —(प्रिसाइज़) adj. exact. ठीक.

predicate —(प्रेडीकेट) n. that is affirmed. विधेय.

pre-existence —(प्री-एकजिसटेन्स) n. existing beforehand. पूर्व जीवन.

preface —(प्रीफ़ेस) n. an introduction to a book. भूमिका; v. i. to make introductory remarks. भूमिका लिखना.

prefix —(प्रीफ़िक्स) n. a particle placed before a word. उपसर्ग.

pregnancy —(प्रैग्नैन्सी) n. state of being pregnant. गर्भावस्था.

prejudice —(प्रिजुडिस) n. an unreasonable bias. पक्षपात, दुराग्रह.

premature —(प्रिमैच्योर) adj. done or happening too soon. समय के पूर्व होने वाला.

prematurity —(प्रिमैच्योरिटी) n . happening untimely. असामयिकता.

premier —(प्रिमियर) n. chief. मुख्य.

preparation —(प्रेपरेशन) n. previous arrangement. तैयारी.

prescription —(प्रिस्क्रिप्शन) n. medicine prescribed. नुस्खा.

preservation —(प्रिज़र्वेशन) n. act of keeping safe. बचाव, सुरक्षा.

preside —(प्रिसाइड) v. t. to have control over. अध्यक्ष होना.

presidency —(प्रेसीडेन्सी) n. the office of a president. अध्यक्ष का पद.

pressure —(प्रेशर) n. force, compulsion. दबाव.

prestige —(प्रेस्टीज) n. high reputation, influence on account of past success. गौरव, प्रतिष्ठा.

prevention —(प्रिवेन्शन) n. obstruction. रुकावट.

priceless —(प्राइसलेस) adj. invaluable. बहुमूल्य, बेशकीमती.

pride —(प्राइड) n. self esteem. घमंड; v. t. to take pride in. घमंड करना.

primitive —(प्रिमिटिव) adj. ancient. प्राचीन.

principal —(प्रिंसिपल) adj. main, chief. मुख्य; n. head of a college. कालिज का अध्यक्ष.

principle —(प्रिंसिपल) n. a fundamental rule or truth. मूल सिद्धान्त.

priority —(प्रायॉरिटी) n. precedence. पूर्वता.

prisoner —(प्रिज़नर) n. criminal, one confined in a prison. बन्दी, कैदी.

privacy —(प्राइवेसी) n. seclusion. एकान्त.

privilege —(प्रिविलेज) n. monopoly. विशेषाधिकार; v. t. to bestow special right. विशेष अधिकार देना.

probability —(प्रोबेबिलिटी) n. likelihood. सम्भावना.

probation —(प्रोबेशन) n. trial. परीक्षा-काल.

probe —(प्रोब) v. i. to search into. परीक्षा करना, जांचना.

procedure —(प्रोसीजर) n. manner of legal action. विधि, नियम.

proceeding —(प्रोसीडिंग) n. course of action. कार्रवाई.

process —(प्रोसेस) n. summons, writ, method, course, state of going on. परवाना, हुक्मनामा, याचिका, विधि, रीति, तरीका, प्रणाली, उन्नति.

procession —(प्रोसेशन) n. a number of persons proceeding in orderly succession. सवारी, जलूस.

proclamation —(प्रोक्लेमेशन) n. notice to the public. घोषणा.

producer —(प्रोड्यूसर) n. generator. पैदा करने वाला.

product —(प्रोडक्ट) n. a result, yield. फल, परिणाम.

production —(प्रोडक्शन) n. the act of producing. उत्पादन, प्रस्तुति.

professional —(प्रोफ़ेशनल) adj. pertaining to a profession. पेशा सम्बन्धी.

profitable —(प्रॉफ़िटेबल) adj. useful. हितकर.

profound —(प्रोफाउण्ड) adj. very deep, mysterious. विचित्र, गम्भीर.

progress —(प्रोग्रेस) n. improvement, increse. उन्नति, वृद्धि, अग्रगमन; v. t. to advance, to improve. आगे, बढ़ना, उन्नति करना.

progressive —(प्रोग्रेसिव) adj. advancing. क्रमिक विकास.

prohibition —(प्रोहिबिशन) n. the act of forbidding. निषेध.

project —(प्रोजेक्ट) n. a plan of purpose. उपाय; v. t. & i. to plan. उपाय करना.

prologue —(प्रोलोग) n. a preface. प्रस्तावना.

prominent —(प्रामिनेंट) adj. famous. प्रसिद्ध, विशिष्ट.

pronoun —(प्रोनाउन) n. a word used in place of a noun. सर्वनाम.

pronounce —(प्रोनाउन्स) v. t. & i. to utter. उच्चारण करना.

proof —(प्रूफ़) n. test, evidence, demonstration, impression taken for correction. प्रमाण, परीक्षा, सबूत, छपाई का प्रूफ.

propagate —(प्रॉपेगेट) v. t. to increase, to spread. बढ़ाना, प्रचारित करना.

property —(प्रॉपर्टी) n. wealth, attribute. धन, गुण.

prophet —(प्रॉफेट) n. a foreteller. भविष्य वक्ता.

proposal —(प्रोपोज़ल) n. a scheme. प्रस्ताव.

propose —(प्रोपोज़) v. t. & i. to offer, to plan. प्रस्ताव रखना, विचार रखना.

proposition —(प्रपोज़ीशन) n. a formal statement. प्रस्ताव.

proprietor —(प्रोपराइटर) n. owner. मालिक, स्वामी.

propriety —(प्रोप्राइटी) n. fitness, rightness, good character. योग्यता, शुद्ध चरित्र, औचित्य.

prose —(प्रोज़) n. non-metrical form of speech. गद्य; v. i. to talk in prose. गद्य में बात करना.

prosper —(प्रॉस्पर) v. i. to thrive. सफल होना.

prosperity —(प्रॉस्पेरिटी) n. flourishing state. समृद्धि.

prostitute —(प्रॉस्टीट्यूट) n. a harlot. रन्डी, वेश्या.

protein —(प्रोटीन) n. an albuminoid. एक रासायनिक तत्त्व.

prototype —(प्रोटोटाइप) n. a model. आदर्श नमूना.

protrude —(प्रोट्यूड) v. i. & t. to project, to thrust out. बाहर की ओर निकलना.

provocation —(प्रोवोकेशन) n. act of provoking. उत्तेजना.

provoke —(प्रोवोक) v. t. to excite. उकसाना, उत्तेजित करना.

prudence —(प्रूडेन्स) n. foresight, wisdom. बुद्धिमानी, दूरदर्शिता, पूर्व विचार.

prudent —(प्रूडेण्ट) adj. wise, foresighted. बुद्धिमान, दूरदर्शी, सावधान.

pseudo —(स्यूडो) prefix. false, deceptive. मिथ्या, कृत्रिम.

pseudonym —(स्यूडोनिम) n. a fictitious name. उपनाम.

publication —(पब्लिकेशन) n. the act of making known publicly. प्रकाशन.

publicity —(पब्लीसिटी) n. the state of being public. लोक प्रसिद्ध.

pun —(पन) n. a play o words. अनेक अर्थ का शब्द; v. i. to make use of puns. इनका प्रयोग करना.

punctual —(पंक्चुअल) adj. exact as to time. सामयिक.

punctuality —(पंक्चुएलिटी) n. extreme exactness of time. समय का पालन.

punctuation —(पंक्चुएशन) n. the act of dividing sentence by marking. लेखन में विरामादि चिन्हों (जैसे,;:!? आदि) का प्रयोग.

punish —(पनिश) v. t. to chastise. ताड़ना देना.

punishment —(पनिशमेण्ट) n. penalty imposed for an offence. दण्ड.

purchase —(पर्चेज़) v. t. to buy. खरीदना; n. buying, thing bought. खरीद, खरीदा हुआ सामान.

purgatory —(परगेटरी) a place of spiritual purification. पाप से निर्मुक्त करने का स्थान.

purification —(प्योरीफ़िकेशन) n. the act of purifying. शुद्धिकरण.

puritan —(प्यूरिटन) n. a person professing strict purity. साधु, पवित्र रहने वाला.

purpose —(परपज़) n. idea or aim. अभिप्राय; v. i. to have an intimation. अभिप्राय करना.

purposely —(परपज़ली) adv. intentionally. जानबूझ कर.

pursuance —(परसुएंन्स)) n. following after. अनुसरण.

pursue —(परस्यू) v. t. to aim at, to follow. पीछा करना.

puzzle —(पज़ल) n. a riddle, a difficult problem. पहेली, प्रश्न; v. t. to bewilder. परेशान करना, घबराना.

pyorrhoea —(पायरिया) n. discharge of pus from the gums. दांतों का रोग.

pygmy —(पिगमी) n. dwarf. बौना.

Q

Q -boat —(क्यू बोट) n. a warship disguised as a merchant ship. व्यापारी जहाज़ के भेष में लड़ाकू जहाज़.

quadrate —(क्वॉडरेट) v. t. to make square. चौकोर बनाना.

quail —(क्वेल) n. a small bird. लावा; v. t. to fear, to lose heart. भय से कांपना.

qualification —(क्वॉलिफ़िकेशन) n. thing that qualifies. योग्यता.

qualified —(क्वॉलीफ़ाइड) adj. modified. योग्य.

qualify —(क्वॉलीफ़ाइ) v. t. to modify. योग्य करना.

quality —(क्वालिटी) n. rank, virtue. गुण.

qualmish —(क्वामिश) adj. affected with nausea. जी मचलाने वाला.

quantity —(क्वांटिटी) n. amount. परिमाण.

quarrel —(क्वॉरल) n. angry dispute. झगड़ा, लड़ाई; v. i. to dispute, to find fault with. लड़ना, झगड़ना. (quarrelled—p. t. & p.p.) (quarrelling—present participle.) **quarrelsome** —(क्वॉरलसम) adj. irritable. झगड़ालू.

quarry —(क्वॉरी) n. a place where stones are dug out. खान, लक्ष्य; v. i. to dig stones from quarry. पत्थर निकालना.

quarterly —(क्वॉर्टली) adj. , adv. & n. once a quarter. त्रैमासिक.

quarto —(क्वॉर्टो) n. a book consisting of sheets folded in four parts. चार परत की कागज़ की पुस्तक.

quasi —(क्वासी) adv. as if, unreal. काल्पनिक.

queenly —(क्वीनली) adj. like a queen. रानी के समान.

quell —(क्वेल) v. i. to suppress, to quieten. दबाना.

quench —(क्वैंश) v. t. to slake, to satisfy thirst, to put out fire. प्यास बुझाना, आग बुझाना.

query —(क्विरी) n. a question. प्रश्न, पूछताछ. v. t. to doubt. प्रश्न करना, सन्देह करना.

quest —(क्वेस्ट) n. a search. खोज; v. i. & t. to make a search for. खोजना.

questionable —(क्वेश्चनेब्ल) adj. doubtful. संन्देहयुक्त.

questioner —(क्वेश्चनर) n. one who asks questions. प्रश्नकर्त्ता.

questionnaire —(क्वेश्चनेअर) n. list of questions drawn for gathering information. प्रश्नावली.

queue —(क्यू) n. a line of persons. पंक्ति.

quinine —(क्विनीन) n. a drug obtained from the cinchona tree. कुनैन.

quit —(क्विट) v. t. to leave, to repay. त्यागना, चुकाना.

quite —(क्वाइट) adv. altogether. सर्वथा.

quiver —(क्विवर) v. t. to shake. कांपना.

quiz —(क्विज़) v. t. to make fun of. मज़ाक बनाना; n. a general knowledge test, one given to quizzing. प्रश्नोत्तर, दिल्लगी बाज़, मज़ाकिया.

quorum —(कोरम) n. number required for a valid meeting. कोरम, सभा की कार्यवाही के लिए सदस्यों की अभीष्ट संख्या.

quota —(क्वोटा) n. part, share. भाग, अंश, अभ्यंश.

quotation —(कोटेशन) n. that which is quoted, current price. उद्धरण, बाज़ार भाव, प्रचलित मूल्य.

quote —(कोट) v. t. to repeat words, to refer, to state price. ग्रंथ के वचन कहना, प्रमाण देना, मूल्य बताना.

R

rabbi —(रेबाइ) n. a jewish doctor of law. यहूदी धर्माधिकारी.

racial —(रेशियल) adj. pertaining to race. कुल अथवा जाति सम्बन्धी.

rack —(रैक) n. a frame for holding fodder. नाद, कठौती, बर्तन; v. t. to torture. कष्ट देना.

radian —(रेडियन) n. the angle at the centre of a circle. वृत्त के केन्द्र का कोण.

radiance —(रैडियन्स) n. brilliant lustre. आभा, चमक.

radiant —(रैडियण्ट) adj. shining. चमकता हुआ.

radium —(रेडियम) n. a costly metal which emits rays. एक चमकीली

धातु.

radiate —(रेडिएट) v. t. & i. to send forth rays. किरण फ़ेकना.

radiator —(रैडिएटर) n. a kind of heating apparatus. गर्म करने का एक यंत्र.

rain —(रेन) n. water falling in drops from cloud. वर्षा; v. i. to rain. वर्षा होना.

rainbow —(रेनबो) n. a bow of seven colours. इन्द्रधनुष.

rainfall —(रेनफ़ॉल) n. shower of rain. वर्षा.

rap —(रैप) n. a smart blow. धक्का; v. t. to strike with blow. घूसा मारना.

rape —(रेप) n. sexual intercourse with a woman without her consent. बलात्कार; v. t. to ravish, to take away by force. बलात्कार करना, छीन लेना, लूट लेना.

rapid —(रैपिड) adj. swift. तेज़.

rare —(रेअर) adj. uncommon अनूठा, दुर्लभ, असाधारण.

rational —(रैशनल) adj. sensible. विचारयुक्त.

raze —(रेज़्) v. t. to erase. खुरचना, मिटाना.

razor —(रेज़र) n. an instrument used in shaving hair. उस्तरा.

reach —(रीच) v. t. & i. to arrive at. पहुंचना.

reaction —(रिऐक्शन) n. action in response to something. प्रतिक्रिया.

readable —(रीडेबल) adj. able to be read. पढ़ने योग्य.

readily —(रेडिली) adv. quickly, easily. जल्दी से, सुगमतापूर्वक.

readjust —(रिएडजस्ट) v. t. to adjust again. पुन: ठीक करना, फिर से क्रम में रखना.

readmit —(रिएडमिट) v. t. to admit again. पुन: दाखिल करना.

readmission —(रिएडमीशन) n. state of being admitted again. पुन: प्रवेश, दुबारा दाखिला.

realistic —(रियलिस्टिक) adj. true to fact. सत्य रूप का.

reality —(रिएलिटी) n. actual existence. सचमुच.

reap —(रीप) v. t. & i. to cut down crop. फसल काटना.

reappear —(रिएपियर) v. i. to appear again. दुबारा प्रकट होना, पुन: शामिल होना.

reappoint — (एिअपॉइण्ट) v. t. appoint again. पुन: नियुक्त करना.

reason — (रीज़न) n. power of reasoning, cause, rational faculty, argument. बुद्धि, तर्क, कारण, प्रयोजन; v. t. to discuss, to argue, to infer. तर्क करना, विचार करना, परिणाम निकालना.

reassure — (रिअश्योर) v. t. to give confidence to. विश्वास दिलाना.

rebellion — (रेबीलियन) n. a revolt. राजद्रोह, विद्रोह.

reception — (रिसेप्शन) n. the act of receiving. ग्रहण.

recital — (रिसाइटल) n. narration, reading. आख्यान, प्रसतुति, प्रपठन.

recognize — (रिकगनाइज़) v. t. to identify. पहिचानना.

recognition — (रिकगनिशन) n. taking notice, a formal acknowledgement. पहचानना, प्रमाण देना.

recognizable — (रिकॉगनाइज़ेब्ल) adj. able to be recognized. पहिचानने योग्य.

recognizance — (रिकॉग्नीज़ैन्स) n. a legal bond. अंगीकार पत्र.

recommendation — (रिकमण्डेशन) n. statement meant to recommend. सिफारिश, समर्थन.

recovery — (रिकवरी) n. state of having recovered. उपलब्धि वसूली, पुन: प्राप्ति.

recreation — (रिक्रिएशन) n. enjoyment. मनोरंजन.

recruit — (रिक्रूट) v. t. to enlist soldiers. भर्ती करना; n. newly recruited soldier. भर्ती किया हुआ सैनिक, रंगरूट.

rectangle — (रेक्टेंगल) n. a four-sided right-angled figure. समकोण चतुर्भुज.

rectify —(रेक्टिफ़ाई) v. t. to refine. शुद्ध करना.

rectitude —(रेक्टीट्यूड) n. honesty. सच्चाई, पवित्रता.

recur — (रेकर) v. t. to occur again, to be repeated. फिर से ध्यान आना, दुबारा होना.

reccurring — (रैकरिंग) adj. coming again. दुबारा आने वाला.

reduce — (रिड्यूस) v. t. to bring down, to lower, to degrade. घटाना, पद से उतार देना, कम करना.

reduction — (रिडक्शन) n. the act of reducing. कमी.

reference — (रेफ़रेन्स) n. act of referring. निर्देश, संकेत, संदर्भ.

referendum — (रेफ़रेन्डम) n. the submitting of a proposed law to

the electorate for decision. लोकनिर्णय, जनमत.

refinement — (रिफाइमेण्ट) n. the act of refinement. शुद्धता, संशोधन.

reform — (रिफॉर्म) n . the act of improving. सुधार.

reformer — (रिफ़ॉर्मर) n. one who reforms. सुधारक.

refrain — (रिफ्रेन) n. chorus of song. गीत में टेक; v. t. & i. to restrain. रोकना, संयम करना.

refreshing — (रिफ्रेशिंग) adj. invigorating. आनन्द देने वाला.

refreshment — (रिफ्रेशमेण्ट) n. light food or drink. जलपान.

refuge — (रिफ़्यूज) n. a shelter or safe place. सुरक्षित स्थान.

refugee — (रिफ़्यूजी) n. one who takes refuge. शरणार्थी.

refusal — (रिफ़्यूज़ल) n. a rejection. अस्वीकृति.

refuse — (रिफ़्यूज़) n. waste matter, dross. बचा हुआ हिस्सा, बेकार भाग.

refutable — (रिफ़्युटेबल) adj. able to be refuted, disprovable. खंडन करने योग्य, गलत.

regain — (रिगेन) v. t. to recover possession of to gain back. पुन: अधिकार पाना, फिर से.

regard — (रिगार्ड) v. t. & i. to esteem. आदर करना.

regarding — (रिगार्डिंग) prep. concerning. विषय में.

regime — (रिजीम) n. time of government. शासन काल.

regiment — (रेजीमेण्ट) n. a body of troops commanded by a colonel, rule, control. सैन्यदल, शासन, अनुशासन.

regional — (रीजनल) adj. pertaining to regions. प्रदेशीय.

registered — (रजिस्टर्ड) adj. recorded in a register. रजिस्टर में लिखा हुआ, पंजीकृत.

regret — (रेग्रेट) v. t. to be sorry. दुख प्रकट करना.

regrettable — (रिग्रेटेबल) adj. to be regretted, worthy of regret. पछताने योग्य, शोचनीय.

regulate — (रेग्यूलेट) v. t. to control, to adjust. व्यवस्था करना.

rehearse — (रिहर्स) v. t. to repeat. दोहराना.

reign — (रेन) n. a rule, kingdom. राजत्व, राज्य; v. i. to rule as a king. शासन करना.

rein — (रेन) n. the strap of a bridle. लगाम; v. t. to check, to control. संयम या काबू में करना.

reinforce — (रीइनफ़ोर्स) v. t. to add strength to. शक्ति बढ़ाना.

reinstate — (रीइनस्टेट) v. t. to put back in the former state. पुन: स्थापित करना.

reiterate — (रीइटरेट) v. t. to repeat again and again. बारम्बार दोहराना.

rejection — (रीजेक्शन) n. refusal. अस्वीकृति.

rejoice . (रीजॉयस) v. t. to feel great joy. प्रसन्न होना.

rejoin — (रीजॉइन) v. t. & i. to join again. पुन: सम्मिलित होना, पुन: मिलना.

rejoinder — (रिजाइण्डर) n. an answer to a reply. प्रत्युत्तर.

relate . (रिलेट) v. t. & i. to tell, to report. कहना, सूचना देना.

relaxation — (रिलैक्सेशन) n. act of relaxing, partial remission. विश्राम, शिथिलता, छूट.

relevance — (रेलेवैन्स) n. pertinence. अनुरूपता.

relevant — (रेलेवैन्ट) adj. applicable. अनुरूप.

reliable — (रेलायब्ल) adj. able to be trusted. विश्वास करने योग्य.

reliance — (रेलायन्स) n. confidence. भरोसा.

reluctant — (रेलक्टैण्ट) adj. unwilling. जो राजी न हो.

remain — (रिमेन) v. t. to continue, to stay behind. कायम रहना, बाकी रहना.

remark — (रिमार्क) n. observation. निरीक्षण; v. t. & i. to notice, to say something. देखना, कहना.

remember — (रिमेम्बर) v. t. to keep in mind. याद करना.

rememberance — (रिमेम्बरैन्स) n. memory. यादगार.

remit — (रेमिट) v. t. to forgo, to send money. छोड़ना, रुपया भेजना

remittance — (रेमिटेन्स) n. money sent. भेजा हुआ धन.

remorse — (रेमोर्स) n. regret. पश्चाताप.

removable — (रिमूवेबल) adj. able to be removed. हटाने योग्य.

remove — (रिमूव) v. t. & i. to move from a place, to dismiss. स्थान बदलना.

renaissance — (रिनेसेन्स) n. the revival of arts and literature. कला

कौशल की जागृति का द्वंद्वकाल, पुनर्जागरण.

rencounter — (रेनकाउण्टर) n. encounter, sudden conflict. द्वन्द्व, आकस्मिक टक्कर.

render — (रेण्डर) v. t. to give in return, to submit. देना, सौंपना, समर्पित करना.

renew — (रिन्यू) v. t. & i. to repeat, to make again. नया करना, फिर से करना.

renewal — (रिन्यूअल) n. revival. नवीनीकरण.

renounce — (रिनाउन्स) v. t. & i. to reject, to give up. त्यागना.

renowned — (रिनाउण्ड) adj. famous. मशहूर, प्रसिद्ध.

renunciation — (रिननसिएशन) n. self denial. बलिदान, त्याग.

repair — (रिपेयर) v. t. to mend. मरम्मत करना.

reparable — (रेपेयरेबल) adj. able to be mended. सुधारने योग्य.

repeatedly — (रिपीटेड्ली) adj. over and over again. बारम्बार.

repent — (रिपेण्ट) v. t. to regret about. पछताना.

repentance — (रिपेन्टेन्स) n. sorrow, regret. पछतावा.

repetition — (रिपिटेशन) n. act of repeating. दोहराना.

reporter — (रिपोर्टर) n. one who makes a report. सम्वाददाता.

represent — (रिप्रेजेण्ट) v. t. to show, to describe, to act for. प्रकट करना, वर्णन करना, प्रतिनिधित्व करना.

reproduce — (रिप्रोड्यूस) v. t. to produce again, to produce copy of. पुन: उत्पन्न करना, प्रतिलिपि बनाना.

republic — (रिपब्लिक) n. a commonwealth government without monarch where power is with people and their elected representatives. प्रजातन्त्र, गणराज्य.

require — (रिक्वायर) v. t. to demand, to want. मांगना चाहना.

requirement — (रिक्वायरमेण्ट) n. demand. आकांक्षा.

rescuer — (रेस्क्यूअर) n. one who rescues. बचाने वाला, मुक्त करने वाला.

research — (रिसर्च) n. a careful investigation. खोज.

resemblance — (रिज़ेम्बलैन्स) n. similarity. तुल्यता, समरूपता.

resemble — (रिज़ेम्बल) v. t. to be like or similar to. तुल्य होना.

resembling — (रेज़ेम्बलिंग) adj. similar. समान.

resent — (रिज़ेण्ट) v. t. to take ill, to be angry at. क्रोध करना.

resentful — (रेजेन्टफुल) adj. irritable. क्रोधी.

resentment — (रिज़ेण्टमेण्ट) n. anger. क्रोध.

reservation — (रिज़र्वेशन) n. the act of reserving. आरक्षण, संरक्षण.

residence — (रेज़ीडेन्स) n. a place where one lives. निवास.

resident — (रैज़ीडेण्ट) n. one who resides in a place. निवासी.

residential — (रेज़ीडेन्शल) adj. relating to residence. निवास सम्बन्धी.

residue — (रेज़ीड्यू) n. remainder. अवशेष, बचा हुआ.

residuum — (रेज़ीड्यूम) n. that which is left. बचा हुआ भाग.

resign — (रिज़ाइन) v. t. to give up office, to surrender. त्याग पत्र देना, इस्तीफा देना, छोड़ना.

resignation — (रेज़िग्नेशन) n. the act of resigning. पद-परित्याग, त्यागपत्र.

resist — (रेज़िस्ट) v. t. to oppose. अवरोध करना.

resistance — (रेज़िस्टेंन्स) n. opposition. विरोध.

respect — (रिस्पेक्ट) n. & v. t. to honour, to esteem. प्रतिष्ठा करना.

respectable — (रिस्पेक्टेबल) adj. deserving respect. पूज्य, आदरणीय.

respectively — (रिस्पेक्टिवली) adv. relatively. यथाक्रम.

respond — (रिस्पॉण्ड) v. t. to answer. उत्तर देना. (responded-p. t. & p.p.) **respondent** — (रिसपॉण्डेण्ट) n. & adj. answering. प्रतिवादी.

response — (रिस्पॉन्स) n. an answer. प्रतिवचन, उत्तर.

responsibility — (रिस्पॉन्सिबिलिटी) n. the charge for which one is responsible. उत्तरदायित्व.

responsible — (रिस्पॉन्सिबल) adj. answerable. जिम्मेदार.

restoration — (रेस्टोरिशन) n. restoring. उद्धार.

restore —(रेस्टोर) v. t. to give back, to build up again, to renew. लौटाना, सुधारना, नया करना.

restrain — (रेस्ट्रेन) v. t. to check, to hinder. रोकना, थामना.

restraint — (रेस्ट्रेण्ट) n. check. रुकावट.

restriction — (रेसट्रिक्शन) n. act of restricting. बन्धन, मर्यादा, नियन्त्रण, प्रतिबन्ध.

retail — (रिटेल) v. t. & i. to sell in small quantities. फुटकर बिक्री.

retailer — (रिटेलर) n. one who retails. फुटकर विक्रेता.

retain — (रिटेन) v.t. to hold back, to engage. रोकना, धारण करना, अटका रखना.

retaliation — (रिटैलिएशन) n . revenge, return. बदला, प्रतिफल.

retard — (रिटार्ड) v. t. to hinder. कम करना.

retention — (रिटेनशन) n. act of retaining. धारण करने की शक्ति, ग्रहण.

retina — (रेटिना) n. sensitive layer of the eyes. आंख के पिछले भाग की पर्त, दृष्टिपटल.

retire — (रिटायर) v. t. to draw back, to go to bed. वापिस आना, सोने जाना.

retirement —(रिटायरमेण्ट) n. privacy. एकान्त स्थान.

retouch — (रीटच) v. t. to improve by fine touches. महीन लाइन से चित्र अंकित करना.

retraceable — (रीट्रेसेबल) adj. able to be retraced. खोजने योग्य.

retract — (रिट्रैक्ट) v. t. & i. to revoke, to draw back. विमुख होना, पलटना, वापिस लेना.

retrench — (रीट्रेन्च) v. i. to lessen, to curtail. काटना, कम करना.

retrievable — (रिट्रीवेबल) adj. recoverable. दुबारा पाये जाने योग्य.

retrieve — (रिट्रीव) v. t. to recover, to save, to rescue. पुन: प्राप्त करना, बचाना, सुधारना.

retrim — (रीट्रीम) v. t. to trim again. काट छांट करना.

return — (रिटर्न) v. t. & i. to come back, to give back. लौटना, वापस आना, लौटाना, वापस करना; n. act of returning. वापसी; official report. हिसाब का लेखा.

reveal — (रिवील) v. t. to disclose. प्रतक्ष करना.

revenge — (रिवेन्ज) n. a retaliation. बदला; v. t. to return injury for injury. बेर करना.

revere — (रिवियर) v. t. to venerate. पवित्र मानना.

reverend — (रेवरेंड) n. adj. deserving reverence. माननीय.

reverse — (रिवर्स) n. defeat, contrary condition. हार, विपरीत अवस्था; adj. opposite. उल्टा; v. t. to invert. उलटना.

revertible — (रिवर्टेबल) adj. able to be reverted. पलटने योग्य.

reviewer — (रिव्यूअर) n. a writer of reviews. समालोचक.

revise — (रिवाइज़) v. t. to reexamine, to amend faults. दुबारा परीक्षा करना, गल्तियां सुधारना.

revivable — (रिवाइवेबल) adj. what may be revived. जिलाने योग्य, सचेत करने योग्य.

revival — (रिवाइवल) n. a recovery to life. नव जागरण, पुनर्जीवन.

revive — (रिवाइव) v. t. & i. to bring back to life, to vigour. जीवित करना, जान पड़ना.

revocation — (रीवोकेशन) n. cancellation. खण्डन.

revoke — (रीवोक) v. t. to cancel. खण्डन करना.

revolt — (रिवोल्ट) v. t. & i. to rebel, to feel disgust for. राजद्रोह करना, विरक्त होना.

revolve — (रिवॉल्व) v. t. to move about a centre, to rotate. चक्कर लगाना, घूमना.

rewardless — (रिवॉर्डलेस) adj. having no reward. बिना पारितोषिक का.

rheum — (रूम) n. discharge from the nose. नज़ला.

rheumatism — (रूमेटिज़्म) n. a painful disorder of joints. गठिया रोग.

rich — (रिच) adj. costly, wealthy, fertile. धनी, उपजाऊ.

riches — (रिचेज़) n. wealth. धन.

richness — (रिचनेस) n. wealth. धन.

rider — (राइडर) n. one who rides. सवार.

ridiculous — (रिडीक्युलस) adj. causing laughter. भद्दा, हास्योत्पादक.

rifle corps — (राइफ़ल कोर) n. volunteers armed with rifles. बन्दूक से सुसज्जित सैनिक दल.

rift — (रिफ़्ट) n. a cleft, an opening. दरार, छेद; v. t. to burst open. चीरना.

riftless — (रिफ़्टलेस) adj. without a rift. बिना दरार का.

rifty — (रिफ़्टी) adj. having cracks. दरारदार.

right — (राइट) adj. correct, lawful, according to rule, opposed to left, straight. ठीक, उचित, शुद्ध, सीधा, दाहिना.

righteous — (राइचियस) adj. upright, honest, just, lawful. न्यायी, सीधा,

ईमानदार, धर्मात्मा.

rigid — (रिजिड) adj. stiff. कड़ा.

rigidity —(रिजिडिटी) n. stiffness. कठोरता, दृढ़ता.

ring — (रिंग) n. an ornament worn on the finger. अंगूठी.

rinse — (रिन्स) v. t. to clean in water. पानी से साफ करना.

rinsing — (रिन्सिंग) n. washing. धुलाई.

risky —(रिस्की) adj. hazardous. आपत्तिपूर्ण.

rival — (राइवल) n. a competitor. प्रतिस्पर्धा; adj. competing. स्पर्धा करने वाला; v. t. to emulate. स्पर्धा करना.

roam — (रोम) v. i. to wander. घूमना.

roast — (रोस्ट) v. t. to bake, to cook on open fire. भूनना, सेंकना.

robe —(रोब) n. a gown. लबादा; v. t. & i . to dress with a robe. लबादा धारण करना.

rock —(रॉक) n. a large mass of stone. चट्टान.

rogue —(रोग) n. a knave. धूर्त; v. t. & i . to cheat. धोखा देना.

roguish —(रोगिश) adj. knavish, mischievous, villanous. धूर्त.

romance —(रोमान्स) n. a love story. रोमांच, प्रेम कहानी.

romantic —(रोमाण्टिक) adj. marvellous. रोमांचक.

room —(रूम) n. a space, a separative division of a house. स्थान, कमरा.

rot —(रॉट) n. decay. नाश; v. t . & i. to decay. सड़ना.

rotary —(रोटरी) adj. revolving. घूमने या चक्कर मारने वाला.

rotate —(रोटेट) v. t . & i. to revolve, to cause to revolve. घूमना, घुमाना.

rotation —(रोटेशन) n. the act of turning. भ्रमण.

rotten —(रॉटन) adj. decayed. सड़ा हुआ.

rough —(रफ) adj. not smooth, uncivil. भद्दा, खुरदरा, असभ्य.

roughen —(रफेन) v. t . & i to make rough. खुरदरा बनाना.

roundish —(राउण्डिश) adj. somewhat round. कुछ गोल.

roundly —(राउण्डली) adv. completely, boldly. पूरी तरह से, स्पष्ट रूप से.

route —(रूट) n. road, way. मार्ग, सड़क.

routine —(रूटीन) n. a regular course of action. कार्यक्रम.

rowdy —(राउडी) n. disorderly person. उपद्रवी; adj. noisy. कोलाहल.

rubbish —(रबिश) n. waste matter, trash. कूड़ा, तुच्छ पदार्थ.

rumour —(र्यूमर) n. hearsay. उड़ती हुई खबर, लोक वार्ता.

rupee —(रूपी) n. a coin of India, Indian currency. रुपया, भारतीय मुद्रा.

rustic —(रस्टिक) adj. of the country. ग्रामीण, देहाती.

rusticity —(रस्टिसिटी) n. rustic manner. ग्रामीणता.

rusticate —(रस्टिकेट) v. t. to banish from the institution. संस्था से निकाल देना.

ruthless —(रूथलेस) adj. pitiless. निर्दयी, क्रूर.

S

sabbath —(सैबथ) n. the divinely appointed day of rest. छुट्टी का पवित्र दिन.

sabotage —(सैबोटेज) n. intentional damage. हानि, तोड़-फोड़.

sacred —(सेक्रेड) adj. holy, divine. धार्मिक, पवित्र.

sacrifice —(सैक्रीफ़ाइस) n. an offering to God, a loss. बलिदान, होम; v. t. & i . to give up, to resign, to offer to God. अर्पण करना, बलिदान देना.

sad —(सैड) adj. sorrowful. दु:खी, उदास.

safeguard —(सेफ़गार्ड) n. protection. रक्षा; v. t. to guard. रक्षा करना.

safety —(सेफ्टी) n. freedom from danger, security. सुरक्षा.

saint —(सेण्ट) n. a sage, a holy man. मुनि, सन्त.

saleable —(सेलेबल) adj. fit for sale. विक्रय योग्य.

salary —(सैलरी) n. pay. वेतन; v. t. to pay a regular salary. नियम से वेतन देना.

sale —(सेल) n. selling. बिक्री.

salt —(सॉल्ट) n. a substance formed by action of acid and base or metal. लवण; adj. नमकीन; v. t. to season with salt. नमकीन करना.

salvation —(सैलवेशन) n. freedom from sin. मोक्ष, मुक्ति.

salve —(सैल्व) n. a healing ointment. मलहम; v. t. to rescue. नाश होने से

बचाना.

sample —(सैम्पल) n. specimen, model. नमूना.

sandwich —(सैण्ड्विच) n. two slices of bread with any sort of food in between them. सैण्ड्विच.

sane —(सेन) adj. of sound mind. स्वस्थ चित्त.

sanitary —(सैनिटरी) adj. pertaining to health. स्वास्थ्य सम्बन्धी, सफाई का.

sap —(सैप) n. the vital juice circulating in plants. सार.

satellite —(सैटिलाइट) n. a planet revolving round another, a hanger on. उपग्रह, अनुचर.

satire —(सैटायर) n. irony, sarcasm. ताना, व्यंग्ये.

Saturday —(सैटरडे) n. the seventh day of the week. शनिवार.

Saturn —(सैटर्न) n. the name of a planet. शनिग्रह.

sauce —(सॉस) n. liquid or dressing to food for taste. चटनी.

saucer —(सॉसर) n. a small plate. तश्तरी.

saving —(सेविंग) adj. protecting, preserving. मुक्त करने वाला, रक्षा करने वाला.

savings —(सेविंग्स) n. something kept from being expended. संग्रह, बचत.

saying —(सेइंग) n. a proverb. कहावत.

scale —(स्केल) n. a thin layer. पतली तह; v. i. to come off in scales. परत उतरना.

scandal —(स्कैण्डल) n. reproach, shame, calumny. आक्षेप, निन्दा.

scant —(स्कैण्ट) n. scarcity. कमी; adj. scarce. कम; adv. scarely. कम मात्रा में.

scarce —(स्केअर्स) adj. scanty, in small quantity. अपर्याप्त, कम.

scarcity —(स्केयरसिटी) n. rarity, famine. कमी, अकाल.

scarf —(स्कार्फ़) n. a piece of cloth worn round the neck. रुमाल, स्कार्फ़.

schedule —(शेड्यूल) n. a list. सूची, v. t. to place in list or catalogue. सूचीपत्र बनाना.

scheme —(स्कीम) n. a system, plan. कार्य योजना, विन्यास; v. t. to plan.

प्रबन्ध करना, उपाय करना.

scholar —(स्कॉलर) n. one who learns, one who is learned. विद्वान.

scholarship —(स्कॉलरशिप) n. learning, a money allowance made to a student. विद्वता, छात्रवृत्ति.

s ci**entist** —(साइण्टिस्ट) n. one who knows or practises science. वैज्ञानिक.

scissors —(सिज़र्स) n. a cutting instrument of two blades moving on a pin. कैंची.

scope —(स्कोप) n. range, that at which one aims. क्षेत्र, अभिप्राय, उद्देश्य.

scorn —(स्कॉर्न) n. extreme disdain. निन्दा; v. t. to hate. घृणा करना.

sea —(सी) n. the ocean. समुद्र.

search —(सर्च) n. an examination. खोज; v. t . & i. to seek out, to investigate. खोजना.

sculpture —(स्कल्पचर) n. work of an sculptor. मूर्तिकला, मूर्ति.

secrecy —(सीक्रेसी) n. privacy. गुप्तता.

secret —(सीक्रेट) n. a mystery. भेद, रहस्य; adj. hidden, private, concealed. गूढ़, गुप्त.

secretariat —(सेक्रेटेरिएट) n. the office of a secretary. सचिव का कार्यालय.

secretary —(सेक्रेटरी) n. one who writes letters, a government official. सचिव, मन्त्री.

secular —(सेक्यूलर) adj. worldly. लौकिक, धर्म निरपेक्ष.

securable —(सिक्योरेबल) adj. able to be secured. दृढ़ करने योग्य.

security —(सिक्योरिटी) n. safety. रक्षा.

seesaw —(सिसॉ) n. game in which two children sit and swing. बच्चों का झूला, ढेंकी.

seize —(सीज़) v. t. to catch. पकड़ना.

seizure —(सीज़र) n. a sudden attack. धावा.

seldom —(सेल्डम) adv. rarely, not often. कभी-कभी, कदाचित.

self —(सेल्फ़) n. a person's identity or private interest. निजत्व.

selfish —(सेलफ़िश) adj. concerning only oneself. स्वार्थी मतलबी.

semi —(सेमी) prefix . in sense of half. अर्ध, उपसर्ग.

semicolon —(सेमीकोलन) n. a mark of punctuation. (;) सेमीकोलन नामक चिन्ह.

sensibility —(सेन्सिबिलिटी) n. capacity to feel. बोध, मालूम करने की शक्ति.

sensible —(सेन्सिबिल) adj. appreciable. समझदार.

sensitive —(सेन्सिटिव) adj. easily moved. भावुक.

sensuality —(सेन्सुऐलिटी) n. gratification of appetites. इन्द्रिय जनित सुख.

sensuous —(सेन्सुअस) adj. derived from the senses. इन्द्रिय जनित.

separable —(सेपरेब्ल) n . & adj. that can be separated. अलग करने योग्य.

separate —(सेपेरेट) adj. divided. अलग; v. t . & i. to divide. पृथक करना.

separation —(सेपरेशन) n. disjoining. भिन्नता, वियोग.

serene —(सिरीन) adj. clear, calm. शान्त, निर्मल.

sergeant —(सारजेण्ट) n. a noncommissioned officer in the army. सामान्य सेनाधिकारी.

serviceable —(सर्विसेबल) adj. useful. उपयोगी.

settlement —(सेट्लमेण्ट) n. the act of settling. निर्णय.

sever —(सेवर) v. t. & i. to separate. अलग करना.

several —(सेवेरल) adj. separate. पृथक.

severe —(सिवियर) adj. harsh, strict. सख्त, कठोर.

sex —(सेक्स) n. the characteristics which distinguish a male from a female. लिंग.

sexual —(सेक्स्युअल) adj. pertaining to sex. लिंग सम्बन्धी.

shade —(शेड) n. a place sheltered from the sun. छाया; v. t. to screen, to shelter. छाया करना.

shady —(शेडी) adj. dark, gloomy. छायादार.

shake —(शेक) v. t. & i . to move, to vibrate. कांपना, हिलना.

shallow —(शैलो) adj. not deep, trivial. छिछला, ओछा.

shampoo —(शैम्पू) v. t. to wash and rub the head with lather. सिर धोना.

share —(शेयर) n. a portion, an allotment. अंश; v. t. to divide. भाग करना.

sheep —(शीप) n. a woolly animal. भेड़.

sheepish —(शीपिश) adj. timid. डरपोक.

sheer —(शियर) adj. utter, mere, absolute. बिल्कुल, सीधा, निरा, एकदम.

sheet —(शीट) n. a broad piece of paper, a sail. कागज़ का ताव, पतवार.

shiftiness —(शिफ़्टीनेश) n. the state of being shifty. कपट.

shield —(शील्ड) n. armour for defence. ढाल, कवच, प्रतिरक्षक.

shining —(शाइनिंग) adj. brilliant. चमकदार.

shipping —(शिपिंग) adj. relating to ships. जहाज़ सम्बन्धी.

shock —(शॉक) n. a collision, a sudden jerk. आघात, धक्का.

shocking —(सौकिंग) ad. offensive. क्षुब्ध या स्तम्भित करने वाला.

short —(शॉट) adj. having little height, hasty. अल्प, छोटा; adv. suddenly. तुरन्त.

shortcoming —(शॉर्टकमिंग) n. a fault. कमी, गलती, त्रुटि.

shortage —(शॉर्टेज) n. an insufficient supply. कमी.

shorten —(शॉर्टन) v. t. to make short. कम करना, घटाना.

shout —(शाउट) v. t. to cry loudly. चिल्लाना; n. loud cry. शोर, चिल्लाहट.

shrewd —(श्रूड) adj. keen witted, cunning. चतुर, होशियार.

shrinkable —(श्रिंकेब्ल) adj. able to contract. सिकुड़ने योग्य.

shun —(शन) v. t. to avoid. घृणा करना, दूर रहना.

shut —(शट) v. t . & i. to confine, to close, to separate. बन्द करना, रोकना.

sigh —(साई) n. long breath. आह; v. t. to mourn, to grieve. ठंडी सांस भरना, दु:ख प्रकट करना.

sign —(साइन) n. a symptom, a gesture, a distinctive work. चिन्ह, संकेत, लक्षण; v. t. to mark with a sign. चिन्ह करना, हस्ताक्षर करना.

signature —(सिग्नेचर) n. person's name written by himself. हस्ताक्षर.

significance —(सिग्निफ़िकेन्स) n. meaning, importance. तात्पर्य, अर्थ, महत्व.

silence —(साइलेन्स) n. stillness. शान्ति; v. t. to make silent. शान्त करना.

silent —(साइलेण्ट) adj. calm, quiet, still. शांत, मौन, खामोश.

silliness —(सिलीनेस) n. the quality of being silly. अनाड़ीपन.

simile —(सिमिली) n. a figure of speech. उपमा.

simplicity —(सिम्पलीसिटी) n. innocence. सरलता.

sin —(सिन) n. wickedness. पाप; v. i. to commit sin. पाप करना.

since —(सिन्स) adv. prep . & conj. ago, in the past time, after, through the period between past and present. तबसे.

sincere —(सिनसियर) adj. honest, true. ईमानदार, सच्चा.

sincerity —(सिनसियरिटी) n. सच्चाई, खरापन.

singular —(सिंग्यूलर) adj . single, rare, remarkable. अकेला, अनोखा, विचित्र.

sir —(सर) n. a word used in addressing a master or elder. महाशय.

sire —(सायर) n. a senior, a master, father, ancestor, a title. श्रीमन, पूर्वज, हुजूर, पिता, महाराज.

situate —(सिचुएट) adj. place. रखना, स्थापित करना.

sketch —(स्केच) n. an outline. रुपरेखा, खाका; v. t. to draw an outline. खाका बनाना.

skin —(स्किन) n. hide, rind. खाल, चमड़ा, छाल; v. t. to strip off the skin. खाल उतारना.

skip —(स्किप) v. i. to leap. कूदना.

slaughter —(स्लॉटर) n. a killing. हत्या, संहार; v. t. to murder. वध करना.

slave —(स्लेव) n. one who is held in bondage, a helpless victim. दास; v. i. to work like a slave. दास की तरह काम करना.

slay —(स्ले) v. t. to kill. मार डालना.

sleep —(स्लीप) n. slumber. नींद; v. i. to slumber. सोना.

slip —(स्लिप) n. a mistake. भूल; v. t. & i. to glide, to make a false step, to err. फिसलना, भूल करना.

slum —(स्लम) n. a dirty area. गंदी बस्ती.

small —(स्मॉल) n. a slender part. छोटा या थोड़ा भाग; adj. of little size and strength. लघु.

smile —(स्माइल) n. look of pleasure. मुस्कुराहट, प्रसन्नता; v. i. to laugh

slightly. मुस्कुराना.

smoke —(स्मोक) n. fog, gases, vapour; धुंआ; v. t. & i. to give forth smoke. धूंआ निकलना.

smuggle —(स्मग्ल) v. t. to import or export goods without paying custom duties. चोरी से माल लाना या ले जाना.

snake —(स्नेक) n. a serpent, a slow lazy person. सांप, धूर्त मनुष्य.

sneeze —(स्नीज़) v. t. to eject air through the nose violently with an audible sound. छींकना.

snow —(स्नो) n. frozen vapour falling in white flakes. तुषार, पाला, बर्फ़; v. i. to fall in snow. बर्फ़ पड़ना.

soap —(सोप) n. a compound of fats and alkalies, a washing substance. साबुन; v. t. to wash with soap. साबुन से साफ करना.

sociable —(सोशेबल) adj. friendly, fit for company. मिलनसार.

solemn —(सॉलेम) adj. serious, grave. गम्भीर.

solicit —(सॉलिसट) v. t. & i. to try to obtain. प्राप्त करने की कोशिश करना.

solid —(सॉलिड) adj. whole, compact. सम्पूर्ण.

solidarity —(सॉलीडैरिटी) n. joint liability. परस्पर आधीनता.

solitude —(सॉलीट्यूड) n. loneliness. अकेलापन.

soluble —(सॉल्यूबल) adj. capable of being dissolved. घुलनशील.

solvable —(सॉल्वेबिल) adj. that may be solved. व्याख्या करने योग्य.

something —(समथिंग) n. an unknown event. अज्ञात घटना.

soon —(सून) adj. in a short time, promptly. शीघ्र, तुरंत.

sorrow —(सॉरो) n. grief, regret. शोक, रंज; v. t. to regret. शोक प्रकट करना.

sound —(साउण्ड) adj. healthy, unhurt. स्वस्थ; v. t. & i. to fathom the depth of water. गहराई नापना.

sound —(साउण्ड) n. that can be heard. आवाज; v. t. to utter aloud. बोलना.

soup —(सूप) n. liquid food. रसा.

sow —(सो) n. a female pig. सुअरी; v. t. to spread seeds. बोना.

sparable —(स्पैरेबल) n. a headless nail used by shoemakers. बिना माथे की कील.

spare —(स्पेयर) v. t. to save. बचाना; adj. frugal, thin. अल्प, थोड़ा, दुर्बल.

sparkle —(स्पार्कल) n. a little spark. v. i to glitter. चमकना.

specific —(स्पैसिफ़िक) n . & adj . definite, precise, distinct, a sure remedy. प्रधान, मुख्य, अचूक औषधि.

specification —(स्पैसिफ़िकेशन) n. a particular mention of anything. विशेष, विस्तार पूर्वक, विशिष्ट विवरण.

spectacle —(स्पेक्टेक्ल) n. show, sight. दृश्य, तमाशा (spectacles—n . चश्मा.)

speech —(स्पीच) n. the faculty of speaking. वाणी, भाषा.

spendthrift —(स्पेण्डथ्रिफ़्ट) adj. person who wastes his money. अधिक खर्च करने वाला, फिजूल खर्च.

spin —(स्पिन) v. t. & i. to make thread by drawing out and twisting threads. कातना.

spine —(स्पाइन) n. the back bone. रीढ़.

spirit —(स्प्रिट) n. the soul, courage, disposition, energy, आत्मा, शक्ति, प्राण.

spiritual —(स्प्रिचुअल) adj. holy. पवित्र, ईश्वरीय.

sport —(स्पोर्ट) n. a game, jest. खेल, क्रीड़ा; v. t. & i . to trifle. हंसी करना, कौतुक करना.

sprinkling —(स्प्रिंक्लिंग) n. the act of scattering in drops. छिड़काव.

sprout —plant. पौधे का अंकुर. v. t. to grow. उगना.

spurn —(स्पर्न) v. t. to treat contemptuously. तिरस्कार करना.

spy —(स्पाई) n. secret agent, one who watches secretly. जासूस, गुप्तचर.

squash —(स्कवैश) n. a crush. कुचला पदार्थ; v. t. to crush, to reduce to pulp. कुचलना, भुरता, बना देना, ठूसना.

squeezable —(स्क्वीज़ेबल) adj. able to be squeezed. निचोड़ने योग्य.

squeeze —(स्क्वीज़) v. t. & i. to press, to extort money. दबाना, निचोड़ना, रुपया ऐंठना.

stable —(स्टेबल) adj. firmly fixed. निश्चय.

stable —(स्टेबल) n. a building for lodging horses. अस्तबल, घुड़साल; v. t. to keep in stable. अस्तबल में रखना, घुड़साल में रखना.

stadium —(स्टेडियम) n. an athletic ground. अखाड़ा.

stage —(स्टेज) n. a raised platform, scene, the dramatic art. रंगमंच, नाटक, मचान; v. t. & i. to play on the stage. नाटक खेलना.

stagnant —(स्टैगनैण्ट) n. dull. मन्द.

stamina —(स्टैमिना) n. strength. सहनशक्ति.

stammer —(स्टैमर) v. t. to speak with hesitation. हकलाना.

standardize —(स्टैण्डरडाइज) v. t. to conform to standard. प्रमाण या स्तर के अनुसार करना.

stark —(स्टार्क) adj. stiff. कठिन; adj. quite. बिल्कुल.

starting —(स्टार्टिंग) n. departure. प्रस्थान.

starvation —(स्टारवेशन) (n .) the act of starving. उपवास, आहारहीनता.

starve —(स्टार्व) v. t. &. i. to cause to starve, to die or die for want of food. भूखों मरना.

stationary —(स्टेश्नरी) adj. fixed. स्थिर.

stationery —(स्टेश्नरी) n. writing materials. लेखन सामग्री.

statue —(स्टेच्यू) n. a cast image. खोदी हुई मूर्ति.

stature —(स्टेचर) n. the natural height of the body. आकार, कद.

status —(स्टेटस) n. rank, social position. पद.

stay —(स्टे) n. stop. रुकाव; v. t. & i. to remain, to stop. रूकना, थमना, ठहरना.

steadfast —(स्टेडफ़ास्ट) adj. firm. अटल.

steadily —(स्टेडिली) adv. firmly. स्थिरता से.

steely —(स्टीली) adj. made of steel. कठोर.

steep —(स्टीप) n. a precipitous place. ढलुआ, स्थान; adj. sloping. ढालू.

stenography —(स्टेनोग्राफी) n. short hand. संकेत लिपि.

sterile —(स्टेराइल) adj. barren, unfruitful. बांझ, ऊसर, निष्फल.

sterling —(स्टर्लिंग) adj. genuine, of solid worth. निर्मल, खरा, असली; n. English coin. अंग्रेजी, मुद्रा.

sterility —(स्टर्लिटी) n. barrenness. ऊसरपन.

sterilization —(स्टेरिलाइजेशन) n. the act of sterilizing. कीटाणु का दूर करना.

stimulate —(स्टिम्युलेट) v. i. to incite. उकसाना.

stimulation —(स्टिम्युलेशन) n the act of exciting. उत्तेजना.

stirring —(स्टररिंग) adj. exciting. उत्तेजना.

stitch —(स्टिच) n. a single pass of needle in sewing. टांका; v. t. to sew. सीना.

stomach —(स्टम्क) n. an organ in which food is digested. पेट, उदर; v. t. to suffer patiently. धैर्य से सहना.

stone —(स्टोन) n. piece of rock, a gem, a monumental tablet. पत्थर, रत्न, शिला पत्थर.

stop —(स्टॉप) n. halt, a pause. विश्राम; v. t. to halt, to pause. रूकना.

stoppage —(स्टॉपेज) n. obstruction. रुकावट.

storey —(स्टोरी) n. the horizontal division of a building. मकान की मंजिल, तल्ला.

story —(स्टोरी) n. legend, tale, short narrative. कहानी.

stout —(स्टाउट) adj. strong. मज़बूत.

straight —(स्ट्रेट) adj. honest, not bent. सच्चा, सीधा.

straighten —(स्ट्रेटन) v. t. to make straight. सीधा करना.

straightforward —(स्ट्रेटफ़ॉरवर्ड) adj. frank, honest. सत्यवादी.

straightway —(स्ट्रेटवे) adv. at once. तुरन्त.

strained —(स्ट्रेण्ड) adj. unnatural. तना हुआ.

strand —(स्ट्रैण्ड) n. shore, beach. तट, किनारा; v. t. to drive ashore. किनारे पर लगाना.

stranger —(स्ट्रेन्जर) n. a foreigner. परदेशी.

strap —(स्ट्रैप) n. a long narrow strip usually of leather. तस्मा, फीता, पट्टी.

strategy —(स्ट्रैटेजी) n. military tactics. युद्ध विद्या, रण कौशल.

straw —(स्ट्रॉ) n. dry corn, stock. पुआल, भूसा.

stream —(स्ट्रीम) n. a body of running water. स्रोत, धारा; v. t. & i . to flow in a stream. धारा में बहना.

streamlet —(स्ट्रीमलेट) n. a little stream. छोटा सोता.

strength —(स्ट्रेंथ) n. power, force, vigour, intensity, शक्ति, प्रभाव.

strengthen —(स्ट्रैन्थ) v. t. & i. to make strong. शक्तिशाली बनाना.

stress —(स्ट्रेस) n. pressure, strain, force, effort. भार, बोझ, दबाव, ज़ोर.

stretch —(स्ट्रेच) n. extent. विस्तार; v. t. to lengthen, to extend. फैलाना.

stretcher —(स्ट्रेचर) n. an appliance for carrying a sick and disabled person. स्ट्रेचर.

strike —(स्ट्राइक) n. refusal of workman to work, till the grievance is removed. हड़ताल, कार्यबंदी.

striking —(स्ट्राइकिंग) adj. impressive. प्रभावशाली.

string —(स्ट्रिंग) n . a fine cord. डोरी.

strive —(स्ट्राइव) v. i. to try hard, to struggle. प्रयत्न करना.

structure —(स्ट्रक्चर) n. construction, form. ढांचा, रचना.

stubborn —(स्ट्बर्न) adj. obstinate. हठी, जिद्दी.

studious —(स्टूडिअस) adj. thoughtful, devoted to study. विचारवान, अध्ययनशील, पढ़ने वाला.

study —(स्टडी) n. meditation, careful reading. अध्ययन; v.t , & i . to contemplate. ध्यान, विचार, अध्ययन करना.

stupid —(स्टुपिड) adj. dull. मूर्ख.

stupidity — (स्टुपिडिटी) n. foolishness. मूर्खता.

sturdiness —(स्टूर्डीनेस) n. the state of being sturdy. दृढ़ता.

sturdy —(स्टर्डी) adj. strong. पुष्ट.

stutterer —(स्टटर्र) n. a stammerer. हकला कर बोलने वाला.

Style —(स्टाइल) n . manner. ढंग रूप; manner of writing or speaking. लिखने या बोलने का तरीका.

subdivision —(सबडिवीज़न) n. a subordinate department उप-विभाग.

subdue —(सबड्यू) v. t. to conquer. जीतना.

subjugate —(सबज्यूगेट) v. t. to bring under control. अधिकार में लाना.

sublet —(सबलेट) v. t. to underlet or lease to another person. किसी दूसरे को अपना ठेका देना.

sublime —(सबलाइम) n. majestic style. प्रौढ़ रीति; adj. noble, exalted. महान, प्रतापी.

submission —(सबमिशन) n. obedience to authority. आज्ञा पालन.

submit —(सबमिट) v. t . & i. to yield. हार मानना, स्वीकार करना.

subscribe —(सब्सक्राइब) v. t. & i. to sign. to assent. नाम लिखना, ग्राहक बनना.

subsequent —(सब्सीक्वेण्ट) adj. following after. उत्तरकालीन.

subsidiary —(सब्सिडियरी) adj. helping. सहायक.

subsidy —(सब्सिडी) n. assistance, aid in money. आर्थिक सहायता.

substance —(सब्सटेन्स) n. the essential part. सार, तत्त्व.

substantial —(सब्सटैंशल) adj. essential, real, material. महत्वपूर्ण, वास्तविक, धनी.

substitute —(सब्सटीट्यूट) v. t. to put in other's place. दूसरे की जगह रखना n. person or thing doing the work of another. प्रतिनिधि.

subvention —(सबवेन्शन) n. support. सहारा.

subversion —(सबवर्ज़न) n. ruin, नाश.

succeed —(सकसीड) v. t . & i. to be successful to follow after सफल होना, बाद में होना.

success —(सक्सेस) n. a favourable result. सफलता.

succession —(सक्सेशन) n. relation, line. परम्परा, वंश, पंक्ति.

successor —(सक़सेसर) n. one who succeeds. उत्तराधिकारी.

such —(सच) adj. of the same kind, similar. उसी तरह का.

sudden —(सडेन) adj. happening unexpectedly. आकस्मिक.

suffer —(सफ़र) v. t. & i. to endure. सहना.

suffering —(सफ़रिंग) n. distress. पीड़ा.

suffice —(सफ़ाइस) v. t. & i. to be enough. पर्याप्त होना.

sufficiency —(सफ़िशिएन्सी) n. ability, capacity. समर्थता.

sufficient —(सफ़िशिएण्ट) adj. adequate. पर्याप्त.

suffix —(सफ़िक्स) n. a letter or syllable appended to a word. प्रत्यय.

suicide —(स्यूसाइड) n. death by one's own hand. आत्महत्या.

suit —(स्यूट) n. a petition. प्रार्थना.

suitability —(स्यूटेबिलीटी) n. suitableness. योग्यता.

Sum —(सम) n. total, a question. योग, प्रश्न; v. t. to total. जोड़ना.

summarize —(समराइज़) v. t. to present briefly. संक्षेप करना.

summary —(समरी) n. a short, concise statement. सारांश; adj. brief. संक्षेप.

sunny —(सनी) adj. bright. cheerful. चमकीला.

superhuman —(सुपरह्यूमन) beyond human power. अतिमानवीय.

superintendence —(सुपरिन्टेण्डेण्स) n. management. प्रबन्ध.

superintendent —(सुपरिन्टेण्डेण्ट) n. an overseer. निरीक्षक.

superior —(सुपीरियर) adj. higher in place. श्रेष्ठ.

superiority —(सुपीरियॉरिटी) n. pre-eminence. श्रेष्ठता.

superlative —(सुपरलेटिव) adj. supreme. सर्वोत्तम.

supersede —(सुपरसीड) v. t. to override. पीछे छोड़ देना.

superstition —(सुपरस्टीशन) n. false religion. झूठा मत, मिथ्या धर्म, अंध विश्वास.

supervise —(सुपरवाइज़) v. t. to watch and direct the work. निगरानी करना, देख-भाल करना.

supplement —(सप्लीमेण्ट) n. addition. शेष, परिशिष्ट; v. t. to add. जोड़ना, बढ़ाना.

supplementary —(सप्लीमेण्टरी) adj. additional. पूरक.

suppose —(सपोज़) v. t. & i. to think, to imagine. सोचना, कल्पना करना.

supremacy —(सुप्रीमैसी) n. highest authority. श्रेष्ठता.

supreme —(सुप्रीम) adj. highest in authority. श्रेष्ठ.

sur —(सर) over . अधिक.

surcharge —(सरचार्ज) n. over charge. अधिक भार; v. t. to over charge. अधिक कर लगाना.

surely —(श्योरली) adv. certainly. अवश्य.

surgeon —(सर्जन) n. expert in surgery. सर्जन, शल्य चिकित्सा का विशेषज्ञ.

surgery —(सर्जरी) n. the science and art of a surgeon. शल्य विद्या.

surmount —(सर्माउण्ट) v. t. to conquer. जीतना, परास्त करना.

surname —(सरनेम) n. one's family name. उपनाम, कुलनाम.

surplus —(सरप्लस) n. a quantity which exceeds beyond what is wanted. बचत.

surprising —(सरप्राइज़िंग) adj. exciting wonder. आश्चर्यजनक.

surroundings —(सराउण्डिंग्स) n. circumstances. परिस्थिति.

surveillance —(सरवेलैन्स) n. inspection. चौकसी.

survive —(सर्वाइव) v. t. to continue to live. जीवित रहना.

suspicion —(समपिशन) n. mistrust, doubt. संदेह, शक.

suspicious —(ससपिशस) adj. doubtful. शंकायुक्त.

sustain —(ससटेन) v. t. to support. सम्भालना.

sweat —(स्वेट) n. toil, labour, perspiration. परिश्रम, पसीना; v. i. to labour. to perspire. परिश्रम करना, पसीना निकालना.

sweep —(स्वीप) n. act of sweeping. झाडू देने की क्रिया; v. t. & i . to clear with a brush. बुहारना.

swell —(स्वेल) n. increase. बढ़ती; v. t. & i. to become larger, to increase, to expand. बढ़ाना, फैलाना, फुलाना.

swift —(स्विफ़्ट) adj. active, quick. तेज़, द्रुतगाती.

swim —(स्विम) v. t. & i. to move on water by the movements of limbs. तैरना.

sword —(सोर्ड) n. a keen edged cutting weapon. तलवार.

symbol —(सिम्बल) n. a sign. चिन्ह, प्रतीक.

symbolize —(सिम्बालाइज़) v. t. to represent by symbol. लक्षण द्वारा दरसाना.

symmetry —(सिमेट्री) n. right proportion of parts. संहति.

sympathetic —(सिम्पेथेटिक) adj. having common feeling with another. सहानुभूतिशील.

sympathy —(सिम्पथी) n. compassion. सहानुभूति.

symptom —(सिम्टम) n. indication. लक्षण, चिन्ह.

synonym —(सिनॉनिम) n. a word having the same meaning and signification as another. पर्याय.

synopsis —(सिनॉप्सिस) n. a summary. संग्रह, सार.

syrup —(सिरप) n. a saturated solution of sugar. the juice of fruits boiled with sugar. शर्बत.

systematic —(सिस्टेमैटिक) adj. methodical. क्रमिक, यथा क्रम.

syntax —(सिन्टैक्स) n. the grammatical and due arrangement of words in a sentence. वाक्य रचना.

synthesis —(सिन्थेसिस) n. a building up. संयोग समन्वय.

syringe —(सिरिन्ज) n. a pipe furnished with a piston. पिचकारी; v. t. to spray with a syringe. पिचकारी देना.

T

tab —(टैब) n. a tag. फीता.

tabby —(टैबी) adj. of different colours. विचित्र रंग, चितकबरा.

table —(टेबल) n. a flat smooth surface, a flat surface supported on legs. चौकी, मेज़; v. t. to form into a list. सूचीपत्र बनाना.

tablet —(टैब्लेट) n. a small table, pills of medicine. छोटी मेज़, दवाई की गोली.

taboo —(टैबू) n. something prohibited. निषेध; v. t. to prohibit by authority. निषेध करना.

tackle —(टैकिल) n. an appliance for lifting or lowering heavy weights. भारी पदार्थों को चढ़ाने या उतारने का यंत्र; v. t. to seize. पकड़ना.

tact —(टैक्ट) n. adroitness, cleverness. कुशलता.

tactics —(टैकटिक्स) n. manner of proceeding. युक्ति.

tale —(टेल) n. a story. कहानी.

talent —(टैलेण्ट) n. high mental ability. असाधारण बुद्धि, योग्यता.

talkative —(टॉकेटिव) adj. loquacious. बकंवादी.

tamper —(टैम्पर) v. t. & i. to meddle. विघ्न डालना, गुप्त व्यवहार करना.

tamperer —(टैम्परर) n. one who tampers. गुप्त व्यवहार करने वाला.

tangle —(टैंगल) n. complication. उलझन; v. t. to knit together confusedly. उलझन.

tape —(टेप) n. a narrow band. फीता; v. t. to bind with tape. फीते से बांधना.

tardiness —(टार्डिनेस) n. sluggishness. धीमापन.

tax —(टैक्स) n. a charge made by government on property. कर; v. t. to impose a tax. कर लगाना.

taxation —(टैक्सेशन) n. the act of taxing. कर निर्धारण.

taxi —(टैक्सी) n. a motor-car plying on hire. भाड़े की मोटर.

teaching —(टीचिंग) n. instruction. शिक्षा.

tearless —(टियरलेस) adj. without tars, easy. अश्रुहीन, सरल.

technique —(टेकनिक) n. mechanical art or skill. यंत्र कला.

technology —(टेकनॉलॉजी) n. the science of industrial arts. शिल्पकला विज्ञान.

tedious —(टीडिअस) adj. wearisome, irksome. दुखदायी, कष्टकारक, कठिन, थकाने वाला.

temper —(टेम्पर) n. temperament, passion. स्वभाव, प्रकृति.

temperance —(टेम्परेन्स) n. self restraint. संयम.

tempest —(टेम्पेस्ट) n. tumult, a violent storm. हलचल, आंधी.

temporary —(टैम्पररी) adj. lasting for a short time only. अस्थाई.

tempt —(टेम्प्ट) v. t. to try, to allure. प्रयत्न करना, ललचाना.

tenacity —(टीनैसिटी) n. obstinacy. हठ, दृढ़ता.

tenant —(टेनेण्ट) n. one who occupies a house on rent. किरायेदार.

tendency —(टेण्डेन्सी) n. direction. प्रवृत्ति, झुकाव.

tenor —(टेनर) n. a course, direction. श्रम, तात्पर्य.

tension —(टेन्शन) n. state of being stretched. तनाव.

tentative —(टेनटेटिव) adj. made or done as an experiment. प्रयोग सम्बन्धी.

terminate —(टरमिनेट) v. t. & i. to put to end. समाप्त करना.

terrible —(टेरीबल) adj. frightful. भयानक.

terrify —(टेरीफ़ाई) v. t. to alarm, to frighten. डराना.

territory —(टेरीटरी) n. a region. प्रदेश, भूमि.

testament —(टेस्टामेण्ट) n. a will. मृत्यु लेख, वसीयतनामा.

textual —(टेक्सचुअल) adj. pertaining to text. मौलिक.

texture —(टेक्सचर) n. tissue, a web. रचना बनावट.

thankless —(थैंक्लेस) adj. ungrateful. कृतघ्न.

thanks —(थैंक्स) n. an expression of gratitude. धन्यवाद.

theft —(थेफ़्ट) n. stealing a thing. चोरी.

theist —(थीइस्ट) n. a believer in existence of God. आस्तिक.

theme —(थीम) n. topic, subject. विषय, प्रकरण, प्रसंग.

therefore —(देअरफ़ोर) adv. इसलिए.

thermometer —(थर्मामीटर) n. an instrument for measuring temperature. तापमापक यंत्र.

thesis —(थीसिस) n. an essay. लेख, विषय.

thief —(थीफ़) n. one who steals. चोर.

thirst —(थर्स्ट) n. desire for drink. प्यास, तृष्णा; v. i. to have desire for drink. प्यास लगना.

thither —(दिदर) adv. to that place. वहां, उस स्थान पर.

thoroughfare —(थरोफेअर) n. a public road. सड़क, राजमार्ग.

though —(दो) adv. & conj. notwithstanding. यद्यपि.

thousand —(थाउजैण्ड) n. the number of ten hundred. हजार.

threat —(थ्रैट) n. declaration of an intention to punish. धमकी.

threaten —(थ्रैटन) v. t. to menace. धमकाना.

thrice —(थ्राइस) adv. three times. तीन बार.

thrift —(थ्रिफ़्ट) n. frugality. मितव्ययिता.

throat —(थ्रोट) n. the gullet. गला, गरेठी.

through —(थ्रू) prep. from one end to the other. आरपार.

throughout —(थ्रूआउट) adv. & prep. in every part. प्रत्येक भाग में.

Thursday —(थर्सडे) n. the fifth day of week. गुरुवार.

tighten —(टाइटेन) v. t. to draw tight. कसा, कसना.

timely —(टाइमली) adj. & adv. early. शीघ्र, समय पर.

timid —(टिमिड) adj. fearful. कायर.

title —(टाइटिल) n. a name of distinction. पदवी, अधिकार.

toady —(टोडी) n. a mean, flatterer. नीच, मिथ्या प्रशंसक; v. t. to flatter meanly. नीचता से प्रशंसा करना.

tobacco —(टुबैको) n. a plant whose leaves are used in eating and chewing. तम्बाकू.

toe —(टो) n. a digit of the foot. पैर की उंगली, अग्रभाग.

tolerance —(टॉलेरैन्स) n. patience. धैर्य.

toil —(टॉवल) n. hard labour. परिश्रम; v. i. to labour. परिश्रम करना.

tolerable —(टॉलरेबल) adj. endurable. काम चलाऊ.

tomorrow —(टुमॉरो) n. & adv. the following day. कल, आने वाला दिन.

tongue —(टंग) n. the organ of speech, taste and language. जीभ.

tonsil —(टॉन्सिल) n. one of the two glands at the root of the tongue. गिल्टी.

tooth —(टूथ) n. the hard substance in the jaws used for chewing. दांत; v. t. to indent. दांतेदार बनाना.

topaz —(टोपाज़) n. a gem. एक रत्न, पोखराज.

torpedo —(टॉरपीडो) n. a submarine weapon. पानी के अंदर छोड़ा जाने वाला गोला.

tortoise —(टॉरटॉएज़) n. a kind of turtle. कछुआ.

torture —(टॉरचर) n. extreme pain of mind or body. कष्ट, पीड़ा; v. t. to vex, to inflict, pain. कष्ट देना.

totality —(टोटैलिटी) n. the whole sum. पूर्ण संख्या.

touching —(टचिंग) adj. moving. करुणात्मक.

tough —(टफ) adj. strong, hard. difficult to break: कठिन, कठोर, सख्त.

tourist —(टूरिस्ट) n. one who travels for sightseeing. दर्शनीय स्थानों को देखने वाला यात्री.

towel —(टॉवल) n. a cloth used for drying the body. तौलिया.

traceable —(ट्रेसेबल) adj. that may be traced. पता लगाने योग्य.

tradition —(ट्रैडीशन) n. unwritten body of beliefs. परम्परा.

traditional —(ट्रैडिशनल) adj. according to old custom or practice. परम्परागत.

training —(ट्रेनिंग) n. act of educating. शिक्षण.

traitor —(ट्रेटर) n. a deceiver. छली.

traitorous —(ट्रटेरस) adj. guilty of treason. कपटी.

transferable —(ट्रानसफ़ेरेबल) adj. negotiable, that which can be transferred. बदलने योग्य.

transform —(ट्रान्सफॉर्म) v. t. to change the form. रुप बदलना.

transformation —(ट्रान्सफॉरमेशन) n. change from one form to another. रूपान्तर.

transition —(ट्रान्सिशन) n. a change from one place to another. परिवर्तन.

travel —(ट्रैवेल) v. t. to go from one place to another. यात्रा करना.

travelling —(ट्रैवेलिंग) n. a journey. यात्रा.

treacherous —(ट्रैचरस) adj. violating. not to be trusted. विश्वासघाती.

treachery —(ट्रेचरी) n. breach of trust. विश्वासघात.

treasure —(ट्रेज़र) n. great wealth. कोष, खज़ाना; v. t. to store up. बटोरना, इकट्ठा करना.

treasury —(ट्रैज़री) n. place where. treasure is kept. खजाना.

treaty —(ट्रीटी) n. signed contract. agreement. संधि, सुलह.

tremble —(ट्रेम्बल) v. i . to shake. कांपना.

tribute —(ट्रीब्यूट) n. praise, acknowledgement, gift. प्रशंसा, उपहार, भेंट, नज़र, अंशदान.

trifle —(ट्राइफ़ल) n. a thing of small value. तुच्छ, v. t. to waste time. समय नष्ट करना.

trifling —(ट्राइफ़लिंग) adj. of little value. तुच्छ.

trim —(ट्रिम) adj. neat. स्वच्छ; v. t . & i . to decorate. सजाना.

triple —(ट्रिपल) adj. threefold. तिगुना.

triplicate —(ट्रिप्लीकेट) adj. made three at a time. तिगुना; v. i. to make three copies. तीन प्रतियां बनाना.

triumph —(ट्राइम्फ़) n. a great victory. विजय; v. t. to gain a victory. विजयी होना.

trivial —(ट्रिवियल) adj. of little worth. अधम.

troublesome —(ट्रबलसम) adj. annoying. दु:खदायी.

trustworthy —(ट्रस्टवर्दी) adj. reliable. विश्वास योग्य.

tuberculosis —(ट्यूबरकुलोसिस) n. consumption. क्षयरोग.

Tuesday —(ट्यूज़डे) n. the third day of the week. मंगल वार.

tuitional —(टुइशनल) adj. pertaining to tuition. अध्यापन सम्बन्धी.

tumidity —(ट्यूमिडिटी) n. the state of being swollen. सूजन.
tumour —(ट्यूमर) n. morbid growth or swelling. व्रण, गिल्टी.
turbine —(टरबाइन) n. a water wheel जल चक्की.
tutor —(ट्यूटर) n. private teacher. घर पर पढ़ाने वाला अध्यापक.
tutorial —(ट्यूटोरियल) adj. pertaining to teaching. शिक्षा सम्बन्धी.
twain —(ट्वेन) n. two, a pair. दो, जोड़ा; adv. twice. दुगुना, दो बार.
twelve —(ट्वेल्व) n . & adj. two and ten. बारह.
twelfth —(ट्वेल्फ़्थ) adj. next in order of eleventh. बारहवां.
twentieth —(ट्वेंटीएथ) adj. the ordinal of twenty. बीसवां.
twenty —(ट्वेण्टी) n . & adj. twice ten. बीस.
twice —(ट्वाइस) adv. two times. दोबारा.
twin —(ट्विन) n. one of two born at the same time. जुड़वां.
twinkle —(ट्विन्कल) v. i. to shine with spark light. चमकना.
twofold —(टूफ़ोल्ड) adj. double. दूना.
tying —(टाइंग) n. knot, string, ribbon. गांठ, रस्सी, फीता.
type —(टाइप) n. symbol, specimen, letter used in printing. चिन्ह, नमूना, छापे के अक्षर
typhoid —(टाइफॉइड) n . &. adj. a type of fever संक्रामक ज्वर.
typical —(टिपिकल) adj. symbolical. आदर्शभूत.
tyranny —(टिरेनी) n. severity. निर्दयता.
tyrant —(टायरण्ट) n. an oppressive ruler. निष्ठुर, शासक.
tyre—(tire) —(टायर) n. a band of iron or rubber which encircles a wheel. टायर.
tyro —(टायरो) n. beginner. नव सिखिया.

U

udal —(यूडैल) n. a free hold state. कर रहित भूमि
udder —(अडर) n. one of the mammary gland of animals. थन.
ugly —(अग्ली) adj. not good looking. hateful. कुरूप, घृणित.
ulcer —(अलसर) n. a painful sore from which matter flows. फोड़ा,

नासूर.

ultimate —(अल्टीमेट) adj. farthest, last. अन्तिम.

ultra —(अल्ट्रा) in the sense of beyond. अतिशय का उपसर्ग.

un —(अन) pfx. used before nouns, pronouns, adjectives signifying a negative meaning. “रहित” या “हीन” का उपसर्ग.

unanimous —(यूनैनीमस) adj. agreeing. एकमत.

unaware —(अनअवेयर) adj. ignorant. बेखबर, अभिज्ञ.

unclose —(अनक्लोज़) v. t. to open. खोलना.

unclothe —(अनक्लोद) v. t. to make naked. नंगा करना.

undergo —(अण्डरगो) v. t. to bear, to endure. सहना, बर्दाश्त करना.

underrate —(अण्डररेट) v. t. to value below the true worth. कम मूल्य लगाना.

understand —(अण्डरस्टैड) v. t . & i . to know the meaning of. समझना.

undertake —(अण्डरटेक) v. t . &. i. to attempt, to take upon oneself, to be bound. प्रयत्न करना, अपनी जिम्मेदारी पर काम आरम्भ करना, वचन देना.

undo —(अण्डू) v. t. to ruin, to repeal. नष्ट करना, रद्द करना.

undoing —(अण्डूइंग) n. ruin. नाश.

uneven —(अनईवन) adj. odd, not smooth. असमान, असमतल.

unfair —(अनफ़ेयर) adj. unjust. अन्यायपूर्ण.

unfold —(अनफ़ोल्ड) v. t. to disclose. खोलना, रहस्योद्घाटन करना.

uniform —(यूनीफॉर्म) adj. distinctive dress, regular. वर्दी, अभिन्न, एक समान, एक रूप.

uniformity —(यूनीफ़ॉर्मिटी) n. similiarity. समानता.

unimportant —(अनइम्पॉर्टेण्ट) adj. not important, unessential. अनावश्यक.

unique —(यूनीक) adj. without an equal. असमान, अनोखा.

unite —(यूनाइट) v. t . & i . to join together. मिलाना.

unity —(यूनिटी) n. the state of being one. मेल, ऐक्य.

universality —(यूनिवर्सैलिटी) n. the state of being universal. विश्वव्यापकता सार्वभौमता.

unmoved —(अनमूव्ड) adj. calm, firm. शान्त, अटल.

unrest —(अन्रेस्ट) n. uneasiness. अशांति, बेचैनी.

until —(अन्टिल) prep. & conj . till such time. जब तक.

unto —(अन्टू) prep. to. को.

unwell —(अन्वेल) adj. indisposed. अस्वस्थ, रोगी.

up —(अप) adv . aloft, on high. ऊंचा.

uphold —(अपहोल्ड) v. t. to devote, to support, to approve or confirm. समर्थन करना, पुष्ट करना, उठाना, सही मानना.

uplift —(अपलिफ़्ट) v. t. to raise, to exalt. उठाना, उद्धार करना.

upon —(अपॉन) prep. on the surface of. ऊपर की ओर.

upset —(अपसेट) v. t. to disturb, to overthrow. परेशान करना, उलटना.

urgent —(अरजेण्ट) adj. important. अति आवश्यक.

use —(यूज़) n. profit, custom, utility, employment, using. उपयोग, प्रयोग, रीति, आवश्यकता; v. t . & i . to employ for a purpose, to be accustomed, to consume. खर्च करना, प्रयोग करना, अभ्यस्त होना, लाभ उठाना, व्यवहार में लाना.

usual —(यूज़ुअल) adj. common. सामान्य रूप से.

usually —(यूज़ुअली) adj. ordinarily. साधारण रीति से.

utter —(अटर) adj. complete, total. पूर्ण; v. t. to speak, to pronounce. कहना, उच्चारण करना.

utterance —(अटरेन्स) n. the act of uttering. उच्चारण, कथन.

V

vacancy —(वेकेन्सी) n. the state of being vacant. खाली.

vacant —(वेकेण्ट) adj. empty. शून्य, खाली.

vacation —(वेकेशन) n. the period of rest. छुट्टी.

vacationist —(वकेशनिस्ट) n. one who enjoys holiday. छुट्टी बिताने वाला.

vaccination —(वैक्सीनेशन) n. injection. टीका.

vaccinator —(वैक्सीनेटर) n. one who vaccinates. टीका लगाने वाला.

vacuum —(वैक्युम) n. empty space. शून्य स्थान, रिक्तता.

vagabond —(वैगाबॉण्ड) n. one who wanders. स्वेच्छाचारी; adj. wandering. आवारा.

vague —(वेग) adj. uncertain. अस्पष्ट.

vain —(वेन) adj. empty, showy. व्यर्थ, निस्सार.

valid —(वैलिड) adj. legal, strong. प्रबल, वैध, कानूनी.

validity —(वैलीडिटी) n. justness. प्रबलता, मान्यता.

valuable —(वैल्यूब्ल) adj. costly. बहुमूल्य.

valuation —(वैलुएशन) n. the act of valuing. दाम लगाना.

value —(वैल्यू) n. worth, importance. महत्त्व, उपयोगिता; v. t. to estimate. दाम आंकना.

vanish —(वैनिश) v. i . to pass away, to disappear. नष्ट होना, गायब होना.

vanishing —(वैनिशिंग) adj. passing from sight. अदृश्य होता हुआ.

vanity —(वैनिटी) n. empty pride. अहंकार.

vapour —(वेपर) n. gas, steam. वाष्प, भाप.

variable —(वैरिएबल) adj. fickle, changeable. चंचल, परिवर्तनशील.

variety —(वैराइटी) n. change, difference. परिवर्तन, विविधता.

various —(वेरियस) adj. different. भिन्न.

vary —(वैरी) v. t . & i . to make different, to diversify, to express variously, to alter. भिन्न-भिन्न करना, बदलना, अलग करना.

vegetable —(वेजीटेबल) n. a plant used for food. शाक, वनस्पति.

vegetarian —(वेजीटेरियन) n. one who eats only vegetable. शाकाहारी

valiantly —(वैलियण्टली) adv. bravely. बहादुरी से.

vehicle —(वेहिकिल) n. a carriage, medium. गाड़ी.

veil —(वेल) n. a curtain. घूंघट; v. t. to hide. छिपाना, परदा करना.

vender, vendor —(वेण्डर) n. one who sells. बेचने वाला, विक्रेता.

venerable —(वेनरेबल) adj. worthy of reverence. पूज्य.

venerate —(वेनरेट) v . to pay great respect, to revere. सम्मान करना.

ventilator —(वेण्टिलेटर) n. a contrivance to let in fresh air. रोशनदान.

venture —(वेनचर) n. chance, risk. साहस; v. t . & i. to dare to a risk. साहस करना.

venturous —(वेनचरस) adj. bold. साहसी.

verbose —(वरबोस) adj. containing too many words. अनेक शब्दों का प्रयोग

verbosity —(वबौसिटी) n. the quality of being verbose. वाक प्रपंच.

verse —(वर्स) n. a line of poetry. पद्य.

version —(वर्ज़न) n. translation, account.

via —(वाया) n. a way, by way of. मार्ग से.

vertical —(वर्टिकल) adj. upright, perpendicular. लम्बरूप, खड़े रूप का.

veteran —(वेटेरन) n. old and of long experience, adj . वृद्ध तथा अनुभवी.

veto —(वीटो) n. an authoritative prohibition, the power of prohibiting. रोक, निषेधाधिकार; v. t. to forbid. निषेध करना. निषेध करना.

vex —(वेक्स) v. t. to annoy, to tease, to harass, to distress. दु:खी करना, पीड़ित करना, सताना.

vibration —(वाइब्रेशन) n. oscillation. quivering. कंप-कंपी, थरथरी.

vice —(वाइस) n. fault, evil practice. दोष, बुराई; prefix . in place of. प्रतिनिधि, स्थान पर.

vicious —(विशस) adj. corrupt, wicked. दुराचारी, पापी.

viciousness — (विशसनेस) n. wickedness. दुष्टता.

victim —(विकटिम) n. a sufferer.

victor —(विक्टर) n. a conqueror, one who wins in a contest. विजयी, युद्ध में जीतने वाला.

victory —(विक्टरी) n. triumph, conquest. विजय, जीत.

vigour —(विगर) n. strength, force. शक्ति, ताकत.

vigorous —(विगरस) adj. strong, energetic. बलवान, प्रबल.

villain —(विलेन) n. a very wicked person. दुष्ट मनुष्य.

vim —(विम) n. energy. बल, शक्ति.

vindicate —(विण्डिकेट) v. t. to defend, to support, to justify. प्रमाणित करना, समर्थन करना, स्थिर करना.

vindication —(विण्डिकेशन) n. defence, justification. रक्षा, पुष्टि.

vine —(वाइन) n. the creeper which bears grapes. अंगूर की लता.

vineyard —(वाइनयार्ड) n. plantation of vine. अंगूर का बाग़.

violate —(वाएलेट) v. t. to use violence, to break. बल का प्रयोग करना, भंग करना.

violation —(वायलेशन) n. act of violating. नियम का उल्लंघन.

violence —(वायलेन्स) n. injury, outrage. आघात, अपराध.

violet —(वाइलेट) n. a plant with purple flowers. बनफशा, बैंगनी रंग; adj. dark blue. गहरा नीला रंग.

virgin —(वर्जिन) n. a maiden. कुमारी, कन्या; adj. maidenly, pure, chaste. कन्या, पवित्र.

virtue —(वर्चू) n. moral, worth, excellence, chastity. धर्म, सदाचार, नैतिक गुण.

virtuous —(वर्चुअस) adj. morally good. सच्चरित्र, धार्मिक.

vision —(विज़न) n. sight, dream, imagination. दृश्य, स्वप्न, कल्पना.

visitor —(विज़िटर) n. one who visits. आगन्तुक.

vital —(वाइटल) adj. essential, affecting life, animated. आवश्यक, जीवन सम्बन्धी, जोशपूर्ण.

vitality —(वाइटैलिटी) n. principle of life. चेतना, प्राण, जीवन शक्ति.

vitalize —(वाइटलाइज) v. t. to put life into. जीवन प्रदान करना.

vitamin —(विटामिन) n. any of numerous organic substances, accessory food factors, present in nutritive foods and essential for the health of animal organism. विटामिन, पौष्टिक तत्त्व.

viva-voce —(वाइवा-वोसी) adv . orally, by word of mouth. मौखिक, सम्भाषण द्वारा.

vivid —(विविड) adj. full of life, lively, active, clear. सजीव, स्पष्ट, तीव्र.

viz —(विज़) n. (contraction of videlicet) that is, namely. अर्थात्.

vocabulary —(वोकेब्यूलरी) n. a collection of words arranged in alphabetical order and en plained, dictionary. शब्दकोश.

vocal —(वोकल) adj. relating to voice. वाचिक, वाणी सम्बन्धी.

vocation —(वोकेशन) n. calling in life, profession. पुकार, व्यवसाय, पेशा.

volume —(वॉल्यूम) n. a book, space occupied, size, bulk. पुस्तक, ग्रन्थ, विस्तार, परिमाण, घनफल.

voluminous —(वॉल्यूमिनस) adj. consisting of many volumes, lengthy, bulky. अनेक ग्रन्थों का, विस्तृत, भारी.

voluntary —(वॉलण्टरी) adj. of one's own free will. spontanecus. इच्छापूर्वक.

volunteer —(वॉलंटियर) n. one who oins to serve with one's free will. स्वयं सेवक; v. t. to offer oneself. स्वयं सेवक बनाना.

vomit —(वॉमिट) n. to throw up from the stomach. वमन; v. i . & i वमन (कैय) करना.

votary —(वोटरी) n. one devoted to any cause or vow. समर्थक, अनुगामी, भक्त, उपासक.

vowel —(वॉवेल) n. a letter which can be sounded by itself. स्वर.

voyage —(वॉएज) n. a long journey by water. समुद्री यात्रा.

vulgar —(वल्गर) adj. mean, low. नीच, अधम.

vulgarity —(वल्गैरिटी) n. vulgar manner. अशिष्टता.

vulnerable —(वलनरेब्ल) adj. able to be damaged. नष्ट करने योग्य.

vulture —(वल्चर) n. a large bird of prey. गिद्ध.

W

wabble —(वॉब्ल) v. t. to wobble, to move to and fro. इधर-उधर घूमना.

wafer —(वेफ़र) n. a small thin sweet cake. पतला बिस्किट, वेफर, माल पुआ,पतली रोटी.

wages —(वेजेज़) n. sum paid for work done. वेतन.

wagon —(वैगन) n. a railway truck. रेल का डिब्बा.

wail —(वेल) v. i. to lament. रोना, विलाप करना; n. lament. विलाप, शोक.

waist —(वेस्ट) n. part of the human body between ribs and hips. कमर.

waistcoat —(वेस्टकोट) n. a short, tight, sleeveless coat. वासकट, सदरी, कुर्ती.

wait —(वेट) v. t. & i . to stay. प्रतीक्षा करना.

waiter —(वेटर) n. a servant. दास, बैरा.

wake —(वेक) v. t. & i . to arouse. जागना, जगाना.

walk —(वॉक) n. manner of walking. चाल v. i. to go on foot.

wander —(वॉण्डर) v. i. to roam. घूमना.

wanderer —(वॉण्डरर) n. a walker. घूमने वाला.

want —(वॉण्ट) n. need, poverty. अभाव, गरीबी: v. t. & i. to need. कमी होना.

wantage —(वॉण्टेज) n. deficiency. अभाव.

wanton —(वॉण्टन) adj. playful, irresponsible, wild. चंचल, अनियंत्रित, उत्तेजित.

warden —(वॉर्डन) n. a guardian. रक्षक.

wardrobe —(वॉर्डरोब) n. a cupboard where clothes are kept. अलमारी.

warfare —(वॉरफ़ेयर) n. engaging in war, armed contest. लड़ाई.

warm —(वॉर्म) adj. ardent, zealous, earnest. गरम, तीव्र.

warmth —(वॉर्म्थ) adj. zeal. उत्साह.

warning —(वॉर्निंग) n. caution. चेतावनी.

warrior —(वॉरियर) n. a champion, a fighter. योद्धा, वीर.

washable —(वॉशेबल) adj. able to be washed. धोने योग्य.

washerman —(वॉशरमैन) n. one who washes clothes. धोबी.

wasp —(वॉस्प) n. a stinging winged insect. बर्र, ततैया.

wastage —(वेस्टेज) n. loss by waste. क्षय.

waste —(वेस्ट) n. spoil, refuse. तलछट, बेकार; adj. useless, wild. निरर्थक, बेकार; v. t . & i . to damage, to spoil. उड़ाना, नाश करना.

waterman —(वॉटरमैन) n . a boat man. मांझी.

waterproof —(वॉटरप्रूफ़) n. & adj. impervious to water. जल के प्रभाव वंचित, जल से मुक्त.

watt —(वॉट) n. an electrical unit of power. बिजली की इकाई.

wave —(वेव) n. a vibration of water. लहर, तरंग; v. t . & i. to make wave. लहराना.

wavy —(वेवी) adj. full of waves. लहरदार.

wax —(वैक्स) n. sealing wax, honey शहद, मधु, मोम;v. t . & i. to rub with wax. मोम रगड़ना.

we —(वी) pron. हम, हम लोग.

weakly —(वीकली) adj. infirm. दुर्बल.

weakness —(वीकनेस) n. feebleness. दुर्बलता.

wealthy —(वेल्थी) adj. rich. धनी.

weapon —(वेपन) n. an instrument of offence or defence. हथियार.

weather —(वेद़र) n. the state of atmosphere. मौसम; v. t. to expose to the air. वायु के सम्मुख करना.

web —(वेब) n. that which is woven. जाला.

wedding —(वेडिंग) n. marriage. विवाह.

wedlock —(वेडलॉक) n. marriage. विवाहित अवस्था.

week —(वीक) n. a period of seven days. सप्ताह.

weekly —(वीकली) n., adj . & adv . happening once a week. साप्ताहिक.

weep —(वीप) v. i . to lament. रोना, आंसू बहाना.

weeping —(वीपिंग) n. lamentation. विलाप.

weigh —(वे) v. t . & i. to measure. मापना, तौलना.

weight —(वेट) n. heaviness, burden. तौल, वजन; v. t. to load with a weight. बोझ लादना.

welcome —(वेलकम) adj. received with gladness. स्वागत; v. t. to receive with gladness. स्वागत करना.

welfare —(वेलफ़ेयर) n. well being. राजी खुशी, कुशल मंगल.

westward —(वेस्टवार्ड) adv. towards the west. पश्चिम की ओर.

wheat —(व्हीट) n. a plant with edible seeds. गेहूं.

wheel —(व्हील) n. circular frame. पहिया, घेरा, चाक; v. i . to revolve. घूमना-फिरना, चक्कर काटना.

whence —(व्हेन्स) adv. from what place. कैसे.

whenever —(व्हेनएवर) adv. at whatever time. जिस किसी समय.

whensoever —(व्हेनसोएवर) adv. at whatever time. कभी भी.

whipping —(व्हिपिंग) n. the act of beating with whip. चाबुक से मारने की क्रिया.

whispering —(व्हिस्परिंग) n. speaking secretly. कानाफूसी.

white —(व्हाइट) n. anything white. सफेद पदार्थ; adj. pure, spotless, of the colour of snow. साफ, सफेद; v. t. to make white. सफेद करना.

whitewash —(व्हाइटवॉश) n. & v. t. to put whitewash on. पुताई करना, सफेदी करना.

whither —(व्हिदर) adv. to what or which place. जिधर, जहां.

whole —(होल) adj. complete, entire. पूर्ण, सब; n. complete thing. सब भाग, सम्पूर्णता.

wholesale —(होलसेल) n. sale of goods in large quantities. थोक बिक्री; adj. in large quantities. थोक.

wholly —(होली) adv. entirely. पूर्णरूप से.

width —(विड्थ) n. extent from one side to the other. चौड़ाई.

widow —(विडो) n. a woman whose husband is dead. विधवा.

widower —(विडोअर) n. a man whose wife is dead. रंडुआ.

wild —(वाइल्ड) adj. savage, untamed. जंगली, अशिक्षित, क्रोधी.

wilful —(विलफुल) adj. obstinate. ज़िद्दी.

will —(विल) n. wish, the faculty of deciding. रुचि; v. t. to order, to resolve. संकल्प करना.

window —(विण्डो) n. an opening in a wall to admit air and light खिड़की.

wireless —(वायरलेस) n. communication through electromagnetic waves without wire. बेतार.

wisdom —(विज़डम) n. prudence. चतुराई, बुद्धिमानी.

wishful —(विशफुल) adj. desirous. इच्छुक.

witch —(विच) n. a woman having magical power. जादूगरनी; v. t. to enchant. जादू करना.

withdraw —(विदड्रॉ) v. t . & i . to retire. वापस लेना.

withdrawal —(विदड्रॉअल) n. act of withdrawing. वापसी.

withhold —(विदहोल्ड) v. t . & i . to hold back, to stay back. रोकना, थामना, दबा देना.

witness —(विटनेस) n. testimony. साक्षी, प्रमाण; v. t . & i. to attest. प्रमाणित करना.

woeful —(वोफुल) adj. sorrowful. दु:खमय, दयनीय.

wolf —(वुल्फ़) n. a wild animal. भेड़िया.

womanhood —(वुमनहुड) n. the state of being a woman. स्त्रित्व.

wonder —(वण्डर) n. a miracle. आश्चर्य, विस्मय; v. t. to marvel. चकित

होना.

wonderful —(वण्डरफुल) adj. strange. अजीब.

work —(वर्क). n. labour, effort employment. कार्य, परिश्रम, उद्योग.

workmanship —(वर्कमैनशिप) n. skill, quality. कारीगरी, दस्तकारी.

worry —(वरी) n. anxiety. चिन्ता, परेशानी; v. t. to trouble, to harass. कष्ट देना, परेशान करना.

worship —(वरशिप) n. devotion, reverence पूजा, आराधना v. t. to adore. आदर करना, पूजा करना।.

worshipper —(वरशिपर) n. a devotee. पूजक.

worth —(वर्थ) n. value, merit. मूल्य, कीमत, गुण.

worthwhile —(वर्थव्हाइल) adj. suitable. योग्य, उचित.

worthless —(वर्थलेस) adj. of no value.

wound —(वूण्ड) n. injury, hurt by cut. घाव, जख्म; v. t. to injure, to inflict wound on. घाव करना, घायल करना.

wounded —(वूण्डेड) adj. iniured. घायल.

wrap —(रैप) v. t. to cover, to fold together. तह करना, लपेटना.

wreath —(रीथ) n. garland. हार, माला.

wrestle —(रेस्ल) v. t . & i . to struggle. मल्ल युद्ध करना.

wrestling —(रेसलिंग) n. a struggle. मल्ल युद्ध.

wrinkle —(रिन्कल) n. slight ridge on surface. झुर्री, शिकन; v. i . to become wrinkled. झुर्री डालना.

writ —(रिट) n. a. writing, legal documents. लेख, आज्ञा पत्र.

wrong —(रौंग) n. harm, an injury. अधर्म, अपराध; adj. not right. अशुद्ध v. t. to treat unjustly. अपराध करना.

X

X-rays —(एक्सरेज) the invisible rays emitted by an electric current by means of which the interior of solids are photographed. क्ष-किरण.

xylography —(ज़िलोग्राफी) n. art of engraving on wood. लकड़ी पर नक्काशी करने की कला.

Y

yean —(यीन) v. t. to bring forth young. बच्चा जनना.

year —(ईअर) n. time of twelve months. साल, वर्ष.

yearn —(यर्न) v. t. to have an eager desire of. उत्सुक होना.

yeast —(ईस्ट) n. the froth consisting of fungi used in making beer. मद्यफेन, खमीर, झाग.

yellowish —(यैलोइश) adj. somewhat yellow. कुछ पीला.

yester —(यस्टर) adj. last. बीता हुआ.

yesterday —(यस्टरडे) n. the day before today. गतदिवस.

yet —(यैट) adv. still, besides afterall. तो भी, तथापि.

yielding —(यील्डिंग) adj. giving way, inclined to submit. सीधा, नम्र.

yoke —(योक) n. frame of wood placed on oxen, subject, bond. जुआ, बंधन, दासता.

young —(यंग) adj. not yet old, not far advanced. inexperienced. नौजवान, नवयुवक, अनुभवहीन.

youngster —(यंगस्टर) n. a lad, a young boy. बच्चा, लड़का.

youthful —(यूथफुल) adj. young. युवा मनुष्य.

Z

zealous —(ज़ेलस) adj. fervent. उत्साही, लवलीन.

zest —(ज़ेस्ट) n. a relish, flavour. स्वाद, अभिरुचि; v. t. to give relish to. स्वादिष्ट बनाना.

zigzag —(ज़िगज़ैग) n. something that has a sharp turn. टेढ़ा-मेढ़ा, v. i . to turn smartly. शीघ्रता से आगे बढ़ना.

zink —(ज़िंक) n. a white metal. जस्ता.

zoo —(जू) n. a zoological garden. पशु-वाटिका.

zoology —(जूलॉजी) n. the science of animal life. प्राणी-विज्ञान.

Some Difficult Words Commonly Misspelt
कुछ कठिन शब्द, जिनके लिखने में प्राय: भूल हो जाती है

Correct	*Incorrect*
Absorption	absorpshun, absorpsion
abundant	abundent, aboundant
abyss	abiss, abis
access	acces
accident	accidant
acquaintance	acquintance
advertisement	advertismant, advartisement
aerial	airial, aireal
aggregate	aggregat, agregrate
alcohol	alchohol, alkohal
altar	altre.
aluminium	alluminium, alumminium
amateur	amature, ameture
analysis	analisis, analises
appropriate	appropriat. apropriate
aquatic	acquatic.
ascertain	assertain, asertain
ascetic	asetic, aestik
autumn	autamn, autum
Balloon	baloon, ballon
banana	bannana.
banquet	bankuet, banquette
barrier	berrier, barriar.
beneficent	beneficient, benificent
bequeath	bequethe, bequith
besiege	besige, beseege
bouquet	bokuet, bequett
buoyant	boyant, bouyant
Calendar	calender, calandar
calumny	calumni, calamny
candour	candoar, cander
canvas	canvass
canvass	canvas
career	carrier
carcass	carcas, carcese
catalogue	catalog, catalaug
certain	sertain, certen
chew	choo, cheu
coffee	cofee, coffe
coincide	concide, conecide
commission	comission, commison
committee	comittee
Decease (death)	disease, dicease
disease (ill-health)	decease, dicease
deceive	decieve, deceeve
defendant	defendent
depth	deapth

Correct	*Incorrect*
descendant	discendant
desperate	desparate, disperate
detector	detecter
develop	develope, devalop
diamond	daimond
director	directer
discipline	descipline
Element	eliment, elemant
elementary	elimentary, elementory
embarrassed	embarassed
endeavour	endevour, endeavur
entrance	enterance
Fascinate	facinate, fashinat
fibre	fiber
fiery	firy, firey
forfeit	forfit
fusion	fushion
furniture	farniture, furnetur
Gaiety	gayty, gaity
galloping	gallopping, galopping
gorgeous	gorgeus, gorgias
Hammer	hammar, hamer
handicraft	handecraft
hindrance	hinderance, hindrence
humour	humor (American), humar
hygiene	hygeine, higiene
Illiterate	illitrate, illetrate.
indigenous	indigenus, indeginous
influential	influensial, influntial
ingenious	ingeneaus, inginious
ingenuous	inginuous
irresistible	irrestable
Jealous	jelous, zelus
jester	jestor
jugglery	juglery, jugglary
Kerosene	kerosin, kerosine
knack	nack.
Laboratory	labrartory, laboratery
language	languege.
leopard	lepard, leppard
library	liberary, librery
licence (noun)	license

Correct	*Incorrect*
license (verb)	licence
lieutenant	leftenant, leiutenant
lily	lilly.
limited	limitid
literary	litrary
livelihood	livlihood, livelyhood
lustre	luster, lustar
Maintenance	maintainance
manageable	managable, managible
manoeuvre	manover, manour
marvellous	marvelous, marvellus
millionaire	millioner.
miscellaneous	misellaneous, miscellenous
mischief	meschief
modelled	modled, moddled
moustache	moustashe, mustance
mystery	mystry, mistery
Nasal	nazal.
necessity	nescity, necesity
neighbour	naghbour, neighber
noticeable	noticable, notiseable
Obedient	obidient, obdiant
occasion	occesion, ocasion
occurred	occured
occurrence	occurance
odour	odor, oder
offence	offense
offensive	offensev
offered	offerrd
offering	offerring
omelette	omlette, oumiet
omitted	ometted, ommitted
opportunity	oppurtunity, oportunity
orator	orater, oratar
Parallel	paralel
parlour	parler
persuade	pursuade, parsuade
philosophy	phylosophy
physique	physic
persuasion	persuation
pleasant	plesant, plesant
professor	proffessor, professer
profession	proffession, profesior
proprietor	propritor, propriter
prominent	prominant
Quinine	quinin.
quotation	quotetion, quottation
Rabbit	rabit, rabitt
railing	raillings, relling

Correct	*Incorrect*
realm	relm, rilm
receipt	receit, reciept.
recur	recurr.
recurred	recured
recurrence	recurrence, recurrance
referred	refered
reference	referrence
regrettable	regretable, regretteble
relieve	releive, relive.
removable	removeable.
repetition	repeatition, repitition
Salutary	salutory
saviour	savior, saviur
scholar	scholer, skolare
scissors	sissors, scisors
separate	separat, saparate
several	severel, sevarel
shield	sheild, shild
shyly	shily, shiely
smoky	smokey
sombre	somber
sovereignty	sovereinty
spectre	spector, specter
sufficient	sufficent.
summary	summury, sumary
superintendent	superintandant
susceptible	suseptible, susesptible
Technique	technic
tolerance	tolerence.
tranquillity	tranquilitey, tranquilty
transferred	transfered
tributary	tributory, tributery
tuition	tution
Unintelligible	uninteligeble
unmistakable	unmistakeable
utterance	utterence
vaccinate	vaxinate, veccinate
vacillate	vascilate, vacillate
valley	valey, velley
veil	vail.
ventilator	vantilatar, ventilater
verandah	varanda, varandah
victuals	victuels.
vigorous	vigorus, vigorus
visitor	visiter, visitar
wield	weild, wilde
wilful	willful, wilfull
woollen	wollen, wollen
Yawn	yan, yaun
yearn	yern

■ *Technical Terms*

algebra	algabra	dynamo	dinomo	oxygen	oxigen
arithmetic	arithmatic	eclipse	eclypse	peninsula	pennisula
adjacent	adjcent	electricity	elektricity	parliament	parleament
ambiguous	ambigous	equilibrium	equilibriam	plateau	plato
apparatus	aparatus	executive	exeketive	positive	posetive
artillery	artillary	expedition	expidition	percentage	percentege
barley	barly	formulae	formuli	phenomenon	phenomenun
barometer	barometre	governor	governer	phosphorus	phosforus
circumference	circumferance	government	governmant	quotient	quoshent
carnivorous	carnivorus	hypothesis	hipothisis	route	rute
corollary	corolary	insect	insact	revenue	ravenue
chocolate	chokolate	lens	lensce, or lense	season	seeson
compass	compas	liquid	lequid	sepoy	sepoi
conqueror	conqerer	league	leegue	science	sience
column	colum	mammal	mamal	secretary	secretery
concave	conkave	mathematics	mathametics	subtraction	subtrection
convex	conveks	machinery	machinary	sulphur	sulpher
cocoa	coco	metre	mitter	temperate	tamperate
cyclone	syklone	mercury	mercary	theoretical	theoreticle
cylinder	cylindar	mineral	minarel	triangle	trangle
diagonal	digonal	microscope	microskope	tobacco	tobaco
diagram	digram	neutral	netural	veins	vains
decimal	decimale	negative	negetive	vacuum	vaccum

■ *Proper nouns*

Alexander	Alexendar	Buddhism	Budhism	Guinea	Gunea
Andes	Andis	Buenos Aires	Bonus Aeres	John	Jhon
Antarctic	Antratic	Caesar	Ceaser	Mediterranean	Maditeranion
Arctic	Arktic	Calcutta	Calcatta	Muhammad	Mohammad
Atlantic	Atlantik	Delhi	Dehli	Napoleon	Napolian
Bombay	Bombai	Egypt	Egipt	Philip	Phillip
Buddha	Budha	Europe	Erope	Switzerland	Swizerland
Buddhist	Budhist	European	Europian	Scotch	Scoch

■ *Words which are erroneously combined*

all right	alright	at least	atleast	some one	someone
all round	alround	in spite of	inspite of	some time	sometime
at once	atonce	per cent	percent	up till	uptil

■ *Words which are erroneously divided*

anyhow	any how	into	in to	sometimes	some times
anything	any thing	instead of	in stead of	somebody	some body
almost	all most	madman	mad man	schoolboy	school boy
already	all ready	moreover	more over	somehow	some how
anybody	any body	nobody	no body	together	to gether
afterwards	after wards	newspaper	news paper	today	to day
cannot	can not	nowadays	now-a-days	tomorrow	to morrow
everybody	every body	ourselves	our selves	utmost	ut most
everywhere	every where	otherwise	other wise	welfare	well fare
elsewhere	else where	outside	out side	welcome	wellcome

पत्र-लेखन

(LETTER WRITING)

प्रभावी पत्रलेखन के लिए कुछ आवश्यक दिशा निर्देश

आप चाहे किसी को भी पत्र लिख रहे हों, उसकी विषय-वस्तु कुछ भी हो यदि आप निम्नलिखित बातों का ध्यान रखेंगे तो आपको पत्र लिखने में काफी सहायता मिलेगी।

1 . यदि आप संबंधियों, मित्रों या परिचितों को पत्र लिख रहे हों तो आपका प्रयास यह रहना चाहिये कि आप अपने हाथ से पत्र लिखें। यदि आपकी लिखाई साफ़ नहीं है तो आप टाइप करा कर भी पत्र भेज सकते हैं।

2 . पत्र के दाएं हाथ (Top right margin) पर अपना पता लिखें।

411/5-Mohalla Maharam.
Shahdara. Delhi-110 032

3 . पते के ठीक नीचे तारीख डालें। तारीख लिखते समय आप निम्न विधियों में से किसी एक विधि को अपना सकते हैं।

4th October, 1986 Friday, 4th October, 1986

October 4, 1986. 4.10.1986

4 . **पत्र का प्रारम्भ कैसे करें? (How to start a letter ?)**

पत्र की शुरूआत काफी महत्वपूर्ण होती है। इसमें उस व्यक्ति को संबोधित किया जाता है, जिसे पत्र लिखा जाता है। संबोधन इस बात पर निर्भर करता है कि आप किसे पत्र लिख रहे हैं। अलग-अलग श्रेणी के व्यक्तियों के लिये अलग-अलग संबोधनों (salutations) का प्रयोग होता है। कुछ ज्यादा प्रयोग में आने वाले संबोधन नीचे दिये गये हैं।

- माता-पिता व रिश्ते में बड़े अन्य संबंधियों को—
  My dear father/papa/uncle.
  Dear aunt/mother/mummy.
- माता-पिता द्वारा बच्चों को —
  My dear Umesh.
  Dear Renu,
  My dear son.
  My dear daughter Sapna.
- भाई-बहन तथा मित्रों में—
  My dear brother/sister,
  My dear sister Pushpa,
  My dear Anand,
  My dear friend Anand,
- अपने से बड़े अधिकारियों तथा व्यवसायिक फर्म के मालिक/मालिकों को—
  Sir,
  Dear Sirs,
  Dear Mr. Ramesh,

5 . पत्र का मुख्य भाग (Body of the letter)

इसे मोटे रूप से तीन भागों में बांटा जा सकता है। सबसे पहले संदर्भ दीजिए अर्थात आप पत्र क्यों लिख रहे हैं। इसके बाद संदेश दीजिए या जिस बात का उत्तर मांगा गया है, लिखिए। अंत में बड़ों-छोटों को यथायोग्य अभिवादन देते हुए पत्र के मुख्य भाग को समाप्त कीजिए। तीनों का एक-एक उदाहरण नीचे दिया जा रहा है।

- **संदर्भ** (Reference):
  I have just received your letter.
- **संदेश** (Message):
  Meet Mr. Gajraj and give him the money.
- **अंत** (End):
  Please give my best regards/love/wishes to.....

6 . पत्र का समापन कैसे करें? (How to close a letter ?)

पत्र के समापन का ढंग भी इस बात पर निर्भर करता है कि आप किसे पत्र लिख रहे हैं। इसे हस्ताक्षरकरण (subscription) कहते हैं। पत्र किसे लिखा जा रहा है उसके अनुसार अलग-अलग subscription होते हैं। इसमें पत्र-लेखक के हस्ताक्षर भी सम्मिलित रहते हैं।

- माता-पिता व रिश्ते में बड़े संबंधियों को —
  Affectionately yours.
  Yours affectionately.
  Your affectionate son/daughter/nephew/niece.
- माता-पिता, चाचा, चाची आदि द्वारा बच्चों को —
  Affectionately yours.
  Yours affectionately.
  Your affectionate father/uncle/mother/auntie.
- मित्रों को—
  Sincerely yours.
  Yours sincerely.
  Yours very sincerely.
- अपने से बड़े अधिकारियों को तथा व्यवसायिक फर्म के मालिकों को—
  Yours faithfully,
- भाई-बहन में पत्र-व्यवहार—
  Your loving brother.
  Your loving sister.

7 . यदि पत्र-समापन के बाद कोई बात लिखने से छूट जाए तो पत्र के नीचे P.S. (Post-Script) लिख कर अपनी बात लिखें।

8 . कुल मिला कर पत्र कसा हुआ, अपना संदेश स्पष्टत: अभिव्यक्त करने वाला एवं

ऐसी भाषा में होना चाहिए, जो पत्र पाने वाले के स्तर के अनुरूप हो। अनावश्यक विस्तार भी पत्र को उबाऊ बना देता है— इसलिए भावाभिव्यक्ति में संक्षिप्त रहने की चेष्टा कीजिए। यथा-समय पत्र भेजने का भी बड़ा महत्व होता है- सदा चेष्टा कीजिए कि आपका पत्र समय पर पहुंच जाये और उसमें सभी अपेक्षित सूचनाए दे दी गयी हों।

1 . शुभकामना-पत्र (Letters of Greetings)

शुभकामना व्यक्त करने वाले पत्रों का मुख्य प्रयोजन होता है—दूसरे की खुशी बांटना, अपनी प्रसन्नता दूसरों तक पहुंचाना, अपनी याद दिलाना और इस प्रकार पत्रों के माध्यम से व्यक्तिगत/सामाजिक बन्धनों को उत्तरोत्तर मधुरतर बनाना। यद्यपि ये पत्र औपचारिक व छोटे होते है किन्तु इनमें जितनी आत्मीयता की छाप रहेगी, पत्र उतना ही प्रभावशाली होगा। इन पत्रों की भाषा किताबी न होकर बोल-चाल की भाषा होती है। पत्र, पाठक को ऐसा प्रतीत हो मानो पत्र का लेखक उसके सामने बैठा सहज भाव से अपनी प्रसन्नता व्यक्त कर रहा है। ऐसे पत्र नव-वर्ष, होली, दीवाली, ईद, दशहरा, क्रिसमस, जन्मदिन आदि जैसे शुभ अवसरों पर प्रेषित किए जाते हैं।

प्रसन्नता व्यक्त करने वाले वाक्य से पत्र शुरू कीजिये :

1. I was pleasantly surprised to know .....
2. Please accept my heartiest greetings on the eve of .....
3. Please accept my best wishes on this happy occasion .
4. My wife and kids join me in expressing our warmest greetings on the occasion of .....

बधाई देने के पश्चात् सुखी भविष्य के लिये शुभकामनाएं व्यक्त कीजिये :

5. May this occasion bring you all happiness and prosperity !
6. May every day of your future be as pleasant and auspicious as this day !
7. May God grant you every success in the coming years !
8. I wish this day to be as happy and gay as lily in May !

स्वयं उपस्थित न हो पाने की मजबूरी प्रकट कीजिये:

9. I would have joined you so happily in the celebrations but for my visit on urgent official business .
10. I regret my absence on this happy day owing to my illness .
11. How eager I am to be with you but my family occupation prevents me from doing so .

कोई उपहार/भेंट देने के बारे में इशारा कीजिये:

12. But you will soon receive a gift as a token of my affection for you on this happy occasion .
13. I hope you like the small gift/bouquet I sent to you today to convey my warm feelings .

पुन: शुभकामनाएं प्रकट करते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिये:

14. Once again I convey my sincerest greetings on this auspicious occasion .
15. Wishing you all the best in life .
16. Looking forward to hearing more from you .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....,

Please accept my heartiest greetings on your birthday. (2) May this occasion bring you perfect happiness and prosperity in the coming years! (7) I regret my absence on this happy day owing to my illness. (10) But you will soon receive a gift as a token of my affection for you on this happy occasion. (12).

Yours sincerely,

2 . बधाई-पत्र (Letters of Congratulations)

बधाई-पत्र आमतौर से शुभकामना व्यक्त करने वाले पत्रों की तुलना में अधिक भावपूर्ण होते हैं और इनमें वैयक्तिक उत्साह अधिक झलकता है। ऐसे पत्रों के द्वारा किसी की व्यक्तिगत उपलब्धि की सराहना करते हुए गर्मजोशी से अपनी खुशी को व्यक्त किया जाता है और पत्र पाने वाले के भविष्य के प्रति शुभकामनाएं भी व्यक्त की जाती हैं। ये पत्र शुभकामनाओं के पत्रों की तुलना में कुछ अधिक लंबे होते हैं। इन्हें परीक्षा में सफलता, व्यापार में उन्नति, पुस्तक के विमोचन या ऐसे ही अन्य खुशी के अवसरों पर भेजा जाता है।

पत्र का आरम्भ प्रसन्नता व्यक्त करते हुए करें:

1. I am so happy to know .....
2. We are thrilled to hear from our mutual friend .
3. My heart is filled with joy to learn about .....
4. My happiness knew no bound the other day when I came to know about .....
5. I was beside myself with joy the other day when I came to

know about .....

मधुर शब्दों में बधाई दें :

6. Please accept my heartiest congratulations on .....
7. My wife joins me in congratulating you/your son ..... on your/your son's grand success .
8. It is really a splendid achievement and we are all proud of you .
9. I am delighted to learn that you have realized your cherished ambition .

उज्जवल भविष्य के लिए अपनी शुभकामनाएं प्रकट कीजिये :

10. Your grand success will make you bask in the glory of good fortune all through your life .
11. May God continue to grant you similar successes all through your life .
12. I am sure you would bring great laurels to your profession and the organization you joined .
13. Having attained a firm footing in your life, I am sure you would go very far on the path of achievements .

भावी कार्यक्रम के बारे में पूछने से सम्बन्धों में आत्मीयता प्रकट होगी :

14. Do you plan to celebrate the occasion ?
15. When are you intending to join .....?
16. Do you plan to go abroad for higher studies ?

पत्र की समाप्ति दोबारा अपना शुभकामनाएं/बधाइयां देते हुए और सफलता के कारणों की ओर इंगित करते हुए करें:

17. Once again I congratulate you on your well deserved success .
18. Your success is a fitting reward of your merit/painstaking labour .
19. God has duly rewarded your sincere efforts .
20. Accept once again my felicitations on this grand occasion .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....,

I was beside myself with joy the other day when I came to know about your topping the list of the successful candidates in

the Civil Services Examination. (5) It is really a splendid achievement and we are all proud of you. (8) May God continue to grant you similar successes all through your life. (11) Do you plan to celebrate the occasion? (14) Your success is a fitting reward of your merit/painstaking labour. (18)

Yours sincerely,

3 . सहानुभूति-पत्र (Letters of Sympathy)

दुखद अवसरों पर लिखे जाने वाले सहानुभूति के पत्र मोटे रूप से चार वर्गों में बांटे जा सकते हैं: आर्थिक हानि, दुर्घटना, बीमारी, परीक्षा या नौकरी में असफलता। सहानुभूति के पत्र में संवेदना-पत्र की अपेक्षा भावुकता का अंश स्वाभाविक रूप से कम ही होता है, क्योंकि संपत्ति-हानि, प्राण-हानि की तुलना में कम महत्त्वपूर्ण है। फिर भी पाठक को पत्र-लेखक की सच्ची सहानुभूति मिलनी चाहिए।

अपना पत्र समाचार मिलने पर खेद से प्रारम्भ करें :

1. I am extremely sorry to hear of the fire that ravaged your factory on 10th Sept .
2. I was much distressed to learn about the theft committed in your house last Monday .
3. I was extremely worried to know about your illness the other day by our mutual friend .
4. It was with profound shock that I learnt about your car accident from the newspaper .
5. I was quite disturbed to know about your supercession in service .
6. It was with great sadness that I learnt from the newspaper about your failure in the examination .

अधिक हानि न होने पर संतोष व्यक्त करें:

7. However, it is a matter of great relief that the damage caused was not major .
8. At the same time I am quite relieved to know that the loss is not much .
9. But I am sure the regular treatment will make you get rid of it in no time .
10. But I feel greatly relieved to know that you are physically safe .

11. Do not worry, if you could not get your promotion this time you may get it next year .
12. Success and failure are a part of life and should be taken in stride .

पत्र-पाठक का दोष न होने का विश्वास प्रकट करें और कोई उल्लेखनीय बात हो तो लिखें :

13. Do not get upset about it as I am told it was insured .
14. I am glad that the police is hotly pursuing the case with some useful clues .
15. Take full rest and follow the doctor’s instruction. You will get well soon .
16. Success or failure are a matter of luck. Do not lose your heart and work hard with redoubled vigour. Success shall be yours .

अपनी ओर से सहायता का प्रस्ताव रखें:

17. I know some important personnel in the Insurance company. I will speak to them .
18. Please do not hesitate in asking any financial help from me in case you need .
19. Why do not you come to my place for the convalescence. We’ll have good time .
20. Henceforth be careful in driving and, also get your car brakes thoroughly checked .
21. Sincere efforts always bring reward, so continue trying .

पुन: संवेदना व्यक्त करें :

22. You have all my sympathies on this unfortunate incident .
23. I feel greatly concerned about your loss .
24. Please convey my heart-felt sympathies to your entire family .
25. May you recover speedily .
26. May God grant you your well-deserved success next time .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....,

I was extremely sorry to hear of the fire that ravaged your factory on 10th Sept.(1) However, it is a matter of great relief that

the damage caused was not major.(7) Do not get upset about it as I am told it was insured.(13) I know some important personnel in the Insurance company. I will speak to them. (17) You have all my sympathies on this unfortunate incident. (22)

Yours sincerely.

4 . खेद प्रकट करने के पत्र (Letters of Regret)

निमंत्रण की अस्वीकृति भेजने या किसी वजह से निमंत्रित अवसर पर न पहुंच पाने का संदेश देने वाले पत्र इस श्रेणी में आंते हैं। अनुपस्थित होने की सूचना देने वाले पत्र थोड़े बड़े हो जाते हैं, क्योंकि इनमें न आ पाने का कारण भी बताया जाता है।

प्रारम्भ में निमन्त्रण के लिये धन्यवाद दें:

1. Thanks a lot for your kind invitation to attend .....
2. I was extremely happy to receive your letter of invitation to attend .....
3. It was so kind of you to have remembered me on the occasion of .....
4. It was an honour to have received your courteous invitation letter .

इसके पश्चात् निमंत्रण की अस्वीकृति के लिये खेद प्रकट करें :

5. I would have been so much delighted to be with you but .....
6. I was thrilled to receive your invitation and was looking forward to meeting you all but owing to .....
7. I regret to inform you that in spite of my ardent wish I would not be able to make it for reasons beyond my control .
8. We were all very keen to participate in.....but .....
9. I have much pleasure in accepting your invitation but deeply regret having to refuse owing to a previous engagement .

निम्नांकित वाक्यांशों में से उचित अंश उपयुक्त वाक्य में जोड़ कर वाक्य पूरा करें :

10. Unfortunately I am not well .
11. Owing to my urgent business trip abroad, I would not be able to attend it .

12 . ..... but I am preoccupied with the arrival of guests on the same dates .

13 . ..... but I am going out on the same dates to attend my sister's wedding .

शुभ अवसर के लिये अपनी शुभकामनाएं प्रकट करें:

14. Nevertheless I convey my heartiest good wishes for the happy occasion .
15. All the same, let me congratulate you most heartily on this happy event of your life .
16. My family joins me in wishing you all the best .
17. Best wishes for this grand event of your life .

अन्त में अनुपस्थिति के लिये पुन: क्षमा-प्रार्थना करें:

18. How I wish I would have reached there. I hope you would appreciate my position .
19. I do hope you would accept my sincere apologies for my absence .
20. You can't imagine how perturbed I am at not being able to make it .
21. I sincerely regret the disappointment I am causing to you .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....

It was an honour to have recieved your courteous invitation letter. (4) I would have been so much delighted to be with you. (5) but unfortunately I am not well. (10) I sincerely regret the disappointment I am causing to you. (21) Nevertheless I convey my heartiest good wishes for the happy occasion. (14)

Sincerely yours,

5 . अवकाश-आवेदन पत्र (Leave Applications)

इस प्रकार के पत्र, छोटे परन्तु मन्तव्य स्पष्ट करने वाले होते हैं। चाहे स्कूल से छुट्टी लेनी हो या ऑफिस से, ऐसे आवेदन पत्रों का इस्तेमाल सब को ही करना पड़ता है। ऐसे पत्रों में संबंधित अधिकारी को उचित सम्मान देते हुए अवकाश लेने का कारण स्पष्ट करते हुए, अवकाश प्रदान करने के लिए प्रार्थना की जाती है।

पहले कारण स्पष्ट कीजिये:

1. Respectfully I beg to state that I have been suffering from fever since .....
2. With due respect I wish to bring to your kind notice that my niece is getting married on .....
3. I submit that I have to attend an interview at.....on .....
4. I have to state that I am having a very important work to do on .....

फिर छुट्टी की प्रार्थना कीजिये:

5. Therefore, I request you to grant me leave for.....days .
6. Hence you are requested to grant me leave of absence for .....
7. I, therefore, request you to grant me leave for..... to enable me to attend to this work .

अन्त में धन्यवाद देते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिये :

8. I shall be highly grateful .
9. I shall be much obliged to you .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Sir,

Respectfully I beg to state that I have been suffering from fever since last night. (1) Therefore, I request you to grant me leave for three days. (5) I shall be much obliged to you. (9)

Thanking you,

Yours faithfully.

6 . धन्यवाद के पत्र (Letters of Thanks)

धन्यवाद के पत्रों में मूल भाव कृतज्ञता ज्ञापन का होता है। किसी अवसर विशेष पर किसी के द्वारा याद किए जाने अथवा उपहार इत्यादि दिए जाने के प्रत्युत्तर में इन्हें लिखा जाता है। यद्यपि ये पत्र भी औपचारिक पत्रों की श्रेणी में आते हैं, परन्तु ध्यान रहे कृतज्ञ-भाव की अभिव्यक्ति करते समय औपचारिकता प्रकट नहीं होनी चाहिए। ये पत्र छोटे किन्तु बहुत आवश्यक होते हैं क्योंकि आगामी संबंधों की मधुरता बहुत कुछ ऐसे पत्रों पर ही निर्भर करती है।

पत्र का आरम्भ धन्यवाद देते हुए कृतज्ञता-ज्ञापन से करें:

1. I thank you from the core of my heart for your

letter/sending me the gift etc .

2. I express my profound gratitude for your having cared to remember me/send me the beautiful gift etc .
3. It was very kind of you to have .....
4. Thanks a lot for..... (your letter/beautiful gift etc.). Indeed I am grateful .

उपहार/पत्र के विषय और उसके महत्त्व की चर्चा कीजिए :

5. Your letter/gift is the most precious possession that I have .
6. Your sentiments expressed through the letter/gift has really boosted my morale .
7. Your letter/gift has really strengthened our bonds of affection .
8. The exquisite gift/warm feelingful letter was most befitting the occasion .

पुन: धन्यवाद देते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिए :

9. Thank you once again for your kind letter/gift .
10. Very any thanks for caring to remember me .
11. Thanks a lot for the letter/gift, although your personal presence would have made quite a difference .
12. Thanks again. We are looking forward to meeting you soon .

Sample Letter

My dear.....,

I thank you from the core of my heart for your letter/sending me the gift. (1) Your letter/gift is the most precious possession that I have. (5) Very many thanks for caring to remember me. (10)

Yours sincerely,

7 . संवेदना के पत्र (Letters of Condolence)

संवेदना का पत्र किसी परिचित को प्राय: उसके घर में किसी अप्रिय घटना होने पर लिखा जाता है। इन पत्रों का मूल भाव संवेदना का ही होता है। ऐसे पत्र छोटे होते हैं और अप्रिय समाचार सुनते ही तुरन्त भेजे जाते हैं। ऐसे पत्र मात्र औपचारिक न होकर भावनाप्रधान होने चाहिए। इनमें मृतक के सद्गुणों का उल्ल्ेाख श्रद्धा या स्नेह (पत्र-लेखक से छोटा या बड़ा जैसा भी हो) के साथ करना चाहिए। यदि पत्र-लेखक मृतक के रिश्तेदार या संबंधी

(जिसको पत्र लिख रहा है) की उसके दुखद काल में कुछ सहायता करने में सक्षम हैं तो उसका भी जिक्र होना चाहिए।

समाचार मिलने पर शोक प्रकट करें:

1. It was with deep regret that we learnt the shocking news of the passing away of .....
2. I was greatly saddened to know about.....from the newspaper/telephone call/letter .
3. I was rudely shocked to know about the sudden demise..... from .....
4. I was deeply distressed to learn about the sudden demise of .....

मृतक के सद्गुणों का उल्लेख करें:

5. He was such a lovable person .
6. In his death in the prime of life God has snatched a bright jewel from our midst .
7. His sociable nature and cultural refinement would keep him alive in the hearts of his admirers .
8. His death has caused a grievous loss not only to your family but to all of us .
9. He was a source of strength and inspiration to many of his fellowbeings .
10. His remarkable achievements would transcend his memory beyond his physical death .
11. Some of his pioneering work will go a long way to benefit many future generations .

अंत में पुन: संवेदना व्यक्त करें:

12. Please accept my sincerest condolences on this sad occasion .
13. May God grant you enough courage and forbearance to withstand this shock .
14. May his soul rest in peace in heaven and guide you for years to come .
15. We express our most sincere sympathy to you in your great bereavement .
16. We hope that the tree he has planted thrives well to

provide protection to his family .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....,

It was with deep regret that we learnt the shocking news of the passing away of your father. (1) His death has caused a grievous loss not only to your family but to all of us. (8) We express our sincerest sympathy to you in your great bereavement. (15) May God grant you enough courage and forbearance to withstand this shock. (13)

Yours sincerely,

8 . प्रेम-पत्र (Love Letters)

प्रेम-पत्र मुख्यत: दो प्रकार के होते हैं — पति-पत्नी के बीच के प्रेम-पत्र एवं प्रेमी-प्रेमिका के बीच के प्रेम-पत्र। पहली श्रेणी के प्रेम-पत्रों में प्रेम के साथ-साथ घर-परिवार की समस्याओं का भी जिक्र होता है, जबकि दूसरी श्रेणी के पत्रों में प्रेम, भावना और कल्पनालोक की बातें अधिक होती हैं। इन पत्रों की सीमा का कोई निर्धारण नहीं हो सकता, अत: इन्हें किसी निश्चित रूपरेखा या नियमों में नहीं बांधा जा सकता।

पत्र का प्रारंभ प्यार भरी बातों से करें:

1. Your loving letter this morning has come like a ray of sun-shine .
2. Your sweet letter has enveloped me in the sweet fragrance of our love .
3. Your letter has flooded me with sheer happiness .
4. Your affectionate letter has dispelled the depression that surrounded me earlier .

फिर प्रासंगिक बातों पर आ जायें:

5. Everything is fine here except that I miss you so badly .
6. Has our little daughter (write her name) recovered from flu .
7. Nights really seem unending in your absence .
8. Is all well at home ?

पुन: प्यार भरी बातें करें:

9. I am longing/dying to meet you .
10. Once again I must tell you how deeply do I love you .
11. Write back soon as your letters provide me a great

emotional support .

12. I am counting the days when I will meet you .

पुन: प्रशंसा भरे वाक्यों से पत्र समाप्त करें :

13. You are the sweetest dream of my life .
14. Your memory keeps me radiant .
15. I am desperately waiting to meet you my sweetheart !
16. You are the greatest thing that happened to my life .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dearest.....,

Your sweet letter has enveloped me in the sweet fragrance of our love. (2) Everything is fine here except that I miss you so badly. (5) Write back soon as your letters provide me a great emotional support. (11) You are the greatest thing that happened to my life. (16)

Love,

Yours ever

9 . आमंत्रण-पत्र (Letters of Invitation)

इन पत्रों के मूल में उत्साह, खुशी और सम्मान का भाव निहित होता है। पत्र प्राप्त करने वाले को यह महसूस होना चाहिए कि बहुत जोर देकर और अतीव सम्मान के साथ उसे आमंत्रित किया जा रहा है। यह पत्र पूरे विवरणों के साथ लिखा जाना चाहिए जैसे कहां का आमंत्रण है और कब जाना है आदि। ऐसे पत्र विवाह, जन्म-दिन, गृह-प्रवेश आदि के अवसरों पर लिखे जाते है।

प्रारंभ में आमंत्रण का अवसर, तारीख, समय और जगह का विवरण दीजिये:

1. It is with great pleasure that I inform you that (I am/myson is, getting engaged on 16th February, 1986 at Taj Palace's Crystal Room at 6 p.m .)
2. This is to bring to your kind notice that .....
3. Most respectfully I inform you that .....
4. I am pleased to inform you that .....

अब व्यक्तिगत रूप से आमंत्रित करें:

5. I request you to kindly come with your family to grace the occasion .
6. I would be delighted if you could spare some time from your busy schedule to attend the above mentioned function/celebration .
7. It would be a great pleasure to have you among the guests .
8. Please do come with your family at the appointed place and time .

एक बार पुन: अवश्य पधारने का आग्रह करें:

9. You know how important is your presence on this occasion for us. So please do come .
10. I am sure you would not disappoint us .
11. I would be greatly honoured if you could come on this occasion .
12. My whole family is very eagerly awaiting your arrival .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear.....,

It is with great pleasure I inform you that my son is getting engaged on 16th Feb. 1986 at Taj Palace's Crystal Room at 6 p.m. (1) I request you to kindly come with your family to grace the occasion. (5) My whole family is very eagerly awaiting your arrival. (12)

Yours sincerely,

10 . शिक्षा-संबंधी पत्र / प्रार्थना-पत्र
(Letters and Applications on Educational Matters)

माता-पिता तथा अध्यापक के बीच पत्र-व्यवहार के अवसर प्राय: उपस्थित होते रहते हैं। अधिकतर ऐसे पत्र शिक्षा-संबंधी ही होते हैं जैसे प्रमाण-पत्र प्राप्त करने के लिए लिखे गए पत्र, बच्चे की पढ़ाई से संबंधित प्रश्न पूछने वाले पत्र इत्यादि। इनकी भाषा औपचारिक होती है और पत्र में सीधे-सीधे मूल मुद्दे पर बात की जाती है।

पत्र के आरंभ में पत्र लिखने का कारण स्पष्ट करे:

1. This is to bring to your kind notice that I am leaving the town and I want to have my son's transfer certificate from your reputed school/college etc .
2. I have been watching my son's studies and find him to be still quite weak in mathematics .
3. I am deeply pained to learn from my son about the callous attitude of some of the teachers towards the students .
4. Since my daughter ..... a student of your school, class..... wishes to compete for the science talent competition, I should be grateful if you could issue the relevant certificates .

अन्त में धन्यवाद व्यक्त करते हुए प्रार्थना-पत्र समाप्त करें:

5. Kindly arrange to issue the certificate at your earliest. Thank you .
6. I would be grateful if some special attention is given to my son .....
7. You are requested to send the relevant certificates by..... (give date)
8. I again request to get the needful done at your end .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir (or Madam),

Since my daughter Neeta, a student of Class XI in your school, wishes to compete for the science talent competition, I should be grateful if you could issue relevant certificates.(4) I again request you to get the needful done at your end. (8)

Yours sincerely,

11 . वैवाहिक विज्ञापनों के उत्तर
(Replies to Matrimonial Advertisements)

आजकल, विशेषकर बड़े शहरों में, वैवाहिक संबंध अखबारी विज्ञापनों के माध्यम से भी होते हैं। ऐसे विज्ञापन ध्यान से पढ़े जाते हैं। इनके द्वारा अनेक विवाह संपन्न होते हैं। उन विज्ञापनों के जवाब में पत्र इस प्रकार लिखने चाहिए, जिनमें विज्ञापन का पूरा हवाला हो, वर/वधू के बारे में पूरा ब्यौरा हो, परिवार का ब्यौरा हो, पूरी आर्थिक-स्थिति का खुलासा हो, फोटो भेजने का आग्रह हो, प्रत्युत्तर की आशा हो इत्यादि। यह पत्र यथार्थपरक होते हैं इसलिए ब्यौरे अधिक से अधिक स्पष्ट होने चाहिए।

प्रारंभ में विज्ञापन पढ़ने की जानकारी दें:

1. In response to your matrimonial advertisement published in the (newspaper’s name and date) I furnish hereunder the relevant particulars about my daughter/son .
2. This is in reference to your matrimonial advertisement published in (name of the newspaper) on.....(date) that I give below the details of my daughter/son and my family .
3. I have seen your recent advertisement for a suitable bridegroom/bride for your daughter/son and would like to furnish the following particulars about myself/my son .

उसके बाद लड़के/लड़की का ब्यौरा दें:

4. Name, age, education, appearance and earnings .
5. Brothers, sisters and their description .
6. Parents and their description .
7. Caste/sub-caste or community details .

पत्र का अंत ऐसे करें:

8. In case you are interested, please send to me more details about the boy/girl along with his/her one recent photograph .

9. If you require more information, I would be pleased to furnish it .
10. If you have belief in astrology we will send the horoscope also .
11. Since we want marriage at the earliest, a prompt reply will be highly appreciated .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir.....,

In response to your matrimonial advertisement published in The Hindustan Times on 20th Sept. 1986, I furnish here the relevant particulars of my daughter (give the relevant details). (1) If you have belief in astrology, we will send the horoscope also. (10) Since we want marriage at the earliest, a prompt reply will be highly appreciated. (11)

Yours sincerely,

12 . वैवाहिक विज्ञापनों द्वारा प्राप्त पत्रों का उत्तर
(Letter to the responses received from Matrimonial Ads)

इन पत्रों का उत्तर एकदम संयत भाषा में होना चाहिए क्योंकि ये पत्र आपकी इच्छा-पूर्ति की दिशा में उठा हुआ पहला कदम होते हैं। जो भी ब्यौरा मांगा जाए, उसका सही-सही बयान होना चाहिए। एक प्रकार से इन पत्रों की भाषा व्यावसायिक पत्रों की भांति होती है, अत: ये तथ्यपरक और छोटे होते हैं।

पहले पत्र-प्राप्ति की स्वीकृति देते हुए प्रसन्नता व्यक्त कीजिए:

1. I was delighted to receive your letter in response to our ad in the newspaper .
2. Received your letter soliciting further enquiry into our likely matrimonial alliance .

उसके बाद जो पूछा गया है, उसका पूरा ब्यौरा दीजिए:

3. My sister is a post graduate in Economics from Allahabad University .
4. At present my daughter is teaching in Cannosa convent school .
5. Enclosed photograph is a recent shot of..... (name) my sister .

आगे भी और ब्यौरा देने के लिए आश्वासन देते हुए अपनी जानकारी हेतु कुछ प्रश्न पूछिए:

6. Should you have any further query, I would be most willing to satisfy it. When is Amit coming for holidays ?
7. I hope this satisfies your query. Kindly care to send a recently shot photograph of Amit too .
8. If you need ask anything still, we can meet at Lodhi Hotel between 14th to 16th instt. where I shall be staying during my next visit to Delhi .

आगामी सम्बन्धों की मधुरता के प्रति आश्वस्त होने का भाव दर्शाते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिए:

9. Hope to see our proposal to fruition soon .
10. Expecting to hear from you soon .
11. Looking forward to our coming meeting .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Mr.....,

I was delighted to receive your letter in reply to our ad in the newspaper. (1) At present my daughter is teaching in Cannosa convent school. (2) I hope this satisfies your query. Kindly care to send a recently shot photograph of Amit too. (7) Looking forward to our coming meeting.(11)

Yours truly,

13 . पारिवारिक पत्र: बराबर वालों के बीच
(**Family Letters: Between Equals**)

पारिवारिक पत्रों को भी किसी निश्चित क्रम में नहीं बांटा जा सकता, न उनकी कोई सीमा ही निर्धारित की जा सकती है। इन पत्रों के विषय अनन्त हो सकते हैं—व्यक्तिगत समस्याओं से लेकर साधारण प्रसंग तक। फिर भी इन पत्रों का एक विशेष गुम होता है—स्नेहयुक्त अनौपचारिकता। साधारणतया यह पत्र लंबे होते हैं और बोलचाल की भाषा में लिखे जाते हैं। बराबर वालों के पत्रों का लहजा ज़रा दोस्ताना होता है, जिसमें थोड़ी आपसी छींटाकशी भी चलती है, जो पारस्परिक स्नेह को दृढ़तर करती है।

प्रसन्नता दर्शाते हुए पत्र लिखने के कारण का उल्लेख करें:

1. It was indeed a great pleasure to receive your letter .
2. I received your letter and was delighted to go through its

contents .

3. Received your letter after ages .
4. So, at long last you cared to remember me !

फिर व्यक्तिगत/परिवारिक सूचनाएं दें:

5. Of late I have not been keeping in good health .
6. Father is now better but his movements are somewhat restricted .
7. After the cataract operation, mother's eyesight has improved considerably .
8. Pappoo secured 86% marks and IVth rank in his annual exams .
9. The other day my wife met your cousin at Sheela's marriage .

फिर कुछ उलांहना और आत्मीयता प्रदर्शन करने वाली बातों का उल्लेख करें:

10. What about your tea-addiction, still going 20 cups strong a day ?
11. How are you getting along in your new affair. Any help needed ?
12. Are you really so busy as not to be able to correspond frequently ?
13. When are you going to marry-in old age?

पुन: मिलने की आकांक्षा प्रकट करते हुए पत्र समाप्त करें:

14. Hoping to meet you in the Dussera vacation .
15. I hope you would be coming over to this side at Rahul's marriage. Then we will meet .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Ramesh,

So, at long last you cared to remember me! (4) Of late I have not been keeping in good health. (5) What about your tea-addiction, still going 20 cups strong a day?(10) I hope you would be coming over to this side at Rahul's marriage. Then we will meet.(15)

With loving regards,

Yours affectionately.

14 . पारिवारिक पत्र: बड़े और छोटे के बीच

(Family Letters: From Elder to Younger)

बड़ों के छोटों के प्रति पत्रों में स्नेह के साथ-साथ थोड़ी अनुशासनात्मक दृढ़ता भी झलकती है और उनके भविष्य-जीवन के प्रति उत्सुकता भी। ऐसे पत्रों का भी कोई सीमा-निर्धारण नहीं हो सकता, यह व्यक्तिगत आवश्यकता पर ही निर्भर करता है।

प्रसन्नता दर्शाते हुए पत्र लिखने के कारण का उल्लेख करें:

1. I was happy to receive your letter the other day .
2. It is surprising that since last one month you haven't cared to drop even a single letter to us .
3. The photographs sent by you are really marvellous. We were delighted to see them .
4. Mr. Saxena met me yesterday and told me about his meeting you on 10th instant .

फिर व्यक्तिगत/पारिवारिक सूचना दें:

5. Ramesh's competitive exams would start from 21st Oct .
6. Your Sushma auntie expired on September 9 last. She was unwell for some time .
7. Since Reeta ' s marriage has been fixed on 9th January. I expect you to be here at least a week earlier to help me in the arrangements .
8. Your nephew Bittoo is unhappy as you did'nt send him the promised watch .

अब पत्र-पाठक के हाल-चाल पूछें:

9. How are you doing in your new assignment? Is it really taxing?/Hope it is exciting .
10. I hope you are taking proper care of your health .
11. Tell Asha that I miss the delicious dosas prepared by her .
12. How is Pintoo in his studies ?

पुन: मिलने की आकांक्षा /आदेश प्रकट करते हुए पत्र समाप्त करें:

13. I hope you would be punctual in your letter-writing to us and would come on Dussera .
14. Be careful about your health in this rainy season and continue writing letters .
15. Apply for your leave well in advance so that you are in time for Reeta's marriage .

16. More when we meet .

_____ **Sample Letter**

My dear Ram,

It is surprising that since last one month you haven't cared to drop even a single letter to us. (2) Since Reeta's marriage has been fixed on 9th January, I expect you to be here at least a week earlier to help me in the arrangements. (7) I hope you are taking proper care of your health. (10) More when we meet. (16)

With love,

Yours affectionately,

15 . पारिवारिक पत्र: छोटे और बड़े के बीच
(Family Letters: From Younger to Elder)

छोटों द्वारा बड़ों के प्रति लिखे गए पत्रों में स्नेह के साथ सम्मान अधिक झलकता है। ये पत्र भी अनौपचारिक होते हैं और इनकी कोई सीमा निर्धारित नहीं हो सकती। ये पत्र थोड़े भावुकता भरे भी होते हैं।

प्रसन्नता दर्शाते हुए पत्र लिखने के कारणों का उल्लेख करें:

1. I was very happy to receive your letter after a long while .
2. I was thrilled to receive the sweets sent by mummy through Mrs. Jindal .
3. Have you people completely forgotten me? No letters !
4. I am writing this letter to ask you to send Rs. 250/ - for my fees at your earliest .

फिर व्यक्तिगत/पारिवारिक सूचनाएं दे:

5. You will be glad to know that I have been selected in the debating group going to U.S.A. for one month .
6. This year owing to extra-classes in Dussera holidays I won't be able to come .
7. Tell Mohan Dada that I need a tennis racket as I have been selected in the college Tennis team .
8. Asha wants to go to her parents place at Diwali. She will go only if you permit .

अब पत्र-पाठक का कुशल-क्षेम पूछें:

9. Is Mummy O.K.? How is her arthritis ?

10. I hope your blood-pressure must now be under control .
11. Has Sarla auntie returned from Hardwar ?
12. Would Munna be going to watch the cricket test match at Kotla ground ?

पुन: मिलने की आकांक्षा/इच्छा प्रकट करते हुए पत्र समाप्त करें:

13. I hope to come for 10 days in Christmas vacation .
14. I might come there during this month for a day .
15. Hope to talk to you over phone when I go to chacha ji's place .
16. More when we meet .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Respected Brother,

I was very happy to receive your letter after a long while. (1) You will be glad to know that I have been selected in the debating group going to U.S.A. for one month. (5) Is Mummy O.K.? How is her arthritis? (9) More when we meet. (16)

With regards to elders and love to youngers,

Yours affectionately,

16 . नियुक्ति/इंटरव्यू इत्यादि से संबंधित प्राप्त पत्रों का पूरक पत्र (Letters supplementing the queries arising out of your receiving of the Appointment/Interview Letters)

यह पत्र प्राय: छोटे होते हैं क्योंकि यह पूरक पत्र है और पिछले पत्र की अपेक्षा में कम विषयों से संबंधित होते हैं। यह पत्र भी तथ्यपरक और छोटे होते हैं। ऐसे पत्रों का उत्तर जल्दबाजी में नहीं दिया जाना चाहिए। भाषा पूरी तरह संयत और सधी हुई होनी चाहिए। अंत में थोड़ा भावुकता प्रदर्शन भी उचित रहता है।

पत्रारंभ अपने प्रार्थना-पत्र का उत्तर आने की प्रसन्नता प्रकट करते हुए कीजिए:

1. I was glad to receive your query in response to my application .
2. Delighted to receive the questionnaire sent by your office .
3. Extremely pleased to get a favourable response from your side .

अब मुख्य बात को स्पष्ट करते हुए अपनी समस्या या उलझन बताइये:

4. But your letter does not mention anything about the T.A. I am entitled to receive for travelling to attend the interview .
5. There appears to be some discrepancy between the grade given in the ad and the one given in your letter .
6. Owing to my illness I won't be able to attend the interview on the scheduled date. Could I get a date fifteen days later than the scheduled one .

अन्त में उस कम्पनी में काम करने की उत्सुकता व्यक्त करते हुए, पूरा सम्मान दर्शाते हुए पत्र का समापन कीजिए:

7. Avidly awaiting the interview date/answer to my query .
8. Looking forward to a bright future in your esteemed organisation .
9. I hope you would kindly care to send the required clarifications on the mentioned points to enable me to attend the interview/or, join the concern .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Sir,

I was glad to receive your query in response to my application. (1) But your letter does not mention anything about the travelling allowance I am entitled to receive for travelling to attend the interview. (4) Avidly awaiting the interview date. (7)

Yours faithfully,

17 . नौकरी हेतु प्रार्थन-पत्र (Job Applications)

नौकरी इत्यादि के लिए लिखे गए आवेदन-पत्रों में भाषा की संयतता और मूल उद्देश्य की स्पष्टता का बहुत महत्व होता है क्योंकि ऐसे पत्र का पाठक प्राय: एक अपरिचित व्यक्ति होता है। आपकी सफलता बहुत कुछ उसकी कृपा और सहानुभूति पर निर्भर करती है। ऐसे पत्र वैसे तो छोटे व औपचारिक होते हैं परंतु वैयक्तिक ब्यौरों के कारण इनकी भी सीमा का निर्धारण नहीं किया जा सकता।

पत्र का प्रारंभ उस हवाले से कीजिये, जिससे आपको इस नौकरी के बारे में ज्ञात हुआ हो:

1. I have come to know through some reliable sources that

you have a vacancy for the post of.....in your renowned organisation .

2. I come to know from your advertisement published in the Hindustan Times on.....that you have vacancy for the post of..... in your esteemed organisation .
3. Being given to understand by your advertisement in .....

अब अपने आवेदन की शुरूआत कीजिये:

4. Since I meet all the required qualifications and experience conditions, I wish to offer my candidature for the same and supply hereunder my details relevant to the job .
5. In response to the aforementioned advertisement I wish to offer my candidature for the same and supply hereunder my particulars relevant to the job .
6. As I possess the requisite qualification so I beg to offer my services for the same .

अब अपनी योग्यता का विश्वास दिलाते हुए किसी नौकरी विशेष के लिये चुने जाने की प्रार्थना कीजिये:

7. I assure you, sir, that if selected I shall do my work most conscientiously .
8. In case you select me I assure you that I will do my work very sincerely .
9. If given the appointment I am sure I will prove an asset for your organisation .
10. If you favour me with an appointment I shall do my best to work to the entire satisfaction of my superiors .

अब अपना पूरा उपयुक्त ब्यौरा दीजिये:

Name, Address, Date of Birth, Educational qualification, Experience, Extra-curricular activities etc.

_____ **Sample Application**

Sir,

I came to know from your advertisement published in the Hindustan Times of 8th August, 1986 that you have a vacancy for the post of Administrative Officer in your esteemed organisation. (2) Since I meet all the required qualifications and experience conditions. I wish to offer my candidature for the same and

supply hereunder my details relevant to the job. (4) I assure you, sir, that if selected I shall do my work most conscientiously. (7)

Name : Date of Birth :

Address : Qualification :

Experience : Extra-curricular Activities :

Yours faithfully,

18 . शिकायत-पत्र (Letters of Complaints)

ये पत्र विशुद्ध रूप से औपचारिक होते हैं और अधिकतर किसी सरकारी विभाग/अफसर को प्रेषित किए जाते हैं। इनमें अपनी सब तकलीफों परेशानियों का पूरी तरह उल्लेख करते हुए, बड़े तर्क-पूर्ण ढंग से शिकायत की जाती है। अपनी शिकायत कड़े शब्दों में करने के बाद उस विभाग की योग्यता की थोड़ी तारीफ भी की जानी चाहिए।

पत्र की शुरूआत अपनी तकलीफ़ का ज़िक्र करते हुए पाठक के प्रति पूरे सम्मान से कीजिये:

1. It is with great agony that I wish to bring to your kind notice the callousness shown by some employee of your Deptt .
2. I am pained to draw your attention to the following lapse committed by your men .

अब थोड़े विस्तार से अपनी तकलीफ़ बताइये:

3. For the last fifteen days.....(mention the cause) and in spite of my several reminders no action has been taken by your men .
4. In spite of my repeated oral complaints and your department’s oral assurances no concrete action has been taken yet to solve this problem .
5. It is indeed sad that your department has turned a deaf ear to our written complaint followed by several reminders .

अब संबन्धित विभाग की तारीफ करके अपनी परेशानी पर दुबारा गौर करने का अनुरोध करते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिये:

6. It is really surprising that such an efficient department as that of yours is not heeding to our complaints. Please get the needful done without any further loss of time .
7. It is difficult to believe that such thing should have

happened under your efficient control. Please get the needful done at the earliest .

8. I can hardly believe that a department like yours which is reputed for its efficiency should be taking so much time in doing the needful .

पत्र का समापन शिकायत के शीघ्र दूर हो जाने की संभावनाओं के साथ कीजिए:

9. I am quite hopeful that you will take a prompt action and oblige .
10. I feel confident of receiving a favourable and helpful reply .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir,

It is with great agony that I wish to bring to your kind notice the callousness shown by your Deptt's personnel. (1) For the last fifteen days my phone is lying dead and in spite of several reminders no action has yet been taken by your men. (3) It is really surprising that such an efficient Deptt. as that of yours is not heeding to our complaints. Please get the needful done without any further loss of time. (6).

Yours faithfully,

19 . होटल में आवास-उपलब्धि से संबंधित पत्र
(Letters of Enquiry regarding Hotel Accommodation)

यह पत्र विशुद्ध व्यावसायिक होते हैं क्योंकि आप पत्र-पाठक को व्यक्तिगत रूप से नहीं जानते। इसलिए ये तथ्यपरक और छोटे होने चाहिए लेकिन ठहरने की अवधि, पहुंचने का समय इत्यादि का ब्यौरा बिल्कुल स्पष्ट होना चाहिए। यदि होटल के संबंधित अधिकारी का पद न मालूम हो तो उसी तरह संबोधित किया जाना चाहिए जैसे किसी फर्म को लिखते समय किया जाता है।

पहले अपने कार्यक्रम इत्यादि की पूरी सूचना दीजिये:

1. I shall be coming by the Delhi Express and arrive at your hotel around 5.30 A.M.
2. I want you to book an A.C. room for me from 17th Oct to 20th, both inclusive .

3. Book a single bedded and sea facing room in your hotel betweem 17th Oct. to 20th Oct. from your time of check in and check out .

अब अगर कोई आपकी खास हिदायत हो तो उसका भी निर्देश दीजिये:

4. Please collect all my mail reaching your hotel before my arrival on 17th Oct. morning .
5. Please make sure I get an air conditioned room .
6. Please arrange a taxi to take me out around 10.30 A.M. the same day i.e. 17th October .

अब उस होटल की थोड़ी तारीफ करते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिये:

7. I am sure this visit shall also be as comfortable as it was the last time .
8. You are an added attraction for me to visit your city .
9. Looking forward to a comfortable stay in your hotel .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Maurya Sheraton.
New Delhi.

Dear Sirs,

I want to book an A.C. room for me from 17th to 20th Oct, both inclusive. (2) Please collect all my mail reaching your hotel before my arrival on 17th Oct. morning. (4) Please arrange a taxi to take me out around 10.30 A.M. the same day i.e. 17th October. (6)

Looking forward to a comfortable stay in your hotel. (9)

Yours truly,

20 . बैंकों से पत्र-व्यवहार (Letters to Banks)

बैंक आजकल हमारे जीवन का अभिन्न अंग बन चुके हैं। जिन कारणों से बैंको को पत्र लिखे जाते हैं, उनमें मुख्य हैं — नया खाता खोलने का अनुरोध करना, ओवरड्राफ्ट की सुविधा देने के लिए प्रार्थना करना, किसी चेक के खो जाने की सूचना देना, आदि। ये पत्र त्रुटिहीन, सार्थक व शिष्ट होने चाहिए व इनको लिखते समय जरा भी लापरवाही नहीं बरती जानी चाहिए।

पत्र का प्रारम्भ उस उद्देश्य को स्पष्ट करते हुए करें, जिसके लिए आप को पत्र

लिखना पड़ा है:

1. I have recently moved into this town and opened a general store at the address given above. On the recommendation of my friend Vijay I wish to open a current account with your bank .
2. I have been recently posted to (.....) from (.....). I am interested in opening a savings account in your bank .
3. With the approach of Diwali we expect a big increase in the sales of our shop/company. As we have just entered this field the wholesale dealers are unwilling to give us the credit facility. Therefore we have to request for overdraft for Rs .....
4. I wish to inform you that I have been transferred to (.....) This being the case it will not be possible for me to continue my account with your bank in future. Hence I request you to close my account .
5. This is with reference to my personal discussion with you regarding overdraft. I, therefore, now request for allowing me to overdraw on my account (No.....) up to Rs. 3000/- between 1st January, 1987 to 1st July 1987 .
6. I am writing to ask you to stop the payment of cheque (No.....amount.....) drawn payable to M/s Karan & Karan, Delhi as this cheque has been lost in the post .

अब यदि रेफरी (Referee) या जमानती (guarantor) की आवश्यकता हो तो उनके विषय में जानकारी प्राप्त कीजिए या उनके विषय में लिखिए:

7. Please send me the necessary form and also let me know if any referee is required for opening a new account .
8. I will provide references should you require them .
9. We have debentures worth Rs.....which we are prepared to deposit as security .
10. As I have no investments to offer as security, I should be grateful if you could make an advance against my personal security .
11. As our past commitments regarding overdrafts have always been honoured hence we find no reason for you to turn down our proposal .

अब आशाजनक उत्तर की उम्मीद प्रकट कीजिए:

12. I shall be grateful for an early reply .
13. Hoping for a favourable reply .
14. We shall highly appreciate a sympathetic response to our above request .
15. We shall be grateful if you could grant the overdraft asked for .
16. We should be highly thankful, if you could accede to our request .

_____ **Sample letter**

Dear Sir,

I have recently moved into this town and opened a general store at the address given above. On the recommendation of my friend Vijay I wish to open a current account with your bank. (1) Please send me the necessary form and also let me know if any referee is required for opening a new account. (7) I shall be grateful for an early reply. (12)

Yours faithfully,

21 . बीमा कंपनी को भेजे जाने वाले पत्र
(Letters to an Insurance Company)

ये पत्र व्यावसायिक पत्रों की श्रेणी में आते हैं और इनकी भाषा विशुद्ध रूप से औपचारिक होती है। चूंकि आजकल बीमा कंपनियों की अधिकता के कारण उनकी पारस्परिक प्रतिस्पर्धा बड़े जोर-शोर से चलती है, इसलिए हर कंपनी अपनी प्रदत्त सुविधाओं को थोड़ा बढ़ा-चढ़ाकर विज्ञापित करने को तैयार रहती है और इसलिए ऐसे पत्रों का बड़ा महत्त्व है। इस प्रकार के पत्र लेखन में ब्यौरा हमेशा पूरा देना चाहिए।

प्रारम्भ में बीमा-विषय की स्पष्टता से बात शुरू कीजिए, अर्थात बीमा किसका कराना है इत्यादि:

1. I want to have my life insurance policy for the sum of Rs .....
2. I want to get my car insured by your company for Rs. 1 lakh .
3. I wish to have the house-holder’s insurance policy covering both building and contents in the sums of (give the cost of the building) and (the cost of the contents) respectively .

अब उनके द्वारा प्रदत्त सुविधाओं की जानकारी लीजिये:

4. We wish to take out insurance cover against loss of cash on our factory/shop premises by fire, theft or burglary .
5. What rebate or concession you offer on an insurance policy for Rs. 2 lakhs ?
6. Is there any loan-facility after a fixed period in the policy you offer ?
7. What modes of premium payments you offer ?

Claim के विषय में लिखें:

8. I am sorry to report an accident to (mention the property insured). We estimate replacement cost of the damaged property at (give the amount).
9. I regret to report that a fire broke out in our factory stores last night. We estimate the damage to the stores at about (give the amount).
10. We regret to report that our employee (give name of the employee) has sustained serious injuries while doing his work. Doctors estimate that it will take him about a month to be fit to work again .

अब आगे की कार्रवाई के विषय में लिखें:

11. Please arrange for your representative to call at our factory premises and let me know your instructions regarding the claim .
12. Should your representative visit to inspect the damaged property, please let me know the day of his visit .
13. We, therefore, wish to make a claim under the policy (give the name of the policy) and shall be glad if you send us the necessary claim form .

पत्रोत्तर की शीघ्र कामना करते हुए पत्र समाप्त कीजिए:

14. I hope you would care to send to me an early reply .
15. Please answer this letter as soon as possible .
16. An early reply to my query shall be greatly appreciated .
17. Please send me particulars of your terms and conditions for the policy along with a proposal form, if required .
18. Please quote your terms and conditions for providing the required cover .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir,

I want to get my car insured by your company, for Rs. 1 lakh. (2) What modes of premium payments you offer? (7) Please send me particulars of your terms and conditions for the policy along with a proposal form, if required.(17) An early reply to my query shall be greatly appreciated. (16)

Yours faithfully

22 . शिकायत-पत्र: व्यापारिक
(Letters of Complaints: Business)

यह पत्र आमतौर पर किसी ऐसी संस्था या कंपनी को प्रेषित किए जाते हैं जिसकी बनाई हुई कोई वस्तु आपने खरीदी है और वह ठीक काम नहीं कर रही। इन पत्रों में खरीद की तारीख, जगह और दुकान इत्यादि का नाम विस्तार से देने के बाद अपनी शिकायत का पूरा उल्लेख किया जाता है। यह पत्र विशुद्ध औपचारिक श्रेणी के होते हैं लेकिन शिकायत का पूरा ब्यौरा देने के कारण लंबे भी हो सकते हैं।

पत्र की शुरूआत पत्र-पाठक द्वारा निर्मित वस्तु की खरीद के ब्यौरे से कीजिये:

1. On……(date) I bought from……(place) an instant geyser manufactured by your renowned concern .
2. Your salesmen delivered the (name the product) on…… (date) one instant geyser we had ordered .
3. I was shocked to find the instant geyser purchased……on (date) at (place) by us did not function well .

अब उस कम्पनी की साख का हवाला देते हुए अपनी शिकायत बताइये:

4. It is a matter of shame for your esteemed organisation to have brought out such products in the maket without proper quality control .
5. It is shocking to find the appliance having faulty wiring system .
6. I am sorry to point out the defect in the geyser……(write your complaint)

इस आशा के साथ कि आपकी शिकायत शीघ्र दूर की जायेगी, पत्र समाप्त कीजिये:

7. I am confident that a reputed concern like that of yours can ill afford to lose your reputation and shall get the needful done at the earliest .
8. I hope you would send your salesman/woman to replace the mentioned product of yours .
9. Need I remind you that such product should be lifted/replaced without much fuss .

_____ **Sample Letter**

(Name of the concern and its concerned officer)

Dear Sir,

On 10.9.86 I bought from the Diplomatic store an instant geyser manufactured by your reputed concern. (1) It is shocking to find the appliance having faulty wiring system. (5) I am confident that a reputed concern like that of yours can ill afford to lose your reputation and shall get the needful done at the earliest. (7)

Yours faithfully,

23 . क्षमा याचना के पत्र (Letters of Apology)

हम सभी अक्सर कोई न कोई गलती करते हैं। सभ्य नागरिक होने का प्रमाण है अपनी गलती स्वीकारना। क्षमा-याचना के पत्र द्वारा ऐसा किया जा सकता है। यद्यपि गलती जान-बूझ कर नहीं की गई, फिर भी यदि किसी दूसरे को कष्ट हुआ है तो स्पष्टीकरण देना आवश्यक हो जाता है। ऐसे पत्र निष्कपट भाव से तुरंत भेजे जाने चाहिए, अन्यथा इन पत्रों को भेजने का मूल उद्देश्य ही विफल हो जाता है।

पहले क्षमा-याचना करने का कारण लिखिये:

1. My son informed me that my cat had eaten away your chickens .
2. My wife told me about our driver’s ramming my car into your boundary wall .

फिर क्षमा-याचना कीजिये:

3. I am extremely sorry to know about it and render my sincere apologies .
4. I apologise deeply for the inconvenience caused to you .
5. My sincere apologies .

तदुपरान्त अपनी निष्कपटता प्रकट करें और भूल-सुधार के लिए स्वयं को प्रस्तुत करें:

6. Although it happened inadvertently yet I am prepared to compensate for your loss .
7. I wish I were there to prevent it. Any way you can penalize me as you want .
8. Kindly care to inform me the loss you have incurred owing to (name the culprit).....this negligence .

पुन: ऐसी गलती न होने का विश्वास दिलायें:

9. I promise that in future I shall be extra-vigilant to see it does not happen again .
10. I have admonished my ..... and he will be careful in future .
11. I assure you that such things will never happen in future .

अन्त में पुन: क्षमा याचना करते हुए पत्र समाप्त करें:

12. In the end I again ask for your forgiveness .
13. Once again with profound apologies .
14. Repeatedly I express my profuse apologies .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir,

My wife told me about our driver's ramming my car into your boundary wall. (2) My sincere apologies. (5) Although it happened inadvertently yet I am prepared to compensate for your loss. (6) I assure you that such things will never happen in future. (11) Once again with profound apologies. (13)

Yours faithfully,

24 . कार्यालय संबंधी पत्र (Letters on Official Matters)

अपने दफ्तरों/कार्यालयों में काम करते हुए कई ऐसे अवसर आते हैं, जब हमें अपने कार्यालयों को पत्र लिखने होते हैं। विषय पदोन्नति के लिए प्रार्थना से लेकर व्यक्तिगत असुविधा तक कुछ भी हो सकता है। ऐसे पत्र छोटे, स्पष्ट और किंचित भाव-पूर्ण भी हो सकते हैं।

पत्र का आरम्भ अपने कार्य निष्पादन एवं अपनी स्थिति से करें:

1. As your honoured self must be aware that I am working in ..... Deptt. in the capacity of a Junior clerk .
2. For the last twenty years I am the ..... (position) in the factory .
3. I am Officiating in the capacity of ..... for last two years .

अब पत्र लिखने का कारण बतायें:

4. Now I have been transferred to .....
5. Owing to my domestic problems. I request you to change .....
6. On account of my health problems I would not be able to

.....

7. Owing to my .....(reason) I can not function in the same position any more .
8. On health grounds I have been advised to leave this city .
9. My family duties have constrained me to seek my transfer .

तदुपरान्त अपने सुझाव देते हुए मुख्य बात पर आयें:

10. Looking at such a changed situation I won't be able to work in the present position .
11. As such I request you to change my working/shift hours .
12. In the light of the above I request you to transfer me to .....(section) or place .

अन्त में अपने सुझाव/परेशानी पर सहानुभूतिपूर्वक विचार करने की प्रार्थना से पत्र समाप्त करें:

13. Hence I request you to expedite/order my desired transfer to .....
14. You are, therefore, requested to release me at the earliest .
15. I pray you to consider my case sympathetically .
16. In view of my loyalty and past performance I am sure you would condescend to grant me the desired wish .
17. I am sure to get a sympathetic response from your side to my genuine problem .
18. With earnest hope I crave your special sympathy in my case .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Sir,

As your honoured self must be aware I am working in Sales Deptt. in the capacity of a Junior Clerk. (1) Owing to my domestic problems I request you to change my place of work. (5) In the light of the above facts I pray you to transfer me to Purchase Deptt. (12) In view of my loyalty and past performance I am sure you would condescend to grant me the desired wish. (16)

Yours faithfully,

25 . मकान मालिक का पत्र किराएदार को
(Letters from a Landlord to a Tenant)

आज के शहरी जीवन में किराएदारों व मकान मालिकों के बीच प्राय: ऐसे अवसर आते रहते हैं, जब दोनों के बीच पत्रों का आदान-प्रदान आवश्यक हो जाता है। चूंकि ऐसे पत्रों में विशेष रूप से दोनों ओर से किसी समस्या का उल्लेख होता है, अत: उनकी भाषा संयत होनी चाहिए। इन पत्रों की भाषा ऐसी होनी चाहिए, जिससे ये मुकद्दमेबाजी की स्थिति में दस्तावेज न बन सकें।

पहले आप अपनी किसी शिकायत का संदर्भ अथवा किरायेदार से जो पत्र प्राप्त हुआ है उसका संदर्भ दें:

1. I feel constrained to inform you that due to recent increase in the house-tax, I have been left with no alternative but to increase the house rent by Rs. 50/-per month w.e.f. first of next month .
2. It has come to my notice that your children make so much noise when they play that it causes disturbance to other tenants
3. I am in receipt of your letter regarding the leaking of the roof of your house .
4. I have noted your complaint about the rent payment receipts .

अब शिकायत के निवारण के लिए लिखिए अथवा किरायेदार के पत्र का उत्तर दीजिए

5. I hope you will not mind this increase in rent as I have retired from service recently and my only source of income is the house rent received from you .
6. I am sure you will give the necessary instructions to your children in this connection .
7. I like to assure you that we are arranging for the necessary repairs at the earliest .
8. The receipts in question will be issued on coming Monday .

पत्र की समाप्ति किरायेदार से सहयोग की आशा प्रगट करते हुए कीजिए:

9. I hope you won’t find this increase burdensome .
10. I hope you will be able to understand and appreciate my point of view .
11. I expect you to bear with me for a few days only .
12. I am sure you will extend your cooperation as always .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir,

I am in receipt of your letter regarding the leaking of the roof of your house. (3) I like to assure you that we are arranging for the necessary repairs at the earliest. (7) I expect you to bear with me for a few days only. (11)

Yours sincerely,

26 . किराएदार की ओर से मकान मालिक को पत्र
(Letters from the Tenant to the Landlord)

पत्र का प्रारम्भ अपनी शिकायत अथवा मकानमालिक की ओर से यदि कोई पत्र मिला है तो उसके संदर्भ से कीजिए:

1. I have to inform you that the roof of the house we are occupying leaks during rains causing great inconvenience to our family .
2. I am sorry to point out that despite several reminders you haven't issued the rent payment receipts for the last three months .
3. Please refer to your letter regarding increase in the rent of the house we are occupying .
4. We have noted your complaint regarding our carelessness in switching off the light at the main gate .

अब अपनी शिकायत के निवारण के लिए या मकान मालिक के पत्र के जवाब में लिखिए:

5. Hence you are requested to get the necessary repairs done at the earliest .
6. I, therefore, request you to issue the above mentioned receipts without any further delay .
7. I regret to write that whatever cogent reason you may have for increasing the house rent but my financial means don't permit me to pay a higher rent .
8. Rest assured that we will be careful in future regarding switching off the light at the main gate .

अंत में मकान मालिक से मधुर संबंध बनाए रखने पर जोर दें:

9. I hope you will understand our problem and cooperate .
10. Hoping for a favourable reply .
11. I am sure you will appreciate my financial problem and

withdraw your rent increase proposal .

12. We are sure that this assurance is enough to set to rest all your doubts in this regard .

_____ **Sample Letter**

Dear Sir,

I am sorry to point out that despite several reminders you haven’t issued the rent payment receipts for the last three months. (2) I, therefore, request you to issue the above mentioned receipts without any further delay. (6) Hoping for a favourable reply. (10).

Yours sincerely,

ENGLISH CONVERSATION PRACTICE

TMH EDITION

For sale in India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Bhutan only

GRANT TAYLOR

1. MEETING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Hello. How are you?
S2. Pretty well, thanks. And you?
S1. I'm fine, thanks.
S2. It's good to see you again.

Conversation B

S1. Where have you been lately?
S2. I've been busy with extra work.
S1. I've had a lot of work to do too.
S2. Yes. I haven't seen you for quite a while either.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Hello. How's everything?
S2. Fine, thanks. How about you?
S1. Just fine. What's new?
S2. Nothing much.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'm pleased to meet you.
S2. The pleasure is mine.
S1. I've heard John speak about you often.
S2. Only good things, I hope.

Conversation E

S1. Look who's here!
S2. Are you surprised to see me?
S1. Sure. I thought you were in Europe.
S2. I was, but I got back yesterday.

Exercise 1/ *Line A4 /*

It's good to see you again.

nice	**It's nice to see you again.**
wonderful	**It's wonderful to see you again.**
delightful	**It's delightful to see you again.**
marvelous	**It's marvelous to see you again.**
exciting	**It's exciting to see you again.**

Exercise* 2/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

meet you — **It's good to meet you again.**
talk to you — **It's good to talk to you again.**
be with you — **It's good to be with you again.**
hear from you — **It's good to hear from you again**
have a conversation with you — **It's good to have a conversation with you again.**

Exercise* 3/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

Them — **It's good to see them again.**
all of you — **It's good to see all of you again.**
everyone — **It's good to see everyone again.**
John and her — **It's good to see John and her again.**
Mary and him — **It's good to see Mary and him again.**

Exercise* 4/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

Today — **It's good to see you again today.**
this week — **It's good to see you again this week.**
during our vacation — **It's good to see you again during our vacation.**
so soon again — **It's good to see you so soon again.**
after such a long time — **It's good to see you after such a long time.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

wonderful — **It's wonderful to see you again.**
meet — **It's wonderful to meet you again.**
all of you — **It's wonderful to meet all of you again.**
so soon again — **It's wonderful to meet all of you so soon again.**
be with all of you — **It's wonderful to be with all of you so soon again.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

recently — **Where have you been recently?**
since June — **Where have you been since June?**
this past week — **Where have you been this past week?**
for the last month — **Where have you been for the last month?**
since school finished — **Where have you been since school finished?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

John — **Where has John been lately?**
all of you — **Where have all of you been lately?**
your friend Mary — **Where has your friend Mary been lately?**
John and you — **Where have John and you been lately?**
everyone — **Where has everyone been lately?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

recently	**Where have you been recently?**
all of you	**Where have all of you been recently?**
since last July	**Where have all of you been since last July?**
that student	**Where has that student been since last July?**
this past week	**Where has that student been this past week?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line B2 /

I've been busy, with extra work.

tied up	**I've been tied up with extra work**
with business	**I've been tied up with business**
We	**We've been tied up with business**
completely involved	**We've been completely involved**

Exercise* 10 / *Line B3 /

I've had a lot of work to do too.

A great deal	**I've had a great deal of work to do too.**
Finish	**I've had a great deal of work to finish too**
also	**I've had a great deal of work to finish also**
too much	**I've had too much work to finish also.**
take care of	**I've had too much work to take care of also**

Exercise 11 / Line B4 /

I haven't seen you.

for quite a while	**I haven't seen you for quite a while.**
heard from you	**I haven't heard from you for quite a while**
She	**She hasn't heard from you for quite a while**
Either	**She hasn't heard from you for quite a while either.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D1 /**

I'm pleased to meet you.

Delighted	**I'm delighted to meet you.**
to make your acquaintance	**I'm delighted to make your acquaintance**
happy	**I'm happy to make your acquaintance**
so soon	**I'm happy to make your acquaintance so soon.**
to have the pleasure of	**I'm happy to have the pleasure of**
meeting you	**meeting you so soon.**

***Exercise* 13 / *Line* D3 /**

John speaks about you.	**I've heard him speak about you.**
John mentions you.	**I've heard him mention you.**
John refers to you.	**I've heard him refer to you.**
John describes you.	**I've heard him describe you.**
John inquires about you.	**I've heard him inquire about you.**

John compliments you. **I've heard him compliment you.**

Exercise* 14 / *Line E3 /

I thought you were in Europe.

the city	**I thought you were in the city**
at Sandy Beach	**I thought you were at Sandy Beach**
school	**I thought you were at school**
the office	**I thought you were at the office**
on the train to New York	**I thought you were on the train to New York.**

Exercise* 15/ *Line E4 /

I got back yesterday.

two days ago	**I got back two days ago.**
returned	**I returned two days ago.**
last Thursday	**I returned last Thursday.**
I flew home	**I flew home last Thursday.**
on Friday	**I flew home on Friday.**

2. PARTING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Well, I have an appointment now.
S2. I'm in quite a hurry too.
S1. Good to see you. Goodbye,.
S2. Goodbye. Take care of yourself.

Conversation B

S1. I guess I'd better go now.
S2. I've got to be going now too.
S1. In that case, I'll be seeing you.
S2. So long. See you later.

Conversation C

S1. It's getting late, and I have to go now.
S2. We're sorry you have to leave.
S1. Please excuse me, won't you?
S2. Certainly. Come back soon.

Conversation D

S1. I'm glad to have met you.
S2. Thank you. It was nice to have seen you.
S1. I hope we can get together again.
S2. Yes. I'll be looking forward to it.

Conversation E

S1. I think I have to leave now.
S2. Must you go so soon?
S3. I'm afraid I really have to.
S4. Well, it was fun to get together again.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

meeting	**I have a meeting now.**
date	**I have a date now.**
engagement	**I have an engagement now.**
class	**I have a class now.**

Exercise 2 / Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

soon	**I have an appointment soon.**
very shortly	**I have an appointment very shortly.**
in a few minutes	**I have an appointment in a few minutes.**
an hour from now	**I have an appointment an hour from now.**

this evening	**I have an appointment this evening.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

meeting	**I have a meeting now.**
soon	**I have a meeting soon.**
engagement	**I have an engagement soon.**
very shortly	**I have an engagement very shortly.**
date	**I have a date very shortly.**

Exercise 4/ Line B1 /

I guess I'd better go now.

right away	**I guess I'd better go right away.**
very soon	**I guess I'd better go very soon.**
right now	**I guess I'd better go right now.**
in a minute or two	**I guess 1'd better go in a minute or two.**

Exercise 5 / Lines B1 and E1 /

I think I'd better go now.

I should	**I think I should go now.**
I ought to	**I think I ought to go now.**
I have to	**I think I have to go now.**
I've got to	**I think I've got to 'go now.**
I must	**I think I must go now.**

Exercise 6 / Line B1 /

I guess I'd better go now.

think	**I think I'd better go now.**
I ought to .	**I think I ought to go now.**
leave	**I think I ought to leave now.**
right away	**I think I ought to leave right away.**
should	**I think I should leave right away.**
quite soon	**I think I should leave quite soon.**

Exercise 7 / Line C1 /

It's getting late.

Dark	**It's getting dark.**
Outside	**It's getting dark outside.**
much colder	**It's getting much colder outside.**
It's been getting	**It's been getting much colder outside**
Cloudier	**It's been getting much cloudier outside.**
a lot	**It's been getting a lot cloudier outside.**

Exercise 8 / Line C1 /

I have to go now.

quite soon	**I have to go quite soon**
must	**I must go quite soon**
leave	**I must leave quite soon**
in a few minutes	**I must leave in a few minutes**
I've got to	**I've got to leave in a few minutes**
Return	**I've got to return in a few minutes**

Exercise 9 / Line E4 /

It was fun to get together again.

exciting	**It was exciting to get together again.**
meet each other	**It was exciting to meet each other again.**
once more	**It was exciting to meet each other once more.**
talk to each other	**It was exciting to talk to each other once more.**
pleasant	**It was pleasant to talk to each other once more.**

3. DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH?/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you speak English?
S2. Only a little, and not very well.
S3. Do you know many words?
S4. No, I don't. Only the important words.

Conversation B

S1. Does your brother speak English?
S2. Well, he speaks a little English.
S1. Do your sisters speak English?
S2. Yes, they do. They speak it very well.

Conversation C

S1. Can I help you?
S2. Yes. I speak only French.
S1. I'm sorry, but I don't understand French.
S2. Please find someone who speaks French.

Conversation D

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I don't speak English.
S3. Do you need some kind of help?
S4. Yes, but I can't explain it in English.

Conversation E

S1. Do you think English is easy?
S2. No, I don't.
S1. Why don't you think so?
S2. Because I don't understand it.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and B1 /

Do you speak English?

your brother	**Does your brother speak English?**
your sisters	**Do your sisters speak English?**
Mr. .Brown	**Does Mr. Brown speak English?**
the lawyers	**Do the lawyers speak English?**
the girl	**Does the girl speak English?**

Exercise 2 / Lines A1 and B1 /

Do you speak English?

Greek	**Do you speak Greek?**
Spanish	**Do you speak Spanish?**
Italian	**Do you speak Italian?**
Portuguese	**Do you speak Portuguese?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and B4 /

Do you speak English?

fluently	**Do you speak English fluently?**
rapidly	**Do you speak English rapidly?**
very well	**Do you speak English very well?**
correctly	**Do you speak English correctly?**

Exercise* 4 / *Lines A1, B1, B4 /

Do you speak English?

Japanese	**Do you speak Japanese?**
your brother	**Does your brother speak Japanese?**
fluently	**Does your brother speak Japanese fluently?**
Greek	**Does your brother speak Greek fluently?**
your sisters	**Do your sisters speak Greek fluently?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line C1 /

Can I help you?

any of you	**Can I help any of you?**
We	**Can we help any of you?**
Assist	**Can we assist any of you?**
with anything	**Can we assist any of you with any thing?**
you two	**Can we assist you two with anything?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

get	**Please get someone who speaks French.**
bring	**Please bring someone who speaks French.**
ask for	**Please ask for someone who speaks French.**
direct me to	**Please direct me to someone who speaks French.**
take me to	**Please take me to someone who speaks French.**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

German	**Please find someone who speaks German.**
Turkish	**Please find someone who speaks Turkish.**
Arabic	**Please find someone who speaks Arabic.**
Chinese	**Please find someone who speaks Chinese.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

bring	**Please bring someone who speaks French.**
Arabic	**Please bring someone who speaks Arabic.**
ask for	**Please ask for someone who speaks Arabic.**
German	**Please ask for someone who speaks German.**
take me to	**Please take me to someone who speaks German.**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* E1 /**

Do you think English is easy?

hard	**Do you think English is hard?**
difficult	**Do you think English is difficult?**
simple	**Do you think English is simple?**
complicated	**Do you think English is complicated?**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* D2 /**

I don't speak English.

The man	**The man doesn't speak English.**
fluently	**The man doesn't speak English fluently.**
The boys	**The boys don't speak English fluently.**
very well	**The boys don't speak English very well.**
understand	**The boys don't understand English very well.**

4. DAILY ACTIVITIES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What time do you get up? ,
S2. I get up about seven fifteen.
S1. What time is breakfast at your house?
S2. Breakfast is always at a quarter to eight.

Conversation B

S1. What do you usually do in the afternoon?
S2. We usually study or read.
S1. What do you generally do over the weekend?
S2. We generally enjoy sports and visit friends.

Conversation C

S1. Do you ever go to museums?
S2. I go every now and then.
S1. What kinds of things do you like to see?
S2. I enjoy seeing statues and old paintings.

Conversation D

S1.Do you watch television very often?
S2. Well, I sometimes watch it in the evening.
S1. Did you watch television last night?
S2. Yes, I did. I saw several good programs.

Conversation E

S1. Do you ever listen to the radio?
S2.Certainly. In fact, I listen practically every night.
Sl. What's your favorite program?
S2.I like the Eleven O'clock Theater best of all.

Exercise1/ Line A1 /

What time do you get up?

have breakfast	**What time do you have breakfast?**
leave home	**What time do you leave home?**
leave for work	**What time do you leave for work?**
return home	**What time do you return home?**
go to bed	**What time do you go to bed?**

Exercise-2 / Lines Al and A2 /

I get up at seven fifteen.	**What time do you get up?**
I have breakfast about eight fifteen.	**What time do you have breakfast?**

I leave home at a quarter to nine.	**What time do you leave home?**
I go to bed about eleven o'clock.	**What time do you go for bed?**

Exercise 3 / Lines Al and A3 /

What time do you have breakfast?	**When do you have breakfast?**
What time do you go to school?	**When do you go to school?**
What time do you get to the office?	**When do you get to the office?**
What time do you eat lunch?	**When do you eat lunch?**
What time do you leave for home?	**When do you leave for home?**

Exercise 4 / Line D1 /

Do you watch television very often?	**Yes, I do.**
How often do you watch television?	**I watch it twice a week**
Does John watch television very often?	**Yes, he does.**
How often does John watch television?	**He watches it twice a week.**
Do the boys watch television very often?	**Yes, they do.**
How often do the boys watch television?	**They watch it twice a week.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line D3

Did you watch television last night?	**Yes, I did. I watched television last night.**
Did you listen to the radio last	**Yes, I did. I listened to the radio last night.**
Did you go to a movie last night?	**Yes, I did. I went to a movie last night.**
Did you go to the library last night?	**Yes, I did. I went to the library last**
Did you attend a concert last night?	**Yes, I did. I attended concert last**
Did you visit a museum last night?	**Yes, I did. I visited a museum last**

Exercise 6 / Line A4 /

He's happy.	**He's usually happy**
They're at home.	**They're usually at home**
She's there.	**She's usually there.**
I'm very nervous.	**I'm usually very nervous**
You're in your office.	**You're usually in your Office.**
They're quite busy.	**They're usually quite busy.**
We're serious about things.	**We're usually serious about things.**

Exercise 7 / Lines B2 and B4 /

He writes carefully.	**He usually writes carefully.**
They practice at home.	**They usually practice at home.**
She reads popular novels.	**She usually reads popular novels.**
I watch television here.	**I usually watch television here.**
He enjoys seeing movies.	**He usually enjoys seeing movies.**
They leave home early.	**They usually leave home early.**
We get up before eight.	**We usually get up before eight.**

Exercise 8 / Lines A4 and B2 /

He's kind to them.	**He's always kind to them.**
They help her.	**They always help her.**
We're busy on Friday.	**We're always busy on Friday.**
I work extra hours.	**I always work extra hours.**
They're polite to us.	**They're always polite to us.**

He drinks black coffee.	**He always drinks black coffee.**
She's calm about things.	**She's always calm about things.**

Exercise 9 / Lines A4 and B2 /

He always works hard.	**Does he always work hard?**
They're always late.	**Are they always late-?**
She's always serious.	**Is she always serious?**
They always speak English.	**Do they always speak English?**
He always writes carefully.	**Does he always write carefully?**
She's always patient with him.	**Is she always patient with him?**
They always wait for her.	**Do they always wait for her?**

5. ASKING ABOUT ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. When did you eat lunch today?
S2. I ate from twelve to one.
S1. Where did you have your lunch?
S2. I had it at Pete's Restaurant today.

Conversation B

S1. Did you a good time at party?
S2. We had a wonderful time.
S1. It was really a lot of fun.
S2. We ought to have another party like that soon.

Conversation C
S1. Did you work at home last night?
S2. Yes.I washed the dishes and cleaned the house.
S1. Did you do anything else?
S2. Yes. I listened to the radio for a while. I

Conversation D

S1. Did you have a good time last night?
S2. Yes.I had a wonderful time.
S1. You'll probably have fun tomorrow too.
S4. I'm sure I'll have an excellent time.

Conversation E

S1. Where did you go?
S2. We went to a beautiful beach.
S1. Did you swim in the ocean?
S2. Yes, but we swam close to the shore

Exercise 1/ Line Al /

When did you eat lunch today?

have the meeting	**When did you have the meeting today?**
Where	**Where did you have the meeting today?**
meet your friends	**Where did you meet your friends today?**
What time	**What time did you meet your friends today?**
leave for home	**What time did you leave for home today?**

Exercise 2 / Line B3 /

It was really a lot of fun.

certainly	**It Was certainly a lot of fun.**

a great deal of	**It was certainly a great deal of fun.**
definitely	**It 'was definitely a great deal of fun.**
lots of	**It was definitely lots of fun.**
actually	**It was actually lots of fun.**

Exercise 3 / line C1

Did you work at home last night?

at the office	**Did you work at the office last night?**
Yesterday	**Did you work at the office yesterday?**
at school	**Did you work at school yesterday?**
this morning	**Did you work at school this morning?**
at the Library	**Did you work at the library this morning?**

Exercise 4 / Lines E3 and E4 /

Did you swim in the ocean?	**Yes, we did. We swam in the ocean.**
Did she go to the store?	**Yes, she did. She went to the store.**
Did they write in their office?	**Yes, they did. They wrote in their office.**
Did he read at the library"?	**Yes, he did. He read at the library.**
Did we sing at school?	**Yes, you did. You sang at school.**
Did Tom and you sleep at home?	**Yes, we did. We slept at home.**

6. WHAT DID YOU DO? / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where did you go after lunch?
S2. I went to the public library.
S1. Which one did you go to?
S2. I went to the one at 42nd Street. ..

Conversation B

S1. What did you do last night?
S2. I watched television.
S1. Where did you watch it?
S2. I watched it here- in the recreation room.

Conversation C

S1. Was that television program interesting?
S2. I thought it was very boring.
S1. What did your friends think of it?
S2. They were bored too.

Conversation D

S1.I went to a lecture last night.
S2.What was it about?
S1.Society and modern art
S2.I wish I'd gone with you.

Conversation E

S1. We went to the movies the night before last.
S2. What did you see?
S1. We saw a film about cowboys and Indians.
S2. Don't you ever get tired of those westerns?

7. TALKING ABOUT ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where have you been?
S2. I've been to the movies.
S1. What did you see?
S2. I saw an Italian movie about life in Sicily.

Conversation B

S1. What places have you seen so far?
S2. I've been to almost all the museums.
S1. Have you gone to any parks yet?
S2. No, I haven't. I haven't had enough time for that.

Conversation C

S1. Let's meet at your house tonight.
S2. O.K. That sounds fine.
S1. I've forgotten how to get to your house.
S2. Just take the Tenth Street bus to Third Avenue.

Conversation D

S1. Let's watch television for a while.
S2: All right, but let's finish this work first.
S1. Oh, let's not do the work right now.
S2. You're just lazy, in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. I can't hear the television set.
S2. Why don't you sit closer?
S1. I'm right beside it now.
S2. Why don't you turn up the volume?

8. EVENING ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Let's go the movies tonight.
S2. Fine.I don't have anything else to do.
S1. What would you like to see?
S2. Why don't we look in the movie section of the newspaper?

Conversation B

S1. Where are you going tonight?
S2. I'm going to the political rally for Senator Smith.
S1. Sounds interesting. Can we go with you?
S2. Certainly. Meet me here at eight fifteen.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to go to the concert with me tonight?
S2. Yes. Thank you very much.
S1. Would you like to go at about eight o'clock?
S2. That would be fine.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What are you going to do tonight?
S2. I haven't decided yet.
S1. Would you like to go to the movies?
S2. Can I call you and tell you later?

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to go to the movies tonight?
S2. I'd rather stay home and watch television.
S1. Are there going to be any good programs tonight?
S2. Yes. There's going to be a good play on channel 4.

9. GENERAL ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1.Please sit down and talk to me.
S2.Are you (A)?
S1.Yes, I am. What are you doing?
S2.At the moment, I'm (B)

(A)	(B)
typing a letter	looking for some one
painting a picture	just walking around
reading the paper	waiting for a friend
watching television	just resting a bit
listening to a record	getting ready for dinner
working on something	doing my work
writing a report	practicing English with You
solving a puzzle	relaxing for a few minutes

Conversation Drill B

S1. What do you want to do tonight?
S2. Would you like to *(A)*?
S1. That would be nice.
S2. There's a good *(B)*

(A)	(B)
watch television	program on channel 3
go bowling with us	bowling alley nearby
see a movie	show at the corner theater
listen to the radio	comedy on station WXQZ
attend a concert	orchestra at the auditorium
hear some folk music	group of musicians at the Star Club
go to a play	play which just opened
look for paintings	art gallery on Eighth Street

10.MEETING AT THE TRAIN STATION/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I've got to go to the train station.
S2. What do you have to go for?
S1. To meet my cousin from Washington.
S2. Let me take you in my car.

Conversation B

S1. Did you get to the station on time?
S2. We did, but we were almost late.
S1. How close was it?
S2. We got on the train just as it was starting.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did your cousin arrive on time?
S2. No. He was an hour late.
S1. Did you meet him at the station?
S2. I was right there on the platform when the train came.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where's my bag?
S2. Here it is.
S1.Where's my briefcase?
S2. There it is-over there.

Conversation E

S1. Do you have your suitcases?
S2. I've got one of them with me.
S1. Where are the rest of them?

S2. I checked my two other ones at the baggage room.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

I've got to go to the train station.

I must	**I must go to the train station.**
have to	**I have to go to the train station.**
ought to	**I ought to go to the train station.**
should	**I should go to the train station.**
I'm supposed to	**I'm supposed to go to the train station.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A2 /

What do you have to go for? **Why do you have to go?**
What did you have to return for? **Why did you have to return?**
What are you going to leave for? **Why are you going to leave?**
What are you going back for? **Why are you going back?**
What will you do that for? **Why will you do that?**
What have you done it for? **Why have you done it?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A4 /

Please let me take you to your car. **Let me take you to your car**
Please let me carry your suitcase. **Let me carry your suitcase**
Please let me drive you to school. **Let me drive you to school**
Please let me help you with that. **Let me help you with that**
Please let me return the book for you **Let me return the book for you.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B1 /

Did you get to the station on time?

the airport **Did you get to the airport on time?**
late **Did you get to the airport late?**
arrive at **Did you arrive at the airport late?**
the theater **Did you arrive at the theater late?**
early **Did you arrive at the theater early?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B4 /

We got on the train just as it was starting.

the bus **We got on the bus just as it was starting.**
before it left **We got on the bus just before it left.**
the airplane **We got on the airplane just before it left.**
a minute or two early **We got on the airplane just a minute or two early.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line C1 /

Did your cousin arrive on time?

aunt **Did your aunt arrive on time?**
uncle **Did your uncle arrive on time?**
nephew **Did your nephew arrive on time?**
niece **Did your niece arrive on time?**
grandmother **Did your grandmother arrive on time?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C 1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

come **Did your cousin come on time?**
get there **Did your cousin get there on time?**
return **Did your cousin return on time?**
leave **Did your cousin leave on time?**
get back **Did your cousin get back on time?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

late	**Did your cousin arrive late?**
too late	**Did your cousin arrive too late?**
early	**Did your cousin arrive too early?**
before departure	**Did your cousin arrive before departure?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* C 1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

uncle	**Did your uncle arrive on time?**
get back	**Did your uncle get back on time?**
early	**Did your uncle get back early?**
nephew	**Did your nephew get back early?**

***Exercise 10* / *Line* E2 /**

I've got one of them with me.

my suitcases	**I've got one of my suitcases with me.**
a couple	**I've got a couple of my suitcases with me.**
my packages	**I've got a couple of my packages with me.**
several	**I've got several of my packages with me.**
my things	**I've got several of my things with me.**

11. ASKING QUESTIONS AT THE TRAIN STATION / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How do you get home every day?
S2. I take the commuter train to Westport.
S1. Isn't it rather expensive going by train?
S2. No. I buy a twenty-trip commuter ticket each month.

Conversation B

S1. Can you give me some information?
S2. You're at the right place.
S1. I want to go to Washington.
S2. The next train leaves at four thirty.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How soon does the train leave?
S2. It leaves in ten minutes.
S1. Do I have time to check my bags?
S2. I don't think you do.

***Conversation* D**

S1.At what time does the next train leave for the city?
S2.There's one at four and another at four forty-five.
S1.What's the fare?
S2.It's eight fifty including tax.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How much is the fare to Miami?
S2. A hundred fifty dollars round trip.
S3. What time does the next train leave?
S4. one leaves at six thirty on track 31.

12.MEETING AT THE AIRPORT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.Where wm you meet your friends?
S2.I'll meet them at the airport
S1.When will they get there?
S2.I don't know yet.

Conversation B

S1. When are you meeting your friends?
S2. I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.
S1. How are they getting here?
S2. They're coming by air.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this Southwestern Airlines?
S2. Yes. May I help you?
S1. Can you tell me when flight 439 will arrive?
***S2.* One moment, please. I'll check.**

***Conversation* D**

S1. All the incoming flights are listed on that board.
S2. I see they expect Bill's flight to be twenty minutes late.
S1. Do they have an arrival gate listed?
S2. No. They'll probably list it about ten minutes before arrival.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Well! How was your trip?
S2. It was very smooth and fast.
S1. Could you see the mountains from the plane?
S2. Yes. The visibility was excellent all the way.

Exercise 1* / *Line AI /

Where will you meet your friends?

See	**Where will you *see* your friends?**
find	**Where will you find your friends?**
wait for	**Where will you wait for your friends?**
take	**Where will you take your friends?**
drive	**Where will you drive your friends?**
leave	**Where will you leave your friends?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A1 /

Where will you meet your friends?

cousin	**Where will you meet your cousin?**
relatives	**Where will you meet Your relatives?**
parents	**Where will you meet your parents?**
brother	**Where will you meet your brother?**
sisters	**Where will you meet your sisters?**
uncle	**Where did you meet your uncle?**
aunt	**Where did you meet your aunt?**

Exercise* .3 / *Line A1 /

Where will you meet your friends?

parents	**Where will you meet your parents?**
see	**Where will you see your parents?**
When	**When will you *see* your parents?**
cousins	**When will you see your cousins?**
get together with	**When will you get together with you cousins?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

I'll meet them at the airport.

You'll	**You'll meet them at the airport.**
We'll	**We'll meet them at the airport.**
She'll	**She'll meet them at the airport.**
They'll	**They'll meet them at the airport.**
He'll	**He'll meet them at the airport.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line A2 /

I'll met them at the airport.

the train station	**I'll meet them at the train station.**
the bus station	**I'll meet them at the bus station.**
the terminal	**I'll meet them at the terminal.**
the ticket window	**I'll meet them at the ticket window.**
the entrance	**I'll med them at the entrance.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line A2 /

I'll meet them at the airport.

the bus station	**I'll meet them· at the bus station.**
We'll	**We'll meet them at the bus station.**
wait for	**We'll wait for them at the bus station.**
the ticket window	**We'll wait for them at the ticket window .**
She'll	**She'll wait for them at the ticket window.**
see	**She'll see them at the ticket window.**

Exercise* 7 / *Lin B2
/
When are you meeting your friends?

seeing	**When are you seeing your friends?**

visitors	**When are you seeing your visitors?**
Where	**Where are you seeing your visitors?**
taking	**Where are you taking your visitors?**
guests	**Where are you taking your guests?**
Why	**Why are you taking your guests?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

eight oh-five	**I'm meeting them at eight oh-five tomorrow night.**
eight thirty	**I'm meeting them at eight thirty tomorrow night.**
a quarter to nine	**I'm meeting them at a quarter to nine tomorrow night**
ten to nine	**I'm meeting them at ten to nine tomorrow night.**
Midnight	**I'm meeting them at midnight tomorrow night.**

Exercise* 9 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

tomorrow morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow morning.**
Friday night	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Friday night.**
Friday morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Friday morning.**
tonight	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tonight.**
this morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock this morning.**

Exercise* 10 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

Tuesday night	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Tuesday night.**
We're	**We're meeting them at eight o'clock Tuesday night.**
eight thirty	**We're meeting them at eight thirty Tuesday night.**
Her	**We're meeting her at eight thirty Tuesday night.**
Morning	**We're meeting her at eight thirty Tuesday morning.**

13.GETTING INFORMATION AT THE AIRPORT / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. At what time does the next plane to London leave?
S2. The next one is flight 12 at eleven fifty-five.
S1. What's the next one after that?
S2. Flight 21 at one oh-five.

Conversation B

S1. How often is there a flight to Paris?
S2. We have flights to Paris every hour.
S1. Are they nonstop flights
S2. Yes. Direct to Paris.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Could I make a reservation for flight 10 to Tokyo?
S2. I'm sorry, but everything is taken.
S1. How about the next flight-tomorrow at two o'clock?
S2. Yes. I can give you a reservation on that.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like to check in for the flight to New York.
S2. Fine. Do you have your ticket and passport?
S1. Yes. Here's my ticket, and I'll get out my passport.
S2. Would you please put your baggage on the scales?

Conversation E

S1. How long is the flight from New York to Washington?
S2. Well, supposedly an hour, but it's sometimes longer.
S1. How often are there flights to Washington from New York?
S2. There's. one every hour.

14. GETTING TO THE HOTEL / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What's a good hotel in this town?
S2. The Jefferson Hotel is good.
S1. How far is it from here?
S2. It's quite close-about four blocks.

Conversation B

S1. Where are you staying?
S2. We're staying at an excellent hotel.
S1. What's the name of the hotel?
S2. The Eastern Hotel.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How long will you be in New York?
S2. I'll be here about two weeks.
S1. Where are you going to stay?
S2. I'm going to stay at the Madison Hotel.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like a single room) please.
S2. Do you want a room with a bath?
S1. Yes. please. Do you have one?
S2. Yes. We have one at ten dollars a day.

Conversation E

S1. I have a reservation 'for a room here.
S2. Yes. You're in room 341 on the third floor.
S1. Can I take the elevator over there?
S2. Yes, and turn right when you get off the elevator.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A1 /

What's a good restaurant in this town?

jewelry store	**What's a good jewelry store in this town?**
flower shop	**What's a good *flower* shop in this town?**
motel	**What's a' good motel in this town?**
barber shop	**What's a good barber shop in this town?**
dress shop	**What's a good dress shop in this town?**
clothing store	**What's a good clothing store in this town?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A1/

What's a good restaurant in this town?

city	**What's a good restaurant in this city?**
neighborhood	**What's a good restaurant in this neighborhood?**
area	**What's a good restaurant in this area?**
district	**What's a good restaurant in this district?**
near here	**What's a good restaurant near here?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A1 /

What's a good restaurant in this town?

hardware store	**What's a good hardware store in this town?**
area	**What's a good hardware store in this area?**
grocery store	**What's a good grocery store in this area?**
near here	**What's a good grocery store near here?**
jewelry store	**What's a good jewelry store near here?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A3 /

How far is it from here?

from here to the hotel	**How far is it from here to the hotel?**
How many blocks	**How many blocks is it from here to the hotel?**
from the station	**How many blocks is it from the station to the hotel?**
How many miles	**How many miles is it from the station to the hotel?**
to the next city	**How many miles is it from the station to the next city?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B2 /

We're staying at an excellent hotel.

living	**We're living at an excellent hotel.**
wonderful	**We're living at a wonderful hotel.**
resort	**We're living at a wonderful resort.**
vacationing	**We're vacationing at a wonderful resort.**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C 1 /**

How long will you be in New York?

at the conference	**How long will you. be at the conference?**
How many days	**How many days will you be at the conference?**
in Japan	**How many days will you be in Japan?**
weeks	**How many weeks will you be in Japan?**
on the boat	**How many weeks will you be on the boat?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C 4 /**

I'm going to stay at the Madison Hotel.

We're.	**We're going to stay at the Madison Hotel.**

Central Motel	**We're going to stay at the Central Motel.**
She's	**She's going to stay at the Central Motel.**
a friend's house	**She's going to stay at a friend's house.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D2 /**

Do you want a room with a bath?

without	**Do you want a room without a bath?**
prefer	**Do you prefer a room without a bath?**
with two baths	**Do you prefer a room with two baths?**
a suite	**Do you prefer a suite with two baths?**
Would you like	**Would you like a suite with two baths?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E2 /

You're in room 341 on the third floor.

576	**You're in room 576 on the fifth floor.**
777	**You're in room 777 on the seventh floor.**
894	**You're in room 894 on the eighth floor.**
1201	**You're in room 1201 on the twelfth floor.**

15. FINDING ONE'S HOTEL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where's the hotel, please?
S2. It's on Main Street.
S1. Where's that?
S2. It's the next street straight ahead.

Conversation B

S1. Can you tell me where the hotel is?
S2. It's in the next block.
S1. On this side or the other side?
S2. This side. Straight ahead of you.

Conversation C

S1. I want to go to the Beachside Hotel.
S2. Do you have a map?
S1. Yes, I do. Here it is
S2. The hotel is right there –at that intersection.

Conversation D

S1. Excuse me. I'm lost.
S2. Where do you live?
S1. I live at Royal Hotel.
S2. The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

Conversation E

S1. Can you help me, please?
S2. What's the matter?
S1. Where is the grand hotel on this map?
S2. It is right here-right next to the train station.

***Exercise* 1 / *Line* A1 /**

Where's the hotel, please?

the drugstore	**Where's the drugstore, please?**
the post office	**Where's the post office, please?**
the police station	**Where's "the police station, please?**
the library	**Where's the library, please?**
the center of town	**Where's the center of town, please?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

It's the next street straight ahead.

first	**It's the first street straight ahead.**
second	**It's the second street straight ahead.**
third	**It's the third street straight ahead.**
fourth	**It's the fourth street straight ahead.**
fifth	**It's the fifth street straight ahead.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A4 /

It's straight ahead.

around the corner	**It's around the corner.**
two blocks from here	**It's two blocks from here**
past the post office	**It's past the post office.**
near the library,	**It's near the library.**
right after the stoplight	**It's right after the stoplight.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* B1 /**

Where's the hotel?	**Can you tell me where the hotel is?**
Where's the drugstore?	**Can you tell me where the drugstore is?**
Where's the post office?	**Can you tell me where the post office is?**
Where's the police station?	**Can you tell me where the police station is?**
Where's the library?	**Can you tell me where the library is?**
Where's the center of town?	**Can you tell me where the center of town is?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Lines B2 and* C4 /**

The hotel is in the next block.

on Main Street	**The hotel is on Main Street.**
near the police station	**The hotel is near the police station**
across the street	**The hotel is across the street.**
three blocks away	**The hotel is three blocks away**
at the intersection	**The hotel is at the intersection**
by the post office	**The hotel is by the post office**
on Park Avenue	**The hotel is on Park Avenue**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C1 /**

I want to go to the Beachside Hotel.

the Central Drugstore	**I want to go to the Central Drugstore.**
the Memorial Library	**I want to go to the Memorial Library.**
Penny's Department Store	**I want to go to Penny's Department Store.**
the Park Avenue Pharmacy	**I want to go to the Park Avenue Pharmacy.**
the J. F. Kennedy Airport	**I want to go to the J. F. Kennedy Airport.**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

half a block	**The Royal Hotel is half a block that way.**

several blocks	The Royal Hotel is several blocks that way.
about ten blocks	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks that way.
some distance	The Royal Hotel is some distance that way
a five-minute walk	The Royal Hotel is a five-minute walk that way

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

down the street	The Royal Hotel is two blocks down the street.
up the street	The Royal Hotel is two blocks up the street.
in that direction	The Royal Hotel is two blocks in that direction
past the intersection	The Royal Hotel is two blocks past the intersection
the other way	The Royal Hotel is two blocks the other way.
north of here	The Royal Hotel is two blocks north of here

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

several blocks	The Royal Hotel is several blocks that way
up the street	The Royal Hotel is several blocks up the street.
about ten blocks	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks up the street
in that direction	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks in that direction.
a five-minute walk	The Royal Hotel is a five-minute walk in that direction

Exercise* 10 / *Line E3 /

Where's the Grand Hotel on this map?

the Central Drugstore	Where's the Central Drugstore on this map?
the Memorial Library	Where's the Memorial Library on this map?
Main Street	Where's Main Street on this map?
the Madison Motel	Where's the' Madison Motel on this map?
Greenwood Park	Where's Greenwood Park on this map?

16.ASKING DIRECTIONS/CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Where's the airlines office?

S2. It's near bus terminal--the Central Terminal.
S1. How far is that from here?
S2. About a half a mile, I think.

Conversation B

S1. Where's the post office?
S2. It's three blocks that way.
S1. What did you say?
S2. Three blocks up that street.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Where's airport?
S2. It's north of the city.
S1. What's the best way to get there?
S4. Take Highway 15 to the north.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What street is the local library on?
S2. I don't know.
S3. How can I find out?
S2. Why don't you ask a policeman?

Conversation E

S1. Where's is the nearest telephone?
S2. There's one in that drugstore.
S1. Do you mean that store over there?
S2. Yes. That's the one.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

Where's the airlines office?

the bus terminal	**Where's the bus terminal?**
the train station	**Where's the train station?**
the airport	**Where's the airport?**
the local library	**Where's the local library?**
the nearest hospital	**Where's the nearest hospital?**
the next bus stop	**Where's the next bus stop?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A4 /**

It's about a half a mile from here.

a quarter of a mile	**It's about a quarter of a mile from here.**
three quarters of a mile	**It's about three quarters of a mile from here**
2 miles	**It's about 2 miles from here.**
2 ½ miles	**It's about 21/2miles from here**
a little over 3 kilometers	**It's a little over 3 kilometers from here**

Exercise* 3 / *Line* D*1 /

What street is the local library on?

the post office	**What street is the post office on?**
the police station	**What street is the police station on?**
the bus depot	**What street is the bus depot on?**
the fire department	**What street is the fire department on?**
the nearest drugstore	**What street is the nearest drugstore on?**
the closest bus stop	**What street is the closest bus stop on?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D3 /**

How can I find out?

find that address	**How can I find that address?**
get that address	**How can I get that address?**
look up his address	**How can I look up his address**
locate the library	**How can' I locate the library?**
get to the library	**How can I get to the library?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D3 /**

How can I find out?

where it is	**How can I find out where it is?**
where it's located	**How can I find out where it's located?**
what street it's on	**How can I find out what street it's on?**
what district it's in	**How can I find out what district it's in?**
what part of the city it's in	**How can I find out what part of the city it's in?**
what area it's in	**How can I find out what area it's in?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* D3 /**

Where is it?	**How can I find out where it is?**
Where's the post office?	**How can I find out where the post office is?**
Where's it located?	**How can I find out where it's located?**
What street is it on?	**How can I find out what street it's on?**
What street is the library on?	**How can I find out what street the library is on?**
What district is it in?	**How can I find out what district it's in?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* D4 /**

Why don't you ask a policeman?

your friend	**Why don't you ask your friend?**
that man over there	**Why don't you ask that man over there?**
the bus driver	**Why don't you ask the bus driver?**
someone else	**Why don't you ask someone else?**
the conductor	**Why don't you ask the conductor?**
the owner of that store	**Why don't you ask the owner of that store?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line EI /

Where's the nearest telephone?

drugstore	**Where's the nearest drugstore?**
clothing store	**Where's the nearest clothing store?**
grocery store	**Where's the nearest grocery store?**
flower shop	**Where's the nearest flower shop?**
dress shop	**Where's the nearest dress shop?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E2 /

There's one in that drugstore.

near the drugstore	**There's one near the drugstore.**
in the hotel lobby	**There's one in the hotel lobby.**
on the second floor	**There's one on the second floor.**
down the hallway	**There's one down the hallway.**
on the table over there	**There's one on the table over there.**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* E3 /**

Do you mean that store over there?

across the street	**Do you mean that store across the street?**
next to the train station	**Do you mean that store next to the train station?**
on the corner	**Do you mean that store on the corner?**
opposite the airlines office	**Do you mean that store opposite the airlines office?**
a block down the street	**Do you mean that store a block down the street?**

17.GETTING INFORMATION/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I need some information.
S1. Go to that desk over there.
S2. Thank you very much.

Conversation B

S1. Can you help me, please?

S2. I'll try to.
S1. What's the best way to get to this address?
S2. I'm sorry, but I really don't know.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How can I get to that address?
S2. You can go by taxi.
S1. Isn't there any other way?
S2. Yes, by bus, but it's complicated.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do I get to the nearest subway station?
S2. It's two blocks up that street.
S1. Do you mean the street running that way?
S2. Yes. That's the one.

Conversation E

S1. Is this the right way to Grand Central Station?
S2. No. You're going the wrong way.
S1. Which way should I be going then?
S2. It's in that direction-about six blocks.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

I need some information,

a little	**I need a little information.**
Assistance	**I need a little assistance.**
I'd appreciate	**I'd appreciate a little assistance**
with this work	**I'd appreciate a little assistance with this work.**
some more	**I'd appreciate some more assistance with this work.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Go to that desk over there.

across the room	**Go to that desk across the room**
the counter	**Go to the counter across the room**
Walk	**Walk to the counter across the room**
opposite that door	**Walk to the counter opposite that door**
the office	**Walk to the office opposite that door**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* B3 /**

What's the best way to get to this address?

fastest	**What's the fastest way to get to this address?**
easiest	**What's the easiest way to get to this address-?**
quickest	**What's the quickest way to get to this address?**
shortest	**What's the shortest way to get to this address?**
least difficult	**What's the least difficult way to get to this address?**

***Exercise* 4 / Line B3 /**

What's the best way to get to this address?

the center of town	**What's the best way to get to the center of town?**
the local shopping center	**What's the best way to get to the local shopping center?**
the Central Hotel	**What's the best way to get to the Central Hotel?**
Eastern College	**What's the best way to get to Eastern College?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B3 /

What's the best way to get to this address:

Fastest	**What's the fastest way to get to this address?**
to the center of town	**What's the fastest way to get to the center of town?**
Drive	**What's the fastest way to drive to the center of town.**
Easiest	**What's the easiest way to drive to center of town?**
to the Central Hotel	**What's the easiest way to drive to the Central Hotel.**

Exercise 6* / *Line C2 /

You can go by taxi.

ought to	**You ought to go by taxi.**
by bus	**You ought to go by bus.**
There	**You ought to go there by bus.**
Should	**You should go there by bus.**
on the train	**You should go there on the train.**

***Exercise 7* / *line* D1 /**

How do I get to the subway station?

the bus depot	**How do I get to the bus depot?**
reach	**How do I reach the bus depot?**
Highway 16	**How do I reach Highway 16?**
find	**How do I find Highway 16?**
the baggage room	**How do I find the baggage room?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D2 /**

It's two blocks up that street.

a few	**It's a few blocks down that street.**
a short distance	**It's a short distance down that street.**
along the highway	**It's a short distance along the highway.**
several miles	**It's several miles along the highway.**

18.FINDING ONE’S WAY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.Pardon me. "Where's the Central Theater?
S2.It's in the next block-straight'- ahead.
S1.Thank You very much .
S2.That's all right.

Conversation B

S1. Where's the National Department Store?
S2. It’s down town-on Brown Street.
S1. Do you know the exact address?
S2. Yes. It's 521 Brown Street.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Can you tell me where the library is located?
S2. Yes. Do you see that church down the street'?

S1. Yes. It's quite easy to see with such a tall spire.
S2. Just turn left there and walk three blocks.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Are the instructions too complicated for you?
S2. Well, would you mind repeating them?
S1. I'd be glad to.
S2. I'd like to write them down this time.

Conversation E

S1. Can you tell me where the station is?
S2. Turn right and go four blocks.
S1. Would you mind repeating that?
S2. 1'd be glad to.

19. ASKING ABOUT BUSINESS / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. Where do I get the downtown bus?
S2. Walk straight ahead one block
S1. Thanks very much
S2. Don't mention it.

C*onversation* B

S1. Where does the bus stop?
S2. At the next corner.
S1. Does it go downtown?
S2. Only the number 5 bus goes downtown

C*onversation* C.

S1. Are there many bus stops along this street?
S2. Yes, there are. There are quite a few.
S1. Are they located at the corners?

S2. Most of them are, but a few aren't.

C*onversation* D

S1. How do I get to the station?
S2.Take the bus at the next corner.
S1. Do you know which bus I take?
S2. Watch for number 32.

C*onversation* E

S1. How much is the fare on this bus?
S2 It's fifteen cents.
S1. do I give the money to you.
S2. No just drop it in this machine.

20. TRAVELING BY BUS / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. Does this bus go into the city?
S2. Yes. Where do you want to go?
S1. I want to go to Harbor Heights.
S2. This is the right bus then.

Conversation B

S1. Does this bus go as far as Washington Square?
S2. No. You'll have to transfer.
S1. Where can I do it?
S2. You can get the Washington Square bus at the next corner.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this where I get off the bus?
S2. No. Not here-·at the next stop.
S1. Can I catch a taxi right there?
S2. Yes. There's a taxi stand right by the bus stop.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Excuse me, but how do I get to this address?
S2. Get off the bus at Water Street and Main.
S1. Thanks very much for your help.
S2. Don't mention it.

C*onversation E*

S1. Is West Street the next stop?
S2. I'm sorry, but I didn't understand you.
S1. Does the bus stop at West Street next?
S2. Yes. Right at the next corner.

21. GOING BY TAXI / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where are you going now?
S2. To the hotel.
S1. Are you going by bus or by taxi.
S2. Probably by taxi if I can get one.

Conversation B

S1. I need a taxi.
S2. The taxis are by the entrance.
S1. Thank you much.
S2. You're welcome.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this taxi taken?
S2. No. Where are you going?
S1. I'm going to the University Student Center.
S2. O.K. I know right where it is.

Conversation D

S1. How much is the fare?
S2. Two dollars and fifty cents.
S1. Here. Keep the change.
S2. Thank you very much

Conversation E

***S1.* It's raining very hard right now.**
S2. Why don't we get a taxi?
S1. That's a good idea.
S2. Now, I only hope we can find one.

22. TAKING A TRIP BY CAR / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you taking a trip today?
S2. Yes. We're going to Boston.
S1. It's a good day for the trip
S2. I'm glad the sun is shining

Conversation B

S1. How far is it from here to the coast?
S2. It's about 250 miles.
S1. How long does it take to get there by car?
S2. It takes about five hours.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How far is it to the next gas station?
S2. There's one two miles from here.
S1. Is there a place to eat there?
S2. Yes. There's a restaurant next to the station.

Conversation D

S1. What's the best way to Ocean City.
S2. The superhighway, but it's also the longest way.
S1. How much longer is it that way?
S2. About 10 or 12 miles.

Conversation E
S1. Are they going by way of North Plains?
S2. No. They aren't taking that route.
S1. How are they traveling then?
S2. They're driving directly to Ocean City.

23. TRAVEL PLANS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I have to take a trip by air next week.
S2. Do you like to fly?
S1. I don't know because I've never flown before.
S2. You'll probably like it very much.

***Conversation* B**

S1. I have to go home next week.
S2. How will you go-by car?
S1. I'll probably go by air.
S2. You'll get there very fast then.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are you going on a trip next Saturday?
S2. Yes. We're going to Boston.
S1. Are you flying or going by train?
S2. We're traveling by car.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How will you travel to Los Angeles?
S2. We'll go by plane.
S1. How long will it take?
S2. It'll take about five or six hours to get there.

Conversation E

S1. What time will you leave your house?
S2. I'll leave around seven thirty.
S1. How are you going to go~by train or by bus?
S2. Neither. I'm going to drive.

24. HOW DO I GET THERE? / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation Drill A*

S1. Excuse me. Where's (A)
S2. It's (B)
S1. Thank you for the help.
S2. That's all right.

(A)	(B)
the rest room	down the hall
the post office	around the corner
the bus terminal	in the next block
the ticket office	by the main entrance

Conversation Drill B

S1. Where's the (A)?
S2. It's on this floor.
S1. How can I get there from here?
S2. (B)

(A)	(B)
reception desk	Turn left right over there
main office	Walk straight ahead.
Cafeteria	Go in the second door on the right
cashier's window	Just walk to the end of this hall.

Co*nversation Drill* C

S1. How do I get to the train station?
S2. Turn left (A)
S1. How far is it (B)?
S2. It's about a quarter of a mile.

(A)	(B)
at the second stoplight	to the stoplight
in the center of town	to the center
at the next intersection	to the intersection
at Main Street	to Main Street
by the bus depot	to the depot

25. ASKING THE TIME / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What time do you have?
S2. It's ten o'clock sharp.
S1. Thanks a lot.
S2. Don't mention it.

Conversation B
S1. What's the time?
S2. It's almost eight.
S1. Do you have the exact time?
S2. Yes, it's two minutes to eight.

Conversation C

S1. Excuse me. What time is it?
S2. Its a quarter of two.
S1. I guess my watch is slow then.
S2. Well, I know mine isn't fast.

***Conversation* D**
S1. What time is it right now?
S2. It's a five twenty five.
S1. I've got five thirty five.
S2. You're ten minutes fast then.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Do you have the correct time?
S2. Yes. It's two minutes to three.
S1. Are you sure your watch is right?
S2. It may be a few minutes slow.

Exercise* 1/ *Line B2 /

It's almost eight thirty.

about	**It's about eight thirty.**
just about	**It's just about eight thirty.**
around	**It's around eight thirty.**
close to	**It's close to eight thirty.**
nearly	**It's nearly eight thirty.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* D2 /**

It's five o'clock.	**Is it five o'clock?**
It's five fifteen.	**Is it five fifteen?**
It's a quarter after five.	**Is it a quarter after five?**
It's twenty after five.	**Is it twenty after five?**

It's five twenty-five. **Is it five twenty-five?**
It's five thirty. **Is it five thirty?**
It's twenty to six: **Is it twenty to six?**
It's five forty-five. **Is it five forty-five?**
It's a quarter to six. **Is it a quarter to six?**
It's ten to six. **Is it ten to six?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines D2,D3,*D4 /**

It's five o'clock, but I've got five ten **You're ten minutes fast then.**
It's five o'clock, but I've got ten to five **You're ten minutes slow then.**
It's five fifteen, but I've got five twelve **You're three minutes slow then.**
It's five twenty-five, but I've got five thirty **You're five minutes fast then**
It's five to six, but I've got five forty-five **You're ten minutes fast then**

Exercise* 4 / *Line E3 /

Is your watch right? **Are you sure your watch is right?**
Is your watch wrong? **Are you sure-your watch is wrong?**
Is your watch slow? **Are you sure your watch is slow?**
Is your watch fast? **Are you sure your watch is fast?**
Is your watch correct? **Are you' Sure your watch is correct?**

26. ASKING THE TIME(2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What time is it now?
S2. I don't have my watch on right now.
S1. Is there a clock around here?
S2. There's one in the next room.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Do you have the right time?
S2. I was just going to ask you the same question.
S1. My watch has stopped.
S2. I forgot to wear mine.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you have any idea of the time?
S2. I don't know exactly, but it's after nine.
S1. It was nine o'clock when I got here.
S2. Well, I'm sorry I can't help you.

***Conversation* D**

S1. At what time is the meeting?
S2. Eight o'clock.
S1. Be there at eight o'clock sharp, then.
S2. I'll try to get there before eight.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How often does this station give the news?
S2. Every hour on the hour.
S1. When do they announce the weather?
S2. Ten minutes to and ten minutes after the hour.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2/

I don't have my watch on right now.

coat	**I don't have my coat on right now.**
hat	**I don't have my hat on right now.**
shoes	**I don't have my shoes on right now.**
Sweater	**I don't have my sweater on right now.**
wristwatch	**I don't have my wristwatch on right *now.***

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

in this room	**Is there a clock in this room?**
in the other foam	**Is there a clock in the other room?**
in this building	**Is there a clock in this building?**
on the table	**Is there a clock on the table?**
on the wall	**Is there a clock on the wall?**
near this room	**Is there a clock near this room?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

a big clock	Is there a big clock around here?
an electric clock	Is there an electric clock around here?
a wall clock	Is there a wall clock around here?
any clocks	Are there any clocks around here?
any wall clocks	Are there any wall clocks around here?

Exercise* 4 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

in the other room	Is there a clock in the other room?
Electric	Is there an electric clock in the other room?
in this building	Is there an electric clock in this building?
Clocks	Are there electric clocks in this building?
any	Are there any electric clocks in this building?
around here	Are there any electric clocks around here?

Exercise* 5 / *Line B1 /

Do you have the time?

Right	Do you have the right time?
have any idea of	Do you have any idea of the right time?
know the right time	Do you know the right time?
Correct	Do you know the correct time?
right now	Do you know the correct time right now?
exact	Do you know the exact time right now?

Exercise* 6 / *Line B2 /

I was just going to ask you the same question.

the time	I was just going to ask you the time.
tell	I was just going to tell you the time.
Preparing	I was just preparing to tell you the time.
it's twelve o'clock	I was just preparing to tell you it's twelve o'clock.
a quarter to one	I was just preparing to tell you it's a quarter to one.

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C3 /**

It was nine o'clock when I got here.

about	It was about nine o'clock when I got here.
three twenty	It was about three twenty when I got here.
arrived	It was about three twenty when I arrived here.
at the office	It was about three twenty when I arrived at the office.
sharp	It was three twenty sharp when I arrived at the office.

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D1 /**

At what time is the meeting?

the lecture	At what time is the lecture?
the conference	At what time is the conference?
the party	At what time is the party?

the concert	**At what time is the concert?**
the football game	**At what time is the football game?**
the program	**At what time is the program?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* D 1 /**

At what time is the meeting?

At what time of the day	**At what time of the day is the meeting?**
On what day	**On what day is the meeting?**
On what day of the week	**On what day of the week is the meeting?**
In what month	**In what month is the meeting?**
In what month of the year	**In what month of the year is the meeting?**

Exercise 10 / Line D1 /

At what time is the meeting?

the lecture	**At what time is the lecture?**
At what time of the day	**At what time of the day is the lecture?**
the conference	**At what time of the day is the conference?**
On what day	**On what day is the conference?**
the party	**On what day is the party?**

Exercise 11 / Line D1 /

The meeting is at eight.	**At what time is the meeting?**
At what time is the meeting?	**It's at eight**
The lecture is on Tuesday.	**On what day is the lecture?**
On what day is the lecture?	**It's on Tuesday**
The conference is in June.	**In what month is the conference?**
In what month is the conference?	**It's in June**
The party is at seven thirty.	**At-what Time is the party?**
At what time is the party?	**It's at seven thirty**
The football game is on Friday.	**On what day is the football game?**
Oh what day is the football game?	**It's on Friday.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D3 /**

Be there at eight o'clock sharp, then.

at eight thirty	**Be there at eight thirty sharp, then.**
exactly at noon	**Be there exactly at noon, then.**
before three o'clock	**Be there before three o'clock, then.**
around ten fifteen	**Be there around ten fifteen, then.**
about four thirty or five	**Be there about four thirty or five, then.**

Exercise* 13 / *Line E1/

This station gives the news.	**How often does this station give the news?**
This station announces the weather	**How often does this station announce the weather?**
This station gives concerts.	**How often does this station give concerts?**
This station announces traffic conditions	**How often does this station announce traffic conditions?**
This station gives plays.	**How often does this station give plays?**

Exercise **14** / *Line E3 /*

This station gives the news.	**When does this station give the news?**
This station announces the weather.	**When does this station announce the weather?**
This station gives concerts.	**When does this station give concerts?**
This station announces traffic conditions.	**When does this station announce traffic conditions?**
This station gives plays.	**When does this station give plays?**

27. GOING BY THE CLOCK / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation **A**

S1. When is your first class?
S2. At ten after nine.
S1. When do you get back here, then?
S2. About ten to twelve.

Conversation **B**

S1. Alice will be back in ten or fifteen minutes.
S2. How long has she been out of the office?
S1. She's been out since ten 0'clock.
S2. Then she's been out for an hour or more.

Conversation **C**

S1. I got to the cafeteria around noon.
S2. I was there, but I didn't see you.

S1. I think I left a few minutes after twelve.
S2. I must have just missed you, then.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Our friends Will meet us here.
S2. Will they come here right after lunch?
S1. No. They won't be here until three o'clock.
S2. Then I'll come a little before three.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Let's call Mary.
S2. Let's not call her right now.
S1. Maybe this is a bad time to call.
S2. Let's wait until seven or seven thirty.

28. ARRIVING EARLY OR LATE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'm afraid we're going to be late.
S2. How much time is there left?
S1. We've got about thirty or forty minutes.
S2. That should be plenty of time.

Conversation B

S1. Whom are you waiting for?
S2. We're wafting for our friend.
S1. What are you looking so angry for?
S2. Because she's twenty minutes late already.

C*onversation* C

S1. Aren't we going to be late for the meeting?
S2. No. I think we'll be on time.
S1. Well, I want to be there in time to get a good seat.
S2. The meeting doesn't start for another twenty minutes.

Conversation **D**

S1. Isn't Harry here yet?
S2. Here he comes now.
S1. Eight forty-five. Late as usual.
S2. Well, we can still get to school on time.

Conversation E

S1. Are we late or not?
S2. No. In fact we're early according to my watch.
S1. Hadn't we better go inside?
S2. All right, but we're really about a half an hour early.

29. WATCHES AND THE TIME / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Could you tell me the time, please?
S2. Certainly. It's (A)
S1. My watch says (B)
S2. Then your watch is (C)

(A)	(B)	(C)
3:10	five after three	five minutes slow
4:15	four twenty	five minutes fast
12:45	eighteen to one	three minutes slow
9:05	nine oh-five	right on time
1:30	one o'clock	half an hour off
7:55	five after seven	ten minutes off
2:00	one 0'clock	an hour behind
8:45	twelve fifteen	not operating

Conversation Drill B

S1. Where's your brother?
S2. I think he s (A) now.
S1. Will he come back here (B)?
S2. Yes. I think so.

(A)	(B)
at the store	very soon
at work	before five 0'clock
at his office	at the usual time
at school	within an hour
at the library	in the afternoon
at church	at six fifteen
at the factory	in time for dinner
at home	in an hour or so

30.TIME AND THE CALENDAR / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. When does February have twenty-nine clays?
S2. In leap year.
S1. How often is there a leap year?
S2. Every fourth year.

***Conversation* B**

S1. How many days are there in leap year?
S2. There are three hundred and sixty-six.
S1. How many weeks are there in a year?
S2.There are fifty-two weeks a year.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What are the seasons in this country?
S2. Winter, spring, summer, and fall.
S1. How months are there in a season?
S2. There are three months in each season.

***Conversation* D**

S1.Today is the first day of spring.
S2. I didn't realize it.
S1. Aren't you glad it's here?
S2. I'm always glad when winter is over.

***Conversation* E**

S1.The weather is perfect today, isn't it?
S2.Yes.I like this season of the year very much.
S1.Most people like this season best of all, don't they?
S2.Well, I'm sure a lot of people do.

Exercise 1 / Lines B1-B4, G3, C4 /

How many days are there in a year?	**There are three hundred and sixty-five.**
How many weeks are there in a year?	**There are fifty-two.**
How many months are there in a year?	**There are twelve.**
How many seasons are there in a year?	**There are four**
How many months are there in a season?	**There are three.**
How many days are there in a week?	**There are seven**
How many days are there in June?	**There are thirty.**
How many days are there in October?	**There are thirty-one.**
How many years are there in a decade?	**There are ten**
How many years are there in a century?	**There are one hundred.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* D 1 /**

Today is the first day of spring.

Yesterday	**Yesterday was the first day of spring**
Tomorrow	**Tomorrow .will be the first day of spring.**
Last Friday	**Last Friday was the first day of spring.**
Next Thursday	**Next Thursday will be the first day of spring.**
This coming Monday	**This coming Monday will be the First day of spring.**

***Exercise 3*J / *Line* D 1 /**

Today is the first day of spring.

summer	**Today is the first day of summer.**
winter	**Today is the first day of winter.**
September	**Today is the first day of September.**
the new year	**Today-is the first day of the new year.**
our summer vacation	**Today is the first day or our Summer vacation.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D4 /**

When is winter over?	**It's over about March twenty-first.**
Are you glad then?	**I'm always glad when winter is over.**
When is spring over?	**It's over about June twenty-first.**
Are you sorry then?	**I'm always sorry when spring is over.**
When is summer over?	**It's over about September twenty- first.**
Are you glad then?	**I'm always glad when summer is over.**
When is fall over?	**It's over about December twenty-first.**
Are you sorry then?	**I'm always sorry when fall is over.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E1 /

The weather is perfect today, isn't it?

terrible	**The weather is terrible today, isn't it?**
wonderful	**The weather is wonderful today, isn't it?**
awful	**The weather is awful today, isn't it?**
unusual	**The weather is unusual today, isn't it?**
unusually nice	**The weather is unusually nice today, isn't it?**

Exercise* 6 / *Line E1 /

Today is very warm, isn't it?	**Today isn't very warm, is it?**
Today is very cold, isn't it?	**Today isn't very cold, is it?**
Today is very hot, isn't it?	**Today isn't very hot, is it?**
Today is very cool, isn't it?	**Today isn't very cool, is it?**
Today is very humid, isn't it?	**Today isn't very humid, is it?**
Today is very clear, isn't it?	**Today isn't very clear, is it?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* E3 /**

Most people like this season best of all, don't they?

A lot of people	**A lot of people like this season best of all, don't they?**

Some people	**Some people like this season best of all, don't they?**
A few 'people	**A few people like this season best of all, don't they?**
Few people	**Few people like this season best of all, do they?**
Not many people	**Not many people like this season best of all, do they?**

31.DAYS,DATES,AND SEASON / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What day is today?

S2. It's (A) today.
S1. What's the date?
S2. It's (B)

(A)	(B)
Tuesday	March fifteenth
Thursday	October twenty-first
Wednesday	the third of August
Sunday	September thirtieth
Friday	the fourteenth of December

Conversation Drill B

S1. I know about the seasons in the United States now.
S2. Then when does (A) begin?
S1. It begins in (B)
S2. That's right. It begins in (B)

(A)	(B)
spring	March
fall	September
summer	June
winter	December

Conversation Drill C

S1.I'm familiar with the seasons already.
S2. What are the names of the (A)
S1. They're (B)
S2. Right. (B) are the (A) months

(A)	(B)
summer	June, July, and August
spring	March, April, and May
winter	December, January, and February
fall	September, October, and November

32. LIVING IN AN APARTMENT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What floor is your apartment on?
S2. It's on the third floor.
S1. Is the building a walk-up?
S2. No. It has a small elevator.

Conversation B

S1. How large is your apartment?
S2. It has four and a half rooms.
S1. Then you have two bedrooms .
S2. Right. A living room, a kitchen, two bedrooms, and a bath.

Conversation C

S1. Is this your apartment?
S2. Yes, it is.
S1. How many bedrooms do you have?
S2. Two big ones and one small one.

Conversation D

S1. What's a cooperative apartment?
S2. In a cooperative, you actually buy the apartment.
S1. Just as you would buy a house?
S2. Yes. Then you only pay maintenance costs each month.

Conversation E

S1. Do you like your new apartment?
S2. Yes. I like the service in the building, too.
S1. Are there doormen and guards?
S2. Yes, and the building is close to the shopping areas.

33.LIVING IN A HOUSE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How much did you pay for your house?
S2. It cost eighteen thousand dollars, and we've spent another two thousand on repairs.
S1. Did you have trouble getting a mortgage?
S2. No. We paid four thousand dollars, and the bank lent us the rest.

Conversation B

81. Do you prefer a one-story or a two-story house?
S2. One-story, I think.
S1. I do too, because there are no stairs to climb.
S2. But one-story houses take more land.

Conversation C

S1. Your house is very large.
S2. Yes. We have enough room for guests now.
S1. Our house is too small.
S2. You don't have enough room, do you?

Conversation D

S1. Where's the bathroom?
S2. The bathroom is opposite that big bedroom.
S1. Is this the kitchen?
S2. Yes. It's a big kitchen, isn't it?

Conversation E

S1. I enjoy having a house in the suburbs.
S2. It's wonderful to have trees and a big yard.
S1. The children can play outside most of the time.
S2. And it's so much cleaner here than in the city.

34.USING THE TELEPHONE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could you give me the number of the Best Bag Company?
S2. Is that in the city or in the suburbs?
S1. In the city. On the tenth street.
S2. Just a moment, please.

Conversation B

S1. What is the telephone number of Pan-Eastern Airways?
S2. Just a moment, please.
S1. Thank you Operator.
S2. That number is Hillside 6-7600.

Conversation C

S1. I'd Like to speak to Bob, Please.
S2. What number are you calling?
S1. M-U-one- four-three-seven -six.
S2. Sorry. You've got the wrong number.

Conversation D

S1. May I speak to the director, please?
S2.Who's calling, please?
S1. Tell him it's his friend from California.
S2. Just a Moment please

Conversation E

S1. I'd like to speak to Mr. Bush, Please.
S2. May I ask who is calling, Please?
S1. Tell him it's his assistant.
S2. Please hold the line while I see if he's in.

35.GETTING HELP IN STORES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you wish some assistance?
S2. Yes. How much is that pen?
S1. This one or that one?
S2. The one next to the black one.

Conversation B

S1. May I help you?
S2. Yes. I'd like to look at pens.
S1. Certainly. Fountain pens or ball-point pens?
S2. I'm looking for a good fountain pen.

Conversation C

S1. Could you help me, please?
S2. What can I do for you?
S1. Could I look at the wristwatch in this case?
S2. Just one moment, please, while I get the key.

Conversation D
S1. Hello. Are you waited on?
S2. No. I'd like a ream of typing paper, please.
S1. Will there be anything else?
S2. No. I believe that's all, thank you.

Conversation E

S1. Is someone helping you?
S2. I beg your pardon?
S1. Could I help you with anything?
S2. No, thanks. Someone is already waiting on me.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

Do you wish some assistance?

want	**Do you want some assistance?**
help	**Do you want some help?**
Would you like	**Would you like some help?**
advice	**Would you 'like some advice?**
care for	**Would you care for some advice?**

Exercise 2 / Line A2 /

How much is that pen?	**How much does that pen cost?**
How much are those dishes?	**How much do those dishes cost?**
How much is that briefcase?	**How much does that briefcase cost?**
How much are those gloves?	**How much do those gloves cost?**

How much is that alarm clock? **How much does that alarm clock cost?**
How much are those glasses? **How much do those glasses cost?**

Exercise* 3/ *Line A2 /

How much does that pen cost? **What does that pen cost?**
How much do those dishes cost? **What do those dishes cost?**
How much does that briefcase cost? **What does that briefcase cost?**
How much do those gloves cost? **What do those gloves cost?**
How much does that alarm clock cost? **What does that alarm clock cost?**
How much do those glasses cost? **What do those glasses cost?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

How much is that pen? **What does that pen cost?**
How much are those glasses? **What do those glasses cost?**
How much is that billfold? **What does that billfold cost?**
How much are those two ashtrays? **What do those two ashtrays cost?**
How much is that small vase? **What does that small vase Cost?-**

Exercise5/ Line A4 /

I mean the one next to the black one.

Beside **I mean the one beside the black one.**
close to **I mean the one close to the black one**
behind **I mean the one behind the black one.**
in front of **I mean the one in front of the black one**
opposite **I mean the one opposite the black one.**
Near **I mean the one near the black one.**
Under **I mean the one under the black one.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B2 /

I'd like to look at pens. **May I look at your pens?**
1'd like to look at cameras. **May I look at your cameras?**
I'd like to look at billfolds. **May I look at your billfolds?**
I'd like to look at watches. **May I look at your watches?**
1'd like to look at suitcases. **May I look at your suitcases?**
I'd like to look at suits. **May I look at your suits?**
I'd like to look at overcoats. **May I look at your overcoats?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B4 /

I'm looking for a good fountain pen.

expensive **I'm looking for an expensive fountain pen.**
wristwatch **I'm looking for an expensive wristwatch.**
cheap **I'm looking for a cheap wristwatch.**
camera **I'm looking for a cheap camera.**
small **I'm looking for a small camera.**
Practical **I'm looking for a practical camera.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line C1 /

Could you help me, please?

Assist	**Could you assist me, please?**
Would	**Would you assist me, please?**
ad vise	**Would you advise me, please?**
Can	**Can you advise me, please?**
wait on me	**Can you wait on me, please?**
take care of	**Can you take care of me please?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* C3 /**

Could I look at the wristwatch in this case?

gold pen	**Could I look at the gold pen in this case?**
in the black box	**Could I look at the gold pen in the black box?**
small camera	**Could I look at the small camera in the black box?**
on the shelf	**Could I look at the small camera on the shelf?**
black leather billfold	**Could I look at the black leather, billfold on the shelf?**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* D2 /**

I'd like a ream of typing paper, please.

a pad of drawing paper	**I'd like a pad of drawing paper, please.**
a packet of lined paper	**I'd like a packet of lined paper, please.**
a bottle of ink	**I'd like a bottle of ink, please.**
a box of paper clips	**I'd like a box of paper clips, please.**
a box of stationery	**I'd like a box of stationery, please.**

36. GOING SHOPPING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What store did you go to yesterday?
S2. I went to the Central Department Store.
S1. Do they have a good variety of things to choose from?
S2. They have lots to choose from, but it's all very expensive.

***Conversation* B**

S1. What were you doing at that department store?
S2. I was shopping for a new suitcase.
S1. What was your friend doing there?
S2. She was trying to find a coat.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I have to go shopping.
S2. Do you know what you're going to buy?
S1. Not yet, but I hope to after shopping.
S2. J hate to go shopping, but I guess it's necessary.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What time do the stores close?
S2. Most of them close at six o'clock.
S1. Do we still have time to go shopping?
S2. Yes. It's only four fifteen now.

Conversation E

S1. It seems I always have to buy a lot of things.
S2. It always seems that way to me too.
S1. I always need so many little things.
S2. They add up to a lot of money, don't they?

37.TALKING ABOUT SHOPPING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where do you do your shopping?
S2. I usually start at the Central Department Store.
S1. What do you think of their selection?
S2. They have a good selection, and their prices are low, too.

Conversation B

S1. They're having a big sale at the Greenfield Shopping Center.
S2. Anything in particular on sale?
S1. Well, they advertised linens and house furnishings.
S2. I suppose there'll be crowds or people in the store.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I spent the afternoon shopping for clothes.
S2. How did you make out?
S1. Well, I found an excellent raincoat, and I bought some shoes.
S2. That reminds me that I have to go shopping soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where did you buy your coat?
S2. I bought it at the Fifth Avenue Store-but a long time ago.
S1. About how much did it cost?
S2. At the moment, I've forgotten how much it cost.

Conversation E

S1. Why did you choose the green one?
S2. To ten the truth, I really didn't have much choice in my size.
S1. Excuse my asking, but how much did you pay for it?
S2. It was on sale, and I paid only forty-five dollars.

38. SHOPPING FOR CLOTHES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What would you like to see?
S2. 1'd like to see your overcoats, please.
S1. What kind of overcoats would you like to see?
S2. 1'd like to see your winter overcoats-probably wool.

Conversation B

S1. 1'd like to look at your sweaters, if I could.
S2. Certainly. Any particular style?
S1. Could I see some of the new styles, please?
S2. Of course. Please step right this way.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I'm interested in seeing your summer suits.
S2. What color did you have in mind?
S1. White, or some light color, I think
S2. Step over to this other-room with me, would you please?

***Conversation* D**

S1. That jacket you have on now seems to fit you very well.
S2. What kind of material is this?
S1. It's a mixture-cotton and wool.
S2. I'm not sure it's heavy enough for the fall weather.

Conversation E

S1. Here's a very popular kind of sport coat-the most recent thing.
S2. I notice there isn't much padding in the shoulders.
S1. No. It has a natural shoulder line.
S2. I like the narrow lapels and the stitching on them.

39. ASKING ABOUT PRICES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**
S1. How much does this pen cost?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S3. How much is this pen cost?
S4. It's four dollars and fifty cents.

***Conversation* B**

S1. How much is this leather billfold?
S2. It's five twenty-five
S3. Does that include the tax?
S4. It's five forty four including tax.

***Conversation* C**

S1. This briefcase costs five fifty.
S2. That's fine. I'll take it.
S1. Will there be anything else?
S2. I don't believe so; thank you.

Conversation D

S1. We're having a sale on leather goods today
S2. Are office supplies on sale too?
S3. Yes. Prices have been reduced from 20 to 40 percent.
S4. I notice the sale prices are marked in red ink.

Conversation E

S1. How much are these things all together?
S2. Let's see. That'll be twenty-one fifty.
S1. I'd like to change them to my account, please.
S2. Fine. Could you give me your name & address

Exercise 1 / Lines A1, B1, C1 /

How much does this pen cost?	It cost two dollars.
How much do these-bookends cost?	They cost two dollars
How much does that notebook cost?	It costs two dollars.
How much do those brushes cost?	They cost two dollars
How much does this stationery cost?	It costs two dollars.

Exercise 2 / Lines A4, B4, C1 /

It's four fifty-nine.	It costs four dollars and fifty-nine cents.
They're two fifty.	They cost two dollars and fifty cents.
It's seven eighty-five.	It costs seven dollars and eighty-five cents.
They're nine sixty-seven.	They cost nine dollars and sixty-seven cents.
They're twelve seventy.	They cost twelve dollars and seventy cents.
It's twenty-five fifty.	It costs twenty-five dollars and fifty cents.

Exercise 3 / Lines A4, B4, C1 /

What's ten fifty plus forty-nine?	**It's ten ninety-nine.**
What's two seventy-five plus ten?	**It's two eighty-five.**
What's six thirty-nine plus twenty?	**It's six fifty-nine.**
What's three eighty plus eighteen?	**It's three ninety-eight.**
What's sixty-nine plus eight?	**It's seventy seven.**
What's one twenty plus eight twenty?	**It's nine forty.**

Exercise 4 / Line D 1 /

We're having a sale on leather goods today.

summer clothing	**We're having a sale on summer clothing today.**
home furniture	**We're having a sale on home furniture today.**
kitchen items	**We're having a sale on kitchen items today.**
household supplies	**We're having a sale on household supplies today.**
dinnerware	**We're having a sale on dinnerware today.**

40. HOW MUCH DOES IT COST / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How much are your potatoes, sir?
S2. Twenty-five cents a pound.
S1. How much would five pounds cost?
S2. Five pounds would be a dollar and a quarter.

Conversation B

S1. What does that gold pin cost?
S2. It's twenty-one dollars plus tax.
S1. How much for the small one next to it?
S2. That one costs twelve fifty.

Conversation C

S1. What's the regular price for that refrigerator?
S2. The list price is two hundred forty.
S1. Are you selling it at a discount?
S2. Yes. The discount price is one ninety-nine.

Conversation D

S1. What are you asking for that antique mirror?
S2. That's one hundred fifty dollars.
S1. Isn't that rather expensive?
S2. Not really. Mirrors of that type are quite rare.

Conversation E

S1. What would it cost to have this chair repaired?
S2. I'd estimate sixty to seventy dollars
S3. How much would it cost to replace it with a new one?
S2. Probably around a hundred dollars.

41. MONEY PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Can you come along with us tomorrow?
S2. I think I can borrow enough money to go.

S1. Why couldn't you go last Thursday?
S2. Because I couldn't afford it.

Conversation B

S1. How much money do you have?
S2. Not very much.
S1. Do you have many dollar bills?
S2. Not very many, I'm afraid.

Conversation C

S1. You look upset about something.
S2. I think I've lost my money.
S1. Oh, that's what's bothering you.
S2. It's a good reason to be upset, isn't it?

Conversation D

S1. Are you sure you lost your money?
S2. I'm sure did.
S1. Would you please look again?
S2. I will, but I'm sure it's not here.

Conversation E

S1. How many pennies did you have in your bank?
S2. I had exactly five hundred of them.
S1. What did you do with them?
S2. I put them in rolls of fifty pennies each.

42. TALKING ABOUT MONEY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you made very much money this year?
S2. Not an awful lot.
S1. How hard have you tried?
S2. Not as hard as I could have, I'm afraid.

Conversation B

S1. **How much did you make this week?**
S2. Sixty two dollars
S1. Is that your take-home pay?
S2. Yes, it is.

Conversation C

S1 **. I've got to pay a lot of bills.**
S2 And I've got to pay my rent today.
S1. Money goes very fast these days, doesn't it?
S2. It certainly does.

Conversation D

S1. Did you sell your car.?
S2. Yes. I sold it my Friend Bob.
S1. Did you put the money in the bank?
S2. I deposited part of it and spent the rest.

Conversation E

S1. Do you have an account at that bank?
S2. I've got a special checking account
S1. How much do you have to keep in the account?
S2. There's no minimum.

43. LENDING AND BORROWING MONEY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could you lend me a dollar until tomorrow?
S2. I can if you have change for a five
S1. I wish I did, but I don't
S2. Well, we can get it changed easily.

Conversation B

S1. I need about ten dollars.
S2. What do you need it for?
S3. I need it for books and supplies.
S2. O.K. I'll end it to you.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Could I borrow some money from you for a few days?
S2. How much do you need? .
S1. Could you spare four or five dollars?
S2. Yes, but I'll need the money myself before next week.

***Conversation* D**

S1.What did you need the money for yesterday?
S2. I wanted it for a new suit.
S1. Did you get the money?
S2. Yes. I borrowed it from a friend.

Conversation E

S1. How much change have you got?
S2. Two quarters, two nickels, and a dime.
S1. That's not enough to change this dollar bill.
S2. I'll lend you all of this change if you want *It.*

44.AT THE POST OFFICE / CONVERSATIONS

45. AT THE GROCERY STORE / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How much are the potatoes?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. How much do the potatoes cost?
S2. Fifteen cents a pound.

Conversation B

S1. I'd like a bag of onions and a jar of olives.
S2. Do you need fruit-apples, lemons, plums?
S1. Perhaps a box of cherries and a bunch of grapes.
S2. I'll put all this in a box with your other groceries.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I forgot to buy some rice.
S2. How much do you want?
S1. Would you please get me two pounds?
S2. All right. A two-pound bag.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Don't you need milk or cream?
S2. Yes. Let's get a pint of cream and two quarts of mille
S1. We can get a two-quart container.
S2. Let's get some sour cream too.

Conversation E

S1. Please give me two bottles of milk.
S2. All of our milk is in cartons.
S1. Cartons are all right, but I prefer bottles.
S2. Cartons are more convenient, and there's a deposit on bottles.

46. SHOPPING FOR GROCERIES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What do you call a big grocery store like this?
S2. It's called a "supermarket"
S1. It's convenient to see everything and pick out what you want.
S2. Having these carts to put things in is convenient too.

Conversation B

S1. How about fish tonight-salmon, tuna fish, trout?
S2. I notice the clams and oysters are fresh today.
S1. That sounds very good.
S2 Let's also get a pork roast or turkey for tomorrow.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Now we have sugar, salt, pepper, and flour.
S2. We also need mustard, vinegar, and cinnamon.
S1. I'll get those while you get the cabbage and celery.
S2. Fine. I'll meet you at the check-out counter.

***Conversation* D**

S1. *Would* you please get me a bag of sugar?
S2. Do you want two or five pounds?
S1. A two-pound bag will be all right.
S2. O.K. I'll meet you at the canned-food counter.

Conversation E

S1 How many eggs should we get?
S2. Two dozen should be enough.
S1. How much butter do you think we need?
S2. One pound is enough, don't you think?

47. IDENTIFYING PEOPLE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you Dr. Taylor?
S2. No. That tall fellow is Dr. Taylor.
S1. Do you mean the one over there with glasses?
S2. Yes. The one with brown hair.

Conversation B

S1. Who's that very handsome man?
S2. What did you say?
S1. Do you know who that man over there is?
S2. If you mean the thin, rather dark man, that's Mr. Walker.

Conversation **C**

S1. Do you recognize the girl talking to Mr. Brown?
S2. Of course I know the girl he's talking to.
S1. Well then, whom is he talking to?
S2. That's Dorothy Jones, Mary's good friend.

Conversation **D**

S1. What's that man's name-the man that's holding the briefcase?
S2. I know, but I can't remember it right now.
S1. Where does he come from-Greece or Turkey perhaps?
S2. One of the two, I think.

Conversation E

S1. Do you know the man over there by the door?
S2. I do, but I can't remember his name at the moment.
S1. Isn't he a famous musician?
S2. He's either a musician or a painter.

Exercise 1 **/** *Line A1 /*

Are you Mrs. Brown?	**No, I'm not. I'm not Mrs. Brown.**
Are you a teacher?	**No, I'm not. I'm not a teacher.**
Are you lawyers?	**No, we aren't. We aren't lawyers.**
Are you doctors?	**No, we aren't. We aren't doctors.**
Are you an artist?	**No, I'm not. I'm not an artist.**

Exercise **2 /** *Line* **A2 /**

That tall fellow. is Mr. Taylor.

short	**That short fellow is Mr. Taylor.**
with brown hair	**That short fellow with brown hair is Mr. Taylor.**

gray — **That short fellow with gray hair is Mr. Taylor.**
thin fellow — **That thin fellow with gray hair is Mr. Taylor.**
That fellow with glasses — **That fellow with glasses is Mr. Taylor.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines B2 and B3 /

Who's that man? — **Do you know who that man is?**
Who are those men? — **Do you know who those men are?**
Who's that woman? — **Do you know who that woman is?**
Who are those women? . — **Do you know who those women are?**
Who's that thin fellow? — **Do you know who that thin fellow is?**
Who are those two girls? — **Do you know who those two girls are?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line C1 /

Do you recognize the girl talking to Mr. Brown?

standing by the door — **Do you recognize the girl standing by the door? .**
walking across the room — **Do you recognize the girl walking across the room?**
carrying the blue purse — **Do you recognize the girl carrying the blue purse?**
wearing the yellow dress — **Do you recognize the girl wearing the yellow dress?**
shaking hands with Mr. Brown — **Do you recognize the girl shaking hands with Mr. Brown?**

***Exercise* 5/ *Line* C2 /**

He's talking to a girl. — **I know the girl he's talking to.**
He's looking at a girl. — **I know the girl he's looking at.**
He's speaking about a girl. — **I know the girl he's speaking about**
He's standing beside a girl. — **I know the girl he's standing beside.**
He's leaving with a girl. — **I know the girl he's leaving with.**
He's listening to a girl. — **I know the girl he's listening to.**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C3 /**

He's talking to a girl. — **Whom is he talking to?**
He's listening to a girl. — **Whom is he listening to?**
He's looking at a girl. — **Whom is he looking at?**
He's standing beside a girl. — **Whom is he standing beside?**
He's speaking about a girl. — **Whom is he speaking about?**
He's leaving with a girl. — **Whom is he leaving with?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C3 /**

Whom is he speaking about? — **Do you know whom he's speaking about?**
Whom is he leaving with? — **Do you know whom he's leaving with?**
Whom is he looking at? — **Do you know whom he's looking at?**
Whom is he listening to? — **Do you know whom he's listening to?**
Whom is he standing beside? — **Do you know whom he's standing beside?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Lines* E3 *and* E4 /**

He plays music for people. — **He's a musician**
He types things. — **He's a typist.**
He runs a farm. — **He's a farmer.**
He instructs students. — **He's an instructor**
He takes photographs. — **He's a photographer.**

He sings songs professionally.	He's a professional singer.
He translates things.	He's a translator
He collects stamps.	He's a stamp collector
He organizes groups for the union.	He's a union organizer.
He analyzes legal matters.	He's a legal analyst.
He supervises factory workers.	He's a factory supervisor

48. IMMEDIATE FAMILY AND RELATIVES/ CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. How old is your son?
S2. He's seventeen years old.
S1. Is your daughter older or younger than your son?
S2. Younger. She's only fifteen.

Conversation B

S1. Have you got many relatives here?
S2. Yes. An aunt and an uncle and four grandparents.
S1. Do your aunt and uncle have children?
S2. Yes. I have three cousins-two boys and a girl.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you have a picture of your family?
S2. Yes, I've got one right here.
S1. You have a very nice family. Thank you.
S2. Thank you.

***Conversation* D**

S1.Jim looks like his father.
S2. Do you and your father look alike?
S1. There's a little resemblance but not much.
S2. I don't look like anyone at all in my family.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How's your family?
S2. They're all fine, thanks.
S1. Are your niece and nephew still here?
S2. Yes, they are. They're still visiting me.

49. IDENTIFYING THINGS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Which house is your house?
S2. Ours is the last one on the block.
S1. Is yours the red one or the blue one?
S2. The blue one on the right side of the street.

Conversation B

S1. What's the name of that book John referred to?
S2. It's slipped my mind for the moment.
S1. Who did he say was the author?
S2. Some man whose name starts with an m.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Which one of these are you going to choose?
S2. I like the red one with the blue stripes.
S1. The one over there with black edges is nice too.
S2. But the one we looked at first may be the best choice.

***Conversation* D**

S1. The car over there by the streetlight is John's.
S2. Which one do you mean-the old one or the new red one?
S1. Neither. I mean the streetlight on your left.
S2. Oh. Then the one with the convertible top must be his.

***Conversation* E**

S1. What's the name of that thing with the strange shape?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Can you tell me what the-name of that thing over there is?
S2. Sorry. I don't know myself.

Exercise* 1 *Lines A1-A4 /

Our house is the last one.	**Ours is the last one.**
Their house is the last one.	**Theirs is the last one.**
His house is the last one.	**His is the last one.**
My house is the last one.	**Mine is the last one.**
Her house is the last one.	**Hers is the last one.**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1-A4 /

His books are the red ones.	**His are the red ones**
Their books are the red ones.	**Theirs are the red ones**
Your books are the red ones.	**Yours are the red ones**
Her books are the red ones.	**Hers are the red ones.**
My books are the red ones.	**Mine are the red ones**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines* A2 *and* A4 /**

Ours is the last one on the right side.

left	**Ours is the last one on the left side.**
next to last	**Ours is the next to last one on the left side.**
Theirs	**Theirs is the next to last one on the left side.**
first-	**Theirs is the first one on the left side.**
other	**Theirs is the first one on the other side.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines A1, C1, C4,* D2 /**

Which of them is the best?

the most practical	**Which of them is the most practical?**
the cheapest	**Which of them is the cheapest?**
the most expensive	**Which of them is the most expensive?**
the prettiest	**Which of them is the prettiest?**
the most stylish	**Which of them is the most stylish?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B1 /

What's the name of that book he referred to?

inquired about	**What's the name of that book he inquired about?**
commented on	**What's the name of that book he commented on?**
spoke about	**What's the name of that book he spoke about?**
objected to	**What's the name of that book he objected to?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C1 /**

Are you going to choose one?	**Which one are you going to choose?**
Have you chosen one?	**Which one have You chosen?**
Did you choose one?	**Which one did you choose?**
Should you choose one?	**Which one should you choose?**
Will you choose one?	**Which one will you choose?**
Had you chosen one?	**Which one had you chosen?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C2 /**

I like the one with blue stripes.	**I like the one that has blue stripes.**
I like the one with black edges.	**I like the one that has black edges.**
I like the one with green sides	**I like the one that has green sides.**
I like the one with yellow squares	**I like the one that has yellow squares**
I like the one with orange flowers.	**I like the one that has orange flowers.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C4 /**

We looked at that one.	**The one 'we looked at may be the best.**
We examined that one.	**The one we examined may be the best.**
We talked about that one.	**The one we talked about may be the best.**
We chose that one.	**The one we chose may be the best.**
We picked out that one.	**The one we picked out may be the best.**
We selected that one.	**The one we selected may be the best**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E3 /

Can you tell me what the name of that is?

Can you guess	**Can you guess what the name of that is?**
Can't you guess	**Can't you guess what the name of that is?**
Do you know	**Do you know what the name of that is?**
Don't you know	**Don't you know what the name of that is?**

50. SENDING AND RECEIVING LETTERS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you writing a letter?
S2. Yes. I'm to my family.
S1. Do you write letters very often?
S2. Yes. I write five or six letters a week.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Do You write letters very often
S2. No. I hate to write letters.
S1. It takes a lot of time.
S2. It sure does.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Robert get a letter?
S2. He got one yesterday.
S1. Does he get many letters?
S2. Yes. He gets some every day.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Charles wrote me a long letter.
S2. When did he write to you?
S1. He sent the letter to me about a week ago.
S2. He hasn't even sent me a postcard yet!

Conversation E

***S1.* We wrote to Mary's sister last week.**
S2. Has she written you yet?
S1. No, she hasn't.
S2. She wrote me a few days ago.

51. MORE ABOUT LETTERS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you written to your brother yet?
S2. Yes, but I haven't mailed the letter yet.
S1. I went to the post office half an hour ago.
S2. Why didn't you tell me?

Conversation B

S1. Did your friend in San Francisco write to you?
S2. Yes. I got a letter from her on Thursday.
S1. What did she have to say?
S2. She said the city was interesting and pretty.

Conversation **C**

S1. Did you write a reply to Peter's letter?
S2. Yes. I wrote one on Friday.
S1. Did you mention his last letter to you?
S2. Yes. I said I'd enjoyed his letter a lot.

Conversation **D**

S1. What are you writing?
S2. I'm writing a thank-you note to the Smiths.
S1. What are you doing that for?
S2. I had dinner with them, and it's customary to write a thank you note.

Conversation E

S1. I wrote a letter to them applying for a job.
S2. Was it hard to write your letter of application?
S1. Yes. I wanted to sound modest but also mention my qualifications.
S2. It's always hard to write about yourself.

52. GETTING CHANGE/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you got any change?
S2. What do you need?
S1. I need a change for a quarter.
S2. Here are two dimes and five pennies.

Conversation B

***S1.* Can you change this five-dollar bill?**
S2. I'm sorry. I don't have change.
S1. What Should I do?
S2. Go to the cashier's desk.

Conversation C

S1. Can you change this ten dollar bill?
S2. How do you want it
S1. A five and five one's please
S2. Here you are

Conversation D

S1. Do you have a change for dollar bill?
S2. Just a minute and I'll see
S1. I need some quarters.
S2. Yes. I can change it give you two quarters.

Conversation E

S1. This is a Change machine.
S2. Do you really get money from it?
S1. Sure. Just put a fifty-cent piece in that slot.
S2. It works! I've got quarter, two dimes, and a nickel.

***Exercise* 1 / *Line* D1 /**

Do you have change for a dime?

a quarter	**Do you have change for a quarter?**
a half dollar	**Do you have change for a half dollar?**
a dollar	**Do you have change for a dollar?**
a five-dollar bill	**Do you have change for a five-dollar bill?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and* D 1 /**

Have you got change for a dime?

a half dollar	**Have you got change for a half dollar?**
a quarter	**Have you got change for a quarter?**
a five-dollar bill	**Have you got change for a five-dollar bill?**
a fifty-cent piece	**Have you got change for a fifty-cent piece?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and* D1 /**

Have you got change for a dime.	**I wonder if you've got change for a dime**
Have you got change for a quarter?	**I wonder if you've got change for a quarter**
Have you got change for a fifty cents	**I wonder if you've got change for fifty cents.**
Have you got change for a five	**I wonder if you've got change for a five.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines B1 and* C1 /**

Can you change this dime?

fifty-cent piece	**Can you change this fifty-cent piece?**
quarter	**Can you change this quarter?**
ten-dollar bill	**Can you change this ten-dollar bill?**
half dollar	**Can you change this half dollar?**
five-dollar bill	**Can you change this five-dollar bill?**

Exercise* 5 / *Lines A3 and A4 /

I need change for a nickel.	**Here are five pennies.**
I need change for a dime.	**Here are ten pennies.**
I need change for a quarter.	**Here are twenty-five pennies**
I need change for a h2.lf dollar.	**Here are fifty pennies.**
I need change for a dollar.	**Here are one hundred pennies.**

53. AMERICAN MONEY AND PRICES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I understand the American money system well.
S2. Then how many (A) are there in a (B) ?
S1. There are (C, aren't there?
S2. That's exactly right. There are (C)

(A)	(B)	(C)
cents	nickel	five
cents	dime	ten
nickels	dime	two
cents	quarter	twenty-five
nickels	quarter	five
quarters	half dollar	two
dimes	half dollar	five
quarters	dollar	four
nickels	dollar	twenty

Conversation Drill B

S1. What do you need today?
S2. I'd like (A)
S1. Today (B)
S2. That'll be all right, thanks.

(A)	(B)
a pound of butter	butter is 65¢ a pound
a quart of milk	milk is 38¢ a quart
a loaf of bread	bread is 20¢ a loaf
a jar of jelly	jelly is 36¢ a jar
a can of tuna fish	tuna is 85¢ a can
a box of cookies	cookies are 42¢ a box
a pint of cream	cream is 41¢ a pint
a dozen eggs	eggs are 87¢ a dozen

54. WHAT’S IT LIKE OUTSIDE? / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Is it, raining now?
S2. Yes. it is. It's raining very hard.
S1. Does it rain very much in this area?
S2. Yes It rains a lot in the spring and fall.

Conversation B

S1. How is the weather?
S2. It's raining outside now.
S1. Is it raining very hard?
S2. No, it isn’t. It's just sprinkling.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What's the weather like outside?
S2. I think it's going to rain.
S1. It was nice a few hours ago.
S2. It was beautiful, wasn't it?

***Conversation* D**

S1. How's the weather today?
S2. It's quite cold and damp.
S1. How are the winters here in general?
S2. They're usually rather mild.

Conversation E

S1. Is it raining outside now?
S2. Yes, it is, and it's quite cold.
S1. I think I'll stay home today.
S2. I certainly wish I could too.

Exercise 1* / *Line B2 /

It's raining outside now.

Sprinkling	**It's sprinkling outside now.**
Snowing	**It's snowing outside now.**
Hailing	**It's hailing outside now.**
getting windy	**It's getting windy outside now**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and B2 /

It's raining now.

Yesterday — **It rained yesterday.**
Tomorrow — **It's going to rain tomorrow**
several times this week — **It's rained several times this week.**
a great deal in this season — **It rains a great deal in this season.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and B2 /

It's raining now. — **Is it raining now?**
It rained yesterday. — **Did it rain yesterday?**
It's going to rain tomorrow. — **Is it going to rain tomorrow?**
It's rained many times this week. — **Has it rained many times this Week?**
It rains a great deal in this season — **Does it rain a great deal in this season?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D2 /**

It's quite cold and damp.

cloudy and gray — **It's quite cloudy and gray.**
windy and cold — **It's quite windy and cold.**
warm and humid — **It's quite warm and humid.**
hot and sticky — **It's quite hot and sticky.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D4 /**

The winters are usually rather mild here.

generally — **The winters are generally rather mild here.**
very wet — **The winters are generally very wet here.**
the summers — **The summers are generally very wet here.**
almost always — **The summers are almost always very wet here.**

55. TALKING ABOUT THE WEATHER / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. It was hot yesterday.
S2. But it's quite cool today.
S1. Yes. I'm wearing sweater under my coat.
S2. I'm going to put on a jacket.

Conversation B

S1. It's freezing today!
S2. It's worse than yesterday.
S1. How cold is it?
S2. It's ten below.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What cold weather this is!
S2. It certainly is.
S3. What's the temperature?
S4. It's five above.

***Conversation* D**

S1. You've seen a hurricane, haven't you?
S2. Once, a long time ago.
S1. *Does* it ever snow in your country?
S2. Only a few times a year.

Conversation E

S1. Do you like the weather in this part of the country?
S2. Not really, but I'm adjusted to it now.
S1. Is the weather different in your Country
S2. Yes: It never gets as cold there as it does here.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

It was hot yesterday.	**It *was* quite hot, wasn't it?**
It was cold yesterday.	**It *was* quite cold, wasn't .it?**
It was warm yesterday.	**It *was* quite warm, wasn't it**
It was cool yesterday.	**It *was* quite cool, wasn't it?**
It was chilly yesterday.	**It *was* quite chilly, wasn't it?**
It was damp yesterday.	**It *was* quite damp, wasn't it?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A4 /**

I'm going to put on a sweater.

a wool shirt	**I'm going to put on a wool shirt.**
a jacket	**I'm going to put on a jacket.**
Gloves	**I'm going to put on gloves.**
an overcoat	**I'm going to put on an overcoat.**
overshoes	**I'm going to put on overshoes.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line B2 /

It's worse than yesterday.

better	**It's better than yesterday.**
hotter	**It's hotter than yesterday.**
colder	**It's colder than yesterday.**
Warmer	**It's warmer than yesterday.**
cooler	**It's cooler than yesterday**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B2 /

It's worse than yesterday.	**It's the worst day in a long time**
It's hotter than yesterday.	**It’s, the hottest day in a long time**
It's colder than yesterday.	**It's the coldest day in a long time.**
It's warmer than yesterday.	**It's the warmest day in a long time.**
It's cooler than yesterday.	**It's the coolest day in a long time.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line* C*1 /

What cold weather this is!

Humid	**What humid weather this is!**
Hot	**What hot weather this is!**
Cloudy	**What cloudy weather this is!**
Damp	**What damp weather this is!**
Sticky	**What sticky weather this is!**

56. WEATHER CONDITIONS / CONVERSATIONS

***Exercise 1* / *Line* A1 /**

It's a nice day, isn't it?

fine	**It's a fine day, isn't it?**
beautiful	**It's a beautiful, day, isn't it?**
wonderful	**It's a wonderful day, isn't it?**
terrible	**It's a terrible day, isn't it?**
awful	**It's an awful day, isn't it?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and* C*1 /

The weather is good today.	**It is good, isn't it?**
The .weather is fine today.	**It is fine, isn't it?**
The weather is nice today.	**It is nice, isn't it?**
The weather is wonderful today.	**It is wonderful, isn't it?**
The weather is beautiful today.	**It is beautiful, isn't it?**
The weather is unusual today.	**It is unusual, isn't it?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A2 and E1 /

It's warm and sunny for a change.

damp and chilly	**It's damp and chilly for a change.**
cloudy and gray	**It's cloudy and gray for a change.**
hot and hazy	**It's hot and hazy for a change.**
cool and clear	**It's cool and clear for a change.**
windy and cold	**It's windy and cold for a change.**

***Exercise* 4/ *Lines B1 and* C2 /**

It's warm today.	**It's a little too warm for me.**
It's chilly today.	**It's a little too chilly for me.**
It's damp today.	**It's a little too damp for me.**
It's windy today.	**It's a little too windy for me.**
It's cool today.	**It's a little too cool for me.**
It's hot today.	**It's a little too hot for me.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line D1 /

Is it cold outside?	**I wonder if it's cold outside:**
Is it cloudy outside?	**I wonder if it's cloudy outside.**
Is it warm outside?	**I wonder if it's warm outside.**
Is it chilly outside?	**I wonder if it's chilly outside.**
Is it windy outside?	**I wonder if it's windy outside.**

57. A LOOK AT THE WEATHER / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What's the weather like outside?

S2. Right at the moment (A)
S1. This morning, it was (B)
S2. And tonight, it'll probably change again.

(A)	(B)
it's raining a little	a little cloudy
the wind· is blowing hard	kind of damp
its pouring	rather hazy
the sun is shining	quite cool
it's clearing up a little	very dark
the rain is stopping	windy and cold
it’s getting foggy	really quite clear
the snow is getting heavy	sunny and warm

Conversation Drill B

S1. The weather isn't very good today, is it?
S2. No, it certainly isn't.
S1. It's (A)
S2. It always seems (B)

(A)	(B)
too damp and chilly	colder when it's damp
getting kind of hazy	gloomy when it's hazy
very cloudy and gray	gloomier when it's cloudy
getting even more humid	uncomfortable when it's humid
quite windy and cold	worse when it's windy
getting icy on the roads	strange when there's ice on the roads
too hot and sticky	hotter when it's humid
becoming rather dark	depressing when it's so dark

58. USING EXPRESSIONS OF TIME/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Were you at home last night?
S2. No. But I was at home the night before last
S1. Will you be at home tomorrow night?

S2. No, but I'll be at home the next night

Conversation B

S1. Didn't your friends leave the week before last?
S2. Right. They left just two weeks ago.
S1. Will they get back next week?
S2. Yes. According to them, they'll arrive a week from today.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Mary get back last Week?
S2. Yes. She got back on Thursday.
S1. How long was she away?
S2. She was out of town for ten days.

***Conversation* D**

S1. When did George arrive in town?
S2. He flew in last Thursday afternoon.
S1. John has been here since last Thursday too.
S2. Both of them plan to leave the day after tomorrow.

Conversation E

***S1.* How long have you been here?**
S2. I've been here for two months.
S1. How often do you get here?
S2. I get to this city about twice a year

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

Were you at home yesterday?

yesterday afternoon	**Were you at home yesterday afternoon?**
last night	**Were you at home last night?**
the day before yesterday	**Were you at home the day before yesterday?**
the night before last	**Were you at home the night before last?**
two nights ago	**Were you at home two nights ago?**
last Thursday night	**Were you at home last Thursday night?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Will you be at home tomorrow?

tomorrow afternoon	**Will you be at home tomorrow afternoon?**
tomorrow night	**Will you be at home tomorrow night?**
the day after tomorrow	**Will you be at home the day after tomorrow?**
a week from today	**Will you be at home a week from today?**
next Friday night	**Will you be at home next Friday night?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines B1 and C1 /

Didn't your friends get back last week?

Last Monday	**Didn't your friends get back last Monday?**

a week ago	**Didn't your friends get back a week ago?**
a week ago today	**Didn't your friends get back a week ago today?**
two weeks ago	**Didn't your friends get back two weeks ago?**
the week before last	**Didn't your friends get back the week before last?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B3 /

Will they get back next week?

next Tuesday	**Will they get back next Tuesday?**
a week from now	**Will they get back a week from now?**
a week from today	**Will they get back a week from today?**
two weeks from now	**Will they get back two weeks from now?**
the week after next	**Will they get back the week after next?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line C4/

She was out of town for ten days.

a week	**She was out of town for a week.**
a week and a half	**She was out of town for a week and a half.**
several weeks	**She was out of town for several weeks.**
quite a while	**She was out of town for quite a while.**
a couple of months	**She was out of town for a couple of months.**

Exercise 6

My brother met them on Tuesday.

at two o'clock	**My brother met them at two o'clock.**
see	**My brother saw them at two o'clock.**
last night	**My brother saw them last night.**
telephone	**My brother telephoned them last night.**
an hour ago	**My brother telephoned them an hour ago.**
consult	**My brother consulted them an hour ago.**
in the evening	**My brother consulted them in the evening.**
advise	**My brother advised them in the evening.**
yesterday morning	**My brother advised them yesterday morning.**
Help	**My brother helped them yesterday Morning.**
last Tuesday	**My brother helped them last Tuesday. !**
pay	**My brother paid them last Tuesday.**
the day before last	**My brother paid them the day before last.**

Exercise 7

They're going to help you tonight.

in the spring	**They're going to help you in the spring.**
Instruct	**They're going to instruct you in the spring.**
tomorrow night	**They're going to instruct you tomorrow night.**
Visit	**They're going to visit you tomorrow night.**
on October' twentieth	**They're going to visit you on October twentieth.**
He	**He's going to visit you on October twentieth.**
next week	**He's going to visit you next week.**
Assist	**He's going to assist you next week.**
the day after tomorrow	**He's going to assist you the day after tomorrow.**

Meet	**He's going to meet you the day after tomorrow.**
We	**We're going to meet you the day after tomorrow.**
Invite	**We're going to invite you the day after tomorrow.**
in March	**We're going to invite you in March.**
Supervise	**We're going to supervise you in March.**
on March eighteenth	**We're going to supervise you on March eighteenth.**

59. EXPRESSIONS OF TIME/ CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. When will Mr. Brown arrive in the city?
S2. He'll arrive here (A)
S1. His wife got here(B)
S2. I didn't know that.

(A)	**(B)**
next month	**last month**
on the twenty fifth	**in August**
a week from now	**a week ago**
at four o'clock	**at twelve fifteen.**
The day after tomorrow	**the day before yesterday**
Two hours from now	**two hours ago**
In the evening	**during the afternoon**

Tomorrow night **last night**

Conversation Drill B

S1. **How long will you be away?**
S2. Probably *(A)*
S1. Have you made all the arrangements?
S2. Yes. I'm going to leave *(B)*

(A)	(B)
until the summer	before the holiday
for six months	on the twenty fifth
up to November	during the spring
twenty or twenty one days	in September
six months or more	on September eighteenth
a long time	after the ceremony
until July fourth	next week
not for long	some time next month

60. DATES AND PERIODS OF TIME/ CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How long have you worked in this office?
S2. I've worked here since March.
S1. How long ago did you finish school?
S2. I finished school three years ago.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't you study English in school?
S2. Yes, but that \vas many years ago.
S1. How many years ago was it?
S2. at least six or seven.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did your friends arrive here in the fall?
S2. Yes. they did. They got here in October.
S1. Do you know the exact date they arrived?

S2. I do. They got back on October eleventh.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Have you been living here very long?
S2. I've only been here since last spring.
S1. Are you going to stay until Christmas?
S2. No. I'll probably leave for France in a month or two.

Conversation E

***S1. I worked* on my report until midnight last night.**
S2. Do you expect to finish the work by tomorrow night?
S1. Well, I certainly can't finish it before that time.
S2. You'd better get someone to help you for a few hours today then.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

I've worked here since March.

March fifteenth	**I've worked here since March fifteenth.**
last April	**I've worked here since last April.**
last fall	**I've worked here since last fall.**
1964	**I've worked here since 1964.**
the holidays	**I've worked here since the holidays.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A2 /

I've worked here for six months.

several years	**I've worked here for several years.**
more than a year	**I've worked here for more than a year.**
a month and a half	**I've worked here for a month and a half.**
quite a while	**I've worked here for quite a while**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A2 /

I worked in London for four years.

a year and a half	**I worked in London for a year and a half.**
eighteen weeks	**I worked in London for eighteen weeks.**
several months	**I worked in London for several months.**
a long time	**I worked in London for a long time.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

I started to work here two months ago.

a couple of years	**I started to work here a couple of Years ago.**
several weeks	**I started to work here several weeks ago.**
quite a while	**I started to work here quite a while ago.**
a long time	**I started to work here a long time ago.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D3 /**

I'm going to stay here until August tenth.

for two weeks	**I'm going to stay here for two weeks.**
until June or July	**I'm going to stay here until June or July.**
for a month or two	**I'm going to stay here for a month or two.**
until school starts	**I'm going to stay here until school starts.**

Exercise 6

He's worked there since September.

Two months	**He's worked there for two months.**
since 1963.	**He's worked there for Since 1963**
two years	**He's worked there for two years.**
January first	**He's worked there since January first.**
Several hours.	**He's worked there for Several hours**
last winter.	**He's worked there since last winter**
ten 0'clock.	**He's worked there for since ten o' clock**
December.	**He's worked there since December**
three months.	**He's worked there for three months**
July 18, 1964	**He's worked there since July 18,1964**
half an hour.	**He's worked there for an half an hour**
a long time.	**He's worked there for a long time**
this morning.	**He's worked there since this morning**
some time.	**He's worked there for some time**
quite a while	**He's worked there for quite a while.**

Exercise 7

They studied there for ten weeks.

October.	**They studied there in October**
one year.	**They studied there for One year**
1965	**They studied there in 1965**
two hours	**They studied there for two hours.**
The spring	**They studied there in the spring**
A month	**They studied there for a month**
several weeks.	**They studied there for several weeks**
the winter.	**They studied there in the winter**
1963 and 64	**They studied there in 1963 and '64.**
An hour or two	**They studied there for an hour or two.**
The fall semester	**They studied there in the fall semester**
A whole month	**They studied there for a whole month**
A short time.	**They studied there for a short time.**
June and July.	**They studied there in June and July**
quite a while.	**They studied there for quite a while.**

61. CALENDAR TIME/ CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I'm leaving the country very soon.
S2. You're coming back (A), aren't you?
S1. I'll be back (B)
S2. Well, Relax and enjoy your vacation

(A)	(B)
next fall	in September or October
in the spring	at the end of may
before the winter	on December fifteenth
after the holidays	sometime before April first

Conversation Drill B

S1. What would you like to do?
S2.I'd like to (A)
S1 I would too, but I can't.
S2 Maybe we can (B)

(A)	(B)
go shopping	go Friday or Saturday
see a movie	see one tomorrow night
go for a walk	go for one in the morning
go swimming	go tomorrow or the next day
ride over to John's	do it some other day

Conversation Drill C

S1. Could I help you?
S2 How long will it take (A)
S1 How soon do you need it?
S2. I was hoping to have it (B)

(A)	(B)
to have this watch repaired	by next week
to get this suit pressed	on Monday evening
to have this- package sent to New York	there in time for the holiday
to get this thing changed	early in the week
to have this thing repaired	before Wednesday

62. VACATION TIME / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How much vacation time do you get?
S2. Only two weeks this year, but three weeks next year.
S1. We get four weeks a year after five years of service,
S2. I may take an extra week without pay this year.

C*onversation* B

S1. Where do you plan to go for your vacation?
S2. I'm going to Denmark.
S1. When will you be back?
S2. Probably in three or four weeks.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are you going to take your vacation in June or July?
S2. Are going to take it in July.
S1. Are you going to go to Europe?
S2. No. I'm going to go to South America,

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you have a good vacation?
S2. Yes, I did. I had a wonderful time.
S1. What did you do?
S2. I visited some old friends in Florida.

Conversation E

S1. You haven't been around for a long time.
S2. I've been away on a vacation ..
S1. Everyone's been asking for you.
S2. It's nice to be missed.

63. TIPS AND SIGHT-SEEING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you have a nice time over the weekend?
S2. I had lots of fun.
S1. What did you do?
S2. I did a lot of sight-seeing

Conversation B

S1. How **long were you out of town?**
S2. I was away for two weeks.
S1. When were you away?
S2. I took the time off in August.

Conversation C

S1.How did you go to India last month?
S2.We went by plane.
S1. What kind of plane did you take?
S2.It was a jet.

Conversation D

S1.Have you ever been to Italy?
S2.No. I've never been there.
S1. Have you ever been to France?
S2. Yes. I was there last summer.

Conversation E

S1. Did your parents stay in Rome for very long?
S2. Yes. They stayed there for two months.
S1. Did they describe their trip to you?
S2. Yes, and they showed us a lot of photographs .

64. TALKING ABOUT EATING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did you have for breakfast?
S2. I had coffee, toast, and eggs.
S1. How did you have your eggs?
S2. Soft-boiled, as usual.

Conversation B

S1. How about a cup of coffee?
S2. That sounds good.
S1. I always enjoy coffee after work.
S2. I like it best in the morning.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to have an orange?
S2. Thanks, but I don't think so.
S1. Oranges are good for you.
S2. I know, but I had one about an hour ago.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where did you have lunch today?
S2. I ate at the cafeteria with John.
S1. Did you have a good lunch?
S1. Yes. I had a hot roast beef sandwich.

Conversation E

S1. There's a cafeteria over there.
S2. Didn't you eat before we left?
S1. Yes, but I'm hungry again.
S2. Well, I'm still digesting my lunch.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A1/

What did you have for breakfast?

Lunch	**What did you have for lunch?**
they	**What did they have for lunch?**
eat	**What did they eat for lunch?**
dinner	**What did they eat for dinner?**
she	**What did she eat for dinner?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A3 /**

How did you have your eggs?

coffee	**How did you have your coffee?**
meat	**How did you have your meat?**
potatoes	**How did you have your potatoes?**
vegetables	**How did you have your vegetables ?**
salad	**How did you have your salad?**

***Exercise.3* / *Lines* A3 *and* A4 /**

Did you have your egg soft boiled?

hard-boiled	**Did you have your eggs hard-boiled'?**
poached	**Did you have your eggs poached?**
scrambled	**Did you have your eggs scrambled?**
fried	**Did you have your eggs fried?**

Exercise* 4/ *Lines B1 and B3 /

I always enjoy a cup of coffee after work.

tea	**I always enjoy a cup of tea after work.**
a glass of milk	**I always enjoy a glass of milk after work.**
wine	**I always enjoy a glass of wine after Work.**
lemonade	**I always enjoy a glass of lemonade after work.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Lines C1 and* C3 /**

Would you like to have an orange?	**Oranges are good for you.**
Would you like to have an apple?	**Apples are good for you.**
Would you like to have a banana?	**Bananas are good for you,**
Would you like to have a lemon?	**Lemons are good for you.**
Would you like to have a tomato?	**Tomatoes are good for you.**

65. BREAKFAST AND LUNCH AT A RESTAURENT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'd like to order breakfast.
S2. What can I bring you?
S1. I'd like coffee, scrambled eggs, and bacon.
S2. I'll bring the coffee first.

Conversation B

S1. Please give me a ham sandwich.
S2. Would you like it on rye bread or white?
S1. Rye bread, please. With mustard.
S2. Here it is.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I'd like a piece of pie now and coffee later, please.
S2. Do you want cream for your coffee?
S1. Yes. Cream but no sugar.
S2. I'll bring the pie right away.

***Conversation* D**

S1. A hamburger and a cup of coffee, please.
S2. Here you are.
S1. How much do I owe you?
S2. Sixty-two cents.

Exercise* 1 / *Line A3 /

I'd like coffee.	**I'd like some coffee, please.**
1'd like tea.	**I'd like some tea, please.**
I'd like orange juice.	**I'd like some orange juice, please.**
I'd like milk.	**I'd like some milk, please.**
I'd like hot chocolate.	**I'd like some hot chocolate, please.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* B2 /**

Would you like some coffee?

orange juice	**Would you like some orange juice?**
care for	**Would you care for some orange juice?**
tea	**Would you care for some tea?**

anyone	**Would anyone care for some tea?**
wine	**Would anyone care for some wine?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line B1 /

Please give me a ham sandwich.

cheese	**Please give me a cheese sandwich.**
ham and cheese	**Please give me a ham and cheese sandwich**
roast beef	**Please give me a roast beef sandwich.**
chicken salad	**Please give me a chicken salad sandwich.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* C2 /**

Do you want cream for your coffee?

sugar	**Do you want sugar for your coffee?**
tea	**Do you want sugar for your tea?**
Would you like	**Would you like sugar for your tea?**
lemon	**Would you like lemon for your tea?**
Would you prefer	**Would you prefer lemon for your tea?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E1 /

Did you order some food?	**Yes, I did. I ordered some food.**
Are you ordering some food?	**Yes, I am. I'm ordering some food**
Have you ordered some food?	**Yes, I have. I've ordered some food.**
Are you going to order some food	**Yes, I am. I'm going to order some food.**

66. ORDERING FOOD / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could we have a table for four?
S2. There's a nice table right there by the window.
S1. May we also have the menu right away?
S2. I'll get the menu immediately.

Conversation B

***S1. W*ould you care for some roast beef?**
S2. No. I'll have sirloin steak.
S1. How do you like your steak?
S2. I'd prefer it medium rare.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to have soup?
S2. Yes. Creamed onion, please
S1. Mashed, boiled, or French-fried potatoes?
S2. I'll have the French-fried.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What vegetables would you like with your dinner?
S2. Carrots, please, and corn with cream sauce.
S1. What kind of dressing do you want on your salad-French?
S2. I believe I'll take Russian dressing tonight.

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to order a dessert?
S2. What kinds of pie do you have?
S1. Peach, lemon cream, and apple.
S2. I'd like lemon cream, please.

***Exercise* 1 / *Lines B1 and* C1 /**

Would you care for some soup?

broth	**Would you care for some broth?**
consomme	**Would you care for some consomme?**
potage	**Would you care for some potage?**
chowder	**Would you care for some chowder?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines C1, C2, E4 /

I'd like creamed onion soup, please.

mushroom	**I'd like mushroom soup, please.**

vegetable	**I'd like vegetable soup, please.**
potato	**I'd like potato soup, please.**
cream of tomato	**I'd like cream of tomato soup, please.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines C3, C4,* D4 /**

I believe I'll have mashed potatoes.

baked	**I believe I'll have baked potatoes.**
scalloped	**I believe I'll have scalloped potatoes.**
French-fried	**I believe I'll have French-fried potatoes.**
hashed brown	**I believe I'll have hashed brown potatoes**
sweet	**I believe I'll have sweet potatoes.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines C4,* D4 /**

I think I'll have pie for dessert.

cake	**I think I'll have cake for dessert.**
pudding	**I think I'll have pudding for dessert.**
cookies	**I think I'll have cookies for dessert.**
custard	**I think I'll have custard for dessert.**
ice cream	**I think I'll have ice cream for dessert.**

Exercises* / *Line E4 /

I'd like lemon cream pie, please.

apple.	**I'd like apple pie, please.**
peach	**I'd like peach pie, please.**
blueberry	**I'd like blueberry pie, please.**
orange meringue	**I'd like orange meringue pie, please.**
coconut custard	**I'd like coconut custard pie, please.**

67. HAVING DINNER AT A RESTAURENT/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What'll you have, sir?

S2. May I have a menu, please?
S1. A menu? Here you are, sir.
S2. Now, I'll need a few minutes to look it over.

Conversation B

S1. I'll have the sirloin steak listed here.
S2. How do you like your steak-well done?
S1. No. I'd prefer it medium rare.
S2. I'm sure you'll enjoy our steak.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you care for soup?
S2. Yes, I would. Vegetable soup, please.
S1. What would you like for your main course?
S2. I'm going to have beef stew for my main course.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Would you care for dessert after your main course?
S2. Possibly. What kind of pie do you have?
S1. Peach, banana cream, and blueberry chiffon.
S2. I think I'd like to try the banana cream.

Conversation E

S1. Coffee, tea, or milk?
S2. Coffee-with the meal, please.
S1. Do you want cream and sugar?
S2. No. I'll take my coffee black.

Exercise* 1/ *Line B1 /

I'll have the sirloin steak listed here.

pot roast	**I'll have the pot roast listed here.**
roast beef	**I'll have the roast beef listed here.**
barbecued beef	**I'll have the barbecued beef .listed here.**
filet mignon	**I'll have the filet mignon listed here.**
Swiss steak	**I'll have the Swiss steak listed here.**
lamb curry	**I'll have the lamb curry listed here.**
breaded veal cutlets	**I'll have the breaded veal cutlets listed here.**
veal patties	**I'll have the veal patties listed here.**
veal parmesan	**I'll have the veal parmesan listed here.**
broiled pork chops	**I'll have the broiled pork chops listed here**
stuffed pork chops	**I'll have the stuffed pork chops listed here**
baked spareribs	**I'll have the baked spareribs listed here**
barbecued spareribs	**I'll have the barbecued spareribs listed here.**
meat loaf	**I'll have the meat loaf listed here**
ham loaf	**I'll have the ham loaf listed here.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* C4 /**

I'm going to have beef stew.

pork sausages	**I'm going to have pork sausages.**
browned hash	**I'm going to have browned hash.**
meat croquettes	**I'm going to have meat croquettes.**
Swedish meatballs	**I'm going to have Swedish meatballs**
Hungarian goulash	**I'm going to have Hungarian goulash.**
Calf's liver	**I'm going to have calf's liver.**
broiled duckling	**I'm going to have broiled duckling**
fried chicken	**I'm going to have fried chicken.**
stewed chicken	**I'm going to have stewed chicken.**
roast turkey	**I'm going to have roast turkey**
broiled lobster	**I'm going to have broiled lobster.**
scalloped oysters	**I'm going to have scalloped oysters.**
steamed clams	**I'm going to have steamed clams.**

68. DINNER CONVERSATIONS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I hope you're hungry tonight.
S2. I'm sure I'll have a good appetite.
S1. There's a menu right beside you,
S2. Thanks. I See it.

Conversation B

S1. What do you usually have for dinner?
S2. Potatoes and some kind of meat.

S1. Do you ever have anything else?
S2. Oh, have other things-for example, fish, rice, and vegetables.

***Conversation* C**

S1. The fish is delicious in this restaurant, I hear.
S2. It's a popular dish in this country.
S1. But I always choose steak if possible.
S2. Well, I'm going to have fish.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you like vegetables.
S2. I like some but not all.
S1. What kind do you like?
S2. I like lettuce and radishes and a few others.

Conversation E

***S1. Do* .you always drink tea with your meals?**
S2. Not always, but usually.
S1. How do you like your tea?
S2. With sugar and lemon.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

I hope you're hungry tonight.

ready to eat	**I hope you're ready to eat tonight.**
have a good appetite	**I hope you have a good appetite tonight.**
feel like eating well	**I hope you feel like eating well tonight.**
order enough food	**I hope you order enough food tonight.**
something different	**I hope you order something different tonight.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line* C*1 /

The fish is delicious in this restaurant.

Wonderful	**The fish is wonderful in this restaurant**
The meat	**The meat is wonderful in this restaurant**
Always	**The meat is always wonderful in this restaurant**
Excellent	**The meat is always excellent in this restaurant.**
The chicken	**The chicken is always excellent in this restaurant.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* C2 /**

That's a popular dish in this country.

kind of food	**That's a popular kind of food in this country.**
famous	**That's a famous kind of food in this country.**
the United States	**That's a famous kind of food in the United States.**
kind of meal	**That's a famous kind of meal in the United States.**
well-known	**That's a well-known kind of meal in the United States.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line E1 /

Do *you* always drink tea with your meals?

coffee	**Do you always drink coffee with your meals?**
usually	**Do you usually drink coffee with your meals?**
at breakfast	**Do you usually drink coffee at breakfast?**
milk	**Do you usually drink milk at breakfast?**
generally	**Do you generally drink milk at breakfast?**

69. PERSONAL HEALTH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.You look very pale.
S2. I feel rather dizzy, and I have a headache.
S1. Maybe you're .catching a cold.
S2. You're probably right

***Conversation B*.**

S1.You went to the doctor today, didn't you?
S2. Yes. I go once a year for a checkup.
S1. What did he say?
S2. He said my health was good.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Have you put on weight recently?
S2. probably have.
S1. Maybe you don't get enough exercise.
S2. I really don't, but I'm careful about eating.

***Conversation* D**

S1. You certainly look very healthy to me.
S2. I've been feeling very well lately.
S1. Haven't you gotten a little heavier?
S2. Yes, I think I. have.

***Conversation* E**

S1. You certainly look happy about something.
S2. I've lost some weight.
S1. You look much better.
S2. I feel better too.

70. COMMON HEALTH PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I have a terrible headache today.
S2. Have you taken any aspirin for it?
S1. Yes. I'll get over it soon.
S2. Lying down for a few minutes might help it too.

Conversation B

S1. I've got a cold in my head.
S2. It's probably this terrible weather.
S1. It's giving everyone a cold.
S2. hope I don't catch one.

Conversation C

S1. What are you taking for your cold?
S2. Just the usual things-water and fruit juice.
S1. You'll be over it soon then.
S2. I really hope you're right.

Conversation D

S1. You look tired. Are you ill?
S2. I think I've caught a cold.
S1. How can tell?
S2. My throat is sore.

***Conversation* E**

S1. You don't look very well.
S2. I don't feel very well either.
S1. Why don't you rest for a few minutes?
S2. I think I will.

Exercise 1 / line A1 /

I have a terrible headache today.

Stomachache	**I have a terrible stomachache today.**
severe	**I have a severe stomachache today.**
backache	**I have a severe backache today.**
very bad	**I have a very bad backache today.**
earacle	**I have a very bad earache today.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

Lying down might help it too.

taking some medicine	**Taking some medicine might help it too.**
resting a while	**might help it too.**
going to bed	**Going to bed might help it too.**
drinking some tea	**Drinking some tea might help it too.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* C*1* /**

What are you doing for your cold?

toothache	**What are you doing for your toothache?**
upset stomach	**What are you doing for your upset stomach?**
rheumatism	**What are you doing for your rheumatism?**
sore throat	**What are you doing for your sore throat?**

***Exercise 4 / Line* D2 /**

I think I've caught a cold.

broken my finger	**I think I've broken my finger.**
scratched my arm	**I think I've scratched my arm.**
injured my knee	**I think I've injured my knee.**
hurt my shoulder	**I think I've hurt my shoulder.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D4 /**

My throat is sore.

Toes	**My toes are sore.**
leg	**My leg is sore.**
shoulders	**My shoulders are sore.**
wrist	**My wrist is sore.**
chest	**My chest is sore.**

71. AT THE DOCTOR'S OFFICE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I think I've got a fever.
S2. Do you feel very hot?
S1. Yes, and I've been sweating a lot.
S2. You'd better go to a doctor.

Conversation B

S1. I feel Quite sick, Doctor.
S2. Can you tell me about it?
S1. I've got a headache and stomach cramps.
S2. I'd better take your temperature.

Conversation C

S1. Is the cut on my hand dangerous?
S2. No, but there's a little infection.
S1. What can you do about an infection?
S2. I'll use an antibiotic, and it'll be gone by tomorrow.

Conversation D

S1. Have you ever had pneumonia?
S2. Yes. I had it about two years ago.
S1. Have you ever had measles?
S2. No. I've never had measles.

Conversation E

S1. Do I have anything serious, Doctor?
S2. Only a slight cold.
S1. Will it last very?
S2. No. It'll probably go away in a day or two.

Exercise / Line AI /

I think I've got a fever.

a rash	**I think I've got a rash.**
an allergy	**I think I've got an allergy.**
an infection	**I think I've got an infection.**
a blister	**I think I've got a blister.**
an inflammation	**I think I've got an inflammation.**
an abscess	**I think I've got an abscess.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* C3 /**

What can you do about an infection?

appendicitis	**What can you do about appendicitis?**
flu	**What can you do about flu?**
an abscess	**What can you do about an abscess?**
diarrhea	**What can you do about diarrhea?**
insomnia	**What can you do about insomnia?**
a sore throat	**What can you do about a sore throat?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* D 1 /**

Have you ever had pneumonia?

hay fever	**Have you ever had hay fever?**
asthma	**Have you ever had asthma?**
rheumatism	**Have you ever had rheumatism?**
sinus trouble	**Have you ever had sinus trouble?**
ulcers	**Have you ever had ulcers?**
low blood pressure	**Have you ever had low blood pressure?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D4 /**

I've never had measles.

mumps	**I've never had mumps**
scarlet fever	**I've never had scarlet fever.**
chicken pox	**I've never had chicken pox.**
smallpox	**I've never had small pox.**
tuberculosis	**I've never had tuberculosis.**
malaria	**I've never had malaria.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E4 /

It'll probably go away in a day or two.

an hour or two from now	**It'll probably go away an hour or two from now.**
in a matter of minutes	**It'll probably go away in a matter of minutes.**
in a short time	**It'll probably go away in a short time.**
within a few hours	**It'll probably go away within a few hours.**
before you get home	**It'll probably go away before you get home.**

72. QUITTING AND FINDING JOBS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How did you find your new job?
S2. I went to an employment agency.
S1. Was it worth it to do it that way?
S2. They were able to get me something good right away.

Conversation B

S1. I think I'm going to change jobs.
S2. What do you want to do that for?
S1. There's not enough chance to get ahead here.
S2. But don't forget you're getting a pretty, good salary.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did it take you long to apply for a job?
S2. Too long in my opinion.
S1 What did you have to do?
S2. Speak to people, fill out forms, and wait.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Is John going to quit his job next month?
S2. No. He's going to quit next January.
S1. Are his parents going to support him then?
S2. No. He isn't going to ask them for any money.

***Conversation* E**

S1. I'd like to speak to the personnel manager, please.
S2. May I ask what it's about?
S1. I'd like to see him about the position advertised in today's newspaper.
S2. Certainly. Just have a seat over there for a moment.

73. OFFICE DETAILS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How long has that man been over there at the desk?
S2. About a minute or two, I think.
S1. Can you find out .what he wants?
S2. I'll ask him right away.

Conversation B

S1. Has the secretary the letter yet?
S2. Yes. She's already sent them the letter.
S1. She still hasn't sent a copy of the letter to me.
S2. I forgot to tell you she gave me your copy.

Conversation C

S1. To whom did you send the invoice?
S2. I sent it the General Sales Company.
S1. Specifically, whom did you address it to?
S2. I addressed it to the purchasing agent.

Conversation D

S1. Have you finished the report on current inventory yet?
S2. No, I haven't, but I certainly wish I had.
S1. Why haven't you finished it?
S2. I didn't have enough time to spend on it yesterday.

Conversation E

S1. I’m having some trouble with this sales-volume report.
S2. You didn't have any trouble with your report last week.
S1. Well, there are some difficult parts in this one.
S2. I'm sorry, but I don't have any suggestions.

74. OFFICE CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did you spend all your time on today?
S2. Checking the annual report.
S1. Was everything in it right?
S2. No. I discovered several errors.

Conversation B

S1. How is the mail handled?
S2. The executive secretary opens it and sorts it out.
S1. Is any record kept of incoming mail?
S2. Yes.-Everything is entered on the mail register.

Conversation C

S1. Do you receive many inquiries about your product?
S2. Yes. There are a good number every day,
S1. You can't answer all of them personally~ can you?
S2. No. Unless they're obviously important, we send back a form

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like to dictate a letter to the A.B.C. Company.
S2. Just a moment please, while I get my shorthand notebook.
S1. Would you also bring me the previous correspondence with them?
S2. I've already put the file on your desk.

Conversation E

S1. I've been working very hard recently.
S2. How come you've been working so hard?
S1 I've been trying to impress my boss.
S2. I hope you haven't in vain.

75. CONVERSATIONS ABOUT SCHOOL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Does Dr. Taylor teach every day?
S2. No. Only Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.
S1. Is Dr. Taylor teaching right now?
S2. No, he isn't. He's working in his office.

Conversation B

S1. Why doesn't John practice anymore?
S2. He doesn't have much free time.
S1. He used to have a lot of free time, didn't he?
S2. Yes, he did, but now he's going to school every night.

Conversation B

S1. What are you studying this semester?
S2. History, English, and math.
S1. Which do you like best?
S2. Hist5o2rl.y really interests me the most.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Not all students do their lessons carefully.
S2. I do mine carefully.
S1. But your brother often does his at the last moment.
S2. And my sister always does hers a day or two late.

Conversation E

S1. How come you aren't at school today?
S2. There aren't any classes this week.
S1. Well, how come there aren't any classes?
S2. This is our spring vacation.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

Does Dr. Taylor teach every day?	**He teaches on Monday.**
Does Dr. Taylor write every day?	**He writes on Tuesday.**
Does Dr. Taylor drive every day?	**He drives on Wednesday.**
Does Dr. Taylor watch every day?	**He watches on Thursday.**
Does Dr. Taylor listen every day?	**He listens on Friday.**
Does Dr. Taylor practice every day?	**He practices on Saturday.**
Does Dr. Taylor rest every day?	**He rests on Sunday.**

Exercise* 2 *I Lines A1 and A3 I

Does he teach every day?	**Is he teaching right now?**
Do they study every day?	**Are they studying right now?**

Do you practice every day?	**Are you practicing right now?**
Does she drive every day?	**Is she driving right now?**
Do they watch every day?	**Are they watching right now?**
Does he listen every day?	**Is he listening right now?**
Do you rest every day?	**Are you resting right now?**

Exercise 3 / Lines A1 and A3 /

They listen every day.	**Do they listen every day?**
He's studying right now.	**Is he studying right now?**
She walks every day.	**Does she walk every day?**
I'm practicing right now.	**Are you practicing right now?**
They drive every day.	**Do they drive every day?**
He's teaching right now.	**Is he teaching right now?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B1 /

John doesn't practice anymore.	**Why doesn't John practice anymore?**
We don't practice anymore.	**Why don't you practice anymore?**
They don't practice anymore.	**Why don't they practice anymore?**
Mary doesn't practice anymore.	**Why doesn’t Mary practice any more?**
I don't practice anymore.	**Why don't you practice anymore?**
The boys don't practice any more	**Why don't the boys practice anymore?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B2 /

He doesn't have much time.	**He has a lot of time.**
He doesn't have many friends.	**He has a lot of friends.**
He doesn't have much experience.	**He has a lot of experience**
He doesn't have many books.	**He has a lot of books.**
He doesn't have much information.	**He has a lot of books.**
He doesn't have much training.	**He has a lot of information.**
He doesn’t have much money.	**He has a lot of training.**
He has a lot of time.	**He has a lot of money.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B3 /

He had a lot of time.	**He had lots of time.**
He had a lot of friends.	**He had lots of friends.**
He had a lot of experience.	**He had lots of experience.**
He had a lot of books.	**He had lots of books.**
He had a lot of information.	**He had lots of Information.**
He had a lot of training.	**He had lots of training.**
He had a lot of money.	**He had lots of money.**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B3 /

He used to have a lot of free time.

practice every day	**He used to practice every day.**
study almost every night	**He used to study almost every night**
read a lot of books	**He used to read a lot of books.**
learn everything by hear	**He used to learn everything by heart**

be a good student **He used to be a good student.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B3 /

He used to have a lot or free time. **But he doesn't any more.**
They used to practice every day. **But they don't any more.**
She used to study almost every night. **But she doesn't any more.**
I used to read a lot of books. **But I don't any more.**
You used to learn everything by heart. **But you don't any more.**
He used to work in the evening. **But he doesn't any more.**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* B4 /**

He's going to school every night.

We **We're going to school every night.**
They **They're going to school every night.**
I **I'm going to school *every* night.**
She **She's going to school *every* night.**
Tom and I **Tom and I are going to school every night.**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* C 1 /**

I'm studying English this semester. **What are you studying this semester?**
She's studying geography this semester. **What's she studying this semester?**
They're studying history this semester. **What are they studying this semester?**
We're studying math this semester. **What are you studying this semester?**
He's studying chemistry this semester. **What's he studying this semester?**
Tom and I are studying physics this semester. **What are Tom and you studying this semester?**

***Exercise* 11 / *Line* C4 /**

History really interests me the most.

Chemistry **Chemistry really interests me the most.**
English **English really interests me the most.**
Math **Math really interests me the most.**
Geography **Geography really interests me the most.**
Physics **Physics really interests me the most.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D1 /**

Not all students do their lessons carefully.

correctly **Not all students do their lessons correctly.**
practice **Not all students practice their lessons correctly.**
thoroughly **Not all students practice their lessons thoroughly**
go over **Not all students go over their lessons thoroughly.**
promptly **Not all students go over their lessons promptly.**

Exercise* 13 / *Line E1 /

How come you aren't at school today? **Why aren't you at school today?**
How come he isn't at school today? **Why isn't he at school today?**
How come they aren't at school today? **Why aren't they at school today?**

How come she isn't at school tad ay? Why isn't she at school today?
How come Tom and you aren't at school today ? Why aren't Tom and you at school today?
How come the girls aren't at school today? Why aren't the girls at school today?

Exercise* 14 / *Line E2 /

There aren't any classes this week.

meetings	**There aren't any meetings this week.**
lectures	**There aren't any lectures this week.**
concerts	**There aren't any concerts this week.**
Discussions	**There aren't any discussions this week.**
examinations	**There aren't any examinations this week.**

Exercise* 15/ *Line E2 /

There aren't any classes this week.

meetings	**There aren't any meetings this week.**
today or tomorrow	**There aren't any meetings today or tomorrow.**
lectures	**There aren't any lectures today or tomorrow.**
during our vacation	**There ·aren't any lectures during our vacation.**
examinations	**There aren't any examinations during our vacation.**

76. GOING TO SCHOOL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why are you so worried?
S2. My sister doesn't study hard enough.
S1. Isn't she interested in school?
S2. School interests her, but homework doesn't.

Conversation B

S1. I'm worried about-my school work.
S2. What's the problem?
S1. I think I'm going to fail the examinations.
S2. Maybe you won't if you have more confidence.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What are you going to study at the University?
S2. Probably history and English.
S1. You'll have to work hard.
S2. Yes. I've heard that it's a difficult school.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What did you apply for?
S2. I applied for a scholarship.
S1. What school did you apply to?
S2. I applied to Eastern State College.

***Conversation* E**

S1. I understand the boys applications were turned down.
S2. Who turned them down?
S1. I think the college admissions committee.
S2. I'd advise them to try again.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

My sister doesn't study hard enough.

carefully	**My sister doesn't study carefully enough.**
read	**My sister doesn't read carefully enough.**
thoroughly	**My sister doesn't read thoroughly enough.**
Practice	**My sister doesn't practice thoroughly enough.**
long enough	**My sister doesn't practice long enough.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Isn't she interested in that?	**She's interested in that, isn't she?**
Isn't she satisfied with that?	**She's satisfied with that, isn't she?**
Isn't she annoyed over that?	**She's annoyed over that, isn't she?**
Isn't she accustomed to that?	**She's accustomed to that, isn't she?**
Isn't she adjusted to that?	**She's adjusted to that, isn't she?**
Isn't she concerned about that?	**She's concerned about that, isn't she?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* A3 /**

Isn't she interested in school?

tired of	**Isn't she tired of school?**
her work	**Isn't she tired of her work?**
satisfied with	**Isn't she satisfied with her work?**
annoyed over	**Isn't she annoyed over her work?**
all the changes	**Isn't she annoyed over all the changes?**
accustomed to	**Isn't she accustomed to all the changes?**
worried about	**Isn't she worried about all the changes?**
getting a job	**Isn't she worried about getting a job?**
concerned about	**Isn't she concerned about getting a job?**
excited about	**Isn't she excited about getting a job?**
studying English	**Isn't she excited about studying English?**
involved in	**Isn't she involved in studying English?**
adjusted to	**Isn't she adjusted to studying English?**
our new schedule	**Isn't she adjusted to our new schedule?**
disappointed in	**Isn't she disappointed in our new schedule?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D 1 /**

What did you apply for?

complain about	**What did you complain about?**
comment on	**What did you comment on?**
listen to	**What did you listen to?**
succeed in	**What did you succeed in?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D 1 /**

Did you apply for a scholarship?	**What did you apply for?**
Did you complain about the noise?	**What did you complain about?**
Did you comment on the suggestion?	**What did you comment on?**
Did you listen to that program?	**What did you listen to?**
Did you succeed in your work?	**What did you succeed in?**

Exercise* 6 / *Lines E1 and E2 /

They were turned down.	**Who turned them down?**
They were looked over.	**Who looked them over?**
They were thrown away.	**Who threw them away?**
They were taken back.	**Who took them back?**
They were used up.	**Who used them up?**
They were given away.	**Who gave them away?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line E4 /

I'd advise them to try again.

ask	**I'd ask them to try again.**
urge	**I'd urge them to try again.**
Force	**I'd force them to try again.**
Instruct	**I'd instruct them to try again.**
Persuade	**I'd persuade them to try again.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line E4 /

They advised him to go.	**He was advised to go.**
They asked him to go.	**He was asked to go.**
They urged him to go.	**He was urged to go.**
They forced him to go.	**He was forced to go.**
They instructed him to go.	**He was instructed to go.**
They persuaded him to go.	**He was persuaded to go.**

77. THE ENGLISH CLASS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. English is the hardest language in the world.
S2. Why do you say that?
S1. I can't understand it or speak it.
S2. But this is only your first day in the English class!

Conversation B

S1. How do you pronounce this word in English?
S2. It's pronounced "sign.
S1. What's a sign"?
S2. It's "public notice."

***Conversation* C**

S1. What do you call this thing in English?
S2. It's a "hammer."
S1 What's the word for the things you hit with a hammer?
S2. "Nails" You pound nails into wood with a hammer.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do you ask for help politely?
S2. You say, "Could you help me, please?"
S1. Is it all right to say, "Could you please help me?"
S2. Yes. You can say it that way too.

Conversation E

S1. Can you understand spoken English very well?
S2. Can understand you, but most people speak too fast.
S1. How about speaking? Can you carryon a conversation?
S2. I'm really not very fluent yet.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

English is hard.	**It's the hardest language. in the world.**
English is difficult.	**It's the most difficult language in the world.**
English is easy.	**It's the simplest language in the world.**
English is complicated.	**It's' the most complicated language in the world.**
English is simple.	**It's the easiest language in the world.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

This is your first day in the class.

week	**This is your first week in the class.**
the office	**This is your first week in the office.**
third	**This is your third week in the office.**
month	**This is your third month in the office.**
factory	**This is your third month in the factory.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines* D2 *and* D3 /**

Could you help me, please?	**Could you please help me?**
Could you come here, please?	**Could you please come here?**
Could you wait there, please?	**Could you please wait there?**
Could you correct this, please?	**Could you please correct this?**
Could you translate it, please?	**Could you please translate it?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D3 /**

Is it all right to say that?

Correct	**Is it correct to say that?**
incorrect	**Is it incorrect to say that?**
proper	**Is it proper to say that?**
improper	**Is it improper to say that?**
polite	**Is it polite to say that?**
impolite	**Is it impolite to say that?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line D*3 /**

Can you speak?	**How about speaking?**
Can you write?	**How about writing?**
Can you read?	**How about reading?**
Can you follow it?	**How about following it?**
Can you pronounce it?	**How about pronouncing it?**

78. LEARNING AND USING ENGLISH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you want to learn English?
S2. Yes, I do-very much.
S1. Do you want English?
S2. Because it'll5b2.e useful in the future.

Conversation B

S1. I want to learn English.
S2. Then you must speak it.
S1. Why must I speak it?
S2. Because you want to learn it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you understand the sentence?
S2. I don't understand it completely.
S1. All right, the5n1. I'll repeat it.
S2. Thank you v5e2r.y much this?

Conversation D

S1. Did you understand what I said?
S2. No, didn't. Would say it again?
S1. Of course. I'll say it again slowly.
S2. That will help a lot.

Conversation E

S1. Please write down John's address.
S2. All right, but would you please speak very slowly?
S1. Yes. Do you me to spell each word too?
S2. Not the numbers-only the names.

79. LANGUAGE LEARNING PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. What are you studying right now?
S2. I'm doing my English assignment.
S1 What's the hardest thing about English?
S2. Pronunciation is the hardest thing for me.

Conversation B

S1. Can Peter understand French as well as English?
S2. Yes, and he can speak it well too.
S1. I can't speak a word of any language except my own.
S2. Neither can I.

Conversation C

S1. That man is able to speak three or four languages.
S2. Yes, and he can speck them well, I understand
S1. Could you learn three or four languages?
S2. I could if I had a hundred years to do it.

Conversation D

S1. I'm feeling very discouraged.
S2. What's the matter?
S1. When people talk to me, they talk too fast.
S2. You'll have to listen faster then.

Conversation E

S1. Learning languages is difficult.
S2. I wish there were only one language in the world.
S1. Then we'd have to learn it.
S2. That's the trouble, isn't it?

80. DRIVING A CAR / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why don't we park the car there?
S2. That's a no-parking zone.
S1. There are parking meters in the next block.
S2. Let's see if we can find a space there then.

Conversation B

S1. You'd better turn left at the next corner.
S2. I can't-no left turn.
S1. Then we'll have to drive around the block.
S2. It looks like it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. You're driving too fast.
S2. What's the speed limit?
S1. It's fifty miles per hour.
S2. Then, I'm under the limit.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do you like your new car?
S2. Great! I really like the automatic shift.
S1. Does it have power steering?
S2. Yes, and it's got power brakes too.

Conversation E

S1. You drive very well.
S2. Thanks. I always try to be cautious.
S1. You are, but best of all, you drive very smoothly.
S2. Steady pressure on the accelerator and brakes is imp cant

81. CAR REPAIR / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. My car won't start.
S2. Press the starter button.
S1. Nothing happens when I press the starter.
S2. Then your battery is dead.

Conversation B

S1. Could you help me for a moment, please?
S2. What can I do for you?
S1. Could you look over my radiator?
S2. I'll check it after I help that other man.

Conversation C

S1. What's your brother doing?
S2. He's fixing the motor of the car
S1. Does he need any help?
S2. I don't think so.

Conversation D

S1. Could you look over my car?
S2. What's the matter?
S1. Well, don't know.
S2. I can look at it now if you can wait.

Conversation E

S1. Could you change my right tire, please? It's flat.
S2. Certainly. Do you want us to fix it too?
S1. Would you please?
S2. We'll have it ready for you tomorrow morning.

82. GENERAL CONVERSATION (1)

Conversation A

S1. Where were you born?
S2. I was born here.
S1. Have you lived here all your life?
S2. Yes, I have.

Conversation B

S1. Whom will you get the money from?
S2. We'll get it from our parents.
S1. What will you spend the money on?
S2. We'll spend it on books and supplies.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you want me to wait for you?
S2. No. I can take care of everything myself.
S1. Can't we get together a little later then?
S2. Sure. I'll be through in about half an hour.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What took you so long?
S2. I had a lot of things to do.
S1. We'd better hurry, or we'll be late.
S2. I think you're right.

Conversation E

S1. I'm starting my vacation next week.
S2. You ought to see as much as you can.
S1. That's what I think too.
S2. You really ought to travel by bus then.

83. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS (2)

Conversation A

S1. Where did you get that book?
S2. From the library in my neighborhood.
S1. Is it a good library?
S2. Come with me and see for yourself.

Conversation B

S1. We're going to be 1ate for the meeting.
S2. When does it start?
S1. It starts in exactly fifteen minutes.
S2. I think we'll be on time.

***Conversation* C**

S1. 50mething is bothering me.
S2. What's bothering you?
S1. I think I left the lights on in my apartment.
S2. Well, there's nothing you can do about it now.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What does that sign say?
S2. It says "No Smoking."
S1. What are you doing?
S2. I'm putting out my cigarette.

Conversation E

S1. I'm sorry I'm late for our appointment.
S2. What happened?
S1. The traffic was very heavy.
S2. It's always bad at this time of the day.

84. GENERAL CONVERSATION (3)

Conversation A

S1. Where' Mrs. King?
S2. She's in the other office right now.
S1. Do you expect her back soon?
S2. Yes, I do. In just a few minutes.

Conversation B

S1. Someone wants to talk to you on the telephone.
S2. Who is it? Do you know?
S1. I'm sorry, but I forgot to ask.
S2. It's *OK.* I think I know who it is.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Will there be a meeting here next week?
S2. No, but there'll be one on the twentieth.
S1. Will there be many people at the meeting?
S2. According to John, there will.

***Conversation* D**

S1. "Thy do you have to go to Hawaii?
S2. I'm going for business reasons.
S1. How will you travel, by boat or by plane?
S2. 1ost likely, I'll go by plane.

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to go to the store with us?
S2. I'd like to, but I've got to do some work.
S1. Why don't you do it later?
S2. I wish I could, but I can't.

86. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'd like to speak to Mr. Smith.
S2. Sorry. He isn't in now.
S1. Can I leave a message for him?
S2. Yes. 1'11 take the message.

Conversation B

S1. Fred has to stay home, but I don't.
S2. I don't either.
S1. Would you like to with John and me?
S2. Yes, I certainly would.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Where were you last Tuesday and Wednesday?
S2. I was out of town.
S1. Why did you leave town so suddenly?
S2. A friend was sick and needed help.

***Conversation* D**

S1. That's a good-looking suit you have on.
S2. Thank you for the compliment.
S1. When did you get it?
S2. About two or three weeks ago.

Conversation E

S1. John hasn't called us yet.
S2. I thought he called you yesterday.
S1. No. We didn't hear from him at all.
S2. I wonder what happened?

87. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I'm worried about something.
S1. What's wrong?
S2. I think I've lost my billfold.

Conversation B

S1. Are you coming to the meeting tomorrow?
S2. I'm coming.
S1. Aren't you worried about driving in this weather?
S2. Of course not.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How do you start this machine? I
S2. You just push the red button.
S1. Where's the button?
S2. It's right in front of you.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Well, it's cool and cloudy again today.
S2. I wish that the sun were out.
S1. It looks to me as if it's going to rain.
52. The farmers would like it if it did.

Conversation E

S1. If you had a lot of money, what would you buy?
S2 .I 1'd buy a big boat.
S1. What would you do with it?
S2. I'd take all my friends around the world.

88. SIMPLE QUESTIONS AND NEGATIVES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Fred practices very hard, I notice.
S2. Does he practice every day?
S1. Yes, he does.
S2. I don't practice that much.

Conversation B

S1. I'm having some trouble with my report.
S2. Are you having trouble with the last part?
S1. Yes, I am.
S2. Well, everyone is having trouble with that part.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We saw the new flower show.
S2. Did you see it on the opening day?
S1. Yes, we did.
S2. We didn't see it until the following day.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you write letters to all your friends?
S2. No, but I wrote letters to some of them.
S1. Are you going to write to everyone?
S2. Well, I'm going to write to as many as possible.

Conversation E

S1. Mary has only worn her new coat twice.
S2. Has she worn her new spring suit yet?
S1. Yes, she has. 5everal times, in fact.
S2. I know she hasn't worn her new shoes yet.

Exercise 1

1.	**John studies.**	**Does John study?**
	every day	**Does John study every day?**
	(?)	**Yes, he does. He studies every day.**
2.	**Fred doesn't study.**	**Doesn’t Fred Study?**
	every day	**Doesn’t Fred study every day?**
	(?)	**No, he doesn’t. He doesn’t study every day.**
3.	**The girl is studying.**	**Is the girl studying?**
	right now	**Is the girl studying right now?**
	(?)	**Yes, she is. She’s studying right now.**
4.	**They aren't studying.**	**Aren’t they studying?**
	right now	**Aren’t they studying right now?**

	(?)	No, they aren't. They aren't studying right now.
5.	Mary studied.	Did Mary study?
	Yesterday	Did Mary study yesterday?
	(?)	Yes, she did. She studied yesterday.
6.	Fred didn't study.	Didn't Fred study?
	yesterday '	Didn't Fred study yesterday?
	(?)	No, he didn't. study yesterday.
7.	I'm going to study.	Are you going to study?
	Tomorrow	Are you going to study tomorrow?
	(?)	Yes, I am. I'm going to study tomorrow.
8.	He isn't going to study.	Isn't he going to study?
	tomorrow	isn't he going to study tomorrow?
	(?)	No, he isn't. he is not going to study tomorrow.
9.	The girl will study.	Will the girl study?
	Tomorrow	Will the girl study tomorrow?
	(?)	Yes, she will. She'll study tomorrow.
10.	The men won't study.	Won't the men study?
	Tomorrow	Won't the men study tomorrow?
	(?)	No, they won't. They won't study tomorrow.
11.	John has studied.	Has John studied?
	since June	Has John studied since June?
	(?)	Yes, he has. He's studied since June.
12.	Fred hasn't studied.	Hasn't Fred studied?
	since June	Hasn't Fred studied since June?
	(?)	No, he hasn't. He hasn't studied since June.

Exercise 2

1.	He isn't in his office now.	Isn't he in his office now
	(?)	No, he isn't He isn't in his office now
2.	He works very efficiently.	Does he work very efficiently?
	(?.)	Yes, he does. He works very efficiently?
3.	He hasn't tried that	Hasn't he tried that method?
	method.	No, he hasn't. He hasn't tried that method
	(?)	
4.	He wore a new suit yesterday	Did he wear a new suit yesterday?
	(?)	Yes, he did. He work a new suit yesterday.
5.	He couldn't be with them.	Couldn't he be with them?
	(?)	No, he couldn't. He couldn't be with them.
6.	He won't have enough time.	Won't he have enough time?
	(?)	No, he won't. He won't have enough time.
7.	He found the correct answer.	Did he find the correct answer? Yes, he.
	(?)	did. He found the correct answer
8.	He's forgotten their	Has he forgotten their names?
	names	Yes, he has. He's forgotten their names.
	(?)	their names.
9.	He wasn't working on	Wasn't he working on that?
	that.	No, he wasn't.
	(?)	He wan't working on that.
10.	He must rely on his	Must he rely on his friends?
	friends.	Yes, he must. He must rely on
	(?)	his friends.
11.	He has to explain every	Does he have to explain every thing?
	today.	
	(?)	Yes, he does. He has to explain every thing
12.	He didn't drive to work	Didn't the drive to work today?

	today (?)	No, he didn't. He didn't drive to work today. to work today.
13.	He does all his work promptly. (?)	Shouldn't he have waited? No, he shouldn't have. He shouldn't have waited.
14.	He does all his work promptly. (?)	Does he do all his work Promptly? Yes, he does. He does all his work promptly.
15.	He'll meet the men there. (?)	Will he meet the men there? Yes, he will. He'll meet the men there. Men there.
16.	He used to enjoy baseball. (?)	Did he use to enjoy baseball? Yes, he did. He used to enjoy baseball.

89. SHORT ANSWER (1) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Don't you work every Saturday morning?
S2. No, we don't. Just on occasion.
S1. Did you work last Saturday morning?
S2. No, we didn't

Conversation B

S1. Didn't those tourists go to the park yesterday?
S2. Yes, they did.
S1. Did they to with you and John?
S2. No, they didn't but we saw them there.

Conversation C

S1. Are you going to your class now?
S2. No. I'm not, but I'll be leaving shortly.
S1. Do you go to school every afternoon?
S2. No, I don't. Only Tuesday and Thursday afternoons.

Conversation D

S1. Have you ever been to the Central Zoo?
S2. No, I never have.
S1. Would you care to go there with me tomorrow?
S2. Yes, I certainly would.

Conversation E

S1. Shouldn't you answer their letter quite soon?
S2. Ye, I really should.
S1. Don't you have to send them some money too?
S2. No, I don't. Not in this next letter.

90. SHORT ANSWERS (2) / CONVERSATION

Conversation A

S1. Are you going to attend the reception?
S2. Yes, I am.
S1. Are you going to stay very late?
S2. No, I'm not.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Are there many rooms in their apartment'?
S2. Yes, there are. About six, I think
S1. Is there much light in the apartment?
S2. No, there isn't, because there are very few Windows.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are You reading that magazine?
S2. Yes, I am. I'm reading the book review.
S1. Are You using your dictionary?
S2. No, I'm not, but I'm doing quite well.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Has John spoken to you yet?
S2. Yes, he has, and he's spoken to Mrs. White too.
S1. Did he speak to you yesterday'?
S2. Yes, he did. Around four o'clock.

Conversation E

S1. Will Mary be at the party?
S2. Yes, she will, but she'll be a little late.
S1. Will she be with her weekend guests?
S2. No, she won't.

E1xercise 1

1.	**Does he practice?**	**Yes, he does.**
2.	**Will he practice?**	**Yes, he will.**
3.	**Can he practice?**	**Yes, he, can.**
4.	**What does he do?**	**He practice.**
5.	**What can he do?**	**He'll practice.**
6.	**What can he do?**	**He can practice.**
7.	**should they do?**	**Yes, they should.**
8.	**Have they read?**	**Yes, they have.**
9.	**Are they reading?**	**Yes, they are.**
10.	**What should they do?**	**They should read.**
11.	**What have they done?**	**They've read.**
12.	**What are they doing?**	**They're reading.**
13.	**Did you copy them?**	**Yes, I did.**

14.	**Must you copy them?**	**Yes, I must**
15.	**Have you copied them?**	**Yes, I Have**
16.	**What did you do?**	**I copied them.**
17.	**What must you do?**	**I must copy them.**
18.	**What have you done?**	**I've copied them.**
19.	**Isn't she going to go home?**	**Yes, she is.**
20.	**Wasn't she going home?**	**Yes, she was**
21.	**Hadn't she better go home?**	**Yes, she'd better.**
22.	**What's she going to do?**	**She's going to go home.**
23.	**What was she doing?**	**She was going home.**
24.	**What had she better do?**	**She'd better go home.**
25.	**Shouldn't he speak English?**	**Yes, he should.**
26.	**Didn't he have to speak English?**	**Yes, he did.**
27.	**Couldn't he speak English?**	**Yes, he could.**
28.	**What should he do?**	**He should speak English.**
29.	**What did he have to do?**	**He had to speak English.**
30.	**What could he do?**	**He could speak English.**

91. INTERROGATIVE WORDS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Is that Mr. Brown's office?
S2. Yes, it is.
S1. Whose office is this?
S2. This office is Mr. Green's.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Where's there a bus stop?
S2. I'm sorry. I didn't hear you.
S1. Is there a bus stop at the next corner?
S2. No, but there's a bus stop two blocks from here.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did the Italian students arrive here during the summer?
S2. No. They arrived here just a month ago.
S1. How long ago did the Greek students arrive?
S2. They arrived exactly two months ago.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you paint your garage on Saturday?
S2. Yes. I painted the whole garage in three hours.
S1. What color did you paint it?
S2. I finally decided to paint it blue.

C*onversation E*

S1. Is Tom's dictionary around here anyplace?
S2. Yes. Tom's dictionary is over there on the table.
S1. Which one is Tom's-the red one or the blue one?
S2. The red one is his.

Exercise 1

1.	**They're studying.**	**What are they studying?**
	(??)	**They're studying their lessons.**
2.	**She'll study.**	**What will she study?**
	(??)	**She'll study her lesson.**
3.	**I studied.**	**What did you study?**
	(??)	**I studied my lessons.**
4.	**He's studying.**	**What did you study?**
	(??)	**He's studying his lesson.**
5.	**They've studied.**	**What have they studied?**
	(??)	**They've studied their lessons.**
6.	**I'm going to study.**	**What are you going to study?**
	(?)	

7.	**She can study.**	**What can she study?**
	(??)	**She can study her lessons.**
8.	**He studies.**	**What does he study?**
	(??)	**He studies his lessons.**
9.	**They must study.**	**What must they study?**
	(??)	**They must study their lessons.**
10.	**I should study.**	**What should you study?**
	(??)	**I should study my lessons.**
11.	**They were studying.**	**What were they studying?**
	(??)	**They were studying their lessons.**
12.	**He used to study.**	**What did he use to study?**
	(??)	**He used to study his lessons.**
13.	**She's supposed to study.**	**What's she supposed to study?**
	(??)	**She's supposed to study her lessons.**
14.	**They'll study.**	**What will they study?**
	(??)	**They'll study their lessons.**
15.	**I'd better study.**	**What had you better study?**
	(??)	**I'd better study my lessons.**
16.	**They have to study.**	**What do they have to study?**
	(??)	**They have to study their lessons.**
17.	**He's been studying.**	**What's he been studying?**
	(??)	**He's been studying his lessons.**
18.	**We had to study.**	**What did you have to study?**
	(??)	**We had to study our lessons.**

Exercise 2

1.	**I'll write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where will you write?**
		I'll write at home
2.	**I wrote my English lesson.**	
	(??)	**What did you write?**
		I wrote my English lesson
3.	**I must write for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why must you write?**
		I must write for extra practice
4.	**I should write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When should you write?**
		I should write in the evening.
5.	**I've written to Mr. Brown.**	
	(??)	**Whom have you written to?**
		I've written to Mr. Brown.
6.	**I write for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why do you write?**
		I write for extra practice.
7.	**I'm going to write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where are you going to write?**
		I'm going to write at home.
8.	**I used to write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When did you use to write?**
		I used to write in the evening.
9.	**I'm writing for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why are you writing?**
		I'm writing for extra practice.
10.	**I have to write to Mr. Brown**	
	(??)	**Whom do you have to write to?**
		I have to write to Mr. Brown.
11.	**I was writing my English lesson**	
	(??).	**What were you writing?**
		I was writing my English lesson.
12.	**I wrote for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why did you write?**
		I wrote for extra practice.
13.	**I an write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where can you write?**
		I can write at home.
14.	**I plan to write to Mr.**	
	(??)	**Whom do you plan to write to?**
		I plan to write to Mr. Brown.
15.	**I'm writing for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why are you writing?**
		I'm writing for extra practice.
16.	**I write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When do you write?**
		I write in the evening.
17.	**I've written my English lesson.**	
	(??)	**What have you written?**
		I've written my English lesson.
18.	**I had to write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where did you have to write?**
		I had to write at home.

92. INTERROGATIVE WORDS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. We should complain about the service in this store.
S2. Should we to one of clerks?
S1. I don't think so.
S2. Whom should we complain to then?

Conversation B

S1. Have you chosen furniture for your apartment yet?
S2. No, we haven't.
S1. Why haven't you chosen any yet?
S2. Frankly, we just haven't had enough time.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Does Mary have to go?
S2. Yes, she does. She has to go to the airport.
S1. How soon does she have to go?
S2. I'm not sure just how soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you prefer this picture or that one?
S2. Of those two, I think I prefer the bottom one.
S1. Which one of the other two do you prefer?
S2. I really can't decide.

Conversation E

S1. I couldn't finish all the work yesterday.
S2. How come you couldn't finish it?
S1. Because I got started too late.
S2. Why don't you get started earlier next time?

Exercise 1

1. What can he do?	**He can write.**
2. What should he do?	**He should write.**
3. What does he do?	**He writes.**
4. What will he do?	**He'll write.**
5. What's he doing?	**He's writing.**
6. What must he do?	**He must write.**
7. What's he done?	**He's written.**
8. What did he do?	**He wrote.**
9. What was he doing?	**He was writing.**
10. What had he better do?	**He'd better write.**
11. What's he going to do?	**He's going to write.**
12. What does he plan to do?	**He plans to write.**

13. What could he do? **He could write.**
14. What did he have to do? **He had to write.**
15. What should he have done? **He should have written.**
16. What did he use to do? **He used to write.**

Exercise 2

1. They'll write something. **What will they write?**
2. They were writing something. **What were they writing?**
3. They write something. **What do they write?**
4. They've written something. **What have they written?**
5. They're going to write something. **What are they going to write?**
6. They should write something. **What should they write?**
7. They can write something. **What can they write?**
8. They wrote something. **What did they write?**
9. They must write something. **What must they write?**
10. They're writing something. **What are they writing?**
11. They plan to write something. **What do they plan to write?**
12. They used to write something. **What did they use to write?**
13. They could have written something. **What could they have written?**
14. They'd better write something **What had they better write?**

Exercise 3

1. He can write **Where?** **Where can he write?**
At home **He can write at home**
2. He should write. **How much?** **How much should he write?**
Two pages **He should write tow pages.**
3. He writes. **When?** **When does he write?**
In the morning **He writes in the morning.**
4. He'll write. **What?** **What will he write?**
A short report **He'll write a short report.**
5. He's writing. **To whom?** **To whom is he writing?**
Mr. Brown **He's writing to Mr. Brown.**
6. He must write. **Why?** **Why must he write?**
To apply for a **He must he write?**
7. He's written. **How often?** **How often has he written?**
Every six month **He's written every six months.**
8. He wrote. **Which one?** **Which one did he write?**
The long one **He wrote the long one.**
9. He was writing. **What for?** **What was he writing for?**
Because he had to **He was writing because he had to**
10. He'd better write. **When?** **When had he better write?**
Tonight **He's going to write? a letter**
11. He's going to write. **What?** **What's he going to write?**
A letter? **He's going to write a letter.**
12. He plans to write. **To whom?** **To whom does he plan to write?**
Mary **He plans to write to Mary.**
13. He could write. **How much?** **How much could he write?**
Only two pages **He could write only tow pages.**
14. He had to write. **Why?** **Why did he have to write?**
To satisfy them **He had to write to satisfy them.**
15. He should write. **What?** **What should write an apology.**
An apology **He should write an apology.**
16, He used to write. **How often?** **How often did he use to write?**
Once a month **He used to write once a month.**

Exercise 4

1.	**Did he take that one?**	
	Which one?	**Which one did he take?**
	(??)	**He took that one.**
2.	**Is Bill going to the movies now?**	
	Where?	**Where's Bill going now?**
	(??)	**He's going to the movies now.**
3.	**Wasn't it there because of that?**	
	Why?	**Why wasn't it there?**
	(??)	**It wasn't there because of that.**
4.	**Should we complain to the manager?**	
	Whom?	**Whom should we complain to?**
	(??)	**We should complain to the manager**
5.	**Couldn't you get to Boston because of that?**	**Why couldn't you get tc Boston?**
	Why?	**I couldn't get to Boston because of that**
	(??)	
6.	**Did he come here four months ago?**	**How long ago did he come here?**
	How long ago?	**He came here four months ago.**
	(??)	
7.	**Does she want her tea with cream?**	
	How?	**How does she want her tea?**
	(??)	**She wants her tea with cream.**
8.	**Is there a bus stop at the next comer?**	**Where's there a bus stop?**
	Where?	**There's a bus stop at the next corner.**
	(??)	
9.	**Should we buy groceries today?**	**What should we buy today?**
	What?	**We should buy groceries today.**
	(??)	
10.	**Did they use to get there by bus?**	**How did they use to get there?**
	How?	**They used to get there by bus.**
	(??)	
11.	**Did you have to travel for business reasons?**	**Why did you have to travel?**
	Why?	**I had to travel for business reasons.**
	(??)	

93. IRREGULAR VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you found a picture for your room yet?
S2. Yes lucky 'enough to find one yesterday.
S1. Have you put it on the wall yet?
S2. No, but I'm going to put it up this afternoon.

Conversation B

S1. Have you heard about Robert's bad luck?
S2. No. What happened to him?
S1. I hear he's lost his job.
S2. You can't believe everything you hear.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Someone stole money from the company last month.
S2. Some money was stolen two months ago too.
S2. I think the person who's stealing money will be caught.
S1. JohSn2.said he thought the police would catch the thief soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you bring your umbrella today?
S2. No, but I brought my tan raincoat.
S1. Maybe Fred will lend me his umbrella.
S2. I think he's already lent his to someone.

Conversation E

S1. Have you ridden in Fred's new car yet?
S2. Yes, I have. I rode in it last night.
S1. Did Fred let you drive the car?
S2. Yes. I drove it around the block a couple of times.

Exercise 1

1.	**Did you write the letter?**	**Yes, 1 did. I wrote it yesterday.**
2.	**Did he drive the car?**	**Yes, he did. He drove it yesterday.**
3.	**Did they do the work?**	**Yes, they did. They did it yesterday.**
4.	**Did she send the report?**	**Yes, she did. She sent it yesterday.**
5.	**Did you bring your money?**	**Yes, I did. I brought it yesterday.**
6.	**Did he read the article?**	**Yes, he did. He read it yesterday.**
7.	**Did she begin her work?**	**Yes, she did. She began it yesterday.**
8.	**Did they see the display?**	**Yes, they did. They saw it yesterday.**
9.	**Did he wear his raincoat?**	**Yes, he did. He wore it yesterday**
10.	**Did you buy the bicycle?**	**Yes, I did. I bought it yesterday.**
11.	**Did they hold the meeting?**	**Yes, they did. They held it yesterday.**
12.	**Did she take the package?**	**Yes, she did. She- took it yesterday.**

13.	Did she quit her job?	Yes, she did. She quit it yesterday.
14.	Did he cut the rope?	Yes, he did. He cut it yesterday.
15.	Did they draw the diagram?	Yes, they did. 'They drew it yesterday.
16.	Did she get the message?	Yes, she did. She got it yesterday.

Exercise 2

1.	I forgot something yesterday.	Have you forgotten anything today?
2.	I lost something yesterday.	Have you lost anything today?
3.	I began something yesterday.	Have you begun anything today?
4.	I sold something yesterday.	Have you sold anything today?
5.	I made something yesterday.	Have you made anything today?
6.	I took something yesterday.	Have you taken anything today?
7.	I won something yesterday.	Have you won anything today?
8.	I did something yesterday.	Have you done anything today ?
9.	I read something yesterday.	Have you read anything today?
10.	I wrote something yesterday.	Have you written anything today?
11.	I built something yesterday.	Have you built anything today?
12.	I sent something yesterday.	Have you sent anything today?
13.	I broke something yesterday.	Have you broken anything today?
14.	I brought something yesterday.	Have you brought anything today?
15.	I tore something yesterday.	Have you torn anything today?
16.	I drew something yesterday.	Have you drawn anything today?

Exercise 3

1.	You do that work well.	You've always done that work well.
2.	The girl writes accurately.	She's always written accurately.
3.	The man tells funny jokes.	He's always told funny jokes.
4.	Those men drive carelessly.	They've always driven carelessly.
5.	He gives money to char*ity.*	He’s...always given money to charity.
6.	Tom sends reports to them.	He's always sent reports to them.
7.	The. meetings begin on time.	They've always begun on time.
8.	The motor runs very smoothly.	It's always run very smoothly.
9.	She chooses clothes care fully.	She's always chosen clothes carefully.
10.	John reads the daily reports.	He's always read the daily reports.
11.	You forget people's names.	You've always forgotten people's names.
12.	Mary has trouble with that	She's always had trouble with that.
13.	That man speaks rapidly.	He's always spoken rapidly.
14.	I take good care of my car.	I've always taken good care of my car.
15.	You eat breakfast very early.	You've always eaten breakfast very early.
16.	That man wears a hat to work.	He's always worn a hat to work.

Exercise 4

1.	Has the man ever seen it?	Yes. He saw it yesterday.
2.	Have you broken one?	Yes. I broke one yesterday.
3.	Has Mary ever worn one?	Yes. She wore one yesterday
4.	Have the men heard it?	Yes. They heard it yesterday.
5.	Has the leader begun yet?	Yes. He began yesterday.
6.	Have you ever driven one?	Yes. I drove one yesterday.
7.	Has your sister eaten there?	Yes. She ate there yesterday.
8.	Have the workers done it?	Yes. They did it yesterday.
9.	Have they ever sung it?	Yes. They sang it yesterday.
10.	Has Mr. White sent it?	Yes. He sent it yesterday.
11.	Have the people read it?	Yes. They read it yesterday.

12.	**Has John made one?**	**Yes. He made one yesterday.**
13.	**Has the girl bought one?**	**Yes. She bought one yesterday**
14.	**Have you spoken to him?**	**Yes. I spoke to him yesterday.**

94. IRREGULAR VERBS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you sell those people your house?
S2. We finally sold it to them last week.
S1. Have they given you the money yet?
S2. Yes. They gave it to us just this morning.

Conversation B

S1 Has Robert chosen a new suit yet?
S2. He chose a very nice one on Saturday.
S1. Has he worn his new suit yet?
S2. He wore to the meeting yesterday.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Alice shut the window?
S2. She shut it a short time ago.
S1. She forgot it this morning.
S2. No. She left it open on purpose.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you read the magazine?
S2. Yes. We read it this morning.
S1. Did you find the article I told you about?
S2. We found it all right, but you didn't tell us it was so long.

Conversation E

S1. Have you gone over that reading selection yet?
S2. Yes. I went over it last weekend.
S1. Did you understand everything in the essay?
S2. I think I understood all the important parts.

95. IRREGULAR VERBS (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Where did you (A) the package?
S2. I (B) (it in the closet.
S1. Would you please (C) it?
S2. I've *(D)* it already.

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
leave	left	open	opened
find	found	unwrap	unwrapped
set	set	move	moved
lay	laid	examine	examined
put	put	return	returned
hide	hid	inspect	inspected
see	saw	deliver	delivered
keep	kept	address	addressed

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's the matter?
S2. We've *A)*
S1. We haven't *(B)* yet.
S2. I'm very surprised.

(A)	*(B)*
spent our money	spent ours
chosen a name	chosen one
seen that movie	seen it
had some food	had any
bought a ticket	bought one
read the papers	read them
done something	done anything
taken that course	taken it

96. IRREGULAR VERBS (4) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

***Conversation Drill* A**

S1. What's on your mind?
S2. Why did you(A)_____
S1 I (B) that because it was necessary.
S2. Of course, you know I haven't(C) one right now.

Conversation Drill B

S1. Have you ever (A)one?
S2. Yes. In fact, I(B) one last week?
S1. I'm going to___(C) one soon.
S2. John is_(D)___one right now.

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
written	Wrote	write	Writing
read	read	read	reading
worn	wore	wear	wearing
driven	drove	drive	driving
done	did	do	doing
given	gave	given	giving
brought	brought	bring	bringing
taken	took	take	taking

97. COMPARISONS (1) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I like this (A) very much.
S2. Did you see the other (B)_____ ?
S1. Yes, but this ___(A) is (A)____than the other one.
S2. I think it's_____(B) too.

(A)	(B)
chair	more comfortable
color	prettier
suitcase	more practical
sweater	warmer
sports car	less conservative
silverware	more modern
television set	better
refrigerator	more convenient

Conversation Drill B

S1. Did you like the last one we saw?
S2. Yes, I did. It's certainly very (A)
S1. It's as *(A)*_____ as the first one, don't you think?
S2. In my opinion, it's ___(B)____ of all.

(A)	(B)
strong	the strongest
accurate	the most accurate
pretty	the prettiest
useful	the most useful
big	the biggest
unusual	the most unusual
comfortable	the most comfortable
nice	the nicest

98. COMPARISONS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I think John *is* quite (A)_____
S2. I've noticed he's doing things _____(A)____
S1. John is always(C)____ than the others.
S2. I know he always does things more __(B)____than I do.

(A)	(B)	(C)
patient	patiently	more patient
quick	quickly	quicker
accurate	accurately	more accurate
deliberate	deliberately	more deliberate
slow	slowly	slower
awkward	awkwardly	more awkward
neat	neatly	neater
thorough	thoroughly	more through

Conversation Drill B

S1. Isn't Mr. Black a (A)____person?
S2. Yes. He's certainly____(B)____
S1. In my opinion, he's the (C)____person in the group
S2. He certainly speaks more(D)__than the present chair man

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
wise	wiser	wisest	wisely
confident	more confident	most confident	confidently
calm	calmer	calmest	calmly
earnest	more earnest	most earnest	earnestly
brave	braver	bravest	bravely
cautious	more cautious	most cautious	cautiously
kind	kinder	kindest	kindly
sensible	more sensible	most sensible	sensibly

99. TWO-WORD VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. It's cold outside; I'm going to put on a sweater.
S2. You'd better put a coat on too.
S1. Yes, but we'd better takeoff our things when we're inside.
S2. We can take them off in the hall and hang them up.

Conversation B

S1. Bill found out his application was turned down.
S2. Who turned it down, and how did he find out?
S1. The membership committee turned down his application.
S2. Oh, I see. Then he found out the answer from the secretary.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did you take down the man's instructions?
S2. Yes. Do you want to look them over?
S1. Yes, please. I want to carry out his instructions as well as possible.
S2. All right. Let's sit down and go over them together.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you throwaway the extra paper?
S2. No. I gave about half of it away.
S1. Do you have some left then?
S2. No. I used up all the rest yesterday.

Conversation E

S1. Have you gone through the reports yet?
S2. No, I haven't. They were turned in just last night.
S1. Why don't you pick out a few for me to read then?
S2. I think I'll do that. I can use the help.

Exercise 1

1. We'll think over the plan carefully"	**Well think it over carefully.**
2. I've turned in the reports.	**I've turned them in.**
3. Didn't she make out the form?	**Didn't she make it out?**
4. Why can't I find out those things?	**Why can't I find them out?**
5. Please don't point out the mistake.	**Please don't point it out.**
6. It's hard to break in new employees.	**It's hard to break them m.**
7. When did you use up the supplies?	**When did you use them up?**
8. You'd better put on your sweater.	**You'd better put it on.**
9. He couldn't take out those parts.	**He couldn't take them out.**
10. Why won't she bring up the subject?	**Why won't she bring it up?**
11. You're going to wear out your suit.	**You're going to wear it out.**
12. It's necessary to look up the words.	**It's necessary to look them up.**
13. Didn't he carry out their instructions?	**Didn't he carry them out?**

14. I've already worked out a plan.	**I've already worked it out.**
15. Please turn over your papers now.	**Please turn them over now.**
16. Shouldn't you throwaway that rubbish?	**Shouldn't you throw it away?**
17. The weather held up our flight.	**The weather held it up.**
18. We'd better turn off the radio now.	**We'd better turn it off now.**
19. Please put away the tools before leaving.	**Please put them away before leaving.**

Exercise 2

1.	**Someone took it back.**	**It was taken back.**
2.	**No one will try them out.**	**They won't be tried out.**
3.	**Someone has used .them up.**	**They've been used up.**
4.	**No one is taking it down.**	**It isn't being taken down.**
5.	**Someone ought to pick them out.**	**They ought to be picked out.**
6.	**No one will turn that down.**	**That won't be turned down.**
7.	**Someone was looking them over.**	**They were being looked over.**
8.	**Someone is going to hold that up.**	**That's going to be held up.**
9.	**No one should bring it up.**	**It shouldn't be brought up.**
10.	**Someone has thrown them away.**	**They've been thrown away.**
11.	**No one has to clear that up.**	**That doesn't have to be cleared up.**
12.	**Someone is giving· them away.**	**They're being given away.**
13.	**No one was pointing that out.**	**That wasn't being pointed out.**
14.	**Someone will hand them**	**They'll be handed in.**
15.	**Someone will hand them**	**It was crossed out.**
16.	**No one is taking them off.**	**They aren't being taken off.**

100. TWO-WORD VERBS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drills

S1. What did you say did say?
S2. Would you please(A)?
S1. I(B) this morning.
S2. Sorry. I didn't realize that.

(A)	(B)
turned them off the lights	turned them off
looked it over the report	looked it over
crossed out those names	crossed them out
figure out the total cost	figured it out
look up those words	looked them up
bring up that matter	brought it up
throw away those papers	threw them away

Conversation Drill B

S1. What are you thinking about?
S2. I guess we'll have to (A)
S1. Exactly why do you have to (B)
S2. Because it's obviously important.

(A)	(B)
think over the plan	think it over
turn in the reports	turn them in
make out the form	make it out
point out the mistakes	point them out
bring up the subject	carry them out
carry out instructions	carry them out
look up the answer	look it up
turn over the papers	turn them over

101. TAG QUESTIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. That isn't your jacket, is it?
S2. No, isn't, but it looks like mine.
S1. But these are your gloves, aren't they? The
S2. There were a lot of people at the reception, weren't there?

Conversation B

S1. There were a lot of people at the reception, weren't there?
S2. Yes, there were. Over 100. I'd guess.
S1. There wasn't, enough food for everyone, was there?
S2. No, there wasn't everyone complained.

Conversation C

S1. It rains a lot in this part of the country, doesn't it?
S2. Yes, it does, but only in the spring.
S1. But it doesn't ever snow around here, does it?
S2. No, it never does.

Conversation D

S1. You left the office very late, didn't you?
S2. Yes, I did. Around eleven o'clock.
S1. Then I didn't get much sleep, did you?
S2. John has been looking for a job, hasn't he?

Conversation E

S1. John has been looking for a job, hasn't he?
S2. Yes, he has. Quite diligently too?
S1. He hasn't found a suitable one yet, ahs he?
S2. No, he hasn't, but I'm sure he will soon.

Exercise* 1/ *Line AI /

That isn't your jacket.	**That isn't your jacket, is it?**
Those aren't your gloves.	**Those aren't your gloves, are they?**
This isn't your coat.	**This isn't your coat, is it?**
These aren't your shoes.	**These aren't your shoes, are they?**
That isn't your hat.	**That isn't your hat, is it?**
Those aren't your books.	**Those aren't your books, are they?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines AI and A3 /

That's your jacket.	**That's your jacket, isn't it?**
Those are your gloves.	**Those are your gloves, aren't they?**

This is your coat.	**This is your coat, isn't it?**
These are your shoes.	**These are your shoes, aren't they?**
That's your hat.	**hat's your hat, isn't it?**
Those are your books.	**Those are your books, aren't they?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines AI-A4 /

That's your jacket, isn't it?	**Yes, it is.**
That isn't your coat, is it?	**No, it isn't.**
Those are your gloves, aren't they?	**Yes, they are.**
Those aren't your books, are they?	**No, they aren't.**
This is your hat, isn't it?	**Yes, it is.**
These aren't your shoes, are they?	**No, they aren't.**

Exercise* 4 / *Lines AI-A4 /

1.	**Those are your books (?)**	**Those are your books, aren't they?** **Yes, they are. They're my books.**
2.	**That isn't your jacket (?)**	**That isn't your jacket, is it?** **No, it isn't. It isn't my jacket.**
3.	**That's your hat (?)**	**That's your hat, isn't it?** **Yes, it is. It's my hat.**
4.	**Those aren't your gloves (?)**	**Those aren't your gloves, are they?** **No, they aren't. They aren't my gloves.**
5.	**These are your shoes (?)**	**These are your shoes, aren't they?** **Yes, they are. They're my shoes.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line* C*1 /

It rains a lot here.	**It rains a lot here, doesn't it?**
The men worked there.	**The men worked there, didn't they?**
John likes television.	**John likes television, doesn't he?**
The wind blew very hard.	**The wind blew very hard, didn't it?**
The girls enjoy that class.	**The girls enjoy that class, don't they?**
That caused the trouble.	**That caused the trouble, didn't it?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C3 /**

It doesn't rain much. here.	**It doesn't rain much here, does it?**
The men didn't work there.	**The men didn't work there, did they?**
John doesn't like television.	**John doesn't like television, does he?**
The wind didn't blow hard.	**The wind didn't blow hard, did it?**
The girls don't enjoy the class.	**The girls don't enjoy the class, do they?**

Exercise* 7 / *Lines CI-C3 /

It rains a lot here, doesn't it?	**Yes, it does.**
The girls don't enjoy the class, do they?	**No, they don't.**
That caused the trouble, didn't it?	**Yes, it did.**
The men didn't work there, did they?	**No, they didn't.**
The wind blew hard, didn't it?	**Yes, it did.**
John doesn't like television, does he?	**No, he doesn't.**

Exercise* 8 / *Lines AI-A4 and CI-C3 /

They work hard, don't they?	**Yes, they do.**

They're working hard, aren't they? Yes, they are.
They don't work hard, do they? No, they don't.
They aren't working hard, are they? No, they aren't.
She writes letters, doesn't she? Yes, she does.
She's writing letters, isn't she? Yes, she is.
She doesn't write letters, does she? No, she doesn't.
She isn't writing letters, is she? No, she isn't.

Exercise / Lines CI-C3 /

1. The girls enjoy that class (?) The girls enjoy that class, don't they?
Yes, they do. They enjoy Class
2. The men didn't work there (?) The men didn't work there, did they?
No, they didn't. They didn't work there.
3. The wind blew very hard (?) The wind blew very hard, didn't it?
Yes, it did. It blew very hard.
4. John doesn't like television (?) John doesn't like television, does he
No, he doesn't. He doesn't like television.
5. It rains a lot here (?) It rains a lot here, doesn't it?
Yes, it does. It rains a lot here
6. That didn't cause the trouble. That didn't cause the trouble, id it?
No, it didn't. It didn't cause the trouble.

102. TAG QUESTIONS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. There haven't been any storms recently, have there?
S2. No, there haven't, but it's hard to believe.
S1. I suppose we could get one anytime now, couldn't we?
S2. We certainly could. This is the season.

Conversation B

S1. Not many people in that office speak English, do they? 6.
S2. No, they don't, but all of them are taking classes now.
S1. According to the rules, all employees have to learn it now, I
S2. Yes, they all do, and it's a problem.

Conversation C

S1. She's already told john she'd like to go, hasn't she?
S2. Yes, she has
S1. I guess we should plan on it then, shouldn't we?
S2. yes, we'd better, I think.

Conversation D

S1. You hadn't ever seen the Ambassador before last night, had you?
S2. No, I hadn't, although I did see John's pictures of him in May.
S1. You could have met him at the last conference, couldn't you?
S2. Ye, I could have, but I lost my nerve at the last moment.

Conversation E

S1. We'd better tell someone about this, hadn't we?
S2. Yes, I guess we'd better, but who?
S1. The director wouldn't be very sympathetic, would he
S2. No. I'm afraid he wouldn't

Exercise 1

1. It isn't raining now.	**It isn't raining now, is it?**
2. John didn't read that.	**John didn't read that, did he?**
3. The girls weren't ready.	**The girls weren't ready, were they?**
4. The people haven't seen it.	**The people haven't seen it, have they?**
5. There weren't any mistakes.	**There weren't any mistakes, were there?**
6. They won't try that.	**They won't try that, will they?**
7. She can't come tomorrow.	**She can't come tomorrow, can she?**
8. Mary doesn't enjoy that.	**Mary doesn't enjoy that, does she?**
9. Those aren't your books.	**Those aren't your books, are she?**
10. He didn't go to the lecture.	**He didn't go to the lecture, did he?**
11. You haven't done that yet.	**You haven't done that yet, have you?**
12. Mary doesn't walk to work.	**Mary doesn't walk to work, does she?**
13. There wasn't enough food left.	**There wasn't enough food left, was there?**

14. The train hasn't arrived yet. **The train hasn't arrived yet, has it?**
15. The men couldn't help him. **The men couldn't help him, could they?**
16. They aren't working now. **They aren't working now, are they?**

Exercise 2

1. The man can help us. **The man can help us, can't he?**
2. Mary lives near your house. **Mary lives near your house, doesn't she?**
3. The boys are studying now. **The boys are studying now, aren't they?**
4. John waited for his friend. **John waited for his friend, didn't he?**
5. They'll be at the conference. **They'll be at the conference, won't they?**
6. There was enough coffee. **There was enough coffee, wan't there?**
7. The girl saw the movie. **The girl saw the move, didn't she?**
8. Students should study hard. **Students should study hard, shouldn't they?**
9. You're going to leave soon. **You're going to leave soon aren't they?**
10. He usually rides on the bus. **He usually rides on the bus, doesn't he?**
11. They went home quite late. **They went home quite late, didn't they?**
12. You've done that lesson. **You've done that lesson, haven't you?**
13. You'll be able to do that. **You'll be able to do that, won't you?**
14. They had trouble with it. **They had trouble with it, didn't they?**
15. That's your briefcase. **That's your briefcase, isn't it?**
16. He has to work tonight. **He has to work tonight, doesn't he?**

Exercise 3

1. The men are working now (?) **The men are working now, aren't they?**
Yes, they are. They're working now.
2. John didn't read that. (?) **John didn't read that, did he?**
No, he didn't. He didn't read that.
3. The girl writes carefully (?) **The girl writes carefully, doesn't she?**
Yes, she does. She writes care fully.
4. It isn't raining now (?) **It isn't raining now, is it?**
No, it isn't. It isn't training now
5. They've seen the movie (?) **They've seen the movie, haven't they?**
6. The man can help us (?) **The man can help us, can't he?**
Yes, he can. He can help us
7. Mary didn't wait for you (?) **Mary didn't wait for you, did she?**
No, she didn't. She didn't wait for me.
8. You've done that lesson (?) **You've done that lesson, haven't you?**
Yes, I have. I've done that lesson.
9. He didn't leave early (?) **He didn't leave early, did he?**
No, he didn't. He didn't leave early.
10. They should try that (?) **They should try that, shouldn't they?**
Yes, they should. They should try that.
11. She doesn't walk to work (?) **She doesn't walk to work, does she?**
No, she doesn't. She doesn't walk to work?
12. John went home late (?) **John went home late, didn't he?**
Yes, he did. He went home late.
13. Those aren't his books (?) **Those aren't his books, are they?**
No, they aren't. Thy aren't his books.
14. She's going to practice (?) **She's going to practice, isn't she?**
Yes, she is. She's going to practice.
15. You'll be at the meeting (?) **You'll be at the meeting, won't you?**

103. SHORT ADDITIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend can speak French.
S2. Alice can too.
S1. But my friend can't speak German.
S2. Alice can't either.

Conversation B

S1. We went to the concert last night.
S2. We did too.
S1. But we didn't get there on time.
S2. We didn't either.

Conversation C

S1. I met that government official from Japan.
S2. So did.
S1. But I didn't meet his wife.
S2. Neither did.

***Conversation* D**

S1. They're going to go to the beach today.
S2. I am too.
S1. They're also going to go to the amusement park.
S2. So am I.

Conversation E

S1. We've already done that lesson.
S2. So have we
S1. But we haven't done the other one yet.
S2. Neither have we.

Exercise 1

1.	**He learned all the words.**	**We did too.**
2.	**They're copying the sentences.**	**We are too.**
3.	**You've watched that program.**	**We have too.**
4.	**She should accept the offer.**	**We should too.**
5.	**They can work at the library.**	**We can too.**
6.	**John found the answer.**	**We did too.**
7.	**She studies every evening.**	**We do too.**
8.	**They had to be at the meeting.**	**We did too.**
9.	**You've read that novel.**	**We have too.**
10.	**He got very good results.**	**We did too.**
11.	**They can do that easily.**	**We can too.**
12.	**She's working on that part.**	**We are too.**
13.	**He'll speak to Mr. Wilson.**	**We will too.**

14.	**They're going to leave soon.**	**We are too.**
15.	**She enjoys that T.V. program.**	**We do too.**
16.	**He's written to the company.**	**We have too.**
17.	**He's writing to the company.**	**We are too.**
18.	**He writes lots of letters.**	**We do too.**

Exercise 2

1.	**We've enjoyed everything so far.**	**So have they.**
2.	**She's going to speak to you.**	**So are they.**
3.	**You helped him very much.**	**So did they.**
4	**I knew all the answers.**	**So did they.**
5.	**She doing the lesson now.**	**So are they.**
6.	**He can explain it to you.**	**So can they.**
7.	**We'll be at the meeting.**	**So will they.**
8.	**I have enough time for that.**	**So do they.**
9.	**She should come with us.**	**So should they.**
10.	**We have to leave quite early.**	**So do they.**
11.	**You've done well up to now.**	**So have they.**
12.	**He's going to walk to work.**	**So are they.**
13.	**I was quite worried about that.**	**So were they.**
14.	**We like to listen to music.**	**So do they.**
15.	**She's already read that book.**	**So have they.**
16.	**You can ride home with us.**	**So can they.**
17.	**We could wait for you.**	**So could they.**
18.	**She appreciates your help.**	**So do they.**

Exercise 3

1.	**He didn't follow the instructions.**	**I don't either.**
2.	**They aren't working on that now.**	**I'm not either.**
3.	**She hasn't taken the course yet.**	**I haven't either.**
4.	**John doesn't often do that.**	**I don't either.**
5.	**They mind the changes.**	**I didn't either.**
6.	**She can't understand that part.**	**I can't either.**
7.	**He isn't working very hard.**	**I'm not either.**
8.	**They won't be able to attend.**	**I won't either.**
9.	**She shouldn't try to do that.**	**I shouldn't either.**
10.	**John doesn't have to work.**	**I don't either.**
11.	**Mary hasn't heard anything yet.**	**I haven't either.**
12.	**They can't possibly go there.**	**I can't either.**
13.	**They don't believe his excuse.**	**I don't either.**
14.	**John wasn't at the meeting.**	**I wasn't either.**
15.	**They aren't ready to go yet.**	**I'm not either.**
16.	**They haven't had any trouble.**	**I haven't either.**
17.	**You won't have any trouble.**	**I won't either.**
18.	**She isn't watching that.**	**I'm not either.**

Exercise 4

1.	**We didn't read the article.**	**Neither did he.**
2.	**Mary hasn't seen- that movie.**	**Neither has he.**
3.	**I'm not going to mention it.**	**Neither is he.**

4.	**You don't often try that.**	**Neither does he.**
5.	**We won't say anything to her.**	**Neither will he.**
6.	**I don't enjoy that kind of music.**	**Neither does he**
7.	**I can't understand the lesson.**	**Neither can he.**
8.	**We haven't heard anything yet.**	**Neither has he**
9.	**You don’t have to stay here.**	**Neither does he**
10.	**I'm not ready to leave yet.**	**Neither is he**
11.	**She can't help them right now.**	**Neither can he**
12.	**You shouldn't try to do that.**	**Neither should he.**
13.	**You didn't answer my question.**	**Neither did he**
14.	**She won't be able go tomorrow.**	**Neither will he**
15.	**They aren't working right now.**	**Neither is he**
16.	**They weren't at the conference.**	**Neither was he**
17.	**They won't be at the concert.**	**Neither will he**
18.	**We can't finish it on time.**	**Neither can he**

104. SHORT ADDITIONS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What do you think?
S2. I suspect that Mary - (A).
S1. I'm sure that John - (B).
S2. Let's ask them about it to be sure.

(A)	(B)
took many pictures	did too
can't avoid that	can't either
wants to change it	does too
wasn't aware of this	wasn't either
has to ask permission	does too
won't agree with us	won't either
is going to object	is too
couldn't attend	couldn't either

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's your opinion about him?
S2. It's quite clear that he - *(A).*
S1. (*B*) - the other workers, I suspect.
S2. That's probably correct.

(A)	(B)
took the things	so did
didn't read the report	neither did
has seen something	so have
can't handle it	neither can
will object to that	so will
has to give it up soon	so do
isn't cooperating at all	neither are
wants something	so do

105. VERB NOT REPEATED (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do they know his name?
S2. I don’t think so. Do you?
S1. Of course. Don't you?
S2. Sure. It's Mr. Smith.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't the men finish the work?
S2. I don’t think they did.
S1. Do they expect us to do it?
S2. I certainly hope they don't.

Conversation C

S1. I didn’t have enough time to speak to Mr. Fox.
S2. Why didn't you?
S1. Because I had to leave quite early.
S2. So did I, but I had enough time.

Conversation D

S1. Not many people heard the lecture, and I didn't either.
S2. Well, I did, and so did Fred.
S1. Did Mary and John?
S2. I don't think they did.

Conversation E

S1. Did you go to work yesterday?
S2. No, I just couldn't.
S1. Why couldn't you?
S2. I didn't feel very well at all.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

Do they know his name?	**No. Do you?**
Have they spoken to him?	**No. Have you?**
Did they meet him?	**No. Did you?**
Can they convince him?	**No. Can you?**
Will they be seeing him?	**No. Will you?**
Are they annoyed at him?	**No. Are you?**

Exercise 2 / Lines B1 and B2 /

Didn't the men finish the work.	**I don't think they did.**
Haven't the men finished the work?	**I don't think they have.**
Aren't the men finishing the work?	**I don't think they are.**

Won't the men finish the work? **I don't think they will.**
Can't the men finish the work? **I don't think they can.**
Weren't the men finishing the work? **I don't think they were.**

Exercise 3 / Line B3 /

Do they expect us to do it?

want **Do they want us to do it?**
Advise **Do they advise us to do it?**
urge **Do they urge us to do it?**
Intend **Do they intend us to do it?**
Wish **Do they wish us to do it?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D 1 /**

They didn't hear it. **I didn't either.**
They haven't seen it. **I haven't either.**
They won't be there. **I won't either.**
They don't enjoy it. **I don't either.**
They aren't studying now. **I'm not either.**
They can't go with him. **I can't either**

Exercise 5 / *Line* D2 /

They heard it. **So did John.**
They've seen it. **So has John.**
They'll be there. **So will John.**
They enjoy it. **So does John.**
They're studying now. **So is John.**
They call go with him. **So can John.**

Exercise *6*

1. I'm quite hungry now.	**Are you?**	**Aren't you?**
2. I work eight hours every day.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
3. I could understand everything.	**Could you?**	**Couldn't you?**
4. I went to the meeting.	**Did you?**	**Didn't you?**
5. I was very uncomfortable.	**Were you?**	**Weren't you?**
6. I studied the lesson carefully.	**Did you?**	**Didn't you?**
7. I'll be at the meeting early.	**Will you?**	**Won't you?**
8. I plan to meet the men.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
9. I can leave almost any time.	**Can you?**	**Can't you?**
10. I've seen that movie already	**Have you?**	**Haven't you?**
11. I have to go back very soon.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
12. I'd like to go home early.	**Would you?**	**Wouldn't you?**

Exercise *7*

1. I don't do it.	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
2. I haven't done it.	**Why haven't you?**	**I have.**
3. I won't do it.	**Why won't you?**	**I will.**
4. I didn't do it.	**Why didn't you?**	**I did.**
5. I wasn't doing it.	**Why weren't you?**	**I was.**

6.	**I can't do it.**	**Why can't you?**	**I can.**
7.	**I'm not doing it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**
8.	**I wouldn't do it.**	**Why wouldn't you?**	**I would.**
9.	**I'm not going to do it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**
10.	**I don't plan to do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
11.	**I haven't done it.**	**Why haven't you?**	**I have.**
12.	**I don't have to do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
13.	**I wasn't doing it.**	**Why weren't you?**	**I was.**
14.	**I won't do it.**	**Why won't you?**	**I will.**
15.	**I don't do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
16.	**I'm not going to do it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**

106. VERB NOT REPEATED (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. They won't be very busy, but we will.
S2. I will too, but my brother won't.
S1. We can't possibly go, but they can.
S2. My brother can too, but I can't.

Conversation B

S1. My friend writes his reports on Monday, but I don't.
S2. Mr. Johnson doesn't either.
S1. I don't have enough time on Monday, but my friend does.
S2. Apparently Mr. Johnson does too.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Most of my friends will be at the meeting, but I won't.
S2. Neither will my sister, but I will if I have time.
S1. My friends didn't attend the last meeting, but I did.
S2. My sister did too, but I didn't.

Conversation D

S1. I haven't seen that movie yet.
S2. You really ought to.
S1. I plan to tomorrow.
S2. It's an excellent film in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. I don't often visit museums, but I like to whenever possible.
S2. I've never visited the Modem Museum, but I plan to tomorrow.
S1. I can go with you tomorrow if you want me to.
S2. Fine. 1'd be glad to have company.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

They'll be busy.	**But I won't.**
They won't be busy.	**But I will.**
They're studying now.	**But I'm not.**
They aren't studying now.	**But I am.**
They walk to the office.	**But I don't.**
They don't walk to the office.	**But I do.**
They're ready for that.	**But I'm not.**
They aren't ready for that.	**But I am.**
They waited for the girl.	**But I didn't.**
They didn't wait for the girl.	**But I did.**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines* D3, E1*, E2 /

I plan to see it tomorrow.	**I plan to tomorrow.**
I hope to see it tomorrow.	**I hope to tomorrow.**
I expect to see it tomorrow.	**I expect to tomorrow.**
I want to see it tomorrow.	**I want to tomorrow.**
I intend to see it tomorrow.	**I intend to tomorrow.**
I prefer to see it tomorrow.	**I prefer to tomorrow.**
I have to see it tomorrow.	**I have to tomorrow.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line* D*1 /

1.	**I haven't seen that movie yet.**	
	want	**I want to see it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to see it soon.**
2.	**I haven't heard that program yet.**	
	want	**I want to hear it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to hear it soon.**
3.	**I haven't eaten there yet.**	
	want	**I want to eat there soon.**
	like	**I'd like to eat there soon.**
4.	**I haven't tried that method yet.**	
	want	**I want to try it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to try it soon.**
5.	**I haven't bought the tickets yet.**	
	want	**I want to buy them soon.**
	like	**I'd like to buy them soon.**

Exercise 4

1.	**They saw the parade, but John didn't see it.**	**They saw the parade, but John didn't.**
2.	**They didn't take the course, but John took it.**	**They didn't take the course, but John did.**
3.	**They're watching TV, but John isn't watching TV.**	**They're watching TV, but John isn't.**
4.	**They've been to the museum, but John hasn't been there.**	**They've been to the museum, but John hasn't.**
5.	**They aren't studying that lesson, but John is studying it.**	**They aren't studying that lesson, but John is.**
6.	**They haven't done that part, but John has done it.**	**They haven't done that part, but John has.**
7.	**They'll be at the meeting, but John won't be there.**	**They'll he at the meeting, but John won't.**
8.	**They won't drive to the park, but John will drive there.**	**They won't drive to the park, but John will.**

Exercise 5

1.	**Do John and you write reports?**	**He does, but I don't.**
2.	**Have John and you seen the show?**	**He has, but I haven't.**
3.	**Are John and you working on that?**	**He is, but I'm not.**
4.	**Did John and you leave early?**	**He did, but I didn't.**
5.	**Were John and you late today?**	**He was, but I wasn't.**
6.	**Are John and you going to do it?**	**He is, but I'm not.**

7.	**Do John and you have to go?**	**He does, but I don't.**
8.	**Were John and you writing then?**	**He was, but I wasn't.**
9.	**Could John and you understand him?**	**He could, but I couldn't.**
10.	**Would John and you care to go?**	**He would, but I wouldn't.**
11.	**Will john and you be there to- night?**	**He will, but I won't.**
12.	**Can John and you come with me?**	**He can, but I can't.**
13.	**Have John you been there yet?**	**He has, but I haven't.**
14.	**Do John and you study at home?**	**He does, but I don't.**
15.	**Are John and you satisfied with it?**	**He is, but I'm not.**
16.	**Did and you buy new books?**	**He did, but I didn't.**

107. VERB NOT REPEATED (3) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend doesn't work very hard.
S2. Do you?
S1. Of course I do.
S2. Well, I don't. I hate to work.

Conversation B

S1. I always try to be careful.
S2. I usually do too.
S1. Do you always check your work several times?
S2. I usually do, but once in a while, I don't.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I finished my work on time.
S2. No one else did.
S1. That's not entirely true.
S2. You're right. John did too, didn't he?

***Conversation* D**

S1. Don't you like to dance?
S2. Of course I do.
S3. Then why don't you come to the dance?
S4. I really can't.

Conversation E

S1. When can the manager see me?
S2. Can you come at eleven o'clock this morning?
S1. No, but I can any lime after two.
S2. Then I'll put your name down for two thirty.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

My friend doesn't work very hard.	**Do you?**
My friend can't go to the meeting.	**Can you?**
My friend won't be at the party.	**Will you?**
My friend hasn't read the article.	**Have you?**
My friend didn't write any letters.	**Did you?**
My friend isn't taking any courses.	**Are you?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A2 and A3 /

Do you work very hard?	**Of course I do:**

Can you go to the meeting?	**Of course I can.**
Will you be at the party?	**Of course I will.**
Have you read the article?	**Of course I have.**
Did you write any letters?	**Of course I did.**
Are you taking any courses?	**Of course I am.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines AI and A4 /

My friend works hard.	**He works hard, but I don't.**
My friend can go to the meeting.	**He can go to the meeting, but I can't.**
My friend will be at the party.	**He'll be at the party: but I won't.**
My friend has read the article.	**He's read the article, but I haven't.**
My friend writes letters.	**He writes letters, but I don't.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A4 /

I hate to work.

enjoy	**I enjoy working.**
want	**I want to work.**
avoid	**I avoid working.**
refuse	**I refuse to work.**
put off	**I put off working.**
intend	**I intend to work.**
plan	**I plan to work.**
suggest	**I suggest working.**
promise	**I promise to work.**

Exercise 5

1.	**We don't own a car yet, but we hope to own one.**	**We don't own a car yet, but we hope to.**
2.	**Peter drives to school, but I can't afford to drive to school.**	**Peter drives to school, but I can't afford to.**
3.	**I haven't heard from John, but I expect to hear from him.**	**I haven't heard from John, but I expect to.**
4.	**She didn't finish all the work, but she's going to finish it.**	**She didn't finish all the work, but she's going to.**
5.	**He'd like to go with them, but he doesn't plan to go with them.**	**He'd like to go with them, but he doesn't plan to.**
6.	**They don't try very hard, but they ought to try hard.**	**They don't try very hard, but they ought to.**
7.	**We haven't taken it yet, but we really intend to take it.**	**We haven't taken it yet, but we really intend to.**
8.	**He doesn't smoke cigars, but he used to smoke cigars.**	**He doesn't smoke cigars, but he used to.**
9.	**I want to review the lesson because I need to review it.**	**I want to review the lesson because I need to.**
10.	**He didn't study yesterday because he didn't want to study.**	**He didn't study yesterday because he didn't want to.**
11.	**He has to stay home tonight, but we don't have to stay home.**	**He has to stay home tonight, but we don't have to.**
12.	**They'd like to do it today, but they won't be able to do it.**	**They'd like to do it today, but they won't be able to.**
13.	**I'm not going to go there, but I'd like to go there.**	**I'm not going to go there, but I'd like to.**

108. VERB NOT REPEATED (8) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I would like to finish every thing today.
S2. Will you be able to?
S1. I think so.
S2. I hope so, because it's rather urgent.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't Mary finish the work?
S2. I don't think so.
S1. Does he expect us to finish it?
S2. I hope not.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We should invite them, but we don't want to.
S2. I understand your problem.
S1. They're extremely boring, don't you think?
S2. I'm afraid so.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you understand the instructions?
S2. I think I do.
S1. Does your friend, Peter?
S2. No. He doesn't Seem to.

Conversation E

S1. Why should I ask for permission to leave?
S2. Everyone has to.
S1. I don't have to.
S2. Yes, you do. Everyone does.

Exercise 1

1.	**They've left already.**	**Have they left already?**
	appear	**It appears so.**
2.	**They won't return today.**	**Won't they return today?**
	appear	**It doesn't appear so.**
3.	**They'll finish the work.**	**Will they finish the work?**
	think	**I think so.**
4.	**They didn't take the books.**	**Didn't they take the books?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
5.	**They were watching the game.**	**Were they watching the game?**
	believe	**I believe so.**
6.	**They aren't studying now.**	**Aren't they studying now?**
	believe	**I don't believe so.**

7.	**They haven’t read the book.**	**Haven't they' read the book?**
	seem	**It doesn't seem *so.***
8.	**They’re going to leave soon.**	**Are they going to leave soon?**
	seem	**It seems so.**
9.	**They'll finish the work on time.**	**Will they finish the work on time?**
	Presume	**I presume so.**
10.	**They can't afford a new car.**	**Can't they afford a new car?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
11.	**They're guarding money.**	**Are they guarding the money?**
	hope	**I hope *so.***
12.	**They agree with us.**	**Do they agree with us?**
	suppose	**I suppose so.**
13.	**They've written the report.**	**Have they written the report?**
	assume	**I assume so.**
14.	**They didn't ask questions.**	**Didn't they ask questions?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
15.	**They can't assist their friend.**	**Can't they assist their friend?**
	believe	**I don't believe so.**
16.	**They've offered their assistance.**	**Have they offered their assistance?**
	presume	**I presume so.**

109. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. By whom is the telephone answered?
S2. The secretary usually answers it.
S1. Who opens the mail every day?
S2. It's opened by the office manager

***Conversation* B**

S1. Was the letter written yesterday?
S2. I'm sorry, I didn't hear you.
S1. Did anyone write the letter yesterday?
S2. I'm afraid not.

Conversation C

S1. Were the reports read by all the employees?
S2. Yes. Everyone in this office read them.
S1. I think the reports should be posted in a better place.
S2. Let's post them right by the door next time.

Conversation D

S1. Will the repair work be done on time?
S2. Yes. The men will do it tomorrow.
S1. Has the work been started yet?
S2. The men started it just this morning.

Conversation E

S1. The loud noise frightened us.
S2. We were frightened by the noise too.
S1. Has anyone investigated it?
S2. I don't think it's been investigated yet.

Exercise 1

1.	**The reports were corrected.**	**Someone corrected them.**
2.	**The machine is inspected.**	**Someone inspects it.**
3.	**The students will be assisted.**	**Someone will assist them.**
4.	**The girl has been notified.**	**Someone has notified her.**
5.	**The men are being instructed.**	**Someone is instructing them.**
6.	**The mirror was broken.**	**Someone broke it.**
7.	**The letters will be examined.**	**Someone will examine them.**
8.	**Mr. Smith was warned.**	**Someone warned him.**
9.	**The work is being done.**	**Someone is doing it.**
10.	**The assignments are corrected.**	**Someone corrects them.**
11.	**The problem has been solved.**	**Someone has solved it.**
12.	**The message can be sent.**	**Someone can send it.**

13.	**The people were advised.**	**Someone advised them.**
14.	**Mrs. Brown will be invited.**	**Someone will invite her.**
15.	**The papers are being copied.**	**Someone is copying them.**
16.	**The motor can be repaired.**	**Someone can repair it.**

Exercise 2

1.	**Someone broke the mirror.**	**It was broken.**
2.	**Someone will examine the letters.**	**They'll be examined.**
3.	**Someone is instructing the men.**	**They're being instructed.**
4.	**Someone has solved the problem.**	**It's been solved.**
5.	**Someone inspects the machine.**	**It's inspected.**
6.	**Someone will invite the lady.**	**She'll be invited.**
7.	**Someone corrected the reports.**	**They were corrected.**
8.	**Someone can send the message.**	**It can be sent.**
9.	**Someone is copying the papers.**	**They're being copied.**
10.	**Someone has notified the man.**	**He's been notified.**
11.	**Someone will assist the students.**	**They'll be assisted.**
12.	**Someone warned the girl.**	**She was warned.**
13.	**Someone is doing the work.**	**It's being done.**
14.	**Someone can repair the motor.**	**It can be repaired.**
15.	**Someone advised the people.**	**They were advised.**

110. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. I was embarrassed by Peter's comments.
S2. His comments embarrassed me too.
S1. Why wasn't he warned not to say anything?
S2. He was. I warned him.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Has the report been completed yet?
S2. Yes. It was completed yesterday.
S1. Who'l1 distribute the confidential staff copies?
S2. They'll probably be distributed by Mr. White.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We were confused by the fast action.
S2. There were plenty of confused people at that moment.
S1. The action didn't confuse those two men over there.
S2. They never get confused over anything.

C*onversation* D

S1. Is much attention being given to that problem?
S2. Yes. The committee is devoting a lot of time to it.
S1. They aren't treating the matter lightly, are they?
S2. I'm quite sure the matter isn't being treated lightly.

Conversation E

S1. Who permitted you to leave early?
S2. The foreman gave us permission to leave.
S1. Why were you given permission to leave?
S2. Because we had finished all the work for the day.

Exercise 1

1. They were hidden. Someone hid them.
No one hid them. They weren't hidden.
2. She hasn't been informed. No one has informed her.
Some one has informed her. She's been informed.
3. I'm being deceived. Some one is deceiving me.
No one is deceiving me. I'm not being deceived.
4. They won't be assisted. No one will assist them.
Someone will assist them. They'll be assisted.
5. You could be accused. Some one could accuse you.
No one could accuse you. You couldn't be accused.
6. We weren't complimented. No one complimented us.
Some one complimented us. We were complimented

7.	**That had to be admitted.**	**Someone had to admit that.**
	No one had to admit that.	**That didn't have to be admitted.**
8.	**He isn’t encouraged him.**	**No one encourages him.**
	Some one encourages him.	**He's encouraged.**
9.	**They were broken.**	**Some one broke them.**
	No one broke them.	**They weren't broken.**
10.	**That didn't use to be done.**	**No one used to do that.**
	Some one used to do that.	**That used to be done.**
11.	**We're being blamed.**	**Someone is blaming us.**
	No one is blaming us.	**We aren't being blamed.**
12.	**You won't be embarrassed.**	**No one will embarrass you.**
	Someone will embarrass you.	**You'll be embarrassed.**
13.	**They aren't advised.**	**No one advises them.**
	Some one advises them.	**They're advised.**
14.	**It's been unwrapped.**	**Someone has unwrapped it.**
	No one has unwrapped it.	**It hasn't been unwrapped.**
15.	**That mustn't be assumed.**	**No one must assume that.**
	Some one must assume that.	**That must be assumed.**

111. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Did John tell you the news?
S2. Yes. I hear that they - (A)
S1. why - (*B*) ?
S2. I really can't answer that.

(A)	(B)
are removing it	is it being removed
fastened them	were they fastened
had to translate it	did it have to be translated
have opposed it	has it been opposed
must return them	must they be returned
were considering it	was it being considered
will modify them	will they be modified
distributed it	was it distributed

Conversation Drill B

S1. Can you tell me who *(A)* ?
S2. I know I didn't *(B)*
S1. I think (C) last night.
S2. I still can't tell you who did it.

(A)	*(B)*	*(C)*
broke that glass	break it	it was broken
brought these boxes	bring them	they were brought
took that book	take it	it was taken
lost those tickets	lose them	they were lost
drove my car	drive it	it was driven
sent those letters	send them	they were sent
drank all the milk	drink it	it was drunk
did the work	do it	it was done

112. NOUN CLAUSE VS. QUESTION (1) /CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Where's the public library?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Can you tell me where the library is?
S2. Two blocks from here, on the right.

C*onversation* B

S1. How do you say that in English?
S2. I don't remember how you say that in English.
S1. Who can help us with this?
S2. Let's ask Pierre who can help us with it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Why were you absent?
S2. I can't tell you why I was absent.
S1. Where did you go?
S2. I can't tell you where I went either.

Conversation D

S1. Whom did Alice write to yesterday?
S2. She hasn't told me whom she wrote to.
S1. What did she write about?
S2. She hasn't told me what she wrote about either.

Conversation E

S1. What are they doing?
S2. I can't imagine what they're doing.
S1. When will they finish?
S2. I have no idea when they'll finish.

Exercise 1

1.	**I can tell you where they study.**	**Where do they study?**
2.	**I can tell you when they can study.**	**When can they study?**
3.	**I can tell you what they had to study.**	**What did they have to study?**
4.	**I can tell you what they've studied.**	**What have they studied?**
5.	**I can tell you how much they studied.**	**How much did they study?**
6.	**I can tell you where they're studying.**	**Where are they studying?**
7.	**I can tell you why they won't study.**	**Why won't they study?**
8.	**I can tell you when they're going to study.**	**When are they going to study?**
9.	**I can tell you what part they didn't study.**	**What part didn't they study?**
10.	**I can tell you where they usually study.**	**Where do they usually study?**
11.	**I can tell you which one they studied.**	**Which one did they study?**
12.	**I can tell you when they must study.**	**When must they study?**

13. I can tell you what they used to study. What did they use to study?
14. I can tell you how long they should study. How long should they study?
15. I can tell you where they've been studying. Where have they been studying?
16. I can tell you what they're going to study. What are they going to study?
17. I can tell you why they can't study. Why can't they study?
18. I can tell you which one they're studying. Which one are they studying?
19. I can tell you when they usually study. When do they usually study?
20. I can ten you which one they'd better study. Which one had they better study?

Exercise 2

1. Haven't you heard what she'll Write? No. What will she write?
2. Haven't you heard why she couldn't write? No. Why could she Write?
3. Haven't you heard how often she writes? No. How often does she Write?
4. Haven't you heard where she's writing? No. Where's she writing?
5. Haven't you heard what she's written No. What's she written?
6. Haven't you heard how much she wrote? No. How much did she write?
7. Haven't you heard what she has to write? No. What does she have to write?
8. Haven't you heard when she should write? No. When should she write?
9. Haven't you heard whom she use to write to? No. Whom did she use to write?
10. Haven't you heard what she's going to write? No. What she going to write?
11. Haven't you heard how much she must write? No. How much she write?
12. Haven't you heard how long she was writing? No. How long was she writing?
13. Haven't you heard when she usually writes? No. When does she usually write?
14. Haven't you heard which one she'd better write? No. Which one had she better write?
15. Haven't you heard where she's been writing? No. Where she been writing?
16. Haven't you heard what she's written? No. What's she written?
17. Haven't you heard which one she's going to write? No. Which one is she going to write?
18. Haven't you heard what she plans to write? No. What does she plan to write?
19. Haven't you heard how much she wrote? No. How much did she write?

113. NOUN CLASSES Vs. QUESTION (2) / CONVERSATION

Conversation A

S1. When did Peter return?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Please tell me when Peter returned.
S2. I can't tell you.

Conversation B

S1. When will the party be held?
S2. Tom can tell you when the party will be held.
S1. Whom did they invite to the party?
S2. You'll have to ask Tom whom they invited.

Conversation C

S1. Where did the people go?
S2. I don't have any idea where they went.
S1. Do you know where John went?
S2. I didn't even know he had gone.

Conversation D

S1. What did Fred say to Mary?
S2. She didn't tell me what Fred had said to her.
S1. Where will she be this afternoon?
S2. 5he didn't tell me where she would be.

Conversation E

S1. Whose car is Paul using?
S2. He didn't tell me whose car he was using.
S1. Why does he need a car so urgently?
S2. Why he needs a car really doesn't interest me.

Exercise 1

1. Where do they study?	**I really wonder where they study.**
2. When can they study?	**I really wonder when they can study.**
3. What did they have to study?	**I really wonder what they had to study.**
4. What have they studied?	**I really wonder what they've studied.**
5. How much did they study?	**I really wonder how much they studied.**
6. Where are they studying?	**I really wonder where they're studying.**
7. Why won't they study?	**I really wonder why they won't study.**
8. When do they generally study?	**I really wonder when they generally study.**
9. What do they usually study?	**I really wonder what they usually study.**

10. When will they study?	**I really wonder when they study.**
11. When must they study?	**I really wonder when they must study.**
12. What did they use to study?	**I really wonder what they used to study.**
13. How long should they study?	**I really wonder how long they should study.**
14. Where have they been studying?	**I really wonder where they've been studying.**
15. What are they going to study?	**I really wonder what they're going to study.**
16. Why can't they study?	**I really wonder why they can't study.**
17. Which one are they studying?	**I really wonder which one they're studying.**
18. When do they usually study?	**I really wonder when they usually study.**
19. Which one had they better study?	**I really wonder which one they'd better study.**

Exercise 2

1. What will she write?	**Haven't you heard what she'll write ?**
2. Why couldn't she write?	**Haven't you heard why she couldn't write?**
3. How often does she write?	**Haven't you heard how often she writes?**
4. Where's she writing?	**Haven't you heard where she's writing?**
5. What's she written?	**Haven't you heard what she's written?**
6. How much did she write?	**Haven't you heard how much she wrote?**
7. What does she have to Write?	**Haven't yon heard what she has to write?**
8. How much has she Written?	**Haven't you heard how much she's written?**
9. Where's she going to Write?	**Haven't you heard where she's going to write?**
10. Whom did she write to?	**Haven't you heard whom she wrote to?**
11. When should she write?	**Haven't you heard when she should write?**
12. Whom did she use to write to?	**Haven't you heard whom she used to write to?**
13. What's she going to write?	**Haven't you heard what she's going to write?**
14. How much must she write?	**Haven't you heard how much she must write?**
15. How long was she writing?	**Haven't you heard how long she was writing?**
16. When does she usually write?	**Haven't you heard when she usually writes?**
17. Which one had she better write?	**Haven't you heard which one she'd better write?**
18. Where's she been writing?	**Haven't you heard where she's been writing?**
19. What's she written?	**Haven't you heard what she's written?**

Exercise 3

1. Why did they wear it? Let's ask them.	**Let's ask them why they wore it.**
2. Why did she choose it? Please ten me.	**Please tell me why she chose it.**
3. Why did John make it? Can we find out?	**Can we find out why John made it?**
4.Why did you write it? We all Wonder.	**We all wonder why you wrote it.**
5. Why did they bring it? Ask your friend.	**Ask your friend why they brought it.**
6. Why did the man steal it? I can't imagine.	**I can't imagine why the man stole it.**
7. Why did Tom hold it? No one can explain.	**No one can explain why Tom held it.**
8. Why did Alice say it? He doesn't know.	**He doesn't know why Alice said it.**
9. Why did they buy it? Will you ask them?	**Will you ask them why they bought it?**
10. Why did she sell it? Has she told you?	**Has she told you why she sold it?**
11. Why did the boy read it? Let's find out.	**Let's find out why the boy read it.**
12. Why did they send it? John must realize.	**John must realize why they sent it.**
13. Why did the boys break it? Do you have any idea?	**Do you have any idea why the boys broke it?**

Exercise 4

1.Where's she going to stay? Don't you know?	**Don't you know where she's going to stay?**
2.When do they plan to go? Please tell all of us.	**Please tell all of us when they plan to go.**
3.Why hasn't he spoken to us? Let's ask him.	**Let's ask him why he hasn't spoken to us.**

4.Where did they take it? Every one wonders. **Everyone wonders where they took it.**
5.How can she possibly do it? No one can imagine. **No one can imagine how she can possibly do it.**
6.Which one will they use? I Can we find out? **Can we find out which one they'll use?**
7.Why don't they want to go? Did you ask them? **Did you ask them why they don't want to go?**
8.Where docs she study? Mary can tell you. **Mary can tell you where she studies.**
9.What did he pay for that? Do you remember? **Do you remember what he paid for that?**
10.There have they all gone? Won't Tom know? **Won’t Tom know where they've all gone?**
11.Why is that so difficult? We all wonder. **We all wander why that's So difficult.**
12.How did he do that part? Can't he explain? **Can't he explain haw he did that part?**
13.How much did the men have? No one remembers. **No one remembers haw much the men had.**

114. INFINITIVE OF REASONS FOR PURPOSE /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend enrolled at a local school.
S2. Did he say why he enrolled there?
S1. He enrolled there to improve his English, he said.
S2. I suspect he did it to satisfy his boss.

Conversation B

S1. I've come to see Alice.
S2. Sorry. She left for the library about ten minutes ago.
S1. I wonder why she went there.
S2. I think she went there to meet someone.

Conversation C

S1. Could I borrow some money from you?
S2. What do you need it for?
S1. I need it to pay my telephone bill.
S2. All right, but I'll have to stop at the bank to get it.

Conversation D

S1. John has changed his plans in order to go with us.
S2. I'm glad that he was able to change them.
S1. In order to change them, he had to speak to Mr. White.
S2. It was nice of Mr. White to give John permission.

Conversation E

S1. I'm here to get some details about this classified ad.
S2. I'm sorry, but you'll have to write to the advertiser.
S1. Why must I write to the advertiser?
S2. In order to get the information you want.

Exercise 1

1. I enrolled in a course. I wanted to improve my English.	**I enrolled in a course to improve my English.**
2. He shut the window. He wanted to keep out the noise.	**He shut the window to keep out the noise.**
3. They questioned us. They wanted to find out the answer.	**They questioned us to find out the answer.**
4. She went to the store. She wanted to buy groceries.	**She went to the store to buy groceries.**
5. The boys ran fast. The boys wanted to get there on time.	**The boys ran fast to get there on time.**
6. I had to do that. I wanted to satisfy my boss.	**I had to do that to satisfy my boss.**
7. We went back later. We wanted to see it again.	**We went back later to see it again.**
8. Mary informed Mr. Brown. Mary wanted to hear his reaction.	**Mary informed Mr.Brown to hear his reaction.**
9. You called your friend. You wanted to get help.	**You called your friend to get help.**
10. His wife gave him a list. His wife wanted to remind him.	**His wife gave him a list to remind him.**
11. He went to bed early. He wanted to get additional rest.	**He went to bed early to get additional rest.**
12. I borrowed some money. I wanted to pay for the tickets.	**I borrowed some money to pay for the tickets.**
13. They stayed at home. They wanted to finish the report.	**They stayed at home to finish the report.**
14. She turned on the radio. She wanted to hear	

that program.	**She turned on the radio to hear that program.**
15. I'm going to open that window. I want to get some fresh air.	**I'm going to open that window to get some fresh air.**
16. They've taken an examination. They want to qualify for it.	**They've taken an examination to qualify for it.**

Exercise 2

1. He wants to go with them. He's changed his plans.	**He's changed his plans in order to go with them.**
2. They want to open the box. They're using a knife.	**They're using a knife in order to open the box.**
3. You want to attend it. You must make a reservation.	**You must make a reservation in order to attend it.**
4. He wanted to get a raise. He had to study accounting.	**He had to study accounting in order to get a raise.**
5. They wanted to get there on time. They drove very fast.	**They drove very fast in order to get there on time.**
6. Mary wants to please them. Mary will do anything.	**Mary will do anything in order to please them.**
7. I wanted to hear the man. I turned down the radio.	**I turned down the radio in order to hear the man.**
8. He wants to save money. He does his own cooking.	**He does his own cooking in order to save money.**
9. He wanted to surprise them. We kept everything a secret.	**We kept everything a secret in order to surprise them.**
10. John wants to go to college. John must save his money.	**John must save his money in order to go to college.**
11. We wanted to see the parade. Vie went downtown early.	**We went downtown early in order to see the parade.**
12. I wanted to get more information. I went to the library.	**I went to the library in order to get more information.**
13. She wants to go to Europe. She plans to quit her job.	**She plans to quit her job in order to go to Europe.**
14. I want to finish all the work. I must start quite early.	**I must start quite early in order to finish all the work.**
15. He wanted to improve his English. He practiced daily.	**He practiced daily in order to improve his English.**
16. I wanted to get his address. I had to write to his mother.	**I had to write to his mother in order to get his address.**

115. INFINITIVE OF GERUND (1)/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. Do you enjoy writing letters?
S2. No. I put off writing 1etters whenever possible.
S1. Do you also postpone writing reports?
S2. Unfortunately, I do.

Conversation B

S1. Why did they refuse to give you the information?
S2. They probably don't wish to reveal their plans yet.
S1. Did they seem to want to help us?
S2. Yes. In fact, they even offered to.

Conversation C

S1. Have you finished writing the report?

S2. I expect to complete it in an hour or so.
S1. Don't stop working because of me.
S2. I won't. I've resolved to finish it today.

Conversation D

S1. Have you practiced using the new words in sentences?
S2. No. I'm afraid I've failed to do that.
S1. I strongly advise practicing that way.
S2. The teacher suggested doing it that way too.

Conversation E

S1. What has Paul finally decided to become?
S2. I think he's considering becoming a lawyer.
S1. Where does he intend to go to school?
S2. So far, he's avoided making that decision.

Exercise 1

1. We hoped to see that.	**What did you hope to see?**
2. We considered seeing that.	**What did you consider seeing?**
3. We offered to see that.	**What did you offer to see? "**
4. We discussed seeing that.	**What did you discuss seeing?**
5. We wished to see that.	**What did you wish to see?**
6. We "appreciated seeing that.	**What did you appreciate seeing?**
7. We planned to see that.	**What did you plan to see?**
8. We failed to see that.	**What did you fail to see?**
9. We favored seeing that.	**What did you favor seeing?**
10. We postponed seeing that.	**What did you postpone seeing?**
11. We resolved to see that.	**What did you resolve to see?**
12. We stopped seeing that.	**What did you stop seeing?**
13. We demanded to see that.	**What did you demand to see?**
14. We kept on seeing that.	**What did you keep on seeing?**
15. We forgot to see that.	**What did you forget to see?**
16. We pretended to see that.	**What did you pretend to see?**

Exercise 2

1. postpone	**What did you postpone seeing?**
2. demand	**What did you demand to see?**
3. plan	**What did you plan to see?**
4. fail	**What did you fail to see?**
5. favor	**What did you favor seeing?**
6. consider	**What did you consider seeing?**
7. resolve	**What did you resolve to see?**
8. offer	**What did you offer to see?**
9. pretend	**What did you pretend to see?**
10. hope	**What did you hope to see?**
11. discuss	**What did you discuss seeing?**
12. appreciate	**What did you appreciate seeing?**
13. stop	**What did you stop seeing?**
14. wish	**What did you wish to see?**
15. forget	**What did you forget to see?**
16. keep on	**What did you keep on seeing?**

116. INFINITIVE VS. GERUND (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. When do you plan to leave for Hong Kong?
S2. We hope to leave on the tenth.
S1. Why did you put off leaving until the tenth?
S2. Well, we need to buy a lot of things before leaving.

Conversation B

S1. When do you expect to hear from your friends?
S2. I really hesitate even to guess.
S1. I advise not worrying about it.
S2. I've already made up my mind not to worry.

Conversation C

S1. Do you resent having to follow orders?
S2. Truthfully, I can't stand taking orders from people.
S1. But you shouldn't risk losing your job because of that.
S2. I try not to take chances.

Conversation D

S1. I can't help worrying about what they'll do.
S2. Personally, I don't think they'll dare do anything.
S1. I recall having heard other people say that.
S2. We can always force them to stop complaining.

Conversation E

S1. Did you warn your friend not to say anything?
S2. I told him it was important that he reveal nothing.
S1. I recommend that he even avoid answering any questions.
S2. I'll remind him to keep this a strict secret.

Exercise 1

1. She decided to do that.	**What did she decide to do?**
2. She avoided doing that.	**What did she avoid doing?**
3. She needed to do that.	**What did she need to do?**
4. She resisted doing that.	**What did she resist doing?**
5. She delayed doing that.	**What did she delay doing?**
6. She wanted to do that.	**What did she want to do?**
7. She practiced doing that.	**What did she practice doing?**
8. She disliked doing that.	**What did she dislike doing?**

9. She expected to do that.	**What did she expect to do?**
10. She finished doing that.	**What did she finish doing?**
11. She promised to do that.	**What did she promise to do?**
12. She suggested doing that.	**What did she suggest doing?**
13. She intended to do that.	**What did she intend to do?**
14. She advised doing that.	**What did she advise doing?**
15. She refused to do that.	**What did she refuse to do?**
16. She enjoyed doing that.	**What did she enjoy doing?**
17. She put off doing that.	**What did she put off doing?**
18. She offered to do that.	**What did she offer to do?**

Exercise 2

1. What did he want?	**He wanted to do that.**
2. What did he avoid?	**He avoided doing that.**
3. What did he refuse?	**He refused to do that.**
4. What did he finish?	**He finished doing that.**
5. What did he decide?	**He decided to do that.**
6. What did he promise?	**He promised to do that.**
7. What did he resist?	**He resisted doing that.**
8. What did he need F'	**He needed to do that.**
9. What did he advise?	**He advised doing that.**
10. What did he practice?	**He practiced doing that.**
11. What did he suggest?	**He suggested doing that.**
12. What did he expect?	**He expected to do that.**
13. What did he delay?	**He delayed doing that.**
14. What did he enjoy?	**He enjoyed doing that.**
15. What did he intend?	**He intended to do that.**
16. What did he dislike?	**He disliked doing that.**
17. What did he offer?	**He offered to do that.**
18. What did he put off?	**He put off doing that.**

Exercise 3

1. It's essential to continue.	**Continuing is essential.**
2. It'll be important to start.	**Starting will be important.**
3. It hasn't been pleasant to work.	**Working hasn't been pleasant.**
4. It was necessary to succeed.	**Succeeding was necessary.**
5. It shouldn't be foolish to try.	**Trying shouldn't be foolish.**
6. It can be dangerous to proceed.	**Proceeding can be dangerous.**
7. It won't be absurd to go back.	**Going back won't be absurd.**
8. It was only sensible to apologize.	**Apologizing was only sensible.**
9. It isn't very fair to complain.	**Complaining isn't very fair.**
10. It'll be rather helpful to watch.	**Watching will be rather helpful.**
11. It's been very convenient to observe.	**Observing has been very convenient.**
12. It would be dishonest to compete.	**Competing would be dishonest.**
13. It must have been hard to choose.	**Choosing must have been hard.**
14. It won't be practical to go ahead.	**Going ahead won't be practical.**
15. It would have been selfish to stop.	**Stopping would have been selfish.**
16. It used to be impossible to rest.	**Resting used to be impossible.**
17. It's been delightful to travel.	**Traveling has been delightful.**
18. It must be wonderful to relax.	**Relaxing must be wonderful.**
19. It shouldn't have been hard to win.	**Winning shouldn't have been hard.**
20. It'll be quite unpleasant to wait.	**Waiting will be quite un pleasant.**

Exercise 4

1. It'll be interesting to observe that.	**Observing that will be interesting.**
2. It's boring to memorize things.	**Memorizing things is boring.**
3. It's been pleasing to have them.	**Having them has been pleasing.**
4. It was thrilling to recall that.	**Recalling that was thrilling.**
5. It can be annoying to hear that.	**Hearing that can be annoying.**
6. It was satisfying to try it once.	**Trying it once was satisfying.**
7. It's really astonishing to realize it.	**Realizing it is really astonishing.**
8. It'll be amusing to watch them.	**Watching them will be amusing.**
9. It must be amazing to compare them.	**Comparing them must be amazing.**
10. It could be disturbing to see that.	**Seeing that could be disturbing.**
11. It's irritating to put up with that.	**Putting up with that is irritating.**
12. It'll be reassuring to examine them.	**Examining them will be reassuring.**
13. It was shocking to comprehend that.	**Comprehending that was shocking.**
14. It should be inspiring to attend one.	**Attending one should be inspiring.**
15. It's been disappointing to find it out.	**Finding it out has been disappointing.**
16. It's startling to see one suddenly.	**Seeing one suddenly is startling.**

117. INFINITIVE Vs. GERUND (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I'll be in Europe by next week.
S2. There are lots of things (A)
S1. I (B) as much as possible.
S2. Have a good time!

(A)	(B)
to see there	hope to see
to do on the continent	plan to do
to enjoy in that area	want to enjoy
to take pictures of	expect to use my camera
to get interested in	intend to travel around

Conversation Drill B

S1. Are you looking for me?
S2. Yes. Have you finished (A) yet?
S1. Just (B)
S2. Please try to finish everything by tonight.

(A)	(B)
filling out your application	the first two pages
writing your daily report	the essential details
looking over the figures	the important statistics
checking the two lists	the first one

Conversation Drill C

81. Why are you so unhappy about your assistant?
82. Well, she always (A)
81. Does she (B) ?
82. I'm afraid she does

(A)	(B)
avoids doing her share	want to find another job
advises changing everything	ever threaten to quit
postpones finishing her work	expect to be promoted
resists taking orders	ever refuse to take orders
puts off typing reports	fail to do her share

118. CONJUCTIVE + INFINITIVE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where should I park my car?
S2. Didn't Fred show you where to' park it?
S1. He wasn't sure what to' tell me.
S2. Then let's ask the guard aver there where to' put it.

Conversation B

S1. Would you explain how to pronounce this word?
S2. I thought you already knew haw to' pronounce it.
S1. I did know, but I've forgotten.
S2. Well, I hope you remember haw to pronounce it next time.

Conversation C

S1. Wham should we see to get permission to leave?
S2. I think I know wham to speak to.
S1. I wander haw we can explain our difficult situation.
S2. I've been wandering how to do it too.

Conversation D

S1. When are you going to ride to the party with?
S2. Mary, because she knows where to go.
S1. I didn't realize Mary knew haw to' drive a car.
82. I think she learned haw to' drive just recently.

Conversation E

S1. Which one of these sweaters are you going to buy?
S2. I really don't know which one to choose.
S1. In that case, do you want me to tell you what to do?
S2. Since I can't decide which to' take, I'd appreciate your advice.

Exercise 1

We discovered how to do it.	**We discovered when to do it.**
When	**We wondered when to do it.**
Wondered	**We wondered where to do it.**
Where	**We decided where to do it.**
Decided	**We decided what to do.**
What	**We knew what to do.**
Knew	**We knew when to do it.**
When	**We learned when to do it.**
Learned	**We Earned what to do.**
What	**We explained what to do.**
Explained	**We explained how to do it.**
How	**We remembered how to do it.**
Remembered	**We remembered when to do it.**
When	**We forgot when to do it.**
Forgot What	**We forgot what to do.**

Exercise 2

Where will he go?	**He knows where to go.**
Which ones will they bring?	**They know which ones to bring.**
How much will you pay?	**I know how much to pay.**
When will she leave there?	**She knows when to leave there.**
Whom will the man see?	**He knows whom to see.**
What will John give them?	**He knows what to give them.**
How will they find the man?	**They know how to find the man.**
Which will you use last?	**I know which to use last.**
How far will she drive?	**She knows how far to drive.**

What kind will he choose?	**He knows what kind to choose.**
Which one will they talk about?	**They know which one to talk about.**
Where will she get the money?	**She knows where to get the money.**
What will they refer to?	**They know what to refer to.**

119. INJUCTIVE AFTER ADJUCTIVES (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Is it possible to convince your friend he's wrong?
S2. Well, he's likely to be very stubborn.
S1. I'm willing to try it if it's sensible to do so.
S2. It would be foolish of him not at least to listen.

Conversation B

S1. It's hard to get fast service in this store.
S2. I'm always reluctant to shop here because of that.
S1. I guess it's silly to get angry over such a small thing.
S2. And I'm sure it would be useless to complain to the manager.

Conversation C

S1. It's absurd to suspect Robert of having lied to us.

S2. Yes. He's much too honest to do anything like that.
S1. However, it's essential to find out what happened.
S2. I'm too upset about all this to know what to do.

Conversation D

S1. I'm glad to hear that you've found a good job.
S2. I think I was lucky to find one so quickly.
S1. Now I suppose you're eager to get started.
S2. Yes. It'll be wonderful to work in such nice quarters.

Conversation E

S1. Isn't it rather expensive to live in that part of the city?
S2. Perhaps, but it was impossible for us to find anything elsewhere.
S1. Of course, it must be convenient to live so close to your office.
S2. Yes. It's practical to live there even if it's expensive.

Exercise 1

1. They heard that. They were happy.	**They were happy to hear that.**
2. He didn't do it. He was unfit.	**He was unfit to do it.**
3. We saw it. We were lucky.	**We were lucky to see it.**
4. I announced it. I was proud.	**I was proud to announce it.**
5. They got it. They were fortunate	**They were fortunate to get it**
6. She didn't say that. She was reluctant.	**She was reluctant to say that**
7. You helped her. You were considerate	**You were considerate to help her.**
8. We won it. We were grateful.	
9. I didn't stop them. I was powerless	**We were grateful to win it.**
10. They explored it. They were curious	**I was powerless to stop them**
11. You welcomed him. You were discreet	
12. He didn't attempt it. He was afraid	**They were curious to explore it.**
13. She forgave them. She was glad	**You were discreet to welcome him.**
14. We explained it. We were ready	**He was afraid to attempt it**
15. He didn't begin it. He was unable	**She was glad to forgive them**
16. They assisted me. They were good	**We were ready to explain it**
	He was unable to begin it. unable.
Exercise 2	**They were good to assist good.**

1. She'll hear it. Shell be disturbed.	
2. We know that. We're pleased.	
3. He has them. He's been thrilled.	**She'll be disturbed to hear it.**
4. She assisted me. She was contented.	**We're pleased to know that.**
5. They'll get it. They'll be irritated.	**He's been thrilled to have them.**
6. I explain that. I'm always rewarded.	**She was contented to assist me.**
7. She found it out. She was annoyed.	**They'll be irritated to get it.**
8. They'll start it. They'll be reassured.	**I'm always rewarded to explain that.**
9. He got it across. He was satisfied.	**She was annoyed to find it out.**
10. She's seen it. She's been impressed.	**They'll be reassured to start it.**
11. We lost them. We were dismayed.	**He was satisfied to get it across.**
12. I'll study that. I'm very stimulated.	**She's been impressed to see it.**
13. He'll propose that. He'll be prepared.	**We were dismayed to lose them.**
14. She began it. She was very excited.	**I'm very stimulated to study that.**
15. We collect them. We've been amused.	**He'll be prepared to propose that.**
16. They'll use it. They'll be frightened.	**She was very excited to begin it.**
	We've been amused to collect them.

They'll be frightened to use it.

120. INFINITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVALS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why didn't Peter finish the whole job?
S2. I don't know. He seemed eager to do it.
S1. Maybe he was afraid to show his work to anyone.
S2. Well, I know he was anxious to get started this morning.

Conversation B

S1. How do you like your new job as a receptionist?
S2. Well, it's interesting to meet so many people.
S1. But isn't it boring to say the same things all day long?
S2. Sometimes it gets a little monotonous.

Conversation C

S1. I was thrilled to hear the news.
S2. Your parents will be pleased to hear it too.
S1. Wasn't it exciting to hear that you had won the prize?
S2. Yes, but it was hard to believe.

Conversation D

S1. It was kind of Mary and Alice to help us.
S2. I'm sure they were glad to do it.
S1. We were lucky to have such good assistants, weren't we?
S2. Yes, and it was pleasant to work with them, I thought.

Conversation E

S1. Is Tom willing to go with the visitors tomorrow?
S2. Yes. He said he'd be delighted to do it.
S1. It's nice of him to help us this way.
S2. Yes, it is. We're fortunate to have such a good friend.

Exercise 1

1. She'll be disturbed to hear it.	**It'll disturb her to hear it.**
2. We're pleased to know that.	**It pleases us to know that.**
3. He's been thrilled to have them.	**It's thrilled him to have them.**
4. I was contented to assist her.	**It contented me to assist her.**
5. They'll be irritated to get it.	**It'll irritate them to get it.**
6. She's rewarded to explain that.	**It rewards her to explain that.**
7. I was annoyed to find it out.	**It annoyed me to find it out.**
8. They'll be delighted to start it.	**I'll delight them to start it.**
9. He was satisfied to get them back.	**It satisfied him to get them back.**
10. I was impressed to read it.	**It impressed me to read it.**

Exercise 2

	Finding it out annoyed me.
1. It annoyed me to find it out.	**Starting it will delight them.**
2. It'll delight them to start it.	**Getting them back satisfied him.**
3. It satisfied him to get them back.	**Reading it has impressed me.**
4. It's impressed me to read it.	**Losing them dismayed us.**
5. It dismayed us to lose them.	**Studying hard will inspire him.**
6. It'll inspire him to study hard.	**Hearing about it will interest me.**
7. It'll interest me to hear about it.	**Receiving them excited her.**
8. It excited her to receive them.	**Collecting them has amused me.**
9. It's amused me to collect them.	**Using it will frighten them.**
10. It'll frighten them to use it.	

Exercise 3

1. He thanked them. He was polite.	**It was polite of him to thank them.**
2. He didn't thank them. He was rude.	**It was rude of him not to thank them.**
3. He spent his money. He was foolish.	**It was foolish of him to spend his money.**
4. He didn't spend his money. He was wise.	**It was wise of him not to spend his money.**
5. He locked the door. He was cautious.	**It was cautious of him to lock the door.**
6. He didn't lock the door. He was careless.	**It was careless of him not to lock the door.**
7. He shared the food. He was generous.	**It was generous of him to share the food.**
8. He didn't share the food. He was selfish.	**It was selfish of him not to share the food.**
9. He helped us. He was good.	**It was good of him to help us.**
10. He didn't tell them. He was dishonest.	**It was dishonest of him not to tell them.**
11. He answered truthfully. He was sensible.	**It was sensible of him to answer truthfully.**
12. He offered us a ride. He was considerate.	**It was considerate of him to offer us a ride.**
13. He didn't say anything. He was discrete .	**It was discreet of him not to say anything.**
14. He did it that way. He was clever.	**It was clever of him to do it that way.**
15. He didn't complain at all. He was kind.	**It was kind of him not to complain at all.**
16. He invited us to go. He was thoughtful.	**It was thoughtful of. him to invite us to go.**

121.INFINITIVE AFTER TOO OR ENOUGH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. This food is too hot to eat.
S2. Be careful. It's hot enough to burn your tongue.
S1. It will be cool enough to eat if we wait a few minutes.
S2. Yes, but let's not wait until it's too cool to enjoy.

Conversation B

S1. The man's explanation was too complicated to understand.
S2. He doesn't speak slowly enough for us to take notes either.
S1. He gets too excited to remember us students, I think.
S2. Are you brave enough to ask him to repeat everything?

Conversation C

S1. The wind is really strong today.
S2. I'm afraid it's too strong for us to consider going sailing.
S1. Definitely. It's blowing hard enough to tip a boat over.
S2. Maybe it will get calm enough later for us to go out.

Conversation D

S1. I couldn't finish all the work this afternoon.
S2. It was really too much to finish in one day.
S1. To tell the truth, there was enough work to keep me busy two days.
S2. But you're experienced enough to do it faster than anyone else.

Conversation E

S1. Why doesn't the company try this new method of production?
S2. The new method is too dangerous to be considered.
S1. Then will the company continue to use the old method?
S2. Yes. The old method is still safe enough to be used.

Exercise 2

1. The food was very hot. I couldn't eat it.	**The food was too hot for me to eat.**
2. The food was very hot. It burned my tongue.	**The food was hot enough to burn my tongue.**
3. The suit is dirty. You can't wear it tomorrow	**The suit is too dirty for you to wear tomorrow**
4. The suit is clean, You can wear it tomorrow.	**The suit is clean enough for you to wear tomorrow.**
5. The water is very cold now. You can't go swimming.	**The water is too cold now for you to go swimming.**
6. The water is quite warm now. You can go swimming.	**The water is warm enough now for you to go swimming**
7. The rope was very long. It reached to the bottom.	**The rope was long enough to reach to the bottom.**
8. The rope wasn't very long. It didn't reach to the bottom.	**The rope wasn't long enough to reach to the bottom.**
9. The rope was very short. It didn't reach to the bottom.	**The rope was too short to reach to the bottom.**
10. I'm quite strong. I can lift that box without help.	**I'm strong enough to lift that box without help.**
11. I'm quite weak. I can't lift that box without help.	**I'm too weak to lift that box without help.**
12. He's very bright. He can solve the problem by himself.	**He's bright enough to solve the problem by himself.**
13. He's upset now. He can't talk about the problem.	**He's too upset now to talk about the problem.**
14. The work was very hard. We weren't able to finish it.	**The work was too hard for us to finish.**
15. That method is dangerous. It can't be considered.	**That method is too dangerous to be considered.**
16. The other method is quite safe. It can be used.	**The other method is safe enough to be used.**

Conversation A

S1. This food is too hot to eat.
S2. Be careful. It's hot enough to burn your tongue.
S1. It will be cool enough to eat if we wait a few minutes
S2. Yes, but let's not wait until it's too cool to enjoy.

Conversation B

S1. The man's explanation was too complicated to understand.
S2. He doesn't speak slowly enough for us to take notes either.
S1. He gets too excited to remember us students, I this
S2. Are you brave enough to ask him to repeat everything?

Conversation C

S1. The wind is really strong today.
S2. I'm afraid it's too strong for us to consider going sailing.
S1. Definitely. It's blowing hard enough to tip a boat over.
S2. May be it will get clam enough later for us to go out.

Conversation D

S1. I couldn't finish all the work this afternoon.
S2. It was really too much to finish in one day.
S1. To tell the truth, there was enough work to keep me busy two days.
S2. But you're experienced enough to do it faster than anyone else.

Conversation E

S1. Why doesn't the company try this new method of production?

S2. The new method is too dangerous to be considered.
S1. Then will the company continue to use the old method?
S2. Yes. The old method is still safe enough to be used.

Exercise 1

1. He didn't finish it. He was very nervous.	**He was too nervous to finish it.**
2. I didn't hear that. I was very confused.	**I was too confused to hear that.**
3. We didn't say anything we were very angry.	**We were too angry to say anything**
4. They didn't do it. They were very discouraged.	**They were too discouraged to do it.**
5. She didn't read that. She was very busy then.	**She was too busy then to read that**
6. I didn't meet them there. I was very lazy.	**I was too lazy to meet them there.**
7. They didn't help us. They were very insulted.	**They were too insulted to help us.**
8. We didn't return that.. She was very upset.	**She was too upset to return that.**
9. We didn't describe it well. We were very excited	**We were too excited to describe it well**
10.I didn't prepare for it at all. I was very annoyed	**I was too annoyed to prepare forint at all.**
11.She didn't speak about it. She was very ashamed.	**She was too ashamed to speak about it.**
12.They didn't keep it up. They were Very tired by that time	**They were too tired by that time to keep it up**
13.He didn't send for them He was very discreet	**He was too discreet to send for them.**
14.We didn't bring it up at the meeting We were very depressed.	**We were too depressed to bring it up At the meeting.**
15.They didn't begin the work. They were very Afraid.	**They were too afraid to begin the work**
16.I didn't turn the offer down. I was very interested	**I was too interested to turn the offer down.**

122. FINAL PREPOSITIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Whom is Mary talking to?
S2. She's talking to her cousin.
S1. What's she talking about?
S2. She's talking about her new job.

Conversation B

S1. What are Tom and Fred arguing about?
S2. They're arguing about politics.
S1. What's Tom objecting to?
S2. He's objecting to some of Fred's statements.

Conversation C

S1. What part of the lesson did you have trouble with?
S2. I had trouble with several parts.
S1. Whom did you explain Your problems to?
S2. I explained them to Mr. Taylor.

Conversation D

S1.What docs Tom devote his spare time to.
S2. He devotes most of it to his hobbies.
S1. What does he concentrate on mostly?
S2. On photography, I think.

Conversation E

S1. Whom does that Woman remind you of?
S2. Is it somebody I work with?
S1. No. Somebody you're very friendly with.
S2. Now I know. You mean Mary Wilson.

Exercise 1

He benefited from that.	What did he benefit from?
They'll concentrate on that.	What will they concentrate on?
I should insist on that.	What should you insist on?
She contributes to that.	What does she contribute to?
He can succeed in that.	What can he succeed in?
I suffered from that.	What did you suffer from?
They must believe in that.	What must they believe in?
She's prepared for that.	What's she prepared for?
I recovered from that.	What did you recover from?
They'll object to that.	What will they object to?
John can comment on that.	What can he comment on?
I wondered about that.	What did you wonder about?
She must consent to that.	What must she consent to?

They've qualified for that.	What have they qualified for?
He'll worry about that.	What will he worry about?
They're quarreling over that.	What are they quarreling over?

Exercise 2

1 Has she been invited?	What's she been invited to?
2 Weren't you convinced?	What weren't you convinced of
3 Will they be respected?	What will they be respected for?
4. Couldn't he be assured?	What couldn't he be assured of?
5 Must you be prepared?	What must you be prepared for?
6 Was he convicted?	What was he convicted of?
7 Haven't you been pleased?	What haven't you been pleased with?
8 Should she be rewarded?	What should she be rewarded for
9 Are they committed?	What are they committed to?
10 Will you be opposed?	What will you be opposed to
11. Was he reprimanded?	What was he reprimanded for?
12. Are they appreciated	What are they appreciated for?
13. Has Mary been devoted	What has been Mary devoted to
14. Should I be ashamed	What Should I be ashamed of?
15. Must be acquainted?	What Must be acquainted with?
16. Could they be accused?	What Could they be accused?

123 FINAL PREPOSITIONS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did they complain about?
S2. They complained about all the noise.

S1. Whom did you refer them to?
S2. I referred them to the manager.

Conversation B

S1. What are you upset about?
S2. About the things you said.
S1. Is it something I should apologize for?
S2. It certainly is.

Conversation C

S1. Whom did you get the information from?
S2. From my friend Robert.
S1. Is he a person you can rely on to be accurate?
S2. That's something I'm very sure of

Conversation D

S1.Whom were you quarreling with?
S2. I was quarreling with another student
S1. What were you quarreling with him about?
S2. About the coming election.

Conversation E

S1. Whom did 'Mary disagree with?
S2. She disagreed with Mr. Black.
S1. What did she disagree with him on?
S2. On the subject of foreign relations.

Exercise 1

1. It detracted.	**What did it detract from?**
2. It must correspond.	**What must it correspond to?**
3. It provides.	**What does it provide for?**
4. It'll agree.	**What will it agree with?**
5. It has to conform.	**What does it have to conform to?**
6. It was combined.	**What was it combined with?**
7. It's interfering.	**What's it interfering with?**
8. It should contribute.	**What should it contribute to?**
9. It'll contrast.	**What will it contrast with?**
10. It applies.	**What does it apply to?**
11. It's conflicted.	**What has it conflicted with?**
12. It differed.	**What did it differ from?**
13. It must correlate.	**What must it correlate with?**
14. It'll relate.	**What will it relate to?**
15. It all depends.	**What does it all depend on?**
16. It can compensate.	**What can it compensate for?**

Exercise 2

1. He'll apologize to them.	**Whom will he apologize to?**
2. He'll apologize for that.	**What will he apologize for?**
3. She quarreled with him.	**Whom did she quarrel with?**
4. They quarreled about that.	**What did they quarrel about.**

5. He can apply to them. **Whom can he apply to?**
6. He can apply for that. **What can he apply for?**
7. They agree with her. **Whom do they agree with?**
8. They agree on that. **What do they agree on?**
9. He's arguing with them. **Who's he arguing with?**
10. He's arguing about that. **What's he arguing about?**
11. She can complain to him. **Whom can she complain to?**
12. She can complain about that. **What can she complain about?**
13. They spoke to him. **Whom did they speak to?**
14. They spoke about that. **What did they speak about?**
15. He lied to her. **Whom did he lie to?**
16. He lied about that. **What did he lie about?**

124. VERB + PREPOSITIONS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Were you quarreling With John about Something?
S2. No. We were just talking about the political situation.
S1. Does John's opinion differ greatly from yours?
S2. Not much. We agree on almost everything.

Conversation B

S1. Are you worrying about something?

S2. Yes. My job is interfering with my studies.
S1. Why do you insist on studying and working at the same time?
S2. I want to finish school, but I also need money.

Conversation C

S1. Have you inquired about their reasons for staying?
S2. No, because I don't think they would confide in me.
S1, If you associate with them more, maybe they will.
S2. Possibly, but I doubt it.

Conversation D

S1. Are you going to comment on the new regulation?
S2. Yes. I think everyone will benefit from my comments.
S1. Do you object to the regulation or approve of it?
S2. Actually, I have mixed feelings about it.

Conversation E

S1. Do you think Tom will succeed in solving the problem?
S2. It depends on a number of things.
S1. I suppose he'll rely on getting a little help from friends.
S2. Yes, and hell probably confer with Professor Smith too.

Exercise 1

1. They don't approve of him.	**Why don't they approve of him?**
2. I complained to them.	**Why did you complain to them**
3. He can't compete with them.	**Why can't he compete with them?**
4. I've worried about him.	**Why have you worried about him?**
5. He didn't cooperate with me.	**Why didn't he cooperate with you?**
6. We disagreed with her.	**Why did you disagree with her?**
7. I have to listen to them.	**Why do you have to listen to them?**
8. He hasn't inquired about us.	**Why hasn't he inquired about you?**
9. She apologized to them.	**Why did she apologize to them?**
10. You should associate with her.	**Why should I associate with her?**
11. She confides in him.	**Why does she confide in him?**
12. He didn't converse with them.	**Why didn't he converse with them?**

Exercise 2

Why did he worry about them?

Listen	**Why did he listen to them?**
Disagree	**Why did he disagree with them?**
Confide	**Why did he confide in them?**
Inquire	**Why did he inquire about them?**
Converse	**Why did he converse with them?**
Approve	**Why did he approve of them?**
Associate	**Why did he associate with them?**
Complain	**Why did he complain to them?**
Cooperate	**Why did he cooperate with them?**
Compete	**Why did he compete with them?**
Apologize	**Why did he apologize to them?**

Worry **Why did he worry about them?**

Exercise 3

1. Did he benefit from that?	**Yes. He benefited from that.**
2. Will they concentrate on that.	**Yes. They'll concentrate on that.**
3. Shouldn't you insist on that?	**Yes, I should insist on that.**
4. Doesn't she contribute to that?	**Yes. She contributes to that.**
5. Can he succeed in that?	**Yes. He can succeed in that.**
6. Didn't you quarrel about that?	**Yes. We quarreled about that**
7. Have you applied for that?	**Yes. I've applied for that.**
8. Do they believe in that?	**Yes. They believe in that.**
9. Won't he complain about that?	**Yes. He'll complain about that**
10. Have you prepared for that?	**Yes. I've prepared for that**
11. Should she apologize for that?	**Yes. She should apologize for that.**
12. Don't you wonder about that?	**Yes. I wonder about that.**
13. Will they object to that?	**Yes. They'll object to that.**
14. Did she recover from that?	**Yes. She recovered from that**

Exercise 4

1. They quarreled.	**They quarreled about that.**
2. They objected.	**They objected to that.**
3. They succeeded.	**They succeeded in that.**
4. They apologized.	**They apologized for that.**
5. They benefited.	**They benefited from that.**
6. They wondered.	**They wondered about that.**
7. They insisted.	**They insisted on that.**
8. They applied.	**They applied for that.**
9. They recovered.	**They recovered from that.**
10. They concentrated.	**They concentrated on that.**
11. They contributed.	**They contributed to that**
12. They prepared.	**They prepared for that.**
13. They complained.	**They complained about that.**
14. They believed.	**They believed in that.**

Exercise 5

1. He referred to that.	**Why did he refer to that?**
2. I've provided for that.	**Why have you provided for that?**
3. They can't rely on that.	**Why can't they rely on that?**
4. She disapproves of that.	**Why does she disapprove of that?**
5. You must hope for that.	**Why must I hope for that?**
6. They won't speak about that.	**Why won't they speak about that?**
7. She's depending on that.	**Why is she depending on that?**
8. He lied about that.	**Why did he lie about that?**
9. You should invest in that.	**Why should I invest in that'?**
10. I've specialized in that.	**Why have you specialized in that?**
11. They didn't search for that.	**Why didn't they search for that?**
12. I participated in that.	**Why did you participate in that?**
13. He's arguing about that.	**Why is he arguing about that?**
14. She's disposed of that.	**Why has she disposed of that?**

Exercise 6

Why did they speak about that?

Rely	**Why did they rely on that?**
Invest	**Why did they invest in that? - .**
lie	**Why did they lie about that?**
depend	**Why did they depend on that?**
hope	**Why did they hope for that?**
Specialize	**Why did they specialize in that?**
disapprove	**Why did they disapprove of that?**
Argue	**Why did they argue about that?**
participate	**Why did they participate in that?**
dispose	**Why did they dispose of that?**
Search	**Why did they search for that?**
refer	**Why did they refer to that?**
provide	**Why did they provide for that?**

125. VERBS, OBJECT, PREPOSITION (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you explain our reasons for going to Mr. White?
S2. Yes. I explained everything to him.
S1. Did he question you about anything?
S2. No, but he reminded me of several things we should do.

Conversation B

S1. Why is Mary angry at you?
S2. Well, she blames me for the trouble she's having.
S1. But you warned her about the possibilities some time ago.
S2. Yes, and I emphasized that to her.

Conversation C

S1. Did you consult a lawyer about your tax problems?
S2. Yes, but he referred me to someone else.
S1. Whom did he refer you to?
S2. A lawyer who specializes in tax problems.

Conversation D

S1. I understand you assisted the girls with their article.

S2. I just advised them in one or two matters.
S1. It was very kind of you to help them with it.
S2. Actually, I devoted very little time to it.

Conversation E

S1. What did Tom do with the money he won in the contest?
S2. He donated some of it to charity.
S1. Did he deposit any in his bank account?
S2. Yes, and he invested the rest in his brother's business.

Exercise 1

1. Did she consult him about that?	**Yes. She consulted him about that.**
2. Can they accuse you of that?	**Yes. They can accuse me of that.**
3. Has he thanked them for that?	**Yes. He's thanked them for that.**
4. Do they suspect her of that?	**Yes. They suspect her of that.**
5. Will he protect us from that?	**Yes. He'll protect us from that.**
6. Can you question her about that?	**Yes. I can question her about that.**
7. Did he pay the men for that?	**Yes. He paid the men for that.**
8. Should we invite him to that.	**Yes. We should invite him to that.**
9. Did he convince her of that?	**Yes. He convinced her of that.**
10. Does she respect you for that?	**Yes. She respects me for that.**
11. Till they punish him for that?	**Yes. They'll punish him for that.**
12. Must she remind them of that?	**Yes. She must remind them of that.**

Exercise 2

They reminded him.	**They reminded him of that.**
They invited him.	**They invited him to that.**
They consulted him.	**They consulted him about that.**
They paid him.	**They paid him for that.**
They encouraged him.	**They encouraged him in that.**
They accused him.	**They accused him of that.**
They thanked him.	**They thanked him for that.**
They convinced him.	**They convinced him of that.**
They punished him.	**They punished him for that.**
They respected him.	**They respected him for that.**
They protected him.	**They protected him from that.**
They questioned him.	**They questioned him about that.**

Exercise 3

1. Can you increase it to that?	**Yes, I can increase it to that.**
2. Will he identify it as that?	**Yes, I'll identify it as that.**
3, Did you deduct it from that	**Yes. I deducted it from that**
4. Can they omit it from that?	**Yes, they can omit it from that.**
5. Has she invested it in that?	**Yes. she invested it in that?**
6. Can be replace it with that?	**Yes. It can replace it with that**
7, Should We add it to that?	**Yes. You should add it to that.**
8. Do they derive it from that?	**Yes. they derive it from that.**
9. Is he combining it with that?	**Yes, He's combining it with that.**
10. Has Mary related it to that?	**Yes. Mary has related it to that.**
11. Will they donate it to that?	**Yes. They'll donate it to that.**
12, Can we accompany it with that?	**Yes, you can accompany it With that.**
13. Did she exchange it for that?	**Yes. She exchanged it for that.**
14. Will they confine it to that?	**Yes. They'll confine it to that.**

Exercise 4

We exchanged it.	We exchanged it for that.
We omitted it.	We omitted it from that.
We donated it.	We donated it to that.
We identified it.	We identified it as that.
We increased it.	We increased it to that.
We confined it.	We confined it to that.
We deducted it.	We deducted it from that.
We accompanied it.	We accompanied it with that.
We invested it.	We invested it in that.
We related it.	We related it to that.
We replaced it.	We replaced it with that
We derived it.	We derived it from that.
We combined it.	We combined it with that.
We added it.	We added it to that.

Exercise 5

1. Will they blame you for that?	Yes. They'll blame me for that.
2. Did he notify them of that?	Yes. He notified them of that.
3. Can she provide him with that?	Yes. She can provide him with that
4. Do you envy him for that?	Yes. I envy him for that.
5. Did they tease her about that?	Yes. They teased her about that.
6. Can he supply you with that?	Yes. He can supply me with that.
7. Does he admire them for that?	Yes. He admires them for that.
8. Can they direct him to that?	Yes. They can direct him to that.
9. Will he excuse them from that?	Yes. He'll excuse them from that.
10. Has she warned you about that?	Yes. She's warned me about that.
11. Did he compensate you for that?	Yes. He compensated me for that.
12. Did they force him into that?	Yes. They forced him into that.
13. Will she forgive him for that?	Yes. She'll forgive him for that.

Exercise 6

He warned them.	He warned them about that.
He notified them.	He notified them of that.
He forced them.	He forced them into that.
He blamed them.	He blamed them for that.
He forgave them.	He forgave them for that.
He provided them.	He provided them with that.
He envied them.	He envied them for that.
He teased them.	He teased them about that.
He excused them.	He excused them from that.
He warned them.	He warned them about that.
He compensated them.	He compensated them for that
He supplied them.	He supplied them with that.
He directed them.	He directed them to that.

126. VERBS, OBJECT, PREPOSITION (2) / CONVERSATION DRILL

Conversation Drill A
S1. I saw them about that yesterday.
S2. Did they (A) you _____it?
S1. Well, they (*B*_ it. ,
S2. I suppose that was to be expected.

(A)	(B)
blame……...for	complained about
warn……. About	worried about
advise…… of	commented On
encourage….. in	inquired about
remind…….. of	referred to
question… about	spoke about
pay…….. for	consented to
assist ... with	argued about

Conversation Drill B

S1. He's going to see them tomorrow.
S2. Do you think he'll *(A)* them _____that?
S1. He certainly ought to ___*(B)* _ it ____them.
S2. At any rate, he has to do something.

(A)	(B)
consult……. About	explain…… to
threaten…….With	suggest……to
caution……. About	emphasize……. to
furnish……with	divide……. …….among
excuse……from	require……of
provide…….. with	share……. ….with
trust……with	offer……. to
advise……of	conceal……from

127. ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITION (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Smith is very popular with his employees, isn't he?
S2. Yes, he is. He's always been very fair to them.
S1. I know he always seems to be aware of other people's problems.
S2. I think that's why he's been so successful in his work.

Conversation B

S1. How do you like your new teacher?
S2. Very well. He's always patient with us.
S1. Doesn't he ever get angry with his students?
S2. No. He never seems to get upset over anything.

Conversation C

S1. My secretary is very efficient in everything she does.
S2. You're lucky. Secretaries aren't always careful about their work.
S1. Right. My former secretary was often neglectful of things.
S2. Well, I advise you to be very courteous to your new one.

Conversation D

S1. Are you optimistic about the results of the examination?
S2. To be truthful about it, I'm really not.
S1. I'm not very confident of getting a good grade either.
S2. I guess it's no use to be so anxious about it now.

Conversation E

S1. My boss has been critical of my work lately.
S2. Has your recent work been consistent with your previous work?
S1. If anything, I'd say it's been superior to my previous work.
S2. Then maybe he's resentful of you for some other reason.

Exercise 1

1. He was afraid, wasn't he? **Yes. He was afraid of the man.**

2. She's often rude, isn't she? **Yes. She's often rude to the man.**
3. They won't be patient, will they? **No. They won't be patient with the man.**
4. You've been angry, haven't you? **Yes. I've been angry with the man.**
5. He was antagonistic, wasn't he? **Yes. He was antagonistic toward the man.**
6. I haven't been courteous, have I? **No. You haven't been courteous to the man.**
7. She used to be hostile, didn't she? **Yes. She used to be hostile toward the man.**
8. They're always loyal, aren't they? **Yes. They're always loyal to the man.**
9. You'll be friendly, won't you? **Yes. I'll be friendly to the man.**
10. John was good, wasn't he? **Yes. John was good to the man.**
11. You shouldn't be jealous, should you? **No. I shouldn't be jealous of the man.**
12. He isn't very intimate, is he? **No. He isn't very intimate with the man.**
13. She won't be envious, will she? **No. She won't be envious of the man.**
14. They were considerate, weren't they"? **Yes. They were considerate of the man.**
15. He wouldn't be cruel, would he? **No. He wouldn't be cruel to the man.**
16. They're all proud, aren't they? **Yes. They're all proud of the man.**
17. She was always resentful, wasn't she? **Yes. She was always resentful of the man.**
18. He's been quite truthful, hasn't he? **Yes. He's been quite truthful with the man.**
19. They won't be critical, will they? **No. They won't be critical of the man.**

Exercise 2

1. Wasn't he optimistic? **Yes. He was optimistic about that.**
2. Are they all proficient? **Yes. They're all proficient in that.**
3. Have you been aware? **Yes. I've been aware of that.**
4. Won't she be fearful? **Yes. She'll be fearful of that.**
5. Is he really contemptuous? **Yes. He's really contemptuous of that.**
6. Haven't you been pessimistic? **Yes. I've been pessimistic about that.**
7. Are they all innocent? **Yes. They're all innocent of that.**
8. Will some be intolerant? **Yes. Some will be intolerant of that.**
9. Were you impatient? **Yes. I was impatient about that.**
10. Wasn't the boy sorry? **Yes. The boy was sorry about that.**
11. Can't they be responsible? **Yes. They can be responsible for that.**
12. Should the man be earnest? **Yes. The man should be earnest about that.**
13. Were the men intent? **Yes. The men were intent on that.**
14. Must you be skillful? **Yes. I must be skillful at that.**
15. Wasn't she upset? **Yes. She was upset over that.**
16. Aren't you all envious? **Yes. We're all envious of that**

128. ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITION (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What did the men say about the new secretary?
S2. Apparently, she's *(A)* working hard.
S1. In your opinion, is she *(B)* the things she must do?
S2. I would certainly say she is.

(A)	(B)
capable of	skillful at
fond of	proficient in
not afraid of	suitable for
desirous of	efficient in
intent on	careful about
not resentful of	adequate for
amenable to	aware of
not critical of	familiar with

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's your opinion of our new president?
S2. I like him because he's (A) other people.
S1. He's certainly *(B)* everyone.
S2. Obviously, he's a fine person for the job.

(A)	(B)
always considerate of	polite to
never critical of	gentle with
always kind to	friendly toward
never rude to	cooperative with
always patient with	acceptable to
never envious of	thoughtful of
always respectful of	popular with
never hostile toward	truthful with
always courteous to	trustful of
never unfair to	generous with

129. PARTICIPLE + PREPOSITION / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What sports are you interested in?
S2. Well, I get quite excited about football.
S1. Do you get absorbed in games on TV, as my brother does?
S2. I'm afraid I do. Almost every weekend.

Conversation B

S1. Is something the matter?
S2. Well, I'm concerned about my job.
S1. Is it related to all the recent changes?
S2. Yes. I'm having trouble getting adjusted to my new duties.

Conversation C

S1. Are you accustomed to the climate here yet?
S2. Not really. I get tired of the constant rain.
S1.You certainly can't be blamed for that.
S2. I'll really be glad when the spring comes.

Conversation D

S1. Are you acquainted with that man over there?
S2. Yes. I'm associated with him in my work.
S1. I enjoyed talking to him very much.
S2. I'm not surprised at that. He's very charming.

Conversation E

S1. Did you get involved in the argument at the meeting?
S2. Yes. I didn't want to be accused of not having an opinion.
S1. I got very annoyed over several things that Harold said.
S2. To tell the truth, I was very disappointed in him.

Exercise 1

1. Will they be tired of that?	**Yes. They'll be tired of that.**
2. Aren't you accustomed to that?	**Yes. I'm accustomed to that.**
3. Should we be satisfied with that?	**Yes. You should be satisfied with that**
4. Hasn't he been reminded of that?	**Yes. He's been reminded of that.**
5. Must she be concerned about that?	**Yes. She must be concerned about that.**
6. Haven't you been influenced by that?	**Yes. I've been influenced by that.**
7. Can they be blamed for that?	**Yes. They can be blamed for that.**
8. Wasn't she notified of that?	**Yes. She was notified of that.**
9. Will they be excited about that?	**Yes. They'll be excited about that.**

10. Should he be involved in that? **Yes. He should be involved in that.**
11. Were they deprived of that? **Yes. They were deprived of that.**
12. Aren't you interested in that? **Yes. I'm interested in that.**
13. Will she be impressed by that? **Yes. She'll be impressed by that.**
14. Should I be offended by that? **Yes. You should be offended by that.**
15. Weren't you prepared for that? **Yes. I was prepared for that.**
16. Are they displeased with that? **Yes. They're displeased with that.**

Exercise 2

1. Will they be tired? **Why will they be tired of that?**
2. Aren't you accustomed? **Why aren't you accustomed to that?**
3. Should we be satisfied? **Why should we be satisfied with that?**
4. Hasn't he been reminded? **Why hasn't he been reminded of that?**
5. Must she be concerned? **Why must she be concerned about that?**
6. Haven't you been influenced? **Why haven't you been influenced by that?**
7. Can they be blamed? **Why can they be blamed for that?**
8. Wasn't she notified? **Why wasn't she notified of that?**
9. Will they be excited? **Why will they be excited about that?**
10. Should he be involved? **Why should he be involved In that?**
11. Were they deprived? **Why were they deprived of that?**
12. Aren't you interested? **Why aren't you interested in that?**
13. Will she be impressed? **Why will she be impressed by that?**
14. Should I be offended? **Why should I be offended by that?**
15. Weren't you prepared? **Why weren't you prepared for that?**
16. Are they displeased? **Why are they displeased with that?**

Exercise 3

1. They'll be indebted to the man. **Why will they be indebted to him?**
2. Wasn't he devoted to the man? **Why wasn't he devoted to him?**
3. I've been influenced by the man. **Why have you been influenced by him?**
4. We're all accustomed to the man. **Why are you all accustomed to him?**
5. He shouldn't be offended by the man. **Why shouldn't he be offended by him?**
6. No one was acquainted with the man. **Why wasn't anyone acquainted with him?**
7. They're amazed at the man. **Why are they amazed at him?**
8. You must be concerned about the man. **Why must I be concerned about him?**
9. We won't be disappointed in the man. **Why won't you be disappointed in him?**
10. She used to be interested in the man. **Why did she use to be interested in him?**
11. Everyone is disgusted with the man. **Why is everyone disgusted with him?**
12. I had to be associated with the man. **Why did you have to be associated with him?**
13. You shouldn't be displeased with the man. **Why shouldn't I be displeased with him?**
14. Weren't they insulted by the man? **Why were they insulted by him?**
15. You mustn't be ashamed of the man. **Why mustn't I be ashamed of him?**
16. She's been provoked with the man. **Why has she been provoked with him?**

Exercise 4

1. They'll be indebted. **They'll be indebted to the man.**
2. Wasn't he devoted? **Wasn't he devoted to the man?**
3. I've been influenced. **I've been influenced by the man.**
4. We're all accustomed. **We're all accustomed to the man.**
5. He shouldn't be offended. **He shouldn't be offended by the man.**
6. No one was acquainted. **No one was acquainted with the man.**

7. Are they related?	**Are they related to the man?**
8. You mustn't be concerned.	**You mustn't be concerned about the man**
9. We won't be disappointed.	**We won't be disappointed in the man.**
10. She used be interested.	**She used to be interested in the man**
11. Everyone is disgusted.	**Everyone is disgusted with the man.**
12. I had to be associated	**I had to be associated with the man.**
13. Don't be displeased.	**Don't be displeased man**
14. Weren't they insulted?	**Weren't they insulted by man?**
15. You shouldn’t be ashamed.	**You shouldn't be ashamed of the man**
16. She's been provoked.	**She's been provoked with the man.**

130. WORD FORMS (1) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Tom seemed to become nervous when he noticed the time.
S2. He spoke nervously too, I thought.
S1. I noticed he made a quick departure afterw9rd.
S2. Yes. He did leave rather quickly, didn't he?

Conversation B

S1. Is the director a well-educated man?
S2. Yes. He has a good education.
S1. Is he a very efficient person on the job?
S2. Yes, he is. He always seems to do things efficiently.

Conversation C

S1. Was the man angry?
S2. Yes. He shouted at us very angrily.
S1. Were people calm about it or not?
S2. Most of us took it quite calmly.

Conversation D

S1. Helen is a calm person.
S2. I've noticed she always speaks calmly.
S1. She also seems sensible about things.
S2. Yes. She always handles things sensibly, in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. Mr. White looked anxious, don't you think?
S2. Yes. He was pacing the floor anxiously when I saw him.
S1. Is he always so emotional about making speeches?
S2. Yes. He gets very involved emotionally.

Exercise 1

1. He made rapid movements.	**He made movements rapidly.**
2. He used the correct expression.	**He used the expression correctly.**
3. He made a sudden comment.	**He made a comment suddenly.**
4. He asked respectful questions.	**He asked questions respectfully**
5. He made precise gestures.	**He made gestures precisely.**
6. He wrote very careful reports.	**He wrote reports very carefully.**
7. He made a dramatic statement.	**He made a statement dramatically.**
8. He expressed his Sincere emotions.	**He expressed his emotions sincerely.**
9. He told extremely humorous jokes.	**He told jokes extremely humorously**
10. He wrote frequent descriptions.	**He wrote descriptions frequently**
11. He told amusing stories.	**He told stories amusingly.**
12. He gave us quite accurate information.	**He gave us information quite accurately.**
13. He told her his honest Opinion.	**He told her his opinion honestly.**

14. He made several hasty calls.	**He made several calls hastily.**
15. He demanded an immediate apology.	**He demanded an apology immediately**
16. He asked us rather clever questions	**He asked us questions rather cleverly.**

Exercise 2

1 She's very modest.	**She speaks very modestly.**
2. They were resentful.	**They spoke resentfully.**
3. You haven't been nervous.	**You haven't spoken nervous.**
4. Everyone will be considerate.	**Everyone will speak considerately.**
5. We won't be skeptical.	**We won't speak skeptically.**
6. She was just being fair.	**She was just speaking fairly.**
7. You should be brave.	**You should speak bravely.**
8. We have to be practical.	**We have to speak practically.**
9. I'm always sympathetic.	**I always speak sympathetically**
10. John is being very quiet.	**John is speaking very quietly.**
11.They could have been polite.	**They could have spoken politely.**
12. You must be interesting.	**You must speak interestingly.**
13. Please try to be sensible.	**Please try to speak sensibly.**
14. I should have been suspicious.	**I should have spoken suspiciously**
15. She wasn’t really critical.	**She didn't really speak critically.**
16. He used to be enthusiastic.	**He used to speak enthusiastically.**

131. WORD FORMS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Does Peter always speak rapidly?
S2. Usually, but not when he makes speeches.
S1. He's a good speaker, and his pronunciation is excellent.
S2. He does pronounce words well, doesn't he?

Conversation B

S1. Was the president completely satisfied with the results?
S2. Yes, he was. He expressed complete satisfaction.
S1. Did he announce the results of our work formally?
S2. Yes, he did. He made a formal announcement.

Conversation C

S1. Did you consider everything impartially?
S2. Yes. I tried to give everything very impartial consideration.
S1. You treated the matter cautiously, I see.
S2. Well, it definitely called for cautious treatment.

Conversation D

S1. Did the chairman make a recommendation to oppose changes?
S2. Yes, and he recommended opposition to the new proposal
S1. Was there any criticism of the proposal?
S2. Yes. Some people criticized it and proposed further study.

Conversation E

S1. The boys behaved badly and deserved punishment.
S2. After the party, their parents punished them for their bad behavior.
S1. Did they apologize for their rude remarks?
S2. Yes. They made an apology for having spoken so rudely.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

Does Peter always speak rapidly?

work	**Does Peter always work rapidly?**
carefully	**Does Peter always work carefully?**
usually	***Does* Peter usually work carefully?**
write	***Does* Peter usually write carefully?**
accurately	***Does* Peter usually write accurately?**

Exercise 2 / Lines A1 and A3 /

Peter is a rapid speaker.

worker	**Peter is a rapid worker.**

careful	Peter is a careful worker.
the boys	The boys are careful workers.
good writers	The boys are good writers.
accurate	The boys are accurate writers. .

Exercise 3 / Line B4 /

He made a formal announcement.

Recommendation	He made a formal recommendation.
Immediate	He made an immediate recommendation.
Suggestion	He made an immediate suggestion.
Cautious	He made a cautious suggestion.
Reference	He made a cautious reference.

Exercise 4/ Line C3 /

You treated the matter with caution.

Tact	You treated the matter with tact.
Handled	You handled the matter with tact.
Care	You handled the matter with care.
Discussed	You discussed the matter with care.

Exercise 5 / Line C4 /

It definitely called for cautious treatment.

Tactful	It definitely called for tactful treatment.
Handling	It definitely called for tactful handling.
Careful	It definitely called for careful handling.
Discussion	It definitely called for careful discussion.

Exercise 6

1. They're rapid translators.	They translate rapidly.
2. He's a dramatic speaker.	He speaks dramatically.
3. She's a careful listener.	She listens carefully.
4. We're loyal followers.	We follow loyally.
5. You two are steady workers.	You two work steadily.
6. They're cautious planners.	They plan cautiously.
7. I'm a terrible speller.	I spell terribly.
8. You're humorous speakers.	You speak humorously.
9. You're an accurate writer.	You write accurately.
10. You're both wise shoppers.	You both shop wisely.
11. She's a regular helper.	She helps regularly.
12. I'm a clumsy dancer.	I dance clumsily.
13. They're energetic teachers.	They teach energetically.
14. We're attentive listeners.	We listen attentively
15. You're a sincere speaker.	You speak sincerely.
16. He's an efficient supervisor.	He supervises efficiently.

Exercise 7

1. They'll speak considerately.	They'll be considerate
2. I won't speak skeptically.	I won't be skeptical.

3. She speaks very modestly. She's very modest.
4. She was just speaking fairly. She was just being fair.
5. They spoke resentfully. They were resentful.
6. You haven't spoken nervously. You haven't been nervous.
7. Someone must speak bravely. Someone must be brave.
8. We have to speak practically. We have to be practical.
9. I always speak sympathetically. I'm always sympathetic.
10. John is speaking very quietly. John is being very quiet.
11. They could have spoken politely. They could have been polite.
12. You should speak humorously. You should be humorous.
13. Please try to speak sensibly. Please try to be sensible.
14. They've spoken suspiciously. They've been suspicious.
15. She didn't speak critically. She wasn't critical.
16. He used to speak enthusiastically. He used to be enthusiastic.

Exercise 8

1. He announced it. His announcement interested people.
2. We considered it. Our consideration interested people.
3. I recommended it. My recommendation interested people.
4. They opposed it. Their opposition interested people.
5. She criticized it. Her criticism interested people.
6. We proposed it. Our proposal interested people.
7. They explained it. Their explanation interested people.
8. I described it. My description interested people.
9. He improved it. His improvement interested people.
10. They discovered it. Their discovery interested people.
11. She discussed it. Her discussion interested people.
12. I examined it. My examination interested people.
13. They suspected it. Their suspicion interested people.
14. He defended it. His defense interested people.
15. We denied it. Our denial interested people.
16. They predicted it. Their prediction interested people.

Exercise 9

I. He relied on them. His reliance on them was Important.
2. He prepared for that. His preparation for that was important.
3. He invested in that. His investment in that was important.
4. He competed with them. His competition with them was important.
5. He protested about that. His protest about that was important.
6. He succeeded in that. His success in that was important
7. He provided for that. His provision for that was important.
8. He replied to them. His reply to them was important.
9. He participated in that. His participation in that was important.
10. He cooperated with them. His cooperation with them was important.
11. He recovered from that. His recovery from that was important.
12. He persisted in that. His persistence in that was important.
13. He depended on them. His dependence on them was important.
14. He referred to that. His referral to that was important.
15. He disagreed with them. His disagreement with them was important.
16. He speculated on that. His speculation on that was important.

132. WORD FORMS (3) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I tried to instruct John how to get there.
S2. Did he understand your instructions?
S1. Well, I described every place along the way in detail.
S2. Then I'm sure your description made everything clear.

Conversation B

S1.Did you see the demonstration of that new product?
S2. Yes, but it was demonstrated in a different building.
S1.Did the quick change in plans confuse people?
S2. Fortunately, there seemed to be very little confusion.

Conversation C

S1.Robert decided not to say anything about his good luck.
S2. I think he made a wise decision. Don't you?
S1.Definitely I admire him for it too
S2. Without question, he deserves a great deal of admiration.

Conversation D

S1. We just recently agreed on a course of action.
S2. What brought about this agreement?
S1. We investigated and then concluded it was necessary.
S2. I came to the same conclusion after some investigation.

Conversation E

S1. My friend selected everything he needed very quickly.
S2. But his selections were quite good, I thought.
S1. How could he choose things so quickly?
S2. I don't know, but his choices were all very good.

Exercise 1

1. They admired him.	**Their admiration was apparent.**
2. We suspected them.	**Our suspicion was apparent.**
3. She trusted us.	**Her trust was apparent.**
4. They encouraged him.	**Their encouragement was apparent.**
5. We guided them.	**Our guidance was apparent.**
6. He persuaded us.	**His persuasion was apparent.**
7. They recommended her.	**Their recommendation was apparent.**
8. She supported them.	**Her support was apparent.**
9. He advised them.	**His advice was apparent.**
10. We offended him.	**Our offense was apparent**
11. She flattered them.	**Her flattery was apparent.**
12. I reassured him.	**My reassurance was apparent.**
13. He instructed her.	**His instruction was apparent.**

14. You deceived them. **Your deception was apparent.**
15.They respected him. **Their respect was apparent.**
16. We assisted her. **Our assistance was apparent.**

Exercise 2

1. They approved of that. **I mentioned their approval of that.**
2. They depended on him. **I mentioned their dependence on him.**
3. They contributed to that. **I mentioned their contribution to that.**
4. They applied for that. **I mentioned their application for that**
5. They apologized to him. **I mentioned their apology to him.**
6. They insisted on that. **I mentioned their insistence on that.**
7. They complained to him. **I mentioned their complaint to him.**
8. They inquired about that. **I mentioned their inquiry about that**
9. They argued with him. **I mentioned their argument with him**
10. They objected to that. **I mentioned their objection to that**
11. They associated with him. **I mentioned their association with him**
12. They intervened in that. **I mentioned their intervention in that**
13. They adjusted to that. **I mentioned their adjustment to that.**
14. They qualified for that. **I mentioned their qualification for that.**
15. They believed in that **I mentioned their belief in that.**
16. They quarreled with him. **I mentioned their quarrel with him.**

133. WORD FORMS (4) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Didn't Alice seem anxious about taking the examination?
S2. Yes. She seemed to have a great deal of anxiety about it.
S1. But she's the most intelligent student in the class!
S2. I guess intelligence and anxiety aren't directly related.

Conversation B

S1. Fred seems to be a very sincere 2nd ambitious person.
S2. Yes. I admire his sincerity and ambition a great deal.
S1. I suspect some people are very envious of his success.
S2. Well, I'm sure successful people get quite accustomed to envy.

Conversation C

S1. Did Bill's humorous comments amuse everyone?
S2. Yes, they did. He's very clever, isn't he?
S1. Yes, and he has a good sense of humor.
S2. I think everyone enjoyed his cleverness and humor.

Conversation D

S1. We're very grateful for all your generosity.
S2. You're very kind to express your gratitude.
S1. Well, you were very generous, and we wanted to thank you.
S2. And I have appreciated your kindness.

Conversation E

S1. Did your friends give you an accurate description of the event?
S2. Yes. In fact, their accuracy was very impressive.
S1. They're always very competent and reliable in things like that.
S2. Competence and reliability. are important qualities in our work.

Exercise 1

1. He's a wealthy person.	**His wealth helps him a lot.**
2. He's a strong person.	**His strength helps him a lot.**
3. He's a neat person.	**His neatness helps him a lot.**
4. He's a wise person.	**His wisdom helps him a lot.**
5. He's an energetic person.	**His energy helps him a lot.**
6. He's an intelligent person.	**His intelligence helps him a lot.**
7. He's a courageous person.	**His courage helps him a lot.**
8. He's an important person.	**His importance helps him a lot.**
9. He's a practical person.	**His practicality helps him a lot.**
10. He's a brilliant person.	**His brilliance helps him a lot.**
11. He's a lucky person.	**His luck helps him a lot.**
12. He's an ingenious person.	**His ingenuity helps him a lot.**
13. He's· a mature person.	**His maturity helps him a lot.**
14. He's an ambitious person.	**His ambition helps him a lot.**
15. He's an able person.	**His ability helps him a lot.**
16. He's an independent person.	**His independence helps him a lot.**

Exercise 2

1. We're aware of her honesty.	**She's honest with us.**

2. We're aware of your confidence. You're confident in us.
3. We're aware of his patience. He's patient with us.
4. We're aware of their fear. They're afraid of us.
5. We're aware of his antagonism. He's antagonistic toward us.
6. Were aware of her gratitude. She's grateful to us.
7. We're aware of your strictness. You're strict with us.
8. We're aware of their tolerance. They're tolerant of us.
9. We're aware of her politeness. She's polite to us
10. We're aware of his cooperation. He's cooperative with Us.
11. We're aware of their criticism. They're critical of us.
12. We're aware of her rudeness. She's rude to us
13. We're aware of his competition. He's competitive with us.
14. We're aware of their helpfulness. They're helpful to us.
15. We're aware of her loyalty. She's loyal to us.
16. We're aware of his neglect. He's neglectful of us.

Exercise 3

1. She was aware of that. We noticed her awareness of that.
2. She was absent from that. We noticed her absence from that.
3. She was ready for that. We noticed her -readiness for that.
4. She was familiar with that. We noticed her familiarity with that.
5. She was optimistic about that. We noticed her optimism about that.
6. She was anxious about that. We noticed her anxiety about that.
7. She was skillful at that. We noticed her skill at that.
8. She was grateful for that. We noticed her gratitude for that.
9. She was doubtful about that. We noticed her doubt about that.
10. She was intolerant of that. We noticed her intolerance of that.
11. She was proficient in that. We noticed her proficiency in that.
12. She was sorry about that. We noticed her sorrow about that.
13. She was responsible for that. We noticed her responsibility for that.
14. She was successful in that. We noticed her success in that

Exercise 4

1. She's dependent on them. Her dependence on them is obvious.
2. She's considerate of them. Her consideration of them is obvious
3. She's intimate with them. Her intimacy with them is obvious.
4. She's courteous to them. Her courtesy to them is obvious.
5. She's angry at them. Her anger at them is obvious
6. She's suspicious of them Her suspicion of them is obvious.
7. She's loyal to them. Her loyalty to them is obvious.
8. She's jealous of them . Her jealousy of them is obvious.
9. She's hostile toward them. Her hostility toward them is obvious.
10. She's cruel to them. Her cruelty to them is obvious.
11. She's envious of them. Her envy of them is obvious.
12. She's generous with them. Her generosity with them is obvious.

Exercise 5

1. They're very ignorant. People notice their ignorance
2. She's very proud. People notice her pride.
3. We're very formal. People notice our formality.
4. He's very weak. People notice his weakness.
5. You're very fluent. People notice your fluency.
6. She's very innocent. People notice her innocence.

7. I'm very clumsy. People notice my clumsiness.
8. He's very stupid. People notice his stupidity.
9. You're very friendly. People notice your friendliness.
10. She's very popular. People notice her popularity.
11. I'm very frank. People notice my frankness.
12. They're very brave. People notice their bravery.
13. You're very obedient. People notice your obedience.
14. We're very punctual. People notice our punctuality.
15. He's very violent. People notice his violence.
16. She's very appreciative. People notice her appreciation

Exercise 6

1. That'll be simple. They'll see the simplicity of it.
2. That was reckless. They saw the recklessness of it.
3. That's been precise. They've seen the precision of it.
4. That can be consistent. They can see the consistency of it.
5. That should be influential. They should see the influence of it.
6. That's advantageous. They see the advantage of it.
7. That's been probable. They've seen the probability of it.
8. That was appropriate. They saw the appropriateness of it.
9. That used to be beneficial. They used to see the benefit of it.
10. That's suitable. They see the suitability of it.
11. That's been possible. They've seen the possibility of it.
12. That was foolish. They saw the foolishness of it.
13. That ought to be sufficient. They ought to see the sufficiency of it.
14. That'll be reliable. They'll see the reliability of it .
15. That's been effective. They've seen the effectiveness of it.
16. That would be advisable. They would see the advisability of it.

134. WORD FORMS (5) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What did you say about the man?
S2. I said the man *(A)* that.
S1. Yes, and his *(B)* caused problems.
S2. I guess no one expected that.

(A)	(B)
discovered	discovery
invented	invention
refused	refusal
explained	explanation
criticized	criticism
defended	defense
improved	improvement

discussed	**discussion**

Conversation Drill B

S1. Do you know Mary very well?
S2. Yes, I do. I know that she's very *(A)*
S1. Some people aren't aware of her (B)
S2. I've been aware of it for some time.

(A)	(B)
anxious	**anxiety**
accurate	**accuracy**
intelligent	**intelligence**
efficient	**efficiency**
humorous	**humor**
clever	**cleverness**
sincere	**sincerity**
modest	**modesty**

Exercise 2

Haven't you heard what she'll write ?	**No. What will she write?**
Haven't you heard why she couldn't write?	**No. Why couldn't she write?**
Haven't you heard how often she writes?	**No. How often does she write?**
Haven’t you heard where she's writing?	**No. Where's she writing?**
Haven't you heard what she's written?	**No. What's she written?**
Haven't you heard how much she wrote?	**No. How much did she write?**
Haven't you heard what she has to write?	**No. What does she have to write?**
Haven't you heard when she should write?	**No. When should she write?**
Haven't you heard whom she used to write to?	**No. Whom did she use to write to?**
Haven't you heard what she's going to write?	**No. What's she going to write?**
Haven't you heard how much she must write?	**No. How much must she write ?**
Haven't you heard how long she was writing?	**No. How long was she writing?**
Haven't you heard when she usually writes?	**No. When does she usually write?**
Haven't you heard which one she'd better write?	**No. Which one had she better write?**
Haven't you heard where she's been writing?	**No. Where's she been Writing?**
Haven't you heard what she's written?	**No. What's she written?**
Haven't yon heard which one she's going to write?	**No. Which one is she going to write?**
Haven't you heard what she plans to write?	**No. What does she plan to write?**
Haven't you heard how much she wrote?	**No. How much did she write?**

Exercise 3

1. Where will he be?	**I don't know where hell be.**
2. Why did she leave?	**I don't know why she left.**
3. Who's that man?	**I don't know who that man is.**
4. When did they return?	**I don't know when they returned.**
5. Where's John going?	**I don't know where John is going.**
6. Where does she live?	**I don't know where she lives.**
7. When did they arrive?	**I don't know when they arrived.**
8. When are they leaving?	**I don't know when they are leaving.**
9. Why was she absent?	**I don't know why she was absent.**
10. Why didn't she return?	**I don't know why she didn't return.**
11. Why did Mary buy it?	**I don't know why Mary bought it.**
12. Who's that tall man?	**I don't know who that tall man is.**
13. Who's doing the work?	**I don't know who's doing the work.**
14. Who wrote this paper?	**I don't know who wrote this paper.**
15. Whom did they invite?	**I don't know whom they invited.**
16. Whom should I speak to?	**I don't know whom you should speak to.**

Exercise 4

1. Whose house is that?	**Please tell us whose house that is.**
2. Whose book did he use?	**Please tell us whose book he used.**
3. What happened to him?	**Please tell us what happened to him.**
4. What's he talking about?	**Please tell us what he's talking about.**
5. What does the word mean?	**Please tell us what the word means.**
6. What do you call that?	**Please tell us what you call that.**
7. What did she ask them?	**Please tell us what she asked them.**
8. What country is he from?	**Please tell us what country he is from.**
9. What cities did he visit?	**Please tell us what cities he visited.**
10. Which one is Brown's?	**Please tell us which one is Brown's.**
11. Which one does he want?	**Please tell us which one he wants.**
12. Which does John prefer?	**Please tell us which John prefers.**
13. How does it work?	**Please tell us how it works.**
14. How old is Mr.Brown?	**Please tell us how old Mr. Brown is.**
15. How much did it cost?	**Please tell us how much it cost.**

16. How do you say this?

Please tell us how you say this.

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READ & SUCCEED

Set (1) - I've swallowed the bait
Set (2) - Let bygones be bygones
Set (3) - Live within your means
Set (4) - I'm fed up with cutting corners
Set (5) - He should crack the whip
Set (6) - I just couldn't put up with those silly pranks
Set (7) - She's a whistleblower
Set (8) - All I need is a bit more leeway
Set (9) - Determination pays off
Set (10) - They must be bugging us!
Set (11) - They can serve a purpose
Set (12) - University is a thing of the past!
Set (13) - Quit keeping up with the Joneses
Set (14) - Please do and get me off the hook!
Set (15) - You mean she was pulling my leg!
Set (16) - This is a hard pill to swallow
Set (17) - It seems to have vanished into thin air!
Set (18) - I've already greased his palm
Set (19) - Thinking out of the box pays dividends!
Set (20) - It's worth giving it your best shot!
Set (21) - You guys 've gone too far this time!
Set (22) - Do you think I'm jumping the gun?
Set (23) - Let's jump at the chance
Set (24) - Let's not waste our breath
Set (25) - Here we go again!
Set (26) - I did, but they turned a blind eye to it!
Set (27) - You're such a high-maintenance woman!
Set (28) - That's nothing but smoke and mirrors
Set (29) - She deserves a pat on the back
Set (30) - My holiday plans fell apart
Set (31) - I beg to differ
Set (32) - Don't knock yourself out
Set (33) - I was breaking up a fight!
Set (34) - This rat race is getting me down
Set (35) - The pay is well worth it
Set (36) - I need to brush up on some of the m
Set (37) - I'm doomed to learn it the hard way!
Set (38) - I wasn't able to get through
Set (39) - I'm not that strong-willed!
Set (40) - Our company is footing the bill
Set (41) - You're fiddling while Rome burns
Set (42) - Dad's illness turned out to be a blessing in disguise
Set (43) - That's beside the point!
Set (44) - She's feeding you lies
Set (45) - Does this stand to reason?
Set (46) - Appearances are deceiving!
Set (47) - Why don't we track them down?
Set (48) - She gave me a cold shoulder!
Set (49) - Who filled you in on that?
Set (50) - They aren't on the same wavelength
Set (51) - Assuming responsibility is easier said than done
Set (52) - It's a bit of a stretch
Set (53) - Just what the doctor ordered
Set (54) - Nothing but a counter attack can save the day!
Set (55) - It takes two to tango
Set (56) - The sunshine today is just the ticket
Set (57) - Go figure!
Set (58) - Way to go!
Set (59) - It could be right under your nose!
Set (60) - I can kiss it goodbye now!
Set (61) - You just cut to the chase!
Set (62) - The hustle and bustle of cities
Set (63) - It's time to turn over a new leaf!
Set (64) - Let's not take it to heart anyway!
Set (65) - I've been whistling a different tune!
Set (66) - Nib it in the bud
Set (67) - Don't rub it in!

Set (68) - He’s only a freeloader
Set (69) - None had the backbone to stand up to him
Set (70) - At least to save face
Set (71) - Getting me down against my will!
Set (72) - Kill them with your kindness
Set (73) - He’s panic-stricken after he got a sideswip e
Set (74) - He dwells on unnecessary stuff
Set (75) - Can’t you put it off?
Set (76) - 30 lashes with a wet noodle
Set (77) - What do you make out of it?
Set (78) - We have to tap into the key problems
Set (79) - Let’s split the difference
Set (80) - You took the words right out of my mouth!
Set (81) - I had better back out of this commitment
Set (82) - Hold yourself together!
Set (83) - Tell me about it!
Set (84) - You double-crosser! Quit playing with fire
Set (85) - Enough of these prompt replies!
Set (86) - I’m kicking myself for leaving her
Set (87) - He’s getting hold of the wrong end of the stick!
Set (88) - Should we sleep on this as well?
Set (89) - Better late than never
Set (90) - Where is the common sense in that?
Set (91) - You’re barking up the wrong tree, dude!
Set (92) - I was on the edge of my seat all along!
Set (93) - Put your best foot forward
Set (94) - This time they will sink or swim
Set (95) - It's either feast or famine!
Set (96) - Stop milking it for heaven’s sake!
Set (97) - One swallow doesn't make a summer!
Set (98) - He doesn’t want to play the game
Set (99) - A big fish in a small pond!
Set (100) - It’s a dog-eat-dog world

Set (1) - I've swallowed the bait

Dialogue

Mike : What's wrong with you these days John? You have always **kept your nose clean!**
John : It's all a **hoax** . I must admit that I've **swallowed the bait** .
Mike : **How come** !
John : Unfortunately; I **barked up the wrong tree** when I **counted on** Jessie. It **turned out** that she had also been planning to **get rid of** me.
Mike : Oh; I don't believe it. That's **pathetic** .

Vocabulary

Keep one's nose clean : to stay out of trouble.
A hoax : a plan to deceive someone.
Swallow the bait : to respond to someone's actions or words in the way that they intended.
How come : used to ask about the reason for something.
Bark up the wrong tree : to be wrong about the reason for something or the way to achieve something.
Count on : to depend on someone or expect something.
Turn out : prove to be the case.
Get rid of : take action so as to be free of (a troublesome or unwanted person or thing).
Pathetic : making you feel sad or upset.

Exercise;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

keep one's nose clean **how come**
bark up the wrong tree **a hoax** **swallow the bait**
turn out **count on** **get rid of** **pathetic**

a . Vic made a ..... attempt to apologize.
b . If there's anything I can do, ... me.
c . So ..... you got an invitation and not me?
d . He described the deception as a cruel .....
e . The bomb threat ..... to be a hoax.
f . He's a shrewd fox! He won't ..... this easy.
g . He shook the blankets vigorously to ..... the dust.
h . Sid's got to ..... or he'll end up back in prison.
i . I ..... when I applied to such good colleges with my average grades.

Answers

Set (2) - Let bygones be bygones

Dialogue

Anne : Our agent's **let us down** and **spilled the beans** . Our secret recipe is **the talk of the town** right now.
Suzan : Well**, no wonder** . Excuse me Anne; but you're **having a taste of your own medicine** . You've already **played a trick on** your boss to get the job.
Anne : Let's **skip it** and **let bygones be bygones** .
Suzan : Then, **treat me to** a coffee.

Vocabulary

Let someone down : to fail to support or help someone as they had hoped
Spill the beans : to tell people secret information.
The talk of the town : to be what everyone is talking about.
No wonder : it is not surprising.
To have a taste of one's own medicine : when someone gets the same bad treatment that he has been giving others.
Play a trick on : to deceive someone.
Skip it : used to say that one does not want to do something, talk about something, etc.
Let bygones be bygones: to allow the unpleasant things that have happened in the past be forgotten.
Treat (someone or oneself) to (something): to pay for or provide something to someone or oneself as a special gift or treat.

Exercise ;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions:

let someone down **no wonder** **spill the beans**
the talk of the town **to have a taste of one's own medicine**
play a trick on **skip it** **let bygones be bygones**
treat (someone or oneself) to (something)

a. I've heard enough about your job, so……!
b. He got …… when she decided to turn up late.
c. John and Marta …….. us …….. a delightful evening at their home.
d. ……. he is not hungry; he has been eating sweets all day.
e. They decided to …… and made peace with each other.
f. She …… him out of sheer devilment.
g. He was ……. and many newspapers printed his lectures.
h. Trust her to ……., she never could keep a secret.
i. The team didn't want to ……. the coach.

Answers

Set (3) - Live within your means

Dialogue

Eric : It's such a shame we are so **broke** . Everyone is **splurging** out there; I **feel like two cents.**
Carl : Tomorrow is our pay day and we're going to be **loaded** . Aren't we?
Eric : What we earn is just a **drop in the ocean** compared to Steven.
Carl : That guy is **born with a golden spoon in his mouth** . It's time you **came down to earth** and learned how **to live within your means.**

Vocabulary

Broke : (adj) having little or no money.
Splurge : (v) spend (money) freely or extravagantly.
Feel like two cents : to have a feeling of complete worthlessness or unimportance.
Loaded : (adj) having a lot of money; wealthy.
A drop in the ocean: a very small amount.
Born with a golden spoon in one's mouth : Born into a wealthy family.
Come down to earth : to become realistic.
Live within one's means : to spend less or only as much money as one is earning.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with appropriate expressions :

live within one's means splurge
loaded a drop in the ocean feel like two cents
come down to earth broke
born with a golden spoon in one's mouth

a. I'm glad to have finally broken up with Steven, he always made me …….
b. Billionaires swarmed into Nice to ……. millions during the summer holidays.
c. Most of the students at the exclusive private college were ……
d. Her new boyfriend's absolutely ……..
e. We're just ……. compared to the big investors
f. He began to save money when he finally learned to …….
g. I was excited to book a vacation, but I …… when I checked my nearly-depleted bank account.
h. He went ……. owing two million pounds

Answers

Set (4) - Fed up with cutting corners

Dialogue

Mary : The New Year is just **around the corner** . It’s time to **shop around** for bargains.
Suzan : Yeah, you’re right. Everything is **sky-high** nowadays and I’m **fed up with cutting corners** just to **make ends meet** .
Mary : Why don’t you **cut down on** smoking then?
Suzan : You may say I’m **making excuses** . But it does **give me some solace** .
Mary : **Get out of here** !

Vocabulary

Around the corner: very near.
Shop around: to go to several shops before you decide what to buy.
Sky-high: very high.
To be fed up with: annoyed, unhappy, or bored, especially with a situation that has existed for a long time.
Cut corners: do something perfunctorily so as to save time or money.
Make ends meet: to have enough money to buy what you need to live.
Cut down on: to do or use less of something.
Make an excuse : to give a reason for doing something you shouldn't do.
Give solace: to help and comfort when you are feeling sad or worried.
Get out of here !: used to express disbelief.

Exercise

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expression;

cut corners sky-high make ends meet cut down on
around the corner shop around be fed up with
give solace get out of here make an excuse

a. ..... . She would never say such a thing about me.
b. When you're buying a flight, you should always ..... for the best deal.
c. One approved applicant has a dazzling credit report with a ..... rating.
d. The Chancellor of the Exchequer says that economic recovery is just .....
e. Rail passengers ..... cancellations and delays.
f. The government ..... when they built the school with bad materials, and put everyone in danger.
g. She ..... all sorts of ..... for not getting her work done
h. They could hardly ..... and their debts were piling up.
i. Music was the only thing to ..... him ..... during his illness.

Answers

Set (5) - He should crack the whip

Dialogue

Mike : Why are you **down in the dumps** ?
Suzan : Carl has **foiled all our plans** . I was going to **take a few days off work** but he **turned down** my request **on the pretext of** a **due deadline** and that they cannot **do without** me **for the time being** .
Mike : **You're kidding** ! If your husband heard that, he would **hit the ceiling** .
Suzan : He must **step in** and **put a stop to** Carl's arrogance. He's the company's owner **after all** and he should **crack the whip** .

Vocabulary

Down in the dumps : discouraged, depressed, or sad.
Foil a plan : to spoil a plan; to cause it to fail.
Take time off : to take a break from one's employment or school.
Turn down : to refuse someone's request.
On the pretext of : a false reason used to explain why you are doing something.
A due deadline : the time something should be delivered.
Do without : to manage without.
For the time being : for the present; until some other arrangement is made.
You're kidding : You cannot be serious; I don't believe it; this can't be true.
Hit the ceiling : to explode in anger; to go crazy.
Step in : to become involved in a difficult situation, especially in order to help.
Put a stop to : to cause to end.
After all : used to add information that shows that what you have just said is true.
Crack the whip : to use your authority to make someone else behave better or work harder.

Exercise

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions:

take time off turn down on the pretext of
down in the dumps hit the ceiling after all
crack the whip do without Step in
You're kidding for the time being
a due deadline foil a plan Put a stop to

a. ..... me! That guy couldn't manage his way out of a paper bag!
b. I'm going to ..... the corruption in this department once and for all!
c. For partnership returns, the ..... is March 15 and the 15th day of the third month.
d. He spun some tale about needing to ..... work.
e. The world is but a little place, ...
f. We can't ..... the help of your organization.
g. He asked her to marry him but she ..... him .....
h. She's been ..... ever since she lost the match
i. Man, my old lady is really ..... on me to get the lawn mowed.
j. He used to spend hours at her house ..... giving her Japanese lessons.
k. Dad will ..... when he finds out I've left school.
l. Palace officials asked the government to .....
m. Fortunately, the police were able to ..... the kidnapper's .....

Answers

Set (6) - I just couldn’t put up with those silly pranks

Dialogue

Eric : Did you enjoy the show?
David : No, it was **rubbish** . Wasn’t it?
Eric : I just couldn’t **put up with** those silly **pranks** ; they just **weren’t my cup of tea** , but I had to **stick it out** because I was with two of my friends.
David : Well, make sure you see the **trailers** next time.
Eric : Can you **do me a favor** and cancel tonight’s tickets. The whole thing is a kind of **pouring money down the drain** .
David : **With pleasure** .

Vocabulary

Rubbish : (noun) something that is of bad quality.
Put up with : to tolerate; endure.
Prank : (noun) a trick that is intended to be funny.
Not one’s cup of tea : not what one likes or is interested in.
Stick it out : to continue to the end of a difficult or unpleasant situation.
Trailer : (noun) a series of extracts from a film or broadcast, used for advance publicity.
Do someone a favor : to do something for someone as an act of kindness.
Pour money down the drain : to waste money; to throw money away.
With pleasure : gladly (used to express polite agreement or acceptance).

Exercise;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

rubbish put up with prank
not one's cup of tea stick it out trailer
do someone a favor pour money down the drain
with pleasure

a. He hates the job but he has to ..... because he needs the money.
b. A. Take these guys to jail right away. B. .....
c. I saw a ..... for the new series of "Game of Thrones" last night.
d. I thought I'd save some cash buying a second-hand car, but I've ..... trying to get it working
e. The incident was a ..... that went wrong.
f. Only a saint can ..... her children.
g. Thank you for the invitation, but long-distance cycling just .....
h. The food at that restaurant is complete .....
i. Hey, ... and take these bags into the kitchen while I get the others from the car.

Answers

Set (7) - She’s a whistleblower

Dialogue

Sam : I can’t believe how Clare **goes around with** Alice.
Kathy : Why is that? What’s wrong with Alice?
Sam : She’s a **whistleblower** and she **rats on** others in her department.
Kathy : Then, we have to warn Clare as soon as possible **lest** she **slips up** .
Sam : Yeah, **the sooner the better** .
Kathy : Actually! I’m afraid Clare is t**he villain of the piece** but not **the other way round.** Obviously; she is **covering up** by **spreading rumors** about Alice.
Sam : **You don’t say** !

Vocabulary

Go around with : to go places and do things with a particular person.
A whistleblower : a person who tells someone in authority about what is happening.
Rat on : to inform on (someone).
Lest : for fear that.
Slip up : make a careless error.
The sooner the better : right away; the sooner something [referred to] gets done, the better things will be.
You know what : used to indicate that one will say something interesting or surprising.
The villain of the piece : is someone seen as being the cause of trouble.
The other way round : the opposite of what is expected or supposed.
Cover up : to prevent people from discovering mistakes or unpleasant facts.
Spread rumors : to spread unverified information of uncertain origin
You don’t say : used to express amazement or disbelief.

Exercise;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

go around with **whistleblower** **rat on**
lest **slip up** **the sooner the better**
you know what **the villain of the piece** **you don't say**
the other way round **cover up** **spread rumors**

a. He tried to ..... his mistakes but in vain.
b. When you oil your beard, don't oil it too much, ... it soil your clothing.
c. If he is indeed ....., as the police claim he is, he should have been more carefully watched.
d. He ..... some of the local lads.
e. The ..... was fired for exposing the conditions in mental hospitals.
f. Some people even ..... and fabricated stories with ulterior political motives.
g. Wow, it looks like the accountants must have really ..... this time.
h. A; "She ran off with another man." **B;** "……!"
i. Sometimes I cook and she does the dishes and sometimes it is .....
j. The kidnapper is a man we must catch and .....
k. .....! I've got a feeling that she won't show up.
l. The criminal ..... his accomplices to avoid jail time.

Answers

Set (8) - All I need is a bit more leeway

Dialogue

Sam : I'm **racking my brains** to find a way to get the work done before noon.
Kathy : I will **give you a hand** . I didn't know you were **hard up** .
Sam : Honestly; I've **had enough of** this job and I'm **doing my best** to get a better one so that I can **stand on my feet** .
Kathy : You mean you are going to change you **line of work** !
Sam : No, not at all. All I need is a bit more **leeway** . I just feel that I'm **boxed-in** inside this office. I need some space and a **change of air** .
Kathy: **Go for it** !

Vocabulary

Rack ones brains : to make a great effort to think of or remember something.
Give someone a hand : to help, aid, or assist.
Hard up : (adj.) in desperate need of something.
Have enough of (something/ someone) : used when somebody/something is annoying you and you no longer want to do, have or see them/it.
Do one's best : to do all one can.
Stand on one's feet : to be financially independent or physically healthy again.
Line of work : the principal activity in your life that you do to earn money.
Leeway : the amount of freedom to move or act that is available.
Boxed-in : to be restricted or feeling stuck due to one's limited options.
A change of air : a different climate, as a means of improving one's health.
Go for it : Go ahead! Give it a good try!

Exercise;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

rack ones brains **give someone a hand** **hard up**
have enough of **do one's best** **stand on one's feet**
line of work **leeway** **boxed-in**
a change of air **go for it**

a. My ……. is entirely unrelated to politics.
b. To the sick the doctors wisely recommend …… and scenery.
c. She is always ……. because she doesn't lay out her money wisely.
d. A ; "I'm thinking of applying for that job." **B** ; "……!"
e. She'll have to get a job and learn to ……. sooner or later.
f. I've been …….. trying to recall where we put the key.
g. We have a little …… to make up here and there in efficiency, but we are more or less all right.
h. Please …… all our dedicated volunteers …… for their hard work.
i. Clare moved to the countryside because she felt ……
j. My father always ……. to meet our needs.
k. It's time to get rid of this piece of junk. I've …… It.

Answers

Set (9) - Determination pays off

Dialogue

Bill : Sally is **dropping out of** school. She's getting married in two weeks.
Mike : She's a **nitwit** if she thinks that marriage is **a picnic** . That's **no joke** .
Bill : But, her husband is a business **tycoon** . He's going to **back her up for good** .
Mike : Well, I have to **change my mind** . It **makes sense** to **take shortcuts** to success in this tough and rough world.
Bill : I remember when she said that she would make her dreams come true **one way or another.**
Mike : I must admit that determination **pays off** !

Vocabulary

Drop out of : to abandon a course of study.
Nitwit : (adj) idiot.
A picnic : a pleasant and easy activity.
No joke : a difficult or serious matter:
Tycoon : a wealthy, powerful person in business or industry.
Back someone up : to support
For good : permanently; forever.
Change one's mind : to adopt a different opinion or plan.
Make sense : be intelligible, justifiable, or practicable.
Take shortcuts : a method or means of doing something more directly and quickly than and often not so thoroughly as by ordinary procedure.
One way or another : in any way that is possible
Pay off : to yield good results; succeed.

Exercise;

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

drop out of **nitwit** **picnic** **no joke**
tycoon **back someone up** **for good**
change one's mind **make sense** **take shortcuts**
one way or another **pay off**

a. I never liked mushrooms before, but you really ..... with this dish.
b. It's ..... when your brakes fail on the motorway.
c. I have hopes that my perseverance will ..... one day.
d. After she found out about his latest relapse with drugs, she decided it was best to leave him .....
e. Early pacemakers often ..... a race before the finish.
f. After all, he became a ..... as well as a doctor; he must be rolling in money.
g. I've tried asking him but his explanations aren't .....
h. That job was no ..... . They gave us a hard time indeed.
i. Don't be a .....—wear a seat belt!
j. We'll get out of this mess .....
k. Mistakes were made because too many ..... were .....
l. My family ..... in my fight for compensation.

Answers

Set (10) - They must be bugging us!

Dialogue

Emily : Enough **already** (1)! I heard you the first time!
Julie : **Fair enough** ! If I were **in your shoes** , I would also be **out of my mind.**
Emily : How **on earth** do you **give away (1)** such secrets about our business?
Julie : **Believe it or not** . Someone else, **other than** me and you, has **already** (2) informed them about our plans.
Emily : **Already** ? (3) Who on earth could be that **third party** ?
Julie : They must be **bug** ging us **or else** how will they figure out that we are **giving away (2)** free samples?

Vocabulary

Already (1): used as an intensifier to express exasperation or impatience.
Fair enough : used to admit that something is reasonable or acceptable.
In one's shoes : in someone's else place or situation.
Out of one's mind : to be crazy and irrational.
On earth : used after question words to emphasize that you are surprised or annoyed.
Give away (1): to tell information or facts that you should keep secret.
Believe it or not : this is surprising but true (Used to introduce a surprising fact)
Other than: apart from; except.
Already (2): previously
Already (3): so soon.
Third party : a third person other than the two involved.
Bug : to place or hide a listening device inside something.
Or else : used to say what will happen if another thing does not happen
Give away (2): give people stuff without pay.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

already (impatience) fair enough in one's shoes
out of one's mind on earth give away (inform)
believe it or not other than already (previously)
already (so soon) third party bug
or else give away (donate)

a. The sharing of information with the ..... is required.
b. A. "Unless you finish your homework you can't to go outside." **B.** "....." .
c. What's the matter? Are you quitting .....?
d. Make sure you aren't ..... while talking to them.
e. Holidays ..... those in this brochure do not have free places for children.
f. Make sure you are strapped in very well, ... you will fall out.
g. My head is spinning. Be quiet .....!
h. ....., I ended up painting the house myself.
i. He decided to ..... everything he possessed to charities.
j. Don't ..... the content of this session, please.
k . Never mind me! I've ..... had plenty of cookies.
l. If I were ....., I'd probably want an explanation.
m. I must have been ..... when I agreed to join them!
n. Who ..... is Mike? Is he the owner?

Answers

Set (11) - They can serve a purpose

Dialogue

Emily : What have you got in that box?
Julie : Some **odds and ends** . They can **serve a purpose** when I go **out of town** .
Emily : I admire those handy and practical people. They are really **dependable** .
Julie : Aren't you **buttering me up?**
Emily : **Far from it.** You just remind me of my uncle. He was **literally** a **Jack-of-all-trades** . He used to spend the **lion's share** of his time fixing stuff.
Julie : Why don't you introduce me to him? At least we **have something in common.**
Emily : **Don't hold your breath** . He **passed away** years ago.

Vocabulary

Odds and ends : miscellaneous articles or remnants.
Serve a purpose : to have a use.
Out of town : away from home; out of one's town of residence.
Dependable: (adjective): trustworthy and reliable.
Butter up : to praise or flatter someone in order to make him or her more receptive or willing.
Far from it : no; not at all; almost the opposite is true.
Literally : in a literal manner or sense; exactly.
Jack-of-all-trades : (noun) someone who can do many different jobs.
The lion's share : the largest part of something.
Have something in common : to share the same interests.
Don't hold your breath : to tell someone that an event is not likely to happen.
Pass away : to die.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

odds and ends serve a purpose out of town
dependable butter up far from it pass away
literally Jack-of-all-trades the lion's share
have something in common don't hold your breath

a. Mike repairs cars, he paints houses, he makes furniture. He's a real …….
b. She was ……. at the end of her rope, so flight into the woods was unwise.
c. Men ……, but their deeds abide.
d. She put in some clothes……., and make-up.
e. He's established himself as a ……. source of information.
f. A; "Do I think you need to replace this car?" **B;** "……. . It works like a clock."
g. We don't have a spading fork but this shovel should …….
h. The bank has to …….. investors because it is in a fiercely competitive market.
i. She said she'd get back to us, but …….!
j. The ball club will be playing ……. next week.
k. They are wasting ……. of their income by paying rents.
l. Bob and Mary …….. a lot ……. . I can see why they like each other.

Answers

Set (12) - University is a thing of the past!

Dialogue

Sally : I'm sure my university days seem happier **in retrospect** than they really were. Doesn't that sound weird?
Mark : Well, **go easy on** yourself. University is **a thing of the past!**
Sally : **Go easy on** the popcorn then; we are **running short of** it already.
Mark : I always teach you to see the beauty of life, but all you teach me is to **hold a grudge.**
Sally : Don't you see that you're **pushing it** ! I'll throw you out **unless** you **watch your words.**
Mark: Why does it always **end up** like that?

Vocabulary

In retrospect : thinking now about something in the past.
Go easy on someone : to treat someone in a gentle way.
A thing of the past : a thing that no longer happens or exists.
Go easy on (something) : to not take or use too much of something.
Run short of (something): something that no longer happens.
Hold a grudge : not let it go when you feel someone's insulted or wronged you.
Push it : to continue to do or to try to do something when one should stop.
Unless : if not
Watch one's words : be careful about what you say.
End up : to finally be in a particular place or situation.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

in retrospect **go easy on someone**
a thing of the past **go easy on (something)**
run short of **hold a grudge**
push it **unless** **watch one's words** **end up**

a. I promise to think over your proposal, but don't …….
b. If he carries on driving like that, he'll ……. Dead.
c. ……., the old man wished he had traveled more during his younger days.
d. Their bodies may ……. calcium and magnesium.
e. Jane still …….. against me for refusing to lend her some money.
f. …… otherwise you might get into trouble!
g. I won't pay ……. you provide the goods immediately.
h. The doctor told me to ……. the spicy food for a while.
i. …….. Bill. He's still too young to manage that on his own.
j. Those stores are ……—their parent company filed bankruptcy a few years ago.

Answers

Set (13) - Quit keeping up with the Joneses

Dialogue

Steve : Why don't you **mind your own business** and quit **keeping up with the Joneses** ? You're just wasting your time.
Tom : Because of my wife. She keeps **moaning** and **squawking** about money.
Steve : Some people **are bound to** learn it the hard way. I **can't stand** hearing such nonsense.
Tom : I've tried hard to **point out** the fact that we different but **to no avail** . She is a jealous woman. Isn't she your sister? Why don't you **talk her round** ?
Steve : What? Sure, it's getting **overcast** . Isn't it? I had better get home before it gets dark.

Vocabulary

Mind your own business : to concern oneself only with what is of interest to oneself and not interfere in the affairs of others.
Keep up with the Joneses : try to equal your neighbors' lifestyle.
Moan : to complain.
squawk : to complain.
To be bound to do something : Be certain or destined to do something.
Learn something the hard way : to discover what you need to know through experience or by making mistakes.
Can't stand : to hate; to dislike.
Point out : to explain or to tell someone something.
To no avail : without success.
Talk someone round : to convince; to persuade.
Overcast : (of the sky or weather) marked by a covering of grey cloud; dull.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

mind your own business keep up with the Joneses
moan squawk be bound to do something overcast
learn something the hard way can't stand
point out to no avail talk someone round

a. The baby never stopped ..... all night.
b. All his shouting was .....; no one could hear him,
c. I know how to deal with my problems. You better .....
d. I ..... it when she leaves her dirty socks on the floor.
e. We were all ..... about the cold, rainy weather.
f. Toward evening the sky became ..... and it began to thaw.
g. Don't resist young boy! You ..... to lose.
h. She tried in vain to ..... to him the unfairness of his actions.
i. How you could .....? he was very decided!
j. Starting your own business is really tough. I had to .....
k. I'm thinking about getting a third car, just to .....

Answers

Set (14) - Please do and get me off the hook!

Dialogue

Diana : You're **clueless** about how to **deal with** your new assignment. Aren't you?
Anne : Yeah. I'm completely helpless.
Diana : **Never mind** , I'll work **overtime** and **show you the ropes** . I **know** this type of things **inside out** . Or probably I can **take over** tomorrow.
Anne : Please do and **get me off the hook!**
Diana : Well; I **have** got **a full plate today** . I'll give you a hand tomorrow. Okay?
Anne : Thanks Diana. You've truly **saved the day** !

Vocabulary

Clueless : no nothing about
Deal with : to take action to do something, especially to solve a problem.
Never mind : not to worry or not to be upset about something.
Overtime : extra hours that someone works at their job.
Show someone the ropes : to teach someone how to do something.
Know something inside out: know something very thoroughly.
Take over : to begin to have control of something.
Get someone off the hook : to get out of the awkward or unpleasant situation that they are in.
Have a full plate : o have a schedule or workload that is filled to capacity with obligations, tasks, or problems.
Save the day : find or provide a solution to a difficulty or disaster.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

clueless deal with never mind
overtime show someone the ropes save the day
know something inside out take over
get someone off the hook have a full plate

a. He was doing a lot of ..... to save for his vacation.
b. They resent any hint that he will be ..... because of his privileged position.
c. The new president is certainly going to ..... when he gets into office.
d. They had forgotten the knife to cut the wedding cake, but Elizabeth arrived with one and ..... .
e. We must ..... the situation before it gets out of hand.
f. If you study this material for weeks, you'll ..... by the test date.
g. He will ..... the project from me when I go on leave.
h. The kids were so perceptive at one moment and ..... the next.
i. Jack has been here for years – he'll .....
j. I want to get this for your kids, ... the cost!

Answers

Set (15) - You mean she was pulling my leg!

Dialogue

Jack : Don’t be such a **gullible** person. Did you truly believe that Jessie got the tender for the hospital project?
Tony : You mean she was **pulling my leg** !
Jack : **Without doubt.** I don’t deny that she is an ambitious girl and bold enough to **go to extremes** but this deal is definitely **beyond her means** .
Tony : Then, she **making fun of** me!
Jack : Not exactly. She is trying to get you **worked up** so that you **give up** trying.
Tony : She is such a **dirty rat** !

Vocabulary

Gullible : (adj) easily persuaded to believe something; credulous.
Pull someone’s leg : to deceive someone playfully; tease someone.
Without doubt : Without question; certainly; definitely.
Go to extremes : to do something much more than is usual or reasonable.
Beyond one’s means : beyond (or within) one's budget or income.
Make fun of someone : to mock or direct insults at someone or something.
Worked up : (adj) upset or very excited about something.
Give up : to stop trying to do something before you have finished.
Dirty rat : Any malicious act against you or your friends can qualify the perpetrator to be called a dirty rat.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

gullible **pull someone's leg** **without doubt**
go to extremes **beyond one's means** **dirty rat**
make fun of someone **worked up** **give up**

a. So you've changed sides! That's not fair. You ……!
b. The …… woman gave all her money to a fake charity.
c. He was very worked up about seeing his family again after so many years.
d. A second vacation this year is well …….
e. I ……. Karl's …….. when I said Marissa wanted to go out with him.
f. You can …….. me all you want, but I love these shoes.
g. I hope you won't …… playing the piano after that defeat.
h. She had …….. to avoid seeing him.
i. He was …….. the very worst kind of reporter.

Answers

Set (16) - This is a hard pill to swallow

Dialogue

Jessie : I've been meaning to paint the shed all summer, but I keep **letting it ride** .
Rebecca : Why is the delay? Unless you **take action** soon, it's going to **run down** and collapse in a few days.
Jessie : I'm just **in no mood to lift a finger** . I just feel lonely and this is **a hard pill to swallow.**
Rebecca : Oh, poor Jessie. Your recent **break-up** must have ruined you.
Jessie : **On top of** that I'm getting more and more **absent-minded** . Yesterday I had **a near miss** . I was almost hit by a truck.
Rebecca : That's awful.

Vocabulary

Let it ride : take no immediate action over something.
Take action : do something to achieve an aim or deal with a problem.
Run down : gradually deteriorate (or cause to deteriorate) in quality.
In no mood to do something : not feeling like doing or experiencing something.
Lift a finger : make the slightest effort to do something.
A hard pill to swallow : something that is difficult to accept.
Break-up : the end of a relationship.
On top of that : In addition to; besides.
Absent-minded : (adj) distracted; forgetful or inattentive
A near miss : a narrowly avoided collision or other accident.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

let it ride **take action** **run down**
in no mood to do something **lift a finger**
a hard pill to swallow **break-up**
on top of that **absent-minded** **a near miss**

a. That my own son could have done something so horrible is …….
b. Without much care, the property had been allowed to …….
c. She turned to drugs after the …… of her marriage.
d. He drove like a maniac. We had one ……. after another.
e. Don't bother with it now. …… for a day or two
f. keep it down; boys! Mother is …….. put up with our arguing.
g. She is a very …….. child who forgets things and loses things.
h. Jane told Bill he was dull. ……, she said he was unfriendly.
i. If there is a breach of regulations, You're supposed to ……. right away.
j. She does all the work in the house. Nobody else ……..

Answers

Set (17) - It seems to have vanished into thin air!

Dialogue

John : Can't you wipe those crumbs from your mouth? You're **turning my stomach!**
Tom: Oops, sorry!
John : You know what? The children **are up to something** . They keep **sneaking into and out** the kitchen **every now and then** . I'm starting to smell a rat.
Tom : Alright, I'll go and take a look.
John: **OMG** . Where is my wallet? Tom; **leave the kids alone** and come back.
Tom : What's wrong with you.
John : My wallet disappeared. It was beside the television. I've searched for it everywhere but it seems to have **vanished into thin air** !

Vocabulary

Turn one's stomach : To cause one to become nauseated or disgusted.
To be up to something : doing something wrong or secret.
Sneak into; To enter some place in a quiet, sneaky, inconspicuous manner.
Sneak out : to leave furtively and stealthily.
Every now and then : from time to time; occasionally.
Smell a rat : to begin to suspect trickery or deception.
OMG : used to express surprise, excitement, disbelief, etc.
Leave someone alone : to refrain from disturbing or interfering with someone.
Vanish into thin air : to disappear suddenly and completely.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

turn one's stomach **to be up to something**
sneak into **sneak out** **every now and then**
smell a rat **OMG**
leave someone alone **vanish into thin air**

a. ……! If my parents find out they will go mad!
b. When he died, investigators were called in and soon …….
c. The sight of Joe eating raw fish is enough to ……..
d. She'll manage very well if you just ……..
e. To everyone's complete surprise, in a few minutes the ship ……..
f. Steve's putting on a smile. I bet he's …….
g. The burglar ……. without making a sound.
h. The lecture was boring and many students …….
i. We still meet for lunch ……., but not as often as we used to.

Answers

Set (18) - I've already greased his palm

Dialogue

Carl : Hey Alice! You look pleased with yourself today. What's up?
Alice : I'm gonna meet the mayor. It's such a **big deal** (1) for me because I will ask him to grant me an exception.
Carl : **Big deal** ! (2) Seriously!
Alice : You know I need to get a license for the new shop. **I bet** he won't disappoint me and we'll find some **loophole** for this issue.
Carl : Don't be very overoptimistic. I heard he's such a **big-headed** guy.
Alice : **Leave it to me** . I've already **greased his palm** . Oh, by the way, I heard your team won last night – congrats!
Carl : **No big deal** ! we were against a pretty weak team. But thanks **all the same** !

Vocabulary

Big deal (1): something important.
Big deal (2): used to express one's contempt for something regarded as impressive or important by another person.
I bet : used for saying that you are sure about something.
A loophole : a means of escape or evasion, esp. a means or opportunity of evading a law, contract, etc.
Big-headed : (adj) conceited or arrogant.
Leave it to me : let me handle it or take care of it.
Greased one's palm : to bribe.
No big deal : not important.
All the same: despite what has just been said**.**

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

big deal (important) **big deal** (contempt) **I bet**
loophole **big-headed** **leave it to me**
grease one's palm **no big deal all the same**

a. She knew they had meant it kindly, but it had hurt …….
b. What an arrogant, ……. man, she thought.
c. They don't make a ……. out of minor irritations.
d. "I'll give you an allowance," he said. '……,' she thought
e. To get that kind of job or promotion you would have to …….
f. Good for her! She took advantage of a ……. in the tax law.
g. I acted like it was……., when really it was breaking my heart.
h. Boss : I need someone to get my wife when she arrives from the airport.
Employee : ……
i. Why is your face all bruised! …… you were in the middle of a fight.

Answers

Set (19) - Thinking out of the box pays dividends!

Dialogue

Carl : Good opportunities always **come my brother's way** , whether he works hard for them or not. Sounds like **things are looking up** for him all the time.
Alice : No wonder. He **thinks out of the box** and he **doesn't mind taking** on more responsibility. In short, Steven **is cut out to be** a leader.
Carl : **You've got a point there!** Thinking out of the box **pays dividends!**
Alice : **For the record** , **I've made up my mind to** get married and **settle down.**
Carl : Really? What wonderful news! Obviously, I'm the only loser here.
Alice : **Cheer up** , man. Things are bound to look up sooner or later.

Vocabulary

Come one's way : present itself, happen to.
Things are looking up: things are improving or becoming better.
Think out of the box : to think differently, unconventionally, or from a new perspective.
Not to mind doing something: to be happy or willing to do something**.**
To be cut out to be/for something: To be well-suited for a certain position or role.
You've got a point there! Your point of view or opinion makes sense.
Pay dividends : to cause good results at a time in the future.
For the record : So that the true facts about something are clear or known.
Make up one's mind to : to take a decision to do something.
Settle down : live a quieter life by getting married or staying permanently in a place.
Cheer up : to start to feel happier.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

come one's way **things are looking up**
think out of the box **not to mind doing something**
to be cut out to/for **you've got a point there!**
pay dividends **for the record**
make up one's mind to **settle down** **cheer up**

a. One day I'll want to ..... and have a family.
b. .....! It can't be as bad as all that.
c. I can't ..... where to take my vacation.
d. I am trying to ..... to make this event a success.
e. I really hope this promotion ..... because it sounds fascinating.
f. ..... for families across the country as the economy continues to rebound.
g. I ..... going if no one else wants to.
h. With his skinny build, he is just not ..... a linebacker.
i. A: "It's snowing—should we really go out for ice cream?" B: "Hmm, ..."
j. ...., it was she who approached me about such a deal, not the other way around.
k. Taking time out to get fit will ..... in the long run.

Answers

Set (20) - It’s worth giving it your best shot!

Dialogue

David : This day is a big day for me. I’ve **been assigned to** give a speech **on behalf of** our company in front of the minister.
Michael : I bet you’re **ill at ease** already.
David : No, not at all. I’ve **been used to giving** talks since university days. It’s a **breeze** for me. I’ve never **messed things up** when it comes to speaking in public.
Michael : Lucky you. I would have **think twice** before I could take on such a tough task.
David : I truly **bank on** this great opportunity to get a promotion.
Michael : Then, it’s worth **giving it your best shot!**

Vocabulary

Assigned to : to designate someone as responsible for doing something.
On behalf of : as a representative of or a proxy for.
Ill at ease : (adj) uncomfortable or embarrassed.
Be used to something/doing something : to be familiar with a condition or activity.
A breeze : a thing that is easy to do or accomplish.
Mess up : to do something badly; to mishandle a situation.
Think twice : consider a course of action carefully before embarking on it.
Bank on : to rely on confidently.
Give it one’s best shot : do the best that one can.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

assigned to **on behalf of** **ill at ease**
be used to something/doing something **a breeze**
mess up **think twice** **bank on**
give it one's best shot

a. Don't think that learning Dutch or any other language will be ……
b. I'm usually …… when addressing a large crowd of people.
c. An experienced detective was …….. the case.
d. Never mind me! I …….. having my sleep interrupted.
e. Henry ……., but the board still denied his proposal.
f. A previous divorce can make you …… about getting married again.
g. ……. my client, I would like to remind you of your obligations in this matter.
h. You can …… him to hand you a reasonable bill for your services.
i. If you cancel now you'll …….. all my arrangements.

Answers

Set (21) - You guys ’ve gone too far this time!

Dialogue

Max : Thanks, Bill. I’ll **make up** (1) for the missing work on Friday. **I’m tied up** right today.
Bill : Did you and John **make up** (2)? You guys ’ve **gone too far** this time!
Max : Yeah. We met and **hanged out** for hours last night.
Bill : Good. You two **make up** (3) half our team! We need you to be friends.
Max : Wow! This book is made up of twelve separate stories. Can I borrow it?
Bill : Yeah. I **made up** (4) half of them myself. I’ve **got a knack for** writing stories.

Vocabulary

Make up (1): to compensate for something lost, missed, or deficient.
To be tied up : to be busy or being used, with the result that you are not available for anything else.
Make up (2): to reconcile; to be friendly with someone after an argument.
Go too far : to exceed the limits of what is reasonable or acceptable.
Hang out : to spend time relaxing or enjoying oneself.
Make up (3): to form; to combine together.
Make up (4) to create; to invent.
Have a knack for : to be exceptionally proficient at (doing) something.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

make up (compensate) **tied up** **make up** (reconcile)
go too far **hang out**
make up (form) **make up** (create) **have a knack for**

a. The teacher asked the students to ..... short dialogues by themselves.
b. He leans over backwards to ..... for what he has lost.
c. Road accident victims ..... almost a quarter of the hospital's patients.
d. We often quarrel but we always ..... it ..... soon after.
e. It's all very well having a joke but sometimes you .....
f. Do you ..... coming up with ideas? If so, we would love to hear from you.
g. Guys play basketball, goof off, gamble, ..., argue and ignore their women.
h. I'm afraid I 'll be ..... tomorrow at ten.

Answers

Set (22) - Do you think I'm jumping the gun?

Dialogue

Peter : I can't wait to see the new boss. I'm sure I'm gonna **make a hit with** him. I've great ideas that are bound to **knock him out** .
Bob : Let's **keep our fingers crossed** , anyway.
Peter : Do you think **I'm jumping the gun** ?
Bob : Not exactly, but it makes sense to **sit tight** till things **come to light** . Otherwise, you may end up **losing face** .
Peter : Oh! How did this **slip my mind?** Others may think that I'm a **bootlicker** .
Bob : Yeah, because you're a **well-intentioned** guy, others will think that you're buttering him up.
Peter : Right! At least we got rid of Clare; she used to **give me the creeps** .

Vocabulary

Can't wait : Be very eager, anxious, or impatient.
Make a hit : make success or become popular.
Knock someone out ; greatly impress; surprise.
Keep one's fingers crossed : wish for good luck.
Jump the gun : to act before the proper or appropriate time.
Sit tight : to wait patiently and take no action.
Come to light : to become known; to get clearer.
Lose face : to be humiliated or come to be less highly respected.
Slip one's mind : to be overlooked or forgotten.
A bootlicker : to behave like a sycophant toward (someone).
Well-intentioned : (adj) having or showing good intentions.
Give someone the creeps : to make one feel wary or uneasy.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

can’t wait make a hit knock someone out
keep one’s fingers crossed
jump the gun sit tight come to light
lose face slip one’s mind a bootlicker
well-intentioned give someone the creeps

a. Even the most ..... doctors can forget to suggest routine tests.
b. We will be ..... that a quick thaw is on its way
c. I stay away from that old house on the corner, it .....!
d. That movie really ..... me .....—I didn't expect it to be so good!
e. You will ..... at the party in your new dress.
f. Mom ..... for the flowers to bloom and brighten up our yard.
g. I meant to pick up the seats but it just .....
h. The code of conduct required that he strike back or .....
i. Fresh evidence has recently ... that suggests that he didn't commit the murder.
j. When we took the test, Tom ..... and started early.
k. We're advising all our investors to ..... till the market improves.
l. He got the promotion just because he was ..... to the higher-ups.

Answers

Set (23) - Let's jump at the chance

Dialogue

Sarah : I have recently **called on** my aunt. She lives in a cabin which was built above the lake, and it has got a view **to die for** .
Emily : **Speaking of** views, I'**m dying for** a holiday. I just need to **clear my head** .
Sarah : What's wrong with you?
Emily : Our **next-door** neighbors are very loud. And their dog is barking **day and night** . I'm truly **craving** quietness and tranquility.
Sarah : Then let's **jump at the chance** . My aunt is travelling abroad. **What do you say** we spend a few days out there?
Emily : That's a big favor. Sarah; you're **second to none.**

Vocabulary

To die for: (adj) to be extremely attractive, enjoyable, or desirable.
Call on : pay a visit to.
Speaking of : used to introduce a remark about a topic previously mentioned.
Be dying for something : wanting to have/do something so much that you do not want to wait.
Clear one's head : to stop worrying or thinking about something.
Next-door : (adj) living or situated next door.
Day and night : all the time.
Crave : to feel a powerful desire for (something).
Jump at the chance : to quickly take advantage of a new opportunity.
What do you say ? used to make a suggestion or offer.
Second to none : (adj) as good as or better than all others.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

to die for call on speaking of
be dying for something clear one's head
next-door day and night
crave jump at the chance what do you say
second to none

a. It is only natural for youngsters to ..... the excitement of driving a fast car.
b. His meeting with the Holtzes seemed to have refreshed Alvin and .....
c. And then this brother lived ..... and his wife popped in and out.
d. They were hounded ..... by the press.
e. He has compiled a record ..... in its wretchedness.
f. There are women who have silver hair .....
g. Freddie ..... a glass of water—he was so thirsty.
h. An old friend ..... me the day before yesterday.
i. ..... hamburgers, I am as hungry as a hawk.
j. ..... to going to the theatre tonight?
k. Members of the public would ..... to become part owners of the corporation.

Answers

Set (24) - Let’s not waste our breath

Dialogue

Sarah : Michael is **a brain** . I’m sure he’s gonna get the job. I read all the applications; and he’s unquestionably the **cream of the crop** .
Emily : But there’s something **fishy** about him. I just ca**n’t put my finger on it.**
Sarah : Come on! Aren’t you **judging a book by its cover** ?
Emily : I just can’t **put up with** people who are **full of themselves** .
Sarah : We can’t turn him down anyway. You know he’s Mary’s cousin and she’ll **pull some stings** to get him hired.
Emily : As long as our **hands are tied** , let’s not **waste our breath** .
Sarah : Obviously; You can hardly ever find a person who has **made their own way** these days. It’s all favoritism and patronage.

Vocabulary

A brain : an intelligent person.
The cream of the crop : the best among others.
Fishy : (adj) arousing feelings of doubt or suspicion.
To put one’s finger on (something) : to discover the exact reason why a situation is the way it is, especially when something is wrong.
Judge a book by its cover : make judgments depending on appearances.
Put up with : to tolerate; to endure.
Full of oneself : very self-satisfied and with an exaggerated sense of self-worth.
Pull strings : secretly use influence or power.
Hands are tied : unable to act freely.
Waste one’s breath : to speak or argue without result.
Make one’s own way : to rely on one’s own abilities.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

a brain **the cream of the crop** **fishy**
to put one's finger on (something) **judge a book by its cover**
put up with **full of oneself**
pull strings **hands are tied**
waste one's breath **make one's own way**

a. There's something odd about him, but I can't quite .....
b. The researchers and institutions in this network are .....
c. We've got the best ..... in the country working on this problem.
d. He tried to ..... with people he knew to avoid being called up.
e. This country prides itself on letting people ....., relying on no one else's work but their own.
f. I'm convinced there is something ..... going on.
g. I've far better things to do than ..... Arguing.
h. I'd like to help you, but my .....
i. I'm too tired to ..... any nonsense.
j. Learn about the saying! You can't .....
k. She doesn't care about other people's feelings. She's .....

Answers

Set (25) - Here we go again!

Dialogue

Sarah : Now, I would like to discuss your behavior in the party yesterday.
Peter : (to himself) **Here we go again** !
Sarah : You've **made a laughingstock of** me. You just kept **putting me down** .
Peter : Oh, dear! I didn't mean to **hurt your feelings** . I'm really sorry and ready to **pay for it** .
Sarah : Look; I'm gonna ridicule you next weekend and then we **get even.**
Peter : Well done! You're good at **taking your revenge** .
Sarah : **Fair is fair.**

Vocabulary

Here we go again : something familiar, and often unpleasant or unwelcome, is happening again.
Make a laughingstock of : to subject someone to a mockery or ridicule;
Put someone down : to criticize someone; to belittle; to degenerate.
Hurt one's feelings : to make someone feel bad.
Pay for it (mistake) : to be punished for doing something bad to someone else.
Get even : inflict similar trouble or harm on someone to that which they have inflicted on oneself.
Take revenge : to hurt or punish the person who wronged you.
Fair is fair : used for saying that someone should accept something because it is fair.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

Here we go again **make a laughingstock of**
put someone down **hurt one's feelings**
pay for it (mistake)
get even **take revenge** **fair is fair**

a. We all ..... our mistakes in some way at some time.
b. Do not ....., my dear friends, but leave room for God's wrath.
c. He ..... in front of my own employees. He won't get away with it!
d. I felt I was ..... myself, wearing such a silly costume in broad daylight.
e. After she insulted me, all I thought about was how I could ..... with her.
f. You may not like her, but ....., she's a good teacher.
g. I don't mean to ..... but the fact is you're the one who is left out.
h. Fred : We must continue our discussion of the Wilson project. **Sue** .....!

Answers

Set (26) - I did, but they turned a blind eye to it!

Dialogue

Steven : Here we go again — another train cancelled. This is getting ridiculous!
Peter : Why don't we make a complaint to the city council? **Typically** , it **takes** the bus **ages** to get to the stop **let alone** the cancellations. Not only this, but the buses are all **out of date** .
Steven : I did, but they **turned a blind eye to** it every time. And **to crown it all** , I was warned not to **falsify the facts** once more.
Peter : That's ridiculous. We had better see the mayor.
Steven : The who? He's such a **grumpy** man. Forget about it.

Vocabulary

Typically ; in most cases; usually.
Take ages : to take a long time
Let alone : not to mention.
Out of date : (adj) old-fashioned.
Turn a blind eye to it : to ignore something that you know is wrong.
To crown it all : to make things worse.
Falsify the facts: to give a false representation of the facts.
Grumpy : bad-tempered and irritable.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

typically take ages let alone out of date
turn a blind eye to to crown it all
falsify the facts grumpy

a. Regulators ..... those infractions, and thousands of consumers suffered for it.
b. Sam is as ..... as ever as he contends with unrequited feelings.
c. It rained, it snowed, and, ..., our flight was canceled.
d. Everything in her wardrobe must be hopelessly .....
e. David lit up many gatherings with his ..... forthright comments.
f. It’s the worst cover up I have ever seen - you're .....
g. Whenever we're going to a party, it ..... my wife ..... to get ready.
h. He was incapable of leading a bowling team, ... a country

Answers

Set (27) - You're such a high-maintenance woman!

Dialogue

Charles : I've been cooking for three days **in a row** . Are you **taking advantage of** my kindheartedness and goodwill? Enough is enough.
Diana : But the food you make is **out of this world** . You should **go into business** selling it. Believe me, you are gonna **make a bundle** unless someone **beats you to the punch** .
Charles : Enough already. I'm **in no mood for** joking.
Diana : Darling; You've **got a heart of gold** indeed.
Charles : Come on! What else do you want?
Diana : Please do the dishes after you clear the table.
Charles : You're such a **high-maintenance** woman! But I love you.

Vocabulary

In a row : one after another without a break.
Take advantage of : to exploit for one's own benefit.
Enough is enough : no more will be tolerated.
Out of this world : (adj) extremely good or impressive.
Go into business : to begin to work in a certain field of activity.
Make a bundle : to earn a great deal of money.
Beat someone to the punch : to do/say something before someone else does it.
To have a heart of gold : have a generous nature.
High-maintenance : (adj) (of a person) demanding a lot of attention.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

in a row **take advantage of** **enough is enough**
out of this world **go into business**
make a bundle **beat someone to the punch**
to have a heart of gold **high-maintenance**

a. I hear Sarah is ..... with sales from her latest novel.
b. If I'm inside for three days ....., I go crazy.
c. His ..... girlfriend refuses to get engaged without a ring and diamond earrings to match.
d. It's unfair to ..... other people's misfortunes.
e. Wow, that performance was ..... !
f. You think Tom stole your watch? Impossible! He .....
g. I wanted to have the new car, but Sally .....
h. Steve dropped out of school and ..... as a car dealer.
i. Enough humiliation already! Someone has got to stand up and say .....

Answers

Set (28) - That’s nothing but smoke and mirrors

Dialogue

Charles : Sarah said nothing was stolen! that's a ridiculous a **cover-up** .
Diana : Probably her husband **has a finger in the pie** !
Charles : But as far as I know he’s a straightforward fellow who is **keen to** keep his nose clean.
Diana : Excuse me; Charles but you **don’t** seem **to see farther than the end your nose** . I **wasn’t born yesterday** to believe such a hoax.
Charles : What do you mean?
Diana : Everything is **as plain as day** . They’re **playing the victim** to **divert attention from** their bankruptcy.
Charles : That’s nothing but **smoke and mirrors** .

Vocabulary

Cover-up : concealment that attempts to prevent something scandalous from becoming public.
Have a finger in the pie: to have a role or to be involved in something.
Keen to : very interested, eager, or wanting (to do) something.
Not to see farther than the end one’s nose : to be narrow-minded; to lack understanding and perception.
Not to be born yesterday : to have enough experience to not be easily tricked.
As plain as day : Very obvious, quite clear.
Play the victim : to claim or pretend to be undergone or wronged.
Divert attention from : to try to keep people from noticing or thinking about something.
Smoke and mirrors : a strategy of deception and cover up.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

cover-up as plain as day have a finger in the pie
keen to not to see farther than the end one's nose
not to be born yesterday play the victim
divert attention from smoke and mirrors

a. They're only proposing the law to ..... important issues.
b. The raw generation is very ..... get education.
c. You burned your arm on purpose! Stop .....
d. People would suspect a ..... if public hearings aren't held.
e. It's ..... that they must sell their house before they can buy another.
f. The candidate has been accused of using ..... during the debate to undermine the credibility of his opponent.
g. Don't think you can fool me with that old ruse - I ....., you know.
h . Mom is now calling me every hour, and I'm sure you ..... - what exactly did you tell her?
i. The world's destiny is being dictated by leaders who .....

Answers

Set (29) - She deserves a pat on the back

Dialogue

Charles : This is the second time I've failed her driver's test, and I'll do the next time unless I practice parallel parking.
Diana : Oh come on! That's **not the end of the world** . You are one of millions **in the same boat** . You don't really have to despair.
Charles : Jenny's passed it from the first time. She deserves **a pat on the back** .
Diana : Jenny is **going a long** way because she's a **go-getter** .
Charles : Anyway; I have to **get out of** some of my commitments to do some practice. I'm always **beat** . You know.
Diana : Well; I'm afraid the driver's test committee are **taking you for a ride** . I heard they make more money when people fail.

Vocabulary

Not the end of the world : not the worst thing that could happen.
In the same boat : sharing a particular experience or circumstance with others.
A pat on the back : (noun) praise.
Go a long way : to make success; to be adequate.
Go-getter : (adj) ambitious.
Get out of : to try to avoid or escape (a duty or responsibility).
Beat : (adj) completely exhausted.
Take someone for a ride : to deceive or cheat someone.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

not the end of the world **In the same boat**
a pat on the back **go a long way**
go-getter **get out of**
beat **take someone for a ride**

a. You want to be known as a ..... who gets the job done well.
b. Don't worry about the dent. It's .....
c. The only reason she stays late at work is to receive ..... from her boss!
d. Thank you for your generous donation; I'm sure it will .....
e. It's amazing what people will do to ..... paying taxes.
f. Oh man! I can’t lift up my head. I’m completely .....
g. We were two mums ..... and able to make each other feel better.
h. Obviously, you've been ..... Why did you give him five thousand francs?

Answers

Set (30) - My holiday plans fell apart

Dialogue

Josh : Oh, Not again. My holiday plans **fell apart (1)** . My wife is gonna **go nuts** . She always accuses me of not **keeping my word** .
Bill : Do you often **go back on your word** ?
Josh : When the vase **fell apart** (2) last month, I promised to buy a new one. But I'm still broke!
Bill : Don't **let on** to her yet. Maybe everything will turn out okay.
Josh : The point is my wife is **counting** a lot **on** this holiday. She has already informed all friends about it. I can't just overlook that.
Bill : Man! marriage is **no a bed of roses** !
Josh : **Looking back** on my bachelorhood days, I can obviously say that marriage is **heaven** in comparison. Al least I got rid of the **dog's life** .

Vocabulary

Fall apart : to fail.
Go nuts : to become very angry or very excited.
Keep one's word : do what one has promised.
Go back on one's word : fail to keep a promise.
Fall apart (2): break into pieces.
Let on : to reveal; to inform; to tell.
Count on : to hope or expect that something will happen.
No bed of roses : there are unpleasant things to deal with as well as the pleasant ones.
Look back : to think about a time or event in the past.
Heaven : (Uncountable noun) something that gives you great pleasure.
Dog's life : a very unhappy and unpleasant life.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

fall apart (fail) **go nuts** **keep one's word**
go back on one's word **fall apart** (break) **let on**
count on **no bed of roses** **look back**
heaven **dog's life**

a. We hope we can ..... your continued cooperation and support.
b. I just lay in the sun for a week and did nothing - it was .....
c. Tom always ....., so if he promised to help you move, then he'll be here.
d. I had a great childhood and ..... on those days very fondly.
e. Their marriage ..... when she found out about her husband's affair.
f. The watch parts ..... and jumbled up.
g. The old lady will ..... if still no news comes from her son.
h. Don't ..... about our arrangements. At least for a couple of days.
i. Poor Mike! He's been leading a ..... since his wife left him.
j. ..... makes you a liar.
k. This job is ....., the pay is good but my boss is a real Simon Legree.

Answers

Set (31) - I beg to differ

Dialogue

Josh : Albert is a **top-notch** manager who never **backed out of** any agreement.
Bill : Well; **I beg to differ** . You'd better wash your hands of this affair before you end up in jail.
Josh : What? Jail! Do you think **I'm sticking my neck out** by this partnership?
Bill : Don't you see that you're **asking for trouble** by selling smuggled cars? Are you out of your mind?
Josh : I have to. Sales have **fallen off** and all I can do is sitting around **twiddling my thumbs** . Business **stinks** .
Bill : You're right. **Money doesn't grow on trees** .

Vocabulary

Top-notch : (adj) excellent; the best.
Back out of : not to do something that you had said you would do.
I beg to differ : a way of saying "I do not agree" that is polite.
Wash one's hand of : to get out of: to refuse responsibility for.
Stick one's neck out : to expose oneself to some risk, danger, or responsibility.
Ask for trouble : to act in a way that is likely to incur problems or difficulties.
Fall off : to drop off; to decrease.
Twiddle one's thumbs : be bored or idle because one has nothing to do.
Stink : to be of extremely bad quality, to be terrible.
Money doesn't grow on trees : it is not easy to get money.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

top-notch back out of I beg to differ
wash one’s hand of stick one's neck out
ask for trouble fall off twiddle one’s thumbs
stink money doesn’t grow on trees

a. She put me on hold and left me ..... for ten minutes.
b. I'm going to ..... for you and present your idea to the boss.
c. Find yourself a ..... university, preferably one with room to spare.
d. The government is trying to ..... its commitment to reduce pollution.
e. Giving him such a powerful car when he's only just learned to drive is .....
f. The trash really ..... - why don't you take it out?
g. I ..... with you, but you have stated everything exactly backwards.
h. Orders slowed; causing sales to ..... dramatically.
i. I've done all I can for him, and now I'm ..... him.
j. I can’t give you any more pocket money, Alice. ....., you know.

Answers

Set (32) - Don’t knock yourself out

Dialogue

Linda : England had been **knocked out** (1) of the World Cup by West Germany.
Lucy : Really! This news will **knock** James **out** (2). He is a big fan of Germany.
Linda : I also heard that the storm **knocked out** (3) power supplies in many parts of the city. Two people passed away and 1o were **knocked out (4)** .
Lucy : Don’t **knock yourself out** reporting such news. I’m in no mood to hear them right now. Don’t you see that you’re getting a news **junkie** !
Linda : It’s all because of the **dead-end** conditions we are **going through** .
Lucy : Don’t be so **morbid** and gloomy for Heaven’s sake! Things aren’t that bad.

Vocabulary

Knock out (1): to make someone leave a competition by defeating them.
Knock someone out (2): to impress someone.
Knock out (3): to destroy something, or to stop it working.
Knock out (4): make someone unconscious.
Knock oneself out : make a lot of efforts to do something.
Junkie : a person with a compulsive habit or obsessive dependency on something
Dead-end : (adj) permitting no opportunity for progress or advancement.
Go through : to experience; to undergo.
Morbid : (adj) showing a strong interest in subjects such as death that most people think are unpleasant.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

knock out (defeat) **knock someone out** (impress)
knock out (destroy) **knock out** (become unconscious)
knock oneself out **junkie** **dead-end**
go through **morbid**

a. It’s time you quit that ..... job and find a more rewarding one.
b. The storm ..... the phones all around the country.
c. Those sleeping pills .....me ..... for ten hours.
d. The response to my work has absolutely ..... me .....
e. Mark my words! We’ll ..... them ..... from the first round.
f. Don’t ..... yourself ..... . The battery’s dead.
g. Thomas is a computer ..... . He works hours and hours nonstop!
h. My mind was filled with ..... thoughts of death.
i. He's amazingly cheerful considering all he's had to go through.

Answers

Set (33) - I was breaking up a fight!

Dialogue

Lucy : Why is all your face **black and blue** like this? Have you had a fight?
Mike: Actually; I was **breaking up a fight** ! My cousin has recently got married but he and his wife are having arguments all the time. **Sounds like** they are going to **break up** soon.
Lucy : They should handle their arguments with kindness and love. Otherwise, their life is bound to **turn upside down** .
Mike : The point is my cousin is a **flirt** . He keeps teasing girls. This is **the heart of the matter.**
Lucy : Then; she has to **teach him a lesson** . A flirt! Huh!
Mike : You women are all **cut from the same cloth** .

Vocabulary

Black and blue : (adj) covered in bruises, (as if) from a severe beating.
Break up a fight : to bring a fight to an end.
Sound like : to seem, from what has been said, as if something were so.
Break up : to end a relationship.
Turn upside down : to (cause something to) change completely and in a bad way.
A flirt : (noun) somebody who behaves towards others in a way that shows that he/she is sexually attracted to them.
The heart of the matter : the basic, central or critical point of an issue.
Teach someone a lesson: to punish or hurt someone as a deterrent or warning.
Cut from the same cloth : of the same nature; similar.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

black and blue **break up a fight (break it up)**
sound like **break up** **turn upside down**
a flirt **the heart of the matter** **teach someone a lesson**
cut from the same cloth

a. ..... is that the relevant economic context is not Europe but globalization.
b. Peter was a shameless ..... with all the girls in school.
c. He felt appalled by the whole idea of marriage so we .....
d. He ..... the whole house ..... looking for his checkbook.
e. That kitten ..... a human baby.
f. He earned good money being beaten ..... as a prize fighter.
g. She and her brother are ..... . They both tell lies all the time.
h. The point is they were ..... for daring to complain.
i. When the teacher saw the two boys shove each other, she came running over to try to .....

Answers

Set (34) - This rat race is getting me down

Dialogue

Lucy : Oh! This **rat race** is **getting me down** . I can't help **biting more than I can chew.**
Mike : Poor Lucy! You seem to be truly **running around in circles** .
Lucy : Yeah; right! John keeps telling me to **simmer down** and **take it easy** , but I don't want to be **kicked out** . Yet, I'm just **going nowhere** and I feel that I'm **selling myself short.**
Mike : Well; I have to say that you should **come clean** about your issues with your seniors and then you'll **have a clear conscience** .
Lucy : I'll give it a try.

Vocabulary

Rat race : a way of life in which people are caught up in a fiercely competitive struggle for wealth or power.
Get someone down : to depress or demoralize someone.
Bite more than one can chew : to take more responsibility than one can handle.
Run/Go around in circles : to keep doing or talking about the same thing without achieving anything.
Simmer down : to slow down.
Take it easy : to make little effort; to rest.
Kick out : to remove one from a place or expel someone from an organization.
Go/Get nowhere : to make no progress.
Sell oneself short : to underestimate.
Come clean : to be completely honest; to keep nothing hidden.
Clean/clear conscience : to feel free of guilt or responsibility.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

rat race **get someone down**
bite more than one can chew **run/go around in circles**
simmer down **take it easy** **kick out**
go/get nowhere **sell oneself short** **come clean**
a clean/clear conscience

a. The movie theater ..... that guy for sneaking food inside.
b. Don't ..... — your writing is really excellent!
c. He and I dated for a while, but it .....
d. I didn't do it. I swear to that with a .....
e . My children always ..... about making the mess in the house.
f. She is still so young, it is sad to see her being so caught in the .....
g. You don't have to ..... by accepting the job in Alaska while winters.
h. The thought of working for a faceless corporation really .....
i. In the absence of adequate data, the surveyors are just .....
j. Children, recess is over , so ..... and take your seats, please.
k. I'm going to put my feet up and ..... this afternoon.

Answers

Set (35) - The pay is well worth it

Dialogue

Jenny : I hear you're moving to Sydney.
Rob : Yeah! I've got a job offer there. And the pay is **well worth it** .
Jenny : Can you give me **a ballpark figure** of the salaries there? I heard they pay **big bucks** .
Rob : Well; don't **get carried away** . It's 3000 bucks **give or take** .
Jenny : Don't forget to **drop me a line** when you get there.
Rob : I'll **keep you posted** .
Jenny : Well; I look forward to hearing from you soon. Good luck!

Vocabulary

Well worth : worth the work involved to attain it.
A ballpark figure : An acceptable, roughly accurate approximation.
Big bucks : large sums of money.
Get carried away : to become overly excited and to take things too far.
Give or take : approximately.
Drop someone a line : to send someone a note or letter in a casual manner.
Keep someone posted : keep someone informed of the latest developments or news.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

well worth **ballpark figure** **big bucks**
get carried away **give or take** **drop someone a line**
keep someone posted

a. You should not ..... by success or get disappointed by failure.
b. The art of Early American furniture painters is ..... studying.
c. Right now, her condition is stable. We promise to ..... as she improves.
d. I'll ..... you ..... once I get settled in at school.
e. Sports stars earn ..... for pushing everything from shoes to soft drinks.
f. We'll have to go away and cost this carefully, but as ..... I'd say that it'll be about two million dollars.
g. ..... a few years, they are contemporaries.

Answers

Set (36) - I need to brush up on some of them

Dialogue

Peter : Let’s **back up** ! Where was I?
Rob : You’re talking about your poems and that you don’t **have** your **notes on you** . You’re going to think of it right **off-hand** . Aren’t you?
Peter : You know what! Sounds like I need to **brush up on** some of them.
Rob : What? Is it possible that all of them just **slipped your mind all at once** ?
Peter : Come on; Rob! Don’t be silly. I just I can't think of the lines **off the top of my head** . **Give me a break** for heaven’s sake!
Rob : Man! You always end up **in** such **awkward positions** ! That’s what you get out of **blowing your own horn** !

Vocabulary

Back up : to return to an item previously mentioned.
To have on : to carry something on one's person.
Off-hand : Without preparation or forethought; extemporaneously.
Brush up on : to improve one's existing knowledge or skill in a particular area.
Slip one’s mind : to be forgotten.
All at once : suddenly; all at the same time.
Off the top of one’s head : without careful thought or investigation.
Give someone a break : to stop putting pressure on someone about something.
In an awkward position : in a situation or scenario that could prove to be embarrassing or damaging to one's reputation.
Blow one’s own horn : to show off; to brag; to boast.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

back up **have on** **off-hand**
brush up on **slip one’s mind** **all at once**
off the top of one’s head **give someone a break**
in an awkward position **blow one’s own horn**

a. Oh! I can’t afford this now. I don’t ..... enough money ..... me.
b. How do you say we backed out of the weekend arrangement without asking me first? Good for you! You’re really brilliant and putting me .....!
c. He's seven times as quick and he's only 20 years old—..... me .....!
d. I'm sorry I didn't call you back sooner, it totally ..... my .....
e. It's a lot of information to absorb .....
f. I know of two people who are coming ....., but I'm pretty sure more said they'd be here.
g. I can't quote the exact statistics for you ....., they're in this report.
h. Wait—..... a little. What did you say that phone number was?
i. It does make sense to ..... my French before I go to Paris.
j. I don't mean to ....., but this pasta sauce I made is quite delicious!

Answers

Set (37) - I'm doomed to learn it the hard way!

Dialogue

Peter : Once we **cleared the air** , we found that it had just been a simple misunderstanding. Stacy always **makes a mountain out of a molehill** .
Rob : See! It does go a long way to **open up** and come clean.
Peter : You're right. Getting into disagreements has **wiped me out** . It's **no simple matter** . I feel like I'm **on the edge** .
Rob : You should avoid trouble and mind your own business.
Peter : Man! fair enough; I**'m doomed to learn it the hard way!**

Vocabulary

Clear the air : to get rid of doubts or hard feelings.
Make a mountain out of a molehill : to treat a minor problem as if it were a very serious problem; to overact.
Open up : to speak candidly; to reveal one's inner thoughts or emotions.
Wipe someone out : to exhaust or tire someone.
No simple/easy matter : something that is not easy to do.
On the edge : very anxious and about to become distraught.
Be doomed to : likely to have an unfortunate and inescapable outcome.
Learn it the hard way : to learn by making mistakes through trial and error.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

clear the air **make a mountain out of a molehill** **open up**
wipe someone out **no simple/easy matter** **on the edge**
be doomed to **learn it the hard way**

a. The silent treatment isn't helping the situation between you two, so just ..... already!
b. As time passed, and with the continuous urging, she finally ..... to me.
c. Starting your own business is really tough. I had to .....
d. After the horrible events of the last week, we are all .....
e. It's ..... to find a decent place to live in this city.
f. Standing in lines ..... me ..... . Please fill the forms yourself.
g. Those who do not know history ..... repeat it.
h . Don't make a ....., you only lost one chance. You can give it a another .

Answers

Set (38) - I wasn’t able to get through

Dialogue

John : I tried to **get a hold of** Bill last night, but I wasn’t able to **get through** . He’s getting more and more indifferent these days.
Linda : Well; don’t **get him wrong** . Probably his phone is **out of order** . Why didn’t you **leave him a message** ?
John : He was locked out of his apartment last week because he had left the keys inside!
Linda : Oh! That’s weird. There must be something **out of the ordinary** in his life.
John : Nothing unusual. He’s simply **head over heels in love** .

Lind : Already! **let me know** when is **the big day** !

Vocabulary

Get hold of someone : to communicate with someone, esp. by telephone.
Get through : to succeed in talking to someone on the phone
Get someone wrong : make an incorrect estimation or assessment of.
Out of order : broken; not working; not functioning.
Leave someone a message : to leave information for someone you haven't been able to meet or talk to.
Out of the ordinary : not what is considered to be normal; unusual; strange.
Head over heels in love : madly in love.
Let someone know : to inform someone.
The big day : the day when you get married.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

get hold of someone get through get someone wrong
out of order leave someone a message out of the ordinary
head over heels in love let someone know the big day

a. I didn't observe anything ..... about her behavior that day.
b. An old friend might well be able to ..... to her and help her.
c. Be sure to ..... if anything changes between now and then.
d. I haven't talked to her in years, so I wouldn't know how to ..... her anymore.
e. Sorry, the vending machine is ..... . You'll have to go across the street to get a snack.
f. Sam was obviously ..... with his new bride, and Martha was clearly content.
g. He was fastidious in his preparation for .....
h. Unless you get through to Steve by phone, just ..... . He will catch up later on.
i. You've .....— I know he seems gruff, but he's a total sweetheart.

Answers

Set (39) - I'm not that strong-willed!

Dialogue

Diana : This smell **stinks** ! Oops! I've forgot to put the food in the fridge. It's **rotten** .
Charley : **Good for you** ! Just **fix** anything. I've **lost my appetite** , anyway.
Diana : Oh dear; I'll make it up for you. I promise.
Charley : Alright, let's **eat out on second thought** .
Diana : But I'm **on a diet** . I'm trying to **lose weight** and I can be easily tempted. You know I'm not that **strong-willed** !

Charley : **Enough already** ! My **head is spinning.** I just need to **grab a bite** .

Vocabulary

Stink: to have a strong unpleasant smell.
Rotten : (adj) decomposing or decaying; putrid; tainted, foul, or bad-smelling.
Good for you ! Well done (sarcastic meaning; the speaker is not impressed)
Lose one's appetite : to no longer feel hungry.
Eat out : to eat in a restaurant.
On second thought : resulting from a revised opinion or change of mind.
On a diet : following a specific nutritional plan.
Lose weight : to become thinner.
Strong-willed : (adj) determined to do as one wants.
Enough already : used to indicate unwillingness to tolerate any more of something undesirable.
Somebody's head is spinning : to feel as if they might faint.
Grab a bite : To get something to eat.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

stink rotten Good for you! lose one's appetite
eat out on second thought on a diet
lose weight strong-willed enough already
somebody's head is spinning grab a bite

a. You shouldn't be eating that burger as long as you're trying to .....
b. Let's slow down for heaven's sake! My .....
c. My doctor put me ..... of nothing but fruits, vegetables, and nuts.
d. Hearing the gruesome details of the murder made me .....
e. She wondered why ..... Miranda was going along with what Adam wanted.
f. Let's get the ball rolling; boys - ..... with making excuses!
g. How on earth could she stay there? The place ..... like a sewer!
h. Bob ; "Well, I have to confess that I made a mess of the event". **Luna** : "……!"
i. Bob often tries to ..... between meetings.
j. ....., I see by doing this we might be in for another failure.
k. The wood was so ..... you could put your finger through it.
l. I used to eat out in the evening when my parents were on nightshifts.

Answers

Set (40) - Our company is footing the bill

Dialogue

Martin : Here is some **spending/pocket money** from your mother for your trip.
Charles : Thanks! Our company is **footing the bill** for everything anyway. I was also elected to speak on behalf of our department.
Martin **: Big Deal** ! Sounds like you're on the **winning streak** these days.
Charles : A pay raise is also **on the horizon** . How about your transfer?
Martin : It's **up in the air** . To my bad luck the sales are **going to the dogs.**
Charles : Well; I heard from my sources that your boss is gonna leaving. So **rest assured** that a **breakthrough** is coming up.

Vocabulary

Spending money : money available to be spent on pleasures and entertainment.
Foot the bill : to pay the bill for something
Big Deal !: said when you do not think that what someone has said or done is important or special.
Winning streak: a series of victories, successes, or instances of good fortune.
On the horizon : imminent or just becoming apparent.
Up in the air : uncertain; subject to change.
Go to the dogs : to deteriorate or go awry.
Rest assured : To be certain or confident (about something).
Breakthrough : (noun) an important development or achievement.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

pocket money	**foot the bill**	**big deal**
winning streak	**on the horizon**	**up in the air**
go to the dogs	**rest assured**	**breakthrough**

a. You can ..... that we will do everything we can to get your money back.
b. The average amount of ..... received by teenagers fell to £ 4 a week .
c. Police believe the items are a major ..... in the six-week-old inquiry.
d. A. "I will be the one in charge for the last quarter". **B.** "……!"
e. Many analysts warned that an economic crash was ……, but none of the world's governments paid any mind.
f. This firm has ..... since the new management took over.
g. The proposal to build a golf course next to the airport is still .....
h. We've finally started having a bit of a ..... with our latest products.
i. Don't be angry, I will ..... for damage to your car.

Answers

Set (41) - You're fiddling while Rome burns

Dialogue

Martin : Jessie; **for your information** ; you're **fiddling while Rome burns** . You were put **in charge of** the whole event.
Jessie : weren't I? How come? Why didn't they inform me earlier. There're only three days left. We're so **pressed for time** . Sounds like I'm always destined to **race against time** to get things done.
Martin : Stop moaning and let's get our priorities right—**first things first** .
Jessie : Then; you have to **put forth** a plan for the rules of procedure. **In the meantime** ; I will **set up** a teamwork.

Vocabulary

For your information : So you know or are aware of something.
Fiddle while Rome burns: To take little to no productive action during a crisis.
In charge of : in control or with overall responsibility.
Pressed for time : Having a small or limited amount of time available; in a hurry.
Race against time : to hurry to beat a deadline.
First things first : important matters should be dealt with before other things.
Put forth : to suggest.
In the meantime : while something else is happening.
Set up : to organize or plan something such as an event or system.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

for your information fiddle while Rome burns in charge of
pressed for time race against time first things first
put forth in the meantime set up

a. I know we have a lot to discuss, but ..... — has anyone heard back from the printer?
b . This scientist has ..... a new theory in his research field
c. The lobbyists don't seem to be doing anything to stop this tax bill. They're .....
d. You are not ..... the universe; you are in charge of yourself.
e. When you're ..... and need to look stylish, black will always save the day.
f. The mountaineers ..... their base camp at the foot of the mountain.
g. The doctor will be here soon. ....., try and relax.
h. Jen's going to have to ..... if she wants to get her story in tomorrow's newspaper—it's almost time to send it to the publisher!
i. ....., I've worked as a journalist for six years. I know this stuff inside out.

Answers

Set (42) - Dad's illness turned out to be a blessing in disguise

Dialogue

Stephen : Dad's illness turned out to be **a blessing in disguise** ; it **brought** the family **together** for the first time in years.
Carl : They say **every cloud has a silver lining** .
Stephen : He also found out his painting talent. And **contrary to all expectations** , he announced that he wouldn't go back to work **anymore** !
Carl : In spite of his illness, he's **unshaken** and still making decisions! I thought his life will **turn upside down** .
Stephen : At least he's been able to **get over it.**

Vocabulary

A blessing in disguise : something that seems bad or unlucky at first but causes something good to happen later.
Bring together : to cause (people) to join or meet; to unify.
Every cloud has a silver lining : every difficult or sad situation has a comforting or more hopeful aspect, even though this may not be immediately apparent.
Find out : to gain knowledge of (something); learn.
Contrary to expectations : although people thought it would be different.
Anymore : to any further extent; any longer.
Unshaken : (adj) not disturbed; steadfast and unwavering.
Turn upside down : to put in disorder, mix or mess up
Get over it : to start to feel happy or well again after something bad has happened to you.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

a blessing in disguise **bring together**
every cloud has a silver lining **find out**
contrary to expectations **anymore**
unshaken **turn upside down** **get over it**

a. The world is being ..... by the string of multimedia technologies coming down the pike.
b. My car broke down again, but maybe it was .....; I've been wasting too much time driving around anyway.
c. ....., the level of retail sales fell in January.
d. But his character remained serene and ..... in dignity.
e. I was curious to ..... what she had said
f. He's trying to ..... various strands of radical philosophic thought.
g. When I'm going through a hard time, I try to remind myself that .....
h. You need to ..... and focus on winning today's game
i. He's been wrong several times before, so I don't put much stock in what he says .....

Answers

Set (43) - That’s beside the point!

Dialogue

Stephen : Hey Michael; **get over here** ! How was today’s test?
Michael : As usual; I **blew it!** I told you French is just **over my head** .
Stephen : If you didn’t **cut class** frequently, you’d do better. Above all, you’re always **messing around** and **slacking off** . No wonder!
Michael : In short; I **can’t stand** the teacher. She **takes side** and favors Linda over others. That’s not fair.
Stephen : That’s **beside the point** ! Why don’t you study hard and **turn the tables on them** ? Then, we’ll see if she’s unfair.
Michael : Oh! My stomach hurts; I’m gonna **throw up** .

Vocabulary

Get over here : used for telling someone to come.
Blow something ; to ruin or waste something.
Over one’s head : beyond someone's ability to understand.
Cut class : to absent oneself from a class; to miss classes on purpose.
Mess around : behave in a silly or playful way.
Slack off : to do something with less effort or energy.
Can’t stand : to dislike; to hate.
Take sides : to support one person or opinion over another.
Beside the point : not relevant; not important.
Turn the tables : to change a situation so that you now have an advantage.
Throw up : to vomit.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

get over here	**blow something**	**over one's head**	
cut class	**mess around**	**slack off**	**can't stand**
take sides	**beside the point**	**turn the tables**	**throw up**

a. I could never be a doctor or nurse—I just ..... the sight of blood.
b. I had no idea what they were arguing about! the discussion was .....
c. If you want to ....., feel free to now, that would make you feel better.
d. Bob was being considered for the promotion, but he ..... when he came in late to work each day this week.
e. draw a seat and ..... . I would like to have a word with you.
f. No one knows how many children ..... to work in sweatshops.
g. She ..... on her rival with allegations of corruption.
h. Whether you had insurance is .....; the accident is your fault.
i. Parents are not supposed to ..... in their children's quarrels.
j. Companies just want to make sure their employees aren't .....
k. Quit ..... and work on your book report already, Scotty!

Answers

Set (44) - She’s feeding you lies

Dialogue

Sam : Michael unless you stop **overstepping your bounds** and **messing with** me, I’m gonna **wipe you out!** Enough is enough!
Michael : Oh boy! **I’m shaking in my little boots** !
Sam : I heard you’re **going out with** Kathy.
Michael : Yeah! I’m trying to prove to you that she’s a worthless girl. How many times should I warn you that she’s **feeding you lies** ?
Sam : Come on! I **feel down** ! You’ve ruined all my dreams. I just can't **get her off my mind** .
Michael : You’re really too emotional. You’ve got to **come to your senses** !

Vocabulary

Overstep one’s bounds : to go further or do more than one is permitted.
Mess with : to meddle or interfere with.
Wipe out (someone) : to eliminate someone; to kill someone.
Be shaking in one’s little boots : (sarcastic) to be trembling with fear.
Go out with someone : to go on a date with someone.
Feed something to someone : to tell to someone something that is untrue.
Feel down : to feel sad and depressed.
Get someone/something off one’s mind : to stop thinking about or wanting someone or something.
To come to one’s senses : to begin to think in a sensible or correct way after being foolish or wrong.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

overstep one's bounds **mess with** **feel down**
wipe out (someone) **be shaking in one's little boots**
get someone/something off one's mind **feed something to someone**
go out with someone **to come to one's senses**

a. I was ..... when I didn't get the thing I was waiting from long time.
b. She had been ..... him for three years before they got married.
c . The local city council has ..... by imposing this steep new income tax on residents
d. Don't try to ..... that nonsense ..... me! I know it isn't so.
e. He finally ..... and gave up his plans to quit his job and become an artist.
f. That song is so darn catchy—I can't .....!
g. Ooh, I'm really scared of you! I'm ....., you frighten me so! Huh!
h. The storm ruined the corn crop and ..... everyone in the county.
i. Sarah's a very sensitive kid, so don't ..... her.

Answers

Set (45) - Does this stand to reason?

Dialogue

Albert : I've **had it up to here with** Clare. She's **getting under my skin in the true sense of the word.**
Jason : Did she **put you on the spot again?**
Albert : Much worse! She's **bossing me around** as if she was the head of the department not me! Does this **stand to reason** ?
Jason : Well; time to **crack down** , I suppose.
Albert : If I did, I'd be **shooting myself on the foot** .
Jason : Then, all you can do is to **smooth things over** so that you can **adjust to the status quo.**

Vocabulary

Have it up to here with someone : not endure any more of someone or something .
Get under one's skin : to annoy or irritate someone intensely.
In the true sense of the word : totally; utterly; in every possible way.
Put someone on the spot : to cause them embarrassment or difficulty by forcing them to answer a difficult question or make an important decision.
Boss someone around : tell someone what to do, give orders.
Stand to reason : to be logical or rational.
Crack down : to become more strict.
shoot oneself on the foot : to foolishly harm one's own cause.
Smooth things over : make better or more pleasant.
Adjust to : to get used to a new situation by changing the way you do things.
Status quo : the existing state of affairs; the present situation.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

have it up to here with someone **get under one's skin**
adjust to **in the true sense of the word**
put someone on the spot **crack down**
boss someone around **stand to reason**
shoot oneself on the foot **smooth things over** **status quo**

a. Would you like me to try to ..... between you and your parents?
b. I know he's bothersome, but don't let him .....
c. It ..... that it'll be colder in January than it is in November.
d. Why does Kerry always ..... by saying the wrong thing?
e. The Act contained provisions designed to preserve the .....
f. David complained that his older sister was always .....
g. The council has announced its intention to ..... on parking offences.
h. He ..... because he invited me in front of his mum and I didn't want to go.
i. How do you call the station behind my back? I ..... - get out!
j. It took her a while to ..... living alone after the divorce.
k. It's a remote and stranded area. There are no people .....

Answers

Set (46) - Appearances are deceiving!

Dialogue

Suzan: **Get a load of** that little girl. She's a true troublemaker.
Jenny : Is she? But she doesn't look so. As they say **appearances are deceiving** !
Suzan : She's not that bad. But she's **spoiled** because my uncle **gets a kick out of** her. She keeps him **in stitches** .
Jenny : But he shouldn't **give in** to all her acts. She'll eventually **go out of control** .
Suzan : That's right! **You hit the nail on the head** . I said that **over and over again** but my words **fall on deaf ears** !

Vocabulary

Get a load of : take a look at (to draw attention to someone or something).
Appearances are deceiving : Things can look different from the way they really are.
Spoiled : (adj) (of a person, especially a child) harmed in character by being treated too leniently or indulgently.
Get a kick out of : to get a sense of enjoyment, amusement, or excitement.
In stitches : laughing uncontrollably.
Give in : to finally agree to what someone wants.
Go out of control : no longer possible to manage.
Hit the nail on the head : to describe exactly a situation/ problem.
Over and over again : again and again.
fall on deaf ears : (of a statement or request) be ignored.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

get a load of **appearances are deceiving** **spoiled**
get a kick out of **in stitches** **give in** **go out of control**
hit the nail on the head **over and over again** **fall on deaf ears**

a. Kids are bound to end up ..... if their parents are too easy-going.
b. Her pleas for mercy .....; the judge gave her the maximum sentence.
c. You've found the problem, Sid! You .....!
d. I can't stop singing this one verse ..... in my head.
e. ..... George over there. That dude knows how to dress!
f. Jane may look like she doesn't understand you, but she's really extremely bright. .....
g. One seller admits she ..... tricking people.
h. Everyone was frightened to death as the car .....
i. Here's a book that will have you .....
j. I don't think he will ..... to your requests if you keep pestering him.

Answers

Set (47) - Why don't we track them down?

Dialogue

Bill : It's a shame we **lost touch** with most of our university friends.
Peter : Why don't we **track them down** ? Haven't you **kept in touch** with or **come across** any of them?
Bill : A few! Some have settled down, some are **tied down** , some are **living it up** and others are **in a rut** . Recently, I **touched base** with Steve; but he's always **on the go** .
Peter : I hope one day we can get together and **hark back to** the **good old days** .
Bill : Yeah; I truly **yearn for** them.

Vocabulary

Lose touch : to cease to be in communication.
Track down : to find something or someone after looking for them.
Keep in touch with : to maintain communications with someone.
Come across : to meet or find by chance.
Tied down : (adj) to be restricted by responsibilities.
Live it up : To really enjoy oneself.
In a rut : in a fixed, rather boring way of doing things.
Touch base : briefly make or renew contact with someone.
On the go : Constantly in motion, active, or working.
Hark back to : to mention or remember (something from the past).
The good old days : a past period of better times.
Yearn for : to long for someone or something; to desire someone or something strongly.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

lose touch track down keep in touch with
come across tied down live it up
in a rut touch base on the go hark back to
the good old days yearn for

a. Do you get very nostalgic about ……..?
b . The police have so far failed to …… the attacker.
c. Others may …… life on a more even keel but they do not feel entitled to it.
d. I've lived in the US for 10 years, so I've somewhat …… with British politics.
e. The newest styles hark back to the clothes of the Seventies.
f. She is constantly ……., running around, pushing other kids, throwing toys.
g. Ken doesn't want to be …… to any one woman.
h. They …… their members by issuing a quarterly newsletter.
i. The western cowboys usually went to town so Saturdays to ……..
j. If you're ……., go see an inspiring movie or go to the theater.
k. Turn up your dictionary when you …… difficult words.
l. Being there gave me a chance to …… with three some friends.

Answers

Set (48) - She gave me a cold shoulder!

Dialogue

Wendy : When it comes to friendship, you're more than lucky. I like your friend Kathy. She's really terrific and **down-to-earth** .
Jessie : You're right. We really **hit it off** . I wish all other friends were like her.
Wendy : You mean those **fair-weather** ones!
Jessie : By the way, do you still see Samantha? **The other day** I came across her and she **gave me a cold shoulder** !
Wendy : **On and off** . Obviously, I **steer clear of** her now because she **looks down her nose at me** after she got married that guy and became **well-off** .

Vocabulary

Down-to-earth : (adj) practical, reasonable, and friendly.
Hit it off : to get along well.
A fair-weather friend : a person whose friendship cannot be relied on in times of difficulty.
The other day : a few days ago.
Give someone a cold shoulder : to intentionally ignore someone or treat someone in an unfriendly way.
On and off : once in a while, every so often; intermittently.
Steer clear of : to take care to avoid or keep away from.
Look down one's nose at someone : to regard (someone) with a feeling of superiority.
Well-off : (adj) wealthy; rich.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

down-to-earth **hit it off** **a fair-weather friend**
the other day **give someone a cold shoulder** **on and off**
steer clear of **look down one's nose at someone** **well-off**

a. Simran is looking for a loyal friend, not a .....
b. She is very ..... person, not at all attracted by the glamour world.
c. I had to leave — I didn't really ..... with the new manager.
d. I was still working ..... as a waitress to support myself.
e. History suggests several steady, reliable ways to become ..... or even wealthy.
f. They rather ..... anyone who couldn't speak French.
g. His doctor advised him to ..... alcohol.
h. Just ..... I was saying to Bob that I'd love to travel to France.
i. I thought she really liked me, but the next day she .....

Answers

Set (49) - Who filled you in on that?

Dialogue

George : I truly pity Mike! This guy is completely dominated by his wife. She simply **leads him around by the nose** !
Carl : You're such **a pushover** ! Who **filled you in on** that? Things are not always what they seem.
George : What do you mean?
Carl : Mike does **have a mind of his own** but she is **putting the screws on** him after she caught him **cheating on** her.
George : Yeah! They used to be **at odds** with each other most of the time and could never **see eye to eye** !
Carl : I know Mike well. He'll **stand up for himself** one way or another.

Vocabulary

Leads someone around by the nose : to completely control a person.
A pushover : a person who is easy to overcome or influence.
Fill someone in on : to give someone extra or missing information.
Have a mind of one's own : be capable of independent opinion or action.
Put the screws on someone : to force somebody to do something, especially by frightening and threatening them.
Cheat on someone : to secretly have sex with someone other than your husband, wife, or partner.
At odds : in conflict or at variance.
See eye to eye : be in full agreement.
Stand up for oneself : to speak or act in support of.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

leads someone around by the nose a pushover
fill someone in on have a mind of one's own
put the screws on someone cheat on someone
at odds see eye to eye stand up for oneself

a. Please ..... what happened last night.
b . She gave him a sweet smile, totally at ..... the look of dislike in her eyes.
c. Dad's a ..... . He'll let me do anything I want.
d. Though they work as a team, they often don't ..... on most issues.
e. You've got to ....., stop being such a mama's boy.
f. I can't stand the way your mother ..... like that and tells you what to do!
g. The electricity company is really ..... . We've got a week to pay before our supply is cut off!
h. Her parents want her to go to college, but she ..... and insists on trying to become an actress.
i. The magazine claims that almost half of Britain's women ..... their partners.

Answers

Set (50) - They aren't on the same wavelength

Dialogue

George : You know what! I don't like gossiping but there are some rumors circulating around that Jessie and Sam's marriage is **on the rocks** .
Carl : There's nothing of the sort! It could be **a false alarm** . You know; people are very brilliant at **blowing** stuff **up** .
George : But Clare did tell Jessie that their marriage had been **on shaky ground** and they were on the edge of **splitting up** !
Carl : I wonder who's **at fault** ?
George : Contrary to Sam's desire, Jessie doesn't want to **have a bun in the oven** . Simply, they aren't **on the same wavelength** .

Vocabulary

On the rocks : experiencing difficulties and likely to fail.
A false alarm : A signal or warning that is groundless.
Blow something up : exaggerate the importance of something.
On shaky ground : weak and likely to break down, collapse, or fail.
Split up : to end a relationship; to break up.
At fault : responsible for an undesirable situation; in the wrong.
Have a bun in the oven : to have a baby; to be pregnant.
On the same wavelength : to share the same perspective with someone else.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

on the rocks **a false alarm** **blow something up**
on shaky ground **split up** **at fault**
have a bun in the oven **on the same wavelength**

a. His business is ……. because of his poor marketing policies.
b. I am sure he will be gratified to learn that we are …….
c. Throwing a baby shower is one of the best ways to announce that you …..
d. He thought he might be having a heart attack, but his chest pains were just a …….
e. I'm sure he didn't mean anything by that comment—don't ……. too much.
f. His hypothesis has been ……. to since the beginning, so I'm not surprised that he couldn't prove it in the lab.
g. When they ……. she flung herself into her work to try to forget him.
h . The party ……. in a court case usually pays the other party's legal costs.

Answers

Set (51)- Assuming responsibility is easier said than done

Dialogue

Harry : Thanks for **making some time** for me Sarah. I thought the new position would change you! You'**ve got a heart of gold** indeed.
Sarah : Obviously, assuming responsibility is **easier said than done** . I have to sort out everything **from scratch** .
Harry : **If the worst comes to worst** hire an assistant to share the workload.
Sarah : Well, let's not **jump the gun** . So far, things are under control.
Harry : Anyway, try not to **lose your head** while dealing with Anne. She **has** got **a one track mind** .
Sarah **: No hard feelings** !

Vocabulary

Make time : arrange one's schedule for doing something or seeing someone.
Have a heart of gold : have a generous nature.
Easier said than done : be more easily talked about than put into practice.
From scratch : from the very beginning.
If the worst comes to the worst : if the situation develops in the most serious or unpleasant way.
Jump the gun : act before the proper or appropriate time.
Lose one's head : To lose one's composure and act emotionally or irrationally.
Have a one track mind : think only about one subject.
No hard feelings ; no feeling of being upset; no offense.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

make time **have a heart of gold** **easier said than done**
from scratch **if the worst comes to the worst** **jump the gun**
lose one's head **have a one track mind** **no hard feelings**

a. The Leader of the House should ..... next week for this urgent matter to be discussed.
b. We talk about reducing our costs, but it's .....
c. The plan's completely ruined, so we'll have to start .....
d. He ..... and booked a seat for me even before I had confirmed that I was coming.
e. He ..... completely when his wife left him over his drinking habit.
f. He has a ..... when he's working on a project — he thinks of nothing else.
g. I'm sorry that things ended this way. .....?
h. We should be in when you arrive, but ....., the neighbors have a spare key and will let you into the house.
i. Sarah always goes out of her way to help everyone she can—she really .....

Answers

Set (52) - It's a bit of a stretch

Dialogue

Chris : I'm not a fan of taxes, but it's **a bit of a stretch** to claim they are the cause of all our problems.
Diana : Yeah; that's **no brainer** . But you know; people are used to **taking it on** the circumstances.
Chris : You're right! It's quite hard **to cope with** the fact that we're responsible for our failures.
Diana : We should learn what is truly **worth our while** rather than **sitting idly by** .
Chris : Honestly, it's **like pulling teeth** trying to **lay** these facts **out** for others.
Diana **:** Well, don't beat yourself up**;** everyone **knows their stuff!**

Vocabulary

A bit of a stretch : a mild exaggeration beyond the truth or what is likely the case.
No brainer : something which requires little or no mental effort.
Take it out on : to make someone else suffer or be responsible for your own mistakes, anger, sadness, etc.
Cope with : to endure something, usually something unpleasant or undesirable.
Worth one's while : Good enough for one to spend time, effort, or money on.
Sit idly by : to see something bad happening without trying to prevent it.
Like pulling teeth : used to convey that something is extremely difficult to do.
Lay out : to explain a plan of action or a sequence of events.
Know one's stuff : to be good at doing something because you know a lot about it.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

a bit of a stretch	**no brainer**	**take it out on**
cope with	**worth one's while**	**sit idly by**
like pulling teeth	**lay out**	**know one's stuff**

a. I feel so guilty for ..... while my son was going through such a difficult time in his life.
b. That last test question was a complete .....
c. I get that you're upset, but why are you ..... that poor pillow? What did it ever do to you?
d. Diana sold all her shared? Well, that's .....
e. She was finding it hard to ..... her son's increasingly antisocial behavior.
f. Getting her to tell me about her childhood was .....
g. These documents ..... the principles clearly enough.
h. I think Nicole is our best candidate for the job—she really ..... when it comes to corporate accounting.
i. Staying up late tonight won't ..... because then I'll be exhausted the whole rest of the week.

Answers

Set (53) - Just what the doctor ordered

Dialogue

Chris : How is the new course going?
Diana: **Just what the doctor ordered** . The teacher is competent and I'm **making a lot of progress** . How about yours?
Chris : So far **I can't complain** . But the content doesn't **measure up to** my expectations.
Diana : Don't be too critical! You were dying to apply for it. I know you're going to end up **making a fool out of yourself** as usual. Look! unless you pick something and **stick with** it, you'll never **hit the jackpot** .
Chris : Easy on me Diana - I'll **get the ball rolling,** anyhow.

Vocabulary

Just what the doctor ordered : exactly what is wanted or needed.
Make progress : to move forward in one's work or activity; to develop or improve.
Can't complain : Things are fine. A casual response to questions like "How are you?" or "How've you been?"
Measure up : to meet a particular requirement, standard, or expectation.
Not make a fool of oneself : To do something that makes someone or oneself seem stupid or ridiculous.
Stick with : to persevere or continue with.
Hit the jackpot : to have a big success.
Get the ball rolling : set an activity in motion; make a start.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

just what the doctor ordered **make progress**
can't complain **measure up** **not make a fool of oneself**
stick with **hit the jackpot** **get the ball rolling**

a. A short nap is ..... . You'll feel refreshed in no time.
b. A. "How are things?". B. "I ....., it can't be better".
c. He said that he was going to ..... the traditions established by his grandfather.
d. We have no more time to waste. Let's .....
e. I'm not going to dance too much at the party because I don't want to ..... in front of my coworkers.
f. I went through all the people called Lasalles in the Sydney phone book until I .....
g. The medical community continues to ..... in the fight against cancer.
h. This meal doesn't ..... to my expectations.

Answers

Set (54) - Nothing but a counter attack can save the day!

Dialogue

George : Losing today's match is gonna be a bitter pill to swallow.
Mike : The new **lineup** isn't that adequate. Our dependable players aren't included and the team's **Achilles heel** is the **right wing** , I suppose.
George : Great! Our best **striker** David **is having a go** at goal from the **free kick** but it's just **wide** .
Mike : Thomas' **outswingers** near the **penalty spot** has also **missed the target** !!
George : Oh! That silly foul by Gerard led to the free kick and the **final whistle** will be **blown** in no time!
Mike : Man! We're in a rut - nothing but a **counterattack** can save the day!

Vocabulary

Lineup : people that have been selected to form a team or take part in an event.
Achilles heel : a weakness or vulnerable point.
Right wing : the right side of a team on the field in soccer, rugby, etc.
Striker : the player who is to strike the ball in a game.
Have a go : to try to do something.
Free kick : an opportunity to kick the ball without the other team getting involved, allowed when a player from the other team has broken one of the rules.
Wide : far from a particular or intended point or target.
Outswinger : a ball bowled with a swerve or swing from the leg to the off side.
Penalty spot : the point within the penalty area where penalty kicks are taken.
Miss the target : to not achieve or reach the goal.
Blow the final whistle : to end the game.
Counterattack : an attack made in response to one by an opponent.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

lineup **Achilles heel** **right wing** **striker**
have a go **free kick** **wide** **outswinger**
penalty spot **miss the target**
blow the final whistle **counterattack**

a. I'm ..... at doing my own taxes to save on the cost of hiring an accountant.
b. The corrupt minister is the government's ..... and is expected to resign.
c. In the championship final, he scored the winning .....
d. The referee ..... to signal that the game is finished.
e. The men had relinquished their position at the first serious .....
f. Relying on incorrect assumptions, they ended up .....
g. He wanted to mix his ..... and see how different players performed together.
h. He did his best, but the shot went .....
i. You get a real sense of achievement from a blistering drive or an unplayable ...
j. He plays on the ..... and has pace as well as skill.
k. They will be without ....., Ridvan Dilmen, who has a leg injury.
l. Luton conceded a ..... on the edge of the penalty area.

Answers

Set (55) - It takes two to tango

Dialogue

Jack : Oh man! Our new product is **taking the country by storm** . We're literally **cornering the market** .
Kevin : Have you ever heard of something called **viral marketing** ?
Jack : Are you **teasing me** ? It's a is a given.
Kevin : Then can't you **twist your arm** to **keep track of** our webpage? There're hundreds of messages without response!
Jack : No wonder I will **be behind in** my work. I can't handle all these messages by myself. Why don't you give me a hand? It **takes two to tango** .
Kevin : I will. **It's a deal.**

Vocabulary

Take by storm : to win or gain huge and widespread success /popularity rapidly.
Corner the market : to sell or produce something so successfully as to overshadow all others in the same field.
Viral marketing : a method of marketing whereby consumers are encouraged to share information about a company's goods or services via the Internet.
Tease : make fun of or attempt to provoke (a person or animal).
A given : a known or established fact or situation.
Twist one's arm : to pressure or force one into doing something.
Keep track of : to make certain that you know what is happening.
Be behind in : to be late with; not progressing quickly enough with.
It takes two to tango : requires two people to do certain things.
It's a deal : used to express one's assent to an agreement.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

take by storm corner the market viral marketing tease
a given twist one's arm keep track of be behind in
it takes two to tango it's a deal

a. It takes two to tango. I cannot do this all alone, neither can you - …….
b. The singing star …… the audience in each town ……
c. It's a …… that the writer of short stories will be keeping his day job.
d. I didn't want to go to the exhibition, but Linda …….
e. I won't join you this evening guys! I am …… my studies.
f. How do you …… time if you don't wear a watch ?
g. …… I will clean the garage if you stop bothering me about it.
h. I knew ……. was a great way to get our product some exposure because everyone is online and on Facebook.
i. The other children …… her because she was wearing braces.
j. They've more or less ……. the fast-food …… - they're in every big city in the world.

Answers

Set (56) - The sunshine today is just the ticket

Dialogue

Sally : The sunshine today is **just the ticket** ! Right? You're totally **lost on thought** !
Kevin : I'm thinking how we lost the match **by a hair** !
Sally : The other guys simply played well and won fair and square. Your team are used to **painting themselves into a corner** . By the way; I heard the coach is gonna leave.
Kevin : **Not on my watch** ! This won't **take place** even if it is the last thing I do. You **mark my words**
Sally : And **for the record** ; you've been fired as well.
Kevin : What? They will pay for it! I'll definitely **cut my nose to spite my face** !

Vocabulary

Lost in thought : absent-minded; showing a forgetful or inattentive disposition.
Just the ticket : exactly what is needed; exactly right.
By a hair : by an extremely short or slim margin (of distance, time, etc.).
Paint oneself into a corner : Get oneself into a difficulty from which one can't extricate oneself.
Not on my watch : That will not happen while I am in charge or on the lookout.
Mark one's words : tell someone about something that you are certain will happen in the future:.
Take place : to happen; to occur.
For the record : so that the true facts are recorded or known.
Cut one's nose to spite one's face : to use self-destructive means in an attempt to solve a problem or fix a situation.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

lost in thought **just the ticket** **by a hair**
paint oneself into a corner **not on my watch** **mark one's words**
take place **for the record** **cut one's nose to spite one's face**

a. You can refuse to talk to her if you like, but you're just .....
b. The race was neck and neck till the very end, but Sally won it .....
c. The discussion ..... in a famous villa on the lake's shore.
d. I really ..... by leaving this essay till the last minute!
e. You're going to dig a hole in the yard? .....!
f. ....., it was she who approached me about such a deal, not the other way around.
g . This van is ..... for carrying all our luggage
h. It's no use trying to talk to Helen when she's ..... like that; it's as if we don't even exist!
i. They're going to regret firing me, you ..... !

Answers

Set (57) - Go figure!

Dialogue

Sally : Mike is a **stand-up guy** but his brothers are all **sourpusses** .
Sarah : **Go figure** !
Sally : But when any of them **steps out of line** , he steps in to **work it out** .
Sarah : They're trying to **set him up** and **lay their hands on** his company. Actually, they have a long **track record** of scams.
Sally: **It gives me goosbumps** just talking about them!

Vocabulary

Stand-up : (adj) loyal to friends and beliefs.
A sourpuss : a bad-tempered or habitually sullen person.
Go figure : It's really strange.; Just try to figure it out.
Step out of line : behave inappropriately or disobediently.
Work out : to solve a problem by considering the facts.
Set someone up : to deceive someone so that they do or fall victim to something.
Lay one's hand on : to get someone or something, especially to do harm.
Track record : all a person's or an organization's successes or failures in the past.
Goosebumps : Bumps on one's skin where one's body hair stands on end as the result of an intense feeling of cold, nervousness, anxiety, excitement, or fear.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions ;

stand-up	**a sourpuss**	**go figure**
step out of line	**work out**	**set someone up**
lay one's hand on	**track record**	**goosebumps**

a. There's a ..... comedian, and my sources tell me he is about to go stellar.
b. I don't believe your situation is as hopeless as you think. If you love each other, you'll .....
c. It's a terrible movie and it made $200 million. .....!
d. I'm sorry about last night, I ..... when I made those demands.
e. I do not Even want to go near that grouchy old ..... . He gives me the creeps!
f. When she told me that she loved me, I got .....
g. The job needs someone with a good ..... in investment.
h. There have been reports recently of scam artists trying to ..... customers ..... so that they divulge their bank account details over the phone.
i. He couldn't wait to ..... on her money no matter how hard he tried!

Answers

Set (58) - Way to go!

Dialogue

Sally : Unlike his dad who is **all thumbs** , Rob is a **handy** boy. He never throws away any **second hand** tool. For him even the smallest screw can **serve a purpose** .
Sarah : I wish I had a boy like Rob. It takes forever to get things fixed never mind the fact that I **spend a fortune** on that. Currently, my TV is **on the blink** .
Sally : Why don't you get a new one and **spare yourself the trouble** ?
Sarah : To say I've had enough of those broken stuff is an **understatement** ! I've already ordered a new one.
Sally : **Way to go** !

Vocabulary

All thumbs : very awkward with your hands; clumsy.
Handy : (adj) able to use something skillfully.
Second hand : not new; having been used in the past.
Serve a purpose : to have a particular use or function in some way.
Spend a fortune : to spend a large amount of money.
On the blink : (of a machine) not working properly; out of order.
Spare yourself the trouble : to avoid going through difficult experiences.
Understatement : (noun) the act or an instance of stating something in restrained terms, or as less than it is.
Way to go : Well done! Good job!

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

all thumbs **second hand** **serve a purpose**
spend a fortune **on the blink**
spare yourself the trouble **understatement**
way to go **handy**

a. Harry tried to fix the chair, but he was ……
b. I don't know why they've added all this information but it probably …….
c. It's not necessary to …… to have a wonderful party.
d. Thankfully, private organizations can ……. them …… .
e . To call Michael Lawrence a high flyer would be ……. . He’s a genius!
f. Have you seen this …….. little gadget - it's for separating egg yolks from whites.
g. Mary: "Dad, I got an A+ on my midterm exam!" Bill: "……, sweetie!"
h. I can't hear the news since my radio went …….
i. Almost all the equipment on offer will be ……, but warranties are offered on most products.

Answers

Set (59) - It could be right under your nose!

Dialogue

Peter : Steven you're such a **slob** ! How many times should I warn you not to **pile everything up** and **scatter** stuff **around** ? The place is a complete **mess** !
Steven : Here we go again! I bet you've lost your glasses. Haven't you?
Peter : Of course not! This time my wallet is missing. I've **looked high and low** but to no avail.
Steven : Just stop **nagging** and it'll **turn up** ! It could **be** right **under your nose** !
Peter : **Here it is** ! On the TV. Anyway, I'm gonna **straighten** the flat **out** .

Vocabulary

A slob : (noun) a person who is lazy and has low standards of cleanliness.
Pile up : to accumulate; to put things on top of each other
Scatter around : carelessly put in different places.
A mess : (noun) disorderly, cluttered condition; bad or confused situation.
Look high and low : to look everywhere.
Nag : harass (someone) constantly to do something that they are averse to.
Turn up : to appear.
Right under someone's nose : in an obvious, nearby place.
Straighten something out : to make something tidy or organized.
Here it is /they are !: said when you've found something you're looking for.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

a slob **pile up** **scatter around**
a mess **look high and low** **nag** **turn up**
right under someone's nose **straighten something out**
here it is /they are !

a. Getting out of this mess was going to require a fair degree of ingenuity.
b. There were several brightly colored rugs ..... .
c. Boats often ..... on the rocks in the shallow water.
d. He leaves his germ - laden , dirty tissue on the table because he is .....
e. I don't know why you couldn't find it—it's .....!
f. With the aid of a professional investigator; all the missing documents .....
g. Jackie constantly ..... her daughter about getting married
h. I've been ..... for that certificate and I still can't find it!
i. A. "Have you seen my key?" B. "Yeah! In my pocket! ..... .
j. The project got so muddled that they had to bring in an outside advisor to .....

Answers

Set (60) - I can kiss it goodbye now!

Dialogue

Ben : You've been **fiddling around** with this washing machine for hours! Aren't you fed up already? Maybe you won't **doctor it up** this time! Will you?
James : You're right! I can **kiss it goodbye** now.
Ben : Good for you! You're cut out to be a technician!
James : Stop ridiculing and help me remove this screw. It needs a lot of **elbow-grease** !
Ben : I told you **all along** that the panel is broken but you **took no notice** ! You're **as stubborn as a mule** .

Vocabulary

Fiddle around : to play with or idly handle (something) improperly.
Doctor something up : to fix superficially or temporarily.
Kiss something a goodbye : to see something ruined or lost.
Elbow-grease : hard physical work, especially vigorous polishing or cleaning.
All along : from the beginning.
Take no notice : to pay no attention to someone or something.
Stubborn as a mule : extremely obstinate.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

fiddle around **doctor something up** **kiss something a goodbye**
elbow-grease **all along** **take no notice** **stubborn as a mule**

a. You'll never get Rich to change his opinion—he's ……. .
b. The legislature has ……. while our schools are falling apart.
c. I ……. the photo ……. to make myself look younger.
d. Nothing would shift it however much ……. we used
e. As I had suspected ……. , he was not a real policeman.
f. Don’t waste your breath! They will ……. of your advice!
g. After my horse lost in the final race, I …….. all the money I'd won that day at the track …….

Answers

Set (61) - You just cut to the chase!

Dialogue

Peter : I saw the mayor and told him that the state's Sunday law is a **dead letter** as many stores open and conduct business on that day.
Ben : Well done! **You just cut to the chase!**
Peter : Regarding our license, I was informed that we still need two signatures to be **home free** . Steven is tracking it and he assured me that it is **in good hands** .
Ben : **What's the point of** all this **red tape** ? They're just **holding** us **back** ! When on earth will we get rid of these **time-worn** rules?
Peter: **When the pigs fly** !

Vocabulary

Dead letter : an existing law or agreement that is no longer obeyed or enforced.
Cut to the chase : to reach the most important points quickly.
Home free : to succeed without difficulty or obstacles.
In good hands : In competent or safe care.
What's the point of : to ask about the reasons for something in a negative way.
Red tape : obstructive official routine or procedure; time-consuming bureaucracy.
Time-worn : belonging to, existing, or occurring in times long past.
When the pigs fly : that will never happen.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate expressions;

dead letter **cut to the chase** **home free** **in good hands**
what's the point of **red tape** **time-worn** **when the pigs fly**

a. No one does anything about it and the law becomes a …….
b. Because of all ……. at immigration I missed my connecting flight
c . ……. studying math in school anyway? No one ever uses it in real life.
d. He gave us the same ……. speech about the need to work hard.
e. A. "Jerry said she would quit smoking". B; "Yeah! ……."
f. I didn't have time to chat, so I told Ben to ……. and just tell me what he wanted.
g. I'm so relieved that the scans are clean. After months of treatment, I'm finally ……!
h. The company is ……. . It will be successful for many years, because the managers are all very smart and capable people.

Answers

Set (62) - The hustle and bustle of cities

Dialogue

Lucy : I can't take it anymore! Living in this **run-down (1)** building is like **hell** . I'm completely **run-down (2)** . Besides, we're **in the middle of nowhere** .
Jenny : Isn't it better than living amidst the **hustle and bustle** of cities?
Lucy : **Not on your life** ! As soon as we pay off our loan, I'll move back to the city. I have had enough of this life!
Jenny : Won't you give me a **rundown (3)** of the new semester's schedule?
Lucy : Provided you **take over** the cooking tomorrow.
Jenny : touché

Vocabulary

Run-down (1); (adj) old; ancient; in a poor or neglected state.
Hell : a situation or place of evil, misery, discord, or destruction.
Run-down (2): tired and rather unwell, especially through overwork.
In the middle of nowhere : a place that is very remote.
Hustle and bustle : large amount of activity and work, usually in a noisy surrounding.
Not on your life: No way.
Rundown (3): (noun) an analysis or summary of something.
Take over : to begin to do something that someone else was doing

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

run-down (old) **hell** **run-down** (tired) **in the middle of nowhere**
hustle and bustle **not on your life** **rundown** (analysis) **take over**

a. The army is/are threatening to ……. if civil unrest continues.
b. A. “You’re going to pick up the equipment. Aren’t you?” B.” ……..”
c. I can give you a brief …….. on each of the job applicants
d. He buys up …… properties, fixes them up and resells them.
e. We're completely …… and need a thorough rest.
f. Shell Cottage provides the perfect retreat from the ……. of London.
g. One time we got stranded in a little town ……..
h. With the presence of this blabbermouth, work is sheer …….

Answers

Set (63) - It’s time to turn over a new leaf!

Dialogue

Lucy : Won’t you **patch it up** with Sam? It’s time to **turn over a new leaf** ! The whole matter isn’t worth it!
Jenny : Not in the short run at least! He’s such a bootlicker and keeps **sucking up to** Thomas just to **gloss over** his **under-the-table** deals.
Lucy : That’s weird! He used to be **on the level** and never stepped out of line.
Jenny : Being surrounded by corrupt people made of him a **carbon copy** of them.
Lucy : As they say; **dogs of the same street bark alike!**

Vocabulary

Patch up : to settle (a quarrel).
Turn over a new leaf : to start behaving in a better way.
Suck up : to kowtow; behave obsequiously, especially for one's own advantage.
gloss over : to overlook: to ignore: to avoid considering.
Under-the-table : (adj) Secret (often because what is being done is illegal).
On the level : honest; straightforward.
A carbon copy : a person or thing identical or very similar to another.
Dogs of the same street bark alike : People of the same background have the same behaviour.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

patch up **turn over a new leaf** **suck up** **gloss over**
under-the-table **on the level** **a carbon copy**
dogs of the same street bark alike

a. Steven and Peter went to the same school and are of the same neighborhood. They have almost identical habits and interests. Well, it's true that ..... .
b. I need to you to be ..... with me: do I have any chance at this promotion?
c. A few tabloid newspapers got hold of this ..... gossip.
d. That particular trip was more or less a ..... of the previous one.
e. Jackie and Bill are still trying to ..... their marriage.
f. After years of drifting from job to job, Danny ..... and got himself a steady gig.
g. You don't have to ..... to them anymore. We have got the upper hand already!
h. Some foreign governments appear happy to ..... continued human rights abuses.

Answers ;

Set (64) - Let’s not take it to heart anyway!

Dialogue

David : I’ve **made up my mind to** quit. James’s such **a nag** . He keeps **hounding me.**
Steven : We’re **in the same boat.** Jessie won’t **get off my back** as well. She’s **bossing me around** as if I’m a little kid.
David : At least Jessie is a bit **open-minded** . You can simply ask her to **knock it off** .
Steven : Right! James is **a pill** . He is constantly **harping on** the same stuff. He’s going to send you to the **Looney bin** if you don’t put a stop to his **farce** .
David : Let’s not **take it to heart** anyway! If Jessie keeps **nitpicking** , you should **take** what she says **with a pinch of salt** .

Vocabulary

A nag : a persistently urging person.
Hound someone : to bother; to annoy
In the same boat : in a similar situation.
Get off one’s back : to leave someone alone, don't bother.
Boss someone around : to give orders to another person rudely.
Open-minded : (adj) willing to consider new ideas; unprejudiced.
Knock it off : to stop.
A pill : an annoying, disagreeable person.
Harp on : to dwell on one subject, repeat, persist.
Looney bin : insane asylum; mental hospital.
Farce : an event or situation that is absurd or disorganized.
Take something to heart : to consider seriously.
Nitpicks : to find faults in details that are not important.
take something with a pinch of salt : regard something as exaggerated; believe only part of something.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

a nag **hound someone** **in the same boat**
get off one's back **boss someone around** **open-minded**
knock it off **a pill** **take something with a pinch of salt**
harp on **Looney bin** **farce**
take something to heart **nitpicks**

a. The way mechanics charge for their services sometimes seems like a .....
b. If you spent less time ..... , you'd get more work done.
c. I shall keep ..... about it until we get the answers.
d. You can't ..... me ..... just because Mom isn't here!
e. He kept ..... her until she agreed to see the movie.
f. You have to ..... everything she says ....., because she tends to exaggerate.
g. Don't ask her! Do you want to send your mum to the ..... ?
h. Doctors these days tend to be more ..... about alternative medicine.
i. The press ..... the president about the country's involvement in the foreign war.
j. He really ..... when I asked him to reconsider.
k. ....., you two! I don't want to see any more fighting.
l. If you lose your job, I'll lose mine, so we're both .....
m. I guess I can be ..... sometimes, but I really do appreciate your concern.
n. He wanted his mom to ..... about marriage.

Answers

Set (65) - I've been whistling a different tune!

Dialogue

James : I used to be very pessimistic, but ever since surviving that car wreck, I've been **whistling a different tune** !
Bill : You used to **have a chip on your shoulder** as well. What about this?
James : Well, **let bygones be bygones** ! Oh; What are you **getting at** ?
Bill : Previously, you would **dish it out** but you couldn't **take it** !
James : I know what you mean; I have already **cleared the air with** Steven. By the way save your **wisecracks** for yourself. I still need to **settle accounts** with you. Little jerk!
Bill : **Old habits die hard,** indeed**!**

Vocabulary

Whistle a different tune : to change one's opinion or behavior.
Have a chip on your shoulder : to have quarrelsome attitude; quick to anger.
Let bygones be bygones :
Get at : to mean; to hint; to imply.
Dish it out : to criticize other people.
Take it : to endure trouble, criticism, abuse, pressure.
Clear the air with : to calm anger and remove misunderstanding.
A wisecrack : (noun) a sarcastic or nasty remark.
Settle accounts : to avenge a misdeed.
Old habits die hard : people find it difficult to change their accustomed behavior.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

whistle a different tune **have a chip on your shoulder** **get at**
let bygones be bygones **dish out** **take it** **clear the air with**
a wisecrack **settle accounts** **old habits die hard**

a. He made some ..... about my lack of culinary ability.
b. They decided to ..... and made peace with each other.
c. He never used to support that political candidate, but he's ..... all of a sudden.
d. She still seems to ..... about the argument she had with her partner.
e. Look, there are no ..... with you or anything, so let's just let bygones be bygones, OK?
f. Ross is better at ..... criticism than receiving it himself.
g. Tell me what you really thought of my play—be honest, I can .....!
h. Can you get to the point? I don't know what you're .....!
i. A former police officer proved ..... after detaining a violent teenager who attacked him.
j. The silent treatment isn't helping the situation between you two, so ..... already.

Answers

Set (66) - Nib it in the bud

Dialogue

Thomas : OK, that's **the last straw** ! I told Mark to stop irritating his mates, but he's taking no notice of that. I'll **teach him a lesson.**
Diana : Come on! You're **making a big thing of** it! He's still too young to **lay the blame on him.**
Thomas : I know, but unless we **nib it in the bud** , he'll end up **going astray** .
Diana : You're right, but please don't **make waves** . Or else we're gonna be **the talk of the town!**
Thomas : Yeah, the last thing we need is to **make the fry fly** . I'll **hand him over** to you; anyway.

Vocabulary

The last straw : the last of a succession of irritations or troubles that leads to a loss of patience, a disaster, etc.
Teach someone a lesson : punish or hurt someone as a deterrent or warning.
Make a big thing of : to exaggerate.
Lay the blame on : to blame.
Nip something in the bud : suppress or destroy something at an early stage.
Go astray : to go out of the right, good, or expected way; into error.
Make waves : to cause trouble; to create a disturbance.
The talk of the town : to be what everyone is talking about.
Make the fur fly : to cause a fight or an argument; to create an uproar.
Hand over : to delegate authority or responsibility to someone or something.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

the last straw **teach someone a lesson** **make a big thing of**
lay the blame on **nip something in the bud** **go astray**
make waves **the talk of the town** **make the fur fly** **hand over**

a. Many politicians ……. in order to be kept in the media.
b. The public seems to be ……. the data breach about the company's lax security measures.
c. She has been unhappy with him for a long time but when he crashed her car, it was …….
d. The strange behavior of the new mayor is …….
e. By arresting all the leaders, they …… the rebellion …….
f. John tripped me, so I punched him. That ought to …….
g. My mom will ……. if she finds out we took her car without asking.
h. Teens who have a conducive family atmosphere to fall back on hardly ever …..
i. Don't …….. such a ……. missing the bus: there'll be another one along in a minute.
j. The soldiers were ordered to ……. their guns.

Answers

Set (67) - Don't rub it in!

Dialogue

Mike : They are trying to teaching me a lesson for turning down the report! I feel like **knocking my head against** the wall trying to point it out but they just won't listen! See! That's what you get out of your goodwill.
Peter : **It serves you right** because you've allowed them to **walk all over you** .
Mike : Don't **rub it in** ! I don't like getting **the short end of the stick** .
Peter : What I want to say is unless you're **giving them the green line** , they won't dare to **take you for granted** .
Mike : Do you think it's too late to **turn the tables on** them?
Peter : Not at all! It's never too late to **take the gloves off** .

Vocabulary

Knock one's head against the wall : to waste time in futile effort to improve or change something.
Serve someone right : be someone's deserved punishment or misfortune.
Walk all over someone : to take advantage of someone.
Rub it in : to constantly refer to a mistake or fault.
Get the short end of the stick : to receive unfair, unequal treatment.
Give the green line : to allow.
Take for granted : To underestimate or undervalue someone or something.
Turn the tables : to change or reverse something dramatically.
Take the gloves off : To begin to behave in a more hostile or tenacious way.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

knock one's head against the wall **walk all over someone**
rub it in **get the short end of the stick** **take for granted**
turn the tables **take the gloves off** **serve someone right**

a. I feel like I've been ..... trying to understand this math equation.
b. It ..... John ..... that Dave threw him out of his party last night. He was acting like such a jerk!
c. She ..... on her rival with allegations of corruption.
d. It is an undeniable fact that I ruined the performance, but there's no need to .....
e. Up until now the game has been quite friendly, but now all seem to .....!
f. A comfortable bed to sleep in is a luxury that we .....
g. They might be the number one seed, but we're determined not to let them .....
h. As usual it's the consumer who .....

Answers

Set (68) - He’s only a freeloader

Dialogue

Jerry : Paul certainly **deserves credit for** the work he did on the project.
Peter : No he doesn’t! He’s only a **freeloader** - He **doesn’t know the first thing** about diagrams but he’s very good at **talking big** .
Jerry : **A free rider** !
Peter : Never mind him; I’ll **put him in his place** . I know how to **hit him where it hurts** and I **know well which side his bread is buttered** .
Jerry : **How do you mean** ? What will you do?
Peter : You’ll see when the **time’s ripe** !

Vocabulary

Deserves credit for : to be owed recognition for doing something.
A freeloader : a person who has the advantage of something given, such as money, food, or a place to stay, without offering anything in exchange.
Not to know the first thing about : to know nothing about.
Talk big : talk boastfully or overconfidently..
A free rider : a person or company that gets an advantage without paying for it or earning it.
Put someone in his place : To humble or lower the dignity of one.
Hit someone where it hurts : To attack one in the area that is most vulnerable or that will result in the most harm. (Usually does not refer to physical violence).
Know which side one’s bread is buttered : know what to do.
How do you mean? used for asking someone to explain what they have said
Time is ripe : when it is the suitable time.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

deserves credit for a freeloader not to know the first thing about
talk big a free rider time is ripe put someone in his place
hit someone where it hurts know which side one's bread is buttered
how do you mean

a. We are unlikely to deliver the project on time as long as ..... outnumber us.
b. Doctors ..... switching to cheaper, but equally effective drugs
c. Leave these little alone for heaven's sake! You ..... farming.
d. He has some deep need to ....., but it's just talk—no action.
e. Jerry always helps out his boss; he .....
f. He's always worrying about his weight, so if you want to ....., tell him he's looking a bit fat
g. 'She wasn't at all like I expected.' '.....?'
h. With prices so low, the ..... to buy up real estate in the city.
i. His quips at the party aimed to ..... the CEO ..... .
j. We should take care of the people in need, but not the .....

Answers

Set (69)-None had the backbone to stand up to him

Dialogue

Charles : James was suspected for cheating but none had **the backbone** to **stand up to him** .
Mike : Well, I have every confidence that the new inspectors will **get to the bottom of it** in no time.
Charles : What if they proved him guilty and **lowered the boom** ?
Mike : Then, he would **get what's coming to him** . They must **set him an example for** other jerks. I'm a strong proponent of the rule of law, not **the law of the jungle**
Charles : But **bear in mind** that the **drama queen** , his mom, will **raise Cain** !

Vocabulary

Backbone: (noun) courage.
Stand up to someone : to be brave to confront someone.
Get to the bottom of it : to determine the cause or source of something.
Lower the boom : to punish someone or something harshly.
Get what's coming to one : to receive what one deserves.
Set an example : show a standard of work or behavior for others to follow.
The law of the jungle : the principle that those who are strong and apply ruthless self-interest will be most successful.
Bear in mind : to remember.
Drama queen : A person (usually a woman) who is given to exaggerated, disproportionate emotional reactions to relatively minor events or situations.
Raise Cain : to cause a commotion, to create a disturbance, to make trouble.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

backbone **stand up to someone** **get to the bottom of**
lower the boom **get what's coming to one** **set an example**
the law of the jungle **bear in mind** **drama queen** **raise Cain**

a. Well, Mom ..... and grounded me for a month because I came home after curfew again.
b. Jenny has finally ..... her as a result her dirty deals
c. Before you ask for a raise, ... that the company isn't doing well financially right now.
d. The police daren't go into certain parts of the city. It's ..... in there.
e. Ah, don't be such a ....., Tom, they're not going to fire you for a simple mistake like that.
f. The customer has been ..... about the service charge we included on his bill.
g. You shouldn't use bad language in front of your children — it .... a bad .....
h. The new regulations give workers the confidence to ..... their employers.
i. Investigators are trying to ..... what went wrong.
j. I wonder if he has the ..... to tell them what he thinks!

Answers

Set (70) - At least to save face

Dialogue

Simon : Peter should never **cry uncle** - He has to keep right on going. At least to **save face** .
Emilie : But his opponents are totally **unprincipled** . They're resorting to **mudslinging** .
Simon : It's a complete **a battle of nerves** . It's an **asymmetrical** one as well.
Emilie : Will he **take it lying down** ? I'm afraid he's gonna **go down swinging** .
Simon : All I know is that Peter will have **the upper hand** as long as he's **sticking to his guns** . Period.

Vocabulary

Cry/say uncle : to surrender; to admit defeat; to throw in the towel.
Save face : to avoid humiliation.
Unprincipled : not acting in accordance with moral principles.
Mudslinging : scandalous allegations about an opponent to damage their reputation.
Battle/war of nerves : psychological warfare used to wear down an adversary's resolve through fear tactics.
Asymmetrical : (adj) unbalanced; uneven; out of line.
Take something lying down : to suffer without a fight
Go down swinging : to lose but fight until the end.
Have the upper hand : to have an advantage.
Stick to one's guns : to refuse to compromise or change, despite criticism.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

cry/say uncle **save face** **unprincipled** **mudslinging**
battle of nerves **asymmetrical** **take something lying down**
go down swinging **get/have the upper hand** **stick to one's guns**

a. The union has been fighting a ..... with the management over pay.
b. Bright colors and ..... design make Horton Plaza an amusing place.
c. He insulted me publicly. You don't expect me to ....., do you?
d . Now, mutual recriminations, personal attacks on leaders and ..... are the order of the day.
e. If you ..... right now, I'll let you go first in the next game.
f. I was late to the meeting but tried to ..... by blaming an urgent call.
g. But while admitting that his means were sometimes ....., it must be recollected that his real ends were high and noble.
h. The prosecution is going to try to trip you up with your statement and your alibi, but so long as you ....., there's nothing to worry about.
i. The pace was frenetic as neither man wanted to let the other ....
j. I would rather ..... knowing that I did everything I possibly could.

Answers

Set (71) - Getting me down against my will!

Dialogue

Lucy : Although we are making good profits there is one **cloud on the horizon** — the government may increase taxes in the near future.
Tina : Don’t be so gloomy; **every dark cloud has a silver lining** .
Lucy : The terrible news is **getting me down against my will** ! I can’t help but **cloud up** - I wish I had a million dollars. I will **lay back** all day and watch TV.
Tina : **Get your head out of the clouds** and watch where you are driving! You're going to kill us.
Lucy : You’re very good at smashing my dreams into pieces! Aren’t you? The thought of millions sends me to **cloud nine** .

Vocabulary

Cloud on the horizon : an omen that something bad or problematic will happen in the near future.
Every dark cloud has a silver lining : it is possible for something good to come out of a bad situation.
Get someone down : depress or demoralize someone.
Against someone’s will : contrary to a person's choice or desire.
Cloud up : to become very sad or upset.
Lay back : to relax and rest on your back.
Get your head out of the clouds : stop daydreaming.
(to be on) Cloud nine : to be blissfully happy.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

cloud on the horizon **every dark cloud has a silver lining**
get someone down **against someone's will** **cloud up**
lay back **get one's head out of the clouds** **(to be on) cloud nine**

a. She put her arms under her head and ……, looking up at the sky.
b. Come on, man, ……—we only have an hour left to cram for the test!
c. Kitty was on …… when she heard the good news
d. Her face …… at the mention of her ex-girlfriend.
e. Financial analysts believe that the sudden drop in oil prices points to a …… for the national economy.
f. When I'm going through a hard time, I try to remind myself that …….
g. The thought of working for a faceless corporation really …….
h. The attacker forced the woman into his car ……..

Answers

Set (72) - Kill them with your kindness

Dialogue

Harry : Hey Donald! You aren't really **with it** today! What's wrong?
Donald : Oh! Those loud neighbors! They're giving me sleepless nights. They're renovating their kitchen and making a great **racket** !
Harry : Why don't you talk to them and ask them to **keep it down** ?
Donald: Well, I did but I'm **going nowhere** . We seem to have reached a **standoff** .
Harry : Why don't you **change your tune** and **kill them with your kindness** ?
Donald : How do you mean?
Harry : Consider treating them to a meal or bring some gifts for their kids.

Vocabulary

With it : alert; responsive.
Racket : (noun) an unpleasant loud continuous noise
Keep it down : to be quitter.
Go/get nowhere : make no progress.
Standoff : a situation in which agreement in an argument does not seem possible.
Change one's tune : express a very different opinion or behave in a very different way.
Kill someone with kindness : to be enormously kind to someone.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

with it **racket** **keep it down** **get/go nowhere**
standoff **change one's tune** **kill someone with kindness**

a. He'd soon ..... if he thought she'd lost interest.
b. The downward move came as fears eased that the hostage ..... could spiral out of control.
c. Might it not be more effective to exercise some discretion by ignoring them, or perhaps trying to .....?
d. If you start worrying about people's feelings, you .....
e. Excuse me boys – I won't join you! I'm just not ..... today.
f. If Miss Field and her neighbours cannot bear the ....., they should consider moving out to the silent suburbs.
g. ..... before the neighbors call the police!

Answers

Set (73) - He’s panic-stricken after he got a sideswipe!

Dialogue

Steven : The design of this car **appeals to** me. I wonder whether it is **roadworthy** !
Mark : Actually, it has some **wear and tear** , but it is **in** pretty **good shape** .
Steven : Well, I must confess that I’m kind of a **road hug** , but I never **smacked into** someone or had a **fender-bender** .
Mark: Speaking of roads - the other day I was riding Albert with me. He wiped me out by his observations. In short, he’s such a **backseat driver** .
Steven : That’s right. He’s **panic-stricken** after he got a **sideswipe** !
Mark : Yeah. As far as I remember he used to love speeding up as well.
Steven : the truth is driving fast **takes its toll on** the car engine. I’m not a big fan of that.

Vocabulary

Appeal to : to resonate with one's specific interests or feelings.
Roadworthy : (adj) (of a motor vehicle or bicycle) fit to be used on the road.
Wear and tear : normal deterioration and minor damage from frequent use.
In good shape : in a good condition.
A road hug : person who takes too much room on the road.
Smack into : to collide; to hit.
Fender-bender : a dent in the fender. A minor accident.
Backseat driver : a passenger who tell you how to drive.
Panic-stricken : (adj) affected with panic; very frightened.
Sideswipe : to hit the side of the car.
Take its toll on : to affect, especially negatively; to damage or degrade.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

appeal to **roadworthy** **wear and tear** **in good shape**
a road hug **smack into** **fender-bender** **backseat driver**
panic-stricken **sideswipe** **take its toll on**

a. That style of architecture just doesn't ..... me.
b. ..... princes wrote to them for political assistance or pecuniary aid.
c. She was going too fast and ..... a parked car.
d. Heavy smoking and drinking will ..... a person's health.
e. Daisy is such a ....., she needs to stop interfering – no one asked for her advice
f. This would be the first practical, ... car that could run on solely renewable energy
g. I wasn't looking where I was going and walked ..... a lamppost.
h. This sofa shows a lot of .....; we should replace it.
i. This car isn't ..... I'd like to have one that's in better condition.
j. Why don’t you stick with one side? You are such a .....
k. The new one was a ..... item, and Jenny could push it around the grounds.

Answers

Set (74) - He dwells on unnecessary stuff

Dialogue

Clare : Charles **brought it on** himself! What do they call the feeling of joy when others suffer?
Mark : **Schadenfreude** . But don't be silly - I know he's a **blabbermouth** ; poor Charles. He'll have **hard feelings** about this for a long time because he truly loves Jenny.
Clare : It serves him right, I suppose. He **dwells on** unnecessary stuff and ends up **giving full rein to his mouth** .
Mark: The point is Jenny is **oversensitive** . She couldn't stand hearing him **talking trash.**
Clare : Jenny is very kind-hearted and forgives easily but she is **fuming** right now.
Mark : It'll **blow over** anyway.

Vocabulary

Bring something on oneself: to cause; to produce.
Schadenfreude : taking pleasure in the misfortune of others.
Blabbermouth : a person who talks excessively or indiscreetly.
Hard feelings : feelings of anger and bitterness.
Dwell on : talk and think about something all the time.
Give full rein to someone/something : to give them a lot of freedom.
Oversensitive : (especially of a person or an instrument) excessively sensitive.
Talk trash : to talk nonsense; to utter complete fabrications.
Fume : to be angry.
Blow over : to end; to pass.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

bring something on oneself **schadenfreude** **blabbermouth**
hard feelings **dwell on** **fume** **blow over**
give full rein to someone/something **oversensitive** **talk trash**

a. I'm not sympathetic because he ……. by mismanaging his money.
b. When the winning team saw their rivals saddened by defeat, they felt a sense of ……..
c. John's remarks after the ceremony caused a lot of …….
d. She didn't have time to ……. her final victory.
e. I'm such a ……. that I couldn't keep the news from friends and coworkers.
f. The scandal will soon ……. if they don't make a big thing of it.
g. We sat there waiting for him, ……. with anger at the delay.
h. There are too many radio shows featuring idiots who call in and ……. all day.
i. He is …… – it's difficult to establish a rapport with him.
J. He was ……. manage the project as he wished.

Answers

Set (75) - Can’t you put it off?

Dialogue

Clare : Hey Mark! I just wanted to **have a word** with you before you’re **off** .
Mark : I’m really pressed for time. Can’t you **put it off** ?
Clare : Please Mark! I won’t **hold you up** . It really **can’t wait** ! Well; Jessie is inquiring about the position you told her about.
Mark: Tell her not **hold your breath** in the short run. It would be much better if she **takes matters into her own hands** and searches for another job.
Clare : Yeah; she wants me to ask you what should she **take up** ?
Mark : Well, I’ll **look into it** when I’m available. Please, don’t **hold me back** anymore. I need to **dash** .

Vocabulary

Have a word : speak briefly to someone.
Off : to leave a place.
Put something off : to delay; to postpone.
Hold up : to delay; to postpone.
Something can’t wait : to be urgent.
Hold one’s breath : to wait for something specific to happen.
Take matters into one’s own hands : to deal with a problem yourself.
Take up : begin an activity.
Look into something : to investigate; to check.
Hold someone back : to restrain people from moving forward.
Dash : to run or travel somewhere in a great hurry.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;
have a word off put off
hold up something can’t wait take matters into one’s own hands
look into hold back hold one’s breath
dash take up

a. I'll ..... doing the laundry until tomorrow. I must talk to her about this.
b. Supposedly loyal workers suddenly upped and ..... to the new firms
c. At the scene of the fire all ..... towards the exit.
d. The electrician said he'd be here before noon, but I won't .....
e. She ..... tennis at the age of 11
f. Your fears are really ..... you ..... in life.
g. When the police failed to catch her son's murderer, she decided to .....
h. I just ..... with Stu and he said he'll join us tonight.
i. I wrote a letter of complaint, and the airline have promised to ..... the matter.
j. I ..... to see you and the girls—it's been way too long!

Answers

Set (76) - 30 lashes with a wet noodle

Dialogue

George : You deserve **30 lashes with a wet noodle** because you're such a wet noodle. How do you let them push you around?
Sam : I can't! I mean I **wimp** to confront them; that's not fair - If I do, I'm **toast** .
George : What's wrong with you? **Use your noodle** ! Defend yourself at least. Don't let them take advantage of you.
Sam: I can't **figure out** why are they **green with envy to that extent** ? Is it because I get better scores?
George : Never mind. I know how to **put a stop to** all this farce.
Sam : Alright, I count on you.

Vocabulary

Lashes with a wet noodle : to punish someone for something small.
A well noodle : a dupe; a wimp.
Wimp : fail to do or complete something as a result of fear or lack of confidence.
Toast : to be or be likely to become finished, defunct, or dead.
Use your noodle : to think.
Figure out : to try to understand; to solve.
Green with envy : very envious or jealous.
To that extent : so far, to that degree.
Put a stop to : to cause to end.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

lashes with a wet noodle **well noodle** **wimp** **toast**
use your noodle **figure out** **green with envy**
to that extent **put a stop to**

a. The one who fails to get a better score is going to get .....
b. I'm going to ..... the corruption in this department once and for all!
c. Come on, Dean, I know you can figure this out on your own. ..... for a change!
d. They are in a real rut! Let's ..... a way to help.
e. Anyone who ..... out because of the weather missed the experience of a lifetime
f. My daughter loves being on stage, so she is just ..... that Alice got the lead in the school play.
g. Pollution is horrible but not ..... in such a closed area.
h. Mark my words! If you come here again, you're ..... !
i. You are literally a ..... - How come you pay all this sum in advance?

Answers

Set (77)- What do you make out of it?

Dialogue

David : I'd appreciate your help with that if you can get to it, but don't **go out of your way.**
Martina : It’s a pleasure to **put myself out** for you! You’re the one who stimulates me to **go the extra mile** and never **finds fault with me.**
David : By the way, Rebecca gave away her possessions! That **floored** me indeed.
Martina: They say she is **out of her mind** after losing her son, but I guess that’s an **earful** . What do you **make out of it** ?
David : Well, let me give her a call and discover the **lowdown** .
Martina : Yeah, it **makes sense** to **clear up** this mystery before it’s too late.

Vocabulary

Go out of your way : to make a special effort to do something.
Put someone out : to bother; to inconvenience.
Go the extra mile : to make a special effort to achieve something.
Find fault with someone : to complain; to criticize.
Floor : to baffle (someone) completely; to confuse.
Out of one’s mind : having lost control of one's mental faculties.
Earful : gossip, especially of an intimate or scandalous nature.
Make out of : to interpret, to figure out, to think of.
Lowdown : the true facts or relevant information about something.
Make sense : be intelligible, justifiable, or practicable.
Clear up : to make clear or understandable.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

go out of one's way put someone out go the extra mile
find fault with someone floor out of one's mind
earful make out of lowdown make sense
clear up

a. Can you ..... any sense ..... this note that Jeffrey left behind?
b. I can't judge anything unless you give me the ..... on the situation.
c. It ..... to start saving early for higher education
d. Here is another email from Steven - he wanted to ..... some misconceptions.
e. Pence heard an ..... from senators last week as uncertainty mounted.
f. I was taken off-guard - the question ..... me completely.
g. How could you ..... this project? It met all of the requirements on the rubric.
h. After yet another sleepless night, I'm starting to feel like I'm ..... with exhaustion.
i. Suzy always ..... to make my birthday special.
j. During Sara's stay in London, Mrs Mott ..... to be courteous to her.
k. Would it ..... too much to let her visit you for a couple of hours?

Answers

Set (78) - We have to tap into the key problems

Dialogue

James : This report **scratches the surface** of the migration problem! The worse is yet to come.
Peter : Simply because the people working on this issue are not **up to scratch** . We have to **tap into** the key problems in home countries.
James : They say those people have to start their life here **from scratch** .
Peter: Well, I am **scratching my head** why our authorities are not nipping the issue from the bud.
James : Who knows! They may have been **colluding with** their leaders to create this mess!

Vocabulary

Scratch the surface : to deal with only a very small part of a subject or problem.
Up to scratch : as good as what was expected; satisfactory or adequate.
Tap into : to access a resource or object.
From scratch : from the beginning.
Scratch one's head : to show that one is puzzled, doubtful, or uncertain.
Collude with : to cooperate in a secret or unlawful way.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases ;

scratch the surface **up to scratch** **tap into**
from scratch **scratch one's head** **collude with**

a. Central banks have been accused of making plans to ..... one another in order to control the world economy.
b. We had only two weeks to tour the country, which was hardly enough time to .....
c. His decision to pull the plug on the lucrative program has everyone .....
d. It's completely ruined, so we'll have to .....
e. We'll have to bring the house ..... before we sell it.
f. The challenge for all of us is to ..... these gifts and use them for our benefit and for all mankind.

Answers

Set (79) - Let’s split the difference

Dialogue

Maggie : We have been **falling out** a lot recently - I think it’s time we **clear it up.** Let’s **get everything out of our chests** and have a **heart-to-heart** talk.
John : I will do provided you don’t **hold anything back** . What really matters is to **get things straight** and avoid getting into such arguments later on.
Maggie: Alright, your constant **tangential** remarks are **trying my patience** .
John : What about your **leading questions** ? Don’t you see that you always try to **get me cornered?**
Maggie : Well, let’s **split the difference** . You don’t **meddle** in my private affairs nor do I in yours.

Vocabulary

Fall out : have an argument; to be at odds.
Clear up : to alleviate tension in a particular situation.
Get something out of one’s chest : unburden oneself; tell what's bothering you.
Hear-to-heart : candidly, intimately.
Hold back : to conceal, to hide.
Get something straight : to make a situation clear reaching an understanding.
Tangential : only slightly related to what you are doing or discussing.
Try one’s patience : to annoy one by continued unwanted behavior.
Leading question : a question that prompts or encourages the answer wanted.
Get someone cornered : to make someone talk to you when they have been trying to avoid this.
Split the difference : to find and agree upon the point halfway.
Meddle : to interfere in something that is not one's concern.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

fall out clear up get something out of one's chest
hear-to-heart hold back get something straight
tangential try one's patience
leading question get someone cornered
split the difference meddle

a. Apparently, Gina ..... with Dave last week, and now they're not talking to each other at all.
b. She asked me when I was going to take her out on a date, and I was taken aback at such a .....
c. Sometimes you have to ..... your anger and tears and walk away.
d. Let's ..... one thing ..... . I'm the boss and I tell you what to do.
e. See your GP about treatment options to help them to ..... more quickly.
f. Won't you give up this nasty habit of ..... in front of strangers?
g. I had spent two months worrying about it and I was glad to .....
h. The matter you raise is rather ..... to this discussion.
i. You have to be more sensible – no more ..... in others' affairs.
j. It's time Jessie became a bit punctual – her constant lateness is .....
k. Nothing like a ..... talk in making peace among lovers.

Answers

Set (80) - You took the words right out of my mouth!

Dialogue

Mike : This report is too long! It's has to be **boiled down** into two pages.
Jackie : You **took the words right out of my mouth** ! I had the same observation.
Mike : Then; **the ball is in your court** , darling.
Jackie : What do you mean? Why don't you bring it back to its original owner, Kathy? She claims that she's a **ball of fire** . She has got her nose up in the air!
Mike : Kathy **pales in comparison** to you - you're literally the **backbone** of this department.

Vocabulary

Boil down: to simplify, summarize, or shorten.
Take the words out of someone's mouth : say something someone else was going to say
The ball is in someone's court : to be someone else's move, play, or turn.
A ball of fire : a person full of energy and enthusiasm.
Pale in comparison : to seem less impressive or important when compared to someone or something else.
Backbone : the part of something that makes it successful or strong.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

boil down **backbone**
take the words out of someone's mouth
the ball is in someone's court **pale in comparison**
a ball of fire

a. It's not Daniel's fault the deal isn't finished, he made the last offer. .....Harry's ..... now
b. The problem ..... to one thing - lack of money.
c. Farming and cattle-raising are the ..... of the country's economy.
d. You ..... my ..... — I think she looks gorgeous, too!
e. I thought I was badly treated but my experiences ..... with yours.
f. I always knew that Lauren would grow up to be successful—she was a real ..... as a kid.

Answers

Set (81) - I had better back out of this commitment

Dialogue

Mike : It’s time I **put my cards on the table** ; I have no intention of marrying her.
Jackie : Didn’t you say that you would **move mountains** to be with her?
Mike: That was **a thing of the past** .
Jackie : I’m not **siding with** her, but the fact that you’re **wishy-washy** will **leave you holding the bag** someday.
Mike : Honestly, I have no **guts** to take responsibility. I had better **back out of** this commitment before I’m **trapped** in marriage forever.
Jackie : Go away! You’re such **a wimp** !

Vocabulary

Put one’s cards on the table : be open and honest, reveal one's intentions.
Move mountains : to do or achieve something that is incredibly difficult.
A thing of the past : a thing that no longer happens or exists.
Side with : to favor or support one position in a dispute.
Wishy-washy : (adj) having no definite opinion; unable to decide.
Leave someone holding the bag : to put someone in an awkward position, leave someone else to take blame.
Guts : courage; bravery.
Back out of : to withdraw from.
Trapped : to be caught in.
A wimp : (noun) spineless, non-assertive person.

Exercise;
Fill in the gaps with the correct phrases;

put one's cards on the table **move mountains**
a thing of the past **side with** **wishy-washy**
leave someone holding the bag **guts**
back out of **trapped** **a wimp**

a. The world's our atlas if we have the ..... to flip a coin and take a chance.
b. She could not, in good conscience, ... her deal with him
c. Rescuers used a special device for finding people ..... collapsed buildings.
d. It was the only country to ..... the rebel group, offering them military and financial aid.
e. Although there are certainly a lot of positives to homeschooling, none of them matter if you feel ..... about your decision.
f. After the accident, he just vanished and .....
g. I'm afraid I'm ..... when it comes to climbing up ladders.
h. His fans ..... to catch as many of his performances as possible
i. In today's society, it certainly seems like manners are becoming .....
j. I would have a confrontation with him and .....

Answers

Set (82) - Hold yourself together!

Dialogue

Jerry : Did you see the doctor? Is your sister **out of the woods** ?
Sarah : Oh Jerry! I'm **at my wit ends** ; I'm afraid she's **going from bad to worse** - it has been two hours!
Jerry: **Snap out of it** ! She'll be fine. I'm sure she'll.
Sarah : I'm really **going into pieces** : I can't help being **worried sick** about her. You know she's **at death's door** .
Jerry : Oh dear! **Hold yourself together** ! You just need to pray for her and **keep a stiff upper lip.**
Sarah : Look look! Why are the doctors **in a huddle** ? She must have passed away!

Vocabulary

Out of the woods : no longer in danger, in the clear.
At one's wit ends : frantic, anxious; not knowing what to do next.
Go from bad to worse : from a bad state or condition to a worse condition.
Snap out of it : to stop experiencing something unpleasant or stop behaving in a negative way.
Go into pieces : to become unable to think clearly and control your emotions.
Worried sick : Extremely anxious.
At death's door: to be seriously ill.
Hold oneself together : To calm oneself down and begin to think or act appropriately.
Keep a stiff upper lip : to remain stoic during difficult situations.
In a huddle : conferring confidentially.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

out of the woods **at one's wit ends** **go from bad to worse**
snap out of it **go into pieces** **worried sick** **at death's door**
hold oneself together **keep a stiff upper lip** **in a huddle**

a. I know you're stressed out, but you need to ..... and get this report done!
b. Despite all of the hardships he faced, John always ..... and didn't let anything bother him.
c. We are not ..... but we have been thrown a lifeline.
d. Poor Aunt Jenny! She ..... at the funeral.
e. I was depressed, and I couldn't ..... without a long vacation.
f. I'm already ....., so if this train gets delayed too, I'm going to scream.
g. Contrary to expectation; Things ..... in a matter of days.
h. You must be ..... about me by now, I'm sorry I wasn't able to write or call you earlier.
i. The team went ..... at half-time to discuss their tactics.
j. The family dog was ..... for three days, and then it finally died.

Answers ;

Set (83) - Tell me about it!

Dialogue

Rob : The story seems to be **far-fetched** , unreal; yet it happened.
Edie : I'm afraid it's one of those stories that smooth-talking **snake-oil** salesmen employ to **take people for a ride** .
Rob: Not at all! The person who told it is **as true as steel** - she has never **stretched the truth** . It's Rebecca!
Edie: **You don't say** ! Rebecca literally lives in the **fantasy world** .
Rob : Well, I could be wrong, but I never witnessed her telling lies!
Edie : Don't go hard on yourself, dude! **Tell me about it** !

Vocabulary

Far-fetched : unlikely and unconvincing; implausible.
Snake oil : a valueless or fraudulent cure, remedy, or solution.
Take someone for a ride : to deceive or cheat someone.
As true as steel : very loyal and dependable.
Stretched the truth : to say something that is not completely honest in order to make someone or something seem better than it really is.
You don't say : used to express amazement or disbelief.
Fantasy world : something existing solely in the imagination (but often mistaken for reality)
Tell me about it : a way of stating that they're talking about something you know very well or agree with.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

far-fetched snake oil take someone for a ride
as true as steel stretched the truth You don't say!
fantasy world tell me about it

a. Here Rod continues his struggles in a ..... he's created, this time pursuing dark wizard Malraun and encountering an army of evil in the process.
b. While some of his tools are a little ....., many are actual tools of the trade.
c. Through all my troubles, my husband has been .....
d. A: "Going on vacation with three kids is a lot of work." B: "....."
e. He was accused of ..... about how much he had helped in the project.
f. Some kelp products are ....., but the good ones promote plant growth
g. A: "My wife's cousin is the starting quarterback for the New England Patriots." B: ".....! Have you ever met him?"
h. It's not pleasant to find out you've been ..... by someone you trusted.

Answers ;

Set (84) - You double-crosser! Quit playing with fire

Dialogue

Mike : Her lifestyle as a **tightwad** had given her a handsome bank account and no one to share it with!
Luna : On top of that she's on the verge of **kicking the bucket** ! Go figure!
Mark: I should **make use of** this opportunity and **tie the knot** at her. And then, I end up the **sole heir** and **come into** all her fortune.
Luna : You **double-crosser** ! Quit **playing with fire** .
Mark : Did I **slip up** or anything?
Luna : You just **keep it up** and see what happens!!

Vocabulary

Tightwad : (adj) a mean or miserly person; stingy; Scrooge.
Kick the bucket : to die; to pass away.
Make use of : to benefit from.
Tie the knot : to get married (to each other).
Sole heir : the person who inherits the whole heritage.
Come into : to inherit; to receive money as a result of a relative's death.
Double-crosser : (adj) traitor; disloyal.
Play with fire : to do something that could cause you trouble.
Slip up : to make a careless error.
Keep it up : Just keep acting that way and see what happens to you.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

tightwad **kick the bucket** **make use of** **tie the knot**
sole heir **come into** **double-crosser** **play with fire**
slip up **keep it up**

a. Some people are born lucky! Mike ..... an enormous inheritance!
b. They often ..... when it came to spelling because of the heavy workload.
c. Moshweshwe now presented himself as ..... to a line of landholders
d. There's no point in asking Joe to pay for it - he's a real .....
e. When the old girl finally ..... there was no mention of yours truly in the will.
f. They were educated enough to ..... further training.
g . We ..... in a little chapel on the Arkansas border.
h. I'll make sure that dirty ..... never works in this town again, if it's the last thing I do.
i. Jen swears she's being safe when she experiments with drugs, but I think she's .....

Answers ;

Set (85) - Enough of these prompt replies!

Dialogue

David : Look, Tom, everything is going fine here - don't **rock the boat** !
Tom : As if I was the only one here! Why don't talk to those **spoiled brats** ?
David: Enough of these **prompt replies** ! Remember! **A still tongue makes a wise head** .
Tom : Let's put our cards on the table - I'm truly fed up because of this **double standard** treatment.
David : **Cut it out** ! You're a true **pain in the neck** ! What did you just say?
Tom : I was saying I had to **drop the matter, anyway!**

Vocabulary

Rock the boat : to do or say something that might endanger a stable situation or upset the status quo.
Spoiled brats : badly-behaved children.
Prompt reply : quick answers.
A still tongue makes a wise head : It is much wiser to speak only when it is appropriate.
Double standard : a rule or principle which is unfairly applied in different ways to different people or groups.
Cut it out : stop doing this.
A pain in the neck : someone or something that is very annoying.
Drop the matter : to cease discussing or dwelling upon something.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

rock the boat **spoiled brat** **prompt reply**
a still tongue makes a wise head **double standard** **cut it out**
a pain in the neck **drop the matter**

a. He behaved like a ……., his power unchecked and uncontrolled.
b. I would appreciate a ……. so that I can take action immediately.
c. Writing long essays on uninteresting topics is …….
d. Look, we can't afford a new car right now, so just let the ……. already!
e. Sue: “Why, I think you have a crush on Mary!” Tom: “…….!”
f. She argued that society applies a ……. in dealing with women who commit adultery.
g. She was told to keep her mouth shut and not …….
h. Don't chatter about whatever comes to your mind. …….

Answers ;

Set (86) - I’m kicking myself for leaving her

Dialogue

Charlie : It's been three years since we broke up, but I still can't seem to **put her out of my head!**
Steven : Weird! You kept saying that she used to be **double-faced** and **stabbed you in the back!** Have you changed you mind already?
Charlie: Actually, **I wouldn't put it past her** once more after that incident! But **deep down** , I still **feel deep affection for** her!!
Steven : Boy! You’re **shooting yourself on the foot** ! Come on! Put yourself together - are you aware of the consequences of what you say?
Charlie : Honestly; I’m **kicking myself** for leaving her.
Steven : Oh! You’re such a **headache** ! You’ll send me to the loony bin.

Vocabulary

Put someone/something out of one’s head : to make an effort to forget or stop thinking about someone or something.
Double-faced : (adj) tending to say one thing and do another; deceitful.
Stab someone in the back : betray someone.
I wouldn't put it past (someone) : you would not be surprised if they did it.
Deep down : in one's inmost feelings, despite appearances to the contrary.
Feel deep affection for someone : to love.
Shooting oneself on the foot : to foolishly harm one's own cause.
Kick oneself : be annoyed with oneself for doing something foolish or missing an opportunity.
A headache : someone or something annoying; a hassle.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

put someone/something out of one's head **a headache**
double-faced **stab someone in the back**
wouldn't put it past (someone) **deep down**
feel deep affection for **kick oneself**
shooting oneself on the foot

a. It was very competitive, with everyone .....
b. I was happy on the outside, but ..... I was devastated
c. Jack has a long record of offences! I ..... to slip something into the drinks.
d. I guess we had better give up already – trying to persuade him is a real .....
e. I immediately regretted having said this — I could have .....
f. She ..... that country and its people.
g. You need to ..... that idea right .....—it will only bring us trouble.
h. I don't think you have to go into business with Carl. He's a ..... boy.

Answers ;

Set (87) - He’s getting hold of the wrong end of the stick!

Dialogue

Kathy : Oh, you can't believe a word that guy says—he's full of **hot air** .
Jenny : But he’s **rolling in money** ! He thinks people believe him **hook, line and sinker.**
Kathy: I **had his number** from the start - He’s **as sly as a fox** ! Period.
Jenny : Do you think he’s **getting off on the wrong foot** with that speech? Or probably he’s **getting hold of the wrong end of the stick** !
Kathy : He’s doing that **deliberately** . I bet he’s **playing the victim** to win sympathy and attention.
Jenny : Aha! Now I got what he was **getting at** !

Vocabulary

Hot air : lies, exaggerations, or nonsense.
Rolling in money : very rich.
Hook line and sinker : without question or doubt.
Have someone's number : know what kind of person someone is.
Sly as a fox : exceptionally clever, cunning, or shrewd, especially in devious or underhanded ways.
Get off on the wrong foot : make a bad start.
Get (hold of) the wrong end of the stick : to misunderstand something.
Deliberately: purposefully; intentionally.
Play the victim : a person that always pretends to be the underdog.
Get at : to imply something; to hint.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

hot air get at rolling in money hook line and sinker
have someone's number sly as a fox get off on the wrong foot
deliberately play the victim
get (hold of) the wrong end of the stick

a. Oh, don't worry — I won't let him cheat me. I .....
b. Once we get this plan underway, we'll be ..... in no time!
c. She lifted her chin in a gesture that ..... exposed the line of her throat.
d. Their relationship had ....., but the bond between Packer and Singleton grew stronger over time.
e. I think I ..... maybe she was pointing out someone else, not me.
f. There is no harm to ..... as long as your good will is there.
g. She may come off as nothing but smiles and sunshine, but trust me—she's .....!
h. His promises turned out to be so much .....
i. Will you get to the point? I don't know what you're .....
j. The moment I met my wife, I fell for her .....

Answers ;

Set (88) - Should we sleep on this as well?

Dialogue

George : That guy always dominates the class discussion with his rambling and **inane** thoughts like he's some genius.
Jane : I know! No one seems to **cut him down to size** ! His behavior is **the pits** .
George: Plus, he has **made it** to the next year **by the skin of his teeth.** Should we **sleep on this** as well?
Jane : Absolutely not! Unless he changes his tune, I'm going to give him a taste of his own medicine.
George : Put him out of your mind! He's not **worth it** .

Vocabulary

Inane : (adj) lacking sense or meaning; silly.
Cut someone down to size : to show someone that they are not as clever or important as they think.
The pits : the worst, anything that is very bad.
Make it : to succeed in doing something.
By the skin of one's teeth : by a very narrow margin; only just.
Sleep on something : think about, consider, decide later.
Worth it : be worth the time, money, effort, risk, etc. you have spent/taken doing something.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

inane **cut someone down to size** **the pits**
make it **by the skin of one's teeth** **sleep on something**
worth it

a. Oh man, my car wouldn't start this morning—I just made it here .....
b. The old couple likes to act ..... by dancing around in front of the children.
c. I worked as a telemarketer one summer, and it was .....
d. This tool set cost me an entire paycheck, but it has been .....—I've already used it for six different projects.
e. Someone should .....! He's going too far!
f. I'm still not sure if I'm ready to spend that much money. Can I ..... it?
g. I can't believe we .....—I thought for sure that we would miss the flight!

Answers ;

Set (89) - Better late than never

Dialogue

George : I wish I read this book long before - How did I let it **go unnoticed** ?
Jane : Don't **beat yourself up** ! **Better late than never** .
George: It's no exaggeration to say that this book is **worth its weight in gold.**
Jane : Is it? I'm getting curious! Do you mind if I borrow it **for a while** ?
George : I'm afraid not. Don't **get me wrong** but the topics raised in it are over your head - If you read it on your own, you may **lose it** .
Jane : Hand it over to me already! You're **underestimating** my intellectual capabilities. Aren't you?
George: Far from it. That's **out of the question** !

Vocabulary

Go unnoticed : to not be seen or noticed.
Beat (oneself) up : to continually criticize or question oneself, usually about something that one cannot change.
Better late than never : it is better to do something or arrive after the expected time than not do it or arrive at all.
Worth its weight in gold : so useful, helpful, or valuable.
For a while : for some time.
Get someone wrong : to misunderstand.
Lose it : to become deranged or mentally disturbed.
Underestimate : to rate something lower than its real/actual value.
Out of the question : not allowed; not permitted.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

go unnoticed	**beat (oneself) up**	**better late than never**
worth its weight in gold	**for a while**	**get someone wrong**
lose it	**underestimate**	**out of the question**

a. If his sudden wealth had ……, he wouldn't have been caught.
b. The baby was quiet ……, then burst out crying.
c. You can't go to Florida this spring. We can't afford it. It's …….
d. Oh, honey, I know you're upset about failing the driver's license test, but try not to ……. too much.
e. You've ……him……—I know he seems gruff, but he's a total sweetheart.
f. Observers of black swans tend to overestimate the analyzable and ……. the non-explainable.
g. After two weeks, I finally got a return phone call from that company. ……, I guess.
h. She used to turn heads wherever she went, but I think she's ……. a little as she's aged.
i. A computer system that didn't crash all the time would ……. around here!

Answers ;

Set (90) - Where is the common sense in that?

Dialogue

Suzan : My mom **raised a stink** when the store refused to accept her return without a receipt.
Josef : She shouldn't have! No receipts no returns; that's a simple **rule of thumb** .
Suzan: Really! Where is the **common sense** in that? They know her very well. She's one of their most loyal customers - That's why she was **offended** .
Josef : Well, I don't want to be **judgmental** , but well-respected shops aren't supposed to **go hard with** their customers.
Suzan : That's right. After long argument, the seniors stepped in and helped us.
Josef : Yeah; **I'd say** ! It's all because of these **greenhorn** sales people.

Vocabulary

Raise a stink : to be very vocal in one's displeasure; to make a scene.
Rule of thumb : an easily learned and easily applied procedure or standard, based on practical experience.
Common sense : sensibility; good sense and sound judgment.
Offended : resentful or annoyed, typically as a result of a perceived insult.
Judgmental : (adj) forming opinions of people and situations very quickly.
Go hard with : to be difficult, problematic, or unpleasant for someone.
I'd say : it is my estimate or opinion.
Greenhorn : a person who is new to or inexperienced at a particular activity.

Exercise

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

raise a stink rule of thumb common sense offended
judgmental go hard with I'd say greenhorn

a. Knowing the state of the rails, though, it'll only take half an inch to stop the trains from running, so the chances are fair to good, …….

b. I questioned him without trying to be ……. but the hurt tone was definitely there.

c. A …… is to leave at least 18 inches below a towel ring so a hand towel can hang freely.

d. One of the customers is ……. about the service charge we included on his bill.

e. If these people play fair and use discretion and ……., they shall have my full support

f. There are step-by-step instructions to help you if you are a …….

g. It will ……. John if he doesn't realize that Tommy is only interested in him for his money.

h. I felt a little ……. by their lack of respect.

Answers ;

Set (91) - You're barking up the wrong tree, dude!

Dialogue

David : Hey man! Won't you **grab a bite** before you leave? What's the hurry?
Stewart : **Mum's the word** - I'm on a diet and I'm trying to avoid any food that's **out of season** .
David: That's a **hogwash** ! Your problem isn't food. What you need is **food for thought** .
Stewart : We had better not **wash our dirty linen in public** ! I suppose.
David : You **chump** ! What are you **driving at** ?
Stewart : Your crazy cravings! **your sweet tooth** ! You're **barking up the wrong tree** , dude! All you need is a bit of **workout** .

Vocabulary

Grab a bite : to get something to eat.
Mum's the word : (as a request or warning) say nothing; don't reveal a secret.
Out of season : not grown or available at the time of year in question.
Hogwash : nonsense.
Food for thought : ideas that are worth considering.
Wash one's dirty linen in public : to talk to other people or in front of other people about personal things that should be kept private.
Chump : a foolish or easily deceived person.
Drive at something : to try to explain or say something.
Sweet tooth : a great liking for sweet-tasting foods.
Be barking up the wrong tree : be pursuing a mistaken or misguided line of thought or course of action.
Workout : exercise.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

grab a bite **mum's the word** **out of season**
hogwash **food for thought** **workout**
wash one's dirty linen in public **chump**
drive at something **sweet tooth**
be barking up the wrong tree

a. My uncle reads the newspaper to get some ..... about the current on-goings in the world.
b. Now, I don't want anyone to know that I'm pregnant yet, so .....
c. A typical morning ..... consists of a 12-kilometer paddle, a 10k run, and weight training.
d. If you think I'll help you cheat, you're definitely .....!
e. There are two lodges for skiers to rest, warm-up, and ..... to eat.
f. Pass lemon squares for those indulgent diners with a .....
g. What exactly are you ..... with a critical statement like that?
h. We shouldn't ..... and if I was in his position, I'd say nothing at all.
i. After clearing the final fence, the young ..... took the WRONG turning.
j. All this stuff about poisons in the water supply is a load of .....,
k. The restaurant uses local produce, and menu changes if something is .....

Answers ;

Set (92)- I was on the edge of my seat all along!

Dialogue

Jessie : What a **spine-chilling** movie! I was **on the edge of my seat** all along!
Martin : So was I! I was **shook-up** as well - It gave me **the jitters** !
Jessie: That ruthless giant **wiped out** tens of people. I **caught on** that he would be the villain the first scene he appeared.
Martin : He **bumped off** all of them **without blinking an eye** !
Jessie : What made him **go berserk** in your opinion?
Martin : The rats, of course. It's **no-brainer** .

Vocabulary

Spine-chilling : (adj) terrifying, thrilling.
On the edge of one's seat : in nervous suspense.
Shook-up : nervously upset : agitated.
The jitters : anxiety, nervousness.
Wipe out : to kill.
Catch on : to understand.
Bump off : to kill.
Without blinking an eye : not showing any reaction to something, especially to something strange or shocking.
Go berserk : to become very angry, crazy, and violent.
No-brainer : something that requires or involves little or no mental effort.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

spine-chilling on the edge of one's seat shook-up
the jitters wipe out catch on bump off
without blinking an eye go berserk no-brainer

a. The Great Depression and Dust Bowl ..... millions of people financially.
b. If you ask me, it's a ..... . Of course you should accept the job.
c. They tried to ..... her ....., but she was too clever and got away.
d. She ..... and began shouting at everybody on the platform.
e. Thanks for explaining that concept to me—I think I'm ..... now.
f . Be careful—guys like that will kill you .....
g . He just got a foreclosure notice, so he's all ..... right now.
h. The tabloids took up the call and printed the ..... news in bold type.
i. It's hook me up too, I still have .....
j. I've been ..... waiting for my acceptance letter.

Answers ;

Set (93) - Put your best foot forward

Dialogue

Thomas : I wonder if I can get my own car before I **lose my head** ! I've had enough of these irritating **jam-packed** buses.
Martin : I told you over and over to start your own business, do your best to **make a go of** it and rest assured you will be **on easy street** .
Thomas: Yeah; I need some guts! I'm fed up with the **dog's life** - Why don't you become my partner?
Martin : Excuse me Thomas! You've got commitment issue - Simply you can't **stick to your guns!** I will say it boldly; you're a quitter! You just end up **on skid row** !
Thomas : This time is different! It's going to be the **turning point** in my life.
Martin : Then; **put your best foot forward** .

Vocabulary

Lose one's head : to lose one's composure and act emotionally or irrationally.
Jam-packed : overcrowded; full.
Make a go of : to attempt to achieve success with something.
On easy street : having a pleasant, secure life.
A dog's life : a life that is difficult, unpleasant, or boring.
Stick to one's guns : refuse to compromise or change.
Turning point : a time at which a decisive change in a situation occurs, especially one with beneficial results.
On skid row : a life marked by poverty and squalid circumstances.
Put your best foot forward : embark on an undertaking with as much effort and determination as possible.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

lose one's head jam-packed make a go of
on easy street dog's life stick to one's guns
turning point put one's best foot forward on skid row

a. The box office success of his first movie put him and his family …….
b. It's amazing that, after nearly five years ……., he's now one of the biggest names in show business.
c. Winning that game was the ……. of the team's season.
d. You whipper-snappers think you've got a bright future ahead of you, but it's a ……., I tell you!
e. I really admire Jess for …….. during college, and not submitting to the peer pressure of those around her to drink or do drugs.
f. You really need to …….. in the interview if you want to get this job.
g. You need to calm down before you talk to Larry. You don't want to …… before finding out his side of the story.
h. His room was ……. with fruit, flowers, gifts and posters.
i. She was determined to …….. her programming business.

Answers ;

Set (94) - This time they will sink or swim

Dialogue

Thomas : Despite a **stellar** cast, the film turned out to be a real **train wreck** .
Martin : Why don't they **have a go at** a **comeback** ? This time they will **sink or swim.**
Thomas: Do you think they have **what it takes** ? That film is probably their **swan song.**
Martin : Do you think they are **going to the dogs** ?
Thomas : Who knows? I heard they're recruiting some **has-been** performer who may save the day.

Vocabulary

Stellar : (adj) featuring or having the quality of a star performer or performers.
Train wreck : a major or total failure, disaster, or catastrophe.
Have a go at : to try, often after others have failed.
Comeback : an attempt to reclaim a respected position, be successful again.
Sink or swim : fail or succeed by your own efforts.
Have what it takes : any ability for a job; courage.
Swan song : final appearance.
Go to the dogs : something is becoming worse than it normally was.
Has-been : person once popular but no longer in public favor.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

stellar **train wreck** **have a go at**
comeback **sink or swim** **have what it takes**
swan song **go to the dogs** **has-been**

a. The pastrami offering at Langer's Deli is a ..... example of hot sandwich achievement.
b. I thought the recipe in the book looked good and we shall have ..... it ourselves.
c. This building turned out to be the ..... of Victorian architecture.
d. This project has become an absolute ..... . We've wasted so much time and money already, I don't know how we'll make up the losses.
e. This firm's ..... since the new management took over.
f. She's pretty talented—I think she might ..... to become a Hollywood actress.
g. The young actor constantly sought media attention because he feared becoming a ..... too early in his career.
h. Now that we've bought the farm, we'll have to make a go of it, ...
i. The team was trailing after the first half, but they made a ..... and won in the second half.

Answers ;

Set (95) - It's either feast or famine!

Dialogue

Jessie : Yesterday two hundred **showed up** at the fair, today two dozen - it's **either feast or famine** !
Jane : Bear in mind that David has got lots of fans! If he was here, thousands would be around.
Jessie: Good idea! But do you David would **string along with** us **through thick and thin** ?
Jane : Should I **give him a ring** now?
Jessie : Sure! **The sooner the better** !
Jane : Look who is there. That's Mary. Isn't she? **It's a small world** ?

Vocabulary

Show up : to arrive.
Either feast or famine : either too much or too little, too many or too few.
String along with : stay with or accompany a person or group.
Through thick and thin : under all circumstances, no matter how difficult.
Give someone a ring : to call someone on the telephone.
The sooner the better : it should be done as soon as possible.
It's a small world : used to express surprise at meeting an acquaintance or discovering a personal connection in a distant place or an unexpected context.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

show up **either feast or famine** **string along with**
through thick and thin **give someone a ring**
the sooner the better **It's a small world!**

a. Lucy is my right arm - She has stuck with me ……
b. …… tonight, and we'll work out the details.
c. Mike is getting more and more indifferent! I invited him for eight o'clock, but he didn't …… until nine-thirty.
d. Freelance projects always seem to be ……, unfortunately—this line of work is very unpredictable.
e. I found a copy of my novel at a used bookstore in Paris. ……, isn't it?
f. A new candidate will probably have to be found, …….
g. Okay. I will …….. you this time, but I don't know about the future.

Answers ;

Set (96) - Stop milking it for heaven's sake!

Dialogue

Jessie : I **bent over backwards** for you, and you showed no thanks!
Jane : Did you? I wonder when will you **grow out of** your **wheeling and dealing** ?
Jessie: You insist on your being ungrateful! I **went out of my way** to take care of you while you were sick!
Jane : Stop **milking it** for heaven's sake! How many time should I return this favor?
Jessie : Come on! All I need is attention and recognition.
Jane : Well; I'll **make it up for** you. But I'm against the concept of **you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours!**

Vocabulary

Bend over backwards : to work very hard to accomplish something.
Grow out of : become too mature to retain (a childish habit).
Wheel and deal : to operate or manipulate for one's own interest.
Go out of one's way : to try especially hard to do something good or helpful.
Milk it : to try to get as much of something from someone else.
Make it up : to do something good for someone you have upset, in order to become friends with them again.
You scratch my back and I scratch yours : used to tell someone that if they help you, you will help them.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases :

bend over backwards **grow out of** **wheel and deal**
go out of one's way **milk it** **make it up**
you scratch my back and I scratch yours

a. The entire staff really needs to …….. while the CEO is visiting our office.
b. They found a little bit of celebrity when their book was published a couple years ago, and they've been ……. ever since.
c. I'm sorry I missed your game. How about …… to you with some ice cream?
d. Thanks for the file. Here's your money—……., remember?
e. I thought she would have …….. temper tantrums by now.
f. You need to thank Monica—she really …….. to get you this job interview.
g. You need to cool it with the …… and just let the process work as it is supposed to. You'll be judged on your qualifications, not who you know.

Answers ;

Set (97) - One swallow doesn't make a summer!

Dialogue

Peter : How embarrassing! Did I ever **put my foot in it** —I just congratulated Sarah's sister on being pregnant. She isn't.
Alice: You don't say! Haven't you heard the proverb that says "**look before you leap** "?
Peter : She just walked away - I **wish the ground would have swallowed me** !
Alice : Never mind; I'll straighten it out. But make sure you don't **screw it up** once more.
Peter : I'll have to apologize to her as soon as possible or do her a big favor - You know; **one swallow doesn't make a summer** !
Alice: Fine then! You don't have to go hard on yourself anymore.

Vocabulary

Put one's foot in it : to unintentionally say something foolish, tactless, or offensive.
Look before you leap : think of the consequences before you act.
Wish the ground would swallow someone : to wish one could have an escape or some instant relief from being mortified or extremely embarrassed.
Screw up : to completely mismanage or mishandle a situation.
One swallow doesn't make a summer : a single fortunate event does not mean that what follows will also be good.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

put one's foot in it **look before you leap**
Wish the ground would swallow someone **screw up**
one swallow doesn't make a summer

a. Hershel just asked me out in the middle of class in front of everyone. I ……
b. I …… the cake when I forgot to add eggs to it.
c. If you deceive your boss now, what do you think will happen if he finds out about it? I mean, ……!
d. A lot of things went right for us this year, but ……—we still have a long ways to go before our finances are back in order.
e. He just tends to …… when he's forced to speak for too long, so try to get him off stage as soon as possible.

Answers ;

Set (98) - He doesn’t want to play the game

Dialogue

Allan: I'll send one of my strong men around to him tomorrow to **tighten the screws** on him. Then we'll see if he's still so sure he won't sign the contract.
Jerry: **Don’t dare you!** You’re going to **make a mess of** the whole deal.
Allan : He’s going to sigh **willingly or unwillingly** .
Jerry : What on earth is making him **standing his ground** after like this?
Allan : He **doesn’t** want **to play the game** because he observed our enthusiasm.
Jerry : He’ll **give in** sooner or later.

Vocabulary

Tighten the screws : exert strong pressure on someone.
Don’t dare you : used for telling someone not to do something, when you are warning them that you will be very angry if they do it.
Make a mess of : ruin or spoil (something).
Willingly or unwillingly : either by one’s own will or against it.
Stand one’s ground : to hold to one’s position; to refuse to give in.
Not play that game : to refuse to adhere to, participate in, or be a part of what is expected or wanted by others, especially because one is suspicious.
Give in : to cease fighting or arguing; admit defeat.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

tighten the screws don’t dare you make a mess of
willingly or unwillingly not play that game
give in stand one’s ground

a. She should know that I’m going to bring the children …….
b. ……. touch that autographed baseball—it's worth a lot of money!
c. Under the threat of a strike, the management ……. and agreed to reinstate annual pay increases for all employees.
d. He kept offering me less money, but I ……. and got the full asking price.
e. I'm ……., Rob. If there's something wrong, just say it—don't just keep alluding to it passive aggressively.
f. The bank has really started ……. on me ever since I began missing my mortgage payments.
g. I'm afraid the accounting department ……. these numbers. We'll need to re-tally the entire ledger.

Answers ;

Set (99) - A big fish in a small pond!

Dialogue

Carl: Where's the **head honcho** ? Has he left yet?
Kathy: Yeah, he has - **the coast's clear** ! Come on! Let's **get going** .
Carl : Did you bring the burgers? I'm **starving hungry** .
Kathy : Are you sure we'll **get away with** this?
Carl : **Stay loose** ! It's all under control. I feel myself the big cheese here not that **empty-headed nerd** .
Kathy : I see! You're literally **a big fish in a small pond** !

Vocabulary

Head honcho : the boss; the person in charge of a place or an organization.
The coast is clear : there is no danger of being observed or caught.
Get going : to start taking some action.
Starving hungry : very hungry.
Get away with : escape blame, punishment, or undesirable consequences for (an act that is wrong or mistaken).
Stay loose : to relax and stay calm; take it easy.
Empty-headed : lacking intelligence or knowledge; foolish; brainless.
Nerd : a foolish or contemptible person who lacks social skills or is boringly studious.
A big fish in a small pond : A person who is important in a limited arena.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

head honcho **the coast is clear** **get going**
starving hungry **get away with** **stay loose**
empty-headed **nerd** **a big fish in a small pond**

a. Who called this an ..... young girl – She’s a pain in the neck!
b. Let’s stop by one of these shops; I’m .....
c. Ever since David was transferred to that village, he felt like .....
d. I have a playlist of music that I listen to that helps me ..... before a game.
e. Come on, kids, let's .....—the party starts in 20 minutes.
f. That decision is above my pay grade. You'll have to ask the .....
g. You got lucky when you ran that red light. Next time you might not ..... it.
h. Let’s not hang out for long after dinner. I can’t stand Steven’s observations – He’s such a .....
i. As soon as ..... he climbed in through the window.

Answers ;

Set (100) - It’s a dog-eat-dog world

Dialogue

Jack: You should **think big** , dear! Food, clothing, and shelter are the **bare** necessities of life. What about humanities and culture?
Alice: But unless you **bare your teeth** , you’ll end up the one who is **left out** .
Jack : You’re right! When James says it’s a **dog-eat-dog** world, I don’t blame him.
Alice : Above all, only few are content to **make a living by the sweat of their brow!**
Jack : You know what? The thought of this rat race gives me **a lump in my throat!**

Vocabulary

Think big : to be ambitious.
Bare: the smallest or least possible.
Bare one’s teeth : to display an angry, violent, and/or threatening reaction to or against something or someone.
Left out : not included in something.
Do-eat-dog : a situation of fierce competition in which people are willing to harm each other in order to succeed.
Make a living : to earn enough income to support oneself.
By the sweat of their brow : through one's own efforts or hard work.
Have a lump in one’s throat : a feeling that one is unable to speak due to sadness, anxiety, or another strong emotion.

Exercise
Fill in the gaps with the appropriate phrases:

think big **bare** **bare one's teeth** **left out**
do-eat-dog **make a living** **by the sweat of their brow**
a lump in one's throat

a. I had a ..... as I watched the casket of the fallen soldier return home.
b. It's clear that the company was ..... when they came up with the idea for this product.
c. Don't expect this kind of consideration in the real world—it's ..... out there.
d. This pair of entrepreneurs has created a billion-dollar company .....
e. Of course I felt ..... when you guys went to the concert without me!
f. There isn't much time, so I'll just give you the ..... details.
g. I will ..... to anyone who tries to take away my land.
h. If you quit your job at the hospital, how on earth will you .....?

Answers ;

Answers

Set (1)
a. pathetic b. count on c. how come d. hoax e. turned out
f. swallow the bait g. get rid of h. keep his nose clean i. barked up the wrong tree.

Set (2)
a. skip it b. a taste of his own medicine c. treated/to d. No wonder
e. let bygones be bygones f. played a trick on g. the talk of the town
h. spill the beans i. let down

Set (3)
a. feel like two cents b. splurge c. born with silver spoons in their mouths
d. loaded e. a drop in the ocean f. live within his means
g. came down to earth h. broke

Set (4)
a. Get out of here b. shop around c. sky-high d. around the corner
e. are fed up with f. cut corners g. makes/ excuses
h. make both ends meet i. give/ solace

Set (5)
a. You're kidding b. put a stop to c. new due date d. take time off
e. after all f. do without g. turned/down h. down in the dumps
i. cracking the whip j. on the pretext of k. hit the ceiling l. step in m. foil/ plan

Set (6)
a. stick it out b. with pleasure c. trailer d. poured so much money down the drain
e. prank f. put up with g. isn't really my cup of tea. h. rubbish i. do me a favor

Set (7)
a. cover up b. lest c. the villain of the piece d. goes around with
e. whistleblower f. spread rumors g. slipped up h. You don't say
i. the other way round j. the sooner the better k. You know what l. ratted on

Set (8)
a. line of work b. a change of air c. hard up d. Go for it
e. stand on her own two feet f. racking my brain g. leeway h. give/ a hand
i. boxed-in j. did his best k. had enough of

Set (9)
a. changed my mind b. no joke c. pay off d. for good. e. drop out of
f. tycoon g. making any sense h. picnic i. nitwit j. one way or another
k. shortcuts/taken l. backed me up

Set (10)
a. third party b. fair enough c. already d. bugged e. other than
f. or else g. already h. Believe it or not i. give away j. give away
k. already l. in her shoes m. out of my mind n. on earth

Set (11)
a. jack of all trades b. literally c. pass away d. odds and ends e. dependable
f. Far from it g. serve the purpose h. butter up
i. don't hold your breath j. out of town
k. the lion's share l. have / in common

Set (12)
a. push it b. end up c. In retrospect d. run short of
e. holds a grudge f. watch your words g. unless
h. go easy on i. Go easy on j. a thing of the past

Set (13)
a. squawking b. to no avail c. mind your own business d. can't stand
e. moaning f. overcast g. are bound to h. point out
i. talk him round j. learn that the hard way. k. keep up with the Joneses

Set (14)
a. overtime b. get off the hook c. have a full plate
d. saved the day e. deal with f. know it inside out g. take over
h. clueless i. show you the ropes. j. never mind

Set (15)
a. dirty rat b. gullible c. worked up d. beyond our means
e. was just pulling/ leg f. make fun of g. give up
h. gone to extremes i. without doubt

Set (16)
a. a hard pill to swallow b. run down c. break-up d. near miss
e. Let it ride f. in no mood to g. absent-minded
h. On top of that i. take action

Set (17)
a. OMG b. smelled a rat c. turn your stomach d. leave her alone

e. vanished into thin air f. up to something g. snuck in
h. slipped out i. now and then

Set (18)

a. all the same b. big-headed c. big deal (important)
d. Big deal (contempt) e. grease their palms f. loophole
g. not a big deal h. leave it to me i. I bet.

Set (19)

a. settle down b. Cheer up c. make up my mind d. think outside the box
e. comes my way f. Things are looking up g. don't mind h. cut out to be
i. you've got a point there j. For the record k. pay dividends

Set (20)

a. a breeze b. ill at ease c. assigned to d. am used to
e. gave it his best shot f. think twice g. On behalf of
h. bank on i. mess up

Set (21)

a. make up (create) b. make up (compensate) c. make up (form)
d. make/up (reconcile) e. go too far f. have a knack for g. hang out h. tied up

Set (22)

a. well-intentioned b. keeping our fingers crossed c. gives me the creeps
d. knock/out e. make a hit f. can't wait g. slipped my mind. h. lose face
i. come to light j. jumped the gun k. sit tight l. a bootlicker

Set (23)

a. crave b. cleared his mind. c. next-door d. day and night
e. second to none f. to die for g. was dying for h. called on
i. Speaking of j. What do you say k. jump at the chance

Set (24)

a. put my finger on it b. the cream of the crop c. brains d. pull strings
e. make their own way f. fishy g. waste my breath h. hands are tied
i. put up with j. judge a book by its cover k. too full of herself

Set (25)

a. pay for b. take revenge c. put me down d. making a laughingstock of
e. get even f. fair's fair g. hurt your feelings

Set (26)

a. turned a blind eye to b. grumpy c. to crown it all
d. out of date e. typically f. falsifying the facts
g. takes/ages h. let alone

Set (27)

a. making a bundle b. in a row c. high-maintenance d. take advantage of
e. out of this world f. has a heart of gold g. beat me to the punch h. went into business

Set (28)

a. divert attention from b. keen to c. playing the victim d. cover-up
e. plain as day f. smoke and mirrors g. wasn't born yesterday
h. had a finger in the pie i. see no further than the end of their own noses

Set (29)

a. go-getter b. not the end of the world c. a pat on the back
d. go a long way e. get out of f. beat g. in the same boat h. taken for a ride

Set (30)

a. count on b. heaven c. keeps his word d. look back e. fell apart
f. fell apart g. go nuts h. let on i. dog's life
j. Going back on your promise k. no bed of roses

Set (31)

a. to twiddle my thumbs b. stick my neck out c. top-notch
d. back out of e. asking for trouble. f. stinks g. beg to differ
h. fall off i. washing my hands of j. Money doesn’t grow on trees

Set (32)

a. dead-end b. knocked out c. knocked/ out
d. knocked/ out e. knock/ out f. knock/ out g. junkie h. morbid

Set (33)

a. The heart of the matter b. flirt c. broke up d. turned/upside down
e. sounds like f. black and blue g. cut from the same cloth
h. teaching me a lesson i. break it up

Set (34)

a. kicked out b. sell yourself short c. went nowhere d. clean conscience
e. come clean f. rat race g. bite off more than you can chew
h. gets me down i. going around in circles j. simmer down k. take it easy

Set (35)

a. get carried away b. well worth c. keep you posted d. drop/a line

e. big bucks f. a ballpark figure g. Give or take

Set (36)

a. have/on b. awkward positions c. give/ a break d. slipped/ mind
e. all at once f. off the top of my head g. offhand h. back up i. brush up on

Set (37)

a. clear the air b. open up c. learn that the hard way d. on the edge
e. no easy/simple matter f. wipes/out g. are doomed to h. mountain out of a molehill

Set (38)

a. out of the ordinary b. get through c. let me know d. get hold of
e. out of order f. head over heels in love g. the big day
h. leave him a message i. got him wrong

Set (39)

a. lose weight b. head is spinning c. on a diet d. lose my appetite
e. strong-willed f. enough already g. stank h. Good for you
i. grab a bite j. On second thought k. rotten l. eat out

Set (40)

a. rest assured b. pocket money c. breakthrough d. Big deal e. on the horizon
f. gone to the dogs g. up in the air h. winning streak i. foot the bill

Set (41)

a. first things first b. put forth c. fiddling while Rome burns d. in charge of
e. pressed for time f. set up g. In the meantime h. race against time i. For your information

Set (42)

a. turned upside down b. a blessing in disguise c. Contrary to expectations
d. unshaken e. find out f. bring together g. every cloud has a silver lining
h. get over it i. anymore

Set (43)

a. can't stand b. over my head c. throw up d. blew it
e. get over here f. cut class g. turned the tables h. beside the point
i. take sides j. slacking off k. messing around

Set (44)

a. feeling down b. going out with c. overstepped its bounds
d. feed/ to e. came to his senses f. get it off (out) my mind
g. shaking in my boots h. wiped out i. mess with

Set (45)

a. smooth things over b. get under your skin c. stands to reason
d. shoot herself in the foot e. status quo f. bossing him around
g. crack down h. put me on the spot i. have had it up to here with you
j. adjust to k. in the true sense of the word

Set (46)

a. spoiled b. fell on deaf ears c. hit the nail on the head
d. over and over again e. Get a load of f. Appearances can be deceiving
g. gets a kick out of h. went out of control i. in stitches j. give in

Set (47)

a. those good old days b. track down c. yearn for d. lost touch
e. hark back f. on the go g. tied down h. keep in touch with i. live it up
j. in a rut k. come across l. touch base

Set (48)

a. fair-weather friend b. down to earth c. hit it off d. on and off
e. well-off f. looked down their noses at g. steer clear of h. the other day
i. gave me the cold shoulder

Set (49)

a. fill me in on b. odds with c. pushover d. see eye to eye
e. stand up for yourself f. leads you around by the nose
g. putting the screws on h. has a mind of her own i. cheat on

Set (50)

a. on the rocks b. on the same wavelength c. have a bun in the oven
d. false alarm e. blow it up f. on shaky ground g. split up h. at fault

Set (51)

a. make time b. easier said than done c. from scratch d. jumped the gun
e. lost his head f. one-track mind g. No hard feelings
h. if the worst comes to the worst i. has a heart of gold.

Set (52)

a. sitting idly by b. no-brainer c. taking it out on
d. a bit of a stretch e. cope with f. like pulling teeth g. lay out
h. knows her stuff i. be worth my while

Set (53)

a. just what the doctor ordered b. can’t complain c. stick with

d. get the ball rolling e. make a fool out of myself f. hit the jackpot
g. make progress h. measure up

Set (54)

a. having a go b. Achilles heel c. penalty kick d. blew the final whistle
e. counterattack f. missing the target g. lineup h. wide
i. outswinger j. right wing k. top striker l. free kick

Set (55)

a. it takes two to tango b. took/ by storm c. given d. twisted my arm
e. behind in f. keep track of g. It's a deal h. viral marketing
i. teased j. cornered/ market

Set (56)

a. cutting off your nose to spite your face b. by a hair c. took place
d. painted myself into a corner e. Not on my watch f. For the record
g. just the ticket h. lost in thought i. mark my words

Set (57)

a. stand-up b. work it out c. Go figure d. stepped out of line
e. sourpuss f. goosebumps g. track record h. set/up i. lay his hands

Set (58)

a. all thumbs b. serves a purpose c. spend a fortune d. save/the trouble
e. an understatement f. handy g. Way to go h. on the blink i. second hand

Set (59)

a. mess b. scattered around c. pile up d. a slob
e. right here under your nose f. turned up g. nags
h. looking high and low i. Here they are j. straighten it out

Set (60)

a. stubborn as a mule b. fiddled around c. doctored/ up d. elbow grease
e. all along f. take no notice g. kissed/ goodbye

Set (61)

a. dead letter b. red tape c. What's the point of d. time-worn
e. when pigs fly f. cut to the chase g. home free h. in good hands

Set (62)

a. take over b. not on your life c. rundown d. run-down e. run-down
f. hustle and bustle g. in the middle of nowhere h. hell

Set (63)

a. dogs of the same street bark alike b. on the level c. under-the-table
d. carbon copy e. patch up f. turned over a new leaf g. suck up h. gloss over

Set (64)

a. farce b. nitpicking c. harping on d. boss/around e. nagging
f. take/with a pinch of salt g. loony Bin h. open-minded
i. hounded j. took it to heart k. Knock it off l. in the same boat
m. a pill n. get off his back

Set (65)

a. wisecrack b. let bygones be bygones c. whistling a different tune
d. have a chip on her shoulder e. accounts to settle f. dishing out
g. take it h. getting at i. old habits die hard j. just clear the air

Set (66)

a. make waves b. laying the blame c. the last straw d. the talk of the town
e. nipped/in the bud f. teach him a lesson g. make the fur fly
h. go astray i. make/big thing (out) of j. hand over

Set (67)

a. knocking my head against the wall b. serves/right c. turned the tables
d. rub it in e. have taken the gloves off f. take for granted
g. walk all over us h. gets the short end of the stick

Set (68)

a. free riders b. deserve credit for c. don't know the first thing about
d. talk big e. knows which side of his bread is buttered
f. hit him where it hurts g. How do you mean h. time is ripe
i. put/ in his place j. freeloaders

Set (69)

a. lowered the boom b. got what’s coming to c. bear in mind
d. the law of the jungle e. drama queen f. raising Cain
g. sets/example h. stand up to i. get to the bottom of j. backbone

Set (70)

a. war of nerves b. asymmetrical c. take that lying down
d. mudslinging e. say uncle f. save face g. unprincipled
h. stick to your guns i. get the upper hand j. go down swinging

Set (71)

a. lay back b. get your head out of the clouds c. cloud nine d. clouded up
e. cloud on the horizon f. every dark cloud has a silver lining.
g. gets me down h. against her will

Set (72)

a. change his tune b. standoff c. kill them with kindness d. get nowhere
e. with it f. racket g. Keep it down

Set (73)

a. appeal to b. Panic-stricken c. sideswiped d. take its toll on e. backseat driver
f. roadworthy g. smack into h. wear and tear i. in good shape
j. road hug k. roadworthy

Set (74)

a. brought this on himself b. schadenfreude c. hard feelings d. dwell on
e. blabbermouth f. blow over g. fuming h. talk trash
i. oversensitive j. given free rein to

Set (75)

a. put off b. offed c. dashed d. hold my breath e. took up
f. holding/back g. take matters into her own hands h. had a word
i. look into j. can't wait

Set (76)

a. 40 lashes with a wet noodle b. put a stop to c. Use your noodle
d. figure out e. wimped f. green with envy g. to that extent
h. toast i. wet noodle

Set (77)

a. make/out of b. lowdown c. makes sense d. clear up e. earful f. floored
g. find fault with h. out of my mind i. goes the extra mile
j. went out of her way k. put you out

Set (78)

a. collude with b. scratch the surface c. scratching their heads
d. start from scratch e. up to scratch f. tap into

Set (79)

a. fell out b. leading question c. hold back d. get/straight e. clear up
f. getting me cornered g. get it off my chest h. tangential
i. meddling in j. trying my patience k. hear-to-heart

Set (80)

a. The ball is in/court b. boils down c. backbone
d. took the words right out of/mouth e. pale in comparison f. ball of fire

Set (81)

a. guts b. back out of c. trapped in d. side with e. wishy-washy
f. left me holding the bag g. a wimp h. move mountains
i. a thing of the past j. put my cards on the table

Set (82)

a. hold yourself together b. kept a stiff upper lip c. out of the woods
d. went to pieces e. snap out of it f. at my wits' end g. went from bad to worse
h. worried sick i. into a huddle j. at death's door

Set (83)

a. fantasy world b. far-fetched c. as true as steel d. Tell me about it
e. stretching the truth f. snake oil g. You don't say h. taken for a ride

Set (84)

a. came into b. slipped up c. sole heir d. tightwad e. kicked the bucket
f. make use of g. tied the knot h. double crosser i. playing with fire

Set (85)

a. spoiled brat b. prompt reply c. a pain in the neck d. matter drop
e. Cut it out f. double standard g. rock the boat h. A still tongue makes a wise head.

Set (86)

a. stabbing everyone else in the back b. deep down c. wouldn't put it past him
d. headache e. kicked myself f. developed a deep affection for
g. put/ out of your head h. double-faced

Set (87)

a. 've got his number b. rolling in money c. deliberately
d. started off on the wrong foot e. get hold of the wrong end of the stick
f. play the victim g. sly as a fox! h. hot air i. getting at j. hook, line, and sinker

Set (88)

a. by the skin of my teeth! b. inane c. the pits
d. worth it e. cut that man down to size f. sleep on g. made it

Set (89)

a. gone unnoticed b. for a while c. out of the question d. beat yourself up
e. got / wrong f. underestimate g. Better late than never

h. lost it i. be worth its weight in gold

Set (90)

a. I'd say b. judgmental c. good rule of thumb d. raising a stink
e. common sense f. greenhorn g. go hard with h. offended

Set (91)

a. food for thought b. mum's the word c. workout d. barking up the wrong tree
e. grab a bite f. sweet tooth g. driving at h. wash our dirty laundry in public
i. chump j. hogwash k. out of season

Set (92)

a. wiped out b. no-brainer c. bump/off d. went berserk e. catching on
f. without even blinking an eye g. shook up h. spine-chilling
i. the jitters j. on the edge of my seat

Set (93)

a. on easy street b. on skid row c. turning point d. dog's life
e. sticking to her guns f. put your best foot forward g. lose your head
h. jam-packed i. make a go of

Set (94)

a. stellar b. to have a go at c. swan song d. train wreck
e. gone to the dogs f. have what it takes g. has-been
h. sink or swim i. comeback

Set (95)

a. through thick and thin b. Give me a ring c. show up d. feast or famine
e. It's a small world f. the sooner the better g. string along with

Set (96)

a. bend over backwards b. milking it c. making it up
d. you scratch my back and I'll scratch yours e. grown out of
f. went out of her way g. wheeling and dealing

Set (97)

a. wish the ground would swallow me up b. screwed up
c. look before you leap d. one swallow does not make a summer e. put his foot in it

Set (98)

a. willingly or unwillingly b. Don't you dare c. gave in d. stood my ground
e. not playing that game f. tightening the screws g. made a mess out of

Set (99)

a. empty-headed b. starving hungry c. a big fish in a small pond
d. stay loose e. get going f. head honcho g. get away with
h. nerd i. the coast was clear

Set (100)

a. lump in my throat b. thinking big c. dog eat dog
d. by the sweat of their brows. e. left out f. bare g. bare my teeth h. make a living

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THE BEGINNER'S ENGLISH BOOK

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THE BEGINNER'S ENGLISH BOOK

FOR THE USE OF ADULT STUDENTS

By MARY E. NOLIN

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PREFACE.

The object of this book is to present in convenient form matter for teaching adult foreigners the constructions of English sentences and for teaching them at the same time an English vocabulary of the kind required by beginners.

There being no necessary logical arrangement, the chief usages of English speech are presented in the order that seems best adapted to the requirements of teaching. The matter of the book has been arranged so that each lesson shall introduce only one new feature, apart of course from new words, and at the same time shall repeat, in forms varying to meet the requirements of drill, words and constructions previously learned.

The thought expressed by the English sentences used in the first two parts of the book can be readily communicated to the pupils by the use of objects, gestures, motions, and signs, and always should be so communicated when being presented for the first time. In the early stages of the instruction many of the most important processes of learning oral and written speech must of necessity take place in the presence of the teacher and under her immediate observation and control. While these are going on, however, the teacher need utter no words, and indeed should utter none, except what are required to make the original utterance of the English phrase or sentence that is being taught, and except what are necessary afterward to repeat it from time to time at the proper moment in order to correct the learner's pronunciation and to reinforce his new impression. If the recitation is rightly conducted, no talk by the teacher is ever required to arouse interest or hold attention. Oral explanations and suggestions made

while the main objects of the lesson are the center of attention may be dispensed with altogether; and if offered, they usually come as a distraction and a distinct hindrance to learning. But the zealous teacher particularly, although she may know this, often finds it difficult to refrain from attempting such assistance. So important is it, indeed, to avoid diverting and confusing the learner's attention at this time that the lack of a convenient medium of oral communication between the teacher and the learner seems to be, on the whole, not a hindrance, but an aid to teaching; it helps to keep the teacher quiet while these important learning processes are going on, and results in allowing the learner's attention to be riveted to the thought and English expression alone. Accordingly the direct route to the end aimed at in the first stage of the instruction is through thought suitable to teaching, exhibited by means of concrete acts without comment.

In the matter of the selection of words, the aim has been to present the necessary elements of vocabulary that are common to all kinds of discourse rather than to introduce an elaborate array of special nouns and verbs, for which the beginner is sometimes supposed to have an immediate and urgent need. The book is intended to lead up to and make a slight beginning at using continuous discourse, written and oral, as a means of further study of English. The first two parts, which are preliminary to the use of continuous discourse, can be learned in a comparatively short time, say from six weeks to two months. Consequently it has been thought best not to overstress nouns and verbs at the expense of relational words. It is interesting and worth while in this connection to recollect that while relational words are only a comparatively small part of English vocabulary, yet of all the words found in a given piece of ordinary

English discourse, relational words constitute something like sixty per cent of the whole. And there is of course no such thing as adequately comprehending the commonest kind of such discourse without understanding them. Moreover there seems to be no way to effect a speedy preparation for the use of continuous discourse by the learner except through a prompt presentation of at least the rudiments of the relational elements of the language.

The ideas of teaching which these lessons attempt to express are a result of the experience of some six years occupied with teaching beginning English to adult foreigners. In the introductory chapter will be found some detailed observations in the form of suggestions for teaching the lessons. These suggestions are put in concrete and specific terms for the sake of clearness and brevity, and in the hope that, thus expressed, they may in a measure take the place of a class-room demonstration from which the reader may draw his own particular conclusions about methods of teaching. There is no intention of insisting upon as essential all of the details of the teaching procedure illustrated. It is a fact, however, that lessons arranged on the plan of this book do afford a speedy and effective introduction to the use of continuous discourse, and without requiring any special gift for teaching, enable the teacher to hold interest and attention and to keep them fixed where they do most good. Even pupils who are permitted to continue their study of English in school for only a short time take with them when they leave a benefit from the fact that they have been taught systematically in the manner required by such lessons as these. For afterwards, when they come to learn a new sentence or sense-group or word by their own efforts without the assistance of a

teacher, they are able to go about it intelligently; they easily and naturally, without any thought about it, attend to significant distinctions and make useful discriminations in the act of learning that would have escaped them, if their brief instruction had not been systematic and methodical in the sense suggested.

PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA
September 21, 1921.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE FOR THE TEACHER.

SOME SUGGESTIONS OF AN EXPLICIT KIND FOR TEACHING THE FIRST LESSON.

The teacher, having on the table the objects mentioned in the first lesson, takes a pencil in her hand, and without releasing it, places it successively on the book, into the book, beside the book, and under the book, thus communicating to the pupil without ambiguity very simple and very definite pieces of meaning. At the proper moments as she does so, the teacher utters the appropriate English phrases, 'on the book,' 'into the book,' and so on, clearly, distinctly, and so far as is possible with the same voice qualities (such as quantity, stress, and intonation) as though the utterances were parts of continous discourse. The teacher then repeats this performance several times, in order that the pupils may have ample opportunity to listen to the teacher's utterances and to observe the movements of her speech organs. In repeating the phrases the teacher should be careful to make the utterances the same each time (a difficult thing to do) so as to reinforce the original impressions and not confuse the pupil. She then uses other objects, but not many, to teach similar phrases, indicating the meaning and uttering the phrases as before, until the class has had ample opportunity to grasp the general senses that run through all the phrases mentioned in the lesson.

At this point of the instruction the teacher, returning to the first phrase, indicates the meaning and utters the corresponding English phrase as she did at the beginning. Then, giving the direction by gesture, she indicates to one of the class (*not* to all) that he shall utter the phrase. It is important that the teacher

should give the directions by signs, and not orally as by using the word 'say,' because almost invariably the beginner will give back the whole of what he hears. Besides, the variation serves no purpose and comes as a distraction to the beginner.

The consciousness of a learner *in the act of learning* is a delicate thing, and can tolerate little disturbance. Whatever assistance the teacher may offer must be given delicately and with deft precision.

After a little practice at listening to phrases and reproducing them, the class is ready to attack a complete sentence. As a preliminary, the teacher teaches them her own name in some such way as this: pointing successively to two or three members of the class and pronouncing their names at the same time, she then points to herself, and pronounces her own name, 'Miss —— .' Then she lays a pencil on the book and removes her hand. *After* removing it, she utters the complete sentence, 'Miss —— put a pencil on the book.' As she finishes the utterance, she indicates by a gesture to the first pupil that he shall reproduce it; then to the second, and so on around the class. If some member of the class, failing to make a satisfactory response, hesitates too long or gropes around for words, the teacher should repeat the sentence for him at once.

This is no place to discuss the psychology of the learning process, but for the teacher here to ask some question, or make some explanation, or do anything else than simply to renew and reinforce the learner's imperfect impression by a prompt repetition of the sentence is a waste of time and worse. As has been wisely observed long ago, "To every thing there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven: . . . a time to rend, and a time to sew; a time to keep silence, and a time to speak." (*Eccles.*)

After the class has learned a few complete affirmative sentences in this way, the interrogative sentence 'What did Miss —— do?' is taught. The teacher presenting the meaning of the affirmative sentence in the manner above described, follows the motions and signs by the words, 'Miss——put a pencil on the table. What did Miss——do?;' inviting by a gesture an answer from one of the pupils, the teacher continues: 'Miss —— put a pencil on the table.' The pupil addressed responds readily with the answer 'Miss —— put a pencil on the table.' The teacher then again utters the question 'What did Miss —— do?' (with a gesture directing the pupil addressed to ask the question to the next pupil). This elicits a repetition of the words spoken, and at the same time teaches him that he has asked a question.

The chief reason for teaching the interrogative sentence at this early stage is that it may be used in recitations as a means of passing affirmative sentences from one pupil to another.

After several affirmative sentences have been thoroughly taught, the teacher develops one of the sentences again, in the same manner as originally, for example, 'Miss —— put a book on the table,' and has all the members of the class reproduce it orally in turn. Then reinforcing once more the new impression, she again utters the sentence, 'Miss — —put a book on the table,' and by gesture indicates that all the pupils are to write it on the blackboard.

The teacher may not know whether all the pupils can write or not. She should waste no time, however, in trying to find out, but should assume that all can write. Many will in fact make a fair attempt from the start. After a few lessons, as experience shows, most of the others will be found to be writing in a satisfactory manner. It is a waste of time to show the pupils the written or printed form of the sen-

tence before having them attempt to write it. Whatever assistance may be called for can readily be given to the individuals who need it. As the pupils are writing at the board, the teacher passes along and without speaking makes corrections. For those who are not writing and who know the alphabet, but lack the courage to try the spelling, she writes 'on the book', uttering the phrase after it is written, and leaves them to copy it. For those who do not know the alphabet, she draws the conventional writing lines, and on them writes the loop letters, b,f,h,k, and l, leaving the pupils to copy these. After sufficient time has been given for all to write, the teacher (adhering to the practice of confining oral directions to the briefest) utters no more than the words, 'Erase, turn.'

The writing lesson for that sentence is now ended. Whatever shortcomings the writing may have disclosed will be dealt with at another time. In a few days most of the pupils, in one way and another, will make up their deficiences in writing themselves with only incidental assistance from the teacher. But for the present the lesson goes on to other exercises, and all attend.

The teacher utters the sentence again for the purpose of reinforcing the learners' mental impression, and giving her directions by gesture in the usual way, has each pupil in turn reproduce it orally.

In the case of classes that learn readily, it is sometimes admissible to develop and teach in the same way a few sentences in addition to those given in the book, using for the purpose the same and other objects, and thus extend the learners' experience. No additional sentence constructions, however, and no new relational words should be used at this time.

After the class has had sufficient practice at listening to sentences and reproducing them orally, the teacher reads the corresponding lesson in the book

aloud to the pupils, who follow the reading with their books open.

Next the pupils are left to study for awhile as they please. Afterward the teacher reads the lesson to them again. Later each pupil reads aloud as many sentences as time permits. If anyone should read too laboriously, he is not permitted to continue, but waits for more study and more oral and written drill.

Word by word reading must not be tolerated. The pupil's reading should approximate proceeding by sense-groups and sentences as natural speech does. In this way the pupils begin to acquire the natural swing and rhythm of the language, so important for many reasons.

Nor can concert work, as a short cut or sort of mass-instruction, be used with profit at this time, if at any time. The reasons are obvious. To mention faulty utterances only: one pupil fails to reproduce the sounds that have been presented to him, because he did not hear them correctly—perhaps he has not yet learned to distinguish the minute sound differences involved; another fails because, although he received the correct sound-impression, he has not succeeded in adjusting his speech organs rightly. But with whatever result the utterance is made, whether rightly or not, both the pupil himself and the teacher should hear it. If the pupil is successful, he has the sound of his own voice as an added factor in helping to fix the new utterance. And if he fails, both must hear distinctly, in order that together they may make the correction at once, when it is most needed and can be made with greatest effect. It is, besides, a saving of time to stop the formation of wrong speech-habits at the earliest moment. Concert work is a positive bar to these good effects as well as to others.

To state again in outline the teaching procedure suggested:

1. The teacher expresses appropriate meaning by the use of objects, motions, and signs.
2. She utters an equivalent English sentence, clearly, distinctly, and naturally.
3. Each pupil in turn reproduces the English utterance.
4. The teacher again utters the sentence.
5. All the pupils write the sentence on the blackboard.
6. The teacher makes corrections in writing.
7. After all have erased the sentence from the blackboard, the teacher utters the sentence again.
8. Each pupil reproduces the sentence orally.
9. After all the sentences have been so presented and taught, the pupils open their books for the first time, and listen while the teacher reads the sentences from the book.
10. The pupils in succession read the sentences from the book.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE SECOND AND THE FOLLOWING LESSONS IN PART ONE.

In order to enable the pupils to add the English equivalents of the ideas, 'long' and 'short,' to what they have already learned, the teacher takes a long pencil in one hand and a short pencil in the other, and after letting them see her compare the lengths of the two pencils by holding them together, holds up the long pencil and utters the phrase, 'a long pencil;' then holding up the short pencil, she utters the phrase, 'a short pencil.' She does not utter

merely the words 'long,' 'short' alone, and she spends no time in elucidating the meanings of these words as words, but without discussion or comment of any kind, she puts the long pencil into the long box and then utters the complete sentence, 'Miss —— put a long pencil into the long box.' Here, as generally, in uttering the sentence, she is careful to make the utterance correct as a whole. She makes no separation of words in the sentence, but runs them together in succession as syllables in a word, using intonation, pause, and stress to distinguish sense-groups and to express the natural emphasis required in the sentence.

The teacher then drills the class on the sentence in the manner set forth in detail and outlined in discussing the teaching of the first lesson. All the rest of the sentences in the second lesson are taught in the same way.

So, substantially, are taught all the lessons in the book.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE LESSONS IN PART TWO.

The method of procedure for teaching Part Two is in the main the same as that used in teaching Part One. Here, however, the use of objects, motions, and signs to convey meaning is gradually discontinued. In this part of the book verbs are an important part of the study. The distinctions of person and number require no comment here. The uses of tenses are taught, not formally, but by means of examples, and with them the use of time expressions. In accordance with the suggestions previously made about conveying meaning without the distraction of oral explanations by the teacher, the distinctions of time may be conveniently taught by using the calendar.

In this part of the book some of the lessons have printed with them lists of verbs, marked 'Reference matter for the learner.' Each of these lists the pupil

will attempt to use only after he has been taught the practice exercise that accompanies it; he can make no profitable use of it before.

At this stage of the learner's experience, letter writing is a useful exercise. Accordingly a specimen friendly letter is printed in the book. The learner will compose letters himself, using the specimen merely as a pattern.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE LESSONS IN PART THREE.

THE FIRST FABLE.

After the pupils have studied the fable for awhile in their books, the teacher, without discussion or comment, reads it to them, while they follow the reading with their books open. Next each pupil reads the entire fable aloud. The teacher makes no interruptions except to correct pronunciation.

The pupils will not yet have succeeded in understanding all of the meaning. What their deficiencies are the teacher will be able to judge pretty well from her knowledge of what they have already learned in the preceding lessons, from the questions they ask, and somehow from their general behavior during the oral reading.

In order to assist them further with the meaning, she sends all to the blackboard and dictates sentences to them. The first sentence or two, improvised at the time or previously thought out and containing some difficult word or construction found in the lesson, should have no connection in meaning with the text, and should be the simplest the teacher is able to invent. In this particular text the phrase, 'was carrying,' will probably be the first difficult thing. So the teacher may dictate some such sentence as this: 'John was carrying his book home to read it to his brother.' This sentence

and all others used for this purpose she teaches as thoroughly as any in the previous exercises, following the ordinary method of procedure, always ending with the oral reproduction. After giving one or two sentences unconnected in meaning with the fable, the teacher gives a sentence that is related in meaning and construction with the text. Sometimes she uses the very sentence in which the difficulty occurs.

After sufficient drill of this kind, the pupils are once more permitted to study the fable. A few minutes later the teacher reads it aloud to the class, who with their improved understanding of the text are now eager to listen. Since the utterances of the teacher are the learner's models of expression, beginners receive much benefit from hearing the teacher read continuous discourse with the meaning of which they are familiar. Each pupil is now required to tell the fable in his own way, the others being permitted to study in the meantime. The teacher does not interrupt the pupil while he is telling the fable. If his reproduction proves unsatisfactory, he is permitted to study more and try again at a later time. Such an opportunity, if needed, the pupil himself almost always requests. After the pupils have all told the fable, each writes it on paper. It may be here stated generally that all these exercises connected with the learning of continuous discourse are found to be intensely interesting to the pupils, and no lack of attention is ever encountered.

All of the other lessons in Part Three are taught in substantially the same manner.

PHONETICS.

Instruction in phonetics, of necessity, will be quite rudimentary; no formal lessons will probably be given. But the teacher should make every effort in her power to secure correct pronunciation from the start, and should herself have as much knowledge of phonetics as possible in the background. But it is believed that pronunciation is best taught by the teacher's making careful utterances, being careful at the same time to make them *natural* utterances, and by her insisting on the pupil's making substantially correct reproductions a sufficient number of times to establish them, accepting from the very start no slipshod results. In various places throughout the book, but particularly at the beginning, some of the words and phrases used have been put in specially on account of phonetic considerations. Examples of these in the first lesson are the words *bottle* and *pan, pen,* and *pin.*

When listening and observation fail to enable the learner to make the proper adjustments of his speech organs, the teacher must resort to some more detailed instruction. Sometimes a rough diagramatic sketch on the blackboard is enough to help the learner over the difficulty. For example, a few lines may be drawn to picture the mouth wide open in pronouncing the vowel of the word *pan;* the lines may diverge less to picture the mouth a little more closed as in pronouncing *pen;* still less, to illustrate the position for uttering the vowel in the word *pin.* The most important thing, however, is that both teacher and pupil persevere at some kind of practice exercise until the difficulty is removed.

Different racial groups have their own peculiar difficulties. Alliterative nonsense sentences may sometime be used in removing these. A few are printed below.

th

There are three trees in the garden.

You cannot sew that thin cloth with that thick thread.

Thirty-three thirsty thrushes thrust their heads through the bushes in the thicket.

My mother's other brother has a broader board.

h

Hannah has Hattie's hood in her hand.

Hurry home, Harry, Henry has his horse here for you.

w

What a white woolen waist Wilda wears!

Why will William and Walter wait at the window?

f v

He paid five dollars for his fife.

tle

Little Myrtle Riddle put a griddle in the middle of the table.

ter

Peter, the butter is better, but the water is bitter.

s s(z)

This is his business.

-ing -ink

I think he will bring that thing and fling it over the brink.

Voiceless consonants followed by -ed

They watched and walked and talked, and talked and walked and watched.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Interrogative sentences are an important form of discourse, and present special difficulties to the beginner, who finds his main difficulty in forming a question himself, not in understanding one that is asked by somebody else. The teacher should see that the pupils have daily drill in asking questions as well as in answering them. In exercises devised for this purpose, after a question has once been formed no deviation in the form of it should be permitted at that time; and the teacher will make sure that all answers are given in complete sentences. A reason for adhering to the form fixed upon is that deviations are bewildering to beginners to an extent hard for an experienced person to appreciate. Besides, one form of question is as much as beginners can profitably attempt to learn at one time.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DRILL IN THE USE OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

1. Teacher to John (indicating at the same time by gesture that John is to ask the question to Henry): What is your name?

John to Henry: What is your name?

Teacher to Henry (indicating by gesture that he is to answer John): My name is Henry Black.

Henry to John: My name is Henry Black.

By gesture the teacher directs each pupil to ask the question to the next pupil, until all have both asked and answered the question.

Other questions for practice of this kind:

Where do you live?
What is that? (pointing to an object)
Why do you come to school?
What is the name of this school?

2. After placing a box and a number of smaller articles on the table, and as she indicates by gesture that John is to ask the question to Henry, the teacher says: What shall I put into the box?

John to Henry: What shall I put into the box?

Teacher to Henry (as she indicates that he is to answer John): You may put a pen into the box.

Henry to John: You may put a pen into the box.

The teacher indicates that each in turn is to ask the same question to Henry until each pupil has put something into the box.

Other questions for use in the same way:

What shall I do?
Where shall I put my book?
When shall I come?
What shall I tell her?

3. Teacher to John (after giving him a book, and as she indicates by gesture that he is to ask the question to Henry): Did Miss —— give me a box?

John to Henry: Did Miss —— give me a box?

Teacher to Henry (as she indicates that he is to answer John): No, she did not give you a box, but she gave you a book.

Henry to John: No, she did not give you a box, but she gave you a book.

The teacher indicates by gesture that the question and answer are to be passed from one member of the class to another, until all have asked and answered it.

Other questions for use in this way:

Did Miss —— speak to him in the Greek language?

Ans: No, she did not....., but..... English language.

Do you sit at the end of the table?

Ans: No, I do not....., but.....side of the table.

4. Teacher to John: What time is it?
John: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to John: Ask Henry what time it is.
John to Henry: What time is it?
Henry: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to John: Tell Henry to ask Mary what time it is.
John to Henry: Ask Mary what time it is.
Henry to Mary: What time is it?
Mary: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to Henry: Tell Mary to ask Jane what time it is.

Have these questions passed to all the members of the class, in the same manner.

Other questions for use in this way:
Where did John buy his book?
Where did Bessie put the box of pencils?
Who came in just now?

These exercises have been found of great value. They easily keep the attention of all the class centered on the precise point of difficulty, afford variety enough to hold attention, and at the same time leave the teacher free to attend solely to the matter of making prompt verbal corrections in the language used by the pupils.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER EXERCISES AFTER THE BOOK HAS BEEN COMPLETED.

There should be much reading aloud of continuous discourse upon a variety of subjects, in order to widen the vocabulary.

The pupils should be required frequently to prepare papers and to give short talks on subjects previously assigned.

Conversational exercises may now for the first time, it is believed, be used to advantage.

Practice at writing sentences from dictation and making oral reproductions should be continued. The sentences used may be much longer and harder than heretofore, and several may be given together as a bit of continuous discourse.

Material for study may be given in the form of lists of words. But words must be given in their simplest forms, in order that the pupils may easily find the meanings in their Foreign-English dictionaries. The pupils should make both oral and written sentences, from derivatives as well as from the words given in the lists. Meanings of words should still be taught by using them in sentences, and not by means of verbal explanations.

Alphabet

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg Hh Ii
Jj Kk Ll Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq Rr
Ss Tt Uu Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz

Numerals

0	1	2	3	4
naught	one	two	three	four
5	6	7	8	9
five	six	seven	eight	nine

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff

Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll

Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq

Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv

Ww Xx Yy Zz

b f i h k l d p t

a d g q b o v w

hat hot hit hut

far for fir fur

PART ONE

LESSON I

On The Book, and Other Phrases

on the book	under the book
on the box	under the box
on the bottle	under the bottle
on the basket	under the basket
on the pan	under the pan
on the table	under the table

into the book	beside the book
into the box	beside the box
into the bottle	beside the bottle
into the basket	beside the basket
into the pan	beside the pan

1. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a book on the table.

2. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pencil into the box.

3. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a paper under the box.

4. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pan beside the box.

5. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pan, a pen, and a pin into the box.

How do you do?

6. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a book and a pan on the table beside the box, and a pencil and a pen on the table beside the basket.

LESSON II

Adjectives

big	long	black	red
little	short	white	green

1. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a long pencil into the long box.

2. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a short pencil into the short box.

3. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a little nail on the table beside the box.

4. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a little black book under the little white paper.

5. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a red pen, a green book, and a white box beside the basket.

Good morning.

---

1. Miss Miller put a long white box on the table and a short green pencil into the box.

2. William put a short red paper under the little blue book and a long white paper under the green book.

3. John put a short pencil beside the big basket, a long white pencil into the white box, and a short red pen into the book.

4. Mary put a big box on the table, a little box on the chair, and a little basket on the window-sill.

5. Jane put a little red book on the table beside the green book and a long box on the table under the green book.

LESSON III

A Piece Of

a piece of paper	a piece of cloth
a piece of string	a piece of rubber
a piece of wood	a piece of wire
a piece of glass	a piece of coal
a piece of leather	a piece of tin

1. What did Miss Contis do?
   Miss Contis put a piece of wood into the box.

Good afternoon.

2. What did Mr. Vanos do?
Mr. Vanos took a piece of paper from the basket on the chair.

3. What did Mr. Sotos do?
Mr. Sotos took a piece of glass and a piece of string from the window-sill.

4. What did Mrs. Mito do?
Mrs. Mito put a piece of cloth into the box and a piece of rubber into the basket.

---

1. I put a piece of coal on the piece of paper and a piece of wire on the piece of cloth.

2. She put a piece of glass on the chair beside the table and a piece of tin on the chair beside the window.

3. Mary put a piece of cloth under the book, a piece of leather into the book, and a piece of string on the book.

4. John put a piece of rubber and a piece of wire on the chair, and a piece of cloth and a piece of leather on the window-sill.

5. Jane put a piece of coal and a piece of wire into the long box on the table, and a piece of paper and a piece of glass into the little white box on the chair.

Good evening.

LESSON IV

Personal Pronouns

I put	We put
You put	You put
He put	They put
She put	
Mr. Smith put	

1. Put a little bottle and a green pencil beside the little red book.
   What did you do? (I put .....)

2. I put a little white paper under the box.
   What did I do? (You put .....)

3. Mr. Vanos, put a short pencil, a long box, and a little basket under the table.
   What did he do? (He put .....)

4. Miss Contis, put a red pencil and a short pen into the green book.
   What did she do? (She put .....)

5. Mr. Vanos and Miss Contis, put books on the table.
   What did you do? (We put .....)

6. Miss Contis and I put pans, pens, and pins on the table.
   What did we do? (We put .....)

Good-by.

7. Mr. Vanos and Miss Contis put books on the table.
What did they do? (They put .....)

---

1. I put pins into the pan, and you put pens into the box.

2. You put a pen on the table, and they put books on the table beside the pens.

3. He put a little red paper under the book, and she put a big white paper on the book.

4. They put little white boxes on the table, and we put little pencils into the little white boxes.

5. I put a little red book on the table. You put a little green book on the little red book, and she put a little box on the little green book.

LESSON V

A Piece of Cotton Cloth

a piece of cotton cloth
a piece of woolen cloth
a piece of silk cloth
a piece of linen cloth

a long piece of cotton cloth
a long piece of blue cotton cloth

Excuse me. Certainly.

1. Take a piece of cotton cloth from the basket on the table.
   What did you do? (I took .....)

2. Give a piece of silk cloth and a piece of woolen cloth to James.
   What did you do? (I gave .....)

3. Take a piece of linen cloth and a piece of cotton cloth from the basket on the chair.
   What did you do?

4. Put a long piece of white cotton cloth and a short piece of blue woolen cloth into the long white box.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a short piece of red silk cloth into the box on the chair, and a piece of green linen cloth into the little basket.

2. Put a piece of blue woolen cloth, a piece of red woolen cloth, and a piece of black woolen cloth into the big basket.

3. They took little pieces of blue cotton cloth from the box and little pieces of red cotton cloth from the basket.

4. She put long pieces of silk cloth into the box beside the basket and short pieces of red cotton cloth into the box beside the book.

Thank you. You are welcome.

5. John took long pieces of white cotton cloth and short pieces of red cotton cloth from the basket on the table.

LESSON VI

Tin Box, Wooden Box, Paper Box

1. Put a long piece of cotton cloth into the tin box on the chair.
   What did you do?

2. Take a short piece of blue woolen cloth from the big wooden box on the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put a little piece of green linen cloth into the long paper box, and put the paper box on the table.
   What did you do?

4. Put a piece of tin into the tin box, a piece of wood into the wooden box, and a piece of paper into the paper box.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a tin box, a paper box, and a wooden box on the chair beside the table.

2. Put a long piece of string into the tin box, a short piece of wire into the wooden box, and a little piece of glass into the paper box.

I am glad to see you, John. How are you?

3. Put the tin box on the table, the wooden box on the chair beside the table, and the paper box on the floor beside the chair.

4. Take a short piece of blue string from the little tin box, a piece of red cotton cloth from the long paper box, and a piece of leather from the big wooden box.

5. Put the tin box on the table, the wooden box on the chair, and the paper box on the floor; then put a pan into the tin box, a pen into the wooden box, and a pin into the paper box.

LESSON VII

On the End of the Table

on the end of the table
on the side of the table
on the corner of the table
in the center of the table

1. Put the tin box on the end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put the basket and the wooden box on the side of the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put the bottle and the paper box on the corner of the table.
   What did you do?

I am well, thank you. How are you?

4. Put the pan and the pen in the center of the table.
   What did you do?

5. Take the book from the end of the table and the pen from the side of the table.
   What did you do?

6. Take the piece of tin from the end of the table and the piece of wire from the side of the table.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a little piece of glass into the tin box on the end of the table and a piece of coal into the basket in the center of the table.

2. Put a book under the wooden box on the side of the table and a paper box under the the book in the center of the table.

3. Put a pan into the wooden box on the end of the table, a pen into the paper box on the side of the table, and a pin into the tin box in the center of the table.

4. Put a box on the end of the table beside the little red book and a basket on the side of the table beside the big green book.

5. He took a piece of leather from the basket on the side of the table, and she took a piece of glass from the tin box on the corner of the table.

What time is it? It is ten o'clock.

6. Put a long piece of blue cotton string into the paper box on the corner of the table, and a piece of glass into the tin box in the center of the table.

LESSON VIII

PUT IT PUT THEM

1. Take a pen from the end of the table and put it into the tin box.
   What did you do?
2. Take three pens and two pins from the paper box and put them into the tin box.
   What did you do?
3. Take a piece of blue linen cloth from the wooden box and put it into the little basket on the chair.
   What did you do?
4. Take a piece of coal and a piece of glass from the table and put them into the box on the window-sill.
   What did you do?

---

1. Take five buttons and three nails from the table and put them into the box on the side of the table.
2. Take a long piece of red cotton string from the long box in the window and put it around the big green book.

It is a quarter to four.

3. Take three little pieces of green linen cloth from the box on the chair and put them into the basket on the end of the table.

4. Take a piece of wire and a piece of tin from the little box on the corner of the table, and put them into the big box on the end of the table.

5. Take the books from the end of the table, the pens from the side of the table, and the papers from the center of the table, and put them on the chair.

LESSON IX

EACH INCH EDGE ALL WHOLE

1. Put a match on each end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put two matches on each side of the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put three matches on each corner of the table.
   What did you do?

4. Put a match on each corner of the table and four matches on each side of the table.
   What did you do?

It is half past eleven.

5. Take six matches from the tin box, and put two on each end of the table and one on each corner of the table.
   What did you do?

6. Put a match on each side of the table one inch from the edge.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put two broken matches on each end of the table and three whole matches on each side of the table.

2. Take all of the broken matches from the tin box on the chair and put them on the side of the table.

3. Put a whole match on each side of the table two inches from the edge, and a broken match on the table beside each whole match.

4. Give a broken match and a whole match to each pupil at the side of the table, and three whole matches to each pupil at the end of the table.

5. Take all of the whole matches from the wooden box and put them on the side of the table; then take all of the broken matches from the tin box and put them on the end of the table.

It is five minutes after six.

LESSON X

THIS, THAT THESE, THOSE

1. Take a piece of cotton cloth from this end of the table and put it on that end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Take these pens and those pencils and put them into that box.
   What did you do?

3. Take this book and that book and put them on that chair.
   What did you do?

4. Take those matches and these nails and put them into the tin box on this corner of the table.
   What did you do?

5. Give these books to that man and those books to this man.
   What did you do?

---

1. Take these boxes and these books from this chair and those boxes and those books from that chair, and put them on the desk.

2. He took this little pencil and these black pens from this box and put them into that box on the corner of the table.

I have no pencil.

3. These books on this table are little red books, and those books on that table are big green books.

4. He took three nails and five buttons from this box, and she took four pens and seven pencils from that box.

5. Mary, give those books to him and these books to her, and put this book and that book into the cupboard.

LESSON XI

Possessive Pronouns

I have my book	We have our books
You have your book	You have your books
He has his book	They have their books
She has her book	

1. Put my book on the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put your pen on the book.
   What did you do?

3. Put her box on my book.
   What did you do?

4. Take his pen from the table.
   What did you do?

May I have a pencil, please?

5. Put our pens on our papers.
What did you do?

6. Put their papers on the table.
What did you do?

---

1. I put my long piece of cotton cloth into your little white box; then I put your piece of woolen cloth into my basket.

2. We put our books on the chair beside the table, and they put their books on the chair beside the window.

3. You took their pens from my box and put them into his big wooden box; then you put the box on the end of the table.

4. We took our little brown pencils from the pencil-box, and we put them into the chalk-box.

5. Take all of our pens from the box and give one to him and one to her; then put two pens into each box on the side of the table.

6. Take our books, our pencils, and our papers and put them into the cupboard; then give each pupil a piece of chalk and an eraser.

Lend me your pen, please.

LESSON XII

Personal Pronouns Following the Preposition To

to me	to us
to you	to you
to her	to them
to him	

1. Take your pens from the table and give them to me.
   What did you do?

2. Give these long green pencils to her and these little brown pencils to him.
   What did you do?

3. Take those little pieces of leather from the wooden box and give them to us.
   What did you do?

4. Take these pens from the table and give them to them.
   What did you do?

---

1. They gave three pieces of black woolen cloth to her and two pieces of red cotton cloth to me.

2. Take a little piece of tin from the box on this end of the table and give it to him.

I do not understand you.

3. Take my long piece of green linen cloth from him and give it to me; and then give my short piece of blue silk cloth to her.

4. Give the wooden box to me, the tin box to him, and those two paper boxes to those two men at the end of the table.

5. Take the matches from the box and give the whole matches to him, the broken matches to her, and the box to me.

6. He took the long pencils from the table and gave them to us; then she took the pieces of chalk from the box and gave them to him.

LESSON XIII

Not	But
I have	I did not
I have not	

1. Take three books from the table.
Have you two books?
No, I have not two books, but I have three books.

2. Put that red book on the chair.
Did you put a green book on the chair?
No, I did not put a green book on the chair, but I put a red book on the chair.

Pronounce this word, please.

3. Give him those pencils.
Did you give him those boxes?
No, I did not give him those boxes, but I gave him those pencils.

4. Take a nail, a screw, and a pen from the box.
Did you take a pan from the box?

5. Put this chair beside the door.
Did you put the chair beside the table?

---

1. I did not take a piece of coal from the basket, but I took a piece of wood from the basket.

2. He did not take a pencil from the box, but he took a pen from the box.

3. They did not put their papers on the table, but they put their books on the table.

4. I have not a long piece of cloth. I did not take a long piece of cloth from the box, but I took a short piece of cloth from the box.

5. You did not put fifty pens on the table, but you put fifteen pens on the table.

6. I did not take a piece of glass from this end of the table, but I took a piece of wire from the box on that end of the table.

What is the meaning of this word?

LESSON XIV

There Is

Is there ..... ? Are there ..... ?
There is a ..... There are .....
There is not a ..... There are not any .....

1. Put one match on the table.
   Is there a match on the table?
   There is a match on the table.

2. Put a book on the table.
   Is there a pen on the table?
   No, there is not a pen on the table, but there is a book on the table.

3. Put three matches on the table.
   Are there three matches on the table?
   There are three matches on the table.

4. Put four pens on the table.
   Are there four pencils on the table?
   There are not any pencils on the table, but there are four pens on the table.

---

1. There is not a pen in that box on the table, but there are three pens in this box on this chair.

2. There are not any boxes on those chairs, but there are two books on each chair.

Spell this word for me.

3. There is not one piece of woolen cloth in that box, and there are not any in those boxes on the window-sill.

4. There are not any pencils in the box on the table, but there is a pencil in each box on the bench.

5. There is a little green book on my table, but there are not any books on your table.

6. There are boxes of chalk and boxes of pencils on that table, but there are not any boxes on this table.

LESSON XV

HERE THERE

1. Come here, John, and put that green book here on this table.
   What did you do? (I came .....)

2. Go there to that window and put the pen into the box.
   What did you do? (I went .....)

3. Put these tin boxes here and those paper boxes there.
   What did you do?

I do not know this word.

4. Put a little piece of cotton cloth here into this box, and a piece of paper there into that box.
   What did you do?

---

1. There are three pens and a pencil here in this box, and there are five pencils and an eraser there in that box.
2. They put their little brown pencils here, and their long red pens there.
3. John put his book here, and Jane put her book there; but they put their erasers and chalk there on that bench beside the black-board.
4. Their little wooden boxes are not here, but there are two tin boxes there on that window-sill.
5. There are not any chairs here at this table, but there are five chairs there at that table.
6. John is here, and Mary is here. Henry and Paul are not here, but all will be here at nine o'clock.

LESSON XVI

Interrogatives

Interrogative Adjectives: Who, Which, What.

Who is . . . . . ? Which is . . . . . ?

Who are . . . . ? Which are . . . . ?

What is . . . . . ?

May I read now?

1. Who is that man at the window?
   That man is Mr. Smith.

2. Who are those men at the door?
   Those men are Mr. Jones and his son.

3. Which is James?
   The man at the end of the table is James.

4. Which are your books?
   Those books on the chair are my books.

5. What is on the table?
   There is a paper on the table.

Interrogative Adverbs: Where, When, Why, How.

Where is .....?	Where are .....?
It is	They are .....

---

1. Where is my hat?
   It is on the book.

2. Where are your papers?
   They are on the table.

3. When do you come to school?
   I come to school at nine o'clock.

4. Why do you come to school?
   I come to school to learn the English language.

Wait a minute, please.

5. How much did you pay for your book?
   I paid one dollar for it.

6. How many pupils are in this room?
   There are fifteen pupils in this room.

NOTE.—Drill frequently on the use of interrogatives. See to it that each pupil asks questions as well as answers them.

LESSON XVII

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS USED WITHOUT NOUNS

MINE YOURS HERS HIS OURS THEIRS

1. That is my book.
   That book is mine.

2. That is your book.
   That book is yours.

3. That is his book.
   That book is his.

4. That is her book.
   That book is hers.

5. Those are our books.
   Those books are ours.

6. Those are your books.
   Those books are yours.

What is the price of this?

7. Those are their books.
Those books are theirs.

---

1. Your pen is on the desk. Where is mine?
Yours is in the paper box.

2. My hat is on the table. Where is hers?
Hers is on the chair.

3. Her chair is at the end of the table. Where is his?
His is at the side of the table.

4. His papers are here . Where are ours?
Ours are in the basket.

5. Our papers are here. Where are theirs?
Theirs are in the cupboard.

---

1. There are three pens on the table. Yours is here, his is here, and mine is here.

2. They put ours into the box and theirs into the cupboard; but where is his?

3. They put all on the chair, yours, his, hers, and theirs.

4. I gave mine to her, and she gave hers to me.

5. How many of these pins are yours, and how many are mine? Put mine into my box and yours into your box.

How much did it cost?

LESSON XVIII

Interrogatives

1. What is your name?
2. What is the name of this school?
3. What is the name of this street?
4. What is the name of this book?
5. What is the name of this thing?

---

1. What shall I put into the box?
2. What shall I write?
3. What shall I tell her?
4. What shall I give him?
5. What shall I do?

---

1. Where shall I sit?
2. Where shall I write?
3. Where shall I put the box?
4. Where are your papers?
5. Where is his hat?

It is a beautiful day.

PART TWO

LESSON I

Verbs: Present Tense, Imperative and Interrogative Forms

Note.—In teaching tense forms use the calendar to indicate the time.

write	study	walk
read	listen	sit
speak	eat	stand
come	go	look

Conjugation of the verb write: Present Tense (to-day).

Singular Number	Plural Number
I write	We write
You write	You write
He writes	They write
She writes	
John writes	

1. To-day I sit and write.

2. He sits beside the table and writes.

3. They sit beside the table and write.

4. I sit and read and write, and she sits and reads and writes.

5. I take a piece of cloth, and she takes a piece of paper.

6. She walks to the blackboard and writes.

7. John goes to the window and looks at the people.

8. We speak English, and he speaks Italian.

NEGATIVE FORMS

I do not write	We do not write
You do not write	You do not write
He does not write	They do not write

1. She writes, but I do not write.

2. She sits, but he does not sit.

3. We take pencils, but they do not take pencils.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

1. Come here, Mary, and read your lesson.

2. Go to the blackboard and write.

3. Take these pens and put them into the box.

4. Listen to me, please.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

1. Do you like coffee?
   No. I do not like coffee, but I like tea.

2. Does she write?
   No. She does not write, but she reads.

3. Does John go to school every day?
   Yes. He goes every day.

4. Do John and James work in a store?
   No. They do not work in a store, but John works in a restaurant, and James works in a factory.

5. Does John speak the Italian language?
No. He does not speak the Italian language, but he speaks the Greek language.

6. Does Mary sit at the side of the table?
No. She does not sit at the side of the table, but she sits at the end of the table.

LESSON II

Future Tense, Expressions of Futurity, Infinitives

(Reference matter for the learner.)

Verbs in Present Tense (now)	Verbs in Future Tense (to-morrow)
I come	I shall come
I go	I shall go
I read	I shall read
I write	I shall write
I take	I shall take
I learn	I shall learn
I buy	I shall buy
I put	I shall put
I sit	I shall sit

Conjugation Of The Verb Go, Future Tense

I shall go	We shall go
You will go	You will go
He will go	They will go

Negative

I shall not go	We shall not go
You will not go	You will not go
He will not go	They will not go

Future Expressions

to-morrow	next month
day after to-morrow	month after next
next week	next year
week after next	year after next

Infinitives

to write	to give
to eat	to speak
to read	to learn
to work	to put

Practice Exercises

1. To-morrow I shall come here to learn the English language.

2. Day after to-morrow I shall not come to school, because it is Saturday.

3. I shall go to the theater next week.

4. Week after next my sister will come to school to study the language.

5. About the middle of next week we shall go to the country to see our friends.

6. Month after next John will go to New York to buy some cloth for his store.

7. Next year my brother will come to the United States to live with me.

8. Year after next my brother will have a store on Fifth Avenue.

9. I shall go to a store next month to buy a book to read about the American people.

10. We shall come to school next week to learn to read, to write, and to speak the English language.

11. They will come to school because they want to learn the English language; and they want to learn the English language because they want to earn money.

1. Shall I get my book and read to you now?

2. Will Mr. Wilson go to work day after to-morrow?

3. Where will they go when the bell rings?

LESSON III

Names of the Days of the Week, and Times of Day

Sunday	Tuesday	Thursday	Saturday
Monday	Wednesday	Friday	

morning	forenoon	evening	midnight
noon	afternoon	night	

1. On Sunday I shall take my friends to church.

2. My brother will come to visit me on Monday, and we shall go to the theater on Tuesday night.

3. Wednesday at nine o'clock I shall go to the railroad station to meet my uncle and aunt.

4. On next Thursday my brother will go to Boston to see father, mother, and sister.

5. Two weeks from next Friday Mr. Carson will speak to the men of this class.

6. At eight o'clock on next Monday evening we shall see that good play at the theater.

7. On Saturday afternoon I shall not work, but I shall go out on the street to take a walk.

8. Next Wednesday I shall take my sister to a store to buy her a new hat and a new coat to wear to school.

9. On next Saturday at midnight my friend will start for Chicago.

10. On next Thursday afternoon I shall not work, because I am off work that day.

11. When I come to school to-morrow morning, I shall sit at this table to write my lesson.

12. When I go to Boston to see my cousin next month, I shall take him a new English book.

13. When I receive my pay next week, I shall buy myself a new suit and a new hat.

LESSON IV

Past Tense

Reference matter for the learner.

Present Tense (now)	Past Tense (yesterday)
come	came
go	went
read	read

write	wrote
speak	spoke
learn	learned
put	put
buy	bought
eat	ate
drink	drank
sleep	slept
give	gave
take	took
work	worked
see	saw
do	did
have	had
is	was
are	were
make	made
want	wanted
talk	talked
get	got
send	sent
sell	sold
show	showed
look	looked
listen	listened
walk	walked
wait	waited
watch	watched
stop	stopped
receive	received
answer	answered
keep	kept
say	said
order	ordered
return	returned
think	thought
carry	carried
wash	washed
build	built
stay	stayed
like	liked

Practice Exercises

yesterday	last month
day before yesterday	month before last
three days ago	three months ago

last week	last year
week before last	year before last
three weeks ago	three years ago

1. Yesterday I sat at this table and wrote my lesson, and to-day I sit here again.

2. Day before yesterday I learned many new words, and I want to learn more to-day.

3. I met John on the street three days ago, and I talked with him for an hour.

4. Week before last I went to the theater and saw a good play, and next week I shall go again.

5. Jane bought some cloth last week, and next week she will make a dress for her little sister.

6. Three weeks ago I sold my house, and week after next I shall buy another one.

7. Month before last we carried our plants into the other room, and next week we shall carry them into this room again.

8. Three months ago I received a letter from a friend in Europe, and next week I shall answer it.

9. Last year I read many books, and next year I shall read many more.

10. Year before last I wrote in my native language, but now I write in English.

11. Last night I went home at six o'clock. I made a fire. I sat down to read; and when my brother came in, we talked an hour and a half about American history.

12. Three years ago two of my fellow countrymen came to New York, and they stayed there for one year; then they went to Chicago. They are there now, and each has a comfortable home.

13. Year before last I thought that I did not want to learn the English language; but last year I did not work because I could not speak the language of my new country.

LESSON V

Names of the Months

January	July
February	August
March	September
April	October
May	November
June	December

1. I came to the United States on the first of last March.

2. John was born on April 10, 1910, and his sister was born on June 6, 1914.

3. In July and August the weather will be hot, and in October and November the weather will be cool.

4. In May the farmer will plant his corn, and in October he will gather it in.

5. The Fourth of July is a holiday in this country. We celebrate the day of our independence.

6. My friends will come to visit me in the middle of June, and I shall take them to the country for a picnic in the woods.

7. Last July when I had my vacation, I went to the country, where I helped my brother work on the farm.

8. On the last Tuesday of June Frank and Harry came from Europe, and they both live here now.

9. Last February, when the weather was very cold, I bought one ton of coal, for which I paid six dollars.

10. The schools in the large cities of the United States are open for ten months of the year; so the children have only two months of vacation.

11. Mr. Panos came to the United States on the fifth of last January, and he lived here one month; then he moved to Boston, where he will live for two or three years.

LESSON VI

Common Questions about Persons

1. What is your name?
   My name is Ross Martino.

2. Where do you live?
   I live at number 1145 Fifth Avenue.

3. From what country did you come?
   I came from Italy.

4. When did you come to the United States?
   I came to the United States on June 14, 1921.

5. Which language do you speak?
   I speak the Italian language.

6. Is your father in this country?
   Yes. My father is here.

7. Is your mother in this country?
   No. My mother is in Italy.

8. How many sisters have you?
   I have no sisters.

9. How many brothers have you?
   I have two here and one in Italy.

10. How old are you?
    I am eighteen years old.

LESSON VII

A Friendly Letter

1463 Penn Avenue,
Pittsburgh, Pa.
April 6, 1921.

My dear Sister,

I shall write you a short letter in English. I can not write much, because I do not know many words. I go to school every day, and next month I shall know more words, and then I shall write you a long letter.

We want you to come to Pittsburgh to visit us about the first of June. Come and stay two or three weeks with us. We can have a good time, because now I can go all over the city alone.

Write to me and tell me when you will arrive in Pittsburgh, and I shall meet you at the station.

It is time for me to go to school, so I must close.

Your sister,
Mary Rupert.

Envelope.

Mary Rupert,
1463 Penn Ave.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Miss Jane Rupert,
4625 Fifth Avenue,
New York,
New York.

LESSON VIII

Before After

1. Before you sit down, open your book.

2. After you sit down, open your book.

3. Before I came to the United States, I could not read or speak the English language.

4. I came here before half past nine o'clock, and I stayed until after half past three.

5. After I go home I shall eat my supper, and soon after supper I shall read my lesson to my brother.

6. Soon after I came to this country, I came to school; and soon after I came to school, I could understand a little English.

7. I shall read this book; and after I read it, I shall give it to you to read.

8. I worked all day to-day, and I am tired. But after I rest a short time, I shall go out for a walk.

9. I cannot become a citizen of the United States until I have been here five years. I have been here four years, and next year I can become a citizen.

10. After I have lived in this country several years, I shall have a business of my own; then I shall own my home.

11. Before I began to study this language, I did not like it; but after I came to school for a month, I liked the language very much.

12. After you finish your work to-morrow, I want you to bring your family to our house; then we shall sing some of our native songs.

LESSON IX

NEAR	FAR
near	far
a short distance	a long distance

1. The book is near to the box; but the pen is far from the box.

2. I walk to school this year because I live near; but last year I rode to school because I lived far away.

3. John walks a short distance to his work, but Henry has a long distance to go.

4. It is a long distance from here to John's house. I cannot walk there; but I shall ride in a street car.

A SHORT TIME	A LONG TIME

1. Europe is a long distance from the United States, and it took me a long time to come from there to this country.

2. I sat in my room a long time last night and read my new book; then I went out for a short time to walk.

3. It takes a long time to walk that long distance; but it takes a short time to travel it by automobile.

4. When I came to this country, I traveled a short distance on land by railroad; then I traveled a long distance on water by steamship.

5. A short time ago I read about the first English people who crossed the Atlantic Ocean. They came in sailboats, and not in steamships as you and I came.

6. Before I came to this country, I thought that I could learn to speak the language in a short time; but now I think that it will take me a long time to learn to speak it well.

7. I live a short distance from the school; therefore it takes me only a short time to come. But John lives a long distance from the school, and it takes him a long time to come.

LESSON X

Partitive Expressions

all of them	none of them
many of them	some of them
part of them	both of them
most of them	a few of them
one of them	half of them

1. There are many buttons on the table. Put all of them into the tin box.

2. Put some of them on the side of the table and a few of them on each end of the table.

3. Put half of them into the basket and give one of them to me.

4. There are two pencils on the table. Put both of them into your pocket.

5. There are many little buttons in the box. Most of them are white. Part of them are black; but one of them is red.

6. Take all of the little pencils from that box and put half of them on the chair and half of them on the window-sill.

7. I do not know all of these words. Many of them are new to me; but in a short time I shall know all of them.

8. Some of the pupils of this class can read well, and some of them cannot read much; but in a short time all of them will read well.

9. All of the pupils of this class came from foreign countries. Some of them came from Italy, a few of them came from Russia, and one of them came from China; but none of them came from Turkey.

LESSON XI

Present Participles in Progressive Forms

Reference matter for the learner.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Participle
go	went	going
come	came	coming

write	wrote	writing
read	read	reading
speak	spoke	speaking
talk	talked	talking
erase	erased	erasing
sit	sat	sitting
eat	ate	eating
tell	told	telling
see	saw	seeing
bring	brought	bringing
buy	bought	buying
break	broke	breaking
cut	cut	cutting
do	did	doing
drink	drank	drinking
think	thought	thinking
stand	stood	standing
sleep	slept	sleeping

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—Point out that present participles are formed by adding *-ing* to the present forms.

PRACTICE EXERCISES

I am going	We are going
You are going	You are going
He is going	They are going

1. I am going to New York to meet my brother next week. He will arrive in America on next Thursday.

2. You are standing talking to us, and we are sitting listening to you.

3. They are sitting at the table eating bread and butter, and drinking tea.

4. They are going to bring their violins; then they are going to play and sing for us.

5. I am buying a new house, and I am paying for it by the month. I am paying twenty dollars a month.

6. I am making a new dress, and I am making it of beautiful blue woolen cloth.

7. They are learning the English language. They are reading, writing, and speaking in English.

Are you using this book?
Is he coming to-morrow?
Are they buying a new house?
Is he talking English?

LESSON XII

Interrogatives

The Interrogatives: Who, Which, What

who

1. Who is the woman at the door?

2. Who took my pencil from the box and put it into the cupboard?

3. Who gave you that beautiful green box?

4. Who took those three matches from the box and put them on the edge of the table?

WHICH

1. Which papers did he put on the window?

2. Which of those two books did you give to John?

3. At which table did you sit?

4. Which boy took the tin boxes from the cupboard and put them here?

WHAT

1. What is the name of that man at the door?

2. What is in the big wooden box on the floor?

3. From what box did he take these pens and pencils?

4. What did that woman put on the corner of the table?

Interrogative Adverbs: Where, When, Why, How

WHERE

1. Where are those pieces of leather, John?

2. Where did you put my hat and his book?

3. Where are Mr. and Mrs. Miller and their children?

4. Where are the papers for those men in the corner of the room?

WHEN

1. When do they go to work?

2. When did he put his knife here?

3. When did she give those beautiful boxes to you?

4. When did you pay for your book?

WHY

1. Why do Mary and John come to school?

2. Why do those men sit at the table?

3. Why do they put their books into the cupboard?

4. Why do those girls take those pens from the basket?

HOW

1. How much paper do you want?

2. How many pencils do you want?

3. How much did you pay for those pens?

4. How many pencils did you give them?

NOTE.—Drill frequently on questions and their answers.

LESSON XIII

PRACTICE EXERCISES

1. Two new pupils came to our school yesterday, a boy and a girl. The boy's name is Joseph, and the girl's name is Sarah.

2. Joseph and Sarah were both born in France. They are coming to school to learn the English language.

3. Joseph is sixteen years old, and Sarah is thirteen. They will come to school every day from nine o'clock until half past three.

4. After they go home, they will tell their mother about the school. They like to come, and we like to have them here.

5. On Saturday they will not come here; but they will go to visit their cousins.

6. In a few years they will be ready to go to high school, and in a few years after that they will go to college.

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1. There are many pupils in this school; but there are many people on the street who are not pupils in any school.

2. Two months ago I came to this country, and two weeks ago I came to this school. Now I am learning to speak the English language.

3. Three years ago my brother came to this school, and now at the age of fifteen he is in high school. He wants to go to college in order to become a lawyer.

4. My friends, John and James, were born in a foreign country, and they are both non-English speaking people. After they learn to speak English well, they will go to work in a factory.

5. My father came to this country five years ago, and my mother and I came two years ago. I come to school every day; but my mother does not go to school. I speak well, and she does not.

LESSON XIV

The Different-Difference Perplexity

Same, Differ, Different, Difference

1. The books that are on the table are the same as those on the chair.

2. She has two books that are the same in length, the same in width, and the same in color.

3. He has two books that are different. They differ in length, they differ in width, they differ in thickness, and they differ in color.

4. There is no difference in the pronunciation of those two words; but there is a great difference in the spelling of them.

5. Those two men came from the same country; they came at different times. One of them can speak four different languages.

6. I did not arrive in New York on the same day as my father arrived, because we set sail on different days; he sailed in March, and I sailed in April.

Are those books the same?
Is there any difference between those two books?
Are those papers alike?
Do those bottles differ in size?

LESSON XV

Common Measures

Foot Rule, Yardstick, Pint, Quart, Gallon

1. Take the foot rule and measure the table and tell me its length.

2. Take the foot rule and measure Mr. Panos and tell me his height.

3. Measure the thickness of the table and tell me its thickness in inches.

4. With the yardstick measure this piece of string and give me its length in yards.

5. With the pint measure, measure this bottle and tell me how many pints it holds.

6. Yesterday I bought a gallon of milk, and my bill was forty-eight cents; therefore I paid twelve cents for one quart.

7. I shall buy a new rug for my room. Measure the length and the width of the room, and tell me how large a rug to buy.

8. I want a vessel having the capacity of six quarts. I have a two-quart pan, and I need a larger one.

9. James is going to the tailor to be measured for a suit. It takes three or four yards of material to make a man's suit.

10. Mary will buy a piece of linen cloth to make a cover for her table. Measure her table and tell me how many yards to buy.

What are the dimensions of this room?
What is the capacity of that box?
What quantity of milk do you want?
What are the measurements of this table?

LESSON XVI

Past Participles

Reference matter for the learner.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
go	went	gone	going
come	came	come	coming
write	wrote	written	writing
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking
talk	talked	talked	talking
erase	erased	erased	erasing
sit	sat	sat	sitting
eat	ate	eaten	eating
tell	told	told	telling
see	saw	seen	seeing
bring	brought	brought	bringing
buy	bought	bought	buying
break	broke	broken	breaking
cut	cut	cut	cutting
do	did	done	doing
drink	drank	drunk	drinking
sleep	slept	slept	sleeping
am	was	been	being
send	sent	sent	sending
sell	sold	sold	selling

Practice Exercises

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

I have written	We have written
You have written	You have written
He has written	They have written

1. The teacher has written the lesson on the blackboard, and the pupils have written it on their papers.

2. The teacher has come to teach you, and you have come to learn.

3. We have read our lessons, we have written our lessons, and we have talked about our lessons.

4. She has written to her mother, and she has told her that John has just arrived from Europe.

5. I have been at the store, and I have bought a few apples for dinner.

6. I have eaten my breakfast, and I have walked for an hour, and now I shall read for a while.

7. I have written my lesson on the blackboard. I have erased it, and I have spoken what I wrote.

8. They have lived on this street for a long time, and now they have bought a new house on another street.

9. I have not been in Chicago, but my father and mother have both been there.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had written	We had written
You had written	You had written
He had written	They had written

1. I had read my lesson, and I had written it before you came.

2. I had gone before she told the story.

3. I had never seen John's cousin until I went to John's house last night.

4. I had never read this story before; but I had read another story about George Washington.

LESSON XVII

Distinction between Sit and Set

1. Set the box on the table and sit down.

2. Sit down and set the box on the table.

3. Set all of those bottles on that bench and sit there beside them.

4. Set Mary on that little chair and let her sit there to study her lesson.

5. Sit down, please, and set your box on the floor.

6. Set that boy down, and tell him to sit there for a half hour.

7. Tell Mary to set a chair at the table; and then tell Mr. Green to sit on it and eat dinner with us.

8. Harry set that box there an hour ago, and it has sat there ever since. Please set it in the cupboard before you sit down.

9. Both John and Mary have been sitting on that bench a long time. I want them to sit there every day to study their lessons.

10. On last Saturday I went to the railroad station to meet my uncle and aunt. They were both there, sitting on the bench waiting for me.

11. I like to sit on the seashore at sunset and watch the boats go out to sea.

12. I sat here yesterday, and I have been sitting here again to-day watching the children play in the water.

13. Where are those children? A few minutes ago they were here, sitting on the floor setting blocks in a row on the edge of the rug.

14. Set that bottle of ink here on the table; and I shall sit and write some of the new words in my book.

Did you sit on that chair yesterday?

Did you set this chair beside the table?

LESSON XVIII

The use of If

1. If I had a paper and a pencil, I should write my lesson.

2. If you want to speak well, you must study hard.

3. If you can spare the time, come to my house to-morrow and spend the day with us. We have much to talk about.

4. If I had a pen and some ink, I should spend some time writing a story about George Washington, the first president of the United States.

5. He said that if he could get off from his work, he should go to Cleveland to visit his oldest brother.

6. If I were your brother, I should not go to work yet, but I should go to school awhile first.

7. If you want a hat of the same style and of either the same or a different color, I can get it for you.

8. If they are going the same day as we are, we may travel together. I should enjoy talking with them as we travel along.

9. If I were he, I should go to them and ask them for more money; and if they would not give more money, then I should look for work in another place.

10. If I had been in this country five years ago, I

should now have a business of my own. If I make as much money next year as I made last year, I shall soon have my own restaurant.

LESSON XIX

The Use of Whether

1. He feels the table to learn whether it is rough or smooth.

2. She feels the cloth to learn whether it is hard or soft.

3. She feels the water to find out whether it is cold or warm.

4. I do not know whether or not that man can speak the Greek language.

5. We cannot tell whether the weather will be warm or cold to-morrow.

6. He has lost his money. I do not know whether it is because he is a bad manager, or whether it is the fault of his partner.

7. When he comes in, he will tell us whether or not he is going to accept the new position that was offered him last week.

8. Let me know by the first of the month whether or not you will accept my offer for that house. This is all that I am able to pay.

9. I did not know whether you were going this week, or whether you were not going until sometime next week.

10. I am not sure whether or not I shall be able to hold my present job. It is very hard for me because I do not understand the orders that are given to me.

LESSON XX

THE VERB USE THE NOUN USE

1. We use pens and pencils to write our lessons.

2. We use pencil-paper and pencils when we write our lessons; but when we write letters, we use letter-paper, pens, and ink.

3. John and Mary use both gas and electricity in their house; gas for heating and electricity for lighting.

4. The tailor uses the heavy woolen cloth to make the winter overcoat, and he uses the light woolen cloth to make the light spring overcoat.

5. Our grandfathers did not use automobiles to travel long distances as we do; but they used horses.

6. Steamships were not used in the time of Columbus; but sailboats were used, and it took a long time to travel by water in those days.

7. On the first of the week I bought myself a new pencil. I have used it for almost a week, and I can use it for another week.

8. When I first came to this country, I used the dictionary every day. But now I do not need to use it so much, because I am more familiar with the words.

---

1. I do not know the use of this word. I find it difficult to use all of these words correctly.

2. What use can be made of this room? It has not been in use for a long time.

3. If they want to finish their work in an hour, they must make good use of their time.

Did you use my pen?
How do you use this word?
What is the use of this thing?
Of what use is this to you?

LESSON XXI

LEAF, LEAVES, LIVE, LIVED, DIE, DIED, DEAD, DEATH

1. Here are two dead leaves and two living leaves.

2. Lack of water will cause the death of leaves.

3. In the fall the leaves of most of our trees die, and the dead leaves fall to the ground.

4. In the spring time the living leaves come, and the trees are made beautiful again.

5. Tea is the dried leaves of the tea plant. Millions

of people all over the world drink tea. This tea is made by pouring boiling water over the dried tea leaves.

LEAVE, LEFT LIVE, LIVED

1. He lived here one year; but he will leave for Europe next month.

2. He left this room an hour ago, and I see that he has left a package here. Before he leaves to-morrow, we shall give it to him.

3. Mr. Mitchell has lived here for a long time; but he will leave to-morrow for another city.

4. After I have lived here for a month or two, I shall leave and go to another part of the state.

5. I had lived there ten years, when a man came along one day and bought my house. We left the place the next week.

6. If I put fifty dollars into the bank this month, it leaves me sixty dollars to use for expenses. I think that I can live on that amount for a short time.

7. Some one told me that when Abraham Lincoln was a boy, he slept on a bag of leaves for a bed. And this boy lived to become president of the United States.

LESSON XXII

As

1. As I came to school to-day, I saw Charles standing on the street corner talking with David.

2. As I was riding along in the street car, I read an interesting article in the newspaper.

3. As I sat in the railroad station waiting for my train, I saw Mr. and Mrs. Long go to their train for New York.

4. As I was crossing the Atlantic Ocean to come to America, I heard a few people talking in the English language.

5. As my sister and I passed through the store, we saw many people buying summer clothing.

6. As I entered the car, I saw Carrie. She said that her sister was coming from Europe, and that she would arrive the first of next week.

7. They were coming up the street as I went down. I turned around and went with them to their home.

8. She gave me this book as I came in. It is a good book, and when I have finished it, I shall let you read it.

9. As I stood at the window and watched the people pass by, I thought of another city that I have visited.

LESSON XXIII

As.....As So.....As

1. My book is as large as yours, and it is just as interesting as yours.

2. His pen is the same as mine; they are both fountain pens. One writes as well as the other.

3. I like this work just as well as I liked the work that I did last year.

4. John does his work as well as Jane, and better than Henry.

5. This coat fits as well as, if not better than the one I had last year.

6. This table is just as long and just as wide as the other table.

7. The boy is just as tall and just as heavy as the girl; but neither of them is very tall or very heavy.

---

1. This coffee is not so good as the coffee that we had last week, and this cost three or four cents a pound more.

2. The quality of this leather is not so good as the quality of the leather that I bought last week; but the price is more reasonable.

3. To-morrow I shall not come so early as I came to-day, because there is not so much work to do.

4. I do not live so far away as you do, and it does not take me so long to come.

5. Now she talks as well as he; but she does not write so well. However, after she has been here in school a little longer, she will write well, as well as any one in the class.

LESSON XXIV

Correlatives

both .....and	though .....yet
not only .....but also	although .....still
either .....or	since .....therefore
neither .....nor	if .....then

1. I told both Mary and John to go to the table.

2. I want not only Mary and John but also James and Paul to go to the door.

3. I want either Mary or John to go to the blackboard.

4. I want neither James nor Paul to go.

5. Though there was much trouble in Europe, yet I managed to get away and come to America.

6. Since I paid twenty cents for two pens, therefore the cost of one pen is ten cents.

7. If I go to see him to-day, then I shall not go to-morrow.

8. Both James and Paul have had not only four years in high school but also two years at the Musical Institute.

9. They offered me this position; and they will give me not only a good salary but also a fine office. I must either accept or decline the offer within two weeks.

10. If all the members could be persuaded to come to the meeting, they might not only pay their dues but also pay some money into the treasury.

11. Although I have been studying this subject for a long time, still I do not have a clear understanding of it yet. I must either find some books to read or find some one who will explain it to me.

LESSON XXV

Fill, Full, Feel

1. Fill the little bottle full of water and the big bottle half full.

2. Feel the bottle to learn whether the water is cold or warm.

3. I need a full box of chalk, and that box is only half full.

4. He took seven matches from that full box on the end of the table.

5. This book is full of beautiful pictures; that other book is full of interesting reading.

6. To know English well fills us with confidence to do our work. It will not only make us happy, but it will also make us able to earn more money.

7. There is no one here to fill his position, and I do not feel that I have time to do his work and mine too.

8. Columbus filled his ships with enough food to last for many days; then he set out on his journey. He did not feel afraid, because he was full of hope.

9. Day by day they sat on the decks of the vessels and watched the sun rise and set. By and by some one saw land a long distance off, then all were full of joy.

10. At last they reached land, and filled with delight, they landed and set up a flag in honor of Spain. In a short time they started for home, feeling that they had made a great discovery.

LESSON XXVI

Let

1. Let me have your pencil, please; mine is broken.

2. Let me see that book; it looks like mine.

3. Let him have your knife to sharpen his pencil; he lost his on the way to school to-day.

4. After we have eaten our supper let us go to the theater; Henry says that there is a good play this week.

5. Let us tell the children a story about the Indians, the red people who lived in America before the Europeans came.

6. Please let me help you with that work; you have too much to do to-day, and I have time to help you. Let us work together.

7. Let us get up early to-morrow and go to a store and buy our heavy winter clothing. The weather is getting cold, and we need warm clothes.

8. We must have some fresh air in this room. Let us open the windows and let the air come in.

9. Let all those who sit at the tables have spelling books, and let all of the others have readers.

LESSON XXVII

KNOW KNOWLEDGE

1. I do not know what you have in your hand.

2. I have no knowledge of what you have in your hand.

3. He has no knowledge of what you put into the box.

4. James does not know the names of those people. He says that he never saw them, and that he does not know what they want here.

5. When I have a good knowledge of the English language, then I want to get some knowledge of a useful trade.

6. It is difficult to make a machine like that one in the mill. It requires a knowledge of machinery that only few people have.

7. Mr. Williams wanted me to come over and make a fence around his lot; but I have no knowledge of

fence making, and I told him to get Mr. Doyle to do it.

8. I do not know the exact meaning of this word. I shall spend a short time studying it; then if I have no more knowledge than I now have, I shall ask some one to help me.

9. When I first came to this country, I did not know many people with whom I could talk; but now I have a better knowledge of the language, and I have many friends.

10. That strange man did not know the way to the railroad station. He asked me to direct him; but he did not have enough knowledge of English to understand me.

LESSON XXVIII

LIE LAY

lie, lay, lain, lying

1. Tell him to lie down and take a sleep to-day.

2. We lay down yesterday and slept two hours.

3. That book has lain there for three or four days.

4. It was lying there when I went out day before yesterday.

5. A little child is lying on the couch sleeping. She lay there yesterday also.

lay, laid, laid, laying

1. Now you see me lay the book on the table.
2. I laid the book there last week.
3. He has laid all of the books on the table.
4. Look at the little girl laying stones on the walk.

---

1. I laid that paper there. Let it lie there until I come home.
2. I have laid five letters on the table, and now I lay another there.
3. When I lay down last night, I laid my watch on the dresser.
4. At ten o'clock I laid the paper down, and then I lay down to sleep.
5. I laid that book there a long time ago, and it has lain there ever since.
6. Lay the child down, and let him lie there to sleep.
7. He lay there all day yesterday; but now he is up, and he is laying those cards on the window-sill.

LESSON XXIX

Positive and Comparative Forms of Adjectives

tall	short	good	heavy	long
taller	shorter	better	heavier	longer

1. There are two men at the end of the table. John is the taller of the two.

2. Let the taller one sit at the end of the table, and the shorter one sit at the side of the table.

3. Those two books are both good, but the little one is the better of the two.

4. They put two stones on the table.
The one on this corner is the heavier.

5. Give him the longer of those two pencils, and put the shorter one on the window-sill.

6. Let her have the better piece of cloth because she wants to make a good dress.

7. Those two coats are both good, but I like the shorter one better than the longer one.

8. James is the taller of those two men, but Henry is the heavier.

9. The older of those two men is the better prepared to do his work. If you can, take the older one to do your work.

10. The softer piece of cloth is the better, and it will make a better coat.

---

1. There are two pencils on the table. Give me the longer one.

2. John is the taller of those two men at the table.

3. Mary is the heavier of those two girls.

4. Take the longer piece of string and give the shorter piece to me.

5. James is the taller of those two boys, but Henry is the heavier.

LESSON XXX

The use of Superlatives

tall	short	good	heavy	long
taller	shorter	better	heavier	longer
tallest	shortest	best	heaviest	longest

1. Of all the men in this room, Harry is the tallest, and William is the shortest.

2. There are three books on the table , but this one is the best.

3. This box is the heaviest and longest that I have.

4. Here is a full box of pens. The longest pen is the best. You may take it, and I shall take the shortest.

5 You may have the longest and heaviest piece of wire, and I shall take the shortest and lightest piece.

6. Guy has grown much taller and heavier than he was. Now he is the tallest and heaviest one of the family.

7. I knew him best of all the family, and I like him better than I like his brother.

8. We want to know the shortest and best way to go, because we want to go in a shorter time than we went before.

9. He is known as the best workman in the shop. He is even more skillful than some of those who have been there longer than he has. He is also the quickest workman there, and he can do his work in the shortest time.

LESSON XXXI

MORE MOST

1. These flowers are more beautiful than those that I had last week.

2. Those are the most beautiful flowers that I have seen in this part of the country.

3. John told the most interesting story that I have heard for a long time. Let him tell it to you some day.

4. In her work Mary is more thorough than Jane, but Jane is quicker than Mary.

5. She did her work more carefully to-day than she did it last week. She will soon learn to be a most careful worker.

6. Harry is more economical than Thomas, but William is the most economical of the family.

7. John Smith thought that if he should take a more northern route than Columbus took, he could find a passage to the Indies.

8. That is the most horrible accident that has happened on the railroad for a long time. It is even more horrible than the one that occurred at the crossing last year.

9. At the dinner the other night they spoke about that man who came in just now. He has been most successful in his business, and he is one of the most able men in the organization.

LESSON XXXII

Whom

To whom, for whom, with whom,
from whom, about whom, by whom

1. To whom shall I go for work?
   I do not know to whom to go for work.

2. For whom do you work?
   That is the man for whom I work.

3. With whom did you come to school?
   There is the man with whom I came.

4. From whom did he buy his house?
   He did not tell me from whom he bought his house.

5. About whom were they talking?
   I do not know about whom they were talking.

6. By whom was that book written?
   I shall see by whom it was written.

7. I do not know for whom he works, but I do know with whom he lives.

8. He does not know to whom to apply for work, and he does not know from whom to get advice about it.

9. They asked by whom that fine house was built, and to whom it now belongs; and if it is for rent, from whom it can be rented .

LESSON XXXIII

Contractions and Negative Sentences

haven't: have not	aren't: are not
isn't: is not	weren't: were not
don't: do not	hadn't: had not
didn't: did not	

NO NONE ANY

1. There is no book there.
   There is not any book there.
   There isn't any book there.
   There is none there.

NOTHING ANYTHING

2. There is nothing in the box.
   There is not anything in the box.
   There isn't anything in the box.

NOBODY ANYBODY

3. There is nobody in that room.
There is not anybody in that room.
There isn't anybody in that room.

1. I have no pens.
I have not any pens.
I haven't any pens.

2. I have nothing in my hand.
I have not anything in my hand.
I haven't anything in my hand.

3. They said nothing about it.
They did not say anything about it.
They didn't say anything about it.

4. I can do nothing for you.
I cannot do anything for you.
I can't do anything for you.

5. I told him nothing.
I did not tell him anything.
I didn't tell him anything.

NOTE.—Teach contractions, but discourage their use for a time. Especially, discourage the use of "can't." Observation shows that until beginners have learned to stress the final consonant, their utterances of *can't* (with a weakened *t*) are apt to be mistaken for *can*. Urge them to use *cannot* in business.

LESSON XXXIV

WHEN, WHERE, WHILE, DURING

1. When I came in, you were sitting at the table writing a letter.

2. Where you are going, the garden is full of the most beautiful flowers.

3. While you were writing, I was reading an interesting story about the early settlers of America.

4. During the night he does the most important work that is to be done in the factory.

5. When I heard that Mr. Panos was coming to this country, I wrote him a letter asking him to come here.

6. While I was standing on the corner talking to one of my friends, James came along and asked us to go to the theater with him.

7. During Columbus's voyage the sailors became discouraged and wanted to go back to Europe.

8. I have read that when Captain Smith and his band of men were in Virginia, they almost starved to death.

9. The French people once occupied the place where Pittsburgh now stands, and the Dutch people once occupied the place where New York now stands.

10. Sometimes the Indians made their most brutal attacks upon the colonists while they were worshipping in church.

11. When they come we shall go into the meeting and stay while they sing the beautiful songs.

12. During the week that my cousin visits me, sometime when we are all at home, come and spend the day with us.

LESSON XXXV

Adjectives and Adverbs

ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
extravagant	extravagantly
careful	carefully
successful	successfully
abundant	abundantly
kind	kindly
thoughtful	thoughtfully
thankful	thankfully
grateful	gratefully
economical	economically
quick	quickly
slow	slowly
prompt	promptly
immediate	immediately
cheerful	cheerfully
hasty	hastily

1. He is a slow and careful worker.
   He works slowly and carefully.

2. Jim is a successful writer.
   Jim writes successfully.

3. They have an abundant supply.
   They are abundantly supplied.

4. Is this spelling correct?
   Do I spell correctly?

5. Did you make an exact copy?
   Did you copy this exactly?

6. The growth of the corn was rapid.
   The corn grew rapidly.

7. They were earnest students.
   They study earnestly.

8. John laughed a merry laugh.
   John laughed merrily.

LESSON XXXVI

WHAT THAT

1. This is what you want.
   This is the box that you want.

2. I gave him what he wanted.
   I gave him the paper that he wanted.

3. We shall see what they are doing.
   We shall see the work that they do.

4. I have told them what John said.
   I have told them everything that John said.

5. They know what you want.
   They know the box that you want.

6. They make what you see on the table.
   They made the dresses that you saw on the table.

7. I do not understand what you say. The words that you use are too difficult for me.

8. We knew all the people that were there, but we did not know what they were talking about.

9. This is the best pencil in the box. It is the one that I want to use to-day.

10. He has told me everything that I needed to know, and he seemed to know just what was necessary to finish the work.

11. We want you to learn all that you can here, and we want you to learn what you learn well.

LESSON XXXVII

Impersonal Use of It, It as an Expletive

IMPERSONAL

1. It is blowing and raining very hard.

2. It is half past five o'clock, and it is time to go home.

3. It was thawing when I came in.

4. It behooves me to go to work, if I finish before six o'clock.

5. It is very dark these nights.

6. It is moderating a little now.

7. It has been freezing all day.

8. It is too soon to go to the train.

EXPLETIVE

1. It is an easy word to understand.

2. It was a pleasure to see those pictures.

3. It will be impossible to forget that lesson.

4. It is a good thing to have that knowledge.

5. It proved very difficult to find out the truth.

6. It was a disappointment to me not to see you there.

7. It is easier to see the faults of others than to recognize our own faults.

LESSON XXXVIII

Active and Passive Voice

1. Active voice: I give this book to you.
   Passive voice: This book is given to you by me.
   Active voice: I gave this book to you.
   Passive voice: This book was given to you by me.

2. Active voice: He tells a story to me.
   Passive voice: A story is told to me by him.
   Active voice: He told a story to me.
   Passive voice: A story was told to me by him.

3. Active voice: She puts the box on the table.
   Passive voice: The box is put on the table by her.
   Active voice: She put the box on the table.
   Passive voice: The box was put on the table by her.

4. Active voice: They lay their books on the table.
   Passive voice: Their books are being laid on the table by them.
   Active voice: They laid their books on the table.
   Passive voice: Their books were laid on the table by them.

Note that the passive voice is formed by using the verb *be* as an auxiliary and the past participle of the verb as the principal verb.

LESSON XXXIX

Idiomatic Use and Omission of To

1. Give the book to me.
   Give me the book.

2. Give those nails to them.
   Give them those nails.

3. Tell the story to them.
   Tell them the story.

4. Bring the pens to us.
   Bring us the pens.

5. Gather some flowers for me.
Gather me some flowers.

After may, can, must, might, could, would, and and should, *to* is not used.

1. I may come to-morrow.
I can write my name.
He must learn his lesson.
He might tell you.
I could do it for you.
She would not go.
I should give her one.

2. I may go to-day, but I shall not go to-morrow.
He can get it to-day, but he cannot get it to-morrow.
I must do my work now because I cannot do it next week.
He might come this afternoon, but he will not come this forenoon.
I could show you my house, but I cannot show you her house.
I should enjoy reading a good book if I could get one.
If you would permit me, I should give you one.

LESSON XL

Relative Pronouns

Who, Which, That, As, What

Nominative	who	which
Possessive	whose	whose
Objective	whom	which

WHO

1. I do not know the man who came in just now.

2. It was I who told you to go.

3. It is I who am using your pencil.

4. Give paper to those who need it.

5. That is the tree whose branches were broken.

6. The men whom you paid will come to-morrow.

7. I live with the friend whom you met yesterday.

8. John Smith. who is my friend, lives here.

WHICH

1. Get the same book which you read yesterday.

2. This hat, which I bought at Kaufmann's, is a good hat.

3. The horse which stands at the corner belongs to a policeman.

4. That is the box which contains the chalk.

THAT

1. The boat that Columbus sailed in was small.

2. All that you tell me is true.

3. There was no one there that I knew.

4. Let me use the same book that I used yesterday.

AS

1. Did you ever hear such fine music as that?

2. Your book is the same as mine.

WHAT

1. What I tell you is true.

2. He always does what he is told to do.

3. I have studied what was assigned to me.

4. I have learned much from what you have given us.

LESSON XLI

Verbal Nouns in *-ing*

1. Walking is good exercise.

2. We enjoyed her singing.

3. Talking to him is useless.

4. Speaking about it is unnecessary.

5. This is a pleasant evening for rowing on the lake.

6. Seeing is believing.

7. She understands cooking.

8. He is afraid of falling.

VERBAL NOUNS IN *-ing* USED AS ADJECTIVES.

1. This sleeping car is new.

2. The folding chair is useful.

3. A lying man is not to be trusted.

4. Spending-money is scarce.

5. Grumbling people are not pleasant.

6. Washing machines save labor.

7. A crying child ran down the street.

8. A smiling child looked at me.

LESSON XLII

Past Participles Used as Adjectives
Infinitives Used as Nouns

PAST PARTICIPLES USED AS ADJECTIVES

1. There is a broken pen on the table.

2. There is a written record of that event.

3. You have his spoken word for it.

4. A closed box is on the table.

5. A burnt match was on the floor.

6. The encouraged sailors went on.

7. Those frightened children went home.

8. An educated person likes to read.

9. That knitted jacket is warm.

INFINITIVES USED AS NOUNS

1. To secure a seat was impossible.

2. To sing well requires practice.

3. His delight is to travel.

4. My wish is to see you immediately.

5. To decide was to act.

6. He has but one aim in life, to succeed.

7. I give you this choice,—to buy, to rent, or to build.

8. It is easy to understand you.

9. It will be impossible to forget.

LESSON XLIII

Words, Phrases, and Clauses Used as Modifiers

wise (word modifier)
of wisdom (phrase modifier)
who is wise (clause modifier)

1. A wise man A man of wisdom A man who is wise	was wanted.

A wise man was wanted.
A man of wisdom was wanted.
A man who is wise was wanted.

2. An angry person A person in anger A person who is angry	speaks hastily.

An angry person speaks hastily.
A person in anger speaks hastily.
A person who is angry speaks hastily.

3. I received	an interesting letter. a letter of interest. a letter that is interesting.

I received an interesting letter.
I received a letter of interest.
I rceived a letter that was interestng.

LESSON XLIV

Cognate Objects

A cognate object repeats the verb idea in noun form.

1. I shall drink a cool drink of water.

2. He sang a song.

3. She lived a life of usefulness.

4. The child dreamed a frightful dream.

5. He promised a solemn promise.

6. James laughed a merry laugh.

7. She sleeps a sound sleep.

8. I shall light the light at seven.

9. I breathed a long breath of fresh air.

10. He called a loud call.

11. She gave a beautiful gift.

12. He shot a straight shot.

13. They fight a hard fight.

14. I cut a deep cut in my hand.

15. He died a noble death.

16. It rained a heavy rain.

17. It snowed a light snow last night.

18. He ordered a big order of goods.

19. I shall drive a long drive into the country.

LESSON XLV

Phrases Having the Office of Prepositions

1. according to
   I did this work according to directions.

2. because of
   They did not come because of the rain.

3. in place of
   Use this paper in place of that.

4. from under
   Take that book from under the box.

5. in addition to
   I want a pen in addition to a pencil.

6. in case of
   In case of fire we can use the fire-escapes.

7. with regard to
   He is telling me something with regard to the management of the club.

8. in spite of
   I got it in spite of his objections.

9. by way of
   I shall go by way of the lake.

10. in front of
    It stands in front of the house.

11. for the sake of
    I shall do it for the sake of my father.

12. round about
    They went in such a round about way.

13. in opposition to
    He did all that he could in opposition to their idea.

LESSON XLVI

Derivatives

Produce, Producer, Product, Productive
Unproductive, Production

1. This land does not produce well.

2. This man is a producer of cotton.

3. Cotton is the leading product of this region.

4. This land is very productive.

5. This land is unproductive.

6. There was a large production of cotton last year.

Fortune, Fortunate, Unfortunate, Fortunately,
Unfortunately, Misfortune

1. He received a fortune in money.

2. He was a fortunate man to receive the money.

3. He was unfortunate not to receive the money.

4. Fortunately, he received the money.

5. Unfortunately, he did not receive the money.

6. It was a misfortune for him to lose the money.

Save, Safe, Unsafe, Safety, Safely

1. The fireman will save the lives of the people.

2. The people are all safe now.

3. That bridge is unsafe.

4. They are in places of safety.

5. They were all taken safely across the river.

USE, UNUSED, MISUSED, USEFUL, USELESS,
USE (noun), USEFULNESS

1. I never use this machine.

2. I put the unused pencils into the box.

3. He has misused the machine, and it is broken.

4. This machine is useful.

5. That machine is useless to us.

6. Of what use are those machines?

7. I know of the usefulness of this machine.

ABLE, UNABLE, DISABLE, ENABLE, ABILITY, DISABILITY

1. I am not able to write well yet.

2. I am unable to do it.

3. That accident will disable him for work.

4. That will enable you to do it.

5. He has not the ability to do it.

6. He was paid money because of disability to do his work.

Change, Changeable, Unchanged
Exchange, Interchange

1. I want to change my coat before I go.

2. This weather is changeable.

3. The price remains unchanged.

4. I shall exchange these shoes for larger ones.

5. They will interchange the pieces of that machine.

LESSON XLVII

Some Idiomatic Expressions

The learner will acquire the precise meanings (exact shades of meaning) from use; he will find in the parentheses indications of the meanings, more or less accurate, that will serve for the time being.

1. after awhile (in a short time)
   I shall go after awhile.

2. all at once (suddenly)
   All at once the rain began to fall.

3. before long (soon)
   He will come before long.

4. break up (stop)
   They will break up the meeting.

5. bring about (to cause to be)
   They brought about an agreement.

6. blind to (ignorant of)
   I am not blind to their actions.

7. close at hand (near)
   I keep my dictionary close at hand.

8. come about (happen)
   How did it come about?

9. come by (obtain or get)
   How did he come by all that money?

10. come on (advance)
    The work is coming on well.

11. do without (dispense with)
    I shall do without my lunch to-day.

12. find out (learn)
    I cannot find out who did it.

13. get away (escape)
    The thief tried to get away.

14. get up (arise)
    I shall get up at six o'clock.

15. get through (finsh)
    I must get through with my work soon.

16. get to (arrive)
    They will get to the city to-morrow.

17. get behind (become tardy)
    He is getting behind with his lessons.

18. go against (oppose)
    I shall not go against his wishes.

19. going on (happening)
What is going on in the street?

20. good deal (much)
He has a good deal of money.

21. hardly enough (insufficient)
He has hardly enough money to pay for it.

22. hold back (delay)
The rain will hold back the work.

23. more or less (approximately)
There are ten, more or less.

24. out and out (entire)
It was an out and out failure.

25. on foot (walking)
They came on foot.

26. on foot (in existence)
There is a movement on foot to stop that nuisance.

27. once in a while (occasionally)
I go there once in a while.

28. put by (save)
He has put by some money.

29. put off (postpone)
The meeting is put off until to-morrow.

30. put out (expel)
He was put out of the club.

31. put out (extinguish)
The fire was quickly put out.

32. put through (complete)
They put through much work to-day.

33. put up (offer for sale)
It was put up at a low price.

34. put up (preserve)
I put up some fruit to-day.

35. put up with (endure)
I cannot put up with that noise.

36. pour in (come in great numbers)
The people came pouring in at five o'clock.

37. run after (pursue)
The policeman ran after the thief.

38. run away (flee)
The child ran away from home.

39. run across (encounter)
Where did you run across that book?

40. run out (come to an end)
The supplies have run out.

41. run on (continue)
Do not let the debt run on.

42. run up (increase)
The price has run up.

43. see about (attend to)
Let us see about that business.

44. set forth (start)
They set forth on their journey in October.

45. shook his head (a negative answer)
When I asked her, she shook her head.

46. used to be (was)
I used to be a pupil there.

47. upside down (inverted)
That picture is upside down.

48. wait on (serve)
The salesman will wait on you.

49. well to do (thrifty)
They are well to do people.

50. write out (write in complete form)
Write out your name in full.

LESSON XLVIII

Characteristic Verbs

The wind blows.
The wind howls.
The wind falls.
The clouds fly.
The clouds scatter.
The rain falls.
The rain pours.
The rain beats down.
The thunder roars.
The sun rises.
The sun shines.
The sun sets.
The moon shines.
The stars twinkle.
The street car runs.

The birds fly.
The birds chirp.
The bird sings.
The dog barks.
The dog howls.
The cat mews.
The cat purrs.
The cow lows.
The horse neighs.
The clock ticks.
The clock strikes.
The clock runs.
The flag waves.
The flag flies.
The hinge creaks.

The telephone line runs across the lot.
The railroad runs in front of the house.
The river runs down the mountain side.

LESSON XLIX

A Business Letter

504 Grant St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.,
June 20, 1921.

Messrs. Solomon and Swartz,
316 Smithfield St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Dear Sirs:—In the Pittsburgh Sun of June 19 I read your advertisement inquiring for a Greek man to act as salesman and interpreter at your store. I am twenty-four years old, and I can read, write, and speak both Greek and English. I should like to talk with you about the position. Please let me know when I may come to see you.

Yours very truly,
Emanuel Demos.

Envelope

Emanuel Demos,
504 Grant St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Messrs. Solomon and Swartz,
316 Smithfield St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

PART THREE

LESSON I

The Dog and His Shadow.

A dog had a piece of meat in his mouth, and he was carrying it home to eat it in peace. On his way he had to cross a plank lying across a brook. As he crossed, he looked down and saw his shadow in the water beneath. He thought it was another dog with another piece of meat, and he made up his mind to have that also. So he snapped at the shadow in the water; but as he opened his mouth, the piece of meat dropped into the water and was never seen again.

Beware lest you lose the substance by grasping at the shadow.

LESSON II

The Crow and the Pitcher

A crow found a pitcher with some water in it, but there was so little that she could not reach it with her beak. In a short time she found a plan. She dropped pebbles into the water one by one, and with each pebble the water rose higher and higher until at last the water reached the brim, and the crow was able to quench her thirst.

Necessity is the mother of invention.

LESSON III

A Father and His Sons

A man had several sons that were always quarreling with one another. The father tried, but he could

not get them to live together in peace and harmony. So he determined to convince them of their folly by bidding them to bring a bundle of sticks. He invited each in turn to break the bundle of sticks across his knee. All tried and failed, and then he untied the bundle and handed them the sticks one by one. They had no difficulty at all in breaking them. "There, my boys," said he, "united you will be more than a match for your enemies; but if you quarrel and separate, your weakness will cause you to fail."

In union there is strength.

LESSON IV

Hercules and the Wagoner

A wagoner was once driving a heavy load along a muddy road. At last he came to a part of the road where the wheels sank half way into the mud, and the more the horses pulled the deeper the wheels sank. The wagoner threw down the whip and knelt down to pray to Hercules. "O Hercules, help me in this hour of trouble," said he. But Hercules appeared to him and said, "Tut tut, man, do not sprawl there. Get up and put your shoulder to the wheel. The Gods will help them that help themselves."

The Gods help them that help themselves.

LESSON V

The Fox and the Crow

A fox saw a crow fly off with a piece of cheese in its beak and settle on the branch of a tree. "That

is for me," said Master Fox, and he walked up to the foot of the tree. "Good day, Mistress Crow," said he, "how well you look to-day; how glossy your feathers and how bright your eye! I am sure that your voice must surpass that of all other birds. Let me hear but one song from you that I may greet you as Queen of Birds." The crow lifted up her head and began to caw her best; but the moment she opened her mouth, the piece of cheese fell to the ground and was snapped up by Master Fox. "That will do," said he, "that is all that I wanted."

Do not trust flatterers.

LESSON VI

The North Wind and the Sun

A dispute arose between the North Wind and the Sun, each claiming that he was stronger than the other. At last they agreed to try their powers upon a traveler to see which could soonest make him take off his coat. The North Wind made the first trial, and gathering up all his forces for the attack, he came whirling furiously down upon the man. He caught up the man's coat as though he would tear it from him by one single effort. The harder the Wind blew the more closely the man drew his coat around him.

Then came the turn of the Sun. At first he beamed gently upon the traveler, who soon unbuttoned his coat and walked on with it hanging loosely about his shoulders. The Sun then shone forth in his full strength; and the man, before he had gone many steps, was glad to take off his coat and finish his journey more lightly dressed.

Persuasion is better than force.

LESSON VII

The Man, The Boy, and The Donkey

A man and his son and their donkey were once going to market. As they passed along the road, they met a countryman who said, "You fools, why do you not ride? Of what use is the donkey but to ride?" The man put the boy on the donkey and they traveled on; and in a short time they met a group of men. One of them said, "Look at that lazy boy. He rides and lets his tired father walk." Then the father told the boy to walk and let him ride, and again they went on their way. But next they met a group of women, and one of them said, "What a lazy man, to ride and let that little boy walk." The father did not know what to do; so he put the boy before him on the donkey and they both rode on. By and by they came to a town where the people began to jeer at them. The father asked them why they jeered. The man said, "Why do you overload the little donkey in that way?"

The man and the boy both got off and tried to think of another plan. At last they cut down a pole. They tied the donkey's feet togther and hung him on the pole; then they raised the pole to their shoulders and went on, carrying the donkey. All who met them laughed, but they continued on their way until they came to a bridge, when the donkey kicked out and caused the boy to drop his end of the pole. Then the donkey fell over the bridge into the water and was drowned. "That will teach you a lesson," said an old man who had followed them. "Try to please all and you please no one."

LESSON VIII

Buying a Suit

Salesman: Have you been waited on?

Customer: No, I have not; but I should like to look at suits of clothes.

Salesman: Come this way, please. About what price?

Customer: Show me a suit for about forty-five dollars.

Salesman: Do you want a dark suit or a light one?

Customer: I want a brown suit.

Salesman: Brown is stylish this season. Here is a nice suit. Try it on to get the size.

Customer: The color is too light. Show me a better suit in darker brown.

Salesman: Here is a dark brown one. It is the best for the money that we have in the store.

Customer: I like that one. Let me try it on.

Salesman: It looks well. How does it feel?

Customer: The coat is a little tight, and the sleeves are too short. Let me try a size larger.

Salesman: All right, I have one a size larger. Try this.

Customer: I like this one; it is very comfortable. What is the price of it?

Salesman: It is fifty-seven fifty, reduced from sixty-five. It is made of fine quality of cloth, and it will give you good service.

Customer: I will take it. Can you send it out to-day?

Salesman: If you live in the city, I can send it out this afternoon. What is your name and the address, please?

Customer: John Miller, 4235 Penn Avenue.

Salesman: Cash or credit?

Customer: Cash.

Salesman: I shall send it out to-day. Good-by, come again.

Customer: Good-by.

LESSON IX

A Call on James Sotos

Last evening I went over to the other side of the city to call on my old friend, James Sotos. He was surprised to see me, because he did not know that I had arrived here from Europe. We talked and talked for a long time. He and I came from the same town, and we had been school-mates in our childhood; we therefore had many things in common.

He came here five years before I came, and if I had met him on the street, I should not have known him. He used to be tall and slender; but now he is so much heavier and so much jollier than he was when I knew him before. He told me of many amusing experiences that he had had shortly after he first came and before he had learned English.

On the second day after his arrival he went out to look around the city, and as he became interested, he walked on and on, turning up this street and down that. At last he became tired, and decided that he would go home; but when he had gone a few blocks, he found that he did not recognize any of the streets. There he was, lost in a big city. He could not pronounce distinctly either the name of his street or the number of his house; so he was unable to inquire the way. Finally he met a man who he thought looked like a fellow countryman. He addressed him; and sure enough, the man was not only a fellow countryman, but he was also a friend of James's brother.

James appreciated being taken home, and that night he decided that he would go to school to learn English. So here he is to-day, speaking the language well and doing a good business.

LESSON X

Economy

Mr. Johnson received his pay to-day, and after settling his bills, made a payment on his house. He still had some money left with which to make a small deposit in his savings account. He said that he could save more money next month because he now has everything that he needs for awhile. Each month he makes a small deposit in the bank, and he says that it

is surprising how quickly one can save quite a sum.

I told Jack about Mr. Johnson's habit of saving money. I thought that I could persuade Jack to do likewise. He ought to save a little out of each month's pay, but here he is without a penny. He is inclined to spend all that he earns and more too. He is always in debt and always wanting to borrow from his friends. It is embarrassing to refuse him money. Some day he will regret this extravagance, I am sure. But he will not take advice from anyone. I think, however, that I shall try once more to persuade him to save, because I do want him to lay up a little for the future. I want him to feel as I do, that a penny saved is a penny earned.

LESSON XI

Directions for Finding One's Way

Mr. Jones: Will you direct me to the nearest drug store, please?

Policeman: Go up this street one block; turn to the right, and go one block; then turn to the left again. There you will find a drug store in the middle of the block on the right side.

Mr. Williams: Can you tell me where the post office is, please?

Policeman: Yes sir. Go down this street three squares; then turn to your right and go one square. The post office is on the corner to your left.

MRS. WILLIAMS: Will you direct me to the Union Station, please?

POLICEMAN: It is a long walk, Madam. Take car number 44, and tell the conductor to let you off at the Union Station.

MRS. ROSE: Where are children's hats, please?

FLOOR-WALKER: On the fifth floor, Madam. Take the elevator at the rear of the second aisle to the right.

LESSON XII

RENTING A ROOM

I am going down town to-night to look at a room. I saw a sign in the window of a nice looking house on the street below, and I want to go before the room is taken by some one else. It may be taken before to-morrow. Good-by; I shall return in a few minutes.

LANDLADY: How do you do?

MR. SMITH: How do you do? I came to look at your rooms. I saw the sign in the window as I passed this morning.

LANDLADY: Come in, and I shall show them to you. I have one on the second floor and one on the third. Here is the small one; the one on the third floor is larger than this.

MR. SMITH: This one does not have enough windows for me; I like plenty of air and plenty of light in my room. Show me the other one, please.

LANDLADY: Let us go to the third floor; the room there is much larger and has three large windows.

Mr. Smith: What a nice clean looking room! I like this large closet too. What is the price of this room?

Landlady: This room is fifteen dollars a month, payable in advance; two dollars a month extra during December, January, and February, because of the additional expense of heating and lighting.

Mr. Smith: This room suits me; I shall take it. When may I come in?

Landlady: To-morrow, if you wish.

Mr. Smith: I shall be here to-morrow evening. Good-by.

Landlady: Good-by, the room will be ready for you when you come.

Here I am, back home again. I have just rented a better room than I have had since I came to this place. It is a large room on the third floor of the house at the corner of Wheeling and Ninth streets. It has three large windows, two of which overlook the park. The wall paper is neat and clean, and the room is furnished in good taste. I am going to move in to-morrow night. Come down with me and see for yourself how cozy it is.

LESSON XIII

John Vanos

John Vanos came to this country eight or ten years ago. He came alone, and when he had been here a short time, he became established in business; then he sent for his wife and two children, a boy and a girl. Now they live in a nice home on Fifth Avenue, and they all speak the English language very well. Mr. Vanos went to night school for awhile after he first came, and when he knew the language pretty well, he began business. When Mrs. Vanos and the children came, the children were sent to the public schools, and Mr. Vanos took his wife to the same night school in which he had been taught.

Now Mr. Vanos has one of the largest and best grocery stores on Penn Avenue. Before he came to this country, he was a fruit dealer, and he had had some experience as a store keeper. He has a large trade here, and people like to deal at his store. They say that he keeps the best and freshest vegetables that can be bought in the city, and that his prices are entirely satisfactory. His customers can always rely absolutely upon what he says. He delivers promptly, and that, too, pleases the people.

His daughter is thirteen, and she is to be given a good education. She will not only be given a college education, but she will be given a thorough course at the Musical Institute. His son is now sixteen, and he will soon graduate from the high school, and will then go to college. After his graduation there, he expects to become a partner in his father's business. It will be a great advantage to the son to take up a business that is so well established. Both Mr. and Mrs. Vanos have worked hard; but it is a great satisfaction to them to know that they have been able to provide so well for their children.

LESSON XIV

Familiar Quotations

1. Never put off until to-morrow what you can do to-day.

2. Lost time is never found again.

3. Honesty is the best policy.

4. Look before you leap.

5. Haste makes waste.

6. Rome was not built in a day.

7. An idle brain is the devil's workshop.

8. Diligence is the mother of good fortune.

9. Procrastination is the thief of time.

10. Do unto others as you would have others do unto you.

11. A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches.

12. Happy is the man who lives content with his lot.

13. It takes a long time to bring excellence to maturity.

14. If you have knowledge, let others light their candles at it.

15. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other.

16. If at first you don't succeed, try and try again.

17. If you abolish confidence between man and man, every human bond of union is broken.

18. The measure of a man's life is the well spending of it, and not its length.

19. Silver and gold are not the only coin; virtue, too, passes current all the world over.

20. God grants liberty to those who love it and are always ready to guard and defend it.

21. Liberty without obedience is confusion; obedience without liberty is slavery.

22. Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire,—conscience.

23. Let us have faith that right makes might; and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it.

24. Let every man be occupied, and occupied in the highest employment of which his nature is capable, and die with the consciousness that he has done his best.

LESSON XV

Christopher Columbus

Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America, was born in Genoa, a seaport of Italy, about 1430. His father was a wool-comber; but Christopher did not

like that kind of life, and while still quite a boy, he decided to become a sailor. His father sent him to school until he was fourteen years old. Then he went to sea where he could learn seamanship.

At that time the life of a sailor was full of adventure and danger; so Columbus had many exciting experiences. Once during a battle with a vessel off the coast of Portugal, he was compelled to leave his boat and swim to shore a long distance away. He afterward lived in Portugal a number of years, and while there, he married the daughter of a sea captain. For some time he earned his living, partly by making sea voyages and partly by drawing maps and selling them.

At that time the merchants of Europe had an extensive trade with India; but there was no short and safe route of travel. Columbus had given much time to the study of the earth, its size, its form, and the locations of the different countries on it. He believed that the earth was a sphere, and that by sailing westward from Europe he could find a water route to India. Finally he decided to make a trial voyage. He went here and there in Portugal seeking help. But people did not think his ideas were sensible; so they refused him assistance.

He then went to Spain. After waiting a long time, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella agreed to help him. At last they equipped three small vessels, and Columbus and his sailors set sail on their voyage across the Atlantic. They left the port of Palos, Spain, on August 3, 1492, and on Friday October 12, landed on an island a short distance from what now is Florida. This island they named San Salvador. They took possession of it for the king and queen of Spain.

LESSON XVI

Henry Hudson

Henry Hudson, an English navigator who had won some distinction by making daring voyages, was employed by a company of Dutch merchants and was sent out on a voyage of discovery around the northern coast of Europe for the purpose of finding a passage to China. Hudson and his party set sail from the port of Amsterdam in 1609, and as directed by the Dutch Company, went toward the northeast. They sailed on and on through fog and ice until they became discouraged, when they turned around and sailed for America. Hudson was a friend of the great Captain John Smith, who had made a voyage to America, and had told him about it, and had given him maps showing routes of travel across the Atlantic. Hudson and his sailors finally reached the coast near the Chesapeake Bay; but on account of stormy weather they did not land. Instead, they sailed northward along the coast until they came to the mouth of a large river. They entered this river and sailed up its course for several days; but they saw nothing of a way that might lead to China. However, they met some Indians along the river, and Hudson saw that a profitable business in fur trading might be started with them. With nothing more accomplished, they returned to Amsterdam leaving the name Hudson for the newly discovered river.

Soon after Hudson returned and gave a report of his trip, some Dutch merchants sent men to establish trading stations along the Hudson River where merchants might trade in furs with the Indians. In 1623 several trading stations were established, and some forts were built. The Dutch now felt that they had possession of a part of America, and they named

their land New Netherlands. It was decided to buy from the Indians, the large island at the mouth of the Hudson River and build a strong fort on it. This island, then called Manhattan, having an area of fourteen thousand acres, was bought for twenty-four dollars, and on it a fort was built and named New Amsterdam. The Dutch predicted that at this place some time in the future would be the largest city in America. It is said that in 1643 eighteen different languages were spoken on the Island of Manhattan, and that in 1664 the population had grown to fifteen hundred.

The English claimed this land, held by the Dutch, because the Cabots had discovered it and had taken possession of it for England. King Charles had been watching the progress of the Dutch colony, and one day in 1664 some English vessels appeared at the mouth of the Hudson River and demanded that New Netherlands be given up to them. Because they had not the strength to hold out against the English, the Dutch had to surrender their colony. When the English got possession of New Netherlands they changed its name to New York. They also changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York.

The prediction of the Dutch, that here at the mouth of this great river sometime would stand the largest city in America, did come true. New York has become the largest city in America; and to-day it is one of the busiest ports in all the world.

The year after Hudson discovered the great river, now called the Hudson River, he set out on another voyage of discovery. This time he sailed in a northwestern direction from Europe in the hope of finding a passage through the northern part of America. On the way a dispute arose between Hudson and his sailors, and Hudson was put into a little boat and set adrift on the waters of the bay that now bears his name. Nothing afterward was ever heard of him.

LESSON XVII

The Pilgrims

The Pilgrims were people of England who objected to the form of worship used in the Church of England. King James punished all who refused to worship according to the form of the English Church and to give money to its support. So objectionable was this to some of his subjects that they left the country and went to Holland in search of religious freedom. But they were not long satisfied with the change. There they were not permitted to own land; and then too they did not want their children to grow up and become Dutch-speaking people. They wanted above all things to remain English; so, dissatisfied in Holland, they soon returned to England with the idea of coming to America. Here in the wilderness they hoped to establish homes for themselves and to be free from restraint of religious faith and worship.

With the thought of a new England in America, founded upon their own ideals of religious and civil rights, they had the courage to leave their native land and to cross the broad Atlantic. In that little sailing vessel, the Mayflower, came to America some of the sturdiest people that England ever produced. They were independent, industrious, God-fearing. Some of them were also learned.

Their departure from England marks a period in history.

Toward the last of November in 1620 this company of about a hundred persons with Captain Miles Standish as their leader landed on Cape Cod, not far from where Boston now is. Just before the men of the party left the vessel, they gathered together and signed a compact, by which they agreed among themselves to form a colony that should be governed by

just and equal laws, established from time to time by common consent.

A short time after landing they found a suitable place to live and about Christmas began to cut trees and build houses. Winter came on, and they were not prepared for its hardships. Many of them became ill, and about half their number died. But the survivors were not the kind to give up; they were not easily discouraged by hardships.

In the spring and summer following that dreadful winter their crops grew, and the colony prospered. They made friends with the Indians and feared no hostilities from them. They felt sure also that at last they had found the land that they had hoped for so long. In the fall they decided to have a great feast and to unite in giving thanks to God for the many blessings they had received. They invited the Indians also to meet with them, and all sat down together—the first Thanksgiving Day in America.

These people who came in the Mayflower, as well as others like them who came afterward, had much to do with determining the character of the new nation. Of the Pilgrims, a great Englishman has said, "God sifted a whole nation that he might send choice grain into the wilderness."

LESSON XVIII

Benjamin Franklin

Benjamin Franklin was a native of Boston. He was born in 1706. His father was a poor man who earned the living for a large family by making soap and candles. Benjamin was sent to school until he was ten years old; then he had to stop and go into

his father's factory and help make candles. He did not like this kind of work; and because he was a studious boy, his father put him to work in a printing office that was conducted by James Franklin, one of Benjamin's brothers. These two brothers did not get along well together; so Benjamin left and went to Philadelphia.

With but one dollar in his pocket, he reached the city, and in a few days found work in a printing office. Although only seventeen years of age, he already had some knowledge of printing, and was able to do satisfactory work in a strange office.

He continued to study; and by and by got a printing press of his own, and edited and printed the best newspaper in the colonies. He also published an almanac that became widely known for the wise proverbs it contained. Among them were these: "If you want a thing well done, do it yourself," and "Diligence is the mother of good luck." Although a busy man, he found time for study all his life. From one of his scientific experiments he became famous all over the world. By means of a kite he discovered that lightning and electricity were the same.

But Franklin's achievements were not confined to scientific pursuits and matters of general culture. He did much to promote the welfare of his city; he organized the first fire company; he started the first library; he helped to build the first academy—now the University of Pennsylvania.

His influence spread even further than his own colony. He gave valuable assistance in conducting the political affairs of other colonies as well. At one time he was postmaster-general of all the colonies. On several occasions he went to Europe as the agent of his own colony or of others. When the colonies decided to become independent of England, Franklin helped to draft the Declaration of Independence.

During the Revolution, when upwards of seventy years of age, he went to France as agent for the colonies and procured for them funds with which to pay the soldiers. He helped to make the treaty which ended the war. Afterwards, although eighty-one years old, he took a foremost part in framing the Constitution of the United States in 1787. He died three years later at the age of eighty-four.

LESSON XIX

George Washington

George Washington, the first president of the United States, was born on a plantation in Virginia, on February 22, 1732. At the death of his father, George, who was then only eleven years old, was left along with his brothers and sisters in the care of his mother. He went to a little country school, where he learned to read and to do sums in arithmetic. He was a good student and a great favorite with his playmates.

Lawrence Washington, George's eldest brother, had married a Miss Fairfax, whose father lived in Virginia and was a relative of Lord Fairfax, a rich land owner of the colony. When George was fourteen years of age, Lawrence took him to visit Lord Fairfax. This old man of sixty took a liking to George, and they became great friends. Lord Fairfax had been told that people were settling on his land, a hundred miles or so west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Washington was then sixteen, and had some knowledge of surveying; so Fairfax employed him to go over the mountains and measure the land and establish the boundary lines. Washington did his work so well that the Governor of Virginia afterward employed him as public surveyor for the colony.

A little later the French tried to establish themselves west of the Allegheny Mountains, and they began to build forts along the rivers. The Governor of Virginia gave Washington, who was then twenty-one years old, the military title of major, and sent him to order the French to leave this territory. The entire distance there and back was about a thousand miles. Washington, accompanied by one white man and several friendly Indians as guides, had to pass through thick forests and across mountains and broad rivers full of floating ice. Then too, many of the Indians in the region that Washington and his men passed through had allied themselves with the French to fight against the English. Washington was a strong, brave young man, and he made his way safely to the French headquarters. He informed the French commander of the object of his visit, but the French refused to leave. When the answer was brought back to the Governor of Virginia, Washington was made colonel and sent out with an army of one hundred and fifty men to drive the French from the territory near the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. At first the English were defeated. But this war, called the French and Indian War, lasted several years, and resulted in the English getting possession of the land from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River.

A few years later the American colonies had a war with England. The war was begun by the colonists, chiefly because of certain grievances about taxes, and was brought on by the acts of George III, Mr. Grenville, and Lord North. It lasted eight years and resulted in the independence of the colonies.

Shortly after the war ended the people of all the colonies formed a new nation, preserving the colonies, however, as independent states for certain functions of government. By common consent they selected George Washington to be the first president, recog-

nizing him as pre-eminent among his fellow countrymen, as well as relying still on his hand to guide them in their new venture in government.

The verdict of his fellow countrymen has been approved by the judgment of history. He was, indeed, as Henry Lee said of him at the time of his death, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

LESSON XX

Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president of the United States. He was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, on February 12, 1809. His father was a poor pioneer, who had a small piece of barren land in the backwoods. When Abe was seven years old the family moved to Indiana. Here also the land was uncultivated, and Lincoln's father had to clear the lot where their new home was to be. He cut the trees and made the logs out of which he built a crude dwelling. Winter came on before the cabin was finished, and the Lincoln family was compelled to live through the cold months with only three sides of the cabin enclosed. By the next winter they had built a better house, which they furnished with new furniture hewn from rough logs, and when they moved into this new home they were more comfortable than they had ever been before. The hardships of pioneer life, however, were too much for Lincoln's mother, who died soon after they had moved into their new home. To little Abe this was a great sorrow—a sorrow that he felt as long as he lived. It was also a great loss to

him. His loss was in part made up to him from the fact that his father married soon again, and his new mother was a kind woman, who took a great interest in Abe and helped him make the best of his limited opportunities. Lincoln went to school at intervals from his eighth year to his fifteenth year. The total amount of schooling which he received was less than a year.

It was necessary for him to earn his living at a very early age. When only eight years old he is said to have cut the fire-wood that was used in their cabin; and from that time on, to have worked in the forest, at first helping to cut logs, and afterwards splitting rails. This work he did for neighbors in order that he might earn money.

Corn and other products of that region were at that time taken to market by flat-boat down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to New Orleans. Lincoln was employed by a neighbor to go on one of these voyages, two thousand miles by flat-boat. On the trip he had many wonderful experiences. Once while at New Orleans he saw negro slaves bought and sold at public auction in the market place. This sight made a profound impression on him, which he never forgot.

When he returned home, the family moved to Illinois. Here again they had to build a log cabin. Soon after their arrival Lincoln became the village postmaster. His duties did not occupy all of his time; so he began the study of law. It is said that he walked a distance of twenty miles to borrow law books from a friend. By and by he practised law. He was by nature sympathetic, earnest, and sincere, as well as honest in his dealings. He was also ambitious and a natural leader, masterful, though unobtrusive.

From a very early age he won general confidence and respect. In the practice of law he had great success as an advocate. At twenty-five he was elected to the state legislature. It is said that when he went into office he walked to the capitol, because he was too poor to hire a horse. He was a member of the legislature for eight years. A little later he represented his district in Congress for a term. A short time after that he became a candidate for United States senator against Stephen A. Douglas, by whom he was defeated. During the campaign the candidates held a series of memorable debates, in which they discussed the slavery question.

Lincoln was elected president of the United States in 1860. His election was received throughout the South with general disappointment and dismay, because the people there thought that Lincoln would oppose the holding of slaves by the people of any state. Soon the southern states tried to secede, and the great Civil War was on. It began in 1861, and in 1862 Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, by which he set free all the slaves held within any state that was in rebellion against the United States. The war ended in April 1865, and it was Lincoln's efforts more than anyone else's that saved the nation.

About the time the war ended, Lincoln was shot at the theater by an assassin. He died the next morning, and his body was laid to rest in Springfield, Illinois. After the burial service the Second Inaugural address was read over his grave; and as Lord Charnwood says in his biography of Lincoln, "What better words could have been chosen to honor one who with malice toward none, with charity toward all with firmness in the right, as God gave him to see the right, had striven on to finish the work he was in."

LESSON XXI

President Lincoln's Letter to Mrs. Bixby

A SPECIMEN OF PERFECT ENGLISH

Executive Mansion,
Washington, Nov. 21, 1864.

To Mrs. Bixby, Boston, Mass.

Dear Madam:

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully.

A. Lincoln.

LESSON XXII

Preamble to the Constitution of the United States

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

AMERICA

My country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
    Of thee I sing;
Land where my fathers died,
Land of the Pilgrim's pride,
From ev'ry mountain side,
    Let freedom ring.

My native country, thee,
Land of the noble free,
    Thy name I love;
I love thy rocks and rills,
Thv woods and templed hills,
My heart with rapture thrills,
    Like that above.

Let music swell the breeze,
And ring from all the trees,
    Sweet freedom's song;
Let mortal tongues awake,
Let all that breathe partake,
Let rocks their silence break,
    The sound prolong.

Our father's God, to Thee,
Author of liberty,
    To Thee we sing;
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light,
Protect us by Thy might,
    Great God, our King.

STAR SPANGLED BANNER

Oh, say can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, thro' the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof thro' the night that our flag was still there.

Oh, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen thro' the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines on the stream:

'Tis the star-spangled banner: oh, long may it wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

Oh, thus be it e'er when free men shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war's desolation;
Blest with vict'ry and peace, may the heav'n-rescued land
Praise the Pow'r that has made and preserved us a nation!
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just;
And this be our motto: "In God is our trust!"

And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

APPENDIX

Numerals

Roman Notation	*Arabic Notation*		*Ordinals*	
I.	1	one	1st	first
II.	2	two	2nd	second
III.	3	three	3rd	third
IV.	4	four	4th	fourth
V.	5	five	5th	fifth
VI.	6	six	6th	sixth
VII.	7	seven	7th	seventh
VIII.	8	eight	8th	eighth
IX.	9	nine	9th	ninth
X.	10	ten	10th	tenth
XI.	11	eleven	11th	eleventh
XII.	12	twelve	12th	twelfth
XIII.	13	thirteen	13th	thirteenth
XIV.	14	fourteen	14th	fourteenth
XV.	15	fifteen	15th	fifteenth
XVI.	16	sixteen	16th	sixteenth
XVII.	17	seventeen	17th	seventeenth
XVIII.	18	eighteen	18th	eighteenth
XIX.	19	nineteen	19th	nineteenth
XX.	20	twenty	20th	twentieth
XXI.	21	twenty-one	21st	twenty-first
XXX.	30	thirty	30th	thirtieth
XL.	40	forty	40th	fortieth
L.	50	fifty	50th	fiftieth
LX.	60	sixty	60th	sixtieth
LXX.	70	seventy	70th	seventieth
LXXX.	80	eighty	80th	eightieth
XC.	90	ninety	90th	ninetieth
C.	100	one hundred	100th	one hundredth
D.	500	five hundred	500th	five hundredth
M.	1000	one thousand	1000th	one thousandth
MM.	2000	two thousand	2000th	two thousandth
$\overline{V}$.	5000	five thousand	5000th	five thousandth

Numerical Expressions and Signs

I. ADDITION

Two plus three equals five.

2 + 3 = 5

Problem in addition:—

```
  2 4 6   addend
  4 6 8   addend
  2 3 4   addend
  -------
  9 4 8   sum or amount
```

II. SUBTRACTION

Ten minus six equals four.

10 — 6 = 4

Problem in subtraction:—

```
  7 5 3   minuend
  4 3 2   subtrahend
  -------
  3 2 1   difference or remainder.
```

III. MULTIPLICATION

Four multiplied by two equals eight.

4 × 2 = 8

Problem in multiplication:—

```
  2 4 5 3   multiplicand
        2 3 multiplier
  ---------
    7 3 5 9
  4 9 0 6
  ---------
  5 6 4 1 9 product
```

IV. DIVISION

Ten divided by two equals five.

10 ÷ 2 = 5

SHORT DIVISION

```
Divisor  6 ) 1 2 3 4 2   dividend
             ---------
               2 0 5 7   quotient
```

LONG DIVISION

```
                2 5 0 2          quotient
Divisor  2 5 ) 6 2 5 5 2         dividend
               5 0
               -----
               1 2 5
               1 2 5
             -------------
                     5 2
                     5 0
                   -------
                         2       remainder
```

COMMON FRACTIONS

One (1) is a unit or a whole number.

One half (½) is a fractional part of a thing.

1. One half plus one half equals one.
   ½+½=I
2. One fourth plus one fourth plus one fourth plus one fourth equals one.
   ¼+¼+¼+¼=I
3. One half of twenty is ten.
   ½ of 20=10
4. One third of fifteen equals five.
   1/3 of 15=5
5. One fourth of eight equals two.
   1/4 of 8 =2
6. Two fourths of eight equals four.
   2/4 of 8=4
7. Three fourths of eight equals six.
   3/4 of 8=6

1½ is a mixed number.

1/ numerator
/2 denominator

Decimal Fractions

.1	1/10	one tenth
.01	1/100	one hundredth
.001	1/1000	one thousandth
.0001	1/10000	one ten-thousandth
.00001	1/100000	one hundred-thousandth

1.1	one and one tenth
10.01	ten and one hundredth
100.001	one hundred and one thousandth
1000.0001	one thousand and one ten-thousandth
10000.00001	ten thousand and one hundred-thousandth
1000000.000001	one million and one millionth

Common Weights and Measures

LONG MEASURE TABLE

12	inches (in.)	1 foot (ft.).
3	feet	1 yard (yd.).
16½	feet	1 rod (rd.).
320	rods	1 mile (mi.).
5280	feet	1 mile.

SQUARE MEASURE TABLE

144	square inches (sq. in.)	1 square foot (sq. ft.).
9	square feet	1 square yard (sq.yd.).
30¼	square yards, or 272¼ square feet	1 square rod (sq.rd.).
160	square rods	1 acre (A.).
640	acres	1 square mile (sq. m.).

CUBIC MEASURE TABLE

1728	cubic inches (cu. in.)	1 cubic foot (cu. ft.).
27	cubic feet	1 cubic yard (cu. yd.).

DRY MEASURE TABLE

2 pints (pt.)	1 quart (qt.).
8 quarts	1 peck (pk.).
4 pecks	1 bushel (bu.).

LIQUID MEASURE TABLE

4 gills (gi.)	1 pint.
2 pints	1 quart (qt.).
4 quarts	1 gallon (gal.).

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT TABLE

16 ounces (oz.)	1 pound (lb.).
100 pounds	1 hundredweight (cwt.).
20 hundredweight	1 ton (T.).

Adjectives and Adverbs of Irregular Comparison

ADJECTIVES

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
bad (evil, ill)	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
good	better	best
late	later, latter	last
well (in health)	better	
little	less, lesser	least
much, many	more	most

ADVERBS

far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest

ill	worse	worst
badly	worse	worst
well	better	best
late	later	latest
little	less	least
much	more	most

Personal Pronouns

THE PRONOUN OF THE FIRST PERSON: *I*

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
Nominative Case	I	we
Possessive Case	my or mine	our or ours
Objective Case	me	us

THE PRONOUN OF THE SECOND PERSON: *you*

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
Nominative Case	you	you
Possessive Case	your or yours	your or yours
Objective Case	you	you

THE PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON: *he, she, it*

	Singular Number			*Plural Number*
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	*all genders*
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Poss.	his	her or hers	its	their or theirs
Obj.	him	her	it	them

PRINCIPAL PARTS AND CONJUGATION OF THE VERB WRITE

Pres.—write, Past—wrote, Past Part.—written

Indicative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1. I write	We write
2. You write	You write
3. He writes	They write

PAST TENSE

1. I wrote	We wrote
2. You wrote	You wrote
3. He wrote	They wrote

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall write	We shall write
2. You will write	You will write
3. He will write	They will write

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I have written	We have written
2. You have written	You have written
3. He has written	They have written

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I had written	We had written
2. You had written	You had written
3. He had written	They had written

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have written	We shall have written
2. You will have written	You will have written
3. He will have written	They will have written

Principal Parts and Conjugation of The Verb To Be.

Present—am, Past—was, Present Participle—being, Past Participle—been

Indicative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1. I am	We are
2. You are	You are
3. He is	They are

PAST TENSE

1. I was	We were
2. You were	You were
3. He was	They were

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall be	We shall be
2. You will be	You will be
3. He will be	They will be

PERFECT (OR PRESENT PERFECT) TENSE

1. I have been	We have been
2. You have been	You have been
3. He has been	They have been

PLUPERFECT (OR PAST PERFECT) TENSE

1. I had been	We had been
2. You had been	You had been
3. He had been	They had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have been	We shall have been
2. You will have been	You will have been
3. He will have been	They will have been

LIST OF VERBS

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
am	was	been	being
arise	arose	arisen	arising
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked	awaking
bear	bore	borne, born	bearing
beat	beat	beaten	beating
begin	began	begun	beginning
behold	beheld	beheld	beholding
bend	bent	bent	bending
beseech	besought	besought	beseeching
bet	bet	bet	betting
bid	bade	bidden	bidding
bind	bound	bound	binding
bite	bit	bitten	biting
bleed	bled	bled	bleeding
blow	blew	blown	blowing
break	broke	broken	breaking
bring	brought	brought	bringing
build	built	built	building
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt	burning
burst	burst	burst	bursting
buy	bought	bought	buying
catch	caught	caught	catching
choose	chose	chosen	choosing
cling	clung	clung	clinging
come	came	come	coming
cost	cost	cost	costing
creep	crept	crept	creeping
cut	cut	cut	cutting

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
dare	dared	dared	daring
deal	dealt	dealt	dealing
dig	dug	dug	digging
do	did	done	doing
draw	drew	drawn	drawing
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt	dreaming
dress	dressed	dressed	dressing
drink	drank	drunk	drinking
drive	drove	driven	driving
dwell	dwelt	dwelt	dwelling
eat	ate	eaten	eating
fall	fell	fallen	falling
feed	fed	fed	feeding
feel	felt	felt	feeling
fight	fought	fought	fighting
find	found	found	finding
flee	fled	fled	fleeing
fling	flung	flung	flinging
fly	flew	flown	flying
forget	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
forsake	forsook	forsaken	forsaking
freeze	froze	frozen	freezing
get	got	got	getting
give	gave	given	giving
go	went	gone	going
grind	ground	ground	grinding
grow	grew	grown	growing
hang	hung, hanged	hung,hanged	hanging
have	had	had	having
hear	heard	heard	hearing
hew	hewed	hewn	hewing
hide	hid	hidden	hiding
hold	held	held	holding
hurt	hurt	hurt	hurting

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
keep	kept	kept	keeping
kneel	kneeled, knelt	kneeled, knelt	kneeling
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted	knitting
know	knew	known	knowing
lay	laid	lain	laying
lead	led	led	leading
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt	learning
leave	left	left	leaving
lend	lent	lent	lending
let	let	let	letting
lie (recline)	lay	lain	lying
lie (to tell a falsehood)	lied	lied	lying
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit	lighting
lose	lost	lost	losing
make	made	made	making
mean	meant	meant	meaning
meet	met	met	meeting
pay	paid	paid	paying
put	put	put	putting
quit	quit	quit	quitting
read	read	read	reading
rid	rid	rid	ridding
ride	rode	ridden	riding
ring	rang	rung	ringing
rise	rose	risen	rising
run	ran	run	running
say	said	said	saying
see	saw	seen	seeing
seek	sought	sought	seeking
sell	sold	sold	selling
send	sent	sent	sending
set	set	set	setting
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn	sewing

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
shake	shook	shaken	shaking
shave	shaved	shaved	shaving
shed	shed	shed	shedding
shine	shone	shone	shining
shoot	shot	shot	shooting
show	showed	shown	showing
shrink	shrank	shrunk	shrinking
shut	shut	shut	shutting
sing	sang	sung	singing
sink	sank	sunk	sinking
sit	sat	sat	sitting
slay	slew	slain	slaying
sleep	slept	sleeping	sleeping
slide	slid	slid, slidden	sliding
sling	slung	slung	slinging
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt	smelling
sow	sowed	sowed, sown	sowing
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt	spelling
spend	spent	spent	spending
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt	spilling
spin	spun	spun	spinning
spit	spit	spit	spitting
split	split	split	splitting
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt	spoiling
spread	spread	spread	spreading
spring	sprang	sprung	springing
stand	stood	stood	standing
stay	stayed	stayed	staying
steal	stole	stolen	stealing
stick	stuck	stuck	sticking
sting	stung	stung	stinging
stink	stunk	stunk	stinking
strew	strewed	strewn	strewing

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
strike	struck	struck	striking
string	strung	strung	stringing
strive	strove	striven	striving
swear	swore	sworn	swearing
sweat	sweated, sweat	sweated, sweat	sweating
sweep	swept	swept	sweeping
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen	swelling
swim	swam	swum	swimming
take	took	taken	taking
teach	taught	taught	teaching
tear	tore	torn	tearing
tell	told	told	telling
think	thought	thought	thinking
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived	thriving
thrust	thrust	thrust	thrusting
tread	trod	trodden	treading
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked	waking
wear	wore	worn	wearing
weave	wove	woven	weaving
wed	wedded	wedded	wedding
win	won	won	winning
wind	wound	wound	winding
wring	wrung	wrung	wringing
write	wrote	written	writing

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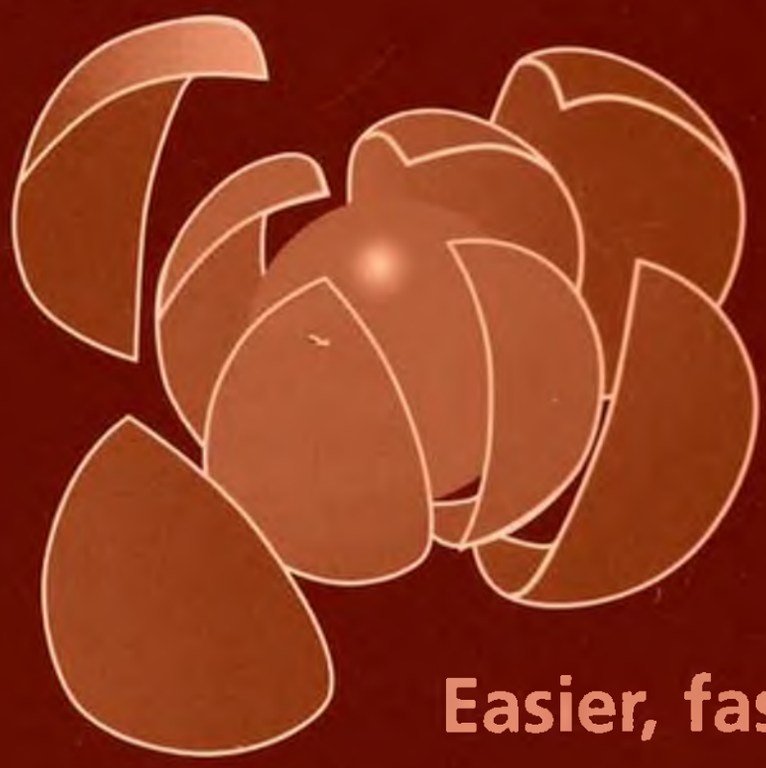

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Dedication

To John Eckersley, who first encouraged my interest in this kind of thing.

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I am grateful to all the people who have helped me with the preparation of this third edition. A large number of teachers in different countries were kind enough to respond to an enquiry asking how they felt *Practical English Usage* could be improved: their feedback was extremely helpful, and I am very much in their debt. I am also greatly indebted to David Baker, whose comments and suggestions have added very significantly to the accuracy and clarity of the book, and to Hideo Hibino and Kenji Kashino, who have contributed valuable advice on specific problems. Many other teachers and students – too many to name – have taken the trouble to suggest ways in which particular entries could be improved; their input has benefited the book considerably. My use of the internet as a source of instances of authentic usage has been greatly facilitated by the kind assistance of Hiroaki Sato, of Senshu University, Japan, who made available his excellent software tool KwiconGugle. I must also reacknowledge my debt to Jonathan Blundell, Norman Coe, Michio Kawakami, Michael Macfarlane, Nigel Middlemiss, Keith Mitchell, Catherine Walter, Gareth Watkins, and the many other consultants and correspondents whose help and advice with the preparation of the first and second editions continue as an important contribution to the third.

Any pedagogic grammarian owes an enormous debt to the academic linguists on whose research he or she is parasitic. There is not enough space to mention all the scholars of the last hundred years or so on whose work I have drawn directly or indirectly, even if I had a complete record of my borrowings. But I must at least pay homage to two monumental reference works of the present generation: the *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1985), and the *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, by Huddleston, Pullum and others (Cambridge University Press 2002). Their authoritative accounts of the facts of English structure and usage constitute an essential source of information for anyone writing pedagogic grammar materials today.

Finally, it is with particular pleasure that I express my gratitude, once again, to the editorial, design and production team at Oxford University Press, whose professional expertise is matched only by their concern to make an author's task as trouble-free as possible.

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Introduction

The purpose of this book

English, like all languages, is full of problems for the foreign learner. Some of these points are easy to explain – for instance, the formation of questions, the difference between *since* and *for*, the meaning of *after all*. Other problems are more tricky, and cause difficulty even for advanced students and teachers. How exactly is the present perfect used? When do we use past tenses to be polite? What are the differences between *at*, *on* and *in* with expressions of place? We can say *a chair leg* – why not **a cat leg*? When can we use the expression *do so*? When is *the* used with superlatives? Is *unless* the same as *if not*? What are the differences between *come* and *go*, between *each* and *every*, between *big*, *large* and *great*, between *fairly*, *quite*, *rather* and *pretty*? Is it correct to say *There's three more bottles in the fridge*? How do you actually say *3 × 4 = 12*? And so on, and so on.

Practical English Usage is a guide to problems of this kind. It deals with over 600 points which regularly cause difficulty to foreign students of English. It will be useful, for example, to a learner who is not sure how to use a particular structure, or who has made a mistake and wants to find out why it is wrong. It will also be helpful to a teacher who is looking for a clear explanation of a difficult language point. There is very full coverage of grammar, as well as explanations of a large number of common vocabulary problems. There are also some entries designed to clarify more general questions (e.g. formality, slang, the nature of standard English and dialects) which students and teachers may find themselves concerned with.

Level

The book is intended for higher level students of English and for teachers. Being a reference book, it contains information at various levels, ranging from relatively simple points to quite advanced problems.

Organisation

Problems are mostly explained in short separate entries: the book is more like a dictionary than a grammar in form. This makes it possible to give a clear complete treatment of each point, and enables the user to concentrate just on the question that he or she needs information about. Entries that deal with related topics (e.g. different uses of a tense) are grouped where this is useful, but can be read separately. In longer entries, basic information is generally given first, followed by more detailed explanations and discussions of less important points. Entries are arranged alphabetically by title and numbered in sequence. A comprehensive Index (pages 624–658) shows where each point can be found (see 'How to find things', page x).

Approach and style

I have tried to make the presentation as practical as possible. Each entry contains an explanation of a problem, examples of correct usage, and (when this is useful) examples of typical mistakes. In some cases, an explanation may be somewhat different from that found in many learners' grammars; this is because

the rules traditionally given for certain points (e.g. conditionals or indirect speech) are not always accurate or helpful. Explanations are, as far as possible, in simple everyday language. Where it has been necessary to use grammatical terminology, I have generally preferred to use traditional terms that are simple and easy to understand, except where this would be seriously misleading. Some of these terms (e.g. future tense) would be regarded as unsatisfactory by academic grammarians, but I am not writing for specialists. There is a dictionary of the terminology used in the book on pages xvii–xxv.

The kind of English described

The explanations deal mainly with standard modern everyday British English, and are illustrated with realistic examples of current usage. Both explanations and examples have been thoroughly checked against large electronic databases ('corpora') of authentic spoken and written English. Stylistic differences (e.g. between formal and informal usage, or spoken and written language) are mentioned where this is appropriate. The few grammatical differences between British and American English are also described, and there is a good deal of information about other British-American differences, but the book is not intended as a systematic guide to American usage.

Correctness

If people say that a form is not 'correct', they can mean several different things. They may for instance be referring to a sentence like **I have seen her yesterday*, which normally only occurs in the English of foreigners. They may be thinking of a usage like *less people* (instead of *fewer people*), which is common in standard English but regarded as wrong by some people. Or they may be talking about forms like **ain't* or 'double negatives', which are used in speech by many British and American people, but which do not occur in the standard dialects and are not usually written. This book is mainly concerned with the first kind of 'correctness': the differences between British or American English and 'foreign' English. However, there is also information about cases of divided usage in standard English, and about a few important dialect forms. (For a discussion of different kinds of English, see 308–309.)

How important is correctness?

If someone makes too many mistakes in a foreign language, he or she can be difficult to understand, so a reasonable level of correctness is important. However, it is quite unnecessary to speak or write a language perfectly in order to communicate effectively (very few adults in fact achieve a perfect command of another language). Learners should aim to avoid serious mistakes (and a book like *Practical English Usage* will help considerably with this); but they should not become obsessed with correctness, or worry every time they make a mistake. Grammar is not the most important thing in the world!

What this book does not do

Practical English Usage is not a complete guide to the English language. As the title suggests, its purpose is practical: to give learners and their teachers the most important information they need in order to deal with common language problems. Within this framework, the explanations are as complete and accurate as I can make them. However it is not always helpful or possible in a book of this kind to deal with all the details of a complex structural point; so readers may well find occasional exceptions to some of the grammatical rules given here. Equally, the book does not aim to replace a dictionary. While it gives information about common problems with the use of a number of words, it does not attempt to describe other meanings or uses of the words beside those points that are selected for attention.

Other reference books

A book like this gives explanations of individual points of usage, but does not show how the separate points 'fit together'. Those who need a systematically organised account of the whole of English grammar should consult a book such as the *Oxford Learner's Grammar*, by John Eastwood (Oxford University Press), *A Student's Grammar of the English Language*, by Greenbaum and Quirk (Longman), or *Collins Cobuild English Grammar* (Collins). For a detailed treatment of English vocabulary, see the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, the *Macmillan English Dictionary* or the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*.

Changes in the third edition

English, like all languages, is changing, and British English is currently being quite strongly influenced by American English. Consequently, some usages which were unusual in standard British English a few decades ago have now become common – for example, the use of *like* as a conjunction (e.g. *like I do*), or the use of *Do you have . . .?* to ask about the immediate present (e.g. *Do you have a light?*). The third edition takes account of a number of changes of this kind, in order to give a fully up-to-date description of contemporary usage.

How to find things

The best way to find information about a particular point is to look in the Index on pages 624–658. (The overview on pages xi–xvi is intended only to give a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents.) Most points are indexed under several different names, so it is not difficult to locate the entry you need. For instance, if you want to know why we say *I'm not used to driving on the left* instead of *I'm not used to drive on the left*, you can find the number of the section where this is explained by looking in the index under 'used', 'be used', 'to' or '-ing forms'. (On the other hand, it would obviously not be helpful to look under 'drive': the rule is a general one about the use of *-ing* forms after *be used to*, not about the verb *drive* in particular.)

Contents Overview

This overview gives a general picture of the topics covered in the book; it is not a complete guide to the contents. References are to entry numbers. To find information about a particular point, consult the Index on pages 624–658,

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Language terminology

The following words and expressions are used in this book to talk about grammar and other aspects of language.

abstract noun (the opposite of a **concrete noun**) the name of something which we experience as an idea, not by seeing, touching etc. Examples: *doubt*; *height*; *geography*.

active An active verb form is one like *breaks, told, will help* (not like *is broken, was told, will be helped*, which are **passive** verb forms). The subject of an active verb is usually the person or thing that does the action, or that is responsible for what happens.

adjective a word like *green, hungry, impossible*, which is used when we describe people, things, events etc. Adjectives are used in connection with nouns and pronouns. Examples: *a green apple*; *She's hungry*.

adverb a word like *tomorrow, once, badly, there, also*, which is used to say, for example, when, where or how something happens. There are very many kinds of adverbs with different functions: see 22–27.

adverb particle a short adverb like *up, out, off*, often used as part of a phrasal verb (e.g. *clean up, look out, tell off*).

affirmative an affirmative sentence is one that makes a positive statement – not a negative sentence or a question. Compare *I agree* (affirmative); *I don't agree* (negative).

agent In a passive sentence, the agent is the expression that says who or what an action is done by. Example: *This picture was probably painted by a child.*

article *A, an* and *the* are called 'articles'. *A/an* is called the 'indefinite article'; *the* is called the 'definite article'.

aspect Grammarians prefer to talk about progressive and perfective aspect, rather than progressive and perfect tense, since these forms express other ideas besides time (e.g. continuity, completion). However, in this book the term *tense* is often used to include aspect, for the sake of simplicity.

attributive Adjectives placed before nouns are in 'attributive position'. Examples: *a green shirt*; *my noisy son*. See also **predicative**.

auxiliary verb a verb like *be, have, do* which is used with another verb to make tenses, passive forms etc. Examples: *She was writing*; *Where have you put it?* See also **modal auxiliary verb**.

clause a part of a sentence which contains a subject and a verb, usually joined to the rest of a sentence by a conjunction. Example: *Mary said that she was tired.* (The word *clause* is also sometimes used for structures containing participles or infinitives with no subject or conjunction. Example: *Not knowing what to do, I telephoned Robin.*)

cleft sentence a sentence in which special emphasis is given to one part (e.g. the subject or the object) by using a structure with *it* or *what*. Examples: *It was you that caused the accident*; *What I need is a drink.*

collective noun a singular word for a group. Examples: *family*; *team*.

comparative the form of an adjective or adverb made with *-er* (e.g. *older, faster*); also the structure *more* + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. *more useful, more politely*).

complement (1) a part of a sentence that gives more information about the subject (after *be, seem* and some other verbs), or, in some structures, about the object. Examples: *You're the right person to help; She looks very kind; They elected him President.*
(2) a structure or words needed after a noun, adjective, verb or preposition to complete its meaning. Examples: *the intention to travel; full of water; try phoning; down the street.*

compound a compound noun, verb, adjective, preposition etc is one that is made of two or more parts. Examples: *bus driver; get on with; one-eyed.*

concrete noun (the opposite of an **abstract noun**) the name of something which we can experience by seeing, touching etc. Examples: *cloud; petrol; raspberry.*

conditional (1) a verb form made by using the auxiliary *would* (also *should* after *I* and *we*). Examples: *I would run; She would sing; We should think.*
(2) a clause or sentence containing *if* (or a word with a similar meaning), and perhaps containing a conditional verb form. Examples: *If you try you'll understand; I should be surprised if she knew; What would you have done if the train had been late?*

conjunction a word like *and, but, although, because, when, if,* which can be used to join clauses together. Example: *I rang because I was worried.*

consonant for example, the letters *b, c, d, f g* and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also **vowel**.

continuous the same as **progressive**.

contraction a short form in which a subject and an auxiliary verb, or an auxiliary verb and the word *not,* are joined together into one word. Contractions are also made with non-auxiliary *be* and *have.* Examples: *I'm; who've; John'll; can't.*

co-ordinate clause one of two or more main or subordinate clauses of equal 'value' that are connected. Examples: *Shall I come to your place or would you like to come to mine?; It's cooler today and there's a bit of a wind; she said that it was late and that she was tired.* See also **main clause, subordinate clause.**

copular verb the same as **link verb**.

countable noun a noun like *car, dog, idea,* which can have a plural form, and can be used with the indefinite article *a/an.* See also **uncountable noun.**

declarative question a question which has the same grammatical form as a statement. Example: *That's your girlfriend?*

definite article *the.*

defining relative see **identifying relative.**

demonstrative *this, these, that, those.*

determiner one of a group of words that begin noun phrases. Determiners include *a/an, the, my, this, each, either, several, more, both, all.*

direct object see **object.**

direct speech speech reported 'directly', in the words used by the original speaker (more or less), without any changes of tense, pronouns etc. Example: *She looked at me and said 'This is my money'.* See also **indirect speech.**

discourse marker a word or expression which shows the connection between what is being said and the wider context. A discourse marker may, for example, connect a sentence with what comes before or after, or it may show the speaker's attitude to what he/she is saying. Examples: *on the other hand; frankly; as a matter of fact.*

duration how long something lasts. The preposition *for* can be used with an expression of time to indicate duration.

ellipsis leaving out words when their meaning can be understood from the context. Examples: *(It's a) Nice day, isn't it?*; *It was better than I expected (it would be)*.

emphasis giving special importance to one part of a word or sentence (for example by pronouncing it more loudly; by writing it in capital letters; by using *do* in an affirmative clause; by using special word order).

emphatic pronoun reflexive pronoun (*myself, yourself* etc) used to emphasise a noun or pronoun. Examples: *I'll tell him **myself**; I wouldn't sell this to the king **himself**.* See also **reflexive pronoun.**

ending something added to the end of a word, e.g. *-er, -ing, -ed.*

first person see **person.**

formal the style used when talking politely to strangers, on special occasions, in some literary writing, in business letters, etc. For example, *commence* is a more formal word than *start.*

frequency Adverbs of frequency say how often something happens. Examples: *often*; *never*; *daily*; *occasionally.*

fronting moving a part of a clause to the beginning in order to give it special emphasis. Example: ***Jack** I like, but **his wife** I can't stand.*

full verb see **main verb.**

future a verb form made with the auxiliary *shall/will* + infinitive without *to.* Examples; *I **shall** arrive*; *Will it matter?*

future perfect a verb form made with *shall/will* + *have* + past participle. Example: *I **will have finished** by lunchtime.*

future progressive (or **future continuous**) a verb form made with *shall/will* + *be* + . . .*ing.* Example: *I **will be needing** the car this evening.*

gender the use of different grammatical forms to show the difference between masculine, feminine and neuter, or between human and non-human. Examples: *he*; *she*; *it*; *who*; *which.*

gerund the form of a verb ending in *-ing*, used like a noun (for example, as the subject or object of a sentence). Examples: ***Smoking** is bad for you*; *I hate **getting** up early.* See also **present participle.**

gradable *Pretty, hard* or *cold* are gradable adjectives: things can be more or less *pretty, hard* or *cold.* Adverbs of degree (like *rather, very*) can be used with gradable words. *Perfect* or *dead* are not gradable words: we do not usually say that something is *more* or *less perfect*, or *very dead.*

grammar the rules that show how words are combined, arranged or changed to show certain kinds of meaning.

hypothetical Some words and structures (e.g. modal verbs, *if*-clauses) are used for hypothetical situations – that is to say, situations which may not happen, or are imaginary. Example: *What would you do if you had six months free?*

identifying (or **defining**) **relative clause** a relative clause which identifies a noun – which tells us which person or thing is being talked about. Example: *There's the woman **who tried to steal your cat**.* (The relative clause *who tried to steal your cat* identifies the woman – it tells us which woman is meant.) See also **non-identifying relative clause.**

imperative the form of a verb used to give orders, make suggestions, etc. Examples: ***Bring** me a pen*; ***Have** a good holiday.*

indefinite article *a/an.*

indirect object see **object.**

indirect speech a structure in which we report what somebody said by making it part of our own sentence (so that the tenses, word order, and pronouns and other words may be different from those used by the original speaker). Compare: *He said 'I'm tired'* (the original speaker's words are reported in direct speech) and *He said **that he was tired*** (the original speaker's words are reported in indirect speech).

infinitive the 'base' form of a word (usually with *to*), used after another verb, after an adjective or noun, or as the subject or complement of a sentence. Examples: *I want **to go** home; It's easy **to sing**; I've got a plan **to start** a business; **To err** is human, **to forgive** divine.*

informal the style used in ordinary conversation, personal letters etc, when there is no special reason to speak politely or carefully. *I'll* is more informal than *I will*; *get* is used mostly in an informal style; *start* is a more informal word than *commence.*

-ing form the form of a verb ending in *-ing*. Examples: *finding; keeping; running.* See also **gerund, present participle.**

initial at the beginning. *Sometimes* is an adverb that can go in initial position in a sentence. Example: ***Sometimes** I wish I had a different job.*

intensifying making stronger, more emphatic. *Very* and *terribly* are intensifying adverbs.

interrogative Interrogative structures and words are used for asking questions. In an interrogative sentence, there is an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be*) before the subject (e.g. *Can you swim?; Are you ready?*). *What, who* and *where* are interrogative words.

intonation the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls to show meaning, sentence structure or mood.

intransitive An intransitive verb is one that cannot have an object or be used in the passive. Examples: *smile; fall; come; go.*

inversion a structure in which an auxiliary or other verb comes before its subject. Examples: *Never **had she** seen such a mess; Here **comes John**.*

irregular not following the normal rules. or not having the usual form. An irregular verb has a past tense and/or past participle that does not end in *-ed* (e.g. *swam, taken*); *children* is an irregular plural.

link verb (or **copular verb**) *be, seem, feel* and other verbs which link a subject to a complement that describes it. Examples: *My mother **is** in Jersey; He **seems** unhappy; This **feels** soft.*

main clause, subordinate clause Some sentences consist of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A subordinate clause acts like a part of the main clause (e.g. like a subject, or an object, or an adverbial). Examples: ***Where she is** doesn't matter* (the subordinate clause *Where she is* is the subject of the main clause); *I told you **that I didn't care*** (the subordinate clause *that I didn't care* is the direct object in the main clause); *You'll find friends **wherever you go*** (the subordinate clause *wherever you go* acts like an adverb in the main clause: compare *You'll find friends **anywhere***).

main verb (or **full verb**) A verb phrase often contains one or more auxiliary verbs together with a main verb. The main verb is the verb which expresses the central meaning; auxiliary verbs mostly add grammatical information (for instance they may show that a verb is progressive, future, perfect or passive). Examples: *is going*; *will explain*; *has arrived*; *would have been forgotten*.

manner an adverb of manner describes how something happens. Examples: *well*; *suddenly*; *fast*.

mid-position If an adverb is in mid-position in a sentence, it is with the verb. Example: *I have never been to Africa*.

misrelated participle (also called **hanging** or **dangling participle**) a participle which appears to have a subject which is not its own. Example: *Looking out of the window, the mountains appeared very close*. (This seems to say that the mountains were looking out of the window.) The structure is usually avoided in careful writing because of the danger of misunderstanding.

modal auxiliary verb one of the verbs *can, could, may, might, must, will, shall, would, should, ought*.

modify An adjective is said to 'modify' the noun it is with: it adds to or defines its meaning. Examples: *a fine day*; *my new job*. An adverb can modify a verb (e.g. *run fast*), an adjective (e.g. *completely ready*) or other words or expressions. In *sports car*, the first noun modifies the second.

negative a negative sentence is one in which the word *not* is used with the verb. Example: *I didn't know*.

nominal relative clause a relative clause (usually introduced by *what*) which acts as the subject, object or complement of a sentence. Example: *I gave him what he needed*.

non-affirmative (also called **non-assertive**) The words *some, somebody, somewhere* etc are used most often in affirmative sentences. In other kinds of sentence they are often replaced by *any, anybody, anywhere* etc. Words like *any, anybody* etc are called 'non-affirmative' or non-assertive' forms. Other non-affirmative forms are *yet* and *ever*.

non-identifying (or **non-defining**) **relative clause** a relative clause which does not identify the noun it refers to (because we already know which person or thing is meant). Example: *There's Hannah Smith, who tried to steal my cat*. (The relative clause, *who tried to steal my cat*, does not identify the person – she is already identified by the name *Hannah Smith*.) See also **identifying relative clause**.

noun a word like *oil, memory, arm*, which can be used with an article. Nouns are most often the names of people or things. Personal names (e.g. *George*) and place names (e.g. *Birmingham*) are called 'proper nouns'; they are usually used without articles.

noun phrase a group of words (e.g. article + adjective + noun) which acts as the subject, object or complement in a clause. Example: *the last bus*.

number the way in which differences between singular and plural are shown grammatically. The differences between *house* and *houses*, *mouse* and *mice*, *this* and *these* are differences of number.

object a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes after the verb in an active clause. The direct object most often refers to a person or thing (or people or things) affected by the action of the verb. In the sentence *Take the dog for a walk, the dog* is the direct object. The indirect object usually refers to a person (or people) who receive(s) the direct object. In the sentence *Ann gave me a watch*, the indirect object is *me*, and the direct object is *a watch*. See also **subject**.

participle see **present participle** and **past participle**.

participle clause a clause-like structure which contains a participle, not a verb tense. Examples: *Discouraged by his failure, he resigned from his job*; *Having a couple of hours to spare, I went to see a film*.

passive A passive verb form is made with *be* + past participle. Examples: *is broken*; *was told*; *will be helped* (but not *breaks, told, will help*, which are active verb forms). The subject of a passive verb form is usually the person or thing that is affected by the action of the verb. Compare: *They sent Lucas to prison for five years* (active) and *Lucas was sent to prison for five years* (passive). See also **active**.

past participle a verb form like *broken, gone, stopped*, which can be used to form perfect tenses and passives, or as an adjective. (The meaning is not necessarily past, in spite of the name.)

past perfect a verb form made with *had* + past participle. Examples: *I had forgotten*; *The children had arrived*; *She had been working*; *It had been raining*. The first two examples are simple past perfect; the last two (with *had been* + ...*ing*) are past perfect progressive (or continuous).

past progressive (or continuous) a verb form made with *was/were* + ...*ing*. Examples: *I was going*; *They were stopping*.

past simple see **simple past**.

perfect a verb form made with the auxiliary *have* + past participle. Examples: *I have forgotten*; *She had failed*; *having arrived*; *to have finished*.

perfect conditional *should/would have* + past participle. Examples: *I should/would have agreed*; *He would have known*.

perfect infinitive *(to) have* + past participle. Example: *to have arrived*.

person the way in which, in grammar, we show the difference between the person(s) speaking (*first person*), the person(s) spoken to (*second person*), and the person, people or thing(s) spoken about (*third person*). The differences between *I* and *you*, or between *am, are* and *is*, are differences of person.

personal pronouns the words *I, me, you, he, him* etc.

phrase two or more words that function together as a group. Examples: *dead tired*; *the silly old woman*; *would have been repaired*; *in the country*.

phrasal verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb + adverb particle. Examples: *fill up*; *run over*; *take in*.

plural grammatical form used to refer to more than one person or thing. Examples: *we*; *buses*; *children*; *are*; *many*; *these*. See also **singular**.

possessive a form used to show possession and similar ideas. Examples: *John's*; *our*; *mine*.

possessive pronoun *My, your, his, her* etc are possessive pronouns (they stand for 'the speaker's', 'the hearer's', 'that person's' etc). *Mine, yours, his, hers* etc are also possessive pronouns, for the same reason. *My, your* etc are used before nouns, so they are not only pronouns, but also determiners. (They are often called 'possessive adjectives', but this is not correct.) *Mine, yours* etc are used without following nouns.

postmodifier a word that comes after the word which it modifies, e.g. *invited* in *The people **invited** all came late.* See also **premodifier.**

predicative Adjectives placed after a verb like *be, seem, look* are in predicative position. Examples: *The house is **enormous**; She looks **happy**.* See also **attributive.**

prefix a form like *ex-, anti-* or *un-*, which can be added to the front of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: ***ex-**wife, **anti-**British, **un**happy.* See also **suffix.**

premodifier a word that comes before the word which it modifies, e.g. *invited* in *an **invited** audience.* See also **postmodifier.**

preparatory subject, preparatory object When the subject of a sentence is an infinitive or a clause, we usually put it towards the end of the sentence and use the pronoun *it* as a preparatory subject. Example: *It is important **to get enough sleep**. It* can also be used as a preparatory object in certain structures. Example: *He made **it** clear **that he disagreed**. There* is used as a kind of preparatory subject in *there is* . . . and similar structures. Example: *There is somebody at the door.*

preposition a word like *on, off, of, into*, normally followed by a noun or pronoun.

prepositional verb a verb form that is made up of two parts: verb form + preposition. Examples: *insist on; care for; listen to.*

present participle the form of a verb ending in *-ing*, used as an adjective, a verb or part of a verb. Examples: *a **crying** baby; **Opening** his newspaper, he started to read; She was **running**.* (The meaning is not necessarily present, in spite of the name.) See also **gerund.**

present perfect a verb form made with *have/has* + past participle. Examples: *I **have forgotten**; The children **have arrived**; I've **been working** all day; It has **been raining**.* The first two examples are simple present perfect; the last two (with *have been* + . . .*ing*) are present perfect progressive (or present perfect continuous).

present progressive (or **continuous**) a verb form made with *am/are/is* + . . .*ing*. Examples: *I **am going**; She **is staying** for two weeks.*

present simple see **simple present.**

progressive (or **continuous**) A verb form made with the auxiliary *be* + . . .*ing*. Examples: *to **be going**; We **were wondering**; I'll **be seeing** you.*

progressive (or **continuous**) **infinitive** a form like *to **be going**; to **be waiting**.*

pronoun a word like *it, yourself, their*, which is used instead of a more precise noun or noun phrase (like *the cat, Peter's self, the family's*). The word *pronoun* can also be used for a determiner when this includes the meaning of a following noun which has been left out. Example: *I'll take **these**.*

proper noun or **proper name** a noun (most often with no article) which is the name of a particular person, place, organisation etc. Examples: *Andrew, Brazil; the European Union.*

quantifier a determiner like *many, few, little, several*, which is used in a noun phrase to show how much or how many we are talking about.

question tag an expression like *do you?* or *isn't it?*, consisting of an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be* or *have*) + pronoun subject, put on to the end of a sentence. Examples: *You don't eat meat, **do you?**; It's a nice day, **isn't it?***

reflexive pronoun *myself yourself, himself* etc. Example: *I cut **myself** shaving this morning.* See also **emphatic pronoun.**

regular following the normal rules or having the usual form. *Hoped* is a regular past tense; *cats* is a regular plural. See also **irregular**.

relative clause a clause which modifies a noun, usually introduced by a relative pronoun like *who* or *which*. Example: *I like people **who** like me.* See also **identifying relative clause**, **non-identifying relative clause**.

relative pronoun a pronoun used to connect a relative clause to its noun. *Who, whom, whose, which* and *that* can be used as relative pronouns, and sometimes also *when, where* and *why*. Examples: *There's the man **who** wants to buy my car; This is the room **which** needs painting; Do you remember the day **when** we met?*

reply question a question (similar in structure to a question tag) used to reply to a statement, for instance to express interest. Example: *I've been invited to spend the weekend in London.~**Have you, dear?***

second person see **person**.

sentence a group of words that expresses a statement, command, question or exclamation. A sentence consists of one or more clauses, and usually has at least one subject and verb. In writing, it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.

short answer an answer consisting of a subject and an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be* or *have*). Examples: *Has anybody phoned the police?~**John has.**; Who's ready for more?~**I am.***

simple past (or **past simple**) a past verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: *I **stopped**; You **heard**; We **knew**.*

simple present (or **present simple**) a present verb form that has no auxiliary verb in the affirmative. Examples: *He **goes** there often; I **know**; I **like** chocolate.*

simple a verb form that is not progressive.

singular a grammatical form used to talk about one person, thing, etc, or about an uncountable quantity or mass. Examples: *me; bus; water; is; much; this*. See also plural.

slang a word, expression or special use of language found mainly in very informal speech, often in the usage of particular groups of people. Examples: *thick* (= stupid); *lose one's cool* (= get upset); *sparks* (= electrician).

split infinitive a structure in which an adverb comes between *to* and the rest of the infinitive. Example: *to easily understand*. Some people consider split infinitives 'incorrect', but they are common in standard usage.

standard A standard form of a language is the one that is most generally accepted for use in government, the law, business, education and literature. *I'm not* is standard English; *I ain't* is non-standard.

statement a sentence which gives information; not a question. Examples: *I'm cold; Philip didn't come home last night.*

stress the way in which one or more parts of a word, phrase or sentence are made to sound more important than the rest, by using a louder voice and/or higher pitch. In the word *particular*, the main stress is on the second syllable (*parTIcular*); in the sentence *Where's the new secretary?* there are three stresses (*WHERE'S the NEW SEcretary?*).

strong form, weak form Certain words can be pronounced in two ways: slowly and carefully with the vowel that is written (strong form), or with a quicker pronunciation with the vowel /ə/ or /ɪ/ (weak form). Examples: *can* (/kæn/, /kən/), *was* (/wɒz/, /wəz/), *for* (/fɔ:(r)/, /fə(r)/).

subject a noun phrase or pronoun that normally comes before the verb in an affirmative clause. It often says (in an active clause) who or what does the action that the verb refers to. Examples: *Helen gave me a wonderful smile; Oil floats on water.* See also **object**.

subjunctive a verb form (not very common in British English) used in certain structures. Examples: *If I were you . . .; It's important that he be informed immediately; We prefer that he pay in cash.*

subordinate clause a clause which functions as part of another clause, for example as subject, object or adverbial in the main clause of a sentence. Examples: *I thought that you understood; What I need is a drink; I'll follow you wherever you go.* See also **clause, main clause.**

suffix a form like *-ology, -able* or *-ese,* which can be added to the end of a word to give an additional or different meaning. Examples: *climatology; understandable; Chinese.* See also **prefix.**

superlative the form of an adjective or adverb made with the suffix *-est* (e.g. *oldest, fastest*); also the structure *most* + adjective/adverb, used in the same way (e.g. *most intelligent, most politely*).

swearword a taboo word used (usually with a change of meaning) to express strong emotion or emphasis. Example: *Fuck!*

syllable The word *cat* has one syllable, *cattle* has two, *cataract* has three and *category* has four. A syllable normally has a vowel, and usually one or more consonants before and/or after it. Sometimes the consonant sounds *l, m* and *n* can act as syllables (for instance in the words *bottle* /ˈbɒtl/, *capitalism* /ˈkæpɪtəlɪzm/, *button* /ˈbʌtn/).

taboo word a word (e.g. *fuck*) connected with a subject (such as sex) which is not talked about freely, so that some of its vocabulary is considered shocking. Taboo words are not used in formal speech or writing, and are avoided altogether by many people. See also **swearword.**

tag a short phrase (e.g. pronoun subject + auxiliary verb) added on to the end of a sentence, especially in speech. Examples: *He likes to talk, John does; You can't swim, can you?; Very noisy, those kids.* See also **question tag.**

tense a verb form that shows the time of an action, event or state. Examples: *will go; is sitting; saw.*

third person see **person.**

transitive a transitive verb is one that can have an object. Examples: *eat (a meal); drive (a car); give (a present).* See also **intransitive.**

uncountable noun a noun which has no plural form and cannot normally be used with the article *a/an.* Examples: *mud; rudeness; furniture.*

verb a word like *ask, wake, play, be, can,* which can be used with a subject to form the basis of a clause. In clauses, verbs often consist of an auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle (e.g. *will go; has spoken*). Most verbs refer to actions, events or states. See also **auxiliary verb, modal auxiliary verb, verb phrase.**

verb phrase a verb that has more than one part. Example: *would have been forgotten.*

vowel the letters *a, e, i, o, u* and their combinations, and their usual sounds (see phonetic alphabet, page xxx). See also **consonant.**

weak form see **strong form.**

Don't say it! 130 common mistakes

35 basic mistakes to avoid. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
Look – it rains.	Look – it's raining	461-464
It's often raining here.	It often rains here.	461-464
When I was 20 I was smoking.	When I was 20 I smoked.	422
I have seen Louis yesterday.	I saw Louis yesterday.	456
We're living here since April.	We've been living here since April.	460
I'll phone you when I will arrive.	I'll phone you when I arrive.	212
I'm not believing him.	I don't believe him.	471
I am born in Chicago.	I was born in Chicago.	108
My sister has 15 years.	My sister is 15 (years old).	32
I have cold in this house.	I am cold in this house.	92
I can to swim.	I can swim.	121
I must see the dentist yesterday.	I had to see the dentist yesterday.	358
I want go home.	I want to go home.	613
I came here for study English.	I came here to study English.	289
I drove there without to stop.	I drove there without stopping.	298
Where I can buy stamps?	Where can I buy stamps?	480
Is ready my new office?	Is my new office ready?	480
I'm no asleep.	I'm not asleep.	382
She looked, but she didn't see nothing.	. . . she didn't see anything. / . . . she saw nothing.	370
Where is station?	Where is the station?	62
My sister is photographer.	My sister is a photographer.	62
You speak a very good English.	You speak very good English.	149
The life is difficult.	Life is difficult.	68
I haven't got some free time today.	I haven't got any free time today.	547
Everybody were late.	Everybody was late.	548
It is more cold today.	It is colder today.	137
It's too much hot in this house.	It's too hot in this house.	595
The man which lives here is from Greece.	The man who lives here is from Greece.	494
The people in this town is very friendly.	The people in this town are very friendly.	524
She never listens me.	She never listens to me.	449
We went at the seaside on Sunday.	We went to the seaside on Sunday.	80
I like very much skiing.	I very much like skiing. / I like skiing very much.	611
This soup isn't enough hot.	This soup isn't hot enough.	187
I gave to her my address.	I gave her my address.	610
I have done a mistake.	I have made a mistake.	160

35 mistakes that intermediate students often make. Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
I promise I pay you tomorrow.	I promise I'll pay you tomorrow.	217
This is the first time I'm here.	... the first time I've been here.	591
I've been here since three days.	... for three days.	208
If I'll have time, I'll go home.	If I have time, ...	257
If I knew the price, I will tell you.	... I would tell you.	258
He said me that he was Chinese.	He told me that he was Chinese.	504
She told me she has a headache.	She told me she had a headache.	275
There's the man that I work for him.	There's the man that I work for.	494
I've told you all what I know.	... all (that) I know.	494
Although it was late, but she went out.	Although it was late, she went out.	511
You have better to see the doctor.	You had better see the doctor.	230
I use to play tennis at weekends.	I play tennis at weekends.	604
It can rain this evening.	It may/might/could rain ...	345
My parents wanted that I study.	My parents wanted me to study.	283
You must stop to smoke.	... stop smoking.	299
I look forward to see you.	I look forward to seeing you.	298
I'm boring in the lessons.	I'm bored in the lessons.	409
He has much money.	He has a lot of / plenty of money.	357
Most of people agree with me.	Most people ...	356
I looked at me in the mirror.	I looked at myself ...	493
We waited during six hours.	... for six hours.	167
I like eating chocolate milk.	... milk chocolate.	385
Come here and look at that paper.	Come here and look at this paper.	589
We go there every Saturdays.	... every Saturday.	193
Which is the biggest city of the world?	... the biggest city in the world?	139
I'm thinking to change my job.	I'm thinking of changing my job.	588
Can you give me an information?	... some information?	148
He's married with a doctor.	He's married to a doctor.	449
Can you mend this until Tuesday?	... by Tuesday?	602
There's a hotel in front of our house.	... opposite our house.	402
I like warm countries, as Spain.	... warm countries, like Spain.	326
Please explain me what you want.	... explain to me ...	198
When you come, take your bike.	... bring your bike.	112
My brother has got a new work.	... a new job.	148
He's Dutch, or better Belgian.	He's Dutch, or rather Belgian.	157

Even advanced students make mistakes. Here are 35.
Check in the sections to see why they're wrong.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
I'll ask you in case I need help.	I'll ask you if I need help.	271
I object to tell them my age.	I object to telling them my age.	298
I like the 60s music.	I like 60s music. / the music of the 60s.	69
ten thousand, a hundred and six	ten thousand, one hundred ...	389
'Who's that?' ~ 'He's John.'	... 'It's John.'	428
I don't like to be shouted.	I don't like to be shouted at.	416
It's ages since she's arrived.	It's ages since she arrived.	522
The police is looking for him.	The police are looking ...	524
Prices are surely rising fast.	Prices are certainly rising fast.	573
I have big respect for her ideas.	... great respect ...	106
I don't like nowadays fashions.	... today's/modern fashions.	388
She passed her exam, what surprised everybody.	... which surprised everybody.	494
I've good knowledge of German.	... a good knowledge of German.	149
Finally! Where have you been?	At last! ...	204
I'll be home since 3 o' clock.	... from 3 o' clock.	308
We waited one and a half hour.	... one and a half hours.	231
It's time they go home.	It's time they went home.	306
I'll see you a few days later.	... in a few days.	315
All along the centuries, there have been wars.	All through the centuries ...	45
I want a completely other colour.	... a completely different colour.	54
Let's go and have coffee to Marcel's.	... at Marcel's.	80
That's mine – I saw it at first!	... I saw it first!	84
Switzerland is among Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	... between Germany, France, Austria and Italy.	105
According to me, it's a bad film.	In my opinion / I think ...	8
It was a too good party to miss.	... too good a party ...	14
Whole Paris was celebrating.	The whole of Paris ...	40
I nearly wish I'd stayed at home.	I almost wish ...	43
One speaks Italian in my town.	We/They speak ...	396
The girl wants an own room.	... her own room.	405
Couldn't you help me, please?	Could you ...? / You couldn't ..., could you?	368
I'll try to know when it starts.	I'll try to find out when it starts.	313
I love this so beautiful country.	... this country – it's so beautiful.	538
It's getting winter.	It's getting to be winter.	223
Our flat is decorated this week.	... is being decorated ...	412
The Mont Blanc is 4808m high.	Mont Blanc is ...	70

Even *very* advanced students can make mistakes – nobody's perfect! Here are 25. Do you know why they're wrong? Check in the sections.

don't say/write	say/write	see section
No doubt the world is getting warmer.	There is no doubt that the world is getting warmer.	377
I can't think of anybody whom to invite.	I can't think of anybody to invite.	498
My father, whom we hope will be out of hospital soon, ...	My father, who we hope ...	498
Would you follow me wherever I would go?	... wherever I went?	580
We all have to live in the society.	... in society.	68
The number of the unemployed is going up.	The number of unemployed ...	70
She was showing tiredness signs.	... signs of tiredness.	382
She works the hardest when she's working for her family.	She works hardest ...	141
I'm thankful for your help.	I'm grateful ...	582
We talked about if it was ready.	... about whether it was ready.	453
What live in those little holes?	What lives ...	532
Some people are interested, but the majority doesn't care.	... the majority don't care.	526
It mustn't be the postman at the door. It's only 7 o' clock.	It can't be the postman ...	359
A third of the students is from abroad.	... are from abroad.	389
Except Angie, everybody was there.	Except for Angie ...	194
I wish you felt / would feel better tomorrow.	I hope you feel ...	630
The train may be late, as it happened yesterday.	... as happened yesterday.	581
When I wrote my letters, I did some gardening.	When I had written ...	424
When I had opened the door, the children ran in.	When I opened ...	424
Stefan can never return back to his country.	... return to his country. / ... go back to his country.	87
Will you go and see me when I'm in hospital?	... come and see me ...	134
May you go camping this summer?	Do you think you'll go ...	339
My cousin works for the NATO.	... for NATO.	2
My wife will be angry unless I'm home by 7.00.	... if I'm not home ...	601
We were poured water on.	We had water poured on us. / Water was poured on us.	416

Phonetic alphabet

It is necessary to use a special alphabet to show the pronunciation of English words, because the ordinary English alphabet does not have enough letters to represent all the sounds of the language. The following list contains all the letters of the phonetic alphabet used in this book, with examples of the words in which the sounds they refer to are found.

Vowels and diphthongs (double vowels)

iː seat /siːt/, feel /fiːl/
ɪ sit /sɪt/, in /ɪn/
e set /set/, any /ˈeniː/
æ sat /sæt/, match /mætʃ/
ɑː march /mɑːtʃ/, after /ˈɑːftə(r)/
ɒ pot /pɒt/, gone /gɒn/
ɔː port /pɔːt/, law /lɔː/
ʊ good /gʊd/, could /kʊd/
uː food /fuːd/, group /gruːp/
ʌ much /mʌtʃ/, front /frʌnt/
ɜː turn /tɜːn/, word /wɜːd/
ə away /əˈweɪ/, collect /kəˈlekt/, until /ənˈtɪl/

eɪ take /teɪk/, wait /weɪt/
aɪ mine /maɪn/, light /laɪt/
ɔɪ oil /ɔɪl/, boy /bɔɪ/
əʊ no /nəʊ/, open /ˈəʊpən/
aʊ house /haʊs/, now /naʊ/
ɪə hear /hɪə(r)/, deer /dɪə(r)/
eə air /eə(r)/, where /weə(r)/
ʊə tour /tʊə(r)/, endure /ɪnˈdjʊə(r)/

Consonants

p pull /pʊl/, cup /kʌp/
b bull /bʊl/, rob /rɒb/
f ferry /ˈferiː/, life /laɪf/
v veri /ˈveriː/, live /lɪv/
θ think /θɪŋk/, bath /bɑːθ/
ð then /ðen/, with /wɪð/
t take /teɪk/, set /set/
d day /deɪ/, red /red/
s sing /sɪŋ/, rice /raɪs/
z zoo /zuː/, days /deɪz/
ʃ show /ʃəʊ/, wish /wɪʃ/
ʒ pleasure /ˈpleʒə(r)/, occasion /əˈkeɪʒən/

tʃ cheap /tʃiːp/, catch /kætʃ/
dʒ jail /dʒeɪl/, bridge /brɪdʒ/
k case /keɪs/, take /teɪk/
g go /gəʊ/, rug /rʌg/
m my /maɪ/, come /kʌm/
n no /nəʊ/, on /ɒn/
ŋ sing /sɪŋ/, finger /ˈfɪŋgə(r)/
l love /lʌv/, hole /həʊl/
r round /raʊnd/, carry /ˈkæriː/
w well /wel/
j young/jʌŋ/
h house/haʊs/

The sign (ˈ) shows stress (see 554).

1 abbreviated styles

Some styles of writing and speech have their own special grammar rules, often because of the need to save space or time.

1 advertisements and instructions

Small ads and instructions often leave out articles, subject or object pronouns, forms of *be* and prepositions.

Single man looking for flat Oxford area. Phone 806127 weekends.
Job needed urgently. Will do anything legal. Call 312654.
Pour mixture into large saucepan, heat until boiling, then add three pounds sugar and leave on low heat for 45 minutes.

2 notes

Informal notes, to-do lists, diary entries etc often follow similar rules.

Gone to hairdresser. Back 12.30.
Book tickets phone Ann see Joe 11.00 meeting Sue lunch

The same style is common in postcards, short informal letters and emails (see 147).

Dear Gran
Watching tennis on TV. A good book. Three meals a day. No washing-up. Clean sheets every day. Everything done for me. Yes, you've guessed – in hospital!!
Only went to doctor for cold – landed up in hospital with pneumonia!! If you have time please tell the others – would love some letters to cheer me up. Hope to see you.
Love, Pam

3 commentaries

Commentaries on fast-moving events like football matches also have their own kind of grammar. Auxiliaries and other less important verbs are often left out.

Goal kick . . . And the score still Spurs 3, Arsenal 1 . . . that's Pearce . . . Pearce to Coates . . . good ball . . . Sawyer running wide . . . Billings takes it, through to Matthews, Matthews with a cross, oh, and Billings in beautifully, a good chance there – and it's a goal!

4 titles, notices etc

Titles, labels, headings, notices and slogans usually consist of short phrases, not complete sentences. Articles are often left out, especially in the names of buildings and institutions.

ROYAL HOTEL
INFORMATION OFFICE
MORE MONEY FOR NURSES!

5 headlines

News headlines have their own special grammar and vocabulary. For details, see 240.

RECORD DRUGS HAUL AT AIRPORT: SIX HELD
FOUR DIE IN M6 BLAZE

For other rules about leaving words out ('ellipsis'), see 177–182.

2 abbreviations and acronyms

1 punctuation

We usually write abbreviations without full stops in modern British English. Full stops (AmE 'periods') are normal in American English.

Mr (AmE *Mr.*) = *Mister* (not usually written in full)
kg (AmE *kg.*) = *kilogram* *Ltd* = *limited* (*company*)

2 initial-letter abbreviations

Some abbreviations are made from the first letters of several words. This often happens with the names of organisations.

the BBC = *the British Broadcasting Corporation*

These abbreviations are most often stressed on the last letter.

the BBC /ðə biː biː ˈsiː/ *the USA* /ðə juː es ˈeɪ/

If one of these abbreviations has an article (*a/an* or *the*), the form and pronunciation of the article depend on the pronunciation of the first letter of the abbreviation. Compare:

- ***an** EU country*
  ***a** US diplomat* /ə juː . . ./ (NOT ~~*an US*~~ . . .)
- ***a** BA degree*
  ***an** MP* /ən em . . ./ (NOT ~~*a MP*~~)
- ***the** USA* /ðə juː . . ./ (NOT ~~/ðiː juː~~ . . ./)
  ***the** RSPCA* /ðiː ɑːr . . ./ (NOT ~~/ðə ɑːr~~ . . ./)

3 acronyms

Some initial-letter abbreviations are pronounced like words. These are often called *acronyms*. Articles are usually dropped in acronyms.

UNESCO /juːˈneskəʊ/ (NOT ~~*the UNESCO*~~) = *the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation*

Note that not all initial-letter abbreviations are pronounced as words.

the CIA /siː aɪ ˈeɪ/ (NOT ~~/ˈsɪə~~/) *the IRA* /aɪ ɑːr ˈeɪ/ (NOT ~~/ˈaɪrə~~/)

4 plurals

An apostrophe (') is sometimes used before the *s* in the plurals of abbreviations.

MP's, CD's OR (more often) *MPs, CDs.*

For abbreviations used in text messages (e.g. *hope 2 c u* for *hope to see you*), see 147.
For a list of common abbreviations, see a good dictionary.

3 [be] able

We use *able* especially in the structure ***be able*** + **infinitive**. This often has the same meaning as *can* (see 122). There is a negative form *unable*.

Some people are able to / can walk on their hands.
I am unable to / can't understand what she wants.

Can is preferred in the sense of 'know how to', and in expressions like *can see, can hear* etc (see 125).

***Can** you knit?* (More natural than *Are you able to knit?*)

I can see a ship. (More natural than *I am able to see a ship.*)
Be able is used in cases (e.g. future, present perfect) where *can/could* is not grammatically possible because it has no infinitive or participles (see 121.1d).
One day scientists will be able to find a cure for cancer.
(NOT ... ~~will can find~~ ...)
What have you been able to find out? (NOT ~~What have you could~~ ...?)
I might be able to help you. (NOT ~~I might can~~ ...)
Able is not often followed by passive infinitives.
He can't be understood. (More natural than *He's not able to be understood.*)
For differences between *could* and *was able*, see 122.5, 123.2.

4 about and on

Compare:
– *a book for children about Africa and its peoples*
a textbook on African history
– *a conversation about money*
a lecture on economics
We use *about* to talk about ordinary, more general kinds of communication. *On* suggests that a book, talk etc is more serious, suitable for specialists.

5 about to

***About* + infinitive** (with *to*) means 'going to very soon'; 'just going to'.
Don't go out now – we're about to have lunch.
I was about to go to bed when the telephone rang.
Not about to can mean 'unwilling to'.
I'm not about to pay 100 dollars for that dress.

6 above and over

1 'higher than': above or over

Above and *over* can both mean 'higher than'. *Above* is more common with this meaning.
The water came up above/over our knees.
Can you see the helicopter above/over the palace?

2 'not directly over': above

We use *above* when one thing is not directly over another.
We've got a little house above the lake. (NOT ... ~~over the lake.~~)

3 'covering': over

We prefer *over* when one thing covers and/or touches another.
There is cloud over the South of England.
He put on a coat over his pyjamas.
We use *over* or *across* (see 9) when one thing crosses another.
The plane was flying over/across Denmark.
Electricity cables stretch over/across the fields. ▸

4 measurements: *above*

Above is used in measurements of temperature and height, and in other cases where we think of a vertical scale.

*The temperature is three degrees **above** zero.*
*The summit of Everest is about 8000 metres **above** sea level.*
*She's well **above** average in intelligence.*

5 ages, speeds, 'more than': *over*

We usually use *over*, not *above*, to talk about ages and speeds, and to mean 'more than'.

*You have to be **over** 18 to see this film.*
*The police said she was driving at **over** 110 mph.*
*There were **over** 100,000 people at the festival.*

6 books and papers

In a book or paper, *above* means 'written before'.

*The **above** rules and regulations apply to all students.*
*For prices and delivery charges, see **above**.*

See over means 'look on the next page'.

*There are cheap flights at weekends: see **over**.*

The difference between *below* and *under* is similar. See 100.
For other meanings of these words, see a good dictionary.

7 accept and agree

Before an infinitive, we usually use *agree*, not *accept*.

*I **agreed to meet** them here.* (More normal than *I accepted to meet* . . .)

8 according to

According to X means 'in X's opinion', 'if what X says is true'.

According to Harry, it's a good film.
*The train gets in at 8.27, **according to the timetable**.*

We do not usually give our own opinions with *according to*. Compare:

According to Ann, her boyfriend is brilliant.
(= If what Ann says is true, . . .)
In my opinion, Ann's boyfriend is an idiot. (NOT ~~According to me,~~ . . .)

9 across, over and through

1 on/to the other side of (line): *across* and *over*

Across and *over* can both be used to mean 'on or to the other side of a line, river, road, bridge etc'.

*His village is just **across/over** the border.*
*See if you can jump **across/over** the stream.*

2 high things: *over* preferred

We prefer *over* to say 'on/to the other side of something high'.
Why are you climbing over the wall? (NOT ... ~~*across the wall?*~~)

3 flat areas: *across* preferred

We usually prefer *across* to say 'on/to the other side of a flat area or surface'.
He walked right across the desert.
It took them six hours to row across the lake.

4 the adverb *over (to)*

Note that the adverb *over* has a wider meaning than the preposition *over*. We often use *over (to)* for short journeys.
I'm going over to John's. *Shall we drive over and see your mother?*

5 *across* and *through*

The difference between *across* and *through* is like the difference between *on* and *in*. *Through*, unlike *across*, is used for a movement in a three-dimensional space, with things on all sides. Compare:
- *We walked across the ice.* (We were on the ice.)
  I walked through the wood. (I was in the wood.)
- *We drove across the desert.*
  We drove through several towns.

For *over* and *above*, see 6.
For *across from* (AmE), see 402.1.
For other uses of these words, see a good dictionary.

10 active verb forms

1 future, present and past; simple, progressive and perfect

English verbs can refer to future, present or past time.
future: *She will see you tomorrow.*
present: *I'm watching you.*
past: *Who said that?*
For each kind of time, there are three possibilities with most verbs: simple, progressive (***be*** + ***-ing***) and perfect (***have*** + **past participle**).
simple present: *I start*
present progressive: *I am starting*
present perfect: *I have started*

2 verb forms ('tenses') and time

There is not a direct relationship between verb forms and time. For example, a past verb like *went* is not only used to talk about past events (e.g. *We went to Morocco last January*), but also about unreal or uncertain present or future events (e.g. *It would be better if we went home now*). And present verbs can be used to talk about the future (e.g. *I'm seeing Peter tomorrow*). Also, progressive and perfect forms express ideas that are not simply concerned with time – for example continuation, completion, present importance. ▸

3 progressive forms

Progressive (or 'continuous') forms are used especially when we describe an event as going on or continuing (perhaps at a particular time, or up to a particular time). See 470–472 for more details.

*I can't talk to you now; I'm **working**.*
*When you phoned I **was working** in the garage.*
*I was tired because I **had been working** all day.*

4 perfect forms

Perfect forms are used, for example, when we want to suggest a connection between a past event and the present, or between an earlier and a later past event; or when we want to say that something is/was/will be completed by a particular time. See 427 for more details.

*I **have worked** with children before, so I know what to expect in my new job.*
*After I **had worked** with Jake for a few weeks, I felt I knew him pretty well.*
*I **will have worked** 10 hours by suppertime.*

Perfect progressive forms are also possible.

*I've **been working** all day.*

5 table of active verb forms

This is a list of all the active affirmative forms of an ordinary English verb, with their names, examples, and very brief descriptions of typical uses. For more information about the forms and their uses, see the entries for each one.

NAME	CONSTRUCTION	EXAMPLE	TYPICAL USE
(simple) future	***will*** + infinitive *I/we shall* also possible	*It **will rain** tomorrow.*	information about the future (see 212)
future progressive	***will be . . .ing*** *I/we shall* also possible	*This time tomorrow I'll **be lying** on the beach.*	continuing situation at a particular future time (see 220)
future perfect	***will have*** + past participle *I/we shall* also possible	*I **will have finished** the repairs by this evening.*	completion by a particular future time (see 219)
future perfect progressive	***will have been . . .ing*** *I/we shall* also possible	*In June I **will have been working** here for ten years.*	continuity up to a particular future time (see 219)
simple present	same as infinitive, but *-s* on third person singular (e.g. *I/you/we/they work; he/she works*)	*It **always rains** in November.*	'general' time; permanent situations (see 463)

NAME	CONSTRUCTION	EXAMPLE	TYPICAL USE
present progressive	*am/are/is . . .ing*	*I can't talk to you now; I'm working.*	actions continuing at the moment of speaking (see 464)
present perfect	*have/has* + past participle	*I have worked with children before, so I know what to expect.*	past action with some present connection (see 455)
present perfect progressive	*have/has been . . .ing*	*It has been raining all day.*	continuation up to the present (see 458)
simple past	regular verbs: infinitive + *-(e)d* irregular verbs: various forms	*I worked all last weekend. I saw John yesterday.*	past events (see 421)
past progressive	*was/were . . .ing*	*I saw John when I was coming out of the supermarket.*	action continuing at a particular past time (see 422)
past perfect	*had* + past participle	*I couldn't get in because I had lost my keys.*	action before a particular past time (see 423)
past perfect progressive	*had been . . .ing*	*I was tired because I had been working all day.*	continuation up to a particular past time (see 425)

For irregular past tenses and past participles, see 304.
For question forms, see 480. For negatives, see 367.
For the use of present forms to talk about the future, see 213–216.
For past verbs with present or future meanings, see 426.
For 'conditional' forms (*would* + infinitive), see 633 and 258–259.
For subjunctives (e.g. . . . *that she go*), see 567.
For passive verb forms, see 412.
For infinitives, see 280. For imperatives, see 268.
For *-ing* forms, see 293. For auxiliary verbs, see 85.
For verb forms constructed with modal auxiliary verbs, see 353.

11 actual(ly)

1 meaning and use

Actual means 'real'; *actually* means 'really' or 'in fact'.
They are used to make things clearer, more precise or more definite.

It's over 100 kilos. Let me look. Yes, the ***actual*** *weight is 108 kilos.*
I've got a new job. ***Actually****, they've made me sales manager.*
Did you enjoy your holiday? ~ Very much, ***actually****.*

Actual and *actually* often introduce surprising or unexpected information.

It takes me an hour to drive to work, although the ***actual*** *distance is only 20 miles.* ▸

*She was so angry that she **actually** tore up the letter.*
*How did you get on with my car? ~ Well, **actually**, I'm terribly sorry, I'm afraid I had a crash.*
*He's twelve, but he **actually** still believes in Father Christmas.*
They can be used to correct mistakes or misunderstandings.
*The book says she died aged 47, but her **actual** age was 43.*
*Hello, John. Nice to see you. ~ **Actually**, my name's Andy.*
Actually is more common in British than American English.

2 'false friends'

Actual and *actually* are 'false friends' for people who speak some languages. They do not mean the same as, for example, *actuel(lement)*, *aktuell*, or *attual(ment)e*. We express these ideas with *present, current, up to date; at this moment, now, at present.*
*What's our **current** financial position?*
(NOT ... ~~*our actual financial position?*~~)
*In 1900 the population of London was higher than it is **now**.*
(NOT ... ~~*than it actually is.*~~)

12 adjectives (1): normal position

1 two positions

Most adjectives can go in two main places in a sentence.

a with a noun, usually before it. This is called 'attributive position'.
*The **new** secretary doesn't like me.*
*He's going out with a **rich** businesswoman.*
In older English (see 392), it was quite common to put adjectives after nouns, especially in poetry and songs.
*He came from his palace **grand**.*
In modern English, this only happens in a few cases (see 13).

For adjectives before personal pronouns (e.g. *Poor you!*), see 429.7.

b after *be, seem, look, become* and other 'link verbs' (see 328). This is called 'predicative position'.
*That dress is **new**, isn't it?*
*She looks **rich**.* *I feel **unhappy**.*

2 adjectives used only before nouns

Some adjectives are used only (or mostly) before nouns. After verbs, other words must be used. Common examples:

elder and ***eldest*** Compare:
*My **elder** sister is a pilot.* *She's three years **older** than me.*
live /laɪv/ (meaning 'not dead') Compare:
*a **live** fish* *It's still **alive**.*
old (referring to relationships that have lasted a long time)
*an **old** friend* (not the same as *a friend who is **old***)
little (see 534) Compare:
*a nice **little** house* *The house is quite **small**.*

intensifying (emphasising) adjectives

*He's a **mere** child.* (BUT NOT ~~*That child is mere.*~~)
*It's **sheer** madness.* (BUT NOT ~~*That madness is sheer.*~~)
*You **bloody** fool!* (BUT NOT ~~*That fool is bloody.*~~)

3 adjectives used only after verbs

Some adjectives beginning with *a-*, and a few others, are used mainly after link verbs, especially *be*. Common examples: *afloat, afraid, alight, alike, alive, alone, asleep, awake.* Compare:

– *The baby's **asleep**.*
*a **sleeping** baby* (NOT ~~*an asleep baby*~~)
– *The ship's still **afloat**.*
*a **floating** leaf*

– *He was **afraid**.*
*a **frightened** man*

The adjectives *ill* (see 266) and *well* (see 617) are most common after verbs. Before nouns, many people prefer other words. Compare:

– *He's very **well**.*
*a **healthy/fit** man*

– *You look **ill**.*
*Nurses take care of **sick** people.*

4 verb + object + adjective

Another possible position for adjectives is after the object, in the structure **verb + object + adjective**.

*I'll get the car **ready**.*
*Do I make you **happy**?* *Let's paint the kitchen **yellow**.*

For the order of adjectives and other modifiers before nouns, see 15.
For *and* between adjectives, see 16.
For commas between adjectives, see 15.6.

13 adjectives (2): after nouns and pronouns

Adjectives come immediately after nouns in a few special cases.

1 fixed phrases

Adjectives come after nouns in some fixed phrases.

*Secretary **General***
*court **martial*** (= military court)
*Poet **Laureate***
*President **elect***
*God **Almighty!***
*Attorney **General***

The Secretary General of the United Nations has called for new peace talks.

2 *available, possible* etc.

Some adjectives can be used after nouns in a similar way to relative clauses. This is common with adjectives ending in *-able/-ible*.

*Send all the tickets **available** / **available** tickets.*
(= . . . tickets which are available.)
*It's the only **solution possible** / **possible** solution.*

Some adverbs can also be used like this.

*the woman **upstairs*** *the people **outside***

3 *present, proper*

Before a noun, *present* refers to time; after a noun it means 'here/there', 'not absent'. Compare:

the present members (= those who are members now)
the members present (= those who are/were at the meeting)

Before a noun, *proper* means 'real', 'genuine'. After a noun it refers to the central or main part of something. Compare:

Snowdon's a proper mountain, not a hill.
After two days crossing the foothills, they reached the mountain proper.

For the position and meaning of *opposite*, see 401.

4 expressions of measurement

Adjectives usually follow measurement nouns.

two metres high *ten years older* *two miles long* *six feet deep*

Exception: *worth* (e.g. *worth 100 euros*). See 632.

5 adjectives with complements

When an adjective has its own complement (e.g. *skilled in design*), the whole expression normally comes after a noun..

We are looking for people skilled in design. (NOT . . . ~~*skilled in design people.*~~)

A relative clause is often more natural.

We are looking for people who are skilled in design.

In some cases an adjective can be put before a noun and its complement after it. This happens with *different, similar, the same, next, last, first, second* etc; comparatives and superlatives; and a few other adjectives like *difficult* and *easy*.

a different life from this one *the second train from this platform*
the next house to the Royal Hotel *the best mother in the world*
(OR *the house next to the Royal Hotel*) *a difficult problem to solve*

6 *something, everything* etc

Adjectives come after *something, everything, anything, nothing, somebody, anywhere* and similar words.

Have you read anything interesting lately?
Let's go somewhere quiet.

14 adjectives (3): position after as, how, so, too

After *as, how, so, too* and *this/that* meaning *so*, adjectives go before *a/an*. This structure is common in a formal style.

as/how/so/too/this/that + adjective + *a/an* + noun

I have as good a voice as you. *She is too polite a person to refuse.*
How good a pianist is he? *I couldn't afford that big a car.*
It was so warm a day that I could hardly work.

The structure is not possible without *a/an*.

I like your country – it's so beautiful. (NOT ~~*I like your so beautiful country.*~~)
Those girls are too kind to refuse. (NOT ~~*They are too kind girls to refuse.*~~)

For the structure with adjective + *as* in expressions like *tired as I was . . .*, see 71.

15 adjectives (4): order before nouns

When several adjectives come before a noun (or when nouns are used like adjectives before another noun), they are usually put in a more or less fixed order. For instance, we say *a fat old lady*, NOT ~~*an old fat lady*~~; *a small round black leather handbag*, NOT ~~*a leather black round small handbag*~~. Here are the most important rules.

1 description before classification: *an old political idea*

Words which describe come before words which classify (say what type of thing we are talking about).

	description	classification	noun	
an	*old*	*political*	*idea*	(NOT ~~*a political old idea*~~)
the	*latest*	*educational*	*reform*	(NOT ~~*the educational latest reform*~~)
a	*green*	*wine*	*bottle*	(NOT ~~*a wine green bottle*~~)
	leather	*dancing*	*shoes*	(NOT ~~*dancing leather shoes*~~)

2 opinion before description: *a wonderful old house*

Words which express opinions, attitudes and judgements usually come before words that simply describe. Examples are *lovely, definite, pure, absolute, extreme, perfect, wonderful, silly.*

	opinion	description	noun	
a	*lovely*	*cool*	*drink*	(NOT ~~*a cool lovely drink*~~)
a	*wonderful*	*old*	*house*	(NOT ~~*an old wonderful house*~~)
	beautiful	*green*	*mountains*	(NOT ~~*green beautiful mountains*~~)
that	*silly*	*fat*	*cat*	(NOT ~~*that fat silly cat*~~)

3 order of descriptive words

The order of descriptive words is not completely fixed. Words for origin and material usually come last. Words for size, age, shape and colour often come in that order.

	size	age	shape	colour	origin	material	noun
a	*fat*	*old*		*white*			*horse*
a	*big*			*grey*		*woollen*	*sweater*
		new			*Italian*		*boots*
a	*small*		*round*	*black*		*leather*	*handbag*
an	*enormous*			*brown*	*German*	*glass*	*mug*
a	*little*	*modern*	*square*			*brick*	*house*

4 numbers

Numbers usually go before adjectives.

six large eggs *the second big shock*

First, next and *last* most often go before *one, two, three* etc.

the first three days (More common than *the three first days*)

my last two jobs ▸

5 noun modifiers after adjectives

Note that noun modifiers (which often classify, or refer to material) usually follow adjectives.

a big new car factory *enormous black iron gates*

6 commas

Before nouns, we generally use commas between adjectives (especially in longer sequences) which give similar kinds of information, for example in physical descriptions.

a lovely, long, cool, refreshing drink
an expensive, ill-planned, wasteful project

But commas can be dropped before short common adjectives.

a tall(,) dark(,) handsome cowboy

For *and* with adjectives, see 16. For commas with *and*, see 476.1.

16 adjectives (5): with and

When two or more adjectives (or other modifiers) come together, we sometimes put *and* before the last one and sometimes not. It depends partly on their position in the sentence.

1 after a verb

When adjectives come in predicative position (after *be*, *seem* and similar verbs – see 328), we usually put *and* before the last one.

*He was tall, dark **and** handsome.*
*You're like a winter's day: short, dark **and** dirty.*

In a very literary style, *and* is sometimes left out.

My soul is exotic, mysterious, incomprehensible.

2 before a noun

In attributive position (before a noun), *and* is less common.

an angry young man (NOT ~~*an angry and young man*~~)
a big beautiful garden

However, *and* is possible when the adjectives give similar kinds of information, especially when we are 'piling up' favourable or unfavourable descriptions.

a cruel (and) vicious tyrant *a warm (and) generous personality*
an ill-planned, expensive (and) wasteful project.

And is necessary when two or more adjectives (or other modifiers) refer to different parts of something, or different types of thing.

a yellow and black sports car
a concrete and glass factory
hot and cold drinks (= hot drinks and cold drinks)

We also use *and* when we say that something belongs to two or more different classes.

It's a social and political problem. *She's a musical and artistic genius.*

3 *nice and . . .*

In an informal style, the expression *nice and* is often used before another adjective or an adverb. It means something like 'pleasantly' or 'suitably'.

*It's **nice and warm** in front of the fire.* (= pleasantly warm)
*The work was **nice and easy**.*
*Now just put your gun down **nice and slow**.*

For more information about *and*, see 52
For commas with adjectives, see 15.6.

17 adjectives (6): without nouns

We cannot usually leave out a noun after an adjective.

*Poor **little boy**!* (NOT ~~*Poor little!*~~)
*The most **important thing** is to be happy.* (NOT ~~*The most important is to be happy.*~~)

But there are some exceptions.

1 well-known groups

The + **adjective** is used to talk about certain well-known groups of people who are in a particular physical or social condition. Common expressions:

the blind	*the handicapped*	*the old*	*the unemployed*
the dead	*the jobless*	*the poor*	*the young*
the deaf	*the mentally ill*	*the rich*	

*He's collecting money for **the blind**.*
*The **unemployed** are losing hope.*

The meaning is usually general; occasionally a limited group is referred to.

*After the accident, **the injured** were taken to hospital.*

These expressions are normally plural: *the dead* means 'all dead people' or 'the dead people', but not 'the dead person'.

Note that these expressions cannot be used with a possessive *'s*.

*the problems of **the poor*** OR ***poor people's** problems*
(NOT ~~*the poor's problems*~~)

Adjectives are normally only used in this way with *the* or a determiner like *many* or *more*.

*This government doesn't care about **the poor**.* (NOT . . . *about poor.*)
*There are **more unemployed** than ever before.*

However, adjectives without *the* are sometimes used in paired structures with *both . . . and . . .*

*opportunities for **both rich and poor***

2 adjectives of nationality

A few adjectives of nationality ending in *-sh* or *-ch* (see 364.3) are used after *the* without nouns. They include *Irish, Welsh, English, British, Spanish, Dutch, French.*

*The **Irish** are very proud of their sense of humour.* ▸

These expressions are plural; singular equivalents are for example *an Irishwoman, a Welshman* (NOT ~~*a Welsh*~~).
Where nouns exist, these are preferred to expressions with *the . . . ish*: we say *the Danes* or *the Turks* (NOT ~~*the Danish*~~ OR ~~*the Turkish*~~).

3 singular examples

In a few formal fixed phrases, ***the*** **+ adjective** can have a singular meaning. These include *the accused, the undersigned, the deceased, the former* and *the latter.*

The accused was released on bail.
. . . Mr Gray and Mrs Cook; the latter is a well-known designer.

4 abstract ideas

Adjectives are sometimes used after *the* to refer to general abstract ideas, especially in philosophical writing. (Examples: *the beautiful, the supernatural, the unreal.*) These expressions are singular.

She's interested in the supernatural.

5 choices

We sometimes leave out a noun that has already been mentioned, or which does not need to be mentioned, when thinking about a choice between two or more different kinds of thing.

Have you got any bread?~Do you want white or brown?
I'd like two large packets and one small.

Colour adjectives can sometimes have a plural *-s* in this situation.

Wash the reds and blues separately. (= red and blue clothes)

6 superlatives

Nouns are often left out after superlative adjectives.

I'm the tallest in my family. *We bought the cheapest.*

For other structures in which nouns can be left out, see 180.

18 adjectives (7): pronunciation of aged, naked etc

A few adjectives ending in *-ed* have a special pronunciation: the last syllable is pronounced /ɪd/ instead of /d/ or /t/(see 421.2).

aged /ˈeɪdʒɪd/ (= very old)	*blessed* /ˈblesɪd/
beloved /bɪˈlʌvɪd/	*dogged* /ˈdɒgɪd/
crooked /ˈkrʊkɪd/	*learned* /ˈlɜːnɪd/
cursed /ˈkɜːsɪd/	*sacred* /ˈseɪkrɪd/
naked /ˈneɪkɪd/	*wicked* /ˈwɪkɪd/
ragged /ˈrægɪd/	*wretched* /ˈretʃɪd/
rugged /ˈrʌgɪd/	*one/three/four-legged* /ˈlegɪd/

Note that *aged* is pronounced /eɪdʒd/ when it means 'years old' (as in *He has a daughter aged ten*), or when it is a verb.

19 adjectives (8): what can follow an adjective?

Many adjectives can be followed by 'complements' – words and expressions that 'complete' their meaning. Not all adjectives are followed by the same kind of complement. Some can be followed by **preposition + noun/-*ing*** (see 297).

*I'm **interested in** cookery.* *I'm **interested in** learning to cook.*

Some can be followed by infinitives (see 284).

*You don't look **happy to** see me.* *The soup is **ready to** eat.*

An infinitive may have its own subject, introduced by *for* (see 291).

*I'm anxious **for her to** get a good education.*

(= I'm anxious that she should get . . .)

Some adjectives can be followed by clauses (see 521, 567, 446–447).

*I'm **glad that** you were able to come.*

*It's **important that** everybody should feel comfortable.*

And many adjectives can have more than one kind of complement.

*I'm **pleased about** her promotion.* *I'm **pleased to** see you here.*

*I'm **pleased that** we seem to agree.*

We rarely put **adjective + complement** before a noun (see 13.5).

*He's a **difficult** person **to** understand.*

(NOT ~~*He's a difficult to understand person.*~~)

For the structures that are possible with a particular adjective, see a good dictionary.

20 adverb particles

1 adverb particles and prepositions

Words like *down, in, up* are not always prepositions. Compare:

– *I ran **down** the road.* – *He's **in** his office.*
*Please sit **down**.* *You can go **in**.*
– *Something's climbing **up** my leg.*
*She's not **up** yet.*

In the expressions *down the road, in his office* and *up my leg*, the words *down, in* and *up* are prepositions: they have objects (*the road, his office* and *my leg*). In *sit down, go in* and *She's not up*, the words *down, in* and *up* have no objects. They are adverbs, not prepositions.

Small adverbs like these are usually called 'adverb(ial) particles'. They include *above, about, across, ahead, along, (a)round, aside, away, back, before, behind, below, by, down, forward, in, home, near, off, on, out, over, past, through, under, up*. Many words of this kind can be used as both adverb particles and prepositions, but there are some exceptions: for example *back, away* (only adverb particles); *from, during* (only prepositions).

2 phrasal verbs

Adverb particles often join together with verbs to make two-word verbs, sometimes with completely new meanings (e.g. *break down, put off, work out, give up*). These are often called 'phrasal verbs'. For details of their use, see 599.

▶

3 adverb particles with *be*

Adverb particles are often used, rather like adjectives, as complements of the verb *be*.

Why are all the lights on? *Hello! You're back!*
The match will be over by 4.30.

For inverted word order in sentences beginning with an adverb particle (e.g. *Out walked Sarah*), see 303.

21 adverb position (1): introduction

Different kinds of adverbs go in different positions in a clause. Here are some general rules; for more details, see 22–25.
Note: in the following explanations, the word *adverb* is generally used both for one-word adverbs like *here, often*, and for longer adverb phrases like *in this house, once every six weeks.*

1 verb and object: *She speaks English well*

We do not usually put adverbs between a verb and its object.

adverb + verb + object

I often get headaches. (NOT ~~*I get often headaches.*~~)

verb + object + adverb

She speaks English well. (NOT ~~*She speaks well English.*~~)

But an adverb particle like *on, off, out* can go between a verb and a noun object.

Could you switch off the light?

2 front, mid- and end position

There are three normal positions for adverbs:

a front position (at the beginning of a clause)
Yesterday morning something very strange happened.

b mid-position (with the verb – for exact details see 24)
My brother completely forgot my birthday.
I have never understood her.

c end position (at the end of a clause)
What are you doing tomorrow?

3 what goes where?

Connecting adverbs (which join a clause to what came before) go in front position.

However, not everybody agreed.

Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *always, often*) and adverbs of certainty usually go in mid-position.

My boss often travels to America.
I've definitely decided to change my job.

Adverbs of manner (how), place (where) and time (when) most often go in end position.

*She brushed her hair **slowly**.* *The children are playing **upstairs**.*
*I phoned Alex **this morning**.*

Time adverbs can also go in front position.

Tomorrow I've got a meeting in Cardiff.

For more details about the position of these and other kinds of adverb, see the next four sections.

22 adverb position (2): front position

Adverbs that usually go in front position: connecting adverbs (e.g. *then, next*); comment adverbs (e.g. *fortunately, surprisingly*); *maybe, perhaps*.
Adverbs that can go in front position: some adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *sometimes*); adverbs of place; adverbs of time.

1 connecting adverbs: *then, next, ...*

These adverbs join a clause to what came before.
Examples: *then, next, besides, anyway, suddenly, however.*

*I worked until five o'clock. **Then** I went home.*
Next, I want to say something about the future.
Suddenly the door opened.
Some of us want a new system. However, not everybody agrees.

Other positions are possible.

*I went home **then**.* *Not everybody, **however**, agrees.*

2 comment adverbs: *fortunately, surprisingly, ...*

Adverbs which give the speaker's opinion of an action most often go in front position.

Fortunately, she has decided to help us. *Stupidly, I forgot my keys.*

Mid-position is also possible.

3 indefinite frequency: *usually, normally, ...*

Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and *occasionally* can go in front position (but they are more common in mid-position – see 24.)

Sometimes I think I'd like to live somewhere else.
Usually I get up early.

Always, ever, rarely, seldom and *never* cannot normally go in front position.

I always/never get up early. (NOT ~~*Always/Never I get up early*~~.)

However, *always* and *never* can begin imperative clauses.

Always look in the mirror before starting to drive.
Never ask her about her marriage.

4 certainty: *maybe, perhaps*

Maybe and *perhaps* usually come at the beginning of a clause.

Maybe I'm right and maybe I'm wrong.
Perhaps her train is late.

Other adverbs of certainty (e.g. *probably, definitely, certainly*) usually go in mid-position. ▸

5 place: *at the end of the garden, here, there*

Place adverbs most often go in end position, but front position is possible, especially in literary writing and if the adverb is not the main focus of the message. In this case the verb often comes before the subject (see 303).

At the end of the garden stood a very tall tree.
On the grass sat an enormous frog. *Down came the rain.*

Here and *there* often begin clauses. Note the word order in *Here/There is, Here comes* and *There goes.*

Here comes your bus. (NOT ~~*Here your bus comes.*~~)
There's Alice. *There goes our train!*

Pronoun subjects come directly after *here* and *there.*

Here it comes. (NOT ~~*Here comes it.*~~)
There she is. (NOT ~~*There is she.*~~)

6 time: *today, afterwards, in June, soon, every week*

Front position is common if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

Today I'm going to London. *In June we went to Cornwall.*
Afterwards we sat round and talked. *Soon everything will be different.*

End-position is also common; *soon* can go in mid-position.

Time expressions beginning *every* can go in front position.

Every week she has a new hairstyle.

But other expressions of definite frequency (e.g. *daily, weekly*) normally go in end position.

For *rarely, seldom, never, hardly* and *scarcely* in front position before verb + subject ('inversion'), see 302.7.

23 adverb position (3): end position

Adverbs of manner, place and time usually go in end position, often in that order. Adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *occasionally*) sometimes go in end position.

1 adverbs of manner

Adverbs of manner say how something happens or is done.

Examples: *angrily, happily, fast, slowly, well, badly, nicely, noisily, quietly, hard, softly.*

He drove off angrily. *She read the letter slowly.*
You speak English well. *John works really hard.*

Adverbs in *-ly* can also go in mid-position if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

She angrily tore up the letter. *I slowly began to feel better again.*

2 adverbs of place

Examples: *upstairs, around, here, to bed, in London, out of the window.*

*The children are playing **upstairs**.* *Come and sit **here**.*

*Don't throw orange peel **out of the window**.*

*She's sitting **at the end of the garden**.*

Front position is also possible, especially in literary writing and if the adverb is not the main focus of the message (see 22.5).

***At the end of the garden** there was a very tall tree.*

Adverbs of direction (movement) come before adverbs of position.

*The children are running **around upstairs**.*

3 adverbs of time and definite frequency

Examples: *today, afterwards, in June, last year, finally, before, eventually, already, soon, still, last, daily, weekly, every year.*

*I'm going to London **today**.* *What did you do **afterwards**?*

*She has a new hairstyle **every week**.*

Front position is also common if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

***Today** I'm going to London.* ***Every week** she has a new hairstyle.*

Finally, eventually, already, soon and *last* can also go in mid-position.

4 manner, place, time

Most often, adverbs of manner, place and time go in that order.

*Put the butter **in the fridge at once**.* (NOT ... ~~*at once in the fridge.*~~)

*Let's go **to bed early**.* (NOT ... ~~*early to bed.*~~)

*I worked **hard yesterday**.*

*She sang **beautifully in the town hall last night**.*

5 adverbs of indefinite frequency: *usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes* and *occasionally*.

These adverbs can go in end position if they are the main focus of the message (but they are more common in mid-position – see 24).

*I go there **occasionally**.* *We see her **quite often**.*

*I get very depressed **sometimes**.*

24 adverb position (4): mid-position

Adverbs that usually go in mid-position: adverbs of indefinite frequency (e.g. *sometimes*), certainty (e.g. *probably*) and completeness (e.g. *almost*). Adverbs that can go in mid-position: focusing adverbs (e.g. *just*), some adverbs of manner (e.g. *angrily*), comment adverbs (e.g. *fortunately*).

1 What exactly is mid-position?

Mid-position adverbs usually go before one-part verbs, after auxiliary verbs, and after *am/are/is/was/were*.

before one-part verbs

*I **always** play tennis on Saturdays.* (NOT ~~*I play always tennis*~~...)

*It **certainly** looks like rain.* *We **nearly** won the match.* ▸

after auxiliary verbs

*She **has never** written to me.* (NOT USUALLY *She never has written to me.*)
*He **was definitely** trying to get into the house.*
*The train **will probably** be late.* *You **can almost** see the sea from here.*

after *am/are/is/was/were*

*She **was always** kind to me.* (NOT USUALLY *She always was kind to me.*)
*It **is probably** too late now.* *I **am obviously** not welcome here.*

When there are two or more auxiliaries, the adverb usually goes after the first.
*You **have definitely been** working too hard.*
*She **would never have been** promoted if she hadn't changed jobs.*
When an auxiliary verb is used alone instead of a complete verb phrase (see 181), a mid-position adverb comes before it.
*Are you working? ~ I **certainly am**.*
*I don't trust politicians. I **never have**, and I **never will**.*
For some more advanced points, see paragraphs 8–11 below.

2 indefinite frequency (how often)

Examples: *always, ever, usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, seldom, never.*
*We **usually** go to Scotland in August.*
*It **sometimes** gets very windy here.* *I have **never** seen a whale.*
*You can **always** come and stay with us if you want to.*
*Have you **ever** played American football?*
*My boss is **often** bad-tempered.* *I'm **seldom** late for work.*
*We have **never** been invited to one of their parties.*
*She must **sometimes** have wanted to run away.*
Usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes and *occasionally* can also go in front or end position (see 22–23).
Sometimes I think I'd like to live somewhere else.
*I see her **occasionally**.*

3 adverbs of certainty

Examples: *probably, certainly, definitely, clearly, obviously.*
*He **probably** thinks you don't like him.*
*It **will certainly** rain this evening.* *There is **clearly** something wrong.*
*I **definitely** feel better today.* *The train has **obviously** been delayed.*
Maybe and *perhaps* usually come at the beginning of a clause (see 22).
Maybe I'm right and maybe I'm wrong.
Perhaps her train is late.

4 adverbs of completeness

Examples: *completely, practically, almost, nearly, quite, rather, partly, sort of, kind of more or less, hardly, scarcely.*
*I have **completely** forgotten your name.* *The house is **partly** ready.*
*Sally can **practically** read.* *I **kind of** hope she wins.*
*It was **almost** dark.* *It **hardly** matters.*

Adverbs of completeness usually follow all auxiliary verbs.

*I **will have completely** finished by next June.*

(NOT ~~*I will completely have finished*~~ . . .)

*Do you think the repair **has been properly** done?*

5 comment adverbs

Adverbs which give the speaker's opinion of an action sometimes go in mid-position.

*I **stupidly** forgot my keys.* *She has **fortunately** decided to help us.*

6 focusing adverbs

These adverbs 'point to' one part of a clause.

Examples: *also* (see 46–47), *just* (see 307), *even* (see 189), *only* (see 398), *mainly, mostly, either* (see 175), *or, neither* (see 374), *nor* (see 374).

*Your bicycle **just** needs some oil – that's all.*

*She **neither** said 'Thank you' **nor** looked at me.*

*He's been everywhere – he's **even** been to Antarctica.*

*We're **only** going for two days.*

*She's my teacher, but she's **also** my friend.*

*The people at the meeting were **mainly** scientists.*

Some of these adverbs can also go in other places in a clause, directly before the words they modify. For details, see the entries on each adverb.

*Only **you** could do a thing like that.* *I feel **really** tired.*

7 adverbs of manner

These adverbs say how something happens or is done.

Examples: *angrily, happily, slowly, suddenly, noisily, quietly, softly.*

Adverbs of manner most often go in end position (see 23), but adverbs ending in *-ly* can often go in mid-position if the adverb is not the main focus of the message.

*She **angrily** tore up the letter.* *I **slowly** began to feel better again.*

*We have **suddenly** decided to sell the house.*

*This time next week I'll be **happily** working in my garden.*

Mid-position (after all auxiliary verbs) is especially common with passive verbs.

*The driver **has been seriously** injured.*

8 mid-position (details): adverbs with negative verbs

In negative sentences, adverbs generally come before *not* if they emphasise the negative; otherwise they come after. Compare:

*I **certainly do not** agree.* *I **do not often** have headaches.*

Both positions are possible with some adverbs, often with a difference of meaning. Compare:

*I **don't really** like her.* (mild dislike)

*I **really don't** like her.* (strong dislike)

When adverbs come before *not*, they may also come before the first auxiliary verb; they always come before *do*.

*I **probably will not** be there.* (OR *I **will probably not** be there.*)

*He **probably does not** know.* (NOT ~~*He does probably not know.*~~)

Only one position is possible before a contracted negative.

*I **probably won't** be there.* ▸

9 mid-position (details): adverbs with emphatic verbs

When we emphasise auxiliary verbs or *am/are/is/was/were*, we put most mid-position adverbs before them instead of after. Compare:

– *She **has** certainly made him angry.*
  She certainly HAS made him angry!
– *I'm **really** sorry.*
  I really AM sorry.
– *Polite people **always** say thank-you.*
  ~ *Yes, well, I always DO say thank-you.*

10 mid-position (details): modal auxiliary verbs

When the first part of the verb phrase is a modal auxiliary (see 353), *used to* or *have to*, mid-position adverbs can come before or after the auxiliary.

*They **sometimes must** be bored.* (OR *They **must sometimes** be bored.*)
*She **could have easily** been killed.* (OR *She **could easily have** been killed.*)
*We **always used to** go to the seaside in May.* (OR *We **used always to** go ...* OR *We **used to always** go ...*)

11 mid-position (details): American English

In American English (see 51), mid-position adverbs are often put before auxiliary verbs and *am/are/is/was/were*, even when the verb is not emphasised. Compare:

*He **has probably** arrived by now.* (BrE normal)
*He **probably has** arrived by now.* (AmE normal, BrE emphatic)

As an extreme example, here are four sentences in a journalistic style taken from an American newspaper article on crime in Britain. The most normal British equivalents are given in brackets.

*'Britain **long has been** known as a land of law and order.'*
(BrE *Britain **has long been** known ...*)
*'... but it **probably will** lead to a vote ...'*
(BrE *... but it **will probably** lead ...*)
*'... the Labor Party **often has** criticized police actions.'*
(BrE *... the Labour Party **has often** criticised ...*)
*'... he **ultimately was** responsible for the treatment ...'*
(BrE *... he **was ultimately** responsible ...*)

25 adverb position (5): emphasising adverbs

Examples: *very, extremely, terribly, just* (meaning 'exactly' or 'a short time'), *almost, really, right.*

These adverbs go directly before the words that they emphasise or 'point to'.

*We all thought she sang **very** well.*
*Everybody was **extremely** annoyed with Julian.*
*I'm **terribly** sorry about last night.*
*I'll see you in the pub **just** before eight o'clock.*
*He threw the ball **almost** over the house.*
*I'm **really** tired today.*
*She walked **right** past me.*

Almost can also go in mid-position (see 24.4).

26 adverbs of manner and adjectives

1 adverbs of manner with verbs

Adverbs of manner say how something happens or is done.
Examples: *happily, terribly, fast, badly, well.*
These adverbs should not be confused with adjectives (*happy, terrible* etc). We use adverbs, not adjectives, to modify verbs.

verb + adverb

*She **danced happily** into the room.* (NOT ~~*She danced happy*~~...)
*She **sang badly**.* (NOT ~~*She sang bad.*~~)
*I don't **remember him very well**.* (NOT ...~~*very good.*~~)

But note that adjective forms are sometimes used as adverbs in an informal style, especially in American English (see 27).
*She talks **funny**.*

For the use of adjectives after link verbs like *look* or *seem*, see 328.

2 other uses

These adverbs can also modify adjectives, past participles, other adverbs and adverbial phrases.

adverb + adjective

*It's **terribly cold** today.* (NOT ...~~*terrible cold.*~~)

adverb + past participle

*This steak is very **badly cooked**.* (NOT ...~~*bad cooked.*~~)

adverb + adverb

*They're playing **unusually fast**.* (NOT ...~~*unusual fast.*~~)

adverb + adverbial phrase

*He was **madly in love with her**.* (NOT ...~~*mad in love*~~...)

For adjectives ending in *-ly*, see the next section.
For adverbs and adjectives with the same form, see the next section.
For the adjective *well*, see 617.
For the position of adverbs of manner, see 23.1, 22.7.
For spelling rules, see 557.

27 adverbs or adjectives? confusing cases

1 adjectives ending in *-ly*

Some words ending in *-ly* are adjectives, and not normally adverbs. Common examples: *costly, cowardly, deadly, friendly, likely, lively, lonely, lovely, silly, ugly, unlikely.*

*She gave me a **friendly** smile.*
*Her singing was **lovely**.*

There are no adverbs *friendly/friendlily, lovely/lovelily* etc.

*She smiled **in a friendly** way.* (NOT ~~*She smiled friendly*~~.)
*He gave **a silly laugh**.* (NOT ~~*He laughed silly*~~.)

Daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, early and *leisurely* are both adjectives and adverbs.

*It's a **daily** paper.* *It comes out **daily**.* *an **early** train* *I got up **early**.*

2 adjectives and adverbs with the same form; adverbs with two forms

Some adjectives and adverbs have the same form: for example, a *fast* car goes *fast*; if you do *hard* work, you work *hard*. In other cases, the adverb may have two forms (e.g. *late* and *lately*), one like the adjective and the other with *-ly*. There is usually a difference of meaning or use. Some examples follow; for more detailed information, check in a good dictionary.

bloody Some swearwords (see 575), including *bloody* (BrE), can be used both as adjectives and as adverbs.

*You **bloody** fool. You didn't look where you were going. ~ I **bloody** did.*

clean The adverb *clean* means 'completely' before *forget* (informal) and some expressions of movement.

*Sorry I didn't turn up – I **clean** forgot.*
*The explosion blew the cooker **clean** through the wall.*

dead The adverb *dead* is used in certain expressions to mean 'exactly', 'completely' or 'very'. Examples: *dead ahead, dead certain, dead drunk, dead right, dead slow, dead straight, dead sure, dead tired.*

Note that *deadly* is an adjective, meaning 'fatal', 'causing death'. The adverb for this meaning is *fatally*. Compare:

*Cyanide is a **deadly** poison.* *She was **fatally** injured in the crash.*

direct *Direct* is often used informally as an adverb.

*The plane goes **direct** from London to Houston without stopping.*
*50% cheaper – order **direct** from the factory!*

easy *Easy* is used as an adverb in some informal expressions.

*Go **easy**!* (= Not too fast!) *Take it **easy**!* (= Relax!)
Easy come, easy go. *Easier said than done.*

fair *Fair* is used as an adverb after a verb in some expressions.

*to play **fair*** *to fight **fair*** *to hit something **fair** and square*

For the adverb of degree *fairly*, see 199.

fast *Fast* can mean both 'quick' and 'quickly' (a *fast* car goes *fast*). *Fast* means 'completely' in the expression *fast asleep*, and it means 'tight', 'impossible to remove' in expressions like *hold fast, stick fast, fast colours.*

fine The adverb *fine* (= well) is used in some informal expressions.
That suits me fine. *You're doing fine.*
The adverb *finely* is used to talk about small careful adjustments and similar ideas.
a finely tuned engine *finely chopped onions* (= cut up very small)

flat *Flat* can be used as an adverb in a musical sense (*to sing flat* means 'to sing on a note that is too low'). In most other cases, the adverb is *flatly.*

free The adverb *free* (used after a verb) means 'without payment'; *freely* means 'without limit or restriction'. Compare:
You can eat free in my restaurant whenever you like.
You can speak freely – I won't tell anyone what you say.

hard The adverb *hard* means 'with a lot of force, energetically'.
Hit it hard. *I trained really hard for the marathon.*
Hardly means 'almost not'.
I've hardly got any clean clothes left.
Compare:
Ann works hard. *Her brother hardly works.*

For *hardly . . . when* in clauses of time, see 233.
For *hardly any, ever* etc, see 43.3.

high *High* refers to height; *highly* (rather formal) expresses an extreme degree (it often means 'very much'). Compare:
– *He can jump really high.* – *It's highly amusing.*
Throw it as high as you can. *I can highly recommend it.*

just *Just* is an adverb with several meanings (see 307). There is also an adjective *just*, meaning 'in accordance with justice or the law'; the adverb is *justly.*
He was justly punished for his crimes.

late The adverb *late* has a similar meaning to the adjective *late*; *lately* means 'recently'. Compare:
I hate arriving late. *I haven't been to the theatre much lately.*

loud *Loud* is often used informally as an adverb after a verb.
Don't talk so loud(ly) – you'll wake the whole street.
low *Low* is an adjective and adverb (*a low bridge, a low voice, bend low*).

most *Most* is the superlative of *much*, and is used to form superlative adjectives and adverbs (see 137).
Which part of the concert did you like most?
This is the most extraordinary day of my life.
In a formal style, *most* can be used to mean 'very' (see 356.7).
You're a most unusual person.
Mostly means 'mainly', 'most often' or 'in most cases'.
My friends are mostly non-smokers. ▸

pretty The informal adverb of degree *pretty* is similar to *rather* (see 199). *Prettily* means 'in a pretty way'. Compare:
*I'm getting **pretty** fed up.* *Isn't your little girl dressed **prettily**?*

quick In an informal style, *quick* is often used instead of *quickly*, especially after verbs of movement.
*I'll get back as **quick(ly)** as I can.*

real In informal American English, *real* is often used instead of *really* before adjectives and adverbs.
*That was **real** nice.* *He cooks **real** well.*

right *Right* with adverb phrases means 'just', 'exactly' or 'all the way'.
*She arrived **right** after breakfast.*
*The snowball hit me **right** on the nose.*
*Turn the gas **right** down.*
Right and *rightly* can both be used to mean 'correctly'. *Right* is only used after verbs, and is usually informal. Compare:
*I **rightly** assumed that Henry was not coming.* *You guessed **right**.*
*It serves you **right**.* (. . . *rightly* is not possible.)

sharp *Sharp* can be used as an adverb to mean 'punctually'.
*Can you be there at six o'clock **sharp**?*
It also has a musical sense (*to sing **sharp*** means 'to sing on a note that is too high'), and is used in the expressions *turn **sharp** left* and *turn **sharp** right* (meaning 'with a big change of direction').
In other senses the adverb is *sharply*.
*She looked at him **sharply**.*
*I thought you spoke to her rather **sharply**.*

short *Short* is used as an adverb in the expressions *stop **short*** (= 'stop suddenly') and *cut **short*** (= 'interrupt'). *Shortly* means 'soon'; it can also describe an impatient way of speaking.

slow *Slow* is used as an adverb in road signs (e.g. *SLOW – DANGEROUS BEND*), and informally after *go* and some other verbs. Examples: *go **slow**, drive **slow**.*

sound *Sound* is used as an adverb in the expression *sound asleep*. In other cases, *soundly* is used (e.g. *She's sleeping **soundly***).

straight The adverb and the adjective are the same. A *straight* road goes *straight* from one place to another.

sure *Sure* is often used to mean 'certainly' in an informal style, especially in American English.
*Can I borrow your tennis racket? ~ **Sure**.*
Surely (not) is used to express opinions or surprise (see 573 for details).
Surely house prices will stop rising soon!
*Surely you're **not** going out in that old coat?*

tight After a verb, *tight* can be used instead of *tightly*, especially in an informal style. Typical expressions: *hold **tight**, packed **tight*** (compare *tightly packed*).

well *Well* is an adverb corresponding to the adjective *good* (*a good singer sings well*). *Well* is also an adjective meaning 'in good health' (the opposite of *ill*). For details, see 617.

wide The normal adverb is *wide*; *widely* suggests distance or separation. Compare:
The door was wide open. *She's travelled widely.*
They have widely differing opinions.
Note also the expression *wide awake* (the opposite of *fast asleep*).

wrong *Wrong* can be used informally instead of *wrongly* after a verb. Compare:
I wrongly believed that you wanted to help me.
You guessed wrong.

3 comparatives and superlatives

Informal uses of adjective forms as adverbs are especially common with comparatives and superlatives.
Can you drive a bit slower? *Let's see who can do it quickest.*

4 American English

In informal American English, many other adjective forms can also be used as adverbs of manner.
He looked at me real strange. *Think positive.*

28 afraid

1 *afraid* and *fear*

In an informal style, *be afraid* is more common than *fear*.
Don't be afraid. (NOT ~~*Don't fear*~~) *She's afraid that I might find out.*
Are you afraid of the dark? *I'm not afraid to say what I think.*

2 *I'm afraid* = 'I'm sorry'

I'm afraid (that) often means 'I'm sorry to tell you (that)'. It is used to introduce apologetic refusals and bad news.
I'm afraid (that) I can't help you.
I'm afraid that there's been an accident.
I'm afraid so/not are used as 'short answers'.
Can you lend me a pound? ~ *I'm afraid not.*
It's going to rain. ~ *Yes, I'm afraid so.*

3 not used before a noun

Afraid is one of the adjectives that are not usually used before a noun in 'attributive position' (see 12). Compare:
John's afraid.
John's a frightened man. (NOT . . . ~~*an afraid man.*~~)

For information about *-ing* forms and infinitives after *afraid*, see 299.13.

29 after: adverb

1 *shortly after* etc.

After can be used in adverb phrases like *shortly after, long after, a few days after* etc.

*We had oysters for supper. **Shortly after**, I began to feel ill.*

In more exact expressions of time, *later* is more common.

*They started the job on the 16th and finished **three weeks later**.*

2 *after* not used alone

After is not normally used alone as an adverb. Instead, we use other expressions like *afterwards* (AmE also *afterward*), *then* or *after that*.

*I'm going to do my exams, and **afterwards** I'm going to study medicine.*
(NOT ... ~~*and after, I'm going*~~ ...)

30 after: conjunction

after + clause, + clause
clause + *after* + clause

1 use and position

The conjunction *after* joins one clause to another. *After* and its clause can come either before or after the other clause.

***After** I left school, I went to America.*
*I went to America **after** I left school.*

(In both cases the speaker left school first and then went to America. In the second example, the *after*-clause is given more importance because it comes at the end. Note the comma in the first structure.)

***After** he did military service, he went to university.*
(He did military service first.)
*He did military service **after** he went to university.*
(He went to university first.)

2 present with future meaning

We use *after* with a present tense to talk about the future (see 580).

*I'll telephone you **after** I arrive.* (NOT ... ~~*after I will arrive.*~~)

3 perfect tenses

In clauses with *after*, we often use present and past perfect tenses to show that one thing is completed before another starts.

*I'll telephone you **after** I've seen Jake.*
***After** I had finished school, I went to America.*

4 *after ...ing*

In a formal style, we often use the structure ***after** + **-ing**.*

***After** completing this form, give it to the secretary.*

After having + past participle is also possible when talking about the past.

*He wrote his first book **after** returning / **having** returned from Mongolia.*

31 after all

1 two meanings

After all can mean 'in spite of what was said before' or 'contrary to what was expected'. Position: usually at the end of a clause.

I'm sorry. I know I said I would help you, but I can't after all.
I expected to fail the exam, but I passed after all.

Another meaning is 'we mustn't forget that . . .', introducing an argument or reason which may have been forgotten. Position: at the beginning or end of a clause.

Of course you're tired. After all, you were up all night.
Let's finish the cake. Somebody's got to eat it, after all.

2 not used for 'finally'

After all does not mean 'finally', 'at last', 'in the end'.

After the theatre we had supper and went to a nightclub; then we finally went home. (NOT . . . ~~after all we went home.~~)

32 age

1 use of *be*

We most often talk about people's ages with ***be* + number**

He is thirty. (NOT ~~He has thirty.~~)

or ***be* + number + *years old*** (more formal: . . . *of age*).

He is thirty years old / of age. (NOT . . . ~~thirty years.~~)

We ask *How old are you?*, not normally *What is your age?*

2 *be* + . . . *age*

Note the structure ***be* + . . . *age*** (without a preposition).

When I was your age I was working. (NOT ~~When I was at your age~~ . . .)
The two boys are the same age. *She's the same age as me.*

3 prepositions

In other structures, *at* is common before *age*.

He could read at the age of three. (NOT . . . ~~in the age~~ . . .)
At your age I already had a job.

33 ago

1 word order: *six weeks ago*

Ago follows an expression of time.

I met her six weeks ago. (NOT . . . ~~ago six weeks.~~) *a long time ago*

2 tenses

An expression with *ago* refers to a finished time, and is normally used with a past tense, not a present perfect (see 455.5).

She phoned a few minutes ago. (NOT ~~She has phoned~~ . . .)
Where's Mike? ~ He was working outside ten minutes ago. ▸

3 the difference between *ago* and *for*

Ago says how long before the present something happened; *for* (with a past tense) says how long it lasted. Compare:

*He died **three years ago**.* (= three years before now)
(NOT ~~*He died for three years*~~. OR ...~~*for three years ago*~~.)
*He was ill **for three years** before he died.* (= His illness lasted three years.)

4 *ago* and *before* with time expressions: counting back

We use *ago* with a past tense and a time expression to 'count back' from the present; to say how long before now something happened.
We can use *before* in the same way (with a past perfect tense) to count back from a past moment (see also 96). Compare:

*I met that woman in Scotland **three years ago**.*
(NOT ...~~*three years before*~~ / ~~*before three years*~~.)
*When we got talking, I found out that I had been at school with her husband **ten years before**.* (NOT ...~~*ten years ago*~~.)

ago and *before*

I met her three years ago. I had been at school with her husband ten years before.

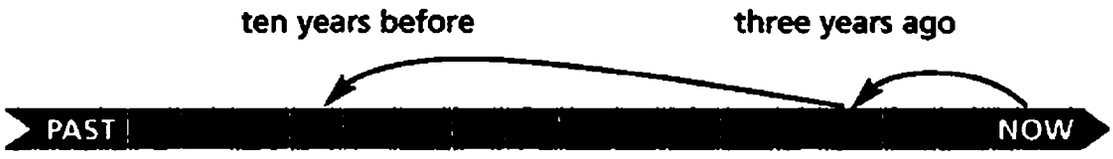

For other uses of *before*, see 97–98.

34 alike

The adjective *alike* means 'like each other'. Compare:

*The two boys are **alike** in looks, but not in personality.*
*He's **like** his brother.* (NOT ~~*He's alike his brother*~~.)

Alike is not often used before a noun (see 12). Compare:

*His two daughters are very much **alike**.*
*He's got two very **similar-looking** daughters.* (NOT ...~~*alike daughters*~~.)

35 all (1): introduction

1 three or more items

All refers to three or more items. Compare:

*I'll take **all** three shirts, please.*
*I'll take **both** shirts.* (NOT ... ~~*all two shirts*~~.)

2 *all (of)* with nouns and pronouns

All modifies nouns or pronouns.

All (of) the people were singing. *I haven't read all of it.*
Give my love to them all.

See 36 for details of word order, and the use of *all of*.

3 with the subject or the verb

When *all* modifies the subject, it can go either with the subject or with the verb.

All the people were singing. *The people were all singing.*

For more examples, see 36–37.

4 *all* without a noun

All can sometimes be used without a noun to mean 'everything' but only in certain structures (see 38).

All that matters is to be happy. *That's all.*

5 *all* with adjectives, adverbs etc

All can be used to emphasise some adjectives, prepositions and adverbs.

You're all wet.
I was all alone.
It's all because of you.
She walked all round the town.
Tell me all about your holiday.
I looked all round, but I couldn't see anything.

All, both and *half* follow similar grammar rules. For *both*, see 110; for *half*, see 231.

36 all (2): all (of) with nouns and pronouns

1 *all* and *all of*

All (of) can modify nouns and pronouns.
Before a noun with a determiner (for example *the, my, this*), *all* and *all of* are both possible. *All* is more common than *all of*.

She's eaten all (of) the cake. *All (of) my friends like riding.*

Before a noun with no determiner, we do not normally use *of*.

All children can be difficult. (NOT ~~*All of children*~~ . . .)

2 *all of* + personal pronoun

With personal pronouns, we use *all of* + *us/you/them*.
All of us/you/them can be a subject or object.

All of us can come tomorrow. (NOT ~~*All we*~~ . . .)
She's invited all of you. *Mary sent all of them her love.*

3 pronoun + *all*

We can put *all* after pronouns used as objects.

She's invited you all. *Mary sent her love to them all.*
I've made us all something to eat.

This does not happen with complement pronouns (after *be*) or in short answers.

*I think that's **all of them**.* (NOT ~~*I think that's them all.*~~)

*Who did she invite? ~**All of us**.* (NOT ~~*Us all.*~~)

All can follow a subject pronoun (e.g. ***They all** went home*), but in this case it belongs grammatically with the verb (see 37) and may be separated from the pronoun (e.g. ***They have all** gone home*).

For the American plural pronoun *you all*, see 429.8.

4 types of noun

All is used mostly before uncountable and plural nouns.

all the water *all my friends*

However, *all* can be used before some singular countable nouns referring to things that can naturally be divided into parts.

all that week *all my family* *all the way*

We can also use *all (of)* before proper nouns (e.g. the names of places or writers).

All (of) London knew about her affairs. *I've read all (of) Shakespeare.*

With other singular countable nouns, it is more natural to use *whole* (e.g. *the whole story*). For details, see 40.

5 leaving out *the*

After *all*, we sometimes leave out *the* before numbers.

all (the) three brothers

And we usually leave out *the* in *all day, all night, all week, all year, all winter* and *all summer*.

*She stayed here **all day**.* (NOT ... ~~*all the day*~~).

6 *not all ...*

It is not very common to use ***all* + noun** as the subject of a negative verb (e.g. *All Americans don't like hamburgers*). We more often use ***not all* + noun + affirmative verb**.

***Not all** Americans like hamburgers.*

Note the difference between *not all* and *no*. Compare:

Not all birds can fly.

No birds can play chess.

37 all (3): with the verb

When *all* refers to the subject of a clause, it can go with the verb, in 'mid-position' (for details of word order, see 24.)

*We can **all** swim.* *Those apples were **all** bad.*

*The guests **have all** arrived.* *My family **all** work in education.*

Note that these meanings can also be expressed by using ***all (of)*** with the subject (see 36).

All of us can swim. *All (of) the guests have arrived.*

38 all (4): all, everybody/everyone and everything

1 *all* and *everybody/everyone*

We do not normally use *all* without a noun to mean 'everybody'. Compare:
All the people stood up.
Everybody/Everyone stood up. (NOT ~~*All stood up.*~~)

2 *all* and *everything*

All can mean 'everything', but usually only in the structure ***all* + relative clause** (*all that* . . .). Compare:
– *All (that) I have is yours.* (NOT ~~*All what I have* . . .~~)
Everything is yours. (NOT ~~*All is yours.*~~)
– *She lost all (that) she owned.*
She lost everything. (NOT ~~*She lost all.*~~)
This structure often has a rather negative meaning, expressing ideas like 'nothing more' or 'the only thing(s)'.
This is all I've got. *All I want is a place to sit down.*
All that happened was that he went to sleep.
Note also *That's all* (= It's finished; There's no more).

3 older English

In older English, *all* could be used alone to mean 'everybody' or 'everything' (e.g. *Tell me all*; *All is lost*; *All are dead*). This only happens regularly in modern English in dramatic contexts like newspaper headlines (e.g. *SPY TELLS ALL*).

39 all and every

All and *every* can both be used to talk about people or things in general, or about all the members of a group. There is little difference of meaning; *every* often suggests 'without exception'. The two words are used in different structures.

1 *every* with singular nouns; *all* with plurals

Every is used with a singular noun. To give the same meaning, *all* is used with a plural noun. Compare:
– *Every child needs love.* (NOT ~~*All child needs love.*~~)
All children need love.
– *Every light was out.*
All (of) the lights were out.

2 *every* not used with determiners

We can use *all (of)*, but not normally *every*, with certain determiners (articles, possessives or demonstratives). Compare:
– *All (of) the plates were broken.*
Every plate was broken. (NOT ~~*Every the plate* / *The every plate* . . .~~)
– *I've written to all (of) my friends.*
I've written to every friend I have. (NOT . . . ~~*every my friend* / *my every friend.*~~)

▶

3 *all* with uncountables

We can use *all*, but not *every*, with uncountable nouns.
*I like **all music**.* (NOT ... ~~*every music*~~.)

4 *all day* and *every day* etc

Note the difference between *all day/week* etc and *every day/week* etc.
*She was here **all day**.* (= from morning to night)
*She was here **every day**.* (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, ...)

For the difference between *every* and *each*, see 170.

40 all and whole

1 pronunciation

all /ɔːl/ whole /həʊl/

2 word order

All (of) and *whole* can both be used with singular nouns to mean 'complete', 'every part of'. The word order is different.

all (of) + determiner + noun
determiner + *whole* + noun

– *Julie spent **all (of) the** summer at home.*
*Julie spent **the whole** summer at home.*

– ***all (of) my** life*
***my whole** life*

3 indefinite reference

All is not generally used before indefinite articles.
*She's eaten **a whole** loaf* (NOT ... ~~*all a loaf*~~.)

4 uncountable nouns

With most uncountable nouns we prefer *all (of)*.
*I've drunk **all (of) the** milk.* (NOT ... ~~*the whole milk*~~.)

5 *the whole of*

Instead of *whole* we can generally use *the whole of*,
*Julie spent **the whole of** the summer at home.*
***the whole of** my life*
Before proper nouns (names) and pronouns we always use *the whole of*, not *whole*. *All (of)* is also possible.
*The **whole of** / **All of** Venice was under water.* (NOT ~~*Whole Venice*~~...)
*I've just read **the whole of** / **all of** 'War and Peace'.*
*I've read **the whole of** / **all of** it.*

6 plural nouns

With plural nouns, *all* and *whole* have different meanings. *All* is like *every*; *whole* means 'complete', 'entire'. Compare:
***All Indian tribes** suffered from white settlement in America.* (= Every Indian tribe suffered ...)
***Whole Indian tribes** were killed off.* (= Complete tribes were killed off; nobody was left alive in these tribes.)

41 all right and alright

The standard spelling is *all right*. *Alright* is common, but some people consider it incorrect.

42 allow, permit and let

1 *allow* and *permit*

These words have similar meanings and uses. *Permit* is more formal. Both words can be followed by **object + infinitive**.

*We do not **allow/permit** people to smoke in the kitchen.*

When there is no personal object, an *-ing* form is used.

*We do not **allow/permit** smoking in the kitchen.*

Passive structures are common; personal subjects and gerund (*-ing* form) subjects are both possible.

*People are not **allowed/permitted** to smoke in the kitchen.*

*Smoking is not **allowed/permitted** in the kitchen.*

The passive structure with *it* is only possible with *permit*.

*It is not **permitted** to smoke in the kitchen.* (BUT NOT ~~*It is not allowed to smoke*~~...)

Allow, but not *permit*, can be used with adverb particles.

*She wouldn't **allow** me in.* *Mary isn't **allowed** out at night.*

2 *let*

Let is the least formal of these three words, and is followed by **object + infinitive** without *to*. Compare:

*Please **allow** me to buy you a drink.* (polite and formal)

*Let me **buy** you a drink.* (friendly and informal)

Let is not usually used in the passive.

*I wasn't **allowed** to pay for the drinks.* (NOT ~~*I wasn't let*~~...)

Let can be used with adverb particles; passives are possible in this case.

*She wouldn't **let** me in.* *I've been **let** down.*

For more about *let*, see 322–323.

43 almost and nearly; practically

1 progress, measurement and counting

Almost and *nearly* can both express ideas connected with progress, measurement or counting. *Nearly* is less common in American English.

*I've **almost/nearly** finished.*

*There were **almost/nearly** a thousand people there.*

Sometimes *almost* is a little 'nearer' than *nearly*. Compare:

*It's **nearly** ten o'clock.* (= perhaps 9.45)

*It's **almost** ten o'clock.* (= perhaps 9.57)

Very and *pretty* can be used with *nearly* but not *almost*.

*I've **very/pretty** nearly finished.* (NOT ...~~*very almost*~~...)

2 other meanings

We can use *almost* to mean 'similar to, but not exactly the same', and to make statements less definite. *Nearly* is not used like this.

*Jake is **almost** like a father to me.*
*Our cat understands everything – he's **almost** human.* (NOT ... ~~*he's nearly human.*~~)
*My aunt's got a strange accent. She **almost** sounds foreign.* (NOT ... ~~*She nearly sounds foreign.*~~)
I almost wish I'd stayed at home. (NOT ~~*I nearly wish*~~ ...)

3 *never, nobody, nothing* etc

We do not usually use *nearly* before negative pronouns or adverbs like *never, nobody, nothing*. Instead, we use *almost*, or we use *hardly* with *ever, anybody, anything* etc.

*She's **almost never / hardly ever** at home.* (NOT ... ~~*nearly never*~~ ...)
*Almost **nobody / hardly anybody** was there.*

4 *everybody, everything, anybody, anything* etc

We also prefer *almost* before *everybody/-one/-thing/-where*, and *almost* is much more common than *nearly* before *anybody/-one/-thing/-where*.

*She likes **almost everybody**.* *Almost **anybody** can do this job.*
*He's been **almost everywhere**.* *He eats **almost anything**.*

5 *practically*

Practically can be used in the same way as *almost*.

*I've **practically** finished.* *Jake is **practically** like a father to me.*
*She's **practically** never at home.*

44 alone, lonely, lonesome and lone

Alone means 'without others around'. *Lonely* (and informal AmE *lonesome*) means 'alone and unhappy because of it'. Compare:

*I like to be **alone** for short periods.*
*But after a few days I start getting **lonely/lonesome**.*

Alone can be emphasised by *all*.

*After her husband died, she was **all alone**.*

Alone is not used before a noun (see 12.3). *Lone* and *solitary* can be used instead; *lone* is rather literary.

*The only green thing was a **lone/solitary** pine tree.*

45 along

The preposition *along* is used with nouns like *road, river, corridor, line*: words that refer to things with a long thin shape.

*I saw her running **along the road**.*
*His office is **along the corridor**.*

To talk about periods or activities, we prefer *through*.
through the centuries (NOT ~~*along the centuries*~~)
all through the journey (NOT ~~*all along the journey*~~)
right through the meal
Note the special use of *along* as an adverb particle in expressions like *Come along* (= Come with me) or *walking along* (= walking on one's way).

46 also, as well and too

1 position

Also, *as well* and *too* have similar meanings, but they do not go in the same position in clauses. *Also* usually goes with the verb, in mid-position (see 24); *as well* and *too* usually go at the end of a clause. *As well* is less common in AmE.
She not only sings; she also plays the piano.
She not only sings; she plays the piano as well.
She not only sings; she plays the piano too.
As well and *too* do not go at the beginning of a clause. *Also* can go at the beginning of a clause to give more importance to a new piece of information.
It's a nice house, but it's very small. Also, it needs a lot of repairs.

2 reference

These words can refer to different parts of a clause, depending on the meaning. Consider the sentence *We work on Saturdays as well.* This can mean three different things:
a (Other people work on Saturdays, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
b (We do other things on Saturdays, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
c (We work on other days, and) we work on Saturdays as well.
When we speak, we show the exact meaning by stressing the word or expression that *also / as well / too* refers to.

3 imperatives and short answers

As well and *too* are used in imperatives and short answers, but not usually *also*.
Give me some bread as well, please. (More natural than *Also give me . . .*)
She's nice. ~ *Her sister is as well.* (More natural than *Her sister is also.*)
I've got a headache. ~ *I have too.* (More natural than *I also have.*)
In very informal speech, we often use *Me too* as a short answer.
I'm going home. ~ *Me too.*
More formal equivalents are *So am I* (see 541) or *I am too*, BUT NOT ~~*I also*~~.

4 *too* in a formal style

In a formal or literary style, *too* can be placed directly after the subject.
I, too, have experienced despair.

For *also, as well, too* and *either* in negative clauses, see 47.
For *also* and *even*, see 189.3.
For *as well as*, see 78.

47 also, as well, too and either in negative clauses

1 negative + negative: *either*

After mentioning a negative idea or fact, we can add another negative point by using *not ... either.*

Peter isn't here today. John isn't here either. (NOT ~~*John isn't here neither.*~~)

Also, as well and *too* are not normally used with *not* in this way.

You can't have an apple, and you can't have an orange either.

(NOT ... ~~*and you can't have an orange also*~~ / ~~*as well*~~ / ~~*too.*~~)

2 affirmative + negative: *also / as well / too*

After mentioning an affirmative (non-negative) fact or idea, we can add a negative point by using *not ... also, not ... as well* or *not ... too.*

You can have an apple, but you can't have an orange too.

He drinks too much, but at least he doesn't smoke as well.

48 alternate(ly) and alternative(ly)

Alternate(ly) means 'every second', 'first one and then the other', 'in turns'.

We spend alternate weekends at our country cottage.

I'm alternately happy and depressed.

Alternative(ly) is similar to 'different', 'instead', 'on the other hand'.

Janet's not free on the 27th. We'll have to find an alternative date.

You could go by air, or alternatively you could drive there.

49 although, though, but and however: contrast

1 *although* and *though*: conjunctions

Both these words can be used as conjunctions, with the same meaning. In informal speech, *though* is more common. They introduce an idea ('A') with which the main clause ('B') is in contrast. When we say '(Al)though A, B', there is something unexpected or surprising about 'B'.

(Al)though (A) I don't like him, (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(B) I'd quite like to go out, (al)though (A) it is a bit late.

2 *but* and *however*

We can give the same meaning by putting *but* or *however* with the contrasting, 'unexpected' clause ('B').

(A) I don't like him, but (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(A) I don't like him. However, (B) I agree that he's a good manager.

(A) It is a bit late, but (B) I'd quite like to go out.

(A) It is a bit late; however, (B) I'd quite like to go out.

3 *but* and *however*: the difference

But is a conjunction: it joins two clauses, and comes at the beginning of the second. *However* is an adverb: it does not connect its sentence grammatically

to the one before. This is why it comes after a full stop or a semi-colon in the above examples.
However can go in various positions. It is normally separated from its sentence by one or two commas, depending on its position.

However, the police did not believe him.
The police, however, did not believe him.
The police did not believe him, however.

4 *though* used as an adverb

We can use *though* as an adverb (often at the end of a sentence), to mean 'however'.

Nice day. ~ *Yes. Bit cold, though.*
The strongest argument, though, is economic and not political.

For *as though*, see 74.
For sentences like *Cold though it was, I went out*, see 71.

50 altogether and all together

Altogether means 'completely' or 'considering everything'.

My new house isn't altogether finished.
Altogether, she decided, marriage was a bit of a mistake.

Altogether can also be used to give totals.

That's £4.38 altogether.

All together usually means 'everybody/everything together'.

Come on, everybody sing. All together now ...
They all went to the cinema together.

51 American and British English

These two varieties of English are very similar. There are a few differences of grammar and spelling, and rather more differences of vocabulary and idiom. Modern British English is heavily influenced by American English, so some contrasts are disappearing. Pronunciation is sometimes very different, but most American and British speakers can understand each other easily.

1 grammar

Here are examples of the most important differences. In many cases, two different forms are possible in one variety of English, while only one of the forms is possible or normal in the other variety.

American English	British English
He just went home. (OR *He's just gone home.*)	*He's just gone home.* (See 307.2)
I've never really gotten to know her.	*I've never really got to know her.* (See 223.7.)
I (can) see a car coming.	*I can see* a car coming. (See 125.1.)

American English	British English
*Her feet were sore because her shoes **fit/fitted** badly.*	*Her feet were sore because her shoes **fitted** badly.* (See 304.3.)
*It's important that he **be** told.*	*It's important that he **should be** told.* (See 567.)
*Will you buy it? ~ I **may**.*	*... I **may (do)**.* (See 161.)
*The committee **meets** tomorrow.*	*The committee **meet/meets** tomorrow.* (See 526.1.)
(on the phone) *Hello, **is this** Susan?*	*Hello, **is that** Susan?* (See 589.5.)
*It **looks like** it's going to rain.*	*It **looks as if / like** it's going to rain.* (See 74.3.)
*He looked at me **real strange**.* (very informal) OR *He looked at me **really strangely**.*	*He looked at me **really strangely**.* (See 27.)
*He **probably has** arrived by now.* OR *He **has probably** arrived ...*	*He **has probably** arrived by now.* (see 24.11.)

Besides *get* and *fit*, some other irregular verbs have different forms in British and American English. For details, see 304.3.

For the Southern US second person plural pronoun *you all*, see 429.8.

2 vocabulary

There are very many differences. Sometimes the same word has different meanings (BrE *mad* = crazy; AmE *mad* = angry). And very often, different words are used for the same idea (BrE *lorry* = AmE *truck*). Here are a few examples, with very brief information about the words and their meanings. (A larger list with more complete information, can be found in *The British/American Dictionary* by Norman Moss, published by Hutchinson. This is unfortunately now out of print, but may be obtainable in libraries. A more recently published guide to British-American differences is: *Mighty Fine Words and Smashing Expressions – Making Sense of Transatlantic English*, edited by Orin Hargraves, Oxford University Press.)

American English	British English
airplane	aeroplane
anyplace, anywhere	anywhere
apartment	flat, apartment
area code	dialling code (*phone*)
attorney, lawyer	barrister, solicitor, lawyer
busy	engaged (*phone*)
call collect	reverse the charges (*phone*)
can	tin, can
candy	sweets
check/bill	bill (*in a restaurant*)
coin-purse	purse
cookie, cracker	biscuit
corn	sweet corn, maize
crib	cot

American English	British English
crazy	mad
crosswalk	pedestrian/zebra crossing
cuffs	turn-ups (*on trousers*)
diaper	nappy
doctor's office	doctor's surgery
dumb, stupid	stupid
elevator	lift
eraser	rubber, eraser
fall, autumn	autumn
faucet, tap	tap (*indoors*)
first floor, second floor etc	ground floor, first floor etc
flashlight	torch
flat (tire)	flat tyre, puncture
french fries	chips
garbage, trash	rubbish
garbage can, trashcan	dustbin, rubbish bin
gas(oline)	petrol
gear shift	gear lever (*on a car*)
highway, freeway	main road, motorway
hood	bonnet (*on a car*)
intersection	crossroads
mad	angry
mean	nasty
movie, film	film
one-way (ticket)	single (ticket)
pants, trousers	trousers
parking lot	car park
pavement	road surface
pitcher	jug
pocketbook, purse, handbag	handbag
(potato) chips	crisps
railroad	railway
raise	rise (*in salary*)
rest room, bathroom	(public) toilet
resumé	CV
round trip	return (journey/ticket)
schedule, timetable	timetable
sidewalk	pavement
sneakers	trainers (= *sports shoes*)
spigot, faucet	tap (*outdoors*)
stand in line	queue
stingy	mean (*opposite of 'generous'*)
store, shop	shop
subway	underground
truck	van, lorry
trunk	boot (*of a car*)
two weeks	fortnight, two weeks
vacation	holiday(s)
windshield	windscreen (*on a car*)

▸

American English	British English
zee	zed (*the name of the letter 'z'*)
zipper	zip

Expressions with prepositions and particles

American English	British English
check something (**out**)	check something
different **from**/**than**	different **from**/**to** (see 155)
do something **over**/**again**	do something **again**
in a course	on a course
live **on** X street	live **in** X street
look **around** the church	look (a)round the church (see 60)
meet somebody (*by chance*) / meet **with** somebody (*planned*)	meet somebody
Monday **through**/**to** Friday	Monday to Friday
on a team	**in** a team
on the weekend	at the weekend
ten **after**/**past** four (*time*)	ten past four
ten **to**/**of**/**before**/**till** four	ten to four

3 spelling

A number of words end in *-or* in American English and *-our* in British English (e.g. *color*/*colour*). Some words end in *-er* in American English and *-re* in British English (e.g. *center*/*centre*). Many verbs which end in *-ize* in American English (e.g. *realize*) can be spelt in British English with *-ize* or *-ise* (see 558). Some of the commonest words with different forms are:

American English	British English
aluminum	aluminium
analyze	analyse
catalog(ue)	catalogue
center	centre
check	cheque (*paid by a bank*)
color	colour
defense	defence
enroll	enrol
fulfill	fulfil
honor	honour
jewelry	jewellery
labor	labour
liter	litre
meter (*measure*)	metre
neighbor	neighbour
organize	organise/organize
pajamas	pyjamas
paralyze	paralyse
practice, practise	practise (*verb*)
program	programme
realize	realise/realize

American English	British English
skillful	skilful
theater/theatre	theatre
tire	tyre (*on a wheel*)
trave(l)ler	traveller (see 562)
whiskey	(Scotch) whisky, (Irish) whiskey

4 pronunciation

There are, of course, many different regional accents in both Britain and America. The most important general differences between American and British speech are as follows:

a Certain vowels are nasal (pronounced through the nose and mouth at the same time) in some varieties of American English, but not in most British accents.

b British English has one more vowel than American English. This is the rounded short o (/ɒ/) used in words like *cot, dog, got, gone, off, stop, lost.* In American English these words are pronounced either with /ɑ:/, like the first vowel in *father*, or with /ɔ:/, like the vowel in *caught.* (This vowel is also pronounced rather differently in British and American English.)

c Some words written with ***a*** **+ consonant** (e.g. *fast, after*) have different pronunciations: with /ɑ:/ in standard southern British English, and with /æ/ in American and some other varieties of English.

d The vowel in *home, go, open* is pronounced /əʊ/ in standard southern British English, and /oʊ/ in American English. The two vowels sound very different.

e In standard southern British English, *r* is only pronounced before a vowel sound. In most kinds of American English, (and most other British varieties) *r* is pronounced in all positions where it is written in a word, and it changes the quality of a vowel that comes before it. So words like *car, turn, offer* sound very different in British and American speech.

f In many varieties of American English, *t* and *d* both have a very light voiced pronunciation (/d/) between vowels – so *writer* and *rider*, for example, can sound the same. In British English they are quite different: /'raɪtə(r)/ and /'raɪdə(r)/.

g Some words which are pronounced with /u:/ in most varieties of American English have /ju:/ in British English. These are words in which *th, d, t* or *n* (and sometimes *s* or *l*) are followed by *u* or *ew* in writing.

enthusiastic	AmE /ɪn,θu:zi'æstɪk/	BrE /ɪn,θju:zi'æstɪk/
duty	AmE /'du:ti/	BrE /'dju:ti/
tune	AmE /tu:n/	BrE /tju:n/
new	AmE /nu:/	BrE /nju:/
illuminate	AmE /ɪ'lu:mɪneɪt/	BrE /ɪ'lju:mɪneɪt/

h Words ending in unstressed *-ile* (e.g. *fertile, reptile, missile, senile*) are pronounced with /aɪl/ in British English; some are pronounced with /l/ in American English.
fertile AmE /'fɜ:rtl/ (rhyming with *turtle*)
BrE /'fɜ:taɪl/ (rhyming with *her tile*)

i Some long words ending in *-ary, -ery* or *-ory* are pronounced differently, with one more syllable in American English.
secretary AmE /'sekrəteri/ BrE /'sekrətri/

j *Borough* and *thorough* are pronounced differently.
AmE /'bʌroʊ, 'θʌroʊ/
BrE /'bʌrə, 'θʌrə/

k Words borrowed from French are often stressed differently, especially if their pronunciation ends with a vowel sound. The final vowel is usually stressed in American English but not in British English.
paté AmE /pæ'teɪ/ BrE /'pæteɪ/
ballet AmE /bæ'leɪ/ BrE /'bæleɪ/

52 and

1 use

When we join two or more grammatically similar expressions, we usually put *and* before the last.

*bread **and** cheese*
*We drank, talked **and** danced.*
*I wrote the letters, Peter addressed them, George bought the stamps **and** Alice posted them.*

And is sometimes left out in a very literary or poetic style, but this is unusual.

My dreams are full of darkness, despair, death.

2 fixed expressions

Some common expressions with *and* have a fixed order which cannot be changed. The shortest expression often comes first.

bread and butter (NOT ~~*butter and bread*~~)
hands and knees (NOT ~~*knees and hands*~~)
young and pretty *thunder and lightning*
black and white *cup and saucer* *knife and fork*

Note: *and* is usually pronounced /ənd/, not /ænd/ (see 616).

For *and* with adjectives, see 16.
For rules about the use of commas, see 476.
For ellipsis after *and*, in expressions like *a knife and (a) fork, the bread and (the) butter*, see 178.
For singular and plural verbs after subjects with *and*, see 527.5.
For *and* after *try, wait, go, come* etc, see 53.
For *both . . . and*, see 111.

53 and after try, wait, go etc

1 *try / be sure / wait and ...*

We often use *and* ... instead of *to* after *try / be sure*. This is informal.

*Try **and** eat something – you'll feel better if you do.*
*I'll try **and** phone you tomorrow morning.*
*Be sure **and** ask Uncle Joe about his garden.*

Note also the common expression *Wait and see.*

*What's for lunch? ~ **Wait and** see.*

We only use this structure with the simple base forms *try / be sure / wait*. It is not possible, for example, with *tries, trying, was sure* or *waited*. Compare:

*Try **and** eat something.*
I tried to eat something. (NOT ~~*I tried and ate something*~~.)
We waited to see what would happen. (NOT ~~*We waited and saw*~~ ...)

2 *come/go/etc and ...*

Come and ..., go and ..., run and ..., hurry up and ..., stay and ... are often used informally.

*Come **and** have a drink.*
*Stay **and** have dinner.* *Hurry up **and** open the door.*

With these verbs, the structure is not only used with the base form.

*He often comes **and** spends the evening with us.*
*She stayed **and** played with the children.* *She thought of **going and** getting him.*

3 American English

In informal American English, *and* is sometimes dropped after the base forms *go* and *come*.

*Let's **go** see if Anne's home.*
Go jump in the river. *Come sit on my lap.*

54 another and other(s)

1 spelling of *another*

Another is one word.

*He's bought **another** car.* (NOT ... ~~*an other car*~~.)

2 'additional, extra'

Another can mean 'an additional, extra'. It is used with singular countable nouns.

*Could I have **another** piece of bread?*

Another can be used without a noun, or with *one*, if the meaning is clear from what has come before.

*Those cakes are wonderful. Could I have **another** (one)?*

With uncountable and plural nouns, we normally use *more*, not *other*, with this meaning.

*Would you like some **more** meat?* (NOT ... ~~*other meat?*~~) ▸

Would you like some more peas? (NOT ... ~~*other peas?*~~)
However, we can use *another* before a plural noun in expressions with *few* or a number.
I'm staying for another few weeks. *We need another three chairs.*
For other cases where *a(n)* is followed by a plural, see 532.6.

3 'alternative'

(An)other can also mean '(an) alternative', 'besides / instead of this/these'.
I think we should paint it another colour.
Have you got any other cakes, or are these the only ones?
Other people often means 'people besides oneself'.
Why don't you think more about other people?

4 *other* and *others*

When *other* is used with a noun it has no plural form.
Where are the other photos? (NOT ... ~~*the others photos?*~~)
But used alone, without a noun, it can have a plural form.
I've got one lot of photos. Where are the others?
These are too small. Have you got any others?
Normally, *other(s)* is only used alone if it refers to a noun that has been mentioned before. An exception is the common plural use of *(the) others* to mean *(the) other people.*
He never thinks of others. *Jake's arrived – I must tell the others.*
BUT NOT ~~*On the phone, one cannot see the other*~~ OR ~~*He never listens to another*~~.

5 not used like an adjective

Other is a determiner or pronoun; it is not used exactly like an adjective. So it cannot normally have an adverb before it, or be used after a link verb.
I'd prefer a completely different colour. (NOT ... ~~*a completely other colour.*~~)
You look different with a beard. (NOT ~~*You look other*~~ ...)

For *one another*, see 171.

55 any

1 meaning

Any is a determiner (see 154). It generally suggests an indefinite amount or number, and is used when it is not important to say how much/many we are thinking of. Because of its 'open', non-specific meaning, *any* is often used in questions and negative clauses, and in other cases where there is an idea of doubt or negation.
Have you got any biscuits?
We didn't have any problems going through customs.
You never give me any help.
The noise of the party stopped me getting any sleep.
I suddenly realised I'd come out without any money.Any is common after *if.*
If you find any blackberries, keep some for me.
Sometimes *any* means 'if there is/are any' or 'whatever there is/are'.

Any fog will clear by noon. (= If there is any fog, it will clear by noon.)
*Perhaps you could correct **any** mistakes I've made.*

Any can be used to emphasise the idea of open choice: 'it doesn't matter who/what/which'.

*You can borrow **any** book you like.*

For details of this use, see paragraph 5 below.

2 *any* and *some*

Any often contrasts with *some*, which is most common in affirmative clauses. Compare:

*I need **some** razor blades.* *Have you got **any** razor blades?*
*Sorry, I haven't got **any** razor blades.*

For details of the difference, see 547.

3 *any* and *not any*

Any alone does not have a negative meaning. It is only negative when used with *not*.

*She's unhappy because she hasn't got **any** friends.* (NOT ... ~~*because she has got any friends.*~~)

No (see 376) means the same as *not any*, but is more emphatic.

*She's got **no** friends.*

Not any cannot begin a sentence; *no* is used instead.

No cigarette is harmless. (NOT ~~*Not any cigarette*~~...)
No tourists came to the town that year.

We do not usually use *not any* with singular countable nouns.

*She hasn't got **a job**.* (NOT ~~*She hasn't got any job.*~~)

4 nouns with and without *any*

With an uncountable or plural noun, *any* usually suggests the idea of an indefinite amount or indefinite number. Compare:

- *Is there **any water** in that can?*
  *Is there **water** on the moon?* (The interest is in the existence of water, not its amount.)
- *Dad hasn't got **any hair**.* (He has lost the amount he had.)
  *Birds have feathers, not **hair**.* (No idea of amount.)
- *None of her children have got **any sense**.* (Not even a small amount.)
  *Ann looks like her mother, but she hasn't got **blue eyes**.* (NOT... ~~*she hasn't got any blue eyes*~~ – people have a definite number of eyes: two.)

5 *any* = 'it doesn't matter who/which/what'

Any can be used to emphasise the idea of free choice, with the meaning of 'it doesn't matter who/which/what'. With this meaning, *any* is common in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives, and is often used with singular countable nouns as well as uncountables and plurals. In speech, it is stressed.

*Ask **any** doctor – they'll all tell you that alcohol is a poison.*
*She goes out with **any** boy who asks her.*
*When shall I come? ~ **Any** time.*

We can use *just any* if necessary to make the meaning clear. ▸

I don't do just any work – I choose jobs that interest me.
(*I don't do any work* . . . could be misunderstood.)

Note that we use *either* (see 174), not *any*, to talk about a choice between two alternatives.

I can write with either hand. (NOT . . . ~~*any hand.*~~)

6 at all

At all (see 83) is often used to emphasise the meaning of *(not) any.*

I'll do any job at all – even road-sweeping.
She doesn't speak any English at all.

7 any and any of

Before a determiner (definite article, demonstrative or possessive word) or a pronoun, we use *any of* (see 154.4) Compare:

– *I didn't go to any lectures last term.* (NOT . . . ~~*any of lectures*~~ . . .)
I wasn't interested in any of the lectures. (NOT . . . ~~*any the lectures.*~~)
– *Do any books here belong to you?*
Do any of these books belong to you?
– *I don't think any staff want to work tomorrow.*
I don't think any of us want to work tomorrow.

Note that when *any of* is followed by a plural subject, the verb can be singular or plural. A singular verb is more common in a formal style.

If any of your friends is/are interested, let me know.

8 without a noun

A noun can be dropped after *any*, if the meaning is clear.

Did you get the oil? ~ *No, there wasn't any left.*

Instead of *not any* without a noun, *none* (see 376) can be used. This is often more emphatic.

There was none left.

We don't use *any* or *not any* alone as answers.

What day shall I come? ~ *Any day.* (NOT ~~*Any.*~~)
How much money have you got? ~ *None.* (NOT ~~*Not any.*~~)

9 compounds

Many of the rules given above also apply to the compounds *anybody, anyone, anything* and *anywhere.* For more information about these, see 548.

For the use of *any* and *no* as adverbs, see 57.
For *any* . . . *but*, see 116.
For *any* and *every*, see 56.

56 any and every

Any and *every* can both be used to talk in general about all the members of a class or group.

Any/Every child can learn to swim.

The meaning is not quite the same. *Any* looks at things one at a time: it means 'whichever one you choose', 'this or that or the other'. *Every* looks at things together: its meaning is closer to 'all', 'this and that and the other'. Compare:

Which newspaper would you like?~It doesn't matter. ***Any one.*** (= one or another or another) (NOT ...~~*Every one.*~~)
On the stand there were newspapers and magazines of ***every kind.*** (= one and another and another) (NOT ...~~*magazines of any kind.*~~)

For more information about *any*, see 55.
For *every*, see 193.

57 any and no: adverbs

1 *any* and *no* with comparatives

Any can modify comparatives. This happens mostly in questions and negative sentences, and after *if* (see also 381).
Can you go ***any faster?***
You don't look ***any older*** *than your daughter.* (= You don't look at all older ...)
If I were ***any younger,*** *I'd fall in love with you.*
No can also be used in this way (but not *some*).
I'm afraid the weather's ***no better*** *than yesterday.*

2 *any/no different*

We can also use *any* and *no* with *different*.
This school isn't ***any different*** *from the last one.*
Is John any better?~No ***different.*** *Still very ill.*

3 *any/no good; any/no use*

Note the expressions *any good/use* and *no good/use*.
Was the film ***any good?*** *This watch is* ***no use.*** *It keeps stopping.*

58 appear

1 link verb: 'seem'

Appear can be a link verb (see 328), used to say how things look or seem. It is used in similar ways to *seem* (see 507 for details), but is less frequent, especially in an informal style.
With this meaning, *appear* is followed by adjectives, not adverbs. We can use *appear* or *appear to be*.
He ***appears (to be)*** *very angry today.* (NOT ~~*He appears very angrily today.*~~)
Before nouns we generally use *appear to be*.
It ***appears to be*** *some kind of bomb.*
The boys on the bus ***appeared to be*** *students.*
Structures with preparatory *there* (see 587) or *it* (see 446) are possible.
There appears to be a problem with the oil pressure.
It appears that we may be mistaken.

2 *appear* and *seem*: differences

Seem can be used to talk both about objective facts and about subjective impressions and feelings (see 507 for examples). *Appear* is mostly used to talk about objective facts. Compare:

▶

The baby seems/appears (to be) hungry.
She doesn't want to go on studying. It seems a pity. (NOT ~~*It appears a pity.*~~)
Seem is often used with *like*. This is not normal with *appear*.
It seemed like a good idea. (More natural than *It appeared like a good idea.*)
Seem can be used in a special structure with *can't* (see 507.4). This is not possible with *appear*.
I can't seem to make him understand. (BUT NOT ~~*I can't appear to make him understand.*~~)

3 'come into sight'

Appear can also mean 'come into sight' or 'arrive'. In this case it can be modified by an adverb.
She suddenly appeared in the doorway.

For structures with *look*, see 331.

59 arise and rise

Arise means 'begin', 'appear', 'occur', 'come to one's notice'. It is used mostly with abstract nouns as subjects.
A discussion arose about the best way to pay.
I'm afraid a difficulty has arisen.
Rise usually means 'get higher', 'come/go up'.
Prices keep rising. *What time does the sun rise?*
My hopes are rising.
Note that we usually say that people *get up* in the morning. *Rise* is only used with this meaning in a very formal style.
Arise and *rise* are irregular verbs.
(a)rise – (a)rose – (a)risen

For the difference between *rise* and *raise*, see 304.2.

60 (a)round and about

1 circular movement etc: *(a)round*

We use both *round* and *around* (AmE usually *around*) for movement or position in a circle or a curve.
She walked (a)round the car and looked at the wheels.
I'd like to travel (a)round the world.
Where do you live?~Just (a)round the corner.

2 touring; distribution: *round*

We also use *round* or *around* (AmE usually *around*) to talk about going to all (or most) parts of a place, or giving things to everybody in a group.
We walked (a)round the old part of the town.
Can I look (a)round? *Could you pass the cups (a)round, please?*

3 indefinite movement and position

We use *around* or *about* (AmE usually *around*) to refer to movements or positions that are not very clear or definite: 'here and there', 'in lots of places', 'in different parts of', 'somewhere in' and similar ideas.

*The children were running **around/about** everywhere.*
*Stop standing **around/about** and do some work.*
*Where's John? ~ Somewhere **around/about**.*
*I like doing odd jobs **around/about** the house.*

We also use these words in some common expressions to talk about time-wasting or silly activity.

*Stop **fooling around/about**. We're late.*

4 approximately: *about*

About (less often *around*) can mean 'approximately', 'not exactly'.

*There were **about/around** fifty people there.*
*What time shall I come? ~ **About/Around** eight.*

For other uses of these words, see a good dictionary.

61 articles (1): introduction

1 What are articles?

Articles are small words that are often used at the beginning of noun phrases. There are two: *the* (the 'definite article') and *a/an* (the 'indefinite article'). They belong to a group of words called 'determiners' (see 154).

2 What are articles used for?

Articles can show whether we are talking about things that are known both to the speaker/writer and to the listener/reader ('definite'), or that are not known to them both ('indefinite').

3 How much do articles matter?

The correct use of the articles is one of the most difficult points in English grammar. Fortunately, most article mistakes do not matter too much. Even if we leave all the articles out of a sentence, it can usually be understood.

Please can you lend me pound of butter till end of week?

However, it is better to use the articles correctly if possible. Sections 62–70 give the most important rules and exceptions.

4 speakers of Western European languages

Most languages of Western European origin, and one or two others, have article systems quite like English. However, there are some differences in the way articles are used in English and these other languages. The most important differences are explained in Section 63. Students should read this first if they speak one of the following languages perfectly or very well: French, German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Spanish, Catalan, Italian, Portuguese, Greek, Romanian. There is more detailed information on difficult points in Sections 64–70. ▸

5 speakers of other languages

If a student's language is one (e.g. Russian or Japanese) that is not listed in paragraph 4, he or she may have more difficulty with the correct use of articles. The most important rules are explained in Section 62, and students should read this first. There is more detailed information on difficult points in Sections 64–70.

62 articles (2): basic information (A)

(This Section is for students who speak languages (e.g. Russian or Japanese) that do not have articles like English *a/an* and *the*. Students who speak languages which have articles (e.g. German or Portuguese) should read Section 63.)

1 two basic rules

- To say 'You know which I mean', we put *the* before a noun.
  *I've been to **the doctor**.* (You know which one: my doctor.)
  *Have you fed **the dogs**?* (You know which ones I mean.)
  *Could you pass **the salt**?* (You can see the salt that I want.)
- When we can't say 'You know which I mean', we:
  – put *a/an* before a singular countable noun (see 65).
  *There's **a rat** in the kitchen!* *I need **an envelope**.*
  – put no article with a plural or uncountable noun.
  *She's afraid of **rats**.* *I need **help**.*

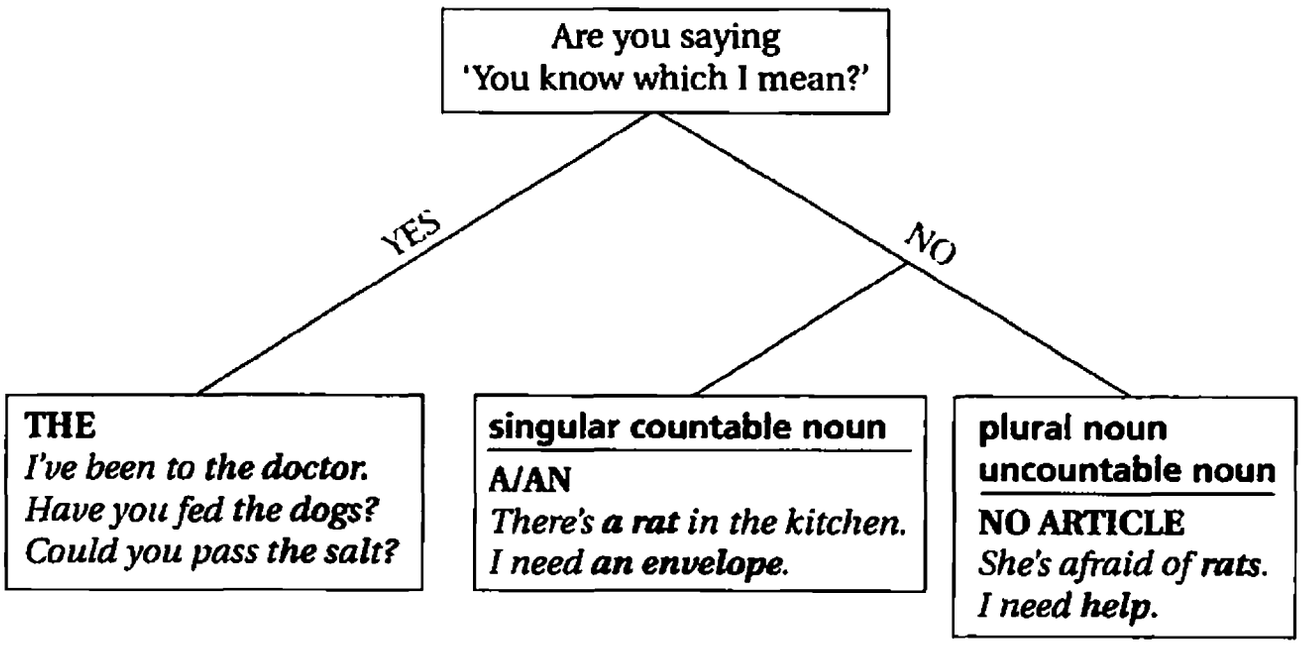

2 four common mistakes to avoid

- Don't use *a/an* with plural or uncountable nouns.
  *John collects **stamps**.* (NOT ... ~~*a stamps*~~.)
  *Our garden needs **water**.* (NOT ... ~~*a water*~~.)

- Don't use *the* to talk about things in general. *The* does not mean 'all'. (For exceptions, see 68.2.)
  Elephants can swim very well. (NOT ~~*The elephants can swim*~~ . . .)
  Petrol is expensive. (NOT ~~*The petrol*~~ . . .)
- Don't use articles together with *my, this,* or other determiners.
  my work (NOT ~~*the my work*~~)
  this problem (NOT ~~*the this problem*~~)
  a friend of mine (NOT ~~*a my friend*~~)
- Don't use singular countable nouns alone, without an article or other determiner. We can say *a cat, the cat, my cat, this cat, any cat, either cat* or *every cat,* but not just *cat.* (For exceptions, see 70.)
  Give it to the cat. (NOT ~~*Give it to cat.*~~)
  Annie is a doctor. (NOT ~~*Annie is doctor.*~~)

For more detailed information about articles, see the following sections.

63 articles (3): basic information (B)

(This Section is for students who speak a language that has articles: e.g. French, German, Swedish, Norwegian, Spanish, Italian, Greek. If you speak a language without articles – for example Russian or Japanese – read Section 62.)

Articles are often used in similar ways in English and other languages, but there are some differences. The most important are as follows.

1 talking in general

In English, when we are talking about people or things in general, we do not usually use *the* with uncountable or plural nouns.
Life is complicated. (NOT ~~*The life is complicated.*~~)
My sister loves horses. (NOT . . . ~~*the horses.*~~)

2 talking about jobs, types etc

In English, we normally put *a/an* with a singular noun that is used for classifying – saying what job somebody has, what class, group or type somebody or something belongs to, what we use something for, etc.
She's a dentist. (NOT ~~*She's dentist.*~~)
I'm looking forward to being a grandmother.
I used my shoe as a hammer.

For more detailed information about articles, see the following Sections.

64 articles (4): more about the

1 *the* = 'you know which one(s)'

The usually means something like 'you know which I mean'. We use *the* before a noun (singular, plural or uncountable) when our listener/reader knows (or can easily see) which particular person(s), thing(s) etc we are talking about. Compare:

– *I'm going to the post office.* (The listener knows which: the usual one.)
  Is there a post office near here? (Any post office.)
– *I didn't like the film.* (The one that the speaker and listener saw.)
  Let's go and see a film. (The speaker doesn't say which one.) ▸

- *She arrived on the 8.15 train.* (The speaker says which train.)
  She arrived in an old taxi. (The speaker doesn't say which taxi.)
- *Did you wash the clothes?* (The listener knows which clothes.)
  I need to buy clothes. (The listener does not know which clothes.)
- *What did you do with the coffee I bought?* (The speaker says which coffee.)
  I don't drink coffee. (Any coffee.)

Our listener/reader may know which one(s) we mean because:

a we have mentioned it/them before
She's got two children: a boy and a girl. The boy's fourteen and the girl's eight.
So what did you do then? ~ Gave the money straight back to the policeman.
(The listener has already heard about the money and the policeman.)

b we say which one(s) we mean
Who are the girls over there with John?
Tell Pat the story about John and Susie. *I'll try the green shirt.*

c it is clear from the situation which one(s) we mean
Could you close the door? (Only one door is open.)
Ann's in the kitchen. *Could you feed the dogs?*
Did you enjoy the party? *What's the time?*

2 *the* = 'the only one(s) around'

The listener may know which one we mean because there is no choice – there is only one (e.g. *the sun, the moon, the earth, the world, the universe, the future*) or there is only one in our part of the world (e.g. *the government*).
I haven't seen the sun for days. *Do you trust the government?*
People used to think the earth was flat.

3 superlatives

We usually use *the* with superlatives (see 141–146) because there is normally only one best, biggest etc individual or group (so it is clear which one(s) we are talking about). For the same reason, we usually use *the* with *first, next, last, same* and *only*.
I'm the oldest in my family. *Can I have the next pancake?*
We went to the same school.

4 *the* meaning 'the well-known'

After a name, an identifying expression with *the* is often used to make it clear that the person referred to is 'the well-known one'.
She married Richard Burton, the actor.
I'd like you to meet Cathy Parker, the novelist.

5 possessives and demonstratives

We do not use *the* with possessives or demonstratives.
This is my uncle. (NOT ... ~~*the my uncle.*~~)
Is that Mary's car? (NOT ... ~~*the Mary's car?*~~)
I like this beer. (NOT ... ~~*the this beer.*~~)

6 proper nouns (names)

We do not usually use *the* with singular proper nouns (there are some exceptions – see 70.17–18).

Mary lives in Switzerland. (NOT ~~*The Mary lives in the Switzerland.*~~)

But note the use of *the* (pronounced /ðiː/) with a person's name to mean 'the well-known'.

My name's James Bond. ~ *What, not the James Bond?*

7 things in general

We usually use no article, not *the*, to talk about things in general – *the* does not mean 'all'. (For details and exceptions, see 68.)

Books are expensive. (NOT ~~*The books are expensive.*~~)

Life is hard. (NOT ~~*The life is hard.*~~)

8 pronunciation

The is normally pronounced /ðiː/ before a vowel and /ðə/ before a consonant. Compare:

the ice /ðiː aɪs/ *the snow* /ðə snəʊ/

The choice between /ðiː/ and /ðə/ depends on pronunciation, not spelling. We pronounce /ðiː/ before a vowel sound, even if it is written as a consonant.

the hour /ðiː 'aʊə(r)/ *the MP* /ðiː em 'piː/

And we pronounce /ðə/ before a consonant sound, even if it is written as a vowel.

the university /ðə juːnɪ'vɜːsəti/

the one-pound coin /ðə 'wʌn 'paʊnd 'kɔm/

We sometimes pronounce a stressed /ðiː/ before a hesitation, or when we want to stress the following word, even if it begins with a consonant.

He's the /ðiː/ *– just a moment – deputy assistant vice-president.*

I've found the /ðiː/ *present for Angela!*

For *the town, the country, the sea, the mountains*, etc, see 69.4.
For *on the bus, at the hairdresser's*, etc, see 69.5.
For other advanced points, see 69.

65 articles (5): more about a/an

1 countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns are the names of separate objects, people, ideas etc which we can count.

a cat – three cats

a secretary – four secretaries

a plan – two plans

Uncountable nouns are the names of materials, liquids and other things which we do not usually see as separate objects.

wool (BUT NOT ~~*a wool, two wools*~~)

water (BUT NOT ~~*a water, three waters*~~)

weather (BUT NOT ~~*a weather, four weathers*~~)

energy (BUT NOT ~~*an energy, several energies*~~)

For more detailed information, see 148–149. ▶

2 *a/an* with singular countable nouns

We normally use *a/an* only with singular countable nouns.

a secretary *an office*
BUT NOT ~~*a salt*~~ OR ~~*an offices*~~

For expressions like *a good two hours*, see 532.6.

3 uses of *a/an*

A/an does not add much to the meaning of a noun – it is like a weak form of 'one'. It has several common uses.

a one person or thing

We can use *a/an* when we talk about one person or thing.

*There's **a police car** outside.*
*My brother's married to **a doctor**.* *Andy lives in **an old house**.*

b any one member of a class.

We can use *a/an* when we talk about **any one member** of a class.

*A **doctor** must like people.* (= any doctor)
*I would like to live in **an old house**.* (= any old house)

c classifying and defining

We can use *a/an* when we classify or define people and things – when we say what they are, what job they do, or what they are used for.

*She's a **doctor**.*
*I'm looking forward to being **a grandmother**.*
*A glider is **a plane** with no engine.*
*Don't use your plate as **an ashtray**.*

d descriptions

A/an is common before nouns that are used in descriptions.

*She's **a nice person**.* *That was **a lovely evening**.*
*He's got **a friendly face**.* *It's **an extremely hot day**.*

4 when *a/an* cannot be left out

We do not normally leave out *a/an* in negative expressions, after prepositions or after fractions.

*Lend me your pen. ~ I haven't got **a pen**.* (NOT ~~*I haven't got pen.*~~)
*You mustn't go out without **a coat**.* (NOT ... ~~*without coat.*~~)
*three-quarters of **a pound*** (NOT ~~*three-quarters of pound*~~)

And we do not leave out *a/an* when we say what jobs people have, or how things are used (see above).

*She's **an engineer**.* (NOT ~~*She's engineer.*~~)
*I used my shoe as **a hammer**.* (NOT ... ~~*as hammer.*~~)

5 when *a/an* is not used: adjectives alone; possessives

A/an cannot normally be used with an adjective alone (without a noun). Compare:

*It's a **good** car.* *It's **good**.* (NOT ~~*It's a good.*~~)

A/an cannot be used together with a possessive. Instead, we can use the structure *a ... of mine/yours* etc (see 443).

*He's **a friend of mine**.* (NOT ~~*He's a my friend*~~.)

6 *a/an* and *the*

Instead of *a/an*, we use *the* when we want to say 'You and I both know which one I mean'. Compare:

*She lives in **a big house**.* (The hearer doesn't know which one.)

*She lives in **the big house** over there.* (The hearer knows which one.)

For details, see 64.

7 *a* and *an*: the difference

We do not normally pronounce the sound /ə/ before a vowel. So before a vowel, the article *a* (/ə/) changes to *an*. Compare:

a rabbit *a lemon* *an elephant* *an orange*

The choice between *a* and *an* depends on pronunciation, not spelling. We use *an* before a vowel sound, even if it is written as a consonant.

an hour /ən 'aʊər/ *an MP* /ən em 'piː/

And we use *a* before a consonant sound, even if it is written as a vowel.

a university /ə juːnɪ'vɜːsəti/ *a one-pound coin* /ə 'wʌn .../

Some people say *an*, not *a*, before words beginning with *h* if the first syllable is unstressed.

an hotel (*a hotel* is more common)

an historic occasion (*a historic* ... is more common)

(BUT NOT ~~*an housewife*~~ – the first syllable is stressed.)

A is sometimes pronounced /eɪ/ before a hesitation, when we want to emphasise the following word, or when we want to make a contrast with *the*.

I think I'll have a /eɪ/ *– chocolate ice cream.*

It's a /eɪ/ *reason – it's not the only reason.*

66 articles (6): no article with plural and uncountable nouns

1 *a/an* not used

Plural and uncountable nouns (e.g. *cats*, *wool* – see 65.1) cannot normally be used with *a/an* (because *a/an* has a similar meaning to 'one'). Instead, we most often use no article.

*There were **cats** in every room.* (NOT ... ~~*a cats*~~ ...)

*Doctors generally work long **hours**.* *He's got very big **ears**.*

*Her coat is made of pure **wool**.*

*What's that? ~ I think it's **pepper**.*

2 confusing nouns

Some nouns that are countable in some other languages are uncountable in English (see 148.3 for a list).

*I need **information** and **advice**.* (NOT ... ~~*an information and an advice*~~)

*You've made very **good progress**.* (NOT ... ~~*a very good progress*~~.) ▸

And note that we never use *a/an* with *weather* or *English*.
*We're having terrible **weather**.* (NOT ... ~~*a terrible weather.*~~)
*She speaks very good **English**.* (NOT ... ~~*a very good English.*~~)

3 *some* and *any*

Instead of no article, we can sometimes use *some* or *any*.
*We met **some** nice French girls on holiday.*
*Have you got **any** matches?*
For details, see 67.

4 *the*

Instead of no article, we use *the* when we want to say 'You and I both know which I mean' (see 64). Compare:
- *I'm working with **children**.* (The hearer doesn't know which ones.)
  *How are **the children**?* (= the hearer's children)
- *We need **salt**.* (= any salt)
  *Could you pass **the salt**?* (The hearer can see the salt that is wanted.)

But we usually use no article, not *the*, to talk about people, things etc in general (see 68).
*Are **dogs** more intelligent than cats?* (NOT ... ~~*the dogs*~~ ... ~~*the cats*~~)
*Everybody likes **music**.* (NOT ... ~~*the music.*~~)

For expressions like *a coffee, a knowledge of Spanish*, see 148.4, 6.

67 articles (7): the difference between some/any and no article

1 use with uncountable and plural nouns

Uncountable and plural nouns can often be used either with *some/any* or with no article. There is not always a great difference of meaning.
*We need (some) **cheese**.* *I didn't buy (any) **eggs**.*
Some is used especially in affirmative sentences; *any* is more common in questions and negatives (for details, see 547).

2 *some/any* or no article?

We prefer *some/any* when we are thinking about limited but rather indefinite numbers or quantities – when we don't know, care or say exactly how much/many. We prefer **no article** when we are thinking about unlimited numbers or quantities, or not thinking about numbers/quantities at all. Compare:
- *We've planted **some roses** in the garden.* (A limited number; the speaker doesn't say how many.)
  *I like **roses**.* (No idea of number.)
- *We got talking to **some students**.* (A limited number.)
  *Our next-door neighbours are **students**.* (The main idea is classification, not number.)
- *I've just bought **some books** on computing.* (A limited number.)
  *There were **books** on the desk, on the floor, on the chairs, ...* (A large number.)

- *Would you like some more rice?* (An indefinite amount – as much as the listener wants.)
  We need rice, sugar, eggs, butter, beer, and toilet paper. (The speaker is thinking just of the things that need to be bought, not of the amounts.)
- *Is there any water in the fridge?* (The speaker wants a limited amount.)
  Is there water on the moon? (The interest is in the existence of water, not the amount.)
- *This engine hardly uses any petrol.* (The interest is in the amount.)
  This engine doesn't use petrol. (The interest is in the type of fuel, not the amount.)

We do not use *some/any* when it is clear exactly how much/many we are talking about. Compare:

- *You've got some great books.*
  You've got pretty toes. (A definite number – ten. *You've got some pretty toes* would suggest that the speaker is not making it clear how many – perhaps six or seven!)

For details of the difference between *some* and *any*, see 547.
For full details of the uses of *some*, see 546; for *any*, see 55.

68 articles (8): talking in general

1 *the* does not mean 'all'

We do not use *the* with uncountable or plural nouns to talk about things in general – to talk about all books, all people or all life, for example. *The* does not mean 'all'. Instead, we use **no article**. Compare:

- *Move the books off that chair and sit down.* (= particular books)
  Books are expensive. (NOT ~~*The books are expensive.*~~)
- *I'm studying the life of Beethoven.* (= one particular life)
  Life is complicated. (NOT ~~*The life*~~ . . .)
- *Where's the cheese?* ~ *I ate it.* – *Why has the light gone out?*
  I love cheese. *Nothing can travel faster than light.*
- *I've joined the local Dramatic Society.*
  It's not always easy to fit in with society.
- *I never really understood the nature of my father's work.*
  She's very interested in nature, especially animals and birds.
- *Write your name in the space at the bottom of the page.*
  Would you like to travel into space?

Note that *most* (meaning 'the majority of') is used without *the*.

Most birds can fly. (NOT ~~*The most*~~ . . .)
Most of the children got very tired. (NOT ~~*The most*~~ . . .)

2 generalisations with singular countable nouns

Sometimes we talk about things in general by using *the* with a singular countable noun.

Schools should concentrate more on the child and less on exams.

This is common with the names of scientific instruments and inventions, and musical instruments.

Life would be quieter without the telephone.
The violin is more difficult than the piano. ▸

We can also generalise by talking about one example of a class, using *a/an* (meaning 'any') with a singular countable noun.

A baby deer can stand as soon as it's born.
A child needs plenty of love.

Note that we cannot use *a/an* in this way when we are generalising about all of the members of a group together.

The tiger is in danger of becoming extinct. (NOT ~~*A tiger is in danger of becoming extinct.*~~ The sentence is about the whole tiger family, not about individuals.)
Do you like horses? (NOT ~~*Do you like a horse?*~~)

For the use of *the* + adjective to generalise about groups (e.g. *the old, the blind*) see 17.

69 articles (9): the (difficult cases)

It is sometimes difficult to know whether or not to use *the*. For example, we use no article to **generalise** with uncountable and plural words (see 68); but we use *the* to show that the listener/reader **knows which** people or things we are talking about (see 64). Sometimes both these meanings come together, and it is difficult to know which form is correct. The grammatical distinctions in this area are not very clear; often the same idea can be expressed both with *the* and with no article. The following notes may help.

1 groups: *nurses* or *the nurses*; *railways* or *the railways*?

When we generalise about **members** of a group, we usually use no article. But if we talk about the group **as a whole** – as if it was a well-known unit – we are more likely to use *the*. Compare:

– *Nurses mostly work very hard.*
The nurses have never gone on strike.
– *Stars vary greatly in size.*
The stars are really bright tonight.
– *Farmers often vote Conservative.*
What has this government done for the farmers?
– *It's difficult for railways to make a profit.* (any railways)
The railways are getting more and more unreliable. (our well-known railways)

This often happens when we talk about nationalities. Compare:

New Zealanders don't like to be mistaken for Australians.
The Australians suffered heavy losses in the First World War.

2 *French painters; the Impressionists*

We are more likely to use *the* if we are talking about a 'closed' group or class with a relatively definite, limited number of members. Compare:

– *French painters* (a large, indefinite group)
the Impressionists (a particular artistic movement; we know more or less who belonged to the group)
– *19th-century poets*
the Romantic poets (Shelley, Keats, Byron, Wordsworth and a few others)
– *British comprehensive schools*
the British 'Public Schools' (a limited group of expensive high-prestige schools)

Specialists are likely to use *the* for groups or classes that they study or know about. Compare:

Metals are mostly shiny.
Next term we're going to study the metals in detail.

3 *1960s music; the music of the 1960s*

Some expressions are 'half-general' – in the middle between general and particular. If we talk about *1960s music, eighteenth-century history* or *poverty in Britain*, we are not talking about all music, history or poverty, but these are still rather general ideas (compared *with the music we heard last night, the history I did at school* or *the poverty I grew up in*). In these 'half-general' expressions, we usually use no article. However, *the* is often used when the noun is followed by a limiting, defining phrase, especially one with *of*. Compare:

– *1960s music*	– *African butterflies*
the music of the 1960s	*the butterflies of Africa*

4 physical environment: *the town, the sea*

The is used with a number of rather general expressions referring to our physical environment – the world around us and its climate. *The* suggests that everybody is familiar with what we are talking about. Examples are:
the town, the country, the mountains, the sea, the seaside, the wind, the rain, the weather, the sunshine, the night.

My wife likes the seaside, but I prefer the mountains.
British people talk about the weather a lot.
I love listening to the wind.

But note that no article is used with *nature, society* or *space* when these have a 'general' meaning (see 68).

5 *on the bus; at the hairdresser*

We use *the* (with a singular countable noun) when we talk about some kinds of thing that are part of everybody's lives, like 'the bus' or 'the hairdresser'. In this case *the bus*, for example, does not mean 'one bus that you know about'; we use *the* to suggest that taking a bus is a common experience that we all share.

I have some of my best ideas when I'm on the bus.
Most of my friends go to the hairdresser two or three times a month.
Do you sing in the bath?
I've stopped reading the newspaper because it's too depressing.

For similar expressions with no article (e.g. *in bed, in hospital*), see 70.1.

6 *She kicked him on the knee; He sat at the side*

We sometimes use *the* even when it is not exactly clear which of several particular persons or things we are talking about. This can happen when there are several similar possibilities, and it is unnecessary to be more definite.

Lying by the side of the road we saw the wheel of a car.
(NOT . . . ~~*a wheel of a car.*~~)
John Perkins is the son of a rich banker. (who may have more than one son)
She kicked him on the knee. ▸

The is often used like this with *side* and *wrong*.
*I usually sit at **the side** in church.* *He's **the wrong** man for me.*
(on the phone) *I'm sorry. You've got **a/the wrong** number.*

70 articles (10): special rules and exceptions

1 common expressions without articles

In some common fixed expressions to do with place, time and movement, normally countable nouns are treated as uncountables, without articles. Examples are:

to/at/in/from school/university/college
to/at/in/into/from church *to/in/into/out of bed/prison*
to/in/into/out of hospital (BrE) *to/at/from work*
to/at sea *to/in/from town*
at/from home *leave home*
leave/start/enter school/university/college
by day *at night*
by car/bus/bicycle/plane/train/tube/boat *on foot*
by radio/phone/letter/mail

With place nouns, expressions with or without articles may have different meanings. Compare:

- *I met her **at college**.* (when we were students)
  *I'll meet you **at the college**.* (The college is just a meeting place.)
- *Jane's **in hospital**.* (as a patient)
  *I left my coat **in the hospital** when I was visiting Jane.*
- *Who smokes **in class**?* (= ... in the classroom?)
  *Who **in the class** smokes?* (= Who is a smoker ...?)

In American English, *university* and *hospital* are not used without articles.
*She was unhappy **at the university**.*
*Say that again and I'll put you **in the hospital**.*

2 double expressions

Articles are often dropped in double expressions, particularly with prepositions.

with knife and fork	*on land and sea*	*day after day*
with hat and coat	*arm in arm*	*husband and wife*
from top to bottom	*inch by inch*	

For cases like *the bread and (the) butter*, see 178.

3 possessive 's

Nouns lose their articles after possessive 's.
the coat** that belongs to John = **John's coat (NOT ~~*John's the coat*~~ OR ~~*the John's coat*~~)
the economic problems** of America = **America's economic problems (NOT ~~*the America's economic problems*~~)

But the possessive noun itself may have an article.
the wife** of **the boss** = **the boss's wife

4 noun modifiers

When a noun modifies another noun, the first noun's article is dropped.

*lessons in how to play **the guitar** = **guitar** lessons*
*a spot on **the sun** = a **sunspot***

5 *both* and *all*

We often leave out *the* after *both*.

***Both** (the) children are good at maths.*

And we often leave out *the* between *all* and a number.

***All** (the) three brothers were arrested.*

We usually leave out *the* after *all* in *all day, all night, all week, all year, all winter* and *all summer*.

*He's been away **all week**. I haven't seen her **all day**.*

6 *kind of* etc

We usually leave out *a/an* after *kind of, sort of, type of,* and similar expressions (see 551).

*What **kind** of (a) **person** is she?*
*Have you got a cheaper **sort** of **radio**?*
*They've developed a new **variety** of **sheep**.*

7 *amount* and *number*

The is dropped after *the amount/number of*

*I was surprised at **the amount** of **money** collected.* (NOT ... ~~of the money~~)
*The **number** of **unemployed** is rising steadily.*

8 *man* and *woman*

Unlike other singular countable nouns, *man* and *woman* can be used in a general sense without articles.

Man and woman were created equal.

But we more often use *a woman* and *a man*, or *men* and *women*.

*A **woman** without **a man** is like a fish without a bicycle.* (old feminist joke)
Men and women have similar abilities and needs.

Man is also commonly used to mean 'the human race', though many people regard this usage as sexist and prefer to avoid it (see 222.6).

*How did **Man** first discover fire?*

9 days, months and seasons

We drop *the* when we mean 'the day/month before or after this one'.

*Where were you **last Saturday**? See you on **Thursday**.*
*I was away **in April**. We're moving **next September**.*

To talk about the seasons in general, we can say *spring* or *the spring, summer* or *the summer*, etc. There is little difference.

*Rome is lovely in (the) **spring**. I like (the) **winter** best.*

When we are talking about particular springs, summers etc, we are more likely to use *the*.

*I worked very hard in **the summer** that year.* ▸

10 musical instruments

We often use *the* + **singular** when we talk about musical instruments in general, or about playing musical instruments.

The violin is really difficult. *Who's that on the piano?*

But *the* is often dropped when talking about jazz or pop, and sometimes when talking about classical music.

This recording was made with Miles Davis on trumpet.
She studied oboe and saxophone at the Royal Academy of Music.

11 *(the) radio, (the) cinema, (the) theatre* and *television*

When we talk about our use of these forms of entertainment, we generally say *the radio, the cinema, the theatre,* but *television* or *TV.*

I always listen to the radio while I'm driving.
It was a great treat to go to the cinema or the theatre when I was a child.
What's on TV?

The is often dropped in all four cases when we talk about these institutions as art forms or professions.

Cinema is different from theatre in several ways.
He's worked in radio and television all his life.

12 jobs and positions

The is not used in titles like *Queen Elizabeth, President Lincoln.* Compare:

Queen Elizabeth had dinner with President Kennedy.
The Queen had dinner with the President.

And *the* is not usually used in the complement of a sentence, when we say that somebody has or gains a unique position (the only one in the organisation). Compare:

– *They appointed him Head Librarian.* *Where's the librarian?*
– *He was elected President in 1879.* *I want to see the President.*

13 exclamations

We use *a/an* with singular countable nouns in exclamations after *What.*

What a lovely dress! (NOT ~~*What lovely dress!*~~)

Note that *a/an* cannot be used in exclamations with uncountable nouns.

What nonsense! (NOT ~~*What a nonsense!*~~)
What luck!

14 illnesses

The names of illnesses and pains are usually uncountable, with no article, in standard British English (for more details, see 148.7).

Have you had appendicitis? *I've got toothache again.*

A/an is used in a few cases such as *a cold, a headache.*

I've got a horrible cold. *Have you got a headache?*

The can be used informally with a few common illnesses.

I think I've got (the) flu. *She's never had (the) measles.*

American usage is different in some cases.

I've got a toothache / an earache / a backache / a stomachache. (BrE *I've got toothache/earache* etc)

15 parts of the body etc

When talking about parts of someone's body, or about their possessions, we usually use possessives, not *the*.

*Katy broke **her arm** climbing.* (NOT ~~*Katy broke the arm climbing*~~.)
*He stood in the doorway, **his coat over his arm**.* (NOT ... ~~*the coat over the arm*~~.)

But *the* is common after prepositions, especially when we are talking about blows, pains and other things that often happen to parts of people's bodies.

*She hit him **in the stomach**.* *He was shot **in the leg**.*
*Can't you look me **in the eye**?*

16 measurements

Note the use of *the* in measuring expressions beginning with *by*.

*Do you sell eggs **by the kilo** or **by the dozen**?*
*He sits watching TV **by the hour**.* *Can I pay **by the month**?*

A/an is used to relate one measuring unit to another.

*sixty pence **a** kilo* *thirty miles **an** hour* *twice **a** week*

17 place names

We use *the* with these kinds of place names:

- seas (*the Atlantic*)
- mountain groups (*the Himalayas*)
- island groups (*the West Indies*)
- rivers (*the Rhine*)
- deserts (*the Sahara*)
- most hotels (*the Grand Hotel*)
- most cinemas and theatres (*the Odeon*; *the Playhouse*)
- most museums and art galleries (*the British Museum*; *the Frick*)

We usually use no article with:

- continents, countries, states, counties, departments etc (*Africa, Brazil, Texas, Berkshire, Westphalia*)
- towns (*Oxford*)
- streets (*New Street, Willow Road*)
- lakes (*Lake Michigan*)

Exceptions: places whose name is (or contains) a common noun like *republic, state, union* (e.g. *the People's Republic of China, the United Kingdom, the United States*).

Note also *the Netherlands*, and its seat of government *The Hague*.

The is unusual in the titles of the principal public buildings and organisations of a town, when the title begins with the town name.

Oxford University (NOT ~~*the Oxford University*~~)
Hull Station (NOT ~~*the Hull Station*~~)
Salisbury Cathedral *Manchester City Council*
Birmingham Airport *Cheltenham Football Club*

With the names of less important institutions, usage varies.

(The) East Oxford Community Centre. *(The) Newbury School of English.*

Names of single mountains vary. Most have no article.

Everest *Kilimanjaro* *Snowdon* *Table Mountain*

But definite articles are usually translated in the English versions of European mountain names, except those beginning *Le Mont*. ▸

The Meije (= *La Meije*) *The Matterhorn* (= *Das Matterhorn*)
BUT *Mont Blanc* (NOT ~~*the Mont Blanc*~~)

18 newspapers and magazines

The names of newspapers usually have *the*.
The Times *The Washington Post*
The names of magazines do not always have *the*.
New Scientist

19 abbreviated styles

We usually leave out articles in abbreviated styles (see 1).

newspaper headlines	*MAN KILLED ON MOUNTAIN*
headings	*Introduction* *Chapter 2* *Section B*
picture captions	*Mother and child*
notices, posters etc	*SUPER CINEMA, RITZ HOTEL*
instructions	*Open packet at other end.*
numbering and labelling	*Go through door A.*
	Control to Car 27: can you hear me?
	Turn to page 26. (NOT ... ~~*the page 26.*~~)
dictionary entries	***palm*** *inner surface of hand ...*
lists	*take car to garage; pay phone bill; ...*
notes	*J thinks company needs new office*

For articles with abbreviations (*NATO, the USA*), see 2.2–3.
For *the* in double comparatives (*the more, the better*), see 139.5.
For *a* with *few* and *little*, see 329.
For *a* with *hundred, thousand* etc, see 389.11.
For *the blind* etc, see 17.1.
For *the Japanese* etc, see 17.2.
For *next* and *the next*, see 375; for *last* and *the last*, see 314.
For *the* instead of *enough*, see 187.8.
For *another two days, a good three weeks* etc, see 532.6.

71 as and though: special word order

adjective/adverb/noun + as + clause

As and *though* can be used in a special structure after an adjective, adverb or noun. In this case they both mean 'although', and suggest an emphatic contrast. (In AmE only *as* is normally used like this; *though* is unusual.)

Cold as/though *it was, we went out.* (= Although it was very cold, ...)
Bravely as/though *they fought, they had no chance of winning.*
Much as/though *I respect your point of view, I can't agree.*
Strange though *it may seem, I don't like watching cricket.*
Scot though *she was, she supported the English team.*

Occasionally *as* can be used in this structure to mean 'because'.
Tired as *she was, I decided not to disturb her.*
In American English, *as ... as* is common.
As cold as *it was, we went out.*

For the word order in structures like *I did as good a job as I could*, see 14.

72 as, because, since and for

All four of these words can be used to refer to the reason for something. (For *as, since* and *for* referring to time, see 73, 208 and 522.) They are not used in the same way.

1 *as* and *since*

As and *since* are used when the reason is already known to the listener/reader, or when it is not the most important part of the sentence. *As-* and *since*-clauses often come at the beginning of sentences.

As it's raining again, we'll have to stay at home.
Since he had not paid his bill, his electricity was cut off.

As- and *since*-clauses are relatively formal; in an informal style, the same ideas are often expressed with *so*.

It's raining again, so we'll have to stay at home.

2 *because*

Because puts more emphasis on the reason, and most often introduces new information which is not known to the listener/reader.

Because I was ill for six months, I lost my job.

When the reason is the most important part of the sentence, the *because*-clause usually comes at the end. It can also stand alone. *Since* and *as* cannot be used like this.

Why am I leaving? I'm leaving because I'm fed up!
(NOT ... ~~*I'm leaving as/since I'm fed up!*~~)
Why are you laughing? ~ *Because you look so funny.*

A *because*-clause can be used to say how one knows something.

You didn't tell me the truth, because I found the money in your room.
(= ... I know because I found ...)

For more information about *because*, see 94.

3 *for*

For introduces new information, but suggests that the reason is given as an afterthought. A *for*-clause could almost be in brackets. *For*-clauses never come at the beginning of sentences, and cannot stand alone. *For*, used in this sense, is most common in a formal written style.

I decided to stop and have lunch – for I was feeling hungry.

73 as, when and while: simultaneous events

To talk about actions or situations that take place at the same time, we can use *as, when* or *while*. There are some differences.

1 'backgrounds': *as, when* or *while*

We can use all three words to introduce a longer 'background' action or situation, which is/was going on when something else happens/happened.

As I was walking down the street I saw Joe driving a Porsche.
The telephone always rings when you are having a bath.
While they were playing cards, somebody broke into the house. ▸

As-, *when-* and *while*-clauses can go at the beginning or end of sentences, but *as*-clauses usually introduce less important information, and most often go at the beginning.
A progressive tense is usually used for the longer 'background' action or situation (*was walking; are having; were playing*). But *as* and *while* can be used with a simple tense, especially with a 'state' verb like *sit, lie,* or *grow.*
As I sat reading the paper, the door burst open.

2 simultaneous long actions: *while; as*

We usually use *while* to say that two longer actions or situations go/went on at the same time. We can use progressive or simple tenses.
While you were reading the paper, I was working.
John cooked supper while I watched TV.
As is used (with simple tenses) to talk about two situations which develop or change together.
As I get older I get more optimistic.
We prefer *when* to refer to ages and periods of life.
When I was a child we lived in London. (NOT ~~*As/While I was a child*~~ . . .)
His parents died when he was twelve. (NOT . . . ~~*while he was twelve.*~~)

3 simultaneous short actions: *(just) as; (just) when*

We usually use *(just) as* to say that two short actions or events happen/happened at the same time.
As I opened my eyes I heard a strange voice.
Mary always arrives just as I start work.
(Just) when is also possible.
I thought of it just when you opened your mouth.

4 reduced clauses with *when* and *while*

It is often possible to leave out subject + *be* after *when* (especially when it means 'whenever'), and after *while.* This is rather formal.
Don't forget to signal when turning right.
(= . . . when you are turning right.)
Climb when ready.
(= . . . when you are ready.)
While in Germany, he got to know a family of musicians.
(= While he was . . .)

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For other uses of *as, when* and *while,* see the Index.

74 as if and as though; like

1 meaning

As if and *as though* are both used to say what a situation seems like. They can refer to something that we think may be true.
It looks as if/though it's going to rain.
It sounds as if/though John's going to change his job.

They can also be used to talk about things which we know are not true.
*I feel **as if/though** I'm dying.*
*She was acting **as if/though** she was in charge.*

2 tenses

When we talk about things which we know are not true, we can use a past tense with a present meaning after *as if/though*. This emphasises the meaning of unreality. Compare:
– *She looks **as if** she **is** rich.* (Perhaps she is.)
*He talks **as if** he **was** rich.* (But he is definitely not.)
– *You look **as though** you **know** each other.*
*Why is he looking at me **as though** he **knew** me? I've never seen him before.*
In a formal style, *were* can be used instead of *was* in an 'unreal' comparison. This is common in American English.
*He talks **as if** he **were** rich.*

3 *like* meaning 'as if/though'

Like is often used in the same way as *as if/though*, especially in an informal style. This used to be typically AmE, but it is now common in BrE.
*It seems **like** it's going to rain.*
*He sat there smiling **like** it was his birthday.*

For the difference between *like* and *as*, see 326.

75 as long as

1 tenses

After *as long as*, we use a present tense to express a future idea.
*I'll remember that day **as long as I live**.* (NOT . . . ~~*as long as I will live.*~~)

For other conjunctions which are used in this way, see 580.

2 conditions

As/so long as is often used to state conditions.
*You can take my car **as/so long as you drive carefully**.*
(= . . . on condition that you drive carefully.)

3 emphatic use

Before a number, *as long as* can be used to suggest great length.
*These meetings can last **as long as** four hours.*

For a similar use of *as much/many as*, see 136.6

76 as such

Not . . . as such is used to say that something is not exactly what has been suggested.
*So you went to Japan on holiday? ~ Well, **not a holiday as such** – I went on business. But I managed quite a lot of sightseeing.*
*I'm **not a teacher as such**, but I've taught English to some of my friends.* ▸

77 as usual

Note that in this expression we use the adjective *usual*, not the adverb *usually*.
The train's late, as usual. (NOT ... ~~*as usually.*~~)

78 as well as

1 meaning

As well as has a similar meaning to 'not only ... but also'.
She's got a goat, as well as five cats and three dogs.
He's clever as well as nice. (= He's not only nice, but also clever.)
She works in television as well as writing children's books.
When some information is already known to the listener/reader, we put this with *as well as*.
As well as birds, some mammals can fly. (NOT ~~*Birds can fly, as well as some mammals.*~~)
They speak French in parts of Italy as well as France. (NOT ~~*They speak French in France as well as parts of Italy.*~~)

2 verbs after *as well as*

When we put a verb after *as well as*, we most often use the *-ing* form.
Smoking is dangerous, as well as making you smell bad. (NOT ... ~~*as well as it makes you smell bad.*~~)
As well as breaking his leg, he hurt his arm. (NOT ... ~~*as well as he broke his leg,*~~ ...)
After an infinitive in the main clause, an infinitive without *to* is possible.
I have to feed the animals as well as look after the children.
Note the difference between:
She sings as well as playing the piano.
(= She not only plays, but also sings.)
She sings as well as she plays the piano.
(= Her singing is as good as her playing.)

For *as well, also* and *too*, see 46–47.

79 ask

1 *ask* and *ask for*

Ask for: ask somebody to give something
Ask without *for*: ask somebody to tell something.

Compare:
- *Don't ask me for money.* (NOT ~~*Don't ask me money.*~~)
  Don't ask me my name.
  (More common than *Don't ask me for my name.*)
- *Ask for the menu.*
  Ask the price.

Ask is sometimes used without *for* when talking about asking for sums of money, especially in connection with buying, selling and renting.

*They're **asking £500 a month rent.***

*How much is the car? ~ I'm **asking fifteen hundred.***

Note also the expressions *ask a lot of somebody, ask too much of somebody, ask a favour of somebody* and *ask (for) permission.*

2 infinitive structures

We can use infinitive structures after *ask* (see 282–283).

ask + infinitive

*I **asked to go** home.* (= I asked permission to go home.)

ask + object + infinitive

*I **asked John to go** home.* (= I told John I would like him to go home.)

ask + *for* + object + infinitive

*I **asked for the children to have** extra milk.*

*I **asked for the parcel to be sent** to my home address.*

Note the difference between these two sentences:

*I **asked John to go** home.* (I wanted John to go home.)

*I **asked John if I could go** home.* (I wanted to go home myself.)

80 at/in and to

1 the difference

At and *in* are generally used for position (for the difference, see 81); *to* is used for movement or direction. Compare:

– *He works **at** the market.*
*He gets **to** the market by bike.*

– *My father lives **in** Canada.*
*I go **to** Canada to see him whenever I can.*

2 expressions of purpose

If we mention the purpose of a movement before we mention the destination, we usually use *at/in* before the place. Compare:

– *Let's go **to** Marcel's for coffee.*
*Let's go and have coffee **at** Marcel's.* (NOT ~~*Let's go and have coffee to Marcel's.*~~)

– *I went **to** Canada to see my father.*
*I went to see my father **in** Canada.* (NOT ~~*I went to see my father to Canada.*~~)

3 targets

After some verbs, *at* is used with the 'target' of a perception or non-verbal communication. Common examples are *look, smile, wave, frown.*

*Why are you **looking at** her like that?*

*Because she **smiled at** me.*

At is also used after some verbs referring to attacks or aggressive behaviour. Common examples are *shoot, laugh, throw, shout* and *point.*

*It's a strange feeling to have somebody **shoot at** you.*

*If you can't **laugh at** yourself, who can you **laugh at**?*

*Stop **throwing** stones **at** the cat, darling.*

*You don't need to **shout at** me.*

*In my dream, everybody was **pointing at** me and laughing.* ▸

Throw to, shout to and *point to* are used when there is no idea of attack.
Please do not throw food to the animals.
Could you shout to Phil and tell him it's breakfast time?
'The train's late again,' she said, pointing to the timetable.
Arrive is generally followed by *at* or *in*; never by *to*.
We should arrive at Pat's in time for lunch. (NOT ... ~~arrive to Pat's~~ ...)
When did you arrive in New Zealand? (NOT ... ~~to New Zealand?~~)

For *in* and *into*, see 269.

81 at, on and in: place

1 *at*

At is used to talk about position at a point.
It's very hot at the centre of the earth.
Turn right at the next corner.
Sometimes we use *at* with a larger place, if we just think of this as a point: a stage on a journey or a meeting place, for example. Compare:
- *The plane stops for an hour at Frankfurt.* (a point on a journey)
  She lives in Frankfurt. (somebody's home)
- *Let's meet at the club.* (a meeting point)
  It was warm and comfortable in the club. (a place to spend time)

We very often use *at* before the name of a building, when we are thinking not of the building itself but of the activity that happens there.
There's a good film at the cinema in Market Street.
Eat at the Steak House – best food in town.
Sorry I didn't phone last night – I was at the theatre.
At is particularly common with proper names used for buildings or organisations. Compare:
- *I first met your father at/in Harrods.*
  I first met your father in a shop.
- *She works at Legal and General Insurance.*
  She works in a big insurance company.

At is used to say where people study.
He's at the London School of Economics.
We use *at* with the name of a city to talk about the city's university. Compare:
He's a student at Oxford. *He lives in Cambridge.*
At is also used before the names of group activities.
at a party *at a meeting* *at a concert*
at a lecture *at the match*

2 *on*

On is used to talk about position on a line (for example a road or a river).
His house is on the way from Aberdeen to Dundee.
Stratford is on the river Avon.
But *in* is used for the position of things which form part of the line.
There's a misprint in line 6 on page 22.
Who's the good-looking boy in the sixth row?

On is used for position on a surface.
*Hurry up – supper's **on the table!***
*That picture would look better **on the other wall.***
*There's a big spider **on the ceiling.***
On can mean 'attached to'.
*Why do you wear that ring **on** your first finger?*
*There aren't many apples **on** the tree this year.*
On is also used for position by a lake or sea.
*Bowness is **on Lake Windermere.***
*Southend-**on**-Sea*

3 *in*

In is used for position inside large areas, and in three-dimensional space (when something is surrounded on all sides).
*I don't think he's **in his office.***
*She grew up **in Swaziland.***
*He lived **in the desert** for three years.*
*Let's go for a walk **in the woods.***
*I last saw her **in the car park.***

4 public transport

We use *on* (and *off*) to talk about travel using public transport (buses, trains, planes and boats), as well as (motor)cycles and horses.
*There's no room **on the bus**; let's get off again.*
*He's arriving **on the 3.15 train**.* (NOT ... ~~*in/with the 3.15 train.*~~)
*We're booked **on flight 604.***
*It took five days to cross the Atlantic **on the Queen Elizabeth.***
*I'll go down to the shop **on my bike.***
But we use *in* and *out (of)* to talk about cars and small private planes and boats.
*She came **in a taxi.***
*He fell into the river when he was getting **out of his canoe.***

5 *arrive*

We generally use *at* (not *to*) after *arrive*; *in* is used before very large places.
*He **arrives at** the airport at 15.30.* (NOT ~~*He arrives to the airport*~~ ...)
*What time do we **arrive in** New York?*

6 addresses

We generally use *at* to talk about addresses.
*Are you still **at the same address?***
*She lives **at 73 Albert Street.***
We use *in* (AmE *on*) if we just give the name of the street.
*She lives **in Albert Street.***
We use *on* for the number of the floor.
*She lives in a flat **on the third floor.***
At can be used with a possessive to mean 'at somebody's house or shop'.
*Where's Jane? ~ She's round **at Pat's.***
*You're always **at the hairdresser's.***

7 special expressions

Note these expressions:

in/at church *at home/work* *in/at school/college* *in a picture*
in the sky *in the rain* *in a tent* *in a hat*
The map is on page 32. (BUT *I opened the book at page 32.*)
in bed / (the) hospital / prison *on a farm* *working on the railway*

Note that *at* is usually pronounced /at/, not /æt/ (see 616).
For the difference between *at/in* and *to*, see 80.
For *smile at, shoot at* etc, see 80.3.

82 at, on and in: time

at + clock time — *at* + weekend, public holiday
in + part of day — *in* + longer period
on + particular day

1 clock times: *at*

I usually get up at six o'clock.
I'll meet you at 4.15. *Phone me at lunch time.*

At is usually left out before *what time* in an informal style (see paragraph 7).
What time does your train leave?

2 parts of the day: *in*

I work best in the morning. *three o'clock in the afternoon*
We usually go out in the evening.

Note the difference between *in the night* (mostly used to mean 'during one particular night') and *at night* (= during any night). Compare:
I had to get up in the night.
I often work at night.

In an informal style, we sometimes use plurals (days etc) with no preposition.
Would you rather work days or nights?

We use *on* if we say which morning/afternoon etc we are talking about, or if we describe the morning/afternoon etc.
See you on Monday morning.
We met on a cold afternoon in early spring.

3 days: *on*

I'll ring you on Tuesday. *My birthday's on March 21st.*
They're having a party on Christmas Day.

In an informal style we sometimes leave out *on*.
I'm seeing her Sunday morning.

We use plurals (*Sundays, Mondays* etc) to talk about repeated actions.
We usually go and see Granny on Sundays.

4 public holidays and weekends: *at*

We use *at* to talk about the whole of the holidays at Christmas, New Year, Easter and Thanksgiving (AmE).

*We're having the roof repaired **at Easter**.*

But we use *on* to talk about one day of the holiday.

*Come and see us **on Christmas Day**.*
*What are you doing **on Easter Monday**?*

British people say *at the weekend*; Americans use *on*.

*What did you do **at the weekend**?*

5 longer periods: *in*

*It happened **in the week** after Christmas.*
*I was born **in March**.*
*Our house was built **in the 15th century**.*
*Kent is beautiful **in spring**.*
*He died **in 1616**.*

6 other uses of *in*

In can also be used to say how soon something will happen, and to say how long something takes to happen.

*Ask me again **in three or four days**.*
*I can run 200 metres **in about 30 seconds**.*

The expression *in . . .'s time* is used to say how soon something will happen, not how long something takes. Compare:

*I'll see you again **in a month's time**.* *It'll be ready **in three weeks' time**.*
*He wrote the book **in a month**.* (NOT . . . ~~*in a month's time*~~.)

In American English, *in* can be used in negative sentences, like *for*, to talk about periods up to the present.

*I haven't seen her **in years**.*

7 expressions with no preposition

At/on/in are not normally used in expressions of time before *next, last, this, that* (sometimes), *one, any* (in an informal style), *each, every, some, all.*

*See you **next week**.*
*Are you free **this morning**?*
*I'm at home **every evening**.*
*We stayed **all day**.*
*Come **any time**.*
*I didn't feel very well **that week**.*
*Let's meet **one day**.*

These prepositions are not normally used, either, before *yesterday, the day before yesterday, tomorrow* or *the day after tomorrow.*

*What are you doing **the day after tomorrow**?*

And prepositions are usually dropped in questions beginning ***What/Which* + expression of time**, and in answers which only contain an expression of time.

***What day** is the meeting?*
***Which week** did you say you're on holiday?*
***What time** are you leaving?* ~ ***Eight o'clock**.*

Note that *at* is usually pronounced /ət/, not /æt/ (see 616).
For the difference between *in* and *during*, see 168.

83 at all

1 *at all* with a negative

We often use *at all* to emphasise a negative idea.

*I didn't understand anything **at all**.* (= I didn't understand even a little.)
*She was hardly frightened **at all**.*

2 questions etc

At all can also be used in questions, and with 'non-affirmative' words like *if, ever* and *any*.

*Do you play poker **at all**?* (= ... even a little?)
*He'll come before supper if he comes **at all**.*
*You can come whenever you like – any time **at all**.*

3 *Not at all*

The expression *Not at all* is used (especially in British English) as a rather formal answer to *Thank you* (see 545.19) and to *Do you mind if...?* (see 351).

84 at first and first

We use *at first* to talk about the beginning of a situation, to make a contrast with something different that happens/happened later. *At first* ... is often followed by *but*.

At first they were very happy, but then things started going wrong.
*The work was hard **at first**, but I got used to it.*

In other cases, we usually prefer *first*.

*That's mine – I saw it **first**!* (NOT ... ~~*I saw it at first*~~.)
*We lived there when we were **first** married.* (= ... in the early days of our marriage.) (NOT ... ~~*when we were at first married*~~.)
***First**, I want to talk about the history of the problem; then I'll outline the situation today; and then we'll discuss possible solutions.* (NOT ~~*At first, I want to talk*~~ ...)

Note that *at last* is not the opposite of *at first* – see 204.
For *first(ly)* as a discourse marker, see also 157.10.

85 auxiliary verbs

1 the need for auxiliary verbs

In English sentences, a lot of important meanings are expressed by the verb phrase – for example questioning, negation, time, completion, continuation, repetition, willingness, possibility, obligation. But English verbs do not have many different forms: the maximum (except for *be*) is five (e.g. *see, sees, seeing, saw, seen*). So to express all these meanings, 'auxiliary' (or 'helping') verbs are added to other verbs. There are two groups.

2 *be, do* and *have*

Be is added to other verbs to make progressive and passive forms.
Is it raining? *She was imprisoned for three years.*
Do is used to make questions, negatives and emphatic forms of non-auxiliary verbs.
Do you smoke? *It didn't matter.* *Do come in.*
Have is used to make perfect forms.
What have you done? *I realised that I hadn't turned the lights off.*
See the Index for details of entries on these forms and their uses, and on non-auxiliary uses of *be, do* and *have.*

3 modal auxiliary verbs

The verbs *will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might, must* and *ought* are usually called 'modal auxiliary verbs'. They are used with other verbs to add various meanings, mostly to do with certainty or obligation.
She may be on holiday.
You must write to Uncle Arthur.
For details, see 353–354 and the entries for each verb.

4 other verb + verb structures

Other verbs (e.g. *seem*) which are used in **verb + verb** structures are not usually called 'auxiliary verbs'. One important difference is grammatical. In auxiliary verb structures, questions and negatives are made without *do*; in other **verb + verb** structures the auxiliary *do* has to be added to the first verb. Compare:

- *She ought to understand.*
  Ought she to understand?
- *She seems to understand.*
  Does she seem to understand?
- *He is swimming.*
  He is not swimming
- *He likes swimming.*
  He doesn't like swimming.

86 (a)wake and (a)waken

1 use

Wake is the most common of these four verbs. It can mean 'stop sleeping' or 'make (somebody else) stop sleeping'. It is often followed by *up*, especially when it means 'stop sleeping'.
I woke up three times in the night.
Wake up! It's time to go to work. (NOT ~~*Wake!*~~...)
Could you wake me (up) at half past six?
Waken is a more literary alternative to *wake (up).*
The princess did not waken for a hundred years.
Then the prince wakened her with a kiss.
Awake and *awaken* are also rather literary words. They can be used to mean 'wake (up)', but are more often used figuratively, to talk not about waking from sleep, but about the waking of emotions, understanding etc.
I slowly awoke to the danger that threatened me.
At first I paid little attention, but slowly my interest awoke.
The smell of her perfume awakened the gipsy's desire. ▸

2 *awake* and *asleep* (adjectives)

In informal British English the adjectives *awake* and *asleep* are more common in predicative position (after *be*) than the verb forms *waking* and *sleeping*.

Is the baby awake yet? *You were asleep at ten o'clock.*

87 back and again

Back and *again* can be used with similar meanings, but there are some differences.

1 *back* with a verb

With a verb, we use *back* to suggest a return to an earlier situation, a movement in the opposite direction to an earlier movement, and similar ideas. *Again* is not normally used in this way with a verb.

Give me my watch ***back.*** (NOT ~~*Give me my watch again.*~~)

I'm taking this meat ***back*** *to the shop.* (NOT ~~*I'm taking this meat to the shop again.*~~)

2 *again* with a verb

With a verb, *again* usually suggests repetition. Compare:

- *That was lovely. Can you play it* ***again?***
  When I've recorded your voice I'll play it ***back.***
- *Eric was really bad-mannered. I'm never going to invite him* ***again.***
  She comes to our parties but she never invites us ***back.***
- *I don't think he got your letter. You'd better write* ***again.***
  If I write to you, will you write ***back?***

Note the difference between *sell back* (to the same person) and *sell again*.

The bike you sold me is too small. Can I sell it ***back*** *to you?*

If we buy this house and then have to move somewhere else, how easy will it be to sell it ***again?***

3 cases when *back* is not used

When the verb itself already expresses the idea of 'return to an earlier situation' or 'movement in the opposite direction', *back* is not generally used.

Stefan can never ***return*** *to his country.* (More natural than *Stefan can never return back . . .*)

Who opened the window? Could you close it, please? (NOT . . . ~~*close it back*~~. . .)

However, *again* can be used to emphasise the idea of 'return'.

Stefan can never ***return*** *to his country* ***again.***

Who opened the window? Could you ***close*** *it* ***again,*** *please?*

4 adverb particles etc

With adverb particles and prepositional phrases, we can use both *back* and *again* to suggest 'return to an earlier situation' etc.

I stood up, and then I sat ***(back) down (again).***

He tasted the apple and spat it ***(back) out (again).***

Go ***(back) to sleep (again).***

I'll be ***(back) in the office (again)*** *on Monday.*

5 *ring/call back*

Note that *ring back* (BrE only) and *call back* can be used to mean both 'return a phone call' and 'repeat a phone call'.

She's not here just now. ~ *Ask her to* ***ring me back.*** (= return my call)
I haven't got time to talk now. ~ *OK, I'll* ***ring back*** *later.* (= ring again)

6 word order

Back is an adverb particle (see 20), and can usually go between a verb and its object, unless this is a pronoun (see 599.4). *Again* cannot.

Take ***back your money*** *– I don't want it.* (OR *Take* ***your money back*** . . .)
Count the ***money again,*** *please.* (NOT ~~*Count again the money*~~ . . .)

For other uses of *back* and *again*, see a good dictionary.

88 bath and bathe

1 *bath*

Pronunciation: *bath* /bɑːθ/ *bathing* /ˈbɑːθɪŋ/ *bathed* /bɑːθt/

This verb is not used in American English.
It can have an object.

It's your turn to ***bath*** *the baby.*

And it can be used to mean 'bath oneself'.

I don't think he ***baths*** *very often.*

This use is rather formal; people more often say *have/take a bath.*

I'm feeling hot and sticky; I think I'll ***have a bath.***

2 *bathe*

Pronunciation: *bathe* /beɪð/ *bathing* /ˈbeɪðɪŋ/ *bathed* /beɪðd/

Bathe is the American equivalent of *bath.* (*Take a bath* is also common.)

It's your turn to ***bathe*** *the baby.* (AmE)
I always ***bathe*** *before I go to bed.* (AmE) (OR . . . *take a bath*)

Bathe can also be used (in both British and American English) to talk about putting water on a part of the body that hurts (for instance sore eyes).

Your eyes are very red – you ought to ***bathe*** *them.*

And ***bathe*** can be used (in British English only) to mean 'swim for pleasure'.

NO BATHING FROM THIS BEACH

This use is rather formal; people more often say *have a swim, go for a swim, go swimming* or just *swim.*

Let's go for a swim in the river.

89 be: progressive forms

I am being / you are being etc + adjective/noun

We can use this structure to talk about actions and behaviour, but not usually to talk about feelings. Compare:

– *You're* ***being*** *stupid.* (= You're doing stupid things.)
I ***was being*** *very careful.* (= I was doing something carefully.) ▸

Who's being a silly baby, then?
– *I'm happy just now.* (NOT ~~*I'm being happy just now.*~~)
I was depressed when you phoned. (NOT ~~*I was being depressed*~~ . . .)
Note the difference between *He's being sick* (BrE = He's vomiting – bringing food up from the stomach) and *He's sick* (= He's ill).

For the use of *am being* etc in passive verb forms, see 412.2.

90 be with auxiliary do

Normally, *be* is used without the auxiliary *do*.
I'm not often sick. (NOT ~~*I don't often be sick.*~~)
But *do* is used to make negative imperative sentences with *be* (when we tell somebody not to do something).
Don't be silly! *Don't be such a nuisance!*
And *do be* can begin emphatic imperatives.
Do be careful! *Do be quiet, for God's sake!*
In an informal style, people sometimes use *do* with *be* in one or two other structures which have a similar meaning to imperative sentences.
Why don't you be a good boy and sit down?
If you don't be quiet you'll go straight to bed.

For other auxiliary uses of *do*, see 159.

91 be + infinitive: I am to ..., you are to ... etc

1 plans and arrangements: *He is to visit Nigeria*

We use this structure in a formal style to talk about official and other plans and arrangements.
The President is to visit Nigeria next month.
We are to get a 10 per cent wage rise in June.
I felt nervous because I was soon to leave home for the first time.
A perfect infinitive can be used to show that a planned event did not happen.
I was to have started work last week, but I changed my mind.

2 'fate': *We were to meet again*

Another use is to talk about things which are/were 'hidden in the future', fated to happen.
I thought we were saying goodbye for ever. But we were to meet again, many years later, under very strange circumstances.

3 pre-conditions: *If we are to get there in time ...*

The structure is common in *if*-clauses, when the main clause expresses a pre-condition – something that must happen first if something else is to happen.
If we are to get there by lunchtime we had better hurry.
He knew he would have to work hard if he was to pass his exam.

4 orders: *You are to do your homework*

The structure is used to give orders, often by parents speaking to children.
You are to do your homework before you watch TV.
She can go to the party, but she's not to be back late.

5 *be* + passive infinitive: *It is not to be removed*

Be **+ passive infinitive** is often used in notices and instructions.

am/are/is (not) to be **+ past participle**

*This cover is **not to be removed.***
Sometimes only the passive infinitive is used.
To be taken three times a day after meals. (on a medicine bottle)
Some other common expressions with ***be*** **+ passive infinitive**:
*There's **nothing to be done.*** *She was **nowhere to be found.***
*I looked out of the window, but there was **nothing to be seen.***

6 tenses

Note that this structure exists only in present and past tenses. We cannot say that somebody ~~*has been to go*~~ *somewhere*, or ~~*will/must be to go*~~ *somewhere.* Participle structures (~~*being to go*~~) are not possible either.

For other ways of talking about the future, see 211–221.

92 be and have

1 physical conditions: hunger, thirst etc

To talk about experiencing hunger, thirst, heat, cold and certain other common physical conditions, we normally use ***be*** (or ***feel***) **+ adjective**, not ***have*** **+ noun**. Note the following expressions:
be hungry (NOT ~~*have hunger*~~) *be thirsty* *be warm*
be hot *be cold* *be sleepy* *be afraid*
Note also:
be right *be wrong* *be lucky*

2 age, height, weight, size and colour

Be is also used to talk about age, height, length, weight, size, shape and colour.
I'm nearly thirty. (NOT ~~*I have nearly thirty*~~.)
She is nearly my age. *He is six feet tall.*
I wish I was ten kilos lighter. *What size are your shoes?*
The room is ten metres long. *What colour are his eyes?*
She is the same height as her father.
Be heavy is not usually used in measuring expressions.
It weighs 37 kilos. (NOT ~~*It's 37 kilos heavy*~~.)

For *have* in expressions like *have a bath, have a drink, have a walk*, see 236.

93 beat and win

You can *win* (in) a game, a race, a battle, an argument etc, and you can *win* a prize, money etc. You can *beat* a person that you are playing/arguing/fighting etc against. Compare:

*My girlfriend usually **wins** when we play poker.*
*My girlfriend **beat** me at poker the first time we played.* (NOT ~~*My girlfriend won me at poker*~~ . . .)

Both verbs are irregular:

beat – beat – beaten *win – won – won*

94 because

1 *because* and *because of*

Because is a conjunction. It is used at the beginning of a clause, before a subject and verb. *Because of* is a two-word preposition, used before a noun or a pronoun. Compare:

– *We were late **because** it rained.* (NOT . . . ~~*because of it rained.*~~)
*We were late **because of** the rain.* (NOT . . . ~~*because the rain.*~~)
– *I'm happy **because** I met you.*
*I'm happy **because of** you.*

2 position of *because*-clauses

Because and its clause can go after or before the main clause.

*I finished early **because** I worked fast.*
***Because** I worked fast, I finished early.*

Because-clauses can sometimes stand alone, especially as answers or after hesitations.

*Why are you crying? ~ **Because** John and I have had a row.*
*I don't think I'll go to the party . . . **Because** I'm feeling a bit tired.*

3 *just because . . . (it) doesn't mean . . .*

This is quite a common structure in informal speech.

***Just because** you're older than me **(it) doesn't mean** you can do what you like.*
***Just because** I'm your brother **(it) doesn't mean** you can keep asking me for money.*

For *because* after *reason*, see 492.
For the differences between *because, as, since* and *for*, see 72.

95 been meaning 'come' or 'gone'

Been is often used as a past participle of *come* and *go*.

*Granny has **been** to see us twice since Christmas.*
*I haven't **been** to the theatre for ages.*
*Have you ever **been** to Northern Ireland?*

Note that *been* is only used for completed visits. Compare:
- *The postman's already **been**.* (He has come and gone away again.)
  Jane's come, so we can start work. (She has come and is still here.)
- *I've **been** to London three times this week.*
  *Where's Lucy?~She's **gone** to London.*

For *be gone*, see 229.

96 before: adverb

1 'at any time before now/then'

We can use *before* to mean 'at any time before now'. In British English, a present perfect tense is normally used.

*I think I've **seen** this film **before**.* *Have you ever **been** here **before**?*

Before can also mean 'at any time before then – before the past moment that we are talking about'. In this case a past perfect tense is used.

*She realised that she **had seen** him **before**.*

2 counting back from a past time: *eight years before*

We also use *before* after a time expression to 'count back' from a past moment – to say how much earlier something else had happened. A past perfect tense is normally used.

*When I went back to the town that I **had left** eight years **before**, everything was different.* (NOT ...~~that I had left before eight years~~...)

To count back from the present, we use *ago*, not *before* (see also 33).

*I left school **four years ago**.* (NOT ...~~four years before~~ / ~~before four years~~)

3 *before, before that* and *first*

Before is not generally used alone to mean 'first' or 'before that happens'. Instead we use *first* or *before that*.

*I want to get married one day. But **before that** / **first**, I want to travel.*
(NOT ...~~But before, I want to travel.~~)

For the difference between *before* and *ever*, see 191.
For *before* as a conjunction and preposition, see 97–98.

97 before: conjunction

before + clause, + clause
clause + *before* + clause

1 position of *before*-clause

Before can join one clause to another. Compare:

***Before** I have breakfast, I spend half an hour doing physical exercises.*
*I prefer to do my exercises **before** I have breakfast.*

(In both sentences, the speaker does exercises first and then has breakfast. In the second example, the *before*-clause is given more importance because it comes at the end. Note the comma in the first example.)

***Before** he did military service, he went to university.*
(He went to university first.)

*He did military service **before he went to university.***
(He did military service first.)

2 present tense with future meaning

With *before*, we use a present tense if the meaning is future (see 580).
*I'll telephone you **before I come.*** (NOT ... ~~*before I will come.*~~)

3 perfect tenses

In clauses with *before*, we often use present perfect and past perfect tenses to emphasise the idea of completion.
*You can't go home **before I've signed** the letters.* (= ... before the moment when I have completed the letters.)
*He went out **before I had finished** my sentence.* (= ... before the moment when I had completed my sentence.)
(Note that in sentences like the last, a past perfect tense can refer to a time *later* than the action of the main verb. This is unusual.)

4 before things that don't happen

We sometimes use *before* to talk about things that don't happen (because something stops them).
*We'd better get out of here **before your father catches us.***
*She left **before I could ask** for her phone number.*

5 *before ...ing*

In a formal style, we often use the structure *before ...ing.*
*Please put out all lights **before leaving** the office.*
*Before **beginning** the book, she spent five years on research.*

For *before* as an adverb and preposition, see 96, 98.

98 before (preposition) and in front of

before: time
in front of: place

Compare:
*I must move my car **before nine o'clock.***
*It's parked **in front of the post office.*** (NOT ... ~~*before the post office.*~~)

Before is normally used to refer to time. However, it can refer to place:

a to talk about order in queues, lists, documents etc
*Do you mind? I was **before / in front of you!***
*Her name comes **before mine** in the alphabet.*
*We use **'a' before a consonant** and **'the' before a vowel.***

b to mean 'in the presence of (somebody important)'
*I came up **before the magistrates** for dangerous driving last week.*

c in the expressions *right before one's eyes, before one's very eyes.*

For the difference between *in front of* and *facing/opposite*, see 402.
For *before* as an adverb and conjunction, see 96–97.
For *by* meaning 'at/on or before', see 117.

99 begin and start

1 meaning; formality

Begin and *start* can both be used with the same meaning.
*I **began/started** teaching when I was 24.*
*If Sheila doesn't come soon, let's **begin/start** without her.*
We generally prefer *begin* when we are using a more formal style. Compare:
*We will **begin** the meeting with a message from the President.*
*Damn! It's **starting** to rain.*

2 cases where *begin* is not possible

Start (but not *begin*) is used to mean:

a 'start a journey'
*I think we ought to **start** at six, while the roads are empty.*

b 'start working' (for machines)
*The car won't **start**.*

c 'make something start'
*How do you **start** the washing machine?*
*The President's wife fired the gun to **start** the race.*

For infinitives and *-ing* forms after *begin* and *start*, see 299.10.

100 below, under, underneath, beneath

1 'lower than': *below* or *under*

The prepositions *below* and *under* can both mean 'lower than'.
*Look in the cupboard **below/under** the sink.*

2 not directly under: *below*

We prefer *below* when one thing is not directly under another.
*The climbers stopped 300m **below** the top of the mountain.*
*A moment later the sun had disappeared **below** the horizon.*

3 covered: *under*

We prefer *under* when something is covered or hidden by what is over it, and when things are touching.
*I think the cat's **under** the bed.*
*What are you wearing **under** your sweater?*
*The whole village is **under** water.* (NOT ...~~*below water.*~~)

4 measurements: *below*

Below is used in measurements of temperature and height, and in other cases where we think of a vertical scale.
*The temperature is three degrees **below** zero.*
*Parts of Holland are **below** sea level.*
*The plane came down **below** the clouds.*
*She's well **below** average in intelligence.* ▸

5 'less than': *under*

We usually use *under*, not *below*, to mean 'less than' or 'younger than'.

*There were **under** twenty people at the lecture.*
*You can't see this film if you're **under** 18.*

6 *underneath*

Underneath is sometimes used as a preposition instead of *under*, but only for physical position. Compare:

*There's a mouse **under(neath)** the piano.*
*He's still **under** 18.* (NOT ... ~~*underneath 18.*~~)

7 *beneath*

Beneath is used mostly in a rather literary style.

*The ship sank slowly **beneath** the waves.*

It is common before abstract nouns in some fixed expressions.

*He acts as if I was **beneath his notice**.* (= not worth considering)
*Her behaviour is **beneath contempt**.* (= really disgraceful)

8 adverbs

Below can be used as an adverb.

*We looked over the cliff at the waves crashing on the rocks **below**.*

Under can be used as an adverb particle (see 20) with some verbs.

*A lot of businesses are **going under** because of the economic crisis.*

In other cases we prefer *underneath* for adverbial use.

*I can't take my sweater off – I haven't got anything on **underneath**.*
(NOT ... ~~*anything on under.*~~)

In a book or a paper, *see below* means 'look at something written later'.

The difference between *above* and *over* is similar to the difference between *below* and *under*. See 6 for details.

101 beside and besides

Beside is a preposition meaning 'at the side of', 'by', 'next to'.

*Who's the big guy sitting **beside** Jane?*

Besides can be used like *as well as* (see 78), when we add new information to what is already known.

***Besides** literature, we have to study history and philosophy.*
*Who was at the party **besides** Jack and the Bensons?*

Besides can also be used as a discourse marker (see 157.11) meaning 'also', 'as well', 'in any case'. It is often used to add a stronger, more conclusive argument to what has gone before. In this case, *besides* usually goes at the beginning of a clause.

*I don't like those shoes; **besides**, they're too expensive.*
*It's too late to go out now. **Besides**, it's starting to rain.*

102 besides, except and apart from

These expressions are sometimes confused.
Besides usually adds: it is like saying *with*, or *plus* (+).
Besides the violin, he plays the piano and the flute. (He plays three instruments.)
Except subtracts: it is like saying *without*, or *minus* (-).
I like all musical instruments except the violin.
Apart from can be used in both senses.
Apart from the violin, he plays the piano and the flute. (= Besides the violin . . .)
I like all musical instruments apart from the violin. (= . . . except the violin.)
After *no, nobody, nothing* and similar negative words, the three expressions can all have the same meaning.
He has nothing besides / except / apart from his salary. (= He only has his salary.)

For the use of *besides* as an adverbial discourse marker, see 157.11. For *beside*, see 101.
For *except* and *except for*, see 194.

103 bet

1 use

I bet (you) can be used in an informal style to mean 'I think it's probable that'. *That* is usually dropped.
I bet (you) she's not at home.
(More natural than *I bet (you) that she's not at home.*)
I'll bet . . . is also possible.
I'll bet you she's not at home.

2 tenses

After *I bet (you)*, we often use a present tense to refer to the future.
I bet (you) they don't come this evening. (OR *I bet (you) they won't come . . .*)
I bet (you) the Conservatives (will) lose.

3 two objects

When *bet* is used to talk about real bets, it can be followed by two objects: the person with whom the bet is made, and the money or thing that is bet.
I bet you £5 it doesn't rain this week.
My father bet my mother dinner at the Ritz that she would marry him. He won, but she never bought him the dinner.
Bet is irregular (*bet – bet – bet*).

104 better

1 'recovered'

When *better* means 'recovered from an illness', it can be used with *completely* or *quite* (unlike other comparative adjectives).
Don't start work again until you're quite better. ▸

2 correcting mistakes

We do not normally use *better* to correct mistakes.
*She's gone to Hungary – or **rather**, Poland.* (NOT ... ~~*or better, Poland.*~~)

For the structure *had better*, see 230.

105 between and among

1 *between* two

We say that something is *between* two people, things, or groups of things.
*She was standing **between** Alice and Mary.*
*a long valley **between** high mountains*
Between is often used to talk about distances or intervals.
*We need **two metres between** the windows.*
*I'll be at the office **between nine and eleven**.*
Between is common before *each*.
*There seems to be less and less time **between each** birthday.*

2 *between* or *among* more than two

We usually say that somebody or something is *between* several clearly separate people or things. We prefer *among* when somebody or something is in a group, a crowd or a mass of people or things which we do not see separately.
Compare:
– *Our house is **between** the woods, the river and the village.*
*His house is hidden **among** the trees.*
– *I saw something **between** the wheels of the car.*
*Your letter is somewhere **among** all these papers.*
Among is normal before a singular (uncountable) noun.
*They found an envelope full of money **among** all the rubbish.*

3 dividing and sharing; *difference*

We can talk about *dividing* or *sharing* things *between* or *among* more than two people or groups.
*He **divided** all his money **between/among** his children and grandchildren.*
*We **shared** the work **between/among** the five of us.*
We normally use *between* after *difference*.
*There are enormous **differences between** languages.*
*What's the **difference between** 'between' and 'among'?*

4 'one of' etc

Among can mean 'one of', 'some of' or 'included in'.
Among the first to arrive was the ambassador.
*He has a number of criminals **among** his friends.*

106 big, large and great

1 concrete nouns: usually *big* or *large*

With concrete nouns – the names of things you can see, touch etc – we mostly use *big* and *large*. *Big* is most common in an informal style.

*Get your **big** feet off my flowers.*
*She is a small woman, but she has very **large** feet.*
*It was a **large** house, situated near the river.*

2 *great* with concrete nouns

Great is not normally used simply to talk about physical size. In an informal style, it is often used with concrete nouns to mean 'wonderful'.

*I've just got a **great** new flat.*

And it can also be used with meanings like 'large and impressive'.

Great clouds of smoke rose above the burning cathedral.

Another meaning is 'famous' or 'important'.

*Do you think Napoleon was really a **great** man?*

3 abstract nouns: usually *great*

Great is common with abstract nouns – the names of things you cannot see, touch etc.

*I have **great** respect for her ideas.* (NOT ~~*big/large respect*~~)
*His behaviour caused **great** annoyance.* (NOT ~~*big/large annoyance*~~)
*You are making a **great** mistake.*
*Her work showed a **great** improvement last year.*

Big can be used with countable abstract nouns in an informal style.

*You're making **a big** mistake.*
***Big bargains** for weekend shoppers!*

Large is used with countable abstract nouns referring to quantities, amounts and proportions.

*We're thinking of giving your firm a very **large** order.*
*There was a **large** error in the accounts.*
*She spent **large** sums on entertaining.*
*He wrote a **large** part of the book while he was in hospital.*

Big and *large* are not generally used with uncountable nouns – but note the fixed expressions *big business, big trouble.*

4 *large* and *wide*

Large is a 'false friend' for speakers of some languages. It does not mean 'wide'.

*The river is 100 metres **wide**.* (NOT ... ~~*100 metres large.*~~)

For *wide* and *broad*, see 115.

107 [a] bit

1 use

A bit is often used as an adverb with the same meaning as *a little* (see 329).

*She's **a bit** old to play with dolls, isn't she?* ▸

*Can you drive **a bit** slower?* *Wait **a bit**.*
Note that when *a bit* and *a little* are used with non-comparative adjectives, the meaning is usually negative or critical.
a bit tired *a bit expensive* *a little (too) old*
(BUT NOT ~~*a bit kind, a little interesting*~~)

2 a bit of a

A bit of a can be used before some nouns in an informal style. The meaning is similar to *rather a* (see 490).
*He's **a bit of a** fool, if you ask me.* *I've got **a bit of a** problem.*

3 not a bit

The informal expression *not a bit* means 'not at all'.
*I'm **not a bit** tired.* *Do you mind if I put some music on? ~ **Not a bit**.*

For *a bit* with comparative adjectives and adverbs, see 140.

108 born and borne

1 be born

To talk about coming into the world at birth, we use the passive expression *to be born*.
*Hundreds of children **are born** deaf every year.*
To give a place or date of birth, we use the simple past: *was/were born*.
*I **was born** in 1936.* (NOT ~~*I am born in 1936*~~.)
*My parents **were born** in Scotland.*

2 the verb bear

The verb *bear* (*bore, borne*) is used to talk about accepting or tolerating difficult experiences. It is most common in the expression *can't bear* (= hate, can't stand).
*I **can't bear** her voice.*
In a very formal style, *bear* can be used with other meanings, including 'give birth to' and 'carry'.
*She **bore** six children in seven years.* (More normal: *She had six children . . .*)
*The king's body was **borne** away to the cathedral.*

109 borrow and lend

Borrowing is **taking** (for a time).
*Can I **borrow** your bicycle?* (NOT ~~*Can I lend your bicycle?*~~)
You borrow something **from** somebody.
*I **borrowed** a pound **from** my brother.* (NOT ~~*I borrowed my brother a pound*~~.)
Lending (AmE also *loaning*) is **giving** (for a time). You lend something **to** somebody, or **lend somebody** something.
*I **lent** my coat **to** Steve, and I never saw it again.*
*Lend **me** your comb for a minute, will you?* (NOT ~~*Borrow me your*~~ . . .)

For *lend* in passive structures, see 415.

110 both

1 meaning

Both means 'each of two'.

Both my parents were born in Scotland.

We do not normally use *both* when the meaning is not 'each'.

My two brothers carried the piano upstairs. (More natural than *Both my brothers carried the piano upstairs* – they didn't each carry it separately.)

2 *both* and *both of*

Before a noun with a determiner (e.g. *the, my, these*), *both* and *both of* are both possible.

*She's eaten **both (of) the** chops.* *Both (of) **these** oranges are bad.*

*He lost **both (of) his** parents when he was a child.*

We often drop *the* or a possessive after *both*; *of* is not used in this case.

*She's eaten **both** chops.* (NOT ... ~~*both of chops*~~)

*He lost **both** parents when he was a child.*

3 *the* not used before *both*

Note that we do not put *the* before *both*.

both (the) children (NOT ~~*the both children*~~)

4 personal pronouns: *both of*

With personal pronouns, we use ***both of* + *us/you/them***. *Both of us/you/them* can be a subject or object.

***Both of them** can come tomorrow.*

*She's invited **both of us**.* *Mary sends **both of you** her love.*

We can put *both* after pronouns used as objects.

*She's invited **us both**.* *Mary sends **you both** her love.*

But this structure is not used in complements (after *be*) or in short answers.

*Who broke the window – Sarah or Alice? ~ It was **both of them**.*
(NOT ... ~~*them both*~~.)

*Who did she invite? ~ **Both of us**.* (NOT ~~*Us both*~~.)

5 *both* with a verb

When *both* refers to the subject of a clause, it can go with the verb, in 'mid-position' (for details of word order, see 24).

*We **can both** swim.* *Those oranges were **both** bad.*

*The children have **both** gone to bed.* *My sisters **both** work in education.*

Note that these meanings can also be expressed by using *both (of)* with a subject (see above).

***Both of us** can swim.* ***Both (of) the children** have gone to bed.*

6 negative structures

Instead of *both ... not*, we normally use *neither* (see 372).

Neither of them is here. (NOT ~~*Both of them are not here*~~.)

111 both ... and

We often balance this structure, so that the same kind of words or expressions follow *both* and *and*.

*She's **both** pretty **and** clever.* (adjectives)
*I spoke to **both** the Director **and** her secretary.* (nouns)
*She **both** dances **and** sings.* (verbs)

However, unbalanced sentences with *both ... and* are common. Some people prefer to avoid them.

*She **both** dances **and** she sings.* (*both* + verb; *and* + clause)
*I **both** play the piano **and** the violin.*

Both cannot begin a complete clause in this structure.

*You can **both** borrow the flat **and** (you can) use our car.* (BUT NOT ~~*Both you can borrow the flat and you can use the car.*~~)

See also *either ... or* (175), *neither ... nor* (373) and *not only ... but also* (383).

112 bring and take

1 speaker's/hearer's position

We use *bring* for movements to the place where the speaker or hearer is, but we use *take* for movements to other places. Compare:

– *This is a nice restaurant. Thanks for **bringing** me here.* (NOT ... ~~*thanks for taking me here.*~~)
*Let's have another drink, and then I'll **take** you home.* (NOT ... ~~*and then I'll bring you home.*~~)
– (on the phone) *Can we come over on Sunday? We'll **bring** a picnic.*
*Let's go and see Aunt May on Sunday. We can **take** a picnic.*

2 speaker's/hearer's past or future position

We can also use *bring* for a movement to a place where the speaker or hearer already was or will be. Compare:

– *Where's that report? ~ I **brought** it to you when you were in Mr Allen's office. Don't you remember?*
*I **took** the papers to John's office.*
– *I'll arrive at the hotel at six o'clock. Can you **bring** the car at six-thirty?*
*Can you **take** the car to the garage tomorrow? I won't have time.* (NOT ~~*Can you bring the car to the garage tomorrow?*~~ ...)

3 joining a movement

Bring (with) can be used to talk about joining a movement of the speaker's/hearer's, even if *take* is used for the movement itself.

*I'm **taking** the kids to the cinema tonight. Would you like to come with us and **bring** Susie?*

4 somebody else's position

Sometimes when we are talking about somebody else (not the speaker or hearer), that person can become the centre of our attention. In that case, we

use *bring* for movements to the place where he/she is (or was or will be). This often happens in stories.

*He heard nothing for months. Then one day his brother **brought** him a letter.*

5 American English

Americans often use *bring* where British English has *take*.

*Let's go and see Aunt May on Sunday. We can **bring** a picnic.*

The difference between *come* and *go* is similar. See 134.

For other uses of *take*, see 576.

113 bring up and educate

Bring up and the noun *upbringing* are mostly used for the moral and social training that children receive at home. *Educate* and *education* are used for the intellectual and cultural training that people get at school and university.

*Lucy was **brought up** by her aunt and **educated** at the local school.*

*Their kids are very badly **brought up** – always screaming and fighting.*

(NOT ~~*Their kids are very badly educated*~~ . . .)

*Which is better: a good **upbringing** and a bad **education**, or the opposite?*

114 Britain, the United Kingdom, the British Isles and England

(Great) Britain is normally used to mean the island which includes England, Scotland and Wales; *British* is used for the people of these three countries. Great Britain and Northern Ireland together are called *the United Kingdom*; some people also use *Britain* in this wider sense.

The British Isles is a geographical, not a political term. It is the name for England, Scotland, Wales, the whole of Ireland (which includes both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, also called 'Eire'), and the smaller islands round about.

Note that *England* is only one part of Britain. Scotland and Wales are not in England, and Scottish and Welsh people do not like to be called 'English'.

A very informal word for a British person is *Brit*. *Briton* is used mainly in news reports and newspaper headlines (e.g. *THREE BRITONS DIE IN AIR CRASH*), and to refer to the ancient inhabitants of Britain.

115 broad and wide

1 physical distance

To talk about the physical distance from one side of something to the other, we more often use *wide*.

*We live in a very **wide** street.* *The car's too **wide** for the garage.*

Broad can also be used in this physical sense, especially in more formal descriptions.

*Across the **broad** valley, the mountains rose blue and mysterious.*

*She wore a simple green dress with a **broad** black belt.* ▸

Note also: ***broad** shoulders*; *a **broad** back*; *wide eyes*; *a **wide** mouth*.
Wide is used in expressions of measurement: note the word order.
*The river is about **half a mile wide**.* (NOT ... ~~*wide half a mile.*~~)

2 abstract meanings

Both words can express more abstract meanings. Common expressions:
***broad** agreement* (= agreement on most important points)
***broad**-minded* (= tolerant) ***broad** daylight* (= full, bright daylight)
*a **wide** variety/range* (of opinions etc)

For other common expressions with *broad* and *wide*, see a good dictionary.

116 but meaning 'except'

1 use

We use *but* to mean 'except' after *all, none, every, any, no* (and *everything, everybody, nothing, nobody, anywhere* etc).
*He eats **nothing but** hamburgers.* *Everybody's here **but** George.*
*I've finished **all** the jobs **but** one.*
Note the expressions *next but one, last but two* etc (mainly BrE).
*Jackie lives **next** door **but** one.* (= two houses from me)
*I was **last but** two in the race yesterday.*
But for expresses the idea 'if something had not existed/happened'.
*I would have been in real trouble **but for** your help.*
***But for** the storm, I would have been home before eight.*
Note also the structure *who/what should ... but* (used to talk about surprising appearances, meetings etc).
*I walked out of the station, and **who should** I see **but** old Beryl?*
*I looked under the bed, and **what should** I find **but** the keys I lost last week?*

2 pronouns after *but*

After *but*, we usually use object pronouns (*me, him* etc). Subject pronouns (*I, he* etc) are possible in a more formal style before a verb.
*Nobody **but her** would do a thing like that.*
(More formal: *Nobody but she ...*)

3 verbs after *but*

The verb form after *but* usually depends on what came before. Infinitives are normally without *to*.
*She's not interested in anything **but skiing**.* (*interested in ... skiing*)
*That child does nothing **but watch** TV.* (*does ... watch*)
Cannot (help) but** + **infinitive without to is sometimes used with the meaning of 'can't help ...ing' (see 126). *Cannot but ...* is very formal; *cannot help but ...* is especially common in American English.
*One **cannot (help) but admire** his courage.* (= One has to admire ...)
*I **can't help but wonder** what's going to happen to us all.*
Infinitives with *to* are used after *no alternative/choice/option but*.
*The train was cancelled, so I had **no alternative but to take** a taxi.*

4 *but* meaning 'only'

In older English, *but* was used to mean 'only', but this is now very unusual.
*She is **but** a child.*

Note: *but* is usually pronounced /bət/, not /bʌt/ (see 616).
For *except*, see 194.
For *but* as a conjunction and ellipsis after *but*, see 178.

117 by: time

1 not later than

By can mean 'not later than'.
*I'll be home **by** five o'clock.* (= at or before five)
*Can I borrow your car? ~ Yes, but I must have it back **by** tonight.* (= tonight or before)
By can also suggest the idea of 'progress up to a particular time'.
By the end of the meal, everybody was drunk.
Before a verb, we use *by the time (that)*.
*I'll be in bed **by the time** you get home.*
By the time that the guards realised what was happening, the gang were already inside the bank.

For the difference between *by* and *until*, see 602.6.

2 other meanings

By can also be used to talk about time in the rather literary expressions *by day* and *by night* (= during the day/night).
*He worked **by night** and slept **by day**.*
Note also *day by day, hour by hour* etc.
*The situation is getting more serious **day by day**.* (= . . . each day.)
And one can pay *by the hour, by the day* etc.
*In this job we're paid **by the hour**.*
*You can hire a bicycle **by the day** or **by the week**.*

118 by and near

By means 'just at the side of'; something that is *by* you may be closer than something that is *near* you. Compare:
*We live **near** the sea.* (perhaps five kilometres away)
*We live **by** the sea.* (We can see it.)

119 by (method, agent) and with (tools etc)

1 the difference

By and *with* can both be used to say how somebody does something, but there is an important difference.
We use *by* to talk about an action – what we **do** to get a result. We use *with* to talk about a tool or other object – what we **use** to get a result. Compare: ▸

– *I killed the spider **by hitting it.*** (Note the *-ing* form after *by*.)
*I killed the spider **with a shoe.*** (NOT ... ~~*by a shoe*~~.)
– *I got where I am **by hard work.*** ~ *No you didn't. You got there **with your wife's money.***

Without is the opposite of both *by* and *with* in these cases. Compare:
– *I got her to listen **by** shouting.*
*It's difficult to get her to listen **without** shouting.*
– *We'll have to get it out **with** a screwdriver.*
*We can't get it out **without** a screwdriver.*

By is also used to refer to means of transport (*by bus, by train* etc). See 70.1.

2 passive clauses

In passive clauses, *by* introduces the agent – the person or thing that does the action (see 413).
*I was interviewed **by** three directors.*
*My car was damaged **by** a falling branch.*

We generally prefer *with* to refer to a tool or instrument used by somebody. Compare:
*He was killed **by** a heavy stone.* (This could mean 'A stone fell and killed him'.)
*He was killed **with** a heavy stone.* (This means 'Somebody used a stone to kill him'.)

120 call

Call (with no object) can mean both 'telephone' and 'visit'. This sometimes causes confusion.
*Alice **called** this morning.* ~ *You mean she came round or she phoned?*

121 can and could (1): introduction

1 grammar

Can and *could* are modal auxiliary verbs (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.
*She **can** swim very well.* (NOT ~~*She cans*~~...)

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Can you swim? (NOT ~~*Do you can swim?*~~)
*I **couldn't** understand her.* (NOT ~~*I didn't could*~~...)

c After *can* and *could*, we use the infinitive of other verbs, without *to*.
*I **can** speak a little Arabic.* (NOT ~~*I can to speak*~~...)
*Do you think she **can** still be working? It's very late.*

d *Can* and *could* have no infinitives or participles (~~*to can*~~, ~~*canning*~~, ~~*I have could*~~ do not exist). When necessary, we use other words, for example forms of *be able* (see 3) or *be allowed* (see 42).
*I'd like to **be able** to stay here.* (NOT ... ~~*to can stay*~~...)
*You'll **be able** to walk soon.* (NOT ~~*You'll can*~~...)

*I've always **been able** to play games well.* (NOT ~~*I've always could*~~...)
*She's always **been allowed** to do what she liked.*

e *Could* is sometimes used as the past of *can*.
*When I was younger I **could** play tennis very well.*
However, it can also be used as a less definite or conditional form of *can*, referring to the present or future (see 122.6, 124.1,4–6).
***Could** I ask you something?* (More polite than *Can I ... ?*)
*What shall we do this evening? ~ We **could** go and see a film.*
*I **could** get a better job if I spoke French.* (= I would be able to ...)

f Certain past ideas can be expressed by *can* or *could* followed by a perfect infinitive (***have** + past participle*). For details, see 122.7, 123.5 and 124.7.
*I don't know where she **can have** gone.*
*That was dangerous – he **could have killed** somebody.*

g *Can* has two pronunciations: a strong form /kæn/ and a weak form /kən/. *Could* has a strong form /kʊd/ and a weak form /kəd/. The weak pronunciation is used in most cases. For more details of strong and weak pronunciations, see 616.

h Contracted negative forms (see 143) are *can't* (pronounced /kɑːnt/ in standard British English and /kænt/ in standard American English) and *couldn't* (/ˈkʊdnt/). *Cannot* is usually written as one word in British English.

2 meanings

Can and *could* are both used to talk about ability, to ask for and give permission, and to make requests and offers.
***Can** you speak French?* (ability)
*You **can** stop work early today.* (permission)
***Could** I have some more tea?* (request)
***Can** I help you?* (offer)
Could is also used to talk about the chances that something will happen, or is happening. *Can* is not used in this way.
*It **could** rain this afternoon.* (NOT ~~*It can rain this afternoon.*~~)
Can't is not only used to talk about ability or permission; it can also express negative certainty (see 359.2).
*It **can't** be true.* (= It is not possible that it is true.)
With *see*, *hear* and some other verbs, *can* is used to give a kind of present progressive meaning.
*I **can** hear the sea.* (NOT ~~*I am hearing the sea.*~~)
May and *might* are often used in similar ways to *can* and *could*. For the main differences, see 345.

122 can and could (2): ability

1 knowledge, skill, strength etc: *I can read Italian*

We use *can* to say what people and things are able (or unable) to do because of their knowledge, skill, strength, nature, design etc.
*I **can** read Italian, but I **can't** speak it.*
*Dogs **can't** climb trees.*
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.*
Can gases freeze? ▸

Henry can lift 100 kilos. *My car can do 180kph.*

Be able to (see 3) is used with similar meanings, especially when we are talking about people's ability.

Henry is able to lift 100 kilos.

2 common or typical

We often use *can* to say what is common or typical.

Scotland can be very warm in September.

Ann can really get on your nerves sometimes.

3 possible in the situation: *We can go to Paris*

We also use *can* to say what we are able (or unable) to do because of the circumstances that we are in – what is possible in the situation.

We can go to Paris this weekend, because I don't have to work.

I can't come out this evening: I have to see my brother.

There are three possibilities: we can go to the police, we can talk to a lawyer, or we can forget all about it.

What shall we do? ~ We can try asking Lucy for help.

Anybody who wants to can join the club.

4 past: *She could read when she was four*

We use *could* to talk about the past.

She could read when she was four.

My grandmother could sing like an angel.

My last car could do 200kph.

In those days everybody could find a job.

It could be quite frightening if you were alone in our big old house.

Was able to is also possible, especially to talk about people's ability.

She was able to read when she was four.

5 past: *could* is not always possible

We use *could* for 'general ability' – for example to say that somebody could do something at any time, whenever he/she wanted.

When I was younger, I could run 10km in under 40 minutes.

We do not normally use *could* to say that somebody did something on one occasion. Instead, we use other expressions.

I managed to run 10km yesterday in under an hour. (NOT ~~*I could run 10km yesterday*~~ . . .)

How many eggs were you able to get? (NOT . . . ~~*could you get?*~~)

After six hours' climbing, we succeeded in getting to the top of the mountain. (NOT . . . ~~*we could get to the top*~~ . . .)

I found a really nice dress in the sale. (NOT ~~*I could find*~~ . . .)

However, we use *couldn't* to say that something did not happen on one occasion.

I managed to find the street, but I couldn't find her house.

6 other uses of *could*

Could is not only past: we also use it as a 'softer', less definite form of *can*.

What shall we do tomorrow? ~ Well, we could go fishing.

When you're in Spain, you could go and see Alex.

Could can mean 'would be able to'.

You could get a better job if you spoke a foreign language.

Could is used in past indirect speech, when *can* was used in direct speech.

Can you help me?~What did you say?~I asked if you could help me.

7 could have ...

We use a special structure to talk about unrealised past ability or opportunities – to say that somebody was able to do something, but did not try to do it; or that something was possible, but did not happen.

could have + past participle

I could have married anybody I wanted to.
I was so angry I could have killed her!
Why did you jump out of the window? You could have hurt yourself
I could have won the race if I hadn't fallen.

This structure can be used to criticise people for not doing things.

You could have helped me – why did you just sit and watch?

Negative sentences suggest that somebody would not have been able to do something even if they had wanted or tried to.

I couldn't have won, so I didn't go in for the race.
I couldn't have enjoyed myself more – it was a perfect day.

The structure is sometimes used to talk about past events which are not certain to have happened (like *may/might have* – see 339.7).

Who sent those flowers?~I'm not sure. It could have been your mother.

8 chances: *Will it happen? / Is it happening?* Can not used

We do not use *can* to talk about the chances (probability) that something will actually happen, or is actually happening. Instead, we use *may* (see 339).

We may go camping this summer. (NOT ~~*We can go*~~...)
There may be a strike next week. (NOT ~~*There can be*~~...)
Where's Sarah?~She may be with Joe. (NOT ~~*She can be*~~...)
Some of these desserts may contain alcohol. (NOT ...~~*can contain*~~...)

However, *could* is possible in this sense.

It could rain later this evening, perhaps. (BUT NOT ~~*It can rain later*~~...)
I could possibly have a new job soon. (BUT NOT ~~*I can possibly have*~~...)

For a comparison between *can, could, may* and *might*, see 345.
For *can't* used to express certainty (e.g. *It can't be true*), see 359.2.

123 can and could (3): ability (advanced points)

1 future: *can* or *will be able*

We use *can* to talk about future actions which we will be able to do because of present ability, present circumstances, present decisions etc.

She can win the race tomorrow if she really tries.
I've bought the tent, so we can go camping next weekend if we want to.
I haven't got time today, but I can see you tomorrow.
Can you come to a party on Saturday?

In other cases we prefer other structures, for example *will be able to.*

I'll be able to speak French at the end of this course.
(NOT ~~*I can speak French*~~...)

One day people will be able to go to the moon on holiday.
(OR *it will be possible to go . . .*)

2 *could* in the past

Could is not normally used to say that somebody did something on one occasion in the past (see 122.5).

*I **managed** to buy a really nice coat yesterday.* (NOT ~~*I could buy a really nice coat yesterday*~~.)

However, *could* can refer to one occasion with certain verbs: *see, hear, taste, feel, smell, understand, remember* and *guess* (see 125),

*I **could smell** something burning.* *I **could understand** everything she said.*

And we can use *could* to talk about one occasion with words like *hardly* or *only*, that have a negative sense.

*She **could hardly** believe her eyes.* *I **could only** get six eggs.*

Could can also sometimes refer to one occasion in subordinate clauses.

*I'm so glad that you **could** come.*

3 languages and instruments: *She speaks Greek*

We often leave out *can* when we are talking about the ability to speak languages or to play instruments.

*She **speaks** Greek. / She **can speak** Greek.*
*Do/**Can** you play the piano?*

4 *can/could always*

Can/could always can mean 'can/could . . . if there is nothing better'.

*I don't know what to get Mark for his birthday. ~ Well, you **can always** give him a book token.*
*What are we going to eat? ~ We **could always** warm up that soup.*

5 *could have . . .* for present situations

Could have + past participle can refer to present situations which were possible but have not been realised.

*He **could have been** Prime Minister now if he hadn't decided to leave politics.*
*We **could have spent** today at the seaside, but we thought it was going to rain, so we decided not to.*

124 can and could (4): interpersonal uses (permission, requests etc)

1 asking for and giving permission: *Can I . . .?*

We use *can* to ask for and give permission.

*Can I ask you something? ~ Yes, of course you **can**.*
*You **can** go now if you want to.*

Can't is used to refuse permission (often with other words to soften the refusal.)

*Can I have some more cake? ~ No, I'm afraid you **can't**.*

We also use *could* to ask for permission; it is more polite or formal than *can*. We do not use *could* to give or refuse permission (it suggests respect, so is more natural in asking for permission than in giving it.)

Could I ask you something? ~ *Yes, of course you can.* (NOT ... ~~*of course you could.*~~)

May and *might* are also used to ask and give permission (see 340). They are more formal than *can/could*. Some people consider them more 'correct', but in fact *can* and *could* are normally preferred in informal educated usage.

2 talking about permission: *Can everybody park here?*

Can and *could* are also used to talk about permission that has already been given or refused, and about things that are (not) allowed by rules and laws. (Note that *may* is not normally used to talk about rules and laws – see 340.3.)

*She said I **could** come as often as I liked.*

Can everybody park here? (NOT ~~*May everybody park here?*~~)

3 past: *could* is not always possible

In talking about the past, we use *could* to say that somebody had permission to do something at any time ('general permission'), but we do not use *could* to talk about permission for one particular action in the past. Compare:

*When I was a child, I **could** watch TV whenever I wanted to.*

*Yesterday evening, Peter **was allowed** to watch TV for an hour.* (NOT ... ~~*Peter could watch TV for an hour.*~~)

But *could not* can be used to talk about one particular action.

*Peter **couldn't** watch TV yesterday because he was naughty.*

(The difference between *could* and *was/were allowed* is similar to the difference between *could* and *was/were able* – see 122.5.)

4 could = 'would be allowed'

Could has a conditional use (= would be allowed).

*He **could** borrow my car if he asked.*

Could have **+ past participle** means 'would have been allowed'.

*I **could have** kissed her if I'd wanted to.*

5 offers

We often use *can* when we offer to do things for people.

Can I carry your bag? (= Would you like me to ...) ~ Oh, thank you.

*I **can** baby-sit for you this evening if you like.* ~ *No, it's all right, thanks.*

Could is possible if we want an offer to sound less definite.

*I **could** mend your bicycle for you, if that would help.*

6 requests, orders and suggestions

We can use *can* and *could* to ask or tell people to do things. *Could* is more polite, more formal or less definite, and is often used for making suggestions.

Can you put the children to bed?

Could you lend me five pounds until tomorrow?

*Do you think you **could** help me for a few minutes?*

*When you've finished the washing-up you **can** clean the kitchen. Then you **could** iron the clothes, if you like.*

*If you haven't got anything to do you **could** sort out your photos.* ▸

7 criticisms

Could can be used to criticise people for not doing things.
You could ask before you borrow my car.
Could have + past participle is used for criticisms about the past.
You could have told me you were getting married.

For the use of *might* in similar cases, see 344.

8 indirect speech

Could is used in past indirect speech, when *can* was used in direct speech.
Can you give me a hand? ~ *What?* ~ *I asked if you could give me a hand.*

125 can and could (5): with see, hear, etc

1 *see, hear, feel, smell, taste*

When these verbs refer to perception (receiving information through the eyes, ears etc), we do not normally use progressive forms. To talk about seeing, hearing etc at a particular moment, we often use *can see, can hear* etc (especially in British English).
I can see Susan coming. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing*~~...)
Can you hear somebody coming up the stairs?
What did you put in the stew? I can taste something funny.
Suddenly she realised she could smell something burning.
In American English, *I see/hear* etc are common in this sense.

2 *guess, tell*

Can and *could* are often used with *guess* and with *tell* (meaning *see, know*). *Can/could* are not normally used with *know* in the sense of 'find out' (see 313.5).
I could guess what she wanted.
You can tell he's Irish from his accent. (NOT ~~*You can know*~~...)

3 *understand, follow, remember*

Can/could is often used with these verbs too. It does not always add very much to the meaning.
I can't/don't understand what she's talking about.
Do/Can you follow what he's saying?
I (can) remember your grandfather.

126 can't help

If you say that you *cannot/can't help* doing something, you mean that you can't stop yourself, even if you don't want to do it.
She's a selfish woman, but somehow you can't help liking her.
Excuse me – I couldn't help overhearing what you said.
Sorry I broke the cup – I couldn't help it.
Can't help can be followed by *but* + infinitive without *to* (see 116.3), with the same meaning as *can't help ...ing*. This is common in American English.
I can't help but wonder what I should do next.

127 care: take care (of), care (about) and care for

1 *take care of*

Take care of normally means 'look after' or 'take responsibility for'.

*Nurses **take care of** people in hospital.*
*It's no good giving Peter a rabbit: he's too young to **take care of** it properly.*
*Ms Savage **takes care of** marketing, and I'm responsible for production.*

Take care (without a preposition) means 'be careful'. Some people use it as a formula when saying goodbye.

***Take care** when you're crossing the road, children.*
*Bye, Ruth. ~ Bye, Mike. **Take care.***

2 *care (about)*

Care (about) is used to say whether you feel something is important to you. This is very common in negative sentences. *About* is used before an object, but is usually left out before a conjunction.

*Most people **care about** other people's opinions.*
(NOT ... ~~*take care of*~~ / ~~*care for other people's opinions*~~)
*I don't **care whether** it rains – I'm happy.*
*I'll never speak to you again. ~ I don't **care**.*
*Your mother's upset with you. ~ I couldn't **care** less.* (= I don't care at all.)

3 *care for*

Care for can be used to mean 'look after'.

*He spent years **caring for** his sick mother.*

Another meaning is 'like' or 'be fond of', but this is not very common in modern English.

*I don't much **care for** strawberries.*

128 changes: become, get, go, grow, etc

Become, get, go, come, grow and *turn* can all be used with similar meanings to talk about changes. The differences between them are complicated – they depend partly on grammar, partly on meaning and partly on fixed usage.

1 *become dark, become a pilot* etc

Become can be used before adjectives and noun phrases.

*It was **becoming** very dark.*
*What do you have to do to **become a pilot**?*

Become is not usually used to talk about single deliberate actions.

*Please **get** ready now.* (NOT ~~*Please become ready now.*~~)

2 *get dark, younger* etc

Get (informal) is very common before adjectives (without nouns).

*It was **getting** very dark.* (informal)
*You **get** younger every day.* (informal)

Get can also be used before past participles like *lost, broken, dressed, married.*

*They **got** married in 1986, and **got** divorced two years later.* ▸

We generally use *go*, not *get*, to talk about changes of colour and some changes for the worse (like *go mad*) – see paragraph 4 below.
Get is not normally used before nouns to talk about changes.
*I **became a grandfather** last week.* (NOT ~~*I got a grandfather*~~...)

For *get used to*, see 605.

3 *get* + infinitive

We can sometimes use *get* with an infinitive to talk about a gradual change.
*After a few weeks I **got to like** the job better.*
*She's nice when you **get to know** her.*

4 *go red, go mad* etc

Go can be used before adjectives to talk about change, especially in an informal style. This is common in two cases.

a colours

Go (and not *get*) is used to talk about changes of colour.
*Leaves **go brown** in autumn.* (NOT ~~*Leaves get brown*~~...)
*She **went white** with anger.*
*Suddenly everything **went black** and I lost consciousness.*
Other examples: *go blue with cold / red with embarrassment / green with envy.*
Turn can also be used in these cases (see below), and so can *grow* when the change is gradual. *Go* is more informal than *turn* and *grow*.

b changes for the worse

Go (not usually *get*) is used before adjectives in some expressions that refer to changes for the worse. People ***go mad*** (BrE), *crazy, deaf, blind, grey* or ***bald***; horses ***go lame***; machines ***go wrong***; iron ***goes rusty***; meat, fish or vegetables ***go bad***; cheese ***goes mouldy***; milk ***goes off*** or *sour*; bread ***goes stale***; beer, lemonade, musical instruments and car tyres ***go flat***.
*He **went bald** in his twenties.* *The car keeps **going wrong**.*
Note that we use *get*, not *go*, with *old, tired* and *ill*.

5 *come true* etc

Come is used in a few fixed expressions to talk about things finishing up all right. The most common are *come true* and *come right*.
*I'll make all your dreams **come true**.*
*Trust me – it will all **come right** in the end.*
Come + **infinitive** can be used to talk about changes in mental state or attitude.
*I slowly **came to realise** that she knew what she was doing.*
*You will **come to regret** your decision.*

6 *grow old* etc

Grow is used before adjectives especially to talk about slow and gradual changes. It is more formal than *get* or *go*, and a little old-fashioned or literary.
*Without noticing it he **grew old**.*
*When they **grew rich** they began to drop their old friends.*
*As the weather **grows colder**, my thoughts turn to holidays in the sun.*

Grow + **infinitive** can be used (like *come* + **infinitive**) to talk about changes in attitude, especially if these are gradual.

He grew to accept his stepmother, but he never grew to love her.

7 *turn red* etc

Turn is used mostly for visible or striking changes of state. It is common before colour words (and is not so informal as *go*).

*She **turned bright red** and ran out of the room.*

*He **turns nasty** after he's had a couple of drinks.*

We can use *turn* before numbers to talk about important changes of age.

*I **turned fifty** last week. It's all downhill from now on.*

Turn into is used before nouns.

*He's a lovely man, but when he gets jealous he **turns into a monster**.*

*A girl has to kiss a lot of frogs before one of them **turns into a prince**.*

Turn to and *turn into* can both be used before the names of materials.

*Everything that King Midas touched **turned (in)to gold**.*

*They stood there as if they had been **turned (in)to stone**.*

To talk about a change of occupation, religion, politics etc, we sometimes use *turn* with a noun (with no preposition or article) or an adjective.

*He worked in a bank for thirty years before **turning painter**.*

*Towards the end of the war he **turned traitor**.*

*At the end of her life she **turned Catholic**.*

Turn (in)to can also be used to talk about changing one thing into another.

*In the Greek legend, Circe **turned men into pigs**.*

8 *fall ill* etc

Fall is used to mean 'become' in *fall ill, fall asleep* and *fall in love.*

9 verbs related to adjectives: *thicken, brighten* etc

A number of verbs which are related to adjectives have meanings like 'get more ...' or 'make more ...'. Many of them end in *-en*. Examples:

*The fog **thickened**.* *They're **widening** the road here.*

*The weather's beginning to **brighten** up.* *His eyes **narrowed**.*

*Could you **shorten** the sleeves on this jacket?*

10 no change: *stay, keep, remain*

To talk about things not changing, we can use *stay, keep* or *remain* before adjectives. *Remain* is more formal.

*How do you manage to **stay young** and fit?* *Keep **calm**.*

*I hope you will always **remain so charming**.*

Stay and *remain* are also sometimes used before noun phrases.

*Promise me you will always **stay/remain my little boy**.*

Keep can be used before *-ing* forms.

*Keep **smiling** whatever happens.*

For other uses of the words discussed in this section, see a good dictionary.

129 city and town

Most people simply use *city* to talk about large and important towns – examples in the UK are Belfast, Cardiff, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool and London.
City can be used in a more exact way to talk about a town that has been given a special status by the king or queen (in Britain) or by the state (in some other English-speaking countries).

130 cleft sentences (1): What I need is a holiday

We can emphasise particular words and expressions by putting everything into a kind of relative clause except the words we want to emphasise: this makes them stand out. These structures are called 'cleft sentences' by grammarians (*cleft* means 'divided'). They are useful in writing (because we cannot use intonation for emphasis in written language), but they are also common in speech.

1 *Mary is the person who ...; What I need is ...*

The words to be emphasised are joined to the relative clause by *is/was* and an expression like *the person who*, or *what* (= the thing that).
We can put the words to be emphasised first or last in the sentence. Compare:
- MARY kept a pig in the garden shed.
  Mary was the person who kept a pig in the garden shed.
  The person who kept a pig in the garden shed was Mary.
- *Mary kept* A PIG in the garden shed.
  A pig was what Mary kept in the garden shed.
  What Mary kept in the garden shed was a pig.
- *Phil is* THE SECRETARY.
  The secretary is what Phil is.
  What Phil is is the secretary.

Instead of *the person* or *what*, we can use less general expressions.
You're the woman (that) I'll always love best.
Casablanca is a film (that) I watch again and again.
A *what*-clause is normally considered to be singular; if it begins a cleft sentence it is followed by *is/was*. But a plural verb is sometimes possible before a plural noun in an informal style.
What we want is/are some of those cakes.

For more information about *what*-clauses, see 497.

2 *the place where ...; the day when ...; the reason why ...*

We can use these expressions to emphasise a place, time or reason.
- *Mary kept a pig* IN THE GARDEN SHED.
  The garden shed was the place where Mary kept a pig.
  The place where Mary kept a pig was the garden shed.

– *Jake went to London* ON TUESDAY to see Colin.
*Tuesday was **the day when/that** Jake went to London to see Colin.*
*The day **when** Jake went to London to see Colin was Tuesday.*
– *Jake went to London on Tuesday* TO SEE COLIN.
*To see Colin was **the reason why** Jake went to London on Tuesday.*
*The reason **why** Jake went to London on Tuesday was to see Colin.*

The place, the day or *the reason* can be dropped in an informal style, especially in the middle of a sentence.
*Spain's **where** we're going this year.*
Why I'm here is to talk about my plans. (More formal: *The reason why I'm here is . . .*)

3 emphasising verbs: *What he did was . . .*

When we want to emphasise a verb (or an expression beginning with a verb), we have to use a more complicated structure with *what . . . do*. Infinitives with and without *to* are possible.
– *He* SCREAMED.
*What he **did** was (to) scream.*
– *She* WRITES SCIENCE FICTION.
*What she **does** is (to) write science fiction.*

Instead of an infinitive, we often use **subject + verb** in an informal style.
*What she does is, **she writes** science fiction.*
*What I'll do is, **I'll phone** John and ask his advice.*

4 emphasising a whole sentence

A whole sentence can be given extra emphasis by using a cleft structure with *what* and the verb *happen*. Compare:
The car broke down.
*What **happened** was (that) the car broke down.*

5 other structures

All (that), and expressions with *thing*, can be used in cleft sentences.
All I want is a home somewhere. *All you need is love.*
All (that) I did was (to) touch the window, and it broke.
*The only **thing** I remember is a terrible pain in my head.*
*The first **thing** was to make some coffee.*
*My first journey abroad is **something** I shall never forget.*

Time expressions can be emphasised with *It was not until . . .* and *It was only when . . .*.
*It was not **until** I met you that I knew real happiness.*
*It was **only when** I read her letter that I realised what was happening.*

At the beginning of a cleft sentence, *this* and *that* often replace emphasised *here* and *there*. Compare:

– *You pay here.*
This is where you pay.
(OR *Here is where you pay.*)

– *We live there.*
That's where we live.
(OR *There's where we live.*)

For more about question-word clauses, see 485.
For more general information about sentence structure and the arrangement of information in sentences, see 512.

131 cleft sentences (2): it was my secretary who ...

1 preparatory *it*

We can use preparatory *it* (see 446) in cleft sentences. The words to be emphasised are usually joined to the relative clause by *that*.
Compare:

My secretary sent the bill to Mr Harding yesterday.
It was my secretary that sent the bill to Mr Harding yesterday.
(not somebody else)
It was the bill that my secretary sent to Mr Harding yesterday.
(not something else)
It was Mr Harding that my secretary sent the bill to yesterday.
(not to somebody else)
It was yesterday that my secretary sent the bill to Mr Harding.
(not another day)

Negative structures are also possible.

It wasn't my husband that sent the bill ...

Who is possible instead of *that* when a personal subject is emphasised.

It was my secretary who sent ...

When a plural subject is emphasised, the verb is plural.

It was the students that were angry ... (NOT ... ~~*that was angry*~~ ...)

The verb cannot be emphasised with this structure: we cannot say

~~*It was sent that my secretary the bill*~~ ....

2 *It is I who ... ; It is me that ...*

When an emphasised subject is a pronoun, there are two possibilities.
Compare:

– *It is I who am responsible.* (formal)
It's me that's/who's responsible. (informal)
– *It is you who are in the wrong.* (formal)
It's you that's in the wrong. (informal)

To avoid being either too formal or too informal in this case, we could say, for example,

I'm the person / the one who's responsible.

132 close and shut

1 use

Close /kləʊz/ and *shut* can often be used with the same meaning.

Open your mouth and close/shut your eyes.
I can't close/shut the window. Can you help me?
The shop closes/shuts at five o'clock.

You can *shut*, but not *close*, somebody/something in or out of a place.

I shut the letters in my desk drawer and locked it. (NOT ~~*I closed the letters*~~ ...)
She shut him out of the house.

2 past participles

The past participles *closed* and *shut* can be used as adjectives.

*The post office is **closed/shut** on Saturday afternoon.*

Shut is not usually used before a noun.

*a **closed door*** (NOT ~~*a shut door*~~) *closed eyes* (NOT ~~*shut eyes*~~)

3 cases where *close* is preferred

We prefer *close* for slow movements (like flowers closing at night), and *close* is more common in a formal style.

*As we watched, he **closed** his eyes for the last time.*

Compare:

Close your mouth, please. (dentist to patient)

Shut your mouth! (a rude way of saying 'Be quiet!')

We *close* roads, railways etc (channels of communication). And we *close* (= end) letters, bank accounts, meetings etc.

133 cloth and clothes

Cloth (pronounced /klɒθ/) is material made from wool, cotton etc, used for making clothes, curtains, soft furnishings and so on. (In informal English, it is more common to say *material* or *fabric*.)

*His suits were made of the most expensive **cloth**.*

A cloth is a piece of material used for cleaning, covering things etc.

*Could you pass me a **cloth**? I've spilt some milk on the floor.*

Clothes (pronounced /kləʊðz/) are things you wear: skirt, trousers etc. *Clothes* has no singular; instead of ~~*a clothe*~~, we say *something to wear* or *an article / a piece of clothing*.

*I must buy some new **clothes**; I haven't got anything to wear.*

134 come and go

1 speaker's/hearer's position

We use *come* for movements to the place where the speaker or hearer is.

*Maria, would you come here, please?~I'm **coming**.* (NOT ...~~*I'm going*~~.)

When did you come to live here?

(on the phone): *Can I come and see you?*

We use *go* for movements to other places.

I want to go and live in Greece. *Let's go and see Peter and Diane.*

In 1577, he went to study in Rome.

2 speaker's/hearer's past or future position

We can use *come* for a movement to a place where the speaker or hearer already was or will be at the time of the movement. Compare: ▸

– *What time did I come to see you in the office yesterday?*
I went to John's office yesterday, but he wasn't in.
– *Will you come and visit me in hospital when I have my operation?*
He's going into hospital next week.
– *Susan can't come to your birthday party.*
She's going to see her mother.

3 joining a movement

Come (with) can be used to talk about joining a movement of the speaker's/hearer's, even if *go* is used for the movement itself.

We're going to the cinema tonight. Would you like to come with us?

4 somebody else's position

Sometimes when we are talking about somebody else (not the speaker or hearer), that person can become the centre of our attention. In that case, we use *come* for movements to the place where he/she is (or was or will be). This often happens in stories.

He waited till four o'clock, but she didn't come.

5 *come to; come from*

Come to can mean *arrive at.*

Carry straight on till you come to a crossroads.

Come from is used (in the present) to say where people's homes are or were.

She comes from Scotland, but her mother's Welsh.
Originally I come from Hungary, but I've lived here for twenty years.
(NOT ~~*Originally I came from Hungary*~~ . . .)

The difference between *bring* and *take* is similar. See 112.

For *come/go and . . .*, see 53.
For *come/go . . .ing*, see 228. For *been = come/gone*, see 95.

135 comparison (1): structures

Various words and structures can be used for comparing.

1 similarity and identity: *as, like, so do I, too, the same,* etc

If we want to say that people, things, actions or events are similar, we can use *as* or *like* (see 326); *so/neither do I* and similar structures (see 541); or adverbs such as *too, also* and *as well* (see 46). To say that they are identical, we can use *the same (as)* (see 503).

He liked working with horses, as his father did.
Your sister looks just like you. *The papers were late and the post was too.*
She likes music, and so do I. *His eyes are just the same colour as mine.*

2 equality: *as . . . as*

To say that people, things etc are equal in a particular way, we often use the structure *as (much/many) . . . as* (see 136).

My hands were as cold as ice. *I earn as much money as you.*

3 inequality: *more ... than; older ... than; most, oldest,* etc

To say that people, things etc are unequal in a particular way, we can use comparative adjectives and adverbs, or ***more*** + **adjective/adverb** (see 137–141).

*He's much **older** than her.* *The baby's **more attractive** than you.*

To say which one of a group is outstanding in a particular way, we can use a superlative or ***most*** + **adjective/adverb** (see 137–141).

*You're the **laziest** and **most annoying** person in the whole office.*

4 inequality: *less, least; not so/as ... as*

We can also talk about inequality by looking at the 'lower' end of the scale. One possibility is to use *less (than)* (see 320) or *least* (see 318).

*The baby's **less** ugly than you.*
*I want to spend the **least** possible time working.*

In informal usage, we more often use *not so ... as* or *not as ... as* (see 136).

*The baby's **not so** ugly **as** you.*

136 comparison (2): as ... as; as much/many as

1 use

We use *as ... as* to say that people or things are equal in some way.

*She's **as** tall **as** her brother.* *Is it **as** good **as** you expected?*
*She speaks French **as** well **as** the rest of us.*

2 negative structures

After *not*, we can use *so ... as* instead of *as ... as*.

*He's **not as/so** friendly **as** she is.* (more informal than *He's less friendly ...*)

3 *as ... as* + adjective/adverb

Note the structure ***as ... as*** + **adjective/adverb**.

*Please get here **as** soon **as** possible.*
*I'll spend **as** much **as** necessary.* *You're **as** beautiful **as** ever.*

4 pronouns after *as*

In an informal style we can use object pronouns (*me, him* etc) after *as*.

*She doesn't sing **as** well **as** me.*

In a formal style, we prefer **subject** + **verb** after *as*.

*She doesn't sing **as** well **as** I do.*

A subject form without a verb (e.g. *as well as he*) is unusual in this structure in modern English.

5 *as much/many ... as*

We can use *as much/many ... as* to talk about quantity.

*I haven't got **as** much money **as** I thought.*
*We need **as** many people **as** possible.*

As much/many can be used without following nouns.

*I ate **as** much **as** I could.* *She didn't catch **as** many **as** she'd hoped.*

And *as much ...* can be used as an adverb.

*You ought to rest **as** much **as** possible.* ▸

6 emphatic use: *as much as 80kg*

As much/many as can be used before a number to mean 'the large amount/quantity'.

*Some of these fish can weigh **as much as** 80kg.*
*There are sometimes **as many as** 40 students in the classes.*

As little/few can be used to mean 'the small amount/quantity'.

*You can fly to Paris for **as little as** 20 euros.*

7 *half as ... as* etc

Half, twice, three times etc can be used before *as ... as.*

*You're not **half as** clever **as** you think you are.*
*I'm not going out with a man who's **twice as** old **as** me.*
*It took **three times as** long **as** I expected.* (OR *... **three times longer** than I expected* – see 141.3)

8 modification

Before *as ... as* we can use *(not) nearly, almost, just, nothing like, every bit, exactly, not quite.*

*It's **not nearly as** cold as yesterday.* *He's **just as** strong as ever.*
*You're **nothing like as** bad-tempered as you used to be.*
*She's **every bit as** beautiful as her sister.*
*I'm **not quite as** tired as I was last week.*

9 infinitives

Where *as ... as* is used with two infinitives, the second is often without *to.*

*It's **as** easy to do it right **as (to) do** it wrong.*

10 tenses

In *as ... as*-clauses (and other kinds of *as*-clauses), a present tense is often used to refer to the future, and a past tense can have a conditional meaning (see 580).

*We'll get there as soon as you **do/will**.*
*If you married me, I'd give you as much freedom as you **wanted**.*

11 leaving out the second part

The second part of the *as ... as* or *so ... as* structure can be left out when the meaning is clear from what comes before.

*The train takes 40 minutes. By car it'll take you twice **as long**.*
*I used to think he was clever. Now I'm **not so sure**.*

In cases like this, *not so* is much more common than *not as.*

12 traditional expressions

We use the structure *as ... as ...* in a lot of traditional comparative expressions.

as cold as ice *as hard as nails*
as black as night *as ... as hell*

The first *as* can be dropped in these expressions in an informal style.

*She's **hard as nails**.*
*I'm **tired as hell** of listening to your problems.*

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For *as long as*, see 75. For *as well as*, see 78.
For the word order in sentences like *She's as good a dancer as her brother*, see 14.
For *as* replacing subject or object (e.g. *as many people as want it*), see 581.
For other comparative structures, see 137–141.

137 comparison (3): comparative and superlative adjectives

One-syllable adjectives normally have comparatives and superlatives ending in *-er*, *-est*. Some two-syllable adjectives are similar; others have *more* and *most*. Longer adjectives have *more* and *most*.

1 one-syllable adjectives (regular comparison)

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	
old	*older*	*oldest*	Most adjectives: + *-er*, *-est*.
tall	*taller*	*tallest*	
cheap	*cheaper*	*cheapest*	
late	*later*	*latest*	Adjectives ending in *-e*: + *-r*, *-st*.
nice	*nicer*	*nicest*	
fat	*fatter*	*fattest*	One vowel + one consonant: double consonant.
big	*bigger*	*biggest*	
thin	*thinner*	*thinnest*	

Note the pronunciation of:
younger /ˈjʌŋgə(r)/ *youngest* /ˈjʌŋgɪst/
longer/ˈlɒŋgə(r)/ *longest* /ˈlɒŋgɪst/
stronger /ˈstrɒŋgə(r)/ *strongest* /ˈstrɒŋgɪst/

2 irregular comparison

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
good	*better*	*best*
bad	*worse*	*worst*
ill	*worse*	
far	*farther/further* (see 201)	*farthest/furthest*
old	*older/elder* (see 176)	*oldest/eldest*

The determiners *little* and *much/many* have irregular comparatives and superlatives:

little (see 329)	*less* (see 320)	*least* (see 318)
much/many (see 357)	*more* (see 355)	*most* (see 356)

Few has two possible comparatives and superlatives: *fewer/less* and *fewest/least*. See 320, 318.

3 two-syllable adjectives

Adjectives ending in *-y* have *-ier* and *-iest*.

happy	*happier*	*happiest*
easy	*easier*	*easiest*

Some other two-syllable adjectives can have *-er* and *-est*, especially adjectives ending in an unstressed vowel, /l/ or /ə(r)/.

narrow	*narrower*	*narrowest*
simple	*simpler*	*simplest*
clever	*cleverer*	*cleverest*
quiet	*quieter*	*quietest*

With many two-syllable adjectives (e.g. *polite, common*), *-er/-est* and *more/most* are both possible. With others (including adjectives ending in *-ing, -ed, -ful* and *-less*), only *more/most* is possible. In general, the structure with *more/most* is becoming more common. To find out the normal comparative and superlative for a particular two-syllable adjective, check in a good dictionary.

4 longer adjectives

Adjectives of three or more syllables have *more* and *most*.

intelligent	*more intelligent*	*most intelligent*
practical	*more practical*	*most practical*
beautiful	*more beautiful*	*most beautiful*

Words like *unhappy* (the opposites of two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*) are an exception: they can have forms in *-er* and *-est*.

unhappy	*unhappier / more unhappy*	*unhappiest / most unhappy*
untidy	*untidier / more untidy*	*untidiest / most untidy*

Some compound adjectives like *good-looking* or *well-known* have two possible comparatives and superlatives.

good-looking	*better-looking* OR *more good-looking*	*best-looking* *most good-looking*
well-known	*better-known* OR *more well-known*	*best-known* *most well-known*

5 *more, most* with short adjectives

Sometimes *more/most* are used with adjectives that normally have *-er/-est*. This can happen, for example, when a comparative is not followed immediately by *than*; forms with *-er* are also possible.

*The road's getting **more and more steep**.* (OR ... *steeper and steeper*.)

When we compare two descriptions (saying that one is more suitable or accurate than another), we use *more*; comparatives with *-er* are not possible.

*He's **more lazy** than stupid.* (NOT ~~*He's lazier than stupid*~~.)

In a rather formal style, *most* can be used with adjectives expressing approval and disapproval (including one-syllable adjectives) to mean 'very'.

*Thank you very much indeed. That is **most kind** of you.* (NOT ...~~*That is kindest of you.*~~)

Real, right, wrong and *like* always have *more* and *most.*

*She's **more like** her mother than her father.* (NOT ...~~*liker her mother*~~...)

For information about how to use comparatives and superlatives, see 139, 141.
For modification of comparatives and superlatives (e.g. *much older, far the best*), see 140.

138 comparison (4): comparative and superlative adverbs

Most comparative and superlative adverbs are made with *more* and *most.*

*Could you talk **more quietly**?* (NOT ... ~~*quietlier*~~)

Adverbs that have the same form as adjectives (see 27), and a few others, have comparatives and superlatives with *-er* and *-est.* The most common are: *fast, early, late, hard, long, near, high, low, soon, well* (*better, best*), *badly* (*worse, worst*), and in informal English *easy, slow, loud* and *quick.*

*Can't you drive any **faster**?* *Can you come **earlier**?*

*Talk **louder**.* (informal)

*We've all got terrible voices, but I sing **worst** of all.*

Note also the irregular comparatives and superlatives of *far* (*farther/further, farthest/furthest,* see 201), *much* (*more, most,* see 355 and 356), *little* (*less, least,* see 320 and 318).

For the use of comparatives and superlatives, see the following sections.

139 comparison (5): using comparatives and superlatives

1 *than*

After comparatives we use *than,* not *that* or *as.*

*Today's hotter **than** yesterday.* (NOT ...~~*hotter that*~~... OR ...~~*hotter as*~~...)

2 the difference between comparatives and superlatives

We use a comparative to compare one person, thing, action, event or group with another person, thing etc. We use a superlative to compare somebody/something with the whole group that he/she/it belongs to.

Compare:

- *Mary's **taller** than her three sisters.*
  *Mary's **the tallest** of the four girls.* (NOT ...~~*the taller*~~...)
- *Your accent is **worse** than mine.*
  *Your accent is **the worst** in the class.* (NOT ...~~*the worse*~~...)
- *He plays **better** than everybody else in the team.*
  *He's **the best** in the team.*

3 groups with two members

When a group only has two members, we sometimes use a comparative instead of a superlative.

I like Betty and Maud, but I think Maud's ***the nicer/nicest*** *of the two.*
I'll give you ***the bigger/biggest*** *steak: I'm not very hungry.*

Some people feel that a superlative is incorrect in this case.

4 double comparatives: *fatter and fatter; more and more slowly*

We can use double comparatives to say that something is changing.

I'm getting ***fatter and fatter.***
We're going ***more and more slowly.*** (NOT ... ~~*more slowly and more slowly.*~~)

5 *the ... the ...*

We can use comparatives with *the ... the ...* to say that things change or vary together.

Word order (in both clauses):

the + comparative expression + subject + verb

The older I get, the happier I am. (NOT ~~*Older I get, more I am happy.*~~)
The more dangerous it is, the more I like it.
(NOT ~~*The more it is dangerous,*~~ ...)
The more I study, the less I learn.

More can be used with a noun in this structure.

The more money he makes, the more useless things he buys.

In longer structures, *that* is sometimes used before the first verb.

The more information ***that*** *comes in, the more confused the picture is.*

A short form of this structure is used in the expression *The more the merrier,* and in sentences ending *the better.*

How do you like your coffee? ~ ***The stronger the better.***

Note that in this structure, the word *the* is not really the definite article – it was originally a form of the demonstrative pronoun, meaning 'by that much'.

6 *than me; than I (am)*

In an informal style, object pronouns (*me* etc) are used after *than.* In a more formal style, subject pronouns (*I* etc) are used (usually with verbs).

She's older than ***me.*** (informal) *She is older than* ***I (am).*** (formal)

7 *the happiest man in the world*

After superlatives, we do not usually use *of* with a singular word referring to a place or group.

I'm the ***happiest man in the world.*** (NOT ... ~~*of the world.*~~)
She's the ***fastest player in the team.*** (NOT ... ~~*of the team.*~~)

But *of* can be used before plurals, and before *lot.*

She's the fastest player ***of them all.*** *He's the best* ***of the lot.***

Note also the structure with possessive *'s.*

He thinks he's the world's strongest man.

8 *than anybody; the best . . . ever*

'Non-affirmative' words like *ever, yet* and *any* (see 381) often follow comparatives and superlatives.

You're more stubborn than anybody I know.
It's the best book I've ever read. *This is my hardest job yet.*

For the formation of comparatives and superlatives, see 137.
For tenses after *than*, see 580.
For the *first/second/best* etc + present/past perfect, see 591.

140 comparison (6): much, far etc with comparatives and superlatives

1 *much, far* etc with comparatives

We cannot use *very* with comparatives. Instead, we use, for example, *much, far, very much, a lot* (informal), *lots* (informal), *any* and *no* (see 57), *rather, a little, a bit* (informal), and *even.*

My boyfriend is much/far older than me. (NOT . . . ~~very older than me.~~)
Russian is much/far more difficult than Spanish.
very much nicer *rather more quickly*
a bit more sensible (informal) *She looks no older than her daughter.*
a lot happier (informal) *a little less expensive*
Is your mother any better? *Your cooking is even worse than Harry's.*

Quite cannot be used with comparatives except in the expression *quite better*, meaning 'recovered from an illness' (see 104.1). *Any, no, a bit* and *a lot* are not normally used to modify comparatives before nouns.

There are much/far nicer shops in the town centre. (BUT NOT . . . ~~a bit nicer shops~~ . . .)

2 *many more/less/fewer*

When *more* (see 355) modifies a plural noun, it is modified by *many* instead of *much*. Compare:

much / far / a lot etc *more money*
many / far / a lot etc *more opportunities*

Many is sometimes used to modify *less* (before a plural noun) and *fewer*, but this is unusual; *far, a lot* etc are more common.

far less words (more common than *many less words*)
a lot fewer accidents (more common than *many fewer accidents*)

3 *much, by far, quite* etc with superlatives

Superlatives can be modified by *much* and *by far*, and by other adverbs of degree such as *quite* (meaning 'absolutely'), *almost, practically, nearly* and *easily.*

He's much the most imaginative of them all.
She's by far the oldest.
We're walking by far the slowest.
He's quite the most stupid man I've ever met.
I'm nearly the oldest in the firm.
This is easily the worst party I've been to this year. ▸

4 *very* with superlatives

Note the special use of *very* to emphasise superlatives and *first, next* and *last.*

Bring out your very best wine – Michael's coming to dinner.
You're the very first person I've spoken to today.
This is your very last chance.

For modification of *too*, see 595.3.

141 comparison (7): advanced points

1 comparative meaning 'relatively', 'more than average'

Comparatives can suggest ideas like 'relatively', 'more than average'. Used like this, comparatives make a less clear and narrow selection than superlatives. Compare:

There are two classes – one for the cleverer students and one for the slower learners.
The cleverest students were two girls from York.

Comparatives are often used in advertising to make things sound less definite.

less expensive clothes for the fuller figure
(Compare *cheap clothes for fat people*)

2 *all/any/none the* + comparative

All the + comparative suggests the idea of 'even more . . .'.

I feel all the better for that swim.
Her accident made it all the more important to get home fast.

Any and *none* can be used in similar structures.

He didn't seem to be any the worse for his experience.
He explained it all carefully, but I was still none the wiser.

Note that this structure is used mainly to express abstract ideas. We would not say, for example, *Those pills have made him all the slimmer.*
In this structure, *the* was originally a demonstrative, meaning 'by that'.

3 *three times . . .er* etc

Instead of *three/four* etc *times as much* (see 136.7), we can use *three/four* etc *times* + comparative.

She can walk three times faster than you.
It was ten times more difficult than I expected.

Note that *twice* and *half* are not possible in this structure.

She's twice as lively as her sister. (NOT . . . ~~*twice livelier*~~ . . .)

4 words left out after *than*

Than often replaces a subject or object pronoun or an adverbial expression, rather like a relative pronoun or adverb (see 581).

She spent more money than was sensible. (NOT . . . ~~*than it was sensible.*~~)
There were more people than we had expected. (NOT . . . ~~*than we had expected them.*~~)
I love you more than she does. (NOT . . . ~~*than how much she does.*~~)

(In some English dialects, the above sentences would be constructed with *than what.*)

5 *the youngest person to ...*

After a superlative, an infinitive can mean the same as a relative clause.

She's the youngest person ever to swim the Channel. (= ... the youngest person who has ever swum ...)

This structure is also common after *first, last* and *next.*

Who was the first woman to climb Everest?

The next to speak was Mrs Fenshaw.

Note that this structure is only possible in cases where the noun with the superlative (or *first* etc) has a subject relationship with the following verb. In other cases, infinitives cannot be used.

Is this the first time that you have stayed here? (NOT ... ~~*the first time for you to stay here*~~: *time* is not the subject of *stay.*)

6 *the* with superlatives

Nouns with superlative adjectives normally have the article *the.*

It's the best book I've ever read.

After link verbs, superlative adjectives also usually have *the,* though it is sometimes dropped in an informal style.

I'm the greatest. *Which of the boys is (the) strongest?*

This dictionary is (the) best.

The cannot be dropped when a superlative is used with a defining expression.

This dictionary is the best I could find. (NOT ~~*This dictionary is best I could find.*~~)

However, we do not use *the* with superlatives when we compare the same person or thing in different situations. Compare:

- *Of all my friends, he's (the) nicest.* (comparing different people)
  He's nicest when he's with children. (NOT ~~*He's the nicest when*~~ ...: we're comparing the same person in different situations.)
- *She works (the) hardest in the family; her husband doesn't know what work is.* (A woman is being compared with a man – *the* is possible.)
  She works hardest when she's doing something for her family. (NOT ~~*She works the hardest when*~~ ...: – a woman's work is being compared in different situations.)

The is sometimes dropped before superlative adverbs in an informal style.

Who can run (the) fastest?

For tenses after *than,* see 580.

142 continual(ly) and continuous(ly)

Continual(ly) is generally used for things that happen repeatedly, often annoyingly.

I can't work with these continual interruptions.

She's continually taking days off.

Continuous(ly) is used for things that continue without stopping.

There has been continuous fighting on the border for the last 48 hours.

I've been working almost continuously since yesterday evening.

143 contractions

1 general rules

Forms like *I've, don't* are called 'contractions'. There are two kinds.

noun/pronoun etc + (auxiliary) verb

I'm tired.
Do you know when you'll arrive?
I've no idea.
She'd like to talk to you.
Here's our bus.
My father's not very well.
Where's the station?
There's a problem.
Somebody's coming.

(auxiliary) verb + *not*

They aren't ready.
You won't be late, will you?
I haven't seen him for ages.
Can't you swim?

Contractions are formed with auxiliary verbs, and also with *be* and sometimes *have* when these are not auxiliary verbs.

The short form *'s* (= *is/has*) can be written after nouns (including proper names), question words, *here* and *now* as well as pronouns and unstressed *there*. The short forms *'ll, 'd* and *'re* are commonly written after pronouns and unstressed *there*, but in other cases we more often write the full forms (especially in British English), even if the words would be contracted in pronunciation.

'Your mother will (/ˈmʌðərl/) *be surprised', she said.*
I wondered what had (/ˈwɒtəd/) *happened.*

Contractions are not usually written with double subjects.

John and I have decided to split up. (NOT ~~*John and I've decided*~~ . . .)

The apostrophe (') goes in the same place as the letters that we leave out: *has not* = *hasn't* (NOT ~~*ha'snt*~~). But note that *shan't* (BrE = *shall not*) and *won't* (= *will not*) only have one apostrophe each.

Contractions are common and correct in informal writing: they represent the pronunciation of informal speech. They are not generally used in a formal style.

2 alternative contractions

Some negative expressions can have two possible contractions. For *she had not* we can say *she'd not* or *she hadn't*; for *he will not* we can say *he'll not* or *he won't*. The two negative forms of *be* (e.g. *she isn't* and *she's not*) are both common in British English; American English prefers the forms with *not* (e.g. *she's not*). With other verbs, forms with *n't* (e.g. *she hadn't*) are more common in most cases in standard southern British English; they are the only forms normally used in AmE. (Forms with *not* – e.g. *she'd not* – tend to be more common in northern and Scottish English.)

Double contractions are not normally written: ~~*she'sn't*~~ is impossible.

3 position

Contractions in the first group (**noun / pronoun / question word + auxiliary** verb) do not normally come at the ends of clauses.

– *I'm late.*
Yes, you are. (NOT ~~*Yes, you're.*~~)

– *I've forgotten.*
Yes, you have. (NOT ~~*Yes, you've.*~~)

Negative contractions can come at the ends of clauses.
They really aren't. *No, I haven't.*

4 list of contractions

Contraction	Pronunciation	Meaning
I'm	/aɪm/	I am
I've	/aɪv/	I have
I'll	/aɪl/	I will
I'd	/aɪd/	I had/would
you're	/jɔː(r)/	you are
you've	/juːv/	you have
you'll	/juːl/	you will
you'd	/juːd/	you had/would
he's	/hiːz/	he is/has
he'll	/hiːl, hɪl/	he will
he'd	/hiːd/	he had/would
she's	/ʃiːz/	she is/has
she'll	/ʃiːl, ʃɪl/	she will
she'd	/ʃiːd/	she had/would
it's	/ɪts/	it is/has
it'd (uncommon)	/ˈɪtəd/	it had/would
we're	/wɪə(r)/	we are
we've	/wiːv/	we have
we'll	/wiːl, wɪl/	we will
we'd	/wiːd/	we had/would
they're	/ðeə(r)/	they are
they've	/ðeɪv/	they have
they'll	/ðeɪl, ðel/	they will
they'd	/ðeɪd/	they had/would
there's	/ðəz/	there is/has
there'll	/ðəl/	there will
there'd	/ðəd/	there had/would
aren't	/ɑːnt/	are not
can't	/kɑːnt/	cannot
couldn't	/ˈkʊdnt/	could not
daren't	/deənt/	dare not
didn't	/ˈdɪdnt/	did not
doesn't	/ˈdʌznt/	does not
don't	/dəʊnt/	do not
hadn't	/ˈhædnt/	had not
hasn't	/ˈhæznt/	has not
haven't	/ˈhævnt/	have not
isn't	/ˈɪznt/	is not
mightn't	/ˈmaɪtnt/	might not
mustn't	/ˈmʌsnt/	must not
needn't	/ˈniːdnt/	need not
oughtn't	/ˈɔːtnt/	ought not

▸

Contraction	Pronunciation	Meaning
shan't	/ʃɑ:nt/	shall not
shouldn't	/'ʃʊdnt/	should not
usedn't	/'ju:snt/	used not
wasn't	/'wɒznt/	was not
weren't	/wɜ:nt/	were not
won't	/wəʊnt/	will not
wouldn't	/'wʊdnt/	would not

Notes

1. Do not confuse *it's* (= *it is/has*) and *its* (possessive).
2. *Am not* is only normally contracted in questions to *aren't* (BrE) (/ɑ:nt/).
   I'm late, aren't I?
3. Note the difference in pronunciation of *can't* in British English (/kɑ:nt/) and American English (/kænt/).
4. *Daren't, shan't* and *usedn't* are not often used in American English.
5. In non-standard English, *ain't* (pronounced /eɪnt/ or /ent/) is used as a contraction of *am not, are not, is not, have not* and *has not.*
   I ain't going to tell him.
   Don't talk to me like that – you ain't my boss.
   It's raining. ~ *No it ain't.*
   I ain't got no more cigarettes.
   Bill ain't been here for days.
6. For the contraction *let's*, see 323.
7. *May not* is not normally contracted: *mayn't* is very rare.

144 contrary

1 *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*

On the contrary is used to contradict – to say that what has been said or suggested is not true. If we want to give the other side of a question, we use *on the other hand*, not *on the contrary*. Compare:

– *I suppose the job was boring?* ~ ***On the contrary**, it was really exciting.*
  *The job was boring, but **on the other hand** it was well paid.* (NOT ... ~~*on the contrary, it was well paid.*~~)
– *He did not make things easy for his parents. **On the contrary**, he did everything he could to annoy and worry them.*
  *He did not make things easy for his parents. **On the other hand**, he could often be wonderfully sweet and loving.*

2 *contrary* and *opposite*

We use *opposite* (see 401), not *contrary*, to talk about contrasting words.
*'Short' is the **opposite** of 'tall', and also of 'long'.*
(NOT ... ~~*the contrary of 'tall'*~~ ...)

145 control

Control is a 'false friend' for people who speak some languages. It generally means *manage, direct,* not *check* or *inspect.* Compare:

- *The crowd was too big for the police to* ***control.*** (= ... to keep in order.)
  The police were ***checking*** *everybody's papers.* (NOT ... ~~*controlling everybody's papers.*~~)
- *I found the car difficult to* ***control*** *at high speeds.*
  I took the car to the garage and asked them to ***have a look at*** *the steering.*
  (NOT ... ~~*to control the steering.*~~)

However, the noun *control* is used with the meaning of 'inspection point' in expressions like *passport/customs control.*

146 correspondence (1): letters

Each culture has its own way of organising a letter and arranging it on a page. English-speaking people generally observe the following rules.

1 Put your own address at the top on the right. Addresses generally follow the rule of 'smallest first': house number, then street, then town. Postcode and telephone number / fax number / email address come last. Don't put your name with the address.

2 Put the date directly under the address. A common way to write the date is to put the number of the day, followed by the month and year (e.g. *17 May 2005*). For other ways (and differences between British and American customs) see 152.

3 In formal letters and business letters, put the name and address of the person you are writing to on the left side of the page, starting on the same level as the date or slightly below.

4 Different styles are common in formal letters on paper which has the address ready-printed at the top of the page. For example, the date may be put on the left, and the address of the person written to may come at the end of the letter or of the first page.

5 Begin the letter (*Dear X*) on the left. Common ways of addressing people are:
- by first name (informal): *Dear Penny*
- by title and surname (more formal): *Dear Ms Hopkins*
- *Dear Sir(s), Dear Sir or Madam, Dear Madam* (especially to somebody whose name is not known)

Some people like to use the first name and surname (*Dear Penny Hopkins*) when writing to strangers or people that they do not know well.
Do not use a title like *Mr* together with a first name (NOT ~~*Dear Mr James Carter*~~).

6 After 'Dear X', put a comma or nothing at all, not an exclamation mark (!). Either leave an empty line after 'Dear X' and start again on the left, or start again on the next line, a few spaces from the left. Do the same for each new paragraph. (The first method is now the most common in Britain.)

7 Letters which begin *Dear Sir(s)* or *Dear Madam* usually finish *Yours faithfully* in British English. Formal letters which begin with the person's name (e.g. *Dear Miss Hawkins, Dear Peter Lewis*) usually finish *Yours sincerely*. Common American endings are *Sincerely yours* or *Sincerely*. Informal letters may finish, for example, *Yours, See you* or *Love*. (*Love* is not usually used by one man to another.) In formal letters, many people put a closing formula before *Yours . . .*, especially when writing to people they know: common expressions are *With best wishes* and *With kind regards*.

8 Sign with your first name (informal) or your full name (formal), but without writing any title (*Mr/Ms/Dr* etc). Ways of writing one's full name: *Alan Forbes, A Forbes, A J Forbes*.
In a formal typewritten letter, add your full typewritten name after your handwritten signature. Friendly business letters are often signed with the first name only above the full typewritten name:

Yours sincerely
Alan

Alan Forbes

9 In informal letters, afterthoughts that are added after the signature are usually introduced by *P S* (Latin *post scriptum* = written afterwards).

10 On the envelope, put the first name before the surname. People usually write a title (*Mr, Mrs* etc) before the name. You can write the first name in full (*Mrs Angela Brookes*), or you can write one or more initials (*Mrs A E Brookes*). It was once common to put the abbreviated title *Esq* (= *Esquire*) after a man's name; this is now very unusual.

11 British people now usually write abbreviated titles, initials, addresses, dates, and opening and closing formulae without commas or full stops.

12 American usage is different from British in some ways:
- Commas are sometimes used at the ends of lines in addresses; full stops may be used at the ends of addresses; full stops are used after abbreviated titles. After the opening salutation, Americans may put a colon, especially in business letters (*Dear Mr. Hawkes:*), or a comma.
- *Gentlemen* is used instead of *Dear Sirs*.
- Dates are written differently (month before day) – see 152.
- *Yours faithfully* is not used; common endings are *Sincerely, Sincerely yours* or *Yours truly*, followed by a comma.
- Americans are often addressed (and sign their names) with the first name in full, followed by the initial of a middle name (*Alan J. Parker*). This is less usual in Britain.

13 Letters to strangers often begin with an explanation of the reason for writing.
Dear X
I am writing to ask . . .
One does not normally begin a letter to a stranger with an enquiry about health. (NOT ~~*Dear X, How are you getting on?*~~)

For more information about names and titles, see 363.
For more information about the use of commas and full stops, see 476, 473.
For more information about paragraphing, see 406.

Examples of letters and envelopes
Formal

14 Plowden Road
Torquay
Devon
TQ6 1RS
Tel 0742 06538

16 June 2005

The Secretary
Hall School of Design
39 Beaumont Street
London
W4 4LJ

Dear Sir or Madam

I should be grateful if you would send me information about the regulations for admission to the Hall School of Design. Could you also tell me whether the School arranges accomodation for students?

Yours faithfully

Keith Parker

Keith Parker

The Secretary
Hall School of Design
39 Beaumont Street
London
W4 4LJ

Informal

22 Green Street
London
W1B 6DH
Phone 071 066 429

19 March

Dear Keith and Ann

Thanks a lot for a great weekend. We really enjoyed ourselves.

Bill and I were talking about the holidays. We thought it might be nice to go camping in Scotland for a couple of weeks. Are you interested? Let me know if you are, and we can talk about dates etc.

See you soon, I hope. Thanks again.

Love
Cathy

PS Did I leave a pair of jeans behind in the bedroom? If so, do you think you could send them on?

Keith and Ann Sharp
14 West Way House
Botley Road
Oxford
OX3 5JP

147 correspondence (2): emails and text messages

1 formal emails: style and layout

Formal emails are similar in style to letters on paper. The writer's postal address and phone/fax number, if they are included, follow the signature.

2 informal emails

Personal emails are usually much more informal in style than letters on paper. Instead of 'Dear X', they often begin for example 'X', 'Hi, X', 'Hello, X'; or with no salutation at all.

3 addresses

email addresses are read as follows:

j.harris@funbiz.co.uk	'j dot harris at funbiz dot co dot u k'
mary@log-farm.com	'mary at log dash farm dot com'
the_rabbit@coolmail.gr	'the underline rabbit at coolmail dot g r'

Note also the names of symbols in 'urls' (internet addresses):
/ 'forward slash' \ 'backslash' : 'colon'

Example of an informal email

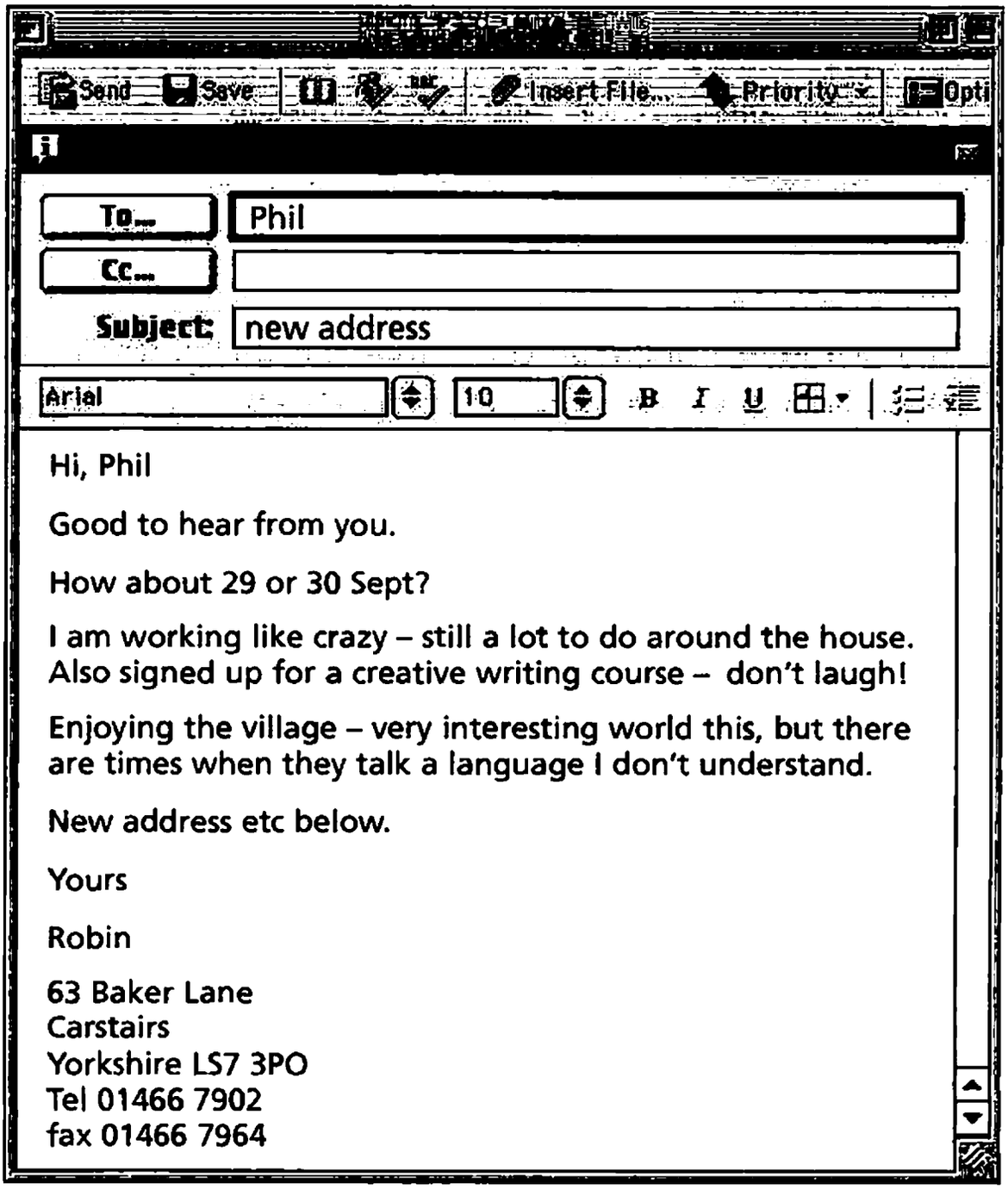

4 txt msgs (text messages)

Text messages (sent for example by mobile phone) use a large number of abbreviations to save time and space. Words are shortened, often by leaving out vowels. Letters and numbers are used instead of words (or parts of words) that sound the same. Initial letters only are used for some common expressions. Some typical examples:

c u l8r	See you later.
r u cumin 2day?	Are you coming today?
tx 4 a gr8 party	Thanks for a great party.
just 2 let u no	Just to let you know.
wil u b hr Thu eve?	Will you be here Thursday evening?
RUOK?	Are you OK?
got ur msg	Got your message.
wil b @ bbq @ 9	Will be at barbecue at 9.
2 bsy atm, tlk l8r	Too busy at the moment, talk later.
if Uv tym, send pix o kids	If you have time, send pictures of kids.
need mo infmtn	Need more information.

148 countable and uncountable nouns (1): basic information

1 the difference between countable and uncountable nouns

Countable nouns are the names of separate objects, people, ideas etc which can be counted. We can use numbers and the article *a/an* with countable nouns; they have plurals.

a cat *a newspaper* *three cats* *two newspapers*

Uncountable (or 'mass') nouns are the names of materials, liquids, abstract qualities, collections and other things which we see as masses without clear boundaries, and not as separate objects. We cannot use numbers with uncountable nouns, and most are singular with no plurals. We do not normally use *a/an* with uncountable nouns, though there are some exceptions (see 149.4).

water (NOT ~~*a water, two waters*~~) *wool* (NOT ~~*a wool, two wools*~~)
weather (NOT ~~*a weather, two weathers*~~)

Some determiners (see 154) can only be used with countable nouns (e.g. *many, few*); others can only be used with uncountables (e.g. *much, little*). Compare:

*How **many hours** do you work?* *How **much money** do you earn?*

2 problems

Usually it is easy to see whether a noun is countable or uncountable. Obviously *house* is normally a countable noun, and *sand* is not. But it is not always so clear: compare *a journey* (countable) and *travel* (uncountable); *a glass* (countable) and *glass* (uncountable); *vegetables* (countable) and *fruit* (uncountable). The following rules will help, but to know exactly how a particular noun can be used, it is necessary to check in a good dictionary.

3 *travel* and *a journey; a piece of advice*

Travel and *journey* have very similar meanings, but *travel* is normally uncountable (it means 'travelling in general', and we do not talk about 'a travel'), while *journey* is countable (*a journey* is one particular movement from one place to another) and can have a plural: *journeys*.

*I like **travel**, but it's often tiring.* *Did you have **a** good **journey**?*

Often we can make an uncountable word countable by putting 'a piece of' or a similar expression in front of it.

*He never listens to **advice**.* *Can I give you **a piece of advice**?*

Here are some other examples of general/particular pairs. (Note that some words that are uncountable in English have countable equivalents in other languages.)

Uncountable	Countable
accommodation	*a place to live* (NOT ~~*an accommodation*~~)
baggage	*a piece/item of baggage; a case/trunk/bag*
bread	*a piece/loaf of bread; a loaf; a roll*
chess	*a game of chess*
chewing gum	*a piece of chewing gum* (NOT ~~*a chewing gum*~~)
equipment	*a piece of equipment; a tool etc*
furniture	*a piece/article of furniture; a table, chair etc*
information	*a piece of information*
knowledge	*a fact*
lightning	*a flash of lightning*
luck	*a piece/bit/stroke of luck*
luggage	*a piece/item of luggage; a case/trunk/bag*
money	*a note; a coin; a sum*
news	*a piece of news*
permission	–
poetry	*a poem*
progress	*a step forward; an advance*
publicity	*an advertisement*
research	*a piece of research; an experiment*
rubbish	*a piece of rubbish*
slang	*a slang word/expression*
thunder	*a clap of thunder*
traffic	*cars etc*
vocabulary	*a word/expression*
work	*a job; a piece of work*

Note that when uncountable English words are borrowed by other languages, they may change into countable words with different meanings (for example *parking* means the activity of parking in general, but French *un parking* means 'a car park').

4 materials: *glass, paper* etc

Words for materials are uncountable, but we can often use the same word as a countable noun to refer to something made of the material. Compare:

▶

– *I'd like some typing **paper**.*
  *I'm going out to buy a **paper*** (= a newspaper)
– *The window's made of unbreakable **glass**.*
  *Would you like **a glass** of water?*

Nouns for materials, liquids etc can be countable when they are used to talk about different types.

*Not all washing **powders** are kind to your hands.*
*We have a selection of fine **wines** at very good prices.*

The same thing happens when we talk about ordering drinks. Compare:

*Have you got **any coffee**?*
*Could I have two **coffees**?* (= cups of coffee)

5 *fruit, rice, wheat, spaghetti, hair; vegetables, peas, grapes, oats*

Many things (e.g. *rice, grapes*) can be seen either as a collection of separate elements or as a mass. Some names for things of this kind are uncountable, while others are countable (usually plural).

Uncountable: *fruit, rice, spaghetti, macaroni* (and other pasta foods), *sugar, salt, corn, wheat, barley, rye, maize.*

Countable: *vegetable(s), bean(s), pea(s), grape(s), oats, lentil(s).*

*Fruit is very expensive, but **vegetables** are cheap.*
*Wheat is used to make bread; **oats** are used to make porridge.*
*Is the **spaghetti** ready?* *These **grapes** are sour.*

Hair is normally uncountable in English.

*His **hair** is black.*

But one strand of hair is *a hair* (countable).

*So why has he got two blonde **hairs** on his jacket?*

For words that are used to talk about one 'piece' of uncountable collections (e.g. *a grain of corn, a blade of grass*), see 430.

6 abstract nouns: *time, life, experience* etc

Many abstract nouns can have both uncountable and countable uses, often corresponding to more 'general' and more 'particular' meanings. Compare:

– *Don't hurry – there's plenty of **time**.*
  *Have a good **time**.*
  *There are **times** when I just want to stop work.*
– *Life is complicated.*
  *He's had **a** really difficult **life**.*
– *She hasn't got enough **experience** for the job.*
  *I had some strange **experiences** last week.*
– *It's hard to feel **pity** for people like that.*
  *It's **a pity** it's raining.*
– *Your plan needs more **thought**.*
  *I had some frightening **thoughts** in the night.*
– *I need to practise **conversation**.*
  *Jane and I had **a** very interesting **conversation**.*

See 149.2 for more details.
For more about *time*, see 593; for *life*, see 324.

7 illnesses

The names of illnesses are usually singular uncountable in English, including those ending in *-s*.

*If you've already had **measles**, you can't get it again.*
*There's a lot of **flu** around at the moment.*

The words for some minor ailments are countable: e.g. *a cold, a sore throat, a headache.* However, *toothache, earache, stomach-ache* and *backache* are usually uncountable in British English. In American English, these words are generally countable if they refer to particular attacks of pain. Compare:

*I've got **toothache**.* (BrE) *I have **a toothache**.* (AmE)

For *the* with *measles, flu* etc, see 70.14.
For more information on the use of articles with countable and uncountable nouns, see 65.

149 countable and uncountable nouns (2): advanced points

1 *20 square metres of wall*

Singular countable nouns are sometimes used as uncountables (e.g. with *much, enough, plenty of* or *a lot of*) in order to express the idea of amount.

*There's **enough** paint for 20 square metres of **wall**.*
*I've got **too much** nose and **not enough** chin.*
*If you buy one of these you get **plenty of car** for your money.*

2 *not much difference*

Some countable abstract nouns can be used uncountably after *little, much* and other determiners. Common examples are *difference, point, reason, idea, change, difficulty, chance* and *question.*

*There's **not much difference** between 'begin' and 'start'.*
*I don't see **much point** in arguing about it.*
*We have **little reason** to expect prices to fall.*
*I haven't got **much idea** of her plans.*
*There isn't **any change** in his condition.*
*They experienced **little difficulty** in stealing the painting.*
*Do you think we have **much chance** of catching the train?*
*There's **some question** of our getting a new Managing Director.*

Note the expression *have difficulty (in) . . .ing.*

*I **have difficulty (in) remembering** faces.* (NOT ~~*I have difficulties*~~ . . .)

3 *in all weathers; on your travels*

A few uncountable nouns have plural uses in fixed expressions.

*He goes running **in all weathers**.*
*Did you meet anybody exciting **on your travels**?*
Gulliver's Travels (novel by Jonathan Swift) ▸

4 *a/an* with uncountable nouns

With certain uncountable nouns – especially nouns referring to human emotions and mental activity – we often use *a/an* when we are limiting their meaning in some way.

*We need a secretary with a **first-class knowledge** of German.* (NOT ... ~~with first-class knowledge of German.~~)
*She has always had a **deep distrust** of strangers.*
*That child shows a **surprising understanding** of adult behaviour.*
*My parents wanted me to have a **good education**.* (NOT ... ~~to have good education.~~)
*You've been a **great help**.*
*I need a **good sleep**.*

Note that these nouns cannot normally be used in the plural, and that most uncountable nouns cannot be used with *a/an* at all, even when they have an adjective.

*My father enjoys very **good health**.* (NOT ... ~~a very good health.~~)
*We're having **terrible weather**.* (NOT ... ~~a terrible weather.~~)
*He speaks **excellent English**.* (NOT ... ~~an excellent English.~~)
*It's **interesting work**.* (NOT ... ~~an interesting work.~~)

5 plural uncountables

Some uncountable nouns are plural. They have no singular forms with the same meaning, and cannot normally be used with numbers.

*I've bought the **groceries**.* (BUT NOT ... ~~a grocery.~~ OR ... ~~three groceries.~~)
*The Dover **customs** have found a large shipment of cocaine.* (BUT NOT ~~The Dover custom has~~ ...)
*Many **thanks** for your help.* (BUT NOT ~~Much thank~~ ...)

For details, see 524.7.

150 country

1 countable use

Country (countable) = 'nation', 'land'.

*Scotland is a cold **country**.*
*France is the **country** I know best.*
*How many **countries** are there in Europe?*

2 uncountable use

Country (uncountable) = 'open land without many buildings'.

*I like wild **country** best.*

With this meaning, we cannot say *a country* or *countries*.

*My parents live in nice **country** near Belfast.* (NOT ... ~~in a nice country~~ ...)

The expression *the country* (the opposite of *the town*) is very common.

*We live in the **country** just outside Manchester.*
*Would you rather live in the town or the **country**?*

For information about countable and uncountable nouns, see 148–149.

151 dare

1 uncommon

In modern English, *dare* is not a very common verb. In an informal style, people generally use other expressions.

He's not afraid to say what he thinks.

2 negative use; *daren't*

Dare is, however, quite often used in negative sentences. It can be followed by an infinitive with or without *to*.

*She **doesn't dare (to) go** out at night.*

*The old lady **didn't dare (to) open** the door.*

A special negative form *daren't* (+ infinitive without *to*) is common in British English.

*I **daren't look**.*

The third person singular is also *daren't*, without *-s*.

*She **daren't tell** him what she thinks.*

3 special expressions

Don't you dare! is sometimes used to discourage people from doing unwanted things.

*Mummy, can I draw a picture on the wall? ~ **Don't you dare!***

How dare you? is sometimes used as an indignant exclamation.

How dare you? Take your hands off me at once!

And *I dare say* (sometimes written *I daresay*) is used to mean 'I think probably', 'I suppose'.

I dare say it'll rain soon. *I daresay you're ready for a drink.*

Children use the expression *I dare you* + **infinitive** to challenge each other to do frightening things.

*I **dare you to run** across the road with your eyes shut.*

152 dates

1 writing

In Britain, the commonest way to write the day's date is as follows. Note that the names of months always begin with capital letters (see 556).

30 March 2004 *27 July 2003*

The last two letters of the number word are sometimes added (e.g. *1st, 2nd, 3rd, 6th*). Some people write a comma before the year, but this is no longer very common in Britain except when the date comes inside a sentence.

30th March(,) 2004

He was born in Hawick on 14 December, 1942.

The date may be written entirely in figures.

30/3/04 *30-3-04* *30.3.04*

In the USA it is common to write the month first and to put a comma before the year.

March 30, 2004

All-figure dates are written differently in Britain and America, since British people put the day first while Americans generally start with the month. So for example, *6.4.02* means '6 April 2002' in Britain, but 'June 4, 2002' in the USA. The longer names of the months are often abbreviated as follows:

Jan Feb Mar Apr Aug Sept Oct Nov Dec

The names of decades (e.g. *the nineteen sixties*) can be written like this: *the 1960s.*

For the position of dates in letters, see 146.
For full stops in abbreviations, see 2.

2 speaking

30 March 1993 = 'March the thirtieth, nineteen ninety-three' (AmE also 'March thirtieth ...') or 'the thirtieth of March, nineteen ninety-three'
1200 = 'twelve hundred'
1305 = 'thirteen hundred and five' or 'thirteen O (/əʊ/) five'
1498 = 'fourteen (hundred and) ninety-eight'
1910 = 'nineteen (hundred and) ten'
1946 = 'nineteen (hundred and) forty-six'
2000 = 'two thousand'
2005 = 'two thousand and five'

To announce the date, *It's* is used.
It's April the first.
To ask about dates, we can say for instance:
What's the date (today)? *What date is it?*
What date is your birthday?

3 BC and AD

To distinguish between dates before and after the birth of Christ, we use the abbreviations *BC* (= Before Christ) and *AD* (= Anno Domini – Latin for 'in the year of the Lord'). *BC* follows the date; *AD* can come before or after it.
Julius Caesar first came to Britain in 55 BC.
The emperor Trajan was born in AD 53 / 53 AD.

153 dead, died and death

Dead is an adjective.
a dead man *Mrs McGinty is dead.*
That idea has been dead for years.
Died is the past tense and past participle of the verb *die.*
Shakespeare died in 1616. (NOT ~~*Shakespeare dead*~~ ...)
She died in a car crash. (NOT ~~*She is dead in*~~ ...)
So far 50 people have died in the fighting.
Note the spelling of the present participle *dying* (see 561).
Death is a noun meaning 'the end of life'.
After his death his wife went to live in Canada.

For expressions like *the dead* (= dead people), see 17.

154 determiners: the, my, some, several etc

1 What are determiners?

Determiners are words like *the, a, my, this, some, either, every, enough, several.* Determiners come at the beginning of noun phrases, but they are not adjectives.

the moon	*this house*	*every week*
a nice day	*some problems*	*enough trouble*
my fat old cat	*either arm*	*several young students*

There are two main groups of determiners.

2 Group A determiners: *the, my, this, ...*

These help to identify things – to say whether they are known or unknown to the hearer, which one(s) the speaker is talking about, whether the speaker is thinking of particular examples or speaking in general, etc. There are three kinds:

articles: *a/an, the* (see 61–70)
possessives: *my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their, one's, whose* (see 441, 626)
demonstratives: *this, these, that, those* (see 589)

We cannot put two Group A determiners together. We can say *a friend, my friend* or *this friend,* but not *the my friend, the this friend, this my friend* or *my this friend.* To put a possessive together with *a/an* or a demonstrative, we can use the structure *a/this ... of mine/yours* etc (see 443).

She's a friend of mine. (NOT ~~*She's a my friend.*~~)

Nouns with possessive *'s* (see 439–440) can be used like determiners (e.g. *Britain's weather*).

3 Group B determiners: *some, each, much, enough* etc

Most of these are 'quantifiers': they say how much or how many we are talking about. The most important are:

some, any, no
each, every, either, neither
much, many, more, most; (a) little, less, least; (a) few, fewer, fewest; enough; several
all, both, half
what, whatever, which, whichever

Some Group B determiners are used with singular nouns (e.g. *each*), some with plurals (e.g. *many*), some with uncountables (e.g. *much*), and some with more than one kind of noun (e.g. *which*).

We can put two Group B determiners together if the combination makes sense.

*We meet **every few** days.* *Have you got **any more** coffee?*

For details of the use of Group B determiners, look up the sections on particular words.

▶

4 Group B + Group A: *some of the people*

Group B determiners can be used directly before nouns, without *of*.

Have you got any sugar? (NOT ... ~~any of sugar.~~)

Most people agree with me. (NOT ~~Most of people~~...)

But if we want to put a Group B determiner before a noun which has a Group A determiner (article, possessive or demonstrative), we have to use *of*.

Compare:

- *some people*
  some of the people
- *which friends*
  which of your friends
- *each child*
  each of my children
- *enough remarks*
  enough of those remarks
- *neither door*
  neither of these doors
- *most shops*
  most of the shops

A Group B determiner + *of* can be used directly before a noun in a few cases. This happens with proper nouns such as place names, and sometimes with uncountable nouns that refer to the whole of a subject or activity.

Most of Wales was without electricity last night.

Much of philosophy is concerned with questions that have no answers.

5 Group B + of + pronoun: *most of us*

Group B determiners are used with *of* before pronouns.

neither of them *which of us* *most of you*

6 *no* and *none*; *every* and *every one*

No and *every* are not used before *of*; instead we use *none* and *every one*.

Compare:

- *no friends*
  none of my friends
- *every blouse*
  every one of these blouses

7 *all (of), both (of), half (of)*

We can leave out *of* after *all, both* and *half* when they are followed by nouns (but not when they are followed by pronouns).

all (of) his ideas *half (of) her income*

both (of) my parents *but all of us* (NOT ~~all us~~)

Note that when *each, every, either* and *neither* are used directly before nouns without *of*, the nouns are singular. Compare:

- *each tree*
  each of the trees
- *neither partner*
  neither of the partners

8 Group A + Group B: *his many friends*

Certain Group B determiners can be used after Group A determiners. They are *many, most, little, least* and *few*.

his many friends *these few poems* *the least time*

the most money *a little time* *a few questions*

For the difference between *little* and *a little*, and between *few* and *a few*, see 329.

9 other determiners: *other, such, what, only,* numbers

There are a few other determiners that do not fit into Groups A and B. They are *other, such, what* (in exclamations), *only* and numbers. *Other, only* and

numbers come after Group A determiners (*another* is written as one word); *such* and *what* come before the article *a/an*.

my other sister — *such a nice day*
the only possibility — *the three bears*
what a pity

Other and *such* can also come after some Group B determiners.

many other problems — *most such requests*

10 determiners without nouns; *I haven't read any*

Nouns are often dropped after determiners if the meaning is clear.

*Do you know Orwell's books? ~ I haven't read **any**.*
*Have we got any tomatoes? ~ A **few**.*
*Which chair do you want? ~ **This** will do.*

Determiners are sometimes used without nouns to refer to people in general. This is formal and generally rather old-fashioned.

*Many are called but **few** are chosen.* (The Bible)
Some say one thing, some say another.
OPEN MEETING: ALL (ARE) WELCOME.

Possessives (except *whose* and *his*) have different forms when they are used without nouns: *mine, yours, hers, ours, theirs* (see 442). Compare:

That's my coat — *That's **mine**.*

Its and *one's* are not used without nouns. (See 442)

For *others* meaning 'other people', see 54.4. For *all* meaning everything, see 38.2.
For expressions like *a lot of, a heap of, the majority of*, see 333.
For more information about particular determiners, consult the entries for the individual words (see Index).

155 different

1 modifiers: *any different* etc

Different is a little like a comparative: unlike most adjectives, it can be modified by *any* and *no, (a) little* and *not much*.

*I hadn't seen her for years, but she wasn't **any** different.*
*How's the patient, doctor? ~ **No** different.*
*His ideas are **little** different from those of his friends.*
*The new school isn't **much** different from the old one.*

Quite different means 'completely different' (see 489.3).

*I thought you'd be like your sister, but you're **quite different**.*

Unlike comparatives, *different* can also be modified by *very*.

*She's **very** different from her sister.*

2 prepositions: *different from/to*

From is generally used after *different*; many British people also use *to*. In American English, *than* is common.

*American football is very different **from/to** soccer.*
(AmE ... *different **from/than** soccer.*)

Before a clause, *different than* is also possible in British English.

*The job's different **than** I expected.*
(OR ... *different **from/to what** I expected.*)

For the difference between *different* and *other*, see 54.5.

156 direct speech: reporting verbs and word order

1 informal spoken reports: *said, thought*

When we repeat people's words or thoughts, we normally use *say* or *think*. They can go before sentences or at other natural breaks (e.g. between clauses or after discourse markers).

*So I **said** 'What are you doing in our bedroom?' 'I'm sorry', he **said**, 'I thought it was my room.' Well, I **thought**, that's funny, he's got my handbag open. 'If that's the case,' I **said**, 'what are you doing with my handbag?'*

2 literary direct speech: *ask, exclaim, suggest* ...

In novels, short stories etc, a much wider variety of reporting verbs are used: for example *ask, exclaim, suggest, reply, cry, reflect, suppose, grunt, snarl, hiss, whisper*. And reporting verbs are often put before their subjects ('inversion' – see 303).

*'Is this Mr Rochester's house?' **asked Emma**.*

*'Great Heavens!' **cried Celia**. 'Is there no end to your wickedness? I implore you – leave me alone!' 'Never,' **hissed the Duke** ...*

Inversion is not normal with pronoun subjects.

*'You monster!' **she screamed**.* (NOT ... ~~*screamed she*~~.)

In literary writing, reporting expressions often interrupt the normal flow of the sentences quoted.

*'Your information,' I **replied**, 'is out of date.'*

157 discourse markers

Discourse means 'pieces of language longer than a sentence'. Some words and expressions are used to show how discourse is constructed. They can show the connection between what a speaker is saying and what has already been said or what is going to be said; they can help to make clear the structure of what is being said; they can indicate what speakers think about what they are saying or what others have said. There are a very large number of these 'discourse markers', and it is impossible to give a complete list in a few pages. Here are a few of the most common examples. Some of these words and expressions have more than one use; for more information, look in a good dictionary. Some discourse markers are used mostly in informal speech or writing; others are more common in a formal style. Note that a discourse marker usually comes at the beginning of a clause.

1 focusing and linking

□ *with reference to; talking/speaking of/about; regarding; as regards; as far as ... is concerned; as for*

These expressions focus attention on what is going to be said, by announcing the subject in advance. Some of them also make a link with previous discourse, by referring back to what was said before.

With reference to is a very formal expression used mainly at the beginning of business letters.

With reference to your letter of 17 March, I am pleased to inform you ...

Speaking/talking of/about ... is used to make a link with what has just been said. It can help a speaker to change the subject.

I saw Max and Lucy today. You know, she –~ ***Talking of Max,*** *did you know he's going to Australia?*

Regarding can come at the beginning of a piece of discourse.

Hello, John. Now look, ***regarding*** *those sales figures – I really don't think ...*

As regards and *as far as ... is concerned* usually announce a change of subject by the speaker/writer.

... there are no problems about production. Now ***as regards*** *marketing ...*

... about production. ***As far as*** *marketing* ***is concerned,*** *I think ...*

People sometimes leave out *is concerned* after *as far as* ... This is usually considered incorrect.

As far as *the new development plan, I think we ought to be very careful.*

As for often suggests lack of interest or dislike.

I've invited Andy and Bob. ***As for*** *Stephen, I never want to see him again.*

2 balancing contrasting points

□ *on the one hand* (formal), *on the other hand*; *while*; *whereas*

These expressions are used to balance two facts or ideas that contrast, but do not contradict each other.

Arranged marriages are common in many Middle Eastern countries. In the West, ***on the other hand,*** *they are unusual.*

On the one hand, *we need to reduce costs.* ***On the other hand,*** *investment ...*

I like the mountains, ***while/whereas*** *my wife prefers the seaside.*

While and *whereas* can be put before the first of the contrasting points.

While/Whereas *some languages have 30 or more different vowel sounds, others have five or less.*

For a comparison of *on the other hand* and *on the contrary*, see 144.

3 emphasising a contrast

□ *however*; *nevertheless*; *nonetheless*; *mind you*; *still*; *yet*; *in spite of this/that*; *despite this/that*

However, nevertheless and *nonetheless* emphasise the fact that the second point contrasts with the first. *Nevertheless* is very formal.

Britain came last in the World Children's Games. ***However,*** *we did have one success, with Annie Smith's world record in the sack race.*

It was an oppressive dictatorship, but ***nevertheless*** *it ensured stability.*

Mind you (less formal) and *still* introduce the contrasting point as an afterthought.

I don't like the job much. ***Mind you / Still,*** *the money's OK.*

Yet, still, in spite of this/that and *despite this/that* (more formal) can be used to suggest that something is surprising, in view of what was said before.

He says he's a socialist, and ***yet*** *he owns three houses and drives a Rolls.*

The train was an hour late. ***In spite of this,*** *I managed to get to the meeting in time.* (OR ... *I still managed to get* ...) ▸

4 similarity

□ *similarly; in the same way; just as*

These are most common in a formal style.

*The roads are usually very crowded at the beginning of the holiday season. **Similarly**, there are often serious traffic jams at the end of the holidays.*

*James Carter did everything he could to educate his children. **In the same** way, they in turn put a high value on their own children's education.*

***Just as** the Greeks looked down on the Romans, the Romans looked down on their uncivilised neighbours.*

5 concession and counter-argument

□ concession: *it is true; certainly; of course; granted; if; may;* stressed auxiliaries.

□ counter-argument: *however; even so; but; nevertheless; nonetheless; all the same; still*

These expressions are used in a three-part structure: (1) there is discussion of facts that point in a certain direction; (2) it is agreed (the concession) that a particular contradictory fact points the other way; (3) but the speaker/writer dismisses this and returns to the original direction of argument.

*... cannot agree with colonialism. **It is true** that the British **may** have done some good in India. Even so, colonialism is basically evil.*

*... incapable of lasting relationships with women. **Certainly**, several women loved him, and he was married twice. **All the same**, the women closest to him were invariably deeply unhappy.*

*Very few people understood Einstein's theory. **Of course**, everybody had heard of him, and a fair number of people knew the word 'relativity'. **But** hardly anybody could tell you what he had actually said.*

*I'm not impressed by her work. **Granted**, she writes like an angel. **But** she doesn't write about anything of any interest.*

*It was a successful party. The Scottish cousins, **if** a little surprised by the family's behaviour, were **nonetheless** impressed by the friendly welcome they received.*

*I'm glad to have a place of my own. **It's true** it's a bit small, and it's a long way from the centre, and it does need a lot of repairs done. **Still**, it's home.*

For other uses of *still*, see 566. For other uses of *of course*, see 390.

6 contradicting

□ *on the contrary; quite the opposite*

These expressions can contradict a suggestion made by another speaker.

*Interesting lecture? ~ **On the contrary / Quite the opposite**, it was a complete waste of time.*

They can also be used when a speaker/writer strengthens a negative statement which he/she has just made.

*She did not allow the accident to discourage her. **On the contrary / Quite the opposite**, she began to work twice as hard.*

For a comparison of *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*, see 144.

7 dismissal of previous discourse

□ *at least; anyway; anyhow; at any rate; in any case*

At least can suggest that one thing is certain or all right, even if everything else is unsatisfactory.

*The car's completely smashed up – I don't know what we're going to do. **At least** nobody was hurt.*

The other four expressions are used (mostly informally) to mean 'What was said before doesn't matter – the main point is as follows'.

*I'm not sure what time I'll arrive, maybe seven or eight. **Anyway / Anyhow / At any rate / In any case**, I'll certainly be there before eight thirty.*

Note that *anyway* is not the same as *in any way*, which means 'by any method'.

*Can I help you **in any way**?*

8 change of subject

□ *by the way; incidentally; right; all right; now; OK*

By the way and *incidentally* are used to introduce something one has just thought of that is not directly part of the conversation.

*I was talking to Phil yesterday. Oh, **by the way**, he sends you his regards. Well, he thinks . . .*

*Janet wants to talk to you about advertising. **Incidentally**, she's lost a lot of weight. Anyway, it seems the budget . . .*

These two expressions are sometimes used to change the subject completely.

*Freddy's had another crash. ~ Oh, yes? Poor old chap. **By the way**, have you heard from Joan recently?*

*Lovely sunset. ~ Yes, isn't it? Oh, **incidentally**, what happened to that bike I lent you?*

(All) right, now and *OK* are often used informally by teachers, lecturers and people giving instructions, to indicate that a new section of the discourse is starting.

*Any questions? **Right**, let's have a word about tomorrow's arrangements.*

Now, I'd like to say something about the exam . . .

Is that all clear? OK, now has anybody ever wondered why it's impossible to tickle yourself? . . .

9 return to previous subject

□ *to return to the previous point* (formal); *as I was saying* (informal)

These expressions are used to return to an earlier subject after an interruption or a brief change of subject.

*. . . especially in France. **To return to the previous point**, non-European historians . . .*

*. . . on the roof – Jeremy, put the cat down, please. **As I was saying**, if Jack gets up on the roof and looks at the tiles . . .*

10 structuring

□ *first(ly), first of all, second(ly), third(ly)* etc; *lastly; finally; to begin with; to start with; in the first/second/third place; for one thing* (informal); *for another thing* (informal) ▸

We use these to show the structure of what we are saying.

First(ly), we need somewhere to live. Second(ly), we need to find work.
*There are three reasons why I don't want to dance with you. **To start with,** my feet hurt. **For another thing,** you can't dance. **And lastly,** . . .*

Firstly, secondly etc are more formal than *first, second* etc.

For *at first*, see 84. For *at last*, see 204.

11 adding

□ *moreover* (very formal); *furthermore* (formal); *in addition*; *as well as that*; *on top of that* (informal); *another thing is* (informal); *what is more*; *also*; *besides*; *in any case*

These expressions introduce additional information or arguments.

The Prime Minister is unwilling to admit that he can ever be mistaken. Moreover, he is totally incapable . . .
*The peasants are desperately short of food. **Furthermore / In addition,** they urgently need doctors and medical supplies.*
*She borrowed my bike and never gave it back. And **as well as that / on top of that / what is more,** she broke the lawnmower and then pretended she hadn't.*
*If Janet and Pete come and stay, where's Mary going to sleep? **Another thing** is, we can't go away next weekend if they're here.*
*Her father was out of work. **Also,** her mother was in poor health.*

Besides and *in any case* can add an extra, more conclusive fact or argument.

*What are you trying to get a job as a secretary for? You'd never manage to work eight hours a day. **Besides / In any case,** you can't type.*

12 generalising

□ *on the whole*; *in general*; *in all/most/many/some cases*; *broadly speaking*; *by and large*; *to a great extent*; *to some extent*; *apart from . . .*; *except for . . .*.

These expressions say how far the speaker/writer thinks a generalisation is true.

***On the whole,** I had a happy childhood.*
***In general,** we are satisfied with the work.*
***In most cases,** people will be nice to you if you are nice to them.*
***Broadly speaking,** teachers are overworked and underpaid.*
***By and large,** this is a pleasant place to live.*
***To a great extent,** a person's character is formed by the age of eight.*

Apart from and *except for* (see 102) introduce exceptions to generalisations.

***Apart from** the soup, I thought the meal was excellent.*
***Except for** Sally, they all seemed pretty sensible.*

13 giving examples

□ *for instance*; *for example*; *e.g.*; *in particular*

These expressions introduce particular examples to illustrate what has been said.

*People often behave strangely when they're abroad. Take Mrs Ellis, **for example / for instance,** . . .*

In writing, the abbreviation *e.g.* (Latin *exempli gratia*), pronounced /i: 'dʒi:/, is often used to mean 'for example'.

Some common minerals, e.g. silica or olivine, ...

In particular focuses on a special example.

*We are not at all happy with the work you did on the new kitchen. **In particular**, we consider that the quality of wood used ...*

14 logical consequence

□ *therefore* (formal); *as a result* (formal); *consequently* (formal); *so*; *then*

These expressions show that what is said follows logically from what was said before.

*She was **therefore** unable to avoid an unwelcome marriage.*

So she had to get married to a man she didn't like.

*The last bus has gone. ~ **Then** we're going to have to walk.*

Therefore is used in logical, mathematical and scientific proofs.

Therefore 2x - 15 = 17y + 6.

So is often used as a general-purpose connector, rather like *and*, in speech.

*So anyway, this man came up to me and said 'Have you got a light?' So I told him no, I hadn't. **So** he looked at me and ...*

For the difference between *so* and *then*, see 537.

15 making things clear; giving details

□ *I mean*; *actually*; *that is to say*; *in other words*

We use *I mean* (see 348) when we make things clearer or give more details.

*It was a terrible evening. **I mean**, they all sat round and talked politics.*

Actually (see 11) can introduce details, especially when these are unexpected.

*Tommy's really stupid. He **actually** still believes in Father Christmas.*

That is to say and *in other words* are used when the speaker/writer says something again in another way.

*We cannot continue with the deal on this basis. **That is to say / In other words**, unless you can bring down the price we shall have to cancel the order.*

16 softening and correcting

□ *I think*; *I feel*; *I reckon* (informal); *I guess* (informal); *in my view/opinion* (formal); *apparently*; *so to speak*; *more or less*; *sort of* (informal); *kind of* (informal); *well*; *really*; *that is to say*; *at least*; *I'm afraid*; *I suppose*; *or rather*; *actually*; *I mean*

I think/feel/reckon/guess and *in my view/opinion* are used to make opinions and statements sound less dogmatic – they suggest that the speaker is just giving a personal opinion, with which other people may disagree.

***I think** you ought to try again.*

*I really **feel** she's making a mistake.*

***I reckon/guess** she just doesn't respect you, Bill.*

***In my view/opinion**, it would be better to wait until July.*

Apparently can be used to say that the speaker has got his/her information from somebody else (and perhaps does not guarantee that it is true).

*Have you heard? **Apparently** Susie's pregnant again.* ▸

So to speak, more or less and *sort/kind of* (see 551) are used to show that one is not speaking very exactly, or to soften something which might upset other people. *Well* and *really* can also be used to soften.

*I sort of think we ought to start going home, perhaps, **really**.*
*I **kind of** think it's more or less a crime.*
*Do you like it? ~ **Well**, yes, it's all right.*

That is to say and *at least* can be used to 'back down' from something too strong or definite that one has said.

*I'm not working for you again. Well, **that's to say**, not unless you put my wages up.*
*Ghosts don't exist. **At least**, I've never seen one.*

I'm afraid (see 28.2) is apologetic: it can introduce a polite refusal, or bad news.

*I'm **afraid** I can't help you.* *I'm **afraid** I forgot to buy the stamps.*

I suppose can be used to enquire politely about something (respectfully inviting an affirmative answer).

*I **suppose** you're very busy just at the moment?*

It can also be used to suggest unwilling agreement.

*Can you help me for a minute? ~ I **suppose** so.*

Actually (see 11) can correct misunderstandings.

*Hello, John. ~ **Actually**, my name's Andy.*

Well can soften corrections, suggesting 'That's nearly right'.

*You live in Oxford, don't you? ~ **Well**, near Oxford.*

Or rather is used to correct oneself.

*I'm seeing him in May – **or rather** early June.*

I mean (see 348) can be used to correct oneself or to soften.

*Let's meet next Monday – I **mean** Tuesday.*
*She's not very nice. I **mean**, I know some people like her, but . . .*

17 gaining time

□ *let me see; let's see; well; you know; I don't know; I mean; kind of; sort of*

Expressions of this kind (often called 'fillers') give the speaker time to think.

*How much are you selling it for? ~ **Well, let me see** . . .*
*Why did you do that? ~ **Oh, well, you know, I don't know, really, I mean**, it just **sort of** seemed a good idea.*

18 showing one's attitude to what one is saying

□ *honestly; frankly; no doubt*

Honestly can be used to claim that one is speaking sincerely.

***Honestly**, I never said a word to him about the money.*

Both *honestly* and *frankly* can introduce critical remarks.

***Honestly**, John, why do you have to be so rude?*
*What do you think of my hair? ~ **Frankly**, dear, it's a disaster.*

No doubt (see 377) suggests that the speaker/writer thinks something is probable, but does not know for certain himself/herself.

***No doubt** the Romans enjoyed telling jokes, just like us.*

19 persuading

□ *after all; look; look here*

After all (see 31) suggests 'this is a strong argument that you haven't taken into consideration'. *Look* is more strongly persuasive.

*I think we should let her go on holiday alone. **After all**, she is fifteen – she's not a child any more.*

*You can't go there tomorrow. **Look**, the trains aren't running.*

Look here is an angry exclamation meaning 'You can't say/do that!'

Look here! What are you doing with my suitcase?

No doubt can be used to persuade people politely to do things.

*No **doubt** you'll be paying your rent soon?*

20 referring to the other person's expectations

□ *actually* (especially BrE); *in fact; as a matter of fact; to tell the truth; well*

These expressions are used when we show whether somebody's expectations have been fulfilled or not. *Actually* (see 11) can be used to say that somebody 'guessed right'.

*Did you enjoy your holiday? ~ Very much, **actually**.*

Actually, in fact and *as a matter of fact* can introduce additional surprising or unexpected information.

*The weather was awful. **Actually**, the campsite got flooded and we had to come home.*

*Was the concert nice? ~ Yes, **as a matter of fact** it was terrific.*

*Did you meet the Minister? ~ Yes. **In fact**, he asked us to lunch.*

Actually, in fact, as a matter of fact and *to tell the truth* can be used to say that the hearer's expectations were not fulfilled.

*How was the holiday? ~ Well, **actually**, we didn't go.*

*Where are the carrots? ~ Well, **in fact / to tell the truth**, I forgot to buy them.*

*I hope you passed the exam. ~ No, **as a matter of fact**, I didn't.*

After a new subject has been announced, *well* can suggest that something new or surprising is going to be said about it.

*What did you think of her boyfriend? ~ **Well**, I was a bit surprised . . .*

*You know that new house? **Well**, you'll never guess who's bought it.*

21 summing up

□ *in conclusion; to sum up; briefly; in short*

These expressions are most common in a formal style.

*. . . **In conclusion**, then, we can see that Britain's economic problems were mainly due to lack of industrial investment.*

*To **sum up**: most of the committee members supported the idea but a few were against it.*

*He's lazy, he's ignorant and he's stupid. **In short**, he's useless.*

158 do (1): introduction

Do has three main uses.

1 auxiliary verb

The auxiliary *do* is used to form the questions and negatives of other verbs, as well as emphatic and shortened forms. For details, see 159.

Did you remember to post my letters?
This doesn't taste very nice. *I do like your earrings.*
John eats too much. ~ *He certainly does.*

2 general-purpose verb

Do is also an ordinary (non-auxiliary) verb. It can refer to almost any kind of activity, and is used when it is not necessary or not possible to be more precise. For details, and the difference between *do* and *make*, see 160.

What are you doing? *Don't just stand there. Do something.*
I've finished the phone calls, and I'll do the letters tomorrow.

3 substitute verb

In British English, *do* can be used alone as a substitute for a main verb after an auxiliary. For details, see 161.

Do you think Phil will come? ~ *He might do.* (AmE *He might.*)

Do so/it/that can be used as a substitute expression when we want to avoid repeating another verb and what follows. For details, see 162.

I need to take a rest, and I shall do so as soon as I can find time.
He told me to open the door. I did it as quietly as I could.

4 combined forms

Auxiliary *do* and non-auxiliary *do* can occur together.

Do you do much gardening? *How do you do?*
The company didn't do very well last year.

159 do (2): auxiliary verb

The auxiliary verb *do* is followed by infinitives without *to*. It has several uses.

1 questions

We use *do* to make questions with ordinary verbs, but not with other auxiliary verbs (see 480). Compare:

Do you like football? (NOT ~~*Like you football?*~~)
Can you play football? (NOT ~~*Do you can play football?*~~)

The auxiliary *do* can make questions with the ordinary verb *do*.

What do you do in the evenings?

2 negatives

We use *do* to make negative clauses with ordinary verbs (including the ordinary verb *do*), but not with other auxiliary verbs (see 367).

*I **don't** like football.* (NOT ~~*I like not football.*~~)
Don't go. *I **don't** do much in the evenings.*
BUT *I can't play football.* (NOT ~~*I don't can play football.*~~)

3 emphasis

We can use *do* in an affirmative clause for emphasis (see 184).

Do sit down. *You **do** look nice today!*
*She thinks I don't love her, but I **do** love her.*
*I don't do much sport now, but I **did** play football when I was younger.*

4 inversion

Do is used in some inversion (verb before subject) structures (see 302).

*At no time **did** he lose his self-control.*

5 ellipsis

In cases where an auxiliary is used instead of a whole verb phrase (see 181), *do* is common in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives.

*She doesn't like dancing, but I **do**.* (= . . . but I like dancing.)
*You saw Alan, **didn't** you?*
That meat smells funny. ~ *Yes, it **does**, **doesn't** it?*
*Ann thinks there's something wrong with Bill, and so **do** I.*

For *do* with *be*, see 90.
For weak pronunciations of *do* and *does*, see 616.
For *do* in short answers, see 517.

160 do (3): general-purpose verb; do and make

The general-purpose verb *do* has several uses, and can sometimes be confused with *make*.

1 *do* for indefinite activities

We use *do* when we do not say exactly what activity we are talking about – for example with words like *thing, something, nothing, anything, what.*

*Then he **did** a very strange thing.* (NOT ~~*Then he made a very strange thing.*~~)
Do something!
*I like **doing** nothing.* (NOT . . . ~~*making nothing.*~~)
*What shall we **do**?*

2 *do* for work

We use *do* when we talk about work and jobs.

*I'm not going to **do** any work today.* *Could you **do** the shopping for me?*
*It's time to **do** the accounts.* *I wouldn't like to **do** your job.*
*I **did*** (= studied) *French and German at school.*
*Has Ben **done** his homework?*
*Could you **do** the ironing first, and then **do** the windows if you've got time?*

▶

3 *do . . .ing*

We use *do* in the informal structure *do . . .ing*, to talk about activities that take a certain time, or are repeated (for example jobs and hobbies). There is usually a determiner (e.g. *the, my, some, much*) before the *-ing* form.

*During the holidays I'm going to **do some walking and a lot of reading**.*
*Let your fingers **do the walking**.* (advertisement for telephone shopping)

Note that the verb after *do* cannot have an object in this structure.

*I'm going to **watch some TV**.* (NOT ~~*I'm going to do some watching TV*~~.)

But *do* can be used with a compound noun that includes **verb + object**.

*I want to **do some bird-watching** this weekend.*
*It's time I **did some letter-writing**.*

4 *make* for constructing, creating etc

We often use *make* to talk about constructing, building, creating etc.

*I've just **made** a cake.* *Let's **make** a plan.*
*My father and I once **made** a boat.*

5 *do* instead of *make*

We sometimes use *do* in place of *make*, to sound casual about a creative activity – as if we are not claiming to produce any very special results.

*What shall we eat? ~ Well, I could **do** an omelette.*

6 common fixed expressions

***do** good, harm, business, one's best, a favour, sport, exercise, one's hair, one's teeth, one's duty, 50 mph*
***make** a journey, an offer, arrangements, a suggestion, a decision, an attempt, an effort, an excuse, an exception, a mistake, a noise, a phone call, money, a profit, a fortune, love, peace, war, a bed, a fire, progress*

Note that we say ***make** a bed*, but we often talk about ***doing** the bed(s)* as part of housework. Compare:

*He's old enough to **make his own bed** now.*
*I'll start on the vegetables as soon as I've **done the beds**.*

We use *take*, not *make*, in *take a photo*, and *have*, not *make*, in *have an (interesting) experience*.

For information about sentence structures with *make*, see 335.

161 do (4): substitute verb

auxiliary verb + *do*

In British English (but not American), *do* can be used alone as a substitute verb after an auxiliary verb.

*Come and stay with us. ~ I may (**do**), if I have the time.* (AmE *I may, if . . .* OR *I may come, if . . .*)
*He's supposed to have locked the safe. ~ He has (**done**).* (AmE *He has.* OR *He has locked it.*)
*I found myself thinking of her as I had never **done** before.*
*He didn't pass his exam, but he could have (**done**) if he'd tried harder.*
*He smokes more than he used to (**do**).*

Progressive forms are possible, but not very common.
You should be getting dressed. ~ I am (doing).
Note that the auxiliary verb is stressed in this structure.
Close the door. ~ I HAVE done. (NOT ... ~~*I have DONE.*~~)

For auxiliary verbs used instead of complete verb phrases, see 181.

162 do so/it/that

1 *do so*

The expression *do so* can be used to avoid repeating a verb and its object or complement. It is usually rather formal.
*Put the car away, please. ~ I've already **done so**.*
*Eventually she divorced Stephen. It was a pity she had not **done so** earlier.*
*He told me to get out, and I **did** so as quietly as possible.*

2 *do so* and *do it/that*

Do it and *do that* can be used instead of *do so*.
*I promised to get the tickets, and I will **do so/it** as soon as possible.*
*She rode a camel: she had never **done so/that** before.*
We use *do so* mainly to refer to the same action, with the same subject, that was mentioned before. In other cases we prefer *do it/that* or *do* alone.
*I haven't got time to get the tickets. Who's going to **do it**?* (NOT ... ~~*Who's going to do so?*~~)
*I rode a camel in Morocco. ~ I'd love to **do that**.* (NOT ... ~~*to do so.*~~)
*I always eat peas with honey. My wife never **does**.* (NOT ... ~~*My wife never does so.*~~)

3 *do so/it/that*: deliberate actions

Do so/it/that are mainly used to refer to deliberate dynamic actions. We do not usually use these expressions to replace verbs like *fall, lose, like, remember, think, own*, which refer to involuntary actions or states.
*I like the saxophone, and I always **have (done)**.*
(NOT ... ~~*and I have always done so/it/that.*~~)
*She lost her money. I wasn't surprised that she **did**.*
(NOT ... ~~*that she did so/it/that.*~~)
*I think Jake's wrong. I **did** when he first spoke to me.*
(NOT ... ~~*I did so/it/that when*~~ ...)

4 other verbs

Note that *so, it* and *that* are not normally used in this way after auxiliary verbs. It is not possible in standard English to say *I can so, She was it* or *I have that*.

For *so I am, so it is* etc, see 541.2.
For *so do I, so am I* etc, see 541.1.
For *so* with *say* and *tell*, see 540.
For *so* with *think, believe, hope* and similar verbs, see 539.
For auxiliary *do* as substitute for a whole verb phrase, see 181.
For differences between *it* and *that*, see 590.

163 doubt

Clauses after the verb *doubt* can be introduced by *whether, if* or *that.*

*Economists **doubt whether** interest rates will fall in the near future.*

*I **doubt if** she'll come this evening.*

*The directors **doubt that** new machinery is really necessary.*

In an informal style, people sometimes use no conjunction.

*I **doubt** we'll have enough money for a holiday.*

After negative forms of *doubt,* we normally use *that* or no conjunction.

*I don't **doubt (that)** there will be more problems.*

For *no doubt* meaning 'probably', see 377.

164 dress

1 noun

The countable noun *dress* means an article of women's clothing (it goes from the shoulders to below the hips).

*This is the first time I've seen you wearing **a dress**.*

There is also an uncountable noun *dress* (not used with the article *a/an*). It means 'clothing', 'clothes'. It is not very common in modern English, and is used mostly to talk about special kinds of clothing (for example *national dress, evening dress, battledress*).

*He looks good in evening **dress**.* (NOT ... ~~*in an evening dress*~~.)

2 verb: putting clothes on

The verb *dress* can be used to talk about putting clothes on oneself or somebody else. *Undress* is used for taking clothes off.

*It only takes me five minutes to **dress** in the morning.*

*Could you **dress** the children for me?*

*I'm going to **undress** in front of the fire.*

In informal English, we use *get dressed/undressed* to talk about dressing or undressing oneself.

*Get **dressed** and come downstairs at once!*

Put on and *take off* are generally used when clothes are mentioned.

*I **put on** a sweater, but it was so warm that I had to **take it off** again.*

*Can you **take** John's boots **off** for him?*

3 verb: wearing clothes

To say what somebody is/was wearing on a particular occasion, we can use the form *be dressed in* (note the preposition).

*I didn't recognise him because he was **dressed in** a dark suit.*

(NOT ... ~~*dressed with*~~ ... OR ... ~~*dressing in*~~ ...)

*She was **dressed in** orange pyjamas.*

Be wearing and *have on* (especially AmE) are also very common.

*She was **wearing** orange pyjamas.*

*She **had on** orange pajamas.* (AmE)

The active form *dress (in)* can be used to give the idea of repetition or habit.

*She always **dresses** in green.* *He **dresses** well.*

Note also the expression *well dressed.*

165 drown

Both active and passive forms of *drown* are common when we talk about accidental drowning.

*He (was) **drowned** while trying to swim across a river.*

166 due to and owing to

Due to and *owing to* are similar to 'because of'. *Due to* is more common than *owing to*.

Phrases beginning *due/owing to* are often separated from the rest of their sentence by a comma.

Due/Owing to the bad weather(,) the match was cancelled.

We have had to postpone the meeting(,) due/owing to the strike.

Some people believe it is incorrect to use *due to* at the beginning of a clause in this way, but the structure is common in educated usage.

Due to can also follow the verb *be*. *Owing to* is not usually used like this.

*His success was **due to** his mother.* (NOT ... ~~*was owing to his mother.*~~)

167 during and for

During is used to say **when** something happens; *for* is used to say **how long** it lasts. Compare:

- *My father was in hospital **during the summer**.*
  *My father was in hospital **for six weeks**.* (NOT ... ~~*during six weeks.*~~)
- *It rained **during the night for two or three hours**.*
  *I'll call in and see you **for a few minutes during the afternoon**.*

For *during* and *in*, see 168.
For *for, since, in* and *from*, see 208.

168 during and in

We use both *during* and *in* to say that something happens inside a particular period of time.

*We'll be on holiday **during/in** August.* *I woke up **during/in** the night.*

We use *during* to stress that we are talking about the whole of the period.

*The shop's closed **during the whole** of August.* (NOT ... ~~*in the whole of August.*~~)

And we use *during* when we are talking about an event, activity or experience (not a period of time).

*He had some strange experiences **during his military service**.* (NOT ... ~~*in his military service.*~~)

*I'll try to phone you **during the meeting**.* (NOT ... ~~*in the meeting.*~~)

*I met them **during my stay in China**.*

169 each

1 *each* + singular

Each is a determiner (see 154). We use it before a singular noun.

*I enjoy **each moment**.* (NOT ... ~~*each moments.*~~)

A following verb is also singular.

*Each new day **is** different.* (NOT ... ~~*are different.*~~)

2 *each of*

We use *each of* before a plural pronoun, or before a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154) with a plural noun.

*Each of **us** sees the world differently.*

*I write to **each of my children** once a week.*

A following verb is normally singular.

*Each of them **has** problems.*

3 pronouns

When a pronoun or possessive is used later in a clause to refer back to *each (of)* + noun/pronoun, the later word can be singular (more formal) or plural (less formal).

*Each girl wore what **she** liked best.* (more formal)

*Each student wore what **they** liked best.* (less formal)

*Each of them explained it in **his/her/their** own way.*

4 position with object

Each can follow an object (direct or indirect), but does not normally come at the end of a clause.

*She kissed **them each** on the forehead.* (BUT NOT ~~*She kissed them each.*~~)

*I want **them each** to make their own decision.*

*I sent **the secretaries each** a Christmas card.*

However, *each* can come at the end of a clause in expressions referring to amounts and quantities.

*They cost £3.50 **each**.* *I bought the girls **two ice-creams each**.*

5 without a noun

We can drop a noun after *each*, if the meaning is clear. However, *each one* or *each of them* is more common in an informal style.

*I've got five brothers, and **each (one/of them)** is different.*

6 with the verb

When *each* refers to the subject, it can also go with a verb in mid-position, like some adverbs (for details of word order, see 24). In this case plural nouns, pronouns and verbs are used.

*They **have each been** told.*

*We **can each** apply for our own membership card.*

*You are **each** right in a different way.*

*The plans **each** have certain advantages and disadvantages.*

For the difference between *each* and *every*, see 170.

170 each and every: the difference

1 *each* with two or more; *every* with three or more

Each and *every* are both normally used with singular nouns. *Each* can be used to talk about two or more people or things; *every* is normally used to talk about three or more.

*The business makes less money **each/every** year.* (NOT ... ~~*each/every years.*~~)
*She had a child holding on to **each** hand.* (NOT ... ~~*every hand.*~~)

For expressions like *every two years, every three steps,* see 532.8.

2 meaning

Each and *every* can often be used without much difference of meaning.

*You look more beautiful **each/every** time I see you.*

But we prefer *each* when we are thinking of people or things separately, one at a time. And *every* is more common when we are thinking of people or things together, in a group. (*Every* is closer to *all.*) So we are more likely to say:

Each person in turn went to see the doctor.

but

Every patient came from the same small village.

3 structures

We do not use *each* with words and expressions like *almost, practically, nearly* or *without exception,* which stress the idea of a whole group.

*She's lost nearly **every** friend she had.* (NOT ... ~~*nearly each friend*~~ ...)

Each can be used in some structures where *every* is impossible.

*They **each** said what they thought.* (BUT NOT ~~*They every*~~ ...)
Each of them spoke for five minutes. (BUT NOT ~~*Every of them*~~ ...)

For more details, see 169 (*each*) and 193 (*every*).

171 each other and one another

1 no difference

Each other and *one another* mean the same.

*Ann and I write to **each other / one another** every week.*

Each other is more common than *one another,* especially in an informal style.

2 not used as subject

Each other and *one another* are not normally used as subjects (though this occasionally happens in subordinate clauses in very informal speech).

*They **each** listened carefully to what the other said.* (NOT USUALLY *They listened carefully to what each other said.*)

3 *each other's / one another's*

Both expressions have possessive forms.

*They'll sit for hours looking into **each other's / one another's** eyes.* ▸

4 *-selves* and *each other / one another*

Note the difference between *-selves* and *each other / one another*. Compare:

*John and Mary are strange: they talk to **themselves** a lot.* (John talks to John; Mary talks to Mary.)

*Susan and Peter talk to **each other** on the phone every day.* (Susan talks to Peter; Peter talks to Susan.)

5 words used without *each other / one another*

We do not normally use *each other / one another* after words like *meet* or *marry*, where the verb itself makes the meaning clear.

*They met in 1992 and **married** in 1994.*

172 east and eastern, north and northern etc

1 adjectives: the difference

We often prefer *eastern, northern* etc when we are talking about vague, indefinite or larger areas, and *east, north* etc for more clearly defined places (e.g. the names of countries or states). Compare:

- *the **northern** part of the country*
  *the **north** side of the house*
- *the **southern** counties of Britain*
  *the **south** coast*
- *southern Africa* (an area)
  South Africa (a country)
- *the **northern** United States*
  North Carolina

However, place names do not always follow this rule. Note the following:

Northern Ireland *North/East/West Africa* *North/South America*
East/South etc *Asia* BUT: *Western/Eastern* etc *Europe*
South Australia BUT: *Western Australia; the Northern Territory*
the North/South Atlantic/Pacific
the Northern/Southern hemisphere

2 'belonging to'

We use *eastern, northern* etc to mean 'belonging to' or 'typical of'.

a southern accent *a group of northern poets*

3 capital letters

Capital letters are used at the beginning of *East, Eastern, North, Northern* etc when these come in official or well-established place names.

North Carolina *Western Australia* *the Far East*
unemployment in the North (place name meaning 'the North of England')

In other cases, adjectives, nouns and adverbs begin with small letters.

We spent the winter in southern California.
I live in north London. *There's a strong north wind.*
The sun rises in the east. *By sunrise we were driving south.*

4 prepositions

Note the difference between *in the east* etc *of* ... and *to the east* etc *of* ...

*I live **in the east of** Scotland.*
*Denmark is about 500 km **to the east of** Scotland.*

173 efficient and effective

If somebody/something is *efficient*, he/she/it works in a well-organised way without wasting time or energy.

*He's not very **efficient**: he keeps filing letters in the wrong place, he works very slowly, and he keeps forgetting things.*

*The postal service is even less **efficient** than the telephone system.*

If something is *effective*, it has the right effect: it solves a problem or gets a result.

*My headache's much better. Those tablets really are **effective**.*

*I think a wide black belt would look very **effective** with that dress.*

174 either: determiner

1 *either* + singular

We use *either* with a singular noun to mean 'one or the other' of two.

*Come on Tuesday or Thursday. **Either day** is OK.* (NOT ~~*Either days*~~...)

*She didn't get on with **either parent**.* (NOT ...~~*either parents*~~)

2 *either of*

We use *either of* before a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154) or a pronoun. A following noun is plural.

*You can use **either of the bathrooms**.*

*I don't like **either of my maths teachers**.*

*I don't like **either of them**.*

A verb after *either of* is more often singular, but it can sometimes be plural in an informal style.

*Either of the children **is** perfectly capable of looking after the baby.*

*She just doesn't care what either of her parents **say(s)**.*

3 without a noun

We can use *either* alone if the meaning is clear.

*Would you like tea or coffee? ~ I don't mind. **Either**.*

4 pronouns

When a pronoun is used later in a clause to refer back to ***either*** + **noun/pronoun**, the later pronoun can be singular (more formal) or plural (more informal).

*If either of the boys phones, tell **him/them** I'll be in this evening.*

5 *either side/end*

In these expressions, *either* sometimes means 'each'.

*There are roses on **either side** of the door.*

6 pronunciation

Either is pronounced /ˈaɪðə(r)/ or /ˈiːðə(r)/ (in American English usually /ˈiːðər/).

For *either ... or*, see 175.
For *not ... either, neither* and *nor*, see 374.

175 either ... or

We use *either ... or* to talk about a choice between two possibilities (and sometimes more than two).

*I don't speak **either** French **or** German.*
*You can **either** come with me now **or** walk home.*
*If you want ice-cream there's **either** raspberry, lemon **or** vanilla.*

We often balance this structure, so that the same kind of words or expressions follow *either* and *or*.

*You can have **either** tea **or** coffee.* (nouns)
*He's **either** in London **or** in New York.* (prepositional expressions)
*Either you'll leave this house **or** I'll call the police.* (clauses)

However, unbalanced sentences with *either ... or* are common. Some people prefer to avoid them.

*You can **either** have tea **or** coffee.*
*He's **either** in London **or** New York.*
*You'll **either** leave this house **or** I'll call the police.*

For *either* as a determiner, see 174.
For pronunciation, see 174.5.
For *not ... either, neither* and *nor*, see 374.

176 elder and eldest

Elder and *eldest* can be used instead of *older* and *oldest* to talk about the order of birth of the members of a family. They are only used attributively (before nouns). Compare:

- *My **elder**/**older** brother has just got married.*
  *He's three years **older** than me.* (NOT ... ~~*elder than me.*~~)
- *His **eldest**/**oldest** daughter is a medical student.*
  *She's the **oldest** student in her year.*

Elder brother/sister are used when a person has only one brother/sister who is older; *eldest* is used when there are more. An *elder son/daughter* is the older of two; an *eldest son/daughter* is the oldest of two or more.

177 ellipsis (1): introduction

We often leave out words to avoid repetition, or in other cases when the meaning can be understood without them. This is called 'ellipsis'.

1 replies

In replies we usually avoid repeating information that has just been given.

What time are you coming? ~ ***About ten.*** (More natural than *I'm coming about ten.*)
Who said that? ~ ***John.*** (More natural than *John said that.*)
How many chairs do you need? ~ ***Three.*** (More natural than *I need three chairs.*)
She's out this evening? ~ ***Yes, working.*** (More natural than *Yes, she's working this evening.*)

2 structures with *and, but* and *or*

Repeated words are often dropped in co-ordinate structures (see 178).

*a knife **and** fork (= a knife and a fork)*

*She was poor **but** honest.* (= ... but she was honest.)

3 at the beginning of a sentence

In informal speech, unstressed words are often dropped at the beginning of a sentence, if the meaning is clear. For details, see 179.

Seen Lucy? (= Have you seen Lucy?)

Doesn't know what she's talking about. (= She doesn't ...)

4 at the end of a noun phrase

It is sometimes possible to drop nouns after adjectives, noun modifiers and/or determiners. For details, see 180.

*Do you want large eggs? ~ No, I'll have **small**.* (= ... small eggs.)

*My car isn't working. I'll have to use **Mary's**.* (= ... Mary's car.)

*We're going to hear the **London Philharmonic** tonight.* (= ... the London Philharmonic Orchestra.)

*Which shoes are you going to wear? ~ **These**.* (= These shoes.)

5 at the end of a verb phrase

Auxiliary verbs are often used alone instead of full verbs. For details, see 181.

*I haven't paid. ~ I **haven't** either.* (= ... I haven't paid either.)

*She said she'd phone, but she **didn't**.* (= ... didn't phone.)

This type of ellipsis can include words that follow the verb phrase.

*I was planning to go to Paris next week, but I **can't**.*
(= ... I can't go to Paris next week.)

The same structures are possible with non-auxiliary *be* and *have*.

*I thought she would be angry, and she **was**.*

*He says he hasn't any friends, but I know he **has**.*

6 infinitives

We can use *to* instead of repeating a whole infinitive. For details, see 182.

*Are you and Gillian getting married? ~ We hope **to**.*
(= We hope to get married.)

*I don't dance much now, but I used **to** a lot.*

Sometimes a whole infinitive, including *to*, is left out.

*Come when you **want**.* (= ... when you want to come.)

*Have a good time. ~ I'll **try**.* (= I'll try to have a good time.)

7 comparative structures with *as* and *than*

We can leave out words after *as* and *than*, if the meaning is clear.

*The weather isn't as good **as last year**.* (= ... as it was last year.)

*I found more blackberries **than you**.* (= ... than you found.)

For missing subject or object after *as* and *than* (e.g. *as was expected*), see 581. ▶

8 question-word clauses

Clauses can be dropped after question words.

Somebody's been stealing our flowers, but I don't know ***who.***
(= ... I don't know who's been stealing our flowers.)
Become a successful writer. This book shows you ***how.***

9 *that* and relative pronouns

In an informal style, the conjunction *that* is often dropped (see 584); object relative pronouns can also be dropped (see 495.4).

I knew ***(that)*** *she didn't want to help me.*
This is the restaurant ***(which)*** *I was talking about.*

10 reduced relative structures: *the tickets available* etc

We can sometimes leave out a relative pronoun and the verb *be* before participles or adjectives such as *available, possible.* For details, see 498.10.

Who's the girl ***dancing*** *with your brother?* (= ... who is dancing ...)
Please let me have all the tickets ***available.*** (= ... that are available.)

11 *be* after conjunctions

Subject pronouns with forms of *be* can be left out after certain conjunctions, especially in a formal style.

Start ***when ready.*** (= ... when you are ready.)
Though intelligent, *he was very poorly educated.*
(= Though he was intelligent ...)
When ordering, *please send £1.50 for postage and packing.*
Phone me if ***(it is) necessary.*** *He had a small heart attack* ***while asleep.***
I'm enclosing my cheque for £50, ***as agreed.*** *Leave in oven* ***until cooked.***

12 prepositions

In an informal style, prepositions can be dropped in a few time expressions (see 451).

See you ***(on)*** *Monday night.*
We're staying here ***(for)*** *another three months.*
What time shall I come? (More natural than *At what time ...?*)

For cases like *We need a place to live (in)*, see 431.

13 pronouns after prepositions

In British English, pronoun objects can sometimes be dropped after prepositions. This happens, for example, when *have* or *with* are used in descriptive structures.

My socks have got holes in (them).
I'd like a piece of toast with butter on (it).

14 abbreviated styles

In certain styles, many or all non-essential words can be dropped. For details, see 1.

Take 500g butter and place in small saucepan.
Single man looking for flat Oxford area.
WOMAN WALKS ON MOON

178 ellipsis (2): with and, but and or

1 various kinds of word left out

When expressions are joined by *and, but* or *or*, we often leave out repeated words or phrases of various kinds.

*a knife **and** (a) fork* — *antique (furniture) **or** modern furniture*
*these men **and** (these) women* — *in France, (in) Germany **or** (in) Spain*
*ripe apples **and** (ripe) pears* — *She can read, **but** (she) can't write.*
*The Minister likes golf **but** (the Minister) hates fishing.*
*We drove (across America), rode (across America), flew (across America) **and** walked across America.*
*She was poor **but** (she was) honest.*
*The food (is ready) **and** the drinks are ready.*
*Phil (washed the dishes) **and** Sally washed the dishes.*

We can sometimes drop a verb that is repeated in a different form.

*I have always **paid** my bills and I always will (**pay** . . .).*

2 word order

Note that when two verbs, objects etc are the same, it is not always the second that is left out. We may have to leave out the first to avoid confusion, or to produce a simpler word order and sentence structure.

Cats (catch mice) and dogs catch mice. (NOT ~~*Cats catch mice and dogs.*~~)
I can (go) and will go.

In informal speech and writing, ellipsis does not usually interrupt the normal word order of a clause or sentence. Sentences like the following are typical of a more formal style.

Peter planned and Jane paid for the holiday. (Less formal: *Peter planned the holiday and Jane paid for it.*)
Kevin likes dancing and Annie athletics. (Less formal: *Kevin likes dancing and Annie likes athletics.*)
The children will carry the small boxes and the adults the large ones.
Jane went to Greece and Alice to Rome.
You seem, and she certainly is, ill.

3 other conjunctions

Ellipsis is not normally possible after other conjunctions besides *and, but* and *or*.

*She didn't know where she was **when** she woke up.* (NOT . . . ~~*when woke up.*~~)

However, ellipsis of subject pronouns with forms of *be* is possible in some cases (e.g. *if possible, when arriving*). See 261.6, 73.4, 411.6.

4 *(and) then*

In an informal style, ellipsis is sometimes possible after *then*, even if *and* is dropped.

*Peter started first, (and) **then** Colin (started).*

For singular or plural verbs after expressions with *and* or *or*, see 532.2.
For singular and plural verbs with *neither . . . nor*, see 373.

179 ellipsis (3): at the beginning of a sentence

1 words that can be left out

In informal spoken English we often leave out unstressed words at the beginning of a sentence if the meaning is clear without them. Words that can be left out include articles (*the, a/an*), possessives (*my, your* etc), personal pronouns (*I, you* etc), auxiliary verbs (*am, have* etc) and the preparatory subject *there*.

Car's running badly. (= The car's . . .)
Wife's on holiday. (= My wife's . . .)
Couldn't understand a word. (= I couldn't . . .)
Must dash. (= I must dash.)
Won't work, you know. (= It won't work . . .)
Seen Joe? (= Have you seen Joe?)
Keeping well, I hope? (= You're keeping well . . .)
Nobody at home. (= There's nobody at home.)
Careful what you say. (= Be careful . . .)
Be four pounds fifty. (= That'll be . . .)

This structure is common in advertisements. Two real examples:

Thinking of postgraduate study? Call for a place now. (= Are you thinking . . .?)
Speak a foreign language? Speak it better. (= Do you speak . . .?)

2 unstressed forms of *be, will, would, have*

We do not usually drop words so as to begin sentences with unstressed forms of *be, will, would* or auxiliary *have* (though this sometimes happens in postcards, diary entries and other kinds of very informal writing).

I'm coming tomorrow. OR *Coming tomorrow.* (BUT NOT ~~*Am coming tomorrow*~~. *Am* is not stressed.)
I'll see you soon. OR *See you soon.* (BUT NOT ~~*Will see you soon*~~. *Will* is not stressed.)
Haven't seen him. (BUT NOT ~~*Have seen him*~~. *Have* is not stressed.)

3 before pronouns: *You ready?*

Auxiliary verbs can be left out before personal pronouns except *I* and *it*.

You ready? (= Are you ready?)
She want something? (= Does she want something?)
(BUT NOT ~~*I late? It raining?*~~)

4 *Dutch, aren't you?*

Ellipsis is very common in sentences that have some sort of tag (see 487–488, 514) on the end, especially in British English.

Can't swim, myself. *Like a cigar, I do.* *Dutch, aren't you?*
Getting in your way, am I? *Going on holiday, your kids?*

180 ellipsis (4): in noun phrases

1 ellipsis after adjectives: *boiled, please*

A repeated noun can sometimes be dropped after an adjective, if the meaning is clear, especially when one is talking about common kinds of choice.

What kind of potatoes would you like? ~ ***Boiled** (potatoes), please.*
*We haven't got any large eggs. Only **small** (eggs).*

This often happens after superlatives.

*I think I'll buy the **cheapest**.*

Note that nouns are not normally dropped in other situations.

*Poor little **boy**!* (NOT ~~*Poor little!*~~)
*The most important **thing** is to keep calm.* (NOT ~~*The most important is to*~~ . . .)

For other structures in which adjectives are used without nouns, see 17.

2 ellipsis after *this*, numbers, possessives etc

Nouns can also be dropped after most determiners (see 154), if the meaning is clear.

*This is Helen's coat, and **that** (coat) is mine.*

This also happens after numbers, nouns with possessive *'s*, *own* and *(an)other*.

*I'm not sure how many packets I need, but I'll take **two** (packets) to start with.*
*Our train's the **second** (train) from this platform.*
You take Pete's car, and I'll take Susie's (car).
Can I borrow your pen? ~ *No, find your **own** (pen).*
That beer went down fast. ~ *Have **another** (beer).*

3 well-known names

The last words of well-known names are often dropped.

*She's playing the **Beethoven** with the **London Philharmonic** tomorrow night.* (= . . . the Beethoven violin concerto with the London Philharmonic Orchestra . . .)
*He's staying at the **Hilton**.* (= . . . the Hilton Hotel.)
*We're going to see 'Hamlet' at the **Mermaid**.* (= . . . the Mermaid Theatre.)

When we talk about people's houses and shops, the words *house* and *shop* are often dropped (see 439.4).

*We spent the weekend at **John and Mary's**.*
*Could you pick up some chops from the **butcher's**?*

181 ellipsis (5): after auxiliary verbs

1 auxiliary instead of complete verb phrase

We can avoid repetition by using an auxiliary verb instead of a complete verb phrase, if the meaning is clear. The auxiliary verb usually has a 'strong' pronunciation (see 616), and contractions (see 143) are not normally used except in negatives. ▸

Get up. ~ *I* ***am*** /æm/. (= I am getting up.)
He said he'd write, but he ***hasn't.*** (= ... hasn't written.)
I'll come and see you when I ***can.*** (= ... can come and see you.)
Shall I tell him what I think? ~ *I* ***wouldn't*** *if I were you.*

Do can be used before ellipsis if there is no other auxiliary to repeat.
I may come to London. I'll phone you if I ***do.***
He said he would arrive before seven, and he ***did.***

Other words, as well as the rest of the verb phrase, can be left out after the auxiliary.
I can't see you today, but I ***can*** *tomorrow.* (= ... I can see you ...)
I've forgotten the address. ~ *I* ***have*** *too.*
You're not trying very hard. ~ *I* ***am.***
You wouldn't have won if I hadn't helped you. ~ *Yes, I* ***would.***

This also happens after non-auxiliary *be* and *have.*
I'm tired. ~ *I* ***am*** *too.* *Who's the driver?* ~ *I* ***am.***
Who has a dictionary? ~ *I* ***have.***

2 short answers etc: *Yes, I have.*

Ellipsis is used regularly in short answers (see 517), reply questions (see 484) and question tags (see 487-488).
Have you finished? ~ *Yes, I* ***have.***
I can whistle through my fingers. ~ *Can you, dear?*
You don't want to buy a car, ***do*** *you?*

3 *so am I* etc

Ellipsis also happens after *so* (see 541), *neither* and *nor* (see 374). Note the word order.
I've forgotten the address. ~ *So* ***have*** *I.*
She doesn't like olives, and neither ***do*** *I.*

4 ellipsis before complete form

Ellipsis normally happens when an expression is used for a second time, after the complete form has already been used once (see above examples). However, it can sometimes happen the other way round. This is common in sentences beginning with *if.*
If you ***can,*** *send me a postcard when you arrive.*
If you ***could,*** *I'd like you to help me this evening.*
If you ***prefer,*** *we can go tomorrow instead.*

5 more than one auxiliary

When there is more than one auxiliary, ellipsis usually happens after the first.
You wouldn't have enjoyed the film. ~ *Yes, I* ***would.*** (= ... I would have enjoyed the film.)

However, more auxiliaries can be included. The first is stressed.
Could you have been dreaming? ~ *I suppose I* ***could*** / ***COULD*** ***have*** / ***COULD*** ***have been.***

We often include a second auxiliary verb if it has not appeared before in the same form.
I think Mary should ***be*** *told.* ~ *She* ***has been.*** (More natural than ... *She has.*)

And we normally include a second auxiliary verb after a change of modal auxiliary.

Mary should be told. ~ *She must be.* (More natural than ... *She must.*)

6 substitution with *do*

In British English, a main verb that is left out after an auxiliary can be replaced by *do*. For details, see 161.

Do you think he'll phone? ~ *He might do.* (AmE ... *He might.*)

For *do so*, see 162.

182 ellipsis (6): infinitives

1 *to* used instead of whole infinitive

We can use *to* instead of the whole infinitive of a repeated verb (and following words), if the meaning is clear.

Are you and Gillian getting married? ~ *We hope to.*
Let's go for a walk. ~ *I don't want to.*
I don't dance much now, but I used to a lot.
Sorry I shouted at you. I didn't mean to.
Somebody ought to clean up the bathroom. ~ *I'll ask John to.*

Be and *have* (used for possession) are not usually dropped.

There are more flowers than there used to be. (NOT ... ~~*than there used to.*~~)
She hasn't been promoted yet, but she ought to be. (NOT ... ~~*but she ought to.*~~)
You've got more freckles than you used to have. (NOT ~~*You've got more freckles than you used to.*~~)

2 ellipsis of whole infinitive

In some cases the whole infinitive can be left out. This happens after nouns and adjectives.

He'll never leave home; he hasn't got the courage (to).
You can't force him to leave home if he's not ready (to).

It also happens after verbs which can stand alone without a following infinitive.

Can you start the car? ~ *I'll try (to).*

3 *(would) like, want* etc

We cannot usually leave out *to* after *would like/love/hate/prefer, want* and *choose.*

Are you interested in going to University? ~ *I'd like to.* (NOT ... ~~*I'd like.*~~)
My parents encouraged me to study art, but I didn't want to. (NOT ... ~~*I didn't want.*~~)

However, *to* is often dropped after *want*, and almost always after *like*, when these are used after certain conjunctions – for instance *when, if, what, as.*

Come when you want (to).
I'll do what I like. *Stay as long as you like.*

183 else

1 use

We use *else* to mean 'other' after:
somebody, someone, something, somewhere; anybody, everybody, nobody etc; question words; *whatever, whenever* etc; *little, much.*

*Would you like **anything else**?*
*I'm sorry. I mistook you for **somebody else**.*
*Where **else** did you go besides Madrid?*
*Whatever **else** he may be, he's not a mathematician.*
*We know when Shakespeare was born and when he died, but we don't know **much else** about his life.*

In a formal style, *else* is sometimes used after *all.*

*When **all else** fails, read the instructions.*

2 word order

Note that *else* comes immediately after the word it modifies.

*What **else** would you like?* (NOT ~~*What would you like else?*~~)

3 *else's*

Else has a possessive *else's.*

*You're wearing somebody **else's** coat.*

4 singular only

There is no plural structure with *else.*

*I didn't see **any other** people.* (NOT . . . ~~*any else people.*~~)

5 *or else*

Or else means 'otherwise', 'if not'.

*Let's go, **or else** we'll miss the train.*

Or else is sometimes used with no continuation, as a threat.

*You'd better stop hitting my little brother, **or else**!*

6 *elsewhere*

This is a formal word for *somewhere else.*

*If you are not satisfied with my hospitality, go **elsewhere**.*

184 emphasis

1 emotive and contrastive emphasis

We often emphasise ('strengthen') a particular word or expression. There are two main reasons for this. We may wish to show that we feel strongly about what we are saying ('emotive emphasis').

*You **do** look nice today!*
*Your hair looks **so** good like that.*

Or we may wish to show a contrast between, for example, true and false, or present and past, or a rule and an exception ('contrastive emphasis').

Why weren't you at the meeting? ~ I was at the meeting.
*I don't do much sport now, but I **did** play football when I was younger.*
*I don't see my family much, but I **do** visit my mother occasionally.*

We can also use emphasis to show that something expected actually happened.

*I thought I'd pass the exam, and I **did** pass.*

2 pronunciation: stress

In speech, we can give words extra stress – make them sound 'stronger' – by pronouncing them louder and with a higher intonation (see 554). We may also make the vowel longer, and pause before a stressed word. Stress is reflected in printing by using *italics* or **bold type**, and in writing by using CAPITAL LETTERS or by underlining.

This is the *last* opportunity.
He lived in **France**, not Spain.
Mary, I'm IN LOVE! Please don't tell anybody!

Changes in stress can affect the meaning of a sentence. Compare:

Jane phoned me yesterday. (Not somebody else.)
*Jane **phoned** me yesterday.* (She didn't come to see me.)
*Jane phoned **me** yesterday.* (She didn't phone you.)
*Jane phoned me **yesterday**.* (Not today.)

We often stress auxiliary verbs. This can make the whole sentence sound more emphatic, or can emphasise a contrast (see above). Most auxiliary verbs change their pronunciation when they are stressed (see 616).

*You **have** grown!*
*I **am** telling the truth – you **must** believe me!*

In emphatic sentences without auxiliary verbs we add *do* to carry stress.

Do sit down. *She **does** like you.*
*If he **does** decide to come, let me know, will you?*

With stressed auxiliary verbs, word order can change (see 24.9). Compare:

You have certainly grown. *You **certainly** have grown!*

3 vocabulary: special words

Words such as *so, such, really* and *just* can show emphasis.

*Thank you **so** much. It was **such** a lovely party. I **really** enjoyed it.*
I just LOVE the way she talks. (Note: *love* is stressed, not *just*.)

Swearwords (see 575) are often used for emphasis in an informal style.

*That's a **bloody** good idea.*

Question words can be emphasised by adding *ever* (see 624), *on earth* or *the hell* (very informal).

*Why **ever** did he marry her?*
*What **on earth** is she doing here?* *Where **the hell** have you been?*

4 structures

If we can move words to an unusual position, this usually gives them more importance. Words are often 'fronted' for this reason (see 513).

That film – what did you think of it? *Asleep, then, were you?*
I knew he was going to cause trouble, and cause trouble he did! ▸

'Cleft' structures with *it, what* etc can be used to focus on particular parts of a sentence and give them extra importance (see 130–131).

It was John who paid for the drinks.
What I need is a good rest.

Do can be used to emphasise an affirmative verb (see above).

*She **does seem** to be trying.* *Do come in.*

Myself, yourself etc can be used to emphasise nouns (see 493).

*I got a letter from the Managing Director **himself**.*

Indeed can be used to emphasise *very* with an adjective or adverb (see 273).

*I was very surprised **indeed**.*

Very can emphasise superlatives, *next, last, first* and *same* (see 140.4).

*I'd like a bottle of your **very best** wine.*
*The letter arrived on the **very next** day.*
*We were born in the **very same** street in the **very same** year.*

Repetition can be used for emphasis (see 500.7).

*She looks **much, much** older than she used to.*

185 end and finish: verbs

1 both used

These verbs have similar meanings, and are often both possible.

*What time does the concert **end/finish**?*
*Term **ends/finishes** on June 23.*

2 completing an activity

When we talk about completing something that we are doing, we usually prefer *finish*.

*She's always starting something new, but she never **finishes** anything.*
*You'll never **finish** that hamburger – it's too big for you.*
*Are you still writing letters?~No, I've **finished**.*

3 changes

End is more common when there is an important change.

*I decided it was time to **end** our affair.*
*It's time to **end** the uncertainty – the Prime Minister must speak out.*
*The Second World War **ended** in 1945.*

We also prefer *end* to talk about a special way of bringing something to a close or 'shaping' the end of something.

*How do you **end** a letter to somebody you don't know?*
*The ceremony **ended** with a speech from the President.*

End is often used to talk about physical shapes.

*The road **ended** in a building site.* (NOT ~~*The road finished*~~...)
*Nouns that **end** in -s have plurals in -es.*

4 *-ing* forms

Finish, but not *end*, can be followed by an *-ing* form (see 296).

*I **finished** teaching at 3.00.* (NOT ~~*I ended teaching*~~...)

186 enjoy

Enjoy normally has an object.

*Did you **enjoy the party?** ~ Yes, I **enjoyed it** very much.* (NOT ~~*I enjoyed very much.*~~)

To talk about having a good time, we can use *enjoy myself/yourself* etc.

*I really **enjoyed myself** when I went to Rome.*

*We're going to Paris for the weekend. ~ **Enjoy yourselves!***

('*Enjoy!*' with no object is possible, especially in informal AmE.)

Enjoy can be followed by *-ing*.

*I don't **enjoy looking** after small children.* (NOT ... ~~*enjoy to look*~~ ...)

187 enough

1 adjective/adverb + *enough*

Enough usually follows adjectives and adverbs.

*Is it **warm enough** for you?* (NOT ... ~~*enough warm*~~ ...)

*You're not driving **fast enough**.*

2 *enough* + noun

Enough can also be used before a noun as a determiner.

*Have you got **enough milk**?* *There aren't **enough glasses**.*

Enough is occasionally used after a noun, but this is rare in modern English except in a few expressions.

*If only we had **time enough** ...*

*I was **fool enough** to believe him.*

3 position with adjective + noun

When *enough* modifies an adjective and noun together, it comes before the adjective. Compare:

*We haven't got **enough big** nails.*

(= We need more big nails – *enough* modifies *big nails*.)

*We haven't got **big enough** nails.*

(= We need bigger nails – *enough* modifies *big*.)

4 *enough* or *enough of*?

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this, that*) and pronouns, we use *enough of*. Compare:

– *I don't know **enough** French to read this.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of French*~~ ...)
  *I don't understand **enough of the** words in the letter.*

– *We haven't got **enough** blue paint.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of blue paint.*~~)
  *We haven't got **enough of that** blue paint.*

– *You didn't buy **enough** cards.* (NOT ... ~~*enough of cards*~~)
  *You didn't buy **enough of them**.*

Note the idiomatic structure *I've had enough of* ... .This can be followed by a noun without a determiner.

*I've had **enough** of mathematics; I'm going to give it up.*

*She's had **enough** of England; she's going back home.* ▸

5 *enough* without a noun

Enough can be used alone without a noun to refer to an amount, if the meaning is clear.

*Half a pound of carrots will be **enough**.*
*That's **enough**, thank you.*
*Enough is **enough**.*
BUT NOT ~~*The meat is enough*~~.
(The meat is not an amount.)

6 *enough* + infinitive; structure with *for*

We can use an infinitive structure after *enough*.

*She's old enough **to do** what she wants.*
*I haven't got enough money **to buy** a car.*

Infinitives can be introduced by *for* + noun/pronoun.

*It's late enough **for the staff** to stop work.*
*There was just enough light **for us** to see what we were doing.*

7 *It's small enough to put in your pocket*, etc

The subject of the sentence can be the object of the following infinitive. (For more about this structure, see 284.4.) Object pronouns are not normally used after the infinitive in this case.

The radio's small enough to put in your pocket.
(NOT ... ~~*to put it in your pocket.*~~)
Those tomatoes aren't ripe enough to eat. (NOT ... ~~*to eat them.*~~)

However, object pronouns are possible in structures with *for*.

*The radio was small enough **for me** to put (it) in my pocket.*
*Those tomatoes aren't ripe enough **for the children** to eat (them).*

For other examples of *for* + object + infinitive, see 291.
For similar structures with *too* and *too much/many*, see 595–596.

8 *the* = *enough*; leaving out *enough*

The article *the* can be used to mean 'enough'.

*I hardly had **the** strength to take my clothes off.*
*I didn't quite have **the** money to pay for a meal.*

Time and *room* are often used to mean 'enough time' and 'enough room'.

*Have you got **time** to look at this letter?*
*There isn't **room** for everybody to sit down.*

188 especial(ly) and special(ly)

1 *especially* and *specially*

Especially and *specially* can often both be used with the same meaning.

*It was not (e)**specially** cold.*

2 *especially* meaning 'above all'

Especially is often used to mean 'above all'.

*We play a lot of tennis, **especially** on Sundays.*

*The children are very noisy, **especially** when we have visitors.*
*I like all kinds of fruit, **especially** apples.*

Especially follows a subject.

*All my family like music. **My father, especially,** goes to as many concerts as he can.* (NOT ... ~~*Especially my father goes*~~ ...)

3 *especially* before prepositions and conjunctions

We prefer *especially* before prepositions and conjunctions.

*We go skiing quite a lot, **especially in** February.*
*I drink a lot of coffee, **especially when** I'm working.*

4 *specially* with past participles

Specially is used with a past participle to mean 'for a particular purpose'.

*These shoes were **specially made** for me.*
*The song was **specially written** for his birthday.*

5 *especial* and *special*

The adjective *especial* is rare. We normally use *special*.

*He took **special** trouble over his work.*

189 even

1 meaning

Even suggests the idea of a surprising extreme: 'more than we expect'; *not even* suggests 'less than we expect'.

*She's rude to everybody. She's **even** rude to the police.*
*He can't **even** write his own name.*

2 position

Even most often goes with the verb, in mid-position (see 24).

*She has broken all her toys. She **has even broken** her bike.* (NOT ~~*Even she has broken*~~ ...)
*He speaks lots of languages. He **even speaks** Esperanto.*
*They're open every day. They're **even open** on Christmas Day.*

Even goes at the beginning of a clause when it refers just to the subject; and it can go just before other words and expressions that we want to emphasise.

*Anybody can do this. **Even a child** can do it.*
*I work every day, **even on Sundays**.*
*I haven't written to anybody for months – **not even my parents**.*

3 *even* and *also*

Also (see 46) is not used to talk about surprising extremes.

*Everybody helped with the packing – **even the dog**.* (NOT ... ~~*also the dog*~~.)

4 *even if* and *even though*

Even is not used as a conjunction, but we can use *even* before *if* and *though*.

***Even if** I become a millionaire, I shall always be a socialist.* (NOT ... ~~*Even I become*~~ ...)
***Even though** I didn't know anybody at the party, I had a nice time.* (NOT ~~*Even although*~~ ...)

▸

I wouldn't marry you even if you were the last man in the world.
We sometimes use *if* to mean *even if*
I'll do it if it kills me. (= ... even if it kills me.)

5 *even so; even now*

Even so means 'however', 'in spite of that'.
He seems nice. Even so, I don't really trust him. (NOT ... ~~*Even though, I don't really trust him.*~~)
Even now can mean 'in spite of everything that has happened'.
He left her ten years ago, but even now she still loves him.

190 eventual(ly)

Eventual and *eventually* mean 'final(ly)', 'in the end', 'after all that'. We use them to say that something happens after a long time or a lot of effort.
The chess game lasted for three days. Androv was the eventual winner.
The car didn't want to start, but eventually I got it going.
We use *at last* (see 204), not *eventually*, to give news.
Steve has found a job at last! (NOT ~~*Steve has eventually found a job!*~~)
Eventual and *eventually* are 'false friends' for people who speak some languages. They do not mean the same as, for instance, French *éventuel* or *éventuellement*, and are not used to express the idea of possibility. For this meaning we use *possible, perhaps, if, may, might* etc.
In our new house I'd like to have a spare bedroom for possible visitors.
(NOT ... ~~*eventual visitors.*~~)
I'm not sure what I'll do next year. I might go to America if I can find a job.
(NOT ... ~~*Eventually I'll go to America*~~ ...)

191 ever

1 *ever* meaning 'at any time'

Ever is a 'non-affirmative word' (see 381). It is used especially in questions to mean 'at any time'. Compare:
Do you ever go to Ireland on holiday? (= at any time)
We always go to Ireland on holiday. (= every time)
We never have holidays in England. (= at no time)
Ever is possible in negative clauses, but *never* is more usual than *not ever*.
I don't ever want to see you again. (OR *I never want* ...)
We also use *ever* after *if*, and with words that express a negative idea (like *nobody, hardly* or *stop*).
Come and see us if you are ever in Manchester.
Nobody ever visits them. *I hardly ever see my sister.*
I'm going to stop her ever doing that again.

2 with comparatives, superlatives, *as* and *only*

Ever is used in affirmative clauses in comparisons and with *only*.
You're looking lovelier than ever.
What is the best book you've ever read?

It's the largest picture ever painted.
He's as charming as ever.
She's the only woman ever to have climbed Everest in winter.

3 *ever* + perfect

Ever is often used with perfect tenses (see 455, 423) to mean 'at any time up to now/then'.

Have you ever been to Greece?
Had you ever thought of getting married before you met June?

4 *ever* and *before; ever before*

Ever and *before* can both be used to mean 'at any time in the past', but there is a difference. *Before* (or *ever before*) refers to a present event, and asks whether it has happened at another time.

Have you (ever) been to Scotland before? (The hearer is probably in Scotland.)

Ever (without *before*) does not refer to a present event.

Have you ever been to Africa? (The hearer is not in Africa.)

5 *ever* meaning 'always'

Ever is not normally used to mean 'always'.

I shall always remember you. (NOT ~~*I shall ever remember you.*~~)

But *ever* is sometimes used to mean 'always' in compound expressions with adjectives and participles.

his ever-open mouth — *an ever-increasing debt*
evergreen trees — *his ever-loving wife*

Ever also means 'always' in *forever* (or *for ever*) and *ever since,* and in a few other expressions like *ever after* and *Yours ever* (used at the end of letters).

I shall love you forever. — *I've loved you ever since I met you.*

For *who ever, what ever* etc, see 624.
For *whoever, whatever* etc, see 625.
For *forever* with progressive forms, see 472.

192 ever so, ever such

These expressions are often used in informal British English to mean 'very'.

She's ever so nice. — *It's ever such a good film.*

For the difference between *so* and *such*, see 569.

193 every (one)

1 *every* + singular

Every is a determiner (see 154). We normally use it before a singular noun (but see paragraph 6). If the noun is a subject, its verb is also singular.

every + singular noun (+ singular verb)

I see her every day. (NOT ... ~~*every days.*~~)
Every room is being used. (NOT ~~*Every room are*~~ ...)

2 *every one of*

We use *every one of* before a pronoun or a determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154). The pronoun or noun is plural, but a following verb is singular.

every one of us/you/them (+ singular verb)
every one of + determiner + plural noun (+ singular verb)

His books are wonderful. I've read every one of them.
Every one of the children was crying.

3 *every one* without a noun

We can drop a noun and use *every one* alone, if the meaning is clear.
His books are great. Every one's worth reading.

4 negative structures

To negate *every*, we normally use *not every*.
Not every kind of bird can fly.
(More natural than *Every kind of bird cannot fly.*)

5 pronouns and possessives

When a pronoun or possessive is used later in a clause to refer back to *every (one)*, the later word can usually be either singular (more formal) or plural (less formal).

Every person made his/her own travel arrangements.
Every person made their own travel arrangements.
I told every single student what I thought of him/her/them.

But if we are talking about something that concerns every member of a group at the same time, a plural word is necessary.

When every passenger's ticket had been checked, the door opened and they all got on. (NOT ... ~~*and he/she all got on.*~~)

6 *every* + plural noun

Every is used before a plural noun in expressions that refer to intervals.
I see her every few days. *There's a meeting every six weeks.*
She had to stop and rest every two or three steps.

7 *everybody* etc

Everybody, everyone, everything and *everywhere* are used with singular verbs, like *every*.

Everybody has gone home. (NOT ~~*Everybody have*~~ ...)
Everything I like is either illegal, immoral or fattening.
I found that everywhere was booked up.

When possessives and pronouns refer back to *everybody/one*, they can usually be either singular (more formal) or plural (less formal). Sometimes only a plural word makes sense. Compare:

Has everybody got his or her ticket? (more formal)
Has everybody got their tickets? (less formal)
When everybody had finished eating, the waiters took away their plates.
(NOT ... ~~*his or her plate.*~~)

Note that *everyone* (= 'everybody') does not mean the same as *every one* (which can refer to things as well as people – see paragraph 2 above).

8 *everyday*

Everyday is an adjective meaning 'ordinary', 'usual', 'routine'. It is not the same as the adverbial expression *every day*. Compare:

In everyday life, you don't often find an elephant in a supermarket.
You don't see elephants every day.

9 common expressions

Note the following common expressions with *every*.

every single
She visits her mother every single day.
every other
We meet every other Tuesday. (= ... every second Tuesday.)
every so often; *every now and then*
We go out for a drink together every so often / every now and then.

For the difference between *every* and *each*, see 170.
For *every* and *all*, see 39. For *every* and *any*, see 56.
For more information about *everybody/everyone*, see 548.

194 except and except for

1 *except for* before nouns

We generally use *except for* before noun phrases.

I've cleaned the house except for the bathroom.
The garden was empty except for one small bird.

2 *except (for)* after *all, any* etc

After generalising words like *all, any, every, no, everything, anybody, nowhere, nobody, whole*, we often leave out *for*.

I've cleaned all the rooms except (for) the bathroom.
He ate everything on his plate except (for) the beans.
Nobody came except (for) John and Mary.

But this does not happen before *all*, etc.

Except for John and Mary, nobody came. (NOT ~~*Except John and Mary, nobody came.*~~)

3 *except* before prepositions and conjunctions

We use *except*, not *except for*, before prepositions and conjunctions.

It's the same everywhere except in Scotland.
(NOT ... ~~*except for in Scotland.*~~)
He's good-looking except when he smiles.
This room is no use except as a storeroom.
The holiday was nice except that there wasn't enough snow.

4 *except (for)* + pronoun

After *except (for)* we use object pronouns, not subject pronouns.

Everybody understood except (for) me. (NOT ... ~~*except I.*~~)
We're all ready except (for) her. ▸

5 *except* + verb: *he does nothing except eat*

A common structure is *do* ... *except* + infinitive without *to*.

He does nothing except eat all day.
I'll do everything for you except cook.

In other cases an *-ing* form is usually necessary.

She's not interested in anything except skiing.
You needn't worry about anything except having a great time.

6 *except* and *without*

Except (for) is only used to talk about exceptions to generalisations. In other cases, *without* or *but for* may be better. Compare:

Nobody helped me except you.
Without / But for your help, I would have failed.
(NOT ~~*Except for your help, I would have failed.*~~)

For the use of *but* to mean 'except', see 116.
For the difference between *except, besides* and *apart from*, see 102.

195 exclamations: structures

Exclamations are often constructed with *how* and *what* or with *so* and *such*; negative question forms are also common.

1 exclamations with *how*

These are often felt to be a little formal or old-fashioned.

how + adjective

Strawberries! How nice!

how + adjective/adverb + subject + verb

How cold it is! (NOT ~~*How it is cold!*~~)
How beautifully you sing! (NOT ~~*How you sing beautifully!*~~)

how + subject + verb

How you've grown!

For the structure of expressions like *How strange a remark*, see 14.

2 exclamations with *what*

what a/an (+ adjective) + singular countable noun

What a rude man! (NOT ~~*What rude man!*~~)
What a nice dress! (NOT ~~*What nice dress!*~~)
What a surprise!

what (+ adjective) + uncountable/plural noun

What beautiful weather! (NOT ~~*What a beautiful weather!*~~)
What lovely flowers!
What fools!

what + object + subject + verb (note word order)

What a beautiful smile your sister has! (NOT ... ~~*has your sister!*~~)

3 exclamations with *so* and *such*

so + adjective

*You're so **kind**!*

such a/an (+ adjective) + singular countable noun

*He's **such a** nice boy!* (NOT ... ~~*a such nice boy!*~~)

such (+ adjective) + uncountable/plural noun

*They talk **such** rubbish!* (NOT ... ~~*such a rubbish!*~~)
*They're **such** kind people!* (NOT ... ~~*so kind people!*~~)

For more information about *such* and *so*, see 569.

4 negative question forms

Isn't the weather nice! *Hasn't she grown!*
Americans and some British speakers may use ordinary (non-negative) question forms in exclamations.
*Boy, **am** I hungry!*
*Wow, **did** she make a mistake!*
Was I furious!

For more information about negative questions, see 368.

196 expect, hope, wait and look forward

1 *expect* and *hope*: difference of meaning

Expecting is mental rather than emotional. If I *expect* something to happen, I have a good reason to think it will in fact happen. *Hoping* is more emotional. If I *hope* for something to happen, I would like it to happen, but I do not know whether it will. Compare:
- *I'm **expecting** John to phone at three o'clock.*
  *I **hope** he's got some good news.*
- *Lucy's **expecting** a baby.* (= She's pregnant.)
  *She's **hoping** it will be a girl.*

One can *expect* good or bad things, but one only *hopes* for things that one wants.
*I **expect** it will rain at the weekend. But I **hope** it won't.*

2 *expect* and *wait*: difference of meaning

One *waits* when somebody or something is late, when one is early for something, or when one wants time to pass so that something will happen. *Waiting* is often physical – the word suggests, for example, standing or sitting somewhere until something happens.
Compare:
- *I'm **expecting** a phone call from John at three o'clock.* (NOT ~~*I'm waiting for a phone call from John at three o'clock.*~~)
  *I hope he rings on time. I hate **waiting** for people to phone.* (NOT ~~*I hate expecting people to phone.*~~) ▸

– *He **expects** to get a bike for his birthday.* (= He thinks he'll get one.)
*It's hard to **wait** for things when you're five years old.*
– *I **expected** her at ten, but she didn't turn up.*
*I **waited** for her till eleven, and then went home.*

Can't wait often expresses impatience.
*I **can't wait** for the holidays!*

When we say that we *expect* a person, this usually means that he/she is coming to our home, office etc. Compare:
*Come and see me this afternoon. I'll **expect** you at 4.00.*
Let's meet at the cinema. I'll be there at 6.00. (NOT ~~*I'll expect you at 6.00.*~~)

3 *look forward*: meaning

Look forward means 'think about (something in the future) with pleasure'. One *looks forward* to something that is certain to happen, and that one is glad about.
*He's **looking forward** to his birthday.*
*See you on Sunday. ~ I **look forward** to it.*

4 all four expressions compared

Compare:
*I **expect** to hear from her.* (= I'm pretty sure I'll get a letter from her.)
*I **hope** to hear from her.* (= I'm not sure whether she'll write, but I would like her to.)
*I'm **waiting** to hear from her.* (= I need her letter to come; perhaps it's late.)
*I **look forward** to hearing from her.* (= I feel pleasure at the thought that I will hear from her.)

5 structures

a + object: *expect, hope for, wait for, look forward to*

Compare:
*We're **expecting** rain soon.*
*We're **hoping for** a lot of rain – the garden's very dry.*
*We've been **waiting for** rain for weeks.*
*I'm **looking forward to** the autumn.*

b + infinitive (with *to*): *expect/hope/wait*

*We **expect to** spend the summer in France.*
*We **hope to** see Annemarie while we're there.*
*But we're still **waiting to** hear from her.*
(BUT NOT ~~*I'm looking forward to see Annemarie.*~~)

Before an infinitive, simple and progressive forms of *hope* and *expect* can often be used with little difference of meaning.
*We **hope** / We're **hoping** to get to Scotland next weekend.*
*We **expect** / We're **expecting** to hear from Lucy today.*

c + object + infinitive: *expect, hope for, wait for*

I expect him to arrive about ten o'clock.
We're hoping for John to come up with some new ideas.
I'm still waiting for Harry to pay me back that money.

Expect is often used with object + infinitive to talk about people's duties.

We expect you to work on the first Saturday of every month.

Passive versions of the structure are also common.

Staff are expected to start work punctually at 8.30.

d + *-ing* form: *look forward to*

Look forward can be followed by *to* . . . *ing*, but not by an infinitive (see 298.2).

I look forward to meeting you. (NOT . . . ~~*to meet you.*~~)

I look forward to hearing from you. (common formula at the end of a letter)

Simple and progressive forms can often be used with little difference of meaning.

I look forward / I'm looking forward to the day when the children leave home.

e + *that*-clause: *expect, hope*

I expect (that) she'll be here soon. *I hope (that) I'll recognise her.*
(BUT NOT ~~*I'm waiting that she arrives.*~~)

Before a *that*-clause, progressive forms of *expect* are not normally used.

I expect (that) she'll be here soon. (NOT ~~*I'm expecting (that)*~~ . . .)

I expect (that) . . . can be used to talk about the present or past, with the meaning of 'I suppose', 'I have good reason to think'.

I expect you're all tired after your journey.
Sarah isn't here. I expect she was too tired to come.

Before a *that*-clause, simple and progressive forms of *hope* can often be used with little difference of meaning.

We hope / We're hoping you can come and stay with us soon.

Hope is often followed by a present tense with a future meaning (see 250).

I hope she doesn't miss the train.

f *expect something of somebody*

This structure refers to people's feelings about how other people ought to behave.

My parents expected too much of me when I was at school – they were terribly upset when I failed my exams.

For *hope* and *expect* in negative clauses, see 369.
For *not* and *so* after *hope* and *expect*, see 539.
For *and* after *wait*, see 53. For *wish*, see 630.

197 experiment and experience

An *experiment* is a test which somebody does to see what the result will be, or to prove something. *Experiment* is generally used with the verb *do*. There is also a verb *to experiment*.

We did an experiment in the chemistry lesson, to see if you could get chlorine gas from salt. (NOT ~~*We did an experience*~~ . . .) ▸

*I'm **experimenting** with a new perfume.*

An *experience* is something that you live through; something that happens to you in life. *Experience* is generally used with the verb *have*. There is also a verb *to experience*.

*I had a lot of interesting **experiences** during my year in Africa.* (NOT ~~*I made a lot of interesting experiences*~~...)

*Have you ever **experienced** the feeling that you were going mad?* (NOT ~~*Have you ever experimented the feeling*~~...?)

The uncountable noun *experience* means 'the knowledge that you get from doing things'.

*Sales person wanted – **experience** unnecessary.*

198 explain

After *explain*, we use *to* before an indirect object.

*I explained my problem **to her**.* (NOT ~~*I explained her my problem*~~.)

*Can you explain **to** me how to get to your house?* (NOT ~~*Can you explain me*~~...?)

199 fairly, quite, rather and pretty: adverbs of degree

1 *fairly*

Fairly generally modifies adjectives and adverbs. It does not suggest a very high degree: if you say that somebody is *fairly nice* or *fairly clever*, for example, he or she will not be very pleased.

*How was the film? ~ **Fairly** good. Not the best one I've seen this year.*

*I speak Russian **fairly** well – enough for everyday purposes.*

2 *quite*

Quite (especially in British English) suggests a higher degree than *fairly*.

*How was the film? ~ **Quite** good. You ought to go.*

*It's **quite** a difficult book – I had trouble with it.*

*He's lived in St Petersburg, so he speaks Russian **quite** well.*

Quite can modify verbs and nouns.

*I **quite** enjoyed myself at your party.* *The room was **quite** a mess.*

For word order rules, the use of *quite* to mean 'completely', and other details, see 489.

3 *rather*

Rather is stronger than *quite*. It can suggest 'more than is usual', 'more than was expected', 'more than was wanted', and similar ideas.

*How was the film? ~ **Rather** good – I was surprised.*

*Maurice speaks Russian **rather** well. People often think he is Russian.*

*I think I'll put the heating on. It's **rather** cold.*

*I've had **rather** a long day.*

Rather can modify verbs (especially verbs that refer to thoughts and feelings) and nouns.

*I **rather think** we're going to lose.* *She **rather likes** gardening.*
*It was **rather a disappointment**.*

For word order rules and other details of the use of *rather*, see 490.

4 *pretty*

Pretty (informal) is like *rather*, but only modifies adjectives and adverbs.

*How's things? ~ **Pretty** good. You OK?*
*You're driving **pretty** fast.*

Pretty well means 'almost'.

*I've **pretty well** finished.*

200 far and a long way

1 *far* in questions and negatives

Far is most common in questions and negative clauses.

*How **far** did you walk?* *The youth hostel is not **far** from here.*

In affirmative clauses we usually prefer *a long way*.

*We walked **a long way**.* (NOT ~~*We walked far*~~.)
*The station is **a long way** from here.*
(More natural than *The station is far from here.*)

2 *far* in affirmative clauses

However, *far* is normal in affirmative clauses with *too, enough, as* and *so*.

*She's gone **far enough**. ~ A bit **too far**.*
*It's ready **as far as** I know.*
*Any problems? ~ OK **so far**.*

3 *far* with comparatives etc

Far is also used (in all kinds of clauses) to modify comparatives, superlatives and *too*.

*She's **far older** than her husband.*
*This bike is **by far the best**.*
*You're **far too young** to get married.*

4 before a noun: *a far country*

Far can be used as an adjective before a noun, meaning 'distant'. This is rather formal and old-fashioned.

*Long ago, in a **far** country, there lived a woman who had seven sons.*

Much, many and *long* (for time) are also more common in questions and negative sentences (see 357 and 330).

201 farther and further

1 distance

We use both *farther* and *further* to talk about distance. They mean the same.
Edinburgh is farther/further away than York.

2 'additional'

Further (but not *farther*) can mean 'additional', 'extra', 'more advanced'.
For further information, see page 6. *College of Further Education*

202 feel

Feel has several different meanings. Progressive forms can be used with some meanings, but not with others. *Feel* can be a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun complement. It can also be an ordinary verb, followed by a direct object.

1 link verb: *I feel fine*

Feel can be used to talk about one's physical or mental sensations. Adjective or (in British English) noun complements are used.
I feel fine. *Do you feel happy?*
Andrew was beginning to feel cold.
When Louise realised what she had done, she felt a complete idiot. (BrE)
In this sense *feel* is not normally used with reflexive pronouns (*myself* etc).
He always felt inferior when he was with her.
(More natural than *He always felt himself inferior . . .*)
To talk about feelings that are going on at a particular moment, simple or progressive forms can be used. There is little difference of meaning.
I feel fine. / I'm feeling fine.
How do you feel? / How are you feeling?

2 link verb: *That feels nice!*

Feel can also be used to say that something causes sensations. Progressive forms are not used.
That feels nice! *The glass felt cold against my lips.*

3 link verb: *feel like; feel as if/though*

Feel can be followed by *like* or *as if/though*.
My legs feel like cotton wool.
Alice felt as if/though she was in a very nice dream.
(*Alice felt like she was . . .* is also possible – see 74.)

4 *feel like* meaning 'want'

Feel like can also mean 'want', 'would like'.
I feel like a drink. Have you got any beer?
In this sense, *feel like* is often followed by an *-ing* form.
I felt like laughing, but I didn't dare.

Compare:
I felt like swimming. (= I wanted to swim.)
I felt like / as if I was swimming. (= It seemed as if I was swimming.)

5 ordinary verb: reactions and opinions

Feel is often used to talk about reactions and opinions. Progressive forms are not usually used in this case.
I feel sure you're right. (NOT ~~*I'm feeling sure*~~...)
He says he feels doubtful about the new plan.
That-clauses are common.
I feel (that) she's making a mistake.
A structure with object + *to be* + complement is possible in a formal style, but it is not very often used.
I felt her to be unfriendly. (More normal: *I felt that she was unfriendly.*)
There is also a structure *feel it* (+ *to be*) + adjective/noun.
We felt it necessary to call the police.
I felt it (to be) my duty to call the police.

6 ordinary verb: 'receive physical sensations'

Feel can be used with a direct object to talk about the physical sensations that come to us through the sense of touch.
I suddenly felt an insect crawling up my leg.
Progressive forms are not used, but we often use *can feel* to talk about a sensation that is going on at a particular moment.
I can feel something biting me!

7 ordinary verb: 'touch'

Feel can also be used with a direct object to mean 'touch something to learn about it or experience it'. Progressive forms are possible.
Feel the photocopier. It's very hot.
What are you doing? ~ I'm feeling the shirts to see if they're dry.

203 female and feminine; male and masculine

Female and *male* refer to the sex of people, animals and plants.
A female fox is called a vixen. *A male duck is called a drake.*
Feminine and *masculine* are used for qualities and behaviour that are felt to be typical of men or women.
She has a very masculine laugh.
It was a very feminine bathroom.
Feminine and *masculine* are used for grammatical forms in some languages.
The word for 'moon' is feminine in French and masculine in German.

204 finally, at last, in the end and at the end

1 *finally*

Finally can suggest that one has been waiting a long time for something. In this sense, it often goes in mid-position (with the verb – see 24).

*After trying three times, she **finally** managed pass her exam.*
*Steve has **finally** found a job.*

Finally can also introduce the last element in a series, like *lastly* (see 157.10).

*We must increase productivity. We must reduce unemployment. And **finally**, we must compete in world markets.*

2 *at last*

At last also suggests – very strongly – the idea of impatience or inconvenience resulting from a long wait or delay.

*James has paid me that money **at last**.*
*When **at last** they found him he was almost dead.*

At last can be used as an exclamation. (*Finally* cannot be used in this way.)

At last! Where the hell have you been?

Note that *lastly* (introducing the last item in a series) is not the same as *at last*.

*Firstly, we need to increase profits. Secondly, ... Thirdly, ... And **lastly**, we need to cut down administrative expenses.* (NOT ... ~~*And at last we need to cut down*~~ ...)

3 *in the end*

In the end suggests that something happens after changes or uncertainty.

*We made eight different holiday plans, but **in the end** we went to Brighton.*
*I left in the middle of the film. Did they get married **in the end**?*
*The tax man will get you **in the end**.*

Another use of *in the end* is to mean 'after we have considered everything'.

***In the end**, you can't get fit without exercise.*
***In the end**, Mother knows best.*

4 *at the end*

At the end simply refers to the position of something. There is no sense of waiting or delay.

*A declarative sentence has a full stop **at the end**.*
*I wish I was paid at the beginning of the week and not **at the end**.*

For *eventually*, see 190.

205 finished

Finished can be used as an adjective meaning 'ready'.

*Is the report **finished** yet?*

With personal subjects, *to be finished* is often used in an informal style with the same meaning as *to have finished*.

*How soon will you **be/have finished**, dear?*
*I went to get the car from the garage, but they **weren't/hadn't finished**.*

206 fit and suit

These words do not mean exactly the same.
Fit refers to size and shape: if your clothes *fit* you, they are neither too big nor too small.

*These shoes don't **fit** me – have you got a larger size?*

Suit refers to style, colour etc.

*Red and black are colours that **suit** me very well.* (NOT ... ~~*colours that fit me very well.*~~)

*Do you think this style **suits** me?*

Suit can also be used to say whether arrangements are convenient.

*Tuesday would **suit** me very well for a meeting.*

207 for: purpose and cause

1 people's purposes: *I went for an interview*

For can be used to talk about somebody's purpose in doing something, but only when it is followed by a noun.

*We stopped at the pub **for a drink**.*

*I went to the college **for an interview** with Professor Taylor.*

For is not used before a verb in this sense. The infinitive alone is used to express a person's purpose (see 289).

*We stopped at the pub **to have** a drink.* (NOT ... ~~*for having a drink*~~ OR ~~*for to have a drink*~~)

*I went to the college **to see** Professor Taylor.* (NOT ... ~~*for seeing Professor Taylor.*~~)

2 the purposes of things: *-ing* forms and infinitives

For can be used before the *-ing* form of a verb to express the 'purpose' of a thing – what it is used for – especially when the thing is the subject.

*Is that cake **for eating** or just **for looking at**?*

*An altimeter is used **for measuring** height above sea level.*

When the clause has a person as subject, an infinitive is often used to express the purpose of a thing.

*We use altimeters **to measure** height above sea level.*

3 causes of reactions

For ...ing can also be used after a description of a positive or negative reaction, to explain the behaviour that caused it.

*We are grateful to you **for helping** us out.*

*I'm angry with you **for waking** me up.*

*They punished the child **for lying**.*

*He was sent to prison **for stealing**.*

208 for, since, in and from: time

1 *for*

We use *for* for duration – to say how long something lasts.

for + period of time

*I studied the guitar **for three years** at school.*
*That house has been empty **for six months**.*
*We go away **for three weeks** every summer.*
*My boss will be in Italy **for the next ten days**.*

To measure duration up to the present, we use a present perfect tense (see 460), not a present tense.

*I've **known** her for a long time.* (NOT ~~*I know her for a long time.*~~)
*We've **lived** here for 20 years.* (NOT ~~*We live here for 20 years.*~~)

A present tense with *for* refers to duration into the future. Compare:

*How long **are** you here for?* (= Until when ...?)
*How long **have** you **been** here for?* (= Since when ...?)

We can often leave out *for* in an informal style, especially with *How long ...?* And *for* is not usually used before *all*.

How long have you been waiting (for)?
We've been here (for) six weeks. *I've had a headache all day.*

2 *for* and *since* with perfect tenses: the difference

For and *since* can both be used with a present perfect to talk about duration up to the present. They are not the same. Compare:

for + period

*I've known her **for three days**.* (NOT ... ~~*since three days.*~~)
*It's been raining **for weeks**.*

since + starting point

*I've known her **since Tuesday**.*
*It's been raining **since the beginning of the month**.*

With a past perfect, *for* and *since* refer to duration up to a particular past moment.

*She'd been working there **for a long time**.* (NOT ... ~~*since a long time.*~~)
*She'd been working there **since 1988**.*

3 *in* after negatives and superlatives (AmE)

After negatives and superlatives, *in* can be used to talk about duration. This is especially common in American English.

*I **haven't seen** him for/in months.*
*It was the **worst storm** for/in ten years.*

4 *from* and *since*

From and *since* give the starting points of actions, events or states: they say when things begin or began.

from/since + starting point

*I'll be here **from three o'clock** onwards.*

*I work **from nine** to five.*
*From **now** on, I'm going to go running every day.*
*From **his earliest childhood** he loved music.*
*I've been waiting **since six o'clock**.*
*I've known her **since January**.*

We use *since* (with a perfect tense) especially when we measure duration from a starting point up to the present, or up to a past time that we are talking about.

*I've been working **since** six o'clock, and I'm getting tired.* (NOT ~~*I've been working from six o'clock*~~...)
*I had been working **since** six o'clock, and I was getting tired.*

From is used in other cases.

*The shop was open **from** eight in the morning, but the boss didn't arrive till ten.* (NOT ~~*The shop was open since eight*~~...)
*I'll be at home **from** Tuesday morning (on).* (NOT ... ~~*since Tuesday morning*~~.)

From is sometimes possible with a present perfect, especially in expressions that mean 'right from the start'.

*She's been like that **from** her childhood.* (OR ... *since her childhood.*)
From/Since the moment they were married, they've quarrelled.
From/Since the dawn of civilisation, people have made war.

For *from ... to* and *from ... until*, see 602.
For more about tenses with *since*, see 522.
For *since* meaning 'as' or 'because', see 72.

209 forget and leave

We can use *forget* to talk about accidentally leaving things behind.

*Oh damn! I've **forgotten** my umbrella.*

However, we normally use *leave* if we mention the place.

*Oh damn! I've **left** my umbrella at home.* (NOT ~~*I've forgotten my umbrella at home*~~.)

210 fun and funny

Fun is normally an uncountable noun. It can be used after *be* to say that things or people are enjoyable or entertaining.

*The party was **fun**, wasn't it?* (NOT ~~*The party was funny*~~.)
*Anne and Eric are a lot of **fun**.*

In informal English, *fun* can also be used as an adjective before a noun.

*That was a real **fun** party.*

Funny is an adjective, and is used to say that something makes you laugh.

*Why are you wearing that **funny** hat?*

Note that *funny* has another meaning: 'strange', 'peculiar'.

*A **funny** thing happened.* ~ *Do you mean **funny** ha-ha or **funny** peculiar?*

211 future (1): introduction

There are several ways to use verbs to talk about the future in English. This is a complicated area of grammar: the differences between the meanings and uses of the different structures are not easy to analyse and describe clearly. In many, but not all situations, two or more structures are possible with similar meanings.

1 *will/shall*

When we are simply giving information about the future, or talking about possible future events which are not already decided or obviously on the way, we usually use ***will*** (or ***I/we shall***) + **infinitive**. This is the most common way of talking about the future. For details, see 212.

*Nobody **will** ever know what happened to her.*
*I think Liverpool **will** win.* *I **shall** probably be home late tonight.*

Will and *shall* are also used to express our intentions and attitudes towards other people: they are common in offers, requests, threats, promises and announcements of decisions. For details, see 217.

Shall I carry your bag? *I'll hit you if you do that again.*
I'll phone you tonight.
You can have it for half price. ~ OK. I'll buy it.

2 present forms: *I'm leaving; I'm going to leave*

When we talk about future events which have some present reality – which have already been planned or decided, or which we can see are on the way – we often use present forms. The present progressive is common. For details, see 214.

I'm seeing John tomorrow. *What are you doing this evening?*

The present progressive of *go* (*be going to . . .*) is often used as an auxiliary verb to talk about the future. For details, see 213.

Sandra is going to have another baby.
When are you going to get a job?

These present forms are especially common in speech (because conversation is often about future events which are already planned, or which we can see are on the way).

3 simple present: *the train leaves . . .*

The simple present can also be used to talk about the future, but only in certain situations. For details, see 215.

The train leaves at half past six tomorrow morning.

4 other ways of talking about the future

We can use the future perfect to say that something will be completed, finished or achieved by a certain time. For details, see 219.

By next Christmas we'll have been here for eight years.

The future progressive can be used to say that something will be in progress at a particular time. For details, and other uses of this tense, see 220.

This time tomorrow I'll be lying on the beach.

Be about **+ infinitive** (see 5) suggests that a future event is very close.
The plane's about to take off. Is your seat belt done up?
Be **+ infinitive** is used to talk about plans, arrangements and schedules, and to give instructions. For details, see 91.
The President is to visit Beijing in January.
You're not to tell anybody about this.

5 'future in the past'

To say that something was still in the future at a certain past time, we can use a past form of one of the future structures. For details, see 221.
Something was going to happen that was to change the world.
I knew she would arrive before long.

6 subordinate clauses

In many subordinate clauses we refer to the future with present tenses instead of ***shall/will*** **+ infinitive**. For details, see 580.
Phone me when you have time. (NOT ... ~~*when you'll have time.*~~)
I'll think of you when I'm lying on the beach next week.
(NOT ... ~~*when I'll be lying on the beach ...*~~)
I'll follow him wherever he goes. (NOT ... ~~*wherever he'll go.*~~)
You can have anything I find. (NOT ... ~~*anything I'll find.*~~)

212 future (2): will/shall (information and prediction)

1 forms

will + infinitive without *to*

It will be cold tomorrow.
Where will you spend the night?
Some British people use *I shall* and *we shall* instead of *I/we will*, with no difference of meaning in most situations. (For cases where there is a difference, see 217.) *Shall* is unusual in American English in most situations (but see 217).
Contractions: *I'll, you'll* etc; *shan't* /ʃɑːnt/ (BrE only), *won't* /wəʊnt/

2 use: giving information about the future; predicting

Will (or ***shall***) **+ infinitive** is used to give (or ask for) information about the future.
It'll be spring soon. *Will all the family be at the wedding?*
We shall need the money on the 15th.
Karen will start work some time next week.
In another thirteen minutes the alarm will go off. This will close an electrical contact, causing the explosive to detonate.
We often use *will/shall* in predictions of future events – to talk about what we think, guess or calculate will happen.
Tomorrow will be warm, with some cloud in the afternoon.
Who do you think will win on Saturday?
I shall be rich one day. *You'll never finish that book.* ▸

3 conditional use

Will/shall is often used to express conditional ideas, when we say what *will happen if* something else happens.

He'll have an accident if he goes on driving like that.
If the weather's fine, we'll have the party in the garden.
Look out – you'll fall! (If you're not more careful.)
Come out for a drink. ~ *No, I'll miss the film on TV if I do.*
Don't leave me. I'll cry!

4 future events already decided: *will* not used

When future events are already decided, or when we can 'see them coming', we often prefer a present form (usually present progressive or *going to* ...).

I'm seeing the headmaster on Monday. *My sister's going to have a baby.*

For details, see 213, 214 and 216.

5 not used in subordinate clauses: *when I arrive*

In subordinate clauses, we usually use present tenses instead of *will/shall* (see 580.2).

I'll phone you when I arrive. (NOT ... ~~*when I will arrive.*~~)

For exceptions, see 580.4,8, 260.

6 other uses of *will* and *shall*

Will and *shall* are not only used to give and ask for information about the future. They can also be used to express 'interpersonal' meanings such as requests, offers, orders, threats and promises. For details, see 217.

Shall I open a window? *I'll break his neck!*
Will you get here at nine tomorrow, please?

For information about all uses of *will*, see 629.

213 future (3): going to ...

1 a present tense

This structure is really a present tense (the present progressive of *go*).
We use it to talk about future actions and events that have some *present reality*.
If we say that something in the future *is going to happen*, it is usually already planned or decided, or it is starting to happen, or we can see it coming now.
The structure is very common in an informal style, especially in speech (because conversation is often about future actions and events of this kind).

2 plans: *We're going to get a new car*

We use ***be going*** + **infinitive** to talk about plans, especially in an informal style.
This structure often emphasises the idea of intention, or a decision that has already been made.

We're going to get a new car soon.
John says he's going to phone this evening.
When are you going to get your hair cut?
I'm going to keep asking her out until she says 'Yes'.
I'm going to stop him reading my letters if it's the last thing I do.

3 things that are on the way: *She's going to have a baby*

Another use of the *going-to* structure is to predict the future on the basis of present evidence – to say that a future action or event is on the way, or starting to happen.

Sandra's going to have another baby in June.
Look at the sky. It's going to rain. *Look out! We're going to crash!*

4 commands and refusals

Going to ... can be used to insist that people do things or do not do things.

You're going to finish that soup if you sit there all afternoon!
She's going to take that medicine whether she likes it or not!
You're not going to play football in my garden.

It is also used in emphatic refusals.

I'm not going to sit up all night listening to your problems!

5 *gonna*

In informal speech, *going to* is often pronounced /gənə/. This is sometimes shown in writing as *gonna*, especially in American English.

Nobody's gonna talk to me like that.

For *was going to, has been going to* etc, see 221.
For *going to* ... compared with the present progressive, see 214.2.
For a comparison with *will*, see 216.

214 future (4): present progressive

1 present reality: *I'm washing my hair this evening*

We use the present progressive for future actions and events that have some present reality. It is most common in discussions of personal arrangements and fixed plans, when the time and place have been decided.

What are you doing this evening?~I'm washing my hair.
I'm seeing Larry on Saturday.
We're travelling round Mexico next summer.
Did you know I'm getting a new job?
What are we having for dinner?
My car's going in for a service next week.

We often use the present progressive with verbs of movement, to talk about actions which are just starting.

Are you coming to the pub?
I'm just popping out to the post office. Back in a minute.
Get your coat on! I'm taking you down to the doctor!

Note that the simple present is not often used to talk about the future (see 215).

What are you doing this evening? (NOT ~~*What do you do this evening?*~~) ▸

2 present progressive and *going to* ... : differences

In many cases, both structures can be used to express the same idea.

I'm washing / going to wash my hair this evening.

But there are some differences. For example, we prefer *going to* ... when we are talking not about fixed arrangements, but about intentions and decisions. Compare:

– *I'm seeing Phil tonight.* (emphasis on arrangement)
  I'm really going to tell him what I think of him. (emphasis on intention: NOT ~~*I'm really telling him*~~ ...)
– *Who's cooking lunch?* (asking what has been arranged)
  Who's going to cook lunch? (asking for a decision)

Because the present progressive is used especially for personal arrangements, it is not generally used to make predictions about events that are outside people's control.

It's going to snow before long. (NOT ~~*It's snowing before long*~~.)
I can see that things are going to get better soon. (NOT ... ~~*things are getting better soon.*~~)

And the present progressive is used for actions and events, but not usually for permanent states. Compare:

Our house is getting / is going to get new windows this winter.
Their new house is going to look over the river. (NOT ~~*Their new house is looking over the river*~~.)

3 commands and refusals

The present progressive can be used to insist that people do things or do not do things.

You're finishing that soup if you sit there all afternoon!
She's taking that medicine whether she likes it or not!
You're not wearing that skirt to school.

The present progressive is common in emphatic refusals.

I'm sorry, you're not taking my car.
I'm not washing your socks – forget it!

For a comparison with *will*, see 216.

215 future (5): simple present

1 timetables etc: *The summer term starts* ...

We can sometimes use the simple present to talk about the future. This is common when we are talking about events which are part of a timetable, a regular schedule or something similar.

The summer term starts on April 10th.
What time does the bus arrive in Seattle?
My plane leaves at three o'clock.
Are you on duty next weekend?
The sun rises at 6.13 tomorrow.

Will is also usually possible in these cases.

2 subordinate clauses: *when she gets a job*

The simple present is often used with a future meaning in subordinate clauses – for example after *what, where, when, until, if than*. For details, see 580.

I'll tell you what I find out. (NOT ... ~~*what I'll find out.*~~)
She'll pay us back when she gets a job. (NOT ... ~~*when she'll get a job.*~~)
Alex will see us tomorrow if he has time. (NOT ... ~~*if he will have time.*~~)

3 instructions: *Where do I pay?*

Occasionally the simple present is used with a future meaning when asking for and giving instructions.

Where do I pay? *Well, what do we do now?*
So when you get to London you go straight to Victoria Station, you meet up with the others, Ramona gives you your ticket, and you catch the 17.15 train for Dover. OK?

4 other cases

In other cases, we do not usually use the simple present to talk about the future.

Lucy's coming for a drink this evening. (NOT ~~*Lucy comes*~~ ...)
I promise I'll phone you this evening. (NOT ~~*I promise I phone you this evening.*~~)
There's the doorbell. ~ *I'll go.* (NOT ... ~~*I go.*~~)

216 future (6): present forms or will?

Will is the 'basic' structure for talking about the future. We use *will* if there is not a good reason for using present forms.

1 present reality

We prefer present forms (present progressive or *going to* ...) when we are talking about future events that have some present reality (see 213–214). In other cases we use *will*. Compare:

– *I'm seeing Janet on Tuesday.* (The arrangement exists now.)
  I wonder if she'll recognise me. (not talking about the present)
– *We're going to get a new car.* (The decision already exists.)
  I hope it will be better than the last one. (not talking about the present)

2 predictions: thinking and guessing about the future

In predictions, we use *going to* when we have outside evidence for what we say – for example black clouds in the sky, a person who is obviously about to fall.

See those clouds? It's going to rain. (NOT ~~*See those clouds? It will rain.*~~)
Look – that kid's going to fall off his bike. (NOT ~~*Look! That kid'll fall off his bike.*~~)

We prefer *will* for predictions when there is not such obvious outside evidence – when we are talking more about what is inside our heads: what we know, or believe, or have calculated. (When we use *will*, we are not showing the listener something; we are asking him or her to believe something.) Compare: ▸

– *Look out – we're **going to** crash!* (There is outside evidence.)
*Don't lend him your car. He's a terrible driver – **he'll crash it**.* (the speaker's knowledge)
– *I've just heard from the builder. That roof repair's **going to** cost £7,000.* (outside evidence – the builder's letter)
*I reckon **it'll** cost about £3,000 to put in new lights.* (the speaker's opinion)
– *Alice **is going to** have a baby.* (outside evidence – she is pregnant now)
*The baby **will** certainly **have** blue eyes, because both parents have.* (speaker's knowledge about genetics)

217 future (7): will and shall (interpersonal uses)

1 differences between *will* and *shall*

Will and *shall* are not only used for giving information about the future. They are also common in offers, promises, orders and similar kinds of 'interpersonal' language use. In these cases, *will* (or *'ll*) generally expresses willingness or wishes (this is connected with an older use of *will* to mean 'wish' or 'want'). *Shall* expresses obligation (like a more direct form of *should*).

2 announcing decisions: *will*

We often use *will* when we tell people about a decision as we make it, for instance if we are agreeing to do something.
*OK. **We'll** buy the tickets. You can buy supper after the show.*
*The phone's ringing. ~ **I'll** answer it.* (NOT ~~*I'm going to answer it.*~~)
*Remember to phone Joe, won't you? ~ Yes, I **will**.*
Shall is not used in this way.
*You can have it for £50. ~ OK. **I'll** buy it.* (NOT ... ~~*I shall buy it.*~~)
Note that the simple present is not normally used to announce decisions.
*I think **I'll** go to bed.* (NOT ~~*I think I go to bed.*~~)
*There's the doorbell. ~ **I'll** go.* (NOT ... ~~*I go.*~~)
To announce decisions that have already been made, we generally prefer *going to* ... or the present progressive (see 213–214).
*Well, we've agreed on a price, and **I'm going to** buy it.*
*I've made my decision and **I'm sticking** to it.*
Stressed *will* can express determination.
*I **will** stop smoking! I really **will**!*

3 promises and threats: *will*

We often use *will/'ll* in promises and threats. Note that the simple present is not possible in these cases.
*I promise I **won't** smoke again.* (NOT ~~*I promise I don't smoke*~~ ...)
*I'll **phone** you tonight.* (NOT ~~*I phone*~~ ...)
*I'll **hit** you if you do that again.* *You'll **suffer** for this!*
Shall is also possible in British English after *I* and *we*, but it is less common than *will*.
*I **shall** give you a teddy bear for your birthday.*
In older English, *shall* was often used with second and third person subjects in promises and threats. This is now very unusual.
*You **shall** have all you wish for.* *He **shall** regret this.*

4 refusals: *won't*

Will not or *won't* is used to refuse, or to talk about refusals.
*I don't care what you say, I **won't do** it.*
*The car **won't start**.*

5 asking for instructions and decisions: *shall*

Questions with *shall I/we* are used (in both British and American English) to ask for instructions or decisions, to offer services, and to make suggestions. *Will* is not used in this way.
***Shall** I open a window?* (NOT ~~*Will I open a window?*~~)
***Shall** I carry your bag?*
*What time **shall** we come and see you?*
*What on earth **shall** we do?*
***Shall** we go out for a meal?*
*Let's go and see Lucy, **shall** we?*

6 giving instructions and orders: *will*

We can use *Will you . . . ?* to tell or ask people to do things. (In polite requests, *Would you . . . ?* is preferred – see 633.5.)
***Will** you get me a newspaper when you're out?*
***Will** you be quiet, please!* *Make me a cup of coffee, **will** you?*

For reporting of interpersonal *shall* in indirect speech, see 278.4.

218 future (8): will/shall, going to and present progressive (advanced points)

1 *will/shall* and present forms: both possible

The differences between the structures used to talk about the future are not always very clear-cut. *Will/shall* and present forms (especially *going to . . .*) are often both possible in the same situation, if 'present' ideas like intention or fixed arrangement are a part of the meaning, but not very important. The choice can depend on which aspect we wish to emphasise.

- *What **will** you do next year?* (open question about the future; perhaps no clear plans have been made)
  *What **are** you doing next year?* (emphasis on fixed arrangements)
  *What **are** you **going to** do next year?* (emphasis on intentions)
- *All the family **will** be there.*
  *All the family **are going to** be there.*
- *If your mother comes, you'll **have to** help with the cooking.*
  *If your mother comes, you're **going to have to** help with the cooking.* ▸

– *You won't believe this.*
You're not going to believe this.
– *Next year will be different.*
Next year is going to be different.
– *John will explain everything to you.*
John's going to explain everything to you.

Both *going to* ... (see 213) and stressed *will* (see 217.2) can express a strong intention or determination.

I'm really going to stop smoking! *I really will stop smoking!*

In cases like these, the different forms are all correct, and it is unimportant which one is chosen.

2 official arrangements

Will is often used, rather than present forms, in giving information about impersonal, fixed arrangements – for example official itineraries. Compare:

We're meeting Sandra at 6.00.
The Princess will arrive at the airport at 14.00. She will meet the President at 14.30, and will then attend a performance of traditional dances.

3 predictions as orders

Predictions can be used as a way of giving orders - instead of telling somebody to do something, the speaker just says firmly that it will happen. This is common in military-style orders.

The regiment will attack at dawn.
You will start work at six o'clock sharp.

4 different meanings of *will you ...?*

With a verb referring to a state, *will you ...?* asks for information.

How soon will you know your holiday dates?
Will you be here next week?

With a verb referring to an action, *will you ...?* usually introduces an order or request (see 217.6).

Will you turn off that music!
Will you do the shopping this afternoon, please?

To ask for information about planned actions, we use a present form (see 213–214) or the future progressive (see 220).

When are you going to see Andy?
Are you doing the shopping this afternoon?
Will you be doing the shopping ...?

5 expressing certainty about the present or past

We can use *will* to talk about the present – to say what we think is probably or certainly the case.

There's somebody at the door. ~ That'll be the postman.
Don't phone them now – they'll be having dinner.

Will have ... can express similar ideas about the past.

As you will have noticed, there is a new secretary in the front office.
It's no use expecting Barry to turn up. He'll have forgotten.

For more about this and other uses of *will*, see 629.

6 obligation: *shall*

In contracts and other legal documents, *shall* is often used with third-person subjects to refer to obligations and duties.

*The hirer **shall be** responsible for maintenance of the vehicle.*

In normal usage, we prefer *will, must* or *should* to express ideas of this kind.

219 future (9): future perfect (they will have finished)

will have + past participle

We can use the future perfect to say that something will be finished or complete by a certain time in the future.

*The builders say they **will have finished** the roof by Tuesday.*

*I'll **have spent** all my holiday money by the end of the week.*

Shall can be used instead of *will* after *I* and *we* (see 212.1).

*I **shall have spent** . . .*

A progressive form can be used to talk about a continuous activity.

*I'll **have been teaching** for twenty years this summer.*

For *will have . . .* used to express certainty about the past (e.g. *It's no use phoning – he'll have left by now*), see 218.5, 629.

220 future (10): future progressive

shall/will + be + . . .ing

1 events in progress in the future

We can use the future progressive to say that something will be in progress (going on) at a particular moment in the future.

*This time tomorrow I'll **be lying** on the beach.*

*Good luck with the exam. We'll **be thinking** of you.*

2 events that are fixed or expected to happen

The future progressive is also used (without a progressive meaning) to refer to future events which are fixed or decided, or which are expected to happen in the normal course of events.

*Professor Baxter **will be giving** another lecture on Roman glass-making at the same time next week.*

*I'll **be seeing** you one of these days, I expect.*

3 no idea of making decisions

The future progressive is useful if we want to show that we are not talking about making decisions, but about things that will happen 'anyway'.

*Shall I pick up the laundry for you? ~ Oh, no, don't make a special journey. ~ It's OK. I'll **be going** to the shops anyway.* ▸

The tense can be used to make polite enquiries about people's plans. (By using the future progressive to ask 'What have you already decided?', the speaker shows that he/she does not want to influence the listener's intentions.) Compare:

Will you be staying in this evening? (very polite enquiry, suggesting 'I simply want to know your plans')

Are you going to stay in this evening? (pressing for a decision)

This usage is possible with verbs that do not normally have progressive forms (see 471).

Will you be wanting lunch tomorrow?

4 progressive form with *going to*

A progressive form of the *going to* structure is also possible.

I'm going to be working all day tomorrow, so I won't have time to shop.

For *will be . . .ing* used to express certainty about the present (e.g. *Don't phone now – they'll be having lunch*), see 218.5, 629.

221 future (11): future in the past

Sometimes when we are talking about the past, we want to talk about something which was in the future at that time – which had not yet happened. To express this idea, we use the structures that are normally used to talk about the future (see 211–220), but we make the verb forms past. For example, instead of *is going to* we use *was going to*; instead of the present progressive we use the past progressive; instead of *will* we use *would*; instead of *is to* we use *was to*.

Last time I saw you, you were going to start a new job.

I had no time to shop because I was leaving for Germany in two hours.

In 1988 I arrived in the town where I would spend ten years of my life.

I went to have a look at the room where I was to talk that afternoon.

Perfect forms of *be going to* are also possible.

I've been going to write to you for ages, but I've only just found time.

For *was to have* + past participle (e.g. *She was to have taken over my job, but she fell ill*), see 91.1.

222 gender (references to males and females)

English does not have many problems of grammatical gender. Usually, people are *he* or *she* and things are *it*. Note the following points.

1 animals, cars, ships and countries

People sometimes call animals *he* or *she*, especially when they are thought of as having personality, intelligence or feelings. This is common with pets and domestic animals like cats, dogs and horses.

Once upon a time there was a rabbit called Joe. He lived . . .

Go and find the cat and put her out.

In these cases, *who* is often used instead of *which*.

She had an old dog who always slept in her bed.

Some people use *she* for cars, motorbikes etc; sailors often use *she* for boats and ships (but most other people use *it*).

How's your new car?~Terrific. She's running beautifully.

The ship's struck a rock. She's sinking!

We can use *she* for countries, but *it* is more common in modern English.

France has decided to increase its trade with Romania.

(OR ... *her trade* ...)

2 *he or she*

Traditionally, English has used *he/him/his* when the sex of a person is not known, or in references that can apply to either men or women, especially in a formal style.

If a student is ill, he must send his medical certificate to the College office.

If I ever find the person who did that, I'll kill him.

Many people now regard such usage as sexist and try to avoid it. *He or she, him or her* and *his or her* are common.

If a student is ill, he or she must send a medical certificate ...

3 unisex *they*

In an informal style, we often use *they* to mean 'he or she', especially after indefinite words like *somebody, anybody, nobody, person.* This usage is sometimes considered 'incorrect', but it has been common in educated speech for centuries. For details, see 528.

If anybody wants my ticket, they can have it.

There's somebody at the door.~Tell them I'm out.

When a person gets married, they have to start thinking about their responsibilities.

4 *actor* and *actress* etc

A few jobs and positions have different words for men and women. Examples:

Man	Woman	Man	Woman
actor	*actress*	*monk*	*nun*
(bride)groom	*bride*	*policeman*	*policewoman*
duke	*duchess*	*prince*	*princess*
hero	*heroine*	*steward*	*stewardess*
host	*hostess*	*waiter*	*waitress*
manager	*manageress*	*widower*	*widow*

A *mayor* can be a man or a woman; in Britain a *mayoress* is the wife of a male mayor.

Some words ending in *-ess* (e.g. *authoress, poetess*) have gone out of use (*author* and *poet* are now used for both men and women). The same thing is happening to *actress* and *manageress. Steward* and *stewardess* are being replaced by other terms such as *flight attendant,* and *police officer* is often used instead of *policeman/woman.*

5 words ending in *-man*

Some words ending in *-man* do not have a common feminine equivalent (e.g. *chairman, fireman, spokesman*). As many women dislike being called, for example, 'chairman' or 'spokesman', these words are now often avoided in ▸

references to women or in general references to people of either sex. In many cases, *-person* is now used instead of *-man*.

*Alice has just been elected **chairperson** (or **chair**) of our committee.*

*A **spokesperson** said that the Minister does not intend to resign.*

In some cases, new words ending in *-woman* (e.g. *spokeswoman*) are coming into use. But there is also a move to choose words, even for men, which are not gender-marked (e.g. *supervisor* instead of *foreman*, *ambulance staff* instead of *ambulance men*, *firefighter* instead of *fireman*).

6 *man*

Man and *mankind* have traditionally been used for the human race.

*Why does **man** have more diseases than animals?*

*That's one small step for a **man**, one giant leap for **mankind**.*

(Neil Armstrong, on stepping onto the moon)

Some people find this usage sexist, and prefer terms such as *people*, *humanity* or *the human race*. Note also the common use of *synthetic* instead of *man-made*.

7 titles

Ms (pronounced /mɪz/ or /məz/) is often used instead of *Mrs* or *Miss*. Like *Mr*, it does not show whether the person referred to is married or not.

For more information about names and titles, see 363.

223 get (1): basic structures

Get is one of the commonest words in English, and is used in many different ways. It is sometimes avoided in a very formal style, but it is correct and natural in most kinds of speech and writing. The meaning of *get* depends on what kind of word comes after it. With a direct object, the basic meaning is 'obtain', 'come to have'; with other kinds of word, the basic meaning is 'become', 'come to be'.

1 *get* + noun/pronoun: *I got a letter*

With a direct object (noun or pronoun), *get* usually means 'receive', 'fetch', 'obtain', 'catch' or something similar. The exact meaning depends on the object.

*I **got a letter** from Lucy this morning.*

*Can you come and **get me** from the station when I arrive?*

*If I listen to loud music I **get a headache**.*

*If you **get a number 6 bus**, it stops right outside our house.*

Get can be used with two objects (see 610).

*Let me **get you a drink**.*

Other meanings are sometimes possible.

*I didn't **get** the joke.* (= understand)

*I'll **get** you for this, you bastard.* (= punish, make suffer)

Get + **noun** is not normally used to mean 'become'. To express this meaning, we can use *get to be* + **noun** (see paragraph 6 below).

*Wayne's **getting to be a lovely kid**.* (NOT ~~*Wayne's getting a lovely kid*~~.)

2 *get* + adjective: *getting old*

Before an adjective, *get* usually means 'become'.

*As you get **old**, your memory gets **worse**.*
*My feet are **getting cold**.*

With **object + adjective**, the meaning is 'make somebody/something become'.

*It's time to **get the kids ready** for school.*
*I can't **get my hands warm**.*
*We must **get the house clean** before Mother arrives.*

For *go* + adjective (*go green, go blind* etc), and the differences between *get, go, become, turn* etc, see 128.

3 *get* + adverb particle or preposition: *get out*

Before an adverb particle (like *up, away, out*) or a preposition, *get* nearly always refers to a movement of some kind. (For the difference between *get* and *go*, see 225.)

*I often **get up** at five o'clock.*
*I went to see him, but he told me to **get out**.*
*Would you mind **getting off** my foot?*

In some idioms the meaning is different – e.g. *get to a place* (= arrive at . . .); *get over something* (= recover from); *get on with somebody* (= have a good relationship with).

With an object, the structure usually means 'make somebody/something move'.

*You can't **get him out of** bed in the morning.*
*Would you mind **getting your papers off** my desk?*
*Have you ever tried to **get toothpaste back** into the tube?*
*The car's OK – it **gets me from** A to B.*

4 *get* + past participle: *get washed, dressed, married* etc

Get can be used with a past participle. This structure often has a reflexive meaning, to talk about things that we 'do to ourselves'. Common expressions are *get washed, get dressed, get lost, get drowned, get engaged/married/divorced.*

*You've got five minutes to **get dressed**.*
*She's **getting married** in June.*

5 passive auxiliary: *He got caught*

Get + past participle is also used to make passive structures, in the same way as *be* + past participle.

*My watch **got broken** while I was playing with the children.*
*He **got caught** by the police driving at 120 mph.*
*I **get paid** on Fridays.* *I never **get invited** to parties.*

This structure is mostly used in an informal style, and it is not often used to talk about longer, more deliberate, planned actions.

*Our house **was built** in 1827.* (NOT ~~*Our house got built in 1827.*~~)
*Parliament **was opened** on Thursday.* (NOT ~~*Parliament got opened*~~ . . .) ▸

6 *get . . .ing*; *get* + infinitive

Get . . .ing is sometimes used informally to mean 'start . . .ing', especially in the expressions *get moving, get going.*

We'd better get moving – it's late.

With an infinitive, *get* can mean 'manage', 'have an opportunity' or 'be allowed'.

We didn't get to see her – she was too busy.

When do I get to meet your new boyfriend?

Get + infinitive can also suggest gradual development.

He's nice when you get to know him.

You'll get to speak English more easily as time goes by.

Wayne's getting to be a lovely kid.

7 *got* and *gotten*

In British English the past participle of *get* is *got*. In American English the past participle is *gotten* (e.g. *You've gotten us in a lot of trouble.*) except in the structure *have got* (see 237).

224 get (2): + object + verb form

1 causative: *Don't get him talking*

Get + object + . . .*ing* means 'make somebody/something start . . .ing'.

Don't get him talking about his illnesses.

Once we got the heater going the car started to warm up.

2 causative: *Get Penny to help us*

Get + object + infinitive means 'make somebody/something do something' or 'persuade somebody/something to do something': there is often an idea of difficulty.

I can't get that child to go to bed.

Get Penny to help us if you can. *See if you can get the car to start.*

For *have* + object + infinitive (meaning 'order/instruct somebody to do something'), see 238.1.

3 causative: *get something done*

Get + object + past participle can mean 'cause something to be done by somebody else'. The past participle has a passive meaning.

I must get my watch repaired. (= I want my watch to be repaired.)

I'm going to get my hair cut this afternoon.

Have is used in a similar structure: see 238.2.

4 experience: *We got our roof blown off*

Get + object + past participle can sometimes be used in the sense of 'experience'.

We got our roof blown off in the storm last week.

This idea is more often expressed with have (e.g. *We had our roof blown off.*) – see 238.3.

5 *Get the children dressed*

We can also use *get* + object + past participle to talk about completing work on something.

*It will take me another hour to **get the washing done**.*
*After you've **got the children dressed**, can you make the beds?*

225 get and go: movement

Go is used to talk about a whole movement.
Get is used when we are thinking mainly about the end of a movement – the arrival. Compare:

– *I go to work by car and Lucy goes by train.*
  I usually get there first.
– *I went to a meeting in Bristol yesterday.*
  I got to the meeting at about eight o'clock.

We often use *get* to suggest that there is some difficulty in arriving.

It wasn't easy to get through the crowd.
I don't know how we're going to get over the river.
Can you tell me how to get to the police station?

For *get* and *go* meaning 'become', see 128.

226 give with action-nouns

1 *give a cough*, etc

We can replace certain verbs by a structure with *give* and a noun. This often happens in BrE, for example, with verbs referring to sounds made by people (e.g. *cough, cry, scream, chuckle, laugh, shout*).

*He **gave a cough** to attract my attention.*
*Suddenly she **gave a loud scream** and fell to the ground.*

2 *give somebody a smile*, etc

The structure is also used with an indirect object (in both BrE and AmE) to replace transitive verbs, especially in an informal style. Common expressions:
give somebody a smile, a look, a kiss, a hug, a ring (BrE = *a phone call*)
give something a push, a kick
give it a try, a go (BrE = *a try*), *a shot* (AmE = *a try*)
give it a miss (BrE)
not give it a thought

*She **gave me a strange look**.*
*I'll **give you a ring** if I hear anything.*
*If the car won't start, we'll **give it a push**.*
Perhaps salt will make it taste better. ~ *OK, let's **give it a try**.*
Are you coming to the film? ~ *No, I'm tired. I'll **give it a miss**.* (BrE)
*He seemed to be in a bad temper, but I didn't **give it a thought**.*

For taboo expressions like *I don't give a damn/shit* etc, see 575.
For other structures in which nouns replace verbs, see 598.
For more about structures with *give*, see 610.

227 go/come for a . . .

We can use the structure *go/come for a . . .* in some fixed expressions referring to actions, mostly leisure activities. Using this structure makes the action sound casual and probably rather short. (Compare *go . . .ing* – see 228.)
Common examples:
go/come for a walk, a run, a swim, a ride, a drive, a drink, a meal
go for a bath, a shower, a pee/piss (taboo – see 575).

*We need some fresh air. Let's **go for a walk**.*
*Would you like to **come for a drink** this evening?*
*I'm **going for a shower**. Can you answer my phone if it rings?*

This structure is only used with certain action-nouns – we would probably not say, for example, *Come for a ski with us* or *I'm going for a read.*

For other structures in which nouns are used to refer to actions, see 598.

228 go/come . . .ing

1 *go . . .ing*

We use *go* with an *-ing* form to talk about activities in which people move about, and which do not have a fixed beginning or end. The structure is common in expressions referring to sport and leisure activities – for example
go climbing, go dancing, go fishing, go hunting, go riding, go sailing, go shooting, go skating, go skiing, go swimming, go walking.

*Let's **go climbing** next weekend.*
*Did you **go dancing** last Saturday?*

Go . . .ing is also used to talk about looking for or collecting things.

*I think I'll **go shopping** tomorrow.*
*In June all the students go **looking** for jobs.*
*Anne's **going fruit-picking** this weekend.*

We do not use *go . . .ing* to talk about activities that have a more definite beginning and end (NOT ~~*go boxing*~~, ~~*go watching a football match*~~).

2 *come . . .ing*

Come . . .ing is also possible in certain situations (for the difference between *come* and *go*, see 134).

*Come **swimming** with us tomorrow.*

3 prepositions

Note that prepositions of place, not direction, are used after *go/come . . .ing.*

*I went swimming **in** the river.* (NOT ~~*I went swimming to the river*~~.)
*She went shopping **at** Harrods.* (NOT . . .~~*to Harrods*~~.)

229 gone with be

Gone can be used like an adjective after *be*, to say that somebody is away, or that something has disappeared or that there is no more.

*She's **been gone** for three hours – what do you think she's doing?*
*You can go out shopping, but don't **be gone** too long.*
*When I came back my car **was gone**.* *Is the butter all **gone**?*

For *been* used as a past participle of *go* or *come*, see 95.

230 had better

1 meaning

We use *had better* to give strong advice, or to tell people what to do (including ourselves).

*You'd **better** turn that music down before your Dad gets angry.*
*It's seven o'clock. I'd **better** put the meat in the oven.*

Had better refers to the immediate future. It is more urgent than *should* or *ought*. Compare:

*I really **ought** to go and see Fred one of these days. ~ Well, you'd **better** do it soon – he's leaving for South Africa at the end of the month.*

Had better is not used in polite requests. Compare:

Could you help me, if you've got time? (request)
*You'd **better** help me. If you don't, there'll be trouble.* (order/threat)

Note that *had better* does not usually suggest that the action recommended would be better than another one that is being considered – there is no idea of comparison. The structure means 'It would be good to . . .', not 'It would be better to . . .'.

2 forms

Had better refers to the immediate future, but the form is always past (*have better* is impossible). After *had better* we use the infinitive without *to*.

*It's late – you **had** better **hurry** up.*
(NOT . . . ~~*you have better*~~ . . .)
(NOT . . . ~~*you had better hurrying*~~ / ~~*to hurry . . .*~~)

We normally make the negative with ***had better not*** + infinitive.

*You'd **better not** wake me up when you come in.*
(*You hadn't better wake me* . . . is possible but very unusual.)

A negative interrogative form *Hadn't . . . better . . .?* is possible.

Hadn't we better tell him the truth?

Normal unemphatic short answer forms are as follows:

*Shall I put my clothes away? ~ **You'd better!***
*He says he won't tell anybody. ~ **He'd better not.***

Had is sometimes dropped in very informal speech.

You better go now. *I better try again later.*

231 half

1 *half (of)*

We can use *half* or *half of* before a noun with a determiner (article, possessive or demonstrative). We do not normally put *a* or *the* before *half* in this case.

*She spends **half (of) her time** travelling.* (NOT ~~*She spends a/the half*~~...)

*I gave him **half (of) a cheese pie** to keep him quiet.*

When *half (of)* is followed by a plural noun, the verb is plural.

*Half (of) my **friends** live abroad.* (NOT ~~*Half of my friends lives*~~...)

Of is not used in expressions of measurement and quantity.

*I live **half a mile** from here.* (NOT ...~~*half of a mile*~~...)

*I just need **half a loaf** of bread.* (NOT ...~~*half of a loaf*~~...)

We use *half of* before pronouns.

*Did you like the books? ~ I've only read **half of them**.*

2 no following noun

Half can be used without a following noun, if the meaning is clear.

*I've bought some chocolate. You can have **half**.* (NOT ...~~*the half*~~.)

3 *the half*

We use *the* before *half* if we are saying which half we mean. Before a noun, *of* is used in this case.

*Would you like **the big half** or **the small half**?*

*I didn't like **the second half** of the film.*

4 *half a* and *a half*

Half usually comes before the article *a/an*, but it is possible to put it after in expressions of measurement.

*Could I have **half a pound** of grapes?* (OR ... ***a half pound*** ...)

5 *one and a half*

The expression *one and a half* is plural. Compare:

*I've been waiting for **one and a half hours**.* (NOT ...~~*one and a half hour*~~.)

I've been waiting for an hour and a half.

For more information about numbers and counting expressions, see 389.
For *half* in clock times (e.g. *half past two*), see 579.

232 happen to ...

Happen can be used with a following infinitive to suggest that something happens unexpectedly or by chance.

*If you **happen to see** Joan, ask her to phone me.*

*One day I **happened to get** talking to a woman on a train, and she turned out to be a cousin of my mother's.*

In sentences with *if* or *in case*, the idea of *by chance* can be emphasised by using *should* before *happen*.

*Let me know if you **should happen** to need any help.*

*I'll take my swimming things, in case I **should happen** to find a pool open.*

233 hardly, scarcely and no sooner

These three expressions can be used (often with a past perfect tense – see 423) to suggest that one thing happened very soon after another. Note the sentence structure:

... hardly ... when/before ...
... scarcely ... when/before ...
... no sooner ... than ...

*I had **hardly/scarcely** closed my eyes **when** the phone rang.*
*She was **hardly/scarcely** inside the house **before** the kids started screaming.*
*I had **no sooner** closed the door **than** somebody knocked.*
*We **no sooner** sat down in the train **than** I felt sick.*

In a formal or literary style, inverted word order is possible (see 302).
*Hardly **had** I closed my eyes when I began to imagine fantastic shapes.*
*No sooner **had** she agreed to marry him than she started to have doubts.*

234 have (1): introduction

Have is used in several different ways:

a as an auxiliary verb, to make perfect verb forms
*Have you **heard** about Peter and Corinne?*
*I remembered his face, but I **had forgotten** his name.*

b to talk about possession, relationships and other states
*They **have** three cars.*
*Have you **got** any brothers or sisters?*
*Do you often **have** headaches?*

c to talk about actions and experiences
*I'm going to **have** a bath.*
*We're **having** a party next weekend.*

d with an infinitive, to talk about obligation (like *must*)
*I **had to** work last Saturday.*

e with object + verb form, to talk about causing or experiencing actions and events
*He soon **had** everybody **laughing**.*
*I must **have** my shoes **repaired**.*
*We **had** our car **stolen** last week.*

For details of the different structures and meanings, see the following sections.

For contractions (*I've, haven't* etc), see 143.
For weak forms, see 616.
For ***had better*** + **infinitive**, see 230.

235 have (2): auxiliary verb

have + past participle

1 perfect verb forms

We use *have* as an auxiliary verb with past participles, to make 'perfect' verb forms.

You've heard about Peter and Corinne? (present perfect: see 455–460)
I realised that I had met him before. (past perfect: see 423–425)
We'll have been living here for two years next Sunday.
(future perfect: see 219)
I'd like to have lived in the eighteenth century.
(perfect infinitive: see 280)
Having been there before, he knew what to expect.
(perfect participle: see 408.2a)

2 questions and negatives

Like all auxiliary verbs, *have* makes questions and negatives without *do*.

Have you heard the news? (NOT ~~*Do you have heard*~~ . . .?)
I haven't seen them. (NOT ~~*I don't have seen them*~~.)

3 progressive forms

There are no progressive forms of the auxiliary verb *have*.

I haven't seen her anywhere. (NOT ~~*I'm not having seen her anywhere*~~.)

For contractions, see 143.
For weak forms, see 616.

236 have (3): actions

1 meaning and typical expressions

We often use *have* + object to talk about actions and experiences, especially in an informal style.

Let's have a drink.
I'm going to have a bath.
I'll have a think (BrE) *and let you know what I decide.*
Have a good time.

In expressions like these, *have* can be the equivalent of 'eat', 'drink', 'enjoy', 'experience' or many other things - the exact meaning depends on the following noun. Common expressions:

have breakfast / lunch / supper / dinner / tea / coffee / a drink / a meal
have a bath / a wash / a shave / a shower
have a rest / a lie-down / a sleep / a dream
have a good time / a bad day / a nice evening / a day off / a holiday
have a good journey / flight / trip etc
have a talk / a chat / a word with somebody / a conversation / a disagreement / a row / a quarrel / a fight

have a swim / a walk / a ride / a dance / a game of tennis etc
have a try / a go
have a look
have a baby (= give birth)
have difficulty / trouble (in) . . .ing
have an accident / an operation / a nervous breakdown

Note American English ***take** a bath/shower/rest/swim/walk.*
Have can also be used to mean 'receive' (e.g. *I've had a phone call from Sue*).

2 grammar

In this structure, we make questions and negatives with *do*. Progressive forms are possible. Contractions and weak forms of *have* are not used.
*Did you **have** a good holiday?* (NOT ~~*Had you a good holiday?*~~)
*What are you doing? ~ I'm **having** a bath.*
*I **have** lunch at 12.30 most days.* (NOT ~~*I've lunch*~~ . . .)

For other common structures in which nouns are used to talk about actions, see 598.

237 have (4): have (got) – possession, relationships and other states

1 meanings

We often use *have* to talk about states: possession, relationships, illnesses, the characteristics of people and things, and similar ideas.
*Her father **has** a flat in Westminster.*
*They hardly **have** enough money to live on.*
*Do you **have** any brothers or sisters?*
*The Prime Minister **had** a bad cold.*
*My grandmother **didn't have** a very nice personality.*
Sometimes *have* simply expresses the fact of being in a particular situation.
*She **has** a houseful of children this weekend.*
*I think we **have** mice.*

2 progressive forms not used

Progressive forms of *have* are not used for these meanings.
*She **has** three brothers.* (NOT ~~*She is having three brothers.*~~)
*Do you **have** a headache?* (NOT ~~*Are you having a headache?*~~)

3 questions and negatives with *do*

In American English and modern British English, questions and negatives are commonly formed with *do*.
*Does the house **have** a garden?*
*Her parents **did** not **have** very much money.* ▸

4 shorter question and negative forms: *Have you . . .?; she has not*

Short question and negative forms (e.g. *Have you . . .?, she has not*) were common in older English. In modern English they are rather formal and uncommon (except in a few fixed expressions like *I haven't the faintest idea*). They are not normally used in American English.

– ***Have you** an appointment?* (formal BrE only)
  *Do you **have** an appointment?* (AmE/BrE)
– *Angela **has not** the charm of her older sisters.* (formal BrE only)
  *Angela **does not have** the charm . . .* (AmE/BrE)

5 *have got*

In conversation and informal writing, we often use the double form *have got*.

*I've **got** a new boyfriend.* (More natural in speech than *I **have** a new boyfriend.*)
*Has your sister **got** a car?* *I **haven't** got your keys.*

Note that *have got* means exactly the same as *have* in this case – it is a present tense of *have*, not the present perfect of *get*.

6 *have got* (details)

Do is not used in questions and negatives with *got*.

*Have you **got** a headache?* (NOT ~~*Do you have got*~~ . . .)
*The flat **hasn't** got a proper bathroom.* (NOT ~~*The flat doesn't have got*~~ . . .)

Got-forms of *have* are not used in short answers or tags.

*Have you **got** a light?* ~ *No, I **haven't**.* (NOT ~~*No, I haven't got*~~.)
*Anne's **got** a bike, **hasn't** she?*

Got-forms of *have* are less common in the past tense.

*I **had** flu last week.* (NOT ~~*I had got flu*~~ . . .)
*Did you **have** good teachers when you were at school?*

Got is not generally used with infinitives, participles or *-ing* forms of *have*: you cannot usually say *to have got a headache* or *having got a brother*. The infinitive of *have got* is occasionally used after modal verbs (e.g. *She must have got a new boyfriend*).

Have got is rather less common in American English, especially in questions and negatives.

In very informal American speech, people may drop *'ve* (but not *'s*) before *got*.

*I('ve) **got** a problem.*

Got- and *do*-forms may be mixed in American English, especially when short answers, reply questions and tags follow *got*-forms.

*I've **got** a new apartment.* ~ *You **do**?*

7 repetition: *got* not used

When we are talking about repeated or habitual states, *got*-forms of *have* are less often used. Compare:

– *I **have** / I've **got** toothache.*
  *I often **have** toothache.*
– *Do you **have** / Have you **got** time to go to London this weekend?*
  *Do you ever **have** time to go to London?*
– *Sorry, I **don't have** / **haven't** got any beer.*
  *We **don't** usually **have** beer in the house.*

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8 repetition: a change in British English

Traditionally, *do*-forms of *have* were used in British English mostly to express habit or repetition. Compare (BrE):

*Do you often **have** meetings?*
Have you (got) a meeting today?

In modern British English (which is heavily influenced by American English), *do*-forms are common even when there is no idea of repetition.

*Do you **have** time to go to the beach this weekend?* (AmE / modern BrE)

238 have (5): + object + verb form

Have can be followed by **object + infinitive (without *to*)**, **object + *-ing***, and **object + past participle**.

1 causative: *have somebody do/doing something*

Have + **object + infinitive** can mean 'cause somebody to do something'. This is mostly used in American English, to talk about giving instructions or orders.

*I'm ready to see Mr Smith. **Have** him come in, please.*
*The manager **had** everybody fill out a form.*

The structure with an *-ing* form can mean 'cause somebody to be doing something' (BrE and AmE).

*He **had** us laughing all through the meal.*

For ***get*** + **object + infinitive** (meaning 'persuade somebody/something to do something'), see 224.2.

2 causative: *have something done*

Have + **object + past participle** can mean 'cause something to be done by somebody else'. The past participle has a passive meaning.

*I must **have** my watch repaired.* (= I want my watch to be repaired.)
*I'm going to **have** my hair cut this afternoon.*
*If you don't get out of my house I'll **have** you arrested.*

Get is used in a similar structure: see 224.3.

3 experience: *have something happen/happening*

In the structure ***have*** + **object + infinitive/...*ing***, ***have*** can mean 'experience'.

*I **had** a very strange thing happen to me when I was fourteen.*
*We **had** a gipsy come to the door yesterday.*
*It's lovely to **have** children playing in the garden again.*
*I looked up and found we **had** water dripping through the ceiling.*

Note the difference between the infinitive in the first two examples (for things that happened), and the *-ing* form in the last two (for things that are/were happening). This is like the difference between simple and progressive tenses (see 461, 422). ▸

4 experience: *We had our roof blown off*

Have + object + past participle can also be used in the sense of 'experience'. Again, the past participle has a passive meaning.

We had our roof blown off in the storm.
King Charles had his head cut off.
She's just had a short story published in a magazine.

5 *I won't have ...*

I won't have + object + verb form can mean 'I won't allow ...'

I won't have you telling me what to do.
I won't have my house turned into a hotel.

239 have (6): have (got) to

1 meaning: obligation, certainty

We can use *have (got)* + infinitive to talk about obligation: things that it is necessary for us to do. The meaning is quite similar to *must*; for the differences, see 361.1.

Sorry, I've got to go now.
Do you often have to travel on business?

Have (got) + infinitive can also be used, like *must*, to express certainty. (This used to be mainly an American English structure, but it is now becoming common in British English.)

I don't believe you. You have (got) to be joking.
Only five o'clock! It's got to be later than that!

2 grammar: with or without *do*; *got*

In this structure, *have* can be used like an ordinary verb (with *do* in questions and negatives), or like an auxiliary verb (without *do*). *Got* is usually added to present-tense auxiliary-verb forms.

When do you have to be back? *When have you (got) to be back?*

Have got to is not normally used to talk about repeated obligation.

I usually have to be at work at eight. (NOT ~~*I've usually got to*~~...)

Progressive forms are possible to talk about temporary continued obligation.

I'm having to work very hard at the moment.

For more details of the use of *do*-forms and *got*-forms of *have*, see 237.

3 future: *have (got) to* or *will have to*

To talk about the future, we can use *have (got) to* if an obligation exists now; we use *will have to* for a purely future obligation. Compare:

I've got to get up early tomorrow – we're going to Devon.
One day everybody will have to ask permission to buy a car.

Will have to can be used to tell people what to do. It 'distances' the instructions, making them sound less direct than *must* (see 361).

You can borrow my car, but you'll have to bring it back before ten.

For more about 'distancing', see 436.

4 pronunciation of *have to; gotta*

Have to is often pronounced /ˈhæftə/.

He'll have to /ˈhæftə/ *get a new passport soon.*

Note the spelling *gotta*, sometimes used in informal American English (for instance in cartoon strips) to show the conversational pronunciation of *got to*.

I gotta call home. *A man's gotta do what a man's gotta do.*

240 headlines

1 special language

Headlines are the short titles above news reports (e.g. *RUSSIAN WOMAN LANDS ON MOON*). English news headlines can be very difficult to understand. One reason for this is that headlines are often written in a special style, which is very different from ordinary English. In this style there are some special rules of grammar, and words are often used in unusual ways.

2 grammar

a Headlines are not always complete sentences. Many headlines consist of noun phrases with no verb.

MORE WAGE CUTS *HOLIDAY HOTEL DEATH*
EXETER MAN'S DOUBLE MARRIAGE BID

b Headlines often contain strings of three, four or more nouns; nouns earlier in the string modify those that follow.

FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW

Headlines like these can be difficult to understand. It sometimes helps to read them backwards. *FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW* refers to a *ROW* (disagreement) about a *CUT* (reduction) in *PAY* at a *FACTORY* that makes *FURNITURE*.

c Headlines often leave out articles and the verb *be*.

SHAKESPEARE PLAY IMMORAL SAYS HEADMASTER
SCHOOLBOY WALKS IN SPACE

d In headlines, simple tenses are often used instead of progressive or perfect forms. The simple present is used for both present and past events.

BLIND GIRL CLIMBS EVEREST (= . . . has climbed . . .)
STUDENTS FIGHT FOR COURSE CHANGES (= . . . are fighting . . .)

The present progressive is used to talk about changes. *Be* is usually dropped.

BRITAIN GETTING WARMER, SAY SCIENTISTS
TRADE FIGURES IMPROVING

e Many headline words are used as both nouns and verbs, and nouns are often used to modify other nouns (see paragraph 2b). So it is not always easy to work out the structure of a sentence. Compare:

US CUTS AID TO THIRD WORLD (= The US reduces its help . . . *CUTS* is a verb, *AID* is a noun.) ▸

AID CUTS ROW (= There has been a disagreement about the reduction in aid. *AID* and *CUTS* are both nouns.)
CUTS AID REBELS (= The reduction is helping the revolutionaries. *CUTS* is a noun, *AID* is a verb.)

f Headlines often use infinitives to refer to the future.
PM TO VISIT AUSTRALIA
HOSPITALS TO TAKE FEWER PATIENTS
For is also used to refer to future movements or plans.
TROOPS FOR GLASGOW? (= Are soldiers going to be sent to Glasgow?)

g Auxiliary verbs are usually dropped from passive structures.
MURDER HUNT: MAN HELD (= ... a man is being held by police.)
SIX KILLED IN EXPLOSION (= Six people have been killed ...)
Note that forms like *HELD*, *ATTACKED* are usually past participles with passive meanings, not past tenses (which are rare in headlines). Compare:
– *AID ROW: PRESIDENT ATTACKED* (= ... the President has been attacked.)
AID ROW: PRESIDENT ATTACKS CRITICS
(= ... the President has attacked her critics.)
– *BOY FOUND SAFE* (= The missing boy has been found safe; he is safe.)
BOY FINDS SAFE (= A boy has found a safe.)

h *As* and *in* are often used instead of longer connecting expressions.
HOSPITAL BOSS AXED AS PATIENTS DIE (= ... because patients die.)
FOOTBALL MANAGER IN CAR CRASH

i A colon (:) is often used to separate the subject of a headline from what is said about it.
STRIKES: PM TO ACT *MOTORWAY CRASH: DEATH TOLL RISES*
Quotation marks ('...') are used to show that words were said by somebody else, and that the report does not necessarily claim that they are true.
CRASH DRIVER 'HAD BEEN DRINKING'
A question mark (?) is often used when something is not certain.
CRISIS OVER BY SEPTEMBER?

For other styles with special grammar, see 1.

3 vocabulary

Short words save space, and so they are very common in headlines. Some of the short words in headlines are unusual in ordinary language (e.g. *curb*, meaning 'restrict' or 'restriction'), and some are used in special senses which they do not often have in ordinary language (e.g. *bid*, meaning 'attempt'). Other words are chosen not because they are short, but because they sound dramatic (e.g. *blaze*, which means 'big fire', and is used in headlines to refer to any fire). The following is a list of common headline vocabulary.

act take action; do something
FOOD CRISIS: GOVERNMENT TO ACT
aid military or financial help; to help
MORE AID FOR POOR COUNTRIES
UNIONS AID HOSPITAL STRIKERS
alert alarm, warning
FLOOD ALERT ON EAST COAST

allege make an accusation
WOMAN ALLEGES UNFAIR TREATMENT
appear appear in court accused of a crime
MP TO APPEAR ON DRUGS CHARGES
axe abolish, close down; abolition, closure
COUNTRY BUS SERVICES AXED
SMALL SCHOOLS FACE AXE

BA British Airways
BA MAKES RECORD LOSS
back support
AMERICA BACKS BRITISH PEACE MOVE
ban forbid, refuse to allow something; prohibition
US BANS STEEL IMPORTS
NEW BAN ON DEMONSTRATIONS
bar refuse/refusal to allow entry
HOTEL BARS FOOTBALL FANS
NEW BAR ON IMMIGRANTS
bid attempt
JAPANESE WOMEN IN NEW EVEREST BID
blast explosion; criticise violently
BLAST AT PALACE
PM BLASTS CRITICS
blaze fire
SIX DIE IN HOTEL BLAZE
block stop, delay
TORIES BLOCK TEACHERS' PAY DEAL
blow bad news; discouragement; unfortunate happening
SMITH ILL: BLOW TO WORLD CUP HOPES
bolster give support/encouragement to
EXPORT FIGURES BOLSTER CITY CONFIDENCE
bond political/business association
NEW TRADE BONDS WITH ICELAND
boom big increase; prosperous period
SPENDING BOOM OVER, SAYS MINISTER
boost encourage(ment); to increase; an increase
PLAN TO BOOST EXPORTS
brink edge (of disaster)
WORLD ON BRINK OF WAR
Brussels the European Community parliament and administration
BRUSSELS BANS BRITISH BLACKBERRY WINE

call (for) demand/appeal (for)
CALL FOR STRIKE TALKS
HOSPITAL ROW: MP CALLS FOR ENQUIRY
campaign organised effort to achieve social or political result
MP LAUNCHES CAMPAIGN FOR PRISON REFORM
cash money
MORE CASH NEEDED FOR SCHOOLS
charge accusation (by police)
THREE MEN HELD ON BOMB CHARGE

chop abolition, closure
300 BANK BRANCHES FACE CHOP
City London's financial institutions
NEW TRADE FIGURES PLEASE CITY
claim (make) a statement that something is true (especially when there may be disagreement); **pay claim** demand for higher wages
SCIENTIST CLAIMS CANCER BREAKTHROUGH
RACISM CLAIM IN NAVY
TEACHERS' PAY CLAIM REJECTED
clamp down on deal firmly with (usually something illegal)
POLICE TO CLAMP DOWN ON SPEEDING
clash quarrel, fight (noun or verb)
PM IN CLASH OVER ARMS SALES
STUDENTS CLASH WITH POLICE
clear find innocent
DOCTOR CLEARED OF DRUGS CHARGE
Commons the House of Commons (in Parliament)
MINISTERS IN COMMONS CLASH OVER HOUSING
con swindle
TEENAGERS CON WIDOW OUT OF LIFE SAVINGS
crackdown firm application of the law
GOVERNMENT PROMISES CRACKDOWN ON DRUGS DEALERS
crash financial failure
BANK CRASH THREATENS TO BRING DOWN GOVERNMENT
curb restrict; restriction
NEW PRICE CURBS
cut reduce; reduction
BRITAIN CUTS OVERSEAS AID
NEW HEALTH SERVICE CUTS
cutback reduction (usually financial)
TEACHERS SLAM SCHOOL CUTBACKS

dash (make) quick journey
PM IN DASH TO BLAST HOSPITAL
deadlock disagreement that cannot be solved
DEADLOCK IN PEACE TALKS
deal agreement, bargain
TEACHERS REJECT NEW PAY DEAL
demo demonstration
30 ARRESTED IN ANTI-TAX DEMO
dole unemployment pay
DOLE QUEUES LENGTHEN
drama dramatic event; tense situation
PRINCE IN AIRPORT DRAMA
drive united effort
DRIVE TO SAVE WATER
drop give up, get rid of; fall (noun)
GOVERNMENT TO DROP CHILD LABOUR PLAN
BIG DROP IN INDUSTRIAL INVESTMENT
due expected to arrive
QUEEN DUE IN BERLIN TODAY

duo two people
HANDICAPPED DUO ROW ACROSS ATLANTIC

EU The European Union
EU TRADE MINISTERS TO MEET
edge move gradually
WORLD EDGES TOWARDS WAR
envoy ambassador
FRENCH ENVOY DISAPPEARS

face be threatened by
HOSPITALS FACE MORE CUTS *STRIKERS FACE SACK*
feud long-lasting quarrel or dispute
FAMILY FEUD EXPLODES INTO VIOLENCE: SIX HELD
find something that is found
BEACH FIND MAY BE BONES OF UNKNOWN DINOSAUR
firm determined not to change
PM FIRM ON TAX LEVELS
flak heavy criticism
GOVERNMENT FACES FLAK OVER VAT
flare begin violently
RIOTS FLARE IN ULSTER
foil prevent somebody from succeeding
TWELVE-YEAR-OLD FOILS BANK RAIDERS
fraud swindle, deceit
JAIL FOR TICKET FRAUD MEN
freeze keep(ing) prices etc at their present level; block(ing) a bank account
MINISTER WANTS TWO-YEAR PAY FREEZE
DRUG PROFITS FROZEN
fuel provide reason for growth (of anger, protest etc)
PAY FREEZE FUELS UNION ANGER

gag censor(ship), prevent(ion) from speaking
AFRICAN PRESIDENT ACTS TO GAG PRESS
gems jewels
£2m GEMS STOLEN
go resign; be lost, disappear
PM TO GO?
4,000 JOBS TO GO IN NORTH
go for be sold for
PICASSO DRAWING GOES FOR £5m
go-ahead approval
SCOTTISH ROAD PLAN GETS GO-AHEAD
grab take violently
INVESTORS GRAB SHARES IN SCOTTISH COMPANIES
grip control; hold tightly
REBELS TIGHTEN GRIP ON SOUTH
COLD WAVE GRIPS COUNTRY
gun down shoot
TERRORISTS GUN DOWN PRIEST ▸

hail welcome, praise
PM HAILS PEACE PLAN
halt stop
CAR PLANT TO HALT PRODUCTION
haul amount stolen in robbery, or seized by police or customs
TRAIN ROBBERY: BIG GOLD HAUL
RECORD DRUGS HAUL AT AIRPORT
head lead; leader
PM TO HEAD TRADE MISSION
COMMONWEALTH HEADS TO MEET IN OTTAWA
head for/to move towards
ECONOMY HEADING FOR DISASTER, EXPERTS WARN
heed pay attention to
GOVERNMENT MUST HEED DIVORCE FIGURES, SAYS BISHOP
hike (AmE) rise in costs, prices etc
INTEREST HIKE WILL HIT BUSINESS
hit affect badly
SNOWSTORMS HIT TRANSPORT
hit out at attack (with words)
PM HITS OUT AT CRITICS
hitch problem that causes delay
LAST-MINUTE HITCH DELAYS SATELLITE LAUNCH
hold arrest; keep under arrest
MAN HELD AFTER STATION BLAST
POLICE HOLD TERROR SUSPECT

in (the) red in debt; making a financial loss
BRITISH STEEL IN RED
IRA Irish Republican Army
IRA LEADER MAKES STATEMENT

jail prison
JAIL FOR PEACE MARCHERS
jobless unemployed (people)
THREE MILLION JOBLESS BY APRIL?

key important, vital
KEY WITNESS VANISHES

landslide victory by large majority in election
LANDSLIDE FOR NATIONALISTS
lash criticise violently
BISHOP LASHES TV SEX AND VIOLENCE
launch send (satellite etc) into space; begin (campaign etc); put (new product) on market
SPACE TELESCOPE LAUNCH DELAYED
ENVIRONMENT MINISTER LAUNCHES CAMPAIGN FOR CLEANER BEACHES
BRITISH FIRM LAUNCHES THROW-AWAY CHAIRS
lead clue (in police enquiry)
NEW LEAD IN PHONEBOX MURDER CASE

leak unofficial publication of secret information
PM FURIOUS OVER TAX PLAN LEAKS
leap big increase
LEAP IN IMPORTS
life imprisonment 'for life'
LIFE FOR AXE MURDERER
link connection, contact
NEW TRADE LINKS WITH PERU
loom threaten to happen
VAT ON FOOD: NEW ROW LOOMS
Lords the House of Lords (in Parliament)
LORDS VOTE ON DOG REGISTRATION
lotto the national lottery
DANCING GRANDMOTHER IN RECORD LOTTO WIN

mar spoil
CROWD VIOLENCE MARS CUP FINAL
mercy intended to save lives
DOCTOR IN MERCY DASH TO EVEREST
mission delegation (official group sent to conference etc)
SHOTS FIRED AT UN MISSION
mob angry crowd; organised crime / Mafia (AmE)
MOBS RAMPAGE THROUGH CITY STREETS
MOB LEADERS HELD
move step towards a particular result (often political)
MOVE TO BOOST TRADE LINKS WITH JAPAN
MP Member of Parliament
MP DENIES DRUGS CHARGE
MEP Member of the European Parliament
MEPS WANT MORE PAY

nail force somebody to admit the truth
MP NAILS MINISTER ON PIT CLOSURE PLANS
net win, capture
TWO SISTERS NET £3m IN POOLS WIN
no 10 the Prime Minister's residence (No 10 Downing Street)
ANOTHER PETITION HANDED IN AT No 10

OAP old age pensioner; anybody over 65
OAPS MARCH AGAINST WAR PLANS
odds chances, probability
JONES RE-ELECTED AGAINST THE ODDS
on about, on the subject of, concerning
NEW MOVE ON PENSIONS
opt (for) choose
WALES OPTS FOR INDEPENDENCE
oust drive out, replace
MODERATES OUSTED IN UNION ELECTIONS
out to intending to
NATIONALISTS OUT TO CAPTURE MASS VOTE

over about, on the subject of, because of
ROW OVER AID CUTS

pact agreement
DEFENCE PACT RUNS INTO TROUBLE
pay wages
TRANSPORT PAY TALKS BREAK DOWN
PC police constable
PC SHOT IN BANK RAID
peak high point
BANK LENDING HITS NEW PEAK
peer lord; Member of the House of Lords
PEERS REJECT GOVERNMENT WAGE-FREEZE BAN
peg hold (prices etc) at present level
BANKS PEG INTEREST RATES
pensioner old age pensioner; anybody over 65
PENSIONER SKIS DOWN MONT BLANC
peril danger
FLOOD PERIL IN THAMES VALLEY
pit coal mine
PIT TURNED INTO MUSEUM
plant factory
STEEL PLANT BLAZE
plea call for help
BIG RESPONSE TO PLEA FOR FLOOD AID
pledge promise
GOVERNMENT GIVES PLEDGE ON JOBLESS
PM Prime Minister
EGG THROWN AT PM
poised to ready to, about to
TORIES POISED TO MAKE ELECTION GAINS
poll election; public opinion survey
TORIES AHEAD IN POLLS
pools football pools: a form of gambling in which people guess the results of football matches
SISTERS SHARE BIG POOLS WIN
premier head of government
GREEK PREMIER TO VISIT UK
press the newspapers
BID TO GAG PRESS OVER DEFENCE SPENDING
press (for) urge, encourage, ask for urgently
MINISTER PRESSED TO ACT ON HOUSING
OPPOSITION PRESS FOR ENQUIRY ON AIR CRASHES
probe investigation; investigate
CALL FOR STUDENT DRUGS PROBE
POLICE PROBE RACING SCANDAL
pull out withdraw; **pull-out** withdrawal
US PULLS OUT OF ARMS TALKS
CHURCH CALLS FOR BRITISH PULL-OUT FROM ULSTER
push (for) ask for, encourage
SCHOOLS PUSH FOR MORE CASH

quake earthquake
HOUSES DAMAGED IN WELSH QUAKE
quit resign, leave
CHURCH LEADER QUITS
MINISTER TO QUIT GOVERNMENT
quiz question (verb)
POLICE QUIZ MILLIONAIRE SUPERMARKET BOSS

raid enter and search; attack (noun and verb), rob, robbery
POLICE RAID DUCHESS'S FLAT
BIG GEMS RAID
rampage riot
FOOTBALL FANS RAMPAGE THROUGH SEASIDE TOWNS
rap criticise
DOCTORS RAP NEW MINISTRY PLANS
rates (bank) interest rates
RATES RISE EXPECTED
record bigger than ever before
RECORD LOSS BY INSURANCE FIRM
riddle mystery
MISSING ENVOY RIDDLE: WOMAN HELD
rift division, disagreement
LABOUR RIFT OVER DEFENCE POLICY
rock shock, shake
BANK SEX SCANDAL ROCKS CITY
IRELAND ROCKED BY QUAKE
row noisy disagreement, quarrel
NEW ROW OVER PENSION CUTS
rule out reject the possibility of
PM RULES OUT AUTUMN ELECTION

sack dismiss(al) from job
STRIKING POSTMEN FACE SACK
saga long-running news story
NEW REVELATIONS IN BANK SEX SAGA
scare public alarm, alarming rumour
TYPHOID SCARE IN SOUTHWEST
scoop win (prize etc)
PENSIONER SCOOPS LOTTO FORTUNE
scrap throw out (as useless)
GOVERNMENT SCRAPS NEW ROAD PLANS
seek look for
POLICE SEEK WITNESS TO KILLING
seize take (especially in police and customs searches)
POLICE SEIZE ARMS AFTER CAR CHASE
£3m DRUGS SEIZED AT AIRPORT
set to ready to; about to
INTEREST RATES SET TO RISE
shed get rid of
CAR FIRM TO SHED 5,000 JOBS

slam criticise violently
BISHOP SLAMS DEFENCE POLICY
slash cut, reduce drastically
GOVERNMENT TO SLASH HEALTH EXPENDITURE
slate criticise
PM SLATES BISHOP
slay (AmE) murder
FREEWAY KILLER SLAYS SIX
slump fall (economic)
EXPORTS SLUMP *CITY FEARS NEW SLUMP*
snatch rob, robbery
BIG WAGES SNATCH IN WEST END
soar rise dramatically
IMPORTS SOAR FOR THIRD MONTH
spark cause (trouble) to start
REFEREE'S DECISION SPARKS RIOT
split disagree(ment)
CABINET SPLIT ON PRICES POLICY
spree wild spending expedition
BUS DRIVER SPENDS £30,000 IN THREE-DAY CREDIT CARD SPREE
stake financial interest
JAPANESE BUY STAKE IN BRITISH AIRWAYS
storm angry public disagreement
STORM OVER NEW STRIKE LAW
storm out of leave angrily
TEACHERS' LEADERS STORM OUT OF MEETING
stun surprise, shock
JOBLESS FIGURES STUN CITY
surge sudden increase; rise suddenly
SURGE IN JOBLESS FIGURES
swap exchange
HEART SWAP BOY BETTER
sway persuade
HOSPITAL PROTEST SWAYS MINISTERS
switch to change; a change
DEFENCE POLICY SWITCH
swoop to raid; a police raid
POLICE IN DAWN SWOOP ON DRUGS GANG

threat danger
TEACHERS' STRIKE THREAT
toll number killed
QUAKE TOLL MAY BE £5,000
top (adj) senior, most important
TOP BANKER KIDNAPPED
top (verb) exceed
IMPORTS TOP LAST YEAR'S FIGURES
Tory Conservative
VICTORY FOR TORY MODERATES
trio three people
JAILBREAK TRIO RECAPTURED

troops soldiers
MORE TROOPS FOR BORDER AREA

UK The United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)
BRUSSELS CRITICISES UK JAIL CONDITIONS
Ulster Northern Ireland
PM IN SECRET TRIP TO ULSTER
UN The United Nations
UN IN RED: CANNOT BALANCE BUDGET
urge encourage
GOVERNMENT URGED TO ACT ON POLLUTION
US The United States of America
US URGED TO PULL OUT OF MIDDLE EAST

VAT value added tax
NEXT, VAT ON BABYFOOD?
vow promise
EXILED PRESIDENT VOWS TO RETURN

walk out leave in protest
CAR WORKERS WALK OUT OVER WAGE FREEZE
web world-wide web, internet
WEB SHOPPING UP BY 50% IN TWO YEARS
wed marry
BISHOP TO WED ACTRESS

241 hear and listen (to)

1 *hear*: meaning

Hear is the ordinary word to say that something 'comes to our ears'.
*Suddenly I **heard** a strange noise.* (NOT ~~*Suddenly I listened to a strange noise.*~~)
*Can you **hear** me?*

2 *listen (to)*: meaning

Listen (to) is used to talk about paying attention to sounds that are going on, in progress. It emphasises the idea of concentrating, trying to hear as well as possible. You can hear something without wanting to, but you can only listen to something deliberately. Compare:
*I **heard** them talking upstairs, but I didn't really **listen** to their conversation.*
*Listen carefully, please. ~ Could you speak louder? I can't **hear** you very well.*
*I didn't **hear** the phone because I was **listening to** the radio.*

3 complete experiences: *hear*

Listen (to) is mostly used to talk about concentrating on experiences that are going on, in progress. To talk about the result of listening: experiencing or

▶

understanding the whole of a performance, speech, piece of music, broadcast or other communication, we generally use ***hear***. Compare:

- *When she arrived, I was **listening to** a record of Brendel playing Beethoven.* (NOT ...~~*I was hearing*~~...)
  *I once **heard** Brendel play all the Beethoven concertos.* (NOT ~~*I once listened to Brendel play*~~...)
- *I wish I had more time to **listen to** the radio.* (NOT ...~~*to hear the radio.*~~)
  *Did you **hear / listen to** the news yesterday?*

4 *hear* not used in progressive forms

Hear is not usually used in progressive forms. To say that one hears something at the moment of speaking, *can hear* is often used, especially in British English (see 125).

*I **can hear** somebody coming.* (NOT ~~*I am hearing*~~...)

5 *listen* and *listen to*

When there is no object, *listen* is used without *to*. Compare:

Listen! (NOT ~~*Listen to!*~~) ***Listen to me!*** (NOT ~~*Listen me!*~~)

There are similar differences between *see, look (at)* and *watch*. See 506.
For *hear* + object + infinitive/*-ing*, see 242.

242 hear, see etc + object + verb form

1 object + infinitive or *-ing* form

Hear, see, watch, notice and similar verbs of perception can be followed by object + infinitive (without *to*) or object + *-ing* form.

*I **heard him go** down the stairs.* *I **heard him going** down the stairs.*
(NOT ~~*I heard him went down the stairs.*~~)

There is often a difference of meaning. After these verbs, an infinitive suggests that we hear or see the whole of an action or event; an *-ing* form suggests that we hear or see something in progress, going on. Compare:

- *I saw her cross the road.* (= I saw her cross it from one side to the other.)
  I saw her crossing the road. (= I saw her in the middle, on her way across.)
- *I once **heard him give** a talk on Japanese politics.*
  *As I walked past his room I **heard him talking** on the phone.*
- ***Watch me jump** over the stream.*
  *I like to **watch people walking** in the street.*
- *I **heard the bomb explode**.* (NOT ~~*I heard the bomb exploding.*~~)
  *I **saw the book lying** on the table.* (NOT ~~*I saw the book lie*~~...)

A progressive form can suggest repetition.

*I saw her **throwing** stones at the other children.*

After *can see/hear* (which refer to actions and events that are in progress – see 125), only the *-ing* structure is used.

*I could see John **getting** on the bus.* (NOT ~~*I could see John get*~~...)

These structures can be used after passive forms of *hear* and *see*. In this case, the infinitive has *to*.

*He was never **heard to say** 'thank you' in his life.* (NOT ~~*He was never heard say*~~ . . .)
*Justice must not only be done; it must **be seen to be done**.*
*She **was seen walking** away from the accident.*
Passive forms of *watch* and *notice* are not used in this way.

2 possessives not used

After these verbs, possessives cannot be used with *-ing* forms.
*I saw **Mary** crossing the road.* (NOT ~~*I saw Mary's crossing the road*~~.)

3 object + past participle

In this structure, the past participle has a passive meaning.
*I **heard my name repeated** several times.* (= My name was repeated.)
*Have you ever **seen a television thrown** through a window?*
The idea of 'action or event in progress' can be given by a progressive form (***being*** + **past participle**).
*As I watched the tree **being cut** down . . .*
*I woke up to hear the bedroom door **being opened** slowly.*
These structures are not possible after passive forms of *hear* and *see*.

4 *look at*

Look at can be followed by **object + *-ing* form**, and in American English also by **object + infinitive**.
*Look at him **eating**!* *Look at him **eat**!* (AmE)

For more about verbs that can be followed by both infinitives and *-ing* forms, see 299.
For the difference between *hear* and *listen*, see 241.
For *see*, *look* and *watch*, see 506.

243 hear, see etc with that-clause

The present-tense forms *I hear (that) . . .* and *I see (that) . . .* are often used to introduce pieces of news which one has heard, read or seen on television.
I hear (that) Alice is expecting a baby.
I see (that) the firemen are going on strike.
Some other verbs can be used like this. Common examples are *understand* and *gather*. These are often used to check information.
*I **understand** you're moving to a new job.* ~ *Yes, that's right.*
*I **gather** you didn't like the party.* ~ *What makes you say that?*

244 help

After *help*, we can use **object + infinitive** (with or without *to*).
*Can you **help me (to) find** my ring?* (NOT ~~*Can you help me finding my ring?*~~)
*Thank you so much for **helping us (to) repair** the car.*
*Our main task is to **help the company (to) become** profitable.*
Help can also be followed directly by an infinitive without an object.
*Would you like **to help wash up**?*

For the expression *can't help . . .ing*, see 126.

245 here and there

We use *here* for the place where the speaker/writer is, and *there* for other places.

(on the telephone) *Hello, is Tom there?~No, I'm sorry, he's not here.*
(NOT ... ~~*he's not there.*~~)
Don't stay there in the corner by yourself. Come over here and talk to us.

Note that *here* and *there* cannot normally be used as nouns.

This place is terrible. *It is terrible here.* (BUT NOT ~~*Here is terrible.*~~)
Did you like that place? (BUT NOT ~~*Did you like there?*~~)

There are similar differences between *this* and *that* (see 589), *come* and *go* (see 134) and *bring* and *take* (see 112).
For *here's* and *there's* followed by plural nouns, see 532.4.
For inverted word order after *here* and *there*, see 303.1.
For *Here you are*, see 545.18.

246 high and tall

1 What kind of things are *tall*?

We use *tall* mostly for people, trees, buildings with many floors, and a few other things which are higher than they are wide (e.g. factory chimneys or electricity pylons).

*How **tall** are you?* (NOT ~~*How high are you?*~~)
*There are some beautiful **tall** trees at the end of our garden.*

In other cases we usually prefer *high*.

*Mount Elbrus is the **highest** mountain in Europe.*
*The garden's got very **high** walls.*

2 measurements

In measurements, we use *tall* for people, but we prefer *high* for things. Compare:

*I'm 1m 93 **tall**.* *That tree is about 30m **high**.*

3 distance above the ground

We use *high* to talk about distance above the ground. A child standing on a chair may be *higher* than her mother, although she is probably not *taller*.

*That shelf is too **high** for me to reach.*
*The clouds are very **high** today.*

4 parts of the body

Parts of the body can be *long*, but not *tall*.

*Alex has got beautiful **long** legs.* (NOT ... ~~*tall legs.*~~)

247 hire, rent and let

1 *hire* and *rent*

Hire and *rent* can mean: 'pay for the use of something'. In British English, *rent* is used for arrangements involving a long period of time (one rents a house, a

flat, a TV). For shorter periods (e.g. paying for a car, a boat, evening dress) *rent* and *hire* can both be used.

How much does it cost to rent a two-room flat?
I need to hire/rent a car for the weekend.

Hire (out) and *rent (out)* can also mean 'sell the use of something'.

There's a shop in High Street that hires/rents (out) evening dress.

In American English, *rent* is the normal word for both longer and shorter arrangements; *hire*, in American English, normally means 'employ'.

2 *let*

Let is used in British English, like *rent (out)*, to talk about selling the use of rooms, houses etc.

We let the upstairs room to a student.

248 holiday and holidays

In British English, the plural *holidays* is often used for the 'long holiday' of the year. In other cases we normally use the singular *holiday*. Compare:

*Where are you going for your summer **holiday(s)**?*
*We get five days' Christmas **holiday** this year.*
*Next Monday is a public **holiday**.*

The singular is used in the British expression *on holiday* (note the preposition).

*I met Marianne **on holiday** in Norway.* (NOT ... ~~*on/in holidays*~~ ...)

Americans more often use the word *vacation*. (In British English, *vacation* is mainly used for the periods when universities are not teaching.) *Holiday* is most often used in American English for a day of publicly observed celebration (such as Thanksgiving) when people do not have to work.

249 home

1 articles and prepositions

No article is used in the expression *at home* (meaning 'in one's own place').

*Is anybody **at home**?* (NOT ... ~~*at the home?*~~)

At is often dropped, especially in American English.

*Is anybody **home**?*

Home (without *to*) can be used as an adverb referring to direction.

*I think I'll go **home**.* (NOT ... ~~*to home.*~~)

There is no special preposition in English to express the idea of being at somebody's home (like French *chez*, German *bei*, Danish/Swedish/Norwegian *hos* etc). One way of saying this is to use *at* with a possessive.

*We had a great evening **at Philip's**.*
*Ring up and see if Jacqueline is **at the Smiths'**, could you?*

Possessive pronouns cannot be used in this way, though.

Come round to my place for a drink. (NOT ... ~~*to mine*~~ ...) ▸

2 *house* and *home*

House is an emotionally neutral word: it just refers to a particular type of building. *Home* is used more personally: it is the place that somebody lives in, and can express the idea of emotional attachment to a place. Compare:

*There are some horrible new **houses** in our village.*
*I lived there for six years, but I never really felt it was my **home**.*

250 hope

1 tenses after *hope*

After *I hope*, we often use a present tense with a future meaning.

*I hope she **likes*** (= will like) *the flowers.*
*I hope the bus **comes** soon.*

For a similar use of present tenses after *bet*, see 103.

2 negative sentences

In negative sentences, we usually put *not* with the verb that comes after *hope*.

*I hope she doesn't **wake** up.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope she wakes up*~~.)

For negative structures with *think*, *believe* etc, see 369.

3 special uses of past tenses

We can use *I was hoping* ... to introduce a polite request.

*I **was hoping** you could lend me some money.*

I had hoped ... refers to hopes for things that did not happen.

*I **had hoped** that Jennifer would study medicine, but she didn't want to.*

For more about the use of past tenses in polite requests, see 436.
For *I hope so/not*, see 539.
For the differences between *hope*, *expect*, *wait* and *look forward*, see 196.

251 hopefully

One meaning of *hopefully* is 'full of hope', 'hoping'.

*She sat there waiting **hopefully** for the phone to ring.*

Another, more recent meaning is 'it is to be hoped that' or 'I hope'.

***Hopefully**, inflation will soon be under control.*
***Hopefully** I'm not disturbing you?*

252 how

1 use and word order

How is used to introduce questions or the answers to questions.

How did you do it?
Tell me how you did it.
I know how he did it.

We also use *how* in exclamations (see 195). The word order is not the same as in questions. Compare:

– *How cold is it?*
  How cold it is!
– *How do you like my hair?*
  How I love weekends! (NOT ~~*How do I love weekends!*~~)
– *How have you been?*
  How you've grown! (NOT ~~*How have you grown!*~~)

When *how* is used in an exclamation with an adjective or adverb, this comes immediately after *how*.

How beautiful the trees are! (NOT ~~*How the trees are beautiful!*~~)
How well she plays! (NOT ~~*How she plays well!*~~)

For the difference between *how* and *what like*, see 253.

2 with adjectives/adverbs: *how*, not *how much*

We use *how*, not *how much*, before adjectives and adverbs.

How tall are you? (NOT ~~*How much tall are you?*~~)
Show me how fast you can run. (NOT ... ~~*how much fast*~~ ...)

3 comparisons: *how* not used

In comparisons we use *as* or *like* (see 326) or *the way* (see below), not *how*.

Hold it in both hands, as / like / the way Mummy does.
(NOT ... ~~*how Mummy does.*~~)

4 *how, what* and *why*

These three question words can sometimes be confused. Note particularly the following common structures.

How do you know? (NOT ~~*Why do you know?*~~)
What do you call this? (NOT ~~*How do you call this?*~~)
What's that ... called? (NOT ~~*How is that ... called?*~~)
What do you think? (NOT ~~*How do you think?*~~)
What? What did you say? (NOT ~~*How? How did you say?*~~)
Why should I think that?

Both *What about ...?* and *How about ...?* are used to make suggestions, and to bring up points that have been forgotten.

What/How about eating out this evening?
What/How about the kids? Who's going to look after them?

In exclamations (see 195), *what* is used before noun phrases; *how* is used before adjectives (without nouns), adverbs and verb phrases.

What a marvellous house!
How marvellous! *How you've changed!*

5 *how much, how many, how old, how far* etc

Many interrogative expressions of two or more words begin with *how*. These are used to ask for measurements, quantities etc. Examples:

How much do you weigh?
How many people were there?
How old are your parents?
How far is your house? *How often do you come to New York?* ▸

Note that English does not have a special expression to ask for ordinal numbers (*first, second* etc).

It's our wedding anniversary. ~ *Congratulations. Which one?* (NOT ... ~~*the how-manyeth?*~~)

6 *how*-clauses in sentences

How-clauses are common as the objects of verbs like *ask, tell, wonder* or *know,* which can introduce indirect questions.

*Don't ask me **how the journey was.***
*Tell us **how you did it.***
*I wonder **how animals talk to each other.***
*Does anybody know **how big the universe is?***

How-clauses can also be used as subjects, complements or adverbials, especially in a more informal style.

***How you divide up the money** is your business.* (subject)
*This is **how much I've done** since this morning.* (complement after *be*)
*I spend my money **how I like.*** (adverbial)

7 *the way*

The way (see 615) can often be used instead of non-interrogative *how*. Note that *the way* and *how* are not used together.

*Look at **the way** those cats wash each other.* OR *Look at **how** those cats ...* (NOT ... ~~*the way how those cats wash*~~ ...)
The way you organise the work is for you to decide. OR *How you organise ...* (NOT ~~*The way how you organise*~~ ...)

For *how to ...*, see 286.
For *learn how to ...*, see 317.
For *how ever*, see 624.
For *however*, see 49, 157.3, 625.

253 how and what ... like?

1 changes: *How's Ron?*

We generally use *how* to ask about things that change – for example people's moods and health. We prefer *what ... like* to ask about things that do not change – for example people's character and appearance. Compare:

– *How's Ron?* ~ *He's very well.*
  What's Ron like? ~ *He's quiet and a bit shy.*
– *How does she look today?* ~ *Tired.*
  What does she look like? ~ *Short and dark, pretty, cheerful-looking.*

2 reactions: *How was the film?*

We often use *how* to ask about people's reactions to their experiences. *What ... like* is also possible.

How was the film? ~ *Very good.* (OR *What was the film like ...?*)
How's your steak? *How's the new job?*

254 -ic and -ical

Many adjectives end in *-ic* or *-ical*. There is no general rule to tell you which form is correct in a particular case.

1 some adjectives normally ending in *-ic*

academic	*dramatic*	*linguistic*	*semantic*
algebraic	*egoistic*	*majestic*	*syntactic*
arithmetic	*emphatic*	*neurotic*	*systematic*
artistic	*energetic*	*pathetic*	*tragic*
athletic	*fantastic*	*pedagogic*	
catholic	*geometric*	*phonetic*	
domestic	*strategic*	*public*	

arithmetical, geometrical and *pedagogical* also occur.
Some of these words ended in *-ical* in older English (e.g. *fantastical, majestical, tragical*).
New adjectives which come into the language generally end in *-ic*, except for those ending in *-logical*.

2 some adjectives ending in *-ical*

biological (and many other adjectives ending in *-logical*)

chemical	*fanatical*	*medical*	*surgical*
critical	*logical*	*musical*	*tactical*
cynical	*mathematical*	*physical*	*topical*
grammatical	*mechanical*	*radical*	

3 differences of meaning

In some cases, both forms exist but with a difference of meaning.

a *classic* and *classical*

Classic usually refers to a famous traditional style.
He's ***a classic*** *1960s hippy who has never changed.*
She buys ***classic*** *cars and restores them.*
Classical refers to the culture of ancient Greece and Rome, or to European works of art of the so-called 'classical' period in the 18th century.
She's studying ***classical*** *languages and literature at Cambridge.*
Classical music means 'serious' music, not pop or jazz.
It's hard to learn ***classical*** *guitar.*

b *comic* and *comical*

Comic is the normal adjective for artistic comedy.
comic *verse* ***comic*** *opera*
Shakespeare's ***comic*** *technique*
Comical is a rather old-fashioned word meaning 'funny'.
a comical *expression* ▸

c *economic* and *economical*

Economic refers to the science of economics, or to the economy of a country.
economic theory *economic problems*
Economical means 'not wasting money'.
an economical little car *an economical housekeeper*

d *electric* and *electrical*

Electric is used with the names of particular machines that work by electricity.
an electric motor *electric blankets*
Note also: *an electric shock; an electric atmosphere* (full of excitement).
Electrical is used before more general words.
electrical appliances *electrical equipment*
electrical component *electrical engineering*

e *historic* and *historical*

Historic is used especially for historically important places, remains, customs etc, and for moments which 'make history'.
We spent our holiday visiting historic houses and castles in France.
Our two countries are about to make a historic agreement.
Historical means 'connected with the study of history' or 'really existing in history'.
historical research *a historical novel*
historical documents *Was King Arthur a historical figure?*

f *magic* and *magical*

Magic is the more common word, and is used in a number of fixed expressions.
a magic wand (= a magician's stick)
the magic word *a magic carpet*
Magical is sometimes used instead of *magic*, especially in metaphorical senses like 'mysterious', 'wonderful' or 'exciting'.
It was a magical experience.

g *politic* and *political*

Politic is a rather unusual word for 'wise', 'prudent'.
I don't think it would be politic to ask for a loan just now.
Political means 'connected with politics'.
political history *a political career*

4 adverbs

Note that whether the adjective ends in *-ic* or *-ical*, the adverb ends in *-ically* (pronounced /ɪkli/). The one common exception is *publicly* (NOT ~~*publically*~~).

5 nouns ending in *-ics*

Many nouns ending in *-ics* are singular (e.g. *physics, athletics*). Some can be either singular or plural (e.g. *mathematics, politics*). For details, see 524.3.

255 idioms, collocations and fixed expressions

1 What are idioms?

An expression like *turn up* (meaning 'arrive'), *break even* (meaning 'make neither a profit nor a loss') or *a can of worms* (meaning 'a complicated problem') can be difficult to understand, because its meaning is different from the meanings of the separate words in the expression. (If you know *break* and *even*, this does not help you at all to understand *break even*.) Expressions like these are called 'idioms'. Idioms are usually special to one language and cannot be translated word for word (though related languages may share some idioms).

2 verbs with particles or prepositions

Common short verbs like *bring, come, do, get, give, go, have, keep, make, put,* and *take* are very often used with prepositions or adverb particles (e.g. *on, off, up, away*) to make two-word verbs. These are called 'prepositional verbs' or 'phrasal verbs', and many of them are idiomatic.

*Can you **look after** the cats while I'm away?*
*She just doesn't know how to **bring up** children.*
*I **gave up** chemistry because I didn't like it.*

Many of these two-word verbs are especially common in informal speech and writing. Compare:

- *What time are you planning to **turn up**?* (informal)
  *Please let us know when you plan to **arrive**.* (more formal)
- *Just **keep on** till you **get to** the crossroads.* (informal)
  *Continue **as far as** the crossroads.* (formal)

For details of phrasal and prepositional verbs, see 599–600.

3 collocations (conventional word combinations)

We can say *I fully understand*, but not *I fully like*; *I rather like*, but not *I rather understand*; *I firmly believe*, but not *I firmly think*. Somebody can be a *heavy smoker* or a *devoted friend*, but not *a devoted smoker* or *a heavy friend*. Expressions like these are also idiomatic, in a sense. They are easy to understand, but not so easy for a learner to produce correctly. One can think of many adjectives that might be used with *smoker* to say that somebody smokes a lot – for example *big, strong, hard, fierce, mad, devoted*. It just happens that English speakers have chosen to use *heavy*, and one has to know this in order to express the idea naturally and correctly. These conventional combinations of words are called 'collocations', and all languages have large numbers of them. Some more examples:

a crashing bore (BUT NOT ~~*a crashing nuisance*~~)
a burning desire (BUT NOT ~~*a blazing desire*~~)
a blazing row (BUT NOT ~~*a burning row*~~)
highly reliable (BUT NOT ~~*highly old*~~)
a golden opportunity (BUT NOT ~~*a golden chance*~~)
change one's mind (BUT NOT ~~*change one's thoughts*~~)
Thanks a lot. (BUT NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)

4 situational language: fixed expressions

The expressions that are used in typical everyday situations are often idiomatic in the same sense. With the help of a dictionary and a grammar, one could invent various possible ways of expressing a particular common idea, but generally there are only one or two ways that happen to be used by English speakers, and one has to know what they are in order to speak or write naturally. Some examples:

Could you check the oil? (More natural than *Could you inspect the oil?* or *Could you see how much oil there is in the engine?*)

Is it a direct flight or do I have to change? (More natural than *Does the plane go straight there or do I have to get another one?)*

Sorry I kept you waiting. (More natural than *Sorry I made you wait.)*

Could I reserve a table for three for eight o'clock? (More natural than *Could you keep me a table for three persons for eight o'clock?)*

Other fixed expressions are used as parts of sentences – useful introductions, conclusions or frames for the things that people want to say.

Let me know when/where/what/how ...

The best thing would be to ...	*(do something) as a favour.*
The point is ...	*... is more trouble than it's worth.*
I wouldn't be surprised if ...	*I'll ... on condition that you.*

5 using idioms, collocations and fixed expressions.

Idioms, collocations and fixed expressions are common in all kinds of English, formal and informal, spoken and written. Informal spoken language is often very idiomatic.

Students should not worry because they do not know all the expressions of this kind that are commonly used by English speakers. If they use non-idiomatic ways of expressing ideas, they will normally be understood, and English speakers do not expect foreigners to speak perfect natural English. It is therefore not necessary for students to make great efforts to memorise idioms, collocations etc: they will learn the most common ones naturally along with the rest of their English. In particular, note that books of idioms often contain expressions which are slangy, rare or out of date, and which students should avoid unless they understand exactly how and when the expressions are used. This is especially true of colourful idioms like, for example, *raining cats and dogs, as cross as two sticks* (= angry) or *kick the bucket* (= die). If students try consciously to fill their speech and writing with such expressions the effect will probably be very strange.

It is, however, helpful for learners to have a good up-to-date dictionary of collocations (for example the *Oxford Dictionary of Collocations*) in order to become aware of the most common word combinations.

For more about formal and informal language, see 311.
For slang, see 533.

256 if (1): introduction

1 uncertain events and situations

In clauses after *if*, we usually talk about uncertain events and situations: things which may or may not happen, which may or may not be true, etc.

Ask John if he's staying tonight. (He may or may not be staying.)
If I see Annie, I'll give her your love. (I may or may not see Annie.)

2 conditions

An *if*-clause often refers to a condition – something which must happen so that something else can happen.

If you get here before eight, we can catch the early train.
Oil floats if you pour it on water.

Clauses of this kind are often called 'conditional' clauses. Verb phrases with *would/should* are also sometimes called 'conditional'.

3 'first', 'second' and 'third' conditionals; other structures

Some students' grammars concentrate on three common sentence structures with *if*, which are often called the 'first', 'second' and 'third' conditionals.

'first conditional'

if + present	*will* + infinitive
If we play tennis	*I'll win.*

'second conditional'

if + past	*would* + infinitive
If we played tennis	*I would win.*

'third conditional'

if + past perfect	*would have* + past participle
If we had played tennis	*I would have won.*

These are useful structures to practise. However, students sometimes think that these are the only possibilities, and become confused when they meet sentences like *If she didn't phone this morning, then she's probably away* ('What's this? A fourth conditional?'). It is important to realise that *if* is not only used in special structures with *will* and *would*; it can also be used, like other conjunctions, in ordinary structures with normal verb forms. For details, see the following sections.

4 position of *if*-clause

An *if*-clause can come at the beginning or end of a sentence. When an *if*-clause comes first, it is often separated by a comma. ▸

Compare:
If you eat too much, you get fat.
You get fat if you eat too much.

For other meanings of *if*, see 261.10–13.
For *if* and *whether* in indirect speech, see 276, 621.
For *if not* and *unless*, see 601.
For more information about *would/should*, see 633.
For the difference between *if* and *in case*, see 271.
For *even if*, see 189.4.

257 if (2): ordinary structures

If you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.
I'll give her your love if I see her.

1 the same tenses as with other conjunctions

When we are not talking about 'unreal' situations (see 258), we use the same tenses with *if* as with other conjunctions. Present tenses are used to refer to the present, past tenses to the past, and so on. Compare:
- *Oil floats if you pour it on water.*
  Iron goes red when it gets very hot.
- *If John didn't come to work yesterday, he was probably ill.*
  As John didn't come to work yesterday, he was probably ill.
- *If you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.*
  Because you didn't study physics at school, you won't understand this book.

2 present tense with future meaning

In an *if*-clause, we normally use a present tense to talk about the future. This happens after most conjunctions (see 580). Compare:
- *I'll give her your love if I see her.* (NOT ... ~~*if I will see her.*~~)
  I'll give her your love when I see her. (NOT ... ~~*when I will see her.*~~)
- *If we have fine weather tomorrow, I'm going to paint the windows.*
  As soon as we have fine weather, I'm going to paint the windows.

For *if* + *will* (e.g. *if it will make you feel better*), see 260.
For *if* + *will* in reported speech (e.g. *I don't know if I'll be ready*), see 276.

258 if (3): special structures with past tenses and would

If I knew her name, I would tell you.
What would you do if you lost your job?

1 unreal situations

We use special structures with *if* when we are talking about unreal situations – things that will probably not happen, situations that are untrue or imaginary, and similar ideas. In these cases, we use past tenses and *would* to 'distance' our language from reality.

2 *if* + past; *would* + infinitive without *to*

To talk about unreal or improbable situations now or in the future, we use a past tense in the *if*-clause (even though the meaning is present or future), and ***would*** + **infinitive** (without *to*) in the other part of the sentence.

*If I **knew** her name, I **would tell** you.* (NOT ~~*If I know*~~...)
(NOT ~~*If I would know*~~...) (NOT ...~~*I will tell you.*~~)
*She **would be** perfectly happy if she **had** a car.*
*What **would** you **do** if you **lost** your job?*

This structure can make suggestions sound less definite, and so more polite.

*It **would be** nice if you **helped** me a bit with the housework.*
*Would it be all right if I **came** round about seven tomorrow?*

3 *would, should* and *'d*

After *I* and *we*, *should* can be used with the same meaning as *would*. (*Would* is more common in modern English; *should* is rare in AmE.)

*If I **knew** her name, I **should tell** you.*
*If I **married** you, we **should** both be unhappy.*

We use *'d* as a contraction (see 143).

We'd get up earlier if there was a good reason to.

For *I should* ... meaning 'I advise you to ...', see 264.2.
For *would* in the *if*-clause, see 262.
For *should* in the *if*-clause, see 261.1.

4 *if I were* etc

We often use *were* instead of *was* after *if*. This is common in both formal and informal styles. In a formal style *were* is more common than *was*, and many people consider it more correct, especially in American English. The grammatical name for this use of *were* is 'subjunctive' (see 567).

*If I **were** rich, I **would spend** all my time travelling.*
*If my nose **were** a little shorter I'd be quite pretty.*

For the expression *If I were you* ..., see 264.

5 ordinary tense-use or special tense-use? *If I come* or *if I came*?

The difference between, for example, *if I come* and *if I came* is not necessarily a difference of time. They can both refer to the future; but the past tense suggests that a future situation is impossible, imaginary or less probable. Compare:

- *If I **become** President, I'll* ... (said by a candidate in an election)
  *If I **became** President, I'd* ... (said by a schoolboy)
- *If I **win** this race, I'll* ... (said by the fastest runner)
  *If I **won** this race, I'd* ... (said by the slowest runner)
- *Will it be all right if I **bring** a friend?* (direct request)
  *Would it be all right if I **brought** a friend?* (less direct, more polite)

6 *could* and *might*

We can use *could* to mean 'would be able to' and *might* to mean 'would perhaps' or 'would possibly'. ▸

*If I had another £500, I **could** buy a car.*
*If you asked me nicely, I **might** get you a drink.*

For other cases where a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.
For *if only*, see 265.

259 if (4): unreal past situations

If you had worked harder, you would have passed your exam.

1 *if* + past perfect; *would have* + past participle

To talk about past situations that did not happen, we use a past perfect tense in the *if*-clause, and *would have* + past participle in the other part of the sentence.

*If you **had asked** me, I **would have told** you.*
(NOT ~~*If you would have asked me*~~ . . .)
(NOT ~~*If you asked me*~~ . . .) (NOT . . . ~~*I had told you.*~~)
*If you **had worked** harder, you **would have passed** your exam.*
*I'd **have been** in bad trouble if Jane **hadn't helped** me.*

2 *could have* . . . and *might have* . . .

We can use *could have* + past participle to mean 'would have been able to . . .', and *might have* + past participle to mean 'would perhaps have . . . ' or 'would possibly have . . .'.

*If he'd run a bit faster, he **could have won**.*
*If I hadn't been so tired, I **might have realised** what was happening.*

3 present use: situations that are no longer possible

We sometimes use structures with *would have* . . . to talk about present and future situations which are no longer possible because of the way things have turned out.

*It **would have been** nice to go to Australia this winter, but there's no way we can do it.* (OR *It would be nice* . . .)
*If my mother hadn't knocked my father off his bicycle thirty years ago, I **wouldn't have been** here now.* (OR . . . *I wouldn't be here now.*)

260 if (5): if . . . will

I'll give you £100 if it will help you to go on holiday.
If Ann won't be here, we'd better cancel the meeting.
I don't know if I'll be ready in time.
If you will come this way . . .
If you will eat so much . . .

We normally use a present tense with *if* (and most other conjunctions) to refer to the future (see 580).

*I'll phone you if I **have** time.* (NOT . . . ~~*if I will have time.*~~)

But in certain situations we use *if* . . . *will*.

1 results

We use *will* with *if* to talk about what will happen because of possible future actions – to mean 'if this will be the later result'. Compare:

– *I'll give you £100 if I **win** the lottery.* (Winning the lottery is a condition – it must happen first.)
  *I'll give you £100 if it'll **help** you to go on holiday.* (The holiday is a result – it follows the gift of money.)
– *We'll go home now if you **get** the car.* (condition)
  *We'll go home now if it **will make** you feel better.* (result)

2 'If it is true now that ...'

We use *will* with *if* when we are saying 'if it is true now that ...' or 'if we know now that ...'.

*If Ann **won't** be here on Thursday, we'd better cancel the meeting.*
*If prices **will** really come down in a few months, I'm not going to buy one now.*

3 indirect questions: *I don't know if ...*

We can use *will* after *if* in indirect questions (see 276).

I don't know if I'll be ready in time. (NOT ... ~~*if I'm ready in time.*~~)

4 polite requests

We can use *if* + *will* in polite requests. In this case, *will* is not a future auxiliary; it means 'are willing to' (see 629.4).

*If you **will** come this way, I'll show you your room.*
*If your mother **will** fill in this form, I'll prepare her ticket.*

Would can be used to make a request even more polite.

*If you **would** come this way ...*

5 insistence

Stressed *will* can be used after *if* to suggest insistence.

If you WILL eat so much, it's not surprising you feel ill.

261 if (6): other points

1 *if ... should; if ... happen to*

We can suggest that something is unlikely, or not particularly probable, by using *should* (not *would*) in the *if*-clause.

*If you **should** run into Peter, tell him he owes me a letter.*

If ... happen to has a similar meaning.

*If you **happen** to pass a supermarket, perhaps you could get some eggs.*

Should and *happen to* can be used together.

*If you **should happen** to finish early, give me a ring.*

Would is not common in the main clause in these structures.

*If he **should** be late, we'll have to start without him.*
(NOT ... ~~*we'd have to start without him.*~~)

2 *if . . . was/were to*

This is another way of talking about unreal or imaginary future events.

If the boss was/were to come in now, we'd be in real trouble.
(= If the boss came . . .)

What would we do if I was/were to lose my job?

It can be used to make a suggestion sound less direct, and so more polite.

If you were to move your chair a bit, we could all sit down.

This structure is not normally used with verbs like *be* or *know*, which refer to continuing situations.

If I knew her name . . . (NOT ~~*If I were to know her name*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *was* and *were* after *if*, see 258.4.

3 *if it was/were not for*

This structure is used to say that one event or situation changes everything.

If it wasn't/weren't for his wife's money he'd never be a director.
(= Without his wife's money . . .)

If it wasn't/weren't for the children, we could go skiing next week.

To talk about the past we use *If it had not been for.*

If it hadn't been for your help, I don't know what I'd have done.

But for can be used to mean 'if it were not for' or 'if it had not been for'.

But for your help, I don't know what I'd have done.

4 leaving out *if*: conversational

If is sometimes left out at the beginning of a sentence in a conversational style, especially when the speaker is making conditions or threats.

You want to get in, you pay like everybody else. (= If you want . . .)

You touch me again, I'll kick your teeth in.

5 leaving out *if*: formal inversion-structures

In formal and literary styles, *if* can be dropped and an auxiliary verb put before the subject. This happens mostly with *were, had* and *should.*

Were she my daughter, . . . (= If she were my daughter . . .)

Had I realised what you intended, . . . (= If I had realised . . .)

Should you change your mind, . . . (= If you should change . . .)

Negatives are not contracted.

Had we not missed the plane, we would all have been killed in the crash.
(NOT ~~*Hadn't we missed*~~ . . .)

For other uses of inverted word order, see 302–303.

6 leaving out words after *if*

We sometimes leave out **subject + *be*** after *if*. Note the common fixed expressions *if necessary, if any, if anything, if ever, if in doubt.*

I'll work late tonight if necessary. (= . . . if it is necessary)

There is little if any good evidence for flying saucers.

I'm not angry. If anything, I feel a little surprised.

He seldom if ever travels abroad.

If in doubt, ask for help. (= If you are in doubt . . .)

If about to go on a long journey, try to have a good night's sleep.

For more details of ellipsis (structures with words left out), see 177–182.

7 *if so* and *if not*

After *if*, we can use *so* and *not* instead of repeating a whole clause.

Are you free? If so, let's go out for a meal. (= . . . If you are free . . .)

I might see you tomorrow. If not, then it'll be Saturday. (= . . . If I don't see you tomorrow . . .)

8 extra negative

An extra *not* is sometimes put into *if*-clauses after expressions suggesting doubt or uncertainty.

I wonder if we shouldn't ask the doctor to look at Mary.
(= I wonder if we should ask . . .)

I wouldn't be surprised if she didn't get married soon.
(= . . . if she got married soon.)

9 *if . . . then*

We sometimes construct sentences with *if . . . then* to emphasise that one thing depends on another.

If she can't come to us, then we'll have to go and see her.

10 *if* meaning 'even if'

We can use *if* to mean 'even if' (see 189.4).

I'll finish this job if it takes all night.

I wouldn't marry you if you were the last man in the world.

11 admitting facts with *if*

An *if*-clause can be used to admit a fact when giving a reason for it.

If I'm a bit sleepy, it's because I was up all night.

12 *if* meaning 'I'm saying this in case'

If-clauses are quite often used to explain the purpose of a remark – to suggest 'I'm saying this in case . . .'

There's some steak in the fridge if you're hungry.

If you want to go home, Anne's got your car keys.

13 *if* meaning 'although'

In a formal style, *if* can be used with a similar meaning to *although*. This is common in the structure *if* + **adjective** (with no verb). *If* is not as definite as *although*; it can suggest that what is being talked about is a matter of opinion, or not very important.

His style, if simple, is pleasant to read.

The profits, if a little lower than last year's, are still extremely healthy.

The same kind of idea can be expressed with *may . . . but* (see 342).

His style may be simple, but it is pleasant to read.

262 if (7): other structures found in spoken English

1 *would* in both clauses

Conditional *would* is sometimes used in both clauses of an *if*-sentence. This is very informal, and is not usually written. It is common in spoken American English.

*It **would** be good if we'd get some rain.*
*How **would** we feel if this **would** happen to our family?*

For *if . . . would* in polite requests, see 260.4.

2 *'d have . . . 'd have*

In informal spoken English, *if*-clauses referring to the past are sometimes constructed with *'d have*. This is frequently considered incorrect, but happens quite often in educated people's speech. It is not normally written.

*If I'd **have** known, I'd have told you.*
*It would have been funny if she'd **have** recognised him.*

3 *had've* and *would've*

Instead of the contracted *'d* in these structures, full forms are sometimes used for emphasis or in negatives. Both *had* and *would* occur. The following are genuine examples taken from conversation.

*I didn't know. But if I **had've** known . . .*
*We would never have met if he **hadn't have** crashed into my car.*
*If I **would've** had a gun, somebody might have got hurt.*
*If you **wouldn't have** phoned her we'd never have found out what was happening.*

4 mixed tenses

Sometimes a simple past tense is used with *if* where a past perfect would be normal. This is more common in American English.

*If I **knew** you were coming I'd have baked a cake.*
*If I **had** the money with me I would have bought you one.*
*If I **didn't have** my walking boots on I think I would have really hurt my foot.*

263 if (8): other words with the same meaning

Many words and expressions can be used with a similar meaning to *if*, and often with similar structures. Some of the commonest are *imagine (that)*, *suppose (that)*, *supposing (that)* (used to talk about what might happen), and *providing (that)*, *provided (that)*, *as/so long as*, *on condition (that)* (used to make conditions).

Imagine we could all fly. Wouldn't that be fun!
Supposing you'd missed the train. What would you have done?
*You can borrow my bike **providing/provided** you bring it back.*
*I'll give you the day off **on condition that** you work on Saturday morning.*
*You're welcome to stay with us **as/so long as** you share the expenses.*

For suggestions with *suppose*, *supposing* and *what if*, see 571.

264 if I were you

1 advice

We often use the structure *If I were you* ... to give advice.

I shouldn't worry if I were you.
If I were you, I'd get that car serviced.

If I was you is also possible. Some people consider it incorrect (see 258.4).

2 *I should/would* ...

Sometimes we leave out *If I were you,* and just use *I should* ... or *I would* ... to give advice.

I shouldn't worry. *I would get that car serviced.*

In this case, *I should/would* is similar to *you should/would.*

265 if only

We can use *If only* ...! to say that we would like things to be different. It means the same as *I wish* ... (see 630), but is more emphatic. The clause with *if only* often stands alone, without a main clause. Tense use is as follows:

a past to talk about the present

If only I knew more people! *If only I was better-looking!*

We can use *were* instead of *was* (see 258.4).

If only your father were here!

b *would* + infinitive (without *to*) to talk about the future

If only it would stop raining, we could go out.
If only somebody would smile!

c past perfect to talk about the past

If only she hadn't told the police, everything would have been all right.

266 ill and sick

Ill and *sick* are both used to mean 'unwell'. (In American English *ill* is less usual except in a formal style.)

George didn't come in last week because he was ill/sick.

Ill is not very common before a noun.

I'm looking after my sick mother. (More normal than ... *my ill mother.*)

Be sick can meant 'vomit' (= bring food up from the stomach).

I was sick three times in the night.

267 immediately, the moment etc: conjunctions

In British English, *immediately* and *directly* can be used as conjunctions, to mean 'as soon as'.

*Tell me **immediately** you have any news.*
*I knew something was wrong **immediately** I arrived.*
Directly I walked in the door, I smelt smoke.

The moment (that), the instant (that), the second (that) and *the minute (that)* can be used in the same way (in both British and American English).

Telephone me the moment (that) you get the results.
I loved you the instant (that) I saw you.

268 imperatives

1 forms and use

In sentences like *Come here, Be quiet, Have a drink* or *Don't worry about it*, the verb forms *come, be, have* and *don't worry* are called 'imperatives'. Affirmative imperatives have the same form as the infinitive without *to*; negative imperatives are constructed with *do not* (*don't*).

Imperatives are used, for example, to tell or ask people to do things, to make suggestions, to give advice or instructions, to encourage and offer, and to express wishes for people's welfare.

Look in the mirror before you drive off.
Please do not lean out of the window.
Tell him you're not free this evening.
Try again – you nearly did it.
Have some more tea.
Enjoy your holiday.

An imperative followed by *and* or *or* can mean the same as an *if*-clause.

Walk down our street any day and you'll see kids playing.
(= If you walk ...)
Shut up or I'll lose my temper. (= If you don't shut up ...)
Don't do that again or you'll be in trouble.

2 emphatic imperative: *Do sit down*

We can make an emphatic imperative with *do*.

Do sit down. *Do be more careful.* *Do forgive me.*

3 passive imperative: *get vaccinated*

To tell people to arrange for things to be done to them, we often use *get* + past participle.

Get vaccinated as soon as you can.

For more about *get* as passive auxiliary, see 223.5.

4 *do(n't) be*

Although *do* is not normally used as an auxiliary with *be* (see 90), this happens in negative imperatives.

Don't be silly!

Do be can begin emphatic imperatives.

Do be quiet!

5 subject with imperative

The imperative does not usually have a subject, but we can use a noun or pronoun to make it clear who we are speaking to.

Mary come here – everybody else stay where you are.

Somebody answer the phone. *Relax, everybody.*

You before an imperative can suggest emphatic persuasion or anger.

You just sit down and relax for a bit. *You take your hands off me!*

Note the word order in negative imperatives with pronoun subjects.

Don't you believe it. (NOT ~~*You don't believe it.*~~)

Don't anybody say a word. (NOT ~~*Anybody don't say*~~ . . .)

6 question tags

After imperatives, common question tags (see 487–488) are *will you? would you? can you?* and *could you?*

Give me a hand, will you?

Wait here for a minute, would you?

Get me something to drink, can you?

Can't you and *won't you* are more emphatic.

Be quiet, can't you? *Sit down, won't you?*

After negative imperatives, *will you?* is used.

Don't tell anybody, will you?

7 word order with *always* and *never*

Always and *never* come before imperatives.

Always remember what I told you. (NOT ~~*Remember always*~~ . . .)

Never speak to me like that again.

8 *let*

English does not have a first-person imperative (used to suggest that 'I' or 'we' should do something) or a third-person imperative (for other people, not the hearer). These ideas are often expressed by a structure with *let*.

Let me see. Do I need to go shopping today? *Let's go home.*

Let him wait.

For more details of this structure, see 323.

269 in and into, on and onto: prepositions

1 position and direction

We generally use *in* and *on* to talk about the positions of things – where they are; and *into* and *onto* to talk about directions and destinations – where things are going. Compare: ▸

– *A moment later the ball was **in** the goal.*
*The ball rolled slowly **into** the goal.* (NOT ... ~~*rolled slowly in the goal.*~~)
– *She was walking **in** the garden.* – *The cat's **on** the roof again.*
*Then she walked **into** the house.* *How does it get **onto** the roof?*

Note that *into* and *onto* are normally written as single words. *On to* is also possible in British English.

2 *in* and *on* for movement

After some verbs (e.g. *throw, jump, push, put, fall*) we can use both *in* and *into*, or *on* and *onto*, to talk about directional movement. We prefer *into/onto* when we think of the movement itself, and *in/on* when we think more of the end of the movement – the place where somebody or something will be. Compare:
– *The children keep jumping **into** the flowerbeds.*
*Go and jump **in** the river.*
– *In the experiment, we put glowing magnesium **into** jars of oxygen.*
*Could you put the ham **in** the fridge?*
– *He was trying to throw his hat **onto** the roof*
*Throw another log **on** the fire.*

We use *in* and *on* after *sit down* and *arrive*.
*He sat down **in** the armchair, and I sat down **on** the floor.* (NOT ~~*He sat down into*~~... OR ~~*I sat down onto*~~...)
*We arrive **in** Athens at midday.* (NOT USUALLY *We arrive into Athens* ...)

For *arrive at* ..., see 81.

3 *into* for change

We normally use *into* after verbs suggesting change.
*When she kissed the frog, it **changed into** a handsome prince.*
(NOT ... ~~*changed in a handsome prince.*~~)
*Can you **translate** this **into** Chinese?* (NOT ... ~~*translate this in Chinese?*~~)

Cut can be followed by *into* or *in*.
*Cut the onion **in(to)** small pieces.*

And note the expression *in half*.
*I broke it **in half**.* (NOT ... ~~*into half.*~~)

4 *in* and *on* as adverbs

In and *on* are used as adverbs for both position and movement.
*I stayed **in** last night.* *Come **in**!* (NOT ~~*Come into!*~~)
*What have you got **on**?* *Put your coat **on**.*

For the difference between *in* and *to*, see 270.

270 in and to

1 *go to school in ...* etc

After expressions like *go to school, go to work*, we use *in*, not *to*, to say where the school, work etc is located.
*He went to school **in** Bristol.* (NOT ~~*He went to school to Bristol.*~~)

At is also possible. (For the difference between *in* and *at*, see 81.)
She went to university at/in Oxford.

2 *arrive* etc

We use *in* (or *at*), not *to*, after *arrive* and *land*.

We arrive in Bangkok on Tuesday morning. (NOT ~~*We arrive to Bangkok*~~...)

What time do we land at Barcelona? (NOT ...~~*land to Barcelona?*~~)

271 in case and if

1 precautions

In case is mostly used to talk about precautions – things which we do in order to be ready for possible future situations.

I always take an umbrella in case it rains. (= ... because it might rain.)

To talk about the future, we use a present tense after *in case* (see 580).

I've bought a chicken in case your mother stays to lunch. (NOT ...~~*in case your mother will stay*~~...)

2 *in case ... should*

We often use ***should*** + infinitive (with a similar meaning to *might*) after *in case*. This adds the meaning 'by chance'.

I've bought a chicken in case your mother should stay to lunch.

This structure is especially common in sentences about the past.

I wrote down her address in case I should forget it.

The meaning 'by chance' can also be expressed by *(should) happen to.*

We took our swimming things in case we happened to find a pool.
(OR ... *in case we should happen to find a pool.*)

3 *in case* and *if*

In case and *if* are normally used in quite different ways.

'Do A *in case* B happens' means 'Do A (first) because B might happen later'.

'Do A *if* B happens' means 'Do A if B has already happened'. Compare:

- *Let's buy a bottle of wine in case Roger comes.*
  (= Let's buy some wine now because Roger might come later.)
  Let's buy a bottle of wine if Roger comes. (= We'll wait and see. If Roger comes, then we'll buy the wine. If he doesn't we won't.)
- *I'm taking an umbrella in case it rains.*
  I'll open the umbrella if it rains. (NOT ~~*I'll open the umbrella in case it rains.*~~)
- *People insure their houses in case they catch fire.* (NOT ...~~*if they catch fire.*~~)
  People telephone the fire brigade if their houses catch fire. (NOT ...~~*telephone*~~ ...~~*in case their houses catch fire.*~~)

4 *in case of*

The prepositional phrase *in case of* has a wider meaning than the conjunction *in case*, and can be used in similar situations to *if*.

In case of fire, break glass. (= If there is a fire ...)

272 in spite of

In spite of is used as a preposition. ***In spite of*** + **noun** means more or less the same as ***although*** + **clause**.

*We went out **in spite of** the rain.* (= ... although it was raining.)
*We understood him **in spite of** his accent.*
(= ... although he had a strong accent.)

In spite of is the opposite of *because of*. Compare:

*She passed her exams **in spite of** her teacher.* (She had a bad teacher.)
*She passed her exams **because of** her teacher.* (She had a good teacher.)

In spite of can be followed by an *-ing* form.

***In spite of having** a headache I enjoyed the film.*

In spite of cannot be followed directly by a *that*-clause. Instead, we can use *in spite of the fact that*.

*He is good company, **in spite of the fact that** he talks all the time.*

This is rather heavy: *although* means the same, and is more common.
In more formal English, *despite* can be used in the same way as *in spite of*.

273 indeed

1 *very ... indeed*

Indeed is often used to emphasise *very* with an adjective or adverb.

*I was **very pleased indeed** to hear from you.*
*He was driving **very fast indeed**.* *Thank you **very much indeed**.*

Indeed is unusual in this sense without *very*, and is not normally used after *extremely* or *quite*.

(NOT ~~*He was driving fast indeed*~~.)
(NOT ~~*He was driving quite/extremely fast indeed*~~.)

2 *indeed* with verb

Indeed can also be used after *be* or an auxiliary verb in order to suggest confirmation or emphatic agreement. This is rather formal. It is common in short answers (see 517).

*We are **indeed** interested in your offer, and would be glad to have prices.*
*It's cold. ~ It is **indeed**.*
*Henry made a fool of himself. ~ He did **indeed**.*

274 indirect speech (1): introduction

1 direct and indirect speech

When we report people's words, thoughts, beliefs etc, we can give the exact words (more or less) that were said, or that we imagine were thought. This kind of structure is called 'direct speech' (though it is used for reporting thoughts as well as speech).

*So he said, **'I want to go home,'** and just walked out.*
*She asked **'What do you want?'***
*And then I thought, **'Well, does he really mean it?'***

We can also make somebody's words or thoughts part of our own sentence, using conjunctions (e.g. *that*), and changing pronouns, tenses and other words where necessary. This kind of structure is called 'indirect speech' or 'reported speech'.

So he said that he wanted to go home, and just walked out.
She asked what I wanted.
And then I wondered whether he really meant it.

These two structures cannot normally be mixed.

She said to me 'I have got no money'. OR *She said to me that she had got no money.* BUT NOT ~~*She said to me that I have got no money.*~~

For punctuation in direct speech, see 476, 478.
For reporting verbs and word order, see 156.

2 change of situation

Words that are spoken or thought in one place by one person may be reported in another place at a different time, and perhaps by another person. Because of this, there are often grammatical differences between direct and indirect speech. For example:

BILL (on Saturday evening): *I don't like this party. I want to go home now.*
PETER (on Sunday morning): *Bill said that he didn't like the party, and he wanted to go home.*

These differences are mostly natural and logical, and it is not necessary to learn complicated rules about indirect speech in English.

3 pronouns

A change of speaker may mean a change of pronoun.
In the above example, Bill says *I* to refer to himself. Peter, talking about what Bill said, naturally uses *he*.

Bill said that he didn't like . . . (NOT ~~*Bill said that I didn't like*~~ . . .)

4 'here and now' words

A change of place and time may mean changing or dropping words like *here, this, now, today*. Peter, reporting what Bill said, does not use *this* and *now* because he is no longer at the party.

Bill said that he didn't like the party . . .
(NOT ~~*Bill said that he didn't like this party*~~ . . .)
. . . *he wanted to go home.* (NOT . . . ~~*to go home now.*~~)

Some other 'here and now' words: *next, last, yesterday, tomorrow*. Compare:

- DIRECT: *I'll be back next week* .
  INDIRECT: *She said she'd be back the next week, but I never saw her again.*
- DIRECT: *Ann got her licence last Tuesday.*
  INDIRECT: *He said Ann had got her licence the Tuesday before.*
- DIRECT: *I had an accident yesterday.*
  INDIRECT: *He said he'd had an accident the day before.*
- DIRECT: *We'll be there tomorrow.*
  INDIRECT: *They promised to be there the next day.* ▸

5 tenses

A change of time may mean a change of tense.

Bill said that he didn't like the party ... (NOT ~~*Bill said that he doesn't like the party*~~ ... – when Peter is talking, the party is finished.)

For details of tense changes in indirect speech, see 275.

6 dropping *that*

The conjunction *that* is often dropped, especially after common reporting verbs (e.g. *say, think*) in informal speech. For more details, see 584.

She said (that) she'd had enough. *I think (that) you're probably right.*

275 indirect speech (2): tenses

1 past reporting verbs: *He said he didn't like the party.*

When we report what somebody said or thought, it is usually natural to use different tenses from the original speaker (because we are talking at a different time).

BILL (on Saturday evening): *I don't like this party. I want to go home now.* (present tenses)

PETER (on Sunday morning): *Bill said that he didn't like the party, and he wanted to go home.* (past tenses)

It would be strange for Peter to say on Sunday *'Bill said that he doesn't like the party'*, just as it would be strange for Peter to say, on Sunday, *'Bill doesn't like the party yesterday and goes home'*. The tenses used in indirect speech are usually just the tenses that are natural for the situation – see the examples below.

2 typical tense changes after past reporting verbs

will → would

DIRECT: *The exam will be difficult.*

INDIRECT: *They said that the exam would be difficult.*

simple present → simple past

DIRECT: *I need help.*

INDIRECT: *She thought she needed help.*

present progressive → past progressive

DIRECT: *My English is getting better.*

INDIRECT: *I knew my English was getting better.*

present perfect → past perfect

DIRECT: *This has been a wonderful holiday.*

INDIRECT: *She told me that it had been a wonderful holiday.*

past → past perfect

DIRECT: *Ann grew up in Kenya.*

INDIRECT: *I found out that Ann had grown up in Kenya.*

can → could

DIRECT: *I can fly!*

INDIRECT: *Poor chap – he thought he could fly.*

may → might

DIRECT: *We **may** come back early.*

INDIRECT: *They said they **might** come back early.*

Past perfect tenses do not change.

DIRECT: *I arrived late because I **had lost** the address.*

INDIRECT: *He said he had arrived late because he **had lost** the address.*

3 *would, could* etc: no change

Past modal verbs are usually unchanged in indirect speech.

DIRECT: *It **would** be nice if we **could** meet.*

INDIRECT: *He said it **would** be nice if we **could** meet.*

For more details, see 278.3.

4 *I told them I was British*

After past reporting verbs, we usually change the original tenses even if the things the original speaker said are still true.

– DIRECT: *I'm British.*

INDIRECT: *I told the police I was British.* (The speaker still is British.)

– DIRECT: *You **can** use my car today.*

INDIRECT: *Your mother said I **could** use her car today. Have you got the keys?*

– DIRECT: *How old **are** you?*

INDIRECT: *Didn't you hear me? I asked how old you **were**.*

– DIRECT: *That **is** my seat.*

INDIRECT: *Sorry, I didn't realise this was your seat.*

However, it is often also possible to keep the original speaker's tenses in these cases.

*Didn't you hear me? I asked how old you **are**.*

For details, see 278.2.

5 *He says, I'll tell her* etc.

After present, future and present perfect reporting verbs, tenses are usually the same as in the original (because there is no important change of time).

– DIRECT: *I **don't** want to play any more.*

INDIRECT: *He says he **doesn't** want to play any more.*

– DIRECT: *We **need** some help..*

INDIRECT: *I'll tell her you **need** some help.*

– DIRECT: *Taxes **will** be raised.*

INDIRECT: *The government has announced that taxes **will** be raised.*

276 indirect speech (3): questions and answers

1 word order: *I asked where Alice was*

In reported questions the subject normally comes before the verb in standard English, and auxiliary *do* is not used.

– DIRECT: *Where's Alice?*

INDIRECT: *I asked **where Alice was**.* (NOT . . . ~~*where was Alice?*~~) ▸

– DIRECT: *When are you leaving?*
INDIRECT: *He wanted to know **when I was leaving**.* (NOT ... ~~*when was I leaving.*~~)
– DIRECT: *What do I need?*
INDIRECT: *She asked **what she needed**.* (NOT ... ~~*what did she need.*~~)
– DIRECT: *Where are the President and his wife staying?*
INDIRECT: *I asked **where the President and his wife were staying**.* (NOT ~~*Where were staying*~~ ...)

The same structure is used for reporting the answers to questions.
*I knew **how they felt**.* (NOT ... ~~*how did they feel.*~~)
*Nobody told me **why I had to sign the paper**.* (NOT ... ~~*why did I have to sign*~~ ...)

2 no question marks

Question marks are not used in reported questions.
*We asked **where the money was**.* (NOT ... ~~*where the money was?*~~)

3 *yes/no* questions: *He asked if ...*

Yes/no questions are reported with *if* or *whether* (for the difference, see 621).
*The driver asked **if/whether I wanted the town centre**.*
*I don't know **if/whether I can help you**.*

In reported questions, we do not use a present tense after *if* to talk about the future.
*I'm not sure **if I'll see her tomorrow**.* (NOT ... ~~*if I see her tomorrow.*~~)

4 *say* and *tell*: answers, not questions

Say and *tell* are not used to report questions.
(NOT ~~*The driver said whether I wanted the town centre.*~~)

But *say* and *tell* can introduce the answers to questions.
*Please **say whether you want the town centre**.*
*He never **says where he's going**.* *I **told her what time it was**.*

For the difference between *say* and *tell*, see 504.

277 indirect speech (4): infinitives

1 *He promised to write*

Speech relating to actions (e.g. promises, agreements, orders, offers, requests, advice and suggestions) is often reported with infinitives.
*He promised **to write**.* *She agreed **to wait** for me.*
*Ann has offered **to baby-sit** tonight.*

Object + infinitive is common with *ask*, *advise*, *tell* and *order* (but not with *promise* or *offer*).
*I told **Andrew to be** careful.*
*The landlady has asked **us to be** quiet after nine o'clock.*
*I advise **you to think** again before you decide.*
*The policeman told **me not to park** there.*

2 *He asked her how to ...*

The structure **question word + infinitive** is common (see 286). It often corresponds to a direct question with *should*.

He asked her how to make a white sauce. ('How should I make a white sauce?')

Don't tell me what to do. *I've forgotten where to put the keys.*

I didn't know whether to laugh or cry.

3 *suggest, say*: infinitives not used

We do not use infinitive structures after *suggest* (see 570) or (usually) after *say*. However, after these and many other verbs, instructions etc can be reported with *that*-clauses, usually with modal verbs (see 353–354).

I suggested that he should try the main car park. (NOT ~~*I suggested him to try* ...~~)

The policeman said that I mustn't park there. (NOT ~~*The policemen said me not to park there.*~~)

I told Andrew that he ought to be careful.

Subjunctives (see 567) and *-ing* forms are also possible after some verbs, e.g. *suggest*.

I suggested that he try the main car park.

I suggested trying the main car park.

For the structures that are possible after particular verbs, see a good dictionary.

278 indirect speech (5): advanced points

1 reporting past tenses

In indirect speech, a speaker's past tenses are often reported using past perfect tenses.

– DIRECT: *I've just written to John.*
  INDIRECT: *She told me she had just written to John.*
– DIRECT: *I saw Penny at the theatre a couple of days ago.*
  INDIRECT: *In his letter, he said he'd seen Penny at the theatre a couple of days before.*

However, past perfect tenses are not always used, especially if the time relationships are clear without a change from past to past perfect.

This man on TV said that dinosaurs were around for 250 million years. (NOT ... ~~*that dinosaurs had been around*~~ ...)

I told you John (had) phoned this morning, didn't I?

We were glad to hear you (had) enjoyed your trip to Denmark.

2 reporting present and future tenses

If somebody talked about a situation that has still not changed – that is to say, if the original speaker's present and future are still present and future – a reporter can often choose whether to keep the original speaker's tenses or to change them, after a past reporting verb. Both structures are common.

– DIRECT: *The earth goes round the sun.*
  INDIRECT: *He proved that the earth goes/went round the sun.* ▸

– DIRECT: *How old are you?*
INDIRECT: *Are you deaf? I asked how old you are/were.*
– DIRECT: *It will be windy tomorrow.*
INDIRECT: *The forecast said it will/would be windy tomorrow.*

We are more likely to change the original speaker's tenses if we do not agree with what he/she said, if we are not certain of its truth, or if we wish to make it clear that the information comes from the original speaker, not from ourselves.

The Greeks thought that the sun went round the earth. (NOT ... ~~*that the sun goes round the earth.*~~)
She just said she was fourteen! I don't believe her for a moment.
He announced that profits were higher than forecast.

3 modal verbs in indirect speech

The modals *would, should, could, might, ought* and *must* are usually unchanged after past reporting verbs in indirect speech. This is also true of *needn't* (see 366) and *had better* (see 230).

– DIRECT: *It would be nice if I could see you again.*
INDIRECT: *He said it would be nice if he could see me again.*
– DIRECT: *It might be too late.*
INDIRECT: *I was afraid that it might be too late.*
– DIRECT: *It must be pretty late. I really must go.*
INDIRECT: *She said it must be pretty late and she really must go.*
– DIRECT: *You needn't pretend to be sorry.*
INDIRECT: *I said he needn't pretend ...*

First-person *shall* and *should* may be reported as *would* in indirect speech (because of the change of person).

DIRECT: *We shall/should be delighted to come.*
INDIRECT: *They said they would be delighted to come.*

For *had to* as a past of *must*, see 358, 360.

4 reporting *'Shall I ...?'*

There are different ways of reporting questions beginning *Shall I ...?*, depending on whether the speaker is asking for information or making an offer.

– DIRECT: *Shall I be needed tomorrow?* (information)
INDIRECT: *He wants to know if he will be needed tomorrow.*
– DIRECT: *Shall I carry your bag?* (offer)
INDIRECT: *He wants to know if he should/can carry your bag.*

5 conditionals

After past reporting verbs, sentences with *if* and *would* are usually unchanged.

DIRECT: *It would be best if we started early.*
INDIRECT: *He said it would be best if they started early.*

However, *if*-sentences that refer to 'unreal' situations can change as follows.

DIRECT: *If I had any money I'd buy you a drink.*
INDIRECT: *She said if she had had any money she would have bought me a drink.* (OR *She said if she had any money she would buy ...*)

6 negative questions

Negative questions often express emotions such as surprise or enthusiasm (see 368), and these are usually reported in special ways.

– DIRECT: *Don't the children like ice-cream?*
INDIRECT: *She was surprised that the children didn't like ice-cream.* (NOT ~~*She asked if the children didn't like ice-cream.*~~)

– DIRECT: *Isn't she lovely!*
INDIRECT: *I remarked how lovely she was.* (NOT ~~*I asked if she wasn't lovely.*~~)

7 word order with *what, who* and *which*

Questions beginning ***who/what/which + be*** can ask for a subject or a complement. Compare:

Who is the best player here? (This asks for a subject: a possible answer is ***John** is the best player here.*)

What is the time? (This asks for a complement: a possible answer is *The time is 4.30,* NOT ~~*4.30 is the time.*~~)

When we report the first kind of question (where ***who/what/which + be*** asks for a subject), two word orders are possible.

– DIRECT: *Who's the best player here?*
INDIRECT: *She asked me who was the best player.*
She asked me who the best player was.

– DIRECT: *What's the matter?*
INDIRECT: *I asked what was the matter.*
I asked what the matter was.

– DIRECT: *Which is my seat?*
INDIRECT: *She wondered which was her seat.*
She wondered which her seat was.

This does not happen when *who/what/which* asks for a complement.

DIRECT: *What's the time?*
INDIRECT: *She asked what the time was.* (NOT USUALLY *She asked what was the time.*)

8 *She's written I don't know how many books*

Complicated structures can be produced in informal speech when reporting expressions are put into sentences with question-word clauses or relatives.

*She's written **I don't know how many books**.*
*He's gone **I don't know where**.*
*This is the man who **Ann said would tell us about the church**.*

For more about relative structures of this kind, see 498.15.
For more about embedding (clauses inside clauses) in general, see 515.

9 indirect speech without reporting verbs

In newspaper, radio and TV reports, reports of parliamentary debates, records of conferences, minutes of meetings etc, the indirect speech construction is often used with very few reporting verbs. The use of tenses is enough to make it clear that a text is a report. ▸

*The Managing Director began his address to the shareholders by summarising the results for the year. Profits on the whole **had been** high, though one or two areas **had been** disappointing. It was, however, important to maintain a high level of investment, and he **was** sure that the shareholders **would appreciate** ...*

In literary narrative, similar structures are common. The reported speech may be made more vivid by using direct question structures and 'here and now' words.

At breakfast, Peter refused to go to school. Why should he spend all his time sitting listening to idiots? What use was all that stuff anyway? If he stayed at home he could read books. He might even learn something useful. His father, as usual, was unsympathetic. Peter had to go to school, by damn, and he had better get moving now, or there'd be trouble.

279 infinitives (1): introduction

1 forms

Infinitives are forms like *(to) write, (to) stand.* Unlike verb tenses (e.g. *writes, stood*), infinitives do not usually show the actual times of actions or events. They usually refer to actions and events in a more general way, rather like *-ing* forms. (See 293–300).

Infinitives are generally used with *to*; for infinitives without *to*, see 281.

Besides simple infinitives like *(to) write*, there are also progressive infinitives (e.g. *(to) be writing*), perfect infinitives (e.g. *(to) have written*) and passive infinitives (e.g. *(to) be written*). For details of the various forms, see 280.

2 use

Infinitives have many functions. An infinitive can be used, for example, after *do* or a modal auxiliary verb as part of a verb phrase.

*Do you **think** she's ready?*
*We **must** get some more light bulbs.*

An infinitive can also be used, alone or with other words:

- as the subject or complement of a clause (see 290)
  *To **watch** him eating really gets on my nerves.*
  *The main thing is to **relax**.* *It's nice **to talk** to you.*
- as the object or complement of a verb, adjective or noun (see 282–285)
  *I don't **want to talk**. I'm **anxious to contact** your brother.*
  *You have the **right to remain** silent.*
- to express a person's purpose (see 289)
  *He came to London **to look** for work.*

For full details of the uses of infinitives, see the following sections.

280 infinitives (2): forms

Besides the ordinary infinitive (e.g. *(to) go, (to) work*), there are also progressive, perfect and passive forms.

1 progressive infinitive: *(to) be ...ing*

Like other progressive forms (see 470), progressive infinitives suggest that actions and events are / were / will be continuing around the time that we are talking about.

*It's nice to be **sitting** here with you.*
*I noticed that he seemed to be **smoking** a lot.*
*This time tomorrow I'll be **lying** on the beach.*
(future progressive tense: see 220)
*Why's she so late? She can't still be **working**.*

2 perfect infinitive: *(to) have* + past participle

Perfect infinitives can have the same kind of meaning as perfect tenses (see 427) or past tenses (see 421–422).

*It's nice to have **finished** work.* (= It's nice that I have finished.)
I'm sorry not to have come on Thursday. (= ... that I didn't come ...)

We often use perfect infinitives to talk about 'unreal' past events: things that did not happen, or that may not have happened (see 288).

*I meant to have **telephoned**, but I forgot.*
*You should have **told** me you were coming.*
*I may have **left** my umbrella at the restaurant.*

3 passive infinitive: *(to) be* + past participle

Passive infinitives have the same kind of meaning as other passive forms (see 412).

*There's a lot of work to be **done**.* *She ought to be **told** about it.*
*That window must be **repaired** before tonight.*

Sometimes active and passive infinitives can have similar meanings, especially after a noun or *be* (see 287).

*There's a lot of work to do / to be **done**.*

4 combinations

Perfect progressive and perfect passive infinitives are common.

*I'd like to have been **sitting** there when she walked in.*
*They were lucky – they could have been **killed**.*

Progressive passive infinitives are possible but unusual.

*What would you like to be doing right now? ~I'd like to be **being massaged**.*

Progressive perfect passive infinitives (e.g. *It must have been **being built** at the time*) are very unusual.

5 negative forms

Negative infinitives are normally made by putting *not* before the infinitive.

*Try **not to be** late.* (NOT USUALLY ~~*Try to not be late*~~. OR ~~*Try to don't be late*~~.)
*You were silly **not to have locked** your car.*
*He's very busy. I'm afraid he can't be **disturbed**.* ▸

6 *to*

The marker *to* is normally used before infinitives (e.g. *He wanted to go*). Note that this *to* is not a preposition; after the preposition *to* we use *-ing* forms (see 298.2). For infinitives without *to* (e.g. *She let him go*), see 281.

7 split infinitive

A 'split infinitive' is a structure in which *to* is separated from the rest of the infinitive by an adverb.

I'd like to really understand philosophy.
He began to slowly get up off the floor.

Split infinitive structures are quite common in English, especially in an informal style. Some people consider them incorrect or careless, and avoid them if possible by putting the adverb in another position.

He began slowly to get up off the floor.

For details of the use of infinitives, see the following sections.
For the use of *to* instead of a whole infinitive (e.g. *I'd like to*), see 182.

281 infinitives (3): without to

We usually put *to* before the infinitive (e.g. *I want to know, It's nice to see you*). But we use the infinitive without *to* in some cases.

1 after modal auxiliary verbs

After the modal auxiliary verbs *will, shall, would, should, can, could, may, might* and *must*, we use the infinitive without *to*.

I must go now. (NOT ~~*I must to go now.*~~)
Can you help me? *Do you think she might be joking?*
I would rather go alone. *She will probably be elected.*

We also use the infinitive without *to* after *had better* (see 230), and sometimes after *need* and *dare* (see 366, 151).

You'd better see what she wants.
She needn't do the washing up. *I daren't go out at night.*

The *to*-infinitive is used after *ought* (see 403).

2 after *let, make, hear* etc

Certain verbs are followed by **object + infinitive without *to***. They include *let, make, see, hear, feel, watch* and *notice*.

She lets her children stay up very late. (NOT ~~*She lets her children to stay*~~... OR ~~*She lets her children staying*~~...)
I made them give me the money back.
I didn't see you come in.
We both heard him say that I was leaving.
Did you feel the earth move?

Help can also be used in this way (see 244).

Could you help me (to) unload the car?

This structure is also possible with *have* (see 238) and *know* (see 313).

Have Mrs Hansen come in, please. (especially AmE)
I've never known him (to) pay for a drink.

In passive versions of these structures (with *make, see, hear, help* and *know*) the infinitive with *to* is used.

*He **was made to pay back** the money.*
*She **was heard to say** that she disagreed.*

For more information about structures with *let*, see 322. For *make*, see 335.
For more information about *see, hear, watch* etc + object + verb, see 242.
For verbs that are followed by object + *to*-infinitive, see 283.

3 after *why (not)*

We can introduce questions and suggestions with ***why (not)*** + **infinitive without** *to*. For more details, see 628.

***Why pay** more at other shops? We have the lowest prices.*
***Why stand up** if you can sit down? **Why sit down** if you can lie down?*
*You're looking tired. **Why not take** a holiday?*

4 after *and, or, except, but, than, as* and *like*

When two infinitive structures are joined by *and, or, except, but, than, as* or *like*, the second is often without *to*.

*I'd like to lie down **and go** to sleep.*
*Do you want to have lunch now **or wait** till later?*
*We had nothing to do **except look** at the cinema posters.*
*I'm ready to do anything **but work** on a farm.*
*It's easier to do it yourself **than explain** to somebody else how to do it.*
*It's as easy to smile **as frown**.*
*I have to feed the animals **as well as look** after the children.*
*Why don't you do something useful **like clean** the flat?*

Rather than is usually followed by an infinitive without *to*.

***Rather than wait** any more, I decided to go home by taxi.*

5 after *do*

Expressions like *All I did was, What I do is* etc can be followed by an infinitive without *to*.

***All I did was (to) give** him a little push.*
***What a fire-door does is (to) delay** the spread of a fire.*

282 infinitives (4): after verbs

After many non-auxiliary verbs, we can use the infinitives of other verbs.

*It's **beginning to rain**.*
*I don't **want to see** you again.*
*She **seems to be crying**.*
*I **expect to have finished** by tomorrow evening.*
*The car **needs to be cleaned**.*

▶

Common verbs that can be followed by infinitives (for more detailed entries on some of these, see Index):

afford	*begin*	*fail*	*intend*	*prefer*	*seem*
agree	*care*	*forget*	*learn*	*prepare*	*start*
appear	*choose*	*go on*	*like*	*pretend*	*swear*
arrange	*consent*	*happen*	*love*	*propose*	*trouble*
ask	*continue*	*hate*	*manage*	*promise*	*try*
attempt	*dare*	*help*	*mean*	*refuse*	*want*
(can't) bear	*decide*	*hesitate*	*neglect*	*regret*	*wish*
beg	*expect*	*hope*	*offer*	*remember*	

Some of these verbs can be followed by **object + infinitive** (e.g. ***I want her to be happy***). For details, see 283. A few verbs are followed by **verb + *for* + object + infinitive** (e.g. ***I arranged for her to have violin lessons***). For details of these, see 291.7.
After some verbs we can use not only an infinitive but also an *-ing* form (sometimes with a difference of meaning). For details, see 299.
After some verbs, it is not possible to use an infinitive. Many of these can be followed by *-ing* forms (see 296).
*I **enjoy sailing**.* (NOT ~~*I enjoy to sail.*~~)

For perfect infinitives after verbs, see 288.
For ***have*** **+ infinitive** (e.g. *I have to go now*), see 239.
For ***be*** **+ infinitive** (e.g. *You are to start tomorrow*), see 91.
For information about the structures that are possible with a particular verb, see a good dictionary.

283 infinitives (5): I want you to listen

Many verbs are followed by **object + infinitive**.
*I **want you to listen**.*
With some verbs (e.g. *want, allow*), a *that*-clause is impossible.
*She didn't **want me to go**.* (NOT ~~*She didn't want that I go.*~~)
*They don't **allow people to smoke**.* (NOT ~~*They don't allow that people smoke.*~~)
*I didn't **ask you to pay** for the meal.* (NOT ~~*I didn't ask that you pay for the meal.*~~)
Some common verbs that can be followed by **object + infinitive**:

advise	*forbid*	*love*	*request*
allow	*force*	*mean*	*teach*
ask	*get* (see also 223)	*need*	*tell*
(can't) bear	*hate*	*oblige*	*tempt*
beg	*help* (see also 244)	*order*	*trouble*
cause	*instruct*	*permit*	*want*
command	*intend*	*persuade*	*warn*
compel	*invite*	*prefer*	*wish* (see also 630)
encourage	*leave*	*recommend*	
expect	*like*	*remind*	

Let, make, see, hear, feel, watch, notice, have, and sometimes *know* and *help* are followed by object + infinitive without *to* (see 281).

*Why won't you **let me explain**?*
*I **heard her open the door and go out.***

Some verbs cannot be followed by **object + infinitive**; for example *suggest.*

*I **suggested that she should go home.*** (NOT ~~*I suggested her to go home.*~~)

Many of the verbs listed above can also be followed by other structures such as an *-ing* form or a *that*-clause. For complete information, see a good dictionary.

For passive structures with these verbs, see 418.
For verbs that are followed by *for* + **object + infinitive** (e.g. *I arranged for her to go early*), see 291.7
For **object + *to be* + complement** after verbs of thinking and feeling (e.g. *I considered him to be an excellent choice*), see 607.
For structures with *take* (e.g. *The ferry took two hours to unload*), see 576.

284 infinitives (6): after adjectives

1 reactions and feelings: *pleased to see you*

Infinitives are often used after adjectives describing reactions and feelings.

*I'm **pleased to see** you.*
*John was **surprised to get** Ann's letter.*
*She's **anxious to go** home.*
*We're **happy to be** here.*
*I was **shocked to see** how ill he was.*
*Most people are **afraid to hear** the truth about themselves.*

Not all adjectives of this kind are followed by infinitives. Some are followed by **preposition + *-ing* form** (see 297), or by *that*-clauses (see 19). Some adjectives (e.g. *afraid, sure*) can be followed by either an infinitive or an *-ing* form, often with a difference of meaning: for details, see 299.

For structures with *for* (e.g. *She's anxious for the children to go home*), see 291–293.

2 other adjectives: *certain to win*

Besides adjectives referring to reactions and feelings, many other adjectives can be followed by infinitives. Examples: *right, wrong, stupid, certain* (see 299.15), *welcome, careful, due, fit, able* (see 3), *likely* (see 327), *lucky.*

*We were **right to start** early.* *Be **careful not to wake** the children.*
*I was **stupid to believe** him.* *It's very **likely to rain**.*
*She's **certain to win**.* *You were **lucky not to be killed**.*
*You're **welcome to stay** as long as you like.*

For structures with preparatory *it* (e.g. *It is important to get enough sleep*), see 446.

3 superlatives etc: *the oldest athlete to win ...*

Superlatives can be followed by an infinitive structure. The meaning is similar to an identifying relative clause (see 495).

*He's **the oldest athlete ever to win** an Olympic gold medal.*
(= ... who has ever won ...)

This structure is also common with *first, second, third* etc, *next, last* and *only*.

*Who was the **first person to climb** Everest without oxygen?*

*The **next to arrive** was Mrs Patterson.*

*She's the **only scientist to have won** three Nobel prizes.*

This structure is only possible when the noun with the superlative has a subject relationship with the infinitive.

Is this the first time that you have stayed here?

(NOT . . . ~~*the first time for you to stay here.*~~ *Time* is not the subject of *stay*.)

4 *easy to please*

Some adjectives can be used with infinitives in a special structure, in which the subject of the clause is really the object of the infinitive. Examples are *easy, hard, difficult, impossible, good, ready*, and adjectives after *enough* and *too*.

*He's **easy to please**.*

(= *To please him is easy.* OR *It is easy to please him.*)

*Japanese is **difficult for Europeans to learn**.*

(= It is difficult for Europeans to learn Japanese.)

*His theory is **impossible to understand**.*

(= *It is impossible to understand his theory.*)

*Are these berries **good to eat**?* *The apples were **ripe enough to pick**.*

*The letters are **ready to sign**.* *The box was **too heavy to lift**.*

The structure often ends with a preposition (see 452).

*She's nice to talk **to**.* *He's very easy to get on **with**.*

*It's not a bad place to live **in**.*

There is no object pronoun after the infinitive or preposition in these cases.

*Cricket is not very interesting to **watch**.* (NOT ~~*Cricket is not very interesting to watch it.*~~)

*She's nice to talk **to**.* (NOT ~~*She's nice to talk to her.*~~)

When the adjective is before a noun, the infinitive is usually after the noun.

*It's **a good wine to keep**.* (NOT ~~*It's a good to keep wine.*~~)

Easy, difficult and *impossible* cannot be used in this structure when the subject of the clause is the subject of the following verb.

She has difficulty learning maths. (NOT ~~*She is difficult to learn maths.*~~)

Iron rusts easily. (NOT ~~*Iron is easy to rust.*~~)

This material can't possibly catch fire. (NOT ~~*This material is impossible to catch fire.*~~)

For more about *enough/too* + adjective + infinitive, see 187, 595.
For so + adjective + infinitive (e.g. *Would you be so kind as to help me?*), see 538.8.
For information about the structures that are possible with a particular adjective, see a good dictionary.

285 infinitives (7): after nouns and pronouns

1 nouns related to verbs: *no wish to change*

We can use infinitives after some nouns which are related to verbs that can be followed by infinitives (e.g. *wish, decide, need*).

*I have no **wish to change**.* (= I do not wish to change.)

*I told her about my **decision to leave**.* (= I told her that I had decided to leave.)

Is there any need to ask Joyce? (= Do we need to ask Joyce?)
Not all nouns can be followed by infinitives in this way.
I hate the thought of getting old. (NOT ... ~~*the thought to get old.*~~)
And note that not all related verbs and nouns are followed by the same structures. Compare:

- *I hope to arrive.*
  There's no hope of arriving.
- *I do not intend to return.*
  I have no intention of returning.
- *She prefers to live alone.*
  I understand her preference for living alone.

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular noun. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 nouns related to adjectives: *You were a fool to agree*

We can also use infinitives after some nouns which are related to adjectives, or which have an adjectival sense.
You were a fool to agree. (= You were foolish to agree.)
What a nuisance to have to go! (= How annoying to have to go!)
It's a pleasure to see you again. (= It's pleasant to see you again.)

3 purpose: *a key to open the door*

An infinitive can be used after a noun, or an indefinite pronoun like *something*, to explain the purpose of a particular thing: what it does, or what somebody does with it. The noun or pronoun can be the subject of the infinitive.
Have you got a key to open this door? (The key will open the door.)
It was a war to end all wars.
I'd like something to stop my toothache.
The noun or pronoun can also be the object of the infinitive.
I need some more books to read. (I will read the books.)
Is there any milk to put on the cornflakes?
Did you tell her which bus to take? *Is there anything to drink?*
If the noun or pronoun is the object of the infinitive, we do not add an object pronoun after the infinitive.
I gave her a paper to read. (NOT ... ~~*a paper to read it.*~~)
He needs a place to live in. (NOT ... ~~*a place to live in it.*~~)
Some/any/nowhere can also be followed by infinitives.
The kids want somewhere to practise their music.

4 *enough, too much* etc

Quantifiers like *enough, too much/many/little/few, plenty* etc are often followed by **noun + infinitive**.
There was enough light to see what I was doing.
There's too much snow (for us) to be able to drive.
We've got plenty of time to see the British Museum.
Enough is often dropped before *room* and *time*.
There's hardly (enough) room to breathe in here.
Do you think we'll have (enough) time to do some shopping? ▸

5 infinitive with preposition: *a friend to play with*

A noun can be followed by **infinitive + preposition.**

Mary needs a friend to play with.
He's looking for a flat to live in.

In a very formal style, another structure is possible: **noun + preposition + *whom/which* + infinitive.**

Mary needs a friend with whom to play.
He's looking for a place in which to live.

This is not possible when there is no preposition. One cannot say, for example,

~~*I need a book which to read.*~~

6 *the life to come* etc

In expressions like *the life to come* (= life after death), *the world to come, his wife to be* (= his future wife), the infinitive has a future meaning, and is similar to a relative clause with *be* (= the life/world that is to come, etc.)

For infinitives used to talk about people's purposes, see 289.
For passive infinitives (e.g. *There's work to be done.*), see 287.
For *for* + object + infinitive (e.g. *Is there any need for us to stay?*), see 291.5.
For infinitives after *first, next, last* or superlative + noun (e.g. *the first woman to climb Everest*), see 284.3.
For more about structures with prepositions at the end, see 452.

286 infinitives (8): who to ... , what to ... etc

1 indirect questions: *Tell us what to do*

In indirect speech (see 277.2), we can use an infinitive after the question words *who, what, where* etc (but not usually *why*). This structure expresses ideas such as obligation and possibility.

I wonder who to invite. (= ... who I should invite.)
Tell us what to do.
Can you show me how to get to the station? (= ... how I can get to the station?)
I don't know where to put the car. *Tell me when to pay.*
I can't decide whether to answer her letter.
(BUT NOT ~~*I can't understand why to do it.*~~)

2 direct questions: *What shall we do?*

We do not usually begin a direct question with *How to ...?, What to ...?* etc. After question words, we often use *shall* and *should.*

How shall I tell her? (NOT ~~*How to tell her?*~~)
What shall we do? (NOT ~~*What to do?*~~)
Who should I pay? (NOT ~~*Who to pay?*~~)

3 titles

How to ..., What to ... etc are often found as titles for instructions, information leaflets, books etc. (Note: these are not questions.)

HOW TO IMPROVE YOUR PRONUNCIATION
WHAT TO DO IF FIRE BREAKS OUT

For questions beginning *Why (not)* + infinitive, see 628.

287 infinitives (9): active and passive infinitive with similar meaning

1 obligation

We can use **noun + infinitive** to talk about obligation – things that people have to do. Active and passive infinitives are often both possible.

*There's a lot of **work to do / to be done.***
*There are six **letters to post / to be posted.***
*Give me the names of the **people to contact / to be contacted.***
*The **people to interview / to be interviewed** are in the next room.*

We prefer active infinitives if we are thinking more about the person who will do the action.

*I've got **work to do.*** (NOT ~~*I've got work to be done.*~~)
*They've sent **Jane a form to fill in.***

We use passive infinitives if we are thinking more about the action, or the person/thing that the action is done to.

*The **carpets to be cleaned** are in the garage.* (NOT ~~*The carpets to clean*~~ . . .)
*His desk is covered with **forms to be filled in.***

After *be*, we normally use passive infinitives in these cases.

*These sheets are **to be washed.*** (NOT ~~*These sheets are to wash.*~~)
*This form is **to be filled in in ink.*** (NOT ~~*This form is to fill in*~~ . . .)
*The cleaning is **to be finished** by midday.* (NOT . . . ~~*is to finish*~~ . . .)

2 *to be seen/found/congratulated* etc

Note the expressions *anywhere/nowhere to be seen/found.*

*He wasn't **anywhere to be seen.*** (NOT . . . ~~*anywhere to see.*~~)
*Susan was **nowhere to be found.*** (NOT . . . ~~*nowhere to find.*~~)

We also use passive infinitives to express value judgements with verbs like *congratulate, encourage, avoid.*

*You are **to be congratulated.*** (NOT . . . ~~*to congratulate.*~~)
*This behaviour is **to be encouraged.***

But note the common expression *to blame,* meaning 'responsible' (for some unfortunate event).

*Nobody was **to blame** for the accident.*

3 *nothing to do* and *nothing to be done* etc

Note the difference between *nothing to do* and *nothing to be done.*

*I'm bored – there's **nothing to do.*** (= There are no entertainments.)
*There's **nothing to be done** – we'll have to buy a new one.*
(= There's no way of putting it right.)

For structures like *She's easy to amuse,* see 284.4.
For structures with *take* (e.g. *The ferry took two hours to unload*), see 576.
For more about *be* + **infinitive**, see 91.

288 infinitives (10): I'm glad to have left

1 perfect or past meaning

Perfect infinitives (*to have gone, to have left* etc) can have the same kind of meaning as perfect or past tenses.

I'm glad to have left school. (= I'm glad that I have left . . .)
She was sorry to have missed Bill. (= . . . that she had missed Bill.)
We hope to have finished the job by next Saturday. (= . . . that we will have finished . . .)
You seem to have annoyed Anne yesterday. (= It seems that you annoyed Anne yesterday.)

2 perfect infinitive for 'unreal' past

After some verbs (e.g. *mean, be, would like*), perfect infinitives can refer to 'unreal' past situations that are the opposite of what really happened.

I meant to have telephoned, but I forgot. (OR *I meant to telephone . . .*)
He was to have been the new ambassador, but he fell ill.
I wish I'd been there – I would like to have seen Harry's face when Nan walked in.

With *would like, would prefer* and one or two other verbs, a double perfect infinitive is sometimes used in informal speech; the extra perfect infinitive does not change the meaning.

I would have liked to have seen Harry's face.

3 modals: *He could have killed himself*

After the modal verbs *could, might, ought, should, would* and *needn't*, we often use perfect infinitives to refer to unreal situations.

Did you see him fall? He could have killed himself.
(He did not kill himself.)
You should have written – I was getting worried.
(The person did not write.)
I would have gone to university if my parents had had more money.
(The speaker did not go to university.)
She needn't have sent me flowers.
(She did send flowers.)

Modal verbs with perfect infinitives can also refer to situations that are not unreal, but uncertain.

She could/should/ought to/may/will/must have arrived by now.

For more details, see the entries for the different modal verbs.

289 infinitives (11): purpose

1 *I sat down to rest*

We often use an infinitive to talk about a person's purpose – why he or she does something.

I sat down to rest. (NOT ~~*I sat down for resting*~~ / ~~*for to rest.*~~)
He went abroad to forget.

I'm going to Austria to learn German.
To switch on, press red button.

2 *in order to; so as to*

We can also use *in order to* ... (more formal) or *so as to* ....
He got up early in order to have time to pack .
I watched him in order to know more about him.
I moved to a new flat so as to be near my work.
In order to / so as to are normal before negative infinitives.
I'm going to leave now, so as not to be late. (NOT ~~*I'm going to leave now, not to be late.*~~)
A *for*-structure (see 291) can be used to talk about a purpose that involves action by somebody else.
I left the door unlocked for Harriet to get in.

290 infinitives (12): subject, complement or object

1 subject: *To practise is important / It's important to practise*

In older English, an infinitive clause could easily be the subject of a sentence.
To practise regularly is important.
To wait for people who were late made him angry.
In modern English, this is unusual in an informal style. We more often use *it* as a preparatory subject and put the infinitive clause later (see 446).
It's important to practise regularly.
It made him angry to wait for people who were late.
We can also use an *-ing* structure at the beginning of a sentence as the subject, instead of an infinitive clause (see 295).
Selling insurance is a pretty boring job.
(More natural than *To sell insurance* ...)

2 complement: *Your task is to get across the river*

An infinitive clause can be used after *be* as a subject complement.
Your task is to get across the river without being seen.
My ambition was to retire at thirty.
Sentences like these can also be constructed with preparatory *it* (see 446).
It is your task to get across the river without being seen.
It was my ambition to retire at thirty.

3 object: *I like to read the paper at breakfast*

Many verbs can have an infinitive clause as their object (see 283). Compare:
– *I like cornflakes for breakfast.* (noun object)
I like to read the paper at breakfast. (infinitive clause as object)
– *She wants some exercise.*
She wants to dance.

For structures like *He made it difficult to refuse*, see 447.

291 infinitives (13): for ... to ...

1 infinitive with its own subject

The structure *for* + **noun/pronoun** + **infinitive** is very common in English. It is used when an infinitive needs its own subject. Compare:

– *Ann will be happy to help you.* (Ann will help.)
  Ann will be happy for the children to help you. (The children will help.)
– *My idea was to learn Russian.*
  My idea was for her to learn Russian.
– *To ask Joe would be a big mistake.*
  For you to ask Joe would be a big mistake. (NOT ~~*You to ask Joe would be*~~...)

Note that the subject of the infinitive is the object of the preposition *for*. Object forms of pronouns are used.

Ann will be happy for them to help you. (NOT ...~~*for they to help you.*~~)

2 use

The structure is often used when we are referring to possibility, necessity or frequency, when we are expressing wishes, suggestions or plans for the future, and when we are giving personal reactions to situations. Like other infinitive structures, it is used especially after adjectives, nouns and verbs; it can also act as the subject of a clause. It often has the same meaning as a *that*-clause. Compare:

It's important for the meeting to start on time.
It's important that the meeting should start on time.

3 after adjectives: *anxious for us to see ...*

The structure *for* + **object** + **infinitive** can be used after certain adjectives which express wishes and other personal feelings about the importance or value of future events (e.g. *anxious, eager, delighted, willing, reluctant*).

adjective + *for* + object + infinitive

She's anxious for us to see her work.
I'm eager for the party to be a success.
Robert says he'd be delighted for Mary to come and stay.

4 *It's impossible for ... to ...*

For-structures with preparatory *it* (see 446) are common with many adjectives expressing possibility, necessity, importance, urgency, frequency and value judgements.

(...) *it* (...) + adjective + *for* + object + infinitive

It's impossible for the job to be finished in time.
Would it be easy for you to phone me tomorrow?
It's important for the meeting to start at eight.
It seems unnecessary for him to start work this week.
I consider it essential for the school to be properly heated.
Is it usual for foxes to come so close to the town?
I thought it strange for her to be out so late.
It's not good for the oil tank to be so close to the house.

Other common adjectives that are used in this way include *vital, necessary, pointless, unimportant, common, normal, unusual, rare, right, wrong.* Note that *likely* and *probable* are not used like this.

She's likely to arrive this evening. (NOT ~~*It's likely for her to arrive this evening.*~~)

It's probable that she'll be in a bad temper. OR *She'll probably be ...* (NOT ~~*It's probable for her to be ...*~~)

5 after nouns: *It's a good idea for us to ...*

The structure can also be used after nouns in expressions with meanings similar to the adjectives listed above. Examples are: *time, a good/bad idea, plan, aim, need, request, mistake, shame.*

It's time for everybody to go to bed.
It's a good idea for us to travel in separate cars.
There's a plan for Jack to spend a year in Japan.
Our aim is for students to learn as quickly as possible.
It was a big mistake for them not to keep John as manager.
It was a real shame for them not to win after all their work.

6 *something for me to do*

Something, anything, nothing and similar words are often followed by *for* + **object + infinitive.**

Have you got something for me to do?
There's nothing for the cats to eat.
Is there anybody for Louise to play with in the village?
I must find somewhere for him to practise the piano.

7 after verbs: *ask for ... to ...*

For-structures are not normally used as objects after verbs.

I need you to help me. (NOT ~~*I need for you to help me.*~~)

However, verbs which are normally followed by *for* (e.g. *ask, hope, wait, look, pay, arrange*) can often be used with *for* + **object + infinitive.**

Anne asked for the designs to be ready by Friday.
I can't wait for them to finish talking.
Can you arrange for the gold to be delivered on Monday? (NOT ...~~*for the gold being delivered.*~~)

A few other verbs can be used like this, e.g. *suit* and *take (time).*

When will it suit you for us to call?
It took twenty minutes for the smoke to clear.

In informal American English, *like, hate, mean, intend* and some other verbs with similar meanings can be used with a *for*-structure. This is not usually possible in British English.

I would like for you to stay as long as you want.
She hates for people to feel sad.
Did you mean for John to mail those letters? ▸

8 after *too* and *enough*

A *for*-structure is often used after *too* and *enough*.

This is much too heavy for you to lift.
There are too many people here for me to talk to all of them.
Do you think it's warm enough for the snow to melt?
I explained enough for her to understand what was happening.

9 as subject

The *for*-structure can be the subject of a clause.

For us to fail now would be a disaster.
For her to lose the election would make me very happy.

However, it is more common for a structure with preparatory *it* to be used (see paragraph 4 above).

It would make me very happy for her to lose the election.

10 *for there to be*

The infinitive of *there is* (*there to be*) can be used after *for*.

I'm anxious for there to be plenty of time for discussion.
It's important for there to be a fire escape at the back of the building.

11 *that*-clauses

Instead of *for* + **object** + **infinitive**, a *that*-clause with *should* or a subjunctive (see 567) is often possible, especially when we want to express wishes, recommendations, suggestions and plans for the future. A *that*-clause is usually more formal than a *for*-structure.

It is important that there should be a fire escape.
I'm anxious that the party should be a success.
His idea is that we should travel in separate cars.
It is essential that the meeting start at eight.

For sentences like *He made it difficult for us to refuse*, see 447.

292 infinitives (14): other uses

1 *I came home to find ...*

Infinitive clauses can be used to say what somebody found out or learnt at the end of a journey or task.

I arrived home to find that the house had been burgled.

The idea of surprise or disappointment can be emphasised by using *only*.

At last we got to Amy's place, only to discover that she was away.
He spent four years studying, only to learn that there were no jobs.

2 *To hear her talk, you'd think ...*

The infinitives of *see* and *hear* can be used to explain the reason for a false impression. The infinitive structure is usually followed by *you'd think* or a similar expression.

To see them, you'd think they were married. But they only met yesterday.
To see him walk down the street, you'd never know he was blind.
To hear her talk, you'd think she was made of money.

293 -ing forms (1): introduction

1 'participles and 'gerunds'

We can use *-ing* forms (e.g. *smoking, walking*) not only as verbs, but also like adjectives or nouns. Compare:

*You're **smoking** too much these days.* (verb: part of present progressive)
*There was a **smoking** cigarette end in the ashtray.* (adjective describing *cigarette end*)
Smoking is bad for you. (noun: subject of sentence)

When *-ing* forms are used as verbs or adjectives, they are often called 'present participles'. (This is not a very suitable name, because these forms can refer to the past, present or future.) When they are used more like nouns, they are often called 'gerunds'.

In *Practical English Usage* the expression '*-ing* form' is used except when there is a good reason to use one of the other terms. Noun-like uses of *-ing* forms ('gerunds') are discussed in the following entries. For their use to make progressive verb forms, see 470 and the entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc. Other ways of using *-ing* forms are discussed in 408–411 ('participles'), together with similar uses of 'past participles' (e.g. *invited, broken*).

2 perfect, passive and negative *-ing* forms

Note the structure of perfect, passive and negative *-ing* forms.

Having slept for twelve hours, I felt marvellous. (perfect)
She loves being looked at. (passive)
Not knowing what to do, I went home. (negative)
She's angry about not having been invited. (negative perfect passive)

For spelling rules, see 560–562.

3 *-ing* form or infinitive?

-ing forms are often used in similar ways to infinitives. For instance, they can follow certain verbs, adjectives or nouns (see 296–297). Compare:

- *He agreed to wait.*
  He suggested waiting. (NOT ~~*He suggested to wait.*~~)
- *She's ready to listen.*
  She's good at listening. (NOT ~~*She's good to listen.*~~)
- *the need to talk*
  the idea of talking (NOT ~~*the idea to talk*~~)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which verbs, adjectives and nouns are followed by *-ing* forms, and which are followed by infinitives. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

Expressions with *-ing* forms can also be used as subjects in sentences, or as complements after *be*. Infinitives are also possible in these cases, but they are much less common in informal English. Compare:

Smoking cigarettes can kill you. (More natural than *To smoke cigarettes can kill you.*)
My favourite activity is reading thrillers. (More natural than *My favourite activity is to read thrillers.*) ▸

4 'participles' and 'gerunds': an unclear difference

The distinction between 'participles' and 'gerunds' is not always clear-cut, and it can sometimes be difficult to decide which term to use. For this reason, some grammarians prefer to avoid the terms 'participle' and 'gerund'. For a detailed discussion of this point, see Section 17.54 of *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (Longman 1985).

294 -ing forms (2): a waiting room; a waiting train

-ing forms can be used before nouns. This can happen both with noun-like *-ing* forms ('gerunds') and adjective-like *-ing* forms ('participles'). The two structures do not have quite the same kind of meaning. Compare:

- *a **waiting** room* (= a room for waiting. *Waiting* is a gerund, used rather like a noun. Compare *a **guest** room.*)
  *a **waiting** train* (= a train that is waiting. *Waiting* is a participle, used rather like an adjective. Compare *an **early** train.*)
- *a **sleeping** pill* (*sleeping* is a gerund)
  *a **sleeping** child* (*sleeping* is a participle)
- *working conditions* (gerund)
  working men and women (participle)

295 -ing forms (3): subject, complement or object

1 *Smoking is bad for you*

An *-ing* form ('gerund') can be used, just like a noun, as the subject or complement of a verb.

Smoking is bad for you. (subject)
My favourite activity is reading. (complement)

Infinitives (e.g. *To smoke is bad for you*) are possible in these cases, but are formal and uncommon.

-ing forms can also be used as objects after certain verbs (see 296).

I hate packing. (object)

2 *-ing* form with its own object

The *-ing* form subject, complement or object is used like a noun, but it is still a verb and can have its own object.

Smoking cigarettes is bad for you.
My favourite activity is reading thrillers.
I hate packing suitcases.

3 *the opening of Parliament; my smoking*

We can often use determiners (for example *the, my, this*) with *-ing* forms.

the opening of Parliament
Does my smoking annoy you? *I hate all this useless arguing.*

Possessive *'s* forms are also possible.

John's going to sleep during the wedding was rather embarrassing.
She was angry at Lina's trying to lie to her.

Subject pronouns are not possible.

His shouting gets on my nerves. (BUT NOT ~~*He shouting*~~...)

Note that possessives and pronouns are not used before *-ing* forms if it is already clear who is being talked about.

Thank you for waiting. (NOT ~~*Thank you for your waiting.*~~)

When an *-ing* form is used with an article, it cannot usually have a direct object. Instead, we can use an *of*-structure.

the smoking of cigarettes (NOT ~~*the smoking cigarettes*~~)

No is often used with an *-ing* form to say that something is not allowed, or is impossible. This often happens in notices and after *there is.*

NO SMOKING NO PARKING NO WAITING

*Sorry – there's **no smoking** in the waiting room.*

*She's made up her mind; there's **no arguing** with her.*

4 object forms: *Do you mind me smoking?*

In an informal style it is more common to use object forms (like *me, John*) instead of possessives (*my, John's*) with *-ing* forms, especially when these come after a verb or preposition.

*Do you mind **me smoking**?* *She was angry at **Lina trying** to lie to her.*

After some verbs (e.g. *see, hear, watch, feel*) possessives are not normally used with *-ing* forms.

*I saw **him getting** out of the car.* (NOT ~~*I saw his getting*~~...)

5 *It's nice being with you*

We can use *it* as a preparatory subject or object for an *-ing* form (see 446–447).

*It's nice **being** with you.*

*I thought it pointless **starting** before eight o'clock.*

This is common with *any/no good, any/no use* and *(not) worth* (see 632).

*It's **no good** talking to him – he never listens.*

*Is **it any use** expecting them to be on time?*

*It's **no use his/him** apologising – I shall never forgive him.*

*I didn't think **it worth** complaining about the meal.*

6 nouns and *-ing* forms

When there is a noun which has a similar meaning to an *-ing* form, the noun is usually preferred.

*We're all excited about his **arrival**.* (NOT ...~~*about his arriving.*~~)

296 -ing forms (4): after verbs

1 verbs that can be followed by *-ing* forms

After some verbs we can use an *-ing* form ('gerund'), but not normally an infinitive.

*I **enjoy travelling**.* (NOT ~~*I enjoy to travel.*~~)

*He's **finished mending** the car.* (NOT ~~*He's finished to mend*~~...)

*She's **given up smoking**.* (NOT ...~~*given up to smoke.*~~)

*The doctor **suggested taking** a long holiday.* (NOT ~~*The doctor suggested (me) to take*~~...)

Some common verbs that are normally followed by *-ing* forms:

admit	*dislike*	*give up*	*practise*
appreciate	*endure*	*(can't) help*	*put off*
avoid	*enjoy*	*imagine*	*resent*
burst out	*escape*	*involve*	*resist*
(crying/laughing)	*excuse*	*keep (on)*	*risk*
consider	*face*	*leave off*	*(can't) stand*
contemplate	*fancy*	*mention*	*suggest*
delay	*feel like*	*mind*	*understand*
deny	*finish*	*miss*	
detest	*forgive*	*postpone*	

Some verbs can be followed by both *-ing* forms and infinitives – see paragraph 4 below.
Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular verb. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 verb + object + *-ing* form

Some of the verbs listed above, and some others, can be followed by **object + *-ing* form**.

I dislike people telling me what to think.
I can't imagine him working in an office.
Nobody can stop him doing what he wants to
He spends all his time gardening.
Did you see her talking to the postman?

Stop (in an informal style) and *prevent* are often followed by **object + *from* + *-ing* form**.

Try to stop/prevent them (from) finding out.

Note that after many verbs we can use **possessive + *-ing* form** rather than **object + *-ing* form**, especially in a formal style. (See 295.3 for details.)

3 *-ing* form with passive meaning

After *deserve, need* and *require,* the *-ing* form has a passive sense. This structure is more common in British than American English.

I don't think his article deserves reading. (= ... deserves to be read.)
Your hair needs cutting. (= ... needs to be cut.)

In informal British English, *want* can also be used like this.

The car wants servicing. (= ... needs to be serviced.)

4 *-ing* form or infinitive

After some verbs, either an *-ing* form or an infinitive can be used. These include:

advise	*forbid*	*hear*	*prefer*	*start*
allow	*forget*	*intend*	*propose*	*stop*
can't bear	*go*	*like*	*regret*	*try*
begin	*go on*	*love*	*remember*	*watch*
continue	*hate*	*permit*	*see*	

In some cases there is a difference of meaning: see 299.

For infinitives after verbs, see 282.

297 -ing forms (5): after nouns and adjectives

1 *the idea of getting old; tired of listening*

Some nouns and adjectives can be followed by *-ing* forms ('gerunds'). A preposition is normally used to connect the noun/adjective to the *-ing* form. Nouns/adjectives that are followed by *-ing* forms cannot usually be followed by infinitives (see paragraph 3 for some exceptions).

*I hate the **idea of getting** old.* (NOT ... ~~*the idea to get old.*~~)
*The **thought of failing** never entered his head.* (NOT ~~*The thought to fail*~~ ...)
*I'm **tired of listening** to this.* (NOT ~~*I'm tired to listen*~~ ...)
*She's very **good at solving** problems.* (NOT ... ~~*good to solve*~~ ...)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which nouns and adjectives can be followed by *-ing* forms. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

2 purpose: *a machine for cutting*

For + -ing form can be used after a noun, or after an indefinite pronoun such as *something* or *anything*, to explain the purpose of an object or material – what it is for.

*A strimmer is a **machine for cutting** grass and weeds.*
*Have you got any **stuff for cleaning** silver?*
*I need **something for killing** flies.*

This structure is mostly used to talk in general about types of object and material. When we talk about somebody's purpose in using a particular object, we are more likely to use an infinitive (see 207.2).

*I must find **something to kill** that fly.*

3 *-ing* form or infinitive

After a few nouns and adjectives, we can use either an *-ing* form or an infinitive. Normally there is little or no difference of meaning (see 299.13–16 for some exceptions).

*We have a good **chance of making** / **to make** a profit.*
*I'm proud **of having won** / **to have won**.*

For *be used to ...ing*, see 605.
For infinitives after nouns and adjectives, see 284–285.

298 -ing forms (6): without breaking; before starting

1 after all prepositions

When we put a verb after a preposition, we normally use an *-ing* form ('gerund'), not an infinitive.

*You can't make an omelette **without breaking** eggs.* (NOT ... ~~*without to break eggs.*~~)
*Always check the oil **before starting** the car.* (NOT ... ~~*before to start the car.*~~)
*We got the job finished **by working** sixteen hours a day.*
*He's talking **about moving** to the country.*
*They painted the house **instead of going** on holiday.* (NOT ... ~~*instead to go*~~ ...)

2 *to* as a preposition: *I look forward to ...ing*

To is actually two different words. It can be an infinitive marker, used to show that the next word is an infinitive (e.g. *to swim, to laugh*). It can also be a preposition, followed for example by a noun (e.g. *She's gone to the park, I look forward to Christmas*).

When *to* is a preposition, it can be followed by the *-ing* form of a verb, but not normally by the infinitive. Common expressions in which this happens are *look forward to, object to, be used to, prefer (doing one thing to doing another), get round to, in addition to.*

In the following examples, note how the preposition *to* can be followed by either a noun or an *-ing* form.

- *I look forward to your next letter.*
  I look forward to hearing from you. (NOT ... ~~*to hear from you.*~~)
- *Do you object to Sunday work?*
  Do you object to working on Sundays?
- *I'm not used to London traffic.*
  I'm not used to driving in London.
- *I prefer the seaside to the mountains.*
  I prefer swimming to walking.
- *I'll get round to the washing up sooner or later.*
  I'll get round to doing the washing up sooner or later.

A few verbs and adjectives are used with *to* before nouns, but are followed by the infinitives of verbs. Examples are *agree, consent, entitled, inclined, prone.*

She agreed to our plan. / She agreed to do what we wanted.
He's inclined to anger. / He's inclined to lose his temper.

Accustomed can be followed by *to* + *-ing* form or an infinitive (see 299.11).

3 object + infinitive after *for*: *for her to arrive*

Note that some verbs are followed by *for* + object + infinitive. An *-ing* form is not usually possible in these cases.

We're still waiting for her to arrive. (NOT ... ~~*waiting for her arriving.*~~)
Can you arrange for us to get tickets? (NOT ... ~~*for our getting tickets?*~~)

For the difference between *used to* + infinitive and *be used to* + *-ing* form, see 604–5.
For *-ing* forms after conjunctions (e.g. *When planning a holiday* ...), see 411.6.
For time clauses with *on* + *-ing* form, see 411.6.

299 -ing forms (7): remember, go on etc + -ing or infinitive

Some verbs and adjectives can be followed by either *-ing* forms ('gerunds') or infinitives.

I started playing / to play the violin when I was 10.
She was proud of having won / to have won.

With some of these verbs and adjectives, there is a difference of meaning.

1 *remember* and *forget*

Remember/forget* + *-ing* form** looks back at the past – at things that one did. ***Forget . . .ing is used mostly in the phrase *I'll never forget . . .ing*, and expressions with similar meanings.

*I still **remember buying** my first bicycle.*
*I'll never **forget meeting** the Queen.*

***Remember/forget* + infinitive** looks forward in time – at things that one still has or still had to do at the moment of remembering or forgetting.

*You must **remember to fetch** Mr Lewis from the station tomorrow.*
*I **forgot to buy** the soap.*

2 *go on*

***Go on* + *-ing* form** means 'continue'.

*She **went on talking** about her illness until we all went to sleep.*

***Go on* + infinitive** refers to a change of activity.

*She stopped talking about that and **went on to describe** her other problems.*

3 *regret*

***Regret* + *-ing* form** looks back at the past – at something that one is sorry that one did.

*I **regret leaving** school at 14 – it was a big mistake.*

***Regret* + infinitive** is used mostly in announcements of bad news.

*We **regret to inform** passengers that the 14.50 train is one hour late.*
*We **regret to say** that we are unable to help you.*

4 *advise, allow, permit* and *forbid*

In active clauses after these verbs, we use an *-ing* form if there is no object. If there is an object we use an infinitive. Compare:

– *I wouldn't **advise taking** the car – there's nowhere to park.*
  *I wouldn't **advise you to take** the car . . .*
– *We don't **allow/permit smoking** in the lecture room.*
  *We don't **allow/permit people to smoke** in the lecture room.*
– *The headmistress has **forbidden singing** in the corridors.*
  *The headmistress has **forbidden children to sing** . . .*

Note the corresponding passive structures.

– *Smoking is not allowed/permitted in the lecture room.*
  People are not allowed/permitted to smoke in the lecture room.
– *Singing is forbidden.*
  Children are forbidden to sing.
– *Early booking is advised.*
  Passengers are advised to book early.

5 *see, watch* and *hear*

After these verbs, the difference between **object + *-ing* form** and **object + infinitive** is like the difference between progressive and simple tenses. With *-ing* forms the verbs suggest that one pays attention to events or actions that are already going on; infinitives usually refer to complete events/actions which are seen/heard from beginning to end. (Note that these verbs are followed by the infinitive without *to*.) Compare: ▸

– *I looked out of the window and saw Mary crossing the road.*
I saw Mary cross the road and disappear into the post office.
– *As I passed his house I heard him practising the piano.*
I once heard Brendel play all the Beethoven concertos.

For more details, see 242.

6 *try*

To talk about making an experiment – doing something to see what will happen – we use *try* + *-ing*.

I tried sending her flowers, writing her letters, giving her presents, but she still wouldn't speak to me.

To talk about making an effort to do something difficult, we can use either *try* + infinitive or *try* + *-ing*.

I tried to change the wheel, but my hands were too cold.
(OR *I tried changing the wheel* . . .)

7 *mean*

Mean in the sense of 'involve', 'have as a result' (see 348) can be followed by an *-ing* form.

If you want to pass the exam it will mean studying hard.

In the sense of 'intend', *mean* is followed by an infinitive.

I don't think she means to get married for the moment.

8 *learn* and *teach*

These verbs (and others with similar meanings) are followed by *-ing* forms mostly when we are referring to lessons or subjects of study.

She goes to college twice a week to learn typing.
Mr Garland teaches skiing in the winter.

Infinitives are preferred when we talk about the result of the study – about successfully learning a skill.

She learnt to read German at school, but she learnt to speak it in Germany.
I taught myself to type.

9 *like, love, hate* and *prefer*

After these four verbs, both infinitives and *-ing* forms can often be used without a great difference of meaning.

I hate working / to work at weekends.
I don't get up on Sundays. I prefer staying / to stay in bed.

Like + infinitive is used to talk about choices and habits. Compare:

I like climbing / to climb mountains (= I enjoy climbing.)
When I pour tea I like to put the milk in first. (= I choose to; it's my habit.)

After *would like, would prefer, would hate* and *would love*, infinitives are most often used.

I'd like to tell you something. (NOT ~~*I'd like telling you something.*~~)
Can I give you a lift? ~No thanks, I'd prefer to walk. (NOT . . . ~~*I'd prefer walking.*~~)

Compare:

Do you like dancing? (= Do you enjoy dancing?)

Would you like to dance? (= Do you want to dance now?)

For more about *like*, see 325.
For details of structures with *prefer*, see 444.

10 *begin* and *start*

Begin and *start* can be followed by infinitives or *-ing* forms. Usually there is no important difference.

She began playing / to play the guitar when she was six.
He started talking / to talk about golf, but everybody went out of the room.

After progressive forms of *begin* and *start*, infinitives are preferred.

I'm beginning to learn karate. (NOT ~~*I'm beginning learning karate.*~~)

Infinitives are also preferred with *understand, realise* and *know.*

I slowly began to understand how she felt. (NOT . . . ~~*began understanding*~~. . .)
He started to realise that if you wanted to eat you had to work.
(NOT . . . ~~*started realising*~~. . .)

11 *attempt, intend, continue, can't bear, be accustomed to, be committed to*

After these words and expressions we can generally use either an *-ing* form or an infinitive without much difference of meaning.

I intend telling / to tell her what I think.
I'm not accustomed to giving/give personal information about myself to strangers.

For details of structures with *to* + *-ing*, see 298.2.

12 *-ing* form or infinitive of purpose: *stop*

Some verbs that are followed by *-ing* forms can also be followed by an infinitive of purpose (see 289). A common example is *stop.*

I stopped running. (NOT . . . ~~*I stopped to run.*~~)
I stopped to rest. (= . . . in order to rest.)

13 *afraid*

To talk about fear of things that happen accidentally, we prefer *afraid of* + *-ing.*

I don't like to drive fast because I'm afraid of crashing.
Why are you so quiet? ~*I'm afraid of waking the children.*

In other cases we can use *afraid of* + *-ing* or *afraid* + infinitive with no difference of meaning.

I'm not afraid of telling / to tell her the truth.

14 *sorry*

Sorry for/about + *-ing* is used to refer to past things that one regrets. (*That*-clauses are also very common in an informal style.)

I'm sorry for/about losing my temper this morning.
(OR *I'm sorry that I lost my temper.*)

Sorry + perfect infinitive (more formal) can be used with the same meaning.

I'm sorry to have woken you up. (OR *I'm sorry that I woke you up.*) ▸

Sorry + **infinitive** is used to apologise for current situations – things that one is doing or going to do, or that one has just done.

Sorry to disturb you – could I speak to you for a moment?
I'm sorry to tell you that you failed the exam.
Sorry to keep you waiting – we can start now.

15 *certain* and *sure*

Certain/sure of + *-ing* are used to refer to the feelings of the person one is talking about.

Before the game she felt certain of winning, but after a few minutes she realised it wasn't going to be so easy.
You seem very sure of passing the exam. I hope you're right.

Certain/sure + **infinitive** refer to the speaker's or writer's own feelings.

The repairs are certain to cost more than you think. (NOT ~~*The repairs are certain of costing*~~ . . .)
Kroftova's sure to win – the other girl hasn't got a chance.

Note that *He is sure to succeed* means 'I am sure that he will succeed'.

16 *interested*

To talk about reactions to things one learns, *interested* + **infinitive** is commonly used.

I was interested to read in the paper that scientists have found out how to talk to whales.
I'm interested to see that Alice and Jake are going out together.
I shall be interested to see how long it lasts.

To talk about a wish to find out something, both *interested* + *-ing* and *interested* + **infinitive** are common.

I'm interested in finding out / to find out what she did with all that money.
Aren't you interested in knowing / to know whether I'm pregnant?

To talk about a wish to do something, we use *interested* with an *-ing* form.

I'm interested in working in Switzerland. Do you know anybody who could help me? (NOT ~~*I'm interested to work in Switzerland*~~ . . .)

300 -ing forms (8): participles; progressive verbs

1 *a crying baby*

We can use *-ing* forms as adjectives before nouns.

I was woken by a crying baby.
There is growing anger at the government's policies.

When *-ing* forms are used like this, they are called 'present participles'. Their use is explained in 408–410.

2 *not knowing what to do . . .*

Participles can be used in another way. They can combine with other words into 'participle clauses'.

Not knowing what to do, I telephoned the police.
Who's the girl dancing with your brother?

For details of participle clauses, see 411.

3 progressive verbs

Present participles are also used to make progressive verb forms.
*It's **raining**.* (present progressive)
*She arrived just when I was **leaving**.* (past progressive)

For details of progressive forms, see 470 and the separate entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc.

301 instead of

1 preposition: *instead of*

Instead is not used alone as a preposition; we use the two words *instead of.*
*I'll have tea **instead of** coffee, please.* (NOT ...~~instead coffee~~...)
*Can you work with Sally **instead** of me today, please?*
Instead of is not usually followed by an infinitive.
*I stayed in bed all day **instead of** going to work.* (NOT ...~~instead of (to) go to work.~~)

2 *instead of* and *without*

Instead suggests that one person, thing or action replaces another. *Without* suggests that one person, thing etc is not together with another. Compare:
– *Ruth was invited to the reception, but she was ill, so Lou went **instead of** her.* (Lou replaced Ruth.) (NOT ...~~Lou went without her.~~)
*Max and Jake were invited, but Max was ill, so Jake went **without** him.* (Normally they would have gone together.)
– *She often goes swimming **instead** of going to school.* (Swimming replaces school.) (NOT ~~She often goes swimming without going to school.~~)
*She often goes swimming **without** telling her mother.* (Swimming and telling her mother should go together.) (NOT ~~She often goes swimming instead of telling her mother.~~)

3 adverb: *instead*

Instead (without *of*) is an adverb. It usually begins or ends a clause.
*She didn't go to Greece after all. **Instead**, she went to America.*
*Don't marry Phil. Marry me **instead**.*

302 inversion (1): auxiliary verb before subject

We put an auxiliary verb (and non-auxiliary *have* and *be*) directly before the subject of a clause in several different structures.

1 questions

Have your father and mother arrived? (NOT ~~Have arrived your father and mother?~~)
Where is the concert taking place? (NOT ~~Where is taking place the concert?~~) (NOT ~~Where the concert is taking place?~~)
Spoken questions do not always have this word order (see 481).
You're coming tomorrow?
Indirect questions do not usually have this order (see 276).
I wondered what time the film was starting. (NOT ...~~what time was the film starting.~~)

However, in formal writing inversion is sometimes used with *be* in indirect questions after *how*, especially when the subject is long.

*I wondered how reliable **was the information** I had been given.*

For more information about questions, see 480–486.

2 exclamations

Exclamations (see 195) often have the form of negative questions (see 368).

Isn't it cold? *Hasn't she got lovely eyes?*

In spoken American English, exclamations often have the same form as ordinary (non-negative) questions.

Have you got a surprise coming! *Was I mad!*

In a rather old-fashioned literary style, inversion is sometimes found in exclamations after *how* and *what*.

*How beautiful **are the flowers**!* *What a peaceful place **is Skegness**!*

3 with *may*

May can come before the subject in wishes.

May all your wishes come true! *May he rot in hell!*

4 after *so, neither, nor*

In 'short answers' and similar structures, these words are followed by **auxiliary verb + subject**.

*I'm hungry. ~So **am** I.*
*I don't like opera. ~Neither/Nor **do** I.*

For more details of these structures, see 541 and 374.

5 after *as, than* and *so*

Inversion sometimes happens after *as, than* and *so* in a literary style.

She was very religious, as were most of her friends.
City dwellers have a higher death rate than do country people.
So ridiculous did she look that everybody burst out laughing.

6 conditional clauses

In formal and literary conditional clauses, an auxiliary verb can be put before the subject instead of using *if* (see 261.5).

Were she my daughter ... (= If she were my daughter ...)
Had I realised what you intended ... (= If I had realised ...)

Negatives are not contracted in this case.

Had we not spent all our money already, ... (NOT ~~*Hadn't we spent*~~ ...)

7 after negative and restrictive expressions

If a negative adverb or adverbial expression is put at the beginning of a clause for emphasis, it is usually followed **by auxiliary verb + subject**. These structures are mostly rather formal.

*Under no circumstances **can we** cash cheques.*
*At no time **was the President** aware of what was happening.*
*Not until much later **did she** learn who her real father was.*

The same structure is possible after a complete clause beginning *not until* ...
Not until he received her letter did he fully understand her feelings.
Inversion is also used after restrictive words like *hardly* (in BrE), *seldom, rarely, little* and *never*, and after *only* + **time expression**. This is formal or literary.
Hardly had I arrived when trouble started. (BrE)
Seldom have I seen such a remarkable creature.
Little did he realise the danger he faced.
Never ... was so much owed by so many to so few. (Churchill)
Only then did I understand what she meant.
Only after her death was I able to appreciate her.
Not only did we lose our money, but we were nearly killed.
Not a single word did he say.
Inversion is not used after *not far* ... and *not long* ...
Not far from here you can see foxes. (NOT ~~*Not far from here can you*~~ ...)
Not long after that she got married.

303 inversion (2): whole verb before subject

1 after adverbial expressions of place

When an adverbial expression of place or direction comes at the beginning of a clause, intransitive verbs are often put before their subjects. This happens especially when a new indefinite subject is being introduced. The structure is most common in literary and descriptive writing.
Under a tree was lying one of the biggest men I had ever seen.
On the grass sat an enormous frog.
Directly in front of them stood a great castle.
Along the road came a strange procession.
This structure is often used in speech with *here, there* and other short adverbs and adverb particles.
Here comes Freddy! (NOT ~~*Here Freddy comes.*~~)
There goes your brother.
I stopped the car, and up walked a policeman.
The door opened and out came Angela's boyfriend.
If the subject is a pronoun, it goes before the verb.
Here she comes. (NOT ~~*Here comes she.*~~) *Off we go!*

2 reporting

In story-telling, the subject often comes after reporting verbs like *said, asked, suggested* etc when these follow direct speech.
'What do you mean?' asked Henry. (OR ... *Henry asked.*)
'I love you,' whispered Jan.
If the subject is a pronoun, it usually comes before the verb.
'What do you mean?' he asked.

304 irregular verbs

1 common irregular verbs

This is a list of the more common irregular verbs. Students should check that they know all of them. For a complete list, see a good dictionary.

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
be	was, were	been
bear	bore	born(e)
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
build	built	built
burn	burnt/burned	burnt/burned
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt /delt/	dealt /delt/
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt /dremt/ dreamed /dri:md/	dreamt /dremt/ dreamed /dri:md/
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate /et/	eaten /'i:tən/
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone/been
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard /hɜ:d/	heard/hɜ:d/
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leant/leaned	leant/leaned
learn	learnt/learned	learnt/learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit/lighted	lit/lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant /ment/	meant /ment/
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit/quitted	quit/quitted
read /ri:d/	read /red/	read /red/
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said /sed/	said /sed/
see	saw	seen
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone /ʃɒn/	shone /ʃɒn/
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank/shrunk	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelt/smelled	smelt/smelled
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt/spelled	spelt/spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt/spilled	spilt/spilled
spin	span/spun	spun
spit	spat	spat
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt/spoiled	spoilt/spoiled
spread	spread	spread
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
wind /waɪnd/	wound /waʊnd/	wound /waʊnd/
write	wrote	written

2 verbs that are easily confused

Infinitive	Simple past	Past participle
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fill	filled	filled
find (= get back something lost)	found	found
found (= start up an organisation or institution)	founded	founded
flow (of a liquid = move)	flowed	flowed
fly (= move in the air)	flew	flown
lay (= put down flat)	laid	laid
lie (= be down)	lay	lain
lie (= say things that are not true)	lied	lied

For more details of these three verbs, see 316.

leave	left	left
live	lived	lived
raise (= put up)	raised	raised
rise (= go/get up)	rose	risen
strike (= hit)	struck	struck
stroke (= pass the hand gently over)	stroked	stroked
wind /waɪnd/ (= turn, tighten a spring etc)	wound /waʊnd/	wound /waʊnd/
wound /wuːnd/ (= injure in a battle)	wounded	wounded

3 notes

- *Says* is pronounced /sez/.
- The old past participle *drunken* is used as an adjective in some expressions (e.g. *a drunken argument, drunken driving*), but these are not very common.
- *Prove* (regular) has an irregular past participle *proven* which is sometimes used instead of *proved*, especially as an adjective (e.g. *a proven liar*).
- *Speed* can also have regular forms, especially in the expression *speeded up*.
- *Sung* and *sunk* are sometimes used instead of *sang* and *sank*.
- *Burn, dream, lean, learn, smell, spell, spill* and *spoil* are all regular in American English. In British English, irregular past tenses and participles with *-t* are also common.
- *Dive* is regular in British English, but can be irregular in American: *dive – dived/dove* (/doʊv/) *– dived*
- *Fit* and *quit* are usually irregular in American English.
- The American past participle of *get* is either *got* or *gotten* (see 233.7).
- *Spit* has both *spit* and *spat* as past tense and participle in American English.
- Note the standard AmE pronunciations of *ate* (/eɪt/) and *shone* (/ʃoʊn/).

305 its and it's

These two words are often confused by native speakers of English as well as by foreign learners.

Its is a possessive word (like *my, your*).

Every country has its traditions. (NOT ... ~~*it's traditions.*~~)

It's is the contracted form of *it is* or *it has*.

It's raining again. (NOT ~~*Its raining again.*~~)

Have you seen my camera? It's disappeared. (NOT ... ~~*Its disappeared.*~~)

There is a similar difference between *whose* and *who's* – see 627.
For more about contractions, see 143.

306 it's time

1 followed by infinitive

It's time (or *it is time*) can be followed by an infinitive.

It's time to buy a new car.

To say who should do something, we use ***for*** **+ object + infinitive** (see 291).

It's time for her to go to bed.

2 followed by past tense with present meaning

It's time can also be followed by a subject with a past tense verb. The meaning is present.

It's time she went to bed. *It's time you washed those trousers.*

I'm getting tired. It's time we went home.

The expression *It's high time* ... is often used in this structure in British English, to say that something is urgent.

It's high time you got a job.

For other structures in which a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.

307 just

1 meanings

Just has several meanings.

a time

Just often emphasises the idea of 'at this moment' or 'close to the present'.
I'll be down in a minute – I'm just changing my shirt. (= right now)
Alice has just phoned. (= a short time ago)
Keith's still around. I saw him just last week. (= as recently as)
In expressions like *just after, just before* and *just when, just* suggests closeness to the time in question.
I saw him just after lunch. (= . . . very soon after lunch.)

b 'only', 'scarcely'

Just can mean 'only', 'nothing more than', 'scarcely'.
Complete set of garden tools for just £15.99!
I just want somebody to love me – that's all.
We just caught the train.
This meaning can be emphasised by *only*.
There was only just enough light to read by.
Can/Could I just . . .? can make a request seem less demanding.
Could I just use your phone for a moment?

c 'exactly'

Just often means 'exactly'.
What's the time? ~ It's just four o'clock.
Thanks. That's just what I wanted.
She's just as bad-tempered as her father.

d emphasiser

Just can emphasise other words and expressions, with the sense of 'simply', 'there's no other word for it'.
You're just beautiful. *I just love your dress.*

2 tenses

When *just* means 'a moment ago', past and present perfect tenses are both possible in British English. A present perfect is preferred when we are giving news. Compare:
Where's Eric? ~ He's just gone out.
I've just had a brilliant idea.
John just phoned. His wife's had a baby. (The news is the baby, not the phone call.)
In American English a past tense is normal in all cases.
Where's Eric? ~ He just went out.
I just had a brilliant idea. ▸

3 *just now*

Just now can mean either 'at this moment' or 'a few moments ago'. Compare:
She's not in just now. Can I take a message?
I saw Phil just now. He wanted to talk to you.
When *just now* means 'a few moments ago', two positions are possible:

a in end-position, usually with a past tense.
I telephoned Ann just now.

b in mid-position (see 24) with the verb, with a present perfect or past tense.
I('ve) just now realised what I need to do.

308 kinds of English (1): standard English and dialects

'A language is a dialect that has an army and a navy.' (Max Weinreich)

'Dialect: A language variety that has everything going for it, except the government, the schools, the middle class, the law and the armed forces.'
(Tom McArthur)

1 What is 'standard English'?

After King Alfred's victory over the Vikings in 878, the government of Southern England came to be established in London, which later became the capital of the whole of Britain. Because of this, the English spoken in London and the East Midlands was gradually adopted as the 'official' variety of English. And as time went by, this dialect (and its later developments, profoundly influenced by Norman French), became the 'standard' language – the form of English generally accepted for use in government, the law, business, education and literature. Standard English, like all standard languages, is therefore largely the result of historical accident. If the Vikings, who held the north of England, had defeated Harold's army, the capital of modern Britain might well be York, and this book would be written in (and about) a very different kind of English.

2 What is a dialect?

Many people think that dialects are corrupted forms of a language, spoken by ignorant people who make mistakes because they have not learnt correct grammar. This is not at all true (for more about correctness, see 309). A standard language is not linguistically 'better' than other dialects; it is simply the dialect that has been adopted for official purposes such as government and education. All English dialects have a long history, going back to the distinct forms of speech of the Germanic and Scandinavian invaders who came from various parts of northern Europe to occupy Britain during the Middle Ages. And each of these dialects has a grammar that is as rich and systematic as standard English, even though it may be very different. Some examples of English dialect forms:

I bain't ready. (= I'm not ready.)
He don't like it. *I wants a rest.*

Where's them papers what I give you?
Can ye no help me? (= Can't you help me?)
They're not believing it.
She's after telling me. (= She's told me.)
Are youse coming or not? (= Are you – plural – coming or not?)
I ain't done nothing. (= I haven't done anything.)

3 pronunciation: dialect and accent; 'received pronunciation'

A dialect is not the same as a regional accent (though they often go together). Many British people speak standard English, but with the typical accent of their part of the country. Other British people, however, combine standard English with a non-regional standard pronunciation. This (the so-called 'received pronunciation' or 'RP') is the pronunciation that has traditionally been used by a majority of British upper- and upper-middle-class people, though it has changed a good deal over the years. For a long time RP was considered more 'correct' than other accents, and its social dominance was reinforced by education and the media. This attitude is now changing, and there is less social prejudice in Britain than before against regional accents.

4 showing accent in writing

Writers may spell words in special ways to show a non-standard or conversational pronunciation – for example, apostrophes may be used in place of letters that are not pronounced. These spellings are common in cartoon strips. Some examples (mostly BrE):

'e's gone 'ome. (= He's gone home.)
'elp yerself. (= Help yourself.)
Yer gettin' old. (= You're getting old.)
If.I get me 'ands on yer... (= If I get my hands on you ...)
Where d'she put 'em? (= Where did she put them?)
C'mon, we're late. (= Come on ...)
C'n I 'ave a glass o' water? (= Can I have a glass of water?)
fish 'n' chips. (= fish and chips)
Come wi' me. (= Come with me.)
I dunno. (= I don't know.)
I gotta go. (= I've got to go.)
It's gonna rain. (= It's going to rain.)
I don't wanna play. (= I don't want to play.)

Gotta, gonna and *wanna* are most common in AmE.

5 other standard forms of English

Standard British English is not, of course, the only standard form of English. American English also has a standard variety; this is different from standard British English in a number of ways (see 51). Other English-speaking countries, too, have their own standard versions of the language. Some of these are very close to British or American English; others (e.g. the developing Indian standard) are more clearly distinct. ▸

6 What kind of English should learners study?

For most learners, the best model is one or other of the two main standard varieties: British or American English. Neither of these is 'better' than the other, and they are both used and understood worldwide. The differences are generally unimportant: for details, see 51.

7 international English

As English is used more and more as a language of international communication, it seems possible that a new form of international English may develop. This could be a 'super-standard', with characteristics of both British and American English. International English could turn out to be simpler in some ways than the modern standard varieties, without some of their less important grammatical complications. It will be interesting to see what happens.

309 kinds of English (2): correctness

When people say that somebody's language is 'not correct', they may mean several different things.

1 slips and mistakes

People sometimes make slips of the tongue when they are talking.

He works in Wildlife Conversation – I mean Conservation.

Somebody can use a word wrongly because he or she is unsure of its meaning, or confuses it with another word.

You're being very authoritative. (meaning 'authoritarian')

And many people have trouble with spelling and punctuation.

The firm has doubled it's profits this year. (should be *its profits*)

Foreign learners may also make mistakes with points of grammar that do not cause problems for native speakers.

I could not understanding the lecture. (instead of *I could not understand...*)

2 dialect forms

Many people think that dialects are corrupt versions of the standard language, and that dialect forms are mistakes, made by ignorant people who have not learnt correct grammar. In fact, this is not at all true (see 308.2): dialects have their own systematic – but different – grammars. Teachers in British schools often tell children whose dialects have multiple negation, for example, that they are making mistakes if they say things like *I ain't done nothing*, because 'two negatives make a positive' (so *I ain't done nothing* is supposed to mean 'I have done something'). This is not, of course, the case: in the child's dialect, the sentence means 'I haven't done anything'. And if 'two negatives make a positive', then the teacher ought to be quite happy if the child says 'I ain't done nothing to nobody', since logically three negatives must make a negative! Dialect forms are not, therefore, incorrect in themselves. They are, however, out of place in styles where only the standard language is normally used. It would be inappropriate – in fact, incorrect – to use *I wants, he don't* or a double negative in a school essay, a job application, a newspaper article or a speech at a business conference.

3 divided usage

Speakers of a standard language often differ about small points of usage. Where two different forms are common, people who use one form may claim that theirs is the only 'correct' usage, and that people who use the other form are making mistakes. Some examples from modern English:

so-called 'only correct form'	so-called 'mistake'
John and I went to the cinema.	*John and me went to the cinema.*
They're different from us.	*They're different to us.*
fewer people	*less people*
Somebody's dropped his or her keys.	*Somebody's dropped their keys.*
I'm unemployed at present.	*I'm unemployed presently.*

In fact, all of the so-called 'mistakes' listed above have been normal in standard English for centuries, and are not wrong at all (though some of them are more informal than the so-called 'only correct forms', and would be out of place in a formal style). For details, see 429 (*I* and *me*), 155 (*different*), 320 (*less*), 528 (*their*) and 467 (*presently*).

4 prescriptive and descriptive rules

If people say that *less people* or *different to* is wrong, they are following a prescriptive rule. Prescriptive rules are made by people who believe that they can improve a language, or protect it against change. A lot of prescriptive rules were made by eighteenth- and nineteenth-century British grammarians, often because they thought that English grammar should imitate Latin, which was considered a superior language. A typical example is the rule that 'split infinitives' like *to boldly go*, where an adverb is put between *to* and the verb, are wrong (a Latin infinitive is a single word, so cannot be split). Many people still believe this, and try to avoid split infinitives, although the rule is unrealistic (see 280.7). A similar rule said that sentences should not end in prepositions (as in *What are you waiting for?* or *I don't like being shouted at.*). In fact, it is quite normal for English sentences to end in prepositions (see 452). Most prescriptive rules give misleading information, and have little effect on the development of a language.

Descriptive rules simply say what happens in one form of a language (for example standard written British English, standard spoken American English, Yorkshire English, Dublin English or Singapore English), and not what some people feel ought to happen. The rules in this book are descriptive of standard British English.

5 When do mistakes become correct?

When somebody misuses a word or expression, this may influence other people to make the same mistake. Sometimes a mistake becomes so widespread that it becomes part of the language (this is one way in which languages develop), and we can no longer realistically call it a 'mistake'. The expression *oblivious of*, for example, originally meant 'forgetful of', but came to be used to mean 'unconscious of'. A hundred years ago this was still a mistake; now it is the normal use. The same thing is happening today with the expression *a concerted effort*. This means 'an effort by people working together', but some people now use it mistakenly to mean 'a strong effort'. ▸

If enough people follow the trend, this will sooner or later become the normal meaning, and the usage will have become correct.

310 kinds of English (3): spoken and written English

1 length and complexity; organisation of sentences

In writing, sentences can be planned in advance and revised, so there is time to build up complex structures. Spoken structures are usually simpler. Subjects, in particular, tend to be very short in speech. A typical written sentence:

The group of young people who were sitting at the next table were making so much noise that my friends and I found it difficult to continue our conversation.

In speech, we might say something more like:

There were a lot of young people at the next table. They were making so much noise we couldn't talk.

Written language is mostly made up of complete sentences. In conversation, complete sentences are often unnecessary.

When are you seeing her? ~ Half past eight. ~ At your place? ~ No, at Andy's.

Spoken sentences are often more loosely organised than written sentences, and the information may be 'spaced out' more by putting some of it before or after the main sentence (see 514).

Last Wednesday it was, I was just going to work, ...
This guy who rang up, he's an architect. Well, he said ...
They work very hard, most of them.

'Fronting' – putting something other than the subject at the beginning (see 513) – is more common in speech than in writing.

People like that I just can't stand. *Strange people they are!*

2 structures

Some structures – for example, relative clauses with *whom* – are most common in a formal style. Since speech is more often informal, and writing is more often formal, these structures are most common in written English. Other structures – for example, contractions like *he's*, *can't* – are typically informal, and are most common in speech. (For more about formal and informal language, see 311.) Some structures are common in speech, but hardly ever found in writing – for example, declarative questions (see 481):

You live with your parents?

certain conditional structures (see 262):

It would be good if we'd get some rain.

certain relative structures (see 498.16):

It's ridiculous to sing songs that you don't know what they mean.

and some kinds of ellipsis (see 179):

Couldn't understand a word.

Progressive and past verb forms are often used in speech in order to sound less definite or direct (see 436).

I was hoping you could lend me some money.

And structures whose purpose is to keep a conversation going (e.g. reply questions – see 484) are naturally only used in speech.

We had a lovely holiday. ~ Did you?

3 vocabulary

Written language often uses longer, less common words and expressions that are typical of a formal style (see 311), with a greater variety of synonyms. In speech, people usually prefer shorter, more common words, and they are more likely to keep repeating the same words. Phrasal verbs are common in speech, and are often replaced by more formal single words in writing. Compare:

I told him to get on the plane.
She instructed the man to board the aircraft.

311 kinds of English (4): formality

1 formal and informal language

Most people speak and write in different ways on different occasions. In some languages, for example, there are very complicated rules about how to speak to older or more important people. English does not have a system of this kind. However, there are some words and structures which are mostly used in *formal* situations, when people are careful about how they express themselves: for example in official notices, business letters or reports, meetings or conferences, or polite conversations with strangers. And some words and structures are mostly used in *informal* situations: for example in conversations with friends, or letters to one's family. Writing is more often formal, and speech is more often informal, but informal writing and formal speech are used when the situation makes them preferable.

Customer toilets are at the rear of the building. (Printed notice in an Oxfordshire petrol station)
The toilets are outside round the back. (Handwritten notice in the same petrol station, put up perhaps because the manager felt this would be easier for some of his customers to understand.)

Most words and expressions are neither formal nor informal, but neutral – English speakers do not have to know two ways of saying everything.

2 grammar

Some grammatical structures have different formal and informal versions. For example, contracted auxiliary verbs and negatives (see 143) are common in informal speech and writing. Compare:

FORMAL: *It has gone. It is not possible.*
INFORMAL: *It's gone. It isn't possible.*

Prepositions come at the end of certain structures in informal language (see 452). Compare:

FORMAL: *In which century did he live?*
INFORMAL: *Which century did he live in?*

Some relative structures are different (see 495). Compare:

FORMAL: *The man whom she married . . .*
INFORMAL: *The man she married . . .*

Some determiners are followed more often by singular verb forms in formal language, and by plural forms in informal language (see 532.5). Compare:

FORMAL: *Neither of us likes him.*
INFORMAL: *Neither of us like him.*

Subject and object forms of pronouns (e.g. *I* and *me*) are used differently in formal and informal language (see 429). Compare:

- FORMAL: *It was she who first saw what to do.*
  INFORMAL: *It was her that first saw what to do.*
- FORMAL: *Whom did they elect?*
  INFORMAL: *Who did they elect?*

Ellipsis (leaving out words – see 177–182) is more common in informal language. Compare:

- FORMAL: *Have you seen Mr Andrews?*
  INFORMAL: *Seen John?*
- FORMAL: *We think that it is possible.*
  INFORMAL: *We think it's possible.*

3 vocabulary

Some words and expressions are used mainly in formal situations; in neutral or informal situations other words or expressions are used. And some words and expressions are only used in informal situations. Some examples:

- FORMAL: *commence*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *begin, start*
- FORMAL: *alight* (from a bus or train)
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *get off*
- FORMAL: *I beg your pardon?*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *Pardon? Sorry?* (AmE *Excuse me? Pardon me?*)
  INFORMAL: *What?*
- FORMAL: *repair*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *mend* (BrE)
  INFORMAL: *fix*
- FORMAL: *acceptable, satisfactory*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *all right*
  INFORMAL: *OK*
- FORMAL: *I am (very) grateful to you.*
  NEUTRAL/INFORMAL: *Thank you.*
  INFORMAL: *Thanks.*

For structures used in polite requests and questions, see 435–7.
For formal and informal ways of using people's names and titles, see 363.
For the language used in particular social situations, see 545.
For taboo language, see 575. For slang, see 533.
For the use of out-of-date grammar and vocabulary in ceremonies and other situations, see 392.

312 kinds of English (5): variation and change

Languages change over time. Younger people adopt newer forms of expression, while older people often resist change; so even people who speak the same standard language do not speak it in exactly the same way. There are several reasons for change.

1 communicative need

Several centuries ago, standard English had two second-person pronouns: *thou* (singular) and *ye* (plural). Modern English uses *you* for both. But people still feel the need to distinguish singular and plural, and so expressions like *you guys* (used for both men and women) are beginning to function as second person plural pronouns.

2 influence from other dialects

British English is heavily influenced by American English. Some structures which were not used by British speakers half a century ago are now as common as their older British equivalents.

I feel like I'm getting a cold. (Older British form: *I feel as if I'm getting a cold.*)

Do you have today's newspaper? (Older British form: *Have you (got) today's newspaper?*)

3 Languages simplify themselves

As languages develop, complicated structures often become simpler and more regular. This may be happening with English conditional sentences – structures with *would* or *would have* in both clauses are quite common in speech.

If you'd have asked I'd have told you.

4 Small, less important distinctions are confused or disappear

Some irregular verb forms like *sank/sunk, sang/sung* or *lay/laid* are quite often confused in speech. Examples from the British radio:

He wrote eight operas, all of which sunk without trace.

... a song she sung in yesterday's concert.

Infinitives and *-ing* forms after verbs also sometimes get mixed up. An example from a letter:

I now have pleasure to enclose the correct proposal form. (instead of ... *pleasure in enclosing* ...)

When confusions like these become widespread, they can lead to language change. This may well happen with the possessive *'s* form: more and more people are leaving out the apostrophe or putting it in the 'wrong' place, so that this spelling convention might one day lose its importance and even disappear.

5 New forms and uses spread through the language

Progressive verb forms came into English a few hundred years ago, and gradually became used more and more widely. There are still a few verbs that are not generally used in progressive forms (see 471), but even these are losing their resistance. Some typical modern examples:

I'm understanding French a lot better now.

How many eggs were you wanting?

6 'Underground' forms become respectable

Some forms have always existed in the language, but have been 'driven underground' by prescriptive rules (see 309.4), so that they have been avoided by careful speakers. People are now more tolerant of such forms, so they are becoming more common. Some examples:

Here's your papers. (instead of *Here are* ... – see 532.4)

Somebody's left their umbrella behind. (instead of ... *his or her umbrella* – see 528)

John and me went to the cinema. *between you and I* ▸

7 Mistakes become part of the language

Sometimes a mistake is made by so many people that it becomes the normal form, and can no longer be called incorrect (see 309.5). This has happened with the word *data*. It was originally a plural, from a Latin word meaning 'given things', but it is now widely used as a singular uncountable noun. And recently people have started using *between ... to* instead of *between ... and* (e.g. *There were between 50 to 60 people on the bus*). This, too, could end up as a normal and correct expression.

8 Phonetically weak forms disappear

The weak form of *have* in *I've got* is so quiet that it is often not heard at all; and people are beginning to say *I got* instead of *I've got*. In time, this could become a new regular form.

9 some more examples of changes in modern English

- *Who* is replacing *whom*.
  Who do you trust? (George Bush's 1992 election slogan)
- *Will* and *would* have now practically replaced first-person *shall* and *should*.
  We will be in touch soon. *I would be grateful for some help.*
- Subjunctive *were* is becoming less common.
  If I was ten years younger I'd do the job myself *I wish it was Friday.*
- Some adverbs without *-ly* are becoming more common.
  You pronounced it wrong.
- Comparatives and superlatives with *more* and *most* are gaining ground in two-syllable adjectives.
  'Commoner' used to be commoner, but 'more common' is now more common.
- Plural noun modifiers are becoming more common. For example, *antiques shop* is now as common as *antique shop*, and *drugs problem* is replacing *drug problem*.
- The (very old) use of *less* with plurals is becoming more respectable.
  There were less people than I expected.
- Some AmE prepositional uses and phrasal verb forms are moving into BrE.
  The following trains will not run due to engineering work on weekends. (instead of ... *at weekends.*)
  We met with the unions yesterday. (instead of *We met the unions* ...)
  Can I speak with Cathy? (instead of ... *speak to* ...)
  We haven't seen Granny in ages. (instead of ... *for ages.*)
  You have to fill out this form. (instead of ... *fill in* ...)
- The AmE use of a past tense with *just* and *already* is becoming common in BrE.
  Peter just went out. (instead of *Peter has just gone out.*)
  I already told Jane about the party.

313 know

1 *know how* + infinitive

Know is not followed directly by infinitives. We use know *how to* (see 286).

*I **know how to make** Spanish omelettes.* (NOT ~~*I know to make*~~...)

2 object + infinitive

In a formal style, *know* is sometimes followed by **object + infinitive**.

*They **knew him to be** a dangerous criminal.*

The passive equivalent is quite common in a formal style.

*He **was known to be** a dangerous criminal.*

In a less formal style, *that*-clauses are more usual.

*They **knew that** he was a dangerous criminal.*

Know means 'experience' in the common structure ***I've never known*** + **object + infinitive**; an infinitive without *to* is possible in British English.

*I've never **known it (to) rain** like this.*

3 tenses

Know cannot usually be used in progressive forms (see 471).

*I **know** exactly what you mean.* (NOT ~~*I am knowing*~~...)

A present perfect tense is used to say how long one has known somebody or something. (See 460 for more details.)

*We've **known** each other since 1994.* (NOT ~~*We know each other since 1994*~~.)

4 *know* and *know about/of*

Know + **object** is used mainly to talk about knowledge that comes from direct personal experience. In other cases, we normally use *know about/of, have heard of* or another structure. Compare:

*You don't **know** my mother, do you? ~ No, I've never met her.*

*We all **know about** Abraham Lincoln.* (NOT ~~*We all know Abraham Lincoln*~~.)

5 *know* and *find out* etc

Know is not normally used to talk about finding something out: to know something is ***to have learnt*** it, not ***to learn*** it. To talk about getting knowledge we can use for example *find out, get to know, learn, hear, can tell.*

*She's married. ~ Where did you **find** that out?*
(NOT ... ~~*Where did you know that?*~~)

*I want to travel round the world and **get to know** people from different countries.* (NOT ...~~*and know people*~~...)

*He's from Liverpool, as you can **tell** from his accent.*
(NOT ...~~*as you can know from his accent*~~.)

6 *I know* and *I know it*

Note the difference between these two short answers.

I know refers to facts – it could be completed by a *that*-clause.

*You're late. ~ **I know.*** (= I know that I'm late.)

I know it generally refers to things – *it* replaces a noun.

*I went to a nice restaurant called The Elizabeth last night. ~ **I know it.***
(= I know the restaurant.)

For ways of using *you know*, see 157.

314 last, the last, the latest

1 *last week, month* etc; *the last week, month* etc

Last week, month etc (without *the*) is the week, month etc just before this one. If I am speaking in July, *last month* was June; in 2006, *last year* was 2005. *The last week, month* etc is the period of seven/thirty/etc days up to the moment of speaking. On July 15th 2006, *the last month* is the period from June 16th to July 15th; *the last year* is the 12 months starting in July 2005. Compare:

- *I was ill **last week**, but I'm OK this week.* (NOT ~~*I was ill the last week*~~...)
  *I've had a cold for **the last week**. I feel terrible.*
- *We bought this house **last year**.*
  *We've lived here for **the last year**, and we're very happy with the place.*

The difference between *next* and *the next* is similar. See 375.

2 *the last three* ... etc

Note the word order in expressions with numbers.

*I've been busy for **the last three** months.* (NOT ... ~~*for the three last months.*~~)

We generally say *the last few days/weeks* etc, not *the last days/weeks* etc.

*The **last few** days have been busy.* (NOT ~~*The last days*~~...)

3 the last in a series

The last can also mean 'the last in a series'.

*In **the last** week of the holiday something funny happened.*
*This is going to be **the last** Christmas I'll spend at home.*

4 *latest* and *last*

We can use *latest* to talk about something new, and *last* to mean 'the one before'. Compare:

- *Her **latest** book's being published next week.* (NOT ~~*Her last book*~~...)
  *She thinks it's much better than her **last** one.*
- *He's enjoying his **latest** job.* (NOT ~~*He's enjoying his last job.*~~)
  *But it doesn't pay as much as his **last** one.*

For tenses with *This is the last time* ... etc, see 591.

315 later and in

With a time expression, we generally use *later* to mean 'after that time', and *in* to mean 'after now'. Compare:

*She got married on her 18th birthday; **six months later** she was divorced.*
*Penny's coming on July 1st, and Colin will arrive about **a week later**.*
*I'll see you **in a few days**.* (NOT ~~*I'll see you a few days later*~~.)

But without a time expression, *later* can be used to mean 'after now'.

*Bye! See you **later**!*

316 lay and lie

There are three similar verbs that can be confused: *lay* (regular except for spelling), *lie* (irregular) and *lie* (regular).

1 *lay*

Lay is a regular verb except for its spelling. Its forms are:

infinitive: *(to) lay* past: *laid*
-ing form: *laying* past participle: *laid*

Lay means 'put down carefully' or 'put down flat'. It has an object.

Lay the tent down on the grass and I'll see how to put it up.
*I **laid** the papers on the table.* (NOT ~~*I lay*~~...)

Note the expressions ***lay a table*** (= put plates, knives etc on a table) and ***lay an egg*** (a bird's way of having a baby).

2 *lie* (irregular)

The forms of the irregular verb *lie* are:

infinitive: *(to) lie* past: *lay*
-ing form: *lying* past participle: *lain* (used mostly in a formal/literary style)

Lie (irregular) means 'be down', 'be/become horizontal'. It has no object.

*Don't **lie** in bed all day. Get up and do some work.* (NOT ~~*Don't lay*~~...)
*I **lay** down and closed my eyes.* (NOT ~~*I laid down*~~...)

3 *lie* (regular)

The regular verb *lie* (*lied*) means 'say things that are not true'.

*You **lied** to me when you said you loved me.*

4 dialect forms

In many British and American dialects, different forms of *lay* and irregular *lie* are used. *Lay* is often used in cases where standard English has *lie*.

*I'm going to **lay** down for a few minutes.* (Standard English ... *lie down* ...)

317 learn

1 forms

Learn is often irregular in British English (*learn/learnt*) and normally regular in American English (*learn/learned*). For other verbs like this, see 304.3.

For the adjective *learned* (/'lɜ:nɪd/), see 18.

2 *learn (how) to ...*

To talk about consciously learning a method or technique for doing something, we can use *learn to ...* or *learn how to ...*

*She enjoyed **learning (how) to look after young animals.***
*It's time you **learnt (how) to change the oil in the car.***

When we talk about less conscious skills and other kinds of knowledge, we generally use *learn to ....*

*Children usually **learn to walk** at around one year old.*
*In the new job, I soon **learnt to keep my mouth shut.***

318 least and fewest

1 *the least* as determiner: superlative of *little*

The least is used as a determiner before uncountable nouns; it is the superlative of *little* (= not much – see 329), and the opposite of *the most.*

*I think I probably do **the least work** in this office.*

The least can be used without a noun if the meaning is clear.

*Jan earns the most money in our family; Pete earns **the least.***

We use *the least of* before plural abstract nouns to mean 'the smallest of'.

*What will your mother think? ~ That's **the least of my worries.***

2 'any ... at all'

With singular abstract nouns, *the least* can mean 'any ... at all'.

*Do you think there's **the least chance** of Smith winning the election?*
*What's the time? ~ I haven't got **the least idea.***

3 *the fewest* as determiner: superlative of *few*

The fewest is used before plural nouns as the superlative of *few* (see 329).

*The translation with **the fewest mistakes** isn't always the best.*

Least is often used instead of *fewest* before plural nouns (... *the least mistakes*), especially in an informal style. Some people feel this is incorrect.

4 *(the) least* with adjectives: the opposite of *(the) most* or *(the) ...est*

(The) least is used before adjectives in the same way as *(the) most* or *(the) ...est* (see 137), but with the opposite meaning.

The least expensive holidays are often the most interesting.
I'm least happy when I have to work at weekends.

For the use of *the* with superlatives, see 141.

5 *least* as adverb

Least can be used as an adverb (the opposite of *most*).

*She always arrives when you **least** expect it.*
*I don't much like housework, and I like cooking **least** of all.*

6 *at least*

At least means 'not less than (but perhaps more than)'.

*How old do you think he is? ~**At least** thirty.*
*He's been in love **at least** eight times this year.*

We can also use *at least* as a discourse marker (see 157) to suggest that one thing is certain or all right, even if everything else is unsatisfactory.

*We lost everything in the fire. But **at least** nobody was hurt.*

7 *not in the least*

We can use *not in the least* in a formal style to mean 'not at all', especially when talking about personal feelings and reactions.

*I was **not in the least** upset by her bad temper.*

For *less* and *fewer*, see 320.

319 left

The past participle of *leave* – *left* – can be used in a special way, to mean 'remaining', 'not used', 'still there'.

*What did you do with the money that was **left**?*
*After the explosion, only two people were **left** alive.*

Left is common after *there is* and *have got*.

*There's nothing **left** in the fridge.*
*I haven't got any money **left**: can you get the tickets?*

320 less and fewer

1 the difference

Less is the comparative of *little* (used especially before uncountable nouns). *Fewer* is the comparative of *few* (used before plural nouns). Compare:

*I earn **less** money than a postman.*
*I've got **fewer** problems than I used to have.*

Less is quite common before plural nouns, as well as uncountables, especially in an informal style. Some people consider this incorrect.

*I've got **less** problems than I used to have.* ▸

2 *less/fewer* with and without *of*

Less of and *fewer of* are used before determiners (like *the, my* or *this*) and pronouns.

*I'd like to spend **less of my** time answering letters.*
*At the college reunions, there are **fewer of us** each year.*

Before nouns without determiners, *of* is not used.

*If you want to lose weight, eat **less** food.* (NOT ... ~~*less of food.*~~)
Fewer people make their own bread these days. (NOT ~~*Fewer of people*~~ ...)

3 *less* and *fewer* without nouns

Nouns can be dropped after *less* and *fewer* if the meaning is clear.

*Some people go to church, but **less/fewer** than 20 years ago.*

Less can be used as an adverb (the opposite of the adverb *more*).

*I worry **less** than I used to.*

4 *lesser*

Lesser is used in a few expressions (in a rather formal style) to mean 'smaller' or 'not so much'.

*the **lesser** of two evils* *a **lesser**-known writer*

For *little* and *few*, see 329.
For *least* and *fewest*, see 318.
For the use of *much, far, a lot* etc with *fewer* and *less*, see 140.

321 lest

Lest has a similar meaning to *in case* (see 271) or *so that ... not* (see 543). It is rare in British English, and is found mostly in older literature and in ceremonial language. It is a little more common in formal American English.

*They kept watch all night **lest** robbers should come.*
*We must take care **lest** evil thoughts enter our hearts.*

Lest can be followed by a subjunctive verb (see 567).

*The government must act, **lest** the problem of child poverty grow worse.*

For more about older English, see 392.

322 let (1): structures

1 followed by infinitive without *to*

Let is followed by object + infinitive without *to*.

*We usually **let the children stay** up late on Saturdays.*
(NOT ... ~~*let the children to stay*~~ / ~~*staying*~~ ...)
*She didn't **let me see** what she was doing.* (NOT ... ~~*let me saw*~~ ...)

Note the expressions *let ... know* (= tell, inform) and *let ... have* (= send, give).

*I'll **let you know** my holiday dates next week.*
*Could you **let me have** the bill for the car repair?*
Let go of means 'stop holding'.
*Don't **let go** of Mummy's hand.*

2 not used in passives

Let is unusual in passive forms; we prefer *allow*.
*After questioning he **was allowed** to go home.*

3 with object + preposition / adverb particle

Let can be followed by an object and a prepositional phrase or adverb particle expressing movement.
*You'd better **let the dog out** of the car.*
*Let **him in**, could you?* *Those kids **let my tyres down**.*

For more about infinitives without *to*, see 281.

323 let (2): introducing imperatives

Let can be used to introduce suggestions and orders, when these are not addressed to the hearer/reader (or not only to the hearer/reader). This structure can be considered a kind of imperative (see 268).

1 first-person plural imperative: *let's* ...

We can use *let us* (formal) or *let's* (informal) to make suggestions or to give orders to a group that includes the speaker.
Let us pray. *Let's have a drink.* *OK, let's all get moving.*
Shall we? is used as a question tag (see 487–488) in British English; *let's* can be used as a short answer.
*Let's go for a walk, **shall we?** ~ Yes, let's.*
Negatives are *let us not / do not let us* (formal); *let's not / don't let's* (informal).
*Let us **not** despair.* (formal) *Let's **not** get angry.* (informal)
*Do **not** let us forget those who came before us.* (formal)
Don't let's stay up too late tonight. (informal)

2 first-person singular imperative: *let me* ...

Let me is used to 'give instructions to oneself'; the expressions *Let me see* and *Let me think* are very common.
*What time shall we leave? ~ **Let me think**. Yes, Eight o'clock will be OK.*
*What's the best way to Manchester? **Let me see** – suppose I take the M6.*
Let me just get my coat and I'll be with you.
In a very informal style, *let's* is often used to mean *let me* (see also 429.6).
Let's see. Suppose I take the M6 ...

3 third-person imperative: *let him* ...

Let can also introduce a suggestion or order for someone or something else, not the speaker or hearer. This is common in formal and ceremonial language, but informal uses are also possible. ▸

Let the prayers begin.
Let our enemies understand that we will not hesitate to defend our territory.
Your boyfriend's going out with another girl. ~Let him. I don't care.
Note the structure with *let* + the infinitive of *there is*.
Let there be no doubt in your minds about our intentions.

324 life: countable or uncountable noun

When we talk about life in general, or about a kind of life, *life* is normally uncountable.
Life is complicated. *Ann enjoys life.*
I think I would enjoy city life. (NOT ... ~~*a city life.*~~)
When we describe particular people's lives, *life* is normally countable.
My grandmother had a hard life. (NOT ... ~~*had hard life.*~~)
My mother's parents lived interesting lives.

For more about countable and uncountable nouns, see 148.

325 like: verb

1 not used in progressive forms

Like is not usually used in progressive forms (see 471).
What do you think of the soup? ~I like it. (NOT ... ~~*I'm liking it.*~~)

2 not used without an object

Like cannot normally be used without an object.
How do you feel about ballet? ~I like it. (NOT ... ~~*I like.*~~)
For exceptions, see paragraph 7 below.

3 *very much*: position

We can use *very much* with *like*, but not *very* alone.
I very much like ice cream. (NOT ~~*I very like ice cream.*~~)
Very much does not come between *like* and its object (see 21).
I like you and your sister very much. OR *I very much like you and your sister.*
(NOT ~~*I like very much you and your sister.*~~)

4 *like ...ing*: enjoyment

To talk about enjoying activities in general, we can use *like ...ing* (especially in BrE) or *like* + infinitive.
I really like walking / to walk in the woods.
Children always like listening / to listen to stories.
To talk about enjoying something on one occasion, we use *like ...ing*.
I really liked working with him on his boat last week.
Like + object + verb is possible.
I don't like people phoning / to phone me in the middle of the night.

5 *like* + infinitive: choices and habits

We can use *like* + **infinitive** to talk about choices and habits.

I like to do the shopping early on Saturday mornings.
When I'm pouring tea I like to put the milk in first.

Not like to can mean 'think it better not to'.

Why didn't you tell me before? ~I didn't like to disturb you at home.

Like + object + **infinitive** is possible.

She likes the children to go to bed early during the week.

6 *would like*

We use *would like* + **infinitive** as a polite way of saying 'want', especially in requests and offers.

I'd like two kilos of tomatoes, please.
Would you like to dance? ~Yes, OK. (NOT ~~*Would you like dancing?*~~ . . .)

Do you like . . .? is not used in this way.

(NOT ~~*Do you like some more coffee?*~~)

Would like to can be used instead of repeating a whole infinitive (see 182).

How about playing tennis? ~ I'd like to.

Polite requests often begin *If you would like . . .* ; the following clause is sometimes dropped.

If you would like to take a seat, I'll see if Mr Smithers is free.
If you would like to come this way . . .

Would is sometimes dropped in this structure.

If you like to come this way . . .

For *would like* with a perfect infinitive (e.g. *I would like to have seen that.*), see 288.

7 *if you like* etc

When we offer people a choice, we often use *like* to mean 'want (to)' in subordinate clauses. Note that *to* is not used.

Can I go now? ~If you like. (NOT ~~*If you like to.*~~)
Do it any way you like. *Come when you like.*
You can sit wherever you like.

326 like and as: similarity, function

We can use *like* or *as* to say that things are similar. We can also use *as* to talk about function – the jobs that people or things do.

1 *like* (similarity): *like me*

Like can be a preposition. We use *like*, not *as*, before a noun or pronoun to talk about similarity.

like + noun/pronoun

My sister looks like me. (NOT . . . ~~*as me.*~~)
He ran like the wind. (NOT . . . ~~*as the wind.*~~)
Like his parents, he is a vegetarian.

We can use *very*, *quite* and other adverbs of degree before *like*.

He's very like his father. ▸

She looks a bit like Queen Victoria.

We can use *like* to give examples.

She's good at scientific subjects, like mathematics. (NOT . . . ~~*as mathematics.*~~)

In mountainous countries, like Peru, . . .

2 *as* (similarity): *as I do*

As is a conjunction. We use it before a clause, and before an expression beginning with a preposition.

as + clause
as + preposition phrase

Nobody knows her as I do.

We often drink tea with the meal, as they do in China.

In 1939, as in 1914, everybody seemed to want war.

On Friday, as on Tuesday, the meeting will be at 8.30.

3 *like I do* (informal)

In modern English, *like* is often used as a conjunction instead of *as*. This is most common in an informal style.

Nobody loves you like I do.

You look exactly like your mother did when she was 20.

4 inverted word order: *as did all his family*

In a very formal style, *as* is sometimes followed by **auxiliary verb + subject** (note the inverted word order – see 302).

She was a Catholic, as were most of her friends.

He believed, as did all his family, that the king was their supreme lord.

5 *as you know* etc

Some expressions beginning with *as* are used to introduce facts which are 'common ground' – known to both speaker/writer and listener/reader. Examples are *as you know, as we agreed, as you suggested.*

As you know, next Tuesday's meeting has been cancelled.

I am sending you the bill for the repairs, as we agreed.

There are some passive expressions of this kind – for example *as is well known*; *as was agreed.* Note that there is no subject *it* after *as* in these expressions (see 581).

As is well known, more people get colds in wet weather. (NOT ~~*As it is well known*~~ . . .)

I am sending you the bill, as was agreed. (NOT . . . ~~*as it was agreed.*~~)

6 comparison with *as* and *like* after negatives

After a negative clause, a comparison with *as* or *like* usually refers only to the positive part of what comes before.

I don't smoke, like Jane. (Jane smokes.)

I am not a Conservative, like Joe. (Joe is a Conservative.)

Before a negative clause, the comparison refers to the whole clause.

Like Mary, I don't smoke. (Mary doesn't smoke.)

Like Bill, I am not a Conservative. (Bill is not a Conservative.)

7 function or role: *He worked as a waiter*

Another use of *as* is to say what function or role a person or thing has – what jobs people do, what purposes things are used for, what category they belong to, etc. In this case, *as* is a preposition, used before a noun.

*He worked **as a waiter** for two years.* (NOT ... ~~*like a waiter.*~~)
*Please don't use that knife **as a screwdriver**.*
*A crocodile starts life **as an egg**.*

Compare this use of *as* with *like*.

***As your brother**, I must warn you to be careful.* (I am your brother.)
***Like your brother**, I must warn you to be careful.* (I am not your brother, but he and I have similar attitudes.)

Note that *as* is usually pronounced /əz/ (see 616).
For comparisons with *as ... as*, see 136.
For *like* used instead of *as if*, see 74.
For *What ... like?*, see 253.
For *like* used to join two infinitive structures, see 281.4.
For *alike*, see 34.
For *the same as*, see 503.
For *such as*, see 508.6.

327 likely

1 meaning

Likely is an adjective with a similar meaning to *probable*.

*I don't think a Labour victory is **likely**.* *The opposite is **unlikely**.*
*What's a **likely** date for the election?* *Snow is very **unlikely**.*

Note also the informal adverb phrases *very/most likely*.

*I think she'll **very/most likely** be late.*

2 *it is (un)likely* + *that*-clause

We can use *it* as a preparatory subject or object for a *that*-clause (see 446.7).

***It's likely that** the meeting will go on late.*
*I thought **it unlikely that** she would come back.*

3 infinitive after *be (un)likely*

Be + *(un)likely* is often followed by an infinitive.

*I'm **likely to** be busy tomorrow.*
*Do you think it's **likely to** rain?* *He's **unlikely to** agree.*

328 link verbs: be, seem, look etc

1 common link verbs

Some verbs are used to join an adjective or noun complement to a subject. These verbs can be called 'link verbs', 'copulas' or 'copular verbs'. Common examples: *be, seem, appear, look, sound, smell, taste, feel, become, get.*

The weather is horrible. *I do feel a fool.*
That car looks fast. *She became a racehorse trainer.*
The stew smells good. *It's getting late.*

2 adjectives after link verbs

After link verbs we use adjectives, not adverbs. Compare: ▸

He spoke intelligently. (Intelligently is an adverb. It tells you about how the person spoke.)
He seems intelligent. (Intelligent is an adjective. It tells you about the person himself – rather like saying *He is intelligent. Seem* is a link verb.)

3 other uses

Some of these verbs are also used with other meanings as ordinary non-link verbs. They are then used with adverbs, not adjectives. Compare:
The problem appeared impossible. (NOT ... ~~*impossibly*~~.)
Isabel suddenly appeared in the doorway. (NOT ... ~~*sudden*~~...)
Other verbs used in two ways like this are *look* (see 331), *taste* (see 577) and *feel* (see 202).

4 change

Some link verbs are used to talk about change, or the absence of change. The most common are: *become, get, grow, go, turn, stay, remain, keep.*

It's becoming colder.	*It's growing colder.*
How does she stay so young?	*Keep calm.*
It's getting colder.	*The leaves are going brown.*
I hope you will always remain so happy.	*The leaves are turning brown.*

For the differences between these verbs, see 128.

5 other verbs followed by adjectives

Sometimes other verbs, too, can be followed by adjectives. This happens when we are really describing the subject of the sentence, and not the action of the verb. It is common in descriptions with *sit, stand, lie, fall.*
The valley lay quiet and peaceful in the sun.
She sat motionless, waiting for their decision.
He fell unconscious on the floor. (NOT ... ~~*unconsciously*~~...)
Adjectives can also be used in the structure verb + object + adjective, to describe the object of the verb.
New SUPER GUB washes clothes SUPER WHITE. (NOT ... ~~*WHITELY*~~...)
He pulled his belt tight and started off. (NOT... ~~*tightly*~~...)

For the difference between adjectives and adverbs, see 26.
For cases like *drive slow, think positive,* see 27.2,4.
For more about structures after verbs, see 606.
See also the entries for particular link verbs.

329 (a) little and (a) few

1 uncountable and plural

We use the determiner *(a) little* with singular (usually uncountable) words, and we use *(a) few* with plurals. Compare:
I have little interest in politics. *Few politicians are really honest.*
We've got a little bacon and a few eggs.

2 of after *(a) little* and *(a) few*

We use *(a) little of* and *(a) few of* before a pronoun or determiner (for example *the, my, these* – see 154).

Compare:
- *Few people can say that they always tell the truth.*
  Few of us can say that we always tell the truth.
- *Could I try **a little** wine?*
  *Could I try **a little of your** wine?*
- *Only **a few** children like maths.*
  *Only **a few of the** children in this class like maths.*

3 use of *a*

There is a difference between *little* and *a little*, and between *few* and *a few*. Without *a*, *little* and *few* usually have rather negative meanings. They may suggest 'not as much/many as one would like', 'not as much/many as expected', and similar ideas.

*The average MP has **little** real power.*
Few people can speak a foreign language perfectly.

A little and *a few* are more positive: their meaning is generally closer to *some*. They may suggest ideas like 'better than nothing' or 'more than expected'.

*Would you like **a little** soup?*
*You don't need to go shopping. We've got **a few** potatoes and some steak.*

Compare:
- *Cactuses need **little** water.* (not much water)
  *Give the roses **a little** water every day.* (not a lot, but some)
- *His ideas are difficult, and few people understand them.*
  *His ideas are difficult, but **a few** people understand them.*

Quite a few (informal) means 'a considerable number'.

*We've got **quite a few** friends in the village.*

4 formal and informal language

Little and *few* (with no article) are rather formal. In an informal style (e.g. ordinary conversation), we generally prefer *not much/many*, or *only a little/few*.

*Come on! We haven't got **much** time!*
*Only **a few** people speak a foreign language perfectly.*

However, *very little* and *very few* are possible in an informal style.

*He's got **very little** patience and **very few** friends.*

5 *(a) little* and *(a) few* without nouns

We can drop a noun and use *(a) little/few* alone, if the meaning is clear.

*Some more soup? ~Just **a little**, please.*

6 not used after *be*

(A) little and *(a) few* are determiners (see 154). They are normally used before nouns, but not after *be*.

*They had **little** hope.* (BUT NOT ~~*Their hope was little.*~~)

7 *(a) little* with adjectives and adverbs

(A) little can modify comparatives.

*How are you? ~**A little** better, thanks.*
*The new model is **little** faster than the old one.*

Little is not normally used to modify other adjectives or adverbs.
*It's **not very** interesting.* (NOT ~~*It's little interesting.*~~)
A little can be used, like *a bit* (see 107), before adjectives and adverbs with a critical or negative meaning.
*You must forgive her – she's **a little** confused.*
*They arrived **a little** late.*
Note also the expression *little known.*
*He's studying the work of a **little known** German novelist.*

For *less* and *fewer*, see 320.
For the adjective *little*, see 534.

330 long and (for) a long time

1 *long* in questions and negatives

Long (meaning '(for) a long time') is most common in questions and negative clauses, and with restrictive words like *hardly, seldom.*
*Have you been waiting **long**?*
*It doesn't take **long** to get to her house.* *She seldom stays **long**.*

2 *(for) a long time* in affirmative clauses

In affirmative clauses we usually prefer *(for) a long time.*
*I waited **(for) a long time**, but she didn't arrive.* (NOT ~~*I waited long*~~...)
*It takes **a long time** to get to her house.* (NOT ~~*It takes long*~~...)

3 *long* in affirmative clauses

However, *long* is used in affirmative clauses with *too, enough, as* and *so*, and in a few other common expressions.
*The meeting went on much **too long**.*
*I've been working here **long enough**. Time to get a new job.*
*You can stay **as long** as you want.*
*Sorry I took **so long**.* *I'll be back **before long**.*
*She sits dreaming **all day long**.* (also *all night/week/year long*)
Long is also used in affirmative clauses to modify adverbs and conjunctions.
*We used to live in Paris, but that was **long before** you were born.*
***Long after** the accident he used to dream that he was dying.*
***Long ago**, in a distant country, there lived a beautiful princess.*
(rather formal)

4 *for a long time* in negative clauses

When *for a long time* is used in a negative clause, it sometimes has a different meaning from *for long*. Compare:
– *She didn't speak **for long**.* (= She only spoke for a short time.)
*She didn't speak **for a long time**.* (= She was silent for a long time.)
– *He didn't work **for long**.* (= He soon stopped working.)
*He didn't work **for a long time**.* (= He was unemployed for a long time.)
The reason for the difference is to do with the 'scope of negation': in the first and third sentences, *not* goes with *for long*, but in the second and fourth *for a long time* is outside the influence of *not* (it could go at the beginning of the clause).

5 *How long are you here for?*

Questions like *How long are you here for?* refer to the future. Compare:
How long are you here for? ~ *Until the end of next week.*
How long have you been here for? ~ *Since last Monday.*

6 comparative

The comparative of *for a long time* is *(for) longer.*
I hope you'll stay longer next time. (NOT ... ~~*for a longer time.*~~)

For *no longer*, see 379.
Much, many and *far* are also more common in questions and negative clauses (see 357 and 200).

331 look

1 link verb (= 'seem')

Look can mean 'seem' or 'appear'. In this case it is a link verb (see 328) and can be followed by adjectives or nouns.
You look angry – what's the matter? (NOT ~~*You look angrily*~~ ...)
I looked a real fool when I fell in the river.
The garden looks a mess.
To talk about a temporary appearance, we can use simple or progressive forms; there is not much difference of meaning.
You look / You're looking very unhappy. What's the matter?
Look can be followed by *like* or *as if* (see 74). Progressive forms are not usually used in this case.
She looks like her mother.
It looks as if it's going to rain. (NOT ~~*It's looking as if*~~ ...)
She looks as if she's dreaming.
She looks like she's dreaming. (informal) (NOT ~~*She looks like dreaming.*~~)
Look like ...ing ... (informal) is used with future reference in British English.
It looks like being a wet night. (= It looks as if it will be ...)
Look + infinitive is also sometimes used in informal British English.
The team look to repeat their success. (= It looks as if they will ...)

2 ordinary verb = ('direct one's eyes')

When *look* means 'direct one's eyes', it is used with adverbs, not adjectives. Before an object, a preposition is necessary (usually *at*).
The boss looked at me angrily. (NOT ~~*The boss looked at me angry.*~~)
A preposition is not used when there is no object.
Look! It's changing colour. (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~ ...)

3 not followed by *if*

Before *if* or *whether*, we use *see* or *look to see*, not *look*.
Could you see if Ann's in the kitchen? (NOT ~~*Could you look if Ann's in the kitchen?*~~)
What are you doing? ~ *I'm looking to see whether these batteries are OK.* (NOT ~~*I'm looking whether*~~ ...)

4 *look after* and *look for*; *fetch*

These are not the same. *Look after* means 'take care of'; *look for* means 'try to find'. Compare:

*Could you **look after** the kids while I go shopping?*
*I spent ages **looking for** her before I found her.*

We use *fetch*, not *look for*, if we know where people or things are.

*I'm going to the station at three o'clock **to fetch** Daniel.* (NOT ... ~~*to look for Daniel.*~~)

For other uses of *look*, see a good dictionary.
For the difference between *look (at)*, *watch* and *see*, see 506.
For *Look!* and *Look here!* used in arguments, see 157.19.

332 lose and loose

Lose (pronounced /lu:z/) is an irregular verb (*lose – lost – lost*).
Loose (pronounced /lu:s/) is an adjective (the opposite of *tight*).

*I must be **losing** weight – my clothes all feel **loose**.* (NOT ~~*I must be loosing weight*~~ ...)

333 [a] lot, lots, plenty, a great deal, a large amount, a large number, the majority

1 introduction; use of *of*

These expressions have similar meanings to the determiners *much*, *many* and *most*, but the grammar is not quite the same. In particular, *of* is used after these expressions even before nouns with no determiner. Compare:

- *There's not **a lot of** meat left.* (NOT ~~*There's not a lot meat left.*~~)
  *There's not **much** meat left.* (NOT ~~*There's not much of meat left.*~~)
- *Plenty of shops open on Sunday mornings.* (NOT ~~*Plenty shops*~~ ...)
  Many shops open on Sunday mornings. (NOT ~~*Many of shops*~~ ...)

For *much*, *many* and *most* with and without *of*, and other details of their use, see 356–357.

2 *a lot of* and *lots of*

These are rather informal. In a more formal style, we prefer *a great deal of*, *a large number of*, *much* or *many*. (*Much* and *many* are used mostly in questions and negative clauses – see 357.) There is not much difference between *a lot of* and *lots of*: they are both used mainly before singular uncountable and plural nouns, and before pronouns. It is the subject, and not the form *lot/lots*, that makes a following verb singular or plural. So when *a lot of* is used before a plural subject, the verb is plural; when *lots of* is used before a singular subject, the verb is singular.

A lot of time is needed to learn a language.
Lots of patience is needed, too. (NOT ~~*Lots of patience are needed, too.*~~)
A lot of my friends want to emigrate. (NOT ~~*A lot of my friends wants*~~ ...)
Lots of us think it's time for an election.

3 *plenty of*

Plenty of is usually rather informal. It is used mostly before singular uncountables and plurals. It suggests 'enough and more'.

*Don't rush. There's **plenty of time.*** *Plenty of shops take cheques.*

4 *a great deal of, a large amount of* and *a large number of*

These are used in similar ways to *a lot of* and *lots of*, but are more formal. *A great deal of* and *a large amount of* are generally used with uncountable nouns.

*Mr Lucas has spent **a great deal of** time in the Far East.*
*I've thrown out **a large amount of** old clothing.*

A large number of is used before plurals, and a following verb is plural.

*A **large number of** problems still have to be solved.* (More natural than *A large amount of problems* ... or *A great deal of problems* ...)

5 *the majority of*

The majority of (= 'most' or 'most of') is mostly used with plural nouns and verbs.

*The **majority of** criminals are non-violent.*

6 measurement nouns

These expressions are not generally used before words for units of measure, like *pounds, years* or *miles*. Other words have to be used.

*It cost **several** pounds.* (NOT ~~*It cost a lot of pounds.*~~)
*They lived **many** miles from the town.* (NOT ~~*They lived plenty of miles from the town.*~~)

7 use without following nouns

These expressions can be used without nouns if the meaning is clear. In this case, *of* is not used.

*How much did it cost? ~**A lot.*** (= A lot of money.)
*We should be all right for cheese – I've bought **plenty**.*
*He does not often speak, but when he does he says **a great deal**.*

8 use as adverbs

A lot and *a great deal* can be used as adverbs.

*On holiday we walk and swim **a lot**.* (BUT NOT ... ~~*we walk plenty*~~ OR ... ~~*swim lots.*~~)
*The government seems to change its mind **a great deal**.*

334 loudly and aloud

Loudly is used (like *loud*) to talk about the strength of a noise. The opposite is *quietly*.

*They were talking so **loudly** I couldn't hear myself think.* ▸

Aloud is often used with the words *read* and *think*, to say that words are spoken, and not just 'said' silently in the head.

*She has a very good pronunciation when she reads **aloud**.*
*What did you say? ~Oh, nothing. I was just thinking **aloud**.*

335 make: causative structures

1 object + infinitive

After *make* + object, we use the infinitive without *to* (see 281).

I made her cry. (NOT ~~*I made her to cry*~~. OR ~~*I made her crying*~~.)

Note that the infinitive must follow the object.

*I can't make **the washing machine work**.* (NOT ~~*I can't make work the washing machine*~~.)

In passive structures the infinitive with *to* is used.

*She **was made to repeat** the whole story.*

2 *make onself understood*, etc

In a few cases *make* can be followed by *myself, yourself* etc and a past participle. The structure is common with *understood* and *heard*.

*I don't speak good French, but I can **make myself understood**.* (NOT ... ~~*make myself understand*~~.)
*She had to shout to **make herself heard**.*

3 with object + object complement: *make people welcome* etc

We can talk about an effect or change with *make* + object + adjective/noun (see 607).

*She **made everybody welcome**.*
*The rain **made the grass wet**.* (NOT ~~*The rain made wet the grass*~~.)

We do not use *make ... be* in this structure.

*You have **made me a happy man**.* (NOT ~~*You have made me be a happy man*~~.)

For other structures and the difference between *make* and *do*, see 160.

336 make: prepositions

We usually say that something is *made of* a particular material.

*Most things seem to be **made of** plastic these days.*
*All our furniture is **made of** wood.*

When a material is changed into a completely different form to make something, we often use *make from*.

*Paper is **made from** wood.* (NOT ~~*Paper is made of wood*~~.)

When we talk about the process of manufacture, we can also use *out of*.

*He **made all the window-frames out of oak**; it took a long time.*

To mention one of several materials (e.g. in cooking), we can use *make with*.

*The soup's good. ~Yes, I **make it with** lots of garlic.*

337 marry and divorce

1 *get married/divorced*

In an informal style, *get married* and *get divorced* are more common than *marry* and *divorce* when there is no object.

*Lulu and Joe got **married** last week.* (*Lulu and Joe married* . . . is more formal.)

*The Robinsons are **getting divorced**.*

In a more formal style, *marry* and *divorce* are preferred.

*Although she had many lovers, she never **married**.*

*After three very unhappy years they **divorced**.*

2 no preposition before object

Before a direct object, *marry* and *divorce* are used without prepositions.

*She **married a builder**.* (NOT ~~*She married with a builder*~~.)

*Andrew's going to **divorce Carola**.*

3 *get/be married to*

We can also use *get/be married to* with an object.

*She **got married to** her childhood sweetheart.*

*I've **been married to** you for 25 years and I still don't understand you.*

338 may and might (1): introduction

1 grammar

May and *might* are modal auxiliary verbs (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.

*She **may** be here tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*She mays*~~. . .)

*It **might** rain this afternoon.*

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.

May I help you? (NOT ~~*Do I may*~~. . .)

*We **might not** be home before midnight.*

c After *may* and *might* we use the infinitive of other verbs, without *to*.

*You may **be** right.* (NOT ~~*You may to be right*~~.)

*She might not **want** to come with us.*

d *May* and *might* do not have infinitives or participles (~~*to may*~~, ~~*maying*~~, ~~*mighted*~~ do not exist). When necessary, we use other words.

*She wants **to be allowed** to open a bank account.* (NOT . . . ~~*to may open*~~. . .)

e *Might* does not normally have a past meaning. It is used in the same way as *may* to talk about the present and future. The difference is that *might* usually refers to situations which are less probable or less definite (see 339.2 and 340.1). *Might* also replaces *may* in past indirect speech (see 275). ▸

f However, certain past ideas can be expressed by *may* or *might* followed by a perfect infinitive (***have*** + past participle).
*She's late. I think she **may have missed** the train.*
*Why did you do that? You **might have killed** yourself.*

g *Might* has a contracted negative *mightn't* (see 143). *Mayn't* is very unusual.

2 meanings

May and *might* are used mainly to talk about the chances of something happening, and to ask for and give permission (especially in a more formal style).
*I **may** see you tomorrow.*
*Do you think I **might** borrow your typewriter?*

Can and *could* are often used in similar ways to *may* and *might*. For the main differences, see 345. For *may* and *might* after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.

339 may and might (2): chances etc

1 chances: *You may be right; We may go climbing*

We often use *may* and *might* to talk about the chance (possibility) that something will happen, or is happening.
*We **may** go climbing in the Alps next summer.*
*Peter **might** phone. If he does, ask him to ring later.*
*I think Labour are going to win. ~ You **may** be right.*
*Where's Emma? ~ I don't know. She **might** be out shopping, I suppose.*
May well and *might well* suggest stronger possibilities.
*I think it's going to rain. ~ You **may well** be right – the sky's really black.*

2 *may* and *might*: the difference

Might is not often used as a past form of *may*: both *may* and *might* are used to talk about the present or future. *Might* is mostly used as a less definite or more hesitant form of *may*, suggesting a smaller chance – it is used when people think something is possible but not very likely. Compare:
*I **may** go to London tomorrow.* (perhaps a 50% chance)
*Joe **might** come with me.* (perhaps a 30% chance)

3 questions: *may* not used

May is not normally used to ask about the chance of something happening.
Are you likely to go camping this summer? (NOT ~~*May you go camping*~~...?)
Has Emma gone shopping, I wonder? (NOT ~~*May Emma have gone shopping?*~~)
But *may* is possible in indirect questions (for example after *Do you think*).
*Do you think you **may** go camping this summer?*
Might can be used in direct questions, but this is rather formal.
Might you go camping? (less natural than *Do you think you may/might...?*)

4 two negatives: *may/might not* and *can't*

There are two ways to make *may/might* negative: with *may/might not* (= It is possible that . . . not . . .) and with *can't* (= It is not possible that . . .) Compare:

– *She **may** be at home.* (= Perhaps she is at home.)
  *She **may not** be at home.* (= Perhaps she is not at home.)
  *She **can't** be at home.* (= She is certainly not at home.)
– *You **might** win.* (= Perhaps you will win.)
  *You **might not** win.* (= Perhaps you won't win.)
  *You **can't** win.* (= You certainly won't win.)

5 *might* meaning 'would perhaps'

Might (but not *may*) can have a conditional meaning (= would perhaps).

*If you went to bed for an hour, you **might** feel better.*
(= . . . perhaps you would feel better.)
*Don't play with knives. You **might** get hurt.* (= Perhaps you would get hurt.)

6 indirect speech: *might*

Might is used in past indirect speech when *may* was used in direct speech.

*I **may** go to Scotland.* ~ *What?* ~ *I said I **might** go to Scotland.*

7 past: *might* + infinitive not used

Might + infinitive is not normally used to talk about past possibility (except in indirect speech).

*I felt very hot and tired. **Perhaps** I was ill.* (NOT . . . ~~*I might be ill.*~~)

8 *may/might have . . .*: *She may have missed her train*

However, to say that it is possible that something happened or was true in the past, we can use *may/might have* + past participle.

Polly's very late. ~ *She **may have missed** her train.* (= It is possible that she missed . . .)
What was that noise? ~ *It **might have been** a cat.*

May/might have . . . can sometimes refer to the present or future.

*I'll try phoning him, but he **may have gone** out by now.*
*By the end of this year I **might have saved** some money.*

9 *might have . . .*: *You might have killed yourself*

To say that something was possible but did not happen, we can use *might have . . .*

*You were stupid to try climbing up there. You **might have killed** yourself.*
*If she hadn't been so bad-tempered, I **might have married** her.*

May have . . . is now sometimes used with this meaning too; some people feel that this is not correct.

*You were stupid to try climbing up there. You **may have killed** yourself.*
(More normal: . . . *You **might have killed** yourself.*)

For *might have . . .* used to criticise people for not doing things, see 344.
For the use of *could have* + past participle in similar senses, see 124.7. ▶

10 another use of *may/might*: typical occurrences

In scientific and academic language, *may* is often used to talk about typical occurrences – things that can happen in certain situations.

*A female crocodile **may** lay 30-40 eggs.*
*The flowers **may** have five or six petals, pink or red in colour.*
*Children of divorced parents **may** have difficulty with relationships.*

With this meaning, *might* can be used to talk about the past.

*In those days, a man **might** be hanged for stealing a sheep.*

Can and *could* are used in a similar way, but are less formal. See 122.2,4.

340 may and might (3): permission

May and *might* are used for permission mostly in a formal style. They are much less common than *can* and *could*.

1 asking for permission: *May I put the TV on?*

May and *might* can both be used to ask for permission. *Might* is very polite and formal, and is mostly used in indirect question structures.

May I put the TV on?
*I wonder if I **might** have a little more cheese.*
(More natural than *Might I have . . .?*)

2 giving and refusing permission: *You may / You may not*

May is used to give permission; *may not* to refuse permission or forbid.

*May I put the TV on? ~ Yes, of course you **may**.*
*May I borrow the car? ~ No, I'm afraid you **may not**.*
*Students **may not** use the staff car park.*

Must not is also used to forbid (see 360.3). It is a little stronger or more emphatic than *may not*.

*Students **must not** use the staff car park.*

3 talking about permission

We do not usually use *may* and *might* to talk about permission which has already been given or refused, about freedom which people already have, or about rules and laws. Instead, we use *can, could* or *be allowed*.

*These days, children **can / are allowed to** do what they like.* (NOT . . . ~~*children may do what they like*~~.)
*I **could / was allowed to** read what I liked when I was a child.* (NOT ~~*I might read what I liked*~~ . . .)
*Can you / Are you **allowed to** park on both sides of the road here?*
(More natural than *May you park . . .?*)

4 indirect speech

However, *may* and *might* can be used to report the giving of permission. *May* is used after present reporting verbs, and *might* after past verbs.

*The Manager says that we **may** leave our coats in the downstairs toilet.*
*What are you doing here? ~ Peter said that I **might** look round.* (very formal)

341 may and might (4): may in wishes and hopes

May (but not *might*) is used in formal expressions of wishes and hopes.

*I hope that the young couple **may** enjoy many years of happiness together.*
*Let us pray that peace **may** soon return to our troubled land.*

May often comes at the beginning of the sentence.

May you both be very happy! *May God be with you.*
May the New Year bring you all your heart desires.
May she rest in peace. (prayer for a dead person)

342 may and might (5): may/might ... but

May (and sometimes *might*) can be used in a discussion rather like *although* or *even if*: to say that something is true, but that this makes no difference to the main argument. They are often followed by *but*.

*He **may** be clever, but he hasn't got much common sense.* (= Even if he's clever, he ... OR Although he's clever, he ...)
*It **may** be a comfortable car, but it uses a lot of petrol.*
*She **might** have had a lovely voice when she was younger, but ...*

Note that in this structure, *may* and *might* can be used to talk about things that are definitely true, not just possible.

*You **may** be my boss, but that doesn't mean you're better than me.*

343 may and might (6): may/might as well

This structure is used informally to suggest that one should do something because there is nothing better, nothing more interesting or nothing more useful to do. There is little difference between *may* and *might* in this case.

*There's nobody interesting to talk to. We **may as well** go home.*
*Shall we go and see Fred? ~ OK, **might as well**.*

Note the difference between *may/might as well* and *had better* (see 230). Compare:

*We **may as well** have something to eat.*
(= There is nothing more interesting to do.)
*We'd **better** have something to eat.*
(= We ought to eat; there is a good reason to eat now.)

Might as well is also used to compare one unpleasant situation with another.

*This holiday isn't much fun. We **might just as well** be back home.* (= Things wouldn't be any different if we were at home.)
*You never listen – I **might as well** talk to a brick wall.*

344 may and might (7): requests, suggestions and criticisms

Might is often used in affirmative clauses to make requests and suggestions.

*You **might** see if John's free this evening.*
*You **might** try asking your uncle for a job.* ▸

The structure can be used to criticise. ***Might have* + past participle** is used to talk about the past.

*You **might** ask before you borrow my car.*
*She **might have told** me she was going to stay out all night.*

For the use of *could* in similar senses, see 124.7.

345 may and might (8): may/might and can/could

May/might are often used in similar ways to *can/could*. The main differences are as follows. For more details of these uses, see 121–124 and 338–340.

1 permission: *can/could* more common

Can and *could* are more common than *may* and *might*, which are used mostly in a formal style. Compare:

Can I look at your paper?
*Excuse me, **may** I look at your newspaper for a moment?*

There is an old belief that *may/might* are more 'correct' than *can/could* in this case, but this does not reflect normal usage.

2 'general' possibility: *can/could*, not *may/might*

We normally use *can* and *could* to say that things are possible in general: people are able to do them, the situation makes them possible, or there is nothing to stop them (see 122). *May* and *might* are not used in this way.

*She's lived in France; that's why she **can** speak French.* (NOT ... ~~*that's why she may speak French.*~~)
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.* (NOT ~~*These roses may grow anywhere.*~~)
Can gases freeze? (NOT ~~*May gases freeze?*~~)
*In those days, everybody **could** find a job.* (NOT ... ~~*everybody might find a job.*~~)

3 chances: *may/might/could*, not *can*

To talk about the chance (possibility) that something will happen, or is happening, we use *may*, *might* or *could*, but not *can*.

*Where's Sarah? ~ She **may** be with Joe.* (NOT ~~*She can be*~~ ...)
*We **may** go to the Alps next summer.* (NOT ~~*We can go*~~ ... ~~*next summer.*~~)

Might and *could* suggest a less strong possibility.

*It **might/could** rain this evening, but I think it probably won't.*

May is not used in direct questions with this meaning.

Do you think you'll go to the Alps? (NOT ~~*May you go*~~ ...?)

4 negative sentences: *may/might not* and *can/could not*

May/might not means 'perhaps ... not ...'
Can/could not can mean 'it is certain that ... not ...' (see 359.2).
Compare:

– *It **may/might not** rain tomorrow.* (= Perhaps it will not rain.)
  *It **can't/couldn't** possibly rain tomorrow.* (= It will certainly not rain.)
– *It **may not** be true.* (= Perhaps it is not true.)
  *It **can't** be true.* (= It is certainly not true.)

– *He may/might not have understood.* (= Perhaps he did not understand.)
He can't/couldn't have understood. (= He certainly did not understand.)

346 maybe and perhaps

These two words mean the same. They are both common. In British English, *perhaps* is used more often than *maybe* in a formal style.

Maybe/Perhaps it'll stop raining soon.
Julius Caesar is perhaps the greatest of Shakespeare's early plays.

Perhaps is often pronounced 'praps' by British people.

347 meals

There are regional and social differences in the names for meals.

1 British usage

a midday: *dinner* or *lunch*

The midday meal is often called *dinner*, especially if it is the main meal of the day. People who are 'higher' in the social scale usually call it *lunch*.

b afternoon: *tea*

Some people have a light meal of tea and biscuits or cakes, called *tea*, at four or five o'clock in the afternoon.

c early evening: *(high) tea* or *supper*

Many people have a cooked meal around five or six o'clock. This is often called *tea* or *high tea*; some people call it *supper*.

d later evening: *supper* or *dinner*

A meal later in the evening is often called *supper* (and some people use the same word for a bedtime snack). Some people use *dinner* for the evening meal if it is the main meal of the day. A more formal evening meal with guests, or in a restaurant, is usually called *dinner*.

2 American usage

Americans generally use *lunch* for the midday meal and *dinner* or *supper* for the evening meal. However in rural areas it is still common for the main meal of the day to be eaten at midday and called 'dinner', with the evening meal being called 'supper'. Celebration meals at Christmas and Thanksgiving are called *Christmas/Thanksgiving dinner*, even if they are eaten at midday.

348 mean

1 questions

Note the structure of questions with *mean*.

Excuse me. What does 'hermetic' mean? (NOT ~~*What means 'hermetic'?*~~) ▸

Note also the preposition in *What do you mean by 'hermetic'?* (= In what sense are you using the word?)

2 *mean* and *think, meaning* and *opinion*

Mean and *meaning* are 'false friends' for speakers of some European languages. They are not usually used for 'think' or 'opinion'.

I think that Labour will win the next election. (NOT ~~*I mean that Labour will win*~~ . . .)

What's your opinion? (NOT ~~*What's your meaning?*~~)

3 structures

Mean (= intend, plan) can be followed by **(object) + infinitive.**

Sorry – I didn't ***mean to interrupt*** *you.*

Did you mean John to post those letters?

Mean (= involve, have as a result) can be followed by a noun or . . .*ing.*

The Fantasians have invaded Utopia. This ***means war!***

If you decide to try the exam, it will ***mean studying*** *hard.*

4 *I mean*

I mean is used informally as a 'discourse marker' (see 157) to introduce explanations or additional details.

He's funny – I ***mean,*** *he's really strange.*

It was a terrible evening. I ***mean,*** *they all sat round and talked politics.*

Would you like to come out tonight? I ***mean,*** *only if you want to, of course.*

When *I mean* introduces a comment it can be close to *I think* or *I feel,* but it is not followed by *that.*

A hundred pounds for a thirty hour week. I ***mean,*** *it's not right, is it?*
(BUT NOT ~~*I mean that it's not right*~~ . . .)

In informal speech, *I mean* often acts as a connector or 'filler', with little real meaning.

Let's go and see Phil on Saturday. I ***mean,*** *we could make an early start . . .*

I mean is also used to introduce corrections.

She lives in Southport – I ***mean*** *Southampton.*

5 *What do you mean . . .?*

What do you mean . . .? can express anger or protest.

What do you mean, I can't sing?

What do you mean by waking me up at this time of night?

6 no progressive form

Mean is not normally used in progressive forms when it refers to meanings.

What ***does*** *that strange smile* ***mean?*** (NOT ~~*What is that strange smile meaning?*~~)

But perfect progressive forms can be used to refer to intentions.

I've ***been meaning*** *to phone you for weeks.*

349 means

1 singular and plural ending in -s

Both the singular and the plural of *means* end in *-s*.

*In the 19th century a new **means** of communication was developed – the railway.* (NOT ... ~~*a new mean of communication*~~ ...)

*There are several **means** of transport on the island.*

For other words with singular forms ending in -s, see 524.3.

2 *by all/any/no means*

By all means is not the same as *by all possible means*. It is used to give permission or to encourage somebody to do something, and means 'of course' or 'it is all right to ...' Compare:

*Can I borrow your sweater? ~**By all means**.*

***By all means** get a new coat, but don't spend more than £80.*

*We must help her **by all possible means**.* (NOT ~~*We must help her by all means*~~.)

By no means (or *not by any means*) is not the opposite of *by all means*. It is similar to *definitely not*, or *not by a long way*.

*Is that all you've got to say? ~**By no means**.*

*Galileo was **by no means** the first person to use a telescope.*

350 measurements: 'marked' and 'unmarked' forms

Many adjectives that are used in measurements come in pairs (e.g. *tall/short, old/young, heavy/light, fast/slow*). The word that is used for the 'top' end of the measurement scale can usually be used in another sense, to talk about the quality in general. For instance, one can ask how *long* something is even if it is relatively short. Grammarians call these uses 'unmarked'. Compare:

- *She's very **tall** and he's very short.* (marked)
  *Exactly how **tall** are they both?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*Exactly how short are they both?*~~)
- *Will you still love me when I'm **old**?* (marked)
  *He's only twenty-three years **old**.* (unmarked) (NOT ... ~~*twenty-three years young*~~.)
- *Lead is one of the **heaviest** metals.* (marked)
  *Scales are used to measure how **heavy** things are.* (unmarked) (NOT ... ~~*how light things are*~~.)

Some nouns are used in similar 'unmarked' ways. Compare:

- *Age brings wisdom but I'd rather have youth and stupidity.* (marked)
  *What is her exact **age**?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*What is her exact youth?*~~)
- *The worst thing about the film was its **length**.* (marked)
  *What's the **length** of a football field?* (unmarked) (NOT ~~*What's the shortness*~~ ...?)

351 mind: do you mind etc

1 meaning and use

Mind can mean 'dislike', 'be annoyed by', 'object to'. We use *mind* mostly in questions and negative clauses.

Do you mind the smell of tobacco? ~Not at all.
Do you mind if we leave a bit earlier today?
I don't mind if you use my car.

After *mind*, we can use an *-ing* form, or object + *-ing* form.

Do you mind waiting a few minutes? (NOT ...~~to wait~~...)
I don't mind you coming in late if you don't wake me up.

2 *Would you mind ...?*

We can use *Would you mind ...?* to ask people to do things, or to ask for permission.

Would you mind opening the window? (= Please open ...)
Would you mind if I opened the window?

3 *Do/Would you mind my ...ing?*

In a formal style, we sometimes use *my, your* etc with an *-ing* form after *mind* (see 295.3,4).

Do you mind my smoking? (More common: ... *me smoking?* or ... *if I smoke?*)

4 answers

'After *Would/Do you mind ...?*, we use *No* or *Not at all* (more formal) to give permission (but we often add more words to make the meaning quite clear).

Do you mind if I look at your paper? ~No, please do / that's OK / sure.

5 tenses

In subordinate clauses after *mind*, a present tense is usually used if we want to express a future meaning (see 580).

I don't mind what you do after you leave school. (NOT ~~*I don't mind what you will do*~~...)

352 miss

1 'fail to contact', 'be late for'

Miss often expresses the idea of failing to contact somebody/something, or being late for somebody/something.

How could he miss an easy goal like that?
The station's about five minutes' walk, straight ahead. You can't miss it.
If you don't hurry we'll miss the train. (NOT ...~~*lose the train.*~~)
You've just missed her – she went home five minutes ago.

An *-ing* form can be used after *miss*.

I got in too late and missed seeing the news on TV.

2 'be sorry to be without'

We can use *miss* to say that we are sorry because we are no longer with somebody, or no longer have something.

*Will you **miss** me when I'm away?*
*He's not happy in the country – he **misses** city life.*

Note that *regret* is not used in the same way. Compare:

*I **miss** working with you.* (= I'm sorry I'm no longer with you.)
*I **regret** working with you.* (= I'm sorry I was with you.)

3 'notice the absence of'

Another meaning of *miss* is 'notice that somebody/something is not there'.

*The child ran away in the morning, but nobody **missed** her for hours.*

4 *miss* not used

Miss is not used simply to say that somebody has not got something.

*In some of the villages they **haven't got** electricity.*
(NOT ... ~~*they miss electricity.*~~)

In a formal style, the verb or noun *lack* can be used to express this idea.

*... they **lack** electricity.*
*I am sorry that **lack** of time prevents me from giving more details.*

5 *missing*

Missing is often used as an adjective, meaning 'lost'.

*When did you realise that the money was **missing**?*
*The **missing** children were found at their aunt's house.*

We can use *missing* after a noun. This often happens in clauses beginning with *there is*.

*There's a page **missing** from this book.*

In an informal style, a structure with *have ... missing* is also possible.

*We've got some plates **missing** – do you think Alan's borrowed them?*
*He **had** several teeth **missing**.*

353 modal auxiliary verbs: introduction

1 What are modal auxiliary verbs?

The verbs *can, could, may, might, will, would, shall* (mainly British English), *should, must* and *ought* are called 'modal auxiliary verbs'. They are used before the infinitives of other verbs, and add certain kinds of meaning connected with certainty, or with obligation and freedom to act (see next section).

2 grammar

a Modal verbs have no *-s* in the third person singular.

*She **may** know his address.* (NOT ~~*She mays*~~ ...)

b Questions, negatives, tags and short answers are made without *do*.

Can you swim? (NOT ~~*Do you can swim*~~) ~ *Yes, I can*
*He **shouldn't** be doing that, should he?* (NOT ~~*He doesn't should*~~ ...) ▸

c After modal auxiliary verbs, we use the infinitive without *to* of other verbs. *Ought* is an exception – see 403.
I must water the flowers. (NOT ~~*I must to water*~~ . . .)
Progressive, perfect and passive infinitives are also possible (see 280).
I may not be working tomorrow.
She was so angry she could have killed him.
The kitchen ought to be painted one of these days.

d Modal verbs do not have infinitives or participles (~~*to may*~~, ~~*maying*~~, ~~*mayed*~~ do not exist), and they do not normally have past forms (though *would, could, should* and *might* can sometimes be used as past tenses of *will, can, shall* and *may*). Other expressions are used when necessary.
I'd like to be able to skate. (NOT . . . ~~*to can skate.*~~)
People really had to work hard in those days. (NOT ~~*People really musted work*~~. . .)

e However, certain past ideas can be expressed by a modal verb followed by a perfect infinitive (***have*** + **past participle**).
You should have told me you were coming.
I think I may have annoyed Aunt Mary.
For details of these uses, see the entries on particular modal verbs.

f Modal verbs have contracted negative forms (*can't, won't* etc) which are used in an informal style. (*Shan't* and *mayn't* are only used in British English; *mayn't* is very rare.) *Will* and *would* also have contracted affirmative forms (*'ll, 'd*). For details, see 143. Some modals have both 'strong' and 'weak' pronunciations. For details, see 616.

g *There* is quite often used as a preparatory subject with modal verbs, especially when these are followed by *be* (see 586).
There may be rain later today.

3 meanings

We do not normally use modal verbs to say that situations definitely exist or that particular events have definitely happened. We use them, for example, to talk about things which we expect, which are or are not possible, which we think are necessary, which we want to happen, which we are not sure about, which tend to happen, or which have not happened.
He may arrive any time.
She could be in London or Paris or Tokyo – nobody knows.
I can't swim.
I think you ought to see a lawyer.
We really must tidy up the garden.
What would you do if you had a free year?
Edinburgh can be very cold in winter.
I think they should have consulted a doctor earlier.
You might have told me Frances was ill.

For further general information about the meanings of modal auxiliary verbs, see next section. For more detailed information, see the sections for each verb.

4 *need* and *used to*

Need (see 366) and *used to* (see 604) are sometimes used in similar ways to modal verbs.

*You **needn't** wait for me.*
*She **used not to** be so bad-tempered.*

354 modal auxiliary verbs: meanings

1 two kinds of meaning

Most of the meanings of modal verbs can be divided into two groups. One is to do with degrees of certainty: modal verbs can be used to say for instance that a situation is certain, probable, possible or impossible. The other is to do with obligation, freedom to act and similar ideas: modal verbs can be used to say that somebody is obliged to do something, that he/she is able to do something, that there is nothing to stop something happening, that it would be better if something happened (or did not), or that something is permitted or forbidden.

2 degrees of certainty

Modal verbs can express various degrees of certainty about facts, situations or events.

a complete certainty (positive or negative): *shall, will, must, can't*

*I **shall** be away tomorrow.*
*I **shan't** be late on Tuesday.*
*It **won't** rain this evening.*
There's the phone. That'll be Tony.
*Things **will** be all right.*
*You **must** be tired.*
*That **can't** be John – he's in Dublin.*

b probability (deduction; saying that something is logical or normal): *should, ought to*

*She **should / ought to** be here soon.*
*It **shouldn't / oughtn't to** be difficult to get there.*

c possibility (talking about the chances that something is true or will happen): *may*

*The water **may** not be warm enough to swim.*
*We **may** be buying a new house.*

d weak possibility: *might, could*

*I **might** see you again – who knows?*
*Things **might** not be as bad as they seem.*
*We **could** all be millionaires one day.*

3 obligation and freedom to act

Modal verbs can express various aspects of obligation and freedom. (These uses of modal verbs are very important in the polite expression of requests, suggestions, invitations and instructions.)

a strong obligation: *must, will, need*

*Students **must** register in the first week of term.*
*All sales staff **will** arrive for work by 8.40 a.m.*
Need I get a visa for Hungary? ▸

b prohibition: *must not, may not, cannot*
*Students **must not** use the staff car park.*
*Books **may not** be taken out of the library.*
*You **can't** come in here.*

c weak obligation; recommendation: *should, ought to, might, shall* (in questions)
*You **should** try to work harder.*
*She really **ought to** wash her hair.*
*You **might** see what John thinks.*
*What **shall** we do?*

d willingness, volunteering, resolving, insisting and offering: *will, shall* (in questions)
*If you **will** come this way . . .*
I'll pay for the drinks.
*She **will** keep interrupting people.*
I'll definitely work harder next term.
Shall I give you a hand?

e permission: *can, could, may, might*
*You **can** use the car if you like.*
Could I talk to you for a minute?
May we use the phone?
*Do you think I **might** take a break now?*

f absence of obligation: *needn't*
*You **needn't** work this Saturday.*

g ability: *can, could*
*She **can** speak six languages.*
*Anybody who wants to **can** join the club.*
*These roses **can** grow anywhere.*
*When I was a baby I **could** put my foot in my mouth.*
*You **could** get to my old school by bus, but not by train.*

4 speaker's and hearer's point of view

Obligation, permission etc are usually seen from the speaker's point of view in statements and the hearer's in questions. Compare:
- *You **must** go and see Ann.* (I think it is necessary.)
  Must you go and see Ann? (Do you think it is necessary?)
- *You **can** borrow my car.* (I give permission.)
  Can I borrow your car? (Will you give permission?)

5 forms in indirect speech, after *if* etc

Instead of *can, will, shall* and *may*, we use *could, would, should* and *might* to express the same meanings in past indirect speech, (see 275), in some sentences after *if* (see 258), and in 'future in the past' sentences (see 221).
*I knew it **couldn't** be John.*
*I told you you **wouldn't** be ready in time.*
*If you stopped criticising, I **might** get some work done.*
*I should be grateful if you **would** let me know your decision as soon as possible.*
*They knelt in front of the child who **would** one day rule all England.*

6 other meanings

Besides the meanings discussed in paragraphs 2 and 3, *will* and *would* are used to talk about habitual behaviour or activity (see 629, 633).

Most evenings he'll just sit in front of the TV and go to sleep.
*When we were kids, my mum **would** take us out on bikes all round the countryside.*

Used to **+ infinitive** (see 604) is similar to a modal verb structure in some ways. It is used to talk about habitual behaviour or activity and (unlike *would*) habitual states.

*I **used to** play a lot of tennis when I was younger.*
*The grass **used to** look greener when I was a child.*
(NOT ~~*The grass would look greener when I was a child.*~~)

7 subject-independence

An interesting, rather complicated point about modal verbs is that their meaning usually 'spreads over' a whole clause. This means that one can change a modal structure from active to passive, for example, without affecting the meaning very much. Compare:

- *A child **could** understand his theory.*
  *His theory **could be understood** by a child.*
- *You **mustn't put** adverbs between the verb and the object.*
  *Adverbs **mustn't be put** between the verb and the object.*
- *Dogs **may** chase cats.*
  *Cats **may get chased** by dogs.*

With most other verbs that are followed by infinitives, their meaning is attached to the subject, so that a change from active to passive changes the sense of the sentence completely. Compare:

- *Dogs **like to** chase cats.*
  *Cats **like to be chased** by dogs.* (different and – of course – untrue)
- *Pete **wants to** phone Ann.*
  *Ann **wants to be phoned** by Pete.* (not the same meaning)

For more details of the use of the various modal verbs, see the entries for each verb.

355 more

1 *more* + noun

We can use *more* before a noun phrase as a determiner (see 154). We do not generally use *of* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).

*We need **more** time.* (NOT ... ~~*more of time.*~~)
***More** university students are having to borrow money these days.*

However, *more of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.

*It would be nice to see **more of** Ray and Barbara.*
*Five hundred years ago, much **more of** Britain was covered with trees.* ▸

2 *more of* + determiner/pronoun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *more of*.
Three more of the missing climbers have been found.
Could I have some more of that smoked fish?
I don't think any more of them want to come.

3 *more* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *more* if the meaning is clear.
I'd like some more, please.

4 *one more* etc

Note the structure *one more, two more* etc + noun phrase.
There's just one more river to cross.

5 *more* as an adverb

More can also be used as an adverb.
I couldn't agree more.
More and more is used to talk about continual increase.
I hate this job more and more as the years go by.

6 comparative structures

More is used to make the comparative forms of longer adjectives and most adverbs (see 137–138).
As you get older you get more tolerant. *Please drive more slowly.*

For *no more, not any more/longer*, see 379.
For *far more, much more, many more* etc, see 140.

356 most

1 *most* (= 'the majority of') without *of*

Most can mean 'the majority of'. We do not use *the* before *most* with this meaning.
Most children like ice cream. (NOT ~~*The most children*~~...)
We do not generally use *of* after *most* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).
Most cheese is made from cow's milk. (NOT ~~*Most of cheese*~~...)
Most Swiss people understand French. (NOT ~~*Most of Swiss people*~~...)
However, *most of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.
I've read most of Shakespeare.
The Romans conquered most of England.

2 *most of* + determiner/pronoun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *most of*.
Most of the people here know each other.
Most of my friends live abroad. (NOT ~~*Most my friends*~~...)
Most of us thought he was wrong.
He's eaten two pizzas and most of a cold chicken.

3 *most* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *most* if the meaning is clear.
Some people had difficulty with the lecture, but most understood.

4 *the most* (= 'more than any other/others') with nouns

In comparisons (when *most* means 'more than any other/others') it is normally used with *the* before nouns.
Susan found the most blackberries.
The is sometimes dropped in an informal style.
Who earns (the) most money in your family?

5 *(the) most* as an adverb

(The) most can also be used as an adverb. *The* is often dropped in an informal style.
They all talk a lot, but your little girl talks (the) most.
The truth hurts most.

6 superlative adjectives and adverbs

(The) most is used to make the superlative forms of longer adjectives and most adverbs (see 137–138).
I wasn't as clever as the others, but I was the most beautiful.
I work most efficiently in the early morning.

7 *most* meaning 'very'

Most can be used before adjectives to mean 'very' in evaluating expressions, especially in a formal style.
That is most kind of you. *Thank you for a most interesting afternoon.*
The experience was most distressing.

8 *mostly*

Mostly means 'in most (but not all) cases'. Compare:
Your little girl talks the most. (NOT ... ~~*talks mostly.*~~)
She mostly talks about her friends.

357 much and many

1 the difference

Much is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *many* is used with plurals.
I haven't got much time. *I don't know many of your friends.*

2 *much/many* + noun: without *of*

We do not generally use *of* after *much/many* when there is no other determiner (e.g. article or possessive).
She didn't eat much breakfast. (NOT ... ~~*much of breakfast.*~~)
There aren't many large glasses left. (NOT ... ~~*many of large glasses left.*~~)
However, *much of* is used directly before personal and geographical names.
I've seen too much of Howard recently. *Not much of Denmark is hilly.*

▸

3 *much/many of* + determiner + noun

Before determiners (e.g. *a, the, my, this*) and pronouns, we use *much of* and *many of.*

*You can't see **much** of **a** country in a week.*
*How **much** of **the** house do you want to paint this year?*
*I won't pass the exam: I've missed too **many** of **my** lessons.*
*How **many** of **you** are there?*

4 *much/many* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *much* or *many,* if the meaning is clear.

*You haven't eaten **much**.*
*Did you find any mushrooms? ~Not **many**.*

Note that *much* and *many* are only used like this when a noun has been dropped.

*There wasn't **much** (food).* BUT NOT ~~*The food wasn't much.*~~ (Because you couldn't say ~~*The food wasn't much food.*~~)

Many is not usually used alone to mean 'many people'.

Many people think it's time for a change.
(More natural than *Many think . . .*)

5 not used in affirmative clauses

In an informal style, we use *much* and *many* mostly in questions and negative clauses. In most affirmative clauses they are unusual (especially *much*); other words and expressions are used instead.

*How **much** money have you got? ~I've got **plenty**.* (NOT ~~*I've got much.*~~)
*He's got **lots** of men friends, but he doesn't know **many** women.*
(More natural than *He's got many men friends . . .*)
*Did you buy any clothes? ~Yes, **lots**.* (NOT ~~*Yes, many.*~~)

In a formal style, *much* and *many* are more common in affirmative clauses.

*Much has been written about unemployment. In the opinion of **many** economists, . . .*

Far and *long* (= a long time) are also used mostly in questions and negative clauses. See 200 and 330.

6 after *so, as,* and *too*

So much/many, as much/many and *too much/many* are quite natural in affirmative clauses.

*There was **so much** traffic that it took me an hour to get home.*
*I play **as much** tennis as I can.* *You make **too many** mistakes.*

7 *much* as adverb

We can use *much* as an adverb in questions and negative clauses.

*Do you work **much** at weekends?* *I don't travel **much** these days.*

We can also use *much* before comparative adjectives and adverbs, in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives.

*She's **much** older than her brother.* *I don't drive **much** faster than you.*

Much can be used before some verbs expressing enjoyment, preference and similar ideas, in affirmative clauses as well as questions and negatives, especially in a formal style.

*I **much** appreciate your help.*
*We **much** prefer the country to the town.*
*I didn't **much** enjoy the concert.*

Very much can be used in affirmative clauses as an adverb, but not usually before a noun. Compare:

*I **very much** like your new hairstyle.* (adverb)
*Thank you **very much**.* (adverb)
*There's **a whole lot of** water coming under the door.* (before noun)
(NOT ~~*There's very much water coming*~~...)

For *much* and *very* with past participles (e.g. *much/very amused*), see 410.4.

358 must (1): introduction

1 grammar

Must is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354).

a There is no *-s* in the third person singular.
*He **must** start coming on time.* (NOT ~~*He musts*~~...)

b Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Must you go? (NOT ~~*Do you must go?*~~)
*You **mustn't** worry.* (NOT ~~*You don't must worry*~~.)

c After *must*, we use the infinitive without *to* of other verbs.
*I **must** write to my mother.* (NOT ~~*I must to write*~~...)

d *Must* has no infinitive or participles (~~*to must*~~, ~~*musting*~~, ~~*musted*~~ do not exist), and it has no past tense. When necessary, we express similar meanings with other words, for example forms of *have to* (see 239).
*It's annoying **to have to** get up early on Sundays.* (NOT ...~~*to must get up*~~...)
*He'll **have to** start coming on time.* (NOT ~~*He'll must*~~...)
*She's always **had to** work hard.* (NOT ~~*She's always musted*~~...)
*We **had to** cut short our holiday because my mother was ill.* (NOT ~~*We musted*~~...)

e Some ideas about the past can be expressed by ***must have* + past participle** (see 359.4).
*I can't find my keys. I **must have** left them at home.*
Must can also be used with a past sense in indirect speech.
*Everybody told me I **must** stop worrying.*

f There is a contracted negative *mustn't* (/ˈmʌsnt/). *Must* has two pronunciations: a 'strong' pronunciation /mʌst/ and a 'weak' pronunciation /m(ə)st/. The weak pronunciation is used in most cases (see 616).

2 meanings

Must is used mostly to express the deduction or conclusion that something is certain (see 359), and (less often in American English) to talk about necessity and obligation (see 360). ▸

*You **must** be Anna's sister – you look just like her.*
*You really **must** get your hair cut.*

For differences between *must* and *have (got) to*, see 361.
For the difference between *must* and *should*, see 520.

359 must (2): deduction (concluding that something is certain)

1 statements: *Mary must have a problem*

Must can be used to express the deduction or conclusion that something is certain or highly probable: it is normal or logical, there are excellent reasons for believing it, or it is the only possible explanation for what is happening.

*If A is bigger than B, and B is bigger than C, then A **must** be bigger than C.*
*I'm in love. ~ You **must** be very happy.*
*Mary **must** have a problem – she keeps crying.*
*There's the doorbell. It **must** be Roger.*

2 negatives: *It can't be the postman*

Must is not often used to express certainty in negative clauses. We normally use *cannot/can't* to say that something is certainly not the case, because it is logically or practically impossible, or extremely improbable.

*If A is bigger than B, and B is bigger than C, then C **can't** be bigger than A.*
*It **can't** be the postman at the door. It's only seven o'clock.* (NOT ~~*It mustn't be the postman*~~ . . .)
*She's not answering the phone. She **can't** be at home.*

However, *mustn't* is used in question tags (see 487–488) after *must*.

*It **must** be nice to be a cat, **mustn't** it?* (NOT . . . ~~*can't it?*~~)

And *must not* is occasionally used, especially in American English, to say that there is evidence that something is not the case (see 361.4)

3 *need not / does not have to*

Need not / needn't is used (especially in British English) to say that something is not necessarily so; *does not have to* can also be used. *Must not* is not used in this sense.

*Look at those tracks. That must be a dog. ~ It **needn't** be – it could be a fox.*
(OR . . . *It doesn't have to be* . . .) (NOT . . . ~~*It mustn't be*~~ . . .)

4 *That must have been nice*

We can use ***must have*** + past participle to express certainty about the past.

*We went to Rome last month. ~ That **must have been** nice.*
*A woman phoned while you were out. ~ It **must have been** Kate.*

Can is used in questions and negatives.

*Where **can** John **have put** the matches? He **can't have thrown** them away.*

5 indirect speech

Must can be used after a past reporting verb as if it were a past tense.

*I felt there **must** be something wrong.*

6 *must* and *should*

Should can be used as a weaker form of *must* (see 520). Compare:
*Ann **must** be at home by now.* (= I think she's certainly at home.)
*Ann **should** be at home by now.* (= I think she's very probably at home.)

360 must (3): necessity and obligation

The following explanations apply particularly to British English. Americans often use *have (got) to* where British people use *must* (see 361). However, this use of *have (got) to* is becoming more common in British English under American influence.

1 statements: *I really must stop smoking*

In affirmative statements, we can use *must* to say what is necessary, and to give strong advice and orders to ourselves or other people.
*Plants **must** get enough light and water if they are to grow properly.*
*British industry **must** improve its productivity.*
*I really **must** stop smoking.*
*You **must** be here before eight o'clock tomorrow.*
Must is common in emphatic invitations.
*You really **must** come and see us soon.*

2 questions: *Must I ...?*

In questions, we use *must* to ask about what the hearer thinks is necessary.
Must I clean all the rooms?
*Why **must** you always leave the door open?*

3 negatives: *You mustn't/can't ...*

We use *must not / mustn't* to say that it is wrong to do things, or to tell people not to do things. *Can't* is also possible.
*The government **mustn't/can't** expect people to work for no money.*
*You **mustn't/can't** open this parcel until Christmas Day.*

4 *mustn't* and *needn't / don't have to*

Mustn't is not used to say that things are unnecessary. This idea is expressed by *needn't, don't need to* (see 366) or *don't have to.*
*You **needn't** work tomorrow if you don't want to.* OR *You **don't have to** work ...* (NOT ~~*You mustn't ... if you don't want to.*~~)
*You **don't need to** get a visa to go to Scotland.* OR *You **don't have to** get a visa ...* (NOT ~~*You mustn't get a visa to go to Scotland.*~~)

5 past necessity and obligation

Must is not normally used to talk about past obligation (except in indirect speech – see below). This is because *must* is used mainly to influence people's behaviour – for example through orders or advice – and one cannot do this in the past. *Had to* is used to talk about obligation that existed in the past.
*I **had to** cycle three miles to school when I was a child.*
*My parents **had to** work very hard to build up their business.* ▸

6 indirect speech

Must can be used after a past reporting verb as if it were a past tense.
*The doctor said that I **must** stop smoking.*
Obligation can also be reported with *had to* and *would have to.*
*The doctor said that I **had to / would have to** stop smoking.*

7 *must* and *should*

Should can be used as a weaker form of *must* (see 520). Compare:
*That carpet **must** be cleaned.* (= It is absolutely necessary.)
*That carpet **should** be cleaned.* (= It would be a good idea.)

361 must (4): advanced points

1 *must* and *have to*

In statements about obligation with *must* the obligation most often comes from the speaker (and in questions, from the hearer). To talk about an obligation that comes from 'outside' (for instance a regulation, or an order from somebody else), we usually prefer *have to.* Compare:
- *I **must** do some more work; I want to pass my exam.*
  *In my job I **have to** work from nine to five.* (More natural than ... *I must work from nine to five.*)
- *We **must** go to New York soon and see your mother.*
  *My wife's an interpreter: she often **has to** go to New York.* (More natural than ...*she must often go to New York.*)
- *I **must** stop smoking.* (I want to.)
  *I've **got to** stop smoking.* (Doctor's orders.)
- *This is a terrible party. We really **must** go home.*
  *This is a lovely party, but we've **got to** go home because of the baby-sitter.*
- *I've got bad toothache. I **must** make an appointment with the dentist.*
  *I can't come to work tomorrow morning because I've **got to** see the dentist.*
- *You really **must** go to church next Sunday – you haven't been for ages.* (I am telling you to.)
  *Catholics **have to** go to church on Sundays.* (Their religion tells them to.)
- *Must you wear dirty old jeans all the time?* (Is it personally important for you?)
  *Do you **have to** wear a tie at work?* (Is there a regulation?)

Have to can also be used to talk about obligation coming from the speaker or hearer, in the same way as *must.* This is normal in American English (which uses *must* less often in this sense), and is becoming very common in British English.
*I really **have to** stop smoking.* (OR *I really must* ...)
*Do I **have to** clean all the rooms?* (OR *Must I* ...?)

For *have to* and *have got to*, see 239.

2 future obligation: *will have to, have (got) to* and *must*

Will have to is used to talk about future obligation (*will must* is impossible – see 358); but *have (got) to* is preferred when arrangements for the future have already been made. Compare:

*When you leave school you'll **have to** find a job.*
*I've **got to** go for a job interview tomorrow.*
Going to have to is also possible.
*We're **going to have to** repair that window.*
Must can be used to give orders or instructions for the future.
*You can borrow my car, but you **must** bring it back before ten.*
Will have to can be used to 'distance' the instructions (see 436), making them sound less like direct orders from the speaker.
*You can borrow my car, but you'll **have to** bring it back before ten.*
Will need to can be used in the same way (see 366.4).

3 talking about the past: *had to* ... and *must have* ...

Had to is used to talk about past obligation. *Must have* + past participle is used to express certainty about the past (see 359.4). Compare:
*Edna isn't in her office. She **had to** go home.*
(= It was necessary for her to go home.)
*Edna isn't in her office. She **must have** gone home.*
(= It seems certain that she has gone home.)

4 a British-American difference: *can't* and *must not*

In American English, *must not* is often used when something is not logically impossible, but when there is strong evidence for believing that it is not the case. Compare:
– *He only left the office five minutes ago. He **can't** be home yet.* (It's logically impossible that he's home.)
*She's not answering the doorbell. She **must not** be at home.* (It's not logically impossible that she's home, but it seems pretty certain that she isn't.)
– *The restaurant **can't** be open – the door's locked.*
*That restaurant **must not** be any good – it's always empty.*
In British English, *can't* is normal for both meanings (though some people use *must not* for the 'seems pretty certain' meaning). Compare:
*She walked past without saying 'Hello'. She **must not** have seen you.*
(AmE; some British speakers.)
*She walked past without saying 'Hello'. She **can't** have seen you.*
(most British speakers.)
Note that the contracted form *mustn't* is rare in AmE.

362 names: Florence, Homer etc

1 cities

The names of cities are often different in different languages – for example the capital of Denmark, *København*, is called *Kopenhagen* in German, *Copenhague* in French, and *Copenhagen* in Italian and English. Some examples of English names for cities:
The Hague, Brussels, Antwerp, Hanover, Cologne, Munich, Vienna, Lyons (now more usually *Lyon*), *Marseilles* (now more usually *Marseille*), *Milan, Florence, Venice, Rome, Naples, Padua, Genoa, Leghorn* (now more usually *Livorno*), *Turin, Geneva, Seville, Lisbon, Athens, Thessalonica, Prague, Warsaw, Belgrade, Moscow, St Petersburg, Bucharest, Beirut, Damascus,* ▸

Jerusalem, Peking (now usually *Beijing*), *Bombay* (now usually *Mumbai*), *Calcutta* (now usually *Kolkata*).

2 classical names

The same is true of many classical Greek and Roman names. Some examples:
Homer, Aeschylus, Livy, Horace, Ovid, Virgil, Aesop, Aristotle, Euclid, Sophocles, Mercury, Jupiter, Helen, Troy, Odysseus

3 artists

The Italian artists Raffaello Sanzio and Tiziano are called *Raphael* and *Titian* in English.

4 countries

The names of countries, of course, also differ from one language to another (e.g. *Deutschland, Nemecko, Allemagne, Germany*). English versions are not listed here, as they are well known and can easily be found in any dictionary if needed.

363 names and titles: Peter; Mr Lewis

Names and titles are used both when talking about people and when talking to them. There are some differences.

1 talking about people

When we talk about people we can name them in four ways.

a first name

We use first names mostly informally, for relatives, friends and children.
*Where's **Peter**? He said he'd be here at three.*
*How's **Maud** getting on at school?*

b first name + surname

This is neutral – neither particularly formal nor particularly informal.
*Isn't that **Peter Connolly** the actor?*
*We're going on holiday with **Mary** and **Daniel Sinclair**.*

c title (*Mr, Mrs* etc) + surname

This is more formal. We talk like this about people we do not know, or when we want to show respect or be polite.
*Can I speak to **Mr Lewis**, please?*
*We've got a new teacher called **Mrs Campbell**.*
*Ask **Miss Andrews** to come in, please.*
*There's a **Ms Sanders** on the phone.*
Note that it is less usual to talk about people by using title + first name + surname (e.g. *Mr John Parker*).

d surname only

We often use just the surname to talk about men (and occasionally women) in public life – politicians, sports personalities, writers and so on.

*Do you think **Roberts** would make a good President?*
*The 5,000 metres was won by **Jones**.*
*I don't think **Eliot** is a very good dramatist.*
Thatcher was the first British woman Prime Minister.

Surnames alone are sometimes used for employees (especially male employees), and by members of groups (especially all-male groups like soldiers, schoolboys, team members) when they refer to each other.

*Tell **Patterson** to come and see me at once.*
*Let's put **Billows** in goal and move **Carter** up.*

2 talking to people

When we talk to people we generally name them in one of two ways.

a first name

This is informal, used for example to relatives, friends and children.

*Hello, **Pamela**. How are you?*

b title + surname

This is more formal or respectful.

*Good morning, **Miss Williamson**.*

Note that we do not usually use both the first name and the surname of a person that we are talking to. It would be unusual to say *'Hello, Peter Matthews'*, for example.

Members of all-male groups sometimes address each other by their surnames alone (e.g. *'Hello, Smith'*), but this is unusual in modern English.

Mr, *Mrs* and *Ms* are not generally used alone.

Excuse me. Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Excuse me, Mr*~~ or ~~*Excuse me, Mrs*~~.)

Doctor can be used alone to talk to medical doctors whom one is consulting, but not usually in other cases.

Doctor, I've got this pain in my elbow.

Sir and *madam* are used in Britain mostly by people in service occupations (e.g. shop assistants). Some employees call their male employers *sir*, and some schoolchildren call their teachers *sir* or *miss*. *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam* are common ways of beginning letters to strangers (see 146) – note the capital letters. In other situations *sir* and *madam* are unusual in British English.

Excuse me. Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Excuse me, sir*~~ . . .)

In American English, *sir* and *ma'am* are less formal than in British English, and are quite often used (especially in the South and West) when addressing people.

3 notes on titles

Note the pronunciations of the titles *Mr*, *Mrs* and *Ms* (used before names):

Mr /ˈmɪstə(r)/ *Mrs* /ˈmɪsɪz/ *Ms* /mɪz/ or /məz/

Mr (= *Mister*) is not normally written in full, and the other two cannot be. Like *Mr*, *Ms* does not show whether somebody is married or not. It is often used, especially in writing, to talk about or address women when one does not know (or has no reason to say) whether they are married. Many women also choose to use *Ms* before their own names in preference to *Mrs* or *Miss*. *Ms* is a relatively new title: it has been in common use in Britain since the 1970s, and a little longer in the United States. ▸

Dr (= *Doctor*) is used as a title for medical and other doctors (but see paragraph 2 for its use).
Professor does not mean 'teacher'; it is used only for heads of university departments and some other very senior university teachers.
Note that we do not normally combine two titles such as *Prof Dr* or *Mrs Dr*.

For ways of addressing people in letters, see 146.
For ways of introducing people, see 545.1.
For full stops with abbreviated titles and initials, see 2.

364 nationalities, countries and regions

1 introduction

In order to refer to a nation or region and its affairs it is usually necessary to know four words:

- the name of the country or region
  Denmark, Japan, France, Catalonia
- the adjective
  Danish, Japanese, French, Catalan
- the singular noun used for a person from the country
  a Dane, a Japanese, a Frenchman/woman, a Catalan
- the plural expression *the* ... used for the population as a whole
  the Danes, the Japanese, the French, the Catalans

Usually the singular noun is the same as the adjective (e.g. *Greek, Mexican*).
The plural expression is usually the same as the adjective + *-s* (e.g. *the Greeks, the Mexicans*); words ending in *-ese*, and *Swiss*, have no *-s* (e.g. *the Japanese; the Swiss*). See paragraph 2 below for more examples.
However, there are a number of exceptions. Some of these are listed in paragraph 3.
All words of this kind (including adjectives) begin with capital letters.
American literature (NOT ~~*american literature*~~)
The name of a national language is often the same as the national adjective.
Danish is difficult to pronounce. *Do you speak Japanese?*

2 Examples

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
America (The United States)	American	an American	the Americans
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian	the Belgians
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian	the Brazilians
Europe	European	a European	the Europeans
Italy	Italian	an Italian	the Italians
Kenya	Kenyan	a Kenyan	the Kenyans
Morocco	Moroccan	a Moroccan	the Moroccans
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian	the Norwegians
Palestine	Palestinian	a Palestinian	the Palestinians
Russia	Russian	a Russian	the Russians
Tyrol	Tyrolean	a Tyrolean	the Tyroleans

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
Greece	Greek	a Greek	the Greeks
Iraq	Iraqi	an Iraqi	the Iraqis
Israel	Israeli	an Israeli	the Israelis
Thailand	Thai	a Thai	the Thais
China	Chinese	a Chinese	the Chinese
Congo	Congolese	a Congolese	the Congolese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	the Swiss

3 exceptions

Country/region	Adjective	Person	Population
Britain	British	a British person (Briton)	the British
England	English	an Englishwoman/man	the English
France	French	a Frenchman/woman	the French
Ireland	Irish	an Irishwoman/man	the Irish
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	the Spanish
The Netherlands/ Holland	Dutch	a Dutchwoman/man	the Dutch
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman/woman	the Welsh
Denmark	Danish	a Dane	the Danes
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	the Finns
Poland	Polish	a Pole	the Poles
Scotland	Scottish, Scotch	a Scot	the Scots
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	the Swedes
Turkey	Turkish	a Turk	the Turks

Notes

a *Scottish* is the usual word for the people and culture of Scotland; *Scotch* is used for whisky.

b The word *Briton* is unusual except in newspaper headlines – for example *TWO BRITONS KILLED IN AIR CRASH*. *Brit* is sometimes used informally.

c *English* is not the same as *British*, and is not used for Scottish, Welsh or Irish people (see 114).

d Although *American* is the normal English word for United States citizens and affairs, people from other parts of the American continent may object to this use, and some people avoid it for this reason. ▸

e *Arabic* is used for the language spoken in Arab countries; in other cases, the normal adjective is *Arab*. *Arabian* is used in a few fixed expressions and place names (e.g. *Saudi Arabian, the Arabian Sea*).

f Note the pronunciation of words like *Irishman/men, Dutchman/men*: the singular is the same as the plural (/'aɪrɪʃmən, 'dʌtʃmən/).

365 near (to)

Near can be used as a preposition. *Near to* is also possible with the same meaning, but is less common.

*We live **near (to)** the station.*

*I put my bag down **near (to)** the door.* *She was **near (to)** despair.*

Near (to) can be followed by an *-ing* form.

*I came very **near (to) hitting** him.*

For *-ing* forms after *to*, see 298.2.
For the difference between *nearest* and *next*, see 375.

366 need

1 ordinary verb: *Everybody needs to rest*

Need most often has ordinary verb forms: the third person singular has *-s*, and questions and negatives are made with *do*. *Need* is usually followed by an infinitive with *to*.

*Everybody **needs to** rest sometimes.*

*Do we **need to** reserve seats on the train?*

2 modal auxiliary forms: *he needn't; need I?*

Need can also have the same present-tense forms as modal auxiliary verbs: the third person singular has no *-s*, and questions and negatives are made without *do*. In this case, *need* is normally followed by an infinitive without *to*.

*She **needn't** reserve a seat – there'll be plenty of room.*

These forms are used mainly in negative sentences (*needn't*); but they are also possible in questions, after *if*, and in other 'non-affirmative' structures (see 381).

*You **needn't** fill in a form.* *Need I fill in a form?*

*I wonder if I **need** fill in a form.*

*This is the only form you **need** fill in.*

(BUT NOT ~~*You need fill in a form.*~~)

These forms are more common in BrE; in AmE *have to / don't have to* are preferred.

3 *needn't, need I?*: immediate necessity

These modal forms of *need* normally refer to immediate necessity. They are often used to ask for or give permission – usually permission not to do something. They are not used to talk about habitual, general necessity. Compare:

*It's OK – You **needn't / don't need to pay** for that phone call.*
*You **don't need to pay** for emergency calls in most countries.* (NOT ~~*You needn't pay*~~ . . . ~~*in most countries.*~~)

4 talking about the future

Present tense forms of *need* are used when making decisions about the future.
*Need I **come** in tomorrow?*
*Tell her she **doesn't need to work** tonight.*
Will need to . . . can be used to talk about future obligation, and give advice for the future. It can make orders and instructions sound less direct.
*We'll **need to repair** the roof next year.*
*You'll **need to start** work soon if you want to pass your exams.*
*You'll **need to fill** in this form before you see the Inspector.*

For similar uses of *have to*, see 239.3.

5 *need . . .ing*: The sofa needs cleaning

After *need* an *-ing* form can be used with the same meaning as a passive infinitive, especially in BrE.
*That sofa **needs cleaning** again.* (= . . . needs to be cleaned . . .)
A structure with **object + . . .*ing*** or **past participle** is also possible in some cases.
*You **need your head examining**.* (BrE) (OR . . . *examined.*)

6 *need not have . . .*

If we say that somebody *need not have done something*, we mean that he or she did it, but that it was unnecessary – a waste of time.
*You **needn't have woken** me up. I don't have to go to work today.*
*I **needn't have cooked** so much food. Nobody was hungry.*
On the other hand, if we say that somebody *did not need to do something*, we are simply saying that it was not necessary (whether or not it was done). Compare:
*I **needn't have watered** the flowers. Just after I finished it started raining.*
*It started raining, so I **didn't need to water** the flowers.*
Need never have . . . is a more emphatic version of *need not have* . . . .
*I **need never have packed** all that suncream – it rained every day.*

7 *need not* and *must not*

Need not or *do not need to* is used to say that there is no obligation; *must not* is used to say that there is an obligation not to do something. Compare:
*You **needn't tell** Jennifer – she already knows.*
*You **mustn't tell** Margaret – I don't want her to know.*
Need not is also sometimes used to say that something is not necessarily true.
*She looks quite ill. I'm sure it's flu. ~ It **needn't be** – maybe she's just over-tired.*

For *there is no need to* . . ., see 587.2.

367 negative structures (1): basic rules

1 negative verb forms: auxiliary + *not*

We make negative verb forms by putting *not* after an auxiliary verb.

*We **have not** forgotten you.* *It **was not** raining.* *She **can't** swim.*

Do is normally used if there is no other auxiliary verb.

*I like the salad, but I **don't** like the soup.* (NOT ~~*I like not the soup.*~~)

Do is followed by the infinitive without *to*.

*I didn't **think**.* (NOT ~~*I didn't to think*~~, ~~*I didn't thinking*~~ or ~~*I didn't thought*~~.)

Do is not used with another auxiliary verb.

*You **mustn't** worry.* (NOT ~~*You don't must worry.*~~)

Do is not normally used with *be* (even when *be* is not auxiliary).

*The supper **isn't** ready.* (NOT ~~*The supper doesn't be ready.*~~)

For negative forms of *have, dare, need* and *used*, see the entries on these verbs.
For the dialect form *ain't*, see 143.4.
For negatives without *do* in older English (e.g. *I like him not*), see 392.
For negative subjunctives (e.g. *It's important that he not be disturbed*), see 567.2.

2 imperatives: *Don't worry*

Negative imperatives are made with *do not / don't* + infinitive (see 268).

*Do **not** expect quick results.* (NOT ~~*Expect not*~~ . . .)

Don't worry – I'll look after you. (NOT ~~*Worry not*~~ . . .)

Do not / don't is also used to make the negative imperative of *be*.

Don't be rude.

3 infinitives and *-ing* forms: *It's important not to worry*

We put *not* before infinitives and *-ing* forms. *Do* is not used.

*It's important **not** to worry.* (NOT . . . ~~*to don't worry.*~~)

*The best thing about a holiday is **not** working.*

4 other parts of a clause: *not his wife, not before six*

We can put *not* with other parts of a clause, not only a verb.

*Ask Jake, **not** his wife.* *Come early, but **not** before six.*

*It's working, but **not** properly.*

We do not usually begin a sentence with *not* + subject. Instead, we use a structure with *it*.

*It was **not** George that came, but his brother.* (NOT ~~*Not George came*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *not* and *no* with nouns, see 382.

5 other negative words: *never, seldom* etc

Other words besides *not* can make a clause negative. Compare:

*He's **not** at home.* *He's **never** at home.*

*He's **seldom / rarely / hardly** ever at home.*

We do not normally use the auxiliary *do* with these other words. Compare:

*He **doesn't** work.*

*He **never** works.* (NOT ~~*He does never work.*~~)

*He **seldom / rarely / hardly** ever works.*

However, *do* can be used for emphasis or contrast.

*I never **did** like her.*

6 question tags: *You don't ..., do you?*

After negative clauses, question tags (see 487–488) are not negative.

*You don't work on Sundays, **do you?***
*You seldom work on Saturdays, **do you?*** (NOT ~~*You seldom work on Saturdays, don't you?*~~)
*She never smiled, **did she?***

The same thing happens after clauses with *little* and *few* (see 329).

*There's little point in doing anything about it, **is there?*** (NOT ... ~~*isn't there?*~~)
*He has few reasons for staying, **has he?***

7 'non-affirmative' words: *any* etc

We do not usually use *some, somebody* etc in negative clauses. Instead, we use the 'non-affirmative' words *any, anybody* etc. (see 381). Compare:

I've found some mushrooms. *I haven't found any mushrooms.*

368 negative structures (2): negative questions

1 structure

Contracted and uncontracted negative questions have different word order. (Uncontracted negative questions are usually formal.)

auxiliary verb + *n't* + subject

Doesn't she understand?
Why haven't you booked your holiday yet?

auxiliary verb + subject + *not*

Does she not understand?
Why have you not booked your holiday yet?

Non-auxiliary *have* and *be* go in the same position as auxiliary verbs.

Hasn't she any friends to help her? *Aren't you ready?*
Have they not at least a room to stay in? *Is Mrs Allen not at home?*

2 two meanings

Negative questions can have two different kinds of meaning. It is usually clear from the situation and context which kind of question is being asked.

a 'It's true that ..., isn't it?'

A negative question can ask for confirmation of a positive belief. In this case the question expects the answer *Yes*, and means 'It's true that ..., isn't it?'

Didn't you go and see Helen yesterday? How is she?
(= I believe you went and saw Helen yesterday ...)

Expressions of opinion can be made less definite by expressing them as negative questions (so that they ask for agreement).

Wouldn't it be better to switch the lights on?

Negative questions of this kind are common in exclamations (see 195) and rhetorical questions (see 482).

Isn't it a lovely day!
She's growing up to be a lovely person. ~*Yes, **isn't she!***
Isn't the answer obvious? (= Of course the answer is obvious.) ▸

b 'Is it true that . . . not . . .?'

A negative question can also ask for confirmation of a negative belief. In this case the question expects the answer *No*, and means 'Is it true that . . . not . . .?'

Don't you feel well? (= Am I right in thinking you don't feel well?)

Oh, dear. Can't they come this evening?

This kind of negative question can show that the speaker is surprised that something has not happened or is not happening.

Hasn't the postman come yet?

Didn't the alarm go off? I wonder what's wrong with it.

3 polite requests, invitations, offers, complaints and criticisms

Pressing invitations and offers often begin *Won't you . . .? Wouldn't you . . .?* or *Why don't you . . .?*

Won't you come in for a few minutes?

Wouldn't you like something to drink?

Why don't you come and spend the weekend with us?

But in other cases we do not usually use negative questions to ask people to do things. This is done with ordinary questions, or with **negative statement + question tag**.

Excuse me, can you help me for a moment? (ordinary question, used as a request)

You can't help me for a moment, can you? (negative statement + question tag, common in informal requests)

BUT NOT ~~*Can't you help me for a moment?*~~

Negative questions may be understood as complaints or criticisms.

Can't you lend me your pen for a minute? (= something like 'Are you too selfish to lend me . . .?')

Don't you ever listen to what I say?

4 *yes* and *no*

In a reply to a negative question, *Yes* suggests an affirmative verb, and *No* suggests a negative verb. Compare:

– *Haven't you written to Mary?* ~ *Yes.* (= I have written to her.)
  Haven't you told her about us? ~ *No.* (= I haven't told her about us.)
– *Didn't the postman come this morning?* ~ *Yes, he did.*
  Didn't he bring anything for me? ~ *No, he didn't.*

369 negative structures (3): think, hope, seem etc

1 *I don't think . . .*

When we introduce negative ideas with *think, believe, suppose, imagine* and words with similar meanings, we usually make the first verb (*think* etc) negative, not the second.

I don't think you've met my wife.
  (More natural than *I think you haven't met my wife.*)

I don't believe she's at home.
  (More natural than *I believe she isn't at home.*)

However, surprise is often expressed with *I thought* + negative.

*Would you like a drink? ~I **thought** you'd **never** ask.*
*Hello! I **thought** you **weren't** coming.*

2 *I hope that ... not ...*

This does not happen with *hope*.
*I hope it **doesn't** rain.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope it rains*~~.)

3 short answers: *I suppose not.*

In short answers, most of these verbs can be followed by *not* (see 539).
*Are we going to see Alan again? ~I **believe/suppose/hope not**.*
Another possible short answer construction is *I don't ... so* (see 539).
*Do you think it'll snow? ~I **don't believe/suppose/think so**.*
Hope is not used in this structure.
*I **hope not**.* (NOT ~~*I don't hope so*~~.)
I don't think so is more common than *I think not*, which is rather formal.

4 verbs followed by infinitives

Many verbs can be followed by infinitives (see 282). In an informal style we often prefer to make the first verb negative rather than the infinitive, although this may not change the meaning at all. This happens, for example, with *appear, seem, expect, happen, intend* and *want*.
*Sibyl **doesn't seem** to like you.*
(Less formal than *Sibyl seems not to like you.*)
*I **don't expect** to see you before Monday.*
(More natural than *I expect not to see you ...*)
*Angela and I were at the same university, but we **never happened** to meet.*
(Less formal than ... *we happened never to meet.*)
*I **don't want** to fail this exam.* (NOT ~~*I want not to fail*~~...)
*After I've finished this contract I **never intend** to teach again.*

370 negative structures (4): double negatives

1 English and other languages

In some languages, a negative word like *nobody, nothing* or *never* has to be used with a negative verb. In standard English, *nobody, nothing, never* etc are themselves enough to give a negative meaning, and *not* is unnecessary.
*I opened the door, but I **could** see **nobody**.* (NOT ~~*I couldn't see nobody*~~.)
*Tell them **nothing**.* (NOT ~~*Don't tell them nothing*~~.)
*Your suggestion **will help neither** of us.* (NOT ... ~~*won't help neither*~~...)
Nothing matters now – everything's finished. (NOT ~~*Nothing doesn't matter*~~...)
*I've **never** understood what she wants.* (NOT ~~*I haven't never understood*~~...)

2 *nobody* and *not anybody*, etc

Nobody, nothing, never etc are rather emphatic. We often prefer to use *not anybody, not anything, not ever* etc. Note that *anybody, anything, ever* etc are not themselves negative words (see 381) – they have to be used with *not* to give a negative meaning. ▸

*I opened the door, **but I couldn't see anybody.*** (NOT ... ~~*but I could see anybody.*~~)
*Don't tell them **anything.***
*Your suggestion **won't help either** of us.*

At the beginning of a clause, only ***nobody, nothing*** etc are used.
Nothing matters. (NOT ~~*Not anything matters.*~~)
Nowhere is safe.

3 double and multiple negatives and their meaning

Two or more negative words can be used in one clause, but then both words normally have their full meaning. Compare:
*Say **nothing.*** (= Be silent.)
*Don't just say **nothing.** Tell us what the problem is.* (= Don't be silent ...)

Multiple negatives are sometimes used instead of simple positive structures for special stylistic effects. This is rather literary; in spoken English it can seem unnatural or old-fashioned.
*Not a day passes when I don't regret **not** having studied music in my youth.* (More natural: *Every day I regret not having studied music when I was younger.* OR *I wish I had studied music when I was younger.*)

4 dialects

In many British, American and other dialects, two or more negatives can be used with a single negative meaning.
*I **ain't seen nobody.*** (Standard English: *I haven't seen anybody.*)
*I **ain't never done nothing to nobody, and I ain't never got nothing from nobody no time.*** (American song by Bert Williams)

For more information about *ain't*, see 143.4.

5 two negative ideas: *not ... or / not ... nor*

When *not* refers to two or more verbs, nouns, adjectives etc, we usually join them with *or*.
*He doesn't smoke **or drink.*** (NOT ~~*He doesn't smoke nor drink.*~~)
*She wasn't **angry or upset.***
*It's **not on the table or in the cupboard.***

However, we can use *nor* after a pause, to separate and emphasise a second verb, adjective etc.
*Our main need is not food, **nor** money. It is education.* (More emphatic than *... food or money.*)
*She didn't phone that day, **nor** the next day.* (More emphatic than *... or the next day.*)

Note that *neither* cannot be used in this way.

For the use of *neither ... nor* to join two negative ideas (e.g. *He neither smokes nor drinks*), see 373.

6 *... I don't think* etc

In informal speech, expressions like *I don't think* or *I don't suppose* are often added after negative statements. In this case, the extra negative makes no difference to the meaning of the statement.

*She hasn't got much chance of passing the exam, I **don't think**.*
*We won't be back before midnight, I **don't suppose**.*

7 extra negative in expressions of doubt

In informal standard spoken English, a negative verb (without a negative meaning) is sometimes used after expressions of doubt or uncertainty.

*I shouldn't be surprised if they **didn't** get married soon.* (= ... if they got married soon.)
*I wonder whether I **oughtn't** to go and see a doctor – I'm feeling a bit funny.* (= ... whether I ought to ...)

371 negative structures (5): ambiguous sentences

In a negative structure, *not* can refer to different parts of a sentence. Compare:

*Arthur **didn't write** to Sue yesterday – he phoned her.*
*Arthur **didn't** write to Sue yesterday – he wrote to Ann.*
*Arthur **didn't** write to Sue yesterday – he wrote this morning.*

The exact meaning is shown in speech by stress and intonation, and even in writing it is usually clear from the context and situation. However, confusions sometimes arise. They can usually be avoided by reorganising the sentence. Compare:

*The car crash **didn't** kill him.* (Did he live, or did something else kill him?)
It wasn't the car crash that killed him. (Only one possible meaning.)

Negative sentences with *because*-clauses are often ambiguous.

*I **didn't** sing **because** Pam was there.*

This sentence could mean 'My reason for not singing was that Pam was there' or 'My reason for singing was not that Pam was there'. The first meaning could be shown clearly by putting the *because*-clause at the beginning.

***Because** Pam was there, I **didn't** sing.*

372 neither (of): determiner

1 *neither* + singular noun

We use *neither* before a singular noun to mean 'not one and not the other (of two)'.

*Can you come on Monday or Tuesday? ~I'm afraid **neither day** is possible.*

2 *neither of* + plural

We use *neither of* before a determiner (for example *the, my, these*), and before a pronoun. The noun or pronoun is plural.

Neither of my brothers can sing. (NOT ~~*Neither my brothers can sing*~~.)
Neither of us saw it happen.

After ***neither of*** + **noun/pronoun**, we use a singular verb in a formal style.

*Neither of my sisters **is** married.*

In an informal style, a plural verb is possible.

*Neither of my sisters **are** married.*

3 *neither* used alone

We can use *neither* without a noun or pronoun, if the meaning is clear. ▸

Which one do you want? ~*Neither.*

4 pronunciation

In British English, *neither* can be pronounced both /'naɪðə(r)/ and /'ni:ðə(r)/. In American English, the usual pronunciation is /'ni:ðər/.

373 neither ... nor

This structure is used to join two negative ideas. (It is the opposite of *both ... and.*) It is usually rather formal.

*I **neither** smoke **nor** drink.* (less formal: *I don't smoke or drink.*)

*The film was **neither** well made **nor** well acted.*

Sometimes more than two ideas are connected by *neither ... nor.*

*He **neither** smiled, spoke, **nor** looked at me.*

Neither cannot begin a complete clause in this structure.

He neither smiled ... nor ... (BUT NOT ~~*Neither he smiled*~~ ...)

When singular subjects are connected by *neither ... nor*, the verb is normally singular, but it can be plural in a less formal style.

*Neither James nor Virginia **was** at home.* (normal)

*Neither James nor Virginia **were** at home.* (less formal)

See also *both ... and* (111) and *either ... or* (175).
For *not ... or* and *not ... nor*, see 370.5.

374 neither, nor and not ... either

1 *neither* and *nor*

We can use *neither* and *nor* as adverbs to mean 'also not'. *Neither* and *nor* come at the beginning of a clause, and are followed by inverted word order (see 302–303): auxiliary verb + subject.

I can't swim. ~*Neither/nor **can** I.* (NOT ~~*I also can't.*~~)

*Ruth didn't turn up, and neither/nor **did** Kate.* (NOT ... ~~*and Kate didn't too.*~~)

In American English, *nor* is not normally used after *and.*

2 *not either*

We can also use *not ... either* with the same meaning and normal word order.

I can't swim. ~*I **can't** either.*

*Ruth didn't turn up, and Kate **didn't** either.*

In very informal speech, *me neither* (and occasionally *me either*, especially in AmE) can be used instead of *I ...n't either.*

I can't swim. ~*Me **neither**.*

3 one negative

Only one negative word (*not* or *neither*) is necessary to give a negative meaning.

Neither did Kate OR *Kate didn't either.* (NOT ~~*Neither didn't Kate*~~ OR ~~*Kate didn't neither*~~)

For the pronunciation of *neither*, see 372.
For other uses of *either*, see 174–175.
For *so am I, so do I* etc, see 541.
For the difference between *too/also* and *either* in negative sentences, see 47.
For *neither ... nor*, see 373.
For *not ... or* and *not ... nor*, see 370–375.

375 next and the next; nearest

1 *next week, month* etc; *the next week, month* etc

Next week, month etc (without *the*) is the week, month etc just after this one. If I am speaking in July, *next month* is August; in 2006, *next year* is 2007.
The next week, month etc is the period of seven/thirty/etc days starting at the moment of speaking. On July 15th 2006, *the next month* is the period from July 15th to August 15th; *the next year* is the period from July 2006 to July 2007.
Compare:

- *Goodbye – see you **next week**.* (NOT ... ~~*see you the next week.*~~)
  *I'll be busy for **the next week**.* (= the seven days starting today)
- *Next year will be difficult.* (= the year starting next January)
  *The **next year** will be difficult.* (= the twelve months starting now)

The difference between *last* and *the last* is similar. See 314.

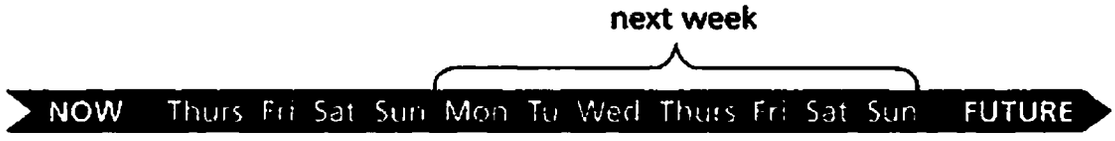

2 *the next three ...* etc

Note the word order in expressions with numbers.
*I'll be at college for **the next three years**.* (NOT ... ~~*the three next years.*~~)
We generally say *the next few days*, not ~~*the next days*~~.
*The **next few days** will be wet.*

3 *next Sunday* etc

When *next* is used with the names of days or months, it is not always clear exactly what is meant.
*See you **next Sunday**.* ~ *Do you mean this coming Sunday or the one after?*
To avoid misunderstanding, one can say for example (1) *on Sunday, this Sunday, the/this Sunday coming, the/this coming Sunday* or *(on) Sunday this week*, and (2) *on Sunday week, a week on Sunday* or *(on) Sunday next week.*

4 place: *next* and *nearest*

The nearest is generally preferred for place - it means 'most near in space'.
*Excuse me. Where's **the nearest** tube station?* (NOT ... ~~*the next tube station.*~~
*If you want to find Alan, just look in **the nearest** pub.*
The next can be used for place if we are talking about movement or direction. It means 'after this/that one'.
*We get off at **the next** station.* (= the station that we will come to next.)
*It's not on this shelf; it's on **the next** shelf up.* ▸

Next can also be used to talk about the nearest position in a row.
My girlfriend lives next door. *Who works in the next office?*
The people at the next table were having a terrible argument.
Next to means 'beside'.
Come and sit next to me.

376 no, none and not a/any

1 *no*: emphatic

No can be used instead of *not a* or *not any* when we want to emphasise a negative idea.
Would you believe it? There's no wardrobe in the bedroom!
(More emphatic than ... *There isn't a wardrobe* ...)
Sorry I can't stop. I've got no time.
(More emphatic than ... *I haven't got any time.*)
There were no letters for you this morning, I'm afraid.
(More emphatic than *There weren't any letters* ...)
After *no*, countable nouns are usually plural unless the sense makes a singular noun necessary. Compare:
He's got no children. (More natural than *He's got no child.*)
He's got no wife. (More normal than *He's got no wives.*)

2 *none of*

Before a determiner (e.g. *the, my, this*) or a pronoun, we use *none of.*
She's done none of the work. (NOT ... ~~*no of the work*~~.)
We understood none of his arguments.
I've been to none of those places. *None of us speaks French.*
When we use *none of.*with a plural noun or pronoun, the verb can be singular (a little more formal) or plural (a little more informal).
None of my friends is interested. (more formal)
None of my friends are interested. (more informal)
We can use *none* alone if the meaning is clear.
How many of the books have you read? ~*None.*

3 *not a/any*

We prefer *not a/any* in objects and complements when the sense is not emphatic. Compare:
He's no fool. (= He's not a fool at all. – emphatic negative)
A whale is not a fish. (NOT ~~*A whale is no fish*~~) – the sense is not emphatic.

4 subjects

Not any cannot normally be used with subjects. *No* and *none of* are used instead.
No brand of cigarette is completely harmless. (NOT ~~*Not any brand*~~...)
No tourists ever came to our village. (NOT ~~*Not any tourists*~~...)
None of my friends lives near me. (NOT ~~*Not any of my friends*~~...)

5 not used to talk about two

We use *neither*, not *no* or *none*, to talk about two people or things (see 372).
Neither of my parents could be there. (NOT ~~*None of my parents*~~...)

6 *nobody* etc

Nobody, nothing, no one and *nowhere* are used in similar ways to *no*.
*I saw **nobody**.* (More emphatic than *I didn't see anybody.*)
Nobody spoke. (NOT ~~*Not anybody spoke.*~~)

For *no* and *not*, see 382.
For *none* and *no one*, see 380.
For more about *any*, see 55.
For *no* as a modifying adverb (e.g. *no better*), see 57.

377 no doubt

No doubt means 'probably' or 'I suppose', not 'certainly'.
No doubt it'll rain soon.
*You're tired, **no doubt**. I'll make you a cup of tea.*
To say that something is certain, we can use *there is no doubt that* (formal), *without any doubt* (formal), *certainly, definitely.*
*There is **no doubt that** the world is getting warmer.* (NOT ~~*No doubt the world is getting warmer.*~~)
*Cycling is **certainly** healthier than driving.* (NOT ~~*No doubt cycling is healthier than driving.*~~)
Doubtless is similar to *no doubt* (but more formal); *undoubtedly* is similar to *there is no doubt that.*

For structures with the verb *doubt*, see 163.

378 no matter

1 conjunction

No matter can be used with *who, whose, what, which, where, when* and *how.* These expressions are conjunctions, used to join clauses together. The meaning is similar to 'it is not important who/what etc'.
*I'll love you **no matter what** you do.*
*No **matter where** you go, I'll follow you.*
We use a present tense with a future meaning after *no matter* (see 580).
No matter where you go, you'll find Coca-Cola.
You'll be welcome no matter when you come.

2 *no matter who* etc and *whoever* etc

The conjunctions *no matter who/what* etc are used rather like *whoever, whatever* etc (see 625). Compare:
- *No **matter what** you say, I won't believe you.*
  Whatever you say, I won't believe you.
- *Phone me when you arrive, **no matter how** late it is.*
  *Phone me when you arrive, **however** late it is.*

However, clauses with *whoever/whatever/whichever* can be used as subjects or objects. Clauses with *no matter who* etc cannot be used in this way.
Whatever you do is fine with me. (BUT NOT ~~*No matter what you do is fine with me.*~~)
You can have whichever you like. (BUT NOT ~~*You can have no matter which you like.*~~)

3 *no matter* and *it doesn't matter*

Because *no matter* ... is a conjunction, it must be used with two clauses.

No matter when you come, you'll be welcome. (BUT NOT ~~*No matter when you come.*~~)

To introduce just one clause, we can use *It doesn't matter.*

It doesn't matter when you come.

4 use without a verb

However, *no matter what* can be used at the end of a clause, without a following verb.

*I'll always love you, **no matter what**.* (= ... no matter what happens.)

For sentences like *Something's the matter with my foot*, see 585.

379 no more, not any more, no longer, not any longer

We use *no more* with nouns to talk about quantity or degree – to say how much.

*There's **no more** bread.*

We do not use *no more* in standard modern English as an adverb to express the idea of actions and situations stopping. Instead, we use *no longer* (usually before the verb), *not ... any longer* or *not ... any more.*

*I **no longer** support the Conservative party.* (NOT ~~*I no more support*~~ ...)

*This **can't** go on **any longer**.* *I'm **not** helping you **any more**.*

Anymore may be written as one word, especially in American English.

*Annie doesn't live here **anymore**.*

380 no one and none

1 *no one*

No one (also written *no-one* in British English) means the same as *nobody*. It cannot be followed by *of*.

No one wished me a happy birthday. (NOT ~~*No one of my friends*~~ ...)

*I stayed in all evening waiting, but **no one** came.*

2 *none*

To express the idea 'not a single one (of)', we can use *none (of)*, *not any (of)* or *not one (of)* (more emphatic). *No one* is not used in this way.

None of my friends wished me a happy birthday.

*I haven't read **any** of his books.*

Not one of my shirts is clean. (NOT ~~*No one of my shirts*~~ ...)

*Have you found any blackberries? ~ **Not one**.*

For more about *none*, see 376.

381 non-affirmative (or 'non-assertive') words

There are some words that are not often used in affirmative sentences – for example *any, anybody, ever, yet.* When we affirm or assert (that is, when we say that something is true) we normally use other words – for example *some, somebody, once, sometimes, already.* Compare:

- *Somebody telephoned.*
  Did anybody telephone?
- *I've bought you something.*
  I haven't bought you anything.
- *She's already here.*
  Is she here yet?
- *I sometimes go to the theatre.*
  Do you ever go to the theatre?
- *I met the Prime Minister once.*
  Have you ever met the Prime Minister?

Non-affirmative words are common not only in questions and negative sentences, but in other cases where we are not making affirmative statements – for example in *if*-clauses, after comparisons, and together with adverbs, verbs, prepositions, adjectives and determiners that have a negative kind of meaning.

Let me know if you have any trouble.
I wonder if she found anything.
She writes better than anybody I know.
He seldom says anything.
I've hardly been anywhere since Christmas.
He denied that he had ever seen her.
Please forget that I ever told you anything about it.
I'd rather do it without anybody's help.
It's difficult to understand anything he says.
Few people have ever seen her laugh.

For information about particular non-affirmative words, check in the Index to find the entries for the words in question.

382 not and no

To make a word, expression or clause negative, we use *not.*

Not surprisingly, we missed the train. (NOT ~~*No surprisingly*~~ . . .)
The students went on strike, but not the teachers. (NOT . . . ~~*but no the teachers.*~~)
I can see you tomorrow, but not on Thursday.
I have not received his answer.

We can use *no* with a noun or *-ing* form to mean 'not any', or 'not a/an'.

No teachers went on strike. (= There weren't any teachers on strike.)
I've got no Thursdays free this term. (= I haven't got any Thursdays . . .)
I telephoned, but there was no answer. (= There wasn't an answer.)
NO SMOKING

Sometimes sentences constructed with verb + *not* and *no* + noun have similar meanings. The structure with *no* is usually more emphatic.

There wasn't an answer. / There was no answer.

383 not only

In the rather formal structure *not only . . . but also, not only* and *but also* can go immediately before the words or expressions that they modify.

*We go there **not only in winter, but also in summer.***
Not only the bathroom was flooded, but also the rest of the house.
*The place was **not only cold, but also damp.***

Mid-position with the verb (see 24) is also possible. In this case, *not only* is generally used without *do*.

*She **not only sings** like an angel, but also dances divinely.*
*She **not only plays** the piano, but also the violin.*

Not only can be moved to the beginning of a clause for emphasis. It is then followed by **auxiliary verb + subject**; *do* is used if there is no other auxiliary (for more about this word order, see 302). *But* can be left out in this case.

Not only has she been late three times; she has also done no work.
Not only do they need clothing, but they are also short of water.

In informal English *not only . . . but also* is not very common; other structures are generally preferred.

*We **don't only** go there in winter. We go in summer **too**.*

384 noun + complement: what can follow a noun?

Many nouns, especially abstract nouns, can be followed by 'complements' – other words and expressions that 'complete' their meaning. These complements can be prepositional phrases, infinitive expressions or clauses (with or without prepositions).

*Alan's **criticism of the plan** made him very unpopular.*
*I hate the **thought of leaving** you.*
*Does she understand the **need to keep** everything secret?*
*I admire your **belief that** you are always right.*
*There's still the **question of whether** we're going to pay her.*

Many nouns can be followed by more than one kind of complement.

*He didn't give any **reason for the changes**.*
*You've no **reason to get** angry.*
*The main **reason why** I don't believe her is this.*

Not all nouns can be followed by all kinds of complement.

– *the idea of marriage*
the idea that I might get married
(BUT NOT ~~*the idea to get married*~~)

– *freedom to choose*
freedom of choice
(BUT NOT ~~*freedom of choosing*~~)

Note that a related noun and verb may have different kinds of complement.

*I have no **intention of resigning**.*
*I do not **intend to resign**.*

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which structures are possible after a particular noun. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

For more information about *-ing* forms after nouns, see 297.
For infinitives after nouns, see 285.
For *should* in clauses after nouns, see 521.
For subjunctives in clauses after nouns, see 567.
For the prepositions that are used after some common nouns, see 449.
For prepositions before clauses, see 453.
For structures with preparatory *it* (e.g. *It's a pity that we can't see him*), see 446–447.

385 noun + noun (1): basic information

1 *milk chocolate; chocolate milk*

Many common ideas in English are expressed by **noun + noun** compounds. In this structure, the first noun modifies or describes the second, a little like an adjective. Compare:

- *milk chocolate* (a kind of chocolate)
  chocolate milk (a kind of milk)
- *a horse race* (a kind of race)
  a race horse (a kind of horse)
- *a book case* (a kind of case)
  mineral water (a kind of water)

Noun + noun expressions can often be changed into structures where the second noun becomes a subject and the first an object.

an oil well (= a well that produces oil)
a sheepdog (= a dog that looks after sheep)
a Birmingham man (= a man who comes from Birmingham)
the airport bus (= the bus that goes to the airport)

2 the first noun is singular

Note that the first noun is usually singular in form, even if it has a plural meaning. (For exceptions, see 531.)

a shoe shop (= a shop that sells shoes)
a horse race (= a race for horses) *trouser pockets* (= pockets in trousers)
a toothbrush (= a brush for teeth) *a ticket office* (= an office that sells tickets)

3 articles

Articles belonging to the first (modifying) noun are dropped in **noun + noun** combinations.

army officers (= officers in **the army**)
a sun hat (= a hat that protects you against **the sun**)

4 more than two nouns

More than two nouns can be put together. A group of two nouns can modify a third noun, these can modify a fourth, and so on.

oil production costs *road accident research centre*

This kind of structure is very common in newspaper headlines (see 240) because it saves space.

FURNITURE FACTORY PAY CUT ROW

5 other structures

Not all compound ideas can be expressed by a **noun + noun** structure. Sometimes it is necessary to use a structure with *of* or another preposition; sometimes a structure with possessive *'s* is used.

a feeling of disappointment (NOT ~~*a disappointment feeling*~~)
letters from home (NOT ~~*home letters*~~) *cow's milk* (NOT ~~*cow milk*~~)

For more details, see 386. ▶

6 pronunciation

Most **noun + noun** combinations have the main stress on the first noun.

a 'bicycle factory *a 'fruit drink* *'ski boots* *'coffee beans*

However, there are quite a number of exceptions.

a garden 'chair *a fruit 'pie*

The difference between noun modifiers and adjectival modifiers is sometimes shown by stress. Compare:

a 'French teacher (noun modifier: *a person who teaches French*)

a French 'teacher (adjective modifier: *a teacher who is French*)

To be sure of the stress on a particular combination, it is necessary to check in a good dictionary.

For the stressing of road and street names, see 502.

7 spelling

Some short, common **noun + noun** combinations are generally written together like single words.

bathroom *lampshade* *seaside* (BUT NOT ~~*railwaystation*~~)

Others may be written with a hyphen (e.g. *letter-box*) or separately (e.g. *furniture shop*). In many cases usage varies, and some combinations can be found written in all three ways (e.g. *bookshop*, *book-shop* or *book shop*). Hyphens are becoming less common in modern English, and (except with very common short combinations like *bathroom*) it is usually acceptable to write the two words separately.

For more information about the spelling of different kinds of compounds, see 559.
For information about the spelling of particular noun + noun expressions, see a good dictionary.

386 noun + noun (2): advanced points

1 classifying expressions: *a sheepdog*

The **noun + noun** structure is mostly used to make 'classifying' expressions, which name a particular kind of thing.

mountain plants (a special group of plants)

mineral water (a sort of water)

a sheepdog (a particular kind of dog)

We use **noun + noun** especially to talk about things that belong to common well-known classes (so that the two nouns really describe a single idea). In other cases we prefer a preposition structure. Compare:

the postman, the milkman, the insurance man (all well-known kinds of people who may call regularly at a British home)

a man from the health department (not a regular kind of visitor)

More examples:

- *He was reading a **history book**.* (a common class of book)
  *He was reading a **book about the moon**.* (NOT ~~*a moon book*~~)
- *She was sitting at a **corner table** in the restaurant.* (Restaurants often have corner tables.)

Who's the girl in the corner? (NOT ~~*Who's the corner girl?*~~)
– *What does that road sign say?*
She was showing signs of tiredness. (NOT . . . ~~*tiredness signs.*~~)

2 containers: *a matchbox; a box of matches*

Noun + noun is used for particular kinds of container.
a matchbox *a paint tin* *a coffee cup*
But we use the preposition structure (with *of*) to talk about a container together with its contents.
a box of matches *a tin of paint* *a cup of coffee*

3 units, selections and collections: *piece, group* etc

We also prefer the *of*-structure with words that refer to units, selections and collections, like *piece, slice, lump* (of sugar), *bunch* (of flowers), *blade* (of grass), *pack* (of cards), *herd, flock, group* and so on.
a piece of paper (NOT ~~*a paper piece*~~)
a bunch of flowers (NOT ~~*a flower bunch*~~)

4 'made of': *a silk dress; silken skin*

Noun + noun is normally used to say what things are made of.
a silk dress *a stone bridge* *an iron rod* *a gold ring*
In older English, the *of*-structure was more common in this case (e.g. *a dress of silk, a bridge of stone*), and it is still used in some metaphorical expressions.
He rules his family with a rod of iron.
The flowers were like a carpet of gold.
A few pairs of nouns and adjectives (e.g. *gold, golden*) are used as modifiers with different meanings. Generally the noun simply names the material something is made of, while the adjective has a more metaphorical meaning. Compare:

a gold watch	*golden memories*
silk stockings	*silken skin*
a lead pipe	*a leaden sky* (grey and depressing)
a stone roof	*a stony silence*

But *wooden* and *woollen* just mean 'made of wood/wool'.

5 measurement: *a five-litre can*

Noun + noun is used in measurements, with a number before the first noun. The number is usually joined to the first noun by a hyphen (-). Note that the first noun is normally singular in form in these cases.
a five-litre can *a ten-pound note* (NOT ~~*a five-litres can, a ten-pounds note*~~)
a six-pound chicken *a three-mile walk* *a five-day course*
a two-person tent *ten two-hour lessons*
The number *one* is often left out.
a (one-)pint mug
In fractions, the plural *-s* is not usually dropped.
a two-thirds share (NOT ~~*a two-third share*~~)
Exception: *three quarters (a three-quarter length coat)* ▸

6 noun + 's + noun: *children's clothes; a bird's nest*

In some classifying expressions we use a structure with possessive *'s*. This is common when we are talking about things that are used by a person or animal: the first noun refers to the user.

children's clothes *a man's sweater*
women's magazines *a bird's nest*

Generally, either both nouns are singular or both are plural.

a child's toy *children's clothes*

but

a women's magazine

Not all 'used by' expressions have possessive *'s*.

baby clothes *a birdcage*

British and American usage sometimes differ. Compare:

a baby's bottle (BrE) *a baby bottle* (AmE)
a baby's pram (BrE) *a baby carriage* (AmE)
a doll's house (BrE) *a doll house* (AmE)

7 noun + 's + noun: *cow's milk; a hen's egg*

The *'s* structure is often used for products from living animals.

cow's milk *lamb's wool*
sheep's wool *a bird's egg* *a hen's egg*
(BUT *camel hair, horsehair*)

When the animal is killed to provide something, we usually use **noun + noun**.

calf skin *chamois leather* *fox fur*
chicken soup *a lamb chop* *tortoise shell*

8 parts: *a man's leg; a table leg*

We use the *'s* structure to talk about parts of people's and animals' bodies.

a man's leg *an elephant's trunk* *a sheep's heart*

But to talk about parts of non-living things, we usually use the **noun + noun** structure.

a table leg (NOT ~~*a table's leg*~~)
a car door (NOT USUALLY *a car's door*)

9 pronunciation

Classifying expressions with possessive *'s* most often have the main stress on the first noun. Compare:

– *a 'doll's house* (a kind of house)
  my brother's 'house (not a kind of house)
– *'goat's milk* (a kind of milk)
  the goat's 'tail (not a kind of tail)

Here, too, there are exceptions.

a child's 'bicycle (a kind of bicycle)

For the use of structures with *'s* to talk about possession, relationships etc, see 440.

10 noun + noun, noun + 's + noun, or preposition structure?

This is a very complicated area of English grammar. The 'rules' given above show the general patterns, but unfortunately there is no easy way to be quite

sure which structure is used to express a particular compound idea. The most common expressions will be learnt by experience; in cases of doubt, a good dictionary will often show which form is correct.

387 now (that)

Now (that) can be used as a conjunction. In an informal style, *that* is often dropped (see 584).

Now (that) Andrew is married, he has become much more responsible.
Now the exams are over I can enjoy myself

388 nowadays

Nowadays is an adverb meaning 'these days', 'at the present time'.

People seem to be very depressed nowadays.
Nowadays we think nothing of space travel.

Nowadays cannot be used as an adjective.

I don't like modern fashions. (NOT ~~*I don't like the nowadays fashions.*~~)

389 numbers

1 fractions and decimals: *two fifths; nought point four*

We say simple fractions like this:

$^1/_4$	*a/one quarter*	$^{11}/_{16}$	*eleven sixteenths*
$^1/_8$	*an/one eighth*	$3^3/_4$	*three and three quarters*
$^3/_7$	*three sevenths*	$6^1/_8$	*six and one eighth*
$^2/_5$	*two fifths*		

More complex fractions can be expressed by using the word *over*.

$^{317}/_{509}$ *three hundred and seventeen over five hundred and nine*

We write and say decimals like this:

0.4 *nought point four* (NOT ~~*nought comma four*~~)
0.375 *nought point three seven five* (NOT ~~*nought point three hundred and seventy-five*~~)
4.7 *four point seven*

For the difference between *a(n)* and *one* with numbers, see paragraph 11 below.

2 before nouns

With fractions below *1*, we use *of* before nouns.

three quarters of an hour
seven tenths of a mile
a third of the students

Half is not always followed by *of* (see 231).

half an hour *half (of) the students*

Of is also possible with decimals below *1*.

nought point six of a mile

0.1625 cm *nought point one six two five of a centimetre*

However, decimals below *1* are often followed directly by plural nouns.

nought point six ***miles*** (NOT ~~*nought point six mile*~~)

nought point one three two five ***centimetres***

Fractions and decimals over *1* are normally followed by plural nouns.

one and a half ***hours*** (NOT ~~*one and a half hour*~~)

three and three eighths ***miles***

1.3 ***millimetres*** (NOT ~~*1.3 millimetre*~~)

Note also the structure *a . . . and a half.*

I've been waiting for ***an hour and a half.***

3 singular or plural verbs

Singular verbs are normally used after fractions, decimals, and other expressions referring to amounts and measurements (for more details, see 527).

Three quarters of a ton ***is*** *too much.* (NOT ~~*Three quarters of a ton are*~~ . . .)

3.6 kilometres ***is*** *about 2 miles.*

But plural verbs are used when we are talking about numbers of people or things, even after a singular fraction.

A third of the students ***are*** *from abroad.* (NOT ~~*A third of the students is*~~ . . .)

Half of the glasses ***are*** *broken.*

After expressions like ***one in three, one out of five*** + **plural noun**, both singular and plural verbs are possible.

One in three new cars ***break/breaks*** *down in the first year.*

4 *nought, zero, nil* etc

The figure *0* is usually called *nought* in British English and *zero* in American English. When we say numbers one figure at a time, *0* is often called *oh* (like the letter *O*).

My account number is four one three ***oh*** *six.*

In measurements of temperature, *0* is called *zero* in both British and American English. *Zero* is followed by a plural noun.

Zero degrees *Celsius is thirty-two degrees Fahrenheit.*

Zero scores in team games are called *nil* (American *zero* or *nothing*). In tennis and similar games, the word *love* is used (originally from French *l'oeuf*, meaning 'the egg' – the figure *0* is egg-shaped).

And the score at half-time is: Scotland three, England ***nil.***

*Forty-****love****; Andrews to serve.*

5 telephone numbers

We say each figure separately, pausing after groups of three or four (not two). When the same figure comes twice, British people usually say *double.*

307 4922 *three oh seven, four nine double two*
(AmE *three zero seven, four nine two two*)

6 Roman numbers

Roman numbers (*I, II, III, IV* etc) are not common in modern English, but they are still used in a few cases – for example the names of kings and queens, page numbers in the introductions to some books, the numbers of paragraphs in some documents, the numbers of questions in some examinations, the figures on some old clock faces, and occasionally the names of centuries.

It was built in the time of Henry V.
For details, see Introduction page ***ix****.*
Do question (vi) or question (vii), but not both.
a fine XVIII Century English walnut chest of drawers

The Roman numbers normally used are as follows:

1	*I i*	10	*X x*	40	*XL xl*
2	*II ii*	11	*XI xi*	45	*XLV xlv*
3	*III iii*	12	*XII xii*	50	*L l*
4	*IV iv*	13	*XIII xiii*	60	*LX lx*
5	*V v*	14	*XIV xiv*	90	*XC xc*
6	*VI vi*	19	*XIX xix*	100	*C c*
7	*VII vii*	20	*XX xx*	500	*D*
8	*VIII viii*	21	*XXI xxi*	1000	*M*
9	*IX ix*	30	*XXX xxx*	1995	*MCMXCV*

7 cardinal and ordinal numbers: books, chapters etc; kings and queens

After a noun we usually use a cardinal number (*one, two* etc) instead of an ordinal number (*first, second* etc). This structure is common in titles. Compare:

the fourth book – Book ***Four*** *the third act – Act* ***Three***
Mozart's thirty-ninth symphony – Symphony No. 39, by Mozart
the third day of the course – Timetable for Day ***Three***

However, the names of kings and queens are said with ordinal numbers.

Henry VIII: Henry the ***Eighth*** (NOT ~~*Henry Eight*~~)
Louis XIV: Louis the ***Fourteenth***
Elizabeth II: Elizabeth the ***Second***

8 centuries

Note how the names of centuries relate to the years in them. The period from 1701 – 1800 is called the 18th century (not the 17th); 1801 – 1900 is the 19th century, etc.

9 floors

The *ground floor* of a British house is the *first floor* of an American house; the British *first floor* is the American *second floor*, etc.

10 *and*; punctuation

In British English we always put *and* between *hundred/thousand/million* and numbers below a hundred. In American English, *and* can be dropped.

310	*three hundred* ***and*** *ten* (AmE also *three hundred ten*)
5,642	*five thousand, six hundred* ***and*** *forty-two*
2,025	*two thousand* ***and*** *twenty-five*

▸

In measurements containing two different units, *and* is possible before the smaller, but is usually left out.

two hours (and) ten minutes
two metres (and) thirty centimetres

In writing we generally use commas (,) to divide large numbers into groups of three figures, by separating off the thousands and the millions. Full stops (.) are not used in this way.

3,127 (NOT ~~*3.127*~~) *5,466,243*

We do not always use commas in four-figure numbers, and they are not used in dates.

4,126 OR *4126* *the year 1648*

Spaces are also possible.

There are 1 000 millimetres in a metre.

Note the hyphen between the tens and units in *twenty-one, twenty-two, thirty-six, forty-nine* etc.

11 *a* and *one*

We can say *an eighth* or *one eighth, a hundred* or *one hundred, a thousand* or *one thousand, a million* or *one million*, etc. *One* is more formal.

*I want to live for **a** hundred years.* (NOT ... ~~*for hundred years*~~)
*Pay Mr J Baron **one** thousand pounds.* (on a cheque)

A can only be used at the beginning of a number. Compare:

a/one hundred
three thousand one hundred (NOT ~~*three thousand a hundred*~~)

A thousand can be used alone, and before *and*, but not usually before a number of hundreds. Compare:

a/one thousand *a/one thousand and forty-nine*
one thousand, six hundred and two
(More natural than *a thousand, six hundred and two.*)

We can use *a* or *one* with measurement words. The rules are similar.

a/one kilometre (BUT *one kilometre, six hundred metres*)
an/one hour and seventeen minutes (BUT *one hour, seventeen minutes*)
a/one pound (BUT *one pound twenty-five*)

12 numbers with determiners

Numbers can be used after determiners. Before determiners, a structure with *of* is necessary.

You're my one hope.
One of my friends gave me this. (NOT ~~*One my friend*~~...)

13 *eleven hundred* etc

In an informal style we often use *eleven hundred, twelve hundred* etc instead of *one thousand one hundred* etc. This is most common with round numbers between 1,100 and 1,900.

*We only got **fifteen hundred** pounds for the car.*

This form is used in historical dates (see 152).

*He was born in **thirteen hundred**.*
*It was built in **fifteen (hundred and)** twenty-nine.*

14 *billion*

A *billion* is a thousand million. (But in older British usage a *billion* was a million million.)

15 *five hundred* etc without *-s*

After a number, the words *dozen, hundred, thousand, million* and *billion* have no final *-s*, and *of* is not used. This also happens after *several* and *a few*. Compare:

- *five hundred pounds*
  hundreds of pounds
- *several thousand times*
  It cost thousands.
- *a few million years*
  millions of years

Singular forms are used as modifiers before nouns in plural measuring expressions.

a five-pound note (NOT ~~*a five-pounds note*~~)
a three-mile walk *a four-foot deep hole*
six two-hour lessons *a six-foot tall man*
a three-month-old baby

In an informal style, we often use *foot* instead of *feet* in other structures, especially when we talk about people's heights.

My father's just over six foot two.

For the use of *be* in measurements, see 92.
For the use of possessive forms in expressions of time (e.g. *ten minutes' walk; four days' journey*), see 440–444.

16 British money (pre-euro)

There are 100 *pence* in a *pound*. Sums of money are named as follows:

1p one penny (informal *one p* (/piː/) or *a penny*)
5p five pence (informal *five p*)
£3.75 three pounds seventy-five (pence) OR *three pounds and seventy-five pence* (more formal)

Some people now use the plural *pence* as a singular in informal speech; *pound* is sometimes used informally as a plural.

That's two pounds and one pence, please.
It cost me eight pound fifty.

Singular forms are used in expressions like *a five-pound note* (see above). However, *pence* is often used instead of *penny* (*a five pence stamp*).

17 American money

There are 100 *cents* (¢) in a *dollar* ($). One-cent coins are called *pennies*; five-cent coins are *nickels*; ten-cent coins are *dimes*; a twenty-five cent coin is a *quarter*.

18 non-metric measures

In recent years, Britain has adopted some metric measurement units, but non-metric measures are still quite widely used. America uses mainly non-metric units. Approximate values are as follows: ▸

1 inch (1 in) = 2.5 cm
12 inches = 1 foot (30 cm)
3 feet (3 ft) = 1 yard (90 cm)
5,280 feet / 1,760 yards = 1 mile (1.6 km)
5 miles = 8 km
1 ounce (1 oz) = 28 gm
16 ounces = 1 pound (455 gm)
2.2 pounds (2.2 lb) = 1 kg
14 pounds (14 lb) = 1 stone (6.4 kg) (BrE only)
1 British pint = 56.8 cl
1 US pint = 47.3 cl
8 pints (8 pt) = 1 gallon
1 British gallon = 4.55 litres
1 US gallon = 3.78 litres
1 acre = 4,840 square yards = 0.4 hectares
1 square mile = 640 acres = 259 ha

British people measure their weight in *stones* and *pounds* or (more recently) in *kilograms*; Americans just use *pounds*. Height is measured in *feet*; distance can also be measured in *feet*, but longer distances are often measured in *yards*, especially in British English.

I weigh eight stone six. (NOT ... ~~*eight stones six*~~)
We are now flying at an altitude of 28,000 feet.
The car park's straight on, about 500 yards on the right.

19 area and volume

We say, for example, that a room is *twelve feet by fifteen feet*, or that a garden is *thirty metres by forty-eight metres*.
A room *twelve feet by twelve feet* can be called *twelve feet square*; the total area is *144 square feet*.
A container *2 metres by 2 metres by 3 metres* has a volume of *12 cubic metres*.

20 *a* and *per*

When we relate two different measures, we usually use *a/an*; *per* is often used in formal writing.

It costs two pounds a week. (OR ... *£2 per week.*)
We're doing seventy miles an hour. (OR ... *70 miles per hour / mph.*)

21 numbers not used as complements after *be*

Numbers are used as subjects or objects, but not usually as complements after *be*.

I've got three sisters. (NOT ~~*My sisters are three.*~~)
There are twelve of us in my family. (More natural than *We are twelve...*)

22 spoken calculations

Common ways of saying calculations in British English are:

2 + 2 = 4	*Two and two is/are four.* (informal) *Two plus two equals/is four.* (formal)
7 − 4 = 3	*Four from seven is/leaves three.* (informal) *Seven take away four is/leaves three.* (informal) *Seven minus four equals/is three.* (formal)

3 × 4 = 12	*Three fours are twelve.* (informal) *Three times four is twelve.* (informal) *Three multiplied by four equals/is twelve.* (formal)
9 ÷ 3 = 3	*Three(s) into nine goes three (times).* (informal) *Nine divided by three equals/is three.* (formal)

23 example of a spoken calculation

Here, for interest, is a multiplication (146 × 281) together with all its steps, in the words that a British English speaker might have used as he/she was working it out on paper before the days of pocket calculators.

```
   146
 × 281
 -----
 29200
 11680
   146
 -----
 41026
```

A hundred and forty-six times two hundred and eighty-one.

beginning: *Put down two noughts. Two sixes are twelve; put down two and carry one; two fours are eight and one are nine; two ones are two.*

next line: *Put down one nought. Eight sixes are forty-eight; put down eight and carry four; eight fours are thirty-two and four is thirty-six; put down six and carry three; eight ones are eight and three is eleven.*

next line: *One times 146 is 146.*

addition: *Six and nought and nought is six; eight and four and nought is twelve; put down two and carry one; six and two are eight and one is nine and one is ten; put down nought and carry one; nine and one are ten and one is eleven; put down one and carry one; two and one are three and one are four.*

total: *forty-one thousand and twenty-six.*

Note how *is* and *are* can often be used interchangeably.

For ways of saying and writing dates, see 152.
For ways of telling the time, see 579.

390 of course

We use *of course (not)* to mean 'as everybody knows' or 'as is obvious'.
It looks as if the sun goes round the earth, but of course that's not true.
We'll leave at eight o'clock. Granny won't be coming, of course.
Of course can be used as a polite reply to a request.
Could you help me? ~Of course.
But *of course* is not always a very polite reply to a statement of fact.
It's cold. ~It certainly is. (NOT *Of course it is* – this would suggest that the first speaker had said something too obvious to be worth mentioning.)

For the use of *of course* to structure arguments, see 157.5.

391 often

Often is mostly used for habitual behaviour, to mean 'a lot of times on different occasions'. To say 'a lot of times on one occasion', we normally use another expression (e.g. *a lot of times, several times, keep ...ing*). Compare:

*I **often** fell in love when I was younger.*
*I fell **several times** yesterday when I was skiing.* OR *I **kept falling** yesterday...*
(NOT ~~*I often fell yesterday*~~...)

Note that *often* has two common pronunciations, with and without *t*: /ˈɒfən/ and /ˈɒftən/.

For the position of *often* and other adverbs of indefinite frequency, see 24.

392 older English verb forms

The English of a few hundred years ago was different in many ways from modern English – grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling have all changed greatly since Shakespeare's time. Some of the most striking differences are in the way verbs are used. Older English had distinct second-person singular verb forms ending in *-st*, with a corresponding second-person singular pronoun *thou* (object form *thee*, possessives *thy, thine*). There were also third-person singular verb forms ending in *-th*, and *ye* could be used as a second-person plural pronoun.

*Tell me what **thou knowest**.* *How can I help **thee**?*
*Where **thy** master **goeth**, there **goest thou** also.*
*Oh come, all **ye** faithful.*

Older forms of *be* included second-person singular *art* and *wert*.

*I fear **thou art** sick.* *Wert thou at work today?*

Questions and negatives were originally made without *do*; later, forms with and without *do* (including affirmative forms with *do*) were both common.

Came you by sea or by land? *Be not afraid.*
They know not what they do. *Then he did take my hand and kiss it.*

Simple tenses were often used in cases where modern English has progressive forms.

*We go not out today, for it **raineth**.*

Subjunctives (see 567) were more widely used than in modern English.

*If she **be** here, then tell her I wait her pleasure.*

Inversion (see 302–303) was more common, and infinitives and past participles could come later in a clause than in modern English.

*Now **are we** lost indeed.*
*Hamlet, thou hast thy father much **offended**.* (Shakespeare)
*And she me **caught** in her arms long and small*
and therewithal so sweetly did me kiss
and softly said 'Dear heart, how like you this?' (Wyatt)

Some of these forms were still used in 19th-century and early 20th-century literature (particularly poetry) long after they had died out of normal usage. Modern writers of historical novels, films or plays often make their characters use some of these older forms in order to give a 'period' flavour to the language. And the forms also survive in certain contexts where tradition

is especially valued – for example the language of religious services, public ceremonies and the law. Some dialects, too, preserve forms which have disappeared from the rest of the language – second-person singular pronouns (*tha, thee* etc) are still used by many people in Yorkshire.

393 once: adverb

When *once* means 'at some time', we use it for the past but not for the future. To refer to an indefinite future time, we can use *sometime* or *one day*. Compare:

– *I met her **once** in Venezuela.*
  Once upon a time there was a beautiful princess.
– *Come up and see me **sometime**.* (NOT ~~*Come up and see me once.*~~)
  *We must go walking **one day**.* (NOT ~~*We must go walking once.*~~)

When *once* has the more precise meaning of 'one time (not twice or three times)', it can be used to talk about any time, including the future.

*I'm only going to say this **once**.*

Note that *at once* means 'immediately'.

*Can I have the bill? ~**At once**, sir.*

394 once: conjunction

Once can be used as a conjunction, meaning 'after', 'as soon as'. It often suggests that something is finished or completed, and is most often used with a perfect tense.

Once you've passed your test I'll let you drive my car.
Once he had found somewhere to live he started looking for work.
Once you know how to ride a bike you never forget it.

Note that we do not use *that* after *once* (NOT ~~*Once that you've passed your test*~~...).

For present perfect instead of future perfect after conjunctions, see 580.

395 one: substitute word

1 use

We often use *one* instead of repeating a singular countable noun.

*Which is your boy? ~The **one** in the blue coat.*
*I'd like a cake. A big **one** with lots of cream.*
*Can you lend me a pen? ~Sorry, I haven't got **one**.*

2 *a ... one*

We drop *a* if there is no adjective. Compare:

*I'm looking for a flat. I'd like **a small one** with a garden.*
*I'd like **one** with a garden.* (NOT ... ~~*a one with a garden.*~~) ▸

3 *ones*

One has a plural *ones*.

I'd like to try on those shoes. ~ *Which **ones**?* ~ *The **ones** in the window.*
*Green apples often taste better than red **ones**.*
What sort of sweets do you like? ~ *Ones with chocolate inside.*

4 uncountable nouns

We do not use *one(s)* for uncountable nouns. Compare:

*If you haven't got a fresh **chicken** I'll take a frozen **one**.*
*If you haven't got fresh **cream** I'll take tinned (cream).* (NOT ... ~~*tinned one.*~~)

5 *which (one), this (one)* etc

We can leave out *one(s)* immediately after *which, this, that, another, either, neither* and superlatives.

Which (one) would you like? ~ *This (one) looks the nicest.*
*Let's have **another** (one).* *Either (one) will suit me.*
*I think my dog's the **fastest** (one).*

But we cannot leave out *one(s)* if there is an adjective.

*This **blue one** looks the nicest.* (NOT ~~*This blue looks*~~ ...)

We nearly always leave out *ones* after *these* and *those*.

*I don't think much of **these**.* (More natural than ... *these ones*.)

6 not used after *my* etc, *some, several, a few, both* or *a number*

We do not use *one(s)* immediately after *my, your* etc, *some, several, (a) few, both* or *a number*.

*Take your coat and pass me **mine**.* (NOT ... ~~*pass me my one.*~~)
Are there any grapes? ~ *Yes, I bought **some** today.* (NOT ... ~~*I bought some ones today.*~~)
*I'll take **both**.* (NOT ... ~~*both ones.*~~)
*She bought **six**.* (NOT ... ~~*six ones.*~~)

But *one(s)* is used if there is an adjective.

*I'll wear **my old one**.* (NOT ... ~~*my old.*~~)
*I bought **some sweet ones** today.* (NOT ~~*I bought some sweet today.*~~)
Has the cat had her kittens? ~ *Yes, she's had **four white ones**.* (NOT ... ~~*four white.*~~)

7 *that of*

One(s) is not normally used after a noun with possessive *'s*. Instead, we can either just drop *one(s)*, or use a structure with *that/those of* (more formal).

*A grandparent's job is easier than **a parent's**.* (NOT ... ~~*than a parent's one.*~~)
*A grandparent's job is easier than **that of a parent**.* (NOT ... ~~*than the one of a parent.*~~)
*Trollope's novels are more entertaining than **those of Dickens**.* (NOT ... ~~*than Dickens' ones / the ones of Dickens.*~~)

8 noun modifiers

One(s) is not generally used after noun modifiers.

*Do you need coffee cups or **tea cups**?* (NOT ... ~~*or tea ones.*~~)

9 *One(s)* always refers back

We use *one(s)* to avoid repeating a noun which has been mentioned before. It cannot normally be used in other cases.

Let's go and ask the old man for advice. (NOT ...~~ask the old one~~...)

396 one, you and they: indefinite personal pronouns

1 *one* and *you*: meaning

We can use *one* or *you* to talk about people in general, including the speaker and hearer.

One/You cannot learn a language in six weeks.
One/You should never give people advice.

2 *one* and *you*: formality and class

One is more formal than *you* (and more common in writing than in speech). Compare:

If you want to make people angry, you just have to tell them the truth.
If one wishes to make oneself thoroughly unpopular, one has merely to tell people the truth.

One is often considered typical of more upper-class and intellectual usage, and is avoided by many people for this reason.

3 *one* and *you*: only used in generalisations

One and *you* are only used in this way in very general statements, when we are talking about 'anyone, at any time'. Compare:

- *One/You can usually find people who speak English in Sweden.*
  English is spoken in this shop. OR *They speak English in this shop.* (NOT ~~One speaks English~~... – the meaning is not 'people in general')
- *One/You should knock before going into somebody's room.*
  Somebody's knocking at the door. (NOT ~~One is knocking~~...)
- *It can take you/one ages to get served in this pub.*
  Thanks, I'm being served. (NOT ~~Thanks, one is serving me.~~)

One generally has a singular meaning: 'any individual'; it is not used to refer to whole groups.

We speak a strange dialect where I come from. (NOT ~~One speaks a strange dialect where I come from.~~)

4 people including the speaker/hearer

One is not used for people who could not include the speaker; *you* is not used for people who could not include the hearer. Compare:

One/You must believe in something.
In the sixteenth century people believed in witches.
(NOT ...~~one/you believed in witches~~ – this could not include the speaker or hearer.)

▶

5 *one/you* as subject, object etc

One can be a subject or object; there is a possessive *one's* and a reflexive pronoun *oneself*.

He talks to one like a teacher. *One's family can be very difficult.*
One should always give oneself plenty of time to pack.

You/your/yourself can be used in similar ways.

6 *they*

They has a rather different, less general kind of meaning than *one* and *you*. It usually refers to a particular but rather vague group (for example the neighbours, the people around, the authorities).

They don't like strangers round here.
They're going to widen the road soon.
I bet they put taxes up next year.

Note also the common expression *they say* (= people say).

They say her husband's been seeing that Mrs Hastings again. (NOT ~~*One says*~~...)

397 one of ...

After *one of* we normally use a plural form.

one of our cats (NOT ~~*one of our cat*~~)

Occasionally *one of* is used with a singular noun referring to a group.

Why don't you ask one of the crew?

A following verb is normally singular.

One of our cats has disappeared. (NOT ~~*One of our cats have disappeared.*~~)

After *one of*, a noun phrase must have a determiner (e.g. *the, my, those*).

one of the/my/those horses (BUT NOT ~~*one of horses*~~)

Of cannot be dropped.

one of my friends (NOT ~~*one my friend*~~ OR ~~*one my friends*~~)

For sentences like *She's one of the only women who have/has climbed Everest*, see 529.

398 only: focusing adverb

Only can be used as a 'focusing adverb' (see 24.6). It can refer to different parts of a sentence.

1 referring to the subject

Only normally comes before a subject that it refers to.

Only you could do a thing like that.
Only my mother really understands me.

2 referring to other parts of a sentence

When *only* refers to another part of a sentence, it often goes in 'mid-position' with the verb (see 24 for details).

She only reads biographies. *She is only on duty on Tuesdays.*
I only like swimming in the sea. *I've only been to India once.*
She was only talking like that because she was nervous.

3 ambiguous sentences

Sometimes sentences with *only* are ambiguous (they can be understood in more than one way).

I only kissed your sister last night. (The sense can be 'only kissed', 'only your sister' or 'only last night'.)

In speech, the meaning is usually clear because the speaker stresses the part of the sentence that *only* refers to. Even in writing, the context generally stops sentences like these from being really ambiguous. However, if necessary *only* can be put directly before the object, complement or adverbial expression that it refers to. This is rather formal. Compare:

They only play poker on Saturday nights. (could be ambiguous)
They play only poker on Saturday nights.
They play poker only on Saturday nights.

The meaning can also be made more precise with a relative structure.

Poker is the only game (that) they play on Saturday nights.
Saturday nights are the only time (that) they play poker.

4 *only today* etc

Only with a time expression can mean 'as recently as', 'not before'.

I saw her only today – she looks much better.
My shoes will only be ready on Friday.
Only then did she realise what she had agreed to.

For inverted word order after *only*, as in the last example above, see 302.

399 open

1 *open* and *opened*

We normally use *open*, not *opened*, as an adjective.

I can read you like an open book. (NOT ... ~~an opened book.~~)
Are the banks open this afternoon? (NOT ~~Are the banks opened~~ ...?)

Opened is used as the past tense and past participle of the verb *open*, to talk about the action of opening.

She opened her eyes and sat up. *The safe was opened with dynamite.*

2 when *open* is not used

Note that *open* is not the normal word to refer to the fastenings of clothes, or to switches or taps.

I can't untie/undo this shoelace. (NOT ~~I can't open this shoelace.~~)
How do you unfasten this belt?
Could you turn/switch the radio on? (NOT ... ~~open the radio?~~)
Who left the taps turned on? (NOT ~~Who left the taps open?~~)

For *closed* and *shut*, see 132.

400 opportunity and possibility

We often say that somebody *has the opportunity to do / of doing* something.

*I **have the opportunity to go** to Denmark next year.* (= I **can** go . . .)

Possibility is not often used in this structure. It is more normal to say that *there is a possibility of something happening.*

*There's **a possibility** of my going to Denmark next year.* (= I **may** go . . .)

(NOT ~~*I have the possibility to go to Denmark*~~. . .)

401 opposite (adjective): position

We put the adjective *opposite* before a noun when we are talking about one of a pair of things that naturally face or contrast with each other.

*I think the picture would look better on the **opposite wall**.*

*She went off in the **opposite direction**.*

*I've got exactly the **opposite opinion** to yours.*

*His brother was fighting on the **opposite side**.*

We put *opposite* after the noun when it means 'facing the speaker or listener' or 'facing a person or place that has already been mentioned'.

*I noticed that the **man opposite** was staring at me* (NOT . . .~~*the opposite man was staring at me.*~~)

*You can see the cinema programmes on the **notice opposite**.*

*The man she was looking for was in the **shop directly opposite**.*

For *opposite* and *in front of*, see 402.
For *opposite* and *contrary*, see 144.

402 opposite, facing and in front of

1 'across a road/room etc from': *opposite/facing*

We do not use *in front of* to mean 'across a road/river/room etc from'. This idea is usually expressed with *opposite* or *facing*. (AmE also *across from*.)

*There's a garage **opposite** my house.* (NOT . . .~~*in front of my house.*~~)

*She stood at the other side of the table **facing** me.* (NOT . . .~~*in front of me.*~~)

*The man sitting **across from** me was smoking a pipe.* (AmE)

2 *in front of* and *opposite*

Compare:

*There's a bus stop **in front of** the school.*

(The bus stop is on the same side of the road as the school.)

*There's a bus stop **opposite** the school.*

(The bus stop is on the other side of the road from the school.)

In front of is often the opposite of *behind*.

*The woman **in front of** me in the post-office queue had a complicated problem. I always find myself **behind** people like that.*

3 *in front of* and *in the front of*

If you are **in front of** a place, vehicle etc you are outside it; if you are **in the front of** it you are inside. Compare:

*We stood **in front of** her car so that she couldn't drive off.*
*Her husband was sitting **in the front of** the car. He looked frightened.*

For the difference between *before* and *in front of*, see 98.

403 ought

1 forms

Ought is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). The third person singular has no *-s*.

*She **ought** to understand.* (NOT ~~*She oughts*~~...)

Questions and negatives are made without *do*.

Ought we to go now? (NOT ~~*Do we ought*~~...?)
*It **oughtn't** to rain today.*

After *ought*, we use the infinitive with *to* before other verbs. (This makes *ought* different from other modal auxiliary verbs.)

*You ought **to** see a dentist.*

To is not used in question tags.

*We ought to wake Helen, **oughtn't we**?* (NOT ...~~*oughtn't we to?*~~)

In American English, interrogative and contracted negative forms of *ought to* are rare; *should* is generally used instead.

*He ought to be here soon, **shouldn't he**?*

In some English dialects, questions and negatives are made with *did* (e.g. *She didn't ought to do that*), but this structure is not used in standard English.

2 obligation: *I ought to phone Mother*

We can use *ought* to advise people (including ourselves) to do things; to tell people that they have a duty to do things; to ask about our duty. The meaning is very similar to that of *should*; it is not so strong as *must* (see 520). *Ought* is less frequent than *should*.

*What time **ought** I to arrive?*
*I really **ought** to phone Mother.*
*People **ought** not to drive like that.*
*He **ought** to get a medal for living with her.*
*There **ought** to be traffic lights at this crossroads.*

3 deduction: *He ought to be here soon*

We can also use *ought* (like *should*) to say that we guess or conclude that something is probable (because it is logical or normal).

*Henry **ought** to be here soon – he left home at six.*
*We're spending the winter in Miami. ~ That **ought** to be nice.*
*The weather **ought** to improve after the weekend.* ▸

4 questions

The normal question forms of *ought* are rather formal. In an informal style they are often avoided, for example by using a structure with *think . . . ought* or by using *should.*

Do you think we ought to go now? (Less formal than *Ought we to . . .?*)
Should we go now?

5 *ought to have . . .*

Ought has no past form, but we can use ***ought to have*** + **past participle** to talk about things which were supposed to happen but did not.

*I **ought to have phoned** Ed this morning, but I forgot.* (NOT ~~*I ought to phone Ed this morning, but I forgot.*~~)

The structure can also be used to make guesses or draw conclusions about things which are not certain to have happened.

*Bill **ought to have got** back home yesterday. Has anybody seen him?*

It is also possible to talk about things that ought to have happened by now, or by a future time.

*Ten o'clock. She **ought to have arrived** at her office by now.*
*We **ought to have finished** painting the house by the end of next week.*

6 word order

Mid-position adverbs like *always, never, really* (see 24) can go before or after *ought* in a verb phrase. The position before *ought* is less formal.

*You **always ought** to carry some spare money.* (less formal)
*You **ought always** to carry some spare money.* (more formal)

In negative clauses, *not* comes before *to.*

*You ought **not** to go. / You oughtn't to go.* (NOT ~~*You ought to not go.*~~)

404 out of

1 movement

The opposite of the preposition *into* is *out of.*

*She ran **out of** the room.* (NOT ~~*She ran out the room.*~~ OR ~~*She ran out from the room.*~~)
*I took Harry's letter **out of** my pocket.*

Out of is also used to mean 'through', when we mention the opening through which somebody/something goes out.

*I walked **out of the front door** without looking back.*
*Why did you throw the paper **out of the window**?*

In American English, *out* is normally used without *of* in this case.

*She turned and went **out the back door**.* (AmE)

2 position

Out of can also be used to talk about position – the opposite of *in.*

*I'm afraid Mr Pallery is **out of** the office at the moment.*

For *into* and *in*, see 269.

405 own

1 after possessives

We only use *own* after a possessive word. It cannot directly follow an article.

It's nice if a child can have his or her own room. (NOT ... ~~*an own room.*~~)
Car hire is expensive. It's cheaper to take one's own car. (NOT ... ~~*the own car.*~~)
I'm my own boss.

2 *a/some ... of one's own*

This structure makes it possible to include *a/an, some* or another determiner in the phrase.

I'd like to have a car of my own.
It's time you found some friends of your own.
He's got no ideas of his own.

3 *own* with no following noun

We cannot use *mine, yours* etc with *own*, but we can drop a noun after *my own, your own* etc if the meaning is clear.

Would you like to use my pen? ~No, thanks. I can only write with my own. (NOT ... ~~*mine own.*~~)

4 *own* and *-self*

The emphatic and reflexive pronouns *myself yourself* etc (see 493) do not have possessive forms. *My own* etc is used instead.

I'll do it myself, and I'll do it in my own way. (NOT ... ~~*in myself's way.*~~)
She can wash herself and brush her own hair now. (NOT ... ~~*brush herself's hair.*~~)

5 *on one's own*

Note the two meanings of *on one's own.*

My mother lives on her own. (without company)
Don't help him. Let him do it on his own. (without help)

For *by oneself* used in similar ways, see 493.6.

406 paragraphs

Written English text is usually divided into blocks called 'paragraphs', to make it easier to read. Paragraphs can vary in length, from several hundred words (for example in literary or academic writing), to a few sentences (for example in journalism or letters). A paragraph division is usually shown by starting the text on a new line and 'indenting' (leaving a space at the beginning of the line). The paragraph divisions break the material up into easily 'digestible' sections, providing places where the reader can pause and think for a moment if necessary. And good writers can show the structure of their texts by making paragraph divisions in suitable places, for example when they move to a new stage in a story, a new point in a discussion or a new part of a description.

Bill decided that it was too late to start slimming, and put some more sugar in his coffee. The way things were, he needed all the help he could get. Everything was going wrong at work, everything had already gone wrong at home, and the weather in Edinburgh in November was lousy. The only remaining question was: should he commit suicide now or wait till after payday and get drunk first?

a new stage in the story

Three months ago everything had seemed so perfect. His boss had told him that he had an excellent future with the firm.

There are a lot of advantages to working at home. You don't have to travel to your job, you can choose your own working hours, you can take a day off if you want to, you don't waste time in endless unnecessary meetings, and – perhaps most important of all – you don't have a boss constantly checking up on you.

a new point in the discussion

On the other hand, it can be lonely working by yourself Without colleagues around you . . .

Another practice, common in typed letters and documents, is to leave a blank line without indenting.

Dear Sirs
Three months ago I sent you an order for a set of glasses, together with a cheque in full payment. You wrote acknowledging my order, and said that the glasses would be dispatched within 15 days.

I have still not received the glasses, and repeated telephone calls to your office have had no result . . .

407 part

A is usually dropped before *part of* if there is no adjective.

Part of the roof was missing. (BUT *A large part of the roof was missing.*)
Part of the trouble is that I can't see very well. (More natural than *A part of the trouble . . .*)
Jan was in Australia part of last year.

408 participles (-ing and -ed forms) (1): introduction

1 names

When *-ing* forms are used in certain ways, for example as parts of verb forms, or like adjectives (see below) they are called 'present participles'. Forms like *broken, gone, opened, started* are called 'past participles'. These are not very suitable names: both forms can be used to talk about the past, present or future.

*She was **crying** when I saw her.*
*Who's the man **talking** to Elizabeth?*
*This time tomorrow I'll be **lying** on the beach.*
*It was **broken** in the storm.* *The kids are **excited**.*
*The new school is going to be **opened** next week.*

For the spelling of participles, see 560–562.
For *-ing* forms used like nouns ('gerunds'), in sentences like *Smoking is bad for you*, see 293–299.

2 use

a verb forms

Participles are used with the auxiliary verbs *be* and *have* to make progressive, perfect and passive verb forms.

*It **was raining** when I got home.*
*I've **forgotten** your name.* *You'll **be told** as soon as possible.*

Present and past participles can be put together to make progressive and perfect forms (e.g. *being employed, having arrived, having been invited*).

b adjectives

Participles can be used like adjectives.

*I love the noise of **falling** rain.* *John has become very **boring**.*
*She says she's got a **broken** heart.* *The house looked **abandoned**.*

c adverbs

Sometimes participles are used like adverbs.

*She ran **screaming** out of the room.*

d clauses

Participles can combine with other words into clause-like structures.

*Who's the fat man **sitting in the corner**?*
Having lost all my money, I went home.
*Most of the people **invited to the party** didn't turn up.*
Rejected by all his friends, he decided to become a monk.

For details of these uses, see the following sections.

409 participles (2): active and passive

1 active present participles, passive past participles

When *-ing* forms are used like adjectives or adverbs, they have similar meanings to active verbs.

falling leaves (= leaves that fall)
a meat-eating animal (= an animal that eats meat)
She walked out smiling. (= She was smiling.)

Most past participles have passive meanings when they are used like adjectives or adverbs.

a broken heart (= a heart that has been broken)
He lived alone, forgotten by everybody. (= He had been forgotten by everybody.)

2 *interested* and *interesting* etc

Interested, bored, excited etc say how people feel.
Interesting, boring etc describe the people or things that cause the feelings.
Compare:

– *I was very **interested** in the lesson.* (NOT ~~*I was very interesting in the lesson.*~~)
*The lesson was really **interesting**.* ▸

– *I didn't enjoy the party because I was **bored**.* (NOT ...~~*because I was boring*~~.)
*It was a terribly **boring** party.*
– *The children always get **excited** when Granny comes.* (NOT ~~*The children always get exciting*~~...)
*Granny takes the children to **exciting** places.*
– *His explanations make me very **confused**.* (NOT ...~~*make me very confusing*~~.)
*He's a very **confusing** writer.*

3 exceptions: *a fallen leaf, an escaped prisoner* etc

A few past participles can be used as adjectives with active meanings, especially before nouns. Examples:

*a **fallen** leaf* (= a leaf that has fallen)
*a **advanced** students* (= students who have advanced to a high level, NOT students who have been advanced...)

developed countries	*a grown-up daughter*
increased activity	*an escaped prisoner*
vanished civilisations	*faded colours*
a retired general	*swollen ankles*

Rescuers are still working in the ruins of the collapsed hotel.

4 active past participles: advanced points

Some more past participles can be used with active meanings, but only with adverbs. Examples:

a well-read person (BUT NOT ~~*a read person*~~)
a much-travelled man *recently-arrived immigrants*
The train just arrived at platform six is the delayed 13.15 from Hereford.

Some active past participles can be used after *be*. Examples:

She is retired now. *Those curtains are badly faded.*
My family are all grown up now *This class is the most advanced.*

Recovered, camped, stopped, finished (see 205) and *gone* (see 229) are used in this way after *be*, but not usually before nouns.

Why are all those cars stopped at the crossroads? (BUT NOT... ~~*a stopped car*~~)
I hope you're fully recovered from your operation.
We're camped in the field across the stream.
I'll be finished in a few minutes. *Those days are gone now.*

410 participles (3): details

1 used as adjectives: *an interesting book*

Participles can often be used as adjectives before nouns, or after *be* and other link verbs.

an interesting book	*a lost dog*
a falling leaf	*The upstairs toilet window is broken.*
screaming children	*His idea seems exciting.*

Participles used as adjectives can have objects. Note the word order.

English-speaking Canadians. (NOT ~~*speaking-English Canadians.*~~)

a fox-hunting man *Is that watch self-winding?*

Other compound structures with participles are also common before nouns.

quick-growing trees *government-inspired rumours*

home-made cake *the above-mentioned point*

a recently-built house

2 after nouns: *the people questioned*

We often use participles after nouns in order to define or identify the nouns, in the same way as we use identifying relative clauses (see 495).

We couldn't agree on any of the problems discussed.

(= ... the problems that were discussed.) (NOT ... ~~*the discussed problems.*~~)

The people questioned gave very different opinions.

(= The people who were questioned ...) (NOT ~~*The questioned people*~~ ...)

I watched the match because I knew some of the people playing. (NOT ... ~~*the playing people.*~~)

I got the only ticket left. (NOT ... ~~*the only left ticket.*~~)

Those is often used with a participle to mean 'the ones who are/were'.

Most of those questioned refused to answer.

Those selected will begin training on Monday.

3 differences of meaning

A few participles change their meaning according to their position. Compare:

- *a concerned expression* (= a worried expression)
  the people concerned (= the people who are/were affected)
- *an involved explanation* (= a complicated explanation)
  the people involved (= the same as *the people concerned*)
- *an adopted child* (= a child who is brought up by people who are not his/her biological parents)
  the solution adopted (= the solution that is/was chosen)

4 *much* or *very* with past participles

When a past participle is part of a passive verb, we can put *much* or *very much* before it, but not *very*.

He's (very) much admired by his students. (NOT ... ~~*very admired*~~ ...)

Britain's trade position has been (very) much weakened by inflation.

(NOT ... ~~*very weakened*~~ ...)

When a past participle is used as an adjective, we usually prefer *very*. This is common with words referring to mental states, feelings and reactions.

a very frightened animal (NOT ~~*a much frightened animal*~~)

a very shocked expression

The children were very bored.

She looked very surprised.

Common exceptions:

That's Alice, unless I'm (very) much mistaken. (NOT ... ~~*unless I'm very mistaken.*~~)

He's well known in the art world. (NOT ... ~~*very known*~~ ...) ▸

With *amused, very* and *(very) much* are both possible.

*I was very **amused** / **much amused** / **very much amused** by Miranda's performance.*

5 *frightened by / frightened of*

By is used after passive verbs to introduce the agent (the person or thing that does the action – see 413).

*Most of the damage was caused **by your sister**.*

After past participles that are used like adjectives, we prefer other prepositions. Compare:

- *She was **frightened by** a mouse that ran into the room.*
  (*Frightened* is part of a passive verb referring to an action.)
  *She's always been terribly **frightened of** dying.*
  (*Frightened* is an adjective referring to a state of mind.)
- *The kids were so **excited by** the music that they kept screaming.*
  *Joe's **excited about** the possibility of going to the States.*
- *I was **annoyed by** the way she spoke to me.*
  *I'm **annoyed with** you.*
- *The burglar was **surprised by** the family coming home unexpectedly.*
  *I'm **surprised at/by** your attitude.*
- *He was badly **shocked by** his fall.*
  *We were **shocked at/by** the prices in London.*

Other examples:

*His whereabouts are **known to** the police.*
*The hills are **covered in** snow.*
*The room was **filled with** thick smoke.*

6 special past participle forms

A few older forms of past participles are still used as adjectives before nouns in certain expressions.

***drunken** laughter/singing* etc	***a sunken** wreck/ship* etc
***a shrunken** head*	***rotten** fruit/vegetables* etc

411 participles (4): clauses

1 structures

Participles can combine with other words into participle clauses.

*There's a woman **crying her eyes out over there**.*
*Most of the people **invited to the reception** were old friends.*
*Not **knowing what to do**, I telephoned the police.*
*Served **with milk and sugar**, it makes a delicious breakfast.*

2 after nouns: *the people invited to the party*

Participle clauses can be used after nouns and pronouns.

*We can offer you a job **cleaning cars**.*
*There's Neville, **eating as usual**.*
*In came the first runner, **closely followed by the second**.*
*I found him **sitting at a table covered with papers**.*

Participle clauses are often very like relative clauses (see 494.5), except that they have participles instead of complete verbs.

Who's the girl dancing with your brother? (= ... the girl who is dancing ...)
Anyone touching that wire will get a shock. (= Anyone who touches ...)
Half of the people invited to the party didn't turn up. (= ... who were invited ...)

Perfect participles are not often used in this way.

Do you know anybody who's lost a cat? (NOT ~~*Do you know anybody having lost a cat?*~~)

3 adverbial clauses: *Putting down my paper, I ...*

Participle clauses can also be used in similar ways to full adverbial clauses, expressing condition, reason, time relations, result etc. (This can only happen, of course, when the idea of condition, reason etc is so clear that no conjunction is needed to signal it.) Adverbial participle clauses are usually rather formal.

Used economically, one tin will last for six weeks. (= If it is used ...)
Having failed my medical exams, I took up teaching. (= As I had failed ...)
Putting down my newspaper, I walked over to the window.
(= After I had put down my newspaper, ...)
It rained for two weeks on end, completely ruining our holiday.
(= ... so that it completely ruined our holiday.)

Note that *-ing* clauses can be made with verbs like *be, have, wish* and *know*, which are not normally used in progressive tenses (see 471). In these cases, the participle clause usually expresses reason or cause.

Being unable to help in any other way, I gave her some money.
Not wishing to continue my studies, I decided to become a dress designer.
Knowing her pretty well, I realised something was wrong.

4 subjects; misrelated participles

Normally the subject of an adverbial participle clause is the same as the subject of the main clause in a sentence.

My wife had a talk with Sally, explaining the problem. (*My wife* is the subject of *explaining*.)

It is often considered incorrect to make sentences with 'misrelated participles', where an adverb clause has a different subject from the main clause.

Looking out of the window of our hotel room, there was a wonderful range of mountains. (This could sound as if the mountains were looking out of the window.)

However, sentences like these are common and often seem quite natural, particularly when the main clause has preparatory *it* or *there* as a subject.

Being French, it's surprising that she's such a terrible cook.
Having so little time, there was not much that I could do.

'Misrelated participles' are normal in some fixed expressions referring to the speaker's attitude. Examples:

Generally speaking, men can run faster than women.
Broadly speaking, dogs are more faithful than cats.
Judging from his expression, he's in a bad mood.
Considering everything, it wasn't a bad holiday.
Supposing there was a war, what would you do?
Taking everything into consideration, they ought to get another chance. ▸

5 participle clauses with their own subjects

A participle clause can have its own subject. This happens most often in a rather formal style.

Nobody having any more to say, the meeting was closed.
All the money having been spent, we started looking for work.
A little girl walked past, her doll dragging behind her on the pavement.
Hands held high, the dancers circle to the right.

The subject is often introduced by *with* when the clause expresses accompanying circumstances.

A car roared past with smoke pouring from the exhaust.
With Peter working in Birmingham, and Lucy travelling most of the week, the house seems pretty empty.

6 participle clauses after conjunctions and prepositions

-ing clauses can be used after many conjunctions and prepositions. They are common with *after, before, since, when, while, on, without, instead of, in spite of* and *as*. Note that *-ing* forms after prepositions can often be considered as either participles or gerunds – the dividing line is not clear (see 293).

After talking to you I always feel better.
After having annoyed everybody he went home.
Depress clutch before changing gear.
She's been quite different since coming back from America.
When telephoning from abroad, dial 1865, not 01865.
On being introduced, British people often shake hands.
They left without saying goodbye.
She struck me as being a very nervy kind of person.

Clauses with past participles are possible (mostly in a formal style) after *if, when, while, once* and *until*.

If asked to look after luggage for someone else, inform police at once.
When opened, keep in refrigerator.
Once deprived of oxygen, the brain dies.
Leave in oven until cooked to a light brown colour.

For clauses like *when ready*, see 73.4.

7 object complements

The structure **object + participle (clause)** is used after verbs of sensation (e.g. *see, hear, feel, watch, notice, smell*) and some other verbs (e.g. *find, get, have, make*).

I saw a small girl standing in the goldfish pond.
Have you ever heard a nightingale singing?
I found her drinking my whisky.
We'll have to get the car repaired before Tuesday.
Do you think you can get the radio working?
We'll soon have you walking again.
I can make myself understood pretty well in English.

For more about structures with *see* and *hear*, see 242. For *get*, see 224. For *have*, see 238. For *make*, see 335.

412 passives (1): passive structures and verb forms

1 active and passive structures

Compare:
- *They built this house in 1486.* (active)
  This house was built in 1486. (passive)
- *Austrians speak German.* (active)
  German is spoken in Austria. (passive)
- *A friend of ours is repairing the roof.* (active)
  The roof is being repaired by a friend of ours. (passive)
- *This book will change your life.* (active)
  Your life will be changed by this book. (passive)

When A does something to B, there are often two ways to talk about it. If we want A (the doer) to be the subject, we use an active verb: *built, speak, is repairing.* If we want B (the 'receiver' of the action) to be the subject, we use: *was built, is spoken, is being repaired, will be changed.*

The object of an active verb corresponds to the subject of a passive verb.

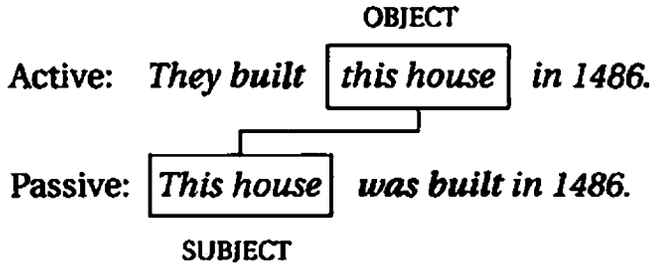

In most cases, the subject of an active verb is not expressed in the corresponding passive sentence. If it does have to be expressed, this usually happens in an expression with *by*; the noun is called the 'agent' (see 413).
This house was built in 1486 by Sir John Latton.

2 passive verb forms

We normally make passive forms of a verb by using tenses of the auxiliary be followed by the past participle (= pp) of the verb. (For *get* as a passive auxiliary, see 223.5.) Here is a list of all the passive forms of an ordinary English verb.

Name	Construction	Example
(simple) future	*will be* +pp	*You'll be told soon enough.*
future perfect	*will have been* +pp	*Everything will have been done by Tuesday*
simple present	*am/are/is* + pp	*English is spoken here.*
present progressive	*am/are/is being* + pp	*Excuse the mess; the house is being painted.*
present perfect	*have/has been* +pp	*Has Mary been told?*
simple past	*was/were* + pp	*I wasn't invited, but I went.*
past progressive	*was/were being* + pp	*I felt as if I was being watched.*
past perfect	*had been* + pp	*I knew why I had been chosen.*

▶

Future progressive passives (***will be being*** + **pp**) and perfect progressive passives (***has been being*** + **pp**) are unusual.
Examples of passive infinitives: *(to) be taken*; *(to) have been invited.*
Examples of passive *-ing* forms: *being watched*; *having been invited.*
Note that verbs made up of more than one word (see 599–600) can have passive forms if they are transitive.

*The furniture **was broken up** for firewood.*
*She likes **being looked at.*** *I need **to be taken care of.***
*He hates **being made a fool of.***

For more about structures with prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

3 use of tenses

Passive tenses are normally used in the same way as active tenses. So for example the present progressive passive is used, like the present progressive active, to talk about things that are going on at the time of speaking (see 464).

*The papers **are being prepared** now.*
*The secretary **is preparing** the papers now.*

And the present perfect passive can be used, like the present perfect active, to talk about finished actions with present consequences (see 455).

*Alex **has been arrested!*** *The police **have arrested** Alex!*

4 verbs not used in the passive

Not all verbs can have passive forms. Passive structures are impossible with intransitive verbs (see 606.2) like *die* or *arrive*, which cannot have objects, because there is nothing to become the subject of a passive sentence. Some transitive verbs, too, are seldom used in the passive. Most of these are 'stative verbs' (verbs which refer to states, not actions). Examples are *fit, have, lack, resemble, suit.*

*They **have** a nice house.* (BUT NOT ~~*A nice house is had by them.*~~)
*My shoes **don't fit** me.* (BUT NOT ~~*I'm not fitted by my shoes.*~~)
*Sylvia **resembles** a Greek goddess.* (BUT NOT ~~*A Greek goddess is resembled by Sylvia.*~~)
*Your mother **lacks** tact.* (BUT NOT ~~*Tact is lacked*~~. . .)
*She **was having** a bath.* (BUT NOT ~~*A bath was being had by her.*~~)

5 confusing forms

Students often confuse active and passive verb forms in English. Typical mistakes:

~~*I was very interesting in the lesson.*~~
~~*We were questioning by the immigration officer.*~~
~~*She has put in prison for life.*~~

Mistakes like these are not surprising, because:
1. *Be* is used to make both passive verb forms and active progressive tenses.
2. Past participles are used to make both passive verb forms and active perfect tenses. Compare:
   He was calling. (active – past progressive)
   He was called. (passive – simple past)
   He has called. (active – present perfect)

For active verb forms, see 10.

413 passives (2): agent

In a passive clause, we usually use *by* to introduce the agent – the person or thing that does the action, or that causes what happens. (Note, however, that agents are mentioned in only about 20 per cent of passive clauses.)

*All the trouble was caused **by your mother**.*
*These carpets are made **by children** who work twelve hours a day.*

Some past participles can be more like adjectives than verbs (see 410): for example *shocked, worried, frightened.* After these, we often use other prepositions instead of *by*.

*I was **shocked at/by** your attitude.*
*We were **worried about/by** her silence.*
*Are you **frightened of** spiders?*

With is used when we talk about an instrument which is used by an agent to do an action (see 119).

*He was shot (by the policeman) **with a rifle**.*

414 passives (3): When do we use passive structures?

1 interest in the action

We often choose passive structures when we want to talk about an action, but are not so interested in saying who or what does/did it. Passives without 'agents' (see 413) are common in academic and scientific writing for this reason.

*Those pyramids were **built** around 400 AD.*
*Too many books **have been written** about the Second World War.*
*The results **have not yet been analysed**.* ▸

2 putting the news at the end

We often prefer to begin a sentence with something that is already known, or that we are already talking about, and to put the 'news' at the end. This is another common reason for choosing passive structures. Compare:

*John's **painting** my portrait.* (active verb so that the 'news' – the portrait – can go at the end)

*Nice picture. ~ Yes, it **was painted** by my grandmother.* (passive verb so that the 'news' – the painter – can go at the end)

3 keeping the same subject

In order to keep talking about the same person or thing, it may be necessary to switch from active to passive and back.

*He **waited** for two hours; then he **was seen** by a doctor; then he **was sent** back to the waiting room. He **sat** there for another two hours – by this time he **was getting angry**. Then he **was taken** upstairs and examined by a specialist, after which he **had to wait** for another hour before he **was allowed** to go home.* (More natural than *He waited for two hours; then a doctor saw him . . .*)

4 putting heavier expressions at the end

Longer and heavier expressions often go at the end of a clause, and this can also be a reason for choosing a passive structure.

*I was annoyed by **Mary wanting to tell everybody what to do.***
(More natural than ***Mary wanting to tell everybody what to do annoyed me*** – the phrase *Mary . . . do* would make a very long subject.)

5 meaning and grammar

Meaning and grammar do not always go together. Not all active verbs have 'active' meanings; for instance, if you say that somebody *receives* something or *suffers*, you are really saying that something is done to him/her. Some English active verbs might be translated by passive or reflexive verbs in certain other languages: e.g. *My shoes **are wearing out**; She **is sitting**; Suddenly the door **opened**.* And some English passives might be translated by active or reflexive verbs: e.g. *I **was born** in 1956; English **is spoken** here.*

Some verbs can be used in both active and passive forms with similar meanings: for example *to worry / to be worried; to drown / to be drowned* (see 165). Sometimes active and passive infinitives can be used with very similar meanings: for example *There's a lot of work to do / to be done* (for details, see 287).

For more about verbs like *open*, see 609.
For more about reflexive verbs, see 493.
For active and passive past participles, see 409.
For *-ing* forms with passive meanings after *need* and *want* (e.g. *My watch needs cleaning*), see 296.3.
For more about the way information is organised in sentences, see 512.

415 passives (4): verbs with two objects

Many verbs, such as *give, send, show, lend, pay, promise, refuse, tell, offer,* can be followed by two objects, an 'indirect object' and a 'direct object'. These usually refer to a person (indirect object) and a thing (direct object). Two structures are possible.

A. verb + indirect object + direct object

She gave her sister the car.
I had already shown the policewoman Sam's photo.

B. verb + direct object + preposition + indirect object

She gave the car to her sister.
I had already shown Sam's photo to the policewoman.

Both of these structures can be made passive.

A. indirect object becomes subject of passive verb

Her sister was given the car.
The policewoman had already been shown Sam's photo.

B. direct object becomes subject of passive verb

The car was given to her sister.
Sam's photo had already been shown to the policewoman.

The choice between the two passive structures may depend on what has been said before, or on what needs to be put last in the sentence (see 414.2,4). Structure A (e.g. *Her sister was given the car.*) is the more common of the two. More examples:

*I've just **been sent** a whole lot of information.*
*You **were lent** ten thousand pounds last year.*
*The visitors **were shown** a collection of old manuscripts.*
*They **are being paid** a lot of money for doing very little.*
*He **was refused** a visa because he had been in prison.*
*We **will** never **be told** the real truth.*
*How much **have you been offered**?*

In structure B (e.g. *The car was given to her sister*), prepositions are sometimes dropped before indirect object pronouns.

This watch was given (to) me by my father.

Explain (see 198) and *suggest* (see 570) cannot be used in structure A.

The problem was explained to the children. (BUT NOT ~~*The children were explained the problem.*~~)
A meeting place was suggested to us. (BUT NOT ~~*We were suggested a meeting place.*~~)

For more details of verbs with two objects, see 610.
For more about prepositional verbs in the passive, see 416.

416 passives (5): verbs with prepositions

1 *look at, listen to, pay for* etc

The objects of prepositional verbs can become subjects in passive structures.

*We have looked **at the plan** carefully.* → ***The plan** has been carefully looked at.*

*Nobody listens **to her**.* → ***She** is never listened to.*

*Somebody has paid **for your meal**.* → ***Your meal** has been paid for.*

Note the word order. The preposition cannot be dropped.

I don't like to be shouted at. (NOT ~~*I don't like to be shouted.*~~)

For more about prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

2 *throw stones at, steal a bicycle from, give flowers to* etc

If there is already a direct object, the second object (after the preposition) cannot become a passive subject.

*They threw **stones at him**.* → ***Stones** were thrown at him.* (BUT NOT ~~*He was thrown stones at.*~~)

*They stole **a bicycle from him**.* → ***A bicycle** was stolen from him.* (BUT NOT ~~*He was stolen a bicycle from.*~~)

*They poured **water on us**.* → ***Water** was poured on us.* (BUT NOT ~~*We were poured water on.*~~)

Note that possessive nouns or pronouns cannot become passive subjects, either.

*They called **Mr Archer's name**.* → ***Mr Archer's name** was called.* (BUT NOT ~~*Mr Archer was name called.*~~)

*I broke **her mirror**.* → ***Her mirror** was broken.* (BUT NOT ~~*She was mirror broken.*~~)

3 *give, send* etc

Verbs like *give, send, lend* can have two objects with no preposition (e.g. *They gave him a gold watch*). For the passive of this structure (e.g. *He was given a gold watch*), see 415.

For structures with *have* + object + past participle (e.g. *We had water poured on us*), see 238, 512.3.

417 passives (6): it was thought that ...

1 clause objects: *Nobody thought that she was a spy*

Some sentences have clauses as their objects. These cannot normally become the subjects of passive sentences.

*Nobody thought **that she was a spy**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That she was a spy was thought by nobody.*~~)

*We felt **that he was the right man for the job**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That he was . . . was felt.*~~)

*The newspapers say **that his company is in trouble**.* (BUT NOT ~~*That his company is in trouble is said . . .*~~)

However, passive structures are often possible with preparatory *it* (see 446).
It was thought that she was a spy.
It was felt that he was the right man for the job.
It is said that his company is in trouble.

2 infinitive objects: *They decided to ...*

A few verbs that are followed by infinitives (for example *decide, agree*) can also be used in passive structures beginning with *it*.
They decided to meet at twelve. → *It was decided to meet at twelve.*
We agreed to open a new branch. → *It was agreed to open a new branch.*
However, most verbs cannot be used in this way.
We hope to make a profit this year. (BUT NOT ~~*It is hoped to make*~~ ...)

418 passives (7): He is believed to be ...

1 object + infinitive: *He asked me to send ...*

Many verbs can be followed by **object + infinitive** (see 283).
He asked me to send a stamped addressed envelope.
We chose Felicity to be the Carnival Queen.
In most cases, these structures can be made passive.
I was asked to send a stamped addressed envelope.
Felicity was chosen to be the Carnival Queen.
We were told not to come back.
They are allowed to visit Harry once a week.

2 verbs of thinking, feeling and saying

With verbs like *think, feel, believe, know* etc, the **object + infinitive** structure is rather formal and often unusual.
They believe him to be dangerous. (more normal: *They believe that ...*)
However, the passive structure (e.g. *He is believed to be ...*) is common, and often occurs in news reports.
He is believed to be dangerous.
Moriarty is thought to be in Switzerland.
She is known to have been married before.
It is considered to be the finest cathedral in Scotland.
Note that with *say*, the infinitive structure is only possible in the passive.
His company is said to be in trouble.
(BUT NOT ~~*They say his company to be in trouble.*~~)

3 *hear, see, make* and *help*

These verbs can be followed, in active structures, by **object + infinitive** without *to* (see 281). In passive structures *to*-infinitives are used. Compare:
- *I saw him come out of the house.*
  He was seen to come out of the house.
- *They made him tell them everything.*
  He was made to tell them everything.
- *They helped him (to) get out of the country.*
  He was helped to get out of the country. ▸

4 preparatory *there*

With some verbs (e.g. *say, think, feel, report, presume, understand*), the passive structure is possible with *there* as a 'preparatory subject'.

There are thought to be more than 3,000 different languages in the world.
(= It is thought that there are . . .)
There was said to be disagreement between Ministers.

5 perfect, progressive and passive infinitives

A passive verb can be followed by a perfect, progressive or passive infinitive.

He is believed to have crossed the frontier last night.
I was told to be waiting outside the station at 6 o'clock.
The hostages are expected to be released today.

6 exceptions: *wanting* and *liking*

Verbs that refer to wanting, liking and similar ideas cannot usually be used in passive structures with following infinitives.

Everybody wanted Doris to be the manager. (BUT NOT ~~*Doris was wanted to be the manager.*~~)
We like our staff to say what they think. (BUT NOT ~~*Our staff are liked to say what they think.*~~)

419 passives (8): he was considered a genius

After some verbs the direct object can be followed by an 'object complement' – a noun or adjective which describes or classifies the object.

Queen Victoria considered him a genius.
They elected Mrs Sanderson President.
We all regarded Kathy as an expert.
Most people saw him as a sort of clown.
The other children called her stupid.
You've made the house beautiful.

In passive clauses these are subject complements; they come after the verb.

He was considered a genius by Queen Victoria.
Mrs Sanderson was elected President.
Kathy was regarded as an expert.
He was seen as a sort of clown.
She was called stupid by the other children.
The house has been made beautiful.

For more about object complements, see 607.

420 passives (9): My suitcase is packed

Some verbs refer to actions that produce a finished result. Examples are *cut, build, pack, close.* Other verbs do not: for example *push, live, speak, hit, carry.* The past participles of finished-result verbs, and some of their passive tenses, can have two meanings. They can refer to the action, or they can describe the result (rather like adjectives). Compare:

*The theatre **was closed** by the police on the orders of the mayor.*
(refers to the action of closing)

*When I got there I found that the theatre **was closed**.*
(refers to the state of being shut – the result of the action)

Because of this, for example, present passive forms can have similar meanings to present perfect passives.

*The vegetables **are all cut up** – what shall I do now?* (= The vegetables have all been cut up . . .)

*I got caught in the rain and my **suit's ruined**.* (= . . . has been ruined.)

*I think your **ankle is broken**.* (= . . . has been broken.)

*My **suitcase is packed**.* (= . . . has been packed.)

421 past (1): simple past (I worked etc)

This form is also called 'past simple'.

1 forms (regular verbs)

Affirmative	Question	Negative
I worked	did I work?	I did not work
you worked	did you work?	you did not work
he/she/it worked	did he/she/it work?	he/she/it did not work
etc	etc	etc

- Contracted negatives (see 143): *I didn't work, you didn't work* etc.
- Negative questions (see 368): *did I not work?* or *didn't I work?* etc.
- For the affirmative past forms of common irregular verbs, see 304.
- Questions and negatives of irregular verbs are made in the same way as those of regular verbs (with ***did*** + **infinitive**).

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *Work was done*), see 412.

2 pronunciation of *-ed*

The regular past ending *-ed* is pronounced as follows:

- /d/ after vowels and voiced consonants (except /d/):
  /ð/, /b/, /v/, /z/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /g/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/
  tried /traɪd/ *lived* /lɪvd/ *used* /juːzd/ *failed* /feɪld/
- /t/ after unvoiced consonants (except /t/):
  /θ/, /p/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /k/
  stopped /stɒpt/ *passed* /pɑːst/ *laughed* /lɑːft/ *watched* /wɒtʃt/
  worked /wɜːkt/ ▶

- /ɪd/ after /d/ and /t/
  ended /'endɪd/ *started* /'stɑ:tɪd/

For adjectives like *aged, naked*, see 18.

3 spelling of regular affirmative past tense forms

Most regular verbs: add *-ed*	*work → worked* *stay → stayed* *show → showed* *wonder → wondered* *visit → visited* *gallop → galloped*
Verbs ending in *-e*: add *-d*	*hope → hoped* *decide → decided*
Verbs ending in one stressed vowel + one consonant (except *w* or *y*): double the consonant and add *-ed*	*shop → shopped* *plan → planned* *re'fer → referred* *re'gret → regretted*
But (last syllable not stressed):	*'offer → offered* *'visit → visited*
Verbs ending in consonant + *-y*: change *y* to *i* and add *-ed*	*hurry → hurried* *cry → cried* *study → studied*
But (vowel + *-y*):	*play → played*

Verbs ending in *-c* have *ck* in the past (e.g. *picnic → picnicked*).
In British English, *-l* is doubled in the past after one short vowel even if the vowel is not stressed: *'travel → travelled.*

4 use

We use the simple past for many kinds of past events: short, quickly finished actions and happenings, longer situations, and repeated events.

*Peter **broke** a window last night.*
*I **spent** all my childhood in Scotland.*
*Regularly every summer, Janet **fell** in love.*

The simple past is common in stories and descriptions of past events.

*One day the Princess **decided** that she **didn't** like staying at home all day, so she **told** her father that she **wanted** to get a job . . .*

The simple past is often used with words referring to finished times.

*I **saw** John yesterday morning. He **told** me . . .*

In general, the simple past tense is the 'normal' one for talking about the past; we use it if we do not have a special reason for using one of the other tenses.

For the simple past with a present or future meaning (e.g. *It's time you went*), see 426.
For special uses in subordinate clauses, see 580.

simple past with finished time expressions

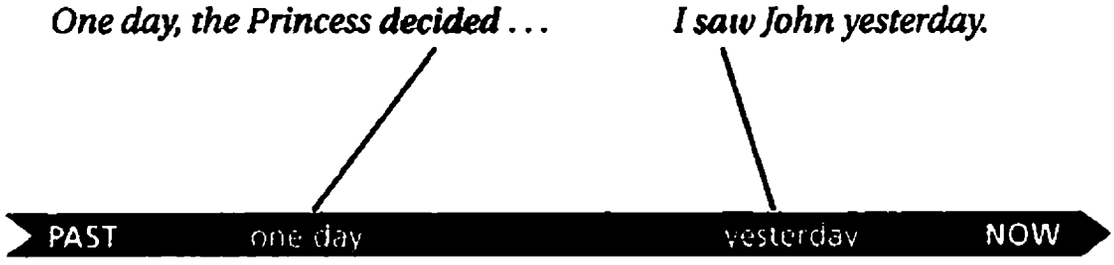

422 past (2): past progressive (I was working etc)

1 forms

was/were + -ing

I was working.
Were you listening to me? *She was not trying.*

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *Work was being done*), see 412.
For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.

2 use: *What were you doing at eight o'clock?*

We use the past progressive to say that something was in progress (going on) around a particular past time.

What were you doing at eight o'clock yesterday evening? ~ I was watching TV. (NOT ~~*What did you do* . . .? ~ *I watched TV.*~~)
When I got up this morning the sun was shining, the birds were singing, . . . (NOT . . . ~~*the sun shone, the birds sang*~~ . . .)

past progressive: things happening around a past time

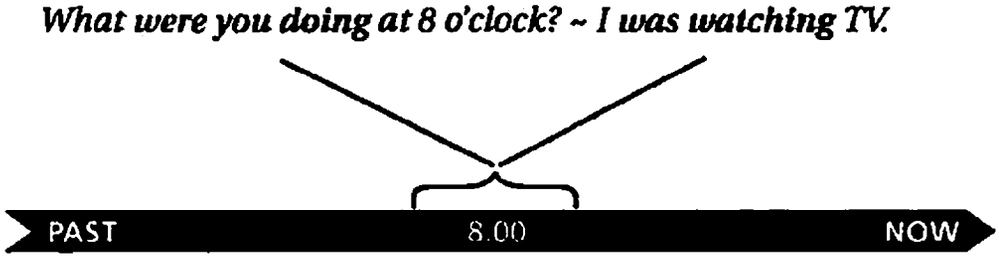

3 past progressive and simple past: 'background' events

We often use the past progressive together with a simple past tense. The past progressive refers to a longer 'background' action or situation; the simple past refers to a shorter action or event that happened in the middle of the longer action, or that interrupted it. ▸

*As I **was walking** down the road, I saw Bill.*
*The phone rang while I **was having** dinner.*
*Mozart **died** while he **was composing** the Requiem.*

past progressive for 'background' events

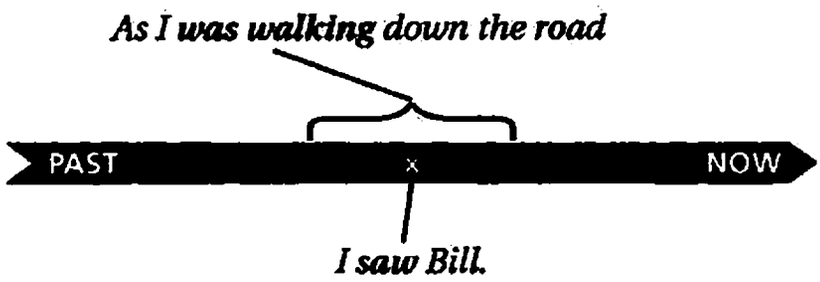

4 not used for repeated actions

The past progressive is not the normal tense for talking about repeated or habitual past actions. The simple past is usually used with this meaning.

*I **rang** the bell six times.* (NOT ~~*I was ringing the bell six times.*~~)
*When I **was** a child we **made** our own amusements.* (NOT ... ~~*we were making our own amusements.*~~)

However, the past progressive is possible if the repeated actions form a 'background' for the main action.

*At the time when it happened, I **was travelling** to New York a lot.*

5 non-progressive verbs: *She said she believed*

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471).

*She said she **believed** Joe was dying.* (NOT ~~*She said she was believing*~~ ...)

6 used for shorter, temporary actions and situations

The past progressive, like other progressive forms (see 470), is used for temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer, more permanent situations we use the simple past. Compare:

- *It happened while I **was living** in Eastbourne last year.*
  *I **lived** in London for ten years while I was a child.*
- *When I got home, water **was running** down the kitchen walls.*
  *When they first discovered the river, they thought it **ran** into the Atlantic.*

7 special uses

Because we often use the past progressive to talk about something that is a 'background', not the main 'news', we can make something seem less important by using this tense. Compare:

*I **had lunch** with the President yesterday.* (important piece of news)
*I **was having lunch** with the President yesterday, and she said ...* (as if there was nothing special for the speaker about lunching with the President)

The past progressive is quite often used with verbs of saying: this gives more relative importance to the following verb – to what is said.

*John **was saying** that he still can't find a job.*

With *always, continually* and similar words, the past progressive can be used for things that happened repeatedly and unexpectedly or in an unplanned way (see 472).

*Aunt Lucy **was always turning up** without warning and bringing us presents.*
*I didn't like him – he **was continually borrowing** money.*

For the 'distancing' use of past progressives (e.g. *I was wondering whether you'd like to come out with me this evening*), see 436.

423 past perfect (1): basic information

This entry deals with the simple past perfect. For the past perfect progressive, see 425.

1 forms

had + past participle

*I **had** forgotten.*
*Where **had** she been?* *It **hadn't** rained for weeks.*

For passives (e.g. *The work had been done*), see 412.

2 meaning and use: earlier past

The basic meaning of the past perfect is 'earlier past'. A common use is to 'go back' for a moment when we are already talking about the past, to make it clear that something had already happened at the time we are talking about.

*During our conversation, I realised that we **had met** before.* (NOT ~~*I realised that we met before*~~ OR ... ~~*have met before.*~~)
*When I arrived at the party, Lucy **had** already **gone** home.* (NOT ... ~~*Lucy already went home.*~~ OR ... ~~*has already gone home.*~~)

The past perfect is common after past verbs of saying and thinking, to talk about things that had happened before the saying or thinking took place.

*I told her that I **had finished**.* (NOT ... ~~*that I (have) finished.*~~)
*I wondered who **had** left the door open.*
*I thought I **had** sent the cheque a week before.*

past perfect: we are already talking about the past, and want to talk about an earlier past

*When I **arrived** at the party, Lucy **had** already **gone** home.*

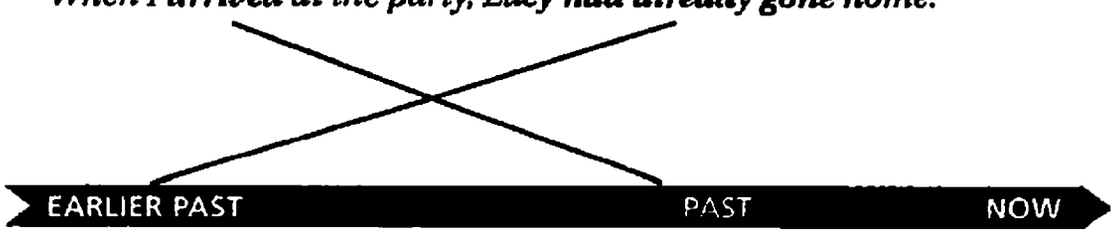

3 past perfect not used

The past perfect is normally only used as described above. The past perfect is not used simply to say that something happened some time ago, or to give a past reason for a present situation.

Alex Cary, who worked for my father in the 1980s, is now living in Greece. (NOT ~~*Alex Cary, who had worked for my father*~~...)

I left some photos to be developed. Are they ready yet? (NOT ~~*I had left some photos*~~...)

4 unreal events: *if* etc

After *if* (see 259), *wish* (see 630) and *would rather* (see 491), the past perfect can be used to talk about past events that did not happen.

If I had gone to university I would have studied medicine.

I wish you had told me the truth.

I'd rather she had asked me before borrowing the car.

5 how long? past perfect, not simple past.

We use a past perfect, not a simple past, to say how long something had continued up to a past moment. A simple past perfect is used with 'non-progressive verbs' like *be, have* and *know.*

She told me that her father had been ill since Christmas. (NOT ...~~*that her father was ill since Christmas.*~~)

I was sorry to sell my car. I had had it since College. (NOT ...~~*I had it since College.*~~)

When they got married, they had known each other for 15 years. (NOT ... ~~*they knew each other for 15 years.*~~)

With most other verbs, we use the past perfect progressive for this meaning (see 425).

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

424 past perfect (2): advanced points

1 past perfect or simple past with *after, as soon as,* etc

We can use time conjunctions (e.g. *after, as soon as, when, once*) to talk about two actions or events that happened one after the other. Usually the past perfect is not necessary in these cases, because we are not 'going back' from the time that we are mainly talking about, but simply moving forward from one event to the next.

After it got dark, we came back inside.

As soon as Jane arrived, we sat down to eat.

Once it stopped raining, we started the game again.

However, we can use the past perfect with *after, as soon as* etc to emphasise that the first action is separate, independent of the second, completed before the second started.

She didn't feel the same after her dog had died.

As soon as he had finished his exams, he went to Paris for a month.

This use of the past perfect is especially common with *when*. (*When* has several meanings, so we often have to show the exact time relations by the verb form.) Compare:

– *When I **had opened** the windows, I sat down and had a cup of tea.*
(NOT ~~*When I opened the windows, I sat down*~~. . .: the first action was quite separate from the second.)
*When I **opened** the window, the cat jumped out.* (More natural than *When I had opened the window, . . .*: one action caused the other.)

– *When I **had written** my letters, I did some gardening.* (NOT ~~*When I wrote my letters, I did some gardening*~~.)
*When I **wrote** to her, she came at once.*

2 unrealised hopes and wishes; things that did not happen

The past perfect can be used to express an unrealised hope, wish etc. *Had* is usually stressed in this case.

*I HAD **hoped** we would leave tomorrow, but it won't be possible.*
*He HAD **intended** to make a cake, but he ran out of time.*

3 past perfect with *It was the first/second . . . that . . .*

We use a past perfect after *it was the first/second . . . that . . .* and similar structures (see 591).

*It was **the first time** that I **had heard** her sing.* (NOT . . . ~~*that I heard*~~. . .)
*It was **the fifth time** she **had asked** the same question.* (NOT . . . ~~*she asked*~~. . .)
*It was only **the second opera** I **had seen** in my life.* (NOT . . . ~~*I saw*~~. . .)

For the past perfect with *before* (e.g. *He went out before I had finished my sentence*), see 97.3.

425 past perfect (3): progressive

1 forms: *had been + -ing*

*I had **been** working.* *Where had she **been** staying?*
*They hadn't **been** listening.*

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.

2 use

We use the past perfect progressive to talk about actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it.

*At that time we **had been** living in the caravan for about six months.*
*When I found Mary, I could see that she **had been** crying.*
*I went to the doctor because I **had been** sleeping badly.* ▸

past perfect progressive: actions or situations which had continued up to the past moment that we are thinking about, or shortly before it

*I **went** to the doctor because I **had been sleeping** badly.*

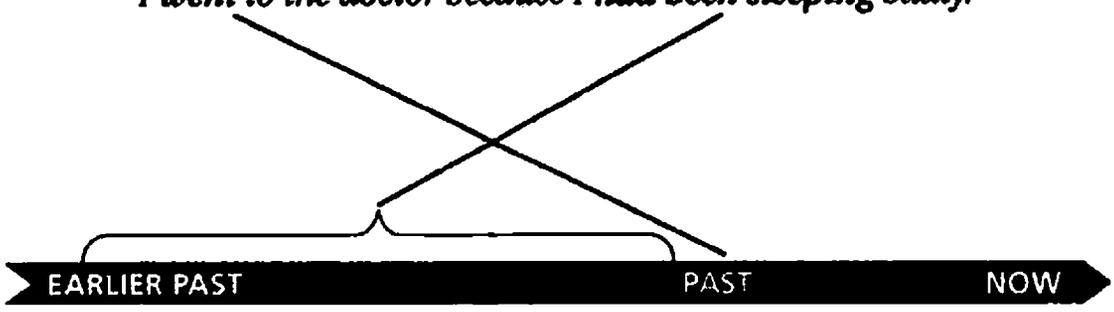

3 *how long?* past perfect progressive, not past progressive

We use a past perfect progressive, not a past progressive, to say how long something had been happening up to a past moment.

*We'd **been walking** since sunrise, and we were hungry.* (NOT ~~*We were walking since sunrise*~~ . . .)

*When she arrived, she **had been travelling** for twenty hours.* (NOT . . . ~~*she was travelling*~~ . . .)

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

4 progressive and simple: differences

Progressive forms are mostly used to talk about more temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer-lasting or permanent situations we prefer simple forms. Compare:

*My legs were stiff because I **had been standing** still for a long time.*

*The tree that blew down **had stood** there for 300 years.*

Progressive forms generally emphasise the continuation of an activity; we use simple tenses to emphasise the idea of completion. Compare:

*I **had been reading** science fiction, and my mind was full of strange images.*

*I **had read** all my magazines, and was beginning to get bored.*

Some verbs are not normally used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is one for which a progressive form would be more suitable.

*I **hadn't known** her for very long when we got married.* (NOT ~~*I hadn't been knowing her*~~ . . .)

426 past verb form with present or future meaning

A past tense does not always have a past meaning. In some kinds of sentence we can use verbs like *I had, you went* or *I was wondering* to talk about the present or future.

1 after conjunctions, instead of *would*

In most subordinate clauses (e.g. after *if, supposing, wherever, what*), we use past tenses (and not *would* . . .) to express 'unreal' or conditional ideas (see 580.6).

*If I **had** the money now I'd buy a car.*
*If you **caught** the ten o'clock train tomorrow you would be in Edinburgh by supper-time, unless the train **was** delayed, of course.*
*You look as if you **were** just about to scream.*
*Supposing we **didn't go** on holiday next year?*
*Would you follow me wherever I **went**?*
*In a perfect world, you would be able to say exactly what you **thought**.*
*Ten o'clock – it's time (that) you **went** home.*
*Don't come and see me today – I'd rather (that) you **came** tomorrow.*
*I wish (that) I **had** a better memory.*

2 distancing in questions, requests etc

We can make questions, requests and offers less direct (and so more polite) by using past tenses. (For more about 'distancing' of this kind, see 436.) Common formulae are *I wondered, I thought, I hoped, did you want.*

*I **wondered** if you **were** free this evening.*
*I **thought** you might like some flowers.*
*Did you **want** cream with your coffee, sir?*

Past progressive forms (*I was thinking/wondering/hoping* etc) make sentences even less direct.

*I **was thinking** about that idea of yours.*
*I **was hoping** we could have dinner together.*

3 'past' modals

The 'past' modal forms *could, might, would* and *should* usually have present or future reference; they are used as less direct, 'distanced' forms of *can, may, will* and *shall.*

Could you help me for a moment?
*I think it **might** rain soon.*
Would you come this way, please?
*Alice **should** be here soon.*

4 past focus on continuing situations

If we are talking about the past, we usually use past tenses even for things which are still true and situations which still exist.

*Are you deaf? I asked how old you **were**.*
*I'm sorry we left Liverpool. It **was** such a nice place.*
*Do you remember that nice couple we met on holiday? They **were** German, **weren't** they?*
*I got this job because I **was** a good driver.*
*Bill applied to join the police last week, but he **wasn't** tall enough.*

For more indirect speech examples, see 275, 278.

427 perfect verb forms

1 construction

Perfect verb forms are made with ***have*** + **past participle.**

*She **has lost** her memory.* (present perfect)
*They **have been living** in France for the last year.* (present perfect progressive)
*I told him that I **had** never **heard** of the place.* (past perfect)
*When I went back to the village the house **had been pulled** down.* (past perfect passive)
*We **will have finished** by tomorrow afternoon.* (future perfect tense)
*I'm sorry to **have disturbed** you.* (perfect infinitive)
Having seen the film, I don't want to read the book. (perfect *-ing* form)

2 terminology and use

A perfect verb form generally shows the time of an event as being earlier than some other time (past, present or future). But a perfect form does not only show the time of an event. It also shows how the speaker sees the event – perhaps as being connected to a later event, or as being completed by a certain time. Because of this, grammars often talk about 'perfect aspect' rather than 'perfect tenses'.

For details of the use of the various perfect verb forms, see the individual entries in the book.

428 personal pronouns (1): basic information

1 terminology and use

The words *I, me, you, he, him, she, her, it, we, us, they* and *them* are usually called 'personal pronouns'. (This is a misleading name: *it, they* and *them* refer to things as well as people.)
Personal pronouns are used when more exact noun phrases are not necessary.

I'm tired. (*I* replaces the name of any speaker.)
John's ill. He'll be away for a few days. (NOT ...~~*John'll be away*~~...)
Tell Mary I miss her. (NOT ~~*Tell Mary I miss Mary.*~~)

2 subject and object forms: *I* and *me, he* and *him* etc

Personal pronouns (except *you*) have one form when they are used as subjects, and a different form for other uses – for example, when they are the objects of verbs or prepositions.

Subject:	I	he	she	we	they
Object:	me	him	her	us	them

Compare:

– *I like dogs.*
*Dogs don't like **me**.*

– *We sent **her** some flowers.*
*She sent **us** some flowers.*

3 other uses of object forms: *It was her*

Me, him, her, us and *them* are used not only as objects, but also as complements after *be*, and in short answers, especially in an informal style.

Who said that? ~ (It was) her.
Who's there? ~ Me.

In a more formal style, we use **subject form + verb** where possible.

Who said that? ~ She did. (BUT NOT ~~*She.*~~)

It is possible to use a subject form alone after *be* (e.g. *It is I; It was he*), but this is extremely formal, and is usually considered over-correct.

Object forms are also common in double subjects in informal speech.

John and me are going skiing this weekend.

This is considered incorrect in more formal usage (see 429.1).

For sentences like *It's me that needs help*, see 429.3.

4 Personal pronouns cannot be left out

We cannot normally leave out personal pronouns, even if the meaning is clear without them (for some exceptions, see 429.11).

It's raining. (NOT ~~*Is raining.*~~)
She loved the picture because it reminded her of home. (NOT ...~~*because reminded her of home.*~~)
They arrested Alex and put him in prison. (NOT ...~~*and put in prison.*~~)
Have some chocolate. ~ No, I don't like it. (NOT ...~~*I don't like.*~~)

5 One subject is enough

One subject is enough. We do not usually use a personal pronoun to repeat a subject that comes in the same clause.

My car is parked outside. (NOT ~~*My car it is parked outside.*~~)
The boss really gets on my nerves. (NOT ~~*The boss he really gets on my nerves.*~~)
The situation is terrible. (NOT ~~*It is terrible the situation.*~~)

There are exceptions in very informal speech (see 514).

He's not a bad bloke, Jeff.
It's a horrible place, London.

For *it* as a preparatory subject or object, see 446–447.

6 personal and relative pronouns: *she* or *who*, not both

We do not use personal pronouns to repeat the meaning of relative pronouns (see 494.7).

That's the girl who lives in the flat upstairs. (NOT ...~~*who she lives*~~...)
Here's the money (that) you lent me. (NOT ...~~*(that) you lent me it.*~~)

7 *it* referring to *nothing*, the situation, etc.

It not only refers to the names of particular things. We can also use *it* to refer to indefinite pronouns like *nothing, anything, everything.*

Nothing happened, did it?
Everything's all right, isn't it? ▸

It can also refer to a whole fact, event or situation.
Our passports were stolen. It completely ruined our holiday.
I did all I could, but it wasn't enough.
It's terrible – everybody's got colds, and the central heating isn't working.
Wasn't it lovely there!

8 *it* as 'empty' subject: *it's ten o'clock*

We use *it* as a meaningless subject with expressions that refer to time, weather, temperature or distances.
It's ten o'clock. (NOT ~~*Is ten o'clock.*~~) *It's Monday again.*
It rained for three days. *It's thirty degrees.*
It's ten miles to the nearest petrol station.

9 *it* used to identify

We use *it* for a person when we are identifying him or her.
Who's that over there? ~ *It's John Cook.* (NOT ~~*He's John Cook.*~~)
Is that our waiter? ~ *No, it isn't.* (NOT ~~*No, he isn't.*~~)
On the phone: *Hello. It's Alan Williams.* (NOT ... ~~*I'm Alan Williams.*~~)
It's your sister who plays the piano, isn't it?

10 *we women, you men*

We and plural *you* (but not other personal pronouns) can be put directly before nouns.
We women know things that you men will never understand.
(BUT NOT ~~*I woman know*~~ ... OR ~~*They men will never*~~ ...)

For *you* used for people in general, see 396.
For the personal pronoun *one*, see 396.
For the use of *he* and *she* to refer to animals, ships etc, see 222.
For *they, them, their* with singular reference, see 528.
For the interrogative personal pronoun *who(m)*, see 623.

429 personal pronouns (2): advanced points

1 *John and me went; us women understand; between you and I*

We often use object forms in double subjects in informal speech.
John and me are going skiing this weekend.
Me and the kids spent Sunday at the swimming pool.
Us is sometimes used as a subject together with a noun.
Us women understand these things better than you men.
And *I* is often used informally in double objects.
Between you and I, I think his marriage is in trouble.
That's a matter for Peter and I.
I often think of the old days and how you helped Bertie and I. (letter from Queen Elizabeth, wife of the future King George VI, to King Edward VIII).
These structures are often condemned as 'incorrect', but they have been common in educated speech for centuries. (There are examples of *me* in double subjects in Jane Austen's novels, written around 1800.) They are, however, restricted to a very informal style. They are not correct in formal speech or writing.

2 *as, than, but* and *except* + *me* or *I*

After *as* and *than*, object forms are generally used in an informal style.
My sister's nearly as tall as me.
I can run faster than her.
In a more formal style, subject forms are used, usually followed by verbs.
My sister's nearly as tall as I am.
I can run faster than she can.
But (meaning 'except') and *except* are followed by object forms (see 116, 194).
Nobody but me knew the answer. (NOT ~~*Nobody but I*~~...)
Everybody except him can come.

3 *It is/was me that ... / I who ...*

When a relative clause comes after an expression like *It is/was me/I*, there are two possibilities:

object form + *that* (very informal)

It's me that needs your help.
It was him that told the police.

subject form + *who* (very formal)

It is I who need your help.
It was he who told the police.
We can avoid being too formal or too informal by using a different structure.
He was the person / the one who told the police.

4 mixed subject and object: *It's for him to decide*

Sometimes a pronoun is the object of a verb or preposition, but the subject of a following infinitive or clause. Normally an object form is used in this case.
It's for him to decide. (NOT ~~*It's for he to decide.*~~)
I think it's a good idea for you and me to meet soon.
(Considered more correct than ... *for you and I to meet soon.*)
Everything comes to him who waits.
(Considered more correct than ... *to he who waits.*)

5 inclusive and exclusive *we*

Note that *we* and *us* can include or exclude the listener or reader. Compare:
Shall we go and have a drink? (*We* includes the listener.)
We're going for a drink. Would you like to come with us?
(*We* and *us* exclude the listener.)

6 *us* meaning 'me'

In very informal British speech, *us* is quite often used instead of *me* (especially as an indirect object).
Give us a kiss, love.

7 *Poor you!*

You can be modified by adjectives in a few informal expressions such as *Poor/Clever/Lucky (old) you!* (This occasionally happens also with *me*.) ▸

8 *you*: different singular and plural forms

Although standard modern English uses *you* for both singular and plural, separate forms exist in certain varieties of English. Some speakers in Yorkshire use *thu* or *tha* as a singular subject form and *thee* as a singular object form. Some Irish and Scottish dialects have a separate plural form *ye, youse* or *yiz*. Many Americans (and increasingly, British people) use *you folks* or *you guys* (to both men and women) as an informal second-person plural.

Hi, you guys. Listen to this.

In southern US speech there is a second-person plural form *you all* (pronounced *y'all*), used instead of *you* when people wish to sound friendly or intimate; there is also a possessive *you all's* (pronounced *y'all's*).

Hi, everybody. How're you all doing? What are you all's plans for Thanksgiving?

For the older English forms *thee* and *thou*, see 392.

9 *he/she who ...*

The structure *he/she who ...* (meaning 'the person who ...') is found in older literature.

He who hesitates is sometimes lost.

But this is very unusual in modern English.

The person who leaves last should lock the door. OR *Whoever leaves last ...* (NOT ~~*He/She who leaves last* ...~~)

10 politeness

It is considered polite to use names or noun phrases, rather than *he, she* or *they*, to refer to people who are present.

Dad said I could go out. ~*No, I didn't.* (More polite than *He said I could go out.*)

This lady needs an ambulance.

However, pronouns need to be used to avoid repetition (see 500).

Dad said he didn't mind ... (NOT ~~*Dad said Dad didn't mind* ...~~)

It is considered polite to mention oneself last in double subjects or objects.

Why don't you and I go away for the weekend? (NOT ~~*Why don't I and you* ...?~~)

The invitation was for Tracy and me. (More polite than ... *for me and Tracy.*)

11 leaving out personal pronouns

Personal pronouns cannot usually be left out (see 428.4).

She loved the picture because it reminded her of home. (NOT ~~... *because reminded her of home.*~~)

However, in informal speech, subject pronouns and/or auxiliary verbs are sometimes left out at the beginning of a sentence. For details of this, see 179.

Can't help you, I'm afraid. (= I can't ...)

Seen Paul? (= Have you seen Paul?)

We seldom put *it* after *know*. See 313 for details.

It's getting late. ~*I know.* (NOT ~~*I know it.*~~)

After certain verbs (e.g. *believe, think, suppose*), we use *so* rather than *it*. (For details, see 539.)

Is that the manager? ~I believe so. (NOT ... *I believe (it).*)

And personal pronouns can be dropped after prepositions in descriptive structures with *have* and *with*.

All the trees have got blossom on (them).
He was carrying a box with cups in (it).

Object pronouns are not normally used in infinitive clauses if the object of the infinitive has just been mentioned (see 284.4).

She's easy to please. (NOT ~~*She's easy to please her.*~~)
The pie looked too nice to eat. (NOT ...~~*too nice to eat it.*~~)
The bridge wasn't strong enough to drive over. (NOT ...~~*to drive over it.*~~)
This dish takes two hours to prepare.

430 piece- and group-words

1 uncountable nouns: pieces

To talk about a limited quantity of something we can use a word for a piece or unit, together with *of*, before an uncountable noun. The most general words of this kind are *piece* and *bit*. *Bit* (informal) suggests a small quantity.

a piece/bit of cake/bread
some pieces/bits of paper/wood
a piece/bit of news/information

Other words are less general, and are used before particular nouns. Some common examples:

a bar of chocolate/soap
a blade of grass
a block of ice
a drop of water/oil/vinegar
a grain of sand/salt/rice/corn/truth
an item of information/news/clothing/furniture
a length of material
a loaf of bread
a lump of sugar/coal
a slice of bread/cake/meat
a speck of dust
a sheet of paper/metal/plastic
a stick of dynamite/chalk/celery
a strip of cloth/tape/land
a suit of clothes/armour

2 *not a ... of ...*

Some words for small pieces can be used in a negative structure meaning 'no ... at all'.

There's not a grain of truth in what he says.
There hasn't been a breath of air all day.
We haven't got a scrap (of food) to eat.
He came downstairs without a stitch of clothing on.

3 pairs

Pair is used for many things that normally go in twos, and with plural nouns that refer to some two-part objects (see 524.7).

a pair of shoes/socks/ear-rings
a pair of glasses/binoculars
a pair of trousers/jeans/pyjamas
a pair of scissors/pliers

▸

4 plural nouns: collections

Special words are used before certain plural nouns to talk about groups or collections.

a bunch of flowers *a crowd of people* *a flock of sheep/birds*
a herd of cattle/goats *a pack of cards* (AmE *a deck of cards*)

Set is used before many uncountable and plural nouns referring to groups which contain a fixed number of things.

a set of cutlery/napkins/dishes/tyres/sparking plugs/spanners

For *a bit* as a modifier before adjectives and adverbs, see 107.
For *an amount, a lot, a large number* etc, see 333.
For *sort, type, kind* etc, see 551.

431 place: a place to live, etc

In an informal style, *place* can often be followed directly by an infinitive or relative clause, with no preposition or relative word.

I'm looking for a place to live. (More formal: ... *a place to live in* or ... *a place in which to live.*)
There's no place to sit down.
You remember the place we had lunch? (= ... *the place (that) we had lunch at?* OR ... *the place where we had lunch?*)

We do not use *a place where* before an infinitive.

I'm looking for a place (where) I can wash my clothes. (NOT ... ~~*a place where to wash my clothes.*~~)

'Go places' (informal) means 'become very successful in life'.

That boy's going to go places, believe me.

For similar structures with *way, time* and *reason*, see 498.6.

432 play and game

1 nouns

A *play* is a piece of dramatic literature for the theatre, radio or television.

'Julius Caesar' is one of Shakespeare's early plays.

A *game* is an activity like, for example, chess, football or bridge.

Chess is a very slow game. (NOT ... ~~*a very slow play.*~~)

The uncountable noun *play* can be used to mean 'playing' in general.

Children learn a great deal through play.

2 verbs

People *act* in plays or films, and *play* games or musical instruments.

My daughter is acting in her school play this year.
Have you ever played rugby football?

Play can be used with the same meaning as *act* before the name of a character in a play or film.

I'il never forget seeing Olivier play Othello.

433 please and thank you

1 requests

We use *please* to make requests more polite.

Could I have some more rice, please?
Would you like some help? ~ Yes, please.

Note that *please* does not change an order into a request. Compare:

Stand over there. (order)
Please stand over there. (more polite order)
Could you stand over there, please? (polite request)

Please do is a rather formal answer to a request for permission.

Do you mind if I open the window? ~ Please do.

2 when *please* is not used

We do not use *please* to ask people what they have said.

I've got a bit of a headache. ~ I beg your pardon?
(NOT ... ~~*Please?*~~)

We do not use *please* when we give things to people.

Have you got a pen I could use? ~ Yes, here you are.
(NOT ... ~~*Please.*~~)

Please is not used as an answer to *Thank you* (see below).

Thanks a lot. ~ That's OK. (NOT ... ~~*Please.*~~)

3 *thank you* and *thanks*

Thanks is more informal than *thank you.* Common expressions:

Thank you. (NOT ~~*Thanks you.*~~)
Thank you very much.
Thanks very much.
Thanks a lot. (BUT NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)
Thank God it's Friday. (NOT ~~*Thanks God*~~ ...)

Indeed (see 273) can be used to strengthen *very much.*

Thank you very much indeed. (BUT NOT USUALLY ~~*Thank you indeed.*~~)

Thank you for / Thanks for can be followed by an *-ing* form. Possessives are unnecessary and are not used.

Thank you for coming. ~ Not at all. Thank you for having me. (NOT ~~*Thank you for your coming.*~~)

Some people say *Cheers* to mean *Thanks.*

4 accepting and refusing

We often use *Thank you / Thanks* like *Yes, please,* to accept offers.

Would you like some potatoes? ~ Thank you. ~ How many?

To make it clear that one wishes to refuse something, it is normal to say *No, thank you / No, thanks.*

Another cake? ~ No, thanks. I've eaten too many already.

Yes, thanks is most often used to confirm that things are all right.

Have you got enough potatoes? ~ Yes, thanks. ▸

5 replies to thanks

In English, there is not an automatic answer to *Thank you*; British people, especially, do not usually answer when they are thanked for small things. If a reply is necessary, we can say *Not at all* (rather formal), *You're welcome*, *That's (quite) all right* or *That's OK* (informal). Some people say *No problem* (informal). Compare:

Could you pass the salt? ~ *Here you are.* ~ *Thanks.* ~ (no answer)
Here's your coat. ~ *Thanks.* ~ (no answer)
Thanks so much for looking after the children. ~ ***That's all right. Any time.*** (answer necessary)

For more about the language of common social situations, see 545.

434 point of view

Point of view can mean the same as *opinion*.

*Thank you for giving us your **point of view** / **opinion**.*

But *from somebody's **point of view*** is not quite the same *as in somebody's view/ opinion*. It usually means 'as seen from somebody's position in life' (for example as a student, a woman, a Greek or a Catholic), and is used to say how somebody is affected by what happens. Compare:

- ***In my opinion**, war is always wrong.* (= I think war ...)
  (NOT ~~*From my point of view, war is always wrong*~~.)
  *He wrote about the war **from the point of view** of the ordinary soldier.*
- ***In my view**, it's a pretty good school.*
  *You have to judge a school **from the child's point of view**.*
- ***In Professor Lucas's opinion**, everybody should work a 20-hour week.*
  ***From the employers' point of view**, this would cause a lot of problems.*

435 politeness (1): using questions

1 requests: *Could you ...?*

We usually ask people to do things for us by making *yes/no* questions. (This suggests that the hearer can choose whether to agree or not.)

Could you tell me the time, please? (much more polite than *Please tell me the time.*)

Some other typical structures used in requests:

Could you possibly tell me the way to the station? (very polite)
Would you mind switching on the TV?
Would you like to help me for a few minutes?
You couldn't lend me some money, could you? (informal)

Indirect *yes/no* questions are also used in polite requests.

I wonder if you could (possibly) help me for a few minutes.

2 other structures: telling people to do things

If we use other structures (for example imperatives, *should*, *had better*), we are not asking people to do things, but telling or advising them to do things. These structures can therefore seem rude if we use them in requests, especially in

conversation with strangers or people we do not know well. *Please* makes an order or instruction a little more polite, but does not turn it into a request. The following structures can be used perfectly correctly to give orders, instructions or advice, but they are not polite ways of requesting people to do things.

Please answer by return of post.
Please help me for a few minutes.
Help me, would you?
Carry this for me, please.
You ought to tell me your plans.
You should shut the door.
You had better help me.

3 shops, restaurants etc

Requests in shops, restaurants etc are usually more direct, and are not always expressed as questions. Typical structures:

Can I have one of those, please?
Could I have a look at the red ones?
I'd like to see the wine list, please.
I would prefer a small one.

Give me . . ., please and *I want . . ., please* are not normally considered polite. But in places where only a few kinds of thing are sold and not much needs to be said, it is enough just to say what is wanted and add *please*.

'The Times', please.
Black coffee, please.
Two cheeseburgers, please.
Return to Lancaster, please.

4 negative questions

Negative questions (see 368) are not used in polite requests.

Could you give me a light? (NOT ~~*Couldn't you give me a light?*~~ – this sounds like a complaint!)

But negative statements with question tags are used in informal requests.

You couldn't give me a light, could you?
I don't suppose you could give me a light, could you? (very polite)

5 expressions of opinion

Expressions of opinion can also be made less direct by turning them into questions. Compare:

It would be better to paint it green. (direct expression of opinion)
Wouldn't it be better to paint it green? (less direct: negative question asking for agreement)
Would it be better to paint it green? (open question – very indirect)

For other rules of 'social language', see 545.

436 politeness (2): distancing verb forms

1 past tenses: *How much did you want to spend?*

We can make requests (and also questions, suggestions and statements) less direct (and so more polite) by using verb forms that suggest 'distance' from the immediate present reality. Past tenses are often used to do this.

How much did you want to spend, sir? (meaning 'How much do you want to spend?')
How many days did you intend to stay? (meaning '. . . do you intend . . .')
I wondered if you were free this evening. ▸

2 progressives: *I'm hoping ...*

Progressive forms can be used in the same way. They sound more casual and less definite than simple forms, because they suggest something temporary and incomplete.

*I'm **hoping** you can lend me £10.* (less definite than *I hope ...*)
*What time **are** you **planning** to arrive?* (more casual-sounding than *Please let us know what time you plan to arrive.*)
*I'm **looking forward** to seeing you again.* (more casual than *I look forward ...*)
*I'm afraid we must **be going**.*

Past progressives give two levels of distancing.

*Good morning. I **was wondering**: have you got two single rooms?*
*Were you **looking** for anything special?* (in a shop)
*I **was thinking** – what about borrowing Jake's car?*

3 future: *You'll need to ...*

Another way to distance something is to displace it into the future. *Will need/ have to* can be used to soften instructions and orders.

*I'm afraid you'll **need** to fill in this form.*
*I'll **have to** ask you to wait a minute.*

And *will* is sometimes used to say how much money is owed.

*That **will be** £1.65, please.*

Future progressive verbs are often used to enquire politely about people's plans (see 220).

*Will you **be going** away at the weekend?*

4 modal verbs: *would, could* and *might*

The modal verbs *would, could* and *might* also make questions, requests and suggestions less direct.

*I thought it **would** be nice to have a picnic.*
Hi! I thought I'd come over and introduce myself My name's Andy.
Could you give me a hand?
Could I ask you to translate this for me?
We could ask Peter to help us.
*I was wondering if you **might** be interested in a game of tennis.*
*I came in and ordered some shoes from you. ~ Oh yes, sir. When **would** that have been, exactly?*

Would is very often used to form requests and offers with verbs like *like* and *prefer*.

*What **would** you like to drink?*

Note the common use of *would* before verbs of saying and thinking, to make a statement sound less definite.

*I **would** say we'd do better to catch the earlier train.*
*This is what I **would** call annoying.*
*I **would** think we might stop for lunch soon.*
*I'm surprised you didn't like the film. I **would** have thought it was just your kind of thing.*
*We **would** ask passengers to have their tickets ready for inspection.*

5 conditional and negative expressions

Another way of distancing suggestions from reality is to make them conditional or negative.

It would be better if we turned it the other way up.
What if we stayed at home for a change?
Suppose I gave Alice a call?
If you would come this way . . .
I wonder if you could lend me £5?
I don't suppose you want to buy a car, do you?
You wouldn't like to come out with us, by any chance?
You couldn't take the children to school, could you? (BUT NOT ~~*Couldn't you take the children to school?*~~ This sounds like a complaint – see 435.4.)

437 politeness (3): softening expressions

1 *quite, maybe, I think* etc

We can express our opinions and intentions less directly (and therefore more politely) by using softening expressions like *quite, rather, kind of, a bit, maybe* etc.

He's quite difficult to understand, isn't he?
I find her rather bossy, don't you?
This music's kind of boring.
The food's a bit expensive.
Maybe I'll go for a walk now.

For more examples, see 157.16.

2 *I think I'll . . .*

We can say that we are thinking of doing things, instead of expressing our intentions directly.

I think I'll go to bed in a few minutes.
I'm thinking of going to London tomorrow.
I'd quite like to start thinking about going home.

3 *We would like to . . .*

In a formal style, requests, invitations, suggestions etc are often introduced by *would like* instead of being expressed directly.

We would like to invite you to give a talk to our members on June 14th.
I'd like to suggest that we take a vote.
I would like to congratulate you on your examination results.

438 politics and policy

Politics (usually singular but always with *-s* – see 524.3) is used to talk about government and related ideas.

I don't know much about politics, but I don't think this is a democracy.
You talk beautifully – you should be in politics. ▸

Policy is used for people's rules of behaviour (not necessarily connected with politics).

*After the war, British foreign **policy** was rather confused.* (NOT ...~~British foreign politics~~...)

*It's not my **policy** to believe everything I hear.*

*It's the firm's **policy** to employ a certain number of handicapped people.*

439 possessives (1): noun + 's (forms)

1 spelling

singular noun + *'s*	*my **father's** car*
plural noun + *'*	*my **parents'** house*
irregular plural + *'s*	*the **children's** room, **men's** clothes, **women's** rights, an old **people's** home*

We sometimes just add an apostrophe (') to a singular noun ending in *-s*, especially in literary and classical references.

Socrates' ideas. *Dickens's novels*

But *'s* is more common.

Mr Lewis's dog

We can add *'s* or *'* to a whole phrase.

the man next door's wife

Henry the Eighth's six wives

the Smiths' new house

Note the difference between, for example:

Joe and Ann's children (one lot of children: Joe and Ann are their parents)

Joe's and Ann's children (two separate lots of children: Joe's and Ann's)

2 pronunciation

The ending *'s* is pronounced just like a plural ending (see 525).

doctor's /ˈdɒktəz/ *Madge's* /ˈmædʒɪz/

dog's /dɒgz/ *Alice's* /ˈælɪsɪz/

president's /ˈprezɪdənts/ *James's* /ˈdʒeɪmzɪz/ *Jack's* /dʒæks/

The apostrophe in a word like *parents'* does not change the pronunciation at all. But with singular classical (ancient Greek and Roman) names ending in *s'*, we often pronounce a possessive *'s* even when it is not written.

Socrates' /ˈʃɒkrəti:zɪz / *ideas.*

3 possessive 's and other determiners

A noun cannot normally have an article or other determiner with it as well as a possessive word (see 154). Definite articles are usually dropped when possessives are used.

the car that is John's (= *John's car*) (NOT ~~the John's car~~ OR ~~John's the car~~)

But a possessive word may of course have its own article.

the car that is the boss's (= *the boss's car*)

When we want to use a noun with *a/an* or *this/that* etc as well as a possessive, we usually use the '*of mine*' construction (see 443).

*She's **a cousin of John's**.* (NOT ...~~a John's cousin~~.)

*I saw **that** stupid **boyfriend of Angie's** yesterday.* (NOT ...~~that Angie's stupid boyfriend~~...)

4 possessive without a noun

We can use a possessive without a following noun, if the meaning is clear.
Whose is that? ~ Peter's.
We often talk about shops, firms, churches and people's houses in this way. The apostrophe is often dropped in the names of shops and firms.
I bought it at Smiths. *She got married at St Joseph's.*
We had a nice time at John and Susan's last night.
In modern English, expressions like *the doctor, the dentist, the hairdresser, the butcher* are often used without *'s*.
Alice is at the hairdresser('s).

440 possessives (2): noun + 's (use)

1 meanings of the 's structure

We use the *'s* structure most often to talk about possessions, relationships and physical characteristics, especially when the first noun refers to a person or animal, or to a country, organisation or other group of living creatures.
That's my father's house. (NOT ... ~~the house of my father~~)
Mary's brother is a lawyer. (NOT ~~The brother of Mary~~ ...)
I don't like Alice's friends much. *Pete's eyes are like yours.*
There's something wrong with the cat's ear.
Scotland's climate is getting warmer.
What do you think of the company's management?
We also use the structure to talk about things that people etc produce.
I didn't believe the girl's story. *Have you read John's letter?*
What are Norway's main exports?
The government's decision was extremely unwise.
With some words for people's actions, we can use either *'s* or a structure with *of*.
the Queen's arrival OR *the arrival of the Queen*
the committee's second meeting OR *the second meeting of the committee*
An *of*-structure is preferred when the 'possessing' expression is very long. Compare:
My sister's husband.
The husband of the woman who sent you that strange letter.

2 's not used: the name of the street

With nouns which are not the names of people, animals, countries etc, *'s* is less common, and a structure with a preposition (usually *of*) is more normal.
the name of the street (NOT ~~the street's name~~)
the back of the room (NOT ~~the room's back~~)
the roof of the house (NOT ~~the house's roof~~)
the top of the page (NOT ~~the page's top~~) ▸

However, both structures are possible in some expressions.

the earth's gravity OR *the gravity of the earth*
the plan's importance OR *the importance of the plan*
the concerto's final movement OR *the final movement of the concerto*
the train's arrival OR *the arrival of the train*
the world's oldest mountains OR *the oldest mountains in the world*
(NOT... ~~*of the world*~~) – see 139.7

Unfortunately, it is not possible to give useful general rules in this area: the choice of structure often depends on the particular expression.

3 subject

Note that the *'s* structure often corresponds to a sentence in which the first noun is the subject of *have* or some other verb.

Joe's brother (Joe has a brother)
the dog's tail (the dog has a tail)
America's gold reserves (America has gold reserves)
the manager's decision (the manager made a decision)
Harris's novel (Harris wrote a novel)

In a few cases, the first noun may correspond to the object of a verb.

the prisoner's release (they released the prisoner)

4 measurement of time: *a day's journey*

The *'s* structure (or the plural with *s'*) is often used to say how long things last.

a day's journey *twenty minutes' delay*

Noun + noun structures are also possible in expressions with numbers (see 386.5).

a three-hour journey *a twenty-minute delay*

5 other expressions of time: *yesterday's news*

We can also use the *'s* structure to talk about particular moments and events.

yesterday's news *last Sunday's match* *tomorrow's weather*

6 *worth*

Note the use of the *'s* structure before *worth*.

a pound's worth of walnuts *three dollars' worth of popcorn*

For the *'s* structure in compound nouns (e.g. *a doll's house, cow's milk*), see 386.

441 possessives (3): my, your etc

1 What kind of words are they?

My, your, his, her, its, our and *their* are determiners (see 154), and are used at the beginning of noun phrases.

my younger brother *your phone number* *their plans*

They are also pronouns, because they stand for possessive noun phrases: *my younger brother* means 'the speaker's younger brother'; *their plans* means, for example, 'those people's plans' or 'the children's plans'.

They are not adjectives (although they are sometimes called 'possessive adjectives' in older grammars and dictionaries).

2 *one's* and *whose*

One's (see 396.5) and *whose* (see 496; 626) are also possessive determiners/pronouns.

It's easy to lose one's temper when one is criticised.
An orphan is a child whose parents are dead.
Whose bicycle is that?

3 not used with other determiners

My, your etc are not used with other determiners like *the, a/an* or *this.*

She's lost her keys. (NOT ... ~~*the her keys.*~~)

If we want to use *a/an* or *this, that* etc with a possessive, we use the '... *of mine*' structure (see 443).

A friend of mine has just invited me to Italy. (NOT ~~*A my friend*~~ ...)
How's that brother of yours? (NOT ... ~~*that your brother?*~~)

4 distributive use: *She told them to open their books,* etc

After a plural possessive, we do not normally use a singular noun in the sense of 'one each'. (For details, see 530.)

The teacher told the children to open their books. (NOT ... ~~*their book.*~~)

5 articles instead of possessives

We sometimes use articles instead of *my, your* etc. This happens in prepositional phrases which refer to the subject or object, mostly when we are talking about blows, pains and other things that often happen to parts of people's bodies.

The ball hit him on the head.
She's got a pain in the stomach.

In other cases we do not normally use articles instead of possessives.

She's got a parrot on her shoulder. (NOT ~~*She's got a parrot on the shoulder.*~~)
Katy broke her arm mountain climbing. (NOT ~~*Katy broke the arm*~~ ...)
He stood there, his eyes closed and his hands in his pockets, looking half asleep. (NOT ... ~~*the eyes closed and the hands in the pockets*~~ ...)

6 spelling: *its, whose*

The possessives *its* and *whose* have no apostrophes. *It's* and *who's* are not possessives, but contractions (see 143): they mean 'it is' or 'it has'; 'who is' or 'who has'. Compare:

The dog's in a good mood. It's just had its breakfast.
Whose little girl is that? ~ You mean the one who's making all that noise?

For structures like *Do you mind my smoking?*, see 295.3.
For *my own, your own* etc, see 405.
For the older English form *thy*, see 392.
For southern AmE *you all's*, see 429.8.

442 possessives (4): mine, yours etc

Mine, yours, his, hers, ours and *theirs* are similar to *my, your* etc, but they are not determiners, and are used without following nouns. ▸

Compare:

That's my coat. *That coat is mine.*
Which is your car? *Which car is yours?*

Whose can be used with a following noun (see 441) or without.

Whose car is that? *Whose is that car?*

We do not use articles with *mine* etc.

Can I borrow your keys? I can't find mine. (NOT ~~*I can't find the mine.*~~)

One's cannot be used without a following noun; instead, we use *one's own.*

It's nice to have a room of one's own. (NOT ...~~*of one's.*~~)

Its is not normally used without a following noun.

I've had my breakfast, and the dog's had its breakfast too. (NOT ...~~*and the dog's had its.*~~)

For the older English form *thine*, see 392.

443 possessives (5): a friend of mine etc

We cannot usually put a possessive between another determiner and a noun. We can say *my friend, Ann's friend, a friend* or *that friend,* but not ~~*a my friend*~~ or ~~*that Ann's friend.*~~ Instead, we use a structure with *of* + possessive.

determiner + noun + *of* + possessive

That policeman is a friend of mine. *He's a cousin of the Queen's.*
How's that brother of yours? *She's a friend of my father's.*
I met another boyfriend of Lucy's yesterday.
Have you heard this new idea of the boss's?
He watched each gesture of hers as if she was a stranger.
My work is no business of yours.

The structure has a variant in which a noun does not have possessive *'s*: this is sometimes used when talking about relationships.

He's a cousin of the Queen. *She's a friend of my father.*

The word *own* is used in a similar structure (see 405).

I wish I had a room of my own.

444 prefer

When we say that we prefer one activity to another, two *-ing* forms can be used. The second can be introduced by *to* or *rather than* (more formal).

I prefer riding to walking. (NOT ~~*I prefer riding to walk.*~~)
She prefers making toys for her children rather than buying them.

Prefer can also be followed by an infinitive (this is normal after *would prefer*). We can use an infinitive (without *to*) or an *-ing* form after *rather than* in this case.

She prefers to make toys for her children rather than buy/buying them.
I would prefer to stay at home rather than drive/driving to your mother's.

For more about *to* with *-ing* forms, see 298.2.

445 prefixes and suffixes

The following are some of the most common and useful English prefixes and suffixes.

1 prefixes

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
a-	adj.	not, without	*amoral, asexual*
Anglo-	adj.	English	*Anglo-American*
ante-	adj., verbs, nouns	before	*antenatal, antedate* *anteroom*
anti-	adj., nouns	against	*antisocial, anti-war*
arch-	nouns	supreme, most	*archbishop, arch-enemy*
auto-	adj., nouns	self	*automatic, autobiography*
bi-	adj., nouns	two	*bilingual, bicycle*
cent(i)-	nouns	hundredth	*centimetre, centilitre*
co-	verbs, nouns	together (with)	*co-operate, co-pilot*
counter-	adj., verbs, nouns	against	*counteract* *counter-revolution(ary)*
cyber-	nouns	computer, internet	*cybercrime, cyberculture*
de-	verbs	reversing action	*defrost, deregulate*
	verbs	take away	*deforest*
dis-	adj., verbs, nouns	not, opposite	*disloyal, disappear* *disorder*
	verbs	reversing action	*disconnect, disinfect*
e-	nouns	electronic, internet	*email, e-commerce, e-book*
eco-	adj., nouns	environment	*eco-friendly, eco-tourism*
en-	nouns	put in	*endanger, encircle*
	adj.	make	*enrich, enable*
Euro-	adj., nouns	European	*Eurocentric, Europop*
ex-	nouns	former	*ex-husband*
extra-	adj.	exceptionally	*extra-special*
	adj.	outside	*extra-terrestrial*
fore-	verbs, nouns	before	*foretell, foreknowledge*
geo-	adj., nouns	earth	*geothermal, geophysics*
hyper-	adj., nouns	extreme(ly)	*hypercritical, hypertension*
ill-	past participles	badly	*ill-advised, ill-expressed*
in-	adj.	not, opposite	*incomplete, insensitive*
(im- before p)			*impossible*
(il- before l)			*illegible*
(ir- before r)			*irregular*
inter-	adj., verbs	between, among	*international, intermarry* ▸

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
kilo-	nouns	thousand	*kilometre, kilogram*
mal-	adj., verbs, nouns	bad(ly)	*maltreat, malformed malfunction*
mega-	nouns	million	*megabyte*
	adj. (informal)	extremely	*mega-rich*
micro-	adj., nouns	very small	*microlight (aircraft), micrometer*
mid-	nouns	in the middle of	*mid-December, mid-afternoon*
milli-	nouns	thousandth	*millisecond*
mini-	nouns	little	*miniskirt, minicab*
mis-	verbs, nouns	wrong(ly)	*misunderstand, misconduct*
mono-	adj., nouns	one	*monogamous, monorail*
multi-	adj., nouns	many	*multilingual, multi-purpose*
neo-	adj., nouns	new(ly)	*neo-classical, neo-Nazi*
non-	nouns, adj.	not	*non-smoker, non-returnable*
omni-	adj.	all	*omnipresent*
out-	verbs, nouns	do/be more than	*outrun, outnumber* (vb.)
over-	adj., verbs	too much	*over-confident, overeat*
pan-	adj.	right across	*pan-American*
photo-	adj., nouns	light	*photoelectric, photosynthesis*
poly-	adj., nouns	many	*polyglot, polygon*
post-	adj., nouns	after	*post-modern, postwar*
pre-	adj., nouns	before	*premarital, prewar*
pro-	adj., nouns	for, in favour of	*pro-communist, pro-government* (adj.)
pseudo-	adj.	false	*pseudo-academic*
psycho-	adj., nouns	mind, mental	*psycho-analysis*
re-	verbs, nouns	again, back	*rebuild, reconstruction*
semi-	adj., nouns	half	*semi-conscious, semicircle*
socio-	adj., nouns	society	*socio-economic*
sub-	adj., nouns	below	*sub-standard, subconscious, subway*
super-	adj. nouns	more than, special	*supernatural, supermarket*
tele-	nouns	distant	*telescope*
thermo-	adj., nouns	heat	*thermo-electric, thermometer*
trans-	adj., verbs	across	*transatlantic, transplant*
tri-	adj., nouns	three	*tripartite, triangle*

prefix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
ultra-	adj., nouns	extreme, beyond	*ultra-modern, ultrasound*
un-	adj., participles	not, opposite	*uncertain, unexpected*
	verbs	reverse action	*untie, undress*
under-	verbs, participles	too little	*underestimate, under-developed*
uni-	adj., nouns	one	*unilateral, unicycle*
vice-	nouns	deputy	*vice-chairman*

2 suffixes that form nouns

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-age	verbs	instance of	*breakage, shrinkage*
-al	verbs	instance of	*refusal, dismissal*
-ance, -ancy	adj., verbs	process/state of	*reluctance, performance, expectancy*
-ation	verbs	process/state of	*exploration, starvation*
	verbs	product of	*organisation, foundation*
-ee	verbs	object of verb	*payee, employee*
-ence, -ency	adj., verbs	process/state of	*independence, presidency*
-er	nouns	belonging to	*teenager, Londoner*
-er/or	verbs	person/thing that does	*writer, driver, starter, editor*
-ess	nouns	female	*lioness, waitress*
-ette	nouns	small	*kitchenette*
-ful	nouns	amount held in	*spoonful, cupful*
-hood	nouns	quality, group, time of	*brotherhood, childhood*
-ing	nouns	quantity of material	*carpeting, tubing*
	nouns	activity	*farming, surfing*
-ism	nouns	belief, practice	*communism, impressionism*
-ity	adj.	quality of	*elasticity, falsity*
-ment	verbs	process/result of	*government, arrangement*
-ness	adj.	quality of	*meanness, happiness*
-ocracy	nouns	government by	*democracy*
-ology	nouns	study of	*sociology*
-phile	nouns	lover of	*Anglophile*
-phobe	nouns	hater, fearer of	*Anglophobe*
-phobia	nouns	irrational fear of	*arachnophobia* (fear of spiders)
-ship	nouns	status, state, quality of	*friendship, dictatorship*

▶

3 suffixes that form nouns or adjectives

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ese	place nouns	inhabitant of, language of	*Chinese, Vietnamese*
-(i)an	nouns	supporter of, related to	*Darwinian, republican*
	nouns	citizen of	*Parisian, Moroccan*
-ist	nouns	practitioner of	*pianist, racist*

4 suffixes that form adjectives

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-able	verbs	can be (done)	*washable, drinkable*
-al	nouns	related to	*accidental*
-centric	nouns	centred on	*Eurocentric*
-ed	nouns	having	*wooded, pointed, blue-eyed*
-ful	nouns	full of, providing	*useful, helpful*
-ic	nouns	related to	*electric*
-ical	nouns	related to	*philosophical, logical*
-ish	adj., nouns	rather (like)	*greenish, childish*
	place nouns	inhabitant of, language of	*Scottish, Turkish*
-ive	verbs	can do, does	*attractive, selective*
-less	nouns	without	*careless, homeless*
-like	nouns	like	*childlike*
-ly	nouns	with the quality of	*friendly, motherly*
-ous	nouns	having	*virtuous, ambitious*
-proof	nouns	protected/-ing against	*bullet-proof, waterproof,*
-ward	adj.	towards	*backward, northward*
-y	nouns	like, characterised by	*creamy, wealthy*

5 suffixes that form adverbs

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ly	adj.	in an (adjective) way	*calmly, slowly*
-ward(s)	adj.	towards	*backwards, northward(s)*

6 suffixes that form verbs

suffix	mainly added to	usual meaning	examples
-ate	nouns	causative	*orchestrate, chlorinate*
-en	adj.	make, become	*deafen, ripen, harden*
-ify	adj., nouns	causative: make	*simplify, electrify*
-ise/-ize	adj., nouns	various	*modernise, symbolise*

7 Note: negative words with no positive equivalent

Some words with negative prefixes have no positive opposite equivalent: for example, somebody can be *distressed*, but not ~~*tressed*~~. Other examples:

dishevilled, disappoint, discard, disclose, disconcert, disfigure, dismiss, dispose, incessant, indelible, uncanny, uncouth, ungainly, unkempt, unnerved, unspeakable, unwieldy, unwitting

For hyphens after *co-*, *ex-* etc, see 559.1d.

446 preparatory it (1): subject

1 *It's nice to talk to you*

When the subject of a clause is an infinitive expression, this does not normally come at the beginning. We usually prefer to start with the 'preparatory subject' *it*, and to put the infinitive expression later (long or complicated items are often put towards the end of a sentence – see 512). Preparatory *it* is common before *be* + **adjective/noun**.

It's nice to talk to you. (More natural than *To talk to you is nice.*)
It was good of you to phone.
It was stupid of you to leave the door unlocked.
It's important to book in advance.
It's my ambition to run a three-hour marathon.
It was a pleasure to listen to her.
It upsets me to hear people arguing all the time.

It can also be a preparatory subject for *for* + **object** + **infinitive** (see 291).

It will suit me best for you to arrive at about ten o'clock.
It's essential for the papers to be ready before Thursday.

2 *It's probable that we'll be late*

We also use preparatory *it* when the subject of a clause is itself a clause.

It's probable that we'll be a little late.
It doesn't interest me what you think.
It's surprising how many unhappy marriages there are.
It's exciting when a baby starts talking.

3 *It was nice seeing you*

It can be a preparatory subject for an *-ing* form. This is usually informal.

It was nice seeing you. *It's crazy her going off like that.*
It's worth going to Wales if you have the time.
It's no use trying to explain – I'm not interested.
It surprised me your not remembering my name.

For more information about structures with *worth*, see 632.
For *there* as a preparatory subject with *any/no use*, see 587.2.

4 *It takes ...* + infinitive

We can use this structure to say how much time is necessary (see 576).

It took me months to get to know her.
How long does it take to get to London from here? ▸

5 *if, as if* and *as though*

It is used to introduce some clauses with *if, as if* and *as though.*

It looks as if we're going to have trouble with Ann again.
It's not as if this was the first time she's been difficult.
It will be a pity if we have to ask her to leave.
But it looks as though we may have to.

6 *It was my aunt who took Peter to London*

It can be used in 'cleft sentences' (see 131) with *who-* and *that*-clauses to emphasise one part of a sentence.

It was my aunt who took Peter to London yesterday, not my mother. (emphasising *my aunt*)
It was Peter that my aunt took to London yesterday, not Lucy. (emphasising *Peter*)

7 *It's amazing the way they work together*

It is not normally used as a preparatory subject for noun phrases.

The new concert hall is wonderful. (NOT ~~*It's wonderful the new concert hall.*~~)

But in an informal style, *it* can be a preparatory subject for **noun + relative clause.**

It's wonderful the enthusiasm that the children show.

This is very common with *the way* . . .

It's amazing the way (that) they work together.
It's strange the way you know what I'm thinking.

For passive structures with *it* as a preparatory subject, see 417.

447 preparatory it (2): object

1 *I find it difficult to talk to you.*

We can sometimes use *it* as a preparatory object. This happens when the object of a verb is an infinitive expression or a clause, and when this has an adjective or noun complement. For example, instead of saying 'I find to talk to you difficult', we prefer 'I find it difficult to talk to you'.

subject + verb + *it* + complement + infinitive/clause

We found it tiring to listen to him.
My blister made it a problem to walk.
I thought it strange that she hadn't written.
George made it clear what he wanted.

Note that this structure is not normally used when there is no adjective or noun complement after the verb.

I cannot bear to see people crying. (NOT ~~*I cannot bear it to see people crying.*~~)
I remember that we were very happy. (NOT ~~*I remember it that* . . .~~)

But note the structure *I like/love/hate it when* . . .

I love it when you sing.

Note also the idiom *I take it that* . . . (= I assume that . . .).

I take it that you won't be working tomorrow.

2 *I found it strange being ...*

This structure is also possible with *-ing* form objects.

*I found it strange **being** in her house.*

3 *I would appreciate it if ...*

It is used as a preparatory object for an *if*-clause after *would appreciate.*

*I **would appreciate it if** you would keep me informed.* (NOT ~~*I would appreciate if you would*~~ ...)

4 *owe* and *leave*

Note the structures *owe it to somebody to* ... and *leave it to somebody to* ...

*We **owe it to** society **to** make our country a better place.*

*I'll **leave it to** you **to** decide.*

448 prepositions (1): introduction

1 meanings and use

It is difficult to learn to use prepositions correctly in a foreign language. Most English prepositions have several different functions (for instance, one well-known dictionary lists eighteen main uses of *at*), and these may correspond to several different prepositions in another language. At the same time, different prepositions can have very similar uses (***in** the morning, **on** Monday morning, **at** night*). Many nouns, verbs and adjectives are normally used with particular prepositions: we say *the reason **for**, arrive **at**, angry **with** somebody, **on** a bus.* Often the correct preposition cannot be guessed, and one has to learn the expression as a whole. In some expressions English has no preposition where one may be used in another language; in other expressions the opposite is true. For details of some difficult cases of prepositional usage, see 449–454.

2 word order

In English, prepositions can come at the ends of clauses in certain structures, especially in an informal style. For details, see 452.

*What are you thinking **about**?* *She's not very easy to talk **to**.*

*You're just the person I was looking **for**.* *I hate being shouted **at**.*

3 *-ing* forms

When we use verbs after prepositions, we use *-ing* forms, not infinitives. For details, see 298, 454.

*She saved money **by giving** up cigarettes.*

When *to* is a preposition, it is also followed by *-ing* forms. (see 298.2).

*I look forward **to seeing** you soon.*

4 prepositions before conjunctions

Prepositions are sometimes dropped before conjunctions and sometimes not. For details, see 453.

*I'm not certain (of) **what** I'm supposed to do.*

*The question (of) **whether** they should turn back was never discussed.* ▸

5 prepositions and adverb particles

Words like *on, off, up, down* can function both as prepositions and as adverb particles. For the difference, see 20. For verbs with prepositions and particles, see 599, 600.

*She ran **up** the stairs.* (preposition)
*She rang me **up**.* (adverb particle)

449 prepositions (2): after particular words and expressions

It is not always easy to know which preposition to use after a particular noun, verb or adjective. Here are some of the most common combinations which cause difficulty to students of English. Alternatives are sometimes possible, and American and British usage sometimes differ. There is only room for very brief notes here; for more complete information about usage with a particular word, consult a good dictionary.

accuse somebody **of** something (NOT ~~**for**~~)
*She **accused** me **of** poisoning her dog.*
afraid of (NOT ~~**by**~~)
*Are you **afraid of** spiders?*
agree with a person, opinion or policy
*He left the firm because he didn't **agree with** their sales policy.*
*I entirely **agree with** you.*
agree about a subject of discussion
*We **agree about** most things.*
agree on a matter for decision
*Let's try to **agree on** a date.*
agree to a suggestion
*I'll **agree to** your suggestion if you lower the price.*
angry with (sometimes **at**) a person **for** doing something
*I'm **angry with** her **for** lying to me.*
angry about (sometimes at) something
*What are you so **angry about**?*
anxious about (= worried about)
*I'm getting **anxious about** money.*
anxious for (= eager to have)
*We're all **anxious for** an end to this misunderstanding.*
anxious + **infinitive** (= eager, wanting)
*She's **anxious to** find a better job.*
apologise to somebody **for** something
*I think we should **apologise to** the Smiths.*
*I must **apologise for** disturbing you.*
arrive at or **in** (NOT ~~**to**~~)
*What time do we **arrive at** Cardiff?*
*When did you **arrive in** England?*
ask: see 79.

bad at (NOT ~~in~~)
*I'm not **bad at** tennis.*
believe a person or something that is said (= accept as truthful/true – no preposition)
Don't believe her. *I don't believe a word she says.*
believe in God, Father Christmas etc (= believe that ... exists; trust)
*I half **believe in** life after death.*
*If you **believe in** me I can do anything.*
belong in/on/etc (= go, fit, have its place in/on/etc)
*Those glasses **belong on** the top shelf*
belong to (= be a member of)
*I **belong to** a local athletics club.*
blue with cold, **red with** anger etc
*My hands were **blue with** cold when I got home*
borrow: see 109.

care: see 127.
clever at (NOT ~~in~~)
*I'm not very **clever at** cooking.*
congratulate/congratulations on something
*I must **congratulate** you **on** your exam results.*
*Congratulations **on** your new job!*
congratulate/congratulations on/for doing something
*He **congratulated** the team **on/for** having won all their games.*
crash into (NOT USUALLY ~~against~~)
*I wasn't concentrating, and I **crashed into** the car in front.*

depend/dependent on (NOT ~~from~~ OR ~~of~~)
*We may play football – it **depends on** the weather.*
*He doesn't want to be **dependent on** his parents.*
But: **independent of**
details of
*Write now for **details** of our special offer.*
die of or **from**
*More people **died of** flu in 1919 than were killed in the First World War.*
*A week after the accident he **died from** his injuries.*
different: see 155.
difficulty with something, (in) doing something (NOT ~~difficulties to~~ ...)
*I'm having **difficulty with** my travel arrangements.*
*You won't have much **difficulty (in) getting** to know people in Italy.*
disappointed with somebody
*My father never showed if he was **disappointed with** me.*
disappointed with/at/about something
*You must be pretty **disappointed with/at/about** your exam results.*
[a] **discussion about** something
*We had a long **discussion about** politics.*
[to] **discuss** something (no preposition)
*We'd better **discuss** your travel plans.*
divide into (NOT ~~in~~)
*The book is **divided into** three parts.*

dream of (= think of, imagine)
I often dreamed of being famous when I was younger.
dream about/of (while asleep)
What does it mean if you dream about/of mountains?
dress(ed) in (NOT ~~with~~)
Who's the woman dressed in green?
drive into (NOT ~~against~~)
Granny drove into a tree again yesterday.

enter into an agreement, a discussion etc
We've just entered into an agreement with Carsons Ltd.
enter a place (no preposition)
When I entered the room everybody stopped talking.
example of (NOT ~~for~~)
Sherry is an example of a fortified wine.
explain something **to** somebody (NOT ~~explain somebody something~~)
Could you explain this rule to me?

fight, struggle etc **with**
I've spent the last two weeks fighting with the tax office.
frightened of or **by**: see 410.5.

get in(to) and **out of** a car, taxi or small boat
When I got into my car, I found the radio had been stolen.
get on(to) and **off** a train, plane, bus, ship, (motor)bike or horse
We'll be getting off the train in ten minutes.
good at (NOT ~~in~~)
Are you any good at tennis?

[the] idea of . . .ing (NOT ~~the idea to~~. . .)
I don't like the idea of getting married yet.
ill with
The boss has been ill with flu this week.
impressed with/by
I'm very impressed with/by your work.
increase in activity, output etc (NOT ~~of~~)
I'd like to see a big increase in productivity.
independent, independence of or **from**
She got a job so that she could be independent of her parents.
When did India get its independence from Britain?
insist on (NOT ~~to~~)
George's father insisted on paying.
interest/interested in (NOT ~~for~~)
When did your interest in social work begin?
Not many people are interested in grammar.
interested to do /in doing something: see 299.16

kind to (NOT ~~with~~)
People have always been very kind to me.

lack of
Lack of time prevented me from writing.
[to] lack (no preposition)
Your mother lacks tact.
[to] be lacking in
She is lacking in tact.
laugh at
I hate being laughed at.
laugh about
We'll laugh about this one day.
leave somewhere (talking about the action of leaving)
I left London early, before the traffic got too heavy.
leave from somewhere (talking about the place)
Does the plane leave from Liverpool or Manchester?
listen to
If you don't listen to people, they won't listen to you.
look at (= point one's eyes at)
Stop looking at me like that.
look after (= take care of)
Thanks for looking after me when I was ill.
look for (= try to find)
Can you help me look for my keys?

make, made of/from: see 336.
marriage to; get/be married to (NOT ~~with~~)
Her marriage to Philip didn't last very long.
How long have you been married to Sheila?
marry somebody (no preposition)
She married her childhood sweetheart.

near (to): see 365.
nice to (NOT ~~with~~)
You weren't very nice to me last night.

operate on a patient
They operated on her yesterday evening.

pay for something that is bought (NOT ~~pay something~~)
Excuse me, sir. You haven't paid for your drink.
pleased with somebody
The boss is very pleased with you.
pleased with/about/at something
I wasn't very pleased with/about/at my exam results.
polite to (NOT ~~with~~)
Try to be polite to Uncle Richard for once
prevent ... from ...ing (NOT ~~to~~)
The noise from downstairs prevented me from sleeping.
proof of (NOT ~~for~~)
I want proof of your love. Lend me some money.

reason for (NOT ~~of~~)
*Nobody knows the **reason for** the accident.*
remind of (and see 499)
*She **reminds** me **of** a girl I was at school with.*
responsible/responsibility for (NOT ~~of~~)
*Who's **responsible for** the shopping this week?*
rude to (NOT ~~with~~)
*Peggy was pretty **rude to** my family last weekend.*
run into (= meet)
*I **ran into** Philip at Victoria Station this morning.*

search (without preposition) (= look through; look everywhere in/on)
*They **searched** everybody's luggage.*
*They **searched** the man in front of me from head to foot.*
search for (= look for)
*The customs were **searching for** drugs at the airport.*
shocked at/by
*I was terribly **shocked at/by** the news of Peter's accident.*
shout at (aggressive)
*If you don't stop **shouting at** me I'll come and hit you.*
shout to (= call to)
*Mary **shouted to** us to come in and swim.*
smile at
*If you **smile at** me like that I'll give you anything you want.*
sorry about something that has happened
*I'm **sorry about** your exam results.*
sorry for/about something that one has done
*I'm **sorry for/about** breaking your window.*
sorry for a person
*I feel really **sorry for** her children.*
speak to; speak with (especially AmE)
*Could I **speak to/with** your father for a moment?*
suffer from
*My wife is **suffering from** hepatitis.*
surprised at/by
*Everybody was **surprised at/by** the weather.*

take part in (NOT ~~at~~ OR ~~of~~)
*I don't want to **take part in** any more conferences.*
think of/about (NOT ~~think to~~)
*I'm **thinking of** studying medicine.*
*I've also **thought about** studying dentistry.*
the thought of (NOT ~~the thought to~~)
*I hate **the thought of** going back to work.*
throw ... at (aggressive)
*Stop **throwing** stones **at** the cars.*
throw ... to (in a game etc)
*If you get the ball, **throw** it **to** me.*
translate into (NOT ~~in~~)
*Could you **translate** this **into** Greek for me?*

trip over
*He **tripped over** the cat and fell downstairs.*
typical of (NOT ~~**for**~~)
*The wine's **typical of** the region.*

write: see 610.
wrong with
*What's **wrong with** Rachel today?*

For *of* after determiners like *some, most*, see 154.

450 prepositions (3): before particular words and expressions

This is a list of a few expressions which often cause problems. For other preposition + noun combinations, see a good dictionary.

at the cinema; at the theatre; **at** a party; **at** university
*What's on **at** the cinema this week?*

a book (written) **by** Joyce; a concerto (composed) **by** Mozart; a film (directed) **by** Orson Welles (NOT ~~**of**~~ OR ~~**from**~~)
*I've never read anything **by** Dickens.*
by car/bike/bus/train/boat/plane/land/sea/air; **on** foot (but **in** the car, **on** a bus etc)
*Let's take our time and go **by** boat.*

for ... reason
*My sister decided to go to America **for** several reasons.*

from ... point of view (NOT ~~**according to**~~ OR ~~**after**~~)
*Try to see it **from** my point of view.*

in ... opinion (NOT ~~**according to**~~ OR ~~**after**~~)
*In my **opinion**, she should have resigned earlier.*
in the end (= finally, after a long time)
In the end, I got a visa for Russia.
at the end (= at the point where something stops)
*I think the film's a bit weak **at** the end.*
in pen, pencil, ink etc
*Please fill in the form **in** ink.*
in a picture, photo etc (NOT ~~**on**~~)
*She looks much younger **in** this photo.*
in the rain, snow etc
*I like walking **in** the rain.*
in a suit, raincoat, shirt, skirt, hat etc
*Who's the man **in** the funny hat over there?*
in a ... voice
*Stop talking to me **in** that stupid voice.* ▸

on page 20 etc (NOT ~~in/at~~)
*There's a mistake **on page 120**.*
on the radio; on TV; on the phone
*Is there anything good **on TV** tonight?*
*It's Mrs Ellis **on the phone**: she says it's urgent.*
on time (= at the planned time, neither late nor early)
*Peter wants the meeting to start exactly **on time**.*
in time (= with enough time to spare, before the last moment)
*He would have died if they hadn't got him to the hospital **in time**.*

451 prepositions (4): expressions without prepositions

This is a list of some common expressions in which we do not use prepositions, or can leave them out.

1 *discuss, enter, marry, lack, resemble* and *approach*

These verbs are normally followed by direct objects without prepositions.
*We must **discuss your plans**.* (NOT . . . ~~*discuss about your plans*~~.)
*Conversation stopped as we **entered the church**.* (NOT . . . ~~*entered in(to) the church*~~.)
*She **married a friend** of her sister's.* (NOT . . . ~~*married with*~~ . . .)
*He's clever, but he **lacks experience**.* (NOT . . . ~~*lacks of*~~ . . .)
*The child does not **resemble either** of its parents.* (NOT . . . ~~*resemble to*~~ . . .)
*The train is now **approaching London Paddington**.* (NOT . . . ~~*approaching to*~~ . . .)

2 *next, last* etc

Prepositions are not used before a number of common expressions of time beginning *next, last, this, that* (sometimes), *one, every, each, some, any* (in an informal style), *all*.
*See you **next Monday**.* (NOT . . . ~~*on next Monday*~~.)
*The meeting's **this Thursday**.* *We met **one Tuesday** in August.*
*I'll never forget meeting you **that afternoon**.*
*Come **any day** you like.* *The party lasted **all night**.*
Note also *tomorrow morning, yesterday afternoon* etc.

3 days of the week

In an informal style, we sometimes leave out *on* before the names of the days of the week.
*Why don't you come for a drink **(on) Monday** evening?*

4 *a* meaning 'each'

No preposition is used in expressions like *three times a day, sixty miles an hour, eighty pence a kilo*.
*Private lessons cost £20 **an hour**.*

For *per* in expressions like these, see 389.20

5 *What time . . .?* etc

We usually leave out *at* before *what time.*

What time does Granny's train arrive?

(More natural than *At what time . . .?*)

In an informal style, we can also leave out *on* before *what/which day(s).*

What day is your hair appointment?

Which day do you have your music lesson?

6 *about*

In an informal style, *at* is often dropped before ***about*** + **time expression.**

I'll see you (at) about 3 o'clock.

7 'how long'

In an informal style, *for* is often left out in expressions that say how long something lasts.

I've been here (for) three weeks now. *How long are you staying (for)?*

8 measurement expressions etc after *be*

Expressions containing words like *height, weight, length, size, shape, age, colour* are usually connected to the subject of the clause by the verb *be,* without a preposition.

He is just the right height to be a policeman.

She's the same age as me.

His head's a funny shape.

I'm the same weight as I was twenty years ago.

What shoe size are you?

What colour are her eyes? (NOT ~~*Of what colour*~~ . . .?)

9 *(in) this way* etc

We often leave out *in* (especially in informal speech) in expressions like *(in) this way, (in) the same way, (in) another way* etc.

They plant corn (in) the same way their ancestors used to 500 years ago.

10 *home*

We do not use *to* before *home* (see 249).

I'm going home.

In informal English (especially American), *at* can be left out before *home.*

Is anybody home?

11 *place*

In an informal style, *to* can be dropped in some expressions with the word *place.* This is normal in American English.

Let's go (to) some place where it's quiet.

I always said you'd go places. (= become successful)

12 infinitive structures

Prepositions can be dropped in the structure **noun + infinitive + preposition** (see 285.5).

She has no money to buy food (with).

We have an hour to do it (in). ▸

This is particularly common with the noun *place*.
*We need **a place to live (in)**.* *She had **no place to go (to)**.*

For the use of prepositions after *near*, see 365.

452 prepositions (5): at the ends of clauses

1 introduction

A preposition often connects two things: (1) a noun, adjective or verb that comes before it, and (2) a 'prepositional object' – a noun phrase or pronoun that comes after the preposition.
*This is a present **for** you.* *He's looking **at** her.*
*I'm really angry **with** Joe.* *They live **in** a small village.*
In some structures we may put the prepositional object at or near the beginning of a clause. In this case, the preposition does not always go with it – it may stay together with 'its' noun, adjective or verb at the end of the clause. This happens especially in four cases:
wh-questions: *Who's the present **for**?*
relative structures: *Joe's the person that I'm angry **with**.*
passives: *She likes to be looked **at**.*
infinitive structures: *The village is pleasant to live **in**.*

2 *wh*-questions

When a question word is the object of a preposition, the preposition most often comes at the end of the clause, especially in informal usage.
*Who's the present **for**?* (*For whom is the present?* is extremely formal.)
*What are you looking **at**?*
*Who did you go **with**?*
*Where did she buy it **from**?*
*Which flight is the general travelling **on**?*
*What kind of films are you interested **in**?*
This also happens in indirect *wh*-questions, and in other *what*-clauses.
*Tell me **what** you're worried **about**.*
*What a lot of trouble I'm **in**!*
Some questions consist simply of **question word + preposition**.
*What **with**?* *Who **for**?*
However, this structure is unusual when there is a noun with the question word.
*With **what money**?* (NOT ~~*What money with?*~~)

3 relative clauses

When a relative pronoun (see 494) is the object of a preposition, the preposition also often goes at the end of the clause, especially in informal usage.
*Joe's the person **that** I'm angry **with**.* (Less formal than ... *with whom I am angry*.)
*This is the house **(that)** I told you **about**.*
(Less formal than ... *about which I told you*.)
*You remember the boy **(who)** I was going out **with**?*

She's the only woman (who) I've ever really been in love with.
That's what I'm afraid of.

Because *whom* is unusual in an informal style, it is very rare in clauses that end with prepositions (see 498.3,7).

4 passives

In passive structures (see 412–420), prepositions go with their verbs.

She likes to be looked at.
I don't know where he is – his bed hasn't been slept in.
Carol was operated on last night.

5 infinitive structures

Infinitive complements (see 284–285) can have prepositions with them.

The village is pleasant to live in.
She needs other children to play with.
Can you get me a chair to stand on?
I've got lots of music to listen to.
Their house isn't easy to get to.

6 exceptions

Many common adverbial expressions consist of **preposition + noun phrase** (e.g. *with great patience, in a temper*). In these cases, the preposition is closely connected with the noun, and is kept as near as possible to it; it cannot usually be moved to the end of a clause.

I admired the patience with which she spoke. (NOT ... ~~*the patience she spoke with.*~~)

During and *since* are not normally put at the ends of clauses.

During which period did it happen? (NOT ~~*Which period did it happen during?*~~)
Since when have you been working for her? (NOT ~~*When have you been working for her since?*~~)

7 formal structures

In a more formal style, a preposition is often put earlier in questions and relative structures, before the question word or relative pronoun.

With whom did she go?
It was the house about which he had told them.
She was the only woman with whom he had ever been in love.

This can also happen in infinitive complements, in a very formal style. A relative pronoun is used.

She needs other children with whom to play.
It is a boring place in which to live.

Note that after prepositions *which* and *whom* can be used, but not normally *who* and *that*.

Even in a very formal style, prepositions are not often put at the beginning of questions which have *be* as the main verb.

Who is it for, madam? (NOT ~~*For whom is it?*~~)

And the structures *where ... to, what ... like* and *what ... for* have a fixed order.

Where shall I send it to? (BUT NOT ~~*To where shall I send it?*~~) ▸

What does she look like? (BUT NOT ~~*Like what does she look?*~~)
What did you buy that for? (BUT NOT ~~*For what did you buy that?*~~)

Prepositions cannot be moved away from passive verbs even in a formal style.
In my family, money was never spoken about. (NOT ... ~~*about money was never spoken.*~~)

For more information about formal and informal language, see 311.
For sentences like *It's got a hole in (it)*; *I like cakes with cream on (them)*, see 177.13.

453 prepositions (6): before conjunctions

Prepositions can be followed by conjunctions in some cases but not in others.

1 indirect speech: prepositions dropped before *that*

Prepositions are not used directly before the conjunction *that*. In indirect speech – after words that refer to saying, writing, thinking etc – prepositions are usually dropped before *that*-clauses. Compare:

– *I knew about his problems.*
I knew that he had problems.
(NOT ~~*I knew about that he had problems.*~~)
– *She had no idea of my state of mind.*
She had no idea that I was unhappy.
(NOT ~~*She had no idea of that I was unhappy.*~~)
– *I wasn't aware of the time.*
I wasn't aware that it was so late.
(NOT ~~*I wasn't aware of that it was so late.*~~)

2 emotional reactions: prepositions dropped

Prepositions are also dropped before *that* after many common words that refer to emotional reactions. Compare:

– *We are sorry about the delay.*
We are sorry that the train is late.
(NOT ... ~~*sorry about that the train is late.*~~)

– *I was surprised at her strength.*
I was surprised that she was so strong.
(NOT ... ~~*surprised at that she was*~~ ...)

3 *the fact that*

In other cases (not involving indirect speech or words referring to emotional reactions) prepositions cannot so often be dropped before *that*-clauses. Instead, the expression *the fact* (see 583.3) is generally put between the preposition and *that*.

The judge paid a lot of attention to the fact that the child was unhappy at home. (NOT ~~*The judge paid a lot of attention (to) that the child*~~ ...)
He said the parents were responsible for the fact that the child had run away. (NOT ... ~~*responsible (for) that the child had run away.*~~)

4 question words

After some very common words like *tell, ask, depend, sure, idea, look,* prepositions can be dropped before *who, which, what* and other question words. This is especially common in indirect questions. Compare:

– *Tell me **about** your trip.*
*Tell me (about) **where** you went.*
– *I **asked** her **about** her religious beliefs.*
*I **asked** her **whether** she believed in God.*
(More natural than *I asked her about whether she believed in God.*)
– *We may be late – it **depends on** the traffic.*
*We may be late – it **depends (on) how** much traffic there is.*
– *I'm **not sure of** his method.*
*I'm **not sure how** he does it.*
(More natural than *I'm not sure of how he does it.*)
– *Look **at** this.*
*Look (at) **what** I've got.*

In other cases it is unusual or impossible to leave out the preposition.
*I'm **worried about** where she is.* (NOT ~~*I'm worried where she is.*~~)
*The police **questioned** me **about** what I'd seen.* (NOT ~~*The police questioned me what I'd seen.*~~)
*There's the **question of** who's going to pay.*
(More natural than ... *the question who's going to pay.*)
*People's chances **of** getting jobs vary **according to** whether they live in the North or the South.* (NOT ... ~~*according whether*~~ ...)

If does not normally follow prepositions; we use *whether* (see 621) instead.
*I'm **worried about** whether you're happy.* (NOT ~~*I'm worried about if*~~ ...)

For the structures (with and without preposition) that are possible after a particular verb, noun or adjective, see a good dictionary.

454 prepositions (7): -ing forms and infinitives

Prepositions are not normally used before infinitives in English. After **verb/noun/adjective + preposition**, we usually use the *-ing* form of a following verb.
*He insisted **on being** paid at once.* (NOT ~~*He insisted on to be paid*~~ ...)
*I don't like the idea **of getting** married.* (NOT ... ~~*the idea of to get married.*~~)
*I'm not very good **at cooking**.* (NOT ... ~~*good at to cook.*~~)

In some cases we drop the preposition and use an infinitive. Compare:
– *He **asked for** a loan.*
*He **asked to** borrow some money.*
– *We're travelling **for** pleasure.*
*We're travelling **to** enjoy ourselves.*
– *She was **surprised at** his mistake.*
*She was **surprised to** see what he had done.*

Sometimes two structures are possible. There is often a difference of meaning or use. For more details, see 299.
*I'm **interested in** learning more about my family.*
*I was **interested to** learn that my grandfather was Jewish.*

For details of the structures that are possible after a particular verb, noun or adjective, see a good dictionary.

455 present perfect (1): basic information

This entry deals with the simple present perfect. For the present perfect progressive, see 458–459.

1 forms

have/has + past participle

I have broken my glasses.
Have you finished? *She hasn't phoned.*

In older English, some present perfect forms were made with *be*, not *have* (e.g. *Winter is come*). This does not normally happen in modern English (for exceptions, see 205 and 213).

For details of question structures, see 480–486. For negatives, see 367–371.
For passive forms (e.g. *The work has been done*), see 412.

2 other languages

In some other languages there are verb forms which are constructed like the English present perfect (compare English *I have worked*, French *j'ai travaillé*, German *ich habe gearbeitet*, Italian *ho lavorato*, Spanish *he trabajado*). Note that the English present perfect is used rather differently from most of these.

3 finished events connected with the present

We use the present perfect especially to say that a finished action or event is connected with the present in some way. If we say that something has happened, we are thinking about the past and the present at the same time.

*I can't go on holiday because I **have broken** my leg.* (NOT ~~*I can't go on holiday because I broke my leg.*~~)

We could often change a present perfect sentence into a present sentence with a similar meaning.

*I've **broken** my leg. → My leg **is broken** now.*
*Have you **read** the Bible. → Do you **know** the Bible?*
*Some fool **has let** the cat in. → The cat **is** in.*
*Utopia **has invaded** Fantasia. → Utopia **is at war with** Fantasia.*
*Mary **has had** a baby. → Mary now **has** a baby.*
*Our dog **has died**. → Our dog **is dead**.*
*All the wars in history **have taught** us nothing. → We **know** nothing.*

The present perfect is often used to express the idea of completion or achievement.

*At last! I've **finished**!*
*Have you **done** all the housework?*

We do not use the present perfect if we are not thinking about the present (see 456.1). Compare:

*I've **travelled** in Africa a lot.* (= I know Africa.)
*Some people think that Shakespeare **travelled** a lot in Germany.* (NOT ~~*Some people think that Shakespeare has travelled*~~ . . .)

present perfect: thinking about the past and present at the same time

*I can't go on holiday because I've **broken** my leg.*

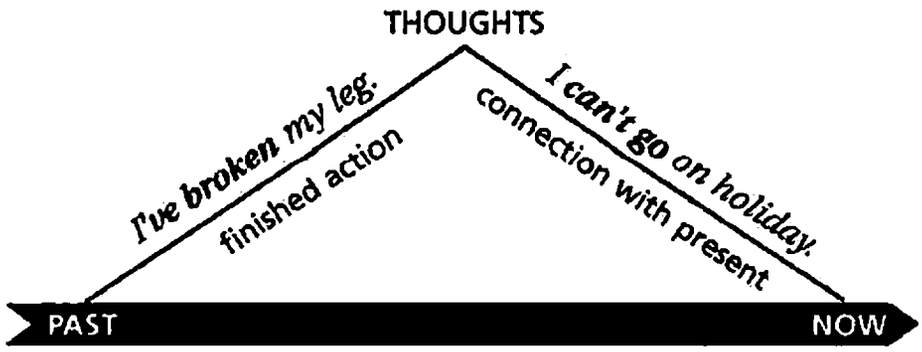

4 finished events: news

We normally use the present perfect to announce news of recent events.

*Andy **has won** a big prize!*
*Have you heard? Uncle George **has crashed** the car again.*
*Here are the main points of the news. The pound **has fallen** against the dollar. The Prime Minister **has said** that the government's economic policies are working. The number of unemployed **has reached** five million. There **has been** a fire . . .*

After announcing news, we usually use the simple past to give more details. (see 456.5).

*Uncle George **has crashed** the car again. He **ran** into a tree in High Street.*

present perfect for news

*Uncle George **has crashed** the car again.*

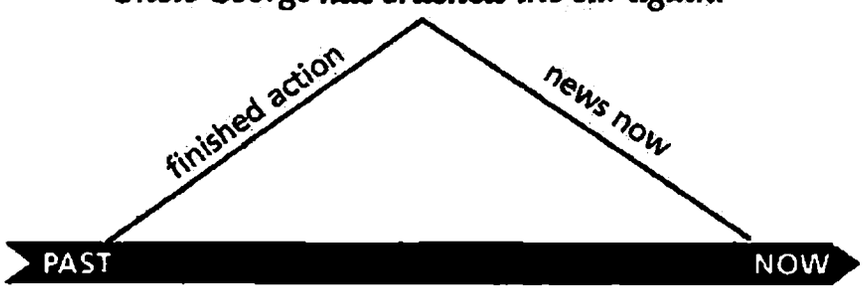

simple past for details

*He **ran** into a tree in High Street.*

5 time words: *ever, before, recently* etc

When we talk about finished events with words that mean 'at some/any time up to now' (like *ever, before, never, yet, recently, lately, already*), we normally use the present perfect.

Have you ever seen a ghost? *She's never said 'sorry' in her life.*
I'm sure we've met before. *Has the postman come yet?*
We haven't seen Beth recently.
Could you clean the car? ~ *I've already done it.*

6 repetition up to now: *I've written six letters ...*

We can use the present perfect to say that something has happened several times up to the present.

I've written six letters since lunchtime.

Adverbs of frequency like *often, sometimes, occasionally* are common with the present perfect.

How often have you been in love in your life?
I've sometimes thought of moving to Australia.

7 continuation up to now: *I've known her for years*

To talk about actions and situations that have continued up to the present, both the simple present perfect and the present perfect progressive are possible (depending on the kind of verb and the exact meaning – for details, see 459).

I've known her for years. (NOT ~~*I know her for years.*~~ – see 460.1)
I've been thinking about you all day.

For present perfect tenses in clauses referring to the future (e.g. *I'll take a rest when I've finished cleaning the kitchen*), see 580.

456 present perfect (2): perfect or past?

1 thinking about past and present together

We use the present perfect if we are thinking about the past and present together. We do not use the present perfect if we are not thinking about the present. Compare:

- *My sister has learnt French.* (She can speak French now.)
  Shakespeare probably learnt Italian. (NOT ~~*Shakespeare has probably learnt Italian.*~~)
- *We've studied enough to pass the exam.* (The exam is still to come.)
  We studied enough to pass the exam. (The exam is over.)
- *Ann and Peter have got married!* (news)
  My parents got married in Canada.

We do not use the present perfect in story-telling.

Once upon a time a beautiful princess fell in love with a poor farmer.
(NOT ... ~~*has fallen in love*~~ ...)

thinking about the past and present together: present perfect

*My sister **has learnt** French.* (= She can speak French now.)

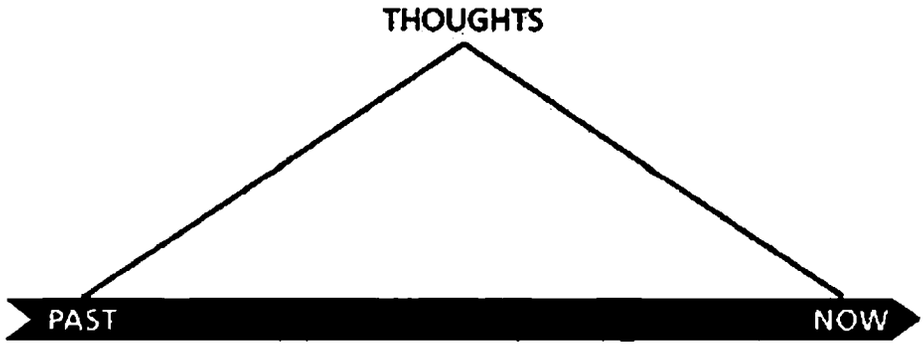

only thinking about the past: simple past

*Shakespeare probably **learnt** Italian.*

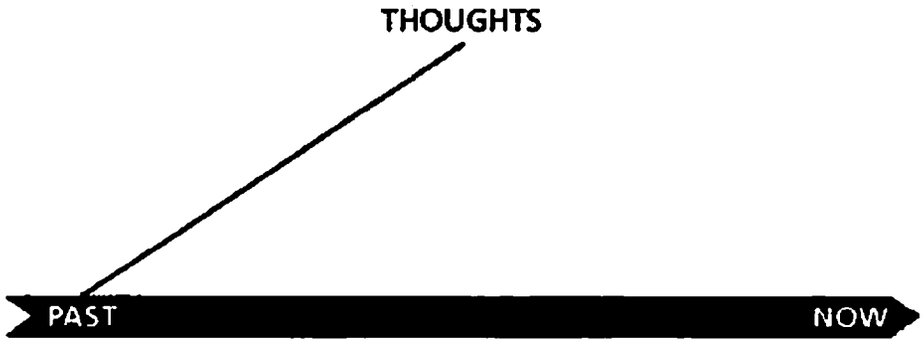

2 finished-time words: present perfect not used

We do not often use the present perfect with words that refer to a completely finished period of time, like *yesterday, last week, then, when, three years ago, in 1970.* This is because the present perfect focuses on the present, and words like these focus on the past, so they contradict each other. Compare:

- *Have you seen Lucy anywhere?*
  I saw Lucy yesterday. (NOT ~~*I have seen Lucy yesterday.*~~)
- *Tom **has hurt** his leg; he can't walk.*
  *Tom **hurt** his leg last week.* (NOT ~~*Tom has hurt his leg last week.*~~)
- *What **have** you **done** with the car keys? I can't find them.*
  *What **did** you **do** then?* (NOT ~~*What have you done then?*~~)
- *My brother **has had** an accident. He's in hospital.*
  *When **did** the accident **happen**?* (NOT ~~*When has the accident happened?*~~)
- *All my friends **have moved** to London.*
  *Eric **moved** three years ago.* (NOT ~~*Eric has moved three years ago.*~~)

For tenses with *just* and *just now*, see 307. ▶

3 *ever, before, recently* etc

But with words that mean 'at some/any time up to now' (like *ever, before, never, yet, recently, already*), we normally use the present perfect (see 455.5).

Have you ever been to Chicago? *I've seen this film before.*

4 time not mentioned

We use the present perfect when we are thinking of a period of 'time up to now', even if we do not mention it.

Have you seen 'Romeo and Juliet'? (= Have you ever seen it? or Have you seen the present production?)

You've done a lot for me. (... up to now)

On the other hand, we do not use the present perfect when we are thinking of a particular finished time, even if we do not mention it.

Did you see 'Romeo and Juliet'? (It was on TV last night.)

My grandfather did a lot for me. (... when he was alive)

5 news and details

We normally use the present perfect to announce news (see 455.4).

But when we give more details, we usually change to a past tense.

Joe has passed his exam! He got 87%.

There has been a plane crash near Bristol. Witnesses say that there was an explosion as the aircraft was taking off, ...

The Prime Minister has had talks with President Kumani. During a three-hour meeting, they discussed the economic situation, and agreed on the need for closer trade links between the two countries.

For more details, exceptions and notes on American usage, see 457.6.

457 present perfect (3): perfect or past (advanced points)

1 causes and origins: *Who gave you that?*

We normally use the present perfect when we are thinking about past events together with their present results (see 455.3).

I can't come to your party because I've broken my leg.

However, we usually prefer a past tense when we identify the person, thing or circumstances responsible for a present situation (because we are thinking about the past cause, not the present result). Compare:

- *Look what John's given me!* (thinking about the gift)
  Who gave you that? (thinking about the past action of giving)
- *Some fool has let the cat in.*
  Who let that cat in?

Other examples:

Why are you crying? ~ Granny hit me. (NOT ... ~~*Granny has hit me.*~~)

I'm glad you were born. *How did you get that bruise?*

That's a nice picture. Did you paint it yourself?

Some people think that 'Pericles' was not written by Shakespeare.

The Chinese invented paper. (NOT ~~*The Chinese have invented paper.*~~)

2 expectation and reality: *You're older than I thought*

We use a past tense to refer to a belief that has just been shown to be true or false.

It's not as big as I ***expected.*** (NOT ... ~~*as I have expected.*~~)
You're older than I ***thought.*** (NOT ... ~~*than I have thought.*~~)
But you ***promised*** ... *!* (NOT ~~*But you have promised*~~ ... *!*)
I ***knew*** *you would help me!* (NOT ~~*I have known*~~ ...*!*)

3 *today, this week* etc

With definite expressions of 'time up to now' (e.g. *today, this week*), perfect and past tenses are often both possible. We prefer the present perfect if we are thinking of the whole period up to now. We prefer the simple past if we are thinking of a finished part of that period. Compare:

- *I* ***haven't seen*** *John this week.* (the whole week up to now – present perfect more natural)
  I ***saw*** *John this week, and he said* ... (earlier in the week – simple past more natural)
- *Has Ann* ***phoned*** *today?* (meaning 'any time up to now')
  Did Ann ***phone*** *today?* (meaning 'earlier, when the call was expected')

4 *always, ever* and *never*

In an informal style, simple past tenses are sometimes possible with *always, ever* and *never* when they refer to 'time up to now'.

I ***always knew*** *I could trust you.* (OR *I've always known* ...)
Did you ***ever see*** *anything like that before?* (OR *Have you ever seen* ...*?*)

5 present perfect with past time expressions

Grammars usually say that the present perfect cannot be used together with expressions of finished time – we can say *I have seen him* or *I saw him yesterday*, but not ~~*I have seen him yesterday*~~. In fact, such structures are unusual but not impossible (though learners should avoid them). They often occur in brief news items, where space is limited and there is pressure to announce the news and give the details in the same clause.
Here are some real examples taken from news broadcasts, newspaper articles, advertisements, letters and conversations.

Police ***have arrested*** *more than 900 suspected drugs traffickers in raids throughout the country* ***on Friday and Saturday.***
... *a runner who's* ***beaten*** *Linford Christie* ***earlier this year.***
A 24-year-old soldier ***has been killed*** *in a road accident* ***last night.***
The horse's trainer ***has had*** *a winner here* ***yesterday.***
... *indicating that the geological activity* ***has taken place a very long time ago.***
Perhaps what ***has helped*** *us to win eight major awards* ***last year alone*** ...
I ***have stocked*** *the infirmary cupboard* ***only yesterday.***
I am pleased to confirm that Lloyds Bank ... ***has opened*** *a Home Loan account for you* ***on 19th May.***

▶

6 simple past for news

Recently, some British newspapers have started regularly using the simple past for smaller news announcements – probably to save space. This also happens on TV text news pages. Some authentic examples:

*An unnamed Ulster **businessman was shot** dead by terrorists . . .*
*A woman **was jailed** for six months after taking a baby boy from his mother.*
*Driving wind and rain **forced** 600 out of 2,500 teenagers to abandon the annual 'Ten Tor' trek across Dartmoor.*

7 American English

In American English the simple past is often used to give news.

***Did you hear? Switzerland declared / has declared** war on Mongolia!*
(BrE *Have you heard? Switzerland has declared war . . .*)
*Uh, honey, I **lost** / I've **lost** the keys* (BrE *. . . I've lost . . .*)
*Lucy just **called**.* (BrE *Lucy has just called.*)

In American English, it is also possible to use the simple past with indefinite past-time adverbs like *already, yet, ever* and *before.*

Did you eat already? OR ***Have you eaten . . .?*** (BrE *Have you eaten already?*)
I didn't call** Bobby yet* OR ***I haven't called . . . (BrE *I haven't called . . .*)

British English is changing under American influence, so some of these uses are becoming common in Britain as well.

For more about tenses with *just*, see 307.
For more about British-American differences, see 51.

8 bad rules (1): 'definite time'

Grammars sometimes say that the present perfect is not used with expressions referring to 'definite time'. This is confusing – the present perfect is not often used with **finished** time expressions, but it actually is very common with **definite** time expressions. Compare:

I've lived here for exactly three years, seven months and two days.
(present perfect with very definite time-reference)
Once upon a time a little girl lived with her mother in a lonely house in a dark forest. (simple past with very indefinite time-reference)

9 bad rules (2): 'finished actions'

Note also that the choice between simple present perfect and simple past does not depend on whether we are talking about finished **actions**, as learners' grammars sometimes suggest (though it can depend on whether we are talking about finished **time periods**). Compare:

*That cat **has eaten** your supper.* (finished action – present perfect)
*I **ate** the last of the eggs this morning.* (finished action – simple past)

10 bad rules (3): 'recent actions'

The choice also does not depend directly on whether actions and events are recent. Recent events are more likely to be 'news', and we are more likely to be concerned about their present results, so many present perfect sentences are in fact about recent events. But it is possible to use the present perfect to talk about things that happened a long time ago. Compare:

*The French revolution has **influenced** every popular radical movement in Europe since 1800.* (200-year-old event – present perfect)
*Ann **phoned** five minutes ago.* (very recent event – simple past)

11 both possible

The difference between the present perfect and the simple past is not always very clear-cut. It often depends on our 'focus': are we thinking mostly about the present relevance of a past event, or about the past details? In some cases both present perfect and past are possible with little difference of meaning.
*We (have) **heard** that you have rooms to let.*
*Has Mark **phoned**?* OR *Did Mark **phone**?*
*I've **given** / I **gave** your old radio to Philip.*

458 present perfect (4): progressive (or 'continuous')

1 forms

have/has been + -ing

I have been thinking about you.
Have you been waiting long?
I haven't been studying very well recently.

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping,* see 562.

2 continuing actions and situations

We use the present perfect progressive to look back over actions and situations which started in the past and are still going on.
*I've **been working** very hard recently.*
*It's **been raining** all day. I'm tired of it.*
*House prices **have been going** up steadily all this year.*
We often use the present perfect progressive to talk about people's use of their time up to the present.
*Hi! What **have you been doing** with yourself? ~ I've **been trying** to write a novel.*
*That kid **has been watching** TV non-stop since breakfast.*

present perfect progressive: actions and situations which started in the past and are still going on

*House prices **have been going** up steadily this year.*

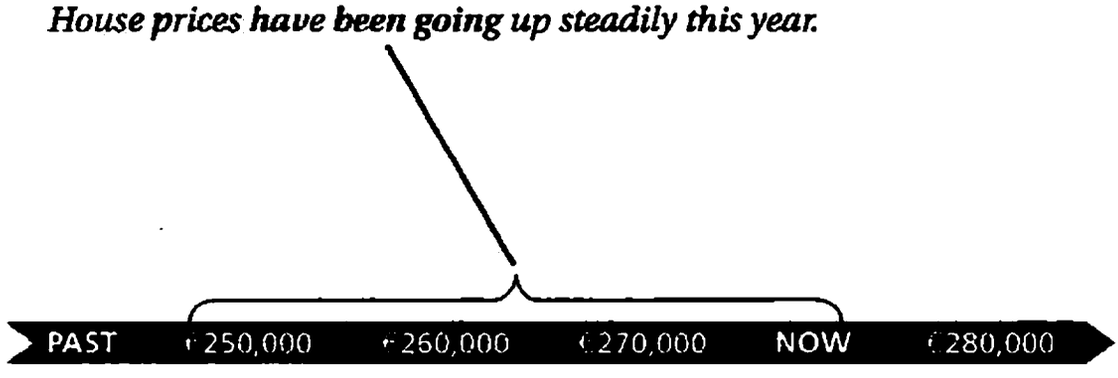

3 actions and situations that have just stopped

We also use the present perfect progressive for actions and situations which have just stopped, but which have present results.

*You look hot. ~ Yes, I've **been running**.*
*Sorry I'm late. **Have you been waiting** long?*
*I must just go and wash. I've **been gardening**.*

4 repeated actions

We can use the present perfect progressive for repeated as well as continuous activity.

*People **have been phoning** me all day.*
*I've **been waking** up in the night a lot. I think I'll see the doctor.*

5 time expressions: *recently, lately, this week, since ..., for ...*, etc

We often use the present perfect progressive with words that refer to a period of time continuing up to now, like *recently, lately, this week, since January, for the last three days.*

*The firm **has been losing** money recently.*
*John's **been walking** in Scotland all this week.*
*I've **been doing** a new job since January.*
*It's **been raining** for the last three days.*

For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.

6 not used with finished time expressions

We cannot use the present perfect progressive with expressions that refer to a finished period of time.

*You look tired. ~ Yes. I **was cycling** from midday until five o'clock.*
(NOT ... ~~*I've been cycling from midday until five o'clock.*~~)

7 how long?

We use the present perfect progressive, not the present progressive, to talk about how long something has been happening.

*How long **have you been studying** English?* (NOT ~~*How long are you studying*~~...?)
*I've **been working** here for two months.* (NOT ~~*I'm working here for two months.*~~)

For details, see 460.

8 present perfect progressive and (simple) present perfect

In some cases, we can also use the simple present perfect to talk about actions and situations continuing up to the present. Compare:

– *How long **have you been working** with her?*
  *How long **have you known** her?*
– *That man **has been standing** on the corner all day.*
  *For 900 years the castle **has stood** on the hill above the village.*

For the differences, see 459.

459 present perfect (5): simple or progressive?

1 non-progressive verbs

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is one for which a progressive form is more suitable. Common examples are *be*, *have* and *know*.

*John's **been** ill all week.* (NOT ~~*John's been being ill*~~...)
*She's **had** a cold since Monday.* (NOT ~~*She's been having a cold*~~...)
*I've only **known** her for two days.* (NOT ~~*I've only been knowing her*~~...)

2 temporary or permanent

We use progressive forms mostly for shorter, temporary actions and situations. When we talk about longer-lasting or permanent situations we often prefer the simple present perfect. Compare:

- *That man **has been standing** on the corner all day.*
  *For 900 years the castle **has stood** on the hill above the village.*
- *I **haven't been working** very well recently.*
  *He **hasn't worked** for years.*
- *I've **been living** in Sue's flat for the last month.*
  *My parents **have lived** in Bristol all their lives.*

Progressive and simple tenses are sometimes both possible, with a slight difference of emphasis.

It's been raining / It's rained steadily since last Saturday.
*Harry **has been working / has worked** in the same job for thirty years.*

We generally use the progressive to talk about continuous change or development, even if this is permanent.

*Scientists believe that the universe **has been expanding** steadily since the beginning of time.*

3 *how much? how often?* simple present perfect

We use the simple present perfect to say how much we have done, or how often we have done something. Compare:

- *I've **been planting** rose bushes all afternoon.*
  *Look at all the rose bushes I've **planted**!* (NOT ...~~*I've been planting*~~.)
- *We've **been painting** the house.*
  *We've **painted** two rooms since lunchtime.* (NOT ~~*We've been painting two rooms since lunchtime*~~.)
- *I've **been playing** a lot of tennis recently.*
  I've played tennis three times this week.

460 present perfect (6): present perfect or present?

1 *how long?* present perfect

We use a present perfect to say how long a situation or action has continued up to now. Compare:

- *It's **raining** again.*
  *It's **been raining** since Christmas.* (NOT ~~*It's raining since Christmas*~~.)
- *Are you **learning** English?*
  *How long **have you been learning**?* (NOT ~~*How long are you learning?*~~) ▸

– *I hear you're working at Smiths.* ~ *Yes, I've been working there for a month.*
(NOT ~~*I'm working there for*~~ . . .)
– *I know her well.*
I've known her for years. (NOT ~~*I know her for years.*~~)
– *My brother's a doctor.*
How long has he been a doctor? (NOT ~~*How long is he a doctor?*~~)

Compare also:
How long are you here for? (= until when; when are you leaving?)
How long have you been here for? (= since when; when did you arrive?)

For the difference between simple and progressive forms, see 459.
For the difference between *since* and *for*, see 208.
For tenses with *since*, see 522.

2 *This is the first time* etc

We use a simple present perfect after *this is the first time that . . . , it's the second . . . that . . . ,* and similar structures (see 591).

This is the first time that I've heard her sing. (NOT ~~*This is the first time that I hear her sing.*~~)
It's the fifth time you've asked me the same question.
This is only the second opera I've ever seen.

For present perfect and simple present passives with similar meanings (e.g. *The shop has been / is closed*), see 420.

461 present tenses (1): introduction

1 the two present tenses

Most English verbs have two present tenses. Forms like *I wait, she thinks* are called 'simple present' or 'present simple'; forms like *I am waiting* or *she's thinking* are called 'present progressive' or 'present continuous'. The two present tenses are used in different ways.

2 general time: simple present

When we talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly or all the time (not just around now), we usually use the simple present (see 462–463 for details).

My parents live near Dover. *Water freezes at 0° Celsius.*
I go to London about three times a week.

3 around now: present progressive

When we talk about temporary continuing actions and events, which are just going on now or around now, we usually use a present progressive tense (see 464 for details).

What are you doing? ~ *I'm reading.*
I'm travelling a lot these days.

4 future time

Both present tenses can be used to talk about the future.
I'll meet you when you arrive.
Come and see us next week if you're passing through London.

For the differences, see 463–464, 466.

462 present tenses (2): simple present (forms)

1 forms

Affirmative	Question	Negative
I work	do I work?	I do not work
you work	do you work?	you do not work
he/she/it works	does he/she/it work?	he/she/it does not work
we work	do we work?	we do not work
they work	do they work?	they do not work

– Contracted negatives (see 143): *I don't work, he doesn't work* etc
– Negative questions (see 368): *do I not work?* or *don't I work?* etc

For passives (e.g. *The work is done*), see 412.

2 spelling of third person singular forms

Most verbs: add *-s* to infinitive	*work → works* *sit → sits* *stay → stays*
Verbs ending in consonant + *y*: change *y* to *i* and add *-es* But (vowel + *y*):	*cry → cries* *hurry → hurries* *reply → replies* *enjoy → enjoys*
Verbs ending in *-s*, *-z*, *-ch*, *-sh* or *-x*: add *-es* to infinitive	*miss → misses* *buzz → buzzes* *watch → watches* *push → pushes* *fix → fixes*
Exceptions:	*have → has* *go → goes* *do → does*

3 pronunciation of third person singular forms

The pronunciation of the *-(e)s* ending depends on the sound that comes before it. The rules are the same as for the plural *-(e)s* ending – see 525.
Irregular pronunciations: *says* (/sez/, not /seɪz/); *does* (/dʌz/, not /duːz/).

463 present tenses (3): simple present (use)

1 general time: *It always rains in November*

We often use the simple present to talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly, repeatedly or all the time.

What do frogs eat? (NOT ~~*What are frogs eating?*~~)
It always rains here in November.
I play tennis every Wednesday.
Alice works for an insurance company.

simple present: permanent situations

Alice works for an insurance company.

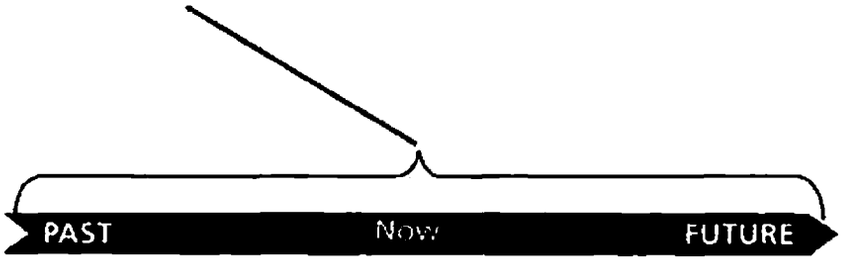

simple present: things that happen repeatedly

I play tennis every Wednesday.

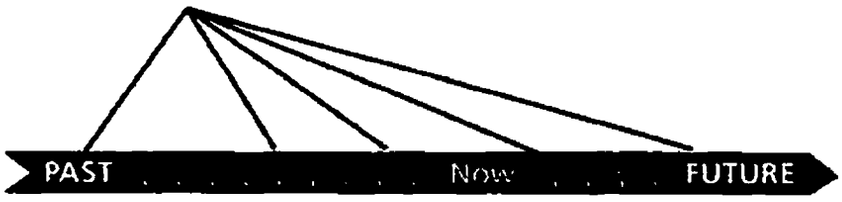

2 not used for things happening just around the present

We do not usually use the simple present to talk about temporary situations or actions that are only going on around the present. Compare:

- *Water boils at 100° Celsius.*
  The kettle's boiling – shall I make tea? (NOT ~~*The kettle boils*~~ . . .)
- *It usually snows in January.*
  Look – it's snowing! (NOT ~~*Look – It snows!*~~)
- *I play tennis every Wednesday.*
  Where's Bernard? ~ He's playing tennis. (NOT . . . ~~*He plays tennis.*~~)

3 non-progressive verbs

However, the simple present is used for this 'around the present' meaning with verbs that do not have progressive forms (see 471).

I like this wine very much. (NOT ~~*I'm liking*~~ . . .)
I believe you. (NOT ~~*I'm believing you.*~~)

4 talking about the future

We do not normally use the simple present to talk about the future.

*I promise I **won't** smoke any more.* (NOT ~~*I promise I don't smoke any more.*~~)
*We're **going** to the theatre this evening.* (NOT ~~*We go to the theatre this evening.*~~)
*There's the doorbell. ~ I'll **get** it.* (NOT ~~*I get it.*~~)

However, the simple present is used for 'timetabled' future events (see 215).

*His train **arrives** at 11.46.* *I **start** my new job tomorrow.*

And the simple present is often used instead of *will* ... in subordinate clauses that refer to the future. (For details, see 580).

*I'll kill anybody who **touches** my possessions.* (NOT ... ~~*who will touch*~~ ...)
*I'll phone you when I **get** home.* (NOT ... ~~*when I'll get home.*~~)

The simple present is also used in suggestions with *Why don't you ...?*

*Why **don't** you **take** a day off tomorrow?*

5 series of events: demonstrations, commentaries, instructions, stories

When we talk about series of completed actions and events, we often use the simple present. This happens, for example, in demonstrations, commentaries, instructions and present-tense stories (see 465 for more details).

*First I **take** a bowl and **break** two eggs into it. Next ...* (NOT ~~*First I am taking a bowl*~~ ...)
*Lydiard **passes** to Taylor, Taylor **shoots** – and it's a goal!*
*How **do** I **get** to the station? ~ You **go** straight on to the traffic lights, then you **turn** left, ...*
*So I **go** into the office, and I **see** this man, and he **says** to me ...*

6 *how long?* present tenses not used

We use a perfect tense, not a present tense, to say how long a present action or situation has been going on. (See 460 for details.)

*I've **known** her since 1960.* (NOT ~~*I know her since 1960.*~~)

464 present tenses (4): progressive (or 'continuous')

1 present progressive: forms

am/are/is + -ing

*I **am waiting**.*
*Are you **listening**?* *She isn't **working** today.*

For double letters in words like *sitting, stopping*, see 562.
For passive forms (e.g. *The work **is being done***), see 412.

2 use: 'around now'

We use the present progressive to talk about temporary actions and situations that are going on now or 'around now': before, during and after the moment of speaking.

*Hurry up! We're all **waiting** for you!* (NOT ~~*We all wait*~~ ...)
*What are you **doing**? ~ I'm **writing** letters.* (NOT ... ~~*I write letters.*~~) ▸

Why are you crying? Is something wrong? (NOT ~~*Why do you cry?*~~ . . .)
He's working in Saudi Arabia at the moment.

present progressive: temporary actions and situations going on now or around now

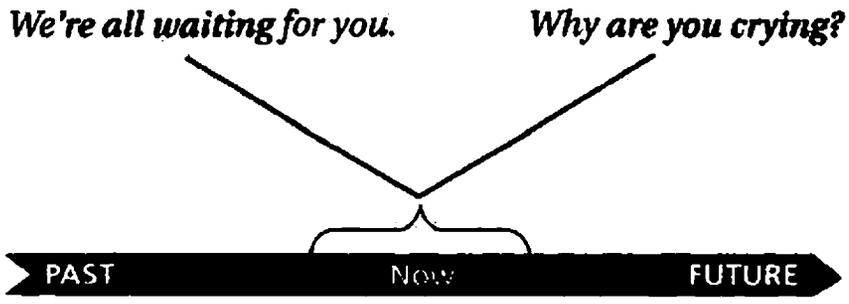

3 repeated actions

The present progressive can refer to repeated actions and events, if these are just happening around the present (for more details, see 466).

Why is he hitting the dog? *I'm travelling a lot these days.*

4 changes

We also use the present progressive to talk about developments and changes.

That child's getting bigger every day. *House prices are going up again.*

5 talking about the future

We often use the present progressive to talk about the future (see 214).

What are you doing tomorrow evening?
Come and see us next week if you're passing through London.

6 things that happen all the time: not used

We do not normally use the present progressive to talk about permanent situations, or about things that happen regularly, repeatedly or all the time. Compare:

- *Look – the cat's eating your breakfast!*
  What do bears eat? ~ Everything. (NOT ~~*What are bears eating?*~~ . . .)
- *Why is that girl standing on the table?*
  Chetford Castle stands on a hill outside the town. (NOT . . . ~~*is standing*~~ . . .)
- *My sister's living at home for the moment.*
  Your parents live in North London, don't they?

7 verbs not used in progressive forms

Some verbs are not used in progressive forms (see 471), even if the meaning is 'just around now'.

I like this wine. (NOT ~~*I'm liking this wine.*~~)
Do you believe what he says? (NOT ~~*Are you believing*~~ . . .?)
The tank contains about 7,000 litres at the moment. (NOT ~~*The tank is containing*~~ . . .)

8 how long? present tenses not used

We use a perfect tense, not a present tense, to say how long something has been going on. (See 460 for details.)

*I've **been learning** English for three years.* (NOT ~~*I'm learning English for three years.*~~)

465 present tenses (5): stories, commentaries and instructions

1 stories

Present tenses are often used informally to tell stories. The simple present is used for the events – the things that happen one after another. The present progressive is used for 'background' – things that are already happening when the story starts, or that continue through the story. (This is like the difference between the simple past and past progressive: see 422.)

*So I **open** the door, and I **look** out into the garden, and I **see** this man. He's **wearing** pyjamas and a policeman's helmet. 'Hello,' he **says** ...*

*There's this Scotsman, you see, and he's **walking** through the jungle when he **meets** a gorilla. And the gorilla's **eating** a snake sandwich. So the Scotsman **goes** up to the gorilla ...*

The simple present is common in summaries of plays, stories, etc.

*In Act I, Hamlet **sees** the ghost of his father. The ghost **tells** him ...*

*Chapter 2: Henry **goes** to Scotland and **meets** the Loch Ness Monster.*

2 commentaries

In commentaries, the use of tenses is similar. The simple present is used for the quicker actions and events (which are finished before the sentences that describe them); the present progressive is used for longer actions and situations. There are more simple and fewer progressive tenses in a football commentary, for instance, than in a commentary on a boat race.

*Smith **passes** to Devaney, Devaney to Barnes – and Harris **intercepts** ... Harris **passes** back to Simms, nice ball – and Simms **shoots**!*

*Oxford **are pulling** slightly ahead of Cambridge now; they're **rowing** with a beautiful rhythm; Cambridge **are looking** a little disorganised ...*

3 instructions and demonstrations

We often use present tenses in a similar way to give instructions, demonstrations and directions.

*OK, let's go over it again. You **wait** outside the bank until the manager **arrives**. Then you **radio** Louie, who's **waiting** round the corner, and he **drives** round to the front entrance. You and Louie **grab** the manager ...*

*First I **put** a lump of butter into a frying pan and **light** the gas; then while the butter's **melting** I **break** three eggs into a bowl, like this ...*

*How **do** I get to the station? ~ You **go** straight on to the traffic lights, then you **turn** left ...*

466 present tenses (6): advanced points

1 repeated actions: simple or progressive?

The present progressive can refer to repeated actions and events, if these are happening around the moment of speaking.

Why is he hitting the dog?
Jake's seeing a lot of Felicity these days.

But we do not use the present progressive for repeated actions and events which are not closely connected to the moment of speaking.

I go to the mountains about twice a year. (NOT ~~*I'm going to the mountains about twice a year.*~~)
Water boils at 100° Celsius. (NOT ~~*Water is boiling at 100° Celsius.*~~)

2 long-lasting changes

We use the present progressive for changes and developments, even if these are very long-lasting.

The climate is getting warmer. (NOT ~~*The climate gets warmer.*~~)
The universe is expanding, and has been since its beginning.

3 *You look lovely when you're smiling*

We use the simple present for regular or repeated actions and events; but we can use the present progressive for things that are going on around these actions and events.

At seven, when the post comes, I'm usually having breakfast.
She doesn't like to be disturbed if she's working.
You look lovely when you're smiling.

4 *I promise* ... etc

Sometimes we do things by saying special words (e.g. promising, agreeing). We usually use the simple present in these cases.

I promise never to smoke again. (NOT ~~*I'm promising*~~ ...)
I swear that I will tell the truth ...
I agree. (NOT ~~*I am agreeing.*~~)
He denies the accusation. (NOT ~~*He is denying*~~ ...)

5 *I hear* etc

The simple present is used with a perfect or past meaning in introductory expressions like *I hear, I see, I gather, I understand* (see 243).

I hear you're getting married. (= I have heard ...)
I see there's been trouble down at the factory.
I gather Peter's looking for a job.

Quotations are often introduced with *says*.

No doubt you all remember what Hamlet says about suicide.
It says in the paper that petrol's going up again.

6 *Here comes* ... etc

Note the structures *here comes* ... and *there goes* ....

Here comes your husband. (NOT ~~*Here is coming*~~ ...)
There goes our bus – we'll have to wait for the next one.

7 *I feel / I'm feeling*

Verbs that refer to physical feelings (e.g. *feel, hurt, ache*) can often be used in simple or progressive tenses without much difference of meaning.

How do you feel? OR *How are you feeling?*
My head aches. OR *My head is aching.*

8 formal correspondence

Some fixed phrases that are used in letter-writing can be expressed either in the simple present (more formal) or in the present progressive (less formal).

We write to advise you . . . (Less formal: *We are writing to let you know . . .*)
I enclose my cheque for £200. (Less formal: *I am enclosing . . .*)
I look forward to hearing from you. (Less formal: *I'm looking forward to hearing . . .*)

For progressive forms with *always* and similar words (e.g. *She's always losing her keys*), see 472.
For progressive forms in general, see 470.
For the 'distancing' use of progressive forms, see 436.
For simple and progressive forms in older English, see 392.

467 presently

When *presently* means 'now, at present', it usually comes in mid-position with the verb (see 24).

Professor Holloway is presently working on plant diseases.
The Manager is presently on holiday, but he will contact you on his return.

An older meaning of *presently* (becoming less common) is 'not now, later', 'in a minute'.
With this meaning, *presently* usually comes in end-position, or separately as a short answer.

He's having a rest now. He'll be down presently.
Mummy, can I have an ice-cream? ~ *Presently, dear.*

468 price and prize

The *price* is what you pay if you buy something. A *prize* is what you are given if you have done something exceptional, or if you win a competition.

What's the price of the green dress? (NOT . . . ~~*the prize of the green dress?*~~)
She received the Nobel prize for physics. (NOT . . . ~~*the Nobel price*~~ . . .)

469 principal and principle

These two words have the same pronunciation. The adjective *principal* means 'main', 'most important'.

What's your principal reason for wanting to be a doctor? (NOT . . . ~~*your principle reason*~~ . . .)

The noun *principal* means 'headmaster' or 'headmistress' (especially, in Britain, of a school for adults).

If you want to leave early you'll have to ask the Principal. ▸

A *principle* is a scientific law or a moral rule.
*Newton discovered the **principle** of universal gravitation.* (NOT ... ~~*the principal of universal gravitation.*~~)
*She's a girl with very strong **principles**.*

470 progressive (1): general

1 forms

Progressive verb forms (also called 'continuous' forms) are made with *be + -ing*.
*I **am waiting** for the shops to open.* (present progressive)
*Your suit **is being cleaned**.* (present progressive passive)
*She phoned while I **was cooking**.* (past progressive)
*I didn't know how long she **had been sitting** there.* (past perfect progressive)
*Will you **be going** out this evening?* (future progressive)
*I'd like to **be lying** on the beach now.* (progressive infinitive)

2 terminology and use

A progressive form does not simply show the time of an event. It also shows how the speaker sees the event – generally as ongoing and temporary, not completed or permanent. (Because of this, grammars often talk about 'progressive aspect' rather than 'progressive tenses'.) Compare:
– *I've **read** your letter.* (completed action)
*I've **been reading** a lot of thrillers recently.* (not necessarily completed)
– *The Rhine **runs** into the North Sea.* (permanent)
*We'll have to phone the plumber – water's **running** down the kitchen wall.* (temporary)

When a progressive is used to refer to a short momentary action, it often suggests repetition.
*Why are you **jumping** up and down?*
*The door **was banging** in the wind.*

3 distancing

Progressive forms can make requests, questions and statements less direct. (They sound less definite than simple forms, because they suggest something temporary and incomplete.)
*I'm **hoping** you can lend me £10.* (less definite than *I hope ...*)
*What time are you **planning** to arrive?*
*I'm **looking** forward to seeing you again.*
*I'm afraid we must **be going**.*
*I **was wondering** if you had two single rooms.*
*Will you **be going** away at the weekend?*

For more about this kind of 'distancing', see 436.
For more details of the use of progressives, see the individual entries on the present progressive, past progressive etc.

471 progressive (2): non-progressive verbs

1 verbs not used in progressive ('continuous') forms

Some verbs are never or hardly ever used in progressive forms.

I like this music. (NOT ~~*I'm liking this music.*~~)

I rang her up because I needed to talk. (NOT ... ~~*because I was needing to talk.*~~)

Some other verbs are not used in progressive forms when they have certain meanings. Compare:

I'm seeing the doctor at ten o'clock.

I see what you mean. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing what you mean.*~~)

Many of these non-progressive verbs refer to states rather than actions. Some refer to mental states (e.g. *know, think, believe*); some others refer to the use of the senses (e.g. *smell, taste*).

Modal verbs (e.g. *can, must*) have no progressive forms. See 353.

2 common non-progressive verbs

Here is a list of some common verbs which are not often used in progressive forms (or which are not used in progressive forms with certain meanings).

mental and emotional states

believe	*(dis)like*	*see* (= understand)
doubt	*love*	*suppose*
feel (= have an opinion)	*prefer*	*think* (= have an opinion)
hate	*realise*	*understand*
imagine	*recognise*	*want*
know	*remember*	*wish*

use of the senses

feel	*see*	*sound*
hear	*smell*	*taste*

communicating and causing reactions

agree	*impress*	*promise*
appear	*look* (= seem)	*satisfy*
astonish	*mean*	*seem*
deny	*please*	*surprise*
disagree		

other

be	*deserve*	*measure* (= have length etc)
belong	*fit*	*need*
concern	*include*	*owe*
consist	*involve*	*own*
contain	*lack*	*possess*
depend	*matter*	*weigh* (= have weight)

More details of the use of some of these verbs are given in other entries in the book. See the Index for references. ▸

3 progressive and non-progressive uses

Compare the progressive and non-progressive uses of some of the verbs listed above.

- *I'm feeling fine.* (OR *I feel fine.* – see 202.1)
  I feel we shouldn't do it. (NOT ~~*I'm feeling we shouldn't do it.*~~ – *feel* here = have an opinion.)
- *What are you thinking about?*
  What do you think of the government? (NOT ~~*What are you thinking of the government?*~~ – *think* here = have an opinion.)
- *I'm seeing Leslie tomorrow.*
  I see what you mean. (NOT ~~*I'm seeing what you mean.*~~ – *see* here = understand.)
- *Why are you smelling the meat? Is it bad?*
  Does the meat smell bad? (NOT ~~*Is the meat smelling bad?*~~ – see 535.)
- *I'm just tasting the cake to see if it's OK.*
  The cake tastes wonderful. (NOT ~~*The cake's tasting wonderful.*~~ – see 577.)
- *The scales broke when I was weighing myself this morning.*
  I weighed 68 kilos three months ago – and look at me now!
  (NOT ~~*I was weighing 68 kilos*~~ . . . – *weigh* here = have weight.)

Occasionally 'non-progressive' verbs are used in progressive forms in order to emphasise the idea of change or development.

These days, more and more people prefer / are preferring to take early retirement.
The water tastes / is tasting better today.
As I get older, I remember / I'm remembering less and less.
I'm liking it here more and more as time goes by.

Need, want and *mean* can have future or present perfect progressive uses.

Will you be needing the car this afternoon?
I've just been invited to Sydney. It's wonderful – I've been wanting to go to Australia for years.
I've been meaning to tell you about Andrew. He . . .

4 *can see* etc

Can is often used with *see, hear, feel, taste, smell, understand* and *remember* to give a kind of progressive meaning, especially in British English. For details, see 125.

I can see Sue coming down the road.
Can you smell something burning?

5 *-ing* forms

Even verbs which are never used in progressive tenses have *-ing* forms which can be used in other kinds of structure.

Knowing her tastes, I bought her a large box of chocolates.
I don't like to go to a country without knowing something of the language.

472 progressive (3): with always etc

We can use *always, continually* and similar words with a progressive form to mean 'very often'.

I'm always losing my keys.
Granny's nice. She's always giving people little presents.
I'm continually running into Paul these days.
That cat's forever getting shut in the bathroom.

This structure is used to talk about things which happen very often (perhaps more often than expected), and which are unexpected or unplanned.

Compare:

– *When Alice comes to see me, I always meet her at the station.*
(a regular, planned arrangement)
I'm always meeting Mrs Bailiff in the supermarket.
(accidental, unplanned meetings)

– *When I was a child, we always had picnics on Saturdays in the summer.*
(regular, planned)
Her mother was always arranging little surprise picnics and outings.
(unexpected, not regular)

473 punctuation (1): full stop, question mark and exclamation mark

1 sentence division

Full stops (AmE periods), question marks and exclamation marks (AmE exclamation points) are used to close sentences. After one of these, a new sentence has a capital letter.

I looked out of the window. It was snowing again.
Why do we try to reach the stars? What is it all for?
They have no right to be in our country! They must leave at once!

We do not normally put full stops, question or exclamation marks before or after grammatically incomplete sentences.

She phoned me as soon as she arrived. (NOT ~~*She phoned me. As soon as she arrived.*~~)
In his job he has to deal with different kinds of people. (NOT ~~*In his job. He has to deal with different kinds of people.*~~)
Did you understand why I was upset? (NOT ~~*Did you understand? Why I was upset?*~~)

However, sometimes we can emphasise a clause or phrase by separating it with a full stop and capital letter.

People are sleeping out on the streets. In Britain. In the 21st century. Because there are not enough houses.

2 abbreviations

Full stops can be used after abbreviations (see 2). This is more common in American English than in British English.

Dr. Andrew C. Burke, M.A. (OR *Dr Andrew C Burke, MA*) ▸

3 indirect questions

We do not use question marks after indirect questions (see 276).
I asked her what time it was. (NOT ... ~~*what time it was?*~~)

474 punctuation (2): colon

1 explanations

A colon (:) usually introduces an explanation or further details.
We decided not to go on holiday: we had too little money.
There was a problem with the car: it was losing oil.

2 lists

A colon can introduce a list.
The main points are as follows: (1) ... , (2) ... , (3) ... .
We need three kinds of support: economic, moral and political.

3 subdivisions

A colon can introduce a subdivision of a subject in a title or heading.
punctuation: colon

4 capitals

In British English, it is unusual for a capital letter to follow a colon (except at the beginning of a quotation). However, this can happen if a colon is followed by several complete sentences.
My main objections are as follows:
First of all, no proper budget has been drawn up.
Secondly, there is no guarantee that ...
In American English, colons are more often followed by capital letters.

5 letters

Americans usually put a colon after the opening salutation (*Dear ...*) in a business letter.
Dear Mr. Callan:
I am writing to ...
British usage prefers a comma or no punctuation mark at all in this case.

6 direct speech

Normally, direct speech is introduced by a comma in writing (see 476.9).
Stewart opened his eyes and said, 'Who's your beautiful friend?'
But a long passage of direct speech may be introduced by a colon.
Introducing his report for the year, the Chairman said: 'A number of factors have contributed to the firm's very gratifying results. First of all, ...'
And a colon is used when direct speech is introduced by a name or short phrase (as in the text of a play, or when famous sayings are quoted).
POLONIUS: *What do you read, my lord?*
HAMLET: *Words, words, words.*
In the words of Murphy's Law: 'Anything that can go wrong will go wrong.'

475 punctuation (3): semi-colon

1 instead of full stops

Semi-colons (;) are sometimes used instead of full stops, in cases where sentences are grammatically independent but the meaning is closely connected. Semi-colons are not nearly as common as full stops or commas.

Some people work best in the mornings; others do better in the evenings.
It is a fine idea; let us hope that it is going to work.

Commas are not usually possible in cases like these (see 476).

2 in lists

Semi-colons can also be used to separate items in a list, particularly when these are grammatically complex.

You may use the sports facilities on condition that your subscription is paid regularly; that you arrange for all necessary cleaning to be carried out; that you undertake to make good any damage; . . .

For commas in lists, see 476.

476 punctuation (4): comma

Commas (,) generally reflect pauses in speech.

1 co-ordinate clauses

Clauses connected with *and, but* or *or* are usually separated by commas unless they are very short. Compare:

– *Jane decided to try the home-made steak pie, and Andrew ordered Dover sole with boiled potatoes.*
Jane had pie and Andrew had fish.
– *She had very little to live on, but she would never have dreamed of taking what was not hers.*
She was poor but she was honest.

2 subordinate clauses

When subordinate clauses begin sentences, they are often followed by commas. Compare:

If you are ever in London, come and see me.
Come and see me if you are ever in London.

Commas are not used before *that*-clauses.

It is quite natural that you should want to meet your father. (NOT ~~*It is quite natural, that*~~ . . .)

3 grammatically separate sentences: commas not used

We do not usually put commas between grammatically separate sentences (in places where a full stop or a semi-colon would be possible – see 473 and 475).

The blue dress was warmer. On the other hand, the purple one was prettier. OR *The blue dress was warmer; on the other hand . . .* (NOT ~~*The blue dress was warmer, on the other hand*~~ . . .) ▸

4 unusual word order

If words or expressions are put in unusual places or interrupt the normal progression of a sentence, we usually separate them off by commas.

*My father, **however**, did not agree.*
*Jane had, **surprisingly**, paid for everything.*
*We were, **believe it or not**, in love with each other.*
*Andrew Carpenter, **the deputy sales manager**, was sick.*

Two commas are necessary in these cases.

(NOT ~~*Andrew Carpenter the deputy sales manager, was sick*~~ . . .)

5 adjectives

After *be* and other 'link verbs' (see 328), commas are always used between adjectives.

*The cowboy was **tall, dark** and handsome.*

Before a noun, we generally use commas between adjectives which give similar kinds of information.

*This is an **expensive, ill-planned, wasteful** project.*

Commas are sometimes dropped between short adjectives.

*a **tall(,) dark(,) handsome** cowboy*

Commas cannot be dropped when adjectives or other modifiers refer to different parts of something.

*a **green, red** and gold carpet* (NOT ~~*a green red*~~ . . .)
*concrete, **glass** and plastic buildings*

Commas are not normally used before a noun when adjectives give different kinds of information.

*Have you met our **handsome new financial** director?* (NOT . . . ~~*our handsome, new, financial director?*~~)

6 identifying expressions: commas not used

When nouns are followed by identifying expressions which show exactly who or what is being talked about, commas are not used. Compare:

– *The driver **in the Ferrari** was cornering superbly.* (The phrase *in the Ferrari* identifies the driver.)
(NOT ~~*The driver, in the Ferrari, was cornering superbly*~~ OR ~~*The driver in the Ferrari, was cornering superbly*~~.)
*Stephens, **in the Ferrari**, was cornering superbly.* (The phrase *in the Ferrari* does not identify the driver; he is already identified by his name, *Stephens*.)

– *The woman **who was talking on the phone** gave Parker a big smile.*
*Mrs Grange, **who was talking on the phone**, gave Parker a big smile.*

For more about identifying and non-identifying relative clauses, see 495.

7 long subjects: commas not used

We do not usually put a comma after a subject, even if it is very long.

*The man **from the Japanese Ministry of Education** arrived early.*
(NOT ~~*The man from the Japanese Minstry of Education, arrived early*~~.)
What we need most of all is more time. (NOT ~~*What we need most of all, is*~~ . . .)

8 lists

We can use commas to separate items in a series or list. A comma is not usually used with *and* between the last two items unless these are long. Compare:

I went to Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Austria and Germany.
You had a holiday at Christmas, at New Year and at Easter.
I spent yesterday playing cricket, listening to jazz records, and talking about the meaning of life.

For semi-colons in lists, see 475.

9 direct speech

A comma is generally used between a reporting expression and a piece of direct speech.

He said, 'There's no way we can help her'.

If a reporting expression follows a piece of direct speech, we usually put a comma instead of a full stop before the closing quotation mark.

'I don't like this one bit,' said Julia.

10 indirect speech: no comma before *that* etc

We do not put commas before *that, what, where* etc in indirect speech structures.

Everybody realised that I was a foreigner. (NOT ~~*Everybody realised, that*~~ . . .)
They quickly explained what to do. (NOT ~~*They quickly explained, what*~~ . . .)
I didn't know where I should go. (NOT ~~*I didn't know, where*~~ . . .)

11 numbers

Commas are used to divide large numbers into groups of three figures, by separating off the thousands and millions.

6,435 (NOT ~~*6.435*~~) *7,456,189*

We do not always use commas in four-figure numbers, and they are never used in dates.

3,164 OR *3164* *the year 1946*

Spaces are sometimes used instead of commas.

There are 1 000 millimetres in one metre.

We do not use commas in decimals (see 389.1).

3.5 = three point five OR *three and a half* (NOT ~~*3,5 three comma five*~~)

477 punctuation (5): dash

Dashes (–) are especially common in informal writing. They can be used in the same way as colons, semi-colons or brackets.

There are three things I can never remember – names, faces, and I've forgotten the other.
We had a great time in Greece – the kids really loved it.
My mother – who rarely gets angry – really lost her temper. ▸

A dash can introduce an afterthought, or something unexpected and surprising.

We'll be arriving on Monday morning – at least, I think so.
And then we met Bob – with Lisa, believe it or not!

For the use of hyphens (as in *hard-working* or *co-operative*), see 559.

478 punctuation (6): quotation marks

Quotation marks can be single ('...') or double ("..."). They are also called 'inverted commas' in British English.

1 direct speech

We use quotation marks (single or double) when we quote direct speech. For quotations inside quotations, we use double quotation marks inside single (or single inside double).

'His last words,' said Albert, 'were "Close that bloody window".'

2 special use of words

We often put quotation marks (usually single) round words which are used in special ways – for example when we talk about them, when we use them as titles, or when we give them special meanings.

People disagree about how to use the word 'disinterested'.
His next book was 'Heart of Darkness'.
A textbook can be a 'wall' between the teacher and the class.

479 punctuation (7): apostrophe /əˈpɒstrəfiː/

We use apostrophes (') for three main reasons.

1 missing letters

Apostrophes replace letters in contracted forms (see 143).

can't (= cannot) *I'd* (= I would/had)
it's (= it is/has) *who's* (= who is/has)

2 possessives

We use apostrophes before or after possessive *-s* (see 439).

the girl's father *Charles's wife* *my parents' house*

Possessive determiners and pronouns (e.g. *yours, its*) do not have apostrophes.

This money is yours. (NOT ... ~~*your's.*~~)
The cat had not had its food yet. (NOT ... ~~*it's food*~~ ...)
Whose house did she stay in? (NOT ~~*Who's*~~ ...)

3 special plurals

Words which do not usually have plurals sometimes have an apostrophe when a plural form is written.

It is a nice idea, but there are a lot of if's.

Apostrophes are used in the plurals of letters, and sometimes of numbers and abbreviations.

*He writes **b's** instead of **d's**.*
*It was in the early **1960's**.* (More usually: ... *1960s.*)
*I know two **MP's** personally.* (More usually: ... *MPs.*)

It is not correct to put apostrophes in normal plurals.

JEANS – HALF PRICE (NOT ~~*JEAN'S*~~. . .)

480 questions (1): basic rules

These rules apply to most written and spoken questions. For 'declarative questions' like *This is your car?* (in which the subject comes before the verb), see 481.

1 auxiliary verb before subject: *Have you . . .?*

In a question, an auxiliary verb normally comes before the subject.

*When **is** Oliver leaving?* (NOT ~~*When Oliver is leaving?*~~)
*Have **you** received my letter of June 17?* (NOT ~~*You have received*~~. . .?)
*Why **are you** laughing?* (NOT ~~*Why you are laughing?*~~)
*What **are all those people** looking at?* (NOT ~~*What all those people are looking at?*~~)
*How much **does the room** cost?* (NOT ~~*How much the room costs?*~~)

2 *do*: *Do you like . . .?*

If there is no other auxiliary verb, we use *do, does* or *did* to form a question.

Do you like Mozart? (NOT ~~*Like you Mozart?*~~)
*What **does** 'periphrastic' mean?* (NOT ~~*What means 'periphrastic'?*~~)
Did you wash the car today?

3 *do* not used with other auxiliaries

Do is not used together with other auxiliary verbs or with *be*.

Can you tell me the time? (NOT ~~*Do you can tell me the time?*~~)
Have you seen John? (NOT ~~*Do you have seen John?*~~)
Are you ready?

4 infinitive after *do*: *What does he want?*

After *do*, we use the infinitive (without *to*).

What does the boss want? (NOT ~~*What does the boss wants?*~~)
Did you go climbing last weekend? (NOT ~~*Did you went*~~. . .? OR ~~*Did you to go*~~. . .?)

5 only auxiliary verb before subject

Only the auxiliary verb goes before the subject, not the whole of the verb.

Is your mother coming tomorrow? (NOT ~~*Is coming your mother tomorrow?*~~)
Is your daughter having a lesson today? (NOT ~~*Is having your daughter*~~. . .?)
When was your reservation made? (NOT ~~*When was made your reservation?*~~)

This happens even if the subject is very long.

Where are the President and his family staying? (NOT ~~*Where are staying the President*~~. . .?)

▶

6 *Who phoned? / Who did you phone?*

When *who, which, what* or *whose* is the subject (or part of the subject), *do* is not normally used. Compare:

- *Who **phoned?*** (*Who* is the subject.)
  *Who **did** you **phone?*** (*Who* is the object.)
- *What **happened?*** (*What* is the subject.)
  *What **did** she **say?*** (*What* is the object.)

More examples:

Which costs more – the blue one or the grey one? (NOT ~~*Which does cost more*~~ . . .?)
Which type of battery lasts longest? (NOT ~~*Which type of battery does last longest?*~~)
How many people work in your office? (NOT ~~*How many people do work*~~ . . .?)

But *do* can be used after a subject question word for emphasis, to insist on an answer.

*Well, tell us – what **did** happen when your father found you?*
*So who **did** marry the Princess in the end?*

7 indirect questions: *Tell me when you are leaving*

In an indirect question, we do not put an auxiliary before the subject, and we do not use a question mark. For details, see 276.

Tell me when you are leaving. (NOT ~~*Tell me when are you leaving?*~~)

8 prepositions: *What are you talking about?*

Prepositions often come at the end of *wh*-questions, separated from their objects. (For details, see 452.)

*What are you talking **about**?* (NOT ~~*About what are you talking?*~~)
*Who did you buy the ticket **from**?*
*What did you clean the floor **with**?*

For negative questions, see 368.
For ellipsis in questions (e.g. *Seen John? Coming tonight?*), see 179.

481 questions (2): declarative questions

In spoken questions, we do not always use 'interrogative' word order.

You're working late tonight?

These 'declarative questions' are often used when the speaker thinks he/she knows or has understood something, but wants to make sure or express surprise. A rising intonation is common.

This is your car? (= I suppose this is your car, isn't it?)
That's the boss? I thought he was the cleaner.
We're going to Hull for our holidays. ~ You're going to Hull?

This word order is not normally possible after a question word.

Where are you going? (NOT ~~*Where you are going?*~~)

482 questions (3): rhetorical questions

1 questions that do not expect an answer

Questions do not always ask for information. In many languages, a question with an obvious answer can be used simply as a way of drawing attention to something. Questions of this kind are called 'rhetorical questions'.

Do you know what time it is? (= You're late.)
Who's a lovely baby? (= You're a lovely baby.)
I can't find my coat. ~ ***What's this, then?*** (= Here it is, stupid.)

Very often, a rhetorical question draws attention to a negative situation – the answer is obviously *No*, or there is no answer to the question.

What's the use of asking her? (= It's no use asking her.)
How do you expect me to find milk on a Sunday night? Where am I going to find a shop open? (= You can't reasonably expect ... There aren't any shops open.)
Where's my money? (= You haven't paid me.)
I can run faster than you. ~ ***Who cares?*** (= Nobody cares.)
Are we going to let them do this to us? (= We aren't ...)
Have you lost your tongue? (= Why don't you say anything?)
What do you think you're doing? (= You can't justify what you're doing.)
Who do you think you are? (= You aren't as important as your behaviour suggests.)
Why don't you take a taxi? (= There's no reason not to.)

2 *Why/How should ...?*

Why should ...? can be used aggressively to reject suggestions, requests and instructions.

Ann's very unhappy. ~ ***Why should I care?***
Could your wife help us in the office tomorrow? ~ ***Why should she? She doesn't work for you.***

How should/would I know? is an aggressive reply to a question.

What time does the film start? ~ ***How should I know?***

3 negative *yes/no* questions

Negative *yes/no* questions (see 368) often suggest that the speaker wants the answer *Yes*, or some other positive response.

Haven't I done enough for you? (= I have done enough for you.)
Didn't I tell you it would rain? (= I told you ...)
Don't touch that! ~ ***Why shouldn't I?*** (= I have a perfect right to.)

483 questions (4): echo questions

1 *You're getting married?*

To question what has been said, a speaker may simply repeat ('echo') what he/she has heard. A rising intonation is common.

I'm getting married. ~ ***You're getting married?*** ▸

2 *Take a look at what?*

To question one part of a sentence, we can repeat the rest of the sentence, and put a stressed question word in place of the part we are asking about.

Just take a look at that. ~ ***Take a look at what?***
She's invited thirteen people to dinner. ~ ***She's invited how many?***
We're going to Tierra del Fuego on holiday. ~ ***You're going where?***
I've broken the fettle gauge. ~ ***You've broken the what?***

To question a verb, or the part of a sentence beginning with the verb, *do what* is used.

She set fire to the garage. ~ ***She did what (to the garage)?***

3 repeating a question

A speaker may question a question, by repeating it with a rising intonation. Note that we use normal question structures with inverted word order, not indirect question structures, in this case.

Where are you going? ~ ***Where am I going?*** *Home.* (NOT ... ~~*Where I'm going?*~~ ...)
What does he want? ~ ***What does he want?*** *Money, as usual.* (NOT ... ~~*What he wants?*~~ ...)
Are you tired? ~ ***Am I tired?*** *Of course not.* (NOT ... ~~*Whether I'm tired?*~~ ...)
Do squirrels eat insects? ~ ***Do squirrels eat insects?*** *I'm not sure.* (NOT ... ~~*Whether squirrels eat insects?*~~ ...)

484 questions (5): reply questions (Was it? Did you?)

Short questions are often used in conversation to show that the listener is paying attention and interested. They are constructed with auxiliary verb + pronoun, like question tags (see 487).

It was a terrible party. ~ ***Was it?*** ~ *Yes ...*

Note that these questions do not ask for information - they simply show that the listener is reacting to what has been said. More examples:

We had a lovely holiday. ~ ***Did you?*** ~ *Yes, we went ...*
I've got a headache. ~ ***Have you, dear?*** *I'll get you an aspirin.*
John likes that girl next door. ~ ***Oh, does he?***
I don't understand. ~ ***Don't you?*** *I'm sorry.*

Negative questions in reply to affirmative statements express emphatic agreement (like negative-question exclamations – see 195.4).

It was a lovely concert. ~ ***Yes, wasn't it?*** *I did enjoy it.*
She's put on a lot of weight. ~ ***Yes, hasn't she?***

485 questions (6): question-word clauses

1 question-word clauses as objects

Clauses beginning with question words can refer both to questions and to the answers to questions. They often act as the objects of verbs – for example, when questions and their answers are reported (see 276).

*I asked **who wanted to come.***
*She wondered **why he wasn't wearing a coat.***
*We need to decide **where Ann's going to sleep.***
*He told me **when he was arriving**, but I've forgotten.*
*She explained **what the problem was.***

2 other uses

Question-word clauses can act not only as objects, but also as subjects, complements or adverbials. This structure is often rather informal (especially with *how*-clauses – see 252).

Who you invite is your business. *A hot bath is **what I need.***
Where we stay doesn't matter. *This is **how much I've done.***
*I'm surprised at **how fast she can run.***
*You can eat it **how you like.*** (very informal)

The 'preparatory *it*' structure is often used with subject clauses (see 446).

*It's your business **who you invite.*** *It doesn't matter **where we stay.***

Question-word clauses can give more information about nouns. In this case they are called 'relative clauses' (see 494–498 for details).

*There's that man **who threw stones at your dog.***
*The place **where Mary works** has just had a fire.*

486 questions (7): that-clauses

A *wh*-question usually refers to the main clause which starts with the question word. However, questions can also refer to subordinate *that*-clauses after verbs like *wish*, *think* or *say*.

*Who do you wish **(that) you'd married**, then?*
*How long do you think **(that) we should wait?***
*What did you say **(that) you wanted** for Christmas?*

That is usually dropped; it must be dropped when the question word refers to the subject of the subordinate clause.

*Who do you think **is outside?*** (NOT ~~*Who do you think that is outside?*~~)
*What do you suppose **will happen now?*** (NOT ~~*What do you suppose that will happen now?*~~)

487 question tags (1): basic information

1 What are question tags?

'Question tags' are the small questions that often come at the ends of sentences in speech, and sometimes in informal writing.

*The film wasn't very good, **was it?*** ▸

Negatives are usually contracted. Full forms are possible in formal speech.

*That's the postman, **isn't it?*** *You take sugar in tea, **don't you?***

*They promised to repay us within six months, **did they not?*** (formal)

Question tags can be used to check whether something is true, or to ask for agreement.

2 negative after affirmative, and vice versa

Question tags are used after affirmative and negative sentences, but not after questions.

You're** the new secretary, **aren't you?

You're not** the new secretary, **are you?

(BUT NOT ~~*Are you the new secretary, aren't you?*~~)

To check information or ask for agreement, we most often put negative tags after affirmative sentences, and non-negative tags after negative sentences.

+	−
*It's cold, **isn't it?***	*It's not warm, **is it?***

For 'same-way' tags, see 488.7

3 auxiliaries

If the main sentence has an auxiliary verb (or non-auxiliary *be*), this is repeated in the question tag.

*Sally **can** speak French, **can't** she?*

*The meeting's at ten, **isn't** it?*

*You **didn't** speak to Luke, **did** you?*

*You **wouldn't** like a puppy, **would** you?*

If the main sentence has no auxiliary, the question tag has *do*.

*You like oysters, **don't** you?*

*Harry gave you a cheque, **didn't** he?*

4 negative words

Non-negative tags are used after sentences containing negative words like *never, no, nobody, hardly, scarcely* and *little*.

*You **never** say what you're thinking, **do you?*** (NOT ... ~~*don't you?*~~)

*It's **no** good, **is it?*** (NOT ... ~~*isn't it?*~~)

*It's **hardly** rained at all this summer, **has it?***

*There's **little** we can do about it, **is there?***

5 meaning and intonation

In speech, we can show the exact meaning of a question tag by the intonation. If the tag is a real question – if we really want to know something and are not sure of the answer – we use a rising intonation: the voice goes up.

*The meeting's at four o'clock, **isn't it?***

If the tag is not a real question – if we are sure of the answer – we use a falling intonation: the voice goes down.

*It's a beautiful day, **isn't it?***

In writing, the exact meaning of a question tag is normally clear from the context.

6 requests

We often ask for help or information by using the structure **negative statement + question tag**.

*You **couldn't** lend me a pound, **could you?***
*You **haven't** seen my watch anywhere, **have you?***

For details of other kinds of tags, see 514.

488 question tags (2): advanced points

1 *aren't I?*

The question tag for *I am* is *aren't I?*
*I'm late, **aren't I?***

2 imperatives

After imperatives, *won't you?* can be used to invite people politely to do things (especially in British English).
*Come in, **won't you?***
Will/would/can/could you? can all be used to tell or ask people to do things.
*Give me a hand, **will you?*** *Open a window, **would you?***
Can't you expresses impatience.
*Shut up, **can't you?***
After a negative imperative, we use *will you?*
*Don't forget, **will you?***

3 *let's*

After *let's* ... (in suggestions etc, see 323), we use *shall we?*
*Let's have a party, **shall we?***

4 *there*

There can be a subject in question tags.
*There's something wrong, **isn't there?***
*There weren't any problems, **were there?***
When *there's* introduces a plural subject (see 532.4), the tag is *aren't there?*
*There's some more chairs upstairs, **aren't there?***

5 *it* and *they* with *nothing, nobody, somebody* etc

We use *it* in question tags to refer to *nothing* and *everything*.

Nothing can happen, can it?

We use *they* (see 528) to refer to *nobody, somebody* and *everybody* (and *no one* etc).

Nobody phoned, did they?
Somebody wanted a drink, didn't they? Who was it?

6 non-auxiliary *have*

After non-auxiliary *have* (referring to states), question tags with *have* and *do* are often both possible. (*Do* is normal in American English.)

Your father has a bad back, hasn't/doesn't he?

For more about the use of *do* with *have*, see 236–239.

7 'same-way' question tags: *You're getting married, are you?*

Non-negative question tags are quite common after affirmative sentences. These are often used as responses to something that has been said, like 'reply questions' (see 484): the speaker repeats what he/she has just heard or learnt, and uses the tag to express interest, surprise, concern or some other reaction.

So you're getting married, are you? How nice!
So she thinks she's going to become a doctor, does she? Well, well.
You think you're funny, do you?

'Same-way' tags can also be used to ask questions. In this structure, we use the main sentence to make a guess, and then ask (in the tag) if it was correct.

Your mother's at home, is she? *This is the last bus, is it?*
You can eat shellfish, can you?

I'll ... shall I? can be used to make offers.

I'll hold that for you, shall I?

Negative 'same-way' tags are occasionally heard; they usually sound aggressive.

I see. You don't like my cooking, don't you?

8 ellipsis: *Nice day, isn't it?*

In sentences with question tags, it is quite common to leave out pronoun subjects and auxiliary verbs. (This is called 'ellipsis'. For details, see 179.)

(It's a) nice day, isn't it? *(She was) talking to my husband, was she?*

In very informal speech, a question tag can sometimes be used after a question with ellipsis.

Have a good time, did you? *Your mother at home, is she?*
John be here tomorrow, will he?

For details of other kinds of tags, see 514.

9 *I (don't) think*

Note the use of question tags in sentences beginning with *I (don't) think* and similar expressions (see 179).

I think he's Norwegian, isn't he? (NOT ... ~~*don't I?*~~)
I don't think it will rain, will it? (NOT ... ~~*do I?*~~)
I suppose you're hungry, aren't you?

489 quite

1 two meanings

Quite has two meanings. Compare:

*It's **quite** good, but it could be better.* (= It's OK, not bad.)
*It's **quite** impossible.* (= It's completely impossible.)

Good is a 'gradable' adjective: things can be more or less good. With gradable words, *quite* usually means something like 'fairly' or 'rather' (see 199) in affirmative sentences. *Impossible* is non-gradable: things are either impossible or not; but they cannot be more or less impossible. With non-gradable words, *quite* means 'completely'. Compare:

- *I'm **quite** tired, but I can walk a bit further.*
  *I'm **quite** exhausted – I couldn't walk another step.*
- *It's **quite** surprising.* (similar to *fairly surprising*)
  *It's **quite** amazing.* (= absolutely amazing)
- *He speaks French **quite** well, but he's got a strong English accent.*
  *He speaks French **quite** perfectly.*
- *I **quite** like her, but she's not one of my closest friends.*
  *Have you **quite** finished?* (= Have you completely finished?)

In American English *quite* with gradable adjectives often means something like 'very', not 'fairly/rather'.

2 word order with nouns

Quite can be used with ***a/an*** + **noun**. It normally comes before *a/an* if there is a gradable adjective or no adjective.

*It's **quite** a nice day.*
*We watched **quite** an interesting film last night.*
*She's **quite** a woman!* *The party was **quite** a success.*

With non-gradable adjectives, *quite* normally comes after *a/an* in BrE.

*It was a **quite** perfect day.* (AmE *It was **quite** a perfect day.*)

Quite is sometimes used before *the* to mean 'exactly', 'completely'.

*He's going **quite** the wrong way.* *quite the opposite*

3 comparisons

Quite is not used directly before comparatives.

*She's **rather / much / a bit** older than me.* (BUT NOT ~~*She's quite older*~~...)

But we use *quite better* to mean 'completely recovered' (from an illness). *Quite similar* means 'fairly/rather similar'; *quite different* means 'completely different'.

4 *quite* a *bit/few/lot* etc

Quite a bit and *quite a few* (informal) mean almost the same as *quite a lot.*

*We're having **quite a bit** of trouble with the kids just now.*
*We thought nobody would be there, but actually **quite a few** people came.*

5 *not quite*

Not quite means 'not completely' or 'not exactly'. It can be used before adjectives, adverbs, verbs and nouns, including nouns with *the.*

*I'm **not quite** ready – won't be a minute.*
*She didn't run **quite** fast enough for a record.*
*I don't **quite** agree.* *That's **not quite** the colour I wanted.*

490 rather: adverb of degree (rather good, etc)

1 meaning

Rather can be used as an adverb of degree. The meaning is similar to 'quite' or 'fairly', but more emphatic (see 199). This use of *rather* is less common in American English.

*The film was **rather** good.* *Some people **rather** like being miserable.*
*It's **rather** later than I thought.* *I **rather** think we're going to lose.*

Rather often suggests 'more than is usual', 'more than was expected', 'more than is wanted' and similar ideas.

*How was the film? ~ **Rather** good – I was surprised.*
*She sings **rather** well – people often think she's a professional.*
*It's **rather** warm in here. Let's open a window.*

2 word order with articles

Rather generally comes before articles, but can also come after *a/an* if there is an adjective.

*That's **rather** the impression I wanted to give.*
*He's **rather** a fool.*
*Jane's had **rather** a good idea.* (OR *Jane's had a **rather** good idea.*)

3 plural nouns

Rather is not normally used before a plural noun with no adjective.
(NOT ~~*They're rather fools.*~~)

491 rather: preference

1 *rather than*

This expression is normally used in 'parallel' structures: for example with two adjectives, adverbs, nouns, infinitives or *-ing* forms.

*I'd call her hair **chestnut rather than brown**.*
*I'd prefer to go **in August rather than in July**.*
*We ought to invest **in machinery rather than buildings**.*
*I prefer **starting early rather than leaving** things to the last minute.*

When the main clause has a *to*-infinitive, *rather than* is usually followed by an infinitive without *to* or an *-ing* form.

*I decided **to write rather than phone/phoning**.*
*Rather than **use/using** the last of my cash, I decided **to write** a cheque.*

2 *would rather*

This expression means 'would prefer to', and is followed by the infinitive without *to*. We often use the contraction *'d rather*.

*Would you **rather** stay here or go home?*
*How about a drink? ~ I'd **rather** have something to eat.*

The negative is *would rather not*.

*I'd **rather not** go out tonight.* (NOT ~~*I wouldn't rather*~~ . . .)

Note that *would rather like* does not mean 'would prefer'; in this expression, *rather* means 'quite', and does not suggest preference. Compare:

I'd rather like a cup of coffee. (= I'd quite like ...)

~ *Oh, would you? I'd rather have a glass of beer.* (= I'd prefer ...)

3 *would rather*: past tense with present or future meaning

We can use *would rather* to say that a person would prefer somebody to do something. We use a special structure with a past tense.

would rather + subject + past tense

I'd rather you went home now.
Tomorrow's difficult. I'd rather you came next weekend.
My wife would rather we didn't see each other any more.
Shall I open a window? ~ *I'd rather you didn't.*

A present tense or present subjunctive is possible (e.g. *I'd rather he goes / he go home now*), but unusual. To talk about past actions, a past perfect tense is possible.

I'd rather you hadn't done that.

However, this kind of idea is usually expressed with *I wish* (see 630).

I wish you hadn't done that.

In older English, *had rather* was used in the same way as *would rather*. This structure is still found in grammars, but it is not normally used.

For other structures where a past tense has a present or future meaning, see 426.

4 *or rather*

People often use *or rather* to correct themselves.

He's a psychologist – or rather, a psychoanalyst. (NOT ... ~~*or better, a psychoanalyst.*~~)

5 *would rather* and *had better*

Note that *would rather* (= would prefer) is not the same as *had better* (= should) – see 230. Compare:

I suppose I'd better clean the windows, but I'd rather watch TV.

492 reason

The preposition *for* is used both before and after *reason*.

What's the real reason for your depression? (NOT ... ~~*reason of your depression?*~~)

I need to talk to you for two reasons.

Reason can be followed by a clause beginning *why* ... or *that* ....

The reason why I came here was to be with my family.
Do you know the reason that they're closing the factory?

In an informal style, *why/that* is often left out.

The reason she doesn't like me is that I make her nervous.

Some people consider it incorrect to use a *because*-clause as a complement after *reason* (as in *Sorry I'm late – the reason is because I overslept.*)

493 reflexive pronouns

1 What are reflexive pronouns?

Reflexive pronouns are *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.*

2 use: *I cut myself shaving*

A common use of reflexive pronouns is to talk about actions where the subject and object are the same person.

*I cut **myself** shaving this morning.* (NOT ~~*I cut me*~~ . . .)
*We got out of the water and dried **ourselves**.* (NOT . . . ~~*dried us.*~~)
*I'm going to the shops to get **myself** some tennis shoes.*
*Talking to **oneself** is the first sign of madness.*

Reflexive pronouns can also refer to possessives and objects.

*His letters are all about **himself**.*
*I'm going to tell her a few facts about **herself**.*
*I love you for **yourself**, not for your money.*

3 after prepositions: *She took her dog with her*

After prepositions of place, we often use a personal pronoun (*me, you* etc) if the meaning is clear without using a reflexive. Compare:

*She took her dog with **her**.* (NOT . . . ~~*with herself.*~~ She could hardly take her dog with somebody else.)
*She's very pleased with **herself**.* (She could be pleased with somebody else.)

Other examples:

*Close the door **after you**.* *He was pulling a small cart **behind him**.*

4 emphatic use: *Do it yourself*

We can use reflexives as emphasisers, to mean 'that person/thing and nobody/nothing else'.

*It's quicker if you do it **yourself**.* *The manageress spoke to **me herself**.*
*The house **itself** is nice, but the garden's very small.*
*I'll go and see the President **himself** if I have to.*

5 reflexives used instead of personal pronouns

Reflexives are sometimes used instead of personal pronouns after *as, like, but (for)* and *except (for).*

*These shoes are designed for heavy runners **like yourself**.* (OR . . . ***like you.***)
*Everybody was early **except myself**.* (OR . . . ***except me.***)

Reflexives can also be used instead of personal pronouns in co-ordinated noun phrases.

*There will be four of us at dinner: Robert, Alison, Jenny **and myself**.*
(OR . . . *and I/me.*)

People often feel that these uses are fussy – too exact and unnecessary.

6 *by oneself*

By myself/yourself etc means 'alone, without company' or 'without help'.

*I often like to spend time **by myself**.*
*Do you need help? ~ No, thanks. I can do it **by myself**.*

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7 *-selves* and *each other / one another*

Note the difference between *-selves* and *each other / one another* (see 171).

*They talk to **themselves** a lot.* (Each of them talks to him/herself.)
*They talk to **each other** a lot.* (Each of them talks to the other.)

8 *own*

There are no possessive reflexives. Instead, we use *my own, your own* etc.

*I always type **my own** letters.* (NOT ... ~~*myself's letters.*~~)
*The children have both got **their own** rooms.*

9 reflexives not used

Certain verbs (e.g. *wash, dress, shave*) have reflexive pronouns in some languages but not in English.

*Do you **shave** on Sundays?* (NOT ~~*Do you shave yourself on Sundays?*~~)

However, reflexives can be used if it is necessary to make it clear who does the action.

*She's old enough to **dress herself** now.*
*The barber shaves all the people in the town who don't **shave themselves**. So does he **shave himself** or not?*

Some other verbs which do not normally have reflexive pronouns:

*Suddenly the door **opened**.* (NOT ~~*Suddenly the door opened itself.*~~)
*His book's **selling** well.* (NOT ~~*His book's selling itself well.*~~)
*Try to **concentrate**.* (NOT ~~*Try to concentrate yourself.*~~)
*I **feel** strange.* (NOT ~~*I feel myself strange.*~~)
Hurry! (NOT ~~*Hurry yourself!*~~)

For more about structures like *The door opened* and *His book's selling well*, see 609.

494 relatives (1): basic information

1 relative clauses: *the people who live next door*

Clauses beginning with question words (e.g. *who, which, where*) are often used to modify nouns and some pronouns – to identify people and things, or to give more information about them. Clauses used like this are called 'relative clauses'.

*Do you know the people **who live next door**?*
*Those **who want tickets** can get them from the office.*
*There's a programme tonight **which you might like**.*
*He lives in a village **where there are no shops**.*

2 relative pronouns: *who, whom, which*

When *who, whom* and *which* introduce relative clauses, they are called 'relative pronouns'. *Who(m)* refers to people and *which* to things.

*What's the name of the tall man **who** just came in?* (NOT ... ~~*the tall man which*~~ ...)
*It's a book **which** will interest children of all ages.* (NOT ... ~~*a book who*~~ ...)

3 subject and object

Who and *which* can be the subjects of verbs in relative clauses.

*I like people **who smile** a lot.*
*This is the key **which opens** the garage,* ▸

Who(m) and *which* can also be the objects of verbs in relative clauses. *Whom* is unusual in an informal style (see 623).

*Do you remember the people **who we met** in Italy?* (*Who* is the object of *met*.)

*I forget most of the films **which I see**.* (*Which* is the object of *see*.)

4 *that* = *who/which*

We often use *that* instead of *who* or *which*, especially in an informal style.

*I like people **that** smile a lot.*

*This is the key **that** opens the garage.*

*Do you remember the people **that** we met in Italy?*

*I forget most of the films **that** I see.*

5 *all that, only ... that* etc

That is especially common after quantifiers like *all, every(thing), some(thing), any(thing), no(thing), none, little, few, much, only*, and after superlatives.

*Is this **all that's** left?* (More natural than ... *all which is left?*)

*Have you got **anything that** belongs to me?* (More natural than ... *anything which* ...)

*The **only** thing **that** matters is to find our way home.*

*I hope the **little that** I've done has been useful.*

*It's the **best** film **that's** ever been made about madness.*

Note that *what* (see 497) cannot be used in these cases.

*All **that** you say is certainly true.* (NOT ~~*All what you say*~~ ...)

6 leaving out object pronouns: *the people we met*

Object pronouns can often be left out.

*Do you remember **the people we met** in Italy?*

*I forget most of the **films I see**.* *All I **want** is your happiness.*

This is not possible in all relative clauses: see 495.

7 one subject or object is enough

As subjects or objects, *who(m), which* and *that* replace words like *she, him* or *it*: one subject or object in a relative clause is enough. Compare:

- *He's got a new girlfriend. **She** works in a garage.*
  *He's got a new girlfriend **who** works in a garage.* (NOT ... ~~*who she works in a garage.*~~)
- *This is Mr Rogers. You met **him** last year.*
  *This is Mr Rogers, **whom** you met last year.* (NOT ... ~~*whom you met him last year.*~~)
- *Here's an article. **It** might interest you.*
  *Here's an article **which** might interest you.* (NOT ... ~~*which it might interest you.*~~)
- *I've found the car keys. You were looking for **them**.*
  *I've found the car keys **that** you were looking for.* (NOT ... ~~*that you were looking for them.*~~)

8 whose: *a girl whose hair ...*

Whose is a possessive relative pronoun, used as a determiner before nouns. It replaces *his/her/its*. For more details, see 496.

*I saw a girl **whose hair** came down to her waist.* (NOT ... ~~*whose her hair came down*~~ ...)

9 *which* referring to a whole clause

Which can refer not only to a noun, but also to the whole of a previous clause. Note that *what* cannot be used in this way.

*He got married again a year later, **which** surprised everybody.* (NOT ... ~~, *what surprised everybody.*~~)

*She cycled from London to Glasgow, **which** is pretty good for a woman of 75.* (NOT ~~*She cycled* ... , *what is pretty good* ...~~)

10 relative *when, where* and *why*

When and *where* can introduce relative clauses after nouns referring to time and place. They are used in the same way as **preposition + *which***.

*I'll never forget the day **when** I first met you.* (= ... the day on which ...)

*Do you know a shop **where** I can find sandals?* (= ... a shop at which ...)

Why is used in a similar way after *reason*.

*Do you know the reason **why** she doesn't like me?* (= ... the reason for which ...)

495 relatives (2): identifying and non-identifying clauses

1 two kinds of relative clause

Some relative clauses identify or classify nouns: they tell us which person or thing, or which kind of person or thing, is meant. (In grammars, these are called 'identifying', 'defining' or 'restrictive' relative clauses.)

*What's the name of the tall man **who just came in**?*

*People **who take physical exercise** live longer.*

*Who owns the car **which is parked outside**?*

*Have you got something **that will get ink out of a carpet**?*

Other relative clauses do not identify or classify; they simply tell us more about a person or thing that is already identified. (In grammars, these are called 'non-identifying', 'non-defining' or 'non-restrictive' relative clauses.)

*This is Ms Rogers, **who's joining the firm next week**.*

*In 1908 Ford developed his Model T car, **which sold for $500**.*

There are several grammatical differences between the two kinds of relative clause. There are also stylistic differences: non-identifying clauses are generally more formal, and are less frequent in informal speech.

2 pronunciation and punctuation

Identifying relative clauses usually follow immediately after the nouns that they modify, without a break: they are not separated by pauses or intonation movements in speech, or by commas in writing. (This is because the noun would be incomplete without the relative clause, and the sentence would ▸

make no sense or have a different meaning.) Non-identifying clauses are normally separated by pauses and/or intonation breaks and commas. Compare:

- *The woman who does my hair has moved to another hairdresser's.*
  Dorothy, who does my hair, has moved to another hairdresser's.
- *She married a man that she met on a bus.*
  She married a very nice young architect from Belfast, whom she met on a bus.

Note how the identifying clauses cannot easily be left out.

The woman has moved to another hairdresser's. (Which woman?)
She married a man. (!)

When a non-identifying clause does not come at the end of a sentence, two commas are necessary.

Dorothy, who does my hair, has moved . . . (NOT ~~*Dorothy, who does my hair has moved* . . .~~)

3 use of *that*

That is common as a relative pronoun in identifying clauses. In non-identifying clauses, *that* is unusual. Compare:

- *Have you got a book which/that is really easy to read?*
  I lent him 'The Old Man and the Sea', which is really easy to read. (NOT . . . ~~*'The Old Man and the Sea', that is really easy to read.*~~)
- *Where's the girl who/that sells the tickets?*
  This is Naomi, who sells the tickets. (NOT ~~*This is Naomi, that sells the tickets.*~~)

4 leaving out object pronouns

In identifying relative clauses, we often leave out object pronouns, especially in an informal style. In non-identifying clauses this is not possible. Compare:

- *I feel sorry for the man she married.*
  She met my brother, whom she later married. (NOT ~~*She met my brother, she later married.*~~)
- *Did you like the wine we drank last night?*
  I poured him a glass of wine, which he drank at once. (NOT ~~*I poured him a glass of wine, he drank at once.*~~)

496 relatives (3): whose

1 relative possessive

Whose is a relative possessive word, used as a determiner before nouns in the same way as *his, her, its* or *their*. It can refer back to people or things. In a relative clause, *whose* + noun can be the subject, the object of a verb or the object of a preposition.

I saw a girl whose beauty took my breath away. (subject)
It was a meeting whose purpose I did not understand. (object)
Michel Croz, with whose help Whymper climbed the Matterhorn, was one of the first professional guides. (object of preposition)
I went to see my friends the Forrests, whose children I used to look after when they were small. (object of preposition)

Whose can be used in both identifying and non-identifying clauses.

2 things: *of which; that ... of*

Instead of *whose*, we can use *of which* or *that ... of* (less formal) to refer to things, and these are sometimes preferred. The most common word order is **noun + *of which*** or ***that ... of***, but ***of which ...* + noun** is also possible. Compare the following four ways of expressing the same idea.

*He's written a book **whose name** I've forgotten.*
*He's written a book **the name of which** I've forgotten.*
*He's written a book **that** I've forgotten **the name of**.*
*He's written a book **of which** I've forgotten **the name**.*

We do not normally use **noun + *of whom*** in a possessive sense to talk about people.

a man whose name I've forgotten (NOT ~~*a man of whom I've forgotten the name*~~)

3 only used as a determiner

Relative *whose* is only used as a possessive determiner, before a noun. In other cases we use *of which/whom* or *that ... of*.

*He's married to a singer **of whom** you may have heard.* OR ... ***that** you may have heard of.* (NOT ... ~~*a singer whose you may have heard.*~~)

4 formality

Sentences with *whose* are generally felt to be rather heavy and formal; in an informal style other structures are often preferred. *With* (see 631) is a common way of expressing possessive ideas, and is usually more natural than *whose* in descriptions.

*I've got some friends **with a** house that looks over a river.*
(Less formal than ... *whose house looks over a river.*)
*You know that girl **with a** brother who drives lorries?*
(Less formal than ... *whose brother drives lorries?*)
*She's married to the man over there **with the** enormous ears.*
(More natural than ... *the man over there whose ears are enormous.*)

For *whose* in questions, see 626.

497 relatives (4): what

1 meaning and use: *the thing(s) which*

What does not refer to a noun that comes before it. It acts as **noun + relative pronoun** together, and means 'the thing(s) which'. Clauses beginning with *what* can act as subjects, objects, or complements after *be*.

***What she said** made me angry.* (subject of *made*)
*I hope you're going to give me **what I need**.* (object of *give*)
*This is exactly **what I wanted**.* (complement)

For singular and plural verbs after *what* (e.g. *What we need most is/are books*), see 529. ▶

2 *what* not used

What is only used to mean 'the thing(s) which'. It cannot be used as an ordinary relative pronoun after a noun or pronoun.

*We haven't got **everything that** you ordered.* (NOT ... ~~everything what~~ ...)

*The **only thing that** keeps me awake is coffee.* (NOT ~~The only thing what~~ ...)

We use *which*, not *what*, to refer to a whole clause that comes before (see 494.9).

*Sally married Joe, **which** made Paul very unhappy.* (NOT ... ~~what made~~ ...)

3 *what* as a determiner

What can also be used as a determiner with a noun.

***What money** he has comes from his family.* (= The money that he has ...)

*I'll give you **what help** I can.* (= ... any help that I can.)

498 relatives (5): advanced points

1 double use of relative pronouns

Note that relative pronouns have a double use: they act as subjects or objects inside relative clauses, and at the same time they connect relative clauses to nouns or pronouns in other clauses – rather like conjunctions.

2 relative pronouns as general-purpose connectors

In non-identifying clauses, the pronouns *who* and *which* sometimes act as general-purpose connecting words, rather like ***and*** + **pronoun**.

*She passed the letter to Moriarty, **who** passed it on to me.* (= ... and he passed it on ...)

*I dropped the saucepan, **which** knocked over the eggs, **which** went all over the floor.* (= ... and it knocked ... and they went ...)

*I do a lot of walking, **which** keeps me fit.* (= ... and this keeps me fit.)

3 *who* and *whom*

Who can be used as an object in identifying clauses in an informal style. *Whom* is more formal.

*The woman **who** I marry will have a good sense of humour.*
(More formal: *The woman **whom** I marry* ...)

In non-identifying clauses, *who* is less common as an object, though it is sometimes used in an informal style.

*In that year he met Rachel, **whom** he was later to marry.*
(OR ... *Rachel, **who** he was later to marry.* – informal)

4 *that* for people

That is often used in identifying relative clauses instead of *who/whom/which* (see 494.4). *That* is most common as an object, or as a subject instead of *which*. *That* can be used as a subject instead of *who*, but this is quite informal. Compare:

*the people **that** I invited* (normal) *the books **that** I lent you* (normal)

*the bus **that** crashed* (normal)

*the people **that** live next door* (informal; *the people who* ... is preferred in a less informal style)

5 *which* as determiner; *in which case*

Which can be used as a determiner in relative clauses, with a general noun which repeats the meaning of what came before. This structure is rather formal, and is mainly used after prepositions, especially in some fixed phrases like *in which case* and *at which point.*

*She may be late, **in which case** we ought to wait for her.*
*He lost his temper, **at which point** I decided to go home.*
*He was appointed Lord Chancellor, **in which post** he spent the rest of his life.*
*He spoke in Greek, **which language** I could only follow with difficulty.*

6 *when, where* etc replaced by *that* or dropped

After common nouns referring to time, *when* is often replaced by *that* or dropped in an informal style.

*Come and see us **any time (that)** you're in town.*
*I'll never forget **the day (that)** we met.*
*That was **the year (that)** I first went abroad.*

The same thing happens with *where* after *somewhere, anywhere, everywhere, nowhere* and *place* (but not after other words).

*Have you got **somewhere (that)** I can lie down for an hour?*
*We need **a place (that)** we can stay for a few days.* (BUT NOT ~~*We need a house we can stay for a few days.*~~)

After *way, in which* can be replaced by *that* or dropped in an informal style.

*I didn't like **the way (that)** she spoke to me.*
*Do you know **a way (that)** you can earn money without working?*

The same thing happens with *why* after *reason.*

*The **reason (that)** you're so bad-tempered is that you're hungry.*

For more about *place*, see 431. For *way*, see 615. For *reason*, see 492.

7 position of prepositions

Prepositions can come either before relative pronouns (more formal) or at the ends of relative clauses (more informal). Compare:

– *He was respected by the people **with whom** he worked.* (formal)
  *He was respected by the people (that) he worked **with**.* (informal)
– *This is the room **in which** I was born.* (formal)
  *This is the room (that) I was born **in**.* (informal)

Who and *that* are not used after prepositions.

*... the people **with whom** he worked.* (NOT ... ~~*the people with who/that he worked.*~~)

For more about prepositions at the ends of clauses, see 452.

8 *some of whom, none of which* etc

In non-identifying clauses, quantifying determiners (e.g. *some, any, none, all, both, several, enough, many* and *few*) can be used with *of whom, of which* and *of whose.* The determiner most often comes before *of which/whom/whose,* but can sometimes come after it in a very formal style.

*They picked up five boat-loads of refugees, **some of whom** had been at sea for several months.* (OR ... *of whom some* ...) ▸

*We've tested three hundred types of boot, **none of which** is completely waterproof.* (OR ... *of which none* ...)
*They've got eight children, **all of whom** are studying music.* (OR ... *of whom all are studying* ...)
*She had a teddy-bear, **both of whose** eyes were missing.*

This structure is also possible with other expressions of quantity, with superlatives, with *first, second* etc, and with *last.*

a number of whom *three of which* *half of which*
the majority of whom *the youngest of whom*

9 *whatever, whoever* etc

Whatever can be used rather like *what,* as **noun + relative pronoun** together.
*Take **whatever** you want.* (= ... anything that you want.)

Other words that can be used like this are *whoever, whichever, where, wherever, when, whenever* and *how.*
*This is for **whoever** wants it.* (= ... any person that wants it.)
*I often think about **where** I met you.* (= ... the place where ...)
*We've bought a cottage in the country for **when** we retire.* (= ... the time when ...)
Whenever you want to come is fine with me. (= Any day that ...)
*Look at **how** he treats me.* (= ... the way in which ...)

For details of the use of *whoever, whatever* and other words ending in *-ever,* see 625.
For more about *how*-clauses, see 252.

10 reduced relative clauses: *the girl dancing*

A participle is often used instead of a relative pronoun and full verb.
*Who's the girl **dancing** with your brother?*
(= ... that is dancing with your brother?)
*Anyone **touching** that wire will get a shock.*
(= ... who touches ...)
*Half of the people **invited** to the party didn't turn up.*
(= ... who were invited ...)
*I found him sitting at a table **covered** with papers.*
(= ... which was covered with papers.)

Reduced structures are also used with the adjectives *available* and *possible.*
*Please send me all the tickets **available**.* (= ... that are available.)
*Tuesday's the only date **possible**.*

11 separating a noun from its relative pronoun

Relative pronouns usually follow their nouns directly.
*The **idea which** she put forward was interesting.* (NOT ~~*The idea was interesting which she put forward.*~~)
*I rang up Mrs Spencer, **who** did our accounts.* (NOT ~~*I rang Mrs Spencer up, who did our accounts.*~~)

However, a descriptive phrase can sometimes separate a noun from its relative pronoun.
*I rang up Mrs Spencer, **the Manager's secretary, who** did our accounts.*

12 agreement of person

Most relative clauses have third-person reference; *I who* . . . , *you who* . . . and *we who* . . . are unusual, though they sometimes occur in a very formal style.

You who pass by, tell them of us and say
For their tomorrow we gave our today.
(Allied war memorial at Kohima)

A different kind of first- and second-person reference is common in the relative clauses of cleft sentences (see 131). However, the verb is usually third-person, especially in an informal style.

It's me that's responsible for the organisation.
(More formal: *It is I who am responsible* . . .)
You're the one that knows where to go. (NOT . . . ~~*the one that know*~~ . . .)

13 relative + infinitive: *a garden in which to play*

When a noun or pronoun is the object of a following infinitive, a relative pronoun is not normally used.

I can't think of anybody to invite. (NOT . . . ~~*anybody whom to invite.*~~)

However, relative pronouns are possible with preposition structures.

We moved to the country so that the children would have a garden ***in which to play.***
He was miserable unless he had neighbours ***with whom to quarrel.***

This structure is rather formal, and it is more common to use **infinitive + preposition** without a relative pronoun.

. . . *so that the children would have a garden* ***to play in.*** (NOT . . . ~~*which to play in.*~~)
. . . *unless he had neighbours* ***to quarrel with.*** (NOT . . . ~~*whom to quarrel with.*~~)

14 relative clauses after indefinite noun phrases

The distinction between identifying and non-identifying clauses (see 495) is most clear when they modify definite noun phrases like *the car, this house, my father, Mrs Lewis.* After indefinite noun phrases like *a car, some nurses* or *friends*, the distinction is less clear, and both kinds of clause are often possible with slight differences of emphasis.

He's got a new car ***that*** *goes like a bomb.*
(OR *He's got a new car,* ***which*** *goes like a bomb.*)
We became friendly with some nurses ***that*** *John had met in Paris.*
(OR *We became friendly with some nurses,* ***whom*** *John had met in Paris.*)

In general, identifying clauses are used when the information they give is felt to be centrally important to the overall message. When this is not so, non-identifying clauses are preferred.

15 *somebody I know you'll like*

It is often possible to combine relative clauses with indirect statements and similar structures, e.g. *I know/said/feel/hope/wish (that)* . . ., especially in an informal style. Expressions like *I know, I said* etc come after the position of the relative pronoun.

We're going to meet somebody (who/that) I know (that) you'll like.
It's a house (which/that) we feel (that) we might want to buy.
That's the man (who/that) I wish (that) I'd married. ▸

Note that the conjunction (the second *that*) is usually dropped in this structure; it must be dropped if the relative pronoun is a subject.

This is the woman (who/that) Ann said could show us the church.
(NOT ~~*This is the woman (who/that) Ann said that could show us*~~ . . .)

In this structure, people sometimes use *whom* as a subject pronoun. This is not generally considered correct.

This is a letter from my father, whom we hope will be out of hospital soon.
(More correct: . . . *who we hope will be out* . . .)

Relative clauses can also be combined with *if*-clauses in sentences like the following.

I am enclosing an application form, which I should be grateful if you would sign and return.

16 *a car that I didn't know how fast it could go*, etc

We do not usually combine a relative clause with an indirect question structure. However, this sometimes happens in informal speech.

I've just been to see an old friend that I'm not sure when I'm going to see again.

There's a pile of washing-up that I just don't know how I'm going to do.

There is no grammatically correct way of doing this when the relative pronoun is the subject of the relative clause. However, sentences like the following (with added pronouns) are also sometimes heard in informal speech. Some real examples:

I was driving a car that I didn't know how fast it could go.
It's ridiculous to sing songs that you don't know what they mean.
There's a control at the back that I don't understand how it works.
There's still one kid that I must find out whether she's coming to the party or not.

17 omission of subject

In a very informal style, a subject relative pronoun is sometimes dropped after *there is*.

There's a man at the door wants to talk to you.

18 double object

Occasionally a relative pronoun acts as the object of two verbs. This happens especially when a relative clause is followed by *before . . .ing*, *after . . .ing* or *without . . .ing*.

We have water that it's best not to drink before boiling. (OR . . . *boiling it.*)
I'm sending you a letter that I want you to destroy after reading. (OR . . . *after reading it.*)
He was somebody that you could like without admiring. (OR . . . *admiring him.*)

19 older English: *who* and *that which*

In older English, *who* could be used in a similar way to *what*, as **noun + relative pronoun** together, meaning 'the person who', 'whoever' or 'anybody who'. In modern English, this is very unusual.

Who steals my purse steals trash. (Shakespeare, Othello)
(Modern English: *Whoever/Anybody who . . .*)

That which used to be used in the same way as *what*. This, too, is very unusual in modern English.

We have that which we need. (Modern English: *We have what we need.*)

499 remind

1 meaning: *remind* and *remember*

These two verbs are not the same. *Reminding* somebody means 'making somebody remember'. Compare:

– *Remind me to pay the milkman.* (NOT ~~*Remember me to pay*~~ . . .)
I'm afraid I won't remember to pay the milkman.
– *This sort of weather reminds me of my home.* (NOT ~~*This sort of weather remembers me*~~ . . .)
This sort of weather makes me remember my home.

But note the special use of *remember* in *Remember me to your parents* and similar sentences.

2 structures

After *remind*, we can use an infinitive structure (for actions) or a *that*-clause (for facts).

Please remind me to go to the post office. (NOT ~~*Please remind me of going*~~ . . .)
I reminded him that we hadn't got any petrol left.

3 *remind . . . of . . .*

We use *remind . . . of* to say that something/somebody makes us remember the past, or things that have been forgotten.

The smell of hay always reminds me of our old house in the country.
(NOT . . . ~~*reminds me our old house*~~ . . .)
Remind me of your phone number.

We can also use *remind . . . of* to talk about similarities.

She reminds me of her mother. (= She is like her mother.)

500 repetition

1 avoidance of repetition

In English, unnecessary repetition is usually considered to be a bad thing. Careful writers generally try not to use the same words and structures in successive clauses and sentences without a good reason; when expressions are repeated, it is often for deliberate emphasis or other stylistic purposes. Casual repetition is more common in informal language, but even in conversation people often sound monotonous or clumsy if they do not vary their sentence structure and vocabulary. Some kinds of repetition are actually ungrammatical in both writing and speech. ▸

2 unnatural/ungrammatical repetition

When we refer again to a person or thing that has already been mentioned, we normally use a pronoun instead of repeating the original noun phrase. When the reference is very close to the original mention, repetition (unless there is a special reason for it) is usually not only unnatural, but ungrammatical.

What's Rachel doing here? ~ ***She*** *wants to talk to you.* (NOT . . . ~~*Rachel wants to talk to you.*~~)

We got that cat because the children wanted ***it.*** (NOT ~~*We got that cat because the children wanted that cat.*~~)

Dad's just cut ***himself*** *shaving.* (NOT ~~*Dad's just cut Dad shaving.*~~)

This kind of thing happens with other words besides nouns.

I don't smoke. ~ *I* ***do.*** (NOT . . . ~~*I smoke.*~~)

Do you know if the bank's open? ~ *I think* ***so.*** (NOT ~~*I think the bank's open.*~~)

She's staying at ***the*** *Royal Hotel, so we said we'd meet her there.* (NOT . . . ~~*so we said we'd meet her at the Royal Hotel.*~~)

However, repetition is necessary and normal when alternatives are discussed.

Would you rather have potatoes or rice? ~ ***Rice,*** *please.*

Shall we dance or go for a walk? ~ *Let's* ***go for a walk.***

For more details, see 177–182 (ellipsis) and 539 (*so*).

3 duplicated subjects and objects

We do not very often repeat a subject or object with the same verb.

That wall needs painting.

(More normal than *That wall, it needs painting.*)

I saw my uncle yesterday.

(More normal than *My uncle, I saw him yesterday.*)

However, this kind of repetition can happen in informal speech, when people announce a topic and then make a sentence about it (see 513).

That friend of your mother's – he's on the phone.

Those bicycle wheels – I think we ought to put ***them*** *in the garden shed.*

And sometimes a pronoun subject is repeated by a noun phrase 'tag' after the sentence (see 514).

She's a clever girl, ***your Anne.***

4 related verbs and nouns

We usually avoid putting related verbs and nouns together.

– *We made wonderful* ***plans.*** OR *We* ***planned*** *wonderful things.*
(BUT NOT ~~*We planned wonderful plans.*~~)

– *She wrote an interesting paper.* OR *She did an interesting piece of* ***writing.***
(BUT NOT ~~*She wrote an interesting piece of writing.*~~)

There are some fixed expressions which are exceptions (e.g. *to sing a song, to live a good life, to die a violent death*).

5 *Wonderful, isn't it?* etc

There is a common kind of exchange in which one speaker gives his/her opinion of something, and the other speaker agrees by saying the same thing in other words which are at least as emphatic. Repetition is carefully avoided.

Glorious day. ~ ***Wonderful,*** *isn't it?* (NOT ... ~~*Glorious, isn't it?*~~)
Terrible weather. ~ ***Dreadful.***
United didn't play very well, then. ~ *Bloody* ***rubbish.***

6 clumsy style

In writing, repetition is often considered clumsy even when it is not ungrammatical. Most of the repetitions in the following text would be avoided by a careful writer, by varying the structure and by careful use of synonyms (e.g. *tried/attempted, summarise / describe briefly, forecast/predict*).

In this report, I have tried to forecast likely developments over the next three years. In the first section, I have tried to summarise the results of the last two years, and I have tried to summarise the present situation. In the second section, I have tried to forecast the likely consequences of the present situation, and the consequences of the present financial policy.

7 deliberate repetition

Speakers and writers can of course repeat vocabulary and structures deliberately. This may be done for emphasis.

I'm very, very sorry. *I want every room cleaned – every single room.*

Repeating somebody else's words may show surprise or disbelief.

I'm getting married. ~ ***You're getting married?*** *Who to?*

Structural repetition can show how ideas are similar or related (by using the same structure for the same kind of item).

First of all, I ***want to*** *congratulate you all on the splendid results. Secondly, I* ***want to*** *give you some interesting news. And finally, I* ***want to*** *thank you all ...*

8 literary examples

Here are two contrasting examples of repetition used deliberately for literary purposes. In the first, by John Steinbeck, structures and key vocabulary (especially nouns and verbs) are repeated and rhythmically balanced in order to create an impressive (or mock-impressive) effect – to make the story and characters sound striking and important.

This is the story of Danny and of Danny's friends and of Danny's house. It is a story of how these three became one thing, so that in Tortilla Flat if you speak of Danny's house you do not mean a structure of wood flaked with old white-wash, overgrown with an ancient untrimmed rose of Castile. No, when you speak of Danny's house you are understood to mean a unit of which the parts are men, from which came sweetness and joy, philanthropy, and, in the end, a mystic sorrow. For Danny's house was not unlike the Round Table, and Danny's friends were not unlike the knights of it. And this is the story of how the group came into being, of how it flourished and grew to be an organisation beautiful and wise. This story deals with the adventuring of Danny's friends, with the good they did, with their thoughts and their endeavors. In the end, this story tells how the talisman was lost and how the group disintegrated.

(John Steinbeck, *Tortilla Flat*) ▸

In contrast, the following text, by Ernest Hemingway, uses a kind of style which 'good' writers would normally avoid, repeating pronouns and simple structures in an apparently monotonous way. Hemingway's purpose is to show the simplicity of his hero, an uneducated old fisherman, by using a style that is supposed to reflect the way he thinks and speaks.

He did not remember when he had first started to talk aloud when he was by himself He had sung when he was by himself in the old days and he had sung at night sometimes when he was alone steering on his watch in the smacks or in the turtle boats. He had probably started to talk aloud, when alone, when the boy had left. But he did not remember.
(Ernest Hemingway, *The Old Man and the Sea*)

501 [the] rest

The rest means 'what is left'. It is singular in form, and *the* is always used.
We only use three rooms. The rest of the house is empty.
To talk about what is left after something has been used up, eaten, destroyed etc, we often use other words.
There were remains of the meal all over the floor. (NOT ~~*There were rests*~~...)
Supper tonight is leftovers from lunch. (NOT ...~~*rests*~~...)
If you divide 100 by 12, the remainder is 4.
When *the rest* refers to a plural noun, it has a plural verb.
There are four chocolates for Penny, four for Joe and the rest are mine.
(NOT ...~~*the rest is mine.*~~)

502 road and street

1 the difference

A *street* is a road with houses on either side. We use *street* for roads in towns or villages, but not for country roads.
Cars can park on both sides of the street here.
Our village has only got one street.
Road is used for both town and country.
Cars can park on both sides of our road.
The road out of our village goes up a steep hill. (NOT ~~*The street out of our village*~~...)

2 street names: stress

In street names we normally stress the word *Road*, but the word before *Street*.
Marylebone 'Road *'Oxford Street*

503 the same

1 *the same (as)*

We normally use *the* before *same*.
Give me the same again, please. (NOT ~~*Give me same again, please.*~~)

In a comparison, we use *the same (...) as.*

You've got the same idea as me. (NOT ... ~~my same idea.~~)

Her hair's the same colour as her mother's. (NOT ... ~~the same colour like~~ ...)

Note the expression *the very same* (= exactly the same).

Our birthdays are on the very same day.

2 other structures

Before a clause, *the same ... that* or *the same ... who* can be used.

That's the same man that/who asked me for money yesterday.

As is also possible before a clause, especially with a noun that is the object of the following verb.

He's wearing the same shirt that/as he had on yesterday.

As/who/that can be left out when they refer to the object of the following verb.

He's wearing the same shirt he had on yesterday.

Note also the expression *do the same.*

Why do you always try to do the same as your brother?

Joe and Carol went on a camping holiday, and we're going to do the same.

504 say and tell

1 meaning and use

Both *say* and *tell* are used with direct and indirect speech. (*Say* is more common than *tell* with direct speech.)

'Turn right,' I said. (OR *'Turn right,' I told him.*)

She said that it was my last chance. (OR *She told me that it was my last chance.*)

Tell is only used to mean 'instruct' or 'inform'. So we do not use *tell* with greetings, exclamations or questions, for example.

He said, 'Good morning.' (BUT NOT ~~He told them, 'Good morning.'~~)

Mary said, 'What a nice idea.' (BUT NOT ~~Mary told us, 'What a nice idea.'~~)

'What's your problem?' I said. (BUT NOT ~~'What's your problem?' I told her.~~)

2 *say*: objects

Say is most often used without a personal object.

She said that she would be late. (NOT ~~She said me~~ ...)

If we want to put a personal object after *say*, we use *to.*

And I say to all the people of this great country ...

3 *tell*: objects

After *tell*, we usually say who is told.

She told me that she would be late. (NOT ~~She told that~~ ...)

Tell is used without a personal object in a few expressions. Common examples: *tell the truth, tell a lie, tell a story/joke.*

I don't think she's telling the truth. (NOT ... ~~saying the truth.~~)

Note also the use of *tell* to mean 'distinguish', 'understand', as in *tell the difference, tell the time.*

He's seven years old and he still can't tell the time.

Tell is not used before objects like *a word, a name, a sentence, a phrase.*

Alice said a naughty word this morning. (NOT ~~Alice told~~ ...) ▸

We do not usually use *it* after *tell* to refer to a fact.

What time's the meeting? ~ *I'll tell you tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*I'll tell you it tomorrow.*~~)

4 infinitives

Tell can be used before **object + infinitive**, in the sense of 'order' or 'instruct'. *Say* cannot be used like this.

I told the children to go away. (NOT ~~*I said the children to go away.*~~)

5 indirect questions

Neither *tell* nor *say* can introduce indirect questions (see 276).

Bill asked whether I wanted to see a film. (NOT ~~*Bill said whether I wanted to see a film.*~~ OR ~~*Bill told me whether*~~ . . .)

But *say* and *tell* can introduce the answers to questions.

Has she said who's coming?

He only told one person where the money was.

For *so* after *say* and *tell*, see 540.

505 see

1 progressive forms not used

When *see* means 'perceive with one's eyes', progressive ('continuous') forms are not normally used.

Do you see the woman in blue over there? (NOT ~~*Are you seeing*~~ . . .?)

To talk about seeing something at the moment of speaking, *can see* is often used, especially in British English (see 125).

I can see an aeroplane. (AmE also *I see an airplane.*)
(NOT ~~*I am seeing an aeroplane.*~~)

But we can say that somebody *is seeing things* if we mean that he/she is imagining things that are not there.

Look! A camel! ~ *You're seeing things.*

When *see* means 'understand' or 'have heard' (see 243), progressive forms are not normally used.

We've got a problem. ~ *I see.*

I see they're talking about putting up taxes again.

2 changes

Progressive forms can be used for changes in people's ability to see.

I'm seeing much better since I got those new glasses.

I'm seeing a lot of things in this book that I missed when I read it before.

3 'meet', 'arrange' etc

When *see* means 'meet', 'interview', 'talk to', 'go out with' or 'arrange', 'supervise', progressive forms are possible.

I'm seeing the dentist tomorrow.

Are you still seeing that Henderson woman?

John's down at the docks. He's seeing that our stuff gets loaded properly.

4 other meanings: 'consider' etc

See can mean 'consider', 'think', 'find out', 'discuss' or 'decide'.

Can I have a holiday next Monday? ~ I'll see.
What time shall we go to the gym? ~ Let me see. How about 5 o'clock?
Can you look out of the window and see if it's still snowing?

A preposition is necessary before an object in these cases.

*We'll see **about that** tomorrow.* (NOT ~~*We'll see that tomorrow.*~~)
*You'd better see **about that** with Jim.* (NOT ~~*You'd better see that with Jim.*~~)

See if . . . can often means 'try to'.

See if you can get him to stop talking.

For *see* + object + infinitive /-*ing* form, see 242.
For the difference between *see, look* and *watch*, see 506.

506 see, look (at) and watch

1 *see*

See is the ordinary verb to say that something 'comes to our eyes', whether or not we are paying attention.

Suddenly I saw something strange. (NOT ~~*Suddenly I looked at something strange.*~~)
Did you see the article about the strike in today's paper?

2 *look (at)*

We use *look* to talk about concentrating, paying attention, trying to see what is there. You can *see* something without wanting to, but you can only *look at* something deliberately. Compare:

*I **looked at** the photo, but I didn't see anybody I knew.*
Do you see that man? ~ Yes. ~ Look again. ~ Good heavens! It's Moriarty!
*He **looked at** her with his eyes full of love.*

When *look* has an object it is followed by *at*. When there is no object there is no preposition. Compare:

Look at me! (NOT ~~*Look me!*~~) *Look!* (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~)

Note that *at* is often dropped before a *wh*-clause.

Look (at) what you've done!
Look who's here! *Look where you're going.*

3 *watch*

Watch is like *look at*, but suggests that something is happening or going to happen. We *watch* things that change, move or develop.

Watch that man – I want to know everything he does.
*I usually **watch** a football match on Saturday afternoon.*

4 complete experiences: *see*

Watch is typically used to talk about experiences that are going on, in progress. We often prefer *see* to talk about the whole of a performance, play, cinema film, match etc. Compare:

*He got into a fight yesterday afternoon while he was **watching** a football match.* (NOT . . . ~~*while he was seeing a football match.*~~)
*Have you ever **seen** Chaplin's 'The Great Dictator'?* (NOT ~~*Have you ever watched Chaplin's 'The Great Dictator'?*~~)

5 *watch TV*

Watch is normally used with *TV*; *watch* and *see* are both used to talk about TV programmes and films.

You spend too much time watching TV.
We watched/saw a great film on TV last night.

6 *see if/whether*

See can be followed by *if/whether*, in the sense of 'find out'. *Look* and *watch* are not normally used in this way.

See if that suit still fits you. (NOT ~~*Look if that suit*~~ . . .)
I'm looking to see whether there's any food left. (NOT ~~*I'm looking whether there's*~~ . . .)
Ring up and see whether she's in.

For infinitives and *-ing* forms after these verbs, see 242.
For other meanings of *see* (and progressive uses), see 243, 471.
For other meanings of *look*, see 157.19. For *if* and *whether*, see 621.
There are similar differences between *hear* and *listen (to)*. See 241.

507 seem

1 link verb: used with adjectives

Seem is a link verb (see 328); it is followed by adjectives, not adverbs.

You seem angry about something. (NOT ~~*You seem angrily*~~ . . .)

2 *seem* and *seem to be*

Seem is often followed by *to be*. We prefer *seem to be* when we are talking about objective facts – things that seem definitely to be true. *Seem* is used without *to be* when we are talking about subjective impressions. (The difference is not always clear-cut, and both are often possible.) Compare:

- *The bus seems to be full.*
  She seems excited.
- *The doctors have done the tests, and he definitely seems to be mentally ill.*
  It seems crazy, but I think I'm in love with the postman. (NOT ~~*It seems to be crazy*~~ . . .)
- *According to the experts, the north side of the castle seems to be about 100 years older than the rest.*
  He seems older than he is. (NOT ~~*He seems to be older than he is*~~ – this would suggest that he might actually be older than he is.)
- *She doesn't seem to be ready yet.*
  She seems (to be) very sleepy today.

3 with nouns

Seem to be is normal before noun phrases.

I looked through the binoculars: it seemed to be some sort of large rat.
(NOT ... ~~*it seemed some sort of large rat.*~~)

I spoke to a man who seemed to be the boss. (NOT ... ~~*who seemed the boss.*~~)

However, *to be* can be dropped before noun phrases which express more subjective feelings.

She seems (to be) a nice girl.
The cup seemed almost doll's size in his hands.
It seems a pity, but I can't see you this weekend. (NOT ~~*It seems to be a pity*~~...)

4 other infinitives

Seem can be followed by the infinitives of other verbs besides *be*.

Ann seems to need a lot of attention.

Perfect infinitives (see 280) are possible.

The tax people seem to have made a mistake.

To express a negative idea, we most often use a negative form of *seem*; but in a more formal style *not* can go with the following infinitive. Compare:

He doesn't seem to be at home.
He seems not to be at home. (formal)

Note the structure *can't seem to* ...

I can't seem to get anything right.
(More formal: *I seem not to be able to get anything right.*)

5 *seem like*

We can use *like*, but not *as*, after *seem*.

North Wales seems (like) a good place for a holiday. (NOT ... ~~*seems as a*~~...)

6 *it seems*

It can be a preparatory subject (see 446) for *that*- and *as if*-clauses after *seem*.

It seems that Bill and Alice have had a row.
It seemed as if the night was never going to end.

7 *there seems*

There (see 586) can be a preparatory subject for *seem to be*.

There seems to be some mistake.

For *like* and *as*, see 326. *Appear* is used in similar ways (see 58).

508 sensible and sensitive

A *sensible* person has 'common sense', and does not make stupid decisions.

I want to buy that dress. ~ *Be sensible, dear. It's much too expensive.*

A *sensitive* person feels things easily or deeply, and may be easily hurt.

Don't shout at her – she's very sensitive. (NOT ... ~~*very sensible.*~~)

Have you got a sun cream for sensitive skin? (NOT ... ~~*for sensible skin?*~~)

Sensible is a 'false friend' – similar words in some languages mean 'sensitive'.

509 sentence structure (1): basic word order

1 subject – verb – object/complement

In an affirmative sentence, the subject normally comes before the verb; objects or complements come after the verb.

Ann smiled. *My father likes dogs.* *Eric is a doctor.*

In a few affirmative structures the verb can come before the subject (e.g. *So can I, In came Mrs Parker*). See 302–303. For sentences that begin with the object (e.g. *Those people I can't stand*), see 513.

2 preparatory *it* and *there*

When the subject or object is an infinitive phrase or clause, we often put it at the end of a sentence, and use *it* as a preparatory subject or object (see 446–447).

It's difficult to understand what he wants.
She made it clear that she disagreed.

There can be a preparatory subject for an indefinite expression (see 587).

There is a big spider in the bath.

3 direct and indirect objects

Indirect objects can come before direct objects (without a preposition) or after direct objects (with a preposition).

She sent the nurse some flowers. *She sent some flowers to the nurse.*

For details, see 610.

4 questions: auxiliary before subject

Questions normally have the order **auxiliary verb – subject – main verb.**

Have you seen Andrew? *Where was she going?* *Did Mary phone?*

Indirect questions (see 276) have the subject before the verb.

Do you know where she was going?

5 negatives: auxiliary + *not*

Negative structures have *not* after an auxiliary verb.

The train did not stop. (NOT ~~*The train stopped not.*~~)

For word order in negative questions (e.g. *Why didn't she come? / Why did she not come?*), see 368.

6 adjectives before nouns

When adjectives are together with nouns, they usually come before them.

an interesting book *difficult questions*

For the order of adjectives, see 15. For exceptions and special cases, see 13.

7 adverbs: possible positions

Different adverbs can go in different places in a sentence: at the beginning, with the verb, or at the end. For details, see 21–25.

Suddenly I had a terrible thought.
The children had probably gone home. *I was playing badly.*

An adverb cannot normally come between a verb and its object.

I like mushrooms very much. (NOT ~~*I like very much mushrooms.*~~)

8 subordinate clauses (*after . . . , if . . ., because . . .*, etc)

Adverbial subordinate clauses (beginning for example, *after, before, when, while, if, because*) can usually come either before or after the rest of the sentence (see 510.3).

After I left school I spent a year in China. (OR *I spent a year in China after I left school.*)

9 prepositions: *in what . . . / what . . . in*

In an informal style, a preposition can be separated from its object in certain structures. For details, see 452. Compare:

In what hotel did the President stay? (formal)
What hotel did the President stay in? (informal)

For ways of arranging the information in a sentence, see 512.
For special structures in spoken English, see 514.
For word order in exclamations (e.g. *How kind you are!*), see 195.
For word order with phrasal verbs (e.g. *She put out the cat / She put the cat out*), see 599.4.
For structures like *The older I get . . .*, see 139.5.
For structures like *cold as/though she was*, see 71.
For structures like *so/how strange an experience*, see 14.
For *quite a . . .* and *rather a . . .*, see 489, 490.
For word order with *enough*, see 187.

510 sentence structure (2): conjunctions

1 What are conjunctions?

Conjunctions are words that join clauses into sentences.

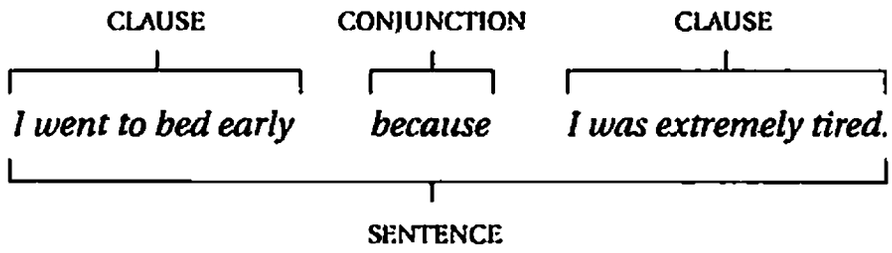

Conjunctions not only join clauses together; they also show how the meanings of the two clauses are related.

*We brought the food **and** they supplied the drink.* (addition)
*She was poor **but** she was honest.* (contrast)
*We can go swimming, **or** we could stay here.* (alternative)
*People disliked her **because** she was so rude.* (cause)
*I'll phone you **when** I arrive.* (time)

2 two kinds

And, but and *or* are often called 'co-ordinating conjunctions'. They join pairs of clauses that are grammatically independent of each other. ▸

Other conjunctions, like *because, when, that* or *which,* are called 'subordinating conjunctions'. A subordinating conjunction together with its following clause acts like a part of the other clause.

ADVERB
I'll phone you | ***tomorrow.***

ADVERB
I'll phone you | ***when I arrive.***
(*When I arrive* is similar to *tomorrow* – it acts like an adverb in the clause *I'll phone you . . .*)

OBJECT
He told me | ***a lie.***

OBJECT
He told me | ***that he loved me.***
(*that he loved me* is similar to *a lie* – it is the object in the clause *He told me . . .*)

ADJECTIVE
It's an | ***unanswerable*** | *question.*

ADJECTIVE
It's a question | ***which nobody can answer.***
(*which nobody can answer* is similar to *unanswerable* – it acts like an adjective in the clause *It's a question . . .*)

Some conjunctions are made up of two or more words.
I stayed an extra night ***so that*** *I could see Ann.*
Let me know ***the moment that*** *you arrive.*
In grammars, clauses that follow subordinating conjunctions are called 'subordinate clauses' or 'dependent clauses'.

3 position of subordinate clauses

Adverb clauses can usually go either first or last in a sentence (depending on what is to be emphasised – the most important information usually comes last).
- ***While I was having a shower,*** *I slipped on the floor.* (emphasises what happened)
  I slipped on the floor ***while I was having a shower.*** (emphasises when it happened)
- ***If you need help,*** *just let me know.*
  Just let me know ***if you need help.***
- ***Although the bicycle was expensive,*** *she decided to buy it.*
  She decided to buy the bicycle ***although it was expensive.***
- ***Because she was too angry to speak,*** *Ann said nothing.*
  Ann said nothing, ***because she was too angry to speak.***

4 punctuation

Commas are often used to separate longer or more complicated clauses. Shorter pairs of clauses are often connected without commas. Compare:
I came home and the others went dancing.
I decided to come home earlier than I had planned, and the others spent the evening at the local club.

When a subordinate clause begins a sentence, it is more often separated by a comma, even if it is short. Compare:

If you are passing, come in and see us.
Come in and see us if you are passing.

For punctuation in relative clauses, see 495.

5 leaving words out

Words for repeated ideas can often be left out in the second of two co-ordinate clauses (see 178 for details), but not normally in a subordinate clause. Compare:

*She was depressed, **and didn't** know what to do.* (= and she didn't know what to do.)
*She was depressed, **because she didn't** know what to do.* (NOT ~~*She was depressed, because didn't know*~~ . . .)

However, after *if, when, while, until, once, unless* and *(al)though*, a pronoun subject and the verb *be* can often be dropped, especially in common fixed expressions like *if necessary*.

*I'll pay for you **if necessary**.* (= . . . if it is necessary.)
*If **in doubt**, wait and see.* (= If you are in doubt . . .)
*When **in Rome**, do as the Romans do.* *Cook slowly **until ready**.*
*Once **in bed**, I read for twenty minutes and then turned out the light.*

Many conjunctions that express time relations (*after, before, since, when, while, whenever, once* and *until*) can often be followed by *-ing* forms or past participles instead of subjects and full verbs (see 411.6).

*I always feel better **after talking** to you.*
*Some things are never forgotten, **once learnt**.*

6 conjunctions in separate sentences

Normally a conjunction connects two clauses into one sentence. However, sometimes a conjunction and its clause can stand alone. This happens, for example, in answers.

*When are you going to get up? ~ **When I'm ready**.*
*Why did you do that? ~ **Because I felt like it**.*
*I'm going out, Mum. ~ **As soon as you've brushed your hair**.*

Writers and speakers can also separate clauses for emphasis.

*This government has got to go. **Before it does any more damage**.*

Afterthoughts may also begin with conjunctions.

*OK, I did it. – **But I didn't mean to**.*

For tenses in subordinate clauses, see 580.
For structures in which *that* is dropped, see 584.
See also 494–498 (relative pronouns and clauses), 274–278 (indirect speech), and the individual entries on the various conjunctions.

511 sentence structure (3): problems with conjunctions

In most languages of European origin, clauses are joined together by conjunctions in similar ways. However, students who speak other languages may have some problems in using English conjunctions correctly.

1 one conjunction for two clauses

One conjunction is enough to join two clauses – we do not normally use two.

– ***Although** she was tired, she went to work.*
*She was tired **but** she went to work.*
(NOT ~~*Although she was tired but she went to work.*~~)

– ***Because** I liked him, I tried to help him.*
*I liked him, **so** I tried to help him.*
(NOT ~~*Because I liked him, so I tried to help him.*~~)

– ***As** you know, I work very hard.*
*You know **that** I work very hard.*
(NOT ~~*As you know, that I work very hard.*~~)

However, we can use *and* or *or* together with a repeated conjunction.
*We came back because we ran out of money, **and** because Ann got ill.*
*She didn't write when I was ill, **or** when I got married.*

2 Relative pronouns are also conjunctions

Relative pronouns (*who, which* and *that* – see 494) join clauses like conjunctions.
*There's the girl **who** works with my sister.*
A relative pronoun is like the subject or object of the verb that comes after it. So we do not need another subject or object.
*I've got a friend **who** works in a pub.* (NOT ... ~~*who he works in a pub.*~~)
The man (that) she married was an old friend of mine. (NOT ~~*The man that she married him*~~ ...)
She always thanks me for the money that I give her. (NOT ... ~~*the money that I give her it.*~~)

3 *that, where* and *when*

That is often used instead of *which* or *who(m)* (see 494–495).
*There's the girl **that** works with my sister.*
But we do not usually use *that* instead of *when* or *where*.
*August 31st is a national holiday, **when** everybody dances in the streets.*
(NOT ... ~~*that everybody dances*~~ ...)
*The house **where** I live is very small.* (NOT ~~*The house that I live is very small.*~~)
But *that ... in* can mean the same as *where*.
*The house **that** I live **in** is very small.*
That can be used instead of *where* and *when* in a few special cases (e.g. after *place, day*); for details, see 498.6.
*I'll always remember **the day (that)** I met you.*

For conjunctions after prepositions, see 453.
For *now* as a conjunction, see 387. For *once*, see 394. For *the moment* and *immediately*, see 267.

512 sentence structure (4): information structure

1 different ways of organising information

When we talk about a situation, we can usually organise the information in various ways – for example, by choosing different elements of the situation as the subject of a clause or sentence.

The storm blew Margaret's roof off.
Margaret's roof was blown off in the storm.
Margaret had her roof blown off in the storm.

The way we choose to organise information in a clause or sentence can depend on what has been said before, on what the listener already knows, or on what we want to emphasise. This is a complicated area of English grammar. Some guidelines are given below.

2 normal order: important new information last

Most often, a clause or sentence moves from 'known' to 'new': from low to high information value. So we often choose as the subject a person or thing that is already being talked about or that has already been mentioned, or something that the speaker and hearer are both familiar with, or even some new information that is not the main point of the message. The important new information generally comes at the end of a clause or sentence.

How's Joe these days? ~ Oh, fine. He's just got married to a very nice girl.
(More natural than ... *A very nice girl's just got married to him.*)
My father was bitten by a dog last week.
(More natural than *A dog bit my father last week.*)
Our dog bit the postman this morning.
(More natural than *The postman was bitten by our dog this morning.*)
I can't find my clothes. ~ Well, your trousers are under my coat.
(More natural than ... *My coat's on your trousers.*)

To avoid beginning a clause with a completely new element, we can use the *there is* structure. For details, see 587.

There's a cat on the roof. (More natural than *A cat's on the roof.*)

For 'known' and 'new' information with *as*, *since* and *because*, see 72.

3 getting the right subject: actives, passives, etc

In many situations, there is an 'agent' (the person or thing who does something) and a 'patient' (the person or thing that something is done to). If we want to make the agent the subject, we can usually do this by choosing an active verb form (see 10).

The storm blew Margaret's roof off.
Somebody's dropped ketchup all over the floor.

If we want to make the patient the subject, we can usually do this by choosing a passive verb form (see 412).

Margaret's roof was blown off in the storm.
Ketchup has been dropped all over the floor.

If we want to make something else the subject, we can often do this by using a structure with *have* + object + past participle (see 238.3).

Margaret had her roof blown off in the storm.
The floor has had ketchup dropped all over it. ▸

Structures with *have* are often used to 'personalise' a situation by making a person the subject.

I've got the house full of children. (Instead of *The house is full of children.* OR *There are children all over the house.*)

We can often get the subject we want by choosing the right verb. Compare:

– *The biscuit factory employs 7,000 people.*
  7,000 people work for the biscuit factory.
– *He led the children through the silent streets.*
  The children followed him through the silent streets.

Some verbs can have both agent and patient subjects. For details, see 609.

She opened the door *The door opened.*

4 end-weight: *It worried me that she hadn't been in touch*

Longer and heavier structures usually come last in a clause or sentence. (These usually have the highest 'information-value' in any case.)

Children are sometimes discouraged by the length of time it takes to learn a musical instrument. (More natural than *The length of time it takes to learn a musical instrument sometimes discourages children.*)

Because of this, we often use a structure with 'preparatory *it*' in order to move a clause or infinitive subject or object to the end of a sentence. For details, see 446–447.

It worried me that she hadn't been in touch for so long.
(More natural than *That she hadn't been in touch for so long worried me.*)

It's important to tell us everything you know.
(More natural than *To tell us everything you know is important.*)

He made it clear that he was not in the least interested. (More natural than *He made that he was not in the least interested clear.*)

Adverbs do not normally separate the verb from the object in an English clause (see 21.1). However, a very long and heavy object may come after a shorter adverb. Compare:

She plays the violin very well (NOT ~~*She plays very well the violin.*~~)

She plays very well almost any instrument that you can think of and several that you can't.

End-weight can also affect the word order of indirect questions. Compare:

I'm not sure what the point is.

I'm not sure what is the point of spending hours and hours discussing this.

5 emphatic structures: *What I need is . . .; Nice man, Joe*

There are various ways of giving extra emphasis to one part of a sentence. One way is to use a 'cleft sentence' with *it* or *what*: this emphasises one idea by putting everything else into a subordinate clause. For details, see 130–131.

It was my mother who finally called the police.

What I need is a hot bath and a drink.

If we move to the beginning of a sentence something that does not normally go there, this gives it extra emphasis. This kind of structure ('fronting') is common in speech, where intonation can make the information structure clear. For details, see 513.

The other plans we'll look at next week. *Nice man, Joe.*

For more information about emphasis, see 184.

513 sentence structure (5): fronting

1 *People like that I just can't stand*

Affirmative sentences most often begin with the grammatical subject.

I just can't stand people like that.

If we begin a sentence with something else ('fronting'), this is often to make it the topic – the thing we are talking about – even though it is not the grammatical subject. This can also move the main new information to the end – its most natural position (see 512).

***This question** we have already discussed at some length.*

***All the other information which you need** I am putting in the post today.* (from a business letter)

***Any video in our catalogue** we can supply, if available.* (Notice in music shop.)

Fronting is particularly common in speech.

***People like that** I just can't stand.*

***(A) fat lot of good** that does me.* (= 'That doesn't do me much good', but putting strong emphasis on *me*.)

Question-word clauses are often fronted.

***What I'm going to do next** I just don't know.*

***How she got the gun through customs** we never found out.*

2 *Very good lesson we had*

Fronting words in short sentences can also give them extra emphasis. This happens mostly in speech.

***Strange people** they are!*

***Very good lesson** we had yesterday.* ***Last for ever these shoes** will.*

In a few exclamatory expressions, a noun is fronted before *that*, but this is uncommon in modern English.

***Fool** that I was!*

3 ellipsis: *Postman been?*

In a very informal style, articles, pronouns and auxiliary verbs are often left out, bringing a more important word to the front of the clause. This is called 'ellipsis': for details, see 179.

***Postman** been?* ***Seen** John?*

Sometimes ellipsis is used to front a verb and/or complement, while the subject is put in a 'tag' (see 514) at the end.

***Likes** his beer, Stephen does.*

***Funny**, your brother.* ***Nice day**, isn't it?*

4 adverbs etc: *Off we go!*

Many adverbs and adverbial expressions can go at the beginning of a clause (see 22). This often happens when we are using the adverbs to structure a piece of narrative or a description.

*Once upon a time there were three little pigs. **One day** ... **Then** ... **Soon after** that ... **After dark**, ...*

*Inside the front door there is ... **Opposite** the living room is ... **On the right** you can see ... **At the top of the stairs** ...* ▸

Adverb particles are often fronted when giving instructions to small children.

Off we go! *Down you come!*

Inversion (see 302–303) is necessary after some emphatic fronted adverbs and adverbial expressions.

Under no circumstances can we accept cheques. (NOT ~~*Under no circumstances we can*~~ . . .)

Round the corner came Mrs Porter.

5 fronting with *as* or *though*

Fronted adjectives and adverbs are possible in a structure with *as* or *though* (see 71).

Young as I was, I realised what was happening.

Tired though she was, she went on working.

Fast though she drove, she could not catch them.

Much as I respect his work, I cannot agree with him.

See also entries on basic word order (509), information structure (512), 'spacing out' information in speech (514), tags (514), emphasis (184) and cleft sentences (130–131).

For the use of passive and other structures to bring objects to the front, see 512.3, 414.1.

514 sentence structure (6): spoken structures and tags

1 *This guy who rang up, he's an architect*

In informal speech, we often 'space out' the different elements of a sentence, giving the hearer a little extra time to interpret each part before going on to the next.

Last Wednesday it was, I was just going to work, . . .

It's terrible, you know, the unemployment down there.

One way of spacing out information is to separate a subject or object, announce it at the front of a sentence, and then repeat it with a pronoun.

George Best – now he was a good player.

This guy who rang up, he's an architect. Well, . . .

That couple we met in Berlin, we don't want to send them a card, do we?

One of my brothers, his wife's a singer, he says . . .

This does not usually happen with pronoun subjects, but *me* and *myself* are occasionally detached and fronted.

Me, I don't care.

Myself, I think you're making a big mistake.

Another common way of separating part of a sentence is to introduce it with *You know . . .*

You know Sylvia. Well, she . . .

2 tags: *They work very hard, most of them*

We can space out information by putting some of it in a complete sentence and then adding more details at the end. The extra words at the end are called a 'tag'.

They work very hard, most of them.

That's the doorbell, I think. *I don't mind, to be honest.*

It is possible to 'announce' the subject with a pronoun, and put the full subject in a tag.

He hasn't a chance, Fred. *He likes his beer, John.*
They're very polite, your children.

In sentences like these, we often drop the pronoun at the beginning.

Hasn't a chance, Fred. *Likes his beer, John.*

We can also drop an unstressed form of *be*.

Very polite, your children.
Living in the clouds, you lot. *Crazy, that driver.*

The tag can repeat the verb by using an auxiliary.

(He) hasn't a chance, Fred ***hasn't.***
(He) likes his beer, John ***does.***
(She) really got on my nerves, Sylvia ***did.***

3 emphasising tags: *You've gone mad, you have*

Sometimes a tag gives no new information, but simply repeats and emphasises the subject and verb.

You've gone mad, you ***have.***
I'm getting fed up, I ***am.*** *He likes his beer, he* ***does.***

Pronouns are not usually used alone in tags, except for reflexives.

(I) don't think much of the party, myself.

For more about dropping words ('ellipsis') at the beginning of a sentence, see 179.
For other uses of tags and similar structures, see 487–488 (question tags), 484 (reply questions) and 517 (short answers).

515 sentence structure (7): understanding complicated structures

1 clause inside clause: *Ann, when she finally ...*

Sometimes an adverb clause is put into the middle of another clause, separating a subject from its verb.

subject + *if/when/after/because* ... + verb

Ann, when she finally managed to go to sleep, had a series of bad dreams.

The government, if recent reports can be trusted, has decided not to raise interest rates.

In these structures, a noun may not be the subject of a verb that comes just after it.

Mr Andrews, when he saw ***the policeman, started*** *running as fast as he could.* (It was not the policeman who started running.)

Sentences like these can be hard for learners to understand, especially if they are long and complicated.

Mr Fisher, after he had completed his discussions with the bank manager, drew a large sum of money out of the bank and caught the next plane ▸

to Paris. (A learner might think that it was the bank manager who took the money and went to Paris.)

One way of deciding what to do if you have difficulty in choosing the best course of action is to toss a coin. (Does the sentence say that the best course of action is to toss a coin?)

2 *that picture of the children standing ...*

The same thing can happen when the subject of a sentence is followed by a descriptive phrase or relative clause.

subject + descriptive phrase/clause + verb

That picture of the children standing in front of the Palace talking to the Prime Minister is wonderful. (The sentence does not say that the Prime Minister is wonderful.)

The tree that Mary gave to my younger brother is growing fast.

The reporter who first made contact with the kidnappers telephoned the police immediately. (Who telephoned?)

3 missing relative pronouns: *the film she was talking about*

When relative pronouns (*who/which/that*) are left out (see 494.6), this can cause difficulty.

It was a question a small child could have answered. (= ... that a small child could have answered.)

The film she was talking about at Celia's party turned out to be very boring. (= ... the film which she was talking about ...)

The manager of Brown's, the chemist's, has confirmed that bottles of shampoo he took off the shelves after animal rights protesters claimed to have put bleach into them did contain poisonous chemicals. (= ... bottles of shampoo which he took off ...)

The really important point is that because he did not invite the one man he certainly should have asked his father was angry. (Does the sentence say that he should he have asked his father?)

4 missing *that*: *The man claimed he was ...*

We often leave out the conjunction *that* after verbs (see 584). This can make complicated sentences more difficult to follow.

The man who was arrested claimed he was somewhere else at the time of the robbery. (= ... claimed that he was ...)

She insisted she thought he knew she was on the train. (= She insisted that she thought that he knew that ...)

In short news reports, *that* is sometimes left out after nouns.

Officials did not accept his claim he was innocent. (= ... that he was innocent.)

The Minister denied the suggestion he had concealed information from Parliament. (= ... the suggestion that he ...)

5 past participles that look like past tenses: *the children asked ... told the police*

Past participles (e.g. *arrested, accused*) are often used descriptively after nouns, rather like reduced relative clauses (see 498.10). When these look the same as

past tenses, they can cause confusion. In the following examples from news reports, *arrested* means 'who was arrested', *accused* means 'who is accused', and *asked* means 'who were asked'.

*A court has heard that a young civil servant **arrested** after shootings on Tyneside left one man dead is to be charged with murder.*

*A Karnak separatist **accused** of leading an attack on a French police barracks in which four gendarmes died has been arrested.*

*A number of the children **asked** for comments on the proposals to expel some immigrants told the police they disagreed.*

6 reporting expressions: *The man who Ann said will tell us*

Complicated structures can be produced when reporting expressions are included in sentences.

*This is the man who Ann **said** will tell us all about the church.*

*There are those people that I **thought** were going to buy our house.*

*Who **did you say** (that) you wanted to invite for Christmas?*

*What **do you suppose** will happen now?*

This can also happen with reported question structures.

*He's gone I **don't know** how far.*

*We spent I **can't remember** how much money on our holiday.*

*Mary gave me **you'll never guess** what for my birthday.*

7 heavy subject: *Getting up very early ... makes ...*

When the subject of a sentence is a long phrase or clause, the structure can be difficult to follow.

***Getting up very early in the morning** makes you feel really superior.* (The first seven words are the subject.)

***Going on holiday out of season when everybody else is working** can save you a lot of money.* (11-word subject)

***What Ann's little sister wanted above everything else in the whole world** was a horse.* (12-word subject)

8 heavy indirect object: *I gave all the people who had helped me ...*

Similar problems can be caused by a long indirect object.

*She gave **all the people who had helped her with her research** copies of her book.*

*He brought **the village where he had grown up** unexpected fame and prosperity.*

9 more examples

Here are more examples of the above structures, some of them extreme, taken from news reports and fiction.

*A 24-year-old labourer **who was arrested in Trafalgar Square when he allegedly attempted to knife a traffic warden** is said to have injured three policemen.*

The Consumers' Association study showed 75% of parents thought junk food advertising campaigns made it harder for them to insist their children ate healthy food. ▸

The rebel leader found out that in spite of the precautions of the soldiers he had bought the guns from the police had planted an informer among them.
The report will look into claims the design of the courthouse the men escaped from was at fault.
Statements reassuring the public patients needing intensive care are getting it are total nonsense.
What they say is surprising isn't.
Pictures of the baby the judge ordered should not be identified by reporters appeared in a Sunday newspaper.
Police hunting thieves who dumped a ten-month-old baby in an alley after finding him inside a car they stole have charged two teenage boys.
The head doorman at a nightclub where the ecstacy pill which killed P. L. was sold has admitted he knew drugs were sold at the club..
But what bothered him more than what the files that were in the drawer could mean was the feeling that something was certainly missing.
Police called to a house in Hampshire after neighbours reported cries for help found 18-year-old M. F. stuck in a cat-flap after being locked out of his home.
Millennium Dome chiefs have refused to discuss reports they ignored advice attendance figures at the attraction would be lower than hoped. The Sunday Times says the Millennium Commission warned Dome owners the New Millennium Experience Company its own estimate was between 4.5m and 5m. NMEC reportedly insisted there would be at least 7m visitors this year.
(The Millennium Dome was a tourist attraction built in London to celebrate the year 2000. It lost an enormous amount of money.)

516 shade and shadow

Shade is protection from the sun.
*I'm hot. Let's find some **shade** to sit in.*
*The temperature's 30 degrees in the **shade**.*
A *shadow* is the 'picture' made by something that blocks out light.
*In the evening your **shadow** is longer than you are.*
*There's an old story about a man without a **shadow**.*

517 short answers: Yes, he can etc

Answers are often grammatically incomplete, because they do not need to repeat words that have just been said. A common 'short answer' pattern is **subject + auxiliary verb**, together with whatever other words are really necessary.
*Can he swim? ~ Yes, **he can**.* (More natural than *Yes, he can swim.*)
*Has it stopped raining? ~ No, **it hasn't**.*
*Are you enjoying yourself? ~ I certainly **am**.*
*Don't forget to write. ~ I **won't**.*
*You didn't phone Debbie last night. ~ No, but I **did** this morning.*

We use *do* if there is no other auxiliary.
She likes cakes. ~ ***She really does.***
That surprised you. ~ ***It certainly did.***
Non-auxiliary *be* and *have* are used in short answers.
Is she happy? ~ *I think she* ***is.***
Have you a light? ~ *Yes, I* ***have.***
Short answers can be followed by tags (see 487–488).
Nice day. ~ *Yes, it is,* ***isn't it?***
Note that stressed, non-contracted affirmative forms are used in short answers.
Yes, I ***am.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I'm.*~~)

For similar structures, see 484 (reply questions), 487–488 (question tags) and 181(ellipsis).
For *So am I* etc, see 541.1.
For *So I am* etc, see 541.2.

518 should (1): introduction

1 forms

Should is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). It has no *-s* in the third person singular.
The postman ***should*** *be here soon.* (NOT ~~*The postman shoulds*~~...)
Questions and negatives are made without *do*.
Should *we tell Judy?* (NOT ~~*Do we should*~~...?)
Should is followed by an infinitive without *to*.
Should I go? (NOT ~~*Should I to go?*~~)
She should ***be*** *told the truth.*
There is a contracted negative *shouldn't*.
The meeting ***shouldn't*** *take long.*
Should has a weak pronunciation /ʃəd/, often used when it is not stressed (see 616).

2 obligation, probability

Should can be used to talk about obligation: things that it is good or important for people to do (see 519.1).
Everybody ***should*** *wear car seat belts.*
It can also be used to say what we think is probable, because it is logical or normal (see 519.2).
She's away, but she ***should*** *be back tomorrow.*
With these meanings, *should* is like a weaker form of *must*.

3 *It is important/surprising that ... should ...*

Should is used in *that*-clauses after certain adjectives and nouns, especially in British English (see 521).
It's ***important*** *that somebody* ***should*** *talk to the police.*
It's ***surprising*** *that she* ***should*** *say that to you.* ▸

4 *if, in case,* etc

Should can be used in *if*-clauses (see 261.1 for details), after *in case* (see 271.2), after *for fear that* and *lest* (see 321) and after *so that* and *in order that* (see 543).

*If you **should** see Caroline, tell her I've got the tickets.*
*I'll get a chicken out of the freezer **in case** Aunt Mary **should** come.*
*He turned the radio down **so that** he **shouldn't** disturb the old lady.*

5 *I should/would; we should/would*

Should can be used instead of *would* after *I* and *we* in certain cases. This happens:

- in sentences with *if* (see 258.3)
  *If I had more time I **should/would** learn Japanese.*
- in indirect speech (corresponding to *shall/will* in direct speech – see 275)
  *I told her that we **should/would** be ready at 8.00.* ('We shall/will be ready . . . .')
- and in 'future in the past' sentences (see 221).
  *I looked at the house where I **should/would** spend the next three years.*

519 should (2): obligation, deduction etc

1 obligation: *Everybody should wear seat belts*

We often use *should* to talk about obligation, duty and similar ideas. It is less strong than *must* (see 520).

*Everybody **should** wear car seat belts.*
*You **shouldn't** say things like that to Granny.*
*Applications **should** be sent before December 30th.*
(More polite than *Applications must be sent . . .*)

In questions, *should* is used to ask for advice or instructions, like a less definite form of *shall* (see 217).

***Should** I go and see the police, do you think?*
*What **should** we do?*

For the difference between *should* and *had better*, see 230.

2 probability: *She should be back tomorrow*

We can use *should* to say that we know something is probable (because it is logical or normal in the circumstances).

*She's away, but she **should** be back tomorrow.* (= I have good reasons to believe that she will be back tomorrow.)
*Henry **should** get here soon – he left home at six.*
*We're spending the winter in Florida. ~ That **should** be nice.*

3 past use: *I knew that I should . . .; I was supposed to . . .*

Should is used unchanged in past indirect speech, if *should* was used in direct speech.

*I thought 'I **should** write to Jane.' → I knew that I **should** write to Jane.*

In other cases, ***should*** + **infinitive** is not normally used to talk about the past. Instead, we can use for example *was/were supposed to . . .* (see 572).

*It was going to be a long day. I was **supposed** to clean up all the stables, and then start on the garden.* (NOT ... ~~*I should clean up*~~ ...)
*She was **supposed** to be in her office, but she wasn't.* (NOT ~~*She should be in her office, but she wasn't.*~~)

4 *should have ...*

Should have + past participle can be used to talk about past events which did not happen, or which may or may not have happened.
*I **should have phoned** Ed this morning, but I forgot.*
*Ten o'clock: she **should have arrived** in the office by now.*
*You **shouldn't have called** him a fool – it really upset him.*

For *should* after *in case*, see 271.2.
For *should* after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.
For *How should ...?* and *Why should ...?*, see 482.2.
For special uses of *should* in other subordinate clauses, see 521.

520 should (3): should, ought and must

1 *should* and *ought*

Should and *ought* (see 403) are very similar, and can often replace each other.
*They **ought** to be more sensible, **shouldn't** they?*
They are both used to talk about obligation and duty, to give advice, and to say what we think it is right for people to do or have done. *Should* is much more frequent than *ought*.
*You **should / ought to** see 'Daughter of the Moon' – it's a great film.*
*You **should / ought to** have seen his face!*
Should and *ought* are not used in polite requests.
Could you move your head a bit? I can't see. (NOT ~~*You should / ought to move your head a bit*~~ ...)
Should and *ought* are both also used to talk about logical probability.
*I've bought three loaves – that **should / ought to** be enough.*
*That **should / ought to** be Janet coming upstairs now.*
Ought, unlike *should*, is followed by a *to*-infinitive.

2 *Must* is stronger than *should/ought*

Must has similar meanings to *should* and *ought*, but is stronger or more definite. It expresses great confidence that something will happen, or that something is true; *should* and *ought* express less confidence. Compare:
– *The doctor said I **must** give up smoking.*
(an order which is likely to be obeyed)
*You really **ought to** give up smoking.*
(a piece of advice which may or may not be followed)
– *Rob **must** be at home by now.* (= I'm sure he is at home.)
*Rob **should** be at home by now.* (= I think he is probably at home.)
Should can be used instead of *must* to make instructions sound more polite.
*This form **should** be filled in in ink.*
*Applications **should** be sent by 31 January.* ▸

3 *must* not used

Should and *ought* can be used for predictions – to say what people expect to happen. *Must* is not often used in this way.

*It **should** be fine tomorrow.* (BUT NOT ~~*It must be fine tomorrow.*~~)

*Next week's exam **should** be easy.* (BUT NOT ~~*Next week's exam must be easy.*~~)

Should have and ***ought to have*** + past participle can be used to talk about unfulfilled obligation in the past. *Must* is not used like this.

*You **should have been** nicer to Annie.* (BUT NOT ~~*You must have been nicer to Annie.*~~)

For details of the use of *must*, see 358–361.
For the difference between *should/ought* and *had better*, see 230.

521 should (4): in subordinate clauses

1 importance: *It's important that ... should ...*

In formal British English, *should* can be used in *that*-clauses after adjectives and nouns expressing the importance of an action (e.g. *important, necessary, vital, essential, eager, anxious, concerned, wish*).

*It's **important** that somebody **should** talk to the police.*

*Is it **necessary** that my uncle **should** be informed?*

*I'm **anxious** that nobody **should** be hurt.*

*It is his **wish** that the money **should** be given to charity.*

This also happens after some verbs expressing similar ideas, especially in sentences about the past.

*He **insisted** that the contract **should** be read aloud.*

*I **recommended** that she **should** reduce her expenditure.*

In a less formal style, other structures are preferred.

*It's **important** that she **talks** to me when she gets here.*

*Was it **necessary** to **tell** my uncle?*

In American English, this use of *should* is unusual; subjunctives may be used (see 561).

*It's **important** that somebody **talk** to the police.*

*Was it **necessary** that my uncle **be** informed?*

*I **recommend** that she **reduce** her expenditure.*

2 reactions: *It's surprising that she should ...*

Should is also used in subordinate clauses after words expressing personal judgements and reactions, especially to facts which are already known or have already been mentioned. (This use, too, is more common in British than American English. It is not particularly formal.)

*It's **surprising** that she **should** say that to you.*

*I was **shocked** that she **shouldn't** have invited Phyllis.*

*I'm **sorry** you **should** think I did it on purpose.*

*Do you think it's **normal** that the child **should** be so tired?*

In American English, *would* is more usual in this kind of sentence.

*It was **natural** that they **would** want him to go to a good school.* (BrE ... *that they should* ...)

Sentences like these can also be constructed without *should*. Subjunctives cannot be used.

*It's **surprising** that she **says/said** that sort of thing to you.* (BUT NOT ~~*It's surprising that she say*~~ . . .)

*I was **shocked** that she **didn't** invite Phyllis.*

For *should* in *if*-clauses, see 261.1; after *in case*, see 271.2; after *lest*, see 321; after *so that* and *in order that*, see 543.

522 since: tenses

1 main clause: *I've known her since . . .*

In sentences with *since* (referring to time), we normally use present perfect and past perfect tenses in the main clause.

*I've **known** her since 1980.* (NOT ~~*I know her since*~~ . . .)

*We **haven't** seen Jamie since Christmas.*

*I was sorry when Jacky moved to America; we **had been** good friends since university days.*

However, present and past tenses are also occasionally found, especially in sentences about changes.

*You're **looking** much better since your operation.*

*She **doesn't come** round to see us so much **since** her marriage.*

*SInce last Sunday I **can't stop** thinking about you.*

*Things **weren't going** so well since Father's illness.*

2 *It's a long time since . . .*

In British English, present and past tenses are common in the structure *It is/was . . . since . . .*

*It's a long time **since** the last meeting.*

*It was ages **since** that wonderful holiday.*

American English prefers perfect tenses in this structure.

*It's **been** a long time **since** the last meeting.*

*It **had been** ages **since** that wonderful vacation.*

3 *since*-clause: *since we were at school*

Since can be used as a conjunction of time, introducing its own clause. The tense in the *since*-clause can be perfect or past, depending on the meaning. Compare:

- *I've known her **since we were at school together**.*
  *I've known her **since I've lived in this street**.*
- *You've drunk about ten cups of tea **since you arrived**.*
  *You've drunk about ten cups of tea **since you've been sitting here**.*
- *We visit my parents every week **since we bought the car**.*
  *We visit my parents every week **since we've had the car**.*

For more about present perfect tenses, including American usage, see 455–460.
For past perfect tenses, see 423–425.
For the differences between *since*, *for* and *from*, see 208.
For *since* meaning 'as' or 'because', see 72.

523 singular and plural (1): regular plurals

The plural of most nouns is made by just adding *-s* to the singular. But there are some special cases.

1 plural of nouns ending in consonant + *y*

If the singular ends in **consonant** + *y* (for example *-by, -dy, -ry, -ty*), the plural is normally made by changing *y* to *i* and adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
... consonant + *y*	... consonant + *ies*
baby	*babies*
lady	*ladies*
ferry	*ferries*
party	*parties*

If the singular ends in **vowel** + *y* (e.g. *day, boy, guy, donkey*), the plural is made by adding *-s* (*days, boys, guys, donkeys*).

Proper names ending in **consonant** + *y* usually have plurals in *-ys*.
Do you know the Kennedys? (NOT ... ~~*the Kennedies?*~~)
I hate Februarys.

2 plural of nouns ending in *-sh, -ch, -s, -x* or *-z*

If the singular ends in *-sh, -ch, -s, -x* or *-z*, the plural is made by adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
... *ch/sh/s/x/z*	... *ches/shes/ses/xes/zes*
church	*churches*
crash	*crashes*
bus	*buses*
box	*boxes*
buzz	*buzzes*

Nouns ending in a single *-z* have plurals in *-zzes*: *quiz/quizzes, fez/fezzes*.

3 plural of nouns ending in *-o*

Some nouns ending in *-o* have plurals in *-es*. The most common:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
echo	*echoes*	*potato*	*potatoes*
hero	*heroes*	*tomato*	*tomatoes*
negro	*negroes*		

Nouns ending in vowel + *o* have plurals in *-s* (e.g. *radios, zoos*). So do the following, and most new words ending in *-o* that come into the language:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
commando	*commandos*	*photo*	*photos*
concerto	*concertos*	*piano*	*pianos*
Eskimo	*Eskimos*	*solo*	*solos*
kilo	*kilos*	*soprano*	*sopranos*
logo	*logos*		

The following words can have plurals in *-s* or *-es*; *-es* is more common.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
buffalo	*buffalo(e)s*	*tornado*	*tornado(e)s*
mosquito	*mosquito(e)s*	*volcano*	*volcano(e)s*

524 singular and plural (2): irregular and special plurals

1 irregular plurals in *-ves*

The following nouns ending in *-f(e)* have plurals in *-ves*.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
calf	*calves*	*self*	*selves*
elf	*elves*	*sheaf*	*sheaves*
half	*halves*	*shelf*	*shelves*
knife	*knives*	*thief*	*thieves*
leaf	*leaves*	*wife*	*wives*
life	*lives*	*wolf*	*wolves*
loaf	*loaves*		

Dwarf, hoof, scarf and *wharf* can have plurals in either *-fs* or *-ves*. *Hooves, scarves* and *wharves* are more common than the plurals in *-fs*.
Other words ending in *-f(e)* are regular.

2 other irregular plurals

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
child	*children*	*ox*	*oxen*
foot	*feet*	*penny*	*pence*
goose	*geese*	*person*	*people*
louse	*lice*	*tooth*	*teeth*
man	*men*	*woman*	*women*
mouse	*mice*		

The regular plural *pennies* can be used to talk about separate penny coins (and one-cent coins in the USA); *pence* is used to talk about prices and sums of money. Some British people now use *pence* as a singular (e.g. *That'll be three pounds and one pence, please*).
Persons is sometimes used as a plural of *person* in official language. There is also a singular noun *people* (plural *peoples*) meaning 'nation'. ▸

3 plural same as singular

Some words ending in *-s* do not change in the plural. Common examples:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
barracks	*barracks*	*headquarters*	*headquarters*
series	*series*	*works* (= factory)	*works*
crossroads	*crossroads*	*means*	*means*
species	*species*	*Swiss*	*Swiss*

Note that some singular uncountable nouns end in *-s*. These have no plurals. Examples are *news, billiards, draughts* (and some other names of games ending in *-s*), *measles* (and some other illnesses).

Most words ending in *-ics* (e.g. *mathematics, physics, athletics*) are normally singular uncountable and have no plural use.

Too much mathematics is usually taught in schools. (NOT ~~*Too many mathematics are*~~ . . .)

Some words ending in *-ics* (e.g. *politics, statistics*) can also have plural uses.

Politics is a complicated business. (BUT *What are your politics?*)

Statistics is useful in language testing. (BUT *The unemployment statistics are disturbing.*)

Other nouns which do not change in the plural are *craft* (meaning 'vehicle'), *aircraft, hovercraft, spacecraft, Chinese, Japanese* (and other nationality nouns ending in *-ese*), *sheep, deer, fish,* and the names of some other living creatures, especially those that are hunted or used for food. *Fish* has a rare plural *fishes,* but the normal plural is *fish.*

Dozen, hundred, thousand, million, stone (= 14 pounds) and *foot* (= 12 inches) have plurals without *-s* in some kinds of expressions. For details, see 389.15.

Dice (used in board games) is originally the plural of *die,* which is not now often used in this sense; in modern English *dice* is generally used as both singular and plural.

Data is originally the plural of *datum,* which is not now used. In modern English *data* can be used either as an uncountable noun (*this data is . . .*) or as a plural (*these data are . . .*), with no difference of meaning.

Media is originally the plural of *medium.* The plural expression *the media* (meaning 'radio, TV, newspapers, the internet . . .') is now quite often used as an uncountable noun with a singular verb.

4 foreign plurals

Some words which come from foreign languages have special plurals. Examples:

Singular	Plural
analysis	*analyses* (Latin)
appendix	*appendices* (Latin)
bacterium	*bacteria* (Latin)
basis	*bases* (Greek)
cactus	*cacti* (Latin) or *cactuses* (less common)
corpus	*corpora* (Latin)
crisis	*crises* (Greek)

criterion	*criteria* (Greek)
diagnosis	*diagnoses* (Greek)
formula	*formulae* (Latin) or *formulas*
fungus	*fungi* (Latin) or *funguses*
hypothesis	*hypotheses* (Greek)
kibbutz	*kibbutzim* (Hebrew)
nucleus	*nuclei* (Latin)
oasis	*oases* (Greek)
phenomenon	*phenomena* (Greek)
radius	*radii* (Latin)
stimulus	*stimuli* (Latin)
vertebra	*vertebrae* (Latin)

Note that some foreign plurals (e.g. *agenda, spaghetti*) are singular in English (see 148.5).

5 plurals in *'s*

An apostrophe (') is used before the *-s* in the plurals of letters of the alphabet, and sometimes in the plurals of dates and abbreviations.

She spelt 'necessary' with two c's.

I loved the 1960's. (*the 1960s* is more common)

PC's are getting cheaper. (*PCs* is more common)

It is not correct to use *-'s* in other plurals, e.g. ~~*jean's*~~.

6 compound nouns

In **noun + adverb** combinations, the plural *-s* is usually added to the noun.

Singular	Plural
passer-by	*passers-by*
runner-up	*runners-up*

The plural of *mother-in-law* and similar words is generally *mothers-in-law* etc, but some people use *mother-in-laws* etc; the plural of *court martial* (= military court or military trial) is either *courts martial* (more formal) or *court martials* (less formal).

In **noun + noun** combinations, the first noun is usually singular in form even if the meaning is plural (e.g. *shoe shop*). There are some exceptions. (see 531).

7 plurals with no singular forms

Cattle is a plural word used to talk collectively about bulls, cows and calves; it has no singular, and cannot be used for counting individual animals (one cannot say, for instance, *three cattle*).

Many cattle are suffering from a disease called BSE. (NOT ~~*Much cattle is*~~...)

Police, staff and *crew* are generally used in the same way.

The police are looking for a fair-haired man in his twenties. (NOT ~~*The police is looking*~~... OR ~~*A police*~~...)

The staff are on strike. (BUT *A member of staff said* ..., NOT ~~*A staff*~~...)

However numbers are sometimes used before these three words (e.g. *four staff, six crew*).

The expressions *the British, the Dutch, the English, the French, the Irish, the Spanish* and *the Welsh* (see 17.2) are also plural, with no singular forms. ▸

In 1581 the Dutch declared their independence from Spain.
(BUT *A Dutchman came into the shop.* NOT ~~*A Dutch*~~...)

Trousers, jeans, pyjamas (AmE *pajamas*), *pants, scales, scissors, glasses, spectacles* (meaning 'glasses'), *binoculars, pliers,* and the names of many similar divided objects are plural, and have no singular forms. (The equivalent words in some other languages are singular.)

Your jeans are too tight. (NOT ~~*Your jean is*~~...)
Where are my glasses? ~ *They're on your nose.*

To talk about individual items, we can use *a pair of* (see 430).

Have you got a pair of nail-scissors?

Other common words which are normally plural and uncountable include: *arms, clothes* (see 133), *congratulations, contents, customs* (at a frontier), *funds* (= money), *goods, groceries, manners* (= social behaviour), *the Middle Ages* (a period in history), *oats* (but *corn, wheat, barley* and *rye* are singular uncountable), *odds* (= chances), *outskirts, premises* (= building), *regards, remains, savings, surroundings, thanks, troops.*

Congratulations on your new job. (NOT ~~*Congratulation*~~...)
She lives on the outskirts of Cambridge. (NOT ...~~*the outskirt*~~...)

For cases where plural nouns are used with singular verbs and pronouns (and the opposite), see 526–527.

525 singular and plural (3): pronunciation of plurals

1 nouns ending in /s/, /z/ and other sibilants

After one of the sibilant sounds /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, the plural ending *-es* is pronounced /ɪz/.

buses /ˈbʌsɪz/	*crashes* /ˈkræʃɪz/	*watches* /ˈwɒtʃɪz/
quizzes /ˈkwɪzɪz/	*garages* /ˈgærɑːʒɪz/	*bridges* /ˈbrɪdʒɪz/

2 nouns ending in other unvoiced sounds

After any other unvoiced sound (/p/, /f/, /θ/, /t/ or /k/), the plural ending *-(e)s* is pronounced /s/.

cups /kʌps/	*cloths* /klɒθs/	*books* /bʊks/
beliefs /bɪˈliːfs/	*plates* /pleɪts/	

3 nouns ending in other voiced sounds

After vowels, and all voiced consonants except /z/, /ʒ/ and /dʒ/, the plural ending *-(e)s* is pronounced /z/.

days /deɪz/	*clothes*/kləʊðz/	*legs* /legz/
boys /bɔɪz/	*ends* /endz/	*dreams* /driːmz/
trees /triːz/	*hills* /hɪlz/	*songs* /sɒŋz/
knives /naɪvz/		

4 plurals with irregular pronunciation

Singular	Plural
bath /bɑːθ/	*baths* /bɑːθs/ or /bɑːðz/
house /haʊs/	*houses* /ˈhaʊzɪz/
mouth /maʊθ/	*mouths* /maʊθs/ or /maʊðz/

Singular	Plural
path /pɑːθ/	*paths* /pɑːθs/ or /pɑːðz/
roof /ruːf/	*roofs* /ruːfs/ or /ruːvz/
truth /truːθ/	*truths* /truːθs/ or /truːðz/
wreath /riːθ/	*wreaths* /riːθs/ or /riːðz/
youth /juːθ/	*youths* /juːθs/ or /juːðz/

Third person singular forms (e.g. *catches, wants, runs*) and possessive forms (e.g. *George's, Mark's, Joe's*) follow the same pronunciation rules as regular plurals.

526 singular and plural (4): singular nouns with plural verbs

1 groups of people: *The team is/are ...*

In British English, singular words like *family, team, government*, which refer to groups of people, can have either singular or plural verbs and pronouns.

The team is/are going to lose.

Plural forms are common when the group is seen as a collection of people doing personal things like deciding, hoping or wanting. Singular forms are more common when the group is seen as an impersonal unit. Compare:

– *My family have decided to move to York. They're going in April.*
  The average family has 3.6 members. It is smaller than 50 years ago.
– *My firm are wonderful. They do all they can for me.*
  My firm was founded in the 18th century.

We prefer *who* as a relative pronoun with plural forms, and *which* with singular forms. Compare:

The committee, who are hoping to announce important changes, ...
The committee, which is elected at the annual meeting, ...

When a group noun is used with a singular determiner (e.g. *a/an, each, every, this, that*), singular verbs and pronouns are normal. Compare:

The team are full of enthusiasm.
A team which is full of enthusiasm has a better chance of winning.
(More natural than *A team who are full ...*)

Sometimes singular and plural forms are mixed.

The group gave its first concert in June and they are now planning a tour.

Examples of group nouns which can be used with both singular and plural verbs in British English:

bank	*committee*	*government*	*public*
the BBC	*England (the football team)*	*jury*	*school*
choir		*ministry*	*staff*
class	*family*	*orchestra*	*team*
club	*firm*	*party*	*union*

In American English singular verbs are normal with most of these nouns in all cases (though *family* can have a plural verb). Plural pronouns can be used.

The team is in Detroit this weekend. They expect to win. ▸

2 *A number of people have ...*

Many singular quantifying expressions can be used with plural nouns and pronouns; plural verbs are normally used in this case.

A number of people have tried to find the treasure, but they have all failed. (More natural than *A number of people has tried ...*)
A group of us are going to take a boat through the French canals.
A couple of my friends plan to open a travel agency. (NOT ~~*A couple of my friends plans*~~ ...)
A lot of social problems are caused by unemployment. (NOT ~~*A lot of social problems is caused*~~ ...)
The majority of criminals are non-violent.
Some of these people are relations and the rest are old friends.
Half of his students don't understand a word he says. (NOT ~~*Half of his students doesn't*~~ ...)

For more about *a lot* and *lots*, see 333. For *the rest*, see 501. For *(a) few*, see 329.
For singular and plural nouns with fractions, see 532.9.

527 singular and plural (5): plural expressions with singular verbs

1 amounts and quantities: *that five pounds*

When we talk about amounts and quantities we usually use singular determiners, verbs and pronouns, even if the noun is plural.

Where is that five pounds I lent you? (NOT ~~*Where are those five pounds*~~ ...?)
Twenty miles is a long way to walk.
We've only got five litres of petrol left. ~ *That isn't enough.*

2 calculations

Singular verbs are often possible after plural number subjects in spoken calculations.

Two and two is/are four.
Ten times five is fifty. (OR *Ten fives are fifty.*)

For more about spoken calculations, see 389.22–23.

3 *more than one*

More than one is generally used with a singular noun and verb.

More than one person is going to have to find a new job.

4 *one of ...*

Expressions beginning *one of* normally have a plural noun and a singular verb.

One of my friends is getting married. (NOT ~~*One of my friends are*~~ ...)

For singular and plural verbs in relative clauses after *one of ...*, see 529.1.

5 *and*

Some expressions joined by *and* have singular determiners, verbs and pronouns. This happens when the two nouns are used together so often that we think of them as a single idea.

*This **gin and tonic isn't** very strong, is it?*
*Your **toast and marmalade** is on the table.*

6 countries and organisations

Plural names of countries usually have singular verbs and pronouns.

*The **United States** is anxious to improve **its** image in Latin America.*

Plural names of organisations may also have singular verbs and pronouns.

*Consolidated Fruitgrowers **has** just taken over Universal Foodstores.*

528 singular and plural (6): singular they

1 *Somebody left their umbrella*

They/them/their is often used to refer to a singular indefinite person. This is common after *a person, anybody/one, somebody/one, nobody/one, whoever, each, every, either, neither* and *no. They* has a plural verb in this case.

*If a person doesn't want to go on living, **they** are often very difficult to help.*
*If anybody calls, take **their** name and ask **them** to call again later.*
*Somebody left **their** umbrella in the office. Would **they** please collect it?*
*Nobody was late, were **they**? Whoever comes, tell **them** I'm not in.*
*Tell each person to help **themselves** to what they want.*
*Every individual thinks **they're** different from everybody else.*

This singular use of *they/them/their* is convenient when the person referred to could be either male or female (as in the examples above). *He or she, him or her* and *his or her* are clumsy, especially when repeated, and many people dislike the traditional use of *he/him/his* in this situation (see 222).

However, *they/them/their* can also be used when the person's sex is known. Two examples from interviews:

*I swear more when I'm talking to a boy, because I'm not afraid of shocking **them**.*
*No girl should have to wear school uniform, because it makes **them** look like a sack of potatoes.*

They/them/their is sometimes used for a definite person who is not identified.

*I had a friend in Paris, and **they** had to go to hospital for a month.*

2 correctness

This use of *they/them/their* has existed for centuries, and is perfectly correct. It is most common in an informal style, but can also be found in formal written English. Here is an example from a British passport application form:

*Dual nationality: if the child possesses the nationality or citizenship of another country **they** may lose this when **they** get a British Passport.*

529 singular and plural (7): mixed structures

In some complex structures, the same verb seems to belong with two different expressions, one singular and the other plural. ▸

1 *one of the few women who have climbed Everest*

After expressions like *one of the . . .*, singular and plural verbs are both used in relative clauses beginning *who, which* or *that.*

*She's **one of the few women who have/has** climbed Everest.*

*This is **one of those books that are/is** read by everybody.*

Strictly speaking, a plural verb is correct (to agree with *the few women who* or *those books that*). However, singular verbs are also very common in these structures. More examples:

One of the things that really make/makes me angry is people who don't answer letters.

We've got one of those Japanese cars that never break/breaks down.

2 *A serious problem is wasps*

In English a verb normally agrees with the subject of a sentence, not with a following complement.

S V C

*The biggest timewaster **is** meetings.*

(NOT ~~*The biggest timewaster are meetings.*~~)

S V C

*A serious problem in our garden **is** wasps.*

(NOT ~~*A serious problem . . . are wasps.*~~)

However, if the subject is a long way from the verb, people sometimes make the verb agree with a complement.

S

The most interesting thing on radio and television last

V C

*weekend, without any doubt, **was/were** the tennis championships.*

This often happens, too, when the subject is a relative *what*-clause, especially when the complement is long.

S V C

*What I am most interested in **is/are** your immediate personal reactions.*

S V C

*What we need **is/are** a few bright young engineers.*

For singular and plural verbs after interrogative *what* and *who*, see 532.3.

3 singular subject, plural continuation, plural verb

When a singular subject is modified by a following plural expression, people sometimes use a plural verb. This is not usually considered correct.

~~*Nobody except his best friends like him.*~~

(More correct: *Nobody ... likes him.*)

~~*A good knowledge of three languages are necessary for this job.*~~

(More correct: *A good knowledge ... is ...*)

For singular or plural after *kind(s)*, *sort(s)*, *type(s)* etc, see 551.

530 singular and plural (8): distributive plural

1 people doing the same thing

To talk about several people each doing the same thing, English usually prefers a plural noun for the repeated idea.

*Tell the kids to bring **raincoats** to school tomorrow.*

(More natural than *Tell the kids to bring a raincoat ...*)

Plural forms are almost always used in this case if there are possessives.

*Tell the children to blow **their noses**.* (NOT ... ~~*to blow their nose.*~~)

*Six people lost **their lives** in the accident.*

Uncountable nouns cannot of course be used in the plural.

*They were all anxious to increase their **knowledge**.* (NOT ... ~~*their knowledges.*~~)

2 repeated events

In descriptions of repeated single events, singular and plural nouns are both possible. When no details are given, plural nouns are more natural.

*I often get **headaches**.* (NOT ~~*I often get a headache.*~~)

*She sometimes goes for **rides** over the hills.*

When details of the time or situation are given, nouns are often singular.

*I often get **a headache** when I've been working on the computer.*

*She often goes for **a ride** over the hills before supper.*

Singular nouns may also be used to avoid misunderstanding.

*I sometimes throw **a stone** into the river and wish for good luck.*

(NOT ~~*I sometimes throw stones*~~ ... – only one stone is thrown each time.)

To refer to the time of repeated events, both singular and plural expressions are often possible with little difference of meaning.

*We usually go and see my mother on **Saturday(s)**.*

*He's not at his best in the **morning(s)**.*

3 generalisations and rules

In generalisations and rules, singular and plural nouns are both possible.

*We use **a past participle** in a perfect verb form.* (OR *We use **past participles** in perfect verb forms.*)

*All documents must be accompanied by **a translation** of the original.*

(OR *All documents must be accompanied by **translations** of the originals.*)

Mixtures of singular and plural are possible.

Subjects agree with their verb. ▸

Children may resemble both their father and their mother in different ways.
This often happens with fixed singular expressions like *at the beginning.*
Discourse markers usually come at the beginning of sentences.

531 singular and plural (9): noun + noun

1 first noun singular: *shoe shop*

In **noun + noun** structures (see 385–386), the first noun is normally singular in form even if it has a plural meaning.

a shoe shop (= a shop that sells shoes)
a toothbrush (= a brush for teeth) *trouser pockets* (= pockets in trousers)
a ticket office (= an office that sells tickets)

2 exceptions

Some nouns are plural in this structure. These include nouns which have no singular form (like *clothes*), nouns which are not used in the singular with the same meaning (like *customs*), and some nouns which are more often used in the plural than in the singular (like *savings*). In some cases, e.g. *antique(s), drug(s),* usage is divided, and both singular and plural forms are found. In general, plurals are becoming more common in this structure. Examples:

a clothes shop
a glasses case
a customs officer
arms control
a savings account
the accounts department
the sales department
the outpatients department (of a hospital)
a drinks cabinet
a goods train (British English)
a sports car
a greeting(s) card
an antique(s) dealer/shop
the drug(s) problem
the arrival(s) hall (at an airport)

Note also that singular nouns ending in *-ics* can be used before other nouns.
athletics training
an economics degree

We use the plurals *men* and *women* to modify plural nouns when they have a 'subject' meaning; *man* and *woman* are used to express an 'object' meaning. Compare:

- *men drivers* (= men who drive)
  women pilots (= women who fly planes)
- *man-eaters* (= lions or tigers that eat people)
  woman-haters (= people who hate women)

532 singular and plural (10): other points

1 uncountable nouns: *hair, baggage* etc

Certain English singular uncountable nouns correspond to plural nouns in some other languages.

Your hair is very pretty. (NOT ~~*Your hairs are*~~ . . .)
My baggage has been lost. (NOT ~~*My baggages have*~~ . . .)

For a list of words of this kind, see 148.3.
For plural uncountables, see 149.5.

2 co-ordinated subjects: *A and B, A or B, A as well as B*, etc

When two singular subjects are joined by *and*, the verb is normally plural.

Alice and Bob are going to be late.

But note that some phrases with *and* are treated like single ideas, and used with singular verbs (see 527.5).

Your toast and marmalade is on the table.

When two subjects are joined by *as well as, together with* or a similar expression, the verb is usually singular if the first subject is singular.

The Prime Minister, as well as several Cabinet Ministers, believes in a tough financial policy.

The Managing Director, together with his heads of department, is preparing a new budget.

When two subjects are joined by *or* the verb is usually singular if the second subject is singular, and plural if it is plural. Compare:

There's no room – either two chairs or a table has got to be moved.

There's no room – either a table or two chairs have got to be moved.

When two singular subjects are joined by *neither . . . nor*, the verb is normally singular in a formal style, but can be plural in an informal style.

Neither she nor her husband has arrived. (formal)

Neither she nor her husband have arrived. (informal)

3 *who* and *what*

When *who* and *what* are used to ask for the subject of a clause, they most often have singular verbs, even if the question expects a plural answer.

Who is working tomorrow? ~ *Phil, Lucy and Shareena (are working tomorrow).* (More natural than *Who are working tomorrow?*)

Who was at the party? (More natural than *Who were at the party?*)

What lives in those little holes? ~ *Rabbits (do).* (NOT ~~*What live*~~. . .)

When *who* and *what* are used to ask for the complement of a clause, they can have plural verbs.

Who are your closest friends? ~ *(My closest friends are) Naomi and Bridget.*

What are your politics? ~ *(My politics are) extreme left-wing.*

Relative *what*-clauses are normally the subject of a singular verb.

What she needs is friends. (More natural than *What she needs are friends.*)

However, plural verbs are often used before longer plural complements, especially if *what* is a long way from the verb (see 529).

What we need most of all are some really new ideas.

4 *here's, there's* and *where's*

In an informal style, *here's, there's* and *where's* are common with plural nouns.

Here's your keys. *There's some children at the door.*

Where's those books I lent you?

5 *none, neither* and *either*

When *none, neither* and *either* are followed by *of* + **plural noun/pronoun**, they are normally used with singular verbs. Plural verbs are possible in an informal style. ▸

None of the cures really works.
None of the cures really work. (informal)
*Neither of my brothers **has/have** been outside England.*
*Has/Have **either** of them been seen recently?*

6 *another, a/an* + adjective

Plural expressions of quantity can be used with *another* (see 54) and with *a/an* + adjective.

*I want to stay for **another three weeks**.*
*We'll need **an extra ten pounds**.*
*He's been waiting for **a good two hours**.*
*She spent **a happy ten minutes** looking through the photos.*
*I've had **a very busy three days**.*

Note also the expression ***a good many/few*** + plural (informal).

*I've lain awake **a good many nights** worrying about you.*
*I bet that house could tell **a good few stories**.*

7 *kind, sort* and *type*

In an informal style, we sometimes mix singular and plural forms when we use demonstratives with *kind*, *sort* or *type*. For details, see 551.

*I don't like **those kind of boots**.*

8 *every* (frequency)

Every (which is normally used with singular nouns) can be used before plural expressions in measurements of frequency.

*I go to Ireland **every six weeks**.*

9 fractions

Fractions between 1 and 2 are normally used with plural nouns (see 389.2).

*It weighs **one and a half tons**.* (NOT ... ~~*one and a half ton*~~.)
*The house has about **1.75 hectares** of land.*

533 slang

1 What is slang?

'Slang' is a very informal kind of vocabulary, used mostly in speech by people who know each other well. Examples:

*Can you lend me some **cash**?* (*money*)
*He's a real **prat**.* (*fool*)
*Let's **chill out**.* (*relax*)
*My shoelace has **bust**.* (*broken*)
*Those boots are real **cool**.* (*fashionable*)
*How are the **kids**?* (*children*)

Slang expressions are not usually written, and not used in formal kinds of communication.

2 strong feelings

Many English slang expressions relate to things that people feel strongly about (e.g. sex, family and emotional relationships, drink, drugs, conflict between social groups, work, physical and mental illness, death).

*She's got really nice **tits**.* (*breasts*)
*I spent the weekend at my **gran's**.* (*grandmother's*)
*God, we got **smashed** last night.* (*drunk*)
***Prods** out!* (*Protestants*)
*Can you get that **sitrep** to the MD by five?* (*situation report; Managing Director*)
*I've got some sort of **bug**.* (*illness*)
*He's **lost his marbles**.* (*gone mad*)
*When I **kick the bucket**, I want you all to have a big party.* (*die*)

Slang can be used in order to be offensive.
*Shut your **gob**!* (*mouth*)

For more about 'taboo' words for subjects that some people find shocking, see 575.

3 group membership; using slang

Many slang expressions (e.g. *cash, kids*) are widely used. However, some slang expressions are only used by members of particular social and professional groups, and nearly all slang is used between people who know each other well or share the same social background. So it is usually a mistake for 'outsiders' (including foreigners) to try deliberately to use slang. This can give the impression that they are claiming membership of a group that they do not belong to. There is also the danger that the slang may be out of date – some kinds of slang go out of fashion quickly, and when it gets into books it may already be dead. It is best for learners to avoid slang unless they are really sure of its use. If they start becoming accepted as part of an English-speaking community, they will learn to use the community's slang naturally and correctly along with the rest of their language.

534 small and little

Small simply refers to size. It is the opposite of *big* or *large* (see 106).
*Could I have a **small** brandy, please?*
*You're too **small** to be a policeman.*

The adjective *little* usually expresses some kind of emotion.
*Poor **little** thing – come here and let me look after you.*
*What's he like? ~ Oh, he's a **funny little** man.*
*What's that **nasty little** boy doing in our garden?*
*They've bought a **pretty little** house in the country.*

In a few fixed expressions, *little* is used in the same way as *small* or *short*.

little finger	*a little while*
the little hand of a clock	*a little way*

In British English *little* is unusual in 'predicative' position (after a verb), and comparative and superlative forms are not normally used.
*The puppy was so **small** and sweet.*
(More natural than *The puppy was so little* ...)
*He's the **smallest** baby I've ever seen.*
(More natural than ... *the littlest baby* ...)

For *little* used as a determiner meaning 'not much' (e.g. *There's little hope*), see 329.

535 smell

1 British and American forms

In British English, regular and irregular past tenses and participles are both common: *smelled* and *smelt*. American forms are usually regular.

2 link verb

Smell can be used as a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun, to say how something smells. Progressive forms are not used.

Those roses smell beautiful. (NOT ... ~~*smell beautifully.*~~)

The soup smells funny. What's in it? (NOT ... ~~*is smelling funny*~~ ...)

Before a noun, *smell of* and *smell like* are used.

The railway carriage smelt of beer and old socks.

His aftershave smelt like an explosion in a flower shop.

Smell is sometimes used to mean 'smell bad'.

That dog smells.

3 transitive verb: 'perceive'

Smell can be used with an object, to say what we perceive with our noses. Progressive forms are not used. We often use *can smell* (see 125).

As we walked into the house, we smelt something burning.

I can smell supper.

4 transitive verb: 'investigate'

Another transitive use is to say that we are using our noses to find out something. Progressive forms can be used.

What are you doing? ~ I'm smelling the meat to see if it's still OK.

536 so: adverb meaning 'like this/that'

1 after *seem, appear* etc

So can be used in a formal style in a few cases to mean 'like this/that', 'in this/that way'. This happens, for example, after *seem, appear, remain, more* and *less*.

Will the business make a loss this year? ~ It appears so.

The weather is stormy, and will remain so over the weekend.

She was always nervous, and after her accident she became even more so.

I read the front page very carefully, and the rest of the paper less so.

2 not used in other cases

In other cases, *so* is not normally used adverbially to mean 'like this/that', 'in this/that way'.

Look – hold it up in the air like this. (NOT ... ~~*hold it up in the air so.*~~)

When he laughs like that I want to scream. (NOT ~~*When he laughs so*~~ ...)

I don't think we should do it in that way. (NOT ~~*do it so.*~~)

He says he is ill and he looks it. (NOT ... ~~*he looks so.*~~)

For *so* with *say* and *tell*, see 540.
For *so* with *hope, believe* etc, see 539.
For *so am I* etc, see 541.
For *do so*, see 162.

537 so (conjunction) and then

So and *then* can both be used in replies, to mean 'since that is so', 'it follows from what you have said'.

It's more expensive to travel on Friday. ~ *Then/So I'll leave on Thursday.*
I'll be needing the car. ~ *Then/So I suppose I'll have to take a taxi.*

So (but not *then*) can also be used when the same speaker connects two ideas, to mean 'it follows from what I have said'.

It's more expensive to travel on Friday, so I'll leave on Thursday.
(NOT ... ~~*Then I'll leave on Thursday.*~~)

For *so* used like *and*, see 157.14.

538 so (degree adverb): so tired, so fast

1 meaning

So means 'that much' or 'to that extent'. It is used when we are talking about a high degree of some quality – in situations where *very* is also a suitable word.

I'm sorry you're so tired. (= I know you're very tired, and I'm sorry.)
It was so cold that we couldn't go out. (= It was very cold weather, and because of that we couldn't go out.)
I wish she didn't drive so fast.

2 *so* and *very*

Very (see 611) is used when we are giving new information. *So* is mainly used to refer to information which has already been given, which is already known, or which is obvious. Compare:

- *You're very late.* (giving new information)
  I'm sorry I'm so late. (referring to information which is already known)
- *It was very warm in Scotland.* (giving new information)
  I didn't think it would be so warm. (referring to information which is already known)

3 emphatic use

In an informal style, *so* can also be used like *very* to give new information, when the speaker wishes to emphasise what is said. This structure is rather like an exclamation (see 195).

He's so bad-tempered! (= How bad-tempered he is!)
You're so right!

4 *so ... that*

We use *so*, not *very*, before *that*-clauses.

It was so cold that we stopped playing. (NOT ~~*It was very cold that we stopped playing.*~~)
He spoke so fast that nobody could understand. (NOT ~~*He spoke very fast that*~~ ...)

5 before adjectives and adverbs

We can use *so* before an adjective alone (without a noun) or an adverb.

*The milk was so **good** that we couldn't stop drinking it.*
*Why are you driving so **fast**?*

So is not used with **adjective + noun**.

*I didn't expect **such terrible weather**.* (NOT ... ~~so terrible weather~~.)
*I enjoyed my stay in your country, which is **so beautiful**.* (NOT ~~I enjoyed my stay in your so beautiful country~~.)

For *such*, see 569.

6 *so much*, etc

We can use *so much* and *so many* (see 542), *so few* and *so little* with or without nouns.

*I've bought **so many** new books I don't know when I'll read them.*
*There were **so few** interesting people there that we decided to go home.*
*I've read **so much** and learnt **so little**.*

7 *so* and *so much*

We use *so*, not *so much*, before adjectives without nouns (see paragraph 5 above). Compare:

– *She had **so much heavy luggage** that she couldn't carry it.*
*Her luggage was **so heavy** that she couldn't carry it.* (NOT ~~Her luggage was so much heavy~~ ...)
– *I've never seen **so much beautiful jewellery**.*
*The jewellery is **so beautiful**!* (NOT ... ~~so much beautiful!~~)

But we use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives.

*I'm glad you're feeling **so much better**.* (NOT ... ~~so better~~.)

8 *so ... as to ...*

There is a structure with *so* followed by **adjective + *as to* + infinitive**. This is formal and not very common.

*Would you be **so kind as to tell me the time**?* (= ... kind enough to ...)
(NOT ~~Would you be so kind and~~ ... OR ~~Would you be so kind to~~ ...)

9 *so ... a ...*

There is another rather formal structure with ***so* + adjective + *a/an* + noun** (see 14).

*I had never before met **so gentle a person**.* (= ... such a gentle person.)

539 so and not with hope, believe etc

1 instead of *that*-clauses.

We often use *so* after *believe, hope, expect, imagine, suppose, guess, reckon, think, be afraid*, instead of repeating words in a *that*-clause.

*Is Alex here? ~ I **think** so.* (NOT ... ~~I think that Alex is here~~.)
*Do you think we'll be in time? ~ I **hope** so.* (NOT ~~I hope~~.)
*Did you lose? ~ I'm **afraid** so.*

We do not use *so* before a *that*-clause.

I hope that we'll have good weather. (NOT ~~*I hope so, that we'll have good weather.*~~)

Note the special use of *I thought so* to mean 'my suspicions were correct'.

Empty your pockets. Ah, I thought so! You've been stealing biscuits again.

So is not used after *know* (see 313).

You're late. ~I know. OR *I know that.* (NOT ~~*I know so.*~~)

2 negative structures

We can make these expressions negative in two ways.

affirmative verb + *not*

Did you win? ~ I'm afraid not.

We won't be in time for the train. ~ No, I suppose not.

negative verb + *so*

You won't be here tomorrow? ~ I don't suppose so.

Will it rain? ~ I don't expect so.

Hope and *be afraid* are always used in the first structure.

I hope not. (NOT ~~*I don't hope so.*~~)

Think is more common in the second structure.

I don't think so. (More common than *I think not.*)

3 so at the beginning of a clause

We can use *so* at the beginning of a clause with *say, hear, understand, tell, believe* and a number of other verbs. This structure is used to say how the speaker learnt something.

It's going to be a cold winter, or so the newspaper says.

Mary's getting married. ~ Yes, so I heard.

The Professor's ill. ~ So I understand.

For *so* after *tell* and *say*, see 540.

540 so with say and tell

1 instead of *that*-clauses

So can be used after *say* and *tell* instead of repeating information in a *that*-clause.

She's going to be the next president. Everybody says so. (= . . . Everybody says that she's going to be the next president.)

You've got to clean the car. ~ Who says so?

Taxes are going up. Bob told me so.

Note that *so* is used in this way mostly when we are talking about the authority for statements, about reasons why we should believe them. When we simply want to identify the speaker, we prefer *that*. Compare:

Jane's crazy. ~ Who says so? ~ Dr Bannister.

Jane's crazy. ~ Who said that? ~ I did.

For *so* at the beginning of a clause (e.g. *so the newspaper says*), see 539.3. ▶

2 *I told you so*

I told you so usually means 'I warned you, but you wouldn't listen to me'.

Mummy, I've broken my train. ~ *I told you so. You shouldn't have tried to ride on it.*

3 other verbs

So cannot be used after all verbs of saying. We cannot say, for example, ~~*She promised me so.*~~

541 so have I, so am I etc

1 *so* + auxiliary + subject

We can use *so* to mean 'also', before **auxiliary verb + subject**. The structure is used to answer or add to what came before. Note the word order.

Louise can dance beautifully, and so can her sister.

I've lost their address. ~ *So have I.*

The same structure is possible with non-auxiliary *be* and *have*.

I was tired, and so were the others.

I have a headache. ~ *So have I.*

After a clause with no auxiliary verb, we use *do/does/did*.

He just wants the best for his country. ~ *So did Hitler.*

We do not normally use a more complete verb phrase in this structure. We can say, for example, *So can her sister*, but not ~~*So can her sister dance*~~.

2 *so* + subject + auxiliary

So can also be followed by **subject + auxiliary verb** (note the word order) to express surprised agreement.

It's raining. ~ *Why, so it is!*

You've just put the teapot in the fridge. ~ *So I have!*

For *neither/nor am I* etc, see 374.

542 so much and so many

1 the difference

The difference between *so much* and *so many* is the same as between *much* and *many* (see 357). *So much* is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *so many* is used with plurals.

I had never seen so much food in my life.

She had so many children that she didn't know what to do. (NOT . . . ~~*so much children*~~ . . .

We use *so*, not *so much*, to modify adjectives and adverbs (see 538.5,6).

You're so beautiful. (NOT ~~*You're so much beautiful.*~~)

But *so much* is used before comparatives (see 140).

She's so much more beautiful now.

2 *so much/many* without a noun

We can drop a noun after *so much/many*, if the meaning is clear.

*I can't eat all that meat – there's so **much**!*
*I was expecting a few phone calls, but not so **many**.*

3 *so much* as an adverb

So much can be used as an adverb.

*I wish you didn't smoke so **much**.*

4 special structures with *so much*

We can use *not so much ... as* or *not so much ... but* to make corrections and clarifications.

*It wasn't so **much** his appearance I liked as his personality.*
*It's **not so much** that I don't want to go, **but** I just haven't got time.*

In negative and *if*-clauses, *so much as* can be used to mean 'even'.

*He didn't so **much as** say thank you, after all we'd done for him.*
*If he so **much as** looks at another woman, I'll kill him.*

543 so that and in order that

1 purpose

These structures are used to talk about purpose. *So that* is more common than *in order that*, especially in an informal style. They are often followed by auxiliary verbs such as *can* or *will*; *may* is more formal.

*She's staying here for six months **so that** she **can** perfect her English.*
*I'm putting it in the oven now **so that** it'll be ready by seven o'clock.*
*We send monthly reports **in order that** they **may** have full information.*

In an informal style, *that* can be dropped after *so* (see 584).

*I've come early **so** I can talk to you.*

2 present tenses for future

Present tenses are sometimes used for the future.

*I'll send the letter express **so that** she gets / she'll get it before Tuesday.*
*I'm going to make an early start **so that** I don't/won't get stuck in the traffic.*
*We must write to him, **in order that** he does/will not feel that we are hiding things.*

3 past structures

In sentences about the past, *would, could* or *should* are generally used with verbs after *so that / in order that*. *Might* is possible in a very formal style.

*Mary talked to the shy girl **so that** she **wouldn't** feel left out.*
*I took my golf clubs **so that** I **could** play at the weekend.*
*They met on a Saturday **in order that** everybody **should** be free to attend.*
*He built a chain of castles **so that** he **might** control the whole country.*

For the infinitive structures *in order to* and *so as to*, see 289.
For *so ... that* expressing result, see 538.4.
For *lest* meaning 'so that ... not', see 321.

544 so-and-so; so-so

1 *so-and-so*

This informal expression is used when one cannot remember a name.
What's happened to old so-and-so? (= ... what's his name?)
It can also replace a swearword or an insult.
She's an old so-and-so.

2 *so-so*

This informal expression means 'neither good nor bad.'
How are you feeling? ~ *So-so.* (NOT ... ~~*So-and-so.*~~)
Was the concert any good? ~ *So-so.*

545 'social' language

Every language has fixed expressions which are used on particular social occasions – for example when people meet, leave each other, go on a journey, sit down to meals and so on. Here are some of the most important English expressions of this kind.

1 introductions

Common ways of introducing strangers to each other are:
John, do you know Helen? Helen, this is my friend John.
Sally, I don't think you've met Elaine.
I don't think you two know each other, do you?
Can/May I introduce John Willis? (more formal)
When people are introduced, they usually say *How do you do?* (formal), *Hello*, or *Hi* (informal). Americans often say *How are you?* Note that *How do you do?* is not a question, and the normal reply is *How do you do?* (It does not mean the same, in British English, as *How are you?*) Another possible response is *Glad/Pleased to meet you.*
People who are introduced often shake hands.

For the use of first names, surnames and titles, see 363.

2 greetings

When meeting people (formal):
(Good) morning/afternoon/evening.
When meeting people (informal):
Hello. *Hi.* (very informal)
When leaving people:
Good morning/afternoon/evening. (very formal, unusual)
Goodnight. *Goodbye.*
Bye. (informal) *Bye-bye.* (often used to and by children)
Cheers. (informal – British only) *Take care.* (informal)
See you. (informal) *See you later / tomorrow / next week* etc. (informal)
It was nice to meet / meeting you.
Note that *Good day* is very unusual, and *Goodnight* is used only when leaving people, not when meeting them.

3 asking about health etc

When we meet people we know, we often ask politely about their health or their general situation.

How are you? *How's it going?* (informal)
How are things? / How's things? (informal) *How (are) you doing?*

Formal answers:

Very well, thank you. And you? *Fine, thank you.*

Informal answers:

Fine/Great, thanks. *All right.* *(It) could be worse.*
OK. *Not too bad.* *Mustn't grumble.*
So-so. (NOT ~~*So and so.*~~)

British people do not usually ask *How are you?* when they are introduced to people. And neither British nor American people begin letters to strangers by asking about health (see 146).

4 special greetings

Greetings for special occasions are:

Happy birthday! (OR *Many happy returns!*)
Happy New Year / Easter!
Happy/Merry Christmas! *Happy anniversary!*
Congratulations on your exam results / new job etc (NOT ~~*Congratulation on*~~ . . .)

5 small talk

British people often begin polite conversations by talking about the weather.

Nice day, isn't it? ~ *Lovely.*

6 getting people's attention

Excuse me! is commonly used to attract somebody's attention, or to call a waiter in a restaurant. We do not normally say *Excuse me, sir/madam* (see 363.2).

7 apologies

British people say *Excuse me* before interrupting or disturbing somebody, and *Sorry* after doing so. Compare:

Excuse me. Could I get past? Oh, sorry, did I step on your foot?
Excuse me, could you tell me the way to the station?

Americans also use *Excuse me* to apologise after disturbing somebody.
I beg your pardon is a more formal way of saying 'Sorry'.

I beg your pardon. I didn't realise this was your seat.

8 asking people to repeat

If people do not hear or understand what is said, they may say *Sorry?* (BrE), *What?* (informal), *(I beg your) pardon?* or *Pardon me?* (AmE).

Mike's on the phone. ~ *Sorry?* ~ *I said Mike's on the phone.*
See you tomorrow. ~ *What?* ~ *See you tomorrow.*
You're going deaf. ~ *I beg your pardon?* ▸

9 journeys etc

Common ways of wishing people a good journey are:

Have a good trip. *Have a good journey.* (BrE)

Safe journey home. (BrE)

After a journey (for example when we meet people at the airport or station), we may say:

Did you have a good journey/trip/flight?

How was the journey/trip/flight?

If somebody is leaving for an evening out or some kind of pleasant event, people might say *Have a good time!* or *Enjoy yourself!* (especially in American English sometimes just *Enjoy!*). *Good luck!* is used before examinations or other difficult or dangerous events.

When people return home, their friends or family may say

Welcome back/home.

10 holidays

Before somebody starts a holiday, we may say:

Have a good holiday. (AmE ... *vacation.*) OR *Have a good time.*

When the holiday is over, we may say:

Did you have a good holiday/vacation?

11 meals

We do not have fixed expressions for the beginnings and ends of meals. It is common for guests or family members to say something complimentary about the food during the meal (for example *This is very nice*), and after (for example *That was lovely/delicious; thank you very much*). Some religious people say 'grace' (a short prayer) before and after meals. Waiters often say *Enjoy your meal* after serving a customer.

For the names of meals, see 347.

12 drinking

When people begin drinking alcoholic drinks socially, they often raise their glasses and say something. Common expressions are *Cheers!* (BrE) and *Your health!* When we drink to celebrate an occasion (such as a birthday, a wedding or a promotion), we often say *Here's to ...!*

Here's to Betty!

Here's to the new job! *Here's to the happy couple!*

13 sending good wishes

Typical expressions are *Give my best wishes/regards/greetings/love to X, Remember me to X, Say hello to X for me.* When the wishes are passed on, common expressions are *X sends his/her best wishes/regards* etc, *X says hello.*

14 sympathy

Common formulae in letters of sympathy (for example on somebody's death) are *I was very/terribly/extremely sorry to hear about ...* and *Please accept my deepest sympathy.*

15 invitations and visits

Invitations often begin:

Would you like to . . .?

Possible replies:

Thank you very much. That would be very nice/lovely. (formal)
Thanks, that would be great. (informal)
Sorry. I'm afraid I'm not free.

It is normal to thank people for hospitality at the moment of leaving their houses.

Thank you very much. That was a wonderful evening.

16 offers and replies

Offers often begin *Would you like . . .?* or *Can/May I get/offer you . . .?* (more formal). Offers to do things for people can begin *Would you like me to . . .?*, *Can/May I . . .?* or *Shall I . . .?* (mainly BrE). Typical replies are *Yes please*; *No thank you*; *Thanks, I'd love some*; *I'd love to*; *That's very nice/kind of you.* Note that *thank you* can be used for accepting as well as refusing.

17 asking for things

We normally ask for things by using *yes/no* questions. (see 435).

Could you lend me a pen? (NOT ~~*Please lend me a pen.*~~)

18 handing over things

We do not have an expression which is automatically used when we hand over things. We sometimes say *Here you are*, especially when we want to attract people's attention to the fact that we are passing something to them.

Have you got a map of London? ~ *I think so. Yes, here you are.* ~ *Thanks.*

There you go is also possible in this situation, especially in AmE.

19 thanks

Common ways of thanking people are:

Thank you.	*Thanks very much / a lot.* (NOT ~~*Thank you a lot.*~~)
Thank you very much.	*Cheers.* (informal BrE)
Thanks. (informal)	

Possible replies to thanks are:

Not at all.	*You're welcome.*
Don't mention it.	*That's (quite) all right.*
That's OK. (informal)	*No problem.* (informal)

But note that British people do not always reply to thanks, especially thanks for small things.

For more information about thanking and the use of *please*, see 433.

20 sleep

When somebody goes to bed, people often say *Sleep well.* In the morning, we may ask *Did you sleep well?* or *How did you sleep?*

For expressions used when telephoning, see 578.

546 some

1 meaning: indefinite quantity/number

Some is a determiner (see 154). It often suggests an indefinite quantity or number, and is used when it is not important to say exactly how much/many we are thinking of.

*I need **some** new clothes.* *Would you like **some** tea?*

2 pronunciation

When *some* has this indefinite meaning, it usually has a 'weak' pronunciation /s(ə)m/ before (adjective +) noun.

some /s(ə)m/ *new clothes* *some* /s(ə)m/ *tea*

For more about 'strong' and 'weak' pronunciations, see 616.

3 *some* and *any*

With this meaning, *some* is most common in affirmative clauses, and in questions which expect or encourage the answer 'Yes'. In other cases, *any* is generally used. For details, see 547. Compare:

- *There are **some** children at the front door.*
  *Do you mind if I put **some** music on?*
- *Did you meet **any** interesting people on holiday?*
  *She hasn't got **any** manners.*

4 *some* and *a/an*

Some (in this sense) is used in similar ways to the indefinite article *a/an* (see 65). However, it is not normally used with the same kind of nouns. Compare:

*I need **a** new **coat**.* (singular countable noun) (NOT ... ~~*some new coat*~~.)
*I need **some** new **shirts**.* (plural countable noun)
*I need **some** **help**.* (uncountable noun)

5 when *some* is not used

With an uncountable or plural noun, *some* usually suggests the idea of an indefinite (but not very large) quantity or number. When there is no idea of a limited quantity or number, we do not usually use *some*. For details, see 67. Compare:

- *We've planted **some** roses in the garden.* (a limited number)
  I like roses. (no idea of number)
- *Bring **some** food in case we get hungry.*
  The President has appealed for food for the earthquake victims.

6 *some* and *some of*; *some* with no following noun

Before another determiner (article, demonstrative or possessive word) or a pronoun, we use *some of*. Compare:

- *I've got tickets for **some** concerts next month.* (NOT ... ~~*some of concerts*~~...)
  *Pete's coming to **some of** the concerts.* (NOT ... ~~*some the concerts*~~...)
- *Some people want to get to sleep.* (NOT ... ~~*some of people*~~...)
  Some of us want to get to sleep. (NOT ~~*Some us*~~...)

Nouns can be dropped after *some*, if the meaning is clear.

*I've got too many strawberries. Would you like **some**?*

Before *of*, or with no following noun, *some* is pronounced /sʌm/.
some /sʌm/*of us* *Would you like some* /sʌm/*?*

7 contrast with *others* etc

Some (pronounced /sʌm/) can have a more emphatic meaning, contrasting with *others*, *all* or *enough*.
Some people like the sea; others prefer the mountains.
Some of us were late, but we were all there by ten o'clock.
I've got some money, but not enough.

8 an unknown person or thing

Some (/sʌm/) can refer to an unknown person or thing (usually with a singular countable noun).
Some idiot has taken the bath plug.
There must be some job I could do.
She's living in some village in Yorkshire.
We can use this structure to suggest that we are not interested in somebody or something, or that we do not think much of him/her/it.
Mary's gone to America to marry some sheep farmer or other.
I don't want to spend my life doing some boring little office job.

9 *some party!*

In informal speech, *some* can show enthusiastic appreciation.
It was some party!

10 with numbers

Some (/sʌm/) with a number suggests that the number is high or impressive.
We have exported some four thousand tons of bootlaces this year.

For *somebody* and *anybody*, *something* and *anything* etc, see 548.
For *some time*, *sometime* and *sometimes*, see 549.

547 some and any

1 indefinite quantities

Both *some* (see 546) and *any* (see 55) can refer to an indefinite quantity or number. They are used when it is not easy, or not important, to say exactly how much/many we are thinking of.
I need to buy some new clothes. *Is there any milk left?*

2 the difference

Some is most common in affirmative clauses. *Any* (used in this sense) is a 'non-affirmative' word (see 381), and is common in questions and negatives. Compare:
I want some razor blades. (NOT ~~*I want any razor blades.*~~)
Have you got any razor blades?
Sorry, I haven't got any razor blades. (NOT ~~*Sorry, I haven't got some*~~ . . .)

For other uses of *any*, see 55. ▶

3 *some* in questions

We use *some* in questions if we expect people to answer 'Yes', or want to encourage them to say 'Yes' – for example in offers and requests.

Have you brought some paper and a pen?
(The hearer is expected to bring them.)
Shouldn't there be some instructions with it?
Would you like some more meat?
Could I have some brown rice, please?
Have you got some glasses that I could borrow?

4 *any* in affirmative clauses

We use *any* in affirmative clauses after words that have a negative or limiting meaning: for example *never, hardly, without, little.*

You never give me any help. *I forgot to get any bread.*
There's hardly any tea left. *We got there without any trouble.*
There is little point in doing any more work now.

For the 'free choice' use of *any* (e.g. *Any child could do this*), see 55.

5 *if*-clauses

Both *some* and *any* are common in *if*-clauses.

If you want some/any help, let me know.

Sometimes *any* is used to suggest 'if there is/are any'.

Any cars parked in this road will be towed away.
(= If there are any cars parked in this road, they will . . .)

548 somebody, someone, anybody, anyone etc

1 *-body* and *-one*

There is no significant difference between *somebody* and *someone, anybody* and *anyone, everybody* and *everyone* or *nobody* and *no one*. The *-one* forms are more common in writing; the *-body* forms are more frequent in speech in British English.

2 *some-* and *any-*

The differences between *somebody* and *anybody, something* and *anything, somewhere* and *anywhere* etc are the same as the differences between *some* and *any* (see 547 for details). Compare:

- *There's somebody at the door.*
  Did anybody telephone?
- *Can I get you something to drink?*
  If you need something/anything, just shout.
- *Let's go somewhere nice for dinner.*
  I don't want to go anywhere too expensive.

3 singular

When these words are subjects they are used with singular verbs.

Everybody likes her. (NOT ~~*Everybody like her.*~~)
Is everything ready? (NOT ~~*Are everything ready?*~~)

Somebody normally refers to only one person. Compare:
*There's **somebody** outside who wants to talk to you.*
*There are **some people** outside who want to talk to you.*

4 use of *they*

They, them and *their* are often used with a singular meaning to refer back to *somebody* etc (see 528).
*If **anybody** wants a ticket for the concert, **they** can get it from my office.*
*There's **somebody** at the door. ~ Tell **them** I'm busy.*
*Someone left **their** umbrella on the bus.* *Nobody phoned, did **they**?*

5 complementation: *somebody nice*, etc

Somebody etc can be followed by adjectives or adverbial expressions.
*I hope he marries **somebody nice**.*
*She's going to meet **someone in the Ministry**.*
*I feel like eating **something hot**.*
*Let's go **somewhere quiet** this weekend.*
They can also be followed by *else* (see 183).
*Mary – are you in love with **somebody else**?*
*I don't like this place – let's go **somewhere else**.*
Note also the informal use of *much* after *any-* and *no-*.
*We didn't do **anything much** yesterday.*
*There's **nothing much** on TV tonight.*

6 *someplace*

Someplace is common in informal American English.
*Let's go **someplace quiet**.*

7 *anyone* and *any one*; *everyone* and *every one*

Anyone means the same as *anybody*; *any one* means 'any single one (person or thing)'. Compare:
*Does **anyone** know where Celia lives?*
*You can borrow **any one** book at a time.*
There is a similar difference between *everyone* and *every one*. Compare:
Everyone had a good time at the party.
*There aren't any cakes left – they've eaten **every one**.*

For the difference between *no one* and *none*, see 380.
For question tags after *everything* and *nothing*, see 488.
For *some time, sometime* and *sometimes*, see 549.

549 some time, sometime and sometimes

Some time (with two stresses: /ˈsʌm ˈtaɪm/) means 'quite a long time'.
*I'm afraid it'll take **some time** to repair your car.*
*She's lived in Italy for **some time**, so she speaks Italian quite well.*
Sometime (/ˈsʌmtaɪm/) refers to an indefinite time, usually in the future; it often means 'one day'. It can also be written as two words: *some time*.
*Let's have dinner together **sometime** next week.*
*When will I get married – this year, next year, **sometime**, never?* ▸

Sometimes (/'sʌmtaɪmz/) is an adverb of frequency (see 24). It means 'on some occasions', 'more than once' (past, present or future).

*I **sometimes** went skiing when I lived in Germany.*
Sometimes, in the long winter evenings, I just sit and think about life.

For *sometimes* and *once*, see 393

550 soon, early and quickly

1 *soon*

Soon means 'a short time after now' or 'a short time after then'.

*Get well **soon**.* (NOT ~~*Get well early*~~.)
*The work was hard at the beginning, but she **soon** got used to it.*

For *no sooner . . . than*, see 233.

2 *early*

The adverb *early* means 'near the beginning of the time-period that we are thinking about'. It does not usually mean 'a short time after now/then'.

Early that week, Luke was called to the police station.
*We usually take our holidays **early** in the year.* (NOT . . . ~~*soon in the year*~~.)
*I usually get up **early** and go to bed **early**.* (NOT ~~*I usually get up soon*~~ . . .)

Sometimes *early* means 'before the expected time'.

*The plane arrived twenty minutes **early**.*

Early can also be used as an adjective.

*I caught an **early** train.* *You're very **early**.*

In a formal style, the adjective *early* can sometimes have the same kind of meaning as *soon*.

*I should be grateful for an **early** reply.*
*Best wishes for an **early** recovery.*

A watch or clock is *fast* or *slow*, not *early* or *late*.

*My watch is five minutes **fast**.*

3 *quickly*

Quickly refers to the speed with which something is done. Compare:

- *Come and see us **quickly**.* (= Hurry – make the arrangements fast.)
  *Come and see us **soon**.* (= Come and see us before long.)
- *He did the repair **quickly** but not very well.*
  *I hope you can do the repair **soon** – I need the car.*

551 sort of, kind of and type of

1 articles

The article *a/an* is usually dropped after *sort of, kind of* and *type of*, but structures with articles are possible in an informal style.

*That's a funny **sort of** (a) car.* *What **sort of** (a) bird is that?*

2 singular and plural; *these sort of* etc

When we are talking about one sort of thing, we can use *sort of, kind of* or *type of* followed by a singular noun.

This sort of car is enormously expensive to run.
I'm interested in any new type of development in computer science.

Singular *sort of kind of* and *type of* can also be followed by plural nouns, especially in an informal style.

I'm interested in any new kind of developments ...

Plural demonstratives (*these* and *those*) can also be used.

These sort of cars are enormously expensive to run.
Do you smoke those kind of cigarettes?

This structure is often felt to be incorrect, and is usually avoided in a formal style. This can be done by using a singular noun (see above), by using plural *sorts/kinds/types*, or by using the structure ... *of this/that sort/kind/type.*

This sort of car is ...
These kinds of car(s) are ... *Cars of that type are ...*

3 softeners

In an informal style, *sort of* and *kind of* can be used before almost any word or expression, or at the end of a sentence, to show that we are not speaking very exactly, or to make what we say less definite.

We sort of thought you might forget.
Sometimes I sort of wonder whether I shouldn't sort of get a job.
I've had sort of an idea about what we could do.
She's kind of strange. *I've changed my mind, kind of.*

552 sound

Sound is a link verb (see 328). It is followed by adjectives, not adverbs.

You sound unhappy. What's the matter?

Progressive forms are not very common.

Your idea sounds great. (NOT ~~*Your idea's sounding great.*~~)

However, progressive forms are possible when there is an idea of change.

The car sounds / is sounding a bit rough these days.

Sound is often followed by *like* or *as if/though.*

That sounds like Bill coming up the stairs.
It sounds as if/though he's had a hard day.

553 speak and talk

1 little difference

There is litle difference between *speak* and *talk*. In certain situations one or the other is preferred, but they are usually both possible.

2 formality

Talk is the more usual word for informal communication.

When she walked into the room everybody stopped talking.
Could I talk to you about the football match for a few minutes? ▸

Speak is often used for communication in more serious or formal situations.
*I'll have to **speak** to that boy – he's getting very lazy.*
*They had a row last week, and now they're not **speaking** to one another.*
*After she had finished reading the letter, nobody **spoke**.*

3 lectures etc

Talk is often used for the act of giving an informal lecture (a *talk*); *speak* is preferred for more formal lectures, sermons etc. Compare:
*This is Patrick Allen, who's going to **talk** to us about gardening.*
*This is Professor Rosalind Bowen, who is going to **speak** to us on recent developments in low-temperature physics.*
*The Pope **spoke** to the crowd for seventy minutes about world peace.*

4 languages

Speak is the usual word to refer to knowledge and use of languages, and to the physical ability to speak.
*She **speaks** three languages fluently.*
*We **spoke** French so that the children wouldn't understand.*
*His throat operation has left him unable to **speak**.*

5 other cases

One usually asks to *speak to* somebody on the phone (AmE also *speak with*).
*Hello. Could I **speak to** Karen, please?*
Talk is used before *sense, nonsense* and other words with similar meanings.
*You're **talking** complete **nonsense**, as usual.* (NOT ~~*You're speaking complete nonsense*~~...)

554 speech (1): stress and rhythm

Stress and rhythm are important elements in English pronunciation. If learners pronounce all the syllables in a sentence too regularly, with the same force and at the same speed, they can be quite hard for English speakers to understand. And if learners are not sensitive to English stress and rhythm, they may not perceive unstressed syllables (especially 'weak forms' – see 616) at all, and this may make it difficult for them to follow natural English speech.

1 stress

Stress is the word for the 'strength' with which syllables are pronounced. In speech, some parts of English words and sentences sound louder than others. For example, the first syllable of *CARpet*, the second syllable of *inSPECtion* or the last syllable of *conFUSE* are usually stressed, while the other syllables in these words are not. In the sentence *Don't look at HIM – HE didn't do it*, the words *him* and *he* are stressed in order to emphasise them. Stressed syllables are not only louder; they may also have longer vowels, and they may be pronounced on a higher musical pitch.

2 word stress

English words with more than one syllable mostly have a fixed stress pattern. There are not many rules to show which syllable of a word will be stressed: one

usually has to learn the stress pattern of a word along with its meaning, spelling and pronunciation. Examples:
Stressed on first syllable:
AFter, CApital, HAPpen, EXercise, EAsy
Stressed on second syllable:
inSTEAD, proNOUNCE, aGREEment, parTIcularly
Stressed on third syllable:
enterTAIN, underSTAND, concenTRAtion
The stressed syllable of a word is the one that can carry an intonation movement (see 555 below).
Many short phrases also have a fixed stress pattern.
front DOOR (not FRONT door)
LIVing room (not living ROOM)
Related words can have different stress patterns.
to inCREASE an INcrease
PHOtograph phoTOgrapher photoGRAphic
A good dictionary will show how words and common phrases are stressed.

3 variable stress

Some words have variable stress. In these, the stress is at or near the end when the word is spoken alone, but it can move to an earlier position when the word is in a sentence, especially if another stressed word follows. Compare:
– *afterNOON* (stress at the end)
It's time for my AFternoon SLEEP. (stress at the beginning)
– *JapanESE*
JApanese COOking
– *nineTEEN*
The year NINEteen TWENty
Many short phrases – for instance, two-word verbs – have variable stress.
– *Their marriage broke UP.*
Money problems BROKE up their marriage.
– *Do sit DOWN.*
She SAT down and cried.
– *It's dark BLUE.*
a DARK blue SUIT

4 stress and pronunciation

Unstressed syllables nearly always have one of two vowels: /ɪ/ (in unstressed prefixes written with *e*, like *de-*, *re-*, *pre-*, *ex-*) or /ə/ (in other cases).
Compare the first syllables in the following pairs of words:
– *PREference* (/'prefrəns/)
preFER (/prɪ'fɜ:(r)/)
– *EXpert* (/'ekspɜ:t/)
exPERience (/ɪk'spɪərɪəns/)
– *CONfident* (/'kɒnfɪdənt/)
conFUSED (/kən'fju:zd/)
– *PARticle* (/'pɑ:tɪkl/)
parTIcular (/pə'tɪkjələ(r)/)
Many short words (mostly pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs) have two quite different pronunciations: a normal 'weak' unstressed form, and a 'strong' form used when the word has special stress. (For details, see 616.)
I was (/wəz/) here first. ~ No you weren't. ~ Yes I was (/wɒz/). ▸

5 emphatic and contrastive stress

Stress is often used to emphasise one part of a sentence, perhaps to make a contrast. Compare these three ways of saying the same words:

Their ELDER daughter went to Cambridge. (Not their younger daughter.)
Their elder DAUGHTER went to Cambridge. (Not their elder son.)
Their elder daughter went to CAMBRIDGE. (Not another university.)

For more about emphasis, see 184.

6 stress in sentences; rhythm

Rhythm is the word for the way stressed and unstressed syllables make patterns in speech. In sentences, we usually give more stress to nouns, ordinary verbs, adjectives and adverbs, and less stress to pronouns, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs.

She was SURE that the BACK of the CAR had been DAMaged.

Stressed syllables are pronounced more slowly and clearly, and (in the opinion of some linguists) follow each other at roughly regular intervals. Unstressed syllables are pronounced more quickly and less clearly, and are fitted in between the stressed syllables. Compare the following two sentences. The second does not take much longer to say than the first: although it has three more unstressed syllables, it has the same number of stressed syllables.

She KNEW the DOCtor. *She KNEW that there was a DOCtor.*

555 speech (2): intonation

Intonation is the word for the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls. Intonation systems in languages are very complicated and difficult to analyse, and linguists do not all agree about how English intonation works.

1 intonation in conversation

One use of intonation is to show how a piece of information fits in with what comes before and after. For instance, a speaker may raise his or her voice when taking over the conversation from somebody else, or to indicate a change of subject. A rise or fall on a particular word may show that this is the 'centre' of the message – the place where the new information is being given; or it may signal a contrast or a special emphasis. A rising tone at the end of a sentence may suggest that there is more to be said and perhaps invite another speaker to take over.

2 attitude

Intonation (together with speed, voice quality and loudness) can also say things about the speaker's attitude. For instance, when people are excited or angry they often raise and lower their voices more.

3 three patterns

There are three particularly common intonation patterns in English speech.

a falling intonation

A falling intonation can suggest that we are saying something definite, complete. The voice falls on the last stressed syllable of a group of words.

I'm tired. *Here's your dictionary.* *Sally couldn't find him.*

A falling intonation is also common in *wh*-questions.

What time's the last bus? *Where's the secretary?*

b rising intonation

A rising intonation is common in *yes/no* questions. The voice rises at the end of a group of words, beginning on the last stressed syllable.

Are you tired? *Is that the secretary?* *Did he post it?*

In 'alternative questions' with *or*, the voice rises on the first part of the question and falls on the second part.

Are you staying or going?

c fall-rise

A fall-rise intonation suggests that something is incomplete, or uncertain, or that there is more to be said.

I'm tired. (perhaps suggesting *But maybe I'll go out with you anyway.*)

I don't play tennis. (perhaps suggesting *But I do play other games.*)

She's quite a good teacher. (perhaps suggesting *But I'm not completely happy with her.*)

The first week was good. (perhaps suggesting *But not the second.*)

Is this all you've written? (perhaps suggesting *I was expecting more.*)

A fall-rise makes questions sound more interested or friendly. It is common in polite requests and invitations.

Where's the secretary? *Please come in.* *Is this your car?*

What's your name? *Some more potatoes?* ▸

4 intonation and misunderstandings

If a statement is made on a rising intonation, it may be misunderstood as a question.

That's our train. ~ I don't know. ~ Yes, it is, I'm telling you.

If a declarative question (see 481) is made on a falling intonation, it may be misunderstood as a statement.

That's our train? ~ Is it? ~ No, I'm asking you.

A falling intonation can also turn a polite request into an order.

Can I have some more coffee? ~ At once, Your Majesty.

A fall-rise in the wrong place can be misunderstood as suggesting more than is said.

I'd like to play tennis. ~ So what's the problem? ~ There's no problem.

For intonation in question tags, see 487.

556 spelling (1): capital letters

We use capital (big) letters at the beginning of the following kinds of words:

a the names of days, months and public holidays (but not usually seasons)

Sunday	*March*	*Easter*
Tuesday	*September*	*Christmas*

(BUT normally *summer, autumn*)

b the names of people, institutions and places, including stars and planets

John	*Mary*	*the Smiths*
the Foreign Office	*North Africa*	*Canada*
the United States	*The Ritz Hotel*	*Oxford University*
The Super Cinema	*the Far East*	(compare *He teaches at a university*)
the Pole Star	*Mars*	

(BUT normally *the earth, the sun, the moon*)

Words derived from people's names have capitals if they refer to the people.
Shakespearean drama (BUT *to pasteurise:* this refers to a chemical process, not directly to the scientist Pasteur)

c people's titles

Mr Smith	*Professor Blake*	
Colonel Webb	*the Managing Director*	*Dr Jones*

the Prime Minister is attending the summit
(Compare *How is the French prime minister elected?*)

d nouns and adjectives referring to nationalities and regions, languages, ethnic groups and religions

He's Russian.	*I speak German.*	*Japanese history*
Catalan cooking	*She's Jewish.*	*He's a Sikh.*

e the names of newspapers and magazines
International Herald Tribune *New Scientist*

f the first word (and often other important words) in the titles of books, films and plays
The Spy who Loved Me *Gone with the Wind*
A Midsummer Night's Dream

For the use of capitals with *East*, *North* etc, see 172.

557 spelling (2): -ly

1 adverb formation

We normally change an adjective into an adverb by adding *-ly*.

late → *lately* *real* → *really* (NOT ~~*realy*~~)
right → *rightly* *definite* → *definitely*
hopeful → *hopefully* *pale* → *palely*
complete → *completely* (NOT ~~*completly*~~)

Exceptions:

true → *truly* *whole* → *wholly*
due → *duly* *full* → *fully*

2 *-y* and *-i-*

-y usually changes to *-i-* (see 561).

happy → *happily* *dry* → *drily* or *dryly*
easy → *easily* *gay* → *gaily*

Exceptions:

shy → *shyly* *sly* → *slyly* *coy* → *coyly*

3 adjectives ending in consonant + *le*

-le changes to *-ly* after a consonant.

idle → *idly* *noble* → *nobly* *able* → *ably*

4 adjectives ending in *-ic*

If an adjective ends in *-ic*, the adverb ends in *-ically* (pronounced /ɪkli/),

tragic → *tragically* *phonetic* → *phonetically*

Exception:

public → *publicly*

558 spelling (3): -ise and -ize

Many English verbs can be spelt with either *-ise* or *-ize*. In American English, *-ize* is preferred in these cases. Examples:

realise/realize (BrE)	*realize* (AmE)
mechanise/mechanize (BrE)	*mechanize* (AmE)
computerise/computerize (BrE)	*computerize* (AmE)
baptise/baptize (BrE)	*baptize* (AmE)

Most words of two syllables, and a few longer words, have *-ise* in both British and American English. Examples:

surprise (NOT ~~*surprize*~~)	*despise*	*supervise*
revise	*compromise*	*televise*
advise	*exercise*	*advertise*
comprise	*improvise*	

Capsize has *-ize* in both British and American English.
Note also *analyse* (AmE *analyse/analyze*) and *paralyse* (AmE *paralyze*).
If in doubt, remember that in British English *-ise* is almost always acceptable. For American English, consult an American dictionary.

559 spelling (4): hyphens

1 What are hyphens?

Hyphens are the short lines (-) that we put between words in expressions like *ticket-office* or *ex-husband.*

2 When are hyphens used?

Hyphens are most common in the following cases:

a compound nouns

- compound nouns where the second part ends in *-er*
  lorry-driver *bottle-opener*
- compound nouns where the first part ends in *-ing*
  waiting-room *writing-paper*
- compound nouns made with prepositions and adverb particles
  sister-in-law *make-up* *in-joke*
- many compounds of two nouns, where the first noun has the main stress (but hyphens are becoming less common in these cases)
  'water-bottle OR *'water bottle*
  'apple-tree OR *'apple tree* BUT *apple 'pie*

b compound adjectives

red-hot	*nice-looking*	*the London-Paris flight*
blue-eyed	*grey-green*	*the Scotland-France match*
broken-hearted		

When we use a longer phrase as an adjective before a noun, we often use hyphens. Compare:

– *an out-of-work miner.*	– *a shoot-to-kill policy*
He's out of work.	*They were ordered to shoot to kill.*

c compound verbs beginning with a noun

baby-sit *house-hunt*

d prefixes

The prefixes *anti-*, *co-*, *ex-*, *mid-*, *non-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *pro-* and *self-* are often separated from what follows by hyphens.

anti-war *mid-term* *post-publication*
co-producer *non-involvement* *pro-hunting*
ex-husband *pre-meeting* *self-study*

And other prefixes may be separated by hyphens in order to avoid unusual or misleading combinations of letters.

un-American *re-examine* *counter-revolution*

e numbers 21-99; fractions

twenty-one *thirty-six* *two-thirds*

3 word division

We also use hyphens to separate the parts of long words at the end of written or printed lines. (To see where to divide words, look in a good dictionary.)

... is not completely in accordance with the policy of the present government, which was ...

4 Are hyphens disappearing?

The rules about hyphens are complicated, and usage is not very clear. Perhaps because of this, people seem to be using hyphens less, especially in compound nouns. Many common short compounds are now often written 'solid', with no division between the words (e.g. *weekend, wideawake, takeover*); other less common or longer compounds are now more likely to be written as completely separate words (e.g. *train driver, living room*). The situation at present is rather confused, and it is not unusual to find the same expression spelt in three different ways (e.g. *bookshop, book-shop, book shop*). If one is not sure whether to use a hyphen between words or not, the best thing is to look in a dictionary, or to write the words without a hyphen.

560 spelling (5): final e

1 final -e dropped before vowels

When an ending that begins with a vowel (e.g. *-ing, -able, -ous*) is added to a word that ends in *-e*, we usually drop the *-e*.

hope → hoping *note → notable* *shade → shady*
make → making *fame → famous*

Some words that end in *-e* have two possible forms before *-able* and *-age*. The form without *-e* is more common in most cases. Note:

likeable (usually with *e*)
mov(e)able (both forms common)
mileage (only with *e*)

Final *-e* is not dropped from words ending in *-ee, -oe* or *-ye*.

see → seeing *canoe → canoeist*
agree → agreeable *dye → dyeing* ▸

2 final -*e* not dropped before consonants

Before endings that begin with a consonant, final -*e* is not normally dropped.
excite → *excitement* *complete* → *completeness*
definite → *definitely*
Exceptions: words ending in -*ue*
due → *duly* *true* → *truly* *argue* → *argument*
In words that end with -*ce* or -*ge*, we do not drop -*e* before *a* or *o*.
replace → *replaceable* *courage* → *courageous*
(BUT *charge* → *charging*, *face* → *facing*)
Judg(e)ment and *acknowledg(e)ment* can be spelt with or without the -*e* after *g*.

For words ending in -*ie*, see 561.5. For adverbs ending in -*ly*, see 557.

561 spelling (6): y and i

1 changing *y* to *i*

When we add an ending to a word that ends in -*y*, we usually change -*y* to -*i*-.
hurry → *hurried* *fury* → *furious* *merry* → *merriment*
marry → *marriage* *easy* → *easier* *busy* → *business*
happy → *happily*
Generally, nouns and verbs that end in -*y* have plural or third person singular forms in -*ies*.
story → *stories* *spy* → *spies* *hurry* → *hurries*

2 exceptions

Two spellings are possible for the nouns *flyer*/*flier*.
A machine that dries things is a *dryer*.
Words formed from the adjective *dry*: normally *drier*, *driest*, *dryly*/*drily*, *dryness*.
Words formed from the adjective *sly*: *slyer*, *slyest*, *slyly*, *slyness*.

3 no change before *i*

We do not change -*y* to -*i*- before *i* (for example when we add -*ing*, -*ism*, -*ish*, -*ise*).
try → *trying* *Tory* → *Toryism* *baby* → *babyish*

4 no change after a vowel

We do not change -*y* to -*i*- after a vowel letter.
buy → *buying* *play* → *played*
enjoy → *enjoyment* *grey* → *greyish*
Exceptions:
say → *said* *pay* → *paid* *lay* → *laid*

5 changing *ie* to *y*

We change -*ie* to -*y*- before -*ing*.
die → *dying* *lie* → *lying*
(but *dye* → *dyeing*)

562 spelling (7): doubling final consonants

1 doubling before vowels

We sometimes double the final consonant of a word before adding *-ed, -er, -est, -ing, -able, -y* (or any other ending that begins with a vowel).

stop → stopped *sit → sitting* *big → bigger*

2 Which consonants are doubled?

We double the following letters:

b: *rub → rubbing*
d: *sad → sadder*
g: *big → bigger*
l: *travel → travelling*
m: *slim → slimming*
n: *win → winnable*
p: *stop → stopped*
r: *prefer → preferred*
t: *sit → sitting*

We double final *-s* in *gassing, gassed* (but not usually in other words), final *-z* in *quizzes, fezzes*, and final *-f* in *iffy* (a colloquial word for 'questionable', 'uncertain').

Final *w* (in words like *show, flow*) is part of a vowel sound, and is not doubled.

show → showing; flow → flowed (NOT ~~*showwing, flowwed*~~)

3 only at the end of a word

We only double consonants that come at the end of a word. Compare:

hop → hopping BUT *hope → hoping*
fat → fatter BUT *late → later*
plan → planned BUT *phone → phoned*

4 one consonant after one vowel letter

We only double when the word ends in one consonant after one vowel letter. Compare:

fat → fatter BUT *fast → faster* (NOT ~~*fastter*~~)
bet → betting BUT *beat → beating* (NOT ~~*beatting*~~)

5 only stressed syllables

We only double consonants in stressed syllables. We do not double in longer words that end in unstressed syllables. Compare:

up'set → up'setting BUT *'visit → 'visiting*
be'gin → be'ginning BUT *'open → 'opening*
re'fer → re'ferring BUT *'offer → 'offering*

Note the spelling of these words:

'gallop → 'galloping → 'galloped (NOT ~~*gallopping, gallopped*~~)
de'velop → de'veloping → de'veloped (NOT ~~*developping, developped*~~)

6 exception: final *l* in unstressed syllables

In British English, we double *-l* at the end of a word after one vowel letter, in most cases, even in unstressed syllables.

'travel → 'travelling
'equal → 'equalled

In American English, words like this are most often spelt with one *l*: *traveling*. ▶

7 other exceptions

Consonants are sometimes doubled at the end of final syllables that are pronounced with full vowels (e.g. /æ/), even when these do not carry the main stress.

'kidnap → *'kidnapped*
'handicap → *'handicapped*
'worship → *'worshippers* (AmE also *'worshipers*)
'combat → *'combating* or *'combatting*

Final *-s* is sometimes doubled in *'focus(s)ing* and *'focus(s)ed*

8 final *c*

Final *-c* changes to *ck* before *-ed, -er, -ing* etc.

picnic → *picnickers*
panic → *panicking*
mimic → *mimicked*

9 Why double?

The reason for doubling is to show that a vowel is pronounced short. This is because, in the middle of a word, a stressed vowel letter before one consonant is usually pronounced as a long vowel or as a diphthong (double vowel). Compare:

hoping /ˈhəʊpɪŋ/	*hopping* /ˈhɒpɪŋ/
later /ˈleɪtə(r)/	*latter* /ˈlætə(r)/
diner /ˈdaɪnə(r)/	*dinner* /ˈdɪnə(r)/

563 spelling (8): ch and tch, k and ck

After one vowel, at the end of a word, we usually write *-ck* and *-tch* for the sounds /k/ and /tʃ/.

back neck sick lock stuck
catch fetch stitch botch hutch

Exceptions:

yak tic public (and many other words ending in *-ic*)
rich which such much attach detach

After a consonant or two vowels, we write *-k* and *-ch*.

bank work talk march bench
break book week peach coach

564 spelling (9): ie and ei

The sound /iː/ (as in *believe*) is often written *ie*, but not usually *ei*. However, we write *ei* after *c* for this sound. English-speaking children learn a rhyme: 'i before e, except after c'.

believe chief field grief piece shield
ceiling deceive receive receipt

Exceptions: *seize, Neil, Keith.*

565 spelling (10): spelling and pronunciation

In many English words, the spelling is different from the pronunciation. This is mainly because our pronunciation has changed a good deal over the last few hundred years, while our spelling system has stayed more or less the same. Here is a list of some difficult common words with their pronunciations.

1 usually two syllables, not three

The letters in brackets are usually not pronounced.

asp(i)rin	*ev(e)ry*	*om(e)lette*
bus(i)ness	*ev(e)ning*	*rest(au)rant*
choc(o)late	*marri(a)ge*	*sev(e)ral*
diff(e)rent	*med(i)cine* (AmE three syllables)	

2 usually three syllables, not four

The letters in brackets are usually not pronounced.

comf(or)table	*temp(e)rature*
int(e)resting	*us(u)ally*
secret(a)ry (AmE four syllables)	*veg(e)table*

3 silent letters

The letters in brackets are not pronounced.

- *clim(b)* *com(b)* *dum(b)* *dou(b)t* *de(b)t*
- *mus(c)le*
- *han(d)kerchief* *san(d)wich* *We(d)nesday*
- *champa(g)ne* *forei(g)n* *si(g)n*
- *bou(gh)t* *cau(gh)t* *ou(gh)t* *thou(gh)t* *borou(gh)* *dau(gh)ter* *hei(gh)t* *hi(gh)* *li(gh)t* *mi(gh)t* *nei(gh)bour* *ni(gh)t* *ri(gh)t* *strai(gh)t* *throu(gh)* *ti(gh)t* *wei(gh)*
- *w(h)at* *w(h)en* *w(h)ere* *w(h)ether* *w(h)ich* *w(h)ip* *w(h)y* and similarly in other words beginning *wha, whe* or *whi.* (Some speakers use an unvoiced /w/ in these words.)
- *(h)onest* *(h)onour* *(h)our*
- *(k)nee* *(k)nife* *(k)nob* *(k)nock* *(k)now* and similarly in other words beginning *kn.*
- *ca(l)m* *cou(l)d* *ha(l)f* *sa(l)mon* *shou(l)d* *ta(l)k* *wa(l)k* *wou(l)d* *autum(n)* *hym(n)*
- *(p)neumatic* *(p)sychiatrist* *(p)sychology* *(p)sychotherapy* *(p)terodactyl* and similarly in other words beginning *pn, ps* or *pt.*
- *cu(p)board* /ˈkʌbəd/
- *i(r)on* (British pronunciation /aɪən/)
- *i(s)land* *i(s)le*
- *cas(t)le* *Chris(t)mas* *fas(t)en* *lis(t)en* *of(t)en* *whis(t)le* (*Often* can also be pronounced /ˈɒftən/.)
- *g(u)arantee* *g(u)ard* *g(u)errilla* *g(u)ess* *g(u)est* *g(u)ide* *g(u)ilt* *g(u)itar* *g(u)y*
- *(w)rap* *(w)rite* *(w)rong*
- *(w)ho* *(w)hom* *(w)hore* *(w)hose* *(w)hole*

4 *a* = /e/

any *many* *Thames* /temz/ ▸

5 ***ch*** = /k/

ache *archaeology* *architect* *chaos* *character* *chemist* *Christmas* *mechanical* *Michael* *stomach*

6 ***ea*** = /e/

already *bread* *breakfast* *dead* *death* *dreadful* *dreamt* *head* *health* *heavy* *instead* *lead* (the metal) *leant* *leather* *meant* *measure* *pleasant* *pleasure* *read* (past) *ready* *steady* *sweater* *threat* *tread* *weather*

7 ***ea*** = /eɪ/

break *great* *steak*

8 ***gh*** = /f/

cough /kɒf/ *draught* /drɑːft/ *enough* /ɪˈnʌf/ *laugh* /lɑːf/ *rough* /rʌf/ *tough* /tʌf/

9 ***o*** = /ʌ/

above *brother* *colour* *come* *comfortable* *company* *cover* *done* *front* *glove* *government* *honey* *London* *love* *lovely* *Monday* *money* *month* *mother* *none* *nothing* *one* *onion* *other* *oven* *some* *son* *stomach* *ton(ne)* *tongue* *once* *won* *wonder* *worry*

10 ***o*** = /uː/

lose *prove* *to*

11 ***ou*** = /ʌ/

country *couple* *cousin* *double* *enough* *rough* *tough* *trouble* *young*

12 ***u*** **or** ***ou***= /ʊ/

bull *bullet* *bush* *butcher* *could* *cushion* *full* *pull* *push* *put* *should* *would*

13 words pronounced with /aɪ/

biology *buy* *dial* *height* *idea* *iron* *microphone* *science* *society* *either* (many British speakers) *neither* (many British speakers)

14 other strange spellings

area /ˈeərɪə/	*friend* /frend/
Australia /ɒsˈtreɪlɪə/	*fruit* /fruːt/
bicycle /ˈbaɪsɪkl/	*heard* /hɜːd/
biscuit /ˈbɪskɪt/	*heart* /hɑːt/
blood /blʌd/	*juice* /dʒuːs/
brooch /brəʊtʃ/	*minute* /ˈmɪnɪt/
business /ˈbɪznɪs/	*moustache* /məˈstɑːʃ/ (AmE /ˈmʌstæʃ/)
busy /ˈbɪzi/	*once* /wʌns/
clothes /kləʊðz/	*one* /wʌn/
does /dʌz/	*theatre* /ˈθɪətə(r)/

doesn't /'dʌz(ə)nt/ *two* /tu:/
Edinburgh /'edɪnbrə/ *woman* /'wʊmən/
Europe /'jʊərəp/ *women* /'wɪmɪn/
foreign /'fɒrən/

15 silent *r*

In standard southern British English, *r* is not normally pronounced before a consonant or at the end of a word.

hard /hɑ:d/ *first* /fɜ:st/ *order* /'ɔ:də/
car /kɑ:/ *four* /fɔ:/ *more* /mɔ:/

But *r* is pronounced at the end of a word if a vowel follows immediately.

four islands /'fɔ:r 'aɪləndz/ *more eggs* /'mɔ:r 'egz/

Note the pronunciation of *iron*, and of words ending in *-ered* and *-re*.

iron /aɪən/ (AmE /'aɪrən/) *wondered* /'wʌndəd/
centre /'sentə(r)/ *bothered* /'bɒðəd/
theatre /'θɪətə(r)/

We often add /r/ after words ending in the sound /ə/ even when this is not written with *r*, if another vowel follows immediately.

India and Africa /'ɪndɪər ənd 'æfrɪkə/

In most varieties of American English, and in many regional British accents, *r* is pronounced whenever it is written.

566 still, yet and already: time

1 meanings

Still, yet and *already* can all be used to talk about things which are going on, or expected, around the present. Briefly:

- *still* is used to say that something is continuing and has not stopped
- *yet* is used to talk about something that is expected
- *already* is used to say that something has happened early, or earlier than it might have happened.

2 *still*

Still is used to say that something has, perhaps surprisingly, not finished.

*She's **still** asleep.* *Is it **still** raining?*
*I've been thinking for hours, but I **still** can't decide.*
*You're not **still** seeing that Jackson boy, are you?*

Still usually goes with the verb, in 'mid-position' (see 24).

3 *yet*

Not yet is used to say that something which is expected has not happened (but we think that it will).

*Is Sally here? ~ **Not yet**.*
*The postman hasn't come **yet**.*

In questions, we use *yet* to ask whether something expected has happened.

*Is supper ready **yet**?* *Has the postman come **yet**?*

Yet usually goes at the end of a clause, but it can go immediately after *not* in a formal style. ▸

Don't eat the pears – they aren't ripe yet.
*The pears are **not yet** ripe.* (more formal)

4 *already*

Already is used to say that something has happened earlier than expected, or earlier than it might have happened.

*When's Sally going to come? ~ She's **already** here.*
*You must go to Scotland. ~ I've **already** been.*
*Have you **already** finished? That was quick!*

Already usually goes with the verb, in 'mid-position' (see 24.) It can also go at the end of a clause, for emphasis.

*Are you here **already**? You must have run all the way.*

We do not usually put *already* before time expressions.

*When I was fourteen I **already** knew that I wanted to be a doctor.* (NOT ~~*Already when I was fourteen*~~ . . .)
*In 1970 Britain's car industry was **already** in serious trouble.* (NOT ~~*Already in 1970*~~ . . .)

5 *still not* or *not yet*?

Still not looks back towards the past; *not yet* looks towards the future. Compare:

– *She **still** hasn't got a job.* (Looking back: she hasn't had a job since Christmas, and this situation is continuing.)
  *She hasn't got a job **yet**.* (Looking forward: she hasn't got a job now, but we're hoping that she will get one.)
– *I **still** can't speak French, after all these years of study.*
  *I can't speak French **yet**, but I hope I will be able to soon.*

6 *yet* or *already* in questions

Questions with *already* often suggest that something has happened. Compare:

– *Have you met Professor Hawkins **yet**?* (= I don't know whether you've met him.)
  *Have you **already** met Professor Hawkins?* (= I think you've probably met him.)
– *Is my coat dry **yet**?*
  *Is my coat dry **already**? That was quick!*

7 tenses

Various tenses are possible with all three words. In British English, perfect tenses are common with *already* and *yet*; Americans often prefer past tenses. Compare:

– *Have you called the garage **yet**?* (BrE)
  *Did you call the garage **yet**?* (AmE)
– *She's **already** left.* (BrE)
  *She **already** left.* (AmE)

8 related to a past moment

All three words can be related to a past moment instead of to the present.

*I went to see if she had woken up **yet**, but she was **still** asleep. This was embarrassing, because her friends had **already** arrived.*

9 *yet* meaning 'still'

Yet is normally used in questions and negative sentences. But it is sometimes used in affirmative sentences in a formal style to mean 'still'.

We have yet to hear from the bank. (= We are still waiting to hear . . .)

10 *all ready*

All ready is not the same as *already*: it simply means the same as ***all*** + ***ready***. Compare:

*When's Jane coming? ~ She's **already** arrived.*
*Are you **all ready**? ~ No, Pete isn't.*

567 subjunctive

1 What is the subjunctive?

Some languages have special verb forms called 'subjunctive', which are used especially to talk about 'unreal' situations: things which are possible, desirable or imaginary. Older English had subjunctives, but in modern English they have mostly been replaced by uses of *should, would* and other modal verbs, by special uses of past tenses (see 426), and by ordinary verb forms. English only has a few subjunctive forms left: third-person singular present verbs without *-(e)s*, (e.g. *she see, he have*) and special forms of *be* (e.g. *I be, he were*). Except for *I/he/she/it were* after *if*, they are not very common.

2 *that she see*

Ordinary verbs only have one subjunctive form: a third person singular present with no *-(e)s* (e.g. *she see*). It is sometimes used in *that*-clauses in a formal style, especially in American English, after words which express the idea that something is important or desirable (e.g. *suggest, recommend, ask, insist, vital, essential, important, advice*). The same forms are used in both present and past sentences.

*It is essential that every child **have** the same educational opportunities.*
*It was important that James **contact** Arthur as soon as possible.*
*Our advice is that the company **invest** in new equipment.*
*The judge recommended that Simmons **remain** in prison for life.*

Do is not used in negative subjunctives. Note the word order.

*We felt it desirable that he **not leave** school before eighteen.*

With verbs that are not third-person singular, the forms are the same as ordinary present-tense verbs (but they may refer to the past).

*I recommended that you **move** to another office.*

3 *be*

Be has special subjunctive forms: *I be, you be* etc.

*It is important that Helen **be** present when we sign the papers.*
*The Director asked that he **be** allowed to advertise for more staff.*

I were and *he/she/it were*, used for example after *if* (see 258.4) and *wish* (see 630) in a formal style, are also subjunctives.

*If I **were** you I should stop smoking.*
*I wish it **were** Saturday.*

▸

4 fixed phrases

Subjunctives are also used in certain fixed phrases. Examples:

*God **save** the Queen!* *Long **live** the King!*
*God **bless** you.* *Heaven **forbid**.*
*He's a sort of adopted uncle, as it **were**.* (= ... in a way.)
*Be that as it **may** ...* (= Whether that is true or not ...)
*If we have to pay £2,000, then so **be** it.* (= We can't do anything to change it.)

5 other structures

Most subjunctive structures are formal and unusual in British English. In *that*-clauses, British people usually prefer ***should*** + **infinitive** (see 521), or ordinary present and past tenses.

*It is essential that every child **should have** the same educational opportunities.* (OR ... *that every child has* ...)
*It was important that James **should contact** Arthur as soon as possible.* (OR ... *that James contacted* ...)

568 such

1 word order

Such is used with nouns and noun phrases. It comes before *a/an*.

***such** people* ***such** interesting ideas*
***such a** decision* (NOT ~~*a such decision*~~)

2 'of this/that kind'

Such can mean 'like this/that', 'of this/that kind'. This is most common in a formal style, with abstract nouns.

*The committee wishes to raise fees. I would oppose **such** a decision.*
*There are various forms of secret writing. **Such** systems are called 'codes'.*

In an informal style, and with concrete nouns, we prefer *like this/that* or *this/that kind of*.

*... systems **like this** are called ...*
*He's got an old Rolls-Royce. I'd like a car **like that**.* (NOT ~~*I'd like such a car*~~.)

3 high degree

Another use of *such* is to talk about a high degree of some quality. In this sense, *such* is common before **adjective + noun**.

*I'm sorry you had **such a bad journey**.*
(= You had a very bad journey, and I'm sorry.)
*It was a pleasure to meet **such interesting people**.*

Such is also possible with this meaning before a noun alone, when the noun has an emphatic descriptive meaning.

*I'm glad your concert was **such a success**.*
*Why did she make **such a fuss** about the dates?*

4 *such* and *very, great* etc

Very, great and similar words are also used to talk about a high degree of some quality. The difference is that they give new information; *such* (= like this/that) normally refers to information that is already known. Compare:

- *I've had a very bad day.* (giving information)
  Why did you have such a bad day? (The information is already known.)
- *The weather was very cold.*
  I wasn't expecting such cold weather.
- *There was great confusion*
  Why was there such confusion?

However, in a very informal style *such* can also be used to mean 'very' or 'great', especially in exclamations.

She has such a marvellous voice! *He's such an idiot!*

5 *such ... that; such ... as to*

Structures with *very* cannot be followed directly by *that*-clauses. Instead, we can use *such ... that.*

It was such a cold afternoon that we stopped playing. (NOT ~~*It was a very cold afternoon that*~~ ...)

There is also a structure with *such* followed by ... + *as to* + infinitive. This is formal and not very common.

It was such a loud noise as to wake everybody in the house.
(Less formal: ... *such a loud noise that it woke* ...)

6 *such as*

Such as is used to introduce examples.

My doctor told me to avoid fatty foods such as bacon or hamburgers.

7 *such-and-such*

Note this informal expression.

She's always telling you that she's met such-and-such a famous person.
(= ... one or other famous person.)

For the difference between *such* and *so*, see 569.

569 such and so

1 *such* before (adjective +) noun

We use *such* before a noun (with or without an adjective).

They're such fools. (NOT ~~*They're so fools.*~~)

It was such good milk that we couldn't stop drinking it. (NOT ~~*It was so good milk that*~~ ...)

Such comes before *a/an.*

She's such a baby.

I've never met such a nice person. (NOT ... ~~*a such/so nice person.*~~) ▸

2 *so* before adjective, adverb etc

We use *so* before an adjective alone (without a noun) or an adverb.
*She's so **babyish**.* (NOT ~~*She's such babyish*~~.)
*The milk was so **good** that we couldn't stop drinking it.*
*Why do you talk so **slowly**?*
We can also use *so* before *much, many, few* and *little.*
*We've got so **much** to do, and so **little** time.*
We use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives.
*I'm glad you're feeling so **much better**.* (NOT ... ~~*so better*~~.)

For *so beautiful a day* etc, see 14.
For more about the meaning and use of *such*, see 568. For more about *so*, see 538.

570 suggest

1 infinitive not used

Suggest is not followed by **object + infinitive**. *That*-clauses and *-ing* structures are common.
*Her uncle **suggested that** she (should) get a job in a bank.*
*Her uncle **suggested getting** a job in a bank.* (NOT ~~*Her uncle suggested her to get a job in a bank*~~.)

2 indirect object not used

Suggest is not normally followed by an indirect object without a preposition.
*Can you **suggest** a restaurant to us?* (NOT ~~*Can you suggest us a restaurant?*~~)

3 verb forms in *that*-clauses

In *that*-clauses after *suggest*, various verb forms are possible when we suggest what people should do.

a Ordinary present and past tenses can be used.
*Her uncle **suggests** that she gets a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **got** a job in a bank.*

b *Should* + infinitive without *to* is common.
*He **suggests** that she **should** get a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **should** get a job in a bank.*

c Subjunctives (see 567) are also used, especially in American English.
*He **suggests** that she **get** a job in a bank.*
*He **suggested** that she **get** a job in a bank.*

4 direct suggestions

In direct suggestions ('I suggest ...'), *should* is not generally used.
*I **suggest** (that) you get ...* (NOT ~~*I suggest that you should get*~~.)

571 suppose, supposing and what if

Suppose, supposing and *what if* can all be used with present tenses to make suggestions about things that might happen.

I haven't got a table cloth. ~ ***Suppose** we use a sheet.*
Let's go swimming. ~ ***Supposing** there are sharks.*
***What if** we invite your mother next weekend and go away the week after?*

A past tense makes the suggestion sound less definite.

Daddy, can I watch TV? ~ ***Suppose** you **did** your homework first.*
I'm going to climb up there. ~ *No! **supposing** you **slipped**!*
***What if** I **came** tomorrow instead of this afternoon?*

In sentences about the past, past perfect tenses are used to talk about situations that did not occur.

*That was very clever, but **supposing** you **had slipped**?*

For more about past tenses with present or future meanings, see 426.

572 supposed to

Be supposed + **infinitive** is used to say what people have to do (or not do) according to the rules or the law, or about what is (not) expected to happen.

*Catholics **are supposed to go** to church on Sundays.*
*We're **supposed to pay** the Council Tax at the beginning of the month.*
*You're **not supposed to park** on double yellow lines.*

There is often a suggestion that things do not happen as planned or expected.

*This country **is supposed to be** a democracy.*
*Lucy **was supposed to come** to lunch. What's happened?*
*Cats **are supposed to be** afraid of dogs, but ours isn't.*

Questions with *supposed to* can suggest that there are problems.

*The train's already left. What **are we supposed to do** now?*
*How **am I supposed to finish** all this work by ten o'clock?*
*That's a lovely picture, but what's **it supposed to be**?*

Another use of *supposed to* is to say what is generally believed.

*He's **supposed to be** quite rich, you know.*
*This stuff **is supposed to kill** flies. Let's try it.*

Note the pronunciation: /sə'pəʊst tə/, not /sə'pəʊzd tə/.

573 surely

1 not the same as *certainly*

Surely does not usually mean the same as *certainly*. We use *certainly* when we simply tell people that something is true. We use *surely* mostly to ask for people's agreement: to persuade them that something must be true, or that there are good reasons for believing it. Compare:

– *House prices are **certainly** rising fast at the moment.* ('I know this is so.')
  *House prices will **surely** stop rising soon.* ('I believe this must be so.')
– *I **certainly** posted the letter on Monday.* ('I know.')
  *She's **surely** got the letter by now.* ('It seems very probable.') ▸

2 belief in spite of . . .

Surely can be used when we say that we think something is true in spite of reasons to believe the opposite, or in spite of suggestions to the contrary. These sentences are often like questions.

I'm going to marry Sonia. ~ ***Surely** she's married already?*
***Surely** that's Henry over there? I thought he was in Scotland.*
Is it tonight we're going out? ~ *No, tomorrow, **surely**?*

With *not, surely* can express difficulty in believing something.

Tim failed his exam. ~ *Oh, **surely not**?*
***Surely** you're **not** going out in that hat?*
*You don't think I'm going to pay for you, **surely**?*

574 sympathetic

Sympathetic usually means 'sharing somebody's feelings' or 'sorry for somebody who is in trouble'.

*I'm **sympathetic** towards the strikers.*
*She's always very **sympathetic** when people feel ill.*

Sympathetic is a 'false friend' for speakers of certain languages. It does not usually mean the same as, for example, *sympathique, sympathisch, sympatisk* or *simpático.*

*The people in my class are all very **nice / pleasant / easy to get on with**.*
(NOT . . . ~~*are all very sympathetic.*~~)

575 taboo words and swearwords

1 introduction

Many languages have words which are considered dangerous, holy, magic or shocking, and which are only used in certain situations or by certain people. For instance, in some African tribes the names of dead chiefs must not be said; in many cultures, words associated with religious beliefs are used only on religious occasions, or only by priests. Words of this kind can be called 'taboo words'.

English has three main groups of taboo words and expressions:

a A number of words connected with the Christian religion (e.g. the names *Christ, God*) are considered holy by some people. These people prefer to use such words only in formal and respectful contexts, and they may be upset or shocked by their 'careless' use.

b Certain words relating to sexual activity and the associated parts of the body (e.g. *fuck, balls*) are regarded as shocking by many people. Thirty or forty years ago some of these words could not be printed or broadcast, and they are still comparatively unusual in public speech and writing. In polite or formal language these words are generally avoided, or replaced by other words and expressions (e.g. *make love* or *have sexual intercourse, testicles*).

c Some words referring to the elimination of bodily wastes (what one does in the lavatory), and the associated parts of the body, are also regarded as 'dirty' or shocking (e.g. *piss, shit*). They are often replaced by more 'polite' words and expressions with the same meaning (e.g. *urinate, defecate*) or by substitutes (e.g. *go to the lavatory, wash one's hands*).

Because taboo words are shocking, they are common in situations where people want to express powerful emotions by using 'strong' language. This is called 'swearing'. When people swear, taboo words usually change their meanings completely. For example, *fuck off* and *piss off* have nothing to do with sex or urinating – they are simply violently rude ways of saying 'go away'. The strength of the original taboo word is borrowed for a different purpose.

Linguistic taboos in English-speaking countries are less strong than they used to be. Most taboo words and swearwords shock less than they did, say, twenty years ago. And increasingly, people are using informal taboo words which are felt to be amusingly 'naughty' rather than shocking, such as *bonk* or *shag* instead of *fuck*, or *willy* instead of *prick* (= penis).

None the less, students should be very careful about using taboo words and swearwords. There are two reasons for this. First of all, it is not easy to know the exact strength of these expressions in a foreign language, or to know what kind of people are shocked by them, and in what circumstances. One may easily say something that is meant as a joke, but which seriously upsets the people one is talking to. And secondly, using this sort of language generally indicates membership of a group: one most often swears in the company of people one knows well, who belong to one's own social circle, age group etc. (Children usually avoid swearing in front of adults so as not to annoy or shock them, and adults avoid swearing in front of children for similar reasons.) So a foreigner who uses swearwords may give the impression of claiming membership of a group that he or she does not belong to.

2 taboo words

The following are some of the most common English taboo words, with explanations of their literal meanings where necessary. Their approximate 'strength' is shown by stars: one-star words like *hell, damn* or *blast* (which are scarcely taboo in modern English) will not upset many people, while a three- or four-star word may be very shocking if it is used in the wrong situation. Note, however, that individual reactions to particular words (and to swearing in general) vary enormously, and that attitudes are changing rapidly (and generally becoming more tolerant of this kind of language). So people of different ages and backgrounds are likely to disagree a good deal about the strength of the words listed.

The words associated with religion are not considered shocking when used with their literal meaning, and the stars show their strength when used as swearwords. The strength of the other words is mostly the same whether they are used literally or for swearing. ▸

Religion

taboo word	meaning
damn *	condemn to hell (rare in literal sense; mainly used as swearword)
blast * (BrE)	strike with divine punishment (rare in literal sense; mainly used as swearword)
hell *	

(*Damn, blast* and *hell* have lost most of their strength, and are scarcely regarded as swearwords by most people in modern English.)

God *
Jesus **
Christ **

Parts of the body

taboo word	meaning
arse ***	bottom, buttocks, anus
(AmE ass **)	
arsehole ***	anus
(AmE asshole **)	
balls ***	testicles
bollocks *** (BrE)	testicles
cock ***	penis
dick***	penis
prick ***	penis
tits ***	breasts
cunt ****	woman's sex organs
twat ***	woman's sex organs (rare)

Sexual activity

taboo word	meaning
fuck ***	have sex (with)
wank ***	masturbate (have sex with oneself)
(AmE jerk off ***)	
bugger *** (BrE)	have anal intercourse with a person or animal; person who does so (rare in literal sense)
come **	reach a sexual climax (orgasm)
sod ** (BrE)	homosexual (abbreviation of *sodomite*; rare in literal sense)
bitch ***	female dog; earlier used for 'immoral' woman
whore **	prostitute
bastard **	child of unmarried parents

Lavatory

taboo word	meaning
piss ***	urine; urinate
shit ***	excrement; defecate
crap **	excrement; defecate
fart **	let digestive gas out from the anus

3 swearwords

All of the words listed above, and a few others, are used in swearing. The meaning of a swearword is always different from its literal (taboo) meaning (see introduction above). Compare:

*What are you doing **fucking** in my bed?*
(= Why are you making love in my bed? – literal meaning of *fucking*)
*What are you **fucking** doing in my bed?*
(= Why the hell are you in my bed? – *fucking* used as a swearword)

The meaning of a swearword can also change with its grammatical form. For instance, *piss off* is an aggressive way of saying *go away*; *pissed* is British slang for *drunk*; *pissed off* is British slang for *fed up*. Many swearwords are grammatically very flexible. *Fucking*, for example, can act both as an adjective (e.g. ***fucking** idiot*) and as an intensifying adverb (e.g. ***fucking** good, **fucking** soon, it's **fucking** raining, **fucking** well shut up*). It is even sometimes put into the middle of another word (*abso-**fucking**-lutely*). Swearwords are the only words in the language that have this grammatical range.

The following list shows some of the most common expressions used in swearing; they are grouped according to meaning.

a exclamation of annoyance

Damn (it)!
Blast (it)! (BrE)
God damn it!
God damn! (especially AmE)
Hell!
(My) God!
Jesus!
Christ!
Jesus Christ!
Bugger (it)! (BrE)
Sod (it)! (BrE)
Shit!
Fuck (it)!

Examples of use:
***Damn it!** Can't you hurry up?*
***Christ!** It's raining again!*
***Oh, fuck!** I've lost the address!*

b exclamation of surprise

(My) God!
Jesus!
Christ!
Jesus Christ!
God damn! (especially AmE)
Well, I'll be damned!
Son of a bitch! (especially AmE)
Damn me!
Bugger/Fuck me! (BrE)
Well, I'm damned/buggered! (BrE)

Examples of use:
***My God!** Look at that!*
***Well, I'm damned!** What are you doing here?*
***Bugger me!** There's Mrs Smith. I thought she was on holiday.*

c surprised question

Who/What/Why etc *the hell . . .?* (AmE also . . . *in hell . . .?*)
Who/What/Why etc *the fuck . . .?*

Examples of use:
***What the hell** do you think you're doing?*
***Where the fuck** are the car keys?*

▸

d insult (noun)

Note that these nouns generally have no real meaning. They simply express a strong emotion such as hatred, anger, envy or contempt.

bastard	*shit*	*bitch* (applied to women)	*(stupid) fuck* (esp AmE)
fart	*sod* (BrE)	*son of a bitch* (AmE)	*dickhead* (= idiot)
prick	*bugger* (BrE)	*arsehole* (AmE *asshole*)	
fucker	*wanker* (BrE)	*motherfucker* (AmE)	
cunt	*twat* (= idiot)	*cocksucker* (AmE)	

Examples of use:

*You **bastard!*** *Lucky **sod!***
*Stupid old **fart!*** *She's such a **bitch!***
*He's a real **prick!*** *That guy's a real **asshole!***
*Stupid **fucker!*** *Stupid **twat!***

e insult (imperative verb + object)

Damn . . .! *Blast . . .!* (BrE) *Sod . . .!* (BrE)
Bugger . . .! (BrE) *Fuck . . .!* *Screw . . .!*

Examples of use:

***Damn** that child!* ***Fuck** you!* ***Screw** the government!*

f insulting request to go away

Fuck off! *Bugger off!* (BrE)
Piss off! *Sod off!* (BrE)

Examples of use:

*Can I have a word with you? ~ **Fuck off!***
*If Andy comes asking for money, tell him to **piss off**.*

g expression of unconcern (= 'I don't care')

I don't/couldn't give a damn/shit/fuck; . . . a bugger (BrE).

Examples of use:

*They can come and arrest me if they want to. **I don't give a fuck.***
*Mary's very angry with you. ~ **I don't give a bugger.***

h violent refusal/rejection/defiance

(I'll be) damned/fucked if I will! *Balls to . . .!* (BrE)
. . . buggered if I will! (BrE) *Bollocks!* (BrE)
Stuff it (up your arse/ass) *Kiss my arse/ass!*
Get stuffed! (BrE) *Suck my cock!*
Balls! *Why don't you take a flying fuck?*

Examples of use:

*Mr Parsons wants you to clean out the lavatories. ~ **Fucked if I will!***
*Management are offering another £8 a week. ~ They can **stuff it.***
*Give me a kiss. ~ **Get stuffed!***
*You're afraid to fight. ~ **Balls!***
***Balls to** the lot of you! I'm going home.*

i intensifying adjective/adverb (used to emphasise an emotion)

damn(ed) *sodding* (BrE)
bloody (BrE) *fucking*
goddam (AmE)
Bloody has no literal taboo equivalent in modern English.

Examples of use:
*That car's going **damn(ed)** fast.* *She's a **fucking** marvellous singer.*
*Where's the **bloody** switch?* *Put the **fucking** cat out!*
*It's **bloody** raining again.*
When these words are used before verbs, the word *well* is often added in British English.
*I **damn well hope** you never come back.*
*I'm not **fucking well paying** this time.*
*It's **bloody well raining** again.*

j miscellaneous

Fuck (up), screw (up) and *bugger (up)* (BrE) can mean 'ruin', 'spoil' or 'destroy'.
*Somebody's **fucked up** the TV.*
*You've **buggered** my watch.*
Fucked and *buggered* can mean 'exhausted' (BrE).
*Want another game of tennis?~No, I'm **fucked**.*
Screw (especially AmE) can mean 'cheat'.
*Don't buy a car from that garage – they'll **screw** you.*
Cock up (BrE), *balls up* (BrE), *fuck up* and *screw up* can be used as verbs or nouns to refer to mistakes of organisation. (When used as nouns, they are often written with hyphens.)
*That bloody secretary's **cocked up** my travel arrangements.*
*Sorry you didn't get your invitation – Mary made a **balls-up**.*
*The conference was a complete **fuck-up**.*
*Well, we really **screwed up** this time, didn't we?*
Balls (BrE), *bullshit* (AmE), *cock* and *crap* are used to mean 'nonsense'.
*What's his new book like?~A load of **balls**.*
*Don't talk **crap**!*
In American English, *shit* can mean 'lies' or 'nothing'.
*Janie's getting married.~No **shit**?*
*He don't know his ass from a hole in the ground. He don't know **shit**.*
Bugger/fuck/damn/sod all are used in British English to mean 'nothing'.
*There's **fuck** all in the fridge. We'll have to eat out.*
In British English, *pissed* means 'drunk' and *pissed off* means 'fed up'.
*Steve was **pissed** out of his mind again last night.*
*I'm getting **pissed off** with London.*
In American English, *pissed* is 'annoyed', 'angry'.
*I'm **pissed** at him because of what he's been saying about me.*
A sod of a ... means 'a very bad ...'
*It was a **sod of an exam**.* *It's **a sod of a place** to get to.*

For information about slang, see 533.

576 take: time

We can use *take* to say how much time we need to do something. Five structures are common

1 The person is the subject:

person + *take* + time + infinitive

I took three hours to get home last night.
She takes all day to get out of the bathroom.
They took two hours to unload the ferry.

2 The activity is the subject:

activity + *take* (+ person) + time

The journey took me three hours.
Gardening takes a lot of time.
Unloading the ferry took them two hours.

3 The object of the activity is the subject:

object of activity + *take* (+ person) + infinitive

The ferry took them two hours to unload.
This house will take all week to clean.

4 Preparatory *it* is the subject:

It + *take* (+ person) + time + infinitive

It took me three hours to get home last night.
It takes ages to do the shopping.

5 *Before/until* is used:

It + *take* (+ person) + time + *before/until.*

It took us six weeks before/until we got the house clean.
It took a long time before/until she felt comfortable in her new school.

577 taste

1 link verb

Taste can be used as a 'link verb' (see 328), followed by an adjective or noun, to say how something tastes. Progressive forms are not used.

This tastes nice. What's in it? (NOT . . . ~~*tastes nicely.*~~)
The wine tastes funny. (NOT . . . ~~*is tasting funny*~~. . .)

Before a noun, *taste of* and *taste like* are used.

The fish soup tasted mostly of garlic.
Her lips tasted like wild strawberries.

2 transitive verb: 'perceive'

Taste can be used with an object, to say what we perceive with our sense of taste. Progressive forms are not used. We often use *can taste* (see 125).

I can taste onion and mint in the sauce. (NOT ~~*I am tasting*~~ . . .)

3 transitive verb: 'investigate'

Another transitive use is to say that we are using our sense of taste to find out something. Progressive forms can be used.

Stop eating the cake. ~ *I'm just tasting it to see if it's OK.*

578 telephoning

1 answering a phone

People answering a private phone either say 'Hello' or give their name. People answering a business phone most often give their name.

'Hello'. *'Albert Packard.'*

2 asking for a person

Could I speak to Jane Horrabin? (AmE also *Could I speak with . . .?*)

3 saying who you are

Hello, this is Corinne. (NOT USUALLY . . . ~~*I'm Corinne.*~~)

Could I speak to Jane Horrabin? ~ *Speaking.* OR *This is Jane Horrabin (speaking).*

4 asking who somebody is

Who is that? (AmE *Who is this / Who's there?*)

Who am I speaking to? *Who is that speaking?*

5 asking for a number

Can/Could I have extension two oh four six?

What's the (dialling) code for Bristol? (AmE . . . *area code . . .?*)

How do I get an outside line?

6 if you want the other person to pay for the call

I'd like to make a reversed (OR *transferred*) *charge call to Bristol 437878.* (AmE *I'd like to make a collect call . . .*)

7 if somebody is not there

I'm afraid she's not in at the moment.

Can I take a message?

Can I leave a message?

Please leave your message after the tone.

I'll ring/call again later. (AmE *I'll call . . .*)

Could you ask her to ring/call me back?

Could you ask her to ring/call me at/on Ardington 637022?

Could you just tell her Jake called? ▸

8 asking people to wait

Just a moment. *Hold the line, please.*
Hold on a moment, please. *Hang on.* (informal)

9 things a switchboard operator may say

One moment, please. *(The number's) ringing for you.*
(I'm) trying to connect you. *(I'm) putting you through now.*
I'm afraid the number/line is engaged (BrE) / *busy* (AmE). *Will you hold?*
I'm afraid there's no reply from this number / from her extension.

10 wrong number

I think you've got the ***wrong number.***
I'm sorry. I've got the ***wrong number.***

11 problems

Could you speak louder? It's a ***bad line*** (BrE) / ***bad connection.***
You're ***breaking up.***
I'll call again. *I was/got* ***cut off.***
I rang/called you earlier but I ***couldn't get through.***

579 telling the time

1 saying what time it is

There are two common ways of saying what time it is.

8.05 *eight (oh) five* OR *five past eight*
8.10 *eight ten* OR *ten past eight*
8.15 *eight fifteen* OR *a quarter past eight*
8.25 *eight twenty-five* OR *twenty-five past eight*
8.30 *eight thirty* OR *half past eight*
8.35 *eight thirty-five* OR *twenty-five to nine*
8.45 *eight forty-five* OR *a quarter to nine*
8.50 *eight fifty* OR *ten to nine*
9.00 *nine o'clock*

Americans prefer to write a colon between the hours and the minutes: *8:50.* People generally prefer to say *minutes past/to* for times between the five-minute divisions.

seven minutes past eight (More natural than *seven past eight*)
three minutes to nine (More natural than *three to nine*)

The expression *o'clock* is only used at the hour. Compare:

Wake me at seven (o'clock).
Wake me at ten past seven. (NOT ... ~~*ten past seven o'clock.*~~)

Past is often dropped from *half past* in informal speech.

OK, see you at half two. (= ... half past two.)

In American English *after* is often used instead of *past* (e.g. *ten* ***after*** *six*); but Americans do not say *half after.* And in American English *of, before* and *till* are possible instead of *to* (e.g. *twenty-five of three*).

2 asking what time it is

Common ways of asking about time are:

What time is it? *Have you got the time?* (informal)
What's the time? *Could you tell me the time?* (more formal)
What time do you make it? (OR *What do you make the time?*)
(BrE, meaning 'What time is it by your watch?')

3 the twenty-four hour clock

The twenty-four hour clock is used mainly in timetables, programmes and official announcements. In ordinary speech, people usually use the twelve-hour clock. Compare:

- *Last check-in time is 20.15.*
  We have to check in by a quarter past eight in the evening.
- *The next train from platform 5 is the 17.53 departure for Carlisle.*
  What time does the next train leave? ~ *Five fifty-three.*
- *The meeting will begin at fourteen hundred.*
  We're meeting at two o'clock.

If necessary, times can be distinguished by using *in the morning/afternoon/evening.* In a more formal style, we can use *am* (= Latin *ante meridiem* – 'before midday') and *pm* (= *post meridiem* – 'after midday').

09.00 = *nine o'clock in the morning* (OR *nine am*)
21.00 = *nine o'clock in the evening* (OR *nine pm*)

580 tense simplification in subordinate clauses

1 reasons for tense simplification

If the main verb of a sentence makes it clear what kind of time the speaker is talking about, it is not always necessary for the same time to be indicated again in subordinate clauses. Compare:

- *This discovery means that we will spend less on food.*
  This discovery will mean that we spend less on food.
- *It is unlikely that he will win.*
  I will pray that he wins.

Verbs in subordinate clauses are often simpler in form than verbs in main clauses – for example present instead of future, simple past instead of ***would*** + **infinitive**, simple past instead of past perfect.

You'll find Coca-Cola wherever you go. (NOT ... ~~*wherever you will go.*~~)
He would never do anything that went against his conscience.
(More natural than ... *that would go against his conscience.*)
I hadn't understood what she said.
(More natural than ... *what she had said.*)

2 present instead of future: *I'll write when I have time*

Present tenses are often used instead of ***will*** + **infinitive** to refer to the future in subordinate clauses. This happens not only after conjunctions of time like *when, until, after, before, as soon as,* but in most other subordinate clauses –

▶

for instance after *if, whether* and *on condition that,* after question words and relatives, and in indirect speech.

I'll write to her when I have time. (NOT ... ~~*when I will have time.*~~)
I'll think of you when I'm lying on the beach next week. (NOT ... ~~*when I will be lying*~~ ...)
Will you stay here until the plane takes off?
It will be interesting to see whether he recognises you.
I'll have a good time whether I win or lose.
I'll lend it to you on condition that you bring it back tomorrow.
I'll go where you go.
He says he'll give five pounds to anybody who finds his pen.
One day the government will really ask people what they want.
If she asks what I'm doing in her flat, I'll say I'm checking the gas.
I think you'll find the wind slows you down a bit.

This can happen even if the main verb is not future in form, provided it refers to the future.

Phone me when you arrive.
Make sure you come back soon.
You can tell who you like next week, but not until then.

In comparisons with *as* and *than,* present and future verbs are both possible.

She'll be on the same train as we are/will tomorrow.
We'll get there sooner than you do/will.

3 present perfect: ... *when I've finished*

The present perfect is used instead of the future perfect, to express the idea of completion.

I'll phone you when I've finished. (NOT ... ~~*when I will have finished.*~~)
At the end of the year there will be an exam on everything you've studied. (NOT ... ~~*everything you will have studied.*~~)

4 future in subordinate clauses: ... *where she will be*

A future verb is necessary for future reference in a subordinate clause if the main verb does not refer to the future (or to the same time in the future).

I don't know where she will be tomorrow.
I'm sure I won't understand a word of the lecture.
I'll hide it somewhere where he'll never find it. (two different future times)
If she rings, I'll tell her that I'll ring back later. (two different future times)

For future verbs in *if*-clauses (e.g. *I'll give you £100 if it will help you to go on holiday*), see 260.

5 *in case, I hope, I bet, it doesn't matter* etc

A present tense is normally used with a future meaning after *in case* even if the main verb is present or past. For details, see 271.

I've got my tennis things in case we have time for a game tomorrow.

In an informal style, present verbs are often used with future meanings after *I hope* (see 250) and *I bet* (see 103).

I hope you sleep well.
I bet he gets married before the end of the year.

Present tenses are also used with future reference after *it doesn't matter, I don't care, I don't mind, it's not important* and similar expressions.

It doesn't matter where we go on holiday.
I don't care what we have for dinner if I don't have to cook it.

6 past instead of *would* . . .

Would, like *will*, is avoided in subordinate clauses; instead, we generally use past verbs. This happens in *if*-clauses (see 258), and also after most other conjunctions.

If I had lots of money, I would give some to anybody who asked for it.
(NOT ~~*If I would have . . . who would ask for it.*~~)
Would you follow me wherever I went? (NOT . . . ~~*wherever I would go?*~~)
In a perfect world, you would be able to say exactly what you thought.
(NOT . . . ~~*what you would think.*~~)
I would always try to help anybody who was in trouble, whether I knew them or not.

For past tenses after *It's time*, see 306; for past tenses after *I'd rather*, see 491; for past tenses after *I wish*, see 630.

7 simplification of perfect and progressive verbs

Simple past verb forms are used quite often in subordinate clauses instead of present perfect and past perfect tenses, if the meaning is clear.

It's been a good time while it('s) lasted.
I've usually liked the people I('ve) worked with.
For thirty years, he had done no more than he (had) needed to.
He probably crashed because he had gone to sleep while he was driving.
(More natural than . . . *while he had been driving.*)

Progressives are often replaced by simple forms in subordinate clauses.

He's working. But at the same time as he works, he's exercising.
(OR . . . *at the same time as he's working* . . .)

8 exceptions

These rules do not usually apply to clauses beginning *because, although, since* or *as* (meaning 'because'), or to non-identifying relative clauses (see 495).

I won't mind the heat on holiday because I won't move about much.
I'll come to the opera with you, although I probably won't enjoy it.
You'll work with Mr Harris, who will explain everything to you.

For tenses in indirect speech, see 275.

581 than and as as subjects, objects and complements

1 subjects: *more than is necessary; as happened*

Than and *as* can replace subjects in clauses (rather like relative pronouns).

He worries more than is necessary. (NOT . . . ~~*more than it/what is necessary.*~~)
There were a lot of people at the exhibition – more than came last year.
(NOT . . . ~~*more than they came last year.*~~)
The train might be late, as happened yesterday. (NOT . . . ~~*as it happened yesterday.*~~)

We've got food for as many people ***as want it.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as they want it.*~~)

Common expressions with *as* in place of a subject: *as follows*; *as was expected*; *as was agreed*; *as is well known.*

I have prepared a new plan, ***as follows.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it follows.*~~)

They lost money, ***as was expected.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it was expected.*~~)

I am sending you the bill, ***as was agreed.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as it was agreed.*~~)

As is well known, *smoking is dangerous.* (NOT ~~*As it is well known*~~ . . .)

2 objects and complements: *as I did last year*

Than and *as* can also act as objects and complements.

They sent more vegetables ***than I had ordered.*** (NOT . . . ~~*than I had ordered them.*~~)

Don't lose your passport, ***as I did*** *last year.* (NOT . . . ~~*as I did it last year.*~~)

She was more frightened ***than I was.*** (NOT . . . ~~*than I was it.*~~)

You're as tired ***as I am.*** (NOT . . . ~~*as I am it.*~~)

Some English dialects use *what* after *as* and *than* in these cases.

They sent more paper ***than what*** *I had ordered.* (non-standard)

You're as tired ***as what*** *I am.* (non-standard)

582 thankful and grateful

Grateful is the normal word for people's reactions to kindness, favours etc.

I'm very ***grateful*** *for all your help.* (NOT ~~*I'm very thankful*~~ . . .)

She wasn't a bit ***grateful*** *to me for repairing her car.*

Thankful is used especially for feelings of relief at having avoided a danger, or at having come through an unpleasant experience.

I'm ***thankful*** *that we got home before the storm started.*

We feel very ***thankful*** *that she didn't marry him after all.*

Well, I'm ***thankful*** *that's over.*

583 that-clauses

1 *that* as a connector

That is a conjunction with little real meaning. It is simply a connector – it shows that a clause forms part of a larger sentence. Compare:

I understood. He was innocent. (two separate sentences)

I understood ***that*** *he was innocent.* (The clause *he was innocent* has become the object of the verb in the larger sentence.)

2 *that*-clauses in sentences

A *that*-clause can be the subject of a sentence.

That she should forget me so quickly *was rather a shock.*

It can be a complement after *be.*

The main thing is ***that*** *you're happy.*

Many verbs can have *that*-clauses as objects.

We ***knew that*** *the next day would be difficult.*

I ***regretted that*** *I was not going to be at the meeting.*

And many nouns and adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses.

I admire your belief ***that*** *you are always right.*

The Minister is ***anxious that*** *nothing should get into the papers.*

3 *the fact that ...*

It is unusual for *that*-clauses to stand alone as subjects. They are more often introduced by the expression *the fact.*

The fact that she was foreign made it difficult for her to get a job.
(NOT ~~*That she was foreign made it difficult*~~...)

The fact that Simon had disappeared didn't seem to worry anybody.
(More natural than *That Simon had disappeared didn't* ...)

The fact also introduces *that*-clauses after prepositions (*that*-clauses cannot follow prepositions directly).

The judge paid no attention to the fact that she had just lost her husband.
(NOT ... ~~*paid no attention to that she had just*~~...)

He held her completely responsible for the fact that she took food without paying for it. (NOT ... ~~*responsible for that she took*~~...)

In spite of the fact that she had three small children, he sent her to prison for six months. (NOT ~~*In spite of that she had*~~...)

For cases when prepositions are dropped before *that*-clauses, see 453.

4 preparatory *it*

It is often used as a preparatory subject or object for a *that*-clause (see 446–447).

It surprised me that he was still in bed.
(More natural than *That he was still in bed surprised me.*)

She made it clear that she was not interested. (NOT ~~*She made that she was not interested clear.*~~)

For reasons why *that*-clauses are often moved to the ends of sentences, see 512.

5 *that*-clauses after verbs, nouns and adjectives

Some verbs, nouns or adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses; some cannot. Compare:

– *I hope that you'll have a wonderful time.*
I want you to have a wonderful time. (NOT ~~*I want that you'll have*~~...)

– *I understood his wish that we should be there.*
I understood the importance of our being there. (NOT ... ~~*the importance that we should be there.*~~)

– *It's essential that you visit the art museum.*
It's worth your visiting the art museum. (NOT ~~*It's worth that you visit*~~...)

Unfortunately there is no easy way to decide which nouns, verbs or adjectives can be followed by *that*-clauses. It is best to check in a good dictionary.

6 verbs in *that*-clauses

In some kinds of *that*-clause, ***should*** + **infinitive** or subjunctives are often used instead of ordinary verb forms. For details, see 521, 567.

I insisted that she should see the doctor at once. (OR ... ***that she see*** ...) ▸

7 compound conjunctions

Some conjunctions are made up of two or more words, including *that*. Common examples: *so that, in order that, provided that, providing that, seeing that, given that, now that.*

*I got here early **so that** we could have a few minutes alone together.*
*I'll come with you **providing that** Bill doesn't mind.*
*OK, I'll help you, **seeing that** you asked so nicely.*
***Given that** Monday is a holiday, we could go to Scotland for the weekend.*
***Now that** the kids are at school, the house seems very quiet.*

For *that*-clauses after reporting verbs ('indirect speech'), see 274–275.
For the relative pronoun *that*, see 494.

584 that: omission

We can often leave out the conjunction *that*, especially in an informal style.

1 indirect speech: *He said (that) . . .*

That can be left out informally after many common reporting verbs.

*James **said (that)** he was feeling better.*
*I **thought (that)** you were in Ireland.*
*The waiter **suggested (that)** we should go home.*

That cannot be dropped after certain verbs, especially intransitive verbs – e.g. *reply, email, shout.*

*James **replied that** he was feeling better.* (NOT ~~*James replied he was*~~ . . .)
*She **shouted that** she was busy.* (NOT ~~*She shouted she was busy*~~.)

For sentences like *Who do you think is outside?* see 486.

2 after adjectives: *I'm glad you're all right*

We can leave out *that* in clauses after some common adjectives.

*I'm **glad (that)** you're all right.*
*It's **funny (that)** he hasn't written.* *We were **surprised (that)** she came.*

3 not dropped after nouns

That is not usually dropped after nouns.

*I did not believe his **claim that** he was ill.* (More natural than . . . *his claim he was ill.*)
*He disagreed with Copernicus' **view that** the earth went round the sun.* (NOT . . . ~~*Copernicus' view the earth went*~~ . . .)

4 conjunctions

That can be left out in an informal style in some common two-word conjunctions, such as *so that, such . . . that, now that, providing that, provided that, supposing that, considering that, assuming that.*

*Come in quietly **so (that)** she doesn't hear you.*
*I was having **such a** nice time **(that)** I didn't want to leave.*
*The garden looks nice **now (that)** we've got some flowers out.*
*You can borrow it **provided (that)** you bring it back tomorrow.*
***Assuming (that)** nobody gets lost, we'll all meet again here at six o'clock.*

5 relative structures

We can usually leave out the relative pronoun *that* when it is the object in a relative clause (see 495).

Look! There are the people (that) we met in Brighton.
Do it the way (that) I showed you.

585 the matter (with)

We use *the matter (with)* after *something, anything, nothing* and *what*. It means 'wrong (with)'.

Something's the matter with my foot.
Is anything the matter?
Nothing's the matter with the car – you're just a bad driver.
What's the matter with Frank today?

There is often used as a 'preparatory subject' (see 587).

There's something the matter with the TV.
Is there anything the matter?

For *no matter what* etc, see 378

586 there

The spelling *there* is used for two words with completely different pronunciations and uses.

1 adverb of place

There (pronounced /ðeə(r)/) is an adverb meaning 'in that place'.

What's that green thing over there?
There's the book I was looking for.

For the difference between *here* and *there*, see 245.

2 introductory subject

There (most often pronounced /ðə(r)/) is used as an introductory subject in sentences beginning *there is, there are, there might be* etc. For details, see 587.

There's a book under the piano.

587 there is

1 use

In sentences which say that something exists (or does not exist) somewhere, we usually use *there* as a kind of preparatory subject, and put the real subject after the verb. Note the pronunciation of *there*: usually /ðə(r)/, not /ðeə(r)/.

There's a hole in my tights. (More natural than *A hole is in my tights.*)
There's ice on the lake. (More natural than *Ice is on the lake.*)

It cannot be used in this way.

There is a lot of noise in the street. (NOT ~~*It is a lot of noise in the street.*~~)

There are is used with plural subjects. ▸

*I don't know how many people **there are** in the waiting room.* (NOT ... ~~*how many people there is*~~ ...)

However, *there's* can begin sentences with plural subjects in informal speech.

There's two policemen at the door, Dad.
There's some grapes in the fridge, if you're still hungry.

2 indefinite subjects

We use *there* in this way particularly with subjects that have indefinite articles, no article, or indefinite determiners like *some, any, no*; and with indefinite pronouns like *somebody, nothing.*

There are some people outside.
There were no footsteps to be seen. *Is there anybody at home?*
There was dancing in the streets. *There's something worrying me.*

Note the use of *wrong* and *the matter* (see 585).

There's something wrong. *Is there anything the matter?*

Note also the structures with *sense, point, use* (see 57) and *need.*

There's no sense in making him angry.
Is there any point in talking about it again?
Do you think there's any use trying to explain?
There's no need to hurry – we've got plenty of time.

3 all tenses

There can be used in this way with all tenses of *be.*

Once upon a time there were three wicked brothers.
There has never been anybody like you.
There will be snow on high ground.

And *there* can be used in question tags (see 488.4).

There'll be enough for everybody, won't there?

4 structures with auxiliary *be*

There can also be used in structures where *be* is a progressive or passive auxiliary. Note the word order.

There was a girl water-skiing on the lake. (= A girl was water-skiing ...)
(NOT ~~*There was water-skiing a girl*~~ ...)
There have been more Americans killed in road accidents than in all the wars since 1900. (= More Americans have been killed ...)
(NOT ~~*There have been killed more Americans*~~ ...)
There'll be somebody meeting you at the airport.

5 more complex structures

There can be used with modal verb + *be*, and with some other verbs (e.g. *seem, appear, happen, tend*) before *to be.*

There might be drinks if you wait for a bit.
There must be somebody at home – ring again.
If the police hadn't closed the road there could have been a bad accident.
There seem to be some problems. (NOT ~~*There seems to be*~~ ...)
Could you be quiet? There happens to be a lecture going on.
There tends to be jealousy when a new little brother or sister comes along.

Note also the structure *there is certain/sure/likely/bound to be.*

There is sure to be trouble when she gets his letter.
Do you think there's likely to be snow?

Infinitives (*there to be*) and *-ing* forms (*there being*) are also used.

I don't want there to be any more trouble.
What's the chance of there being an election this year?

6 other verbs

In a formal or literary style, some other verbs can be used with *there* besides *be*. These are mostly verbs which refer to states or arrivals.

In a small town in Germany there once lived a poor shoemaker.
There remains nothing more to be done.
Suddenly there entered a strange figure dressed all in black.
There followed an uncomfortable silence.

7 definite subjects

There is not normally used in a sentence with a definite subject (e.g. a noun with a definite article, or a proper name).

The door was open. (NOT ~~*There was the door open.*~~)
James was at the party. (NOT ~~*There was James at the party.*~~)

One exception to this is when we simply name people or things, in order to draw attention to a possible solution to a problem.

Who could we ask? ~ Well, there's James, or Miranda, or Ann, or Sue, ...
Where can he sleep? ~ Well, there's always the attic.

Another apparent exception is in stories that begin *There was this ...*, when *this* has an indefinite sense.

There was this man, see, and he couldn't get up in the mornings. So he ...

588 think

1 'have an opinion': not progressive

When *think* is used for opinions, progressive forms are unusual.

I don't think much of his latest book. (NOT ~~*I'm not thinking much...*~~)
Who do you think will win the election? (NOT ~~*Who are you thinking...?*~~)

2 other meanings: progressive possible

When *think* has other meanings (e.g. *consider* or *plan*) progressives are possible.

You're looking worried. What are you thinking about? (NOT ~~*...What do you think about?*~~)
I'm thinking of changing my job.

3 *-ing* forms

After *think*, *-ing* forms can be used, but infinitives are not usually possible unless there is an object (see paragraph 4 below).

She's thinking of going to university next year. (NOT ~~*She's thinking to go...*~~)

However, ***think*** + **infinitive** can be used when we talk about remembering to do something, or having the good sense to do something.

Did you think to close the windows when it started raining? ▸

4 *think* + object (+ *to be*) + complement

In a very formal style, *think* is sometimes followed by an object and an adjective or noun complement.

They thought her fascinating. *We thought him a fool.*

It can be used as a preparatory object (see 442) for an infinitive or clause.

I thought it better to pretend that I knew nothing.

We thought it important that she should go home.

To be is occasionally used before the complement (suggesting objective judgement rather than subjective impression), but this is very unusual.

They thought him to be a spy.

In more normal styles, *that*-clauses are preferred after *think*.

They thought that she was fascinating.

We thought that he was a fool.

However, the passive equivalent of the **object + complement** structure is reasonably common, usually with *to be*.

He was thought to be a spy.

5 transferred negation: *I don't think ...*

When *think* is used to introduce a negative clause, we most often put *not* with *think*, rather than with the following clause (see 369).

I don't think it will rain. (More natural than *I think it won't rain.*)

Mary doesn't think she can come.

However, we can express surprise with *I thought ... not.*

Hello! I thought you weren't coming!

6 indirect speech

Think does not usually introduce indirect questions.

I was wondering if I could do anything to help.

(More natural than *I was thinking if ...*)

7 *I thought ...*

Note the use of stressed *I thought ...* to suggest that the speaker was right. Compare:

It isn't very nice. ~ *Oh, dear. I thought you'd* LIKE *it. (But I was wrong.)*

It's beautiful! ~ *Oh, I am glad. I* THOUGHT *you'd like it. (And I was right.)*

8 *I had thought ..., I should think* etc

Past perfect forms can suggest that the speaker was mistaken, especially when *had* is stressed.

I had thought that we were going to be invited to dinner.

I should think and *I should have thought* (also *I would / I'd ...*) can introduce guesses.

I should think we'll need at least twelve bottles of wine.

I should (I would / I'd) have thought we could expect at least forty people.

This structure can also introduce criticisms.

I should have thought he could have washed his hands, at least.

For *I (don't) think so* and *I thought so*, see 539.

589 this and that

1 people and things

This/that/these/those can be used as determiners with nouns that refer to either people or things.

this child *that house*

But when they are used as pronouns without nouns, *this/that/these/those* normally only refer to things

This costs more than that. (BUT NOT ~~*This says he's tired.*~~)

Put those down – they're dirty. (BUT NOT ~~*Tell those to go away.*~~)

However, *this* etc can be used as pronouns when we say who people are.

Hello. This is Elisabeth. Is that Ruth? *That looks like Mrs Walker.*

Who's that? *These are the Smiths.*

Note also *Those who* ... (see paragraph 6 below).

For a similar use of *it* to refer to people, see 428.9.

2 the difference

We use *this/these* for people and things which are close to the speaker.

This is very nice – can I have some more?

Get this cat off my shoulder.

I don't know what I'm doing in this country. (NOT ... ~~*in that country.*~~)

Do you like these ear-rings? Bob gave them to me.

We use *that/those* for people and things which are more distant from the speaker, or not present.

That smells nice – is it for lunch?

Get that cat off the piano.

All the time I was in that country I hated it.

I like those ear-rings. Where did you get them?

3 time

This/these can refer to situations and events which are going on or just about to start.

I like this music. What is it?

Listen to this. You'll like it. (NOT ~~*Listen to that*~~ ...)

Watch this. *This is a police message.*

That/those can refer to situations and events which have just finished, or which are more distant in the past.

That was nice. What was it? (NOT ~~*This was nice*~~ ...)

Did you see that? *Who said that?*

Have you ever heard from that Scottish boy you used to go out with?
(NOT ... ~~*this Scottish boy you used to go out with.*~~)

That can show that something has come to an end.

... and that's how it happened.

Anything else? ~ *No, that's all, thanks.* (in a shop)

OK. That's it. I'm leaving. It was nice knowing you.

4 acceptance and rejection

We sometimes use *this/these* to show acceptance or interest, and *that/those* to show dislike or rejection. Compare: ▸

*Now tell me about **this** new boyfriend of yours.*
*I don't like **that** new boyfriend of yours.*

5 on the telephone

On the telephone, British people use *this* to identify themselves, and *that* to ask about the hearer's identity.

*Hello. **This** is Elisabeth. Is **that** Ruth?*

Americans can also use *this* to ask about the hearer's identity.

*Who is **this**?*

6 *that, those* meaning 'the one(s)'

In a formal style, *that* and *those* can be used with a following description to mean 'the one(s)'. *Those who* ... means 'the people who ...'

*A dog's intelligence is much greater than **that** of a cat.*
Those who can, do. Those who can't, teach.

7 *this* and *that* meaning 'so'

In an informal style, *this* and *that* are often used with adjectives and adverbs in the same way as *so*.

*I didn't realise it was going to be **this** hot.*
*If your boyfriend's **that** clever, why isn't he rich?*

In standard English, only *so* is used before a following clause.

It was so cold that I couldn't feel my fingers. (NOT ~~*It was that cold that*~~ ...)

Not all that can be used to mean 'not very'.

*How was the play? ~ **Not all that** good.*

8 other uses

Note the special use of *this* (with no demonstrative meaning) in conversational story-telling.

*There was **this** travelling salesman, you see. And he wanted ...*

That/those can suggest that an experience is familiar to everybody.

*I can't stand **that** perfume of hers.*

This use is common in advertisements.

*When you get **that** empty feeling – break for a biscuit.*
*Earn more money during **those** long winter evenings. Telephone ...*

The differences between *this* and *that* are similar to the differences between *here* and *there* (see 245), *come* and *go* (see 134) and *bring* and *take* (see 112).
For *this one, that one* etc, see 395.
For *these* and *those* with singular *kind of, sort of*, see 551.
For *that which*, see 498.19.

590 this/that and it: things that have just been mentioned

1 referring back

This, that and *it* can all be used to refer back to things or situations that have just been talked or written about. *It* does not give any special emphasis.

So she decided to paint her house pink. It upset the neighbours a bit.

This and *that* are more emphatic; they 'shine a light', so to speak, on the things or situations, suggesting 'an interesting new fact has been mentioned'.

So she decided to paint her house pink. This/That really upset the neighbours, as you can imagine.

This is preferred when there is more to say about the new subject of discussion.

So she decided to paint her house pink. This upset the neighbours so much that they took her to court, believe it or not. The case came up last week ...

Then in 1917 he met Andrew Lewis. This was a turning point in his career: the two men entered into a partnership which lasted until 1946, and ... (More natural than ... *That was a turning point ...*)

2 more than one thing

When more than one thing has been mentioned, *it* generally refers to the main subject of discussion; *this* and *that* generally refer to a new subject that has been introduced (often the last thing mentioned). Compare:

– *We keep the ice-cream machine in the spare room. It is mainly used by the children, incidentally.* (The machine is used by the children.)

We keep the ice-cream machine in the spare room. This/That is mainly used by the children, incidentally. (The spare room is used by the children.)

– *I was carrying the computer to my office when I dropped it on the kitchen table. It was badly damaged.* (The computer was damaged.)

I was carrying the computer to my office when I dropped it on the kitchen table. This was badly damaged. (The table was damaged.)

3 focus

It is only used to refer to things which are 'in focus' - which have already been talked about. *This* is preferred when we 'bring things into focus' before anything has been said about them. Compare:

I enjoyed 'Vampires' Picnic'. It/This is a film for all the family ...

VAMPIRES' PICNIC: *This is a film for all the family ...*

(NOT ~~VAMPIRES' PICNIC: It is a film for all the family~~ ...)

4 referring forward

Only *this* can refer forward to something that has not yet been mentioned.

Now what do you think about this? I thought I'd get a job in Spain for six months, and then ... (NOT ~~Now what do you think about that/it~~ ...)

For more about *this* and *that* and the differences between them, see 589.
For more about *it*, see 428.

591 This is the first/last ... etc

1 *This is the first time* etc

We use the present perfect in sentences constructed with *this/it/that is the first/second/third/only/best/worst* etc.

This is the first time that I've heard her sing. (NOT ~~This is the first time that I hear her sing~~.)

This is the fifth time you've asked me the same question (NOT ~~*This is the fifth time you ask*~~ . . .)
That's the third cake you've eaten this morning.
It's one of the most interesting books I've ever read.
I'm flying to New York tomorrow. It'll be the first time I've travelled by plane.
When we talk about the past, we use the past perfect in these structures.
It was the third time he had been in love that year. (NOT . . . ~~*the third time he was in love*~~ . . .)

2 tenses with *This is the last* . . . etc

Present (simple or progressive) and future tenses are both possible with *This is the last* . . . and similar structures.
This is the last time I pay / I'm paying for you. (OR *This is the last time I'll pay for you.*)
That's the last letter he gets / he's getting from me. (OR *That's the last letter he'll get from me.*)
This is the last thing I'm going to say to you.

592 through: time

In American English, *through* can be used to mean 'up to and including'.
The park is open from May through September.
In British English, *through* is not normally used in this way. Instead, British people say, for example, *to* . . . *inclusive*, or *until the end of* . . .
The park is open from May to September inclusive. (OR . . . *from May until the end of September.*)

593 time

1 countability and article use

Time has various uses, some countable and some uncountable (for full details see a good dictionary). Most of these are straightforward, but there are problems in two areas:

a measure of duration: how long

When we talk about the number of hours, days etc that are needed to complete something, *time* is generally uncountable (and therefore used without *a*).
How much time do we need to load the van?
It took quite some time to persuade her to talk to us.
Don't worry – there's plenty of time.
This is a complete waste of time.
However, *time* is countable in certain expressions like *a long/short time* and *quite a time.*
I took a long time to get to sleep. *She was away for quite a time.*
The time can be used to mean 'enough time'; *the* is often dropped.
Just come with me – I haven't got (the) time to explain.

For the use of *take* with expressions of time, see 576.

b clock times

When we talk about clock times, *time* is countable.
*Six o'clock would be a good **time** to meet.*
*She phoned me at various **times** yesterday.*
The is dropped in the expression *it's time.*
*It's **time** to stop.* (NOT ~~*It's the time to stop.*~~)

2 without preposition

Prepositions are often dropped before some common expressions with *time.*
*He's busy. Why don't you come **another time**?*
(More natural than ... *at another time.*)
*What **time** does the match start?*
(More natural than *At what time ...?*)
*You won't fool me **this time**.*
In relative structures after *time, that* is often used instead of *when* in an informal style (or dropped).
*Do you remember the time **(that)** Freddy pretended to be a ghost?*
*You can come up and see me any time **(that)** you like.*
*The first time **(that)** I saw her, my heart stopped.*

For similar structures with other time words, and with *place, way* and *reason*, see 498.6.

3 *on time* and *in time*

On time means 'at the planned time', 'neither late nor early'. The opposite is 'early' or 'late'. It is often used to refer to timetabled events.
*Only one of the last six trains has been **on time**.* (NOT ... ~~*in time.*~~)
*Peter wants the discussion to start exactly **on time**.* (NOT ... ~~*in time.*~~)
In time means 'with enough time to spare', 'before the last moment'. The opposite is *too late.*
*We arrived **in time** to get good seats.* (NOT... ~~*on time to get good seats.*~~)
*He would have died if they hadn't got him to hospital **in time**.* (NOT ... ~~*got him to hospital on time.*~~)
*I nearly drove into the car in front, but I stopped just **in time**.*

For structures after *It's time*, see 306.
For ways of telling the time, see 579.
For *by the time*, see 117.
For tenses with *this is the first time ...*, *this is the last time ...* and similar structures, see 591.

594 tonight

Tonight refers to the present or coming night, not to the past night (*last night*). Compare:
*I had a terrible dream **last night**.* (NOT ~~*I had a terrible dream tonight.*~~)
*I hope I sleep better **tonight**.*

595 too

1 *too* and *very*

Too is different from *very* – *too* means 'more than enough', 'more than necessary' or 'more than is wanted'. Compare:

– *He's a very intelligent child.*
  He's too intelligent for his class – he's not learning anything.
– *It was very cold, but we went out.*
  It was too cold to go out, so we stayed at home.

2 *too* and *too much*

Before adjectives without nouns and before adverbs we use *too*, not *too much*.

You're too kind to me. (NOT ~~*You're too much kind to me.*~~)
I arrived too early. (NOT ~~*I arrived too much early.*~~)

Too much is used, for example, before nouns. For details see 596.

I've got too much work.

3 modification: *much too, far too* etc

Expressions which modify comparatives (see 140) also modify *too*.

much too old (NOT ~~*very too old*~~)	*a little too confident*
a lot too big	*a bit too soon*
far too young	*rather too often*

4 not used before adjective + noun

Too is not normally used before **adjective + noun**.

I put down the bag because it was too heavy. (NOT ... ~~*the too heavy bag.*~~)
She doesn't like men who are too tall. (NOT ~~*She doesn't like too tall men.*~~)
Let's forget this problem – it's too difficult. (NOT ... ~~*this too difficult problem.*~~)

In a rather formal style, *too* can be used before **adjective + *a/an* + noun** (see 14). Note the word order.

It's too cold a day for tennis.

5 *too* ... + infinitive

We can use an infinitive structure after *too* + **adjective/adverb**.

He's too old to work. *It's far too cold to go out.*

We can also use an infinitive structure after *too much/many*.

There was too much snow to go walking.

If the infinitive has its own subject, this is introduced by *for* (see 291).

It's too late for the pubs to be open.
There was too much snow for us to go walking.

6 *too salty to drink*, etc

The subject of a sentence with *too* can also be the object of a following infinitive. (For more about this structure, see 284.4.) Object pronouns are not normally used after the infinitive in this case.

The water is too salty to drink. (NOT ~~*The water is too salty to drink it.*~~)
However, object pronouns are possible in structures with *for*.
The water is too salty for us to drink (it).
Note the two possible meanings of sentences like *He's too stupid to teach*:
1. *He's too stupid to be a teacher.*
2. *He's too stupid for anyone to teach – he can't be taught.*

7 That's really too kind of you

In informal speech *too* can sometimes be used to mean 'very'.
Oh, that's really too kind of you – thank you so much.
I'm not feeling too well.

8 only too ...

The expression *only too* is used to mean 'very', 'extremely'. It is common in formal offers and invitations.
We shall be only too pleased if you can spend a few days with us.

For *too* meaning 'also', see 46.

596 too much and too many

1 the difference

The difference between *too much* and *too many* is the same as the difference between *much* and *many* (see 357). *Too much* is used with singular (uncountable) nouns; *too many* is used with plurals.
You put too much salt in the soup.
I've had too many late nights recently. (NOT ... ~~*too much late nights*~~ ...)

2 a bit too much, rather too many, etc

Expressions which modify comparatives and *too* (see 140) can also modify *too much* and *too many*.
She's wearing a bit too much make-up for my taste.
I've been to rather too many parties recently.
However, *much too many* is unusual.
You ask far too many questions. (NOT ... ~~*much too many questions.*~~)

3 too much/many without a noun

We can drop a noun after *too much/many*, if the meaning is clear.
You've eaten too much.
Did you get any answers to your advertisement? ~ *Too many.*

For the difference between *too* and *too much*, see 595.2.

597 travel, journey, trip and voyage

Travel means 'travelling in general'. It is normally uncountable.
My interests are music and travel.
The plural *travels* is sometimes used; it suggests a rather grand programme of travelling or exploration. ▸

He wrote a wonderful book about his travels in the Himalayas.

A *journey* is one 'piece' of travelling.

Did you have a good journey? (NOT ~~*Did you have a good travel?*~~)

I met Jane on my last journey to England. (NOT ...~~*my last travel.*~~)

A *trip* is a return journey together with the activity (business or pleasure) which is the reason for the journey.

I'm going on a business trip next week. (= I'm going on a journey and I'm going to do some business.)

Peter's school is organising a skiing trip to the Alps.

Compare:

How was your journey? ~ *The train broke down.*

How was your trip? ~ *Successful.*

We do not so often use *trip* for expeditions which have a very serious purpose, are very hard and/or take a very long time.

In 1863 the President travelled to Dakota to make peace with the Indians.
(NOT ...~~*made a trip to Dakota to make peace*~~...)

Amundsen made his journey to the South Pole in 1911.
(NOT ~~*Amundsen made his trip to the South Pole*~~...)

A long sea journey is often called a *voyage*.

Note the preposition: ***on** a journey/trip/voyage.*

598 turning verbs into nouns

1 using nouns for actions

It is very common to refer to an action by using a noun instead of a verb. Nouns of this kind often have the same form as the related verbs. The structure is especially common in an informal style.

*There was a loud **crash**.*
*Did I hear a **cough**?*
*I need a **wash**.*
*Let's have a **talk** about your plans.*
*Let your sister have a **go** on the swing.* (BrE)
*Just take a **look** at yourself.*
*Would you like a **taste**?*
*What about a **drink**?*
*Come on – one more **try**!*

2 common structures

Nouns of this kind are often introduced by 'general-purpose' verbs such as *have, take, give, make, go for.*

*I'll **have a think** and let you know what I decide.* (informal BrE)

*I like to **have/take a bath** before I go to bed.*

*If it won't start, let's **give it a push**.*

*I don't know the answer, but I'm going to **make a guess**.*

*I try to **go for a run** every day.*

We can use *-ing* forms in a similar way after *do* (see 160.3).

*She does **a bit of painting**, but she doesn't like to show people.*

These structures are very common when we talk about casual, unplanned or unsystematic recreational activity. Compare:

*Let's **have a swim**.* (More natural than *Let's swim.*)

Do you do any sport? ~ *Yes, I **swim**.*

For details of 'action-nouns' with *have*, and a list of common expressions, see 236.
For *give*, see 226. For *go for*, see 227. For *go ...ing*, see 228.

599 two-part verbs (1): phrasal verbs

1 verb + adverb particle: *get back, walk out*

Many English verbs can be followed by small adverbs ('adverb particles'). These two-part verbs are often called 'phrasal verbs'.

Get back! *She walked out.* *I switched the light off.*

Common adverb particles: *about, across, ahead, along, (a)round, aside, away, back, by, down, forward, in, home, off, on, out, over, past, through, up.*
Some of these words can also be used as prepositions. Compare:

I switched the light off. (adverb particle)
I jumped off the wall. (preposition)

For a detailed comparison, see 20.

2 idiomatic meanings: *break out; turn up*

The meaning of a two-word verb is often very different from the meanings of the two parts taken separately.

*War **broke out** in 1939.* (*Broke out* is not the same as *broke + out.*)
*Joe **turned up** last night.* (= appeared – not the same as *turned + up.*)
*I **looked** the word **up** in the dictionary.* (*Look up* is not the same as *look + up.*)
*We had to **put off** the meeting till Tuesday.* (*Put off* is not the same as *put + off.*)

3 phrasal verbs with and without objects

Some phrasal verbs are intransitive (they do not have objects).

*I **got up** at 7.00 today.* *That colour really **stands out**.*

Others are transitive.

*Could you **switch** the **light off**?* *I helped Ann to **fill in** the **form**.*

4 word order with objects

Adverb particles can go either before or after noun objects (unlike most adverbs – see 21.1).

*She switched **off** the **light**.* OR *She switched **the light off**.*

But they can only go after pronoun objects.

*She switched **it off**.* (NOT ~~*She switched off it.*~~)
*Is that the light **which** you switched **off**?* (NOT ... ~~*the light off which you switched?*~~)
*Give **me back** my watch.* OR *Give **me** my watch **back**.* (NOT ~~*Give back me my watch.*~~)

5 verbs with prepositions and particles together

A few verbs can be used with both an adverb particle and a preposition (making them three-part verbs).

*I **get on with** her quite well.*
*Stop talking and **get on with** your work.*
*It's hard to **put up with** people who won't stop talking.*
*If you're on the road on Saturday night, **look out for** drunk drivers.*
*I'll think about it and **get back to** you.*
*She **went up to** the policeman and explained her problem.* ▸

I'm looking forward to the party.

For details of particular two-word verbs, see a good dictionary.

600 two-part verbs (2): prepositional verbs

1 verb + preposition: *listen to; look at*

Many English verbs are regularly followed by prepositions before objects.

You never listen to me. (NOT ~~*You never listen me.*~~)

Alan walked down the road without looking at anybody.

Prepositions are not used when there is no object.

Listen! (NOT ~~*Listen to!*~~)

2 idiomatic meanings: *look after, get over*

The meaning of a two-word verb can be very different from the meanings of the two parts taken separately.

Could you look after the kids while I'm out? (*Look after* is not the same as *look + after.*)

It took him six months to get over his illness. (*Get over* is not the same as *get + over.*)

3 word order: *What are you thinking about?*

When an object comes at the beginning of a clause (e.g. in a question or relative clause), a two-word verb usually stays together, so that a preposition can be separated from its object and go at the end of the clause. For details of this and other preposition-final structures, see 452.

What are you thinking about? (NOT ~~*About what are you thinking?*~~)

I've found the book which I was looking for. (More natural in an informal style than ... *the book for which I was looking.*)

For the difference between prepositions and adverb particles, see 20.
For prepositional verbs in the passive, see 416.

601 unless

1 meaning

Unless has a similar meaning to *if... not,* in the sense of 'except if'.

Come tomorrow unless I phone. (= ... if I don't phone / except if I phone.)

I'll take the job unless the pay is too low. (= if the pay isn't too low / except if the pay is too low.)

I'll be back tomorrow unless there's a plane strike.

Let's have dinner out – unless you're too tired.

I'm going to dig the garden this afternoon, unless it rains.

2 when *unless* cannot be used

Unless means 'except if'. *Unless* is not used when the meaning is more like 'because ... not'. Compare:

– *OK. So we'll meet this evening at 7.00 – unless my train's late.* (= ... except if my train's late.)

My wife will be angry if I'm ***not*** *home by 7.00.* (NOT ~~*My wife will be angry unless I get home by 7.00.*~~ – She will be angry because I'm not home.)

– *I'll drive over and see you,* ***unless*** *the car breaks down.* (= . . . **except if** the car breaks down.)

I'll be surprised if the car doesn't break down soon (NOT ~~*I'll be surprised unless the car breaks down soon.*~~ – I'll be surprised **because** it doesn't break down.)

3 tenses

In clauses with *unless*, we usually use present tenses to refer to the future (see 580).

I'll be in all day unless the office ***phones.*** (NOT . . . ~~*unless the office will phone.*~~)

For more about sentences with *if*, see 256–264.

602 until

1 *until* and *till*

These two words can be used both as prepositions and conjunctions. They mean exactly the same. *Till* (AmE also *'til*) is informal.

OK, then, I won't expect you ***until/till*** *midnight.*
I'll wait ***until/till*** *I hear from you.*
The new timetable will remain in operation ***until June 30.***

2 *until/till* and *to*

To can sometimes be used as a preposition of time with the same meaning as *until/till.* This happens after *from* . . .

I usually work ***from nine to five.*** (OR . . . ***from nine until/till five.***)

We can also use *to* when counting the time until a future event.

It's another three weeks ***to*** *the holidays.* (OR . . . ***until/till the holidays.***)

In other cases, *to* is not generally used.

I waited for her ***until*** *six o'clock, but she didn't come.* (NOT ~~*I waited for her to six o'clock*~~ . . .)

For AmE *from* . . . *through*, see 592.

3 distance and quantity: *until/till* not used

Until/till is used only to talk about time. To talk about distance, we use *to, as far as* or *up to*; *up to* is also used to talk about quantity.

We walked ***as far as / up to*** *the edge of the forest.* (NOT . . . ~~*till the edge*~~ . . .)
The minibus can hold ***up to*** *thirteen people.* (NOT . . . ~~*until thirteen people.*~~)
You can earn ***up to*** *£500 a week in this job.*

4 tenses with *until*

Present tenses are used to refer to the future after *until* (see 580).

I'll wait ***until*** *she gets here.* (NOT . . . ~~*until she will get here.*~~) ▸

Present perfect and past perfect tenses can emphasise the idea of completion.
*You're not going home **until** you've **finished** that report.*
*I waited **until** the rain **had stopped**.*

5 structure with *Not until ...*

In a literary style it is possible to begin a sentence with *Not until ...*, using inverted word order in the main clause (see 302).
*Not **until** that evening **was she** able to recover her self-control.*
*Not **until** I left home **did** I begin to understand how strange my family was.*

6 *until* and *by*: states and actions

We use *until* to talk about a situation or state that will continue up to a certain moment. We use *by* (see 117) to say that an action or event will happen at or before a future moment. Compare:
– *Can I stay **until** the weekend?*
*Yes, but you'll have to leave **by** Monday midday at the latest.* (= at twelve on Monday or before.)
– *Can you repair my watch if I leave it **until** Saturday?*
*No, but we can do it **by** next Tuesday.* (NOT ... ~~until next Tuesday.~~)

7 *until* and *before*

Not until/till can mean the same as *not before*.
*I won't be seeing Judy **until/before** Tuesday.*
And both *until* and *before* can be used to say how far away a future event is.
*It'll be ages **until/before** we meet again.*
*There's only six weeks left **until/before** Christmas.*

603 up and down

1 'towards/away from the centre'

Up and *down* are not only used to refer to higher and lower positions. They can also refer to more or less important or central places. (Trains to London used to be called 'up trains', and trains from London 'down trains'.)
*The ambassador walked slowly **up** the room towards the Queen's throne.*
*She ran **down** the passage, out of the front door and **down** the garden.*
*We'll be going **down** to the country for the weekend.*
But in the US *downtown* refers to the central business/entertainment area.

2 north and south

People often use *up* and *down* for movements towards the north and south (perhaps because north is at the top of a map page).
*I work in London, but I have to travel **up** to Glasgow every few weeks.*

3 'along'

Sometimes both *up* and *down* are used to mean 'along', 'further on', with little or no difference of meaning.
*The nearest post office is about half a mile **up/down** the road.*

604 used + infinitive

1 meaning

We use *used* + **infinitive** to talk about past habits and states which are now finished.

I used to smoke, but now I've stopped. (NOT ~~*I was used to smoke*~~ . . .)
That bingo hall used to be a cinema.

past habits and states which are now finished

I used to smoke, but now I've stopped.

2 only past

Used to . . . has no present form (and no progressive, perfect, infinitive or *-ing* forms). To talk about present habits and states, we usually just use the simple present tense (see 462).

He smokes. (NOT ~~*He uses to smoke.*~~)
Her brother still collects stamps.

3 questions and negatives

When questions and negatives are written, they often have *did* . . . *used* instead of *did* . . . *use.*

What did people use(d) to do in the evenings before TV?
I didn't use(d) to like opera, but now I do.

The contraction *usedn't* is also possible.

I usedn't to like opera.

But the most common negative is *never used* . . . .

I never used to like opera.

In a formal style, questions and negatives without *do* are possible, but these are not very common.

I used not to like opera, but now I do. (OR *I used to not like opera* . . .)
Used you to play football at school?

These forms are not used in tags.

You used not to like him, did you? (NOT . . . ~~*used you?*~~)

4 when *used to* . . . is not used

Used to refers to things that happened at an earlier stage of one's life and are now finished: there is an idea that circumstances have changed. It is not used simply to say what happened at a past time, or how long it took, or how many times it happened.

I worked very hard last month. (NOT ~~*I used to work very hard last month.*~~)
I lived in Chester for three years. (NOT ~~*I used to live in Chester for three years.*~~)

▶

I went to France seven times last year. (NOT ~~*I used to go to France seven times last year.*~~)

5 word order

Mid-position adverbs (see 24) can go before or after *used*. The position before *used* is more common in an informal style.

I always used to be afraid of dogs. (informal)
I used always to be afraid of dogs. (formal)

6 pronunciation

Note the pronunciation of *used* /ju:st/ and *use* /ju:s/ in this structure.

7 *used* + infinitive and *be used to . . .ing*

Used + infinitive has a quite different meaning from *be used to . . .ing* (see next section). Compare:

I didn't use to drive a big car. (= Once I didn't drive a big car, but now I do.) (NOT ~~*I wasn't used to drive a big car.*~~)
I wasn't used to driving a big car. (= Driving a big car was a new and difficult experience – I hadn't done it before.)

For the difference between *used to* and *would*, see 633.8.

605 [be] used to

1 meaning

If a person *is used to* something, it is familiar; he or she has experienced it so much that it is no longer strange or new.

I've lived in Central London for six years now, so I'm used to the noise.
At the beginning I couldn't understand Londoners because I wasn't used to the accent.

2 structures

Be used to can be followed by *-ing* forms, but not infinitives (see 298.2).

I'm used to driving in London now, but it was hard at the beginning. (NOT ~~*I'm used to drive in London*~~ . . .)
It was a long time before she was used to working with old people.

Used is an adjective in this structure, and can be modified by *quite* or *very*.

I'm quite used to her little ways.

3 *get used to . . .ing* etc

Get, become and sometimes *grow* (see 128) can also be used before *used to (. . .ing)*.

You'll soon get used to living in the country.
Little by little, he became used to his new family.
It took them a long time to grow used to getting up in the night.

4 pronunciation

Note that *used* is pronounced /ju:st/ in this structure.

606 verb complementation: what can follow a verb?

1 different verbs, different structures

Different verbs can be followed by different kinds of word and structure. This is partly a matter of meaning: after a verb like *eat* or *break*, for instance, it is normal to expect a noun; after *try* or *stop*, it is natural to expect a verb. It is also partly a matter of grammatical rules that have nothing to do with meaning. Before an object, *wait* is followed by *for*; *expect* has no preposition. One can *tell somebody something*, but one cannot ~~*explain somebody something*~~. One *hopes to see somebody*, but one *looks forward to seeing somebody*. One *advises somebody to see the doctor*, but one does not ~~*suggest somebody to see the doctor*~~. Unfortunately there are no simple rules for this kind of problem; it is necessary to learn, for each verb, what kind of structures can follow it. A good dictionary will normally give this information.

2 verb + object; transitive and intransitive verbs

Some verbs are usually followed by nouns or pronouns that act as direct objects. In grammars these verbs are called 'transitive'. Examples are *invite*, *surprise*.

*Let's **invite Sally and Bruce**.* (BUT NOT ~~*Let's invite*~~.)
*You **surprised me**.* (BUT NOT ~~*You surprised*~~.)

Some verbs are not normally followed by direct objects. These are called 'intransitive'. Examples are *sit*, *sleep*.

*Do **sit down**.* (BUT NOT ~~*Do sit that chair*~~.)
*I usually **sleep** well.* (BUT NOT ~~*She slept the baby*~~.)

Many verbs can be both transitive and intransitive.

*England **lost the match**.* *Let's **eat**.*
*England **lost**.* *I can't **eat this**.*

Some transitive verbs can be followed by two objects (indirect and direct). For details, see 610.

*I'll **send you the form** tomorrow.*
*I'm going to **buy Sarah some flowers**.*

For verb structures used as objects, see paragraphs 8–10 below.
For structures with object complements, see paragraph 10 below.

3 *She opened the door / The door opened*

Some verbs are used transitively and intransitively with different kinds of subject; the intransitive use has a meaning rather like a passive (see 412) or reflexive (see 493) verb. Compare:

– *She **opened the door**.* – *The wind's **moving the curtain**.*
*The door **opened**.* *The curtain's **moving**.*

For more examples, see 609.

4 verbs with prepositions and particles

Many verbs need prepositions before their objects.

*Why are you **looking at** me like that?* (NOT ~~*Why are you looking me*~~ . . .?)
*I'd like you to **listen to** this.* (NOT . . . ~~*to listen this*~~.) ▸

Let's talk about your plans. (NOT ~~*Let's talk your plans.*~~)
The preposition is dropped when there is no object.
Look! (NOT ~~*Look at!*~~)
Other verbs can be used with adverb particles (see 20). Some of these combinations are transitive; others are intransitive.
We'll have to put off our visit to Scotland. *It's time to get up.*

For more about two-part verbs like these, see 599–600.

5 complements of place

Usually, a preposition is necessary before an expression of place.
She arrived at the station last night. (NOT ~~*She arrived the station*~~...)
Don't walk on the grass. (NOT ~~*Don't walk the grass.*~~)
A few verbs can be used with direct objects referring to place.
I like climbing mountains. (NOT ~~*I like climbing on mountains.*~~)
Some verbs are incomplete without an expression of place.
He lives in York. (BUT NOT ~~*He lives.*~~)
She got off the bus. (BUT NOT ~~*She got.*~~)

6 link verbs

Some verbs are followed not by an object, but by a subject complement – an expression which describes the subject. These are called 'link verbs'. For details, see 328.
Your room is a mess. *That looks nice.*
The toilets are upstairs. *I felt a complete idiot.*

7 verb + verb: auxiliaries

Many verbs can be followed by forms of other verbs. Auxiliary verbs are used with other verbs to make questions and negatives, progressive forms, perfect forms, and passives. For details, see 85.
Do you want some tea? *Where have you been?*
It doesn't matter. *These are made in France.*
Modal auxiliary verbs are used with other verbs to add ideas such as certainty, probability, futurity, permission and obligation. For details, see 353–354.
You must be tired. *The lecture will start at ten.*
The car may need a new engine. *Can I borrow your paper?*
We ought to invite the Maxwells this weekend.

8 verb + verb: other verbs

Many verbs besides auxiliaries can be followed by forms of other verbs (or by structures including other verbs). This can happen, for example, if we talk about our attitude to an action: the first verb describes the attitude and the second refers to the action. The second verb structure is often rather like the direct object of the first verb.
I enjoy playing cards.
I saw that she was crying. *I hope to see you soon.*
Different structures are possible, depending on the particular verb. Some verbs can be followed by infinitives with or without *to* (see 282–283), some verbs can be followed by *-ing* forms, with or without a preposition (see 296), and some by clauses. Many verbs can be followed by more than one of these structures,

often with a difference of meaning or use. For each verb, it is necessary to know which structures are possible.

We seem to have a problem. (NOT ~~*We seem having a problem.*~~)
Can I help wash up?
It's not very easy to stop smoking. (NOT ... ~~*to stop to smoke.*~~)
We're thinking of moving. (NOT ~~*We're thinking to move.*~~)
I suggest that you see a solicitor. OR *I suggest seeing a solicitor.*
(NOT ~~*I suggest you to see a solicitor.*~~)

Sometimes the first verb does not give information about the subject – it says more about the action which the second verb refers to.

I happened to see Alice the other day.
We're starting to get invited to some of the neighbours' parties.
My keys seem to have disappeared.

It is possible to have 'chains' of verbs following each other.

I keep forgetting to go shopping.
Don't let me stop you working.
He seems to be trying to sit up.
I don't want to have to get her to start telling lies.

9 verb + object + verb

Many verbs can be followed by an object as well as a verb structure.

Can I help you wash up?
I'd like you to meet Sally.
We all want you to be happy. (NOT ~~*We all want that you are happy.*~~)
We've got to stop him making a fool of himself.
When are you going to get the clock repaired?
Nobody told me that you were here.

For more about verb + object + infinitive, see 283.
For structures with object + *-ing* form, see 296.

10 verb + object + complement

Some transitive verbs can be followed by an object together with an object complement (an expression that gives more information about the object). For details, see 607.

You make me nervous. *Let's paint it blue.*

See the Index for problems with the structures after some common verbs.
For information about other verbs, see a good dictionary.

607 verb + object + complement

1 adjective and noun complements

Some transitive verbs can be followed by an object together with an object complement (an expression that gives more information about the object). This is often an adjective or noun phrase.

You make me nervous.
She's driving us crazy. *I find her attitude strange.*
Let's cut it short. *Don't call me a liar.* ▸

*I don't know why they elected **him President**.*
*Would you like to join the committee?~I would consider **it an honour**.*

A long and heavy object may come after the complement. Compare:
*He painted **the wall red**.* (NOT ~~*He painted red the wall.*~~)
*He painted **red all of the kitchen walls as well as the window frames and ceiling**.*

2 *see, describe* etc: structure with *as*

After some verbs, an object complement is introduced by *as*. This is common when we say how we see or describe somebody/something.
*I **see** you **as** a basically kind person.*
*She **described** her attacker **as** a tall dark man with a beard.*
*His mother **regards** him **as** a genius.*
*After tests, they **identified** the metal **as** gold.*

The structure is also possible with *as being*.
*The police do not regard him **as (being)** dangerous.*

3 verbs of thinking and feeling: structure with *to be*

Some verbs that refer to thoughts, feelings and opinions (e.g. *believe, consider, feel, know, find, understand*) can be followed by **object + infinitive** (usually *to be*) in a formal style. In an informal style, *that*-clauses are more common.
*I **considered him to be** an excellent choice.*
(Less formal: *I considered that he was . . .*)
*We **supposed them to be** married.*
(Less formal: *We supposed that they were . . .*)
*They **believed her to be** reliable.*
(Less formal: *They believed that she was reliable.*)

This structure is very unusual with *think*.
*I **thought that she was** mistaken.*
(More natural than *I thought her to be mistaken.*)

To be can be dropped after *consider*.
*I **considered him (to be)** an excellent choice.*

Passive forms of these structures may be less formal than active forms (see paragraph 6 below).

For more details of structures with *feel*, see 202; for *know*, see 313; for *think*, see 588.

4 *They found her (to be) . . .*

After *find* + **object**, *to be* suggests the result of a test or investigation. Compare:
– *Everybody **found her very pleasant**.*
*The doctors **found her to be perfectly fit**.*
– *I **found the bicycle very comfortable** to ride.*
*The testers **found this bicycle to be the best** value for money.*

5 structures with preparatory *it*

When the object of a verb is a clause, infinitive structure or *-ing* structure, and there is an object complement, it is common to use *it* as a preparatory object. Compare:
*She made **her views clear**.*
*She made **it clear that** she disagreed.* (NOT ~~*She made that she disagreed clear.*~~)

For details of this structure, see 447.

6 passive structures

Passive versions of these structures are common.

It was painted blue.
He was elected President.
Her attacker was described as a tall man with a beard.
The metal was identified as gold.
He is not regarded as being dangerous.
For a long time he was thought to be a spy.
She was believed to belong to a revolutionary organisation.
Seven people are understood to have been injured in the explosion.
It was considered impossible to change the date.

For the structures that are possible after a particular verb, see a good dictionary.

608 verbs of movement: she ran in etc

When we want to talk about a movement, its direction and its nature, there are several possibilities. We can use three separate words for the three ideas:

She came in running.

We can use a verb which includes the idea of direction, and describe the nature of the movement separately:

She entered running.

Or we can use a verb which makes clear the nature of the movement, and describe the direction separately:

She ran in.

In English, the third of these solutions is the most common.

She danced across the garden.
(More natural than *She crossed the garden dancing.*)
I jumped down the stairs.
(More natural than *I came down the stairs jumping.*)
They crawled out of the cellar.
We flew past Mont Blanc.

609 verbs with both active and passive meanings

1 *She opened the door / The door opened*

Some verbs are used transitively and intransitively with different kinds of subject. The intransitive use has a meaning rather like a passive (see 412) or reflexive (see 493) verb. Compare:

- *She opened the door.*
  The door opened.
- *The wind's moving the curtain.*
  The curtain's moving.
- *Marriage has really changed her.*
  She's changed a lot since she got married.
- *We're selling a lot of copies of your book.*
  Your book's selling well.
- *Something woke her.*
  Suddenly she woke.
- *I can't start the car.*
  The car won't start.

▸

2 *It scratches easily*

The intransitive structure is used with a lot of verbs that refer to things we can do to materials: for example *bend, break, crack, melt, polish, scratch, stain, tear, unscrew.*

Be careful what you put on the table – it scratches easily. (= You can easily scratch it.)
These glasses are so fragile: they break if you look at them.
The carpet's made of a special material that doesn't stain.
The handle won't unscrew – can you help me?

610 verbs with two objects

1 indirect and direct objects: *I gave John the keys*

Many verbs can have two objects – usually a person and a thing. This often happens with verbs that are used to talk about transferring or communicating things from one person to another, or doing things for somebody. A few other verbs are also used in this way. Common examples:

bet	*get*	*make*	*play*	*sell*	*teach*
bring	*give*	*offer*	*post*	*send*	*tell*
build	*kick*	*owe*	*promise*	*show*	*throw*
buy	*leave*	*pass*	*read*	*sing*	*wish*
cost	*lend*	*pay*	*refuse*	*take*	*write*

The thing that is given, sent, bought etc is called the 'direct object'; the person who gets it is the 'indirect object'. Most often, the indirect object comes first.

I bet you ten dollars you can't beat me at chess.
He built the children a tree-house.
Shall I buy you some chocolate while I'm out?
Could you bring me the paper?
The repair cost me a lot.
I gave John the keys.
If you're going upstairs, could you get me my coat?
He left his children nothing when he died.
Lend me your bike, can you?
I'll make you a cake tomorrow.
I owe my sister a lot of money.
Can I play you my new album?
I'll post her the report tomorrow.
They promised me all sorts of things.
Daddy, read me a story.
He sent his mother a postcard.
Let's take her some flowers.
Will you teach me poker?
We bought the children pizzas.
Throw me the ball.
We wish you a Merry Christmas.

Not all verbs with this kind of meaning can be used like this – see paragraph 6.

2 indirect object last: *I gave the keys to John*

We can also put the indirect object after the direct object. In this case it normally has a preposition (usually *to* or *for*).

I gave the keys to John.
I handed my licence to the policeman.
Mrs Norman sent some flowers to the nurse.
Mother bought the ice-cream for you, not for me.

3 two pronouns: *Lend them to her*

When both objects are pronouns, it is common to put the indirect object last. *To* is occasionally dropped after *it* in informal British English.

Lend them to her. *Send some to him.* *Give it (to) me.*

It is also possible to put the indirect object first.

Give her one. *Send him some.*

However, this structure is avoided in some cases: phrases ending with *it* or *them* (e.g. *He gave you it* or *Send them them*) are often felt to be unnatural.

4 *wh*-questions: *Who did you buy it for?*

Prepositions are used in *wh*-questions referring to the indirect object.

Who did you buy it for? (NOT ~~*Who did you buy it?*~~)
Who was it sent to? (NOT ~~*Who was it sent?*~~)

5 passives: *I've been given a picture*

When these verbs are used in passive structures, the subject is usually the person who receives something, not the thing which is sent, given etc.

I've just been given a lovely picture.
We were all bought little presents.

However, the thing which is given, sent etc can be the subject if necessary.

What happened to the stuff he left behind? ~ *Well, the picture was given to Mr Ferguson.*

For details of these passive structures, see 415.

6 structures with *donate, push, carry, explain, suggest, describe* and *take*

Not all verbs with this kind of meaning can be followed by **indirect object + direct object**. The structure is not possible, for example, with *donate, push, carry, explain, suggest* or *describe.*

They donated money to the museum. (BUT NOT ~~*They donated the museum money.*~~)
I pushed the plate to Ann. (BUT NOT ~~*I pushed Ann the plate.*~~)
He carried the baby to the doctor. (BUT NOT ~~*He carried the doctor the baby.*~~)
I'd like him to explain his decision to us. (BUT NOT ... ~~*to explain us his decision.*~~)
Can you suggest a good dentist to me? (BUT NOT ~~*Can you suggest me a good dentist?*~~)
Please describe your wife to us. (BUT NOT ~~*Please describe us your wife.*~~)

Take (to) can be used with **indirect object + direct object**, but not *take (from).*

I took her some money. (= I took some money to her, NOT ... from her.)

▶

7 one object or two

Some verbs can be followed by either a direct object, or an indirect object, or both.

I asked John. *I asked a question.* *I asked John a question.*

Other verbs like this include *teach, tell, pay, show, sing, play* and *write*. Note that when *sing, play* and *write* have no direct object, we put *to* before the indirect object. Compare:

– *Sing her a song.*
Sing to her. (NOT ~~*Sing her.*~~)
– *Write me a letter.*
Write to me when you get home.
(More common than *Write me* ... in standard British English.)

For structures with object complements (e.g. *They made him captain*), see 607.

611 very and very much

1 adjectives and adverbs: *very kind, very quickly*

We use *very*, not *very much*, before adjectives and adverbs.

You're very kind. (NOT ~~*You're very much kind.*~~)
The situation is very serious. (NOT ... ~~*very much serious.*~~)
I came very quickly. (NOT ... ~~*very much quickly*~~.)

However, *very much* is used before comparatives.

I'm very much happier in my new job. (NOT... ~~*very happier*~~...)

For *very* with superlatives (*very first, very best* etc), see 140.4.
For *the very same*, see 503.

2 *not very*

Not very expresses quite a low degree.

It's not very warm – you'd better take a coat.
That meal wasn't very expensive. (= quite cheap.)

Note that *little* cannot be used in this way.

He's not very imaginative. (NOT ~~*He's little imaginative.*~~)

3 past participles: *very much loved, very worried*

Before past participles we normally use *very much*.

She was very much loved by her grandchildren. (NOT ~~*She was very loved.*~~)
Journey times will be very much reduced by the new road. (NOT ... ~~*very reduced*~~...)

But we use *very* with some past participles that are used as adjectives. For details, see 410.4.

I'm very worried about Angela. (NOT ... ~~*very much worried*~~...)
We were very surprised when Pete passed his exam. (More common than ... *very much surprised* ...)

4 *very much* (adverb)

Very much can be an adverb.

We very much enjoyed the party. (NOT ~~*We very enjoyed.*~~)

We do not normally put *very much* between a verb and its object.
I very much like mountains. (NOT ~~*I like very much mountains.*~~)
Very much can also be a determiner before a noun.
She didn't have very much money.
Have you got very much work to do?
Very much is not often used as a determiner in affirmative clauses (see 357.5).
There was a lot of snow on the road. (NOT ~~*There was very much snow.*~~)

For *very . . . indeed*, see 273.

612 wait

Wait can be followed by an infinitive.
I'll wait to hear from you before I do anything.
Before a direct object, *wait for* is used.
Please wait for me here. (NOT ~~*Please wait me here.*~~)
That-clauses are not used, but an **object + infinitive** structure is possible.
We'll have to wait for the photos to be ready. (NOT . . . ~~*wait that the photos are ready.*~~)
The time preposition *for* is often dropped after *wait*.
I waited (for) a very long time for her answer.
The transitive verb *await* is formal, and is used mostly with abstract objects.
We're still awaiting instructions.

For the difference between *wait for* and *expect*, see 196.

613 want

1 infinitive with *to*

After *want*, we normally use an infinitive with *to*.
I don't want to come back here ever again. (NOT ~~*I don't want come back*~~. . .)
That-clauses are not normally used after *want*, but an **object + infinitive** structure (see 283) is possible.
Do you want me to make you some coffee? (NOT ~~*Do you want (that) I make you some coffee?*~~)
I don't want that woman to come here.

2 structure with object complement

Want can be followed by an object together with a complement (adjective, adverb or past participle) to express ideas such as change or result.
They wanted him dead. *She doesn't want him back.*
I want her out of there now. *We want the job finished by Tuesday.*
To be or *as* is used before a noun complement.
I want you to be my friend. (OR . . . *as my friend.* NOT ~~*I want you my friend.*~~)

3 *want* meaning 'need'

In informal British English, we can say that a thing 'wants' (= needs) something, particularly with reference to actions.
That car wants a clean. *Your hair wants a good brush.*
In this case, *want* can be followed by an *-ing* form (like *need* – see 366).
This coat wants cleaning. (= . . . needs to be cleaned.) ▸

4 'I wanna hold your hand'

In informal speech, *want to* often sounds like 'wanna'. It is sometimes spelt like this in order to represent conversational pronunciation – for example in comic strips.

For *to* used instead of a whole infinitive (e.g. *I don't want to, thanks*), see 182.
For *want* and *will*, see 629.8.

614 -ward(s)

Backward(s), forward(s), northward(s), outward(s) and similar words can be used as adjectives or adverbs.

1 adjectives

When they are used as adjectives, they do not have *-s*.

*This country is very **backward** in some ways.*
*You're not allowed to make a **forward** pass in rugby.*
*He was last seen driving in a **northward** direction.*

2 adverbs

When these words are adverbs, they can generally be used with or without *-s*. The forms with *-s* are generally a little more common in British English, and the forms without *-s* in American English.

*Why are you moving **backward(s)** and **forward(s)**?*
*If we keep going **upward(s)** we must get to the top.*
*Let's start driving **homeward(s)**.*

In some figurative expressions such as *look forward to, bring forward, put forward*, the form without *-s* is always used.

*I **look forward to** hearing from you.*
*She **put forward** a very interesting suggestion.*

3 other words

Towards and *afterwards* are the usual forms in British English; in American English, *toward* and *afterward* are also common.

615 way

1 preposition dropped

In an informal style, we usually drop the prepositions ***in*** or *by* before *way*.

*You're doing it **(in) the wrong way**.*
*Do it **(in) any way** you like.*
*Come **this way**.*
*We went there **the usual way**.*

2 relative structures

In an informal style, we often say *the way (that)* instead of *the way in/by which*.

*I don't like **the way (that)** you talk to me.*
*Let's go **the way (that)** we went yesterday.*

3 infinitive or *-ing*

After *way* (meaning 'method'/'manner') we can use an infinitive structure or *of...ing*. There is no important difference between the two structures.

There's no way to prove / of proving that he was stealing.

4 *way of* and *means of*

Way of is unusual before a noun (except in the common expression *way of life*). We use *means of* or *method of* instead.

The 19th century saw a revolution in means of transport. (NOT ...~~ways of transport.~~)

They tried all possible methods of instruction, but the child learnt nothing.

5 *in the way* and *on the way*

These expressions are quite different. *In the/my/*etc *way* is used for obstacles – things that stop people getting where they want to.

I can't get the car out because those boxes are in the way.

Please don't stand in the kitchen door – you're in my way.

On the/my etc *way* means 'during the journey/movement' or 'coming'.

We'll have lunch on our way. *Spring is on the way.*

For *by the way*, see 157.8.

616 weak and strong forms

1 What are weak and strong forms?

Some English words – for example *at, for, have, and, us* – have two pronunciations: one is used when they are not stressed, and the other when they are. Compare:

I'm looking at /ət/ *you.* *What are you looking at* /æt/*?*

2 stressed or not?

Most of these words are prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, articles and auxiliary verbs. Such words are not usually stressed, because they are generally found together with other more important words which carry the stress. So the unstressed ('weak') pronunciation is the normal one. This usually has the vowel /ə/ or no vowel; a few weak forms are pronounced with /ɪ/.
However, these words can be stressed when they are emphasised, or when there is no other word to carry the stress. In these cases the 'strong' pronunciation is used. This has the vowel that corresponds to the spelling. Compare:

- *I must* /məs/ *go now.*
  I really must /mʌst/ *stop smoking.* (stressed for emphasis)
- *I was* /wəz/ *late.*
  It was /wəz/ *raining.*
  Yes, it was /wɒz/. (stressed at end of sentence: there is no other word to be stressed.)
- *Where have* /əv/ *you been?*
  You might have /əv/ *told me.*
  What did you have /hæv/ *for breakfast?* (non-auxiliary verb) ▸

Contracted negatives always have a strong pronunciation.
can't /kɑːnt/ *mustn't* /ˈmʌsnt/ *wasn't* /ˈwɒznt/

3 list of words with weak and strong forms

The most important words which have weak and strong forms are:

	Weak form	Strong form
a	/ə/	/eɪ/ (unusual)
am	/(ə)m/	/æm/
an	/ən/	/æn/ (unusual)
and	/(ə)n(d)/	/ænd/
are	/ə(r)/	/ɑː(r)/
as	/əz/	/æz/
at	/ət/	/æt/
be	/bɪ/	/biː/
been	/bɪn/	/biːn/
but	/bət/	/bʌt/
can	/k(ə)n/	/kæn/
could	/kəd/	/kʊd/
do	/d(ə)/	/duː/
does	/dəz/	/dʌz/
for	/fə(r)/	/fɔː(r)/
from	/frəm/	/frɒm/
had	/(h)əd/	/hæd/
has	/(h)əz/	/hæz/
have	/(h)əv/	/hæv/
he	/(h)ɪ/	/hiː/
her	/(h)ə(r)/	/hɜː(r)/
him	/(h)ɪm/	/hɪm/
his	/(h)ɪz/	/hɪz/
is	/z, s/	/ɪz/
must	/m(ə)s(t)/	/mʌst/
not	/nt/	/nɒt/
of	/əv/	/ɒv/
our	/ɑː(r)/	/aʊə(r)/
saint	/s(ə)nt/ (BrE only)	/seɪnt/
shall	/ʃ(ə)l/	/ʃæl/
she	/ʃɪ/	/ʃiː/
should	/ʃ(ə)d/	/ʃʊd/
sir	/sə(r)/	/sɜː(r)/
some (see 546)	/s(ə)m/	/sʌm/
than	/ð(ə)n/	/ðæn/ (rare)
that (conj.)	/ð(ə)t/	/ðæt/
the	/ðə, ðɪ/	/ðiː/
them	/ð(ə)m/	/ðem/
there (see 586)	/ðə(r)/	/ðeə(r)/
to	/tə/	/tuː/
us	/əs/	/ʌs/
was	/w(ə)z/	/wɒz/
we	/wɪ/	/wiː/
were	/wə(r)/	/wɜː(r)/

	Weak form	Strong form
who	/hʊ/	/huː/
would	/wəd, əd/	/wʊd/
will	/w(ə)l/	/wɪl/
you	/jʊ/	/juː/
your	/jə(r)/	/jɔː(r)/

617 well

1 *well* and *good*

Well and *good* can have similar meanings, but in this case *well* is an adverb, while *good* is an adjective. Compare:

- *The car runs **well**.* (adverb modifying *runs*) (NOT ~~*The car runs good.*~~)
  *It's a **well**-made car.* (adverb modifying *made*)
  *It's a **good** car.* (adjective modifying *car*)
- *He teaches very **well**.*
  *I like that teacher. He's **good**.* (NOT ~~*He's well.*~~)
- *She speaks English **well**.* (NOT ~~*She speaks English good.*~~)
  *She speaks **good** English.*
  *Her English is **good**.*

Note that we cannot say ~~*She speaks well English.*~~ (Adverbs cannot usually go between the verb and the object – see 21.1.)

2 *well* = 'in good health'

There is also an adjective *well*, meaning 'in good health'.

*How are you? ~ Quite **well**, thanks.*
*I don't feel very **well**.*

Note that the adjective *well* is only used to talk about health. Compare:

*When I'm in the mountains I am always **well**.*
*When I'm with you I'm **happy**.* (NOT ~~*When I'm with you I'm well.*~~)

Well is not common before a noun. We can say *She's well*, but it is less usual to say, for example, *She's a well girl.*

For *ill* and *sick*, see 266. For *well* as a discourse marker, see 157.16,17,20.

618 when and if

A person who says *when* (referring to the future) is sure that something will happen. A person who says *if* is unsure whether it will happen. Compare:

- *I'll see you at Christmas **when** we're all at Sally's place.*
  (We are certain to be at Sally's place.)
  *I'll see you in August **if** I come to New York.*
  (Perhaps I'll come to New York, perhaps not.)

To talk about repeated, predictable situations and events (in the sense of 'whenever'), both *when* and *if* can be used with little difference of meaning.

When/If you heat ice it turns to water.
When/If I'm in Liverpool I usually stay with my sister.

619 where (to)

To is often dropped after *where.*

Where are you going (to)? *Where does this road lead (to)?*

To is not normally dropped in the short question *Where to?*

Could you send this off for me? ~ *Where to?*

For *where* in relative clauses, see 494.10

620 whether ... or ...

We can use *whether ... or ...* as a double conjunction, with a similar meaning to *It doesn't matter whether ... or ...*

The ticket will cost the same, whether we buy it now or wait till later.

Whether we go by bus or train, it'll take at least six hours.

Several structures are possible with *whether ... or not.*

Whether you like it or not, ...

Whether or not you like it, ...

Whether you like it or whether you don't, ...

For *whether* and *if*, see 621.

621 whether and if

1 indirect questions

Whether and *if* can both introduce indirect questions.

I'm not sure whether/if I'll have time.

I asked whether/if she had any letters for me.

After verbs that are more common in a formal style, *whether* is preferred.

We discussed whether we should close the shop.

(More normal than *We discussed if ...*)

In a formal style, *whether* is usually preferred in a two-part question with *or.*

The Directors have not decided whether they will recommend a dividend or reinvest the profits.

If an indirect question is fronted (see 513), *whether* is used.

Whether I'll have time I'm not sure at the moment.

2 prepositions

After prepositions, only *whether* is possible.

There was a big argument about whether we should move to a new house.

(NOT ... ~~*about if we should move*~~ ...)

I haven't settled the question of whether I'll go back home.

3 infinitives

Whether, but not *if*, is used before *to*-infinitives.

They can't decide whether to get married now or wait. (NOT ~~*They can't decide if to get married*~~ ...)

4 subject, complement and adverbial clauses

When a question-word clause is a subject or complement, *whether* is normally preferred.

Whether we can stay with my mother is another matter. (subject)
The question is whether the man can be trusted. (complement)

The question is if... is also possible, but less common.

The question is if the man can be trusted.

5 not used in echo questions

If and *whether* are not normally used in 'echo questions' (see 483).

Are you happy?~Am I happy? No! (NOT ...~~*If/Whether I'm happy?*~~...)

622 which, what and who: question words

1 *which* and *what*: the difference

Which and *what* are often both possible, with little difference of meaning.

Which/What is the hottest city in the world?
Which/What train did you come on?
Which/What people have influenced you most in your life?

We prefer *which* when we have a limited number of choices in mind.

We've got white or brown bread. Which will you have?
(More natural than ... *What will you have?*)
Which size do you want – small, medium or large?

When we are not thinking of a limited number of choices, *what* is preferred.

What language do they speak in Greenland?
(More natural than *Which language* ...)
What's your phone number? (NOT ~~*Which is your phone number?*~~)

2 determiners: *which* and *what*

Before nouns, *which* and *what* can be used to ask questions about both things and people.

Which teacher do you like best?
Which colour do you want - green, red, yellow or brown?
What writers do you like? *What colour are your baby's eyes?*

3 *which of*

Before another determiner (e.g. *the, my, these*) or a pronoun, we use *which of*. *Who* and *what* are not normally used with *of* like this in modern English.

Which of your teachers do you like best? (NOT ~~*Who/What of your teachers*~~...)
Which of us is going to do the washing up? (NOT ~~*Who of us*~~...?)
Which of these coats is yours? (NOT ~~*What of these*~~...?)

4 without nouns: *who* for people

When these words are not followed by nouns or pronouns, we generally use *who*, not *which*, for people.

Who won – Smith or Fitzgibbon? (NOT ~~*Which won*~~...?)
Who are you going out with – Lesley or Maria? ▸

However, *which* can be used in questions about people's identity, and *what* can be used to ask about people's jobs and functions.

Which is your husband? ~ *The one in jeans.*

So Janet's the Managing Director. What's Peter?

For the difference between *who* and *whom*, see 623.
For relative *who* and *which* (e.g. *the man who . . .*), see 494. For relative *what* (e.g. *what I need is . . .*), see 497.
For singular and plural verbs after *who* and *what*, see 532.3.

623 who and whom

Whom is unusual in informal modern English.

1 questions: *Who did they arrest?*

We normally use *who* as an object in questions.

Who did they arrest?

Prepositions usually come at the end of *who*-questions (see 452).

Who did she go with?

In a very formal style, *whom* is sometimes used.

Whom did they arrest? (formal)

Prepositions normally come before *whom*.

With whom did she go? (very formal)

2 relative clauses: *the man (who) we met*

In identifying relative clauses, (see 495), *whom* is unusual in an informal style. Either we leave out the object pronoun, or we use *that* or *who* (see 494–495 for details).

There's the man (that)/(who) we met in the pub last night.

In a formal style *whom* is more common.

She married a man whom she met at a conference.

In non-identifying relative clauses (see 495), we usually use *whom* as an object when necessary (but these clauses are uncommon in informal English).

This is John Perkins, whom you met at the sales conference.

I have a number of American relatives, most of whom live in Texas.

3 *who(m) he thought* etc

In a sentence like *He was trying to find an old school friend, who(m) he thought was living in New Zealand*, people are often unsure whether *whom* is possible (because it seems to be the object of the first following verb) or whether they should use *who* (because it is the subject of the second verb). *Who* is considered more correct, but *whom* is sometimes used. Another example:

There is a child in this class who(m) I believe is a musical genius.

In cases with a following infinitive, usage is mixed, but *whom* is considered more correct.

There is a child in the class who(m) I believe to be a musical genius.

624 who ever, what ever etc

These expressions show surprise or difficulty in understanding something.

Who ever is that strange girl with Roger?
What ever are you doing?
How ever did you manage to start the car? I couldn't.
When ever will I have time to write some letters?
Why ever did I marry you?

The expressions can also be written as single words: *whoever, whatever* etc. Note that *whose* and *which* are not used with *ever* in this way.

In an informal style, *on earth, the hell* (AmE also *in hell*) or *the fuck* (taboo – see 575) can be used instead of *ever*.

Who on earth is that strange girl? *Why the hell did I marry you?*
What the fuck is she talking about?

For the conjunctions *whoever, whatever*, etc, see 625.

625 whoever, whatever etc

1 meaning and use

Whoever means 'it doesn't matter who', 'any person who', or 'the unknown person who'. *Whatever, whichever, however, whenever* and *wherever* have similar 'open' meanings.

A word of this kind has a double function, like a relative pronoun or adverb (see 498.1). It acts as a subject, object or adverb in its own clause, but it also acts as a conjunction, joining its clause to the rest of the sentence. Examples:

Whoever phoned just now was very polite.
I'm not opening the door, whoever you are.
Send it to whoever pays the bills.
Whatever you do, I'll always love you.
Whatever is in that box is making a very funny noise.
Keep calm, whatever happens.
Spend the money on whatever you like.
Whichever of them you marry, you'll have problems.
We're free all next week. You'll be welcome whichever day you come.
However much he eats, he never gets fat.
People always want more, however rich they are.
However you travel, it'll take you at least three days.
Whenever I go to London I try to see Vicky.
You can come whenever you like.
Wherever you go, you'll find Coca-Cola.

2 *whoever, whichever* and *whatever*: subjects and objects

Whoever, whichever and *whatever* can be the subjects or objects of the verbs in their clauses. (Note that *whomever* is not used in modern English.)

Whoever directed this film, it's no good. (subject of *directed*)
Whoever you marry, make sure he can cook. (object of *marry*)
Whatever you say, I don't think he's the right man. (object of *say*) ▸

Whichever and *whatever* can also go with nouns as determiners.
Whichever room you use, make sure you clean it up afterwards.
Whatever problems you have, you can always come to me for help.
If you change your mind for whatever reason, just let me know.

3 clauses as subjects or objects

A clause with *whoever, whichever* and *whatever* can be the subject or object of the verb in the other clause.
Whoever told you that was lying. (subject of *was lying*)
I'll marry whoever I like. (object of *marry*)
Whichever climber gets to the top first will get a £5,000 prize. (subject of *will get*)
I'll take whichever tent you're not using. (object of *take*)
Whatever you want is fine with me. (subject of *is*)
Prisoners have to eat whatever they're given. (object of *eat*)

4 *whenever* = 'every time that'

Whenever can suggest repetition, in the sense of 'every time that'.
Whenever I see you I feel nervous.
I stay with Monica whenever I go to London.

5 *whoever* etc . . . *may*

May can be used to suggest ignorance or uncertainty.
He's written a book on the philosopher Matilda Vidmi, whoever she may be.
She's just written to me from Llandyfrdwy, wherever that may be.

6 leaving out the verb: *whatever his problems*

In a clause like *whatever his problems are*, where *whatever* is the complement of the verb *be*, it is possible to leave out the verb.
Whatever his problems, he has no right to behave like that.
A serious illness, whatever its nature, is almost always painful.
After *however* + **adjective**, we can leave out a **pronoun** + *be*.
A grammar rule, however true (it is), is useless unless it can be understood.

7 informal uses: short answers

In an informal style, these conjunctions are sometimes used as short answers.
When shall we start? ~ *Whenever.* (= Whenever you like.)
Potatoes or rice? ~ *Whichever.* (= I don't mind.)
Whatever is often used to mean 'I don't care' or 'I'm not interested'. This can sound rude.
What would you like to do? We could go and see a film, or go swimming. ~ *Whatever.*
Or whatever can mean 'or anything else'.
Would you like some orange juice or a beer or whatever?
If you play football or tennis or whatever, it does take up a lot of time.

8 *whatever* meaning 'at all'

After *any* and *no*, *whatever* can be used to mean 'at all'.
Don't you have any regrets whatever?
I can see no point whatever in buying it.

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In a formal style, *whatsoever* is sometimes used as an emphatic form of *whatever* in this structure.

For other uses of *whatever* and *however*, see a good dictionary.
For *who ever, what ever* etc, see 624.
For *no matter who/what/*etc, see 378.

626 whose: question word

1 with a noun or alone

The question word *whose* can be used with a noun as a determiner like *my, your* etc.

Whose car is that outside?
Whose garden do you think looks the nicest?

Whose can also be used alone, like *mine, yours* etc.

Whose is that car outside? *Whose is this?* ~ *Mine.*

2 prepositions

Prepositions can normally come either before *whose* (more formal) or at the end of the clause (less formal). See 452 for details.

For whose benefit were all these changes made?
Whose side are you on?

In short questions with no verb, prepositions can only come before *whose.*

I'm going to buy a car. ~ *With whose money?* (NOT ~~*Whose money with?*~~)

For the relative pronoun *whose*, see 496. For *whose* and *who's*, see 627.

627 whose and who's

Whose is a possessive word meaning 'of whom/which', used in questions and relative clauses. *Who's* is the contraction of *who is* or *who has.* Compare:

– *Whose is that coat?* (NOT ~~*Who's is that coat?*~~)
It was a decision whose importance was not realised at the time.
(NOT ... ~~*who's importance*~~ ...)
– *Do you know anybody who's going to France in the next few days?*
(NOT ... ~~*anybody whose going*~~ ...)
I've got a cousin who's never been to London. (NOT ... ~~*whose never been*~~ ...)

There is a similar confusion between *its* and *it's*: see 305.

628 why and why not

1 replies

We generally use *Why not?*, not *Why?*, in short replies to negative statements. Compare:

They've decided to move to Devon. ~ *Why?*
I can't manage tomorrow evening. ~ *Why not?*
(More natural than *Why?*)

Why not? can also be used to agree to a suggestion.

Let's eat out this evening. ~ *Yes, why not?* ▸

2 *Why should . . .?*

A structure with *why* followed by *should* can suggest surprise.
I wonder why she should want to go out with me.
The structure can also suggest anger or refusal to do something.
I don't see why we should have to pay for your mistake.
Give me a cigarette. ~ Why should I?

For a similar structure with *how*, see 482.2.

3 infinitive structures

Why can be followed by an infinitive without *to*. This structure can suggest that an action is unnecessary or pointless.
Why argue with him? He'll never change his mind. (NOT ~~*Why arguing*~~ . . .? OR ~~*Why to argue*~~ . . .?)
Why pay more at other shops? We have the best value.
Why not + infinitive without *to* is used to make suggestions.
Sandy's in a bad mood. ~ Why not give her some flowers?
Why don't . . .? can be used in the same way.
Why don't you give her some flowers?
Why don't we go and see Julie?

629 will: various uses

1 forms

Will is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). It has no *-s* in the third person singular; questions and negatives are made without *do*; after *will*, we use an infinitive without *to*.
Will the train be on time?
Contractions are *'ll, won't*.
Do you think it'll rain? *It won't rain.*
Would is used as a past or less definite form of *will* for some of its meanings; for details, see 633.

2 future auxiliary

We can use *will* as an auxiliary verb when we talk about the future. For details, see 212.
I will be happy when this is finished.
This time tomorrow I'll be sitting in the sun.
He will have finished the whole job by this evening.

3 certainty

Will can express certainty or confidence about present or future situations.
As I'm sure you will understand, we cannot wait any longer for our order.
Don't phone them now – they'll be having dinner.
There's somebody coming up the stairs. ~ That'll be Mary.
Tomorrow will be cloudy, with some rain.
Will have + past participle refers to the past.
Dear Sir, You will recently have received a form . . .
We can't go and see them now – they'll have gone to bed.

4 willingness and decisions

Will can express the speaker's willingness, or announce a decision.
Can somebody help me? ~ *I* ***will.***
There's the doorbell. ~ *I'll go.*
Will can express a firm intention, a promise or a threat.
I really ***will*** *stop smoking.*
I'll definitely pay you back next week.
I'll kill her for this.
We can use *will not* or *won't* to talk about unwillingness or refusal.
She ***won't*** *open the door.*
Give me a kiss. ~ *No, I* ***won't.***
The car ***won't*** *start.*
Would not can refer to past refusal.
She ***wouldn't*** *open the door.* *The car* ***wouldn't*** *start this morning.*

For details of these uses, see 217.

5 requests, orders and offers

We use *will you* to tell people what to do.
Will you send me the bill, please?
Come this way, ***will you?*** ***Will you*** *be quiet!*
Would you is 'softer', more polite.
Would you *send me the bill, please?*
Come this way, ***would you?***
Will you . . .? can also be used to ask about people's wishes.
Will you *have some more potatoes?* *What* ***will you*** *drink?*
Won't you . . .? expresses a pressing offer.
Won't you *have some more wine?*
Will can be used in affirmative structures to give impersonal, military-type orders.
All staff ***will*** *submit weekly progress reports.*

6 distancing: *I'll have to ask you . . .*

Instructions and orders can be made less direct by 'distancing' (see 436) – for example by using *will* to displace them into the future.
I'm afraid you'll need to fill in this form.
I'll have to ask you to wait a minute.
And *will* is sometimes used to say how much money is owed.
That ***will*** *be £1.65, please.*

7 typical behaviour

We can use *will* to talk about typical behaviour.
She'll sit talking to herself for hours.
When you look at clouds they ***will*** *often remind you of animals.*
If something breaks down and you kick it, it ***will*** *often start working again.*
Sulphuric acid ***will*** *dissolve most metals.*
Stressed *will* can be used to criticise people's typical behaviour.
She WILL *fall in love with the wrong people.*
Well, if you WILL *keep telling people what you think of them . . .*
Would is used in a similar way to refer to the past. For details, see 633.7. ▸

8 *will* and *want*

Will and *want* can both be used to talk about wishes, but they are rather different. *Will* is used mostly in 'interpersonal' ways, to express wishes that affect other people through orders, requests, offers, promises etc. *Want* simply refers to people's wishes – nothing more. *Will* is to do with actions, *want* is to do with thoughts. Compare:

– *Will you open the window?* (an order)
  Do you want to open the window? (a question about somebody's wishes)
– *She won't tell anybody.* (= She refuses to . . .)
  She doesn't want to tell anybody. (= She prefers not to . . .)

Note that *will* cannot be used with a direct object.
  Do you want / Would you like an aspirin? (NOT ~~*Will you an aspirin?*~~)

For a comparison between *will* and *going to*, see 216, 218.

630 wish

1 *wish* + infinitive

We can use *wish* + **infinitive** to mean *want*. *Wish* is very formal in this sense. Note that progressive forms are not used.
  I wish to see the manager, please. (NOT ~~*I'm wishing to see*~~. . .)
  If you wish to reserve a table, please telephone after five o'clock.

An **object + infinitive** structure is also possible.
  We do not wish our names to appear in the report.

Wish + **direct object** is not normal without a following infinitive.
  I want / would like an appointment with the manager. (NOT ~~*I wish an appointment with the manager*~~.)

2 *I wish you . . .*

Wish is used with two objects in some fixed expressions of good wishes.
  I wish you a Merry Christmas.
  We all wish you a speedy recovery.
  Here's wishing you all the best in your new job.

3 *wish* + *that*-clause: meaning

We can also use *wish* with a *that*-clause (*that* can be dropped in an informal style). In this case, *wish* does not mean 'want' – it expresses regret that things are not different, and refers to situations that are unreal, impossible or unlikely. Tenses are similar to those used with *if* (see below).
  I wish (that) I was better looking.
  Don't you wish (that) you could fly?
  We all wish (that) the snow would stay forever.

Wish + *that*-clause is not generally used for wishes about things that seem possible in the future. We often use *hope* in this sense (see 250).
  I hope you pass your exams. (NOT ~~*I wish you would pass your exams*~~.)
  I hope you feel better tomorrow. (NOT ~~*I wish you felt better tomorrow*~~.)

4 *wish* + *that*-clause: tenses

In a *that*-clause after *wish*, we generally use the same tenses as we would use, for instance, after 'It would be nice if . . .' (see 258). Past tenses are used with a present or future meaning.

I wish I spoke French. (= It would be nice if I spoke French.)
I wish I had a yacht. *I wish tomorrow was Sunday.*
All the staff wish you weren't leaving so soon.
Do you ever wish you lived somewhere else?

Were can be used instead of *was* in this structure, especially in a formal style.

I wish that I were better looking.

Past perfect tenses are used for wishes about the past.

I wish you hadn't said that. (= It would be nice if you hadn't said that.)
Now she wishes she had gone to university.

In informal speech, sentences like *I wish you'd have seen it* sometimes occur. For similar structures with *if*, see 262.

5 *wish . . . would*

Would is very common in *that*-clauses after *wish* (much more common than it is in *if*-clauses). Sentences with *wish . . . would* express regret or annoyance that something will not happen.

Everybody wishes you would go home. (= Why won't you go home?)
I wish you would stop smoking. (= Why won't you stop smoking?)
I wish the postman would come soon. (But it looks as if he won't.)
I wish it would stop raining. (= It will keep on raining!)
Don't you wish that this moment would last for ever?

Sentences with *wish . . . wouldn't* refer to things that do or will happen.

I wish you wouldn't keep making that stupid noise.
(= You will keep making . . .)

Wish . . . would(n't) can be like an order or a critical request. Compare:

- *I wish you wouldn't drive so fast.* (Similar to *Please don't drive so fast.*)
  I wish you didn't drive so fast. (More like *I'm sorry you drive so fast.*)
- *I wish you wouldn't work on Sundays.* (= Why don't you stop?)
  I wish you didn't work on Sundays. (= It's a pity.)

For similar structures with *if only*, see 265.
For other cases where past tenses have present or future meanings, see 426.

631 with

1 *trembling with rage, blue with cold* etc

With is used in a number of expressions which say how people are showing their emotions and sensations.

My father was trembling with rage.
Annie was jumping up and down with excitement.
When I found her she was blue with cold.

white with fear/rage	*green with envy*
red with anger/embarrassment	*shivering with cold* ▸

2 *angry with* etc

With is also used after a number of adjectives which say how people are feeling towards others.

*I'm cross **with** you.* *furious **with*** *upset **with***
*angry **with*** *pleased **with***

After words which say how people act towards others (like *kind, nice, polite, rude, good*), we generally use *to*, not *with*.

*She was very **nice to** me.* (NOT ... ~~*nice with me*~~.)

3 *with* meaning 'against'

After *fight, struggle, quarrel, argue, play* and words with similar meanings, *with* can be used with the same meaning as *against*.

*Don't **fight with** him – he's bigger than you are.*
*Will you **play** chess **with** me?*

4 accompanying circumstances and reasons

With can introduce accompanying circumstances or reasons (rather like *and there is/was* or *because there is/was*).

*The runners started the race **with a light following wind**.*
With all this work to do, I won't have time to go out.
With friends like you, who needs enemies?

Without can be used in similar ways.

Without Sue and Jake, we're going to have trouble finishing the repairs.

5 possession

With is very often used, like *have*, to indicate possession and similar ideas.

*There are so many people around **with no homes**.*
(= ... who have no homes.)
*They've bought a house **with a big garden**.*

6 clothing, voices, transport etc

Note that *in* is often used instead of *with* to refer to articles of clothing.

*Who's the man **in the funny hat**?*
*Could you go and give this paper to the woman **in glasses**?*

We say *in a ... voice*, NOT ~~*with a*~~ ... ~~*voice*~~.

*Why are you talking **in such a loud voice**?*

Note also: *by car/train* etc (NOT ~~*with the car*~~ etc), and *write in pencil/ink*.

For the difference between *by* and *with*, see 119.

632 worth

1 *worth a lot*, etc

Worth can be followed by an expression describing the value of something.

*That piano must be **worth a lot**.*
*I don't think their pizzas are **worth the money**.*
*Shall I talk to Rob? ~ It's not **worth the trouble**.*

In questions about value, either *what* or *how much* can be used.

What / How much is that painting worth?

2 *a million dollars' worth of . . .*

A possessive can be used before *worth* in expressions with numbers.
*They've ordered **a million dollars' worth of** computer software.*

3 *It's worth talking to Joe; Joe's worth talking to*

To talk about the value of an activity, we can use an *-ing* form with *worth*. The *-ing* clause cannot be the subject; we often use preparatory *it*.
*It's **worth talking** to Joe.* (NOT ~~*Talking to Joe is worth*~~.)
*It isn't **worth repairing** the car.*
*Is it **worth visiting** Leicester?*
We can also use a structure in which the object of the *-ing* form (*Joe, the car, Leicester*) is made the subject of the sentence.
*Joe's **worth talking** to.*
*The car isn't **worth repairing**.* (NOT ~~*The car isn't worth repairing it*~~. OR ~~*The car isn't worth to be repaired*~~.)
*Is Leicester **worth visiting**?*

For more about structures in which the object of a verb is the subject of the sentence (e.g. *She's easy to amuse*), see 284.4.

4 *It's worth it*

We often use *It's (not) worth it* to say whether something is worth doing.
*If you pay a bit more you get a room to yourself I think **it's worth it**.*
*Shall we go and see the castle? ~ No, **it's not worth it**.*

5 *worthwhile*

Worthwhile (or *worth while*) is sometimes used instead of *worth*, particularly to express the idea 'worth spending time'.
*Is it **worthwhile** visiting Leicester?*
Infinitives are also possible after *worthwhile*.
*We thought it might be **worthwhile** to compare the two years' accounts.*
Note also the structure *worth somebody's while*.
*Would you like to do some gardening for me? I'll make it **worth your while**.*
(= . . . I'll pay you enough.)

6 *well worth*

Worth can be modified by *well*.
*Leicester's **well worth** visiting.* (NOT . . . ~~*very worth*~~ . . .)

633 would: various uses

1 forms

Would, the past form of *will*, is a modal auxiliary verb (see 353–354). Questions and negatives are made without *do*; after *would*, we use an infinitive without *to*.
Would your daughter like to play with my little girl?
Contractions are *'d, wouldn't*.
I'd like some advice, please.
I wish she wouldn't take things so seriously. ▸

2 *would* and *will*

Would is used as a softer, less definite form of *will* (see 629), or in some cases as the past of *will*.

3 indirect speech

In indirect speech, *would* is used after past reporting verbs where *will* was used in direct speech. For details, see 275.

DIRECT SPEECH: *Tomorrow will be fine.*
INDIRECT SPEECH: *The forecast said the next day **would** be fine.*

Would itself does not usually change in indirect speech (see 278).

DIRECT SPEECH: ***Would** you like some help?*
INDIRECT SPEECH: *She asked if I **would** like some help.*

4 future in the past

Would is also used to express the idea of 'future in the past' – to talk about a past action which had not yet happened at the time we are talking about. For details, see 221.

*In Berlin, he first met the woman whom he **would** one day marry.*
*There was a chance that my letter **would** arrive in time.*

5 interpersonal uses

Would is used in polite requests and offers as a softer form of *will*.

***Would** you open the window, please?*
*If you **would** come this way . . .*
***Would** you mind standing up for a moment?*
***Would** you like tea, or **would** you prefer coffee?*

6 past willingness and refusals

Would can refer to past willingness of a general kind, but not to willingness to do something on a particular past occasion. Compare:

*She **would** hoover, dust and iron, but she didn't like doing windows.*
*She **agreed** to come and see me.* (NOT ~~*She would come and see me.*~~)

But *would not* can be used to refer to a refusal on a particular past occasion.

*I asked him very politely, but he **wouldn't** tell me.*
*The car **wouldn't** start again this morning.*

For present refusals with *will not / won't*, see 629.4.

7 typical behaviour

Would is used as the past of *will* (see 629.7) to talk about typical behaviour in the past.

*When she was old, she **would** sit in the corner talking to herself for hours.*
*Sometimes he **would** bring me little presents without saying why.*
*On Sundays when I was a child we **would** all get up early and go fishing.*

Sentences with stressed *would* can be used to criticise people's behaviour.

He was a nice boy, but he WOULD talk about himself all the time.

Stressed *would* can also be used to criticise a single past action – the meaning is 'that's typical of you'.

You WOULD tell Mary about the party – I didn't want to invite her.

8 *would* and *used to*

Used to (see 604) can refer to repeated actions and events in the past, in the same way as *would*.

*When she was old, she **used to** sit in the corner talking to herself for hours.*
*Sometimes he **used to** bring me little presents without saying why.*

But only *used to* can refer to past states. Compare:

*When we were children we **would / used to** go skating every winter.*
*I **used to** have an old Rolls-Royce.* (BUT NOT ~~*I would have an old Rolls-Royce.*~~)

And we use *used to*, not *would*, to talk about regular and important habitual behaviour.

*Robert **used to** play a lot of football.* (NOT ~~*Robert would play*~~ . . .)
*I **used to** smoke.* (NOT ~~*I would smoke.*~~)

9 conditional auxiliary: *I would . . . if*

Would (first person also *I/we should* – see 258) is often used as an auxiliary with verbs that refer to unreal or uncertain situations – for example in sentences with *if*. (Compare the use of *will/shall* to refer to more definite situations.)

*I **would/should tell** you if I knew.*
*It **would have been** nice if he'd thanked you.*
*We **would/should** like to talk to you for a minute.*

For *would* after *wish*, see 630.5. For *would* after *if only*, see 265.

634 yes and no

1 answers to negatives

In English, *yes* is used with affirmative sentences and *no* with negative sentences. In answers to negative questions and statements, *yes* and *no* are chosen according to the form of the answer, not in order to show agreement or disagreement with the speaker.

*Aren't you going out? ~ **No, I'm not.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I'm not.*~~)
*I have no money. ~ **No, I haven't either.*** (NOT ~~*Yes, I haven't too.*~~)
*Haven't you got a raincoat? ~ **Yes, I have.*** (NOT ~~*No, I have.*~~)

2 contradicting

Some languages have a special word for contradicting negative statements or suggestions (e.g. French *si* or German *doch*). English does not have a word like this. We often use a short answer structure (see 517).

*The phone isn't working. ~ **(Yes,) it is.*** (NOT ~~*The phone isn't working.*~~ ~ ~~*Yes.*~~)

Affirmative sentences are contradicted with negative short answers.

*It's raining. ~ **(No,) it isn't.***

For more about negative questions, see 368.
For *yes* and *no* in answers to *Do/Would you mind . . .?*, see 351.

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ENGLISH CONVERSATION PRACTICE

TMH EDITION

For sale in India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Bhutan only

GRANT TAYLOR

1. MEETING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Hello. How are you?
S2. Pretty well, thanks. And you?
S1. I'm fine, thanks.
S2. It's good to see you again.

Conversation B

S1. Where have you been lately?
S2. I've been busy with extra work.
S1. I've had a lot of work to do too.
S2. Yes. I haven't seen you for quite a while either.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Hello. How's everything?
S2. Fine, thanks. How about you?
S1. Just fine. What's new?
S2. Nothing much.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'm pleased to meet you.
S2. The pleasure is mine.
S1. I've heard John speak about you often.
S2. Only good things, I hope.

Conversation E

S1. Look who's here!
S2. Are you surprised to see me?
S1. Sure. I thought you were in Europe.
S2. I was, but I got back yesterday.

Exercise 1/ *Line A4 /*

It's good to see you again.

nice	**It's nice to see you again.**
wonderful	**It's wonderful to see you again.**
delightful	**It's delightful to see you again.**
marvelous	**It's marvelous to see you again.**
exciting	**It's exciting to see you again.**

Exercise* 2/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

meet you — **It's good to meet you again.**
talk to you — **It's good to talk to you again.**
be with you — **It's good to be with you again.**
hear from you — **It's good to hear from you again**
have a conversation with you — **It's good to have a conversation with you again.**

Exercise* 3/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

Them — **It's good to see them again.**
all of you — **It's good to see all of you again.**
everyone — **It's good to see everyone again.**
John and her — **It's good to see John and her again.**
Mary and him — **It's good to see Mary and him again.**

Exercise* 4/ *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

Today — **It's good to see you again today.**
this week — **It's good to see you again this week.**
during our vacation — **It's good to see you again during our vacation.**
so soon again — **It's good to see you so soon again.**
after such a long time — **It's good to see you after such a long time.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line A4 /

It's good to see you again.

wonderful — **It's wonderful to see you again.**
meet — **It's wonderful to meet you again.**
all of you — **It's wonderful to meet all of you again.**
so soon again — **It's wonderful to meet all of you so soon again.**
be with all of you — **It's wonderful to be with all of you so soon again.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

recently — **Where have you been recently?**
since June — **Where have you been since June?**
this past week — **Where have you been this past week?**
for the last month — **Where have you been for the last month?**
since school finished — **Where have you been since school finished?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

John — **Where has John been lately?**
all of you — **Where have all of you been lately?**
your friend Mary — **Where has your friend Mary been lately?**
John and you — **Where have John and you been lately?**
everyone — **Where has everyone been lately?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B1 /

Where have you been lately?

recently	**Where have you been recently?**
all of you	**Where have all of you been recently?**
since last July	**Where have all of you been since last July?**
that student	**Where has that student been since last July?**
this past week	**Where has that student been this past week?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line B2 /

I've been busy, with extra work.

tied up	**I've been tied up with extra work**
with business	**I've been tied up with business**
We	**We've been tied up with business**
completely involved	**We've been completely involved**

Exercise* 10 / *Line B3 /

I've had a lot of work to do too.

A great deal	**I've had a great deal of work to do too.**
Finish	**I've had a great deal of work to finish too**
also	**I've had a great deal of work to finish also**
too much	**I've had too much work to finish also.**
take care of	**I've had too much work to take care of also**

Exercise 11 / Line B4 /

I haven't seen you.

for quite a while	**I haven't seen you for quite a while.**
heard from you	**I haven't heard from you for quite a while**
She	**She hasn't heard from you for quite a while**
Either	**She hasn't heard from you for quite a while either.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D1 /**

I'm pleased to meet you.

Delighted	**I'm delighted to meet you.**
to make your acquaintance	**I'm delighted to make your acquaintance**
happy	**I'm happy to make your acquaintance**
so soon	**I'm happy to make your acquaintance so soon.**
to have the pleasure of	**I'm happy to have the pleasure of**
meeting you	**meeting you so soon.**

***Exercise* 13 / *Line* D3 /**

John speaks about you.	**I've heard him speak about you.**
John mentions you.	**I've heard him mention you.**
John refers to you.	**I've heard him refer to you.**
John describes you.	**I've heard him describe you.**
John inquires about you.	**I've heard him inquire about you.**

John compliments you. **I've heard him compliment you.**

Exercise* 14 / *Line E3 /

I thought you were in Europe.

the city	**I thought you were in the city**
at Sandy Beach	**I thought you were at Sandy Beach**
school	**I thought you were at school**
the office	**I thought you were at the office**
on the train to New York	**I thought you were on the train to New York.**

Exercise* 15/ *Line E4 /

I got back yesterday.

two days ago	**I got back two days ago.**
returned	**I returned two days ago.**
last Thursday	**I returned last Thursday.**
I flew home	**I flew home last Thursday.**
on Friday	**I flew home on Friday.**

2. PARTING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Well, I have an appointment now.
S2. I'm in quite a hurry too.
S1. Good to see you. Goodbye,.
S2. Goodbye. Take care of yourself.

Conversation B

S1. I guess I'd better go now.
S2. I've got to be going now too.
S1. In that case, I'll be seeing you.
S2. So long. See you later.

Conversation C

S1. It's getting late, and I have to go now.
S2. We're sorry you have to leave.
S1. Please excuse me, won't you?
S2. Certainly. Come back soon.

Conversation D

S1. I'm glad to have met you.
S2. Thank you. It was nice to have seen you.
S1. I hope we can get together again.
S2. Yes. I'll be looking forward to it.

Conversation E

S1. I think I have to leave now.
S2. Must you go so soon?
S3. I'm afraid I really have to.
S4. Well, it was fun to get together again.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

meeting	**I have a meeting now.**
date	**I have a date now.**
engagement	**I have an engagement now.**
class	**I have a class now.**

Exercise 2 / Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

soon	**I have an appointment soon.**
very shortly	**I have an appointment very shortly.**
in a few minutes	**I have an appointment in a few minutes.**
an hour from now	**I have an appointment an hour from now.**

this evening	**I have an appointment this evening.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A1 /

I have an appointment now.

meeting	**I have a meeting now.**
soon	**I have a meeting soon.**
engagement	**I have an engagement soon.**
very shortly	**I have an engagement very shortly.**
date	**I have a date very shortly.**

Exercise 4/ Line B1 /

I guess I'd better go now.

right away	**I guess I'd better go right away.**
very soon	**I guess I'd better go very soon.**
right now	**I guess I'd better go right now.**
in a minute or two	**I guess 1'd better go in a minute or two.**

Exercise 5 / Lines B1 and E1 /

I think I'd better go now.

I should	**I think I should go now.**
I ought to	**I think I ought to go now.**
I have to	**I think I have to go now.**
I've got to	**I think I've got to 'go now.**
I must	**I think I must go now.**

Exercise 6 / Line B1 /

I guess I'd better go now.

think	**I think I'd better go now.**
I ought to .	**I think I ought to go now.**
leave	**I think I ought to leave now.**
right away	**I think I ought to leave right away.**
should	**I think I should leave right away.**
quite soon	**I think I should leave quite soon.**

Exercise 7 / Line C1 /

It's getting late.

Dark	**It's getting dark.**
Outside	**It's getting dark outside.**
much colder	**It's getting much colder outside.**
It's been getting	**It's been getting much colder outside**
Cloudier	**It's been getting much cloudier outside.**
a lot	**It's been getting a lot cloudier outside.**

Exercise 8 / Line C1 /

I have to go now.

quite soon	**I have to go quite soon**
must	**I must go quite soon**
leave	**I must leave quite soon**
in a few minutes	**I must leave in a few minutes**
I've got to	**I've got to leave in a few minutes**
Return	**I've got to return in a few minutes**

Exercise 9 / Line E4 /

It was fun to get together again.

exciting	**It was exciting to get together again.**
meet each other	**It was exciting to meet each other again.**
once more	**It was exciting to meet each other once more.**
talk to each other	**It was exciting to talk to each other once more.**
pleasant	**It was pleasant to talk to each other once more.**

3. DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH?/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you speak English?
S2. Only a little, and not very well.
S3. Do you know many words?
S4. No, I don't. Only the important words.

Conversation B

S1. Does your brother speak English?
S2. Well, he speaks a little English.
S1. Do your sisters speak English?
S2. Yes, they do. They speak it very well.

Conversation C

S1. Can I help you?
S2. Yes. I speak only French.
S1. I'm sorry, but I don't understand French.
S2. Please find someone who speaks French.

Conversation D

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I don't speak English.
S3. Do you need some kind of help?
S4. Yes, but I can't explain it in English.

Conversation E

S1. Do you think English is easy?
S2. No, I don't.
S1. Why don't you think so?
S2. Because I don't understand it.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and B1 /

Do you speak English?

your brother	**Does your brother speak English?**
your sisters	**Do your sisters speak English?**
Mr. .Brown	**Does Mr. Brown speak English?**
the lawyers	**Do the lawyers speak English?**
the girl	**Does the girl speak English?**

Exercise 2 / Lines A1 and B1 /

Do you speak English?

Greek	**Do you speak Greek?**
Spanish	**Do you speak Spanish?**
Italian	**Do you speak Italian?**
Portuguese	**Do you speak Portuguese?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and B4 /

Do you speak English?

fluently	**Do you speak English fluently?**
rapidly	**Do you speak English rapidly?**
very well	**Do you speak English very well?**
correctly	**Do you speak English correctly?**

Exercise* 4 / *Lines A1, B1, B4 /

Do you speak English?

Japanese	**Do you speak Japanese?**
your brother	**Does your brother speak Japanese?**
fluently	**Does your brother speak Japanese fluently?**
Greek	**Does your brother speak Greek fluently?**
your sisters	**Do your sisters speak Greek fluently?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line C1 /

Can I help you?

any of you	**Can I help any of you?**
We	**Can we help any of you?**
Assist	**Can we assist any of you?**
with anything	**Can we assist any of you with any thing?**
you two	**Can we assist you two with anything?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

get	**Please get someone who speaks French.**
bring	**Please bring someone who speaks French.**
ask for	**Please ask for someone who speaks French.**
direct me to	**Please direct me to someone who speaks French.**
take me to	**Please take me to someone who speaks French.**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

German	**Please find someone who speaks German.**
Turkish	**Please find someone who speaks Turkish.**
Arabic	**Please find someone who speaks Arabic.**
Chinese	**Please find someone who speaks Chinese.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C4 /**

Please find someone who speaks French.

bring	**Please bring someone who speaks French.**
Arabic	**Please bring someone who speaks Arabic.**
ask for	**Please ask for someone who speaks Arabic.**
German	**Please ask for someone who speaks German.**
take me to	**Please take me to someone who speaks German.**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* E1 /**

Do you think English is easy?

hard	**Do you think English is hard?**
difficult	**Do you think English is difficult?**
simple	**Do you think English is simple?**
complicated	**Do you think English is complicated?**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* D2 /**

I don't speak English.

The man	**The man doesn't speak English.**
fluently	**The man doesn't speak English fluently.**
The boys	**The boys don't speak English fluently.**
very well	**The boys don't speak English very well.**
understand	**The boys don't understand English very well.**

4. DAILY ACTIVITIES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What time do you get up? ,
S2. I get up about seven fifteen.
S1. What time is breakfast at your house?
S2. Breakfast is always at a quarter to eight.

Conversation B

S1. What do you usually do in the afternoon?
S2. We usually study or read.
S1. What do you generally do over the weekend?
S2. We generally enjoy sports and visit friends.

Conversation C

S1. Do you ever go to museums?
S2. I go every now and then.
S1. What kinds of things do you like to see?
S2. I enjoy seeing statues and old paintings.

Conversation D

S1.Do you watch television very often?
S2. Well, I sometimes watch it in the evening.
S1. Did you watch television last night?
S2. Yes, I did. I saw several good programs.

Conversation E

S1. Do you ever listen to the radio?
S2.Certainly. In fact, I listen practically every night.
Sl. What's your favorite program?
S2.I like the Eleven O'clock Theater best of all.

Exercise1/ Line A1 /

What time do you get up?

have breakfast	**What time do you have breakfast?**
leave home	**What time do you leave home?**
leave for work	**What time do you leave for work?**
return home	**What time do you return home?**
go to bed	**What time do you go to bed?**

Exercise-2 / Lines Al and A2 /

I get up at seven fifteen.	**What time do you get up?**
I have breakfast about eight fifteen.	**What time do you have breakfast?**

I leave home at a quarter to nine.	**What time do you leave home?**
I go to bed about eleven o'clock.	**What time do you go for bed?**

Exercise 3 / Lines Al and A3 /

What time do you have breakfast?	**When do you have breakfast?**
What time do you go to school?	**When do you go to school?**
What time do you get to the office?	**When do you get to the office?**
What time do you eat lunch?	**When do you eat lunch?**
What time do you leave for home?	**When do you leave for home?**

Exercise 4 / Line D1 /

Do you watch television very often?	**Yes, I do.**
How often do you watch television?	**I watch it twice a week**
Does John watch television very often?	**Yes, he does.**
How often does John watch television?	**He watches it twice a week.**
Do the boys watch television very often?	**Yes, they do.**
How often do the boys watch television?	**They watch it twice a week.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line D3

Did you watch television last night?	**Yes, I did. I watched television last night.**
Did you listen to the radio last	**Yes, I did. I listened to the radio last night.**
Did you go to a movie last night?	**Yes, I did. I went to a movie last night.**
Did you go to the library last night?	**Yes, I did. I went to the library last**
Did you attend a concert last night?	**Yes, I did. I attended concert last**
Did you visit a museum last night?	**Yes, I did. I visited a museum last**

Exercise 6 / Line A4 /

He's happy.	**He's usually happy**
They're at home.	**They're usually at home**
She's there.	**She's usually there.**
I'm very nervous.	**I'm usually very nervous**
You're in your office.	**You're usually in your Office.**
They're quite busy.	**They're usually quite busy.**
We're serious about things.	**We're usually serious about things.**

Exercise 7 / Lines B2 and B4 /

He writes carefully.	**He usually writes carefully.**
They practice at home.	**They usually practice at home.**
She reads popular novels.	**She usually reads popular novels.**
I watch television here.	**I usually watch television here.**
He enjoys seeing movies.	**He usually enjoys seeing movies.**
They leave home early.	**They usually leave home early.**
We get up before eight.	**We usually get up before eight.**

Exercise 8 / Lines A4 and B2 /

He's kind to them.	**He's always kind to them.**
They help her.	**They always help her.**
We're busy on Friday.	**We're always busy on Friday.**
I work extra hours.	**I always work extra hours.**
They're polite to us.	**They're always polite to us.**

He drinks black coffee.	**He always drinks black coffee.**
She's calm about things.	**She's always calm about things.**

Exercise 9 / Lines A4 and B2 /

He always works hard.	**Does he always work hard?**
They're always late.	**Are they always late-?**
She's always serious.	**Is she always serious?**
They always speak English.	**Do they always speak English?**
He always writes carefully.	**Does he always write carefully?**
She's always patient with him.	**Is she always patient with him?**
They always wait for her.	**Do they always wait for her?**

5. ASKING ABOUT ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. When did you eat lunch today?
S2. I ate from twelve to one.
S1. Where did you have your lunch?
S2. I had it at Pete's Restaurant today.

Conversation B

S1. Did you a good time at party?
S2. We had a wonderful time.
S1. It was really a lot of fun.
S2. We ought to have another party like that soon.

Conversation C
S1. Did you work at home last night?
S2. Yes.I washed the dishes and cleaned the house.
S1. Did you do anything else?
S2. Yes. I listened to the radio for a while. I

Conversation D

S1. Did you have a good time last night?
S2. Yes.I had a wonderful time.
S1. You'll probably have fun tomorrow too.
S4. I'm sure I'll have an excellent time.

Conversation E

S1. Where did you go?
S2. We went to a beautiful beach.
S1. Did you swim in the ocean?
S2. Yes, but we swam close to the shore

Exercise 1/ Line Al /

When did you eat lunch today?

have the meeting	**When did you have the meeting today?**
Where	**Where did you have the meeting today?**
meet your friends	**Where did you meet your friends today?**
What time	**What time did you meet your friends today?**
leave for home	**What time did you leave for home today?**

Exercise 2 / Line B3 /

It was really a lot of fun.

certainly	**It Was certainly a lot of fun.**

a great deal of	**It was certainly a great deal of fun.**
definitely	**It 'was definitely a great deal of fun.**
lots of	**It was definitely lots of fun.**
actually	**It was actually lots of fun.**

Exercise 3 / line C1

Did you work at home last night?

at the office	**Did you work at the office last night?**
Yesterday	**Did you work at the office yesterday?**
at school	**Did you work at school yesterday?**
this morning	**Did you work at school this morning?**
at the Library	**Did you work at the library this morning?**

Exercise 4 / Lines E3 and E4 /

Did you swim in the ocean?	**Yes, we did. We swam in the ocean.**
Did she go to the store?	**Yes, she did. She went to the store.**
Did they write in their office?	**Yes, they did. They wrote in their office.**
Did he read at the library"?	**Yes, he did. He read at the library.**
Did we sing at school?	**Yes, you did. You sang at school.**
Did Tom and you sleep at home?	**Yes, we did. We slept at home.**

6. WHAT DID YOU DO? / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where did you go after lunch?
S2. I went to the public library.
S1. Which one did you go to?
S2. I went to the one at 42nd Street. ..

Conversation B

S1. What did you do last night?
S2. I watched television.
S1. Where did you watch it?
S2. I watched it here- in the recreation room.

Conversation C

S1. Was that television program interesting?
S2. I thought it was very boring.
S1. What did your friends think of it?
S2. They were bored too.

Conversation D

S1.I went to a lecture last night.
S2.What was it about?
S1.Society and modern art
S2.I wish I'd gone with you.

Conversation E

S1. We went to the movies the night before last.
S2. What did you see?
S1. We saw a film about cowboys and Indians.
S2. Don't you ever get tired of those westerns?

7. TALKING ABOUT ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where have you been?
S2. I've been to the movies.
S1. What did you see?
S2. I saw an Italian movie about life in Sicily.

Conversation B

S1. What places have you seen so far?
S2. I've been to almost all the museums.
S1. Have you gone to any parks yet?
S2. No, I haven't. I haven't had enough time for that.

Conversation C

S1. Let's meet at your house tonight.
S2. O.K. That sounds fine.
S1. I've forgotten how to get to your house.
S2. Just take the Tenth Street bus to Third Avenue.

Conversation D

S1. Let's watch television for a while.
S2: All right, but let's finish this work first.
S1. Oh, let's not do the work right now.
S2. You're just lazy, in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. I can't hear the television set.
S2. Why don't you sit closer?
S1. I'm right beside it now.
S2. Why don't you turn up the volume?

8. EVENING ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Let's go the movies tonight.
S2. Fine.I don't have anything else to do.
S1. What would you like to see?
S2. Why don't we look in the movie section of the newspaper?

Conversation B

S1. Where are you going tonight?
S2. I'm going to the political rally for Senator Smith.
S1. Sounds interesting. Can we go with you?
S2. Certainly. Meet me here at eight fifteen.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to go to the concert with me tonight?
S2. Yes. Thank you very much.
S1. Would you like to go at about eight o'clock?
S2. That would be fine.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What are you going to do tonight?
S2. I haven't decided yet.
S1. Would you like to go to the movies?
S2. Can I call you and tell you later?

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to go to the movies tonight?
S2. I'd rather stay home and watch television.
S1. Are there going to be any good programs tonight?
S2. Yes. There's going to be a good play on channel 4.

9. GENERAL ACTIVITIES/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1.Please sit down and talk to me.
S2.Are you (A)?
S1.Yes, I am. What are you doing?
S2.At the moment, I'm (B)

(A)	(B)
typing a letter	looking for some one
painting a picture	just walking around
reading the paper	waiting for a friend
watching television	just resting a bit
listening to a record	getting ready for dinner
working on something	doing my work
writing a report	practicing English with You
solving a puzzle	relaxing for a few minutes

Conversation Drill B

S1. What do you want to do tonight?
S2. Would you like to *(A)*?
S1. That would be nice.
S2. There's a good *(B)*

(A)	(B)
watch television	program on channel 3
go bowling with us	bowling alley nearby
see a movie	show at the corner theater
listen to the radio	comedy on station WXQZ
attend a concert	orchestra at the auditorium
hear some folk music	group of musicians at the Star Club
go to a play	play which just opened
look for paintings	art gallery on Eighth Street

10.MEETING AT THE TRAIN STATION/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I've got to go to the train station.
S2. What do you have to go for?
S1. To meet my cousin from Washington.
S2. Let me take you in my car.

Conversation B

S1. Did you get to the station on time?
S2. We did, but we were almost late.
S1. How close was it?
S2. We got on the train just as it was starting.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did your cousin arrive on time?
S2. No. He was an hour late.
S1. Did you meet him at the station?
S2. I was right there on the platform when the train came.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where's my bag?
S2. Here it is.
S1.Where's my briefcase?
S2. There it is-over there.

Conversation E

S1. Do you have your suitcases?
S2. I've got one of them with me.
S1. Where are the rest of them?

S2. I checked my two other ones at the baggage room.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

I've got to go to the train station.

I must	**I must go to the train station.**
have to	**I have to go to the train station.**
ought to	**I ought to go to the train station.**
should	**I should go to the train station.**
I'm supposed to	**I'm supposed to go to the train station.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A2 /

What do you have to go for? **Why do you have to go?**
What did you have to return for? **Why did you have to return?**
What are you going to leave for? **Why are you going to leave?**
What are you going back for? **Why are you going back?**
What will you do that for? **Why will you do that?**
What have you done it for? **Why have you done it?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A4 /

Please let me take you to your car. **Let me take you to your car**
Please let me carry your suitcase. **Let me carry your suitcase**
Please let me drive you to school. **Let me drive you to school**
Please let me help you with that. **Let me help you with that**
Please let me return the book for you **Let me return the book for you.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B1 /

Did you get to the station on time?

the airport **Did you get to the airport on time?**
late **Did you get to the airport late?**
arrive at **Did you arrive at the airport late?**
the theater **Did you arrive at the theater late?**
early **Did you arrive at the theater early?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B4 /

We got on the train just as it was starting.

the bus **We got on the bus just as it was starting.**
before it left **We got on the bus just before it left.**
the airplane **We got on the airplane just before it left.**
a minute or two early **We got on the airplane just a minute or two early.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line C1 /

Did your cousin arrive on time?

aunt **Did your aunt arrive on time?**
uncle **Did your uncle arrive on time?**
nephew **Did your nephew arrive on time?**
niece **Did your niece arrive on time?**
grandmother **Did your grandmother arrive on time?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C 1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

come **Did your cousin come on time?**
get there **Did your cousin get there on time?**
return **Did your cousin return on time?**
leave **Did your cousin leave on time?**
get back **Did your cousin get back on time?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

late	**Did your cousin arrive late?**
too late	**Did your cousin arrive too late?**
early	**Did your cousin arrive too early?**
before departure	**Did your cousin arrive before departure?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* C 1 /**

Did your cousin arrive on time?

uncle	**Did your uncle arrive on time?**
get back	**Did your uncle get back on time?**
early	**Did your uncle get back early?**
nephew	**Did your nephew get back early?**

***Exercise 10* / *Line* E2 /**

I've got one of them with me.

my suitcases	**I've got one of my suitcases with me.**
a couple	**I've got a couple of my suitcases with me.**
my packages	**I've got a couple of my packages with me.**
several	**I've got several of my packages with me.**
my things	**I've got several of my things with me.**

11. ASKING QUESTIONS AT THE TRAIN STATION / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How do you get home every day?
S2. I take the commuter train to Westport.
S1. Isn't it rather expensive going by train?
S2. No. I buy a twenty-trip commuter ticket each month.

Conversation B

S1. Can you give me some information?
S2. You're at the right place.
S1. I want to go to Washington.
S2. The next train leaves at four thirty.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How soon does the train leave?
S2. It leaves in ten minutes.
S1. Do I have time to check my bags?
S2. I don't think you do.

***Conversation* D**

S1.At what time does the next train leave for the city?
S2.There's one at four and another at four forty-five.
S1.What's the fare?
S2.It's eight fifty including tax.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How much is the fare to Miami?
S2. A hundred fifty dollars round trip.
S3. What time does the next train leave?
S4. one leaves at six thirty on track 31.

12.MEETING AT THE AIRPORT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.Where wm you meet your friends?
S2.I'll meet them at the airport
S1.When will they get there?
S2.I don't know yet.

Conversation B

S1. When are you meeting your friends?
S2. I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.
S1. How are they getting here?
S2. They're coming by air.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this Southwestern Airlines?
S2. Yes. May I help you?
S1. Can you tell me when flight 439 will arrive?
***S2.* One moment, please. I'll check.**

***Conversation* D**

S1. All the incoming flights are listed on that board.
S2. I see they expect Bill's flight to be twenty minutes late.
S1. Do they have an arrival gate listed?
S2. No. They'll probably list it about ten minutes before arrival.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Well! How was your trip?
S2. It was very smooth and fast.
S1. Could you see the mountains from the plane?
S2. Yes. The visibility was excellent all the way.

Exercise 1* / *Line AI /

Where will you meet your friends?

See	**Where will you *see* your friends?**
find	**Where will you find your friends?**
wait for	**Where will you wait for your friends?**
take	**Where will you take your friends?**
drive	**Where will you drive your friends?**
leave	**Where will you leave your friends?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A1 /

Where will you meet your friends?

cousin	**Where will you meet your cousin?**
relatives	**Where will you meet Your relatives?**
parents	**Where will you meet your parents?**
brother	**Where will you meet your brother?**
sisters	**Where will you meet your sisters?**
uncle	**Where did you meet your uncle?**
aunt	**Where did you meet your aunt?**

Exercise* .3 / *Line A1 /

Where will you meet your friends?

parents	**Where will you meet your parents?**
see	**Where will you see your parents?**
When	**When will you *see* your parents?**
cousins	**When will you see your cousins?**
get together with	**When will you get together with you cousins?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

I'll meet them at the airport.

You'll	**You'll meet them at the airport.**
We'll	**We'll meet them at the airport.**
She'll	**She'll meet them at the airport.**
They'll	**They'll meet them at the airport.**
He'll	**He'll meet them at the airport.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line A2 /

I'll met them at the airport.

the train station	**I'll meet them at the train station.**
the bus station	**I'll meet them at the bus station.**
the terminal	**I'll meet them at the terminal.**
the ticket window	**I'll meet them at the ticket window.**
the entrance	**I'll med them at the entrance.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line A2 /

I'll meet them at the airport.

the bus station	**I'll meet them· at the bus station.**
We'll	**We'll meet them at the bus station.**
wait for	**We'll wait for them at the bus station.**
the ticket window	**We'll wait for them at the ticket window .**
She'll	**She'll wait for them at the ticket window.**
see	**She'll see them at the ticket window.**

Exercise* 7 / *Lin B2
/
When are you meeting your friends?

seeing	**When are you seeing your friends?**

visitors	**When are you seeing your visitors?**
Where	**Where are you seeing your visitors?**
taking	**Where are you taking your visitors?**
guests	**Where are you taking your guests?**
Why	**Why are you taking your guests?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

eight oh-five	**I'm meeting them at eight oh-five tomorrow night.**
eight thirty	**I'm meeting them at eight thirty tomorrow night.**
a quarter to nine	**I'm meeting them at a quarter to nine tomorrow night**
ten to nine	**I'm meeting them at ten to nine tomorrow night.**
Midnight	**I'm meeting them at midnight tomorrow night.**

Exercise* 9 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

tomorrow morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow morning.**
Friday night	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Friday night.**
Friday morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Friday morning.**
tonight	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tonight.**
this morning	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock this morning.**

Exercise* 10 / *Line B2 /

I'm meeting them at eight o'clock tomorrow night.

Tuesday night	**I'm meeting them at eight o'clock Tuesday night.**
We're	**We're meeting them at eight o'clock Tuesday night.**
eight thirty	**We're meeting them at eight thirty Tuesday night.**
Her	**We're meeting her at eight thirty Tuesday night.**
Morning	**We're meeting her at eight thirty Tuesday morning.**

13.GETTING INFORMATION AT THE AIRPORT / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. At what time does the next plane to London leave?
S2. The next one is flight 12 at eleven fifty-five.
S1. What's the next one after that?
S2. Flight 21 at one oh-five.

Conversation B

S1. How often is there a flight to Paris?
S2. We have flights to Paris every hour.
S1. Are they nonstop flights
S2. Yes. Direct to Paris.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Could I make a reservation for flight 10 to Tokyo?
S2. I'm sorry, but everything is taken.
S1. How about the next flight-tomorrow at two o'clock?
S2. Yes. I can give you a reservation on that.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like to check in for the flight to New York.
S2. Fine. Do you have your ticket and passport?
S1. Yes. Here's my ticket, and I'll get out my passport.
S2. Would you please put your baggage on the scales?

Conversation E

S1. How long is the flight from New York to Washington?
S2. Well, supposedly an hour, but it's sometimes longer.
S1. How often are there flights to Washington from New York?
S2. There's. one every hour.

14. GETTING TO THE HOTEL / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What's a good hotel in this town?
S2. The Jefferson Hotel is good.
S1. How far is it from here?
S2. It's quite close-about four blocks.

Conversation B

S1. Where are you staying?
S2. We're staying at an excellent hotel.
S1. What's the name of the hotel?
S2. The Eastern Hotel.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How long will you be in New York?
S2. I'll be here about two weeks.
S1. Where are you going to stay?
S2. I'm going to stay at the Madison Hotel.

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like a single room) please.
S2. Do you want a room with a bath?
S1. Yes. please. Do you have one?
S2. Yes. We have one at ten dollars a day.

Conversation E

S1. I have a reservation 'for a room here.
S2. Yes. You're in room 341 on the third floor.
S1. Can I take the elevator over there?
S2. Yes, and turn right when you get off the elevator.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A1 /

What's a good restaurant in this town?

jewelry store	**What's a good jewelry store in this town?**
flower shop	**What's a good *flower* shop in this town?**
motel	**What's a' good motel in this town?**
barber shop	**What's a good barber shop in this town?**
dress shop	**What's a good dress shop in this town?**
clothing store	**What's a good clothing store in this town?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A1/

What's a good restaurant in this town?

city	**What's a good restaurant in this city?**
neighborhood	**What's a good restaurant in this neighborhood?**
area	**What's a good restaurant in this area?**
district	**What's a good restaurant in this district?**
near here	**What's a good restaurant near here?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A1 /

What's a good restaurant in this town?

hardware store	**What's a good hardware store in this town?**
area	**What's a good hardware store in this area?**
grocery store	**What's a good grocery store in this area?**
near here	**What's a good grocery store near here?**
jewelry store	**What's a good jewelry store near here?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A3 /

How far is it from here?

from here to the hotel	**How far is it from here to the hotel?**
How many blocks	**How many blocks is it from here to the hotel?**
from the station	**How many blocks is it from the station to the hotel?**
How many miles	**How many miles is it from the station to the hotel?**
to the next city	**How many miles is it from the station to the next city?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B2 /

We're staying at an excellent hotel.

living	**We're living at an excellent hotel.**
wonderful	**We're living at a wonderful hotel.**
resort	**We're living at a wonderful resort.**
vacationing	**We're vacationing at a wonderful resort.**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C 1 /**

How long will you be in New York?

at the conference	**How long will you. be at the conference?**
How many days	**How many days will you be at the conference?**
in Japan	**How many days will you be in Japan?**
weeks	**How many weeks will you be in Japan?**
on the boat	**How many weeks will you be on the boat?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C 4 /**

I'm going to stay at the Madison Hotel.

We're.	**We're going to stay at the Madison Hotel.**

Central Motel	**We're going to stay at the Central Motel.**
She's	**She's going to stay at the Central Motel.**
a friend's house	**She's going to stay at a friend's house.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D2 /**

Do you want a room with a bath?

without	**Do you want a room without a bath?**
prefer	**Do you prefer a room without a bath?**
with two baths	**Do you prefer a room with two baths?**
a suite	**Do you prefer a suite with two baths?**
Would you like	**Would you like a suite with two baths?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E2 /

You're in room 341 on the third floor.

576	**You're in room 576 on the fifth floor.**
777	**You're in room 777 on the seventh floor.**
894	**You're in room 894 on the eighth floor.**
1201	**You're in room 1201 on the twelfth floor.**

15. FINDING ONE'S HOTEL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where's the hotel, please?
S2. It's on Main Street.
S1. Where's that?
S2. It's the next street straight ahead.

Conversation B

S1. Can you tell me where the hotel is?
S2. It's in the next block.
S1. On this side or the other side?
S2. This side. Straight ahead of you.

Conversation C

S1. I want to go to the Beachside Hotel.
S2. Do you have a map?
S1. Yes, I do. Here it is
S2. The hotel is right there –at that intersection.

Conversation D

S1. Excuse me. I'm lost.
S2. Where do you live?
S1. I live at Royal Hotel.
S2. The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

Conversation E

S1. Can you help me, please?
S2. What's the matter?
S1. Where is the grand hotel on this map?
S2. It is right here-right next to the train station.

***Exercise* 1 / *Line* A1 /**

Where's the hotel, please?

the drugstore	**Where's the drugstore, please?**
the post office	**Where's the post office, please?**
the police station	**Where's "the police station, please?**
the library	**Where's the library, please?**
the center of town	**Where's the center of town, please?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

It's the next street straight ahead.

first	**It's the first street straight ahead.**
second	**It's the second street straight ahead.**
third	**It's the third street straight ahead.**
fourth	**It's the fourth street straight ahead.**
fifth	**It's the fifth street straight ahead.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A4 /

It's straight ahead.

around the corner	**It's around the corner.**
two blocks from here	**It's two blocks from here**
past the post office	**It's past the post office.**
near the library,	**It's near the library.**
right after the stoplight	**It's right after the stoplight.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* B1 /**

Where's the hotel?	**Can you tell me where the hotel is?**
Where's the drugstore?	**Can you tell me where the drugstore is?**
Where's the post office?	**Can you tell me where the post office is?**
Where's the police station?	**Can you tell me where the police station is?**
Where's the library?	**Can you tell me where the library is?**
Where's the center of town?	**Can you tell me where the center of town is?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Lines B2 and* C4 /**

The hotel is in the next block.

on Main Street	**The hotel is on Main Street.**
near the police station	**The hotel is near the police station**
across the street	**The hotel is across the street.**
three blocks away	**The hotel is three blocks away**
at the intersection	**The hotel is at the intersection**
by the post office	**The hotel is by the post office**
on Park Avenue	**The hotel is on Park Avenue**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C1 /**

I want to go to the Beachside Hotel.

the Central Drugstore	**I want to go to the Central Drugstore.**
the Memorial Library	**I want to go to the Memorial Library.**
Penny's Department Store	**I want to go to Penny's Department Store.**
the Park Avenue Pharmacy	**I want to go to the Park Avenue Pharmacy.**
the J. F. Kennedy Airport	**I want to go to the J. F. Kennedy Airport.**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

half a block	**The Royal Hotel is half a block that way.**

several blocks	The Royal Hotel is several blocks that way.
about ten blocks	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks that way.
some distance	The Royal Hotel is some distance that way
a five-minute walk	The Royal Hotel is a five-minute walk that way

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

down the street	The Royal Hotel is two blocks down the street.
up the street	The Royal Hotel is two blocks up the street.
in that direction	The Royal Hotel is two blocks in that direction
past the intersection	The Royal Hotel is two blocks past the intersection
the other way	The Royal Hotel is two blocks the other way.
north of here	The Royal Hotel is two blocks north of here

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* D4 /**

The Royal Hotel is two blocks that way.

several blocks	The Royal Hotel is several blocks that way
up the street	The Royal Hotel is several blocks up the street.
about ten blocks	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks up the street
in that direction	The Royal Hotel is about ten blocks in that direction.
a five-minute walk	The Royal Hotel is a five-minute walk in that direction

Exercise* 10 / *Line E3 /

Where's the Grand Hotel on this map?

the Central Drugstore	Where's the Central Drugstore on this map?
the Memorial Library	Where's the Memorial Library on this map?
Main Street	Where's Main Street on this map?
the Madison Motel	Where's the' Madison Motel on this map?
Greenwood Park	Where's Greenwood Park on this map?

16.ASKING DIRECTIONS/CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Where's the airlines office?

S2. It's near bus terminal--the Central Terminal.
S1. How far is that from here?
S2. About a half a mile, I think.

Conversation B

S1. Where's the post office?
S2. It's three blocks that way.
S1. What did you say?
S2. Three blocks up that street.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Where's airport?
S2. It's north of the city.
S1. What's the best way to get there?
S4. Take Highway 15 to the north.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What street is the local library on?
S2. I don't know.
S3. How can I find out?
S2. Why don't you ask a policeman?

Conversation E

S1. Where's is the nearest telephone?
S2. There's one in that drugstore.
S1. Do you mean that store over there?
S2. Yes. That's the one.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

Where's the airlines office?

the bus terminal	**Where's the bus terminal?**
the train station	**Where's the train station?**
the airport	**Where's the airport?**
the local library	**Where's the local library?**
the nearest hospital	**Where's the nearest hospital?**
the next bus stop	**Where's the next bus stop?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A4 /**

It's about a half a mile from here.

a quarter of a mile	**It's about a quarter of a mile from here.**
three quarters of a mile	**It's about three quarters of a mile from here**
2 miles	**It's about 2 miles from here.**
2 ½ miles	**It's about 21/2miles from here**
a little over 3 kilometers	**It's a little over 3 kilometers from here**

Exercise* 3 / *Line* D*1 /

What street is the local library on?

the post office	**What street is the post office on?**
the police station	**What street is the police station on?**
the bus depot	**What street is the bus depot on?**
the fire department	**What street is the fire department on?**
the nearest drugstore	**What street is the nearest drugstore on?**
the closest bus stop	**What street is the closest bus stop on?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D3 /**

How can I find out?

find that address	**How can I find that address?**
get that address	**How can I get that address?**
look up his address	**How can I look up his address**
locate the library	**How can' I locate the library?**
get to the library	**How can I get to the library?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D3 /**

How can I find out?

where it is	**How can I find out where it is?**
where it's located	**How can I find out where it's located?**
what street it's on	**How can I find out what street it's on?**
what district it's in	**How can I find out what district it's in?**
what part of the city it's in	**How can I find out what part of the city it's in?**
what area it's in	**How can I find out what area it's in?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* D3 /**

Where is it?	**How can I find out where it is?**
Where's the post office?	**How can I find out where the post office is?**
Where's it located?	**How can I find out where it's located?**
What street is it on?	**How can I find out what street it's on?**
What street is the library on?	**How can I find out what street the library is on?**
What district is it in?	**How can I find out what district it's in?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* D4 /**

Why don't you ask a policeman?

your friend	**Why don't you ask your friend?**
that man over there	**Why don't you ask that man over there?**
the bus driver	**Why don't you ask the bus driver?**
someone else	**Why don't you ask someone else?**
the conductor	**Why don't you ask the conductor?**
the owner of that store	**Why don't you ask the owner of that store?**

Exercise* 8 / *Line EI /

Where's the nearest telephone?

drugstore	**Where's the nearest drugstore?**
clothing store	**Where's the nearest clothing store?**
grocery store	**Where's the nearest grocery store?**
flower shop	**Where's the nearest flower shop?**
dress shop	**Where's the nearest dress shop?**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E2 /

There's one in that drugstore.

near the drugstore	**There's one near the drugstore.**
in the hotel lobby	**There's one in the hotel lobby.**
on the second floor	**There's one on the second floor.**
down the hallway	**There's one down the hallway.**
on the table over there	**There's one on the table over there.**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* E3 /**

Do you mean that store over there?

across the street	**Do you mean that store across the street?**
next to the train station	**Do you mean that store next to the train station?**
on the corner	**Do you mean that store on the corner?**
opposite the airlines office	**Do you mean that store opposite the airlines office?**
a block down the street	**Do you mean that store a block down the street?**

17.GETTING INFORMATION/CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I need some information.
S1. Go to that desk over there.
S2. Thank you very much.

Conversation B

S1. Can you help me, please?

S2. I'll try to.
S1. What's the best way to get to this address?
S2. I'm sorry, but I really don't know.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How can I get to that address?
S2. You can go by taxi.
S1. Isn't there any other way?
S2. Yes, by bus, but it's complicated.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do I get to the nearest subway station?
S2. It's two blocks up that street.
S1. Do you mean the street running that way?
S2. Yes. That's the one.

Conversation E

S1. Is this the right way to Grand Central Station?
S2. No. You're going the wrong way.
S1. Which way should I be going then?
S2. It's in that direction-about six blocks.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

I need some information,

a little	**I need a little information.**
Assistance	**I need a little assistance.**
I'd appreciate	**I'd appreciate a little assistance**
with this work	**I'd appreciate a little assistance with this work.**
some more	**I'd appreciate some more assistance with this work.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Go to that desk over there.

across the room	**Go to that desk across the room**
the counter	**Go to the counter across the room**
Walk	**Walk to the counter across the room**
opposite that door	**Walk to the counter opposite that door**
the office	**Walk to the office opposite that door**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* B3 /**

What's the best way to get to this address?

fastest	**What's the fastest way to get to this address?**
easiest	**What's the easiest way to get to this address-?**
quickest	**What's the quickest way to get to this address?**
shortest	**What's the shortest way to get to this address?**
least difficult	**What's the least difficult way to get to this address?**

***Exercise* 4 / Line B3 /**

What's the best way to get to this address?

the center of town	**What's the best way to get to the center of town?**
the local shopping center	**What's the best way to get to the local shopping center?**
the Central Hotel	**What's the best way to get to the Central Hotel?**
Eastern College	**What's the best way to get to Eastern College?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B3 /

What's the best way to get to this address:

Fastest	**What's the fastest way to get to this address?**
to the center of town	**What's the fastest way to get to the center of town?**
Drive	**What's the fastest way to drive to the center of town.**
Easiest	**What's the easiest way to drive to center of town?**
to the Central Hotel	**What's the easiest way to drive to the Central Hotel.**

Exercise 6* / *Line C2 /

You can go by taxi.

ought to	**You ought to go by taxi.**
by bus	**You ought to go by bus.**
There	**You ought to go there by bus.**
Should	**You should go there by bus.**
on the train	**You should go there on the train.**

***Exercise 7* / *line* D1 /**

How do I get to the subway station?

the bus depot	**How do I get to the bus depot?**
reach	**How do I reach the bus depot?**
Highway 16	**How do I reach Highway 16?**
find	**How do I find Highway 16?**
the baggage room	**How do I find the baggage room?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D2 /**

It's two blocks up that street.

a few	**It's a few blocks down that street.**
a short distance	**It's a short distance down that street.**
along the highway	**It's a short distance along the highway.**
several miles	**It's several miles along the highway.**

18.FINDING ONE’S WAY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.Pardon me. "Where's the Central Theater?
S2.It's in the next block-straight'- ahead.
S1.Thank You very much .
S2.That's all right.

Conversation B

S1. Where's the National Department Store?
S2. It’s down town-on Brown Street.
S1. Do you know the exact address?
S2. Yes. It's 521 Brown Street.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Can you tell me where the library is located?
S2. Yes. Do you see that church down the street'?

S1. Yes. It's quite easy to see with such a tall spire.
S2. Just turn left there and walk three blocks.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Are the instructions too complicated for you?
S2. Well, would you mind repeating them?
S1. I'd be glad to.
S2. I'd like to write them down this time.

Conversation E

S1. Can you tell me where the station is?
S2. Turn right and go four blocks.
S1. Would you mind repeating that?
S2. 1'd be glad to.

19. ASKING ABOUT BUSINESS / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. Where do I get the downtown bus?
S2. Walk straight ahead one block
S1. Thanks very much
S2. Don't mention it.

C*onversation* B

S1. Where does the bus stop?
S2. At the next corner.
S1. Does it go downtown?
S2. Only the number 5 bus goes downtown

C*onversation* C.

S1. Are there many bus stops along this street?
S2. Yes, there are. There are quite a few.
S1. Are they located at the corners?

S2. Most of them are, but a few aren't.

C*onversation* D

S1. How do I get to the station?
S2.Take the bus at the next corner.
S1. Do you know which bus I take?
S2. Watch for number 32.

C*onversation* E

S1. How much is the fare on this bus?
S2 It's fifteen cents.
S1. do I give the money to you.
S2. No just drop it in this machine.

20. TRAVELING BY BUS / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. Does this bus go into the city?
S2. Yes. Where do you want to go?
S1. I want to go to Harbor Heights.
S2. This is the right bus then.

Conversation B

S1. Does this bus go as far as Washington Square?
S2. No. You'll have to transfer.
S1. Where can I do it?
S2. You can get the Washington Square bus at the next corner.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this where I get off the bus?
S2. No. Not here-·at the next stop.
S1. Can I catch a taxi right there?
S2. Yes. There's a taxi stand right by the bus stop.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Excuse me, but how do I get to this address?
S2. Get off the bus at Water Street and Main.
S1. Thanks very much for your help.
S2. Don't mention it.

C*onversation E*

S1. Is West Street the next stop?
S2. I'm sorry, but I didn't understand you.
S1. Does the bus stop at West Street next?
S2. Yes. Right at the next corner.

21. GOING BY TAXI / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where are you going now?
S2. To the hotel.
S1. Are you going by bus or by taxi.
S2. Probably by taxi if I can get one.

Conversation B

S1. I need a taxi.
S2. The taxis are by the entrance.
S1. Thank you much.
S2. You're welcome.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Is this taxi taken?
S2. No. Where are you going?
S1. I'm going to the University Student Center.
S2. O.K. I know right where it is.

Conversation D

S1. How much is the fare?
S2. Two dollars and fifty cents.
S1. Here. Keep the change.
S2. Thank you very much

Conversation E

***S1.* It's raining very hard right now.**
S2. Why don't we get a taxi?
S1. That's a good idea.
S2. Now, I only hope we can find one.

22. TAKING A TRIP BY CAR / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you taking a trip today?
S2. Yes. We're going to Boston.
S1. It's a good day for the trip
S2. I'm glad the sun is shining

Conversation B

S1. How far is it from here to the coast?
S2. It's about 250 miles.
S1. How long does it take to get there by car?
S2. It takes about five hours.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How far is it to the next gas station?
S2. There's one two miles from here.
S1. Is there a place to eat there?
S2. Yes. There's a restaurant next to the station.

Conversation D

S1. What's the best way to Ocean City.
S2. The superhighway, but it's also the longest way.
S1. How much longer is it that way?
S2. About 10 or 12 miles.

Conversation E
S1. Are they going by way of North Plains?
S2. No. They aren't taking that route.
S1. How are they traveling then?
S2. They're driving directly to Ocean City.

23. TRAVEL PLANS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I have to take a trip by air next week.
S2. Do you like to fly?
S1. I don't know because I've never flown before.
S2. You'll probably like it very much.

***Conversation* B**

S1. I have to go home next week.
S2. How will you go-by car?
S1. I'll probably go by air.
S2. You'll get there very fast then.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are you going on a trip next Saturday?
S2. Yes. We're going to Boston.
S1. Are you flying or going by train?
S2. We're traveling by car.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How will you travel to Los Angeles?
S2. We'll go by plane.
S1. How long will it take?
S2. It'll take about five or six hours to get there.

Conversation E

S1. What time will you leave your house?
S2. I'll leave around seven thirty.
S1. How are you going to go~by train or by bus?
S2. Neither. I'm going to drive.

24. HOW DO I GET THERE? / CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation Drill A*

S1. Excuse me. Where's (A)
S2. It's (B)
S1. Thank you for the help.
S2. That's all right.

(A)	(B)
the rest room	down the hall
the post office	around the corner
the bus terminal	in the next block
the ticket office	by the main entrance

Conversation Drill B

S1. Where's the (A)?
S2. It's on this floor.
S1. How can I get there from here?
S2. (B)

(A)	(B)
reception desk	Turn left right over there
main office	Walk straight ahead.
Cafeteria	Go in the second door on the right
cashier's window	Just walk to the end of this hall.

Co*nversation Drill* C

S1. How do I get to the train station?
S2. Turn left (A)
S1. How far is it (B)?
S2. It's about a quarter of a mile.

(A)	(B)
at the second stoplight	to the stoplight
in the center of town	to the center
at the next intersection	to the intersection
at Main Street	to Main Street
by the bus depot	to the depot

25. ASKING THE TIME / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What time do you have?
S2. It's ten o'clock sharp.
S1. Thanks a lot.
S2. Don't mention it.

Conversation B
S1. What's the time?
S2. It's almost eight.
S1. Do you have the exact time?
S2. Yes, it's two minutes to eight.

Conversation C

S1. Excuse me. What time is it?
S2. Its a quarter of two.
S1. I guess my watch is slow then.
S2. Well, I know mine isn't fast.

***Conversation* D**
S1. What time is it right now?
S2. It's a five twenty five.
S1. I've got five thirty five.
S2. You're ten minutes fast then.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Do you have the correct time?
S2. Yes. It's two minutes to three.
S1. Are you sure your watch is right?
S2. It may be a few minutes slow.

Exercise* 1/ *Line B2 /

It's almost eight thirty.

about	**It's about eight thirty.**
just about	**It's just about eight thirty.**
around	**It's around eight thirty.**
close to	**It's close to eight thirty.**
nearly	**It's nearly eight thirty.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* D2 /**

It's five o'clock.	**Is it five o'clock?**
It's five fifteen.	**Is it five fifteen?**
It's a quarter after five.	**Is it a quarter after five?**
It's twenty after five.	**Is it twenty after five?**

It's five twenty-five. **Is it five twenty-five?**
It's five thirty. **Is it five thirty?**
It's twenty to six: **Is it twenty to six?**
It's five forty-five. **Is it five forty-five?**
It's a quarter to six. **Is it a quarter to six?**
It's ten to six. **Is it ten to six?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines D2,D3,*D4 /**

It's five o'clock, but I've got five ten **You're ten minutes fast then.**
It's five o'clock, but I've got ten to five **You're ten minutes slow then.**
It's five fifteen, but I've got five twelve **You're three minutes slow then.**
It's five twenty-five, but I've got five thirty **You're five minutes fast then**
It's five to six, but I've got five forty-five **You're ten minutes fast then**

Exercise* 4 / *Line E3 /

Is your watch right? **Are you sure your watch is right?**
Is your watch wrong? **Are you sure-your watch is wrong?**
Is your watch slow? **Are you sure your watch is slow?**
Is your watch fast? **Are you sure your watch is fast?**
Is your watch correct? **Are you' Sure your watch is correct?**

26. ASKING THE TIME(2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What time is it now?
S2. I don't have my watch on right now.
S1. Is there a clock around here?
S2. There's one in the next room.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Do you have the right time?
S2. I was just going to ask you the same question.
S1. My watch has stopped.
S2. I forgot to wear mine.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you have any idea of the time?
S2. I don't know exactly, but it's after nine.
S1. It was nine o'clock when I got here.
S2. Well, I'm sorry I can't help you.

***Conversation* D**

S1. At what time is the meeting?
S2. Eight o'clock.
S1. Be there at eight o'clock sharp, then.
S2. I'll try to get there before eight.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How often does this station give the news?
S2. Every hour on the hour.
S1. When do they announce the weather?
S2. Ten minutes to and ten minutes after the hour.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2/

I don't have my watch on right now.

coat	**I don't have my coat on right now.**
hat	**I don't have my hat on right now.**
shoes	**I don't have my shoes on right now.**
Sweater	**I don't have my sweater on right now.**
wristwatch	**I don't have my wristwatch on right *now.***

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

in this room	**Is there a clock in this room?**
in the other foam	**Is there a clock in the other room?**
in this building	**Is there a clock in this building?**
on the table	**Is there a clock on the table?**
on the wall	**Is there a clock on the wall?**
near this room	**Is there a clock near this room?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

a big clock	Is there a big clock around here?
an electric clock	Is there an electric clock around here?
a wall clock	Is there a wall clock around here?
any clocks	Are there any clocks around here?
any wall clocks	Are there any wall clocks around here?

Exercise* 4 / *Line A3 /

Is there a clock around here?

in the other room	Is there a clock in the other room?
Electric	Is there an electric clock in the other room?
in this building	Is there an electric clock in this building?
Clocks	Are there electric clocks in this building?
any	Are there any electric clocks in this building?
around here	Are there any electric clocks around here?

Exercise* 5 / *Line B1 /

Do you have the time?

Right	Do you have the right time?
have any idea of	Do you have any idea of the right time?
know the right time	Do you know the right time?
Correct	Do you know the correct time?
right now	Do you know the correct time right now?
exact	Do you know the exact time right now?

Exercise* 6 / *Line B2 /

I was just going to ask you the same question.

the time	I was just going to ask you the time.
tell	I was just going to tell you the time.
Preparing	I was just preparing to tell you the time.
it's twelve o'clock	I was just preparing to tell you it's twelve o'clock.
a quarter to one	I was just preparing to tell you it's a quarter to one.

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C3 /**

It was nine o'clock when I got here.

about	It was about nine o'clock when I got here.
three twenty	It was about three twenty when I got here.
arrived	It was about three twenty when I arrived here.
at the office	It was about three twenty when I arrived at the office.
sharp	It was three twenty sharp when I arrived at the office.

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* D1 /**

At what time is the meeting?

the lecture	At what time is the lecture?
the conference	At what time is the conference?
the party	At what time is the party?

the concert	**At what time is the concert?**
the football game	**At what time is the football game?**
the program	**At what time is the program?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* D 1 /**

At what time is the meeting?

At what time of the day	**At what time of the day is the meeting?**
On what day	**On what day is the meeting?**
On what day of the week	**On what day of the week is the meeting?**
In what month	**In what month is the meeting?**
In what month of the year	**In what month of the year is the meeting?**

Exercise 10 / Line D1 /

At what time is the meeting?

the lecture	**At what time is the lecture?**
At what time of the day	**At what time of the day is the lecture?**
the conference	**At what time of the day is the conference?**
On what day	**On what day is the conference?**
the party	**On what day is the party?**

Exercise 11 / Line D1 /

The meeting is at eight.	**At what time is the meeting?**
At what time is the meeting?	**It's at eight**
The lecture is on Tuesday.	**On what day is the lecture?**
On what day is the lecture?	**It's on Tuesday**
The conference is in June.	**In what month is the conference?**
In what month is the conference?	**It's in June**
The party is at seven thirty.	**At-what Time is the party?**
At what time is the party?	**It's at seven thirty**
The football game is on Friday.	**On what day is the football game?**
Oh what day is the football game?	**It's on Friday.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D3 /**

Be there at eight o'clock sharp, then.

at eight thirty	**Be there at eight thirty sharp, then.**
exactly at noon	**Be there exactly at noon, then.**
before three o'clock	**Be there before three o'clock, then.**
around ten fifteen	**Be there around ten fifteen, then.**
about four thirty or five	**Be there about four thirty or five, then.**

Exercise* 13 / *Line E1/

This station gives the news.	**How often does this station give the news?**
This station announces the weather	**How often does this station announce the weather?**
This station gives concerts.	**How often does this station give concerts?**
This station announces traffic conditions	**How often does this station announce traffic conditions?**
This station gives plays.	**How often does this station give plays?**

Exercise **14** / *Line E3 /*

This station gives the news.	**When does this station give the news?**
This station announces the weather.	**When does this station announce the weather?**
This station gives concerts.	**When does this station give concerts?**
This station announces traffic conditions.	**When does this station announce traffic conditions?**
This station gives plays.	**When does this station give plays?**

27. GOING BY THE CLOCK / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation **A**

S1. When is your first class?
S2. At ten after nine.
S1. When do you get back here, then?
S2. About ten to twelve.

Conversation **B**

S1. Alice will be back in ten or fifteen minutes.
S2. How long has she been out of the office?
S1. She's been out since ten 0'clock.
S2. Then she's been out for an hour or more.

Conversation **C**

S1. I got to the cafeteria around noon.
S2. I was there, but I didn't see you.

S1. I think I left a few minutes after twelve.
S2. I must have just missed you, then.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Our friends Will meet us here.
S2. Will they come here right after lunch?
S1. No. They won't be here until three o'clock.
S2. Then I'll come a little before three.

***Conversation* E**

S1. Let's call Mary.
S2. Let's not call her right now.
S1. Maybe this is a bad time to call.
S2. Let's wait until seven or seven thirty.

28. ARRIVING EARLY OR LATE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'm afraid we're going to be late.
S2. How much time is there left?
S1. We've got about thirty or forty minutes.
S2. That should be plenty of time.

Conversation B

S1. Whom are you waiting for?
S2. We're wafting for our friend.
S1. What are you looking so angry for?
S2. Because she's twenty minutes late already.

C*onversation* C

S1. Aren't we going to be late for the meeting?
S2. No. I think we'll be on time.
S1. Well, I want to be there in time to get a good seat.
S2. The meeting doesn't start for another twenty minutes.

Conversation **D**

S1. Isn't Harry here yet?
S2. Here he comes now.
S1. Eight forty-five. Late as usual.
S2. Well, we can still get to school on time.

Conversation E

S1. Are we late or not?
S2. No. In fact we're early according to my watch.
S1. Hadn't we better go inside?
S2. All right, but we're really about a half an hour early.

29. WATCHES AND THE TIME / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Could you tell me the time, please?
S2. Certainly. It's (A)
S1. My watch says (B)
S2. Then your watch is (C)

(A)	(B)	(C)
3:10	five after three	five minutes slow
4:15	four twenty	five minutes fast
12:45	eighteen to one	three minutes slow
9:05	nine oh-five	right on time
1:30	one o'clock	half an hour off
7:55	five after seven	ten minutes off
2:00	one 0'clock	an hour behind
8:45	twelve fifteen	not operating

Conversation Drill B

S1. Where's your brother?
S2. I think he s (A) now.
S1. Will he come back here (B)?
S2. Yes. I think so.

(A)	(B)
at the store	very soon
at work	before five 0'clock
at his office	at the usual time
at school	within an hour
at the library	in the afternoon
at church	at six fifteen
at the factory	in time for dinner
at home	in an hour or so

30.TIME AND THE CALENDAR / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. When does February have twenty-nine clays?
S2. In leap year.
S1. How often is there a leap year?
S2. Every fourth year.

***Conversation* B**

S1. How many days are there in leap year?
S2. There are three hundred and sixty-six.
S1. How many weeks are there in a year?
S2.There are fifty-two weeks a year.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What are the seasons in this country?
S2. Winter, spring, summer, and fall.
S1. How months are there in a season?
S2. There are three months in each season.

***Conversation* D**

S1.Today is the first day of spring.
S2. I didn't realize it.
S1. Aren't you glad it's here?
S2. I'm always glad when winter is over.

***Conversation* E**

S1.The weather is perfect today, isn't it?
S2.Yes.I like this season of the year very much.
S1.Most people like this season best of all, don't they?
S2.Well, I'm sure a lot of people do.

Exercise 1 / Lines B1-B4, G3, C4 /

How many days are there in a year?	**There are three hundred and sixty-five.**
How many weeks are there in a year?	**There are fifty-two.**
How many months are there in a year?	**There are twelve.**
How many seasons are there in a year?	**There are four**
How many months are there in a season?	**There are three.**
How many days are there in a week?	**There are seven**
How many days are there in June?	**There are thirty.**
How many days are there in October?	**There are thirty-one.**
How many years are there in a decade?	**There are ten**
How many years are there in a century?	**There are one hundred.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* D 1 /**

Today is the first day of spring.

Yesterday	**Yesterday was the first day of spring**
Tomorrow	**Tomorrow .will be the first day of spring.**
Last Friday	**Last Friday was the first day of spring.**
Next Thursday	**Next Thursday will be the first day of spring.**
This coming Monday	**This coming Monday will be the First day of spring.**

***Exercise 3*J / *Line* D 1 /**

Today is the first day of spring.

summer	**Today is the first day of summer.**
winter	**Today is the first day of winter.**
September	**Today is the first day of September.**
the new year	**Today-is the first day of the new year.**
our summer vacation	**Today is the first day or our Summer vacation.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D4 /**

When is winter over?	**It's over about March twenty-first.**
Are you glad then?	**I'm always glad when winter is over.**
When is spring over?	**It's over about June twenty-first.**
Are you sorry then?	**I'm always sorry when spring is over.**
When is summer over?	**It's over about September twenty- first.**
Are you glad then?	**I'm always glad when summer is over.**
When is fall over?	**It's over about December twenty-first.**
Are you sorry then?	**I'm always sorry when fall is over.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E1 /

The weather is perfect today, isn't it?

terrible	**The weather is terrible today, isn't it?**
wonderful	**The weather is wonderful today, isn't it?**
awful	**The weather is awful today, isn't it?**
unusual	**The weather is unusual today, isn't it?**
unusually nice	**The weather is unusually nice today, isn't it?**

Exercise* 6 / *Line E1 /

Today is very warm, isn't it?	**Today isn't very warm, is it?**
Today is very cold, isn't it?	**Today isn't very cold, is it?**
Today is very hot, isn't it?	**Today isn't very hot, is it?**
Today is very cool, isn't it?	**Today isn't very cool, is it?**
Today is very humid, isn't it?	**Today isn't very humid, is it?**
Today is very clear, isn't it?	**Today isn't very clear, is it?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* E3 /**

Most people like this season best of all, don't they?

A lot of people	**A lot of people like this season best of all, don't they?**

Some people	**Some people like this season best of all, don't they?**
A few 'people	**A few people like this season best of all, don't they?**
Few people	**Few people like this season best of all, do they?**
Not many people	**Not many people like this season best of all, do they?**

31.DAYS,DATES,AND SEASON / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What day is today?

S2. It's (A) today.
S1. What's the date?
S2. It's (B)

(A)	(B)
Tuesday	March fifteenth
Thursday	October twenty-first
Wednesday	the third of August
Sunday	September thirtieth
Friday	the fourteenth of December

Conversation Drill B

S1. I know about the seasons in the United States now.
S2. Then when does (A) begin?
S1. It begins in (B)
S2. That's right. It begins in (B)

(A)	(B)
spring	March
fall	September
summer	June
winter	December

Conversation Drill C

S1.I'm familiar with the seasons already.
S2. What are the names of the (A)
S1. They're (B)
S2. Right. (B) are the (A) months

(A)	(B)
summer	June, July, and August
spring	March, April, and May
winter	December, January, and February
fall	September, October, and November

32. LIVING IN AN APARTMENT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What floor is your apartment on?
S2. It's on the third floor.
S1. Is the building a walk-up?
S2. No. It has a small elevator.

Conversation B

S1. How large is your apartment?
S2. It has four and a half rooms.
S1. Then you have two bedrooms .
S2. Right. A living room, a kitchen, two bedrooms, and a bath.

Conversation C

S1. Is this your apartment?
S2. Yes, it is.
S1. How many bedrooms do you have?
S2. Two big ones and one small one.

Conversation D

S1. What's a cooperative apartment?
S2. In a cooperative, you actually buy the apartment.
S1. Just as you would buy a house?
S2. Yes. Then you only pay maintenance costs each month.

Conversation E

S1. Do you like your new apartment?
S2. Yes. I like the service in the building, too.
S1. Are there doormen and guards?
S2. Yes, and the building is close to the shopping areas.

33.LIVING IN A HOUSE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How much did you pay for your house?
S2. It cost eighteen thousand dollars, and we've spent another two thousand on repairs.
S1. Did you have trouble getting a mortgage?
S2. No. We paid four thousand dollars, and the bank lent us the rest.

Conversation B

81. Do you prefer a one-story or a two-story house?
S2. One-story, I think.
S1. I do too, because there are no stairs to climb.
S2. But one-story houses take more land.

Conversation C

S1. Your house is very large.
S2. Yes. We have enough room for guests now.
S1. Our house is too small.
S2. You don't have enough room, do you?

Conversation D

S1. Where's the bathroom?
S2. The bathroom is opposite that big bedroom.
S1. Is this the kitchen?
S2. Yes. It's a big kitchen, isn't it?

Conversation E

S1. I enjoy having a house in the suburbs.
S2. It's wonderful to have trees and a big yard.
S1. The children can play outside most of the time.
S2. And it's so much cleaner here than in the city.

34.USING THE TELEPHONE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could you give me the number of the Best Bag Company?
S2. Is that in the city or in the suburbs?
S1. In the city. On the tenth street.
S2. Just a moment, please.

Conversation B

S1. What is the telephone number of Pan-Eastern Airways?
S2. Just a moment, please.
S1. Thank you Operator.
S2. That number is Hillside 6-7600.

Conversation C

S1. I'd Like to speak to Bob, Please.
S2. What number are you calling?
S1. M-U-one- four-three-seven -six.
S2. Sorry. You've got the wrong number.

Conversation D

S1. May I speak to the director, please?
S2.Who's calling, please?
S1. Tell him it's his friend from California.
S2. Just a Moment please

Conversation E

S1. I'd like to speak to Mr. Bush, Please.
S2. May I ask who is calling, Please?
S1. Tell him it's his assistant.
S2. Please hold the line while I see if he's in.

35.GETTING HELP IN STORES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you wish some assistance?
S2. Yes. How much is that pen?
S1. This one or that one?
S2. The one next to the black one.

Conversation B

S1. May I help you?
S2. Yes. I'd like to look at pens.
S1. Certainly. Fountain pens or ball-point pens?
S2. I'm looking for a good fountain pen.

Conversation C

S1. Could you help me, please?
S2. What can I do for you?
S1. Could I look at the wristwatch in this case?
S2. Just one moment, please, while I get the key.

Conversation D
S1. Hello. Are you waited on?
S2. No. I'd like a ream of typing paper, please.
S1. Will there be anything else?
S2. No. I believe that's all, thank you.

Conversation E

S1. Is someone helping you?
S2. I beg your pardon?
S1. Could I help you with anything?
S2. No, thanks. Someone is already waiting on me.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

Do you wish some assistance?

want	**Do you want some assistance?**
help	**Do you want some help?**
Would you like	**Would you like some help?**
advice	**Would you 'like some advice?**
care for	**Would you care for some advice?**

Exercise 2 / Line A2 /

How much is that pen?	**How much does that pen cost?**
How much are those dishes?	**How much do those dishes cost?**
How much is that briefcase?	**How much does that briefcase cost?**
How much are those gloves?	**How much do those gloves cost?**

How much is that alarm clock? **How much does that alarm clock cost?**
How much are those glasses? **How much do those glasses cost?**

Exercise* 3/ *Line A2 /

How much does that pen cost? **What does that pen cost?**
How much do those dishes cost? **What do those dishes cost?**
How much does that briefcase cost? **What does that briefcase cost?**
How much do those gloves cost? **What do those gloves cost?**
How much does that alarm clock cost? **What does that alarm clock cost?**
How much do those glasses cost? **What do those glasses cost?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

How much is that pen? **What does that pen cost?**
How much are those glasses? **What do those glasses cost?**
How much is that billfold? **What does that billfold cost?**
How much are those two ashtrays? **What do those two ashtrays cost?**
How much is that small vase? **What does that small vase Cost?-**

Exercise5/ Line A4 /

I mean the one next to the black one.

Beside **I mean the one beside the black one.**
close to **I mean the one close to the black one**
behind **I mean the one behind the black one.**
in front of **I mean the one in front of the black one**
opposite **I mean the one opposite the black one.**
Near **I mean the one near the black one.**
Under **I mean the one under the black one.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B2 /

I'd like to look at pens. **May I look at your pens?**
1'd like to look at cameras. **May I look at your cameras?**
I'd like to look at billfolds. **May I look at your billfolds?**
I'd like to look at watches. **May I look at your watches?**
1'd like to look at suitcases. **May I look at your suitcases?**
I'd like to look at suits. **May I look at your suits?**
I'd like to look at overcoats. **May I look at your overcoats?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B4 /

I'm looking for a good fountain pen.

expensive **I'm looking for an expensive fountain pen.**
wristwatch **I'm looking for an expensive wristwatch.**
cheap **I'm looking for a cheap wristwatch.**
camera **I'm looking for a cheap camera.**
small **I'm looking for a small camera.**
Practical **I'm looking for a practical camera.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line C1 /

Could you help me, please?

Assist	**Could you assist me, please?**
Would	**Would you assist me, please?**
ad vise	**Would you advise me, please?**
Can	**Can you advise me, please?**
wait on me	**Can you wait on me, please?**
take care of	**Can you take care of me please?**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* C3 /**

Could I look at the wristwatch in this case?

gold pen	**Could I look at the gold pen in this case?**
in the black box	**Could I look at the gold pen in the black box?**
small camera	**Could I look at the small camera in the black box?**
on the shelf	**Could I look at the small camera on the shelf?**
black leather billfold	**Could I look at the black leather, billfold on the shelf?**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* D2 /**

I'd like a ream of typing paper, please.

a pad of drawing paper	**I'd like a pad of drawing paper, please.**
a packet of lined paper	**I'd like a packet of lined paper, please.**
a bottle of ink	**I'd like a bottle of ink, please.**
a box of paper clips	**I'd like a box of paper clips, please.**
a box of stationery	**I'd like a box of stationery, please.**

36. GOING SHOPPING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What store did you go to yesterday?
S2. I went to the Central Department Store.
S1. Do they have a good variety of things to choose from?
S2. They have lots to choose from, but it's all very expensive.

***Conversation* B**

S1. What were you doing at that department store?
S2. I was shopping for a new suitcase.
S1. What was your friend doing there?
S2. She was trying to find a coat.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I have to go shopping.
S2. Do you know what you're going to buy?
S1. Not yet, but I hope to after shopping.
S2. J hate to go shopping, but I guess it's necessary.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What time do the stores close?
S2. Most of them close at six o'clock.
S1. Do we still have time to go shopping?
S2. Yes. It's only four fifteen now.

Conversation E

S1. It seems I always have to buy a lot of things.
S2. It always seems that way to me too.
S1. I always need so many little things.
S2. They add up to a lot of money, don't they?

37.TALKING ABOUT SHOPPING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where do you do your shopping?
S2. I usually start at the Central Department Store.
S1. What do you think of their selection?
S2. They have a good selection, and their prices are low, too.

Conversation B

S1. They're having a big sale at the Greenfield Shopping Center.
S2. Anything in particular on sale?
S1. Well, they advertised linens and house furnishings.
S2. I suppose there'll be crowds or people in the store.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I spent the afternoon shopping for clothes.
S2. How did you make out?
S1. Well, I found an excellent raincoat, and I bought some shoes.
S2. That reminds me that I have to go shopping soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where did you buy your coat?
S2. I bought it at the Fifth Avenue Store-but a long time ago.
S1. About how much did it cost?
S2. At the moment, I've forgotten how much it cost.

Conversation E

S1. Why did you choose the green one?
S2. To ten the truth, I really didn't have much choice in my size.
S1. Excuse my asking, but how much did you pay for it?
S2. It was on sale, and I paid only forty-five dollars.

38. SHOPPING FOR CLOTHES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What would you like to see?
S2. 1'd like to see your overcoats, please.
S1. What kind of overcoats would you like to see?
S2. 1'd like to see your winter overcoats-probably wool.

Conversation B

S1. 1'd like to look at your sweaters, if I could.
S2. Certainly. Any particular style?
S1. Could I see some of the new styles, please?
S2. Of course. Please step right this way.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I'm interested in seeing your summer suits.
S2. What color did you have in mind?
S1. White, or some light color, I think
S2. Step over to this other-room with me, would you please?

***Conversation* D**

S1. That jacket you have on now seems to fit you very well.
S2. What kind of material is this?
S1. It's a mixture-cotton and wool.
S2. I'm not sure it's heavy enough for the fall weather.

Conversation E

S1. Here's a very popular kind of sport coat-the most recent thing.
S2. I notice there isn't much padding in the shoulders.
S1. No. It has a natural shoulder line.
S2. I like the narrow lapels and the stitching on them.

39. ASKING ABOUT PRICES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**
S1. How much does this pen cost?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S3. How much is this pen cost?
S4. It's four dollars and fifty cents.

***Conversation* B**

S1. How much is this leather billfold?
S2. It's five twenty-five
S3. Does that include the tax?
S4. It's five forty four including tax.

***Conversation* C**

S1. This briefcase costs five fifty.
S2. That's fine. I'll take it.
S1. Will there be anything else?
S2. I don't believe so; thank you.

Conversation D

S1. We're having a sale on leather goods today
S2. Are office supplies on sale too?
S3. Yes. Prices have been reduced from 20 to 40 percent.
S4. I notice the sale prices are marked in red ink.

Conversation E

S1. How much are these things all together?
S2. Let's see. That'll be twenty-one fifty.
S1. I'd like to change them to my account, please.
S2. Fine. Could you give me your name & address

Exercise 1 / Lines A1, B1, C1 /

How much does this pen cost?	It cost two dollars.
How much do these-bookends cost?	They cost two dollars
How much does that notebook cost?	It costs two dollars.
How much do those brushes cost?	They cost two dollars
How much does this stationery cost?	It costs two dollars.

Exercise 2 / Lines A4, B4, C1 /

It's four fifty-nine.	It costs four dollars and fifty-nine cents.
They're two fifty.	They cost two dollars and fifty cents.
It's seven eighty-five.	It costs seven dollars and eighty-five cents.
They're nine sixty-seven.	They cost nine dollars and sixty-seven cents.
They're twelve seventy.	They cost twelve dollars and seventy cents.
It's twenty-five fifty.	It costs twenty-five dollars and fifty cents.

Exercise 3 / Lines A4, B4, C1 /

What's ten fifty plus forty-nine?	**It's ten ninety-nine.**
What's two seventy-five plus ten?	**It's two eighty-five.**
What's six thirty-nine plus twenty?	**It's six fifty-nine.**
What's three eighty plus eighteen?	**It's three ninety-eight.**
What's sixty-nine plus eight?	**It's seventy seven.**
What's one twenty plus eight twenty?	**It's nine forty.**

Exercise 4 / Line D 1 /

We're having a sale on leather goods today.

summer clothing	**We're having a sale on summer clothing today.**
home furniture	**We're having a sale on home furniture today.**
kitchen items	**We're having a sale on kitchen items today.**
household supplies	**We're having a sale on household supplies today.**
dinnerware	**We're having a sale on dinnerware today.**

40. HOW MUCH DOES IT COST / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How much are your potatoes, sir?
S2. Twenty-five cents a pound.
S1. How much would five pounds cost?
S2. Five pounds would be a dollar and a quarter.

Conversation B

S1. What does that gold pin cost?
S2. It's twenty-one dollars plus tax.
S1. How much for the small one next to it?
S2. That one costs twelve fifty.

Conversation C

S1. What's the regular price for that refrigerator?
S2. The list price is two hundred forty.
S1. Are you selling it at a discount?
S2. Yes. The discount price is one ninety-nine.

Conversation D

S1. What are you asking for that antique mirror?
S2. That's one hundred fifty dollars.
S1. Isn't that rather expensive?
S2. Not really. Mirrors of that type are quite rare.

Conversation E

S1. What would it cost to have this chair repaired?
S2. I'd estimate sixty to seventy dollars
S3. How much would it cost to replace it with a new one?
S2. Probably around a hundred dollars.

41. MONEY PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Can you come along with us tomorrow?
S2. I think I can borrow enough money to go.

S1. Why couldn't you go last Thursday?
S2. Because I couldn't afford it.

Conversation B

S1. How much money do you have?
S2. Not very much.
S1. Do you have many dollar bills?
S2. Not very many, I'm afraid.

Conversation C

S1. You look upset about something.
S2. I think I've lost my money.
S1. Oh, that's what's bothering you.
S2. It's a good reason to be upset, isn't it?

Conversation D

S1. Are you sure you lost your money?
S2. I'm sure did.
S1. Would you please look again?
S2. I will, but I'm sure it's not here.

Conversation E

S1. How many pennies did you have in your bank?
S2. I had exactly five hundred of them.
S1. What did you do with them?
S2. I put them in rolls of fifty pennies each.

42. TALKING ABOUT MONEY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you made very much money this year?
S2. Not an awful lot.
S1. How hard have you tried?
S2. Not as hard as I could have, I'm afraid.

Conversation B

S1. **How much did you make this week?**
S2. Sixty two dollars
S1. Is that your take-home pay?
S2. Yes, it is.

Conversation C

S1 **. I've got to pay a lot of bills.**
S2 And I've got to pay my rent today.
S1. Money goes very fast these days, doesn't it?
S2. It certainly does.

Conversation D

S1. Did you sell your car.?
S2. Yes. I sold it my Friend Bob.
S1. Did you put the money in the bank?
S2. I deposited part of it and spent the rest.

Conversation E

S1. Do you have an account at that bank?
S2. I've got a special checking account
S1. How much do you have to keep in the account?
S2. There's no minimum.

43. LENDING AND BORROWING MONEY / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could you lend me a dollar until tomorrow?
S2. I can if you have change for a five
S1. I wish I did, but I don't
S2. Well, we can get it changed easily.

Conversation B

S1. I need about ten dollars.
S2. What do you need it for?
S3. I need it for books and supplies.
S2. O.K. I'll end it to you.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Could I borrow some money from you for a few days?
S2. How much do you need? .
S1. Could you spare four or five dollars?
S2. Yes, but I'll need the money myself before next week.

***Conversation* D**

S1.What did you need the money for yesterday?
S2. I wanted it for a new suit.
S1. Did you get the money?
S2. Yes. I borrowed it from a friend.

Conversation E

S1. How much change have you got?
S2. Two quarters, two nickels, and a dime.
S1. That's not enough to change this dollar bill.
S2. I'll lend you all of this change if you want *It.*

44.AT THE POST OFFICE / CONVERSATIONS

45. AT THE GROCERY STORE / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How much are the potatoes?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. How much do the potatoes cost?
S2. Fifteen cents a pound.

Conversation B

S1. I'd like a bag of onions and a jar of olives.
S2. Do you need fruit-apples, lemons, plums?
S1. Perhaps a box of cherries and a bunch of grapes.
S2. I'll put all this in a box with your other groceries.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I forgot to buy some rice.
S2. How much do you want?
S1. Would you please get me two pounds?
S2. All right. A two-pound bag.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Don't you need milk or cream?
S2. Yes. Let's get a pint of cream and two quarts of mille
S1. We can get a two-quart container.
S2. Let's get some sour cream too.

Conversation E

S1. Please give me two bottles of milk.
S2. All of our milk is in cartons.
S1. Cartons are all right, but I prefer bottles.
S2. Cartons are more convenient, and there's a deposit on bottles.

46. SHOPPING FOR GROCERIES / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What do you call a big grocery store like this?
S2. It's called a "supermarket"
S1. It's convenient to see everything and pick out what you want.
S2. Having these carts to put things in is convenient too.

Conversation B

S1. How about fish tonight-salmon, tuna fish, trout?
S2. I notice the clams and oysters are fresh today.
S1. That sounds very good.
S2 Let's also get a pork roast or turkey for tomorrow.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Now we have sugar, salt, pepper, and flour.
S2. We also need mustard, vinegar, and cinnamon.
S1. I'll get those while you get the cabbage and celery.
S2. Fine. I'll meet you at the check-out counter.

***Conversation* D**

S1. *Would* you please get me a bag of sugar?
S2. Do you want two or five pounds?
S1. A two-pound bag will be all right.
S2. O.K. I'll meet you at the canned-food counter.

Conversation E

S1 How many eggs should we get?
S2. Two dozen should be enough.
S1. How much butter do you think we need?
S2. One pound is enough, don't you think?

47. IDENTIFYING PEOPLE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you Dr. Taylor?
S2. No. That tall fellow is Dr. Taylor.
S1. Do you mean the one over there with glasses?
S2. Yes. The one with brown hair.

Conversation B

S1. Who's that very handsome man?
S2. What did you say?
S1. Do you know who that man over there is?
S2. If you mean the thin, rather dark man, that's Mr. Walker.

Conversation **C**

S1. Do you recognize the girl talking to Mr. Brown?
S2. Of course I know the girl he's talking to.
S1. Well then, whom is he talking to?
S2. That's Dorothy Jones, Mary's good friend.

Conversation **D**

S1. What's that man's name-the man that's holding the briefcase?
S2. I know, but I can't remember it right now.
S1. Where does he come from-Greece or Turkey perhaps?
S2. One of the two, I think.

Conversation E

S1. Do you know the man over there by the door?
S2. I do, but I can't remember his name at the moment.
S1. Isn't he a famous musician?
S2. He's either a musician or a painter.

Exercise 1 **/** *Line A1 /*

Are you Mrs. Brown?	**No, I'm not. I'm not Mrs. Brown.**
Are you a teacher?	**No, I'm not. I'm not a teacher.**
Are you lawyers?	**No, we aren't. We aren't lawyers.**
Are you doctors?	**No, we aren't. We aren't doctors.**
Are you an artist?	**No, I'm not. I'm not an artist.**

Exercise **2 /** *Line* **A2 /**

That tall fellow. is Mr. Taylor.

short	**That short fellow is Mr. Taylor.**
with brown hair	**That short fellow with brown hair is Mr. Taylor.**

gray — **That short fellow with gray hair is Mr. Taylor.**
thin fellow — **That thin fellow with gray hair is Mr. Taylor.**
That fellow with glasses — **That fellow with glasses is Mr. Taylor.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines B2 and B3 /

Who's that man? — **Do you know who that man is?**
Who are those men? — **Do you know who those men are?**
Who's that woman? — **Do you know who that woman is?**
Who are those women? . — **Do you know who those women are?**
Who's that thin fellow? — **Do you know who that thin fellow is?**
Who are those two girls? — **Do you know who those two girls are?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line C1 /

Do you recognize the girl talking to Mr. Brown?

standing by the door — **Do you recognize the girl standing by the door? .**
walking across the room — **Do you recognize the girl walking across the room?**
carrying the blue purse — **Do you recognize the girl carrying the blue purse?**
wearing the yellow dress — **Do you recognize the girl wearing the yellow dress?**
shaking hands with Mr. Brown — **Do you recognize the girl shaking hands with Mr. Brown?**

***Exercise* 5/ *Line* C2 /**

He's talking to a girl. — **I know the girl he's talking to.**
He's looking at a girl. — **I know the girl he's looking at.**
He's speaking about a girl. — **I know the girl he's speaking about**
He's standing beside a girl. — **I know the girl he's standing beside.**
He's leaving with a girl. — **I know the girl he's leaving with.**
He's listening to a girl. — **I know the girl he's listening to.**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C3 /**

He's talking to a girl. — **Whom is he talking to?**
He's listening to a girl. — **Whom is he listening to?**
He's looking at a girl. — **Whom is he looking at?**
He's standing beside a girl. — **Whom is he standing beside?**
He's speaking about a girl. — **Whom is he speaking about?**
He's leaving with a girl. — **Whom is he leaving with?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C3 /**

Whom is he speaking about? — **Do you know whom he's speaking about?**
Whom is he leaving with? — **Do you know whom he's leaving with?**
Whom is he looking at? — **Do you know whom he's looking at?**
Whom is he listening to? — **Do you know whom he's listening to?**
Whom is he standing beside? — **Do you know whom he's standing beside?**

***Exercise* 8 / *Lines* E3 *and* E4 /**

He plays music for people. — **He's a musician**
He types things. — **He's a typist.**
He runs a farm. — **He's a farmer.**
He instructs students. — **He's an instructor**
He takes photographs. — **He's a photographer.**

He sings songs professionally.	He's a professional singer.
He translates things.	He's a translator
He collects stamps.	He's a stamp collector
He organizes groups for the union.	He's a union organizer.
He analyzes legal matters.	He's a legal analyst.
He supervises factory workers.	He's a factory supervisor

48. IMMEDIATE FAMILY AND RELATIVES/ CONVERSATIONS

C*onversation* A

S1. How old is your son?
S2. He's seventeen years old.
S1. Is your daughter older or younger than your son?
S2. Younger. She's only fifteen.

Conversation B

S1. Have you got many relatives here?
S2. Yes. An aunt and an uncle and four grandparents.
S1. Do your aunt and uncle have children?
S2. Yes. I have three cousins-two boys and a girl.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you have a picture of your family?
S2. Yes, I've got one right here.
S1. You have a very nice family. Thank you.
S2. Thank you.

***Conversation* D**

S1.Jim looks like his father.
S2. Do you and your father look alike?
S1. There's a little resemblance but not much.
S2. I don't look like anyone at all in my family.

***Conversation* E**

S1. How's your family?
S2. They're all fine, thanks.
S1. Are your niece and nephew still here?
S2. Yes, they are. They're still visiting me.

49. IDENTIFYING THINGS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Which house is your house?
S2. Ours is the last one on the block.
S1. Is yours the red one or the blue one?
S2. The blue one on the right side of the street.

Conversation B

S1. What's the name of that book John referred to?
S2. It's slipped my mind for the moment.
S1. Who did he say was the author?
S2. Some man whose name starts with an m.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Which one of these are you going to choose?
S2. I like the red one with the blue stripes.
S1. The one over there with black edges is nice too.
S2. But the one we looked at first may be the best choice.

***Conversation* D**

S1. The car over there by the streetlight is John's.
S2. Which one do you mean-the old one or the new red one?
S1. Neither. I mean the streetlight on your left.
S2. Oh. Then the one with the convertible top must be his.

***Conversation* E**

S1. What's the name of that thing with the strange shape?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Can you tell me what the-name of that thing over there is?
S2. Sorry. I don't know myself.

Exercise* 1 *Lines A1-A4 /

Our house is the last one.	**Ours is the last one.**
Their house is the last one.	**Theirs is the last one.**
His house is the last one.	**His is the last one.**
My house is the last one.	**Mine is the last one.**
Her house is the last one.	**Hers is the last one.**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1-A4 /

His books are the red ones.	**His are the red ones**
Their books are the red ones.	**Theirs are the red ones**
Your books are the red ones.	**Yours are the red ones**
Her books are the red ones.	**Hers are the red ones.**
My books are the red ones.	**Mine are the red ones**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines* A2 *and* A4 /**

Ours is the last one on the right side.

left	**Ours is the last one on the left side.**
next to last	**Ours is the next to last one on the left side.**
Theirs	**Theirs is the next to last one on the left side.**
first-	**Theirs is the first one on the left side.**
other	**Theirs is the first one on the other side.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines A1, C1, C4,* D2 /**

Which of them is the best?

the most practical	**Which of them is the most practical?**
the cheapest	**Which of them is the cheapest?**
the most expensive	**Which of them is the most expensive?**
the prettiest	**Which of them is the prettiest?**
the most stylish	**Which of them is the most stylish?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B1 /

What's the name of that book he referred to?

inquired about	**What's the name of that book he inquired about?**
commented on	**What's the name of that book he commented on?**
spoke about	**What's the name of that book he spoke about?**
objected to	**What's the name of that book he objected to?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C1 /**

Are you going to choose one?	**Which one are you going to choose?**
Have you chosen one?	**Which one have You chosen?**
Did you choose one?	**Which one did you choose?**
Should you choose one?	**Which one should you choose?**
Will you choose one?	**Which one will you choose?**
Had you chosen one?	**Which one had you chosen?**

***Exercise* 7 / *Line* C2 /**

I like the one with blue stripes.	**I like the one that has blue stripes.**
I like the one with black edges.	**I like the one that has black edges.**
I like the one with green sides	**I like the one that has green sides.**
I like the one with yellow squares	**I like the one that has yellow squares**
I like the one with orange flowers.	**I like the one that has orange flowers.**

***Exercise* 8 / *Line* C4 /**

We looked at that one.	**The one 'we looked at may be the best.**
We examined that one.	**The one we examined may be the best.**
We talked about that one.	**The one we talked about may be the best.**
We chose that one.	**The one we chose may be the best.**
We picked out that one.	**The one we picked out may be the best.**
We selected that one.	**The one we selected may be the best**

Exercise* 9 / *Line E3 /

Can you tell me what the name of that is?

Can you guess	**Can you guess what the name of that is?**
Can't you guess	**Can't you guess what the name of that is?**
Do you know	**Do you know what the name of that is?**
Don't you know	**Don't you know what the name of that is?**

50. SENDING AND RECEIVING LETTERS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Are you writing a letter?
S2. Yes. I'm to my family.
S1. Do you write letters very often?
S2. Yes. I write five or six letters a week.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Do You write letters very often
S2. No. I hate to write letters.
S1. It takes a lot of time.
S2. It sure does.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Robert get a letter?
S2. He got one yesterday.
S1. Does he get many letters?
S2. Yes. He gets some every day.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Charles wrote me a long letter.
S2. When did he write to you?
S1. He sent the letter to me about a week ago.
S2. He hasn't even sent me a postcard yet!

Conversation E

***S1.* We wrote to Mary's sister last week.**
S2. Has she written you yet?
S1. No, she hasn't.
S2. She wrote me a few days ago.

51. MORE ABOUT LETTERS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you written to your brother yet?
S2. Yes, but I haven't mailed the letter yet.
S1. I went to the post office half an hour ago.
S2. Why didn't you tell me?

Conversation B

S1. Did your friend in San Francisco write to you?
S2. Yes. I got a letter from her on Thursday.
S1. What did she have to say?
S2. She said the city was interesting and pretty.

Conversation **C**

S1. Did you write a reply to Peter's letter?
S2. Yes. I wrote one on Friday.
S1. Did you mention his last letter to you?
S2. Yes. I said I'd enjoyed his letter a lot.

Conversation **D**

S1. What are you writing?
S2. I'm writing a thank-you note to the Smiths.
S1. What are you doing that for?
S2. I had dinner with them, and it's customary to write a thank you note.

Conversation E

S1. I wrote a letter to them applying for a job.
S2. Was it hard to write your letter of application?
S1. Yes. I wanted to sound modest but also mention my qualifications.
S2. It's always hard to write about yourself.

52. GETTING CHANGE/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you got any change?
S2. What do you need?
S1. I need a change for a quarter.
S2. Here are two dimes and five pennies.

Conversation B

***S1.* Can you change this five-dollar bill?**
S2. I'm sorry. I don't have change.
S1. What Should I do?
S2. Go to the cashier's desk.

Conversation C

S1. Can you change this ten dollar bill?
S2. How do you want it
S1. A five and five one's please
S2. Here you are

Conversation D

S1. Do you have a change for dollar bill?
S2. Just a minute and I'll see
S1. I need some quarters.
S2. Yes. I can change it give you two quarters.

Conversation E

S1. This is a Change machine.
S2. Do you really get money from it?
S1. Sure. Just put a fifty-cent piece in that slot.
S2. It works! I've got quarter, two dimes, and a nickel.

***Exercise* 1 / *Line* D1 /**

Do you have change for a dime?

a quarter	**Do you have change for a quarter?**
a half dollar	**Do you have change for a half dollar?**
a dollar	**Do you have change for a dollar?**
a five-dollar bill	**Do you have change for a five-dollar bill?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and* D 1 /**

Have you got change for a dime?

a half dollar	**Have you got change for a half dollar?**
a quarter	**Have you got change for a quarter?**
a five-dollar bill	**Have you got change for a five-dollar bill?**
a fifty-cent piece	**Have you got change for a fifty-cent piece?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and* D1 /**

Have you got change for a dime.	**I wonder if you've got change for a dime**
Have you got change for a quarter?	**I wonder if you've got change for a quarter**
Have you got change for a fifty cents	**I wonder if you've got change for fifty cents.**
Have you got change for a five	**I wonder if you've got change for a five.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines B1 and* C1 /**

Can you change this dime?

fifty-cent piece	**Can you change this fifty-cent piece?**
quarter	**Can you change this quarter?**
ten-dollar bill	**Can you change this ten-dollar bill?**
half dollar	**Can you change this half dollar?**
five-dollar bill	**Can you change this five-dollar bill?**

Exercise* 5 / *Lines A3 and A4 /

I need change for a nickel.	**Here are five pennies.**
I need change for a dime.	**Here are ten pennies.**
I need change for a quarter.	**Here are twenty-five pennies**
I need change for a h2.lf dollar.	**Here are fifty pennies.**
I need change for a dollar.	**Here are one hundred pennies.**

53. AMERICAN MONEY AND PRICES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I understand the American money system well.
S2. Then how many (A) are there in a (B) ?
S1. There are (C, aren't there?
S2. That's exactly right. There are (C)

(A)	(B)	(C)
cents	nickel	five
cents	dime	ten
nickels	dime	two
cents	quarter	twenty-five
nickels	quarter	five
quarters	half dollar	two
dimes	half dollar	five
quarters	dollar	four
nickels	dollar	twenty

Conversation Drill B

S1. What do you need today?
S2. I'd like (A)
S1. Today (B)
S2. That'll be all right, thanks.

(A)	(B)
a pound of butter	butter is 65¢ a pound
a quart of milk	milk is 38¢ a quart
a loaf of bread	bread is 20¢ a loaf
a jar of jelly	jelly is 36¢ a jar
a can of tuna fish	tuna is 85¢ a can
a box of cookies	cookies are 42¢ a box
a pint of cream	cream is 41¢ a pint
a dozen eggs	eggs are 87¢ a dozen

54. WHAT’S IT LIKE OUTSIDE? / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Is it, raining now?
S2. Yes. it is. It's raining very hard.
S1. Does it rain very much in this area?
S2. Yes It rains a lot in the spring and fall.

Conversation B

S1. How is the weather?
S2. It's raining outside now.
S1. Is it raining very hard?
S2. No, it isn’t. It's just sprinkling.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What's the weather like outside?
S2. I think it's going to rain.
S1. It was nice a few hours ago.
S2. It was beautiful, wasn't it?

***Conversation* D**

S1. How's the weather today?
S2. It's quite cold and damp.
S1. How are the winters here in general?
S2. They're usually rather mild.

Conversation E

S1. Is it raining outside now?
S2. Yes, it is, and it's quite cold.
S1. I think I'll stay home today.
S2. I certainly wish I could too.

Exercise 1* / *Line B2 /

It's raining outside now.

Sprinkling	**It's sprinkling outside now.**
Snowing	**It's snowing outside now.**
Hailing	**It's hailing outside now.**
getting windy	**It's getting windy outside now**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and B2 /

It's raining now.

Yesterday — **It rained yesterday.**
Tomorrow — **It's going to rain tomorrow**
several times this week — **It's rained several times this week.**
a great deal in this season — **It rains a great deal in this season.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A1 and B2 /

It's raining now. — **Is it raining now?**
It rained yesterday. — **Did it rain yesterday?**
It's going to rain tomorrow. — **Is it going to rain tomorrow?**
It's rained many times this week. — **Has it rained many times this Week?**
It rains a great deal in this season — **Does it rain a great deal in this season?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D2 /**

It's quite cold and damp.

cloudy and gray — **It's quite cloudy and gray.**
windy and cold — **It's quite windy and cold.**
warm and humid — **It's quite warm and humid.**
hot and sticky — **It's quite hot and sticky.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D4 /**

The winters are usually rather mild here.

generally — **The winters are generally rather mild here.**
very wet — **The winters are generally very wet here.**
the summers — **The summers are generally very wet here.**
almost always — **The summers are almost always very wet here.**

55. TALKING ABOUT THE WEATHER / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. It was hot yesterday.
S2. But it's quite cool today.
S1. Yes. I'm wearing sweater under my coat.
S2. I'm going to put on a jacket.

Conversation B

S1. It's freezing today!
S2. It's worse than yesterday.
S1. How cold is it?
S2. It's ten below.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What cold weather this is!
S2. It certainly is.
S3. What's the temperature?
S4. It's five above.

***Conversation* D**

S1. You've seen a hurricane, haven't you?
S2. Once, a long time ago.
S1. *Does* it ever snow in your country?
S2. Only a few times a year.

Conversation E

S1. Do you like the weather in this part of the country?
S2. Not really, but I'm adjusted to it now.
S1. Is the weather different in your Country
S2. Yes: It never gets as cold there as it does here.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

It was hot yesterday.	**It *was* quite hot, wasn't it?**
It was cold yesterday.	**It *was* quite cold, wasn't .it?**
It was warm yesterday.	**It *was* quite warm, wasn't it**
It was cool yesterday.	**It *was* quite cool, wasn't it?**
It was chilly yesterday.	**It *was* quite chilly, wasn't it?**
It was damp yesterday.	**It *was* quite damp, wasn't it?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A4 /**

I'm going to put on a sweater.

a wool shirt	**I'm going to put on a wool shirt.**
a jacket	**I'm going to put on a jacket.**
Gloves	**I'm going to put on gloves.**
an overcoat	**I'm going to put on an overcoat.**
overshoes	**I'm going to put on overshoes.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line B2 /

It's worse than yesterday.

better	**It's better than yesterday.**
hotter	**It's hotter than yesterday.**
colder	**It's colder than yesterday.**
Warmer	**It's warmer than yesterday.**
cooler	**It's cooler than yesterday**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B2 /

It's worse than yesterday.	**It's the worst day in a long time**
It's hotter than yesterday.	**It’s, the hottest day in a long time**
It's colder than yesterday.	**It's the coldest day in a long time.**
It's warmer than yesterday.	**It's the warmest day in a long time.**
It's cooler than yesterday.	**It's the coolest day in a long time.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line* C*1 /

What cold weather this is!

Humid	**What humid weather this is!**
Hot	**What hot weather this is!**
Cloudy	**What cloudy weather this is!**
Damp	**What damp weather this is!**
Sticky	**What sticky weather this is!**

56. WEATHER CONDITIONS / CONVERSATIONS

***Exercise 1* / *Line* A1 /**

It's a nice day, isn't it?

fine	**It's a fine day, isn't it?**
beautiful	**It's a beautiful, day, isn't it?**
wonderful	**It's a wonderful day, isn't it?**
terrible	**It's a terrible day, isn't it?**
awful	**It's an awful day, isn't it?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A1 and* C*1 /

The weather is good today.	**It is good, isn't it?**
The .weather is fine today.	**It is fine, isn't it?**
The weather is nice today.	**It is nice, isn't it?**
The weather is wonderful today.	**It is wonderful, isn't it?**
The weather is beautiful today.	**It is beautiful, isn't it?**
The weather is unusual today.	**It is unusual, isn't it?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines A2 and E1 /

It's warm and sunny for a change.

damp and chilly	**It's damp and chilly for a change.**
cloudy and gray	**It's cloudy and gray for a change.**
hot and hazy	**It's hot and hazy for a change.**
cool and clear	**It's cool and clear for a change.**
windy and cold	**It's windy and cold for a change.**

***Exercise* 4/ *Lines B1 and* C2 /**

It's warm today.	**It's a little too warm for me.**
It's chilly today.	**It's a little too chilly for me.**
It's damp today.	**It's a little too damp for me.**
It's windy today.	**It's a little too windy for me.**
It's cool today.	**It's a little too cool for me.**
It's hot today.	**It's a little too hot for me.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line D1 /

Is it cold outside?	**I wonder if it's cold outside:**
Is it cloudy outside?	**I wonder if it's cloudy outside.**
Is it warm outside?	**I wonder if it's warm outside.**
Is it chilly outside?	**I wonder if it's chilly outside.**
Is it windy outside?	**I wonder if it's windy outside.**

57. A LOOK AT THE WEATHER / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What's the weather like outside?

S2. Right at the moment (A)
S1. This morning, it was (B)
S2. And tonight, it'll probably change again.

(A)	(B)
it's raining a little	a little cloudy
the wind· is blowing hard	kind of damp
its pouring	rather hazy
the sun is shining	quite cool
it's clearing up a little	very dark
the rain is stopping	windy and cold
it’s getting foggy	really quite clear
the snow is getting heavy	sunny and warm

Conversation Drill B

S1. The weather isn't very good today, is it?
S2. No, it certainly isn't.
S1. It's (A)
S2. It always seems (B)

(A)	(B)
too damp and chilly	colder when it's damp
getting kind of hazy	gloomy when it's hazy
very cloudy and gray	gloomier when it's cloudy
getting even more humid	uncomfortable when it's humid
quite windy and cold	worse when it's windy
getting icy on the roads	strange when there's ice on the roads
too hot and sticky	hotter when it's humid
becoming rather dark	depressing when it's so dark

58. USING EXPRESSIONS OF TIME/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Were you at home last night?
S2. No. But I was at home the night before last
S1. Will you be at home tomorrow night?

S2. No, but I'll be at home the next night

Conversation B

S1. Didn't your friends leave the week before last?
S2. Right. They left just two weeks ago.
S1. Will they get back next week?
S2. Yes. According to them, they'll arrive a week from today.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Mary get back last Week?
S2. Yes. She got back on Thursday.
S1. How long was she away?
S2. She was out of town for ten days.

***Conversation* D**

S1. When did George arrive in town?
S2. He flew in last Thursday afternoon.
S1. John has been here since last Thursday too.
S2. Both of them plan to leave the day after tomorrow.

Conversation E

***S1.* How long have you been here?**
S2. I've been here for two months.
S1. How often do you get here?
S2. I get to this city about twice a year

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

Were you at home yesterday?

yesterday afternoon	**Were you at home yesterday afternoon?**
last night	**Were you at home last night?**
the day before yesterday	**Were you at home the day before yesterday?**
the night before last	**Were you at home the night before last?**
two nights ago	**Were you at home two nights ago?**
last Thursday night	**Were you at home last Thursday night?**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Will you be at home tomorrow?

tomorrow afternoon	**Will you be at home tomorrow afternoon?**
tomorrow night	**Will you be at home tomorrow night?**
the day after tomorrow	**Will you be at home the day after tomorrow?**
a week from today	**Will you be at home a week from today?**
next Friday night	**Will you be at home next Friday night?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines B1 and C1 /

Didn't your friends get back last week?

Last Monday	**Didn't your friends get back last Monday?**

a week ago	**Didn't your friends get back a week ago?**
a week ago today	**Didn't your friends get back a week ago today?**
two weeks ago	**Didn't your friends get back two weeks ago?**
the week before last	**Didn't your friends get back the week before last?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B3 /

Will they get back next week?

next Tuesday	**Will they get back next Tuesday?**
a week from now	**Will they get back a week from now?**
a week from today	**Will they get back a week from today?**
two weeks from now	**Will they get back two weeks from now?**
the week after next	**Will they get back the week after next?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line C4/

She was out of town for ten days.

a week	**She was out of town for a week.**
a week and a half	**She was out of town for a week and a half.**
several weeks	**She was out of town for several weeks.**
quite a while	**She was out of town for quite a while.**
a couple of months	**She was out of town for a couple of months.**

Exercise 6

My brother met them on Tuesday.

at two o'clock	**My brother met them at two o'clock.**
see	**My brother saw them at two o'clock.**
last night	**My brother saw them last night.**
telephone	**My brother telephoned them last night.**
an hour ago	**My brother telephoned them an hour ago.**
consult	**My brother consulted them an hour ago.**
in the evening	**My brother consulted them in the evening.**
advise	**My brother advised them in the evening.**
yesterday morning	**My brother advised them yesterday morning.**
Help	**My brother helped them yesterday Morning.**
last Tuesday	**My brother helped them last Tuesday. !**
pay	**My brother paid them last Tuesday.**
the day before last	**My brother paid them the day before last.**

Exercise 7

They're going to help you tonight.

in the spring	**They're going to help you in the spring.**
Instruct	**They're going to instruct you in the spring.**
tomorrow night	**They're going to instruct you tomorrow night.**
Visit	**They're going to visit you tomorrow night.**
on October' twentieth	**They're going to visit you on October twentieth.**
He	**He's going to visit you on October twentieth.**
next week	**He's going to visit you next week.**
Assist	**He's going to assist you next week.**
the day after tomorrow	**He's going to assist you the day after tomorrow.**

Meet	**He's going to meet you the day after tomorrow.**
We	**We're going to meet you the day after tomorrow.**
Invite	**We're going to invite you the day after tomorrow.**
in March	**We're going to invite you in March.**
Supervise	**We're going to supervise you in March.**
on March eighteenth	**We're going to supervise you on March eighteenth.**

59. EXPRESSIONS OF TIME/ CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. When will Mr. Brown arrive in the city?
S2. He'll arrive here (A)
S1. His wife got here(B)
S2. I didn't know that.

(A)	**(B)**
next month	**last month**
on the twenty fifth	**in August**
a week from now	**a week ago**
at four o'clock	**at twelve fifteen.**
The day after tomorrow	**the day before yesterday**
Two hours from now	**two hours ago**
In the evening	**during the afternoon**

Tomorrow night **last night**

Conversation Drill B

S1. **How long will you be away?**
S2. Probably *(A)*
S1. Have you made all the arrangements?
S2. Yes. I'm going to leave *(B)*

(A)	(B)
until the summer	before the holiday
for six months	on the twenty fifth
up to November	during the spring
twenty or twenty one days	in September
six months or more	on September eighteenth
a long time	after the ceremony
until July fourth	next week
not for long	some time next month

60. DATES AND PERIODS OF TIME/ CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How long have you worked in this office?
S2. I've worked here since March.
S1. How long ago did you finish school?
S2. I finished school three years ago.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't you study English in school?
S2. Yes, but that \vas many years ago.
S1. How many years ago was it?
S2. at least six or seven.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did your friends arrive here in the fall?
S2. Yes. they did. They got here in October.
S1. Do you know the exact date they arrived?

S2. I do. They got back on October eleventh.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Have you been living here very long?
S2. I've only been here since last spring.
S1. Are you going to stay until Christmas?
S2. No. I'll probably leave for France in a month or two.

Conversation E

***S1. I worked* on my report until midnight last night.**
S2. Do you expect to finish the work by tomorrow night?
S1. Well, I certainly can't finish it before that time.
S2. You'd better get someone to help you for a few hours today then.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

I've worked here since March.

March fifteenth	**I've worked here since March fifteenth.**
last April	**I've worked here since last April.**
last fall	**I've worked here since last fall.**
1964	**I've worked here since 1964.**
the holidays	**I've worked here since the holidays.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A2 /

I've worked here for six months.

several years	**I've worked here for several years.**
more than a year	**I've worked here for more than a year.**
a month and a half	**I've worked here for a month and a half.**
quite a while	**I've worked here for quite a while**

Exercise* 3 / *Line A2 /

I worked in London for four years.

a year and a half	**I worked in London for a year and a half.**
eighteen weeks	**I worked in London for eighteen weeks.**
several months	**I worked in London for several months.**
a long time	**I worked in London for a long time.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A2 /

I started to work here two months ago.

a couple of years	**I started to work here a couple of Years ago.**
several weeks	**I started to work here several weeks ago.**
quite a while	**I started to work here quite a while ago.**
a long time	**I started to work here a long time ago.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D3 /**

I'm going to stay here until August tenth.

for two weeks	**I'm going to stay here for two weeks.**
until June or July	**I'm going to stay here until June or July.**
for a month or two	**I'm going to stay here for a month or two.**
until school starts	**I'm going to stay here until school starts.**

Exercise 6

He's worked there since September.

Two months	**He's worked there for two months.**
since 1963.	**He's worked there for Since 1963**
two years	**He's worked there for two years.**
January first	**He's worked there since January first.**
Several hours.	**He's worked there for Several hours**
last winter.	**He's worked there since last winter**
ten 0'clock.	**He's worked there for since ten o' clock**
December.	**He's worked there since December**
three months.	**He's worked there for three months**
July 18, 1964	**He's worked there since July 18,1964**
half an hour.	**He's worked there for an half an hour**
a long time.	**He's worked there for a long time**
this morning.	**He's worked there since this morning**
some time.	**He's worked there for some time**
quite a while	**He's worked there for quite a while.**

Exercise 7

They studied there for ten weeks.

October.	**They studied there in October**
one year.	**They studied there for One year**
1965	**They studied there in 1965**
two hours	**They studied there for two hours.**
The spring	**They studied there in the spring**
A month	**They studied there for a month**
several weeks.	**They studied there for several weeks**
the winter.	**They studied there in the winter**
1963 and 64	**They studied there in 1963 and '64.**
An hour or two	**They studied there for an hour or two.**
The fall semester	**They studied there in the fall semester**
A whole month	**They studied there for a whole month**
A short time.	**They studied there for a short time.**
June and July.	**They studied there in June and July**
quite a while.	**They studied there for quite a while.**

61. CALENDAR TIME/ CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I'm leaving the country very soon.
S2. You're coming back (A), aren't you?
S1. I'll be back (B)
S2. Well, Relax and enjoy your vacation

(A)	(B)
next fall	in September or October
in the spring	at the end of may
before the winter	on December fifteenth
after the holidays	sometime before April first

Conversation Drill B

S1. What would you like to do?
S2.I'd like to (A)
S1 I would too, but I can't.
S2 Maybe we can (B)

(A)	(B)
go shopping	go Friday or Saturday
see a movie	see one tomorrow night
go for a walk	go for one in the morning
go swimming	go tomorrow or the next day
ride over to John's	do it some other day

Conversation Drill C

S1. Could I help you?
S2 How long will it take (A)
S1 How soon do you need it?
S2. I was hoping to have it (B)

(A)	(B)
to have this watch repaired	by next week
to get this suit pressed	on Monday evening
to have this- package sent to New York	there in time for the holiday
to get this thing changed	early in the week
to have this thing repaired	before Wednesday

62. VACATION TIME / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. How much vacation time do you get?
S2. Only two weeks this year, but three weeks next year.
S1. We get four weeks a year after five years of service,
S2. I may take an extra week without pay this year.

C*onversation* B

S1. Where do you plan to go for your vacation?
S2. I'm going to Denmark.
S1. When will you be back?
S2. Probably in three or four weeks.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are you going to take your vacation in June or July?
S2. Are going to take it in July.
S1. Are you going to go to Europe?
S2. No. I'm going to go to South America,

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you have a good vacation?
S2. Yes, I did. I had a wonderful time.
S1. What did you do?
S2. I visited some old friends in Florida.

Conversation E

S1. You haven't been around for a long time.
S2. I've been away on a vacation ..
S1. Everyone's been asking for you.
S2. It's nice to be missed.

63. TIPS AND SIGHT-SEEING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you have a nice time over the weekend?
S2. I had lots of fun.
S1. What did you do?
S2. I did a lot of sight-seeing

Conversation B

S1. How **long were you out of town?**
S2. I was away for two weeks.
S1. When were you away?
S2. I took the time off in August.

Conversation C

S1.How did you go to India last month?
S2.We went by plane.
S1. What kind of plane did you take?
S2.It was a jet.

Conversation D

S1.Have you ever been to Italy?
S2.No. I've never been there.
S1. Have you ever been to France?
S2. Yes. I was there last summer.

Conversation E

S1. Did your parents stay in Rome for very long?
S2. Yes. They stayed there for two months.
S1. Did they describe their trip to you?
S2. Yes, and they showed us a lot of photographs .

64. TALKING ABOUT EATING / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did you have for breakfast?
S2. I had coffee, toast, and eggs.
S1. How did you have your eggs?
S2. Soft-boiled, as usual.

Conversation B

S1. How about a cup of coffee?
S2. That sounds good.
S1. I always enjoy coffee after work.
S2. I like it best in the morning.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to have an orange?
S2. Thanks, but I don't think so.
S1. Oranges are good for you.
S2. I know, but I had one about an hour ago.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Where did you have lunch today?
S2. I ate at the cafeteria with John.
S1. Did you have a good lunch?
S1. Yes. I had a hot roast beef sandwich.

Conversation E

S1. There's a cafeteria over there.
S2. Didn't you eat before we left?
S1. Yes, but I'm hungry again.
S2. Well, I'm still digesting my lunch.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A1/

What did you have for breakfast?

Lunch	**What did you have for lunch?**
they	**What did they have for lunch?**
eat	**What did they eat for lunch?**
dinner	**What did they eat for dinner?**
she	**What did she eat for dinner?**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* A3 /**

How did you have your eggs?

coffee	**How did you have your coffee?**
meat	**How did you have your meat?**
potatoes	**How did you have your potatoes?**
vegetables	**How did you have your vegetables ?**
salad	**How did you have your salad?**

***Exercise.3* / *Lines* A3 *and* A4 /**

Did you have your egg soft boiled?

hard-boiled	**Did you have your eggs hard-boiled'?**
poached	**Did you have your eggs poached?**
scrambled	**Did you have your eggs scrambled?**
fried	**Did you have your eggs fried?**

Exercise* 4/ *Lines B1 and B3 /

I always enjoy a cup of coffee after work.

tea	**I always enjoy a cup of tea after work.**
a glass of milk	**I always enjoy a glass of milk after work.**
wine	**I always enjoy a glass of wine after Work.**
lemonade	**I always enjoy a glass of lemonade after work.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Lines C1 and* C3 /**

Would you like to have an orange?	**Oranges are good for you.**
Would you like to have an apple?	**Apples are good for you.**
Would you like to have a banana?	**Bananas are good for you,**
Would you like to have a lemon?	**Lemons are good for you.**
Would you like to have a tomato?	**Tomatoes are good for you.**

65. BREAKFAST AND LUNCH AT A RESTAURENT / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'd like to order breakfast.
S2. What can I bring you?
S1. I'd like coffee, scrambled eggs, and bacon.
S2. I'll bring the coffee first.

Conversation B

S1. Please give me a ham sandwich.
S2. Would you like it on rye bread or white?
S1. Rye bread, please. With mustard.
S2. Here it is.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I'd like a piece of pie now and coffee later, please.
S2. Do you want cream for your coffee?
S1. Yes. Cream but no sugar.
S2. I'll bring the pie right away.

***Conversation* D**

S1. A hamburger and a cup of coffee, please.
S2. Here you are.
S1. How much do I owe you?
S2. Sixty-two cents.

Exercise* 1 / *Line A3 /

I'd like coffee.	**I'd like some coffee, please.**
1'd like tea.	**I'd like some tea, please.**
I'd like orange juice.	**I'd like some orange juice, please.**
I'd like milk.	**I'd like some milk, please.**
I'd like hot chocolate.	**I'd like some hot chocolate, please.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* B2 /**

Would you like some coffee?

orange juice	**Would you like some orange juice?**
care for	**Would you care for some orange juice?**
tea	**Would you care for some tea?**

anyone	**Would anyone care for some tea?**
wine	**Would anyone care for some wine?**

Exercise* 3 / *Line B1 /

Please give me a ham sandwich.

cheese	**Please give me a cheese sandwich.**
ham and cheese	**Please give me a ham and cheese sandwich**
roast beef	**Please give me a roast beef sandwich.**
chicken salad	**Please give me a chicken salad sandwich.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* C2 /**

Do you want cream for your coffee?

sugar	**Do you want sugar for your coffee?**
tea	**Do you want sugar for your tea?**
Would you like	**Would you like sugar for your tea?**
lemon	**Would you like lemon for your tea?**
Would you prefer	**Would you prefer lemon for your tea?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E1 /

Did you order some food?	**Yes, I did. I ordered some food.**
Are you ordering some food?	**Yes, I am. I'm ordering some food**
Have you ordered some food?	**Yes, I have. I've ordered some food.**
Are you going to order some food	**Yes, I am. I'm going to order some food.**

66. ORDERING FOOD / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Could we have a table for four?
S2. There's a nice table right there by the window.
S1. May we also have the menu right away?
S2. I'll get the menu immediately.

Conversation B

***S1. W*ould you care for some roast beef?**
S2. No. I'll have sirloin steak.
S1. How do you like your steak?
S2. I'd prefer it medium rare.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you like to have soup?
S2. Yes. Creamed onion, please
S1. Mashed, boiled, or French-fried potatoes?
S2. I'll have the French-fried.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What vegetables would you like with your dinner?
S2. Carrots, please, and corn with cream sauce.
S1. What kind of dressing do you want on your salad-French?
S2. I believe I'll take Russian dressing tonight.

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to order a dessert?
S2. What kinds of pie do you have?
S1. Peach, lemon cream, and apple.
S2. I'd like lemon cream, please.

***Exercise* 1 / *Lines B1 and* C1 /**

Would you care for some soup?

broth	**Would you care for some broth?**
consomme	**Would you care for some consomme?**
potage	**Would you care for some potage?**
chowder	**Would you care for some chowder?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines C1, C2, E4 /

I'd like creamed onion soup, please.

mushroom	**I'd like mushroom soup, please.**

vegetable	**I'd like vegetable soup, please.**
potato	**I'd like potato soup, please.**
cream of tomato	**I'd like cream of tomato soup, please.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines C3, C4,* D4 /**

I believe I'll have mashed potatoes.

baked	**I believe I'll have baked potatoes.**
scalloped	**I believe I'll have scalloped potatoes.**
French-fried	**I believe I'll have French-fried potatoes.**
hashed brown	**I believe I'll have hashed brown potatoes**
sweet	**I believe I'll have sweet potatoes.**

***Exercise* 4 / *Lines C4,* D4 /**

I think I'll have pie for dessert.

cake	**I think I'll have cake for dessert.**
pudding	**I think I'll have pudding for dessert.**
cookies	**I think I'll have cookies for dessert.**
custard	**I think I'll have custard for dessert.**
ice cream	**I think I'll have ice cream for dessert.**

Exercises* / *Line E4 /

I'd like lemon cream pie, please.

apple.	**I'd like apple pie, please.**
peach	**I'd like peach pie, please.**
blueberry	**I'd like blueberry pie, please.**
orange meringue	**I'd like orange meringue pie, please.**
coconut custard	**I'd like coconut custard pie, please.**

67. HAVING DINNER AT A RESTAURENT/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What'll you have, sir?

S2. May I have a menu, please?
S1. A menu? Here you are, sir.
S2. Now, I'll need a few minutes to look it over.

Conversation B

S1. I'll have the sirloin steak listed here.
S2. How do you like your steak-well done?
S1. No. I'd prefer it medium rare.
S2. I'm sure you'll enjoy our steak.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Would you care for soup?
S2. Yes, I would. Vegetable soup, please.
S1. What would you like for your main course?
S2. I'm going to have beef stew for my main course.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Would you care for dessert after your main course?
S2. Possibly. What kind of pie do you have?
S1. Peach, banana cream, and blueberry chiffon.
S2. I think I'd like to try the banana cream.

Conversation E

S1. Coffee, tea, or milk?
S2. Coffee-with the meal, please.
S1. Do you want cream and sugar?
S2. No. I'll take my coffee black.

Exercise* 1/ *Line B1 /

I'll have the sirloin steak listed here.

pot roast	**I'll have the pot roast listed here.**
roast beef	**I'll have the roast beef listed here.**
barbecued beef	**I'll have the barbecued beef .listed here.**
filet mignon	**I'll have the filet mignon listed here.**
Swiss steak	**I'll have the Swiss steak listed here.**
lamb curry	**I'll have the lamb curry listed here.**
breaded veal cutlets	**I'll have the breaded veal cutlets listed here.**
veal patties	**I'll have the veal patties listed here.**
veal parmesan	**I'll have the veal parmesan listed here.**
broiled pork chops	**I'll have the broiled pork chops listed here**
stuffed pork chops	**I'll have the stuffed pork chops listed here**
baked spareribs	**I'll have the baked spareribs listed here**
barbecued spareribs	**I'll have the barbecued spareribs listed here.**
meat loaf	**I'll have the meat loaf listed here**
ham loaf	**I'll have the ham loaf listed here.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* C4 /**

I'm going to have beef stew.

pork sausages	**I'm going to have pork sausages.**
browned hash	**I'm going to have browned hash.**
meat croquettes	**I'm going to have meat croquettes.**
Swedish meatballs	**I'm going to have Swedish meatballs**
Hungarian goulash	**I'm going to have Hungarian goulash.**
Calf's liver	**I'm going to have calf's liver.**
broiled duckling	**I'm going to have broiled duckling**
fried chicken	**I'm going to have fried chicken.**
stewed chicken	**I'm going to have stewed chicken.**
roast turkey	**I'm going to have roast turkey**
broiled lobster	**I'm going to have broiled lobster.**
scalloped oysters	**I'm going to have scalloped oysters.**
steamed clams	**I'm going to have steamed clams.**

68. DINNER CONVERSATIONS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I hope you're hungry tonight.
S2. I'm sure I'll have a good appetite.
S1. There's a menu right beside you,
S2. Thanks. I See it.

Conversation B

S1. What do you usually have for dinner?
S2. Potatoes and some kind of meat.

S1. Do you ever have anything else?
S2. Oh, have other things-for example, fish, rice, and vegetables.

***Conversation* C**

S1. The fish is delicious in this restaurant, I hear.
S2. It's a popular dish in this country.
S1. But I always choose steak if possible.
S2. Well, I'm going to have fish.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you like vegetables.
S2. I like some but not all.
S1. What kind do you like?
S2. I like lettuce and radishes and a few others.

Conversation E

***S1. Do* .you always drink tea with your meals?**
S2. Not always, but usually.
S1. How do you like your tea?
S2. With sugar and lemon.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

I hope you're hungry tonight.

ready to eat	**I hope you're ready to eat tonight.**
have a good appetite	**I hope you have a good appetite tonight.**
feel like eating well	**I hope you feel like eating well tonight.**
order enough food	**I hope you order enough food tonight.**
something different	**I hope you order something different tonight.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line* C*1 /

The fish is delicious in this restaurant.

Wonderful	**The fish is wonderful in this restaurant**
The meat	**The meat is wonderful in this restaurant**
Always	**The meat is always wonderful in this restaurant**
Excellent	**The meat is always excellent in this restaurant.**
The chicken	**The chicken is always excellent in this restaurant.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* C2 /**

That's a popular dish in this country.

kind of food	**That's a popular kind of food in this country.**
famous	**That's a famous kind of food in this country.**
the United States	**That's a famous kind of food in the United States.**
kind of meal	**That's a famous kind of meal in the United States.**
well-known	**That's a well-known kind of meal in the United States.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line E1 /

Do *you* always drink tea with your meals?

coffee	**Do you always drink coffee with your meals?**
usually	**Do you usually drink coffee with your meals?**
at breakfast	**Do you usually drink coffee at breakfast?**
milk	**Do you usually drink milk at breakfast?**
generally	**Do you generally drink milk at breakfast?**

69. PERSONAL HEALTH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1.You look very pale.
S2. I feel rather dizzy, and I have a headache.
S1. Maybe you're .catching a cold.
S2. You're probably right

***Conversation B*.**

S1.You went to the doctor today, didn't you?
S2. Yes. I go once a year for a checkup.
S1. What did he say?
S2. He said my health was good.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Have you put on weight recently?
S2. probably have.
S1. Maybe you don't get enough exercise.
S2. I really don't, but I'm careful about eating.

***Conversation* D**

S1. You certainly look very healthy to me.
S2. I've been feeling very well lately.
S1. Haven't you gotten a little heavier?
S2. Yes, I think I. have.

***Conversation* E**

S1. You certainly look happy about something.
S2. I've lost some weight.
S1. You look much better.
S2. I feel better too.

70. COMMON HEALTH PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I have a terrible headache today.
S2. Have you taken any aspirin for it?
S1. Yes. I'll get over it soon.
S2. Lying down for a few minutes might help it too.

Conversation B

S1. I've got a cold in my head.
S2. It's probably this terrible weather.
S1. It's giving everyone a cold.
S2. hope I don't catch one.

Conversation C

S1. What are you taking for your cold?
S2. Just the usual things-water and fruit juice.
S1. You'll be over it soon then.
S2. I really hope you're right.

Conversation D

S1. You look tired. Are you ill?
S2. I think I've caught a cold.
S1. How can tell?
S2. My throat is sore.

***Conversation* E**

S1. You don't look very well.
S2. I don't feel very well either.
S1. Why don't you rest for a few minutes?
S2. I think I will.

Exercise 1 / line A1 /

I have a terrible headache today.

Stomachache	**I have a terrible stomachache today.**
severe	**I have a severe stomachache today.**
backache	**I have a severe backache today.**
very bad	**I have a very bad backache today.**
earacle	**I have a very bad earache today.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

Lying down might help it too.

taking some medicine	**Taking some medicine might help it too.**
resting a while	**might help it too.**
going to bed	**Going to bed might help it too.**
drinking some tea	**Drinking some tea might help it too.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* C*1* /**

What are you doing for your cold?

toothache	**What are you doing for your toothache?**
upset stomach	**What are you doing for your upset stomach?**
rheumatism	**What are you doing for your rheumatism?**
sore throat	**What are you doing for your sore throat?**

***Exercise 4 / Line* D2 /**

I think I've caught a cold.

broken my finger	**I think I've broken my finger.**
scratched my arm	**I think I've scratched my arm.**
injured my knee	**I think I've injured my knee.**
hurt my shoulder	**I think I've hurt my shoulder.**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D4 /**

My throat is sore.

Toes	**My toes are sore.**
leg	**My leg is sore.**
shoulders	**My shoulders are sore.**
wrist	**My wrist is sore.**
chest	**My chest is sore.**

71. AT THE DOCTOR'S OFFICE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I think I've got a fever.
S2. Do you feel very hot?
S1. Yes, and I've been sweating a lot.
S2. You'd better go to a doctor.

Conversation B

S1. I feel Quite sick, Doctor.
S2. Can you tell me about it?
S1. I've got a headache and stomach cramps.
S2. I'd better take your temperature.

Conversation C

S1. Is the cut on my hand dangerous?
S2. No, but there's a little infection.
S1. What can you do about an infection?
S2. I'll use an antibiotic, and it'll be gone by tomorrow.

Conversation D

S1. Have you ever had pneumonia?
S2. Yes. I had it about two years ago.
S1. Have you ever had measles?
S2. No. I've never had measles.

Conversation E

S1. Do I have anything serious, Doctor?
S2. Only a slight cold.
S1. Will it last very?
S2. No. It'll probably go away in a day or two.

Exercise / Line AI /

I think I've got a fever.

a rash	**I think I've got a rash.**
an allergy	**I think I've got an allergy.**
an infection	**I think I've got an infection.**
a blister	**I think I've got a blister.**
an inflammation	**I think I've got an inflammation.**
an abscess	**I think I've got an abscess.**

***Exercise* 2 / *Line* C3 /**

What can you do about an infection?

appendicitis	**What can you do about appendicitis?**
flu	**What can you do about flu?**
an abscess	**What can you do about an abscess?**
diarrhea	**What can you do about diarrhea?**
insomnia	**What can you do about insomnia?**
a sore throat	**What can you do about a sore throat?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* D 1 /**

Have you ever had pneumonia?

hay fever	**Have you ever had hay fever?**
asthma	**Have you ever had asthma?**
rheumatism	**Have you ever had rheumatism?**
sinus trouble	**Have you ever had sinus trouble?**
ulcers	**Have you ever had ulcers?**
low blood pressure	**Have you ever had low blood pressure?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D4 /**

I've never had measles.

mumps	**I've never had mumps**
scarlet fever	**I've never had scarlet fever.**
chicken pox	**I've never had chicken pox.**
smallpox	**I've never had small pox.**
tuberculosis	**I've never had tuberculosis.**
malaria	**I've never had malaria.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line E4 /

It'll probably go away in a day or two.

an hour or two from now	**It'll probably go away an hour or two from now.**
in a matter of minutes	**It'll probably go away in a matter of minutes.**
in a short time	**It'll probably go away in a short time.**
within a few hours	**It'll probably go away within a few hours.**
before you get home	**It'll probably go away before you get home.**

72. QUITTING AND FINDING JOBS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How did you find your new job?
S2. I went to an employment agency.
S1. Was it worth it to do it that way?
S2. They were able to get me something good right away.

Conversation B

S1. I think I'm going to change jobs.
S2. What do you want to do that for?
S1. There's not enough chance to get ahead here.
S2. But don't forget you're getting a pretty, good salary.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did it take you long to apply for a job?
S2. Too long in my opinion.
S1 What did you have to do?
S2. Speak to people, fill out forms, and wait.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Is John going to quit his job next month?
S2. No. He's going to quit next January.
S1. Are his parents going to support him then?
S2. No. He isn't going to ask them for any money.

***Conversation* E**

S1. I'd like to speak to the personnel manager, please.
S2. May I ask what it's about?
S1. I'd like to see him about the position advertised in today's newspaper.
S2. Certainly. Just have a seat over there for a moment.

73. OFFICE DETAILS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. How long has that man been over there at the desk?
S2. About a minute or two, I think.
S1. Can you find out .what he wants?
S2. I'll ask him right away.

Conversation B

S1. Has the secretary the letter yet?
S2. Yes. She's already sent them the letter.
S1. She still hasn't sent a copy of the letter to me.
S2. I forgot to tell you she gave me your copy.

Conversation C

S1. To whom did you send the invoice?
S2. I sent it the General Sales Company.
S1. Specifically, whom did you address it to?
S2. I addressed it to the purchasing agent.

Conversation D

S1. Have you finished the report on current inventory yet?
S2. No, I haven't, but I certainly wish I had.
S1. Why haven't you finished it?
S2. I didn't have enough time to spend on it yesterday.

Conversation E

S1. I’m having some trouble with this sales-volume report.
S2. You didn't have any trouble with your report last week.
S1. Well, there are some difficult parts in this one.
S2. I'm sorry, but I don't have any suggestions.

74. OFFICE CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did you spend all your time on today?
S2. Checking the annual report.
S1. Was everything in it right?
S2. No. I discovered several errors.

Conversation B

S1. How is the mail handled?
S2. The executive secretary opens it and sorts it out.
S1. Is any record kept of incoming mail?
S2. Yes.-Everything is entered on the mail register.

Conversation C

S1. Do you receive many inquiries about your product?
S2. Yes. There are a good number every day,
S1. You can't answer all of them personally~ can you?
S2. No. Unless they're obviously important, we send back a form

***Conversation* D**

S1. I'd like to dictate a letter to the A.B.C. Company.
S2. Just a moment please, while I get my shorthand notebook.
S1. Would you also bring me the previous correspondence with them?
S2. I've already put the file on your desk.

Conversation E

S1. I've been working very hard recently.
S2. How come you've been working so hard?
S1 I've been trying to impress my boss.
S2. I hope you haven't in vain.

75. CONVERSATIONS ABOUT SCHOOL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Does Dr. Taylor teach every day?
S2. No. Only Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.
S1. Is Dr. Taylor teaching right now?
S2. No, he isn't. He's working in his office.

Conversation B

S1. Why doesn't John practice anymore?
S2. He doesn't have much free time.
S1. He used to have a lot of free time, didn't he?
S2. Yes, he did, but now he's going to school every night.

Conversation B

S1. What are you studying this semester?
S2. History, English, and math.
S1. Which do you like best?
S2. Hist5o2rl.y really interests me the most.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Not all students do their lessons carefully.
S2. I do mine carefully.
S1. But your brother often does his at the last moment.
S2. And my sister always does hers a day or two late.

Conversation E

S1. How come you aren't at school today?
S2. There aren't any classes this week.
S1. Well, how come there aren't any classes?
S2. This is our spring vacation.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

Does Dr. Taylor teach every day?	**He teaches on Monday.**
Does Dr. Taylor write every day?	**He writes on Tuesday.**
Does Dr. Taylor drive every day?	**He drives on Wednesday.**
Does Dr. Taylor watch every day?	**He watches on Thursday.**
Does Dr. Taylor listen every day?	**He listens on Friday.**
Does Dr. Taylor practice every day?	**He practices on Saturday.**
Does Dr. Taylor rest every day?	**He rests on Sunday.**

Exercise* 2 *I Lines A1 and A3 I

Does he teach every day?	**Is he teaching right now?**
Do they study every day?	**Are they studying right now?**

Do you practice every day?	**Are you practicing right now?**
Does she drive every day?	**Is she driving right now?**
Do they watch every day?	**Are they watching right now?**
Does he listen every day?	**Is he listening right now?**
Do you rest every day?	**Are you resting right now?**

Exercise 3 / Lines A1 and A3 /

They listen every day.	**Do they listen every day?**
He's studying right now.	**Is he studying right now?**
She walks every day.	**Does she walk every day?**
I'm practicing right now.	**Are you practicing right now?**
They drive every day.	**Do they drive every day?**
He's teaching right now.	**Is he teaching right now?**

Exercise* 4 / *Line B1 /

John doesn't practice anymore.	**Why doesn't John practice anymore?**
We don't practice anymore.	**Why don't you practice anymore?**
They don't practice anymore.	**Why don't they practice anymore?**
Mary doesn't practice anymore.	**Why doesn’t Mary practice any more?**
I don't practice anymore.	**Why don't you practice anymore?**
The boys don't practice any more	**Why don't the boys practice anymore?**

Exercise* 5 / *Line B2 /

He doesn't have much time.	**He has a lot of time.**
He doesn't have many friends.	**He has a lot of friends.**
He doesn't have much experience.	**He has a lot of experience**
He doesn't have many books.	**He has a lot of books.**
He doesn't have much information.	**He has a lot of books.**
He doesn't have much training.	**He has a lot of information.**
He doesn’t have much money.	**He has a lot of training.**
He has a lot of time.	**He has a lot of money.**

Exercise* 6 / *Line B3 /

He had a lot of time.	**He had lots of time.**
He had a lot of friends.	**He had lots of friends.**
He had a lot of experience.	**He had lots of experience.**
He had a lot of books.	**He had lots of books.**
He had a lot of information.	**He had lots of Information.**
He had a lot of training.	**He had lots of training.**
He had a lot of money.	**He had lots of money.**

Exercise* 7 / *Line B3 /

He used to have a lot of free time.

practice every day	**He used to practice every day.**
study almost every night	**He used to study almost every night**
read a lot of books	**He used to read a lot of books.**
learn everything by hear	**He used to learn everything by heart**

be a good student **He used to be a good student.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line B3 /

He used to have a lot or free time. **But he doesn't any more.**
They used to practice every day. **But they don't any more.**
She used to study almost every night. **But she doesn't any more.**
I used to read a lot of books. **But I don't any more.**
You used to learn everything by heart. **But you don't any more.**
He used to work in the evening. **But he doesn't any more.**

***Exercise* 9 / *Line* B4 /**

He's going to school every night.

We **We're going to school every night.**
They **They're going to school every night.**
I **I'm going to school *every* night.**
She **She's going to school *every* night.**
Tom and I **Tom and I are going to school every night.**

***Exercise* 10 / *Line* C 1 /**

I'm studying English this semester. **What are you studying this semester?**
She's studying geography this semester. **What's she studying this semester?**
They're studying history this semester. **What are they studying this semester?**
We're studying math this semester. **What are you studying this semester?**
He's studying chemistry this semester. **What's he studying this semester?**
Tom and I are studying physics this semester. **What are Tom and you studying this semester?**

***Exercise* 11 / *Line* C4 /**

History really interests me the most.

Chemistry **Chemistry really interests me the most.**
English **English really interests me the most.**
Math **Math really interests me the most.**
Geography **Geography really interests me the most.**
Physics **Physics really interests me the most.**

***Exercise* 12 / *Line* D1 /**

Not all students do their lessons carefully.

correctly **Not all students do their lessons correctly.**
practice **Not all students practice their lessons correctly.**
thoroughly **Not all students practice their lessons thoroughly**
go over **Not all students go over their lessons thoroughly.**
promptly **Not all students go over their lessons promptly.**

Exercise* 13 / *Line E1 /

How come you aren't at school today? **Why aren't you at school today?**
How come he isn't at school today? **Why isn't he at school today?**
How come they aren't at school today? **Why aren't they at school today?**

How come she isn't at school tad ay? Why isn't she at school today?
How come Tom and you aren't at school today ? Why aren't Tom and you at school today?
How come the girls aren't at school today? Why aren't the girls at school today?

Exercise* 14 / *Line E2 /

There aren't any classes this week.

meetings	**There aren't any meetings this week.**
lectures	**There aren't any lectures this week.**
concerts	**There aren't any concerts this week.**
Discussions	**There aren't any discussions this week.**
examinations	**There aren't any examinations this week.**

Exercise* 15/ *Line E2 /

There aren't any classes this week.

meetings	**There aren't any meetings this week.**
today or tomorrow	**There aren't any meetings today or tomorrow.**
lectures	**There aren't any lectures today or tomorrow.**
during our vacation	**There ·aren't any lectures during our vacation.**
examinations	**There aren't any examinations during our vacation.**

76. GOING TO SCHOOL / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why are you so worried?
S2. My sister doesn't study hard enough.
S1. Isn't she interested in school?
S2. School interests her, but homework doesn't.

Conversation B

S1. I'm worried about-my school work.
S2. What's the problem?
S1. I think I'm going to fail the examinations.
S2. Maybe you won't if you have more confidence.

***Conversation* C**

S1. What are you going to study at the University?
S2. Probably history and English.
S1. You'll have to work hard.
S2. Yes. I've heard that it's a difficult school.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What did you apply for?
S2. I applied for a scholarship.
S1. What school did you apply to?
S2. I applied to Eastern State College.

***Conversation* E**

S1. I understand the boys applications were turned down.
S2. Who turned them down?
S1. I think the college admissions committee.
S2. I'd advise them to try again.

Exercise* 1/ *Line A2 /

My sister doesn't study hard enough.

carefully	**My sister doesn't study carefully enough.**
read	**My sister doesn't read carefully enough.**
thoroughly	**My sister doesn't read thoroughly enough.**
Practice	**My sister doesn't practice thoroughly enough.**
long enough	**My sister doesn't practice long enough.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A3 /

Isn't she interested in that?	**She's interested in that, isn't she?**
Isn't she satisfied with that?	**She's satisfied with that, isn't she?**
Isn't she annoyed over that?	**She's annoyed over that, isn't she?**
Isn't she accustomed to that?	**She's accustomed to that, isn't she?**
Isn't she adjusted to that?	**She's adjusted to that, isn't she?**
Isn't she concerned about that?	**She's concerned about that, isn't she?**

***Exercise* 3 / *Line* A3 /**

Isn't she interested in school?

tired of	**Isn't she tired of school?**
her work	**Isn't she tired of her work?**
satisfied with	**Isn't she satisfied with her work?**
annoyed over	**Isn't she annoyed over her work?**
all the changes	**Isn't she annoyed over all the changes?**
accustomed to	**Isn't she accustomed to all the changes?**
worried about	**Isn't she worried about all the changes?**
getting a job	**Isn't she worried about getting a job?**
concerned about	**Isn't she concerned about getting a job?**
excited about	**Isn't she excited about getting a job?**
studying English	**Isn't she excited about studying English?**
involved in	**Isn't she involved in studying English?**
adjusted to	**Isn't she adjusted to studying English?**
our new schedule	**Isn't she adjusted to our new schedule?**
disappointed in	**Isn't she disappointed in our new schedule?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D 1 /**

What did you apply for?

complain about	**What did you complain about?**
comment on	**What did you comment on?**
listen to	**What did you listen to?**
succeed in	**What did you succeed in?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line* D 1 /**

Did you apply for a scholarship?	**What did you apply for?**
Did you complain about the noise?	**What did you complain about?**
Did you comment on the suggestion?	**What did you comment on?**
Did you listen to that program?	**What did you listen to?**
Did you succeed in your work?	**What did you succeed in?**

Exercise* 6 / *Lines E1 and E2 /

They were turned down.	**Who turned them down?**
They were looked over.	**Who looked them over?**
They were thrown away.	**Who threw them away?**
They were taken back.	**Who took them back?**
They were used up.	**Who used them up?**
They were given away.	**Who gave them away?**

Exercise* 7 / *Line E4 /

I'd advise them to try again.

ask	**I'd ask them to try again.**
urge	**I'd urge them to try again.**
Force	**I'd force them to try again.**
Instruct	**I'd instruct them to try again.**
Persuade	**I'd persuade them to try again.**

Exercise* 8 / *Line E4 /

They advised him to go.	**He was advised to go.**
They asked him to go.	**He was asked to go.**
They urged him to go.	**He was urged to go.**
They forced him to go.	**He was forced to go.**
They instructed him to go.	**He was instructed to go.**
They persuaded him to go.	**He was persuaded to go.**

77. THE ENGLISH CLASS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. English is the hardest language in the world.
S2. Why do you say that?
S1. I can't understand it or speak it.
S2. But this is only your first day in the English class!

Conversation B

S1. How do you pronounce this word in English?
S2. It's pronounced "sign.
S1. What's a sign"?
S2. It's "public notice."

***Conversation* C**

S1. What do you call this thing in English?
S2. It's a "hammer."
S1 What's the word for the things you hit with a hammer?
S2. "Nails" You pound nails into wood with a hammer.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do you ask for help politely?
S2. You say, "Could you help me, please?"
S1. Is it all right to say, "Could you please help me?"
S2. Yes. You can say it that way too.

Conversation E

S1. Can you understand spoken English very well?
S2. Can understand you, but most people speak too fast.
S1. How about speaking? Can you carryon a conversation?
S2. I'm really not very fluent yet.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

English is hard.	**It's the hardest language. in the world.**
English is difficult.	**It's the most difficult language in the world.**
English is easy.	**It's the simplest language in the world.**
English is complicated.	**It's' the most complicated language in the world.**
English is simple.	**It's the easiest language in the world.**

Exercise* 2 / *Line A4 /

This is your first day in the class.

week	**This is your first week in the class.**
the office	**This is your first week in the office.**
third	**This is your third week in the office.**
month	**This is your third month in the office.**
factory	**This is your third month in the factory.**

***Exercise* 3 / *Lines* D2 *and* D3 /**

Could you help me, please?	**Could you please help me?**
Could you come here, please?	**Could you please come here?**
Could you wait there, please?	**Could you please wait there?**
Could you correct this, please?	**Could you please correct this?**
Could you translate it, please?	**Could you please translate it?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D3 /**

Is it all right to say that?

Correct	**Is it correct to say that?**
incorrect	**Is it incorrect to say that?**
proper	**Is it proper to say that?**
improper	**Is it improper to say that?**
polite	**Is it polite to say that?**
impolite	**Is it impolite to say that?**

***Exercise* 5 / *Line D*3 /**

Can you speak?	**How about speaking?**
Can you write?	**How about writing?**
Can you read?	**How about reading?**
Can you follow it?	**How about following it?**
Can you pronounce it?	**How about pronouncing it?**

78. LEARNING AND USING ENGLISH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do you want to learn English?
S2. Yes, I do-very much.
S1. Do you want English?
S2. Because it'll5b2.e useful in the future.

Conversation B

S1. I want to learn English.
S2. Then you must speak it.
S1. Why must I speak it?
S2. Because you want to learn it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you understand the sentence?
S2. I don't understand it completely.
S1. All right, the5n1. I'll repeat it.
S2. Thank you v5e2r.y much this?

Conversation D

S1. Did you understand what I said?
S2. No, didn't. Would say it again?
S1. Of course. I'll say it again slowly.
S2. That will help a lot.

Conversation E

S1. Please write down John's address.
S2. All right, but would you please speak very slowly?
S1. Yes. Do you me to spell each word too?
S2. Not the numbers-only the names.

79. LANGUAGE LEARNING PROBLEMS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. What are you studying right now?
S2. I'm doing my English assignment.
S1 What's the hardest thing about English?
S2. Pronunciation is the hardest thing for me.

Conversation B

S1. Can Peter understand French as well as English?
S2. Yes, and he can speak it well too.
S1. I can't speak a word of any language except my own.
S2. Neither can I.

Conversation C

S1. That man is able to speak three or four languages.
S2. Yes, and he can speck them well, I understand
S1. Could you learn three or four languages?
S2. I could if I had a hundred years to do it.

Conversation D

S1. I'm feeling very discouraged.
S2. What's the matter?
S1. When people talk to me, they talk too fast.
S2. You'll have to listen faster then.

Conversation E

S1. Learning languages is difficult.
S2. I wish there were only one language in the world.
S1. Then we'd have to learn it.
S2. That's the trouble, isn't it?

80. DRIVING A CAR / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why don't we park the car there?
S2. That's a no-parking zone.
S1. There are parking meters in the next block.
S2. Let's see if we can find a space there then.

Conversation B

S1. You'd better turn left at the next corner.
S2. I can't-no left turn.
S1. Then we'll have to drive around the block.
S2. It looks like it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. You're driving too fast.
S2. What's the speed limit?
S1. It's fifty miles per hour.
S2. Then, I'm under the limit.

***Conversation* D**

S1. How do you like your new car?
S2. Great! I really like the automatic shift.
S1. Does it have power steering?
S2. Yes, and it's got power brakes too.

Conversation E

S1. You drive very well.
S2. Thanks. I always try to be cautious.
S1. You are, but best of all, you drive very smoothly.
S2. Steady pressure on the accelerator and brakes is imp cant

81. CAR REPAIR / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. My car won't start.
S2. Press the starter button.
S1. Nothing happens when I press the starter.
S2. Then your battery is dead.

Conversation B

S1. Could you help me for a moment, please?
S2. What can I do for you?
S1. Could you look over my radiator?
S2. I'll check it after I help that other man.

Conversation C

S1. What's your brother doing?
S2. He's fixing the motor of the car
S1. Does he need any help?
S2. I don't think so.

Conversation D

S1. Could you look over my car?
S2. What's the matter?
S1. Well, don't know.
S2. I can look at it now if you can wait.

Conversation E

S1. Could you change my right tire, please? It's flat.
S2. Certainly. Do you want us to fix it too?
S1. Would you please?
S2. We'll have it ready for you tomorrow morning.

82. GENERAL CONVERSATION (1)

Conversation A

S1. Where were you born?
S2. I was born here.
S1. Have you lived here all your life?
S2. Yes, I have.

Conversation B

S1. Whom will you get the money from?
S2. We'll get it from our parents.
S1. What will you spend the money on?
S2. We'll spend it on books and supplies.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Do you want me to wait for you?
S2. No. I can take care of everything myself.
S1. Can't we get together a little later then?
S2. Sure. I'll be through in about half an hour.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What took you so long?
S2. I had a lot of things to do.
S1. We'd better hurry, or we'll be late.
S2. I think you're right.

Conversation E

S1. I'm starting my vacation next week.
S2. You ought to see as much as you can.
S1. That's what I think too.
S2. You really ought to travel by bus then.

83. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS (2)

Conversation A

S1. Where did you get that book?
S2. From the library in my neighborhood.
S1. Is it a good library?
S2. Come with me and see for yourself.

Conversation B

S1. We're going to be 1ate for the meeting.
S2. When does it start?
S1. It starts in exactly fifteen minutes.
S2. I think we'll be on time.

***Conversation* C**

S1. 50mething is bothering me.
S2. What's bothering you?
S1. I think I left the lights on in my apartment.
S2. Well, there's nothing you can do about it now.

***Conversation* D**

S1. What does that sign say?
S2. It says "No Smoking."
S1. What are you doing?
S2. I'm putting out my cigarette.

Conversation E

S1. I'm sorry I'm late for our appointment.
S2. What happened?
S1. The traffic was very heavy.
S2. It's always bad at this time of the day.

84. GENERAL CONVERSATION (3)

Conversation A

S1. Where' Mrs. King?
S2. She's in the other office right now.
S1. Do you expect her back soon?
S2. Yes, I do. In just a few minutes.

Conversation B

S1. Someone wants to talk to you on the telephone.
S2. Who is it? Do you know?
S1. I'm sorry, but I forgot to ask.
S2. It's *OK.* I think I know who it is.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Will there be a meeting here next week?
S2. No, but there'll be one on the twentieth.
S1. Will there be many people at the meeting?
S2. According to John, there will.

***Conversation* D**

S1. "Thy do you have to go to Hawaii?
S2. I'm going for business reasons.
S1. How will you travel, by boat or by plane?
S2. 1ost likely, I'll go by plane.

Conversation E

S1. Would you like to go to the store with us?
S2. I'd like to, but I've got to do some work.
S1. Why don't you do it later?
S2. I wish I could, but I can't.

86. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I'd like to speak to Mr. Smith.
S2. Sorry. He isn't in now.
S1. Can I leave a message for him?
S2. Yes. 1'11 take the message.

Conversation B

S1. Fred has to stay home, but I don't.
S2. I don't either.
S1. Would you like to with John and me?
S2. Yes, I certainly would.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Where were you last Tuesday and Wednesday?
S2. I was out of town.
S1. Why did you leave town so suddenly?
S2. A friend was sick and needed help.

***Conversation* D**

S1. That's a good-looking suit you have on.
S2. Thank you for the compliment.
S1. When did you get it?
S2. About two or three weeks ago.

Conversation E

S1. John hasn't called us yet.
S2. I thought he called you yesterday.
S1. No. We didn't hear from him at all.
S2. I wonder what happened?

87. GENERAL CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. What's the matter?
S2. I'm worried about something.
S1. What's wrong?
S2. I think I've lost my billfold.

Conversation B

S1. Are you coming to the meeting tomorrow?
S2. I'm coming.
S1. Aren't you worried about driving in this weather?
S2. Of course not.

***Conversation* C**

S1. How do you start this machine? I
S2. You just push the red button.
S1. Where's the button?
S2. It's right in front of you.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Well, it's cool and cloudy again today.
S2. I wish that the sun were out.
S1. It looks to me as if it's going to rain.
52. The farmers would like it if it did.

Conversation E

S1. If you had a lot of money, what would you buy?
S2 .I 1'd buy a big boat.
S1. What would you do with it?
S2. I'd take all my friends around the world.

88. SIMPLE QUESTIONS AND NEGATIVES / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Fred practices very hard, I notice.
S2. Does he practice every day?
S1. Yes, he does.
S2. I don't practice that much.

Conversation B

S1. I'm having some trouble with my report.
S2. Are you having trouble with the last part?
S1. Yes, I am.
S2. Well, everyone is having trouble with that part.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We saw the new flower show.
S2. Did you see it on the opening day?
S1. Yes, we did.
S2. We didn't see it until the following day.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you write letters to all your friends?
S2. No, but I wrote letters to some of them.
S1. Are you going to write to everyone?
S2. Well, I'm going to write to as many as possible.

Conversation E

S1. Mary has only worn her new coat twice.
S2. Has she worn her new spring suit yet?
S1. Yes, she has. 5everal times, in fact.
S2. I know she hasn't worn her new shoes yet.

Exercise 1

1.	**John studies.**	**Does John study?**
	every day	**Does John study every day?**
	(?)	**Yes, he does. He studies every day.**
2.	**Fred doesn't study.**	**Doesn’t Fred Study?**
	every day	**Doesn’t Fred study every day?**
	(?)	**No, he doesn’t. He doesn’t study every day.**
3.	**The girl is studying.**	**Is the girl studying?**
	right now	**Is the girl studying right now?**
	(?)	**Yes, she is. She’s studying right now.**
4.	**They aren't studying.**	**Aren’t they studying?**
	right now	**Aren’t they studying right now?**

	(?)	No, they aren't. They aren't studying right now.
5.	Mary studied.	Did Mary study?
	Yesterday	Did Mary study yesterday?
	(?)	Yes, she did. She studied yesterday.
6.	Fred didn't study.	Didn't Fred study?
	yesterday '	Didn't Fred study yesterday?
	(?)	No, he didn't. study yesterday.
7.	I'm going to study.	Are you going to study?
	Tomorrow	Are you going to study tomorrow?
	(?)	Yes, I am. I'm going to study tomorrow.
8.	He isn't going to study.	Isn't he going to study?
	tomorrow	isn't he going to study tomorrow?
	(?)	No, he isn't. he is not going to study tomorrow.
9.	The girl will study.	Will the girl study?
	Tomorrow	Will the girl study tomorrow?
	(?)	Yes, she will. She'll study tomorrow.
10.	The men won't study.	Won't the men study?
	Tomorrow	Won't the men study tomorrow?
	(?)	No, they won't. They won't study tomorrow.
11.	John has studied.	Has John studied?
	since June	Has John studied since June?
	(?)	Yes, he has. He's studied since June.
12.	Fred hasn't studied.	Hasn't Fred studied?
	since June	Hasn't Fred studied since June?
	(?)	No, he hasn't. He hasn't studied since June.

Exercise 2

1.	He isn't in his office now.	Isn't he in his office now
	(?)	No, he isn't He isn't in his office now
2.	He works very efficiently.	Does he work very efficiently?
	(?.)	Yes, he does. He works very efficiently?
3.	He hasn't tried that	Hasn't he tried that method?
	method.	No, he hasn't. He hasn't tried that method
	(?)	
4.	He wore a new suit yesterday	Did he wear a new suit yesterday?
	(?)	Yes, he did. He work a new suit yesterday.
5.	He couldn't be with them.	Couldn't he be with them?
	(?)	No, he couldn't. He couldn't be with them.
6.	He won't have enough time.	Won't he have enough time?
	(?)	No, he won't. He won't have enough time.
7.	He found the correct answer.	Did he find the correct answer? Yes, he.
	(?)	did. He found the correct answer
8.	He's forgotten their	Has he forgotten their names?
	names	Yes, he has. He's forgotten their names.
	(?)	their names.
9.	He wasn't working on	Wasn't he working on that?
	that.	No, he wasn't.
	(?)	He wan't working on that.
10.	He must rely on his	Must he rely on his friends?
	friends.	Yes, he must. He must rely on
	(?)	his friends.
11.	He has to explain every	Does he have to explain every thing?
	today.	
	(?)	Yes, he does. He has to explain every thing
12.	He didn't drive to work	Didn't the drive to work today?

	today (?)	No, he didn't. He didn't drive to work today. to work today.
13.	He does all his work promptly. (?)	Shouldn't he have waited? No, he shouldn't have. He shouldn't have waited.
14.	He does all his work promptly. (?)	Does he do all his work Promptly? Yes, he does. He does all his work promptly.
15.	He'll meet the men there. (?)	Will he meet the men there? Yes, he will. He'll meet the men there. Men there.
16.	He used to enjoy baseball. (?)	Did he use to enjoy baseball? Yes, he did. He used to enjoy baseball.

89. SHORT ANSWER (1) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Don't you work every Saturday morning?
S2. No, we don't. Just on occasion.
S1. Did you work last Saturday morning?
S2. No, we didn't

Conversation B

S1. Didn't those tourists go to the park yesterday?
S2. Yes, they did.
S1. Did they to with you and John?
S2. No, they didn't but we saw them there.

Conversation C

S1. Are you going to your class now?
S2. No. I'm not, but I'll be leaving shortly.
S1. Do you go to school every afternoon?
S2. No, I don't. Only Tuesday and Thursday afternoons.

Conversation D

S1. Have you ever been to the Central Zoo?
S2. No, I never have.
S1. Would you care to go there with me tomorrow?
S2. Yes, I certainly would.

Conversation E

S1. Shouldn't you answer their letter quite soon?
S2. Ye, I really should.
S1. Don't you have to send them some money too?
S2. No, I don't. Not in this next letter.

90. SHORT ANSWERS (2) / CONVERSATION

Conversation A

S1. Are you going to attend the reception?
S2. Yes, I am.
S1. Are you going to stay very late?
S2. No, I'm not.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Are there many rooms in their apartment'?
S2. Yes, there are. About six, I think
S1. Is there much light in the apartment?
S2. No, there isn't, because there are very few Windows.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Are You reading that magazine?
S2. Yes, I am. I'm reading the book review.
S1. Are You using your dictionary?
S2. No, I'm not, but I'm doing quite well.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Has John spoken to you yet?
S2. Yes, he has, and he's spoken to Mrs. White too.
S1. Did he speak to you yesterday'?
S2. Yes, he did. Around four o'clock.

Conversation E

S1. Will Mary be at the party?
S2. Yes, she will, but she'll be a little late.
S1. Will she be with her weekend guests?
S2. No, she won't.

E1xercise 1

1.	**Does he practice?**	**Yes, he does.**
2.	**Will he practice?**	**Yes, he will.**
3.	**Can he practice?**	**Yes, he, can.**
4.	**What does he do?**	**He practice.**
5.	**What can he do?**	**He'll practice.**
6.	**What can he do?**	**He can practice.**
7.	**should they do?**	**Yes, they should.**
8.	**Have they read?**	**Yes, they have.**
9.	**Are they reading?**	**Yes, they are.**
10.	**What should they do?**	**They should read.**
11.	**What have they done?**	**They've read.**
12.	**What are they doing?**	**They're reading.**
13.	**Did you copy them?**	**Yes, I did.**

14.	**Must you copy them?**	**Yes, I must**
15.	**Have you copied them?**	**Yes, I Have**
16.	**What did you do?**	**I copied them.**
17.	**What must you do?**	**I must copy them.**
18.	**What have you done?**	**I've copied them.**
19.	**Isn't she going to go home?**	**Yes, she is.**
20.	**Wasn't she going home?**	**Yes, she was**
21.	**Hadn't she better go home?**	**Yes, she'd better.**
22.	**What's she going to do?**	**She's going to go home.**
23.	**What was she doing?**	**She was going home.**
24.	**What had she better do?**	**She'd better go home.**
25.	**Shouldn't he speak English?**	**Yes, he should.**
26.	**Didn't he have to speak English?**	**Yes, he did.**
27.	**Couldn't he speak English?**	**Yes, he could.**
28.	**What should he do?**	**He should speak English.**
29.	**What did he have to do?**	**He had to speak English.**
30.	**What could he do?**	**He could speak English.**

91. INTERROGATIVE WORDS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Is that Mr. Brown's office?
S2. Yes, it is.
S1. Whose office is this?
S2. This office is Mr. Green's.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Where's there a bus stop?
S2. I'm sorry. I didn't hear you.
S1. Is there a bus stop at the next corner?
S2. No, but there's a bus stop two blocks from here.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did the Italian students arrive here during the summer?
S2. No. They arrived here just a month ago.
S1. How long ago did the Greek students arrive?
S2. They arrived exactly two months ago.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you paint your garage on Saturday?
S2. Yes. I painted the whole garage in three hours.
S1. What color did you paint it?
S2. I finally decided to paint it blue.

C*onversation E*

S1. Is Tom's dictionary around here anyplace?
S2. Yes. Tom's dictionary is over there on the table.
S1. Which one is Tom's-the red one or the blue one?
S2. The red one is his.

Exercise 1

1.	**They're studying.**	**What are they studying?**
	(??)	**They're studying their lessons.**
2.	**She'll study.**	**What will she study?**
	(??)	**She'll study her lesson.**
3.	**I studied.**	**What did you study?**
	(??)	**I studied my lessons.**
4.	**He's studying.**	**What did you study?**
	(??)	**He's studying his lesson.**
5.	**They've studied.**	**What have they studied?**
	(??)	**They've studied their lessons.**
6.	**I'm going to study.**	**What are you going to study?**
	(?)	

7.	**She can study.**	**What can she study?**
	(??)	**She can study her lessons.**
8.	**He studies.**	**What does he study?**
	(??)	**He studies his lessons.**
9.	**They must study.**	**What must they study?**
	(??)	**They must study their lessons.**
10.	**I should study.**	**What should you study?**
	(??)	**I should study my lessons.**
11.	**They were studying.**	**What were they studying?**
	(??)	**They were studying their lessons.**
12.	**He used to study.**	**What did he use to study?**
	(??)	**He used to study his lessons.**
13.	**She's supposed to study.**	**What's she supposed to study?**
	(??)	**She's supposed to study her lessons.**
14.	**They'll study.**	**What will they study?**
	(??)	**They'll study their lessons.**
15.	**I'd better study.**	**What had you better study?**
	(??)	**I'd better study my lessons.**
16.	**They have to study.**	**What do they have to study?**
	(??)	**They have to study their lessons.**
17.	**He's been studying.**	**What's he been studying?**
	(??)	**He's been studying his lessons.**
18.	**We had to study.**	**What did you have to study?**
	(??)	**We had to study our lessons.**

Exercise 2

1.	**I'll write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where will you write?**
		I'll write at home
2.	**I wrote my English lesson.**	
	(??)	**What did you write?**
		I wrote my English lesson
3.	**I must write for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why must you write?**
		I must write for extra practice
4.	**I should write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When should you write?**
		I should write in the evening.
5.	**I've written to Mr. Brown.**	
	(??)	**Whom have you written to?**
		I've written to Mr. Brown.
6.	**I write for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why do you write?**
		I write for extra practice.
7.	**I'm going to write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where are you going to write?**
		I'm going to write at home.
8.	**I used to write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When did you use to write?**
		I used to write in the evening.
9.	**I'm writing for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why are you writing?**
		I'm writing for extra practice.
10.	**I have to write to Mr. Brown**	
	(??)	**Whom do you have to write to?**
		I have to write to Mr. Brown.
11.	**I was writing my English lesson**	
	(??).	**What were you writing?**
		I was writing my English lesson.
12.	**I wrote for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why did you write?**
		I wrote for extra practice.
13.	**I an write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where can you write?**
		I can write at home.
14.	**I plan to write to Mr.**	
	(??)	**Whom do you plan to write to?**
		I plan to write to Mr. Brown.
15.	**I'm writing for extra practice.**	
	(??)	**Why are you writing?**
		I'm writing for extra practice.
16.	**I write in the evening.**	
	(??)	**When do you write?**
		I write in the evening.
17.	**I've written my English lesson.**	
	(??)	**What have you written?**
		I've written my English lesson.
18.	**I had to write at home.**	
	(??)	**Where did you have to write?**
		I had to write at home.

92. INTERROGATIVE WORDS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. We should complain about the service in this store.
S2. Should we to one of clerks?
S1. I don't think so.
S2. Whom should we complain to then?

Conversation B

S1. Have you chosen furniture for your apartment yet?
S2. No, we haven't.
S1. Why haven't you chosen any yet?
S2. Frankly, we just haven't had enough time.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Does Mary have to go?
S2. Yes, she does. She has to go to the airport.
S1. How soon does she have to go?
S2. I'm not sure just how soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you prefer this picture or that one?
S2. Of those two, I think I prefer the bottom one.
S1. Which one of the other two do you prefer?
S2. I really can't decide.

Conversation E

S1. I couldn't finish all the work yesterday.
S2. How come you couldn't finish it?
S1. Because I got started too late.
S2. Why don't you get started earlier next time?

Exercise 1

1. What can he do?	**He can write.**
2. What should he do?	**He should write.**
3. What does he do?	**He writes.**
4. What will he do?	**He'll write.**
5. What's he doing?	**He's writing.**
6. What must he do?	**He must write.**
7. What's he done?	**He's written.**
8. What did he do?	**He wrote.**
9. What was he doing?	**He was writing.**
10. What had he better do?	**He'd better write.**
11. What's he going to do?	**He's going to write.**
12. What does he plan to do?	**He plans to write.**

13. What could he do? **He could write.**
14. What did he have to do? **He had to write.**
15. What should he have done? **He should have written.**
16. What did he use to do? **He used to write.**

Exercise 2

1. They'll write something. **What will they write?**
2. They were writing something. **What were they writing?**
3. They write something. **What do they write?**
4. They've written something. **What have they written?**
5. They're going to write something. **What are they going to write?**
6. They should write something. **What should they write?**
7. They can write something. **What can they write?**
8. They wrote something. **What did they write?**
9. They must write something. **What must they write?**
10. They're writing something. **What are they writing?**
11. They plan to write something. **What do they plan to write?**
12. They used to write something. **What did they use to write?**
13. They could have written something. **What could they have written?**
14. They'd better write something **What had they better write?**

Exercise 3

1. He can write **Where?** **Where can he write?**
At home **He can write at home**
2. He should write. **How much?** **How much should he write?**
Two pages **He should write tow pages.**
3. He writes. **When?** **When does he write?**
In the morning **He writes in the morning.**
4. He'll write. **What?** **What will he write?**
A short report **He'll write a short report.**
5. He's writing. **To whom?** **To whom is he writing?**
Mr. Brown **He's writing to Mr. Brown.**
6. He must write. **Why?** **Why must he write?**
To apply for a **He must he write?**
7. He's written. **How often?** **How often has he written?**
Every six month **He's written every six months.**
8. He wrote. **Which one?** **Which one did he write?**
The long one **He wrote the long one.**
9. He was writing. **What for?** **What was he writing for?**
Because he had to **He was writing because he had to**
10. He'd better write. **When?** **When had he better write?**
Tonight **He's going to write? a letter**
11. He's going to write. **What?** **What's he going to write?**
A letter? **He's going to write a letter.**
12. He plans to write. **To whom?** **To whom does he plan to write?**
Mary **He plans to write to Mary.**
13. He could write. **How much?** **How much could he write?**
Only two pages **He could write only tow pages.**
14. He had to write. **Why?** **Why did he have to write?**
To satisfy them **He had to write to satisfy them.**
15. He should write. **What?** **What should write an apology.**
An apology **He should write an apology.**
16, He used to write. **How often?** **How often did he use to write?**
Once a month **He used to write once a month.**

Exercise 4

1.	**Did he take that one?**	
	Which one?	**Which one did he take?**
	(??)	**He took that one.**
2.	**Is Bill going to the movies now?**	
	Where?	**Where's Bill going now?**
	(??)	**He's going to the movies now.**
3.	**Wasn't it there because of that?**	
	Why?	**Why wasn't it there?**
	(??)	**It wasn't there because of that.**
4.	**Should we complain to the manager?**	
	Whom?	**Whom should we complain to?**
	(??)	**We should complain to the manager**
5.	**Couldn't you get to Boston because of that?**	**Why couldn't you get tc Boston?**
	Why?	**I couldn't get to Boston because of that**
	(??)	
6.	**Did he come here four months ago?**	**How long ago did he come here?**
	How long ago?	**He came here four months ago.**
	(??)	
7.	**Does she want her tea with cream?**	
	How?	**How does she want her tea?**
	(??)	**She wants her tea with cream.**
8.	**Is there a bus stop at the next comer?**	**Where's there a bus stop?**
	Where?	**There's a bus stop at the next corner.**
	(??)	
9.	**Should we buy groceries today?**	**What should we buy today?**
	What?	**We should buy groceries today.**
	(??)	
10.	**Did they use to get there by bus?**	**How did they use to get there?**
	How?	**They used to get there by bus.**
	(??)	
11.	**Did you have to travel for business reasons?**	**Why did you have to travel?**
	Why?	**I had to travel for business reasons.**
	(??)	

93. IRREGULAR VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Have you found a picture for your room yet?
S2. Yes lucky 'enough to find one yesterday.
S1. Have you put it on the wall yet?
S2. No, but I'm going to put it up this afternoon.

Conversation B

S1. Have you heard about Robert's bad luck?
S2. No. What happened to him?
S1. I hear he's lost his job.
S2. You can't believe everything you hear.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Someone stole money from the company last month.
S2. Some money was stolen two months ago too.
S2. I think the person who's stealing money will be caught.
S1. JohSn2.said he thought the police would catch the thief soon.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you bring your umbrella today?
S2. No, but I brought my tan raincoat.
S1. Maybe Fred will lend me his umbrella.
S2. I think he's already lent his to someone.

Conversation E

S1. Have you ridden in Fred's new car yet?
S2. Yes, I have. I rode in it last night.
S1. Did Fred let you drive the car?
S2. Yes. I drove it around the block a couple of times.

Exercise 1

1.	**Did you write the letter?**	**Yes, 1 did. I wrote it yesterday.**
2.	**Did he drive the car?**	**Yes, he did. He drove it yesterday.**
3.	**Did they do the work?**	**Yes, they did. They did it yesterday.**
4.	**Did she send the report?**	**Yes, she did. She sent it yesterday.**
5.	**Did you bring your money?**	**Yes, I did. I brought it yesterday.**
6.	**Did he read the article?**	**Yes, he did. He read it yesterday.**
7.	**Did she begin her work?**	**Yes, she did. She began it yesterday.**
8.	**Did they see the display?**	**Yes, they did. They saw it yesterday.**
9.	**Did he wear his raincoat?**	**Yes, he did. He wore it yesterday**
10.	**Did you buy the bicycle?**	**Yes, I did. I bought it yesterday.**
11.	**Did they hold the meeting?**	**Yes, they did. They held it yesterday.**
12.	**Did she take the package?**	**Yes, she did. She- took it yesterday.**

13.	Did she quit her job?	Yes, she did. She quit it yesterday.
14.	Did he cut the rope?	Yes, he did. He cut it yesterday.
15.	Did they draw the diagram?	Yes, they did. 'They drew it yesterday.
16.	Did she get the message?	Yes, she did. She got it yesterday.

Exercise 2

1.	I forgot something yesterday.	Have you forgotten anything today?
2.	I lost something yesterday.	Have you lost anything today?
3.	I began something yesterday.	Have you begun anything today?
4.	I sold something yesterday.	Have you sold anything today?
5.	I made something yesterday.	Have you made anything today?
6.	I took something yesterday.	Have you taken anything today?
7.	I won something yesterday.	Have you won anything today?
8.	I did something yesterday.	Have you done anything today ?
9.	I read something yesterday.	Have you read anything today?
10.	I wrote something yesterday.	Have you written anything today?
11.	I built something yesterday.	Have you built anything today?
12.	I sent something yesterday.	Have you sent anything today?
13.	I broke something yesterday.	Have you broken anything today?
14.	I brought something yesterday.	Have you brought anything today?
15.	I tore something yesterday.	Have you torn anything today?
16.	I drew something yesterday.	Have you drawn anything today?

Exercise 3

1.	You do that work well.	You've always done that work well.
2.	The girl writes accurately.	She's always written accurately.
3.	The man tells funny jokes.	He's always told funny jokes.
4.	Those men drive carelessly.	They've always driven carelessly.
5.	He gives money to char*ity.*	He’s...always given money to charity.
6.	Tom sends reports to them.	He's always sent reports to them.
7.	The. meetings begin on time.	They've always begun on time.
8.	The motor runs very smoothly.	It's always run very smoothly.
9.	She chooses clothes care fully.	She's always chosen clothes carefully.
10.	John reads the daily reports.	He's always read the daily reports.
11.	You forget people's names.	You've always forgotten people's names.
12.	Mary has trouble with that	She's always had trouble with that.
13.	That man speaks rapidly.	He's always spoken rapidly.
14.	I take good care of my car.	I've always taken good care of my car.
15.	You eat breakfast very early.	You've always eaten breakfast very early.
16.	That man wears a hat to work.	He's always worn a hat to work.

Exercise 4

1.	Has the man ever seen it?	Yes. He saw it yesterday.
2.	Have you broken one?	Yes. I broke one yesterday.
3.	Has Mary ever worn one?	Yes. She wore one yesterday
4.	Have the men heard it?	Yes. They heard it yesterday.
5.	Has the leader begun yet?	Yes. He began yesterday.
6.	Have you ever driven one?	Yes. I drove one yesterday.
7.	Has your sister eaten there?	Yes. She ate there yesterday.
8.	Have the workers done it?	Yes. They did it yesterday.
9.	Have they ever sung it?	Yes. They sang it yesterday.
10.	Has Mr. White sent it?	Yes. He sent it yesterday.
11.	Have the people read it?	Yes. They read it yesterday.

12.	**Has John made one?**	**Yes. He made one yesterday.**
13.	**Has the girl bought one?**	**Yes. She bought one yesterday**
14.	**Have you spoken to him?**	**Yes. I spoke to him yesterday.**

94. IRREGULAR VERBS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you sell those people your house?
S2. We finally sold it to them last week.
S1. Have they given you the money yet?
S2. Yes. They gave it to us just this morning.

Conversation B

S1 Has Robert chosen a new suit yet?
S2. He chose a very nice one on Saturday.
S1. Has he worn his new suit yet?
S2. He wore to the meeting yesterday.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did Alice shut the window?
S2. She shut it a short time ago.
S1. She forgot it this morning.
S2. No. She left it open on purpose.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you read the magazine?
S2. Yes. We read it this morning.
S1. Did you find the article I told you about?
S2. We found it all right, but you didn't tell us it was so long.

Conversation E

S1. Have you gone over that reading selection yet?
S2. Yes. I went over it last weekend.
S1. Did you understand everything in the essay?
S2. I think I understood all the important parts.

95. IRREGULAR VERBS (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Where did you (A) the package?
S2. I (B) (it in the closet.
S1. Would you please (C) it?
S2. I've *(D)* it already.

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
leave	left	open	opened
find	found	unwrap	unwrapped
set	set	move	moved
lay	laid	examine	examined
put	put	return	returned
hide	hid	inspect	inspected
see	saw	deliver	delivered
keep	kept	address	addressed

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's the matter?
S2. We've *A)*
S1. We haven't *(B)* yet.
S2. I'm very surprised.

(A)	*(B)*
spent our money	spent ours
chosen a name	chosen one
seen that movie	seen it
had some food	had any
bought a ticket	bought one
read the papers	read them
done something	done anything
taken that course	taken it

96. IRREGULAR VERBS (4) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

***Conversation Drill* A**

S1. What's on your mind?
S2. Why did you(A)_____
S1 I (B) that because it was necessary.
S2. Of course, you know I haven't(C) one right now.

Conversation Drill B

S1. Have you ever (A)one?
S2. Yes. In fact, I(B) one last week?
S1. I'm going to___(C) one soon.
S2. John is_(D)___one right now.

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
written	Wrote	write	Writing
read	read	read	reading
worn	wore	wear	wearing
driven	drove	drive	driving
done	did	do	doing
given	gave	given	giving
brought	brought	bring	bringing
taken	took	take	taking

97. COMPARISONS (1) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I like this (A) very much.
S2. Did you see the other (B)_____ ?
S1. Yes, but this ___(A) is (A)____than the other one.
S2. I think it's_____(B) too.

(A)	(B)
chair	more comfortable
color	prettier
suitcase	more practical
sweater	warmer
sports car	less conservative
silverware	more modern
television set	better
refrigerator	more convenient

Conversation Drill B

S1. Did you like the last one we saw?
S2. Yes, I did. It's certainly very (A)
S1. It's as *(A)*_____ as the first one, don't you think?
S2. In my opinion, it's ___(B)____ of all.

(A)	(B)
strong	the strongest
accurate	the most accurate
pretty	the prettiest
useful	the most useful
big	the biggest
unusual	the most unusual
comfortable	the most comfortable
nice	the nicest

98. COMPARISONS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I think John *is* quite (A)_____
S2. I've noticed he's doing things _____(A)____
S1. John is always(C)____ than the others.
S2. I know he always does things more __(B)____than I do.

(A)	(B)	(C)
patient	patiently	more patient
quick	quickly	quicker
accurate	accurately	more accurate
deliberate	deliberately	more deliberate
slow	slowly	slower
awkward	awkwardly	more awkward
neat	neatly	neater
thorough	thoroughly	more through

Conversation Drill B

S1. Isn't Mr. Black a (A)____person?
S2. Yes. He's certainly____(B)____
S1. In my opinion, he's the (C)____person in the group
S2. He certainly speaks more(D)__than the present chair man

(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)
wise	wiser	wisest	wisely
confident	more confident	most confident	confidently
calm	calmer	calmest	calmly
earnest	more earnest	most earnest	earnestly
brave	braver	bravest	bravely
cautious	more cautious	most cautious	cautiously
kind	kinder	kindest	kindly
sensible	more sensible	most sensible	sensibly

99. TWO-WORD VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. It's cold outside; I'm going to put on a sweater.
S2. You'd better put a coat on too.
S1. Yes, but we'd better takeoff our things when we're inside.
S2. We can take them off in the hall and hang them up.

Conversation B

S1. Bill found out his application was turned down.
S2. Who turned it down, and how did he find out?
S1. The membership committee turned down his application.
S2. Oh, I see. Then he found out the answer from the secretary.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Did you take down the man's instructions?
S2. Yes. Do you want to look them over?
S1. Yes, please. I want to carry out his instructions as well as possible.
S2. All right. Let's sit down and go over them together.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Did you throwaway the extra paper?
S2. No. I gave about half of it away.
S1. Do you have some left then?
S2. No. I used up all the rest yesterday.

Conversation E

S1. Have you gone through the reports yet?
S2. No, I haven't. They were turned in just last night.
S1. Why don't you pick out a few for me to read then?
S2. I think I'll do that. I can use the help.

Exercise 1

1. We'll think over the plan carefully"	**Well think it over carefully.**
2. I've turned in the reports.	**I've turned them in.**
3. Didn't she make out the form?	**Didn't she make it out?**
4. Why can't I find out those things?	**Why can't I find them out?**
5. Please don't point out the mistake.	**Please don't point it out.**
6. It's hard to break in new employees.	**It's hard to break them m.**
7. When did you use up the supplies?	**When did you use them up?**
8. You'd better put on your sweater.	**You'd better put it on.**
9. He couldn't take out those parts.	**He couldn't take them out.**
10. Why won't she bring up the subject?	**Why won't she bring it up?**
11. You're going to wear out your suit.	**You're going to wear it out.**
12. It's necessary to look up the words.	**It's necessary to look them up.**
13. Didn't he carry out their instructions?	**Didn't he carry them out?**

14. I've already worked out a plan.	**I've already worked it out.**
15. Please turn over your papers now.	**Please turn them over now.**
16. Shouldn't you throwaway that rubbish?	**Shouldn't you throw it away?**
17. The weather held up our flight.	**The weather held it up.**
18. We'd better turn off the radio now.	**We'd better turn it off now.**
19. Please put away the tools before leaving.	**Please put them away before leaving.**

Exercise 2

1.	**Someone took it back.**	**It was taken back.**
2.	**No one will try them out.**	**They won't be tried out.**
3.	**Someone has used .them up.**	**They've been used up.**
4.	**No one is taking it down.**	**It isn't being taken down.**
5.	**Someone ought to pick them out.**	**They ought to be picked out.**
6.	**No one will turn that down.**	**That won't be turned down.**
7.	**Someone was looking them over.**	**They were being looked over.**
8.	**Someone is going to hold that up.**	**That's going to be held up.**
9.	**No one should bring it up.**	**It shouldn't be brought up.**
10.	**Someone has thrown them away.**	**They've been thrown away.**
11.	**No one has to clear that up.**	**That doesn't have to be cleared up.**
12.	**Someone is giving· them away.**	**They're being given away.**
13.	**No one was pointing that out.**	**That wasn't being pointed out.**
14.	**Someone will hand them**	**They'll be handed in.**
15.	**Someone will hand them**	**It was crossed out.**
16.	**No one is taking them off.**	**They aren't being taken off.**

100. TWO-WORD VERBS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drills

S1. What did you say did say?
S2. Would you please(A)?
S1. I(B) this morning.
S2. Sorry. I didn't realize that.

(A)	(B)
turned them off the lights	turned them off
looked it over the report	looked it over
crossed out those names	crossed them out
figure out the total cost	figured it out
look up those words	looked them up
bring up that matter	brought it up
throw away those papers	threw them away

Conversation Drill B

S1. What are you thinking about?
S2. I guess we'll have to (A)
S1. Exactly why do you have to (B)
S2. Because it's obviously important.

(A)	(B)
think over the plan	think it over
turn in the reports	turn them in
make out the form	make it out
point out the mistakes	point them out
bring up the subject	carry them out
carry out instructions	carry them out
look up the answer	look it up
turn over the papers	turn them over

101. TAG QUESTIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. That isn't your jacket, is it?
S2. No, isn't, but it looks like mine.
S1. But these are your gloves, aren't they? The
S2. There were a lot of people at the reception, weren't there?

Conversation B

S1. There were a lot of people at the reception, weren't there?
S2. Yes, there were. Over 100. I'd guess.
S1. There wasn't, enough food for everyone, was there?
S2. No, there wasn't everyone complained.

Conversation C

S1. It rains a lot in this part of the country, doesn't it?
S2. Yes, it does, but only in the spring.
S1. But it doesn't ever snow around here, does it?
S2. No, it never does.

Conversation D

S1. You left the office very late, didn't you?
S2. Yes, I did. Around eleven o'clock.
S1. Then I didn't get much sleep, did you?
S2. John has been looking for a job, hasn't he?

Conversation E

S1. John has been looking for a job, hasn't he?
S2. Yes, he has. Quite diligently too?
S1. He hasn't found a suitable one yet, ahs he?
S2. No, he hasn't, but I'm sure he will soon.

Exercise* 1/ *Line AI /

That isn't your jacket.	**That isn't your jacket, is it?**
Those aren't your gloves.	**Those aren't your gloves, are they?**
This isn't your coat.	**This isn't your coat, is it?**
These aren't your shoes.	**These aren't your shoes, are they?**
That isn't your hat.	**That isn't your hat, is it?**
Those aren't your books.	**Those aren't your books, are they?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines AI and A3 /

That's your jacket.	**That's your jacket, isn't it?**
Those are your gloves.	**Those are your gloves, aren't they?**

This is your coat.	**This is your coat, isn't it?**
These are your shoes.	**These are your shoes, aren't they?**
That's your hat.	**hat's your hat, isn't it?**
Those are your books.	**Those are your books, aren't they?**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines AI-A4 /

That's your jacket, isn't it?	**Yes, it is.**
That isn't your coat, is it?	**No, it isn't.**
Those are your gloves, aren't they?	**Yes, they are.**
Those aren't your books, are they?	**No, they aren't.**
This is your hat, isn't it?	**Yes, it is.**
These aren't your shoes, are they?	**No, they aren't.**

Exercise* 4 / *Lines AI-A4 /

1.	**Those are your books (?)**	**Those are your books, aren't they?** **Yes, they are. They're my books.**
2.	**That isn't your jacket (?)**	**That isn't your jacket, is it?** **No, it isn't. It isn't my jacket.**
3.	**That's your hat (?)**	**That's your hat, isn't it?** **Yes, it is. It's my hat.**
4.	**Those aren't your gloves (?)**	**Those aren't your gloves, are they?** **No, they aren't. They aren't my gloves.**
5.	**These are your shoes (?)**	**These are your shoes, aren't they?** **Yes, they are. They're my shoes.**

Exercise* 5 / *Line* C*1 /

It rains a lot here.	**It rains a lot here, doesn't it?**
The men worked there.	**The men worked there, didn't they?**
John likes television.	**John likes television, doesn't he?**
The wind blew very hard.	**The wind blew very hard, didn't it?**
The girls enjoy that class.	**The girls enjoy that class, don't they?**
That caused the trouble.	**That caused the trouble, didn't it?**

***Exercise* 6 / *Line* C3 /**

It doesn't rain much. here.	**It doesn't rain much here, does it?**
The men didn't work there.	**The men didn't work there, did they?**
John doesn't like television.	**John doesn't like television, does he?**
The wind didn't blow hard.	**The wind didn't blow hard, did it?**
The girls don't enjoy the class.	**The girls don't enjoy the class, do they?**

Exercise* 7 / *Lines CI-C3 /

It rains a lot here, doesn't it?	**Yes, it does.**
The girls don't enjoy the class, do they?	**No, they don't.**
That caused the trouble, didn't it?	**Yes, it did.**
The men didn't work there, did they?	**No, they didn't.**
The wind blew hard, didn't it?	**Yes, it did.**
John doesn't like television, does he?	**No, he doesn't.**

Exercise* 8 / *Lines AI-A4 and CI-C3 /

They work hard, don't they?	**Yes, they do.**

They're working hard, aren't they? Yes, they are.
They don't work hard, do they? No, they don't.
They aren't working hard, are they? No, they aren't.
She writes letters, doesn't she? Yes, she does.
She's writing letters, isn't she? Yes, she is.
She doesn't write letters, does she? No, she doesn't.
She isn't writing letters, is she? No, she isn't.

Exercise / Lines CI-C3 /

1. The girls enjoy that class (?) The girls enjoy that class, don't they?
Yes, they do. They enjoy Class
2. The men didn't work there (?) The men didn't work there, did they?
No, they didn't. They didn't work there.
3. The wind blew very hard (?) The wind blew very hard, didn't it?
Yes, it did. It blew very hard.
4. John doesn't like television (?) John doesn't like television, does he
No, he doesn't. He doesn't like television.
5. It rains a lot here (?) It rains a lot here, doesn't it?
Yes, it does. It rains a lot here
6. That didn't cause the trouble. That didn't cause the trouble, id it?
No, it didn't. It didn't cause the trouble.

102. TAG QUESTIONS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. There haven't been any storms recently, have there?
S2. No, there haven't, but it's hard to believe.
S1. I suppose we could get one anytime now, couldn't we?
S2. We certainly could. This is the season.

Conversation B

S1. Not many people in that office speak English, do they? 6.
S2. No, they don't, but all of them are taking classes now.
S1. According to the rules, all employees have to learn it now, I
S2. Yes, they all do, and it's a problem.

Conversation C

S1. She's already told john she'd like to go, hasn't she?
S2. Yes, she has
S1. I guess we should plan on it then, shouldn't we?
S2. yes, we'd better, I think.

Conversation D

S1. You hadn't ever seen the Ambassador before last night, had you?
S2. No, I hadn't, although I did see John's pictures of him in May.
S1. You could have met him at the last conference, couldn't you?
S2. Ye, I could have, but I lost my nerve at the last moment.

Conversation E

S1. We'd better tell someone about this, hadn't we?
S2. Yes, I guess we'd better, but who?
S1. The director wouldn't be very sympathetic, would he
S2. No. I'm afraid he wouldn't

Exercise 1

1. It isn't raining now.	**It isn't raining now, is it?**
2. John didn't read that.	**John didn't read that, did he?**
3. The girls weren't ready.	**The girls weren't ready, were they?**
4. The people haven't seen it.	**The people haven't seen it, have they?**
5. There weren't any mistakes.	**There weren't any mistakes, were there?**
6. They won't try that.	**They won't try that, will they?**
7. She can't come tomorrow.	**She can't come tomorrow, can she?**
8. Mary doesn't enjoy that.	**Mary doesn't enjoy that, does she?**
9. Those aren't your books.	**Those aren't your books, are she?**
10. He didn't go to the lecture.	**He didn't go to the lecture, did he?**
11. You haven't done that yet.	**You haven't done that yet, have you?**
12. Mary doesn't walk to work.	**Mary doesn't walk to work, does she?**
13. There wasn't enough food left.	**There wasn't enough food left, was there?**

14. The train hasn't arrived yet. **The train hasn't arrived yet, has it?**
15. The men couldn't help him. **The men couldn't help him, could they?**
16. They aren't working now. **They aren't working now, are they?**

Exercise 2

1. The man can help us. **The man can help us, can't he?**
2. Mary lives near your house. **Mary lives near your house, doesn't she?**
3. The boys are studying now. **The boys are studying now, aren't they?**
4. John waited for his friend. **John waited for his friend, didn't he?**
5. They'll be at the conference. **They'll be at the conference, won't they?**
6. There was enough coffee. **There was enough coffee, wan't there?**
7. The girl saw the movie. **The girl saw the move, didn't she?**
8. Students should study hard. **Students should study hard, shouldn't they?**
9. You're going to leave soon. **You're going to leave soon aren't they?**
10. He usually rides on the bus. **He usually rides on the bus, doesn't he?**
11. They went home quite late. **They went home quite late, didn't they?**
12. You've done that lesson. **You've done that lesson, haven't you?**
13. You'll be able to do that. **You'll be able to do that, won't you?**
14. They had trouble with it. **They had trouble with it, didn't they?**
15. That's your briefcase. **That's your briefcase, isn't it?**
16. He has to work tonight. **He has to work tonight, doesn't he?**

Exercise 3

1. The men are working now (?) **The men are working now, aren't they?**
Yes, they are. They're working now.
2. John didn't read that. (?) **John didn't read that, did he?**
No, he didn't. He didn't read that.
3. The girl writes carefully (?) **The girl writes carefully, doesn't she?**
Yes, she does. She writes care fully.
4. It isn't raining now (?) **It isn't raining now, is it?**
No, it isn't. It isn't training now
5. They've seen the movie (?) **They've seen the movie, haven't they?**
6. The man can help us (?) **The man can help us, can't he?**
Yes, he can. He can help us
7. Mary didn't wait for you (?) **Mary didn't wait for you, did she?**
No, she didn't. She didn't wait for me.
8. You've done that lesson (?) **You've done that lesson, haven't you?**
Yes, I have. I've done that lesson.
9. He didn't leave early (?) **He didn't leave early, did he?**
No, he didn't. He didn't leave early.
10. They should try that (?) **They should try that, shouldn't they?**
Yes, they should. They should try that.
11. She doesn't walk to work (?) **She doesn't walk to work, does she?**
No, she doesn't. She doesn't walk to work?
12. John went home late (?) **John went home late, didn't he?**
Yes, he did. He went home late.
13. Those aren't his books (?) **Those aren't his books, are they?**
No, they aren't. Thy aren't his books.
14. She's going to practice (?) **She's going to practice, isn't she?**
Yes, she is. She's going to practice.
15. You'll be at the meeting (?) **You'll be at the meeting, won't you?**

103. SHORT ADDITIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend can speak French.
S2. Alice can too.
S1. But my friend can't speak German.
S2. Alice can't either.

Conversation B

S1. We went to the concert last night.
S2. We did too.
S1. But we didn't get there on time.
S2. We didn't either.

Conversation C

S1. I met that government official from Japan.
S2. So did.
S1. But I didn't meet his wife.
S2. Neither did.

***Conversation* D**

S1. They're going to go to the beach today.
S2. I am too.
S1. They're also going to go to the amusement park.
S2. So am I.

Conversation E

S1. We've already done that lesson.
S2. So have we
S1. But we haven't done the other one yet.
S2. Neither have we.

Exercise 1

1.	**He learned all the words.**	**We did too.**
2.	**They're copying the sentences.**	**We are too.**
3.	**You've watched that program.**	**We have too.**
4.	**She should accept the offer.**	**We should too.**
5.	**They can work at the library.**	**We can too.**
6.	**John found the answer.**	**We did too.**
7.	**She studies every evening.**	**We do too.**
8.	**They had to be at the meeting.**	**We did too.**
9.	**You've read that novel.**	**We have too.**
10.	**He got very good results.**	**We did too.**
11.	**They can do that easily.**	**We can too.**
12.	**She's working on that part.**	**We are too.**
13.	**He'll speak to Mr. Wilson.**	**We will too.**

14.	**They're going to leave soon.**	**We are too.**
15.	**She enjoys that T.V. program.**	**We do too.**
16.	**He's written to the company.**	**We have too.**
17.	**He's writing to the company.**	**We are too.**
18.	**He writes lots of letters.**	**We do too.**

Exercise 2

1.	**We've enjoyed everything so far.**	**So have they.**
2.	**She's going to speak to you.**	**So are they.**
3.	**You helped him very much.**	**So did they.**
4	**I knew all the answers.**	**So did they.**
5.	**She doing the lesson now.**	**So are they.**
6.	**He can explain it to you.**	**So can they.**
7.	**We'll be at the meeting.**	**So will they.**
8.	**I have enough time for that.**	**So do they.**
9.	**She should come with us.**	**So should they.**
10.	**We have to leave quite early.**	**So do they.**
11.	**You've done well up to now.**	**So have they.**
12.	**He's going to walk to work.**	**So are they.**
13.	**I was quite worried about that.**	**So were they.**
14.	**We like to listen to music.**	**So do they.**
15.	**She's already read that book.**	**So have they.**
16.	**You can ride home with us.**	**So can they.**
17.	**We could wait for you.**	**So could they.**
18.	**She appreciates your help.**	**So do they.**

Exercise 3

1.	**He didn't follow the instructions.**	**I don't either.**
2.	**They aren't working on that now.**	**I'm not either.**
3.	**She hasn't taken the course yet.**	**I haven't either.**
4.	**John doesn't often do that.**	**I don't either.**
5.	**They mind the changes.**	**I didn't either.**
6.	**She can't understand that part.**	**I can't either.**
7.	**He isn't working very hard.**	**I'm not either.**
8.	**They won't be able to attend.**	**I won't either.**
9.	**She shouldn't try to do that.**	**I shouldn't either.**
10.	**John doesn't have to work.**	**I don't either.**
11.	**Mary hasn't heard anything yet.**	**I haven't either.**
12.	**They can't possibly go there.**	**I can't either.**
13.	**They don't believe his excuse.**	**I don't either.**
14.	**John wasn't at the meeting.**	**I wasn't either.**
15.	**They aren't ready to go yet.**	**I'm not either.**
16.	**They haven't had any trouble.**	**I haven't either.**
17.	**You won't have any trouble.**	**I won't either.**
18.	**She isn't watching that.**	**I'm not either.**

Exercise 4

1.	**We didn't read the article.**	**Neither did he.**
2.	**Mary hasn't seen- that movie.**	**Neither has he.**
3.	**I'm not going to mention it.**	**Neither is he.**

4.	**You don't often try that.**	**Neither does he.**
5.	**We won't say anything to her.**	**Neither will he.**
6.	**I don't enjoy that kind of music.**	**Neither does he**
7.	**I can't understand the lesson.**	**Neither can he.**
8.	**We haven't heard anything yet.**	**Neither has he**
9.	**You don’t have to stay here.**	**Neither does he**
10.	**I'm not ready to leave yet.**	**Neither is he**
11.	**She can't help them right now.**	**Neither can he**
12.	**You shouldn't try to do that.**	**Neither should he.**
13.	**You didn't answer my question.**	**Neither did he**
14.	**She won't be able go tomorrow.**	**Neither will he**
15.	**They aren't working right now.**	**Neither is he**
16.	**They weren't at the conference.**	**Neither was he**
17.	**They won't be at the concert.**	**Neither will he**
18.	**We can't finish it on time.**	**Neither can he**

104. SHORT ADDITIONS (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What do you think?
S2. I suspect that Mary - (A).
S1. I'm sure that John - (B).
S2. Let's ask them about it to be sure.

(A)	(B)
took many pictures	did too
can't avoid that	can't either
wants to change it	does too
wasn't aware of this	wasn't either
has to ask permission	does too
won't agree with us	won't either
is going to object	is too
couldn't attend	couldn't either

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's your opinion about him?
S2. It's quite clear that he - *(A).*
S1. (*B*) - the other workers, I suspect.
S2. That's probably correct.

(A)	(B)
took the things	so did
didn't read the report	neither did
has seen something	so have
can't handle it	neither can
will object to that	so will
has to give it up soon	so do
isn't cooperating at all	neither are
wants something	so do

105. VERB NOT REPEATED (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Do they know his name?
S2. I don’t think so. Do you?
S1. Of course. Don't you?
S2. Sure. It's Mr. Smith.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't the men finish the work?
S2. I don’t think they did.
S1. Do they expect us to do it?
S2. I certainly hope they don't.

Conversation C

S1. I didn’t have enough time to speak to Mr. Fox.
S2. Why didn't you?
S1. Because I had to leave quite early.
S2. So did I, but I had enough time.

Conversation D

S1. Not many people heard the lecture, and I didn't either.
S2. Well, I did, and so did Fred.
S1. Did Mary and John?
S2. I don't think they did.

Conversation E

S1. Did you go to work yesterday?
S2. No, I just couldn't.
S1. Why couldn't you?
S2. I didn't feel very well at all.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

Do they know his name?	**No. Do you?**
Have they spoken to him?	**No. Have you?**
Did they meet him?	**No. Did you?**
Can they convince him?	**No. Can you?**
Will they be seeing him?	**No. Will you?**
Are they annoyed at him?	**No. Are you?**

Exercise 2 / Lines B1 and B2 /

Didn't the men finish the work.	**I don't think they did.**
Haven't the men finished the work?	**I don't think they have.**
Aren't the men finishing the work?	**I don't think they are.**

Won't the men finish the work? **I don't think they will.**
Can't the men finish the work? **I don't think they can.**
Weren't the men finishing the work? **I don't think they were.**

Exercise 3 / Line B3 /

Do they expect us to do it?

want **Do they want us to do it?**
Advise **Do they advise us to do it?**
urge **Do they urge us to do it?**
Intend **Do they intend us to do it?**
Wish **Do they wish us to do it?**

***Exercise* 4 / *Line* D 1 /**

They didn't hear it. **I didn't either.**
They haven't seen it. **I haven't either.**
They won't be there. **I won't either.**
They don't enjoy it. **I don't either.**
They aren't studying now. **I'm not either.**
They can't go with him. **I can't either**

Exercise 5 / *Line* D2 /

They heard it. **So did John.**
They've seen it. **So has John.**
They'll be there. **So will John.**
They enjoy it. **So does John.**
They're studying now. **So is John.**
They call go with him. **So can John.**

Exercise *6*

1. I'm quite hungry now.	**Are you?**	**Aren't you?**
2. I work eight hours every day.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
3. I could understand everything.	**Could you?**	**Couldn't you?**
4. I went to the meeting.	**Did you?**	**Didn't you?**
5. I was very uncomfortable.	**Were you?**	**Weren't you?**
6. I studied the lesson carefully.	**Did you?**	**Didn't you?**
7. I'll be at the meeting early.	**Will you?**	**Won't you?**
8. I plan to meet the men.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
9. I can leave almost any time.	**Can you?**	**Can't you?**
10. I've seen that movie already	**Have you?**	**Haven't you?**
11. I have to go back very soon.	**Do you?**	**Don't you?**
12. I'd like to go home early.	**Would you?**	**Wouldn't you?**

Exercise *7*

1. I don't do it.	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
2. I haven't done it.	**Why haven't you?**	**I have.**
3. I won't do it.	**Why won't you?**	**I will.**
4. I didn't do it.	**Why didn't you?**	**I did.**
5. I wasn't doing it.	**Why weren't you?**	**I was.**

6.	**I can't do it.**	**Why can't you?**	**I can.**
7.	**I'm not doing it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**
8.	**I wouldn't do it.**	**Why wouldn't you?**	**I would.**
9.	**I'm not going to do it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**
10.	**I don't plan to do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
11.	**I haven't done it.**	**Why haven't you?**	**I have.**
12.	**I don't have to do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
13.	**I wasn't doing it.**	**Why weren't you?**	**I was.**
14.	**I won't do it.**	**Why won't you?**	**I will.**
15.	**I don't do it.**	**Why don't you?**	**I do.**
16.	**I'm not going to do it.**	**Why aren't you?**	**I am.**

106. VERB NOT REPEATED (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. They won't be very busy, but we will.
S2. I will too, but my brother won't.
S1. We can't possibly go, but they can.
S2. My brother can too, but I can't.

Conversation B

S1. My friend writes his reports on Monday, but I don't.
S2. Mr. Johnson doesn't either.
S1. I don't have enough time on Monday, but my friend does.
S2. Apparently Mr. Johnson does too.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Most of my friends will be at the meeting, but I won't.
S2. Neither will my sister, but I will if I have time.
S1. My friends didn't attend the last meeting, but I did.
S2. My sister did too, but I didn't.

Conversation D

S1. I haven't seen that movie yet.
S2. You really ought to.
S1. I plan to tomorrow.
S2. It's an excellent film in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. I don't often visit museums, but I like to whenever possible.
S2. I've never visited the Modem Museum, but I plan to tomorrow.
S1. I can go with you tomorrow if you want me to.
S2. Fine. 1'd be glad to have company.

Exercise 1* / *Line A1 /

They'll be busy.	**But I won't.**
They won't be busy.	**But I will.**
They're studying now.	**But I'm not.**
They aren't studying now.	**But I am.**
They walk to the office.	**But I don't.**
They don't walk to the office.	**But I do.**
They're ready for that.	**But I'm not.**
They aren't ready for that.	**But I am.**
They waited for the girl.	**But I didn't.**
They didn't wait for the girl.	**But I did.**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines* D3, E1*, E2 /

I plan to see it tomorrow.	**I plan to tomorrow.**
I hope to see it tomorrow.	**I hope to tomorrow.**
I expect to see it tomorrow.	**I expect to tomorrow.**
I want to see it tomorrow.	**I want to tomorrow.**
I intend to see it tomorrow.	**I intend to tomorrow.**
I prefer to see it tomorrow.	**I prefer to tomorrow.**
I have to see it tomorrow.	**I have to tomorrow.**

Exercise* 3 / *Line* D*1 /

1.	**I haven't seen that movie yet.**	
	want	**I want to see it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to see it soon.**
2.	**I haven't heard that program yet.**	
	want	**I want to hear it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to hear it soon.**
3.	**I haven't eaten there yet.**	
	want	**I want to eat there soon.**
	like	**I'd like to eat there soon.**
4.	**I haven't tried that method yet.**	
	want	**I want to try it soon.**
	like	**I'd like to try it soon.**
5.	**I haven't bought the tickets yet.**	
	want	**I want to buy them soon.**
	like	**I'd like to buy them soon.**

Exercise 4

1.	**They saw the parade, but John didn't see it.**	**They saw the parade, but John didn't.**
2.	**They didn't take the course, but John took it.**	**They didn't take the course, but John did.**
3.	**They're watching TV, but John isn't watching TV.**	**They're watching TV, but John isn't.**
4.	**They've been to the museum, but John hasn't been there.**	**They've been to the museum, but John hasn't.**
5.	**They aren't studying that lesson, but John is studying it.**	**They aren't studying that lesson, but John is.**
6.	**They haven't done that part, but John has done it.**	**They haven't done that part, but John has.**
7.	**They'll be at the meeting, but John won't be there.**	**They'll he at the meeting, but John won't.**
8.	**They won't drive to the park, but John will drive there.**	**They won't drive to the park, but John will.**

Exercise 5

1.	**Do John and you write reports?**	**He does, but I don't.**
2.	**Have John and you seen the show?**	**He has, but I haven't.**
3.	**Are John and you working on that?**	**He is, but I'm not.**
4.	**Did John and you leave early?**	**He did, but I didn't.**
5.	**Were John and you late today?**	**He was, but I wasn't.**
6.	**Are John and you going to do it?**	**He is, but I'm not.**

7.	**Do John and you have to go?**	**He does, but I don't.**
8.	**Were John and you writing then?**	**He was, but I wasn't.**
9.	**Could John and you understand him?**	**He could, but I couldn't.**
10.	**Would John and you care to go?**	**He would, but I wouldn't.**
11.	**Will john and you be there to- night?**	**He will, but I won't.**
12.	**Can John and you come with me?**	**He can, but I can't.**
13.	**Have John you been there yet?**	**He has, but I haven't.**
14.	**Do John and you study at home?**	**He does, but I don't.**
15.	**Are John and you satisfied with it?**	**He is, but I'm not.**
16.	**Did and you buy new books?**	**He did, but I didn't.**

107. VERB NOT REPEATED (3) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend doesn't work very hard.
S2. Do you?
S1. Of course I do.
S2. Well, I don't. I hate to work.

Conversation B

S1. I always try to be careful.
S2. I usually do too.
S1. Do you always check your work several times?
S2. I usually do, but once in a while, I don't.

***Conversation* C**

S1. I finished my work on time.
S2. No one else did.
S1. That's not entirely true.
S2. You're right. John did too, didn't he?

***Conversation* D**

S1. Don't you like to dance?
S2. Of course I do.
S3. Then why don't you come to the dance?
S4. I really can't.

Conversation E

S1. When can the manager see me?
S2. Can you come at eleven o'clock this morning?
S1. No, but I can any lime after two.
S2. Then I'll put your name down for two thirty.

Exercise 1 / Lines A1 and A2 /

My friend doesn't work very hard.	**Do you?**
My friend can't go to the meeting.	**Can you?**
My friend won't be at the party.	**Will you?**
My friend hasn't read the article.	**Have you?**
My friend didn't write any letters.	**Did you?**
My friend isn't taking any courses.	**Are you?**

Exercise* 2 / *Lines A2 and A3 /

Do you work very hard?	**Of course I do:**

Can you go to the meeting?	**Of course I can.**
Will you be at the party?	**Of course I will.**
Have you read the article?	**Of course I have.**
Did you write any letters?	**Of course I did.**
Are you taking any courses?	**Of course I am.**

Exercise* 3 / *Lines AI and A4 /

My friend works hard.	**He works hard, but I don't.**
My friend can go to the meeting.	**He can go to the meeting, but I can't.**
My friend will be at the party.	**He'll be at the party: but I won't.**
My friend has read the article.	**He's read the article, but I haven't.**
My friend writes letters.	**He writes letters, but I don't.**

Exercise* 4 / *Line A4 /

I hate to work.

enjoy	**I enjoy working.**
want	**I want to work.**
avoid	**I avoid working.**
refuse	**I refuse to work.**
put off	**I put off working.**
intend	**I intend to work.**
plan	**I plan to work.**
suggest	**I suggest working.**
promise	**I promise to work.**

Exercise 5

1.	**We don't own a car yet, but we hope to own one.**	**We don't own a car yet, but we hope to.**
2.	**Peter drives to school, but I can't afford to drive to school.**	**Peter drives to school, but I can't afford to.**
3.	**I haven't heard from John, but I expect to hear from him.**	**I haven't heard from John, but I expect to.**
4.	**She didn't finish all the work, but she's going to finish it.**	**She didn't finish all the work, but she's going to.**
5.	**He'd like to go with them, but he doesn't plan to go with them.**	**He'd like to go with them, but he doesn't plan to.**
6.	**They don't try very hard, but they ought to try hard.**	**They don't try very hard, but they ought to.**
7.	**We haven't taken it yet, but we really intend to take it.**	**We haven't taken it yet, but we really intend to.**
8.	**He doesn't smoke cigars, but he used to smoke cigars.**	**He doesn't smoke cigars, but he used to.**
9.	**I want to review the lesson because I need to review it.**	**I want to review the lesson because I need to.**
10.	**He didn't study yesterday because he didn't want to study.**	**He didn't study yesterday because he didn't want to.**
11.	**He has to stay home tonight, but we don't have to stay home.**	**He has to stay home tonight, but we don't have to.**
12.	**They'd like to do it today, but they won't be able to do it.**	**They'd like to do it today, but they won't be able to.**
13.	**I'm not going to go there, but I'd like to go there.**	**I'm not going to go there, but I'd like to.**

108. VERB NOT REPEATED (8) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I would like to finish every thing today.
S2. Will you be able to?
S1. I think so.
S2. I hope so, because it's rather urgent.

Conversation B

S1. Didn't Mary finish the work?
S2. I don't think so.
S1. Does he expect us to finish it?
S2. I hope not.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We should invite them, but we don't want to.
S2. I understand your problem.
S1. They're extremely boring, don't you think?
S2. I'm afraid so.

***Conversation* D**

S1. Do you understand the instructions?
S2. I think I do.
S1. Does your friend, Peter?
S2. No. He doesn't Seem to.

Conversation E

S1. Why should I ask for permission to leave?
S2. Everyone has to.
S1. I don't have to.
S2. Yes, you do. Everyone does.

Exercise 1

1.	**They've left already.**	**Have they left already?**
	appear	**It appears so.**
2.	**They won't return today.**	**Won't they return today?**
	appear	**It doesn't appear so.**
3.	**They'll finish the work.**	**Will they finish the work?**
	think	**I think so.**
4.	**They didn't take the books.**	**Didn't they take the books?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
5.	**They were watching the game.**	**Were they watching the game?**
	believe	**I believe so.**
6.	**They aren't studying now.**	**Aren't they studying now?**
	believe	**I don't believe so.**

7.	**They haven’t read the book.**	**Haven't they' read the book?**
	seem	**It doesn't seem *so.***
8.	**They’re going to leave soon.**	**Are they going to leave soon?**
	seem	**It seems so.**
9.	**They'll finish the work on time.**	**Will they finish the work on time?**
	Presume	**I presume so.**
10.	**They can't afford a new car.**	**Can't they afford a new car?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
11.	**They're guarding money.**	**Are they guarding the money?**
	hope	**I hope *so.***
12.	**They agree with us.**	**Do they agree with us?**
	suppose	**I suppose so.**
13.	**They've written the report.**	**Have they written the report?**
	assume	**I assume so.**
14.	**They didn't ask questions.**	**Didn't they ask questions?**
	think	**I don't think so.**
15.	**They can't assist their friend.**	**Can't they assist their friend?**
	believe	**I don't believe so.**
16.	**They've offered their assistance.**	**Have they offered their assistance?**
	presume	**I presume so.**

109. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. By whom is the telephone answered?
S2. The secretary usually answers it.
S1. Who opens the mail every day?
S2. It's opened by the office manager

***Conversation* B**

S1. Was the letter written yesterday?
S2. I'm sorry, I didn't hear you.
S1. Did anyone write the letter yesterday?
S2. I'm afraid not.

Conversation C

S1. Were the reports read by all the employees?
S2. Yes. Everyone in this office read them.
S1. I think the reports should be posted in a better place.
S2. Let's post them right by the door next time.

Conversation D

S1. Will the repair work be done on time?
S2. Yes. The men will do it tomorrow.
S1. Has the work been started yet?
S2. The men started it just this morning.

Conversation E

S1. The loud noise frightened us.
S2. We were frightened by the noise too.
S1. Has anyone investigated it?
S2. I don't think it's been investigated yet.

Exercise 1

1.	**The reports were corrected.**	**Someone corrected them.**
2.	**The machine is inspected.**	**Someone inspects it.**
3.	**The students will be assisted.**	**Someone will assist them.**
4.	**The girl has been notified.**	**Someone has notified her.**
5.	**The men are being instructed.**	**Someone is instructing them.**
6.	**The mirror was broken.**	**Someone broke it.**
7.	**The letters will be examined.**	**Someone will examine them.**
8.	**Mr. Smith was warned.**	**Someone warned him.**
9.	**The work is being done.**	**Someone is doing it.**
10.	**The assignments are corrected.**	**Someone corrects them.**
11.	**The problem has been solved.**	**Someone has solved it.**
12.	**The message can be sent.**	**Someone can send it.**

13.	**The people were advised.**	**Someone advised them.**
14.	**Mrs. Brown will be invited.**	**Someone will invite her.**
15.	**The papers are being copied.**	**Someone is copying them.**
16.	**The motor can be repaired.**	**Someone can repair it.**

Exercise 2

1.	**Someone broke the mirror.**	**It was broken.**
2.	**Someone will examine the letters.**	**They'll be examined.**
3.	**Someone is instructing the men.**	**They're being instructed.**
4.	**Someone has solved the problem.**	**It's been solved.**
5.	**Someone inspects the machine.**	**It's inspected.**
6.	**Someone will invite the lady.**	**She'll be invited.**
7.	**Someone corrected the reports.**	**They were corrected.**
8.	**Someone can send the message.**	**It can be sent.**
9.	**Someone is copying the papers.**	**They're being copied.**
10.	**Someone has notified the man.**	**He's been notified.**
11.	**Someone will assist the students.**	**They'll be assisted.**
12.	**Someone warned the girl.**	**She was warned.**
13.	**Someone is doing the work.**	**It's being done.**
14.	**Someone can repair the motor.**	**It can be repaired.**
15.	**Someone advised the people.**	**They were advised.**

110. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. I was embarrassed by Peter's comments.
S2. His comments embarrassed me too.
S1. Why wasn't he warned not to say anything?
S2. He was. I warned him.

***Conversation* B**

S1. Has the report been completed yet?
S2. Yes. It was completed yesterday.
S1. Who'l1 distribute the confidential staff copies?
S2. They'll probably be distributed by Mr. White.

***Conversation* C**

S1. We were confused by the fast action.
S2. There were plenty of confused people at that moment.
S1. The action didn't confuse those two men over there.
S2. They never get confused over anything.

C*onversation* D

S1. Is much attention being given to that problem?
S2. Yes. The committee is devoting a lot of time to it.
S1. They aren't treating the matter lightly, are they?
S2. I'm quite sure the matter isn't being treated lightly.

Conversation E

S1. Who permitted you to leave early?
S2. The foreman gave us permission to leave.
S1. Why were you given permission to leave?
S2. Because we had finished all the work for the day.

Exercise 1

1. They were hidden. Someone hid them.
No one hid them. They weren't hidden.
2. She hasn't been informed. No one has informed her.
Some one has informed her. She's been informed.
3. I'm being deceived. Some one is deceiving me.
No one is deceiving me. I'm not being deceived.
4. They won't be assisted. No one will assist them.
Someone will assist them. They'll be assisted.
5. You could be accused. Some one could accuse you.
No one could accuse you. You couldn't be accused.
6. We weren't complimented. No one complimented us.
Some one complimented us. We were complimented

7.	**That had to be admitted.**	**Someone had to admit that.**
	No one had to admit that.	**That didn't have to be admitted.**
8.	**He isn’t encouraged him.**	**No one encourages him.**
	Some one encourages him.	**He's encouraged.**
9.	**They were broken.**	**Some one broke them.**
	No one broke them.	**They weren't broken.**
10.	**That didn't use to be done.**	**No one used to do that.**
	Some one used to do that.	**That used to be done.**
11.	**We're being blamed.**	**Someone is blaming us.**
	No one is blaming us.	**We aren't being blamed.**
12.	**You won't be embarrassed.**	**No one will embarrass you.**
	Someone will embarrass you.	**You'll be embarrassed.**
13.	**They aren't advised.**	**No one advises them.**
	Some one advises them.	**They're advised.**
14.	**It's been unwrapped.**	**Someone has unwrapped it.**
	No one has unwrapped it.	**It hasn't been unwrapped.**
15.	**That mustn't be assumed.**	**No one must assume that.**
	Some one must assume that.	**That must be assumed.**

111. ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VERBS (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. Did John tell you the news?
S2. Yes. I hear that they - (A)
S1. why - (*B*) ?
S2. I really can't answer that.

(A)	(B)
are removing it	is it being removed
fastened them	were they fastened
had to translate it	did it have to be translated
have opposed it	has it been opposed
must return them	must they be returned
were considering it	was it being considered
will modify them	will they be modified
distributed it	was it distributed

Conversation Drill B

S1. Can you tell me who *(A)* ?
S2. I know I didn't *(B)*
S1. I think (C) last night.
S2. I still can't tell you who did it.

(A)	*(B)*	*(C)*
broke that glass	break it	it was broken
brought these boxes	bring them	they were brought
took that book	take it	it was taken
lost those tickets	lose them	they were lost
drove my car	drive it	it was driven
sent those letters	send them	they were sent
drank all the milk	drink it	it was drunk
did the work	do it	it was done

112. NOUN CLAUSE VS. QUESTION (1) /CONVERSATIONS

***Conversation* A**

S1. Where's the public library?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Can you tell me where the library is?
S2. Two blocks from here, on the right.

C*onversation* B

S1. How do you say that in English?
S2. I don't remember how you say that in English.
S1. Who can help us with this?
S2. Let's ask Pierre who can help us with it.

***Conversation* C**

S1. Why were you absent?
S2. I can't tell you why I was absent.
S1. Where did you go?
S2. I can't tell you where I went either.

Conversation D

S1. Whom did Alice write to yesterday?
S2. She hasn't told me whom she wrote to.
S1. What did she write about?
S2. She hasn't told me what she wrote about either.

Conversation E

S1. What are they doing?
S2. I can't imagine what they're doing.
S1. When will they finish?
S2. I have no idea when they'll finish.

Exercise 1

1.	**I can tell you where they study.**	**Where do they study?**
2.	**I can tell you when they can study.**	**When can they study?**
3.	**I can tell you what they had to study.**	**What did they have to study?**
4.	**I can tell you what they've studied.**	**What have they studied?**
5.	**I can tell you how much they studied.**	**How much did they study?**
6.	**I can tell you where they're studying.**	**Where are they studying?**
7.	**I can tell you why they won't study.**	**Why won't they study?**
8.	**I can tell you when they're going to study.**	**When are they going to study?**
9.	**I can tell you what part they didn't study.**	**What part didn't they study?**
10.	**I can tell you where they usually study.**	**Where do they usually study?**
11.	**I can tell you which one they studied.**	**Which one did they study?**
12.	**I can tell you when they must study.**	**When must they study?**

13. I can tell you what they used to study. What did they use to study?
14. I can tell you how long they should study. How long should they study?
15. I can tell you where they've been studying. Where have they been studying?
16. I can tell you what they're going to study. What are they going to study?
17. I can tell you why they can't study. Why can't they study?
18. I can tell you which one they're studying. Which one are they studying?
19. I can tell you when they usually study. When do they usually study?
20. I can ten you which one they'd better study. Which one had they better study?

Exercise 2

1. Haven't you heard what she'll Write? No. What will she write?
2. Haven't you heard why she couldn't write? No. Why could she Write?
3. Haven't you heard how often she writes? No. How often does she Write?
4. Haven't you heard where she's writing? No. Where's she writing?
5. Haven't you heard what she's written No. What's she written?
6. Haven't you heard how much she wrote? No. How much did she write?
7. Haven't you heard what she has to write? No. What does she have to write?
8. Haven't you heard when she should write? No. When should she write?
9. Haven't you heard whom she use to write to? No. Whom did she use to write?
10. Haven't you heard what she's going to write? No. What she going to write?
11. Haven't you heard how much she must write? No. How much she write?
12. Haven't you heard how long she was writing? No. How long was she writing?
13. Haven't you heard when she usually writes? No. When does she usually write?
14. Haven't you heard which one she'd better write? No. Which one had she better write?
15. Haven't you heard where she's been writing? No. Where she been writing?
16. Haven't you heard what she's written? No. What's she written?
17. Haven't you heard which one she's going to write? No. Which one is she going to write?
18. Haven't you heard what she plans to write? No. What does she plan to write?
19. Haven't you heard how much she wrote? No. How much did she write?

113. NOUN CLASSES Vs. QUESTION (2) / CONVERSATION

Conversation A

S1. When did Peter return?
S2. I beg your pardon.
S1. Please tell me when Peter returned.
S2. I can't tell you.

Conversation B

S1. When will the party be held?
S2. Tom can tell you when the party will be held.
S1. Whom did they invite to the party?
S2. You'll have to ask Tom whom they invited.

Conversation C

S1. Where did the people go?
S2. I don't have any idea where they went.
S1. Do you know where John went?
S2. I didn't even know he had gone.

Conversation D

S1. What did Fred say to Mary?
S2. She didn't tell me what Fred had said to her.
S1. Where will she be this afternoon?
S2. 5he didn't tell me where she would be.

Conversation E

S1. Whose car is Paul using?
S2. He didn't tell me whose car he was using.
S1. Why does he need a car so urgently?
S2. Why he needs a car really doesn't interest me.

Exercise 1

1. Where do they study?	**I really wonder where they study.**
2. When can they study?	**I really wonder when they can study.**
3. What did they have to study?	**I really wonder what they had to study.**
4. What have they studied?	**I really wonder what they've studied.**
5. How much did they study?	**I really wonder how much they studied.**
6. Where are they studying?	**I really wonder where they're studying.**
7. Why won't they study?	**I really wonder why they won't study.**
8. When do they generally study?	**I really wonder when they generally study.**
9. What do they usually study?	**I really wonder what they usually study.**

10. When will they study?	**I really wonder when they study.**
11. When must they study?	**I really wonder when they must study.**
12. What did they use to study?	**I really wonder what they used to study.**
13. How long should they study?	**I really wonder how long they should study.**
14. Where have they been studying?	**I really wonder where they've been studying.**
15. What are they going to study?	**I really wonder what they're going to study.**
16. Why can't they study?	**I really wonder why they can't study.**
17. Which one are they studying?	**I really wonder which one they're studying.**
18. When do they usually study?	**I really wonder when they usually study.**
19. Which one had they better study?	**I really wonder which one they'd better study.**

Exercise 2

1. What will she write?	**Haven't you heard what she'll write ?**
2. Why couldn't she write?	**Haven't you heard why she couldn't write?**
3. How often does she write?	**Haven't you heard how often she writes?**
4. Where's she writing?	**Haven't you heard where she's writing?**
5. What's she written?	**Haven't you heard what she's written?**
6. How much did she write?	**Haven't you heard how much she wrote?**
7. What does she have to Write?	**Haven't yon heard what she has to write?**
8. How much has she Written?	**Haven't you heard how much she's written?**
9. Where's she going to Write?	**Haven't you heard where she's going to write?**
10. Whom did she write to?	**Haven't you heard whom she wrote to?**
11. When should she write?	**Haven't you heard when she should write?**
12. Whom did she use to write to?	**Haven't you heard whom she used to write to?**
13. What's she going to write?	**Haven't you heard what she's going to write?**
14. How much must she write?	**Haven't you heard how much she must write?**
15. How long was she writing?	**Haven't you heard how long she was writing?**
16. When does she usually write?	**Haven't you heard when she usually writes?**
17. Which one had she better write?	**Haven't you heard which one she'd better write?**
18. Where's she been writing?	**Haven't you heard where she's been writing?**
19. What's she written?	**Haven't you heard what she's written?**

Exercise 3

1. Why did they wear it? Let's ask them.	**Let's ask them why they wore it.**
2. Why did she choose it? Please ten me.	**Please tell me why she chose it.**
3. Why did John make it? Can we find out?	**Can we find out why John made it?**
4.Why did you write it? We all Wonder.	**We all wonder why you wrote it.**
5. Why did they bring it? Ask your friend.	**Ask your friend why they brought it.**
6. Why did the man steal it? I can't imagine.	**I can't imagine why the man stole it.**
7. Why did Tom hold it? No one can explain.	**No one can explain why Tom held it.**
8. Why did Alice say it? He doesn't know.	**He doesn't know why Alice said it.**
9. Why did they buy it? Will you ask them?	**Will you ask them why they bought it?**
10. Why did she sell it? Has she told you?	**Has she told you why she sold it?**
11. Why did the boy read it? Let's find out.	**Let's find out why the boy read it.**
12. Why did they send it? John must realize.	**John must realize why they sent it.**
13. Why did the boys break it? Do you have any idea?	**Do you have any idea why the boys broke it?**

Exercise 4

1.Where's she going to stay? Don't you know?	**Don't you know where she's going to stay?**
2.When do they plan to go? Please tell all of us.	**Please tell all of us when they plan to go.**
3.Why hasn't he spoken to us? Let's ask him.	**Let's ask him why he hasn't spoken to us.**

4.Where did they take it? Every one wonders. **Everyone wonders where they took it.**
5.How can she possibly do it? No one can imagine. **No one can imagine how she can possibly do it.**
6.Which one will they use? I Can we find out? **Can we find out which one they'll use?**
7.Why don't they want to go? Did you ask them? **Did you ask them why they don't want to go?**
8.Where docs she study? Mary can tell you. **Mary can tell you where she studies.**
9.What did he pay for that? Do you remember? **Do you remember what he paid for that?**
10.There have they all gone? Won't Tom know? **Won’t Tom know where they've all gone?**
11.Why is that so difficult? We all wonder. **We all wander why that's So difficult.**
12.How did he do that part? Can't he explain? **Can't he explain haw he did that part?**
13.How much did the men have? No one remembers. **No one remembers haw much the men had.**

114. INFINITIVE OF REASONS FOR PURPOSE /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. My friend enrolled at a local school.
S2. Did he say why he enrolled there?
S1. He enrolled there to improve his English, he said.
S2. I suspect he did it to satisfy his boss.

Conversation B

S1. I've come to see Alice.
S2. Sorry. She left for the library about ten minutes ago.
S1. I wonder why she went there.
S2. I think she went there to meet someone.

Conversation C

S1. Could I borrow some money from you?
S2. What do you need it for?
S1. I need it to pay my telephone bill.
S2. All right, but I'll have to stop at the bank to get it.

Conversation D

S1. John has changed his plans in order to go with us.
S2. I'm glad that he was able to change them.
S1. In order to change them, he had to speak to Mr. White.
S2. It was nice of Mr. White to give John permission.

Conversation E

S1. I'm here to get some details about this classified ad.
S2. I'm sorry, but you'll have to write to the advertiser.
S1. Why must I write to the advertiser?
S2. In order to get the information you want.

Exercise 1

1. I enrolled in a course. I wanted to improve my English.	**I enrolled in a course to improve my English.**
2. He shut the window. He wanted to keep out the noise.	**He shut the window to keep out the noise.**
3. They questioned us. They wanted to find out the answer.	**They questioned us to find out the answer.**
4. She went to the store. She wanted to buy groceries.	**She went to the store to buy groceries.**
5. The boys ran fast. The boys wanted to get there on time.	**The boys ran fast to get there on time.**
6. I had to do that. I wanted to satisfy my boss.	**I had to do that to satisfy my boss.**
7. We went back later. We wanted to see it again.	**We went back later to see it again.**
8. Mary informed Mr. Brown. Mary wanted to hear his reaction.	**Mary informed Mr.Brown to hear his reaction.**
9. You called your friend. You wanted to get help.	**You called your friend to get help.**
10. His wife gave him a list. His wife wanted to remind him.	**His wife gave him a list to remind him.**
11. He went to bed early. He wanted to get additional rest.	**He went to bed early to get additional rest.**
12. I borrowed some money. I wanted to pay for the tickets.	**I borrowed some money to pay for the tickets.**
13. They stayed at home. They wanted to finish the report.	**They stayed at home to finish the report.**
14. She turned on the radio. She wanted to hear	

that program.	**She turned on the radio to hear that program.**
15. I'm going to open that window. I want to get some fresh air.	**I'm going to open that window to get some fresh air.**
16. They've taken an examination. They want to qualify for it.	**They've taken an examination to qualify for it.**

Exercise 2

1. He wants to go with them. He's changed his plans.	**He's changed his plans in order to go with them.**
2. They want to open the box. They're using a knife.	**They're using a knife in order to open the box.**
3. You want to attend it. You must make a reservation.	**You must make a reservation in order to attend it.**
4. He wanted to get a raise. He had to study accounting.	**He had to study accounting in order to get a raise.**
5. They wanted to get there on time. They drove very fast.	**They drove very fast in order to get there on time.**
6. Mary wants to please them. Mary will do anything.	**Mary will do anything in order to please them.**
7. I wanted to hear the man. I turned down the radio.	**I turned down the radio in order to hear the man.**
8. He wants to save money. He does his own cooking.	**He does his own cooking in order to save money.**
9. He wanted to surprise them. We kept everything a secret.	**We kept everything a secret in order to surprise them.**
10. John wants to go to college. John must save his money.	**John must save his money in order to go to college.**
11. We wanted to see the parade. Vie went downtown early.	**We went downtown early in order to see the parade.**
12. I wanted to get more information. I went to the library.	**I went to the library in order to get more information.**
13. She wants to go to Europe. She plans to quit her job.	**She plans to quit her job in order to go to Europe.**
14. I want to finish all the work. I must start quite early.	**I must start quite early in order to finish all the work.**
15. He wanted to improve his English. He practiced daily.	**He practiced daily in order to improve his English.**
16. I wanted to get his address. I had to write to his mother.	**I had to write to his mother in order to get his address.**

115. INFINITIVE OF GERUND (1)/ CONVERSATIONS

Conversations A

S1. Do you enjoy writing letters?
S2. No. I put off writing 1etters whenever possible.
S1. Do you also postpone writing reports?
S2. Unfortunately, I do.

Conversation B

S1. Why did they refuse to give you the information?
S2. They probably don't wish to reveal their plans yet.
S1. Did they seem to want to help us?
S2. Yes. In fact, they even offered to.

Conversation C

S1. Have you finished writing the report?

S2. I expect to complete it in an hour or so.
S1. Don't stop working because of me.
S2. I won't. I've resolved to finish it today.

Conversation D

S1. Have you practiced using the new words in sentences?
S2. No. I'm afraid I've failed to do that.
S1. I strongly advise practicing that way.
S2. The teacher suggested doing it that way too.

Conversation E

S1. What has Paul finally decided to become?
S2. I think he's considering becoming a lawyer.
S1. Where does he intend to go to school?
S2. So far, he's avoided making that decision.

Exercise 1

1. We hoped to see that.	**What did you hope to see?**
2. We considered seeing that.	**What did you consider seeing?**
3. We offered to see that.	**What did you offer to see? "**
4. We discussed seeing that.	**What did you discuss seeing?**
5. We wished to see that.	**What did you wish to see?**
6. We "appreciated seeing that.	**What did you appreciate seeing?**
7. We planned to see that.	**What did you plan to see?**
8. We failed to see that.	**What did you fail to see?**
9. We favored seeing that.	**What did you favor seeing?**
10. We postponed seeing that.	**What did you postpone seeing?**
11. We resolved to see that.	**What did you resolve to see?**
12. We stopped seeing that.	**What did you stop seeing?**
13. We demanded to see that.	**What did you demand to see?**
14. We kept on seeing that.	**What did you keep on seeing?**
15. We forgot to see that.	**What did you forget to see?**
16. We pretended to see that.	**What did you pretend to see?**

Exercise 2

1. postpone	**What did you postpone seeing?**
2. demand	**What did you demand to see?**
3. plan	**What did you plan to see?**
4. fail	**What did you fail to see?**
5. favor	**What did you favor seeing?**
6. consider	**What did you consider seeing?**
7. resolve	**What did you resolve to see?**
8. offer	**What did you offer to see?**
9. pretend	**What did you pretend to see?**
10. hope	**What did you hope to see?**
11. discuss	**What did you discuss seeing?**
12. appreciate	**What did you appreciate seeing?**
13. stop	**What did you stop seeing?**
14. wish	**What did you wish to see?**
15. forget	**What did you forget to see?**
16. keep on	**What did you keep on seeing?**

116. INFINITIVE VS. GERUND (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. When do you plan to leave for Hong Kong?
S2. We hope to leave on the tenth.
S1. Why did you put off leaving until the tenth?
S2. Well, we need to buy a lot of things before leaving.

Conversation B

S1. When do you expect to hear from your friends?
S2. I really hesitate even to guess.
S1. I advise not worrying about it.
S2. I've already made up my mind not to worry.

Conversation C

S1. Do you resent having to follow orders?
S2. Truthfully, I can't stand taking orders from people.
S1. But you shouldn't risk losing your job because of that.
S2. I try not to take chances.

Conversation D

S1. I can't help worrying about what they'll do.
S2. Personally, I don't think they'll dare do anything.
S1. I recall having heard other people say that.
S2. We can always force them to stop complaining.

Conversation E

S1. Did you warn your friend not to say anything?
S2. I told him it was important that he reveal nothing.
S1. I recommend that he even avoid answering any questions.
S2. I'll remind him to keep this a strict secret.

Exercise 1

1. She decided to do that.	**What did she decide to do?**
2. She avoided doing that.	**What did she avoid doing?**
3. She needed to do that.	**What did she need to do?**
4. She resisted doing that.	**What did she resist doing?**
5. She delayed doing that.	**What did she delay doing?**
6. She wanted to do that.	**What did she want to do?**
7. She practiced doing that.	**What did she practice doing?**
8. She disliked doing that.	**What did she dislike doing?**

9. She expected to do that.	**What did she expect to do?**
10. She finished doing that.	**What did she finish doing?**
11. She promised to do that.	**What did she promise to do?**
12. She suggested doing that.	**What did she suggest doing?**
13. She intended to do that.	**What did she intend to do?**
14. She advised doing that.	**What did she advise doing?**
15. She refused to do that.	**What did she refuse to do?**
16. She enjoyed doing that.	**What did she enjoy doing?**
17. She put off doing that.	**What did she put off doing?**
18. She offered to do that.	**What did she offer to do?**

Exercise 2

1. What did he want?	**He wanted to do that.**
2. What did he avoid?	**He avoided doing that.**
3. What did he refuse?	**He refused to do that.**
4. What did he finish?	**He finished doing that.**
5. What did he decide?	**He decided to do that.**
6. What did he promise?	**He promised to do that.**
7. What did he resist?	**He resisted doing that.**
8. What did he need F'	**He needed to do that.**
9. What did he advise?	**He advised doing that.**
10. What did he practice?	**He practiced doing that.**
11. What did he suggest?	**He suggested doing that.**
12. What did he expect?	**He expected to do that.**
13. What did he delay?	**He delayed doing that.**
14. What did he enjoy?	**He enjoyed doing that.**
15. What did he intend?	**He intended to do that.**
16. What did he dislike?	**He disliked doing that.**
17. What did he offer?	**He offered to do that.**
18. What did he put off?	**He put off doing that.**

Exercise 3

1. It's essential to continue.	**Continuing is essential.**
2. It'll be important to start.	**Starting will be important.**
3. It hasn't been pleasant to work.	**Working hasn't been pleasant.**
4. It was necessary to succeed.	**Succeeding was necessary.**
5. It shouldn't be foolish to try.	**Trying shouldn't be foolish.**
6. It can be dangerous to proceed.	**Proceeding can be dangerous.**
7. It won't be absurd to go back.	**Going back won't be absurd.**
8. It was only sensible to apologize.	**Apologizing was only sensible.**
9. It isn't very fair to complain.	**Complaining isn't very fair.**
10. It'll be rather helpful to watch.	**Watching will be rather helpful.**
11. It's been very convenient to observe.	**Observing has been very convenient.**
12. It would be dishonest to compete.	**Competing would be dishonest.**
13. It must have been hard to choose.	**Choosing must have been hard.**
14. It won't be practical to go ahead.	**Going ahead won't be practical.**
15. It would have been selfish to stop.	**Stopping would have been selfish.**
16. It used to be impossible to rest.	**Resting used to be impossible.**
17. It's been delightful to travel.	**Traveling has been delightful.**
18. It must be wonderful to relax.	**Relaxing must be wonderful.**
19. It shouldn't have been hard to win.	**Winning shouldn't have been hard.**
20. It'll be quite unpleasant to wait.	**Waiting will be quite un pleasant.**

Exercise 4

1. It'll be interesting to observe that.	**Observing that will be interesting.**
2. It's boring to memorize things.	**Memorizing things is boring.**
3. It's been pleasing to have them.	**Having them has been pleasing.**
4. It was thrilling to recall that.	**Recalling that was thrilling.**
5. It can be annoying to hear that.	**Hearing that can be annoying.**
6. It was satisfying to try it once.	**Trying it once was satisfying.**
7. It's really astonishing to realize it.	**Realizing it is really astonishing.**
8. It'll be amusing to watch them.	**Watching them will be amusing.**
9. It must be amazing to compare them.	**Comparing them must be amazing.**
10. It could be disturbing to see that.	**Seeing that could be disturbing.**
11. It's irritating to put up with that.	**Putting up with that is irritating.**
12. It'll be reassuring to examine them.	**Examining them will be reassuring.**
13. It was shocking to comprehend that.	**Comprehending that was shocking.**
14. It should be inspiring to attend one.	**Attending one should be inspiring.**
15. It's been disappointing to find it out.	**Finding it out has been disappointing.**
16. It's startling to see one suddenly.	**Seeing one suddenly is startling.**

117. INFINITIVE Vs. GERUND (3) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. I'll be in Europe by next week.
S2. There are lots of things (A)
S1. I (B) as much as possible.
S2. Have a good time!

(A)	(B)
to see there	hope to see
to do on the continent	plan to do
to enjoy in that area	want to enjoy
to take pictures of	expect to use my camera
to get interested in	intend to travel around

Conversation Drill B

S1. Are you looking for me?
S2. Yes. Have you finished (A) yet?
S1. Just (B)
S2. Please try to finish everything by tonight.

(A)	(B)
filling out your application	the first two pages
writing your daily report	the essential details
looking over the figures	the important statistics
checking the two lists	the first one

Conversation Drill C

81. Why are you so unhappy about your assistant?
82. Well, she always (A)
81. Does she (B) ?
82. I'm afraid she does

(A)	(B)
avoids doing her share	want to find another job
advises changing everything	ever threaten to quit
postpones finishing her work	expect to be promoted
resists taking orders	ever refuse to take orders
puts off typing reports	fail to do her share

118. CONJUCTIVE + INFINITIVE / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Where should I park my car?
S2. Didn't Fred show you where to' park it?
S1. He wasn't sure what to' tell me.
S2. Then let's ask the guard aver there where to' put it.

Conversation B

S1. Would you explain how to pronounce this word?
S2. I thought you already knew haw to' pronounce it.
S1. I did know, but I've forgotten.
S2. Well, I hope you remember haw to pronounce it next time.

Conversation C

S1. Wham should we see to get permission to leave?
S2. I think I know wham to speak to.
S1. I wander haw we can explain our difficult situation.
S2. I've been wandering how to do it too.

Conversation D

S1. When are you going to ride to the party with?
S2. Mary, because she knows where to go.
S1. I didn't realize Mary knew haw to' drive a car.
82. I think she learned haw to' drive just recently.

Conversation E

S1. Which one of these sweaters are you going to buy?
S2. I really don't know which one to choose.
S1. In that case, do you want me to tell you what to do?
S2. Since I can't decide which to' take, I'd appreciate your advice.

Exercise 1

We discovered how to do it.	**We discovered when to do it.**
When	**We wondered when to do it.**
Wondered	**We wondered where to do it.**
Where	**We decided where to do it.**
Decided	**We decided what to do.**
What	**We knew what to do.**
Knew	**We knew when to do it.**
When	**We learned when to do it.**
Learned	**We Earned what to do.**
What	**We explained what to do.**
Explained	**We explained how to do it.**
How	**We remembered how to do it.**
Remembered	**We remembered when to do it.**
When	**We forgot when to do it.**
Forgot What	**We forgot what to do.**

Exercise 2

Where will he go?	**He knows where to go.**
Which ones will they bring?	**They know which ones to bring.**
How much will you pay?	**I know how much to pay.**
When will she leave there?	**She knows when to leave there.**
Whom will the man see?	**He knows whom to see.**
What will John give them?	**He knows what to give them.**
How will they find the man?	**They know how to find the man.**
Which will you use last?	**I know which to use last.**
How far will she drive?	**She knows how far to drive.**

What kind will he choose?	**He knows what kind to choose.**
Which one will they talk about?	**They know which one to talk about.**
Where will she get the money?	**She knows where to get the money.**
What will they refer to?	**They know what to refer to.**

119. INJUCTIVE AFTER ADJUCTIVES (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Is it possible to convince your friend he's wrong?
S2. Well, he's likely to be very stubborn.
S1. I'm willing to try it if it's sensible to do so.
S2. It would be foolish of him not at least to listen.

Conversation B

S1. It's hard to get fast service in this store.
S2. I'm always reluctant to shop here because of that.
S1. I guess it's silly to get angry over such a small thing.
S2. And I'm sure it would be useless to complain to the manager.

Conversation C

S1. It's absurd to suspect Robert of having lied to us.

S2. Yes. He's much too honest to do anything like that.
S1. However, it's essential to find out what happened.
S2. I'm too upset about all this to know what to do.

Conversation D

S1. I'm glad to hear that you've found a good job.
S2. I think I was lucky to find one so quickly.
S1. Now I suppose you're eager to get started.
S2. Yes. It'll be wonderful to work in such nice quarters.

Conversation E

S1. Isn't it rather expensive to live in that part of the city?
S2. Perhaps, but it was impossible for us to find anything elsewhere.
S1. Of course, it must be convenient to live so close to your office.
S2. Yes. It's practical to live there even if it's expensive.

Exercise 1

1. They heard that. They were happy.	**They were happy to hear that.**
2. He didn't do it. He was unfit.	**He was unfit to do it.**
3. We saw it. We were lucky.	**We were lucky to see it.**
4. I announced it. I was proud.	**I was proud to announce it.**
5. They got it. They were fortunate	**They were fortunate to get it**
6. She didn't say that. She was reluctant.	**She was reluctant to say that**
7. You helped her. You were considerate	**You were considerate to help her.**
8. We won it. We were grateful.	
9. I didn't stop them. I was powerless	**We were grateful to win it.**
10. They explored it. They were curious	**I was powerless to stop them**
11. You welcomed him. You were discreet	
12. He didn't attempt it. He was afraid	**They were curious to explore it.**
13. She forgave them. She was glad	**You were discreet to welcome him.**
14. We explained it. We were ready	**He was afraid to attempt it**
15. He didn't begin it. He was unable	**She was glad to forgive them**
16. They assisted me. They were good	**We were ready to explain it**
	He was unable to begin it. unable.
Exercise 2	**They were good to assist good.**

1. She'll hear it. Shell be disturbed.	
2. We know that. We're pleased.	
3. He has them. He's been thrilled.	**She'll be disturbed to hear it.**
4. She assisted me. She was contented.	**We're pleased to know that.**
5. They'll get it. They'll be irritated.	**He's been thrilled to have them.**
6. I explain that. I'm always rewarded.	**She was contented to assist me.**
7. She found it out. She was annoyed.	**They'll be irritated to get it.**
8. They'll start it. They'll be reassured.	**I'm always rewarded to explain that.**
9. He got it across. He was satisfied.	**She was annoyed to find it out.**
10. She's seen it. She's been impressed.	**They'll be reassured to start it.**
11. We lost them. We were dismayed.	**He was satisfied to get it across.**
12. I'll study that. I'm very stimulated.	**She's been impressed to see it.**
13. He'll propose that. He'll be prepared.	**We were dismayed to lose them.**
14. She began it. She was very excited.	**I'm very stimulated to study that.**
15. We collect them. We've been amused.	**He'll be prepared to propose that.**
16. They'll use it. They'll be frightened.	**She was very excited to begin it.**
	We've been amused to collect them.

They'll be frightened to use it.

120. INFINITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVALS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Why didn't Peter finish the whole job?
S2. I don't know. He seemed eager to do it.
S1. Maybe he was afraid to show his work to anyone.
S2. Well, I know he was anxious to get started this morning.

Conversation B

S1. How do you like your new job as a receptionist?
S2. Well, it's interesting to meet so many people.
S1. But isn't it boring to say the same things all day long?
S2. Sometimes it gets a little monotonous.

Conversation C

S1. I was thrilled to hear the news.
S2. Your parents will be pleased to hear it too.
S1. Wasn't it exciting to hear that you had won the prize?
S2. Yes, but it was hard to believe.

Conversation D

S1. It was kind of Mary and Alice to help us.
S2. I'm sure they were glad to do it.
S1. We were lucky to have such good assistants, weren't we?
S2. Yes, and it was pleasant to work with them, I thought.

Conversation E

S1. Is Tom willing to go with the visitors tomorrow?
S2. Yes. He said he'd be delighted to do it.
S1. It's nice of him to help us this way.
S2. Yes, it is. We're fortunate to have such a good friend.

Exercise 1

1. She'll be disturbed to hear it.	**It'll disturb her to hear it.**
2. We're pleased to know that.	**It pleases us to know that.**
3. He's been thrilled to have them.	**It's thrilled him to have them.**
4. I was contented to assist her.	**It contented me to assist her.**
5. They'll be irritated to get it.	**It'll irritate them to get it.**
6. She's rewarded to explain that.	**It rewards her to explain that.**
7. I was annoyed to find it out.	**It annoyed me to find it out.**
8. They'll be delighted to start it.	**I'll delight them to start it.**
9. He was satisfied to get them back.	**It satisfied him to get them back.**
10. I was impressed to read it.	**It impressed me to read it.**

Exercise 2

	Finding it out annoyed me.
1. It annoyed me to find it out.	**Starting it will delight them.**
2. It'll delight them to start it.	**Getting them back satisfied him.**
3. It satisfied him to get them back.	**Reading it has impressed me.**
4. It's impressed me to read it.	**Losing them dismayed us.**
5. It dismayed us to lose them.	**Studying hard will inspire him.**
6. It'll inspire him to study hard.	**Hearing about it will interest me.**
7. It'll interest me to hear about it.	**Receiving them excited her.**
8. It excited her to receive them.	**Collecting them has amused me.**
9. It's amused me to collect them.	**Using it will frighten them.**
10. It'll frighten them to use it.	

Exercise 3

1. He thanked them. He was polite.	**It was polite of him to thank them.**
2. He didn't thank them. He was rude.	**It was rude of him not to thank them.**
3. He spent his money. He was foolish.	**It was foolish of him to spend his money.**
4. He didn't spend his money. He was wise.	**It was wise of him not to spend his money.**
5. He locked the door. He was cautious.	**It was cautious of him to lock the door.**
6. He didn't lock the door. He was careless.	**It was careless of him not to lock the door.**
7. He shared the food. He was generous.	**It was generous of him to share the food.**
8. He didn't share the food. He was selfish.	**It was selfish of him not to share the food.**
9. He helped us. He was good.	**It was good of him to help us.**
10. He didn't tell them. He was dishonest.	**It was dishonest of him not to tell them.**
11. He answered truthfully. He was sensible.	**It was sensible of him to answer truthfully.**
12. He offered us a ride. He was considerate.	**It was considerate of him to offer us a ride.**
13. He didn't say anything. He was discrete .	**It was discreet of him not to say anything.**
14. He did it that way. He was clever.	**It was clever of him to do it that way.**
15. He didn't complain at all. He was kind.	**It was kind of him not to complain at all.**
16. He invited us to go. He was thoughtful.	**It was thoughtful of. him to invite us to go.**

121.INFINITIVE AFTER TOO OR ENOUGH / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. This food is too hot to eat.
S2. Be careful. It's hot enough to burn your tongue.
S1. It will be cool enough to eat if we wait a few minutes.
S2. Yes, but let's not wait until it's too cool to enjoy.

Conversation B

S1. The man's explanation was too complicated to understand.
S2. He doesn't speak slowly enough for us to take notes either.
S1. He gets too excited to remember us students, I think.
S2. Are you brave enough to ask him to repeat everything?

Conversation C

S1. The wind is really strong today.
S2. I'm afraid it's too strong for us to consider going sailing.
S1. Definitely. It's blowing hard enough to tip a boat over.
S2. Maybe it will get calm enough later for us to go out.

Conversation D

S1. I couldn't finish all the work this afternoon.
S2. It was really too much to finish in one day.
S1. To tell the truth, there was enough work to keep me busy two days.
S2. But you're experienced enough to do it faster than anyone else.

Conversation E

S1. Why doesn't the company try this new method of production?
S2. The new method is too dangerous to be considered.
S1. Then will the company continue to use the old method?
S2. Yes. The old method is still safe enough to be used.

Exercise 2

1. The food was very hot. I couldn't eat it.	**The food was too hot for me to eat.**
2. The food was very hot. It burned my tongue.	**The food was hot enough to burn my tongue.**
3. The suit is dirty. You can't wear it tomorrow	**The suit is too dirty for you to wear tomorrow**
4. The suit is clean, You can wear it tomorrow.	**The suit is clean enough for you to wear tomorrow.**
5. The water is very cold now. You can't go swimming.	**The water is too cold now for you to go swimming.**
6. The water is quite warm now. You can go swimming.	**The water is warm enough now for you to go swimming**
7. The rope was very long. It reached to the bottom.	**The rope was long enough to reach to the bottom.**
8. The rope wasn't very long. It didn't reach to the bottom.	**The rope wasn't long enough to reach to the bottom.**
9. The rope was very short. It didn't reach to the bottom.	**The rope was too short to reach to the bottom.**
10. I'm quite strong. I can lift that box without help.	**I'm strong enough to lift that box without help.**
11. I'm quite weak. I can't lift that box without help.	**I'm too weak to lift that box without help.**
12. He's very bright. He can solve the problem by himself.	**He's bright enough to solve the problem by himself.**
13. He's upset now. He can't talk about the problem.	**He's too upset now to talk about the problem.**
14. The work was very hard. We weren't able to finish it.	**The work was too hard for us to finish.**
15. That method is dangerous. It can't be considered.	**That method is too dangerous to be considered.**
16. The other method is quite safe. It can be used.	**The other method is safe enough to be used.**

Conversation A

S1. This food is too hot to eat.
S2. Be careful. It's hot enough to burn your tongue.
S1. It will be cool enough to eat if we wait a few minutes
S2. Yes, but let's not wait until it's too cool to enjoy.

Conversation B

S1. The man's explanation was too complicated to understand.
S2. He doesn't speak slowly enough for us to take notes either.
S1. He gets too excited to remember us students, I this
S2. Are you brave enough to ask him to repeat everything?

Conversation C

S1. The wind is really strong today.
S2. I'm afraid it's too strong for us to consider going sailing.
S1. Definitely. It's blowing hard enough to tip a boat over.
S2. May be it will get clam enough later for us to go out.

Conversation D

S1. I couldn't finish all the work this afternoon.
S2. It was really too much to finish in one day.
S1. To tell the truth, there was enough work to keep me busy two days.
S2. But you're experienced enough to do it faster than anyone else.

Conversation E

S1. Why doesn't the company try this new method of production?

S2. The new method is too dangerous to be considered.
S1. Then will the company continue to use the old method?
S2. Yes. The old method is still safe enough to be used.

Exercise 1

1. He didn't finish it. He was very nervous.	**He was too nervous to finish it.**
2. I didn't hear that. I was very confused.	**I was too confused to hear that.**
3. We didn't say anything we were very angry.	**We were too angry to say anything**
4. They didn't do it. They were very discouraged.	**They were too discouraged to do it.**
5. She didn't read that. She was very busy then.	**She was too busy then to read that**
6. I didn't meet them there. I was very lazy.	**I was too lazy to meet them there.**
7. They didn't help us. They were very insulted.	**They were too insulted to help us.**
8. We didn't return that.. She was very upset.	**She was too upset to return that.**
9. We didn't describe it well. We were very excited	**We were too excited to describe it well**
10.I didn't prepare for it at all. I was very annoyed	**I was too annoyed to prepare forint at all.**
11.She didn't speak about it. She was very ashamed.	**She was too ashamed to speak about it.**
12.They didn't keep it up. They were Very tired by that time	**They were too tired by that time to keep it up**
13.He didn't send for them He was very discreet	**He was too discreet to send for them.**
14.We didn't bring it up at the meeting We were very depressed.	**We were too depressed to bring it up At the meeting.**
15.They didn't begin the work. They were very Afraid.	**They were too afraid to begin the work**
16.I didn't turn the offer down. I was very interested	**I was too interested to turn the offer down.**

122. FINAL PREPOSITIONS (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Whom is Mary talking to?
S2. She's talking to her cousin.
S1. What's she talking about?
S2. She's talking about her new job.

Conversation B

S1. What are Tom and Fred arguing about?
S2. They're arguing about politics.
S1. What's Tom objecting to?
S2. He's objecting to some of Fred's statements.

Conversation C

S1. What part of the lesson did you have trouble with?
S2. I had trouble with several parts.
S1. Whom did you explain Your problems to?
S2. I explained them to Mr. Taylor.

Conversation D

S1.What docs Tom devote his spare time to.
S2. He devotes most of it to his hobbies.
S1. What does he concentrate on mostly?
S2. On photography, I think.

Conversation E

S1. Whom does that Woman remind you of?
S2. Is it somebody I work with?
S1. No. Somebody you're very friendly with.
S2. Now I know. You mean Mary Wilson.

Exercise 1

He benefited from that.	What did he benefit from?
They'll concentrate on that.	What will they concentrate on?
I should insist on that.	What should you insist on?
She contributes to that.	What does she contribute to?
He can succeed in that.	What can he succeed in?
I suffered from that.	What did you suffer from?
They must believe in that.	What must they believe in?
She's prepared for that.	What's she prepared for?
I recovered from that.	What did you recover from?
They'll object to that.	What will they object to?
John can comment on that.	What can he comment on?
I wondered about that.	What did you wonder about?
She must consent to that.	What must she consent to?

They've qualified for that.	What have they qualified for?
He'll worry about that.	What will he worry about?
They're quarreling over that.	What are they quarreling over?

Exercise 2

1 Has she been invited?	What's she been invited to?
2 Weren't you convinced?	What weren't you convinced of
3 Will they be respected?	What will they be respected for?
4. Couldn't he be assured?	What couldn't he be assured of?
5 Must you be prepared?	What must you be prepared for?
6 Was he convicted?	What was he convicted of?
7 Haven't you been pleased?	What haven't you been pleased with?
8 Should she be rewarded?	What should she be rewarded for
9 Are they committed?	What are they committed to?
10 Will you be opposed?	What will you be opposed to
11. Was he reprimanded?	What was he reprimanded for?
12. Are they appreciated	What are they appreciated for?
13. Has Mary been devoted	What has been Mary devoted to
14. Should I be ashamed	What Should I be ashamed of?
15. Must be acquainted?	What Must be acquainted with?
16. Could they be accused?	What Could they be accused?

123 FINAL PREPOSITIONS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What did they complain about?
S2. They complained about all the noise.

S1. Whom did you refer them to?
S2. I referred them to the manager.

Conversation B

S1. What are you upset about?
S2. About the things you said.
S1. Is it something I should apologize for?
S2. It certainly is.

Conversation C

S1. Whom did you get the information from?
S2. From my friend Robert.
S1. Is he a person you can rely on to be accurate?
S2. That's something I'm very sure of

Conversation D

S1.Whom were you quarreling with?
S2. I was quarreling with another student
S1. What were you quarreling with him about?
S2. About the coming election.

Conversation E

S1. Whom did 'Mary disagree with?
S2. She disagreed with Mr. Black.
S1. What did she disagree with him on?
S2. On the subject of foreign relations.

Exercise 1

1. It detracted.	**What did it detract from?**
2. It must correspond.	**What must it correspond to?**
3. It provides.	**What does it provide for?**
4. It'll agree.	**What will it agree with?**
5. It has to conform.	**What does it have to conform to?**
6. It was combined.	**What was it combined with?**
7. It's interfering.	**What's it interfering with?**
8. It should contribute.	**What should it contribute to?**
9. It'll contrast.	**What will it contrast with?**
10. It applies.	**What does it apply to?**
11. It's conflicted.	**What has it conflicted with?**
12. It differed.	**What did it differ from?**
13. It must correlate.	**What must it correlate with?**
14. It'll relate.	**What will it relate to?**
15. It all depends.	**What does it all depend on?**
16. It can compensate.	**What can it compensate for?**

Exercise 2

1. He'll apologize to them.	**Whom will he apologize to?**
2. He'll apologize for that.	**What will he apologize for?**
3. She quarreled with him.	**Whom did she quarrel with?**
4. They quarreled about that.	**What did they quarrel about.**

5. He can apply to them. **Whom can he apply to?**
6. He can apply for that. **What can he apply for?**
7. They agree with her. **Whom do they agree with?**
8. They agree on that. **What do they agree on?**
9. He's arguing with them. **Who's he arguing with?**
10. He's arguing about that. **What's he arguing about?**
11. She can complain to him. **Whom can she complain to?**
12. She can complain about that. **What can she complain about?**
13. They spoke to him. **Whom did they speak to?**
14. They spoke about that. **What did they speak about?**
15. He lied to her. **Whom did he lie to?**
16. He lied about that. **What did he lie about?**

124. VERB + PREPOSITIONS / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Were you quarreling With John about Something?
S2. No. We were just talking about the political situation.
S1. Does John's opinion differ greatly from yours?
S2. Not much. We agree on almost everything.

Conversation B

S1. Are you worrying about something?

S2. Yes. My job is interfering with my studies.
S1. Why do you insist on studying and working at the same time?
S2. I want to finish school, but I also need money.

Conversation C

S1. Have you inquired about their reasons for staying?
S2. No, because I don't think they would confide in me.
S1, If you associate with them more, maybe they will.
S2. Possibly, but I doubt it.

Conversation D

S1. Are you going to comment on the new regulation?
S2. Yes. I think everyone will benefit from my comments.
S1. Do you object to the regulation or approve of it?
S2. Actually, I have mixed feelings about it.

Conversation E

S1. Do you think Tom will succeed in solving the problem?
S2. It depends on a number of things.
S1. I suppose he'll rely on getting a little help from friends.
S2. Yes, and hell probably confer with Professor Smith too.

Exercise 1

1. They don't approve of him.	**Why don't they approve of him?**
2. I complained to them.	**Why did you complain to them**
3. He can't compete with them.	**Why can't he compete with them?**
4. I've worried about him.	**Why have you worried about him?**
5. He didn't cooperate with me.	**Why didn't he cooperate with you?**
6. We disagreed with her.	**Why did you disagree with her?**
7. I have to listen to them.	**Why do you have to listen to them?**
8. He hasn't inquired about us.	**Why hasn't he inquired about you?**
9. She apologized to them.	**Why did she apologize to them?**
10. You should associate with her.	**Why should I associate with her?**
11. She confides in him.	**Why does she confide in him?**
12. He didn't converse with them.	**Why didn't he converse with them?**

Exercise 2

Why did he worry about them?

Listen	**Why did he listen to them?**
Disagree	**Why did he disagree with them?**
Confide	**Why did he confide in them?**
Inquire	**Why did he inquire about them?**
Converse	**Why did he converse with them?**
Approve	**Why did he approve of them?**
Associate	**Why did he associate with them?**
Complain	**Why did he complain to them?**
Cooperate	**Why did he cooperate with them?**
Compete	**Why did he compete with them?**
Apologize	**Why did he apologize to them?**

Worry **Why did he worry about them?**

Exercise 3

1. Did he benefit from that?	**Yes. He benefited from that.**
2. Will they concentrate on that.	**Yes. They'll concentrate on that.**
3. Shouldn't you insist on that?	**Yes, I should insist on that.**
4. Doesn't she contribute to that?	**Yes. She contributes to that.**
5. Can he succeed in that?	**Yes. He can succeed in that.**
6. Didn't you quarrel about that?	**Yes. We quarreled about that**
7. Have you applied for that?	**Yes. I've applied for that.**
8. Do they believe in that?	**Yes. They believe in that.**
9. Won't he complain about that?	**Yes. He'll complain about that**
10. Have you prepared for that?	**Yes. I've prepared for that**
11. Should she apologize for that?	**Yes. She should apologize for that.**
12. Don't you wonder about that?	**Yes. I wonder about that.**
13. Will they object to that?	**Yes. They'll object to that.**
14. Did she recover from that?	**Yes. She recovered from that**

Exercise 4

1. They quarreled.	**They quarreled about that.**
2. They objected.	**They objected to that.**
3. They succeeded.	**They succeeded in that.**
4. They apologized.	**They apologized for that.**
5. They benefited.	**They benefited from that.**
6. They wondered.	**They wondered about that.**
7. They insisted.	**They insisted on that.**
8. They applied.	**They applied for that.**
9. They recovered.	**They recovered from that.**
10. They concentrated.	**They concentrated on that.**
11. They contributed.	**They contributed to that**
12. They prepared.	**They prepared for that.**
13. They complained.	**They complained about that.**
14. They believed.	**They believed in that.**

Exercise 5

1. He referred to that.	**Why did he refer to that?**
2. I've provided for that.	**Why have you provided for that?**
3. They can't rely on that.	**Why can't they rely on that?**
4. She disapproves of that.	**Why does she disapprove of that?**
5. You must hope for that.	**Why must I hope for that?**
6. They won't speak about that.	**Why won't they speak about that?**
7. She's depending on that.	**Why is she depending on that?**
8. He lied about that.	**Why did he lie about that?**
9. You should invest in that.	**Why should I invest in that'?**
10. I've specialized in that.	**Why have you specialized in that?**
11. They didn't search for that.	**Why didn't they search for that?**
12. I participated in that.	**Why did you participate in that?**
13. He's arguing about that.	**Why is he arguing about that?**
14. She's disposed of that.	**Why has she disposed of that?**

Exercise 6

Why did they speak about that?

Rely	**Why did they rely on that?**
Invest	**Why did they invest in that? - .**
lie	**Why did they lie about that?**
depend	**Why did they depend on that?**
hope	**Why did they hope for that?**
Specialize	**Why did they specialize in that?**
disapprove	**Why did they disapprove of that?**
Argue	**Why did they argue about that?**
participate	**Why did they participate in that?**
dispose	**Why did they dispose of that?**
Search	**Why did they search for that?**
refer	**Why did they refer to that?**
provide	**Why did they provide for that?**

125. VERBS, OBJECT, PREPOSITION (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Did you explain our reasons for going to Mr. White?
S2. Yes. I explained everything to him.
S1. Did he question you about anything?
S2. No, but he reminded me of several things we should do.

Conversation B

S1. Why is Mary angry at you?
S2. Well, she blames me for the trouble she's having.
S1. But you warned her about the possibilities some time ago.
S2. Yes, and I emphasized that to her.

Conversation C

S1. Did you consult a lawyer about your tax problems?
S2. Yes, but he referred me to someone else.
S1. Whom did he refer you to?
S2. A lawyer who specializes in tax problems.

Conversation D

S1. I understand you assisted the girls with their article.

S2. I just advised them in one or two matters.
S1. It was very kind of you to help them with it.
S2. Actually, I devoted very little time to it.

Conversation E

S1. What did Tom do with the money he won in the contest?
S2. He donated some of it to charity.
S1. Did he deposit any in his bank account?
S2. Yes, and he invested the rest in his brother's business.

Exercise 1

1. Did she consult him about that?	**Yes. She consulted him about that.**
2. Can they accuse you of that?	**Yes. They can accuse me of that.**
3. Has he thanked them for that?	**Yes. He's thanked them for that.**
4. Do they suspect her of that?	**Yes. They suspect her of that.**
5. Will he protect us from that?	**Yes. He'll protect us from that.**
6. Can you question her about that?	**Yes. I can question her about that.**
7. Did he pay the men for that?	**Yes. He paid the men for that.**
8. Should we invite him to that.	**Yes. We should invite him to that.**
9. Did he convince her of that?	**Yes. He convinced her of that.**
10. Does she respect you for that?	**Yes. She respects me for that.**
11. Till they punish him for that?	**Yes. They'll punish him for that.**
12. Must she remind them of that?	**Yes. She must remind them of that.**

Exercise 2

They reminded him.	**They reminded him of that.**
They invited him.	**They invited him to that.**
They consulted him.	**They consulted him about that.**
They paid him.	**They paid him for that.**
They encouraged him.	**They encouraged him in that.**
They accused him.	**They accused him of that.**
They thanked him.	**They thanked him for that.**
They convinced him.	**They convinced him of that.**
They punished him.	**They punished him for that.**
They respected him.	**They respected him for that.**
They protected him.	**They protected him from that.**
They questioned him.	**They questioned him about that.**

Exercise 3

1. Can you increase it to that?	**Yes, I can increase it to that.**
2. Will he identify it as that?	**Yes, I'll identify it as that.**
3, Did you deduct it from that	**Yes. I deducted it from that**
4. Can they omit it from that?	**Yes, they can omit it from that.**
5. Has she invested it in that?	**Yes. she invested it in that?**
6. Can be replace it with that?	**Yes. It can replace it with that**
7, Should We add it to that?	**Yes. You should add it to that.**
8. Do they derive it from that?	**Yes. they derive it from that.**
9. Is he combining it with that?	**Yes, He's combining it with that.**
10. Has Mary related it to that?	**Yes. Mary has related it to that.**
11. Will they donate it to that?	**Yes. They'll donate it to that.**
12, Can we accompany it with that?	**Yes, you can accompany it With that.**
13. Did she exchange it for that?	**Yes. She exchanged it for that.**
14. Will they confine it to that?	**Yes. They'll confine it to that.**

Exercise 4

We exchanged it.	We exchanged it for that.
We omitted it.	We omitted it from that.
We donated it.	We donated it to that.
We identified it.	We identified it as that.
We increased it.	We increased it to that.
We confined it.	We confined it to that.
We deducted it.	We deducted it from that.
We accompanied it.	We accompanied it with that.
We invested it.	We invested it in that.
We related it.	We related it to that.
We replaced it.	We replaced it with that
We derived it.	We derived it from that.
We combined it.	We combined it with that.
We added it.	We added it to that.

Exercise 5

1. Will they blame you for that?	Yes. They'll blame me for that.
2. Did he notify them of that?	Yes. He notified them of that.
3. Can she provide him with that?	Yes. She can provide him with that
4. Do you envy him for that?	Yes. I envy him for that.
5. Did they tease her about that?	Yes. They teased her about that.
6. Can he supply you with that?	Yes. He can supply me with that.
7. Does he admire them for that?	Yes. He admires them for that.
8. Can they direct him to that?	Yes. They can direct him to that.
9. Will he excuse them from that?	Yes. He'll excuse them from that.
10. Has she warned you about that?	Yes. She's warned me about that.
11. Did he compensate you for that?	Yes. He compensated me for that.
12. Did they force him into that?	Yes. They forced him into that.
13. Will she forgive him for that?	Yes. She'll forgive him for that.

Exercise 6

He warned them.	He warned them about that.
He notified them.	He notified them of that.
He forced them.	He forced them into that.
He blamed them.	He blamed them for that.
He forgave them.	He forgave them for that.
He provided them.	He provided them with that.
He envied them.	He envied them for that.
He teased them.	He teased them about that.
He excused them.	He excused them from that.
He warned them.	He warned them about that.
He compensated them.	He compensated them for that
He supplied them.	He supplied them with that.
He directed them.	He directed them to that.

126. VERBS, OBJECT, PREPOSITION (2) / CONVERSATION DRILL

Conversation Drill A
S1. I saw them about that yesterday.
S2. Did they (A) you _____it?
S1. Well, they (*B*_ it. ,
S2. I suppose that was to be expected.

(A)	(B)
blame……...for	complained about
warn……. About	worried about
advise…… of	commented On
encourage….. in	inquired about
remind…….. of	referred to
question… about	spoke about
pay…….. for	consented to
assist ... with	argued about

Conversation Drill B

S1. He's going to see them tomorrow.
S2. Do you think he'll *(A)* them _____that?
S1. He certainly ought to ___*(B)* _ it ____them.
S2. At any rate, he has to do something.

(A)	(B)
consult……. About	explain…… to
threaten…….With	suggest……to
caution……. About	emphasize……. to
furnish……with	divide……. …….among
excuse……from	require……of
provide…….. with	share……. ….with
trust……with	offer……. to
advise……of	conceal……from

127. ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITION (1) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Smith is very popular with his employees, isn't he?
S2. Yes, he is. He's always been very fair to them.
S1. I know he always seems to be aware of other people's problems.
S2. I think that's why he's been so successful in his work.

Conversation B

S1. How do you like your new teacher?
S2. Very well. He's always patient with us.
S1. Doesn't he ever get angry with his students?
S2. No. He never seems to get upset over anything.

Conversation C

S1. My secretary is very efficient in everything she does.
S2. You're lucky. Secretaries aren't always careful about their work.
S1. Right. My former secretary was often neglectful of things.
S2. Well, I advise you to be very courteous to your new one.

Conversation D

S1. Are you optimistic about the results of the examination?
S2. To be truthful about it, I'm really not.
S1. I'm not very confident of getting a good grade either.
S2. I guess it's no use to be so anxious about it now.

Conversation E

S1. My boss has been critical of my work lately.
S2. Has your recent work been consistent with your previous work?
S1. If anything, I'd say it's been superior to my previous work.
S2. Then maybe he's resentful of you for some other reason.

Exercise 1

1. He was afraid, wasn't he? **Yes. He was afraid of the man.**

2. She's often rude, isn't she? **Yes. She's often rude to the man.**
3. They won't be patient, will they? **No. They won't be patient with the man.**
4. You've been angry, haven't you? **Yes. I've been angry with the man.**
5. He was antagonistic, wasn't he? **Yes. He was antagonistic toward the man.**
6. I haven't been courteous, have I? **No. You haven't been courteous to the man.**
7. She used to be hostile, didn't she? **Yes. She used to be hostile toward the man.**
8. They're always loyal, aren't they? **Yes. They're always loyal to the man.**
9. You'll be friendly, won't you? **Yes. I'll be friendly to the man.**
10. John was good, wasn't he? **Yes. John was good to the man.**
11. You shouldn't be jealous, should you? **No. I shouldn't be jealous of the man.**
12. He isn't very intimate, is he? **No. He isn't very intimate with the man.**
13. She won't be envious, will she? **No. She won't be envious of the man.**
14. They were considerate, weren't they"? **Yes. They were considerate of the man.**
15. He wouldn't be cruel, would he? **No. He wouldn't be cruel to the man.**
16. They're all proud, aren't they? **Yes. They're all proud of the man.**
17. She was always resentful, wasn't she? **Yes. She was always resentful of the man.**
18. He's been quite truthful, hasn't he? **Yes. He's been quite truthful with the man.**
19. They won't be critical, will they? **No. They won't be critical of the man.**

Exercise 2

1. Wasn't he optimistic? **Yes. He was optimistic about that.**
2. Are they all proficient? **Yes. They're all proficient in that.**
3. Have you been aware? **Yes. I've been aware of that.**
4. Won't she be fearful? **Yes. She'll be fearful of that.**
5. Is he really contemptuous? **Yes. He's really contemptuous of that.**
6. Haven't you been pessimistic? **Yes. I've been pessimistic about that.**
7. Are they all innocent? **Yes. They're all innocent of that.**
8. Will some be intolerant? **Yes. Some will be intolerant of that.**
9. Were you impatient? **Yes. I was impatient about that.**
10. Wasn't the boy sorry? **Yes. The boy was sorry about that.**
11. Can't they be responsible? **Yes. They can be responsible for that.**
12. Should the man be earnest? **Yes. The man should be earnest about that.**
13. Were the men intent? **Yes. The men were intent on that.**
14. Must you be skillful? **Yes. I must be skillful at that.**
15. Wasn't she upset? **Yes. She was upset over that.**
16. Aren't you all envious? **Yes. We're all envious of that**

128. ADJECTIVES + PREPOSITION (2) / CONVERSATION DRILLS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What did the men say about the new secretary?
S2. Apparently, she's *(A)* working hard.
S1. In your opinion, is she *(B)* the things she must do?
S2. I would certainly say she is.

(A)	(B)
capable of	skillful at
fond of	proficient in
not afraid of	suitable for
desirous of	efficient in
intent on	careful about
not resentful of	adequate for
amenable to	aware of
not critical of	familiar with

Conversation Drill B

S1. What's your opinion of our new president?
S2. I like him because he's (A) other people.
S1. He's certainly *(B)* everyone.
S2. Obviously, he's a fine person for the job.

(A)	(B)
always considerate of	polite to
never critical of	gentle with
always kind to	friendly toward
never rude to	cooperative with
always patient with	acceptable to
never envious of	thoughtful of
always respectful of	popular with
never hostile toward	truthful with
always courteous to	trustful of
never unfair to	generous with

129. PARTICIPLE + PREPOSITION / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. What sports are you interested in?
S2. Well, I get quite excited about football.
S1. Do you get absorbed in games on TV, as my brother does?
S2. I'm afraid I do. Almost every weekend.

Conversation B

S1. Is something the matter?
S2. Well, I'm concerned about my job.
S1. Is it related to all the recent changes?
S2. Yes. I'm having trouble getting adjusted to my new duties.

Conversation C

S1. Are you accustomed to the climate here yet?
S2. Not really. I get tired of the constant rain.
S1.You certainly can't be blamed for that.
S2. I'll really be glad when the spring comes.

Conversation D

S1. Are you acquainted with that man over there?
S2. Yes. I'm associated with him in my work.
S1. I enjoyed talking to him very much.
S2. I'm not surprised at that. He's very charming.

Conversation E

S1. Did you get involved in the argument at the meeting?
S2. Yes. I didn't want to be accused of not having an opinion.
S1. I got very annoyed over several things that Harold said.
S2. To tell the truth, I was very disappointed in him.

Exercise 1

1. Will they be tired of that?	**Yes. They'll be tired of that.**
2. Aren't you accustomed to that?	**Yes. I'm accustomed to that.**
3. Should we be satisfied with that?	**Yes. You should be satisfied with that**
4. Hasn't he been reminded of that?	**Yes. He's been reminded of that.**
5. Must she be concerned about that?	**Yes. She must be concerned about that.**
6. Haven't you been influenced by that?	**Yes. I've been influenced by that.**
7. Can they be blamed for that?	**Yes. They can be blamed for that.**
8. Wasn't she notified of that?	**Yes. She was notified of that.**
9. Will they be excited about that?	**Yes. They'll be excited about that.**

10. Should he be involved in that? **Yes. He should be involved in that.**
11. Were they deprived of that? **Yes. They were deprived of that.**
12. Aren't you interested in that? **Yes. I'm interested in that.**
13. Will she be impressed by that? **Yes. She'll be impressed by that.**
14. Should I be offended by that? **Yes. You should be offended by that.**
15. Weren't you prepared for that? **Yes. I was prepared for that.**
16. Are they displeased with that? **Yes. They're displeased with that.**

Exercise 2

1. Will they be tired? **Why will they be tired of that?**
2. Aren't you accustomed? **Why aren't you accustomed to that?**
3. Should we be satisfied? **Why should we be satisfied with that?**
4. Hasn't he been reminded? **Why hasn't he been reminded of that?**
5. Must she be concerned? **Why must she be concerned about that?**
6. Haven't you been influenced? **Why haven't you been influenced by that?**
7. Can they be blamed? **Why can they be blamed for that?**
8. Wasn't she notified? **Why wasn't she notified of that?**
9. Will they be excited? **Why will they be excited about that?**
10. Should he be involved? **Why should he be involved In that?**
11. Were they deprived? **Why were they deprived of that?**
12. Aren't you interested? **Why aren't you interested in that?**
13. Will she be impressed? **Why will she be impressed by that?**
14. Should I be offended? **Why should I be offended by that?**
15. Weren't you prepared? **Why weren't you prepared for that?**
16. Are they displeased? **Why are they displeased with that?**

Exercise 3

1. They'll be indebted to the man. **Why will they be indebted to him?**
2. Wasn't he devoted to the man? **Why wasn't he devoted to him?**
3. I've been influenced by the man. **Why have you been influenced by him?**
4. We're all accustomed to the man. **Why are you all accustomed to him?**
5. He shouldn't be offended by the man. **Why shouldn't he be offended by him?**
6. No one was acquainted with the man. **Why wasn't anyone acquainted with him?**
7. They're amazed at the man. **Why are they amazed at him?**
8. You must be concerned about the man. **Why must I be concerned about him?**
9. We won't be disappointed in the man. **Why won't you be disappointed in him?**
10. She used to be interested in the man. **Why did she use to be interested in him?**
11. Everyone is disgusted with the man. **Why is everyone disgusted with him?**
12. I had to be associated with the man. **Why did you have to be associated with him?**
13. You shouldn't be displeased with the man. **Why shouldn't I be displeased with him?**
14. Weren't they insulted by the man? **Why were they insulted by him?**
15. You mustn't be ashamed of the man. **Why mustn't I be ashamed of him?**
16. She's been provoked with the man. **Why has she been provoked with him?**

Exercise 4

1. They'll be indebted. **They'll be indebted to the man.**
2. Wasn't he devoted? **Wasn't he devoted to the man?**
3. I've been influenced. **I've been influenced by the man.**
4. We're all accustomed. **We're all accustomed to the man.**
5. He shouldn't be offended. **He shouldn't be offended by the man.**
6. No one was acquainted. **No one was acquainted with the man.**

7. Are they related?	**Are they related to the man?**
8. You mustn't be concerned.	**You mustn't be concerned about the man**
9. We won't be disappointed.	**We won't be disappointed in the man.**
10. She used be interested.	**She used to be interested in the man**
11. Everyone is disgusted.	**Everyone is disgusted with the man.**
12. I had to be associated	**I had to be associated with the man.**
13. Don't be displeased.	**Don't be displeased man**
14. Weren't they insulted?	**Weren't they insulted by man?**
15. You shouldn’t be ashamed.	**You shouldn't be ashamed of the man**
16. She's been provoked.	**She's been provoked with the man.**

130. WORD FORMS (1) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Tom seemed to become nervous when he noticed the time.
S2. He spoke nervously too, I thought.
S1. I noticed he made a quick departure afterw9rd.
S2. Yes. He did leave rather quickly, didn't he?

Conversation B

S1. Is the director a well-educated man?
S2. Yes. He has a good education.
S1. Is he a very efficient person on the job?
S2. Yes, he is. He always seems to do things efficiently.

Conversation C

S1. Was the man angry?
S2. Yes. He shouted at us very angrily.
S1. Were people calm about it or not?
S2. Most of us took it quite calmly.

Conversation D

S1. Helen is a calm person.
S2. I've noticed she always speaks calmly.
S1. She also seems sensible about things.
S2. Yes. She always handles things sensibly, in my opinion.

Conversation E

S1. Mr. White looked anxious, don't you think?
S2. Yes. He was pacing the floor anxiously when I saw him.
S1. Is he always so emotional about making speeches?
S2. Yes. He gets very involved emotionally.

Exercise 1

1. He made rapid movements.	**He made movements rapidly.**
2. He used the correct expression.	**He used the expression correctly.**
3. He made a sudden comment.	**He made a comment suddenly.**
4. He asked respectful questions.	**He asked questions respectfully**
5. He made precise gestures.	**He made gestures precisely.**
6. He wrote very careful reports.	**He wrote reports very carefully.**
7. He made a dramatic statement.	**He made a statement dramatically.**
8. He expressed his Sincere emotions.	**He expressed his emotions sincerely.**
9. He told extremely humorous jokes.	**He told jokes extremely humorously**
10. He wrote frequent descriptions.	**He wrote descriptions frequently**
11. He told amusing stories.	**He told stories amusingly.**
12. He gave us quite accurate information.	**He gave us information quite accurately.**
13. He told her his honest Opinion.	**He told her his opinion honestly.**

14. He made several hasty calls.	**He made several calls hastily.**
15. He demanded an immediate apology.	**He demanded an apology immediately**
16. He asked us rather clever questions	**He asked us questions rather cleverly.**

Exercise 2

1 She's very modest.	**She speaks very modestly.**
2. They were resentful.	**They spoke resentfully.**
3. You haven't been nervous.	**You haven't spoken nervous.**
4. Everyone will be considerate.	**Everyone will speak considerately.**
5. We won't be skeptical.	**We won't speak skeptically.**
6. She was just being fair.	**She was just speaking fairly.**
7. You should be brave.	**You should speak bravely.**
8. We have to be practical.	**We have to speak practically.**
9. I'm always sympathetic.	**I always speak sympathetically**
10. John is being very quiet.	**John is speaking very quietly.**
11.They could have been polite.	**They could have spoken politely.**
12. You must be interesting.	**You must speak interestingly.**
13. Please try to be sensible.	**Please try to speak sensibly.**
14. I should have been suspicious.	**I should have spoken suspiciously**
15. She wasn’t really critical.	**She didn't really speak critically.**
16. He used to be enthusiastic.	**He used to speak enthusiastically.**

131. WORD FORMS (2) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Does Peter always speak rapidly?
S2. Usually, but not when he makes speeches.
S1. He's a good speaker, and his pronunciation is excellent.
S2. He does pronounce words well, doesn't he?

Conversation B

S1. Was the president completely satisfied with the results?
S2. Yes, he was. He expressed complete satisfaction.
S1. Did he announce the results of our work formally?
S2. Yes, he did. He made a formal announcement.

Conversation C

S1. Did you consider everything impartially?
S2. Yes. I tried to give everything very impartial consideration.
S1. You treated the matter cautiously, I see.
S2. Well, it definitely called for cautious treatment.

Conversation D

S1. Did the chairman make a recommendation to oppose changes?
S2. Yes, and he recommended opposition to the new proposal
S1. Was there any criticism of the proposal?
S2. Yes. Some people criticized it and proposed further study.

Conversation E

S1. The boys behaved badly and deserved punishment.
S2. After the party, their parents punished them for their bad behavior.
S1. Did they apologize for their rude remarks?
S2. Yes. They made an apology for having spoken so rudely.

Exercise 1 / Line A1 /

Does Peter always speak rapidly?

work	**Does Peter always work rapidly?**
carefully	**Does Peter always work carefully?**
usually	***Does* Peter usually work carefully?**
write	***Does* Peter usually write carefully?**
accurately	***Does* Peter usually write accurately?**

Exercise 2 / Lines A1 and A3 /

Peter is a rapid speaker.

worker	**Peter is a rapid worker.**

careful	Peter is a careful worker.
the boys	The boys are careful workers.
good writers	The boys are good writers.
accurate	The boys are accurate writers. .

Exercise 3 / Line B4 /

He made a formal announcement.

Recommendation	He made a formal recommendation.
Immediate	He made an immediate recommendation.
Suggestion	He made an immediate suggestion.
Cautious	He made a cautious suggestion.
Reference	He made a cautious reference.

Exercise 4/ Line C3 /

You treated the matter with caution.

Tact	You treated the matter with tact.
Handled	You handled the matter with tact.
Care	You handled the matter with care.
Discussed	You discussed the matter with care.

Exercise 5 / Line C4 /

It definitely called for cautious treatment.

Tactful	It definitely called for tactful treatment.
Handling	It definitely called for tactful handling.
Careful	It definitely called for careful handling.
Discussion	It definitely called for careful discussion.

Exercise 6

1. They're rapid translators.	They translate rapidly.
2. He's a dramatic speaker.	He speaks dramatically.
3. She's a careful listener.	She listens carefully.
4. We're loyal followers.	We follow loyally.
5. You two are steady workers.	You two work steadily.
6. They're cautious planners.	They plan cautiously.
7. I'm a terrible speller.	I spell terribly.
8. You're humorous speakers.	You speak humorously.
9. You're an accurate writer.	You write accurately.
10. You're both wise shoppers.	You both shop wisely.
11. She's a regular helper.	She helps regularly.
12. I'm a clumsy dancer.	I dance clumsily.
13. They're energetic teachers.	They teach energetically.
14. We're attentive listeners.	We listen attentively
15. You're a sincere speaker.	You speak sincerely.
16. He's an efficient supervisor.	He supervises efficiently.

Exercise 7

1. They'll speak considerately.	They'll be considerate
2. I won't speak skeptically.	I won't be skeptical.

3. She speaks very modestly. She's very modest.
4. She was just speaking fairly. She was just being fair.
5. They spoke resentfully. They were resentful.
6. You haven't spoken nervously. You haven't been nervous.
7. Someone must speak bravely. Someone must be brave.
8. We have to speak practically. We have to be practical.
9. I always speak sympathetically. I'm always sympathetic.
10. John is speaking very quietly. John is being very quiet.
11. They could have spoken politely. They could have been polite.
12. You should speak humorously. You should be humorous.
13. Please try to speak sensibly. Please try to be sensible.
14. They've spoken suspiciously. They've been suspicious.
15. She didn't speak critically. She wasn't critical.
16. He used to speak enthusiastically. He used to be enthusiastic.

Exercise 8

1. He announced it. His announcement interested people.
2. We considered it. Our consideration interested people.
3. I recommended it. My recommendation interested people.
4. They opposed it. Their opposition interested people.
5. She criticized it. Her criticism interested people.
6. We proposed it. Our proposal interested people.
7. They explained it. Their explanation interested people.
8. I described it. My description interested people.
9. He improved it. His improvement interested people.
10. They discovered it. Their discovery interested people.
11. She discussed it. Her discussion interested people.
12. I examined it. My examination interested people.
13. They suspected it. Their suspicion interested people.
14. He defended it. His defense interested people.
15. We denied it. Our denial interested people.
16. They predicted it. Their prediction interested people.

Exercise 9

I. He relied on them. His reliance on them was Important.
2. He prepared for that. His preparation for that was important.
3. He invested in that. His investment in that was important.
4. He competed with them. His competition with them was important.
5. He protested about that. His protest about that was important.
6. He succeeded in that. His success in that was important
7. He provided for that. His provision for that was important.
8. He replied to them. His reply to them was important.
9. He participated in that. His participation in that was important.
10. He cooperated with them. His cooperation with them was important.
11. He recovered from that. His recovery from that was important.
12. He persisted in that. His persistence in that was important.
13. He depended on them. His dependence on them was important.
14. He referred to that. His referral to that was important.
15. He disagreed with them. His disagreement with them was important.
16. He speculated on that. His speculation on that was important.

132. WORD FORMS (3) /CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. I tried to instruct John how to get there.
S2. Did he understand your instructions?
S1. Well, I described every place along the way in detail.
S2. Then I'm sure your description made everything clear.

Conversation B

S1.Did you see the demonstration of that new product?
S2. Yes, but it was demonstrated in a different building.
S1.Did the quick change in plans confuse people?
S2. Fortunately, there seemed to be very little confusion.

Conversation C

S1.Robert decided not to say anything about his good luck.
S2. I think he made a wise decision. Don't you?
S1.Definitely I admire him for it too
S2. Without question, he deserves a great deal of admiration.

Conversation D

S1. We just recently agreed on a course of action.
S2. What brought about this agreement?
S1. We investigated and then concluded it was necessary.
S2. I came to the same conclusion after some investigation.

Conversation E

S1. My friend selected everything he needed very quickly.
S2. But his selections were quite good, I thought.
S1. How could he choose things so quickly?
S2. I don't know, but his choices were all very good.

Exercise 1

1. They admired him.	**Their admiration was apparent.**
2. We suspected them.	**Our suspicion was apparent.**
3. She trusted us.	**Her trust was apparent.**
4. They encouraged him.	**Their encouragement was apparent.**
5. We guided them.	**Our guidance was apparent.**
6. He persuaded us.	**His persuasion was apparent.**
7. They recommended her.	**Their recommendation was apparent.**
8. She supported them.	**Her support was apparent.**
9. He advised them.	**His advice was apparent.**
10. We offended him.	**Our offense was apparent**
11. She flattered them.	**Her flattery was apparent.**
12. I reassured him.	**My reassurance was apparent.**
13. He instructed her.	**His instruction was apparent.**

14. You deceived them. **Your deception was apparent.**
15.They respected him. **Their respect was apparent.**
16. We assisted her. **Our assistance was apparent.**

Exercise 2

1. They approved of that. **I mentioned their approval of that.**
2. They depended on him. **I mentioned their dependence on him.**
3. They contributed to that. **I mentioned their contribution to that.**
4. They applied for that. **I mentioned their application for that**
5. They apologized to him. **I mentioned their apology to him.**
6. They insisted on that. **I mentioned their insistence on that.**
7. They complained to him. **I mentioned their complaint to him.**
8. They inquired about that. **I mentioned their inquiry about that**
9. They argued with him. **I mentioned their argument with him**
10. They objected to that. **I mentioned their objection to that**
11. They associated with him. **I mentioned their association with him**
12. They intervened in that. **I mentioned their intervention in that**
13. They adjusted to that. **I mentioned their adjustment to that.**
14. They qualified for that. **I mentioned their qualification for that.**
15. They believed in that **I mentioned their belief in that.**
16. They quarreled with him. **I mentioned their quarrel with him.**

133. WORD FORMS (4) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation A

S1. Didn't Alice seem anxious about taking the examination?
S2. Yes. She seemed to have a great deal of anxiety about it.
S1. But she's the most intelligent student in the class!
S2. I guess intelligence and anxiety aren't directly related.

Conversation B

S1. Fred seems to be a very sincere 2nd ambitious person.
S2. Yes. I admire his sincerity and ambition a great deal.
S1. I suspect some people are very envious of his success.
S2. Well, I'm sure successful people get quite accustomed to envy.

Conversation C

S1. Did Bill's humorous comments amuse everyone?
S2. Yes, they did. He's very clever, isn't he?
S1. Yes, and he has a good sense of humor.
S2. I think everyone enjoyed his cleverness and humor.

Conversation D

S1. We're very grateful for all your generosity.
S2. You're very kind to express your gratitude.
S1. Well, you were very generous, and we wanted to thank you.
S2. And I have appreciated your kindness.

Conversation E

S1. Did your friends give you an accurate description of the event?
S2. Yes. In fact, their accuracy was very impressive.
S1. They're always very competent and reliable in things like that.
S2. Competence and reliability. are important qualities in our work.

Exercise 1

1. He's a wealthy person.	**His wealth helps him a lot.**
2. He's a strong person.	**His strength helps him a lot.**
3. He's a neat person.	**His neatness helps him a lot.**
4. He's a wise person.	**His wisdom helps him a lot.**
5. He's an energetic person.	**His energy helps him a lot.**
6. He's an intelligent person.	**His intelligence helps him a lot.**
7. He's a courageous person.	**His courage helps him a lot.**
8. He's an important person.	**His importance helps him a lot.**
9. He's a practical person.	**His practicality helps him a lot.**
10. He's a brilliant person.	**His brilliance helps him a lot.**
11. He's a lucky person.	**His luck helps him a lot.**
12. He's an ingenious person.	**His ingenuity helps him a lot.**
13. He's· a mature person.	**His maturity helps him a lot.**
14. He's an ambitious person.	**His ambition helps him a lot.**
15. He's an able person.	**His ability helps him a lot.**
16. He's an independent person.	**His independence helps him a lot.**

Exercise 2

1. We're aware of her honesty.	**She's honest with us.**

2. We're aware of your confidence. You're confident in us.
3. We're aware of his patience. He's patient with us.
4. We're aware of their fear. They're afraid of us.
5. We're aware of his antagonism. He's antagonistic toward us.
6. Were aware of her gratitude. She's grateful to us.
7. We're aware of your strictness. You're strict with us.
8. We're aware of their tolerance. They're tolerant of us.
9. We're aware of her politeness. She's polite to us
10. We're aware of his cooperation. He's cooperative with Us.
11. We're aware of their criticism. They're critical of us.
12. We're aware of her rudeness. She's rude to us
13. We're aware of his competition. He's competitive with us.
14. We're aware of their helpfulness. They're helpful to us.
15. We're aware of her loyalty. She's loyal to us.
16. We're aware of his neglect. He's neglectful of us.

Exercise 3

1. She was aware of that. We noticed her awareness of that.
2. She was absent from that. We noticed her absence from that.
3. She was ready for that. We noticed her -readiness for that.
4. She was familiar with that. We noticed her familiarity with that.
5. She was optimistic about that. We noticed her optimism about that.
6. She was anxious about that. We noticed her anxiety about that.
7. She was skillful at that. We noticed her skill at that.
8. She was grateful for that. We noticed her gratitude for that.
9. She was doubtful about that. We noticed her doubt about that.
10. She was intolerant of that. We noticed her intolerance of that.
11. She was proficient in that. We noticed her proficiency in that.
12. She was sorry about that. We noticed her sorrow about that.
13. She was responsible for that. We noticed her responsibility for that.
14. She was successful in that. We noticed her success in that

Exercise 4

1. She's dependent on them. Her dependence on them is obvious.
2. She's considerate of them. Her consideration of them is obvious
3. She's intimate with them. Her intimacy with them is obvious.
4. She's courteous to them. Her courtesy to them is obvious.
5. She's angry at them. Her anger at them is obvious
6. She's suspicious of them Her suspicion of them is obvious.
7. She's loyal to them. Her loyalty to them is obvious.
8. She's jealous of them . Her jealousy of them is obvious.
9. She's hostile toward them. Her hostility toward them is obvious.
10. She's cruel to them. Her cruelty to them is obvious.
11. She's envious of them. Her envy of them is obvious.
12. She's generous with them. Her generosity with them is obvious.

Exercise 5

1. They're very ignorant. People notice their ignorance
2. She's very proud. People notice her pride.
3. We're very formal. People notice our formality.
4. He's very weak. People notice his weakness.
5. You're very fluent. People notice your fluency.
6. She's very innocent. People notice her innocence.

7. I'm very clumsy. People notice my clumsiness.
8. He's very stupid. People notice his stupidity.
9. You're very friendly. People notice your friendliness.
10. She's very popular. People notice her popularity.
11. I'm very frank. People notice my frankness.
12. They're very brave. People notice their bravery.
13. You're very obedient. People notice your obedience.
14. We're very punctual. People notice our punctuality.
15. He's very violent. People notice his violence.
16. She's very appreciative. People notice her appreciation

Exercise 6

1. That'll be simple. They'll see the simplicity of it.
2. That was reckless. They saw the recklessness of it.
3. That's been precise. They've seen the precision of it.
4. That can be consistent. They can see the consistency of it.
5. That should be influential. They should see the influence of it.
6. That's advantageous. They see the advantage of it.
7. That's been probable. They've seen the probability of it.
8. That was appropriate. They saw the appropriateness of it.
9. That used to be beneficial. They used to see the benefit of it.
10. That's suitable. They see the suitability of it.
11. That's been possible. They've seen the possibility of it.
12. That was foolish. They saw the foolishness of it.
13. That ought to be sufficient. They ought to see the sufficiency of it.
14. That'll be reliable. They'll see the reliability of it .
15. That's been effective. They've seen the effectiveness of it.
16. That would be advisable. They would see the advisability of it.

134. WORD FORMS (5) / CONVERSATIONS

Conversation Drill A

S1. What did you say about the man?
S2. I said the man *(A)* that.
S1. Yes, and his *(B)* caused problems.
S2. I guess no one expected that.

(A)	(B)
discovered	discovery
invented	invention
refused	refusal
explained	explanation
criticized	criticism
defended	defense
improved	improvement

discussed	**discussion**

Conversation Drill B

S1. Do you know Mary very well?
S2. Yes, I do. I know that she's very *(A)*
S1. Some people aren't aware of her (B)
S2. I've been aware of it for some time.

(A)	(B)
anxious	**anxiety**
accurate	**accuracy**
intelligent	**intelligence**
efficient	**efficiency**
humorous	**humor**
clever	**cleverness**
sincere	**sincerity**
modest	**modesty**

Exercise 2

Haven't you heard what she'll write ?	**No. What will she write?**
Haven't you heard why she couldn't write?	**No. Why couldn't she write?**
Haven't you heard how often she writes?	**No. How often does she write?**
Haven’t you heard where she's writing?	**No. Where's she writing?**
Haven't you heard what she's written?	**No. What's she written?**
Haven't you heard how much she wrote?	**No. How much did she write?**
Haven't you heard what she has to write?	**No. What does she have to write?**
Haven't you heard when she should write?	**No. When should she write?**
Haven't you heard whom she used to write to?	**No. Whom did she use to write to?**
Haven't you heard what she's going to write?	**No. What's she going to write?**
Haven't you heard how much she must write?	**No. How much must she write ?**
Haven't you heard how long she was writing?	**No. How long was she writing?**
Haven't you heard when she usually writes?	**No. When does she usually write?**
Haven't you heard which one she'd better write?	**No. Which one had she better write?**
Haven't you heard where she's been writing?	**No. Where's she been Writing?**
Haven't you heard what she's written?	**No. What's she written?**
Haven't yon heard which one she's going to write?	**No. Which one is she going to write?**
Haven't you heard what she plans to write?	**No. What does she plan to write?**
Haven't you heard how much she wrote?	**No. How much did she write?**

Exercise 3

1. Where will he be?	**I don't know where hell be.**
2. Why did she leave?	**I don't know why she left.**
3. Who's that man?	**I don't know who that man is.**
4. When did they return?	**I don't know when they returned.**
5. Where's John going?	**I don't know where John is going.**
6. Where does she live?	**I don't know where she lives.**
7. When did they arrive?	**I don't know when they arrived.**
8. When are they leaving?	**I don't know when they are leaving.**
9. Why was she absent?	**I don't know why she was absent.**
10. Why didn't she return?	**I don't know why she didn't return.**
11. Why did Mary buy it?	**I don't know why Mary bought it.**
12. Who's that tall man?	**I don't know who that tall man is.**
13. Who's doing the work?	**I don't know who's doing the work.**
14. Who wrote this paper?	**I don't know who wrote this paper.**
15. Whom did they invite?	**I don't know whom they invited.**
16. Whom should I speak to?	**I don't know whom you should speak to.**

Exercise 4

1. Whose house is that?	**Please tell us whose house that is.**
2. Whose book did he use?	**Please tell us whose book he used.**
3. What happened to him?	**Please tell us what happened to him.**
4. What's he talking about?	**Please tell us what he's talking about.**
5. What does the word mean?	**Please tell us what the word means.**
6. What do you call that?	**Please tell us what you call that.**
7. What did she ask them?	**Please tell us what she asked them.**
8. What country is he from?	**Please tell us what country he is from.**
9. What cities did he visit?	**Please tell us what cities he visited.**
10. Which one is Brown's?	**Please tell us which one is Brown's.**
11. Which one does he want?	**Please tell us which one he wants.**
12. Which does John prefer?	**Please tell us which John prefers.**
13. How does it work?	**Please tell us how it works.**
14. How old is Mr.Brown?	**Please tell us how old Mr. Brown is.**
15. How much did it cost?	**Please tell us how much it cost.**

16. How do you say this?

Please tell us how you say this.

Advanced English Conversations

More than 1000 common

The English Grammar Workbook for Adults

A Self-Study Guide to Improve Functional Writing

ESL & EFL Friendly!

Michael DiGiacomo

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Introduction

Hey, everyone! Thanks for picking up this book. I'm a native New Yorker who started on an English teaching journey in 1994 in Sendai, Japan. At first, I thought teaching English would be easy. Boy, was I surprised! Sure, English has a lot of grammar rules, but I soon realized that in many situations, those rules, their exceptions, and even some "non-rules" made learning and teaching English pretty tough. For example, I knew that in English, we use *many* before countable nouns (*many pens*, *many people*) and *much* before uncountable nouns (*much rain*, *much love*). But one day, one of my students said, "I ate much food last night," which sounded weird to me. When I tried to figure out why, I couldn't find the answer in any of the grammar books I had. I realized that while most books will teach you how to make the grammar (the structure), they don't teach you how to apply it. That's how I became motivated to write this book. The lessons here will help you become more articulate and confident using English in your writing and everyday English conversations.

What Does This Book Mean by "Functional" English Grammar?

When something is functional, it's both practical and useful. The cat or dog on your coffee mug looks nice, but it's neither practical nor useful. Your mug will work just as well without the graphics. I wanted to write a book that would help clear up questions you may have about grammar but also give you opportunities to practice using grammar in real everyday situations. Applying what you learn is key to remembering and mastering anything. You

have to *just do it*, as a certain sportswear company says. You can read all about swimming and spend hours watching swimming videos on YouTube, but to become a swimmer, you have to actually jump in the pool. So, welcome to your new “swimming area”!

So, what actually is grammar? The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines grammar as “the study of the classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence.” This definition really describes everything you need to know about grammar in order to write and speak English with proficiency. The classes of words are the parts of speech—nouns, adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, etc. Inflections refer to the way we use words to account for tense (past, present, future), mood, gender, voice, etc. And functions and relations are how words work together in a sentence.

There’s a saying that you don’t need to know how a clock works in order to tell time. The same goes for grammar. The different sections of this book are categorized by name so they can be presented in an organized way, but don’t get caught up in the terminology. You don’t need to remember the term *countable noun*—you just need to know that some nouns are countable, like dogs or cars, and that uncountable nouns refer to nouns that cannot be counted, like air. Learn the rules, practice with the exercises provided here, and keep this book on hand for easy reference!

How to Use This Book

This book is divided into two parts. The first part is a collection of the most practical and commonly used English grammar patterns. Each section is designed to give you a concise review of that grammar pattern, including its structure, meaning, and, most importantly, usage. At the end of each lesson,

you'll find an exercise to give you some practice. You can check your answers with the answer key at the back of the book.

Once you feel comfortable with the grammar lessons, you can move on to part two. There, you'll find real-world scenarios in which you can apply what you learned in part one. These scenarios cover everything from social situations, school, and work life to creative writing.

This book is not a complete guide to English grammar. There are lots of those kinds of books on the market. Instead, this book focuses on the parts of English grammar that are most used in the real world. Recommendations for further reading can be found in the resources section at the end of this book.

A Note to Instructors

Thanks for selecting this book for your students. These lessons will be useful for any student who's learning to apply written grammar in a communicative way. The emphasis here is on practical usage. If you're teaching ESL/EFL, this book can help high-level English learners clear up any grammar points they may find fuzzy or confusing. Many of these lessons were born from the questions of my upper-level English learners. If you're working with native-level learners, you can use these lessons to help your students fill in any gaps they may have in their written English. Students can use this book as a self-study tool, a supplement to the material they're learning in class, or even an inspiration for out-of-class assignments.

A Note to ESL/EFL Students

In the twenty-five-plus years that I've been helping English learners like you, I've gotten more questions about grammar than any other area of English. It

seems that even though ESL/EFL students take lots of grammar classes, those lessons can be confusing. Look at these two sentences:

If I win the lottery, I will buy a house.

If I won the lottery, I would buy a house.

The grammar is correct in both cases, but how about the real-world usage? In what situations do we use *if* followed by a present verb (*win*) or *if* followed by a past verb (*won*)? This book will help you set things straight as you learn how and when we use certain grammar patterns. This is a guidebook for your journey across the bridge from learning English to confidently using English in all the different areas of your life. It's your road map out of the fog and into the sunshine. So, put on your sunglasses, and let's get the proverbial ball rolling!

Part One

By the Book

In this part, we'll look at the most essential elements of American English grammar. If you often find yourself confused about how to use words like *a* and *the* or if you aren't sure if you should say "more happy" or "happier," this section will help. Topics are presented in a logical order, starting with words and then moving to sentences and finally paragraphs. Each topic is self-contained, so you can start anywhere and skip parts you're already confident with.

Chapter One

Nouns, Determiners, and Quantifiers

Have you ever played “20 Questions”? The first question is usually “Is it an animal, vegetable, or mineral?” Nouns, all of them. We’ll explore the different types of nouns and learn about the determiners and quantifiers that support them.

Nouns

A **noun** is a word that represents a person, place, or thing. **Proper nouns**, always capitalized, name a specific person or thing, like *Maria* or *Paris.* **Common nouns** represent things in general, like *girl* or *city*. Many of these nouns represent things we can count, like *pens* and *people*. Some nouns represent things that we can't count, like *water* and *air*. Knowing this is important because these two types of nouns affect your grammar choices. For example, you can say "a pen," but you can't say "a water" or "a fun." We'll look at all the various types of nouns.

Countable Nouns

In general, **countable nouns** represent things that are concrete and tangible. Countable nouns are words that stand for people, places, or things that we can look at and count when there are more than one. Take a look around you. Maybe there are two or three pens, a few books, and some chairs. In your house, you may have two or more people living with you. Your town may have multiple shops, parks, and movie theaters. All of these types of words—pens, books, chairs, people, shops, parks, and theaters—are countable.

There are usually two forms for every countable noun. The *singular noun* is the form that shows one single thing, like *pen*, *dog*, and *park*. The *plural noun* is the noun that shows more than one thing, like *pens*, *dogs*, and *parks*.

Here are examples of countable nouns:

1. There is one *notebook* on the desk, and there are two *books* on the shelf.
2. Rohan has 12 *students* in his writing class.
3. What do you think of when you see all of those *stars*?

Exercise 1
Now it's your turn to practice.

---

1. Write about where you live. Are there many stores, museums, or restaurants in your town? How many parks are there?
2. Write about your kitchen. How many glasses do you have? Do you have any fruit, like apples or bananas? Does your kitchen have a lot of appliances?

Special Plural Nouns

In many cases, adding an **-s** or **-es** at the end of the word forms the plural spelling of nouns; however, there are a number of special spelling rules in English. These rules often depend on the vowels or consonants that the noun ends in.

1. When the noun ends in a vowel followed by a **-y**, add **-s** to make the plural.

   alloy…alloys

   bay…bays

   boy…boys

   day…days

   delay…delays

   display…displays

   essay…essays

   key…keys

   way…ways

2. When the noun ends in a consonant followed by a **-y**, change the **-y** to **-ies** to make the plural.

   analogy…analogies

   army…armies

   baby…babies

   berry…berries

   body…bodies

   city…cities

   family…families

   gypsy…gypsies

   vacancy…vacancies

   Exception: The plural form of **proper nouns**, which are names, that end in a consonant followed by a **-y** is made by just adding **-s.**

   February…Februarys

   Hello Kitty…Hello Kittys

3. When the noun ends in **ch, s, sh, x**, or **z**, add **-es** to make the plural.

   batch…batches

   box…boxes

   class…classes

   inch…inches

   polish…polishes

   sinus…sinuses

   tax…taxes

   waltz…waltzes

wish…wishes

Exception: When a word ends in a vowel followed by **z**, the plural is **-zzes**, like:

quiz…quizzes

wiz…wizzes

4. When the noun ends in an **-o**, add **-s** to make the plural.

casino…casinos

disco…discos

logo…logos

photo…photos

radio…radios

scenario…scenarios

studio…studios

turbo…turbos

video…videos

Exception: Some words ending in **-o** make the plural with **-es**.

echo…echoes

hero…heroes

potato…potatoes

tomato…tomatoes

Exercise 2
Now it's your turn to practice.

How many of these words can you write in one sentence?

Irregular Plural Nouns

There are also a number of nouns that have an irregular plural form. This means it's more than just adding *-s* or *-es*. Countable nouns that have special plural forms are called **irregular plural nouns**. In this section, we'll take a look at some common ones.

1. Generally, when the noun ends in **-f** or **-fe,** change the **-f** or **-fe** to **-ves** to make the plural.

   half…halves

   knife…knives

   leaf…leaves

   life…lives

   loaf…loaves

   self…selves

   shelf…shelves

   thief…thieves

   wife…wives

   <u>Exception</u>: Some words ending in **-f** or **-fe** make the plural with **-s**.

   chef…chefs

   chief…chiefs

   cliff…cliffs

   cream puff…cream puffs

   giraffe…giraffes

   handcuff…handcuffs

ref…refs

roof…roofs

safe…safes

2. Some nouns have an irregular plural form with a different spelling than the singular form.

appendix…appendices

child…children

foot…feet

goose…geese

man…men

mouse…mice

person…people

tooth…teeth

woman…women

Exception: The usual plural form of *person* is *people*. However, in legal situations like contracts and court documents, it's possible to use *persons*, as in "Several persons of interest were questioned by the detective."

3. Some nouns have an irregular plural form that is the same spelling as the singular form.

deer…deer

fish…fish

scissors…scissors

sheep…sheep

Exercise 3
Now it's your turn to practice.

Are the following sentences correct or incorrect?

1. Aubrey has several fishes in her aquarium.
   Correct ⫽ Incorrect ⫽
2. In this city, all of the roofs are blue.
   Correct ⫽ Incorrect ⫽
3. Please put the books and computer mice on the shelves.
   Correct ⫽ Incorrect ⫽
4. The chef was talking to a people in the restaurant.
   Correct ⫽ Incorrect ⫽
5. On the farm, we saw some sheep, some calves, and a wolf.
   Correct ⫽ Incorrect ⫽

Uncountable Nouns

In general, **uncountable nouns** represent things that we don't look at as separate, individual objects. Uncountable nouns include abstract ideas and concepts. You cannot use numbers to count these nouns. Luckily, though, there are no specialty spellings to remember because an uncountable noun doesn't have a plural form. There are also some uncountable nouns that can actually be counted by using a variety of countable words, such as the quantity or the container they are held in, or by using general words like *a piece*, *a slice*, *a bag of*, *a lot of*, *some*, and so on.

Liquids are uncountable nouns.

ammonia

beer

coffee

gasoline

juice

milk

oil

shampoo

soda

soup

tea

water

You can say things like *a can of beer, two cups of coffee, three bottles of oil*, and *a lot of water*. The exception to this rule is when we talk about drinks. In conversational English, you can say things like:

- I had two beers last night. *It means two bottles of beer.*
- Let's order a few coffees for dessert. *It means a few cups of coffee.*
- I asked the server to bring a couple of waters. *It means a couple of glasses of water.*

Materials are uncountable nouns.

cotton

fabric

glass

gold

iron

leather

paper

plastic

rubber

tin

wood

wool

> You can, however, say things like *a roll of fabric, a piece of plastic*, and *a pile of wood*.

Gases and other natural phenomena are uncountable nouns.

air

electricity

fire

fog

hail

oxygen

pollution

rain

smoke

snow

steam

thunder

> You can, however, say things like *some fog, a container of oxygen*, and *a crack of thunder*.

School subjects and languages are uncountable nouns.

biology

English

French

Japanese

literature

math

psychology

Abstract concepts, emotions, feelings, and other ideas are uncountable nouns.

adventure

beauty

belief

hope

jealousy

love

luck

maturity

romance

sorrow

truth

wonder

Collective words that represent groups of things, often very small things, are uncountable nouns.

equipment

food

furniture

grass

junk

livestock

luggage

mail

money

rice

salt

traffic

Exercise 4
Now it's your turn to practice.

Underline the nouns in the sentence and then decide if they are countable or uncountable.

C C C U

Example: *We have a suitcase, a backpack, a shopping bag, and some other luggage.*

1. The beauty in this wood is shown in the pattern.
2. There is a lot of garbage and junk in the old house.
3. We get a lot of mail. Some is from our customers, but much of it is junk.
4. Viktor has a lot of furniture, including several chairs, tables, and sofas in his apartment.
5. All of the beer, wine, and soda is in the cooler.

Nouns That Can Be Both Countable and Uncountable

As you can see, English can be tricky, and this part is no exception. Some nouns can be both countable and uncountable, depending on the situation and the context. Here are some examples:

Time

Time is countable when it means experience.

1. We had a nice time at the party.
2. I have been there many times.
3. I told him three times not to be late.

Time is not countable when it means clock time, so we don't say "a time" or "times."

1. I need time to think about your request.
2. It took some time to finish my work.
3. I have no time to play golf this week.

Space

Space is countable when it means an empty area that can be used for something.

1. I have a space in my car to hold a coffee cup.
2. There are a few spaces available to park your car.
3. The conference is sold out, so there are no spaces left.

Space is <u>not countable</u> when it means the universe.

1. Jack studies astronomy because he is interested in space.
2. Do you think there is any intelligent life in space?
3. Will passenger space travel be coming in the next decade?

Experience

Experience is <u>countable</u> when it relates to time.

1. I had several great experiences when I was living overseas.
2. I always have an interesting experience when I hang out with my friends.
3. I've had some funny experiences trying to speak a second language.

Experience is <u>not countable</u> when it means knowledge or skills.

1. Jack has a lot of experience playing golf. He started when he was six years old.
2. Do you have any experience in sales?
3. Doing an internship can give you practical work experience.

Other examples of words that can be either countable or not countable, depending on their context:

aspirin

coffee

democracy

Exercise 5
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Write original sentences using the nouns *time*, *space*, and *experience* in both the countable and uncountable forms.

Compound Nouns

A **compound noun** is formed when we put two nouns or a noun and another word together to produce one new meaning. There are three groups of compound nouns.

Group 1

Two words become one word:

blackboard
bookstore
checkout
haircut
newspaper
notebook
sunglasses
toothpaste
watermelon

Group 2

Two words are separated by a space but used together:

bus stop

dinner table

ice cream

living room

music box

oil tank

swimming pool

tennis racket

washing machine

Group 3

Hyphenated nouns are words connected by hyphens. These words are made up of two nouns or a combination of nouns and other words.

first-timer

grown-up

high-rise

merry-go-round

runner-up

singer-songwriter

six-pack

son-in-law

warm-up

Exercise 6
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Match each noun in column A with a noun in column B to make a compound noun. Write your answers as one word, two words, or hyphenated words.

A	B	Answer
1. bus	up	
2. coffee	table	
3. living	store	
4. fire	stop	
5. tennis	room	
6. warm	racket	
7. note	drill	
8. book	cup	
9. dinner	book	

Hyphenated Nouns

When we hyphenate nouns and numbers, the resulting combination becomes an adjective, or describing word. Interestingly, the noun part of these adjectives is always singular. When we say that Amisha is twenty years old, *years* is plural because *year* is a countable noun, and since twenty is more than one, we say *twenty years*. But when we say that Amisha is a twenty-year-old woman, hyphenating the words *twenty*, *year*, and *old* turns the resulting phrase into an adjective. Now the noun *year* is in the singular form:

Amisha is a *twenty-year-old* woman. *Twenty-year-old* is a hyphenated adjective.

Here are some other examples:

1. Kim bought a *ten-pound* bag of flour to make cookies.
2. All the doctors work a *twelve-hour* shift two or three times per month.
3. Chang has a *thirty-six-inch* monitor on his desk.

When you need to use one of these hyphenated adjectives, the plural is formed by changing the noun and not the hyphenated phrase.

1. Kim bought *four ten-pound bag**s*** of flour to make cookies.
2. The doctor had to work *two twelve-hour shift**s*** this week.
3. The stockbroker has *three thirty-six-inch monitor**s*** on his desk.

Fractions are also written as hyphenated numbers.

1. The factory experienced a *one-third* cut in orders last year.
2. You should fill those cupcake tins *two-thirds* full.
3. If you cut *three-sixteenths* of an inch from that pipe, it should fit perfectly.

Exercise 7
Now it's your turn to practice.

Rewrite the nouns in the following sentences using a hyphenated adjective.

1. Refund policy: You have seven days to return the item. *It's a refund policy*.

2. The conference took three days. *It was a* _____ *conference.*
3. The box weighs twenty pounds. *It's a* _____ *box.*

Capitalization

Nouns that represent names are called **proper nouns**, which are different from the common nouns we've covered. Proper nouns are always capitalized. These proper nouns include the following groups:

Group 1

Names of days, months, and holidays:

Chinese New Year

Christmas

January

July

March

Memorial Day

Monday

Saturday

Tuesday

Group 2

Names of places, nationalities, languages, and religions:

American

Canada

Christianity

Dutch

Islam

Judaism

Mexican

Siberia

Tokyo

Group 3

Names of people, their titles, and names of organizations:

Dr. Christopher

Ms. Dubois

Benjamin Franklin

Marta

Microsoft

Anna Parsons

The Red Cross

Professor Smirnov

Volkswagen

Exercise 8
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Rewrite the sentences using capital letters as needed.

1. There is going to be a presentation on the first three presidents of the united states on monday, january 3.
2. Bill gates is the founder of microsoft.
3. The amazon river in south america is the second-longest river in the world.
4. We watched the hollywood classic *gone with the wind* in my social studies class today.

Determiners

English nouns are interesting. They tend to get lonely, and in most cases, nouns like a friend to be with them. We'll call that friend a **determiner**. Determiners, words like *a*, *the*, *that*, and *her*, tell us which noun we're talking about by introducing and identifying it. They help identify the noun within the context of the sentence, paragraph, or conversation.

The most common determiners are **articles**. There are three articles in English: *a*, *an*, and *the*. *A* and *an* are called **indefinite articles**, and *the* is called a **definite article**. Let's look at a few examples:

1. I have *a* pen.
2. Jenny ate *an* apple.
3. We went to *the* park on Main Street.

Do you see how *a* pen and *an* apple could be any pen or apple? They're indefinite. But *the* park on Main Street—it's clear which park we're talking about; *the* makes it definite.

We also use **possessive nouns** and **possessive adjectives** as determiners. Words like *Tasha's*, *Toyota's*, and *Italy's* are possessive nouns. Words like *my*, *her*, and *their* are possessive adjectives.

1. *Tasha's* cat is so cute!
2. *Toyota's* job interviews are very challenging.
3. *Italy's* flag is green, white, and red.
4. Have you ever seen *my* car?
5. She was telling me about *her* job.
6. *Their* house is on the corner of *their* block.

Demonstrative pronouns like *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* can also be used as determiners.

1. *This* coffee is really good.
2. How much is *that* laptop?
3. Have you tried *these* cookies?
4. I have never seen *those* books before.

Other words, such as **quantifiers**, are also used as determiners. These are words like *each*, *every*, *some*, *any*, *many*, and *much*.

1. The teacher gave *each* student a pen.
2. We need to put *every* chair in the closet.
3. I ordered *some* sandwiches for lunch.
4. Do you have *any* pencils?
5. There are *many* people in the room.
6. I didn't get *much* sleep last night.

Exercise 9
Now it's your turn to practice.

In the following sentences, decide what, if anything, should go in the blank space.

1. There is _____ man at _____ front desk in _____ lobby who can help _____ you.
2. I think we need to buy _____ new TV. _____ one in _____ living room is broken.
3. We met Jane's _____husband and _____ son at _____ party last night.
4. My sister told me that _____ Franco's is the best French restaurant in _____ city.
5. 5. Can you ask boss if we can go home early tomorrow?

Using *a* and *an*

We use *a* and *an* with singular countable nouns. When the noun begins with a consonant sound, use *a*. When the singular countable noun begins with a vowel sound, use *an*.

Most nouns that begin with a consonant sound have a consonant as the first letter.

1. She has a cat, a dog, a fish, and a monkey.
2. A man and a woman went to a park near a river.

But sometimes a noun that begins with a consonant sound actually has a vowel as the first letter. This happens with some words that begin with *eu*, *o*, and *u* as shown here—they all sound like they start with a *y*.

1. A unicorn wearing a uniform made a U-turn on a unicycle.
2. A European found a euro near a UFO at the university.

Most nouns that begin with a vowel sound have a vowel as the first letter.

1. I bought an apple, an egg, and an onion.
2. An usher left an umbrella near an academy.

But sometimes a noun that begins with a vowel sound actually has a consonant as the first letter. This happens with some words that begin with *h*, as shown here.

1. I was there for an hour.
2. He is an heir to the throne.

We tend to use *a*, *an*, or no article (**Ø**) when we talk about things in general. Look at the following example:

> I like bananas. Bananas are delicious and also a good source of vitamins. Bananas are also one of the most inexpensive fruits. I usually eat a banana in the morning with my breakfast.

You'll notice that I used the plural form of *banana* the first three times. That's because we tend to use the plural form of countable nouns when we make generalizations. When I say that I like bananas and that bananas are delicious, I'm speaking about bananas in general and not any particular banana. In the last sentence, I said that I eat a banana in the morning. I said *a banana* because I'm talking about a single banana.

Exercise 10
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write *a*, *an*, or Ø in the following blanks.

1. We are staying at_____hotel on the beach.
2. Sorry, but I really don't like_____football.
3. I would rather listen to_____music than watch_____TV program.
4. Frida likes_____art, so we went to_____art gallery.

Using *the*

The is a **definite article**. We call it that because we use *the* to talk about something definite and specific.

We use *the* before a noun when we believe the listener/reader knows exactly what noun we're talking about. There are typically three situations in which this can happen. First, it's because we've already mentioned it.

1. I saw a cat and a dog. **The** cat was brown, and **the** dog was black and white.
2. I went to a party last night. **The** party was a lot of fun.
3. Jan has a boy and a girl. **The** girl is three, and she's adorable!

Second, it's because there is only one.

1. **The** president of **the** company is going to speak at **the** annual meeting.
2. Look at **the** moon! It's full tonight.
3. I'd like to speak to **the** manager, please.

Lastly, it's because it's the usual place that you go or the usual item you use or because it's clear from the context or situation.

1. I went to **the** post office this morning.
2. My mom was cooking in **the** kitchen all day.
3. Who is **the** woman standing by **the** window?

Let's explore some other special cases in which we use *the*.

With a **superlative adjective**, we use *the* because there is only one. That's because superlative adjectives are used to communicate an extreme comparison, like *the tallest*, *the oldest*, *the best*, etc.

1. Marco is **the** tallest player on the team.
2. Contrary to popular belief, the Brooklyn Bridge is not **the** oldest bridge in New York City.

When we say something in general about an entire species or a type of thing:

1. **The** koala bear is native to Australia.
2. **The** brain is the control tower of the body.

When we talk about musical instruments:

1. Sergei plays **the** guitar really well.
2. My sister is learning **the** piano now.

When we refer to a system or service:

1. How do you spend your time on **the** train?
2. I love to listen to that program on **the** radio*.
3. I really think you should tell **the** police about it.

Exception: We say ***the*** *radio*, ***the*** *news*, and ***the*** *Internet*, but sometimes we say *television (TV)* without *the*.

When we use adjectives like *rich, poor, elderly,* and *unemployed* to talk about groups of people:

1. This organization provides services to **the** poor.
2. Many people insist that **the** rich pay more taxes.
3. Frances works for an NGO that helps **the** disabled.

Exception: We do not use *the* before races. For example, we wouldn't say *the whites* or *the blacks*.

These are some special cases regarding *the*. We use *the* with:

Acronyms for organizations: the FBI, the CIA, the KGB, the UK

Cinemas and theaters, hotels and restaurants, and museums: the Taj Mahal, the Shubert Theater, the Hilton Hotel, the Rainbow Room, the Metropolitan Museum, the Colosseum

Countries whose names contain *of* or words like *kingdom, republic,* or *states*: the United States of America, the People's Republic of China, the United Kingdom

Countries whose names are a plural noun: the Netherlands, the Philippines, the Bahamas

Families: the Lees, the Patels, the Russos

Natural and geographical places, like deserts, groups of islands, mountain ranges, rivers, seas, and oceans: the Sahara Desert, the

Canary Islands, the Swiss Alps, the Amazon River, the Atlantic Ocean

Newspapers: *The Times of India*, *The Japan Times*, *The Washington Post*

Organizations: the Trevor Project, the United Nations, the Teamsters Union

Ships and other vehicles: the *Queen Mary*, the bullet train, the *Mayflower*

We **do not** use *the* with:

Acronyms pronounced as a word: NASA, LASER, NATO, SCUBA

Airports, stadiums, and other public buildings: Dulles Airport, Fenway Park, City Hall

Diseases and illnesses: Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, HIV

Lakes: Lake Geneva, Lake Como, Lake Michigan

Names of people, cities, and towns: George Washington, Helsinki, Mayberry

Schools and universities: Princeton University, Trinity College, Oxford University

Titles of books, movies, and plays: *War and Peace*, *Casablanca*, *Hamlet*

<u>Exceptions:</u>

Cities that have *the* in the name: The Plains, Virginia; The Bronx, New York; The Hague, the Netherlands

Restaurants, bars, and retail shops that have the owner's name in them: Joe's Pub, McSorley's Ale House, Cartier Jewelers, Saks Fifth Avenue

Some companies: The Art of Shaving, The Kraft Group, The Limited, The Walt Disney Company

Exercise 11
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions, with careful use of *a*, *an*, *the*, and Ø.

1. What pet do you have? (Think of your pet, or imagine that you have a pet. Tell us who has the pet, what kind of pet it is, and what color it is.)

I have _____.

2. What do you think of when you see the stars, the moon, or the sun?

When I see _____.

3. Which room of your house do you like the best? Answer that and also write about one or two of your favorite things in that room.

I prefer _____. *In that room, I really like*

_____.

4. What music do you like? Write about that and also write about a musical instrument that you like to listen to or one that you would like to play.

I like _____.

5. Where do your neighbors or friends like to go? Write about some of your neighbors or friends, using their family name. Mention which attractions in your city (museums, theaters, historical places, etc.) they like to go.

My friends _____.

Possessive Adjectives

The next type of determiner is the **possessive adjective**. These are *his, her, my, your, our, their, its, whose,* and *one's*. We use possessive adjectives before a noun, just like in the case of *a*, *an*, and *the*. These words describe to whom the noun belongs or with whom the noun is associated.

1. Have you seen *my* pen?
2. *Your* hair looks nice today.
3. I spent an hour looking for *their* house.
4. Do you know *whose* dog this is?
5. Sometimes it isn't easy solving *one's* problems alone.

Possessive adjectives are used as determiners before a noun, so we don't use them with other determiners. You can say "This is *my* pen" but not "This is *the my* pen."

Sometimes, when we talk about what happens to a person's body, like an injury or an illness, we use articles instead of possessive adjectives.

1. During the storm, the tree branch fell and hit Jay on *the* head.
2. Her CAT scan showed a spot on *the* lungs.
3. He fell when the ball hit him on *the* back.

However, when we're just talking about a person's body and not what happens to it, we use possessive adjectives.

1. There was a snake sitting on *her* shoulders.
2. He has two puppies on *his* lap.
3. I was sitting on the sofa with *my* eyes closed, listening to the music.

Awkward Mistakes to Avoid
Don't Press Send!

Is it *him and I*, or is it *him and me*?

Many of us, even native English speakers, were incorrectly trained to write *him and I* or *her and I*, but it should actually be *him/her/them and* ***me***. This common mistake occurs when there is more than one object pronoun. To make sure you've got things right, experiment by removing the other pronoun: "Bring that pizza to him and I" wouldn't work if you took out *him*. ("Bring that pizza to I" is incorrect.) "Bring that pizza to him and **me**" is correct.

Exercise 12
Now it's your turn to practice.

Fill in the blank with the correct possessive adjective or other determiner (*a*, *an*, *the*) as necessary. Write Ø if none is needed.

1. I can't find _____ pen, so can I borrow_____ pen or pencil?
2. I saw Daniela today. The stylist did a great job on _____ hair.
3. Diego had_____shoulder pain because he got hit in _____ shoulder playing softball.

Demonstrative Pronouns

This, *these*, *that*, and *those*—which are **demonstrative pronouns**—make up the final set of determiners. We can use these four words before a noun and in place of a noun.

We use demonstrative pronouns before nouns that represent both people and things.

1. **This** book will help you with your English.
2. **These** students have been working very hard.
3. **That** woman is the CEO of this company.
4. **Those** cars were made before World War II.

We typically use *this* and *these* when we talk about people and things near the speaker. We use *that* and *those* when we talk about people and things far from the speaker.

1. **This** coffee mug is my favorite.
2. Can you put **these** books on the shelf?
3. Have you been to **that** restaurant before?

4. Look at the line in front of the theater! **Those** people have been waiting a long time.

We also use *this* and *these* when we talk about situations that are happening now or going to happen soon. We use *that* and *those* when we talk about situations that happened already.

1. **This** movie is going to be fun.
2. **These** training meetings can be boring.
3. **That** was a delicious pizza.
4. I think **those** days in high school were a lot of fun.

Exercise 13
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide whether the following sentences are correct or incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, write the sentence correctly.

1. I think these are the best cookies I've ever eaten.
2. That is a great party! Don't you love this music?
3. You should go there. I've been to this restaurant many times. You'll love it.
4. This employees have worked very hard this month.
5. Look at this photo from college. Do you remember that girls?

Quantifiers

Quantifiers are words like *some*, *both*, and *many* that come before a noun to express the quantity of the noun. Let's explore these types of modifiers and

how they work.

Some and *Any*

The words *some* and *any* are used before nouns to talk about an indefinite quantity or amount. We use *some* and *any* when we don't need to say exactly how much or how many of a thing there is. We use *some* and *any* before plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns. *Some* is used in positive sentences. *Any* is used in negative sentences and in questions.

1. I put **some** Parmesan cheese on my pizza, and it was delicious.
2. I have **some** time tomorrow for a meeting. How does your schedule look?
3. We don't have **any** milk, so we can't make pancakes.
4. Do you have **any** ideas for Anika's birthday?

When we use a determiner before a noun, we use *some of* and *any of*.

1. I'm going to use **some of** the eggs to make a cake.
2. I met **some of** her friends at a party.
3. I don't believe **any of** those students actually studied.
4. Would **any of** your friends like a cat?

It's also possible to use *some* and *any* without a noun.

1. Let me know if you have **any** extra sunscreen. I need **some**.
2. The donuts in the conference room are homemade. Have you had **any**?

We also use *some* followed by a singular noun when talking about an unknown person or thing.

1. **Some** guy on the train stepped on my foot.
2. Min got a job with **some** tech company in Silicon Valley.

Some is also used in a sentence or a question to offer something.

1. If you'd like **some** help with your homework, call me.
2. Would you like **some** tea or coffee for dessert?

Exercise 14
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write *some* or *any* in the blanks.

1. Why don't you put _____ sugar or maple syrup on your oatmeal?
2. Do you have _____ time to have a meeting tomorrow?
3. Would you like _____ mustard or ketchup on your fries?
4. I need _____hair wax. Do you have _____?
5. Here are the exam results. _____ of you passed the exam, and _____ of you didn't. If you have _____ questions about your grades, come see me after class.

Each and *Every*

Each and *every* are used to refer to people or things in a group that we refer to separately. *Each* and *every* are followed by a singular, countable noun.

Generally, we can use *each* and *every* interchangeably, especially when we talk about time.

1. Ahmed works hard **each** day.
2. Ahmed works hard **every** day.
3. **Each** year, we get older and wiser.
4. **Every** year, we get older and wiser.

We tend to use *each* when we think of things individually or separately. There may be a group of things or people, and we use *each* when we think about them on an individual basis.

1. **Each** pen has the company logo on it. (This means that the pens, one by one, have the company logo.)
2. **Each** student will have an opportunity to talk to the teacher. (This means that the students, one by one, can talk to the teacher.)

However, we tend to use *every* when we think of things as part of a group, similar to the way we use *all*.

1. **Every** person on the tour receives a map and a rain hat.
2. **Every** guest at the party had fun.

We also use *each*, and not *every*, when we talk about two things.

1. Jim has a bottle of water in **each** hand.
2. Married life is sometimes not easy. **Each** person needs to compromise sometimes.

We also use *each*, and not *every*, before the preposition *of*.

1. **Each** of these pens has the company logo on it.
2. **Each** of you should follow me.

We use *every* when we talk about clock time.

1. The bus comes **every** hour.
2. **Every** ten minutes the phone rang.

Exercise 15
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if the following sentences are correct or incorrect. If the sentence is incorrect, write the sentence correctly.

1. He gets a checkup at the doctor's office each six months.
2. Each of you can have a cookie.
3. I'm going to give a booklet to every person in the room.
4. The clown balanced a bottle on every foot.
5. Every time he saw her, he fell more deeply in love with her.

Many, *Much*, and *a Lot of*

We use *much* and *many* to refer to a large amount or quantity of people and things. We use *many* before countable nouns, and we use *much* before uncountable nouns. *Many* indicates a large number of things, and *much* indicates a large amount of something.

1. I have **many** ideas for the weekend.
2. **Many** people in the United States like to eat pizza.
3. I don't have **much** time this week.

4. Did you do **much** research on this subject?

Many is used in positive statements, negative statements, and questions.

1. I have **many** ideas for the weekend.
2. José just moved to Milwaukee and doesn't have **many** friends.
3. Do you have **many** books and CDs?

Many and *much* can also be used in a positive sentence with a modifier like *so* or *too*.

1. There were so **many** people on the train this morning.
2. I had too **many** cups of coffee this morning. I really need to cut down.
3. There was too **much** snow last winter.
4. I am so happy that we have so **much** time to spend together.

Much is generally used in negative statements and questions. For positive statements, we don't usually use *much* by itself. We prefer using *a lot of* instead of *much*.

1. I don't have **much** time this week.
2. Do you have **much** work to do this week?
3. I think we'll have **a lot of** snow this winter. (We can't say *I think we will have **much** snow this winter*.)

A lot of can be used before uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns in statements and questions.

1. I have **a lot of** ideas for the weekend.
2. I don't have **a lot of** time this week.

3. Do you have **a lot of** experience with that software?

Exercise 16
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write *much* or *many* in the blanks. Write *a lot of* if you can't use *much* or *many*.

1. Gregor doesn't have _____ friends, even though he's lived here a year.
2. I don't think we have _____ time to visit that museum.
3. There was _____ rain last month, and that's why we have so flowers.
4. I think too _____ people don't realize how _____ effort it takes to run a business.
5. The rooms in this house have so _____ space.

A Few and *a Little*

Overview: We use *a few* and *a little* to refer to a small amount or quantity of people and things. We use *a few* before plural countable nouns, like *a few pens* or *a few chairs*. We use *a little* before noncountable nouns, like *a little water* or *a little time*.

A Few and *a Little*

A few and *a little* have a positive connotation. Using *a* before *few* and *little* shows that there's a small amount but that we're satisfied with that amount.

1. I have **a few** friends who are English teachers.

2. There are **a few** peaches in the fridge. Why don't you try one?
3. I have **a little** free time, so I'm going shopping before work.

Few and *Little*

On the other hand, *few* and *little* (without *a*) have a negative connotation. *Few* and *little* (without *a*) indicate that the amount is not enough and that we're not satisfied with that.

1. **Few** people get the chance to meet a celebrity. That's too bad.
2. There are **few** pens left. We need to order some.
3. There's **little** time to prepare for the exam. I wish there was more.
4. There's **little** milk left, so it's not enough for a bowl of cereal.

Exercise 17
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if the sentence is correct based on the usage of (*a*) *few* and (*a*) *little*.

1. Roberto has a few good ideas for marketing our products, so I think we'll sell a lot.
2. I have so much to do but so a little time. I don't think I can manage.
3. There was little rain over the weekend so we had a great time camping.
4. I've saved a few money, so I can finally get that new laptop.

Chapter Two

Adjectives

Adjectives are words we use to describe nouns. We use adjectives before nouns and after the *be* verb (see here) without nouns. A car is just a car until we add some adjectives—the **sleek**, **red sports** car is much more fun to think about!

Using adjectives before a noun like *car* is the easy way to use an adjective. But we can also use adjectives with the *be* verb and verbs like *feel*, *seem*, *look*, etc.

1. I am **glad** you like your present.
2. I feel **tired**, so I'm going to take a nap.
3. It seems **cold** outside. Please bundle up.

We use adjectives to give more information about nouns and situations. In English, we usually use the adjective *before* the noun.

1. He has a **new** pen.
2. We had a **delicious** pizza.

We tend to use adjectives *after* measurement nouns.

1. The pond in Central Park is about one foot **deep**.
2. My sister is two years **younger** than me.

With *so* and *such*, we use *so* followed by an adjective and *such* followed by a noun phrase, which is a noun preceded by an adjective (like *warm day* and *nice guy*).

1. It's **so** warm today. → It's **such** a warm day.
2. He's **so** nice. → He's **such** a nice guy.

We use *nice and* followed by an adjective to show that something or someone is comfortable or pleasant.

1. Mom's chicken soup will make you feel **nice and** warm.
2. We got to the airport **nice and** early, so we had a drink in the lounge.

Exercise 18
Now it's your turn to practice.

Try out this funny word game.

A. Write an adjective that represents age (ex.: new, old, modern, etc.).

_____

B. Write an adjective that represents a quality (ex.: good, terrible, fancy, etc.).

_____

C. Write an adjective that represents how food tastes (ex: yummy, delicious, sour, etc.). _____

D. Write an adjective that represents a color (ex.: blue, tan, red, etc.).

_____

E. Write an adjective that represents a shape (ex.: square, round, triangular, etc.).

_____

F. Write a number. _____

G. Write another adjective that represents a quality (ex.: good, terrible, fancy, etc.).

_____

Now, read the story, inserting the words you just wrote:

Zhang Li decided to cook dinner. He bought an _____A_____ cookbook that has _____B_____ recipes. When he saw a recipe for chicken soup, he thought to himself, *This looks* _____C_____. So he went to the store and got some nice _____D_____ carrots and a nice _____E_____ onion. Then he went home and cooked the soup. He made a mistake with the time and ended up cooking the

soup _____F_____ hours longer than he should have. His family thought the soup was _____G_____

Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

Attributive adjectives can only be used before a noun, and **predicative adjectives** can only be used after a noun.

Some common attributive adjectives are *chief, elder, main, total*, and *utter* .

1. You can say *the chief advisor*, but not *the advisor is chief*.
2. You can say *his elder sister*, but not *his sister is elder*.
3. You can say *the main office*, but not *the office is main*.
4. You can say *this is the total price*, but not *the price is total*.
5. You can say *he is an utter fool*, but not *he is utter*.

Some common predicative adjectives are *afraid, alive, ashamed, asleep*, and *aware*.

1. You can say *the children were afraid*, but not *the afraid children*.
2. You can say *the plants are alive*, but not *the alive plants*.
3. You can say *the man was ashamed*, but not *the ashamed man*.
4. You can say *the dog is asleep*, but not *the asleep dog*.
5. You can say *the workers were aware*, but not *the aware workers*.

Exercise 19
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if the adjectives in the following sentences are used correctly. If the adjective is incorrect, write the sentence correctly.

1. A toaster is *useful* something to have in the kitchen.
2. We need to find someone *experienced* to do this job.
3. In the story, the characters live at the bottom of the *deep, blue* sea.
4. She told me that she has a suitcase *big* for her trip to Europe.
5. There was an *asleep* child on the sofa.

The Order of Adjectives

When two or more adjectives come before a noun, we put them in a particular order. The order is first based on whether the adjective is classifying or describing the noun. Classifying means putting something in a category.

Some adjectives used to classify a noun include:

building blocks
financial advice
medical equipment
medieval castle
musical instrument
political party
portable computer
running shoes

Some adjectives used to describe a noun include:

comfortable shoes

glass decanter

good advice

modern physics

new computer

popular party

small blocks

sophisticated equipment

We put descriptive adjectives before classifying adjectives.

comfortable running shoes

good financial advice

modern quantum physics

new portable computer

popular political party

sophisticated medical equipment

Opinions generally come before facts, and we tend to put commas between three or more adjectives.

good, accurate financial advice

inexpensive, wooden building blocks

popular, new political party

sophisticated, modern medical equipment

Descriptive adjectives generally go in this order: size, age, shape, color, origin, and material.

Visha has a **small, old, round, black, Japanese wooden** box.

Although the sentence you just read illustrates the order of descriptive adjectives, more than two or three adjectives can sound awkward or forced.

José has **comfortable, old, blue, nylon running** shoes.

Exercise 20
Now it's your turn to practice.

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1. How many nouns can you use after the following adjectives?

*Medical:*_____

*Portable:*_____

*Glass:*_____

2. Take one of the adjective sets you made in the first exercise and try to make a complete set of adjectives using size, age, shape, color, origin, and material.

Adjective Comparisons

We use adjectives when we compare nouns. We use the **comparative form** of adjectives when we compare two things and the **superlative form** of adjectives when we compare more than two things.

The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives are made depending on the number of syllables in the adjective. For adjectives with one syllable (one vowel sound), like *big*, *low*, and *small*, add **-er** to make the comparative form and add **-est** to make the superlative form.

big…bigger…biggest

clean…cleaner…cleanest

fat…fatter…fattest

high…higher…highest

low…lower…lowest

quick…quicker…quickest

For adjectives with more than one syllable, use *more* to make the comparative form and *the most* to make the superlative form.

careful…more careful…most careful

difficult…more difficult…most difficult

important…more important…most important

intelligent…more intelligent…most intelligent

peaceful…more peaceful…most peaceful

thoughtful…more thoughtful…most thoughtful

For adjectives ending in **-y**, change the **-y** to **-ier** to make the comparative form, and change **-y** to **-iest** to make the superlative form.

angry…angrier…angriest

busy…busier…busiest

comfy…comfier…comfiest

dusty…dustier…dustiest

happy…happier…happiest

pretty…prettier…prettiest

Exercise 21
Now it's your turn to practice.

Look around the room you're in right now. Find three objects. Using the three patterns you just learned, first compare two of the things, and then compare all three things.

Participle Adjectives

Participle adjectives are formed from the *ed* and *ing* participles of verbs. Examples include:

amaze…amazed…amazing

amuse…amused…amusing

bore…bored…boring

disappoint…disappointed…disappointing

excite…excited…exciting

interest…interested…interesting

We use adjectives ending in **-ed** to describe how a person feels about something.

1. Everyone was *amazed* at the robot's ability.
2. Huang was *excited* when he won the lottery!
3. I'm *interested* in jazz.

We use adjectives ending in **-ing** to describe the reason a person has a certain feeling.

1. The robot's ability is *amazing*.
2. Winning the lottery is *exciting*.
3. Jazz is a very *interesting* style of music.

We can also use **-ing** adjectives to describe a person's character or personality.

1. The CEO is an *interesting* man.
2. My history teacher is *boring*.

Exercise 22
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write some sentences based on the following prompts.

1. An interesting place in your town: "*The Museum of Modern Art is interesting because…*"
2. An amazing person you know
3. An exciting trip you'd like to take
4. The last time you were bored
5. Something you are very interested in

Chapter Three

Adverbs

Adverbs are words that usually modify a verb, adjective, or other part of speech. I'd bet money that if I asked 10 people on the street to name an adverb, they'd say a word that ended in -*ly*—*quickly*, *happily*, *carefully*. They'd be right. But there are more adverbs that don't end in -*ly*, and we'll explore what they are and how they're used.

Adverbs of Manner and Place

We use **adverbs of manner** to describe how something is done or how it happens.

beautifully
fast
happily
hard
loudly
nicely
slowly
softly
well

Adverbs of place, which describe where an action is taking place, don't have any particular spelling conventions. Some examples include:

abroad
anywhere
downtown
here
inside
outside
somewhere
there

uptown

Adverbs of manner and place usually go at the end of a sentence, but some adverbs ending in **-ly** can also come before the verb.

1. Your sister plays the piano **beautifully** (cannot be *Your sister beautifully plays the piano.*).
2. The boy **gently** petted the cat (can also be *The boy petted the cat gently.*).
3. Some of the employees are going to work **overseas**.
4. Lynn can speak several languages, but she's never been **abroad**.

Some adverbs of place, particularly *here* and *there*, can come at the beginning of a sentence. You'll notice that the word order is *here/there* → verb → subject. If the subject is a pronoun, the word order is *here/there* → pronoun → verb.

1. **Here** comes Amir. Let's sing "Happy Birthday" to him.
2. **Here** he comes. Let's sing "Happy Birthday" to him.
3. **There** goes the train. I knew we should have left for the station earlier.
4. **There** it goes. I knew we should have left for the station earlier.

The usual order for adverbs is manner, place, and then time.

1. We work **hard here every day**.
2. He left **early yesterday**.

Exercise 23
Now it's your turn to practice.

Use the adverbs and the word clues to write sentences.

quietly / nicely / downtown / hard / abroad / outside

Example: teacher / speaks / the: The teacher speaks quietly.

1. was / last / it / Sunday / snowing _____
2. day / go / it's / a / so / let's / nice _____
3. and / it's / live / to / work / challenging _____
4. play / children / the / together _____
5. I / you / get / will / when / call / I _____

Adverbs of Time

We use **adverbs of time** to describe when something's done or when it happens. There are two types. The first is **adverbs of indefinite frequency**. The most common are *always*, *often*, *usually*, *sometimes*, *occasionally*, *hardly ever*, *rarely*, *seldom*, and *never*. The other type is **adverbs of definite frequency**. These are more precise, such as *once a week*, *every day*, *on the weekend*, *three times a month*, etc.

There are four basic patterns for adverbs of time. Adverbs of indefinite frequency go before the verb, unless the verb is the *be* verb (see here), in which case it goes after.

1. I **often** go to the gym.
2. Tasha **always** drinks coffee.
3. The gym is **usually** open early.
4. The trains in New York City are **rarely** on time.

Adverbs of indefinite frequency go between the auxiliary (helping) verb and main verb.

1. We can **typically** find reasonable prices.
2. Giuseppe has **never** drunk white wine.
3. You'll **rarely** see an on-time train in New York City.

The adverbs *sometimes*, *often*, *occasionally*, *frequently*, *usually*, and *normally* are exceptions. You might remember them with this acronym: SOOFUN. These are pretty flexible. We could say:

1. **Sometimes**, Giuseppe visits his customers in Chicago.
2. Giuseppe visits his customers in Chicago **sometimes**.
3. Giuseppe **sometimes** visits his customers in Chicago.

Adverbs of definite frequency can go at either the beginning or the end of a sentence.

1. I go to the gym **three times a week**.
2. **Once a month** we go to the movies.
3. Tasha drinks coffee **every day**.

Exercise 24
Now it's your turn to practice.

Using these adverbs, write sentences about what you do.

1. Once a week _____
2. Never _____
3. Sometimes _____

4. Usually _____
5. Every day _____

Other Types and Positions of Adverbs

Some adverbs have other functions, like to show emphasis or focus or to describe probability or completeness. These adverbs go before the word that they modify. Some examples of **emphasis adverbs** are *almost*, *extremely*, *just*, *really*, and *very*. **Focus adverbs** include *also*, *either*, *even*, *mainly*, *mostly*, *neither*, and *only*. **Probability adverbs** include *certainly*, *clearly*, *definitely*, *maybe*, *perhaps*, and *probably*. **Adverbs of completeness** include *completely*, *hardly*, *nearly*, *partly*, and *partially*.

1. I **almost** missed the train.
2. The boss was **extremely** happy with the sales results last month.
3. Iman **even** speaks Thai!
4. The CEO is **also** the company founder.
5. I **definitely** want to see that movie.
6. It was **partly** cloudy all day.

Exercise 25
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using a full sentence including the adverb.

1. **Recently**, have you **almost** missed a class, work, a train, or a bus?
2. You can speak English. What language do you **also** speak?
3. What is something you **hardly** do?

4. What is **certainly** the best restaurant in your town?

Chapter Four

Verbs

In short, **verbs** are the doing words. They describe the action. The Merriam-Webster dictionary notes, among other traits, that a verb is the “act, occurrence, or mode of being.”

Beware! Stop! Go. Run. Pray. Sit. Eat. These complete sentences stand alone just fine with their lone word—a verb. But not every verb is expected to *run* or *stop*—some verbs are more subtle. Let’s explore.

Active versus Stative Verbs

The two types of verbs in English are active and stative. **Active verbs** describe action and movement, like *work*, *study*, *type*, and *walk*. The action can even be a rather inactive one, like *sleep*, *sit*, and *relax*. **Stative verbs** describe a state or condition, like *love*, *feel*, *agree*, and *suppose*.

Active verbs can be used in the progressive form when we indicate actions and movement happening now.

1. Jeff is **working** on the meeting report.
2. The professor is **writing** on the board.
3. I can't chat now. I'm **studying** for the psychology final.

Stative verbs are typically not used in the progressive form when we indicate a state or condition existing now.

1. Tasha **loves** this pizza.
2. That **smells** amazing. What are you cooking?
3. I **agree** with your idea, but I think we should ask the manager first.

Some verbs can be used in both an active and stative way, but when they are used in a progressive form, the meaning is slightly different.

Feel refers to how our senses react to the environment or our body condition.

I **feel** great because I just landed a new job.

Feel is also a special stative verb because we can use it in the progressive with the same meaning.

I'm **feeling** great because I just landed a new job.

On the other hand, **feeling** is similar to **touching** and refers to trying to make physical contact with something.

I'm **feeling** the edge of this cup to check if there are any cracks or chips.

Smell refers to noticing an aroma or odor.

I **smell** pizza. Who brought the pizza into the office? Can I have some?

Smelling refers to using our nose to check the aroma of something.

> **Sophia:** What are you doing?
>
> **Liam:** I'm **smelling** this pizza to make sure it's not too garlicky. It **smells** good.

Taste refers to the reaction of our tongue to something we put in our mouth.

This alligator **tastes** like chicken.

Tasting refers to using your tongue to sample the flavor of something.

> **Olivia:** What are you doing?
>
> **Jackson:** I'm **tasting** the soup. I think it needs more salt.

Awkward Mistakes to Avoid
Don't Press Send!

The question of *affect* versus *effect* causes confusion among native speakers and English learners alike. Both words have a verb and noun form. *Affect* can either mean "to influence" (verb) or "an emotional expression" (noun). *Effect* can mean either "to make happen" (verb) or "an impact" (noun). Most of the time, you can assume that *affect* is a verb ("Eating that old pizza really *affected* my stomach") and that *effect* is a noun ("Wow, the pizza really had an *effect* on Tasha!").

Exercise 26
Now it's your turn to practice.

Choose the correct form of the verb.

1. What (are you working / do you work) on today?
2. I (have / am having) a lot of things to bring to the conference.
3. Since everyone (is agreeing / agrees) with the terms, let's sign the contract.
4. I (study / am studying) hard because final exams start tomorrow.
5. This cookie (tastes / is tasting) a bit too sweet.

Verbs Followed by Gerunds

Generally, verbs are followed by a direct object, such as *I like coffee*. But sometimes a verb can be followed either by a **gerund** (an *-ing* verb that

functions as a noun), such as *cooking*, or by an **infinitive** (a verb preceded by *to*), like *to cook*, with no difference in meaning.

Here are some of the more common ones:

begin
continue
hate
like
love
prefer

Here are some examples:

1. I like cooking.
2. I like to cook.
3. Aria continued working past 9:00 p.m.
4. Aria continued to work past 9:00 p.m.

There are some verbs that can only be followed by a gerund. Here are the most common:

advise
allow
avoid
can’t help
can’t stand
complete
dislike
finish

keep

mention

mind

miss

practice

prohibit

quit

recall

regret

try

Here are some examples:

1. The boss **advised bringing** a laptop to the conference.
2. This college doesn't **allow smoking** on campus.
3. Kai **avoids drinking** alcohol.
4. Noah **can't help looking** at his phone.

Exercise 27
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write your answers using the verb followed by a gerund pattern.

1. What is something you **dislike doing** at school or in the office?
2. What time did you **finish eating** dinner last night?
3. What are you doing these days that you will **keep doing** for the next few months?
4. What does your college or office **prohibit doing**?

5. What do you **regret doing** or **regret not doing** in the past year?

Verbs Followed by Infinitives

In this lesson, we're going to look at verbs followed by an infinitive. Here are some of the more common ones:

agree
arrange
decide
don't care
expect
hope
intend
manage
need
offer
plan
promise
refuse
tend
wait
want

Look at some examples:

1. Do you think he'll **agree to work** on Saturday?

2. Grayson **arranged to meet** his client at 9:00 a.m.
3. Have you **decided to take** the job?
4. Isabella **intends to study** robotics in graduate school.

Some verbs can be followed by an object and then the infinitive. That object is usually a person. Here are some of the more common ones:

advise
ask
cause
convince
enable
encourage
hire
invite
order
permit
persuade
remind
teach
tell
warn
wish

Look at some examples:

1. I will **advise him to do** his internship during the spring semester.
2. Did you have a chance to **ask Luz to help** you with the project?

3. Ping told me that he **hired someone to work** in sales.
4. I'm so excited! They **invited me to run** a session at the workshop.

Exercise 28
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write your answers using the verb followed by an infinitive pattern.

1. Imagine your classmate is having trouble deciding whether to take a job. What would you advise her to do?
2. During meetings, do you tend to speak up, or are you quieter?
3. Complete this sentence and explain why: "I would refuse to . . ."
4. When was the last time you taught someone how to do something?
5. What have you decided to do for your next vacation?

Verbs Followed by Either Gerunds or Infinitives

As we learned, verbs such as *like*, *prefer*, and *love* can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive with no difference in meaning. There are five verbs —*stop*, *try*, *remember*, *forget*, and *regret*—that have a different meaning depending on whether they are followed by a gerund or an infinitive.

When you use **stop to do something**, it means "take a break to do something."

1. She **stopped to smoke**.
2. I **stopped to buy** coffee on the way to the office.

When you use **stop doing something**, it means “quit” or “finish.”

1. I **stopped smoking** when I was in my mid-twenties. (I quit smoking.)
2. I **stopped buying** coffee on the way to the office. (I don’t buy coffee anymore.)

When you **try to do something**, it means you are attempting to do something new or challenging.

1. I’m **trying to find** the best way to cook that soup.
2. Luca is **trying to learn** Portuguese.

When you **try doing something**, you’re testing to see what happens.

1. I have an old laptop. I **tried turning** it on, but it didn’t work. So I **tried using** a different AC adapter, but it still didn’t work.
2. I **tried sending** Mia a few text messages, but she didn’t reply. I’m going to **try calling** her.

When you **remember to do something**, it means, “It’s my responsibility to do that.”

1. I have to **remember to lock** my office.
2. Please **remember to wash** your hands before eating.

When you **remember doing something**, it means, “I did it and I have a memory of it.”

1. I **remember going** to Istanbul. It was a great trip.
2. I **remember meeting** Elijah at the party. He was so funny.

When you **forget to do something**, it means, “I did not remember to do something important.”

1. I **forgot to call** my grandmother on her birthday, and she was very upset.
2. The boss was angry because Oliver **forgot to ask** his customer to sign the contract.

When you **forget doing something**, it means, “I did it, but I don’t remember doing it.”

1. I **forgot paying** the telephone bill, so I mistakenly paid twice.
2. I **forgot meeting** Riley several years ago until she reminded me that we met in Chicago.

When you **regret to do something**, the meaning is “I’m sorry, but I must do this.” We use this pattern to inform someone of bad news, using phrases like **I regret to tell you**, **I regret to say this**, and **I regret to have to do this**.

1. I **regret to tell** you that the company won’t be giving a bonus this year.
2. I **regret to** have to do this, but I must inform you that your employment with our company has been terminated.

When you **regret doing something**, the meaning is “I did something that I regret.”

1. I **regret lending** Mason my car. He returned it without any gasoline.
2. Mohammad said he **regrets asking** that girl for a date. He didn’t know she had a boyfriend.

Exercise 29
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Decide whether the sentences are correct.

1. On the way to my office this morning, I stopped smoking.
2. I regret going to that party last night. I am so tired today.
3. The phone isn’t working? Have you tried to plug it in?
4. I forgot to close the window and now it’s raining.

Chapter Five

Verb Tenses

Verb tenses are at the heart of the English language. At the basic level, verb tenses indicate time, and English has verb tenses that indicate past, present, and future time. This chapter will take us through the different kinds and when they're used.

The Three Forms of the Verb

English verbs have three forms: the base verb, the past verb, and the past participle.

The **base** form of the verb, also known as the infinitive form, can be used with or without *to*.

1. We always **work** from nine to five.
2. Please **check** the document before sending it.
3. I like **to hike** on this trail.
4. We need **to estimate** the cost for the customer.

There are two types of past verbs. Regular verbs have a past tense that ends in -*ed* according to the following spelling rules:

1. To form the past of most verbs, just add *ed*.
   a) Lily **showed** me her diploma.
   b) My mom **cooked** a nice lasagna for my birthday dinner.
   c) Everyone **worked** hard to prepare for the exam.

2. When the verb ends in *e*, just add *d*.
   a) We **faced** a few problems during the negotiations.
   b) The business school **moved** in 1979.
   c) The company **leased** two vans this month.

3. When a one-syllable word ends in a consonant or when the last syllable of the verb ending in a consonant is stressed, double the final

consonant and add *ed*.

a) We **planned** a thorough audit for our client.

b) The meeting was **slotted** for 10:00 a.m., but it was rescheduled for 2:00 p.m.

c) They **transmitted** the fax at 4:03 p.m.

4. When the verb ends in a *y* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i* and add *ed*.

   a) She **hurried** to finish the math test on time.

   b) I **tried** to phone Silvana, but she didn't answer.

   c) Leo **studied** for six months to pass the TOEFL.

5. When the verb ends in a *y* preceded by a vowel, add *ed*.

   a) She **sprayed** the paint all over the wall.

   b) We really **enjoyed** the movie.

   c) The water leak **destroyed** the floor in the dorm.

Some irregular verbs don't follow the same spelling rules in their past tense form (like *build*, *send*, and *sell*).

1. Haruto's grandfather **built** this business in 1952.
2. Ella **sent** her first draft to the instructor.
3. So far, we have **sold** almost two thousand of these bags.

Exercise 30
Now it's your turn to practice.

Choose the correct form of the verb.

1. I always (listen / to listen / listened) to the radio in the car on the way to work.
2. I (go / went / gone) to Stockholm in 2017.
3. They usually (spend / to spend / spent) a lot of time in the office on the weekends.
4. We (buy / to buy / bought) a new car last month.
5. Can you (help / to help / helped) me with my project?

Simple Present

We use the **simple present** verb when we indicate usual true situations and facts.

1. Mouad **works** in the accounting department.
2. Water **freezes** at 32 degrees Fahrenheit.

However, the form of the verb changes depending on the subject of the sentence. When the subject is the third person (*he*, *she*, and *it*), the spelling of the verb changes.

I / you / we / they		**she / he / it**	
ask	make	asks	makes
become	need	becomes	needs
cook	practice	cooks	practices
do	study	does	studies
find	think	finds	thinks

get	use	gets	uses
know	want	knows	wants

The spelling rules that we covered (see here) apply to verbs as well. However, the spelling rules for *be* and *have* are irregular.

When the subject is *I*, use *am* or *have*.

When the subject is *you*, *we*, or *they*, use *are* or *have.*

When the subject is *she, he,* or *it,* use *is* or *has.*

Exercise 31
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write the correct form of the verb.

1. We _____ to finish this project by Friday. (need)
2. The professor _____ us to work in groups. (want)
3. I really _____ I have to cut down on drinking coffee. (think)
4. She has a high GPA because she _____ hard. (study)
5. You _____ very well. Did you learn from your grandmother? (cook)

Simple Past

We use the **simple past** tense to indicate completed actions. We generally use the simple past with phrases or in a context that indicates a single point in the past.

Four spelling rules relate to regular verbs.

1. When the verb ends in *e*, just add *d*.

   bake**d**
   calculate**d**
   debate**d**
   dine**d**
   grate**d**
   hope**d**
   perceive**d**
   worke**d**

2. When the verb ends in a stressed vowel and consonant combination, double the consonant and add *ed*.

   beg…beg**ged**
   flip…flip**ped**
   jog…jog**ged**
   pin…pin**ned**
   rip…rip**ped**
   shop…shop**ped**
   sob…sob**bed**
   stop…stop**ped**

3. When the verb ends in a consonant followed by *y*, change the *y* to *i* and add *ed*.

   apply…appl**ied**
   bully…bull**ied**
   cry…cr**ied**
   comply…compl**ied**
   imply…impl**ied**
   rely…rel**ied**
   try…tr**ied**
   unify…unif**ied**

4. For all other regular verbs, just add *ed*.

   accept…accept**ed**
   crush…crush**ed**
   deploy…deploy**ed**
   employ…employ**ed**
   offend…offend**ed**
   relay…relay**ed**
   research…research**ed**
   sail…sail**ed**

Here are some examples using the simple past form of regular verbs:

1. Jacob **worked** in Panama for two years.
2. Did you know that last week Luna **applied** to the position in Barcelona?
3. I **relayed** the information about your expense report to the boss.

English also has many irregular verbs with a unique past tense spelling. Here are a few:

begin…began

bid…bid

build…built

cost…cost

hold…held

mistake…mistook

pay…paid

teach…taught

Here are some examples using the simple past form of irregular verbs:

1. When we **held** a lunch meeting at the steakhouse, it **cost** about $75 a person.
2. We **bid** on several contracts this month.
3. I heard that this instructor has **taught** English in Japan.

Exercise 32
Now it's your turn to practice.

Choose the correct form of the past verb in each sentence.

1. I heard Emily _____ the boss to let us go home early on Friday. (persuade)
2. The only way we can improve profits is to _____ costs. (cut)

3. The reason you _____ points on the essay is that you forgot to write the conclusion. (lose)
4. The professor _____ a field trip to ABC Labs. (organize)
5. Have you _____ the problem with the e-mail server? (identify)

Simple Future

There are a few ways in English to indicate the future, depending on whether we are referring to set plans, predictions, or schedules.

We use a form of *be going to* followed by a base verb to indicate a set plan, an appointment, etc.

1. A friend of mine **is going to** get married this weekend.
2. I **am going to** go to the beach on Sunday.
3. Rhona **is going to** see a movie tonight.

We can also use the present progressive tense for the future when we talk about something we have already made plans or arranged to do.

1. A friend of mine **is getting** married this weekend.
2. I **am going** to the beach this weekend.
3. Maya **is seeing** a movie tonight.

We use *will* followed by a base verb to make a prediction or guess or when there is not a set plan.

1. Someday, I **will** find true love.
2. I think I **will** move to Florida when I retire.

3. I’m sure the vacation **will** be a lot of fun.

We use the simple present tense for the future to indicate schedules and events in the future that have a set starting or ending time.

1. The workshop **begins** at 9:00 p.m.
2. Check-in at the hotel **starts** at 1:00 p.m.
3. The flight to Zurich **departs** at noon.

Exercise 33
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Answer the following questions using the proper form of the simple future.

1. Write one or two sentences about your plans for tomorrow.
2. Write one or two sentences about your plans for the weekend.
3. Make a prediction about the weather tomorrow or the day after tomorrow.
4. What time does school or work start in the morning?

Present Perfect

The **present perfect** tense is formed with *have* followed by the past participle form of the verb. For example, *I have eaten, she has eaten, we have eaten*, etc.

We use the present perfect to indicate experience before and up to the present time.

1. I **have been** to Thailand several times.

2. Dr. Thompson **has helped** many students prepare their graduate thesis.
3. You guys did a great job. We **have never sold** that many widgets before.

We also use the present perfect to connect the past to the present time. You can use the present perfect with "since" to connect one point in the past to now.

1. Josiah **has been** on the faculty here **since** 1985.
2. I **have wanted** to take a trip to NASA **since** I was a little kid.
3. Our company **has worked** with this ad agency **since** it opened.

You can use the present perfect with *for* to connect a period of time in the past to now.

1. I was surprised to learn that Adalyn **has lived** in Pasadena **for** more than fifty years.
2. This factory **has been** open **for** ninety-five years.
3. We **have worked** on this experiment **for** a number of months and **have** finally **made** a breakthrough in the lab.

Exercise 34
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if the present perfect is used correctly. Correct any errors.

1. I have been to that store many times.
2. We know that agent very well. We have visited her last month.
3. Marco's family business has sold pasta for three generations.

4. Nora has been a student in this school last semester, too.
5. I'm not sure if I have seen Brian this week or not.

Past Perfect

The **past perfect** tense is formed with *had* and the past participle form of the verb. For example, *I had worked, he had known, she had told*, etc.

We use the past perfect to indicate the earlier of two events that happened in the past.

1. By the time we arrived, they **had** already **finished** the first course.
2. Luckily it **had stopped** snowing when I got to the office.
3. Ellie **had learned** programming on her own before she started college.

We also use the past perfect to indicate experience before and up to a point in past time.

1. I **had worked** in Japan before coming to this office in Dallas.
2. Do you know if Jayce **had had** any sales experience before getting the job?
3. I wish I **had known** it was Maffi's birthday.

Exercise 35
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using the past perfect tense.

1. How long had you studied English before you got this book?

2. Are you in school now? Had you ever attended a language school before this one?
3. Had you ever studied the past perfect tense before getting this book?
4. Had you thought grammar was difficult before using this book?
5. Think of what you studied in your last English class. Had you studied that same topic before?

Future Perfect

The **future perfect** tense is formed with *will have* and the past participle form of the verb. For example, *I will have gone, he will have finished, she will have studied*, etc.

We use the future perfect to indicate that an event will finish by a particular time in the future.

1. We are going to the dinner party after work, so by the time we arrive at the restaurant, they **will have finished** the first course.
2. By the time Ivan starts college, his older sister **will have graduated**.
3. Giancarlo **will have completed** his internship by the start of summer vacation.

Exercise 36
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using the future perfect tense.

1. What will you have done or accomplished by noon tomorrow?
2. What will you have done by next month?

3. What will you have done by next year?
4. What will you have done by the time you turn five years older than you are now?
5. What will you have done by the time you retire?

Present Progressive

The **present progressive** tense is formed with the *be* verb (*am, is, are*) and the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I am driving*, *she is living*, *he is cooking*, etc.

We use the present progressive tense to indicate actions that are happening right now. This tense usually refers to temporary situations.

1. Hi, Daniel. I'm glad you can join us. We **are talking** about the main characters in Macbeth.
2. I **am listening** to you, but I'm not sure what you are talking about.
3. What **are** you **looking** for? I **am trying** to find my keys.

We also use the present progressive tense with phrases like *these days*, *this week*, etc., to indicate actions that are happening around this time.

1. The new guy in my office **is staying** in a temporary apartment this month.
2. I **am studying** with a really interesting grammar book these days.
3. It's almost the end of the semester, so everyone **is working** on their term papers.

We can also use the present progressive tense to indicate the future, especially when the future event is a set plan.

1. The CEO **is arriving** on Tuesday, and Julian **is picking** her up at the airport.
2. We **are having** dinner at a very nice Persian restaurant after the meeting.
3. I've made my decision. I **am going** to business school to get an MBA.

Exercise 37
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide whether the present progressive is used correctly. Correct any errors.

1. Wyatt is going to call on some customers in Chicago next week.
2. Can you turn down the music? I'm studying for a psychology exam.
3. Abby said she is working out at that new gym in Brooklyn.
4. The sales meeting is starting every Friday at noon.
5. I'm really excited because I'm leaving for my trip.

Past Progressive

The **present progressive** tense is formed with the past form of the *be* verb and the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I was working*, *she was singing*, *we were traveling*, etc.

We use the past progressive to indicate that some action was happening at a particular time in the past. Like the present progressive, the past progressive refers to temporary situations.

1. I **was traveling** in Europe last summer.
2. I **was binge-watching** *The Big Bang Theory* with Henri yesterday.

3. I **was working** in the lab when she called.

We use the past progressive with the simple past to indicate that one event happened while the other action was going on. In this way, the past progressive sets the background scene for the other action.

1. While I **was eating** dinner, somebody rang the doorbell.
2. As I **was leaving** the house, I saw a huge black crow on my car.
3. A car hit a pole and the power went out while I **was recording** a podcast.

We use the past progressive with words like *always, constantly, usually,* etc., when we want to mention typical actions in the past.

1. In the summertime, my grandfather **was** always **watching** baseball on TV.
2. Oh, I remember Seoyun. She **was** constantly **telling** jokes in the office.
3. Every time I looked at Beth, she **was staring** at her smartphone.

Exercise 38
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using the past progressive tense.

1. What were you doing thirty minutes ago?
2. What was the last project you were working on?
3. What music were you listening to last night?
4. Where were you living five years ago?

5. Think about a relative you were close with as a child. What were they always doing that you enjoyed?

Future Progressive

The **future progressive** tense is formed with the future form of the *be* verb and the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I will be cooking, she is going to be working, we will be leaving,* etc.

We use the future progressive to indicate that some action will be happening at a particular time in the future. Like the present progressive, the future progressive refers to temporary situations.

1. By this time tomorrow, we **will be flying** to the Caribbean.
2. In less than a week, we**'ll be getting** married.
3. I**'m going to be leaving** the office at 4:00 p.m. today for an appointment.

We can also use the future progressive with the simple present and words like *before*, *after*, and *when*.

1. The baby **will be sleeping** when we arrive, so let's keep our voices down.
2. I heard that the IT people **are going to be working** on the server tonight.
3. I**'ll be studying** way before finals week starts, that's for sure.

Exercise 39
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using the future progressive tense.

1. What will you be doing in an hour from now?
2. What will you be doing tomorrow morning at 9:00 a.m.?
3. Where do you think you'll be living in five years?
4. Think about your boss or professor. When do you think that person will be retiring?
5. When do you think you will be finishing studying the lessons in this book?

Present Perfect Progressive

The **present perfect progressive** is formed with *have/has been* followed by the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I have been working, she has been studying, it has been raining,* etc.

We use the present perfect progressive to indicate actions and situations that started in the past and are continuing now.

1. We **have been negotiating** with that vendor for a few months, and I think we've finally come up with a win-win deal.
2. I **have been working on** my team's performance evaluations for a few weeks. I am going to submit them to HR tomorrow.
3. It **has been snowing** all night. We are going to have trouble getting to the office this morning.

Generally, the focus of the present perfect progressive is how people spend their time.

1. You**'ve been working** on that report for a few hours. Why don't you take a break?
2. Arianna **has been dealing** with that account since 2014. I've got big shoes to fill.
3. I haven't seen you since you transferred to the planning department. What **have you been doing** lately?

We also use the present perfect progressive when we talk about actions that have just finished and have a connection to something now.

1. Sorry to have kept you waiting. Have you **been waiting** long?
2. Have you **been crying**? Your eyes are red.
3. I've **been trying** to clear a paper jam, so now my hands are covered in toner.

Exercise 40
Now it's your turn to practice.

Imagine you are working as an intern in a science lab. Respond to the questions using the present perfect progressive and a little imagination.

1. Why are there reference books all over the lab table?
2. Are you still taking notes?
3. How long have you been looking at those beakers?
4. Why has the boss's door been closed all day?
5. What have you been doing in the lab all night?

Past Perfect Progressive

The **past perfect progressive** tense is formed with *had been* followed by the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I had been studying, she had been writing, it had been snowing,* etc.

We use the past perfect progressive to indicate actions and situations that started in the past and continued to or ended at a particular point in the past.

1. I remember when I learned of my promotion. I **had been working** in the sales office at that time.
2. Gabriel **had been studying** economics before he changed his major to accounting.
3. The undergraduate students **had been living** in off-campus housing until the college built these dorms.

We use the past perfect progressive with *for* and *since* to indicate how long something had been going on until a particular point in the past.

1. We **had been working** in the conference room *for* about four hours when the computer network went down.
2. William **had been studying** Korean *since* he was in middle school and only stopped about a year ago.

The past perfect progressive is used to emphasize continuing activities and situations, whereas the past perfect just indicates completed actions.

1. I **had been working** all day without a break, and I suddenly got hungry.
2. I **had worked** all day yesterday without a break and decided to leave the office.

Exercise 41
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the sentences using the past perfect progressive and a little imagination.

1. The accounting manager was fired because _____ .
2. A guy walked into me on the sidewalk because _____ .
3. Madelyn passed all of her final exams because _____ .
4. Isaac fell down at the office holiday party because _____ .
5. I was able to _____ because _____ .

Future Perfect Progressive

The **future perfect progressive** is formed with *will have been* followed by the *ing* form of the verb. For example, *I will have been working, she will have been studying, we will have been living*, etc.

We use the future perfect progressive to indicate actions and situations that will continue until a particular point in time in the future. We use this tense to launch ourselves into the future and look back at the entire duration of the action or situation.

1. By the time I am fifty years old, I **will have been working** for thirty-two years.
2. We started working on this budget at noon. If we continue until midnight, we **will have been working** for twelve hours.

3. When you begin your medical residency, you **will have been studying** medicine for eight years.

Exercise 42
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the sentences using the future perfect progressive.

1. By this time tomorrow, _____ .
2. By my next birthday, _____ .
3. By this time next week, _____ .
4. By the time I finish all of the lessons in this book, _____ .
5. By the time I retire, _____ .

Chapter Six

Advanced Ideas with Verbs

In this chapter, we'll look at modal verbs, causatives, and conditionals. Knowing these patterns will help you express a variety of ideas with verbs beyond verb tenses. The topics here also come up on those standardized English exams, so it's helpful to understand and be able to use them.

Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are used in combination with other verbs to indicate ability, permission, possibility, or obligation. In many cases, like *must* or *should*, a modal verb can have a variety of meanings and uses.

Modals Part 1: *Must / Have to / Need to*

Must shows necessity. We usually use **must** when someone makes a rule or law. When you **must** do something, there is no choice.

1. When you travel abroad, you **must** have a passport.
2. You **must** stop at a red light.
3. You **must** speak quietly in the library.

The negative form of **must** is **must not**. However, the meaning of **must not** is prohibition (in other words, **must not** means **don't do that**).

1. You **must not** smoke here.
2. You **must not** pass a red light without stopping.
3. You **must not** shout in the library.

Have to is like **must**. **Have to** shows necessity, and we use **have to** when someone makes a rule or law that we need to follow. **Have to** is softer than *must*, but like *must*, there is no choice.

1. When you travel abroad, you **have to** have a passport.
2. You **have to** stop at a red light.
3. You **have to** speak quietly in the library.

In a negative sentence, **don't have to** is used to talk about what is not necessary. There is no negative form of **must**, so we do not use **don't must**.

1. When you travel from Baltimore to Phoenix, you **don't have to** bring a passport.
2. You **don't have to** stop at a green light.
3. You **don't have to** speak quietly in the library café.

Had to is used to talk about past necessity. There is no past form of *must* to mean necessity.

1. When I traveled abroad, I **had to** have a passport.
2. You **had to** stop at the red light. That's why the police stopped you.
3. You **have to** speak quietly in the library. That's why the librarian scolded us.

Like **must** and **have to**, **need to** is also used to talk about what is necessary. The basic difference between the term **need to** and the terms **must** and **have to** is where the necessity comes from. Generally, with **must** and **have to**, the necessity comes from someone other than ourselves. With **need to**, the necessity comes from ourselves. Compare the following examples:

1. When you travel abroad, you **must** have a passport. *The necessity comes from the law.*
2. You **have to** be quiet in the library. *The necessity comes from a rule.*
3. I **need to** go on a diet. *The necessity comes from myself.*

Need to can be used when you (or someone else) make the rules or plan for yourself.

1. I **need to** exercise more.

2. Matt said he **needs to** get a new computer.
3. We **need to** leave by 5:00 p.m. to get to the station on time.

Exercise 43
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the questions or statements using a form of *must*, *have to*, or *need to*.

1. My flight is at 7:00 a.m. tomorrow, so I _____ wake up at 4:00 a.m.
2. When you have a job interview, you _____ be late.
3. Paisley is lucky. Even though she is the store manager, she work on weekends.
4. The boss said the marketing plan we submitted looked okay, so we _____ make any changes.
5. I think I _____ start looking for a new job. This company isn't doing well.

Modals Part 2: *Had Better / Should / Ought to*

Had better is used when we give someone a warning. **Had better** means that if you don't do it, something bad will happen.

1. It's very cold outside today. You **had better** dry your hair before going out.
2. You still have that headache? You **had better** see a doctor.
3. If you want to pass this course, you **had better** do all of your homework.

Should and **ought to** are used to talk about something that is "a good idea" and are often used to make a suggestion. You can use either term in any of these examples:

1. We **should** go home now. It's getting late.
2. You **ought to** let the boss look that over before you e-mail it.
3. When you come to NYC, you **should** go to Central Park.

We also use **should** and **ought to** when we talk about situations that are probably going to happen because they are usual and expected.

1. Class **should** be finished by 1:00 p.m. *Class usually finishes at 1:00 p.m.*
2. Milena **ought to** be here soon. She left her house 30 minutes ago. *It takes 30 minutes to get here.*

We use **should have** followed by the **past participle verb** when we talk about a situation that we expected to happen in the past but that did not happen. We also use this form to talk about past regrets. We don't use **ought to** in these situations.

1. The train **should have gotten** here 10 minutes ago. *I expected the train to be here 10 minutes ago.*
2. I **should have studied** harder in school. *I regret not studying harder in school.*

Exercise 44
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the statements using *had better* or *should*/*ought to.*

1. The sales rep _____ be here soon. He is usually on time.
2. This meeting schedule looks fine to me, but I think we _____ have Elena look it over before we send it out.
3. The doctor told David that he _____ stop smoking.
4. I think you _____ go back and make sure you locked the door.
5. I think I _____ start exercising. I need to lose a little weight.

Modals Part 3: *May / Might / Can*

In many cases, we use **may** and **might** with the same meaning.

We use **may** and **might** to show that something is possible.

1. It **may** rain tomorrow (or) It **might** rain tomorrow.
2. I **may** come to the office this weekend (or) I **might** come to the office this weekend.
3. Insook **may** visit us at the trade show (or) Insook **might** visit us at the trade show.

In formal situations, we use **may**, not **might**, when we express our wishes or hopes. This is typically used more in written than spoken English.

1. **May** you have a very successful trip.
2. Congratulations on your wedding. **May** you have a lifetime of happiness and joy.

We use **may**, not **might**, to politely ask for something or for permission.

1. **May** I have another cup of coffee?

2. **May** I ask you a question?

We use **can** to talk about ability that comes after a certain amount of practice or study.

1. Lila **can** use InDesign, so I think we should have her work on the brochure.
2. Angelo **can** type faster than anyone else in the office.
3. Let me know if you need any help at the conference. I **can** speak Japanese.
4. Katia **can** tell you anything about history.

We use **can** to talk about having the opportunity to do something.

1. By working in the marketing department, you **can** experience so many things.
2. In a university, you **can** meet many students from various countries.
3. You **can** find all kinds of publications in the main library.

We use **can** to express permission.

1. You **can** leave the office as soon as you finish that paperwork.
2. I **can** dress as I like for work.
3. The manager said we **can** go home early.

We use **can** to make requests.

1. **Can** you help me with my term paper?
2. **Can** I turn down the air conditioner?
3. **Can** we take a break from studying?

We use **can** to make a suggestion or offer.

1. We **can** take a break now if you'd like.
2. What do you want for lunch? We **can** have pizza or burgers.
3. Asher has to leave early, so he **can** do his presentation first.

We use **can** to talk about usual or typical situations.

1. Working long hours **can** be dangerous for your health.
2. Be careful of that dog. He **can** be aggressive.
3. Bosses and teachers **can** be demanding.

Exercise 45
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the statements using *may*, *might*, or *can*.

1. I haven't finished my work, so I _____ stay here a bit longer.
2. Why don't you ask Cameron to help you? He _____ use all of the software.
3. Nicolas is a nice guy, but sometimes he _____ talk forever.
4. Grace wasn't feeling well, so she _____ not come to work today.
5. Some questions on the TOEFL _____ be tricky, so read them carefully.

Modals Part 4: *Could*

We use **could** as the past tense of **can** in a negative sentence describing ability.

1. I **couldn't** use Excel before I started working here.
2. Lincoln **couldn't** find his wallet this morning.
3. Because of the heavy traffic, we **couldn't** catch the flight.

We don't use **could** as the past tense of **can** in a positive sentence describing ability. When we talk about **ability** in a positive sentence in the past, we prefer to use **was able to** instead of *could*.

1. I **was able to** find the jacket I was looking for.
2. We **were able to** get on the next flight.
3. Finally, Ezra **was able to** find his keys.

We use **could** to indicate possibility or that something is likely to happen.

1. They **could** be right. This contract is complicated, so we should have the legal department look at it.
2. I would go if I **could** afford it.
3. This shelf was not installed properly. I think it **could** easily fall.

We use **could** to make polite requests.

1. **Could** we use the phone?
2. **Could** I borrow your calculator?

We use **could** followed by the past particle verb to indicate annoyance because of something that has not been done. The *if condition* is often unstated and implied.

1. We **could have gotten** an earlier flight if they had told us about it.
2. They **could have told** me that they were coming late!

We use **could** to indicate a person's strong inclination to do something or behave in a certain way.

1. He irritates me so much that I **could** scream.
2. She **could** be so negative sometimes.

Exercise 46
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions in full sentences using *could* or *be able to*.

1. What is something you couldn't do two years ago?
2. Were you able to keep your GPA above 3.5 last semester?
3. Do you think it could snow within the next seven days?
4. Do you think an AI robot could replace you at work?
5. Is there anything you could have done differently over the past year?

Causatives

We use **causative verbs** to indicate that a person or a thing causes something to happen. The most common causative verbs are **make**, **let**, **have**, and **get**.

When we use the causative form of **make**, **let**, **have**, and **get** and the object of those verbs is performing the action, we **use the base form of the main verb**. Someone causes someone to do something.

In its causative form, **make** has the meaning of "force." We use **make** followed by a *person* followed by a **base verb.**

1. The boss **made** *Jermaine* **work** on the report all day.
2. The professor **makes** *his students* **write** a journal every day.
3. Jenny **makes** *her son* **eat** all of his vegetables.

In its causative form, **let** has the meaning of "permit." We use **let** followed by a *person* followed by a **base verb.**

1. My manager **lets** *us* **go** home early if we've finished our work.
2. Connor **let** *me* **use** his tablet in the library.
3. The airline **let** *Tia* **switch** her flight without a penalty.

Have, in its causative form, has the meaning of "ask" or "arrange." We use **have** followed by a *person* followed by a **base verb.**

1. The boss **had** *Juan* **work** on the meeting schedule.
2. Callie **had** *the IT department* **repair** her laptop.
3. Emery **had** *her students* **decorate** the classroom for the holidays.

In its causative form, **get** has the meaning of "persuade." We use **get** followed by a *person* followed by an **infinitive**.

1. The boss **got** *Lorenzo* **to play** golf on Sunday.
2. I **got** *him* **to agree** to help me paint the house.
3. We **got** *Colton* **to join** our carpool in the morning.

We also use the causative of **have** and **get** when we ask someone to do a job for us. We use **have** or **get** followed by a *thing* followed by a **past**

participle verb. You can have something done or you can get something done.

1. I **had** *my hair* **cut**.
2. I need **to have** *my car* **serviced**.
3. I **had** *my house* **painted** last month.

Exercise 47
Now it's your turn to practice.

Answer the questions using the causative form of **make**, **let**, **have**, and **get**.

1. What time does your employer make you start work in the morning?
2. Imagine you are the boss of a small IT office. What would you let your staff do (or not let them do)?
3. When was the last time a classmate or coworker had you do something for them?
4. Would it be easy for a friend to get you to wake up at 5:00 a.m. to go hiking?
5. What is something that you want to have done around the house?

Conditionals

We use the **conditional** form to indicate that an action or situation will have a particular result. There are four types of conditional sentences, and each of them uses *if* to introduce the condition.

Zero Conditional

We use this to talk about usual true situations and facts. The structure is **if . . . present tense verb . . . present tense verb**.

1. **If** the temperature **reaches** 100 degrees Celsius, water **boils**.
2. **If** it **snows**, driving **becomes** dangerous.
3. **If** you **come** to work late, your pay **gets** docked.

First Conditional

We use this to talk about things that will, can, or may happen in the future and/or probable results in the future. The structure is **if, present tense verb, future tense verb (will, be going to, can, may, might)**.

1. **If** it **snows** tomorrow, I **will not drive** my car.
2. **If** I **am** late for work again, the boss **is going to be** angry.
3. **If** I **need** help, I **might call** you.

Second Conditional

We use this to talk about imaginary and hypothetical situations. The structure is **if, past tense verb (would, could, might, may)** followed by a **base verb**.

1. **If** I **won** the lottery, I **would buy** a big yacht.
2. **If** I ***were** taller, I **could be** a better basketball player.
3. **If** Tom **were** here, he **would be able to** fix the computer.

*We use **were** in the second conditional, regardless of the subject.

Depending on the situation or the context, sometimes we can use either the first or second conditional.

1. **If** I **win** the lottery, I **will buy** a big yacht.
2. **If** I **won** the lottery, I **would buy** a big yacht.

But sometimes, again depending on the situation or the context, we can't.

1. **If** I **am** taller, I **can be** a better basketball player. *A child could say this, but not an adult, because being taller is not possible for an adult.*
2. **If** I **were** taller, I **could be** a better basketball player.

We often use the second conditional phrase **If I were you** to give advice.

1. **If I were you**, I **would not eat** junk food.
2. Are you having car trouble? **If I were you,** I **would take** the car back to the dealer.
3. Akeno's wife is mad at him. **If I were Akeno**, I **would bring** her some roses and apologize.

Third Conditional

We use this to talk about imaginary and hypothetical situations in the past. It is often used to talk about how the past might have been different.

The pattern is **if, past perfect tense, would/could/might/may, have, past participle verb**.

1. **If** I **had known** about the exam, I **would have studied.**
2. **If** I **had won** the lottery, I **would have bought** a big yacht.
3. **If** I **had seen** you at the mall, I **would have said** hello.

Exercise 48
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide whether the conditional form is used correctly. Correct any errors.

1. If the temperature drops below 32 degrees Fahrenheit, water will freeze.
2. If you have any trouble with your term paper, let me know and I will help you.
3. I would have gone to the meeting if I knew about it.
4. If they will not sign the contract, we will schedule another meeting with them.
5. If Violet were here, she would be able to help us out.

Chapter Seven

Prepositions

Prepositions are words such as *at*, *on*, and *to* that show the relationship between the noun and the other words in a sentence. We'll explore some prepositions and the different ways they can be used.

Prepositions of Time

We use *at*, *in*, and *on* to indicate time. *At* is for clock time, and *on* is for a day or date. For all other longer periods of time, like months, seasons, years, centuries, etc., use *in*.

Clock time	Days and dates	Longer periods of time
at three o'clock	**on** Sunday	**in** May
at 10:30 a.m.	**on** Tuesdays	**in** summer
at noon	**on** March 6	**in** 2010
at night	**on** June 25, 2020	**in** the 1990s
at bedtime	**on** Christmas Day	**in** the eighteenth century
at sunrise	**on** my birthday	**in** the Ice Age

Here are some examples:

1. I have a meeting **at** 9:00 a.m.
2. Cala is going to give an HR presentation **on** Friday.
3. This company always gives you a day off **on** your birthday.
4. I suggest you visit Paris **in** the spring.
5. That type of music was popular **in** the early eighteenth century.

We also have some set phrases with the prepositions *in*, *at*, *on*, and *during*, which we use to indicate time. These are *in the morning*, *in the*

afternoon, *in the evening*, *at night*, *during the week*, and *on the weekend*.

1. We are having a marketing meeting **in** the morning.
2. I don't have any classes **in** the afternoon.
3. Aisha's flight arrives **in** the evening.
4. Half of the call center staff works **at** night.
5. I work hard **during** the week.

When we say *last*, *next*, *every*, and *this*, we do not add *at*, *in*, or *on*.

1. I saw Ming **last** week.
2. Jamal is coming back **next** Tuesday.
3. We go skiing **every** winter.
4. We'll call you **this** evening.

Exercise 49
Now it's your turn to practice.

Fill in the blanks with the correct preposition.

1. The final exam begins _____ 4:00 p.m.
2. The next team meeting is June 3.
3. The nursing course is only held _____ the spring semester.
4. I can't believe the boss is making us work _____ the weekend.
5. Charlotte became the office manager _____ 2002.
6. There's not much traffic _____ night.

Prepositions of Location

We often use *at* and *in* to indicate position or location in general. Both of these sentences tell us about Mila's location.

1. Mila is **at** her office.
2. Mila is **in** her office.

When we speak in a general way, we can use either *at* or *in* to describe the location.

However, both *at* and *in* have some specific uses and meanings.

When we use *at* to indicate a location, it refers to the action that usually happens at that location. Notice also in these examples that the verb is an action verb:

1. I bought this shirt on sale **at** the department store.
2. Mateo had a coffee **at** a nice café.
3. Let's study **at** the library.

When we use *in* to indicate a location, it simply refers to the location itself and not any particular action. Notice also in these examples that the verb is the *be* verb:

1. I was **in** the department store yesterday.
2. Mateo is **in** a café on Madison Ave.
3. We have been **in** the library for three hours. Let's go home.

Some set phrases with *at* and *in* have a specific meaning.

1. Jayden is **in the hospital**. *He is a patient there.*

2. I was **at work** all night last night. *I was working in my office.*
3. Rishima is **at college**, so her sister has their bedroom to herself. *Rishima is living at college.*

We use *in* when we indicate a place with a border, like **in** a country, **in** a city, **in** a town, **in** a county, and **in** a neighborhood.

1. Jill lives **in** France.
2. Ethan spent a week **in** London on business.
3. Samir lives **in** Brooklyn, but he works **in** Manhattan.

We also use *in* when we indicate a place with walls or fences, like **in** a park, **in** a building, and **in** a box.

1. It's a nice day. Let's have a picnic **in** the park.
2. Her husband works **in** an Art Deco building.
3. We have a few bottles of wine **in** the refrigerator.

We use both *in* and *on* when we indicate directions (north, east, south, and west), but the grammar is different depending on how those direction words are used.

When north, east, south, and west are used as **nouns**, we use *in the*.

1. New York is **in the** East, and California **in the** West.
2. It's cold **in the** North, especially in the winter.
3. Some people **in the** South like to eat spicy foods.

But when north, east, south, and west are used as **adjectives**, we use *on the*.

1. Camilla lives **on the** west side of town.

2. There are many flags **on the** south wall of the building.
3. Sebastian's office is **on the** Upper West Side.

We use *at* when we indicate an address. An address contains a number and a street name.

1. His office is **at** 475 Ocean Avenue.
2. Eliana works **at** 500 Broadway.
3. I live **at** 333 Lombard Street.

We use *on* when we indicate a street name but not the address.

1. His office is **on** Ocean Avenue.
2. There are a lot of interesting places **on** Broadway.
3. There used to be many discount shops **on** Canal Street.

We also use *at* when we indicate a particular point on a street or in a town.

1. His office is **at** the corner of Ocean and 40th St.
2. I think James lives **at** the end of this block.

But we use *in* when we indicate the middle of something.

1. My office is **in** the middle of the block.
2. There is a lake **in** the middle of the park.

We also use *at* to indicate one specific point during a trip.

1. This train will stop **at** Lincoln Center, Times Square, and Soho.
2. I stopped **at** the coffee shop on the way to my office.

Exercise 50
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the sentence using *at*, *in*, or *on*.

1. Aliyah met her husband when she was working (at / in / on) Yahoo.
2. I was (at / in / on) work until 11:00 p.m. trying to finish the marketing project.
3. I didn't realize you were (at / in / on) the kitchen.
4. Scarlett lives (at / in / on) the south side of the city.
5. The speaker system is (at / in / on) the middle of the table.

Preposition Collocations

Collocations are words that occur together frequently. In this lesson, we're going to look at some of the most common ones that occur with prepositions and nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

Preposition Collocations with Nouns

approach to

attempt at

cause of

change in

difference in

example of

experience in

increase in

investigation into
knowledge of
need for
reaction to
reason for
research into
response to
success in

1. This company's **approach to** marketing is very impressive.
2. I like our new professor. She has great **knowledge of** robotics.
3. I am writing in **response to** your job posting.

Preposition Collocations with Verbs

apply for
associate with
belong to
comply with
concentrate on
contribute to
deal with
elaborate on
graduate from
inquire about
participate in
prepare for

search for

specialize in

succeed in

work for

1. To **apply for** this position, please submit your résumé.
2. Our firm **specializes in** immigration law.
3. I’d like to help you **prepare for** your dissertation.

Preposition Collocations with Adjectives

affiliated with

committed to

conscious of

experienced in

familiar with

grateful for

impressed by

inspired by

interested in

involved in

optimistic about

prepared for

responsible for

serious about

skilled in

successful in

1. Ryan's new company is **affiliated with** FIFA.
2. I am **grateful for** the opportunity to interview for this position.
3. As you can see by my résumé, I am **skilled in** all of the key areas.

Exercise 51
Now it's your turn to practice.

Reply to the questions using the collocation in your answer.

1. What is necessary for **success in** the twenty-first century?
2. What have you made an **attempt at** recently?
3. When was the last time you **participated in** a lecture or seminar?
4. How many foreign languages are you **familiar with**?
5. What have you been **impressed by** recently?

Phrasal Verbs

A **phrasal verb** is a verb and preposition combination used as an **idiom**, which is a phrase that has a unique meaning that is different from the meaning of individual words in the phrase. There are three key points to remember when using phrasal verbs.

1. **Transitive phrasal verbs** are followed by a direct object.
   a) It's a bit chilly outside. Why don't you **put on** a jacket?
   b) Can you please **turn on** the light?
   c) At 4:00 p.m. I have to **pick up** Chloe at the airport.
   d) We have to **put off** the meeting because the boss has to leave early today.

2. **Intransitive phrasal verbs** are not followed by a direct object.
   a) A good cup of coffee can certainly help me **wake up**.
   b) How did your research project **turn out**?
   c) Alexei **showed up** late for work and the boss was really upset.
   d) Retail sales usually **fall off** after the Christmas holiday season.

3. Some phrasal verbs are separable. This means that you can put the direct object between the verb and the preposition. If the direct object is a pronoun, it must come between the verb and the preposition, not after the preposition.
   a) Please **take off** your shoes.
   b) Please take **your** shoes **off**.
   c) Please **take** them **off**.

Exercise 52
Now it's your turn to practice.

Can you list ten phrasal verbs that were not mentioned here?

Chapter Eight

Sentences and Punctuation

Now that we've looked at the various types of words and tenses in English, let's put them to practical use in sentences. A **sentence** is a complete thought in English, like *I took an exam.* Those four words form a sentence, which expresses a complete idea. If I said *I took*, you would be wondering, did he take a bus or the last donut? Did he take some time to do something, like a break or a ride? **Punctuation** refers to the various marks (. -, ; ?) that we use to show where a sentence begins, pauses, and ends and that help to make the meaning of our sentences clear.

Basic Sentence Structure and Clauses

A basic sentence in English represents a complete thought, or **independent clause**, and is generally made up of at least a subject and a verb.

1. UFOs fly.
2. The woman is working.
3. The Empire State Building is iconic.

A sentence containing an independent clause can exist by itself because it has a complete meaning.

1. This factory produces cars.
2. The university library has over one million books.
3. Some employees have a four-day workweek.

A **dependent clause** can also contain a subject and a verb, but its meaning is incomplete. Let's look at an example:

This factory produces cars, which are exported to the United States.

In this sentence, "this factory produces cars" is an independent clause, and "which are exported to the United States" is the dependent clause. The dependent clause is literally *depending* on the independent clause to give it meaning, so even though it contains a subject and a verb, the clause "which are exported to the United States" by itself has an incomplete meaning.

Exercise 53
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if the clause is an independent or dependent clause.

1. I think I have finally found the answer.
2. In the middle of the park where the pond is.
3. She asked me for a lift.
4. Where you can find the parts factory.
5. That she can submit her résumé.

Compound and Complex Sentences

A **compound sentence** is made up of two independent clauses that are connected.

1. The woman is working, but she is enjoying her work.
2. The Empire State Building is iconic; it was the tallest building in New York City for forty years.
3. Even though UFOs fly, they are not the only things that do so.

A **complex sentence** is made up of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. The dependent clause provides extra information about the independent clause. Let's look at an example:

The woman is working in her office, which is located on Rodeo Drive.

In this example, "the woman is working in her office" is the independent clause, and "which is located on Rodeo Drive" is the dependent clause. Here are a few more examples:

1. Domenica's office is on Rodeo Drive, where you can find a number of shops, restaurants, and small offices.
2. Professor Horowitz came to the conference even though he had a cold.
3. The annual report will be published when the CFO gives his final approval.

Exercise 54
Now it's your turn to practice.

In each sentence, underline the independent clause and circle the dependent clause.

1. Even though Manuel had the necessary experience and qualifications, he was turned down for the job.
2. We recorded the CEO's speech, which he gave at the conference.
3. Carson wasn't able to pass the final exam because he didn't put enough effort into studying.
4. Yumi likes to study in the public library, which has a number of private study rooms.
5. We won't be able to start the meeting until everyone has arrived at the office.

Adjective Clauses, Noun Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses

There are three types of dependent clauses: **Adjective clauses** begin with a **relative pronoun** (*that, which, who, whom,* or *whose*) or a **relative adverb**

like *when* and *where*. Adjective clauses also contain a verb (or a subject and verb) and give us more information about the noun they follow. *That* is for when you're identifying the subject of the sentence: "The pizza box had a label that named me the owner." *Which* is for nonessential clauses in a sentence: "The pizza, which I ordered online, meant everything to me."

1. I applied to a number of schools, but NYU is the only one **that gave me a scholarship**.
2. I haven't met the people **who work in the accounting department yet**.
3. Jay works in an office **where everyone has to wear a suit**.

Noun clauses begin with a question word (*who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *why*, or *how*) and conjunctions like *if*, *whether*, and *that*. Noun clauses act like nouns, and as such, they can be used as the subject or object of the verb.

1. Do you know **when the midterm exams start**?
2. **Why he decided to quit his job** is a mystery to me.
3. It was obvious to everyone **that Tatiana deserved that promotion**.

Adverb clauses begin with a conjunction like *although*, *because*, *once*, *unless*, *until*, and *while*. We use adverb clauses to indicate where, when, why, or how as well as a condition, contrast, or result.

1. Please don't use your cell phone **while you are working**.
2. **Because Chantara put in a lot of effort**, she was named salesperson of the year.
3. **Once you go through orientation**, you'll be assigned a username and password.

Awkward Mistakes to Avoid
Don't Press Send!

Knowing when to use *who* and *whom* all comes down to one thing: Are you talking about the subject of the sentence or the object?

If it's the subject, use *who: Who* likes pizza? Everyone does.

If it's the object, use *whom:* This pizza belongs to *whom*? Me.

Exercise 55
Now it's your turn to practice.

Complete the sentence using an adjective, noun, or adverb clause.

1. I remember a time _____.
2. Can you tell me _____?
3. _____, we won't be able to finish this project.
4. The boss asked me to work this weekend _____.
5. Technology, _____, advances at an incredible rate these days.

Commas, Hyphens, Dashes, and Apostrophes

We use **commas** to separate parts of a sentence to make the meaning clear. Notice how the meaning of the sentence can change depending on how a

comma is used or not used:

1. Eat, Jimmy. *Here we are trying to encourage Jimmy to eat.*
2. Eat Jimmy. *Here we are suggesting what to eat: Jimmy!*
3. Now, we're going to hit, guys. *Here, we are instructing the guys about the next part of a game.*
4. Now we're going to hit guys. *Here we are explaining what is going to be hit: the guys.*

In compound sentences, we use commas before conjunctions (like *but*, *so*, and *and*) that connect independent clauses.

1. Being a YouTuber can be fun and exciting, but not everyone can make a living doing it.
2. My friend wanted to go into accounting, so he went back to school to get a master's degree.
3. Masashi is a well-known cardiologist, and his wife is a pediatrician.

We use **hyphens** to form some compound words and to divide words at the end of a line on a page.

As we saw here, we use hyphens to form compound adjectives from numbers, like *five-day workweek.* There are also a number of adjectives and nouns in English that are formed with a hyphen. Here are some examples:

deep-fried

dry-cleaning

long-winded

merry-go-round

part-time

president-elect

time-out

x-ray

We also use hyphens to describe age and write numbers and fractions. Numbers higher than ninety-nine do not need a hyphen.

one-third

one-half

six-eighths

twenty-two

fifty-seven

eighty-nine

We use hyphens to connect certain prefixes (*anti*, *pre*, *pro*, *post*, etc.) with proper nouns.

anti-Nazi

post-Brexit

pre-Christmas

pro-Palestinian

A hyphen is also used at the end of a line when using a specific margin, like in the following example:

When you are writing on a computer and there is a long sentence, the computer may insert a hyphen, dividing a word by its syllable.

An **em dash**, which is the widest dash, is used in informal English to separate extra information in a sentence for emphasis. It can replace parentheses and commas in many sentences.

1. All of the people in my office—from the manager to the receptionist—work a five-day workweek.
2. We worked for many hours—many long hours—to finish the report on time.

We use **apostrophes** to form possessive nouns and indefinite pronouns, contractions, and some plurals.

Form the possessive form of a noun or indefinite pronoun with an apostrophe followed by *s*.

anyone**’s** idea

the CEO**’s** speech

Charlie**’s** presentation

the company**’s** policy

the dog**’s** tail

everybody**’s** exam result

the résumé**’s** header

someone**’s** report

the tablet**’s** charger

When a plural noun or a proper noun ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by just adding an apostrophe.

Arkansas**’** population

the Joneses**’** cat

teachers**’** office

zoos**’** animals

Exercise 56
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Correctly modify the sentences in the following paragraph by adding or deleting commas, hyphens, dashes, and apostrophes. Capitalize as necessary.

The First-Day on the Job

Today was the first day of work for the part time and full time trainees at Acme Corporations headquarters in LA. Even though everyones mood was upbeat and they were open minded many of them were a little on edge. One of the trainees tasks was to read the companys HR handbook the whole handbook! Its over thirty five chapters. Actually they were given ample time to complete the task and some of the trainers were on standby to assist them.

Colons and Semicolons

Generally, **colons** follow independent clauses and go before a list, a direct quote, or an **appositive**, which is a phrase that modifies a noun.

We use a colon before a list. When doing so, separate the items in the list with *and* or commas.

1. Make sure you bring the following on the day of your TOEFL exam: your confirmation e-mail from ETS and a valid form of ID.
2. Once you register for the conference, you will receive an attendee kit containing: a name badge, a badge holder, a floor plan of the conference hall, and a tote bag.

When the colon is followed by a sentence, begin with an uppercase letter. When the colon is not followed by a sentence, begin with a lowercase letter.

1. The company policy is very clear: All vacation requests must be submitted at least two weeks in advance.
2. There are only two possible grades you can receive in this class: pass or fail.

We use a colon before a direct quote when we do not use phrases like *she said* or *they said*.

1. I'll never forget what my statistics teacher told me: "Your last mistake is your best teacher."
2. Skyler said that Benjamin Franklin's famous words inspired her to become a teacher: "Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn."

We use a colon before an appositive, which adds more information to the preceding noun.

1. Ibrahim was in awe when he came face-to-face with the largest land animal in the world: the African elephant.
2. A boss needs to exhibit certain qualities: trust in their employees and the ability to motivate staff.

We use a **semicolon** to connect two independent clauses closely related in meaning.

1. Some bosses take good care of their employees; they help them develop their skills and grow in the company.
2. Many children are interested in learning coding these days; in fact, many schools now offer coding and programming classes.

We also use semicolons to separate a series of items that contain commas.

1. Many students wonder if they should buy a tablet, which is very portable; a laptop, which has a keyboard; or a desktop, which has the most memory and storage of the three.
2. I've worked in three countries in Asia: China, where I taught English; Japan, where I worked as a voice actor; and South Korea, where I was a university professor.

Exercise 57
Now it's your turn to practice.

Correctly modify the sentences by adding or deleting the colons or semicolons. Add capitalization, commas, or periods as necessary.

1. Ana graduated from university in three and a half years her next goal is to pass the CPA exam.
2. We need to set up the conference room with the equipment for the meeting the projector the remote control and the screen.
3. There are three ways to grow your business social media which will attract potential customers a mailing list to keep in touch with current customers and a website to provide information about your business.
4. Many new managers face the same problem they try to keep the same relationships that they had before becoming a manager.
5. I'll never forget what my grandfather used to tell me always keep your sense of humor and never worry about anything you can't control.

Parentheses and Brackets

We use **parentheses** to indicate extra information that may be useful for the reader.

1. Anyone applying for an office job needs to know basic office software (Word, Excel, PowerPoint) and have good communication skills.
2. The Edo Period (1603–1868) was a Japanese historical period in which the country was closed to almost all foreign trade.

We also use parentheses with the numbers and letters of a list.

1. During your annual performance review, your manager will discuss (1) your sales results for the year, (2) your goals for the following year, and (3) your career path.
2. For the final exam, you can choose from either (a) a multiple-question exam or (b) a three-page essay.

We use square **brackets** in editing to show something that was added and square brackets with three dots to show that something was deleted.

1. There are many international companies […] which manufacture those components.
2. In fact, Salisbury Construction [the only LEAD-certified construction firm in the area] had taken over operations of the project.

Exercise 58
Now it's your turn to practice.

Add parentheses as needed in the following sentences.

1. Her research described the effects of Prohibition 1920–1933 on the New York City economy.
2. To enter the building, you need to 1 show a photo ID, 2 pass through the metal detector, and 3 pass through the facial recognition scanner.

In the following sentences, add or delete information and indicate your edits using brackets.

1. The three major automakers use parts produced by a number of factories in Mexico.
2. The volume of work produced by Natsume Sōseki one of the most famous figures in Japanese literature rivals that of Franz Kafka.

Quotation Marks

Quotation marks in English are always used in pairs, at the top of the line, and with the curve of both marks pointed toward the words being quoted. We generally use quotation marks to indicate direct reported speech. We usually separate the quoted sentence or phrase using a comma. Note that all of the punctuation marks related to the quote are placed inside the quotation marks.

1. She said**,** **“**I’m impressed with the security in this office**.”**
2. **“**Please take the elevator to the tenth floor**,”** said the receptionist**,** **“**and then turn left**.”**
3. **“**Stop**!”** she said**.** **“**I’m tired of your excuses**.”**
4. **“**Where is the meeting room**?”** Kim asked.

Other punctuation marks, which are not part of the quote, go outside the quotation marks.

1. Did she say**, "**I'm not going to go**"?**
2. What does he mean when he says **"**I'm knackered**"?**

We use a single quotation mark when we enclose a quote inside another quote.

1. The nurse replied**, "**The doctor said, **'**You should stop smoking**,'** but the man refused**."**
2. Jay's dad said**, "**Jay, have fun at the party and say **'**congratulations**'** to Wilma for me**."**

Exercise 59
Now it's your turn to practice.

Decide if quotation marks and other related punctuation marks are used correctly. Correct any errors.

"Have a seat, Mr. Jameson", said the lawyer. "This won't take long".

Mr. Jameson sat back on the sofa. He had a curious look on his face, and he could not understand why they were staring at him. He looked right at the lawyer's face and said: "Let's get to the point: What do you want me to do?"

"Its important for us to find the truth. A man's life is at stake," replied the lawyer.

Jameson looked down for a moment and then their eyes met. "I think the truth is clear," "don't you?"

"What exactly," chimed the lawyer ", is clear? We want to hear that from you."

Chapter Nine

Usage and Style

Now that we've looked at the various types of sentences, it's time to see how we use them. First, we'll look at the two basic categories of sentences, how they indicate actions, and the results of those actions. Then we'll explore various ways you can improve your writing to make your sentences clear and logical, including how to adjust the style of your sentences to fit the audience you are writing for and how to avoid missteps in your writing that may obscure the meaning.

Active and Passive Voice

English sentences can be classified into two categories: active and passive. In an active sentence, also called the **active voice**, the emphasis is on who or what is doing the action.

1. The chairman **is leading** the meeting.
2. My teacher **has graded** our exams.
3. The software **analyzes** the data.
4. Many people all over the world **speak** English.

In a passive sentence, also called the **passive voice**, the emphasis is on the result of the action—who or what did the action is either unimportant or unknown. The structure is the *be* verb followed by the past participle (for example: *is made, was created, is being done, had been completed*, etc.).

1. The meeting **is being led** by the chairman.
2. The exams **have been** graded by the teacher.
3. The data **is analyzed** by the software.
4. English **is spoken** all over the world.

When the sentence mentions people, especially people we know, we prefer to use the active voice. It is more natural to say, “My husband cooked dinner” than it is to say, “Dinner was cooked by my husband.”

The passive voice can only be formed with **transitive verbs**: those verbs that can take a direct object. **Intransitive verbs**, like *happen, seem, die*, etc., cannot be used in the passive voice. You can say “An accident happened” but not “An accident was happened.”

Exercise 60
Now it's your turn to practice.

In the following sentences, change the active sentences to passive and the passive sentences to active if possible.

Active	Passive
1. Eli completed the report.	
2. A problem occurred with the transaction.	
3.	The issue was solved by the student advisor.
4.	These scanners are made in China.
5.	J. S. Bach was born in 1685.

Double Negatives

A double negative occurs when the adverb *not* occurs in a sentence with another negative word such as *nobody*, *never*, *hardly*, or *rarely*. Since you can only have one negative word in an English sentence, double negatives are incorrect and, as such, not used.

1. We **never don't** finish our tasks . . . *should be written as* . . . We never finish our tasks.

2. She **doesn't hardly** study for exams . . . *should be written as* . . . She hardly studies for exams.
3. Eleanor **isn't rarely** on time for work . . . *should be written as* . . . Eleanor is rarely on time for work.

However, it is possible to use a negative verb followed by a negative adjective.

1. He **wasn't uncooperative**, but he wasn't forthcoming with information.
2. According to the professor, that student **isn't unhappy** with her grade, but she's not exactly thrilled by it, either.

Exercise 61
Now it's your turn to practice.

In the following sentences, decide whether the use of the negative is correct and if not, make the necessary corrections.

1. It seems like no one was ready to hear that news.
2. Todd said he doesn't never travel by bus because he gets motion sickness.
3. The previous manager wasn't unkind, but he wasn't the friendliest person, either.
4. I don't seldom have the opportunity to have such a productive meeting.
5. I haven't done nothing to bother him, so I have no idea why he's angry.

First and Third Person

When you write, the first thing to decide is the point of view, which refers to the perspective from which the writing is coming. These two perspectives are known as **the first person** and **the third person**.

The first-person point of view uses the pronoun *I* and tells the story from the perspective of the writer or speaker. The first-person point of view is used primarily in personal writing, such as a diary or journal.

> It was a really cold day, and I was only wearing a light jacket.

This type of personal writing can also be found in personal essays, when you are asked your opinion about something.

> I think the main themes in "The Raven" by Edgar Allan Poe are grief and loss.

This point of view tends to sound very subjective, and because of that, it is not appropriate in academic writing.

With the third-person point of view, the writer or speaker does not refer to himself or herself. The third-person perspective uses the pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*, and as such, the writing or speaking sounds more objective.

> In his article about the Japanese novel *The Tale of Genji*, Buruma writes that in those days, "a sense of style" was most important to a noble gentleman.

In this example, the writer states their assessment objectively and provides an academic source as evidence. This is the appropriate style for use in academic writing. Using the first-person *I* would only be acceptable when discussing or introducing your own research.

Exercise 62
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a one-paragraph summary of a book, movie, TV program, or video game using the first-person perspective. Then rewrite the summary using the third-person perspective.

Wordiness

Sometimes, our message can get lost among the words we use. Wordiness, in particular, means that some of the words or phrases you used were unnecessary. Here are examples of how to avoid wordiness:

Try to avoid redundant or meaningless words.

It's not necessary to use the phrase *past history* because all history is in the past. So, instead of saying "Let's look at the *past history* of this issue," just say "Let's look at the *history* of this issue." Here are a few more examples:

combine together…*should be*…combine

current status…*should be*…status

final outcome…*should be*…outcome

on a daily basis…*should be*…daily

summarize briefly…*should be*…summarize

twelve noon…*should be*…noon

Look for more precise vocabulary.

1. Instead of saying *in spite of the fact that*, say *although*.

2. Instead of saying *put off the meeting*, say *postpone the meeting*.
3. Instead of saying *we are of the opinion that*, say *we believe*.

Avoid qualifiers like *barely*, *extremely*, *hardly*, *quite*, and *very*.

1. Instead of saying *barely legible*, say *illegible*.
2. Instead of saying *hardly noticeable*, say *faint*.
3. Instead of saying *quite shy*, say *timid*.

Exercise 63
Now it's your turn to practice.

Rewrite the following memo, making it less wordy and more concise.

Notice to All of Our Employees

In spite of the fact that we have a number of official rules regarding the company's written attendance policy, quite a few employees working here tend to usually arrive at the office late. Because of that fact, the company president, who by the way is very upset about this, has asked me to touch base with every single one of our employees and inform them of this point. In the event that you are late for work more than three different occurrences, you will face the possibility of termination of your employment.

Misplaced Words and Sentence Logic

The way you arrange the words in a sentence can have a significant effect on the clarity and meaning of your writing. Here are categories of misplaced words and phrases that you should try to avoid:

Dangling modifiers are phrases that cause ambiguity because they refer to the wrong word in a sentence.

1. Walking in the park, a tree fell in front of me. ← *Was the tree walking in the park?*
2. Looking out the office window, the Empire State Building was magnificent. ← *Was the Empire State Building looking out the office window?*
3. Wanting some fresh air, the hiking trip was quickly organized. ← *Was the hiking trip wanting some fresh air?*

Misplaced modifiers are words that are ambiguously placed and make the meaning unclear.

1. The boss only reprimands the sales staff. ← *Nobody else reprimands the sales staff? The boss doesn't reprimand other teams in the office?*
2. He told me the story of his business trip last week. ← *Did he tell me the story last week, or was his business trip last week?*
3. Just tell me what to do. ← *Am I asking you to only tell me what to do and not tell me anything else, or am I asking you to tell me and not anyone else?*

Misplaced phrases are phrases that are ambiguously placed and make the meaning unclear.

1. Everyone in the office was excited to learn that they had reached the monthly sales goal from the CEO's letter. ← *What came from the CEO's letter, the news about reaching the monthly sales goal or the sales goal itself?*

2. I read that it's going to snow tomorrow on the Internet. ← *Is it going to snow on the Internet, or is the Internet where I got the information?*
3. The employee was fired when it was discovered the money was stolen by the shop manager. ← *Was it the employee or the shop manager who stole the money?*

Split infinitives occur when an adverb is incorrectly placed between *to* and the verb, causing confusion.

1. I arranged to quickly go there and help them.
2. I began to suddenly feel tired.
3. I decided finally to look for a new job.

Exercise 64
Now it's your turn to practice.

Correct all of the ambiguity in the following sentences.

1. Walking away from the counter, the coffee cup fell on the floor.
2. His talking quickly made me confused.
3. Washing your hands often helps prevent colds.
4. I think my sister only knows my mom's recipes.
5. I read that the CEO is going to give a speech in the company newsletter.

Chapter Ten

The Paragraph

Paragraphs are the building blocks of written English. Each paragraph in an essay or academic report expresses a complete idea, which is usually based on a theme expressed in the opening sentence of the paragraph. A paragraph should be focused on one idea, and a good paragraph in English has three parts: a topic sentence, several supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence.

Topic Sentence

The **topic sentence** indicates to the reader what the paragraph is about and forms the basis on which you will write the rest of your paragraph. A good topic sentence should be clear, concise, informative, and interesting. Here are some examples of topic sentences:

1. A city has many attractions to keep its residents entertained.
2. The best way for the university to spend its surplus budget is to upgrade the library.
3. Learning from a teacher is more efficient than learning by experience.

You may be writing a paragraph or an essay in response to a question prompt. Here are some examples of TOEFL-style prompts and their corresponding topic sentences:

1. Prompt: If you could change one important thing about your hometown, what would you change?

Topic sentence: I would like to increase the number of parks and recreational facilities in my hometown.

2. Prompt: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? *Television has destroyed communication among friends and family.*

Topic sentence: I agree that television has destroyed communication among friends and family.

3. Prompt: Some people prefer to live in a small town. Others prefer to live in a big city. Which would you prefer?

Topic sentence: I prefer to live in a big city.

Exercise 65
Now it's your turn to practice.

Based on the given topics, write a paragraph topic sentence.

1. Prompt: Why do you think people like extreme sports, like hang gliding or ice climbing?

Topic sentence:

2. Prompt: Would you support or oppose a plan to build a new shopping mall in your town?

Topic sentence:

3. Prompt: Do you prefer working from home or working from your office?

Topic sentence:

Paragraph Body

After you write your topic sentence, you're going to support your thesis in the **body** of the paragraph. The sentences following the topic sentence must support the topic sentence in a logical way. Let's look at an example of some support for a topic sentence.

A city has many attractions to keep its residents entertained. Cities have cultural institutions, such as art galleries and museums, where you can experience art, history, science, and more. In addition, most cities have theaters and concert halls where you can see a play, musical, or concert. Nightlife options in a city, such as bars and clubs, provide places for people to socialize, and restaurants give people a variety of dining options. All of these provide plenty of leisure-time activities for city dwellers.

Let's analyze the paragraph.

The topic sentence declares, "A city has many attractions to keep its residents entertained." Following this are three concise support sentences:

1. Cities have cultural institutions, such as art galleries and museums, where you can experience art, history, science, and more.
2. In addition, most cities have theaters and concert halls where you can see a play, musical, or concert.
3. Nightlife options in a city, such as bars and clubs, provide places for people to socialize, and restaurants give people a variety of dining options.

Each of these support sentences provides an example of something related to that first topic sentence: "A city has many attractions to keep its residents entertained."

Exercise 66
Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a paragraph including a topic sentence and supporting sentences based on one of the following prompts.

1. What was the greatest invention of the twentieth century?
2. Where is your favorite place to study?
3. What is the most important issue facing society today?
4. What is the best way to get around in your city or town?

Paragraph Conclusion

Once you have written your topic sentence and the sentences supporting your thesis, you'll conclude the paragraph with a sentence that summarizes the contents. Let's look at the paragraph and concluding sentence from the last lesson:

1. The topic sentence stated the thesis: "A city has many attractions . . ."
2. The supporting sentences provided some examples: cultural institutions, theaters and concert halls, and nightlife.
3. The conclusion summarized the whole paragraph: "All of these provide plenty of leisure-time activities for city dwellers."

Exercise 67
Now it's your turn to practice.

Using the paragraph you wrote for Exercise 66, write a concluding sentence.

Transition Words

Transition words connect the sentences and ideas in a paragraph in a smooth and logical way. Transition words are categorized based on their function.

Contrast words show dissimilarity between ideas.

although

but

however

nevertheless

on the other hand

while

1. Having a new shopping center would be good for the local economy. **However**, it would cause an increase in traffic congestion.
2. **While** technology has given us more options for communication, it has also provided criminals with new ways to scam their victims.

Example words help organize paragraphs by introducing and illustrating examples or reasons.

as well as

finally

first, second, etc.

for instance

furthermore

such as

1. Cities have many attractions to keep their residents entertained. **For instance**, cultural institutions **such as** art galleries and museums give us the opportunity to experience art, history, and science.
2. Nightlife options in a city, **such as** bars and clubs, provide places for people to socialize, and restaurants give people a variety of dining

options.

There are also transition words that show **emphasis**.

certainly

indeed

in fact

more importantly

moreover

surely

1. Social media opens the door to meeting a wide group of people. **In fact**, some social media platforms allow us to connect with celebrities and other famous people.
2. Indeed, a new shopping center would cause an increase in traffic congestion. **Moreover**, this would lead to increased air pollution.

Other transition words can lead us to logical **conclusions**.

as a result

consequently

in summary

thus

1. **In summary**, technology gives people many more ways to communicate than before.
2. **As a result**, people can communicate more often, in more places, and to more people than ever before.

Exercise 68
Now it’s your turn to practice.

Enhance the following paragraph using transition words, and add your own concluding sentence.

> Technology has given us more options for communication. Mobile phones allow people to communicate with others regardless of their physical location. Text messaging provides a way to instantly contact a friend or family member. Social media gives us the opportunity to reach a wide group of people at one time. Platforms such as YouTube make it easy for anyone to broadcast their ideas and opinions to a global audience.

Part Two

Writing in Your Everyday Life

Congratulations! You've made it to part two, which means you've survived my grammar lessons. Now we'll explore how you can use what you learned in part one in the real world. Different types of writing require different style types. For example, in a message to a friend, you can be informal—you can use abbreviations, contractions, and emojis. However, in a critical paper, you'd need to be more formal and academic, which means no contractions and perhaps even a more elevated vocabulary. In this part, I have selected topics from the business world, academia, and common social situations so you'll get the opportunity to practice different types of English writing, from casual text messages to formal business letters and academic papers. The final section looks at how changes in technology are continuously reshaping how we communicate and the type of language we can use in the modern world.

Remember that no matter how amazing your thoughts are, if you present them in a confusing or incoherent way, readers won't understand. Knowing the rules of grammar and how to apply them will help you put your best foot forward in terms of people understanding exactly what you mean to say.

Chapter Eleven

School

Writing an essay requires planning and organization, and the language we use in an essay for school needs to be more formal than the language we would typically use in conversations or digital communication. In this chapter, we'll explore college admission essays, TOEFL exam essays, and research papers. If you are planning on taking the TOEFL exam, you'll need to write an essay that demonstrates your ability to express your opinion clearly and use a variety of vocabulary and grammar. Research papers are the most formal of the three types of writing we'll cover in this section.

College Admissions Essays

The essay you write for college admissions will give the school its first impression of you and your communication skills. The two most popular types of college admissions essay prompts are (1) Tell us about yourself and (2) Why do you want to go to our school?

When the essay topic is of the "Tell us about yourself" variety, the school is not interested in how your mom would answer the question, such as "she likes strawberry ice cream" or "he's very good at sports." Instead, it's a good idea to write about your passions, interests, experiences, after-school activities, etc., as they relate to your intended area of study. This kind of essay is designed for you to tell a story about who you are and how you got here. Here's an example of the opening of an essay from a student interested in coding and programming:

> *Grand Theft Auto* was the first game I ever played. Of course, playing the game itself was exciting, but for me, there was something intriguing far beyond Franklin's street smarts. The fact that I was able to navigate in this virtual world with just a controller captured my attention. I became fascinated with the idea of the inner workings behind the scenes, especially the programming languages.

The writer could then continue by describing her related experiences, such as taking programming classes online, participating in a coding club after school, etc.

The next type of question, "Why do you want to go to our school?," is an invitation for you to explain what about this particular school has piqued your interest enough for you to want to study there. It's not enough to say something like "I chose the University of Miami because I want to live in a

warm place" or "Your school has a great basketball team." It's essential to first research the school carefully to make sure they offer a course of study that matches your goals. What is it about this school that stimulates your interest? If the college has a major and courses that align with your career goals, you'll want to write an essay that illustrates that. Here's an example:

> I've always been interested in broadcasting, so I am seeking a career in radio. When I came across the description of your Voice and Diction course, it opened my eyes to the fact that we can learn to control our accent and pronunciation to better engage with listeners on the air.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Using what you learned about paragraphs, develop a paragraph (including the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and conclusion) for one of the essay prompts in this section.

TOEFL Independent Essays

The TOEFL exam, used by most American colleges and universities to gauge an international student's English ability, includes several writing tasks. However, the independent essay is the only task that gives you complete control over your answer and your grade for this part of the exam. By practicing to write a good TOEFL essay, you can help increase your score and simultaneously prepare yourself for the writing assignments you'll get once in school.

The independent essay is based on a question about your opinion on a topic. Some examples are:

1. Which would you prefer, living in a big city or living in the countryside?
2. Would you support or oppose a movie theater being built in your neighborhood?
3. Has technology destroyed communication between friends or family members?

You'll have thirty minutes to complete the task, giving you about five minutes to outline your essay, twenty minutes to write it, and then five minutes to review the essay for errors. Your essay will be scored on idea development, organization, and use of language.

A good essay for this section of the exam will have three basic parts:

1. An introductory paragraph, where you state your opinion.
2. A body, with two or three paragraphs supporting your opinion.
3. A conclusion summarizing the key points of your essay.

Let's look at these three parts using this prompt: Which would you prefer, living in a big city or living in the countryside?

In the **introductory paragraph**, you need to do two things.

1. First, restate the question in your own words. Try to write at least two sentences about each of the options you are given. Here is an example:

Some people feel that living in a big city is exciting. Big cities have all of the conveniences of life in one small area. Others may think that life in the countryside is ideal because the air is clean and it is generally quiet.

In the preceding sentences, I restated the question by presenting opinions on both options.

2. Second, write your thesis statement. Your thesis statement is your opinion, including your reasons for that opinion. It will become the basis for the rest of your essay. Here is an example:

> I believe that living in the countryside is preferable to living in a big city. While city life might be more convenient and provides opportunities for enjoyment and recreation, cities can be uncomfortable because of poor air quality, noise, and congestion.

In the preceding sentences, I stated my opinion and provided some specific reasons for and against living in a city.

Next, let's take a look at a sample **body paragraph**. Each body paragraph should begin with a statement of one of your reasons and contain at least two sentences supporting that reason. Here is an example:

> The air quality in the countryside is much cleaner than that of a big city. With fewer cars and buses in the countryside, exhaust fumes are not an issue. With no factories in the countryside, there is less industrial pollution. Additionally, the abundance of trees and plants in the countryside makes the air fresher and the atmosphere idyllic.

In the preceding paragraph, I stated one of my reasons for preferring life in the countryside: clean air. I then gave several examples to support this idea. The next two body paragraphs should be written in a similar way. For example:

> Since the city is densely populated with people and attractions, it tends to be noisier than the countryside. Sounds of car horns and sirens persist day and night. Building construction and roadwork, as

well as commercial traffic in the city, add to the noise. The countryside has few or none of these sources of noise, resulting in a more peaceful atmosphere.

Finally, big cities attract a lot of people. In addition to the many people living and working in the city, there are usually many tourists. For example, in New York City, neighborhoods such as Times Square are generally crowded with tourists. With fewer residents and workers and hardly any tourists, the countryside is much less congested than a big city.

Now, let's move on to the **conclusion**. This final paragraph of your essay should:

1. Restate the topic and your opinion.
2. Summarize the points you made in the body paragraphs.

Here is an example:

While it is true that big cities feature many benefits, in my estimation, the disadvantages significantly outweigh the advantages. Life in the countryside is quieter and more secluded than life in a big city. Furthermore, the clean air and idyllic landscape associated with the country can provide a more enjoyable, healthier way of life. In conclusion, life in the countryside is more desirable than life in a big city.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Using what you learned about paragraph structure, write a TOEFL essay based on one of the prompts given in this lesson.

Research Papers

Research papers are an interesting combination of research and independent thinking. Here are the five steps to creating a polished and professional research paper:

1. **Determine your topic.** In most cases, your professor will give you a topic to write about. In other cases, you'll need to choose the topic. If your topic is too broad, narrow down the topic so you can easily find specific research about it.
2. **Conduct research and collect information.** You may find some good information online, but library books, journals, and periodicals can provide you with a wealth of information not readily available online. Print or scan copies of useful pages that you find and keep your research records organized. There is nothing worse than having a few photocopies from a book but not remembering which book those pages came from—you'll need to know so you can cite your references and revisit the source if you need additional information.
3. **Choose your information.** Once you have a sufficient amount of material on hand, read through it and take notes or highlight the sections you may want to use as a basis for your paper. Keep in mind that you'll have to assemble the research that you gather and, using your independent thinking, write the story of that research. The story should have a good balance between your original words and some quotations or key facts directly from the research.
4. **Create an outline.** Your outline will help you organize the paper. In fact, some professors require their students to submit an outline as part of the process. Think about the different sections you will include. For example, if the topic is the Sixteenth Amendment, you may want to organize your paper something like this:

1. The events leading up to the Sixteenth Amendment
    a) The first personal income tax in 1861
    b) The farmers' revolt and the presidential election of 1892
2. Prosperity at the turn of the century
    a) The election of Theodore Roosevelt
    b) The graduated income tax
3. William Howard Taft and the new income tax
4. How the tax law became an amendment

5. **Write a first draft.** Based on the outline and using your research notes, write the first draft of the research paper. You should start with a thesis statement and an introductory paragraph. For example:

    The road to the Sixteenth Amendment was not paved with silk.

All of the subsequent paragraphs should also be well constructed and contain a topic sentence and supporting evidence. That evidence will include quotations and information from your research.

The research paper should end with a concluding paragraph, where you'll summarize the main points and present your concluding thoughts. The last page should contain a list of the works cited in the paper, formatted according to whichever style (Chicago, MLA, APA, etc.) your professor or school has mandated.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write an outline for a research paper on any topic that interests you.

Awkward Mistakes to Avoid
Don’t Press Send!

Once you’ve completed your research paper, don’t hit Send just yet! Make sure you have done the following before you submit your research project:

- Get feedback from your professor on your early drafts.
- Make sure the language is appropriate for what you’re writing, including spelling, formatting, vocabulary, tone, and citations.
- Get a peer review from a classmate or friend.
- Make sure you haven’t plagiarized.

Chapter Twelve

Work

The way we communicate in the workplace is a direct reflection on us. Before you even start the job, your résumé and cover letter will serve as your first impression. Once you land the job, you'll find yourself communicating with others frequently, especially through e-mail or instant messaging. You may also need to make a presentation, evaluate an employee, or negotiate for a desired outcome, such as a salary increase. We'll look at these and other common work-related writing tasks, including meeting minutes, website copy, and a tactful letter of resignation.

Perfecting Your Résumé

There are three types of résumés: (1) the chronological résumé, (2) the functional résumé, and (3) the combination résumé.

The **chronological résumé** is most appropriate when you have a long work history. You'll list your work experience in reverse chronological order, with your most recent experience first. After your work history comes your education experience followed by your skills, professional associations, and interests.

A **functional résumé** lists your education, experience, and skills. This résumé is ideal for recent graduates who don't have a lot of work experience or those who have gaps in their work history.

A **combination résumé** is a hybrid of the other two. Here you'll highlight your skills and qualifications first followed by your accomplishments and then your work experience in reverse chronological order.

No matter which type of résumé you go with, follow these guidelines.

- **Write a résumé template.** This is your basic, generic résumé, containing the basics, such as your education and work experience. You will use this template to create a tailored résumé for each job you apply for.
- **Never use the same résumé for every job.** No two positions are exactly the same, and the résumé you send should be customized for that specific job.

- **Make your résumé fit the job.** Look in the job posting and the company website to match your résumé to the position. For example, if you have project management experience, but the advertisement says the company is looking for a project leader, it's fine to change the term "project manager" in your résumé to "project leader." If the job posting lists skills that match your skills, make sure you include them.
- **Include volunteer and life experiences.** Look for relevant connections to your experience. If you're applying to a position that relates to academia and you volunteered in your college library, include that information. If you received an award in your internship, include that, too.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write your résumé based on the recommendations covered here.

Writing a Cover Letter

We use a cover letter when applying for a job to introduce ourselves and our résumé. The cover letter allows the hiring manager to know what position you are applying for and see a summary of your skills and qualifications.

A cover letter should have about three paragraphs. In the introductory paragraph, respond directly to the advertisement and the job you're applying for in a professional, formal way. Make your purpose clear to the hiring manager. The first paragraph should be customized for each job you apply to.

> I am writing with great enthusiasm in response to the posting on your website for School Director. I possess the following skills and

experience that I believe are a perfect match for this position.

The second paragraph should contain a summary of your relevant skills and experience. An effective second paragraph will use key words taken directly from the job posting. Be careful not to make run-on sentences by trying to include all of your relevant information. This initial communication is the first impression you make, so be sure to have succinct, clear sentences with a professional tone.

> I have an MBA in global management and over twenty years of experience in international education, as both a teacher and administrator. Ten of those years have been in various management positions, including work as a school director responsible for a $1 million budget. I am familiar with higher education in the United States, and I enjoy working with students tremendously. I have had extensive experience teaching adult students from all over the world, both in and out of the classroom.

The third paragraph should conclude with essential information for the hiring manager. Be sure to mention the name of the company here.

> Attached is my résumé for your review. It contains the details of the many skills and experiences I can bring to the table for Acme Education. I have also enclosed a list of three professional references. I live in New York, but I am able and willing to relocate. I would welcome the opportunity to interview for this position. Please feel free to reach out via phone or e-mail. In the meantime, thank you for your time and consideration.

Now it’s your turn to practice.

Write four or five sentences that describe your skills and experience using the present perfect tense and a professional tone. Here are some examples:

- Ten of my years at ABC *have been* in various management positions.
- I *have had* extensive experience working with students from all over the world.
- I *have enclosed* a list of three professional references.

Writing a Professional E-mail

Since the dawn of text messages, English, like many other languages, has become more casual. The communication style of a comment on Instagram or a text between friends is not appropriate for the business world. It is always better for your e-mails to be more formal than they need to be. The following format is acceptable for a professional business e-mail.

Subject Line

Even though the subject line has been removed from most messaging apps, it is still necessary in a business e-mail. The subject line should concisely describe the topic of your e-mail. Here are some examples:

For a job application to the hiring manager:

Graphic Designer position—Jared Wilson [the job title and your name]

Following up after a job interview:

Thank you for meeting with me.

For a term paper to your professor:

US Tax Laws and the Sixteenth Amendment

To your boss:

Weekly Sales Report

Greetings and Closings

Every e-mail should contain a greeting and closing phrase. Here are the most common forms, listed from formal to informal. Note the comma usage.

Greetings

- Dear Mr. Edison,
- Dear Mr. Thomas Edison,
- Dear Thomas,
- Hi, Thomas,

Closings

- Kind regards,
- Regards,
- Sincerely,
- Thanks,

The body of the e-mail should also be concise. Here are some examples:

E-mail 1

Dear Mr. Edison,

Thank you for taking the time to meet with me this morning. I appreciated the opportunity to learn more about the Graphic Designer

position. I look forward to hearing from you about moving ahead in the application process.

Sincerely yours,

Jared Wilson

E-mail 2

Dear Carson,

Please find attached this week's sales report. Let me know if you have any comments or concerns.

Regards,

Danielle

Now it's your turn to practice.

Imagine you are in the following situations and write an e-mail, including the subject line, greeting, closing, and e-mail body.

1. You are sending your résumé to ABC Company to apply for a sales position.
2. You are submitting your research paper to your professor.
3. You are writing to a potential client to set up a meeting.
4. You are writing to a coworker to ask about the schedule for a meeting.

Preparing a Presentation

You may be asked to give a presentation in an academic or professional setting, but the basic idea for both is the same. A presentation is essentiality a one-point lesson in which you convey an idea to your audience. The first step in preparing a presentation is to know who the audience will be. Are you presenting your graduate thesis to a faculty panel? Are you making a sales presentation to potential customers? Knowing who the audience is will help you understand what they are expecting from your presentation.

The presentation itself should contain three sections: (1) an introduction and welcome, (2) the main points of your talk, and (3) a conclusion.

At the start of the introduction section, greet the audience, introduce yourself, and tell everyone what you're going to discuss during the presentation.

> Good morning, everyone. I'm Wang Min, and today I would like to introduce you to my company and show you how our graphic design services can help your business grow.

Organize the main points of your talk in a logical way. If you're doing a presentation to introduce your company, the flow of your talk could be something like this:

> *A brief company history → your company's position in its industry → the services or products you offer → how your company's services or products match with your audience, etc.*

To conclude, summarize the main points, and then, if time permits, you can elicit questions or comments from the audience.

Slideshow Basics

It's always a good idea to have a slide presentation to accompany your talk. Tips for an effective slideshow include the following:

- Each slide should represent a key point in your talk and contain the essential information you are presenting.
- Slides should be written simply and clearly. Try to stick to bullet points and avoid full sentences or paragraphs.
- Make sure illustrations such as charts or graphs are clear and legible.
- Ensure that the font size you use is big enough so it can be seen from the very back of the room.

Whether you choose to use a slideshow or not, practice your presentation using notes or cue cards. During your presentation, you'll want to want to speak expressively and occasionally make eye contact with the audience.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Prepare a short presentation on one of the following topics.

1. Introduce your company to a group of college students who may be interested in applying for a job there.
2. Introduce your college to a group of high school students who may want to apply there.

Providing Praise

In business, one of the most important things anyone can do for employee motivation is recognize a job well done. As a colleague, you can boost someone else by offering thanks or praise for their assistance or good ideas. And if you're a manager, a little positive feedback can go a long way in energizing your staff—you don't need to wait until your company has its

annual review period to let your staff know they are important and appreciated.

When someone has done something exceptional in the workplace, let them know right away, either during a meeting with them or via a note or message. For example:

> Paola, thanks so much for your effort on the ABC account. The purchasing manager placed an order and said that you were very helpful in helping him make his decision. You're the best! Thanks.

You may have someone on your staff who puts in a lot of effort on a daily basis. In this situation, you can thank them in person or with a simple note.

> Nasser, I wanted to let you know that I really appreciate the enthusiasm you have when you work. Your positive attitude and attention to detail are a big help here. Keep up the good work.

Even if you are not a manager, a thank-you to a coworker or a boss who helped you out is always appreciated.

> Kai, thanks for backing me up with that difficult customer the other day. I really appreciate it.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a short note to thank the following individuals.

1. A new employee who has made their first sale
2. An employee who completed a project sooner than the deadline
3. A coworker who showed you some Excel shortcuts

Asking for a Raise

It’s perfectly acceptable to ask for a raise, especially if it’s been a while since you started working or received your last raise. A key point is knowing *when* and *how* to approach your manager for a raise. Informal communication, like a casual-toned instant message to your manager, would be inappropriate. If your company has an annual performance review, however, that might be an ideal time to discuss salary.

The next step is knowing what your position is worth. Do a little research on what people in similar jobs in your industry are earning. If you find you’re being underpaid, that substantive information can be useful in negotiating a new salary. On the other hand, if you find that you’re already at the top pay level, you may want to discuss a step up in responsibilities commensurate with a pay raise.

You can approach the topic with your boss using professional, evidence-backed language like this:

Approach 1

> I’m delighted to be working in the sales department here at ABC Company. Over the past year, I’ve learned a great deal and have gained valuable skills in sales and presentations. I also believe that my work has contributed to the growth of the company, and I’m particularly proud that I contributed to thirty-three percent of the company’s revenue last quarter.
>
> I would appreciate having the opportunity to discuss my salary so that my pay is in line with my work performance.

Approach 2

Over the past year and a half, I have gladly taken on several new roles, including project leader and new hire trainer. I've handled these responsibilities and their challenges in a professional and enthusiastic manner. All the projects I've been assigned have been successfully completed. As such, I would appreciate the chance to discuss a new salary commensurate with my current responsibilities and performance.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Think about your current job. What are your recent successes or new responsibilities, and how would you approach your boss to tie these achievements into a salary discussion?

Providing a Resignation Letter

It's never easy ending a relationship, but sometimes that happens in the business world. If you need to move on from your current position, here are some tips and suggestions to resign gracefully and professionally.

First, you don't want to burn any bridges on the way out. Even if the circumstances causing you to leave are emotionally unpleasant, make a clean break without hurting anyone's feelings. You never know if you will run into your boss or other coworkers in the future, particularly if you are working in a small industry. The boss or team you leave behind will also be able to serve as a reference for you if you need one later.

When writing your resignation letter, address the letter to your boss and let them know your intention at the very beginning.

Dear Frank,

I hereby tender my resignation from the position of graphic designer at ABC Company. My last day of work will be June 3, 2020.

Next, regardless of how you feel about the job, thank your employer for the opportunity you've had. This will help to keep the atmosphere positive.

I want you to know that I appreciate all of the opportunities I've had here at ABC. I've learned a great deal from you about graphic design in the marketing industry.

Finally, let your boss know that you would be happy to leave detailed transition notes to assist whoever will be taking your place.

I would be happy to provide comprehensive notes and/or whatever support you think would be helpful during the transition.

Sincerely yours,

Alfred E. Oldman

Now it's your turn to practice.

Think about somebody you respect. Imagine that person is resigning from their job and write their resignation letter.

Writing Meeting Minutes

After a business meeting, a written record of the meeting is often essential. This record, called the **meeting minutes**, contains a detailed summary of every aspect of the meeting.

The level of formality and contents of the meeting minutes vary by company as well as meeting type. Minutes from board and other executive

meetings are the most formal, whereas team meeting minutes tend to be more casual. Regardless of the level of formality, all meeting minutes should include the date and time of the meeting, the members, and the content. Here's a sample outline of meeting minutes:

Acme Widget Co. ← *(company name)*

June 3, 2020 ← *(date of the meeting)*

Opening ← *(Formally state the starting time and the attendees.)*

The annual board meeting was held at ten o'clock in the morning on June 3, 2020.

Present at the meeting were Ms. Bergman, Mr. Lennon, Mr. McCartney, Ms. Joplin, and Ms. Swift.

Approval of prior minutes and agenda ← *(This section is generally for formal meetings.)*

The members unanimously approved the minutes of the meeting on May 3, 2020, as well as the agenda for today's meeting.

Open items ← *(any issues or follow-up from the previous meeting minutes to be discussed)*

1. Mr. Lennon discussed ← *(Summarize the discussion here.)*

New items ← *(new issues from the meeting agenda discussed)*

1. Ms. Bergman suggested ← *(Summarize the discussion here.)*
2. *(Write the summary of the discussion here.)*

Additional items ← *(new issues raised and not from the meeting agenda discussed)*

1. Ms. Joplin proposed ← *(Summarize the discussion here.)*
2. *(Write the summary of the discussion here.)*

Next meeting agenda ← *(the topics for the next meeting)*

1. *(Summarize the discussion here.)*
2. *(Summarize the discussion here.)*

Adjournment / Closing ← *(State the ending time and the date for the next meeting.)*

This meeting was adjourned at eleven o'clock in the morning on June 3, 2020. The next board meeting will take place on July 3, 2020, in this office.

Meeting minutes submitted by: Your Name

Meeting minutes approved by: Their Name

Now it's your turn to practice.

Using the outline here, write the meeting minutes for the meeting you last attended. If you have not had any experience attending a meeting, write the minutes for a historical event, such as the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

Writing Website Copy

You may need to write the text for a website, also known as the **copy**. The way a website is written is important for both the readers of the site and the search engines that find the page and deliver it in a search. Here are six guidelines for writing an effective website:

1. **Know your audience.** Much like giving a presentation (see here), writing copy for a website requires knowing and understanding the potential readers. The intended audience should determine the style and tone of the copy. A corporate website for a manufacturer of pipes will have a totally different reader than a website for skateboarders.
2. **Write quality headlines.** Headlines grab the reader's attention and help focus them on a particular section of the website. Clear, concise headlines should capture the essence of what that section of the website is about.
3. **Be an expert.** Know your company's products and/or services and incorporate that knowledge into your copy.
4. **Engage your audience.** Use the active voice more than the passive voice. Depending on the type of company, product, or website, consider writing in a style that feels like you're having a conversation with the reader.
5. **Use key words wisely.** One purpose of copy is to attract search engines and provide the site with an online presence. The quality of your sentences and explanations on the topic will result in better search engine results than just a trail of key words.
6. **Solve a problem or fill a need.** Most people have a problem they're looking to solve. Your writing can show readers how your service or product is the perfect solution.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Choose an object in your home or office. Write one or two paragraphs of website copy introducing that product and the company behind it, keeping in mind the preceding guidelines.

Awkward Mistakes to Avoid
Don’t Press Send!

Especially in a business setting, poor word choice could reflect poorly on you. So, before hitting the Send button, look over your writing for these kinds of problems:

Colloquial or regional language:

This was *literally* the best day of my life.

I was, *like*, so surprised.

Double negatives

Run-on or fragmented sentences:

Please don’t leave any personal items in the conference room it is not courteous to your colleagues who are using the room after your meeting.

On the desk in the conference room where we had the meeting.

Use of slang, text abbreviations, or emojis

Chapter Thirteen

Social Situations

In this section, we will look at how to communicate appropriately and effectively in social situations. We'll start with invitations—how to write them and respond to them. We'll explore how to give thanks, send regrets, and even how to express your romantic feelings on paper. In addition, we will look at the language you can use in various situations, like finding a place to live, shopping, and seeking medical attention.

Event Invitations

Whether you're planning a formal event, like a wedding or business gala, or a child's birthday party, the invitation should be clearly written and informative.

Formal Invitations

For a formal event, start with the hosts of the party. Here are a few ways to open the invitation for a business event:

- You are cordially invited to attend the Acme Company Dinner Gala.
- The Acme Company invites you to the Dinner Gala.
- Please join the Acme Company for our 10th Annual Dinner Gala.

For a wedding invitation, the format may vary. Formal, traditional weddings list the bride's family first.

Mr. and Mrs. Adam West

Request the honor of your presence at the wedding of their daughter

Kay West

To

Denny Slate

Son of Mr. and Mrs. Larry Slate

After the introduction, write the date and time in words, not numbers.

Saturday, the Tenth of June

Two Thousand Twenty

At Five O’clock in the Evening

Lastly, include the name of the venue where the event will take place.

The Waldorf Astoria
301 Park Ave, New York City

Less formal events can contain more casual language.

Shhhhh! We’re having a surprise birthday party for Tomoko!
Sunday, March 6, at 6:00 p.m.
Rosie’s Trattoria, 35 Main Street, Harrison
RSVP Rosa at 212-555-1212 or rosaz@jmail.com

Now it’s your turn to practice.

Using these tips, write an invitation to an event.

Casual Invitations

There are several different ways we can convey casual invitations in English.

Use **would you like to** followed by a base verb. **Would you like to** is a polite way to say **do you want to**.

1. **Would you like to** have dinner on Friday night?
2. **Would you like to** go to the park on Sunday?

In a similar way, we use **why don’t we** followed by a base verb.

1. **Why don’t we** go to a jazz club tomorrow?
2. **Why don’t we** go for brunch on Sunday?

You can also use **I was wondering if** followed by a subject and verb.

1. **I was wondering if** you'd like to have dinner with me tomorrow night.
2. **I was wondering if** you'd be interested in seeing a play on Saturday.

When you know the person well, you can use **let's** followed by a base verb.

1. **Let's** go fishing next week.
2. **Let's** see if we can get tickets for the baseball game tonight.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Invite someone based on the prompt. Use the different invitation patterns shown on this page.

1. Invite a friend to a concert on Tuesday.
2. Invite a coworker to play billiards tonight.
3. Invite a romantic interest to dinner on Saturday.
4. Invite your neighbor to a barbecue.

Accepting Invitations

The language used to accept an invitation depends on the type of invitation received and the relationship with the person who sent the invitation. Formal and/or professional event invitations, like a job interview, meeting, or speaking engagement, typically require a formal response. The same applies to formal social events, like weddings, christenings, and bar/bat mitzvahs. Send your reply as soon as possible. Here are some examples of acceptance responses:

Job interview. Thank you very much for arranging an interview on Thursday, June 1, at 10:00 a.m. Our telephone meeting on Tuesday was very informative, and I look forward to meeting with you in person to discuss the position further.

Meeting proposal. Thank you for considering Acme Digital Services for your website project and for your offer to meet on Friday. I look forward to hearing your thoughts and presenting several ideas that we have in mind.

Speaking engagement. I am honored and delighted to have the opportunity to speak at your sales conference on September 4 at the Jarvis Center. I appreciate being chosen as one of the presenters.

Wedding invitation. Thank you for inviting me to share the joy with your family in celebration of the marriage of Isabel and her fiancé, Fabrizio. It will be my pleasure to join you on this special day.

When accepting a casual invitation, such as a verbal or text-message invitation, here are some phrases you can use. Including a *thank-you* or *thanks* is also appropriate.

1. Thanks. That sounds fun. I've never been to a jazz club before.
2. Thank you. That sounds nice.
3. I'd love to. Thanks so much.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a reply accepting an invitation in the following situations.

- You were invited to a friend's wedding.

- You've been invited to a face-to-face job interview after having a phone interview.
- Your YouTube channel is very successful, and you've been invited to speak at a media conference for college students.

Declining Invitations

The language you use to decline an invitation depends on the type of invitation you received and your relationship with the person who sent it. In general, declining an invitation should include both your regrets and a reason for declining, except for an invitation for a job interview. Here are some examples for graciously declining an invitation:

Job interview. When declining a job interview, it's not necessary to provide a reason, unless the reason is that you have accepted another position.

> Thank you very much for offering to meet me for an interview for the position. I regret to inform you that at this time, I have to decline the opportunity. I sincerely appreciate your time and consideration.

Meeting proposal. When declining a meeting proposal, offer an alternative when possible.

> Thank you for considering Acme Media for your upcoming project and your offer to meet this week. I'm afraid that our team will be unable to meet at this time. I anticipate being available at the end of April. Please let me know if that would be acceptable for your needs.

Speaking engagement. When declining an invitation to speak, suggest another person who may be able to do the job.

> Thank you for the invitation to speak at your sales conference on September 4. I regret to inform you that I have another commitment that week. You may wish to reach out to my colleague Brad Evans, who is a successful sales manager and engaging speaker.

Wedding invitation. When declining a wedding invitation, sending a gift is a thoughtful way to show that you care about the couple.

> Thank you for inviting me to share the joy with your daughter Isabel and her fiancé, Fabrizio. Regrettably, I will be away on business that weekend. I'm sorry I can't be there to celebrate with you.

Here are some phrases you can use to decline a casual invitation:

1. That sounds great, but I have other plans this weekend.
2. Thanks a lot, but I am going skiing on Friday.
3. Sounds great. Thanks, but I have a huge exam on Monday, and I need to spend the weekend studying.
4. I wish I could, but I've been invited to my cousin's graduation on Sunday.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a message to decline these invitations.

1. You were invited to a wedding of someone you are not very close with.
2. You've been invited to a job interview.
3. A classmate or coworker invited you to a beach party.
4. You have been invited to speak at a sales conference.

Thank-You Letters

After you've attended an event you were invited to, it's a good idea to thank the organizer or host. The language you use depends on the type of event and your relationship with the person who sent it. Here are different ways to express thanks.

Job Interview

After a job interview, send your thanks in an e-mail as soon as possible. It shows the interviewer your interest in the position as well as your integrity as a person.

> Dear Yelena, Thank you for taking the time to meet with me this afternoon. I gained a great deal of insight from our discussion, and I'm excited about the prospect of joining your team. I look forward to hearing from you.

Meetings

> Dear Kazu, Thank you and your team for meeting with me today. I feel the meeting was productive and insightful. I understand that you need to discuss our proposal with Mr. Zimper, after which time I look forward to the opportunity to move forward with our plans.

Speaking Engagements

Dear Mr. Lusscroft, Thank you for inviting me to speak at your workshop. I enjoyed the positive energy in the room and the questions from your staff. I'd be happy to hear any feedback, and I look forward to speaking at a future event at Acme Media.

Weddings

Dear Franz and Gretchen, Thank you so much for the chance to celebrate Mina and Hank's special day. What a lovely affair it was. Clair and I had a wonderful time, and we wish the newlyweds a lifetime of happiness and joy.

After casual events, here are some of the phrases you can use to express your thanks:

1. Thanks a bunch for last night. I had a great time.
2. Thanks a lot for dinner yesterday. It was amazing.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write a thank-you message for the following situations.

1. Thank a friend who took you to Sunday brunch.
2. Send a thank-you to a recruiter who set up a job interview for you.
3. Thank the buyer who arranged a sales meeting for you.
4. Send thanks to the parents of the bride who invited you to a wedding.

Writing Love Letters

Anyone can go to the store on Valentine's Day and find a litany of preprinted greeting cards, but an actual, handwritten love letter becomes a cherished memory, like a photograph. It could be the letter you write inside a greeting card or a stand-alone letter. In either case, here's how you can write yours.

Start off with a greeting, like *My dearest Kate,* or *To my true love, Andrei.*

Next, explain why you're writing the letter: *As we celebrate our second Valentine's Day together, I wanted to share the strength of my feelings for you,* or *For our first anniversary together, I wanted you to know just how much you really mean to me.*

Then it's time to mention your feelings for them: *There's something special about your smile that makes my heart skip a beat.* You can then finish with some sentiment of your love: *I've never thought that my love for someone could grow as strong and as deep as it has for you.*

Lastly, end the letter by signing off with something special, like *Yours for eternity, Martín,* or *Forever yours, Joomin.*

Now it's your turn to practice.

If you have a special someone or significant other, try writing a love letter to them. Reflect deep within you to find words that express your unique feelings, and make it your own—resist the urge to quote a movie or song.

Finding Housing

Time for some housing vocabulary! In the United States, we refer to apartments in terms of the number of bedrooms. A **studio** has just one large room, usually with a small kitchen and a bathroom. A **one-bedroom apartment** is generally set up like a studio, but it also has a separate bedroom. Your choice of apartment may also be based on the amenities, or desirable features, such as washer/dryer, dishwasher, etc.

Most landlords will ask you to sign a **lease**, which is a contract between you and the landlord stipulating the terms and conditions of the deal. This deal will probably require you to pay a **deposit,** which is money that you give the landlord when you move in and that will be returned when you move out if there is no damage to the space. The lease also details the amount and due date of the rent and other items. The language of this contract will be formal.

When responding to a housing posting, take note of the information being asked for, like your name, your age, if you have any pets, and your available move-in date. First impressions are important, so be warm and friendly in your correspondence but professional, too—which means that contractions and casual vocabulary are okay but lack of proper punctuation and a respectful greeting and sign-off might be a misstep.

Now it's your turn to practice.

1. Imagine you're now looking to move to a new apartment. What are four things that are important to you (price, location, size, certain amenities, etc.)? Based on your answers, write a sample e-mail inquiring about the property.
2. Imagine you are the landlord of the place you live in now. Pretend it's for rent, and write a short description, including the size, amenities, price, location, etc.

Shopping

Let’s look at some vocabulary and phrases that are helpful for shopping. Macy’s was **having a sale** yesterday, so I went there after work. It seemed like almost everything was **on sale**. I found a nice sweater that I liked. It was **on sale,** too. Usually $125, it was **50% off**! I just had to have it! The **clerk** said that the sweater was a final sale, so I cannot return it. Final sale means the store won’t give **refunds**, and you can’t **exchange** or **return** what you buy, so choose carefully!

Let’s look at the key vocabulary and phrases related to shopping.

1. Stores have a sale, or there is a sale at that store. A **sale** is a special event where items in the store have a cheaper price than usual.

- Macy’s is **having a sale** today.
- **There is a sale** at the Gap today.

2. Items are on sale. This means the item has a cheaper price than usual.

- I bought this dress **on sale**.
- Everything is **on sale** on Black Friday.

3. To talk about a discounted price, we often use a percentage off, like **50% off**.

- This sweater was **50% off** today.
- I bought these shoes for **30% off**!

4. The person who works in a department store or clothing store is a **sales clerk**, or **clerk**. A **clerk** can help you shop and also works at the register. Supermarkets, grocery stores, and convenience stores have

cashiers. A **cashier** works at the register only and doesn't help you shop.

- The **clerk** in Macy's was very helpful.
- The **cashiers** in that drug store are not so nice.

5. When you are not happy with what you bought, you may want to **return** it. **Return** means bring back to the store.

- I want to **return** this sweater. It is too big.
- Can I **return** this if my husband doesn't like it?

6. When you buy something and realize it is the wrong color or size, you may want to **exchange** it. **Exchange** means change something for something else.

- I **exchanged** my sweater for a larger size.
- Can I **exchange** this for a blue one?

7. When you **return** something, the store will **refund** your money. We use **refund** as a verb and a noun.

- I would like to return this sweater. Is it possible to get a **refund**?
- This is a final sale, so we cannot **refund** your money.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Fill in the blanks with the correct word or phrase.

1. Abercrombie is having _____ this week. a sale / on sale / for sale
2. Apple products, like the iPad, are never _____ . a sale / on sale / for sale

3. Do you like my boots? They were _____ at Shoe World. a sale / 30% off / 50% on sale
4. The _____ at Macy's was very helpful. She found my size for me. cashier / clerk / staff
5. I wish there were more _____ at this grocery store. The lines are so long. cashiers / clerks / staffs
6. I can't _____ this blue T-shirt because I lost the receipt. return / refund / exchange
7. I will try to _____ this blue T-shirt for a red one. I hope they have one. return / refund / exchange
8. The clerk told me I need to have the receipt in order to get a _____return / refund / exchange

Scheduling Medical Appointments

In the United States, we generally have a **family doctor** or **primary care doctor**. We visit this doctor in their private office. Sometimes this office is called a **clinic**. A **doctor's office** is usually an office with just one doctor and his staff. A **clinic** is typically a large office with several doctors. A **hospital** is a large building with many doctors and beds. You can stay overnight in a **hospital**, but not at a **clinic** or **doctor's office**. Depending on your insurance, you may need to visit your primary care doctor for a **referral** before visiting a **specialist** directly. A specialist is a doctor who specializes in something specific, such as a dermatologist (skin doctor), cardiologist (heart doctor), etc.

You go to the **doctor's office** or a **clinic** when it is not an emergency, like a cold, a rash, or a checkup. You go to a **hospital** for an emergency or for a procedure, like an operation.

You can say **go to the doctor** or **see the doctor.**

- I **went to the doctor** yesterday for a checkup.
- I had a bad cold, so I decided to **see the doctor**.
- I **went to the hospital** last week for surgery.

To go to the doctor's office or a clinic, you need to schedule **an appointment**. We usually **schedule a doctor's appointment** to **see the doctor**. Once we make the appointment, we **have an appointment**. Again, you can also say that you are going to see the doctor:

- I **made a doctor's appointment** for April 3.
- I **have a doctor's appointment** at three o'clock this afternoon.
- I'd like to **see the doctor** about pain in my back. When is she next available?

When you have an emergency, you **go to the emergency room** in a hospital. To go to the **emergency room**, you do not need **an appointment**. The **emergency room** is the place in the hospital where people with serious medical emergencies go in or are brought to by an ambulance.

- I **went to the emergency room** after I fell off the ladder.
- I feel dizzy. I think I should **go to the emergency room**.
- The ambulance **took Li Min to the emergency room**.

If the doctor in the emergency room thinks your condition is serious or you need additional treatment, you may **be admitted to the hospital**.

- I **was admitted to the hospital** for testing after the accident.
- **Assad is in the hospital** for an operation.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Choose the best answer based on the vocabulary presented here.

1. Where would you go if you cut your finger badly while cooking?
   a) a clinic
   b) a hospital
   c) a doctor's office

2. Who would you most likely make an appointment to see if you caught the flu?
   a) a specialist
   b) your primary care doctor
   c) the doctor at a hospital

3. You need to make an appointment at this place.
   a) the hospital
   b) the emergency room
   c) the doctor's office

4. Which of these places probably has beds where you can stay overnight?
   a) the clinic
   b) the doctor's office
   c) the hospital

Discussing Medical Issues

Let's look at some vocabulary and phrases that you can use to talk about medical issues. Some grammar tips to keep in mind when describing what

might be wrong or how you're feeling are the **have verb + a noun** (*I have a cold, she has a stomachache*) and the **feel verb + an adjective** (*I feel nauseous, she feels sick*).

Sick is an adjective, and we use **sick** with the **be** verb.

- **I'm sick**, so I'm going to stay home from work.
- Minh **is sick** today, so he's not going to school.
- Priya **was sick** all weekend, but she's better now.

Note: You can also say, "I became sick," "I got sick," or "I feel sick."

Cold, **bug**, or **virus** are nouns used to mean a sort of sickness. We use them with the verb **have**.

- I **have a cold**.
- Guilia **had a bug** last week, so she didn't go into work.
- Thom **had a virus** all weekend, but he's better now.

We also use the idiom *catch a bug*, which means to "become sick." When you say that you caught a bug, virus, or cold, it means that you're sick.

- I **caught a bug**, so I'm staying home from work.
- Juana **caught a virus** last week, so she didn't go to school.
- If you don't wash your hands, you might **catch a cold**.

We also use *have* to talk about medical conditions and symptoms.

- I **have** a runny nose. I **have** a headache. I **have** a sore throat. I **have** a cough.
- Kimlee **has** the flu.
- Mari found out she **has** high blood pressure.

In English, we use **take** for every kind of medicine: pills, tablets, and liquids.

- Yasmin **took** aspirin for her headache.
- I **take** vitamins every morning.
- The doctor said to **take** one dose of cough medicine twice a day.

Now it’s your turn to practice.

Choose the best answer based on the vocabulary presented here.

1. I (am / caught / have) sick. I think I should go to the doctor.
2. Ian said he (has cold / is cold / has a cold) so he won’t be in the office today.
3. I (am / caught / have) a bad headache. I’m going to leave work early.
4. The doctor told me to (have / take / drink) two tablets twice a day.

Chapter Fourteen

Getting Creative

Creative writing is a great way to hone your English skills in specific areas. Critical essays, for example, allow you to share your considered opinion with readers. You may be asked to write a critical essay in a college class or for even for a specialized blog. Practice with this kind of writing can lead into other areas, such as memoir, poetry, fiction writing, or even cultural criticism.

The Critical Essay

A critical essay is your interpretation of another work from film, literature, music, art, etc. In the critical essay, you introduce your reader to the work and present your analysis of it. If this is a school assignment, you may be asked to expand on a specific craft aspect or question about the work. For example, if you're reading "The Raven" by Edgar Allan Poe, your professor may ask you to analyze its use of symbolism, in which case your language and analysis must be formal, academic, and fully substantiated with evidence from the work itself. If you're writing a critical essay of a film for a website or blog, you might be able to focus on lighter themes instead and use language more accessible to an everyday reader as you review the work. Let's explore.

Introduction

In the introduction, you'll tell your readers the main idea of the work you are critiquing and then provide your **thesis statement**, which is the theory you're attempting to analyze and prove within the paper. For example:

> In *Diary of a Wimpy Kid*, author Jeff Kinney takes readers on an exploration of the trials and tribulations of life as a middle schooler. Through the author's use of naturalistic language, readers can more aptly feel the characters' emotions and make an authentic connection with the protagonist, Greg Heffley.

Summary

In the summary section, you'll discuss the details of the work in relation to your thesis, keeping it succinct and streamlined. For example:

> This novel is structured around the diary entries of Greg, a twelve-year-old boy who has just started middle school. As his story unfolds, readers are introduced to a number of impactful secondary characters, including his parents; his terroristic older brother, Rodrick; and his best friend, Rowley. The book begins with the first day of middle school and includes various moments from Greg's daily life and interactions with everyone around him.

Assessment and Analysis

In this section, you'll present your analysis of the work. In a critique, you might examine the good and not-so-good aspects of the work. For example:

> One major theme is Greg's desire to be more popular. The author does a thorough job of letting the reader know this desire from the very beginning of the book, where Greg mentions he is "around 52nd or 53rd most popular this year." (In a more analytical assessment, you'd revisit your thesis to provide the evidence necessary to prove it.)

Conclusion

The conclusion of the critical essay restates your thesis and summarizes the key points of the essay that help prove it.

> Through the perspective of Greg Heffley, the reader gets an in-depth look at life after elementary school. Greg tries hard to improve his popularity in his day-to-day dealings. While we never get to see how his rank changes, we are left reminded that life at this age is filled with unexpected challenges and emotions.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write the introduction paragraph of a critical essay on the subject of your choice, setting up your thesis and illustrating how you intend to explore that topic. Keep the audience and context for the paper in mind when considering the appropriate language.

Chapter Fifteen

Our Digital World

Technology is constantly changing and at an increasingly fast pace. Historically, language has evolved along with new developments in technology, and it's important to understand this relationship. Language is always changing, and vocabulary and slang that people used even fifty years ago sounds archaic now. You'd have to watch an old black-and-white movie to hear people greet each other with *How do you do?* In this section, we'll look at this evolution of English, how text messaging has influenced our language, and how you can adapt to using English in the modern world.

Evolution of Technology and Language

Throughout history, new technologies have resulted in the creation of new and adapted language. Today, when you want to get some information about a topic, you **google** it. You **text** your sister and **e-mail** your customers at work, and then after work, you might **tweet** or **snap** your friends.

Technology also brings us new meanings by adapting old words. **Friend** is now a verb: You **friend** and **unfriend** people on social media. A **cloud** is a place for online data storage. A **cookie** went from a sweet baked snack to a piece of data on your computer. The noun **feed** may still be animal food on the farm, but in most places, it's the thread of information updated in your social media. A **tag** has gone from being a sticker on bread to a way to identify a person in a photo.

It's not just words that have been influenced by technology. According to a 2015 study by the Oxford University Press, the word **hashtag**, and its symbol, #, became a word that children under thirteen years old are using offline. First used to indicate relevant keywords on Twitter, "hashtag" came into popular use by people of all ages in everyday written language for "dramatic effect."

New ideas for words and grammar can even stem from memes, like "doing me a frighten," a meme in the voice of a startled dog in a type of "doggolingo" Internet language used in dog memes. Technically, the grammar of this sentence is incorrect—but in the language of a frightened dog friend, it's just right.

Lastly, it's hard to miss the text initialisms, or abbreviations, that have come into existence, such as LOL (laughing out loud), NVM (never mind), LMK (let me know), and IDK (I don't know). Language and grammar depend on the type of technology being used, but we can be certain that they

will continue to change over time as technology and online communities evolve and influence one another.

Now it's your turn to practice.

Make a list of five new words or meanings for words (not discussed in this section) that have come into existence because of technology. Then use those words in a sentence, keeping in mind their new definitions and contexts.

Let's Talk about Texting

Text messaging, or **texting**, has had a tremendous impact on language. Texting is casual, conversational, and brief. In fact, texting is more like speaking than writing. That's because in many cases, people communicate via texting in real time, so what they type is usually similar to what they would say in person.

Texting and instant messaging have also increased the popularity of initialisms and emojis. Popular initialisms—acronyms like BRB (be right back), BTW (by the way), and OFC (of course)—made it quicker to express ourselves on cell phones of the pre-smartphone era, and symbols through typing came into favor to convey messages, such as :) for a smile, ;) for a wink, and :* for a kiss. As mobile communication became more advanced, little pictures, or emojis, replaced those symbols.

The language of texting is also generating its own brand of grammar. As noted in John McWhorter's 2013 TED Talk, LOL (laughing out loud) is being used in texting as a discourse marker, like **uh-huh**, **well**, and **you know**. For example:

> **Omar:** Do you wanna grab dinner after work?

Rick: LOL I'm working until 10 p.m.

Rick isn't laughing about working until ten (although maybe he's laughing a sad, tired laugh at 9:30 p.m.). He's using LOL with the meaning of **ah**, **well**, or **no can do**. This type of usage of LOL has even made its way back into spoken English!

Now it's your turn to practice.

Write these initialisms and emoji sentences using English words.

CYL8R

LMK. TTYL.

🙏 for the ☕

The 🍕 here is 🔥

Adapting to Digital Communication

The advent of digital communication has provided both opportunities and challenges. Today, many people text and message more than they talk face-to-face or on the phone. Social media has introduced new ways of communicating with others through pictures, videos, and text. The digital world has provided the opportunity to socialize and work with others regardless of our physical locations, and this, too, has influenced how we use and think about language.

One area in which we still need to curb this modern communication style is in business situations. While short, ungrammatical phrases are perfectly acceptable in a text, they won't be well received in most business situations. This, of course, varies depending on the industry, but often, the language used is expected to be more traditionally, formally written—especially when

communicating with clients. TY (thank you) is not appropriate to write when thanking a customer for a hundred-thousand-dollar order—in fact, it would be considered an insult. Generally, digital communication in the workplace is reserved for words, free of emojis and time-saving acronyms.

The ability to conduct business in a global environment means we're communicating with people in and from other parts of the world more than ever before. And while English is the international language of business, not everyone is fluent in nuances of the English language. Particularly when you are working in an international setting, self-awareness of the language you use can help you communicate more effectively. No matter the language you're speaking, try to avoid idioms and colloquial language your global colleagues may not understand.

A Final Word on Rule Breaking

Students and English learners often tell me they hear and see a lot of different kinds of English these days, and some of what they run into doesn't seem to follow a rule. They're right. In fact, there are a lot of times you actually don't need any of these rules when you communicate.

Mia: Hey!

Caden: What's up?

Mia: Hungry?

Caden: LOL totally

Mia: Pizza?

Caden: Awesome

Mia: Cool. Let's go

You may have conversations (verbal or text) like this all the time or know people who do. This brings us to context. Context—the setting you're in—is one of the most important concepts and guiding principles in any language. It's okay to bend or even break the rules, depending on the context. When applying for a job or asking a professor for an extension on a deadline, you'll follow the rules a lot more carefully than when responding to a casual invitation from your friend. In general, the more formal the situation, the more words and grammar you'll use. For example:

Thank you so much for studying here with me. I really appreciate it.

Thanks for studying here with me. I appreciate it.

Thanks for studying here. I appreciate it.

Thanks for studying.

Thanks a lot.

Keep Writing

As you come to the end of this book, you might ask, *What's next*? My advice: Write something every day. *But, Michael, what should I write?* Well, you can write in your diary, keep a journal, start a blog, or just use English more in your daily communication. The more you do it, the more you'll see your confidence and skills improving. This is your final assignment. Keep working at it, keep learning, and remember, your last mistake is your best teacher.

Irregular Verbs Cheat Sheet

Here are the present . . . past . . . past participle forms of the most common **irregular verbs**:

(Examples: Let's begin the meeting. The meeting began at 9:00 a.m. Don't enter the room after the meeting has begun.)

arise…arose…arisen

awake…awoke…awoken

be…was, were…been

bear…bore…borne

beat…beat…beaten

become…became…become

begin…began…begun

bend…bent…bent

bet…bet…bet

bite…bit…bitten

bleed…bled…bled

blow…blew…blown

break…broke…broken

breed…bred…bred

bring…brought…brought

build…built…built

burn…burned…burned

burst…burst…burst

buy…bought…bought

catch…caught…caught

choose…chose…chosen

cling…clung…clung

come…came…come

cost…cost…cost

creep…crept…crept

cut…cut…cut

deal…dealt…dealt

dig…dug…dug

do…did…done

draw…drew…drawn

drink…drank…drunk

drive…drove…driven

eat…ate…eaten

fall…fell…fallen

feed…fed…fed

feel…felt…felt

fight…fought…fought

find…found…found

fly…flew…flown

forbid…forbade…forbidden

forget…forgot…forgotten

forgive…forgave…forgiven

freeze…froze…frozen

get…got…got

give…gave…given

go…went…gone

grind…ground…ground

grow…grew…grown

hang…hung…hung

have…had…had

hear…heard…heard

hide…hid…hidden

hit…hit…hit

hold…held…held

hurt…hurt…hurt

keep…kept…kept

kneel…knelt…knelt

know…knew…known

lay…laid…laid

lead…led…led

leave…left…left

lent…lent…lent

lie (recline)…lay…lain

lie…lied…lied

light…lit…lit

lose…lost…lost

make…made…made

mean…meant…meant

meet…met…met

overtake…overtook…overtaken

pay…paid…paid

put…put…put

read…read…read

ride…rode…ridden

ring…rang…rung

rise…rose…risen

run…ran…run

say…said…said

see…saw…seen

sell…sold…sold

send…sent…sent

set…set…set

shake…shook…shaken

shed…shed…shed

shine…shone…shone

shoot…shot…shot

show…showed…shown

shrink…shrank…shrunk

shut…shut…shut

sing…sang…sung

sink…sank…sunk

sit…sat…sat

sleep…slept…slept

slide…slid…slid

smell…smelt…smelled

speak…spoke…spoken

spend…spent…spent

spread…spread…spread

stand…stood…stood

steal…stole…stolen

stick…stuck…stuck

sting…stung…stung

stink…stank…stunk

strike…struck…struck

swear…swore…sworn

sweep…swept…swept

swim…swam…swum

swing…swung…swung

take…took…taken

teach…taught…taught

tear…tore…torn

tell…told…told

think…thought…thought

throw…threw…thrown

understand…understood…understood

wake…woke…woken

wear…wore…worn

win…won…won

wind…wound…wound

write…wrote…written

Spelling Cheat Sheet

Here are some words that are **commonly misspelled**:

1. a lot
2. accept (verb) / except (conjunction and preposition)
3. advice (noun) / advise (verb)
4. clothes (what you wear) / cloths (materials)
5. desert (dry, hot land) / dessert (sweet dessert)
6. effect (noun) / affect (verb)
7. every day (each day) / everyday (adjective)
8. its (possessive form of *it*) / it's (contracted form of *it is*)
9. lose (verb) / loose (adjective)
10. quite (adverb) / quiet (adjective)
11. their (possessive adjective) / they're (contracted form of *they are*) / there (adverb of place)
12. then (adverb) / than (conjunction and preposition)
13. your (possessive adjective) / you're (contracted form of *you are*)

Homonyms are two words that have the same spelling but different meanings.

1. address. . .(noun) location of a building / (verb) to give a speech
2. arm. . .(noun) part of a body / (verb) to give weapons or knowledge
3. back. . .(noun) part of a body / (verb) support
4. bat. . .(noun) an animal that can fly / (verb) to hit
5. book. . .(noun) an object you can read / (verb) to reserve
6. can. . .(noun) a container / (verb) ability
7. chip. . .(noun) a crispy fried snack / (verb) to break a small part
8. down. . .(noun) something made with feathers / (preposition) a direction
9. express. . .(adjective) quick or rapid / (verb) to say
10. fall. . .(noun) a season / (verb) to move down
11. fine. . .(noun) a monetary penalty / (verb) to charge money
12. foot. . .(noun) part of a body / (noun) a unit to measure length
13. grave. . .(noun) a resting place for the deceased / (adjective) very serious
14. hide. . .(noun) the skin of an animal / (verb) to conceal
15. junk. . .(noun) something worthless / (verb) to dispose of
16. kid. . .(noun) a child / (verb) to joke
17. park. . .(noun) an outside recreation place / (verb) to stop a car in a designated space
18. row. . .(noun) a line of seats, people, etc. / (verb) to paddle a small boat
19. sink. . .(noun) a wash basin / (verb) to collapse downward
20. trip. . .(noun) a short journey / (verb) to stumble

Parts of Speech Cheat Sheet

These nine **parts of speech** are the building blocks of sentences. Knowing them will lower your likelihood of writing an incorrect sentence.

adjective	describes a noun or pronoun (lucky, cold, blooming, wary)	The *fluffy* kitten sought *comforting* attention from its *exhausted* owner.
adverb	modifies an adjective or verb by indicating how, when, or where (*slowly*, *today*, *south*)	My mom *clearly* described the event *yesterday* by *slowly* enumerating each part.
article	determines whether a noun is specific (*the*) or nonspecific (*a*, *an*)	Give me *an* apple so that I can add it to *the* stew with *the* chicken and *the* onions.
conjunction	connects words, phrases, or ideas logically (*and*, *but*, *because*, *or*)	We ate cake *and* ice cream *but* no chocolate sauce *or* whipped cream.
interjection	an exclamation that indicates emotion or urgency (*so*, *ouch*, *dude*, *wow*)	*Oh! Hey!* You forgot your essay.
noun	a person, place, thing, or idea (*goats*, *politician*, *joy*, *San Francisco*)	*Jim* sat on the *ground* with his *son* to examine *bugs* under the *rock*.

preposition	connects a noun or pronoun to other words (*from, in, above, to*)	Ellie gave the essay *to* me *after* I climbed *onto* the dais *with* my computer.
pronoun	a word that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase (*he, yours, they, her*)	*They* realized *their* mistake immediately when *their* professor narrowed *his* eyes.
verb	an action word in all its forms (*went, sigh, laugh, weep, crawl*)	I *finished* my essay, and then I *leaped* onto the bar and *celebrated*!

Here are all the parts of a sentence, indicated one by one:

She [pronoun] saw [verb] the [article] extent [noun] of [preposition] the [article] errors [noun] in [preposition] John's [noun] writing [noun], and [conjunction] immediately [adverb] chose [verb] not [negation] to [preposition] date [verb] him [pronoun]. Wow! [interjection]

Glossary

Here are basic grammar terms and phrases used in this book. These are good to know when you need to explain something but don't know a particular word.

acronym: a word made up of the first letters of the name of an organization

active verbs: verbs that represent an action

active voice: a type of sentence that has a subject before the verb

adjective: a word that describes a noun and indicates its characteristics

adjective clause (also relative clause): a clause that begins with a relative pronoun

adverb: a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, and another adverb

adverb clause: a clause that begins with a conjunction

adverbs of completeness: words that indicate a degree of completeness

adverbs of definite frequency: words that indicate exactly how often something occurs

adverbs of indefinite frequency: words that indicate imprecisely how often something occurs

adverbs of manner: words that indicate how something happens

adverbs of place: words that indicate location or direction

adverbs of time: words that indicate how long or how often something occurs

appositive: a phrase that modifies a noun

articles: words that indicate whether a noun is specific or unspecific

attributive adjectives: words that describe the size, color, texture, etc., of a noun

auxiliary verb: a helping verb

base: an infinitive verb used without **to**

capitalization: the uppercase form of a letter

clause: a group of words including a subject and verb but that is not a complete thought

common nouns: nouns that indicate things and places

comparative form: the adjective form used in comparing two or more nouns

complex sentence: a sentence containing one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses

compound noun: a word formed by two consecutive nouns

compound sentence: a sentence connecting two independent clauses

compound word: a word composed of two or more words

conclusion: the summary or ending section of an essay, letter, etc.

conditional: a sentence beginning with *if* or *unless* that indicates a condition

conjunction: a word used to combine two sentences into one sentence

contrast words: words that indicate that two or more nouns are different

copy: the text portion of a website or advertisement

countable noun: a word that represents something that you can count

dangling modifiers: a word or phrase that is not adjacent to the word it is modifying

definite article: the word *the*, which introduces a specific noun

demonstrative pronoun: a pronoun that indicates a specific thing

dependent clause: a clause that provides extra information about the preceding noun

determiner: a word that comes before a noun and identifies which noun we are talking about

emphasis adverbs: adverbs that give added certainty to the word they modify

emphasis: to show special importance

example words: words that illustrate or represent something

first person: the use of the pronoun *I* in writing or speech

focus adverbs: adverbs that are used to draw attention to particular words or phrases

gerund: an *-ing* verb that is used as or functions as a noun

indefinite article: the words *a* or *an* that introduce a nonspecific noun

independent clause: a complete thought that includes a subject and verb

infinitive: a base verb preceded by the preposition *to*

intransitive verb: a verb that is not followed by a direct object

meeting minutes: the official, written record of a business meeting

misplaced phrases: phrases which are placed far from the word or phrase they are modifying

modal verb: an auxiliary verb that indicates necessity or possibility

modifier: a word or phrase that provides extra information about the word that comes after it

noun: a word that indicates a person, place, or thing

noun clause: a clause that begins with a question word

participle: a verb form, such as the *-ed* or *-ing* form

passive voice: a sentence that emphasizes the result of the action of the verb

past participle verb: the form of the verb which is preceded by the auxiliary verb **have**

plural noun: a noun that represents more than one thing

possessive: a noun or pronoun that indicates possession

possessive adjectives: words that come before a noun to indicate who or what owns that noun

possessive noun: the ‘*s* form of the noun to indicate ownership

predicative adjectives: adjectives that describe the subject of a sentence and which follow the verb

preposition: a word that comes before a noun and indicates direction, location, or time

prepositional phrase: a phrase containing a preposition followed by a determiner and a noun

probability adverbs: adverbs that indicate a degree of probability

pronoun: a word that substitutes for a noun

proper nouns: words that indicate the name of a particular person or place

punctuation: various marks used to clarify the meaning of a sentence

quantifier: a word or phrase that indicates the quantity of a noun

relative adverb: the words *when*, *where*, and *why*, which are used join clauses

relative pronoun: a word that precedes a dependent clause

singular noun: a noun that represents one thing

split infinitive: a situation in which a word, usually an adverb, is placed in the middle of an infinitive

stative verbs: verbs that represent a state of being

superlative adjectives: adjectives which indicate the highest degree of comparison

superlative form: the adjective form used to indicate the highest degree of comparison

third person: the use of the pronouns *he*, *she*, or *it* in writing or speech

topic sentence: another word for the thesis or main idea of a paragraph

transitive verb: a verb that can be followed by a direct object

uncountable noun: a word that represents an abstract idea or thing

verb: a word that indicates an action or a state of being

Answer Key

1. Countable Nouns

Sample answers

1. In my town there are a lot of stores and restaurants. There are also two big parks. There's just one museum, but there is a small art gallery as well.
2. My kitchen has a lot of coffee cups and glasses. We have three apples, an orange, and two bananas. There are many appliances, including one coffee maker and one blender.

2. Special Plural Nouns

Sample answers

1. The boys wrote essays about spies, ponies, and toys while listening to waltzes.
2. The casinos in the cities have discos, where families take photos of spies sitting on couches.

3. Irregular Plural Nouns

1. *Incorrect: fish*
2. *Correct*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: people*
5. *Correct*

4. Uncountable Nouns

U C
1. The beauty in this wood is shown in the pattern.
U U C
2. There is a lot of garbage and junk in the old house.
U C U
3. We get a lot of mail. Some is from our customers, but much of it is junk.
U C C C
4. Viktor has a lot of furniture, including several chairs, tables, and sofas in
C
his apartment.
U U U C
5. All of the beer, wine, and soda is in the cooler.

5. Nouns That Can Be Both Countable and Uncountable

Sample answers

1. *I have some free time tomorrow.*
2. *I've used that software many times.*
3. *There isn't enough space in my locker.*
4. *I would like to travel in space someday.*
5. *I had a lot of nice experiences working in sales.*
6. *You can gain experience by doing an internship.*

6. Compound Nouns

1. bus stop
2. coffee cup
3. living room
4. fire drill
5. tennis racket
6. warm-up
7. notebook
8. bookstore

9. dinner table

7. Hyphenated Nouns

1. It's a seven-day refund policy.
2. It was a three-day conference.
3. It's a twenty-pound box.

8. Capitalization

1. There is going to be a presentation on the first three presidents of the United States on Monday, January 3.
2. Bill Gates is the founder of Microsoft.
3. The Amazon River in South America is the second-longest river in the world.
4. We watched the Hollywood classic *Gone with the Wind* in my social studies class today.

9. Determiners

1. There is *a* man at *the* front desk in *the* lobby who can help Ø you.
2. I think we need to buy *a* new TV. *The* one in *the* living room is broken.
3. We met Jane's Ø husband and Ø son at *a* party last night.
4. My sister told me that Ø Franco's is the best French restaurant in *the* city.
5. Can you ask *the* boss if we can go Ø home early tomorrow?

10. Using *a* and *an*

1. We are staying at *a* hotel on the beach.
2. Sorry, but I really don't like Ø football.
3. I would rather listen to Ø music than watch *a* TV program.

4. Frida likes *Ø* art, so we went to *an* art gallery.

11. Using *the*

Sample answers

1. *I have a pet. The pet is a dog. The dog is white.*
2. *When I see the stars in the sky, I think of being an astronaut.*
3. *I prefer the kitchen. In that room, I really like my kitchen table because I can eat and do homework there.*
4. *I like jazz. The saxophone is a nice instrument, and I would love to have the chance to learn to play like Sonny Rollins.*
5. *My friends the Smiths like to go to the beach in the summertime. The Ismails like water sports and fishing. The Lis like art and often go to a museum.*

12. Possessive Adjectives

1. I can't find *a* pen, so can I borrow *your* pen or pencil?
2. I saw Daniela today. The stylist did a great job on *her* hair.
3. Diego had *Ø* shoulder pain because he got hit in *his* shoulder playing softball.

13. Demonstrative Pronouns

1. *Correct*
2. *Correct*
3. *Incorrect: that restaurant.*
4. *Incorrect: these employees*
5. *Incorrect: those girls*

14. Some and Any

1. Why don't you put *some* sugar or maple syrup on your oatmeal?
2. Do you have *any* time to have a meeting tomorrow?
3. Would you like *some* mustard or ketchup on your fries?
4. I need *some* hair wax. Do you have *any* ?
5. Here are the exam results. *Some* of you passed the exam, and *some* of you didn't. If you have *any* questions about your grades, come see me after class.

15. *Each* and *Every*

1. *Incorrect: every six months*
2. *Correct*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: each foot*
5. *Correct*

16. *Many, Much,* and *a Lot of*

1. Greg doesn't have *many* friends, even though he's lived here a year.
2. I don't think we have *much* time to visit that museum.
3. There was *a lot of* rain last month, and that's why we have so *many* flowers.
4. I think too *many* people don't realize how *much* effort it takes to run a business.
5. The rooms in this house have so *much* space.

17. *A Few* and *a Little*

1. *Correct*
2. *Incorrect: so little time*
3. *Correct*

4. *Incorrect: a little money*

18. Adjectives

Sample answer

Zhang Li decided to cook dinner. He bought an *ancient* cookbook that has *fabulous* recipes. When he saw a recipe for chicken soup, he thought to himself, *This looks tasty*. So he went to the store and got some nice *pink* carrots and a nice *triangular* onion. Then he went home and cooked the soup. He made a mistake with the time and ended up cooking the soup *30* hours longer than he should have. His family thought the soup was *super*.

19. Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

1. *Incorrect: something useful*
2. *Correct*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: a big suitcase*
5. *Incorrect: a child asleep on the sofa*

20. The Order of Adjectives

Part 1

Sample answers

Medical: medical exam, medical doctor, medical insurance, medical instrument

Portable: portable grill, portable fan, portable speaker, portable chair

Glass: glass door, glass plate, glass wall, glass cover

Part 2

Sample answer

I have a large, old, round, black, Japanese, iron, portable grill.

21. Adjective Comparisons

Sample answer

I have a toaster, a coffee maker, and a microwave oven. The toaster is smaller than the microwave oven. The microwave oven cooks faster than the toaster. The toaster is the oldest appliance in the room.

22. Participle Adjectives

Sample answers

1. The Museum of Modern Art is interesting because it has a variety of art.
2. Kyle is amazing because he can cook well, he's good at sports, and he's a funny guy.
3. I think a trip to Machu Picchu would be very exciting.
4. I was very bored at the last company meeting with our CEO.
5. I am very interested in learning more about world history.

23. Adverbs of Manner and Place

1. It was snowing hard last Sunday.
2. It's a nice day so let's go outside.
3. It's challenging to live and work abroad.
4. The children play together nicely.
5. I will call you when I get downtown.

24. Adverbs of Time

Sample answers

1. I go to the gym once a week.
2. I never work overtime.
3. Sometimes I go on a business trip.
4. I usually get to the office at 8:30 a.m.
5. I read the newspaper every day.

25. Other Types and Positions of Adverbs

Sample answers

1. I almost missed my train recently.
2. I also speak Japanese.
3. I hardly go bowling.
4. Venere is certainly the best restaurant in my town.

26. Active versus Stative Verbs

1. What (are you working / ~~do you work~~) on today?
2. I (have / ~~am having~~) a lot of things to bring to the conference.
3. Since everyone (~~is agreeing~~ / agrees) with the terms, let's sign the contract.
4. I (~~study~~ / am studying) hard because final exams start tomorrow.
5. This cookie (tastes / ~~is tasting~~) a bit too sweet.

27. Verbs Followed by Gerunds

Sample answers

1. In the office, I dislike using spreadsheets.
2. Last night I finished eating dinner at 7:00 p.m.

3. I’m exercising more and I think I will keep doing that.
4. My school prohibits smoking anywhere on campus.
5. I regret not studying hard enough last year.

28. Verbs Followed by Infinitives

Sample answers

1. I would advise my classmate to focus on studying instead of taking a job.
2. During meetings, I tend to speak up.
3. I would refuse to cheat on an exam because I am scared I would get caught.
4. I taught my coworker how to use a pivot table.
5. I’ve decided to visit the Grand Canyon for my next vacation.

29. Verbs Followed by Either Gerunds or Infinitives

1. *Incorrect: stopped to smoke*
2. *Correct*
3. *Incorrect: tried plugging it in*
4. *Correct*

30. The Three Forms of the Verb

1. I always (listen) to the radio in the car on the way to work.
2. I (went) to Stockholm in 2017.
3. They usually (spend) a lot of time in the office on the weekends.
4. We (bought) a new car last month.
5. Can you (help) me with my project?

31. Simple Present

1. We *need* to finish this project by Friday.
2. The professor *wants* us to work in groups.
3. I really *think* I have to cut down on drinking coffee.
4. She has a high GPA because she *studies* hard.
5. You *cook* very well. Did you learn from your grandmother?

32. Simple Past

1. I heard Emily *persuaded* the boss to let us go home early on Friday.
2. The only way we can improve profits is to *cut* costs.
3. The reason you *lost* points on the essay is that you forgot to write the conclusion.
4. The professor *organized* a field trip to ABC Labs.
5. Have you *identified* the problem with the e-mail server?

33. Simple Future

Sample answers

1. I am going to go to work tomorrow.
2. I'm going shopping on Saturday.
3. I think it will keep raining tomorrow.
4. Work starts at 8:30 in the morning.

34. Present Perfect

1. *Correct*
2. *Incorrect: We visited her*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: Nora was a student*
5. *Correct*

35. Past Perfect

Sample answers

1. I had studied English for four years before I got this book.
2. I had attended a language school before studying at this school.
3. I had studied the past perfect tense before getting this book.
4. I had always thought that.
5. In my last English class I studied idioms. I had not studied those idioms before.

36. Future Perfect

Sample answers

1. I will have finished a big project by noon tomorrow.
2. By next month, I will have started a new job.
3. By next year, I will have gotten my MBA.
4. By the time I am twenty-eight, I will have started medical school.
5. By the time I retire, I will have become a millionaire.

37. Present Progressive

1. *Correct*
2. *Correct*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: The sales meeting starts*
5. *Correct*

38. Past Progressive

Sample answers

1. I was eating breakfast thirty minutes ago.
2. I was working on a budget.
3. I was listening to some Mozart last night.
4. Five years ago, I was living in Miami.
5. I was close with my uncle. He was always telling us interesting stories.

39. Future Progressive

Sample answers

1. I will be eating lunch an hour from now.
2. I will be starting work tomorrow morning at 9:00 a.m.
3. I will be living in the same place in five years' time.
4. I think my boss will never be retiring.
5. I will be finishing studying the lessons in this book soon.

40. Present Perfect Progressive

Sample answers

1. There are reference books all over the table because I have been studying.
2. I have been taking notes for several hours.
3. I have been looking at those beakers for two hours.
4. The boss's door has been closed all day because he is hiring someone.
5. I have been working on an experiment in the lab all night.

41. Past Perfect Progressive

Sample answers

1. The accounting manager was fired because he had been stealing money from the company.
2. A guy walked into me on the sidewalk because he had been texting.
3. Madelyn passed all of her final exams because she had been studying very hard.
4. Isaac fell down at the holiday party because he had been dancing.
5. I was able to understand this lesson because I had been studying it very carefully.

42. Future Perfect Progressive

Sample answers

1. By this time tomorrow, I will have been working here for exactly one year.
2. By my next birthday, I will have been living in California for six months.
3. By this time next week, I will have been married ten years.
4. By the time I finish all of the lessons in this book, I will have been studying for two months straight.
5. By the time I retire, I will have been managing my own company.

43. Modals Part 1: *Must* / *Have to* / *Need to*

1. My flight is at 7:00 a.m. tomorrow, so I *need to* wake up at 4:00 a.m.
2. When you have a job interview, you *must not* be late.
3. Paisley is lucky. Even though she is the store manager, she *doesn't have to* work on weekends.
4. The boss said the marketing plan we submitted looked okay, so we *don't have to* make any changes.

5. I think I *need to* start looking for a new job. This company isn't doing well.

44. Modals Part 2: *Had Better* / *Should* / *Ought to*

1. The sales rep *should* be here soon. He is usually on time.
2. This meeting schedule looks fine to me, but I think we *had better* have Elena look it over before we send it out.
3. The doctor told David that he *had better* stop smoking.
4. I think you *had better* go back and make sure you locked the door.
5. I think I *ought* to should start exercising. I need to lose a little weight.

45. Modals Part 3: *May* / *Might* / *Can*

1. I haven't finished my work, so I *may / might* stay here a bit longer.
2. Why don't you ask Cameron to help you? He *can* use all of the software.
3. Nicolas is a nice guy, but sometimes he *can* talk forever.
4. Grace wasn't feeling well, so she *may / might* not come to work today.
5. Some questions on the TOEFL *can* be tricky, so read them carefully.

46. Modals Part 4: *Could*

Sample answers

1. I wasn't able to play tennis two years ago.
2. I was able to keep my GPA above 3.5 last semester.
3. I don't think it could snow within the next seven days.
4. I don't think an AI robot could replace me at work.
5. I think I could have studied harder over the past year.

47. Causatives

Sample answers

1. My boss makes me start work at 8:00 a.m.
2. If I were the boss, I would let my staff wear casual clothes to work.
3. My coworker had me help them with the spreadsheet this morning.
4. It would be impossible for anyone to get me to wake up at 5:00 a.m. to go hiking.
5. I want to have my house painted.

48. Conditionals

1. *Incorrect: water freezes*
2. *Correct*
3. *Incorrect: if I had known about it*
4. *Correct*
5. *Correct*

49. Prepositions of Time

1. The final exam begins *at* 4:00 p.m.
2. The next team meeting is *on* June 3.
3. The nursing course only starts *in* the spring semester.
4. I can't believe the boss is making us work *on* the weekend.
5. Charlotte became the office manager *in* 2002.
6. There's not much traffic *at* night.

50. Prepositions of Location

1. Aliyah met her husband when she was working *at* Yahoo.
2. I was *at* work until 11:00 p.m. trying to finish the marketing project.

3. I didn't realize you were *in* the kitchen.
4. Scarlett lives *on* the south side of the city.
5. The speaker system is *in* the middle of the table.

51. Preposition Collocations

Sample answers

1. Keeping up with changes in technology is necessary for success in the twenty-first century.
2. I've made an attempt at playing golf recently.
3. I participated in an HR seminar last week.
4. I am familiar with three foreign languages.
5. I was impressed by my manager's speech last month.

52. Phrasal Verbs

Sample answers:

ask out, back up, cut out, end up, find out, give up, kick out, look after, make up, put out, take in, turn off, etc.

53. Basic Sentence Structure and Clauses

1. *Independent clause*
2. *Dependent clause*
3. *Independent clause*
4. *Dependent clause*
5. *Dependent clause*

54. Compound and Complex Sentences

1. Even though Manuel had the necessary experience and qualifications, he was turned down for the job.

2. We recorded the CEO's speech, which he gave at the conference.
3. Carson wasn't able to pass the final exam because he didn't put enough effort into studying.
4. Yumi likes to study in the public library, which has a number of private study rooms.
5. We won't be able to start the meeting until everyone has arrived at the office.

55. Adjective Clauses, Noun Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses

Sample answers

1. I remember a time when there was no Internet.
2. Can you tell me where the conference room is?
3. Unless we work faster, we won't be able to finish this project.
4. The boss asked me to work this weekend, which doesn't make me very happy.
5. Technology, which affects all of our lives, advances at an incredible rate these days.

56. Commas, Hyphens, Dashes, and Apostrophes

The First Day on the Job

Today was the first day of work for the part-time and full-time trainees at Acme Corporation's headquarters in LA. Even though everyone's mood was upbeat and they were open-minded, many of them were a little on edge. One of the trainees' tasks was to read the company's HR handbook—the whole handbook! It's over thirty-five chapters. Actually, they were given ample time to complete the task, and some of the trainers were on standby to assist them.

57. Colons and Semicolons

1. Ana graduated from university in three and a half years; her next goal is to pass the CPA exam.
2. We need to set up the conference room with the equipment for the meeting: the projector, the remote control, and the screen.
3. There are three ways to grow your business: social media, which will attract potential customers; a mailing list to keep in touch with current customers; and a website to provide information about your business.
4. Many new managers face the same problem: They try to keep the same relationships that they had before becoming a manager.
5. I'll never forget what my grandfather used to tell me: Always keep your sense of humor and never worry about anything you can't control.

58. Parentheses and Brackets

1. Her research described the effects of Prohibition (1920–1933) on the New York City economy.
2. To enter the building, you need to (1) show a photo ID, (2) pass through the metal detector, and (3) pass through the facial recognition scanner.
3. The major automakers [Ford, GM, and Chrysler] use parts produced by a number of factories in Mexico.
4. The volume of work produced by Natsume Sōseki [one of the most famous figures in Japanese literature] rivals that of Franz Kafka.

59. Quotation Marks

"Have a seat, Mr. Jameson," said the lawyer. "This won't take long."

Mr. Jameson sat back on the sofa. He had a curious look on his face, and he could not understand why they were staring at him. He looked right at the lawyer's face and said: "Let's get to the point. What do you want me to do?"

"It's important for us to find the truth. A man's life is at stake," replied the lawyer.

Their eyes met. "I think the truth is clear, don't you?" Mr. Jameson asked.

"What exactly," chimed the lawyer, "is clear? We want to hear that from you."

60. Active and Passive Voice

1. The report was completed by Eli.
2. (no passive sentence possible)
3. The student advisor solved the issue.
4. (no active sentence possible)
5. (no active sentence possible)

61. Double Negatives

1. *Correct*
2. *Incorrect: he never travels*
3. *Correct*
4. *Incorrect: I seldom have*
5. *Incorrect: I haven't done anything*

62. First and Third Person

Sample answers

I thought *The Godfather* was a well-made drama. In addition to getting a look at the activities of an organized crime group, we could see how important family life was to the characters . . .

The Godfather was an acclaimed dramatic film. In addition to presenting the activities of an organized crime group, this movie provides a glimpse into the importance of family life for the characters . . .

63. Wordiness

Sample answer

Even though company policy contains rules regarding employee attendance, many employees arrive late. The company president has asked me to inform everyone that if you are late more than three times, you may face termination.

64. Misplaced Words and Sentence Logic

Sample answers

1. When I walked away from the counter, the coffee cup fell on the floor.
2. He was talking quickly, which confused me.
3. Wash your hands often to prevent colds.
4. I think only my sister knows my mom's recipes.
5. I read in the company newsletter that the CEO is going to give a speech.

65. Topic Sentence

Sample answers

1. People enjoy the rush of adrenaline from participating in extreme sports.
2. I cannot support the plan to build a new shopping mall in my neighborhood.
3. I prefer to work at home rather than at the office.

66. Paragraph Body

Sample answer

The greatest invention of the twentieth century was the computer. First of all, the computer allows people to work more efficiently and accurately. Its software can be used for word processing, complex calculations, and the creation of presentations. In addition, computer databases help workers record and extract information significantly faster than manual systems. Furthermore, computers make it possible for people to work together even if they are in distant physical locations.

67. Paragraph Conclusion

Sample answer

Such workplace enhancements are only possible with computers.

68. Transition Words

Sample answer

Technology has given us more options for communication. First of all, mobile phones allow people to communicate with others regardless of their physical location. For instance, text messaging provides a way to instantly contact a friend or family member. Additionally, social media gives us the opportunity to reach a wide group of people at one time, and platforms such as YouTube make it easy for anyone to broadcast their

ideas and opinions to a global audience. As a result of the development of these different options for communication, people can keep in touch with others in ways that were not even imaginable in previous generations.

Further Reading and Resources

My website, myhappyenglish.com, contains additional free English lessons, tips, and tricks, covering phrasal verbs, idioms, and so much more English that you may often hear but not know what it means. It also features the Happy English Podcast with weekly English lessons.

Here are some additional favorite books and websites where you can continue building your English knowledge and find answers to more complex grammar questions.

Books

The Blue Book of Grammar and Punctuation, Jane Straus

Complete English Grammar Rules, Farlex International

The Elements of Style, William Strunk, Jr.

English Grammar (Series), Betty S. Azar

ESL Grammar, Mary Ellen Muñoz Page

Grammar in Use (Series), Raymond Murphy

A Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations, Kate L. Turabian

Oxford Modern English Grammar, Bas Aarts

Perfect English Grammar, Grant Barrett

Practical English Usage, Michael Swan

Websites

English Club: englishclub.com/grammar

English Grammar: englishgrammar.org

English Grammar Online: ego4u.com

Grammar Girl: Quick and Dirty Tips: quickanddirtytips.com/grammar-girl

Grammarly Blog: grammarly.com/blog/category/handbook

Guide to Grammar and Writing: guidetogrammar.org/grammar/index.htm

Learn American English Online: learnamericanenglishonline.com

Learn English British Council: learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/english-grammar-reference

Perfect English Grammar: perfect-english-grammar.com

Purdue Online Writing Lab: owl.english.purdue.edu/owl

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Michael DiGiacomo started teaching English as a foreign language to adults at a private language school in Sendai, Japan, in 1994. In 2010, he formed Happy English, his own ESL tutoring company in New York. He teaches private lessons, hosts a podcast, and has a YouTube channel to help students all over the world learn English.

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To the student (working without a teacher)

This is a grammar book for elementary students of English. There are 115 units in the book and each unit is about a different point of English grammar. There is a list of units at the beginning of the book (*Contents*).

Do not study all the units in order from beginning to end. It is better to choose the units that you need to do. For example, if you have a problem with the present perfect (*I have been, he has done* etc.), study Units 15–20.

Use the *Contents* or the *Index* (at the back of the book) to find the unit (or units) that you need.

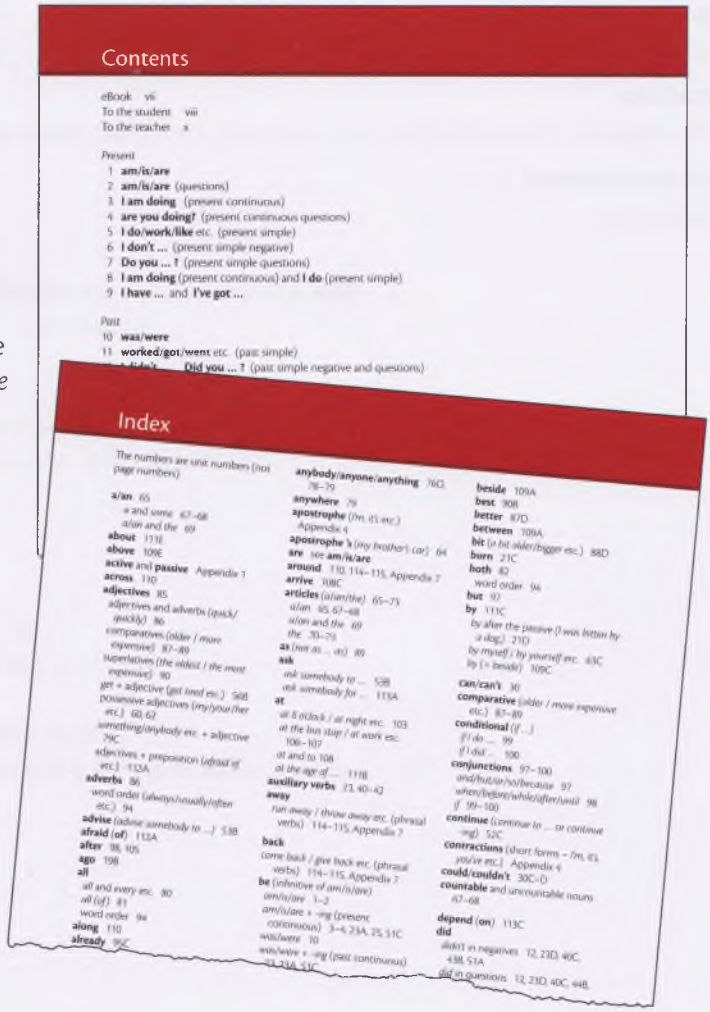

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come back / give back etc. (phrasal verbs) 114–115, Appendix 7
be (infinitive of am/is/are)
am/is/are 1–2
am/is/are + -ing (present continuous) 3–4, 21A, 25, 51C
was/were 10
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beside 109A
best 90B
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between 109A
bit (a bit older/bigger etc.) 88D
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both 82
word order 94
but 97
by 111C
by after the passive (I was bitten by a dog) 21D
by myself / by yourself etc. 63C
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can/can't 30
comparative (older / more expensive etc.) 87–89
conditional (if ...)
if I do ... 99
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and/but/or/so/because 97
when/before/while/after/until 98
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continue (continue to ... or continue -ing) 52C
contractions (short forms – I'm, it's, you've etc.) Appendix 4
could/couldn't 30C–D
countable and uncountable nouns 67–68
depend (on) 113C
did
didn't in negatives 12, 23D, 40C, 43B, 51A
did in questions 12, 23D, 40C, 44B,

If you are not sure which units you need to study, use the *Study guide* at the back of the book.

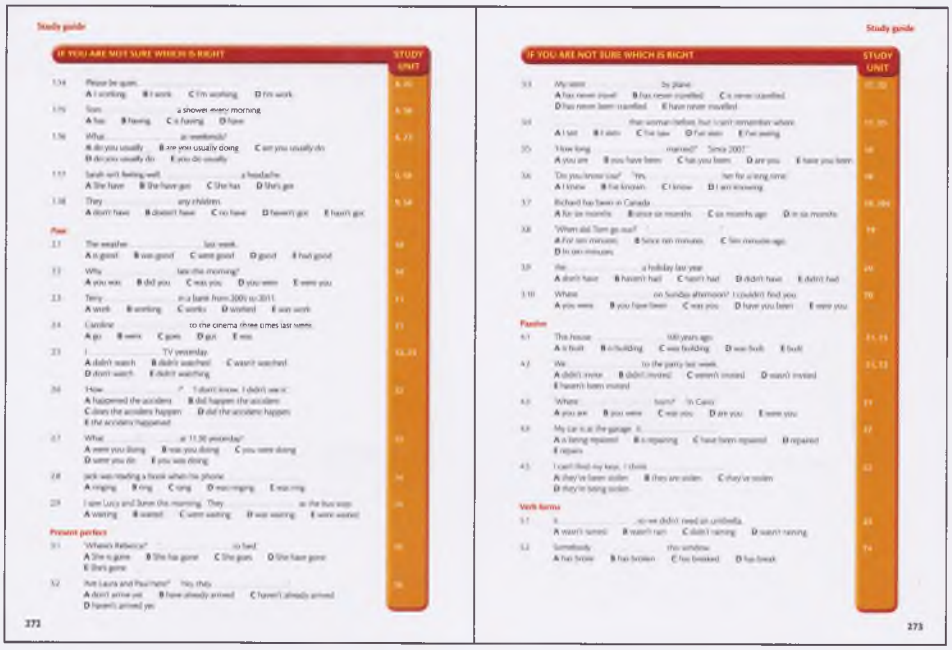

Study guide

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT — STUDY UNIT

Study guide (pages 271–282)

Each unit is two pages. The information is on the left-hand page and the exercises are on the right:

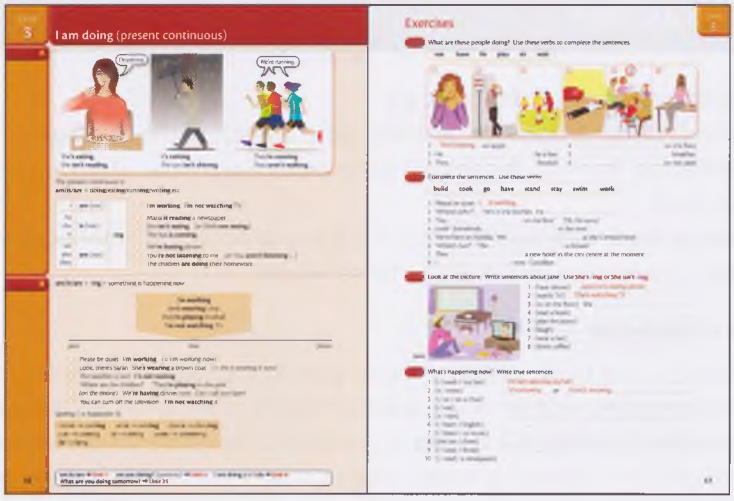

Information **Exercises**

Study the left-hand page (information), and then do the exercises on the right-hand page.

Use the *Key* to check your answers. The *Key* is on pages 283–309.

Study the left-hand page again if necessary.

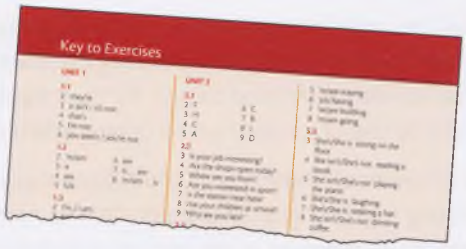

Don't forget the seven *Appendices* at the back of the book (pages 243–251). These will give you information about active and passive forms, irregular verbs, short forms, spelling and phrasal verbs.

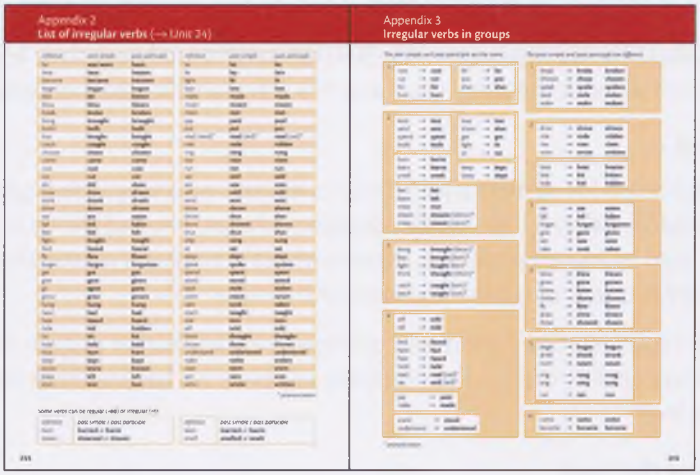

There are also *Additional exercises* at the back of the book (pages 252–270). There is a list of these exercises on page 252.

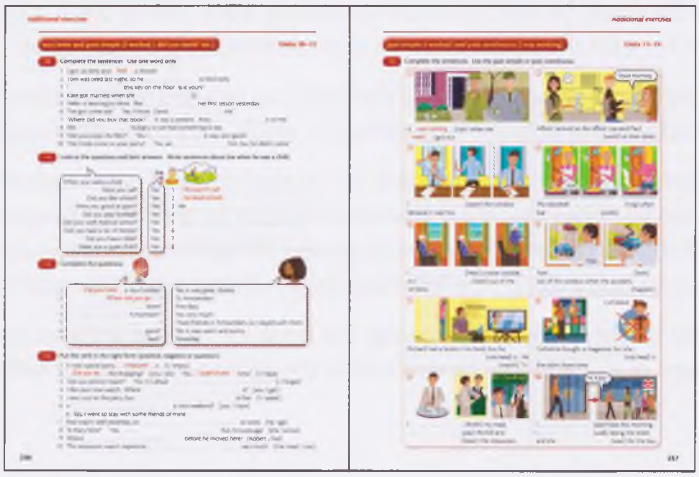

To the teacher

The most important features of this book are:

- It is a grammar book. It does not deal with other aspects of the language.
- It is for elementary learners. It does not cover areas of grammar which are not normally taught at elementary level.
- It is a reference book with exercises. It is not a course book and is not organised progressively.
- It is addressed to learners and intended for self-study.

Organisation of the book

There are 115 units in the book, each one focusing on a particular area of grammar. The material is organised in grammatical categories, such as tenses, questions and articles. Units are *not* ordered according to difficulty, and should therefore be selected and used in the order appropriate for the learner(s). The book should *not* be worked through from beginning to end. The units are listed in the *Contents* and there is a comprehensive *Index* at the end of the book.

Each unit has the same format consisting of two facing pages. The grammar point is presented and explained on the left-hand page and the corresponding exercises are on the right. There are seven *Appendices* (pages 243–251) dealing with active and passive forms, irregular verbs, short forms (contractions), spelling and phrasal verbs. It might be useful for teachers to draw students' attention to these.

At the back of the book there is a set of *Additional exercises* (pages 252–270). These exercises provide 'mixed' practice bringing together grammar points from a number of different units (especially those concerning verb forms). There are 35 exercises in this section and there is a full list on page 252.

Also at the back of the book there is a *Study guide* to help students decide which units to study – see page 271.

Finally, there is a *Key* (pages 283–309) for students to check their answers to all the exercises in the book. An edition without the *Study guide* and *Key* is available for teachers who would prefer it for their students.

Level

The book is for elementary learners, i.e. learners with very little English, but not for complete beginners. It is intended mainly for elementary students who are beyond the early stages of a beginners' course. It could also be used by low-intermediate learners whose grammar is weaker than other aspects of their English or who have problems with particular areas of basic grammar.

The explanations are addressed to the elementary learner and are therefore as simple and as short as possible. The vocabulary used in the examples and exercises has also been restricted so that the book can be used at this level.

Using the book

The book can be used by students working alone (see *To the student*) or as supplementary course material. In either case the book can serve as an elementary grammar book.

When used as course material, the book can be used for immediate consolidation or for later revision or remedial work. It might be used by the whole class or by individual students needing extra help and practice.

In some cases it may be desirable to use the left-hand pages (presentation and explanation) in class, but it should be noted that these have been written for individual study and reference. In most cases, it would probably be better for teachers to present the grammar point in their preferred way with the exercises being done for homework. The left-hand page is then available for later reference by the student.

Some teachers may prefer to keep the book for revision and remedial work. In this case, individual students or groups of students can be directed to the appropriate units for self-study and practice.

am/is/are

A

B

positive

I	**am**	(I'**m**)
he she it	**is**	(he'**s**) (she'**s**) (it'**s**)
we you they	**are**	(we'**re**) (you'**re**) (they'**re**)

short form

negative

I	**am not**	(I'**m not**)		
he she it	**is not**	(he'**s not** (she'**s not** (it'**s not**	*or* *or* *or*	he **isn't**) she **isn't**) it **isn't**)
we you they	**are not**	(we'**re not** (you'**re not** (they'**re not**	*or* *or* *or*	we **aren't**) you **aren't**) they **aren't**)

short forms

- I'**m** cold. Can you close the window, please?
- I'**m** 32 years old. My sister **is** 29.
- Steve **is** ill. He'**s** in bed.
- My brother **is** scared of dogs.
- It'**s** ten o'clock. You'**re** late again.
- Ann and I **are** good friends.
- Your keys **are** on the table.

- I'**m** tired, but I'**m not** hungry.
- Lisa **isn't** interested in politics. She'**s** interested in art.
- James **isn't** a teacher. He'**s** a student.
- Those people **aren't** English. They'**re** Australian.
- It'**s** sunny today, but it **isn't** warm.

C

that'**s** = that **is** there'**s** = there **is** here'**s** = here **is**

- Thank you. That'**s** very kind of you.
- Look! There'**s** Chris.
- 'Here'**s** your key.' 'Thank you.'

am/is/are (questions) ➜ **Unit 2** **there is/are** ➜ **Unit 37** **a/an** ➜ **Unit 65** short forms ➜ **Appendix 4**

Exercises

1.1 Write the short form (**she's / we aren't** etc.).

1 she is ...she's...
2 they are .....
3 it is not .....
4 that is .....
5 I am not .....
6 you are not .....

1.2 Write **am, is** or **are**.

1 The weather ...is... nice today.
2 I ..... not rich.
3 This bag ..... heavy.
4 These bags ..... heavy.
5 Look! There ..... Helen.
6 My brother and I ..... good tennis players.
7 Emily ..... at home. Her children ..... at school.
8 I ..... a taxi driver. My sister ..... a nurse.

1.3 Complete the sentences.

1 Steve is ill. ...He's... in bed.
2 I'm not hungry, but ..... thirsty.
3 Mr Thomas is a very old man. ..... 98.
4 These chairs aren't beautiful, but ..... comfortable.
5 The weather is nice today. ..... warm and sunny.
6 '..... late.' 'No, I'm not. I'm early!'
7 Catherine isn't at home. ..... at work.
8 '..... your coat.' 'Oh, thank you very much.'

1.4 Look at Lisa's sentences in 1A. Now write sentences about yourself.

1 (name?) My .....
2 (age?) I .....
3 (from?) I .....
4 (job?) I .....
5 (favourite colour or colours?) My .....
6 (interested in ... ?) I .....

1.5 Write sentences for the pictures. Use:

angry **cold** **hot** **hungry** **scared** ~~**thirsty**~~

1 ...She's thirsty.
2 They .....
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

1.6 Write true sentences, positive or negative. Use **is/isn't** or **are/aren't**.

1 (it / hot today) ...It isn't hot today... or ...It's hot today...
2 (it / windy today) It .....
3 (my hands / cold) My .....
4 (Brazil / a very big country) .....
5 (diamonds / cheap) .....
6 (Toronto / in the US) .....

Write true sentences, positive or negative. Use **I'm / I'm not**.

7 (tired) ...I'm tired... or ...I'm not tired...
8 (hungry) I .....
9 (a good swimmer) .....
10 (interested in football) .....

→ **Additional exercise 1** (page 252)

Unit 2

am/is/are (questions)

A

positive

I	**am**
he she it	**is**
we you they	**are**

question

am	I?
is	he? she? it?
are	we? you? they?

What's your name?

Are you married?

How old are you?

Are you a student?

David.

No, I'm not.

25.

Yes, I am.

- ☐ '**Am I** late?' 'No, **you're** on time.'
- ☐ '**Is your mother** at home?' 'No, **she's** out.'
- ☐ '**Are your parents** at home?' 'No, **they're** out.'
- ☐ '**Is it** cold in your room?' 'Yes, a little.'
- ☐ **Your shoes are** nice. **Are they** new?

We say:

- ☐ **Is she** at home? / **Is your mother** at home? (*not* Is at home your mother?)
- ☐ **Are they** new? / **Are your shoes** new? (*not* Are new your shoes?)

B

Where ... ? / **What** ... ? / **Who** ... ? / **How** ... ? / **Why** ... ?

- ☐ **Where is** your mother? Is she at home?
- ☐ '**Where are** you from?' 'Canada.'
- ☐ '**What colour is** your car?' 'It's red.'
- ☐ '**How old is** Joe?' 'He's 24.'
- ☐ **How are** your parents? Are they well?
- ☐ These shoes are nice. **How much are** they?
- ☐ This hotel isn't very good. **Why is** it so expensive?

what**'s** = what **is** who**'s** = who **is** how**'s** = how **is** where**'s** = where **is**

- ☐ **What's** the time?
- ☐ **Where's** Lucy?
- ☐ **Who's** that man?
- ☐ **How's** your father?

C

Short answers

Yes,	I	**am.**	No,	I'**m**	**not.**	*or*	No,	he she it	**isn't.**
	he she it	**is.**		he'**s** she'**s** it'**s**				we you they	**aren't.**
	we you they	**are.**		we'**re** you'**re** they'**re**					

- ☐ '**Are you** tired?' '**Yes, I am.**'
- ☐ '**Are you** hungry?' '**No, I'm not**, but I'm thirsty.'
- ☐ '**Is your friend** English?' '**Yes, he is.**'
- ☐ '**Are these your keys?**' '**Yes, they are.**'
- ☐ '**That's** my seat.' '**No, it isn't.**'

am/is/are → Unit 1 questions → Unit 44 **what/which/how** → Unit 47

Exercises

2.1 Find the right answers for the questions.

1 Where's the camera?	A London.	1 G
2 Is your car blue?	B No, I'm not.	2 .....
3 Is Kate from London?	C Yes, you are.	3 .....
4 Am I late?	D My sister.	4 .....
5 Where's Amy from?	E Black.	5 .....
6 What colour is your bag?	F No, it's black.	6 .....
7 Are you hungry?	G In your bag.	7 .....
8 How is George?	H No, she's American.	8 .....
9 Who's that woman?	I Very well.	9 .....

2.2 Make questions with these words.

1 (is / at home / your mother) Is your mother at home ?
2 (your parents / are / well) Are your parents well ?
3 (interesting / is / your job) ..... ?
4 (the shops / are / open today) ..... ?
5 (from / where / you / are) ..... ?
6 (interested in sport / you / are) ..... ?
7 (is / near here / the station) ..... ?
8 (at school / are / your children) ..... ?
9 (you / are / late / why) ..... ?

2.3 Complete the questions. Use **What ... / Who ... / Where ... / How ... .**

1 How are your parents?	They're very well.
2 ..... the bus stop?	At the end of the street.
3 ..... your children?	Five, six and ten.
4 ..... these oranges?	£1.50 a kilo.
5 ..... your favourite sport?	Skiing.
6 ..... the man in this photo?	That's my father.
7 ..... your new shoes?	Black.

2.4 Write the questions.

PAUL

1 (name?) What's your name?	Paul.
2 (American?)	No, I'm Australian.
3 (how old?)	I'm 30.
4 (a teacher?)	No, I'm a lawyer.
5 (married?)	Yes, I am.
6 (wife a lawyer?)	No, she's a designer.
7 (from?)	She's Italian.
8 (her name?)	Anna.
9 (how old?)	She's 27.

2.5 Write short answers (**Yes, I am. / No, he isn't.** etc.).

1 Are you married? No, I'm not.
2 Are you thirsty? .....
3 Is it cold today? .....
4 Are your hands cold? .....
5 Is it dark now? .....
6 Are you a teacher? .....

→ **Additional exercises 1–2** (pages 252–53)

Unit 3

I am doing (present continuous)

A

She**'s eating**.
She **isn't reading**.

It**'s raining**.
The sun **isn't shining**.

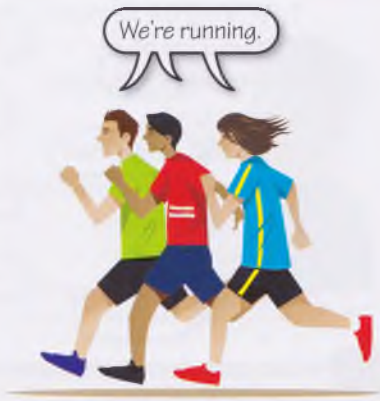

They**'re running**.
They **aren't walking**.

The present continuous is:
am/**is**/**are** + do**ing**/eat**ing**/run**ning**/writ**ing** etc.

I	**am** (not)	**-ing**
he she it	**is** (not)	
we you they	**are** (not)	

- I**'m working**. I**'m not watching** TV.
- Maria **is reading** a newspaper.
- She **isn't eating**. (*or* She**'s not eating**.)
- The bus **is coming**.
- We**'re having** dinner.
- You**'re not listening** to me. (*or* You **aren't listening** ...)
- The children **are doing** their homework.

B

am/**is**/**are** + **-ing** = something is happening *now*:

I**'m working**
she**'s wearing** a hat
they**'re playing** football
I**'m not watching** TV

past — *now* — *future*

- Please be quiet. I**'m working**. (= I'm working now)
- Look, there's Sarah. She**'s wearing** a brown coat. (= she is wearing it now)
- The weather is nice. It**'s not raining**.
- 'Where are the children?' 'They**'re playing** in the park.'
- *(on the phone)* We**'re having** dinner now. Can I call you later?
- You can turn off the television. I**'m not watching** it.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

come → co**m**ing write → writ**i**ng dance → danc**i**ng
run → ru**nn**ing sit → si**tt**ing swim → swi**mm**ing
lie → l**y**ing

am/is/are ➜ Unit 1 **are you doing?** (questions) ➜ Unit 4 **I am doing** and **I do** ➜ Unit 8
What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25

Exercises

3.1 What are these people doing? Use these verbs to complete the sentences:

~~eat~~ **have** **lie** **play** **sit** **wait**

1 She's eating an apple.
2 He ..... for a bus.
3 They ..... football.
4 ..... on the floor.
5 ..... breakfast.
6 ..... on the table.

3.2 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs:

build **cook** **go** **have** **stand** **stay** **swim** ~~**work**~~

1 Please be quiet. I 'm working .
2 'Where's John?' 'He's in the kitchen. He ..... .'
3 'You ..... on my foot.' 'Oh, I'm sorry.'
4 Look! Somebody ..... in the river.
5 We're here on holiday. We ..... at the Central Hotel.
6 'Where's Sue?' 'She ..... a shower.'
7 They ..... a new hotel in the city centre at the moment.
8 I ..... now. Goodbye.

3.3 Look at the picture. Write sentences about Jane. Use **She's -ing** or **She isn't -ing**.

Jane

1 (have dinner) Jane isn't having dinner.
2 (watch TV) She's watching TV.
3 (sit on the floor) She .....
4 (read a book) .....
5 (play the piano) .....
6 (laugh) .....
7 (wear a hat) .....
8 (drink coffee) .....

3.4 What's happening now? Write true sentences.

1 (I / wash / my hair) I'm not washing my hair.
2 (it / snow) It's snowing. or It isn't snowing.
3 (I / sit / on a chair) .....
4 (I / eat) .....
5 (it / rain) .....
6 (I / learn / English) .....
7 (I / listen / to music) .....
8 (the sun / shine) .....
9 (I / wear / shoes) .....
10 (I / read / a newspaper) .....

Unit 4

are you doing?
(present continuous questions)

A

positive question

I	**am**	**doing** **working** **going** **staying** etc.
he she it	**is**	
we you they	**are**	

am	I	**doing** **working** **going** **staying** etc.
is	he she it	
are	we you they	

- ☐ '**Are** you **feeling** OK?' 'Yes, I'm fine, thanks.'
- ☐ '**Is** it **raining**?' 'Yes, take an umbrella.'
- ☐ Why **are** you **wearing** a coat? It's not cold.
- ☐ 'What**'s** Paul **doing**?' 'He**'s studying** for his exams.'
- ☐ 'What **are** the children **doing**?' 'They**'re watching** TV.'
- ☐ Look, there's Emily! Where**'s** she **going**?
- ☐ Who **are** you **waiting** for? **Are** you **waiting** for Sue?

B

Study the word order:

is/are + *subject* + **-ing**

	Is	he	**working** today?
	Is	Ben	**working** today? (*not* Is working Ben today?)
Where	**are**	they	**going**?
Where	**are**	those people	**going**? (*not* Where are going those people?)

C

Short answers

Yes,	I	**am**.
	he she it	**is**.
	we you they	**are**.

No,	I'**m**	**not**.
	he'**s** she'**s** it'**s**	
	we'**re** you'**re** they'**re**	

or

No,	he she it	**isn't**.
	we you they	**aren't**.

- ☐ '**Are** you **going** now?' '**Yes, I am.**'
- ☐ '**Is** Ben **working** today?' '**Yes, he is.**'
- ☐ '**Is** it **raining**?' '**No, it isn't.**'
- ☐ '**Are** your friends **staying** at a hotel?' '**No, they aren't.** They're staying with me.'

I am doing ➜ Unit 3 **What are you doing tomorrow?** ➜ Unit 25 questions ➜ Units 44–47

Exercises

4.1 Look at the pictures and write the questions.

4.2 Look at the pictures and complete the questions. Use:

cry **eat** **go** **laugh** **look at** ~~**read**~~

4.3 Make questions from these words. Put the words in the right order.

1 (is / working / Ben / today) Is Ben working today ?
2 (what / the children / are / doing) What are the children doing ?
3 (you / are / listening / to me) ..... ?
4 (where / your friends / are / going) ..... ?
5 (are / watching / your parents / TV) ..... ?
6 (what / Jessica / is / cooking) ..... ?
7 (why / you / are / looking / at me) ..... ?
8 (is / coming / the bus) ..... ?

4.4 Write short answers (**Yes, I am.** / **No, he isn't.** etc.).

1 Are you watching TV? No, I'm not.
2 Are you wearing a watch? .....
3 Are you eating something? .....
4 Is it raining? .....
5 Are you sitting on the floor? .....
6 Are you feeling well? .....

→ **Additional exercise 3 (page 253)**

Unit 5

I do/work/like etc. (present simple)

A

They have a lot of books.
They **read** a lot.

He's eating an ice cream.
He **likes** ice cream.

They **read** / he **likes** / I **work** etc. = the *present simple*:

I/we/you/they	**read**	**like**	**work**	**live**	**watch**	**do**	**have**
he/she/it	**reads**	**likes**	**works**	**lives**	**watches**	**does**	**has**

Remember:
he work**s** / **she** live**s** / **it** rain**s** etc.

- **I work** in a shop. **My brother works** in a bank. (*not* My brother work)
- **Lucy lives** in London. **Her parents live** in Scotland.
- **It rains** a lot in winter.

I **have** → he/she/it **has**:

- **Joe has** a shower every day.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

-es after **-s** / **-sh** / **-ch**:	pass → pass**es**	finish → finish**es**	watch → watch**es**
-y → **-ies**:	study → stud**ies**	try → tr**ies**	
also:	do → do**es**	go → go**es**	

B

We use the present simple for things that are true in general, or for things that happen sometimes or all the time:

- I **like** big cities.
- Your English is good. You **speak** very well.
- Tom **works** very hard. He **starts** at 7.30 and **finishes** at 8 o'clock in the evening.
- The earth **goes** round the sun.
- We **do** a lot of different things in our free time.
- It **costs** a lot of money to build a hospital.

C

always/never/often/usually/sometimes + present simple

- Sue **always gets** to work early. (*not* Sue gets always)
- I **never eat** breakfast. (*not* I eat never)
- We **often go** away at weekends.
- Mark **usually plays** football on Sundays.
- I **sometimes walk** to work, but not very often.

I don't ... (negative) ➜ Unit 6 **Do you** ... ? (questions) ➜ Unit 7 **I am doing** and **I do** ➜ Unit 8
always/usually/often etc. (word order) ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

5.1 Write these verbs with **-s** or **-es**.

1 (read) she ...reads... 3 (fly) it ..... 5 (have) she .....
2 (think) he ..... 4 (dance) he ..... 6 (finish) it .....

5.2 Complete the sentences about the people in the pictures. Use:

eat **go** **live** ~~**play**~~ **play** **sleep**

1 ...He plays... the piano.
2 They ..... in a very big house.
3 ..... a lot of fruit.
4 ..... tennis.
5 ..... to the cinema a lot.
6 ..... seven hours a night.

5.3 Complete the sentences. Use:

boil **close** **cost** **cost** **like** **like** **meet** **open** ~~**speak**~~ **teach** **wash**

1 Maria ...speaks... four languages.
2 The shops in the city centre usually ..... at 9 o'clock in the morning.
3 The City Museum ..... at 5 o'clock in the evening.
4 Tina is a teacher. She ..... mathematics to young children.
5 My job is very interesting. I ..... a lot of people.
6 Peter's car is always dirty. He never ..... it.
7 Food is expensive. It ..... a lot of money.
8 Shoes are expensive. They ..... a lot of money.
9 Water ..... at 100 degrees Celsius.
10 Laura and I are good friends. I ..... her and she ..... me.

5.4 Write sentences from these words. Use the right form of the verb (**arrive** or **arrives** etc.).

1 (always / early / Sue / arrive) ...Sue always arrives early.....
2 (to the cinema / never / I / go) I .....
3 (work / Martina / hard / always) .....
4 (like / chocolate / children / usually) .....
5 (Jackie / parties / enjoy / always) .....
6 (often / people's names / I / forget) .....
7 (TV / Sam / watch / never) .....
8 (usually / dinner / we / have / at 7.30) .....
9 (Kate / always / nice clothes / wear) .....

5.5 Write sentences about yourself. Use **always/never/often/usually/sometimes.**

1 (watch TV in the evening) ...I usually watch TV in the evening.....
2 (read in bed) I .....
3 (get up before 7 o'clock) .....
4 (go to work/school by bus) .....
5 (drink coffee in the morning) .....

I don't ... (present simple negative)

A

The present simple negative is **don't/doesn't** + *verb*:

She **doesn't drink** coffee.

He **doesn't like** his job.

positive

I we you they	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**works** **likes** **does** **has**

negative

I we you they	**don't** **(do not)**	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**doesn't** **(does not)**	

- I **drink** coffee, but I **don't drink** tea.
- Sue **drinks** tea, but she **doesn't drink** coffee.
- You **don't work** very hard.
- We **don't watch** TV very often.
- The weather is usually nice. It **doesn't rain** very often.
- Sam and Chris **don't know** many people.

B

Remember:

I/we/you/they	**don't** ...
he/she/it	**doesn't** ...

- **I don't** like football.
- **He doesn't** like football.

- **I don't** like Fred and **Fred doesn't** like me. (*not* Fred don't like)
- **My car doesn't** use much petrol. (*not* My car don't use)
- Sometimes he is late, but **it doesn't** happen very often.

C

We use **don't/doesn't** + *infinitive* (don't **like** / doesn't **speak** / doesn't **do** etc.):

- I **don't like** washing the car. I **don't do** it very often.
- Sarah **speaks** Spanish, but she **doesn't speak** Italian. (*not* doesn't speaks)
- David **doesn't do** his job very well. (*not* David doesn't his job)
- Paula **doesn't** usually **have** breakfast. (*not* doesn't ... has)

I do/work/like etc. (present simple) ➜ Unit 5 **Do you** ... ? (present simple questions) ➜ Unit 7

Exercises

6.1 Write the negative.

1 I play the piano very well. I don't play the piano very well.
2 Anna plays the piano very well. Anna .....
3 They know my phone number. They .....
4 We work very hard. .....
5 He has a bath every day. .....
6 You do the same thing every day. .....

6.2 Study the information and write sentences with **like**.

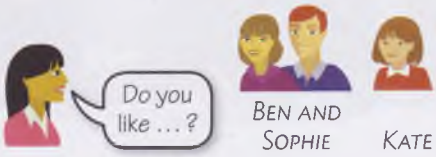

	Ben and Sophie	Kate	You
1 classical music?	yes	no	?
2 boxing?	no	yes	
3 horror movies?	yes	no	

1 Ben and Sophie like classical music.
Kate .....
I ..... classical music.

2 Ben and Sophie .....
Kate .....
I .....

3 .....
.....
.....

6.3 Write about yourself. Use:

I never ... or **I often ...** or **I don't ... very often.**

1 (watch TV) I don't watch TV very often. or I never watch TV. or I often watch TV.
2 (go to the theatre) .....
3 (ride a bike) .....
4 (eat in restaurants) .....
5 (travel by train) .....

6.4 Complete the sentences. All of them are negative. Use **don't/doesn't** + these verbs:

cost **go** **know** ~~**rain**~~ **see** **use** **wear**

1 The weather here is usually nice. It doesn't rain much.
2 Paul has a car, but he ..... it very often.
3 Paul and his friends like films, but they ..... to the cinema very often.
4 Amanda is married, but she ..... a ring.
5 I ..... much about politics. I'm not interested in it.
6 The Regent Hotel isn't expensive. It ..... much to stay there.
7 Ed lives very near us, but we ..... him very often.

6.5 Put the verb into the correct form, positive or negative.

1 Margaret speaks four languages – English, French, German and Spanish. (speak)
2 I don't like my job. It's very boring. (like)
3 'Where's Steve?' 'I'm sorry. I .....' (know)
4 Sue is a very quiet person. She ..... very much. (talk)
5 Andy ..... a lot of tea. It's his favourite drink. (drink)
6 It's not true! I ..... it! (believe)
7 That's a very beautiful picture. I ..... it very much. (like)
8 Mark is a vegetarian. He ..... meat. (eat)

Unit 7

Do you ... ? (present simple questions)

A

We use **do**/**does** in present simple questions:

positive

I we you they	**work** **like** **do** **have**
he she it	**works** **likes** **does** **has**

question

do	I we you they	**work?** **like?** **do?** **have?**
does	he she it	

B

Study the word order:

do/**does** + *subject* + *infinitive*

	Do	you	**play**	the guitar?
	Do	your friends	**live**	near here?
	Does	Chris	**work**	on Sundays?
	Does	it	**rain**	a lot here?
Where	**do**	your parents	**live?**	
How often	**do**	you	**wash**	your hair?
What	**does**	this word	**mean?**	
How much	**does**	it	**cost**	to fly to Rome?

Questions with **always** and **usually**:

	Does	Chris	**always**	**work**	on Sundays?
What	**do**	you	**usually**	**do**	at weekends?

What do you **do?** = What's your job?

- ○ '**What do** you **do?**' 'I work in a bank.'

C

Remember:

do I/we/you/they ...
does he/she/it ...

- ○ **Do they** like music?
- ○ **Does he** like music?

D

Short answers

Yes,	I/we/you/they	**do**.
	he/she/it	**does**.

No,	I/we/you/they	**don't**.
	he/she/it	**doesn't**.

- ○ '**Do you** play the guitar?' '**No, I don't.**'
- ○ '**Do your parents** speak English?' '**Yes, they do.**'
- ○ '**Does James** work hard?' '**Yes, he does.**'
- ○ '**Does your sister** live in London?' '**No, she doesn't.**'

I do/work/like etc. (present simple) ➜ Unit 5 **I don't** ... (negative) ➜ Unit 6 questions ➜ Units 44–47

Exercises

7.1 Write questions with **Do ... ?** and **Does ... ?**

1 I like chocolate. How about you? Do you like chocolate ?
2 I play tennis. How about you? ..... you ..... ?
3 You live near here. How about Lucy? ..... Lucy ..... ?
4 Tom plays tennis. How about his friends? ..... ?
5 You speak English. How about your brother? ..... ?
6 I do yoga every morning. How about you? ..... ?
7 Sue goes away a lot. How about Paul? ..... ?
8 I want to be famous. How about you? ..... ?
9 You work hard. How about Anna? ..... ?

7.2 Make questions from these words + **do/does**. Put the words in the right order.

1 (where / live / your parents) Where do your parents live ?
2 (you / early / always / get up) Do you always get up early ?
3 (how often / TV / you / watch) ..... ?
4 (you / want / what / for dinner) ..... ?
5 (like / you / football) ..... ?
6 (your brother / like / football) ..... ?
7 (what / you / do / in your free time) ..... ?
8 (your sister / work / where) ..... ?
9 (breakfast / always / you / have) ..... ?
10 (what / mean / this word) ..... ?
11 (in winter / snow / it / here) ..... ?
12 (go / usually / to bed / what time / you)
..... ?
13 (how much / to phone New York / it / cost)
..... ?
14 (you / for breakfast / have / usually / what)
..... ?

7.3 Complete the questions. Use these verbs:

~~do~~ do enjoy go like start teach work

1 What do you do ?
2 ..... it?
3 What time ..... in the morning?
4 ..... on Saturdays?
5 How ..... to work?
6 And your husband. What ..... ?
7 What ..... ?
8 ..... his job?

I work in a bookshop.
It's OK.
At 9 o'clock.
Sometimes.
Usually by bus.
He's a teacher.
Science.
Yes, he loves it.

7.4 Write short answers (**Yes, he does.** / **No, I don't.** etc.).

1 Do you watch TV a lot? No, I don't. or Yes, I do.
2 Do you live in a big city? .....
3 Do you often ride a bike? .....
4 Does it rain a lot where you live? .....
5 Do you play the piano? .....

→ **Additional exercises 4–7** (pages 253–54)

Unit 8

I am doing (present continuous) and I do (present simple)

A

Jack is watching television.
He is *not* playing the guitar.

But Jack has a guitar.
He often plays it and he plays very well.

Jack **plays** the guitar,
but he **is not playing** the guitar now.

Is he playing the guitar?	**No, he isn't.**	*(present continuous)*
Does he play the guitar?	**Yes, he does.**	*(present simple)*

B

Present continuous (**I am doing**) = now, at the time of speaking:

I'm doing

past — *now* — *future*

- Please be quiet. I'**m** work**ing**. (*not* I work)
- Tom **is** hav**ing** a shower at the moment. (*not* Tom has)
- Take an umbrella with you. It'**s** rain**ing**.
- You can turn off the television. I'**m** not watch**ing** it.
- Why are you under the table? What **are** you do**ing**?

C

Present simple (**I do**) = in general, all the time or sometimes:

I do

past — *now* — *future*

- I **work** every day from 9 o'clock to 5.30.
- Tom **has** a shower every morning.
- It **rains** a lot in winter.
- I **don't watch** TV very often.
- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?

D

We do *not* use these verbs in the present continuous (**I am -ing**):

like	**want**	**know**	**understand**	**remember**
prefer	**need**	**mean**	**believe**	**forget**

Use only the present simple with these verbs (I **want** / **do you like?** etc.):

- I'm tired. I **want** to go home. (*not* I'm wanting)
- '**Do** you **know** that girl?' 'Yes, but I **don't remember** her name.'
- I **don't understand**. What **do** you **mean**?

present continuous ➜ **Units 3–4** present simple ➜ **Units 5–7** present for the future ➜ **Unit 25**

Exercises

8.1 Answer the questions about the pictures.

Does he take photographs? Yes, he does.
Is he taking a photograph? No, he isn't.
What is he doing?
He's having a bath.

Is she driving a bus? .....
Does she drive a bus? .....
What is she doing?
.....

Does he clean windows? .....
Is he cleaning a window? .....
What is he doing?
.....

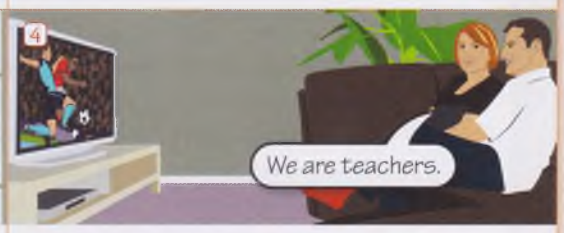

Are they teaching? .....
Do they teach? .....
What do they do?
.....

8.2 Complete the sentences with **am/is/are** or **do/don't/does/doesn't**.

1 Excuse me, do you speak English?
2 'Where's Kate?' 'I ..... know.'
3 What's funny? Why ..... you laughing?
4 'What ..... your sister do?' 'She's a dentist.'
5 It ..... raining. I ..... want to go out in the rain.
6 'Where ..... you come from?' 'Canada.'
7 How much ..... it cost to stay at this hotel? Is it expensive?
8 Steve is a good tennis player, but he ..... play very often.

8.3 Put the verb in the present continuous (**I am doing**) or the present simple (**I do**).

1 Excuse me, do you speak (you/speak) English?
2 'Where's Tom?' 'He's having (he/have) a shower.'
3 I don't watch (I/not/watch) TV very often.
4 Listen! Somebody ..... (sing).
5 Sarah is tired. ..... (she/want) to go home now.
6 How often ..... (you/use) your car? Every day?
7 'Excuse me, but ..... (you/sit) in my seat.' 'Oh, I'm sorry.'
8 I'm sorry, ... (I/not/understand). Can you speak more slowly?
9 It's late. ..... (I/go) home now. ..... (you/come) with me?
10 What time ..... (your father / finish) work every day?
11 You can turn off the radio. ..... (I/not/listen) to it.
12 'Where's Paul?' 'In the kitchen. ..... (he/cook) something.'
13 Mark ..... (not/usually/drive) to work. He ..... (usually/walk).
14 Sue ..... (not/like) coffee. ..... (she/prefer) tea.

→ Additional exercises 8–9 (page 255)

I have ... and I've got ...

A

You can say **I have** or **I've got**, **he has** or **he's got**:

I we you they	**have**	*or*	I we you they	**have got**	(I'**ve got**) (we'**ve got**) (you'**ve got**) (they'**ve got**)
he she it	**has**	*or*	he she it	**has got**	(he'**s got**) (she'**s got**) (it'**s got**)

short form

- I **have** blue eyes. *or* I'**ve got** blue eyes.
- Tom **has** two sisters. *or* Tom **has got** two sisters.
- Our car **has** four doors. *or* Our car **has got** four doors.
- Sarah isn't feeling well. She **has** a headache. *or* She'**s got** a headache.
- They like animals. They **have** a horse, three dogs and six cats. *or* They'**ve got** a horse ...

B

I **don't have** / I **haven't got** etc. (negative)

You can say:

I/you we/they	**don't**	**have**	*or*	I/you we/they	**haven't**	**got**
he/she it	**doesn't**			he/she it	**hasn't**	

- I **don't have** a car. *or* I **haven't got** a car.
- They **don't have** any children. *or* They **haven't got** any children.
- It's a nice house, but it **doesn't have** a garden. *or* ... it **hasn't got** a garden.
- Amy **doesn't have** a job at the moment. *or* Amy **hasn't got** a job ...

C

do you **have**? / **have** you **got**? etc. (questions)

You can say:

do	I/you we/they	**have**	*or*	**have**	I/you we/they	**got**
does	he/she it			**has**	he/she it	

- '**Do** you **have** a camera?' 'No, I **don't**.' *or*
  '**Have** you **got** a camera?' 'No, I **haven't**.'
- '**Does** Helen **have** a car?' 'Yes, she **does**.' *or*
  '**Has** Helen **got** a car?' 'Yes, she **has**.'
- What kind of car **does** she **have**? *or* ... **has** she **got**?
- How many children **do** they **have**? *or* ... **have** they **got**?

had / **didn't have** (past) ➜ Units 11–12 **have breakfast** / **have a shower** etc. ➜ Unit 58
some and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

9.1 Write these sentences with **got**. The meaning is the same.

1 They have two children. They've got two children.
2 She doesn't have a key. She hasn't got a key.
3 He has a new job. He .....
4 Do you have an umbrella? .....
5 We have a lot of work to do. .....
6 I don't have your phone number. .....
7 Does your father have a car? .....
8 How much money do we have? .....

9.2 Write these sentences with **do/does/don't/doesn't**. The meaning is the same.

1 Have you got any money? Do you have any money?
2 I haven't got many clothes. I .....
3 Has Tom got a brother? .....
4 How many children have they got? .....
5 Have you got any questions? .....
6 Sam hasn't got a job. .....

9.3 Read the questions and answers. Then write sentences about Mark.

1	Have you got a car?	No.	1 He hasn't got a car.
2	Have you got a bike?	Yes.	2 He .....
3	Have you got a dog?	No.	3 .....
4	Have you got a mobile phone?	Yes.	4 .....
5	Have you got a watch?	No.	5 .....
6	Have you got any brothers or sisters?	Yes, two brothers and a sister.	6 .....

Mark

What about you? Write sentences with **I've got** or **I haven't got**.

7 (a dog) .....
8 (a bike) .....
9 (brothers/sisters) .....

9.4 Complete the sentences. Use **have, has, don't have** or **doesn't have**.

1 Sarah doesn't have a car. She goes everywhere by bike.
2 They like animals. They have three dogs and two cats.
3 Charles isn't happy. He ..... a lot of problems.
4 They are always busy. They ..... much free time.
5 'What's wrong?' 'I ..... something in my eye.'
6 'Where's my pen?' 'I don't know. I ..... it.'
7 Amy wants to go to the concert, but she ..... a ticket.

9.5 Complete the sentences. Use **have/has got** or **haven't/hasn't got** with:

six legs **a key** ~~**a headache**~~ **a lot of friends** **a job** **much time**

1 I'm not feeling very well. I've got a headache.
2 Everybody likes Tom. He .....
3 She can't open the door. She .....
4 Quick!. We .....
5 An insect .....
6 I'm unemployed. I .....

→ Additional exercises 5–7 (page 254)

Unit 10

was/were

A

last night *now*

Now Robert **is** at work.

At midnight last night he **wasn't** at work.

He **was** in bed.
He **was** asleep.

am/is (present) → **was** (past):

- I **am** tired. (now) — I **was** tired **last night**.
- Where **is** Kate? (now) — Where **was** Kate **yesterday**?
- The weather **is** good today. — The weather **was** good **last week**.

are (present) → **were** (past):

- You **are** late. (now) — You **were** late **yesterday**.
- They **aren't** here. (now) — They **weren't** here **last Sunday**.

B

positive	
I he she it	**was**
we you they	**were**

negative	
I he she it	**was not (wasn't)**
we you they	**were not (weren't)**

question	
was	I? he? she? it?
were	we? you? they?

- Last year Rachel **was** 22, so she **is** 23 now.
- When I **was** a child, I **was** scared of dogs.
- We **were** hungry after the journey, but we **weren't** tired.
- The hotel **was** comfortable, but it **wasn't** expensive.

- **Was** the weather nice when you **were** on holiday?
- Your shoes are nice. **Were** they expensive?
- Why **were** you late this morning?

C

Short answers

Yes,	I/he/she/it **was**.
	we/you/they **were**.

No,	I/he/she/it **wasn't**.
	we/you/they **weren't**.

- '**Were you** late?' '**No, I wasn't.**'
- '**Was Tom** at work yesterday?' '**Yes, he was.**'
- '**Were Sue and Steve** at the party?' '**No, they weren't.**'

am/is/are → Units 1–2 I was doing → Unit 13

Exercises

10.1 Where were these people at 3 o'clock yesterday afternoon?

1 Joe was in bed.
2 Jack and Kate .....
3 Sue .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 And you? I .....

10.2 Write **am/is/are** (present) or **was/were** (past).

1 Last year she was 22, so she is 23 now.
2 Today the weather ..... nice, but yesterday it ..... very cold.
3 I ..... hungry. Can I have something to eat?
4 I feel fine this morning, but I ..... very tired last night.
5 Where ..... you at 11 o'clock last Friday morning?
6 Don't buy those shoes. They ..... very expensive.
7 I like your new jacket. ..... it expensive?
8 This time last year I ..... in Paris.
9 'Where ..... Sam and Joe?' 'I don't know. They ..... here a few minutes ago.'

10.3 Write **was/were** or **wasn't/weren't**.

1 We weren't happy with the hotel. Our room was very small and it wasn't clean.
2 Mark ..... at work last week because he ..... ill. He's better now.
3 Yesterday ..... a public holiday, so the banks ..... closed. They're open today.
4 '..... Kate and Ben at the party?' 'Kate ..... there, but Ben .....'
5 Where are my keys? They ..... on the table, but they're not there now.
6 You ..... at home last night. Where ..... you?

10.4 Write questions from these words + **was/were**. Put the words in the right order.

1 (late / you / this morning / why?)
Why were you late this morning? → The traffic was bad.

2 (difficult / your exam?)
..... → No, it was easy.

3 (last week / where / Sue and Chris?)
..... → They were on holiday.

4 (your new camera / how much?)
..... → A hundred pounds.

5 (angry / you / yesterday / why?)
..... → Because you were late.

6 (nice / the weather / last week?)
..... → Yes, it was beautiful.

Unit 11

worked/got/went etc. (past simple)

A

They **watch** TV every evening. *(present simple)*

They **watched** TV yesterday evening. *(past simple)*

watched is the *past simple*:

I/we/you/they	**watched**
he/she/it	

B

The past simple is often **-ed** (*regular verbs*). For example:

work → **worked**	dance → **danced**
clean → **cleaned**	stay → **stayed**
start → **started**	need → **needed**

- I clean my teeth every morning. This morning I **cleaned** my teeth.
- Terry **worked** in a bank from 2005 to 2011.
- Yesterday it **rained** all morning. It **stopped** at lunchtime.
- We **enjoyed** the party last night. We **danced** a lot and **talked** to a lot of people. The party **finished** at midnight.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

tr**y** → tr**ied**	stud**y** → stud**ied**	cop**y** → cop**ied**
sto**p** → sto**pped**	pla**n** → pla**nned**	

C

Some verbs are *irregular* (= not regular). The past simple is *not* **-ed**. Here are some important irregular verbs (see also Appendix 2–3):

begin →	**began**	fall →	**fell**	leave →	**left**	sell →	**sold**
break	**broke**	find	**found**	lose	**lost**	sit	**sat**
bring	**brought**	fly	**flew**	make	**made**	sleep	**slept**
build	**built**	forget	**forgot**	meet	**met**	speak	**spoke**
buy	**bought**	get	**got**	pay	**paid**	stand	**stood**
catch	**caught**	give	**gave**	put	**put**	take	**took**
come	**came**	go	**went**	read	**read** (red)*	tell	**told**
do	**did**	have	**had**	ring	**rang**	think	**thought**
drink	**drank**	hear	**heard**	say	**said**	win	**won**
eat	**ate**	know	**knew**	see	**saw**	write	**wrote**

* *pronounced 'red'*

- I usually get up early, but this morning I **got** up at 9 o'clock.
- We **did** a lot of work yesterday.
- Caroline **went** to the cinema three times last week.
- James **came** into the room, **took** off his coat and **sat** down.

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **I didn't / Did you** ... ? (negative and questions) ➜ Unit 12 **ago** ➜ Unit 19

Exercises

11.1 Complete the sentences. Use a verb from the box.

~~clean~~ **die** **enjoy** **finish** **happen** **open** **rain** **start** **stay** **want**

1 I ...cleaned... my teeth three times yesterday.
2 It was hot in the room, so I ..... the window.
3 The film was very long. It ..... at 7.15 and ..... at 10 o'clock.
4 When I was a child, I ..... to be a doctor.
5 The accident ..... last Sunday afternoon.
6 The weather is nice today, but yesterday it ..... all day.
7 We ..... our holiday last year. We ..... at a very nice place.
8 Anna's grandfather ..... when he was 90 years old.

11.2 Write the past simple of these verbs.

1 get ...got... 4 pay ..... 7 go ..... 10 know .....
2 see ..... 5 visit ..... 8 think ..... 11 put .....
3 play ..... 6 buy ..... 9 copy ..... 12 speak .....

11.3 Read about Lisa's journey to Madrid. Put the verbs in the correct form.

Last Tuesday Lisa (1) ...flew... from London to Madrid. She (2) ..... up at 6 o'clock in the morning and (3) ..... a cup of coffee. At 6.30 she (4) ..... home and (5) ..... to the airport. When she (6) ..... there, she (7) ..... the car, (8) ..... to the airport building, and (9) ..... in. Then she (10) ..... breakfast at a cafe and (11) ..... for her flight. The plane (12) ..... on time and (13) ..... in Madrid two hours later. Finally she (14) ..... a taxi from the airport to her hotel in the centre of Madrid.

fly, get
have
leave, drive
get, park, walk
check, have
wait, depart
arrive, take

11.4 Write sentences about the past (**yesterday / last week** etc.).

1 James always goes to work by car. Yesterday ...he went to work by car.
2 Rachel often loses her keys. She ..... last week.
3 Kate meets her friends every evening. She ..... yesterday evening.
4 I buy a newspaper every day. Yesterday I .....
5 We often go to the cinema at weekends. Last Sunday we .....
6 I eat an orange every day. Yesterday I .....
7 Tom always has a shower in the morning. This morning he .....
8 Our friends often come to see us. They ..... last Friday.

11.5 Write sentences about what <u>you</u> did yesterday.

1 ...I went to the theatre. 4 .....
2 ..... 5 .....
3 ..... 6 .....

→ **Additional exercise 10** (page 256)

Unit 12

I didn't ... Did you ... ? (past simple negative and questions)

A

We use **did** in past simple negatives and questions:

infinitive	*positive*		*negative*			*question*		
play	I	**played**	I	**did not (didn't)**	play	**did**	I	play?
start	we	**started**	we		start		we	start?
watch	you	**watched**	you		watch		you	watch?
have	they	**had**	they		have		they	have?
see	he	**saw**	he		see		he	see?
do	she	**did**	she		do		she	do?
go	it	**went**	it		go		it	go?

B

do/does *(present)* → **did** *(past)*:

- I **don't** watch TV very often.
  I **didn't** watch TV **yesterday**.
- **Does** she often go away?
  Did she go away **last week**?

C

We use **did/didn't** + *infinitive* (**watch/play/go** etc.):

I **watched**	*but*	I **didn't watch**	(*not* I didn't watched)
they **went**		**did** they **go**?	(*not* did they went?)
he **had**		he **didn't have**	
you **did**		**did** you **do**?	

- I **played** tennis yesterday, but I **didn't win**.
- '**Did** you **do** the shopping?' 'No, I **didn't have** time.'
- We **went** to the cinema, but we **didn't enjoy** the film.

D

Study the word order in questions:

	did + *subject*		+ *infinitive*	
	Did	your sister	**call**	you?
What	**did**	you	**do**	last night?
How	**did**	the accident	**happen**?	
Where	**did**	your parents	**go**	for their holiday?

E

Short answers

Yes,	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**did.**	No,	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**didn't.**

- '**Did you** see Joe yesterday?' '**No, I didn't.**'
- '**Did it** rain on Sunday?' '**Yes, it did.**'
- '**Did Helen** come to the party?' '**No, she didn't.**'
- '**Did your parents** have a good holiday?' '**Yes, they did.**'

worked/got/went etc. (past simple) → Unit 11

Exercises

12.1 Complete these sentences with the verb in the negative.

1 I saw Barbara, but I ...didn't see... Jane.
2 They worked on Monday, but they ..... on Tuesday.
3 We went to the post office, but we ..... to the bank.
4 She had a pen, but she ..... any paper.
5 Jack did French at school, but he ..... German.

12.2 Write questions with **Did ... ?**

1 I watched TV last night. How about you? ...Did you watch TV last night... ?
2 I enjoyed the party. How about you? ..... ?
3 I had a good holiday. How about you? ..... ?
4 I finished work early. How about you? ..... ?
5 I slept well last night. How about you? ..... ?

12.3 What did you do yesterday? Write positive or negative sentences.

1 (watch TV) ...I watched TV... or ...I didn't watch TV...
2 (get up before 7 o'clock) I .....
3 (have a shower) .....
4 (buy a magazine) .....
5 (eat meat) .....
6 (go to bed before 10.30) .....

12.4 Write B's questions. Use:

arrive **cost** **go** **go to bed late** **happen** **have a nice time** ~~**stay**~~ **win**

1 A: We went to New York last month. B: Where ...did you stay... ? A: With some friends.	5 A: We came home by taxi. B: How much ..... ? A: Ten pounds.
2 A: I was late for the meeting. B: What time ..... ? A: Half past nine.	6 A: I'm tired this morning. B: ..... ? A: No, but I didn't sleep very well.
3 A: I played tennis this afternoon. B: ..... ? A: No, I lost.	7 A: We went to the beach yesterday. B: ..... ? A: Yes, it was great.
4 A: I had a nice holiday. B: Good. Where ..... ? A: To the mountains.	8 A: The window is broken. B: How ..... ? A: I don't know.

12.5 Put the verb in the correct form – positive, negative or question.

1 We went to the cinema, but the film wasn't very good. We ...didn't enjoy... it. (enjoy)
2 Tom ..... some new clothes yesterday – two shirts, a jacket and a pullover. (buy)
3 '..... yesterday?' 'No, it was a nice day.' (rain)
4 We were tired, so we ..... long at the party. (stay)
5 It was very warm in the room, so I ..... a window. (open)
6 'Did you phone Chris this morning?' 'No, I ..... time.' (have)
7 'I cut my hand this morning.' 'How ..... that?' (do)
8 'Why weren't you at the meeting yesterday?' 'I ..... about it.' (know)

→ Additional exercises 10–13 (page 256)

I was doing (past continuous)

A

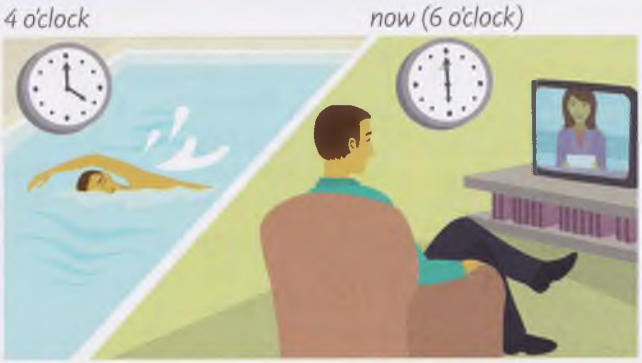

It is 6 o'clock now.
Paul **is** at home.
He **is watching** TV.

At 4 o'clock he **wasn't** at home.
He **was** at the sports club.

He **was swimming** in the pool.
He **wasn't watching** TV.

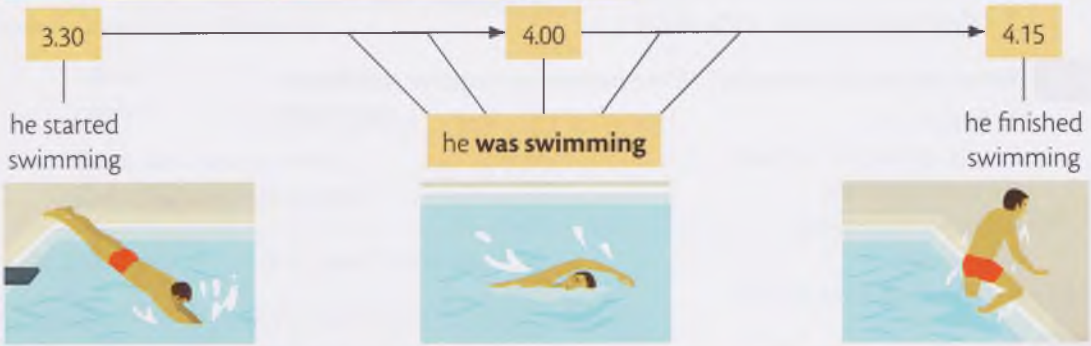

B

was/were + **-ing** is the *past continuous*:

positive

I he she it	**was**	**doing** **watching** **playing** **swimming** **living** etc.
we you they	**were**	

negative

I he she it	**was not** **(wasn't)**	**doing** **watching** **playing** **swimming** **living** etc.
we you they	**were not** **(weren't)**	

question

was	I he she it	**doing?** **watching?** **playing?** **swimming?** **living?** etc.
were	we you they	

- What **were** you **doing** at 11.30 yesterday? **Were** you **working**?
- 'What did he say?' 'I don't know. I **wasn't listening**.'
- It **was raining**, so we didn't go out.
- In 2009 we **were living** in Canada.
- Today she's wearing a skirt, but yesterday she **was wearing** trousers.
- I woke up early yesterday. It was a beautiful morning. The sun **was shining** and the birds **were singing**.

Spelling (liv**e** → liv**ing** / ru**n** → ru**nning** / l**ie** → l**ying** etc.) → Appendix 5

C

am/is/are + **-ing** *(present)* → **was/were** + **-ing** *(past)*:

present
- I**'m working** (now).
- It **isn't raining** (now).
- What **are** you **doing** (now)?

past
- I **was working** at 10.30 last night.
- It **wasn't raining** when we went out.
- What **were** you **doing** at 3 o'clock?

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **I was doing** and **I did** (past continuous and simple) ➜ Unit 14

Exercises

13.1 Look at the pictures. Where were these people at 3 o'clock yesterday afternoon? And what were they doing? Write two sentences for each picture.

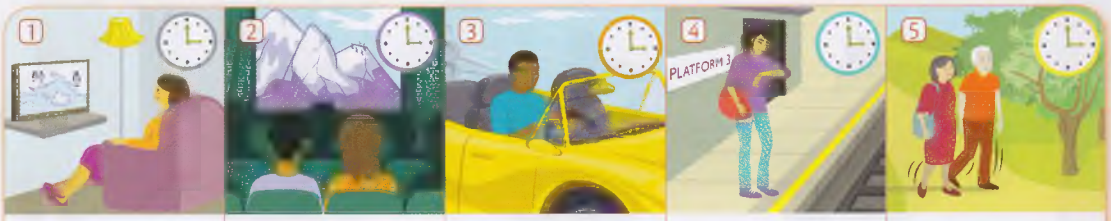

RACHEL	JACK KATE	TOM	TRACEY	MR AND MRS HALL
at home watch TV	at the cinema watch a film	in his car drive	at the station wait for a train	in the park walk

1 Rachel was at home. She was watching TV.
2 Jack and Kate ..... . They .....
3 Tom .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 And you? I .....

13.2 Sarah did a lot of things yesterday morning. Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 At 8.45 she was washing her car.
2 At 10.45 she .....
.....
3 At 8 o'clock .....
.....
4 At 12.10 .....
.....
5 At 7.15 .....
.....
6 At 9.30 .....
.....

13.3 Complete the questions. Use **was/were -ing**. Use **what/where/why** if necessary.

1 (you/live) Where were you living ..... in 2012?
2 (you/do) ..... at 2 o'clock?
3 (it/rain) ..... when you got up?
4 (Sue/drive) ..... so fast?
5 (Tom/wear) ..... a suit yesterday?

In London.
I was asleep.
No, it was sunny.
Because she was late.
No, a T-shirt and jeans.

13.4 Look at the picture. You saw Joe in the street yesterday afternoon. What was he doing? Write positive or negative sentences.

1 (wear / a jacket) He wasn't wearing a jacket.
2 (carry / a bag) .....
3 (go / to the dentist) .....
4 (eat / an ice cream) .....
5 (carry / an umbrella) .....
6 (go / home) .....
7 (wear / a hat) .....
8 (ride / a bicycle) .....

Unit 14

I was doing (past continuous) and I did (past simple)

A

Jack was reading a book. | His phone rang. | He stopped reading. | He answered his phone.

What **happened**? His phone **rang**. *(past simple)*

What **was** Jack **doing** when his phone rang?
He **was reading** a book. } *(past continuous)*

What **did** he **do** when his phone rang?
He **stopped** reading and **answered** his phone. } *(past simple)*

Jack began reading *before* his phone rang.
So *when* his phone rang, he **was reading**.

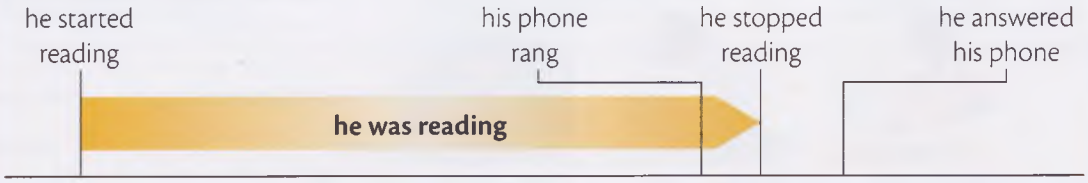

B

past simple

- A: What **did** you **do** yesterday morning?
  B: We **played** tennis. (from 10 to 11.30)

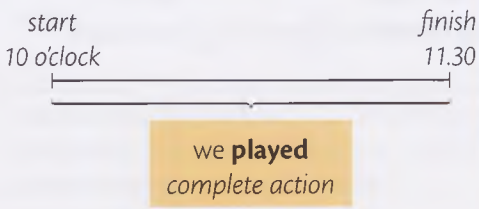

- Jack **read** a book yesterday. (= from beginning to end)
- **Did** you **watch** the game on TV last night?
- It **didn't rain** while we were on holiday.

past continuous

- A: What **were** you **doing** at 10.30?
  B: We **were playing** tennis.

- Jack **was reading** a book when his phone rang.
- **Were** you **watching** TV when I phoned you?
- It **wasn't raining** when I got up.

- I **started** work at 9 o'clock and **finished** at 4.30. At 2.30 I **was working**.
- It **was raining** when we **went** out. (= it started raining *before* we went out)
- I **saw** Lucy and Steve this morning. They **were waiting** at the bus stop.
- Kelly **fell** asleep while she **was reading**.

I did (past simple) ➜ Units 11–12 **I was doing** (past continuous) ➜ Unit 13 **while** ➜ Unit 105

Exercises

14.1 Look at the pictures. Put the verbs in the correct form, past continuous or past simple.

1

Lucy ...broke... (break) her arm last week. It ..... (happen) when she ..... (paint) her room. She ..... (fall) off the ladder.

2

The train ..... (arrive) at the station and Paula ..... (get) off. Two friends of hers, Jon and Rachel, ... (wait) to meet her.

3

Yesterday Sue ..... (walk) along the road when she ..... (meet) James. He ..... (go) to the station to catch a train and he ..... (carry) a bag. They ..... (stop) to talk for a few minutes.

14.2 Put the verb into the past continuous or past simple.

1 A: What was the weather like when you ...got... (get) up this morning?
B: It ...was raining... (rain).

2 A: Was Jane busy when you went to see her?
B: Yes, she ..... (study).

3 A: ..... (Paul/call) you this morning?
B: Yes, he ..... (call) while I ..... (have) breakfast.

4 A: Was Tracey at work today?
B: No, she ..... (not/go) to work. She was ill.

5 A: How fast ..... (you/drive) when the police ..... (stop) you?
B: I'm not sure, but I ..... (not/drive) very fast.

6 A: ..... (your team / win) the football match yesterday?
B: The weather was very bad, so we ..... (not/play).

7 A: How ..... (you/break) the window?
B: We ..... (play) football. I ..... (kick) the ball and it ..... (hit) the window.

8 A: ..... (you/see) Jessica last night?
B: Yes, she ..... (wear) a very nice jacket.

9 A: What ..... (you/do) at 2 o'clock this morning?
B: I was asleep.

10 A: I ..... (lose) my key last night.
B: How ..... (you/get) into your room?
A: I ..... (climb) in through a window.

→ Additional exercises 14–15 (pages 257–58)

Unit 15

I have done (present perfect 1)

A

His shoes are dirty.

He is cleaning his shoes.

He **has cleaned** his shoes.
(= his shoes are clean *now*)

They are at home.

They are going out.

They **have gone** out.
(= they are not at home *now*)

B

has cleaned / **have gone** etc. is the *present perfect* (**have** + *past participle*):

I we you they	**have** (**'ve**) **have not** (**haven't**)	**cleaned** **finished** **started** **lost** **done** **been** **gone**
he she it	**has** (**'s**) **has not** (**hasn't**)	

↑ *past participle*

have	I we you they	**cleaned?** **finished?** **started?** **lost?**
has	he she it	**done?** **been?** **gone?**

regular verbs

irregular verbs

Regular verbs The past participle is **-ed** (the same as the past simple):

clean → I have clean**ed** finish → we have finish**ed** start → she has start**ed**

Irregular verbs The past participle is not **-ed**.
Sometimes the past simple and past participle are the same:

buy → I **bought** / I have **bought** have → he **had** / he has **had**

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are different:

break → I **broke** / I have **broken** see → you **saw** / you have **seen**
fall → it **fell** / it has **fallen** go → they **went** / they have **gone**

C

We use the present perfect for *an action in the past* with a result *now*:

- I**'ve lost** my passport. (= I can't find my passport *now*)
- 'Where's Rebecca?' 'She**'s gone** to bed.' (= she is in bed *now*)
- We**'ve bought** a new car. (= we have a new car *now*)
- It's Rachel's birthday tomorrow and I **haven't bought** her a present. (= I don't have a present for her *now*)
- 'Bob is away on holiday.' 'Oh, where **has** he **gone**?' (= where is he *now*?)
- Can I take this newspaper? **Have** you **finished** with it? (= do you need it *now*?)

present perfect → **Units 16–19** present perfect and past simple → **Unit 20**
irregular verbs → **Unit 24, Appendix 2–3**

Exercises

15.1 Look at the pictures. What has happened? Choose from the box.

go to bed	**~~clean his shoes~~**	**stop raining**
close the door	**fall down**	**have a shower**

before *now*

1 → He has cleaned his shoes.

2 → She .....

3 → They .....

4 → It .....

5 → He .....

6 → The .....

15.2 Complete the sentences with a verb from the box.

break	**buy**	**decide**	**finish**	**forget**	**go**	**go**
invite	**~~lose~~**	**see**	**not/see**	**take**	**tell**	**not/tell**

1 I 've lost my keys. I don't know where they are.
2 I ..... some new shoes. Do you want to see them?
3 'Where is Helen?' 'She's not here. She ..... out.'
4 I'm looking for Paula. ..... you ..... her?
5 Look! Somebody ..... that window.
6 'Does Lisa know that you're going away?' 'Yes, I ..... her.'
7 I can't find my umbrella. Somebody ..... it.
8 'Where are my glasses?' 'I don't know. I ..... them.'
9 I'm looking for Sarah. Where ..... she ..... ?
10 I know that woman, but I ..... her name.
11 Sue is having a party tonight. She ..... a lot of people.
12 What are you going to do? ..... you ..... ?
13 A: Does Ben know about the meeting tomorrow?
B: I don't think so. I ..... him.
14 I ..... with this magazine. Do you want it?

Unit 16

I've just ... I've already ... I haven't ... yet (present perfect 2)

A

I've just ...

just = a short time ago

- A: Are Laura and Paul here?
  B: Yes, they'**ve just arrived**.
- A: Are you hungry?
  B: No, I'**ve just had** dinner.
- A: Is Tom here?
  B: No, I'm afraid he'**s just gone**.
  (= he **has** just gone)

They **have just arrived**.

B

I've already ...

already = before you expected / before I expected

- A: What time are Laura and Paul coming?
  B: They'**ve already arrived**.
  (= before you expected)
- It's only 9 o'clock and Anna **has already gone** to bed. (= before I expected)
- A: Jon, this is Emma.
  B: Yes, I know. We'**ve already met**.

C

I haven't ... **yet** / **Have you** ... **yet?**

yet = until now

We use **yet** in negative sentences and questions. **Yet** is usually at the end.

yet in negative sentences (**I haven't** ... **yet**)

- A: Are Laura and Paul here?
  B: No, they **haven't arrived yet**.
  (but B expects Laura and Paul to arrive soon)
- A: Does James know that you're going away?
  B: No, I **haven't told** him **yet**.
  (but B is going to tell him soon)
- Silvia has bought a new dress, but she **hasn't worn** it **yet**.

The film **hasn't started yet**.

yet in questions (**Have** you ... **yet**?)

- A: **Have** Laura and Paul **arrived yet**?
  B: No, not yet. We're still waiting for them.
- A: **Has** Nicola **started** her new job **yet**?
  B: No, she starts next week.
- A: This is my new dress.
  B: Oh, it's nice. **Have** you **worn** it **yet**?

present perfect ➜ Units 15, 17–20 word order ➜ Unit 94 **still**, **yet** and **already** ➜ Unit 95

Exercises

16.1 Write a sentence with **just** for each picture.

1 They've just arrived.
2 He .....
3 They .....
4 The race .....

16.2 Complete the sentences. Use **already** + present perfect.

1 What time is Paul arriving? — He's already arrived.
2 Do your friends want to see the film? — No, they ..... it.
3 Don't forget to phone Tom. — I .....
4 When is Mark going away? — He .....
5 Do you want to read the newspaper? — I .....
6 When does Sarah start her new job? — She .....

16.3 Write a sentence with **just** (**They've just ...** / **She's just ...** etc.) or a negative sentence with **yet** (**They haven't ... yet** / **She hasn't ... yet** etc.).

1 (she / go / out) She hasn't gone out yet.
2 (the bus / go) The bus .....
3 (the train / leave) .....
4 (he / open / it) .....
5 (they / finish / their dinner) .....
6 (it / stop / raining) .....

16.4 Write questions with **yet**.

1 Your friend has a new job. Perhaps she has started it. You ask her:
Have you started your new job yet?
2 Your friend has some new neighbours. Perhaps he has met them. You ask him:
..... you .....
3 Your friend has to pay her electricity bill. Perhaps she has paid it. You ask her:
.....
4 Tom was trying to sell his car. Perhaps he has sold it. You ask a friend about Tom:
.....

Have you ever ... ? (present perfect 3)

A

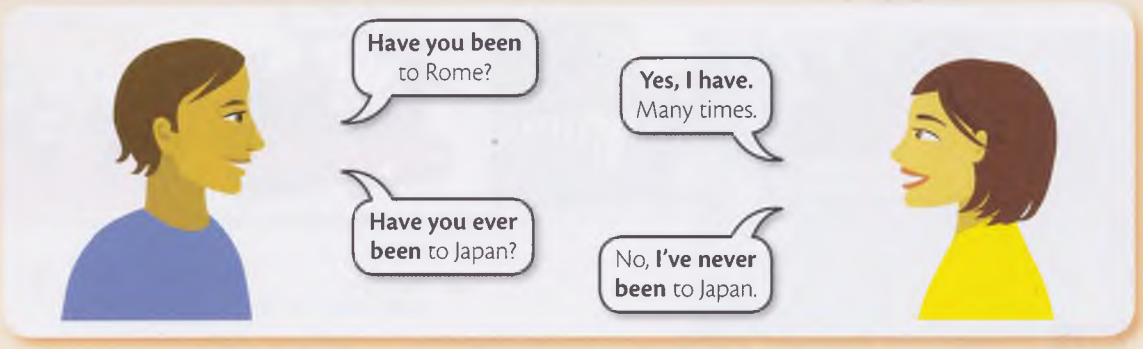

We use the *present perfect* (**have been** / **have had** / **have played** etc.) when we talk about a time from the past until now – for example, a person's life:

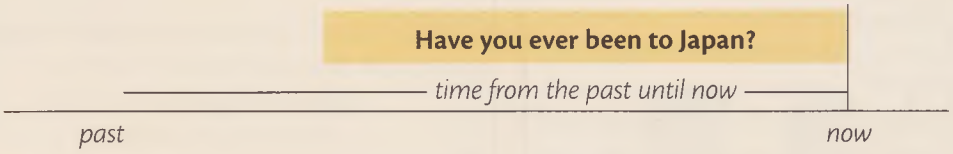

- '**Have** you **been** to France?' 'No, I **haven't**.'
- I'**ve been** to Canada, but I **haven't been** to the United States.
- Mary is an interesting person. She **has had** many different jobs and **has lived** in many places.
- I'**ve seen** that woman before, but I can't remember where.
- How many times **has** Brazil **won** the World Cup?
- '**Have** you **read** this book?' 'Yes, I'**ve read** it twice.' (**twice** = two times)

B

present perfect + **ever** (in questions) and **never**:

- '**Has** Ann **ever been** to Australia?' 'Yes, once.' (**once** = one time)
- '**Have** you **ever played** golf?' 'Yes, I play a lot.'
- My sister **has never travelled** by plane.
- I'**ve never ridden** a horse.
- 'Who is that man?' 'I don't know. I'**ve never seen** him before.'

C

gone and **been**

Ben **has gone** to Spain.
(= he is in Spain *now*)

Ben **has been** to Spain.
(= he went to Spain, but now he is back)

Compare:

- I can't find Susan. Where **has** she **gone?** (= where is she now?)
- Oh, hello Susan! I was looking for you. Where **have** you **been**?

present perfect ➜ **Units 15–16, 18** present perfect and past simple ➜ **Unit 20**

Exercises

17.1 You are asking Helen questions beginning **Have you ever ... ?** Write the questions.

Helen

1 (be / London?)	Have you ever been to London?	No, never.
2 (play / golf?)	Have you ever played golf?	Yes, many times.
3 (be / Australia?)	Have	Yes, once.
4 (lose / your passport?)	.....	No, never.
5 (fly / in a helicopter?)	.....	Yes, a few times.
6 (win / a race?)	.....	No, never.
7 (be / New York?)	.....	Yes, twice.
8 (drive / a bus?)	.....	No, never.
9 (break / your leg?)	.....	Yes, once.

17.2 Write sentences about Helen. (Look at her answers in Exercise 17.1.)

1 (be / New York) She's been to New York twice.
2 (be / Australia) She .....
3 (win / a race) .....
4 (fly / in a helicopter) .....

Now write about yourself. How often have you done these things?

5 (be / New York) I .....
6 (play / tennis) .....
7 (drive / a lorry) .....
8 (be / late for work or school) .....

17.3 Mary is 65 years old. She has had an interesting life. What has she done?

Mary

~~have~~	be
do	write
travel	meet

all over the world	a lot of interesting things
~~many different jobs~~	a lot of interesting people
ten books	married three times

1 She has had many different jobs.
2 She .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

17.4 Write **gone** or **been**.

1 Ben is on holiday at the moment. He's gone to Spain.
2 'Have you ever ..... to Mexico?' 'No, never.'
3 My parents aren't at home at the moment. They've ..... out.
4 There's a new restaurant in town. Have you ..... to it?
5 Rebecca loves Paris. She's ..... there many times.
6 Helen was here earlier, but I think she's ..... now.
7 'Where's Jessica?' 'She's not in the office. I think she's ..... home.'
8 Hello, Sue. I was looking for you. Where have you ..... ?

→ **Additional exercises 16, 18** (pages 258–60)

How long have you ... ? (present perfect 4)

A

Helen is on holiday in Ireland.
She is there now.

She arrived in Ireland on Monday.
Today is Thursday.

How long **has she been** in Ireland?

She **has been** in Ireland { **since Monday.** / **for three days.** }

Compare **is** and **has been**:

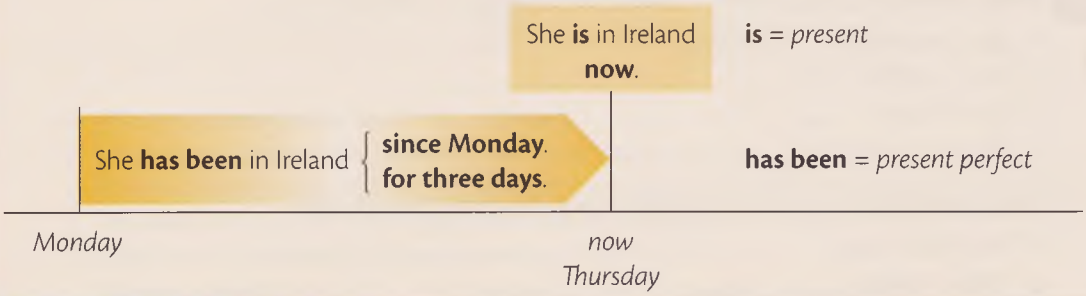

B

Compare:

present simple	*present perfect simple* (**have been** / **have lived** / **have known** etc.)
Dan and Kate **are** married.	They **have been** married **for five years**. (*not* They are married for five years.)
Are you married?	**How long have** you **been** married? (*not* How long are you married?)
Do you **know** Lisa?	**How long have** you **known** her? (*not* How long do you know her?)
I **know** Lisa.	I'**ve known** her **for a long time**. (*not* I know her for ...)
Vicky **lives** in London.	**How long has** she **lived** in London? She **has lived** there **all her life**.
I **have** a car.	**How long have** you **had** your car? I'**ve had** it **since April**.

present continuous	*present perfect continuous* (**have been** + **-ing**)
I'**m learning** German.	**How long have** you **been learning** German? (*not* How long are you learning German?) I'**ve been learning** German **for two years**.
David **is watching** TV.	**How long has** he **been watching** TV? He'**s been** (= He **has been**) **watching** TV **since 5 o'clock**.
It'**s raining**.	It'**s been** (= It **has been**) **raining all day**.

for and **since** ➜ Units 19, 104

Exercises

18.1 Complete these sentences.

1 Helen is in Ireland. She ....has been.... in Ireland since Monday.
2 I know Lisa. I ....have known.... her for a long time.
3 Sarah and Andy are married. They ..... married since 2005.
4 Ben is ill. He ..... ill for the last few days.
5 We live in Scott Road. We ..... there for a long time.
6 Catherine works in a bank. She ..... there for five years.
7 Alan has a headache. He ..... a headache since he got up this morning.
8 I'm learning English. I ..... English for six months.

18.2 Make questions with **How long ... ?**

1	Helen is on holiday.	....How long has she been on holiday.... ?
2	Steve and Nadia are in Brazil.	How long ..... ?
3	I know Amy.	How long ..... you ..... ?
4	Emily is learning Italian.	..... ?
5	My brother lives in Canada.	..... ?
6	I'm a teacher.	..... ?
7	It is raining.	..... ?

18.3 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with:

for ten minutes	**all day**	**all her life**
~~**for ten years**~~	**since he was 20**	**since Sunday**

1 ....They have been married for ten years....
2 She .....
3 They .....
4 The sun .....
5 She .....
6 He .....

18.4 Which is right?

1 Mark ~~lives~~ / has lived in Canada since April. (has lived *is right*)
2 Jane and I are friends. I know / I've known her very well.
3 Jane and I are friends. I know / I've known her for a long time.
4 A: Sorry I'm late. How long are you waiting/ have you been waiting?
B: Not long. Only five minutes.
5 Luke works / has worked in a hotel now. He likes his job a lot.
6 Ruth is reading a newspaper. She is reading / She has been reading it for two hours.
7 'How long do you live / have you lived in this house?' 'About ten years.'
8 'Is that a new coat?' 'No, I have / I've had this coat for a long time.'
9 Tom is / has been in Spain at the moment. He is / He has been there for the last three days.

Unit 19

for since ago

A for and since

We use **for** and **since** to say *how long*:

- Helen is in Ireland. She **has been** there { **for three days.** / **since Monday.**

We use **for** + a period of time (**three days** / **two years** etc.):

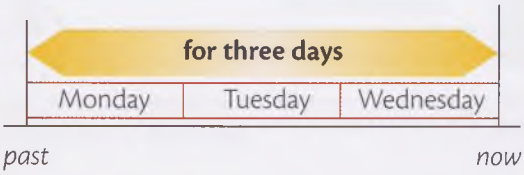

for	
three days	ten minutes
an hour	two hours
a week	four weeks
a month	six months
five years	a long time

- Richard has been in Canada **for six months**. (*not* since six months)
- We've been waiting **for two hours**. (*not* since two hours)
- I've lived in London **for a long time**.

We use **since** + the start of the period (**Monday** / **9 o'clock** etc.):

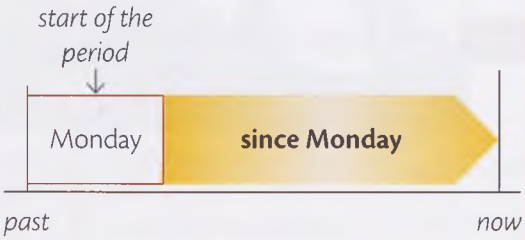

since	
Monday	Wednesday
9 o'clock	12.30
24 July	Christmas
January	I was ten years old
1985	we arrived

- Richard has been in Canada **since January**. (= from January to now)
- We've been waiting **since 9 o'clock**. (= from 9 o'clock to now)
- I've lived in London **since I was ten years old**.

B ago

ago = before now:

- Susan started her new job **three weeks ago**. (= three weeks before now)
- 'When did Tom go out?' '**Ten minutes ago.**' (= ten minutes before now)
- I had dinner **an hour ago**.
- Life was very different **a hundred years ago**.

We use **ago** with the *past* (**started**/**did**/**had**/**was** etc.).

Compare **ago** and **for**:

- **When did** Helen **arrive** in Ireland?
  She **arrived** in Ireland **three days ago**.
- **How long has** she **been** in Ireland?
  She **has been** in Ireland **for three days**.

present perfect + **for/since** ➜ Unit 18 **from/until/since/for** ➜ Unit 104 **for** and **during** ➜ Unit 105

Exercises

19.1 Write **for** or **since**.

1 Helen has been in Ireland ...since... Monday.
2 Helen has been in Ireland ...for... three days.
3 My aunt has lived in Australia ..... 15 years.
4 Tina is in her office. She has been there ..... 7 o'clock.
5 India has been an independent country ..... 1947.
6 The bus is late. We've been waiting ..... 20 minutes.
7 Nobody lives in those houses. They have been empty ..... many years.
8 Michael has been ill ..... a long time. He has been in hospital ..... October.

19.2 Answer these questions. Use **ago**.

1 When was your last meal? ...Three hours ago.....
2 When was the last time you were ill? .....
3 When did you last go to the cinema? .....
4 When was the last time you were in a car? .....
5 When was the last time you went on holiday? .....

19.3 Complete the sentences. Use **for** or **ago** with these words.

1 Helen arrived in Ireland ...three days ago..... (three days)
2 Helen has been in Ireland ...for three days..... (three days)
3 Lynn and Mark have been married ..... (20 years)
4 Lynn and Mark got married ..... (20 years)
5 Dan arrived ..... (an hour)
6 I bought these shoes ..... (a few days)
7 Silvia has been learning English ..... (six months)
8 Have you known Lisa ..... ? (a long time)

19.4 Complete the sentences with **for** or **since**.

1 (Helen is in Ireland – she arrived there three days ago)
...Helen has been in Ireland for three days.....
2 (Jack is here – he arrived on Tuesday)
Jack has .....
3 (It's raining – it started an hour ago)
It's been .....
4 (I know Sue – I first met her in 2008)
I've .....
5 (Claire and Matt are married – they got married six months ago)
Claire and Matt have .....
6 (Laura is studying medicine at university – she started three years ago)
Laura has .....
7 (David plays the piano – he started when he was seven years old)
David has .....

19.5 Write sentences about yourself. Begin your sentences with:

I've lived ... **I've been ...** **I've been learning ...** **I've known ...** **I've had ...**

1 ...I've lived in this town for three years.....
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....

→ **Additional exercises 16–18** (pages 258–60)

Unit 20

I have done (present perfect) and I did (past)

A

With a *finished time* (**yesterday** / **last week** etc.), we use the past (**arrived**/**saw**/**was** etc.):

past	+ *finished time*
We **arrived**	yesterday. last week. at 3 o'clock. in 2002. six months ago.

Do *not* use the present perfect (**have arrived** / **have done** / **have been** etc.) with a finished time:

- I **saw** Paula **yesterday**.
  (*not* I have seen)
- Where **were** you **on Sunday afternoon**?
  (*not* Where have you been)
- We **didn't have** a holiday **last year**.
  (*not* We haven't had)
- 'What **did** you **do last night**?' 'I **stayed** at home.'
- William Shakespeare **lived from 1564 to 1616**. He **was** a writer. He **wrote** many plays and poems.

Use the past to ask **When** ... **?** or **What time** ... **?**:

- **When did** you **buy** your computer? (*not* When have you bought)
- **What time did** Andy **go** out? (*not* What time has Andy gone out)

B

Compare:

present perfect

- I **have lost** my key.
  (= I can't find it *now*)
- Ben **has gone** home.
  (= he isn't here *now*)
- **Have** you **seen** Kate?
  (= where is she *now*?)

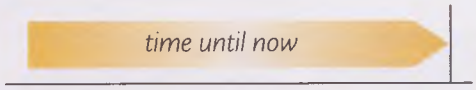

past *now*

- **Have** you **ever been** to Spain?
  (= in your life, until *now*)
- My friend is a writer. He **has written** many books.
- Sam **hasn't phoned** me yet.
- We'**ve lived** in Singapore for six years.
  (= we live there *now*)

past

- I **lost** my key **last week**.
- Ben **went** home **ten minutes ago**.
- **Did** you **see** Kate **on Saturday**?

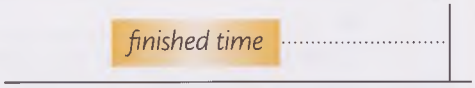

past *now*

- **Did** you **go** to Spain **last year**?
- Shakespeare **wrote** many plays and poems.
- Sam **didn't phone** me yesterday.
- We **lived** in Glasgow for six years, but now we live in Singapore.

past simple ➜ Units 11–12 present perfect ➜ Units 15–18

Exercises

20.1 Complete the answers to the questions.

1	Have you seen Kate?	Yes, I saw her ..... five minutes ago.
2	Have you started your new job?	Yes, I ..... last week.
3	Have your friends arrived?	Yes, they ..... at 5 o'clock.
4	Has Sarah gone away?	Yes, ... on Friday.
5	Have you worn your new suit?	Yes, ... yesterday.

20.2 Are these sentences OK? Correct the verbs that are wrong. (The verbs are underlined.)

1 I've lost my key. I can't find it. ..... OK .....
2 Have you seen Kate yesterday? ..... Did you see .....
3 I've finished my work at 2 o'clock. .....
4 I'm ready now. I've finished my work. .....
5 What time have you finished your work? .....
6 Sue isn't here. She's gone out. .....
7 Steve's grandmother has died two years ago. .....
8 Where have you been last night? .....

20.3 Put the verb in the present perfect or past.

1 My friend is a writer. He ..... has written ..... (write) many books.
2 We ..... didn't have ..... (not/have) a holiday last year.
3 I ..... (play) tennis yesterday afternoon.
4 What time ..... (you/go) to bed last night?
5 ..... (you ever meet) a famous person?
6 The weather ..... (not/be) very good yesterday.
7 Kathy travels a lot. She ..... (visit) many countries.
8 I ..... (switch) off the light before going out this morning.
9 I live in New York now, but I ..... (live) in Mexico for many years.
10 'What's Canada like? Is it beautiful?' 'I don't know. I ..... (not/be) there.'

20.4 Put the verb in the present perfect or past.

1 A: ..... Have you ever been. ..... (you/ever/be) to Florida?
B: Yes, we ..... went ..... (go) there on holiday two years ago.
A: ..... (you/have) a good time?
B: Yes, it ..... (be) great.

2 A: Where's Alan? ..... (you/see) him?
B: Yes, he ..... (go) out a few minutes ago.
A: And Rachel?
B: I don't know. I ..... (not/see) her.

3 Rose works in a factory. She ..... (work) there for six months. Before that she ..... (be) a waitress in a restaurant. She ..... (work) there for two years, but she ..... (not/enjoy) it very much.

4 A: Do you know Mark's sister?
B: I ..... (see) her a few times, but I ..... (never/speak) to her. ..... (you/ever/speak) to her?
A: Yes. I ..... (meet) her at a party last week. She's very nice.

→ Additional exercises 19–23, 29–31 (pages 260–62, 265–67)

is done was done (passive 1)

A

The office **is cleaned** every day.

The office **was cleaned** yesterday.

Compare active and passive:

Somebody **cleans** the office every day.	*(active)*
The office **is cleaned** every day.	*(passive)*
Somebody **cleaned** the office yesterday.	*(active)*
The office **was cleaned** yesterday.	*(passive)*

B

The passive is:

					past participle
present simple	**am/is/are**	(not)	+	**cleaned**	**done**
past simple	**was/were**			**invented**	**built**
				injured	**taken** etc.

The past participle of regular verbs is **-ed** (clean**ed**/damag**ed** etc.).
For a list of irregular past participles (**done/built/taken** etc.), see Appendix 2–3.

- Butter **is made** from milk.
- Oranges **are imported** into Britain.
- How often **are** these rooms **cleaned**?
- I **am** never **invited** to parties.

- This house **was built** 100 years ago.
- These houses **were built** 100 years ago.
- When **was** the telephone **invented**?
- We **weren't invited** to the party last week.
- '**Was** anybody **injured** in the accident?' 'Yes, two people **were taken** to hospital.'

C

was/were born

- I **was born** in Berlin in 1993. (*not* I am born)
- 'Where **were** you **born**?' 'In Cairo.'

D

passive + **by** ...

- The telephone was invented **by Alexander Bell** in 1876. (= Alexander Bell invented it)
- I was bitten **by a dog** a few days ago.
- Do you like these paintings? They were painted **by a friend of mine**.

is being done / has been done ➜ Unit 22 irregular verbs ➜ Unit 24, Appendix 2–3 **by** ➜ Unit 111
active and passive ➜ Appendix 1

Exercises

21.1 Write sentences from these words. Some of the sentences are questions.

Sentences 1–7 are present.

1 (the office / clean / every day) The office is cleaned every day.
2 (how often / these rooms / clean?) How often are these rooms cleaned?
3 (glass / make / from sand) Glass .....
4 (the windows / clean / every two weeks) .....
5 (this room / not / use / very much) .....
6 (we / allow / to park here?) .....
7 (how / this word / pronounce?) .....

Sentences 8–15 are past.

8 (the office / clean / yesterday) The office was cleaned yesterday.
9 (the house / paint / last month) The house .....
10 (my phone / steal / a few days ago) .....
11 (three people / injure / in the accident) .....
12 (when / this bridge / build?) .....
13 (I / not / wake up / by the noise) .....
14 (how / these windows / break?) .....
15 (you / invite / to Jon's party last week?) .....

21.2 These sentences are not correct. Correct them.

1 This house built 100 years ago. This house was built
2 Football plays in most countries of the world. .....
3 Why did the letter send to the wrong address? .....
4 A film studio is a place where films make. .....
5 Where are you born? .....
6 How many languages are speaking in Switzerland? .....
7 Somebody broke into our house, but nothing stolen. .....
8 When was invented the bicycle? .....

21.3 Complete the sentences. Use the passive (present or past) of these verbs:

~~clean~~ damage find give invite make make show steal ~~take~~

1 The room is cleaned every day.
2 I saw an accident yesterday. Two people were taken to hospital.
3 Paper ..... from wood.
4 There was a fire at the hotel last week. Two of the rooms ..... .
5 'Where did you get this picture?' 'It ..... to me by a friend of mine.'
6 Many American programmes ..... on British TV.
7 'Did James and Sue go to the wedding?' 'No. They ....., but they didn't go.'
8 'How old is this film?' 'It ..... in 1985.'
9 My car ..... last week, but the next day it ..... by the police.

21.4 Where were they born?

1 (Ian / Edinburgh) Ian was born in Edinburgh.
2 (Sarah / Manchester) Sarah .....
3 (her parents / Ireland) Her .....
4 (you / ???) I .....
5 (your mother / ???) .....

Unit 22

is being done has been done (passive 2)

A

is/are being ... *(present continuous passive)*

Somebody **is painting** the door . *(active)*

The door **is being painted**. *(passive)*

- My car is at the garage. It **is being repaired**. (= somebody is repairing it)
- Some new houses **are being built** opposite the park. (= somebody is building them)

Compare the present continuous and present simple:

- The office **is being cleaned** at the moment. *(continuous)*
  The office **is cleaned** every day. *(simple)*
- Football matches **are** often **played** at the weekend, but no matches **are being played** next weekend.

For the present continuous and present simple, see Units 8 and 25.

B

has/have been ... *(present perfect passive)*

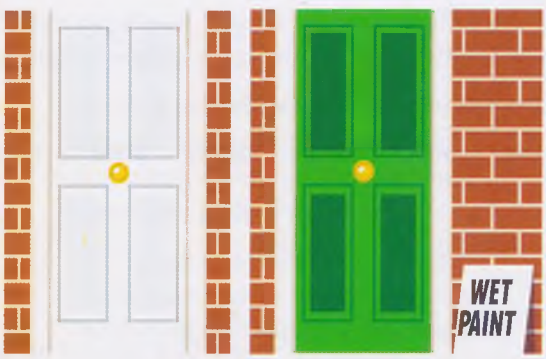

Somebody **has painted** the door . *(active)*

The door **has been painted**. *(passive)*

- My key **has been stolen**. (= somebody has stolen it)
- My keys **have been stolen**. (= somebody has stolen them)
- I'm not going to the party. I **haven't been invited**. (= nobody has invited me)
- **Has** this shirt **been washed**? (= has somebody washed it?)

Compare the present perfect and past simple:

- The room isn't dirty any more. It **has been cleaned**. *(present perfect)*
  The room **was cleaned** yesterday. *(past simple)*
- I can't find my keys. I think they**'ve been stolen**. *(present perfect)*
  My keys **were stolen** last week. *(past simple)*

For the present perfect and past simple, see Unit 20.

is done / was done ➜ **Unit 21** active and passive ➜ **Appendix 1**

Exercises

22.1 What's happening?

1 The car is being repaired.
2 A bridge .....
3 The windows .....
4 The grass .....

22.2 Look at the pictures. What is happening or what has happened? Use the present continuous (**is/are being ...**) or the present perfect (**has/have been ...**).

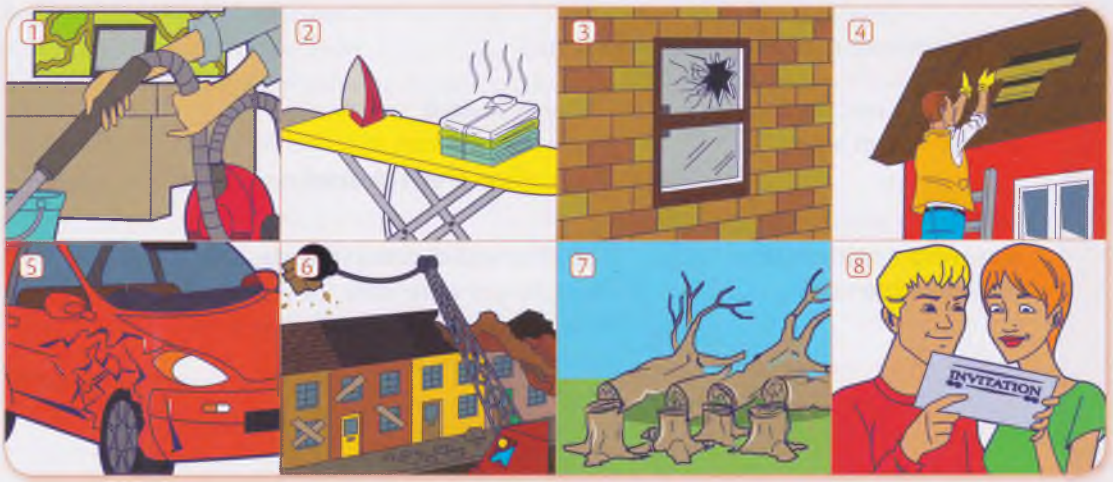

1 (the office / clean) The office is being cleaned.
2 (the shirts / iron) The shirts have been ironed.
3 (the window / break) The window .....
4 (the roof / repair) The roof .....
5 (the car / damage) .....
6 (the houses / knock / down) .....
7 (the trees / cut / down) .....
8 (they / invite / to a party) .....

22.3 Complete the sentences. (Study Unit 21 before you do this exercise.)

1 I can't use my office at the moment. It is being painted (paint).
2 We didn't go to the party. We weren't invited (not/invite).
3 The washing machine was broken, but it's OK now. It ..... (repair).
4 The washing machine ..... (repair) yesterday afternoon.
5 A factory is a place where things ..... (make).
6 How old are these houses? When ..... (they/build)?
7 A: ..... (the photocopier / use) at the moment?
B: No, you can go ahead and use it.
8 I've never seen these flowers before. What ..... (they/call)?
9 My sunglasses ..... (steal) at the beach yesterday.
10 The bridge is closed at the moment. It ..... (damage) last week and it ..... (not/repair) yet.

→ Additional exercises 24–27 (pages 263–64)

Unit 23

be/have/do in present and past tenses

A

be (= **am/is/are/was/were**) + **-ing** (**cleaning/working** etc.)

am/is/are + -ing
(present continuous)
→ Units 3–4 and 25

- Please be quiet. **I'm working**.
- It **isn't raining** at the moment.
- What **are** you **doing** this evening?

was/were + -ing
(past continuous)
→ Unit 13

- I **was working** when she arrived.
- It **wasn't raining**, so we didn't need an umbrella.
- What **were** you **doing** at 3 o'clock?

B

be + *past participle* (**cleaned/made/eaten** etc.)

am/is/are + *past participle*
(passive present simple)
→ Unit 21

- I'**m** never **invited** to parties.
- Butter **is made** from milk.
- These offices **aren't cleaned** every day.

was/were + *past participle*
(passive past simple)
→ Unit 21

- The office **was cleaned** yesterday.
- These houses **were built** 100 years ago.
- How **was** the window **broken**?
- Where **were** you **born**?

C

have/has + *past participle* (**cleaned/lost/eaten/been** etc.)

have/has + *past participle*
(present perfect)
→ Units 15–18

- I'**ve cleaned** my room.
- Tom **has lost** his passport.
- Kate **hasn't been** to Canada.
- Where **have** Paul and Emma **gone**?

D

do/does/did + *infinitive* (**clean/like/eat/go** etc.)

do/does + *infinitive*
(present simple negative and questions)
→ Units 6–7

- I like coffee, but I **don't like** tea.
- Chris **doesn't go** out very often.
- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?
- **Does** Sam **live** alone?

did + *infinitive*
(past simple negative and questions)
→ Unit 12

- I **didn't watch** TV yesterday.
- It **didn't rain** last week.
- What time **did** Paul and Emma **go** out?

irregular verbs ➜ **Unit 24, Appendix 2–3**

Exercises

23.1 Write **is/are** or **do/does**.

1 ....Do.... you work in the evenings?
2 Where ....are.... they going?
3 Why ..... you looking at me?
4 ..... Ben live near you?
5 ..... you like cooking?
6 ..... the sun shining?
7 What time ..... the shops close?
8 ..... Maria working today?
9 What ..... this word mean?
10 ..... you feeling all right?

23.2 Write **am not/isn't/aren't** or **don't/doesn't**. All these sentences are negative.

1 Tom ....doesn't.... work at weekends.
2 I'm very tired. I ..... want to go out this evening.
3 I'm very tired. I ..... going out this evening.
4 Gary ..... working this week. He's on holiday.
5 My parents are usually at home. They ..... go out very often.
6 Nicola has travelled a lot, but she ..... speak any foreign languages.
7 You can turn off the television. I ..... watching it.
8 Lisa has invited us to her party next week, but we ..... going.

23.3 Write **was/were/did/have/has**.

1 Where ....were.... your shoes made?
2 ..... you go out last night?
3 What ..... you doing at 10.30?
4 Where ..... your mother born?
5 ..... Laura gone home?
6 What time ..... she go?
7 When ..... these houses built?
8 ..... Steve arrived yet?
9 Why ..... you go home early?
10 How long ..... they been married?

23.4 Write **is/are/was/were/have/has**.

1 Joe ....has.... lost his passport.
2 This bridge ..... built ten years ago.
3 ..... you finished your work yet?
4 This town is always clean. The streets ..... cleaned every day.
5 Where ..... you born?
6 I ..... just made some coffee. Would you like some?
7 Glass ..... made from sand.
8 This is a very old photograph. It ..... taken a long time ago.
9 David ..... bought a new car.

23.5 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb into the correct form.

damage	**~~rain~~**	**enjoy**	**~~go~~**	**pronounce**	**eat**
listen	**use**	**open**	**go**	**understand**	

1 I'm going to take an umbrella with me. It's ....raining....
2 Why are you so tired? Did you ....go.... to bed late last night?
3 Where are the chocolates? Have you ..... them all?
4 How is your new job? Are you ..... it?
5 My car was badly ..... in the accident, but I was OK.
6 Kate has got a car, but she doesn't ..... it very often.
7 Lisa isn't at home. She has ..... away for a few days.
8 I don't ..... the problem. Can you explain it again?
9 Mark is in his room. He's ..... to music.
10 I don't know how to say this word. How is it .....?
11 How do you ..... this window? Can you show me?

Unit 24

Regular and irregular verbs

A Regular verbs

The *past simple* and *past participle* of regular verbs is **-ed**:
clean → clean**ed** live → liv**ed** paint → paint**ed** study → studi**ed**

Past simple (→ Unit 11)

- I **cleaned** my room yesterday.
- Chris **studied** engineering at university.

Past participle

have/has + *past participle* (present perfect → Units 15–18):

- I **have cleaned** my room.
- Tina **has lived** in London for ten years.

be (**is/are/were/has been** etc.) + *past participle* (passive → Units 21–22):

- These rooms **are cleaned** every day.
- My car **has been repaired**.

B Irregular verbs

The past simple and past participle of irregular verbs do *not* end in **-ed**:

	make	break	cut
past simple	**made**	**broke**	**cut**
past participle	**made**	**broken**	**cut**

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are the same. For example:

	make	find	buy	cut
past simple / *past participle*	**made**	**found**	**bought**	**cut**

- I **made** a cake yesterday. *(past simple)*
- I **have made** some coffee. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- Butter **is made** from milk. *(past participle – passive present)*

Sometimes the past simple and past participle are different. For example:

	break	know	begin	go
past simple	**broke**	**knew**	**began**	**went**
past participle	**broken**	**known**	**begun**	**gone**

- Somebody **broke** this window last night. *(past simple)*
- Somebody **has broken** this window. *(past participle – present perfect)*
- This window **was broken** last night. *(past participle – passive past)*

irregular verbs → **Appendix 2–3** spelling (regular verbs) → **Appendix 5**

Exercises

24.1 Write the past simple / past participle of these verbs. (The past simple and past participle are the same for all the verbs in this exercise.)

1 make ...made... 6 enjoy ..... 11 hear .....
2 cut ...cut... 7 buy ..... 12 put .....
3 get ..... 8 sit ..... 13 catch .....
4 bring ..... 9 leave ..... 14 watch .....
5 pay ..... 10 happen ..... 15 understand .....

24.2 Write the past simple and past participle of these verbs.

1 break ...broke... ...broken... 8 come ....
2 begin .... 9 know ....
3 eat .... 10 take ....
4 drink .... 11 go ....
5 drive .... 12 give ....
6 speak .... 13 throw ....
7 write .... 14 forget ....

24.3 Put the verb in the right form.

1 I ...washed... my hands because they were dirty. (wash)
2 Somebody has ...broken... this window. (break)
3 I feel good. I ..... very well last night. (sleep)
4 We ..... a really good film yesterday. (see)
5 It ..... a lot while we were on holiday. (rain)
6 I've ..... my bag. Have you ..... it? (lose / see)
7 Rosa's bicycle was ..... last week. (steal)
8 I ..... to bed early because I was tired. (go)
9 Have you ..... your work yet? (finish)
10 The shopping centre was ..... about 20 years ago. (build)
11 Anna ..... to drive when she was 18. (learn)
12 I've never ..... a horse. (ride)
13 Jessica is a good friend of mine. I've ..... her for a long time. (know)
14 Yesterday I ..... and ..... my leg. (fall / hurt)
15 My brother ..... in the London Marathon last year. Have you ever ..... in a marathon? (run / run)

24.4 Complete these sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb into the correct form.

cost	**drive**	**fly**	~~**make**~~	**meet**	**sell**
speak	**swim**	**tell**	**think**	**wake up**	**win**

1 I have ...made... some coffee. Would you like some?
2 Have you ..... John about your new job?
3 We played basketball on Sunday. We didn't play very well, but we ..... the game.
4 I know Gary, but I've never ..... his wife.
5 We were ..... by loud music in the middle of the night.
6 Stephanie jumped into the river and ..... to the other side.
7 'Did you like the film?' 'Yes, I ..... it was very good.'
8 Many different languages are ..... in the Philippines.
9 Our holiday ..... a lot of money because we stayed in an expensive hotel.
10 Have you ever ..... a very fast car?
11 All the tickets for the concert were ..... very quickly.
12 A bird ..... in through the open window while we were having our dinner.

Unit 25

What are you doing tomorrow?

A

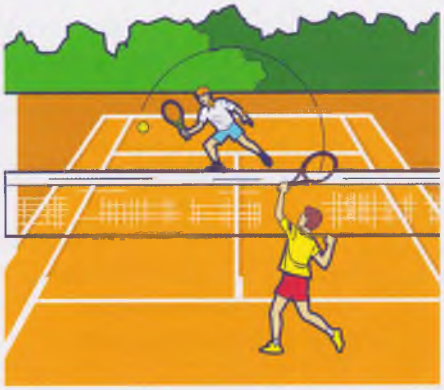

They **are playing** tennis (**now**).

today is Sunday

He **is playing** tennis **tomorrow**.

We use **am/is/are** + **-ing** *(present continuous)* for something happening now:

- 'Where are Tina and Helen?' 'They**'re playing** tennis in the park.'
- Please be quiet. **I'm working**.

We also use **am/is/are** + **-ing** for the *future* (tomorrow / next week etc.):

- Andrew **is playing** tennis tomorrow.
- I**'m** not **working** next week.

B

I am doing something tomorrow = I have arranged to do it, I have a plan to do it:

- Sophie **is going** to the dentist on Friday.
  (= she has an appointment with the dentist)
- We**'re having** a party next weekend.
- **Are** you **meeting** your friends tonight?
- What **are** you **doing** tomorrow evening?
- **I'm** not **going** out tonight. **I'm staying** at home.

You can also say '**I'm going to** do something' (→ Unit 26).

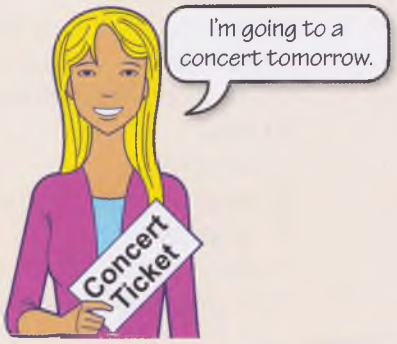

C

We use the present continuous (**I'm staying** / **are you coming** etc.) to say what somebody has arranged to do:

- I**'m staying** at home this evening. (*not* I stay)
- **Are** you **going** out tonight? (*not* Do you go)
- Lisa **isn't coming** to the party next week. (*not* Lisa doesn't come)

But we use the present simple (**start**, **arrives** etc.) for timetables, programmes, trains, buses etc. :

- The train **arrives** at 7.30.
- What time **does** the film **finish**?

Compare:

present continuous (usually for people)	*present simple* (for timetables, programmes etc.)
I**'m going** to a concert tomorrow.	The concert **starts** at 7.30.
What time **are** you **leaving**?	What time **does** your train **leave**?

present continuous ➜ **Units 3–4** present simple ➜ **Units 5–7** **I'm going to** ... ➜ **Unit 26**

Exercises

25.1 Look at the pictures. What are these people doing next Friday?

1 Andrew is playing tennis on Friday.
2 Richard ..... to the cinema.
3 Rachel .....
4 ..... lunch with Will.
5 .....

25.2 Write questions. All the sentences are future.

1 (you / go / out / tonight?) Are you going out tonight?
2 (you / work / next week?) .....
3 (what / you / do / tomorrow evening?) .....
4 (what time / your friends / come?) .....
5 (when / Lisa / go / on holiday?) .....

25.3 Write sentences about yourself. What are you doing in the next few days?

1 I'm staying at home tonight.
2 I'm going to the theatre on Monday.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

25.4 Put the verb in the present continuous (**he is leaving** etc.) or present simple (**the train leaves** etc.).

1 '.....Are you going..... (you/go) out tonight?' 'No, I'm too tired.'
2 .....We're going..... (we/go) to a concert tonight. .....It starts..... (it/start) at 7.30.
3 Do you know about Sarah? ..... (she/get) married next month!
4 A: My parents ..... (go) on holiday next week.
B: Oh, that's nice. Where ..... (they/go)?
5 Silvia is doing an English course at the moment. The course ..... (finish) on Friday.
6 There's a party tomorrow night, but ..... (I/not/go).
7 ..... (I/go) out with some friends tonight. Why don't you come too? ..... (we/meet) at the Royal Hotel at 8 o'clock.
8 A: How ..... (you/get) home after the party tomorrow? By taxi?
B: No, I can go by bus. The last bus ..... (leave) at midnight.
9 A: ..... (you/come) with us to the cinema tonight?
B: Yes, what time ..... (the film / begin)?
10 A: What ..... (you/do) tomorrow afternoon?
B: ..... (I/work).

Unit 26

I'm going to ...

A

I'm going to do something

She **is going to watch** TV this evening.

We use **am/is/are going to** ... for the *future:*

I	**am**		do ...
he/she/it	**is**	(not) **going to**	drink ...
we/you/they	**are**		watch ...

am	I		buy ... ?
is	he/she/it	**going to**	eat ... ?
are	we/you/they		wear ... ?

B

I am going to do something = I have decided to do it, my intention is to do it:

I decided to do it → **I'm going to do it**

past — *now* — *future*

- **I'm going to buy** some books tomorrow.
- Sarah **is going to sell** her car.
- **I'm not going to have** breakfast this morning. I'm not hungry.
- What **are** you **going to wear** to the wedding next week?
- 'Your hands are dirty.' 'Yes, I know. **I'm going to wash** them.'
- **Are** you **going to invite** Mark to your party?

We also use the present continuous (**I am doing**) for the future, usually for arrangements (→ Unit 25):

- **I am playing** tennis with Julia tomorrow.

C

Something **is going to happen**

Something **is going to happen** = we can see *now* that it is sure to happen:

- Look at the sky! It**'s going to rain**.
  (black clouds *now* → rain)
- Oh dear! It's 9 o'clock and I'm not ready.
  I'm going to be late.
  (9 o'clock *now* and not ready → late)

present for the future ➜ Unit 25 **will** ➜ Units 27–28

Exercises

26.1 What are these people saying?

26.2 Complete the sentences. Use **going to** + these verbs:

do **eat** **give** **lie down** **stay** **walk** ~~**wash**~~ **watch** ~~**wear**~~

1 My hands are dirty. I'm going to wash them.
2 What are you going to wear to the party tonight?
3 It's a nice day. I don't want to take the bus. I .....
4 Steve is going to London next week. He ..... with some friends.
5 I'm hungry. I ..... this sandwich.
6 It's Sarah's birthday next week. We ..... her a present.
7 Sue says she's feeling very tired. She ..... for an hour.
8 Your favourite programme is on TV tonight. ..... you ..... it?
9 What ..... Rachel ..... when she leaves school?

26.3 Look at the pictures. What is going to happen?

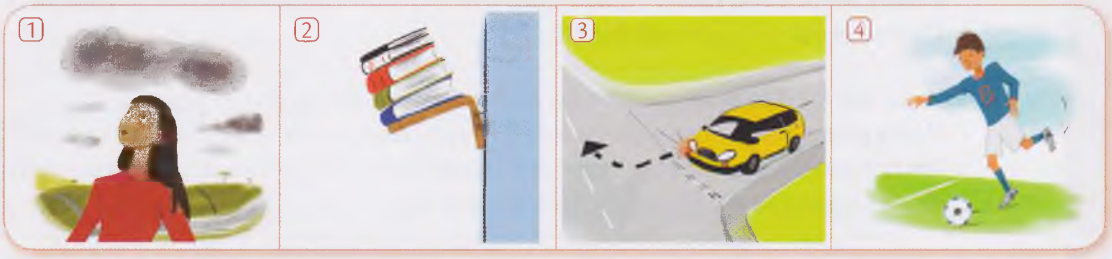

1 It's going to rain.
2 The shelf .....
3 The car .....
4 He .....

26.4 What are you going to do today or tomorrow? Write three sentences.

1 I'm .....
2 .....
3 .....

Unit 27

will/shall 1

A

SARAH

Sarah goes to work every day. She is always there from 8.30 until 4.30.

It is 11 o'clock now. Sarah **is** at work.

At 11 o'clock yesterday, she **was** at work.

At 11 o'clock tomorrow, she **will be** at work.

will + *infinitive* (**will be** / **will win** / **will come** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**will** (**'ll**) **will not** (**won't**)	**be** **win** **eat** **come** etc.

will	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**be?** **win?** **eat?** **come?** etc.

'll = **will**: I**'ll** (I will) / you**'ll** / she**'ll** etc.
won't = **will not**: I **won't** (= I will not) / you **won't** / she **won't** etc.

B

We use **will** for the *future* (tomorrow / next week etc.):

- Sue travels a lot. Today she is in Madrid. Tomorrow she**'ll be** in Rome. Next week she**'ll be** in Tokyo.
- You can call me this evening. I**'ll be** at home.
- Leave the old bread in the garden. The birds **will eat** it.
- We**'ll** probably **go** out this evening.
- **Will** you **be** at home this evening?
- I **won't be** here tomorrow. (= I will not be here)
- Don't drink coffee before you go to bed. You **won't sleep**.

We often say **I think** ... **will** ... :

- **I think** Kelly **will pass** the exam.
- **I don't think** it **will rain** this afternoon.
- **Do you think** the exam **will be** difficult?

C

We do *not* use **will** for things we have already arranged or decided to do (→ Units 25–26):

- We**'re going** to the cinema on Saturday. Do you want to come with us? (*not* We will go)
- I**'m** not **working** tomorrow. (*not* I won't work)
- **Are** you **going to do** the exam? (*not* Will you do)

D

shall

You can say **I shall** (= I will) and **we shall** (= we will):

- **I shall be** late tomorrow. *or* **I will** (**I'll**) **be** late tomorrow.
- I think **we shall win**. *or* I think **we will** (**we'll**) **win**.

But *do not* use **shall** with **you/they/he/she/it**:

- **Tom will** be late. (*not* Tom shall be)

What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25 I'm going to ... ➜ Unit 26 will/shall 2 ➜ Unit 28

Exercises

27.1 Helen is travelling in Europe. Complete the sentences with **she was, she's** or **she'll be**.

1 Yesterday ...she was... in Paris.
2 Tomorrow ..... in Amsterdam.
3 Last week ..... in Barcelona.
4 Next week ..... in London.
5 At the moment ..... in Brussels.
6 Three days ago ..... in Munich.
7 At the end of her trip ..... very tired.

Helen

27.2 Where will you be? Write sentences about yourself. Use:

I'll be ... or **I'll probably be ...** or **I don't know where I'll be.**

1 (at 10 o'clock tomorrow) ...I'll probably be on the beach.
2 (one hour from now) .....
3 (at midnight tonight) .....
4 (at 3 o'clock tomorrow afternoon) .....
5 (two years from now) .....

27.3 Put in **will ('ll)** or **won't**.

1 Don't drink coffee before you go to bed. You ...won't... sleep.
2 'Are you ready yet?' 'Not yet. I ..... be ready in five minutes.'
3 I'm going away for a few days. I'm leaving tonight, so I ..... be at home tomorrow.
4 It ..... rain, so you don't need to take an umbrella.
5 A: I don't feel very well this evening.
B: Well, go to bed early and you ..... feel better in the morning.
6 It's Ben's birthday next Monday. He ..... be 25.
7 I'm sorry I was late this morning. It ..... happen again.

27.4 Write sentences with **I think ...** or **I don't think ...** .

1 (Kelly will pass the exam) ...I think Kelly will pass the exam.
2 (Kelly won't pass the exam) ...I don't think Kelly will pass the exam.
3 (we'll win the game) I .....
4 (I won't be here tomorrow) .....
5 (Sue will like her present) .....
6 (they won't get married) .....
7 (you won't enjoy the film) .....

27.5 Which is right? (Study Unit 25 before you do this exercise.)

1 ~~We'll go~~ / We're going to the theatre tonight. We've got tickets. (We're going *is right*)
2 'What will you do / are you doing tomorrow evening?' 'Nothing. I'm free.'
3 They'll go / They're going away tomorrow morning. Their train is at 8.40.
4 I'm sure your aunt will lend / is lending us some money. She's very rich.
5 'Why are you putting on your coat?' 'I'll go / I'm going out.'
6 Do you think Clare will phone / is phoning us tonight?
7 Steve can't meet us on Saturday. He'll work / He's working.
8 Will you / Shall you be at home tomorrow evening?
9 A: What are your plans for the weekend?
B: Some friends will come / are coming to stay with us.

will/shall 2

A

You can use **I'll** ... (**I will**) when you offer something or decide to do something:

- 'My bag is very heavy.' **'I'll carry** it for you.'
- **'I'll phone** you tomorrow, OK?' 'OK, bye.'

We often say **I think I'll** ... / **I don't think I'll** ... when we decide to do something:

- I'm tired. **I think I'll go** to bed early tonight.
- It's a nice day. **I think I'll sit** outside.
- It's raining. **I don't think I'll go** out.

Do *not* use the present simple (**I go** / **I phone** etc.) in sentences like these:

- **I'll phone** you tomorrow, OK? (*not* I phone you)
- I think I'**ll go** to bed early. (*not* I go to bed)

B

Do *not* use **I'll** ... for something you decided before (→ Units 25–26):

- I'**m working** tomorrow. (*not* I'll work)
- I don't want my car any more. I'**m going to sell** it. (*not* I'll sell)
- What **are** you **doing** at the weekend? (*not* What will you do)

C

Shall I ... **?** **Shall we** ... **?**

Shall I / **Shall we** ... **?** = Do you think this is a good thing to do? Do you think this is a good idea?

- It's very warm in this room. **Shall I open** the window?
- '**Shall I phone** you this evening?' 'Yes, please.'
- I'm going to a party tonight. What **shall I wear**?

- It's a nice day. **Shall we go** for a walk?
- Where **shall we go** for our holidays this year?
- 'Let's go out this evening.' 'OK, what time **shall we meet**?'

What are you doing tomorrow? ➜ Unit 25 **I'm going to** ... ➜ Unit 26 **will/shall** 1 ➜ Unit 27
Let's ➜ Units 35, 53

Exercises

28.1 Complete the sentences. Use **I'll** (**I will**) + these verbs:

~~carry~~ do eat show sit stay

1	My bag is very heavy.	I'll carry ..... it for you.
2	I don't want this banana.	Well, I'm hungry. ..... it.
3	Do you want a chair?	No, it's OK. ..... on the floor.
4	Did you phone Sophie?	Oh no, I forgot. ..... it now.
5	Are you coming with me?	No, I don't think so. ..... here.
6	How do you use this camera?	Give it to me and ..... you.

28.2 Complete the sentences. Use **I think I'll ...** or **I don't think I'll ...** + these verbs:

buy buy ~~go~~ have play

1 It's cold today. I don't think I'll go ..... out.
2 I'm hungry. I ..... something to eat.
3 I feel very tired. ..... tennis.
4 I like this hat. ..... it.
5 This camera is too expensive. ..... it.

28.3 Which is right?

1 ~~I phone~~ / I'll phone you tomorrow, OK? (I'll phone *is right*)
2 I haven't done the shopping yet. I do / I'll do it later.
3 I like sport. I watch / I'll watch a lot of sport on TV.
4 I need some exercise. I think I go / I'll go for a walk.
5 Carl is going to buy / will buy a new car. He told me last week.
6 'This book belongs to Tina.' 'OK. I give / I'll give / I'm going to give it to her.'
7 A: Are you doing / Will you do anything this evening?
B: Yes, I'm going / I'll go out with some friends.
8 I can't go out with you tomorrow night. I work / I'm working / I'll work.

28.4 Write sentences with **Shall I ... ?** Choose from the two boxes.

make	turn off
~~open~~	turn on

some sandwiches	the TV
the light	~~the window~~

1	It's very warm in this room.	Shall I open the window?
2	This programme isn't very good.	.....
3	I'm hungry.	.....
4	It's dark in this room.	.....

28.5 Write sentences with **Shall we ... ?** Choose from the two boxes.

what	where
~~what time~~	who

buy	invite
go	~~meet~~

1	Let's go out tonight.	OK, what time shall we meet?
2	Let's have a holiday.	OK, ...
3	Let's spend some money.	OK, ...
4	Let's have a party.	OK, ...

→ Additional exercises 28–31 (pages 264–67)

Unit 29

might

A

He **might go** to New York.
(= it is possible that he will go to New York)

It **might rain**.
(= it is possible that it will rain)

might + *infinitive* (**might go** / **might be** / **might rain** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**might** (not)	**be** **go** **play** **come** etc.

B

I might = it is possible that I will:

- I **might go** to the cinema this evening, but I'm not sure. (= it is possible that I will go)
- A: When is Rebecca going to phone you?
  B: I don't know. She **might phone** this afternoon.
- Take an umbrella with you. It **might rain**.
- Buy a lottery ticket. You **might be** lucky. (= perhaps you will be lucky)
- A: Are you going out tonight?
  B: **I might**. (= I might go out)

Study the difference:

- **I'm playing** tennis tomorrow. *(sure)*
  I **might play** tennis tomorrow. *(possible)*
- Rebecca **is going to phone** later. *(sure)*
  Rebecca **might phone** later. *(possible)*

C

I might not = it is possible that I will not:

- I **might not go** to work tomorrow.
  (= it is possible that I will not go)
- Sue **might not come** to the party.
  (= it is possible that she will not come)

D

may

You can use **may** in the same way. **I may** = **I might**:

- I **may go** to the cinema this evening. (= I might go)
- Sue **may not come** to the party. (= Sue might not come)

May I ... **?** = Is it OK to ... ? / Can I ... ?:

- **May I** ask a question? (= is it OK to ask / can I ask?)
- '**May I** sit here?' 'Yes, of course.'

will → Units 27–28 **can** → Unit 30

Exercises

29.1 Write sentences with **might**.

1 (it's possible that I'll go to the cinema) I might go to the cinema.
2 (it's possible that I'll see you tomorrow) I .....
3 (it's possible that Sarah will forget to phone) .....
4 (it's possible that it will snow today) .....
5 (it's possible that I'll be late tonight) .....

Write sentences with **might not**.

6 (it's possible that Mark will not be here next week) .....
7 (it's possible that I won't have time to go out) .....

29.2 Somebody is asking you about your plans. You have some ideas, but you are not sure. Choose from the list and write sentences with **I might**.

fish **go away** ~~**Italy**~~ **Monday** **a new car** **taxi**

1	Where are you going for your holidays?	I'm not sure. I might go to Italy.
2	What are you doing at the weekend?	I don't know. I .....
3	When will you see Kate again?	I'm not sure. .....
4	What are you going to have for dinner?	I don't know. .....
5	How are you going to get home tonight?	I'm not sure. .....
6	I hear you won some money. What are you going to do with it?	I haven't decided yet. .....

29.3 You ask Ben questions about his plans for tomorrow. Sometimes he is sure, but usually he is not sure.

1	Are you playing tennis tomorrow?	Yes, in the afternoon.
2	Are you going out tomorrow evening?	Possibly.
3	Are you going to get up early?	Perhaps.
4	Are you working tomorrow?	No, I'm not.
5	Will you be at home tomorrow morning?	Maybe.
6	Are you going to watch TV?	I might.
7	Are you going out in the afternoon?	Yes, I am.
8	Are you going shopping?	Perhaps.

Ben

Now write about Ben. Use **might** where necessary.

1 He's playing tennis tomorrow afternoon.
2 He might go out tomorrow evening.
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

29.4 Write three things that you **might** do tomorrow.

1 .....
2 .....
3 .....

Unit 30

can and could

A

He **can play** the piano.

can + *infinitive* (**can do** / **can play** / **can come** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**can** **can't** (**cannot**)	**do** **play** **see** **come** etc.

can	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**do?** **play?** **see?** **come?** etc.

B

I can do something = I *know how* to do it, or *it is possible* for me to do it:

- I **can play** the piano. My brother **can play** the piano too.
- Sarah **can speak** Italian, but she **can't speak** Spanish.
- A: **Can** you **swim**?
  B: Yes, but I'm not a very good swimmer.
- A: **Can** you **change** twenty pounds?
  B: I'm sorry, I **can't**.
- I'm having a party next week, but Paul and Rachel **can't come**.

C

For the past (yesterday / last week etc.), we use **could**/**couldn't**:

- When I was young, I **could run** very fast.
- Before Maria came to Britain, she **couldn't understand** much English. Now she **can understand** everything.
- I was tired last night, but I **couldn't sleep**.
- I had a party last week, but Paul and Rachel **couldn't come**.

D

Can you ... **?** **Could you** ... **?** **Can I** ... **?** **Could I** ... **?**

We use **Can you** ... **?** or **Could you** ... **?** when we ask people to do things:

- **Can you** open the door, please? *or* **Could you** open the door, please?
- **Can you** wait a moment, please? *or* **Could you** wait ... ?

We use **Can I have** ... **?** or **Can I get** ... **?** to ask for something:

- **Can I have** a glass of water, please? *or* **Can I get** ... ?

Can I ... **?** or **Could I** ... **?** = is it OK to do something?:

- **Can I** sit here?
- Tom, **could I** borrow your umbrella?

May I ... ? ➜ Unit 29

Exercises

30.1 Ask Steve if he can do these things:

You — Steve

1 Can you swim?
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

Can you do these things? Write sentences about yourself. Use **I can** or **I can't**.

7 I .....
8 .....
9 .....
10 .....
11 .....
12 .....

30.2 Complete these sentences. Use **can** or **can't** + one of these verbs:

~~come~~ find hear see speak

1 I'm sorry, but we can't come to your party next Saturday.
2 I like this hotel room. You ..... the mountains from the window.
3 You are speaking very quietly. I ..... you.
4 Have you seen my bag? I ..... it.
5 Catherine got the job because she ..... five languages.

30.3 Complete these sentences. Use **can't** or **couldn't** + one of these verbs:

decide eat find go go ~~sleep~~

1 I was tired, but I couldn't sleep.
2 I wasn't hungry yesterday. I ..... my dinner.
3 Kate doesn't know what to do. She ..... .
4 I wanted to speak to Mark yesterday, but I ..... him.
5 James ..... to the concert next Saturday. He has to work.
6 Paula ..... to the meeting last week. She was ill.

30.4 What do you say in these situations? Use **can** or **could**.

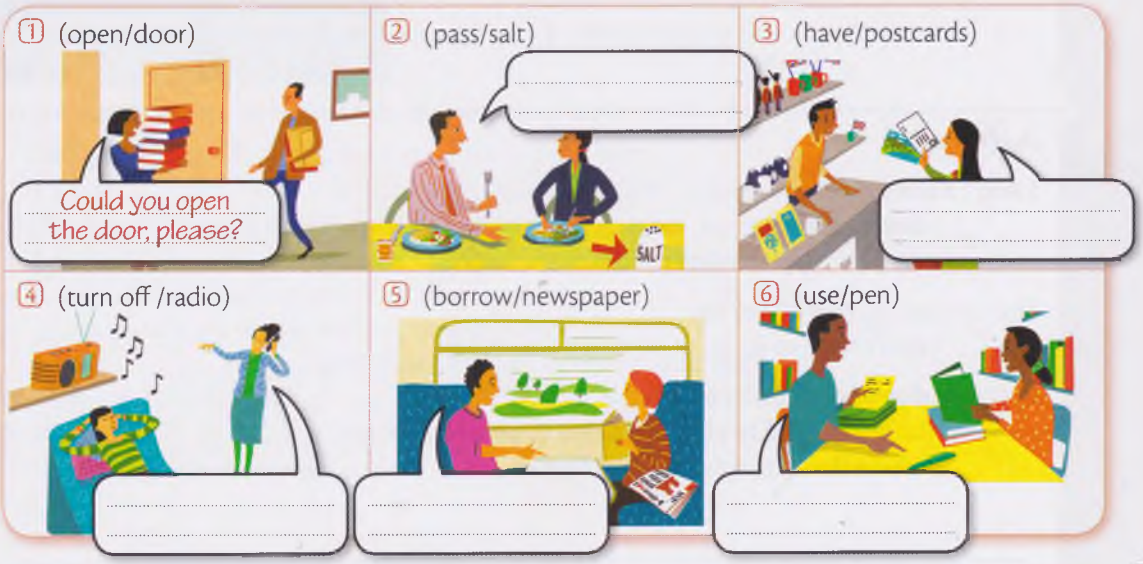

Unit 31

must mustn't don't need to

A

must + *infinitive* (**must do** / **must work** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**must**	**do** **go** **see** **eat** etc.

B

I must (do something) = I need to do it:

- I'm very hungry. I **must eat** something.
- It's a fantastic film. You **must see** it.
- The windows are very dirty. We **must clean** them.

For the past (yesterday / last week etc.), we use **had to** ... (*not* must):

- I was very hungry. I **had to eat** something. (*not* I must eat)
- We **had to walk** home last night. There were no buses. (*not* We must walk)

C

mustn't (= must not)

I mustn't (do something) = it is necessary *not* to do it, it is the wrong thing to do:

- I **must go**. I **mustn't be** late.
- I **mustn't forget** to phone Chris.
  (= I **must remember** to phone her)
- Be happy! You **mustn't be** sad. (= don't be sad)
- You **mustn't touch** the pictures.
  (= don't touch the pictures)

D

don't need to

I don't need (to do something) = it is not necessary:

- I **don't need to go** yet. I can stay a little longer.
- You **don't need to shout**. I can hear you OK.

You can also say **don't have to** ... :

- I **don't have to go** yet. I can stay a little longer.

Compare **don't need to** and **mustn't**:

- You **don't need to** go. You can stay here if you want.
- You **mustn't** go. You must stay here.

I have to ... → Unit 33

Exercises

31.1 Complete the sentences. Use **must** + these verbs:

be ~~**eat**~~ **go** **learn** **meet** **wash** **win**

1 I'm very hungry. I ....must eat.... something.
2 Marilyn is a very interesting person. You ..... her.
3 My hands are dirty. I ..... them.
4 You ..... to drive. It will be very useful.
5 I ..... shopping. I need to buy some food.
6 The game tomorrow is very important for us. We ..... .
7 You can't always have things immediately. You ..... patient.

31.2 Write **I must** or **I had to**.

1 ....I had to.... walk home last night. There were no buses.
2 It's late. ..... go now.
3 I don't usually work on Saturdays, but last Saturday ..... work.
4 ..... get up early tomorrow. I have a lot to do.
5 I came here by train. The train was full and ..... stand all the way.
6 I was nearly late for my appointment this morning. ..... run to get there on time.
7 I forgot to phone David yesterday. ..... phone him later today.

31.3 Complete the sentences. Use **mustn't** or **don't need to** + these verbs:

forget ~~**go**~~ **lose** **phone** **rush** **wait**

1 I ....don't need to go.... home yet. I can stay a little longer.
2 We have a lot of time. We ..... .
3 Keep these papers in a safe place. You ..... them.
4 I'm not ready yet, but you ..... for me. You can go now and I'll come later.
5 We ..... to turn off the lights before we leave.
6 I must contact David, but I ..... him – I can send him an email.

31.4 Find the sentences with the same meaning.

1 We can leave the meeting early.	A We must stay until the end.	1 ....E....
2 We must leave the meeting early.	B We couldn't stay until the end.	2 .....
3 We mustn't leave the meeting early.	C We can't stay until the end.	3 .....
4 We had to leave the meeting early.	D We can stay until the end.	4 .....
5 We don't need to leave the meeting early.	E We don't need to stay until the end.	5 .....

31.5 Write **must** / **mustn't** / **had to** / **don't need to**.

1 You ....don't need to.... go. You can stay here if you want.
2 It's a fantastic film. You ....must.... see it.
3 The restaurant won't be busy tonight. We ..... reserve a table.
4 I was very busy last week. I ..... work every evening.
5 I want to know what happened. You ..... tell me.
6 I don't want Sue to know what happened. You ..... tell her.
7 I ..... go now or I'll be late for my appointment.
8 'Why were you so late?' 'I ..... wait half an hour for a bus.'
9 We ..... decide now. We can decide later.
10 It's Lisa's birthday next week. I ..... forget to buy her a present.

Unit 32

should

A

should + *infinitive*
(**should do** / **should watch** etc.):

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**should** **shouldn't**	**do** **stop** **go** **watch** etc.

B

You **should** do something = it is a good thing to do, it is the right thing to do:

- Tom doesn't study enough. He **should study** harder.
- It's a good film. You **should go** and see it.
- When you play tennis, you **should** always **watch** the ball.

C

You **shouldn't** do something = it is not a good thing to do.
Shouldn't = should not:

- Tom **shouldn't go** to bed so late.
- You watch TV all the time. You **shouldn't watch** TV so much.

D

We often say **I think** ... **should** ...

I think ... **should** ... :

- **I think** Lisa **should buy** some new clothes.
  (= I think it is a good idea.)
- It's late. **I think** I **should go** home now.
- A: Shall I buy this coat?
  B: Yes, **I think** you **should**.

I don't think ... **should** ... :

- **I don't think** you **should work** so hard.
  (= I don't think it is a good idea.)
- **I don't think** we **should go** yet. It's too early.

Do you think ... **should** ... ?:

- **Do you think** I **should buy** this hat?
- What time **do you think** we **should go** home?

E

Must is stronger than **should**:

- It's a **good** film. You **should** go and see it.
- It's a **fantastic** film. You **must** go and see it.

F

Another way to say **should** is **ought to**:

- It's a good film. You **ought to go** and see it. (= you should go)
- I think Lisa **ought to buy** some new clothes. (= Lisa should buy)

shall ➜ Units 27–28 **must** ➜ Unit 31

Exercises

32.1 Complete the sentences. Use **you should** + these verbs:

eat **go** **take** **visit** ~~**watch**~~ **wear**

1 When you play tennis, you should watch the ball.
2 It's late and you're very tired. ..... to bed.
3 ..... plenty of fruit and vegetables.
4 If you have time, ... the Science Museum. It's very interesting.
5 When you're driving, ... a seat belt.
6 It's too far to walk from here to the station. ..... a taxi.

32.2 Write about the people in the pictures. Use **He/She shouldn't ... so ...** .

1 She shouldn't watch TV so much.
2 He .....
3 ..... hard.
4 .....

32.3 You are not sure what to do, so you ask a friend. Write questions with **Do you think I should ... ?**

1 You are in a shop. You are trying on a jacket. (buy?)
You ask your friend: Do you think I should buy this jacket?
2 You can't drive. (learn?)
You ask your friend: Do you think .....
3 You don't like your job. (get another job?)
You ask your friend: .....
4 You are going to have a party. (invite Gary?)
You ask your friend: .....

32.4 Write sentences with **I think ... should ...** and **I don't think ... should ...** .

1 We have to get up early tomorrow. (go home now) I think we should go home now.
2 That coat is too big for you. (buy it) I don't think you should buy it.
3 You don't need your car. (sell it) .....
4 Karen needs a rest. (have a holiday) .....
5 Sarah and Dan are too young. (get married) .....
6 You're not well this morning. (go to work) .....
7 James isn't well today. (go to the doctor) .....
8 The hotel is too expensive for us. (stay there) .....

32.5 What do you think? Write sentences with **should**.

1 I think everybody should learn another language.
2 I think everybody .....
3 I think .....
4 I don't think .....
5 I think I should .....

Unit 33

I have to ...

A

I have to do something = it is necessary for me to do it, I am obliged to do it

I/we/you/they	**have**	**to do** **to work** **to go** **to wear** etc.
he/she/it	**has**	

- I'll be late for work tomorrow. I **have to go** to the dentist.
- Jane starts work at 7 o'clock, so she **has to get** up at 6.
- You **have to pass** a test before you can get a driving licence.

B

The past (yesterday / last week etc.) is **had to** ... :

- I was late for work yesterday. I **had to go** to the dentist.
- We **had to walk** home last night. There were no buses.

C

In questions and negatives we use **do/does** (present) and **did** (past):

present

do	I/we/you/they	**have to** ... ?
does	he/she/it	

I/we/you/they	**don't**	**have to** ...
he/she/it	**doesn't**	

past

did	I/we/you/they he/she/it	**have to** ... ?

I/we/you/they he/she/it	**didn't have to** ...

- What time **do** you **have to go** to the dentist tomorrow?
- **Does** Jane **have to work** on Sundays?
- Why **did** they **have to leave** the party early?

I **don't have to** (do something) = it is not necessary to do it:

- I'm not working tomorrow, so I **don't have to get** up early.
- Ian **doesn't have to work** very hard. He's got an easy job.
- We **didn't have to wait** very long for the bus – it came in a few minutes.

D

must and **have to**

You can use **must** or **have to** when you say what *you* think is necessary, when you give *your* opinion:

- It's a fantastic film. You **must** see it. *or* You **have to** see it.

When you are *not* giving your personal opinion, use **have to** (*not* **must**). Compare:

- Jane won't be at work this afternoon. She **has to** go to the doctor.
  (this is not my personal opinion – it is a fact)
- Jane isn't well. She doesn't want to go to the doctor, but I told her she **must** go.
  (this is my personal opinion)

must / mustn't / don't need to ➜ Unit 31

Exercises

33.1 Complete the sentences. Use **have to** or **has to** + these verbs:

do **hit** **read** **speak** **travel** ~~**wear**~~

1 My eyes are not very good. I have to wear glasses.
2 At the end of the course all the students ..... a test.
3 Sarah is studying literature. She ..... a lot of books.
4 Albert doesn't understand much English. You ..... very slowly to him.
5 Kate is often away from home. She ..... a lot in her job.
6 In tennis you ..... the ball over the net.

33.2 Complete the sentences. Use **have to** or **had to** + these verbs:

answer **buy** **change** **go** ~~**walk**~~

1 We had to walk home last night. There were no buses.
2 It's late. I ..... now. I'll see you tomorrow.
3 I went to the supermarket after work yesterday. I ..... some food.
4 This train doesn't go all the way to London. You ..... at Bristol.
5 We did an exam yesterday. We ..... six questions out of ten.

33.3 Complete the questions. Some are present and some are past.

1	I have to get up early tomorrow.	What time do you have to get up ?
2	George had to wait a long time.	How long ..... ?
3	Lisa has to go somewhere.	Where ..... ?
4	We had to pay a lot of money.	How much ..... ?
5	I have to do some work.	What exactly ..... ?

33.4 Write sentences with **don't/doesn't/didn't have to ...** .

1 Why are you going out? You don't have to go out.
2 Why is Sue waiting? She .....
3 Why did you get up early? You .....
4 Why is Paul working so hard? He .....
5 Why do you want to leave now? We .....

33.5 Which is correct? Sometimes **must** and **have to** are both correct. Sometimes only one is correct.

1 It's a fantastic film. You must see / have to see it. (*both are correct*)
2 Jessica won't be at work this afternoon. She ~~must go~~ / has to go to the doctor. (has to go *is correct*)
3 You can't park your car here for nothing. You must pay / have to pay.
4 I didn't have any money with me last night, so I must borrow / had to borrow some.
5 I eat too much chocolate. I really must stop / have to stop.
6 Paul is in a hurry. He must meet / has to meet somebody in five minutes.
7 What's wrong? You must tell / have to tell me. I want to help you.

33.6 Write some things that you (or your friends or family) have to do or had to do.

1 (every day) I have to travel ten miles every day.
2 (every day) .....
3 (yesterday) .....
4 (tomorrow) .....

Unit 34

Would you like ... ? I'd like ...

A

Would you like ... **?** = Do you want ... ?

We use **Would you like** ... **?** to offer things:

- A: **Would you like** some coffee?
  B: No, thank you.
- A: **Would you like** a chocolate?
  B: Yes, please.
- A: What **would you like**, tea or coffee?
  B: Tea, please.

We use **Would you like to** ... **?** to invite somebody:

- **Would you like to go** for a walk?
- A: **Would you like to eat** with us on Sunday?
  B: Yes, **I'd love to**. (= I would love to eat with you)
- What **would you like to do** this evening?

B

I'd like ... is a polite way to say 'I want'. **I'd** like = **I would** like:

- I'm thirsty. **I'd like** a drink.
- *(in a tourist office)* **I'd like** some information about hotels, please.
- I'm feeling tired. **I'd like to stay** at home this evening.

C

Would you like ... **?** and **Do you like** ... **?**

Would you like ... **?** / **I'd like** ...

Would you like some tea? = Do you want some tea?

- A: **Would you like** to go to the cinema tonight?
  (= do you want to go *tonight?*)
  B: Yes, I'd love to.
- **I'd like** an orange, please.
  (= can I have an orange?)
- What **would you like** to do next weekend?

Do you like ... **?** / **I like** ...

Do you like tea? = Do you think tea is nice?

- A: **Do you like** going to the cinema? *(in general)*
  B: Yes, I go to the cinema a lot.
- **I like** oranges. *(in general)*
- What **do you like** to do at weekends?

like to do and **like -ing** → Unit 52 **I would do** something **if** ... → Unit 100

Exercises

34.1 What are the people in the pictures saying? Use **Would you like ... ?**

34.2 What do you say to Sue in these situations? Use **Would you like to ... ?**

1 You want to go to the cinema tonight. Perhaps Sue will go with you. (go)
You say: *Would you like to go to the cinema tonight?*

2 You want to play tennis tomorrow. Perhaps Sue will play too. (play)
You say: .....

3 You have an extra ticket for a concert next week. Perhaps Sue will come. (come)
You say: .....

4 It's raining and Sue is going out. She doesn't have an umbrella, but you have one. (borrow)
You say: .....

34.3 Which is right?

1 '~~Do you like~~ / Would you like a chocolate?' 'Yes, please.' (Would you like *is right*)
2 'Do you like / Would you like bananas?' 'Yes, I love them.'
3 'Do you like / Would you like an ice cream?' 'No, thank you.'
4 'What do you like / would you like to drink?' 'A glass of water, please.'
5 'Do you like / Would you like to go out for a walk?' 'Not now. Perhaps later.'
6 I like / I'd like tomatoes, but I don't eat them very often.
7 What time do you like / would you like to have dinner this evening?
8 'Do you like / Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thanks. I'm not hungry.'
9 'Do you like / Would you like your new job?' 'Yes, I'm enjoying it.'
10 I'm tired. I like / I'd like to go to sleep now.
11 'I like / I'd like a sandwich, please.' 'Sure. What kind of sandwich?'
12 'What kind of music do you like / would you like?' 'All kinds.'

Unit 35

Do this! Don't do that! Let's do this!

A

We use **come**/**look**/**go**/**wait**/**be** etc. when we tell somebody to do something:

- '**Come** here and **look** at this!' 'What is it?'
- I don't want to talk to you. **Go** away!
- I'm not ready yet. Please **wait** for me.
- Please **be** quiet. I'm working.

also

- Bye! **Have** a good holiday! / **Have** a nice time! / **Have** a good flight! / **Have** fun!
  (= I hope you have a good holiday etc.)
- '**Have** a chocolate.' 'Oh, thanks.'
  (= would you like a chocolate?)

B

We use **don't** ... when we tell somebody not to do something:

- Be careful! **Don't fall**.
- Please **don't go**. Stay here with me.
- Be here on time. **Don't be** late.

C

You can say **Let's** ... when you want people to do things with you. **Let's** = Let us.

- It's a nice day. **Let's go** out.
  (= *you and I* can go out)
- Come on! **Let's dance**.
  (= *you and I* can dance)
- Are you ready? **Let's go**.
- **Let's have** fish for dinner tonight.
- A: Shall we go out tonight?
  B: No, I'm tired. **Let's stay** at home.

The negative is **Let's not** ... :

- It's cold. **Let's not** go out. Let's stay at home.
- **Let's not** have fish for dinner tonight. Let's have chicken.

shall we ... ? ➜ Unit 28

Exercises

35.1 Look at the pictures. What are the people saying? Some sentences are positive (**buy**/**come** etc.) and some are negative (**don't buy** / **don't come** etc.). Use these verbs:

be **buy** ~~come~~ ~~drink~~ **drop** **forget** **have** **sit** **sleep** **smile**

1 Come ..... in!

2 Don't drink ..... the water!

3 It's too expensive. ..... it.

4 OK, are you ready? ..... !

5 ..... on the cat!

6 Bye! ..... a nice time!

7 ..... to phone me. Don't worry. I won't.

8 I'm going to bed now. OK. ..... well.

9 ..... careful with that vase. ..... it!

35.2 Complete the sentences. Use **let's** with:

~~go for a swim~~ **go to a restaurant** **take a taxi** **wait a little** **watch TV**

1	Would you like to play tennis?	No, let's go for a swim.
2	Do you want to walk home?	No, ...
3	Shall I put a CD on?	No, ...
4	Shall we eat at home?	No, ...
5	Would you like to go now?	No, ...

35.3 Answer with **No, don't ...** or **No, let's not ...** .

1	Shall I wait for you?	No, don't wait for me.
2	Shall we go home now?	No, let's not go home yet.
3	Shall we go out?	.....
4	Do you want me to close the window?	.....
5	Shall I phone you tonight?	.....
6	Do you think we should wait for Andy?	.....
7	Do you want me to turn on the light?	.....
8	Shall we go by bus?	.....

I used to ...

A

Dave **used to work** in a factory. Now he **works** in a supermarket.

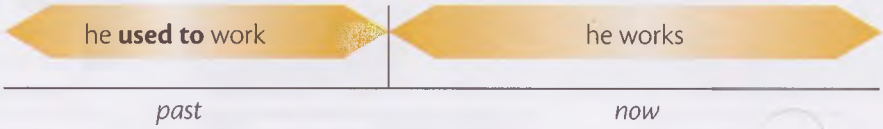

Dave **used to work** in a factory = he worked in a factory before, but he doesn't work there now.

B

You can say **I used to work** ... / **she used to have** ... / **they used to be** ... etc. :

I/you/we/they he/she/it	**used to**	**be** **work** **have** **play** etc.

- When I was a child, I **used to like** chocolate.
- I **used to read** a lot of books, but I don't read much these days.
- Lisa has got short hair now, but it **used to be** very long.
- They **used to live** in the same street as us, so we **used to see** them a lot. But we don't see them much these days.
- Helen **used to have** a piano, but she sold it a few years ago.

The negative is **I didn't use to** ... :

- When I was a child, I **didn't use to like** tomatoes.

The question is **did you use to** ... **?**:

- Where **did** you **use to live** before you came here?

C

We use **used to** ... only for the past. You cannot say 'I use to ...' for the present:

- I **used to play** tennis. These days I **play** golf. (*not* I use to play golf)
- We usually **get** up early. (*not* We use to get up early)

Exercises

36.1 Look at the pictures. Complete the sentences with **used to ...** .

1 She used to have long hair.

2 He ..... football.

3 ..... a taxi driver.

4 ..... in the country.

5 .....

6 This building .....

36.2 Karen works very hard and has very little free time. A few years ago, things were different.

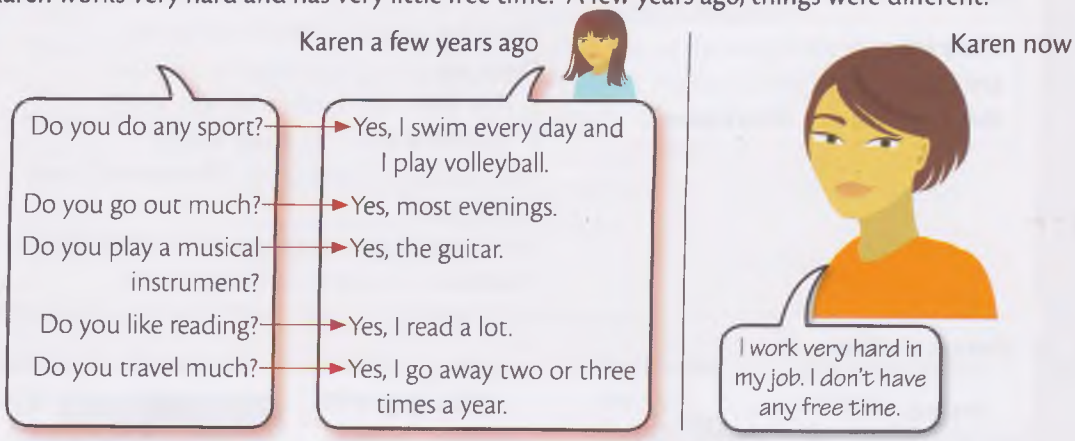

Write sentences about Karen with **used to ...** .

1 She used to swim every day.
2 She .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

36.3 Complete these sentences. Use **used to** or the present simple (**I play / he lives** etc.).

1 I used to play tennis. I stopped playing a few years ago.
2 'Do you do any sport?' 'Yes, I play basketball.'
3 'Do you have a car?' 'No, I ..... one, but I sold it.'
4 George ..... a waiter. Now he's the manager of a hotel.
5 'Do you go to work by car?' 'Sometimes, but most days I ..... by train.'
6 When I was a child, I never ..... meat, but I eat it now.
7 Mary loves watching TV. She ..... TV every evening.
8 We ..... near the airport, but we moved to the city centre a few years ago.
9 Normally I start work at 7 o'clock, so I ..... up very early.
10 What games ..... you ..... when you were a child?

there is there are

A

There's a man on the roof.

There's a train at 10.30.

SUNDAY
MONDAY
TUESDAY
WEDNESDAY
THURSDAY
FRIDAY
SATURDAY
} 7

There are seven days in a week.

singular

there is ...	(**there's**)
is there ... ?	
there is not ...	(**there isn't** *or* **there's not**)

- **There's** a big tree in the garden.
- **There's** nothing on TV tonight.
- A: Do you have any money?
  B: Yes, **there's** some in my bag.
- A: Excuse me, **is there** a hotel near here?
  B: Yes, **there is**. / No, **there isn't**.
- We can't go skiing. **There isn't** any snow.

plural

there are ...	
are there ... ?	
there are not ...	(**there aren't**)

- **There are** some big trees in the garden.
- **There are** a lot of accidents on this road.
- A: **Are there** any restaurants near here?
  B: Yes, **there are**. / No, **there aren't**.
- This restaurant is very quiet. **There aren't** many people here.
- How many players **are there** in a football team?
- **There are** 11 players in a football team.

B

there is and **it is**

there is

There's a book on the table.
(*not* It's a book on the table.)

it is

I like this book. **It's** interesting.
(**It** = this book)

Compare:

- 'What's **that noise**?' '**It**'s a train.' (**It** = that noise)
  There's a train at 10.30. **It**'s a fast train. (**It** = *the 10.30 train*)
- **There's** a lot of salt in this soup.
  I don't like **this soup**. **It**'s too salty. (**It** = this soup)

there was / were / has been etc. ➜ Unit 38 **it** and **there** ➜ Unit 39 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

37.1 Kentham is a small town. Look at the information in the box and write sentences about Kentham with **There is/are** or **There isn't/aren't**.

1	a castle?	No
2	any restaurants?	Yes (a lot)
3	a hospital?	Yes
4	a swimming pool?	No
5	any cinemas?	Yes (two)
6	a university?	No
7	any big hotels?	No

1 There isn't a castle.
2 There are a lot of restaurants.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....

37.2 Write sentences about your town (or a town that you know). Use **There is/are** or **There isn't/aren't**.

1 There are a few restaurants.
2 There's a big park.
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

37.3 Write **there is / there isn't / is there** or **there are / there aren't / are there**.

1 Kentham isn't an old town. There aren't any old buildings.
2 Look! ..... a picture of your brother in the newspaper!
3 'Excuse me, ... a bank near here?' 'Yes, at the end of the street.'
4 ..... five people in my family: my parents, my two sisters and me.
5 'How many students ..... in the class?' 'Twenty.'
6 The road is usually very quiet. ..... much traffic.
7 '..... a bus from the city centre to the airport?' 'Yes, every 20 minutes.'
8 '..... any problems?' 'No, everything is OK.'
9 ..... nowhere to sit down. ..... any chairs.

37.4 Write sentences with **There are ...** . Choose from the boxes.

~~seven~~	twenty-six
eight	thirty
fifteen	fifty

letters	~~days~~
players	days
planets	states

September	the solar system
the USA	~~a week~~
a rugby team	the English alphabet

1 There are seven days in a week.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

37.5 Write **there's / is there** or **it's / is it**.

1 '..... There's a train at 10.30.' '..... Is it a fast train?'
2 I'm not going to buy this shirt. ..... too expensive.
3 'What's wrong?' '..... something in my eye.'
4 ..... a red car outside your house. ..... yours?
5 '..... anything good on TV tonight?' 'Yes, ... a programme I want to see at 8.15.'
6 'What's that building?' '..... a school.'
7 '..... a restaurant in this hotel?' 'No, I'm afraid not.'

Unit 38

there was/were there has/have been there will be

A there was / there were *(past)*

There is a train every hour.

The time now is 11.15.
There was a train at 11 o'clock.

Compare:

there is/are *(present)*

- **There is** nothing on TV tonight.
- We are staying at a very big hotel. **There are** 550 rooms.
- Is everything OK? **Are there** any problems?
- I'm hungry, but **there isn't** anything to eat.

there was/were *(past)*

- **There was** nothing on TV last night.
- We stayed at a very big hotel. **There were** 550 rooms.
- Was everything OK yesterday? **Were there** any problems?
- I was hungry when I got home, but **there wasn't** anything to eat.

B there has been / there have been *(present perfect)*

- Look! **There's been** an accident. (**there's been** = there **has** been)
- This road is very dangerous. **There have been** many accidents.

Compare **there was** *(past)*:

- **There was** an accident **last night**. (*not* There has been an accident last night.)

For past simple and present perfect, see Unit 20.

C there will be

- Do you think **there will be** a lot of people at the party on Saturday?
- The manager of the company is leaving, so **there will be** a new manager soon.
- I'm going away tomorrow. I'll do my packing today because **there won't be** time tomorrow. (**there won't be** = there **will not** be)

was/were ➜ Unit 10 **has/have been** ➜ Units 15–18 **will** ➜ Unit 27 **there is/are** ➜ Unit 37
there and **it** ➜ Units 37, 39 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

38.1 Look at the two pictures. Now the room is empty, but what was in the room last week? Choose from the box and write sentences with **There was ...** or **There were ...** .

an armchair	**a carpet**	**some flowers**	**a sofa**
some books	~~**a clock**~~	**three pictures**	**a small table**

1 There was a clock. ..... on the wall near the window.
2 ..... on the floor.
3 ..... on the wall near the door.
4 ..... in the middle of the room.
5 ..... on the table.
6 ..... on the shelves.
7 ..... in the corner near the door.
8 ..... opposite the armchair.

38.2 Write **there was / there wasn't / was there** or **there were / there weren't / were there.**

1 I was hungry, but there wasn't anything to eat.
2 Was everything OK yesterday? Were there any problems?
3 I opened the envelope, but it was empty. ..... nothing in it.
4 'We stayed at a very nice hotel.' 'Really? ..... a swimming pool?'
5 'Did you buy any bananas?' 'No, ... any in the shop.'
6 The wallet was empty. ..... any money in it.
7 '..... many people at the meeting?' 'No, very few.'
8 We didn't visit the museum. ..... enough time.
9 I'm sorry I'm late. ..... a lot of traffic.
10 Twenty years ago ..... many tourists here. Now there are a lot.

38.3 Write **there** + **is / are / was / were / has been / have been / will be.**

1 There was a good film on TV last night.
2 ..... 24 hours in a day.
3 ..... a party at the club last Friday, but I didn't go.
4 'Where can I get something to eat?' '..... a cafe at the end of the street.'
5 'Why are the police outside the bank?' '..... a robbery.'
6 When we arrived at the theatre, ... a long queue outside.
7 When you arrive tomorrow, ... somebody at the station to meet you.
8 Ten years ago ..... 500 children at the school. Now ..... more than a thousand.
9 Last week I went back to the town where I was born. It's very different now. ..... a lot of changes.
10 I think everything will be OK. I don't think ..... any problems.

It ...

A

We use **it** for time/day/distance/weather:

time

- What time is **it**?
- **It**'s half past ten.
- **It**'s late.
- **It**'s time to go home.

day

- What day is **it**?
- **It**'s Thursday.
- **It**'s 16 March.
- **It** was my birthday yesterday.

distance

- **It**'s three kilometres from our house to the city centre.
- How far is **it** from New York to Los Angeles?
- **It**'s a long way from here to the station.
- We can walk home. **It** isn't far.

We use **far** in questions (**is it far**?) and negatives (**it isn't far**).
In positive sentences, we use **a long way** (**it's a long way**).

weather

- **It**'s raining. **It** isn't raining. Is **it** snowing?
- **It** rains a lot here. **It** didn't rain yesterday. Does **it** snow very often?
- **It**'s warm/hot/cold/fine/cloudy/windy/sunny/foggy/dark etc.
- **It**'s a nice day today.

Compare **it** and **there**:

- **It rains** a lot in winter.
  There is **a lot of rain** in winter.
- **It** was very **windy**.
  There was **a strong wind** yesterday.

B

It's nice to ... etc.

It's	easy / difficult / impossible / dangerous / safe / expensive / interesting / nice / wonderful / terrible etc.	**to** ...

- **It**'s nice **to see you again**.
- **It**'s impossible **to understand her**.
- **It** wasn't easy **to find your house**.

C

Don't forget **it**:

- **It**'s raining again. (*not* Is raining again)
- Is **it** true that you're going away? (*not* Is true that ...)

there is ➜ Unit 37

Exercises

39.1 Write about the weather in the pictures. Use **It's ... .**

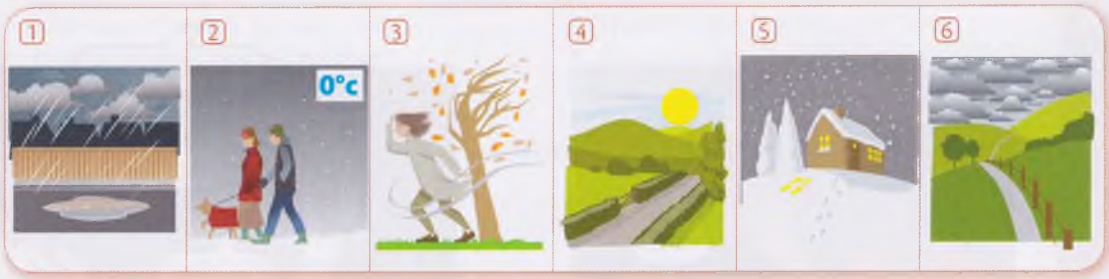

1 It's raining. ..... 4 .....
2 ..... 5 .....
3 ..... 6 .....

39.2 Write **it is (it's)** or **is it.**

1 What time ...is it... ?
2 We have to go now. ..... very late.
3 ..... true that Ben can fly a helicopter?
4 'What day ..... today? Tuesday?' 'No, ... Wednesday.'
5 ..... ten kilometres from the airport to the city centre.
6 ..... OK to call you at your office?
7 'Do you want to walk to the hotel?' 'I don't know. How far ..... ?'
8 ..... Lisa's birthday today. She's 27.
9 I don't believe it! ..... impossible.

39.3 Write questions with **How far ... ?**

1 (here / the station) ...How far is it from here to the station?...
2 (the hotel / the beach) How .....
3 (New York / Washington) .....
4 (your house / the airport) .....

39.4 Write **it** or **there.**

1 The weather isn't so nice today. ...It... 's cloudy.
2 ...There... was a strong wind yesterday.
3 ..... 's hot in this room. Open a window.
4 ..... was a nice day yesterday. ..... was warm and sunny.
5 ..... was a storm last night. Did you hear it?
6 I was afraid because ..... was very dark.
7 ..... 's often cold here, but ..... isn't much rain.
8 ..... 's a long way from here to the nearest shop.

39.5 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

it's	easy	dangerous	to	work here	~~get up early~~
	~~difficult~~	nice		visit different places	go out alone
	impossible	interesting		see you again	make friends

1 If you go to bed late, ...it's difficult to get up early... in the morning.
2 Hello, Jane. ..... . How are you?
3 ..... . There is too much noise.
4 Everybody is very nice at work. ..... .
5 I like travelling. ..... .
6 Some cities are not safe. ..... at night.

I am, I don't etc.

A

She isn't tired, but **he is**.
(**he is** = he is tired)

He likes tea, but **she doesn't**.
(**she doesn't** = she doesn't like tea)

In these examples, it is not necessary to repeat some words ('he is *tired*', 'she doesn't *like tea*').

You can use these verbs in the same way:

am/is/are
was/were
have/has
do/does/did
can
will
might
must

- I haven't got a car, but my sister **has**. (= my sister has got a car)
- A: Please help me.
  B: I'm sorry. I **can't**. (= I can't help you)
- A: Are you tired?
  B: I **was**, but I**'m not** now. (= I was tired, but I'm not tired now)
- A: Do you think Laura will come and see us?
  B: She **might**. (= she might come)
- A: Are you going now?
  B: Yes, I'm afraid I **must**. (= I must go)

We don't use **'m/'s/'ve** etc. (*short forms*) in this way. You must use **am/is/have** etc. :

- She isn't tired, but he **is**. (*not* but he's)

But you can use **isn't** / **haven't** / **won't** etc. (*negative* short forms):

- My sister has got a car, but I **haven't**.
- 'Are you and Jane working tomorrow?' 'I am, but Jane **isn't**.'

B

You can use **I am** / **I'm not** etc. after **Yes** and **No**:

- 'Are you tired?' 'Yes, I **am**. / No, I**'m not**.'
- 'Will Alan be here tomorrow?' 'Yes, he **will**. / No, he **won't**.'
- 'Is there a bus to the airport?' 'Yes, there **is**. / No, there **isn't**.'

C

We use **do/does** for the *present simple* (→ Units 6–7):

- I don't like hot weather, but Sue **does**. (= Sue likes hot weather)
- Sue works hard, but I **don't**. (= I don't work hard)
- 'Do you enjoy your work?' 'Yes, I **do**.'

We use **did** for the *past simple* (→ Unit 12):

- A: Did you and Chris enjoy the film?
  B: I **did**, but Chris **didn't**. (= I enjoyed it, but Chris didn't enjoy it)
- 'I had a good time.' 'I **did** too.' (= I enjoyed it too)
- 'Did it rain yesterday?' 'No, it **didn't**.'

have you? / don't you? etc. → Unit 41 **so am I / neither am I** etc. → Unit 42

Exercises

40.1 Complete these sentences. Use only one verb (**is/have/can** etc.) each time.

1 Kate wasn't hungry, but we ...were... .
2 I'm not married, but my brother ..... .
3 Ben can't help you, but I ..... .
4 I haven't seen the film, but Tom ..... .
5 Karen won't be here, but Chris ..... .
6 You weren't late, but I ..... .

40.2 Complete these sentences with a negative verb (**isn't/haven't/can't** etc.).

1 My sister can play the piano, but I ...can't... .
2 Sam is working today, but I ..... .
3 I was working, but my friends ..... .
4 Mark has been to China, but I ..... .
5 I'm ready to go, but Tom ..... .
6 I've got a key, but Sarah ..... .

40.3 Complete these sentences with **do/does/did** or **don't/doesn't/didn't**.

1 I don't like hot weather, but Sue ...does... .
2 Sue likes hot weather, but I ...don't... .
3 My mother wears glasses, but my father ..... .
4 You don't know Paul very well, but I ..... .
5 I didn't enjoy the party, but my friends ..... .
6 I don't watch TV much, but Peter ..... .
7 Kate lives in London, but her parents ..... .
8 You had breakfast this morning, but I ..... .

40.4 Complete the sentences. Write about yourself and other people.

1 I didn't ...go out last night, but my friends did.....
2 I like ....., but .....
3 I don't ....., but .....
4 I'm .....
5 I haven't .....

40.5 Put in a verb, positive or negative.

1 'Are you tired?' 'I ...was... earlier, but I'm not now.'
2 Steve is happy today, but he ..... yesterday.
3 The bank isn't open yet, but the shops ..... .
4 I haven't got a telescope, but I know somebody who ..... .
5 I would like to help you, but I'm afraid I ..... .
6 I don't usually go to work by car, but I ..... yesterday.
7 A: Have you ever been to the United States?
B: No, but Sandra ..... . She went there on holiday last year.
8 'Do you and Chris watch TV a lot?' 'I ....., but Chris doesn't.'
9 I've been invited to Sam's wedding, but Kate ..... .
10 'Do you think Sarah will pass her driving test?' 'Yes, I'm sure she ..... .'
11 'Are you going out tonight?' 'I ..... . I don't know for sure.'

40.6 Answer these questions about yourself. Use **Yes, I have.** / **No, I'm not.** etc.

1 Are you American? ...No, I'm not.....
2 Have you got a car? .....
3 Do you feel OK? .....
4 Is it snowing? .....
5 Are you hungry? .....
6 Do you like classical music? .....
7 Will you be in Paris tomorrow? .....
8 Have you ever broken your arm? .....
9 Did you buy anything yesterday? .....
10 Were you asleep at 3 a.m.? .....

Have you? Are you? Don't you? etc.

A

You can say **have you?** / **is it?** / **can't he?** etc. to show that you are interested or surprised:

- '**You're** late.' 'Oh, **am I?** I'm sorry.'
- '**I was** ill last week.' '**Were you?** I didn't know that.'
- '**It's** raining again.' '**Is it?** It was sunny ten minutes ago.'
- '**There's** a problem with the car.' '**Is there?** What's wrong with it?'

- '**Bill can't** drive.' '**Can't he?** I didn't know that.'
- '**I'm not** hungry.' '**Aren't you?** I am.'
- '**Sue isn't** at work today.' '**Isn't she?** Is she ill?'

Use **do**/**does** for the *present simple*, and **did** for the *past simple*:

- '**I speak** four languages.' '**Do you?** Which ones?'
- '**Ben doesn't** eat meat.' '**Doesn't he?** Does he eat fish?'
- '**Nicola got** married last week.' '**Did she?** Really?'

B

Question tags

You can use **have you?** / **is it?** / **can't she?** etc. at the end of a sentence.

These 'mini-questions' are *question tags*.

positive sentence → *negative* question tag

It's a beautiful day,	**isn't it?**	Yes, it's perfect.
Kate lives in London,	**doesn't she?**	Yes, that's right.
You closed the window,	**didn't you?**	Yes, I think so.
Those shoes are nice,	**aren't they?**	Yes, very nice.
Tom will be here soon,	**won't he?**	Yes, probably.

negative sentence → *positive* question tag

That isn't your car,	**is it?**	No, it's my mother's.
You haven't met my mother,	**have you?**	No, I haven't.
Helen doesn't go out much,	**does she?**	No, she doesn't.
You won't be late,	**will you?**	No, I'm never late.

I am / **I don't** etc. ➜ Unit 40

Exercises

41.1 Answer with **Do you?** / **Doesn't she?** / **Did they?** etc.

1	I speak four languages	Do you ..... ?	Which ones?
2	I work in a bank.	..... ?	I work in a bank too.
3	I didn't go to work yesterday.	..... ?	Were you ill?
4	Jane doesn't like me.	..... ?	Why not?
5	You look tired.	..... ?	I feel fine.
6	Kate phoned me last night.	..... ?	What did she say?

41.2 Answer with **Have you?** / **Haven't you?** / **Did she?** / **Didn't she?** etc.

1	I've bought a new car.	Have you ..... ?	What make is it?
2	Tim doesn't eat meat.	Doesn't he ..... ?	Does he eat fish?
3	I've lost my key.	..... ?	When did you last have it?
4	Sue can't drive.	..... ?	She should learn.
5	I was born in Italy.	..... ?	I didn't know that.
6	I didn't sleep well last night.	..... ?	Was the bed uncomfortable?
7	There's a film on TV tonight.	..... ?	Are you going to watch it?
8	I'm not happy.	..... ?	Why not?
9	I saw Paula last week.	..... ?	How is she?
10	Maria works in a factory.	..... ?	What kind of factory?
11	I won't be here next week.	..... ?	Where will you be?
12	The clock isn't working.	..... ?	It was working yesterday.

41.3 Complete these sentences with a question tag (**isn't it?** / **haven't you?** etc.).

1	It's a beautiful day, isn't it ..... ?	Yes, it's perfect.
2	These flowers are nice, ... ?	Yes, what are they?
3	Jane was at the party, ... ?	Yes, but I didn't speak to her.
4	You've been to Paris, ... ?	Yes, many times.
5	You speak German, ... ?	Yes, but not very well.
6	Martin looks tired, ... ?	Yes, he works very hard.
7	You'll help me, ... ?	Yes, of course I will.

41.4 Complete these sentences with a question tag, positive (**is it?** / **do you?** etc.) or negative (**isn't it?** / **don't you?** etc.).

1	You haven't got a car, have you ..... ?	No, I can't drive.
2	You aren't tired, ... ?	No, I feel fine.
3	Lisa is a very nice person, ... ?	Yes, everybody likes her.
4	You can play the piano, ... ?	Yes, but I'm not very good.
5	You don't know Mike's sister, ... ?	No, I've never met her.
6	Sarah went to university, ... ?	Yes, she studied psychology.
7	The film wasn't very good, ... ?	No, it was terrible.
8	Anna lives near you, ... ?	That's right. In the same street.
9	You won't tell anybody what I said, ... ?	No, of course not.

too/either so am I / neither do I etc.

A too and either

We use **too** and **either** at the end of a sentence.

We use **too** after a *positive* verb:

- A: I'm happy.
  B: I'**m** happy **too**.
- A: I enjoyed the film.
  B: I **enjoyed** it **too**.
- Jane is a doctor. Her husband **is** a doctor **too**.

We use **either** after a *negative* verb:

- A: I'm not happy.
  B: I'**m not** happy **either**.
- A: I can't cook.
  B: I **can't either**.
- Ben doesn't watch TV. He **doesn't** read newspapers **either**.

B so am I / neither do I etc.

so	**am/is/are** ... **was/were** ... **do/does** ... **did** ... **have/has** ... **can** ... **will** ... **would** ...
neither	

so am I = I am too
so have I = I have too (etc.):

- A: **I'm** working.
  B: **So am I**. (= I'm working too)
- A: **I was** late for work today.
  B: **So was Sam**.
- A: **I work** in a bank.
  B: **So do I**.
- A: **We went** to the cinema last night.
  B: Did you? **So did we**.
- A: **I'd** like to go to Australia.
  B: **So would I**.

neither am I = I'm not either
neither can I = I can't either (etc.):

- A: **I haven't** got a key.
  B: **Neither have I**. (= I haven't either)
- A: **Kate can't** cook.
  B: **Neither can Tom**.
- A: **I won't** (= will not) be here tomorrow.
  B: **Neither will I**.
- A: **I never go** to the cinema.
  B: **Neither do I**.

You can also use **Nor** (= Neither):

- A: I'm not married.
  B: **Nor am I**. *or* **Neither am I**.

Remember: So **am I** (*not* So I am), Neither **have I** (*not* Neither I have).

I am / I don't etc. ➜ Unit 40

Exercises

42.1 Write **too** or **either**.

1	I'm happy.	I'm happy too.
2	I'm not hungry.	I'm not hungry .....
3	I'm going out.	I'm going out .....
4	It rained on Saturday.	It rained on Sunday .....
5	Rachel can't drive a car.	She can't ride a bike .....
6	I don't like shopping.	I don't like shopping .....
7	Emma's mother is a teacher.	Her father is a teacher .....

42.2 Answer with **So ... I** (**So am I** / **So do I** / **So can I** etc.).

1	I went to bed late last night.	So did I.
2	I'm thirsty.	.....
3	I've just eaten.	.....
4	I need a holiday.	.....
5	I'll be late tomorrow.	.....
6	I was very tired this morning.	.....

Answer with **Neither ... I.**

7	I can't go to the party.	.....
8	I didn't phone Alex last night.	.....
9	I haven't got any money	.....
10	I'm not going out tomorrow.	.....
11	I don't know what to do.	.....

42.3 You are talking to Maria. Write sentences about yourself. Where possible, use **So ... I** or **Neither ... I.** Look at these examples carefully:

I'm tired today. — You can answer: So am I. or I'm not.

I don't work hard. — You can answer: Neither do I. or I do.

	Maria	You
1	I'm learning English.	.....
2	I can ride a bike.	.....
3	I'm not American.	.....
4	I like cooking.	.....
5	I don't like cold weather.	.....
6	I slept well last night.	.....
7	I've never run a marathon.	.....
8	I don't use my phone much.	.....
9	I'm going out tomorrow evening.	.....
10	I haven't been to Scotland.	.....
11	I didn't watch TV last night.	.....
12	I go to the cinema a lot.	.....

isn't, haven't, don't etc. (negatives)

A

We use **not** (**n't**) in negative sentences:

positive → negative

am	**am not** (**'m not**)	I**'m not** tired.
is	**is not** (**isn't** *or* **'s not**)	It **isn't** (*or* It**'s not**) raining.
are	**are not** (**aren't** *or* **'re not**)	They **aren't** (*or* They**'re not**) here.
was	**was not** (**wasn't**)	Julian **wasn't** hungry.
were	**were not** (**weren't**)	The shops **weren't** open.
have	**have not** (**haven't**)	I **haven't** finished my work.
has	**has not** (**hasn't**)	Sue **hasn't** got a car.
will	**will not** (**won't**)	We **won't** be here tomorrow.
can	**cannot** (**can't**)	George **can't** drive.
could	**could not** (**couldn't**)	I **couldn't** sleep last night.
must	**must not** (**mustn't**)	I **mustn't** forget to phone Jane.
should	**should not** (**shouldn't**)	You **shouldn't** work so hard.
would	**would not** (**wouldn't**)	I **wouldn't** like to be an actor.

B

don't/doesn't/didn't

present simple negative	I/we/you/they	**do not** (**don't**)	**work/live/go** etc.
	he/she/it	**does not** (**doesn't**)	
past simple negative	I/they/he/she etc.	**did not** (**didn't**)	

positive	→	*negative*
I **want** to go out.	→	I **don't want** to go out.
They **work** hard.	→	They **don't work** hard.
Lisa **plays** the guitar.	→	Lisa **doesn't play** the guitar.
My father **likes** his job.	→	My father **doesn't like** his job.
I **got** up early this morning.	→	I **didn't get** up early this morning.
They **worked** hard yesterday.	→	They **didn't work** hard yesterday.
We **played** tennis.	→	We **didn't play** tennis.
Emily **had** dinner with us.	→	Emily **didn't have** dinner with us.

Don't ...

Look!	→	**Don't look!**
Wait for me.	→	**Don't wait** for me.

Sometimes **do** is the main verb (**don't do** / **doesn't do** / **didn't do**):

Do something!	→	**Don't do** anything!
Sue **does** a lot at weekends.	→	Sue **doesn't do** much at weekends.
I **did** what you said.	→	I **didn't do** what you said.

present simple (negative) ➜ Unit 6 past simple (negative) ➜ Unit 12
don't look / **don't wait** etc. ➜ Unit 35 **Why isn't/don't** ... ? ➜ Unit 44

Exercises

43.1 Make these sentences negative.

1 He's gone away. *He hasn't gone away.*
2 They're married. .....
3 I've had dinner. .....
4 It's cold today. .....
5 We'll be late. .....
6 You should go. .....

43.2 Make these sentences negative. Use **don't/doesn't/didn't**.

1 She saw me. *She didn't see me.*
2 I like cheese. .....
3 They understood. .....
4 He lives here. .....
5 Go away! .....
6 I did the shopping. .....

43.3 Make these sentences negative.

1 She can swim. *She can't swim.*
2 They've arrived. .....
3 I went to the bank. .....
4 He speaks German. .....
5 We were angry. .....
6 He'll be pleased. .....
7 Call me tonight. .....
8 It rained yesterday. .....
9 I could hear them. .....
10 I believe you. .....

43.4 Complete these sentences with a negative verb (**isn't/haven't/don't** etc.).

1 They aren't rich. They *haven't* got much money.
2 'Would you like something to eat?' 'No, thank you. I ..... hungry.'
3 I ..... find my glasses. Have you seen them?
4 Steve ..... go to the cinema much. He prefers to watch DVDs at home.
5 We can walk to the station from here. It ..... very far.
6 'Where's Jane?' 'I ..... know. I ..... seen her today.'
7 Be careful! ..... fall!
8 We went to a restaurant last night. I ..... like the food very much.
9 I've been to Japan many times, but I ..... been to Korea.
10 Julia ..... be here tomorrow. She's going away.
11 'Who broke that window?' 'Not me. I ..... do it.'
12 We didn't see what happened. We ..... looking at the time.
13 Lisa bought a new coat a few days ago, but she ..... worn it yet.
14 You ..... drive so fast. It's dangerous.

43.5 You ask Gary some questions. He answers 'Yes' or 'No'. Write sentences about Gary, positive or negative.

Gary

You		
Are you married?	No.	1 *He isn't married.*
Do you live in London?	Yes.	2 *He lives in London.*
Were you born in London?	No.	3 .....
Do you like London?	No.	4 .....
Would you like to live in the country?	Yes.	5 .....
Can you drive?	Yes.	6 .....
Have you got a car?	No.	7 .....
Do you read newspapers?	No.	8 .....
Are you interested in politics?	No.	9 .....
Do you watch TV most evenings?	Yes.	10 .....
Did you watch TV last night?	No.	11 .....
Did you go out last night?	Yes.	12 .....

Unit 44

is it ... ? have you ... ? do they ... ? etc. (questions 1)

A

positive	**you**	**are**	**You are** eating.
question	**are**	**you**	**Are you** eating? What **are you** eating?

In questions, the first verb (**is**/**are**/**have** etc.) is before the subject:

positive subject + verb			*question* verb + subject	
I	**am** late.	→	**Am**	**I** late?
That seat	**is** free.	→	**Is**	**that seat** free?
She	**was** angry.	→	Why **was**	**she** angry?
David	**has** gone.	→	Where **has**	**David** gone?
You	**have** got a car.	→	**Have**	**you** got a car?
They	**will** be here soon.	→	When **will**	**they** be here?
Paula	**can** swim.	→	**Can**	**Paula** swim?

Remember: the subject is after the first verb.

- Where **has David** gone? (*not* Where has gone David?)
- **Are those people** waiting for something? (*not* Are waiting ... ?)
- When **was the telephone** invented? (*not* When was invented ... ?)

B

do ... ? / does ... ? / did ... ?

present simple questions	**do**	I/we/you/they	**work**/**live**/**go** etc. ... ?
	does	he/she/it	
past simple questions	**did**	I/they/he/she etc.	

positive		*question*
They **work** hard.	→	**Do** they **work** hard?
You **watch** television.	→	How often **do** you **watch** television?
Chris **works** hard.	→	**Does** Chris **work** hard?
She **gets up** early.	→	What time **does** she **get** up?
They **worked** hard.	→	**Did** they **work** hard?
You **had** dinner.	→	What **did** you **have** for dinner?
She **got** up early.	→	What time **did** she **get** up?

Sometimes **do** is the main verb (do you **do** / did he **do** etc.):

- What **do** you usually **do** at weekends?
- A: What **does** your brother **do**?
  B: He works in a bank.
- A: I broke my finger last week.
  B: How **did** you **do** that? (*not* How did you that?)

C

Why isn't ... ? / Why don't ... ? etc. (**Why** + *negative*):

- Where's John? **Why isn't he** here? (*not* Why he isn't here?)
- **Why can't Paula** come to the meeting tomorrow? (*not* Why Paula can't ... ?)
- **Why didn't you** phone me last night?

present simple questions ➜ **Unit 7** past simple questions ➜ **Unit 12** questions 2–3 ➜ **Units 45–46**
what/which/how ➜ **Units 47–48**

Exercises

44.1 Write questions.

1 I can swim. (and you?) Can you swim?
2 I work hard. (and Jack?) Does Jack work hard?
3 I was late this morning. (and you?) .....
4 I've got a key. (and Kate?) .....
5 I'll be here tomorrow. (and you?) .....
6 I'm going out this evening. (and Paul?) .....
7 I like my job. (and you?) .....
8 I live near here. (and Nicola?) .....
9 I enjoyed the film. (and you?) .....
10 I had a good holiday. (and you?) .....

44.2 You are talking to a friend about driving. Write the full questions.

You

1 (have / a car?) Have you got a car?
2 (use / a lot?) ..... it .....
3 (use / yesterday?) .....
4 (enjoy driving?) .....
5 (a good driver?) .....
6 (ever / have / an accident?) .....

Yes, I have.
Yes, nearly every day.
Yes, to go to work.
Not very much.
I think I am.
No, never.

44.3 Make questions with these words. Put the words in the right order.

1 (has / gone / where / David?) Where has David gone?
2 (working / Rachel / is / today?) Is Rachel working today?
3 (the children / what / are / doing?) What .....
4 (made / is / how / cheese?) .....
5 (to the party / coming / is / your sister?) .....
6 (you / the truth / tell / don't / why?) .....
7 (your guests / have / yet / arrived?) .....
8 (leave / what time / your train / does?) .....
9 (to work / Emily / why / go / didn't?) .....
10 (your car / in the accident / was / damaged?) .....

44.4 Complete the questions.

1 I want to go out. — Where do you want to go?
2 Kate and Paul aren't going to the party. — Why aren't they going?
3 I'm reading. — What .....
4 Sue went to bed early. — What time .....
5 My parents are going on holiday. — When .....
6 I saw Tom a few days ago. — Where .....
7 I can't come to the party. — Why .....
8 Tina has gone away. — Where .....
9 I need some money. — How much .....
10 Angela doesn't like me. — Why .....
11 It rains sometimes. — How often .....
12 I did the shopping. — When .....

Who saw you? Who did you see? (questions 2)

A

Silvia saw Paul.

Who **saw** Paul?
Silvia. (Silvia saw him.)

Who **did** Silvia **see?**
Paul. (She saw Paul.)

Silvia saw Paul

subject

Somebody saw Paul.

Who saw Paul?

Silvia. (Silvia saw him.)

who is the *subject*
Paul is the *object*

object

Silvia saw somebody.

Who did Silvia see?

Paul. (She saw Paul.)

who is the *object*
Silvia is the *subject*

B

In these questions, **who/what** is the *subject*:

- **Who lives** in this house? (= somebody lives in it – who?)
  (*not* Who does live?)
- **What happened?** (= something happened – what?)
  (*not* What did happen?)
- **What's happening?** (What's = What **is**)
- **Who's got** my key? (Who's = Who **has**)

In these questions, **who/what** is the *object*:

- Who did **you** meet yesterday? (= **you** met somebody – who?)
- What did **Paul** say? (= **Paul** said something – what?)
- Who are **you** phoning?
- What was **Silvia** wearing?

Compare:

- George likes oranges. → **Who likes** oranges? – George.
  What does George like? – Oranges.
- Jane won a new car. → **Who won** a new car? – Jane.
  What did Jane win? – A new car.

C

Use **who** for people (somebody). Use **what** for things, ideas etc. (something):

- **Who** is your favourite **singer**?
- **What** is your favourite **song**?

questions → Units 44, 46 what/which/how → Unit 47

Exercises

45.1 Make questions with **who** or **what**. In these questions, **who/what** is the subject.

1	Somebody broke the window.	Who broke the window?
2	Something fell off the shelf.	What .....
3	Somebody wants to see you.	..... me?
4	Somebody took my umbrella.	.....
5	Something made me ill.	.....
6	Somebody is coming.	.....

45.2 Make questions with **who** or **what** (subject or object).

1	I bought something.	What did you buy?
2	Somebody lives in this house.	Who lives in this house?
3	I phoned somebody.	.....
4	Something happened last night.	.....
5	Somebody knows the answer.	.....
6	Somebody did the washing-up.	.....
7	Jane did something.	.....
8	Something woke me up.	.....
9	Somebody saw the accident.	.....
10	I saw somebody.	.....
11	Somebody has got my pen.	.....
12	This word means something.	.....

45.3 You want the missing information (XXXXX). Write questions with **who** or **what**.

1	I lost **XXXXX** yesterday, but fortunately **XXXXX** found it and gave it back to me.	What did you lose? Who found it?
2	**XXXXX** phoned me last night. She wanted **XXXXX**.	Who ..... What .....
3	I needed some advice, so I asked **XXXXX**. He said **XXXXX**.	....
4	I hear that **XXXXX** got married last week. **XXXXX** told me.	....
5	I met **XXXXX** on my way home this evening. She told me **XXXXX**.	....
6	Steve and I played tennis yesterday. **XXXXX** won. After the game we **XXXXX**.	....
7	It was my birthday last week and I had some presents. **XXXXX** gave me a book and Catherine gave me **XXXXX**.	....

Unit 46

Who is she talking to? What is it like? (questions 3)

A

Jessica is talking to somebody.

Who is she talking **to**?

In questions beginning **Who** ... **?** / **What** ... **?** / **Where** ... **?** / **Which** ... **?**, prepositions (**to**/**from**/**with** etc.) usually go at the end:

- ☐ '**Where** are you **from**?' 'I'm from Thailand.'
- ☐ 'Jack was afraid.' '**What** was he afraid **of**?'
- ☐ '**Who** do these books belong **to**?' 'They're mine.'
- ☐ 'Tom's father is in hospital.' '**Which hospital** is he **in**?'
- ☐ 'Kate is going on holiday.' '**Who with**?' / '**Who** is she going **with**?'
- ☐ 'Can we talk?' 'Sure. **What** do you want to talk **about**?'

B

What's it like? / **What are they like?** etc.

What**'s** it like? = What **is** it like?

What's it like? = tell me something about it – is it good or bad, big or small, old or new (etc.)?

When we say '**What is it like?**', **like** is a *preposition*. It is not the verb **like** ('**Do** you **like** your new house?' etc.).

- ☐ A: There's a new restaurant in our street.
  B: **What's** it **like**? Is it good?
  A: I don't know. I haven't eaten there yet.
- ☐ A: **What's** your new teacher **like**?
  B: She's very good. We learn a lot.
- ☐ A: I met Nicola's parents yesterday.
  B: Did you? **What** are they **like**?
  A: They're very nice.
- ☐ A: Did you have a good holiday? **What** was the weather **like**?
  B: It was lovely. It was sunny every day.

questions 1–2 ➜ Units 44–45 what/which/how ➜ Unit 47 prepositions ➜ Units 103–113

Exercises

46.1 You want the missing information (XXXXX). Write questions with **who** or **what**.

1 The letter is from **XXXXX**. — Who is the letter from?
2 I'm looking for a **XXXXX**. — What ..... you .....
3 I went to the cinema with **XXXXX**. — .....
4 The film was about **XXXXX**. — .....
5 I gave the money to **XXXXX**. — .....
6 The book was written by **XXXXX**. — .....

46.2 Write questions about the people in the pictures. Use these verbs + a preposition:

go **listen** **look** ~~**talk**~~ **talk** **wait**

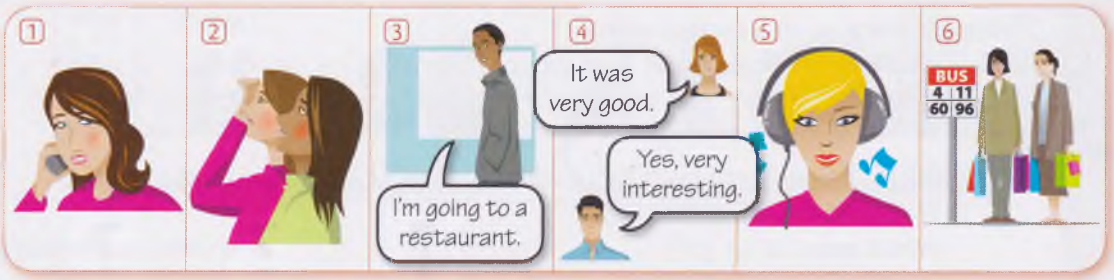

1 Who is she talking to?
2 What ..... they .....
3 Which restaurant .....
4 What .....
5 What .....
6 Which bus .....

46.3 Write questions beginning **Which ... ?**

1 Tom's father is in hospital. — Which hospital is he in?
2 We stayed at a hotel. — ..... you .....
3 Jack plays for a football team. — .....
4 I went to school in this town. — .....

46.4 You want some information about another country. You ask somebody who has been there. Ask questions with **What is/are ... like?**

1 (the roads) What are the roads like?
2 (the food) .....
3 (the people) .....
4 (the weather) .....

46.5 Ask questions with **What was/were ... like?**

1 Your friend has just come back from holiday. Ask about the weather.
What was the weather like?
2 Your friend has just come back from the cinema. Ask about the film.
.....
3 Your friend has just finished an English course. Ask about the lessons.
.....
4 Your friend has just come back from holiday. Ask about the hotel.
.....

Unit 47

What ... ? Which ... ? How ... ? (questions 4)

A

What + *noun* (**What colour** ... ? / **What kind** ... ? etc.)

- **What colour** is your car?
- **What colour** are your eyes?
- **What size** is this shirt?
- **What make** is your TV?
- **What time** is it?
- **What day** is it today?
- **What kind** of job do you want?
  (*or* **What type** of job ... ? / **What sort** of job ... ?)

What without a noun:

- **What**'s your favourite colour?
- **What** do you want to do tonight?

B

Which + *noun* (things or people):

- **Which train** did you catch – the 9.50 or the 10.30?
- **Which doctor** did you see – Doctor Ellis, Doctor Gray or Doctor Hill?

We use **which** without a noun for things, not people:

- **Which** is bigger – Canada or Australia?

We use **who** for people (without a noun):

- **Who** is taller – Joe or Gary? (*not* Which is taller?)

C

What or **which**?

We use **which** when we are thinking about a small number of possibilities (perhaps 2, 3 or 4):

- We can go this way or that way.
  Which way shall we go?
- There are four umbrellas here.
  Which is yours?

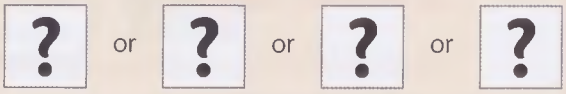

WHICH?

What is more general:

- **What**'s the capital of Argentina? (of all the cities in Argentina)
- **What sort** of music do you like? (of all kinds of music)

Compare:

- **What colour** are his eyes? (*not* Which colour?)
  Which colour do you prefer, **pink or yellow**?
- **What** is the longest river in the world?
  Which is the longest river – **the Mississippi, the Amazon or the Nile**?

D

How ... ?

- '**How** was the party last night?' 'It was great.'
- '**How** do you usually go to work?' 'By bus.'

You can use **how** + *adjective/adverb* (**how tall** / **how old** / **how often** etc.):

'**How**	**tall** are you?' 'I'm 1 metre 70.' **big** is the house?' 'Not very big.' **old** is your mother?' 'She's 45.' **far** is it from here to the airport?' 'Five kilometres.' **often** do you use your car?' 'Every day.' **long** have they been married?' 'Ten years.' **much** was the meal?' 'Thirty pounds.'

questions ➜ Units 44–46 How long does it take? ➜ Unit 48 which one(s) ➜ Unit 75

Exercises

47.1 Write questions with **what**.

1	I've got a new TV.	(make?)	What make is it?
2	I want a job.	(kind?)	What kind of job do you want?
3	I bought a new sweater.	(colour?)	What .....
4	I got up early this morning.	(time?)	..... get up?
5	I like music.	(type?)	.....
6	I want to buy a car.	(kind?)	.....

47.2 Complete the questions. Use **Which ... ?**

47.3 Write **what/which/who**.

1 What is that man's name?
2 Which way shall we go? Left or right?
3 You can have tea or coffee. ..... do you prefer?
4 '..... day is it today?' 'Friday.'
5 This is a nice office. ..... desk is yours?
6 ..... is your favourite sport?
7 ..... is more expensive, meat or fish?
8 ..... is older, Liz or Steve?
9 ..... kind of camera have you got?
10 A: I have three cameras.
B: ..... camera do you use most?
11 ..... nationality are you?

47.4 Complete the questions with **How** + adjective or adverb (**high/long** etc.).

1	How high is Mount Everest?	Nearly 9000 metres.
2	..... is it to the station?	It's about two kilometres from here.
3	..... is Helen?	She's 26.
4	..... do the buses run?	Every ten minutes.
5	..... is the water in the pool?	Two metres.
6	..... have you lived here?	Nearly three years.

47.5 Write questions with **How ... ?**

1 Are you 1 metre 70? 1.75? 1.80? How tall are you?
2 Is this box one kilogram? Two? Three? .....
3 Are you 20 years old? 22? 25? .....
4 Did you spend £20? £30? £50? .....
5 Do you watch TV every day? Once a week? Never?
.....
6 Is it 1000 miles from Paris to Moscow? 1500? 2000?
.....

Unit 48

How long does it take ... ?

A

How long does it take from ... to ... ?

How long **does it take** by plane from New York to Washington?

It takes an hour.

- How long **does it take** by train from London to Manchester?
- **It takes** two hours by train from London to Manchester.
- How long **does it take** by car from your house to the station?
- **It takes** ten minutes by car from my house to the station.

B

How long does it take to do something?

How long	**does** **did** **will**	**it take to** ... ?

It	**takes** **took** **will take**		a week a long time three hours	**to** ...
	doesn't **didn't** **won't**	**take**	long	

- How long **does it take to cross** the Atlantic by ship?
- 'I came by train.' 'Did you? How long **did it take** (**to get** here)?'
- How long **will it take to get** from here to the hotel?

- **It takes** a long time **to learn** a language.
- **It doesn't take** long **to cook** an omelette.
- **It won't take** long **to fix** the computer.

C

How long does it take you to do something?

How long	**does** **did** **will**	**it take**	you Tom them	**to** ... ?

It	**takes** **took** **will take**	me Tom them	a week a long time three hours	**to** ...

I started reading the book on Monday.
I finished it on Wednesday evening.

It **took me** three days **to read** it.

- How long **will it take me to learn** to drive?
- **It takes Tom** 20 minutes **to get** to work in the morning.
- **It took us** an hour **to do** the shopping.
- **Did it take you** a long time **to find** a job?
- **It will take me** an hour **to cook** dinner.

Exercises

48.1 Look at the pictures and write questions with **How long ... ?**

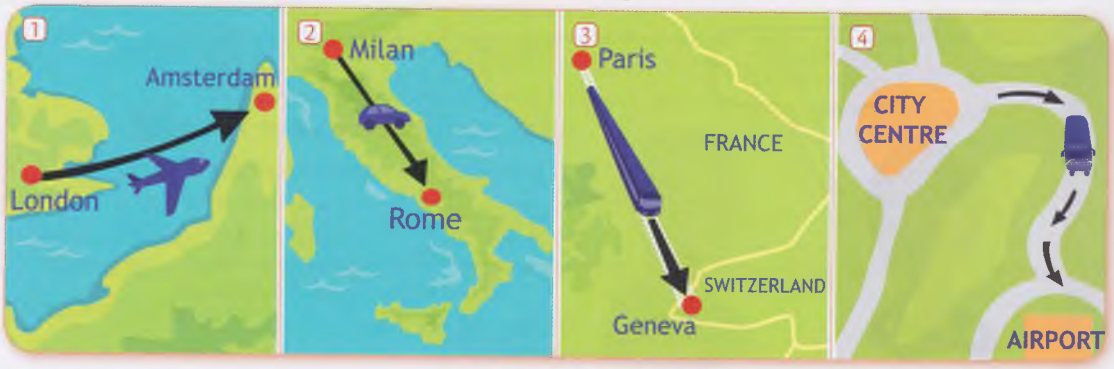

1 How long does it take by plane from London to Amsterdam?
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....

48.2 How long does it take to do these things? Write full sentences.

1 fly from your city/country to London
It takes two hours to fly from Madrid to London.
2 fly from your city/country to New York
.....
3 study to be a doctor in your country
.....
4 walk from your home to the nearest shop
.....
5 get from your home to the nearest airport
.....

48.3 Write questions with **How long did it take ... ?**

1 (Jane found a job.) How long did it take her to find a job?
2 (I walked to the station.) ..... you .....
3 (Tom painted the bathroom.) .....
4 (I learnt to ski.) .....
5 (They repaired the car.) .....

48.4 Read the situations and write sentences with **It took ... .**

1 I read a book last week. I started reading it on Monday. I finished it three days later.
It took me three days to read the book.
2 We walked home last night. We left at 10 o'clock and we arrived home at 10.20.
.....
3 I learnt to drive last year. I had my first driving lesson in January. I passed my driving test six months later.
.....
4 Mark drove to London yesterday. He left home at 7 o'clock and got to London at 10.
.....
5 Lisa began looking for a job a long time ago. She got a job last week.
.....
6 *Write a sentence about yourself.*
.....

Unit 49

Do you know where ... ? I don't know what ... etc

A

We say: Where **is** **Paula**?

but **Do you know** where **Paula** **is** ?
(*not* Do you know where is Paula?)

In the same way we say:
I know / I don't know / Can you tell me } where **Paula is**.

Compare:

Who **are those people**?
How old **is Nicola**?
What time **is it**?
Where **can I** go?
How much **is this camera**?
When **are you** going away?
Where **have they** gone?
What **was Kate** wearing?

but

Do you know **Can you tell me**	who **those people are** how old **Nicola is** what time **it is** where **I can** go	?
I know **I don't know** **I don't remember**	how much **this camera is** when **you're** going away where **they have** gone what **Kate was** wearing	.

B

Questions with **do/does/did** (*present simple* and *past simple*)

Where **does he live** ?

but **Do you know** where **he lives** ? (*not* Do you know where does he live?)

Compare:

How **do airplanes** fly?
What **does Jane** want?
Why **did she** go home?
Where **did I** put the key?

but

Do you know	how **airplanes fly**	?
I don't know **I don't remember** **I know**	what **Jane wants** why **she went** home where **I put** the key	.

C

Questions beginning **Is** ... **?** / **Do** ... **?** / **Can** ... **?** etc. (yes/no questions)

Compare:

Is Jack at home?
Have they got a car?
Can Ben swim?
Do they live near here?
Did anybody see you?

but

Do you know	**if** *or* **whether**	**Jack is** at home **they've got** a car **Ben can** swim **they live** near here **anybody saw** you	?
I don't know			.

You can use **if** *or* **whether** in these sentences:

- Do you know **if** they've got a car? *or*
  Do you know **whether** they've got a car?
- I don't know **if** anybody saw me. *or*
  I don't know **whether** anybody saw me.

Exercises

49.1 Answer these questions with **I don't know where/when/why ...** etc.

1	Have your friends gone home?	(where) I don't know where they've gone.
2	Is Kate in her office?	(where) I don't know .....
3	Is the castle very old?	(how old) .....
4	Will Paul be here soon?	(when) .....
5	Was he angry because I was late?	(why) .....
6	Has Emily lived here a long time?	(how long) .....

49.2 Complete the sentences.

1 (How do airplanes fly?) Do you know how airplanes fly ..... ?
2 (Where does Susan work?) I don't know ..... .
3 (What did Peter say?) Do you remember ..... ?
4 (Why did he go home early?) I don't know ..... .
5 (What time does the meeting begin?) Do you know ..... ?
6 (How did the accident happen?) I don't remember. ..... .

49.3 Which is right?

1 Do you know what time ~~is it~~ / it is? (Do you know what time it is? *is right*)
2 Why are you / you are going away?
3 I don't know where are they / they are going.
4 Can you tell me where is the museum / the museum is?
5 Where do you want / you want to go for your holidays?
6 Do you know what do elephants eat / elephants eat?
7 I don't know how far is it / it is from the hotel to the station.

49.4 Write questions with **Do you know if ... ?**

1 (Have they got a car?) Do you know if they've got a car? .....
2 (Are they married?) Do you know .....
3 (Does Sue know Bill?) .....
4 (Will Gary be here tomorrow?) .....
5 (Did he pass his exam?) .....

49.5 Write questions beginning **Do you know ... ?**

1 (What does Laura want?) Do you know what Laura wants? .....
2 (Where is Paula?) Do .....
3 (Is she working today?) .....
4 (What time does she start work?) .....
5 (Are the shops open tomorrow?) .....
6 (Where do Sarah and Jack live?) .....
7 (Did they go to Jane's party?) .....

49.6 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 Do you know why the bus was late ..... ?
2 Do you know what time ..... ?
3 Excuse me, can you tell me where ..... ?
4 I don't know what .....
5 Do you know if ..... ?
6 Do you know how much ..... ?

She said that ... He told me that ...

A

Last week you went to a party. A lot of your friends were there. Here are some things they said to you:

Today you meet Paul. You tell him about the party. You tell Paul what your friends said:

CLARE

I'm enjoying my new job.

My father isn't well.

am / is → **was**

- Clare said that **she was** enjoying her new job.
- She said that **her father wasn't** well.

SARAH

We're going to buy a house.

BEN

are → **were**

- Sarah and Ben said that **they were** going to buy a house.

PETER

I have to leave early.

My sister has gone to Australia.

have / has → **had**

- Peter said that **he had** to leave early.
- He said that **his sister had** gone to Australia.

KATE

I can't find a job.

can → **could**

- Kate said that **she couldn't** find a job.

STEVE

I'll phone you.

will → **would**

- Steve said that **he would** phone me.

RACHEL

I don't like my job.

My son doesn't like school.

do / does → **did**

- Rachel said that **she didn't** like her job.
- She said that **her son didn't** like school.

MIKE

You look tired.

I feel fine.

YOU

look → **looked**	
feel → **felt**	
etc.	etc.
(present)	*(past)*

- Mike said that **I looked** tired.
- I said that **I felt** fine.

B

say and **tell**

say (→ **said**)

- He **said** that he was tired. (*not* He said me)
- What did she **say to** you? (*not* say you)

We say **he said to me**, **I said to Ann** etc. (*not* 'he said me', 'I said Ann').

tell (→ **told**)

- He **told me** that he was tired. (*not* He told that)
- What did she **tell you**? (*not* tell to you)

We say **he told me**, **I told Ann** etc. (*not* 'he told to me', 'I told to Ann').

C

You can say:

- He said **that** he was tired. *or* He said he was tired. (*without* that)
- Kate told me **that** she couldn't find a job. *or* Kate told me she couldn't find a job.

I told you to ... ➜ Unit 53

Exercises

50.1 Read what these people say and write sentences with **He/She/They said (that) ...** .

1
I've lost my watch.
He said he had lost his watch.

2
I'm very busy.
.....

3
I can't go to the party.
.....

4
I have to go out.
.....

5
I'm learning Russian.
.....

6
I don't feel very well.
.....

7
We'll be home late.
.....

8
I've just come back from holiday.
.....

9
I'm going to buy a guitar.
.....

10
We haven't got a key.
.....

50.2 Use the pictures to complete the sentences.

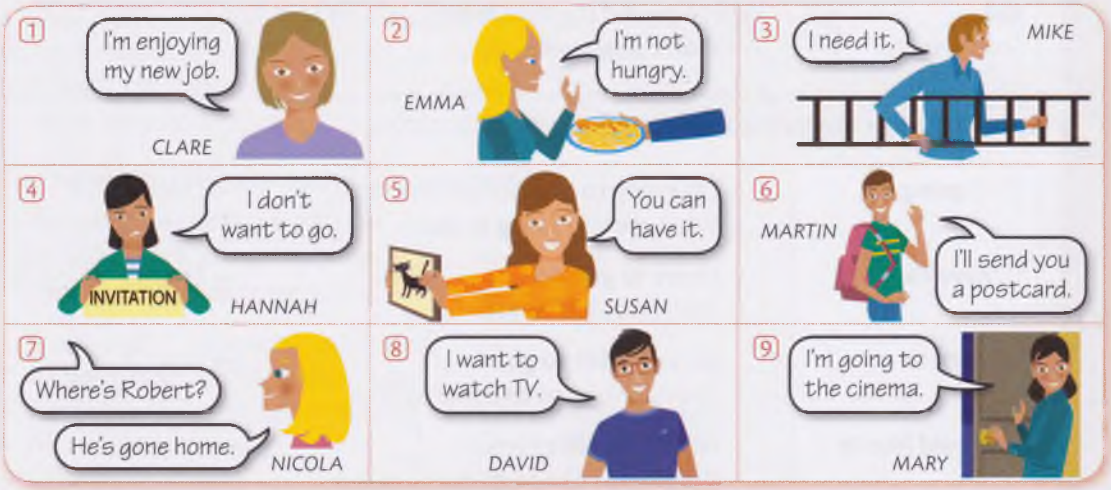

1 I met Clare last week. She said ....she was enjoying her new job....
2 Emma didn't want anything to eat. She said .....
3 I wanted to borrow Mike's ladder, but he said .....
4 Hannah was invited to the party, but she said .....
5 Susan told me she didn't want the picture. She said .....
6 Martin has just gone away on holiday. He said .....
7 I was looking for Robert. Nicola said .....
8 'Why did David stay at home?' 'He said .....'
9 'Has Mary gone out?' 'I think so. She said .....'

50.3 Write **say/said** or **tell/told**.

1 He ....said.... he was tired.
2 What did she....tell.... you?
3 Anna ..... she didn't like Peter.
4 Jack ..... me that you were ill.
5 Please don't ..... Dan what happened.
6 Did Lucy ..... she would be late?
7 The woman ..... she was a reporter.
8 The woman ..... us she was a reporter.
9 They asked me a lot of questions, but I didn't ..... them anything.
10 They asked me a lot of questions, but I didn't ..... anything.

Unit 51

work/working go/going do/doing

A

work/go/be etc. *(infinitive)*

will/can/must etc. + *infinitive*:

will	Anna **will be** here soon.	→ Units 27–28
shall	**Shall** I **open** the window?	
might	I **might phone** you later.	→ Unit 29
may	**May** I **sit** here?	
can	I **can't meet** you tomorrow.	→ Unit 30
could	**Could** you **pass** the salt, please?	
must	It's late. I **must go** now.	→ Unit 31
should	You **shouldn't work** so hard.	→ Unit 32
would	**Would** you **like** some coffee?	→ Unit 34

do/does/did + *infinitive*:

do/does *(present simple)*	**Do** you **work**?	→ Units 6–7
	They **don't work** very hard.	
	Helen **doesn't know** many people.	
	How much **does** it **cost**?	
did *(past simple)*	What time **did** the train **leave**?	→ Unit 12
	We **didn't sleep** well.	

B

to work / to go / to be etc. (**to** + *infinitive*)

(I'm) **going to** ...	**I'm going to play** tennis tomorrow.	→ Unit 26
	What **are** you **going to do**?	
(I) **have to** ...	I **have to go** now.	→ Unit 33
	Everybody **has to eat**.	
(I) **want to** ...	Do you **want to go** out?	→ Unit 52
	They don't **want to come** with us.	
(I) **would like to** ...	**I'd like to talk** to you.	→ Unit 34
	Would you **like to go** out?	
(I) **used to** ...	Dave **used to work** in a factory.	→ Unit 36

C

working/going/playing etc.

am/is/are + -ing *(present continuous)*	Please be quiet. **I'm working**.	→ Units 3–4, 8, 25
	Tom **isn't working** today.	
	What time **are** you **going** out?	
was/were + -ing *(past continuous)*	It **was raining**, so we didn't go out.	→ Units 13–14
	What **were** you **doing** at 11.30 yesterday?	

*verbs + **to** ... and **-ing** (**I want to do** / **I enjoy doing**)* ➜ *Unit 52* *go and **-ing*** ➜ *Unit 55*

Exercises

51.1 Complete the sentences. Write: **... phone Paul** or **... to phone Paul**.

1 I'll phone Paul.
2 I'm going to phone Paul.
3 Can you ..... Paul?
4 Shall I .....?
5 I'd like .....
6 Do you have .....?
7 You should .....
8 I want .....
9 I might .....
10 You must .....

51.2 Complete the sentences with a verb from the box. Sometimes you need the infinitive (**work/go** etc.) and sometimes you need **-ing** (**working/going** etc.).

do/doing	**get/getting**	~~**sleep/sleeping**~~	**watch/watching**
eat/eating	**go/going**	**stay/staying**	**wear/wearing**
fly/flying	**listen/listening**	**wait/waiting**	~~**work/working**~~

1 Please be quiet. I'm working.
2 I feel tired today. I didn't sleep very well last night.
3 What time do you usually ..... up in the morning?
4 'Where are you .....?' 'To the office.'
5 Did you ..... TV last night?
6 Look at that plane! It's ..... very low.
7 You can turn off the radio. I'm not ..... to it.
8 They didn't ..... anything because they weren't hungry.
9 My friends were ..... for me when I arrived.
10 'Does Susan always ..... glasses?' 'No, only for reading.'
11 'What are you ..... tonight?' 'I'm ..... at home.'

51.3 Put the verb in the correct form. Choose from:

the infinitive (**work/go** etc.) or
to ... (**to work / to go** etc.) or
-ing (**working/going** etc.)

1 Shall I open the window? (open)
2 It's late. I have to go now. (go)
3 Amanda isn't working this week. She's on holiday. (work)
4 I'm tired. I don't want ..... out. (go)
5 It might ....., so take an umbrella with you. (rain)
6 What time do you have ..... tomorrow morning? (leave)
7 I'm sorry I can't ..... you. (help)
8 My brother is a student. He's ..... physics. (study)
9 Would you like ..... on a trip round the world? (go)
10 When you saw Maria, what was she .....? (wear)
11 When you go to London, where are you going .....? (stay)
12 I'm hungry. I must ..... something to eat. (have)
13 'Where's Gary?' 'He's ..... a bath.' (have)
14 I used ..... a car, but I sold it last year. (have)
15 He spoke very quietly. I couldn't ..... him. (hear)
16 You don't look well. I don't think you should ..... to work today. (go)
17 I don't know what he said. I wasn't ..... to him. (listen)
18 I missed the bus and had ..... home. (walk)
19 I want ..... what happened. (know) You must ..... me. (tell)
20 May I ..... this book? (borrow)

Unit 52

to ... (I want to do) and -ing (I enjoy doing)

A

verbs + **to** ... (**I want to do**)

want	**plan**	**decide**	**try**
hope	**expect**	**offer**	**forget**
need	**promise**	**refuse**	**learn**

+ **to** ... (**to do** / **to work** / **to be** etc.)

- What do you **want to do** this evening?
- It's not very late. We don't **need to go** home yet.
- Tina has **decided to sell** her car.
- You **forgot to switch** off the light when you went out.
- My brother is **learning to drive**.
- I **tried to read** my book, but I was too tired.

B

verbs + **-ing** (**I enjoy doing**)

enjoy	**stop**	**suggest**
mind	**finish**	

+ **-ing** (**doing** / **working** / **being** etc.)

- I **enjoy dancing**. (*not* enjoy to dance)
- I don't **mind getting** up early.
- Has it **stopped raining**?
- Sonia **suggested going** to the cinema.

C

verbs + **-ing** *or* **to** ...

like	**love**	**start**	**continue**
prefer	**hate**	**begin**	

+ **-ing** (**doing** etc.) *or* **to** ... (**to do** etc.)

- Do you **like getting** up early? *or* Do you **like to get** up early?
- I **prefer travelling** by car. *or* I **prefer to travel** by car.
- Anna **loves dancing**. *or* Anna **loves to dance**.
- I **hate being** late. *or* I **hate to be** late.
- It **started raining**. *or* It **started to rain**.

D

would like to ... etc.

would like	**would** love
would prefer	**would** hate

+ **to** ... (**to do** / **to work** / **to be** etc.)

- Amy **would like to meet** you.
- **I'd love to go** to Australia. (**I'd** = I **would**)
- '**Would** you **like to sit** down?' 'No, **I'd prefer to stand**, thank you.'
- I like this apartment. I **wouldn't like to move**.
- I live in a small village. **I'd hate to live** in a big city.

would like ➜ Unit 34 **I want you to** ... ➜ Unit 53 **go** + **-ing** ➜ Unit 55 preposition + **-ing** ➜ Unit 112

Exercises

52.1 Put the verb in the right form, **to ...** or **-ing**.

1 I enjoy ....dancing.... . (dance)
2 What do you want ....to do.... tonight? (do)
3 Bye! I hope ..... you again soon. (see)
4 I learnt ..... when I was five years old. (swim)
5 Have you finished ..... the kitchen? (clean)
6 Where's Anna? I need ..... her something. (ask)
7 Do you enjoy ..... other countries? (visit)
8 The weather was nice, so I suggested ..... for a walk by the river. (go)
9 Where's Ben? He promised ..... here on time. (be)
10 I'm not in a hurry. I don't mind ..... . (wait)
11 What have you decided ..... ? (do)
12 Dan was angry and refused ..... to me. (speak)
13 I'm tired. I want ..... to bed. (go)
14 I was very upset and started ..... . (cry)
15 I'm trying ..... . (work) Please stop ..... . (talk)

52.2 Complete the sentences using **to ...** or **-ing**. Use these verbs:

~~go~~ **go** **help** **lose** **rain** **read** **see** **send** **wait** **watch**

1 'Have you ever been to Australia?' 'No, but I'd love ....to go.... .'
2 Amy had a lot to do, so I offered ..... her.
3 I'm surprised that you're here. I didn't expect ..... you.
4 Kate has a lot of books. She enjoys ..... .
5 This ring was my grandmother's. I'd hate. ..... it.
6 Don't forget ..... us a postcard when you're on holiday.
7 I'm not going out until it stops ..... .
8 What shall we do this afternoon? Would you like ..... to the beach?
9 When I'm tired in the evenings, I like ..... TV.
10 'Shall we go now?' 'No, I'd prefer ..... a few minutes.'

52.3 Complete the answers to the questions.

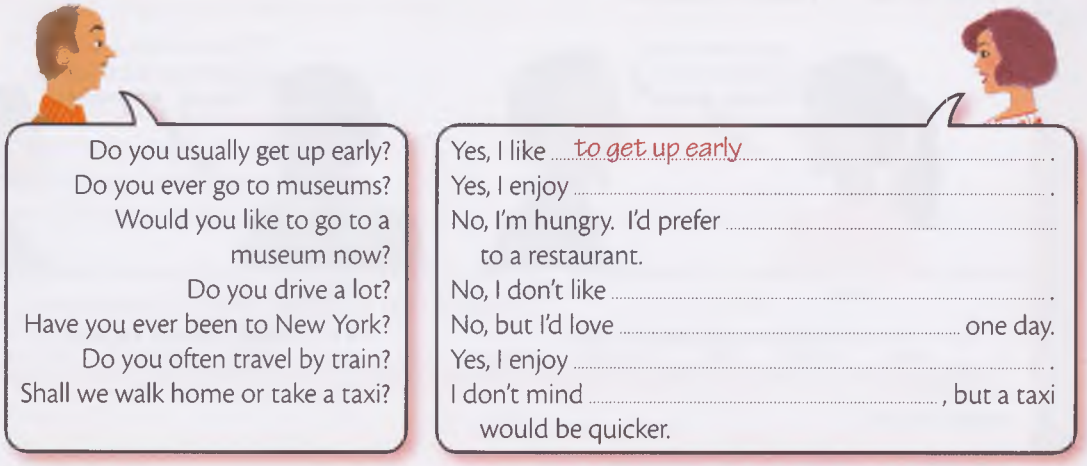

1	Do you usually get up early?	Yes, I like ....to get up early.... .
2	Do you ever go to museums?	Yes, I enjoy ..... .
3	Would you like to go to a museum now?	No, I'm hungry. I'd prefer ..... to a restaurant.
4	Do you drive a lot?	No, I don't like ..... .
5	Have you ever been to New York?	No, but I'd love ..... one day.
6	Do you often travel by train?	Yes, I enjoy ..... .
7	Shall we walk home or take a taxi?	I don't mind ....., but a taxi would be quicker.

52.4 Complete these sentences. Write about yourself. Use **to ...** or **-ing**.

1 I enjoy .....
2 I don't like .....
3 If it's a nice day tomorrow, I'd like .....
4 When I'm on holiday, I like .....
5 I don't mind ....., but .....
6 I wouldn't like .....

→ **Additional exercise 32** (page 268)

Unit 53

I want you to ... I told you to ...

A I want you to ...

The woman **wants to go**.

The man **doesn't want** the woman **to go**. He **wants** her **to stay**.

We say:

I want	**you** **somebody** **Sarah**	**to do** something

- I **want you to be** happy. (*not* I want that you are happy)
- They didn't **want anybody to know** their secret.
- Do you **want me to lend** you some money?

We use **would like** in the same way:

- **Would** you **like me to lend** you some money?

B

We also use this structure with:

		verb	+ somebody +	**to** ...	
ask	Sue	**asked**	a friend	**to lend**	her some money.
tell	I	**told**	you	**to be**	careful.
advise	What do you	**advise**	me	**to do**?	
expect	I didn't	**expect**	them	**to be**	here.
persuade	We	**persuaded**	Gary	**to come**	with us.
teach	I	**am teaching**	my brother	**to swim**.	

C I told you to ... / I told you not to ...

→ Jane **told** me **to wait** for her.

→ Paul **told** Sue **not to wait** for him.

D make and let

After **make** and **let**, we do *not* use **to**:

- He's very funny. He **makes** me **laugh**. (*not* makes me to laugh)
- At school our teacher **made** us **work** very hard.
- I didn't have my phone with me, so Sue **let** me **use** hers. (*not* let me to use)

You can say **Let's** ... (= **Let us**) when you want people to do things with you:

- Come on! **Let's dance**.
- 'Do you want to go out tonight?' 'No, I'm tired. **Let's stay** at home.'

Let's ... → Unit 35 **He told me that** ... → Unit 50

Exercises

53.1 Write sentences beginning **I want you ... / I don't want you ... / Do you want me ... ?**

1 (you must come with me) I want you to come with me.
2 (listen carefully) I want .....
3 (please don't be angry) I don't .....
4 (shall I wait for you?) Do you .....
5 (don't call me tonight) .....
6 (you must meet Sarah) .....

53.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 Dan persuaded me to go to the cinema.
2 I wanted to get to the station. A woman told .....
3 Ben wasn't well. I advised .....
4 Laura had a lot of luggage. She asked .....
5 I was too busy to talk to Tom. I told .....
6 I wanted to make a phone call. Paul let .....
7 Sue is going to call me later. I told .....
8 Amy's mother taught .....

53.3 Complete these sentences with the verbs in the list. Sometimes **to** is necessary (**to go / to wait** etc.); sometimes **to** is not necessary (**go/wait** etc.).

arrive borrow get ~~go~~ go make repeat tell think wait

1 Please stay here. I don't want you to go yet.
2 I didn't hear what she said, so I asked her ..... it.
3 'Shall we begin?' 'No, let's ..... a few minutes.'
4 Are they already here? I expected them ..... much later.
5 Kevin's parents didn't want him ..... married.
6 I want to stay here. You can't make me ..... with you.
7 'Is that your bike?' 'No, it's John's. He let me ..... it.'
8 Rachel can't come to the party. She told me ..... you.
9 Would you like a drink? Would you like me ..... some coffee?
10 'Kate doesn't like me.' 'What makes you ..... that?'

I went to the shop to ...

A

Paula wanted a newspaper, so she went to the shop.

Why did she go to the shop?
To get a newspaper.

She went to the shop **to get** a newspaper.

to ... (**to get** / **to see** etc.) tells us *why* a person does something:

- 'Why are you going out?' '**To buy** some food.'
- Catherine went to the station **to meet** her friend.
- Sue turned on the television **to watch** the news.
- I'd like to go to Spain **to learn** Spanish.

money/time to (do something):

- We need some **money to buy** food.
- I haven't got **time to watch** television.

B

to ... and **for** ...

to + *verb* (**to get** / **to see** etc.)	**for** + *noun* (**for a newspaper** / **for food** etc.)
I went to the shop **to get** a newspaper. (*not* for get)	I went to the shop **for a newspaper**.
They're going to Brazil **to see** their friends.	They're going to Brazil **for a holiday**.
We need some money **to buy** food.	We need some money **for food**.

C

wait for ... :

- Please **wait for** me.
- Are you **waiting for** the bus?

wait to (do something):

- Hurry up! I'm **waiting to go**.
- Are you **waiting to see** the doctor?

wait for (somebody/something) **to** ... :

- The lights are red. You have to **wait for them to change**.
- Are you **waiting for the doctor to come**?

They're **waiting for the lights to change**.

go to ... and **go for** ... ➜ Unit 55 **something to eat** / **nothing to do** etc. ➜ Unit 79
enough + **to/for** ... ➜ Unit 91 **too** + **to/for** ... ➜ Unit 92

Exercises

54.1 *Write sentences beginning* ***I went to ...*** *. Choose from the boxes.*

a coffee shop	~~**the station**~~	+	**buy some vegetables**	**get some medicine**
the chemist	**the market**		**meet a friend**	~~**get a train ticket**~~

1 I went to the station to get a train ticket.
2 I went .....
3 .....
4 .....

54.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

to get some fresh air	**to read the newspaper**	**to wake him up**
to open this door	**to see who it was**	~~**to watch the news**~~

1 I turned on the TV to watch the news.
2 Alice sat down in an armchair .....
3 Do I need a key .....?
4 I went for a walk by the river .....
5 I knocked on the door of David's room .....
6 The doorbell rang, so I looked out of the window .....

54.3 *Use your own ideas to finish these sentences. Use* ***to ...*** *.*

1 *I went to the shop* *to get a newspaper*.
2 I'm very busy. I don't have time .....
3 I called Amy .....
4 I'm going out .....
5 I borrowed some money .....

54.4 Write **to** or **for**.

1 I went out to get some bread.
2 We went to a restaurant ..... have dinner.
3 Robert wants to go to university ..... study economics.
4 I'm going to London ..... an interview next week.
5 I'm going to London ..... visit some friends of mine.
6 Do you have time ..... a cup of coffee?
7 I got up late this morning. I didn't have time ..... wash.
8 Everybody needs money ..... live.
9 We didn't have any money ..... a taxi, so we walked home.
10 The office is very small. There's space only ..... a desk and chair.
11 A: Excuse me, are you waiting ..... be served?
B: No, I'm already being served, thanks.

54.5 Complete these sentences. Choose from:

it / to arrive	**you / tell me**	~~**them / change**~~	**the film / begin**

1 We stopped at the lights and waited for them to change.
2 I sat down in the cinema and waited .....
3 We called an ambulance and waited .....
4 'Do you know what to do?' 'No, I'm waiting .....'

Unit 55

go to ... go on ... go for ... go -ing

A

go to ... (**go to work** / **go to London** / **go to a concert** etc.)

- What time do you usually **go to work**?
- I'm **going to China** next week.
- Sophie didn't want to **go to the concert**.
- 'Where's Tom?' 'He's **gone to bed**.'
- I **went to the dentist** yesterday.

go to

go to sleep = start to sleep:

- I was very tired and **went to sleep** quickly.

go home (without **to**)

- I'm **going home** now. (*not* going to home)

B

go on ...

go on	holiday a trip a tour a cruise strike

- We're **going on holiday** next week.
- Children often **go on school trips**.
- Workers at the airport have **gone on strike**. (= they are refusing to work)

C

go for ...

go (somewhere) **for**	a walk a run a swim a drink a meal

- 'Where's Emma?' 'She's **gone for a walk**.'
- Do you **go for a run** every morning?
- The water looks nice. I'm **going for a swim**.
- I met Chris in town, so we **went for coffee**.
- Shall we **go** out **for a meal**? I know a good restaurant.

D

go + -ing

We use **go + -ing** for many sports (**swimming** / **skiing** etc.) and also **shopping**.

I **go** he is **going** we **went** they have **gone** she wants to **go**	**shopping** **swimming** **fishing** **sailing** **skiing** **jogging** etc.

- Are you **going shopping** this afternoon?
- It's a nice day. Let's **go swimming**. (*or* Let's **go for a** swim.)
- Richard has a small boat and he often **goes sailing**.
- I **went jogging** before breakfast this morning.

Exercises

55.1 Write **to/on/for** where necessary.

1 I'm going ....to.... China next week.
2 Richard often goes ....–.... sailing. *(no preposition)*
3 Sue went ..... Mexico last year.
4 Jack goes ..... jogging every morning.
5 I'm going out ..... a walk. Do you want to come?
6 I'm tired because I went ..... bed very late last night.
7 Mark is going ..... holiday ..... Italy next week.
8 The weather was warm and the river was clean, so we went ..... a swim.
9 The taxi drivers went ..... strike when I was in New York.
10 Let's go ..... the cinema this evening.
11 It's late. I have to go ..... home now.
12 Would you like to go ..... a tour of the city?
13 Shall we go out ..... dinner this evening?
14 My parents are going ..... a cruise this summer.

55.2 Use the pictures to complete the sentences. Use **go/goes/going/went + -ing**.

1 Richard has a boat. He often ....goes sailing.... .
2 Last Saturday Emily went ..... .
3 Dan ..... every day.
4 Jessica is going on holiday next month. She is ..... .
5 Peter is going out later. He has to ..... .
6 Sarah ..... after work yesterday.

55.3 Complete the sentences. Use the words in the box. Use **to/on/for** if necessary.

~~a swim~~	holiday	Portugal	shopping	sleep
a walk	home	riding	skiing	university

1 The water looks nice. Let's go ....for a swim.... .
2 After leaving school, Tina went ..... where she studied psychology.
3 I'm going ..... now. I have to buy a few things.
4 I was very tired last night. I sat down in an armchair and went ..... .
5 I wasn't enjoying the party, so I went ..... early.
6 We live near the mountains. In winter we go ..... most weekends.
7 Robert has got a horse. He goes ..... a lot.
8 The weather is nice. Shall we go ..... along the river?
9 A: Are you going ..... soon?
B: Yes, next month. We're going ..... . We've never been there before.

Unit 56

get

A

get + *noun* = receive, buy, find etc.

you **don't have** something → you **get** it → you **have** it

- I **got** an email from Sam this morning. (= receive)
- I like your sweater. Where did you **get** it? (= buy)
- It's hard to **get** a job at the moment? (= find)
- 'Is Lisa here?' 'Yes, I'll **get** her for you.'

also **get a bus** / **a train** / **a taxi** (= take a bus/train etc.):

- 'Did you walk here?' 'No, I **got** the bus.'

B

get hungry / **get cold** / **get tired** etc. (**get** + *adjective*) = become:

you're **not hungry** → you **get hungry** → you **are hungry**

- If you don't eat, you **get hungry**.
- Drink your coffee. It**'s getting cold**.
- I'm sorry your mother is ill. I hope she **gets better** soon.
- It was raining very hard. We didn't have an umbrella, so we **got** very **wet**.

also **get married**
get dressed (= put your clothes on)
get lost (= lose your way)

- Nicola and Frank are **getting married** soon.
- I got up and **got dressed** quickly.
- We didn't have a map, so we **got lost**.

C

get to a place = arrive:

- I usually **get to work** before 8.30. (= arrive at work)
- We left London at 10 o'clock and **got to Manchester** at 12.45.

get here/there (without **to**):

- How did you **get here**? By bus?

get home (without **to**):

- What time did you **get home** last night?

D

get in/out/on/off

get in (a car)

get out (**of** a car)

get on

get off

(a bus / a train / a plane)

- Kate **got in the car** and drove away. (You can also say: Kate got **into** the car and ...)
- A car stopped and a man **got out**. (*but* A man got out **of the car**.)
- We **got on the bus** outside the hotel and **got off** in Church Street.

get to → Unit 108 in/out/on/off → Units 110, 114 get up → Unit 114 get on → Appendix 6

Exercises

56.1 Complete these sentences. Use **get/gets** and choose from the box.

a doctor	**a lot of rain**	**a taxi**	~~**my email**~~	**the job**
a good salary	**a new laptop**	**a ticket**	**some milk**	**your boots**

1 Did you ....get my email.... ? I sent it a week ago.
2 Where did you ..... ? They're very nice.
3 Quick! This man is ill. We need to ..... .
4 I don't want to walk home. Let's ..... .
5 Tom has an interview tomorrow. I hope he ..... .
6 When you go to the shop, can you ..... ?
7 'Are you going to the concert?' 'Yes, if I can ..... .'
8 Helen has got a well-paid job. She ..... .
9 The weather is horrible here in winter. We ..... .
10 I'm going to ..... . The one I have is too slow.

56.2 Complete these sentences. Use **getting** + these words:

~~**cold**~~	**dark**	**late**	**married**	**ready**

1 Drink your coffee. It's ....getting cold.... .
2 Turn on the light. It's ..... .
3 'I'm ..... next week.' 'Really? Congratulations!'
4 'Where's Karen?' 'She's ..... to go out.'
5 It's ..... . It's time to go home.

56.3 Complete the sentences. Use **get/gets/got** + these words:

angry	**better**	~~**hungry**~~	**lost**	**married**	**old**	**wet**

1 If you don't eat, you ....get hungry.... .
2 Don't go out in the rain. You'll ..... .
3 My brother ..... last year. His wife's name is Sarah.
4 Mark is always very calm. He never ..... .
5 We tried to find the hotel, but we ..... .
6 Everybody wants to stay young, but we all ..... .
7 Yesterday the weather wasn't so good at first, but it ..... during the day.

56.4 Write sentences with **I left ...** and **got to ...** .

1 home / 7.30 → work / 8.15
....I left home at 7.30 and got to work at 8.15.....
2 London / 10.15 → Bristol / 11.45
I left London at 10.15 and .....
3 the party / 11.15 → home / midnight
.....
4 *Write a sentence about yourself.*
I left .....

56.5 Write **got in / got out of / got on / got off.**

1 Kate ....got in.... the car and drove away.
2 I ..... the bus and walked to my house from the bus stop.
3 Isabel ..... the car, shut the door and went into a shop.
4 I made a stupid mistake. I ..... the wrong train.

Unit 57

do and make

A

Do is a general word for actions:

- What are you **doing** this evening? (*not* What are you making?)
- 'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll **do** it.'
- Rachel's job is very boring. She **does** the same thing every day.
- I **did** a lot of things yesterday.

What do you do? = What's your job?:

- 'What do you **do**?' 'I work in a bank.'

B

Make = produce/create. For example:

She's **making** coffee.

He has **made** a cake.

They **make** umbrellas.

It was **made** in China.

Compare **do** and **make**:

- I **did** a lot yesterday. I **cleaned** my room, I **wrote** some letters and I **made** a cake.
- A: What do you **do** in your free time? Sport? Reading? Hobbies?
  B: I **make** clothes. I **make** dresses and jackets. I also **make** toys for my children.

C

Expressions with **do**

do	an exam / a test
	a course
	homework
	housework
	somebody a favour
	an exercise

- I'm **doing my driving test** next week.
- John has just **done a training course**.
- Our children have to **do** a lot of **homework**.
- I hate **doing housework**, especially cleaning.
- Sue, could you **do me a favour**?
- I go for a run and **do exercises** every morning.

also **do the shopping** / **do the washing** / **do the washing-up** / **do the ironing** / **do the cooking** etc.:

- I **did the washing**, but I didn't **do the shopping**.

D

Expressions with **make**

make	a mistake
	an appointment
	a phone call
	a list
	a noise
	a bed

- I'm sorry, I **made a mistake**.
- I need to **make an appointment** to see the doctor.
- Excuse me, I have to **make a phone call**.
- Have you **made a shopping list**?
- It's late. Don't **make a noise**.
- Sometimes I forget to **make my bed** in the morning.

We say **make a film** *but* **take a photo** / **take a picture**:

- When was **this film made**?

but

- When was **this photo taken**?

do/does/did (negatives and questions) ➜ Units 43–44 **make** somebody do something ➜ Unit 53

Exercises

57.1 Write **make/making/made** or **do/doing/did/done**.

1 'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll ...do... it.'
2 What did you ..... at the weekend? Did you go away?
3 Do you know how to ..... bread?
4 Paper is ..... from wood.
5 Richard didn't help me. He sat in an armchair and ..... nothing.
6 'What do you ..... ?' 'I'm a doctor.'
7 I asked you to clean the bathroom. Have you ..... it?
8 'What do they ..... in that factory?' 'Shoes.'
9 I'm ..... some coffee. Would you like some?
10 Why are you angry with me? I didn't ..... anything wrong.
11 'What are you ..... tomorrow afternoon?' 'I'm working.'

57.2 What are these people doing?

1 ...He's making a cake.... 6 .....
2 They ..... 7 .....
3 He ..... 8 .....
4 ..... 9 .....
5 ..... 10 .....

57.3 Write **make** or **do** in the correct form.

1 I hate ...doing... housework, especially cleaning.
2 Why do you always ..... the same mistake?
3 'Can you ..... me a favour?' 'It depends what it is.'
4 'Have you ..... your homework?' 'Not yet.'
5 I need to see the dentist, but I haven't ..... an appointment.
6 I'm ..... a course in photography at the moment. It's very good.
7 The last time I ..... an exam was ten years ago.
8 How many phone calls did you ..... yesterday?
9 When you've finished Exercise 1, you can ..... Exercise 2.
10 There's something wrong with the car. The engine is ..... a strange noise.
11 It was a bad mistake. It was the worst mistake I've ever ..... .
12 Let's ..... a list of all the things we have to ..... today.

Unit 58

have

A

have and **have got**

I have (something) or **I've got** (something) = it is mine:

- I **have** a new car. *or* I**'ve got** a new car.
- Sue **has** long hair. *or* Sue **has got** long hair.
- **Do** they **have** any children? *or* **Have** they **got** any children?
- Tom **doesn't have** a job. *or* Tom **hasn't got** a job.
- How much time **do** you **have**? *or* How much time **have** you **got**?

also

I **have** / I**'ve got**	a headache / (a) toothache / a pain (in my leg etc.) a cold / a cough / a sore throat / a temperature / flu etc.

- I **have** a headache. *or* I**'ve got** a headache.
- **Do** you **have** a cold? *or* **Have** you **got** a cold?

The past is **I had** (without **got**) / **I didn't have** / **Did you have**? etc. :

- When I first met Sue, she **had** short hair.
- He **didn't have** any money because he **didn't have** a job.
- **Did** you **have** enough time to do everything you wanted?

B

have breakfast / **have a shower** etc.

In these expressions **have** = eat/drink/take etc. You can't use 'have got'.

have	breakfast / lunch / dinner a meal / a sandwich / a pizza etc. a cup of coffee / a glass of milk etc. something to eat/drink

- 'Where's Lisa?' 'She**'s having** lunch.'
- I **don't** usually **have** breakfast.
- I **had** three cups of coffee this morning.
- '**Have** a biscuit!' 'Oh, thank you.'

We also use **have** (*not* have got) in these expressions:

have	a bath / a shower a rest / a holiday / a party a nice time / a good trip / fun etc. a walk / a swim / a game (of tennis etc.) a dream / an accident a baby a look (at something)

- I **had** a shower this morning.
- We'**re having** a party next week. You must come.
- Enjoy your holiday. **Have** a nice time!
- **Did** you **have** a good time in Tokyo?
- Sandra **has** just **had** a baby.
- Can I **have** a look at your magazine?

C

Compare:

Have *or* **have got**

- I **have** / I**'ve got** a new shower. It's very good.

Have (*not* **have got**)

- I **have** a shower every morning.
  (*not* I**'ve got** a shower every morning)
- A: Where's Paul?
  B: He**'s having** a shower.
  (= he's washing now)

I have / I've got → Unit 9 I've (done) (present perfect) → Units 15–18 I have to ... → Unit 33

Exercises

58.1 Write the correct form of **have** or **have got**.

1 I didn't have time to do the shopping yesterday. (I / not / have)
2 'Has Lisa got (OR Does Lisa have) a car?' 'No, she can't drive.' (Lisa / have?)
3 He can't open the door. ..... a key. (he / not / have)
4 ..... a cold last week. He's better now. (Gary / have)
5 What's wrong? ..... a headache? (you / have?)
6 We wanted to go by taxi, but ..... enough money. (we / not / have)
7 Laura is very busy. ..... much free time. (she / not / have)
8 ..... any problems when you were on holiday? (you / have?)

58.2 What are these people doing? Choose from the list:

a bath ~~**breakfast**~~ **a cup of tea** **dinner** **a good time** **a rest**

1 They're having breakfast.
2 She .....
3 He .....
4 They .....
5 .....
6 .....

58.3 What do you say in these situations? Use **have**.

1 Emily is going on holiday. What do you say to her before she goes?
Have a nice holiday!
2 You meet Clare at the airport. She has just got off her plane. Ask her about the flight.
Did you have a good flight?
3 Tom is going on a long trip. What do you say to him before he leaves?
.....
4 It's Monday morning. You are at work. Ask Paula about her weekend.
.....
5 Paul has just come home after playing tennis with a friend. Ask him about the game.
.....
6 Rachel is going out this evening. What do you say to her before she goes?
.....
7 Mark has just returned from holiday. Ask him about his holiday.
.....

58.4 Complete the sentences. Use **have/had** and choose from the list.

an accident **a glass of water** **a look** **a walk** ~~**a party**~~ **something to eat**

1 We had a party a few weeks ago. We invited 50 people.
2 'Shall we ..... ?' 'No, I'm not hungry.'
3 I was thirsty, so I ..... .
4 I like to get up early and ..... before breakfast.
5 Tina is a very good driver. She has never ..... .
6 There's something wrong with the engine of my car. Can you ..... at it?

Unit 59

I/me he/him they/them etc.

A People

subject	**I**	**we**	**you**	**he**	**she**	**they**
object	**me**	**us**	**you**	**him**	**her**	**them**

subject	
I	**I** know Tom.
we	**We** know Tom.
you	**You** know Tom.
he	**He** knows Tom.
she	**She** knows Tom.
they	**They** know Tom.

	object
Tom knows **me**.	**me**
Tom knows **us**.	**us**
Tom knows **you**.	**you**
Tom knows **him**.	**him**
Tom knows **her**.	**her**
Tom knows **them**.	**them**

B Things

subject	**it**	**they**
object	**it**	**them**

- I don't want **this book**. You can have **it**.
- I don't want **these books**. You can have **them**.
- Kate never drinks **milk**. She doesn't like **it**.
- I never go to **parties**. I don't like **them**.

C

We use **me/her/them** etc. (object) after a *preposition* (**for/to/with** etc.):

- This letter isn't **for me**. It's **for you**.
- Who is that woman? Why are you looking **at her**?
- We're going to the cinema. Do you want to come **with us**?
- Sue and Kevin are going to the cinema. Do you want to go **with them**?
- 'Where's the newspaper?' 'You're sitting **on it**.'

give it/them to ... :

- I want that book. Please give **it to me**.
- Robert needs these books. Can you give **them to him**, please?

my/his/their etc. ➜ Unit 60 **Give me that book / Give it to me** ➜ Unit 96

Exercises

59.1 Complete the sentences with **him/her/them.**

1 I don't know those girls. Do you know ....them.... ?
2 I don't know that man. Do you know .... ?
3 I don't know those people. Do you know .... ?
4 I don't know David's wife. Do you know .... ?
5 I don't know Mr Stevens. Do you know .... ?
6 I don't know Sarah's parents. Do you know .... ?
7 I don't know the woman in the black coat. Do you know .... ?

59.2 Complete the sentences. Use **I/me/you/she/her** etc.

1 **I** want to see **her**, but ....she.... doesn't want to see ....me.... .
2 **They** want to see **me**, but .... don't want to see .... .
3 **She** wants to see **him**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .
4 **We** want to see **them**, but .... don't want to see .... .
5 **He** wants to see **us**, but .... don't want to see .... .
6 **They** want to see **her**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .
7 **I** want to see **them**, but .... don't want to see .... .
8 **You** want to see **her**, but .... doesn't want to see .... .

59.3 Write sentences beginning **I like ... , I don't like ...** or **Do you like ... ?**

1 I don't eat tomatoes. ....I don't like them.... .
2 George is a very nice man. I like .... .
3 This jacket isn't very nice. I don't .... .
4 This is my new car. Do .... ?
5 Mrs Clark is not very friendly. I .... .
6 These are my new shoes. .... ?

59.4 Complete the sentences. Use **I/me/he/him** etc.

1 Who is that woman? Why are you looking at ....her.... ?
2 'Do you know that man?' 'Yes, I work with .... .'
3 Where are the tickets? I can't find .... .
4 I can't find my keys. Where are .... ?
5 We're going out. You can come with .... .
6 I've got a new motorbike. Do you want to see .... ?
7 Maria likes music. .... plays the piano.
8 I don't like dogs. I'm afraid of .... .
9 I'm talking to you. Please listen to .... .
10 Where is Anna? I want to talk to .... .
11 You can have these CDs. I don't want .... .
12 My brother has a new job, but .... doesn't like .... very much.

59.5 Complete the sentences.

1 I need that book. Can you ....give it to me.... ?
2 He wants the key. Can you give .... ?
3 She wants the keys. Can you .... ?
4 I need my bag. Can you .... ?
5 They want the money. Can you .... ?
6 We want the pictures. Can you .... ?

my/his/their etc.

A

I	→	**my**
we	→	**our**
you	→	**your**
he	→	**his**
she	→	**her**
they	→	**their**

I	like	**my**	house.
We	like	**our**	house.
You	like	**your**	house.
He	likes	**his**	house.
She	likes	**her**	house.
They	like	**their**	house.

it → **its**

Oxford (= **it**) is famous for **its** university.

We use **my**/**your**/**his** etc. + *noun*:

my hands	**his** new **car**	**her parents**
our clothes	**your** best **friend**	**their room**

B

his/her/their

AMY

her car (= Amy's car)

her husband (= Amy's husband)

her children (= Amy's children)

ANDY

his bike

his sister

his parents

MR AND MRS LEE

their son

their daughter

their children

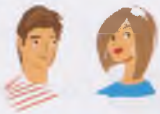

C

its and it's

its Oxford is famous for **its** university.

it's (= it **is**) I like Oxford. **It's** a nice place. (= It **is** a nice place.)

mine/yours etc. → Unit 61 I/me/my/mine → Unit 62

Exercises

60.1 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 I'm going to wash my hands.
2 She's going to wash ..... hands.
3 We're going to wash .....
4 He's going to wash .....
5 They're going to wash .....
6 Are you going to wash .....?

60.2 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 He lives with his parents.
2 They live with ..... parents.
3 We ..... parents.
4 Martina lives .....
5 I ..... parents.
6 John .....
7 Do you live .....?
8 Most children .....

60.3 Look at the family tree, and complete the sentences with **his/her/their**.

1 I saw Sarah with her husband, Philip.
2 I saw Laura and Steve with ..... children.
3 I saw Steve with ..... wife, Laura.
4 I saw Ben with ..... brother, Will.
5 I saw Laura with ..... brother, Will.
6 I saw Sarah and Philip with ..... son, Will.
7 I saw Laura with ..... parents.
8 I saw Beth and Robert with ..... parents.

60.4 Write **my/our/your/his/her/their/its.**

1 Do you like your job?
2 I know Mr Watson, but I don't know ..... wife.
3 Alice and Tom live in London. ..... son lives in Australia.
4 We're going to have a party. We're going to invite all ..... friends.
5 Anna is going out with ..... friends this evening.
6 I like tennis. It's ..... favourite sport.
7 'Is that ..... car?' 'No, I don't have a car.'
8 I want to contact Maria. Do you know ..... number?
9 Do you think most people are happy in ..... jobs?
10 I'm going to wash ..... hair before I go out.
11 This is a beautiful tree. ..... leaves are a beautiful colour.
12 John has a brother and a sister. ..... brother is 25, and ..... sister is 21.

60.5 Complete the sentences. Use **my/his/their** etc. with these words:

coat **homework** **house** **husband** ~~**job**~~ **key** **name**

1 James doesn't enjoy his job. It's not very interesting.
2 I can't get in. I don't have .....
3 Sally is married. ..... works in a bank.
4 Please take off ..... and sit down.
5 'What are the children doing?' 'They're doing .....'
6 'Do you know that man?' 'Yes, but I don't know .....'
7 We live in Barton Street. ..... is at the end on the left.

Unit 61

Whose is this? It's mine/yours/hers etc.

A

I	→	**my**	→	**mine**
we	→	**our**	→	**ours**
you	→	**your**	→	**yours**
he	→	**his**	→	**his**
she	→	**her**	→	**hers**
they	→	**their**	→	**theirs**

It's **my** money.	It's **mine**.
It's **our** money.	It's **ours**.
It's **your** money.	It's **yours**.
It's **his** money.	It's **his**.
It's **her** money.	It's **hers**.
It's **their** money.	It's **theirs**.

B

We use **my**/**your** etc. + *noun* (**my hands** / **your book** etc.):

- **My hands** are cold.
- Is this **your book**?
- Helen gave me **her umbrella**.
- It's **their problem**, not **our problem**.

We use **mine**/**yours** etc. without a noun:

- Is this book **mine** or **yours**? (= my book or your book)
- I didn't have an umbrella, so Sarah gave me **hers**. (= her umbrella)
- It's their problem, not **ours**. (= not our problem)
- We went in our car, and they went in **theirs**. (= their car)

You can use **his** with or without a noun:

- 'Is this **his camera** or **hers**?' 'It's **his**.'

C

a friend **of mine** / a friend **of his** / some friends **of yours** etc.

- I went out to meet a friend **of mine**. (*not* a friend of me)
- Tom was in the restaurant with a friend **of his**. (*not* a friend of him)
- Are those people friends **of yours**? (*not* friends of you)

D

Whose ... ?

- **Whose phone** is this? (= Is it your phone? his phone? my phone? etc.)

You can use **whose** with or without a noun:

- **Whose money** is this? / **Whose** is this? } It's mine.
- **Whose shoes** are these? / **Whose** are these? } They're John's.

my/his/their etc. → Unit 60 I/me/my/mine → Unit 62 Kate's camera / my brother's car → Unit 64

Exercises

61.1 Complete the sentences with **mine/yours** etc.

1 It's your money. It's yours.
2 It's my bag. It's ..... .
3 It's our car. It's ..... .
4 They're her shoes. They're ..... .
5 It's their house. It's ..... .
6 They're your books. They're ..... .
7 They're my glasses. They're ..... .
8 It's his coat. It's ..... .

61.2 Choose the right word.

1 It's their/~~theirs~~ problem, not ~~our~~/ours. (their *and* ours *are right*)
2 This is a nice camera. Is it your/yours?
3 That's not my/mine umbrella. My/Mine is black.
4 Whose books are these? Your/Yours or my/mine?
5 Catherine is going out with her/hers friends this evening.
6 My/Mine room is bigger than her/hers.
7 They have two children, but I don't know their/theirs names.
8 Can we use your washing machine? Our/Ours isn't working.

61.3 Complete these sentences. Use **friend(s) of mine/yours** etc.

1 I went to the cinema with a friend of mine.
2 They went on holiday with some friends of theirs.
3 She's going out with a friend ..... .
4 We had dinner with some ..... .
5 I played tennis with a ..... .
6 Tom is going to meet a ..... .
7 Do you know those people? Are they ..... ?

61.4 Look at the pictures. What are the people saying?

I/me/my/mine

A

	I etc. (→ Unit 59)	**me** etc. (→ Unit 59)	**my** etc. (→ Unit 60)	**mine** etc. (→ Unit 61)
	I know Tom.	Tom knows **me**.	It's **my** car.	It's **mine**.
	We know Tom.	Tom knows **us**.	It's **our** car.	It's **ours**.
	You know Tom.	Tom knows **you**.	It's **your** car.	It's **yours**.
	He knows Tom.	Tom knows **him**.	It's **his** car.	It's **his**.
	She knows Tom.	Tom knows **her**.	It's **her** car.	It's **hers**.
	They know Tom.	Tom knows **them**.	It's **their** car.	It's **theirs**.

B

Study these examples:

- 'Do **you** know that man?' 'Yes, **I** know **him**, but **I** can't remember **his name**.'
- **She** was very pleased because **we** invited **her** to stay with **us** at **our house**.
- A: Where are the children? Have **you** seen them?
  B: Yes, **they** are playing with **their friends** in the park.
- That's **my pen**. Can **you** give it to **me**, please?
- 'Is this **your umbrella**?' 'No, it's **yours**.'
- **He** didn't have an umbrella, so **she** gave **him hers**. (= she gave her umbrella to him)
- **I**'m going out with a friend of **mine** this evening. (*not* a friend of me)

myself/yourself etc. ➜ Unit 63 **Give me that book / Give it to me** ➜ Unit 96

Exercises

62.1 Answer the questions in the same way.

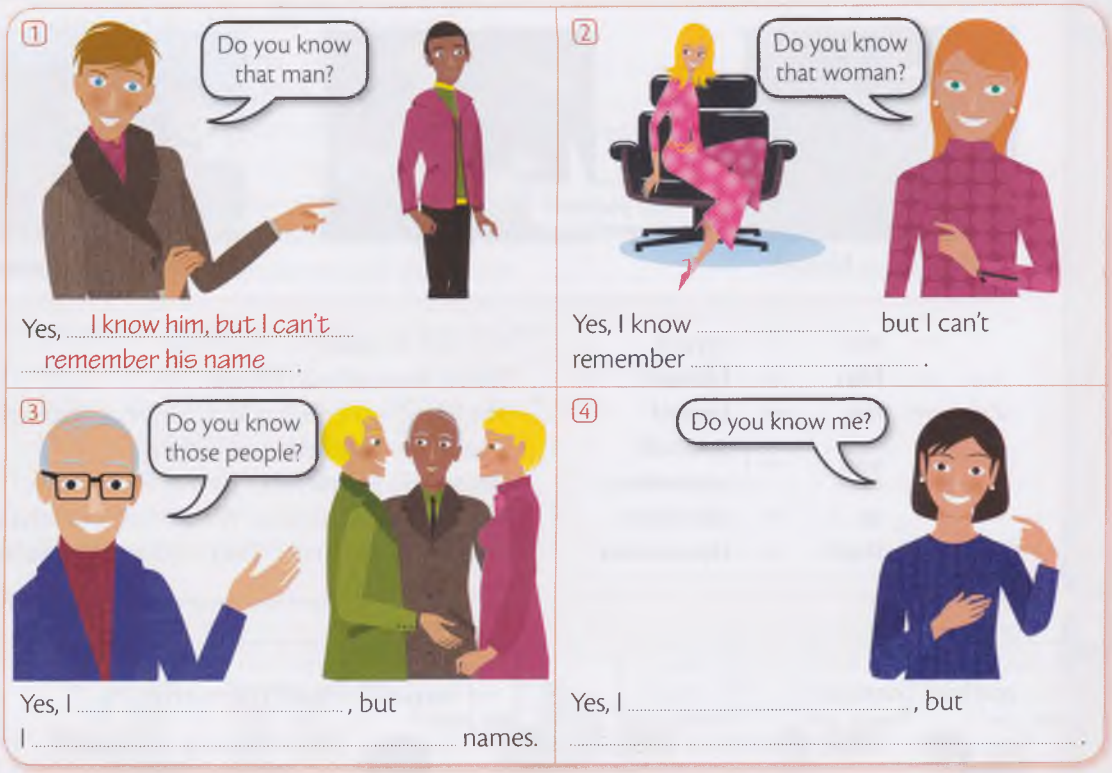

1 Yes, I know him, but I can't remember his name.

2 Yes, I know ..... but I can't remember ..... .

3 Yes, I ..... , but I ..... names.

4 Yes, I ..... , but ..... .

62.2 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 We invited her to stay with us at our house.
2 He invited us to stay with ..... at his house.
3 They invited me to stay with ..... house.
4 I invited them to stay ..... house.
5 She invited us to stay ..... house.
6 Did you invite him ..... house?

62.3 Complete the sentences in the same way.

1 I gave him my phone number, and he gave me his.
2 I gave her my phone number, and she gave me ..... .
3 He gave me his phone number, and I gave ..... .
4 We gave them ..... phone number, and they gave ..... .
5 She gave him ..... phone number, and he gave ..... .
6 You gave us ..... phone number, and we gave ..... .
7 They gave you ..... phone number, and you gave ..... .

62.4 Write **him/her/yours** etc.

1 Where's Amanda? Have you seen her?
2 Where are my keys? Where did I put ..... ?
3 This book belongs to Ben. Can you give it to ..... ?
4 We don't see ..... neighbours much. They're not at home very often.
5 'I can't find my phone. Can I use ..... ?' 'Yes, of course.'
6 We're going to the cinema. Why don't you come with ..... ?
7 Did your sister pass ..... exams?
8 Some people talk about ..... work all the time.
9 Last night I went out for a meal with a friend of ..... .

Unit 63

myself/yourself/themselves etc.

A

He's looking at **himself**.

They're enjoying **themselves**.

I	→	**me**	→	**myself**
he	→	**him**	→	**himself**
she	→	**her**	→	**herself**
you	→	**you**	→	**yourself** / **yourselves**
we	→	**us**	→	**ourselves**
they	→	**them**	→	**themselves**

- **I** looked at **myself** in the mirror.
- **He** cut **himself** with a knife.
- **She** fell off her bike, but she didn't hurt **herself**.
- Please help **yourself**. *(one person)*
- Please help **yourselves**. *(two or more people)*
- We had a good holiday. **We** enjoyed **ourselves**.
- They had a nice time. **They** enjoyed **themselves**.

B

Compare:

me/him/them etc.

She is looking at **him**.
different people

- You never talk to **me**.
- I didn't pay for **them**.
- I'm sorry. Did I hurt **you**?

myself/himself/themselves etc.

He is looking at **himself**.
the same person

- Sometimes I talk to **myself**.
- They paid for **themselves**.
- Be careful. Don't hurt **yourself**.

C

by myself / **by yourself** etc. = alone:

- I went on holiday **by myself**. (= I went alone)
- 'Was she with friends?' 'No, she was **by herself**.'

D

each other

- Kate and Helen are good friends. They know **each other** well. (= Kate knows Helen / Helen knows Kate)
- Paul and I live near **each other**. (= he lives near me / I live near him)

Compare **each other** and **-selves**:

- James and Sue looked at **each other**. (= he looked at her, she looked at him)

- James and Sue looked at **themselves**. (= he looked at himself, she looked at herself)

me/him/them etc. ➜ Unit 59

Exercises

63.1 Complete the sentences with **myself/yourself** etc.

1 He looked at ...himself... in the mirror.
2 I'm not angry with you. I'm angry with .....
3 Karen had a good time in Australia. She enjoyed .....
4 My friends had a good time in Australia. They enjoyed .....
5 I picked up a very hot plate and burnt .....
6 He never thinks about other people. He only thinks about .....
7 I want to know more about you. Tell me about ..... *(one person)*
8 Goodbye! Have a good trip and take care of ..... ! *(two people)*

63.2 Write sentences with **by myself / by yourself** etc.

1 I went on holiday alone. ...I went on holiday by myself...
2 When I saw him, he was alone. When I saw him, he .....
3 Don't go out alone. Don't .....
4 I went to the cinema alone. I .....
5 My sister lives alone. My sister .....
6 Many people live alone. Many people .....

63.3 Write sentences with **each other**.

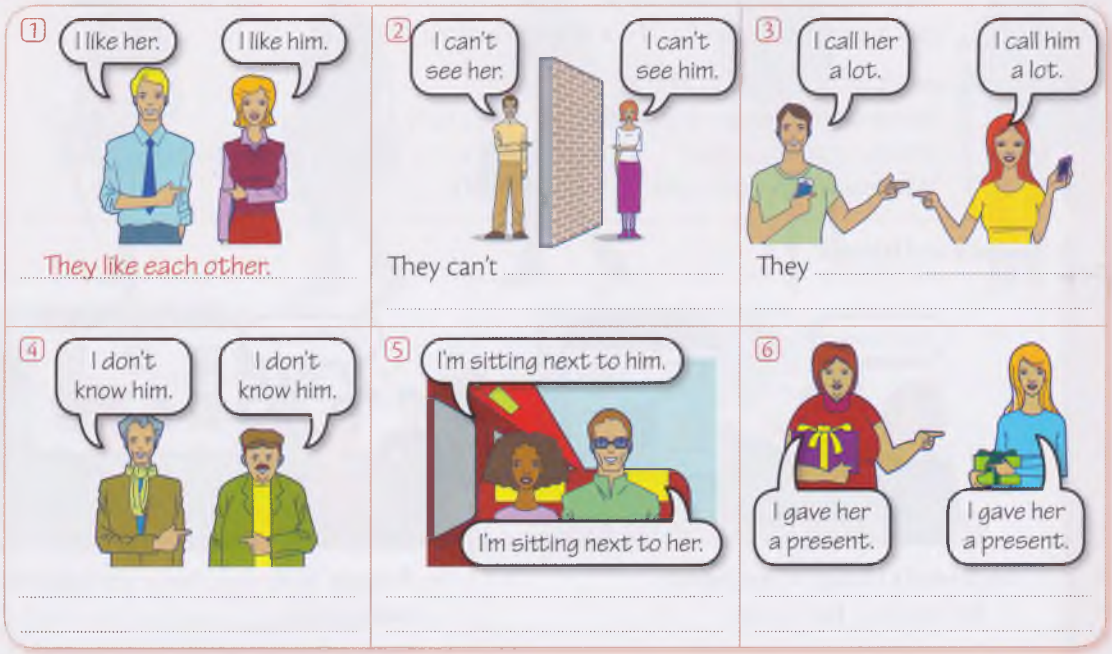

63.4 Complete the sentences. Use:

each other or **ourselves/yourselves/themselves** or **us/you/them**

1 Paul and I live near ...each other...
2 Who are those people? Do you know ...them... ?
3 You can help Tom, and Tom can help you. So you and Tom can help .....
4 There's food in the kitchen. If you and Chris are hungry, you can help .....
5 We didn't go to Emily's party. She didn't invite .....
6 When we go on holiday, we always enjoy .....
7 Helen and Jane were at school together, but they never see ..... now.
8 Karen and I are very good friends. We've known ..... for a long time.
9 'Did you see Sam and Laura at the party?' 'Yes, but I didn't speak to .....'
10 Many people talk to ..... when they're alone.

Unit 64

-'s (**Kate's** camera / **my brother's** car etc.)

A

Kate**'s** camera
(**her** camera)

my brother**'s** car
(**his** car)

the manager**'s** office
(**his** *or* **her** office)

We normally use **-'s** for people:

- I stayed at **my sister's** house. (*not* the house of my sister)
- Have you met **Mr Black's** wife? (*not* the wife of Mr Black)
- Are you going to **James's** party?
- Paul is **a man's** name. Paula is **a woman's** name.

You can use **-'s** without a noun after it:

- Sophie's hair is longer than **Kate's**. (= Kate's hair)
- 'Whose umbrella is this?' 'It's **my mother's**.' (= my mother's umbrella)
- 'Where were you last night?' 'I was at **Paul's**.' (= Paul's house)

B

friend's and **friends'**

my **friend's** house = *one friend*
(= **his** house or **her** house)

We write **'s** after
friend/student/mother etc. (*singular*):
my mother**'s** car (*one mother*)
my father**'s** car (*one father*)

my **friends'** house = *two or more friends*
(= **their** house)

We write **'** after
friend**s**/student**s**/parent**s** etc. (*plural*):
my parent**s'** car (*two parents*)

C

We use **of** ... for things, places etc. :

- Look at the roof **of that building**. (*not* that building's roof)
- We didn't see the beginning **of the film**. (*not* the film's beginning)
- What's the name **of this village**?
- Do you know the cause **of the problem**?
- You can sit in the back **of the car**.
- Madrid is the capital **of Spain**.

mine/yours etc. ➜ Unit 61 **whose** ... ? ➜ Unit 61 **-'s** (**he's** / **Kate's** etc.) ➜ Appendix 4.5

Exercises

64.1 Look at the family tree. Complete the sentences about the people in the family.

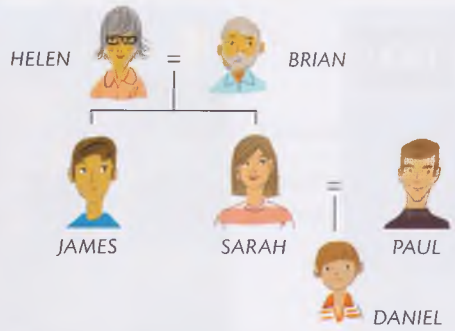

Helen and Brian are married.
They have a son, James, and a daughter, Sarah.
Sarah is married to Paul.
Sarah and Paul have a son, Daniel.

1 Brian is Helen's husband.
2 Sarah is Daniel's mother.
3 Helen is ..... wife.
4 James is Sarah's .....
5 James is ..... uncle.
6 Sarah is ..... wife.
7 Helen is Daniel's .....
8 Sarah is James's .....
9 Paul is ..... husband.
10 Paul is Daniel's .....
11 Daniel is ..... nephew.

64.2 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use one word only.

1 Whose is this? Alice's
2 Whose is this? .....
3 And this? .....
4 And these? .....
5 And this? .....
6 And these? .....

64.3 Are these sentences OK? Change them where necessary.

1 I stayed at the house of my sister. — my sister's house
2 What is the name of this village? — OK
3 Do you like the colour of this coat? .....
4 Do you have the phone number of Simon? .....
5 The job of my brother is very interesting. .....
6 Write your name at the top of the page. .....
7 For me, the morning is the best part of the day. .....
8 The favourite colour of Paula is blue. .....
9 When is the birthday of your mother? .....
10 The house of my parents isn't very big. .....
11 The walls of this house are very thin. .....
12 The car stopped at the end of the street. .....
13 Are you going to the party of Silvia next week? .....
14 The manager of the hotel is not here at the moment .....

a/an ...

A

He's got **a** camera.

She's waiting for **a** taxi.

It's **a** beautiful day.

a ... = one thing or person:

- Rachel works in **a bank**. (*not* in bank)
- Can I ask **a question**? (*not* ask question)
- I don't have **a job** at the moment.
- There's **a woman** at the bus stop.

B

an (*not* a) before **a/e/i/o/u**:

- Do you want **an a**pple or **a b**anana?
- I'm going to buy **a h**at and **an u**mbrella.
- There was **an i**nteresting programme on TV last night.

also **an hour** (**h** is not pronounced: an ~~h~~our)
but **a university** (pronounced *yuniversity*)
a European country (pronounced *yuropean*)

another (= **an** + **other**) is one word:

- Can I have **another** cup of coffee?

C

We use **a/an** ... when we say what a thing or a person is. For example:

- The sun is **a star**.
- Football is **a game**.
- Dallas is **a city in Texas**.
- A mouse is **an animal**. It's **a small animal**.
- Joe is **a very nice person**.

We use **a/an** ... for jobs etc. :

- A: What's your job?
  B: I'm **a dentist**. (*not* I'm dentist)
- 'What does Mark do?' 'He's **an engineer**.'
- Would you like to be **a teacher**?
- Beethoven was **a composer**.
- Picasso was **a famous painter**.
- Are you **a student**?

a car / **some money** (countable/uncountable) ➜ **Units 67–68** **a** and **the** ➜ **Unit 69**

Exercises

65.1 Write **a** or **an**.

1 ....an.... old book
2 ..... window
3 ..... horse
4 ..... airport
5 ..... new airport
6 ..... organisation
7 ..... university
8 ..... hour
9 ..... economic problem

65.2 What are these things? Choose from the box.

~~bird~~	fruit	mountain	river	musical instrument
flower	game	planet	tool	vegetable

1 A duck is ....a bird.....
2 A carrot is .....
3 Tennis is .....
4 A hammer is .....
5 Everest is .....
6 Saturn is .....
7 A banana is .....
8 The Amazon is .....
9 A rose is .....
10 A trumpet is .....

65.3 What are their jobs? Choose from the list and complete the sentences.

architect	~~dentist~~	shop assistant	photographer
electrician	nurse	taxi driver	

1 ....She's a dentist.....
2 He's .....
3 She .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 And you? I'm .....

65.4 Write sentences. Choose from the two boxes. Use **a/an** where necessary.

~~I want to ask you~~	Rebecca works in	+	old house	artist
Tom never wears	Jane wants to learn		party	~~question~~
I can't ride	Mike lives in		bookshop	foreign language
My brother is	This evening I'm going to		hat	bike

1 ....I want to ask you a question.....
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

Unit 66

train(s) bus(es) (singular and plural)

A

The plural of a noun is usually **-s**:

singular (= one) → *plural* (= two or more)
a flower → some **flowers**
a train → two **trains**
one week → a few **weeks**
a nice place → some nice **places**
this student → these **students**

a flower

some **flowers**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5):

-s / **-sh** / **-ch** / **-x**	→	**-es**	bus → bus**es** dish → dish**es** chur**ch** → chur**ches** box → box**es** *also* potato → potato**es** tomato → tomato**es**
-y *but* **-ay** / **-ey** / **-oy**	→	**-ies** **-ys**	baby → bab**ies** dictionary → dictionar**ies** party → part**ies** day → day**s** monkey → monkey**s** boy → boy**s**
-f / **-fe**	→	**-ves**	shel**f** → shel**ves** kni**fe** → kni**ves** wi**fe** → wi**ves**

B

These things are plural:

scissors **glasses** **trousers** **jeans** **shorts** **tights** **pyjamas**

- Do you wear **glasses**?
- Where **are** the **scissors**? I need **them**.

You can also say **a pair of scissors** / **a pair of trousers** / **a pair of pyjamas** etc. :

- I need **a** new **pair of jeans**. *or* I need **some** new **jeans**. (*not* a new jeans)

C

Some plurals do *not* end in **-s**:

this **man** → these **men**	one **foot** → two **feet**	that **sheep** → those **sheep**
a **woman** → some **women**	a **tooth** → all my **teeth**	a **fish** → a lot of **fish**
a **child** → many **children**	a **mouse** → some **mice**	

also a **person** → **two people** / **some people** / **a lot of people** etc. :

- **She**'s a nice **person**.

but
- **They** are nice **people**. (*not* nice persons)

D

People is plural (= they), so we say **people are** / **people have** etc. :

- **A lot of people speak** English. (*not* speaks)
- I like **the people** here. **They are** very friendly.

Police is plural:

- **The police want** to talk to anybody who saw the accident. (*not* The police wants)

Exercises

66.1 Write the plural.

1 flower ...flowers...
2 boat .....
3 woman .....
4 city .....
5 umbrella .....
6 address .....
7 knife .....
8 sandwich .....
9 family .....
10 foot .....
11 holiday .....
12 potato .....

66.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 There are a lot of ...sheep... in the field.
2 Gary is cleaning his .....
3 There are three ..... at the bus stop.
4 Lucy has two .....
5 There are a lot of ..... in the river.
6 The ..... are falling from the tree.

66.3 Are these sentences OK? Change the sentences where necessary.

1 I'm going to buy some flowers. ...OK...
2 I need a new jeans. ...I need a new pair of jeans. OR I need some new jeans.
3 It's a lovely park with a lot of beautiful tree. .....
4 There was a woman in the car with two mens. .....
5 Sheep eat grass. .....
6 David is married and has three childs. .....
7 Most of my friend are student. .....
8 He put on his pyjama and went to bed. .....
9 We went fishing, but we didn't catch many fish. .....
10 Do you know many persons in this town? .....
11 I like your trouser. Where did you get it? .....
12 The town centre is usually full of tourist. .....
13 I don't like mice. I'm afraid of them. .....
14 This scissor isn't very sharp. .....

66.4 Which is right? Complete the sentences.

1 It's a nice place. Many people ...go... there on holiday. **go** *or* **goes**?
2 Some people ..... always late. **is** *or* **are**?
3 The new city hall is not a beautiful building. Most people ..... like it. **don't** *or* **doesn't**?
4 A lot of people ..... TV every day. **watch** *or* **watches**?
5 Three people ..... injured in the accident. **was** *or* **were**?
6 How many people ..... in that house? **live** *or* **lives**?
7 ..... the police know the cause of the explosion? **Do** *or* **Does**?
8 The police ..... looking for the stolen car. **is** *or* **are**?
9 I need my glasses, but I can't find ..... . **it** *or* **them**?
10 I'm going to buy ..... new jeans today. **a** *or* **some**?

Unit 67

a bottle / some water (countable/uncountable 1)

A

A noun can be *countable* or *uncountable*.

Countable nouns

For example: (a) **car** (a) **man** (a) **bottle** (a) **house** (a) **key** (an) **idea** (an) **accident**

You can use **one/two/three** (etc.) + *countable nouns* (you can count them):

one **bottle**

two **bottles**

three **men**

four **houses**

Countable nouns can be *singular* (= one) or *plural* (= two or more):

singular	**a car**	**the car**	**my car**	etc.		
plural	**cars**	**two cars**	**the cars**	**some cars**	**many cars**	etc.

- I've got **a car**.
- New **cars** are very expensive.
- There aren't **many cars** in the car park.

You can't use the singular (**car/bottle/key** etc.) alone. You need **a/an**:

- We can't get into the house without **a key**. (*not* without key)

B

Uncountable nouns

For example: **water** **air** **rice** **salt** **plastic** **money** **music** **tennis**

water

salt

money

music

You can't say **one/two/three** (etc.) + these things: ~~one water~~ ~~two musics~~

Uncountable nouns have only *one* form:

money the **money** my **money** some **money** much **money** etc.

- I've got **some money**.
- There isn't **much money** in the box.
- **Money** isn't everything.

You can't use **a/an** + *uncountable nouns*: ✗ **money** ✗ **music** ✗ **water**

But you can say **a piece of** ... / **a bottle of** ... etc. + *uncountable noun*:

a bottle of water	**a carton of** milk	**a bar of** chocolate
a piece of cheese	**a bottle of** perfume	**a piece of** music
a bowl of rice	**a cup of** coffee	**a game of** tennis

a/an ➜ Unit 65 countable/uncountable 2 ➜ Unit 68

Exercises

67.1 What are these things? Some are countable and some are uncountable. Write **a/an** if necessary. The names of these things are:

bucket	**envelope**	**money**	**sand**	**toothbrush**	**wallet**
egg	**jug**	~~**salt**~~	~~**spoon**~~	**toothpaste**	**water**

1 It's salt.
2 It's a spoon.
3 It's .....
4 It's .....
5 It's .....
6 It's .....
7 It's .....
8 It's .....
9 It's .....
10 It's .....
11 It's .....
12 It's .....

67.2 Some of these sentences are OK, but some need **a/an**. Write **a/an** where necessary.

1 I don't have watch. a watch
2 Do you like cheese? OK
3 I never wear hat. .....
4 Are you looking for job? .....
5 Kate doesn't eat meat. .....
6 Kate eats apple every day. .....
7 I'm going to party tonight. .....
8 Music is wonderful thing. .....
9 Jamaica is island. .....
10 I don't need key. .....
11 Everybody needs food. .....
12 I've got good idea. .....
13 Can you drive car? .....
14 Do you want cup of coffee? .....
15 I don't like coffee without milk. .....
16 Don't go out without umbrella. .....

67.3 What are these things? Write **a ... of ...** for each picture. Use the words in the boxes.

bar	**cup**	**loaf**	+	**bread**	~~**milk**~~	**tea**
bowl	**glass**	**piece**		**chocolate**	**paper**	**water**
~~**carton**~~	**jar**	**piece**		**honey**	**soup**	**wood**

1 a carton of milk
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....
9 .....

Unit 68

a cake / some cake / some cakes (countable/uncountable 2)

A a/an and some

a/an + *singular countable nouns* (**car/apple/shoe** etc.):
- I need **a** new **car**.
- Would you like **an apple**?

an apple

some + *plural countable nouns* (**cars/apples/shoes** etc.):
- I need **some** new **shoes**.
- Would you like **some apples**?

some apples

some + *uncountable nouns* (**water/money/music** etc.):
- I need **some water**.
- Would you like **some cheese**? (*or* Would you like **a piece of** cheese?)

some cheese *or* **a piece of** cheese

Compare **a** and **some**:
- Nicola bought **a hat**, **some shoes** and **some perfume**.
- I read **a newspaper**, made **some phone calls**, and listened to **some music**.

B

Many nouns are sometimes countable and sometimes uncountable. For example:

a cake

some cakes

some cake *or* **a piece of cake**

a chicken

some chickens

some chicken *or* **a piece of chicken**

Compare **a paper** (= a newspaper) and **some paper**:
- I want something to read. I'm going to buy **a paper**.

but
- I want to make a shopping list. I need **some paper** / **a piece of paper**. (*not* a paper)

C

Be careful with:

advice **bread** **furniture** **hair** **information** **news** **weather** **work**

These nouns are usually uncountable. So you can't say **a/an** ... (~~a bread, an advice~~), and they can't be plural (~~advices, furnitures~~ etc.).
- Can I talk to you? I need **some advice**. (*not* an advice)
- I'm going to buy **some bread**. (*not* a bread)
- They've got **some** nice **furniture** in their house. (*not* furnitures)
- Silvia has very long **hair**. (*not* hairs)
- Where can I get **some information** about hotels here? (*not* informations)
- Listen! I've just had **some** good **news**. (*not* a good news)
- It's nice **weather** today. (*not* a nice weather)
- 'Do you like your job?' 'Yes, but it's hard **work**.' (*not* a hard work)

We say **a job** (*but not* a work):
- I've got **a** new **job**. (*not* a new work)

countable/uncountable 1 ➜ Unit 67 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76

Exercises

68.1 What can you see in these pictures? Use **a** or **some**.

1 some perfume, a hat and some shoes
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....

68.2 Write sentences with **Would you like a ... ?** or **Would you like some ... ?**

1 Would you like some cheese?
2 Would you like .....?
3 Would .....?
4 .....?
5 .....?
6 .....?

68.3 Write **a/an** or **some**.

1 I read a book and listened to some music.
2 I need ..... money. I want to buy ..... food.
3 We met ..... interesting people at the party.
4 I'm going to open ..... window to get ..... fresh air.
5 Rachel didn't eat much for lunch – only ..... apple and ..... bread.
6 We live in ..... big house. There's ..... nice garden with ..... beautiful trees.
7 I'm going to make a table. First I need ..... wood.
8 Listen to me carefully. I'm going to give you ..... advice.
9 I want to make a list of things to do. I need ..... paper and ..... pen.

68.4 Which is right?

1 I'm going to buy some new shoe/shoes. (shoes *is right*)
2 Mark has brown eye/eyes.
3 Paula has short black hair/hairs.
4 The tour guide gave us some information/informations about the city.
5 We're going to buy some new chair/chairs.
6 We're going to buy some new furniture/furnitures.
7 It's hard to find a work/job at the moment.
8 We had wonderful weather / a wonderful weather when we were on holiday.

a/an and the

A

a/an

There are *three* windows here.
a window = window 1 or 2 or 3

- I've got **a car**. (there are many cars and I've got one)
- Can I ask **a question**? (there are many questions – can I ask one?)
- Is there **a hotel** near here? (there are many hotels – is there one near here?)
- Paris is **an interesting city**. (there are many interesting cities and Paris is one)
- Lisa is **a student**. (there are many students and Lisa is one)

the

There is only *one* window here – **the** window.

- I'm going to clean **the car** tomorrow. (= my car)
- Can you repeat **the question**, please? (= the question that you asked)
- We enjoyed our holiday. **The hotel** was very nice. (= our hotel)
- Paris is **the capital of France**. (there is only one capital of France)
- Lisa is **the youngest student** in her class. (there is only one youngest student in her class)

Compare **a** and **the**:

- I bought **a jacket** and **a shirt**. **The jacket** was cheap, but **the shirt** was expensive.
  (= **the** jacket and **the** shirt **that I bought**)

B

We say **the** ... when it is clear which thing or person we mean. For example:

the door / **the ceiling** / **the floor** / **the carpet** / **the light** etc. *(of a room)*
the roof / **the garden** / **the kitchen** / **the bathroom** etc. *(of a house)*
the centre / **the station** / **the airport** / **the town hall** etc. *(of a town)*

- 'Where's Tom? 'In **the kitchen**.' (= the kitchen of this house or flat)
- Turn off **the light** and close **the door**. (= the light and the door of the room)
- Do you live far from **the centre**? (= the centre of your town)
- I'd like to speak to **the manager**, please. (= the manager of this shop etc.)

a/an → Unit 65 the → Units 70–73

Exercises

69.1 Write **a/an** or **the**.

1 We enjoyed our trip. ....The.... hotel was very nice.
2 'Can I ask ....a.... question?' 'Sure. What do you want to know?'
3 You look very tired. You need ..... holiday.
4 'Where's Tom?' 'He's in ..... garden.'
5 Eve is ..... interesting person. You should meet her.
6 A: Excuse me, can you tell me how to get to ..... city centre?
B: Yes, go straight on and then take ..... next turning left.
7 A: Shall we go out for ..... meal this evening?
B: Yes, that's ..... good idea.
8 It's ..... nice morning. Let's go for ..... walk.
9 Amanda is ..... student. When she finishes her studies, she wants to be ..... journalist. She lives with two friends in ..... apartment near ..... college where she is studying. ..... apartment is small, but she likes it.
10 Peter and Mary have two children, ... boy and ..... girl. ..... boy is seven years old, and ..... girl is three. Peter works in ..... factory. Mary doesn't have ..... job at the moment.

69.2 Complete the sentences. Use **a** or **the** + these words:

airport **cup** **dictionary** ~~**door**~~ **floor** **picture**

69.3 These sentences are not correct. Put in **a/an** or **the** where necessary.

1 Don't forget to turn off light when you go out. ....turn off the light....
2 Enjoy your trip, and don't forget to send me postcard. .....
3 What is name of this village? .....
4 Canada is very big country. .....
5 What is largest city in Canada? .....
6 I like this room, but I don't like colour of carpet. .....
7 'Are you OK?' 'No, I've got headache.' .....
8 We live in old house near station. .....
9 What is name of director of film we saw last night? .....

Unit 70

the ...

A

We use **the** when it is clear which thing or person we mean:

- What is **the name** of this street? (there is only one name)
- Who is **the best player** in your team? (there is only one best player)
- Can you tell me **the time**, please? (= the time *now*)
- My office is on **the first floor**. (= the first floor of the building)

Don't forget **the**:

- Do you live near **the city centre**? (*not* near city centre)
- Excuse me, where is **the nearest bank**? (*not* where is nearest ...)

B

the same ...

- We live in **the same street**. (*not* in same street)
- 'Are these two books different?' 'No, they're **the same**.' (*not* they're same)

C

We say:

the sun / the moon / the world / the sky / the sea / the country

- **The sky** is blue and **the sun** is shining.
- Do you live in a town or in **the country**?

the police / the fire brigade / the army (of a city, country etc.)

- My brother is a soldier. He's in **the army**.
- What do you think of **the police**? Do they do a good job?

the top / the end / the middle / the left etc.

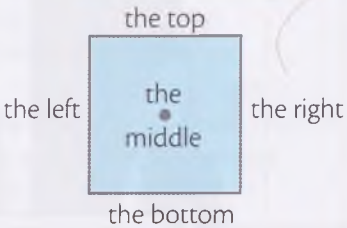

- Write your name at **the top of** the page.
- My house is at **the end of** the street.
- The table is in **the middle of** the room.
- Do you drive on **the right** or on **the left** in your country?

(play) **the piano / the guitar / the trumpet** etc. (musical instruments)

- Paula is learning to play **the piano**.

the radio

- I listen to **the radio** a lot.

the internet

- What do you use **the internet** for?

D

We do *not* use **the** with:

television / TV

- I watch **TV** a lot.
- What's on **television** tonight?

but Can you turn off **the TV**? (= the TV set)

breakfast / lunch / dinner

- What did you have for **breakfast**? (*not* the breakfast)
- **Dinner** is ready!

next / last + week/month/year/summer/Monday etc.

- I'm not working **next week**. (*not* the next week)
- Did you have a holiday **last summer**? (*not* the last summer)

a/an and **the** → Unit 69 **the** → Units 71–73 **the oldest / the most expensive** etc. → Unit 90

Exercises

70.1 Put in **the** where necessary. Write 'OK' if the sentence is already correct.

1 What is name of this street? ...the name...
2 What's on TV tonight? ...OK...
3 Our apartment is on second floor. .....
4 Would you like to go to moon? .....
5 Which is best hotel in this town? .....
6 What time is lunch? .....
7 How far is it to city centre? .....
8 We're going away at end of May. .....
9 What are you doing next weekend? .....
10 I didn't like her first time I met her. .....
11 I'm going out after dinner. .....
12 It's easy to get information from internet. .....
13 My sister got married last month. .....
14 My dictionary is on top shelf on right. .....
15 We live in country about ten miles from nearest town. .....

70.2 Complete the sentences. Use **the same** + these words:

age **colour** **problem** ~~**street**~~ **time**

1 I live in North Street and you live in North Street. We live in ...the same street...
2 I arrived at 8.30 and you arrived at 8.30. We arrived at .....
3 James is 25 and Sue is 25. James and Sue are .....
4 My shirt is dark blue and so is my jacket. My shirt and jacket are .....
5 I have no money and you have no money. We have .....

70.3 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **the** if necessary.

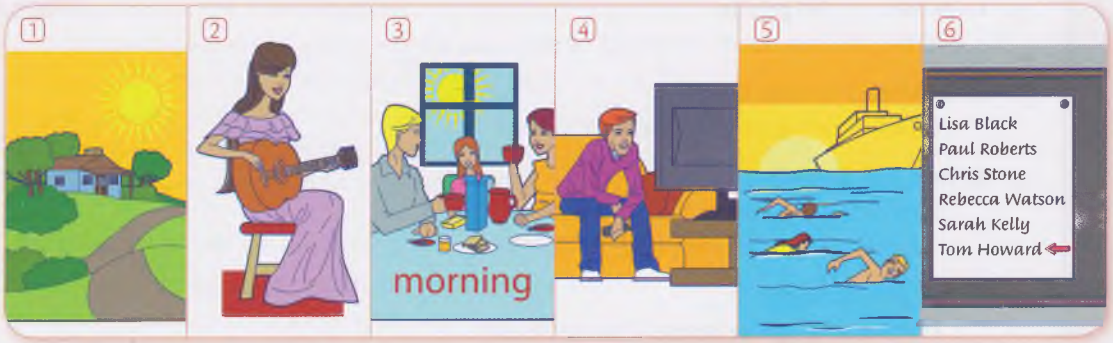

1 ...The sun... is shining.
2 She's playing .....
3 They're having .....
4 He's watching .....
5 They're swimming in .....
6 Tom's name is at ..... of the list.

70.4 Complete these sentences. Choose from the list. Use **the** if necessary.

capital ~~**dinner**~~ **police** **lunch** **middle** **name** **sky** **TV**

1 We had ...dinner... at a restaurant last night.
2 We stayed at a very nice hotel, but I don't remember .....
3 ..... is very clear tonight. You can see all the stars.
4 Sometimes there are some good films on ..... late at night.
5 Somebody was trying to break into the shop, so I called .....
6 Tokyo is ..... of Japan.
7 'What did you have for .....?' 'A salad.'
8 I woke up in ..... of the night.

go to work go home go to the cinema

A

She's **at work**.

They're going **to school**.

He's **in bed**.

We say:

(go) **to work**, (be) **at work**, start **work**, finish **work**

- Bye! I'm **going to work** now. (*not* to the work)
- I **finish work** at 5 o'clock every day.

(go) **to school**, (be) **at school**, start **school**, leave **school** etc.

- What did you learn **at school** today? (*not* at the school)
- Some children don't like **school**.

(go) **to university/college**, (be) **at university/college**

- Helen wants to **go to university** when she **leaves school**.
- What did you study **at college**?

(go) **to hospital**, (be) **in hospital**

- Jack had an accident. He had to go **to hospital**.

(go) **to prison**, (be) **in prison**

- Why is he **in prison**? What did he do?

(go) **to church**, (be) **in/at church**

- David usually goes **to church** on Sundays.

(go) **to bed**, (be) **in bed**

- I'm tired. I'm **going to bed**. (*not* to the bed)
- 'Where's Alice?' 'She's **in bed**.'

(go) **home**, (be) **at home** etc.

- I'm tired. I'm **going home**. (*not* to home)
- Are you going out tonight, or are you **staying at home**?

B

We say:

(go to) **the cinema** / **the theatre** / **the bank** / **the post office** / **the station** / **the airport** / **the city centre**

- I never go to **the theatre**, but I go to **the cinema** a lot.
- 'Are you going to **the bank**?' 'No, to **the post office**.'
- The number 5 bus goes to **the airport**; the number 8 goes to **the city centre**.

(go to) **the doctor**, **the dentist**

- You're not well. Why don't you go to **the doctor**?
- I have to go to **the dentist** tomorrow.

the → Units 69–70, 72–73 in/at → Units 106–107 to/in/at → Unit 108 (at) home → Unit 108

Exercises

71.1 Where are these people? Complete the sentences. Sometimes you need **the**.

1 He's in bed.
2 They're at .....
3 She's in .....
4 She's at .....
5 They're at .....
6 He's in .....

71.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the list. Use **the** if necessary.

~~bank~~ bed ~~church~~ home post office school station

1 I need to change some money. I have to go to the bank.
2 David usually goes to church on Sundays.
3 In Britain, children go to ..... from the age of five.
4 There were a lot of people at ..... waiting for the train.
5 We went to their house, but they weren't at .....
6 I'm going to ..... now. Goodnight!
7 I'm going to ..... to get some stamps.

71.3 Complete the sentences. Sometimes you need **the**.

1 If you want to catch a plane, you go to the airport.
2 If you want to see a film, you go to .....
3 If you are tired and you want to sleep, you .....
4 If you rob a bank and the police catch you, you .....
5 If you have a problem with your teeth, you .....
6 If you want to study after you leave school, you .....
7 If you are badly injured in an accident, you .....

71.4 Are these sentences OK? Correct the sentences where necessary.

1 We went to cinema last night. — to the cinema
2 I finish work at 5 o'clock every day. — OK
3 Lisa wasn't feeling well yesterday, so she went to doctor. — .....
4 I wasn't feeling well this morning, so I stayed in bed. — .....
5 Why is Angela always late for work? — .....
6 'Where are your children?' 'They're at school.' — .....
7 We have no money in bank. — .....
8 When I was younger, I went to church every Sunday. — .....
9 What time do you usually get home from work? — .....
10 Do you live far from city centre? — .....
11 'Where shall we meet?' 'At station.' — .....
12 James is ill. He's in hospital. — .....
13 Kate takes her children to school every day. — .....
14 Would you like to go to university? — .....
15 Would you like to go to theatre this evening? — .....

I like **music** I hate **exams**

A

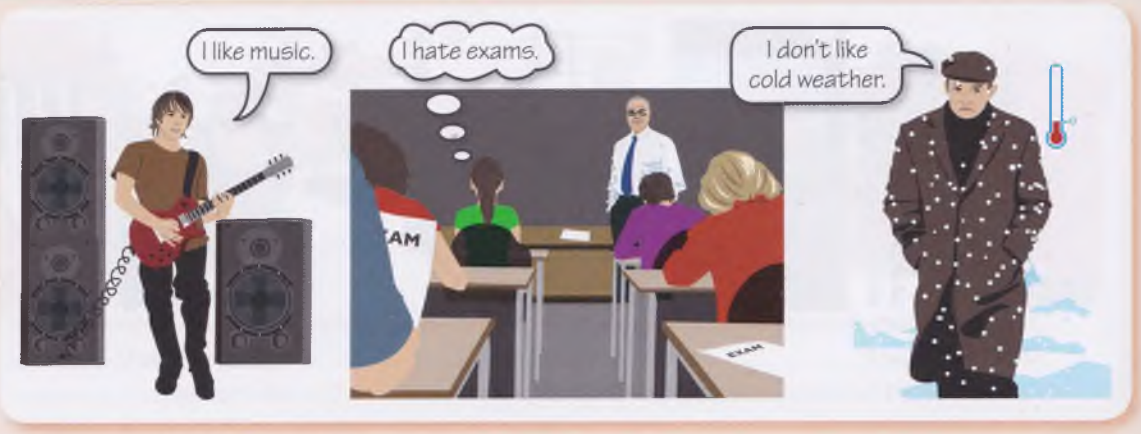

We do not use **the** for general ideas:

- I like **music**, especially **classical music**.
  (*not* the music ... the classical music)
- We don't eat **meat** very often. (*not* the meat)
- **Life** is not possible without **water**.
  (*not* The life ... the water)
- I hate **exams**. (*not* the exams)
- Is there a shop near here that sells **newspapers**?

We do not use **the** for games and sports:

- My favourite sports are **football** and **skiing**. (*not* the football ... the skiing)

We do not use **the** for languages or school subjects (**history/geography/physics/biology** etc.):

- Do you think **English** is difficult? (*not* the English)
- Tom's brother is studying **physics** and **chemistry**.

B

flowers or **the flowers**?

Compare:

- **Flowers** are beautiful.
  (= flowers in general)
- I don't like **cold weather**.
  (= cold weather in general)
- We don't eat **fish** very often.
  (= fish in general)
- Are you interested in **history**?
  (= history in general)

- I love this garden.
  The flowers are beautiful.
  (= the flowers in this garden)
- **The weather** isn't very good today.
  (= the weather today)
- We had a great meal last night. **The fish** was excellent.
  (= the fish we ate last night)
- Do you know much about **the history** of your country?

the → Units 69–71, 73

Exercises

72.1 What do you think about these things?

big cities	**computer games**	**exams**	**jazz**	**parties**
chocolate	**dogs**	**housework**	**museums**	**tennis**

Choose seven of these things and write sentences with:

I like ... **I don't like ...** **I love ...** **I hate ...** or **... is/are all right**

1 I hate exams. or I like exams. or Exams are all right. (etc.)
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

72.2 Are you interested in these things? Write sentences with:

I'm (very) interested in ...	**I know a lot about ...**	**I don't know much about ...**
I'm not interested in ...	**I know a little about ...**	**I don't know anything about ...**

1 (history) I'm very interested in history.
2 (politics) I .....
3 (sport) .....
4 (art) .....
5 (astronomy) .....
6 (economics) .....

72.3 Which is right?

1 My favourite sport is football / ~~the football~~. (football *is right*)
2 I like this hotel. ~~Rooms~~ / The rooms are very nice. (The rooms *is right*)
3 Everybody needs friends / the friends.
4 Jane doesn't go to parties / the parties very often.
5 I went shopping this morning. Shops / The shops were very busy.
6 'Where's milk / the milk?' 'It's in the fridge.'
7 I don't like milk / the milk. I never drink it.
8 'Do you do any sports?' 'Yes, I play basketball / the basketball.'
9 An architect is a person who designs buildings / the buildings.
10 We went for a swim in the river. Water / The water was very cold.
11 I don't like swimming in cold water / the cold water.
12 Excuse me, can you pass salt / the salt, please?
13 I like this town. I like people / the people here.
14 Vegetables / The vegetables are good for you.
15 Houses / The houses in this street are all the same.
16 I can't sing this song. I don't know words / the words.
17 I enjoy taking pictures / the pictures. It's my hobby.
18 Do you want to see pictures / the pictures that I took when I was on holiday?
19 English / The English is used a lot in international business / the international business.
20 Money / The money doesn't always bring happiness / the happiness.

Unit 73

the ... (names of places)

A

Places (continents, countries, states, islands, towns etc.)

In general we do *not* use **the** with names of places:

- **France** is a very large country. (*not* the France)
- **Cairo** is the capital of **Egypt**.
- **Corsica** is an island in the Mediterranean.
- **Peru** is in **South America**.

But we use **the** in names with 'republic'/'states'/'kingdom':

the Czech **Republic**
the United **States** of America (**the** USA)
the United **Kingdom** (**the** UK)

B

the -s (plural names)

We use **the** with *plural* names of countries/islands/mountains:

the Netherlands **the** Canary Islands
the Philippines **the** Alps

C

Seas, rivers etc.

We use **the** with names of oceans/seas/rivers/canals:

the Atlantic (Ocean) **the** Mediterranean (Sea) **the** Amazon
the (River) Nile **the** Suez Canal **the** Black Sea

D

Places in towns (streets, buildings etc.)

In general we do *not* use **the** with names of streets, squares etc. :

- Kevin lives in **Newton Street**.
- Where is **Highfield Road**, please?
- **Times Square** is in New York.

We do not use **the** with names of airports, stations and many other important buildings:

Kennedy Airport **Westminster Abbey** **London Zoo**
Victoria Station **Edinburgh Castle**

also

Cambridge University, **Harvard University** etc.

But we use **the** with names of most hotels, museums, theatres and cinemas:

the Regent Hotel **the** National Theatre
the Science Museum **the** Odeon (cinema)

E

the ... **of** ...

We use **the** + names with ... **of** ... :

the Museum **of** Modern Art **the** University **of** California
the Great Wall **of** China **the** Tower **of** London

We say **the north** / **the south** / **the east** / **the west** (of ...):

- I've been to **the north of Italy**, but not to **the south**.

the ➜ Units 69–72

Exercises

73.1 Answer these geography questions. Choose from the box. Use **The** if necessary.

1 Cairo is the capital of Egypt.
2 The Atlantic is between Africa and America.
3 ..... is a country in northern Europe.
4 ..... is a river in South America.
5 ..... is the largest continent in the world.
6 ..... is the largest ocean.
7 ..... is a river in Europe.
8 ..... is a country in East Africa.
9 ..... is between Canada and Mexico.
10 ..... are mountains in South America.
11 ..... is the capital of Thailand.
12 ..... are mountains in central Europe.
13 ..... is between Saudi Arabia and Africa.
14 ..... is an island in the Caribbean.
15 ..... are a group of islands near Florida.

Alps
Amazon
Andes
Asia
~~Atlantic~~
Bahamas
Bangkok
~~Cairo~~
Jamaica
Kenya
Pacific
Red Sea
Rhine
Sweden
United States

73.2 Write **the** where necessary. If the sentence is already correct, write OK.

1 Kevin lives in Newton Street. OK
2 We went to see a play at National Theatre. at the National Theatre
3 Have you ever been to China? .....
4 Have you ever been to Philippines? .....
5 Have you ever been to south of France? .....
6 Can you tell me where Regal Cinema is? .....
7 Can you tell me where Merrion Street is? .....
8 Can you tell me where Museum of Art is? .....
9 Europe is bigger than Australia. .....
10 Belgium is smaller than Netherlands. .....
11 Which river is longer – Mississippi or Nile? .....
12 Did you go to National Gallery when you were in London? .....
13 We stayed at Park Hotel in Hudson Road. .....
14 How far is it from Trafalgar Square to Victoria Station *(in London)*? .....
15 Rocky Mountains are in North America. .....
16 Texas is famous for oil and cowboys. .....
17 I hope to go to United States next year. .....
18 Mary comes from west of Ireland. .....
19 Alan is a student at Manchester University. .....
20 Panama Canal joins Atlantic Ocean and Pacific Ocean. .....

→ **Additional exercises 33–34** (pages 269–70)

this/that/these/those

A

this *(singular)*

these *(plural)*

this
these

this picture
(= this picture *here*)
these flowers
(= these flowers *here*)

that *(singular)*

those *(plural)*

that
those

that picture
(= that picture *there*)
those people
(= those people *there*)

B

We use **this/that/these/those** with a noun (**this picture** / **those girls** etc.) or without a noun:

with a noun

- **This hotel** is expensive, but it's very nice.
- 'Who's **that girl**?' 'I don't know.'
- Do you like **these shoes**? I bought them last week.
- **Those apples** look nice. Can I have one?

without a noun

- **This** is a nice hotel, but it's very expensive.
- 'Excuse me, is **this** your bag?' 'Oh yes, thank you.'
- Who's **that**? (= Who is that person?)
- Which shoes do you prefer – **these** or **those**?

C

that = something that *has happened*:

- 'I'm sorry I forgot to phone you.' '**That**'s all right.'
- **That** was a really nice meal. Thank you very much.

that = what somebody *has just said*:

- 'You're a teacher, aren't you?' 'Yes, **that**'s right.'
- 'Martin has a new job.' 'Really? I didn't know **that**.'
- 'I'm going on holiday next week.' 'Oh, **that**'s nice.'

D

We use **this is** ... and **is that** ... **?** on the phone:

- Hi Sarah, **this** is David.
  (**this** = the speaker)
- Is **that** Sarah?
  (**that** = the other person)

We use **this is** ... to introduce people:

- A: Ben, **this is** Chris.
  B: Hello, Chris – nice to meet you.
  C: Hi.

this one / that one ➜ Unit 75

Exercises

74.1 Complete the sentences. Use **this/that/these/those** + these words:

birds **house** **plates** **postcards** **seat** ~~**shoes**~~

74.2 Write questions: **Is this/that your ... ?** or **Are these/those your ... ?**

74.3 Complete the sentences with **this is** or **that's** or **that**.

1 A: I'm sorry I'm late.
B: That's all right.

2 A: I can't come to the party tomorrow.
B: Oh, ... a pity. Why not?

3 *on the phone*
SUE: Hello, Jane. ..... Sue.
JANE: Oh, hi Sue. How are you?

4 A: You're lazy.
B: ..... not true!

5 A: Beth plays the piano very well.
B: Does she? I didn't know ..... .

6 *Mark meets Paul's sister, Helen.*
PAUL: Mark, ... my sister, Helen.
MARK: Hi, Helen.

7 A: I'm sorry I was angry yesterday.
B: ..... OK. Forget it!

8 A: You're a friend of Tom's, aren't you?
B: Yes, ... right.

Unit 75

one/ones

A one (= a ...)

Would you like **one** ?

= Would you like **a chocolate** ?

one = **a/an** ... (a chocolate / an apple etc.)

- I need **a pen**. Do you have **one**? (**one** = **a pen**)
- A: Is there **a bank** near here?
  B: Yes, there's **one** at the end of this street. (**one** = **a bank**)

B one and ones

one *(singular)*

Which **one**? = Which **hat**?

one = **hat/car/girl** etc.

this one / **that one**

- Which **car** is yours? **This one** or **that one**? (= this car or that car)

the one ...

- A: Which **hotel** did you stay at?
  B: **The one** opposite the station.
- I found this **key**. Is it **the one** you lost?

the ... **one**

- I don't like the black **coat**, but I like **the brown one**.
- Don't buy that **camera**. Buy **the other one**.

a/an ... **one**

- This **cup** is dirty. Can I have **a clean one**?
- That **biscuit** was nice. I'm going to have **another one**.

ones *(plural)*

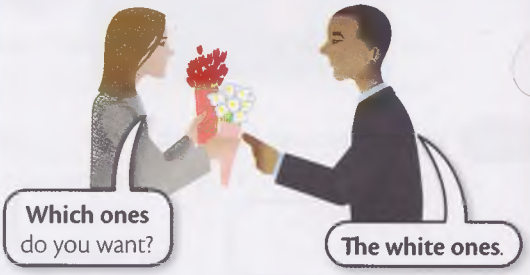

Which **ones**? = Which **flowers**?

ones = **flowers/cars/girls** etc.

these/those or **these ones** / **those ones**

- Which flowers do you want? **These** or **those**? *or* **These ones** or **those ones**?

the ones ...

- A: Which **books** are yours?
  B: **The ones** on the table.
- I found these **keys**. Are they **the ones** you lost?

the ... **ones**

- I don't like the red **shoes**, but I like **the green ones**.
- Don't buy those **apples**. Buy **the other ones**.

some ... **ones**

- These **cups** are dirty. Can we have **some clean ones**?
- My **shoes** are very old. I'm going to buy **some new ones**.

which ... ? → Unit 47 **another** → Unit 65 **this/that** → Unit 74

Exercises

75.1 A asks B some questions. Use the information in the box to write B's answers. Use **one** (not **a/an ...**) in the answers.

B doesn't need a car	B has just had a cup of coffee
there's a chemist in Mill Road	B is going to get a bike
~~B doesn't have a pen~~	B doesn't have an umbrella

1 A: Can you lend me a pen? B: I'm sorry, I don't have one.
2 A: Would you like to have a car? B: No, I don't .....
3 A: Do you have a bike? B: No, but .....
4 A: Can you lend me an umbrella? B: I'm sorry, but .....
5 A: Would you like a cup of coffee? B: No, thank you. .....
6 A: Is there a chemist near here? B: Yes, ...

75.2 Complete the sentences. Use **a/an ... one.** Use the words in the list.

better big ~~clean~~ different new old

1 This cup is dirty. Can I have a clean one?
2 I'm going to sell my car and buy .....
3 That's not a very good photo, but this is .....
4 I want today's newspaper. This is .....
5 This box is too small. I need .....
6 Why do we always go to the same restaurant? Let's go to .....

75.3 A is talking to B. Use the information to complete the conversations. Use **one/ones.**

1 *A stayed at a hotel. It was opposite the station.* A: We stayed at a hotel. B: Which one? A: The one opposite the station.	6 *A is looking at a picture. It's on the wall.* A: That's an interesting picture. B: .....? A: .....
2 *A sees some shoes in a shop window. They're green.* A: I like those shoes. B: Which .....? A: The	7 *A sees a girl in a group of people. She's tall with long hair.* A: Do you know that girl? B: .....? A: .....
3 *A is looking at a house. It has a red door.* A: That's a nice house. B: .....? A: ..... with	8 *A is looking at some flowers in the garden. They're yellow.* A: Those flowers are beautiful. B: .....? A: .....
4 *A is looking at some CDs. They're on the top shelf.* A: Are those your CDs? B: .....? A:	9 *A is looking at a man in a restaurant. He has a moustache and glasses.* A: Who's that man? B: .....? A: .....
5 *A is looking at a jacket in a shop. It's black.* A: Do you like that jacket? B: .....? A:	10 *A took some photos at the party last week.* A: Did I show you my photos? B: .....? A: .....

some and any

A

some

Use **some** in *positive* sentences:

- I'm going to buy **some** clothes.
- There's **some** milk in the fridge.
- We made **some** mistakes.

any

Use **any** in *negative* sentences:

- I'm **not** going to buy **any** clothes.
- There **isn't any** milk in the fridge.
- We **didn't** make **any** mistakes.

B

any and **some** in questions

In most questions (but not all) we use **any** (*not* **some**):

- Is there **any** milk in the fridge?
- Does he have **any** friends?
- Do you need **any** help?

We normally use **some** (*not* **any**) when we *offer* things (**Would you like** ... **?**):

- A: Would you like **some** coffee?
  B: Yes, please.

or when we *ask for* things (**Can I have** ... **?** etc.):

- A: Can I have **some** soup, please?
  B: Yes. Help yourself.
- A: Can you lend me **some** money?
  B: Sure. How much do you need?

C

some and **any** without a noun

- I didn't take any pictures, but Jessica took **some**. (= some pictures)
- You can have some coffee, but I don't want **any**. (= any coffee)
- I've just made some coffee. Would you like **some**? (= some coffee)
- 'Where's your luggage?' 'I don't have **any**.' (= any luggage)
- 'Are there any biscuits?' 'Yes, there are **some** in the kitchen.' (= some biscuits)

D

something / somebody (*or* **someone**)

- She said **something**.
- I saw **somebody** (*or* **someone**).
- Would you like **something** to eat?
- **Somebody**'s at the door.

anything / anybody (*or* **anyone**)

- She **didn't** say **anything**.
- I **didn't** see **anybody** (*or* **anyone**).
- Are you doing **anything** tonight?
- Where's Sue? Has **anybody** seen her?

a and **some** ➜ Unit 68 **somebody/anything** etc. ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

76.1 Write **some** or **any**.

1 I bought ....some.... cheese, but I didn't buy ....any.... bread.
2 In the middle of the room there was a table and ..... chairs.
3 There aren't ..... shops in this part of town.
4 Gary and Alice don't have ..... children.
5 Do you have ..... brothers or sisters?
6 There are ..... beautiful flowers in the garden.
7 Do you know ..... good hotels in London?
8 'Would you like ..... tea?' 'Yes, please.'
9 When we were on holiday, we visited ..... interesting places.
10 Don't buy ..... rice. We don't need ..... .
11 I went out to buy ..... bananas, but they didn't have ..... in the shop.
12 I'm thirsty. Can I have ..... water, please?

76.2 Complete the sentences. Use **some** or **any** + the words in the box.

air	**cheese**	**help**	**milk**	**questions**
batteries	**friends**	**languages**	**pictures**	~~**shampoo**~~

1 I want to wash my hair. Is there ....any shampoo.... ?
2 The police want to talk to you. They want to ask you ..... .
3 I had my camera, but I didn't take ..... .
4 Do you speak ..... foreign ..... ?
5 Yesterday evening I went to a restaurant with ..... of mine.
6 Can I have ..... in my coffee, please?
7 The radio isn't working. There aren't ..... in it.
8 It's hot in this office. I'm going out for ..... fresh ..... .
9 A: Would you like ..... ?
B: No, thank you. I've had enough to eat.
10 I can do this job alone. I don't need ..... .

76.3 Complete the sentences. Use **some** or **any**.

1 Kate didn't take any pictures, but ....I took some.... . (I/take)
2 'Where's your luggage?' '....I don't have any....' (I/not/have)
3 'Do you need any money?' 'No, thank you. .....' (I/have)
4 'Can you lend me some money?' 'I'm sorry, but .....' (I/not/have)
5 The tomatoes in the shop didn't look very good, so ..... . (I/not/buy)
6 There were some nice oranges in the shop, so ..... . (I/buy)
7 'How much coffee did you drink yesterday?' '.....' (I/not/drink)

76.4 Write **something/somebody** or **anything/anybody**.

1 A woman stopped me and said ....something.... , but I didn't understand.
2 'What's wrong?' 'There's ..... in my eye.'
3 Do you know ..... about politics?
4 I went to the shop, but I didn't buy ..... .
5 ..... has broken the window. I don't know who.
6 There isn't ..... in the bag. It's empty.
7 I'm looking for my keys. Has ..... seen them?
8 Would you like ..... to drink?
9 I didn't eat ..... because I wasn't hungry.
10 This is a secret. Please don't tell ..... .

Unit 77

not + any no none

A

The car park is empty.

There are**n't any** cars / There are **no** cars } in the car park.

How many cars are there in the car park?
None.

not (**-n't**) + **any**

- There are**n't any** cars in the car park.
- Tracey and Jack do**n't** have **any** children.
- You can have some coffee, but I do**n't** want **any**.

no + *noun* (**no cars** / **no garden** etc.)

no ... = **not any** *or* **not a**

- There are **no cars** in the car park. (= there are**n't any** cars)
- We have **no coffee**. (= we do**n't** have **any** coffee)
- It's a nice house, but there's **no garden**. (= there is**n't a** garden)

We use **no** ... especially after **have** and **there is/are**.

negative verb + **any** = *positive verb* + **no**

- They **don't** have **any** children. *or* They **have no** children.
  (*not* They don't have no children)
- There **isn't any** sugar in your coffee. *or* There**'s no** sugar in your coffee.

B

no and **none**

Use **no** + *noun* (**no money** / **no children** etc.):

- We have **no money**.
- Everything was OK. There were **no problems**.

Use **none** alone (*without* a noun):

- 'How much money do you have?' '**None**.' (= no money)
- 'Were there any problems?' 'No, **none**.' (= no problems)

C

none and **no-one**

none = 0 (zero)
no-one = nobody

None is an answer for **How much**? / **How many**? (things or people):

- A: **How much** money do you have?
  B: **None**. (= no money)
- A: **How many** people did you meet?
  B: **None**. (= no people)

No-one is an answer for **Who**?:

- A: **Who** did you meet?
  B: **No-one**. (*or* **Nobody**.)

negatives ➜ Unit 43 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **anybody/nobody/nothing** etc. ➜ Units 78–79

Exercises

77.1 Write these sentences again with **no**.

1 We don't have any money. We have no money.
2 There aren't any shops near here. There are .....
3 Carla doesn't have any free time. .....
4 There isn't a light in this room. .....

Write these sentences again with **any**.

5 We have no money. We don't have any money.
6 There's no milk in the fridge. .....
7 There are no buses today. .....
8 Tom has no brothers or sisters. .....

77.2 Write **no** or **any**.

1 There's no sugar in your coffee.
2 My brother is married, but he doesn't have ..... children.
3 Sue doesn't speak ..... foreign languages.
4 I'm afraid there's ..... coffee. Would you like some tea?
5 'Look at those birds!' 'Birds? Where? I can't see ..... birds.'
6 'Do you know where Jessica is?' 'No, I have ..... idea.'

Write **no, any** or **none**.

7 There aren't ..... pictures on the wall.
8 The weather was cold, but there was ..... wind.
9 I wanted to buy some oranges, but they didn't have ..... in the shop.
10 Everything was correct. There were ..... mistakes.
11 'How much luggage do you have?' '.....'
12 'How much luggage do you have?' 'I don't have .....'

77.3 Complete the sentences. Use **any** or **no** + the words in the box.

difference	**friends**	**furniture**	**heating**	**idea**
money	~~**problems**~~	**questions**	**queue**	

1 Everything was OK. There were no problems.
2 Jack and Emily would like to go on holiday, but they have .....
3 I'm not going to answer .....
4 He's always alone. He has .....
5 There is ..... between these two machines. They're exactly the same.
6 There wasn't ..... in the room. It was completely empty.
7 'Do you know how the accident happened?' 'No, I have .....'
8 The house is cold because there isn't .....
9 We didn't have to wait to get our train tickets. There was .....

77.4 Write short answers (one or two words) to these questions. Use **none** where necessary.

1 How many letters did you write yesterday? Two. or A lot. or None.
2 How many sisters do you have? .....
3 How much coffee did you drink yesterday? .....
4 How many photos have you taken today? .....
5 How many legs does a snake have? .....

Unit 78

not + anybody/anyone/anything nobody/no-one/nothing

A

not + anybody/anyone
nobody/no-one
(for *people*)

- There **isn't** { **anybody** / **anyone** } in the room.
- There **is** { **nobody** / **no-one** } in the room.
- A: **Who** is in the room?
  B: **Nobody**. / **No-one**.

-body and **-one** are the same:
any**body** = any**one** no**body** = no-**one**

not + anything
nothing
(for *things*)

- There **isn't anything** in the bag.
- There **is nothing** in the bag.
- A: **What**'s in the bag?
  B: **Nothing**.

B

not + anybody/anyone
- I don**'t** know **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) here.

nobody = not + anybody
no-one = not + anyone
- I'm lonely. I have **nobody** to talk to. (= I don**'t** have **anybody**)
- The house is empty. There is **no-one** in it. (= There isn**'t anyone** in it.)

not + anything
- I can**'t** remember **anything**.

nothing = not + anything
- She said **nothing**. (= She didn**'t** say **anything**.)
- There's **nothing** to eat. (= There isn**'t anything** to eat.)

C

You can use **nobody/no-one/nothing** at the beginning of a sentence or alone (to answer a question):

- The house is empty. **Nobody** lives there.
- 'Who did you speak to?' '**No-one**.'
- **Nothing** happened.
- 'What did you say?' '**Nothing**.'

D

Remember: *negative verb* + **anybody/anyone/anything**
positive verb + **nobody/no-one/nothing**

- He does**n't** know **anything**. (*not* He doesn't know nothing)
- Don**'t** tell **anybody**. (*not* Don't tell nobody)
- There **is nothing** to do in this town. (*not* There isn't nothing)

some and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **any** and **no** ➜ Unit 77 **somebody/anything/nowhere** etc. ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

78.1 Write these sentences again with **nobody/no-one** or **nothing**.

1 There isn't anything in the bag. There's nothing in the bag.
2 There isn't anybody in the office. There's .....
3 I don't have anything to do. I .....
4 There isn't anything on TV. .....
5 There wasn't anyone at home. .....
6 We didn't find anything. .....

78.2 Write these sentences again with **anybody/anyone** or **anything**.

1 There's nothing in the bag. There isn't anything in the bag.
2 There was nobody on the bus. There wasn't .....
3 I have nothing to read. .....
4 I have no-one to help me. .....
5 She heard nothing. .....
6 We have nothing for dinner. .....

78.3 Answer these questions with **nobody/no-one** or **nothing**.

1a What did you say? Nothing.
2a Who saw you? Nobody.
3a What do you want? .....
4a Who did you meet? .....
5a Who knows the answer? .....
6a What did you buy? .....
7a What happened? .....
8a Who was late? .....

Now answer the same questions with full sentences.

Use **nobody/no-one/nothing** or **anybody/anyone/anything**:

1b I didn't say anything.
2b Nobody saw me.
3b I don't .....
4b I .....
5b ..... the answer.
6b .....
7b .....
8b .....

78.4 Complete the sentences. Use:

nobody / no-one / nothing or **anybody / anyone / anything**

1 That house is empty. Nobody lives there.
2 Jack has a bad memory. He can't remember anything.
3 Be quiet! Don't say ..... .
4 I didn't know about the meeting. ..... told me.
5 'What did you have to eat?' '..... . I wasn't hungry.'
6 I didn't eat ..... . I wasn't hungry.
7 Helen was sitting alone. She wasn't with ..... .
8 I'm afraid I can't help you. There's ..... I can do.
9 I don't know ..... about car engines.
10 The museum is free. It doesn't cost ..... to go in.
11 I heard a knock on the door, but when I opened it, there was ..... there.
12 The hotel receptionist spoke very fast. I didn't understand ..... .
13 'What are you doing tonight?' '..... . Why?'
14 Sophie has gone away. ..... knows where she is. She didn't tell ..... where she was going.

Unit 79

somebody/anything/nowhere etc.

A

Somebody (or **Someone**) has broken the window.

somebody/someone = a person, but we don't know who

She has got **something** in her mouth.

something = a thing, but we don't know what

Tom lives **somewhere** near London.

somewhere = in/to a place, but we don't know where

B

people (**-body** *or* **-one**)

somebody *or* **someone**	There is **somebody** (*or* **someone**) at the door.
anybody *or* **anyone**	Is there **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) at the door?
nobody *or* **no-one**	There isn't **anybody** (*or* **anyone**) at the door.
	There is **nobody** (*or* **no-one**) at the door.

-body and **-one** are the same: **somebody** = **someone, nobody** = **no-one** etc.

things (**-thing**)

something	Lucy said **something**, but I didn't understand what she said.
anything	Are you doing **anything** at the weekend?
nothing	I was angry, but I did**n't** say **anything**.
	'What did you say?' '**Nothing**.'

places (**-where**)

somewhere	Ruth's parents live **somewhere** in the south of England.
anywhere	Did you go **anywhere** interesting for your holidays?
nowhere	I'm staying here. I'm **not** going **anywhere**.
	I don't like this town. There is **nowhere** to go.

C

something/anybody etc. + *adjective* (**big/cheap/interesting** etc.)

- Did you meet **anybody interesting** at the party?
- We always go to the same place. Let's go **somewhere different**.
- 'What's that letter?' 'It's **nothing important**.'

D

something/anybody etc. + **to** ...

- I'm hungry. I want **something to eat**. (= something that I can eat)
- Tony doesn't have **anybody to talk** to. (= anybody that he can talk to)
- There is **nowhere to go** in this town. (= nowhere where people can go)

some and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **any** and **no** ➜ Unit 77 **anybody/nothing** etc. ➜ Unit 78
everything/-body/-where ➜ Unit 80

Exercises

79.1 Write **somebody** (or **someone**) / **something** / **somewhere**.

1	Lucy said ...something... .	What did she say?
2	I've lost	What have you lost?
3	Sue and Tom went	Where did they go?
4	I'm going to phone	Who are you going to phone?

79.2 Write **nobody** (or **no-one**) / **nothing** / **nowhere**.

1a	What did you say?	...Nothing...
2a	Where are you going?	.....
3a	What do you want?	.....
4a	Who are you looking for?	.....

Now answer the same questions with full sentences.

Use **not + anybody/anything/anywhere**.

1b ...I didn't say anything... 3b .....

2b I'm not ..... 4b .....

79.3 Write **somebody/anything/nowhere** etc.

1 It's dark. I can't see ...anything... .
2 Tom lives ...somewhere... near London.
3 Do you know ..... about computers?
4 'Listen!' 'What? I can't hear ..... .'
5 'What are you doing here?' 'I'm waiting for ..... .'
6 We need to talk. There's ..... I want to tell you.
7 'Did ..... see the accident?' 'No, ...'
8 We weren't hungry, so we didn't eat ..... .
9 'What's going to happen?' 'I don't know. ..... knows.'
10 'Do you know ..... in Paris?' 'Yes, a few people.'
11 'What's in that cupboard?' '..... . It's empty.'
12 I'm looking for my glasses. I can't find them ..... .
13 I don't like cold weather. I want to live ..... warm.
14 Is there ..... interesting on TV tonight?
15 Have you ever met ..... famous?

79.4 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

something	**anything**	**nothing**
something	**anywhere**	~~**nowhere**~~
somewhere		**nowhere**

do	**eat**	**park**	**sit**
drink	~~**go**~~	**read**	**stay**

1 We don't go out very much because there's ...nowhere to go... .
2 There isn't any food in the house. We don't have ..... .
3 I'm bored. I've got ..... .
4 'Why are you standing?' 'Because there isn't ..... .'
5 'Would you like ..... ?' 'Yes, please – a glass of water.'
6 If you're going to the city centre, take the bus. Don't drive because there's ..... .
7 I want ..... . I'm going to buy a magazine.
8 I need ..... in London. Can you recommend a hotel?

every and all

A every

Every house in the street is the same.

every house in the street =
all the houses in the street

We use **every** + *singular noun* (**every house** / **every country** etc.):

- Sarah has been to **every country** in Europe.
- **Every summer** we have a holiday by the sea.
- She looks different **every time** I see her.

Use a *singular verb* after **every** ... :

- **Every house** in the street **is** the same. (*not* are the same)
- **Every country has** a national flag. (*not* have)

Compare **every** and **all**:

- **Every student** in the class passed the exam.
- **Every country has** a national flag.

- **All the students** in the class passed the exam.
- **All countries have** a national flag.

B every day and all day

every day = on all days:

- It rained **every day** last week.
- Ben watches TV for about two hours **every evening**. (= on all evenings)

also **every morning/night/summer** etc.

all day = the complete day:

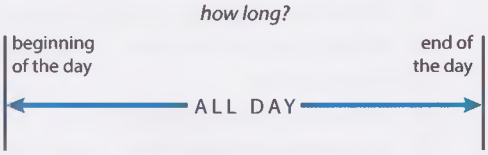

- It rained **all day** yesterday.
- On Monday, I watched TV **all evening**. (= the complete evening)

also **all morning/night/summer** etc.

C everybody (*or* everyone) / everything / everywhere

everybody *or* **everyone** *(people)*	**Everybody** (*or* **Everyone**) needs friends. (= all people need friends)
everything *(things)*	Do you have **everything** you need? (= all the things you need)
everywhere *(places)*	I lost my watch. I've looked **everywhere** for it. (= I've looked in all places)

Use a *singular verb* after **everybody/everyone/everything**:

- **Everybody has** problems. (*not* Everybody have)

all → Unit 81

Exercises

80.1 Complete the sentences. Use **every** + these words:

day **room** ~~**student**~~ **time** **word**

1 Every student in the class passed the exam.
2 My job is very boring. ..... is the same.
3 Kate is a very good tennis player. When we play, she wins ..... .
4 ..... in the hotel has free internet access and a minibar.
5 'Did you understand what she said?' 'Most of it, but not ..... .'

80.2 Complete the sentences with **every day** or **all day**.

1 Yesterday it rained all day.
2 I buy a newspaper ..... , but sometimes I don't read it.
3 I'm not going out tomorrow. I'll be at home ..... .
4 I usually drink about four cups of coffee ..... .
5 Paula was ill yesterday, so she stayed in bed ..... .
6 I'm tired now because I've been working hard ..... .
7 Last year we went to the seaside for a week, and it rained ..... .

80.3 Write **every** or **all**.

1 Bill watches TV for about two hours every evening.
2 Julia gets up at 6.30 ..... morning.
3 The weather was nice yesterday, so we sat outside ..... afternoon.
4 I'm going away on Monday. I'll be away ..... week.
5 A: How often do you go skiing?
B: ..... year. Usually in March.
6 A: Were you at home at 10 o'clock yesterday?
B: Yes, I was at home ..... morning. I went out after lunch.
7 My sister loves new cars. She buys one ..... year.
8 I saw Sam at the party, but he didn't speak to me ..... evening.
9 We go away on holiday for two or three weeks ..... summer.

80.4 Write **everybody/everything/everywhere**.

1 Everybody needs friends.
2 Chris knows ..... about computers.
3 I like the people here. ..... is very friendly.
4 This is a nice hotel. It's comfortable and ..... is very clean.
5 Kevin never uses his car. He goes ..... by motorcycle.
6 Let's get something to eat. ..... is hungry.
7 Sue's house is full of books. There are books ..... .
8 You are right. ..... you say is true.

80.5 Complete the sentences. Use one word only each time.

1 Everybody has problems.
2 Are you ready yet? Everybody ..... waiting for you.
3 The house is empty. Everyone ..... gone out.
4 Gary is very popular. Everybody ..... him.
5 This town is completely different now. Everything ..... changed.
6 I got home very late last night. I came in quietly because everyone ..... asleep.
7 Everybody ..... mistakes!
8 A: ..... everything clear? ..... everybody know what to do?
B: Yes, we all understand.

Unit 81

all most some any no/none

A

Compare:

children/money/books etc. (in general):

- **Children** like playing. (= children in general)
- **Money** isn't everything. (= money in general)
- I enjoy reading **books**.
- Everybody needs **friends**.

the children / **the** money / **these** books etc. :

- Where are **the children**? (= our children)
- I want to buy a car, but I don't have **the money**. (= the money for a car)
- Have you read **these books**?
- I often go out with **my friends**.

B

most / **most of** ... , **some** / **some of** ... etc.

all

most

some

any

no / none / not + any

most/some etc. + noun

all most some any no	~~of~~	cities children books money

- **Most children** like playing. (= children in general)
- I don't want **any money**.
- **Some books** are better than others.
- He has **no friends**.
- **All cities** have the same problems. (= cities in general)

Do not use **of** in these sentences:

- **Most people** drive too fast. (*not* Most of people)
- **Some birds** can't fly. (*not* Some of birds)

most of/some of etc. + **the/this/my** ... etc.

all	(of)	the ... this/that ... these/those ... my/your... etc.
most some any none	of	

- **Most of the children at this school** are under 11 years old.
- I don't want **any of this money**.
- **Some of these books** are very old.
- **None of my friends** live near me.

You can say **all the** ... or **all of the** ... (with or without **of**):

- **All the students in our class** passed the exam. (*or* **All of the students** ...)
- Amy has lived in London **all her life**. (*or*... **all of her life**.)

C

all of it / **most of them** / **none of us** etc.

all most some any none	of	it them us you

- You can have **some of this cake**, but not **all of it**.
- A: Do you know those people?
  B: **Most of them**, but not **all of them**.
- **Some of us** are going out tonight. Why don't you come with us?
- I have a lot of books, but I haven't read **any of them**.
- 'How many of these books have you read?' '**None of them**.'

the ... (**children** / **the children** etc.) ➜ Unit 72 **some** and **any** ➜ Unit 76 **no/none/any** ➜ Unit 77
all and **every** ➜ Unit 80

Exercises

81.1 Complete the sentences. Use the word in brackets (**some**/**most** etc.). Sometimes you need **of** (**some of** / **most of** etc.).

1 Most children like playing. (**most**)
2 Some of this money is yours. (**some**)
3 ..... people never stop talking. (**some**)
4 ..... the shops in the city centre close at 6.30. (**most**)
5 ..... people have mobile phones these days. (**most**)
6 I don't like ..... the pictures in the living room. (**any**)
7 He's lost ..... his money. (**all**)
8 ..... my friends are married. (**none**)
9 Do you know ..... the people in this picture? (**any**)
10 ..... birds can fly. (**most**)
11 I enjoyed ..... the film, but I didn't like the ending. (**most**)
12 ..... sports are very dangerous. (**some**)
13 We can't find anywhere to stay. ..... the hotels are full. (**all**)
14 You must have ..... this cheese. It's delicious. (**some**)
15 The weather was bad when we were on holiday. It rained ..... the time. (**most**)

81.2 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use:

all/most/some/none + **of them / of it**

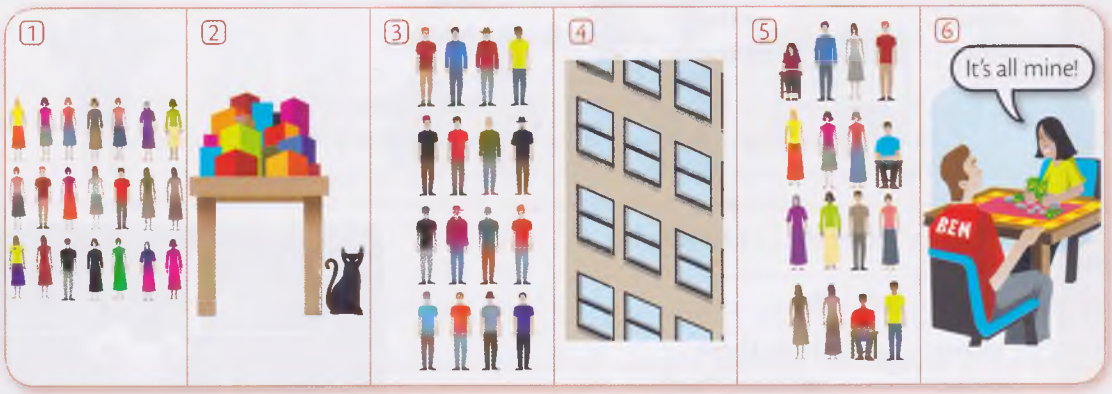

1 How many of the people are women? Most of them.
2 How many of the boxes are on the table? .....
3 How many of the men are wearing hats? .....
4 How many of the windows are open? .....
5 How many of the people are standing? .....
6 How much of the money is Ben's? .....

81.3 Are these sentences OK? Correct the sentences that are wrong.

1 Most of children like playing. Most children
2 All the students failed the exam. OK
3 Some of people work too hard. .....
4 Some of questions in the exam were very easy. .....
5 I haven't seen any of those people before. .....
6 All of insects have six legs. .....
7 Have you read all these books? .....
8 Most of students in our class are very nice. .....
9 Most of my friends are going to the party. .....
10 I'm very tired this morning – I was awake most of night. .....

Unit 82

both either neither

A

We use **both/either/neither** to talk about two things or people:

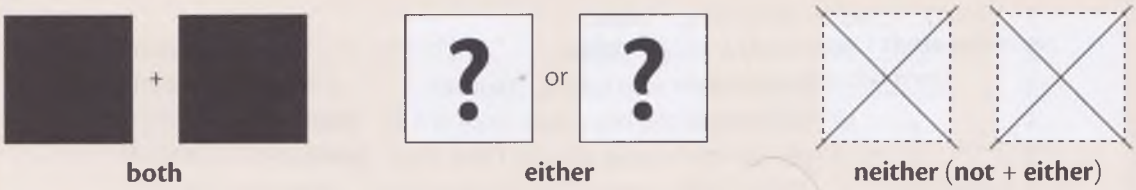

both **either** **neither** (**not** + **either**)

- Rebecca has two children. **Both** are married. (**both** = the two children)
- Would you like tea or coffee? You can have **either**. (**either** = tea or coffee)
- A: Do you want to go to the cinema or the theatre?
  B: **Neither**. I want to stay at home. (**neither** = not the cinema or the theatre)

Compare **either** and **neither**:

- 'Would you like **tea** or **coffee**?'
  - '**Either**. I don't mind.' (= tea or coffee)
  - 'I **don't** want **either**.' (*not* I don't want neither)
  - '**Neither**.' (= not tea or coffee)

B

both/either/neither + *noun*

both + *plural*		**both**	**windows/books/children** etc.
either / **neither**	+ *singular*	**either** / **neither**	**window/book/child** etc.

- Last year I went to Paris and Rome. I liked **both cities** very much.
- First I worked in an office, and later in a shop. **Neither job** was very interesting.
- There are two ways from here to the station. You can go **either way**.

C

both of ... / **either of** ... / **neither of** ...

both	(**of**)	**the** ...
either / **neither**	**of**	**these/those** ... / **my/your/Paul's** ... etc.

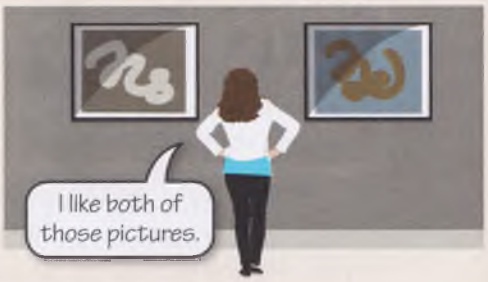

- **Neither of my parents** is British.
- I **haven't** read **either of these books**.

You can say **both of the/those/my** ... or **both the/those/my** ... (with or without **of**):

- I like **both of** those pictures. *or*
  I like **both** those pictures.
- **Both of** Paul's sisters are married. *or*
  Both Paul's sisters are married.

but - **Neither of** Paul's sisters is married. (*not* Neither Paul's sisters)

D

both of them / **neither of us**

both / **either** / **neither**	**of**	**them** / **us** / **you**

- Paul has two sisters. **Both of them** are married.
- Sue and I didn't eat anything. **Neither of us** was hungry.
- Who are those two people? I **don't** know **either of them**.

I can't either / neither can I ➜ Unit 42

Exercises

82.1 Write **both/either/neither**. Use **of** where necessary.

1 Last year I went to Paris and Rome. I liked ....both.... cities very much.
2 There were two pictures on the wall. I didn't like ....either of.... them.
3 It was a good football match. ..... teams played well.
4 It wasn't a good football match. ..... team played well.
5 'Is your friend English or American?' '..... . She's Australian.'
6 We went away for two days, but the weather wasn't good. It rained ..... days.
7 A: I bought two newspapers. Which one do you want?
B: ..... . It doesn't matter which one.
8 I invited Sam and Chris to the party, but ..... them came.
9 'Do you go to work by car or by bus?' '..... . I always walk.'
10 'Which jacket do you prefer, this one or that one?' 'I don't like ..... them.'
11 'Do you work or are you a student?' '..... . I work and I'm a student too.'
12 My friend and I went to the cinema, but ..... us liked the film. It was really bad.
13 Helen has two sisters and a brother. ..... sisters are married.
14 Helen has two sisters and a brother. I've met her brother, but I haven't met ..... her sisters.

82.2 Complete the sentences for the pictures. Use **Both ...** and **Neither ... .**

1 ....Both cups are.... empty.
2 ..... are open.
3 ..... wearing a hat.
4 ..... beards.
5 ..... to the airport.
6 ..... correct.

82.3 A man and a woman answered some questions. Their answers were the same. Write sentences with **Both/Neither of them ... .**

1 Are you married?	No	No	→ 1	....Neither of them is married....
2 How old are you?	21	21	→ 2	....Both of them are 21....
3 Are you a student?	Yes	Yes	→ 3	..... students.
4 Do you have a car?	No	No	4	..... a car.
5 Where do you live?	London	London	5	.....
6 Do you like cooking?	Yes	Yes	6	.....
7 Can you play the piano?	No	No	7	.....
8 Do you eat seafood?	Yes	Yes	8	.....
9 Are you interested in sport?	No	No	9	.....

a lot much many

A

a lot of money

not much money

a lot of books

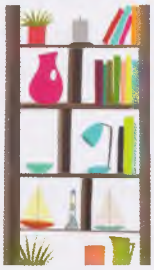

not many books

We use **much** + *uncountable noun* (**much food** / **much money** etc.):

- Did you buy **much food**?
- We don't have **much luggage**.
- How **much money** do you want?
- A: Do you have any **money**?
  B: I have some, but **not much**.

We use **many** + *plural noun* (**many books** / **many people** etc.):

- Did you buy **many books**?
- We don't know **many people**.
- How **many photos** did you take?
- A: Did you take any **photos**?
  B: I took some, but **not many**.

We use **a lot of** + *both types of noun*:

- We bought **a lot of food**.
- Paula doesn't have **a lot of** free **time**.
- We bought **a lot of books**.
- Did they ask **a lot of questions**?

We say:

- There **is** a lot of **food/money/water** ... *(singular verb)*
- There **are** a lot of **trees/shops/people** ... *(plural verb)*
- A lot of **people speak** English. (*not* speaks)

B

We use **much** in *questions* and *negative sentences*:

- Do you drink **much coffee**?
- I don't drink **much coffee**.

But we do not often use **much** in *positive sentences*:

- I drink **a lot of coffee**. (*not* I drink much coffee)
- 'Do you drink much coffee?' 'Yes, **a lot**.' (*not* Yes, much)

We use **many** and **a lot of** in all types of sentences (positive/negative/question):

- We have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends.
- We don't have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends.
- Do you have **many** friends / **a lot of** friends?

C

You can use **much** and **a lot** without a noun:

- Amy spoke to me, but she didn't say **much**.
- 'Do you watch TV **much**?' 'No, **not much**.' (= not often)
- We like films, so we go to the cinema **a lot**. (*not* go to the cinema much)
- I don't like him very **much**.

countable/uncountable ➜ **Units 67–68**

Exercises

83.1 Write **much** or **many**.

1 Did you buy ....much.... food?
2 There aren't ..... hotels in this town.
3 We don't have ..... petrol. We need to stop and get some.
4 Were there ..... people on the train?
5 Did ..... students fail the exam?
6 Paula doesn't have ..... money.
7 I wasn't hungry, so I didn't eat ..... .
8 I don't know where Gary lives these days. I haven't seen him for ..... years.

Write **How much** or **How many**.

9 ..... people are coming to the party?
10 ..... milk do you want in your coffee?
11 ..... bread did you buy?
12 ..... players are there in a football team?

83.2 Complete the sentences. Use **much** or **many** with these words:

~~**books**~~ **countries** **luggage** **people** **time** **times**

1 I don't read very much. I don't have ....many books.... .
2 Hurry up! We don't have ..... .
3 Do you travel a lot? Have you been to ..... ?
4 Tina hasn't lived here very long, so she doesn't know ..... .
5 'Do you have ..... ?' 'No, only this bag.'
6 I know Tokyo well. I've been there ..... .

83.3 Complete the sentences. Use **a lot of** + these words:

accidents ~~**books**~~ **fun** **interesting things** **traffic**

1 I like reading. I have ....a lot of books.... .
2 We enjoyed our visit to the museum. We saw ..... .
3 This road is very dangerous. There are ..... .
4 We enjoyed our holiday. We had ..... .
5 It took me a long time to drive here. There was ..... .

83.4 In some of these sentences **much** is not natural. Change the sentences or write *OK*.

1 Do you drink <u>much coffee</u>? ....OK....
2 I drink <u>much tea</u>. ....a lot of tea....
3 It was a cold winter. We had <u>much snow</u>. .....
4 There wasn't <u>much snow</u> last winter. .....
5 It costs <u>much money</u> to travel around the world. .....
6 We had a cheap holiday. It didn't cost <u>much</u>. .....
7 Do you know <u>much</u> about computers? .....
8 'Do you have any luggage?' 'Yes, <u>much</u>.' .....

83.5 Write sentences about these people. Use **much** and **a lot**.

1 James loves films. (go to the cinema) ....He goes to the cinema a lot.....
2 Nicola thinks TV is boring. (watch TV) ....She doesn't watch TV much.....
3 Tina is a good tennis player. (play tennis) She .....
4 Mark doesn't like driving. (use his car) He .....
5 Paul spends most of the time at home. (go out) .....
6 Sue has been all over the world. (travel) .....

Unit 84

(a) little (a) few

A

(a) **little** + *uncountable noun*:

(a) **little water**
(a) **little time**
(a) **little money**
(a) **little soup**

a little water

(a) **few** + *plural noun*:

(a) **few books**
(a) **few questions**
(a) **few people**
(a) **few days**

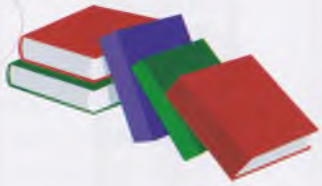

a few books

B

a little = some but not much

- She didn't eat anything, but she drank **a little water**.
- I speak **a little Spanish**. (= some Spanish but not much)
- A: Can you speak Spanish?
  B: **A little**.

a few = some but not many

- Excuse me, I have to make **a few phone calls**.
- We're going away for **a few days**.
- I speak **a few words** of Spanish.
- A: Are there any shops near here?
  B: Yes, **a few**.

C

little (without **a**) = nearly no *or* nearly nothing

- There was **little food** in the fridge. It was nearly empty.

You can say **very little**:

- Dan is very thin because he eats **very little**. (= nearly nothing)

few (without **a**) = nearly no

- There were **few people** in the theatre. It was nearly empty.

You can say **very few**:

- Your English is very good. You make **very few mistakes**.

D

Compare **little** and **a little**:

- They have **a little** money, so they're not poor. (= they have some money)
- They have **little** money. They are very poor. (= nearly no money)

Compare **few** and **a few**:

- I have **a few** friends, so I'm not lonely. (= I have some friends)
- I'm sad and I'm lonely. I have **few** friends. (= nearly no friends)

countable/uncountable ➜ Units 67–68

Exercises

84.1 Answer the questions with **a little** or **a few**.

1 'Do you have any money?' 'Yes, a little.'
2 'Do you have any envelopes?' 'Yes, ...'
3 'Do you want sugar in your coffee?' 'Yes, ..., please.'
4 'Did you take any photos when you were on holiday?' 'Yes, ...'
5 'Does your friend speak English?' 'Yes, ...'
6 'Are there any good restaurants in this town?' 'Yes, ...'

84.2 Write **a little** or **a few** + these words:

chairs **days** **fresh air** **friends** **milk** **Russian** **times** ~~**years**~~

1 Mark speaks Italian well. He lived in Italy for a few years.
2 Can I have ..... in my coffee, please?
3 'When did Amy go away?' '..... ago.'
4 'Do you speak any foreign languages?' 'I can speak .....'
5 'Are you going out alone?' 'No, I'm going with .....'
6 'Have you ever been to Mexico?' 'Yes, ...'
7 There wasn't much furniture in the room – just a table and .....
8 I'm going out for a walk. I need .....

84.3 Complete the sentences. Use **very little** or **very few** + these words:

coffee **hotels** ~~**mistakes**~~ **people** **rain** **time** **work**

1 Your English is very good. You make very few mistakes.
2 I drink ..... . I prefer tea.
3 The weather here is very dry in summer. There is .....
4 It's difficult to find a place to stay in this town. There are .....
5 Hurry up. We have .....
6 The town is very quiet at night. ..... go out.
7 Some people in the office are very lazy. They do .....

84.4 Write **little / a little** or **few / a few**.

1 There was little food in the fridge. It was nearly empty.
2 'When did Sarah go out?' '..... minutes ago.'
3 I can't decide now. I need ..... time to think about it.
4 There was ..... traffic, so we arrived earlier than we expected.
5 The bus service isn't very good at night – there are ..... buses after 9 o'clock.
6 'Would you like some soup?' 'Yes, ..., please.'
7 I'd like to practise my English more, but I have ..... opportunity.

84.5 Right or wrong? Change the sentences where necessary. Write *OK* if the sentence is correct.

1 We're going away for few days next week. for a few days
2 Everybody needs little luck. .....
3 I can't talk to you now – I have few things to do. .....
4 I eat very little meat – I don't like it very much. .....
5 Excuse me, can I ask you few questions? .....
6 There were little people on the bus – it was nearly empty. .....
7 Mark is a very private person. Few people know him well. .....

Unit 85

old/nice/interesting etc. (adjectives)

A

adjective + *noun* (**nice day** / **blue eyes** etc.)

	adjective + noun
It's a **nice**	**day** today.
Laura has **brown**	**eyes**.
There's a very **old**	**bridge** in this village.
Do you like **Italian**	**food**?
I don't speak any **foreign**	**languages**.
There are some **beautiful yellow**	**flowers** in the garden.

The adjective is *before* the noun:

- They live in a **modern house**. (*not* a house modern)
- Have you met any **famous people**? (*not* people famous)

The ending of an adjective is always the same:

a **different place** **different** places (*not* differents)

B

be (**am**/**is**/**was** etc.) + *adjective*

- The weather **is nice** today.
- These flowers **are** very **beautiful**.
- **Are** you **cold**? Shall I close the window?
- **I'm hungry**. Can I have something to eat?
- The film **wasn't** very **good**. It **was boring**.
- Please **be quiet**. I'm reading.

C

look/**feel**/**smell**/**taste**/**sound** + *adjective*

- A: You **look tired**.
  B: Yes, I **feel tired**.
- Joe told me about his new job. It **sounds** very **interesting**.
- I'm not going to eat this fish. It doesn't **smell good**.

Compare:

He	**is** **feels** **looks**	**tired**.

They	**are** **look** **sound**	**happy**.

It	**is** **smells** **tastes**	**good**.

get + adjective (**get hungry**/**tired** etc.) ➜ Unit 56 **something**/**anybody** + adjective ➜ Unit 79

Exercises

85.1 Put the words in the right order.

1 (new / live in / house / they / a) They live in a new house.
2 (like / jacket / I / that / green) I .....
3 (music / like / do / classical / you?) Do .....
4 (had / wonderful / a / I / holiday) .....
5 (went to / restaurant / a / Japanese / we) .....

85.2 The words in the box are adjectives (**black/foreign** etc.) or nouns (**air/job** etc.). Use an adjective and a noun to complete each sentence.

air	**clouds**	~~**foreign**~~	**holiday**	**job**	~~**languages**~~	**sharp**
black	**dangerous**	**fresh**	**hot**	**knife**	**long**	**water**

1 Do you speak any foreign languages ?
2 Look at those ..... . It's going to rain.
3 Sue works very hard, and she's very tired. She needs a ..... .
4 I would like to have a shower, but there's no ..... .
5 Can you open the window? We need some ..... .
6 I need a ..... to cut these onions.
7 Fire-fighting is a ..... .

85.3 Write sentences for the pictures. Choose from the boxes.

feel(s)	**look(s)**	~~**sound(s)**~~	~~**happy**~~	**ill**	**nice**
look(s)	**smell(s)**	**taste(s)**	**horrible**	**new**	**surprised**

85.4 A and B don't agree. Complete B's sentences. Use **feel/look** etc.

	A	B	
1	You look tired.	Do I? I don't feel tired	(feel)
2	This is a new coat.	Is it? It doesn't	(look)
3	I'm American.	Are you? You	(sound)
4	You look cold.	Do I? I	(feel)
5	These bags are heavy.	Are they? They	(look)
6	That soup looks good.	Maybe, but it	(taste)

quickly/badly/suddenly etc. (adverbs)

A

He ate his dinner very **quickly**.

Suddenly the shelf fell down.

Quickly and **suddenly** are adverbs.

adjective + **-ly** → adverb:

adjective	**quick**	**bad**	**sudden**	**careful**	**heavy**	
adverb	**quickly**	**badly**	**suddenly**	**carefully**	**heavily**	etc.

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): easy → easily heavy → heavily

B

Adverbs tell you *how* something happens or *how* somebody does something:

- The train **stopped suddenly**.
- I **opened** the door **slowly**.
- Please **listen carefully**.
- I **understand** you **perfectly**.

It's **raining heavily**.

Compare:

adjective

- Sue is very **quiet**.
- **Be careful**!
- It was **a bad game**.
- I **felt nervous**. (= I was nervous)

adverb

- Sue **speaks** very **quietly**. (*not* speaks very quiet)
- **Listen carefully**! (*not* listen careful)
- Our team **played badly**. (*not* played bad)
- I **waited nervously**.

C

hard fast late early

These words are adjectives *and* adverbs:

- Sue's job **is** very **hard**.
- Ben is **a fast runner**.
- The bus **was late/early**.

- Sue **works** very **hard**. (*not* hardly)
- Ben can **run fast**.
- I **went** to bed **late/early**.

D

good *(adjective)* → **well** *(adverb)*

- Your English **is** very **good**.
- It was **a good game**.

- You **speak** English very **well**. (*not* very good)
- Our team **played well**.

But **well** is also an *adjective* (= not ill, in good health):

- 'How are you?' '**I'm** very **well,** thank you. And you?'

adjectives → Unit 85

Exercises

86.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with these adverbs:

angrily **badly** **dangerously** **fast** ~~**heavily**~~ **quietly**

1 It's raining heavily.
2 He sings very ..... .
3 They came in ..... .
4 She shouted at me ..... .
5 She can run very ..... .
6 He was driving ..... .

86.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

come	**know**	**sleep**	**win**	+	~~**carefully**~~	**clearly**	**hard**	**well**
explain	~~**listen**~~	**think**	**work**		**carefully**	**easily**	**quickly**	**well**

1 I'm going to tell you something very important, so please listen carefully.
2 They ..... . At the end of the day they're always tired.
3 I'm tired this morning. I didn't ..... last night.
4 You play tennis much better than me. When we play, you always ..... .
5 ..... before you answer the question.
6 I've met Alice a few times, but I don't ..... her very ..... .
7 Our teacher doesn't ..... things very ..... . We never understand him.
8 Helen! I need your help. ..... !

86.3 Which is right?

1 Don't eat so ~~quick~~/quickly. It's not good for you. (quickly *is right*)
2 Why are you angry/angrily? I haven't done anything.
3 Can you speak slow/slowly, please?
4 Come on, Dave! Why are you always so slow/slowly?
5 Sam is a very careful/carefully driver.
6 Amy is studying hard/hardly for her examinations.
7 'Where's Anna?' 'She was here, but she left sudden/suddenly.'
8 Please be quiet/quietly. I'm studying.
9 Some companies pay their workers very bad/badly.
10 Those oranges look nice/nicely. Can I have one?
11 I don't remember much about the accident. Everything happened quick/quickly.

86.4 Write **good** or **well**.

1 Your English is very good. You speak it very well.
2 Jackie did very ..... in her exams.
3 The party was very ..... . I enjoyed it very much.
4 Mark has a difficult job, but he does it ..... .
5 How are your parents? Are they ..... ?
6 Did you have a ..... holiday? Was the weather ..... ?

Unit 87

old/older expensive / more expensive

A

old | **older** | heavy | **heavier** | expensive | **more expensive**

Older / **heavier** / **more expensive** are *comparative* forms.
The comparative is **-er** (**older**) or **more** ... (**more expensive**).

B

older/heavier etc.

Short words (1 syllable) → **-er**:
old → **older** slow → **slower** cheap → **cheaper**
nice → **nicer** late → **later** big → **bigger**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): big → bi**gg**er hot → ho**tt**er thin → thi**nn**er

Words ending in **-y** → **-ier**:
easy → **easier** heavy → **heavier** early → **earlier**

- Rome is **old**, but Athens is **older**. (*not* more old)
- Is it **cheaper** to go by car or by train? (*not* more cheap)
- Helen wants a **bigger** car.
- This coat is OK, but I think the other one is **nicer**.
- Don't take the bus. It's **easier** to take a taxi. (*not* more easy)

far → further:
- A: How far is it to the station? A mile?
  B: No, it's **further**. About two miles.

C

more ...

Long words (2/3/4 syllables) → **more** ... :
careful → **more careful** polite → **more polite**
expensive → **more expensive** interesting → **more interesting**

- You must be **more careful**.
- I don't like my job. I want to do something **more interesting**.
- Is it **more expensive** to go by car or by train?

D

good/well → better bad → worse
- The weather wasn't very **good** yesterday, but it's **better** today.
- 'Do you feel **better** today?' 'No, I feel **worse**.'
- Which is **worse** – a headache or a toothache?

older than ... / **more expensive than** ... → Unit 88 **the oldest** / **the most expensive** → Unit 90

Exercises

87.1 Look at the pictures and write the comparative (**older** / **more interesting** etc.).

87.2 Write the comparative.

1 old ...older...
2 strong .....
3 happy .....
4 modern .....
5 important .....
6 good .....
7 large .....
8 serious .....
9 pretty .....
10 crowded .....

87.3 Write the opposite.

1 younger ...older...
2 colder .....
3 cheaper .....
4 better .....
5 nearer .....
6 easier .....

87.4 Complete the sentences. Use a comparative.

1 Helen's car isn't very big. She wants a ...bigger... one.
2 My job isn't very interesting. I want to do something ...more interesting... .
3 You're not very tall. Your brother is ..... .
4 David doesn't work very hard. I work ..... .
5 My chair isn't very comfortable. Yours is ..... .
6 Your idea isn't very good. My idea is ..... .
7 These flowers aren't very nice. The blue ones are ..... .
8 My bag isn't very heavy. Your bag is ..... .
9 I'm not very interested in art. I'm ..... in history.
10 It isn't very warm today. It was ..... yesterday.
11 These tomatoes don't taste very good. The other ones tasted ..... .
12 Britain isn't very big. France is ..... .
13 London isn't very beautiful. Paris is ..... .
14 This knife isn't very sharp. Have you got a ..... one?
15 People today aren't very polite. In the past they were ..... .
16 The weather isn't too bad today. Often it is much ..... .

older than ... more expensive than ...

A

She's **taller than** him.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** the Grand.

We use **than** after comparatives (**older than** ... / **more expensive than** ... etc.):

- Athens is **older than** Rome.
- Are oranges **more expensive than** bananas?
- It's **easier** to take a taxi **than** to take the bus.
- 'How are you today?' 'Not bad. **Better than** yesterday.'
- The restaurant is **more crowded than** usual.

B

We usually say: than **me** / than **him** / than **her** / than **us** / than **them**.
You can say:

- I can run faster **than him**. *or* I can run faster **than he can**.
- You are a better singer **than me**. *or* You are a better singer **than I am**.
- I got up earlier **than her**. *or* I got up earlier **than she did**.

C

more/less than ...

- A: How much did your shoes cost? £60?
  B: No, **more than** that. (= **more than** £60)
- The film was very short – **less than** an hour.
- They have **more money than** they need.
- You go out **more than** me.

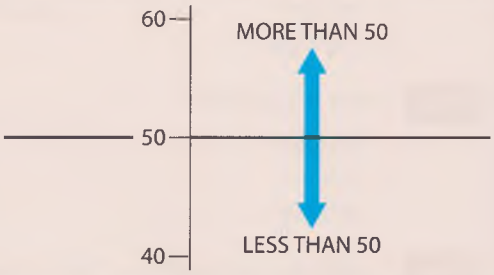

D

a bit older / **much older** etc.

Box A is **a bit bigger** than Box B.

Box C is **much bigger** than Box D.

a bit **much**	bigger older better more difficult more expensive	than ...

- Canada is **much bigger** than France.
- Sue is **a bit older** than Joe – she's 25 and he's 24.
- The hotel was **much more expensive** than I expected.
- You go out **much more** than me.

old → older, expensive → more expensive ➜ Unit 87 **not as ... as** ➜ Unit 89

Exercises

88.1 Write sentences about Kate and Ben. Use **than**.

Kate

1 I'm 26.
2 I'm not a very good swimmer.
3 I'm 1 metre 68 tall.
4 I start work at 8 o'clock.
5 I don't work very hard.
6 I don't have much money.
7 I'm a very good driver.
8 I'm not very patient.
9 I'm not a very good dancer.
10 I'm very intelligent.
11 I speak French very well.
12 I don't go to the cinema very much.

Ben

1 I'm 24.
2 I'm a very good swimmer.
3 I'm 1 metre 63 tall.
4 I start work at 8.30.
5 I work very hard.
6 I have a lot of money.
7 I'm not a very good driver.
8 I'm very patient.
9 I'm a good dancer.
10 I'm not very intelligent.
11 I don't speak French very well.
12 I go to the cinema a lot.

1 Kate is older than Ben.
2 Ben is a better swimmer than Kate.
3 Kate is ....
4 Kate starts .... Ben.
5 Ben ....
6 Ben has ....
7 Kate is a ....
8 Ben ....
9 Ben ....
10 Kate ....
11 Kate ....
12 Ben ....

88.2 Complete the sentences. Use **than**.

1 He isn't very tall. You're taller than him (OR taller than he is).
2 She isn't very old. You're ....
3 I don't work very hard. You work ....
4 He doesn't watch TV very much. You ....
5 I'm not a very good cook. You ....
6 We don't know many people. You ....
7 They don't have much money. You ....
8 I can't run very fast. You can ....
9 She hasn't been here very long. You ....
10 They didn't get up very early. You ....
11 He wasn't very surprised. You ....

88.3 Complete the sentences with **a bit** or **much** + comparative (**older/better** etc.).

1 Emma is 25. Joe is $24\frac{1}{2}$.
Emma is a bit older than Joe.
2 Jack's mother is 52. His father is 69.
Jack's mother ....
3 My camera cost £120. Yours cost £112.
My camera ....
4 Yesterday I felt terrible. Today I feel OK.
I feel ....
5 Today the temperature is 12 degrees. Yesterday it was 10 degrees.
It's ....
6 Sarah is an excellent tennis player. I'm not a very good player.
Sarah ....

not as ... as

A

not as ... as

She's old, but she's **not as old as** he is.

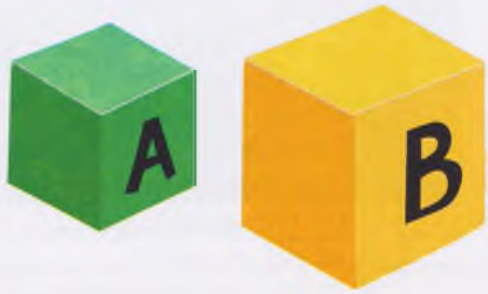

Box A is**n't as big as** Box B.

- Rome **is not as old as** Athens.
  (= Athens is **older**)
- The Grand Hotel **isn't as expensive as** the Europa.
  (= the Europa is **more expensive**)
- I **don't** play tennis **as often as** you.
  (= you play **more often**)
- The weather is better than it was yesterday. It **isn't as cold**.
  (= as cold **as it was yesterday**)

B

not as much as ... / **not as many as** ...

- I don't have **as much money as** you. (= you've got **more money**)
- I don't know **as many people as** you. (= you know **more people**)
- I don't go out **as much as** you. (= you go out **more**)

C

Compare **not as** ... **as** and **than**:

- Rome is **not as old as** Athens.
  Athens is **older than** Rome. (*not* older as Rome)
- Tennis **isn't as popular as** football.
  Football is **more popular than** tennis.
- I **don't** go out **as much as** you.
  You go out **more than** me.

D

We usually say: as **me** / as **him** / as **her** etc.
You can say:

- She's not as old **as him**. *or* She's not as old **as he is**.
- You don't work as hard **as me**. *or* You don't work as hard **as I do**.

E

We say **the same as** ... :

- The weather today is **the same as** yesterday.
- My hair is **the same colour as** yours.
- I arrived at **the same time as** Tom.

much/many ➜ Unit 83 **older than** ... / **more expensive than** ... ➜ Unit 88

Exercises

89.1 Look at the pictures and write sentences about A, B and C.

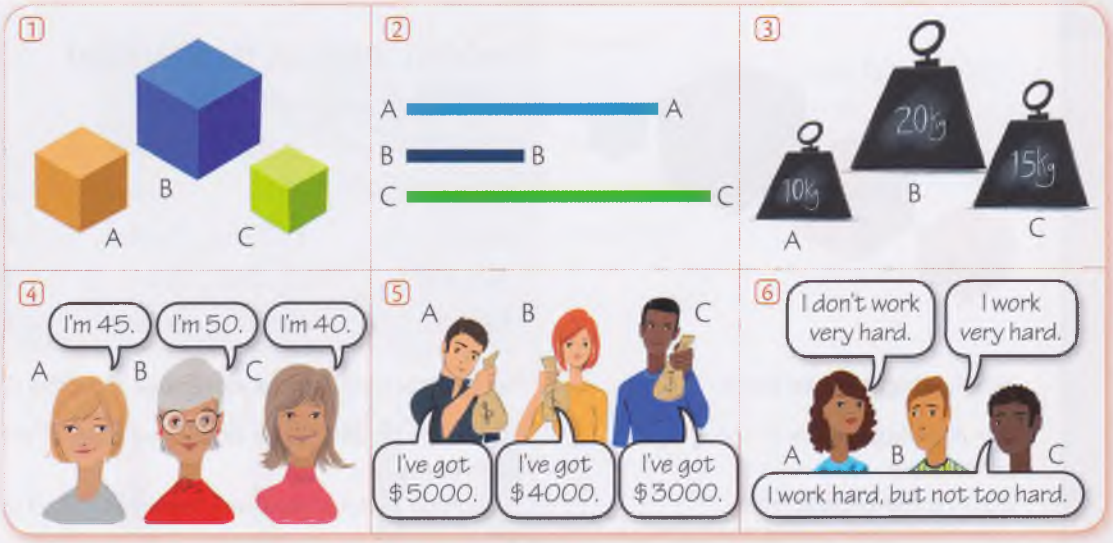

1 A is bigger than C, but not as big as B.
2 A is ..... B, but not ..... C.
3 C is ..... A, but ..... .
4 A is ....., but ..... .
5 B has got ..... .
6 C works ..... .

89.2 Write sentences with **as ... as ...** .

1 Athens is older than Rome. Rome isn't as old as Athens.
2 My room is bigger than yours. Your room isn't ..... .
3 You got up earlier than me. I didn't ..... .
4 We played better than them. They ..... .
5 I've been here longer than you. You ..... .
6 She's more nervous than him. He ..... .

89.3 Write **as** or **than**.

1 Athens is older than Rome.
2 I don't watch TV as much ..... you.
3 You eat more ..... me.
4 I'm more tired today ..... I was yesterday.
5 Joe isn't as intelligent ..... he thinks.
6 Belgium is smaller ..... Switzerland.
7 Brazil isn't as big ..... Canada.
8 I can't wait longer ..... an hour.

89.4 Complete the sentences about Julia, Andy and Laura. Use **the same age** / **the same street** etc.

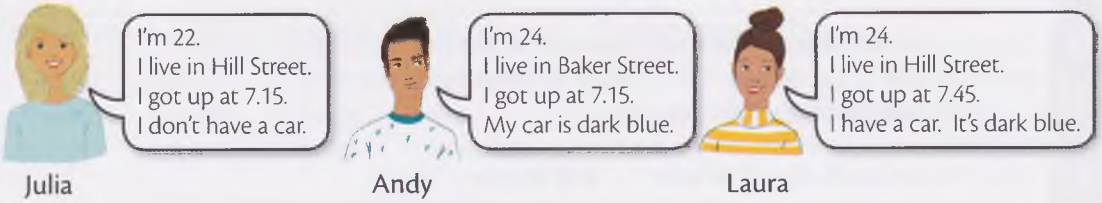

Julia Andy Laura

1 (age) Andy is the some age as Laura.
2 (street) Julia lives ..... .
3 (time) Julia got up ..... .
4 (colour) Andy's ..... .

the oldest the most expensive

A

HOTEL PRICES IN KINTON

(Per room per night)

Europa Hotel	£150	Grosvenor	£110
Grand Hotel	£130	Bennets	£100
Royal	£120	Carlton	£98
Astoria	£115	Star	£85
Palace	£115	Station	£75

Box A is **bigger than** Box B.

Box A is **bigger than** all the other boxes.
Box A is **the biggest** box.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** the Grand.

The Europa Hotel is **more expensive than** all the other hotels in the city.
The Europa Hotel is **the most expensive** hotel in the city.

Bigger and **more expensive** etc. are *comparative* forms (→ Unit 87).
Biggest and **most expensive** etc. are *superlative* forms.

B

The superlative form is **-est** (**oldest**) or **most** ... (**most expensive**).

Short words (**old/cheap/nice** etc.) → **the -est**:
old → **the oldest** cheap → **the cheapest** nice → **the nicest**
but good → **the best** bad → **the worst**

Spelling (→ Appendix 5): big → the bi**gg**est ho**t** → the ho**tt**est

Words ending in **-y** (**easy/heavy** etc.) → **the -iest**:
easy → **the easiest** heavy → **the heaviest** pretty → **the prettiest**

Long words (**careful/expensive/interesting** etc.) → **the most** ... :
careful → **the most careful** interesting → **the most interesting**

C

We say **the** oldest ... / **the** most expensive ... etc. (with **the**):

- The church is very old. It's **the oldest** building in the town.
  (= it is **older than** all the other buildings)
- What is **the longest** river in the world?
- Money is important, but it isn't **the most important** thing in life.
- Excuse me, where is **the nearest** bank?

D

You can use **the oldest** / **the best** / **the most expensive** etc. without a noun:

- Luke is a good player, but he isn't **the best** in the team.
  (**the best** = the best player)

E

You can use *superlative* + **I've ever** ... / **you've ever** ... etc. :

- The film was very bad. I think it's **the worst** film **I've ever seen**.
- What is **the most unusual** thing **you've ever done**?

present perfect + **ever** → Unit 17 **older / more expensive** → Units 87–88

Exercises

90.1 Write sentences with comparatives (**older** etc.) and superlatives (**the oldest** etc.).

1 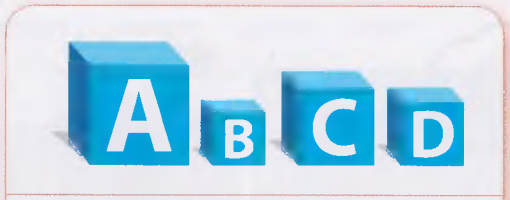

big/small
(A/D) A is bigger than D.
(A) A is the biggest.
(B) B is the smallest.

2 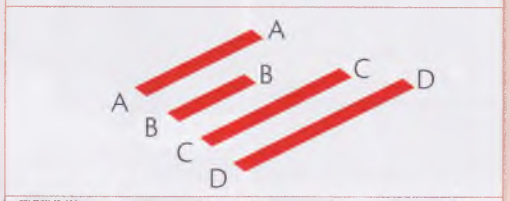

long/short
(C/A) C is ..... A.
(D) D is .....
(B) B .....

3 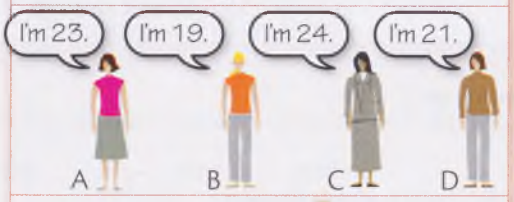

young/old
(D/C) D .....
(B) .....
(C) .....

4

expensive/cheap
(D/A) .....
(C) .....
(A) .....

5 Restaurant A, Excellent
Restaurant B, Not bad
Restaurant C, Good but not wonderful
Restaurant D, Awful

good/bad
(A/C) .....
(A) .....
(D) .....

90.2 Complete the sentences. Use a superlative (**the oldest** etc.).

1 This building is very old. It's the oldest building in the town.
2 It was a very happy day. It was ..... of my life.
3 It's a very good film. It's ..... I've ever seen.
4 She's a very popular singer. She's ..... in the country.
5 It was a very bad mistake. It was ..... I've ever made.
6 It's a very pretty village. It's ..... I've ever seen.
7 It was a very cold day. It was ..... of the year.
8 He's a very boring person. He's ..... I've ever met.

90.3 Write sentences with a superlative (**the longest** etc.). Choose from the boxes.

~~Sydney~~	Alaska	high	country	river	Africa	South America
Everest	the Nile	large	~~city~~	state	~~Australia~~	the world
Brazil	Jupiter	long	mountain	planet	the USA	the solar system

1 Sydney is the largest city in Australia.
2 Everest .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

Unit 91

enough

A

She isn't going to take a taxi.
She hasn't got **enough money**.

He can't reach the shelf.
He isn't **tall enough**.

B

enough + *noun* (**enough money** / **enough people** etc.)

- A: Is there **enough milk** in your coffee?
  B: Yes, thank you.
- We wanted to play football, but we didn't have **enough players**.
- Why don't you buy a car? You've got **enough money**. (*not* money enough)

enough *without a noun*

- I've got some money, but not **enough** to buy a car.
  (= I need more money to buy a car)
- A: Would you like some more to eat?
  B: No, thanks. I've had **enough**.
- You're always at home. You don't go out **enough**.

C

adjective + **enough** (**good enough** / **tall enough** etc.)

- A: Shall we sit outside?
  B: No, it isn't **warm enough**. (*not* enough warm)
- Can you hear the radio? Is it **loud enough** for you?
- Don't buy that coat. It's nice, but it isn't **long enough**. (= it's too short)

Remember:

enough + *noun* but *adjective* + **enough**

enough money	tall **enough**
enough time	good **enough**
enough people	old **enough**

D

We say:

enough for somebody/something	This pullover isn't **big enough for me**. I haven't got **enough money for a new car**.
enough to do something	I haven't got **enough money to buy** a new car. (*not* for buy) Is your English **good enough to have** a conversation? (*not* for have)
enough for somebody/something **to do** something	There aren't **enough chairs for everybody to sit** down.

to ... and **for** ... ➜ Unit 54 **too** ➜ Unit 92

Exercises

91.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **enough** + these words:

chairs ~~**money**~~ **paint** **wind**

1 She hasn't got enough money.
2 There aren't ..... .
3 She hasn't got ..... .
4 There isn't ..... .

91.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use these adjectives + **enough**:

big **long** **strong** ~~**tall**~~

1 He isn't tall enough.
2 The car ..... .
3 His legs aren't ..... .
4 He ..... .

91.3 Complete the sentences. Use **enough** with these words:

big **eat** ~~**loud**~~ ~~**milk**~~ **old** **practise** **space** **time** **tired**

1 'Is there enough milk in your coffee?' 'Yes, thank you.'
2 Can you hear the radio? Is it loud enough for you?
3 He can leave school if he wants – he's ..... .
4 When I visited New York last year, I didn't have ..... to see all the things I wanted to see.
5 This house isn't ..... for a large family.
6 Tina is very thin. She doesn't ..... .
7 My office is very small. There isn't ..... .
8 It's late, but I don't want to go to bed now. I'm not ..... .
9 Lisa isn't a very good tennis player because she doesn't ..... .

91.4 Complete the sentences. Use **enough** with these words:

1 We haven't got enough money to buy a new car. (money/buy)
2 This knife isn't ..... tomatoes. (sharp/cut)
3 The water wasn't ..... swimming. (warm/go)
4 Have we got ..... sandwiches? (bread/make)
5 We played well, but not ..... the game. (well/win)
6 I don't have ..... newspapers. (time/read)

too

A

His shoes are **too big** for him.

There is **too much** sugar in it.

B

too + *adjective / adverb* (**too big** / **too hard** etc.)

- Can you turn the radio down?
  It's **too loud**. (= louder than I want)
- I can't work. I'm **too tired**.
- I think you work **too hard**.

C

too much / **too many** = more than you want, more than is good:

- I don't like the weather here. There is **too much rain**. (= more rain than is good)
- Let's go to another restaurant. There are **too many people** here.
- Emily studies all the time. I think she studies **too much**.
- Traffic is a problem in this town. There are **too many cars**.

D

Compare **too** and **not enough**:

too big

- The hat is **too big** for him.
- The music is **too loud**. Can you turn it down, please?
- There's **too much sugar** in my coffee.
  (= more sugar than I want)
- I don't feel very well. I ate **too much**.

not big enough

- The hat is**n't big enough** for him. (= it's **too small**)
- The music is**n't loud enough**. Can you turn it up, please?
- There's **not enough sugar** in my coffee.
  (= I need more sugar)
- You're very thin. You don**'t** eat **enough**.

E

We say:

too ... **for** somebody/something	These shoes are **too big for me**. It's a small house – **too small for a large family**.
too ... **to do** something	I'm **too tired to go** out. (*not* for go out) It's **too cold to sit** outside.
too ... **for** somebody **to do** something	She speaks **too fast for me to understand**.

to ... and **for** ... ➜ Unit 54 **much/many** ➜ Unit 83 **enough** ➜ Unit 91

Exercises

92.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **too** + these words:

big **crowded** **fast** **heavy** ~~**loud**~~ **low**

1 The music is *too loud*.
2 The box is ..... .
3 The net is ..... .
4 She's driving ..... .
5 His jacket is ..... .
6 The museum is ..... .

92.2 Write **too** / **too much** / **too many** or **enough**.

1 You're always at home. You don't go out *enough* .
2 I don't like the weather here. There's *too much* rain.
3 I can't wait for them. I don't have ..... time.
4 There was nowhere to sit on the beach. There were ..... people.
5 You're always tired. I think you work ..... hard.
6 'Did you have ..... to eat?' 'Yes, thank you.'
7 You drink ..... coffee. It's not good for you.
8 You don't eat ..... vegetables. You should eat more.
9 I don't like the weather here. It's ..... cold.
10 Our team didn't play well. We made ..... mistakes.
11 'Would you like some milk in your tea?' 'Yes, but not ..... .'

92.3 Complete the sentences. Use **too** or **enough** with these words:

1 I couldn't work. I *was too tired* . (tired)
2 Can you turn the radio up, please? It *isn't loud enough* . (loud)
3 I don't want to walk home. It's ..... . (far)
4 Don't buy anything in that shop. It ..... . (expensive)
5 You can't put all your things in this bag. It ..... . (big)
6 I couldn't do the exercise. It ..... . (difficult)
7 Your work needs to be better. It ..... . (good)
8 I can't talk to you now. I ..... . (busy)
9 I thought the film was boring. It ..... . (long)

92.4 Complete the sentences. Use **too** (+ adjective) + **to** ... .

1 (I'm not going out / cold) It's *too cold to go out* .
2 (I'm not going to bed / early) It's ..... .
3 (they're not getting married / young) They're ..... .
4 (nobody goes out at night / dangerous)
It's ..... .
5 (don't phone Sue now / late)
It's ..... .
6 (I didn't say anything / surprised)
I was ..... .

Unit 93

He **speaks English** very well. (word order 1)

A verb + object

Sue **bought** **some new shoes** yesterday.
subject *verb* *object*

The *verb* (**bought**) and the *object* (**some new shoes**) are usually together. We say:

- Sue **bought some new shoes** yesterday. (*not* Sue bought yesterday some new shoes)

	verb + object	
He **speaks**	**English** very well.	(*not* He speaks very well English)
I **like**	**Italian food** very much.	(*not* I like very much ...)
Did you **watch**	**TV** all evening?	(*not* ... watch all evening TV)
Paul often **wears**	**a black hat**.	(*not* Paul wears often ...)
We **invited**	**a lot of people** to the party.	
I **opened**	**the door** slowly.	
Why do you always **make**	**the same mistake**?	
I'm going to **borrow**	**some money** from a friend.	

B where and when

We went **to a party** **last night**.
where? *when?*

Place (*where?*) is usually before time (*when?*). We say:

- We went **to a party last night**. (*not* We went last night to a party)

	place (*where?*) +	time (*when? how long? how often?*)	
Lisa walks	**to work**	**every day**.	(*not* ... every day to work)
Will you be	**at home**	**this evening**?	(*not* ... this evening at home)
I usually go	**to bed**	**early**.	(*not* ... early to bed)
We arrived	**at the airport**	**at 7 o'clock**.	
They've lived	**in the same house**	**for 20 years**.	
Joe's father has been	**in hospital**	**since June**.	

word order in questions ➜ Units 44–46 **always/usually/often** etc. ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

93.1 Right or wrong? Correct the sentences that are wrong.

1 Did you watch all evening TV? Did you watch TV all evening?
2 Sue bought some new shoes yesterday. OK
3 I like very much this picture. .....
4 Tom started last week his new job. .....
5 I want to speak English fluently. .....
6 Jessica bought for her friend a present. .....
7 I drink every day three cups of coffee. .....
8 Don't eat your dinner too quickly! .....
9 I borrowed from my brother fifty pounds. .....

93.2 Put the words in order.

1 (the door / opened / I / slowly) I opened the door slowly.
2 (a new phone / I / last week / got) I .....
3 (finished / Paul / quickly / his work) .....
4 (Emily / very well / French / doesn't speak) .....
5 (a lot of shopping / did / I / yesterday) .....
6 (London / do you know / well?) .....
7 (we / enjoyed / very much / the party) .....
8 (the problem / carefully / I / explained) .....
9 (we / at the airport / some friends / met) .....
10 (did you buy / in England / that jacket?) .....
11 (every day / do / the same thing / we) .....
12 (football / don't like / very much / I) .....

93.3 Put the words in order.

1 (to work / every day / walks / Lisa) Lisa walks to work every day.
2 (at the hotel / I / early / arrived) I .....
3 (goes / every year / to Italy / Julia) Julia .....
4 (we / since 1998 / here / have lived) We .....
5 (in London / Sue / in 1990 / was born)
Sue .....
6 (didn't go / yesterday / Paul / to work)
Paul .....
7 (to a wedding / last weekend / went / Helen)
Helen .....
8 (I / in bed / this morning / my breakfast / had)
I .....
9 (in September / Amy / to university / is going)
Amy .....
10 (I / a beautiful bird / this morning / in the garden / saw)
I .....
11 (many times / have been / my parents / to the United States)
My .....
12 (my umbrella / I / last night / left / in the restaurant)
I .....
13 (to the cinema / tomorrow evening / are you going?)
Are .....
14 (the children / I / took / this morning / to school)
I .....

Unit 94

always/usually/often etc. (word order 2)

A

These words (**always**/**never** etc.) go with the verb in the middle of a sentence:

always	**often**	**ever**	**rarely**	**also**	**already**	**all**
usually	**sometimes**	**never**	**seldom**	**just**	**still**	**both**

- My brother **never speaks** to me.
- She**'s always** late.
- Do you **often go** to restaurants?
- I **sometimes eat** too much. (*or* **Sometimes** I eat too much.)
- A: Don't forget to phone Laura.
  B: I**'ve already phoned** her.
- I've got three sisters. They**'re all** married.

B

Always/**never** etc. go *before* the verb:

	verb
always	**go**
often	**play**
never	**have**
etc.	etc.

- I **always drink** coffee in the morning.
  (*not* I drink always coffee)
- Helen **often goes** to London.
  (*not* Helen goes often)
- You **sometimes look** unhappy.
- They **usually have** dinner at 7 o'clock.
- We **rarely watch** TV. *or*
  We **seldom watch** TV.
- Richard is a good footballer. He **also plays** tennis and volleyball.
  (*not* He plays also tennis)
- I've got three sisters. They **all live** in London.

But **always**/**never** etc. go *after* **am**/**is**/**are**/**was**/**were**:

am	**always**
is	**often**
are	**never**
was	etc.
were	

- I **am always tired**.
  (*not* I always am tired)
- They **are never** at home during the day.
- It **is usually** very cold here in winter.
- When I was a child, I **was often** late for school.
- A: Where's Laura?
  B: She**'s still** in bed.
- I've got two brothers. They**'re both** doctors.

C

Always/**never** etc. go *between* two verbs (**have** ... **been** / **can** ... **find** etc.):

verb 1		*verb 2*
will	**always**	**go**
can	**often**	**find**
do	**never**	**remember**
etc.	etc.	etc.
have		**gone**
has		**been**
		etc.

- I **will always remember** you.
- It **doesn't often rain** here.
- **Do** you **usually go** to work by car?
- I **can never find** my keys.
- **Have** you **ever been** to Egypt?
- A: Where's Laura?
  B: She**'s just gone** out. (She's = She has)
- My friends **have all gone** to the cinema.

always/**never** + present simple ➜ Unit 5 **just**/**already** + present perfect ➜ Unit 16 **all** ➜ Units 80–81
both ➜ Unit 82 **still** ➜ Unit 95

Exercises

94.1 Read Paul's answers to the questions. Write sentences about Paul with **often/never** etc.

			Paul
1	Do you ever play tennis?	Yes, often.	Paul often plays tennis.
2	Do you get up early?	Yes, always.	He .....
3	Are you ever late for work?	No, never.	He .....
4	Do you ever get angry?	Sometimes.	.....
5	Do you ever go swimming?	Rarely.	.....
6	Are you at home in the evenings?	Yes, usually.	.....

94.2 Write these sentences with **never/always/usually** etc.

1 My brother speaks to me. (never) My brother never speaks to me.
2 Susan is polite. (always) Susan .....
3 I finish work at 5 o'clock. (usually) I .....
4 Sarah has started a new job. (just) Sarah .....
5 I go to bed before midnight. (rarely) .....
6 The bus isn't late. (usually) .....
7 I don't eat fish. (often) .....
8 I will forget what you said. (never) .....
9 Have you lost your passport? (ever) .....
10 Do you work in the same place? (still) .....
11 They stay in the same hotel. (always) .....
12 Jane doesn't work on Saturdays. (usually) .....
13 Is Tina here? (already) .....
14 What do you have for breakfast? (usually) .....
15 I can remember his name. (never) .....

94.3 Write sentences with **also**.

1 Do you play football? (tennis) Yes, and I also play tennis.
2 Do you speak Italian? (French) Yes, and I .....
3 Are you tired? (hungry) Yes, and .....
4 Have you been to England? (Ireland) Yes, ...
5 Did you buy any clothes? (some books) .....

94.4 Write sentences with **both** and **all**.

I live in London.
I play football.
I'm a student.
I've got a car.

I live in London.
I play football.
I'm a student.
I've got a car.

1 They both live in London.
They ..... football.
..... students.
..... cars.

I'm married. I was born in England.
I live in New York.

2 They ..... married.
They ..... England.
.....

still yet already

A still

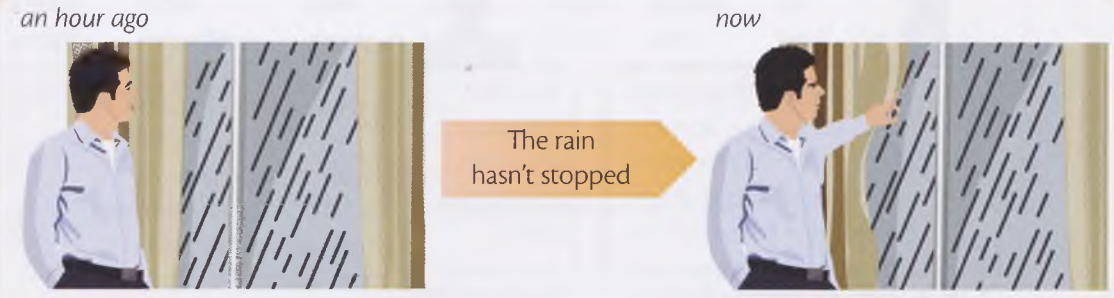

An hour ago it was raining.

It is **still** raining now.

still = something is the same as before:

- I had a lot to eat, but I'm **still** hungry. (= I was hungry before, and I'm hungry now)
- 'Did you sell your car?' 'No, I've **still** got it.'
- 'Do you **still** live in Barcelona?' 'No, I live in Madrid now.'

B yet

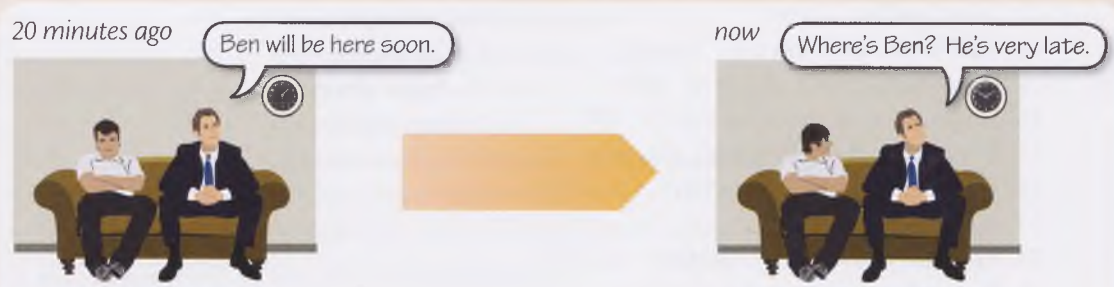

Twenty minutes ago they were waiting for Ben.

They are **still** waiting for Ben. Ben **hasn't come yet**.

yet = until now

We use **yet** in *negative* sentences (He **hasn't** come yet.) and in *questions* (**Has he** come yet?). **Yet** is usually at the end of a sentence:

- A: Where's Emma?
  B: She **isn't** here **yet**. (= she will be here, but until now she hasn't come)
- A: What are you doing this evening?
  B: I **don't** know **yet**. (= I will know later, but I don't know at the moment)
- A: Are you ready to go **yet**?
  B: **Not yet**. In a minute. (= I will be ready, but I'm not ready at the moment)
- A: Have you finished with the newspaper **yet**?
  B: No, I'm still reading it.

Compare **yet** and **still**:

- She hasn't gone **yet**. = She's **still** here. (*not* she is yet here)
- I haven't finished eating **yet**. = I'm **still** eating.

C already

already = earlier than expected:

- 'What time is Joe coming?' 'He's **already** here.' (= earlier than we expected)
- 'I'm going to tell you what happened.' 'That's not necessary. I **already** know.'
- Sarah isn't coming to the cinema with us. She has **already** seen the film.

already/yet + present perfect ➜ Unit 16 word order (**still/already**) ➜ Unit 94

Exercises

95.1 You meet Tina. The last time you saw her was two years ago. You ask her some questions with **still**.

Tina – two years ago

1 I play the piano.
2 I live in Clare Street.
3 I'm a student.
4 I've got a motorbike.
5 I go to the cinema a lot.
6 I want to be a teacher.

1 Do you still play the piano?
2 Do you .....
3 Are .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

95.2 Write three sentences for each situation. Look at the example carefully.

before *now*

1 → (before) They were waiting for the bus.
(still) They are still waiting.
(yet) The bus hasn't come yet.

2 I'm looking for a job. → (before) He was .....
(still) He .....
(yet) ..... yet.

3 07 : 00 → 07 : 30 (before) She ..... asleep.
(still) .....
(yet) .....

4 dinner → dinner (before) They .....
(still) .....
(yet) .....

95.3 Write questions with **yet**.

1 You and Sue are going out together. You are waiting for her to get ready. Perhaps she is ready now.
You ask her: Are you ready yet?
2 You are waiting for Helen to arrive. She wasn't here ten minutes ago. Perhaps she is here now.
You ask somebody: ..... Helen .....
3 Anna did an exam and is waiting for the results. Perhaps she has her results now.
You ask her: ..... you .....
4 A few days ago you spoke to Tom. He wasn't sure where to go on holiday. Perhaps he has decided now.
You ask him: .....

95.4 Complete the sentences. Use **already**.

1 What time is Joe coming? — He's already ..... here.
2 Do they want to see the film? — No, they've already seen ..... it.
3 I have to see Julia before she goes. — It's too late. She ..... .
4 Do you need a pen? — No, thanks. I ..... one.
5 Shall I pay the bill? — No, it's OK. I ..... .
6 Shall I tell Paul about the meeting? — No, he ..... . I told him.

Give me that book! Give it to me!

A

give lend pass send show

After these verbs (**give**/**lend** etc.), there are two possible structures:

give something to somebody
- I gave **the keys to Sarah**.

give somebody something
- I gave **Sarah the keys**.

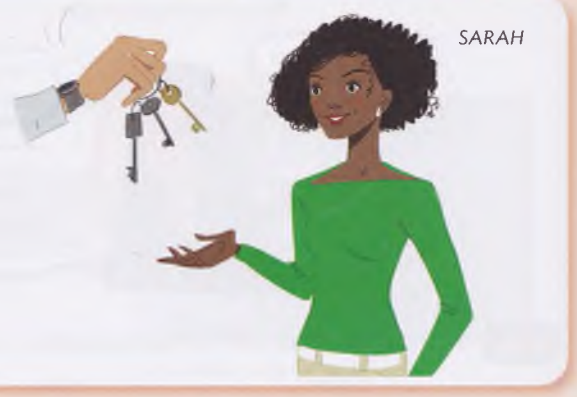

B

give **something to somebody**

		something	**to** somebody
That's my book.	**Give**	it	**to** me.
These are Sue's keys. Can you	**give**	them	**to** her?
Can you	**give**	these flowers	**to** your mother?
I	**lent**	my car	**to** a friend of mine.
Did you	**send**	the money	**to** Kate?
We've seen these photos. You	**showed**	them	**to** us.

C

give somebody something

		somebody	something
	Give	me	that book. It's mine.
Tom	**gave**	his mother	some flowers.
I	**lent**	Joe	some money.
How much money did you	**lend**	him?	
I	**sent**	you	an email. Did you get it?
Nicola	**showed**	us	her holiday photos.
Can you	**pass**	me	the salt, please?

You can also say '**buy**/**get** somebody something':
- I **bought my mother** some flowers. (= I bought some flowers **for** my mother.)
- I'm going to the shop. Can I **get you** anything? (= get anything for you)

D

You can say:
- I **gave** the keys **to Sarah**.

and I **gave Sarah** the keys.
(*but not* I gave to Sarah the keys)

- That's my book. Can you **give** it **to me**?

and Can you **give me** that book?
(*but not* Can you give to me that book?)

We prefer the first structure (**give** something **to** somebody) with **it** or **them**:
- I gave **it to her**. (*not* I gave her it)
- Here are the keys. Give **them to your father**. (*not* Give your father them)

it/**him**/**them** etc. → Unit 59

Exercises

96.1 Mark had some things that he didn't want. He gave them to different people.

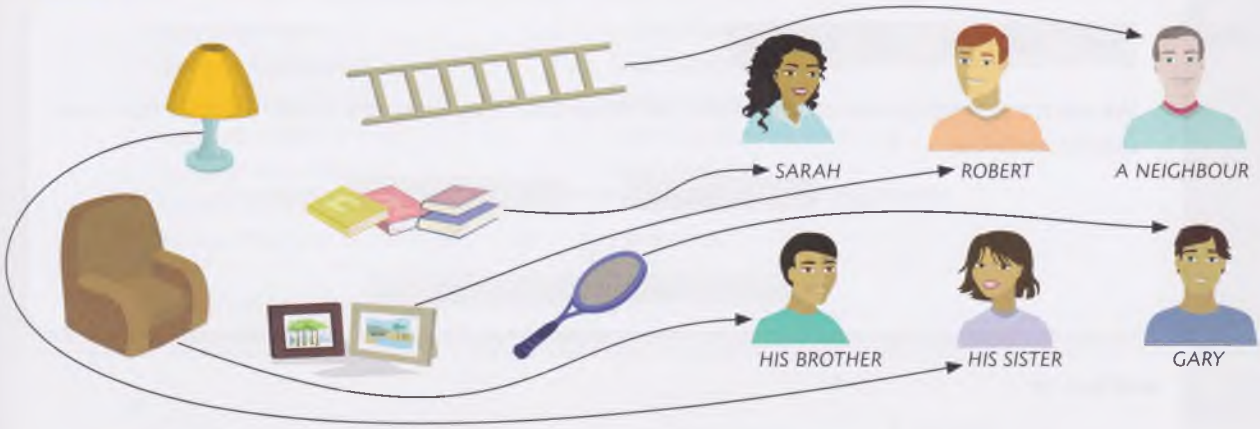

Write sentences beginning **He gave ...** .

1 What did Mark do with the armchair? He gave it to his brother.
2 What did he do with the tennis racket? He gave .....
3 What happened to the books? He .....
4 What about the lamp? .....
5 What did he do with the pictures? .....
6 And the ladder? .....

96.2 You gave presents to your friends. You decided to give them the things in the pictures. Write a sentence for each person.

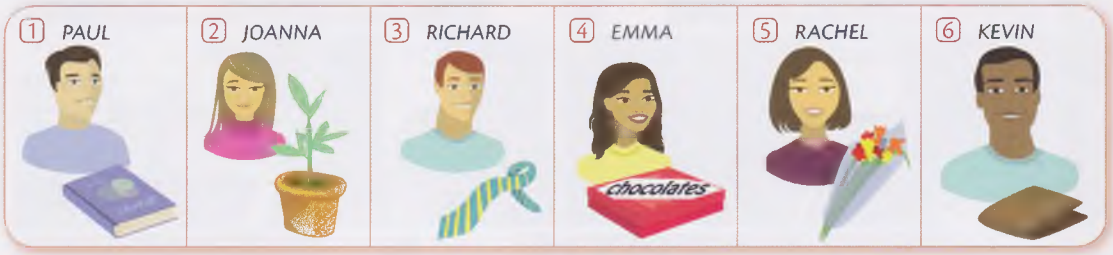

1 I gave Paul a book.
2 I gave .....
3 I .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

96.3 Write questions beginning **Can you give me ... ? / Can you pass me ... ?** etc.

1 (you want the salt) (pass) Can you pass me the salt?
2 (you need an umbrella) (lend) Can you .....
3 (you want my address) (give) Can ..... your .....
4 (you need twenty pounds) (lend) .....
5 (you want more information) (send) .....
6 (you want to see the letter) (show) .....

96.4 Which is right?

1 ~~I gave to Sarah the keys.~~ / I gave Sarah the keys. (I gave Sarah the keys *is right*)
2 I'll lend to you some money if you want. / I'll lend you some money if you want.
3 Did you send the bill me? / Did you send the bill to me?
4 I want to buy for you a present. / I want to buy you a present.
5 Can you pass to me the sugar, please? / Can you pass me the sugar, please?
6 This is Lisa's bag. Can you give it to her? / Can you give her it?
7 I showed to the policeman my identity card. / I showed the policeman my identity card.

Unit 97

and but or so because

A

and but or so because

We use these words (*conjunctions*) to join two sentences. They make one longer sentence from two shorter sentences:

sentence A The car stopped. — The driver got out. *sentence B*

The car stopped **and** the driver got out.

B

and/but/or

sentence A		*sentence B*
We stayed at home	**and**	(we)* watched television.
My sister is married	**and**	(she)* lives in London.
He doesn't like her,	**and**	she doesn't like him.
I bought a sandwich,	**but**	I didn't eat it.
It's a nice house,	**but**	it doesn't have a garden.
Do you want to go out,	**or**	are you too tired?

* It is not necessary to repeat 'we' and 'she'.

In lists, we use commas (,). We use **and** before the last thing:

- I got home, had something to eat, sat down in an armchair **and** fell asleep.
- Karen is at work, Sue has gone shopping **and** Chris is playing football.

C

so (the result of something)

sentence A		*sentence B*
It was very hot,	**so**	I opened the window.
Joe does a lot of sport,	**so**	he's very fit.
They don't like travelling,	**so**	they haven't been to many places.

D

because (the reason for something)

sentence A		*sentence B*
I opened the window	**because**	it was very hot.
Joe can't come to the party	**because**	he's going away.
Lisa is hungry	**because**	she didn't have breakfast.

Because is also possible at the beginning:

- **Because it was very hot**, I opened the window.

E

In these examples there is more than one conjunction:

- It was late **and** I was tired, **so** I went to bed.
- I always enjoy visiting London, **but** I wouldn't like to live there **because** it's too big.

when/while/before etc. ➜ Unit 98

Exercises

97.1 Write sentences. Choose from the boxes and use **and/but/or**.

~~I stayed at home.~~	I didn't have your number.
~~I bought a sandwich.~~	Shall I wait here?
I went to the window.	~~I didn't eat it.~~
I wanted to phone you.	I went by bus this morning.
I jumped into the river.	~~I watched TV.~~
I usually drive to work.	I swam to the other side.
Do you want me to come with you?	I looked out.

1 I stayed at home and watched TV.
2 I bought a sandwich, but I didn't eat it.
3 I .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....

97.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use **and/but/so/because**.

1 It was very hot, so he opened the window.
2 They couldn't play tennis .....
3 They went to the museum, ...
4 Ben wasn't hungry, ...
5 Helen was late .....
6 Sue said .....

97.3 Write sentences about what you did yesterday. Use **and/but** etc.

1 (and) In the evening I stayed at home and studied.
2 (because) I went to bed very early because I was tired.
3 (but) .....
4 (and) .....
5 (so) .....
6 (because) .....

Unit 98

When ...

A

When I went out, it was raining.

This sentence has two parts:

when I went out + **it was raining**

You can say:

- **When I went out**, it was raining. *or*
  It was raining when I went out.

We write a comma (,) if **When** ... is at the beginning:

- **When** you're tired, don't drive.
  Don't drive **when** you're tired.
- Helen was 25 **when** she got married.
  When Helen got married, she was 25.

We do the same in sentences with **before/while/after**:

- Always look both ways **before** you cross the road.
  Before you cross the road, always look both ways.
- **While** I was waiting for the bus, it began to rain.
  It began to rain **while** I was waiting for the bus.
- He never played football again **after** he broke his leg.
  After he broke his leg, he never played football again.

B

When I am ... / **When I go** ... etc.

Next week Sarah is going to New York.
She has a friend, Lisa, who lives in New York,
but Lisa is also going away – to Mexico.
So they won't see each other in New York.

Lisa **will be** in Mexico **when** Sarah **is** in New York.

The time is *future* (**next week**) but we say:
... **when** Sarah **is** in New York.
(*not* when Sarah will be)

We use the *present* (**I am** / **I go** etc.) with a *future meaning* after **when**:

- **When** I **get** home this evening, I'm going to have a shower.
  (*not* When I will get home)
- I can't talk to you now. I'll talk to you later **when** I **have** more time.

We do the same after **before/while/after/until**:

- Please close the window **before** you **go** out.
  (*not* before you will go)
- Rachel is going to stay in our flat **while** we **are** away.
  (*not* while we will be)
- I'll wait here **until** you **come** back.
  (*not* until you will come back)

if and **when** → Unit 99 **until** → Unit 104 **before/while/after** → Unit 105

Exercises

98.1 Write sentences beginning with **when**. Choose from the boxes.

When +		+
~~I went out~~	I turned off the TV	
I'm tired	I always go to the same place	
I knocked on the door	there were no rooms	
I go on holiday	~~it was raining~~	
the programme ended	there was no answer	
I got to the hotel	I like to watch TV	

1 When I went out, it was raining.
2 .....
3 .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....

98.2 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

somebody broke into the house | **before they came here** | **when they heard the news**
~~before they crossed the road~~ | **while they were away** | **they didn't believe me**
they went to live in New Zealand

1 They looked both ways before they crossed the road.
2 They were very surprised .....
3 After they got married, ...
4 Their house was damaged in a storm .....
5 Where did they live .....?
6 While we were asleep, ...
7 When I told them what happened, ...

98.3 Which is right?

1 ~~I stay~~ / I'll stay here until you come / ~~you'll come~~ back. (I'll stay *and* you come *are right*)
2 I'm going to bed when I finish / I'll finish my work.
3 We must do something before it's / it will be too late.
4 Helen is going away soon. I'm / I'll be very sad when she leaves / she'll leave.
5 Don't go out yet. Wait until the rain stops / will stop.
6 We come / We'll come and visit you when we're / we'll be in England again.
7 When I come to see you tomorrow, I bring / I'll bring our holiday photos.
8 I'm going to Paris next week. I hope to see some friends of mine while I'm / I'll be there.
9 Let's go out for a walk before it gets / it will get dark.
10 I'm not ready yet. I tell / I'll tell you when I'm / I'll be ready.

98.4 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 Can you close the window before you go out.....?
2 What are you going to do when .....?
3 When I have enough money, ...
4 I'll wait for you while .....
5 When I start my new job, ...
6 Will you be here when .....?

Unit 99

If we go ... If you see ... etc.

A

If can be at the beginning of a sentence or in the middle:

If at the beginning

If we go by bus,	it will be cheaper.
If you don't hurry,	you'll miss the train.
If you're hungry,	have something to eat.
If the phone rings,	can you answer it, please?

if in the middle

It will be cheaper	**if** we go by bus.
You'll miss the train	**if** you don't hurry.
I'm going to the concert	**if** I can get a ticket.
Is it OK	**if** I use your phone?

In conversation, we often use the **if**-part of the sentence alone:

- 'Are you going to the concert?' 'Yes, **if I can get a ticket**.'

B

If you see Ann tomorrow ... etc.

After **if**, we use the present (*not* will). We say '**if** you **see** ...' (*not* if you will see):

- **If** you **see** Ann tomorrow, can you ask her to call me?
- **If** I'**m** late this evening, don't wait for me. (*not* if I will be)
- What shall we do **if** it **rains**? (*not* if it will rain)
- **If** I **don't feel** well tomorrow, I'll stay at home.

C

if and **when**

If I go out = it is possible that I will go out, but I'm not sure:

- A: Are you going out later?
- B: Maybe. **If I go out**, I'll close the windows.

When I go out = I'm going out (for sure):

- A: Are you going out later?
- B: Yes, I am. **When I go out**, I'll close the windows.

Compare **when** and **if**:

- **When** I get home this evening, I'm going to have a shower.
- **If** I'm late this evening, don't wait for me. (*not* When I'm late)
- We're going to play tennis **if** it doesn't rain. (*not* when it doesn't rain)

when ➜ Unit 98 **if I had / if we went** ... etc. ➜ Unit 100

Exercises

99.1 Write sentences beginning with **if**. Choose from the boxes.

If +		+	
	~~you don't hurry~~		we can have lunch now
	you pass the exam		you can have them
	you fail the exam		I can lend you some
	you don't want this magazine		you'll get a certificate
	you want those pictures		~~you'll be late~~
	you're busy now		I'll throw it away
	you're hungry		we can talk later
	you need money		you can do it again

1 If you don't hurry, you'll be late.
2 If you pass .....
3 If .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

99.2 Which is right?

1 If I'm / ~~I'll be~~ late this evening, don't wait for me. (I'm *is right*)
2 Will you call me if I give / I'll give you my phone number?
3 If there is / will be a fire, the alarm will ring.
4 If I don't see you tomorrow morning, I call / I'll call you in the evening.
5 I'm / I'll be surprised if Michael and Jane get / will get married.
6 Do you go / Will you go to the party if they invite / they'll invite you?

99.3 Use your own ideas to complete these sentences.

1 I'm going to the concert if I can get a ticket.
2 If you don't hurry, you'll miss the train.
3 I don't want to disturb you if .....
4 If you go to bed early tonight, ...
5 Turn the TV off if .....
6 Tina won't pass her exams if .....
7 If I have time tomorrow, ...
8 We can go to the beach tomorrow if .....
9 I'll be surprised if .....

99.4 Write **if** or **when**.

1 If I'm late this evening, don't wait for me.
2 I'm going to do some shopping now. ..... I come back, we can have lunch.
3 I'm thinking of going to see Tom. ..... I go, will you come with me?
4 ..... you don't want to go out tonight, we can stay at home.
5 Is it OK ..... I close the window?
6 John is still at school. ..... he leaves school, he wants to go to college.
7 Shall we have a picnic tomorrow ..... the weather is good?
8 We're going to Madrid next week. We don't have anywhere to stay – we hope to find a hotel ..... we get there. I don't know what we'll do ..... we don't find a room.

If I had ... If we went ... etc.

A

Dan likes fast cars, but he doesn't have one. He doesn't have enough money.

If he **had** the money, he **would buy** a fast car.

Usually **had** is *past*, but in this sentence **had** is *not* past. **If** he **had** the money = if he had the money *now* (but he doesn't have it).

If	I you it they	**had** / **knew** / **lived** (etc.) ... , **didn't have** / **didn't know** (etc.) ... , **were** ... , **could** ... ,	I you it they	**would** ... **wouldn't** ... **could** ... **couldn't** ...

You can say:

- **If he had** the money, he would buy a car.

or He would buy a car **if he had** the money.

I'd / **she'd** / **they'd** etc. = I **would** / she **would** / they **would** etc. :

- I don't know the answer. **If** I **knew** the answer, I**'d tell** you.
- It's raining, so we're not going out. We**'d get** wet **if** we **went** out.
- Jane lives in a city. She likes cities. She **wouldn't be** happy **if** she **lived** in the country.
- **If** you **didn't have** a job, what **would** you **do**? (but you *have* a job)
- I'm sorry I can't help you. I**'d help** you **if** I **could**. (but I *can't*)
- **If** we **had** a car, we **could travel** more. (but we *don't* have a car, so we *can't* travel much)

B

If (I) **was/were** ...

You can say: **if** I/he/she/it **was** *or*
if I/he/she/it **were**

- It's not a very nice place. I wouldn't go there **if I were you**. (*or* ... **if I was** you)
- It would be nice **if the weather was** better. (*or* ... **if the weather were** better)
- What would Tom do **if he were** here? (*or* ... **if he was** here)

C

Compare:

if I have / **if it is** etc.

- I must go and see Helen. **If** I **have** time, I **will go** today. (= maybe I'll have time, so maybe I'll go)
- I like that jacket. I**'ll buy** it **if** it **isn't** too expensive. (= maybe it will not be too expensive)
- I**'ll help** you **if** I **can**. (= maybe I can)

if I had / **if it was** etc.

- I must go and see Helen. **If** I **had** time, I **would go** today. (= I don't have time today, so I will not go)
- I like this jacket, but it's very expensive. I**'d buy** it **if** it **wasn't** so expensive. (= it is expensive, so I'm not going to buy it)
- I**'d help** you **if** I **could**, but I can't.

if we go / **if I have** / **if I can** etc. ➜ Unit 99

Exercises

100.1 Complete the sentences.

1 I don't know the answer. If I ...knew... the answer, I'd tell you.
2 I have a car. I couldn't travel very much if I ...didn't have... a car.
3 I don't want to go out. If I ..... to go out, I'd go.
4 We don't have a key. If we ..... a key, we could get into the house.
5 I'm not hungry. I would have something to eat if I ..... hungry.
6 Sue enjoys her work. She wouldn't do it if she ..... it.
7 He can't speak any foreign languages. If he ..... speak a foreign language, perhaps he would get a better job.
8 You don't try hard enough. If you ..... harder, you would have more success.
9 I have a lot to do today. If I ..... so much to do, we could go out.

100.2 Put the verb in the correct form.

1 If ...he had... the money, he would buy a fast car. (he/have)
2 Jane likes living in a city. ...She wouldn't be... happy if she lived in the country. (she/not/be)
3 If I wanted to learn Italian, ... to Italy. (I go)
4 I haven't told Helen what happened. She'd be angry if ..... . (she/know)
5 If ..... a map, I could show you where I live. (we/have)
6 What would you do if ..... a lot of money? (you/win)
7 It's not a very good hotel. ..... there if I were you. (I/not/stay)
8 If ..... nearer London, we would go there more often. (we/live)
9 It's a shame you have to go now. ..... nice if you had more time. (it/be)
10 I'm not going to take the job. I'd take it if ..... better. (the salary/be)
11 I don't know anything about cars. If the car broke down, ... what to do. (I/not/know)
12 If you could change one thing in the world, what ..... ? (you/change)

100.3 Complete the sentences. Choose from the box and put the verb in the correct form.

we (have) a bigger house	**~~it (be) a bit cheaper~~**
we (buy) a bigger house	**the air (be) cleaner**
we (have) some pictures on the wall	**I (watch) it**
every day (be) the same	**I (be) bored**

1 I'd buy that jacket if ...it was a bit cheaper... .
2 If there was a good film on TV tonight, ...
3 This room would be nicer if ..... .
4 If there wasn't so much traffic, ...
5 Life would be boring if ..... .
6 If I had nothing to do, ...
7 We could invite all our friends to stay if ..... .
8 If we had more money, ...

100.4 Complete the sentences. Use your own ideas.

1 I'd be happier if ...I could get a better job... .
2 If I could go anywhere in the world, ...
3 I wouldn't be very happy if ..... .
4 I'd buy ..... if ..... .
5 If I saw an accident in the street, ...
6 The world would be a better place if ..... .

Unit 101

a person **who** ... a thing **that/which** ... (relative clauses 1)

A

I met a woman. **She** can speak six languages.
2 sentences

she → who

1 sentence
I met **a woman who** can speak six languages.

JACK

Jack was wearing a hat. **It** was too big for him.
2 sentences

it → that *or* **which**

1 sentence
Jack was wearing **a hat that** was too big for him.
or
Jack was wearing **a hat which** was too big for him.

B

who is for people (not things):

A thief is **a person**	**who** steals things.	
Do you know **anybody**	**who** can play the piano?	
The man	**who** phoned	didn't give his name.
The people	**who** work in the office	are very friendly.

C

that is for things or people:

An airplane is **a machine**	**that** flies.	
Emma lives in **a house**	**that** is 400 years old.	
The people	**that** work in the office	are very friendly.

You can use **that** for people, but **who** is more usual.

D

which is for things (not people):

An airplane is **a machine**	**which** flies. (*not* a machine who ...)
Emma lives in **a house**	**which** is 400 years old.

Do not use **which** for people:

- Do you remember **the woman who** was playing the piano at the party? (*not* the woman which ...)

who and **which** in questions ➜ **Units 45, 47** **the people we met** (relative clauses 2) ➜ **Unit 102**

Exercises

101.1 Choose from the boxes and write sentences: **A ... is a person who ...** . Use a dictionary if necessary.

~~a thief~~	a dentist
a butcher	a fool
a musician	a genius
a patient	a liar

doesn't tell the truth	is ill in hospital
takes care of your teeth	~~steals things~~
is very intelligent	does stupid things
plays a musical instrument	sells meat

1 A thief is a person who steals things.
2 A butcher is a person .....
3 A musician .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

101.2 Make one sentence from two.

1 (A man phoned. He didn't give his name.)
The man who phoned didn't give his name.

2 (A woman opened the door. She was wearing a yellow dress.)
The woman ..... a yellow dress.

3 (Some students took the exam. Most of them passed.)
Most of the students .....

4 (A policeman stopped our car. He wasn't very friendly.)
The .....

101.3 Write **who** or **which**.

1 I met a woman ....who.... can speak six languages.
2 What's the name of the man ..... has just started work in your office?
3 What's the name of the river ..... flows through the town?
4 Where is the picture ..... was hanging on the wall?
5 Do you know anybody ..... wants to buy a car?
6 You always ask questions ..... are difficult to answer.
7 I have a friend ..... is very good at repairing cars.
8 I think everybody ..... went to the party enjoyed it very much.
9 Why does he always wear clothes ..... are too small for him?

101.4 Right or wrong? Correct the mistakes.

1 A thief is a person which steals things. ....a person who steals....
2 An airplane is a machine that flies. ....OK....
3 A coffee maker is a machine who makes coffee. .....
4 What's happened to the money that was on the table? .....
5 I don't like people which never stop talking. .....
6 I know somebody that can help you. .....
7 I know somebody who works in that shop. .....
8 Correct the sentences who are wrong. .....
9 My neighbour bought a car who cost £40,000 .....

Unit 102

the people **we met** the hotel **you stayed at** (relative clauses 2)

A

The man is carrying a bag.
It's very heavy. } *2 sentences*

The bag (**that**) **he is carrying** is very heavy.
1 sentence

KATE

Kate won some money.
What is she going to do with it? } *2 sentences*

What is Kate going to do with **the money** (**that**) **she won**?
1 sentence

You can say:

- The bag **that** he is carrying ... *or* The bag he is carrying ... (with or without **that**)
- ... the money **that** Kate won? *or* ... the money Kate won?

You do not need **that/who/which** when it is the *object*:

subject	*verb*	*object*	
The man	was carrying	a bag	→ **the bag** (that) **the man was carrying**
Kate	won	some money	→ **the money** (that) **Kate won**
You	wanted	some books	→ **the books** (that) **you wanted**
We	met	some people	→ **the people** (who) **we met**

- Did you find **the books you wanted**? (*or* ... the books **that** you wanted?)
- **The people we met** were very friendly. (*or* The people **who** we met ...)
- **Everything I said** was true. (*or* Everything **that** I said ...)

We say:

- The film **we saw** was very good. (*not* The film we saw it was ...)

B

Sometimes there is a *preposition* (**to/in/at** etc.) after the verb:

Eve **is talking to** a man.	→	Do you know **the man Eve is talking to**?
We **stayed at** a hotel.	→	**The hotel we stayed at** was near the station.
I **told** you **about** some books.	→	These are **the books I told you about**.

We say:

... the books **I told you about**. (*not* the books I told you about them)

You can say '(a place) **where** ...':

- **The hotel where** we stayed was near the station. (= The hotel we stayed at ...)

C

You must use **who/that/which** when it is the *subject* (→ Unit 101):

- I met a woman **who can speak** six languages. (**who** is the subject)
- Jack was wearing a hat **that was** too big for him. (**that** is the subject)

a person who ... , **a thing that/which** ... (relative clauses 1) ➜ Unit 101

Exercises

102.1 Make one sentence from two.

1 (Helen took some pictures. Have you seen them?)
Have you seen the pictures Helen took?
2 (You gave me a pen. I've lost it.)
I've lost the .....
3 (Sue is wearing a jacket. I like it.)
I like the .....
4 (I gave you some flowers. Where are they?)
Where are the ..... ?
5 (He told us a story. I didn't believe it.)
I .....
6 (You bought some oranges. How much were they?)
How ..... ?

102.2 Make one sentence from two.

1 (I was carrying a bag. It was very heavy.)
The bag I was carrying was very heavy.
2 (You cooked a meal. It was excellent.)
The .....
3 (I'm wearing shoes. They aren't very comfortable.)
The shoes .....
4 (We invited some people to dinner. They didn't come.)
The .....

102.3 You ask your friend some questions. Complete the sentences.

1 Your friend stayed at a hotel. You ask:
What's the name of the hotel you stayed at ..... ?
2 Your friend was talking to some people. You ask:
Who are the people ..... ?
3 Your friend was looking for some keys. You ask:
Did you find the ..... ?
4 Your friend is going to a party. You ask:
Where is the ..... ?
5 Your friend was talking about a film. You ask:
What's the name of ..... ?
6 Your friend is listening to some music. You ask:
What's that ..... ?
7 Your friend applied for a job. You ask:
Did you get ..... ?

102.4 Complete the questions. Use **where.**

1 John stayed at a hotel. You ask him:
Did you like the hotel where you stayed ..... ?
2 Sue had dinner in a restaurant. You ask her:
What's the name of the restaurant ..... ?
3 Sarah lives in a village. You ask her:
How big is the ..... ?
4 Richard works in a factory. You ask him:
Where exactly is ..... ?

Unit 103

at 8 o'clock on Monday in April

A

at

at	8 o'clock 10.30 midnight etc.

- I start work **at 8 o'clock**.
- The shops close **at 5.30**.

on

on	Sunday(s) / Monday(s) etc. 25 April / 6 June etc. New Year's Day etc.

- Bye! I'll see you **on Friday**.
- What do you usually do **on Sundays**?
- The concert is **on 22 November**.

in

in	April/June etc. 2013/1988 etc. summer/spring etc.

- I'm going on holiday **in October**.
- Emma was born **in 1995**.
- The park is beautiful **in spring**.

B

We say:

at the weekend
at night
at Christmas
at the end of ...
at the moment

- Are you going away **at the weekend**?
- I can't sleep **at night**.
- Where will you be **at Christmas**? (*but* **on** Christmas **Day**)
- I'm going on holiday **at the end of** October.
- Are you busy **at the moment**?

C

in the morning / in the afternoon / in the evening

- I always feel good **in the morning**.
- Do you often go out **in the evening**?

but

on Monday morning / on Tuesday afternoon / on Friday evening / on Saturday night etc. :

- I'm meeting Jackie **on Monday morning**.
- Are you doing anything **on Saturday night**?

D

We do *not* use **at/on/in** before:

this ... (**this morning** / **this week** etc.)
last ... (**last August** / **last week** etc.)
next ... (**next Monday** / **next week** etc.)
every ... (**every day** / **every week** etc.)

- Are you going out **this evening**?
- We go on holiday **every summer**. **Last summer** we went to Canada.
- I'm leaving **next Monday**. (*not* on next Monday)

E

in five minutes / in a few days / in six weeks / in two years etc.

now **in five minutes**

- Hurry! The train leaves **in five minutes**. (= it leaves five minutes from now)
- Bye! I'll see you **in a few days**. (= a few days from now)

in/on/at (places) ➜ **Units 106–107**

Exercises

103.1 Write **at/on/in**.

1 ...on... 6 June
2 ...in... the evening
3 ..... half past two
4 ..... Wednesday
5 2007
6 ..... September
7 ..... 24 September
8 ..... Thursday
9 ..... 11.45
10 ..... Christmas Day
11 ..... Christmas
12 ..... the morning
13 ..... Friday morning
14 ..... Saturday night
15 ..... night
16 ..... the end of the day
17 ..... the weekend
18 ..... winter

103.2 Write **at/on/in**.

1 Bye! See you ...on... Friday.
2 Where were you ..... 28 February?
3 I got up ..... 8 o'clock this morning.
4 I like getting up early ..... the morning.
5 My sister got married ..... May.
6 Jessica and I first met ..... 2006.
7 Did you go out ..... Tuesday?
8 Did you go out ..... Tuesday evening?
9 Do you often go out ..... the evening?
10 Let's meet ..... 7.30 tomorrow evening.
11 I often go away ..... the weekend.
12 I'm starting my new job ..... 3 July.
13 We often go to the beach ..... summer.
14 George isn't here ..... the moment.
15 Jane's birthday is ..... December.
16 Do you work ..... Saturdays?
17 The company started ..... 1999.
18 I like to look at the stars ..... night.
19 I'll send you the money ..... the end of the month.

103.3 Look at Lisa's diary for next week and complete the sentences.

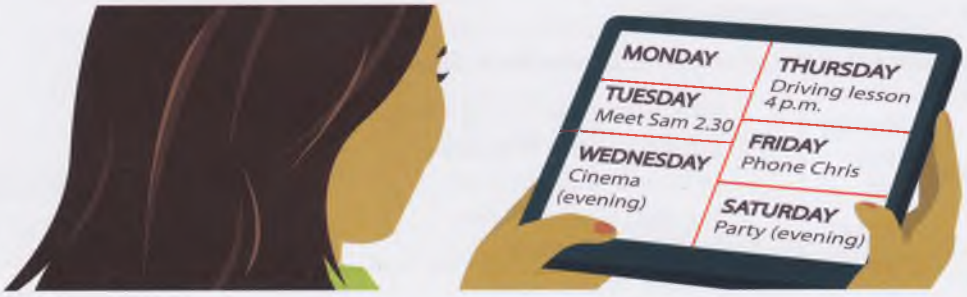

1 Lisa is going to the cinema ...on Wednesday evening...
2 She has to phone Chris .....
3 She isn't doing anything special .....
4 She's got a driving lesson .....
5 She's going to a party .....
6 She's meeting Sam .....

103.4 Write sentences with **in ...** .

1 It's 8.25 now. The train leaves at 8.30. ...The train leaves in five minutes.
2 It's Monday today. I'll call you on Thursday. I'll ..... days.
3 Today is 14 June. My exam is on 28 June. My .....
4 It's 3 o'clock now. Tom will be here at 3.30. Tom .....

103.5 Write **at/on/in** if necessary. Sometimes the sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 I'm going ...on... Friday.
2 I'm going ...–... next Friday. *(already complete)*
3 I always feel tired ..... the evening.
4 Will you be at home ..... this evening?
5 We went to France ..... last summer.
6 Laura was born ..... 1997.
7 What are you doing ..... the weekend?
8 I phone Robert ..... every Sunday.
9 Shall we play tennis ..... next Sunday?
10 I can't go to the party ..... Sunday.
11 I'm going out. I'll be back ..... an hour.
12 I don't often go out ..... night.

Unit 104

from ... to until since for

A

from ... **to** ...

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **to** 2010.
- I work **from** Monday **to** Friday.

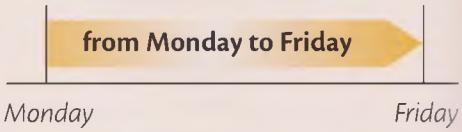

You can also say **from** ... **until** ... :

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **until** 2010.

B

until ...

until	Friday December 3 o'clock I come back

- They're going away tomorrow.
  They'll be away **until Friday**.
- I went to bed early, but I wasn't tired.
  I read a book **until 3 o'clock**.
- Wait here **until I come back**.

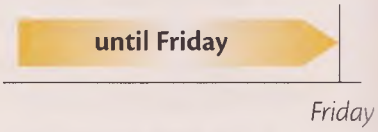

You can also say **till** (= **until**):

- Wait here **till** I come back.

Compare:

- '**How long** will you be away?' '**Until** Monday.'
- '**When** are you coming back?' '**On** Monday.'

C

since + a time in the past (to now)

We use **since** after the *present perfect* (**have been** / **have done** etc.):

since	Monday 1998 2.30 I arrived

- Joe is in hospital. He has been in hospital **since Monday**.
  (= from Monday to now)
- Sue and Dave have been married **since 1998**.
  (= from 1998 to now)
- It has been raining **since I arrived**.

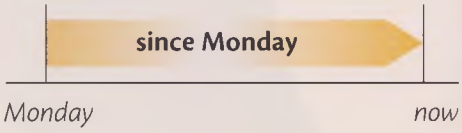

Compare:

- We lived in Japan **from** 2003 **to** 2010.
  We lived in Japan **until** 2010.
- Now we live in Canada. We came to Canada **in** 2010.
  We have lived in Canada **since** 2010. (= from 2010 until now)

We use **for** (*not* **since**) + a period of time (**three days** / **ten years** etc.):

- Joe has been in hospital **for three days**. (*not* since three days)

D

for + a period of time

for	three days ten years five minutes a long time

- Gary stayed with us **for three days**.
- I'm going away **for a few weeks**.
- I'm going away **for the weekend**.
- They've been married **for ten years**.

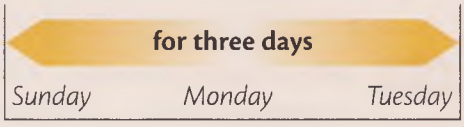

present perfect + **for/since** ➜ Units 18–19 present perfect (**I have lived**) and past simple (**I lived**) ➜ Unit 20

Exercises

104.1 Read the information and complete the sentences. Use **from ... to / until / since.**

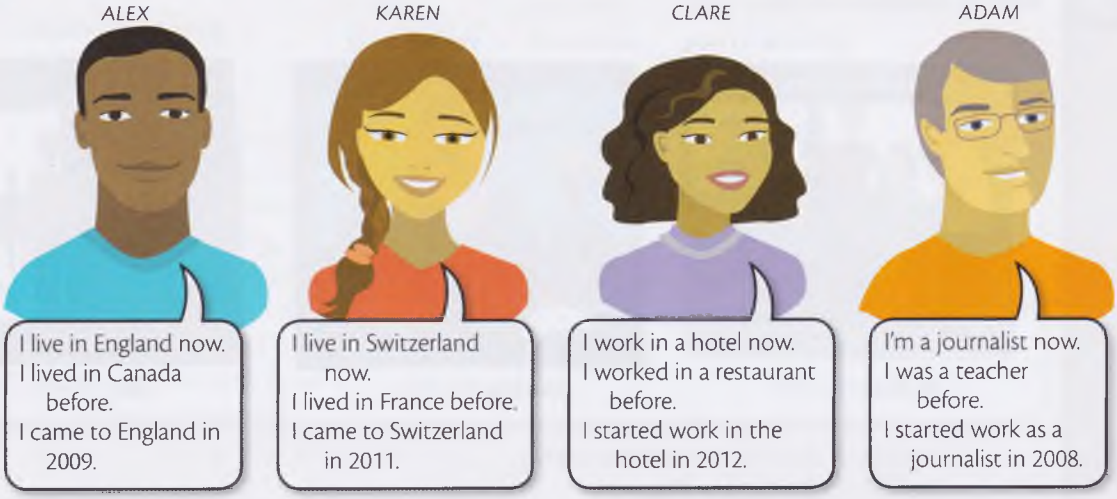

1 (Alex / Canada / 2001 → 2009) Alex lived in Canada from 2001 to 2009.
2 (Alex / Canada / → 2009) Alex lived in Canada ..... 2009.
3 (Alex / England / 2009 →) Alex has lived in England .....
4 (Karen / France / → 2011) Karen lived in .....
5 (Karen / Switzerland / 2011 →) Karen has lived in .....
6 (Clare / a restaurant / 2010 → 2012) Clare worked ..... 2010 .....
7 (Clare / a hotel / 2012 →) Clare has worked .....
8 (Adam / a teacher / 2002 → 2008) Adam was a .....
9 (Adam / a journalist / 2008 →) Adam has been .....

Now write sentences with **for.**

10 (Alex / Canada) Alex lived in Canada for eight years.
11 (Alex / England) Alex has lived in England .....
12 (Karen / Switzerland) Karen has .....
13 (Clare / a restaurant) Clare worked .....
14 (Clare / a hotel) Clare .....
15 (Adam / a teacher) Adam .....
16 (Adam / a journalist) Adam .....

104.2 Write **until/since/for.**

1 Sue and Dave have been married since 1998.
2 I was tired this morning. I stayed in bed ..... 10 o'clock.
3 We waited for Sue ..... half an hour, but she didn't come.
4 'Have you just arrived?' 'No, I've been here ..... half past seven.'
5 'How long did you stay at the party last night?' '..... midnight.'
6 Dan and I are good friends. We have known each other ..... ten years.
7 I'm tired. I'm going to lie down ..... a few minutes.
8 Don't open the door of the train ..... the train stops.
9 This is my house. I've lived here ..... I was seven years old.
10 Jack has gone away. He'll be away ..... Wednesday.
11 Next week I'm going to Paris ..... three days.
12 I usually finish work at 5.30, but sometimes I work ..... six.
13 'How long have you known Anna?' '..... we were at school together.'
14 Where have you been? I've been waiting for you ..... twenty minutes.

Unit 105

before after during while

A before, during and after

before the film

during the film

after the film

- Everybody feels nervous **before exams**.
- I fell asleep **during the film**.
- We were tired **after our visit** to the museum.

B before, while and after

before we played

while we were playing

after we played

- Don't forget to close the window **before you go out**.
- I often fall asleep **while I'm reading**.
- They went home **after they did the shopping**.

C during, while and for

We use **during** + *noun* (during **the film**). We use **while** + *verb* (while **I'm reading**):

- We didn't speak **during the meal**.

but We didn't speak **while we were eating**. (*not* during we were eating)

Use **for** (*not* during) + *a period of time* (**three days** / **two hours** / **a year** etc.):

- We played tennis **for two hours**. (*not* during two hours)
- I lived in London **for a year**. (*not* during a year)

D

You can use **before/after** + **-ing** (**before going** / **after eating** etc.):

- I always have breakfast **before going** to work. (= before I go to work)
- **After doing** the shopping, they went home. (= after they did)

We say **before going** (*not* before to go), **after doing** (*not* after to do) etc. :

- **Before eating** the apple, I washed it carefully. (*not* before to eat)
- I started work **after reading** the newspaper. (*not* after to read)

past continuous (**I was -ing**) ➜ Units 13–14 **before/after/while/when** ➜ Unit 98 **for** ➜ Unit 104
prepositions + **-ing** ➜ Unit 112

Exercises

105.1 Complete the sentences. Choose from the boxes.

after	**during**	+	**lunch**	**the end**	**they went to Australia**
before	**while**		**the concert**	**~~the exam~~**	**you're waiting**
			the course	**the night**	

1 Everybody was nervous ...before the exam... .
2 I usually work four hours in the morning, and another three hours ..... .
3 The film was really boring. We left ..... .
4 Anna went to evening classes to learn German. She learnt a lot ..... .
5 My aunt and uncle lived in London ..... .
6 A: Somebody broke a window ..... . Did you hear anything?
B: No, I was asleep all the time.
7 Would you like to sit down .....?
8 A: Are you going home .....?
B: Yes, I have to get up early tomorrow.

105.2 Write **during/while/for.**

1 We didn't speak ...while... we were eating.
2 We didn't speak ...during... the meal.
3 Gary called ..... you were out.
4 Amy went to Italy and stayed in Rome ..... five days.
5 I didn't check my email ..... I was away.
6 The students looked very bored ..... the lesson.
7 I fell out of bed ..... I was asleep.
8 Last night I watched TV ..... three hours.
9 I don't usually watch TV ..... the day.
10 Do you ever watch TV ..... you are having dinner?

105.3 Complete the sentences. Use **-ing (doing, having** etc.).

1 After ...doing... the shopping, they went home.
2 I felt sick after ..... too much chocolate.
3 I'm going to ask you a question. Think carefully before ..... it.
4 I felt awful when I got up this morning. I felt better after ..... a shower.
5 After ..... my work, I left the office and went home.
6 Before ..... to a foreign country, it's good to try and learn a little of the language.

105.4 Write sentences with **before + -ing** and **after + -ing.**

1 They did the shopping. Then they went home.
After ...doing the shopping, they went home.

2 John left school. Then he worked in a bookshop for two years.
John worked .....

3 I read for a few minutes. Then I went to sleep.
Before .....

4 We walked for three hours. We were very tired.
After .....

5 Let's have a cup of coffee. Then we'll go out.
Let's .....

Unit 106

in at on (places 1)

A in

in a room
in a shop
in a car
in the water

in a garden
in a town
in the city centre
in Brazil

- 'Where's David?' '**In the kitchen**. / **In the garden**. / **In London**.'
- What's **in that box** / **in that bag** / **in that cupboard**?
- Rachel works **in a shop** / **in a bank** / **in a factory**.
- I went for a swim **in the river** / **in the pool** / **in the sea**.
- Milan is **in the north of Italy**. Naples is **in the south**.
- I live **in a big city**, but I'd like to live in the country.

B at

at the bus stop

at the door

at the traffic lights

at her desk

- There's somebody **at the bus stop** / **at the door**.
- The car is waiting **at the traffic lights**.
- Vicky is working **at her desk**.

at the top / **at the bottom** / **at the end** (of ...):

- Write your name **at the top of the page**.
- My house is **at the end of the street**.

at the top (of the page)

at the bottom (of the page)

C on

on a shelf
on a plate
on a balcony
on the floor
etc.

on a wall
on a door
on the ceiling
etc.

- There are some books **on the shelf** and some pictures **on the wall**.
- There are a lot of apples **on those trees**.
- Don't sit **on the grass**. It's wet.
- There is a stamp **on the envelope**.

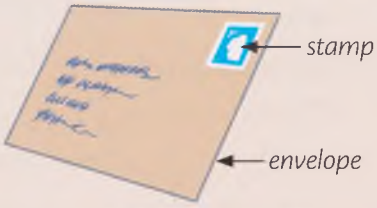

on a horse / **on a bicycle** / **on a motorbike**:

- Who is that man **on the motorbike**?

the top / **the bottom** → Unit 70 **at/on/in** (time) → Unit 103 **in/at/on** (places) → Unit 107

Exercises

106.1 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use **in/at/on**.

1 Where is he? In the kitchen.
2 Where are the shoes? .....
3 Where is the pen? .....
4 Where is the clock? .....
5 Where is the bus? .....
6 Where are the horses? .....
7 Where are they standing? .....
8 Where is she swimming? .....
9 Where is he standing? .....
10 Where is the spider? .....
11 Where is he sitting? .....
12 Where is she sitting? .....

106.2 Write **in/at/on**.

1 Don't sit ....on.... the grass. It's wet.
2 What do you have ..... your bag?
3 Look! There's a man ..... the roof. What's he doing?
4 There are a lot of fish ..... this river.
5 Our house is number 45 – the number is ..... the door.
6 'Is the hospital near here?' 'Yes, turn left ..... the traffic lights.'
7 It's difficult to park ..... the centre of town. It's better to take the bus.
8 My sister lives ..... Brussels.
9 There's a small park ..... the top of the hill.
10 I think I heard the doorbell. There's somebody ..... the door.
11 Munich is a large city ..... the south of Germany.
12 There are a few shops ..... the end of the street.
13 It's difficult to carry a lot of things ..... a bike.
14 I looked at the list of names. My name was ..... the bottom.
15 There is a mirror ..... the wall ..... the living room.

Unit 107

in at on (places 2)

A in

in bed
in hospital
in the sky
in the world
in a newspaper / **in** a book
in a photo(graph) / **in** a picture
in a car / **in** a taxi
in the middle (of ...)

- 'Where's Kate?' 'She's **in bed**.'
- David's father is ill. He's **in hospital**.
- I like to look at the stars **in the sky** at night.
- What's the largest city **in the world**?
- I read about the accident **in the newspaper**.
- You look sad **in this picture**.
- Did you come here **in your car**?
- There's a big tree **in the middle** of the garden.

B at

at home
at work / **at** school
at university / **at** college
at the station / **at** the airport
at Lisa's (house) / **at** my sister's (house) / **at** the doctor's / **at** the hairdresser's etc.
at a concert / **at** a party / **at** a football match etc.

- Will you be **at home** this evening?
- 'Where's Kate?' 'She's **at work**.'
- Helen is studying law **at university**.
- I'll meet you **at the station**, OK?
- A: Where were you yesterday?
  B: **At my sister's**.
- I saw Tom **at the doctor's**.
- There weren't many people **at the party**.

Often it is possible to use **in** or **at** for buildings (hotels, restaurants etc.):

- We stayed **at** a nice hotel. *or* We stayed **in** a nice hotel.

C on

on a bus

on the first floor

on the way from A to B

on a bus / **on** a train / **on** a plane / **on** a ship
on the ground floor / **on** the first floor etc.
on the way (to ...) / **on** the way home

- Did you come here **on the bus**?
- The office is **on the first floor**.
- I met Anna **on the way** to work / **on the way** home.

in/at/on (places) → Unit 106 to/in/at → Unit 108 on the left/right → Unit 109

Exercises

107.1 Look at the pictures and answer the questions. Use **in/at/on**.

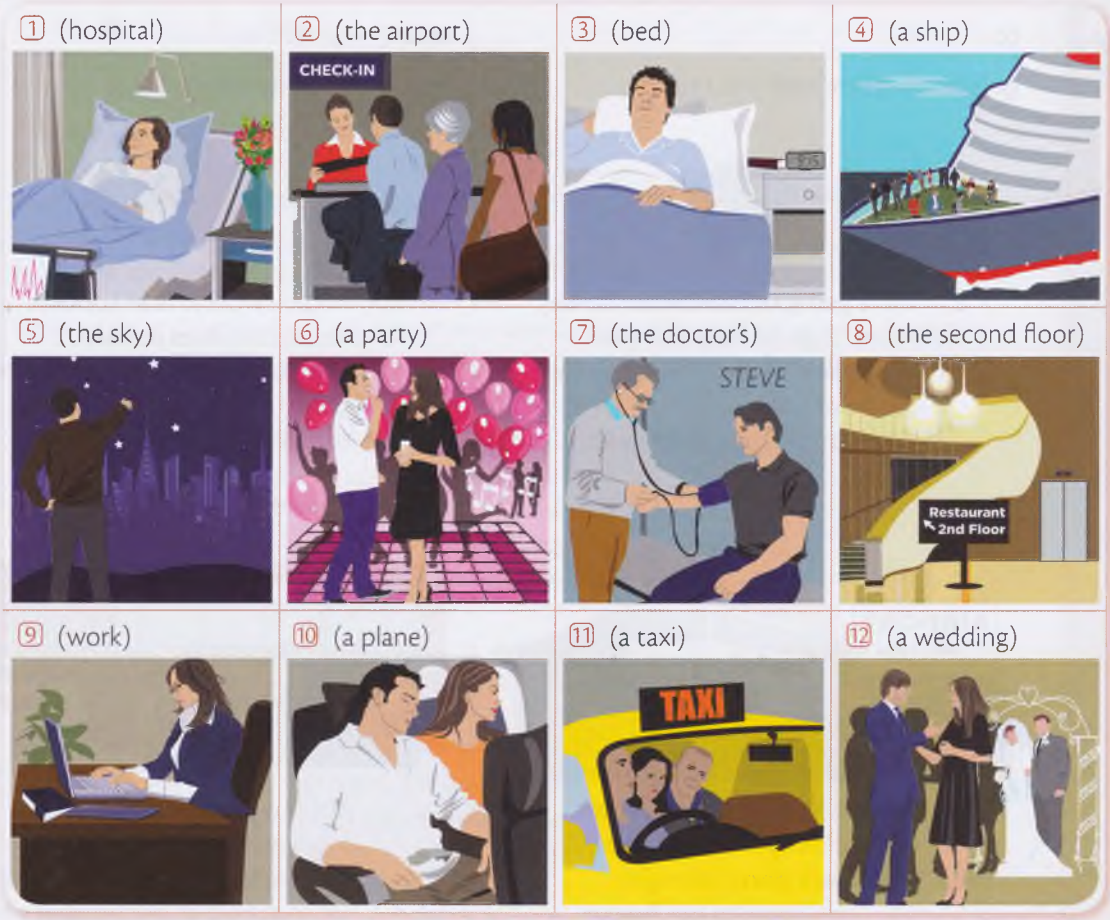

1 Where is she? In hospital.
2 Where are they? .....
3 Where is he? .....
4 Where are they? .....
5 Where are the stars? .....
6 Where are they? .....
7 Where is Steve? .....
8 Where is the restaurant? .....
9 Where is she? .....
10 Where are they? .....
11 Where are they? .....
12 Where are they? .....

107.2 Write **in/at/on**.

1 Helen is studying law ...at... university.
2 There was a big table ..... the middle of the room.
3 What is the longest river ..... the world?
4 Were there many people ..... the concert last night?
5 Will you be ..... home tomorrow afternoon?
6 Who is the man ..... this photo? Do you know him?
7 Where are your children? Are they ..... school?
8 Gary is coming by train. I'm going to meet him ..... the station.
9 Charlie is ..... hospital. He had an operation yesterday.
10 How many pages are there ..... this book?
11 'Are you hungry after your journey?' 'No, I had something to eat ..... the train.'
12 I'm sorry I'm late. My car broke down ..... the way here.
13 'Is Tom here?' 'No, he's ..... his friend's house.'
14 Don't believe everything you see ..... the newspaper!
15 I walked to work, but I came home ..... the bus.

Unit 108

to in at (places 3)

A

to

go/come/return/walk (etc.) **to** ...

- We're **going to London** on Sunday.
- I want to **go to Italy** next year.
- We **walked** from my house **to the centre of town**.
- What time do you **go to bed**?

- The bus is **going to the airport**.
- Karen didn't **go to work** yesterday.
- I **went to a party** last night.
- You must **come to our house**.

in/at (→ Units 106–107)

be/stay/do something (etc.) **in** ...

- Piccadilly Circus **is in London**.
- My brother **lives in Italy**.
- The main shops **are in the centre of town**.
- I like **reading in bed**.

be/stay/do something (etc.) **at** ...

- The bus **is at the airport**.
- Sarah **wasn't at work** yesterday.
- I **met a lot of people at the party**.
- Helen **stayed at her brother's house**.

B

home

go/come/walk (etc.) **home** (without **to**):

- I'm tired. I'm **going home**. (*not* to home)
- Did you **walk home**?

be/stay/do something (etc.) **at home**:

- I'm **staying at home** tonight.
- Dan doesn't work in an office. He **works at home**.

C

arrive and **get**

arrive in a country or town (**arrive in Italy** / **arrive in Paris** etc.):

- They **arrived in this country** last week. (*not* arrived to this country)

arrive at other places (**arrive at the station** / **arrive at work** etc.):

- What time did you **arrive at the hotel**? (*not* arrive to the hotel)

get to (**a place**):

- What time did you **get to the hotel**?
- What time did you **get to Paris**?

get home / **arrive home** (no preposition):

- I was tired when **I got home**. *or* I was tired when I **arrived home**.

been to → Unit 17 **get** (to ...) → Unit 56 **in/at** → Units 106–107

Exercises

108.1 Write **to** or **in**.

1 I like reading ...in... bed.
2 We're going ..... Italy next month.
3 Sue is on holiday ..... Italy at the moment.
4 I have to go ..... the hospital tomorrow.
5 I was tired, so I stayed ..... bed late.
6 What time do you usually go ..... bed?
7 Does this bus go ..... the centre?
8 Would you like to live ..... another country?

108.2 Write **to** or **at** if necessary. One sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 Paula didn't go ...to... work yesterday.
2 I'm tired. I'm going ...–... home. *(already complete)*
3 Tina is not very well. She has gone ..... the doctor.
4 Would you like to come ..... a party on Saturday?
5 'Is Lisa ..... home?' 'No, she's gone ..... work.'
6 There were 20,000 people ..... the football match.
7 Why did you go ..... home early last night?
8 A boy jumped into the river and swam ..... the other side.
9 There were a lot of people waiting ..... the bus stop.
10 We had a good meal ..... a restaurant, and then we went back ..... the hotel.

108.3 Write **to, at** or **in** if necessary. One sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 I'm not going out this afternoon. I'm staying ...at... home.
2 We're going ..... a concert tomorrow evening.
3 I went ..... New York last year.
4 How long did you stay ..... New York?
5 Next year we hope to go ..... Canada to visit some friends.
6 Do you want to go ..... the cinema this evening?
7 Did you park your car ..... the station?
8 After the accident three people were taken ..... hospital.
9 How often do you go ..... the dentist?
10 'Is Sarah here?' 'No, she's ..... Helen's.'
11 My house is ..... the end of the street on the left.
12 I went ..... Maria's house, but she wasn't ..... home.
13 There were no taxis, so we had to walk ..... home.
14 'Who did you meet ..... the party?' 'I didn't go ..... the party.'

108.4 Write **to, at** or **in** if necessary. Sometimes the sentence is already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 What time do you usually get ..... work?
2 What time do you usually get ..... home?
3 What time did you arrive ..... the party?
4 When did you arrive ..... London?
5 What time does the train get ..... Paris?
6 We arrived ..... home very late.

108.5 Complete these sentences about yourself. Use **to/in/at**.

1 At 3 o'clock this morning I was ...in bed...
2 Yesterday I went .....
3 At 11 o'clock yesterday morning I was .....
4 One day I'd like to go .....
5 I don't like going .....
6 At 9 o'clock yesterday evening I was .....

Unit 109

under, behind, opposite etc.

A next to / beside / between / in front of / behind

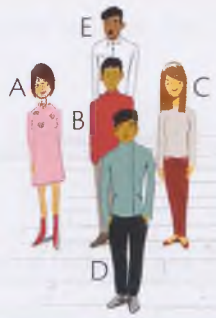

A is **next to** B. *or* A is **beside** B.
B is **between** A and C.
D is **in front of** B.
E is **behind** B.

also
A is **on the left**.
C is **on the right**.
B is **in the middle** (of the group).

B opposite / in front of

A is sitting **in front of** B.
A is sitting **opposite** C.
C is sitting **opposite** A.

C by (= next to / beside)

by the window

- Our house is **by the sea**. (= beside the sea)
- Who is that man standing **by the window**?
- If you feel cold, why don't you sit **by the fire**?

D under

under the table

under a tree

- The cat is **under the table**.
- The girl is standing **under a tree**.
- I'm wearing a jacket **under my coat**.

E above and below

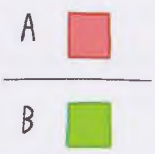

A is **above the line**.
(= higher than the line)

B is **below the line**.
(= lower than the line)

The pictures are **above the shelves**.

The shelves are **below the pictures**.

up/over/through etc. ➜ Unit 110 by ➜ Unit 111

Exercises

109.1 Where are the people in the picture? Complete the sentences.

1 Carl is standing ...behind... Frank.
2 Frank is sitting ..... Emma.
3 Emma is sitting ..... Becky.
4 Emma is sitting ..... Daniela and Frank.
5 Daniela is sitting ..... Emma.
6 Frank is sitting ..... Carl.
7 Alan is standing ..... Daniela.
8 Alan is standing ..... left.
9 Becky is standing ..... middle.

109.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 The cat is ...under... the table.
2 There is a big tree ..... the house.
3 The plane is flying ..... the clouds.
4 She is standing ..... the piano.
5 The cinema is ..... the right.
6 She's standing ..... the fridge.
7 The switch is ..... the window.
8 The cupboard is ..... the sink.
9 There are some shoes ..... the bed.
10 The plant is ..... the piano.
11 Paul is sitting ..... Fiona.
12 In Britain people drive ..... the left.

109.3 Write sentences about the picture.

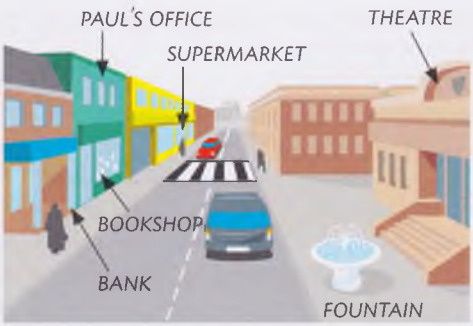

1 (next to) ...The bank is next to the bookshop.
2 (in front of) The ..... in front of .....
3 (opposite) .....
4 (next to) .....
5 (above) .....
6 (between) .....

up, over, through etc.

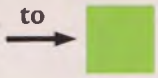

- Jane is going **to** France next week.
- We walked **from** the hotel **to** the station.
- A lot of English words come **from** Latin.

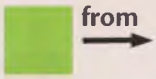

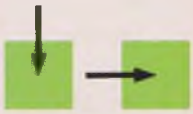

into (in)

- We jumped **into** the water.
- A man came **out of** the house and got **into** a car.
- Why are you looking **out of** the window?
- I took the old batteries **out of** the radio.

We say **put** something **in** ... (*not usually* into):

- I **put** new batteries **in** the radio.

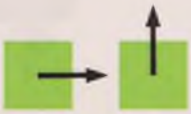

out of

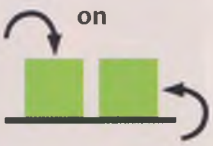

- Don't put your feet **on** the table.
- Please take your feet **off** the table.
- I'm going to hang some pictures **on** the wall.
- Be careful! Don't fall **off** your bike.
- We got **on** the bus in Princes Street.

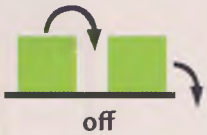

off

- We walked **up** the hill to the house.
- Be careful! Don't fall **down** the stairs.

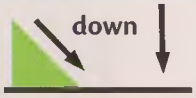

- The plane flew **over** the mountains.
- I jumped **over** the wall into the garden.
- Some people say it is unlucky to walk **under** a ladder.

under

through

- A bird flew into the room **through** a window.
- The old road goes **through** the village.
- The new road goes **round** the village.
- The bus stop is just **round** the corner.
- I walked **round** the town and took some photographs.

round

You can also use **around** (= round):

- We walked **around** the town.

round the town

- I was walking **along** the road with my dog.
- Let's go for a walk **along** the river.
- The dog swam **across** the river.

across

past

- They walked **past** me without speaking.
- A: Excuse me, how do I get to the hospital?
  B: Go along this road, **past** the cinema, under the bridge and the hospital is on the left.

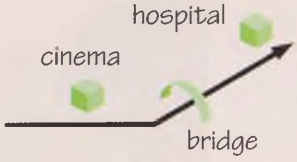

get in/on etc. → Unit 56 **in/on** → Units 106–107 **to** → Unit 108 **fall off / run away** etc. → Unit 114

Exercises

110.1 Somebody asks you how to get to a place. You say which way to go. Look at the pictures and write sentences beginning **Go ...** .

110.2 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences.

1 The dog swam ...across... the river.
2 A book fell ..... the shelf.
3 A plane flew ..... the village.
4 A woman got ..... the car.
5 A girl ran ..... the road.
6 Suddenly a car came ..... the corner.
7 They drove ..... the village.
8 They got ..... the train.
9 The moon travels ..... the earth.
10 They got ..... the house ..... a window.

110.3 Complete the sentences. Use **over/from/into** etc.

1 I looked ..... the window and watched the people in the street.
2 My house is very near here. It's just ..... the corner.
3 'Where's my phone?' 'You put it ..... your bag.'
4 How far is it ..... here ..... the airport?
5 We walked ..... the museum for an hour and saw a lot of interesting things.
6 You can put your coat ..... the back of the chair.
7 In tennis, you have to hit the ball ..... the net.
8 Silvia took a key ..... her bag and opened the door.

Unit 111

on at by with about

A on

on holiday
on television
on the radio
on the phone
on fire
on time (= not late)

- Jane isn't at work this week. She's **on holiday**.
- We watched the news **on TV**.
- We listened to the news **on the radio**.
- I spoke to Rachel **on the phone** last night.
- The house is **on fire**! Call the fire brigade.
- 'Was the train late?' 'No, it was **on time**.'

B at

at (the age of) 21 / at 50 kilometres an hour / at 100 degrees etc. :

- Lisa got married **at 21**. (*or*... **at the age of 21**.)
- A car uses more petrol **at 120 kilometres an hour** than **at 90**.
- Water boils **at 100 degrees Celsius**.

C by

by car / by bus / by plane / by bike etc. :

- Do you like travelling **by train**?
- Jane usually goes to work **by bike**.

but **on foot**:

- You can't get there **by car**. You have to go **on foot**. (= you have to walk)

a book **by** ... / a painting **by** ... / a piece of music **by** ... etc. :

- Have you read any books **by Charles Dickens**?
- **Who** is that painting **by**? Picasso?

by after the passive (→ Unit 21):

- I was bitten **by a dog**.

D with/without

- Did you stay at a hotel or **with friends**?
- Wait for me. Please don't go **without me**.
- Do you like your coffee **with** or **without milk**?
- I cut the paper **with a pair of scissors**.

a man **with** a beard / a woman **with** glasses etc. :

- Do you know that man **with the beard**?
- I'd like to have a house **with a big garden**.

a man **with** a beard

a woman **with** glasses

E about

talk/speak/think/hear/know about ... :

- Some people **talk about their work** all the time.
- I don't **know** much **about cars**.

a book / a question / a programme / information (etc.) **about** ... :

- There was **a programme about** volcanoes on TV last night. Did you see it?

by → Units 21, 63, 109 at/on → Units 103, 106–107 preposition + -ing → Unit 112

Exercises

111.1 Complete the sentences. Use **on** + these words:

holiday **the phone** ~~**the radio**~~ **TV** **time**

1 We heard the news ....on the radio.... .
2 Please don't be late. Try to be here .... .
3 I won't be here next week. I'm going .... .
4 'Did you see Linda?' 'No, but I talked to her ....'.
5 'What's .... this evening?' 'Nothing that I want to watch.'

111.2 Look at the pictures. Complete the sentences with **at/by/with** etc.

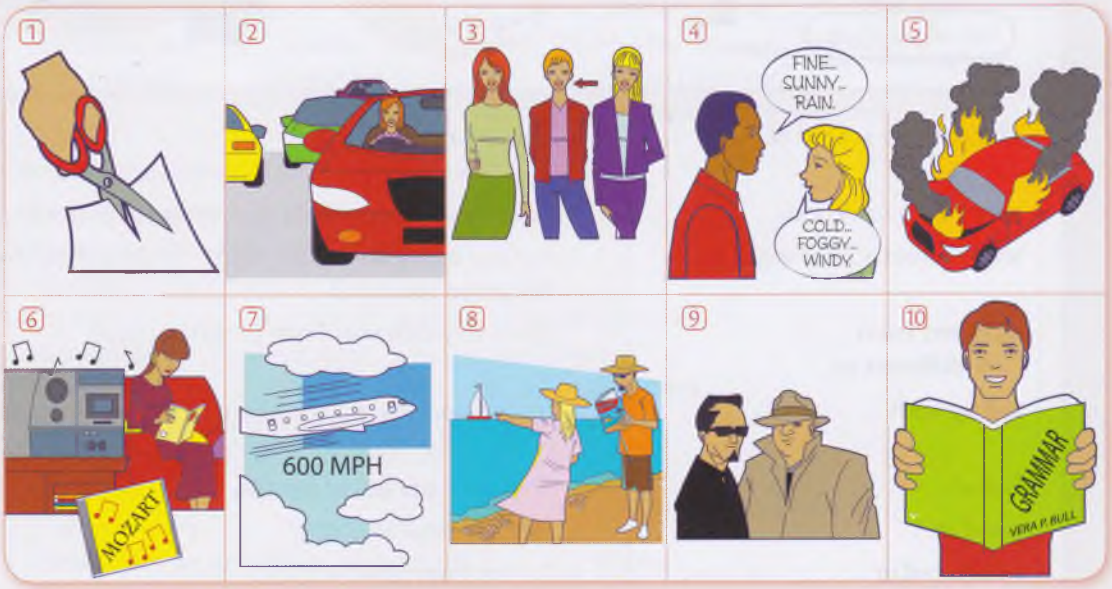

1 I cut the paper ....with.... a pair of scissors.
2 She usually goes to work .... car.
3 Who is the woman .... short hair?
4 They are talking .... the weather.
5 The car is .... fire.
6 She's listening to some music .... Mozart.
7 The plane is flying .... 600 miles an hour.
8 They're .... holiday.
9 Do you know the man .... sunglasses?
10 He's reading a book .... grammar .... Vera P. Bull.

111.3 Complete the sentences. Use **at/by/with** etc.

1 In tennis, you hit the ball .... a racket.
2 It's cold today. Don't go out .... a coat.
3 *Hamlet*, *Othello* and *Macbeth* are plays .... William Shakespeare.
4 Do you know anything .... computers?
5 My grandmother died .... the age of 98.
6 How long does it take from New York to Los Angeles .... plane?
7 I didn't go to the football match, but I watched it .... TV.
8 My house is the one .... the red door on the right.
9 These trains are very fast. They can travel .... very high speeds.
10 I don't use my car very often. I prefer to go .... bike.
11 Can you give me some information .... hotels in this town?
12 I was arrested .... two policemen and taken to the police station.
13 The buses here are very good. They're nearly always .... time.
14 What would you like to drink .... your meal?
15 We travelled from Paris to Moscow .... train.
16 The museum has some paintings .... Rembrandt.

afraid of ... , good at ... etc. of/at/for etc. (prepositions) + -ing

A afraid of ... / good at ... etc. *(adjective + preposition)*

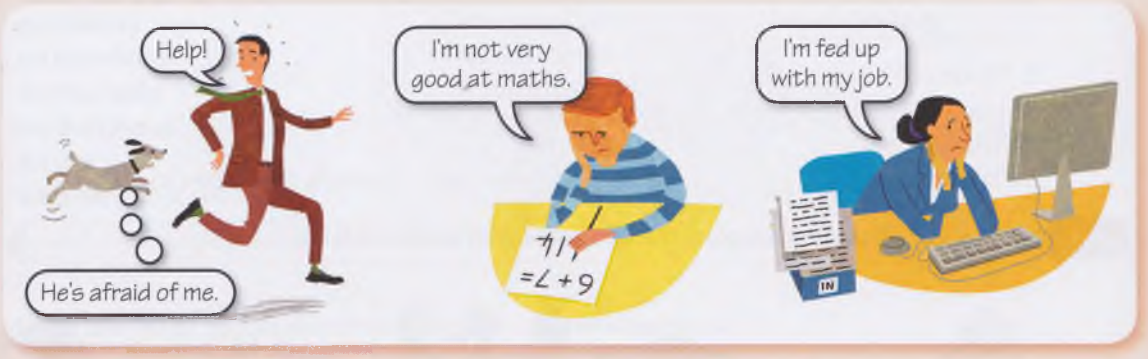

afraid of ... / **scared of** ...	Are you **afraid of** dogs?
angry with somebody	Why are you **angry with** me? What have I done?
angry about something	Are you **angry about** last night? (= something that happened last night)
different from ... *or* **different to** ...	Lisa is very **different from** (*or* **to**) her sister.
fed up with ...	I'm **fed up with** my job. I want to do something different. (= I've had enough of my job)
full of ...	The room was **full of people**.
good at ...	Are you **good at** maths?
interested in ...	I'm not **interested in** sport.
married to ...	Sue is **married to** a dentist. (= her husband is a dentist)
nice/kind of somebody to ...	It was **kind of** you to help us. Thank you very much.
be **nice/kind to** somebody	David is very friendly. He's always very **nice to** me.
sorry about a situation	I'm afraid I can't help you. I'm **sorry about** that.
sorry for/about doing something	I'm **sorry for/about** not phoning you yesterday. (*or* I'm sorry I didn't phone you)
be/feel **sorry for** somebody	I feel **sorry for** them. They are in a very difficult situation.

B of/at/for (etc.) + -ing

After a preposition (**of/at/for** etc.), a verb ends in **-ing**:

I'm not very good **at**	**telling**	stories.
Are you fed up **with**	**doing**	the same thing every day?
I'm sorry **for**	not **phoning**	you yesterday.
Thank you **for**	**helping**	me.
Mark is thinking **of**	**buying**	a new car.
Tom left **without**	**saying**	goodbye. (= he didn't say goodbye)
After	**doing**	the shopping, they went home.

before/after -ing ➜ Unit 105 think about/of ➜ Unit 113

Exercises

112.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with **of/with/in** etc.

1 He's afraid ...of... dogs.
2 She's interested ..... science.
3 She's married ..... a footballer.
4 She's very good ..... languages.
5 He's fed up ..... the weather.
6 A: Can I help you?
B: Thanks, that's very kind ..... you.

112.2 Complete the sentences with **in/of/with** etc.

1 I'm not interested ...in... sport.
2 I'm not very good ..... sport.
3 I like Sarah. She's always very kind ..... me.
4 I'm sorry ..... your broken window. It was an accident.
5 He's very brave. He isn't scared ..... anything.
6 It was very nice ..... Jane to let us stay in her apartment.
7 Life today is very different ..... life 50 years ago.
8 Are you interested ..... politics?
9 I feel sorry ..... her, but I can't help her.
10 Chris was angry ..... what happened.
11 These boxes are very heavy. They are full ..... books.
12 I'm sorry ..... getting angry ..... you yesterday.

112.3 Complete the sentences.

1 I'm not very ...good at telling... stories. (good/tell)
2 I wanted to go to the cinema, but Paula wasn't ..... . (interested/go)
3 Sue isn't very ..... up in the morning. (good/get)
4 Let's go! I'm ..... . (fed up / wait)
5 I'm ..... you up in the middle of the night. (sorry/wake)
6 Sorry I'm late! ..... . (thank you / wait)

112.4 Complete the sentences. Use **without -ing**.

1 (Tom left / he didn't say goodbye) ...Tom left without saying goodbye.....
2 (Sue walked past me / she didn't speak)
Sue walked .....
3 (Don't do anything / ask me first)
Don't .....
4 (I went out / I didn't lock the door)
I .....

112.5 Write sentences about yourself.

1 (interested) ...I'm interested in sport.....
2 (scared) I'm .....
3 (not very good) I'm not .....
4 (not interested) .....
5 (fed up) .....

Unit 113

listen to ... , look at ... etc. (verb + preposition)

A

ask (somebody) **for** ...
belong to ...
happen to ...
listen to ...
talk to somebody (**about** ...)
speak to somebody (**about** ...)
thank somebody **for** ...
think about ... *or* **think of** ...
wait for ...

- Don't **ask** me **for** money. I don't have any.
- This house doesn't **belong to** me. (= it's not mine)
- I can't find my phone. What's **happened to** it?
- **Listen to** this music. It's great.
- Did you **talk to** Paul **about** the problem?
- I'd like to **speak to** the manager, please.
- **Thank** you very much **for** your help.
- He never **thinks about** (*or* **of**) other people.
- Mark is **thinking of** (*or* **about**) buying a car.
- **Wait for** me. I'm nearly ready.

Note that we say **call/phone/text/email** somebody (no preposition):

- I have to **phone my parents** today.
  (*not* phone to my parents)
- Shall I **text you** or **email you**?

B

look at / look for / look after

look at ...

- He's **looking at** his watch.
- **Look at** these flowers! They're beautiful.
- Why are you **looking at** me like that?

look for ...
(= try to find)

- She's lost her key. She's **looking for** it.
- I'm **looking for** Sarah. Have you seen her?

look after ...
(= take care of, keep safe)

- When Emily is at work, a friend of hers **looks after** her children.
- Don't lose this book. **Look after** it.
  (= Keep it safe.)

C

depend

We say **depend on** ... :

- A: Do you like eating in restaurants?
  B: Sometimes. It **depends on** the restaurant. (*not* it depends of)

You can say **it depends what/where/how** (etc.) with or without **on**:

- A: Do you want to come out with us?
  B: It **depends where** you're going. *or* It **depends on where** you're going.

wait → Unit 54 preposition + **-ing** → Unit 112

Exercises

113.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences with **to/for/at** etc.

1 She's looking ...at... her watch.
2 He's listening ..... the radio.
3 They're waiting ..... a taxi.
4 Paul is talking ..... Jane.
5 They're looking ..... a picture.
6 Sue is looking ..... Tom.

113.2 Complete the sentences with **to/for/about** etc. Two sentences are already complete, and no word is necessary.

1 Thank you very much ...for... your help.
2 This isn't my umbrella. It belongs ..... a friend of mine.
3 I saw Steve, but I didn't speak ..... him.
4 Don't forget to phone ..... your mother tonight.
5 Thank you ..... the present. It was lovely.
6 What happened ..... Ella last night? Why didn't she come to the party?
7 We're thinking ..... going to Australia next year.
8 We asked the waiter ..... coffee, but he brought us tea.
9 'Do you like reading books?' 'It depends ..... the book.'
10 John was talking, but nobody was listening ..... what he was saying.
11 We waited ..... Karen until 2 o'clock, but she didn't come.
12 I texted ..... Lisa to tell her I would be late.
13 He's alone all day. He never talks ..... anybody.
14 'How much does it cost to stay at this hotel?' 'It depends ..... the type of room.'
15 Catherine is thinking ..... changing her job.

113.3 Complete these sentences. Use **at/for/after**.

1 I looked ..... the letter, but I didn't read it carefully.
2 When you are ill, you need somebody to look ..... you.
3 Excuse me, I'm looking ..... Hill Street. Is it near here?
4 Bye! Have a great holiday and look ..... yourself.
5 I want to take a picture of you. Please look ..... the camera and smile.
6 Ben is looking ..... a job. He wants to work in a hotel.

113.4 Answer these questions with **It depends ... .**

1	Do you want to go out with us?	It depends where you're going.
2	Do you like eating in restaurants?	It depends on the restaurant.
3	Do you enjoy watching TV?	It depends .....
4	Can you do something for me?	It .....
5	Are you going away this weekend?	.....
6	Can you lend me some money?	.....

go in, fall off, run away etc. (phrasal verbs 1)

A *phrasal verb* is a verb (**go/look/be** etc.) + **in/out/up/down** etc.

in

- I waited outside the shop. I didn't **go in**.
- Sarah opened the door of the car and **got in**. (= **into** the car)

out

- I went to the window and **looked out**.
- The car stopped and a woman **got out**. (= **out of** the car)

on

- The bus came, and I **got on**.

off

- Be careful! Don't **fall off**.

up

- He **stood up** and left the room.
- I usually **get up** early. (= get out of bed)
- We **looked up** at the stars in the sky.

down

- The picture **fell down**.
- Would you like to **sit down**?
- **Lie down** on the floor.

away *or* **off**

- The thief **ran away**. (*or* ... **ran off**)
- Emma got into the car and **drove away**. (*or* ... **drove off**)

be/go away (= in/to another place)

- Tom has **gone away** for a few days.

back

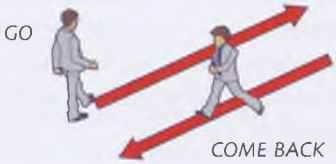

- Go away and don't **come back**!
- We went out for dinner and then **went back** to our hotel.

be back

- Tom is away. He'll **be back** on Monday.

over

- The wall wasn't very high, so we **climbed over**.
- **Turn over** and look at the next page.

round (*or* **around**)

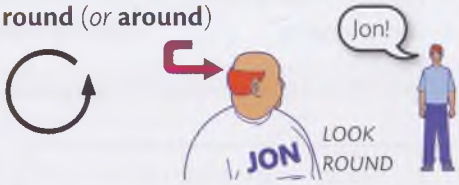

- Somebody shouted my name, so I **looked round** (*or* **around**).
- We went for a long walk. After an hour we **turned round** (*or* **around**) and went back.

get → Unit 56 **put on** / **take off** etc. (phrasal verbs 2) → Unit 115 more phrasal verbs → Appendix 6

Exercises

114.1 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use these verbs + **in/out/up** etc.

got **got** ~~**looked**~~ **looked** **rode** **sat** **turned** **went**

1 I went to the window and ...looked out... .
2 The door was open, so we ..... .
3 He heard a plane, so he ..... .
4 She got on her bike and ..... .
5 I said hello, and he ..... .
6 The bus stopped, and she ..... .
7 There was a free seat, so she ..... .
8 A car stopped, and two men ..... .

114.2 Complete the sentences. Use **out/away/back** etc.

1 'What happened to the picture on the wall?' 'It fell ...down...'
2 Wait a minute. Don't go ..... . I want to ask you something.
3 Lisa heard a noise behind her, so she looked ..... to see what it was.
4 I'm going ..... now to do some shopping. I'll be ..... at 5 o'clock.
5 I'm feeling very tired. I'm going to lie ..... on the sofa.
6 When you have read this page, turn ..... and read the other side.
7 Mark is from Canada. He lives in London now, but he wants to go ..... to Canada.
8 We haven't got a key to the house, so we can't get ..... .
9 I was very tired this morning. I couldn't get ..... .
10 A: When are you going ..... ?
B: On the 5th. And I'm coming ..... on the 24th.

114.3 Before you do this exercise, study the verbs in Appendix 6 (page 250). Complete the sentences. Choose a verb from the box + **on/off/up** etc. If necessary, put the verb into the correct form.

break **fall** **give** **hold** **speak** ~~**wake**~~
carry **get** **go** **slow** **take**

+ on/off/up/down/over

1 I went to sleep at 10 o'clock and ...woke up... at 8 o'clock the next morning.
2 'It's time to go.' '..... a minute. I'm not ready yet.'
3 The train ..... and finally stopped.
4 I like flying, but I'm always nervous when the plane ..... .
5 How are your children? How are they ..... at school?
6 It's difficult to hear you. Can you ..... a little?
7 This car isn't very good. It has ..... many times.
8 When babies try to walk, they sometimes ..... .
9 The hotel isn't far from here. If you ..... along this road, you'll see it on the left.
10 I tried to find a job, but I ..... . It was impossible.
11 The fire alarm ..... and everyone had to leave the building.

Unit 115

put on your shoes put your shoes on (phrasal verbs 2)

A

Sometimes a phrasal verb (**put on** / **take off** etc.) has an *object*. For example:

verb *object*
put on your coat

You can say:
put on your coat
or **put** your coat **on**

verb *object*
take off your shoes

You can say:
take off your shoes
or **take** your shoes **off**

But **it**/**them** *(pronouns)* always go before **on**/**off** etc. :
put **it on** (*not* put on it) take **them off** (*not* take off them)

- It was cold, so I **put on** my coat.
  or ... I **put** my coat **on**.
- Here's your coat. **Put it on**.
- I'm going to **take off** my shoes.
  or ... **take** my shoes **off**.
- Your shoes are dirty. **Take them off**.

B

Some more phrasal verbs + *object:*

turn on / **turn off** (lights, machines, taps etc.):

- It was dark, so I **turned on** the light.
  or ... I **turned** the light **on**.
- I don't want to watch this programme.
  You can **turn it off**.

also **switch on** / **switch off** (lights, machines etc.):

- I **switched on** the light and **switched off** the television.

pick up / **put down**:

- Those are my keys on the floor.
  Can you **pick them up** for me?
- I stopped reading and **put** my book **down**.
  or ... **put down** my book.

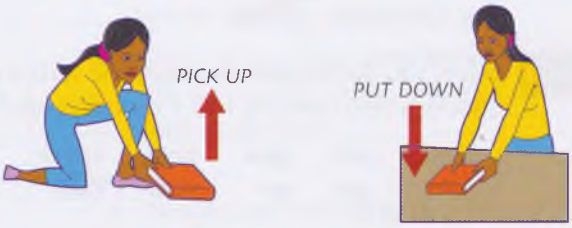

bring back / **take back** / **give back** / **put back**:

- You can take my umbrella, but please **bring it back**.
- I **took** my new sweater **back** to the shop. It was too small for me.
- I've got Rachel's keys. I have to **give them back** to her.
- I read the letter and then **put it back** in the envelope.

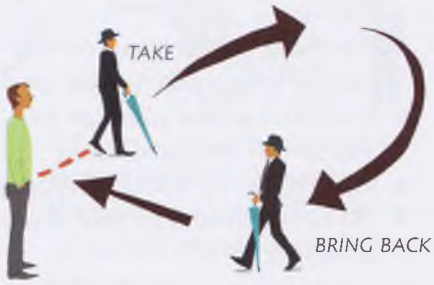

go in / **fall off** etc. (phrasal verbs 1) ➜ **Unit 114** more phrasal verbs + object ➜ **Appendix 7**

Exercises

115.1 Look at the pictures. What did these people do?

1 He turned on the light.
2 She ..... .
3 He ..... .
4 She ..... .
5 He ..... .
6 She ..... .

115.2 You can write these sentences in three different ways. Complete the table.

1	I turned on the radio.	I turned the radio on.	I turned it on.
2	He put on his jacket.	He	He .....
3	She	She took her glasses off.	.....
4	I picked up the phone.	.....	.....
5	They gave back the key.	.....	.....
6	.....	We turned the lights off.	.....

115.3 Complete the sentences. Use these verbs with **it** or **them**.

bring back **pick up** **switch off** **take back** ~~**turn on**~~

1 I wanted to watch something on TV, so I turned it on.
2 My new lamp doesn't work. I'm going to ..... to the shop.
3 There were some gloves on the floor, so I ..... and put them on the table.
4 The heating was on but it was too warm, so I ..... .
5 Thank you for lending me these books. I won't forget to ..... .

115.4 Before you do this exercise, study the verbs in Appendix 7 (page 251). Complete the sentences. Use a verb from the box. Sometimes you will also need to use **it/them/me**.

fill in ~~**knock down**~~ **look up** **show round** ~~**turn down**~~
give up **knock over** **put out** **throw away** **try on**

1 They knocked a lot of houses down when they built the new road.
2 That music is very loud. Can you turn it down?
3 I ..... a glass and broke it.
4 'What does this word mean?' 'Why don't you ..... ?'
5 I want to keep these magazines. Please don't ..... .
6 I ..... a pair of shoes in the shop, but I didn't buy them.
7 I visited a school last week. One of the teachers ..... .
8 'Do you play the piano?' 'No, I started to learn, but I ..... after a month.'
9 Somebody gave me a form and told me to ..... .
10 Smoking isn't allowed here. Please ..... your cigarette ..... .

Appendix 1
Active and passive

1.1 Present and past

	active	*passive*
present simple	We **make** butter from milk.	Butter **is made** from milk.
	Somebody **cleans** these rooms every day.	These rooms **are cleaned** every day.
	People never **invite** me to parties.	I **am** never **invited** to parties.
	How **do** they **make** butter?	How **is** butter **made**?
past simple	Somebody **stole** my car last week.	My car **was stolen** last week.
	Somebody **stole** my keys yesterday.	My keys **were stolen** yesterday.
	They **didn't invite** me to the party.	I **wasn't invited** to the party.
	When **did** they **build** these houses?	When **were** these houses **built**?
present continuous	They **are building** a new airport at the moment. (= it isn't finished)	A new airport **is being built** at the moment.
	They **are building** some new houses near the river.	Some new houses **are being built** near the river.
past continuous	When I was here a few years ago, they **were building** a new airport. (= it wasn't finished at that time)	When I was here a few years ago, a new airport **was being built**.
present perfect	Look! They **have painted** the door.	Look! The door **has been painted**.
	These shirts are clean. Somebody **has washed** them.	These shirts are clean. They **have been washed**.
	Somebody **has stolen** my car.	My car **has been stolen**.
past perfect	Tina said that somebody **had stolen** her car.	Tina said that her car **had been stolen**.

1.2 **will** / **can** / **must** / **have to** etc.

active	*passive*
Somebody **will clean** the office tomorrow.	The office **will be cleaned** tomorrow.
Somebody **must clean** the office.	The office **must be cleaned**.
I think they**'ll invite** you to the party.	I think you**'ll be invited** to the party.
They **can't repair** my watch.	My watch **can't be repaired**.
You **should wash** this sweater by hand.	This sweater **should be washed** by hand.
They **are going to build** a new airport.	A new airport **is going to be built**.
Somebody **has to wash** these clothes.	These clothes **have to be washed**.
They **had to take** the injured man to hospital.	The injured man **had to be taken** to hospital.

Appendix 2
List of irregular verbs (→ Unit 24)

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
be	**was/were**	**been**
beat	**beat**	**beaten**
become	**became**	**become**
begin	**began**	**begun**
bite	**bit**	**bitten**
blow	**blew**	**blown**
break	**broke**	**broken**
bring	**brought**	**brought**
build	**built**	**built**
buy	**bought**	**bought**
catch	**caught**	**caught**
choose	**chose**	**chosen**
come	**came**	**come**
cost	**cost**	**cost**
cut	**cut**	**cut**
do	**did**	**done**
draw	**drew**	**drawn**
drink	**drank**	**drunk**
drive	**drove**	**driven**
eat	**ate**	**eaten**
fall	**fell**	**fallen**
feel	**felt**	**felt**
fight	**fought**	**fought**
find	**found**	**found**
fly	**flew**	**flown**
forget	**forgot**	**forgotten**
get	**got**	**got**
give	**gave**	**given**
go	**went**	**gone**
grow	**grew**	**grown**
hang	**hung**	**hung**
have	**had**	**had**
hear	**heard**	**heard**
hide	**hid**	**hidden**
hit	**hit**	**hit**
hold	**held**	**held**
hurt	**hurt**	**hurt**
keep	**kept**	**kept**
know	**knew**	**known**
leave	**left**	**left**
lend	**lent**	**lent**

infinitive	*past simple*	*past participle*
let	**let**	**let**
lie	**lay**	**lain**
light	**lit**	**lit**
lose	**lost**	**lost**
make	**made**	**made**
mean	**meant**	**meant**
meet	**met**	**met**
pay	**paid**	**paid**
put	**put**	**put**
read (reed)*	**read** (red)*	**read** (red)*
ride	**rode**	**ridden**
ring	**rang**	**rung**
rise	**rose**	**risen**
run	**ran**	**run**
say	**said**	**said**
see	**saw**	**seen**
sell	**sold**	**sold**
send	**sent**	**sent**
shine	**shone**	**shone**
shoot	**shot**	**shot**
show	**showed**	**shown**
shut	**shut**	**shut**
sing	**sang**	**sung**
sit	**sat**	**sat**
sleep	**slept**	**slept**
speak	**spoke**	**spoken**
spend	**spent**	**spent**
stand	**stood**	**stood**
steal	**stole**	**stolen**
swim	**swam**	**swum**
take	**took**	**taken**
teach	**taught**	**taught**
tear	**tore**	**torn**
tell	**told**	**told**
think	**thought**	**thought**
throw	**threw**	**thrown**
understand	**understood**	**understood**
wake	**woke**	**woken**
wear	**wore**	**worn**
win	**won**	**won**
write	**wrote**	**written**

* *pronunciation*

Some verbs can be regular (**-ed**) *or* irregular (**-t**):

infinitive	*past simple / past participle*
burn	**burned** *or* **burnt**
dream	**dreamed** *or* **dreamt**

infinitive	*past simple / past participle*
learn	**learned** *or* **learnt**
smell	**smelled** *or* **smelt**

Appendix 3
Irregular verbs in groups

The past simple and past participle are the same:

1

cost	→	**cost**
cut	→	**cut**
hit	→	**hit**
hurt	→	**hurt**
let	→	**let**
put	→	**put**
shut	→	**shut**

2

lend	→	**lent**
send	→	**sent**
spend	→	**spent**
build	→	**built**
lose	→	**lost**
shoot	→	**shot**
get	→	**got**
light	→	**lit**
sit	→	**sat**
burn	→	**burnt**
learn	→	**learnt**
smell	→	**smelt**
keep	→	**kept**
sleep	→	**slept**
feel	→	**felt**
leave	→	**left**
meet	→	**met**
dream	→	**dreamt** (dremt)*
mean	→	**meant** (ment)*

3

bring	→	**brought** (brort)*
buy	→	**bought** (bort)*
fight	→	**fought** (fort)*
think	→	**thought** (thort)*
catch	→	**caught** (kort)*
teach	→	**taught** (tort)*

4

sell	→	**sold**
tell	→	**told**
find	→	**found**
have	→	**had**
hear	→	**heard**
hold	→	**held**
read	→	**read** (red)*
say	→	**said** (sed)*
pay	→	**paid**
make	→	**made**
stand	→	**stood**
understand	→	**understood**

The past simple and past participle are different:

1

break	→	**broke**	**broken**
choose	→	**chose**	**chosen**
speak	→	**spoke**	**spoken**
steal	→	**stole**	**stolen**
wake	→	**woke**	**woken**

2

drive	→	**drove**	**driven**
ride	→	**rode**	**ridden**
rise	→	**rose**	**risen**
write	→	**wrote**	**written**
beat	→	**beat**	**beaten**
bite	→	**bit**	**bitten**
hide	→	**hid**	**hidden**

3

eat	→	**ate**	**eaten**
fall	→	**fell**	**fallen**
forget	→	**forgot**	**forgotten**
give	→	**gave**	**given**
see	→	**saw**	**seen**
take	→	**took**	**taken**

4

blow	→	**blew**	**blown**
grow	→	**grew**	**grown**
know	→	**knew**	**known**
throw	→	**threw**	**thrown**
fly	→	**flew**	**flown**
draw	→	**drew**	**drawn**
show	→	**showed**	**shown**

5

begin	→	**began**	**begun**
drink	→	**drank**	**drunk**
swim	→	**swam**	**swum**
ring	→	**rang**	**rung**
sing	→	**sang**	**sung**
run	→	**ran**	**run**

6

come	→	**came**	**come**
become	→	**became**	**become**

* *pronunciation*

Appendix 4
Short forms (**he's / I'd / don't** etc.)

4.1 In spoken English we usually pronounce '**I am**' as one word. The short form (**I'm**) is a way of writing this:

I am	→	**I'm**
it is	→	**it's**
they have	→	**they've**
		etc.

- **I'm** feeling tired this morning.
- 'Do you like this jacket?' 'Yes, **it's** nice.'
- 'Where are your friends?' '**They've** gone home.'

When we write short forms, we use ' (*an apostrophe*):

I ~~a~~m → I'**m** he~~is~~ → he'**s** you ~~ha~~ve → you'**ve** she ~~wi~~ll → she'**ll**

4.2 We use these forms with **I/he/she** etc.:

am	→	'm	I'm						
is	→	's		he's	she's	it's			
are	→	're					we're	you're	they're
have	→	've	I've				we've	you've	they've
has	→	's		he's	she's	it's			
had	→	'd	I'd	he'd	she'd		we'd	you'd	they'd
will	→	'll	I'll	he'll	she'll		we'll	you'll	they'll
would	→	'd	I'd	he'd	she'd		we'd	you'd	they'd

- I'**ve** got some new shoes.
- We'**ll** probably go out this evening.
- It'**s** 10 o'clock. You'**re** late again.

'**s** = **is** *or* **has**:

- She'**s** going out this evening. (she'**s** going = she **is** going)
- She'**s** gone out. (she'**s** gone = she **has** gone)

'**d** = **would** *or* **had**:

- A: What would you like to eat?
  B: I'**d** like a salad, please. (I'**d** like = I **would** like)
- I told the police that I'**d** lost my passport. (I'**d** lost = I **had** lost)

Do not use '**m**/'**s**/'**d** etc. at the end of a sentence (→ Unit 40):

- 'Are you tired?' 'Yes, I **am**.' (*not* Yes, I'm.)
- She isn't tired, but he **is**. (*not* he's)

4.3 We use short forms with **I/you/he/she** etc., but you can use short forms (especially '**s**) with other words too:

- **Who's** your favourite singer? (= who **is**)
- **What's** the time? (= what **is**)
- **There's** a big tree in the garden. (= there **is**)
- **My sister's** working in London. (= my sister **is** working)
- **Paul's** gone out. (= Paul **has** gone out)
- **What colour's** your car? (= What colour **is** your car?)

4.4 Negative short forms (→ Unit 43):

isn't (= is not)	**don't** (= do not)	**can't** (= cannot)
aren't (= are not)	**doesn't** (= does not)	**couldn't** (= could not)
wasn't (= was not)	**didn't** (= did not)	**won't** (= will not)
weren't (= were not)		**wouldn't** (= would not)
hasn't (= has not)		**shouldn't** (= should not)
haven't (= have not)		**mustn't** (= must not)
hadn't (= had not)		

- We went to her house, but she **wasn't** at home.
- 'Where's David?' 'I **don't** know. I **haven't** seen him.'
- You work all the time. You **shouldn't** work so hard.
- I **won't** be here tomorrow. (= I will not)

4.5 **'s** (*apostrophe* + **s**)

's can mean different things:

(1) **'s** = **is** *or* **has** (→ section 4.2 of this appendix)

- It**'s** raining. (= It **is** raining)
- It**'s** stopped raining. (= It **has** stopped)

(2) let's = let **us** (→ Units 35, 53)

- It's a lovely day. **Let's** go out. (= Let **us** go out.)

(3) Kate**'s** camera = her camera
my brother**'s** car = his car
the manager**'s** office = his/her office etc.
(→ Unit 64)

Compare:

- **Kate's** camera was very expensive. (**Kate's** camera = **her** camera)
- **Kate's** a very good photographer. (**Kate's** = Kate **is**)
- **Kate's** got a new camera. (Kate**'s** got = Kate **has** got)

Appendix 5
Spelling

5.1 Words + **-s** and **-es** (birds/watch**es** etc.)

noun + **s** (plural) (→ Unit 66)

bird → bird**s** | mistake → mistake**s** | hotel → hotel**s**

verb + **s** (he/she/it **-s**) (→ Unit 5)

think → think**s** | live → live**s** | remember → remember**s**

but

+ **es** after **-s** / **-sh** / **-ch** / **-x**

bu**s** → bu**ses** | pa**ss** → pa**sses** | addre**ss** → addre**sses**
di**sh** → di**shes** | wa**sh** → wa**shes** | fini**sh** → fini**shes**
wat**ch** → wat**ches** | tea**ch** → tea**ches** | sandwi**ch** → sandwi**ches**
bo**x** → bo**xes**

also

potato → potato**es** | tomato → tomato**es**
do → do**es** | go → go**es**

-f / -fe → -ves

shel**f** → shel**ves** | kni**fe** → kni**ves** | *but* roo**f** → roo**fs**

5.2 Words ending in **-y** (bab**y** → bab**ies** / stud**y** → stud**ied** etc.)

-y → -ies

stud**y** → stud**ies** (*not* studys) | fami**ly** → fami**lies** (*not* familys)
sto**ry** → sto**ries** | ci**ty** → ci**ties** | bab**y** → bab**ies**
tr**y** → tr**ies** | marr**y** → marr**ies** | fl**y** → fl**ies**

-y → -ied (→ Unit 11)

stud**y** → stud**ied** (*not* studyed)
tr**y** → tr**ied** | marr**y** → marr**ied** | cop**y** → cop**ied**

-y → -ier/-iest (→ Units 87, 90)

easy → easier/easiest (*not* easyer/easyest)
happy → happier/happiest | lucky → luckier/luckiest
heavy → heavier/heaviest | funny → funnier/funniest

-y → -ily (→ Unit 86)

easy → easily (*not* easyly)
happy → happily | heavy → heavily | lucky → luckily

y does not change to **i** if the ending is **-ay/-ey/-oy/-uy**:

holid**ay** → holid**ays** (*not* holidaies)
enj**oy** → enj**oys**/enj**oyed** | st**ay** → st**ays**/st**ayed** | b**uy** → b**uys** | k**ey** → k**eys**

but

say → said | **pay → paid** | *(irregular verbs)*

5.3 -ing

Verbs that end in **-e** (mak**e**/writ**e**/driv**e** etc.) → **-ing**:

mak**e** → mak**ing** writ**e** → writ**ing** com**e** → com**ing** danc**e** → danc**ing**

Verbs that end in **-ie** → **-ying**:

lie → **lying** **die** → **dying** **tie** → **tying**

5.4

sto**p** → sto**pp**ed, bi**g** → bi**gg**er etc.

Vowels and consonants:

Vowel letters:	a	e	i	o	u									
Consonant letters:	b	c	d	f	g	k	l	m	n	p	r	s	t	w	y

Sometimes a word ends in a *vowel* + a *consonant*. For example: st**o**p, bi**g**, ge**t**.
Before **-ing**/**-ed**/**-er**/**-est**, **p**/**g**/**t** etc. become **pp**/**gg**/**tt** etc.

For example:

	V+C					
stop	ST	**O**	**P**	p → **pp**	sto**pp**ing	sto**pp**ed
run	R	**U**	**N**	n → **nn**	ru**nn**ing	
get	G	**E**	**T**	t → **tt**	ge**tt**ing	
swim	SW	**I**	**M**	m → **mm**	swi**mm**ing	
big	B	**I**	**G**	g → **gg**	bi**gg**er	bi**gg**est
hot	H	**O**	**T**	t → **tt**	ho**tt**er	ho**tt**est
thin	TH	**I**	**N**	n → **nn**	thi**nn**er	thi**nn**est

V = *vowel*
C = *consonant*

This does *not* happen
(1) if the word ends in *two* consonant letters (C + C):

	C+C				
help	HE	**L**	**P**	he**lp**ing	he**lp**ed
work	WO	**R**	**K**	wo**rk**ing	wo**rk**ed
fast	FA	**S**	**T**	fa**st**er	fa**st**est

(2) if the word ends in two vowel letters + a consonant letter (V + V + C):

	V+V+C					
need	N	**E**	**E**	**D**	nee**d**ing	nee**d**ed
wait	W	**A**	**I**	**T**	wai**t**ing	wai**t**ed
cheap	CH	**E**	**A**	**P**	chea**p**er	chea**p**est

(3) in longer words (two syllables or more) if the last part of the word is *not* stressed:

	stress		
happen	**HAP**-pen	→	happe**n**ing/happe**n**ed (*not* happenned)
visit	**VIS**-it	→	visi**t**ing/visi**t**ed
remember	re-**MEM**-ber	→	remembe**r**ing/remembe**r**ed

but

prefer	pre-**FER**	*(stress at the end)*	→ prefe**rr**ing/prefe**rr**ed
begin	be-**GIN**	*(stress at the end)*	→ begi**nn**ing

(4) if the word ends in **-y** or **-w**. (At the end of words, **y** and **w** are not consonants.)

enjo**y** → enjo**y**ing/enjo**y**ed sno**w** → sno**w**ing/sno**w**ed fe**w** → fe**w**er/fe**w**est

Appendix 6
Phrasal verbs (**take off / give up** etc.)

This is a list of some important phrasal verbs (→ Unit 114).

on

carry on = *continue*

- Don't stop working. **Carry on**. (= continue working)
- A: Excuse me, where is the station?
  B: **Carry on** along this road and turn right at the lights. (= Continue along ...)

also **go on** / **walk on** / **drive on** etc. = *continue going/walking/driving* etc.

- Don't stop here. **Drive on**.

come on = *be quick*

- **Come on**! Everybody is waiting for you.

get on = *manage (in a job, at school, in an exam etc.)*

- How was your exam? How did you **get on**? (= how did you do?)

hold on = *wait*

- Can you **hold on** a minute? (= can you wait?)

off

take off = *leave the ground (for planes)*

- The plane **took off** 20 minutes late, but arrived on time.

TAKE OFF

go off = *explode (a bomb etc.) or ring (an alarm, an alarm clock etc.)*

- A bomb **went off** and caused a lot of damage.
- A car alarm **goes off** if somebody tries to break into the car.

GO OFF

up

give up = *stop trying*

- I know it's difficult, but don't **give up**. (= don't stop trying)

GROW UP

grow up = *become an adult*

- What does your son want to do when he **grows up**?

hurry up = *do something more quickly*

- **Hurry up**! We haven't got much time.

WAKE UP

speak up = *speak more loudly*

- I can't hear you. Can you **speak up**, please?

wake up = *stop sleeping*

- I often **wake up** in the middle of the night.

WASH UP

wash up = *wash the plates etc. after a meal*

- Do you want me to **wash up**? (*or* ... to do the washing-up?)

down

slow down = *go more slowly*

- You're driving too fast. **Slow down**!

BREAK DOWN

break down = *stop working (for cars, machines etc.)*

- Sue was very late because her car **broke down**.

over

fall over = *lose your balance*

- I **fell over** because my shoes were too big for me.

FALL OVER

Appendix 7 Phrasal verbs + object (**put out** a fire / **give up** your job etc.)

This is a list of some important phrasal verbs + object (→ Unit 115).

in/out

fill in / **fill out** a form = *complete a form*

- Can you **fill in this form**, please? *or* Can you **fill out this form**, please?

out

put out a fire, a cigarette etc.

- The fire brigade arrived and **put the fire out**.

cross out a mistake, a word etc.

- If you make a mistake, **cross it out**.

PUT OUT

CROSS OUT

on

try on clothes = *put on clothes to see if they fit you*

- *(in a shop)* This is a nice jacket. Shall I **try it on**?

up

give up something = *stop doing it*

- Sue **gave up her job** when her baby was born. (= she stopped working)
- 'Are you still learning Italian?' 'No, I **gave it up**.'

look up a word in a dictionary etc.

- I didn't know the meaning of the word, so I **looked it up** in a dictionary.

turn up the TV, radio, music, heating etc. = *make it louder or warmer*

- Can you **turn the radio up**? I can't hear it.

wake up somebody who is sleeping

- I have to get up early tomorrow. Can you **wake me up** at 6.30?

down

knock down a building = *demolish it*

- They are going to **knock down** the school and build a new one.

turn down the TV, radio, music, heating etc. = *make it more quiet or less warm*

- The music is too loud. Can you **turn it down**?

KNOCK DOWN

over

knock over a cup, a glass, a person etc.

- Be careful. Don't **knock your cup over**.
- There was an accident at the end of the road. A man was **knocked over** by a car. (*or* A man was **knocked down** by a car.)

KNOCK OVER

KNOCK OVER or KNOCK DOWN

away

throw away rubbish, things you don't want

- These apples are bad. Shall I **throw them away**?
- Don't **throw away that picture**. I want it.

put something **away** = *put it in the place where you usually keep it*

- After they finished playing, the children **put their toys away**.

THROW AWAY

back

pay somebody **back** = *give back money that you borrowed*

- Thank you for lending me the money. I'll **pay you back** next week.

round/around

show somebody **round/around** = *take somebody on a tour of a place*

- We visited a factory last week. The manager **showed us round**.

Additional exercises

List of exercises:

1–2	**am/is/are**	Units 1–2
3	present continuous	Units 3–4
4	present simple	Units 5–7
5–7	present simple, **am/is/are** and **have (got)**	Units 1–2, 5–7, 9
8–9	present continuous and present simple	Units 3–8
10–13	**was/were** and past simple	Units 10–12
14	past simple and past continuous	Units 11–14
15	present and past	Units 3–14
16–18	present perfect	Units 15–19
19–22	present perfect and past simple	Units 18–20
23	present, past and present perfect	Units 3–20
24–27	passive	Units 21–22
28	future	Units 25–28
29	past, present and future	Units 3–20, 25–28
30–31	past, present and future	Units 3–22, 25–28, 52, 54, 98, 105
32	**-ing** and **to** ...	Units 51–55,105,112
33–34	**a** and **the**	Units 65, 69–73
35	prepositions	Units 103–108,111

am/is/are

Units 1–2

1 Write sentences for the pictures. Use the words in the boxes + **is/isn't/are/aren't**.

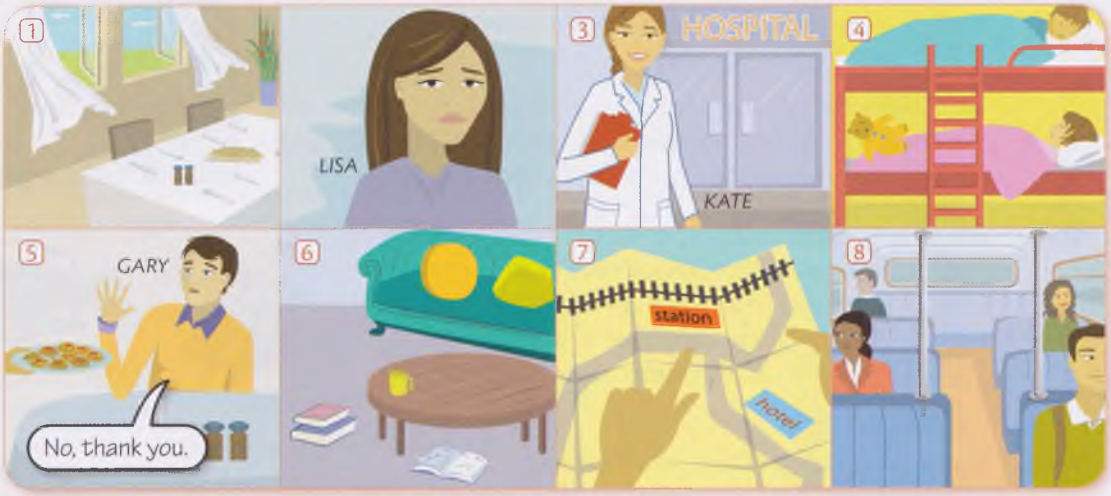

~~The windows~~	on the table	1 The windows are open.
~~Lisa~~	hungry	2 Lisa isn't happy.
Kate	asleep	3 Kate .....
The children	~~open~~	4 .....
Gary	full	5 .....
The books	near the station	6 .....
The hotel	a doctor	7 .....
The bus	~~happy~~	8 .....

2 Complete the sentences.

1 'Are you hungry?' 'No, but ...I'm... thirsty.'
2 '...How are... your parents?' 'They're fine.'
3 'Is Anna at home?' 'No, ... at work.'
4 '..... my keys?' 'On your desk.'
5 Where is Paul from? ..... American or British?
6 ..... very hot today. The temperature is 38 degrees.
7 'Are you a teacher?' 'No, ... a student.'
8 '..... your umbrella?' 'Green.'
9 Where's your car? ..... in the car park?
10 '..... tired?' 'No, I'm fine.'
11 'These shoes are nice. How ..... ?' 'Sixty pounds.'

present continuous (I'm working / are you working? etc.)

Units 3–4

3 Use the words in brackets to write sentences.

1 A: Where are your parents?
B: ...They're watching TV.... (they / watch / TV)
2 A: Paula is going out.
B: ...Where's she going?... (where / she / go?)
3 A: Where's David?
B: ..... (he / have / a shower)
4 A: ..... ? (the children / play?)
B: No, they're asleep.
5 A: ..... ? (it / rain?)
B: No, not at the moment.
6 A: Where are Sue and Steve?
B: ..... (they / come / now)
7 A: ..... ? (why / you / stand / here?)
B: ..... (I / wait / for somebody)

present simple (I work / she doesn't work / do you work? etc.)

Units 5–7

4 Complete the sentences. Use the present simple.

1 ...Sue always gets... to work early. (Sue / always / get)
2 ...We don't watch... TV very often. (we / not / watch)
3 How often ...do you wash... your hair? (you / wash)
4 I want to go to the cinema, but ..... to go. (Sam / not / want)
5 ..... to go out tonight? (you / want)
6 ..... near here? (Helen / live)
7 ..... a lot of people. (Sarah / know)
8 I enjoy travelling, but ..... very much. (I / not / travel)
9 What time ..... in the morning? (you / usually / get up)
10 My parents are usually at home in the evening.
..... very often. (they / not / go out)
11 ..... work at five o'clock. (Tom / always / finish)
12 A: What ..... ? (Jessica / do)
B: ..... in a hotel. (she / work)

present simple, am/is/are and have (got)

Units 1–2, 5–7, 9

5 Read the questions and Clare's answers. Then write sentences about Clare.

1	Are you married?	No.	1 She isn't married.
2	Do you live in London?	Yes.	2 She lives in London.
3	Are you a student?	Yes.	3 .....
4	Have you got a car?	No.	4 .....
5	Do you go out a lot?	Yes.	5 .....
6	Have you got a lot of friends?	Yes.	6 .....
7	Do you like London?	No.	7 .....
8	Do you like dancing?	Yes.	8 .....
9	Are you interested in sport?	No.	9 .....

Clare

6 Complete the questions.

1 What's your name ..... ?
..... married?
Where ..... ?
..... any children?
How ..... ?

Ben.
Yes, I am.
In Barton Road.
Yes, a daughter.
She's three.

2 ..... ?
..... ?
..... your job?
..... a car?
..... to work by car?

I'm 29.
I work in a supermarket.
No, I hate it.
Yes, I have.
No, I usually go by bus.

3 Who is this man ..... ?
..... ?
..... ?
..... in London?

That's my brother.
Michael.
He's a travel agent.
No, in Manchester.

7 Write sentences from these words. All the sentences are present.

1 Sarah often / tennis ..... Sarah often plays tennis.
2 my parents / a new car ..... My parents have got a new car.
3 my shoes / dirty ..... My shoes are dirty.
4 Sonia / 32 years old ..... Sonia .....
5 I / two sisters .....
6 we often / TV in the evening .....
7 Amy never / a hat .....
8 a bicycle / two wheels .....
9 these flowers / beautiful .....
10 Emma / German very well .....

present continuous (I'm working) and present simple (I work)

Units 3–8

8 Complete the sentences.

9 Which is right?

1 '~~Are you speaking~~ / Do you speak English?' 'Yes, a little.' (Do you speak *is right*)
2 Sometimes we're going / we go away at weekends.
3 It's a nice day today. The sun is shining / shines.
4 *(You meet Kate in the street.)* Hello, Kate. Where are you going / do you go?
5 How often are you going / do you go on holiday?
6 Emily is a writer. She's writing / She writes books for children.
7 I'm never reading / I never read newspapers.
8 'Where are Mark and Laura?' 'They're watching / They watch TV in the living room.'
9 Helen is in her office. She's talking / She talks to somebody.
10 What time are you usually having / do you usually have dinner?
11 Joe isn't at home at the moment. He's visiting / He visits some friends.
12 'Would you like some tea?' 'No, thank you. I'm not drinking / I don't drink tea.'

was/were and past simple (I worked / did you work? etc.) — Units 10–12

10 Complete the sentences. Use one word only.

1 I got up early and ...had... a shower.
2 Tom was tired last night, so he ..... to bed early.
3 I ..... this key on the floor. Is it yours?
4 Kate got married when she ..... 23.
5 Helen is learning to drive. She ..... her first lesson yesterday.
6 'I've got a new job.' 'Yes, I know. David ..... me.'
7 'Where did you buy that book?' 'It was a present. Amy ..... it to me.'
8 We ..... hungry, so we had something to eat.
9 'Did you enjoy the film?' 'Yes, I ..... it was very good.'
10 'Did Andy come to your party?' 'No, we ..... him, but he didn't come.'

11 Look at the questions and Joe's answers. Write sentences about Joe when he was a child.

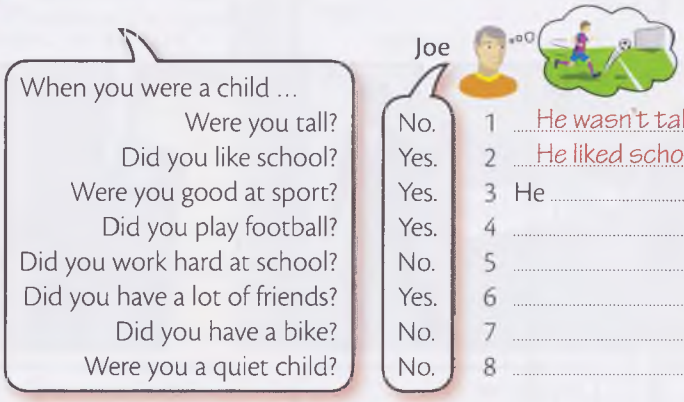

1 ...He wasn't tall.....
2 ...He liked school.....
3 He .....
4 .....
5 .....
6 .....
7 .....
8 .....

12 Complete the questions.

13 Put the verb in the right form (positive, negative or question).

1 It was a good party. ...I enjoyed... it. (I / enjoy)
2 '...Did you do... the shopping?' (you / do) 'No, ...I didn't have... time.' (I / have)
3 'Did you phone Adam?' 'No, I'm afraid .....' (I / forget)
4 I like your new watch. Where ..... it? (you / get)
5 I saw Lucy at the party, but ..... to her. (I / speak)
6 A: ..... a nice weekend? (you / have)
B: Yes, I went to stay with some friends of mine.
7 Paul wasn't well yesterday, so ..... to work. (he / go)
8 'Is Mary here?' 'Yes, ... five minutes ago.' (she / arrive)
9 Where ..... before he moved here? (Robert / live)
10 The restaurant wasn't expensive. ..... very much. (the meal / cost)

past simple (I worked) and past continuous (I was working)

Units 11–14

14 Complete the sentences. Use the past simple or past continuous.

1

It ....was raining.... (rain) when we ....went.... (go) out.

2

When I arrived at the office, Lisa and Paul ..... (work) at their desks.

3

I ..... (open) the window because it was hot.

4

The doorbell ..... (ring) when Sue ..... (cook).

5

I ..... (hear) a noise outside, so I ..... (look) out of the window.

6

Tom ..... (look) out of the window when the accident ..... (happen).

7

Richard had a book in his hand, but he ..... (not/read) it. He ..... (watch) TV.

8

Catherine bought a magazine, but she ..... (not/read) it. She didn't have time.

9

I ..... (finish) my meal, ... (pay) the bill and ..... (leave) the restaurant.

10

I ..... (see) Kate this morning. I ..... (walk) along the street and she ..... (wait) for the bus.

present and past

Units 3–14

15 Complete the sentences. Use one of these forms:

present simple (**I work/drive** etc.) present continuous (**I am working/driving** etc.)
past simple (**I worked/drove** etc.) past continuous (**I was working/driving** etc.)

1 You can turn off the television. I 'm not watching (not/watch) it.
2 Last night Jenny fell (fall) asleep while she was reading (read).
3 Listen! Somebody ..... (play) the piano.
4 'Have you got my key?' 'No, I ..... (give) it back to you.'
5 David is very lazy. He ..... (not/like) hard work.
6 Where ..... (your parents / go) for their holidays last year?
7 I ..... (see) Laura yesterday. She ..... (drive) her new car.
8 A: ..... (you/watch) TV much?
B: No, I haven't got a TV.
9 A: What ..... (you/do) at 6 o'clock last Sunday morning?
B: I was in bed asleep.
10 Andy isn't at home very much. He ..... (go) away a lot.
11 I ..... (try) to find a job at the moment. It's not easy.
12 I'm tired this morning. I ..... (not/sleep) very well last night.

present perfect (I have done / she has been etc.)

Units 15–19

16 Look at the pictures and complete the sentences. Use the present perfect.

5
Bookshop
Is this a good book?
I don't know.
I ..... it.
6
I'm looking for Jessica.
..... her?
Yes, she was here a few minutes ago.
7
More coffee?
No, thanks. I
..... enough.
8
..... to Sweden?
SWEDEN
Yes, I went there a few years ago.
9
Hi. We .....
to the cinema.
later
10
Enjoy the party!
Where are Steve and Jane?
later
JANE
STEVE
.....
to a party.
11
PAUL
Paul was asleep in the armchair.
He ..... up.
12
Since 2010.
How long
..... here?
13
ALAN
Do you know Alan?
Yes, we .....
each other for a long time.
14
The weather is horrible here.
It .....
all day.

17 Complete the sentences (1, 2 or 3 words).

1 Mark and Sarah are married. They ....have been.... married for five years.
2 David has been watching TV ....since.... 5 o'clock.
3 Joe is at work. He .... at work since 8.30.
4 'Have you just arrived in London?' 'No, I've been here .... five days.'
5 I've known Helen .... we were at school together.
6 'My brother lives in Los Angeles.' 'Really? How long .... there?'
7 George has had the same job .... 20 years.
8 Some friends of ours are staying with us at the moment. They .... here since Monday.

18 Complete the sentences. Write about yourself.

1 I've never ....ridden a horse.....
2 I've ....been to London.... many times.
3 I've just ....
4 I've .... (once / twice / a few times / many times)
5 I haven't .... yet.
6 I've never ....
7 I've .... since ....
8 I've .... for ....

present perfect (I have done etc.) and past simple (I did etc.) — Units 18–20

19 Present perfect or past simple? Complete the sentences (positive or negative).

1 A: Do you like London?
B: I don't know. I ....haven't been.... there.
2 A: Have you seen Kate?
B: Yes, I ....saw.... her five minutes ago.
3 A: That's a nice sweater. Is it new?
B: Yes, I .... it last week.
4 A: Are you tired this morning?
B: Yes, I .... to bed late last night.
5 A: Do you want this newspaper, or can I have it?
B: You can have it. I .... it.
6 A: Are you enjoying your new job?
B: I .... yet. My first day is next Monday.
7 A: The weather isn't very nice today, is it?
B: No, but it .... nice yesterday.
8 A: Was Helen at the party on Saturday?
B: I don't think so. I .... her there.
9 A: Is your son still at school?
B: No, he .... school two years ago.
10 A: Is Silvia married?
B: Yes, she .... married for five years.
11 A: Have you heard of George Washington?
B: Of course. He .... the first President of the United States.
12 A: How long does it take to make a pizza?
B: I don't know. I .... a pizza.

20 Write sentences with the present perfect or past simple.

1 A: Have you been to Thailand?
B: Yes, I went there last year. (I / go / there / last year)
2 A: Do you like London?
B: I don't know. I've never been there. (I / never / there)
3 A: What time is Paul going out?
B: ..... (he / already / go)
4 A: Has Catherine gone home?
B: Yes, ... (she / leave / at 4 o'clock)
5 A: New York is my favourite city.
B: Is it? ..... ? (how many times / you / there?)
6 A: What are you doing this weekend?
B: I don't know. ..... (I / not / decide / yet)
7 A: I can't find my address book. Have you seen it?
B: ..... (it / on the table / last night)
8 A: Do you know the Japanese restaurant in Leeson Street?
B: Yes, ... (I / eat / there a few times)
9 A: Paula and Sue are here.
B: Are they? ..... ? (what time / they / arrive?)

21 Present perfect or past simple? Complete the sentences.

1 A: Have you been to France?
B: Yes, many times.
A: When ..... the last time?
B: Two years ago.

2 A: Is this your car?
B: Yes, it is.
A: How long ..... it?
B: It's new. I ..... it yesterday.

3 A: Where do you live?
B: In Harold Street.
A: How long ..... there?
B: Five years. Before that ..... in Mill Road.
A: How long ..... in Mill Road?
B: About three years.

4 A: What do you do?
B: I work in a shop.
A: How long ..... there?
B: Nearly two years.
A: What ..... before that?
B: I ..... a taxi driver.

22 Write sentences about yourself.

1 (yesterday morning) I was late for work yesterday morning.
2 (last night) .....
3 (yesterday afternoon) .....
4 (... days ago) .....
5 (last week) .....
6 (last year) .....

present, past and present perfect

Units 3–20

23 Which is right?

1 '.....Is Sue working? (C).....' 'No, she's on holiday.'
A Does Sue work? **B** Is working Sue? **C** Is Sue working? **D** Does work Sue?

2 'Where ..... ?' 'In a village near London.'
A lives your uncle **B** does your uncle live **C** your uncle lives **D** does live your uncle

3 I speak Italian, but ..... French.
A I speak not **B** I'm not speaking **C** I doesn't speak **D** I don't speak

4 'Where's Tom?' '..... a shower at the moment.'
A He's having **B** He have **C** He has **D** He has had

5 Why ..... angry with me yesterday?
A were you **B** was you **C** you were **D** have you been

6 My favourite film is *Cleo's Dream*. ..... it four times.
A I'm seeing **B** I see **C** I was seeing **D** I've seen

7 I ..... out last night. I was too tired.
A don't go **B** didn't went **C** didn't go **D** haven't gone

8 Tina is from Chicago. She ..... there all her life.
A is living **B** has lived **C** lives **D** lived

9 My friend ..... for me when I arrived.
A waited **B** has waited **C** was waiting **D** has been waiting

10 'How long ..... English?' 'Six months.'
A do you learn **B** are you learning **C** you are learning **D** have you been learning

11 Paul is Canadian, but he lives in France. He has been there ..... .
A for three years **B** since three years **C** three years ago **D** during three years

12 'What time ..... ?' 'About an hour ago.'
A has Lisa phoned **B** Lisa has phoned **C** did Lisa phone **D** is Lisa phoning

13 What ..... when you saw her?
A did Sue wear **B** was Sue wearing **C** has Sue worn **D** was wearing Sue

14 'Can you drive?' 'No, ... a car, but I want to learn.'
A I never drive **B** I'm never driving **C** I've never driven **D** I was never driving

15 I saw Helen at the station when I was going to work this morning, but she ..... me.
A didn't see **B** don't see **C** hasn't seen **D** didn't saw

passive

Units 21–22, Appendix 1

24 Complete the sentences.

1

These houses ..were built.. (build) 20 years ago. Before that there was a cinema here, but the building ..... (damage) in a fire and had to ..... (knock down).

2

This bridge ..... (build) in 1955. It ..... (use) by hundreds of people every day. At the moment the bridge ..... (paint).

3

This street ..... (call) Wilton Street. It used to ..... (call) James Street, but the name ..... (change) a few years ago.

4

This is a bicycle factory. Bicycles ..... (make) here since 1971. It's the largest bicycle factory in the country. Thousands of bicycles ..... (produce) here every year.

25 Complete the sentences.

1 We ..were invited.. (invite) to the party, but we didn't go.
2 The museum is very popular. Every year it ..... (visit) by thousands of people.
3 Many buildings ..... (damage) in the storm last week.
4 A new road is going to ..... (build) next year.
5 'Where's your jacket?' 'It ..... (clean). It will be ready tomorrow.'
6 She's famous now, but in a few years her name will ..... (forget).
7 'Shall I do the washing-up?' 'No, it ..... (already/do).'
8 Milk should ..... (keep) in a fridge.
9 ..... (you/ever/bite) by a snake?
10 My bag ..... (steal) from my car yesterday afternoon.

26 Write a new sentence with the same meaning.

1 Somebody has stolen my keys. ..My keys have been stolen.....
2 Somebody stole my car last week. My car .....
3 Somebody has eaten all the bananas. All the .....
4 Somebody will repair the machine. The .....
5 Somebody is watching us. We .....
6 Somebody has to do the housework. The .....

27 Active or passive? Complete the sentences.

1 They ....are building.... (build) a new airport at the moment.
2 These shirts are clean now. They ....have been washed.... (wash).
3 'How did you fall?' 'Somebody .... (push) me.'
4 'How did you fall?' 'I .... (push).'
5 I can't find my bag. Somebody .... (take) it!
6 My watch is broken. It .... (repair) at the moment.
7 Who .... (invent) the camera?
8 When .... (the camera/invent)?
9 These shirts are clean now. They .... (wash).
10 These shirts are clean now. I .... (wash) them.
11 The letter was for me, so why .... (they/send) it to you?
12 The information will .... (send) to you as soon as possible.

future

Units 25–28

28 Which is the best alternative?

1 ....We're having (B).... a party next Sunday. I hope you can come.
A We have **B** We're having **C** We'll have

2 Do you know about Karen? .... her job. She told me last week.
A She leaves **B** She's going to leave **C** She'll leave

3 There's a programme on TV that I want to watch. .... in five minutes.
A It starts **B** It's starting **C** It will start

4 The weather is nice now, but I think .... later.
A it rains **B** it's raining **C** it will rain

5 'What .... next weekend?' 'Nothing. I've got no plans.'
A do you do **B** are you doing **C** will you do

6 'When you see Tina, can you ask her to phone me?' 'OK, ... her.'
A I ask **B** I'm going to ask **C** I'll ask

7 'What would you like to drink, tea or coffee?' '.... tea, please.'
A I have **B** I'm going to have **C** I'll have

8 Don't take that magazine away. .... it.
A I read **B** I'm going to read **C** I'll read

9 Rachel is ill, so .... to the party tomorrow night.
A she doesn't come **B** she isn't coming **C** she won't come

10 I want to meet Sarah at the station. What time ....?
A does her train arrive **B** is her train going to arrive **C** is her train arriving

11 'Will you be at home tomorrow evening?' 'No. ....'
A I go out **B** I'm going out **C** I'll go out

12 '.... you tomorrow?' 'Yes, OK.'
A Do I phone **B** Am I going to phone **C** Shall I phone

past, present and future

Units 3–20, 25–28

29 Complete the sentences.

1 A: Did you go (you/go) out last night?
B: No, ... (I/stay) at home.
A: What ..... (you/do)?
B: ..... (I/watch) TV.
A: ..... (you/go) out tomorrow night?
B: Yes, ... (I/go) to the cinema.
A: Which film ..... (you/see)?
B: ..... (I/not/know). ..... (I/not/decide) yet.

2 A: Are you on holiday here?
B: Yes, we are.
A: How long ..... (you/be) here?
B: ..... (we/arrive) yesterday.
A: And how long ..... (you/stay)?
B: Until the end of next week.
A: And ..... (you/like) it here?
B: Yes, ... (we/have) a wonderful time.

3 A: ..... (I/go) out with Chris and Steve this evening.
..... (you/want) to come with us?
B: Yes, where ..... (you/go)?
A: To the Italian restaurant in North Street. ..... (you/ever/eat) there?
B: Yes, ... (I/be) there two or three times. In fact I
..... (go) there last night, but I'd love to go again!

4 A: ..... (I/lose) my glasses again.
..... (you/see) them?
B: ..... (you/wear) them
when ..... (I/come) in.
A: Well, ... (I/not/wear)
them now, so where are they?
B: ..... (you/look) in the kitchen?
A: No, ... (I/go) and look now.

past, present and future

Units 3–22, 25–28, 52, 54, 98, 105

30 Rachel is talking about her best friend, Carolyn. Put the verbs in the correct form.

Rachel

Carolyn is my best friend. I remember very well the first time (1) ..... (we/meet). It was our first day at secondary school, and (2) ..... (we/sit) next to each other for the first lesson. (3) ..... (we/not/know) any other students in our class, and so (4) ..... (we/become) friends. We found that (5) ..... (we/like) the same things, especially music and sport, and so (6) ..... (we/spend) a lot of time together.

(7) ..... (we/leave) school five years ago, but (8) ..... (we/meet) as often as we can. For the last six months Carolyn (9) ..... (be) in Mexico – at the moment (10) ..... (she/work) in a school as a teaching assistant. (11) ..... (she/come) back to England next month, and when (12) ..... (she/come) back, (13) ..... (we/have) lots of things to talk about. (14) ..... (it/be) really nice to see her again.

31 Nick and his friend Jon are travelling round the world. Read the emails between Nick and his parents, and put the verbs in the correct form.

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Dear Mum and Dad

We're in Los Angeles, the first stop on our round-the-world trip! (1) We arrived (we/arrive) here yesterday, and now (2) ..... (we/stay) at a hotel near the airport. The flight was twelve hours, but (3) ..... (we/enjoy) it. (4) ..... (we/watch) some films and (5) ..... (sleep) a few hours, which is unusual for me – usually (6) ..... (I/not/sleep) well on planes.

Today is a rest day for us and (7) ..... (we/not/do) anything special, but tomorrow (8) ..... (we/go) to Hollywood (9) ..... (see) the film studios. (10) ..... (we/not/decide) yet what to do after Los Angeles. Jon (11) ..... (want) to drive up the coast to San Francisco, but I'd prefer (12) ..... (go) south to San Diego.

I hope all is well with you – (13) ..... (I/send) you another email next week.

Love

Nick

Nick

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Dear Nick

Thanks for your mail. It's good to hear that (14) ..... (you/have) a good time.
We're fine – Ellie and Jo (15) ..... (work) hard for their exams next month.
Dad has been busy at work and last week (16) ..... (he/have) a lot of important meetings. He's a little tired – I think (17) ..... (he/need) a good holiday.

Keep in touch!

Love

Mum

A month later ...

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Hi Mum and Dad

(18) ..... (we/be) in California for a month now. (19) ..... (we/get) back to Los Angeles yesterday after (20) ..... (see) many wonderful places.
I think the place (21) ..... (I/like) most was Yosemite National Park – it's beautiful there and (22) ..... (we/go) cycling a lot. The day before (23) ..... (we/leave), Jon (24) ..... (have) an accident on his bike. Luckily (25) ..... (he/not/injure), but the bike (26) ..... (damage).

(27) ..... (we/change) our travel plans since my last message: now (28) ..... (we/leave) for Hawaii on Monday (not Tuesday).
(29) ..... (we/stay) there for a week before (30) ..... (fly) to New Zealand. (31) ..... (that/be) different, I'm sure!

All the best to Ellie and Jo for their exams.

Love

Nick

Delete Junk Reply Reply All Forward Print To Do

Hi Nick

Have a good time in Hawaii! Ellie and Jo (32) ..... (finish) their exams yesterday – (33) ..... (I/let) you know when (34) ..... (we/get) the results.

We're all OK. Dad and I (35) ..... (look) forward to our holiday next month. (36) ..... (we/go) to Italy for two weeks – (37) ..... (we/send) you an email from there.

Take care!

Love

Mum

-ing and to ...

Units 51–55, 105, 112

32 Which is correct?

1 Don't forget ..to switch (B).. off the light before you go out.
A switch **B** to switch **C** switching

2 It's late. I must ..... now.
A go **B** to go **C** going

3 I'm sorry, but I don't have time ..... to you now.
A for talking **B** to talk **C** talking

4 Gary is always in the kitchen. He enjoys ..... .
A cook **B** to cook **C** cooking

5 We've decided ..... away for a few days.
A go **B** to go **C** going

6 You're making too much noise. Can you please stop ..... ?
A shout **B** to shout **C** shouting

7 Would you like ..... and eat with us on Sunday?
A come **B** to come **C** coming

8 That bag is too heavy for you. Let me ..... you.
A help **B** to help **C** helping

9 There's a swimming pool near my house. I go ..... every day.
A to swim **B** to swimming **C** swimming

10 I need to go shopping ..... some food.
A to buy **B** for buy **C** for buying

11 I'd love ..... a car like yours.
A have **B** to have **C** having

12 Could you ..... me with this bag, please?
A help **B** to help **C** helping

13 I don't mind ..... here, but I'd prefer to sit by the window.
A sit **B** to sit **C** sitting

14 Do you want ..... you?
A that I help **B** me to help **C** me helping

15 You should think carefully before ..... an important decision.
A make **B** to make **C** making

16 I wasn't feeling very well, but the medicine made me ..... better.
A feel **B** to feel **C** feeling

17 Shall I phone the restaurant ..... a table?
A for reserve **B** for reserving **C** to reserve

18 Tom looked at me without ..... anything.
A say **B** saying **C** to say

a and the

Units 65, 69–73

33 Complete the sentences.

1 Can you pass ....the sugar...., please?

2 Have you got .....?
No, I can't drive.

3 Do you have any milk?
Yes, there's some in .....

4 What do you do?
I'm .....

5 I don't feel very well.
I don't want to go to .....

6 What did you do last night?
I went to .....

7 Shall we walk home?
No, let's get .....

8 Can you play .....?
Yes, but not very well.

9 I'm interested in .....

10 What's the difference between those cars?
Nothing, they're .....

34 Write **a/an** or **the** if necessary. If **a/an/the** are not necessary, leave an empty space (–).

1 Who is ...the... best player in your team?
2 I don't watch ...–... TV very often.
3 'Is there ...a... bank near here?' 'Yes, at ...the... end of this street.'
4 I can't ride ..... horse.
5 ..... sky is very clear tonight.
6 Do you live here, or are you ..... tourist?
7 What did you have for ..... lunch?
8 Who was ..... first President of ..... United States?
9 I'm not feeling very good. I've got ..... headache.
10 I'm sorry, but I've forgotten your name. I can never remember ..... names.
11 What time is ..... next train to London?
12 Kate doesn't often send ..... emails. She prefers to call people.
13 'Where's Sue?' 'She's in ..... garden.'
14 Excuse me, I'm looking for ..... Majestic Hotel. Is it near here?
15 Gary was ill ..... last week, so he didn't go to ..... work.
16 Everest is ..... highest mountain in ..... world.
17 I usually listen to ..... radio while I'm having ..... breakfast.
18 I like ..... sport. My favourite sport is ..... basketball.
19 Emily is ..... doctor. Her husband is ..... art teacher.
20 My apartment is on ..... second floor. Turn left at ..... top of ..... stairs, and it's on ..... right.
21 After ..... dinner, we watched ..... TV.
22 Last year we had ..... wonderful holiday in ..... south of ..... France.

prepositions

Units 103–108, 111

35 Write a preposition (**in/for/by** etc.).

1 Helen is studying law ...at... university.
2 What is the longest river ..... Europe?
3 Is there anything ..... TV this evening?
4 We arrived ..... the hotel after midnight.
5 'Where's Mark?' 'He's ..... holiday.'
6 Tom hasn't got up yet. He's still ..... bed.
7 Lisa is away. She's been away ..... Monday.
8 The next meeting is ..... 15 April.
9 I usually go to work ..... car.
10 There's too much sugar ..... my coffee.
11 Joe lived in London ..... six months. He didn't like it very much.
12 Were there a lot of people ..... the party?
13 What are you doing ..... the moment? Are you working?
14 I don't know any of the people ..... this photo.
15 The train was very slow. It stopped ..... every station.
16 I like this room. I like the pictures ..... the walls.
17 'Did you buy that picture?' 'No, it was given to me ..... a friend of mine.'
18 I'm going away ..... a few days. I'll be back ..... Thursday.
19 Silvia has gone ..... Italy. She's ..... Milan at the moment.
20 Emma left school ..... sixteen and got a job ..... a shop.

Study guide

If you are not sure which units you need to study, use this study guide.

You have to decide which alternative (A, B, C etc.) is right. SOMETIMES MORE THAN ONE ALTERNATIVE IS CORRECT.

If you don't know (or if you are not sure) which alternatives are correct, study the unit (or units) on the right. You will find the correct sentence in the unit.

The key to this study guide is on page 313.

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Present	
1.1 ..... . Can you close the window, please? **A** I cold **B** I'm cold **C** I have cold **D** It has cold	1
1.2 Lisa ..... in politics. **A** isn't interested **B** not interested **C** doesn't interested **D** doesn't interest	1
1.3 '..... ?' 'No, she's out.' **A** Is at home your mother **B** Does your mother at home **C** Is your mother at home **D** Are your mother at home	2
1.4 These shoes are nice. ..... **A** How much are they? **B** How many are they? **C** How much they are? **D** How much is they?	2
1.5 Look, there's Sarah. ..... a brown coat. **A** She wearing **B** She has wearing **C** She is wearing **D** She's wearing	3, 23
1.6 You can turn off the television. ..... it. **A** I'm not watch **B** I'm not watching **C** I not watching **D** I don't watching	3, 23
1.7 '..... today?' 'No, he's at home.' **A** Is working Ben **B** Is work Ben **C** Is Ben work **D** Is Ben working	4, 23
1.8 Look, there's Emily! ..... **A** Where she is going? **B** Where she go? **C** Where's she going? **D** Where she going?	4, 23
1.9 The earth ..... round the sun. **A** going **B** go **C** goes **D** does go **E** is go	5, 23
1.10 We ..... away at weekends. **A** often go **B** go often **C** often going **D** are often go	5, 23, 94
1.11 We ..... TV very often. **A** not watch **B** doesn't watch **C** don't watch **D** don't watching **E** watch not	6, 23
1.12 '..... play the guitar?' 'Yes, but I'm not very good.' **A** Do you play **B** Are you play **C** Does you play **D** Do you playing **E** Play you	7, 23
1.13 I don't understand this sentence. What ..... ? **A** mean this word **B** means this word **C** does mean this word **D** does this word mean **E** this word means	7, 23

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT

STUDY UNIT

1.14 Please be quiet. 8, 23
A I working. **B** I work. **C** I'm working. **D** I'm work.

1.15 Tom ..... a shower every morning. 8, 58
A has **B** having **C** is having **D** have

1.16 What ..... at weekends? 8, 23
A do you usually **B** are you usually doing **C** are you usually do
D do you usually do **E** you do usually

1.17 Sarah isn't feeling well. ..... a headache. 9, 58
A She have **B** She have got **C** She has **D** She's got

1.18 They ..... any children. 9, 58
A don't have **B** doesn't have **C** no have **D** haven't got **E** hasn't got

Past

2.1 The weather ..... last week. 10
A is good **B** was good **C** were good **D** good **E** had good

2.2 Why ..... late this morning? 10
A you was **B** did you **C** was you **D** you were **E** were you

2.3 Terry ..... in a bank from 2005 to 2011. 11
A work **B** working **C** works **D** worked **E** was work

2.4 Caroline ..... to the cinema three times last week. 11
A go **B** went **C** goes **D** got **E** was

2.5 I ..... TV yesterday. 12, 23
A didn't watch **B** didn't watched **C** wasn't watched
D don't watch **E** didn't watching

2.6 'How ..... ?' 'I don't know. I didn't see it.' 12
A happened the accident **B** did happen the accident
C does the accident happen **D** did the accident happen
E the accident happened

2.7 What ..... at 11.30 yesterday? 13
A were you doing **B** was you doing **C** you were doing
D were you do **E** you was doing

2.8 Jack was reading a book when his phone 14
A ringing **B** ring **C** rang **D** was ringing **E** was ring

2.9 I saw Lucy and Steve this morning. They ..... at the bus stop. 14
A waiting **B** waited **C** were waiting **D** was waiting **E** were waited

Present perfect

3.1 'Where's Rebecca?' '..... to bed.' 15
A She is gone **B** She has gone **C** She goes **D** She have gone
E She's gone

3.2 'Are Laura and Paul here?' 'No, they ..... .' 16
A don't arrive yet **B** have already arrived **C** haven't already arrived
D haven't arrived yet

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
3.3	My sister ..... by plane. **A** has never travel **B** has never travelled **C** is never travelled **D** has never been travelled **E** have never travelled	17, 23
3.4	..... that woman before, but I can't remember where. **A** I see **B** I seen **C** I've saw **D** I've seen **E** I've seeing	17, 23
3.5	'How long ..... married?' 'Since 2007.' **A** you are **B** you have been **C** has you been **D** are you **E** have you been	18
3.6	'Do you know Lisa?' 'Yes, ... her for a long time.' **A** I knew **B** I've known **C** I know **D** I am knowing	18
3.7	Richard has been in Canada ..... . **A** for six months **B** since six months **C** six months ago **D** in six months	19, 104
3.8	'When did Tom go out?' '.....' **A** For ten minutes. **B** Since ten minutes. **C** Ten minutes ago. **D** In ten minutes.	19
3.9	We ..... a holiday last year. **A** don't have **B** haven't had **C** hasn't had **D** didn't have **E** didn't had	20
3.10	Where ..... on Sunday afternoon? I couldn't find you. **A** you were **B** you have been **C** was you **D** have you been **E** were you	20
Passive		
4.1	This house ..... 100 years ago. **A** is built **B** is building **C** was building **D** was built **E** built	21, 23
4.2	We ..... to the party last week. **A** didn't invite **B** didn't invited **C** weren't invited **D** wasn't invited **E** haven't been invited	21, 23
4.3	'Where ..... born?' 'In Cairo.' **A** you are **B** you were **C** was you **D** are you **E** were you	21
4.4	My car is at the garage. It ..... . **A** is being repaired **B** is repairing **C** have been repaired **D** repaired **E** repairs	22
4.5	I can't find my keys. I think ..... . **A** they've been stolen **B** they are stolen **C** they've stolen **D** they're being stolen	22
Verb forms		
5.1	It ....., so we didn't need an umbrella. **A** wasn't rained **B** wasn't rain **C** didn't raining **D** wasn't raining	23
5.2	Somebody ..... this window. **A** has broke **B** has broken **C** has breaked **D** has break	24

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Future	
6.1 Andrew ..... tennis tomorrow. **A** is playing **B** play **C** plays **D** is play	25
6.2 ..... out tonight? **A** Are you going **B** Are you go **C** Do you go **D** Go you **E** Do you going	25
6.3 'What time is the concert tonight?' 'It ..... at 7.30.' **A** is start **B** is starting **C** starts **D** start **E** starting	25
6.4 What ..... to the wedding next week? **A** are you wearing **B** are you going to wear **C** do you wear **D** you are going to wear	26
6.5 I think Kelly ..... the exam. **A** passes **B** will pass **C** will be pass **D** will passing	27
6.6 ..... to the cinema on Saturday. Do you want to come with us? **A** We go **B** We'll go **C** We're going **D** We will going	27
6.7 '..... you tomorrow, OK?' 'OK, bye.' **A** I phone **B** I phoning **C** I'm phoning **D** I'll phone	28
6.8 ..... tomorrow, so I can't meet you. **A** I work **B** I'll work **C** I'm working **D** I'll working	28
6.9 It's a nice day. ..... for a walk? **A** Do we go **B** Shall we go **C** Are we go **D** We go **E** Go we	28
Modals, imperative etc.	
7.1 ..... to the cinema this evening, but I'm not sure. **A** I'll go **B** I'm going **C** I may go **D** I might go	29
7.2 '..... here?' 'Yes, of course.' **A** Can I sit **B** Do I sit **C** May I sit **D** Can I to sit	29, 30
7.3 I'm having a party next week, but Paul and Rachel ..... . **A** can't come **B** can't to come **C** can't coming **D** couldn't come	30
7.4 Before Maria came to Britain, she ..... understand much English. **A** can **B** can't **C** not **D** couldn't **E** doesn't	30
7.5 We ..... walk home last night. There were no buses. **A** have to **B** had to **C** must **D** must to **E** must have	31, 33
7.6 I ..... go yet. I can stay a little longer. **A** must **B** mustn't **C** must not **D** don't need **E** don't need to	31
7.7 It's a good film. You ..... go and see it. **A** should to **B** ought to **C** ought **D** should **E** need	32
7.8 What time ..... go to the dentist tomorrow? **A** you must **B** you have to **C** have you to **D** do you have to	33
7.9 We ..... wait long for the bus – it came in a few minutes. **A** don't have to **B** hadn't to **C** didn't have to **D** didn't had to **E** mustn't	33

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT

		STUDY UNIT
7.10	'..... some coffee?' 'No, thank you.' **A** Are you liking **B** You like **C** Would you like **D** Do you like	34
7.11	Please ..... . Stay here with me. **A** don't go **B** you no go **C** go not **D** you don't go	35
7.12	Dave ..... in a factory. Now he works in a supermarket. **A** working **B** works **C** worked **D** use to work **E** used to work	36
There and **it**		
8.1	Excuse me, ... a hotel near here? **A** has there **B** is there **C** there is **D** is it	37
8.2	..... a lot of accidents on this road. It's very dangerous. **A** Have **B** It has **C** There have **D** They are **E** There are	37
8.3	I was hungry when I got home, but ..... anything to eat. **A** there wasn't **B** there weren't **C** it wasn't **D** there hasn't been	38
8.4	..... three kilometres from our house to the city centre. **A** It's **B** It has **C** There is **D** There are	39
8.5	..... true that you're going away? **A** Is there **B** Is it **C** Is **D** Are you	39
Auxiliary verbs		
9.1	I haven't got a car, but my sister ..... . **A** have **B** is **C** has **D** hasn't **E** has got	40
9.2	I don't like hot weather, but Sue ..... . **A** does **B** doesn't **C** do **D** does like **E** likes	40
9.3	'Nicola got married last week.' '..... Really?' **A** Is she? **B** Got she? **C** Did she? **D** Has she?	41
9.4	You haven't met my mother, ... ? **A** haven't you **B** have you **C** did you **D** you have **E** you haven't	41
9.5	Ben doesn't watch TV. He doesn't read newspapers ..... . **A** too **B** either **C** neither **D** never	42
9.6	'I'd like to go to Australia.' '.....' **A** So do I. **B** So am I. **C** So would I. **D** Neither do I. **E** So I would.	42
9.7	Sue ..... much at weekends. **A** don't **B** doesn't **C** don't do **D** doesn't do	43
Questions		
10.1	'When ..... ?' 'I'm not sure. More than 100 years ago.' **A** did the telephone invent **B** has the telephone invented **C** was invented the telephone **D** was the telephone invented **E** the telephone was invented	44
10.2	'I broke my finger last week.' 'How ..... that?' **A** did you **B** you did **C** you did do **D** did you do	44

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
10.3	Why ..... me last night? I was waiting for you to phone. **A** didn't you phone **B** you not phone **C** you don't phone **D** you didn't phone	44
10.4	'Who ..... in this house?' 'I don't know.' **A** lives **B** does live **C** does lives **D** living	45
10.5	What ..... when you told him the story? **A** said Paul **B** did Paul say **C** Paul said **D** did Paul said	45
10.6	'Tom's father is in hospital.' '.....' **A** In which hospital he is? **B** In which hospital he is in? **C** Which hospital he is in? **D** Which hospital is he in?	46
10.7	Did you have a good holiday? ..... **A** How was the weather like? **B** What was the weather like? **C** What the weather was like? **D** Was the weather like?	46
10.8	..... taller – Joe or Gary? **A** Who is **B** What is **C** Which is **D** Who has	47
10.9	There are four umbrellas here. ..... is yours? **A** What **B** Who **C** Which **D** How **E** Which one	47, 75
10.10	How long ..... to cross the Atlantic by ship? **A** is it **B** does it need **C** does it take **D** does it want	48
10.11	I don't remember what ..... at the party. **A** Kate was wearing **B** was wearing Kate **C** was Kate wearing	49
10.12	'Do you know ..... ?' 'Yes, I think so.' **A** if Jack is at home **B** is Jack at home **C** whether Jack is at home **D** that Jack is at home	49
Reported speech		
11.1	I saw Steve a week ago. He said that ..... me, but he didn't. **A** he phone **B** he phones **C** he'll phone **D** he's going to phone **E** he would phone	50
11.2	'Why did Tim go to bed so early?' 'He .....' **A** said he was tired **B** said that he was tired **C** said me he was tired **D** told me he was tired **E** told that he was tired	50
-ing and to		
12.1	You shouldn't ..... so hard. **A** working **B** work **C** to work **D** worked	51
12.2	It's late. I ..... now. **A** must to go **B** have go **C** have to going **D** have to go	51
12.3	Tina has decided ..... her car. **A** sell **B** to sell **C** selling **D** to selling	52
12.4	I don't mind ..... early. **A** get up **B** to get up **C** getting up **D** to getting up	52

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
12.5	Do you like ..... early? **A** get up **B** to get up **C** getting up **D** to getting up	52
12.6	Do you want ..... you some money? **A** me lend **B** me lending **C** me to lend **D** that I lend	53
12.7	He's very funny. He makes ..... . **A** me laugh **B** me laughing **C** me to laugh **D** that I laugh	53
12.8	Paula went to the shop ..... a newspaper. **A** for get **B** for to get **C** for getting **D** to get **E** get	54
Go, get, do, make and **have**		
13.1	It's a nice day. Let's go ..... . **A** for a swim **B** on a swim **C** to swimming **D** swimming	55
13.2	I'm sorry your mother is ill. I hope she ..... better soon. **A** has **B** makes **C** gets **D** goes	56
13.3	Kate ..... the car and drove away. **A** went into **B** went in **C** got in **D** got into	56
13.4	'Shall I open the window?' 'No, it's OK. I'll ..... it.' **A** do **B** make **C** get **D** open	57
13.5	I'm sorry, I ..... a mistake. **A** did **B** made **C** got **D** had	57
13.6	'..... a good time in Tokyo?' 'Yes, it was great.' **A** Have you **B** Had you **C** Do you have **D** Did you have	58
Pronouns and possessives		
14.1	I don't want this book. You can have ..... . **A** it **B** them **C** her **D** him	59, 62
14.2	Sue and Kevin are going to the cinema. Do you want to go with ..... ? **A** her **B** they **C** them **D** him	59, 62
14.3	I know Amy, but I don't know ..... husband. **A** their **B** his **C** she **D** her	60, 62
14.4	Oxford is famous for ..... university. **A** his **B** its **C** it's **D** their	60
14.5	I didn't have an umbrella, so Sarah gave me ..... . **A** her **B** hers **C** her umbrella **D** she's	61, 62
14.6	I went out to meet a friend of ..... . **A** mine **B** my **C** me **D** I **E** myself	61, 62
14.7	We had a good holiday. We enjoyed ..... . **A** us **B** our **C** ours **D** ourself **E** ourselves	63
14.8	Kate and Helen are good friends. They know ..... well. **A** each other **B** them **C** themselves **D** theirselves	63

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT		STUDY UNIT
Determiners and pronouns		
16.1	'I'm going on holiday next week.' 'Oh, ... nice.' **A** it's **B** this is **C** that's	74
16.2	'Is there a bank near here?' 'Yes, there's ..... at the end of this street.' **A** some **B** it **C** one **D** a one	75
16.3	This cup is dirty. Can I have ..... ? **A** clean one **B** a clean one **C** clean **D** a clean	75
16.4	I'm going shopping. I'm going to buy ..... clothes. **A** any **B** some	76
16.5	'Where's your luggage?' 'I don't have ..... .' **A** one **B** some **C** any	76
16.6	Tracey and Jack ..... . **A** have no children **B** don't have no children **C** don't have any children **D** have any children	77, 78
16.7	'How much money do you have?' '.....' **A** No. **B** No-one. **C** Any. **D** None.	77
16.8	There is ..... in the room. It's empty. **A** anybody **B** nobody **C** anyone **D** no-one	78, 79
16.9	'What did you say?' '.....' **A** Nothing. **B** Nobody. **C** Anything. **D** Not anything.	78, 79
16.10	I'm hungry. I want ..... . **A** something for eat **B** something to eat **C** something for eating	79
16.11	Ben watches TV for about two hours ..... . **A** all evening **B** all evenings **C** all the evenings **D** every evenings **E** every evening	80
16.12	..... friends. **A** Everybody need **B** Everybody needs **C** Everyone need **D** Everyone needs	80
16.13	..... children like playing. **A** Most **B** The most **C** Most of **D** The most of	81
16.14	I like ..... those pictures. **A** both **B** both of **C** either **D** either of	82
16.15	I haven't read ..... these books. **A** neither **B** neither of **C** either **D** either of	82
16.16	Do you have ..... friends? **A** a lot of **B** much **C** many **D** much of **E** many of	83
16.17	We like films, so we go to the cinema ..... . **A** a lot of **B** much **C** many **D** a lot	83
16.18	There were ..... people in the theatre. It was nearly empty. **A** a little **B** few **C** little **D** a few of	84
16.19	They have ..... money, so they're not poor. **A** a little **B** a few **C** few **D** little **E** little of	84

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
Adjectives and adverbs	
17.1 I don't speak any ..... . **A** foreign languages **B** languages foreign **C** languages foreigns	85
17.2 He ate his dinner very ..... . **A** quick **B** quicker **C** quickly	86
17.3 You speak English very ..... . **A** good **B** fluent **C** well **D** slow	86
17.4 Helen wants ..... . **A** a more big car **B** a car more big **C** a car bigger **D** a bigger car	87
17.5 'Do you feel better today?' 'No, I feel ..... .' **A** good **B** worse **C** more bad **D** more worse	87
17.6 Athens is older ..... Rome. **A** as **B** than **C** that **D** of	88
17.7 I can run faster ..... . **A** than him **B** that he can **C** than he can **D** as he can **E** as he	88
17.8 Tennis isn't ..... football. **A** popular as **B** popular than **C** as popular than **D** so popular that **E** as popular as	89
17.9 The weather today is the same ..... yesterday. **A** as **B** that **C** than **D** like	89
17.10 The Europa Hotel is ..... in the city. **A** the more expensive hotel **B** the most expensive hotel **C** the hotel most expensive **D** the hotel the more expensive **E** the hotel more expensive	90
17.11 The film was very bad. I think it's the ..... film I've ever seen. **A** worse **B** baddest **C** most bad **D** worst **E** more worse	90
17.12 Why don't you buy a car? You've got ..... . **A** enough money **B** money enough **C** enough of money	91
17.13 Is your English ..... a conversation? **A** enough good to have **B** good enough for have **C** enough good for **D** good enough to have	91
17.14 I'm ..... out. **A** too tired for go **B** too much tired for going **C** too tired to go **D** too much tired to go	92
Word order	
18.1 Sue ..... . They're very nice. **A** bought yesterday some new shoes **B** bought some new shoes yesterday **C** yesterday bought some new shoes	93
18.2 ..... coffee in the morning. **A** I drink always **B** Always I drink **C** I always drink	94

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
18.3 ..... during the day. **A** They are at home never **B** They are never at home **C** They never are at home **D** Never they are at home	94
18.4 'Where's Emma?' 'She .....' **A** isn't here yet **B** isn't here already **C** isn't here still	95
18.5 I locked the door and I gave ..... . **A** Sarah the keys **B** to Sarah the keys **C** the keys Sarah **D** the keys to Sarah	96
Conjunctions and clauses	
19.1 I can't talk to you now. I'll talk to you later when ..... more time. **A** I'll have **B** I had **C** I have **D** I'm going to have	98
19.2 ..... late this evening, don't wait for me. **A** If I'm **B** If I'll be **C** When I'm **D** When I'll be	99
19.3 I don't know the answer. If I ..... the answer, I'd tell you. **A** know **B** would know **C** have known **D** knew	100
19.4 I like this jacket. ..... it if it wasn't so expensive. **A** I buy **B** I'll buy **C** I bought **D** I'd bought **E** I'd buy	100
19.5 Emma lives in a house ..... is 400 years old. **A** who **B** that **C** which **D** it **E** what	101
19.6 The people ..... work in the office are very friendly. **A** who **B** that **C** they **D** which **E** what	101
19.7 Did you find the books ..... ? **A** who you wanted **B** that you wanted **C** what you wanted **D** you wanted **E** you wanted it	102
19.8 I met ..... can speak six languages. **A** a woman who **B** a woman which **C** a woman **D** a woman she	102
Prepositions	
20.1 Bye! I'll see you ..... . **A** until Friday **B** at Friday **C** in Friday **D** on Friday	103
20.2 Hurry! The train leaves ..... five minutes. **A** at **B** on **C** from **D** after **E** in	103
20.3 'How long will you be away?' '..... Monday.' **A** On **B** To **C** Until **D** Till **E** Since	104
20.4 We played tennis yesterday. We played ..... two hours. **A** in **B** for **C** since **D** during	105
20.5 I always have breakfast before ..... to work. **A** I go **B** go **C** to go **D** going	105
20.6 Write your name ..... the top of the page. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	106

IF YOU ARE NOT SURE WHICH IS RIGHT	STUDY UNIT
20.7 There are a lot of apples ..... those trees. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	106
20.8 What's the largest city ..... the world? **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** of	107
20.9 The office is ..... the first floor. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	107
20.10 I met a lot of people ..... the party. **A** on **B** to **C** in **D** at	108
20.11 I want to go ..... Italy next year. **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	108
20.12 What time did you arrive ..... the hotel? **A** at **B** on **C** in **D** to	108
20.13 'Where is David in this picture?' 'He's ..... Laura.' **A** at front of **B** in the front of **C** in front of **D** in front from	109
20.14 I jumped ..... the wall into the garden. **A** on **B** through **C** across **D** over **E** above	110
20.15 Jane isn't at work this week. She's ..... holiday. **A** on **B** in **C** for **D** to **E** at	111
20.16 Do you like travelling ..... ? **A** with train **B** with the train **C** in train **D** on train **E** by train	111
20.17 I'm not very good ..... telling stories. **A** on **B** with **C** at **D** in **E** for	112
20.18 Tom left without ..... goodbye. **A** say **B** saying **C** to say **D** that he said	112
20.19 I have to phone ..... today. **A** with my parents **B** to my parents **C** at my parents **D** my parents	113
20.20 'Do you like eating in restaurants?' 'It depends ..... the restaurant.' **A** in **B** at **C** of **D** on **E** over	113

Phrasal verbs

21.1 The car stopped and a woman got ..... . **A** off **B** down **C** out **D** out of	114
21.2 It was cold, so I ..... . **A** put on my coat **B** put my coat on **C** put the coat on me **D** put me the coat on	115
21.3 I've got Rachel's keys. I have to ..... to her. **A** give back **B** give them back **C** give back them **D** give it back	115

Key to Exercises

UNIT 1

1.1
2 they're
3 it isn't / it's not
4 that's
5 I'm not
6 you aren't / you're not

1.2
2 'm/am
3 is
4 are
5 's/is
6 are
7 is ... are
8 'm/am ... is

1.3
2 I'm / I am
3 He's / He is
4 they're / they are
5 It's / It is
6 You're / You are
7 She's / She is
8 Here's / Here is

1.4
Example answers:
1 My name is Robert.
2 I'm 25.
3 I'm from Australia.
4 I'm a gardener.
5 My favourite colours are black and white.
6 I'm interested in plants.

1.5
2 They're / They are cold.
3 He's / He is hot.
4 He's / He is scared.
5 They're / They are hungry.
6 She's / She is angry.

1.6
2 It's/It is windy today. *or* It isn't/It's not windy today.
3 My hands are cold. *or* My hands aren't/are not cold.
4 Brazil is a very big country.
5 Diamonds aren't/are not cheap.
6 Toronto isn't/is not in the US.
8 I'm/I am hungry. *or* I'm not/I am not hungry.
9 I'm/I am a good swimmer. *or* I'm not/I am not a good swimmer.
10 I'm/I am interested in football. *or* I'm not/I am not interested in football.

UNIT 2

2.1
2 F
3 H
4 C
5 A
6 E
7 B
8 I
9 D

2.2
3 Is your job interesting?
4 Are the shops open today?
5 Where are you from?
6 Are you interested in sport?
7 Is the station near here?
8 Are your children at school?
9 Why are you late?

2.3
2 Where's / Where is
3 How old are
4 How much are
5 What's / What is
6 Who's / Who is
7 What colour are

2.4
2 Are you American?
3 How old are you?
4 Are you a teacher?
5 Are you married?
6 Is your wife a lawyer?
7 Where's/Where is she from?
8 What's/What is her name?
9 How old is she?

2.5
2 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
3 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
4 Yes, they are. *or* No, they aren't. / No, they're not.
5 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
6 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.

UNIT 3

3.1
2 's/is waiting
3 're/are playing
4 He's/He is lying
5 They're/They are having
6 She's/She is sitting

3.2
2 's/is cooking
3 're/are standing
4 's/is swimming
5 're/are staying
6 's/is having
7 're/are building
8 'm/am going

3.3
3 She's/She is sitting on the floor.
4 She isn't/She's not reading a book.
5 She isn't/She's not playing the piano.
6 She's/She is laughing.
7 She's/She is wearing a hat.
8 She isn't/She's not drinking coffee.

3.4
3 I'm sitting on a chair. *or* I'm not sitting on a chair.
4 I'm eating. *or* I'm not eating.
5 It's raining. *or* It isn't raining. / It's not raining.
6 I'm learning English.
7 I'm listening to music. *or* I'm not listening to music.
8 The sun is shining. *or* The sun isn't shining.
9 I'm wearing shoes. *or* I'm not wearing shoes.
10 I'm not reading a newspaper.

UNIT 4

4.1
2 Are you going now?
3 Is it raining?
4 Are you enjoying the film?
5 Is that clock working?
6 Are you waiting for a bus?

4.2
2 Where is she going?
3 What are you eating?
4 Why are you crying?
5 What are they looking at?
6 Why is he laughing?

4.3
3 Are you listening to me?
4 Where are your friends going?
5 Are your parents watching TV?
6 What is Jessica cooking?
7 Why are you looking at me?
8 Is the bus coming?

4.4
2 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
3 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
4 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't. / No, it's not.
5 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
6 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.

UNIT 5

5.1
2 thinks
3 flies
4 dances
5 has
6 finishes

5.2
2 live
3 She eats
4 He plays
5 They go
6 He sleeps

5.3
2 open
3 closes
4 teaches
5 meet
6 washes
7 costs
8 cost
9 boils
10 like ... likes

5.4
2 I never go to the cinema.
3 Martina always works hard.
4 Children usually like chocolate.
5 Jackie always enjoys parties.
6 I often forget people's names.
7 Sam never watches TV.
8 We usually have dinner at 7.30.
9 Kate always wears nice clothes.

5.5
Example answers:
2 I sometimes read in bed.
3 I often get up before 7 o'clock.
4 I never go to work by bus.
5 I usually drink two cups of coffee in the morning.

UNIT 6

6.1
2 Anna doesn't play the piano very well.
3 They don't know my phone number.
4 We don't work very hard.
5 He doesn't have a bath every day.
6 You don't do the same thing every day.

6.2
2 Kate doesn't like classical music.
I like (*or* I don't like) classical music.
3 Ben and Sophie don't like boxing.
Kate likes boxing.
I like (*or* I don't like) boxing.
4 Ben and Sophie like horror movies.
Kate doesn't like horror movies.
I like (*or* I don't like) horror movies.

6.3
Example answers:
2 I never go to the theatre.
3 I don't ride a bike very often.
4 I never eat in restaurants.
5 I often travel by train.

6.4
2 doesn't use
3 don't go
4 doesn't wear
5 don't know
6 doesn't cost
7 don't see

6.5
3 don't know
4 doesn't talk
5 drinks
6 don't believe
7 like
8 doesn't eat

UNIT 7

7.1
2 Do you play tennis?
3 Does Lucy live near here?
4 Do Tom's friends play tennis? / Do his friends play tennis? / Do they play tennis?
5 Does your brother speak English? / Does he speak English?
6 Do you do yoga every morning?
7 Does Paul go away a lot? / Does he go away a lot? *or* Does Paul go away much? / Does he go away much?
8 Do you want to be famous?
9 Does Anna work hard? / Does she work hard?

7.2
3 How often do you watch TV?
4 What do you want for dinner?
5 Do you like football?
6 Does your brother like football?
7 What do you do in your free time?
8 Where does your sister work?
9 Do you always have breakfast?
10 What does this word mean?
11 Does it snow here in winter?
12 What time do you usually go to bed?
13 How much does it cost to phone New York?
14 What do you usually have for breakfast?

7.3
2 Do you enjoy / Do you like
3 do you start
4 Do you work
5 do you go
6 does he do
7 does he teach
8 Does he enjoy / Does he like

7.4
2 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
3 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
4 Yes, it does. *or* No, it doesn't.
5 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.

UNIT 8

8.1
2 No, she isn't.
Yes, she does.
She's playing the piano.
3 Yes, he does.
Yes, he is.
He's cleaning a window.
4 No, they aren't.
Yes, they do.
They teach.

8.2
2 don't
3 are
4 does
5 's/is ... don't
6 do
7 does
8 doesn't

8.3

4 is singing
5 She wants
6 do you use
7 you're sitting
8 I don't understand
9 I'm going ... Are you coming
10 does your father finish
11 I'm not listening
12 He's/He is cooking
13 doesn't usually drive ... usually walks
14 doesn't like ... She prefers

UNIT 9

9.1

3 He's got a new job.
4 Have you got an umbrella?
5 We've got a lot of work to do.
6 I haven't got your phone number.
7 Has your father got a car?
8 How much money have we got?

9.2

2 I don't have many clothes.
3 Does Tom have a brother?
4 How many children do they have?
5 Do you have any questions?
6 Sam doesn't have a job.

9.3

2 He's got a bike. *or* He has a bike.
3 He hasn't got a dog. *or* He doesn't have a dog.
4 He's got a mobile phone. *or* He has a mobile phone.
5 He hasn't got a watch. *or* He doesn't have a watch.
6 He's got two brothers and a sister. *or* He has two brothers and a sister.
7 I've got a dog. / I have a dog. *or* I haven't got a dog. / I don't have a dog.
8 I've got a bike. / I have a bike. *or* I haven't got a bike. / I don't have a bike.
9 *(Example answer)* I've got a brother and a sister. *or* I have a brother and a sister.

9.4

3 has
4 don't have
5 have
6 don't have
7 doesn't have

9.5

2 's got / has got a lot of friends
3 hasn't got a key
4 haven't got much time
5 has got six legs
6 haven't got a job

UNIT 10

10.1

2 Jack and Kate were at/in the cinema.
3 Sue was at the station.
4 Mr and Mrs Hall were in/at a restaurant.
5 Ben was on the beach / on a beach / at the beach / at the seaside.
6 *(Example answer)* I was at work.

10.2

2 is ... was
3 'm/am
4 was
5 were
6 're/are
7 Was
8 was
9 are ... were

10.3

2 wasn't ... was
3 was ... were
4 '**Were** Kate and Ben at the party?' 'Kate **was** there, but Ben **wasn't**.' *or* 'Kate **wasn't** there, but Ben **was**.'
5 were
6 weren't ... were

10.4

2 Was your exam difficult?
3 Where were Sue and Chris last week?
4 How much was your new camera?
5 Why were you angry yesterday?
6 Was the weather nice last week?

UNIT 11

11.1

2 opened
3 started ... finished
4 wanted
5 happened
6 rained
7 enjoyed ... stayed
8 died

11.2

2 saw
3 played
4 paid
5 visited
6 bought
7 went
8 thought
9 copied
10 knew
11 put
12 spoke

11.3

2 got
3 had
4 left
5 drove
6 got
7 parked
8 walked
9 checked
10 had
11 waited
12 departed
13 arrived
14 took

11.4

2 lost her keys
3 met her friends
4 bought a newspaper
5 went to the cinema
6 ate an orange
7 had a shower
8 came (to see us)

11.5

2–6 *Example answers*
I got up late yesterday.
I met some friends at lunchtime.
I went to the supermarket.
I phoned a lot of people.
I lost my keys.

UNIT 12

12.1

2 didn't work
3 didn't go
4 didn't have
5 didn't do

12.2

2 Did you enjoy the party?
3 Did you have a good holiday?
4 Did you finish work early?
5 Did you sleep well last night?

12.3
2 I got up before 7 o'clock. *or* I didn't get up before 7 o'clock.
3 I had a shower. *or* I didn't have a shower.
4 I bought a magazine. *or* I didn't buy a magazine.
5 I ate meat. *or* I didn't eat meat.
6 I went to bed before 10.30. *or* I didn't go to bed before 10.30.

12.4
2 did you arrive
3 Did you win
4 did you go
5 did it cost
6 Did you go to bed late
7 Did you have a nice time
8 did it happen / did that happen

12.5
2 bought
3 Did it rain
4 didn't stay
5 opened
6 didn't have
7 did you do
8 didn't know

UNIT 13

13.1
2 Jack and Kate were at the cinema. They were watching a film.
3 Tom was in his car. He was driving.
4 Tracey was at the station. She was waiting for a train.
5 Mr and Mrs Hall were in the park. They were walking.
6 *(Example answer)* I was in a cafe. I was having a drink with some friends.

13.2
2 she was playing tennis
3 she was reading a/the paper/newspaper
4 she was cooking (lunch)
5 she was having breakfast
6 she was cleaning the kitchen

13.3
2 What were you doing
3 Was it raining
4 Why was Sue driving
5 Was Tom wearing

13.4
2 He was carrying a bag.
3 He wasn't going to the dentist.
4 He was eating an ice cream.
5 He wasn't carrying an umbrella.
6 He wasn't going home.
7 He was wearing a hat.
8 He wasn't riding a bicycle.

UNIT 14

14.1
1 happened ... was painting ... fell
2 arrived ... got ... were waiting
3 was walking ... met ... was going ... was carrying ... stopped

14.2
2 was studying
3 Did Paul call ... called ... was having
4 didn't go
5 were you driving ... stopped ... wasn't driving
6 Did your team win ... didn't play
7 did you break ... were playing ... kicked ... hit
8 Did you see ... was wearing
9 were you doing
10 lost ... did you get ... climbed

UNIT 15

15.1
2 She has/She's closed the door.
3 They have/They've gone to bed.
4 It has/It's stopped raining.
5 He has/He's had a shower.
6 The picture has fallen down.

15.2
2 've bought / have bought
3 's gone / has gone
4 Have you seen
5 has broken
6 've told / have told
7 has taken
8 haven't seen
9 has she gone
10 've forgotten / have forgotten
11 's invited / has invited
12 Have you decided
13 haven't told
14 've finished / have finished

UNIT 16

16.1
2 He's/He has just got up.
3 They've/They have just bought a car.
4 The race has just started.

16.2
2 they've/they have already seen it.
3 I've/I have already phoned him.
4 He's/He has already gone (away).
5 I've/I have already read it.
6 She's/She has already started (it).

16.3
2 The bus has just gone.
3 The train hasn't left yet.
4 He hasn't opened it yet.
5 They've/They have just finished their dinner.
6 It's / It has just stopped raining.

16.4
2 Have you met your new neighbours yet?
3 Have you paid your electricity bill yet?
4 Has Tom/he sold his car yet?

UNIT 17

17.1
3 Have you ever been to Australia?
4 Have you ever lost your passport?
5 Have you ever flown in a helicopter?
6 Have you ever won a race?
7 Have you ever been to New York?
8 Have you ever driven a bus?
9 Have you ever broken your leg?

17.2

Helen:

2 She's/She has been to Australia once.
3 She's/She has never won a race.
4 She's/She has flown in a helicopter a few times.

You (example answers):

5 I've/I have never been to New York.
6 I've/I have played tennis many times.
7 I've/I have never driven a lorry.
8 I've/I have been late for work a few times.

17.3

2–6

She's/She has done a lot of interesting things.
She's/She has travelled all over the world. *or* She's/She has been all over the world.
She's/She has been married three times.
She's/She has written ten books.
She's/She has met a lot of interesting people.

17.4

2 been
3 gone
4 been
5 been
6 gone
7 gone
8 been

UNIT 18

18.1

3 have been
4 has been
5 have lived / have been living
6 has worked / has been working
7 has had
8 have been learning

18.2

2 How long have they been there? *or* ... been in Brazil?
3 How long have you known her? *or* ... known Amy?
4 How long has she been learning Italian?
5 How long has he lived in Canada? / How long has he been living ... ?
6 How long have you been a teacher?
7 How long has it been raining?

18.3

2 She has lived in Wales all her life.
3 They have been on holiday since Sunday.
4 The sun has been shining all day.
5 She has been waiting for ten minutes.
6 He has had a beard since he was 20.

18.4

2 I know
3 I've known
4 have you been waiting
5 works
6 She has been reading
7 have you lived
8 I've had
9 is ... He has been

UNIT 19

19.1

3 for
4 since
5 since
6 for
7 for
8 for ... since

19.2

Example answers:

2 A year ago.
3 A few weeks ago.
4 Two hours ago.
5 Six months ago.

19.3

3 for 20 years
4 20 years ago
5 an hour ago
6 a few days ago
7 for six months
8 for a long time

19.4

2 Jack has been here since Tuesday.
3 It's been raining for an hour.
4 I've known Sue since 2008.
5 Claire and Matt have been married for six months.
6 Laura has been studying medicine (at university) for three years.
7 David has played / David has been playing the piano since he was seven years old.

19.5

Example answers

2 I've been in the same job for ten years.
3 I've been learning English for six months.
4 I've known Chris for a long time.
5 I've had a headache since I got up this morning.

UNIT 20

20.1

2 I started (it)
3 they arrived
4 she went (away)
5 I wore it

20.2

3 I finished
4 *OK*
5 did you finish
6 *OK*
7 (Steve's grandmother) died
8 Where were you / Where did you go

20.3

3 played
4 did you go
5 Have you ever met
6 wasn't
7 's/has visited
8 switched
9 lived
10 haven't been

20.4

1 Did you have ... was
2 Have you seen ... went ... haven't seen
3 has worked / has been working ... was ... worked ... didn't enjoy
4 've/have seen ... 've/have never spoken ... Have you ever spoken ... met

UNIT 21

21.1
3 Glass is made from sand.
4 The windows are cleaned every two weeks.
5 This room isn't used very much.
6 Are we allowed to park here?
7 How is this word pronounced?
9 The house was painted last month.
10 My phone was stolen a few days ago.
11 Three people were injured in the accident.
12 When was this bridge built?
13 I wasn't woken up by the noise.
14 How were these windows broken?
15 Were you invited to Jon's party last week?

21.2
2 Football **is played** in most ...
3 Why **was the letter sent** to ... ?
4 ... where films **are made**.
5 Where **were** you born?
6 How many languages **are spoken** ... ?
7 ... but nothing **was** stolen.
8 When **was** the bicycle **invented**?

21.3
3 is made
4 were damaged
5 was given
6 are shown
7 were invited
8 was made
9 was stolen ... was found

21.4
2 Sarah was born in Manchester.
3 Her parents were born in Ireland.
4 I was born in ...
5 My mother was born in ...

UNIT 22

22.1
2 A bridge is being built.
3 The windows are being cleaned.
4 The grass is being cut.

22.2
3 The window **has been** broken.
4 The roof **is being** repaired.
5 The car **has been** damaged.
6 The houses **are being** knocked down.
7 The trees **have been** cut down.
8 They **have been** invited to a party.

22.3
3 has been repaired
4 was repaired
5 are made
6 were they built
7 Is the photocopier being used *or* Is anybody using the photocopier
8 are they called
9 were stolen
10 was damaged ... hasn't been repaired

UNIT 23

23.1
3 are
4 Does
5 Do
6 Is
7 do
8 Is
9 does
10 Are

23.2
2 don't
3 'm/am not
4 isn't
5 don't
6 doesn't
7 'm/am not
8 aren't / 're not

23.3
2 Did
3 were
4 was
5 Has
6 did
7 were
8 Has
9 did
10 have

23.4
2 was
3 Have
4 are
5 were
6 've/have
7 is
8 was
9 has

23.5
3 eaten
4 enjoying
5 damaged
6 use
7 gone
8 understand
9 listening
10 pronounced
11 open

UNIT 24

24.1
3 got
4 brought
5 paid
6 enjoyed
7 bought
8 sat
9 left
10 happened
11 heard
12 put
13 caught
14 watched
15 understood

24.2

2	began	begun
3	ate	eaten
4	drank	drunk
5	drove	driven
6	spoke	spoken
7	wrote	written
8	came	come
9	knew	known
10	took	taken
11	went	gone
12	gave	given
13	threw	thrown
14	forgot	forgotten

24.3
3 slept
4 saw
5 rained
6 lost ... seen
7 stolen
8 went
9 finished
10 built
11 learnt/learned
12 ridden
13 known
14 fell ... hurt
15 ran ... run

24.4

2 told
3 won
4 met
5 woken up
6 swam
7 thought
8 spoken
9 cost
10 driven
11 sold
12 flew

UNIT 25

25.1

2 Richard is going to the cinema.
3 Rachel is meeting Dave.
4 Karen is having lunch with Will.
5 Sue and Tom are going to a party.

25.2

2 Are you working next week?
3 What are you doing tomorrow evening?
4 What time are your friends coming?
5 When is Lisa going on holiday?

25.3

3–6 *Example answers*
I'm going away at the weekend.
I'm playing basketball tomorrow.
I'm meeting a friend this evening.
I'm going to the cinema on Thursday evening.

25.4

3 She's getting
4 are going ... are they going
5 finishes
6 I'm not going
7 I'm going ... We're meeting
8 are you getting ... leaves
9 Are you coming ... does the film begin
10 are you doing ... I'm working

UNIT 26

26.1

2 I'm going to have a bath.
3 I'm going to buy a car.
4 We're going to play football.

26.2

3 'm/am going to walk
4 's/is going to stay
5 'm/am going to eat
6 're/are going to give
7 's/is going to lie down
8 Are you going to watch
9 is Rachel going to do

26.3

2 The shelf is going to fall (down).
3 The car is going to turn (right).
4 He's / He is going to kick the ball.

26.4

1–3 *Example answers*
I'm going to phone Maria this evening.
I'm going to get up early tomorrow.
I'm going to buy some shoes tomorrow.

UNIT 27

27.1

2 she'll be
3 she was
4 she'll be
5 she's
6 she was
7 she'll be

27.2

Example answers:
2 I'll be at home.
3 I'll probably be in bed.
4 I'll be at work.
5 I don't know where I'll be.

27.3

2 'll/will
3 won't
4 won't
5 'll/will
6 'll/will
7 won't

27.4

3 I think we'll win the game.
4 I don't think I'll be here tomorrow.
5 I think Sue will like her present.
6 I don't think they'll get married.
7 I don't think you'll enjoy the film.

27.5

2 are you doing
3 They're going
4 will lend
5 I'm going
6 will phone
7 He's working
8 Will you
9 are coming

UNIT 28

28.1

2 I'll eat
3 I'll sit
4 I'll do
5 I'll stay
6 I'll show

28.2

2 I think I'll have
3 I don't think I'll play
4 I think I'll buy
5 I don't think I'll buy

28.3

2 I'll do
3 I watch
4 I'll go
5 is going to buy
6 I'll give
7 Are you doing ... I'm going
8 I'm working

28.4

2 Shall I turn off the TV?
3 Shall I make some sandwiches?
4 Shall I turn on the light?

28.5

2 where shall we go?
3 what shall we buy?
4 who shall we invite?

UNIT 29

29.1

2 I might see you tomorrow.
3 Sarah might forget to phone.
4 It might snow today.
5 I might be late tonight.
6 Mark might not be here next week.
7 I might not have time to go out.

29.2

2 I might go away.
3 I might see her on Monday.
4 I might have fish.
5 I might get/take a taxi. *or* ... go by taxi.
6 I might buy/get a new car.

29.3
3 He might get up early.
4 He isn't/He's not working tomorrow.
5 He might be at home tomorrow morning.
6 He might watch TV.
7 He's going out in the afternoon.
8 He might go shopping.

29.4
1–3 *Example answers*
I might buy some new clothes.
I might go out with some friends.
I might have an egg for breakfast.

UNIT 30

30.1
2 Can you ski?
3 Can you play chess?
4 Can you run ten kilometres?
5 Can you drive (a car)?
6 Can you ride (a horse)?
7 I can/can't swim.
8 I can/can't ski.
9 I can/can't play chess.
10 I can/can't run ten kilometres.
11 I can/can't drive (a car).
12 I can/can't ride (a horse).

30.2
2 can see
3 can't hear
4 can't find
5 can speak

30.3
2 couldn't eat
3 can't decide
4 couldn't find
5 can't go
6 couldn't go

30.4
2 Can/Could you pass the salt (please)?
3 Can/Could I have these postcards (please)?
4 Can/Could you turn off the radio (please)?
5 Can/Could I borrow your newspaper (please)?
6 Can/Could I use your pen (please)?

UNIT 31

31.1
2 must meet
3 must wash
4 must learn
5 must go
6 must win
7 must be

31.2
2 I must
3 I had to
4 I must
5 I had to
6 I had to
7 I must

31.3
2 don't need to rush
3 mustn't lose
4 don't need to wait
5 mustn't forget
6 don't need to phone

31.4
2 C
3 A
4 B
5 D

31.5
3 don't need to
4 had to
5 must
6 mustn't
7 must
8 had to
9 don't need to
10 mustn't

UNIT 32

32.1
2 You should go
3 You should eat
4 you should visit
5 you should wear
6 You should take

32.2
2 He shouldn't eat so much.
3 She shouldn't work so hard.
4 He shouldn't drive so fast.

32.3
2 Do you think I should learn (to drive)?
3 Do you think I should get another job?
4 Do you think I should invite Gary (to the party)?

32.4
3 I think you should sell it.
4 I think she should have a holiday.
5 I don't think they should get married.
6 I don't think you should go to work.
7 I think he should go to the doctor.
8 I don't think we should stay there.

32.5
Example answers:
2 I think everybody should have enough food.
3 I think people should drive more carefully.
4 I don't think the police should carry guns.
5 I think I should take more exercise.

UNIT 33

33.1
2 have to do
3 has to read
4 have to speak
5 has to travel
6 have to hit

33.2
2 have to go
3 had to buy
4 have to change
5 had to answer

33.3
2 did he have to wait
3 does she have to go
4 did you have to pay
5 do you have to do

33.4
2 doesn't have to wait.
3 didn't have to get up early.
4 doesn't have to work (so) hard.
5 don't have to leave now.

33.5
3 have to pay
4 had to borrow
5 must stop *or* have to stop *(both are correct)*
6 has to meet
7 must tell *or* have to tell *(both are correct)*

33.6
Example answers:
2 I have to go to work every day.
3 I had to go to the dentist yesterday.
4 I have to go shopping tomorrow.

UNIT 34

34.1
2 Would you like an apple?
3 Would you like some coffee? / ... a cup of coffee?
4 Would you like some cheese? / ... a piece of cheese?
5 Would you like a sandwich?
6 Would you like some cake? / ... a piece of cake?

34.2
2 Would you like to play tennis tomorrow?
3 Would you like to come to a concert next week?
4 Would you like to borrow my umbrella?

34.3
2 Do you like
3 Would you like
4 would you like
5 Would you like
6 I like
7 would you like
8 Would you like
9 Do you like
10 I'd like
11 I'd like
12 do you like

UNIT 35

35.1
3 Don't buy
4 Smile
5 Don't sit
6 Have
7 Don't forget
8 Sleep
9 Be ... Don't drop

35.2
2 let's take a taxi
3 let's watch TV
4 let's go to a restaurant
5 let's wait a little

35.3
3 No, let's not go out.
4 No, don't close the window.
5 No, don't phone me (tonight).
6 No, let's not wait for Andy.
7 No, don't turn on the light.
8 No, let's not go by bus.

UNIT 36

36.1
2 He used to play football.
3 She used to be a taxi driver.
4 They used to live in the country.
5 He used to wear glasses.
6 This building used to be a hotel.

36.2
2–6
She used to play volleyball.
She used to go out most evenings. / She used to go out a lot.
She used to play the guitar.
She used to read a lot. / She used to like reading.
She used to go away two or three times a year. / She used to travel a lot.

36.3
3 used to have
4 used to be
5 go / travel
6 used to eat
7 watches
8 used to live
9 get
10 did you use to play

UNIT 37

37.1
3 There's/There is a hospital.
4 There isn't a swimming pool.
5 There are two cinemas.
6 There isn't a university.
7 There aren't any big hotels.

37.2
3–6 *Example answers*
There is a university in ...
There are a lot of big shops.
There isn't an airport.
There aren't many factories.

37.3
2 There's/There is
3 is there
4 There are
5 are there
6 There isn't
7 Is there
8 Are there
9 There's / There is ...
There aren't

37.4
2–6
There are eight planets in the solar system.
There are fifteen players in a rugby team.
There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.
There are thirty days in September.
There are fifty states in the USA.

37.5
2 It's
3 There's
4 There's ... Is it
5 Is there ... there's
6 It's
7 Is there

UNIT 38

38.1
2 There was a carpet
3 There were three pictures
4 There was a small table
5 There were some flowers
6 There were some books
7 There was an armchair
8 There was a sofa

38.2
3 There was
4 Was there
5 there weren't
6 There wasn't
7 Were there
8 There wasn't
9 There was
10 there weren't

38.3
2 There are
3 There was
4 There's/There is
5 There's been/There has been *or* There was
6 there was
7 there will be
8 there were ... there are
9 There have been
10 there will be *or* there are

UNIT 39

39.1
2 It's cold.
3 It's windy.
4 It's sunny/fine. *or* It's a nice day.
5 It's snowing.
6 It's cloudy.

39.2
2 It's / It is
3 Is it
4 is it ... it's / it is
5 It's / It is
6 Is it
7 is it
8 It's / It is
9 It's / It is

39.3
2 How far is it from the hotel to the beach?
3 How far is it from New York to Washington?
4 How far is it from your house to the airport?

39.4
3 It
4 It ... It
5 There
6 it
7 It ... there
8 It

39.5
2 It's nice to see you again.
3 It's impossible to work here.
4 It's easy to make friends.
5 It's interesting to visit different places.
6 It's dangerous to go out alone

UNIT 40

40.1
2 is
3 can
4 has
5 will
6 was

40.2
2 'm not
3 weren't
4 haven't
5 isn't
6 hasn't

40.3
3 doesn't
4 do
5 did
6 does
7 don't
8 didn't

40.4
Example answers:
2 I like sport, but my sister doesn't.
3 I don't eat meat, but Jessica does.
4 I'm American, but my husband isn't.
5 I haven't been to Japan, but Jessica has.

40.5
2 wasn't
3 are
4 has
5 can't
6 did
7 has
8 do
9 hasn't
10 will
11 might

40.6
2 Yes, I have. *or* No, I haven't.
3 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
4 Yes, it is. *or* No, it isn't.
5 Yes, I am. *or* No, I'm not.
6 Yes, I do. *or* No, I don't.
7 Yes, I will. *or* No, I won't.
8 Yes, I have. *or* No, I haven't.
9 Yes, I did. *or* No, I didn't.
10 Yes, I was. *or* No, I wasn't.

UNIT 41

41.1
2 Do you?
3 Didn't you?
4 Doesn't she?
5 Do I?
6 Did she?

41.2
3 Have you?
4 Can't she?
5 Were you?
6 Didn't you?
7 Is there?
8 Aren't you?
9 Did you?
10 Does she?
11 Won't you?
12 Isn't it?

41.3
2 aren't they
3 wasn't she
4 haven't you
5 don't you
6 doesn't he
7 won't you

41.4
2 are you
3 isn't she
4 can't you
5 do you
6 didn't she
7 was it
8 doesn't she
9 will you

UNIT 42

42.1
2 either
3 too
4 too
5 either
6 either
7 too

42.2
2 So am I.
3 So have I.
4 So do I.
5 So will I.
6 So was I.
7 Neither can I.
8 Neither did I.
9 Neither have I.
10 Neither am I.
11 Neither do I.

42.3
1 So am I.
2 So can I. *or* I can't.
3 Neither am I. *or* I am.
4 So do I. *or* I don't.
5 Neither do I. *or* I do.
6 So did I. *or* I didn't.
7 Neither have I. *or* I have.
8 Neither do I. *or* I do.
9 So am I. *or* I'm not.
10 Neither have I. *or* I have.
11 Neither did I. *or* I did.
12 So do I. *or* I don't.

UNIT 43

43.1
2 They aren't / They're not married.
3 I haven't had dinner.
4 It isn't cold today.
5 We won't be late.
6 You shouldn't go.

43.2
2 I don't like cheese.
3 They didn't understand.
4 He doesn't live here.
5 Don't go away!
6 I didn't do the shopping.

43.3
2 They haven't arrived.
3 I didn't go to the bank.
4 He doesn't speak German.
5 We weren't angry.
6 He won't be pleased.
7 Don't call me tonight.
8 It didn't rain yesterday.
9 I couldn't hear them.
10 I don't believe you.

43.4
2 'm not / am not
3 can't
4 doesn't
5 isn't / 's not

6 don't ... haven't
7 Don't
8 didn't
9 haven't
10 won't
11 didn't
12 weren't
13 hasn't
14 shouldn't / mustn't

43.5

3 He wasn't born in London.
4 He doesn't like London.
5 He'd like to live in the country.
6 He can drive.
7 He hasn't got a car. *or* He doesn't have a car.
8 He doesn't read newspapers.
9 He isn't interested in politics.
10 He watches TV most evenings.
11 He didn't watch TV last night.
12 He went out last night.

UNIT 44

44.1

3 Were you late this morning?
4 Has Kate got a key? *or* Does Kate have a key?
5 Will you be here tomorrow?
6 Is Paul going out this evening?
7 Do you like your job?
8 Does Nicola live near here?
9 Did you enjoy the film?
10 Did you have a good holiday?

44.2

2 Do you use it a lot?
3 Did you use it yesterday?
4 Do you enjoy driving?
5 Are you a good driver?
6 Have you ever had an accident?

44.3

3 What are the children doing?
4 How is cheese made?
5 Is your sister coming to the party?
6 Why don't you tell the truth?
7 Have your guests arrived yet?
8 What time does your train leave?
9 Why didn't Emily go to work?
10 Was your car damaged in the accident?

44.4

3 What are you reading?
4 What time did she go (to bed)?
5 When are they going (on holiday)?
6 Where did you see him?
7 Why can't you come (to the party)?
8 Where has she gone?
9 How much (money) do you need?
10 Why doesn't she like you?
11 How often does it rain?
12 When did you do it? / ... the shopping?

UNIT 45

45.1

2 What fell off the shelf?
3 Who wants to see me?
4 Who took your umbrella? / Who took it?
5 What made you ill?
6 Who is / Who's coming?

45.2

3 Who did you phone?
4 What happened last night?
5 Who knows the answer?
6 Who did the washing-up?
7 What did Jane do? / What did she do?
8 What woke you up?
9 Who saw the accident?
10 Who did you see?
11 Who has got your pen? / Who's got your pen? / Who has your pen?
12 What does this word mean? / What does it mean?

45.3

2 Who phoned you ?
What did she want?
3 Who did you ask?
What did he say?
4 Who got married?
Who told you?
5 Who did you meet?
What did she tell you?
6 Who won?
What did you do (after the game)?
7 Who gave you a/the book?
What did Catherine give you?

UNIT 46

46.1

2 What are you looking for?
3 Who did you go to the cinema with?
4 What/Who was the film about?
5 Who did you give the money to?
6 Who was the book written by?

46.2

2 What are they looking at?
3 Which restaurant is he going to?
4 What are they talking about?
5 What is she listening to?
6 Which bus are they waiting for?

46.3

2 Which hotel did you stay at?
3 Which (football) team does he play for?
4 Which school did you go to?

46.4

2 What is the food like?
3 What are the people like?
4 What is the weather like?

46.5

2 What was the film like?
3 What were the lessons like?
4 What was the hotel like?

UNIT 47

47.1

3 What colour is it?
4 What time did you get up?
5 What type of music do you like?
6 What kind of car do you want (to buy)?

47.2

2 Which coat
3 Which film/movie
4 Which bus

47.3

3 Which
4 What
5 Which
6 What
7 Which
8 Who
9 What
10 Which
11 What

47.4

2 How far
3 How old
4 How often
5 How deep
6 How long

47.5

2 How heavy is this box?
3 How old are you?
4 How much did you spend?
5 How often do you watch TV?
6 How far is it from Paris to Moscow?

UNIT 48

48.1

2 How long does it take by car from Milan to Rome?
3 How long does it take by train from Paris to Geneva?
4 How long does it take by bus from the city centre to the airport?

48.2

2 It takes ... hours to fly from ... to New York.
3 It takes ... years to study to be a doctor in ... .
4 It takes ... to walk from my home to the nearest shop.
5 It takes ... to get from my home to the nearest airport.

48.3

2 How long did it take you to walk to the station?
3 How long did it take him to paint the bathroom?
4 How long did it take you to learn to ski?
5 How long did it take them to repair the car?

48.4

2 It took us 20 minutes to walk home. / ... to get home.
3 It took me six months to learn to drive.
4 It took Mark/him three hours to drive to London. / ... to get to London.
5 It took Lisa/her a long time to find a job. / ... to get a job.
6 It took me ... to ...

UNIT 49

49.1

2 I don't know where she is.
3 I don't know how old it is.
4 I don't know when he'll be here.
5 I don't know why he was angry.
6 I don't know how long she has lived here.

49.2

2 where Susan works
3 what Peter said
4 why he went home early
5 what time the meeting begins
6 how the accident happened

49.3

2 are you
3 they are
4 the museum is
5 do you want
6 elephants eat
7 it is

49.4

2 Do you know if/whether they are married?
3 Do you know if/whether Sue knows Bill?
4 Do you know if/whether Gary will be here tomorrow?
5 Do you know if/whether he passed his exam?

49.5

2 Do you know where Paula is?
3 Do you know if/whether she is working today? / ... she's working today?
4 Do you know what time she starts work?
5 Do you know if/whether the shops are open tomorrow?
6 Do you know where Sarah and Jack live?
7 Do you know if/whether they went to Jane's party?

49.6

Example answers:

2 Do you know what time the bus leaves?
3 Excuse me, can you tell me where the station is?
4 I don't know what I'm going to do this evening.
5 Do you know if there's a restaurant near here?
6 Do you know how much it costs to rent a car?

UNIT 50

50.1

2 She said (that) she was very busy.
3 She said (that) she couldn't go to the party.
4 He said (that) he had to go out.
5 He said (that) he was learning Russian.
6 She said (that) she didn't feel very well.
7 They said (that) they would be home late. / ... they'd be ...
8 She said (that) she had just come back from holiday. / ... she'd just come back ...
9 She said (that) she was going to buy a guitar.
10 They said (that) they hadn't got a key. / They said (that) they didn't have a key.

50.2

2 She said (that) she wasn't hungry.
3 he said (that) he needed it.
4 she said (that) she didn't want to go.
5 She said (that) I could have it.
6 He said (that) he would send me a postcard. / ... he'd send ...
7 Nicola said (that) he had gone home. / ... he'd gone home.
8 He said (that) he wanted to watch TV.
9 She said (that) she was going to the cinema.

50.3

3 said
4 told
5 tell
6 say
7 said
8 told
9 tell
10 say

UNIT 51

51.1

3 phone
4 phone Paul

5 to phone Paul
6 to phone Paul
7 phone Paul
8 to phone Paul
9 phone Paul
10 phone Paul

51.2
3 get
4 going
5 watch
6 flying
7 listening
8 eat
9 waiting
10 wear
11 doing ... staying

51.3
4 to go
5 rain
6 to leave
7 help
8 studying
9 to go
10 wearing
11 to stay
12 have
13 having
14 to have
15 hear
16 go
17 listening
18 to walk
19 to know ... tell
20 borrow

UNIT 52

52.1
3 to see
4 to swim
5 cleaning
6 to ask
7 visiting
8 going
9 to be
10 waiting
11 to do
12 to speak
13 to go
14 crying / to cry
15 to work ... talking

52.2
2 to help
3 to see
4 reading
5 to lose
6 to send
7 raining
8 to go
9 watching / to watch
10 to wait

52.3
2 going to museums
3 to go
4 driving / to drive
5 to go (there)
6 travelling by train
7 walking

52.4
Example answers:
1 I enjoy cooking.
2 I don't like studying.
3 If it's a nice day tomorrow, I'd like to go to the beach.
4 When I'm on holiday, I like to do very little.
5 I don't mind travelling alone, but I prefer to travel with somebody.
6 I wouldn't like to live in a big city.

UNIT 53

53.1
2 I want you to listen carefully.
3 I don't want you to be angry.
4 Do you want me to wait for you?
5 I don't want you to call me tonight.
6 I want you to meet Sarah.

53.2
2 A woman told me to turn left after the bridge.
3 I advised him to go to the doctor.
4 She asked me to help her. / ... asked me if I could help her.
5 I told him to come back in ten minutes.
6 Paul let me use his phone.
7 I told her not to phone before 8 o'clock. / ... not to call (me) before 8 o'clock.
8 Amy's mother taught her to play the piano.

53.3
2 to repeat
3 wait
4 to arrive
5 to get
6 go
7 borrow
8 to tell
9 to make (*or* to get)
10 think

UNIT 54

54.1
2–4
I went to a coffee shop to meet a friend.
I went to the chemist to get some medicine.
I went to the market to buy some vegetables.

54.2
2 to read the newspaper
3 to open this door
4 to get some fresh air
5 to wake him up
6 to see who it was

54.3
Example answers:
2 to talk to you now
3 to tell her about the party
4 to do some shopping
5 to buy a motorbike

54.4
2 to
3 to
4 for
5 to
6 for
7 to
8 to
9 for
10 for
11 to

54.5
2 for the film to begin
3 for it to arrive
4 for you to tell me

UNIT 55

55.1
3 to
4 – *(no preposition)*
5 for
6 to
7 on ... to
8 for
9 on
10 to
11 – *(no preposition)*
12 on
13 for
14 on

55.2
2 went fishing
3 goes swimming
4 going skiing
5 go shopping
6 went jogging

55.3
2 to university
3 shopping
4 to sleep
5 home
6 skiing
7 riding
8 for a walk
9 on holiday ... to Portugal

UNIT 56

56.1
2 get your boots
3 get a doctor
4 get a taxi
5 gets the job
6 get some milk
7 get a ticket
8 gets a good salary
9 get a lot of rain
10 get a new laptop

56.2
2 getting dark
3 getting married
4 getting ready
5 getting late

56.3
2 get wet
3 got married
4 gets angry
5 got lost
6 get old
7 got better

56.4
2 got to Bristol at 11.45.
3 I left the party at 11.15 and got home at midnight.
4 *(Example answer)* I left home at 8.30 and got to the airport at 10 o'clock.

56.5
2 got off
3 got out of
4 got on

UNIT 57

57.1
2 do
3 make
4 made
5 did
6 do
7 done
8 make
9 making
10 do
11 doing

57.2
2 They're/They are doing (their) homework.
3 He's/He is doing the shopping. *or* He is shopping.
4 She's/She is making a jacket.
5 They're/They are doing an exam. (*or* ... taking an exam.)
6 He's/He is making the/his bed.
7 She's/She is doing the washing-up. *or* She is washing up. / She is doing the dishes. / She is washing the dishes.
8 He's/He is making a (shopping) list.
9 They're/They are making a film.
10 He's/He is taking a picture/photo/photograph.

57.3
2 make
3 do
4 done
5 made
6 doing
7 did
8 make
9 do
10 making
11 made
12 make ... do

UNIT 58

58.1
3 He doesn't have / He hasn't got
4 Gary had
5 Do you have / Have you got
6 we didn't have
7 She doesn't have / She hasn't got
8 Did you have

58.2
2 She's/She is having a cup of tea.
3 He's/He is having a rest.
4 They're/They are having a good time.
5 They're/They are having dinner.
6 He's/He is having a bath.

58.3
3 Have a nice/good trip!
4 Did you have a nice/good weekend?
5 Did you have a nice/good game (of tennis)?
6 Have a nice/good time! *or* Have a nice/good evening! *or* Have fun!
7 Did you have a nice/good holiday?

58.4
2 have something to eat
3 had a glass of water
4 have a walk
5 had an accident
6 have a look

UNIT 59

59.1
2 him
3 them
4 her
5 him
6 them
7 her

59.2
2 I ... them
3 he ... her
4 they ... us
5 we ... him
6 she ... them
7 they ... me
8 she ... you

59.3
2 I like him.
3 I don't like it.
4 Do you like it?
5 I don't like her.
6 Do you like them?

59.4
2 him
3 them
4 they
5 us
6 it
7 She
8 them
9 me
10 her
11 them
12 he ... it

59.5
2 Can you give it to him?
3 Can you give them to her?
4 Can you give it to me?
5 Can you give it to them?
6 Can you give them to us?

UNIT 60

60.1
2 her hands
3 our hands
4 his hands
5 their hands
6 your hands

60.2
2 They live with their parents.
3 We live with our parents.
4 Martina lives with her parents.
5 I live with my parents.
6 John lives with his parents.
7 Do you live with your parents?
8 Most children live with their parents.

60.3

2 their
3 his
4 his
5 her
6 their
7 her
8 their

60.4

2 his
3 Their
4 our
5 her
6 my
7 your
8 her
9 their
10 my
11 Its
12 His … his

60.5

2 my key
3 Her husband
4 your coat
5 their homework
6 his name
7 Our house

UNIT 61

61.1

2 mine
3 ours
4 hers
5 theirs
6 yours
7 mine
8 his

61.2

2 yours
3 my … Mine
4 Yours … mine
5 her
6 My … hers
7 their
8 Ours

61.3

3 of hers
4 friends of ours
5 friend of mine
6 friend of his
7 friends of yours

61.4

2 Whose camera is this? It's hers.
3 Whose gloves are these? They're mine.
4 Whose hat is this? It's his.
5 Whose money is this? It's yours.
6 Whose bags are these? They're ours.

UNIT 62

62.1

2 Yes, I know **her**, but I can't remember **her name**.
3 Yes, I **know them**, but I **can't remember their** names.
4 Yes, I **know you**, but **I can't remember your name**.

62.2

2 He invited us to stay with **him** at his house.
3 They invited me to stay with **them at their** house.
4 I invited them to stay **with me at my** house.
5 She invited us to stay **with her at her** house.
6 Did you invite him **to stay with you at your** house?

62.3

2 I gave her my phone number, and she gave me **hers**.
3 He gave me his phone number, and I gave **him mine**.
4 We gave them **our** phone number, and they gave **us theirs**.
5 She gave him **her** phone number, and he gave **her his**.
6 You gave us **your** phone number, and we gave **you ours**.
7 They gave you **their** phone number, and you gave **them yours**.

62.4

2 them
3 him
4 our
5 yours
6 us
7 her
8 their
9 mine

UNIT 63

63.1

2 myself
3 herself
4 themselves
5 myself
6 himself
7 yourself
8 yourselves

63.2

2 When I saw him, he **was by himself**.
3 Don't **go out by yourself**.
4 I **went to the cinema by myself**.
5 My sister **lives by herself**.
6 Many people **live by themselves**.

63.3

2 They can't see each other.
3 They call each other a lot.
4 They don't know each other.
5 They're/They are sitting next to each other.
6 They gave each other presents / a present.

63.4

3 each other
4 yourselves
5 us
6 ourselves
7 each other
8 each other
9 them
10 themselves

UNIT 64

64.1

3 Helen is **Brian's** wife.
4 James is Sarah's **brother**.
5 James is **Daniel's** uncle.
6 Sarah is **Paul's** wife.
7 Helen is Daniel's **grandmother**.
8 Sarah is James's **sister**.
9 Paul is **Sarah's** husband.
10 Paul is Daniel's **father**.
11 Daniel is **James's** nephew.

64.2

2 Andy's
3 Dave's
4 Jane's
5 Rachel's
6 Alice's

64.3

3 *OK*
4 Simon's phone number
5 My brother's job
6 *OK*
7 *OK*
8 Paula's favourite colour
9 your mother's birthday
10 My parents' house
11 *OK*
12 *OK*
13 Silvia's party
14 *OK*

UNIT 65

65.1

2 a
3 a
4 an
5 a
6 an
7 a
8 an
9 an

65.2

2 a vegetable
3 a game
4 a tool
5 a mountain
6 a planet
7 a fruit
8 a river
9 a flower
10 a musical instrument

65.3

2 He's a shop assistant.
3 She's an architect.
4 He's a taxi driver.
5 He's an electrician.
6 She's a photographer.
7 She's a nurse.
8 I'm a/an ...

65.4

2–8
Tom never wears **a** hat.
I can't ride **a** bike.
My brother is **an** artist.
Rebecca works in **a** bookshop.
Jane wants to learn **a** foreign language.
Mike lives in **an** old house.
This evening I'm going to **a** party.

UNIT 66

66.1

2 boats
3 women
4 cities
5 umbrellas
6 addresses
7 knives
8 sandwiches
9 families
10 feet
11 holidays
12 potatoes

66.2

2 teeth
3 people
4 children
5 fish
6 leaves

66.3

3 ... with a lot of beautiful **trees**.
4 ... with two **men**.
5 *OK*
6 ... three **children**.
7 Most of my **friends** are **students**.
8 He put on his **pyjamas** ...
9 *OK*
10 Do you know many **people** ...
11 I like your **trousers**. Where did you get **them**?
12 ... full of **tourists**.
13 *OK*
14 **These scissors aren't** ...

66.4

2 are
3 don't
4 watch
5 were
6 live
7 Do
8 are
9 them
10 some

UNIT 67

67.1

3 a jug
4 water
5 toothpaste
6 a toothbrush
7 an egg
8 money
9 a wallet
10 sand
11 a bucket
12 an envelope

67.2

3 ... **a** hat.
4 ... **a** job?
5 *OK*
6 ... **an** apple ...
7 ... **a** party ...
8 ... **a** wonderful thing.
9 ... **an** island.
10 ... **a** key.
11 *OK*
12 ... **a** good idea.
13 ... **a** car?
14 ... **a** cup of coffee?
15 *OK*
16 ... **an** umbrella.

67.3

2 a piece of wood
3 a glass of water
4 a bar of chocolate
5 a cup of tea
6 a piece of paper
7 a bowl of soup
8 a loaf of bread
9 a jar of honey

UNIT 68

68.1

2 a newspaper (*or* a paper), some flowers (*or* a bunch of flowers) and a pen
3 some bananas, some eggs and some bread (*or* a loaf of bread)
4 some toothpaste, some soap (*or* a bar of soap) and a comb

68.2

2 Would you like some coffee? (*or* ... a cup of coffee?)
3 Would you like a biscuit?
4 Would you like some bread? (*or* ... a piece of bread? / a slice of bread?)
5 Would you like a chocolate?
6 Would you like some cake? (*or* ... a piece of cake?)

68.3

2 some ... some
3 some
4 a ... some
5 an ... some
6 a ... a ... some
7 some
8 some
9 some ... a

68.4

2 eyes
3 hair
4 information
5 chairs
6 furniture
7 job
8 wonderful weather

UNIT 69

69.1

3 a
4 the
5 an
6 the ... the
7 a ... a
8 a ... a
9 ... **a** student ... **a** journalist ... **an** apartment near **the** college ... **The** apartment is ...
10 ... two children, **a** boy and **a** girl. **The** boy is seven years old, and **the** girl is three ... in **a** factory ... doesn't have **a** job ...

69.2
2 **the** airport
3 **a** cup
4 **a** nice picture
5 **the** dictionary
6 **the** floor

69.3
2 ... send me **a** postcard.
3 What is **the** name of ...
4 ... **a** very big country.
5 What is **the** largest ...
6 ... **the** colour of **the** carpet.
7 ... **a** headache.
8 ... **an** old house near **the** station.
9 ... **the** name of **the** director of **the** film ...

UNIT 70

70.1
3 ... **the** second floor.
4 ... **the** moon?
5 ... **the** best hotel in this town?
6 *OK*
7 ... **the** city centre?
8 ... **the** end of May.
9 *OK*
10 ... **the** first time I met her.
11 *OK*
12 It's easy to get information from **the** internet.
13 *OK*
14 ... on **the** top shelf on **the** right.
15 ... in **the** country about ten miles from **the** nearest town.

70.2
2 the same time
3 the same age
4 the same colour
5 the same problem

70.3
2 **the** guitar
3 breakfast
4 television/TV
5 **the** sea
6 **the** bottom

70.4
2 **the** name
3 **The** sky
4 TV
5 **the** police
6 **the** capital
7 lunch
8 **the** middle

UNIT 71

71.1
2 **the** cinema
3 hospital
4 **the** airport
5 home
6 prison

71.2
3 school
4 **the** station
5 home
6 bed
7 **the** post office

71.3
2 **the** cinema
3 go to bed
4 go to prison
5 go to **the** dentist
6 go to university/college
7 go to hospital / are taken to hospital
(American speakers say 'go to **the** hospital', 'are taken to **the** hospital'.)

71.4
3 **the** doctor
4 *OK*
5 *OK*
6 *OK*
7 **the** bank
8 *OK*
9 *OK*
10 **the** city centre
11 **the** station
12 *OK*
(American speakers say 'in **the** hospital'.)
13 *OK*
14 *OK*
15 **the** theatre

UNIT 72

72.1
2–8 *Example answers:*
I don't like dogs.
I hate museums.
I love big cities.
Tennis is all right.
I love chocolate.
I don't like computer games.
I hate parties.

72.2
Example answers:
2 I'm not interested in politics.
3 I'm interested in sport.
4 I don't know much about art.
5 I don't know anything about astronomy.
6 I know a little about economics.

72.3
3 friends
4 parties
5 **The** shops
6 **the** milk
7 milk
8 basketball
9 buildings
10 **The** water
11 cold water
12 **the** salt
13 **the** people
14 Vegetables
15 **The** houses
16 **the** words
17 pictures
18 **the** pictures
19 English ... international business
20 Money ... happiness

UNIT 73

73.1
3 Sweden
4 **The** Amazon
5 Asia
6 **The** Pacific
7 **The** Rhine
8 Kenya
9 **The** United States
10 **The** Andes
11 Bangkok
12 **The** Alps
13 **The** Red Sea
14 Jamaica
15 **The** Bahamas

73.2

3 *OK*
4 **the** Philippines
5 **the** south of France
6 **the** Regal Cinema
7 *OK*
8 **the** Museum of Art
9 *OK*
10 Belgium is smaller than **the** Netherlands.
11 **the** Mississippi ... **the** Nile
12 **the** National Gallery
13 **the** Park Hotel in Hudson Road
14 *OK*
15 **The** Rocky Mountains are in North America.
16 *OK*
17 **the** United States
18 **the** west of Ireland
19 *OK*
20 **The** Panama Canal joins **the** Atlantic Ocean and **the** Pacific Ocean.

UNIT 74

74.1

2 that house
3 these postcards
4 those birds
5 this seat
6 These plates

74.2

2 Is that your umbrella?
3 Is this your book?
4 Are those your books?
5 Is that your bicycle/bike?
6 Are these your keys?
7 Are those your keys?
8 Is this your watch?
9 Are those your glasses?
10 Are these your gloves?

74.3

2 that's
3 This is
4 That's
5 that
6 this is
7 That's
8 that's

UNIT 75

75.1

2 I don't need one
3 I'm going to get one
4 I don't have one / I haven't got one
5 I've just had one
6 there's one in Mill Road

75.2

2 a new one
3 a better one
4 an old one
5 a big one
6 a different one

75.3

2 Which ones?
The green ones.
3 Which one?
The one with a/the red door.
4 Which ones?
The ones on the top shelf.
5 Which one?
The black one.
6 Which one?
The one on the wall.
7 Which one?
The tall one with long hair.
8 Which ones?
The yellow ones.
9 Which one?
The one with a/the moustache and glasses.
10 Which ones?
The ones I took at the party last week.

UNIT 76

76.1

2 some
3 any
4 any
5 any
6 some
7 any
8 some
9 some
10 any ... any
11 some ... any
12 some

76.2

2 some questions
3 any pictures
4 any foreign languages
5 some friends
6 some milk
7 any batteries
8 some fresh air
9 some cheese
10 any help

76.3

3 I have some / I've got some
4 I don't have any / I haven't got any / I haven't any
5 I didn't buy any
6 I bought some
7 I didn't drink any

76.4

2 something
3 anything
4 anything
5 Somebody/Someone
6 anything
7 anybody/anyone
8 something
9 anything
10 anybody/anyone

UNIT 77

77.1

2 There are no shops near here.
3 Carla has no free time. / Carla has got no free time.
4 There's no light in this room.
6 There isn't any milk in the fridge.
7 There aren't any buses today.
8 Tom doesn't have any brothers or sisters. / Tom hasn't got any brothers or sisters.

77.2

2 any
3 any
4 no
5 any
6 no
7 any
8 no
9 any
10 no
11 None
12 any

77.3

2 no money
3 any questions
4 no friends
5 no difference
6 any furniture
7 no idea
8 any heating
9 no queue

77.4

Example answers:

2 Three.
3 Two cups.
4 None.
5 None.

UNIT 78

78.1

2 There's nobody in the office.
3 I have nothing to do. / I've got nothing to do.
4 There's nothing on TV.
5 There was no-one at home.
6 We found nothing.

78.2
2 There wasn't anybody on the bus.
3 I don't have anything to read. / I haven't got anything to read.
4 I don't have anyone to help me. / I haven't got anyone to help me.
5 She didn't hear anything.
6 We don't have anything for dinner. / We haven't got anything for dinner.

78.3
3 a Nothing.
4 a Nobody./No-one.
5 a Nobody./No-one.
6 a Nothing.
7 a Nothing.
8 a Nobody./No-one.
3 b I don't want anything.
4 b I didn't meet anybody/anyone.
5 b Nobody/No-one knows the answer.
6 b I didn't buy anything.
7 b Nothing happened.
8 b Nobody/No-one was late.

78.4
3 anything
4 Nobody/No-one
5 Nothing
6 anything
7 anybody/anyone
8 nothing
9 anything
10 anything
11 nobody/no-one
12 anything
13 Nothing
14 Nobody/No-one ... anybody/anyone

UNIT 79

79.1
2 something
3 somewhere
4 somebody/someone

79.2
2a Nowhere.
3a Nothing.
4a Nobody./No-one.
2b I'm not going anywhere.
3b I don't want anything.
4b I'm not looking for anybody/anyone.

79.3
3 anything
4 anything
5 somebody/someone
6 something
7 anybody/anyone ... nobody/no-one
8 anything
9 Nobody/No-one
10 anybody/anyone
11 Nothing
12 anywhere
13 somewhere
14 anything
15 anybody/anyone

79.4
2 anything to eat
3 nothing to do
4 anywhere to sit
5 something to drink
6 nowhere to park
7 something to read
8 somewhere to stay

UNIT 80

80.1
2 Every day
3 every time
4 Every room
5 every word

80.2
2 every day
3 all day
4 every day
5 all day
6 all day
7 every day

80.3
2 every
3 all
4 all
5 Every
6 all
7 every
8 all
9 every

80.4
2 everything
3 Everybody/Everyone
4 everything
5 everywhere
6 Everybody/Everyone
7 everywhere
8 Everything

80.5
2 is
3 has
4 likes
5 has
6 was
7 makes
8 Is ... Does

UNIT 81

81.1
3 Some
4 Most of
5 Most
6 any of
7 all *or* all of
8 None of
9 any of
10 Most
11 most of
12 Some
13 All *or* All of
14 some of
15 most of

81.2
2 All of them.
3 Some of them.
4 None of them.
5 Most of them.
6 None of it.

81.3
3 Some people ...
4 Some of **the** questions ...
or Some questions ...
5 *OK*
6 All insects ...
7 *OK* (*or* ... all **of** these books)
8 Most of **the** students ...
or Most students ...
9 *OK*
10 ... most of **the** night.

UNIT 82

82.1
3 Both
4 Neither
5 Neither
6 both
7 Either
8 neither of
9 Neither
10 either of
11 Both
12 neither of
13 Both
14 either of

82.2
2 Both windows are open.
3 Neither man is wearing a hat. *or* Neither of them is wearing ...
4 Both men have (got) beards. *or* Both of them have ...
5 Both buses go to the airport. *or* ... are going to the airport.
6 Neither answer is correct.

82.3
3 Both of them are students.
4 Neither of them has a car. / ... has got a car.
5 Both of them live in London.
6 Both of them like cooking.
7 Neither of them can play the piano.
8 Both of them eat seafood.
9 Neither of them is interested in sport.

UNIT 83

83.1
2 many
3 much
4 many
5 many
6 much
7 much
8 many
9 How many
10 How much
11 How much
12 How many

83.2
2 much time
3 many countries
4 many people
5 much luggage
6 many times

83.3
2 a lot of interesting things
3 a lot of accidents
4 a lot of fun
5 a lot of traffic

83.4
3 a lot of snow
4 *OK*
5 a lot of money
6 *OK*
7 *OK*
8 a lot

83.5
3 She plays tennis a lot.
4 He doesn't use his car much. (*or* ... a lot.)
5 He doesn't go out much. (*or* ... a lot.)
6 She travels a lot.

UNIT 84

84.1
2 a few
3 a little
4 a few
5 a little
6 a few

84.2
2 a little milk
3 A few days
4 a little Russian
5 a few friends
6 a few times
7 a few chairs
8 a little fresh air

84.3
2 very little coffee
3 very little rain
4 very few hotels
5 very little time
6 Very few people
7 very little work

84.4
2 A few
3 a little
4 little
5 few
6 a little
7 little

84.5
2 ... **a** little luck
3 ... **a** few things
4 *OK*
5 ... **a** few questions
6 ... **few** people
7 *OK*

UNIT 85

85.1
2 I like that green jacket.
3 Do you like classical music?
4 I had a wonderful holiday.
5 We went to a Japanese restaurant.

85.2
2 black clouds
3 long holiday
4 hot water
5 fresh air
6 sharp knife
7 dangerous job

85.3
2 It looks new.
3 I feel ill.
4 You look surprised.
5 They smell nice.
6 It tastes horrible.

85.4
2 It doesn't look new.
3 You don't sound American.
4 I don't feel cold.
5 They don't look heavy.
6 Maybe, but it doesn't taste good.

UNIT 86

86.1
2 badly
3 quietly
4 angrily
5 fast
6 dangerously

86.2
2 work hard
3 sleep well
4 win easily
5 Think carefully
6 know her very well
7 explain things very clearly/well
8 Come quickly

86.3
2 angry
3 slowly
4 slow
5 careful
6 hard
7 suddenly
8 quiet
9 badly
10 nice (*See Unit 85C.*)
11 quickly

86.4
2 well
3 good
4 well
5 well
6 good ... good

UNIT 87

87.1
2 bigger
3 slower
4 more expensive
5 higher
6 more dangerous

87.2
2 stronger
3 happier
4 more modern
5 more important
6 better
7 larger
8 more serious
9 prettier
10 more crowded

87.3
2 hotter/warmer
3 more expensive

4 worse
5 further
6 more difficult *or* harder

87.4
3 taller
4 harder
5 more comfortable
6 better
7 nicer
8 heavier
9 more interested
10 warmer
11 better
12 bigger
13 more beautiful
14 sharper
15 more polite
16 worse

UNIT 88

88.1
3 Kate is taller than Ben.
4 Kate starts work earlier than Ben.
5 Ben works harder than Kate.
6 Ben has more money than Kate. / Ben has got more money ...
7 Kate is a better driver than Ben.
8 Ben is more patient than Kate.
9 Ben is a better dancer than Kate. / Ben dances better than Kate.
10 Kate is more intelligent than Ben.
11 Kate speaks French better than Ben. / Kate speaks better French than Ben. / Kate's French is better than Ben's.
12 Ben goes to the cinema more than Kate. / ... more often than Kate.

88.2
2 You're older than her. / ... than she is.
3 You work harder than me. / ... than I do.
4 You watch TV more than him. / ... than he does.
5 You're a better cook than me. / ... than I am. *or* You cook better than me. / ... than I do.
6 You know more people than us. / ... than we do.
7 You have more money than them. / ... than they have.
8 You can run faster than me. / ... than I can.
9 You've been here longer than her. / ... than she has.
10 You got up earlier than them. / ... than they did.
11 You were more surprised than him. / ... than he was.

88.3
2 Jack's mother is much younger than his father.
3 My camera cost a bit more than yours. / ... than your camera. *or* My camera was a bit more expensive than ...
4 I feel much better today than yesterday. / ... than I did yesterday. /... than I felt yesterday.
5 It's a bit warmer today than yesterday. / ... than it was yesterday.
6 Sarah is a much better tennis player than me. / ... than I am. *or* Sarah is much better at tennis than me. / ... than I am. *or* Sarah plays tennis much better than me. / ... than I do.

UNIT 89

89.1
2 A is longer than B, but not as long as C.
3 C is heavier than A, but not as heavy as B.
4 A is older than C, but not as old as B.
5 B has got more money than C, but not as much as A. *or* ... but less (money) than A.
6 C works harder than A, but not as hard as B.

89.2
2 Your room isn't as big as mine. / ... as my room.
3 I didn't get up as early as you. / ... as you did.
4 They didn't play as well as us. / ... as we did.
5 You haven't been here as long as me. / ... as I have.
6 He isn't as nervous as her. / ... as she is.

89.3
2 as
3 than
4 than
5 as
6 than
7 as
8 than

89.4
2 Julia lives in the same street as Laura.
3 Julia got up at the same time as Andy.
4 Andy's car is the same colour as Laura's.

UNIT 90

90.1
2 C is longer than A.
D is the longest.
B is the shortest.
3 D is younger than C.
B is the youngest.
C is the oldest.
4 D is more expensive than A.
C is the most expensive.
A is the cheapest.
5 A is better than C.
A is the best.
D is the worst.

90.2
2 the happiest day
3 the best film
4 the most popular singer
5 the worst mistake
6 the prettiest village
7 the coldest day
8 the most boring person

90.3
2 Everest is the highest mountain in the world.
3–6
Brazil is the largest country in South America.
Alaska is the largest state in the USA.
The Nile is the longest river in Africa. / ... in the world.
Jupiter is the largest planet in the solar system.

UNIT 91

91.1
2 enough chairs
3 enough paint
4 enough wind

91.2
2 The car isn't big enough.
3 His legs aren't long enough.
4 He isn't strong enough.

91.3
3 old enough
4 enough time
5 big enough
6 eat enough
7 enough space
8 tired enough
9 practise enough

91.4
2 sharp enough to cut
3 warm enough to go
4 enough bread to make
5 well enough to win
6 enough time to read

UNIT 92

92.1
2 too heavy
3 too low
4 too fast
5 too big
6 too crowded

92.2
3 enough
4 too many
5 too
6 enough
7 too much
8 enough
9 too
10 too many
11 too much

92.3
3 It's too far.
4 It's too expensive.
5 It isn't/It's not big enough.
6 It was too difficult.
7 It isn't good enough.
8 I'm too busy.
9 It was too long.

92.4
2 too early to go to bed
3 too young to get married
4 too dangerous to go out at night
5 too late to phone Sue (now)
6 too surprised to say anything

UNIT 93

93.1
3 I like this picture very much.
4 Tom started his new job last week.
5 *OK*
6 Jessica bought a present for her friend. *or* Jessica bought her friend a present.
7 I drink three cups of coffee every day.
8 *OK*
9 I borrowed fifty pounds from my brother.

93.2
2 I got a new phone last week.
3 Paul finished his work quickly.
4 Emily doesn't speak French very well.
5 I did a lot of shopping yesterday.
6 Do you know London well?
7 We enjoyed the party very much.
8 I explained the problem carefully.
9 We met some friends at the airport.
10 Did you buy that jacket in England?
11 We do the same thing every day.
12 I don't like football very much.

93.3
2 I arrived at the hotel early.
3 Julia goes to Italy every year.
4 We have lived here since 1998.
5 Sue was born in London in 1990.
6 Paul didn't go to work yesterday.
7 Helen went to a wedding last weekend.
8 I had my breakfast in bed this morning.
9 Amy is going to university in September.
10 I saw a beautiful bird in the garden this morning.
11 My parents have been to the United States many times.
12 I left my umbrella in the restaurant last night.
13 Are you going to the cinema tomorrow evening?
14 I took the children to school this morning.

UNIT 94

94.1
2 He always gets up early.
3 He's/He is never late for work.
4 He sometimes gets angry.
5 He rarely goes swimming.
6 He's/He is usually at home in the evenings.

94.2
2 Susan is always polite.
3 I usually finish work at 5 o'clock.
4 Sarah has just started a new job.
5 I rarely go to bed before midnight.
6 The bus isn't usually late.
7 I don't often eat fish.
8 I will never forget what you said.
9 Have you ever lost your passport?
10 Do you still work in the same place?
11 They always stay in the same hotel.
12 Jane doesn't usually work on Saturdays.
13 Is Tina already here?
14 What do you usually have for breakfast?
15 I can never remember his name.

94.3
2 Yes, and I also speak French.
3 Yes, and I'm also hungry.
4 Yes, and I've also been to Ireland.
5 Yes, and I also bought some books.

94.4
1 They both play football.
They're/They are both students.
They've both got cars. / They both have cars.
2 They're/They are all married.
They were all born in England.
They all live in New York.

UNIT 95

95.1
2 Do you still live in Clare Street?
3 Are you still a student?
4 Have you still got a motorbike? / Do you still have a motorbike?
5 Do you still go to the cinema a lot?
6 Do you still want to be a teacher?

95.2
2 He was looking for a job.
He's/He is still looking (for a job).
He hasn't found a job yet.
3 She was asleep.
She's/She is still asleep.
She hasn't woken up yet. / She isn't awake yet. *or* She hasn't got up yet. / She isn't up yet.
4 They were having dinner. / They were eating.
They're/They are still having dinner. / ... still eating.
They haven't finished (dinner) yet. / They haven't finished eating yet.

95.3
2 Is Helen here yet? *or* Has Helen arrived/come yet?
3 Have you got your (exam) results yet? / Have you had your ... / Have you received your ...
4 Have you decided where to go yet? / Do you know where you're going yet?

95.4
3 She's/She has already gone/left.
4 I've already got one. / I already have one.
5 I've/I have already paid (it).
6 he already knows.

UNIT 96

96.1
2 He gave it to Gary.
3 He gave them to Sarah.
4 He gave it to his sister.
5 He gave them to Robert.
6 He gave it to a neighbour.

96.2
2 I gave Joanna a plant.
3 I gave Richard a tie.
4 I gave Emma some chocolates / a box of chocolates.
5 I gave Rachel some flowers / a bunch of flowers.
6 I gave Kevin a wallet.

96.3
2 Can you lend me an umbrella?
3 Can you give me your address?
4 Can you lend me twenty pounds?
5 Can you send me more information?
6 Can you show me the letter?

96.4
2 lend you some money
3 send the bill to me
4 buy you a present
5 pass me the sugar
6 give it to her
7 showed the policeman my identity card

UNIT 97

97.1
3 I went to the window and (I) looked out.
4 I wanted to phone you, but I didn't have your number.
5 I jumped into the river and (I) swam to the other side.
6 I usually drive to work, but I went by bus this morning.
7 Do you want me to come with you, or shall I wait here?

97.2
Example answers:
2 because it was raining. / because the weather was bad.
3 but it was closed.
4 so he didn't eat anything. / so he didn't want anything to eat.
5 because there was a lot of traffic. / because the traffic was bad.
6 Sue said goodbye, got into her car and drove off/away.

97.3
Example answers:
3 I went to the cinema, **but** the film wasn't very good.
4 I went to a café **and** met some friends of mine.
5 There was a film on television, **so** I watched it.
6 I got up in the middle of the night **because** I couldn't sleep.

UNIT 98

98.1
2 When I'm tired, I like to watch TV.
3 When I knocked on the door, there was no answer.
4 When I go on holiday, I always go to the same place.
5 When the programme ended, I turned off the TV.
6 When I got to the hotel, there were no rooms.

98.2
2 when they heard the news
3 they went to live in New Zealand
4 while they were away
5 before they came here
6 somebody broke into the house
7 they didn't believe me

98.3
2 I finish
3 it's
4 I'll be ... she leaves
5 stops
6 We'll come ... we're
7 I'll bring
8 I'm
9 it gets
10 I'll tell ... I'm

98.4
Example answers:
2 you finish your work
3 I'm going to buy a motorbike
4 you get ready
5 I won't have much free time
6 I come back

UNIT 99

99.1
2 If you pass the exam, you'll get a certificate.
3 If you fail the exam, you can do it again.
4 If you don't want this magazine, I'll throw it away.
5 If you want those pictures, you can have them.
6 If you're busy now, we can talk later.
7 If you're hungry, we can have lunch now.
8 If you need money, I can lend you some.

99.2
2 I give
3 is
4 I'll call
5 I'll be ... get
6 Will you go ... they invite

99.3
Example answers:
3 ... you're busy.
4 ... you'll feel better in the morning.
5 ... you're not watching it.
6 ... she doesn't study.
7 ... I'll go and see Chris.
8 ... the weather is good.
9 ... it rains today.

99.4
2 When
3 If
4 If
5 if
6 When
7 if
8 when ... if

UNIT 100

100.1
3 wanted
4 had
5 were/was
6 didn't enjoy
7 could
8 tried
9 didn't have

100.2
3 I'd go / I would go
4 she knew
5 we had
6 you won
7 I wouldn't stay
8 we lived
9 It would be
10 the salary was/were
11 I wouldn't know
12 would you change

100.3
2 I'd watch it / I would watch it
3 we had some pictures on the wall
4 the air would be cleaner
5 every day was/were the same
6 I'd be bored / I would be bored
7 we had a bigger house / we bought a bigger house
8 we would/could buy a bigger house *or*
we would/could have a bigger house

100.4
Example answers:
2 I'd go to Antarctica
3 I didn't have any friends
4 I'd buy a house if I had enough money.
5 I'd try and help
6 there were no guns

UNIT 101

101.1
2 A butcher is a person who sells meat.
3 A musician is a person who plays a musical instrument.
4 A patient is a person who is ill in hospital.
5 A dentist is a person who takes care of your teeth.
6 A fool is a person who does stupid things.
7 A genius is a person who is very intelligent.
8 A liar is a person who doesn't tell the truth.

101.2
2 The woman who opened the door was wearing a yellow dress.
3 Most of the students who took the exam passed (it).
4 The policeman who stopped our car wasn't very friendly.

101.3
2 who
3 which
4 which
5 who
6 which
7 who
8 who
9 which
that *is also correct in all these sentences.*

101.4
3 ... a machine **that/which** makes coffee.
4 *OK* (**which** *is also correct*)
5 ... people **who/that** never stop talking.
6 *OK* (**who** *is also correct*)
7 *OK* (**that** *is also correct*)
8 ... the sentences **that/which** are wrong.
9 ... a car **that/which** cost £40,000.

UNIT 102

102.1
2 I've lost the pen you gave me.
3 I like the jacket Sue is wearing.
4 Where are the flowers I gave you?
5 I didn't believe the story he told us.
6 How much were the oranges you bought?

102.2
2 The meal you cooked was excellent.
3 The shoes I'm wearing aren't very comfortable.
4 The people we invited to dinner didn't come.

102.3
2 Who are the people you were talking to?
3 Did you find the keys you were looking for?
4 Where is the party you're going to?
5 What's the name of the film you were talking about?
6 What's that music you're listening to?
7 Did you get the job you applied for?

102.4

2 What's the name of the restaurant where you had dinner?
3 How big is the village where you live?
4 Where exactly is the factory where you work?

UNIT 103

103.1

3	at	11	at
4	on	12	in
5	in	13	on
6	in	14	on
7	on	15	at
8	on	16	at
9	at	17	at*
10	on	18	in

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

103.2

2	on	11	at*
3	at	12	on
4	in	13	in
5	in	14	at
6	in	15	in
7	on	16	on
8	on	17	in
9	in	18	at
10	at	19	at

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

103.3

2 on Friday
3 on Monday
4 at 4 o'clock on Thursday (afternoon) / on Thursday (afternoon) at 4 o'clock
5 on Saturday evening
6 at 2.30 on Tuesday (afternoon) / on Tuesday (afternoon) at 2.30

103.4

2 I'll call you in three days.
3 My exam is in two weeks.
4 Tom will be here in half an hour. / ... in 30 minutes.

103.5

3 in
4 – *(already complete)*
5 – *(already complete)*
6 in
7 at*
8 – *(already complete)*
9 – *(already complete)*
10 on
11 in
12 at

* American speakers say '**on** the weekend'.

UNIT 104

104.1

2 Alex lived in Canada **until** 2009.
3 Alex has lived in England **since** 2009.
4 Karen lived in France **until** 2011.
5 Karen has lived in Switzerland **since** 2011.
6 Clare worked in a restaurant **from** 2010 **to** 2012.
7 Clare has worked in a hotel **since** 2012.
8 Adam was a teacher **from** 2002 **to** 2008.
9 Adam has been a journalist **since** 2008.
11 Alex has lived in England for ... years.
12 Karen has lived in Switzerland for ... years.
13 Clare worked in a restaurant for two years.
14 Clare has worked in a hotel for ... years.
15 Adam was a teacher for six years.
16 Adam has been a journalist for ... years.

104.2

2	until	9	since
3	for	10	until
4	since	11	for
5	Until	12	until
6	for	13	Since
7	for	14	for
8	until		

UNIT 105

105.1

2 after lunch
3 before the end
4 during the course
5 before they went to Australia
6 during the night
7 while you're waiting
8 after the concert

105.2

3 while
4 for
5 while
6 during
7 while
8 for
9 during
10 while

105.3

2 eating
3 answering
4 having/taking
5 finishing/doing
6 going/travelling

105.4

2 John worked in a bookshop for two years after leaving school.
3 Before going to sleep, I read for a few minutes.
4 After walking for three hours, we were very tired.
5 Let's have a cup of coffee before going out.

UNIT 106

106.1

2 **In** the box.
3 **On** the box.
4 **On** the wall.
5 **At** the bus stop.
6 **In** the field.
7 **On** the balcony.
8 **In** the pool.
9 **At** the window.
10 **On** the ceiling.
11 **On** the table.
12 **At** the table.

106.2

2 in
3 on
4 in
5 on
6 at
7 in
8 in
9 at
10 at
11 in
12 at
13 on
14 at
15 **on** the wall **in** the living room

UNIT 107

107.1
2 **At** the airport.
3 **In** bed.
4 **On** a ship.
5 **In** the sky.
6 **At** a party.
7 **At** the doctor's.
8 **On** the second floor.
9 **At** work.
10 **On** a plane.
11 **In** a taxi.
12 **At** a wedding.

107.2
2 in
3 in
4 at
5 at
6 in
7 at
8 at
9 in
10 in
11 on
12 on
13 at
14 in
15 on

UNIT 108

108.1
2 to
3 in
4 to
5 in
6 to
7 to
8 in

108.2
3 to
4 to
5 **at** home ... **to** work
6 at
7 – *(already complete)*
8 to
9 at
10 **at** a restaurant ... **to** the hotel

108.3
2 to
3 to
4 in
5 to
6 to
7 at
8 to
9 to
10 at
11 at
12 **to** Maria's house ... **at** home
13 – *(already complete)*
14 meet **at** the party... go **to** the party

108.4
1 to
2 – *(already complete)*
3 at
4 in
5 to
6 – *(already complete)*

108.5
Example answers:
2 to work
3 at work
4 to Canada
5 to parties
6 at a friend's house

UNIT 109

109.1
2 next to / beside / by
3 in front of
4 between
5 next to / beside / by
6 in front of
7 behind
8 on the left
9 in the middle

109.2
2 behind
3 above
4 in front of
5 on
6 by / next to / beside
7 below / under
8 above
9 under
10 by / next to / beside
11 opposite
12 on

109.3
2 The fountain is in front of the theatre.
3 The bank/bookshop is opposite the theatre. *or* Paul's office is opposite the theatre. *or* The theatre is opposite ...
4 The bank/bookshop/ supermarket is next to ...
5 Paul's office is above the bookshop.
6 The bookshop is between the bank and the supermarket.

UNIT 110

110.1
2 Go under the bridge.
3 Go up the hill.
4 Go down the steps.
5 Go along this street.
6 Go into the hotel.
7 Go past the hotel.
8 Go out of the hotel.
9 Go over the bridge.
10 Go through the park.

110.2
2 off
3 over
4 out of
5 across
6 round/around
7 through
8 on
9 round/around
10 **into** the house **through** a window

110.3
1 out of
2 round/around
3 in
4 **from** here **to** the airport
5 round/around
6 on/over
7 over
8 out of / from

UNIT 111

111.1
2 on time
3 on holiday
4 on the phone
5 on TV

111.2
2 by
3 with
4 about
5 on
6 by
7 at
8 on
9 with
10 **about** grammar **by** Vera P. Bull

111.3
1 with
2 without
3 by
4 about
5 at
6 by
7 on
8 with
9 at
10 by

11 about
12 by
13 on
14 with
15 by
16 by

UNIT 112

112.1
2 in
3 to
4 at
5 with
6 of

112.2
2 at
3 to
4 about
5 of
6 of
7 from/to (*You can also say* different than ...)
8 in
9 for
10 about
11 of
12 **for/about** getting angry **with** you

112.3
2 interested in going
3 good at getting
4 fed up with waiting
5 sorry for/about waking
6 Thank you for waiting.

112.4
2 Sue walked past me without speaking.
3 Don't do anything without asking me first.
4 I went out without locking the door.

112.5
Example answers:
2 I'm scared of the dark.
3 I'm not very good at drawing.
4 I'm not interested in cars.
5 I'm fed up with living here.

UNIT 113

113.1
2 to
3 for
4 to
5 at
6 for

113.2
2 to
3 to
4 – *(already complete)*
5 for
6 to
7 of/about
8 for
9 on
10 to
11 for
12 – *(already complete)*
13 to
14 on
15 of/about

113.3
1 at
2 after
3 for
4 after
5 at
6 for

113.4
Example answers:
3 It depends on the programme.
4 It depends (on) what it is.
5 It depends on the weather.
6 It depends (on) how much you want.

UNIT 114

114.1
2 went in
3 looked up
4 rode off/away
5 turned round/around
6 got off
7 sat down
8 got out

114.2
2 away
3 round/around
4 going **out** ... be **back**
5 down
6 over
7 back
8 in
9 up
10 going **away** ... coming **back**

114.3
2 Hold on
3 slowed down
4 takes off
5 getting on
6 speak up
7 broken down
8 fall over / fall down
9 carry on
10 gave up
11 went off

UNIT 115

115.1
2 She took off her hat. *or* She took her hat off.
3 He put down his bag. *or* He put his bag down.
4 She picked up the magazine. *or* She picked the magazine up.
5 He put on his sunglasses. *or* He put his sunglasses on.
6 She turned off the tap. *or* She turned the tap off.

115.2
2 He put his jacket on.
He put it on.
3 She took off her glasses.
She took them off.
4 I picked the phone up.
I picked it up.
5 They gave the key back.
They gave it back.
6 We turned off the lights.
We turned them off.

115.3
2 take it back
3 picked them up
4 switched it off
5 bring them back

115.4
3 knocked over
4 look it up
5 throw them away
6 tried on
7 showed me round
8 gave it up *or* gave up (*without* it)
9 fill it in
10 put your cigarette out

Key to Additional exercises

1

3 Kate is a doctor.
4 The children are asleep.
5 Gary isn't hungry.
6 The books aren't on the table.
7 The hotel is near the station.
8 The bus isn't full.

2

3 she's / she is
4 Where are
5 Is he
6 It's / It is
7 I'm / I am *or* No, I'm not. I'm a student.
8 What colour is
9 Is it
10 Are you
11 How much are they?

3

3 He's/He is having a shower.
4 Are the children playing?
5 Is it raining?
6 They're/They are coming now.
7 Why are you standing here? I'm/I am waiting for somebody.

4

4 Sam doesn't want
5 Do you want
6 Does Helen live
7 Sarah knows
8 I don't travel
9 do you usually get up
10 They don't go out
11 Tom always finishes
12 does Jessica do ... She works

5

3 She's/She is a student.
4 She hasn't got a car. *or* She doesn't have a car.
5 She goes out a lot.
6 She's got/She has got a lot of friends. *or* She has a lot of friends.
7 She doesn't like London.
8 She likes dancing.
9 She isn't/She's not interested in sport.

6

1 Are you married?
Where do you live?
Have you got any children? *or* Do you have any children?
How old is she?
2 How old are you?
What do you do? / Where do you work? / What's your job?
Do you like/enjoy your job?
Have you got a car? *or* Do you have a car?
Do you (usually) go to work by car?
3 What's his name? / What's he called?
What does he do? / What's his job?
Does he live/work in London?

7

4 Sonia is 32 years old.
5 I've got two sisters. *or* I have two sisters.
6 We often watch TV in the evening.
7 Amy never wears a hat.
8 A bicycle has got two wheels. *or* ... has two wheels.
9 These flowers are beautiful.
10 Emma speaks German very well.

8

3 are you cooking
4 plays
5 I'm going
6 It's raining
7 I don't watch
8 we're looking
9 do you pronounce

9

2 we go
3 is shining
4 are you going
5 do you go
6 She writes
7 I never read
8 They're watching
9 She's talking
10 do you usually have
11 He's visiting
12 I don't drink

10

2 went
3 found
4 was
5 had
6 told
7 gave
8 were
9 thought
10 invited/asked

11

3 He was good at sport.
4 He played football.
5 He didn't work hard at school.
6 He had a lot of friends.
7 He didn't have a bike.
8 He wasn't a quiet child.

12

3 How long were you there? / How long did you stay there?
4 Did you like/enjoy Amsterdam?
5 Where did you stay?
6 Was the weather good?
7 When did you get/come back?

13

3 I forgot
4 did you get
5 I didn't speak
6 Did you have
7 he didn't go
8 she arrived
9 did Robert live
10 The meal didn't cost

14

2 were working
3 opened
4 rang ... was cooking
5 heard ... looked
6 was looking ... happened
7 wasn't reading ... was watching
8 didn't read
9 finished ... paid ... left
10 saw ... was walking ... was waiting

15

3 is playing
4 gave
5 doesn't like

6 did your parents go
7 saw ... was driving
8 Do you watch
9 were you doing
10 goes
11 'm/am trying
12 didn't sleep

16

3 it's/it has just finished/ended.
4 I've/I have found them. *or* I've got them.
5 I haven't read it.
6 Have you seen her?
7 I've/I have had enough.
8 Have you (ever) been to Sweden?
9 We've/We have (just) been to the cinema.
10 They've/They have gone to a party.
11 He's/He has (just) woken up.
12 How long have you lived here? *or* ... have you been living here?
13 we've/we have known each other for a long time.
14 It's/It has been raining all day. *or* It has rained all day. *or* It has been horrible/bad all day.

17

3 's/has been
4 for
5 since
6 has he lived / has he been / has he been living
7 for
8 've/have been

18

Example answers:

3 I've just started this exercise.
4 I've met Sarah a few times.
5 I haven't had lunch yet.
6 I've never been to Australia.
7 I've lived here since I was born.
8 I've lived here for three years.

19

3 bought/got
4 went
5 've/have read *or* read *or* 've/have finished with
6 haven't started (it) *or* haven't begun (it)
7 was
8 didn't see
9 left
10 's/has been
11 was
12 've/have never made

20

3 He's/He has already gone.
4 she left at 4 o'clock.
5 How many times have you been there?
6 I haven't decided yet.
7 It was on the table last night.
8 I've eaten there a few times.
9 What time did they arrive?

21

1 When was the last time? *or* When did you go the last time?
2 How long have you had it? I bought/got it yesterday.
3 How long have you lived there / have you been there / have you been living there? Before that we lived in Mill Road. How long did you live in Mill Road?
4 How long have you worked there / have you been working there? What did you do before that? I was a taxi driver. *or* I worked as a taxi driver.

22

Example answers:

2 I didn't go out last night.
3 I was at work yesterday afternoon.
4 I went to a party a few days ago.
5 It was my birthday last week.
6 I went to America last year.

23

2	B	9	C
3	D	10	D
4	A	11	A
5	A	12	C
6	D	13	B
7	C	14	C
8	B	15	A

24

1 was damaged ... be knocked down
2 was built ... is used ... is being painted
3 is called ... be called ... was changed
4 have been made ... are produced

25

2 is visited
3 were damaged
4 be built
5 is being cleaned
6 be forgotten
7 has already been done
8 be kept
9 Have you ever been bitten
10 was stolen

26

2 My car was stolen last week.
3 All the bananas have been eaten.
4 The machine will be repaired.
5 We're/We are being watched.
6 The housework has to be done.

27

3 pushed
4 was pushed
5 has taken
6 is being repaired
7 invented
8 was the camera invented
9 have been washed *or* were washed
10 I've/I have washed them. *or* I washed them.
11 did they send *or* have they sent
12 be sent

28

2	B	8	B
3	A	9	B
4	C	10	A
5	B	11	B
6	C	12	C
7	C		

29

1 I stayed
did you do
I watched
Are you going
I'm going
are you going to see
I don't know. I haven't decided
2 have you been
We arrived
are you staying / are you going to stay
do you like
we're having
3 I'm going ... Do you want
are you going
Have you ever eaten
I've been ... I went
4 I've lost ... Have you seen
You were wearing ... I came
I'm not wearing
Have you looked / Did you look
I'll go

30

1 we met
2 we sat / we were sitting
3 We didn't know
4 we became
5 we liked
6 we spent
7 We left
8 we meet
9 has been
10 she's working
11 She's coming
12 she comes
13 we'll have / we're going to have
14 It will be

31

2 we're staying
3 we enjoyed
4 We watched
5 slept
6 I don't sleep
7 we're not doing / we're not going to do *or* we aren't doing / we aren't going to do
8 we're going
9 to see
10 We haven't decided
11 wants
12 to go
13 I'll send
14 you're having
15 are working / have been working
16 he had
17 he needs
18 We've been
19 We got
20 seeing
21 I liked
22 we went
23 we left
24 had
25 he wasn't injured
26 was damaged
27 We've changed / We changed
28 we're leaving
29 We're staying / We're going to stay / We'll stay
30 flying
31 That will be / That's going to be
32 finished
33 I'll let
34 we get
35 are looking
36 We're going
37 we'll send

32

2	A	11	B
3	B	12	A
4	C	13	C
5	B	14	B
6	C	15	C
7	B	16	A
8	A	17	C
9	C	18	B
10	A		

33

2 a car
3 the fridge
4 a teacher
5 school
6 the cinema
7 a taxi
8 the piano
9 cars
10 the same

34

4 **a** horse
5 **The** sky
6 **a** tourist
7 for lunch (–)
8 **the** first President of **the** United States
9 **a** headache
10 remember names (–)
11 **the** next train
12 send emails (–)
13 **the** garden
14 **the** Majestic Hotel
15 ill last week (–) ... to work (–)
16 **the** highest mountain in **the** world
17 to **the** radio ... having breakfast (–)
18 like sport (–) ... is basketball (–)
19 **a** doctor ... **an** art teacher
20 **the** second floor ... **the** top of **the** stairs ... on **the** right
21 After dinner (–) ... watched TV (–)
22 **a** wonderful holiday in **the** south of France (–)

35

2	in	12	at
3	on	13	at
4	at	14	in
5	on	15	at
6	in	16	on
7	since	17	by
8	on	18	for ... on
9	by	19	to ... in
10	in	20	at ... in
11	for		

Key to Study guide

Present

1.1	B
1.2	A
1.3	C
1.4	A
1.5	C, D
1.6	B
1.7	D
1.8	C
1.9	C
1.10	A
1.11	C
1.12	A
1.13	D
1.14	C
1.15	A
1.16	D
1.17	C, D
1.18	A, D

Past

2.1	B
2.2	E
2.3	D
2.4	B
2.5	A
2.6	D
2.7	A
2.8	C
2.9	C

Present perfect

3.1	B, E
3.2	D
3.3	B
3.4	D
3.5	E
3.6	B
3.7	A
3.8	C
3.9	D
3.10	E

Passive

4.1	D
4.2	C
4.3	E
4.4	A
4.5	A

Verb forms

5.1	D
5.2	B

Future

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6.2	A
6.3	C
6.4	A, B
6.5	B
6.6	C
6.7	D
6.8	C
6.9	B

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7.1	C, D
7.2	A, C
7.3	A
7.4	D
7.5	B
7.6	E
7.7	B, D
7.8	D
7.9	C
7.10	C
7.11	A
7.12	E

There and it

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8.2	E
8.3	A
8.4	A
8.5	B

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9.2	A
9.3	C
9.4	B
9.5	B
9.6	C
9.7	D

Questions

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10.2	D
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15.9 B
15.10 B
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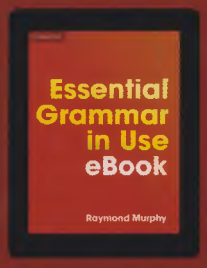

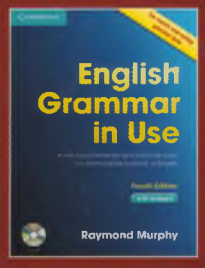

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The Complete Handbook for Building a Superior Vocabulary

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TO:

My family and friends, who accepted, without apparent resentment and with barely audible complaint, my complete self-isolation during the many months in which I totally and shamefully neglected them while working on the revision of this book.

Especially: Mary; Margie Baldinger and the kids; Debbie and Allen Hubbert; Milton Lewis; Karen and Bob Kopfstein; Leonard Vogel, one of America's great painters, and Shirley; gourmet cooks David and Janice Potts; Seymour and Nan Prog; Ruth and Leo; Dave and Jan Hopkins; Carol and Marvin Colter; Bob Finnerty, my chess opponent, who says that winning is all that counts; Doris Garcia; Eleanor and Robert Poitou; Mary El and Dick Gayman—

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Whittier, California
January 1978

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Disclaimer

PART ONE
GETTING OFF TO A GOOD START

1. How to Test Your Present Vocabulary

How vocabulary growth of the average adult compares with that of children; a simple test to show you whether your vocabulary is below average, average, above average, excellent, or superior in range, verbal speed, and responsiveness; important evidence of the close relationship between vocabulary and success.

2. How to Start Building Your Vocabulary

How building your vocabulary will enrich your thinking, increase your self-assurance in speaking and writing, and give you a better understanding of the world and of yourself; why it is necessary to recapture the "powerful urge to learn"; why your age makes little difference; how this book is designed to build a college-size vocabulary in two to three months.

3. How to Talk About Personality Types (*Sessions 1–3*)

Words that describe all kinds and sorts of people, including terms for self-interest, reactions to the world, attitudes to others, skill and awkwardness, marital states, hatred of man, of woman, and of marriage. How one session of pleasant work can add more words to your vocabulary than the average adult learns in an entire year; why it is necessary to develop a comfortable time schedule and then *stick to it.*

4. How to Talk About Doctors (*Sessions 4–6*)

Words that relate to medical specialists and specialties. Terms for experts in disorders of the female organs; childhood diseases; skin ailments; skeletal deformities; heart ailments; disorders of the nerves, mind, and personality. How self-discipline and persistence will ultimately lead to complete mastery over words.

5. How to Talk About Various Practitioners (*Sessions 7–10*)

Words that describe a variety of professions, including those dealing with the human mind; teeth; vision; feet; handwriting; aging; etc. How you are becoming more and more conscious of the new words you meet in your reading.

6. How to Talk About Science and Scientists (*Sessions 11–13*)

Words that describe students of human development, of the heavens, of the earth, of plant and animal life, of insect forms,

of words and language, of social organization. Books on psychology that will add immeasurably both to your store of new words and ideas, and also to your understanding of yourself and of other people.

7. How to Talk About Liars and Lying (*Sessions 14–17*)

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Verbs that accurately describe important human activities. Excursions into expressive terms for good and evil, doing, saying, wishing, and pleasing. Further proof that you can learn, in a few weeks or less, more new words than the average adult learns in an entire year.

10. How to Talk About Various Speech Habits (*Sessions 24–27*)

Words that explore in depth all degrees and kinds of talk and silence. More books that will increase your alertness to new ideas and new words.

11. How to Insult Your Enemies (*Sessions 28–31*)

Terms for describing a disciplinarian, toady, dabbler, provocative woman, flag-waver, possessor of a one-track mind, freethinker, sufferer from imaginary ailments, etc. Excursions into words relating to father and mother, murder of all sorts, sexual desires, and various manias and phobias. Magazines that will help you build your vocabulary.

12. How to Flatter Your Friends (*Sessions 32–37*)

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Words for poverty and wealth, direct and indirect emotions, not calling a spade a spade, banter and other light talk, animallike contentment, homesickness, meat-eating, and different kinds of secrecy. Excursions into terms expressive of goodness, of hackneyed phraseology, of human similarity to various animals, of kinds of sound, etc. How to react to the new words you meet in your reading.

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19. How to Keep Building Your Vocabulary

The five simple, but vital, steps to take so that you can keep your vocabulary ever developing, ever increasing. How your vocabulary will continue to grow only if you remain on the search for new ideas. The best means for making this search successful.

Appendix: Some Esoteric Phobias

Other Books by This Author

BRIEF INTERMISSIONS

1. Test Your Grammar

A thirty-sentence test of your ability to use words correctly. Is your English average, above average, or nearly perfect?

2. Random Notes on Modern Usage

Grammatical usage is becoming more liberal every day—is your speech neither affected nor illiterate? Simple rules for fifteen important expressions.

3. How Grammar Changes

Grammar follows the speech habits of educated people—how does your grammar measure up in your use of nine common expressions?

4. How to Avoid Being a Purist

There is no reason for being overprecise in your speech—but do you also avoid barbarisms and illiterate expressions?

5. How to Speak Naturally

Nine more expressions of which you must be careful.

6. Do You Always Use the Proper Word?

A twenty-five sentence check on your increasing linguistic ability.

7. Some Interesting Derivations

How words come from the names of people and places.

8. How to Spell a Word

You can eliminate all your spelling difficulties—provided you know the tricks.

9. Take This Spelling Test

Proof that you are becoming a better speller.

10. Another Check on Your Spelling

Further tests to nail home the correct spellings of common but difficult words.

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK FOR MAXIMUM BENEFIT

1. this is not a reading book…

Don't read this book!

Instead, *work* with it. *Talk aloud* to it, *talk back* to it—use your voice, not just your eyes and mind.

Learning, *real learning*, goes on only through *active participation.*

When a new word occurs in a chapter, *say it aloud!* (The phonetic respelling will help you pronounce it correctly.)[1]

When you do the matching exercises, keep track of your responses. (Check the key that immediately follows each exercise.)

When you do the "Yes-No," "True-False," or "Same-Opposite" exercises, keep track of your responses, then check with the key when you have completed the whole exercise.

When you are asked to fill in words that fit definitions, *write your answers on a piece of paper;* then check the key both to see if you have responded with the right word and also to make sure your spelling is correct.

When you do the *Review of Etymology* exercises, make sure to fill in the English word containing the prefix, root, or suffix required—use a chapter word, or any other word that comes to mind. (Coin words if you like!)

Pay special attention to the *Chapter Reviews.* Are the words still fresh in your mind? Do you remember the meaning of each root studied in the previous sessions? In these *Reviews*, you are not only testing your learning but also tightening up any areas in which you discover lacks, weaknesses, or lapses of memory.

2. master the pronunciation system!

Saying words *aloud*, and saying them *right*, is half the battle in feeling comfortable and assured with all the new words you are going to learn. Every word taught is respelled to show its pronunciation, so pay close attention to how the phonetic symbols work.

(a) *First, master the "schwa"!*

Almost every English word of two or more syllables contains one or several syllables in which the vowel sound is said *very* quickly. For example:

"*Linda* spoke to her *mother about* a *different idea* she had."

→Read the *previous sentence aloud* at *normal conversational* speed.

Read it again. Listen to how the *-a* of *Linda;* the *-er* of *mother;* the *a-* of *about;* the *-er* and *-ent* of *different;* and the *-a* of *idea* sound.

Very quick—very short! Right?

Phonetically respelled, these words are represented as:

1. *Linda*	LIN′-də
2. *mother*	MUTH′-ər
3. *about*	ə-BOWT′
4. *different*	DIF′-ər-ənt
5. *idea*	ī-DEE′-ə

The symbol "ə," called a *schwa*, represents the quick, short vowel sound in the five words above.

Now look back at the sentence preceded by an arrow.

The italicized words are rewritten as:

1. *previous*	PREE′-vee-əs
2. *sentence*	SEN′-təns
3. *aloud*	ə-LOWD′
4. *normal*	NAWR′-məl
5. *conversational*	kon′-vər-SAY′-shən-əl

You will find ə in almost all words that are phonetically respelled throughout this book. Say the five italicized words aloud and make sure you understand how the *schwa* (ə) sounds.

(b) *Next, understand accent.*

Look at word (5) above: *conversational:* kon′-vər-SAY′-shən-əl. Note that there are *two* accent marks, one on *kon′*, another on *SAY′*. Note also that *kon′* is in lower-case letters, *SAY′* in capitals. Both syllables are stressed, but the one in capitals (*SAY′*) sounds stronger (or louder) than the one in lower case (*kon′*). Say *conversational* aloud, noting the difference.

Say these three words, taken from Chapter 3, *aloud*, noticing the variation in stress between the lower-case and the capitalized syllables:

1. *egomaniacal* ee′-gō-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
2. *altercation* awl′-tər-KAY′-shən
3. *anthropological* an′-thrə-pə-LOJ′-ə-kəl

(c) *Be careful of the letter "S"* (*or "s"*) *in phonetic respellings. S* (or *s*) is always *hissed*, as in *see, some, such.* After an *-n*, you will be tempted to *buzz* (or "voice") the *-s*, because final *-ns* is usually pronounced *-nz*, as in *wins, tons, owns*, etc. (Say these three words aloud—hear the *z* at the end?) *Resist the temptation! S* (or *s*) is *always hissed* in phonetic respellings!

Say these words aloud:

1. *ambivalence*[2] am-BIV′-ə-ləns
2. *affluence* AF′-lōō-əns
3. *opulence* OP′-yə-ləns
4. *sentence* SEN′-təns

(d) The symbol *ī* or *Ī* is pronounced *eye*, to rhyme with *high, sigh, my*, etc., *no matter where you find it.* For example:

1. *fights* FĪTS
2. *spy* SPĪ

3. *malign* mə-LĪN′

4. *civilize* SIV′-ə-līz′

[*I* or *i* (without the top bar) is pronounced as in *it, sit, pitch.]*

(e) *All consonants have their normal sounds.*
Except for *G* (or *g*), which is *always pronounced as in give, girl, get, go.*

1. *agree* ə-GREE′

2. *pagan* PAY′-gən

3. *again* ə-GEN′

(f) *The vowel sounds are as follows:*

SYMBOL	EXAMPLE
1. A, a	*cat* (KAT)
2. E, e	*wet* (WET)
3. I, i	*sit* (SIT)
4. O, o	*knot* (NOT)
5. U, u	*nut* (NUT)
6. AH, ah	*martinet* (mahr′-tə-NET′)
7. AW, aw	*for* (FAWR); *incorrigible* (in-KAWR′-ə-jə-bəl)
8. AY, ay	*ate* (AYT); *magnate* (MAG′-nayt)
9. EE, ee	*equal* (EE′-kwəl); *clandestinely* (klan-DES′-tən-le
10. Ō, ō	*toe* (TŌ); *concerto* (kən-CHUR′-tō)
11. ʊʊ, ʊʊ	*book* (BʊʊK); *prurient* (PRʊʊR′-ee-ənt)
12. ʊʊ, ʊʊ	*doom* (DʊʊM); *blue* (BLʊʊ)
13. OW, ow	*about* (ə-BOWT′)
14. OY, oy	*soil* (SOYL)

15. ING, ing *taking* (TAYK′-ing)

(g) *TH* or *th* is pronounced as in *thing;* TH or *th* is pronounced as in *this.*

3. a word (or words) on western and eastern pronunciation

In the New York City area, and in parts of New Jersey and other eastern states, the syllables *-ar, -er, -or, -off*, and *-aw* are pronounced somewhat differently from the way they are said in the Midwest and in the West.

In New York City, for example, the words below are generally pronounced as follows:

orange	AHR′-ənj
talk	TAWK
coffee	KAW′-fee
sorority	sə-RAHR′-ə-tee
incorrigible	in-KAHR′-ə-jə-bəl
disparage	dis-PAR′-əj (A as in HAT)
merry	MER′-ee (E as in WET)
marry	MAR′-ee (A as in HAT)
astronaut	AS′-trə-nawt′
Harry	HAR′-ee (A as in HAT)

In the Midwest and West, on the other hand, the same words are usually said approximately as follows:

orange	AWR′-ənj
talk	TOK
coffee	KOF′-ee

sorority	sə-RAWR′-ə-tee
incorrigible	in-KAWR′-ə-jə-bəl
disparage	dis-PAIR′-əj
merry	MAIR′-ee
marry	MAIR′-ee
astronaut	AS′-trə-not′
Harry	HAIR′-ee

Nothing so radical here that a person brought up in Brooklyn or the Bronx cannot understand a native of Los Angeles or San Francisco—it's just that each one thinks *the other* has an accent!

In California, for example, *Mary, merry*, and *marry* sound almost exactly alike—in New York, they are usually heard as quite different words.

(So, to be sexist for a moment, if the men at a party in Manhattan say, "Let's all make merry!", Mary doesn't feel that she is about to be seduced by the males!)

In the phonetic respellings throughout the book, the western pronunciations of words with the syllables remarked on above are used. This is done largely because I myself have lived in the Los Angeles area for some fourteen years, and have had to retrain my pronunciation (having come from New York City, where I was born, and lived all my life until 1964) so that my friends and students would stop making fun of the way I speak.

Neither form of pronunciation is any better nor any more euphonious than the other. Throughout the country, pronunciation varies not only from region to region or state to state, but often from city to city! The changes are slight and subtle, but they do exist, and an expert can easily pinpoint the geographical source of a person's language patterns almost down to a few square miles in area.

If you are an Easterner, you will have no difficulty translating the pronunciations of words like *sorority, incorrigible, disparage*, and

astronaut (all words discussed in later chapters) into your own comfortable language patterns.

4. why etymology?

Etymology (et′-ə-MOL′-ə-jee) deals with the origin or derivation of words.

When you know the meaning of a root (for example, Latin *ego*, I or self), you can better understand, and more easily remember, *all* the words built on this root.

Learn one root and you have the key that will unlock the meanings of up to ten or twenty words in which the root appears.

Learn *ego* and you can immediately get a handle on *egocentric, egomaniac, egoist, egotist*, and *alter ego.*

Learn *anthropos* (Greek, mankind), and you will quickly understand, and never forget, *anthropology, misanthropy, anthropoid*, *anthropocentric, anthropomorphic, philanthropy,* and *anthropophobia.* Meet any word with *anthropo-* in it, and you will have at least some idea of its meaning.

In the *etymological* (et′ə-mə-LOJ′-ə-kəl) approach to vocabulary building:

You will learn about *prefixes, roots*, and *suffixes*—

You will be able to figure out unfamiliar words by recognizing their structure, the building blocks from which they are constructed—

You will be able to construct words correctly by learning to put these building blocks together in the proper way—and

You will be able to derive verbs from nouns, nouns and verbs from adjectives, adjectives from nouns, etc.—and do all this correctly.

Learn how to deal with etymology and you will feel comfortable with words—you will use new words with self-assurance—you will be able to figure out thousands of words you hear or read even if you have never heard or seen these words before.

That's why the best approach to new words is through etymology[3]—as you will discover for yourself as soon as you start to work on chapter 3!

5. but what are nouns, verbs, and adjectives?

You probably know.

But if you don't, you can master these parts of speech (and reference will be made to *noun forms, verb forms*, and *adjective forms* throughout the book) within the next five minutes.

(a) A *noun* is a word that can be preceded by *a, an, the, some, such*, or *my*.

An *egoist* (noun)

Such *asceticism* (noun)

The *misogynist* (noun)

(Nouns, you will discover, often end in conventional suffixes: *-ness, -ity, -ism, -y, -ion*, etc.)

(b) A *verb* is a word that fits into the pattern, "Let us __." A verb has a past tense.

Let us *equivocate* (verb)—past tense: *equivocated.*

Let us *alternate* (verb)—past tense: *alternated.*

Let us *philander* (verb)—past tense: *philandered.*

(Verbs, you will discover, often end in conventional suffixes: *-ate, -ize, -fy*, etc.)

(c) An *adjective* is a word that fits into the pattern, "You are very__."

You are very *egoistic* (adjective).

You are very *introverted* (adjective).

You are very *misogynous* (adjective).

(Adjectives, you will discover, often end in conventional suffixes: *-ic, -ed, -ous, -al, -ive*, etc.)

And *adverbs*, of course, are generally formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective: *misogynous-misogynously; educational-educationally;* etc.

That's all there is to it! (Did it take more than five minutes? Maybe ten at the most?)

6. how to work for best results

If you intend to work with this book seriously (that is, if your clear intention is to add a thousand or more new words to your present

vocabulary—add them permanently, unforgettably—add them so successfully that you will soon find yourself using them in speech and writing), I suggest that you give yourself every advantage by carefully following the laws of learning:

(a) *Space your learning.*

Beginning with Chapter 3, every chapter will be divided into "sessions." Each session may take one half hour to an hour and a half, depending on the amount of material and on your own speed of learning.

Do one or two sessions at a time—three if you're going strong and are all involved—and always decide when you stop *exactly when* you will return. (I remind you to do this later in the book, since such a procedure is of crucial importance.)

(b) *Do not rush—go at your own comfortable speed.*

Everyone learns at a different pace. Fast learners are no better than slow learners—it's the end result that counts, not the time it takes you to finish.

(c) *Review.*

When you start a new session, go back to the last exercise of the previous session (usually *Can you recall the words?* or *Chapter Review*), cover your answers, and test your retention—do you have quick recall after a day or so has elapsed?

(d) *Test yourself.*

You are not aiming for a grade, or putting your worth on the line, when you take the three Comprehensive Tests (Chapters 8, 13, and 17)—rather you are discovering your weaknesses, if any; deciding where repairs have to be made; and, especially, experiencing a feeling of success at work well done. (In learning, too, nothing succeeds like success!)

Use these three tests, as well as the abundant drill exercises, as aids to learning. No one is perfect, no one learns in the exact same way or at the same rate as anyone else. Find the optimum technique and speed for *your* unique learning patterns—and then give yourself every opportunity to exploit your actual, latent, and potential abilities.

But most important (*as I will remind you several times throughout the book*)*—develop a routine and stick to it!*

[1] The system of pronunciation symbols will be thoroughly explained in Section 2 of this chapter.

[2] All unusual words in this chapter are taught in later chapters of the book.

[3] Incidentally, Latin scholars will notice that I present a Latin verb in the first person singular, present tense (*verto*, I turn), but call it an infinitive (*verto*, to turn). I do this for two reasons: 1) *verto* is easier for a non-Latin scholar to pronounce (the actual infinitive, *vertere*, is pronounced WAIR′-tə-ray); and 2) when I studied Latin fifty years ago, the convention was to refer to a verb by using the first person singular, present tense.

If you are not a Latin scholar, you need not bother to read this footnote—if you've already done so, forget it!

Disclaimer:

Occasionally in these pages, owing to the deficiency of the English language, I have used *he/him/his* meaning *he or she/him or her/his or her* in order to avoid awkwardness of style.

He, him, and *his* are *not* intended as exclusively masculine pronouns—they may refer to either sex or to both sexes.

PART ONE

GETTING OFF TO A GOOD START

1

HOW TO TEST YOUR PRESENT VOCABULARY

Once—as a child—you were an expert, an accomplished virtuoso, at learning new words.

Today, by comparison, you are a rank and bumbling amateur.

Does this statement sound insulting?

It may be—but if you are the average adult, it is a statement that is, unfortunately, only too true.

Educational testing indicates that children of ten who have grown up in families in which English is the native language have recognition vocabularies of over twenty thousand words—

And that these same ten-year-olds have been learning new words at a rate of many hundreds a year since the age of four.

In astonishing contrast, studies show that adults who are no longer attending school increase their vocabularies at a pace *slower than twenty-five to fifty words annually.*

How do you assess your own vocabulary?

Is it quantitatively healthy?

Rich in over-all range?

Responsive to any situation in which you may find yourself?

Truly indicative of your intellectual potential?

More important, is it still growing at the same rapid clip as when you were a child?

Or, as with most adults, has your rate of increase dropped drastically since you left school? And if so, do you now feel that your vocabulary is somewhat limited, your verbal skills not as sharp as you would like them to be?

Let us check it out.

I challenge you to a series of tests that will measure your vocabulary range, as well as your verbal speed and responsiveness.

A TEST OF VOCABULARY RANGE

Here are sixty brief phrases, each containing one italicized word; it is up to you to check the closest definition of each such word. To keep your score valid, refrain, as far as possible, from wild guessing. The key will be found at the end of the test.

1. *disheveled* appearance:
   (a) untidy; (b) fierce, (c) foolish, (d) peculiar, (e) unhappy
2. a *baffling* problem:
   (a) difficult, (b) simple, (c) puzzling, (d) long, (e) new
3. *lenient* parent:
   (a) tall, (b) not strict, (c) wise, (d) foolish, (e) severe
4. *repulsive* personality:
   (a) disgusting, (b) attractive, (c) normal, (d) confused, (e) conceited
5. *audacious* attempt:
   (a) useless, (b) bold, (c) foolish, (d) crazy, (e) necessary
6. *parry* a blow:
   (a) ward off, (b) fear, (c) expect, (d) invite, (e) ignore
7. *prevalent* disease:
   (a) dangerous, (b) catching, (c) childhood, (d) fatal, (e) widespread
8. *ominous* report:
   (a) loud, (b) threatening, (c) untrue, (d) serious, (e) unpleasant
9. an *incredible* story:
   (a) true, (b) interesting, (c) well-known, (d) unbelievable, (e) unknown
10. an *ophthalmologist:*
    (a) eye doctor, (b) skin doctor, (c) foot doctor, (d) heart doctor, (e) cancer specialist

11. will *supersede* the old law:
    (a) enforce, (b) specify penalties for, (c) take the place of, (d) repeal, (e) continue
12. an *anonymous* donor:
    (a) generous, (b) stingy, (c) well-known, (d) one whose name is not known, (e) reluctant
13. performed an *autopsy:* (a) examination of living tissue, (b) examination of a corpse to determine the cause of death, (c) process in the manufacture of optical lenses, (d) operation to cure an organic disease, (e) series of questions to determine the causes of delinquent behavior
14. an *indefatigable* worker:
    (a) well-paid, (b) tired, (c) skillful, (d) tireless, (e) pleasant
15. a confirmed *atheist:*
    (a) bachelor, (b) disbeliever in God, (c) believer in religion, (d) believer in science, (e) priest
16. endless *loquacity:*
    (a) misery, (b) fantasy, (c) repetitiousness, (d) ill health, (e) talkativeness
17. a *glib* talker:
    (a) smooth, (b) awkward, (c) loud, (d) friendly, (e) boring
18. an *incorrigible* optimist:
    (a) happy, (b) beyond correction or reform, (c) foolish, (d) hopeful, (e) unreasonable
19. an *ocular* problem:
    (a) unexpected, (b) insoluble, (c) visual, (d) continual, (e) imaginary
20. a notorious *demagogue:*
    (a) rabble-rouser, (b) gambler, (c) perpetrator of financial frauds, (d) liar, (e) spendthrift
21. a *naïve* attitude:
    (a) unwise, (b) hostile, (c) unsophisticated, (d) friendly, (e) contemptuous
22. living in *affluence:*
    (a) difficult circumstances, (b) countrified surroundings, (c) fear,

(d) wealth, (e) poverty

23. in *retrospect:*
    (a) view of the past, (b) artistic balance, (c) anticipation, (d) admiration, (e) second thoughts
24. a *gourmet:*
    (a) seasoned traveler, (b) greedy eater, (c) vegetarian, (d) connoisseur of good food, (e) skillful chef
25. to *simulate* interest:
    (a) pretend, (b) feel, (c) lose, (d) stir up, (e) ask for
26. a *magnanimous* action:
    (a) puzzling, (b) generous, (c) foolish, (d) unnecessary, (e) wise
27. a *clandestine* meeting:
    (a) prearranged, (b) hurried, (c) important, (d) secret, (e) public
28. the *apathetic* citizens:
    (a) made up of separate ethnic groups, (b) keenly vigilant of their rights, (c) politically conservative, (d) indifferent, uninterested, uninvolved, (e) terrified
29. to *placate* his son:
    (a) please, (b) help, (c) find a job for, (d) make arrangements for, (e) change a feeling of hostility to one of friendliness
30. to *vacillate* continually:
    (a) avoid, (b) swing back and forth in indecision, (c) inject, (d) treat, (e) scold
31. a *nostalgic* feeling:
    (a) nauseated, (b) homesick, (c) sharp, (d) painful, (e) delighted
32. feel *antipathy:*
    (a) bashfulness, (b) stage fright, (c) friendliness, (d) hostility, (e) suspense
33. be more *circumspect:*
    (a) restrained, (b) confident, (c) cautious, (d) honest, (e) intelligent
34. an *intrepid* fighter for human rights:
    (a) fearless, (b) eloquent, (c) popular, (d) experienced, (e) famous

35. *diaphanous* material:
(a) strong, (b) sheer and gauzy, (c) colorful, (d) expensive, (e) synthetic
36. a *taciturn* host:
(a) stingy, (b) generous, (c) disinclined to conversation, (d) charming, (e) gloomy
37. to *malign* his friend:
(a) accuse, (b) help, (c) disbelieve, (d) slander, (e) introduce
38. a *congenital* deformity:
(a) hereditary, (b) crippling, (c) slight, (d) incurable, (e) occurring at or during birth
39. a definite *neurosis:*
(a) plan, (b) emotional disturbance, (c) physical disease, (d) feeling of fear, (e) allergic reaction
40. made an *unequivocal* statement:
(a) hard to understand, (b) lengthy, (c) politically motivated, (d) clear and forthright, (e) supporting
41. *vicarious* enjoyment:
(a) complete, (b) unspoiled, (c) occurring from a feeling of identification with another, (d) long-continuing, (e) temporary
42. *psychogenic* ailment:
(a) incurable, (b) contagious, (c) originating in the mind, (d) intestinal, (e) imaginary
43. an *anachronous* attitude:
(a) unexplainable, (b) unreasonable, (c) belonging to a different time, (d) out of place, (e) unusual
44. her *iconoclastic* phase:
(a) artistic, (b) sneering at tradition, (c) troubled, (d) difficult, (e) religious
45. a *tyro:*
(a) dominating personality, (b) beginner, (c) accomplished musician, (d) dabbler, (e) serious student
46. a *laconic* reply:
(a) immediate, (b) assured, (c) terse and meaningful, (d) unintelligible, (e) angry

47. *semantic* confusion:
(a) relating to the meaning of words, (b) pertaining to money, (c) having to do with the emotions, (d) relating to mathematics, (e) caused by inner turmoil
48. *cavalier* treatment:
(a) courteous, (b) haughty and highhanded, (c) negligent, (d) affectionate, (e) expensive
49. an *anomalous* situation:
(a) dangerous, (b) intriguing, (c) unusual, (d) pleasant (e) unhappy
50. *posthumous* child:
(a) cranky, (b) brilliant, (c) physically weak, (d) illegitimate, (e) born after the death of the father
51. feels *enervated:*
(a) full of ambition, (b) full of strength, (c) completely exhausted, (d) troubled, (e) full of renewed energy
52. shows *perspicacity:*
(a) sincerity, (b) mental keenness, (c) love, (d) faithfulness, (e) longing
53. an unpopular *martinet:*
(a) candidate, (b) supervisor, (c) strict disciplinarian, (d) military leader, (e) discourteous snob
54. *gregarious* person:
(a) outwardly calm, (b) very sociable, (c) completely untrustworthy, (d) vicious, (e) self-effacing and timid
55. generally *phlegmatic:*
(a) smug, self-satisfied, (b) easily pleased, (c) nervous, high-strung, (d) emotionally unresponsive, (e) lacking in social graces
56. an *inveterate* gambler:
(a) impoverished, (b) successful, (c) habitual, (d) occasional, (e) superstitious
57. an *egregious* error:
(a) outstandingly bad, (b) slight, (c) irreparable, (d) unnecessary, (e) deliberate

58. *cacophony* of a large city:
(a) political administration, (b) crowded living conditions, (c) cultural advantages, (d) unpleasant noises, harsh sounds, (e) busy traffic
59. a *prurient* adolescent:
(a) tall and gangling, (b) sexually longing, (c) clumsy, awkward, (d) sexually attractive, (e) soft-spoken
60. *uxorious* husband:
(a) henpecked, (b) suspicious, (c) guilty of infidelity, (d) fondly and foolishly doting on his wife, (e) tightfisted, penny-pinching

KEY: 1–a, 2–c, 3–b, 4–a, 5–b, 6–a, 7–e, 8–b, 9–d, 10–a, 11–c, 12–d, 13–b, 14–d, 15–b, 16–e, 17–a, 18–b, 19–c, 20–a, 21–c, 22–d, 23–a, 24–d, 25–a, 26–b, 27–d, 28–d, 29–e, 30–b, 31–b, 32–d, 33–c, 34–a, 35–b, 36–c, 37–d, 38–e, 39–b, 40–d, 41–c, 42–c, 43–c, 44–b, 45–b, 46–c, 47–a, 48–b, 49–c, 50–e, 51–c, 52–b, 53–c, 54–b, 55–d, 56–c, 57–a, 58–d, 59–b, 60–d

Your score (one point for each correct choice): _____

The Meaning of Your Score:

0–11:	below average
12–35:	average
36–48:	above average
49–54:	excellent
55–60:	superior

A TEST OF VERBAL SPEED

PART 1

This is a timed test.

In no more than three minutes (time yourself, or have someone time you), decide whether the word in column B is the *same* (or *approximately the same*) in meaning as the word in column A; *opposite* (or *approximately opposite*) in meaning; or whether the two words are merely *different.*

Circle S for *same*, O for *opposite*, and D for *different.*

You will not have time to dawdle or think too long, so go as fast as you can.

COLUMN A	COLUMN B			
1. sweet	sour	S	O	D
2. crazy	insane	S	O	D
3. stout	fat	S	O	D
4. big	angry	S	O	D
5. danger	peril	S	O	D
6. help	hinder	S	O	D
7. splendid	magnificent	S	O	D
8. love	hate	S	O	D
9. stand	rise	S	O	D
10. furious	violent	S	O	D
11. tree	apple	S	O	D

12. doubtful	certain	S	O	D
13. handsome	ugly	S	O	D
14. begin	start	S	O	D
15. strange	familiar	S	O	D
16. male	female	S	O	D
17. powerful	weak	S	O	D
18. beyond	under	S	O	D
19. live	die	S	O	D
20. go	get	S	O	D
21. return	replace	S	O	D
22. growl	weep	S	O	D
23. open	close	S	O	D
24. nest	home	S	O	D
25. chair	table	S	O	D
26. want	desire	S	O	D
27. can	container	S	O	D
28. idle	working	S	O	D
29. rich	luxurious	S	O	D
30. building	structure	S	O	D

PART 2

This is also a timed test.

In no more than three minutes (again, time yourself or have someone time you), write down as many *different* words as you can think of that start with the letter *D*.

Do *not* use various forms of a word, such as *do, doing, does, done, doer*, etc.

Space is provided for 125 words. You are not expected to reach that number, but write as fast as you can and see how many blanks you can fill in before your time is up.

KEY: Part 1: 1–O, 2–S, 3–S, 4–D, 5–S, 6–O, 7–S, 8–O, 9–S, 10–S, 11–D, 12–O, 13–O, 14–S, 15–O, 16–O, 17–O, 18–D, 19–O, 20–D, 21–S, 22–D, 23–O, 24–S, 25–D, 26–S, 27–S, 28–O, 29–S, 30–S

Part 2: Any English word starting with *D* is correct unless it is merely another form of a previous word on the list.

Scoring:

PART 1

If you have up to 10 correct answers, credit your score with 25 points.
If you have 11–20 correct answers, credit your score with 50 points.
21–25 correct answers—75 points.
26–30 correct answers—100 points.

Your Score on Part 1:__

PART 2

Up to 30 words:	25 points
31–50 words:	50 points
51–70 words:	75 points
71–125 words:	100 points

Your Score on Part 2: __

TOTAL SCORE

On Verbal Speed: __

The meaning of your verbal speed score:

50:	below average
75:	average
100:	above average
125–150:	excellent
175–200:	superior

A TEST OF VERBAL RESPONSIVENESS

PART 1

Write in the blank in column B a word starting with the letter *P* that is the *same*, or *approximately the same*, in meaning as the word given in column A.

Example: look peer_____

Warning: Every answer *must* start with the letter P.

A	B
1. bucket	_____
2. trousers	_____
3. maybe	_____
4. forgive	_____
5. separate	_____
6. likely	_____
7. annoy	_____
8. good-looking	_____
9. picture	_____
10. choose	_____
11. ugly	_____
12. go	_____
13. dish	_____

14. location _____

15. stone _____

16. inactive _____

17. fussy _____

18. suffering _____

19. castle _____

20. gasp _____

21. fear _____

22. twosome _____

23. artist _____

24. sheet _____

25. collection _____

PART 2

Write in the blank in column B a word starting with the letter *G* that is *opposite, approximately opposite,* or *in contrast to* the word given in column A.

Example: stop *go*

Warning: Every answer *must* start with the letter G.

A	B
1. lose	_____
2. midget	_____
3. special	_____
4. lady	_____

5. take _____
6. moron _____
7. sad _____
8. boy _____
9. happy _____
10. plain _____
11. hello _____
12. here _____
13. bad _____
14. ugly _____
15. stingy _____
16. awkward _____
17. little _____
18. rough _____
19. bride _____
20. ripe _____
21. unwanting _____
22. unprotected _____
23. experienced _____
24. scarcity _____
25. unappreciative _____

KEY, Part 1: If more than one answer is given, count as correct any word you have written that is the same as any *one* of the answers.

1–pail, pan, 2–pants, 3–perhaps, possibly, probably, 4–pardon, 5–part, 6–probable, possible, perhaps, 7–pester, 8–pretty, 9–photograph, painting, 10–pick, 11–plain, 12–proceed, 13–plate, platter, 14–place, 15–pebble, 16–passive, 17–particular, picky, 18–pain, 19–palace, 20–pant, puff, 21–panic, 22–pair, 23–painter, 24–page, 25–pack

Part 2: If more than one answer is given, count as correct any word you have written that is the same as any *one* of the answers.

1–gain, get, garner, grab, glean, grasp, grip, 2–giant, gigantic, great, gross, 3–general, 4–gentleman, 5–give, 6–genius, 7–glad, gleeful, gleesome, 8–girl, 9–gloomy, glum, grieving, grumpy, 10–gaudy, grand, grandiose, 11–goodbye, 12–gone, 13–good, 14–good-looking, 15–generous, giving, 16–graceful, 17–great, giant, gigantic, 18–gentle, 19–groom, 20–green, 21–greedy, grasping, 22-guarded, 23–green, 24–glut, gobs, 25–grateful

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Scoring:

Score Parts 1 and 2 together. Write in the blank the *total* number of correct responses you made: _____

The meaning of your verbal responsiveness score:

0–10: below average

11–20:	average
21–30:	above average
31–40:	excellent
41–50:	superior

VOCABULARY AND SUCCESS

Now you know where you stand. If you are in the below average or average group, you must consider, seriously, whether an inadequate vocabulary may be holding you back. (If you tested out on the above average, excellent, or superior level, you have doubtless already discovered the unique and far-reaching value of a rich vocabulary, and you are eager to add still further to your knowledge of words.)

Let us examine, briefly, some of the evidence that points to the close relationship between vocabulary and personal, professional, and intellectual growth.

The Human Engineering Laboratory found that the *only* common characteristic of successful people in this country is an unusual grasp of the meanings of words. The Laboratory tested the vocabularies of thousands of people in all age groups and in all walks of life—and discovered that those people drawing down the highest salaries made the highest scores. Consider very thoughtfully the explanation that the director of the Laboratory offered for the relationship between vocabulary and success:

"Why do large vocabularies characterize executives and possibly outstanding men and women in other fields? The final answer seems to be that words are the instruments by means of which men and women grasp the thoughts of others and with which they do much of their own thinking. They are the tools of thought."

There is other evidence.

At many universities, groups of freshmen were put into experimental classes for the sole purpose of increasing their knowledge of English words. *These groups did better in their sophomore, junior, and senior years than control groups of similarly endowed students who did not receive such training.*

And still more evidence:

At the University of Illinois, entering students were given a simple twenty-nine-word vocabulary test. The results of this test could be used, according to Professor William D. Templeman, to make an accurate prediction of future academic success—or lack of success—over the entire four year college course. “If a student has a superior vocabulary,” states Professor Templeman, “it will probably follow that he will do better work academically.”

And finally:

Educational research has discovered that your I.Q. is intimately related to your vocabulary. Take a standard vocabulary test and then an intelligence test—the results in both will be substantially the same.

YOU CAN INCREASE YOUR VOCABULARY

The more extensive your vocabulary, the better your chances for success, other things being equal—success in attaining your educational goals, success in moving ahead in your business or professional career, success in achieving your intellectual potential.

And you *can* increase your vocabulary—faster and easier than you may realize.

You can, in fact, accomplish a tremendous gain in less than two to three months of concentrated effort, even if you do only one session a day—in less time if you do two or more sessions a day.

Furthermore—

You can start improving your vocabulary immediately—and within a few days you can be cruising along at such a rapid rate that there will be an actual change in your thinking, in your ability to express your thoughts, and in your powers of understanding.

Does this sound as if I am promising you the whole world in a neat package with a pretty pink ribbon tied around it? I am. And I am willing to make such an unqualified promise because I have seen what happens to those of my students at New York University and at Rio Hondo College in Whittier, California, who make sincere, methodical efforts to learn more, many more, words.

2

HOW TO START BUILDING YOUR VOCABULARY

When you have finished working with this book, you will no longer be the same person.

You can't be.

If you honestly read every page, if you do every exercise, if you take every test, if you follow every principle, you will go through an intellectual experience that will effect a radical change in you.

For if you systematically increase your vocabulary, you will also sharpen and enrich your thinking; push back your intellectual horizons; build your self-assurance; improve your facility in handling the English language and thereby your ability to express your thoughts effectively; and acquire a deeper understanding of the world in general and of yourself in particular.

Increasing your vocabulary does not mean merely learning the definitions of large numbers of obscure words; it does not mean memorizing scores of unrelated terms. What it means—what it can only mean—is becoming acquainted with the multitudinous and fascinating phenomena of human existence for which words are, obviously, only the verbal descriptions.

Increasing your vocabulary—properly, intelligently, and systematically—means treating yourself to an all-round, liberal

education.

And surely you cannot deny that such an experience will change you intellectually—

Will have a discernible effect on your methods of thinking—on your store of information—on your ability to express your ideas—on your understanding of human problems.

HOW CHILDREN INCREASE THEIR VOCABULARIES

The typical ten-year-old, you will recall, has a recognition vocabulary of over twenty thousand words—and has been learning many hundreds of new words every year since the age of four.

You were once that typical child.

You were once an accomplished virtuoso at vocabulary building.

What was your secret?

Did you spend hours every day poring over a dictionary?

Did you lull yourself to sleep at night with Webster's Unabridged?

Did you keep notebooks full of all the new words you ever heard or read?

Did you immediately look up the meaning of any new word that your parents or older members of your family used?

Such procedures would have struck you as absurd then, as absurd as they would be for you today.

You had a much better, much more effective, and considerably less self-conscious method.

Your method was the essence of simplicity: day in and day out you kept learning; you kept squeezing every possible ounce of learning out of every waking moment; you were an eternal question box, for you had a constant and insatiable desire to know and understand.

HOW ADULTS STOP BUILDING THEIR VOCABULARIES

Then, eventually, at some point in your adult life (unless you are the rare exception), you gradually lost your compulsive drive to discover, to figure out, to understand, to know.

Eventually, therefore, you gradually lost your need to increase your vocabulary—your need to learn the words that could verbalize your new discoveries, your new understanding, your new knowledge.

Roland Gelatt, in a review of Caroline Pratt's book *I Learn from Children*, describes this phenomenon as follows:

> All normal human beings are born with a powerful urge to learn. Almost all of them lose this urge, even before they have reached maturity. It is only the few … who are so constituted that lack of learning becomes a nuisance. This is perhaps the most insidious of human tragedies.

Children are wonders at increasing their vocabularies because of their "powerful urge to learn." They do not learn solely by means of words, but as their knowledge increases, so does their vocabulary—for words are the symbols of ideas and understanding.

(If you are a parent, you perhaps remember that crucial and trying period in which your child constantly asked "Why?" The "Why?" is the child's method of finding out. How many adults that you know go about asking and thinking "Why?" How often do you yourself do it?)

The adults who "lose this urge," who no longer feel that "lack of learning becomes a nuisance," stop building their vocabularies. They stop learning, they stop growing intellectually, they stop changing. When and if such a time comes, then, as Mr. Gelatt so truly says, "This is perhaps the most insidious of human tragedies." But fortunately the process is far from irreversible.

If you have lost the “powerful urge to learn,” you can regain it—you can regain your need to discover, to figure out, to understand, to know.

And thus you can start increasing your vocabulary at the same rate as when you were a child.

I am not spouting airy theory. For over thirty-five years I have worked with thousands of adults in my college courses in vocabulary improvement, and I can state as a fact, and without qualification, that:

If you can recapture the “powerful urge to learn” with which you were born, you can go on increasing your vocabulary at a prodigious rate—

No matter what your present age.

WHY AGE MAKES LITTLE DIFFERENCE IN VOCABULARY BUILDING

I repeat, *no matter what your present age.*

You may be laboring under a delusion common to many older people.

You may think that after you pass your twenties you rapidly and inevitably lose your ability to learn.

That is simply not true.

There is no doubt that the years up to eighteen or twenty are the best period for learning. Your own experience no doubt bears that out. And of course *for most people* more learning goes on faster up to the age of eighteen or twenty than ever after, even if they live to be older than Methuselah. (That is why vocabulary increases so rapidly for the first twenty years of life and comparatively at a snail's pace thereafter.)

But (and follow me closely)—

The fact that most learning is accomplished before the age of twenty does not mean that very little learning can be achieved beyond that age.

What *is* done by most people and what *can* be done under proper guidance and motivation are two very, very different things—as scientific experiments have conclusively shown.

Furthermore—

The fact that your learning ability may be best up to age twenty does not mean that it is absolutely useless as soon as your twentieth birthday is passed.

Quite the contrary.

Edward Thorndike, the famous educational psychologist, found in experiments with people of all ages that although the learning curve rises spectacularly up to twenty, it remains steady for at least another five years. After that, ability to learn (according to Professor

Thorndike) drops very, very slowly up to the age of thirty-five, and drops a bit more but *still slowly* beyond that age.

And—

Right up to senility the *total* decrease in learning ability after age twenty is never more than 15 per cent!

That does not sound, I submit, as if no one can ever learn anything new after the age of twenty.

Believe me, the old saw that claims you cannot teach an old dog new tricks is a baseless, if popular, superstition.

So I repeat: no matter what your age, you can go on learning efficiently, or start learning once again if perhaps you have stopped.

You can be thirty, or forty, or fifty, or sixty, or seventy—or older.

No matter what your age, you can once again increase your vocabulary at a prodigious rate—providing you recapture the "powerful urge to learn" that is the key to vocabulary improvement.

Not the urge to learn "words"—words are only symbols of ideas.

But the urge to learn facts, theories, concepts, information, knowledge, understanding—call it what you will.

Words are the symbols of knowledge, the keys to accurate thinking. Is it any wonder then that the most successful and intelligent people in this country have the biggest vocabularies?

It was not their large vocabularies that made these people successful and intelligent, but their *knowledge.*

Knowledge, however, is gained largely through words.

In the process of increasing their knowledge, these successful people increased their vocabularies.

Just as children increase *their* vocabulary at a tremendous, phenomenal rate during those years when their knowledge is increasing most rapidly.

Knowledge is chiefly in the form of words, and from now on, in this book, you will be thinking *about,* and thinking *with*, new words and new ideas.

WHAT THIS BOOK CAN DO FOR YOU

This book is designed to get you started building your vocabulary —effectively and at jet-propelled speed—by helping you regain the intellectual atmosphere, the keen, insatiable curiosity, the "powerful urge to learn" of your childhood.

The organization of the book is based on two simple principles: 1) words are the verbal symbols of ideas, and 2) the more ideas you are familiar with, the more words you know.

So, chapter by chapter, we will start with some central idea—personality types, doctors, science, unusual occupations, liars, actions, speech habits, insults, compliments, etc.—and examine ten basic words that express various aspects of the idea. Then, using each word as a springboard, we will explore any others which are related to it in meaning or derivation, so that it is not unlikely that a single chapter may discuss, teach, and test close to one hundred important words.

Always, however, the approach will be from the idea. First there will be a "teaser preview" in which the ideas are briefly hinted at; then a "headline," in which each idea is examined somewhat more closely; next a clear, detailed paragraph or more will analyze the idea in all its ramifications; finally the word itself, which you will meet only after you are completely familiar with the idea.

In the *etymology* (derivation of words) section, you will learn what Greek or Latin root gives the word its unique meaning and what other words contain the same, or related, roots. You will thus be continually working in related fields, and there will never be any possibility of confusion from "too muchness," despite the great number of words taken up and tested in each chapter.

Successful people have superior vocabularies. People who are intellectually alive and successful in the professional or business worlds are accustomed to dealing with ideas, are constantly on the search for new ideas, build their lives and their careers on the ideas

they have learned. And it is to readers whose goal is *successful* living (in the broadest meaning of the word *successful*) that this book is addressed.

A NOTE ON TIME SCHEDULES

From my experience over many years in teaching, I have become a firm believer in setting a goal for all learning and a schedule for reaching that goal.

You will discover that each chapter is divided into approximately equal sessions, and that each session will take from thirty to forty-five minutes of your time, depending on how rapidly or slowly you enjoy working—and bear in mind that everyone has an optimum rate of learning.

For best results, do one or two sessions at a time—spaced studying, with time between sessions so that you can assimilate what you have learned, is far more efficient, far more productive, than gobbling up great amounts in indigestible chunks.

Come back to the book every day, or as close to every day as the circumstances of your life permit.

Find a schedule that is comfortable for you, and then stick to it.

Avoid interrupting your work until you have completed a full session, and always decide, before you stop, *exactly when* you will plan to pick up the book again.

Working at your own comfortable rate, you will likely finish the material in two to three months, give or take a few weeks either way.

However long you take, you will end with a solid feeling of accomplishment, a new understanding of how English words work, and —most important—how to make words work for you.

3

HOW TO TALK ABOUT PERSONALITY TYPES

(*Sessions 1–3*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What word best describes your personality if you:
are interested solely in your own welfare?
constantly talk about yourself?
dedicate your life to helping others?
turn your mind inward?
turn your mind outward?
hate humanity?
hate women?
hate marriage?
lead a lonely, austere existence?

SESSION 1

Every human being is, in one way or another, unique.

Everyone's personality is determined by a combination of genetic and environmental factors.

Let us examine ten personality types (one of which might by chance be your very own) that result from the way culture, growth, family background, and environment interact with heredity.

And, of course, we begin not with the words, but with the ideas.

IDEAS

1. me first

Your attitude to life is simple, direct, and aboveboard—every decision you make is based on the answer to one question: "What's in it for me?" If your selfishness, greed, and ruthless desire for self-advancement hurt other people, that's too bad. "This is a tough world, pal, dog eat dog and all that, and I, for one, am not going to be left behind!"

An *egoist*

2. the height of conceit

"Now, let's see. Have you heard about all the money I'm making? Did I tell you about my latest amorous conquest? Let me give you my opinion—I know, because I'm an expert at practically everything!" You are boastful to the point of being obnoxious—you have only one string to your conversational violin, namely, *yourself;* and on it you play a number of monotonous variations: what *you*

think, what *you* have done, how good *you* are, how *you* would solve the problems of the world, etc. ad nauseam.

An *egotist*

3. let me help you

You have discovered the secret of true happiness—concerning yourself with the welfare of others. Never mind your own interests, how's the next fellow getting along?

An *altruist*

4. leave me alone

Like a biochemist studying a colony of bacteria under the microscope, you minutely examine your every thought, feeling, and action. Probing, futile questions like "What do other people think of me?", "How do I look?", and "Maybe I shouldn't have said that?" are your constant nagging companions, for you are unable to realize that other people do not spend as much time and energy analyzing you as you think.

You may seem unsocial, yet your greatest desire is to be liked and accepted. You may be shy and quiet, you are often moody and unhappy, and you prefer solitude or at most the company of one person to a crowd. You have an aptitude for creative work and are uncomfortable engaging in activities that require cooperation with other people. You may even be a genius, or eventually turn into one.

An *introvert*

5. let's do it together

You would be great as a teacher, counselor, administrator, insurance agent. You can always become interested—sincerely, vitally interested—in other people's problems. You're the life of the

party, because you never worry about the effect of your actions, never inhibit yourself with doubts about dignity or propriety. You are usually happy, generally full of high spirits; you love to be with people—lots of people. Your thoughts, your interests, your whole personality are turned outward.

An *extrovert*

6. neither extreme

You have both introverted and extroverted tendencies—at different times and on different occasions. Your interests are turned, in about equal proportions, both inward and outward. Indeed, you're quite normal—in the sense that your personality is like that of most people.

An *ambivert*

7. people are no damn good

Cynical, embittered, suspicious, you hate everyone. (Especially, but never to be admitted, *yourself?*) The perfectibility of the human race? "Nonsense! No way!" The stupidity, the meanness, and the crookedness of most mortals ("Most? Probably all!")—that is your favorite theme.

A *misanthrope*

8. women are no damn good

Sometime in your dim past, you were crossed, scorned, or deeply wounded by a woman (a mother, or mother figure, perhaps?). So now you have a carefully constructed defense against further hurt—you hate *all* women.

A *misogynist*

9. “marriage is an institution—and who wants to live in an institution?”

You will not make the ultimate *legal* commitment. Members of the opposite sex are great as lovers, roommates, apartment- or house-sharers, but *not* as lawfully wedded spouses. The ties that bind are too binding for you. You may possibly believe, and possibly, for yourself, be right, that a commitment is deeper and more meaningful if freedom is available without judicial proceedings.

A *misogamist*

10. “… that the flesh is heir to …”

Self-denial, austerity, lonely contemplation—these are the characteristics of the good life, so you claim. The simplest food and the least amount of it that will keep body and soul together, combined with abstinence from fleshly, earthly pleasures, will eventually lead to spiritual perfection—that is your philosophy.

An *ascetic*

USING THE WORDS

You have been introduced to ten valuable words—but in each case, as you have noticed, you have first considered the ideas that these words represent. Now *say* the words—each one is respelled phonetically so that you will be sure to pronounce it correctly.[1]

Say each word aloud. This is the first important step to complete mastery. As you hear a word in your own voice, think of its meaning. Are you quite clear about it? If not, reinforce your learning by rereading the explanatory paragraph or paragraphs.

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *egoist*	EE′-gō-ist
2. *egotist*	EE′-gō-tist
3. *altruist*	AL′-trōō-ist
4. *introvert*	IN′-trə-vurt′
5. *extrovert*	EKS′-trə-vurt′
6. *ambivert*	AM′-bə-vurt′
7. *misanthrope*	MIS′-ən-thrōp′
8. *misogynist*	mə-SOJ′-ə-nist
9. *misogamist*	mə-SOG′-ə-mist
10. *ascetic*	ə-SET′-ik

Can you work with the words?

You have taken two long steps toward mastery of the expressive words in this chapter—you have thought about the ideas behind them, and you have said them aloud.

For your third step, match each personality with the appropriate characteristic, action, or attitude.

1. egoist	a. turns thoughts inward
2. egotist	b. hates marriage
3. altruist	c. talks about accomplishments
4. introvert	d. hates people
5. extrovert	e. does not pursue pleasures of the flesh
6. ambivert	f. is interested in the welfare of

	others
7. misanthrope	g. believes in self-advancement
8. misogynist	h. turns thoughts both inward and outward
9. misogamist	i. hates women
10. ascetic	j. turns thoughts outward

KEY: 1–g, 2–c, 3–f, 4–a, 5–j, 6–h, 7–d, 8–i, 9–b, 10–e

Do you understand the words?

Now that you are becoming more and more involved in these ten words, find out if they can make an immediate appeal to your understanding. Here are ten questions—can you indicate, quickly, and without reference to any previous definitions, whether the correct answer to each of these questions is *yes* or *no?*

1. Is an *egoist* selfish?
   YES NO
2. Is modesty one of the characteristics of the *egotist?*
   YES NO
3. Is an *altruist* selfish?
   YES NO
4. Does an *introvert* pay much attention to himself?
   YES NO
5. Does an *extrovert* prefer solitude to companionship?
   YES NO
6. Are most normal people *ambiverts?*
   YES NO
7. Does a *misanthrope* like people?
   YES NO
8. Does a *misogynist* enjoy the company of women?
   YES NO
9. Does an *ascetic* lead a life of luxury?
   YES NO
10. Does a *misogamist* try to avoid marriage?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–yes, 7– no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

You have thus far reinforced your learning by saying the words aloud, by matching them to their definitions, and by responding to meaning when they were used in context.

Can you recall each word, now, without further reference to previous material? And can you spell it correctly?

1. Who lives a lonely, austere life?
   1. A_____
2. Whose interests are turned outward?
   2. E_____
3. Who is supremely selfish?
   3. E_____
4. Who hates people?
   4. M_____
5. Whose interests are turned both inward and outward?
   5. A_____
6. Who is incredibly conceited?
   6. E_____
7. Who is more interested in the welfare of others than in his own?
   7. A_____
8. Who hates women?
   8. M_____
9. Whose interests are turned inward?
   9. I_____
10. Who hates marriage?
    10. M_____

KEY: 1–ascetic, 2–extrovert, 3–egoist, 4–misanthrope, 5–ambivert, 6–egotist, 7–altruist, 8–misogynist, 9–introvert, 10–misogamist

(*End of Session 1*)

SESSION 2

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

Every word in the English language has a history—and these ten are no exception. In this section you will learn a good deal more about the words you have been working with; in addition, you will make excursions into many other words allied either in meaning, form, or history to our basic ten.

1. the ego

Egoist and *egotist* are built on the same Latin root—the pronoun *ego*, meaning *I*. *I* is the greatest concern in the *egoist's* mind, the most overused word in the *egotist's* vocabulary. (Keep the words differentiated in your own mind by thinking of the *t* in *talk*, and the additional *t* in *egotist.*) *Ego* itself has been taken over from Latin as an important English word and is commonly used to denote one's concept of oneself, as in, "What do you think your constant criticisms do to my *ego?*" *Ego* has also a special meaning in psychology—but for the moment you have enough problems without going into *that.*

If you are an *egocentric* (ee′-gō-SEN′-trik), you consider yourself the *center* of the universe—you are an extreme form of the *egoist.* And if you are an *egomaniac* (ee′-gō-MAY′-nee-ak), you carry *egoism* to such an extreme that your needs, desires, and interests have become a morbid obsession, a *mania.* The *egoist* or *egotist* is obnoxious, the *egocentric* is intolerable, and the *egomaniac* is dangerous and slightly mad.

Egocentric is both a noun ("What an *egocentric* her new roommate is!") and an adjective ("He is the most *egocentric* person I have ever

met!”).

To derive the adjective form of *egomaniac*, add *-al*, a common adjective suffix. Say the adjective aloud:

egomaniacal ee′-gō-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl

2. others

In Latin, the word for *other* is *alter*, and a number of valuable English words are built on this root.

Altruism (AL′-tr-iz-əm), the philosophy practiced by *altruists*, comes from one of the variant spellings of Latin *alter*, other. *Altruistic* (al-tr-IS′-tik) actions look toward the benefit of *others.* If you *alternate* (AWL′-tər-nayt′), you skip one and take the *other*, so to speak, as when you play golf on *alternate* (AWL′-tər-nət) Saturdays.

An *alternate* (AWL′-tər-nət) in a debate, contest, or convention is the *other* person who will take over if the original choice is unable to attend. And if you have no *alternative* (awl-TUR′-nə-tiv), you have no *other* choice.

You see how easy it is to understand the meanings of these words once you realize that they all come from the same source. And keeping in mind that *alter* means *other*, you can quickly understand words like *alter ego, altercation*, and *alteration.*

An *alteration* (awl′-tə-RAY′-shən) is of course a change—a making into something *other.* When you *alter* (AWL′-tər) your plans, you make *other* plans.

An *altercation* (awl′-tər-KAY′-shən) is a verbal dispute. When you have an *altercation* with someone, you have a violent disagreement, a “fight” with words. And why? Because you have *other* ideas, plans, or opinions than those of the person on the *other* side of the argument. *Altercation*, by the way, is stronger than *quarrel* or *dispute* —the sentiment is more heated, the disagreement is likely to be angry or even hot-tempered, there may be recourse, if the disputants are human, to profanity or obscenity. You have *altercations*, in short,

over pretty important issues, and the word implies that you get quite excited.

Alter ego (AWL′-tər EE′-gō), which combines *alter*, other, with *ego*, I, self, generally refers to someone with whom you are so close that you both do the same things, think alike, react similarly, and are, in temperament, almost mirror images of each other. Any such friend is your *other I*, your *other self*, your *alter ego*.

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

Digging a little into the derivation of three of our basic words, *egoist, egotist*, and *altruist*, has put us in touch with two important Latin roots, *ego*, I, self, and *alter*, other, and has made it possible for us to explore, with little difficulty, many other words derived from these roots. Pause now, for a moment, to digest these new acquisitions, and to say them *aloud*.

1. *ego*	EE′-gō
2. *egocentric*	ee-gō-SEN′-trik
3. *egomaniac*	ee-gō-MAY′-nee-ak
4. *egomaniacal*	ee′-gō-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
5. *altruism*	AL′-trōō-iz-əm
6. *altruistic*	al-trōō-IS′-tik
7. to *alternate* (*v.*)	AWL′-tər-nayt′
8. *alternate* (*adj.* or *noun*)	AWL′-tər-nət
9. *alternative*	awl-TUR′-nə-tiv
10. *alteration*	awl′-tər-AY′-shən

11. to *alter*	AWL′-tər
12. *altercation*	awl′-tər-KAY′-shən
13. *alter ego*	AWL′-tər EE′-gō

Can you work with the words? (I)

You have seen how these thirteen words derive from the two Latin roots *ego*, I, self, and *alter*, other, and you have pronounced them aloud and thereby begun to make them part of your active vocabulary.

Are you ready to match definitions to words?

1. ego	a. one who is excessively fixated on his own desires, needs, etc.
2. egocentric	b. to change
3. altruism	c. argument
4. to alternate	d. one's concept of oneself
5. to alter	e. to take one, skip one, etc.
6. altercation	f. philosophy of putting another's welfare above one's own

KEY: 1–d, 2–a, 3–f, 4–e, 5–b, 6–c

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. egomaniacal	a. a change
2. altruistic	b. other possible
3. alternative	c. interested in the welfare of others
4. alteration	d. one's other self
5. alter ego	e. a choice
6. alternate (*adj.*)	f. morbidly, obsessively wrapped up in oneself

KEY: 1–f, 2–c, 3–e, 4–a, 5–d, 6–b

Do you understand the words?

If you have begun to understand these thirteen words, you will be able to respond to the following questions.

1. Is rejection usually a blow to one's *ego?*
   YES NO
2. Are *egocentric* people easy to get along with?
   YES NO
3. Does an *egomaniac* have a normal personality?
   YES NO
4. Are *egomaniacal* tendencies a sign of maturity?
   YES NO
5. Is *altruism* a characteristic of selfish people?
   YES NO
6. Are *altruistic* tendencies common to egoists?
   YES NO
7. Is an *alternate* plan necessarily inferior?
   YES NO
8. Does an *alternative* allow you some freedom of choice?
   YES NO
9. Does *alteration* imply keeping things the same?
   YES NO
10. Do excitable people often engage in *altercations?*
    YES NO
11. Is your *alter ego* usually quite similar to yourself?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–yes, 11–yes

Can you recall the words?

Have you learned these words so well that you can summon each one from your mind when a brief definition is offered? Review first if necessary; then, without further reference to previous pages, write the correct word in each blank. Make sure to check your spelling when you refer to the Key.

1. one's other self
   1. A_____
2. to change
   2. A_____
3. a heated dispute
   3. A_____
4. excessively, morbidly obsessed with one's own needs, desires, or ambitions
   4. E_____
5. unselfish; more interested in the welfare of others than in one's own
   5. A_____
6. utterly involved with oneself; self-centered
   6. E_____
7. a choice
   7. A_____
8. one who substitutes for another
   8. A_____

KEY: 1–alter ego, 2–alter, 3–altercation, 4–egomaniacal, 5–altruistic, 6–egocentric, 7–alternative, 8–alternate

(*End of Session 2*)

SESSION 3

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. depends how you turn

Introvert, extrovert, and *ambivert* are built on the Latin verb *verto*, to turn. If your thoughts are constantly turned inward (*intro-*), you are an *introvert;* outward (*extro-*), an *extrovert;* and in both directions (*ambi-*), an *ambivert.* The prefix *ambi-*, both, is also found in *ambidextrous* (am′-bə-DEKS′-trəs), *able to use both hands with equal skill.* The noun is *ambidexterity* (am′-bə-deks-TAIR′-ə-tee).

Dexterous (DEKS′-trəs) means *skillful*, the noun *dexterity* (deks-TAIR′-ə-tee) is *skill.* The ending *-ous* is a common adjective suffix (*famous, dangerous, perilous*, etc.); *-ity* is a common noun suffix (*vanity, quality, simplicity*, etc.).

(Spelling caution: Note that the letter following the *t-* in *ambidextrous* is *-r*, but that in dexterous the next letter is *-e.*)

Dexter is actually the Latin word for *right hand*—in the *ambidextrous* person, both hands are *right hands*, so to speak.

The right hand is traditionally the more skillful one; it is only within recent decades that we have come to accept that "lefties" or "southpaws" are just as normal as anyone else—and the term *left-handed* is still used as a synonym of *awkward.*

The Latin word for the *left hand* is *sinister.* This same word, in English, means *threatening, evil*, or *dangerous*, a further commentary on our early suspiciousness of left-handed persons. There may still be some parents who insist on forcing left-handed children to change (though left-handedness is inherited, and as much an integral part of its possessor as eye color or nose shape), with

various unfortunate results to the child—sometimes stuttering or an inability to read with normal skill.

The French word for the *left hand* is *gauche*, and, as you would suspect, when we took this word over into English we invested it with an uncomplimentary meaning. Call someone *gauche* (GŌSH) and you imply clumsiness, generally social rather than physical. (We're right back to our age-old misconception that left-handed people are less skillful than right-handed ones.) A *gauche* remark is tactless; a *gauche* offer of sympathy is so bumbling as to be embarrassing; *gaucherie* (GŌ′-shə-ree) is an awkward, clumsy, tactless, embarrassing way of saying things or of handling situations. The *gauche* person is totally without finesse.

And the French word for the *right hand* is *droit*, which we have used in building our English word *adroit* (ə-DROYT′). Needless to say, *adroit*, like *dexterous*, means *skillful*, but especially in the exercise of the mental facilities. Like *gauche, adroit*, or its noun *adroitness*, usually is used figuratively. The *adroit* person is quickwitted, can get out of difficult spots cleverly, can handle situations ingeniously. *Adroitness* is, then, quite the opposite of *gaucherie.*

2. love, hate, and marriage

Misanthrope, misogynist, and *misogamist* are built on the Greek root *misein*, to hate. The *misanthrope* hates mankind (Greek *anthropos*, mankind); the *misogynist* hates women (Greek *gyne*, woman); the *misogamist* hates marriage (Greek *gamos*, marriage).

Anthropos, mankind, is also found in *anthropology* (an-thrə-POL′-ə-jee), the study of the development of the human race; and in *philanthropist* (fə-LAN′-thrə-pist), one who loves mankind and shows such love by making substantial financial contributions to charitable organizations or by donating time and energy to helping those in need.

The root *gyne*, woman, is also found in *gynecologist* (gīn-ə-KOL′-ə-jist *or* jīn-KOL′-ə-jist), the medical specialist who treats female

disorders. And the root *gamos*, marriage, occurs also in *monogamy* (mə-NOG′-ə-mee), *bigamy* (BIG′-ə-mee), and *polygamy* (pə-LIG′-ə-mee).

(As we will discover later, *monos* means *one, bi-* means *two, polys* means *many.*)

So *monogamy* is the custom of only *one* marriage (at a time).

Bigamy, by etymology, is *two* marriages—in actuality, the unlawful act of contracting another marriage without divorcing one's current legal spouse.

And *polygamy*, by derivation *many* marriages, and therefore etymologically denoting plural marriage for either males *or* females, in current usage generally refers to the custom practiced in earlier times by the Mormons, and before them by King Solomon, in which the man has as many wives as he can afford financially and/or emotionally. The correct, but rarely used, term for this custom is *polygyny* (pə-LIJ′-ə-nee)—*polys*, many, plus *gyne*, woman.

What if a woman has two or more husbands, a form of marriage practiced in the Himalaya Mountains of Tibet? That custom is called *polyandry* (pol-ee-AN′-dree), from *polys* plus Greek *andros*, male.

3. making friends with suffixes

English words have various forms, using certain suffixes for nouns referring to persons, other suffixes for practices, attitudes, philosophies, etc, and still others for adjectives.

Consider:

Person	*Practice, etc.*	*Adjective*
1. misanthrope *or* misanthropist	misanthropy	misanthropic
2. misogynist	misogyny	misogynous *or* misogynistic
3. gynecologist	gynecology	gynecological

4. monogamist	monogamy	monogamous
5. bigamist	bigamy	bigamous
6. polygamist	polygamy	polygamous
7. polygynist	polygyny	polygynous
8. polyandrist	polyandry	polyandrous
9. philanthropist	philanthropy	philanthropic
10. anthropologist	anthropology	anthropological

You will note, then, that *-ist* is a common suffix for a person; *-y* for a practice, attitude, etc.; and *-ic* or *-ous* for an adjective.

4. living alone and liking it

Ascetic is from the Greek word *asketes*, monk or hermit.

A monk lives a lonely life—not for him the pleasures of the fleshpots, the laughter and merriment of convivial gatherings, the dissipation of high living. Rather, days of contemplation, study, and rough toil, nights on a hard bed in a simple cell, and the kind of self-denial that leads to a purification of the soul.

That person is an *ascetic* who leads an existence, voluntarily of course, that compares in austerity, simplicity, and rigorous hardship with the life of a monk.

The practice is *asceticism* (ə-SET′-ə-siz-əm), the adjective *ascetic*.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

Notice how efficiently you can master words by understanding their etymological structure. Stop for a moment to review the roots, prefixes, and suffixes you have studied. Can you recall a word we

have discussed in this chapter that is built on the indicated prefix, root, or suffix?

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING	EXAMPLE
1. *ego*	self, I	_____
2. *alter*	other	_____
3. *intro-*	inside	_____
4. *extro-*	outside	_____
5. *verto*	turn	_____
6. *ambi-*	both	_____
7. *misein*	hate	_____
8. *anthropos*	mankind	_____
9. *gyne*	woman	_____
10. *gamos*	marriage	_____
11. *asketes*	monk	_____
12. *centrum*	center	_____
13. *mania*	madness	_____
14. *dexter*	right hand	_____
15. *sinister*	left hand	_____
16. *gauche*	left hand	_____
17. *droit*	right hand	_____
18. *monos*	one	_____
19. *bi-*	two	_____
20. *polys*	many	_____
21. *andros*	male	_____

22. *-ist*	person who (*noun suffix*)	_____
23. *-y*	Practice, custom, etc. (*noun suffix*)	_____
24. *-ous*	adjective suffix	_____
25. *-ity*	quality, condition, etc. (*noun suffix*)	_____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

Say each word aloud! Hear it in your own voice! *Say it often enough so that you feel comfortable with it, noting carefully from the phonetic respelling exactly how it should sound.*

Remember that the first crucial step in mastering a word is to be able to say it with ease and assurance.

1. *ambidextrous*	am-bə-DEKS′-trəs
2. *ambidexterity*	am′-bə-deks-TAIR′-ə-tee
3. *dexterous*	DEKS′-trəs
4. *dexterity*	deks-TAIR′-ə-tee
5. *sinister*	SIN′-ə-stər
6. *gauche*	GŌSH (Say the English word *go*, then quickly add *-sh.*)
7. *gaucherie*	GŌ′-shə-ree
8. *adroit*	ə-DROYT′

9. *adroitness*	ə-DROYT′-nəss
10. *anthropology*	an-tbrə-POL′-ə-jee
11. *anthropologist*	an-thrə-POL′-ə-jist
12. *anthropological*	an′-thrə-pə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
13. *philanthropist*	fə-LAN′-thrə-pist
14. *philanthropy*	fə-LAN′-thrə-pee
15. *philanthropic*	fil-ən-THROP′-ik
16. *gynecologist*	gīn (*or* jin *or* jīn)-ə-KOL′-ə-jist
17. *gynecology*	gīn (or jin *or* jīn)-ə-KOL′-ə-jee
18. *gynecological*	gīn (or jin *or* jīn)-ə-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
19. *monogamist*	mə-NOG′-ə-mist
20. *monogamy*	mə-NOG′-ə-mee
21. *monogamous*	mə-NOG′-ə-məs

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *bigamist*	BIG′-ə-mist
2. *bigamy*	BIG′-ə-mee
3. *bigamous*	BIG′-ə-məs
4. *polygamist*	pə-LIG′-ə-mist
5. *polygamy*	pə-LIG′-ə-mee
6. *polygamous*	pə-LIG-′ə-məs
7. *polygynist*	pə-LIJ′-ə-nist
8. *polygyny*	pə-LIJ′-ə-nee

9. *polygynous*	pə-LIJ′-ə-nəs
10. *polyandrist*	pol-ee-AN′-drist
11. *polyandry*	pol-ee-AN′-dree
12. *polyandrous*	pol-ee-AN′-drəs
13. *misanthropist*	mis-AN′-thrə-pist
14. *misanthropy*	mis-AN′-thrə-pee
15. *misanthropic*	mis-ən-THROP′-ik
16. *misogyny*	mə-SOJ′-ə-nee
17. *misogynous*	mə-SOJ′-ə-nəs
18. *misogynistic*	mə-soj′-ə-NIS′-tik
19. *misogamy*	mə-SOG′-ə-mee
20. *misogamous*	mə-SOG-ə-məs
21. *asceticism*	ə-SET-ə-siz-əm

Can you work with the words? (I)

Check on your comprehension! See how successfully you can match words and meanings!

1. ambidextrous	a. evil, threatening
2. dexterous	b. hating mankind
3. sinister	c. skillful
4. gauche	d. awkward
5. misanthropic	e. capable of using both hands with equal skill

KEY: 1–e, 2–c, 3–a, 4–d, 5–b

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. anthropology	a. system of only one marriage
2. gynecology	b. hatred of women
3. monogamy	c. illegal plurality of marriages
4. bigamy	d. study of human development
5. misogyny	e. study of female ailments

KEY: 1–d, 2–e, 3–a, 4–c, 5–b

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. polygamy	a. devotion to a lonely and austere life
2. misogamy	b. skill, cleverness
3. asceticism	c. custom in which one man has many wives
4. philanthropy	d. love of mankind
5. adroitness	e. hatred of marriage

KEY: 1–c, 2–e, 3–a, 4–d, 5–b

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. polygynist	a. student of the development of mankind
2. polyandrist	b. one who engages in charitable works
3. anthropologist	c. male with a plurality of wives
4. gynecologist	d. women's doctor
5. philanthropist	e. female with a plurality of husbands

KEY: 1–c, 2–e, 3–a, 4–d, 5–b

Do you understand the words?

1. Can *ambidextrous* people use either the left or right hand equally well?

   YES NO
2. Should a surgeon be manually *dexterous?*

   YES NO
3. Is a *sinister*-looking person frightening?

   YES NO
4. Is *gaucherie* a social asset?

   YES NO
5. Is an *adroit* speaker likely to be a successful lawyer?

   YES NO
6. Is a student of *anthropology* interested in primitive tribes?

   YES NO
7. Does a *gynecologist* have more male than female patients?

   YES NO
8. Is *monogamy* the custom in Western countries?

   YES NO
9. Is a *misogamist* likely to show tendencies toward *polygamy?*

   YES NO
10. Is a *bigamist* breaking the law?

    YES NO
11. Is a *philanthropist* generally altruistic?

    YES NO
12. Does a *misanthropist* enjoy human relationships?

    YES NO

13. Does a *misogynist* enjoy female companionship?

    YES NO

14. Are unmarried people necessarily *misogamous?*

    YES NO

15. Are bachelors necessarily *misogynous?*

    YES NO

16. Is *asceticism* compatible with luxurious living and the pursuit of pleasure?

    YES NO

17. Does a *polyandrist* have more than one husband?

    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–yes, 11–yes, 12–no, 13–no, 14–no, 15–no, 16–no, 17–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. philosophy of living austerely
    1. A_____
2. hatred of women
    2. M_____
3. hatred of marriage
    3. M_____
4. hatred of mankind
    4. M_____
5. skillful
    5. D_____
6. awkward
    6. G_____
7. evil, threatening
    7. S_____
8. describing hatred of women (*adj.*)
    8. M_____
    or M_____
9. skill
    9. A_____
10. pertaining to hatred of marriage. (*adj.*)
    10. M_____
11. pertaining to hatred of mankind (*adj.*)
    11. M_____
12. social custom of plural marriage

12. P_____
or P_____
or P_____

13. unlawful state of having more than one spouse
13. B_____

14. doctor specializing in female disorders
14. G_____

15. custom of one marriage at a time
15. M_____

16. one who hates the human race
16. M_____
or M_____

17. able to use both hands with equal skill
17. A_____

18. study of mankind
18. A_____

19. one who loves mankind
19. P_____

20. skill in the use of both hands
20. A_____

KEY: 1–asceticism, 2–misogyny, 3–misogamy, 4–misanthropy, 5–dexterous, 6–gauche, 7–sinister, 8–misogynous or misogynistic, 9–adroitness, 10–misogamous, 11–misanthropic, 12–polygamy, polyandry, *or* polygyny, 13–bigamy, 14–gynecologist, 15–monogamy, 16–misanthropist *or* misanthrope, 17–ambidextrous, 18–anthropology, 19–philanthropist, 20–ambidexterity

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Puts selfish desires first: (a) egoist, (b) egotist, (c) altruist
2. Is self-analytical: (a) extrovert, (b) introvert, (c) ambivert
3. Hates women: (a) misogamist, (b) misanthrope, (c) misogynist
4. One's other self: (a) altercation, (b) alter ego, (c) alteration
5. Awkward, clumsy: (a) adroit, (b) dexterous, (c) gauche
6. Plural marriage as a custom: (a) bigamy, (b) polygamy, (c) monogamy
7. Study of human development: (a) asceticism, (b) philanthropy, (c) anthropology
8. Plurality of husbands as a custom: (a) misogyny, (b) polygyny, (c) polyandry

KEY: 1–a, 2–b, 3–c, 4–b, 5–c, 6–b, 7–c, 8–c

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *ego*	_____
EXAMPLE egoist	
2. *alter*	_____
EXAMPLE alternative	
3. *verto*	_____
EXAMPLE introvert	
4. *misein*	_____
EXAMPLE misogynist	
5. *anthropos*	_____
EXAMPLE anthropologist	
6. *gyne*	_____
EXAMPLE gynecologist	
7. *gamos*	_____
EXAMPLE bigamy	
8. *centrum*	_____
EXAMPLE egocentric	
9. *dexter*	_____

EXAMPLE dexterous

10. *droit* _____

EXAMPLE adroit

11. *monos* _____

EXAMPLE monogamy

12. *andros* _____

EXAMPLE polyandry

KEY: 1–self, 2–other, 3–to turn, 4–to hate, 5–mankind, 6–woman, 7–marriage, 8–center, 9–right hand, 10–right hand, 11–one, 12–male

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

Suppose you met the following words in your reading. Recognizing the roots on which they are constructed, could you figure out the meanings? Write your answers on the blank lines.

1. *anthropocentric:* _____
2. *andromania:* _____
3. *gynandrous:* _____
4. *monomania:* _____
5. *misandrist:* _____

(*Answers in Chapter 18.*)

STICK TO YOUR TIME SCHEDULE!

In three sessions, you have become acquainted with scores of new, vital, exciting words. You understand the ideas behind these words, their various forms and spellings, their pronunciation, their derivation, how they can be used, and exactly what they mean. I do not wish to press a point unduly, but it is possible that you have learned more new words in the short time it took you to cover this chapter than the average adult learns in an entire year. This realization should make you feel both gratified and excited.

Funny thing about time. Aside from the fact that we all, rich or poor, sick or well, have the same amount of time, exactly twenty-four hours every day (that is looking at time from a static point of view), it is also true that we can always find time for the things we enjoy doing, almost never for the things we find unpleasant (and that is looking at time from the dynamic point of view). I am not merely being philosophical—I am sure you will agree with this concept if you give it a little thought.

If you have enjoyed learning new words, accepting new challenges, gaining new understanding, and discovering the thrill of successful accomplishment, then make sure to stay with the time schedule you have set up for yourself.

A crucial factor in successful, ongoing learning is routine.

Develop a comfortable time routine, persevere against all distractions, and you will learn anything you sincerely want to learn.

So, to give yourself an edge, write here the day and hour you plan to return to your work:

DAY: _____
DATE: _____
TIME: _____

(*End of Session 3*)

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[1] See Introduction, Section 2, *Master the pronunciation system*.

Brief Intermission One

TEST YOUR GRAMMAR

How good is your English? Have you ever said *me* and then wondered if it shouldn't have been *I*—or vice versa? Do you sometimes get a little confused about *lay* and *lie* or *who* and *whom?* Perhaps you are often a little less than certain about the distinction between *effect* and *affect, principal* and *principle, childish* and *childlike?*

Here is a series of quick tests that will show you how skillful you are in using the right word in the right place, that will give you a reliable indication of how your language ability compares with the average.

TEST I—EASY

If your English is every bit as good as average, you will have no difficulty making a proper choice in at least eight of the following ten sentences.

1. There is a beautiful moon out tonight and Estelle and I are going for a stroll—would you like to come along with (she and I, her and me?)
2. Your husband doesn't believe that you are older than (I, me).
3. Maybe we're not as rich as (they, them), but I bet we're a lot happier.
4. Does your child still (lay, lie) down for a nap after lunch?
5. When we saw Mary openly flirting with Nellie's husband, we (could, couldn't) hardly believe our eyes.
6. You should (of, have) put more vermouth into the martini.
7. Does your company (leave, let) you have as long a lunch break as you would like?
8. Harriet feels that her (brothers-in-law, brother-in-laws) are impossible to get along with.
9. "What (kind of, kind of a) car are you looking for?" asked the salesman.
10. Mrs. White was delighted that the Fennells had invited John and (she, her) to their party.

Is your English up to par? HERE ARE THE CORRECT ANSWERS

1–her and me, 2–I, 3-they, 4–lie, 5–could, 6–have, 7–let, 8–brothers-in-law, 9–kind of, 10–her

TEST II—HARDER

Choose correctly in at least seven of the following problems to consider that your skill is distinctly above average—get all ten right to conclude that you rarely, if ever, make an error in grammar.

1. What (effect, affect) has the new administration's policies had on investor confidence?
2. A feeling of one's worth is one of the (principle, principal) goals of psychological therapy.
3. There's no sense (in, of) carrying on that way.
4. I can't remember (who, whom) it was.
5. The infant (lay, laid) quietly sucking its thumb.
6. No one but (she, her) ever made a perfect score on the test.
7. In the early days of frontier history, horse thieves were (hanged, hung).
8. Neither of your responses (are, is) satisfactory.
9. Either of these two small cars, if properly maintained, (is, are) sure to give over thirty miles per gallon in highway driving.
10. Tell (whoever, whomever) is waiting to come in.

Is your English above average? HERE ARE THE CORRECT ANSWERS

1–effect, 2–principal, 3–in, 4–who, 5–lay, 6–her, 7–hanged, 8–is, 9–is, 10–whoever

TEST III—HARDEST

Now you can discover how close you are to being an expert in English. The next ten sentences are no cinch—you will be acquitting yourself creditably if you check the correct word five times out of ten. And you have every right to consider yourself an expert if you get nine or ten right.

1. We have just interviewed an applicant (who, whom) the committee believes is best qualified for the position.
2. She is one of those gifted writers who (turns, turn) out one best seller after another.
3. Don't sound so (incredulous, incredible); what I am saying is absolutely true.
4. We were totally (disinterested, uninterested) in the offer.
5. This recipe calls for two (cupsful, cupfuls) of sugar.
6. Are you trying to (infer, imply) by those words that he is not to be trusted?
7. We thought the actress to be (she, her), but we weren't sure.
8. Was it (she, her) you were talking about?
9. Your criteria (is, are) not valid.
10. "It is I who (is, am) the only friend you've got," she told him pointedly.

Are you an expert? HERE ARE THE CORRECT ANSWERS

1–who, 2–turn, 3–incredulous, 4–uninterested, 5–cupfuls, 6–imply, 7–her, 8–she, 9–are, 10–am

4

HOW TO TALK ABOUT DOCTORS

(*Sessions 4–6*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What is the title of the doctor who specializes in:
internal medicine?
female ailments?
pregnancy and childbirth?
the treatment and care of infants and young children?
skin disorders?
diseases of the eye?
heart problems?
the brain and nervous system?
mental and emotional disturbances?

SESSION 4

In this chapter we discuss ten medical specialists—what they do, how they do it, what they are called.

IDEAS

1. what's wrong with you?

To find out what ails you and why, this specialist gives you a thorough physical examination, using an impressive array of tests: X ray, blood chemistry, urinalysis, cardiogram, and so on.

An *internist*

2. female troubles?

This specialist treats the female reproductive and sexual organs.

A *gynecologist*

3. having a baby?

This specialist delivers babies and takes care of the mother during and immediately after the period of her pregnancy.

An *obstetrician*

4. is your baby ill?

You know the common childhood maladies—mumps, whooping cough, chicken pox, measles. This specialist limits his practice to youngsters, taking care of babies directly after birth, supervising their diet and watching over their growth and development, giving them the series of inoculations that has done so much to decrease infant mortality, and soothing their anxious parents.

A *pediatrician*

5. skin clear?

You have heard the classic riddle: "What is the best use for pigskin?" Answer: "To keep the pig together." Human skin has a similar purpose: it is, if we get down to fundamentals, what keeps us all in one piece. And our outer covering, like so many of our internal organs, is subject to diseases and infections of various kinds, running the gamut from simple acne and eczemas through impetigo, psoriasis, and cancer. There is a specialist who treats all such skin diseases.

A *dermatologist*

6. eyes okay?

The physician whose specialty is disorders of vision (myopia, astigmatism, cataracts, glaucoma, etc.) may prescribe glasses, administer drugs, or perform surgery.

An *ophthalmologist*

7. how are your bones?

This specialist deals with the skeletal structure of the body, treating bone fractures, slipped discs, clubfoot, curvature of the spine, dislocations of the hip, etc., and may correct a condition either by surgery or by the use of braces or other appliances.

An *orthopedist*

8. does your heart go pitter-patter?

This specialist treats diseases of the heart and circulatory system.

A *cardiologist*

9. is your brain working?

This physician specializes in the treatment of disorders of the brain, spinal cord, and the rest of the nervous system.

A *neurologist*

10. are you neurotic?

This specialist attempts to alleviate mental and emotional disturbances by means of various techniques, occasionally drugs or electroshock, more often private or group psychotherapy.

A *psychiatrist*

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

Words take on a new color if you hear them in your own voice; they begin to belong to you more personally, more intimately, than if you merely hear or read them. As always, therefore, *say the words aloud* to take the first, crucial step toward complete mastery.

1. *internist* in-TURN′-ist

2. *gynecologist*	gīn (*or* jin *or* jīn)-ə-KOL′-ə-jist
3. *obstetrician*	ob-stə-TRISH′-ən
4. *pediatrician*	pee′-dee-ə-TRISH′-ən
5. *dermatologist*	dur-mə-TOL′-ə-jist
6. *ophthalmologist*	off-thal-MOL′-ə-jist
7. *orthopedist*	awr-thə-PEE′-dist
8. *cardiologist*	kahr-dee-OL′-ə-jist
9. *neurologist*	noor-OL′-ə-jist
10. *psychiatrist*	sī (*or* sə)-KĪ′-ə-trist

Can you work with the words?

Match each doctor to the field.

FIELDS	DOCTORS
1. mental or emotional disturbances	a. internist
2. nervous system	b. gynecologist
3. skin	c. obstetrician
4. diagnosis; internal organs	d. pediatrician
5. infants	e. dermatologist
6. female reproductive organs	f. ophthalmologist
7. eyes	g. orthopedist
8. heart	h. cardiologist
9. pregnancy, childbirth	i. neurologist

10. skeletal system

j. psychiatrist

KEY: 1–j, 2–i, 3–e, 4–a, 5–d, 6–b, 7–f, 8–h, 9–c, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. Is an *internist* an expert in diagnosis?
   YES NO
2. Is a *gynecologist* familiar with the female reproductive organs?
   YES NO
3. Does an *obstetrician* specialize in diseases of childhood?
   YES NO
4. Does a *pediatrician* deliver babies?
   YES NO
5. If you had a skin disease, would you visit a *dermatologist?*
   YES NO
6. If you had trouble with your vision would you visit an *orthopedist?*
   YES NO
7. Is an *ophthalmologist* an eye specialist?
   YES NO
8. Does a *cardiologist* treat bone fractures?
   YES NO
9. Is a *neurologist* a nerve specialist?
   YES NO
10. If you were nervous, tense, overly anxious, constantly fearful for no apparent reasons, would a *psychiatrist* be the specialist to see?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–yes, 10–yes

---

Can you recall the words?

Write the name of the specialist you might visit or be referred to:

1. for a suspected brain disorder
   1. N_____
2. for a thorough internal checkup
   2. I_____
3. if you have a skin disease
   3. D_____
4. if you have a heart problem
   4. C_____
5. if you are tense, fearful, insecure
   5. P_____
6. if you are pregnant
   6. O_____
7. for some disorder of the female reproductive organs
   7. G_____
8. for a checkup for your two-month-old child
   8. P_____
9. for faulty vision
   9. O_____
10. for curvature of the spine
    10. O_____

KEY: 1–neurologist, 2–internist, 3–dermatologist, 4–cardiologist, 5–psychiatrist, 6–obstetrician, 7–gynecologist, 8–pediatrician, 9–ophthalmologist, 10–orthopedist

(*End of session 4*)

SESSION 5

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. inside you

Internist and *internal* derive from the same Latin root, *internus*, inside. The *internist* is a specialist in *internal* medicine, in the exploration of your *insides*. This physician determines the state of your internal organs in order to discover what's happening *within* your body to cause the troubles you're complaining of.

Do not confuse the *internist* with the *intern* (also spelled *interne*), who is a medical graduate serving an apprenticeship *inside* a hospital.

2. doctors for women

The word *gynecologist* is built on Greek *gyne*, woman, plus *logos*, science; etymologically, *gynecology* is the science (in actual use, the medical science) of women. Adjective: *gynecological* (gīn [*or* jin *or* jīn]-ə-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

Obstetrician derives from Latin *obstetrix*, midwife, which in turn has its source in a Latin verb meaning *to stand*—midwives stand in front of the woman in labor to aid in the delivery of the infant.

The suffix *-ician*, as in *obstetrician, physician, musician, magician, electrician*, etc., means *expert*.

Obstetrics (ob-STET′-riks) has only within the last 150 years become a respectable specialty. No further back than 1834, Professor William P. Dewees assumed the first chair of *obstetrics* at the University of Pennsylvania and had to brave considerable

medical contempt and ridicule as a result—the delivery of children was then considered beneath the dignity of the medical profession.

Adjective: *obstetric* (ob-STET′-rik) or *obstetrical* (ob-STET′-rə-kəl).

3. children

Pediatrician is a combination of Greek *paidos*, child; *iatreia*, medical healing; and *-ician*, expert.

Pediatrics (pee-dee-AT′-riks), then, is by etymology the medical healing of a child. Adjective: *pediatric* (pee-dee-AT′-rik).

(The *ped-* you see in words like *pedestal, pedal*, and *pedestrian* is from the Latin *pedis*, foot, and despite the identical spelling in English has no relationship to Greek *paidos.*)

Pedagogy (PED-ə-gō′-jee), which combines *paidos* with *agogos*, leading, is, etymologically, *the leading of children.* And to what do you lead them? To learning, to development, to growth, to maturity. From the moment of birth, infants are led by adults—they are taught, first by parents and then by teachers, to be self-sufficient, to fit into the culture in which they are born. Hence, *pedagogy*, which by derivation means *the leading of a child*, refers actually to the principles and methods of teaching. College students majoring in education take certain standard *pedagogy* courses—the history of education; educational psychology; the psychology of adolescents; principles of teaching; etc. Adjective: *pedagogical* (ped-ə-GOJ′-ə-kəl).

A *pedagogue* (PED′-ə-gog) is versed in *pedagogy.* But *pedagogue* has an unhappy history. From its original, neutral meaning of *teacher*, it has deteriorated to the point where it refers, today, to a narrow-minded, strait-laced, old-fashioned, dogmatic teacher. It is a word of contempt and should be used with caution.

Like *pedagogue, demagogue* (DEM′-ə-gog) has also deteriorated in meaning. By derivation a leader (*agogos*) of the people (*demos*), a *demagogue* today is actually one who attempts, in essence, to *mislead* the people, a politician who foments discontent among the masses, rousing them to fever pitch by wild oratory, in an attempt to be voted into office.

Once elected, *demagogues* use political power to further their own personal ambitions or fortunes.

Many "leaders" of the past and present, in countries around the world, have been accused of *demagoguery* (dem-ə-GOG′-ə-ree). Adjective: *demagogic* (dem-ə-GOJ′-ik).

4. skin-deep

The *dermatologist*, whose specialty is *dermatology* (dur-mə-TOL′-ə-jee), is so named from Greek *derma*, skin. Adjective: *dermatological* (dur′-mə-tə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

See the syllables *derma* in any English word and you will know there is some reference to *skin*—for example, a *hypodermic* (hī-pə-DUR′-mik) needle penetrates *under* (Greek, *hypos*) the *skin;* the *epidermis* (ep-ə-DUR′-mis) is the outermost layer of *skin;* a *taxidermist* (TAKS′-ə-dur-mist), whose business is *taxidermy* (TAKS′-ə-dur-mee), prepares, stuffs, and mounts the *skins* of animals; a *pachyderm* (PAK′-ə-durm) is an animal with an unusually thick *skin*, like an elephant, hippopotamus, or rhinoceros; and *dermatitis* (dur-mə-TĪ′-tis) is the general name for any *skin* inflammation, irritation, or infection.

5. the eyes have it

Ophthalmologist—note the *ph* preceding *th*—is from Greek *ophthalmos*, eye, plus *logos*, science or study. The specialty is *ophthalmology* (off′-thal-MOL′-ə-jee), the adjective *ophthalmological* (off′-thal-mə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

An earlier title for this physician, still occasionally used, is *oculist* (OK′-yə-list), from Latin *oculus*, eye, a root on which the following English words are also built:

1. *ocular* (OK′-yə-lər)—an adjective that refers to the eye
2. *monocle* (MON′-ə-kəl)—a lens for one (*monos*) eye, sported by characters in old movies as a symbol of the British so-called upper

class

3. *binoculars* (bə-NOK′-yə-lərz)—field glasses that increase the range of two (*bi-*) eyes

4. And, strangely enough, *inoculate* (in-OK′-yə-layt′), a word commonly misspelled with two *n's.* When you are *inoculated* against a disease, an "eye," puncture, or hole is made in your skin, through which serum is injected.

Do not confuse the *ophthalmologist* or *oculist*, a medical specialist, with two other practitioners who deal with the eye—the *optometrist* (op-TOM′-ə-trist) and *optician* (op-TISH′-ən).

Optometrists are not physicians, and do not perform surgery or administer drugs; they measure vision, test for glaucoma, and prescribe and fit glasses.

Opticians fill an *optometrist's* or *ophthalmologist's* prescription, grinding lenses according to specifications; they do not examine patients.

Optometrist combines Greek *opsis, optikos*, sight or vision, with *metron*, measurement—the *optometrist*, by etymology, is one who measures vision. The specialty is *optometry* (op-TOM′-ə-tree).

Optician is built on *opsis, optikos*, plus *-ician*, expert. The specialty is *optics* (OP′-tiks).

Adjectives: *optometric* (op-tə-MET′-rik) or *optometrical* (op-tə-MET′-rə-kəl), *optical* (OP′-tə-kəl).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *internus*	inside
EXAMPLE _____	
2. *gyne*	woman
EXAMPLE _____	

3. *obstetrix* midwife

EXAMPLE _____

4. *paidos* child

EXAMPLE _____

5. *pedis* foot

EXAMPLE _____

6. *agogos* leading, leader

EXAMPLE _____

7. *demos* people

EXAMPLE _____

8. *derma* skin

EXAMPLE _____

9. *hypos* under

EXAMPLE _____

10. *ophthalmos* eye

EXAMPLE _____

11. *oculus* eye

EXAMPLE _____

12. *monos* one

EXAMPLE _____

13. *bi-* two

EXAMPLE _____

14. *-ician* expert

EXAMPLE _____

15. *opsis, optikos* — vision, sight

EXAMPLE _____

16. *metron* — measurement

EXAMPLE _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *intern* (*e*)	IN′-turn
2. *gynecology*	gīn-ə-KOL′-ə-jee, jin-ə-KOL′-ə-jee, *or* jīn-ə-KOL′-ə-jee
3. *gynecological*	gīn-ə-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl, jin-ə-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl *or* jīn-ə-kə-LOJ-ə-kəl
4. *obstetrics*	ob-STET′-riks
5. *obstetric*	ob-STET′-rik
6. *obstetrical*	ob-STET′-rə-kəl
7. *pediatrics*	pee-dee-AT′-riks
8. *pediatric*	pee-dee-AT′-rik
9. *pedagogy*	PED′-ə-gō-jee
10. *pedagogical*	ped-ə-GOJ′-ə-kəl
11. *pedagogue*	PED′-ə-gog
12. *demagogue*	DEM′-ə-gog

13. *demagoguery* dem-ə-GOG′-ə-ree
14. *demagogic* dem-ə-GOJ′-ik

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *dermatology* dur-mə-TOL′-ə-jee
2. *dermatological* dur′-mə-tə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *hypodermic* hī-pə-DURM′-ik
4. *epidermis* ep-ə-DUR′-mis
5. *taxidermist* TAKS′-ə-dur-mist
6. *taxidermy* TAKS′-ə-dur-mee
7. *pachyderm* PAK′-ə-durm
8. *dermatitis* dur-mə-TĪ′-tis
9. *ophthalmology* off-thal-MOL′-ə-jee
10. *ophthalmological* off′-thal-mə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
11. *oculist* OK′-yə-list
12. *ocular* OK′-yə-lər
13. *monocle* MON′-ə-kəl
14. *binoculars* bə-NOK′-yə-lərz
15. *inoculate* in-OK′-yə-layt′
16. *optometrist* op-TOM′-ə-trist
17. *optometry* op-TOM′-ə-tree
18. *optometric* op-tə-MET′-rik
19. *optometrical* op-tə-MET′-rə-kəl

20. *optician*	op-TISH′-ən
21. *optics*	OP′-tiks
22. *optical*	OP-tə-kəl

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. gynecology	a. principles of teaching
2. obstetrics	b. stuffing of skins of animals
3. pediatrics	c. specialty dealing with the delivery of newborn infants
4. pedagogy	d. stirring up discontent among the masses
5. demagoguery	e. treatment of skin diseases
6. dermatology	f. specialty dealing with women's diseases
7. taxidermy	g. specialty dealing with the treatment of children

KEY: 1–f, 2–c, 3–g, 4–a, 5–d, 6–e, 7–b

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. hypodermic	a. elephant
2. epidermis	b. eye doctor
3. pachyderm	c. under the skin
4. dermatitis	d. one who measures vision
5. ophthalmologist	e. lens grinder
6. optometrist	f. outer layer of skin
7. optician	g. inflammation of the skin

KEY: 1–c, 2–f, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–d, 7–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Does a treatise on *obstetrics* deal with childbirth?
   YES NO
2. Does *gynecology* deal with the female reproductive organs?
   YES NO
3. Is *pediatrics* concerned with the diseases of old age?
   YES NO
4. Does *pedagogy* refer to teaching?
   YES NO
5. Is a *pedagogue* an expert teacher?
   YES NO
6. Is a *demagogue* interested in the welfare of the people?
   YES NO
7. Is a lion a *pachyderm?*
   YES NO
8. Is the *epidermis* one of the layers of the skin?
   YES NO
9. Is *dermatitis* an inflammation of one of the limbs?
   YES NO
10. Is a *taxidermist* a medical practitioner?
    YES NO
11. Is an *ophthalmologist* a medical doctor?
    YES NO
12. Is an *optometrist* a medical doctor?
    YES NO
13. Does an *optician* prescribe glasses?

YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–no, 11–yes, 12–no, 13–no

Can you recall the words?

1. specialty of child delivery
   1. O_____
2. outer layer of skin
   2. E_____
3. principles of teaching
   3. P_____
4. thick-skinned animal
   4. P_____
5. skin inflammation
   5. D_____
6. one who foments political discontent
   6. D_____
7. one who sells optical equipment
   7. O_____
8. medical graduate serving his apprenticeship
   8. I_____
9. treatment of childhood diseases
   9. P_____
10. practice of stirring up political dissatisfaction for purely personal gain
    10. D_____
11. one who stuffs the skins of animals
    11. T_____
12. another title for *ophthalmologist*
    12. O_____

13. treatment of female ailments
    13. G_____
14. medical specialty relating to diseases of the eye
    14. O_____
15. one-lens eyeglass
    15. M_____
16. pertaining to the eye
    16. O_____
17. one who measures vision
    17. O_____

KEY: 1–obstetrics, 2–epidermis, 3–pedagogy, 4–pachyderm, 5–dermatitis, 6–demagogue, 7–optician, 8–intern *or* interne, 9–pediatrics, 10–demagoguery, 11–taxidermist, 12–oculist, 13–gynecology, 14–ophthalmology, 15–monocle, 16–ocular, 17–optometrist

(*End of Session 5*)

SESSION 6

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. the straighteners

The *orthopedist* is so called from the Greek roots *orthos*, straight or correct, and *paidos*, child. The *orthopedist*, by etymology, straightens children. The term was coined in 1741 by the author of a textbook on the prevention of childhood diseases—at that time the correction of spinal curvature in children was a main concern of practitioners of *orthopedics* (awr-thə-PEE′-diks).

Today the specialty treats deformities, injuries, and diseases of the bones and joints (of adults as well as children, of course), often by surgical procedures.

Adjective: *orthopedic* (awr-thə-PEE′-dik).

Orthodontia (awr-thə-DON′-shə), the straightening of teeth, is built on *orthos* plus *odontos*, tooth. The *orthodontist* (awr-thə-DON′-tist) specializes in improving your "bite," retracting "buck teeth," and by means of braces and other techniques seeing to it that every molar, incisor, bicuspid, etc. is exactly where it belongs in your mouth.

Adjective: *orthodontic* (awr-thə-DON′-tik).

2. the heart

Cardiologist combines Greek *kardia*, heart, and *logos*, science.

The specialty is *cardiology* (kahr-dee-OL′-ə-jee), the adjective *cardiological* (kahr′-dee-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

So a *cardiac* (KAHR′-dee-ak) condition refers to some malfunctioning of the heart; a *cardiogram* (KAHR′-dee-ə-gram′) is an

electrically produced record of the heartbeat. The instrument that produces this record is called a *cardiograph* (KAHR′-dee-ə-graf′).

3. the nervous system

Neurologist derives from Greek *neuron*, nerve, plus *logos*, science.

Specialty: *neurology* (nŏŏr-OL′-ə-jee); adjective: *neurological* (nŏŏr-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

Neuralgia (nŏŏr-AL′-ja) is acute pain along the nerves and their branches; the word comes from *neuron* plus *algos*, pain.

Neuritis (nŏŏr-Ī-tis), is inflammation of the nerves.

Neurosis (nŏŏr-Ō′-sis), combining *neuron* with *-osis*, a suffix meaning *abnormal or diseased condition*, is not, despite its etymology, a disorder of the nerves, but rather, as described by the late Eric Berne, a psychiatrist, "… an illness characterized by excessive use of energy for unproductive purposes so that personality development is hindered or stopped. A man who spends most of his time worrying about his health, counting his money, plotting revenge, or washing his hands, can hope for little emotional growth."

Neurotic (nŏŏr-OT′-ik) is both the adjective form and the term for a person suffering from *neurosis*.

4. the mind

A *neurosis* is not a form of mental unbalance. A full-blown mental disorder is called a *psychosis* (sī-KŌ′-sis), a word built on Greek *psyche*, spirit, soul, or mind, plus *-osis*.

A true *psychotic* (sī-KOT′-ik) has lost contact with reality—at least with reality as most of us perceive it, though no doubt *psychotic* (note that this word, like *neurotic*, is both a noun and an adjective) people have their own form of reality.

Built on *psyche* plus *iatreia*, medical healing, a *psychiatrist* by etymology is a mind-healer. The specialty is *psychiatry* (sī- *or* sə-KĪ-

ə-tree); the adjective is *psychiatric* (sī-kee-AT′-rik).

Pediatrics, as you know, is also built on *iatreia*, as is *podiatry* (pə-DĪ′-ə-tree), discussed in the next chapter, and *geriatrics* (jair′-ee-AT′-riks), the specialty dealing with the particular medical needs of the elderly. (This word combines *iatreia* with Greek *geras*, old age.)

The specialist is a *geriatrician* (jair′-ee-ə-TRISH′-ən), the adjective is *geriatric* (jair′-ee-AT′-rik).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *orthos*	straight, correct
EXAMPLE _____	
2. *paidos* (*ped-*)	child
EXAMPLE _____	
3. *odontos*	tooth
EXAMPLE _____	
4. *kardia*	heart
EXAMPLE _____	
5. *logos*	science; study
EXAMPLE _____	
6. *neuron*	nerve
EXAMPLE _____	
7. *algos*	pain
EXAMPLE _____	
8. *-osis*	abnormal or diseased condition

EXAMPLE _____

9. *-itis* inflammation

EXAMPLE _____

10. *psyche* spirit, soul, mind

EXAMPLE _____

11. *iatreia* medical healing

EXAMPLE _____

12. *geras* old age

EXAMPLE _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words (I)

1. *orthopedics* awr-thə-PEE′-diks
2. *orthopedic* awr-thə-PEE′-dik
3. *orthodontia* awr-thə-DON′-shə
4. *orthodontist* awr-thə-DON′-tist
5. *orthodontic* awr-thə-DON′-tik
6. *cardiology* kahr-dee-OL′-ə-jee
7. *cardiological* kahr′-dee-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
8. *cardiac* KAHR′-dee-ak
9. *cardiogram* KAHR′-dee-ə-gram′
10. *cardiograph* KAHR′-dee-ə-graf′

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *neurology*	nŏŏr-OL′-ə-jee
2. *neurological*	nŏŏr-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *neuralgia*	nŏŏr-AL′-jə
4. *neuritis*	nŏŏr-Ī′-tis
5. *neurosis*	nŏŏr-Ō′-sis
6. *neurotic*	nŏŏr-OT′-ik
7. *psychosis*	sī-KŌ′-sis
8. *psychotic*	sī-KOT′-ik
9. *psychiatry*	sī- *or* sə-KĪ′-ə-tree
10. *psychiatric*	sī-kee-AT′-rik
11. *geriatrics*	jair′-ee-AT′-riks
12. *geriatrician*	jair′-ee-ə-TRISH′-ən
13. *geriatric*	jair′-ee-AT′-rik

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. orthopedics	a. nerve pain
2. orthodontia	b. specialty dealing with medical problems of the elderly
3. neuralgia	c. straightening of teeth
4. neuritis	d. inflammation of the nerves
5. geriatrics	e. treatment of skeletal deformities

KEY: 1–e, 2–c, 3–a, 4–d, 5–b

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. cardiogram	a. record of heart beats
2. cardiograph	b. mental unbalance
3. neurosis	c. emotional disturbance
4. psychosis	d. treatment of personality disorders
5. psychiatry	e. instrument for recording heartbeats

KEY: 1–a, 2–e, 3–c, 4–b, 5–d

Do you understand the words?

1. A *gynecologist's* patients are mostly men.
   TRUE FALSE
2. *Ophthalmology* is the study of eye diseases.
   TRUE FALSE
3. *Orthopedics* is the specialty dealing with the bones and joints.
   TRUE FALSE
4. A *cardiac* patient has a heart ailment.
   TRUE FALSE
5. A person with a bad "bite" may profit from *orthodontia.*
   TRUE FALSE
6. *Neuralgia* is a disease of the bones.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *neurosis* is the same as a *psychosis.*
   TRUE FALSE
8. *Neuritis* is inflammation of the nerves.
   TRUE FALSE
9. *Psychiatry* is a medical specialty that deals with mental, emotional, and personality disturbances.
   TRUE FALSE
10. A *cardiograph* is a device for recording heartbeats.
    TRUE FALSE
11. *Psychiatric* treatment is designed to relieve tensions, fears, and insecurities.
    TRUE FALSE
12. A doctor who specializes in *pediatrics* has very old patients.

TRUE FALSE

13. A *geriatrician* has very young patients.

TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–T, 3–T, 4–T, 5–T, 6–F, 7–F, 8–T, 9–T, 10–T, 11–T, 12–F, 13–F

Can you recall the words?

1. specialist who straightens teeth
   1. O_____
2. nerve pain
   2. N_____
3. medical specialty dealing with bones and joints
   3. O_____
4. medical specialty dealing with emotional disturbances and mental illness
   4. P_____
5. inflammation of the nerves
   5. N_____
6. emotional or personality disorder
   6. N_____
7. mentally unbalanced
   7. P_____
8. pertaining to the heart
   8. C_____
9. specialty dealing with medical problems of the elderly
   9. G_____
10. instrument that records heart action
    10. C_____
11. record produced by such an instrument
    11. C_____

KEY: 1-orthodontist, 2–neuralgia, 3–orthopedics, 4–psychiatry, 5–neuritis, 6–neurosis, 7–psychotic, 8–cardiac, 9–geriatrics, 10–cardiograph, 11–cardiogram

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Specialist in female ailments:
   (a) obstetrician, (b) gynecologist, (c) dermatologist
2. Specialist in children's diseases:
   (a) orthopedist, (b) pediatrician, (c) internist
3. Specialist in eye diseases:
   (a) cardiologist, (b) opthalmologist, (c) optician
4. Specialist in emotional disorders:
   (a) neurologist, (b) demagogue, (c) psychiatrist
5. Pertaining to medical treatment of the elderly:
   (a) neurological, (b) obstetric, (c) geriatric
6. Straightening of teeth:
   (a) orthodontia, (b) orthopedic, (c) optometry
7. Personality disorder:
   (a) neuritis, (b), neuralgia, (c) neurosis
8. Mentally unbalanced:
   (a) neurotic, (b) psychotic, (c) cardiac
9. Principles of teaching:
   (a) demagoguery, (b) pedagogy, (c) psychosis

KEY: 1–b, 2–b, 3–b, 4–c, 5–c, 6–a, 7–c, 8–b, 9–b

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *internus*	_____
EXAMPLE internist	
2. *paidos* (*ped-*)	_____
EXAMPLE pediatrician	
3. *pedis*	_____
EXAMPLE pedestrian	
4. *agogos*	_____
EXAMPLE pedagogue	
5. *demos*	_____
EXAMPLE demagogue	
6. *derma*	_____
EXAMPLE dermatologist	
7. *hypos*	_____
EXAMPLE hypodermic	
8. *ophthalmos*	_____
EXAMPLE ophthalmologist	
9. *oculus*	_____

EXAMPLE monocle

10. *opsis, optikos* _____

EXAMPLE optician

11. *metron* _____

EXAMPLE optometrist

12. *orthos* _____

EXAMPLE orthopedist

13. *odontos* _____

EXAMPLE orthodontist

14. *kardia* _____

EXAMPLE cardiologist

15. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE anthropologist

16. *neuron* _____

EXAMPLE neurologist

17. *algos* _____

EXAMPLE neuralgia

18. *psyche* _____

EXAMPLE psychiatrist

19. *iatreia* _____

EXAMPLE psychiatry

20. *geras* _____

EXAMPLE geriatrics

KEY: 1–inside, 2–child, 3–foot, 4–leading, 5–people, 6–skin, 7–under, 8–eye, 9–eye, 10–view, vision, sight, 11–measurement, 12–straight, correct, 13–tooth, 14–heart, 15–science, study, 16–nerve, 17–pain, 18–mind, 19–medical healing, 20–old age

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. Thinking of the roots *odontos* and *paidos* (spelled *ped-* in English), figure out the meaning of *pedodontia:* _____
2. Recall the roots *kardia* and *algos.* What is the meaning of *cardialgia?* _____
3. Of *odontalgia?* _____
4. *Nostos* is the Greek word for a *return* (home). Can you combine this root with *algos*, pain, to construct the English word meaning *homesickness?* _____

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

TWO KEYS TO SUCCESS: SELF-DISCIPLINE AND PERSISTENCE

You can achieve a superior vocabulary in a phenomenally short time—given self-discipline and persistence.

The greatest aid in building self-discipline is, as I have said, a matter of devising a practical and comfortable schedule for yourself and then *keeping to that schedule.*

Make sure to complete *at least* one session each time you pick up the book, and always decide exactly when you will continue with

your work before you put the book down.

There may be periods of difficulty—then is the time to exert the greatest self-discipline, the most determined persistence.

For every page that you study will help you attain a mastery over words; every day that you work will add to your skill in understanding and using words.

(*End of Session 6*)

Brief Intermission Two

RANDOM NOTES ON MODERN USAGE

English grammar is confusing enough as it is—what makes it doubly confounding is that it is slowly but continually changing.

This means that some of the strict rules you memorized so painfully in your high school or college English courses may no longer be completely valid.

Following such outmoded principles, you may think you are speaking "perfect" English, and instead you may sound stuffy and pedantic.

The problem boils down to this: If grammatical usage is gradually becoming more liberal, where does educated, unaffected, informal speech end? And where does illiterate, ungrammatical speech begin?

The following notes on current trends in modern usage are intended to help you come to a decision about certain controversial expressions. As you read each sentence, pay particular attention to the italicized word or words. Does the usage square with your own language patterns? Would you be willing to phrase your thought in just terms? Decide whether the sentence is right or wrong, then compare your conclusion with the opinion given in the explanatory paragraphs that follow the test.

TEST YOURSELF

1. If you drink too many vodka martinis, you will surely *get* sick.
   RIGHT WRONG
2. Have you *got* a dollar?
   RIGHT WRONG
3. No one loves you except *I*.
   RIGHT WRONG
4. Please *lay* down.
   RIGHT WRONG
5. *Who* do you love?
   RIGHT WRONG
6. Neither of these cars *are* worth the money.
   RIGHT WRONG
7. The judge sentenced the murderer to be *hung*.
   RIGHT WRONG
8. Mother, *can* I go out to play?
   RIGHT WRONG
9. Take two *spoonsful* of this medicine every three hours.
   RIGHT WRONG
10. Your words seem to *infer* that Jack is a liar.
    RIGHT WRONG
11. I *will* be happy to go to the concert with you.
    RIGHT WRONG
12. It is *me*.
    RIGHT WRONG
13. Go *slow*.
    RIGHT WRONG
14. Peggy and Karen are *alumni* of the same high school.
    RIGHT WRONG
15. I *would* like to ask you a question.
    RIGHT WRONG

1. If you drink too many vodka martinis, you will surely *get* sick.

RIGHT. The puristic objection is that *get* has only one meaning—namely, *obtain.* However, as any modern dictionary will attest, *get* has scores of different meanings, one of the most respectable of which is *become.* You can *get* tired, *get* dizzy, *get* drunk, or *get* sick—and your choice of words will offend no one but a pedant.

2. Have you *got* a dollar?

RIGHT. If purists get a little pale at the sound of "*get* sick," they turn chalk white when they hear *have got* as a substitute for *have.* But the fact is that *have got* is an established American form of expression. Jacques Barzun, noted author and literary critic, says: "*Have you got* is good idiomatic English—I use it in speech without thinking about it and would write it if colloquialism seemed appropriate to the passage."

3. No ones loves you except *I.*

WRONG. In educated speech, *me* follows the preposition *except.* This problem is troublesome because, to the unsophisticated, the sentence sounds as if it can be completed to "No one loves you, except *I* do," but current educated usage adheres to the technical rule that a preposition requires an objective pronoun (*me*).

4. Please *lay* down.

WRONG. Liberal as grammar has become, there is still no sanction for using *lay* with the meaning of *recline. Lay* means to place, as in "*Lay* your hand on mine." *Lie* is the correct choice.

5. *Who* do you love?

RIGHT. "The English language shows some disposition to get rid of *whom* altogether, and unquestionably it would be a better language with *whom* gone." So wrote Janet Rankin Aiken, of Columbia University, way back in 1936. Today, many decades later, the "disposition" has become a full-fledged force.

The rules for *who* and *whom* are complicated, and few educated speakers have the time, patience, or expertise to bother with them. Use the democratic *who* in your everyday speech whenever it sounds right.

6. Neither of these cars *are* worth the money.

WRONG. The temptation to use *are* in this sentence is, I admit, practically irresistible. However, "neither of" means "neither *one* of" and *is*, therefore, is the preferable verb.

7. The judge sentenced the murderer to be *hung.*

WRONG. A distinction is made, in educated speech, between *hung* and *hanged.* A picture is *hung*, but a person is *hanged*—that is, if such action is intended to bring about an untimely demise.

8. Mother, *can* I go out to play?

RIGHT. If you insist that your child say *may*, and nothing but *may*, when asking for permission, you may be considered puristic. *Can* is not discourteous, incorrect, or vulgar—and the newest editions of the authoritative dictionaries fully sanction the use of *can* in requesting rights, privileges, or permission.

9. Take two *spoonsful* of this medicine every three hours.

WRONG. There is a strange affection, on the part of some people, for *spoonsful* and *cupsful*, even though *spoonsful* and *cupsful* do not exist as acceptable words. The plurals are *spoonfuls* and *cupfuls.*

I am taking for granted, of course, that you are using one spoon and filling it twice. If, for secret reasons of your own, you prefer to take your medicine in two separate spoons, you may then properly speak of "two *spoons full* (not *spoonsful*) of medicine."

10. Your words seem to *infer* that Jack is a liar.

WRONG. *Infer* does not mean *hint* or *suggest. Imply* is the proper word; to *infer* is to draw a conclusion from another's words.

11. I *will* be happy to go to the concert with you.

RIGHT. In informal speech, you need no longer worry about the technical and unrealistic distinctions between *shall* and *will.* The theory of modern grammarians is that *shall-will* differences were simply invented out of whole cloth by the textbook writers of the 1800s. As the editor of the scholarly *Modern Language Forum* at the University of California has stated, "The artificial distinction between *shall* and *will* to designate futurity is a superstition that has neither a basis in historical grammar nor the sound sanction of universal usage."

12. It is *me.*

RIGHT. This “violation” of grammatical “law” has been completely sanctioned by current usage. When the late Winston Churchill made a nationwide radio address from New Haven, Connecticut, many, many years ago, his opening sentence was: “This is *me*, Winston Churchill.” I imagine that the purists who were listening fell into a deep state of shock at these words, but of course Churchill was simply using the kind of down-to-earth English that had long since become standard in informal educated speech.

13. Go *slow*.

RIGHT. “Go *slow*” is not, and never has been, incorrect English—every authority concedes that *slow* is an adverb as well as an adjective. Rex Stout, well-known writer of mystery novels and creator of Detective Nero Wolfe, remarked: “Not only do I use and approve of the idiom *Go slow*, but if I find myself with people who do not, I leave quick.”

14. Peggy and Karen are *alumni* of the same high school.

WRONG. As Peggy and Karen are obviously women, we call them *alumnae* (ə-LUM′-nee); only male graduates are *alumni* (ə-LUM′-nī).

15. I *would* like to ask you a question.

RIGHT. In current American usage, *would* may be used with *I*, though old-fashioned rules demand *I should*.

Indeed, in modern speech, *should* is almost entirely restricted to expressing probability, duty, or responsibility.

As in the case of the charitable-looking dowager who was approached by a seedy character seeking a handout.

“Madam,” he whined, “I haven’t eaten in five days.”

“My good man,” the matron answered with great concern, “you should force yourself!”

5

HOW TO TALK ABOUT VARIOUS PRACTITIONERS

(*Sessions 7–10*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What practitioner:
is a student of human behavior?
follows the techniques devised by Sigmund Freud?
straightens teeth?
measures vision?
grinds lenses?
treats minor ailments of the feet?
analyzes handwriting?
deals with the problems of aging?
uses manipulation and massage as curative techniques?

SESSION 7

An ancient Greek mused about the meaning of life, and *philosophy* was born. The first Roman decided to build a road instead of cutting a path through the jungle, and *engineering* came into existence. One day in primitive times, a human being lent to another whatever then passed for money and got back his original investment plus a little more—and *banking* had started.

Most people spend part of every workday at some gainful employment, honest or otherwise, and in so doing often contribute their little mite to the progress of the world.

We explore in this chapter the ideas behind people's occupations—and the words that translate these ideas into verbal symbols.

IDEAS

1. behavior

By education and training, this practitioner is an expert in the dark mysteries of human behavior—what makes people act as they do, why they have certain feelings, how their personalities were formed—in short, what makes them tick. Such a professional is often employed by industries, schools, and institutions to devise means for keeping workers productive and happy, students well-adjusted, and inmates contented. With a state license, this person may also do private or group therapy.

A *psychologist*

2. worries, fears, conflicts

This practitioner is a physician, psychiatrist, or psychologist who has been specially trained in the techniques devised by Sigmund Freud, encouraging you to delve into that part of your mind called "the unconscious." By reviewing the experiences, traumas, feelings, and thoughts of your earlier years, you come to a better understanding of your present worries, fears, conflicts, repressions, insecurities, and nervous tensions—thus taking the first step in coping with them. Treatment, consisting largely in listening to, and helping you to interpret the meaning of, your free-flowing ideas, is usually given in frequent sessions that may well go on for a year or more.

A *psychoanalyst*

3. teeth

This practitioner is a dentist who has taken postgraduate work in the straightening of teeth.

An *orthodontist*

4. eyes

This practitioner measures your vision and prescribes the type of glasses that will give you a new and more accurate view of the world.

An *optometrist*

5. glasses

This practitioner grinds lenses according to the specifications prescribed by your optometrist or ophthalmologist, and may also deal in other kinds of optical goods.

An *optician*

6. bones and blood vessels

This practitioner is a member of the profession that originated in 1874, when Andrew T. Still devised a drugless technique of curing diseases by massage and other manipulative procedures, a technique based on the theory that illness may be caused by the undue pressure of displaced bones on nerves and blood vessels.

Training is equal to that of physicians, and in most states these practitioners may also use the same methods as, and have the full rights and privileges of, medical doctors.

An *osteopath*

7. joints and articulations

The basic principle of this practitioner's work is the maintenance of the structural and functional integrity of the nervous system. Treatment consists of manipulating most of the articulations of the body, especially those connected to the spinal column. Licensed and legally recognized in forty-five states, this professional has pursued academic studies and training that parallel those of the major healing professions.

A *chiropractor*

8. feet

This practitioner treats minor foot ailments—corns, calluses, bunions, fallen arches, etc., and may perform minor surgery.

A *podiatrist*

9. writing

This practitioner analyzes handwriting to determine character, personality, or aptitudes, and is often called upon to verify the

authenticity of signatures, written documents, etc.

A *graphologist*

10. getting old

This social scientist deals with the financial, economic, sexual, social, retirement, and other non-medical problems of the elderly.

A *gerontologist*

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *psychologist*	sī-KOL′-ə-jist
2. *psychoanalyst*	sī-kō-AN′-ə-list
3. *orthodontist*	awr-thə-DON′-tist
4. *optometrist*	op-TOM′-ə-trist
5. *optician*	op-TISH′-ən
6. *osteopath*	OS′-tee-ə-path
7. *chiropractor*	KĪ′-rə-prək′-tər
8. *podiatrist*	pə-DĪ′-ə-trist
9. *graphologist*	graf-OL′-ə-jist
10. *gerontologist*	jair′-ən-TOL′-ə-jist

Can you work with the words?

PRACTITIONERS	INTERESTS
1. psychologist	a. vision
2. psychoanalyst	b. “the unconscious”
3. orthodontist	c. bones and blood vessels
4. optometrist	d. lenses and optical instruments
5. optician	e. feet
6. osteopath	f. teeth
7. chiropractor	g. problems of aging
8. podiatrist	h. joints of the spine
9. graphologist	i. handwriting
10. gerontologist	j. behavior

KEY: 1–j, 2–b, 3–f, 4–a, 5–d, 6–c, 7–h, 8–e, 9–i, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. A *psychologist* must also be a physician.
   TRUE FALSE
2. A *psychoanalyst* follows Freudian techniques.
   TRUE FALSE
3. An *orthodontist* specializes in straightening teeth.
   TRUE FALSE
4. An *optometrist* prescribes and fits glasses.
   TRUE FALSE
5. An *optician* may prescribe glasses.
   TRUE FALSE
6. An *osteopath* may use massage and other manipulative techniques.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *chiropractor* has a medical degree.
   TRUE FALSE
8. A *podiatrist* may perform major surgery.
   TRUE FALSE
9. A *graphologist* analyzes character from handwriting.
   TRUE FALSE
10. A *gerontologist* is interested in the non-medical problems of adolescence.
    TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–T, 3–T, 4–T, 5–F, 6–T, 7–F, 8–F, 9–T, 10–F

Can you recall the words?

1. delves into the unconscious
   1. P_____
2. uses either massage and manipulation or other standard medical procedures to treat illness
   2. O_____
3. takes care of minor ailments of the feet
   3. P_____
4. straightens teeth
   4. O_____
5. analyzes handwriting
   5. G_____
6. grinds lenses and sells optical goods
   6. O_____
7. deals with the non-medical problems of aging
   7. G_____
8. manipulates articulations connected to the spinal column
   8. C_____
9. studies and explains human behavior
   9. P_____
10. measures vision and prescribes glasses
    10. O_____

KEY: 1–psychoanalyst, 2–osteopath, 3–podiatrist, 4–orthodontist, 5–graphologist, 6–optician, 7–gerontologist, 8–chiropractor, 9–psychologist, 10–optometrist

(*End of Session* 7)

SESSION 8

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. the mental life

Psychologist is built upon the same Greek root as *psychiatrist*—*psyche*, spirit, soul, or mind. In *psychiatrist*, the combining form is *iatreia*, medical healing. In *psychologist*, the combining form is *logos*, science or study; a *psychologist*, by etymology, is one who studies the mind.

The field is *psychology* (sī-KOL′-ə-jee), the adjective *psychological* (sī′-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

Psyche (SĪ′-kee) is also an English word in its own right—it designates the mental life, the spiritual or non-physical aspect of one's existence. The adjective *psychic* (SĪ′-kik) refers to phenomena or qualities that cannot be explained in purely physical terms. People may be called *psychic* if they seem to possess a sixth sense, a special gift of mind reading, or any mysterious aptitudes that cannot be accounted for logically. A person's disturbance is *psychic* if it is emotional or mental, rather than physical.

Psyche combines with the Greek *pathos*, suffering or disease, to form *psychopathic* (sī-kə-PATH′-ik), an adjective that describes someone suffering from a severe mental or emotional disorder. The noun is *psychopathy* (sī′-KOP′-ə-thee).[1]

The root *psyche* combines with Greek *soma*, body, to form *psychosomatic* (sī′-kō-sə-MAT′-ik), an adjective that delineates the powerful influence that the mind, especially the unconscious, has on bodily diseases. Thus, a person who fears the consequence of being present at a certain meeting will suddenly develop a bad cold or

backache, or even be injured in a traffic accident, so that his appearance at this meeting is made impossible. It's a real cold, it's far from an imaginary backache, and of course one cannot in any sense doubt the reality of the automobile that injured him. Yet, according to the *psychosomatic* theory of medicine, his unconscious made him susceptible to the cold germs, caused the backache, or forced him into the path of the car.

A *psychosomatic* disorder actually exists insofar as symptoms are concerned (headache, excessive urination, pains, paralysis, heart palpitations), yet there is no organic cause within the body. The cause is within the *psyche*, the mind. Dr. Flanders Dunbar, in *Mind and Body*, gives a clear and exciting account of the interrelationship between emotions and diseases.

Psychoanalysis (sī′-kō-ə-NAL′-ə-sis) relies on the technique of deeply, exhaustively probing into the unconscious, a technique developed by Sigmund Freud. In oversimplified terms, the general principle of *psychoanalysis* is to guide the patient to an awareness of the deep-seated, unconscious causes of anxieties, fears, conflicts, and tension. Once found, exposed to the light of day, and thoroughly understood, claim the *psychoanalysts*, these causes may vanish like a light snow that is exposed to strong sunlight.

Consider an example: You have asthma, let us say, and your doctor can find no physical basis for your ailment. So you are referred to a *psychoanalyst* (or *psychiatrist* or clinical *psychologist* who practices *psychoanalytically* oriented therapy).

With your therapist you explore your past life, dig into your unconscious, and discover, let us say for the sake of argument, that your mother or father always used to set for you impossibly high goals. No matter what you accomplished in school, it was not good enough—in your mother's or father's opinion (and such opinions were always made painfully clear to you), you could do better if you were not so lazy. As a child you built up certain resentments and anxieties because you seemed unable to please your parent—and (this will sound farfetched, but it is perfectly possible) as a result you became asthmatic. How else were you going to get the parental

love, the approbation, the attention you needed and that you felt you were not receiving?

In your sessions with your therapist, you discover that your asthma is emotionally, rather than organically, based—your ailment is *psychogenic* (sī′-kō-JEN′-ik), of *psychic* origin, or (the terms are used more or less interchangeably although they differ somewhat in definition) *psychosomatic*, resulting from the interaction of mind and body. (*Psychogenic* is built on *psyche* plus Greek *genesis*, birth or origin.)

And your treatment? No drugs, no surgery—these may help the body, not the emotions. Instead, you "work out" (this is the term used in *psychoanalytic* [sī-kō-an′-ə-LIT′-ik] parlance) early trauma in talk, in remembering, in exploring, in interpreting, in reliving childhood experiences. And if your asthma is indeed *psychogenic* (or *psychosomatic*), therapy will very likely help you; your attacks may cease, either gradually or suddenly.

Freudian therapy is less popular today than formerly; many newer therapies—Gestalt, bioenergetics, transactional analysis, to name only a few—claim to produce quicker results.

In any case, *psychotherapy* (sī-kō-THAIR′-ə-pee) of one sort or another is the indicated treatment for *psychogenic* (or *psychosomatic*) disorders, or for any personality disturbances. The practitioner is a *psychotherapist* (sī-kō-THAIR′-ə-pist) or *therapist*, for short; the adjective is *psychotherapeutic* (sī-kō-thair′-ə-PYOO′-tik).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *psyche*	spirit, soul, mind
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *iatreia*	medical healing
ENGLISH WORD _____	

3. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

4. *soma* body

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *genesis* birth, origin

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *pathos* suffering, disease

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *psychology* sī-KOL′-ə-jee
2. *psychological* sī′-kə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *psyche* SĪ′-kee
4. *psychic* SĪ′-kik
5. *psychopathic* sī-kə-PATH′-ik
6. *psychopathy* sī-KOP′-ə-thee
7. *psychopath* SĪ′-kə-path
8. *psychosomatic* sī′-kō-sə-MAT′-ik
9. *psychoanalysis* sī′-kō-ə-NAL′-ə-sis
10. *psychoanalytic* sī-kō-an′-ə-LIT′-ik
11. *psychogenic* sī-kō-JEN′-ik

12. *psychotherapy*	sī-kō-THAIR′-ə-pee
13. *psychotherapist*	sī-kō-THAIR′-ə-pist
14. *psychotherapeutic*	sī-kō-thair′-ə-PYOO′-tik

Can you work with the words?

1. psychology	a. mental or emotional disturbance
2. psyche	b. psychological treatment based on Freudian techniques
3. psychic	c. general term for psychological treatment
4. psychopathy	d. originating in the mind or emotions
5. psychosomatic	e. one's inner or mental life, or self-image
6. psychoanalysis	f. study of the human mind and behavior
7. psychogenic	g. describing the interaction of mind and body
8. psychotherapy	h. pertaining to the mind; extrasensory
9. psychopath	i. person lacking in social conscience or inner censor

KEY: 1–f, 2–e, 3–h, 4–a, 5–g, 6–b, 7–d, 8–c, 9–i

Do you understand the words?

1. *Psychological* treatment aims at sharpening the intellect.
   TRUE FALSE
2. *Psychic* phenomena can be explained on rational or physical grounds
   TRUE FALSE
3. *Psychopathic* personalities are normal and healthy.
   TRUE FALSE
4. A *psychosomatic* symptom is caused by organic disease.
   TRUE FALSE
5. Every therapist uses *psychoanalysis.*
   TRUE FALSE
6. A *psychogenic* illness originates in the mind or emotions.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *psychotherapist* must have a medical degree.
   TRUE FALSE
8. *Psychoanalytically* oriented therapy uses Freudian techniques.
   TRUE FALSE
9. A *psychopath* is often a criminal.
   TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–F, 3–F, 4–F, 5–F, 6–T, 7–F, 8–T, 9–T

Can you recall the words?

1. one's inner or mental life, or self-image
   1. P_____
2. the adjective that denotes the interactions, especially in illness, between mind and body
   2. P_____
3. mentally or emotionally disturbed
   3. P_____
4. study of behavior
   4. P_____
5. extrasensory
   5. P_____
6. treatment by Freudian techniques
   6. P_____
7. pertaining to the study of behavior (*adj.*)
   7. P_____
8. of mental or emotional origin
   8. P_____
9. general term for treatment of emotional disorders
   9. P_____
10. antisocial person
    10. P_____

KEY: 1-psyche, 2–psychosomatic, 3–psychopathic, 4–psychology, 5–psychic, 6–psychoanalysis, 7–psychological, 8–psychogenic, 9–psychotherapy, 10–psychopath

(*End of Session 8*)

SESSION 9

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. the whole tooth

Orthodontist, as we discovered in Chapter 4, is built on *orthos*, straight, correct, plus *odontos*, tooth.

A *pedodontist* (pee′-dō-DON′-tist) specializes in the care of children's teeth—the title is constructed from *paidos*, child, plus *odontos*. The specialty: *pedodontia* (pee′-dō-DON′-sha); the adjective: *pedodontic* (pee′-dō-DON′-tik).

A *periodontist* (pair′-ee-ō-DON′-tist) is a gum specialist—the term combines *odontos* with the prefix *peri-*, around, surrounding. (As a quick glance in the mirror will tell you, the gums surround the teeth, more or less.)

Can you figure out the word for the specialty? _____

For the adjective? _____

An *endodontist* (en′-dō-DON′-tist) specializes in work on the pulp of the tooth and in root-canal therapy—the prefix in this term is *endo-*, from Greek *endon*, inner, within.

Try your hand again at constructing words. What is the specialty? _____. And the adjective? _____.

The prefix *ex-*, out, combines with *odontos* to form *exodontist* (eks′-ō-DON′-tist). What do you suppose, therefore, is the work in which this practitioner specializes? _____.
And the term for the specialty? _____.
For the adjective? _____.

2. measurement

The *optometrist*, by etymology, measures vision—the term is built on *opsis, optikos*, view, vision, plus *metron*, measurement.

Metron is the root in many other words:

1. *thermometer* (thər-MOM′-ə-tər)—an instrument to measure heat (Greek *therme*, heat).

2. *barometer* (bə-ROM′-ə-ter)—an instrument to measure atmospheric pressure (Greek *baros*, weight); the adjective is *barometric* (bair′-ə-MET′-rik).

3. *sphygmomanometer* (sfig′-mō-mə-NOM′-ə-tər)—a device for measuring blood pressure (Greek *sphygmos*, pulse).

4. *metric* system—a decimal system of weights and measures, long used in other countries and now gradually being adopted in the United States.

3. bones, feet, and hands

Osteopath combines Greek *osteon*, bone, with *pathos*, suffering, disease. *Osteopathy* (os′-tee-OP′-ə-thee), you will recall, was originally based on the theory that disease is caused by pressure of the bones on blood vessels and nerves. An *osteopathic* (os′-tee-ə-PATH′-ik) physician is *not* a bone specialist, despite the misleading etymology—and should not be confused with the *orthopedist*, who is.

The *podiatrist* (Greek *pous, podos*, foot, plus *iatreia*, medical healing) practices *podiatry* (pə-DĪ′-ə-tree). The adjective is *podiatric* (pō′-dee-AT′-rik).

The root *pous, podos* is found also in:

1. *octopus* (OK′-tə-pəs), the eight-armed (or, as the etymology has it, eight-footed) sea creature (Greek *okto*, eight).

2. *platypus* (PLAT′-ə-pəs), the strange water mammal with a duck's bill, webbed feet, and a beaver-like tail that reproduces by laying eggs (Greek *platys*, broad, flat—hence, by etymology, a flatfoot!).

3. *podium* (PŌ′-dee-əm), a speaker's platform, etymologically a place for the feet. (The suffix *-ium* often signifies "place where," as in *gymnasium, stadium, auditorium*, etc.)

4. *tripod* (TRĪ′-pod), a three-legged (or "footed") stand for a camera or other device (*tri-*, three).

5. *chiropodist* (kə-ROP′-ə-dist), earlier title for a *podiatrist*, and still often used. The specialty is *chiropody* (kə-ROP′-ə-dee).

Chiropody combines *podos* with Greek *cheir*, hand, spelled *chiro-* in English words. The term was coined in the days before labor-saving machinery and push-button devices, when people worked with their hands and developed calluses on their upper extremities as well as on their feet. Today most of us earn a livelihood in more sedentary occupations, and so we may develop calluses on less visible portions of our anatomy.

Chiropractors heal with their hands—the specialty is *chiropractic* (kī′-rō-PRAK′-tik).

Cheir (*chiro-*), hand, is the root in *chirography* (kī-ROG′-rə-fee). Recalling the *graph-* in *graphologist*, can you figure out by etymology what *chirography* is? _____

An expert in writing by hand, or in penmanship (a lost art in these days of electronic word-processing),[2] would be a *chirographer* (kī-ROG′-rə-fər); the adjective is *chirographic* (kī′-rō-GRAF′-ik).

If the suffix *-mancy* comes from a Greek word meaning *foretelling* or *prediction*, can you decide what *chiromancy* (KĪ′-rō-man′-see) must be? _____.

The person who practices *chiromancy* is a *chiromancer* (KĪ′-rō-man′-sər); the adjective is *chiromantic* (kī′-rō-MAN′-tik).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *orthos*	straight, correct
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *odontos*	tooth
ENGLISH WORD _____	

3. *paidos* (*ped-*) child

ENGLISH WORD _____

4. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *peri-* around, surrounding

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *endo-* inner, within

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *ex-* out

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *opsis, optikos* vision

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *metron* measurement

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *therme* heat

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *baros* weight

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *sphygmos* pulse

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *osteon* bone

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *pathos* suffering, disease

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *pous, podos* foot

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *okto* eight

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *platys* broad, flat

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-ium* place where

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *tri-* three

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *cheir* (*chiro-*) hand

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *mancy* prediction

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *iatreia* medical healing

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *pedodontist* pee′-dō-DON′-tist
2. *pedodontia* pee′-dō-DON′-shə

3. *pedodontic*	pee′-dō-DON′-tik
4. *periodontist*	pair′-ee-ō-DON′-tist
5. *periodontia*	pair′-ee-ō-DON′-shə
6. *periodontic*	pair′-ee-ō-DON′-tik
7. *endodontist*	en′-dō-DON′-tist
8. *endodontia*	en′-dō-DON′-shə
9. *endodontic*	en′-dō-DON′-tik
10. *exodontist*	eks′-ō-DON′-tist
11. *exodontia*	eks′-ō-DON′-shə
12. *exodontic*	eks′-ō-DON′-tik
13. *thermometer*	thər-MOM′-ə-tər
14. *barometer*	bə-ROM′-ə-tər
15. *barometric*	bair′-ə-MET′-rik
16. *sphygmomanometer*	sfig′-mō-mə-NOM′-ə-tər

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *osteopathy*	os′-tee-OP′-ə-thee
2. *osteopathic*	os′-tee-ə-PATH′-ik
3. *podiatry*	pə-DĪ′-ə-tree
4. *podiatric*	pō′-dee-AT′-rik
5. *octopus*	OK′-tə-pəs
6. *platypus*	PLAT′-ə-pəs
7. *podium*	PŌ′-dee-əm

8. *tripod*	TRĪ′-pod
9. *chiropodist*	kə-ROP′-ə-dist
10. *chiropody*	kə-ROP′-ə-dee
11. *chiropractic*	kī′-rō-PRAK′-tik
12. *chirography*	kī-ROG′-rə-fee
13. *chirographer*	kī-ROG′-rə-fər
14. *chirographic*	kī′-rə-GRAF′-ik
15. *chiromancy*	KĪ′-rə-man′-see
16. *chiromancer*	KĪ′-rə-man′-sər
17. *chiromantic*	kī′-rə-MAN′-tik

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. orthodontia	a. dental specialty involving the pulp and root canal
2. pedodontia	b. instrument that measures atmospheric pressure
3. periodontia	c. specialty arising from the theory that pressure of the bones on nerves and blood vessels may cause disease
4. endodontia	d. specialty of child dentistry
5. exodontia	e. blood-pressure apparatus
6. barometer	f. treatment of minor ailments of

the foot

7. sphygmomanometer	g. instrument to measure heat
8. osteopathy	h. specialty of tooth extraction
9. podiatry	i. specialty of tooth straightening
10. thermometer	j. specialty of the gums

KEY: 1–i, 2–d, 3–j, 4–a, 5–h, 6–b, 7–e, 8–c, 9–f, 10–g

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. octopus	a. speaker's platform
2. platypus	b. maintenance of integrity of the nervous system by manipulation and massage
3. podium	c. palm reading
4. chiropody	d. eight-armed sea creature
5. chiropractic	e. handwriting
6. chirography	f. treatment of minor ailments of the foot
7. chiromancy	g. egg-laying mammal with webbed feet

KEY: 1–d, 2–g, 3–a, 4–f, 5–b, 6–e, 7–c

Do you understand the words?

1. *Orthodontia* is a branch of dentistry.
   TRUE FALSE
2. Doctors use *sphygmomanometers* to check blood pressure.
   TRUE FALSE
3. *Osteopathic* physicians may use standard medical procedures.
   TRUE FALSE
4. *Chiropractic* deals with handwriting.
   TRUE FALSE
5. *Chiropody* and *podiatry* are synonymous terms.
   TRUE FALSE
6. A *podium* is a place from which a lecture might be delivered.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *pedodontist* is a foot doctor.
   TRUE FALSE
8. A *periodontist* is a gum specialist.
   TRUE FALSE
9. A *endodontist* does root-canal therapy.
   TRUE FALSE
10. An *exodontist* extracts teeth.
    TRUE FALSE
11. A *barometer* measures heat.
    TRUE FALSE
12. An *octopus* has eight arms.
    TRUE FALSE
13. A *platypus* is a land mammal.

TRUE FALSE

14. A *tripod* has four legs.

TRUE FALSE

15. A *chirographer* is an expert at penmanship.

TRUE FALSE

16. A *chiromancer* reads palms.

TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–T, 2–T, 3–T, 4–F, 5–T, 6–T, 7–F, 8–T, 9–T, 10–T, 11–F, 12–T, 13–F, 14–F, 15–T, 16–T

Do you recall the words? (I)

1. pertaining to child dentistry (*adj.*)
   1. P_____
2. pertaining to treatment of the foot (*adj.*)
   2. P_____
3. blood-pressure apparatus
   3. S_____
4. three-legged stand
   4. T_____
5. pertaining to the treatment of diseases by manipulation to relieve pressure of the bones on nerves and blood vessels (*adj.*)
   5. O_____
6. pertaining to handwriting (*adj.*)
   6. C_____
7. gum specialist
   7. P_____
8. treatment of ailments of the foot
   8. P_____ *or* C_____
9. stand for a speaker
   9. P_____
10. dentist specializing in treating the pulp of the tooth or in doing root-canal therapy
    10. E_____

KEY: 1–pedodontic, 2–podiatric, 3–sphygmomanometer, 4–tripod, 5–osteopathic, 6–chirographic, 7–periodontist, 8–podiatry *or* chiropody, 9–podium, 10–endodontist

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. pertaining to the specialty of tooth extraction (*adj.*)
   1. E_____
2. pertaining to the measurement of atmospheric pressure (*adj.*)
   2. B_____
3. palm reading (*noun*)
   3. C_____
4. handwriting
   4. C_____
5. the practice of manipulating bodily articulations to relieve ailments
   5. C_____
6. egg-laying mammal
   6. P_____
7. eight-armed sea creature
   7. O_____
8. instrument to measure heat
   8. T_____

KEY: 1–exodontic, 2–barometric, 3–chiromancy, 4–chirography, 5–chiropractic, 6–platypus, 7–octopus, 8–thermometer

(*End of Session 9*)

SESSION 10

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. writing and writers

The Greek verb *graphein*, to write, is the source of a great many English words.

We know that the *graphologist* analyzes handwriting, the term combining *graphein* with *logos*, science, study. The specialty is *graphology* (grə-FOL′-ə-jee), the adjective *graphological* (graf′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

Chirographer is built on *graphein* plus *cheir* (*chiro*-), hand. Though *chirography* may be a lost art, *calligraphy* (kə-LIG′-rə-fee) is enjoying a revival. For centuries before the advent of printing, *calligraphy*, or penmanship as an artistic expression, was practiced by monks.

A *calligrapher* (kə-LIG′-rə-fər) is called upon to design and write announcements, place cards, etc., as a touch of elegance. The adjective is *calligraphic* (kal′-ə-GRAF′-ik).

Calligraphy combines *graphein* with Greek *kallos*,[3] beauty, and so, by etymology, means *beautiful writing*.

If a word exists for artistic handwriting, there must be one for the opposite—bad, scrawly, or illegible handwriting. And indeed there is—*cacography* (kə-KOG′-rə-fee), combining *graphein* with Greek *kakos*, bad, harsh.

By analogy with the forms of *calligraphy*, can you write the word for:

One who uses bad or illegible handwriting?

_____.

Pertaining to, or marked by, bad handwriting (*adjective*)?

_____.

Graphein is found in other English words:

1. *cardiograph* (discussed in Chapter 4)—etymologically a "heart writer" (*kardia*, heart).

2. *photograph*—etymologically, "written by light" (Greek *photos*, light).

3. *phonograph*—etymologically, a "sound writer" (Greek *phone*, sound).

4. *telegraph*—etymologically a "distance writer" (Greek *tele-*, distance).

5. *biography*—etymologically "life writing" (Greek, *bios*, life). (Many of these new roots will be discussed in greater detail in later chapters.)

2. aging and the old

We know that a *geriatrician* specializes in the medical care of the elderly. The Greek word *geras*, old age, has a derived form, *geron*, old man, the root in *gerontologist.* The specialty is *gerontology* (jair′-ən-TOL′-ə-jee), the adjective is *gerontological* (jair′-ən-tə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

The Latin word for *old* is *senex*, the base on which *senile, senescent, senior*, and *senate* are built.

1. *senile* (SEE′-nīl)—showing signs of the physical and/or mental deterioration that generally marks very old age. The noun is *senility* (sə-NIL′-ə-tee).

2. *senescent* (sə-NES′-ənt)—aging, growing old. (Note the same suffix in this word as in *adolescent*, growing into an adult, *convalescent*, growing healthy again, and *obsolescent*, growing or becoming obsolete.) The noun is *senescence* (sə-NES′-əns).

3. *senior* (SEEN′-yər)—older. Noun: *seniority* (seen-YAWR′-ə-tee).

4. *senate* (SEN′-ət)—originally a council of older, and presumably wiser, citizens.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *graphein*	to write
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *cheir* (*chiro-*)	hand
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *kallos*	beauty
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *-er*	one who
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *-ic*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *pyge*	buttocks
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *kakos*	bad, harsh
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *kardia*	heart
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *photos*	light
ENGLISH WORD _____	
10. *tele-*	distance
ENGLISH WORD _____	
11. *bios*	life
ENGLISH WORD _____	

12. *geras* old age

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *geron* old man

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *senex* old

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-escent* growing, becoming

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *graphology* grə-FOL′-ə-jee
2. *graphological* graf′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *calligraphy* kə-LIG′-rə-fee
4. *calligrapher* kə-LIG′-rə-fər
5. *calligraphic* kal′-ə-GRAF′-ik
6. *callipygian* kal′-ə-PIJ′-ee-ən
7. *cacography* kə-KOG′-rə-fee
8. *cacographer* kə-KOG′-rə-fər
9. *cacographic* kak′-ə-GRAF′-ik
10. *gerontology* jair′-ən-TOL′-ə-jee
11. *gerontological* jair′-ən-tə-LOJ′-ə-kəl

12. *senile*	SEE′-nīl
13. *senility*	sə-NIL′-ə-tee
14. *senescent*	sə-NES′-ənt
15. *senescence*	sə-NES′-əns

Can you work with the words?

1. graphology	a. possessed of beautiful buttocks
2. calligraphy	b. science of the social, economic, etc. problems of the aged
3. callipygian	c. condition of aging or growing old
4. cacography	d. deteriorated old age
5. gerontology	e. analysis of handwriting
6. senility	f. ugly, bad, illegible handwriting
7. senescence	g. beautiful handwriting; handwriting as an artistic expression

KEY: 1–e, 2–g, 3–a, 4–f, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c

Do you understand the words?

1. *Graphology* analyzes the grammar, spelling, and sentence structure of written material.

   TRUE FALSE

2. A *calligrapher* creates artistic forms out of alphabetical symbols.

   TRUE FALSE

3. Tight slacks are best worn by those of *callipygian* anatomy.

   TRUE FALSE

4. *Cacographic* writing is easy to read.

   TRUE FALSE

5. *Gerontology* aims to help old people live more comfortably.

   TRUE FALSE

6. *Senile* people are old but still vigorous and mentally alert.

   TRUE FALSE

7. In a society dedicated to the worship of youth, *senescence* is not an attractive prospect.

   TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–T, 3–T, 4–F, 5–T, 6–F, 7–T

Can you recall the words?

1. pertaining to the study of the non-medical problems of the aged (*adj.*)
   1. G _____
2. growing old (*adj.*)
   2. S _____
3. pertaining to handwriting as an artistic expression (*adj.*)
   3. C _____
4. one who uses ugly, illegible handwriting
   4. C _____
5. mentally and physically deteriorated from old age
   5. S _____
6. pertaining to the analysis of handwriting (*adj.*)
   6. G _____
7. possessed of beautiful or shapely buttocks
   7. C _____

KEY: 1–gerontological, 2–senescent, 3–calligraphic, 4–cacographer, 5–senile, 6–graphological, 7–callipygian

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Practitioner trained in Freudian techniques: (a) psychologist, (b) psychoanalyst, (c) psychotherapist
2. Foot doctor: (a) podiatrist, (b) osteopath, (c) chiropractor
3. Handwriting analyst: (a) graphologist, (b) chirographer, (c) cacographer
4. Mentally or emotionally disturbed: (a) psychological, (b) psychopathic, (c) psychic
5. Originating in the emotions: (a) psychic, (b) psychogenic, (c) psychoanalytic
6. Describing bodily ailments tied up with the emotions: (a) psychosomatic, (b) psychopathic, (c) psychiatric
7. Gum specialist: (a) periodontist, (b) pedodontist, (c) endodontist
8. Specialist in tooth extraction: (a) orthodontist, (b) exodontist, (c) endodontist
9. Blood-pressure apparatus: (a) barometer, (b) thermometer, (c) sphygmomanometer
10. Prediction by palm reading: (a) chirography, (b) chiropody, (c) chiromancy
11. Possessed of a shapely posterior: (a) calligraphic, (b) callipygian, (c) adolescent
12. Artistic handwriting: (a) calligraphy, (b) chirography, (c) graphology
13. Growing old: (a) senile, (b) geriatric, (c) senescent

14. Medical specialty dealing with the aged: (a) gerontology, (b) geriatrics, (c) chiropractic
15. Antisocial person who may commit criminal acts: (a) psychopath, (b) sociopath, (c) osteopath

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–a, 4–b, 5–b, 6–a, 7–a, 8–b, 9–c, 10–c, 11–b, 12–a, 13–c, 14–b, 15–a *and b*

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *psyche*	_____
EXAMPLE psychiatry	
2. *iatreia*	_____
EXAMPLE podiatry	
3. *soma*	_____
EXAMPLE psychosomatic	
4. *pathos*	_____
EXAMPLE osteopath	
5. *orthos*	_____
EXAMPLE orthodontia	
6. *paidos* (*ped-*)	_____
EXAMPLE pedodontist	
7. *odontos*	_____
EXAMPLE exodontist	
8. *pous, podos*	_____
EXAMPLE platypus	

9. *cheir* (*chiro-*) _____

EXAMPLE chiropodist

10. *okto* _____

EXAMPLE octopus

11. *graphein* _____

EXAMPLE graphology

12. *kallos* _____

EXAMPLE calligraphy

13. *pyge* _____

EXAMPLE callipygian

14. *kakos* _____

EXAMPLE cacography

15. *photos* _____

EXAMPLE photography

16. *tele-* _____

EXAMPLE telegraph

17. *bios* _____

EXAMPLE biography

18. *geras* _____

EXAMPLE geriatrics

19. *geron* _____

EXAMPLE gerontology

20. *senex* _____

EXAMPLE senate

KEY: 1–mind, 2–medical healing, 3–body, 4–disease, 5–straight, correct, 6–child, 7–tooth, 8–foot, 9–hand, 10–eight, 11–to write, 12–beauty, 13–buttocks, 14–bad, ugly, 15–light, 16–distance, 17–life, 18–old age, 19–old man, 20–old.

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. Latin *octoginta* is a root related to Greek *okto*, eight. How old is an *octogenarian* (ok′-tə-jə-NAIR′-ee-ən)? _____

2. You are familiar with *kakos*, bad, harsh, as in *cacography*, and with *phone*, sound, as in *phonograph*. Can you construct a word ending in the letter *y* that means *harsh, unpleasant sound?* _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

3. Using *callipygian* as a model, can you construct a word to describe an ugly, unshapely rear end? _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

4. Using the prefix *tele-*, distance, can you think of the word for a field glass that permits the viewer to see great distances? _____. How about a word for the instrument that transmits sound over a distance? _____. Finally, what is it that makes it possible for you to view happenings that occur a great distance away? _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

BECOMING WORD-CONSCIOUS

Perhaps, if you have been working as assiduously with this book as I have repeatedly counseled, you have noticed an interesting

phenomenon.

This phenomenon is as follows: You read a magazine article and suddenly you see one or more of the words you have recently learned. Or you open a book and there again are some of the words you have been working with. In short, all your reading seems to call to your attention the very words you've been studying.

Why? Have I, with uncanny foresight, picked words which have suddenly and inexplicably become popular among writers? Obviously, that's nonsense.

The change is in you. You have now begun to be alert to words, you have developed what is known in psychology as a "mind-set" toward certain words. Therefore, whenever these words occur in your reading you take special notice of them.

The same words occurred before—and just as plentifully—but since they presented little communication to you, you reacted to them with an unseeing eye, with an ungrasping mind. You were figuratively, and almost literally, blind to them.

Do you remember when you bought, or contemplated buying, a new car? Let's say it was a Toyota. Suddenly you began to see Toyotas all around you—you had a Toyota "mind-set."

It is thus with anything new in your life. Development of a "mind-set" means that the new experience has become very real, very important, almost vital.

If you have become suddenly alert to the new words you have been learning, you're well along toward your goal of building a superior vocabulary. *You are beginning to live in a new and different intellectual atmosphere—nothing less!*

On the other hand, if the phenomenon I have been describing has not yet occurred, do not despair. It will. I am alerting you to its possibilities—recognize it and welcome it when it happens.

(*End of Session 10*)

[1] *Psychopathy* is usually characterized by antisocial and extremely egocentric behavior. A *psychopath* (SĪ′-kə-path′), sometimes called a *psychopathic personality*, appears to be lacking an inner moral censor, and often commits criminal acts, without anxiety or guilt, in order to obtain immediate gratification of desires. Such a person may be utterly lacking in sexual restraint, or addicted to hard drugs. Some psychologists prefer the label *sociopath* (SŌ′-shee-ə-path′ *or* SŌ′-see-ə-path′) for this type of personality to indicate the absence of a social conscience.

[2] But see *calligrapher* in the next session.

[3] An entrancing word that also derives from *kallos* is *callipygian* (kal′-ə-PIJ′-ee-ən), an adjective describing a shapely or attractive rear end, or a person so endowed—the combining root is *pyge*, buttocks.

Brief Intermission Three

HOW GRAMMAR CHANGES

If you think that grammar is an exact science, get ready for a shock. Grammar is a science, all right—but it is most inexact. There are no inflexible laws, no absolutely hard and fast rules, no unchanging principles. Correctness varies with the times and depends much more on geography, on social class, and on collective human caprice than on the restrictions found in textbooks.

In mathematics, which is an exact science, five and five make ten the country over—in the North, in the South, in the West; in Los Angeles and Coral Gables and New York. There are no two opinions on the matter—we are dealing, so far as we know, with a universal and indisputable fact.

In grammar, however, since the facts are highly susceptible to change, we have to keep an eye peeled for trends. What are educated people saying these days? Which expressions are generally used and accepted on educated levels, which others are more or less restricted to the less educated levels of speech? The answers to these questions indicate the trend of usage in the United States, and if such trends come in conflict with academic rules, then the rules are no longer of any great importance.

Grammar follows the speech habits of the majority of educated people—not the other way around. That is the important point to keep in mind.

The following notes on current trends in modern usage are intended to help you come to a decision about certain controversial

expressions. As you read each sentence, pay particular attention to the italicized word or words. Does the usage square with your own language patterns? Would you be willing to phrase your thoughts in just such terms? Decide whether the sentence is right or wrong, then compare your conclusion with the opinions given following the test.

TEST YOURSELF

1. Let's keep this between you and *I*.
   RIGHT WRONG
2. I'm your best friend, *ain't* I?
   RIGHT WRONG
3. Five and five *is* ten.
   RIGHT WRONG
4. I never saw a man get so *mad*.
   RIGHT WRONG
5. Every one of his sisters *are* unmarried.
   RIGHT WRONG
6. He visited an *optometrist* for an eye operation.
   RIGHT WRONG
7. Do you *prophecy* another world war?
   RIGHT WRONG
8. *Leave* us not mention it.
   RIGHT WRONG
9. If you expect to *eventually succeed*, you must keep trying.
   RIGHT WRONG

1. Let's keep this between you and *I*.

WRONG. Children are so frequently corrected by parents and teachers when they say *me* that they cannot be blamed if they begin to think that this simple syllable is probably a naughty word.

Dialogues such as the following are certainly typical of many households.

"Mother, can me and Johnnie go out and play?"

"No, dear, not until you say it correctly. You mean 'May Johnnie and I go out to play?' "

"Who wants a jelly apple?"

"Me!"

"Then use the proper word."

(The child becomes a little confused at this point—there seem to be so many "proper" and "improper" words.)

"Me, *please!*"

"No, dear, not *me.*"

"Oh. *I*, please?"

(This sounds terrible to a child's ear. It completely violates his sense of language, but he does want the jelly apple, so he grudgingly conforms.)

"Who broke my best vase?"

"It wasn't me!"

"Is that good English, Johnnie?"

"Okay, it wasn't I. But honest, Mom, it wasn't me—I didn't even touch it!"

And so, if the child is strong enough to survive such constant corrections, he decides that whenever there is room for doubt, it is safer to say *I.*

Some adults, conditioned in childhood by the kind of misguided censorship detailed here, are likely to believe that "between you and *I*" is the more elegant form of expression, but most educated speakers, obeying the rule that a preposition governs the objective pronoun, say "between you and *me.*"

2. I'm your best friend, *ain't* I?

WRONG. As linguistic scholars have frequently pointed out, it is unfortunate that *ain't I?* is unpopular in educated speech, for the phrase fills a long-felt need. *Am I not?* is too prissy for down-to-earth people; *amn't I?* is ridiculous; and *aren't I*, though popular in England, has never really caught on in America. With a sentence

like the one under discussion you are practically in a linguistic trap—there is no way out unless you are willing to choose between appearing illiterate, sounding prissy, or feeling ridiculous.

"What is the matter with *ain't I?* for *am I not?*" language scholar Wallace Rice once wrote. "Nothing whatever, save that a number of minor grammarians object to it. *Ain't I?* has a pleasant sound once the ears are unstopped of prejudice." Mr. Rice has a valid point there, yet educated people avoid *ain't I?* as if it were catching. In all honesty, therefore, I must say to you: don't use *ain't I?*, except humorously. What is a safe substitute? Apparently none exists, so I suggest that you manage, by some linguistic calisthenics, to avoid having to make a choice. Otherwise you may find yourself in the position of being damned if you do and damned if you don't.

3. Five and five *is* ten.

RIGHT. But don't jump to the conclusion that "five and five *are* ten" is wrong—both verbs are equally acceptable in this or any similar construction. If you prefer to think of "five-and-five" as a single mathematical concept, say *is*. If you find it more reasonable to consider "five and five" a plural idea, say *are*. The teachers I've polled on this point are about evenly divided in preference, and so, I imagine, are the rest of us. Use whichever verb has the greater appeal to your sense of logic.

4. I never saw a man get so *mad*.

RIGHT. When I questioned a number of authors and editors about their opinion of the acceptability of *mad* as a synonym for *angry*, the typical reaction was: "Yes, I say *mad*, but I always feel a little guilty when I do."

Most people do say *mad* when they are sure there is no English teacher listening; it's a good sharp word, everybody understands exactly what it means, and it's a lot stronger than *angry*, though not quite as violent as *furious* or *enraged*. In short, *mad* has a special implication offered by no other word in the English language; as a consequence, educated people use it as the occasion demands and it is perfectly correct. So correct, in fact, that every authoritative

dictionary lists it as a completely acceptable usage. If you feel guilty when you say *mad*, even though you don't mean *insane*, it's time you stopped plaguing your conscience with trivialities.

5. Every one of his sisters *are* unmarried.

WRONG. *Are* is perhaps the more logical word, since the sentence implies that he has more than one sister and they are all unmarried. In educated speech, however, the tendency is to make the verb agree with the subject, even if logic is violated in the process—and the better choice here would be *is*, agreeing with the singular subject, *every one.*

6. He visited an *optometrist* for an eye operation.

WRONG. If the gentleman in question did indeed need an operation, he went to the wrong doctor. In most states, optometrists are forbidden by law to perform surgery or administer drugs—they may only prescribe and fit glasses. And they are not medical doctors. The M.D. who specializes in the treatment of eye diseases, and who may operate when necessary, is an *ophthalmologist.* (See Chapter 4.)

7. Do you *prophecy* another world war?

WRONG. Use *prophecy* only when you mean *prediction*, a noun. When you mean *predict*, a verb, as in this sentence, use *prophesy*. This distinction is simple and foolproof. Therefore we properly say: "His *prophecy* (*prediction*) turned out to be true," but "He really seems able to *prophesy* (*predict*) political trends." There is a distinction also in the pronunciation of these two words. *Prophecy* is pronounced PROF′-ə-see; *prophesy* is pronunced PROF′-ə-sī′.

8. *Leave* us not mention it.

WRONG. On the less sophisticated levels of American speech, *leave* is a popular substitute for *let.* On educated levels, the following distinction is carefully observed: *let* means *allow; leave* means *depart.* (There are a few idiomatic exceptions to this rule, but they present no problem.) "*Let* me go" is preferable to "*Leave* me go" even on the

most informal of occasions, and a sentence like "*Leave* us not mention it" is not considered standard English.

9. If you expect to *eventually succeed*, you must keep trying.

RIGHT. We have here, in case you're puzzled, an example of that notorious bugbear of academic grammar, the "split infinitive." (An infinitive is a verb preceded by *to: to succeed, to fail, to remember.*)

Splitting an infinitive is not at all difficult—you need only insert a word between the *to* and the verb: *to eventually succeed, to completely fail, to quickly remember.*

Now that you know how to split an infinitive, the important question is, is it legal to do so? I am happy to be able to report to you that it is not only legal, it is also ethical, moral, and sometimes more effective than to not split it. Benjamin Franklin, Washington Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Theodore Roosevelt, and Woodrow Wilson, among many others, were unconscionable infinitive splitters. And modern writers are equally partial to the construction.

To bring this report up to the minute, I asked a number of editors about their attitude toward the split infinitive. Here are two typical reactions.

An editor at Doubleday and Company: "The restriction against the split infinitive is, to my mind, the most artificial of all grammatical rules. I find that most educated people split infinitives regularly in their speech, and only eliminate them from their writing when they rewrite and polish their material."

An editor at *Reader's Digest:* "I want to defend the split infinitive. The construction adds to the strength of the sentence—it's compact and clear. This is to loudly say that I split an infinitive whenever I can catch one."

And here, finally, is the opinion of humorist James Thurber, as quoted by Rudolf Flesch in *The Art of Plain Talk:* "Word has somehow got around that the split infinitive is always wrong. This is of a piece with the outworn notion that it is always wrong to strike a lady."

I think the evidence is conclusive enough—it is perfectly correct to consciously split an infinitive whenever such an act increases the

strength or clarity of your sentence.

6

HOW TO TALK ABOUT SCIENCE AND SCIENTISTS

(*Sessions 11–13*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What scientist:
is interested in the development of the human race?
is a student of the heavens?
explores the physical qualities of the earth?
studies all living matter?
is a student of plant life?
is a student of animal life?
is professionally involved in insects?
is a student of language?
is a student of the psychological effects of words?
studies the culture, structure, and customs of different societies?

SESSION 11

A true scientist lives up to the etymological meaning of his title "one who knows." Anything scientific is based on facts—observable facts that can be recorded, tested, checked, and verified.

Science, then, deals with human knowledge—as far as it has gone. It has gone very far indeed since the last century or two, when we stopped basing our thinking on guesses, wishes, theories that had no foundation in reality, and concepts of how the world *ought* to be; and instead began to explore the world as it *was*, and not only the world but the whole universe. From Galileo, who looked through the first telescope atop a tower in Pisa, Italy, through Pasteur, who watched microbes through a microscope, to Einstein, who deciphered riddles of the universe by means of mathematics, we have at last begun to fill in a few areas of ignorance.

Who are some of the more important explorers of knowledge—and by what terms are they known?

IDEAS

1. whither mankind?

The field is all mankind—how we developed in mind and body from primitive cultures and early forms.

An *anthropologist*

2. what's above?

The field is the heavens and all that's in them—planets, galaxies, stars, and other universes.

An *astronomer*

3. and what's below?

The field is the comparatively little and insignificant whirling ball on which we live—the earth. How did our planet come into being, what is it made of, how were its mountains, oceans, rivers, plains, and valleys formed, and what's down deep if you start digging?

A *geologist*

4. what is life?

The field is all living organisms—from the simplest one-celled amoeba to the amazingly complex and mystifying structure we call a human being. Plant or animal, flesh or vegetable, denizen of water, earth, or air—if it lives and grows, this scientist wants to know more about it.

A *biologist*

5. flora

Biology classifies life into two great divisions—plant and animal. This scientist's province is the former category—flowers, trees, shrubs, mosses, marine vegetation, blossoms, fruits, seeds, grasses, and all the rest that make up the plant kingdom.

A *botanist*

6. and fauna

Animals of every description, kind, and condition, from birds to bees, fish to fowl, reptiles to humans, are the special area of exploration of this scientist.

A *zoologist*

7. and all the little bugs

There are over 650,000 different species of insects, and millions of individuals of every species—and this scientist is interested in every one

of them.

An *entomologist*

8. tower of Babel

This linguistic scientist explores the subtle, intangible, elusive uses of that unique tool that distinguishes human beings from all other forms of life—to wit: language. This person is, in short, a student of linguistics, ancient and modern, primitive and cultured, Chinese, Hebrew, Icelandic, Slavic, Teutonic, and every other kind spoken now or in the past by human beings, not excluding that delightful hodgepodge known as "pidgin English," in which a piano is described as "big box, you hit 'um in teeth, he cry," and in which Hamlet's famous quandary, "To be or not to be, that is the question…," is translated into "Can do, no can do—how fashion?"

A *philologist*

9. what do you really mean?

This linguistic scientist explored the subtle, intangible, elusive relationship between language and thinking, between meaning and words; and is interested in determining the psychological causes and effects of what people say and write.

A *semanticist*

10. who are your friends and neighbors?

This scientist is a student of the ways in which people live together, their family and community structures and customs, their housing, their social relationships, their forms of government, and their layers of caste and class.

A *sociologist*

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *anthropologist*	an′-thrə-POL′-ə-jist
2. *astronomer*	ə-STRON′-ə-mər
3. *geologist*	jee-OL′-ə-jist
4. *biologist*	bī-OL′-ə-jist
5. *botanist*	BOT′-ə-nist
6. *zoologist*	zō-OL′-ə-jist
7. *entomologist*	en′-tə-MOL′-ə-jist
8. *philologist*	fə-LOL′-ə-jist
9. *semanticist*	sə-MAN′-tə-sist
10. *sociologist*	sō-shee-OL′-ə-jist *or* sō′-see-OL′-ə-jist

Can you work with the words?

SCIENTIST	PROFESSIONAL FIELD
1. anthropologist	a. community and family life
2. astronomer	b. meanings and psychological effects of words
3. geologist	c. development of the human race
4. biologist	d. celestial phenomena
5. botanist	e. language
6. zoologist	f. insect forms
7. entomologist	g. the earth
8. philologist	h. all forms of living matter
9. semanticist	i. animal life
10. sociologist	j. plant life

KEY: 1–c, 2–d, 3–g, 4–h, 5–j, 6–i, 7–f, 8–e, 9–b, 10–a

Can you recall the words?

1. insects
    1. E _____
2. language
    2. P _____
3. social conditions
    3. S _____
4. history of development of mankind
    4. A _____
5. meanings of words
    5. S _____
6. plants
    6. B _____
7. the earth
    7. G _____
8. the heavenly bodies
    8. A _____
9. all living things
    9. B _____
10. animals
    10. Z _____

KEY: 1–entomologist, 2–philologist, 3–sociologist, 4–anthropologist, 5–semanticist, 6–botanist, 7–geologist, 8–astronomer, 9–biologist, 10–zoologist

(*End of Session 11*)

SESSION 12

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. people and the stars

Anthropologist is constructed from roots we are familiar with—*anthropos*, mankind, and *logos*, science, study.

The science is *anthropology* (an′-thrə-POL′-ə-jee). Can you write the adjective form of this word? _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

Astronomer is built on Greek *astron*, star, and *nomos*, arrangement, law, or order. The *astronomer* is interested in the arrangement of stars and other celestial bodies. The science is *astronomy* (ə-STRON′-ə-mee), the adjective is *astronomical* (as′-trə-NOM′-ə-kəl), a word often used in a non-heavenly sense, as in "the *astronomical* size of the national debt." *Astronomy* deals in such enormous distances (the sun, for example, is 93,000,000 miles from the earth, and light from stars travels toward the earth at 186,000 miles per *second*) that the adjective *astronomical* is applied to any tremendously large figure.

Astron, star, combines with *logos* to form *astrology* (ə-STROL′-ə-jee), which assesses the influence of planets and stars on human events. The practitioner is an *astrologer* (ə-STROL′-ə-jər). Can you form the adjective? _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

By etymology, an *astronaut* (AS′-trə-not′) is a sailor among the stars (Greek *nautes*, sailor). This person is termed with somewhat less exaggeration a *cosmonaut* (KOZ′-mə-not′) by the Russians (Greek, *kosmos*, universe). *Nautical* (NOT′-ə-kəl), relating to sailors, sailing, ships, or navigation, derives also from *nautes*, and *nautes* in turn is from Greek *naus*, ship—a root used in *nausea* (etymologically, ship-sickness or seasickness!).

Aster (AS′-tər) is a star shaped flower. *Asterisk* (AS′-tə-risk), a star-shaped symbol (*), is generally used in writing or printing to direct the reader to look for a footnote. *Astrophysics* (as′-trə-FIZ′-iks) is that branch of physics dealing with heavenly bodies.

Disaster (də-ZAS′-tər) and *disastrous* (də-ZAS′-trəs) also come from *astron*, star. In ancient times it was believed that the stars ruled human destiny; any misfortune or calamity, therefore, happened to someone because the stars were in opposition. (*Dis-*, a prefix of many meanings, in this word signifies *against.*)

Nomos, arrangement, law, or order, is found in two other interesting English words.

For example, if you can make your own laws for yourself, if you needn't answer to anyone else for what you do, in short, if you are independent, then you enjoy *autonomy* (aw-TON′-ə-mee), a word that combines *nomos*, law, with *autos*, self. *Autonomy*, then, is self-law, self-government. The fifty states in our nation are fairly *autonomous* (aw-TON′-ə-məs), but not completely so. On the other hand, in most colleges each separate department is pretty much *autonomous.* And of course, one of the big reasons for the revolution of 1776 was that America wanted *autonomy*, rather than control by England.

You know the instrument that beginners at the piano use to guide their timing? A pendulum swings back and forth, making an audible click at each swing, and in that way governs or orders the measure (or timing) of the player. Hence it is called a *metronome* (MET′-rə-nōm′), a word that combines *nomos* with *metron*, measurement.

2. the earth and its life

Geologist derives from Greek *ge* (*geo-*), earth. The science is *geology* (jee-OL′-ə-jee). Can you write the adjective? _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

Geometry (jee-OM′-ə-tree)—*ge* plus *metron*—by etymology "measurement of the earth," is that branch of mathematics treating of the measurement and properties of solid and plane figures, such as angles, triangles, squares, spheres, prisms, etc. (The etymology of the word shows that this ancient science was originally concerned with the measurement of land and spaces on the earth.)

The mathematician is a *geometrician* (jee′-ə-mə-TRISH′-ən), the adjective is *geometric* (jee′-ə-MET′-rik).

Geography (jee-OG′-rə-fee) is writing about (*graphein*, to write), or mapping, the earth. A practitioner of the science is a *geographer* (jee-OG′-

rə-fər), the adjective is *geographic* (jee-ə-GRAF′-ik).

(The name *George* is also derived from *ge* (*geo-*), earth, plus *ergon*, work—the first George was an earth-worker or farmer.)

Biologist combines *bios*, life, with *logos*, science, study. The science is *biology* (bī-OL′-ə-jee). The adjective? _____.

Bios, life, is also found in *biography* (bī-OG′-rə-fee), writing about someone's *life; autobiography* (aw′-tə-bī-OG′-rə-fee), the story of one's *life* written by *oneself;* and *biopsy* (BĪ′-op-see), a medical examination, or view (*opsis, optikos*, view, vision), generally through a microscope, of living tissue, frequently performed when cancer is suspected. A small part of the tissue is cut from the affected area and under the microscope its cells can be investigated for evidence of malignancy. A *biopsy* is contrasted with an *autopsy* (AW′-top-see), which is a medical examination of a corpse in order to discover the cause of death. The *autos* in *autopsy* means, as you know, *self*—in an *autopsy*, etymologically speaking, the surgeon or pathologist determines, by actual view or sight rather than by theorizing (i.e., "by viewing or seeing for oneself"), what brought the corpse to its present grievous state.

Botanist is from Greek *botane*, plant. The field is *botany* (BOT′-ə-nee); the adjective is *botanical* (bə-TAN′-ə-kəl).

Zoologist is from Greek *zoion*, animal. The science is *zoology*. The adjective? _____. The combination of the two *o*'s tempts many people to pronounce the first three letters of these words in one syllable, thus: *zoo*. However, the two *o*'s should be separated, as in *co-operate*, even though no hyphen is used in the spelling to indicate such separation. Say zō-OL′-ə-jist, zō-OL′-ə-jee, zō′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl. *Zoo*, a park for animals, is a shortened form of *zoological gardens*, and is, of course, pronounced in one syllable.

The *zodiac* (ZŌ′-dee-ak) is a diagram, used in astrology, of the paths of the sun, moon, and planets; it contains, in part, Latin names for various animals—*scorpio*, scorpion; *leo*, lion; *cancer*, crab; *taurus*, bull; *aries*, ram; and *pisces*, fish. Hence its derivation from *zoion*, animal.

The adjective is *zodiacal* (zō-DĪ′-ə-kəl).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *anthropos*	mankind
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *logos*	science, study
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *astron*	star
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *nautes*	sailor
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *naus*	ship
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *dis-*	against
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *nomos*	arrangement, law, order
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *autos*	self
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *metron*	measurement
ENGLISH WORD _____	
10. *ge* (*geo-*)	earth
ENGLISH WORD _____	
11. *graphein*	to write
ENGLISH WORD _____	
12. *bios*	life
ENGLISH WORD _____	

13. *opsis, optikos* view, vision, sight

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *botane* plant

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *zoion* animal

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *anthropology* an′-thrə-POL′-ə-jee
2. *anthropological* an′-thrə-pə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *astronomy* ə-STRON′-ə-mee
4. *astronomical* as′-trə-NOM′-ə-kəl
5. *astrology* ə-STROL′-ə-jee
6. *astrological* as′-trə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
7. *astronaut* AS′-trə-not′
8. *cosmonaut* KOZ′-mə-not′
9. *nautical* NOT′-ə-kəl
10. *aster* AS′-tər
11. *asterisk* AS′-tə-risk
12. *disaster* də-ZAS′-tər
13. *disastrous* də-ZAS′-trəs

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *geology* jee-OL′-ə-jee
2. *geological* jee′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *geometry* jee-OM′-ə-tree
4. *geometrician* jee′-ə-mə-TRISH′-ən
5. *geometric* jee-ə-MET′-rik
6. *geography* jee-OG′-rə-fee
7. *geographer* jee-OG′-rə-fər
8. *geographical* jee′-ə-GRAF′-ə-kəl
9. *biology* bī-OL′-ə-jee
10. *biological* bī′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
11. *biography* bī-OG′-rə-fee
12. *biographer* bī-OG′-rə-fər
13. *biographical* bī′-ə-GRAF′-ə-kəl

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *autonomy* aw-TON′-ə-mee
2. *autonomous* aw-TON′-ə-məs
3. *metronome* MET′-rə-nōm′
4. *autobiography* aw′-tə-bī-OG′-rə-fee
5. *autobiographer* aw′-tə-bī-OG′-rə-fər
6. *autobiographical* aw-tə-bī′-ə-GRAF′-ə-kəl
7. *biopsy* BĪ′-op-see
8. *autopsy* AW′-top-see
9. *botany* BOT′-ə-nee
10. *botanical* bə-TAN′-ə-kəl

11. *zoology*	zō-OL′-ə-jee
12. *zoological*	zō-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
13. *zodiac*	ZŌ′-dee-ak
14. *zodiacal*	zō-DĪ′-ə-kəl

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. anthropology	a. theory of the influence of planets and stars on human events
2. astronomy	b. science of earth-mapping
3. astrology	c. science of all living matter
4. geology	d. science of human development
5. biology	e. science of plants
6. geometry	f. science of the composition of the earth
7. botany	g. science of animal life
8. zoology	h. science of the heavens
9. geography	i. mathematical science of figures, shapes, etc.

KEY: 1–d, 2–h, 3–a, 4–f, 5–c, 6–i, 7–e, 8–g, 9–b

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. autopsy	a. “sailor among the stars”
2. biopsy	b. star-shaped flower
3. biography	c. story of one’s own life
4. autobiography	d. dissection and examination of a corpse to determine the cause of death
5. zodiac	e. great misfortune
6. astronaut	f. “sailor of the universe”
7. cosmonaut	g. story of someone’s life
8. aster	h. diagram of paths of sun, moon, and planets
9. disaster	i. instrument to measure musical time
10. autonomy	j. self-rule
11. metronome	k. examination of living tissue

KEY: 1–d, 2–k, 3–g, 4–c, 5–h, 6–a, 7–f, 8–b, 9–e, 10–j, 11–i

Do you understand the words?

1. Are *anthropological* studies concerned with plant life?
   YES NO
2. Are *astronomical* numbers extremely small?
   YES NO
3. Is an *astrologer* interested in the time and date of your birth?
   YES NO
4. Are *nautical* maneuvers carried on at sea?
   YES NO
5. Does a *disastrous* earthquake take a huge toll of life and property?
   YES NO
6. Do *geological* investigations sometimes determine where oil is to be found?
   YES NO
7. Does a *geometrician* work with mathematics?
   YES NO
8. Do *geographical* shifts in population sometimes affect the economy of an area?
   YES NO
9. Does a *biographical* novel deal with the life of a real person?
   YES NO
10. Is *botany* a biological science?
    YES NO
11. Is the United States politically *autonomous?*
    YES NO
12. Is a *biopsy* performed on a dead body?
    YES NO
13. Is a *metronome* used in the study of mathematics?
    YES NO

14. Is an *autopsy* performed to correct a surgical problem?

    YES NO

15. Does an author write an *autobiography* about someone else's life?

    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–yes, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–yes, 11–yes, 12–no, 13–no, 14–no, 15–no

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. pertaining to the science of animals (*adj.*)
   1. Z_____
2. pertaining to the science of plants (*adj.*)
   2. B_____
3. dissection of a corpse to determine the cause of death
   3. A_____
4. story of one's life, self-written
   4. A_____
5. pertaining to the science of all living matter (*adj.*)
   5. B_____
6. science of the measurement of figures
   6. G_____
7. pertaining to the science of the earth's composition (*adj.*)
   7. G_____
8. branch of physics dealing with the composition of celestial bodies
   8. A_____
9. star-shaped flower
   9. A_____
10. very high in number; pertaining to the science of the heavens (*adj.*)
    10. A_____
11. science of heavenly bodies
    11. A_____
12. science of the development of mankind
    12. A_____
13. person who believes human events are influenced by the paths of the sun, moon, and planets
    13. A_____

KEY: 1–zoological, 2–botanical, 3–autopsy, 4–autobiography, 5–biological, 6–geometry, 7–geological, 8–astrophysics, 9–aster, 10–astronomical, 11–astronomy, 12–anthropology, 13–astrologer

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. microscopic examination of living tissue
   1. B_____
2. self-government
   2. A_____
3. time measurer for music
   3. M_____
4. voyager among the stars
   4. A_____
5. traveler through the universe
   5. C_____
6. great misfortune
   6. D_____
7. mapping of the earth (*noun*)
   7. G_____
8. self-governing (*adj.*)
   8. A_____
9. diagram used in astrology
   9. Z_____
10. pertaining to such a diagram (*adj.*)
    10. Z_____
11. pertaining to ships, sailing, etc.
    11. N_____
12. star-shaped symbol
    12. A_____
13. story of a person's life
    13. B_____

KEY: 1–biopsy, 2–autonomy, 3–metronome, 4–astronaut, 5–cosmonaut, 6–disaster, 7–geography, 8–autonomous, 9–zodiac, 10–zodiacal, 11–nautical, 12–asterisk, 13–biography

(*End of Session 12*)

SESSION 13

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. cutting in and out

Flies, bees, beetles, wasps, and other insects are segmented creatures—head, thorax, and abdomen. Where these parts join, there appears to the imaginative eye a "cutting in" of the body.

Hence the branch of zoology dealing with insects is aptly named *entomology*, from Greek *en-*, in, plus *tome*, a cutting. The adjective is *entomological* (en′-tə-mə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

(The word *insect* makes the same point—it is built on Latin *in-* in, plus *sectus*, a form of the verb meaning *to cut.*)

The prefix *ec-*, from Greek *ek-*, means *out.* (The Latin prefix, you will recall, is *ex-*.) Combine *ec-* with *tome* to derive the words for surgical procedures in which parts are "cut out," or removed: *tonsillectomy* (the tonsils), *appendectomy* (the appendix), *mastectomy* (the breast), *hysterectomy* (the uterus), *prostatectomy* (the prostate), etc.

Combine *ec-* with Greek *kentron*, center (the Latin root, as we have discovered, is *centrum*), to derive *eccentric* (ək-SEN′-trik)—*out of the center*, hence deviating from the normal in behavior, attitudes, etc., or unconventional, odd, strange. The noun is *eccentricity* (ek′-sən-TRIS′-ə-tee).

2. more cuts

The Greek prefix *a-* makes a root negative; the *atom* (AT′-əm) was so named at a time when it was considered the smallest possible particle of an element, that is, one that could *not* be cut any further. (We have long since split the atom, of course, with results, as in most technological advances, both good and evil.) The adjective is *atomic* (ə-TOM′-ik).

The Greek prefix *ana-* has a number of meanings, one of which is *up*, as in *anatomy* (ə-NAT′-ə-mee), originally the *cutting up* of a plant or animal to

determine its structure, later the bodily structure itself. The adjective is *anatomical* (an′-ə-TOM′-ə-kəl).

Originally any book that was part of a larger work of many volumes was called a *tome* (TŌM)—etymologically, a part *cut* from the whole. Today, a *tome* designates, often disparagingly, an exceptionally large book, or one that is heavy and dull in content.

The Greek prefix *dicha-*, in two, combines with *tome* to construct *dichotomy* (dī-KOT′-ə-mee), a splitting in two, a technical word used in astronomy, biology, botany, and the science of logic. It is also employed as a non-technical term, as when we refer to the *dichotomy* in the life of a man who is a government clerk all day and a night-school teacher after working hours, so that his life is, in a sense, split into two parts. The verb is *dichotomize* (dī-KOT′-ə-mīz′); the adjective is *dichotomous* (dī-KOT′-ə-məs). *Dichotomous* thinking is the sort that divides everything into two parts—good and bad; white and black; Democrats and Republicans; etc. An unknown wit has made this classic statement about *dichotomous* thinking: "There are two kinds of people: those who divide everything into two parts, and those who do not."

Imagine a book, a complicated or massive report, or some other elaborate document—now figuratively cut on or through it so that you can get to its essence, the very heart of the idea contained in it. What you have is an *epitome* (ə-PIT′-ə-mee), a condensation of the whole. (From *epi-*, on, upon, plus *tome.*)

An *epitome* may refer to a summary, condensation, or abridgment of language, as in "Let me have an *epitome* of the book," or "Give me the *epitome* of his speech."

More commonly, *epitome* and the verb *epitomize* (ə-PIT′-ə-mīz′) are used in sentences like "She is the *epitome* of kindness," or "That one act *epitomizes* her philosophy of life." If you cut everything else away to get to the *essential* part, that part is a representative cross-section of the whole. So a woman who is the *epitome* of kindness stands for all people who are kind; and an act that *epitomizes* a philosophy of life represents, by itself, the complete philosophy.

3. love and words

Logos, we know, means *science* or *study;* it may also mean *word* or *speech*, as it does in *philology* (fə-LOL′-ə-jee), etymologically *the love of words* (from Greek *philein*, to love, plus *logos*), or what is more commonly called *linguistics* (ling-GWIS′-tiks), the science of language, a term derived from Latin *lingua*, tongue.

Can you write, and pronounce, the adjective form of *philology?* _____.

4. more love

Philanthropy (fə-LAN′-thrə-pee) is by etymology the love of mankind—one who devotes oneself to *philanthropy* is a *philanthropist* (fə-LAN′-thrə-pist), as we learned in Chapter 3; the adjective is *philanthropic* (fil-ən-THROP′-ik).

The verb *philander* (fə-LAN′-dər), to "play around" sexually, be promiscuous, or have extramarital relations, combines *philein* with *andros*, male. (*Philandering*, despite its derivation, is not of course exclusively the male province. The word is, in fact, derived from the proper name conventionally given to male lovers in plays and romances of the 1500s and 1600s.) One who engages in the interesting activities catalogued above is a *philanderer* (fə-LAN′-dər-ər).

By etymology, *philosophy* is the love of wisdom (Greek *sophos*, wise); *Philadelphia* is the City of Brotherly Love (Greek *adelphos*, brother); *philharmonic* is the love of music or harmony (Greek *harmonia*, harmony); and a *philter*, a rarely used word, is a love potion. Today we call whatever arouses sexual desire an *aphrodisiac* (af′-rə-DIZ′-ee-ak′), from Aphrodite, the Greek goddess of love and beauty.

Aphrodisiac is an adjective as well as a noun, but a longer adjective form, *aphrodisiacal* (af′-rə-də-ZĪ′-ə-kəl), is also used.

A *bibliophile* (BIB′-lee-ə-fīl′) is one who loves books as collectibles, admiring their binding, typography, illustrations, rarity, etc.—in short, a book collector. The combining root is Greek *biblion*, book.

An *Anglophile* (ANG′-glə-fīl′) admires and is fond of the British people, customs, culture, etc. The combining root is Latin *Anglus*, English.

5. words and how they affect people

The *semanticist* is professionally involved in *semantics* (sə-MAN′-tiks). The adjective is *semantic* (sə-MAN′-tik) or *semantical* (sə-MAN′-tə-kəl).

Semantics, like *orthopedics, pediatrics*, and *obstetrics*, is a singular noun despite the *-s* ending. Semantics *is*, not *are*, an exciting study. However, this rule applies only when we refer to the word as a science or area of study. In the following sentence, *semantics* is used as a plural: "The *semantics* of your thinking *are* all wrong."

Two stimulating and highly readable books on the subject, well worth a visit to the library to pick up, are *Language in Thought and Action*, by S. I. Hayakawa, and *People in Quandaries*, by Dr. Wendell Johnson.

6. how people live

The profession of the *sociologist* is *sociology* (sō′-shee-OL′-ə-jee *or* sō-see-OL′-ə-jee). Can you write, and pronounce, the adjective? _____.

Sociology is built on Latin *socius*, companion,[1] plus *logos*, science, study. *Socius* is the source of such common words as *associate, social, socialize, society, sociable*, and *antisocial;* as well as *asocial* (ay-SŌ′-shəl), which combines the negative prefix *a-* with *socius.*

The *antisocial* person actively dislikes people, and often behaves in ways that are detrimental or destructive to society or the social order (*anti-*, against).

On the other hand, someone who is *asocial* is withdrawn and self-centered, avoids contact with others, and feels completely indifferent to the interests or welfare of society. The *asocial* person doesn't want to "get involved."

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *en-*	in
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *tome*	a cutting
ENGLISH WORD _____	

3. *in-* in

ENGLISH WORD _____

4. *sectus* cut

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *kentron* (*centrum*) center

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *a-* not, negative

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *ana-* up

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *dicha-* in two

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *epi-* on, upon

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *logos* word, speech

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *lingua* tongue

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *philein* to love

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *sophos* wise

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *adelphos* brother

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *biblion* book

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *Anglus* English

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *socius* companion

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *anti-* against

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *entomology* en′-tə-MOL′-ə-jee
2. *entomological* en′-tə-mə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
3. *eccentric* ək-SEN′-trik
4. *eccentricity* ək′-sən-TRIS′-ə-tee
5. *atom* AT′-əm
6. *atomic* ə-TOM′-ik
7. *anatomy* ə-NAT′-ə-mee
8. *anatomical* an′-ə-TOM′-ə-kəl
9. *tome* TŌM
10. *dichotomy* dī-KOT′-ə-mee
11. *dichotomous* dī-KOT′-ə-məs
12. *dichotomize* dī-KOT′-ə-mīz′

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *epitome*	ə-PIT′-ə-mee
2. *epitomize*	ə-PIT′-ə-mīz′
3. *philology*	fə-LOL′-ə-jee
4. *philological*	fil′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
5. *linguistics*	ling-GWIS′-tiks
6. *philanthropy*	fə-LAN′-thrə-pee
7. *philanthropist*	fə-LAN′-thrə-pist
8. *philanthropic*	fil′-ən-THROP′-ik
9. *philander*	fə-LAN′-dər
10. *philanderer*	fə-LAN′-dər-ər

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *philter*	FIL′-tər
2. *aphrodisiac*	af′-rə-DIZ′-ee-ak′
3. *aphrodisiacal*	af′-rə-də-ZĪ′-ə-kəl
4. *bibliophile*	BIB′-lee-ə-fīl′
5. *Anglophile*	ANG′-glə-fīl′
6. *semantics*	sə-MAN′-tiks
7. *semantic*	sə-MAN′-tik
8. *semantical*	sə-MAN′-tə-kəl
9. *sociology*	sō′-shee-OL′-ə-jee *or* sō′-see-OL′-ə-jee
10. *sociological*	sō′-shee-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl *or* sō′-see-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
11. *asocial*	ay-SŌ′-shəl

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. entomology
2. eccentricity
3. anatomy
4. dichotomy
5. epitome
6. philology
7. semantics
8. sociology
9. aphrodisiac
10. philanthropy

a. physical structure
b. summary; representation of the whole
c. science of the meanings and effects of words
d. linguistics
e. science dealing with insects
f. science of social structures and customs
g. charitable works
h. that which causes sexual arousal
i. strangeness; oddness; unconventionality
j. condition or state of being split into two parts

KEY: 1–e, 2–i, 3–a, 4–j, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c, 8–f, 9–h, 10–g

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. dichotomize	a. dull, heavy book
2. epitomize	b. love potion; aphrodisiac
3. philander	c. pertaining to the study of language
4. philter	d. one fond of British people, customs, etc.
5. bibliophile	e. pertaining to the science of group cultures, conventions, etc.
6. Anglophile	f. to split in two
7. asocial	g. withdrawn from contact with people
8. tome	h. book collector
9. philological	i. to summarize
10. sociological	j. to engage in extramarital sex

KEY: 1–f, 2–i, 3–j, 4–b, 5–h, 6–d, 7–g, 8–a, 9–c, 10–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Is a *philanderer* likely to be faithful to a spouse?
   YES NO
2. Did Dr. Jekyll-Mr. Hyde lead a *dichotomous* existence?
   YES NO
3. Is an egoist the *epitome* of selfishness?
   YES NO
4. Is a *philanthropist* antisocial?
   YES NO
5. Is an *aphrodisiac* intended to reduce sexual interest?
   YES NO
6. Is a *bibliophile's* chief aim the enjoyment of literature?
   YES NO
7. Does a *philologist* understand etymology?
   YES NO
8. Is a *semanticist* interested in more than the dictionary meanings of words?
   YES NO
9. Is an *asocial* person interested in improving social conditions?
   YES NO
10. Is a light novel considered a *tome?*
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–no, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–no

Can you recall the words?

1. pertaining to the study of social customs (*adj.*)
   1. S_____
2. pertaining to the psychological effects of words (*adj.*)
   2. S_____ *or* S_____
3. lover and collector of books
   3. B_____
4. make love promiscuously
   4. P_____
5. pertaining to the science of linguistics (*adj.*)
   5. P_____
6. pertaining to the study of insects (*adj.*)
   6. E_____
7. one who admires British customs
   7. A_____
8. smallest particle, so-called
   8. A_____
9. pertaining to the structure of a body (*adj.*)
   9. A_____
10. a dull, heavy book
    10. T_____
11. split in two (*adj.*)
    11. D_____
12. to split in two
    12. D_____
13. a condensation, summary, or representation of the whole
    13. E_____
14. to stand for the whole; to summarize
    14. E_____

15. pertaining to charitable activities (*adj.*)
    15. P_____
16. out of the norm; odd
    16. E_____
17. one who “plays around”
    17. P_____
18. arousing sexual desire (*adj.*)
    18. A_____ *or* A_____
19. science of the manner in which groups function
    19. S_____
20. self-isolated from contact with people
    20. A_____

KEY: 1–sociological, 2–semantic *or* semantical, 3–bibliophile, 4–philander, 5–philological, 6–entomological, 7–Anglophile, 8–atom, 9–anatomical, 10–tome, 11–dichotomous, 12–dichotomize, 13–epitome, 14–epitomize, 15–philanthropic, 16–eccentric, 17–philanderer, 18–aphrodisiac *or* aphrodisiacal, 19–sociology, 20–asocial

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Student of the stars and other heavenly phenomena:
   (a) geologist, (b) astronomer, (c) anthropologist
2. Student of plant life:
   (a) botanist, (b) zoologist, (c) biologist
3. Student of insect life:
   (a) sociologist, (b) entomologist, (c) etymologist
4. Student of the meaning and psychology of words:
   (a) philologist, (b) semanticist, (c) etymologist
5. Analysis of living tissue:
   (a) autopsy, (b) biopsy, (c) autonomy
6. That which arouses sexual desire:
   (a) zodiac, (b) bibliophile, (c) aphrodisiac
7. Self-governing:
   (a) autobiographical, (b) autonomous, (c) dichotomous
8. Part that represents the whole:
   (a) epitome, (b) dichotomy, (c) metronome
9. One who physically travels in space:
   (a) astronomer, (b) astrologer, (c) astronaut
10. One who has extramarital affairs:
    (a) cosmonaut, (b) philanderer, (c) philanthropist

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–b, 4–b, 5–b, 6–c, 7–b, 8–a, 9–c, 10–b

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *anthropos*	_____
EXAMPLE anthropology	
2. *logos*	_____
EXAMPLE philology	
3. *astron*	_____
EXAMPLE astronomy	
4. *nautes*	_____
EXAMPLE astronaut	
5. *nomos*	_____
EXAMPLE metronome	
6. *autos*	_____
EXAMPLE autonomy	
7. *ge* (*geo-*)	_____
EXAMPLE geology	
8. *graphein*	_____
EXAMPLE biography	
9. *opsis, optikos*	_____
EXAMPLE autopsy	
10. *zoion*	_____

EXAMPLE zodiac

11. *tome* _____

EXAMPLE entomology

12. *sectus* _____

EXAMPLE insect

13. *lingua* _____

EXAMPLE linguistics

14. *philein* _____

EXAMPLE philanthropy

15. *sophos* _____

EXAMPLE philosophy

16. *biblion* _____

EXAMPLE bibliophile

17. *Anglus* _____

EXAMPLE Anglophile

18. *socius* _____

EXAMPLE sociology

19. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE biology

20. *bios* _____

EXAMPLE biopsy

KEY: 1–mankind, 2–word, speech, 3–star, 4–sailor, 5–law, order, arrangement, 6–self, 7–earth, 8–to write, 9–view, vision, sight, 10–animal, 11–a cutting, 12–cut, 13–tongue, 14–to love, 15–wise, 16–book, 17–English, 18–companion, 19–science, study, 20–life

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. Recalling the root *sophos*, wise, and thinking of the English word *moron*, write the name given to a second-year student in high school or college: _____. Etymologically, what does this word mean? _____

2. Based on the root *sophos*, what word means *worldly-wise?* _____.

3. Thinking of *bibliophile*, define *bibliomaniac:* _____.

4. These three words, based on *lingua*, tongue, use prefixes we have discussed. Can you define each one?

(a) monolingual _____

(b) bilingual _____

(c) trilingual _____

Can you, now, guess at the meaning of *multilingual?* _____.

How about *linguist?* _____.

What do you suppose the Latin root *multus* means? _____. (Think of *multitude.*)

5. With *Anglophile* as your model, can you figure out what country and its people, customs, etc. each of the following admires?

(a) Francophile _____

(b) Russophile _____

(c) Hispanophile _____

(d) Germanophile _____

(e) Nipponophile _____

(f) Sinophile _____

6. Using roots you have learned, and with *bibliophile* as your model, can you construct a word for:

(a) one who loves males: _____

(b) one who loves women: _____

(c) one who loves children: _____

(d) one who loves animals: _____

(e) one who loves plants: _____

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

WHERE TO GET NEW IDEAS

People with superior vocabularies, I have submitted, are the people with ideas. The words they know are verbal symbols of the ideas they are familiar with—reduce one and you must reduce the other, for ideas cannot exist without verbalization. Freud once had an idea—and had to coin a whole new vocabulary to make his idea clear to the world. Those who are familiar with Freud's theories know all the words that explain them—the *unconscious*, the *ego*, the *id*, the *superego, rationalization, Oedipus complex*, and so on. Splitting the atom was once a new idea—anyone familiar with it knew something about *fission, isotope, radioactive, cyclotron*, etc.

Remember this: your vocabulary indicates the alertness and range of your mind. The words you know show the extent of your understanding of what's going on in the world. The size of your vocabulary varies directly with the degree to which you are growing intellectually.

You have covered so far in this book several hundred words. Having learned these words, you have begun to think of an equal number of new ideas. A new word is not just another pattern of syllables with which to clutter up your mind—a new word is a new idea to help you think, to help you understand the thoughts of others, to help you express your own thoughts, to help you live a richer intellectual life.

Realizing these facts, you may become impatient. You will begin to doubt that a book like this can cover all the ideas that an alert and intellectually mature adult wishes to be acquainted with. Your doubt is well-founded.

One of the chief purposes of this book is to get you started, to give you enough of a push so that you will begin to gather momentum, to stimulate you enough so that you will want to start gathering your own ideas.

Where can you gather them? From good books on new topics.

How can you gather them? By reading on a wide range of new subjects.

Reference has repeatedly been made to psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis in these pages. If your curiosity has been piqued by these references, here is a good place to start. In these fields there is a tremendous and exciting literature—and you can read as widely and as deeply as you wish.

What I would like to do is offer a few suggestions as to where you might profitably begin—how far you go will depend on your own interest.

I suggest, first, half a dozen older books (older, but still immensely valuable and completely valid) available at any large public library.

The Human Mind, by Karl A. Menninger

Mind and Body, by Flanders Dunbar

The Mind in Action, by Eric Berne

Understandable Psychiatry, by Leland E. Hinsie

A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis, by Sigmund Freud

Emotional Problems of Living, by O. Spurgeon English and Gerald H. J. Pearson

Next, I suggest books on some of the newer approaches in psychology. These are available in inexpensive paperback editions as well as at your local library.

I Ain't Well—But I Sure Am Better, by Jess Lair, Ph.D.

The Disowned Self, by Nathaniel Brandon

A Primer of Behavioral Psychology, by Adelaide Bry

I'm OK—You're OK, by Thomas A. Harris, M.D.

Freedom to Be and *Man the Manipulator*, by Everett L. Shostrum

Games People Play, by Eric Berne, M.D.

Love and Orgasm, Pleasure and *The Language of the Body*, by Alexander Lowen, M.D.

The Transparent Self, by Sydney M. Jourard

Don't Say Yes When You Want to Say No, by Herbert Fensterheim and Jean Baer

Gestalt Therapy Verbatim, by Frederick S. Perls

Born to Win, by Muriel James and Dorothy Jongeward

Joy and *Here Comes Everybody*, by William C. Schutz

The Fifty-Minute Hour, by Robert Lindner

(*End of Session 13*)

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[1] *Companion* itself has an interesting etymology—Latin *com-*, with, plus *panis*, bread. If you are social, you enjoy breaking bread with companions. *Pantry* also comes from *panis*, though far more than bread is stored there.

Brief Intermission Four

HOW TO AVOID BEING A PURIST

Life, as you no doubt realize, is complicated enough these days. Yet puristic textbooks and English teachers with puristic ideas are striving to make it still more complicated. Their contribution to the complexity of modern living is the repeated claim that many of the natural, carefree, and popular expressions that most of us use every day are "bad English," "incorrect grammar," "vulgar," or "illiterate."

In truth, many of the former restrictions and "thou shalt nots" of academic grammar are now outmoded—most educated speakers quite simply ignore them.

Students in my grammar classes at Rio Hondo College are somewhat nonplused when they discover that correctness is not determined by textbook rules and cannot be enforced by schoolteacher edict. They invariably ask: "Aren't you going to draw the line somewhere?"

It is neither necessary nor possible for any one person to "draw the line." That is done—and quite effectively—by the people themselves, by the millions of educated people throughout the nation.

Of course certain expressions may be considered "incorrect" or "illiterate" or "bad grammar"—not because they violate puristic rules, but only because they are rarely if ever used by educated speakers.

Correctness, in short, is determined by current educated usage.

The following notes on current trends in modern usage are intended to help you come to a decision about certain controversial expressions. As you read each sentence, pay particular attention to the italicized word or words. Does the usage square with your own language patterns? Would you be willing to phrase your thoughts in just such terms? Decide whether the sentence is "right" or "wrong," then compare your conclusions with the opinions given after the test.

TEST YOURSELF

1. Let's not walk any *further* right now.
   RIGHT WRONG
2. Some people admit that their *principle* goal in life is to become wealthy.
   RIGHT WRONG
3. What a *nice* thing to say!
   RIGHT WRONG
4. He's *pretty* sick today.
   RIGHT WRONG
5. I feel *awfully* sick.
   RIGHT WRONG
6. Are you going to invite Doris and *I* to your party?
   RIGHT WRONG

1. Let's not walk any *further* right now.

RIGHT. In the nineteenth century, when professional grammarians attempted to Latinize English grammar, an artificial distinction was drawn between *farther* and *further*, to wit: *farther* refers to space, *further* means *to a greater extent* or *additional.* Today, as a result, many teachers who are still under the forbidding influence of nineteenth-century restrictions insist that it is incorrect to use one word for the other.

To check on current attitudes toward this distinction, I sent the test sentence above to a number of dictionary editors, authors, and professors of English, requesting their opinion of the acceptability of *further* in reference to actual distance. Sixty out of eighty-seven professors, over two thirds of those responding, accepted the usage without qualification. Of twelve dictionary editors, eleven accepted *further*, and in the case of the authors, thirteen out of twenty-three accepted the word as used. A professor of English at Cornell University remarked: "I know of no justification for any present-day distinction between *further* and *farther*"; and a consulting editor of the Funk and Wagnalls dictionary said, "There is nothing controversial here. As applied to spatial distance, *further* and *farther* have long been interchangeable."

Perhaps the comment of a noted author and columnist is most to the point: "I like both *further* and *farther*, as I have never been able to tell which is which or why one is any farther or further than the other."

2. Some people admit that their *principle* goal in life is to become wealthy.

WRONG. In speech, you can get *principal* and *principle* confused as often as you like, and no one will ever know the difference—both words are pronounced identically. In writing, however, your spelling will give you away.

There is a simple memory trick that will help you if you get into trouble with these two words. *Rule* and *principle* both end in *-le*—and a princip*le* is a ru*le*. On the other hand, *principal* contains an *a*, and so does *main*—and principal means main. Get these points straight and your confusion is over.

Heads of schools are called *principals*, because they are the *main* person in that institution of learning. The money you have in the bank is your *principal*, your *main* financial assets. And the stars of a play are *principals*—the *main* actors.

Thus, "Some people admit that their *principal* (main) goal in life is to become wealthy," but "Such a *principle* (rule) is not guaranteed to lead to happiness."

3. What a *nice* thing to say!

RIGHT. Purists object to the popular use of *nice* as a synonym for *pleasant, agreeable*, or *delightful.* They wish to restrict the word to its older and more erudite meaning of *exact* or *subtle.* You will be happy to hear that they aren't getting anywhere.

When I polled a group of well-known authors on the acceptability in everyday speech of the popular meaning of *nice*, their opinions were unanimous; not a single dissenting voice, out of the twenty-three authors who answered, was raised against the usage. One writer responded: "It has been right for about 150 years …"

Editors of magazines and newspapers questioned on the same point were just a shade more conservative. Sixty out of sixty-nine accepted the usage. One editor commented: "I think we do not have to be nice about *nice* any longer. No one can eradicate it from popular speech as a synonym for *pleasant*, or *enjoyable*, or *kind*, or *courteous.* It is a workhorse of the vocabulary, and properly so."

The only valid objection to the word is that it is *overworked* by some people, but this shows a weakness in vocabulary rather than in grammar.

As in the famous story of the editor who said to her secretary: "There are two words I wish you would stop using so much. One is 'nice' and the other is 'lousy.' "

"Okay," said the secretary, who was eager to please. "What are they?"

4. He's *pretty* sick today.

RIGHT. One of the purist's pet targets of attack is the word *pretty* as used in the sentence under discussion. Yet all modern dictionaries accept such use of *pretty*, and a survey made by a professor at the University of Wisconsin showed that the usage is established English.

5. I feel *awfully* sick.

RIGHT. Dictionaries accept this usage in informal speech and the University of Wisconsin survey showed that it is established English.

The great popularity of *awfully* in educated speech is no doubt due to the strong and unique emphasis that the word gives to an

adjective—substitute *very, quite, extremely*, or *severely* and you considerably weaken the force.

On the other hand, it is somewhat less than cultivated to say "I feel *awful* sick," and the wisdom of using *awfully* to intensify a *pleasant* concept ("What an *awfully* pretty child"; "That book is *awfully* interesting") is perhaps still debatable, though getting less and less so as the years go on.

6. Are you going to invite Doris and *I* to your party?

WRONG. Some people are almost irresistibly drawn to the pronoun *I* in constructions like this one. However, not only does such use of *I* violate a valid and useful grammatical principle, but, more important, it is rarely heard in educated speech. The meaning of the sentence is equally clear no matter which form of the pronoun is employed, of course, but the use of *I*, the less popular choice, may stigmatize the speaker as uneducated.

Consider it this way: You would normally say, "Are you going to invite *me* to your party?" It would be wiser, therefore, to say, "Are you going to invite Doris and *me* to your party?"

7

HOW TO TALK ABOUT LIARS AND LYING

(*Sessions 14–17*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What kind of liar are you if you:
have developed a reputation for falsehood?
are particularly skillful?
cannot be reformed?
have become habituated to your vice?
started to lie from the moment of your birth?
always lie?
cannot distinguish fact from fancy?
suffer no pangs of conscience?
are suspiciously smooth and fluent in your lying?
tell vicious lies?

SESSION 14

It was the famous Greek philosopher and cynic Diogenes who went around the streets of Athens, lantern in hand, looking for an honest person.

This was over two thousand years ago, but I presume that Diogenes would have as little success in his search today. Lying seems to be an integral weakness of mortal character—I doubt that few human beings would be so brash as to claim that they have never in their lives told at least a partial untruth. Indeed, one philologist goes so far as to theorize that language must have been invented for the sole purpose of deception. Perhaps so. It is certainly true that animals seem somewhat more honest than humans, maybe because they are less gifted mentally.

Why do people lie? To increase their sense of importance, to escape punishment, to gain an end that would otherwise be denied them, out of long-standing habit, or sometimes because they actually do not know the difference between fact and fancy. These are the common reasons for falsification. No doubt there are other, fairly unique, motives that impel people to distort the truth. And, to come right down to it, can we always be certain what is true and what is false?

If lying is a prevalent and all-too-human phenomenon, there would of course be a number of interesting words to describe different types of liars.

Let us pretend (not to get personal, but only to help you become personally involved in the ideas and words) that you are a liar.

The question is, what kind of liar *are* you?

IDEAS

1. you don't fool even some of the people

Everybody knows your propensity for avoiding facts. You have built so solid and unsavory a reputation that only a stranger is likely to be misled—and then, not for long.

A *notorious* liar

2. to the highest summits of artistry

Your ability is top-drawer—rarely does anyone lie as convincingly or as artistically as you do. Your skill has, in short, reached the zenith of perfection. Indeed, your mastery of the art is so great that your lying is almost always crowned with success—and you have no trouble seducing an unwary listener into believing that you are telling gospel truth.

A *consummate* liar

3. beyond redemption or salvation

You are impervious to correction. Often as you may be caught in your fabrications, there is no reforming you—you go right on lying despite the punishment, embarrassment, or unhappiness that your distortions of truth may bring upon you.

An *incorrigible* liar

4. too old to learn new tricks

You are the victim of firmly fixed and deep-rooted habits. Telling untruths is as frequent and customary an activity as brushing your teeth in the morning, or having toast and coffee for breakfast, or lighting up a cigarette after dinner (if you are a smoker). And almost as reflexive.

An *inveterate* liar

5. an early start

You have such a long history of persistent falsification that one can only suspect that your vice started when you were reposing in your mother's womb. In other words, and allowing for a great deal of exaggeration for effect, you have been lying from the moment of your birth.

A *congenital* liar

6. no letup

You never stop lying. While normal people lie on occasion, and often for special reasons, you lie continually—not occasionally or even frequently, but over and over.

A *chronic* liar

7. a strange disease

You are not concerned with the difference between truth and falsehood; you do not bother to distinguish fact from fantasy. In fact, your lying is a disease that no antibiotic can cure.

A *pathological* liar

8. no regrets

You are completely without a conscience. No matter what misery your fabrications may cause your innocent victims, you never feel the slightest twinge of guilt. Totally unscrupulous, you are a dangerous person to get mixed up with.

An *unconscionable* liar

9. smooth!

Possessed of a lively imagination and a ready tongue, you can distort facts as smoothly and as effortlessly as you can say your name. But you do not always get away with your lies.

Ironically enough, it is your very smoothness that makes you suspect: your answers are too quick to be true. Even if we can't immediately catch you in your lies, we have learned from unhappy past experience not to suspend our critical faculties when you are talking. We admire your nimble wit, but we listen with a skeptical ear.

A *glib* liar

10. outstanding!

Lies, after all, are bad—they are frequently injurious to other people, and may have a particularly dangerous effect on you as a liar. At best, if you are caught you suffer some embarrassment. At worst, if you succeed in your deception your character becomes warped and your sense of values suffers. Almost all lies are harmful; some are no less than vicious.

If you are one type of liar, *all* your lies are vicious—calculatedly, predeterminedly, coldly, and advisedly vicious. In short, your lies are so outstandingly hurtful that people gasp in amazement and disgust at hearing them.

An *egregious* liar

In this chapter the ten basic words revolve rather closely around a central core. Each one, however, has a distinct, a unique meaning, a special implication. Note the differences.

TYPE OF LIAR	SPECIAL IMPLICATION
1. *notorious*	*famous*—or *infamous*—for lying;

	tendency to falsify is *well-known*
2. *consummate*	great *skill*
3. *incorrigible*	too far gone to be *reformed—impervious to rehabilitation*
4. *inveterate*	lying has become a *deep-rooted habit*
5. *congenital*	lying had *very early beginnings*—as if *from birth*
6. *chronic*	*over and over*
7. *pathological*	an irresistible *compulsion* to lie—often for no rational reason; lying is a *disease*
8. *unconscionable*	*lack of regret or remorse*
9. *glib*	great *smoothness*
10. *egregious*	*viciousness* of the lies

These ten expressive adjectives, needless to say, are not restricted to lying or liars. Note their general meanings:

1. *notorious*	well-known for some bad quality—a *notorious* philanderer
2. *consummate*	perfect, highly skilled—*consummate* artistry at the keyboard
3. *incorrigible*	beyond reform—an *incorrigible* optimist
4. *inveterate*	long-accustomed, deeply habituated—an *inveterate* smoker (this adjective, like *notorious*, usually has an unfavorable connotation)

5. *congenital*	happening at or during birth–a *congenital* deformity
6. *chronic*	going on for a long time, or occurring again and again—*chronic* appendicitis
7. *pathological*	diseased—a *pathological* condition
8. *unconscionable*	without pangs of conscience–*unconscionable* cruelty to children
9. *glib*	smooth, suspiciously fluent–a *glib* witness
10. *egregious*	outstandingly bad or vicious–an *egregious* error

With the exception of *consummate* and *congenital*, all ten adjectives have strongly derogatory implications and are generally used to describe people, characteristics, or conditions we disapprove of.

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *notorious*	nə-TAWR′-ee-əs
2. *consummate*	KAHN′-sə-mət
3. *incorrigible*	in-KAWR′-ə-jə-bəl
4. *inveterate*	in-VET′-ə-rət
5. *congenital*	kən-JEN′-ə-təl
6. *chronic*	KRON′-ik

7. *pathological*	path′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
8. *unconscionable*	un-KON′-shə-nə-bəl
9. *glib*	GLIB
10. *egregious*	ə-GREE′-jəs

Can you work with the words?

1. notorious	a. beyond reform
2. consummate	b. continuing over a long period of time; recurring
3. incorrigible	c. diseased
4. inveterate	d. from long-standing habit
5. congenital	e. suspiciously smooth
6. chronic	f. without conscience or scruples
7. pathological	g. outstandingly bad or vicious
8. unconscionable	h. unfavorably known
9. glib	i. from birth
10. egregious	j. finished, perfect, artistic

KEY: 1–h, 2–j, 3–a, 4–d, 5–i, 6–b, 7–c, 8–f, 9–e, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. Do people become *notorious* for good acts?
   YES NO
2. Is Beethoven considered a *consummate* musical genius?
   YES NO
3. If a criminal is truly *incorrigible*, is there any point in attempting rehabilitation?
   YES NO
4. Does an *inveterate* smoker smoke only occasionally?
   YES NO
5. Is a *congenital* deformity one that occurs late in life?
   YES NO
6. Is a *chronic* invalid ill much of the time?
   YES NO
7. Is a *pathological* condition normal and healthy?
   YES NO
8. If a person commits an *unconscionable* act of cruelty, is there any regret, remorse, or guilt?
   YES NO
9. Is a *glib* talker awkward and hesitant in speech?
   YES NO
10. Is an *egregious* error very bad?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–no, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. outstandingly vicious; so bad as to be in a class by itself
   1. E_____
2. starting at birth
   2. C_____
3. happening over and over again; continuing for a long time
   3. C_____
4. widely and unfavorably known (as for antisocial acts, character weaknesses, immoral or unethical behavior, etc.)
   4. N_____
5. beyond correction
   5. I_____
6. smooth and persuasive; unusually, almost suspiciously, fluent
   6. G_____
7. long addicted to a habit
   7. I_____
8. perfect in the practice of an art; extremely skillful
   8. C_____
9. unscrupulous; entirely without conscience
   9. U_____
10. diseased
    10. P_____

KEY: 1–egregious, 2–congenital, 3–chronic, 4–notorious, 5–incorrigible, 6–glib, 7-inveterate, 8-consummate, 9-unconscionable, 10–pathological

Can you use the words?

As a result of the tests you are taking, you are becoming more and more familiar with these ten valuable and expressive words. Now, as a further check on your learning, write the word that best fits each blank.

1. This person has gambled, day in and day out, for as long as anyone can remember—gambling has become a deep-rooted habit.
    1. An _____ gambler
2. Born with a clubfoot
    2. A _____ deformity
3. Someone known the world over for criminal acts
    3. A _____ criminal
4. An invading army kills, maims, and tortures without mercy, compunction, or regret.
    4. _____ acts of cruelty
5. The suspect answers the detective's questions easily, fluently, almost too smoothly.
    5. _____ responses
6. A person reaches the acme of perfection as an actress or actor.
    6. A _____ performer
7. No one can change someone's absurdly romantic attitude toward life.
    7. An _____ romantic
8. A mistake so bad that it defies description

8. An _____ blunder

9. Drunk almost all the time, again and again and again—periods of sobriety are few and very, very far between

9. A _____ alcoholic

10. Doctors find a persistent, dangerous infection in the bladder

10. A _____ condition

KEY: 1–inveterate, 2–congenital, 3–notorious, 4–unconscionable, 5–glib, 6–consummate, 7–incorrigible, 8–egregious, 9–chronic, 10–pathological

(*End of Session 14*)

SESSION 15

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. well-known

"Widely but unfavorably known" is the common definition for *notorious.* Just as a *notorious* liar is well-known for unreliable statements, so a *notorious* gambler, a *notorious* thief, or a *notorious* killer has achieved a wide reputation for some form of antisocial behavior. The noun is *notoriety* (nō-tə-RĪ′-ə-tee).

The derivation is from Latin *notus*, known, from which we also get *noted.* It is an interesting characteristic of some words that a change of syllables can alter the emotional impact. Thus, an admirer of certain business executives will speak of them as "*noted* industrialists"; these same people's enemies will call them "*notorious* exploiters." Similarly, if we admire a man's or a woman's unworldliness, we refer to it by the complimentary term *childlike;* but if we are annoyed by the trait, we describe it, derogatively, as *childish.* Change "-like" to "-ish" and our emotional tone undergoes a complete reversal.

2. plenty of room at the top

The top of a mountain is called, as you know, the *summit*, a word derived from Latin *summus*, highest, which also gives us the mathematical term *sum*, as in addition. A *consummate* artist has reached the very highest point of perfection; and to *consummate* (KAHN′-sə-mət) a marriage, a business deal, or a contract is,

etymologically, to bring it to the highest point; that is, to put the final touches to it, to bring it to completion.

[Note how differently *consummate* (KAHN′-sə-mət), the adjective, is pronounced from the verb to *consummate* (KAHN′-sə-mət)].

Nouns are formed from adjectives by the addition of the noun suffix *-ness: sweet—sweetness; simple—simpleness; envious—enviousness;* etc.

Many adjectives, however, have alternate noun forms, and the adjective *consummate* is one of them. To make a noun out of *consummate*, add either *-ness* or *-acy; consummateness* (KAHN′-sə-mət-nəs) or *consummacy* (KAHN′-sə-mə-see).

Verbs ending in *-ate* invariably tack on the noun suffix *-ion* to form nouns: *create—creation; evaluate—evaluation;* etc.

Can you write the noun form of the verb to *consummate?*

_____

3. no help

Call people *incorrigible* (in-KAWR′-ə-jə-bəl) if they do anything to excess, and if all efforts to correct or reform them are to no avail. Thus, one can be an *incorrigible* idealist, an *incorrigible* criminal, an *incorrigible* optimist, or an *incorrigible* philanderer. The word derives from Latin *corrigo*, to correct or set straight, plus the negative prefix *in-*. (This prefix, depending on the root it precedes, may be negative, may intensify the root, as in *invaluable*, or may mean *in.*)

The noun is *incorrigibility* (in-kawr′-ə-jə-BIL′-ə-tee) or, alternatively, *incorrigibleness.*

4. veterans

Inveterate, from Latin *vetus*, old,[1] generally indicates disapproval.

Inveterate gamblers have grown old in the habit, etymologically speaking; *inveterate* drinkers have been imbibing for so long that they, too, have formed old, well-established habits; and *inveterate*

liars have been lying for so long, and their habits are by now so deep-rooted, that one can scarcely remember (the word implies) when they ever told the truth.

The noun is *inveteracy* (in-VET′-ər-ə-see) or *inveterateness.*

A *veteran* (VET′-ə-rən), as of the Armed Forces, grew older serving the country; otherwise a *veteran* is an old hand at the game (and therefore skillful). The word is both a noun and an adjective: a *veteran* at (or in) swimming, tennis, police work, business, negotiations, diplomacy—or a *veteran* actor, teacher, diplomat, political reformer.

5. birth

Greek *genesis*, birth or origin, a root we discovered in discussing *psychogenic* (Chapter 5), is the source of a great many English words.

Genetics (jə-NET′-iks) is the science that treats of the transmission of hereditary characteristics from parents to offspring. The scientist specializing in the field is a *geneticist* (jə-NET′-ə-sist), the adjective is *genetic* (jə-NET′-ik). The particle in the chromosome of the germ cell containing a hereditary characteristic is a *gene* (JEEN).

Genealogy (jeen′-ee-AL′-ə-jee) is the study of family trees or ancestral origins (*logos*, study). The practitioner is a *genealogist* (jeen′-ee-AL′-ə-jist). Can you form the adjective? _____. (And can you pronounce it?)

The *genital* (GEN′-ə-təl), or sexual, organs are involved in the process of conception and birth. The *genesis* (JEN′-ə-sis) of anything —a plan, idea, thought, career, etc.—is its beginning, birth, or origin, and *Genesis*, the first book of the Old Testament, describes the creation, or birth, of the universe.

Congenital is constructed by combining the prefix *con-*, with or together, and the root *genesis*, birth.

So a *congenital* defect, deformity, condition, etc. occurs during the nine-month birth process (or period of gestation, to become technical). *Hereditary* (hə-RED′-ə-tair′-ee) characteristics, on the

other hand, are acquired at the moment of conception. Thus, eye color, nose shape, hair texture, and other such qualities are *hereditary;* they are determined by the *genes* in the germ cells of the mother and father. But a thalidomide baby resulted from the use of the drug by a pregnant woman, so the deformities were *congenital.*

Congenital is used both literally and figuratively. Literally, the word generally refers to some medical deformity or abnormality occurring during gestation. Figuratively, it wildly exaggerates, for effect, the very early existence of some quality: *congenital* liar, *congenital* fear of the dark, etc.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *notus*	known
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *summus*	highest
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *corrigo*	to correct, set straight
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *vetus*	old
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *senex*	old
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *genesis*	birth, origin
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *logos*	science, study

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *in-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *notoriety* nō-tə-RĪ′-ə-tee
2. *to consummate* (*v.*) KON′-sə-mayt′
3. *consummacy* kən-SUM′-ə-see
4. *consummation* kon′-sə-MAY′-shən
5. *incorrigibility* in-kawr′-ə-jə-BIL′-ə-tee
6. *inveteracy* in-VET′-ə-rə-see
7. *veteran* VET′-ə-rən
8. *genetics* jə-NET′-iks
9. *geneticist* jə-NET′-ə-sist
10. *genetic* jə-NET′-ik
11. *gene* JEEN
12. *genealogy* jee′-nee-AL′-ə-jee
13. *genealogist* jee′-nee-AL′-ə-jist
14. *genealogical* jee′-nee-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
15. *genital* JEN′-ə-təl
16. *genesis* JEN′-ə-sis

17. *hereditary* hə-RED′-ə-tair′-ee

Can you work with the words?

1. notoriety	a. state of artistic height
2. to consummate (v.)	b. state of being long established in a habit
3. consummacy	c. beginning, origin
4. incorrigibility	d. science of heredity
5. inveteracy	e. bring to completion; top off
6. genetics	f. study of ancestry
7. genealogy	g. referring to characteristics passed on to offspring by parents
8. genital	h. referring to reproduction, or to the reproductive or sexual organs
9. genesis	i. ill fame
10. hereditary	j. particle that transmits hereditary characteristics
11. gene	k. state of being beyond reform or correction

KEY: 1–i, 2–e, 3–a, 4–k, 5–b, 6–d, 7–f, 8–h, 9–c, 10–g, 11–j

Do you understand the words?

1. Does *notoriety* usually come to perpetrators of mass murders?
   YES NO
2. Is the product of a *consummately* skillful counterfeiter likely to be taken as genuine?
   YES NO
3. Is *incorrigibility* in a criminal a sign that rehabilitation is possible?
   YES NO
4. Is a *geneticist* interested in your parents' characteristics?
   YES NO
5. Does *inveteracy* suggest that a habit is new?
   YES NO
6. When you *consummate* a deal, do you back out of it?
   YES NO
7. Is a *veteran* actress long experienced at her art?
   YES NO
8. Do *genes* determine heredity?
   YES NO
9. Is a *genealogist* interested in your family origins?
   YES NO
10. Are the *genital* organs used in reproduction?
    YES NO
11. Is the *genesis* of something the final point?
    YES NO
12. Are *hereditary* characteristics derived from parents?

YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–yes, 11–no, 12–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. sexual; reproductive
   1. G_____
2. to complete
   2. C_____
3. wide and unfavorable reputation
   3. N_____
4. particle in the chromosome of a cell that transmits a characteristic from parent to offspring
   4. G_____
5. completion
   5. C_____
6. inability to be reformed
   6. I_____
7. the science that deals with the transmission of characteristics from parents to children
   7. G_____
8. referring to a quality or characteristic that is inherited (*adj.*)
   8. H_____
9. beginning or origin
   9. G_____
10. student of family roots or origins
    10. G_____
11. height of skill or artistry
    11. C_____ *or* C_____
12. transmitted by heredity

12. G_____

13. quality of a habit that has been established over many years

13. I_____ *or* I_____

14. a person long experienced at a profession, art, or business

14. V_____

15. pertaining to a study of family origins (*adj.*)

15. G_____

KEY: 1–genital, 2–consummate, 3–notoriety, 4–gene, 5–consummation, 6–incorrigibility, 7–genetics, 8–hereditary, 9–genesis, 10–genealogist, 11–consummacy *or* consummateness, 12–genetic, 13–inveteracy *or* inveterateness, 14–veteran, 15–genealogical

(*End of Session 15*)

SESSION 16

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. of time and place

A *chronic* liar lies constantly, again and again and again; a *chronic* invalid is ill time after time, frequently, repeatedly. The derivation of the word is Greek *chronos*, time. The noun form is *chronicity* (krə-NIS′-ə-tee).

An *anachronism* (ə-NAK′-rə-niz-əm) is someone or something out of time, out of date, belonging to a different era, either earlier or later. (The prefix *ana-* like *a-*, is negative.) The adjective is *anachronous* (ə-NAK′-rə-nəs) or *anachronistic* (ə-nak′-rə-NIS′-tik).

Wander along Fifty-ninth Street and Central Park in Manhattan some Sunday. You will see horse-drawn carriages with top-hatted coachmen—a vestige of the 1800s. Surrounded by twentieth-century motorcars and modern skyscrapers, these romantic vehicles of a bygone era are *anachronous.*

Read a novel in which a scene is supposedly taking place in the nineteenth century and see one of the characters turning on a TV set. An *anachronism!*

Your friend talks, thinks, dresses, and acts as if he were living in the time of Shakespeare. Another *anachronism!*

Science fiction is deliberately *anachronous*—it deals with phenomena, gadgetry, accomplishments far off (possibly) in the future.

An *anachronism* is out of *time;* something out of *place* is *incongruous* (in-KONG′-grōō-əs), a word combining the negative

prefix *in-*, the prefix *con-*, with or together, and a Latin verb meaning to *agree* or *correspond.*

Thus, it is *incongruous* to wear a sweater and slacks to a formal wedding; it is *anachronous* to wear the wasp waist, conspicuous bustle, or powdered wig of the eighteenth century. The noun form of *incongruous* is *incongruity* (in-kəng-GROO′-ə-tee).

Chronological (kron-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl), in correct time order, comes from *chronos.* To tell a story *chronologically* is to relate the events in the time order of their occurrence. *Chronology* (krə-NOL′-ə-jee) is the science of time order and the accurate dating of events (*logos*, science)—the expert in this field is a *chronologist* (krə-NOL′-ə-jist)—or a list of events in the time order in which they have occurred or will occur.

A *chronometer* (krə-NOM′-ə-tər), combining *chronos* with *metron*, measurement, is a highly accurate timepiece, especially one used on ships. *Chronometry* (krə-NOM′-ə-tree) is the measurement of time—the adjective is *chronometric* (kron′-ə-MET′-rik).

Add the prefix *syn-*, together, plus the verb suffix *-ize*, to *chronos*, and you have constructed *synchronize* (SIN′-krə-nīz′), etymologically *to time together*, or to move, happen, or cause to happen, at the same time or rate. If you and your friend *synchronize* your watches, you set them at the same time. If you *synchronize* the activity of your arms and legs, as in swimming, you move them at the same time or rate. The adjective is *synchronous* (SIN′-krə-nəs); the noun form of the verb *synchronize* is *synchronization* (sin′-krə-nə-ZAY′-shən).

2. disease, suffering, teeling

Pathological is *diseased* (a *pathological* condition)—this meaning of the word ignores the root *logos*, science, study.

Pathology (pə-THOL′-ə-jee) *is* the science or study of disease—its nature, cause, cure, etc. However, another meaning of the noun ignores *logos*, and *pathology* may be any morbid, diseased, or abnormal physical condition or conditions; in short, simply *disease*,

as in "This case involves so many kinds of *pathology* that several different specialists are working on it."

A *pathologist* (pə-THOL′-ə-jist) is an expert who examines tissue, often by autopsy or biopsy, to diagnose disease and interpret the abnormalities in such tissue that may be caused by specific diseases.

Pathos occurs in some English words with the additional meaning of *feeling.* If you feel or suffer with someone, you are *sympathetic* (sim-pə-THET′-ik)—*sym-* is a respelling before the letter *p* of the Greek prefix *syn-*, with or together. The noun is *sympathy* (SIM′-pə-thee), the verb *sympathize* (SIM′-pə-thīz). Husbands, for example, so the story goes, may have *sympathetic* labor pains when their wives are about to deliver.

The prefix *anti-*, you will recall, means *against.* If you experience *antipathy* (an-TIP′-ə-thee) to people or things, you feel *against* them —you feel strong dislike or hostility. The adjective is *antipathetic* (an′-tə-pə-THET′-ik), as in "an *antipathetic* reaction to an authority figure."

But you may have *no* feeling at all—just indifference, lack of any interest, emotion, or response, complete listlessness, especially when some reaction is normal or expected. Then you are *apathetic* (ap-ə-THET′-ik); *a-*, as you know, is a negative prefix. The noun is *apathy* (AP′-ə-thee), as in voter *apathy*, student *apathy*, etc.

On the other hand, you may be so sensitive or perceptive that you not only share the feelings of another, but you also *identify* with those feelings, in fact experience them yourself as if momentarily you were that other person. What you have, then, is *empathy* (EM′-pə-thee); you *empathize* (EM′-pə-thīz′), you are *empathetic* (em-pə-THET′-ik), or, to use an alternate adjective, *empathic* (em-PATH′-ik). *Em-* is a respelling before the letter *p* of the Greek prefix *en-*, in.

Someone is *pathetic* (pə-THET′-ik) who is obviously suffering—such a person may arouse sympathy or pity (or perhaps *antipathy?*) in you. A *pathetic* story is about suffering and, again, is likely to arouse sadness, sorrow, or pity.

Some interesting research was done many years ago by Dr. J. B. Rhine and his associates at Duke University on extrasensory

perception; you will find an interesting account of Rhine's work in his book *The Reach of the Mind.* What makes it possible for two people separated by miles of space to communicate with each other without recourse to messenger, telephone, telegraph, or postal service? It can be done, say the believers in *telepathy* (tə-LEP′-ə-thee), also called *mental telepathy*, though they do not yet admit to knowing how. How can one person read the mind of another? Simple—by being *telepathic* (tel-ə-PATH′-ik), but no one can explain the chemistry or biology of it. *Telepathy* is built by combining *pathos*, feeling, with the prefix *tele-*, distance, the same prefix we found in *telephone, telegraph, telescope.*

Telepathic (tel-ə-PATH′-ik) communication occurs when people can *feel* each other's thoughts from a distance, when they have ESP.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *chronos*	time
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *ana-, a-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *con-*	with, together
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *in-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *logos*	science, study
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *metron*	measurement

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *syn-, sym-* with, together

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *-ize* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *pathos* disease, suffering, feeling

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *anti-* against

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *en-, em-* in

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *tele-* distance

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *chronicity* krə-NIS′-ə-tee
2. *anachronism* ə-NAK′-rə-niz-əm
3. *anachronous* ə-NAK′-rə-nəs
4. *anachronistic* ə-nak′-rə-NIS′-tik
5. *incongruous* in-KONG′-grʊʊ-əs
6. *incongruity* in′-kəng-GRʊʊ′-ə-tee

7. *chronological* kron′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl
8. *chronology* krə-NOL′-ə-jee
9. *chronologist* krə-NOL′-ə-jist
10. *chronometer* krə-NOM′-ə-tər
11. *chronometry* krə-NOM′-ə-tree
12. *chronometric* kron′-ə-MET′-rik
13. *synchronize* SIN′-krə-nīz′
14. *synchronization* sin′-krə-nə-ZAY′-shən
15. *synchronous* SIN′-krə-nəs

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *pathology* pə-THOL′-ə-jee
2. *pathologist* pə-THOL′-ə-jist
3. *sympathy* SIM′-pə-thee
4. *sympathetic* sim-pə-THET′-ik
5. *sympathize* SIM′-pə-thīz
6. *antipathy* an-TIP′-ə-thee
7. *antipathetic* an′-tə-pə-THET′-ik
8. *apathy* AP′-ə-thee
9. *apathetic* ap-ə-THET′-ik
10. *empathy* EM′-pə-thee
11. *empathize* EM′-pə-thīz′
12. *empathetic* em-pə-THET′-ik

13. *empathic*	em-PATH′-ik
14. *pathetic*	pə-THET′-ik
15. *telepathy*	tə-LEP′-ə-thee
16. *telepathic*	tel′-ə-PATH′-ik

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. chronicity	a. something, or state of being, out of place
2. anachronism	b. timepiece; device that measures time very accurately
3. incongruity	c. condition of continual or repeated recurrence
4. chronology	d. act of occurring, or of causing to occur, at the same time
5. chronometer	e. calendar of events in order of occurrence
6. chronometry	f. something, or someone, out of time
7. synchronization	g. measurement of time
8. pathology	h. a sharing or understanding of another's feeling
9. sympathy	i. ESP; communication from a distance

10. telepathy

j. disease; study of disease

KEY: 1–c, 2–f, 3–a, 4–e, 5–b, 6–g, 7–d, 8–j, 9–h, 10–i

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. pathologist	a. identification with another's feelings
2. antipathy	b. share another's feelings so strongly as to experience those feelings oneself
3. apathy	c. out of time
4. empathy	d. one who examines tissue to diagnose disease
5. synchronize	e. occurring at the same time or rate
6. empathize	f. relating to extrasensory perception
7. anachronous	g. suffering; arousing sympathy or pity
8. incongruous	h. lack of feeling; non-responsiveness
9. synchronous	i. out of place
10. pathetic	j. happen, or cause to happen, at the same time or rate

11. telepathic

k. hostility; strong dislike

KEY: 1–d, 2–k, 3–h, 4–a, 5–j, 6–b, 7–c, 8–i, 9–e, 10–g, 11–f

Do you understand the words?

1. Are these dates in *chronological* order? 1492, 1941, 1586
   YES NO
2. Is *pathology* the study of healthy tissue?
   YES NO
3. Is *telepathic* communication carried on by telephone?
   YES NO
4. Does a *sympathetic* response show an understanding of another's feelings?
   YES NO
5. Is one *antipathetic* to things, ideas, or people one finds agreeable?
   YES NO
6. Do *apathetic* people react strongly?
   YES NO
7. Does an *empathic* response show identification with the feelings of another?
   YES NO
8. Is a swimsuit *incongruous* attire at a formal ceremony?
   YES NO
9. Is an *anachronistic* attitude up to date?
   YES NO
10. Are *synchronous* movements out of time with one another?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–no

Can you recall the words?

1. in order of time
    1. C_____
2. out of place
    2. I_____
3. 4. out of time (two forms)
    3. A_____
    4. A_____
5. something, or state of being, out of place
    5. I_____
6. lack of feeling
    6. A_____
7. measurer of time
    7. C_____
8. study of disease
    8. P_____
9. feeling of hostility or dislike
    9. A_____
10. to occur, or cause to occur, at the same time or rate
    10. S_____
11. evoking sorrow or pity
    11. P_____
12. something out of time
    12. A_____
13. state of recurring again and again
    13. C_____

14. extransensory perception
    14. T_____
15. one who examines tissue to diagnose disease
    15. P_____
16. identification with the feelings of another
    16. E_____
17. happening at the same time or rate (*adj.*)
    17. S_____
18. skillful at thought transference without sensory communication
    18. T_____
19. calendar of events in time sequence
    19. C_____
20. referring to the measurement of time (*adj.*)
    20. C_____

KEY: 1–chronological, 2–incongruous, 3, 4–anachronous, anachronistic, 5–incongruity, 6–apathy, 7–chronometer, 8–pathology, 9–antipathy, 10–synchronize, 11–pathetic, 12–anachronism, 13–chronicity, 14–telepathy, 15–pathologist, 16–empathy, 17–synchronous, 18–telepathic, 19–chronology, 20–chronometric

(*End of Session 16*)

SESSION 17

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. knowing

Psychopaths commit antisocial and *unconscionable* acts—they are not troubled by *conscience*, guilt, remorse, etc. over what they have done.

Unconscionable and *conscience* are related in derivation—the first word from Latin *scio*, to know, the second from Latin *sciens*, knowing, and both using the prefix *con-*, with, together.

Etymologically, then, your *conscience* is your knowledge *with* a moral sense of right and wrong; if you are *unconscionable*, your conscience is not (*un-*) working, or you have no conscience. The noun form is *unconscionableness* or *unconscionability* (un-kon′-shə-nə-BIL′-ə-tee).

Conscious, also from *con-* plus *scio*, is knowledge or awareness of one's emotions or sensations, or of what's happening around one.

Science, from *sciens*, is systematized *knowledge* as opposed, for example, to belief, faith, intuition, or guesswork.

Add Latin *omnis*, all, to *sciens*, to construct *omniscient* (om-NISH′-ənt), all-knowing, possessed of infinite knowledge. The noun is *omniscience* (om-NISH′-əns).

Add the prefix *pre-*, before, to *sciens*, to construct *prescient* (PREE′-shənt)—knowing about events *before* they occur, i.e., psychic, or possessed of unusual powers of prediction. The noun is *prescience* (PREE′-shəns).

And, finally, add the negative prefix *ne-* to *sciens* to produce *nescient* (NESH′-ənt), not knowing, or ignorant. Can you, by analogy

with the previous two words, write the noun form of *nescient?* _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

2. fool some of the people…

Glib is from an old English root that means *slippery*. *Glib* liars or *glib* talkers are smooth and slippery; they have ready answers, fluent tongues, a persuasive air—but, such is the implication of the word, they fool only the most *nescient,* for their smoothness lacks sincerity and conviction.

The noun is *glibness.*

3. herds and flocks

Egregious (remember the pronunciation? ə-GREE′-jəs) is from Latin *grex, gregis*, herd or flock. An *egregious* lie, act, crime, mistake, etc. is so exceptionally vicious that it conspicuously stands *out* (*e-*, a shortened form of the prefix *ex-*, out) from the *herd* or *flock* of other bad things.

The noun is *egregiousness* (ə-GREE′-jəs-nəs).

A person who enjoys companionship, who, etymologically, likes to be with the herd, who reaches out for friends and is happiest when surrounded by people—such a person is *gregarious* (grə-GAIR′-ee-əs).

Extroverts are of course *gregarious*—they prefer human contact, conversation, laughter, interrelationships, to solitude.

The suffix *-ness*, as you know, can be added to an adjective to construct a noun form. Write the noun for *gregarious:* _____.

Add the prefix *con-*, with, together, to *grex, gregis*, to get the verb *congregate* (KONG′-grə-gayt′); add the prefix *se-*, apart, to build the verb *segregate* (SEG′-rə-gayt′); add the prefix *ad-*, to, toward (*ad-* changes to *ag-* before a root starting with *g-*), to construct the verb *aggregate* (AG-rə-gayt′).

Let's see what we have. When people gather *together* in a *herd* or *flock*, they (write the verb) _____.

The noun is *congregation* (cong′-grə-GAY′-shən), one of the meanings of which is a religious "flock."

Put people or things apart from the *herd*, and you (write the verb) _____ them. Can you construct the noun by adding the suitable noun suffix? _____.

Bring individual items to or toward the *herd* or *flock*, and you (write the verb) _____ them. What is the noun form of this verb? _____.

The verb *aggregate* also means *to come together to or toward the herd*, that is, *to gather into a mass or whole*, or by extension, *to total or amount to.* So *aggregate*, another noun form, pronounced AG′-rə-gət, is a group or mass of individuals considered as a whole, a *herd*, or a *flock*, as in the phrase "people in the *aggregate*…"

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *grex, gregis*	herd, flock
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *e-, ex-*	out
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *-ness*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *con-*	with, together
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *ad-, ag-*	to, toward

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *un-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *scio* to know

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *sciens* knowing

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *omnis* all

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *pre-* before

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *ne-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *se-* apart

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ion* noun suffix added to verbs

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *unconscionability* un-kon′-shə-nə-BIL′-ə-tee
2. *omniscient* om-NISH′-ənt

3. *omniscience*	om-NISH′-əns
4. *prescient*	PREE′-shənt
5. *prescience*	PREE′-shəns
6. *nescient*	NESH′-ənt
7. *nescience*	NESH′-əns
8. *glibness*	GLIB′-nəs
9. *egregiousness*	ə-GREE′-jəs-nəs
10. *gregarious*	grə-GAIR′-ee-əs
11. *gregariousness*	grə-GAIR′-ee-əs-nəs
12. *congregate*	KONG′-grə-gayt′
13. *congregation*	kong′-grə-GAY′-shən
14. *segregate*	SEG′-rə-gayt′
15. *segregation*	seg′-rə-GAY′-shən
16. *aggregate* (*v.*)	AG′-rə-gayt
17. *aggregate* (*n.*)	AG′-rə-gət
18. *aggregation*	ag′-rə-GAY′-shən

Can you work with the words?

1. unconscionability	a. ignorance
2. omniscience	b. outstanding badness or viciousness
3. prescience	c. religious group; a massing together

4. nescience
5. glibness
6. egregiousness
7. gregariousness
8. congregation
9. segregation
10. aggregate (*n.*)

d. total; mass; whole
e. exclusion from the herd; a setting apart
f. infinite knowledge
g. friendliness; enjoyment of mixing with people
h. lack of conscience
i. suspiciously smooth fluency
j. foreknowledge

KEY: 1–h, 2–f, 3–j, 4–a, 5–i, 6–b, 7–g, 8–c, 9–e, 10–d

Do you understand the words?

1. Is *unconscionability* one of the signs of the psychopath?
   YES NO
2. Can anyone be truly *omniscient?*
   YES NO
3. Does a *prescient* fear indicate some knowledge of the future?
   YES NO
4. Is *nescience* a result of learning?
   YES NO
5. Does *glibness* make someone sound sincere and trustworthy?
   YES NO
6. Is *egregiousness* an admirable quality?
   YES NO
7. Do *gregarious* people enjoy parties?
   YES NO
8. Do spectators *congregate* at sports events?
   YES NO
9. Do we often *segregate* hardened criminals from the rest of society?
   YES NO
10. Is an *aggregation* of problems a whole mass of problems?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–no, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. enjoying groups and companionship
   1. G_____
2. ignorant
   2. N_____
3. state of *not* being held back from antisocial behavior by one's conscience
   3. U_____
   or U_____
4. having knowledge of an event before it occurs (*adj.*)
   4. P_____
5. a religious "flock"
   5. C_____
6. a total, whole, or mass
   6. A_____
   or A_____
7. to separate from the rest
   7. S_____
8. suspiciously smooth fluency
   8. G_____
9. all-knowing (*adj.*)
   9. O_____
10. to come together into a group or mass
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–gregarious, 2–nescient, 3–unconscionability *or* unconscionableness, 4–prescient, 5–congregation, 6–aggregate *or* aggregation, 7–segregate, 8–glibness, 9–omniscient, 10–congregate

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Highly skilled:
   (a) consummate, (b) inveterate, (c) notorious
2. Beyond reform:
   (a) inveterate, (b) incorrigible, (c) glib
3. Dating from birth:
   (a) inveterate, (b) congenital, (c) psychopathic
4. Outstandingly bad:
   (a) egregious, (b) unconscionable, (c) chronic
5. Science of heredity:
   (a) pathology, (b) genetics, (c) orthopedics
6. Out of time:
   (a) incongruous, (b) anachronous, (c) synchronous
7. Study of disease:
   (a) pathology, (b) telepathy, (c) antipathy
8. Fond of company, friends, group activities, etc.:
   (a) apathetic, (b) gregarious, (c) chronological
9. Indifferent:
   (a) antipathetic, (b) pathetic, (c) apathetic
10. Long accustomed in habit:
   (a) incorrigible, (b) notorious, (c) inveterate

11. Study of family ancestry:
    (a) genealogy, (b) genetics, (c) genesis
12. To complete, finish, top off:
    (a) synchronize, (b) consummate, (c) empathize
13. Accurate timepiece:
    (a) anachronism, (b) chronology, (c) chronometer
14. Identification with the feelings of another:
    (a) sympathy, (b) apathy, (c) empathy
15. Thought transference; extrasensory perception:
    (a) telepathy, (b) empathy, (c) omniscience
16. Ignorance:
    (a) omniscience, (b) prescience, (c) nescience
17. To gather into a group:
    (a) congregate, (b) segregate, (c) synchronize

KEY: 1–a, 2–b, 3–b, 4–a, 5–b, 6–b, 7–a, 8–b, 9–c, 10–c, 11–a, 12–b, 13–c, 14–c, 15–a, 16–c, 17–a

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *notus*	_____
EXAMPLE notorious	
2. *summus*	_____
EXAMPLE summit	
3. *corrigo*	_____
EXAMPLE incorrigible	
4. *vetus*	_____
EXAMPLE veteran	
5. *senex*	_____
EXAMPLE senile	
6. *genesis*	_____
EXAMPLE congenital	
7. *logos*	_____
EXAMPLE genealogy	
8. *chronos*	_____
EXAMPLE chronic	

9. *metron* _____

EXAMPLE chronometer

10. *pathos* _____

EXAMPLE pathology

_____

EXAMPLE pathetic

_____

EXAMPLE empathy

11. *grex, gregis* _____

EXAMPLE gregarious

12. *scio* _____

EXAMPLE unconscionable

13. *sciens* _____

EXAMPLE prescience

14. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omniscient

KEY: 1–known, 2–highest, 3–to correct, set straight, 4–old, 5–old, 6–birth, 7–science, study, 8–time, 9–measurement, 10–disease, suffering, feeling, 11–herd, flock, 12–to know, 13–knowing, 14–all

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. "She was one of many *notables* who attended the convention." Recognizing that the italicized word is built on the root *notus*, can you define the noun *notable* in the context of *known?* _____

2. *Notify* and *notice* derive from the same root. Can you define these two words, again in the context of *known? Notify:* _____. *Notice:*_____. What do you supose the verb suffix *-fy* of *notify* means? (Think also of *simplify, clarify, liquefy*, etc.) _____.

3. You are familiar with the roots *chronos* and *graphein.* Suppose you came across the word *chronograph* in your reading. Can you make an educated guess as to the meaning? _____.

4. Recognizing the root *genesis* in the verb *generate*, how would you define the word? _____.
How about *regenerate?* _____.
What do you suppose the prefix *re-* means?_____.

5. Recognizing the root *omnis* in *omnipotent* and *omnipresent*, can you define the words?

Omnipotent: _____.

Omnipresent: _____.

Recalling how we formed a noun from the adjective *omniscient*, write the noun forms of:

Omnipotent: _____.

Omnipresent: _____.

6. Think of the negative prefix in *anachronism;* think next of the noun *aphrodisiac.* Can you construct a word for *that which reduces or eliminates sexual desire?* _____

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

FOUR LASTING BENEFITS

You know by now that it is easy to build your vocabulary if you work diligently and intelligently. Diligence is important—to come to the book occasionally is to learn new words and ideas in an aimless fashion, rather than in the continuous way that characterizes the natural, uninterrupted, intellectual growth of a child. (You will recall that children are top experts in increasing their vocabularies.) And an intelligent approach is crucial—new words can be completely understood and permanently remembered only as symbols of vital ideas, never if memorized in long lists of isolated forms.

If you have worked diligently and intelligently, you have done much more than merely learned a few hundred new words. Actually, I needn't tell you what else you've accomplished, since, if you really have accomplished it, you can feel it for yourself; but it may be useful if I verbalize the feelings you may have.

In addition to learning the meanings, pronunciation, background, and use of 300–350 valuable words, you have:

1. *Begun to sense a change in your intellectual atmosphere*. (You have begun to do your thinking with many of the words, with many of the ideas behind the words. You have begun to use the words in your speech and writing, and have become alert to their appearance in your reading.)

2. *Begun to develop a new interest in words as expressions of ideas.*

3. *Begun to be aware of the new words you hear and that you see in your reading.*

4. *Begun to gain a new feeling for the relationship between words.* (For you realize that many words are built on roots from other languages and are related to other words which derive from the same roots.)

Now, suppose we pause to see how successful your learning has been.

In the next chapter, I offer you a comprehensive test on the first part of your work.

(*End of Session 17*)

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[1] Latin *senex*, source of *senile* and *senescent*, also, you will recall, means *old.* In *inveterate, in-* means *in;* it is not the negative prefix found in *incorrigible.*

8

HOW TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Comprehensive Test I

SESSION 18

If you have worked diligently thus far, you have:

1. Become acquainted, or perhaps reacquainted, with approximately 300–350 expressive words—
2. Learned scores of important Latin and Greek prefixes, roots, and suffixes—
3. Set up valuable habits of self-discipline and self-directed learning—
4. Explored your attitudes toward grammar and current usage, meanwhile erasing any confusion you may once have felt about specific problems of correctness in your use of words—
5. And, finally, taken good, long steps toward your ultimate goal, namely, the development of a better, richer, more expressive—in short, *superior*—vocabulary.

Here is your chance both to review and to check your learning. (Bear in mind that without careful and periodic review, a significant amount of learning is lost.)

Methods of scoring your achievement on this test, and the meaning of your results, will be explained at the end of the chapter.

I etymology

ROOT	MEANING
1. *ego*	_____
EXAMPLE egoism	
2. *misein*	_____

EXAMPLE misanthrope

3. *gamos* _____

EXAMPLE bigamy

4. *gyne* _____

EXAMPLE gynecology

5. *derma* _____

EXAMPLE dermatology

6. *orthos* _____

EXAMPLE orthodontia

7. *psyche* _____

EXAMPLE psychotic

8. *neuron* _____

EXAMPLE neurology

9. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE biology

10. *bios* _____

EXAMPLE biopsy

11. *opsis, optikos* _____

EXAMPLE autopsy, optical

12. *algos* _____

EXAMPLE neuralgia

13. *agogos* _____

EXAMPLE demagogue

14. *pedis* _____

EXAMPLE pedestrian

15. *paidos* (*ped-*) _____

EXAMPLE pediatrician

16. *demos* _____

EXAMPLE democracy

17. *oculus* _____

EXAMPLE oculist

18. *iatreia* _____

EXAMPLE podiatrist

19. *metron* _____

EXAMPLE optometrist

20. *geras* _____

EXAMPLE geriatrics

21. *soma* _____

EXAMPLE psychosomatic

22. *pathos* _____

EXAMPLE osteopath

23. *odontos* _____

EXAMPLE exodontist

24. *pous, podos* _____

EXAMPLE octopus, podium

25. *cheir* (*chiro-*) _____

EXAMPLE chirography

II more etymology

ROOT	MEANING
1. *graphein*	_____
EXAMPLE graphology	
2. *kallos*	_____
EXAMPLE calligrapher	
3. *pyge*	_____
EXAMPLE callipygian	
4. *kakos*	_____
EXAMPLE cacophony	
5. *senex*	_____
EXAMPLE senescent	
6. *anthropos*	_____
EXAMPLE anthropology	
7. *astron*	_____
EXAMPLE astronomy	
8. *nautes*	_____
EXAMPLE astronaut	
9. *ge* (*geo-*)	_____
EXAMPLE geology	
10. *zoion*	_____

EXAMPLE zodiac

11. *lingua* _____

EXAMPLE bilingual

12. *philein* _____

EXAMPLE Philadelphia

13. *biblion* _____

EXAMPLE bibliophile

14. *autos* _____

EXAMPLE autonomous

15. *socius* _____

EXAMPLE asocial

16. *notus* _____

EXAMPLE notorious

17. *summus* _____

EXAMPLE consummate

18. *vetus* _____

EXAMPLE inveterate

19. *genesis* _____

EXAMPLE congenital

20. *chronos* _____

EXAMPLE chronic

21. *pathos* _____

EXAMPLE empathy

22. *grex, gregis* _____

EXAMPLE egregious

23. *sciens* _____

EXAMPLE prescient

24. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omniscient

25. *nomos* _____

EXAMPLE metronome

III same or opposite?

1. egoistic—altruistic	*S*	*O*
2. misanthropic—philanthropic	*S*	*O*
3. misogamous—polygamous	*S*	*O*
4. dexterous—skillful	*S*	*O*
5. sinister—threatening	*S*	*O*
6. optical—visual	*S*	*O*
7. notorious—infamous	*S*	*O*
8. consummate (*adj.*)—unskilled	*S*	*O*
9. chronic—acute	*S*	*O*
10. glib—halting	*S*	*O*
11. ophthalmologist—oculist	*S*	*O*
12. geriatric—pediatric	*S*	*O*
13. endodontist—exodontist	*S*	*O*

14. calligraphy—cacography	*S*	*O*
15. astronaut—cosmonaut	*S*	*O*
16. biopsy—autopsy	*S*	*O*
17. dichotomous—cut in two	*S*	*O*
18. congenital—hereditary	*S*	*O*
19. veteran—“old hand”	*S*	*O*
20. anachronous—timely	*S*	*O*

IV matching

I	II
1. dislikes women	a. entomologist
2. is pathologically self-interested	b. taxidermist
3. studies the development of the human race	c. egomaniac
4. is an expert on insects	d. bibliophile
5. collects books	e. ophthalmologist
6. mounts and stuffs animal skins	f. psychopath
7. is an eye doctor	g. philologist
8. is a student of linguistics	h. anthropologist
9. has “split off” from reality	i. psychotic
10. commits antisocial acts	J. misogynist

without guilt or pangs of conscience

V more matching

I	II
1. delivers babies	a. pediatrician
2. treats female ailments	b. cardiologist
3. treats infants	c. psychiatrist
4. treats skin diseases	d. podiatrist
5. treats skeletal deformities	e. dermatologist
6. is a heart specialist	f. periodontist
7. treats mental or emotional disturbances	g. obstetrician
8. treats disorders of the nervous system	h. neurologist
9. treats minor ailments of the feet	i. orthopedist
10. treats ailments of the gums	j. gynecologist

VI recall a word

1. ruthless; without conscience
    1. U_____
2. suspiciously fluent or smooth
    2. G_____

3. outstandingly bad; vicious
    3. E_____
4. out of place
    4. I_____
5. study of the family tree; specialty of tracing ancestry
    5. G_____
6. science of heredity
    6. G_____
7. in correct order of time
    7. C_____
8. socially awkward
    8. G_____
9. record of heart action
    9. C_____
10. equally skillful with both the right and left hand
    10. A_____
11. social scientist who deals with the problems of aging
    11. G_____
12. extrasensory perception
    12. T_____
13. branch of dentistry specializing in the care of children's teeth
    13. P_____
14. blood-pressure apparatus
    14. S_____
15. growing old (*adj.*)
    15. S_____
16. palm reader
    16. C_____
17. that which arouses sexual desire
    17. A_____
18. representation of the whole
    18. E_____
19. diseased; pertaining to the study of disease (*adj.*)

19. P_____

20. measurement of time

20. C_____

21. hostility; strong dislike; aversion

21. A_____

22. to occur, or cause to occur, at the same time or rate

22. S_____

23. ignorant

23. N_____

24. knowledge of an occurrence beforehand

24. P_____

25. enjoying being with the herd; liking companionship

25. G_____

26. to identify strongly with the feelings of another

26. E_____

27. instrument to measure atmospheric pressure

27. B_____

28. to separate from the herd

28. S_____

29. possessed of shapely buttocks

29. C_____

30. ugly, illegible handwriting

30. C_____

KEY: A correct answer counts one point. Score your points for each part of the test, then add for a total.

I

1–I, self, 2–to hate, 3–marriage, 4–woman, 5–skin, 6–straight, correct, 7–mind, soul, spirit, 8–nerve, 9–science, study, 10–life, 11–view, sight, vision, 12–pain, 13–leading, 14–foot, 15–child, 16–people, 17–eye, 18–medical healing, 19–measurement, 20–old age, 21–body, 22–disease, 23–tooth, 24–foot, 25–hand

Your score: _____

II

1–to write, 2–beauty, 3–buttock, 4–harsh, ugly, bad, 5–old, 6–mankind, 7–star, 8–sailor, 9–earth, 10–animal, 11–tongue, 12–to love, 13–book, 14–self, 15–companion, 16–known, 17–highest, 18–old, 19–birth (beginning, origin), 20–time, 21–feeling, 22–herd, flock, 23–knowing, 24–all, 25–law, order, arrangement

Your score: _____

III

1–O, 2–O, 3–O, 4–S, 5–S, 6–S, 7–S, 8–O, 9–O, 10–O, 11–S, 12–O, 13–O, 14–O, 15–S, 16–O, 17–S, 18–O, 19–S, 20–O

Your score: _____

IV

1–j, 2–c, 3–h, 4–a, 5–d, 6–b, 7–e, 8–g, 9–i, 10–f

Your score: _____

V

1–g, 2–j, 3–a, 4–e, 5–i, 6–b, 7–c, 8–h, 9–d, 10–f

Your score: _____

VI

1–unconscionable, 2–glib, 3–egregious, 4–incongruous, 5–genealogy, 6–genetics, 7–chronological, 8–gauche, 9–cardiogram, 10–ambidextrous, 11–gerontologist, 12–telepathy, 13–pedodontia, 14–sphygmomanometer, 15–senescent, 16–chiromancer, 17–aphrodisiac, 18–epitome, 19–pathological, 20–chronometry, 21–antipathy, 22–synchronize, 23–nescient, 24–prescience, 25–gregarious, 26–empathize, 27–barometer, 28–segregate, 29–callipygian, 30–cacography

Your score: _____

Your total score: _____

Significance of Your Total Score:

100–120: Masterly work; you are ready to move right along.
80– 99: Good work; this review was useful to you.
65– 79: Average work; you're getting a good deal out of your study, but perhaps you should review thoroughly after each session.
50– 64: Barely acceptable; work harder.
35– 49: Poor; further review is suggested before you go on.
0– 34: You can do much better if you really try; continue with firmer resolve and more determination.

PART TWO

GAINING INCREASED MOMENTUM

9

HOW TO TALK ABOUT ACTIONS

(*Sessions 19–23*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What verb means to:
belittle?
be purposely confusing?
tickle someone's fancy?
flatter fulsomely?
prohibit some food or activity?
make unnecessary?
work against?
spread slander?
give implicit forgiveness for a misdeed?
change hostility to friendliness?

SESSION 19

Verbs are incalculably useful to you.

Every sentence you think, say, read, or write contains an implied or expressed verb, for it is the verb that carries the action, the movement, the force of your ideas.

As a young child, you used verbs fairly early.

Your first words, of course, were probably *nouns*, as you identified the things or people around you.

Mama, Dada, doll, baby, bottle, etc. perhaps were the first standard syllables you uttered, for naming concrete things or real persons is the initial step in the development of language.

Soon there came the ability to express *intangible* ideas, and then you began to use simple verbs—*go, stop, stay, want, eat, sleep*, etc.

As you gained maturity, your verbs expressed ideas of greater and greater complexity; as an adult you can describe the most involved actions in a few simple syllables—if you have a good store of useful verbs at your command.

The richer and more extensive your vocabulary of verbs, the more accurately and expressively you can communicate your understanding of actions, reactions, attitudes, and emotions.

Let's be specific.

IDEAS

1. playing it down

Ready to go back thirty or more years? Consider some post-World War II American political history:

Harry Truman couldn't win the 1948 election. The pollsters said so, the Republicans heartily agreed, even the Democrats, some in high places, believed it. Mr. Truman himself was perhaps the only voter in the country who was not entirely convinced.

Came the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November—well, if you were one of those who stayed up most of the night listening to the returns, and then kept your ear to the radio most of the next day, you recall how you reacted to the unique Truman triumph.

It was no mean accomplishment, thought many people. Pure accident, said others. If one out of twelve voters in a few key states had changed his ballot, Harry could have gone back to selling ties, one Republican apologist pointed out. It wasn't anything Truman did, said another; it was what Dewey didn't do. No credit to Truman, said a third; it was the farmers—or labor—or the Republicans who hadn't bothered to vote—or the ingenious miscounting of ballots. No credit to Truman, insisted a fourth; it was Wallace's candidacy—it was the Democrats—it was Republican overconfidence—it was sunspots—it was the Communists—it was the civil service workers who didn't want to lose their cushy jobs—it was really Roosevelt who won the election.

Anyway Harry didn't accomplish a thing—he was just a victim of good fortune.

What were the apologists for Dewey's failure doing?

They were *disparaging* Truman's achievement.

2. playing it safe

Willing to look at some more history of the late 1940s?

Of course, Dewey did campaign, in his own way, for the presidency. As the Republican aspirant, he had to take a stand on the controversial Taft-Hartley Act.

Was he for it? He was for that part of it which was *good.* Naturally, he was against any of the provisions which were *bad.* Was he for it? The answer was *yes*—and also *no.* Take whichever answer you wanted most to hear.

What was Dewey doing?

He was *equivocating.*

3. enjoying the little things

Have you ever gone through a book that was so good you kept hugging yourself mentally as you read? Have you ever seen a play or motion picture that was so charming that you felt sheer delight as you watched? Or perhaps you have had a portion of pumpkin-chiffon pie, light and airy and mildly flavored, and with a flaky, delicious crust, that was the last word in gustatory enjoyment?

Now notice the examples I have used. I have not spoken of books that grip you emotionally, of plays and movies that keep you on the edge of your seat in suspense, or of food that satisfies a ravenous hunger. These would offer quite a different, perhaps more lasting and memorable, type of enjoyment. I have detailed, rather, mental or physical stimuli that excite enjoyably but not too sharply—a delightful novel, a charming play, a delicious dessert.

How do such things affect you?

They *titillate* you.

4. playing it way up

You know how the teen-agers of an earlier generation adored, idolized, and overwhelmed Frank Sinatra, Elvis Presley, the Beatles?

And of course you know how certain people fall all over visiting celebrities—best-selling authors, much publicized artists, or famous entertainers. They show them ingratiating, almost servile attention, worship and flatter them fulsomely.[1]

How do we say it in a single word?

They *adulate* such celebrities.

5. accentuating the negative

What does the doctor say to you if you have low blood sugar? “No candy, no pastries, no chocolate marshmallow cookies, no ice cream!”, your morale dropping lower and lower as each favorite goody is placed on the forbidden list.

What, in one word, is the doctor doing?

The doctor is *proscribing* harmful items in your diet.

6. accentuating the affirmative

You are warm, friendly, enthusiastic, outgoing, easy to please; you are quick to show appreciation, yet accept, without judgment or criticism, the human weaknesses of others.

You are a fascinating talker, an even better listener.

You believe in, and practice, honest self-disclosure; you feel comfortable with yourself and therefore with everyone else; and you have a passionate interest in experiencing, in living, in relating to people.

Need you have any fears about making friends? Obviously not.

Your characteristics and temperament *obviate* such fears.

7. playing it wrong

Theodor Reik, in his penetrating book on psychoanalysis *Listening with the Third Ear*, talks about neurotic people who unconsciously wish to fail. In business interviews they say exactly the wrong words, they do exactly the wrong things, they seem intent (as, *unconsciously*, they actually are) on insuring failure in every possible way, though consciously they are doing their best to court success.

What effect does such a neurotic tendency have?

It *militates* against success.

8. playing it dirty

"Harry?" *He's a closet alcoholic.* Maud? *She's sleeping around*—and her stupid husband doesn't suspect a thing. Bill? *He's embezzling from his own company.* Paul? *He's a child molester.* Sally? You don't know that *she's a notorious husband-beater?*"

What is this character doing?

He's *maligning* everyone.

9. giving the benefit of any doubt

Do you think it's all right to cheat on your income taxes? At least just a little? It's wrong, of course, but doesn't everybody do it?

How do you feel about marital infidelity? Are you inclined to overlook the occasional philandering of the male partner, since, after all, to invent a cliché, men are essentially polygamous by nature?

If your answers are in the affirmative, how are you reacting to such legal or ethical transgressions?

You *condone* them.

10. changing hostility

Unwittingly you have done something that has aroused anger and resentment in your best friend. You had no desire to hurt him, yet he makes it obvious that he feels pretty bitter about the whole situation. (Perhaps you failed to invite him to a gathering he wanted to come to; or you neglected to consult him before making a decision on a matter in which he felt he should have some say.) His friendship is valuable to you and you wish to restore yourself in his good graces. What do you do?

You try to *placate* him.

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *disparage*	dis-PAIR′-əj
2. *equivocate*	ee-KWIV′-ə-kayt′
3. *titillate*	TIT′-ə-layt′
4. *adulate*	AJ′-ə-layt′
5. *proscribe*	prō-SKRĪB′
6. *obviate*	OB′-vee-ayt′
7. *militate*	MIL′-ə-tayt
8. *malign*	mə-LĪN′
9. *condone*	kən-DŌN′
10. *placate*	PLAY′-kayt′

Can you work with the words?

1. disparage	a. flatter lavishly
2. equivocate	b. work against
3. titillate	c. prohibit
4. adulate	d. forgive
5. proscribe	e. change hostility to friendliness
6. obviate	f. purposely talk in such a way as to be vague and misleading
7. militate	g. slander

8. malign
9. condone
10. placate

h. play down
i. make unnecessary
j. tickle; stimulate pleasurably

KEY: 1–h, 2–f, 3–j, 4–a, 5–c, 6–i, 7–b, 8–g, 9–d, 10–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Do you normally *disparage* something you admire?
   YES NO
2. Do you *equivocate* if you think it unwise to take a definite stand?
   YES NO
3. Do pleasant things *titillate* you?
   YES NO
4. Do emotionally mature people need constant *adulation?*
   YES NO
5. Is sugar *proscribed* for diabetics?
   YES NO
6. Does a substantial fortune *obviate* financial fears?
   YES NO
7. Does a worker's inefficiency often *militate* against his keeping his job?
   YES NO
8. Do people enjoy being *maligned?*
   YES NO
9. Do we generally *condone* the faults of those we love?
   YES NO
10. Can you sometimes *placate* a person by apologizing?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–yes, 10–yes

Can you use the words?

In this exercise you gain the value of actually writing a new word as a meaningful solution to a problem. To think about a word, to say it, to write it, to use it—that is the road to word mastery. Write the verb that best fits each situation.

1. You've been asked to take a stand on a certain issue, but you don't have the courage to be either definitely for or against.
   You _____.
2. You spread around an unpleasant story that you know will blacken someone's reputation.
   You _____ that person.
3. Your friend is justifiably angry—you asked him to go to a party with you, ignored him all evening, and then finally left with someone else. What must you do if you wish to restore the relationship?
   You must try to _____ him.
4. You virtually worship your therapist. You express your admiration in lavish flattery; you praise her in such excessive terms that she appears devoid of all human frailty.
   You _____ her.
5. You are crowding 260 on the scales, so your doctor warns against high-calorie meals, rich desserts, second helpings, excessive carbohydrates, etc.
   The doctor _____ these foods.
6. Your child Johnnie has smacked the neighbor's kid—entirely without provocation, you are forced to admit. But after all, you

think, tomorrow the other kid will, with equal lack of provocation, probably smack Johnnie.

You _____ Johnnie's behavior.

7. When your son, understandably expecting praise, mentions the three B's and two A's he earned in his courses, you respond, callously, "Is that the best you can do? What stopped you from getting *all* A's?"

   You _____ his accomplishment.

8. You have run out of cash and plan to go to the bank to make a withdrawal; then unexpectedly you discover a twenty-dollar bill you secreted in your desk drawer months ago.

   Your find _____ a trip to the bank.

9. You are the soul of honesty, but unfortunately, you have a sneaky, thievish, sinister look—and no one ever trusts you.

   Your appearance _____ against you.

10. The centerfold of *Playboy* or *Playgirl* provides a mild and agreeable stimulation.

    The centerfold _____ you.

KEY: 1–equivocate, 2–malign, 3–placate, 4–adulate, 5–proscribes, 6–condone, 7–disparage, 8–obviates, 9–militates, 10–titillates

Can you recall the words?

1. change hostility into friendliness
   1. P_____
2. make unnecessary
   2. O_____
3. belittle
   3. D_____
4. overlook or forgive a transgression
   4. C_____
5. tickle; delight; stimulate pleasurably
   5. T_____
6. spread malicious rumors about
   6. M_____
7. purposely use language susceptible of opposite interpretations
   7. E_____
8. act to disadvantage of
   8. M_____
9. forbid
   9. P_____
10. worship; flatter fulsomely
    10. A_____

KEY: 1–placate, 2–obviate, 3–disparage, 4–condone, 5–titillate, 6–malign, 7–equivocate, 8–militate (against), 9–proscribe, 10–adulate

(*End of Session 19*)

SESSION 20

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. equality

If you play golf, you know that each course or hole has a certain *par*, the number of strokes allowed according to the results achieved by expert players. Your own accomplishment on the course will be at *par*, above *par*, or below *par*.

Similarly, some days you may feel up to *par*, other days below *par*.

Par is from a Latin word meaning *equal*. You may try, when you play golf, to *equal* the expert score; and some days you may, or may not, feel *equal* to your usual self.

When we speak of *parity* payments to farmers, we refer to payments that show an *equality* to earnings for some agreed-upon year.

So when you *disparage*, you lower someone's *par*, or feeling of *equality*, (*dis-* as you know, may be a negative prefix). The noun is *disparagement* (dis-PAIR′-əj-mənt), the adjective *disparaging* (dis-PAIR′-əj-ing), as in "Why do you always make *disparaging* remarks about me?"

Parity (PAIR′-ə-tee) as a noun means *equality; disparity* (dis-PAIR′-ə-tee) means a lack of *equality*, or a difference. We may speak, for example, of the *disparity* between someone's promise and performance; or of the *disparity* between the rate of vocabulary growth of a child and of an adult. The adjective *disparate* (DIS′-pə-rət) indicates *essential* or *complete* difference or inequality, as in

"Our philosophies are so *disparate* that we can never come to any agreement on action."

The word *compare* and all its forms (*comparable, comparative*, etc.) derive from *par*, equal. Two things are *compared* when they have certain *equal* or similar qualities, (*con-, com-*, together, with).

Pair and *peer* are also from *par.* Things (shoes, socks, gloves, etc.) in *pairs* are *equal* or similar; your *peers* are those *equal* to you, as in age, position, rank, or ability. Hence the expression "to be judged by a jury of one's peers."

(British *peers*, however, such is the contradiction of language, were *nobles.*)

2. how to say yes and no

Equivocate is built on another Latin word meaning *equal—aequus* (the spelling in English is always *equ-*)—plus *vox, vocis*, voice.

When you *equivocate* (ə-KWIV′-ə-kayt′), you seem to be saying both *yes* and *no* with *equal voice.* An *equivocal* (ə-KWIV′-ə-kəl) answer, therefore, is by design vague, indefinite, and susceptible of contradictory interpretations, quite the opposite of an *unequivocal* (un′-ə-KWIV′-ə-kəl) response, which says *Yes!* or *No!*, and no kidding. Professional politicians are masters of *equivocation* (ə-kwiv′-ə-KAY′-shən)—they are, on most vital issues, mugwumps; they sit on a fence with their *mugs* on one side and their *wumps* on the other. You will often hear candidates for office say, publicly, that they *unequivocally* promise, if elected, to…; and then they start *equivocating* for all they are worth, like people who say, "Let me be perfectly *frank* with you"—and then promptly and glibly lie through their teeth.

3. statements of various kinds

Do not confuse *equivocal* with *ambiguous* (am′-BIG′-yo͞o-əs). An *equivocal* statement is purposely, deliberately (and with malice

aforethought) couched in language that will be deceptive; an *ambiguous* statement is *accidentally* couched in such language. *Equivocal* is, in short, purposely *ambiguous.*

You will recall that *ambi-*, which we last met in *ambivert* and *ambidextrous*, is a root meaning *both;* anything *ambiguous* may have *both* one meaning and another meaning. If you say, "That sentence is the height of *ambiguity*," you mean that you find it vague because it admits of both affirmative and negative interpretations, or because it may mean two different things. *Ambiguity* is pronounced am′-bə-GYŌŌ-ə-tee.

Another type of statement or word contains the possibility of two interpretations—one of them suggestive, risqué, or sexy. Such a statement or word is a *double entendre.* This is from the French and translates literally as *double meaning.* Give the word as close a french pronunciation as you can—DŌŌB′-ləhn-TAHN′-drə. (The *n*'s are nasalized, the *r* somewhat throaty, and the final syllable is barely audible.)

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *par*	equal
ENGLISH WORD: _____	
2. *-ment*	noun suffix attached to verbs
ENGLISH WORD: _____	
3. *-ity*	noun suffix attached to adjectives
ENGLISH WORD: _____	
4. *dis-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD: _____	

5. *con-, com-* with, together

ENGLISH WORD: _____

6. *aequus* (*equ-*) equal

ENGLISH WORD: _____

7. *vox, vocis* voice

ENGLISH WORD: _____

8. *-ate* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD: _____

9. *-ion* noun suffix attached to verbs ending in *-ate*

ENGLISH WORD: _____

10. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD: _____

11. *ambi-* both

ENGLISH WORD: _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *parity* PAIR′-ə-tee
2. *disparity* dis-PAIR′-ə-tee
3. *disparate* DIS′-pə-rət
4. *disparagement* dis-PAIR′-əj-mənt

5. *disparaging*	dis-PAIR′-əj-ing
6. *peer*	PEER
7. *equivocate*	ə-KWIV′-ə-kayt′
8. *equivocation*	ə-kwiv′-ə-KAY′-shən
9. *equivocal*	ə-KWIV′-ə-kəl
10. *unequivocal*	un′-ə-KWIV′-ə-kəl
11. *ambiguous*	am-BIG′-yōō-əs
12. *ambiguity*	am′-bə-GYŌŌ′-ə-tee
13. *double entendre*	DOOB′-ləhn-TAHN′-drə

Can you work with the words?

1. parity	a. belittlement
2. disparity	b. act of being deliberately vague or indirectly deceptive; statement that is deceptive or purposely open to contrary interpretations
3. disparagement	c. quality of being open to misinterpretation; statement with this quality
4. peer	d. statement or word with two meanings, one of them risqué, indelicate, or of possible sexual connotation

5. equivocation
6. ambiguity
7. double entendre

e. inequality
f. equality
g. one’s equal

KEY: 1–f, 2–e, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–c, 7–d

Do you understand the words?

1. Is there a *disparity* in age between a grandfather and his granddaughter?
   YES NO
2. Is an *equivocal* statement clear and direct?
   YES NO
3. Is an *unequivocal* answer vague and misleading?
   YES NO
4. Are politicians often masters of *equivocation?*
   YES NO
5. Are *ambiguous* sentences somewhat confusing?
   YES NO
6. Are people with *disparate* perceptions of life likely to experience reality in the same way?
   YES NO
7. Is a *disparaging* look one of admiration?
   YES NO
8. When people *equivocate*, are they evading the issue?
   YES NO
9. Is the deliberate use of *double entendres* likely to shock puritanical people?
   YES NO
10. Are supervisors and their subordinates *peers?*
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–no, 4–yes, 5-yes, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–no

Can you recall the words?

1. accidentally vague
    1. A_____
2. purposely vague
    2. E_____
3. equality
    3. P_____
4. word or statement one meaning of which may be interpreted as risqué
    4. D_____
5. lack of equality
    5. D_____
6. belittlement
    6. D_____
7. clear; direct; capable of only one interpretation
    7. U_____
8. essentially or widely unequal or different
    8. D_____
9. one's equal in age, rank, etc.
    9. P_____
10. to use words in a calculated effort to mislead or to be ambiguous
    10. E_____

KEY: 1–ambiguous, 2–equivocal, 3–parity, 4–double entendre, 5–disparity, 6–disparagement, 7–unequivocal, 8–disparate, 9–peer, 10–equivocate

(*End of Session 20*)

SESSION 21

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. more on equality

The root *aequus*, spelled *equ-* in English words, is a building block of:

1. *equity* (EK′-wə-tee)—justice, fairness; i.e., equal treatment. (By extension, stocks in the financial markets are *equities*, and the value of your home or other property over and above the amount of the mortgage you owe is your *equity* in it.) The adjective is *equitable* (EK′-wə-tə-bəl).

2. *inequity* (in-EK′-wə-tee)—injustice, unfairness (*equity* plus the negative prefix *in-*). Adjective: *inequitable* (in-EK′-wə-tə-bəl).

3. *iniquity* (in-IK′-wə-tee)—by one of those delightful surprises and caprices characteristic of language, the change of a single letter (*e* to *i*), extends the meaning of a word far beyond its derivation and original denotation. Injustice and unfairness are sinful and wicked, especially if you naïvely believe that life is fair. So a "den of *iniquity*" is a place where vice flourishes; an *iniquity* is a sin or vice, or an egregiously immoral act; and *iniquity* is wickedness, sinfulness. Adjective: *iniquitous* (in-IK′-wə-təs).

4. *equinox* (EE′-kwə-noks′)—etymologically, "equal night," a combination of *aequus* and *nox, noctis*, night. The *equinox*, when day and night are of equal length, occurs twice a year: about March 21, and again about September 21 or 22. (The adjective is *equinoctial*—ee′-kwə-NOK′-shəl.) *Nocturnal* (nok-TURN′-əl), derived from *nox, noctis*, describes people, animals, or plants that are active or flourish at night rather than during daylight hours. Cats and owls are

nocturnal, as is the moonflower, whose blossoms open at night; not to mention "night people," whose biorhythms are such that they function better after the sun goes down, and who like to stay up late and sleep well into midmorning. A *nocturne* (NOK′-turn) is a musical composition of dreamy character (i.e., night music), or a painting of a night scene.

5. *equanimity* (ee′-kwə-NIM′-ə-tee *or* ek′-wə-NIM′-ə-tee)—etymologically *aequus* plus *animus*, mind, hence "equal mind." Maintain your *equanimity*, your evenness of temper, your composure, your coolness or calmness, when everyone around you is getting excited or hysterical, and you will probably be considered an admirable person, though one might wonder what price you pay for such emotional control. (Other words built on *animus*, mind, will be discussed in Chapter 12.)

6. *Equability* (ee′-kwə-BIL′-ə-tee *or* ek′-wə-BIL′-ə-tee)—a close synonym of *equanimity*. A person of *equable* (EE′-kwə-bəl *or* EK′-wə-bəl) temperament is characteristically calm, serene, unflappable, even-tempered.

7. *equilibrium* (ee′-kwə-LIB′-ree-əm)—by derivation *aequus* plus *libra*, balance, weight, pound, hence "equal balance." *Libra* (LĪ′-brə) is the seventh sign of the zodiac, represented by a pair of scales. Now you know, in case the question has been bothering you, why the abbreviation for the word *pound* is *lb.* and why the symbol for the British *pound*, the monetary unit, is £. *Equilibrium* is a state of *physical* balance, especially between opposing forces. When you are very drunk you may have difficulty keeping your *equilibrium*—the force of gravity is stronger than your ability to stay upright. An *equilibrist* (ə-KWIL′-ə-brist), as you might guess, is a professional tightrope walker—a performer successfully defying the law of gravity (when sober) by *balancing* on a thin overhead wire.

The *equator* divides the earth into *equal* halves, and words like *equation, equivalent, equidistant, equiangular*, and *equilateral* (from Latin *latus, lateris*, side) are self-explanatory.

2. not to be confused with horses

Equestrian (ə-KWES′-tree-ən) is someone on a horse (as *pedestrian* is someone on foot); an *equestrienne* (ə-kwes′-tree-EN′) is a woman on a horse (if you *must* make the distinction); and *equine* (EE′-kwīn) is like a horse, as in appearance or characteristics, or descriptive of horses.

Equestrian is also an adjective referring to horseback riding, as an *equestrian* statue; and *equine* is also a noun, i.e., a horse.

So the *equ-* in these words, from Latin *equus*, horse, is not to be confused with the *equ-* in the words of the previous section—that *equ-* is from *aequus*, equal. (Remember, also, not to confuse the *ped-* in *pedestrian*, from Latin *pedis*, foot, with the *ped- in pediatrician*, from Greek *paidos*, child.)

3. hear voices?

Equivocal, you will recall, combines *aequus* with *vox, vocis*, voice; and *vox, vocis* combines with *fero*, to bear or carry, to form *vociferous* (vō-SIF′-ər-əs), etymologically "carrying (much) voice," hence loud, noisy, clamorous, as *vociferous* demands (not at all quiet or subtle), or the *vociferous* play of young children ("Please! Try to be quiet so Dad can get his work done!"), though unfortunately TV addiction has abnormally eliminated child noises, at least during the program breaks between commercials. (*Vociferous* will be discussed at greater length in Chapter 10.)

If you are *vocal* (VŌ′-kəl), you express yourself readily and freely by voice; *vocal* sounds are voiced; *vocal* music is sung; and you know what your *vocal* cords are for.

To *vocalize* (VŌ′-kə-līz′) is to give voice to ("*Vocalize* your anger, don't hold it in!"), or to sing the *vocals* (or voice parts) of music. (Can you write the noun form of the verb *vocalize?* _____.) A *vocalist* (VŌ′-kə-list) is a singer. And *Magnavox (vox* plus *magnus*, large) is the trade name for a brand of radios and TV sets.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *aequus* (*equ-*)	equal
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *in-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *nox, noctis*	night
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *animus*	mind
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *-ity*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *libra*	balance, weight, pound
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *-ist*	person who
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *latus, lateris*	side
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *equus*	horse
ENGLISH WORD _____	
10. *-ine*	like, descriptive of
ENGLISH WORD _____	
11. *pedis*	foot

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *paidos* (*ped-*) child

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *vox, vocis* voice

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *fero* to bear, carry

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *magnus* large

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *equity* EK′-wə-tee
2. *equitable* EK′-wə-tə-bəl
3. *inequity* in-EK′-wə-tee
4. *inequitable* in-EK′-wə-tə-bəl
5. *iniquity* in-IK′-wə-tee
6. *iniquitous* in-IK′-wə-təs
7. *equinox* EE′-kwə-noks′
8. *equinoctial* ee′-kwə-NOK′-shəl
9. *nocturnal* nok-TURN′-əl
10. *nocturne* NOK′-turn

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *equanimity*	ee′-kwə (*or* ek′-wə) -NIM′-ə-tee
2. *equability*	ee′-kwə (*or* ek′-wə) -BIL′-ə-tee
3. *equable*	EE′-kwə-bəl *or* EK′-wə-bəl
4. *equilibrium*	ee′-kwə-LIB′-ree-əm
5. *equilibrist*	ee-KWIL′-ə-brist
6. *equilateral*	ee-kwə-LAT′-ər-əl
7. *equestrian*	ə-KWES′-tree-ən
8. *equine*	EE′-kwīn
9. *vociferous*	vō-SIF′-ər-əs
10. *vocal*	VŌ′-kəl
11. *vocalize*	VŌ′-kə-līz′
12. *vocalization*	vō′-kə-lə-ZAY′-shən
13. *vocalist*	VŌ′-kə-list

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. equity	a. time when night and day are of equal length
2. inequity	b. balance of mind; composure; calmness under trying circumstances
3. iniquity	c. horseback rider
4. equinox	d. a horse

5. nocturne	e. sinfulness; wickedness; immoral act; sin
6. equanimity	f. unfairness, injustice
7. equilibrium	g. tightrope walker
8. equestrian	h. singer
9. equilibrist	i. fairness, justice
10. equine	j. balance, especially between opposing forces
11. vocalist	k. night music

KEY: 1–i, 2–f, 3–e, 4–a, 5–k, 6–b, 7–j, 8–c, 9–g, 10–d, 11–h

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. equitable	a. descriptive of time when night and day are of equal length
2. inequitable	b. give voice to; sing
3. iniquitous	c. having equal sides
4. equinoctial	d. using, or referring to, the voice; freely expressing by voice
5. nocturnal	e. noisy, loud, clamorous
6. equable	f. calm, unruffled, even-tempered
7. equilateral	g. fair, just
8. vociferous	h. referring or pertaining to, or active at, night
9. vocal	i. sinful, wicked, immoral
10. vocalize	j. unfair, unjust

KEY: 1–g, 2–j, 3–i, 4–a, 5–h, 6–f, 7–c, 8–e, 9–d, 10–b

Do you understand the words?

1. Is life always *equitable?*
   YES NO
2. Does the cynic expect more *inequity* than *equity* in life?
   YES NO
3. Do ethical people practice *iniquity?*
   YES NO
4. Does the *equinox* occur once a month?
   YES NO
5. Are *nocturnal* animals active at night?
   YES NO
6. If you generally preserve your *equanimity*, do you often get very excited?
   YES NO
7. Is it easy to maintain your *equilibrium* on icy ground?
   YES NO
8. Is *equability* the mark of a calm, even-tempered person?
   YES NO
9. Does an *equilateral* triangle have equal sides?
   YES NO
10. Is an *equine* a dog?
    YES NO
11. If you demand something *vociferously*, do you make a lot of noise?
    YES NO
12. If you are *vocal*, do you have difficulty expressing yourself?

YES NO

13. Is a *vocalist* the same as an instrumentalist?

YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–no, 11–yes, 12–no, 13–no

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. to give voice to; to express aloud; to sing
   1. V_____
2. tightrope walker
   2. E_____
3. active or flourishing at night
   3. N_____
4. descriptive or characteristic of, or like, a horse
   4. E_____
5. referring to the voice; skillful or fluent in expressing by voice
   5. V_____
6. calm and unflappable in temperament
   6. E_____
7. wicked, sinful
   7. I_____
8. night music
   8. N_____
9. fairness, justice
   9. E_____

KEY: 1–vocalize, 2–equilibrist, 3–nocturnal, 4–equine, 5–vocal, 6–equable, 7–iniquitous, 8–nocturne, 9–equity

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. loud, noisy, clamorous
   1. V_____
2. person on horseback
   2. E_____
   or E_____
3. calmness or evenness of temper
   3. E_____
   or E_____
4. unfair, unjust
   4. I_____
5. sin; wickedness; grossly immoral behavior
   5. I_____
6. time when day and night are of equal length
   6. E_____
7. fair, just, evenhanded
   7. E_____
8. physical balance; balance between opposing forces
   8. E_____
9. having equal sides
   9. E_____
10. singer
    10. V_____

KEY: 1–vociferous, 2–equestrian *or* equestrienne, 3–equanimity *or* equability, 4–inequitable, 5–iniquity, 6–equinox, 7–equitable, 8–equilibrium, 9–equilateral, 10–vocalist

(*End of Session 21*)

SESSION 22

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. how to tickle

Titillate comes from a Latin verb meaning *to tickle*, and may be used both literally and figuratively. That is (literally), you can *titillate* by gentle touches in strategic places; you are then causing an actual (and always very pleasant) physical sensation. Or you can (figuratively) *titillate* people, or their minds, fancies, palates (and this is the more common use of the word), by charm, brilliance, wit, promises, or in any other way your imagination can conceive.

Titillation (tit′-ə-LAY′-shən) has the added meaning of light sexual stimulation. (Note that both noun and verb are spelled with a double *l, not* a double *t.*)

2. how to flatter

A *compliment* is a pleasant and courteous expression of praise; *flattery* is stronger than a compliment and often considered insincere. *Adulation* (aj′-ə-LAY′-shən) is flattery and worship carried to an excessive, ridiculous degree. There are often public figures (entertainers, musicians, government officials, etc.) who receive widespread *adulation*, but those not in the public eye can also be *adulated*, as a teacher by students, a wife by husband (and vice versa), a doctor by patients, and so on. (The derivation is from a Latin verb meaning *to fawn upon.*)

The adjective *adulatory* (aj′-ə-lə-TAWR′-ee) ends in *-ory*, a suffix we are meeting for the first time in these pages. (Other adjective

suffixes: *-al, -ic, -ical, -ous.*)

3. ways of writing

Proscribe, to forbid, is commonly used for medical, religious, or legal prohibitions.

A doctor *proscribes* a food, drug, or activity that might prove harmful to the patient. The church *proscribes*, or announces a *proscription* (prō-SKRIP′-shən) against, such activities as may harm its parishioners. The law *proscribes* behavior detrimental to the public welfare.

Generally, one might concede, *proscribed* activities are the most pleasant ones—as Alexander Woolcott once remarked, if something is pleasurable, it's sure to be either immoral, illegal, or fattening.

The derivation is the prefix *pro-*, before, plus *scribo, scriptus*, to write. In ancient Roman times, a man's name was written on a public bulletin board if he had committed some crime for which his property or life was to be forfeited; Roman citizens in good standing would thereby know to avoid him. In a similar sense, the doctor writes down those foods or activities that are likely to commit crimes against the patient's health—in that way the patient knows to avoid them.

Scribo, scriptus is the building block of scores of common English words: *scribe, scribble, prescribe, describe, subscribe, script, the Scriptures, manuscript, typescript*, etc. *Describe* uses the prefix *de-*, down—to *describe* is, etymologically, "to write down" about. *Manuscript*, combining *manus*, hand (as in *manual* labor), with *scriptus*, is something handwritten—the word was coined before the invention of the typewriter. *The Scriptures* are holy writings. To *subscribe* (as to a magazine) is to write one's name *under* an order or contract (*sub-*, under, as in *subway, subsurface*, etc.); to *subscribe* to a philosophy or a principle is figuratively to write one's name *under* the statement of such philosophy or principle.

To *inscribe* is to write *in* or *into* (a book, for example, or metal or stone). A *postscript* is something written after (Latin *post*, after) the

main part is finished.

Note how *-scribe* verbs change to nouns and adjectives:

VERB	NOUN	ADJECTIVE
prescribe	prescription	prescriptive
subscribe	subscription	subscriptive

Can you follow the pattern?

describe	_____	_____
inscribe	_____	_____
proscribe	_____	_____

4. it's obvious

You are familiar with the word *via*, by way of, which is from the Latin word for *road.* (The *Via Appia* was one of the famous highways of ancient Roman times.) When something is *obvious*, etymologically it is right there in the middle of the road where no one can fail to see it—hence, easily seen, not hidden, conspicuous. And if you meet an obstacle in the road and dispose of it forthwith, you are doing what *obviate* says. Thus, if you review your work daily in some college subject, frenzied "cramming" at the end of the semester will be *obviated.* A large and steady income *obviates* fears of financial insecurity; leaving for work early will *obviate* worry about being late. *To obviate*, then, is to make unnecessary, to do away with, to prevent by taking effective measures or steps against (an occurrence, a feeling, a requirement, etc.). The noun is *obviation* (ob′-vee-AY′-shən).

Surprisingly, *via*, road, is the root in the English word *trivial* (*tri-*, three). Where three roads intersect, you are likely to find busy traffic, lots of people, in short a fairly public place, so you are not going to talk of important or confidential matters, lest you be

overheard. You will, instead, talk of *trivial* (TRIV′-ee-əl) things—whatever is unimportant, without great significance; you will confine your conversation to *trivialities* (triv′-ee-AL′-ə-teez) or to *trivia* (also a plural noun, pronounced TRIV′-ee-ə), insignificant trifles.

5. war

Militate derives from *militis*, one of the forms of the Latin noun meaning *soldier* or *fighting man.* If something *militates* against you, it fights against you, i.e., works to your disadvantage. Thus, your timidity may *militate* against your keeping your friends. (*Militate* is always followed by the preposition *against* and, like *obviate*, never takes a personal subject—*you* don't *militate* against anyone, but some habit, action, tendency, etc. *militates* against someone or something.)

The adjective *militant* (MIL′-ə-tənt) comes from the same root. A *militant* reformer is one who fights for reforms; a *militant* campaign is one waged aggressively and with determination. The noun is *militancy* (MIL′-ə-tən-see), and *militant* is also a noun for the person—"Sally is a *militant* in the Women's Liberation movement."

Military and *militia* also have their origin in *militis.*

6. first the bad news

Built on Latin *malus*, bad, evil, to *malign* is to speak evil about, to defame, to slander. *Malign* is also an adjective meaning *bad, harmful, evil, hateful*, as in "the *malign* influence of his unconscious will to fail." Another adjective form is *malignant* (mə-LIG′-nənt), as in "a *malignant* glance," i.e., one showing deep hatred, or "a *malignant* growth," i.e., one that is cancerous (bad).

The noun of *malignant* is *malignancy* (mə-LIG′-nən-see), which, medically, is a cancerous growth, or, generally, the condition, state,

or attitude of harmfulness, hatefulness, evil intent, etc. The noun form of the adjective *malign* is *malignity* (mə-LIG′-nə-tee).

Observe how we can construct English words by combining *malus* with other Latin roots.

Add the root *dico, dictus*, to say or tell, to form *malediction* (mal′-ə-DIK′-shən), a curse, i.e., an evil saying. Adjective: *maledictory* (mal′-ə-DIK′-tə-ree).

Add the root *volo*, to wish, to will, or to be willing, and we can construct the adjective *malevolent* (mə-LEV′-ə-lent), wishing evil or harm—a *malevolent* glance, attitude, feeling, etc. The noun is *malevolence* (mə-LEV′-ə-ləns).

Add the root *facio, factus*, to do or make (also spelled, in English words, *fec-, fic-, factus*, or, as a verb ending, *-fy*), to form the adjective *maleficent* (mə-LEF′-ə-sənt), doing harm or evil, or causing hurt—*maleficent* acts, deeds, behavior.

Can you figure out, and pronounce, the noun form of *maleficent?* _____.

A *malefactor* (MAL′-ə-fak′-tər) is a wrongdoer, an evildoer, a criminal—a *malefactor* commits a *malefaction* (mal′-ə-FAK′-shən), a crime, an evil deed.

French is a "Romance" language, that is, a language based on Roman or Latin (as are, also, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Romanian), and so Latin *malus* became French *mal*, bad, the source of *maladroit* (mal′-ə-DROYT′), clumsy, bungling, awkward, unskillful, etymologically, having a "bad right hand." (See *adroit*, Chapter 3.) The noun is *maladroitness.* Also from French *mal: malaise* (mə-LAYZ′), an indefinite feeling of bodily discomfort, as in a mild illness, or as a symptom preceding an illness; etymologically, "bad ease," just as *disease* (dis-ease) is "lack of ease."

Other common words that you are familiar with also spring from Latin *malus: malicious, malice, malady;* and the same *malus* functions as a prefix in words like *maladjusted, malcontent, malpractice, malnutrition*, etc., all with the connotation of *badness.*

And what's the *good* news? See Session 23.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *-ory*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *scribo, scriptus*	to write
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *de-*	down
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *manus*	hand
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *sub-*	under
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *in-*	in, into
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *post*	after
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *via*	road
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *tri-*	three
ENGLISH WORD _____	
10. *militis*	soldier
ENGLISH WORD _____	
11. *malus*	bad, evil

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *dico, dictus* to say, tell

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *volo* to wish

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *facio* (*fec-, fic-, fy*) to do, make

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-ence, -ancy* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

WORKING WITH THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *titillation* tit′-ə-LAY′-shən
2. *adulation* aj′-ə-LAY′-shən
3. *adulatory* AJ′-ə-lə-tawr′-ee
4. *proscription* prō-SKRIP′-shən
5. *proscriptive* prō-SKRIP′-tiv
6. *obviation* ob′-vee-AY′-shən
7. *trivial* TRIV′-ee-əl
8. *trivialities* triv′-ee-AL′-ə-teez
9. *trivia* TRIV′-ee-ə
10. *militant* MIL′-ə-tənt

11. *militancy*	MIL′-ə-tən-see
12. *malign* (*adj.*)	mə-LĪN′
13. *malignity*	mə-LIG′-nə-tee
14. *malignant*	mə-LIG′-nənt
15. *malignancy*	mə-LIG′-nən-see

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *malediction*	mal′-ə-DIK′-shən
2. *maledictory*	mal′-ə-DIK′-tə-ree
3. *malevolent*	mə-LEV′-ə-lənt
4. *malevolence*	mə-LEV′-ə-ləns
5. *maleficent*	mə-LEF′-ə-sənt
6. *maleficence*	mə-LEF′-ə-səns
7. *malefactor*	MAL′-ə-fak′-tər
8. *malefaction*	mal′-ə-FAK′-shən
9. *maladroit*	mal′-ə-DROYT′
10. *maladroitness*	mal′-ə-DROYT′-nəs
11. *malaise*	mə-LAYZ′

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. titillation	a. prohibition
2. adulation	b. hatefulness; harmfulness

3. proscription	c. clumsiness
4. militancy	d. quality of wishing evil; ill-will
5. malignity	e. prevention; fact or act of making unnecessary or of doing away with
6. malediction	f. worship; excessive flattery
7. maladroitness	g. vague feeling of bodily discomfort
8. obviation	h. pleasurable stimulation; tickling
9. malevolence	i. a curse
10. malaise	j. aggressiveness

KEY: 1–h, 2–f, 3–a, 4–j, 5–b, 6–i, 7–c, 8–e, 9–d, 10–g

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. adulatory	a. aggressive; “fighting”
2. proscriptive	b. of no great consequence
3. militant	c. bearing ill-will; wishing harm
4. malign	d. of the nature of curses
5. trivial	e. clumsy, awkward
6. maledictory	f. worshipful, adoring
7. malevolent	g. bad, harmful, hurtful
8. maladroit	h. relating or pertaining to prohibitions

KEY: 1–f, 2–h, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c, 8–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Does a *malignant* look indicate kindly feelings?
   YES NO
2. Is a cancer sometimes called a *malignancy?*
   YES NO
3. Are *trivialties* important?
   YES NO
4. If your house is cluttered with *trivia*, are these objects of great value?
   YES NO
5. Do people enjoy having *maledictions* hurled at them?
   YES NO
6. Is a *maleficent* act likely to cause harm or hurt?
   YES NO
7. Does *maladroitness* show skill?
   YES NO
8. Is a *malefactor* a wrongdoer?
   YES NO
9. Does an *adulatory* attitude show exaggerated admiration?
   YES NO
10. Is *militancy* the same as passiveness?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–no, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–no

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. clumsy, awkward
   1. M_____
2. bearing ill-will; wishing harm
   2. M_____
3. pleasurable stimulation
   3. T_____
4. a person aggressively fighting for a cause
   4. M_____
5. prohibition against something injurious
   5. P_____
6. excessive flattery; exaggerated admiration
   6. A_____
7. vague feeling of general physical discomfort
   7. M_____
8. a criminal; a wrongdoer
   8. M_____
9. a curse
   9. M_____
10. a crime; bad or evil act or behavior
    10. M_____

KEY: 1–maladroit, 2–malevolent, 3–titillation, 4–militant, 5–proscription, 6–adulation, 7–malaise, 8–malefactor, 9–malediction, 10–malefaction

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. fact or act of making unnecessary or of taking effective steps toward prevention
   1. O_____
2. aggressive attitude
   2. M_____
3. harmful, hurtful, bad
   3. M_____
   or M_____
   or M_____
4. unimportant, insignificant
   4. T_____
5. unimportant, insignificant things; trifles
   5. T_____
   or T_____
6. cursing; of the nature of, or relating to, curses (*adj.*)
   6. M_____
7. worshipful
   7. A_____

KEY: 1–obviation, 2–militancy, 3–malign, malignant, *or* maleficent, 4–trivial, 5–trivialities *or* trivia, 6–maledictory, 7–adulatory

(*End of Session 22*)

SESSION 23

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. so now what's the good news?

Malus is *bad; bonus* is *good.* The adverb from the Latin adjective *bonus* is *bene*, and *bene* is the root found in words that contrast with the *mal-* terms we studied in the previous session.

So *benign* (bə-NĪN′) and *benignant* (bə-NIG′-nənt) are kindly, good-natured, not harmful, as in *benign* neglect, a *benign* judge, a *benign* tumor (not cancerous), a *benignant* attitude to malefactors and scoundrels. The corresponding nouns are *benignity* (bə-NIG′-nə-tee) and *benignancy* (bə-NIG′-nən-see).

A *malediction* is a curse; a *benediction* (ben′-ə-DIK′-shən) is a blessing, a "saying good." The adjective is *benedictory* (ben′-ə-DIK′-tə-ree).

In contrast to *maleficent* is *beneficent* (bə-NEF′-ə-sənt), doing good. The noun? _____.

In contrast to *malefactor* is *benefactor* (BEN′-ə-fak′-tər), one who does good things for another, as by giving help, providing financial gifts or aid, or coming to the rescue when someone is in need. If you insist on making sexual distinctions, a woman who so operates is a *benefactress* (BEN′-ə-fak′-trəs). And, of course, the person receiving the *benefaction* (ben-ə-FAK′-shən), the recipient of money, help, etc., is a *beneficiary* (ben′-ə-FISH′-ər-ee *or* ben-ə-FISH′-ee-air-ee). *Benefit* and *beneficial* are other common words built on the combination of *bene* and a form of *facio*, to do or make.

So let others be *malevolent* toward you—confuse them by being *benevolent* (bə-NEV′-ə-lənt)—wish them well. (Turn the other cheek?

Why not?) The noun? _____

The adjective *bonus*, good, is found in English *bonus*, extra payment, theoretically—but not necessarily—for some good act; in *bonbon*, a candy (a "good-good," using the French version of the Latin adjective); and in *bona fide* (BŌ′-nə-FĪD′ *or* BŌ′-nə-FĪ′-dee), etymologically, "in good faith," hence valid, without pretense, deception, or fraudulent intent—as a *bona fide* offer, a *bona fide* effort to negotiate differences, etc. *Fides* is Latin for *faith* or *trust*, as in *fidelity* (fə-DEL′-ə-tee), faithfulness; *Fido*, a stereotypical name for a dog, one's faithful friend; *infidel* (IN′-fə-dəl), one who does *not* have the right faith or religion (depending on who is using the term), or one who has *no* religion (Latin *in-*, not); and *infidelity* (in′-fə-DEL′-ə-tee), unfaithfulness, especially to the marriage vows.

2. say, do, and wish

Benediction and *malediction* derive from *dico, dictus*, to say, tell. *Dictate, dictator, dictation, dictatorial* (dik′-tə-TAWR′-ee-əl)—words that signify telling others what to do ("Do as I say!")—are built on *dico*, as is *predict*, to tell beforehand, i.e., to say that something will occur before it actually does (*pre-*, before, as in *prescient*).

The brand name *Dictaphone* combines *dico* with *phone*, sound; *contradict*, to say against, or to make an opposite statement ("Don't *contradict* me!"; "That *contradicts* what I know") combines *dico* with *contra-*, against, opposite; and *addiction*, etymologically "a saying to or toward," or the compulsion to say "yes" to a habit, combines *dico* with *ad-*, to, toward.

Facio, factus, to do or make (as in *malefactor, benefactor*), has, as noted, variant spellings in English words: *fec-, fic-*, or, as a verb ending, *-fy*.

Thus *factory* is a place where things are *made* (*-ory*, place where); a *fact* is something *done* (i.e., something that occurs, or exists, or is, therefore, true); *fiction*, something *made* up or invented; *manufacture*, to *make* by hand (*manus*, hand, as in *manuscript, manual*), a word coined before the invention of machinery; *artificial,*

made by human art rather than occurring in nature, as *artificial* flowers, etc.; and *clarify, simplify, liquefy, magnify* (to *make* clear, simple, liquid, larger) among hundreds of other *-fy* verbs.

Volo, to wish, to will, to be willing (as in *malevolent, benevolent*), occurs in *voluntary, involuntary, volunteer*, words too familiar to need definition, and each quite obviously expressing *wish* or *willingness.* Less common, and from the same root, is *volition* (vō-LISH′-ən), the act or power of willing or wishing, as in "of her own *volition*," i.e., *voluntarily*, or "against her *volition.*"

3. if you please!

Placate is built on the root *plac-* which derives from two related Latin verbs meaning, 1) *to please*, and 2) *to appease, soothe*, or *pacify.*

If you succeed in *placating* an angry colleague, you turn that person's hostile attitude into one that is friendly or favorable. The noun is *placation* (play-KAY′-shən), the adjective either *placative* (PLAK′-ə-tiv *or* PLAY′-kə-tiv) or *placatory* (PLAK′-ə-taw-ree *or* PLAY′-kə-taw-ree). A more *placatory* attitude to those you have offended may help you regain their friendship; when husband and wife, or lovers, quarrel, one of them finally makes a *placative* gesture if the war no longer fulfills his or her neurotic needs—one of them eventually will wake up some bright morning in a *placatory* mood.

But then, such is life, the other one may at that point be *implacable* (im-PLAK′-ə-bəl *or* im-PLAY′-kə-bəl)—*im-* is a respelling of *in-*, not, before the letter *p.* One who *can* be soothed, whose hostility *can* be changed to friendliness, is *placable* (PLAK′-ə-bəl *or* PLAY′-kə-bəl).

Implacable has taken on the added meaning of *unyielding to entreaty or pity;* hence, *harsh, relentless*, as "The governor was *implacable* in his refusal to grant clemency."

The noun form of *implacable* is *implacability* (im-plak′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee *or* im-play′-kə-BIL′-ə-tee). Can you write (and pronounce) the noun derived from *placable?* _____.

If you are *placid* (PLAS′-id), you are calm, easygoing, serene, undisturbed—etymologically, you are pleased with things as they are. Waters of a lake or sea, or the emotional atmosphere of a place, can also be *placid.* The noun is *placidity* (plə-SID′-ə-tee).

If you are *complacent* (kəm-PLAY-sənt), you are pleased with yourself (*com-*, from *con-*, with, together); you may, in fact, such is one common connotation of the word, be smug, *too* pleased with your position or narrow accomplishments, too easily self-satisfied, and the hour of reckoning may be closer than you realize. (Humans, as you know, are delighted to be critical of the contentment of others.)

The noun is *complacence* (kəm-PLAY′-səns) or *complacency* (kəm-PLAY′-sən-see).

4. how to give—and forgive

To *condone* is to forgive, overlook, pardon, or be uncritical of (an offense, or of an antisocial or illegal act). You yourself might or might not indulge in such behavior or commit such an offense, but you feel no urge to protest, or to demand censure or punishment for someone else who does. You may *condone* cheating on one's income tax, shoplifting from a big, impersonal supermarket, or exceeding the speed limit, though you personally observe the law with scrupulousness. (Not everyone, however, is so charitable or forgiving.) The noun is *condonation* (kon′-dō-NAY′-shən).

Condone is built on Latin *dono*, to give, the root found in *donor*, one who gives; *donate*, to give; and *donation*, a gift.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *bonus, bene*	good, well

ENGLISH WORD _____

2. *fides* faith

ENGLISH WORD _____

3. *dico, dictus* to say, tell

ENGLISH WORD _____

4. *pre-* before, beforehand

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *phone* sound

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *contra-* against, opposite

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *ad-* to, toward

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *facio, factus, fec-, fic-, -fy* to make or do

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *-ory* place where

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *manus* hand

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *volo* to wish, to will, to be willing

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *plac-* to please, appease, soothe, pacify

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ive* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *-ory* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *im-* (*in-*) not; negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *com-* (*con-*) with, together

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *dono* to give

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *benign* bə-NĪN′
2. *benignity* bə-NIG′-nə-tee
3. *benignant* bə-NIG′-nənt
4. *benignancy* bə-NIG′-nən-see
5. *benediction* ben′-ə-DIK′-shən
6. *benedictory* ben′-ə-DIK′-tə-ree
7. *beneficent* bə-NEF′-ə-sənt
8. *beneficence* bə-NEF′-ə-səns
9. *benefactor* BEN′-ə-fak′-tər

10. *benefaction*	ben′-ə-FAK′-shən
11. *beneficiary*	ben′-ə-FISH′-ər-ee *or* ben′-ə-FISH′-ee-air-ee
12. *benevolent*	bə-NEV′-ə-lənt
13. *benevolence*	bə-NEV′-ə-ləns
14. *bona fide*	BŌ′-nə FĪD′ *or* BŌ′-nə FĪ′-dee
15. *fidelity*	fə-DEL′-ə-tee
16. *infidelity*	in′-fə-DEL′-ə-tee
17. *infidel*	IN′-fə-dəl

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *dictatorial*	dik′-tə-TAWR′-ee-əl
2. *volition*	vō-LISH′-ən
3. *placation*	play-KAY′-shən
4. *placative*	PLAK′-ə-tiv *or* PLAY′-kə-tiv
5. *placatory*	PLAK′-ə-tawr-ee *or* PLAY′-kə-tawr-ee
6. *placable*	PLAK′-ə-bəl *or* PLAY′-kə-bəl
7. *implacable*	im-PLAK′-ə-bəl *or* im-PLAY′-kə-bəl
8. *placability*	plak′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee *or* play′-kə-BIL′-ə-tee
9. *implacability*	im-plak′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee *or* im-play′-

	kə-BIL′-ə-tee
10. *placid*	PLAS′-id
11. *placidity*	plə-SID′-ə-tee
12. *complacent*	kəm-PLAY′-sənt
13. *complacence*	kəm-PLAY′-səns
14. *complacency*	kəm-PLAY′-sən-see
15. *condonation*	kon′-dō-NAY′-shən

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. benign	a. wishing good things (for another) ; well disposed
2. benedictory	b. domineering; giving orders in a manner permitting no refusal
3. benevolent	c. not to be soothed or pacified; unyielding to pity or entreaty
4. bona fide	d. tending, or intended, to pacify, to soothe, or to change hostility to friendliness
5. dictatorial	e. kindly, good-natured; not cancerous
6. placatory	f. calm, unruffled, undisturbed
7. implacable	g. self-satisfied; smug
8. placid	h. of the nature of, or relating to,

blessings

9. complacent

i. in good faith; sincere; valid

KEY: 1–e, 2–h, 3–a, 4–i, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c, 8–f, 9–g

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. benevolence	a. recipient of money, kindness, etc.
2. benefaction	b. free will
3. beneficiary	c. act of overlooking, or of forgiving, an offense or transgression
4. infidelity	d. faithfulness
5. volition	e. self-satisfaction; smugness
6. placation	f. calmness
7. fidelity	g. act of pacifying, or of turning hostility or anger into friendly feelings
8. condonation	h. attitude of wishing good things for another
9. placidity	i. faithlessness
10. complacency	j. good deed; act of charity or kindness

KEY: 1–h, 2–j, 3–a, 4–i, 5–b, 6–g, 7–d, 8–c, 9–f, 10–e

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Are *benedictions* given in houses of worship?
   YES NO
2. Is it pleasant to be the recipient of a *beneficent* act?
   YES NO
3. Are kind people *benevolent?*
   YES NO
4. Do *placatory* gestures often heal wounds and soothe disgruntled friends?
   YES NO
5. Are some unambitious people *complacent?*
   YES NO
6. Does *benignity* show malice?
   YES NO
7. Is a *benefaction* an act of philanthropy?
   YES NO
8. Is an *implacable* foe of corruption likely to *condone* corrupt acts?
   YES NO
9. Is a *bona fide* offer made insincerely?
   YES NO
10. Does a *benignant* attitude indicate hostility?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–no, 10–no

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. benign—hateful
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. benignant—kindly
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. benediction—malediction
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. benefactor—evildoer
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. beneficiary—giver
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. benevolent—well disposed
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. bona fide—valid
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. fidelity—unfaithfulness
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. infidel—true believer
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. dictatorial—submissive
    SAME OPPOSITE
11. placative—pacifying
    SAME OPPOSITE
12. implacable—unyielding
    SAME OPPOSITE

13. placid—calm

SAME OPPOSITE

14. complacent—discontented

SAME OPPOSITE

15. condonation—forgiveness

SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–S, 3–O, 4–O, 5–O, 6–S, 7–S, 8–O, 9–O, 10–O, 11–S, 12–S, 13–S, 14–O, 15–S

Can you recall the words?

1. tending to give orders
    1. D_____
2. act of overlooking (an offense, etc.)
    2. C_____
3. unyieldingly hostile; beyond soothing; relentless; pitiless
    3. I_____
4. intended to soothe or pacify (*adj.*)
    4. P_____
    or P_____
5. one's desire, wishes, or unforced will
    5. V_____
6. calmness
    6. P_____
7. self-satisfaction; smugness
    7. C_____
    or C_____
8. non-believer in the "true" religion
    8. I_____
9. kindly; well disposed
    9. B_____
    or B_____
    or B_____
10. unfaithfulness
    10. I_____
11. involving a blessing (*adj.*)

11. B_____

12. doing something good or kind (*adj.*)

12. B_____

13. faithfulness

13. F_____

14. sincere; valid; in good faith

14. B_____

15. one who does something good, kind, or charitable (for another)

15. B_____

16. a kind or charitable deed

16. B_____

17. recipient of kindness, gift, etc.

17. B_____

18. able to be soothed or pacified

18. P_____

KEY: 1–dictatorial, 2–condonation, 3–implacable, 4–placatory *or* placative, 5–volition, 6–placidity, 7–complacence *or* complacency, 8–infidel, 9–benign, benignant, *or* benevolent, 10–infidelity, 11–benedictory, 12–beneficent, 13–fidelity, 14–bona fide, 15–benefactor, 16–benefaction, 17–beneficiary, 18–placable

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. To belittle:
   (a) titillate, (b) disparage, (c) adulate
2. To be purposely confusing:
   (a) equivocate, (b) obviate, (c) proscribe
3. To work to the disadvantage of:
   (a) malign, (b) militate, (c) placate
4. To slander:
   (a) malign, (b) condone, (c) placate
5. Lack of equality:
   (a) parity, (b) disparity, (c) ambiguity
6. Phrase that may have two interpretations, one of them indelicate or off-color:
   (a) equivocation, (b) ambiguity, (c) double entendre
7. Hateful:
   (a) malignant, (b) benignant, (c) malaise
8. Ill will:
   (a) malaise, (b) malevolence, (c) maleficence
9. Kindly:

(a) benevolent, (b) placid, (c) complacent

10. Inflexibly hostile:

    (a) implacable, (b) placatory, (c) militant

11. Giving orders imperiously:

    (a) benedictory, (b) dictatorial, (c) adulatory

12. Self-satisfaction:

    (a) complacency, (b) placation, (c) placidity

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–b, 4–a, 5–b, 6–c, 7–a, 8–b, 9–a, 10–a, 11–b, 12–a

B. Can you recognize roots?

MEANING	ROOT
1. *par*	_____
EXAMPLE parity	
2. *aequus* (*equ-*)	_____
EXAMPLE equivocal	
3. *vox, vocis*	_____
EXAMPLE vocal	
4. *nox, noctis*	_____
EXAMPLE nocturnal	
5. *libra*	_____
EXAMPLE equilibrist	
6. *latus, lateris*	_____
EXAMPLE equilateral	
7. *equus*	_____
EXAMPLE equine	
8. *pedis*	_____
EXAMPLE pedestrian	
9. *paidos* (*ped-*)	_____

EXAMPLE pedagogue

10. *fero* _____

EXAMPLE vociferous

11. *magnus* _____

EXAMPLE magnify

12. *scribo, scriptus* _____

EXAMPLE proscribe

13. *manus* _____

EXAMPLE manuscript

14. *post* _____

EXAMPLE postscript

15. *via* _____

EXAMPLE trivial

16. *militis* _____

EXAMPLE militate

17. *malus* _____

EXAMPLE malefactor

18. *dico, dictus* _____

EXAMPLE dictatorial

19. *volo* _____

EXAMPLE volition

20. *facio* (*fec-, fic-, -fy*) _____

EXAMPLE benefactor

fiction

simplify

21. *bonus* _____

EXAMPLE bona fide

22. *fides* _____

EXAMPLE fidelity

23. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE Dictaphone

24. *plac-* _____

EXAMPLE placate

25. *dono* _____

EXAMPLE donation

KEY: 1–equal, 2–equal, 3–voice, 4–night, 5–balance, 6–side, 7–horse, 8–foot, 9–child, 10–carry, bear, 11–large, 12–write, 13–hand, 14–after, 15–road, 16–soldier, 17–bad, 18–say, tell, 19–wish, 20–do, make, 21–good, 22–faith, 23–sound, 24–please, soothe, pacify, 25–give

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. Keeping in mind the roots *animus* in *equanimity* and *magnus* in *Magnavox* or *magnify*, can you combine these two roots to form a noun meaning, etymologically, *largeness of mind?* _____. Can you figure out the adjective form, ending in *-ous*, of the noun you have constucted? _____.
2. If *equilateral* means *equal-sided*, can you construct an adjective meaning *two-sided?* _____.
3. *Trans-* is a prefix meaning *across.* Build a verb meaning *to write across* (from one form or language to another): _____. What is the noun derived from this verb? _____.
4. What disease was so named on the erroneous assumption that it was caused by "bad air?" _____.
5. *Facio* may appear in English words as *fec-*. Using the prefix *con-*, together, can you form a noun sometimes used as a synonym for candy, cake, or ice cream (etymologically, "something made together")? _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

THE THRILL OF RECOGNITION

You have been adding, over the past twenty-three sessions, hundreds of words to your vocabulary; you have been learning hundreds of prefixes, roots, and suffixes that make it possible for you to figure out the meaning of many unfamiliar words you may come across in your reading.

As time goes on and you notice more and more of the words you have studied whenever you read, or whenever you listen to lectures, the radio, or TV, the thrill of recognition plus the immediate comprehension of complex ideas will provide a dividend of incalculable value.

You will hear these words in conversation, and you will begin to use them yourself, unself-consciously, whenever something you want to say is best expressed by one of the words that exactly verbalizes your thinking. Another priceless dividend!

So keep on! You are involved in a dividend-paying activity that will eventually make you intellectually rich.

(*End of Session 23*)

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[1] *Fulsome* (FŌŌL′-səm) does not mean, despite its appearance, *fully* or *completely*, but rather, *offensive because of excessiveness or insincerity*, often in reference to compliments, praise, admiration, or flattery.

Brief Intermission Five

HOW TO SPEAK NATURALLY

Consider this statement by Louis Bromfield, a noted author: "If I, as a novelist, wrote dialogue for my characters which was meticulously grammatical, the result would be the creation of a speech which rendered the characters pompous and unreal."

And this one by Jacques Barzun, former literary critic for *Harper's:* "Speech, after all, is in some measure an expression of character, and flexibility in its use is a good way to tell your friends from the robots."

Consider also this puckish remark by the late Clarence Darrow: "Even if you do learn to speak correct English, who are you going to speak it to?"

These are typical reactions of professional people to the old restrictions of formal English grammar. Do the actual teachers of English feel the same way? Again, some typical statements:

"Experts and authorities do not make decisions and rules, by logic or otherwise, about correctness," said E. A. Cross, then Professor of English at the Greeley, Colorado, College of Education. "All they can do is observe the customs of cultivated and educated people and report their findings."

"Grammar is only an analysis after the facts, a post-mortem on usage," said Stephen Leacock in *How To Write.* "Usage comes first and usage must rule."

One way to discover current trends in usage is to poll a cross section of people who use the language professionally, inquiring as

to their opinion of the acceptability, in everyday speech, of certain specific and controversial expressions. A questionnaire I prepared recently was answered by eighty-two such people—thirty-one authors, seven book reviewers, thirty-three editors, and eleven professors of English. The results, some of which will be detailed below, may possibly prove startling to you if you have been conditioned to believe, as most of us have, that correct English is rigid, unchangeable, and exclusively dependent on grammatical rules.

TEST YOURSELF

1. Californians boast of the *healthy* climate of their state.
   RIGHT WRONG
2. Her new novel is not *as* good as her first one.
   RIGHT WRONG
3. We *can't* hardly believe it.
   RIGHT WRONG
4. This is *her*.
   RIGHT WRONG
5. *Who* are you waiting for?
   RIGHT WRONG
6. Please take care of *whomever* is waiting.
   RIGHT WRONG
7. *Whom* would you like to be if you weren't yourself?
   RIGHT WRONG
8. My wife has been *robbed*.
   RIGHT WRONG
9. Is this *desert* fattening?
   RIGHT WRONG

1. Californians boast of the *healthy* climate of their state.

RIGHT. There is a distinction, says formal grammar, between *healthy* and *healthful.* A person can be *healthy*—I am still quoting the rule—if he possesses good health. But climate must be *healthful*, since it is *conducive* to health. This distinction is sometimes observed in writing but rarely in everyday speech, as you have probably noticed. Even the dictionaries have stopped splitting hairs—they permit you to say *healthy* no matter which of the two meanings you intend.

"*Healthy* climate" was accepted as current educated usage by twenty-six of the thirty-three editors who answered the questionnaire, six of the seven book reviewers, nine of the eleven professors of English, and twenty of the thirty-one authors. The earlier distinction, in short, is rapidly becoming obsolete.

2. Her new novel is not *as* good as her first one.

RIGHT. If you have studied formal grammar, you will recall that after a negative verb the "proper" word is *so*, not *as.* Is this rule observed by educated speakers? Hardly ever.

In reference to the sentence under discussion, author Thomas W. Duncan remarked: "I always say—and write—*as*, much to the distress of my publisher's copyreader. But the fellow is a wretched purist."

The tally on this use of *as* showed seventy-four for, only eight against.

3. We *can't* hardly believe it.

WRONG. Of the eighty-two professional people who answered my questionnaire, seventy-six rejected this sentence; it is evident that *can't hardly* is far from acceptable in educated speech. Preferred usage: We *can* hardly believe it.

4. This is *her.*

WRONG. This substitution of *her* where the rule requires *she* was rejected by fifty-seven of my eighty-two respondents. Paradoxically enough, although "It's *me*" and "This is *me*" are fully established in educated speech, "This is *her*" still seems to be condemned by the majority of cultivated speakers. Nevertheless, the average person, I

imagine, may feel a bit uncomfortable saying "This is *she*"—it sounds almost too sophisticated.

This is more than an academic problem. If the voice at the other end of a telephone conversation makes the opening move with "I'd like to speak to Jane Doe [your name, for argument's sake]," you are, unfortunately, on the horns of a very real dilemma. "This is *she*" may sound prissy—"This is *her*" may give the impression that you're uneducated. Other choices are equally doubtful. "Talking!" is suspiciously businesslike if the call comes to your home, and "I am Jane Doe!" may make you feel like the opening line of a high school tableau. The need for a decision arises several times in a busy day—and, I am sorry to report, the English language is just deficient enough not to be of much help. I wonder how it would be if you just grunted affably?

5. *Who* are you waiting for?

RIGHT. *Formal grammar* not only requires *whom* but demands that the word order be changed to: "For whom are you waiting?" (Just try talking with such formality on everyday occasions and see how long you'll keep your friends.)

Who is the normal, popular form as the first word of a sentence, no matter what the grammatical construction; and an opinion by Kyle Crichton, a well-known magazine editor, is typical of the way many educated people feel. Mr. Crichton says: "The most loathsome word (to me at least) in the English language is *whom.* You can always tell a half-educated buffoon by the care he takes in working the word in. When he starts it, I know I am faced with a pompous illiterate who is not going to have me long as company."

The score for acceptance of the sentence as it stands (with *who*) was sixty-six out of eighty-two. If, like most unpedantic speakers, you prefer *who* to *whom* for informal occasions, or if you feel as strongly about *whom* as Mr. Crichton does, you will be happy to hear that modern trends in English are all on your side.

6. Please take care of *whomever* is waiting.

WRONG. *Whomever* is awkward and a little silly in this sentence and brings to mind Franklin P. Adams' famous remark on grammar:

“ ‘Whom are you?’ asked Cyril, for he had been to night school.” It is also contrary to grammatical rule. People who are willing to be sufficiently insufferable to use *whomever* in this construction have been tempted into error by the adjacent word *of*. They believe that since they are following a preposition with an objective pronoun they are speaking impeccable grammar. In actuality, however, *whomever* is not the object of the preposition *of* but the subject of the verb *is waiting*. Preferable form: Please take care of *whoever* is waiting.

7. *Whom* would you like to be if you weren’t yourself?

WRONG. Here is another and typical example of the damage which an excessive reverence for *whom* can do to an innocent person’s speech. Judged by grammatical rule, *whom* is incorrect in this sentence (the verb *to be* requires *who*); judged by normal speech patterns, it is absurd. This use of *whom* probably comes from an abortive attempt to sound elegant.

8. My wife has been *robbed*.

RIGHT—if something your wife owns was taken by means of thievery. However, if your wife herself was kidnapped, or in some way talked into leaving you, she was *stolen*, not *robbed*. To *rob* is to abscond with the contents of something—to *steal* is to walk off with the thing itself. Needless to say, both forms of activity are highly antisocial and equally illegal.

9. Is this *desert* fattening?

WRONG. The *dessert* that is fattening is spelled with two *s*’s. With one *s*, it’s a desert, like the Sahara. Remember the two *s*’s in dessert by thinking how much you’d like *two* portions, if only your waistline permitted.

10

HOW TO TALK ABOUT VARIOUS SPEECH HABITS

(*Sessions 24–27*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What adjective describes people who:
are disinclined to conversation?
are brief and to the point in their speech?
are blocked or incoherent in their speech?
show by their speech that they are trite and unimaginative?
use more words than necessary?
are forcefully compelling and logical in their speech?
talk rapidly and fluently?
are noisy and clamorous?
are talkative?

SESSION 24

Perhaps some of your richest and most satisfying experiences have been with people to whom you can just talk, talk, talk. As you speak, previously untapped springs of ideas and emotions begin to flow; you hear yourself saying things you never thought you knew.

What kinds of people might you find yourself in conversation with? In this chapter we start by examining ten types, discovering the adjective that aptly describes each one.

IDEAS

1. saying little

There are some people who just don't like to talk. It's not that they prefer to listen. Good listeners hold up their end of the conversation delightfully—with appropriate facial expressions; with empathetic smiles, giggles, squeals, and sighs at just the right time; and with encouraging nods or phrases like "Go on!", "Fantastic!", "And then what happened?"

These people like neither to talk nor to listen—they act as if conversation is a bore, even a painful waste of time. Try to engage them, and the best you may expect for your efforts is a vacant stare, a noncommittal grunt, or an impatient silence. Finally, in frustration, you give up, thinking. "Are they self-conscious? Do they hate people? Do they hate *me?*"

The adjective: *taciturn*

2. saying little—meaning much

There is a well-known anecdote about Calvin Coolidge, who, when he was President, was often called (though probably not to his face) "Silent Cal":

A young newspaperwoman was sitting next to him at a banquet, so the story goes, and turned to him mischievously.

"Mr. Coolidge," she said, "I have a bet with my editor that I can get you to say more than two words to me this evening."

"*You lose*," Coolidge rejoined simply.

The adjective: *laconic*

3. when the words won't come

Under the pressure of some strong emotion—fear, rage, anger, for example—people may find it difficult, or even impossible, to utter words, to get their feelings unjumbled and untangled enough to form understandable sentences. They undoubtedly have a lot they want to say, but the best they can do is sputter!

The adjective: *inarticulate*

4. much talk, little sense

Miss Bates, a character in *Emma*, a novel by Jane Austen:

"So obliging of you! No, we should not have heard, if it had not been for this particular circumstance, of her being able to come here so soon. My mother is so delighted! For she is to be three months with us at least. Three months, she says so, positively, as I am going to have the pleasure of reading to you. The case is, you see, that the Campbells are going to Ireland. Mrs. Dixon has persuaded her father and mother to come over and see her directly. I was going to say, but, however, different countries, and so she wrote a very urgent letter to her mother, or her father, I declare I do not know which it was, but we shall see presently in Jane's letter …"

The adjective: *garrulous*

5. unoriginal

Some people are completely lacking in originality and imagination—and their talk shows it. Everything they say is trite, hackneyed, commonplace, humorless—their speech patterns are full of clichés and stereotypes, their phraseology is without sparkle.

The adjective: *banal*

6. words, words, words!

They talk and talk and talk—it's not so much the quantity you object to as the repetitiousness. They phrase, rephrase, and re-rephrase their thoughts—using far more words than necessary, overwhelming you with words, drowning you with them, until your only thought is how to escape, or maybe how to die.

The adjective: *verbose*

7. words in quick succession

They are rapid, fluent talkers, the words seeming to roll off their tongues with such ease and lack of effort, and sometimes with such copiousness, that you listen with amazement.

The adjective: *voluble*

8. words that convince

They express their ideas persuasively, forcefully, brilliantly, and in a way that calls for wholehearted assent and agreement from an intelligent listener.

The adjective: *cogent*

9. the sound and the fury

Their talk is loud, noisy, clamorous, vehement. What may be lacking in content is compensated for in force and loudness.

The adjective: *vociferous*

10. quantity

They talk a lot—a *whole* lot. They may be voluble, vociferous, garrulous, verbose, but never inarticulate, taciturn, or laconic. No matter. It's the quantity and continuity that are most conspicuous. "Were you vaccinated with a phonograph needle?" is the question you are tempted to ask as you listen.

The adjective: *loquacious*

These ten words revolve around the idea of varying kinds and ways of talking and not talking. Many of the adjectives are close in meaning, but each contains its unique difference.

QUALITY	ADJECTIVE
1. silence, unresponsiveness	taciturn
2. economy, brevity, meaningfulness	laconic
3. awkwardness, sputtering, incoherence	inarticulate
4. rambling chatter	garrulous
5. hackneyed, unoriginal phraseology	banal
6. wordiness, repetitiousness	verbose
7. fluency, rapidity	voluble
8. logic, clarity, persuasiveness	cogent

9. noise, vehemence	vociferous
10. talkativeness	loquacious

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *taciturn*	TAS′-ə-turn
2. *laconic*	lə-KON′-ik
3. *inarticulate*	in′-ahr-TIK′-yə-lət
4. *garrulous*	GAIR′-ə-ləs
5. *banal*	BAY′-nəl
6. *verbose*	vər-BŌS′
7. *voluble*	VOL′-yə-bəl
8. *cogent*	KŌ′-jənt
9. *vociferous*	vō-SIF′-ər-əs
10. *loquacious*	lō-KWAY′-shəs

Can you work with the words?

1. taciturn	a. chattering meaninglessly
2. laconic	b. wordy
3. inarticulate	c. trite, hackneyed, unoriginal
4. garrulous	d. fluent and rapid

5. banal
6. verbose
7. voluble
8. cogent
9. vociferous
10. loquacious

e. noisy, loud
f. sputtering unintelligibly
g. talkative
h. brilliantly compelling, persuasive
i. unwilling to engage in conversation
j. using few words packed with meaning

KEY: 1–i, 2–j, 3–f, 4–a, 5–c, 6–b, 7–d, 8–h, 9–e, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. Do *taciturn* people usually make others feel comfortable and welcome?
   YES NO
2. Does a *laconic* speaker use more words than necessary?
   YES NO
3. Does rage make some people *inarticulate?*
   YES NO
4. Is it interesting to listen to *garrulous* old men?
   YES NO
5. Do *banal* speakers show a great deal of originality?
   YES NO
6. Is *verbose* a complimentary term?
   YES NO
7. Is it easy to be *voluble* when you don't know the subject you are talking about?
   YES NO
8. Do unintelligent people usually make *cogent* statements?
   YES NO
9. Is a *vociferous* demand ordinarily made by a shy, quiet person?
   YES NO
10. Do *loquacious* people spend more time talking than listening?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

Do you know that new nerve patterns are formed by repeated actions? As a very young child, you tied your shoelaces and buttoned your clothing with great concentration—the activity was directed, controlled, purposeful, exciting. As you grew older and more skillful, you tied and buttoned with scarcely a thought of what you were doing. Your fingers flew about their task almost automatically—for the habit had formed a nerve pattern and the action needed little if any conscious attention.

That's simple enough to understand. If you do not remember your own experiences, you can observe the phenomenon of struggling with a skill, mastering it, and finally making it a self-starting habit by watching any young child. Or you can simply take my word for it.

You need not take my word for the way a mastery of new words is acquired. You can see in yourself, as you work with this book, how adding words to your vocabulary is exactly analogous to a child's mastery of shoelacing. First you struggle with the concepts; then you eventually master them; finally, by frequent work with the new words (now you see the reason for the great number of exercises, the repetitious writing, saying, thinking) you build up new nerve patterns and you begin to use the new words with scarcely any consciousness of what you are doing.

Watch this common but important phenomenon closely as you do the next exercise. Your total absorption of the material so far has given you complete mastery of our ten basic words. Prove that you are beginning to form new nerve patterns in relation to these words by writing the one that fits each brief definition. The more quickly

you think of the word that applies, the surer you can be that using these words will soon be as automatic and unself-conscious as putting on your shoes or buttoning/zipping yourself up in the morning.

1. talkative
    1. L_____
2. noisy, vehement, clamorous
    2. V_____
3. incoherent; sputtering
    3. I_____
4. gabbing ceaselessly and with little meaning
    4. G_____
5. disinclined to conversation
    5. T_____
6. talking in hackneyed phraseology
    6. B_____
7. showing a fine economy in the use of words
    7. L_____
8. forceful and convincing
    8. C_____
9. talking rapidly and fluently
    9. V_____
10. using more words than necessary
    10. V_____

KEY: 1–loquacious, 2–vociferous, 3–inarticulate, 4–garrulous, 5–taciturn, 6–banal, 7–laconic, 8–cogent, 9–voluble, 10–verbose

(*End of Session 24*)

SESSION 25

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. about keeping one's mouth shut

If you let your mind play over some of the *taciturn* people you know, you will realize that their abnormal disinclination to conversation makes them seem morose, sullen, and unfriendly. Cal Coolidge's *taciturnity* was world-famous, and no one, I am sure, ever conceived of him as cheerful, overfriendly, or particularly sociable. There are doubtless many possible causes of such verbal rejection of the world: perhaps lack of self-assurance, feelings of inadequacy or hostility, excessive seriousness or introspection, or just plain having nothing to say. Maybe, in Coolidge's case, he was saving up his words—after he did not "choose to run" in 1928, he wrote a daily column for the New York *Herald Tribune* at a rumored price of two dollars a word—and, according to most critics (probably all Democrats), he had seemed wiser when he kept silent. Coolidge hailed from New England, and *taciturnity* (tas-ə-TURN′-ə-tee) in that part of the country, so some people say, is considered a virtue. Who knows, the cause may be geographical and climatic, rather than psychological.

Taciturn is from a Latin verb *taceo*, to be silent, and is one of those words whose full meaning cannot be expressed by any other combination of syllables. It has many synonyms, among them *silent, uncommunicative, reticent, reserved, secretive, close-lipped*, and *close-mouthed;* but no other word indicates the *permanent, habitual*, and *temperamental* disinclination to talk implied by *taciturn.*

2. better left unsaid

Tacit (TAS′-it) derives also from *taceo.*

Here is a man dying of cancer. He suspects what his disease is, and everyone else, of course, knows. Yet he never mentions the dread word, and no one who visits him ever breathes a syllable of it in his hearing. It is *tacitly* understood by all concerned that the word will remain forever unspoken.

(Such a situation today, however, may or may not be typical—there appears to be a growing tendency among physicians and family to be open and honest with people who are dying.)

Consider another situation:

An executive is engaging in extracurricular activities with her secretary. Yet during office time they are as formal and distant as any two human beings can well be. Neither of them ever said to the other, "Now, look here, we may be lovers after five o'clock, but between nine and five we must preserve the utmost decorum, okay?" Such speech, such a verbal arrangement, is considered unnecessary—so we may say that the two have a *tacit* agreement (i.e., nothing was ever actually *said*) to maintain a complete employer-employee relationship during office hours.

Anything *tacit*, then, is unspoken, unsaid, not verbalized. We speak of a *tacit* agreement, arrangement, acceptance, rejection, assent, refusal, etc. A person is never called *tacit.*

The noun is *tacitness* (TAS′-it-nəs). (Bear in mind that you can transform any adjective into a noun by adding *-ness*, though in many cases there may be a more sophisticated, or more common, noun form.)

Changing the *a* of the root *taceo* to *i*, and adding the prefix *re-*, again, and the adjective suffix *-ent*, we can construct the English word *reticent* (RET′-ə-sənt).

Someone is *reticent* who prefers to keep silent, whether out of shyness, embarrassment, or fear of revealing what should not be revealed. (The idea of "againness" in the prefix has been lost in the current meaning of the word.)

We have frequently made nouns out of *-ent* adjectives. Write two possible noun forms of *reticent:* _____, or, less commonly, _____.

3. talk, talk, talk!

Loquacious people love to talk. This adjective is not necessarily a put-down, but the implication, when you so characterize such people, is that you wish they would pause for breath once in a while so that *you* can get your licks in. The noun is *loquacity* (lō-KWAS′-ə-tee), or, of course, *loquaciousness.*

The word derives from Latin *loquor*, to speak, a root found also in:

1. *soliloquy* (sə-LIL′-ə-kwee)—a speech to oneself (*loquor* plus *solus*, alone), or, etymologically, a speech when alone.

We often talk to ourselves, but usually silently, the words going through our minds but not actually passing our lips. The term *soliloquy* is commonly applied to utterances made in a play by characters who are speaking their thoughts aloud so the audience won't have to guess. The *soliloquist* (sə-LIL′-ə-kwist) may be alone; or other members of the cast may be present on stage, but of course they don't hear what's being said, because they're not supposed to know. Eugene O'Neill made novel uses of *soliloquies* in *Mourning Becomes Electra*—the characters made honest disclosures of their feelings and thoughts to the audience, but kept the other players in the dark.

The verb is to *soliloquize* (sə-LIL′-ə-kwīz′).

2. A *ventriloquist* (ven-TRIL′-ə-kwist) is one who can throw his voice. A listener thinks the sound is coming from some source other than the person speaking. The combining root is Latin *venter, ventris*, belly; etymologically, *ventriloquism* (ven-TRIL′-ə-kwiz-əm) is the art of "speaking from the belly." The adjective is *ventriloquistic* (ven-tril′-ə-KWIS′-tik). Can you figure out how the verb will end? Write the verb: _____.

3. *Colloquial* (kə-LŌ′-kwee-əl) combines *loquor*, to speak, with the prefix *con-*. (*Con-* is spelled *col-* before a root starting with *l; cor-* before a root starting with *r; com-* before a root starting with *m, p,* or *b.*) When people speak together they are engaging in conversation—and their language is usually more informal and less rigidly grammatical than what you might expect in writing or in public addresses. *Colloquial* patterns are perfectly correct—they are simply informal, and suitable to everyday conversation.

A *colloquialism* (kə-LŌ′-kwee-ə-liz-əm), therefore, is a *conversational-style* expression, like "He hasn't got any" or "Who are you going with?" as contrasted to the formal or literary "He has none" or "With whom are you going?" *Colloquial* English is the English you and I talk on everyday occasions—it is not slangy, vulgar, or illiterate.

4. A *circumlocution* (sur-kəm-lō-KYŌŌ′-shən) is, etymologically, a "talking around" (*circum-*, around). Any way of expressing an idea that is roundabout or indirect is *circumlocutory* (sur′-kəm-LOK′-yə-tawr′-ee)—you are now familiar with the common adjective suffix *-ory*.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *taceo*	to be silent
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *-ity*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *-ness*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

4. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *-ence, -ency* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *re-* again

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *loquor* to speak

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *solus* alone

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *-ist* one who

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *-ize* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *venter, ventris* belly

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *con-, col-, com-, cor-* with, together

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *-ism* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

WORKING WITH THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *taciturnity*	tas-ə-TURN′-ə-tee
2. *tacit*	TAS′-it
3. *tacitness*	TAS′-ət-nəs
4. *reticent*	RET′-ə-sənt
5. *reticence*	RET′-ə-səns
6. *reticency*	RET′-ə-sən-see
7. *loquaciousness*	lō-KWAY′-shəs-nəs
8. *loquacity*	lō-KWAS′-ə-tee
9. *soliloquy*	sə-LIL′-ə-kwee
10. *soliloquist*	sə-LIL′-ə-kwist
11. *soliloquize*	sə-LIL′-ə-kwīz′
12. *ventriloquist*	ven′-TRIL′-ə-kwist
13. *ventriloquism*	ven-TRIL′-ə-kwiz-əm
14. *ventriloquistic*	ven-tril′-ə-KWIS′-tik
15. *ventriloquize*	ven-TRIL′-ə-kwīz′
16. *colloquial*	kə-LŌ′-kwee-əl

17. *colloquialism* kə-LŌ′-kwee-ə-liz-əm

18. *circumlocution* sur′-kəm-lō-KYOO′-shən

19. *circumlocutory* sur′-kəm-LOK′-yə-tawr′-ee

Can you work with the words?

1. taciturnity	a. unwillingness to talk, or disclose, out of fear, shyness, reserve, etc.
2. tacitness	b. talking, or a speech, “to oneself”
3. reticence	c. art of throwing one’s voice
4. loquacity	d. unwillingness to engage in conversation
5. soliloquy	e. informal expression used in everyday conversation
6. ventriloquism	f. state of being understood though not actually expressed
7. colloquialism	g. a talking around; method of talking indirectly or in a roundabout way
8. circumlocution	h. talkativeness

KEY: 1–d, 2–f, 3–a, 4–h, 5–b, 6–c, 7–e, 8–g

Do you understand the words?

1. A *tacit* understanding is put into words.
   TRUE FALSE
2. Inhibited people are seldom *reticent* about expressing anger.
   TRUE FALSE
3. A *soliloquist* expresses his thoughts aloud.
   TRUE FALSE
4. A *ventriloquistic* performance on stage involves a dummy who appears to be talking.
   TRUE FALSE
5. A *colloquial* style of writing is ungrammatical.
   TRUE FALSE
6. *Circumlocutory* speech is direct and forthright.
   TRUE FALSE
7. *Inarticulate* people are generally given to *loquaciousness.*
   TRUE FALSE
8. A *soliloquy* is a dialogue.
   TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–F, 3–T, 4–T, 5–F, 6–F, 7–F, 8–F

Can you recall the words?

1. to speak to oneself
    1. S_____
2. to throw one's voice
    2. V_____
3. unwillingness to engage in conversation
    3. T_____
4. unspoken
    4. T_____
5. referring to an indirect, roundabout style of expression (*adj.*)
    5. C_____
6. suitable for informal conversation
    6. C_____
7. talkativeness
    7. L_____
    or L_____
8. reluctance to express one's feelings or thoughts
    8. R_____
    or R_____
9. a speech to oneself, especially in a play
    9. S_____
10. an indirect, roundabout expression
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–soliloquize, 2–ventriloquize, 3–taciturnity, 4–tacit, 5–circumlocutory, 6–colloquial, 7–loquaciousness *or* loquacity, 8–reticence *or* reticency, 9–soliloquy, 10–circumlocution

(*End of Session 25*)

SESSION 26

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. a Spartan virtue

In ancient Sparta, originally known as *Laconia*, the citizens were long-suffering, hard-bitten, stoical, and military-minded, and were even more noted for their economy of speech than Vermonters, if that is possible. Legend has it that when Philip of Macedonia was storming the gates of Sparta (or Laconia), he sent a message to the besieged king saying, "If we capture your city we will burn it to the ground." A one-word answer came back: "If." It was now probably Philip's turn to be speechless, though history does not record his reaction.

It is from the name *Laconia* that we derive our word *laconic*—pithy, concise, economical in the use of words almost to the point of curtness; precisely the opposite of *verbose*.

Like the man who was waiting at a lunch counter for a ham sandwich. When it was ready, the clerk inquired politely, "Will you eat it here, or take it with you?"

"Both," was the *laconic* reply.

Or like the woman who was watching a lush imbibing dry martinis at a Third Avenue bar in New York City. The drunk downed the contents of each cocktail glass at one gulp, daintily nibbled and swallowed the bowl, then finally turned the glass over and ate the base. The stem he threw into a corner. This amazing gustatory feat went on for half an hour, until a dozen stems were lying shattered in the corner, and the drunk had chewed and swallowed enough bowls and bases to start a glass factory. He suddenly turned to the lady and asked belligerently, "I suppose you

think I'm cuckoo, don't you?" "Sure—the stem is the best part," was the *laconic* answer.

(It was doubtless this same gentleman, in his accustomed state of intoxication, who found himself painfully weaving his way along Wilshire Boulevard in Beverly Hills, California—he had somehow gotten on a TWA jetliner instead of the subway—when he realized, almost too late, that he was going to bump into a smartly dressed young woman who had just stepped out of her Mercedes-Benz to go window-shopping along the avenue. He quickly veered left, but by some unexplainable magnetic attraction the woman veered in the same direction, again making collision apparently inevitable. With an adroit maneuver, the drunk swung to the right—the lady, by now thoroughly disoriented, did the same. Finally both jammed on the brakes and came to a dead stop, face to face, and not six inches apart; and as the alcoholic fumes assailed the young lady's nostrils, she sneered at the reeking, swaying man, as much in frustration as in contempt: "Oh! How gauche!" "Fine!" was his happy response. "How goesh with you?" This answer, however, is not *laconic*, merely confused.)

We have learned that *-ness, -ity*, and *-ism* are suffixes that transform adjectives into nouns—and all three can be used with *laconic:*

…with characteristic *laconicness* (lə-KON′-ək-nəs)

…her usual *laconicity* (lak′-ə-NIS′-ə-tce)

…his habitual *laconism* (LAK′-ə-niz-əm)

…with, for him, unusual *laconicism* (lə-KON′-ə-siz-əm)

A *laconism* is also the expression itself that is pithy and concise, as the famous report from a naval commander in World War II: "Saw sub, sank same."

2. brilliant

Cogent is a term of admiration. A *cogent* argument is well put, convincing, hardly short of brilliant. *Cogency* (KŌ′-jən-see) shows a

keen mind, an ability to think clearly and logically. The word derives from the Latin verb *cogo*, to drive together, compel, force. A *cogent* argument *compels* acceptance because of its logic, its persuasiveness, its appeal to one's sense of reason.

3. back to talk

You will recall that *loquor*, to speak, is the source of *loquacity, soliloquy, ventriloquism, colloquialism, circumlocution.* This root is also the base on which *eloquent* (EL′-ə-kwənt), *magniloquent* (mag-NIL′-ə-kwənt), and *grandiloquent* (gran-DIL′-ə-kwənt) are built.

The *eloquent* person speaks *out* (*e*-, from *ex*-, out), is vividly expressive, fluent, forceful, or persuasive in language ("the prosecutor's *eloquent* plea to the jury"). The word is partially synonymous with *cogent*, but *cogent* implies irresistible logical reasoning and intellectual keenness, while *eloquent* suggests artistic expression, strong emotional appeal, the skillful use of language to move and arouse a listener.

Magniloquent (*magnus*, large) and *grandiloquent* (*grandis*, grand) are virtually identical in meaning. *Magniloquence* or *grandiloquence* is the use of high-flown, grandiose, even pompous language; of large and impressive words; of lofty, flowery, or over-elegant phraseology. Home is *a place of residence;* wife is *helpmate, helpmeet*, or *better half;* women are *the fair sex;* children are *offspring* or *progeny;* a doctor is a *member of the medical fraternity;* people are the *species Homo sapiens*, etc., etc.

Loquacious, verbose, voluble, and *garrulous* people are all talkative; but each type, you will recall, has a special quality.

If you are *loquacious*, you talk a lot because you *like* to talk and doubtless have a lot to say.

If you are *verbose*, you smother your ideas with excess words, with such an overabundance of words that your listener either drops into a state of helpless confusion or falls asleep.

If you are *voluble*, you speak rapidly, fluently, glibly, without hesitation, stutter, or stammer; you are vocal, verbal, and highly

articulate.

If you are *garrulous*, you talk constantly, and usually aimlessly and meaninglessly, about trifles. We often hear the word used in "a *garrulous* old man" or "a *garrulous* old woman," since in very advanced age the mind may wander and lose the ability to discriminate between the important and the unimportant, between the interesting and the dull.

Verbose is from Latin *verbum*, word—the *verbose* person is wordy.

Voluble comes from Latin *volvo, volutus*, to roll—words effortlessly roll off the *voluble* speaker's tongue.

And *garrulous* derives from Latin *garrio*, to chatter—a *garrulous* talker chatters away like a monkey.

The suffix *-ness* can be added to all these adjectives to form nouns. Alternate noun forms end in *-ity:*

verbosity	(vər-BOS′-ə-tee)
volubility	(vor-yə-BIL′-ə-tee)
garrulity	(gə-RŌŌL′-ə-tee)

4. at large

We discovered *magnus*, large, big, great, in Chapter 9, in discussing *Magnavox* (etymologically, "big voice"), and find it again in *magniloquent* (etymologically, "talking big"). The root occurs in a number of other words:

1. *Magnanimous* (mag-NAN′-ə-məs)—big-hearted, generous, forgiving (etymologically, "great-minded"). (*Magnus* plus *animus*, mind.) We'll discuss this word in depth in Chapter 12.

2. *Magnate* (MAG′-nayt)—a person of great power or influence, a big wheel, as a business *magnate.*

3. *Magnify*—to make larger, or make seem larger (*magnus* plus *-fy* from *facio*, to make), as in "*magnify* your problems."

4. *Magnificent—magnus* plus *fic-*, from *facio.*

5. *Magnitude—magnus* plus the common noun suffix *-tude*, as in *fortitude, multitude, gratitude*, etc.

6. *Magnum* (as of champagne or wine)—a large bottle, generally two fifths of a gallon.

7. *Magnum opus* (MAG′-nəm Ō′-pes)—etymologically, a "big work"; actually, the greatest work, or masterpiece, of an artist, writer, or composer. *Opus* is the Latin word for *work;* the plural of *opus* is used in the English word *opera*, etymologically, "a number of works," actually a musical drama containing overture, singing, and other forms of music, i.e., many musical works. The verb form *opero*, to work, occurs in *operate, co-operate, operator*, etc.

5. words, words, words!

Latin *verbum* is *word.* A *verb* is the important word in a sentence; *verbatim* (vər-BAY′-tim) is word-for-word (a *verbatim* report).

Verbal (VUR′-bəl), ending in the adjective suffix *-al*, may refer either to a *verb*, or to words in general (a *verbal* fight); or it may mean, loosely, *oral* or *spoken*, rather than written (*verbal* agreement or contract); or, describing people ("she is quite *verbal*"), it may refer to a ready ability to put feelings or thoughts into words.

Working from *verbal*, can you add a common verb suffix to form a word meaning *to put into words?* _____

Verbiage (VUR′-bee-əj) has two meanings: an excess of words ("Such *verbiage!*"); or a style or manner of using words (medical *verbiage*, military *verbiage*).

6. roll on, and on!

Volvo, volutus, to roll, the source of *voluble*, is the root on which many important English words are based.

Revolve (rə-VOLV′)—roll again (and again), or keep turning round. Wheels *revolve*, the earth *revolves* around the sun, the cylinder of a revolver *revolves*, (The prefix is *re-*, back or again.)

The noun is *revolution* (rev-ə-LOO′-shən), which can be one such complete rolling, or, by logical extension, a radical change of any sort (TV was responsible for a *revolution* in the entertainment industry), especially political (the American, or French, *Revolution*). The adjective *revolutionary* (rev′-ə-LOO′-shən-air′-ee) introduces us to a new adjective suffix, *-ary*, as in *contrary, disciplinary, stationary, imaginary*, etc. (But *-ary* is sometimes also a noun suffix, as in *dictionary, commentary*, etc.)

Add different prefixes to *volvo* to construct two more English words:

1. *involve*—etymologically, "roll in" ("I didn't want to get *involved!*"). Noun: *involvement.*

2. *evolve* (ə-VOLV′)—etymologically, "roll out" (*e-*, out); hence to unfold, or gradually develop ("The final plan *evolved* from some informal discussions"; "The political party *evolved* from a group of interested citizens who met frequently to protest government actions").

By analogy with the forms derived from *revolve*, can you construct the noun and adjective of *evolve?* Noun: _____. Adjective: _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *Laconia*	Sparta
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *-ness*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *-ism*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

4. *-ity* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *e-* (*ex-*) out

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *-ence* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *magnus* big

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *grandis* grand

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *verbum* word

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *volvo, volutus* to roll

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *garrio* to chatter

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *animus* mind

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *-fy* to make

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-tude* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *opus* work

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *opero* *to* work

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *-ize* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *re-* again, back

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *-ary* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *in-* in

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *laconicity* lak′-ə-NIS′-ə-tee
2. *laconism* LAK′-ə-niz-əm
3. *laconicism* lə-KON′-ə-siz-əm
4. *eloquent* EL′-ə-kwənt

5. *eloquence* EL′-ə-kwəns
6. *magniloquent* mag-NIL′-ə-kwənt
7. *magniloquence* mag-NIL′-ə-kwəns
8. *grandiloquent* gran-DIL′-ə-kwənt
9. *grandiloquence* gran-DIL′-ə-kwəns
10. *verbosity* vər-BOS′-ə-tee
11. *volubility* vol′-yə-BIL′-ə-tee
12. *garrulity* gə-RŌŌ′-lə-tee
13. *cogency* KŌ′-jən-see

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *magnanimous* mag-NAN′-ə-məs
2. *magnate* MAG′-nayt
3. *magnum opus* MAG′-nəm Ō′-pəs
4. *verbatim* vər-BAY′-tim
5. *verbal* VUR′-bəl
6. *verbalize* VUR′-bə-līz′
7. *verbiage* VUR′-bee-əj
8. *revolve* rə-VOLV′
9. *revolution* rev′-ə-LŌŌ′-shən
10. *revolutionary* rev′-ə-LŌŌ′-shə-nair′-ee
11. *evolve* ə-VOLV′
12. *evolution* ev′-ə-LOO′-shən

13. *evolutionary* ev′-ə-LOO′-shə-nair′-ee

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. laconicity	a. floweriness, pompousness, or elegance in speech
2. eloquence	b. incessant chatter with little meaning
3. magniloquence	c. big wheel; important or influential person
4. verbosity	d. great artistic work; masterpiece
5. volubility	e. a gradual unfolding or development; “a rolling out”
6. garrulity	f. “a rolling round”; radical change; political upheaval
7. magnum opus	g. great economy in speech
8. magnate	h. fluency, ease, and/or rapidity of speech
9. revolution	i. great, artistic, or emotional expressiveness
10. evolution	j. wordiness
11. cogency	k. persuasiveness through logic; keen-mindedness in reasoning

KEY: 1–g, 2–i, 3–a, 4–j, 5–h, 6–b, 7–d, 8–c, 9–f, 10–e, 11–k

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. laconism	a. word for word
2. verbiage	b. to put into words
3. verbalize	c. causing, or resulting from, radical change; new and totally different
4. verbal	d. resulting or developing gradually from (something)
5. verbatim	e. expressive; emotionally moving
6. revolutionary	f. pithiness or economy of expression; word or phrase packed with meaning
7. evolutionary	g. big-hearted; generous, forgiving
8. grandiloquent	h. referring or pertaining to, or involving, words; oral, rather than written
9. eloquent	i. using flossy, flowery, elegant, or impressive phraseology

10. magnanimous

j. wordiness; style or manner of using words; type of words

KEY: 1–f, 2–j, 3–b, 4–h, 5–a, 6–c, 7–d, 8–i, 9–e, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. Is *laconicism* characteristic of a verbose speaker?
   YES NO
2. Does a *magniloquent* speaker use short, simple words?
   YES NO
3. Does a frog *evolve* from a tadpole?
   YES NO
4. Is an *eloquent* speaker interesting to listen to?
   YES NO
5. Do verbose people use a lot of *verbiage?*
   YES NO
6. Is *volubility* characteristic of an inarticulate person?
   YES NO
7. Does *verbosity* show a careful and economical use of words?
   YES NO
8. Is a *verbal* person usually inarticulate?
   YES NO
9. Is a *magnun opus* one of the lesser works of a writer, artist, or composer?
   YES NO
10. Is a *magnanimous* person selfish and petty-minded?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–no

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Can you recall the words?

1. gradually unfolding, resulting, or developing (*adj.*)
   1. E_____
2. causing, or resulting from, radical change (*adj.*)
   2. R_____
3. quality of conciseness and economy in the use of words
   3. L_____
   or L_____
   or L_____
   or L_____
4. expressiveness in the use of words
   4. E_____
5. turn round and round
   5. R_____
6. important person, as in the commercial world
   6. M_____
7. unselfish; generous; noble in motive; big-hearted; forgiving
   7. M_____
8. using words easily; vocal; articulate; referring to, or involving, words; oral, rather than written
   8. V_____
9. style of word usage; type of words; overabundance of words
   9. V_____
10. wordiness; quality of using excess words
    10. V_____
11. elegance in word usage

11. M_____
or G_____

12. quality of chattering on and on about trivia, or with little meaning
12. G_____

13. fluency and ease in speech
13. V_____

14. word for word
14. V_____

15. masterpiece; great artistic work
15. M_____O_____

16. persuasiveness and forcefulness in speech or writing through closely reasoned logic
16. C_____

KEY: 1–evolutionary, 2–revolutionary, 3–laconism, laconicism, laconicity, *or* laconicness, 4–eloquence, 5–revolve, 6–magnate, 7–magnanimous, 8–verbal, 9–verbiage, 10–verbosity, 11–magniloquence *or* grandiloquence, 12–garrulity, 13–volubility, 14–verbatim, 15–magnum opus, 16–cogency

(*End of Session 26*)

SESSION 27

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. front and back—and uncles

The *ventriloquist* appears to talk from the belly (*venter, ventris* plus *loquor*) rather than through the lips (or such was the strange perception of the person who first used the word).

Venter, ventris, belly, is the root on which *ventral* (VEN′-trəl) and *ventricle* are built.

The *ventral* side of an animal, for example, is the front or anterior side—the belly side.

A *ventricle* (VEN′-trə-kəl) is a hollow organ or cavity, or, logically enough, belly, as one of the two chambers of the heart, or one of the four chambers of the brain. The *ventricles* of the heart are the lower chambers, and receive blood from the *auricles*, or upper chambers. The *auricle* (AW′-rə-kəl), so named because it is somewhat ear-shaped (Latin *auris*, ear), receives blood from the veins; the *auricles* send the blood into the *ventricles*, which in turn pump the blood into the arteries. (It's all very complicated, but fortunately it works.)

The adjective form of *ventricle* is *ventricular* (ven-TRIK′-yə-lər), which may refer to a *ventricle*, or may mean *having a belly-like bulge.*

Now that you see how *ventricular* is formed from *ventricle*, can you figure out the adjective of *auricle?* _____. How about the adjective of *vehicle?* _____. Of *circle?* _____.

No doubt you wrote *auricular* (aw-RIK′-yə-lər), *vehicular*, and *circular*, and have discovered that nouns ending in *-cle* from adjectives ending in *-cular.*

So you can now be the first person on your block to figure out the adjective derived from:

clavicle: _____
cuticle: _____
vesicle: _____
testicle: _____
uncle: _____

The answers of course are *clavicular, cuticular, vesicular, testicular* —and for *uncle* you have every right to shout "No fair!" (But where is it written that life is fair?)

The Latin word for *uncle* (actually, uncle on the mother's side) is *avunculus*, from which we get *avuncular* (ə-VUNG′-kyə-lər), referring to an uncle.

Now what about an uncle? Well, traditional or stereotypical uncles are generally kindly, permissive, indulgent, protective—and often give helpful advice. So anyone who exhibits one or more of such traits to another (usually younger) person is *avuncular* or acts in an *avuncular* capacity.

So, at long last, to *get* back to *ventral.* If there's a front or belly side, anatomically, there must be a reverse—a back side. This is the *dorsal* (DAWR′-səl) side, from Latin *dorsum*, the root on which the verb *endorse* (en-DAWRS′) is built.

If you *endorse* a check, you sign it on the back side; if you *endorse* a plan, an idea, etc., you *back* it, you express your approval or support. The noun is *endorsement* (en-DAWRS′-mənt).

2. the noise and the fury

Vociferous derives from Latin *vox, vocis*, voice (a root you met in Chapter 9), plus *fero*, to bear or carry. A *vociferous* rejoinder carries a lot of voice—i.e., it is vehement, loud, noisy, clamorous, shouting. The noun is *vociferousness* (vō-SIF′-ə-rəs-nəs); the verb is to *vociferate*

(vō-SIF′-ə-rayt′). Can you form the noun derived from the verb? _____.

3. to sleep or not to sleep—that is the question

The root *fero* is found also in *somniferous* (som-NIF′-ə-rəs), carrying, bearing, or bringing sleep. So a *somniferous* lecture is so dull and boring that it is sleep-inducing.

Fero is combined with *somnus*, sleep, in *somniferous.* (The suffix -*ous* indicates what part of speech? _____.)

Tack on the negative prefix *in-* to *somnus* to construct *insomnia* (in-SOM′-nee-ə), the abnormal inability to fall asleep when sleep is required or desired. The unfortunate victim of this disability is an *insomniac* (in-SOM′-nee-ak), the adjective is *insomnious* (in-SOM′-nee-əs). (So -*ous*, in case you could not answer the question in the preceding paragraph, is an *adjective* suffix.)

Add a different adjective suffix to *somnus* to derive *somnolent* (SOM′-nə-lənt), sleepy, drowsy. Can you construct the noun form of *somnolent?* _____ *or*_____.

Combine *somnus* with *ambulo*, to walk, and you have *somnambulism* (som-NAM′-byə-liz-əm), walking in one's sleep. With your increasing skill in using etymology to form words, write the term for the person who is a sleepwalker._____. Now add to the word you wrote a two-letter adjective suffix we have learned, to form the adjective: _____.

4. a walkaway

An *ambulatory* (AM′-byə-lə-taw′-ree) patient, as in a hospital or convalescent home, is finally well enough to get out of bed and walk around. A *perambulator* (pə-RAM′-byə-lay′-tər), a word used more in England than in the United States, and often shortened to *pram*, is a baby carriage, a vehicle for walking an infant through the streets (*per-*, through). To *perambulate* (pə-RAM′-byə-layt′) is,

etymologically, “to walk through”; hence, to stroll around. Can you write the noun form of this verb? _____.

To *amble* (AM′-bəl) is to walk aimlessly; an *ambulance* is so called because originally it was composed of two stretcher-bearers who *walked* off the battlefield with a wounded soldier; and a *preamble* (PREE′-am-bəl) is, by etymology, something that “walks before” (*pre-*, before, beforehand), hence an introduction or introductory statement, as the *preamble* to the U. S. Constitution (“We the people …”), a *preamble* to the speech, etc; or any event that is introductory or preliminary to another, as in “An increase in inflationary factors in the economy is often a *preamble* to a drop in the stock market.”

5. back to sleep

Somnus is one Latin word for sleep—*sopor* is another. A *soporific* (sop′-ə-RIF′-ik) lecture, speaker, style of delivery, etc. will put the audience to sleep (*fic-* from *facio*, to make), and a *soporific* is a sleeping pill.

6. noun suffixes

You know that *-ness* can be added to any adjective to construct the noun form. Write the noun derived from *inarticulate:* _____. *Inarticulate* is a combination of the negative prefix *in-* and Latin *articulus*, a joint. The *inarticulate* person has trouble joining words together coherently. If you are quite *articulate* (ahr-TIK′-yə-lət), on the other hand, you join your words together easily, you are verbal, vocal, possibly even voluble. The verb to *articulate* (ahr-TIK′-yə-layt′) is to join (words), i.e., to express your vocal sounds—as in “Please *articulate* more clearly.” Can you write the noun derived from the verb *articulate*? _____.

Another, and very common, noun suffix attached to adjectives is, as you have discovered, *-ity*. So the noun form of *banal* is either

banalness, or, more commonly, *banality* (bə-NAL′-ə-tee).

Bear in mind, then, that *-ness* and *-ity* are common noun suffixes attached to adjectives, and *-ion* (or *-ation*) is a noun suffix frequenty affixed to verbs (to *articulate—articulation;* to *vocalize—vocalization;* to *perambulate—perambulation*).

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *venter, ventris*	belly
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *loquor*	to speak
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *auris*	ear
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *avunculus*	uncle
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *dorsum*	back
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *vox, vocis*	voice
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *fero*	to carry, bear
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *somnus*	sleep
ENGLISH WORD _____	

9. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *in-* negative suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *ambulo* to walk

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *-ory* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *per-* through

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *pre-* before, beforehand

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *sopor* sleep

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *fic-* (*facio*) to make or do

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *-ness* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-ity* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *-ion* (*-ation*) noun suffix attached to verbs

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *-ence, -ency* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *ventral* VEN′-trəl
2. *ventricle* VEN′-trə-kəl
3. *auricle* AWR′-ə-kəl
4. *ventricular* ven-TRIK′-yə-lər
5. *auricular* aw-RIK′-yə-lər
6. *avuncular* ə-VUNG′-kyə-lər
7. *dorsal* DAWR′-səl
8. *endorse* en-DAWRS′
9. *endorsement* en-DAWRS′-mənt
10. *vociferousness* vō-SIF′-ə-rəs-nəs
11. *vociferate* vō-SIF′-ə-rayt′
12. *vociferation* vō-sif′-ə-RAY′-shən

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *somniferous* som-NIF′-ər-əs

2. *insomnia* in-SOM′-nee-ə
3. *insomniac* in-SOM′-nee-ak′
4. *insomnious* in-SOM′-nee-əs
5. *somnolent* SOM′-nə-lənt
6. *somnolence* SOM′-nə-ləns
7. *somnolency* SOM′-nə-lən-see
8. *somnambulism* som-NAM′-byə-liz-əm
9. *somnambulist* som-NAM′-byə-list
10. *somnambulistic* som-nam′-byə-LIST′-ik

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *ambulatory* AM′-byə-lə-tawr′-ee
2. *perambulator* pə-RAM′-byə-lay′-tər
3. *perambulate* pə-RAM′-byə-layt′
4. *perambulation* pə-ram′-byə-LAY′-shən
5. *amble* AM′-bəl
6. *preamble* PREE′-am-bəl
7. *soporific* sop-ə-RIF′-ik
8. *inarticulateness* in′-ahr-TIK′-yə-lət-nəs
9. *articulate* ahr-TIK′-yə-lət
10. *banality* bə-NAL′-ə-tee

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. ventral	a. unable to fall asleep
2. dorsal	b. pertaining to sleepwalking
3. somniferous	c. drowsy
4. insomnious	d. able to walk, after being bedridden
5. somnolent	e. verbal, vocal
6. somnambulistic	f. like an uncle; kindly; protective
7. ambulatory	g. pertaining to one of the chambers of the heart
8. articulate	h. referring to the front or belly side
9. ventricular, auricular	i. sleep-inducing
10. avuncular	j. referring to the back side

KEY: 1–h, 2–j, 3–i, 4–a, 5–c, 6–b, 7–d, 8–e, 9–g, 10–f

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. ventricle, auricle	a. inability to fall asleep
2. endorsement	b. sleepwalking
3. vociferousness	c. introduction; preliminary or introductory occurrence
4. insomnia	d. incoherence; sputtering; inability to get words out
5. somnolence	e. chamber of the heart
6. somnambulism	f. sleeping pill
7. perambulator	g. support; approval
8. preamble	h. lack of originality; lack of imagination
9. soporific	i. drowsiness
10. inarticulateness	j. baby buggy; stroller
11. banality	k. loudness; clamorousness

KEY: 1–e, 2–g, 3–k, 4–a, 5–i, 6–b, 7–j, 8–c, 9–f, 10–d, 11–h

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. endorse	a. one who cannot fall asleep
2. vociferate	b. sleepwalker
3. insomniac	c. walk aimlessly
4. somnolency	d. stroll through; walk around
5. somnambulist	e. to sign on the back; support; approve of
6. perambulate	f. drowsiness
7. amble	g. say loudly and with great vehemence
8. soporific	h. causing sleep
9. insomnious	i. wakeful; unable to fall asleep

KEY: 1–e, 2–g, 3–a, 4–f, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c, 8–h, 9–i

Do you understand the words?

1. Does an *insomniac* often need a *soporific?*
   YES NO
2. Does a *somnambulist* always stay in bed when asleep?
   YES NO
3. Are *ambulatory* patients bedridden?
   YES NO
4. Does a *preamble* come after another event?
   YES NO
5. Are *articulate* people verbal?
   YES NO
6. Does *banality* show creativeness?
   YES NO
7. Does an *avuncular* attitude indicate affection and protectiveness?
   YES NO
8. Is *vociferation* habitual with quiet, shy people?
   YES NO
9. Is a *somnolent* person wide awake?
   YES NO
10. Is a *somniferous* speaker stimulating and exciting?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–no, 10–no

---

Can you recall the words?

1. lack of imagination or originality in speech, actions, or style of life; hackneyed or trite phraseology
   1. B_____
2. sleep-inducing
   2. S_____
   or S_____
3. unable to fall asleep (*adj.*)
   3. I_____
4. verbal, vocal, speaking fluently
   4. A_____
5. acting like an uncle
   5. A_____
6. referring to the front; anterior
   6. V_____
7. referring to the back; posterior
   7. D_____
8. approve of; support; sign on the back of
   8. E_____
9. shout vehemently
   9. V_____
10. one who cannot fall asleep
    10. I_____
11. drowsy; sleepy
    11. S_____
12. sleepwalker

12. S_____

13. now able to walk, though previously bedridden

13. A_____

14. walk aimlessly

14. A_____

15. introduction; introductory event

15. P_____

16. incoherence

16. I_____

KEY: 1–banality, 2–somniferous *or* soporific, 3–insomnious, 4–articulate, 5–avuncular, 6–ventral, 7–dorsal, 8–endorse, 9–vociferate, 10–insomniac, 11–somnolent, 12–somnambulist, 13–ambulatory, 14–amble, 15–preamble, 16–inarticulateness

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Disinclined to conversation:
   (a) loquacious, (b) laconic, (c) taciturn
2. Trite:
   (a) inarticulate, (b) banal, (c) verbose
3. Rapid and fluent:
   (a) voluble, (b) verbose, (c) garrulous
4. Forceful and compelling:
   (a) vociferous, (b) cogent, (c) laconic
5. Unspoken:
   (a) verbatim, (b) eloquent, (c) tacit
6. Using elegant and impressive words:
   (a) verbose, (b) grandiloquent, (c) colloquial
7. Back:
   (a) dorsal, (b) ventral, (c) somniferous
8. Sleep-inducing:
   (a) soporific, (b) somnolent, (c) ventral
9. Inability to fall asleep:
   (a) somnambulism, (b) ambulatory, (c) insomnia
10. Talkativeness:
   (a) reticence, (b) ventriloquism, (c) loquacity

11. Expressing indirectly or in a roundabout way:
    (a) circumlocutory, (b) colloquial, (c) laconic
12. Elegance in expression:
    (a) magniloquence, (b) grandiloquence, (c) verbiage
13. Wordiness:
    (a) laconism, (b) cogency, (c) verbosity
14. Big-hearted, generous, unselfish:
    (a) grandiloquent, (b) magnanimous, (c) garrulous
15. Causing radical changes:
    (a) evolutionary, (b) revolutionary, (c) ventricular
16. To shout vehemently:
    (a) endorse, (b) perambulate, (c) vociferate
17. Like an uncle:
    (a) ventricular, (b) auricular, (c) avuncular
18. Drowsy:
    (a) somniferous, (b) somnolent, (c) soporific
19. Sleepwalking:
    (a) insomnia, (b) somnolency, (c) somnambulism
20. Introduction:
    (a) preamble, (b) perambulator, (c) evolution

KEY: 1–c, 2–b, 3–a, 4–b, 5–c, 6–b, 7–a, 8–a, 9–c, 10–c, 11–a, 12–a *and* b, 13–c, 14–b, 15–b, 16–c, 17–c, 18–b, 19–c, 20–a

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *taceo*	_____
EXAMPLE taciturn	
2. *loquor*	_____
EXAMPLE loquacity	
3. *solus*	_____
EXAMPLE soliloquize	
4. *venter, ventris*	_____
EXAMPLE ventral	
5. *magnus*	_____
EXAMPLE magniloquent	
6. *grandis*	_____
EXAMPLE grandiloquent	
7. *verbum*	_____
EXAMPLE verbatim	
8. *volvo, volutus*	_____
EXAMPLE revolution	

9. *garrio* _____

EXAMPLE garrulous

10. *animus* _____

EXAMPLE magnanimous

11. *opus* _____

EXAMPLE magnum opus

12. *opero* _____

EXAMPLE operator

13. *auris* _____

EXAMPLE auricle

14. *avunculus* _____

EXAMPLE avuncular

15. *dorsum* _____

EXAMPLE dorsal

16. *vox, vocis* _____

EXAMPLE vociferate

17. *fero* _____

EXAMPLE somniferous

18. *ambulo* _____

EXAMPLE preamble

19. *sopor* _____

EXAMPLE soporific

20. *somnus* _____

EXAMPLE somnolency

KEY: 1–to be silent, 2–to speak, 3–alone, 4–belly, 5–big, large, great, 6–grand, 7–word, 8–to roll, 9–to chatter, 10–mind, 11–work, 12–to work, 13–ear, 14–uncle, 15–back, 16–voice, 17–to carry or bear, 18–to walk, 19–sleep, 20–sleep

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. The present participle (or *-ing* form) of the Latin verb *opero*, to work, is *operans*, working. The form *operandi* means *of working.* Can you figure out the literal meaning of the phrase *modus operandi*, sometimes used to signify the characteristic methods or procedures used by certain criminals? _____.

2. *Circum-*, we have learned, is a prefix meaning *around*, as in *circumlocution, circumference, circumcision, circumnavigation*, etc. Thinking of the root *scribo, scriptus*, to write, can you figure out the word meaning *writing, or written material, around* (the edge of something)? _____.

3. You know the roots *somnus* and *loquor.* Can you combine these two roots to form an adjective meaning *talking in one's sleep?* _____. Can you write the noun form of this adjective? _____.

4. We have discovered *auris*, ear, as in *auricle.* Can you figure out the specialty of the physician called an *aurist?* _____.

5. *Verbal*, from *verbum*, refers to words; *oral*, from *os, oris*, the mouth, refers to spoken words or sounds. Can you analyze *aural* and decide on its meaning? _____.

6. A *somnambulist* walks in his sleep. What does a *noctambulist* do? _____.

7. *Soporific*, combining *sopor*, sleep, with *fic-* (from *facio*), to make, means *inducing or causing sleep.* Use *somnus*, another root for sleep, to construct a word that has the same form and meaning as *soporific:* _____.

8. *Perambulate* is *to walk through.* Use another Latin prefix to construct a verb meaning *to walk around* _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

BECOMING ALERT TO NEW IDEAS

Some chapters back I suggested that since words are symbols of ideas, one of the most effective means of building your vocabulary is to read books that deal with new ideas. Along that line, I further suggested that the fields of psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis would be good starting points, and I mentioned a number of exciting books to work with.

Needless to say, you will not wish to neglect other fields, and so I want to recommend, at this point, highly readable books in additional subjects. All these books will increase your familiarity with the world of ideas—all of them, therefore, will help you build a superior vocabulary.

SEMANTICS

Language in Thought and Action, by S. I. Hayakawa
People in Quandaries, by Wendell Johnson

EDUCATION AND LEARNING

How to Survive in Your Native Land, by James Herndon

Education and the Endangered Individual, by Brian V. Hill
How Children Fail and *What Do I Do Monday?*, by John Holt
Teaching Human Beings, by Jeffrey Schrank
Education and Ecstasy, by George B. Leonard
Human Teaching for Human Learning, by George Isaac Brown

SEX, LOVE, MARRIAGE

Couple Therapy, by Gerald Walker Smith and Alice I. Phillips
Your Fear of Love, by Marshall Bryant Hodge
Sexual Suicide, by George F. Gilder
Intimacy, by Gina Allen and Clement G. Martin, M.D.
How to Live with Another Person, by David Viscott, M.D.
Pairing, by George R. Bach and Ronald M. Deutsch
The Intimate Enemy, by George R. Bach and Peter Wyden
The Rape of the Ape, by Allan Sherman (Humor)
The Hite Report, by Shere Hite
Sex in Human Loving, by Eric Berne, M.D.

WOMEN, FEMINISM, ETC.

Rebirth of Feminism, by Judith Hole and Ellen Levine
The Way of All Women, by M. Esther Harding
Knowing Woman, by Irene Claremont de Castillejo
Sexist Justice, by Karen De Crow
Our Bodies, Our Selves, by The Boston Women's Health Book Collective

CHILDREN, CHILD-RAISING, ETC.

Between Parent and Child and *Between Parent and Teenager*, by Dr. Haim Ginott
Children Who Hate, by Fritz Redl and David Wineman
Parent Effectiveness Training, by Dr. Thomas Gordon

How to Parent, by Dr. Fitzhugh Dodson
Escape from Childhood, by John Holt
One Little Boy, by Dorothy W. Baruch

HEALTH

Save Your Life Diet Book, by David Reuben, M.D.
Folk Medicine, by D. C. Jarvis, M.D.
Get Well Naturally, by Linda Clark
Let's Eat Right to Keep Fit, by Adelle Davis

PHILOSOPHY

The Way of Zen and *What Does It Matter?*, by Alan W. Watts
Love's Body, by Norman O. Brown

BUSINESS, ECONOMICS, FINANCE

The Affluent Society, by John Kenneth Galbraith
Parkinson's Law, by C. Northcote Parkinson
The Peter Principle, by Laurence J. Peter
Up the Organization, by Robert Townsend

SOCIOLOGY

Passages, by Gail Sheehy
Future Shock, by Alvin Toffler
Hard Times, by Studs Terkel
Roots, by Alex Haley

DEATH AND DYING

Life After Life, by Raymond A. Moody, Jr., M.D.
On Death and Dying, by Elizabeth Kubler Ross

All but one or two of these stimulating and informative books are available in inexpensive paperback editions—most of them can be found in any large public library. Any one of them will provide an evening of entertainment and excitement far more rewarding than watching TV, will possibly open for you new areas of knowledge and understanding, and will undoubtedly contain so many of the words you have learned in this book that you will again and again experience the delicious shock of recognition that I spoke of in an earlier chapter.

Additionally, you may encounter words you have never seen before that are built on roots you are familiar with—*and you will then realize how simple it is to figure out the probable meaning of even the most esoteric term once you have become an expert in roots, prefixes, and suffixes.*

(*End of Session 27*)

Brief Intermission Six

DO YOU ALWAYS USE THE PROPER WORD?

The fact is that grammar is getting more liberal every day. Common usage has put a stamp of approval on many expressions which your grandmother would not have dared utter in her most intimate conversation—not if she believed she was in the habit of using good English. *It is me; have you got a cold?; it's a nice day; can I have another piece of cake?; she is a most aggravating child; will everybody please remove their hats*—all these today represent perfectly correct grammar for everyday conversation. Modern grammar research reports that these expressions have become universal in educated speech.

However, such a liberal policy does not mean that all bars are down. Only a person whose speech borders on the illiterate would make such statements as: *can you learn me to swim?; he don't live here no more; we ain't working so good; me and my husband are glad to see you.* There are still certain minimum essentials of good English that the cultivated speaker carefully observes.

Is your grammar as good as the next person's? Here's a quick test by which you can measure your ability.

Check the preferable choice in each sentence, then compare your results with the key at the end. Allowing 4 per cent for each correct answer, consider 92–100 excellent, 76–88 good, 68–72 average.

1. What (a–effect, b–affect) does Farrah Fawcett-Majors have on you?

2. What's the sense (a–in, b–of) looking for a needle in a haystack?
3. She won't (a–leave, b–let) us meet her new boy friend.
4. What (a–kind of, b–kind of a) dress do you want?
5. Her (a–principle, b–principal) objection to neurotics is that they are difficult to live with.
6. The murderer was (a–hanged, b–hung) two hours before the governor's pardon arrived.
7. Many men feel great affection for their (a–mother-in-laws, b–mothers-in-law).
8. For a light cake, use two (a–spoonfuls, b–spoonsful) of baking powder.
9. Everyone likes you but (a–she, b–her).
10. Sally sent a gift for (a–him and me, b–he and I).
11. The criteria you are using (a–is, b–are) not valid.
12. The cost of new houses (a–is, b–are) finally stabilizing.
13. Irene as well as her husband (a–has, b–have) come to see you.
14. (a–Is, b–Are) either of your sisters working?
15. As soon as the editor or her secretary (a–comes, b–come) in, let me know.
16. One or two of her features (a–is, b–are) very attractive.
17. Can you visit Mary and (a–I, b–me) tonight?
18. He is totally (a–uninterested, b–disinterested) in your personal affairs.
19. She (a–laid, b–lay) on the beach while her son splashed at the water's edge.
20. (a–Who, b–Whom) would you rather be if you weren't yourself?
21. You should not (a–have, b–of) spoken so harshly.
22. She is one of those women who (a–believes, b–believe) that husbands should share in doing housework and taking care of the children.
23. Was it you who (a–was, b–were) here yesterday?
24. What we need in this country (a–is, b–are) honest politicians.
25. I'm smarter than Gladys, but she's richer than (a–I, b–me).

KEY: 1–a, 2–a, 3–b, 4–a, 5–b, 6–a, 7–b, 8–a, 9–b, 10–a, 11–b, 12–a, 13–a, 14–a, 15–a, 16–b, 17–b, 18–a, 19–b, 20–a, 21–a, 22–b, 23–b, 24–a, 25–a

11

HOW TO INSULT YOUR ENEMIES

(*Sessions 28–31*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What do you call a person who:
insists on complete and blind obedience?
toadies to the rich or influential?
dabbles in the fine arts?
is a loud-mouthed, quarrelsome woman?
has a one-track mind?
sneers at other people's cherished traditions?
does not believe in God?
has imaginary ailments?

SESSION 28

There are few of us who do not need warm and nourishing relationships to lead a fulfilled life.

Psychology makes clear that loving and being loved are important elements in emotional health, but also points out the necessity for expressing, rather than repressing, our hostilities. (You know how good you feel once you blow off steam? And how much closer you can become attached to someone once you directly and honestly vent your anger, resentment, or irritation instead of bottling it up and seething in fury?)

It is a mark of your own emotional maturity if you can *accept* hostility as well as dish it out. So let us pretend, in order to encourage you to become personally involved in the introductory ten words of this chapter, that each paragraph in the next few pages accurately describes *you.* What label exactly fits your personality?

IDEAS

1. slave driver

You make everyone toe the mark—right down to the last centimeter. You exact blind, unquestioning obedience; demand the strictest conformity to rules, however arbitrary or tyrannical; and will not tolerate the slightest deviation from your orders. You are, in short, the very epitome of the army drill sergeant.

You are a *martinet.*

2. bootlicker

You toady to rich or influential people, catering to their vanity, flattering their ego. You are the personification of the traditional ward heeler, you out-yes the Hollywood yes men. And on top of all these unpleasant characteristics, you're a complete hypocrite. All your servile attentions and unceasing adulation spring from your own selfish desires to get ahead, not out of any sincere admiration. You cultivate people of power or property so that you can curry favor at the opportune moment.

You are a *sycophant.*

3. dabbler

Often, though not necessarily, a person of independent income, you engage superficially in the pursuit of one of the fine arts—painting, writing, sculpturing, composing, etc. You do this largely for your own amusement and not to achieve any professional competence; nor are you at all interested in monetary rewards. Your artistic efforts are simply a means of passing time pleasantly.

You are a *dilettante.*

4. battle-ax

You are a loud-mouthed, shrewish, turbulent woman; you're quarrelsome and aggressive, possessing none of those gentle and tender qualities stereotypically associated with femininity. You're strong-minded, unyielding, sharp-tongued, and dangerous. You can curse like a stevedore and yell like a fishwife—and often do.

You are a *virago.*

5. superpatriot

Anything you own or belong to is better—simply because you own it or belong to it, although you will be quick to find more

justifiable explanations. Your religion, whatever it may be, is far superior to any other; your political party is the only honest one; your neighborhood puts all others in the city in the shade; members of your own sex are more intelligent, more worthy, more emotionally secure, and in every way far better than people of the opposite sex; your car is faster, more fun to drive, and gets better gas mileage than any other, no matter in what price range; and of course your country and its customs leave nothing to be desired, and inhabitants of other nations are in comparison barely civilized. In short, you are exaggeratedly, aggressively, absurdly, and excessively devoted to your own affiliations—and you make no bones about advertising such prejudice.

You are a *chauvinist.*

6. fanatic

You have a one-track mind—and when you're riding a particular hobby, you ride it hard. You have such an excessive, all-inclusive zeal for one thing (and it may be your business, your profession, your husband or wife, your children, your stomach, your money, or whatever) that your obsession is almost absurd. You talk, eat, sleep that one thing—to the point where you bore everyone to distraction.

You are a *monomaniac.*

7. attacker

You are violently against established beliefs, revered traditions, cherished customs—such, you say, stand in the way of reform and progress and are always based on superstition and irrationality. Religion, family, marriage, ethics—you weren't there when these were started and you're not going to conform simply because most unthinking people do.

You are an *iconoclast.*

8. skeptic

There is no God—that's your position and you're not going to budge from it.

You are *an atheist.*

9. self-indulger

You are, as a male, lascivious, libidinous, lustful, lewd, wanton, immoral—but more important, you promiscuously attempt to satisfy (and are often successful in so doing) your sexual desires with any woman within your arm's reach.

You are a *lecher.*

10. worrier

You are always sick, though no doctor can find an organic cause for your ailments. You know you have ulcers, though medical tests show a healthy stomach. You have heart palpitations, but a cardiogram fails to show any abnormality. Your headaches are caused (you're sure of it) by a rapidly growing brain tumor—yet X rays show nothing wrong. These maladies are not imaginary, however; to you they are most real, non-existent as they may be in fact. And as you travel from doctor to doctor futilely seeking confirmation of your imminent death, you become more and more convinced that you're too weak to go on much longer. Organically, of course, there's nothing the matter with you. Perhaps tensions, insecurities, or a need for attention is taking the form of simulated bodily ills.

You are a *hypochondriac.*

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *martinet*	mahr-tə-NET′
2. *sycophant*	SIK′-ə-fənt
3. *dilettante*	dil′-ə-TANT
4. *virago*	və-RAH′-go
5. *chauvinist*	SHŌ′-və-nist
6. *monomaniac*	mon′-ə-MAY′-nee-ak
7. *iconoclast*	ī-KON′-ə-klast′
8. *atheist*	AY′-thee-ist
9. *lecher*	LECH′-ər
10. *hypochondriac*	hī′-pə-KON′-dree-ak

Can you work with the words?

WORDS	KEY IDEAS
1. martinet	a. superficiality
2. sycophant	b. patriotism
3. dilettante	c. godlessness
4. virago	d. single-mindedness
5. chauvinist	e. antitradition
6. monomaniac	f. sex
7. iconoclast	g. illness
8. atheist	h. discipline
9. lecher	i. turbulence

10. hypochondriac

j. flattery

KEY: 1–h, 2–j, 3–a, 4–i, 5–b, 6–d, 7–e, 8–c, 9–f, 10–g

Do you understand the words?

1. Does a *martinet* condone carelessness and neglect of duty?
   YES NO
2. Is a *sycophant* a sincere person?
   YES NO
3. Is a *dilettante* a hard worker?
   YES NO
4. Is a *virago* sweet and gentle?
   YES NO
5. Is a *chauvinist* modest and self-effacing?
   YES NO
6. Does a *monomaniac* have a one-track mind?
   YES NO
7. Does an *iconoclast* scoff at tradition?
   YES NO
8. Does an *atheist* believe in God?
   YES NO
9. Is a *lecher* misogynous?
   YES NO
10. Does a *hypochondriac* have a lively imagination?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–no, 6–yes, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. a person whose emotional disorder is reflected in non-organic or imaginary bodily ailments
   1. H_____
2. a strict disciplinarian
   2. M_____
3. a lewd and sexually aggressive male
   3. L_____
4. a toady to people of wealth or power
   4. S_____
5. a disbeliever in God
   5. A_____
6. a dabbler in the arts
   6. D_____
7. a shrewish, loud-mouthed female
   7. V_____
8. a scoffer at tradition
   8. I_____
9. person with a one-track mind
   9. M_____
10. a blatant superpatriot
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–hypochondriac, 2–martinet, 3–lecher, 4–sycophant, 5–atheist, 6–dilettante, 7–virago, 8–iconoclast, 9–monomaniac, 10–chauvinist

Can you use the words?

1. She scoffs at beliefs you have always held dear.
   1. _____
2. You know he's hale and hearty—but he constantly complains of his illness.
   2. _____
3. She insists her political affiliations are superior to yours.
   3. _____
4. She insists on her subordinates toeing the mark.
   4. _____
5. He makes sexual advances to everyone else's wife—and is too often successful.
   5. _____
6. He cultivates friends that can do him good—financially.
   6. _____
7. She dabbles with water colors.
   7. _____
8. She insists there is no Deity.
   8. _____
9. She's a shrew, a harridan, a scold, and a nag.
   9. _____
10. His only interest in life is his fish collection—and he is fanatically, almost psychotically, devoted to it.
    10. _____

KEY: 1–iconoclast, 2–hypochondriac, 3–chauvinist, 4–martinet, 5–lecher, 6–sycophant, 7–dilettante, 8–atheist, 9–virago, 10–monomaniac

(*End of Session 28*)

SESSION 29

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. the French drillmaster

Jean Martinet was the Inspector General of Infantry during the reign of King Louis XIV—and a stricter, more fanatic drillmaster France had never seen. It was from this time that the French Army's reputation for discipline dated, and it is from the name of this Frenchman that we derive our English word *martinet*. The word is always used in a derogatory sense and generally shows resentment and anger on the part of the user. The secretary who calls his boss a *martinet*, the wife who applies the epithet to her husband, the worker who thus refers to the foreman—these speakers all show their contempt for the excessive, inhuman discipline to which they are asked to submit.

Since *martinet* comes from a man's name (in the Brief Intermission which follows we shall discover that a number of picturesque English words are similarly derived), there are no related forms built on the same root. There is an adjective *martinetish* (mahr-tə-NET′-ish) and another noun form, *martinetism*, but these are used only rarely.

2. a Greek "fig-shower"

Sycophant comes to us from the Greeks. According to Shipley's Dictionary of Word Origins:

> When a fellow wants to get a good mark, he may polish up an apple and place it on teacher's desk; his classmates call such a lad an apple-shiner. Less complimentary localities use the term bootlicker. The Greeks had a name for it: *fig-shower*. Sycophant is from Gr. *sykon*, fig, [and] *phanein*, to show. This was the fellow that informed the officers in charge when (1) the figs in the sacred groves were being taken, or (2) when the Smyrna fig-dealers were dodging the tariff.

Thus, a *sycophant* may appear to be a sort of "stool pigeon," since the latter curries the favor of police officials by "peaching" on his fellow criminals. *Sycophants* may use this means of ingratiating themselves with influential citizens of the community; or they may use flattery, servile attentions, or any other form of insinuating themselves into someone's good graces. A *sycophant* practices *sycophancy* (SIK′-ə-fən-see), and has a *sycophantic* (sik-ə-FAN′-tik) attitude. All three forms of the word are highly uncomplimentary—use them with care.

Material may be so delicate or fine in texture that anything behind it will show through. The Greek prefix *dia-* means *through;* and *phanein*, as you now know, means *to show*—hence such material is called *diaphanous* (dī-AF′-ə-nəs). Do not use the adjective in reference to all material that is transparent (for example, you would not call glass *diaphanous*, even though you can see right through it), but only material that is silky, gauzy, filmy, and, in addition, transparent or practically transparent. The word is often applied to female garments—nightgowns, negligees, etc.

3. just for one's own amusement

Dilettante is from the Italian verb *dilettare*, to delight. The *dilettante* paints, writes, composes, plays a musical instrument, or engages in scientific experiments purely for amusement—not to make money, become famous, or satisfy a deep creative urge (the latter, I presume, being the justifications for the time that professional

artists, writers, composers, musicians, poets, and scientists spend at their chosen work). A *dilettantish* (dil-ə-TAN′-tish) attitude is superficial, unprofessional; *dilettantism* (dil-ə-TAN′-tiz-əm) is superficial, part-time dabbling in the type of activity that usually engages the full time and energy of the professional artist or scientist.

Do not confuse the *dilettante*, who has a certain amount of native talent or ability, with the *tyro* (TĪ′-rō), who is the inexperienced beginner in some art, but who may be full of ambition, drive, and energy. To call a person a *tyro* is to imply that he is just starting in some artistic, scientific, or professional field—he's not much good yet because he has not had time to develop his skill, if any. The *dilettante* usually has some skill but isn't doing much with it. On the other hand, anyone who has developed consummate skill in an artistic field, generally allied to music, is called a *virtuoso* (vur′-chōō-Ō′-sō)—like Heifetz or Menuhin on the violin, Horowitz or Rubinstein on the piano. Pluralize *virtuoso* in the normal way—*virtuosos;* or if you wish to sound more sophisticated, give it the continental form—*virtuosi* (vur′-chōō-Ō′-see). Similarly, the plural of *dilettante* is either *dilettantes* or *dilettanti* (dil-ə-TAN′-tee).

The *i* ending for a plural is the Italian form and is common in musical circles. For example, *libretto*, the story (or book) of an opera, may be pluralized to *libretti; concerto*, a form of musical composition, is pluralized *concerti.* However, the Anglicized *librettos* and *concertos* are perfectly correct also. *Libretto* is pronounced lə-BRET′-ō; *libretti* is lə-BRET′-ee; *concerto* is kən-CHUR′-tō; and *concerti* is kən-CHUR′-tee. Suit your plural form, I would suggest, to the sophistication of your audience.

4. "masculine" women

Virago comes, oddly enough, from the Latin word for man, *vir.* Perhaps the derivation is not so odd after all; a *virago*, far from being stereotypically feminine (i.e., timid, delicate, low-spoken, etc.), is stereotypically masculine in personality—coarse, aggressive,

loud-mouthed. *Termagant* (TUR′-mə-gənt) and *harridan* (HAIR′-ə-dən) are words with essentially the same uncomplimentary meaning as *virago*. To call a brawling woman a *virago*, a *termagant*, and a *harridan* is admittedly repetitious, but is successful in relieving one's feelings.

5. the old man

Nicolas Chauvin, soldier of the French Empire, so vociferously and unceasingly aired his veneration of Napoleon Bonaparte that he became the laughingstock of all Europe. Thereafter, an exaggerated and blatant patriot was known as a *chauvinist*—and still is today. *Chauvinism* (SHŌ′-və-niz-əm), by natural extension, applies to blatant veneration of, or boastfulness about, any other affiliation besides one's country.

To be *patriotic* is to be normally proud of, and devoted to, one's country—to be *chauvinistic* (shō′-və-NIS′-tik) is to exaggerate such pride and devotion to an obnoxious degree.

We might digress here to investigate an etymological side road down which the word *patriotic* beckons. *Patriotic* is built on the Latin word *pater, patris*, father—one's country is, in a sense, one's fatherland.

Let us see what other interesting words are built on this same root.

1. *patrimony* (PAT′-rə-mō-nee)—an inheritance from one's father. The *-mony* comes from the same root that gives us *money*, namely *Juno Moneta*, the Roman goddess who guarded the temples of finance. The adjective is *patrimonial* (pat′-rə-MŌ′-nee-əl).

2. *patronymic* (pat′-rə-NIM′-ik)—a name formed on the father's name, like *Johnson* (son of John), *Martinson, Aaronson*, etc. The word combines *pater, patris* with Greek *onyma*, name. *Onyma* plus the Greek prefix *syn-*, with or together, forms *synonym* (SIN′-ə-nim), a word of the same name (or meaning), etymologically "a together name." *Onyma* plus the prefix *anti-* against, forms *antonym* (AN′-tə-

nim), a word of opposite meaning, etymologically "an against name." *Onyma* plus Greek *homos*, the same, forms *homonym* (HOM′-ə-nim), a word that sounds like another but has a different meaning and spelling, like *bare—bear, way—weigh, to—too—two*, etc., etymologically "a same name." A *homonym* is more accurately called a *homophone* (HOM′-ə-fōn′), a combination of *homos*, the same, and *phone*, sound. The adjective form of *synonym* is *synonymous* (sə-NON′-ə-məs). Can you write, and pronounce, the adjective derived from:

antonym? _____
homonym? _____
homophone? _____

3. *paternity* (pə-TUR′-nə-tee)—fatherhood, as to question someone's *paternity*, to file a *paternity* suit in order to collect child support from the assumed, accused, or self-acknowledged father. The adjective is *paternal* (pə-TUR′-nəl), fatherly. *Paternalism* (pə-TUR′-nə-liz-əm) is the philosophy or system of governing a country, or of managing a business or institution, so that the citizens, employees, or staff are treated in a manner suggesting a father-children relationship. (Such a system sounds, and often is, benign and protective, but plays havoc with the initiative, independence, and creativity of those in subordinate roles.) The adjective is *paternalistic* (pə-turn′-ə-LIS′-tik).

4. *patriarch* (PAY′-tree-ark′)—a venerable, fatherlike old man; an old man in a ruling, fatherlike position. Here *pater, patris* is combined with the Greek root *archein*, to rule. The adjective is *patriarchal* (pay′-tree-AHR′-kəl), the system is a *patriarchy* (PAY′-tree-ahr′-kee).

5. *patricide* (PAT′-rə-sīd′)—the killing of one's father. *Pater, patris* combines with *-cide*, a suffix derived from the Latin verb *caedo*, to kill. The adjective is *patricidal* (pat-rə-SĪ′-dəl).

This list does not exhaust the number of words built on *pater*, father, but is sufficient to give you an idea of how closely related many English words are. In your reading you will come across other words containing the letters *pater* or *patr*—you will be able to figure

them out once you realize that the base is the word *father*. You might, if you feel ambitious, puzzle out the relationship to the "father idea" in the following words, checking with a dictionary to see how good your linguistic intuition is:

1. patrician
2. patron
3. patronize
4. patronizing (*adj.*)
5. paterfamilias
6. padre

6. the old lady

Pater, patris is *father*. *Mater, matris* is *mother*.

For example:

1. *matriarch* (MAY′-tree-ahrk′)—the mother-ruler; the "mother person" that controls a large household, tribe, or country. This word, like *patriarch*, is built on the root *archein*, to rule. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth or Queen Victoria, England was a *matriarchy* (MAY′-tree-ahr′-kee). Can you figure out the adjective form? _____.

2. *maternity* (mə-TUR′-nə-tee)—motherhood

3. *maternal* (mə-TURN′-əl)—motherly

4. *matron* (MAY′-trən)—an older woman, one sufficiently mature to be a mother. The adjective *matronly* (MAY′-trən-lee) conjures up for many people a picture of a woman no longer in the glow of youth and possibly with a bit of added weight in the wrong places, so this word should be used with caution; it may be hazardous to your health if the lady you are so describing is of a tempestous nature, or is a *virago*.

5. *alma mater* (AL′-mə MAY′-tər *or* AHL′-mə MAH′-tər)—etymologically, "soul mother"; actually, the school or college from which one has graduated, and which in a sense is one's intellectual mother.

6. *matrimony* (MAT′-rə-mō′-nee)—marriage. Though this word is similar to *patrimony* in spelling, it does not refer to *money*, as *patrimony* does; unless, that is, you are cynical enough to believe that people marry for money. As the language was growing, marriage and children went hand in hand—it is therefore not surprising that the word for *marriage* should be built on the Latin root for *mother.* Of course, times have changed, but the sexist nature of the English language has not. The noun suffix *-mony* indicates state, condition, or result, as in *sanctimony, parsimony*, etc. The adjective is *matrimonial* (mat′-rə-MŌ′-nee-əl).

7. *matricide* (MAT′-rə-sīd′)—the killing of one's mother. The adjective? _____.

7. murder most foul…

Murder unfortunately is an integral part of human life, so there is a word for almost every kind of killing you can think of. Let's look at some of them.

1. *suicide* (SŌŌ′-ə-sīd′)—killing oneself (intentionally); *-cide* plus *sui*, of oneself. This is both the act and the person who has been completely successful in performing the act (*partially* doesn't count); also, in colloquial usage, *suicide* is a verb. The adjective? _____.

2. *fratricide* (FRAT′-rə-sīd′)—the killing of one's brother; *-cide* plus *frater, fratris*, brother. The adjective? _____.

3. *sororicide* (sə-RAWR′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of one's sister; *-cide* plus *soror*, sister. The adjective? _____.

4. *homicide* (HOM′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of a human being; *-cide* plus *homo*, person. In law, *homicide* is the general term for any slaying. If intent and premeditation can be proved, the act is *murder* and punishable as such. If no such intent is present, the act is called *manslaughter* and receives a lighter punishment. Thus, if your mate/lover/spouse makes your life unbearable and you slip some

arsenic into his/her coffee one bright morning, you are committing murder—that is, if he/she succumbs. On the other hand, if you run your victim down—quite accidentally—with your car, bicycle, or wheelchair, with no intent to kill, you will be accused of *manslaughter*—that is, if death results and if you can prove you didn't really mean it. It's all rather delicate, however, and you might do best to put thoughts of justifiable *homicide* out of your mind. The adjective? _____.

5. *regicide* (REJ′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of one's king, president, or other governing official. Booth committed *regicide* when he assassinated Abraham Lincoln. Adjective? _____. Derivation: Latin *rex, regis*, king, plus *-cide.*

6. *uxoricide* (uk-SAWR′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of one's wife. Adjective? _____. Derivation: Latin *uxor*, wife, plus *-cide.*

7. *mariticide* (mə-RIT′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of one's husband. Adjective? _____. Derivation: Latin *maritus*, husband, plus *-cide.*

8. *infanticide* (in-FAN′-tə-sīd′)—the killing of a newborn child. Adjective? _____. Derivation: Latin *infans, infantis*, baby, plus *-cide.*

9. *genocide* (JEN′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of a whole race or nation. This is a comparatively new word, coined in 1944 by a UN official named Raphael Lemkin, to refer to the mass murder of the Jews, Poles, etc. ordered by Hitler. Adjective? _____. Derivation: Greek *genos*, race, kind, plus *-cide.*

10. *parricide* (PAIR′-ə-sīd′)—the killing of either or both parents. Adjective? _____.

Lizzie Borden was accused of, and tried for, *parricide* in the 1890s, but was not convicted. A bit of doggerel that was popular at the

time, and, so I have been told, little girls jumped rope to, went somewhat as follows:

> Lizzie Borden took an ax
> And gave her mother forty whacks—
> And when she saw what she had done,
> She gave her father forty-one.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *sykon*	fig
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *phanein*	to show
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *dia-*	through
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *vir*	man (male)
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *pater, patris*	father
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *syn-*	with, together
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *onyma*	name
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *anti*	against

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *homos* the same

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *phone* sound

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *-ity* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *-ism* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *archein* to rule

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *-cide* killing

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *mater, matris* mother

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *alma* soul

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *-mony* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *sui* of oneself

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *frater, fratris* brother

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *soror* sister

ENGLISH WORD _____

23. *homo* person, human

ENGLISH WORD _____

24. *rex, regis* king

ENGLISH WORD _____

25. *uxor* wife

ENGLISH WORD _____

26. *maritus* husband

ENGLISH WORD _____

27. *infans, infantis* baby

ENGLISH WORD _____

28. *genos* race, kind

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *martinetish* mahr-tə-NET′-ish

2. *sycophancy*	SIK′-ə-fən-see
3. *sycophantic*	sik′-ə-FAN′-tik
4. *diaphanous*	dī-AF′-ə-nəs
5. *dilettanti*	dil′-ə-TAN′-tee
6. *dilettantism*	dil-ə-TAN′-tiz-əm
7. *dilettantish*	dil-ə-TAN′-tish
8. *tyro*	TĪ′-rō
9. *virtuoso*	vur′-chʊ-Ō′-sō
10. *virtuosi*	vur′-chʊ-Ō′-see
11. *termagant*	TUR′-mə-gənt
12. *harridan*	HAIR′-ə-dən

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *chauvinism*	SHŌ′-və-niz-əm
2. *chauvinistic*	shō-və-NIS′-tik
3. *patrimony*	PAT′-rə-mō-nee
4. *patronymic*	pat′-rə-NIM′-ik
5. *synonym*	SIN′-ə-nim
6. *synonymous*	sə-NON′-ə-məs
7. *antonym*	AN′-tə-nim
8. *antonymous*	an-TON′-ə-məs
9. *homonym*	HOM′-ə-nim
10. *homonymous*	hə-MON′-ə-məs

11. *homophone*	HOM′-ə-fōn
12. *homophonous*	hə-MOF′-ə-nəs

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *paternity*	pə-TUR′-nə-tee
2. *paternal*	pə-TUR′-nəl
3. *paternalism*	pə-TUR′-nə-liz-əm
4. *paternalistic*	pə-turn′-ə-LIS′-tik
5. *patriarch*	PAY′-tree-ahrk′
6. *patriarchal*	pay′-tree-AHR′-kəl
7. *patriarchy*	PAY′-tree-ahr′-kee
8. *patricide*	PAT′-rə-sīd′
9. *patricidal*	pat′-rə-SĪ′-dəl

Can you pronounce the words? (IV)

1. *matriarch*	MAY′-tree-ahrk′
2. *matriarchy*	MAY′-tree-ahr′-kee
3. *matriarchal*	may′-tree-AHR′-kəl
4. *maternity*	mə-TUR′-nə-tee
5. *maternal*	mə-TURN′-əl
6. *matron*	MAY′-trən
7. *matronly*	MAY′-trən-lee

8. *alma mater*	AL′-mə MAY′-tər *or* AHL′-mə MAH′-tər
9. *matrimony*	MAT′-rə-mō-nee
10. *matrimonial*	mat-rə-MŌ′-nee-əl
11. *matricide*	MAT′-rə-sīd′
12. *matricidal*	mat-rə-SĪ′-dəl

Can you pronounce the words? (V)

1. *suicide*	SOO′-ə-sīd′
2. *suicidal*	soo-ə-SĪ′-dəl
3. *fratricide*	FRAT′-rə-sīd′
4. *fratricidal*	frat-rə-SĪ′-dəl
5. *sororicide*	sə-RAWR′-ə-sīd′
6. *sororicidal*	sə-rawr′-ə-SĪ′-dəl
7. *homicide*	HOM′-ə-sīd′
8. *homicidal*	hom′-ə-SĪ′-dəl
9. *regicide*	REJ′-ə-sīd′
10. *regicidal*	rej′-ə-SĪ′-dəl

Can you pronounce the words? (VI)

1. *uxoricide*	uk-SAWR′-ə-sīd′
2. *uxoricidal*	uk-sawr′-ə-SĪ′-dəl

3. *mariticide*	mə-RIT′-ə-sīd′
4. *mariticidal*	mə-rit′-ə-SĪ′-dəl
5. *infanticide*	in-FAN′-tə-sīd′
6. *infanticidal*	in-fan′-tə-SĪ′-dəl
7. *genocide*	JEN′-ə-sīd′
8. *genocidal*	jen′-ə-SĪ′-dəl
9. *parricide*	PAIR′-ə-sīd′
10. *parricidal*	pair′-ə-SĪ′-dəl

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. sycophancy	a. murder of one's father
2. dilettantism	b. excessive patriotism
3. chauvinism	c. murder of one's ruler
4. patrimony	d. inheritance from one's father
5. patricide	e. murder of one's sister
6. matricide	f. murder of one's brother
7. fratricide	g. murder of a person
8. sororicide	h. toadying
9. homicide	i. murder of one's mother
10. regicide	j. dabbling

KEY: 1–h, 2–j, 3–b, 4–d, 5–a, 6–i, 7–f, 8–e, 9–g, 10–c

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. uxoricide	a. marriage
2. infanticide	b. killing of one's child
3. genocide	c. fatherhood
4. matrimony	d. mother-ruler
5. matriarch	e. killing of one's wife
6. maternity	f. older woman
7. matron	g. one's school or college
8. alma mater	h. motherhood
9. paternity	i. old man in governing position
10. patriarch	j. killing of whole groups of people

KEY: 1–e, 2–b, 3–j, 4–a, 5–d, 6–h, 7–f, 8–g, 9–c, 10–i

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. parricide	a. catering to people of power or position
2. patronymic	b. name from father
3. chauvinistic	c. dabblers
4. sycophantic	d. an accomplished musician
5. diaphanous	e. filmy, gauzy
6. dilettanti	f. blatantly overpatriotic
7. tyro	g. loud-mouthed woman
8. virtuoso	h. a beginner
9. termagant	i. killing of either or both parents

KEY: 1–i, 2–b, 3–f, 4–a, 5–e, 6–c, 7–h, 8–d, 9–g

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. synonyms	a. system in which those in power have a father-child relationship with subordinates
2. antonyms	b. like a strict disciplinarian
3. homonyms	c. self-killing
4. paternalism	d. fatherly
5. suicide	e. referring to or like, those who “play at” an art
6. mariticide	f. words that sound alike but are spelled differently and have unrelated meanings
7. martinetish	g. words of similar meaning
8. dilettantish	h. referring to, or like, an older woman
9. paternal	i. husband-killing
10. matronly	j. words of opposite meaning

KEY: 1–g, 2–j, 3–f, 4–a, 5–c, 6–i, 7–b, 8–e, 9–d, 10–h

Can you work with the words? (V)

1. harridan	a. motherly
2. homophones	b. similar in meaning
3. maternal	c. referring to a system in which older men are in power
4. matrimonial	d. the same in sound but not in spelling or meaning
5. synonymous	e. likely to kill; referring to the killing of a person
6. antonymous	f. referring to a system in which older women are in power
7. homonymous	g. virago
8. patriarchal	h. opposite in meaning
9. matriarchal	i. referring to marriage
10. homicidal	j. words that sound the same

KEY: 1–g, 2–j, 3–a, 4–i, 5–b, 6–h, 7–d, 8–c, 9–f, 10–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Does a *sycophantic* attitude show sincere admiration?
   YES NO
2. Is a *diaphanous* gown revealing?
   YES NO
3. Does *dilettantism* show firmness and tenacity?
   YES NO
4. Is a *tyro* particularly skillful?
   YES NO
5. Is a violin *virtuoso* an accomplished musician?
   YES NO
6. Is a *termagant* a pleasant person?
   YES NO
7. Does *chauvinism* show modesty?
   YES NO
8. Does a substantial *patrimony* obviate financial insecurity?
   YES NO
9. If you know a person's *patronymic* can you deduce his father's name?
   YES NO
10. Is a *patriarch* a male?
    YES NO
11. Does a *matriarch* have a good deal of power?
    YES NO
12. Does *fratricide* mean murder of one's sister?
    YES NO

13. Did the assassin of Abraham Lincoln commit *regicide?*

    YES NO

14. Do dictators and tyrants sometimes commit *genocide?*

    YES NO

15. Are an *uxoricidal* husband and his *mariticidal* wife likely to have a peaceful and affectionate marriage?

    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–yes, 11–yes, 12–no, 13–yes, 14–yes, 15–no

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. father-killing (*noun*)
    1. P_____
2. wife-killing (*noun*)
    2. U_____
3. mature woman
    3. M_____
4. toadying to people of influence (*adj.*)
    4. S_____
5. skilled musician
    5. V_____
6. exaggerated patriotism
    6. C_____
7. turbulent female (three words)
    7. T_____
    or H_____
    or V_____
8. name derived from father's name
    8. P_____
9. powerful father figure in a ruling position
    9. P_____
10. powerful mother figure in a ruling position
    10. M_____
11. motherly
    11. M_____
12. motherhood

12. M_____

13. marriage

13. M_____

14. one's school or college

14. A_____

15. attitude of catering to wealth or prestige (*noun*)

15. S_____

16. killing of a race or nation

16. G_____

17. dabbling in the fine arts (*noun*)

17. D_____

18. a beginner in a field

18. T_____

19. plural of *virtuoso* (Italian form)

19. V_____

20. having an attitude of excessive patriotism (*adj.*)

20. C_____

21. inheritance from father

21. P_____

22. sheer, transparent

22. D_____

23. mother-killing (*noun*)

23. M_____

24. brother-killing (*noun*)

24. F_____

25. sister-killing (*noun*)

25. S_____

26. killing of a human being

26. H_____

27. killing of one's ruler

27. R_____

28. killing of a baby

28. I_____

29. killing of one’s husband
    29. M_____
30. killing of either parent or of both parents
    30. P_____

KEY: 1–patricide, 2–uxoricide, 3–matron, 4–sycophantic, 5–virtuoso, 6–chauvinism, 7–termagant, harridan, virago, 8–patronymic, 9–patriarch, 10–matriarch, 11–maternal, 12–maternity, 13–matrimony, 14–alma mater, 15–sycophancy, 16–genocide, 17–dilettantism, 18–tyro, 19–virtuosi, 20–chauvinistic, 21–patrimony, 22–diaphanous, 23–matricide, 24–fratricide, 25–sororicide, 26–homicide, 27–regicide, 28–infanticide, 29–mariticide, 30–parricide

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. words of similar meaning
   1. S_____s
2. words of opposite meaning
   2. A_____s
3. words of the same sound
   3. H_____s
   or H_____s
4. fatherly
   4. P_____
5. protective and fatherly toward one's subordinates (*adj.*)
   5. P_____
6. older woman
   6. M_____
7. self-destructive
   7. S_____
8. meaning the same (*adj.*)
   8. S_____
9. having opposite meanings (*adj.*)
   9. A_____

10. sounding the same but spelled differently (*adj.*)
    10. H_____
    or H_____

KEY: 1–synonyms, 2–antonyms, 3–homonyms *or* homophones, 4–paternal, 5–paternalistic, 6–matron, 7–suicidal, 8–synonymous, 9–antonymous, 10–homonymous *or* homophonous

(*End of Session 29*)

SESSION 30

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. brothers and sisters, wives and husbands

Frater, brother; *soror*, sister; *uxor*, wife; and *maritus*, husband—these roots are the source of a number of additional English words:

1. to *fraternize* (FRAT′-ər-nīz′)—etymologically, to have a brotherly relationship (with). This verb may be used to indicate social intercourse between people, irrespective of sex, as in, "Members of the faculty often *fraternized* after school hours."

Additionally, and perhaps more commonly, there may be the implication of having a social relationship with one's subordinates in an organization, or even with one's so-called inferiors, as in, "The president of the college was reluctant to *fraternize* with faculty members, preferring to keep all her contacts with them on an exclusively professional basis"; or as in, "The artist enjoyed *fraternizing* with thieves, drug addicts, prostitutes, and pimps, partly out of social perversity, partly to find interesting faces to put in his paintings."

The verb also gained a new meaning during and after World War II, when soldiers of occupying armies had sexual relations with the women of conquered countries, as in, "Military personnel were strictly forbidden to *fraternize* with the enemy." (How euphemistic can you get?)

Can you write the noun form of *fraternize?* _____.

2. *fraternal* (frə-TUR′-nəl)—brotherly. The word also designates *non-identical* (twins).

3. *fraternity* (frə-TUR′-nə-tee)—a men's organization in a high school or college, often labeled with Greek letters (the Gamma Delta Epsilon *Fraternity*); or any group of people of similar interests or profession (the medical *fraternity*, the financial *fraternity*).

4. *sorority* (sə-RAWR′-ə-tee)—a women's organization in high school or college, again usually Greek-lettered; or any women's social club.

5. *uxorious* (uk-SAWR′-ee-əs)—an adjective describing a man who excessively, even absurdly, caters to, dotes on, worships, and submits to the most outlandish or outrageous demands of, his wife. This word is *not* synonymous with *henpecked*, as the henpecked husband is dominated by his wife, perhaps because of his own fear or weakness, while the *uxorious* husband is dominated only by his neurosis, and quite likely the wife finds his *uxoriousness* (uk-SAWR′-ee-əs-nəs) comical or a pain in the neck. (There can, indeed, be too much of a good thing!)

6. *uxorial*—pertaining to, characteristic of, or befitting, a wife, as *uxorial* duties, privileges, attitudes, etc.

7. *marital* (MAIR′-ə-təl)—etymologically, pertaining or referring to, or characteristic of, a husband; but the meaning has changed to include the marriage relationship of both husband *and* wife (don't ever let anyone tell you that our language is not sexist!), as *marital* duties, obligations, privileges, arguments, etc. Hence *extramarital* is literally *outside the marriage*, as in *extramarital* affairs (hanky-panky with someone other than one's spouse). And *premarital* (Latin prefix *pre-*, before) describes events that occur before a planned marriage, as *premarital* sex, a *premarital* agreement as to the division of property, etc.

2. of cabbages and kings (without the cabbage)

Rex, regis is Latin for *king. Tyrannosaurus rex* was the king (i.e., the largest) of the dinosaurs (etymologically, "king of the tyrant lizards"). Dogs are often named *Rex* to fool them into thinking they are kings rather than slaves. And *regal* (REE′-gəl) is royal, or fit for a king, hence magnificent, stately, imperious, splendid, etc., as in *regal* bearing or manner, a *regal* mansion, a *regal* reception, etc. The noun is *regality* (rə-GAL′-ə-tee).

Regalia (rə-GAYL′-yə), a plural noun, designated the emblems or insignia or dress of a king, and now refers to any impressively formal clothes; or, more commonly, to the decorations, insignia, or uniform of a rank, position, office, social club, etc. "The Shriners were dressed in full *regalia*," "The five-star general appeared in full *regalia*," etc.

3. "madness" of all sorts

The *monomaniac* develops an abnormal obsession in respect to *one* particular thing (Greek *monos*, one), but is otherwise normal. The obsession itself, or the obsessiveness, is *monomania* (mon′-ə-MAY′-nee-ə), the adjective is *monomaniacal* (mon′-ə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl). *Monomaniacal*, like the adjective forms of various other manias, is tricky to pronounce—practice carefully to make sure you can say it correctly without stuttering.

Psychology recognizes other abnormal states, all designating obsessions, and built on Greek *mania*, madness.

1. *dipsomania* (dip′-sə-MAY′-nee-ə)—morbid compulsion to keep on absorbing alcoholic beverages (Greek *dipsa*, thirst). The *dipsomaniac* has been defined as the person for whom one drink is too many, a thousand not enough. Recent investigations suggest that *dipsomania*, or alcoholism, may not necessarily be caused by anxieties or frustrations, but possibly by a metabolic or physiological disorder.

Adjective: *dipsomaniacal* (dip′-sə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl).

2. *kleptomania* (klep′-tə-MAY′-nee-ə)—morbid compulsion to steal, not from any economic motive, but simply because the urge to take another's possessions is irresistible. The *kleptomaniac* (Greek *klepte*, thief) may be wealthy, and yet be an obsessive shoplifter. The *kleptomaniac*, for reasons that psychologists are still arguing about, is more often a female than a male, and may pinch her best friend's valueless trinket, or a cheap ashtray or salt shaker from a restaurant, not because she wants, let alone needs, the article, but because she apparently can't help herself; she gets carried away. (When she arrives home, she may toss it in a drawer with other loot, and never look at it again.)

Can you write (and *correctly* pronounce) the adjective?

3. *pyromania* (pī′-rə-MAY′-nee-ə)—morbid compulsion to set fires. *Pyromania* should not be confused with *incendiarism* (in-SEN′-dee-ə-riz-əm), which is the malicious and deliberate burning of another's property, and is *not* a compulsive need to see the flames and enjoy the thrill of the heat and the smoke. Some *pyromaniacs* join volunteer fire companies, often heroically putting out the very blazes they themselves have set. An *incendiary* (in-SEN′-dee-air-ee) is antisocial, and usually sets fires for revenge. Either of these two dangerous characters is called, colloquially, a "firebug."

In law, setting fire to another's, or to one's own, property for the purpose of economic gain (such as the collection of the proceeds of an insurance policy) is called *arson* (AHR′-sən) and is a felony. The *pyromaniac* sets fire for the thrill; the *incendiary* for revenge; the *arsonist* (AHR′-sə-nist) for money.

Pyromania is built on Greek *pyros*, fire; *incendiarism* on Latin *incendo, incensus*, to set fire; *arson* on Latin *ardo, arsus*, to burn.

Can you write, and pronounce, the adjective form of *pyromaniac?* _____.

4. *megalomania* (meg′-ə-lə-MAY′-nee-ə)—morbid delusions of grandeur, power, importance, godliness, etc. Jokes accusing the

heads of governments of *megalomania* are common. Here's an old chestnut from the forties:

> Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin were talking about their dreams.
>
> Churchill: I dreamed last night that God had made me *Prime Minister* of the whole world.
>
> Roosevelt: I dreamed that God had made me *President* of the whole world.
>
> Stalin: How could you gentlemen have such dreams? *I* didn't dream of offering you those positions!

Hitler, Napoleon, and Alexander the Great have been called *megalomaniacs*—all three certainly had delusions about their invincibility.

Can you write (and pronounce correctly!) the adjective derived from *megalomaniac?* _____.

Megalomania is built on Greek *megas*, great, big, large, plus *mania.*

[Can you think of the word for what someone speaks through to make the *sound* (phone) of his voice *greater?* _____.

5. *nymphomania* (nim′-fə-MAY′-nee-ə)—morbid, incessant, uncontrollable, and intense desire, on the part of a female, for sexual intercourse (from Greek *nymphe*, bride, plus *mania*).

The person? _____.

The adjective? _____.

6. *satyromania* (sə-teer′-ə-MAY′-nee-ə)—the same morbid, incessant, etc. desire on the part of a male (from Greek *satyros*, satyr, plus *mania*).

The person? _____.

The adjective? _____.

A *satyr* (SAY′-tər) was a mythological Greek god, notorious for lechery. He had horns, pointed ears, and the legs of a goat; the rest

of him was in human form. *Satyromania* is also called *satyriasis* (sat′-ə-RĪ′-ə-sis).

4. and now phobias

So much for *maniacs.* There is another side to the coin. Just as personality disorders can cause morbid *attraction* toward certain things or acts (stealing, fire, power, sex, etc.), so also other emotional ills can cause violent or morbid *repulsions* to certain conditions, things, or situations. There are people who have irrational and deep-seated dread of cats, dogs, fire, the number thirteen, snakes, thunder or lightning, various colors, and so on almost without end:[1] Such morbid dread or fear is called, in the language of psychology, a *phobia*, and we might pause to investigate the three most common ones. These are:

1. *claustrophobia* (klaw′-strə-FŌ′-bee-ə)—morbid dread of being physically hemmed in, of enclosed spaces, of crowds, etc. From Latin *claustrum*, enclosed place, plus Greek *phobia*, morbid fear. The person: *claustrophobe* (KLAW′-strə-fōb′). Adjective: *claustrophobic* (klaw′-strə-FŌ′-bik).

2. *agoraphobia* (ag′-ə-rə-FŌ′-bee-ə)—morbid dread of open space, the reverse of *claustrophobia.* People suffering from *agoraphobia* prefer to stay shut in their homes as much as possible, and become panic-stricken in such places as open fields, large public buildings, airport terminals, etc. From Greek *agora*, market place, plus *phobia.*

The person? _____.

The adjective? _____.

3. *acrophobia* (ak′-rə-FŌ′-bee-ə)—morbid dread of high places. The victims of this fear will not climb ladders or trees, or stand on tops of furniture. They refuse to go onto the roof of a building or look out the window of one of the higher floors. From Greek *akros*, highest, plus *phobia.*

The person? _____.
The adjective? _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *frater, fratris*	brother
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *soror*	sister
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *uxor*	wife
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *maritus*	husband
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *rex, regis*	king
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *mania*	madness
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *monos*	one
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *-ac*	noun suffix, “one who”
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *-al*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

10. *dipsa* thirst

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *klepte* thief

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *pyros* fire

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *incendo, incensus* to set fire

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *ardo, arsus* to burn

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *mega* great, large, big

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *phone* sound

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *satyros* satyr

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *nymphe* bride

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *claustrum* enclosed place

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *agora* market place

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *akros* highest

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

23. *phobia* morbid dread

ENGLISH WORD _____

24. *pre-* before

ENGLISH WORD _____

25. *extra-* outside

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *fraternize* FRAT′-ər-nīz′
2. *fraternization* frat′-ər-nə-ZAY′-shən
3. *fraternal* frə-TUR′-nəl
4. *fraternity* frə-TUR′-nə-tee
5. *sorority* sə-RAWR′-ə-tee
6. *uxorious* uk-SAWR′-ee-əs
7. *uxorial* uk-SAWR′-ee-əl
8. *marital* MAIR′-ə-təl
9. *extramarital* ek′-strə-MAIR′-ə-təl
10. *premarital* pree-MAIR′-ə-təl

11. *regal*	REE′-gəl
12. *regality*	rə-GAL′-ə-tee
13. *regalia*	rə-GAYL′-yə

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. fraternize	a. pertaining to, characteristic of, or befitting, a wife
2. fraternal	b. outside the marriage
3. sorority	c. kingly, royal; splendid, stately, magnificent, etc.
4. uxorious	d. referring to marriage
5. uxorial	e. before marriage
6. marital	f. socialize
7. extramarital	g. excessively indulgent to, or doting on, one's wife
8. premarital	h. brotherly
9. regal	i. badges, insignia, dress, etc. of rank or office
10. regalia	j. sisterhood

KEY: 1–f, 2–h, 3–j, 4–g, 5–a, 6–d, 7–b, 8–e, 9–c, 10–i

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *monomania*	mon′-ə-MAY′-nee-ə
2. *monomaniac*	mon′-ə-MAY′-nee-ak
3. *monomaniacal*	mon′-ə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
4. *dipsomania*	dip′-sə-MAY′-nee-ə
5. *dipsomaniac*	dip′-sə-MAY′-nee-ak
6. *dipsomaniacal*	dip′-sə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
7. *kleptomania*	klep′-tə-MAY′-nee-ə
8. *kleptomaniac*	klep′-tə-MAY′-nee-ak
9. *kleptomaniacal*	klep′-tə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
10. *pyromania*	pī′-rə-MAY′-nee-ə
11. *pyromaniac*	pī′-rə-MAY′-nee-ak
12. *pyromaniacal*	pī′-rə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. monomania	a. obsession for alcohol
2. dipsomania	b. obsession for setting fires
3. kleptomania	c. obsession in one area
4. pyromania	d. obsession for thievery

KEY: 1–c, 2–a, 3–d, 4–b

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *incendiarism*	in-SEN′-dee-ə-riz-əm
2. *incendiary*	in-SEN′-dee-air-ee
3. *arson*	AHR′-sən
4. *arsonist*	AHR′-sə-nist
5. *megalomania*	meg′-ə-lə-MAY′-nee-ə
6. *megalomaniac*	meg′-ə-lə-MAY′-nee-ak
7. *megalomaniacal*	meg′-ə-lə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
8. *nymphomania*	nim′-fə-MAY′-nee-ə
9. *nymphomaniac*	nim′-fə-MAY′-nee-ak
10. *nymphomaniacal*	nim′-fə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
11. *satyromania*	sə-teer′-ə-MAY′-nee-ə
12. *satyromaniacal*	sə-teer′-ə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl
13. *satyriasis*	sat′-ə-RĪ′-ə-sis

Can you pronounce the words? (IV)

1. *claustrophobia*	klaw′-strə-FŌ′-bee-ə
2. *claustrophobe*	KLAW′-strə-fōb′
3. *claustrophobic*	klaw′-strə-FŌ′-bik

4. *agoraphobia*	ag′-ə-rə-FŌ′-bee-ə
5. *agoraphobe*	AG′-ə-rə-fōb′
6. *agoraphobic*	ag′-ə-rə-FŌ′-bik
7. *acrophobia*	ak′-rə-FŌ′-bee-ə
8. *acrophobe*	AK′-rə-fōb′
9. *acrophobic*	ak′-rə-FŌ′-bik

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. incendiarism	a. delusions of grandeur
2. arson	b. compulsive sexual needs on the part of a male
3. megalomania	c. morbid dread of open spaces
4. nymphomania	d. morbid dread of enclosed places
5. satyromania	e. malicious setting of fires, as for revenge, etc.
6. claustrophobia	f. morbid dread of heights
7. agoraphobia	g. compulsive sexual needs on the part of a female
8. acrophobia	h. felony of setting fire for economic gain

KEY: 1–e, 2–h, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–d, 7–c, 8–f

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. incendiary
2. arsonist
3. megalomaniac
4. nymphomaniac
5. satyriasis
6. claustrophobe
7. agoraphobe
8. acrophobe

a. one who has delusions of greatness or power
b. male compulsion for sexual intercourse
c. one who fears shut-in or crowded places
d. one who sets fires out of malice
e. one who fears heights
f. one who fears large or open spaces
g. one who sets fires for economic and illegal profit
h. woman with compulsive, incessant sexual desire

KEY: 1–d, 2–g, 3–a, 4–h, 5–b, 6–c, 7–f, 8–e

Do you understand the words?

1. Is a *sorority* a men's organization?
   YES NO
2. Is an *uxorious* husband likely to be psychologically dependent on his wife?
   YES NO
3. Are *extramarital* affairs adulterous?
   YES NO
4. Do VIPs often receive *regal* treatment?
   YES NO
5. Is an admiral of the fleet in *regalia* informally dressed?
   YES NO
6. Do *monomaniacal* people have varied interests?
   YES NO
7. Can a *dipsomaniac* safely indulge in social drinking?
   YES NO
8. Do people of *pyromaniacal* tendencies fear fire?
   YES NO
9. Is *incendiarism* an uncontrollable impulse?
   YES NO
10. Does an *arsonist* expect a reward for his actions?
    YES NO
11. Is it necessary to seduce a *nymphomaniac?*
    YES NO
12. Do *megalomaniacs* have low opinions of themselves?
    YES NO

13. Is a *satyromaniac* lecherous?

    YES NO

14. Are *satyriasis* and *asceticism* compatible conditions?

    YES NO

15. Does a *claustrophobe* enjoy cramped quarters?

    YES NO

16. Would an *agoraphobe* be comfortable in a small cell-like room?

    YES NO

17. Does an *acrophobe* enjoy mountain-climbing?

    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes, 11–no, 12–no, 13–yes, 14–no, 15–no, 16–yes, 17–no

Can you recall the words?

1. to socialize
   1. F_____
2. excessively indulgent to, and doting on, one's wife
   2. U_____
3. full dress, with ribbons, insignia, badges of office, etc.
   3. R_____
4. obsessed in one area or with one overriding interest (*adj.*)
   4. M_____
5. having a compulsion to set fires (*adj.*)
   5. P_____
6. having a psychological compulsion to steal (*adj.*)
   6. K_____
7. person who sets fires for revenge
   7. I_____.
8. felony of putting the torch to property for economic profit
   8. A_____
9. obsessive need for sexual gratification by a male
   9. S_____
   or S_____
10. morbidly dreading enclosed or cramped places (*adj.*)
    10. C_____
11. morbidly dreading heights (*adj.*)
    11. A_____
12. morbidly dreading wide-open spaces (*adj.*)
    12. A_____

13. having delusions of grandeur or power (*adj.*)
    13. M_____
14. referring to a female who obsessively needs sexual gratification (*adj.*)
    14. N_____
15. alcoholism
    15. D_____
16. stealing for thrills or out of psychological compulsion (*adj.*)
    16. K_____
17. brotherly
    17. F_____
18. characteristic of, or befitting, a wife
    18. U_____
19. referring to, characteristic of, or involved in, the matrimonial relationship
    19. M_____
20. kingly; royal; splendid; etc.
    20. R_____
21. outside the marriage (*adj.*)
    21. E_____
22. before marriage (*adj.*)
    22. P_____

KEY: 1–fraternize, 2–uxorious, 3–regalia, 4–monomaniacal, 5–pyromaniacal, 6–kleptomaniacal, 7–incendiary, 8–arson, 9–satyromania *or* satyriasis, 10–claustrophobic, 11–acrophobic, 12–agoraphobic, 13–megalomaniacal, 14–nymphomaniacal, 15–dipsomania, 16–kleptomaniacal, 17–fraternal, 18–uxorial, 19–marital, 20–regal, 21–extramarital, 22–premarital

(*End of Session 30*)

SESSION 31

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. no reverence

The *iconoclast* sneers at convention and tradition, attempts to expose our cherished beliefs, our revered traditions, or our stereotypical thinking as shams and myths. H. L. Mencken was the great *iconoclast* of the 1920s; Tom Wolfe (*The Kandy-Kolored Tangerine-Flake Streamline Baby*), of the 1960s.

Adolescence is that confused and rebellious time of life in which *iconoclasm* (ī-KON′-ə-klaz′-əm) is quite normal—indeed the adolescent who is not *iconoclastic* (ī-kon′-ə-KLAST′-ik) to some degree might be considered either immature or maladjusted. The words are from *eikon*, a religious image, plus *klaein*, to break. *Iconoclasm* is not of course restricted to religion.

2. is there a God?

Atheist combines the Greek negative prefix *a-* with *theos*, God. Do not confuse *atheism* (AY′-thee-iz-əm) with *agnosticism* (ag-NOS′-tə-siz-əm), the philosophy that claims that God is unknowable, that He may or may not exist, and that human beings can never come to a final conclusion about Him. The *agnostic* (ag-NOS′-tik) does not deny the existence of a deity, as does the *atheist*, but simply holds that no proof can be adduced one way or the other.

3. how to know

Agnostic (which is also an adjective) is built on the Greek root *gnostos*, known, and the negative prefix *a-*. An *agnostic* claims that all but material phenomena is unknown, and, indeed, unknowable.

A *diagnosis* (dī-əg-NŌ′-sis), constructed on the allied Greek root *gnosis*, knowledge, plus *dia-*, through, is a knowing through examination or testing. A *prognosis* (prog-NŌ′-sis), on the other hand, is etymologically a knowing beforehand, hence a prediction, generally, but not solely, as to the course of a disease. (The Greek prefix *pro-*, before, plus *gnosis.*)

Thus, you may say to a doctor: "What's the *diagnosis*, Doc?"

"Diabetes."

Then you say, "And what's the *prognosis?*"

"If you take insulin and watch your diet, you'll soon be as good as new."

The doctor's *prognosis*, then, is a forecast of the development or trend of a disease. The doctor knows beforehand, from previous similar cases, what to expect.

The verb form of *diagnosis* is *diagnose* (dī′-əg-NŌS′); the verb form of *prognosis* is *prognosticate* (prog-NOS′-tə-kayt′). To use the verb *prognosticate* correctly, be sure that your meaning involves the forecasting of developments from a consideration of symptoms or conditions—whether the problem is physical, mental, political, economic, psychological, or what have you.

In school, you doubtless recall taking *diagnostic* (dī′-əg-NOS′-tik) tests; these measured not what you were supposed to have learned during the semester, but your general knowledge in a field, so that your teachers would know what remedial steps to take, just as doctors rely on their *diagnosis* to decide what drugs or treatments to prescribe.

In a reading center, various *diagnostic* machines and tests are used—these tell the clinician what is wrong with a student's reading and what measures will probably increase such a student's reading efficiency.

The medical specialist in *diagnosis* is a *diagnostician* (dī′-əg-nos-TISH′-ən).

The noun form of the verb *prognosticate* is *prognostication* (prog-nos′-tə-KAY′-shən).

4. getting back to God

Theos, God, is also found in:

1. *Monotheism* (MON′-ə-thee-iz-əm)—belief in *one* God. (*Monos*, one, plus *theos*, God.)

Using *atheism, atheist*, and *atheistic* as a model, write the word for the person who believes in one God: _____. The adjective? _____.

2. *Polytheism* (POL′-ee-thee-iz-əm)—belief in *many* gods, as in ancient Greece or Rome. (*Polys*, many, plus *theos.*)

The person with such a belief? _____. The adjective? _____.

3. *Pantheism* (PAN′-thee-iz-əm)—belief that God is not in man's image, but is a combination of all forces of the universe. (*Pan*, all, plus *theos*,) The person? _____. The adjective? _____.

4. *Theology* (thee-OL′-ə-jee)—the study of God and religion. (*Theos* plus *logos*, science or study.)

The student is a *theologian* (thee′-ə-LŌ′-jən), the adjective is *theological* (thee′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

5. of sex and the tongue

A *lecher* practices lechery (LECH′-ər-ee). The derivation is Old French *lechier*, to lick. The adjective *lecherous* (LECH′-ə-rəs) has many close or not-so-close synonyms, most of them also, and significantly, starting with the letter *l*, a sound formed with the tongue, supposedly the seat of sensation.

1. *libidinous* (lə-BID′-ə-nəs)—from *libido*, pleasure.

2. *lascivious* (lə-SIV′-ee-əs)—from *lascivia*, wantonness.

3. lubricious (lʊʊ-BRISH′-əs)—from *lubricus*, slippery, the same root found in *lubricate.* The noun is *lubricity* (lʊʊ-BRIS′-ə-tee).

4. licentious (lī-SEN′-shəs)—from *licere*, to be permitted, the root from which we get *license*, etymologically, "permission," and *illicit*, etymologically, "not permitted."

5. *lewd*—the previous four words derive from Latin, but this one is from Anglo-Saxon *lewed*, vile.

6. *lustful*—from an Anglo-Saxon word meaning *pleasure, desire.* Noun: *lust.*

Libidinous, lascivious, lubricious, licentious, lewd, lecherous, lustful are seven adjectives that indicate sexual desire and/or activity. The implication of all seven words is more or less derogatory.

Each adjective becomes a noun with the addition of the noun suffix *-ness; lubricity* and *lust* are alternate noun forms of two of the adjectives.

6. of sex and the itch

Prurient (PRʊʊ′-ee-ənt), from Latin *prurio*, to itch, to long for, describes someone who is filled with great sexual curiosity, desire, longing, etc. Can you form the noun? _____.

Pruritis (prʊʊr-Ī′-tis), from the same root, is a medical condition in which the skin is very itchy, but without a rash or eruptions. (Scratch enough, of course, as you will be irresistibly tempted to do, and something like a rash will soon appear.) The adjective is *pruritic* (prʊʊr-IT′-ik).

7. under and over

Hypochondria (hī-pə-KON′-dree-ə) is built on two Greek roots: *hypos*, under, and *chondros*, the cartilage of the breastbone. This may sound farfetched until you realize that under the breastbone is the abdomen; the ancient Greeks believed that morbid anxiety about one's health arose in the abdomen—and no one is more morbidly, unceasingly, and unhappily anxious about health than the *hypochondriac*.

Hypochondriac is also an adjective—an alternate and more commonly used adjective form is *hypochondriacal* (hī′-pə-kən-DRĪ′-ə-kəl).

Hypos, under, is a useful root to know. The *hypodermic* needle penetrates *under* the skin; a *hypothyroid* person has an *underworking* thyroid gland; *hypotension* is abnormally low blood pressure.

On the other hand, *hyper* is the Greek root meaning *over*. The *hypercritical* person is excessively fault-finding; *hyperthyroidism is* an overworking of the thyroid gland; *hypertension* is high blood pressure; and you can easily figure out the meanings of *hyperacidity, hyperactive, hypersensitive*, etc.

The adjective forms of *hypotension* and *hypertension* are *hypotensive* and *hypertensive*.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *eikon*	religious image
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *klaein*	to break
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *a-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

4. *theos* God

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *gnostos* known

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *-ism* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *gnosis* knowledge

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *dia-* through

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *pro-* before

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *-ate* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *-ion* noun suffix for verbs ending in *-ate*

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ician* one who; expert

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *monos* one

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *polys* many

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *pan* all

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *logos* science, study

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *prurio* to itch, to long for

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *hypos* under

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *hyper* over

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *-ive* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *iconoclasm* ī-KON′-ə-klaz-əm
2. *iconoclastic* ī-kon′-ə-KLAS′-tik
3. *atheism* AY′-thee-iz-əm

4. *atheistic*	ay′-thee-IS′-tik
5. *agnostic*	ag-NOS′-tik
6. *agnosticism*	ag-NOS′-tə-siz-əm
7. *diagnosis*	dī′-əg-NŌ′-sis
8. *diagnose*	DĪ′-əg-nōs′
9. *diagnostic*	dī′-əg-NOS′-tik
10. *diagnostician*	dī′-əg-nos-TISH′-ən
11. *prognosis*	prog-NŌ′-sis
12. *prognostic*	prog-NOS′-tik
13. *prognosticate*	prog-NOS′-tə-kayt′
14. *prognostication*	prog-nos′-tə-KAY′-shən

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *monotheism*	MON′-ə-thee-iz-əm
2. *monotheist*	MON′-ə-thee′-ist
3. *monotheistic*	mon′-ə-thee-IS′-tik
4. *polytheism*	POL′-ee-thee-iz-əm
5. *polytheist*	POL′-ee-thee′-ist
6. *polytheistic*	pol′-ee-thee-IS′-tik
7. *pantheism*	PAN′-thee-iz-əm
8. *pantheist*	PAN′-thee-ist
9. *pantheistic*	pan′-thee-IS′-tik
10. *theology*	thee-OL′-ə-jee

11. *theologian* thee′-ə-LŌ′-jən
12. *theological* thee′-ə-LOJ′-ə-kəl

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *lechery* LECH′-ər-ee
2. *lecherous* LECH′-ər-əs
3. *libidinous* lə-BID′-ə-nəs
4. *lascivious* lə-SIV′-ee-əs
5. *lubricious* lʊʊ-BRISH′-əs
6. *lubricity* lʊʊ-BRIS′-ə-tee
7. *licentious* lī-SEN′-shəs
8. *lewd* LʊʊD
9. *lustful* LUST′-fəl
10. *lust* LUST

Can you pronounce the words? (IV)

1. *prurient* PRʊʊR′-ee-ənt
2. *prurience* PRʊʊR′-ee-əns
3. *pruritis* prʊʊr-Ī′-tis
4. *pruritic* prʊʊr-IT′-ik
5. *hypochondria* hī-pə-KON′-dree-ə
6. *hypochondriacal* hī′-pə-kən-DRĪ′-ə-kəl

7. *hypotension*	hī′-pō-TEN′-shən
8. *hypertension*	hī′-pər-TEN′-shən
9. *hypotensive*	hī′-pō-TEN′-siv
10. *hypertensive*	hī′-pər-TEN′-siv

This has been a long chapter, and we have discussed, more or less in detail, over one hundred words. Just to keep everything straight in your mind now, see how successfully you can work out the following matching exercises, which will concern any of the words discussed in this chapter.

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. martinet	a. lack of seriousness in an art or profession
2. sycophancy	b. harridan, shrew
3. dilettantism	c. excessive patriotism
4. tyro	d. name from father
5. virtuoso	e. venerable and influential old man
6. termagant	f. beginner
7. chauvinism	g. brilliant performer
8. patrimony	h. bootlicking
9. patronymic	i. inheritance from father
10. patriarch	j. strict disciplinarian

KEY:1–j, 2–h, 3–a, 4–f, 5–g, 6–b, 7–c, 8–i, 9–d, 10–e

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. patricide	a. mother-killing
2. alma mater	b. tending to fixate obsessively on one thing
3. matricide	c. wife-killing
4. fratricide	d. father-killing
5. uxoricide	e. tending to set fires
6. uxorious	f. alcoholic
7. monomaniacal	g. wife-doting
8. pyromaniacal	h. school or college from which one has graduated
9. megalomaniacal	i. tending to delusions of grandeur
10. dipsomaniacal	j. brother-killing

KEY: 1–d, 2–h, 3–a, 4–j, 5–c, 6–g, 7–b, 8–e, 9–i, 10–f

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. kleptomania	a. disbelief in God
2. libidinous	b. belief in many gods
3. atheism	c. lewd
4. agnosticism	d. belief that God is nature
5. polytheism	e. morbid anxiety about health
6. monotheism	f. belief in one God
7. theology	g. study of religion
8. pantheism	h. obsessive thievery
9. satyriasis	i. abnormal male sexual needs
10. hypochondria	j. skepticism about God

KEY: 1–h, 2–c, 3–a, 4–j, 5–b, 6–f, 7–g, 8–d, 9–i, 10–e

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. hypotension	a. high blood pressure
2. lascivious	b. malicious fire-setting
3. hypertension	c. abnormally low blood pressure
4. agnostic	d. fire-setting for illegal gain
5. incendiarism	e. to forecast (probable developments)
6. arson	f. a determination through examination or testing of the nature, type, causes, etc. of a condition
7. iconoclasm	g. one who claims that ultimate reality is unknowable
8. prognosticate	h. sexually immoral
9. diagnosis	i. a foretelling of probable developments
10. prognosis	j. a scoffing at tradition

KEY: 1–c, 2–h, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–d, 7–j, 8–e, 9–f, 10–i

Can you work with the words? (V)

1. prurience	a. abnormal need for sexual intercourse by a male
2. satyromania	b. fear of enclosed places
3. agoraphobia	c. student of religion
4. claustrophobia	d. sexual longing or curiosity
5. acrophobia	e. fear of heights
6. theologian	f. fear of open spaces
7. lubricious	g. having, or referring to, abnormally low blood pressure
8. hypochondriacal	h. itching
9. hypotensive	i. having, or referring to, high blood pressure
10. hypertensive	j. sexually immoral; lewd
11. pruritis	k. beset by anxieties about one's health

KEY: 1–d, 2–a, 3–f, 4–b, 5–e, 6–c, 7–j, 8–k, 9–g, 10–i, 11–h

Can you recall the words? (I)

I. manias and phobias

1. single fixed obsession
    1. M_____
2. irresistible compulsion to set fires
    2. P_____
3. unceasing desire, on the part of a woman, for sexual intercourse
    3. N_____
4. obsessive desire to steal
    4. K_____
5. delusions of grandeur
    5. M_____
6. alcoholism
    6. D_____
7. compulsion for sexual intercourse by a male
    7. S_____
    or S_____
8. dread of heights
    8. A _____
9. dread of open spaces
    9. A_____
10. dread of cramped quarters
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–monomania, 2–pyromania, 3–nymphomania, 4–kleptomania, 5–megalomania, 6–dipsomania, 7–satyromania *or* satyriasis, 8–acrophobia, 9–agoraphobia, 10–claustrophobia

Can you recall the words? (II)

II. sex

Write seven adjectives; all starting with *L*, more or less meaning "sexually immoral, desirous, etc."; write the adjective starting with *P* meaning "sexually curious or longing."

1. L_____
2. L_____
3. L_____
4. L_____
5. L_____
6. L_____
7. L_____
8. P_____

KEY: (*1–7 in any order*) 1–lecherous, 2–libidinous, 3–lascivious, 4–lubricious, 5–licentious, 6–lewd, 7–lustful, 8–prurient

Can you recall the words? (III)

III. God

1. study of religion
    1. T_____
2. belief that God is the sum total of natural forces
    2. P_____
3. belief that there is no God
    3. A_____
4. belief that God's existence is unknowable
    4. A_____
5. belief in one God
    5. M_____
6. belief in many gods
    6. P_____

KEY: 1–theology, 2–pantheism, 3–atheism, 4–agnosticism, 5–monotheism, 6–polytheism

Can you recall the words? (IV)

1. morbid anxiety about one's health
   1. H_____
2. high blood pressure
   2. H_____
3. malicious fire-setting
   3. I_____
4. the felony of setting fire for economic gain
   4. A_____
5. sneering contempt for convention or tradition
   5. I_____
6. a forecast of development (of a disease, etc.)
   6. P_____
7. designed to discover causes or conditions (*adj.*)
   7. D_____
8. abnormally low blood pressure
   8. H_____
9. to forecast (probable future developments) by examining present conditions
   9. P_____
10. to determine the nature of a disease, condition, or state by examination
    10. D_____
11. the act of forecasting (probable future developments) by examining present conditions
    11. P_____

12. doctor who is an expert at recognizing the nature of a disease or condition
    12. D_____
13. possessed of, or referring to, high blood pressure
    13. H_____
14. possessed of, or referring to, abnormally low blood pressure
    14. H_____
15. one who studies religion
    15. T_____

KEY: 1–hypochondria, 2–hypertension, 3–incendiarism, 4–arson, 5–iconoclasm, 6–prognosis, 7–diagnostic, 8–hypotension, 9–prognosticate, 10–diagnose, 11–prognostication, 12–diagnostician, 13–hypertensive, 14–hypotensive, 15–theologian

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Disciplinarian:
   (a) martinet, (b) virago, (c) dilettante
2. Bootlicker:
   (a) chauvinist, (b) sycophant, (c) lecher
3. Scoffer at tradition:
   (a) monomaniac, (b) hypochondriac, (c) iconoclast
4. Disbeliever in God:
   (a) agnostic, (b) atheist, (c) chauvinist
5. Accomplished musician:
   (a) tyro, (b) dilettante, (c) virtuoso
6. Sheer, flimsy:
   (a) diaphanous, (b) uxorious, (c) paternal
7. Abusive woman:
   (a) termagant, (b) virtuoso, (c) matriarch
8. Murder of one's wife:
   (a) genocide, (b) uxoricide, (c) sororicide
9. Old man in ruling position:
   (a) matriarch, (b) patricide, (c) patriarch
10. Morbid compulsion to steal:

(a) dipsomania, (b) nymphomania, (c) kleptomania

11. Delusions of grandeur:
    (a) megalomania, (b) egomania, (c) pyromania
12. Lewd, lustful:
    (a) prurient, (b) agnostic, (c) hypochondriac
13. Belief in many gods:
    (a) polytheism, (b) monotheism, (c) agnosticism
14. Setting fire for economic gain:
    (a) pyromania, (b) incendiarism, (c) arson
15. Morbid fear of heights:
    (a) agoraphobia, (b) acrophobia, (c) claustrophobia
16. High blood pressure:
    (a) hypotension, (b) hypertension, (c) hypochondria
17. Abnormal need for sexual intercourse by a male:
    (a) lechery, (b) lubricity, (c) satyriasis

KEY: 1–a, 2–b, 3–c, 4–b, 5–c, 6–a, 7–a, 8–b, 9–c, 10–c, 11–a, 12–a, 13–a, 14–c, 15–b, 16–b, 17–c

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *sykon*	_____
EXAMPLE sycophant	
2. *phanein*	_____
EXAMPLE diaphanous	
3. *vir*	_____
EXAMPLE virago	
4. *pater, patris*	_____
EXAMPLE paternal	
5. *onyma*	_____
EXAMPLE synonym	
6. *homos*	_____
EXAMPLE homonym	
7. *phone*	_____
EXAMPLE homophone	
8. *archein*	_____
EXAMPLE matriarchy	

9. *mater, matris* _____

EXAMPLE maternity

10. *alma* _____

EXAMPLE alma mater

11. *sui* _____

EXAMPLE suicide

12. *caedo* (*-cide*) _____

EXAMPLE parricide

13. *frater, fratris* _____

EXAMPLE fraternity

14. *soror* _____

EXAMPLE sorority

15. *homo* _____

EXAMPLE homicide

16. *rex, regis* _____

EXAMPLE regal

17. *uxor* _____

EXAMPLE uxorious

18. *maritus* _____

EXAMPLE mariticide

19. *infans, infantis* _____

EXAMPLE infanticide

20. *genos* _____

EXAMPLE genocide

21. *mania* _____

EXAMPLE egomania

22. *monos* _____

EXAMPLE monomania

23. *dipsa* _____

EXAMPLE dipsomania

24. *klepte* _____

EXAMPLE kleptomania

25. *pyros* _____

EXAMPLE pyromania

26. *incendo, incensus* _____

EXAMPLE incendiarism

27. *ardo, arsus* _____

EXAMPLE arson

28. *mega* _____

EXAMPLE megalomaniac

29. *satyros* _____

EXAMPLE satyriasis

30. *nymphe* _____

EXAMPLE nymphomaniac

31. *claustrum* _____

EXAMPLE claustrophobia

32. *agora* _____

EXAMPLE agoraphobia

33. *akros* _____

EXAMPLE acrophobia

34. *phobia* _____

EXAMPLE zoophobia

35. *eikon* _____

EXAMPLE iconoclastic

36. *klaein* _____

EXAMPLE iconoclasm

37. *theos* _____

EXAMPLE monotheism

38. *gnostos* _____

EXAMPLE agnostic

39. *gnosis* _____

EXAMPLE prognosis

40. *polys* _____

EXAMPLE polytheism

41. *pan* _____

EXAMPLE pantheism

42. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE theology

43. *prurio* _____

EXAMPLE pruritis

44. *hypos* _____

EXAMPLE hypotension

45. *hyper* _____

EXAMPLE hypertension

KEY: 1–fig, 2–to show, 3–man (male), 4–father, 5–name, 6–the same, 7–sound, 8–to rule, 9–mother, 10–soul, 11–of oneself, 12–to kill, killing, 13–brother, 14–sister, 15–person, 16–king, 17–wife, 18–husband, 19–baby, 20–race, kind, 21–madness, 22–one, 23–thirst, 24–thief, 25–fire, 26–to set fire, 27–to burn, 28–great, large, 29–satyr, 30–bride, 31–enclosed place, 32–market place, 33–highest, 34–morbid dread, 35–religious image, 36–to break, 37–God, 38–known, 39–knowledge, 40–many, 41–all, 42–science, study, 43–to itch, 44–under, 45–over

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. If a *patronymic* is a name derived from the name of one's father, can you figure out the word for a name derived from one's *mother's* name? _____.

2. *Incendo, incensus*, to set on fire, is the origin of the adjective *incendiary*, the noun *incense*, and the verb to *incense*.

(a) What is an *incendiary* statement or speech? _____.

(b) Why do people use *incense*, and why is it called *incense?* _____.

(c) If someone *incenses* you, or if you feel *incensed*, how does the meaning of the verb derive from the root? _____.

3. *Ardo, arsus*, to burn, is the source of *ardent* and *ardor*. Explain these two words in terms of the root.

(a) ardent: _____.

(b) ardor: _____.

4. What is used to make sound greater (use the roots for *great* and *sound*)? _____.

5. A *metropolis*, by etymology, is the mother city (Greek *meter*, mother, plus *polis*, city, state). Construct a word for a *great city* (think of *megalomania*, delusions of greatness): _____.

6. *Polis*, city, state, is the origin of the word for the uniformed group guarding the city or state. The English word? _____. Can you think of the word from the same root for the art of governing the city or state? _____.

7. What is a *bibliokleptomaniac?* _____.
Coin a word for one who has an irresistible compulsion to steal *women:* _____. To steal *children* (use the Greek, not the Latin, root for *child):* _____. To steal *males* (use the Greek root): _____. To steal *people* (use the Greek root): _____.

8. What word can you coin for someone who has an obsession to reach the highest places? _____. To be in the market place, or in wide-open spaces? _____. To be in confined places? _____.

9. Coin a word for one who has a morbid dread of thieves: _____*;* of fire: _____*;* of women: _____*;* of males: _____*;* of people: _____.

10. Guess at the meaning, thinking of the roots you have learned, of *gnosiology:* _____.

11. Wolfgang Amadeus Theophilus Gottlieb Mozart was a famous eighteenth-century Austrian composer. You can recognize the roots in *Theophilus.* How are his other two middle names similar to *Theophilus?* _____.

12. Thinking of the root *phanein*, define *cellophane:* _____.

13. Recognizing the root *hypos*, can you define *hypoglycemia?* _____. Construct a word that is the opposite of *hypoglycemia:* _____.

14. *Pan*, all, occurs in *Pantheon, pandemonium*, and *panorama.* Can you figure out the meanings?

(a) Pantheon: _____.
(b) pandemonium: _____.
(c) panorama: _____.

15. Recognizing the roots in *monarchy*, define the word: _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

MAGAZINES THAT WILL HELP YOU

When a pregnant woman takes calcium pills, she must make sure also that her diet is rich in vitamin D, since this vitamin makes the absorption of the calcium possible. In building your vocabulary by learning great quantities of new words, you too must take a certain vitamin, metaphorically speaking, to help you absorb, understand, and remember these words. This vitamin is reading—for it is in books and magazines that you will find the words that we have been discussing in these pages. To learn new words without seeing them applied in the context of your reading is to do only half the job and to run the risk of gradually forgetting the additions to your vocabulary. To combine your vocabulary-building with increased reading is to make assurance doubly sure.

You are now so alert to the words and roots we have discussed that you will find that most of your reading will be full of the new words you have learned—and every time you do see one of the words used in context in a book or magazine, you will understand it more fully and will be taking long steps toward using it yourself.

Among magazines, I would like particularly to recommend the following, which will act both to keep you mentally alert and to set the new words you are learning:

1. *Harper's Magazine*
2. *Atlantic Monthly*
3. *The New Yorker*

4. *Time*
5. *Newsweek*
6. *Esquire*
7. *Psychology Today*
8. *Saturday Review*
9. *Ms.*
10. *Mother Jones*
11. *Signs*
12. *National Geographic*
13. *Smithsonian*
14. *Human Nature*
15. *Scientific American*
16. *Natural History*

These periodicals are aimed at the alert, verbally sophisticated, educated reader; you will see in them, without fail, most of the words you have been studying in this book—not to mention hosts of other valuable words you will want to add to your vocabulary, many of which you will be able to figure out once you recognize their etymological structure.

(*End of Session 31*)

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[1] For some of these esoteric phobias, see Appendix.

Brief Intermission Seven

SOME INTERESTING DERIVATIONS

PEOPLE WHO MADE OUR LANGUAGE

Bloomers

Mrs. Elizabeth Smith Miller invented them in 1849, and showed a working model to a famous women's rights advocate, *Amelia J. Bloomer*. Amelia was fascinated by the idea of garments that were both modest (they then reached right down to the ankles) and convenient—and promptly sponsored them.…

Boycott

Charles C. Boycott was an English land agent whose difficult duty it was to collect high rents from Irish farmers. In protest, the farmers ostracized him, not even allowing him to make purchases in town or hire workers to harvest his crops.

Marcel

Marcel was an ingenious Parisian hairdresser who felt he could improve on the button curls popular in 1875. He did, and made a fortune.

Silhouette

Finance Minister of France just before the Revolution, *Etienne de Silhouette* advocated the *simple* life, so that excess money could go into the treasury instead of into luxurious living. And the profile is the *simplest* form of portraiture, if you get the connection.

Derrick

A seventeenth-century English hangman, *Derrick* by name, hoisted to their death some of the most notorious criminals of the day.

Sadist

Because *Count de Sade*, an eighteenth-century Frenchman, found his greatest delight in torturing friends and mistresses, the term *sadist* was derived from his name. His works shocked his nation and the world by the alarming frankness with which he described his morbid and bloodthirsty cruelty.

Galvanism

Luigi Galvani, the Italian physiologist, found by accident that an electrically charged scalpel could send a frog's corpse into muscular convulsions. Experimenting further, he eventually discovered the principles of chemically produced electricity. His name is responsible not only for the technical expressions *galvanism, galvanized iron*, and *galvanometer*, but also for that highly graphic phrase, "*galvanized* into action."

Guppies

In 1868, *R. J. Lechmere Guppy*, president of the Scientific Association of Trinidad, sent some specimens of a tiny tropical fish

to the British Museum. Ever since, fish of this species have been called *guppies.*

Nicotine

Four hundred years ago, *Jean Nicot*, a French ambassador, bought some tobacco seeds from a Flemish trader. Nicot's successful efforts to popularize the plant in Europe brought him linguistic immortality.

PLACES THAT MADE OUR LANGUAGE

Bayonne, France

Where first was manufactured the daggerlike weapon that fits over the muzzle end of a rifle—the *bayonet.*

Cantalupo, Italy

The first place in Europe to grow those luscious melons we now call *cantaloupes.*

Calicut, India

The city from which we first imported a kind of cotton cloth now known as *calico.*

Tuxedo Park, New York

In the country club of this exclusive and wealthy community, the short (no tails) dinner coat for men, or *tuxedo*, was popularized.

Egypt

It was once supposed that the colorful, fortunetelling wanderers, or *Gypsies*, hailed from this ancient land.

Damascus, Syria

Where an elaborately patterned silk, *damask*, was first made.

Tzu-t'ing, China

Once a great seaport in Fukien Province. Marco Polo called it *Zaitun*, and in time a silk fabric made there was called *satin.*

Frankfurt, Germany

Where the burghers once greatly enjoyed their smoked beef and pork sausages, which we now ask for in delicatessen stores and supermarkets by the name of *frankfurters, franks*, or *hot dogs.*

12

HOW TO FLATTER YOUR FRIENDS

(*Sessions 32–37*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What adjective aptly describes people who are:
friendly and easy to get along with?
tireless?
simple, frank, aboveboard?
keen-minded?
generous, noble, and forgiving?
able to do many things skillfully?
unflinching in the face of pain or disaster?
brave, fearless?
charming and witty?
smooth, polished, cultured?

SESSION 32

Words are the symbols of emotions, as well as ideas. You can show your feeling by the tone you use ("You're silly" can be an insult, an accusation, or an endearment, depending on how you say it) or by the words you choose (you can label a quality either "childish" or "childlike," depending on whether you admire it or condemn it—it's the same quality, no matter what you call it).

In Chapter 11 we discussed ten basic words that you might use to show your disapproval. In this chapter we discuss ten adjectives that indicate wholehearted approval.

Consider the interesting types of people described in the following paragraphs, then note how accurately the adjective applies to each type.

IDEAS

1. put the kettle on, Polly

They are friendly, happy, extroverted, and gregarious—the sort of people who will invite you out for a drink, who like to transact business around the lunch table, who put the coffee to perking as soon as company drops in. They're sociable, genial, cordial, affable—and they like parties and all the eating and drinking that goes with them.

The adjective is: *convivial*

2. you can't tire them

Arnold Bennett once pointed out that we all have the same amount of time—twenty-four hours a day. Strictly speaking, that's as inconclusive an observation as Bennett ever made. It's not time that counts, but energy—and of that wonderful quality we all have very different amounts, from

the persons who wake up tired, no matter how much sleep they've had, to lucky, well-adjusted mortals who hardly ever need to sleep.

Energy comes from a healthy body, of course; it also comes from a psychological balance, a lack of conflicts and insecurities.

Some people apparently have boundless, illimitable energy—they're on the go from morning to night, and often far into the night, working hard, playing hard, never tiring, never "pooped" or "bushed"—and getting twice as much done as any three other human beings.

The adjective is: *indefatigable*

3. no tricks, no secrets

They are pleasingly frank, utterly lacking in pretense or artificiality, in fact quite unable to hide their feelings or thoughts—and so honest and aboveboard that they can scarcely conceive of trickery, chicanery, or dissimulation in anyone. There is, then, about them the simple naturalness and unsophistication of a child.

The adjective is: *ingenuous*

4. sharp as a razor

They have minds like steel traps; their insight into problems that would confuse or mystify people of less keenness or discernment is just short of amazing.

The adjective is: *perspicacious*

5. no placating necessary

They are most generous about forgiving a slight, an insult, an injury. Never do they harbor resentment, store up petty grudges, or waste energy or thought on means of revenge or retaliation. How could they? They're much too big-hearted.

The adjective is: *magnanimous*

6. one-person orchestras

The range of their aptitudes is truly formidable. If they are writers, they have professional facility in poetry, fiction, biography, criticism, essays—you just mention it and they've done it, and very competently. If they are musicians, they can play the oboe, the bassoon, the French horn, the bass viol, the piano, the celesta, the xylophone, even the clavichord if you can dig one up. If they are artists, they use oils, water colors, *gouache*, charcoal, *pen* and ink—they can do anything! Or maybe the range of their abilities cuts across all fields, as in the case of Michelangelo, who was an expert sculptor, painter, poet, architect, and inventor. In case you're thinking "Jack of all trades…," you're wrong—they're *masters* of all trades.

The adjective is: *versatile*

7. no grumbling

They bear their troubles bravely, never ask for sympathy, never yield to sorrow, never wince at pain. It sounds almost superhuman, but it's true.

The adjective is: *stoical*

8. no fear

There is not, as the hackneyed phrase has it, a cowardly bone in their bodies. They are strangers to fear, they're audacious, dauntless, contemptuous of danger and hardship.

The adjective is: *intrepid*

9. no dullness

They are witty, clever, delightful; and naturally, also, they are brilliant and entertaining conversationalists.

The adjective is: *scintillating*

10. city slickers

They are cultivated, poised, tactful, socially so experienced, sophisticated, and courteous that they're at home in any group, at ease under all circumstances of social intercourse. You cannot help admiring (perhaps envying) their smoothness and self-assurance, their tact and congeniality.

The adjective is: *urbane*

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *convivial*	kən-VIV′-ee-əl
2. *indefatigable*	in′-də-FAT′-ə-gə-bəl
3. *ingenuous*	in-JEN′-yo͞o-əs
4. *perspicacious*	pur′-spə-KAY′-shəs
5. *magnanimous*	məg-NAN′-ə-məs
6. *versatile*	VUR′-sə-təl
7. *stoical*	STŌ′-ə-kəl
8. *intrepid*	in-TREP′-id
9. *scintillating*	SIN′-tə-layt-ing
10. *urbane*	ur-BAYN′

Can you work with the words?

1. convivial	a. frank
2. indefatigable	b. unflinching
3. ingenuous	c. noble
4. perspicacious	d. capable in many directions

5. magnanimous
6. versatile
7. stoical
8. intrepid
9. scintillating
10. urbane

e. tireless
f. fearless
g. keen-minded
h. witty
i. friendly
j. polished, sophisticated

KEY: 1–i, 2–e, 3–a, 4–g, 5–c, 6–d, 7–b, 8–f, 9–h, 10–j

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. *Convivial* people are unfriendly.
   TRUE FALSE
2. Anyone who is *indefatigable* tires easily.
   TRUE FALSE
3. An *ingenuous* person is artful and untrustworthy.
   TRUE FALSE
4. A *perspicacious* person is hard to fool.
   TRUE FALSE
5. A *magnanimous* person is easily insulted.
   TRUE FALSE
6. A *versatile* person does many things well.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *stoical* person always complains of his hard lot.
   TRUE FALSE
8. An *intrepid* explorer is not easily frightened.
   TRUE FALSE
9. A *scintillating* speaker is interesting to listen to.
   TRUE FALSE
10. Someone who is *urbane* is always making enemies.
    TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–F, 3–F, 4–T, 5–F, 6–T, 7–F, 8–T, 9–T, 10–F

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. convivial—hostile
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. indefatigable—enervated
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. ingenuous—worldly
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. perspicacious—obtuse
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. magnanimous—petty
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. versatile—well-rounded
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. stoical—unemotional
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. intrepid—timid
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. scintillating—banal
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. urbane—erude
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–O, 4–O, 5–O, 6-S, 7–S, 8–O, 9–O, 10–O

Can you recall the words?

1. witty
    1. S_____
2. noble, forgiving
    2. M_____
3. capable in many fields
    3. V_____
4. keen-minded
    4. P_____
5. uncomplaining
    5. S_____
6. friendly
    6. C_____
7. poised; polished
    7. U_____
8. courageous
    8. I_____
9. tireless
    9. I_____
10. simple and honest; frank
    10. I_____

KEY: 1–scintillating, 2–magnanimous, 3–versatile, 4–perspicacious, 5–stoical, 6–convivial, 7–urbane, 8–intrepid, 9–indefatigable, 10–ingenuous

(*End of Session 32*)

SESSION 33

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. eat, drink, and be merry

The Latin verb *vivo*, to live, and the noun *vita*, life, are the source of a number of important English words.

Convivo is the Latin verb *to live together;* from this, in Latin, was formed the noun *convivium* (don't get impatient; we'll be back to English directly), which meant a *feast* or *banquet;* and from *convivium* we get our English word *convivial*, an adjective that describes the kind of person who likes to attend feasts and banquets, enjoying (and supplying) the jovial good fellowship characteristic of such gatherings.

Using the suffix *-ity* can you write the noun form of the adjective *convivial?* _____. (Can you pronounce it?)

2. living it up

Among many others, the following English words derive from Latin *vivo*, to live:

1. *vivacious* (vī-VAY′-shəs)—full of the joy of living; animated; peppy—a *vivacious* personality. Noun: *vivacity* (vī-VAS′-ə-tee). You can, as you know, also add *-ness* to any adjective to form a noun. Write the alternate noun form of *vivacious:* _____.

2. *vivid*—possessing the freshness of life; strong; sharp—a *vivid* imagination; a *vivid* color. Add *-ness* to form the noun: _____.

3. *revive* (rə-VĪV′)—bring back to life. In the 1960s, men's fashions of the twenties were *revived.* Noun: *revival* (rə-VĪ′-vəl).

4. *vivisection* (viv′-ə-SEK′-shən)—operating on a live animal. *Sect-* is from a Latin verb meaning *to cut. Vivisection* is the process of experimenting on live animals to discover causes and cures of disease.

Antivivisectionists object to the procedure, though many of our most important medical discoveries were made through *vivisection.*

5. *Viviparous* (vī-VIP′-ər-əs)—producing live babies. Human beings and most other mammals are *viviparous. Viviparous* is contrasted to *oviparous* (ō-VIP′-ər-əs), producing young from eggs. Most fish, fowl, and other lower forms of life are *oviparous.*

The combining root in both these adjectives is Latin *pareo*, to give birth (*parent* comes from the same root). In *oviparous*, the first two syllables derive from Latin *ovum*, egg.

Ovum, egg, is the source of *oval* and *ovoid*, egg-shaped; *ovulate* (Ō′-vyə-layt′), to release an egg from the *ovary: ovum* (Ō-vəm), the female germ cell which, when fertilized by a sperm, develops into an embryo, then into a *fetus* (FEE′-təs), and finally, in about 280 days in the case of humans, is born as an infant.

The adjective form of *ovary* is *ovarian* (ō-VAIR′-ee-ən); of *fetus, fetal* (FEE′-təl). Can you write the noun form of the verb *ovulate?* _____.

Love, you may or may not be surprised to hear, also comes from *ovum.*

No, not the kind of love you're thinking of. Latin *ovum* became *oeuf* in French, or with "the" preceding the noun (*the* egg), *Voeuf*, pronounced something like LOOF. *Zero* (picture it for a moment) is shaped like an egg (0), so if your score in tennis is *fifteen*, and your opponent's is *zero*, you shout triumphantly, "Fifteen love! Let's go!"

3. more about life

Latin *vita*, life, is the origin of:

1. *vital* (VĪ′-təl)—essential to life; of crucial importance—a *vital* matter; also full of life, strength, vigor, etc. Add the suffix *-ity* to form the noun: _____. Add a verb suffix to construct the verb: _____ (meaning: *to give life to*). Finally, write the noun derived from the verb you have constructed: _____.

2. *Revitalize* (ree-VĪ′-tə-līz′) is constructed from the prefix *re-*, again, back, the root *vita*, and the verb suffix. Meaning? _____. Can you write the noun formed from this verb? _____.

3. The prefix *de-* has a number of meanings, one of which is essentially negative, as in *defrost, decompose, declassify*, etc. Using this prefix, can you

write a verb meaning *to rob of life, to take life from?* _____. Now write the noun form of this verb: _____.

4. *Vitamin*—one of the many nutritional elements on which life is dependent. Good eyesight requires vitamin A (found, for example, in carrots); strong bones need vitamin D (found in sunlight and cod-liver oil); etc.

Vitalize, revitalize, and *devitalize* are used figuratively—for example, a program or plan is *vitalized, revitalized*, or *devitalized*, according to how it's handled.

4. French life

Sometimes, instead of getting our English words directly from Latin, we work through one of the Latin-derived or Romance languages. (As you will recall, the Romance languages—French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Romanian—are so called because they were originally dialects of the old Roman tongue. English, by the way, is not a Romance language, but a Teutonic one. Our tongue is a development of a German dialect imposed on the natives of Britain by the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes of early English history. Though we have taken over into English more than 50 per cent of the Latin vocabulary and almost 30 per cent of the classical Greek vocabulary as roots and prefixes, our basic language is nevertheless German).

The French, using the same Latin root *vivo*, to live, formed two expressive phrases much used in English. French pronunciation is, of course, tricky, and if you are not at least superficially acquainted with that language, your pronunciation may sound a bit awkward to the sophisticated ear—but try it anyway. These phrases are:

1. *joie de vivre*—pronounced something like zhwahd′-VEEV′ (*zh* is identical in sound to the *s* of *pleasure*).

Literally *joy of living*, this phrase describes an immense delight in being alive, an effervescent keenness for all the daily activities that human beings indulge in. People who possess *joie de vivre* are never moody, depressed, bored, or apathetic—on the contrary, they are full of sparkle, eager to engage in all group activities, and, most important, always seem to be having a good time, no matter what they are doing. *Joie de vivre* is precisely the opposite of *ennui* (this is also a word of French origin, but is easy to pronounce: AHN′-wee), which is a feeling of boredom, discontent,

or weariness resulting sometimes from having a jaded, oversophisticated appetite, sometimes from just finding all of life tedious and unappetizing, and sometimes implying in addition physical lassitude and general inactivity. Young children and simple people rarely experience *ennui*—to them life is always exciting, always new.

2. *bon vivant*, pronounced something like BŌNG′-vee-VAHNG′—the -NG a muted nasal sound similar to the *-ng* in *sing.*

A *bon vivant* is a person who lives luxuriously, especially in respect to rich food, good liquor, expensive theater parties, operas, and other accouterments of upper-class life. *Bon vivant* means, literally, a *good liver;* actually, a *high liver*, one who lives a luxurious life. When you think of a *bon vivant* (usually, language being sexist, a male), you get the picture of someone attired in top hat, "soup and fish" or tuxedo, raising his cane to call a taxi while a beautiful, evening-gowned and sophisticated-looking woman, sparkling in diamonds and furs, waits at his side. They're going to a champagne and partridge supper at an outrageously expensive restaurant, etc.—fill in your own details of the high life.

The *bon vivant* is of course a *convivial* person—and also likely to be a *gourmet* (gŏŏr-MAY′), another word from French.

5. food and how to enjoy it

The *gourmand* (GŏŏR′-mənd) enjoys food with a sensual pleasure. To *gourmands* the high spots of the day are the times for breakfast, lunch, dinner, and midnight supper; in short, they like to eat, but the eating must be good. The verb form, *gormandize* (GAWR′-mən-dīz′), however, has suffered a degeneration in meaning—it signifies *to stuff oneself like a pig.*

A *gourmand* is significantly different from a *gourmet*, who has also a keen interest in food and liquor, but is much more fastidious, is more of a connoisseur, has a most discerning palate for delicate tastes, flavors, and differences; goes in for rare delicacies (like hummingbirds' tongues and other such absurdities); and approaches the whole business from a scientific, as well as a sensual, viewpoint. *Gourmet* is always a complimentary term, *gourmand* somewhat less so.

The person who eats voraciously, with no discernment whatever, but merely for the purpose of stuffing himself ("I know I haven't had enough to eat till I feel sick"), is called a *glutton* (GLUT′-ən)—obviously a highly derogatory term. The verb *gluttonize* is stronger than *gormandize;* the

adjective *gluttonous* (GLUT′-ə-nəs) is about the strongest epithet you can apply to someone whose voracious eating habits you find repulsive. Someone who has a voracious, insatiable appetite for money, sex, punishment, etc. is also called a *glutton*.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *vivo*	to live
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *-ous*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *re-*	again, back
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *sectus*	cut
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *anti-*	against
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *ovum*	egg
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *pareo*	to give birth, produce
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *vita*	life
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *-ize*	verb suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
10. *-ation*	noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

added to verbs

ENGLISH WORD _____

ending in *-ize*

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *de-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *bon* good

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ate* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *conviviality* kən-viv′-ee-AL′-ə-tee
2. *vivacious* vī-VAY′-shəs
3. *vivacity* vī-VAS′-ə-tee
4. *vivid* VIV′-id
5. *vividness* VIV′-id-nəs
6. *revive* rə-VĪV
7. *revival* rə-VĪV′-əl
8. *vivisection* viv′-ə-SEK′-shən
9. *antivivisectionist* an′-tee (or tī)-viv′-ə-SEK′-shən-ist
10. *viviparous* vī-VIP′-ər-əs

11. *oviparous*	ō-VIP′-ər-əs
12. *oval*	Ō′-vəl
13. *ovoid*	Ō′-voyd′
14. *ovary*	Ō′-və-ree
15. *ovarian*	ō-VAIR′-ee-ən
16. *ovulate*	Ō-vyə-layt′
17. *ovulation*	ō-vyə-LAY′-shən

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *vital*	VĪ′-təl
2. *vitality*	vī-TAL′-ə-tee
3. *vitalize*	VĪ′-tə-līz′
4. *vitalization*	vī′-tə-lə-ZAY′-shən
5. *revitalize*	ree-VĪ′-tə-līz′
6. *revitalization*	ree-vī′-tə-lə-ZAY′-shən
7. *devitalize*	dee-VĪ′-tə-līz′
8. *devitalization*	dee-vī′-tə-lə-ZAY′-shən
9. *joie de vivre*	zhwahd′-VEEV′
10. *ennui*	AHN′-wee
11. *bon vivant*	BŌNG′ vee-VAHNGT
12. *gourmand*	GŏŏR′-mənd
13. *gourmet*	gŏŏr-MAY′
14. *gormandize*	GAWR′-mən-dīz′
15. *glutton*	GLUT′-ən
16. *gluttonous*	GLUT-ə-nəs

17. *gluttonize*	GLUT′-ə-nīz′
18. *vitamin*	VĪ′-tə-min

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. oval, ovoid	a. peppy
2. revitalize	b. bearing live young
3. gluttonous	c. strong, sharp
4. vivacious	d. piggish; greedy
5. vivid	e. egg-shaped
6. viviparous	f. bearing young in eggs
7. oviparous	g. give new life to

KEY: 1–e, 2–g, 3–d, 4–a, 5–c, 6–b, 7–f

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. conviviality	a. release of the egg
2. vivisection	b. a “high liver”
3. antivivisectionist	c. experimentation on live animals
4. ovulation	d. one who is a connoisseur of good food
5. vitality	e. effervescence; joy of living
6. *joie de vivre*	f. one who enjoys food
7. ennui	g. one who eats greedily; one who is greedy (as for punishment, etc.)
8. *bon vivant*	h. boredom
9. gourmand	i. congeniality
10. gourmet	j. strength, vigor
11. glutton	k. one who is against experimentation on live animals

KEY: 1–i, 2–c, 3–k, 4–a, 5–j, 6–c, 7–h, 8–b, 9–f, 10–d, 11–g

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. revive	a. rob of life or strength
2. vital	b. nutritional element necessary for life
3. vitalize	c. important, crucial
4. devitalize	d. stuff oneself like a pig
5. gluttonize	e. breathe life into
6. vitamin	f. bring back to life

KEY: 1–f, 2–c, 3–e, 4–a, 5–d, 6–b

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. conviviality—asceticism
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. vivacious—apathetic
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. vivid—dull
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. revive—kill
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. revitalize—rejuvenate
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. ennui—boredom
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. *bon vivant*—“man about town”
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. gormandize—starve
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. glutton—ascetic
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. *joie de vivre*—boredom
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–O, 4–O, 5–S, 6–S, 7–S, 8–O, 9–O, 10–O

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. vivacity—liveliness
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. revival—renewal
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. vivisection—experimentation on corpses
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. ovulation—egg-releasing
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. devitalize—reinvigorate
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. vitality—fatigue
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. gluttonous—greedy
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. gourmand—ascetic
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. ovoid—egg-shaped
   SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–S, 2–S, 3–O, 4–S, 5–O, 6–O, 7–S, 8–O, 9–S

Do you understand the words? (III)

1. Humans are *viviparous.*
   TRUE FALSE
2. Cows are *oviparous.*
   TRUE FALSE
3. *Ovulation* takes places in females only when they are married.
   TRUE FALSE
4. An *antivivisectionist* believes in experimenting on live animals.
   TRUE FALSE
5. *Vitamins* are essential to good health.
   TRUE FALSE
6. A *bon vivant* lives like a hermit.
   TRUE FALSE
7. A *gourmet* stuffs himself with food.
   TRUE FALSE
8. It is normal for young children to be overwhelmed with *ennui.*
   TRUE FALSE
9. People who are keenly alive possess *joie de vivre.*
   TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–T, 2–F, 3–F, 4–F, 5–T, 6–F, 7–F, 8–F, 9–T

Can you recall the words?

1. bearing young by eggs (*adj.*)
   1. O_____
2. bearing live young (*adj.*)
   2. V_____
3. good-fellowship
   3. C_____
4. operating on live animals
   4. V_____
5. one who is opposed to such an activity
   5. A_____
6. the process of releasing an egg from the ovary
   6. O_____
7. to remove life or vigor from
   7. D_____
8. joy of living
   8. J_____
9. one who eats like a pig
   9. G_____
10. a “high liver”
    10. B_____
11. one who is a connoisseur of good food
    11. G_____
12. one who gets a sensual enjoyment from good food
    12. G_____
13. to stuff oneself like a pig; to eat greedily
    13. G_____
    or G_____
14. boredom; discontent; tedium
    14. E_____

15. liveliness, pep
    15. V_____
    or V_____
    or V_____
16. egg-shaped
    16. O_____
17. to bring renewed life or vigor to
    17. R_____
    or O_____
18. referring to the ovary (*adj.*)
    18. O_____
19. essential to life; crucial; of utmost importance
    19. V_____

KEY: 1–oviparous, 2–viviparous, 3–conviviality, 4–vivisection, 5–antivivisectionist, 6–ovulation, 7–devitalize, 8–*joie de vivre*, 9–glutton, 10–*bon vivant*, 11–gourmet, 12–gourmand, 13–gluttonize *or* gormandize, 14–ennui, 15–vivacity, vivaciousness, *or* vitality, 16–oval *or* ovoid, 17–revitalize *or* revive, 18–ovarian, 19–vital

(*End of Session 33*)

SESSION 34

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. no fatigue

Indefatigable is a derived form of *fatigue—in-* is a negative prefix, the suffix *-able* means *able to be;* hence, literally, *indefatigable* means *unable to be fatigued.* The noun is *indefatigability* (in′-do-fat′-ə-gə-BIL′-ə-tee).

2. how simple can one be?

Ingenuous is a complimentary term, though its synonyms *naïve, gullible*, and *credulous* are faintly derogatory.

To call people *ingenuous* implies that they are frank, open, artless—in other words, not likely to try to put anything over on you, nor apt to hide feelings or thoughts that more sophisticated persons would consider it wise, tactful, or expedient to conceal.

Ingenuous should not be confused with *ingenious* (in-JEEN′-yəs)—note the slight difference in spelling—which on the contrary means *shrewd, clever, inventive.*

The noun form of *ingenuous* is *ingenuousness;* of *ingenious, ingenuity* (in′-jə-NOO′-ə-tee) or ingeniousness.

To call people *naïve* (nah-EEV′) is to imply that they have not learned the ways of the world, and are therefore idealistic and trusting beyond the point of safety; such idealism and trust have probably come from ignorance or inexperience. The noun is *naïveté* (nah-eev-TAY′).

Credulous (KREJ′-ə-ləs) implies a willingness to believe almost anything, no matter how fantastic. *Credulity* (krə-JOO′-lə-tee), like *naïveté*, usually results, again, from ignorance or inexperience, or perhaps from an inability to believe that human beings are capable of lying.

Gullible (GUL′-ə-bəl) means *easily tricked, easily fooled, easily imposed on.* It is a stronger word than *credulous* and is more derogatory. *Gullibility*

(gul′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee) results more from stupidity than from ignorance or inexperience.

These four synonyms, *ingenuous, naïve, credulous*, and *gullible*, are fairly close, but they contain areas of distinction worth remembering. Let's review them:

1. *ingenuous*—frank, not given to concealment
2. *naïve*—inexperienced, unsophisticated, trusting
3. *credulous*—willing to believe; not suspicious or skeptical
4. *gullible*—easily tricked

3. belief and disbelief

Credulous comes from Latin *credo*, to believe, the same root found in *credit* (if people *believe* in your honesty, they will extend *credit* to you; they will *credit* what you say). *-Ous* is an adjective suffix that usually signifies *full of.* So, strictly, *credulous* means *full of believingness.*

Do not confuse *credulous* with *credible.* (KRED′-ə-bəl). In the latter word we see combined the root *credo*, believe, with *-ible*, a suffix meaning *can be.* Something *credible* can be believed.

Let's chart some differences:

Credulous listeners—those who fully believe what they hear

A *credible* story—one that can be believed

An *incredulous* (in-KREJ′-ə-ləs) attitude—an attitude of skepticism, of non-belief

An *incredible* (in-KRED′-ə-bəl) story—one that cannot be believed

Incredible characters—persons who are so unique that you can scarcely believe they exist.

Nouns are formed as follows:

credulous—credulity (krə-JŌŌ′-lə-tee)

incredulous—incredulity (in-krə-JŌŌ′-lə-tee)

credible—credibility (kred′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee)

incredible—incredibility (in-kred′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee)

To check your understanding of these distinctions, try the next test.

Can you use these words correctly?

Use *credulous, credible,* or corresponding negative or noun forms in the following sentences:

1. She listened _____ly to her husband's confession of his frequent infidelity, for she had always considered him a paragon of moral uprightness.
2. He told his audience an _____ and fantastic story of his narrow escapes.
3. He'll believe you—he's very _____.
4. Make your characters more _____ if you want your readers to believe in them.
5. We listened dumb-struck, full of _____, to the shocking details of corruption and vice.
6. He has the most _____ good luck.
7. The _____ of it! How can such things happen?
8. Naïve people accept with complete _____, whatever anyone tells them.
9. "Do you believe me?" "Sure—your story is _____ enough."
10. I'm not objecting to the total _____ of your story, but only to your thinking that I'm _____enough to believe it!

KEY: 1–incredulously, 2–incredible, 3–credulous, 4–credible, 5–incredulity, 6–incredible, 7–incredibility, 8–credulity, 9–credible, 10–incredibility, credulous

4. what people believe in

Credo, to believe, is the origin of four other useful English words.

1. *Credo* (KREE′-do)—personal belief, code of ethics; the principles by which people guide their actions.

2. *Creed*—a close synonym of *credo;* in addition, a religious belief, such as Catholicism, Judaism, Protestantism, Hinduism, etc.

3. *Credence* (KREE′-dəns)—belief, as in, "I place no *credence* in his stories." or "Why should I give any *credence* to what you say?"

4. *Credentials* (krə-DEN′-shəls)—a document or documents proving a person's right to a title or privilege (i.e., a right to be believed), as in, "The new ambassador presented his *credentials* to the State Department."

5. heads and tails

We can hardly close our book on the words suggested by *ingenuous* without looking at the other side of the coin. If *ingenuous* means *frank, open*, then *disingenuous* (dis-in-JEN′-yōō-əs) should mean *not frank or open.* But *disingenuous* people are far more than simply *not ingenuous.* They are crafty, cunning, dishonest, artful, insincere, untrustworthy—and they are all of these while making a pretense of being simple, frank, and aboveboard. You are thinking of a wolf in sheep's clothing? It's a good analogy.

Similarly, a remark may be *disingenuous*, as may also a statement, an attitude, a confession, etc.

Add *-ness* to form the noun derived from *disingenuous:* _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *in-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *-ness*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *credo*	to believe
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *-ous*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *-ible*	can be; able to be
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *-ity*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *-ence*	noun suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *dis-*	negative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *indefatigability*	in′-də-fat′-ə-gə-BIL′-ə-tee
2. *ingenuousness*	in-JEN′-yo͞o-əs-ness
3. *ingenious*	in-JEEN′-yəs
4. *ingenuity*	in′-jə-No͞o′-ə-tee

5. *naïve*	nah-EEV′
6. *naïveté*	nah-eev-TAY′
7. *credulous*	KREJ′-ə-ləs
8. *incredulous*	in-KREJ′-ə-ləs
9. *gullible*	GUL′-ə-bəl
10. *gullibility*	gul′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee
11. *credible*	KRED′-ə-bəl
12. *incredible*	in-KRED′-ə-bəl
13. *credulity*	krə-JOO′-lə-tee
14. *incredulity*	in′-krə-JOO′-lə-tee
15. *credibility*	kred′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee
16. *incredibility*	in-kred′-ə-BIL′-ə-tee
17. *credo*	KREE′-dō
18. *creed*	KREED
19. *credence*	KREE′-dəns
20. *credentials*	krə-DEN′-shəlz
21. *disingenuous*	dis′-in-JEN′-yoo-əs
22. *disingenuousness*	dis′-in-JEN′-yoo-əs-nəs

Can you work with the words? (I)

WORDS	DEFINITIONS
1. indefatigability	a. cunning
2. ingenuousness	b. skepticism
3. disingenuousness	c. personal code of ethics
4. naïveté	d. frankness

5. credibility
6. incredulity
7. credence
8. credo

e. belief, trust
f. tirelessness
g. believability
h. inexperience; unworldliness

KEY: 1–f, 2–d, 3–a, 4–h, 5–g, 6–b, 7–e, 8–c

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. ingenious	a. easily tricked
2. credulous	b. religious belief
3. gullible	c. inexperienced; unworldly
4. incredible	d. document proving privileges, identity, etc.
5. creed	e. unbelievable
6. credentials	f. shrewdness; cleverness
7. ingenuity	g. clever; inventive; shrewd
8. naïve	h. willing to believe

KEY: 1–g, 2–h, 3–a, 4–e, 5–b, 6–d, 7–f, 8–c

Do you understand the words?

1. Is *indefatigability* a sign of physical and emotional health?
   YES NO
2. Is *ingenuousness* a normal quality of young childhood?
   YES NO
3. Is *ingenuity* a characteristic of inventors?
   YES NO
4. Are some adolescents *naïve?*
   YES NO
5. Are unintelligent people often *gullible?*
   YES NO
6. Is *incredulity* the mark of the agnostic?
   YES NO
7. Does an *incredible* story invite belief?
   YES NO
8. Do people generally live by a *credo?*
   YES NO
9. Does our Constitution guarantee certain rights to Americans irrespective of their *creed?*
   YES NO
10. Are *ingenious* people sometimes *disingenuous?*
    YES NO
11. Do we generally give *credence* to *incredible* statements?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–yes, 11–no

Can you recall the words?

1. inexperience; unsophistication
    1. N_____
2. believing (*adj.*)
    2. C_____
3. religious belief
    3. C_____
4. believable
    4. C_____
5. great reservoir of energy
    5. I_____
6. frankness
    6. I_____
7. crafty; dishonest
    7. D_____
8. inventive; clever
    8. I_____
9. easily tricked
    9. G_____
10. skeptical
    10. I_____
11. unbelievable
    11. I_____
12. personal code
    12. C_____

KEY: 1–naïve, 2–credulous, 3–creed, 4–credible, 5–indefatigability, 6–ingenuousness, 7–disingenuous, 8–ingenious, 9–gullible, 10–incredulous, 11–incredible, 12–credo

(*End of Session 34*)

SESSION 35

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. how to look

The Latin root *specto*, to look, is the source of a host of common English words: *spectacle, spectator, inspect, retrospect* (a looking back), *prospect* (a looking ahead), etc. In a variant spelling, *spic-*, the root is found in *conspicuous* (easily seen or looked at), *perspicacious*, and *perspicuous.*

A *perspicacious* (pur′-spə-KAY′-shəs) person is keen-minded, mentally sharp, astute. *Per-* is a prefix meaning *through;* so the word etymologically means *looking through* (matters, etc.) keenly, intelligently. The noun: *perspicacity* (pur′-spə-KAS′-ə-tee). Write an alternate noun ending in *-ness:*

Perspicacity is a synonym of *acumen* (AK′-yōō′-mən), mental keenness, sharpness, quickness; keen insight. The root is Latin *acuo*, to sharpen.

2. sharpness

From *acuo*, to sharpen, come such words as *acute*, sharp, sudden, as *acute pain*, an *acute* attack of appendicitis, *acute* reasoning, etc; and *acupuncture* (AK′-yōō-punk′-chər), the insertion of a (sharp) needle into the body for medical purposes. The noun form of *acute*, referring to the mind or thinking, is *acuteness* or *acuity* (ə-KYŌŌ-ə-tee); in other contexts, *acuteness* only.

Acupuncture combines *acuo*, to sharpen, with *punctus*, point. When you *punctuate* a sentence, you put various *points* (periods, commas, etc.) where needed; when lightning *punctuates* the storm, or when the silence is *punctuated* by the wailing of police sirens, again *points*, etymologically speaking, interrupt the atmosphere, the quiet, etc.

If you are *punctual*, you're right on the point of time (noun: *punctuality*); if you're *punctilious* (punk-TIL′-ee-əs), you are exact, scrupulous, very careful to observe the proper *points* of behavior, procedure, etc. (noun:

punctiliousness). And to *puncture* something, of course, is to make a hole in it with a sharp *point*—as to *puncture* someone's tire, or figuratively, illusions, fantasies, or ego. *Pungent* (PUN′-jənt) comes from another form of the root *punctus* (*pungo*, to pierce sharply), so a *pungent* smell or taste is sharp, spicy, pricking the nose or taste buds, so to speak; and a *pungent* wit sharply pierces one's sense of humor. Can you write the noun forms of this adjective? _____ or _____.

3. some more looking

Perspicacious should not be confused with *perspicuous* (pər-SPIK′-yōō-əs). Here is the important distinction:

Perspicacious means *smart, sharp, able to look through and understand quickly.* This adjective applies to persons, their reasoning, minds, etc.

Perspicuous is the obverse side of the coin—it means *easily understood from one look*, and applies to writing, style, books, and like things that have to be understood. Hence it is a synonym of *clear, simple, lucid.* If you write with *perspicuous* style, your language is clear, easy to understand. If you are *perspicacious*, you understand quickly, easily.

The noun form of *perspicuous* is *perspicuity* (pur′-spə-KYōō′-ə-tee), or, of course, *perspicuousness.*

A spectacle is something to *look at; spectacles* (eyeglasses) are the means by which you get a comfortable and accurate *look* at the world. Anything *spectacular* is, etymologically, worth *looking* at.

A *spectator* is one who *looks at* what's happening.

To *inspect* is to *look into* something.

Retrospect (RET′-rə-spekt′) is a backward *look*—generally the word is preceded by the preposition *in*, for instance, "His life *in retrospect* seemed dreary and dull," or "Most experiences seem more enjoyable *in retrospect* than in actuality" (*retro*-, backward).

Prospect (PROS′-pekt′) is a forward *look; prospective* (prə-SPEK′-tiv) is the adjective. What's the *prospect* for inflation, for world peace, for the domestic energy supply? Your *prospective* mother-in-law is the one you can look forward to if you marry a certain person; similarly, your *prospective* bride, groom, child, job, vacation, etc. is the person, thing, or activity in the future that you look forward to. (The prefix is *pro*-, forward, ahead, before.)

If you enjoy looking at yourself, figuratively speaking, then you like to examine your mental processes and emotional reactions, in the intense way characteristic of the *introvert* (see Chapter 3). Your mind's eye turns inward, and you spend a good deal of time analyzing yourself, your character, your personality, your actions. Hence, since you look *inward*, you are *introspective* (in′-trə-SPEK′-tiv)—the prefix is *intro-*, inside, within. If you *introspect* (in′-trə-SPEKT′), you look inward and examine your inner reactions. Too much *introspection* (in′-trə-SPEK′-shən) or *introspectiveness* may lead to unhappiness or to depressing thoughts or feelings of anxiety—few people have the courage to see themselves as they really are.

There are times when you have to look *around* most carefully; you must then be *circumspect* (SUR′-kəm-spekt′)—watchful, cautious, alert (*circum-*, around).

The noun is *circumspection* (sur′-kem-SPEK′-shən) or *circumspectness.*

If something looks good or sensible, but actually is not, we call it *specious* (SPEE′-shəs). A *specious* argument sounds plausible, but in reality is based on an error, a fallacy, or an untruth. The noun is *speciousness.*

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *specto*	to look
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *per-*	through
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *acuo*	to sharpen
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *punctus*	point
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *-ate*	verb suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

6. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *pungo* to pierce sharply

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *-ence, -ency* noun suffixes

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *-ness* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *-ity* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *retro-* backward

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *pro-* forward, ahead, before

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *intro-* inside, within

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-ion* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *-ive* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *circum-* around

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *perspicacious*	pur′-spə-KAY′-shəs
2. *perspicacity*	pur′-spə-KAS′-ə-tee
3. *acumen*	AK′-yōō′-mən
4. *acute*	ə-KYŌŌT′
5. *acuity*	ə-KYŌŌ′-ə-tee
6. *acupuncture*	AK′-yōō-punk′-chər
7. *punctuate*	PUNK′-chōō-ayt′
8. *punctilious*	punk-TIL′-ee-əs
9. *puncture*	PUNK′-chər
10. *pungent*	PUN′-jənt
11. *pungence*	PUN′-jəns
12. *pungency*	PUN′-jən-see

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *perspicuous*	pər-SPIK′-yōō-əs
2. *perspicuity*	pur′-spə-KYŌŌ′-ə-tee
3. *retrospect*	RET′-rə-spekt′
4. *prospect*	PROS′-pekt′
5. *prospective*	prə-SPEK′-tiv
6. *introspective*	in′-trə-SPEK′-tiv
7. *introspect*	in′-trə-SPEKT′
8. *introspection*	in′-trə-SPEK′-shən

9. *circumspect*	SUR′-kəm-spekt′
10. *circumspection*	sur′-kəm-SPEK′-shən
11. *specious*	SPEE′-shəs

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. perspicacious	a. extremely careful, exact, or proper in procedure
2. acumen	b. clear; easy to understand
3. acupuncture	c. a forward look
4. punctilious	d. looking inside, or examining or analyzing, oneself
5. pungent	e. keen-minded
6. perspicuous	f. sharp; spicy; piercing
7. retrospect	g. careful, watchful, wary, cautious; “looking around”
8. prospect	h. sharpness of mind or thinking
9. introspective	i. a backward look
10. circumspect	j. medical insertion of needles

KEY: 1–e, 2–h, 3–j, 4–a, 5–f, 6–b, 7–i, 8–c, 9–d, 10–g

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. acute	a. pierce; make a hole in; (noun) a small hole
2. acuity	b. clarity; lucidity; ability to be understood quickly and easily
3. punctuate	c. sounding plausible, or looking right, but actually false or untrue
4. puncture	d. in the future; describing that which, or one who, can be looked forward to
5. pungence, pungency	e. care; watchfulness; caution
6. perspicuity	f. sharp; sudden; keen-minded
7. prospective	g. tending to examine and to think about one's motives, feelings, etc.
8. introspective	h. interrupt sharply or suddenly
9. circumspection	i. sharpness or spiciness of taste, smell, wit, etc.
10. specious	j. keeness of mind, thinking, or intellect

KEY: 1–f, 2–j, 3–h, 4–a, 5–i, 6–b, 7–d, 8–g, 9–e, 10–c

Do you understand the words?

1. perspicacious—dull-witted
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. acumen—stupidity
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. acute—sharp
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. acuity—perspicacity
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. punctilious—casual
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. pungent—flat, dull
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. perspicuous—clear
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. retrospect—backward look
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. prospect—expectation
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. introspective—extroverted
    SAME OPPOSITE
11. prospective—in the past
    SAME OPPOSITE
12. circumspect—careless
    SAME OPPOSITE
13. specious—true
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–S, 4–S, 5–O, 6–O, 7–S, 8–S, 9–S, 10–O, 11–O, 12–O, 13–O

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. plausible, but false or incorrect
   1. S_____
2. spiciness, sharpness; piercing quality
   2. P_____
   or P_____
3. clear; easily understood
   3. P_____
4. sharpness of mind or of intelligence
   4. A_____
   or A_____
   or A_____
5. care and caution; wariness
   5. C_____
   or C_____
6. piercing of the skin with needles for medical purposes
   6. A_____
7. tending to examine one's motives, etc.; loooking inward (*adj.*)
   7. I_____
8. exact in the observance of proper procedure
   8. P_____
9. to pierce and make a small hole in
   9. P_____
10. a backward look or view
    10. R_____

KEY: 1–specious, 2–pungence *or* pungency, 3–perspicuous, 4–acumen *or* acuteness *or* acuity, 5–circumspection *or* circumspectness, 6–acupuncture, 7–introspective, 8–punctilious, 9–puncture, 10–retrospect

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. keenness of mind
   1. P_____
   or P_____
2. sharp; sudden; keen-minded
   2. A_____
3. to interrupt suddenly
   3. P_____
4. spicy; piercing in taste, smell, wit, etc.
   4. P_____
5. clarity; clearness of style or language
   5. P_____
   or P_____
6. keen-minded; perceptive
   6. P_____
7. a look forward
   7. P_____
8. act or process of looking inward
   8. I_____
9. carefully looking around; cautious; wary
   9. C_____
10. anticipated; “to be”; looked forward to (*adj.*)
    10. P_____

KEY: 1–perspicacity *or* perspicaciousness, 2–acute, 3–punctuate, 4–pungent, 5–perspicuity *or* perspicuousness, 6–perspicacious, 7–prospect, 8–introspection, 9–circumspect, 10–prospective

(*End of Session 35*)

SESSION 36

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. the great and the small

You are familiar with Latin *animus*, mind. *Animus* and a related root, *anima*, life principle, soul, spirit (in a sense, these meanings are all very similar), are the source of such words as *animal, animate* and *inanimate, animated*, and *animation;* knowing the meaning of the roots, you have a better understanding of any word built on them.

Magnanimous contains, in addition to *animus*, mind, the root *magnus*, large, great, which you recall from *magniloquent. Magnanimous* people have such great, noble minds or souls that they are beyond seeking petty revenge.

The noun is *magnanimity* (mag′-nə-NIM′-ə-tee).

On the other hand, people who have tiny, tiny minds or souls are *pusillanimous* (pyo͞o′-sə-LAN′-ə-mes)—Latin *pusillus*, tiny. Hence, they are contemptibly petty and mean. The noun is *pusillanimity* (pyo͞o′-sə-lə-NIM′-ə-tee).

Other words built on *animus*, mind:

1. *unanimous* (yo͞o-NAN′-ə-məs)—of one *mind.* If the Supreme Court hands down a *unanimous* opinion, all the judges are of *one* mind (Latin *unus*, one). The noun is *unanimity* (yo͞o′-nə-NIM′-ə-tee).

2. *equanimity* (ee′-kwə-NIM′-ə-tee *or* ek′-wə-NIM′-ə-tee)—etymologically, "equal (or balanced) mind." Hence, evenness or calmness of mind; composure. If you preserve your *equanimity* under trying circumstances, you keep your temper, you do not get confused, you remain calm (Latin *aequus*, equal).

3. *animus* (AN′-ə-məs)—hostility, ill will, malevolence. Etymologically, *animus* is simply *mind*, but has degenerated, as words often do, to mean *unfriendly mind.* The word is most often used in a pattern like, "I bear you

no *animus*, even though you have tried to destroy me." (Such a statement shows real *magnanimity!*)

4. *animosity* (an′-ə-MOS′-ə-tee)—ill will, hostility. An exact synonym of *animus*, and a more common word. It is used in patterns like, "You feel a good deal of *animosity*, don't you?", "There is real *animosity* between Bill and Ernie," "If you bear me no *animosity*, why do you treat me so badly?"

2. turning

Versatile comes from *verto, versus*, to turn—*versatile* people can turn their hand to many things successfully. The noun is *versatility* (vur′-sə-TIL′-ə-tee).

3. Zeno and the front porch

Centuries ago, in ancient Greece, the philosopher Zeno lectured on a topic that still piques the human mind, to wit: "How to Live a Happy Life." Zeno would stand on a porch (the Greek word for which is *stoa*) and hold forth somewhat as follows: people should free themselves from intense emotion, be unmoved by both joy and sorrow, and submit without complaint to unavoidable necessity.

Today, psychologists suggest pretty much the exact opposite—let your emotions flow freely, express your love or animosity, don't bottle up your feelings. But in the fourth century B.C., when Zeno was expounding his credo, his philosophy of control of the passions fell on receptive ears. His followers were called *Stoics*, after the *stoa*, or porch, from which the master lectured.

If we call people *stoical*, we mean that they bear their pain or sorrow without complaint, they meet adversity with unflinching fortitude. This sounds very noble, you will admit—actually, according to modern psychological belief, it is healthier not to be so *stoical. Stoicism* (STŌ′-ə-siz-əm) may be an admirable virtue (mainly because we do not then have to listen to the *stoic's* troubles), but it can be overdone.

4. fear and trembling

Intrepid is from Latin *trepido*, to tremble. *Intrepid* people exhibit courage and fearlessness (and not a single tremble!) when confronted by dangers from which you and I would run like the cowards we are. (You recognize the negative prefix *in*-.)

The noun: *intrepidity* (in′-trə-PID′-ə-tee), or, of course, *intrepidness.*

Trepido is the source also of *trepidation* (trep′-ə-DAY′-shən)—great fear, trembling, or alarm.

5. quick flash

Scintilla, in Latin, is a quick, bright spark; in English the word *scintilla* (sin-TIL′-ə) may also mean *a spark*, but more commonly refers to a very small particle (which, in a sense, a spark is), as in, "There was not a *scintilla* of evidence against him."

In the verb *scintillate* (SIN′-tə-layt′), the idea of the spark remains; someone who *scintillates* sparkles with charm and wit, flashes brightly with humor. The noun is *scintillation* (sin′-tə-LAY′-shən).

6. city and country

People who live in the big city go to theaters, attend the opera, visit museums and picture galleries, browse in bookstores, and shop at Robinson's, Bloomingdale's, Marshall Field, or other large department stores.

These activities fill them with culture and sophistication.

Also, they crowd into jammed subway trains or buses, squeeze into packed elevators, cross the street in competition with high-powered motorcars, patiently stand in line outside of movie houses, and then wait again in the lobby for seats to be vacated.

Also, they have the privilege of spending two hours a day going to and coming from work.

As a result, city-dwellers are refined, polished, courteous—or so the etymology of *urbane* (from Latin *urbs*, city) tells us. (And you must be absurdly credulous, if not downright gullible, to believe it.) The noun is *urbanity* (ur-BAN′-ə-tee).

So *urbane* people are gracious, affable, cultivated, suave, tactful—add any similar adjectives you can think of.

Urban (UR′-bən) as an adjective simply refers to cities—*urban* affairs, *urban* areas, *urban* populations, *urban* life, *urban* development, etc.

Consider some prefixes: *sub-*, near; *inter-*, between; *intra-*, inside, within; *ex-*, out.

Add each prefix to the root *urbs*, using the adjective suffix *-an:*

sub_____: near the city
(*Sub-* has a number of meanings: *under, near, close to*, etc.)
inter_____: between cities
intra_____: within a city
ex_____: out of the city

The *suburbs* are residential sections, or small communities, close to a large city; Larchmont is a *suburb* of New York City, Whittier a *suburb* of Los Angeles.

Suburbia (sə-BUR′-bee-ə) may designate *suburbs* as a group; *suburban* residents, or *suburbanites* (sə-BUR′-bə-nīts′), as a group; or the typical manners, modes of living, customs, etc. of suburban residents.

An *interurban* bus travels *between* cities, an *intraurban* bus *within* a single city.

An *exurb* (EKS′-urb) lies well beyond, way outside, a large city, and generally refers to a region inhabited by well-to-do families. *Exurb* has derived forms corresponding to those of *suburb.* Can you construct them?

Plural noun: _____

Adjective: _____

Resident: _____

As a group; manners, customs, etc.: _____

Urbs is the city; Latin *rus, ruris* is the country, i.e., farmland, fields, etc. So *rural* (RʊʊR′-əl) refers to country or farm regions, agriculture, etc.—a wealthy *rural* area.

Rustic (RUS′-tik) as an adjective may describe furniture or dwellings made of roughhewn wood, or furnishings suitable to a farmhouse; or, when applied to a person, is an antonym of *urbane*—unsophisticated, boorish, lacking in social graces, uncultured. Noun: *rusticity* (rus-TIS′-ə-tee). *Rustic* is also a noun designating a person with such characteristics,

as in, “He was considered a *rustic* by his classmates, all of whom came from cultured and wealthy backgrounds.”

Urbane and *rustic*, when applied to people, are emotionally charged words. *Urbane* is complimentary, *rustic* derogatory.[1]

To *rusticate* (RUS′-tə-kayt′) is to spend time in the country, away from the turmoil and tensions of big-city life. Can you construct the noun? _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *animus*	mind
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *anima*	soul, spirit, life principle
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *magnus*	large, great
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *pusillus*	tiny
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *unus*	one
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *aequus* (*equ-*)	equal
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *verto, versus*	to turn
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *stoa*	porch
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *in-*	negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *trepido* to tremble

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *scintilla* a spark

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *urbs* city

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *sub-* near, close to, under

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *inter-* between

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *intra-* within, inside

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *ex-* out

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *rus, ruris* country, farmlands

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-ate* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *-ion* noun suffix aded to *-ate* verbs

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *magnanimity*	mag′-nə-NIM′-ə-tee
2. *pusillanimous*	pyʊ̈′-sə-LAN′-ə-məs
3. *pusillanimity*	pyʊ̈′-sə-lə-NIM′-ə-tee
4. *unanimous*	yʊ̈-NAN′-ə-məs
5. *unanimity*	yʊ̈-nə-NIM′-ə-tee
6. *equanimity*	eek′ (*or* ek′)-wə-NIM′-ə-tee
7. *animus*	AN′-ə-məs
8. *animosity*	an′-ə-MOS′-ə-tee
9. *versatility*	vur′-sə-TIL′-ə-tee
10. *stoic*	STŌ′-ik
11. *stoicism*	STŌ′-ə-siz-əm

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *intrepidity*	in′-trə-PID′-ə-tee
2. *trepidation*	trep′-ə-DAY′-shən
3. *scintilla*	sin-TIL′-ə
4. *scintillate*	SIN′-tə-layt′
5. *scintillation*	sin′-tə-LAY′-shən
6. *urbanity*	ur-BAN′-ə-tee
7. *suburbia*	sə-BUR′-bee-ə
8. *interurban*	in′-tər-UR′-bən
9. *intraurban*	in′-trə-UR′-bən
10. *exurbs*	EKS′-urbz
11. *exurban*	eks-UR′-bən
12. *exurbanite*	eks-UR′-bən-īt′

13. *exurbia*	eks-UR′-bee-ə

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *rural*	RʊʊR′-əl
2. *rustic*	RUS′-tik
3. *rusticity*	rus-TIS′-ə-tee
4. *rusticate*	RUS′-tə-kayt′
5. *rustication*	rus′-tə-KAY′-shən
6. *pejorative*	pə-JAWR′-ə-tiv

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. magnanimity	a. calmness, composure
2. pusillanimity	b. ability either to do many different things well, or to function successfully in many areas
3. unanimity	c. fearlessness; great courage
4. equanimity	d. unemotionality; bearing of pain, etc. without complaint
5. animosity	e. big-heartedness; generosity; quality of forgiving easily
6. versatility	f. a sparkling with wit or cleverness
7. stoicism	g. fear and trembling; alarm
8. intrepidity	h. complete agreement, all being of one mind
9. trepidation	i. petty-mindedness

10. scintillation

j. anger, hostility, resentment, hatred

KEY: 1–e, 2–i, 3–h, 4–a, 5–j, 6–b, 7–d, 8–c, 9–g, 10–f

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. urbanity	a. referring to the countryside
2. suburbia	b. word with negative or derogatory connotation; describing such a word or words
3. exurbia	c. to spend time in the country
4. animus	d. residential areas near big cities; customs, etc. of the inhabitants of such areas
5. interurban	e. residential areas far from big cities; customs, etc. of the inhabitants of such areas
6. intraurban	f. between cities
7. rural	g. roughhewn, farmlike; unsophisticated, uncultured
8. rustic	h. sophistication, courtesy, polish, etc.
9. rusticate	i. anger, hatred, hostility
10. pejorative	j. within one city

KEY: 1–h, 2–d, 3–e, 4–i, 5–f, 6–j, 7–a, 8–g, 9–c, 10–b

(*End of Session 36*)

SESSION 37

READY FOR A STRONG REVIEW?

Drill, drill, drill! This is the important secret of learning words thoroughly.

Review, review, review! This is the secret of remembering, assimilating, digesting, and keeping as permanent acquisitions all the new words you have learned.

So pitch in with enthusiasm to the rest of this chapter, made up of a series of valuable tests on all the chapter words. Ready?

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. retrospect	a. complete agreement
2. acumen	b. pettiness
3. magnanimity	c. malevolence
4. pusillanimity	d. backward look
5. unanimity	e. calmness
6. equanimity	f. ability in many fields
7. animosity	g. mental keenness
8. versatility	h. generosity

KEY: 1–d, 2–g, 3–h, 4–b, 5–a, 6–e, 7–c, 8–f

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. stoicism	a. fearlessness
2. intrepidity	b. sparkle
3. trepidation	c. inward look
4. scintillation	d. uncomplaining attitude to pain or trouble
5. urbanity	e. falsity
6. introspection	f. polish, cultivation
7. circumspection	g. care, cautiousness
8. speciousness	h. fear

KEY: 1–d, 2–a, 3–h, 4–b, 5–f, 6–c, 7–g, 8–e

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. exurbs	a. of one mind
2. pusillanimous	b. ill will
3. unanimous	c. pertaining to the city
4. animus	d. petty
5. rustic	e. self-analytical
6. urban	f. regions far from the city
7. introspective	g. cautious
8. circumspect	h. false, though plausible
9. specious	i. countrified

KEY: 1–f, 2–d, 3–a, 4–b, 5–i, 6–c, 7–e, 8–g, 9–h

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. perspicacity	a. clearness
2. perspicuity	b. to be witty
3. stoic	c. spend time in the country
4. scintilla	d. one who controls his emotions
5. scintillate	e. to look inward
6. rural	f. a very small amount
7. rusticate	g. keen intelligence
8. introspect	h. clear, understandable
9. perspicuous	i. keen-minded
10. perspicacious	j. pertaining to the country.

KEY: 1–g, 2–a, 3–d, 4–f, 5–b, 6–j, 7–c, 8–e, 9–h, 10–i

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Does life often seem pleasanter in *retrospect?*
   YES NO
2. Are people of *acuity* gullible?
   YES NO
3. Is *perspicacity* a common characteristic?
   YES NO
4. Is a person of *acumen* likely to be naïve?
   YES NO
5. Is a *perspicuous* style of writing easy to read?
   YES NO
6. Should all writers aim at *perspicuity?*
   YES NO
7. Is *magnanimity* a characteristic of small-minded people?
   YES NO
8. Does a person of *pusillanimous* mind often think of petty revenge?
   YES NO
9. Is a *unanimous* opinion one in which all concur?
   YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. Is it easy to preserve one's *equanimity* under trying circumstances?
   YES NO
2. Do we bear *animus* toward our enemies?
   YES NO
3. Do we usually feel great *animosity* toward our friends?
   YES NO
4. Do we admire *versatility?*
   YES NO
5. Does a *stoic* usually complain?
   YES NO
6. Is *stoicism* a mark of an uninhibited personality?
   YES NO
7. Do cowards show *intrepidity* in the face of danger?
   YES NO
8. Do cowards often feel a certain amount of *trepidation?*
   YES NO
9. Is a *scintilla* of evidence a great amount?
   YES NO
10. Do dull people *scintillate?*
    YES NO
11. Is *urbanity* a characteristic of boorish people?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–no, 11–no

Do you understand the words? (III)

1. Is New York City a *rural* community?
   YES NO
2. Is a village an *urban* community?
   YES NO
3. Do you *rusticate* in the city?
   YES NO
4. Are extroverts very *introspective?*
   YES NO
5. Does an introvert spend a good deal of time in *introspection?*
   YES NO
6. In dangerous circumstances, is it wise to be *circumspect?*
   YES NO
7. Do *specious* arguments often sound convincing?
   YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–yes

Do you understand the words? (IV)

1. retrospect—prospect
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. acute—perspicacious
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. acumen—stupidity
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. perspicuous—confused
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. magnanimous—noble
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. pusillanimous—petty
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. unanimous—divided
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. equanimity—nervousness
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. animosity—hostility
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. animus—friendliness
    SAME OPPOSITE
11. versatility—monomania
    SAME OPPOSITE
12. stoicism—cowardice
    SAME OPPOSITE
13. intrepidity—fear
    SAME OPPOSITE
14. trepidation—courage

SAME OPPOSITE

15. scintilla—slight amount

SAME OPPOSITE

16. urbanity—refinement

SAME OPPOSITE

17. rustic—crude

SAME OPPOSITE

18. rural—urban

SAME OPPOSITE

19. introspective—self-analytic

SAME OPPOSITE

20. circumspect—careless

SAME OPPOSITE

21. specious—true

SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–S, 3–O, 4–O, 5–S, 6–S, 7–O, 8–O, 9–S, 10–O, 11–O, 12–O, 13–O, 14–O, 15–S, 16–S, 17–S, 18–O, 19–S, 20–O, 21–O

Can you recall the words? (I)

1. ability in many fields
    1. V_____
2. pertaining to the city (*adj.*)
    2. U_____
3. to spend time in the country
    3. R_____
4. merest spark; small amount
    4. S_____
5. courage
    5. I_____

KEY: 1–versatility, 2–urban, 3–rusticate, 4–scintilla, 5–intrepidity

Can you recall the words? (II)

1. unflinching fortitude
    1. S_____
2. countrified; unpolished
    2. R_____
3. pertaining to the countryside (*adj.*)
    3. R_____
4. a looking back to the past
    4. R_____
5. nobleness of mind or spirit
    5. M_____

KEY: 1–stoicism, 2–rustic, 3–rural, 4–retrospect, 5–magnanimity

Can you recall the words? (III)

1. keen-mindedness
    1. A_____
2. clear, lucid
    2. P_____
3. petty, mean
    3. P_____
4. all of one mind or opinion
    4. U_____
5. ill will
    5. A_____
    or A_____

KEY: 1–acuity, 2–pcrspicuous, 3–pusillanimous, 4–unanimous, 5–animus *or* animosity

Can you recall the words? (IV)

1–4. keenness of mind

1. P_____
or P_____
2. A_____
3. A_____
4. A_____

5. clearness of style or language

5. P_____

6. one who keeps his emotions, during times of trouble, hidden

6. S_____

7. sophistication, courtesy, refinement

7. U_____

KEY: 1–perspicacity *or* perspicaciousness, 2–acumen, 3–acuity, 4–acuteness (2–4 in any order), 5–perspicuity, 6–stoic, 7–urbanity

Can you recall the words? (V)

1. pettiness of character
    1. P_____
2. noun form of *unanimous*
    2. U_____
3. mental calmness, balance
    3. E_____
4. fear and trembling
    4. T_____
5. to sparkle with wit and humor
    5. S_____

KEY: 1–pusillanimity, 2–unanimity, 3–equanimity, 4–trepidation, 5–scintillate

Can you recall the words? (VI)

1. a looking inward; an examining of one's mental processes or emotional reactions
   1. I_____
2. cautious
   2. C_____
3. seemingly true, actually false
   3. S_____
4. to think of one's mental processes
   4. I_____
5. care, watchfulness
   5. C_____

KEY: 1–introspective, 2–circumspect, 3–specious, 4–introspect, 5–circumspection

THREE FURTHER TESTS

I. matching

MEANING	WORD
1. convivial	a. frank
2. indefatigable	b. noble, forgiving
3. ingenuous	c. unflinching; unemotional
4. perspicacious	d. courteous; polished; suave
5. magnanimous	e. companionable, gregarious
6. versatile	f. witty
7. stoical	g. capable in many directions
8. intrepid	h. brave
9. scintillating	i. keen-minded
10. urbane	j. tireless

KEY: 1–e, 2–j, 3–a, 4–i, 5–b, 6–g, 7–c, 8–h, 9–f, 10–d

II. same or opposite?

1. vivacious—sluggish
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. vital—crucial
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. ennui—boredom
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. *bon vivant*—gourmand
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. gourmet—ascetic
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. ingenuous—crafty
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. naïve—sophisticated
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. credulous—skeptical
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. disingenuous—insincere
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. credo—belief
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–S, 3–S, 4–S, 5–O, 6–O, 7–O, 8–O, 9–S, 10–S

III. changing parts of speech

Change these adjectives to nouns *not* ending in *-ness*.

1. indefatigable
2. perspicacious
3. stoical
4. urbane
5. naïve
6. incredulous
7. incredible
8. perspicuous
9. magnanimous
10. pusillanimous

KEY: 1–indefatigability, 2–perspicacity, 3–stoicism, 4–urbanity, 5–naïveté, 6–incredulity, 7–incredibility, 8–perspicuity, 9–magnanimity, 10–pusillanimity

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Tireless:
   (a) convivial, (b) indefatigable, (c) versatile
2. Frank, unsophisticated:
   (a) ingenuous, (b) ingenious, (c) intrepid
3. Unflinching, uncomplaining:
   (a) perspicacious, (b) urbane, (c) stoical
4. Noble, forgiving, generous:
   (a) pusillanimous, (b) unanimous, (c) magnanimous
5. Between cities:
   (a) interurban, (b) intraurban, (c) exurban
6. Giving birth to live young:
   (a) oviparous, (b) ovulation, (c) viviparous
7. Tedium, boredom:
   (a) ennui, (b) *joie de vivre*, (c) vitality
8. Connoisseur of choice food:
   (a) gourmet, (b) gourmand, (c) glutton
9. Inexperienced in the ways of the world:
   (a) credulous, (b) naïve, (c) credible
10. Easily tricked:
    (a) gullible, (b) incredulous, (c) ingenious
11. Backward look:
    (a) prospect, (b) retrospect, (c) introspection
12. Clearness:
    (a) perspicacity, (b) perspicuity, (c) intrepidity

13. Resentment:
    (a) animosity, (b) stoicism, (c) urbanity
14. Countrified:
    (a) rustic, (b) specious, (c) circumspect

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–c, 4–c, 5–a, 6–c, 7–a, 8–a, 9–b, 10–a, 11–b, 12–b, 13–a, 14–a

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	EXAMPLE
1. *vivo*	_____
MEANING vivacious	
2. *sectus*	_____
MEANING vivisection	
3. *pareo*	_____
MEANING viviparous	
4. *ovum*	_____
MEANING oviparous	
5. *vita*	_____
MEANING vital	
6. *bon*	_____
MEANING *bon vivant*	
7. *credo*	_____
MEANING credible	
8. *specto*	_____
MEANING spectator	
9. *acuo*	_____
MEANING acupuncture	

10. *punctus* _____

MEANING punctuate

11. *pungo* _____

MEANING pungent

12. *animus* _____

MEANING animosity

13. *pusillus* _____

MEANING pusillanimous

14. *magnus* _____

MEANING magnanimous

15. *unus* _____

MEANING unanimous

16. *aequus* (*equ-*) _____

MEANING equanimity

17. *verto, versus* _____

MEANING versatile

18. *stoa* _____

MEANING stoical

19. *trepido* _____

MEANING trepidation

20. *scintilla* _____

MEANING scintillate

21. *urbs* _____

MEANING urban

22. *rus, ruris* _____

MEANING rural, rustic

KEY: 1–to live, 2–cut, 3–to give birth, produce, 4–egg, 5–life, 6–good, 7–to believe, 8–to look, 9–to sharpen, 10–point, 11–to pierce sharply, 12–mind, 13–tiny, 14–big, great, large, 15–one, 16–equal, 17–to turn, 18–porch, 19–to tremble, 20–spark, 21–city, 22–country, countryside

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. Recalling the root *vivo*, to live, can you think of the verb that means *to live on?* _____.
Can you write the noun form? _____.

2. How would you explain a *vivarium?* _____.

3. Recalling the meanings of Latin *vita*, what would you understand if someone asked you for your *vita* before you appeared for an interview for a professional position? _____.

4. *Unus* is Latin for *one*. Can you use this root to construct words meaning:

(a) animal with *one* horn: _____.

(b) of *one* form: _____.

(c) to make *one:* _____.

(d) *one*ness: _____.

(e) *one*-wheeled vehicle: _____.

5. *Annus* is Latin for *year; verto, versus*, as you know, means *to turn*. Can you, then, explain the word *anniversary* in terms of its roots? _____

6. How about *universe* and *university* in terms of their roots (*unus*, one; *verto, versus*, to turn)?

(a) universe: _____

(b) university: _____

7. Use *inter-*, between, to form words of the following meanings:

(a) *between* states (*adj.*): _____

(b) *between* nations (*adj.*): _____

(c) in the middle *between* elementary and advanced (*adj.*): _____

(d) to break in (*between* people conversing): _____

(e) *between persons* (*adj.*): _____

8. Use *intra-*, within, to form words with the following meanings (all *adjectives*):

(a) *within* one state: _____

(b) *within* one nation: _____

(c) *within* one's own person or mind: _____

(d) *within* the muscles: _____

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

WORDS INFLUENCE YOUR THINKING

By now, you have thoroughly explored hundreds upon hundreds of valuable words and scores upon scores of important Greek and Latin roots.

As you went along you stopped at frequent intervals to say aloud, think about, work with, and recall the words you were adding to your vocabulary.

By now, therefore, the words you have been learning are probably old friends of yours; they have started to influence your thinking, have perhaps begun to appear in your conversation, and have certainly become conspicuous in your reading. In short, they have been effective in making changes in your intellectual climate.

Let us pause now for another checkup of the success of your study. In the next chapter, you will find a second Comprehensive Test. Take the test cold if you feel that all the material is at your fingertips; or spend a little time reviewing Chapters 9, 10, 11, and 12 if you believe such review is necessary.

(*End of Session 37*)

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[1] Incidentally, a word used with a derogatory connotation (*bitch, piggish, glutton, idiot*, etc.) is called a *pejorative* (pe-JAWR′-Ə-tiv). *Pejorative* is also an adjective, as in, “She spoke in *pejorative* terms about her ex-husband.” The derivation is Latin *pejor*, worse.

13

HOW TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Comprehensive Test II

SESSION 38

I—etymology

ROOT	MEANING
1. *scribo, scriptus*	_____
EXAMPLE proscribe	
2. *aequus* (*equ-*)	_____
EXAMPLE equivocal	
3. *malus*	_____
EXAMPLE malign	
4. *dico, dictus*	_____
EXAMPLE malediction	
5. *volo*	_____
EXAMPLE malevolent	
6. *facio*	_____
EXAMPLE malefactor	
7. *bonus, bene*	_____
EXAMPLE benevolent	
8. *fides*	_____
EXAMPLE infidelity	
9. *dono*	_____

EXAMPLE condone

10. *nox, noctis* _____

EXAMPLE equinox

11. *equus* _____

EXAMPLE equestrian

12. *libra* _____

EXAMPLE equilibrium

13. *taceo* _____

EXAMPLE taciturn

14. *loquor* _____

EXAMPLE loquacious

15. *solus* _____

EXAMPLE soliloquy

16. *venter, ventris* _____

EXAMPLE ventral

17. *magnus* _____

EXAMPLE magniloquence

18. *verbum* _____

EXAMPLE verbatim

19. *volvo, volutus* _____

EXAMPLE voluble

20. *animus* _____

EXAMPLE pusillanimous

21. *dorsum* _____

EXAMPLE endorse

22. *vox, vocis* _____

EXAMPLE vocal

23. *fero* _____

EXAMPLE vociferous

24. *ambulo* _____

EXAMPLE somnambulist

25. *somnus* _____

EXAMPLE somnolent

II—more etymology

ROOT MEANING

1. *phanein* _____

EXAMPLE sycophant

2. *vir* _____

EXAMPLE virago

3. *pater, patris* _____

EXAMPLE patricide

4. *onyma* _____

EXAMPLE synonym

5. *homos* _____

EXAMPLE homonym

6. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE homophone

7. *archein* _____

EXAMPLE matriarch

8. *mater, matris* _____

EXAMPLE matron

9. *caedo* (*-cide*) _____

EXAMPLE suicide

10. *homo* _____

EXAMPLE homicide

11. *uxor* _____

EXAMPLE uxorious

12. *maritus* _____

EXAMPLE mariticide

13. *pyros* _____

EXAMPLE pyromania

14. *theos* _____

EXAMPLE atheist

15. *vivo* _____

EXAMPLE viviparous

16. *credo* _____

EXAMPLE credulous

17. *pungo* _____

EXAMPLE pungency

18. *unus* _____

EXAMPLE unanimous

19. *trepido* _____

EXAMPLE intrepid

20. *scintilla* _____

EXAMPLE scintillate

21. *urbs* _____

EXAMPLE urbanity

22. *rus, ruris* _____

EXAMPLE rural, rustic

23. *gnosis* _____

EXAMPLE prognosis

24. *pan* _____

EXAMPLE pantheism

25. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omniscient

III—same or opposite?

1. disparage—praise
   S *O*
2. proscribe—prohibit
   S *O*
3. placate—irritate

S *O*

4. taciturn—talkative
   S *O*
5. cogent—brilliant
   S *O*
6. atheistic—religious
   S *O*
7. convivial—unfriendly
   S *O*
8. ingenuous—naïve
   S *O*
9. perspicacious—keen-minded
   S *O*
10. intrepid—fearful
    S *O*
11. malign—praise
    S *O*
12. inarticulate—verbal
    S *O*
13. verbose—laconic
    S *O*
14. tyro—virtuoso
    S *O*
15. megalomania—modesty
    S *O*
16. satyriasis—nymphomania
    S *O*
17. claustrophobia—agoraphobia
    S *O*
18. indefatigability—tirelessness
    S *O*
19. credulous—skeptical
    S *O*

20. animosity—hostility
S *O*

IV—matching

1. is lewd and lustful	a. chauvinist
2. caters to the rich	b. sycophant
3. is an accomplished musician	c. dilettante
4. sneers at traditions	d. iconoclast
5. is the mother-ruler of a family tribe, or nation	e. lecher
6. has an irresistable urge to steal	f. tyro
7. is excessively patriotic	g. virtuoso
8. is a loud-mouthed woman	h. termagant
9. is a beginner	i. matriarch
10. is a dabbler	j. kleptomaniac

V—more matching

1. does not know whether or not God exists	a. dipsomaniac
2. is a criminal	b. pyromaniac
3. is a connoisseur of good food	c. agnostic
4. sets fires for revenge	d. hypochondriac

5. meets adversity or pain without flinching	e. gourmet
6. walks in his sleep	f. stoic
7. is obsessively addicted to drink	g. malefactor
8. has imaginary ailments	h. somnambulist
9. compulsively sets fires	i. nymphomaniac
10. is a woman who is sexually insatiable	j. incendiary

VI—recall a word

1. to make unnecessary
    1. O_____
2. to flatter fulsomely
    2. A_____
3. to spread slander about
    3. M_____
4. economical in speech
    4. L_____
5. trite and hackneyed
    5. B_____
6. word for word
    6. V_____
7. killing of masses of people
    7. G_____
8. inheritance from one's father
    8. P_____
9. belief in many gods

9. P_____

10. a person aggressively fighting for a cause

10. M_____

11. sincere; valid; in good faith

11. B_____

F_____

12. babbling ceaselessly about trivia (*adj.*)

12. G_____

13. to speak to oneself, as in a play

13. S_____

14. masterpiece

14. M_____

O_____

15. unselfish; not revengeful

15. M_____

16. able to walk after being bedridden

16. A_____

17. inability to fall asleep

17. I_____

18. morbid fear of heights

18. A_____

19. the killing of one's brother

19. F_____

20. opposite in meaning (*adj.*)

20. A_____

21. "joy of life"

21. J_____D_____

V_____

22. to rob of life or vigor

22. D_____

23. inexperience, unsophistication

23. N_____

24. scrupulously careful in the observance of proper procedure

24. P_____

25. clear, understandable (of style or language)

25. P_____

26. wary, cautious, watchful

26. C_____

27. a backward look

27. R_____

28. all of one mind (*adj.*)

28. U_____

29. uncomplaining in face of pain, misfortune, or emotional difficulties (*adj.*)

29. S_____

30. between cities (*adj.*)

30. I_____

KEY: A correct answer counts one point. Score your points for each part of the test, then add for a total.

I

1–to write, 2–equal, 3–bad, evil, 4–to say or tell, 5–to wish, 6–to do or make, 7–good, well, 8–faith, 9–to give, 10–night, 11–horse, 12–balance, pound, 13–to be silent, 14–to speak, 15–alone, 16–belly, 17–big, large, great, 18–word, 19–to roll, 20–mind, 21–back, 22–voice, 23–to bear or carry, 24–to walk, 25–sleep

Your score: _____

II

1–to show, 2–man, male, 3–father, 4–name, 5–the same, 6–sound, 7–to rule, 8–mother, 9–to kill, killing, 10–person, 11–wife, 12–husband, 13–fire, 14–God, 15–to live, 16–to believe, 17–to pierce sharply, 18–one, 19–to tremble, 20–spark, 21–city, 22–country (countryside), 23–knowledge, 24–all, 25–all

Your score: _____

III

1–O, 2–S, 3–O, 4–O, 5–S, 6–O, 7–O, 8–S, 9–S, 10–O, 11–O, 12–O, 13–O, 14–O, 15–O, 16–O, 17–O, 18–S, 19–O, 20–S

Your score: _____

IV

1–e, 2–b, 3–g, 4–d, 5–i, 6–j, 7–a, 8–h, 9–f, 10–c

Your score : _____

V

1–c, 2–g, 3–e, 4–j, 5–f, 6–h, 7–a, 8–d, 9–b, 10–i

Your score: _____

VI

1–obviate, 2–adulate, 3–malign, 4–laconic, 5–banal, 6–verbatim, 7–genocide, 8–patrimony, 9–polytheism, 10–militant, 11–bona fide, 12–garrulous, 13–soliloquize, 14–magnum opus, 15–magnanimous, 16–ambulatory, 17–insomnia, 18–acrophobia, 19–fratricide, 20–antonymous, 21–*joie de vivre*, 22–devitalize, 23–naïveté, 24–punctilious, 25–perspicuous, 26–circumspect, 27–retrospect, 28–unanimous, 29–stoical, 30–interurban

Your score: _____

Your total score: _____

Significance of Your Total Score:

100–120:	Masterly work; you are ready to move right along.
80– 99:	Good work; this review was useful to you.
65– 79:	Average work; you're getting a good deal out of your study, but perhaps you should review thoroughly after each session.
50– 64:	Barely acceptable; work harder.
35– 49:	Poor; further review is suggested before you go on.
0– 34:	You can do much better if you really try.

You might turn back for a moment to Chapter 8, in which you recorded your score on the first Comprehensive Test. Did you do better this time? Let's make a record of both scores at this point for the sake of comparison and to give you a mark to shoot at in the Comprehensive Test you will take in Chapter 17.

SCORES

Test I (Chapter 8): _____ out of 120
Test II (Chapter 13): _____ out of 120

(*End of Session 38*)

PART THREE

FINISHING WITH A FEELING OF COMPLETE SUCCESS

14

HOW TO TALK ABOUT COMMON PHENOMENA AND OCCURRENCES

(*Sessions 39–41*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What word aptly describes:
dire poverty?
emotion experienced without direct participation?
something which lasts a very short time?
an inoffensive word for an unpleasant idea?
light and easy banter?
someone who is cowlike in his stolidity?
homesickness?
harsh sound?
a meat-eating animal?
something kept secret?

SESSION 39

This world, Robert Louis Stevenson once claimed—with, I think, questionable logic—is so full of a number of things that we should all be as happy as kings.

I doubt very strongly that happiness comes from the outside, or that kings are necessarily happy. But I will go this far (and no further) with Stevenson: the world is certainly full of a number of things. For instance, poverty and misery, hospitals and insane asylums, slums and racial restrictions, cut-down forests and once fertile lands becoming progressively more arid, war and death and taxes and bumbling diplomats. I know that Stevenson had a different sort of thing in mind, for romantic poets tend to view the world through rose-tinted spectacles, but it is often necessary to counter one extreme with another—and I simply wish to set the record straight.

In this chapter we are going to discuss a number of things to be found in the world and in the minds of its inhabitants—poverty and wealth; secondhand emotions; the relativity of time; praise of various sorts; small talk and how to indulge in it; animals; longings for the past; sounds; eating habits; and many kinds and conditions of secrecy.

As you see, when you start exploring ideas, as we constantly do in these chapters, you never know what will turn up.

IDEAS

1. for want of the green stuff

There are those people who are forced (often through no fault of their own) to pursue an existence not only devoid of such luxuries as radios, television sets, sunken bathtubs, electric orange-juice squeezers, automobiles, Jacuzzis, private swimming pools, etc., but lacking also in many of the pure necessities of living—sufficient food, heated homes, hot water, vermin- and rodent-free surroundings, decent clothing, etc.

Such people live:

in *penury*

2. at least watch it

All normal people want and need love and at least a modicum of excitement in their lives—so say the psychologists. If no one loves them, and if they can find no one on whom to lavish their own love, they may often satisfy their emotional longings and needs by getting their feelings secondhand—through reading love stories, attending motion pictures, watching soap operas, etc.

These are:

vicarious feelings

3. time is fleeting

During the late winter and early spring of 1948–49, great numbers of people went practically berserk joining and forming "pyramid clubs." If you have not heard of this amazing phenomenon, I won't attempt to describe it in any of its multifarious ramifications, but the main point was that you paid two dollars, treated some people to coffee and doughnuts, and shortly thereafter (if you were gullible enough to fall for this get-rich-quick scheme) supposedly received a return of some fantastic amount like $2,064 for your investment.

For a short time, pyramid clubs were a rage—soon they had vanished from the American scene.

Anything that lasts for but a short time and leaves no trace is:

ephemeral

4. how not to call a spade…

Words are only *symbols* of things—they are not the things themselves. (This, by the way, is one of the basic tenets of semantics.) But many people identify the word and the thing so closely that they fear to use certain words that symbolize things that are unpleasant to them.

I know that this is confusing, so let me illustrate.

Words having to do with death, sex, certain portions of the anatomy, excretion, etc. are avoided by certain people.

These people prefer circumlocutions—words that "talk around" an idea or that mean or imply something but don't come right out and say so directly.

For example:

WORD	CIRCUMLOCUTION
die	expire; depart this life; pass away; leave this vale of tears
sexual intercourse	(intimate) relations; "playing house"; "shacking up"
prostitute	lady of the evening; *fille de joie;* painted woman; lady of easy virtue; *fille de nuit;* streetwalker; hooker
house of prostitution	house of ill-fame; bawdyhouse; house of ill-repute; bagnio; brothel; bordello; "house"; "massage parlor"

buttocks, behind	derrière; rear end; butt; tail
breasts	bosom; bust; curves
toilet	powder room; little girl's room; facilities; washroom; lavatory; head

The left-hand column is the direct, non-pussyfooting word. The right-hand column is made up of:

euphemisms

5. small talk

"Whenever I'm in the dumps, I get a new suit."
"Oh, so that's where you get them!"
"Lend me a dime—I want to phone one of my friends."
"Here's a quarter—call them all."
"The doctor says I have snoo in my blood!"
"Snoo? What's snoo?"
"Not a darn! What's new with you?"
"What are twins?"
"Okay, what are twins?"
"Womb mates!"
"I took a twip yesterday."
"A twip?"
"Yes, I took a twip on a twain!"
These are examples of:

badinage

6. everything but give milk

You've seen a cow contentedly munching its cud. Nothing seems capable of disturbing this animal—and the animal seems to want nothing more out of life than to lead a simple, vegetable existence.

Some people are like a cow—calm, patient, placid, phlegmatic, vegetable-like. They are:

bovine[1]

7. good old days

Do you sometimes experience a keen, almost physical, longing for associations or places of the past?

When you pass the neighborhood in which you were born and where you spent your early years, do you have a sharp, strange reaction, almost akin to mild nausea?

When you are away from home and friends and family, do pleasant remembrances crowd in on your mind to the point where your present loneliness becomes almost unbearable, and you actually feel a little sick?

This common feeling is called:

nostalgia

8. sounds that grate

Some sounds are so harsh, grating, and discordant that they offend the ear. They lack all sweetness, harmony, pleasantness. Traffic noises of a big city, electronic rock music, chalk squeaking on a blackboard….

Such blaring, ear-splitting, or spine-tingling sounds are called:

cacophonous

9. eating habits

Lions, tigers, wolves, and some other mammals subsist entirely on flesh. No spinach, salad greens, whole-wheat cereals, sugar, or spices—just good, red meat.

These mammals are:

carnivorous

10. private and public

There are certain things most of us do in private, like taking a bath. Some people like to engage in other activities in complete privacy—eating, reading, watching TV, sleeping, for example.

The point is that, while these activities may be conducted in privacy, there is never any reason for keeping them secret.

But there are other activities that are kept not only private, but well-shrouded in secrecy and concealed from public knowledge. These activities are unethical, illegal, or unsafe—like having an affair with someone whose spouse is your best friend, betraying military secrets to the enemy, trading in narcotics, bribing public officials, etc.

Arrangements, activities, or meetings that fall under this category are called:

clandestine

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *penury*	PEN′-yə-ree
2. *vicarious*	vī-KAĪR′-ee-əs
3. *ephemeral*	ə-FEM′-ə-rəl
4. *euphemism*	YOŌ′-fə-miz-əm
5. *badinage*	BAD′-ə-nəj
6. *bovine*	BŌ′-vīn′

7. *nostalgia*	nə-STAL′-jə
8. *cacophony*	kə-KOF′-ə-nee
9. *carnivorous*	kahr-NIV′-ər-əs
10. *clandestine*	klan-DES′-tin

Can you work with the words?

1. penury	a. impermanent
2. vicarious	b. banter
3. ephemeral	c. homesickness
4. euphemism	d. meat-eating
5. badinage	e. circumlocution
6. bovine	f. harsh noise
7. nostalgia	g. poverty
8. cacophony	h. secret
9. carnivorous	i. placid; stolid; cowlike
10. clandestine	j. secondhand

KEY: 1–g, 2–j, 3–a, 4–e, 5–b, 6–i, 7–c, 8–f, 9–d, 10–h

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Do wealthy people normally live in *penury?*
   YES NO
2. Is a *vicarious* thrill one that comes from direct participation?
   YES NO
3. Do *ephemeral* things last a very short time?
   YES NO
4. Is a *euphemism* the substitution of an inoffensive term for another of the same meaning that may sound offensive, vulgar, or indelicate?
   YES NO
5. Does *badinage* show lighthearted frivolity?
   YES NO
6. Are *bovine* people high-strung and nervous?
   YES NO
7. Does one get a feeling of *nostalgia* for past occurrences and relationships?
   YES NO
8. Is *cacophony* pleasant and musical?
   YES NO
9. Do *carnivorous* animals eat meat?
   YES NO
10. Is a *clandestine* meeting conducted in secrecy?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–yes, 10–yes

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. penury—affluence
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. vicarious—actual
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. ephemeral—eternal
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. euphemism—less offensive word
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. badinage—light, teasing talk
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. bovine—high-strung
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. nostalgia—longing for the past
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. cacophony—euphony
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. carnivorous—herbivorous
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. clandestine—hidden
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–O, 4–S, 5–S, 6–O, 7–O, 8–O, 9–O, 10–S

(The new words used in this test will be discussed in later sections of this chapter.)

Can you recall the words?

1. harsh sound
    1. C_____
2. having a short life
    2. E_____
3. dire poverty
    3. P_____
4. substitution of an indirect or pleasant word or phrase for a possibly offensive one of the same meaning
    4. E_____
5. experienced as a spectator, rather than as a participant
    5. V_____
6. acute feeling of homesickness
    6. N_____
7. light, half-teasing banter
    7. B_____
8. subsisting solely on meat
    8. C_____
9. cowlike; stolid
    9. B_____
10. secret; concealed
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–cacophony, 2–ephemeral, 3–penury, 4–euphemism, 5–vicarious, 6–nostalgia, 7–badinage, 8–carnivorous, 9–bovine, 10–clandestine

(*End of Session 39*)

SESSION 40

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. money, and what it will buy

The modern world operates largely by means of a price structure —wealth and poverty are therefore words that indicate the possession, on the one hand, or the lack, on the other, of money. *Penury*, from Latin *penuria*, need, neediness, is dire, abject poverty, complete lack of financial resources. It is one of the two strongest English words there are to denote absence of money. The adjective form, *penurious* (pə-NYʊʊr′-ee-əs *or* pə-NʊʊR′ ee-əs), strangely enough, *may* mean *poverty-stricken*, but more commonly signifies *stingy, close-fisted, niggardly;* so sparing in the use of money as to give the appearance of *penury*.

Penurious is a synonym of *parsimonious* (pahr′-sə-MŌ′-nee-əs), but is much stronger in implication. A *parsimonious* person is stingy; a *penurious* person is twice as stingy. *Penury*, then, is poverty; *penuriousness* is stinginess, excessive frugality. The noun form of *parsimonious* is *parsimony* (PAHR′-sə-mō′-nee).

A somewhat milder word than *penury* for poverty (if you can imagine a mild degree of poverty) is *indigence* (IN′-də-jəns). *Indigent* (IN′-də-jənt) people are not absolutely penniless—they are simply living in reduced circumstances, forgoing many creature comforts, forced to undergo the type of hardships that may accompany a lack of sufficient funds.

On the other hand, a close synonym of *penury*, and one of equal strength, is *destitution* (des′-tə-Tʊʊ′-shən). *Destitute* (DES′-tə-tʊʊt) people do not even have the means for mere subsistence—as such,

they are perhaps on the verge of starvation. *Penury* and *destitution* are not merely straitened circumstances—they are downright desperate circumstances.

To turn now to the brighter side of the picture, the possession of money, especially in increasing amounts, is expressed by *affluence* (AF′-lꝏ-əns). *Affluent* (AF′-lꝏ-ənt) people, people of *affluence*, or those living in *affluent* circumstances, are more than comfortable; in addition, there is the implication that their wealth is increasing. People who live in *affluence* probably own large and costly homes, run big, new cars, belong to expensive golf or country clubs, etc.

A much stronger term is *opulence* (OP′-yə-ləns), which not only implies much greater wealth than *affluence*, but in addition suggests lavish expenditures and ostentatiously luxurious surroundings. People of *opulence* own estates; drive only outrageously expensive and specially equipped cars (Rolls-Royces, Mercedes-Benzes, Porsches, etc.); have a corps of servants, including a major-domo; belong to golf and yacht and country clubs, etc., etc. Embroider the fantasy as much as you wish to. *Opulent* (OP′-yə-lənt) may describe people, surroundings, styles of life, or the like.

Affluent is a combination of the prefix *ad-*, to, toward (changing to *af-* before a root beginning with *f*), plus the Latin verb *fluo*, to flow —*affluence* is that delightful condition in which money keeps flowing to us, and no one ever turns off the spigot. Other words from the same root, *fluo*, to flow, are *fluid, influence, confluence* (a "flowing together"), *fluent* (the words flow smoothly), etc.

Opulent is from Latin *opulentus*, wealthy. No other English words derive from this root.

2. doing and feeling

If you watch a furious athletic event, and *you* get tired, though the athletes expend all the energy—that's *vicarious* fatigue.

If your friend goes on a bender, and as you watch him absorb one drink after another, *you* begin to feel giddy and stimulated, that's *vicarious* intoxication.

If you watch a mother in a motion picture or dramatic play suffer horribly at the death of her child, and *you* go through the same agony, that's *vicarious* torment.

You can experience an emotion, then, in two ways: firsthand, through actual participation; or *vicariously*, by becoming empathetically involved in another person's feelings.

Some people, for example, lead essentially dull and colorless lives. Through their children, through reading or attending the theater, however, they can experience all the emotions felt by others whose lives move along at a swift, exciting pace. These people live at second hand; they live *vicariously*.

3. time is relative

Elephants and turtles live almost forever; human beings in the United States have a life expectancy in general of sixty-eight to seventy-six years (though the gradual conquest of disease is constantly lengthening our span);[2] dogs live from seven to ten years; and some insects exist for only a few hours or days.

One such short-lived creature is the dayfly, which in Greek was called *ephemera*. Hence anything so short-lived, so unenduring that it scarcely seems to outlast the day, may be called *ephemeral*.

A synonym of *ephemeral* is *evanescent* (ev-ə-NES′-ənt), fleeting, staying for a remarkably short time, vanishing. Something intangible, like a feeling, may be called *evanescent;* it's here, and before you can quite comprehend it, it's gone—vanished.

The noun is *evanescence* (ev′-ə-NES′-əns); the verb is to *evanesce* (ev-ə-NES′).

Evanescent is built on the prefix *e-* (*ex-*), out, the root *vanesco*, to vanish, and the adjective suffix *-ent*.

The suffix *-esce* often, but not always, means *begin to*. *-Escent* may mean *becoming* or *beginning to*. Thus:

adolescent—beginning to grow up;
beginning to become an adult

evanesce—begin to vanish
convalesce—begin to get well after illness
putrescent—beginning to rot;
beginning to become putrid
obsolescent—becoming obsolete

4. an exploration of various good things

A *euphemism* is a word or expression that has been substituted for another that is likely to offend—it is built on the Greek prefix *eu-*, good, the root *pheme*, voice, and the noun suffix *-ism.* (Etymologically, "something said in a good voice!") Adjective: *euphemistic* (yo͞o′-fə-MIS′-tik)

Other English words constructed from the prefix *eu-*:

1. *euphony* (YOO′-fə-nee)—good sound; pleasant lilt or rhythm (*phone*, sound)

Adjective: *euphonic* (yo͞o-FON′-ik) or *euphonious* (yo͞o-FŌ′-nee-əs)

2. *eulogy* (Yo͞o′-lə-jee)—etymologically, "good speech"; a formal speech of praise, usually delivered as a funeral oration. *Logos* in this term means *word* or *speech*, as it did in *philology* (Chapter 6). *Logos* more commonly means *science* or *study*, but has the alternate meaning in *eulogy, philology, monologue, dialogue, epilogue* (words upon the other words, or "after-words"), and *prologue* (words before the main part, "before-words," or introduction).

Adjective: *eulogistic* (yo͞o-lə-JIS′-tik); verb: *eulogize* (Yo͞o-lə-jīz′); person who delivers a *eulogy: eulogist* (Yo͞o-lə-jist)

3. *euphoria* (yo͞o-FAWR′-ee-ə)—good feeling, a sense of mental buoyancy and physical well-being

Adjective: *euphoric* (yo͞o-FAWR′-ik)

4. *euthanasia* (yo͞o′-thə-NAY′-zhə)—etymologically, "good death"; method of painless death inflicted on people suffering from incurable diseases—not legal at the present time, but advocated by many people. The word derives from *eu-* plus Greek *thanatos*, death.

5. exploration of modes of expression

Badinage is a half-teasing, non-malicious, frivolous banter, intended to amuse rather than wound. *Badinage* has a close synonym, *persiflage* (PUR′-sə-flahzh′), which is a little more derisive, a trifle more indicative of contempt or mockery—but still totally unmalicious.

In line with *badinage* and *persiflage*, there are four other forms of expression you should be familiar with: *cliché* (klee-SHAY′), *bromide* (BRŌ′-mīd′), *platitude* (PLAT′-ə-tood), and *anodyne* (AN′-ə-dīn′).

A *cliché* is a pattern of words which was once new and fresh, but which now is so old, worn, and threadbare that only banal, unimaginative speakers and writers ever use it. Examples are: *fast and furious; unsung heroes; by leaps and bounds; conspicuous by its absence; green with envy;* etc. The most devastating criticism you can make of a piece of writing is to say, "It is full of *clichés*"; the most pointed insult to a person's way of talking is, "You speak in *clichés.*"

A *bromide* is any trite, dull, and probably fallacious remark that shows little evidence of original thinking, and that therefore convinces a listener of the total absence of perspicacity on the part of the speaker.

For instance, some cautious, dull-minded individual might warn you not to take a chance in these words: "Remember it's better to be safe than sorry!"

Your sneering response might be: "Oh, that old *bromide!*"

A *platitude* is similar to a *cliché* or *bromide*, in that it is a dull, trite, hackneyed, unimaginative pattern of words—but, to add insult to injury (*cliché*), the speaker uses it with an air of novelty—as if he just made it up, and isn't he the brilliant fellow!

An *anodyne*, in the medical sense, is a drug that allays pain without curing an illness, like aspirin or morphine. Figuratively, an *anodyne* is a statement made to allay someone's fears or anxieties, not believed by the speaker, but intended to be believed by the listener. "Prosperity is just around the corner" was a popular *anodyne* of the 1930s.

A *bromide* is also a drug, formerly used as a sedative. Sedatives dull the senses—the statement labeled a *bromide* comes from a speaker of dull wit and has a sedative effect on the listener. The adjective is *bromidic* (brō-MID′-ik), as in "his *bromidic* way of expressing himself."

Platitude derives from Greek *platys*, broad or flat, plus the noun suffix *-tude*. Words like *plateau* (flat land), *plate* and *platter* (flat dishes), and *platypus* (flat foot) all derive from the same root as *platitude*, a flat statement, i.e., one that falls flat, despite the speaker's high hopes for it. The adjective is *platitudinous* (plat′-ə-T[illegible] -də-nəs), as in, "What a *platitudinous* remark."

Anodyne is a combination of the negative prefix *an-* with Greek *odyne*, pain. *Anodynes*, as drugs, lessen pain; as statements, they are intended to reduce or eliminate emotional pain or anxiety.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *penuria*	need, neediness
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *ad-* (*af-*)	to, toward
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *fluo*	to flow
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *opulentus*	wealthy
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *ephemera*	dayfly
ENGLISH WORD _____	

6. *e-, ex-* out

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *vanesco* to vanish

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *-esce* begin to

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *-ence* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *eu-* good

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *pheme* voice

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ism* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *phone* sound

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *logos* word, speech

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *-ize* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *thanatos* death

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *platys* broad or flat

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *an-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *odyne* pain

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *penurious*	pə-NYʊʊR′-ee-əs *or* pə-NʊʊR′-ee-əs
2. *penuriousness*	pə-NYʊʊR′-ee-əs-nəs *or* pə-NʊʊR′-ee-əs-nəs
3. *parsimonious*	pahr′-sə-MŌ′-nee-əs
4. *parsimony*	PAHR′-sə-mō′-nee
5. *indigence*	IN′-də-jəns
6. *indigent*	IN′-də-jənt

7. *destitution* des′-tə-TOO′-shən
8. *destitute* DES′-tə-toot
9. *affluence* AF′-loo-əns
10. *affluent* AF′-loo-ənt
11. *opulence* OP′-yə-ləns
12. *opulent* OP′-yə-lənt

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *evanescent* ev′-ə-NES′-ənt
2. *evanescence* ev′-ə-NES′-əns
3. *evanesce* ev′-ə-NES′
4. *euphemistic* yoo-fə-MIS′-tik
5. *euphony* YOO′-fə-nee
6. *euphonic* yoo-FON′-ik
7. *euphonious* yoo-FŌ′-nee-əs
8. *eulogy* YOO′-lə-jee
9. *eulogistic* yoo′-lə-JIS′-tik
10. *eulogize* YOO′-lə-jīz′

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *euphoria* yoo-FAWR′-ee-ə
2. *euphoric* yoo-FAWR′-ik

3. *euthanasia*	yo͞o′-thə-NAY′-zha
4. *persiflage*	PUR′-sə-flahzh′
5. *cliché*	klee-SHAY′
6. *bromide*	BRŌ′-mīd′
7. *bromidic*	brō-MID′-ik
8. *platitude*	PLAT′-ə-to͞od
9. *platitudinous*	plat′-ə-TOO′-də-nəs
10. *anodyne*	AN′-ə-dīn′

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. penurious	a. poor; of limited means
2. indigent	b. inoffensive
3. affluent	c. flat, trite
4. evanescent	d. feeling tiptop
5. euphemistic	e. wealthy
6. euphonious	f. pleasant in sound
7. euphoric	g. stingy; tight-fisted
8. platitudinous	h. fleeting

KEY: 1–g, 2–a, 3–e, 4–h, 5–b, 6–f, 7–d, 8–c

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. parsimony	a. lavish luxury
2. destitution	b. painless death
3. opulence	c. pleasant sound
4. evanescence	d. trite remark
5. euphony	e. impermanence
6. euphoria	f. feeling of well-being
7. euthanasia	g. stinginess
8. platitude	h. poverty

KEY: 1–g, 2–h, 3–a, 4–e, 5–c, 6–f, 7–b, 8–d

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. anodyne	a. light, teasing banter
2. bromide	b. tightfistedness
3. persiflage	c. statement intended to allay anxiety
4. eulogy	d. poverty, want
5. penuriousness	e. high, formal praise
6. indigence	f. wealth
7. affluence	g. trite statement

KEY: 1–c, 2–g, 3–a, 4–e, 5–b, 6–d, 7–f

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. parsimonious	a. begin to vanish
2. destitute	b. stingy, frugal
3. opulent	c. highly praising
4. vicarious	d. hackneyed phrase
5. euphonic	e. ostentatiously wealthy
6. eulogistic	f. stilted in expression
7. evanesce	g. pleasant-sounding
8. eulogize	h. in want
9. bromidic	i. secondhand
10. cliché	j. praise

KEY: 1–b, 2–h, 3–e, 4–i, 5–g, 6–c, 7–a, 8–j, 9–f, 10–d

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Do *penurious* people satisfy their extravagant desires?
   YES NO
2. Is *penuriousness* the characteristic of a miser?
   YES NO
3. If you are *parsimonious* with praise, do you lavish it on others?
   YES NO
4. Are people with extremely low incomes forced to live a life of *parsimony?*
   YES NO
5. Is *indigence* a sign of wealth?
   YES NO
6. Are *indigent* people often aided by state welfare?
   YES NO
7. If you live in a state of *destitution*, do you have all the money you need?
   YES NO
8. Is a completely *destitute* person likely to have to live in want?
   YES NO
9. Does a person of *affluence* generally have petty money worries?
   YES NO
10. Are *opulent* surroundings indicative of great wealth?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–yes, 5–no, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–no, 10–yes

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. Can you engage in *vicarious* exploits by reading spy novels?
   YES NO
2. Does an *evanescent* feeling remain for a considerable time?
   YES NO
3. Do parents generally indulge in *euphemisms* in front of young children?
   YES NO
4. Is poetry generally *euphonious?*
   YES NO
5. Does a sincere *eulogy* indicate one's feeling of admiration?
   YES NO
6. Is *euphoria* a feeling of malaise?
   YES NO
7. Is *euthanasia* practiced on animals?
   YES NO
8. Is *persiflage* an indication of seriousness?
   YES NO
9. Does a liberal use of *clichés* show original thinking?
   YES NO
10. Is an *anodyne* intended to relieve fears?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–yes, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Do you understand the words? (III)

1. Is a *platitude* flat and dull?

   YES NO

2. If a person uses *bromides*, is he likely to be an interesting conversationalist?

   YES NO

3. If you indulge in *persiflage*, are you being facetious?

   YES NO

4. Are the works of Beethoven considered *euphonious?*

   YES NO

5. Can parents receive a *vicarious* thrill from their children's triumphs?

   YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. a statement, usually untrue, meant to alleviate fear
    1. A_____
2. light banter
    2. P_____
3. a hackneyed phrase
    3. C_____
4. fleeting—lasting a very short time (*adj.*)
    4. E_____
5. laudatory—delivered in tones of formal praise (*adj.*)
    5. E_____
6. process of painlessly putting to death a victim of an incurable disease
    6. E_____
7. stingy (*adj.*)
    7. P_____
    or P_____
8. in want (*adj.*)
    8. D_____
9. wealth
    9. A_____
10. immense wealth
    10. O_____
11. adverb describing the manner of responding empathetically to another's acts
    11. V_____
12. stinginess (*noun*)

12. P_____
or P_____

13–14. poverty
13. I_____
14. D_____

15. impermanence
15. E_____

16. pleasing sound
16. E_____

17. substituting inoffensive words (*adj.*)
17. E_____

18. sense of well-being
18. E_____

19. trite remark
19. B_____

20. banal remark
20. P_____

21. begin to vanish (v.)
21. E_____

22. poverty-stricken (*adj.*)
22. I_____

23–24. wealthy (two *adjs.*)
23. A_____
24. O_____

25. feeling tiptop (*adj.*)
25. E_____

26. pleasant in sound (*adj.*)
26. E_____
or E_____

27. formal praise
27. E_____

28. trite (*adj.*)
28. B_____

29. flat, dull (*adj.*)
    29. P_____
30. to praise
    30. E_____

KEY: 1–anodyne, 2–persiflage, 3–cliché, 4–evanescent, 5–eulogistic, 6–euthanasia, 7–parsimonious *or* penurious, 8–destitute, 9–affluence, 10–opulence, 11–vicariously, 12–parsimony *or* penuriousness, 13–indigence, 14–destitution, 15–evanescence, 16–euphony, 17–euphemistic, 18–euphoria, 19–bromide, 20–platitude, 21–evanesce, 22–indigent, 23–affluent, 24–opulent, 25–euphoric, 26–euphonic *or* euphonious, 27–eulogy, 28–bromidic, 29–platitudinous, 30–eulogize

(*End of Session 40*)

SESSION 41

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. people are the craziest animals

Bovine, placid like a cow, stolid, patient, unexcitable, is built on the Latin word for *ox* or *cow, bovis*, plus the suffix *-ine*, like, similar to, or characteristic of. To call someone *bovine* is of course far from complimentary, for this adjective is considerably stronger than *phlegmatic*, and implies a certain mild contempt on the part of the speaker. A *bovine* person is somewhat like a vegetable: eats and grows and lives, but apparently is lacking in any strong feelings.

Humans are sometimes compared to animals, as in the following adjectives:

1. *leonine* (LEE′-ə-nīn′)—like a lion in appearance or temperament.
2. *canine* (KAY′-nīn′)—like a dog. As a noun, the word refers to the species to which dogs belong. Our *canine* teeth are similar to those of a dog.
3. *feline* (FEE′-līn′)—catlike. We may speak of *feline* grace; or (insultingly) of *feline* temperament when we mean that a person is "catty."
4. *porcine* (PAWR′-sīn′)—piglike.
5. *vulpine* (VUL′-pīn′)—foxlike in appearance or temperament. When applied to people, this adjective usually indicates the shrewdness of a fox.
6. *ursine* (UR′-sīn′)—bearlike.
7. *lupine* (LOO′-pīn)—wolflike.
8. *equine* (EE′-kwīn′)—horselike; "horsy."
9. *piscine* (PIS′-īn′)—fishlike.

All these adjectives come from the corresponding Latin words for the animals; and, of course, each adjective also describes, or refers to, the specific animal as well as to the person likened to the animal.

1. *leo* lion
2. *canis* dog
3. *felis* cat
4. *porcus* pig
5. *vulpus* fox
6. *ursus* bear
7. *lupus* wolf
8. *equus* horse
9. *piscis* fish

The word for meat from a pig—*pork*—derives, obviously, from *porcus. Ursa Major* and *Ursa Minor*, the *Great Bear* and the *Little Bear*, the two conspicuous groups of stars in the northern sky (conspicuous, of course, only on a clear night), are so labeled because in formation they resemble the outlines of bears. The feminine name *Ursula* is, by etymology, "a little bear," which, perhaps, is a strange name to burden a child with. The skin disease *lupus* was so named because it eats into the flesh, as a wolf might.

2. you can't go home again

Nostalgia, built on two Greek roots, *nostos*, a return, and *algos*, pain (as in *neuralgia, cardialgia*, etc.), is a feeling you can't ever understand until you've experienced it—and you have probably experienced it whenever some external stimulus has crowded your mind with scenes from an earlier day.

You know how life often seems much pleasanter in retrospect? Your conscious memory tends to store up the pleasant experiences

of the past (the trauma and unpleasant experiences may get buried in the unconscious), and when you are lonely or unhappy you may begin to relive these pleasant occurrences. It is then that you feel the emotional pain and longing that we call *nostalgia.*

The adjective is *nostalgic* (nos-TAL′-jik), as in "motion pictures that are *nostalgic* of the fifties," or as in, "He feels *nostalgic* whenever he passes 138th Street and sees the house in which he grew up."

3. soundings

Cacophony is itself a harsh-sounding word—and is the only one that exactly describes the unmusical, grating, ear-offending noises you are likely to hear in man-made surroundings: the New York subway trains thundering through their tunnels (they are also, these days in the late 1970s, eye-offending, for which we might coin the term *cacopsis*, noun, and *cacoptic*, adjective), the traffic bedlam of rush hours in a big city, a steel mill, an automobile factory, a blast furnace, etc. Adjective: *cacophonous* (kə-KOF′-ə-nəs).

These words are built on the Greek roots *kakos*, bad, harsh, or ugly, and *phone*, sound.

Phone, sound, is found also in:

1. *telephone*—etymologically, "sound from afar"
2. *euphony*—pleasant sound
3. *phonograph*—etymologically, "writer of sound"
4. *saxophone*—a musical instrument (hence *sound*) invented by Adolphe Sax
5. *xylophone*—a musical instrument; etymologically, "sounds through wood" (Greek *xylon*, wood)
6. *phonetics* (fə-NET′-iks)—the science of the sounds of language; the adjective is *phonetic* (fə-NET′-ik), the expert a *phonetician* (fō′-nə-TISH′-ən)
7. *phonics*—the science of sound; also the method of teaching reading by drilling the sounds of letters and syllables

4. the flesh and all

Carnivorous combines *carnis*, flesh, and *voro*, to devour. A *carnivorous* animal, or *carnivore* (KAHR′-nə-vawr′), is one whose main diet is meat.

Voro, to devour, is the origin of other words referring to eating habits:

1. *herbivorous* (hur-BIV′-ər-əs)—subsisting on grains, grasses, and other vegetation, as cows, deer, horses, etc. The animal is a *herbivore* (HUR′-bə-vawr′). Derivation: Latin *herba*, herb, plus *voro*, to devour

2. *omnivorous* (om-NIV′-ər-əs)—eating everything: meat, grains, grasses, fish, insects, and anything else digestible. The only species so indiscriminate in their diet are humans and rats, plus, of course, some cats and dogs that live with people (in contrast to *felines* and *canines*—lions, tigers, bobcats, wolves, etc.—that are not domesticated). *Omnivorous* (combining Latin *omnis*, all, with *voro*, plus the adjective suffix *-ous*) refers not only to food. An *omnivorous* reader reads everything in great quantities (that is, devours *all* kinds of reading matter).

3. *voracious* (vaw-RAY′-shəs)—*devouring;* hence, greedy or gluttonous; may refer either to food or to any other habits. One may be a *voracious* eater, *voracious* reader, *voracious* in one's pursuit of money, pleasure, etc. Think of the two noun forms of *loquacious.* Can you write two nouns derived from *voracious?* (1) _____, (2) _____.

5. "allness"

Latin *omnis*, all, is the origin of:

1. *omnipotent* (om-NIP′-ə-tənt)—all-powerful, an adjective usually applied to God; also, to any ruler whose governing powers are unlimited, which allows for some exaggeration, as King Canute the Great proved to his sycophantic courtiers when he ordered the tide to come so far up the beach and no further. He got soaking wet! (*Omnis* plus Latin *potens, potentis*, powerful, as in *potentate*, a

powerful ruler; *impotent* (IM′-pə-tənt), powerless; *potent*, powerful; and *potential*, possessing power or ability not yet exercised). Can you write the noun form of *omnipotent?*

2. *omniscient* (om-NISH′-ənt)—all-knowing: hence, infinitely wise. (*Omnis* plus *sciens*, knowing.) We have discussed this adjective in a previous chapter, so you will have no problem writing the noun: _____.

3. *omnipresent* (om′-nə-PREZ′-ənt)—present in all places at once. Fear was *omnipresent* in Europe during 1939 just before World War II. A synonym of *omnipresent* is *ubiquitous* (yoo-BIK′-wə-təs), from Latin *ubique*, everywhere. The *ubiquitous* ice cream vendor seems to be *everywhere* at the same time, tinkling those little bells, once spring arrives. The *ubiquitous* little red wagon rides around *everywhere* in airports to refuel departing planes. "*Ubiquitous* laughter greeted the press secretary's remark," i.e., laughter was heard *everywhere* in the room. The noun forms are *ubiquity* (yoo-BIK′-wə-tee) or _____. (Can you think of the alternate form?)

4. *omnibus* (OM′-nə-bəs)—etymologically, "for all, including all." In the shortened form *bus* we have a public vehicle for *all* who can pay; in a John Galsworthy *omnibus* we have a book containing *all* of Galsworthy's works; in an *omnibus* legislative bill we have a bill containing *all* the miscellaneous provisions and appropriations left out of other bills.

6. more flesh

Note how *carnis*, flesh, is the building block of:

1. *carnelian* (kahr-NEEL′-yən)—a reddish color, the color of red *flesh.*

2. *carnival* (KAHR′-nə-vəl)—originally the season of merrymaking just before Lent, when people took a last fling before saying *"Carne vale!"* "Oh *flesh*, farewell!" (Latin *vale*, farewell, goodbye). Today a *carnival* is a kind of outdoor entertainment with games, rides, side

shows, and, of course, lots of food—also any exuberant or riotous merrymaking or festivities.

3. *carnal* (KAHR′-nəl)—most often found in phrases like "*carnal* pleasures" or "*carnal* appetites," and signifying pleasures or appetites of the *flesh* rather than of the spirit—hence, sensual, lecherous, lascivious, lubricious, etc. The noun is *carnality* (kahr-NAL′-ə-tee).

4. *carnage* (KAHR′-nəj)—great destruction of life (that is, of human *flesh*), as in war or mass murders.

5. *reincarnation* (ree′-in-kahr-NAY′-shən)—a rebirth or reappearance. Believers in *reincarnation* maintain that one's soul persists after it has fled the *flesh*, and eventually reappears in the body of a newborn infant or animal, or in another form. Some of us, according to this interesting philosophy, were once Napoleon, Alexander the Great, Cleopatra, etc. The verb is to *reincarnate* (ree-in-KAHR′-nayt), to bring (a soul) back in another bodily form.

6. *incarnate* (in-KAHR′-nət)—in the *flesh.* If we use this adjective to call someone "the devil *incarnate*," we mean that here is the devil in the *flesh.* Or we may say that someone is evil *incarnate*, that is, the personification of evil, evil invested with human or bodily form. The verb to *incarnate* (in-KAHR′-nayt) is to embody, give bodily form to, or make real.

7. dark secrets

Clandestine comes from Latin *clam*, secretly, and implies secrecy or concealment in the working out of a plan that is dangerous or illegal. *Clandestine* is a close synonym of *surreptitious* (sur′-əp-TISH′-əs), which means *stealthy, sneaky, furtive*, generally because of fear of detection.

The two words cannot always, however, be used interchangeably. We may speak of either *clandestine* or *surreptitious* meetings or arrangements; but usually only of *clandestine* plans and only of

surreptitious movements or actions. Can you write the noun form of *surreptitious?* _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *-ine*	like, similar to, characteristic of
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *leo*	lion
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *felis*	cat
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *porcus*	pig
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *canis*	dog
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *vulpus*	fox
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *ursus*	bear
ENGLISH WORD _____	
8. *lupus*	wolf
ENGLISH WORD _____	
9. *equus*	horse
ENGLISH WORD _____	

10. *piscis* fish

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *nostos* a return

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *algos* pain

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *kakos* bad, harsh, ugly

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *phone* sound

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *xylon* wood

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *carnis* flesh

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *voro* to devour

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *herba* herb

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *omnis* all

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

22. *potens, potentis* powerful

ENGLISH WORD _____

23. *sciens* knowing

ENGLISH WORD _____

24. *ubique* everywhere

ENGLISH WORD _____

25. *-ity* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

26. *vale* farewell

ENGLISH WORD _____

27. *-al* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

28. *re-* again, back

ENGLISH WORD _____

29. *-ate* verb suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

30. *in-* in

ENGLISH WORD _____

31. *clam* secretly

ENGLISH WORD _____

32. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

33. *-ence* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *leonine* LEE′-ə-nīn′
2. *canine* KAY′-nīn′
3. *feline* FEE′-līn′
4. *porcine* PAWR′-sīn′
5. *vulpine* VUL′-pīn′
6. *ursine* UR′-sīn′
7. *lupine* LOO′-pīn′
8. *equine* EE′-kwīn′
9. *piscine* PIS′-īn′
10. *nostalgic* nos-TAL′-jik

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *cacophonous* kə-KOF′-ə-nəs
2. *phonetics* fə-NET′-iks
3. *phonetic* fə-NET′-ik
4. *phonetician* fō-nə-TISH′-ən

5. *carnivore*	KAHR′-nə-vawr′
6. *herbivore*	HUR′-bə-vawr′
7. *herbivorous*	hur-BIV′-ər-əs
8. *omnivorous*	om-NIV′-ər-əs
9. *voracious*	vaw-RAY′-shəs
10. *voracity*	vaw-RAS′-ə-tee
11. *omnipotent*	om-NIP′-ə-tənt
12. *impotent*	IM′-pə-tənt
13. *impotence*	IM′-pə-təns
14. *omnipotence*	om-NIP′-ə-təns

Can you pronounce the words? (III)

1. *omniscient*	om-NISH′-ənt
2. *omniscience*	om-NISH′-əns
3. *omnipresent*	om′-nə-PREZ′-ənt
4. *omnipresence*	om′-nə-PREZ′-əns
5. *ubiquitous*	yo͞o-BIK′-wə-təs
6. *ubiquity*	yo͞o-BIK′-wə-tee
7. *ubiquitousness*	yo͞o-BIK′-wə-təs-nəs
8. *omnibus*	OM′-nə-bəs

Can you pronounce the words? (IV)

1. *carnelian*	kahr-NEEL′-yən
2. *carnal*	KAHR′-nəl
3. *carnality*	kahr-NAL′-ə-tee
4. *carnage*	KAHR′-nəj
5. *reincarnation*	ree′-in-kahr-NAY′-shən
6. *reincarnate* (v.)	ree′-in-KAHR′-nayt
7. *incarnate* (*adj.*)	in-KAHR′-nət
8. *incarnate* (*v.*)	in-KAHR′-nayt
9. *surreptitious*	sur′-əp-TISH′-əs
10. *surreptitiousness*	sur′-əp-TISH′-əs-nəs

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. leonine	a. doglike
2. canine	b. greedy, devouring
3. feline	c. foxlike
4. porcine	d. all-powerful
5. vulpine	e. stealthy, clandestine
6. ursine	f. lionlike
7. voracious	g. all-knowing
8. omnipotent	h. bearlike
9. omniscient	i. catlike
10. surreptitious	j. piglike

KEY: 1–f, 2–a, 3–i, 4–j, 5–c, 6–h, 7–b, 8–d, 9–g, 10–e

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. nostalgic	a. harsh-sounding
2. cacophonous	b. eating everything
3. herbivorous	c. lewd, lecherous, lubricious
4. omnivorous	d. found everywhere
5. ubiquitous	e. homesick
6. carnal	f. grass-eating
7. incarnate	g. in the flesh

KEY: 1–e, 2–a, 3–f, 4–b, 5–d, 6–c, 7–g

Can you work with the words? (III)

1. phonetics	a. universality
2. carnivore	b. a color
3. voracity	c. infinite power
4. omnipotence	d. furtiveness; stealth; sneakiness
5. omniscience	e. lechery, lasciviousness, lubricity
6. omnipresence	f. infinite wisdom
7. omnibus	g. science of speech sounds
8. carnelian	h. slaughter
9. carnality	i. a collection of all things
10. carnage	j. greediness
11. surreptitiousness	k. meat-eater
12. reincarnation	1. a return to life in a new body or form

KEY: 1–g, 2–k, 3–j, 4–c, 5–f, 6–a, 7–i, 8–b, 9–e, 10–h, 11–d, 12–l

Can you work with the words? (IV)

1. lupine	a. fishlike
2. equine	b. powerless
3. piscine	c. wolflike
4. phonetician	d. bring back into a new body or form
5. impotent	e. occurrence, or existence, everywhere
6. ubiquity	f. horselike
7. reincarnate (v.)	g. expert in speech sounds
8. incarnate (v.)	h. embody; make real; put into bodily form

KEY: 1–c, 2–f, 3–a, 4–g, 5–b, 6–e, 7–d, 8–h

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. A person of *leonine* appearance looks like a tiger.
   TRUE FALSE
2. *Canine* habits refers to the habits of dogs.
   TRUE FALSE
3. *Feline* grace means catlike grace.
   TRUE FALSE
4. *Porcine* appearance means wolflike appearance.
   TRUE FALSE
5. *Vulpine* craftiness means foxlike craftiness.
   TRUE FALSE
6. *Ursine* means bearlike.
   TRUE FALSE
7. *Nostalgic* feelings refer to a longing for past experiences.
   TRUE FALSE
8. *Cacophonous* music is pleasant and sweet.
   TRUE FALSE
9. An elephant is a *carnivore.*
   TRUE FALSE
10. Deer are *herbivorous.*
    TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–T, 3–T, 4–F, 5–T, 6–T, 7–T, 8–F, 9–F, 10–T

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. An *omnivorous* reader does very little reading.
   TRUE FALSE
2. A *voracious* eater is gluttonous.
   TRUE FALSE
3. True *omnipotence* is unattainable by human beings.
   TRUE FALSE
4. No one is *omniscient.*
   TRUE FALSE
5. Fear of economic ruin was practically *omnipresent* in the early nineteen-thirties.
   TRUE FALSE
6. When an airplane lands for refueling, the *ubiquitous* little red gasoline wagon comes rolling up.
   TRUE FALSE
7. An author's *omnibus* contains all his published writings.
   TRUE FALSE
8. *Carnelian* is a deep blue color.
   TRUE FALSE
9. *Carnality* is much respected in a puritanical society.
   TRUE FALSE
10. There is considerable *carnage* in war.
    TRUE FALSE
11. A *surreptitious* glance is meant to be conspicuous.
    TRUE FALSE
12. A person who is evil *incarnate* is a vicious character.

TRUE FALSE

KEY: 1–F, 2–T, 3–T, 4–T, 5–T, 6–T, 7–T, 8–F, 9–F, 10–T, 11–F, 12–T

Can you recall the words?

I—adverbs

1–2. secretly (two forms)
   1. C_____
   2. S_____
3. in a harsh and noisy manner
   3. C_____
4. in a homesick manner
   4. N_____
5. in a greedy, devouring manner
   5. V_____

KEY: 1–clandestinely, 2–surreptitiously, 3–cacophonously, 4–nostalgically, 5–voraciously

II—nouns

1. greediness
    1. V_____
2. unlimited power
    2. O_____
3. infinite knowledge
    3. O_____
4. a gathering of all things
    4. O_____
5. lechery; indulgence in fleshly pleasures
    5. C_____
6. slaughter
    6. C_____
7. stealthiness; secretiveness
    7. S_____
8. harsh sound
    8. C_____
9. science of speech sounds
    9. P_____
10. a return to life in new form
    10. R_____

KEY: 1–voracity, 2–omnipotence, 3–omniscience, 4–omnibus, 5–carnality, 6–carnage, 7–surreptitiousness, 8–cacophony, 9–phonetics, 10–reincarnation

III—adjectives

1. lionlike
    1. L_____
2. doglike
    2. C_____
3. catlike
    3. F_____
4. cowlike
    4. B_____
5. foxlike
    5. V_____
6. bearlike
    6. U_____
7. homesick
    7. N_____
8. grating in sound
    8. C_____
9. meat-eating
    9. C_____
10. grass-eating
    10. H_____
11. all-eating; indiscriminate
    11. O_____
12. devouring; greedy
    12. V_____

13. in the flesh

13. I_____

KEY: 1–leonine, 2–canine, 3–feline, 4–bovine, 5–vulpine, 6–ursine, 7–nostalgic, 8–cacophonous, 9–carnivorous, 10–herbivorous, 11–omnivorous, 12–voracious, 13–incarnate

IV. more adjectives

1. all-powerful
   1. O_____
2. all-knowing
   2. O_____
3. present or existing everywhere
   3. O_____
4. found everywhere
   4. U_____
5. lewd, lascivious, lecherous
   5. C_____
6. secret
   6. C_____

KEY: 1–omnipotent, 2–omniscient, 3–omnipresent, 4–ubiquitous, 5–carnal, 6–clandestine

V. final mop-up

1. wolflike
    1. L_____
2. horselike
    2. E_____
3. fishlike
    3. P_____
4. referring to speech sounds
    4. P_____
5. expert in speech sounds
    5. P_____
6. powerless
    6. I_____

7–8. existence everywhere
    7. U_____
    or U_____
    8. O_____

9. to bring back into another body or form
    9. R_____

10. to embody, make real, or put into bodily form
    10. I_____

KEY: 1–lupine, 2–equine, 3–piscine, 4–phonetic, 5–phonetician, 6–impotent, 7–ubiquity *or* ubiquitousness, 8–omnipresence, 9–reincarnate, 10–incarnate

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Utter want:
   (a) affluence, (b) opulence, (c) penury
2. Experienced secondhand:
   (a) ephemeral, (b) vicarious, (c) evanescent
3. Inoffensive circumlocution:
   (a) badinage, (b) persiflage, (c) euphemism
4. Homesick:
   (a) nostalgic, (b) bromide, (c) clandestine
5. Meat-eating:
   (a) herbivorous, (b) voracious, (c) carnivorous
6. Stingy:
   (a) indigent, (b) parsimonious, (c) opulent
7. Extreme financial need:
   (a) destitution, (b) affluence, (c) parsimony
8. Great and increasing wealth:
   (a) penuriousness, (b) affluence, (c) omnipresence
9. Remaining for a short time:
   (a) euphemistic, (b) evanescent, (c) eulogistic
10. Sweet-sounding:
    (a) euphonious, (b) cacophonous, (c) euphoric
11. Praise glowingly:

(a) evanesce, (b) eulogize, (c) reincarnate

12. Sense of physical well-being:
    (a) euthanasia, (b) euphoria, (c) persiflage
13. Hackneyed expression:
    (a) anodyne, (b) badinage, (c) cliché
14. catlike:
    (a) leonine, (b) feline, (c) canine
15. Bearlike:
    (a) vulpine, (b) ursine, (c) porcine
16. All-knowing:
    (a) omnipotent, (b) omniscient, (c) omnipresent
17. Found everywhere:
    (a) ubiquitous, (b) omnivorous, (c) omnibus
18. Destruction:
    (a) carnage, (b) carnality, (c) reincarnation
19. Stealthy:
    (a) voracious, (b) surreptitious, (c) incarnate

KEY: 1–c, 2–b, 3–c, 4–a, 5–c, 6–b, 7–a, 8–b, 9–b, 10–a, 11–b, 12–b, 13–c, 14–b, 15–b, 16–b, 17–a, 18–a, 19–b

B. Can you recognize roots?

MEANING	ROOT
1. *penuria*	_____
EXAMPLE penury	
2. *fluo*	_____
EXAMPLE affluent	
3. *opulentus*	_____
EXAMPLE opulent	
4. *ephemera*	_____
EXAMPLE ephemeral	
5. *vanesco*	_____
EXAMPLE evanescent	
6. *pheme*	_____
EXAMPLE euphemism	
7. *phone*	_____
EXAMPLE phonetics	
8. *logos*	_____
EXAMPLE eulogy	

9. *thanatos* _____

EXAMPLE euthanasia

10. *platys* _____

EXAMPLE platitude, platypus

11. *odyne* _____

EXAMPLE anodyne

12. *leo* _____

EXAMPLE leonine

13. *felis* _____

EXAMPLE feline

14. *porcus* _____

EXAMPLE porcine

15. *canis* _____

EXAMPLE canine

16. *vulpus* _____

EXAMPLE vulpine

17. *lupus* _____

EXAMPLE lupine

18. *equus* _____

EXAMPLE equine

19. *piscis* _____

EXAMPLE piscine

20. *nostos* _____

EXAMPLE nostalgia

21. *algos* _____

EXAMPLE nostalgic

22. *kakos* _____

EXAMPLE cacophonous

23. *xylon* _____

EXAMPLE xylophone

24. *carnis* _____

EXAMPLE carnivorous

25. *voro* _____

EXAMPLE omnivorous

26. *herba* _____

EXAMPLE herbivorous

27. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omnipotent

28. *potens, potentis* _____

EXAMPLE impotent

29. *sciens* _____

EXAMPLE omniscience

30. *ubique* _____

EXAMPLE ubiquitous

31. *vale!* _____

EXAMPLE carnival

32. *clam* _____

EXAMPLE clandestine

KEY: 1–want, neediness, 2–to flow, 3–wealthy, 4–dayfly, 5–to vanish, 6–voice, 7–sound, 8–word, speech, 9–death, 10–flat, broad, 11–pain, 12–lion, 13–cat, 14–pig, 15–dog, 16–fox, 17–wolf, 18–horse, 19–fish, 20–a return, 21–pain, 22–bad, harsh, ugly, 23–wood, 24–flesh, 25–to devour, 26–herb, 27–all, 28–powerful, 29–knowing, 30–everywhere, 31–farewell!, 32–secretly

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. American poet William Cullen Bryant wrote a poem in 1811 called *Thanatopsis.* You are familiar with both roots in the word. Can you figure out the meaning? _____.

2. If you wanted to coin a word for the study or science of death and dying, what would you come up with? _____.

3. *Pheme*, as you know from *euphemism*, means *voice.* This root derives from a Greek verb *phanai*, to speak, which, as it traveled through Latin, Old French, and Middle English, finally took on the spelling *phet-, phec-*, or *phes-*. And you recall that the Greek prefix *pro-* means *beforehand* or *ahead* (as in *prognosis, prologue*, etc.). Can you now combine elements to form a word meaning:

(a) to say beforehand; to foretell (an occurrence before it actually happens)? _____.

(b) the foretelling of such an occurrence? _____.

(c) the person who foretells?_____.

4. Can you combine a *Latin* prefix and root to form words of the same meaning?

(a) to foretell: _____.

(b) the act of foretelling: _____.

5. An eminent psychoanalyst, Richard Karpe of Connecticut, has coined the term *nostopathy* (nos-TOP′-ə-thee) for an emotional disorder he diagnosed among a number of his patients who were returning veterans of World War II and of the Korean and Vietnam wars. You know both roots in the word. Can you figure out the meaning? _____.

6. Coin a word that means:

(a) the killing of foxes: _____.

(b) the killing of wolves: _____.

(c) the killing of lions, tigers, and other cats: _____.

(d) the killing of bears: _____.

7. Figure out an adjective that means:

(a) fish-eating: _____.

(b) insect-eating: _____.

8. Have you ever wondered whether the Canary Islands were named after the Latin root *canis*, dog? They were. Large, wild dogs inhabited the area. Pretty songbirds also abounded there. What were these birds called? _____.

9. A new verb was coined some years ago, based on the Latin root *potens, potentis*, meaning (of a drug) *to make more effective or powerful; to augment the effect of another drug.* Can you figure out what this verb would be? _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*)

GETTING USED TO NEW WORDS

Reference has been made, in previous chapters, to the intimate relationship between reading and vocabulary building. Good books and the better magazines will not only acquaint you with a host of new ideas (and, therefore, new words, since every word is the verbalization of an idea), but also will help you gain a more complete and a richer understanding of the hundreds of words you are learning through your work in this book. If you have been doing a sufficient amount of stimulating reading—and that means, at

minimum, several magazines a week and at least three books of non-fiction a month—you have been meeting, constantly, over and over again, the new words you have been learning in these pages. Every such encounter is like seeing an old friend in a new place. You know how much better you understand your friends when you have a chance to see them react to new situations; similarly, you will gain a much deeper understanding of the friends you have been making among words as you see them in different contexts and in different places.

My recommendations in the past have been of non-fiction titles, but novels too are a rich source of additions to your vocabulary—provided you stay alert to the new words you will inevitably meet in reading novels.

The natural temptation, when you encounter a brand-new word in a novel, is to ignore it—the lines of the plot are perfectly clear even if many of the author's words are not.

I want to counsel strongly that you resist the temptation to ignore the unfamiliar words you may meet in your novel reading: resist it with every ounce of your energy, for only by such resistance can you keep building your vocabulary as you read.

What should you do? Don't rush to a dictionary, don't bother underlining the word, don't keep long lists of words that you will eventually look up *en masse*—these activities are likely to become painful and you will not continue them for any great length of time.

Instead, do something quite simple—and very effective.

When you meet a new word, underline it with a *mental* pencil. That is, pause for a second and attempt to figure out its meaning from its use in the sentence or from its etymological root or prefix, if it contains one you have studied. Make a mental note of it, say it aloud once or twice—and then go on reading.

That's all there is to it. What you are doing, of course, is developing the same type of mind-set toward the new word that you have developed toward the words you have studied in this book. And the results, of course, will be the same—you will begin to notice the word occurring again and again in other reading you do, and finally, having seen it in a number of varying contexts, you will

begin to get enough of its connotation and flavor to come to a fairly accurate understanding of its meaning. In this way you will be developing alertness not only to the words you have studied in this book, but to all expressive and meaningful words. And your vocabulary will keep growing.

But of course that will happen only if you keep reading.

I do not wish to recommend any particular novels or novelists, since the type of fiction one enjoys is a very personal matter. You doubtless know the kind of story you like—mystery, science fiction, spy, adventure, historical, political, romantic, Western, biographical, one or all of the above. Or you may be entranced by novels of ideas, of sexual prowess, of fantasy, of life in different segments of society from your own. No matter. Find the kind of novel or novelist *you* enjoy by browsing in the public library or among the thousands of titles in bookstores that have a rich assortment of paperbacks as well as hardbacks.

And then read! And keep on the alert for new words! You will find them by the hundreds and thousands. Bear in mind: *people with rich vocabularies have been reading omnivorously, voraciously, since childhood*—including the ingredients listed in small print on bread wrappers and cereal boxes.

(*End of Session 41*)

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[1] Remember Ogden Nash's delightful definition?

> The cow is of the bovine ilk,
>
> One end moo, the other end milk.

[2] Latest figures, 1978, for the United States: males, 68.5 years; females, 76.4 years.

Brief Intermission Eight

HOW TO SPELL A WORD

The spelling of English words is archaic, it's confusing, it's needlessly complicated, and, if you have a sense of humor, it's downright comical. In fact, any insulting epithet you might wish to level against our weird methods of putting letters together to form words would probably be justified—but it's our spelling, and we're stuck with it.

How completely stuck we are is illustrated by a somewhat ludicrous event that goes back to 1906, and that cost philanthropist Andrew Carnegie $75,000.

Working under a five-year grant of funds from Carnegie, and headed by the esteemed scholar Brander Matthews, the Simplified Spelling Board published in that year a number of recommendations for bringing some small semblance of order out of the great chaos of English spelling. Their suggestions affected a mere three hundred words out of the half million then in the language. Here are a few examples, to give you a general idea:

SPELLING THEN CURRENT	SIMPLIFIED SPELLING
mediaeval	*medieval*
doubt	*dout*
debtor	*dettor*

head	*hed*
though	*tho*
through	*thru*
laugh	*laf*
tough	*tuf*
knife	*nife*
theatre	*theater*
centre	*center*
phantom	*fantom*

These revisions seemed eminently sensible to no less a personage than the then President of the United States, Theodore Roosevelt. So delighted was he with the new garb in which these three hundred words could be clothed that he immediately ordered that all government documents be printed in simplified spelling. And the result? Such a howl went up from the good citizens of the republic, from the nation's editors and schoolteachers and businessmen, that the issue was finally debated in the halls of Congress. Almost to a man, senators and representatives stood opposed to the plan. Teddy Roosevelt, as you have doubtless heard, was a stubborn fellow—but when Congress threatened to hold up the White House stationery appropriation unless the President backed down, Teddy rescinded the order. Roosevelt ran for re-election some time later, and lost. That his attitude toward spelling contributed to his defeat is of course highly doubtful—nevertheless an opposition New York newspaper, the day the returns were in, maliciously commented on the outgoing incumbent in a one-word simplified-spelling editorial: "THRU!"

Roosevelt was not the first President to be justifiably outraged by our ridiculous orthography. Over a hundred years ago, when

Andrew Jackson was twitted on his poor spelling, he is supposed to have made this characteristic reply, "Well, sir, it is a damned poor mind that cannot think of more than one way to spell a word!" And according to one apocryphal version, it was Jackson's odd spelling that gave birth to the expression "okay." Jackson thought, so goes the story, that "all correct" was spelled "orl korrect," and he used O.K. as the abbreviation for these words when he approved state papers.

Many years ago, the British playwright George Bernard Shaw offered a dramatic proposal for reducing England's taxes. Just eliminate unnecessary letters from our unwieldy spelling, he said, and you'll save enough money in paper and printing to cut everyone's tax rate in half. Maybe it would work, but it's never been put to the test—and the way things look now, it never will be. Current practice more and more holds spelling exactly where it is, bad though it may be. It is a scientific law of language that if enough people make a "mistake," the "mistake" becomes acceptable usage. That law applies to pronunciation, to grammar, to word meanings, but not to spelling. Maybe it's because of our misbegotten faith in, and worship of, the printed word—maybe it's because written language tends to be static, while spoken language constantly changes. Whatever the cause, spelling today successfully resists every logical effort at reform. "English spelling," said Thorstein Veblen, "satisfies all the requirements of the canons of reputability under the law of conspicuous waste. It is archaic, cumbrous, and ineffective." Perfectly true. Notwithstanding, it's here to stay.

Your most erudite friend doubtless misspells the name of the Hawaiian guitar. I asked half a dozen members of the English department of a large college to spell the word—without exception they responded with *ukelele.* Yet the only accepted form is *ukulele.*

Judging from my experience with my classes at Rio Hondo College, half the population of the country must think the word is spelled *alright.* Seventy-five per cent of the members of my classes can't spell *embarrassing* or *coolly.* People will go on misspelling these

four words, but the authorized spellings will remain impervious to change.

Well, you know the one about Mohammed and the mountain. Though it's true that we have modernized spelling to a microscopic extent in the last eighty years (*traveler, center, theater, medieval, labor*, and *honor*, for example, have pretty much replaced *traveller, centre, theatre, mediaeval, labour*, and *honour*), still the resistance to change has not observably weakened. If spelling won't change, as it probably won't, those of us who consider ourselves poor spellers will have to. We'll just have to get up and go to the mountain.

Is it hard to become a good speller? I have demonstrated over and over again in my classes that anyone of normal intelligence and average educational background can become a good speller in very little time.

What makes the task so easy?

First—investigations have proved that 95 per cent of the spelling errors that educated people make occur in just one hundred words. Not only do we all misspell the same words—but we misspell them in about the same way.

Second—correct spelling relies exclusively on memory, and the most effective way to train memory is by means of association or, to use the technical term, mnemonics.

If you fancy yourself an imperfect or even a terrible speller, the chances are very great that you've developed a complex solely because you misspell some or all of the hundred words with which this Intermission deals. When you have conquered this single list, and I shall immediately proceed to demonstrate how easy it is, by means of mnemonics, to do so, 95 per cent of your spelling difficulties will in all likelihood vanish.

Let us start with twenty-five words from the list. In the first column you will find the correct spelling of each, and in the second column the simple mnemonic that will forevermore fix that correct spelling in your memory.

CORRECT SPELLING	MNEMONIC

1. all right	Two words, no matter what it means. Keep in mind that it's the opposite of *all wrong.*
2. coolly	Of course you can spell *cool*—simply add the adverbial ending -ly.
3. supersede	This is the only word in the language ending in *-sede* (the only one, mind you—there isn't a single other one so spelled).
4. succeed 5. proceed 6. exceed	The only three words in the entire language ending in *-ceed.* When you think of the three words in the order given here, the initial letters form the beginning of SPEED.
7. cede, precede, recede, etc.	All other words with a similar-sounding final syllable end in *-cede.*
8. procedure	One of the double *e*'s of *proceed* moves to the end in the noun form, *procedure.*
9. stationery	This is the word that means paper, and notice the *-er* in *paper.*
10. stationary	In this spelling, the words means standing, and notice the *-a* in *stand.*
11. recommend	*Commend*, which we all spell correctly, plus the prefix *re-*.
12. separate	Look for *a rat* in both words.
13. comparative	

14. ecstasy	to *sy* (sigh) with ecstasy
15. analyze	The only two non-technical words in
16. paralyze	the whole language ending in *-yze.*
17. repetition	First four letters identical with those in the allied form *repeat.*
18. irritable	Think of allied forms *irritate* and
19. inimitable	*imitate.*
20. absence	Think of the allied form *absent,* and you will not be tempted to misspell it *abscence.*
21. superintendent	The superintend*ent* in an apartm*ent* house collects the *rent*—thus you avoid *superintendant.*
22. conscience	*Science* plus prefix *con-*.
23. anoint	Think of *an ointment,* hence no double *n.*
24. ridiculous	Think of the allied form *ridicule,* which we usually spell correctly, thus avoiding *re*diculous.
25. despair	Again, think of another form—*desperate*—and so avoid *dis*pair.

Whether or not you have much faith in your spelling ability, you will need very little time to conquer the preceding twenty-five demons. Spend a few minutes, now, on each of those words in the list that you're doubtful of, and then test your success by means of the exercise below. Perhaps to your astonishment, you will find it easy to make a high score.

A test of your learning

Instructions: After studying the preceding list of words, fill in the missing letters correctly.

1. a_____right
2. coo_____y
3. super_____
4. suc_____
5. pro_____
6. ex_____
7. pre_____
8. proc_____dure
9. station_____ry (paper)
10. station_____ry (still)
11. sep_____rate
12. compar_____tive
13. re_____o_____end
14. ecsta_____y
15. anal_____e
16. paral_____e
17. rep_____tition
18. irrit_____ble
19. inimit_____ble
20. ab_____ence
21. superintend_____nt
22. con_____nce
23. a_____oint
24. r_____diculous
25. d_____spair

Mere repetitious drill is of no value in learning to spell a word correctly. You've probably heard the one about the youngster who was kept after school because he was in the habit of using the

ungrammatical expression "I have went." Miss X was going to cure her pupil, even if it required drastic measures. So she ordered him to write "I have gone" one thousand times. "Just leave your work on my desk before you go home," she said, "and I'll find it when I come in tomorrow morning." Well, there were twenty pages of neat script on her desk next morning, one thousand lines of "I have gone's," and on the last sheet was a note from the child. "Dear Teacher," it read, "I have done the work and I have went home." If this didn't actually happen, it logically could have, for in any drill, if the mind is not actively engaged, no learning will result. If you drive a car, or sew, or do any familiar and repetitious manual work, you know how your hands can carry on an accustomed task while your mind is far away. And if you hope to learn to spell by filling pages with a word, stop wasting your time. All you'll get for your trouble is writer's cramp.

The only way to learn to spell those words that now plague you is to devise a mnemonic for each one.

If you are never quite sure whether it's *indispensible* or *indispensable*, you can spell it out one hundred, one thousand, or one million times—and the next time you have occasion to write it in a sentence, you'll still wonder whether to end it with *-ible* or *-able*. But if you say to yourself *just once* that *able* people are generally *indispensable*, that thought will come to you whenever you need to spell the word; in a few seconds you've conquered another spelling demon. By engineering your own mnemonic through a study of the architecture of a troublesome word, you will become so quickly and completely involved with the correct spelling of that word that it will be impossible for you ever to be stumped again.

Let us start at once. Below you will find another twenty-five words from the list of one hundred demons, each offered to you in both the correct form and in the popular misspelling. Go through the test quickly, checking off what you consider a proper choice in each case. In that way you will discover which of the twenty-five you would be likely to get caught on. Then devise a personal mnemonic for each word you flunked, writing your ingenious result out in the margin of the page. And don't be alarmed if some of your

mnemonics turn out kind of silly—the sillier they are the more likely you are to recall them in an emergency. One of my pupils, who could not remember how many *l's* to put into *tranquillity* (or is it *tranquility?*), shifted his mind into high gear and came up with this: "In the old days life was more *tranquil* than today, and people wrote with *quills* instead of fountain pens. Hence—*tranquillity!*" Another pupil, a girl who always chewed her nails over *irresistible* before she could decide whether to end it with *-ible* or *-able*, suddenly realized that a certain brand of *lipstick* was called *irresistible*, the point being of course that the only vowel in *lipstick* is *i*—hence, *-ible!* Silly, aren't they? But they work. Go ahead to the test now; and see how clever—or silly—you can be.

SPELLING TEST

1. a. supprise	b. surprise
2. a. inoculate	b. innoculate
3. a. definitely	b. definately
4. a. priviledge	b. privilege
5. a. incidently	b. incidentally
6. a. predictible	b. predictable
7. a. dissipate	b. disippate
8. a. descriminate	b. discriminate
9. a. description	b. discription
10. a. baloon	b. balloon
11. a. occurence	b. occurrence
12. a. truely	b. truly
13. a. arguement	b. argument

14. a. assistant b. asisstant
15. a. grammer b. grammar
16. a. parallel b. paralell
17. a. drunkeness b. drunkenness
18. a. suddeness b. suddenness
19. a. embarassment b. embarrassment
20. a. weird b. wierd
21. a. pronounciation b. pronunciation
22. a. noticeable b. noticable
23. a. developement b. development
24. a. vicious b. viscious
25. a. insistent b. insistant

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–a, 4–b, 5–b, 6–b, 7–a, 8–b, 9–a, 10–b, 11–b, 12–b, 13–b, 14–a, 15–b, 16–a, 17–b, 18–b, 19–b, 20–a, 21–b, 22–a, 23–b, 24–a, 25–a

By now you're well on the way toward developing a definite superiority complex about your spelling—which isn't a half-bad thing, for I've learned, working with my students, that many people think they're awful spellers, and have completely lost faith in their ability, solely because they get befuddled over no more than two dozen or so common words that they use over and over again and always misspell. Every other word they spell perfectly, but they still think they're prize boobs in spelling until their self-confidence is restored. So if you're beginning to gain more assurance, you're on the right track. The conquest of the one hundred common words most frequently misspelled is not going to assure you that you will always come out top man in a spelling bee, but it's certain to clean up your writing and bolster your ego.

So far you have worked with fifty of the one hundred spelling demons. Here, now, is the remainder of the list. Test yourself, or have someone who can keep a secret test you, and discover which ones are your Waterloo. Study each one you miss as if it were a problem in engineering. Observe how it's put together and devise whatever association pattern will fix the correct form in your mind.

Happy spelling!

SPELLING DEMONS

These fifty words complete the list of one hundred words that most frequently stump the inexpert spellers:

1. embarrassing

2. judgment
3. indispensable
4. disappear
5. disappoint
6. corroborate
7. sacrilegious
8. tranquillity
9. exhilaration
10. newsstand
11. license
12. irresistible
13. persistent
14. dilemma
15. perseverance
16. until (but till)
17. tyrannize
18. vacillate
19. oscillate
20. accommodate
21. dilettante
22. changeable
23. accessible
24. forty
25. desirable
26. panicky
27. seize
28. leisure
29. receive
30. achieve
31. holiday
32. existence
33. pursue
34. pastime

35. possesses
36. professor
37. category
38. rhythmical
39. vacuum
40. benefited
41. committee
42. grievous
43. conscious
44. plebeian
45. tariff
46. sheriff
47. connoisseur
48. necessary
49. sergeant
50. misspelling

15

HOW TO TALK ABOUT WHAT GOES ON

(*Sessions 42–44*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What verb, ending in -*ate*, means:
to exhaust?
to scold severely?
to deny oneself?
to repeat the main points?
to be a victim of mental or intellectual stagnation?
to pretend?
to hint?
to make (*something*) *easier to bear?*
to show sympathy?
to waver indecisively?

SESSION 42

WORDS are symbols of ideas—and we have been learning, discussing, and working with words as they revolve around certain basic concepts.

Starting with an idea (personality types, doctors, occupations, science, lying, actions, speech, insults, compliments, etc.), we have explored the meanings and uses of ten basic words; then, working from each word, we have wandered off toward any ideas and additional words that a basic word might suggest, or toward any *other* words built on the same Latin or Greek roots.

By this natural and logical method, you have been able to make meaningful and lasting contact with fifty to a hundred or more words in each chapter. And you have discovered, I think, that while five *isolated* words may be difficult to learn in one day, fifty to a hundred or more *related* words are easy to learn in a few sessions.

In this session we learn words that tell what's going on, what's happening, what people do to each other or to themselves, or what others do to *them.*

IDEAS

1. complete exhaustion

You have stayed up all night. And what were you doing? Playing poker, a very pleasant way of whiling away time? No. Engaging in some creative activity, like writing a short story, planning a political campaign, discussing fascinating questions with friends? No.

The examples I have offered are exciting or stimulating—as psychologists have discovered, it is not work or effort that causes

fatigue, but boredom, frustration, or a similar feeling.

You have stayed up all night with a very sick husband, wife, child, or dear friend. And despite all your ministrations, the patient is sinking. You can see how this long vigil contains all the elements of frustration that contribute to mental, physical, and nervous fatigue.

And so you are bushed—but completely bushed. Your exhaustion is mental, it is physiological, it is emotional.

What verb expresses the effect of the night's frustrations on you?

to enervate

2. tongue-lashing

You suddenly see the flashing red light as you glance in your rear-view mirror. It's the middle of the night, yet the police flasher is clear as day—and then you hear the low growl of the siren. So you pull over, knowing you were speeding along at 70 on the 55-mile-an-hour-limit freeway—after all, there was not another car in sight on the deserted stretch of road you were traveling.

The cop is pleasant, courteous, smiling; merely asks for your driver's license and registration; even says "Please."

Feeling guilty and stupid, you become irritated. So what do you do?

You lash out at the officer with all the verbal vituperation welling up in you from your self-anger. You scold him harshly for not spending his time looking for violent criminals instead of harassing innocent motorists; you call into question his honesty, his ambition, his fairness, even his ancestry. To no avail, of course—you stare at the traffic ticket morosely as the police cruiser pulls away.

What verb describes how you reacted?

to castigate

3. altruistic

Phyllis is selfless and self-sacrificing. Her husband's needs and desires come first—even when they conflict with her own. Clothes for her two daughters are her main concern—even if she has to wear a seven-year-old coat and outmoded dresses so that Paula and Evelyn can look smart and trim. At the dinner table, she heaps everyone's plate—while she herself often goes without. Phyllis will deny herself, will scrimp and save—all to the end that she may offer her husband and children the luxuries that her low self-esteem does not permit her to give herself.

What verb expresses what Phyllis does?

to self-abnegate

4. repetition

You have delivered a long, complicated lecture to your class, and now, to make sure that they will remember the important points, you restate the key ideas, the main thoughts. You offer, in short, a kind of brief summary, step by step, omitting all extraneous details.

What verb best describes what you do?

to recapitulate

5. no joie de vivre

Perhaps you wake up some gloomy Monday morning (why is it that Monday is always the worst day of the week?) and begin to think of the waste of the last five years. Intellectually, there has been no progress—you've read scarcely half a dozen books, haven't made one new, exciting friend, haven't had a startling or unusual thought. Economically, things are no better—same old debts to meet, same old hundred dollars in the bank, same old job, same old routine of the eight-to-five workdays, the tuna fish or chicken salad sandwich for lunch, the same dreary ride home. What a life! No change, nothing but routine, sameness, monotony—and for what?

(By now you'd better get up—this type of thinking never leads anywhere, as you've long since learned.)

What verb describes how you think you live?

to vegetate

6. pretense

Your neighbor, Mrs. Brown, pops in without invitation to tell you of her latest troubles with (a) her therapist, (b) her hairdresser, (c) her husband, (d) her children, and/or (e) her gynecologist.

Since Florence Brown is dull to the point of ennui, and anyway you have a desk piled high with work you were planning to light into, you find it difficult to concentrate on what she is saying. However, you do not wish to offend her by sending her packing, or even by appearing to be uninterested, so you pretend rapt attention, nodding wisely at what you hope are the right places.

What verb describes this feigning of interest?

to simulate

7. slight hint, no more

You are an author and are discussing with your editor the possible avenues of publicity and advertising for your new book. At one point in the conversation the editor makes several statements which might—or might not—be construed to mean that the company is going to promote the book heavily. For example, "If we put some real money behind this, we might sell a few copies," or "I wonder if it would be a good idea to get you on a few talk shows …" No unequivocal commitments, no clear-cut promises, only the slight and oblique mention of possibilities.

What verb expresses what the editor is doing?

to intimate

8. helpful

Aspirin doesn't cure any diseases. Yet this popular and inexpensive drug is universally used to lighten and relieve various unpleasant symptoms of disease: aches and pains, fever, inflammations, etc.

What verb expresses the action of aspirin?

to alleviate

9. when the bell tolls

John Donne's lines (made famous by Ernest Hemingway):

> *No man is an* Iland, *intire of it selfe; every man is a peece of the* Continent, *a part of the* maine; *if a* Clod *bee washed away by the* Sea, Europe *is the lesse, as well as if a* Promontorie *were, as well as if a* Mannor *of thy* friends *or of* thine owne *were; any mans* death *diminishes* me, *because I am involved in* Mankinde; *And therefore never send to know for whom the* bell *tolls; It tolls for* thee.

are truer than you may think; any person who views another's pain with complete detachment or indifference is shutting off important feelings.

When people have suffered a bereavement (as through death); when they have been wounded by life or by friends; then is the time they most need to feel that they are not alone, that you share their misery with them even if you cannot directly alleviate their sorrow. Your sympathy and compassion are, of course, alleviation enough.

What verb signifies this vicarious sharing of sorrow with someone who directly suffers?

to commiserate

10. when two men propose

Should you marry John or George? (You're strongly and equally attracted to both.) John is handsome, virile, tender; George is stable, reliable, dependable, always there when you need him. George loves you deeply; John is more exciting. You decide on John, naturally.

But wait—marrying John would mean giving up George, and with George you always know where you stand; he's like the Rock of Gibraltar (and sometimes almost as dull). So you change your mind—it's George, on more mature reflection.

But how happy can you be with a husband who is not exciting? Maybe John would be best after all....

The pendulum swings back and forth—you cannot make up your mind and stick to it. (You fail to realize that your indecision proves that you don't want to marry either one, or perhaps don't want to give either one up, or possibly don't even want to get married.) First it's John, then it's George, then back to John, then George again. *Which is it, which is it?*

What verb describes your pendulum-like indecision?

to vacillate

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *enervate*	EN′-ər-vayt′
2. *castigate*	KAS′-tə-gayt′
3. *self-abnegate*	self-AB′-nə-gayt′
4. *recapitulate*	ree′-kə-PICH′-ə-layt′
5. *vegetate*	VEJ′-ə-tayt′
6. *simulate*	SIM′-yə-layt′
7. *intimate*	IN′-tə-mayt′

8. *alleviate*	ə-LEE′-vee-ayt′
9. *commiserate*	kə-MIZ′-ə-rayt
10. *vacillate*	VAS′-ə-layt

Can you work with the words?

1. enervate	a. deny oneself
2. castigate	b. stagnate
3. self-abnegate	c. suggest; hint
4. recapitulate	d. sympathize
5. vegetate	e. waver
6. simulate	f. exhaust
7. intimate	g. lessen; lighten
8. alleviate	h. summarize
9. commiserate	i. pretend
10. vacillate	j. censure; scold; slash at verbally

KEY: 1–f, 2–j, 3–a, 4–h, 5–b, 6–i, 7–c, 8–g, 9–d, 10–e

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Should you feel *enervated* after a good night's sleep?
   YES NO
2. Do motorists who have been caught speeding sometimes start *castigating* the traffic officer?
   YES NO
3. Do people who are completely *self-abnegating* say "No!" to their needs and desires?
   YES NO
4. When you *recapitulate*, do you cover new material?
   YES NO
5. Do people possessed of *joie de vivre* usually feel that they are *vegetating?*
   YES NO
6. When you *simulate* alertness, do you purposely act somnolent?
   YES NO
7. When you *intimate*, do you make a direct statement?
   YES NO
8. Does aspirin often have an *alleviating* effect on pain?
   YES NO
9. Do we naturally *commiserate* with people who have suffered a bereavement?
   YES NO
10. Do decisive people often *vacillate?*
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–yes, 3–yes, 4–no, 5–no, 6–no, 7–no, 8–yes, 9–yes, 10–no

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. enervated—exhilarated
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. castigate—praise
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. self-abnegate—deny oneself
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. recapitulate—summarize
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. vegetate—stagnate
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. simulate—pretend
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. intimate—hint
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. alleviate—make worse
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. commiserate—sympathize
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. vacillate—decide
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–S, 4–S, 5–S, 6–S, 7–S, 8–O, 9–S, 10–O

Can you recall the words?

1. pretend
    1. S_____
2. scold
    2. C_____
3. sacrifice one's desires
    3. S_____
4. waver
    4. V_____
5. exhaust
    5. E_____
6. sympathize
    6. C_____
7. summarize
    7. R_____
8. lighten
    8. A_____
9. hint
    9. I_____
10. stagnate
    10. V_____

KEY: 1–simulate, 2–castigate, 3–self-abnegate, 4–vacillate, 5–enervate, 6–commiserate, 7–recapitulate, 8–alleviate, 9–intimate, 10–vegetate

(*End of Session 42*)

SESSION 43

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. more than fatigue

When you are *enervated*, you feel as if your nerves have been ripped out—or so the etymology of the word indicates.

Enervate is derived from *e-* (*ex-*), out, and Latin *nervus*, nerve. *Enervation* (en′-ər-VAY′-shən) is not just fatigue, but complete devitalization—physical, emotional, mental—as if every ounce of the life force has been sapped out, as if the last particle of energy has been drained away.

Despite its similar appearance to the word *energy, enervation* is almost a direct antonym. *Energy* is derived from the Greek prefix *en-*, in, plus the root *ergon*, work; *erg* is the term used in physics for a unit of work or energy. *Synergism* (SIN′-ər-jiz-əm)—the prefix *syn-*, together or with, plus *ergon*—is the process by which two or more substances or drugs, by working together, produce a greater effect in combination than the sum total of their individual effects.

Alcohol, for example, is a depressant. So are barbiturates and other soporifics. Alcohol and barbiturates work *synergistically* (sin′-ər-JIS′-tik′-lee)—the effect of each is increased by the other if the two are taken together.

So if you're drinking, don't take a sleeping pill—or if you *must* take a pill for your insomnia, don't drink—the combination, if not lethal, will do more to you than you may want done!

Synergy (SIN′-ər-jee), by the way, is an alternate form of *synergism.*

2. verbal punishment

Castigate is derived from a Latin verb meaning *to punish;* in present-day usage, the verb generally refers to verbal punishment, usually harsh and severe. It is somewhat synonymous with *scold, criticize, rebuke, censure, reprimand*, or *berate*, but much stronger than any of these—*rail at, rant at, slash at, lash out at*, or *tongue-lash* is a much closer synonym. When candidates for office *castigate* their opponents, they do not mince words.

Can you construct the noun form of *castigate?* _____.

3. saying "No!" to oneself

Abnegate is derived from Latin *ab-*, away (as in *absent*), plus *nego*, to deny—*self-abnegation* (ab′-nə-GAY′-shən), then, is self-denial. *Nego* itself is a contraction of Latin *neg-*, not, no, and *aio*, I say; to be *self-abnegating* is to say "No!" to what you want, as if some inner censor were at work whispering, "No, you can't have that, you can't do that, you don't deserve that, you're not good enough for that…."

To *negate* (nə-GAYT′) is to deny the truth or existence of, as in "The atheist *negates* God"; or, by extension, to destroy by working against, as in, "His indulgence in expensive hobbies *negates* all his wife's attempts to keep the family solvent." Can you write the noun form of the verb *negate?* _____.

Negative and *negativity* obviously spring from the same source as *negate.*

4. heads and headings

Latin *caput, capitis* means *head.* The *captain* is the *head of* any group; the *capital* is the "*head* city" of a state or nation; and to *decapitate* (dee-KAP′-ə-tayt′) is to chop off someone's *head*, a popular activity during the French Revolution after the guillotine was invented. Write the noun form of *decapitate:* _____.

Latin *capitulum* is a little head, or, by extension, the heading, or title, of a chapter. So when you *recapitulate*, you go through the

chapter headings again (*re*-), etymologically speaking, or you summarize or review the main points.

Remembering how the noun and adjective forms are derived from *adulate* (Chapter 9), can you write the required forms of *recapitulate?*

NOUN: _____.

ADJECTIVE: _____.

When you *capitulate* (kə-PICH′-ə-layt′), etymologically you arrange in headings, or, as the meaning of the verb naturally evolved, you arrange conditions of surrender, as when an army *capitulates* to the enemy forces under prearranged conditions; or, by further natural extension, you stop resisting and give up, as in, "He realized there was no longer any point in resisting her advances, so he reluctantly *capitulated.*" Can you write the noun form of *capitulate?* _____.

5. mere vegetables

Vegetable is from Latin *vegeto*, to live and grow, which is what vegetables do—but that's *all* they do, so to *vegetate*, is, by implication, to do no more than stay alive, stuck in a rut, leading an inactive, unstimulating, emotionally and intellectually stagnant existence. *Vegetation* (vej′-ə-TAY′-shən) is any dull, passive, stagnant existence; also any plant life, as the thick *vegetation* of a jungle.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *e*- (*ex*-)	out
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *nervus*	nerve

ENGLISH WORD _____

3. *en-* in

ENGLISH WORD _____

4. *ergon* work

ENGLISH WORD _____

5. *syn-* with, together

ENGLISH WORD _____

6. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

7. *-ion* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *ab-* away

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *nego* to deny

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *caput, capitis* head

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *de-* negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *capitulum* little head, chapter heading

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *re-* again

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *-ory* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *vegeto* to live and grow

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *enervation* en′-ər-VAY′-shən
2. *synergism* SIN′-ər-jiz-əm
3. *synergy* SIN′-ər-jee
4. *synergistic* sin′-ər-JIS′-tik
5. *castigation* kas′-tə-GAY′-shən
6. *self-abnegation* self-ab′-nə-GAY′-shən
7. *negate* nə-GAYT′
8. *negation* nə-GAY′-shən
9. *decapitate* dee-KAP′-ə-tayt′
10. *decapitation* dee-kap′-ə-TAY′-shən
11. *recapitulation* ree-kə-pich′-ə-LAY′-shən
12. *recapitulatory* ree-kə-PICH′-ə-lə-tawr′-ee
13. *capitulate* kə-PICH′-ə-layt′
14. *capitulation* kə-pich′-ə-LAY′-shən

Can you work with the words?

1. enervation	a. tongue-lashing
2. synergism, synergy	b. denial; destruction
3. castigation	c. a lopping off of one's head
4. self-abnegation	d. summary; review of main points
5. negation	e. self-denial
6. decapitation	f. utter exhaustion; mental, emotional, and physical drain
7. recapitulation	g. a working together for greater effect
8. capitulation	h. surrender

KEY: 1–f, 2–h, 3–a, 4–e, 5–b, 6–c, 7–d, 8–g

Do you understand the words?

1. enervating—refreshing
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. synergistic—neutralizing
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. castigation—scolding
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. self-abnegation—egoism
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. negate—accept
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. decapitate—behead
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. recapitulatory—summarizing
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. capitulate—resist
   SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–O, 3–S, 4–O, 5–O, 6–S, 7–S, 8–O

Can you recall the words?

1. to give in
    1. C_____
2. working together for greater effect (*adj.*)
    2. S_____
3. total fatigue
    3. E_____
4. for the purpose of summarizing or review (*adj.*)
    4. R_____
5. self-denial
    5. S_____-A_____
6. deny; render ineffective; nullify
    6. N_____
7. process by which two or more substances produce a greater effect than the sum of the individual effects
    7. S_____
    or S_____
8. to cut off the head of
    8. D_____
9. strong censure
    9. C_____
10. to surrender
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–capitulate, 2–synergistic, 3–enervation, 4–recapitulatory, 5–self-abnegation, 6–negate, 7–synergism *or* synergy, 8–decapitate, 9–castigation, 10–capitulate

(*End of Session 43*)

SESSION 44

ORIGINS AND RELATED WORDS

1. not the real McCoy

Simulate is from Latin *simulo*, to copy; and *simulo* itself derives from the Latin adjectives *similis*, like or similar.

Simulation (sim′-yə-LAY′-shən), then, is copying the real thing, pretending to be the genuine article by taking on a similar appearance. The *simulation* of joy is quite a feat when you really feel depressed.

Genuine pearls grow inside oysters; *simulated* pearls are synthetic, but look like the ones from oysters. (Rub a pearl against your teeth to tell the difference—the natural pearl feels gritty.) So the frequent advertisement of an inexpensive necklace made of "genuine *simulated* pearls" can fool you if you don't know the word—you're being offered a genuine fake.

Dissimulation (də-sim′-yə-LAY′-shən) is something else! When you *dissimulate* (də-SIM′-yə-layt′), you hide your true feelings by making a pretense of opposite feelings. (Then again, maybe it's not something completely else!)

Sycophants are great *dissimulators*—they may feel contempt, but show admiration; they may feel negative, but express absolutely positive agreement.

A close synonym of *dissimulate* is *dissemble* (də-SEM′-bəl), which also is to hide true feelings by pretending the opposite; or, additionally, to conceal facts, or one's true intentions, by deception; or, still further additionally, to pretend ignorance of facts you'd rather not admit, when, indeed, you're fully aware of them.

The noun is *dissemblance* (də-SEM′-bləns).

In *dissimulate* and *dissemble*, the negative prefix *dis*- acts largely to make both words pejorative.

2. hints and helps

The verb *intimate* is from Latin *intimus*, innermost, the same root from which the adjective *intimate* (IN′-tə-mət) and its noun *intimacy* (IN′-tə-mə-see) are derived; but the relationship is only in etymology, not in meaning. An *intimation* (in′-tə-MAY′-shən) contains a significance buried deep in the innermost core, only a hint showing. As you grow older, you begin to have *intimations* that you are mortal; when someone aims a .45 at you, or when a truck comes roaring down at you as you drive absent-mindedly against a red light through an intersection, you are suddenly *very sure* that you are mortal.

Alleviate is a combination of Latin *levis*, light (not heavy), the prefix *ad*-, to, and the verb suffix. (*Ad*- changes to *al*- before a root starting with *l*-.)

If something *alleviates* your pain, it makes your pain lighter for you; if I *alleviate* your sadness, I make it lighter to bear; and if you need some *alleviation* (ə-lee′-vee-AY′-shən) of your problems, you need them made lighter and less burdensome. To *alleviate* is to relieve only temporarily, not to cure or do away with. (*Relieve* is also from *levis*, plus *re*-, again—to make light or easy again.) The adjective form of *alleviate* is *alleviative* (ə-LEE′-vee-ay′-tiv)—aspirin is an *alleviative* drug.

Anything light will rise—so from the prefix *e*- *(ex*-), out, plus *levis*, we can construct the verb *elevate*, etymologically, to raise out, or, actually, raise up, as to *elevate* one's spirits, raise them up, make them lighter; or *elevate* someone to a higher position, which is what an *elevator* does.

Have you ever seen a performance of magic in which a person or an object apparently rises in the air as if floating? That's *levitation*

(lev′-ə-TAY′-shən)—rising through no visible means. (I've watched it a dozen times and never *could* figure it out!) The verb, to so rise, is *levitate* (LEV′-ə-tayt′).

And how about *levity* (LEV′-ə-tee)? That's lightness too, but of a different sort—lightness in the sense of frivolity, flippancy, joking, or lack of seriousness, especially when solemnity, dignity, or formality is required or more appropriate, as in "tones of *levity*," or as in, "Levity is out of place at a funeral, in a house of worship, at the swearing-in ceremonies of a President or Supreme Court Justice," or as in, "Okay, enough *levity*—now let's get down to business!"

3. sharing someone's misery

Latin *miser*, wretched, the prefix *con-* (which, as you know, becomes *com-* before a root beginning with *m-*), together or with, and the verb suffix *-ate* are the building blocks from which *commiserate* is constructed. "I *commiserate* with you," then, means, "I am wretched together with you—I share your misery." The noun form? _____.

Miser, miserly, miserable, misery all come from the same root.

4. swing and sway

Vacillate—note the single *c*, double *l*—derives from Latin *vacillo*, to swing back and forth. The noun form? _____.

People who swing back and forth in indecision, who are irresolute, who can, unfortunately, see both, or even three or four, sides of every question, and so have difficulty making up their minds, are *vacillatory* (VAS′-ə-lə-tawr′-ee). They are also, usually, *ambivalent* (am-BIV′-ə-lənt)—they have conflicting and simultaneous emotions about the same person or thing; or they want to go but they also want to stay; or they love something, but they hate it too.

The noun is *ambivalence* (am-BIV′-ə-ləns)—from *ambi* both. (Remember *ambivert* and *ambidextrous* from Chapter 3?)

Ambivalence has best been defined (perhaps by Henny Youngman—if he didn't say it first, he should have) as watching your mother-in-law drive over a cliff in your new Cadillac.

To *vacillate* is to swing mentally or emotionally. To sway back and forth physically is *oscillate*—again note the double *l*—(OS′-ə-layt′), from Latin *oscillum*, a swing. A pendulum *oscillates*, the arm of a metronome *oscillates*, and people who've had much too much to drink *oscillate* when they try to walk. The noun? _____.

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *simulo*	to copy
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *similis*	like, similar
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *dis-*	pejorative prefix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *ad-* (*al-*)	to, toward
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *levis*	light
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *-ate*	verb suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *-ion*	noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

8. *e-* (*ex-*) out

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *intimus* innermost

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *miser* wretched

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *vacillo* to swing back and forth

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *ambi-* both

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *oscillum* a swing

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *simulation* sim′-yə-LAY′-shən
2. *dissimulate* də-SIM′-yə-layt′
3. *dissimulation* də-sim′-yə-LAY′-shən
4. *dissemble* də-SEM′-bəl
5. *dissemblance* də-SEM′-bləns
6. *intimation* in′-tə-MAY′-shən

7. *alleviation*	ə-lee′-vee-AY′-shən
8. *alleviative*	ə-LEE′-vee-ay′-tiv
9. *levitate*	LEV′-ə-tayt′
10. *levitation*	lev′-ə-TAY′-shən
11. *levity*	LEV′-ə-tee
12. *commiseration*	kə-miz′-ə-RAY′-shən
13. *vacillation*	vas′-ə-LAY′-shən
14. *vacillatory*	VAS′-ə-lə-tawr′-ee
15. *ambivalent*	am-BIV′-ə-lənt
16. *ambivalence*	am-BIV′-ə-ləns
17. *oscillate*	OS′-ə-layt′
18. *oscillation*	os′-ə-LAY′-shən

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. simulation	a. hint
2. dissemble	b. flippancy or joking when seriousness is required
3. intimation	c. a sharing of grief
4. alleviation	d. physical swaying; swinging action, as of a pendulum
5. levitate	e. a swinging back and forth in indecision
6. levity	f. pretense

7. commiseration

8. vacillation

9. ambivalence

10. oscillation

g. conflicted and contrary feelings

h. rise in the air (as by magic or illusion)

i. pretend

j. a lightening; a making less severe

KEY: 1–f, 2–i, 3–a, 4–j, 5–h, 6–b, 7–c, 8–e, 9–g, 10–d

Can you work with the words? (II)

1. dissimulate	a. pretense of ignorance
2. dissemblance	b. a rising and floating in air
3. alleviative	c. having simultaneous and contrary feelings
4. levitation	d. tending to swing back and forth in indecision
5. vacillatory	e. to swing back and forth like a pendulum
6. ambivalent	f. to hide real feelings by pretending opposite feelings
7. oscillate	g. tending to ease (pain, burdens, suffering, etc.)

KEY: 1–f, 2–a, 3–g, 4–b, 5–d, 6–c, 7–e

Do you understand the words?

1. simulated—genuine
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. dissimulate—pretend
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. dissemble—be truthful
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. intimation—hint
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. alleviation—reduction
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. levitate—sink
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. levity—flippancy
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. vacillation—decisiveness
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. ambivalent—confused
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. oscillate—sway
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–O, 2–S, 3–O, 4–S, 5–S, 6–O, 7–S, 8–O, 9–S, 10–S

Can you recall the words?

1. to swing back and forth
   1. O_____
2. feeling both ways at the same time (*adj.*)
   2. A_____
3. to conceal real feelings
   3. D_____
   or D_____
4. pretense
   4. S_____
5. to pretend ignorance though knowing the facts
   5. D_____
6. joking; frivolity; flippancy
   6. L_____
7. indecisive
   7. V_____
   or V_____
8. to rise in the air, as by illusion
   8. L_____
9. tending to ease (pain, etc.) (*adj.*)
   9. A_____
   or A_____
10. a sharing of another's grief
    10. C_____

KEY: 1–oscillate, 2–ambivalent, 3–dissimulate *or* dissemble, 4–simulation, 5–dissemble, 6–levity, 7–vacillatory *or* vacillating, 8–levitate, 9–alleviative *or* alleviating, 10–commiseration

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Complete exhaustion:
   (a) synergism, (b) enervation, (c) negation
2. Co-operation in producing effects:
   (a) synergy, (b) castigation, (c) capitulation
3. Lop off the head of:
   (a) castigate, (b) capitulate, (c) decapitate
4. deny; render ineffective:
   (a) castigate, (b) negate, (c) recapitulate
5. stagnate:
   (a) intimate, (b) simulate, (c) vegetate
6. concealment of true feelings:
   (a) simulation, (b) dissimulation, (c) dissemblance
7. sympathy:
   (a) levity, (b) ambivalence, (c) commiseration
8. indecisiveness:
   (a) vacillation, (b) oscillation, (c) dissimulation
9. aware of contrary feelings:
   (a) alleviative, (b) dissimulating, (c) ambivalent

KEY: 1–b, 2–a, 3–c, 4–b, 5–c, 6–b *and* c, 7–c, 8–a, 9–c

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *nervus*	_____
EXAMPLE enervate	
2. *ergon*	_____
EXAMPLE energy	
3. *nego*	_____
EXAMPLE self-abnegation	
4. *caput, capitis*	_____
EXAMPLE decapitate	
5. *capitulum*	_____
EXAMPLE recapitulate	
6. *vegeto*	_____
EXAMPLE vegetate	
7. *simulo*	_____
EXAMPLE dissimulate	
8. *similis*	_____
EXAMPLE similarity	
9. *levis*	_____

EXAMPLE levity

10. *intimus* _____

EXAMPLE intimation

11. *miser* _____

EXAMPLE commiserate

12. *vacillo* _____

EXAMPLE vacillate

13. *ambi-* _____

EXAMPLE ambivalent

14. *oscillum* _____

EXAMPLE oscillate

KEY: 1–nerve, 2–work, 3–deny, 4–head, 5–little head, chapter heading, 6–live and grow, 7–to copy, 8–like, similar, 9–light, 10–innermost, 11–wretched, 12–swing back and forth, 13–both, 14–a swing

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

We have previously met the Greek prefix *syn-*, together or with, in *synonym* ("names together") and *sympathy* ("feeling with"), and again in this chapter in *synergism* ("working together").

Syn- is a most useful prefix to know. Like Latin *con-*, (together or with) and *ad-* (to, toward), the final letter changes depending on the first letter of the root to which it is attached. *Syn-* becomes *sym-* before *b, m*, and *p*.

Can you construct some words using *syn-*, or *sym-?*

1. Etymologically, Jews are "led together" in a house of worship (*agogos*, leading). Can you construct the word for this temple or place of worship? _____.

2. There is a process by which dissimilar organisms live together (*bios*, life) in close association, each in some way helping, and getting help from, the other (like the shark and the pilot fish). What word, ending in *-sis*, designates such a process? _____.

What would the adjective form be? _____.

3. Using Greek *phone*, sound, write the word that etymologically refers to a musical composition in which the sounds of all instruments are in harmony together _____. Using the suffix *-ic*, write the adjective form of this word: _____.

4. Combine *sym-* with *metron*, measurement, to construct a word designating similarity of shape on both sides (i.e., "measurement together"): _____.

Write the adjective form of this word: _____.

5. *Syn-* plus *dromos*, a running, are the building blocks of a medical word designating a group of symptoms that occur (i.e., run) together in certain diseases. Can you figure out the word? _____

6. The same *dromos*, a running, combines with Greek *hippos*, horse, to form a word referring to a place in ancient Greece in which horse and chariot races were run. The word? _____.

7. *Hippos*, horse, plus Greek *potamos*, river, combine to form a word designating one of the three pachyderms we discussed in an earlier chapter. The word? _____.

(*Answers in Chapter 18*.)

PICKING YOUR FRIENDS' BRAINS

You can build your vocabulary, I have said, by increasing your familiarity with new ideas and by becoming alert to the new words you meet in your reading of magazines and books.

There is still another productive method, one that will be particularly applicable in view of all the new words you are learning from your study of these pages.

That method is *picking your friends' brains.*

Intelligent people are interested in words because words are symbols of ideas, and the person with an alert mind is always interested in ideas.

You may be amazed, if you have never tried it, to find that you can stir up an animated discussion by asking, in a social group that you attend, "What does _____ mean?" (Use any word that particularly fascinates you.) Someone in the group is likely to know, and almost everyone will be willing to make a guess. From that point on, others in the group will ask questions about their own favorite words (most people do have favorites), or about words that they themselves have in some manner recently learned. As the discussion continues along these lines, you will be introduced to

new words yourself, and if your friends have fairly good vocabularies you may strike a rich vein of pay dirt and come away with a large number of words to add to your vocabulary.

This method of picking your friends' brains is particularly fruitful because you will be learning not from a page of print (as in this book or as in your other reading) but from real live persons—the same sources that children use to increase their vocabularies at such prodigious rates. No learning is quite as effective as the learning that comes from other people—no information in print can ever be as vivid as information that comes from another human being. And so the words you pick up from your friends will have an amazingly strong appeal, will make a lasting impression on your mind.

Needless to say, your own rich vocabulary, now that you have come this far in the book, will make it possible for you to contribute to your friends' vocabulary as much as, if not more than, you take away—but since giving to others is one of the greatest sources of a feeling of self-worth, you can hardly complain about this extra dividend.

(*End of Session 44*)

Brief Intermission Nine

TAKE THIS SPELLING TEST

Even in the most painstakingly edited of magazines, a silly little misspelling of a perfectly common word will occasionally appear. How the error eluded the collective and watchful eyes of the editor, the associate editor, the assistant editor, the typesetter, and the proofreader, no one will ever know—for practically every reader of the magazine spots it at once and writes an indignant letter, beginning: "Didn't you ever go to school …?"

Even if you went to school, you're going to have plenty of trouble spotting the one misspelled word in each group below. And not one of these words will be a demon like *sphygmomanometer* (a device for measuring blood pressure) or *piccalilli* (a highly seasoned relish), which no one would ever dare spell without first checking with a dictionary. On the contrary, every word will be of the common or garden variety that you might use every day in your social or business correspondence.

Nevertheless, you're letting yourself in for ten minutes of real trouble, for you will be working with fifty particularly difficult spelling words. So put on your thinking cap before you begin.

A half-dozen high school teachers who took this test were able to make an average score of only five proper choices. Can you do better? Six or seven right is *very good*, eight or nine right is *excellent*, and 100 per cent success marks you as an absolute expert in English spelling.

Check the only misspelled word in each group.

A: 1–surprise, 2–disappear, 3–innoculate, 4–description, 5–recommend

B: 1–privilege, 2–separate, 3–incidentally, 4–dissipate, 5–occurence

C: 1–analize, 2–argument, 3–assistant, 4–comparative, 5–truly

D: 1–grammar, 2–drunkeness, 4–parallel, 4–sacrilegious, 5–conscience

E: 1–precede, 2–exceed, 3–accede, 4–procede, 5–concede

F: 1–pronunciation, 2–noticable, 3–desirable, 4–holiday, 5–anoint

G: 1–wierd, 2–seize, 3–achieve, 4–receive, 5–leisure

H: 1–superintendent, 2–persistent, 3–resistant, 4–insistent, 5–perseverence

I: 1–accessible, 2–permissible, 3–inimitable, 4–irresistable, 5–irritable

J: 1–pursue, 2–pastime, 3–kidnapped, 4–rhythmical, 5–exhillarate

KEY: A–3 (inoculate), B–5 (occurrence), C–1 (analyze), D–2 (drunkenness), E–4 (proceed), F–2 (noticeable), G–1 (weird), H–5 (perseverance), I–4 (irresistible), J–5 (exhilarate)

16

HOW TO TALK ABOUT A VARIETY OF PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

(*Sessions 45–46*)

TEASER PREVIEW

What word, ending in -*ous*, describes someone who is:
fawning, servilely attentive, transparently self-ingratiating?
nagging, dissatisfied, complaining?
snobbish, haughtily contemptuous, arrogant?
noisily troublesome, unmanageable?
habitually short of cash?
attentive and courteous to women?
harmless?
fond of liquor?
pale, gaunt, haggard?
melancholy, sorrowful?

SESSION 45

There are thousands of English words that end in the letters *-ous*—a Latin suffix meaning *full of*.

The central theme about which the words in this chapter revolve is the idea of "fullness"—and as you will shortly see, you can be full of compliance and servility; full of complaints; full of snobbery; full of noise; full of no money; full of horsemanship; full of harmlessness; full of liquor; full of deathly pallor; and full of sorrows.

For each of these ideas English has a word—and the person with a rich vocabularly knows the exact word to describe what someone is full of.

IDEAS

1. compliance

The Latin root *sequor* means *to follow*—and those who follow rather than lead are usually in a menial, subordinate, or inferior position. People who engage in certain fields of endeavor—waiters, clerks, and servants, for example—are forced, often contrary to their natural temperaments, to act excessively courteous, pleasant, obliging, even subservient and humble. They must follow the lead of their customers or employers, bending their own wills according to the desires of those they serve. They are, etymologically, *full of following after*, or—

obsequious

RELATED WORDS:

1. *obsequies*—In a funeral cortege, the mourners *follow after* the corpse. Hence, *obsequies* are the burial ceremonies, the funeral rites.

2. *subsequent*—A *subsequent* letter, paragraph, time, etc. is one that *follows* another.

3. *sequel*—A *sequel* may be a literary work, such as a novel, that *follows* another, continuing the same subject, dealing with the same people or village, etc. or it may be an occurrence that grows out of or *follows* another, as in, "Just wait until you hear the *sequel* to the story!"

4. *sequence*—In order, one item *following* another, as in, "The *sequence* of events of the next few days left him breathless."

Any other word containing the root *sequ-* is likely to have some relationship to the idea of *following.*

2. complaints

The Latin root *queror* means *to complain*—and anyone full of complaints, constantly nagging, harping, fretful, petulant, whining, never satisfied, may accordingly be called—

querulous

3. snobbery

The Latin root *cilium* means *eyelid; super* means *above;* and above the eyelid, as anyone can plainly see, is the eyebrow. Now there are certain obnoxious people who go around raising their eyebrows in contempt, disdain, and sneering arrogance at ordinary mortals like you and me. Such contemptuous, sneering, overbearingly conceited people are called—

supercilious

4. noise

The Latin root *strepo* means *to make a noise.* Anyone who is unruly, boisterous, resistant to authority, unmanageable—and in a noisy, troublesome manner—is

obstreperous

5. moneyless

The Latin root *pecus* means *cattle*—and at one time in human history a person's wealth was measured not by stocks and bonds but by stocks of domestic animals, which was a lot more logical, since you get milk and leather and meat from cattle—true wealth—and all you get from the stock market is a headache.

Someone who had lots of *pecus*, then, was rich—someone without *pecus* was indigent, destitute, "broke." And so today we call someone who is habitually without funds, who seems generally to be full of a complete lack of money—

impecunious

This word is not a synonym of *indigent, destitute, or poverty-stricken;* it does not necessarily imply living in reduced circumstances or want, but quite simply being short of cash—habitually.

RELATED WORD:

1. *pecuniary*—pertaining to money, as in, a *pecuniary* consideration, *pecuniary* affairs, etc.

6. horses

The French word *cheval* means *horse;* and in medieval times only gentlemen and knights rode on horses—common people walked. Traditionally (but not, I understand, actually) knights were courteous to women, attentive to female desires, and self-sacrificing when their own interests came in conflict with those of the fair sex. Hence, we call a modern man who has a knightly attitude to women—

chivalrous

RELATED WORD:

(*Cheval*, horse, comes from Latin *caballus*, an inferior horse. *Callabus* is found in English words in the spelling *caval-*.)

1. *cavalcade*—A procession of persons on horseback, as in a parade.

2. *cavalier*—As a noun, a *cavalier* was once a mounted soldier. As an adjective, *cavalier* describes actions and attitudes that are haughty, unmindful of others' feelings, too offhand, such attributes often being associated with people in power (the military being one of the powers-that-be). Thus, "He answered in a *cavalier* manner" would signify that he

was arrogant in his answer, as if the questioner were taking a little too much privilege with him. Or, "After the *cavalier* treatment I received, I never wished to return," signifying that I was pretty much made to feel unimportant and inferior. Or, "After her *cavalier* refusal, I'll never invite her to another party," signifying that the refusal was, perhaps, curt, offhand, without any attempt at apology or courtesy.

3. *cavalry*—The mounted, or "horsed" part of an army.
4. *chivalry*—Noun form of *chivalrous.* Can you write the alternate noun form ending in *-ness?* _____
5. *chivalric*—Less commonly used adjective form, identical in meaning to *chivalrous.*

Another Latin root for *horse*, as you know, is *equus*, found in words we have already discussed:

1. *equestrian*—A horseman.
2. *equestrienne*—A horsewoman.
3. *equine*—Horselike.

7. no harm done

The latin root *noceo* means to *injure;* someone who need cause you no fear, so harmless is that person, so unable to interfere, so unlikely to get you into trouble, is called—

innocuous

RELATED WORDS:

1. *innocent*—Not guilty of crime or injury.
2. *noxious*—Harmful, poisonous; unwholesome.

8. alcoholic

The Latin root *bibo* means to *drink;* and one who is generally found with one foot up on the brass rail, who likes to tipple beyond the point of sobriety—who, in short, has an overfondness for drinks with a pronounced alcoholic content, is called, usually humorously—

bibulous

RELATED WORD:

1. *imbibe*—To drink in, soak up, absorb. If we use this verb without specifying what is drunk, as in, "He likes to *imbibe*," the implication, of course, is always liquor; but *imbibe* may also be used in patterns like "*imbibe* learning" or "In early infancy she *imbibed* a respect for her parents."

2. *bib*—Upper part of an apron, or an apronlike napkin tied around a child's neck. In either case, the *bib* prevents what is drunk (or eaten) from spilling over, or dribbling down, on the wearer's clothing.

9. like death itself

The Latin root *cado* means *to fall*—one's final fall is of course always in death, and so someone who looks like a corpse (figuratively speaking), who is pale, gaunt, thin, haggard, eyes deep-sunk, limbs wasted, in other words the extreme opposite of the picture of glowing health, is called—

cadaverous

RELATED WORD:

1. *cadaver*—A corpse, literally, especially one used for surgical dissection.

2. *decadent*—Etymologically, "*falling down*" (*de-* is a prefix one meaning of which is *down*, as in *descend*, climb down; *decline*, turn down; etc.). If something is in a *decadent* state, it is deteriorating, becoming corrupt or demoralized. *Decadence* is a state of decay. Generally *decadent* and *decadence* are used figuratively—they refer not to actual physical decay (as of a dead body), but to moral or spiritual decay.

10. pain and misery

The Latin root *doleo* means *to suffer* or *grieve*—one who is mournful and sad, whose melancholy comes from physical pain or mental distress, who seems to be suffering or grieving, is called—

dolorous

RELATED WORD:

1. *dolor*—A poetic synonym of *grief*.

2. *doleful*—A word referring somewhat humorously to exaggerated dismalness, sadness, or dreariness.

3. *condole*—Etymologically, to suffer or grieve with (Latin *con-*, with, together). *Condole* is a somewhat less commonly used synonym of *commiserate*, a verb we discussed in Chapter 15. The noun *condolence* is much more frequently heard than the verb, as in, "Let me offer you my *condolences*," usually said to someone mourning the death of a friend or relative. You have heard of *condolence* cards, and no doubt have sent your share of them. When you *condole* with somebody who has sustained a loss, usually by death, you are saying, in effect, "I am suffering or grieving with you."

REVIEW OF ETYMOLOGY

PREFIX, ROOT, SUFFIX	MEANING
1. *sequor*	to follow
ENGLISH WORD _____	
2. *queror*	to complain
ENGLISH WORD _____	
3. *cilium*	eyelid
ENGLISH WORD _____	
4. *super*	above
ENGLISH WORD _____	
5. *strepo*	to make a noise
ENGLISH WORD _____	
6. *pecus*	cattle
ENGLISH WORD _____	
7. *-ary*	adjective suffix
ENGLISH WORD _____	

8. *im-* (*in-*) negative prefix

ENGLISH WORD _____

9. *cheval* horse

ENGLISH WORD _____

10. *callabus* (*caval-*) inferior horse

ENGLISH WORD _____

11. *-ous* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

12. *-ic* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

13. *equus* horse

ENGLISH WORD _____

14. *-ine* like, similar to, characteristic of

ENGLISH WORD _____

15. *bibo* *to* drink

ENGLISH WORD _____

16. *im-* (*in-*) in

ENGLISH WORD _____

17. *cado* to fall

ENGLISH WORD _____

18. *de-* down

ENGLISH WORD _____

19. *-ent* adjective suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

20. *-ence* noun suffix

ENGLISH WORD _____

21. *con-* with, together

ENGLISH WORD _____

USING THE WORDS

A. THE BASIC WORDS

Can you pronounce the words?

1. *obsequious* ob-SEEK′-wee-əs
2. *querulous* KWAIR′-ə-lƏs
3. *supercilious* sōō′-pər-SIL′-ee-əs
4. *obstreperous* əb-STREP′-ər-əs
5. *impecunious* im′-pə-KYŌŌ′-nee-əs
6. *chivalrous* SHIV′-əl-rəs
7. *innocuous* ə-NOK′-yōō-əs
8. *bibulous* BIB′-yə-ləs
9. *cadaverous* kə-DAV′-ər-əs
10. *dolorous* DOL′-ər-əs *or* DŌ′-lər-əs

Can you work with the words? (I)

1. obsequious	a. snobbish
2. querulous	b. harmless
3. supercilious	c. gaunt
4. obstreperous	d. short of funds

5. impecunious	e. fawning; excessively, ingratiatingly, polite
6. chivalrous	f. sorrowful
7. innocuous	g. addicted to drink
8. bibulous	h. courteous to women
9. cadaverous	i. complaining
10. dolorous	j. unmanageable

KEY: 1–e, 2–i, 3–a, 4–j, 5–d, 6–h, 7–b, 8–g, 9–c, 10–f

Can you work with the words? (II)

Match each word in the first column with one from the second column that is *opposite* in meaning.

1. obsequious	a. content; uncomplaining; satisfied
2. querulous	b. affluent
3. supercilious	c. healthy
4. obstreperous	d. rude
5. impecunious	e. sober
6. chivalrous	f. dangerous
7. innocuous	g. humble
8. bibulous	h. misogynous
9. cadaverous	i. happy; cheerful
10. dolorous	j. quiet

KEY: 1–d, 2–a, 3–g, 4–j, 5–b, 6–h, 7–f, 8–e, 9–c, 10–i

Do you understand the words?

1. Do *obsequious* people usually command our respect?
   YES NO
2. Are *querulous* people satisfied?
   YES NO
3. Are *supercilious* people usually popular?
   YES NO
4. Is a person of affluence *impecunious?*
   YES NO
5. Do some women like *chivalrous* men?
   YES NO
6. Are *innocuous* people dangerous?
   YES NO
7. Is a *bibulous* character a teetotaler?
   YES NO
8. Is a *cadaverous-looking* individual the picture of health?
   YES NO
9. Is a *dolorous* attitude characteristic of jovial people?
   YES NO
10. Is an *obstreperous* child difficult to manage?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–no, 2–no, 3–no, 4–no, 5–yes, 6–no, 7–no, 8–no, 9–no, 10–yes

Can you recall the words?

1. sorrowful
    1. D_____
2. servilely attentive; overly polite
    2. O_____
3. haggard; gaunt; pale
    3. C_____
4. complaining; whining
    4. Q_____
5. addicted to alcohol; likely to drink past the point of sobriety
    5. B_____
6. arrogant; haughty
    6. S_____
7. harmless
    7. I_____
8. noisily unmanageable
    8. O_____
9. attentive and courteous to women
    9. C_____
10. short of money; without funds
    10. I_____

KEY: 1–dolorous, 2–obsequious, 3–cadaverous, 4–querulous, 5–bibulous, 6–supercilious, 7–innocuous, 8–obstreperous, 9–chivalrous, 10–impecunious

(*End of Session 45*)

SESSION 46

B. RELATED WORDS

Can you pronounce the words? (I)

1. *obsequies*	OB′-sə-kweez
2. *subsequent*	SUB′-sə-kwənt
3. *sequel*	SEE′-kwəl
4. *sequence*	SEE′-kwəns
5. *pecuniary*	pə-KYŌŌ′-nee-air′-ee
6. *noxious*	NOK′-shəs
7. *imbibe*	im-BĪB′
8. *dolor*	DŌ′-ler
9. *doleful*	DŌL′-fəl
10. *cavalcade*	KAV′-əl-kayd′
11. *cavalier* (*adj.*)	kav-ə-LEER′

Can you pronounce the words? (II)

1. *cavalry*	KAV′-əl-ree
2. *chivalry*	SHIV′-əl-ree
3. *chivalric*	shə-VAL′-rik
4. *condole*	kən-DŌL′
5. *condolence*	kən-DŌ′-ləns

6. *equestrian*	ə-KWES′-tree-ən
7. *equestrienne*	ə-KWES′-tree-en′
8. *equine*	EE′-kwīn′
9. *cadaver*	kə-DAV′-ər *or* kə-DAY′-vər
10. *decadent*	DEK′-ə-dənt *or* də-KAY′-dənt
11. *decadence*	DEK′-ə-dəns *or* də-KAY′-dəns

Can you work with the words?

1. obsequies	a. proper order
2. subsequent	b. drink; absorb; take in
3. sequel	c. harmful, poisonous
4. sequence	d. pain, sorrow (*poetic*)
5. pecuniary	e. coming later or afterward
6. noxious	f. procession of mounted riders
7. imbibe	g. offhand, haughty
8. dolor	h. a following event or literary work
9. doleful	i. horsewoman
10. cavalcade	j. pertaining to money
11. cavalier (*adj.*)	k. mounted military division; soldiers on horseback
12. cavalry	l. funeral rites
13. equestrian	m. exaggeratedly sorrowful
14. equestrienne	n. horselike
15. equine	o. horseman
16. cadaver	P. spiritual decline

17. decadent	q. morally decaying
18. decadence	r. corpse
19. chivalry	s. expression of sympathy
20. condolence	t. gallant courtesy to women

KEY: 1–l, 2–e, 3–h, 4–a, 5–j, 6–c, 7–b, 8–d, 9–m, 10–f, 11–g, 12–k, 13–o, 14–i 15–n, 16–r, 17–q, 18–p, 19–t, 20–s

Do you understand the words? (I)

1. Are speeches usually made during *obsequies?*
   YES NO
2. Did Margaret Mitchell write a *sequel* to *Gone with the Wind?*
   YES NO
3. Are these numbers in *sequence:* 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11?
   YES NO
4. Do banks often handle the *pecuniary* details of an estate?
   YES NO
5. Is arsenic a *noxious* chemical?
   YES NO
6. Do children sometimes *imbibe* wisdom from their parents?
   YES NO
7. If a song is sung in tones of *dolor*, is it a happy song?
   YES NO
8. Is a *doleful* countenance a happy one?
   YES NO
9. Does a *cavalcade* contain horses?
   YES NO
10. Does a *cavalier* attitude show a spirit of humility?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–no, 3–yes, 4–yes, 5–yes, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–no, 9–yes, 10–no

Do you understand the words? (II)

1. Is a *cavalry* officer usually a good horseman?
   YES NO
2. Would an *equestrian* statue of General Grant show him with or on a horse?
   YES NO
3. Is an *equestrienne* a man?
   YES NO
4. Do humans possess many *equine* characteristics?
   YES NO
5. Is a *cadaver* alive?
   YES NO
6. Is an iconoclast likely to consider religion a *decadent* institution?
   YES NO
7. Is *decadence* a desirable quality?
   YES NO
8. Is *chivalry* dead?
   YES NO
9. Is it appropriate to *condole* with someone who has suffered a loss through death?
   YES NO
10. Are *condolences* appropriate at a wedding ceremony?
    YES NO

KEY: 1–yes, 2–yes, 3–no, 4–no, 5–no, 6–yes, 7–no, 8–yes, *or* no, depending on your point of view, 9–yes, 10–no (unless you're misogamous)

Do you understand the words? (III)

1. obsequies—rites
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. subsequent—preceding
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. pecuniary—financial
   SAME OPPOSITE
4. sequence—order
   SAME OPPOSITE
5. noxious—harmful
   SAME OPPOSITE
6. imbibe—drink
   SAME OPPOSITE
7. dolor—delight
   SAME OPPOSITE
8. doleful—merry
   SAME OPPOSITE
9. cavalier—courteous
   SAME OPPOSITE
10. cadaver—corpse
    SAME OPPOSITE
11. decadent—resurgent
    SAME OPPOSITE
12. chivalry—gallantry to women
    SAME OPPOSITE
13. condolences—congratulations
    SAME OPPOSITE

KEY: 1–S, 2–O, 3–S, 4–S, 5–S, 6–S, 7–O, 8–O, 9–O, 10–S, 11–O, 12–S, 13–O

Can you recall the words?

1. harmful
    1. N_____
2. a literary work or an event that follows another
    2. S_____
3. drink in
    3. I_____
4. poetic word for sorrow
    4. D_____
5. burial ceremonies
    5. O_____
6. horseman
    6. E_____
7. horsewoman
    7. E_____
8. horselike
    8. E_____
9. following (*adj.*)
    9. S_____
10. relating to money (*adj.*)
    10. P_____
11. exaggeratedly sad
    11. D_____
12. proper order
    12. S_____
13. parade of mounted riders
    13. C_____
14. offhand; unmindful of another's feelings
    14. C_____

15. mounted soldiers
    15. C_____
16. a corpse
    16. C_____
17. morally deteriorating (*adj.*)
    17. D_____
18. spiritual decay
    18. D_____
19. expression of sympathy
    19. C_____
20. gallantry to women
    20. C_____

KEY: 1–noxious, 2–sequel, 3–imbibe, 4–dolor, 5–obsequies, 6–equestrian, 7–equestrienne, 8–equine, 9–subsequent, 10–pecuniary, 11–doleful, 12–sequence, 13–cavalcade, 14–cavalier, 15–cavalry, 16–cadaver, 17–decadent, 18–decadence, 19–condolence, 20–chivalry *or* chivalrousness

CHAPTER REVIEW

A. Do you recognize the words?

1. Excessively polite and fawning:
   (a) querulous, (b) obsequious, (c) supercilious
2. Noisily troublesome:
   (a) querulous, (b) impecunious, (c) obstreperous
3. Courteous and attentive to women:
   (a) querulous, (b) chivalrous, (c) supercilious
4. Complaining, nagging:
   (a) querulous, (b) supercilious, (c) innocuous
5. Haughtily disdainful:
   (a) supercilious, (b) bibulous, (c) dolorous
6. Gaunt, corpselike:
   (a) noxious, (b) cadaverous, (c) doleful
7. Highhanded:
   (a) supercilious, (b) cavalier, (c) decadent
8. Moral decay:
   (a) decadence, (b) obsequies, (c) sequence
9. Expression of sympathy:
   (a) bibulousness, (b) dolefulness, (c) condolence
10. Courtesy to women:
    (a) dolor, (b) chivalry, (c) decadence

KEY: 1–b, 2–c, 3–b, 4–a, 5–a, 6–b, 7–b, 8–a, 9–c, 10–b

B. Can you recognize roots?

ROOT	MEANING
1. *sequor*	_____
EXAMPLE subsequent	
2. *queror*	_____
EXAMPLE querulous	
3. *cilium*	_____
EXAMPLE supercilious	
4. *super*	_____
EXAMPLE supervision	
5. *strepo*	_____
EXAMPLE obstreperous	
6. *pecus*	_____
EXAMPLE pecuniary	
7. *cheval*	_____
EXAMPLE chivalry	
8. *caballus* (*caval-*)	_____
EXAMPLE cavalier	
9. *equus*	_____
EXAMPLE equine	
10. *cado*	_____

EXAMPLE decadence

KEY: 1–to follow, 2–to complain, 3–eyelid, 4–above, 5–to make a noise, 6–cattle, 7–horse, 8–(inferior) horse, 9–horse, 10–to fall

TEASER QUESTIONS FOR THE AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

1. In logic, a conclusion not based on the evidence is called a *non sequitur;* by extension, the term is applied to any statement that appears to have no connection or relevance to what was said before. Knowing the root *sequor*, how would you define this term etymologically? _____.

2. *Sequor*, like many other Latin verbs, has another form somewhat differently spelled. (Remember *verto, versus* and *loquor, locutus?*) The other form of *sequor* is *secutus.* Can you define the following words in terms of the root?

(a) second: _____

(b) consecutive: _____

(c) persecute: _____

(d) prosecute: _____

3. Latin *super*, above or over, is used as a prefix in hundreds of English words. Can you figure out the word starting with *super-* that fits each etymological definition?

(a) above others (in quality, position, etc.) _____
(b) above the surface; not in depth (*adj.*) _____
(c) (flowing) above what is necessary; more than needed (*adj.*) _____
(d) above (or beyond) the natural (*adj.*) _____
(e) to oversee; be in charge of (v.) _____

4. *Cado*, to fall, is found in the following English words (sometimes the root is spelled *-cid*). Can you define each word in terms of its etymological parts?

(a) cadence: _____

(b) occidental: _____

(c) deciduous: _____

(d) incident: _____

(e) accident: _____

(f) coincidence: _____

5. The negative prefix *in-* plus *doleo*, to suffer, forms an adjective that *etymologically* means *not suffering* (*pain*), but *actually* means *idle; lazy; disliking effort or work*. Can you figure out the English word? _____.
Can you write the noun form? _____.

6. What does the feminine name Dolores mean etymologically? _____.

(*End of Session 46*)

Brief Intermission Ten

ANOTHER CHECK ON YOUR SPELLING

In each line you will find four words—one of them purposely, subtly, and perhaps unexpectedly misspelled. It's up to you to check the single error. If you can come out on top at least fifteen times out of twenty, you're probably a better speller than you realize.

1. (a) alright, (b) coolly, (c) supersede, (d) disappear
2. (a) inoculate, (b) definately, (c) irresistible, (d) recommend
3. (a) incidentally, (b) dissipate, (c) seperate, (d) balloon
4. (a) argument, (b) ecstasy, (c) occurrance, (d) analyze
5. (a) sacrilegious, (b) weird, (c) pronunciation, (d) repitition
6. (a) drunkeness, (b) embarrassment, (c) weird, (d) irritable
7. (a) noticeable, (b) superintendant, (c) absence, (d) development
8. (a) vicious, (b) conscience, (c) panicy, (d) amount
9. (a) accessible, (b) pursue, (c) exhilarate, (d) insistant
10. (a) naïveté, (b) necessary, (c) catagory, (d) professor
11. (a) rhythmical, (b) sergeant, (c) vaccuum, (d) assassin
12. (a) benefitted, (b) allotted, (c) corroborate, (d) despair
13. (a) diphtheria, (b) grandeur, (c) rediculous, (d) license
14. (a) tranquillity, (b) symmetry, (c) occassionally, (d) privilege
15. (a) tarriff, (b) tyranny, (c) battalion, (d) archipelago
16. (a) bicycle, (b) geneology, (c) liquefy, (d) bettor
17. (a) defense, (b) batchelor, (c) stupefy, (d) parallel

18. (a) whisky, (b) likable, (c) bookkeeper, (d) accomodate
19. (a) comparitive, (b) mayonnaise, (c) indispensable, (d) dexterous
20. (a) dictionary, (b) cantaloupe, (c) existance, (d) ukulele

KEY: 1–a (all right), 2–b (definitely), 3–c (separate), 4–c (occurrence), 5–d (repetition), 6–a (drunkenness), 7–b (superintendent), 8–c (panicky), 9–d (insistent), 10–c (category), 11–c (vacuum), 12–a (benefited), 13–c (ridiculous), 14–c (occasionally), 15–a (tariff), 16–b (genealogy), 17–b (bachelor), 18–d (accommodate), 19–a (comparative), 20–c (existence)

17

HOW TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Comprehensive Test III

SESSION 47

I—etymology

ROOT	MEANING
1. *fluo*	_____
EXAMPLE affluent	
2. *pheme*	_____
EXAMPLE euphemism	
3. *platys*	_____
EXAMPLE platitude	
4. *felis*	_____
EXAMPLE feline	
5. *piscis*	_____
EXAMPLE piscine	
6. *nostos*	_____
EXAMPLE nostalgia	
7. *kakos*	_____
EXAMPLE cacophony	
8. *carnis*	_____
EXAMPLE carnivorous	
9. *voro*	_____

EXAMPLE voracious

10. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omnivorous

11. *potens, potentis* _____

EXAMPLE impotent

12. *ubique* _____

EXAMPLE ubiquity

13. *lupus* _____

EXAMPLE lupine

14. *doleo* _____

EXAMPLE dolorous

15. *porcus* _____

EXAMPLE porcine

16. *thanatos* _____

EXAMPLE euthanasia

17. *canis* _____

EXAMPLE canine

18. *vulpus* _____

EXAMPLE vulpine

19. *algos* _____

EXAMPLE nostalgic

20. *odyne* _____

EXAMPLE anodyne

21. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE eulogy

22. *sciens, scientis* _____

EXAMPLE omniscient

23. *ursus* _____

EXAMPLE ursine

24. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE euphonious

25. *penuria* _____

EXAMPLE penury

II—more etymology

ROOT, PREFIX MEANING

1. *nervus* _____

EXAMPLE enervate

2. *ergon* _____

EXAMPLE energy

3. *nego* _____

EXAMPLE negation

4. *caput, capitis* _____

EXAMPLE decapitate

5. *capitulum* _____

EXAMPLE recapitulate

6. *vegeto* _____

EXAMPLE vegetate

7. *simulo* _____

EXAMPLE simulate

8. *similis* _____

EXAMPLE similarity

9. *levis* _____

EXAMPLE alleviate

10. *intimus* _____

EXAMPLE intimate (v.)

11. *miser* _____

EXAMPLE commiserate

12. *vacillo* _____

EXAMPLE vacillate

13. *ambi-* _____

EXAMPLE ambivalent

14. *oscillum* _____

EXAMPLE oscillate

15. *sequor, secutus* _____

EXAMPLE obsequious

16. *queror* _____

EXAMPLE querulous

17. *cilium* _____

EXAMPLE supercilious

18. *super-* _____

EXAMPLE superior

19. *strepo* _____

EXAMPLE obstreperous

20. *pecus* _____

EXAMPLE impecunious

21. *equus* _____

EXAMPLE equine

22. *caballus* (*caval-*) _____

EXAMPLE cavalier

23. *loquor, locutus* _____

EXAMPLE circumlocution

24. *cado* _____

EXAMPLE decadence

25. *vanesco* _____

EXAMPLE evanescent

III—same or opposite?

1. penury—affluence
   SAME OPPOSITE
2. vicarious—secondhand
   SAME OPPOSITE
3. ephemeral—evanescent

SAME OPPOSITE

4. badinage—persiflage

SAME OPPOSITE

5. cacophony—euphony

SAME OPPOSITE

6. clandestine—surreptitious

SAME OPPOSITE

7. parsimonious—extravagant

SAME OPPOSITE

8. indigent—opulent

SAME OPPOSITE

9. destitute—impecunious

SAME OPPOSITE

10. euphemistic—indirect

SAME OPPOSITE

11. cliché—bromide

SAME OPPOSITE

12. platitudinous—original

SAME OPPOSITE

13. voracious—gluttonous

SAME OPPOSITE

14. omniscient—ignorant

SAME OPPOSITE

15. omnipresent—ubiquitous

SAME OPPOSITE

16. carnal—libidinous

SAME OPPOSITE

17. carnage—slaughter

SAME OPPOSITE

18. enervated—exhilarated

SAME OPPOSITE

19. castigate—condone

SAME OPPOSITE

20. simulate—pretend

SAME OPPOSITE

IV—matching

WORDS	DEFINITIONS
1. alleviating	a. excessively polite or servile
2. cavalier (*adj.*)	b. gaunt, corpselike
3. vacillating	c. noisy
4. obsequious	d. poisonous
5. querulous	e. highhanded
6. obstreperous	f. sad
7. innocuous	g. nagging; complaining
8. cadaverous	h. harmless
9. dolorous	i. soothing
10. noxious	j. constantly changing one's mind

V—more matching

1. condolence	a. a rising into the air
2. decadent	b. harsh sound
3. levity	c. powerlessness
4. levitation	d. a return to life in a new form
5. surreptitious	e. devouring all; eating

everything

6. cacophony
7. reincarnation
8. omnivorous
9. impotence
10. bovine

f. expression of sympathy
g. cowlike; phlegmatic; stolid
h. morally deteriorating
i. joking
j. stealthy; secret

VI—recall a word

1. lionlike
    1. L_____
2. doglike
    2. C_____
3. catlike
    3. F_____
4. piglike
    4. P_____
5. foxlike
    5. V_____
6. bearlike
    6. U_____
7. horselike
    7. E_____
8. all-powerful
    8. O_____
9. in the flesh
    9. I_____
10. to stagnate
    10. V_____
11. secret

11. C_____

12. meat-eating (*adj.*)

12. C_____

13. lasting a very short time

13. E_____

14. stingy; tight-fisted

14. P_____

or P_____

15. feeling contradictory ways at the same time (*adj.*)

15. A_____

16. speech of praise

16. E_____

17. a feeling of well-being, both physical and emotional

17. E_____

18. statement intended to allay pain or anxiety

18. A_____

19. mercy death

19. E_____

20. science of speech sounds

20. P_____

21. all-powerful

21. O_____

22. to give in; to stop resisting

22. C_____

23. a working together for greater effect

23. S_____

or S_____

24. to behead

24. D_____

25. relating to, pertaining to, or involving money (*adj.*)

25. P_____

26. harmless

26. I_____

27. tending to drink a lot (*adj.*)
    27. B_____
28. to express sympathy; to share suffering, pain, or grief (with)
    28. C_____
    or C_____
29. snobbish; contemptuous; haughty; arrogant
    29. S_____
30. mounted soldiers
    30. C_____

KEY: A correct answer counts one point. Score your points for each part of the test, then add for a total.

I

1–to flow, 2–voice, 3–flat, broad, 4–cat, 5–fish, 6–a return, 7–harsh, bad, ugly, 8–flesh, 9–to devour, 10–all, 11–powerful, 12–everywhere, 13–wolf, 14–to suffer, grieve, 15–pig, 16–death, 17–dog, 18–fox, 19–pain, 20–pain, 21–word, speech, 22–knowing, 23–bear, 24–sound, 25–want, neediness

Your score: _____

II

1–nerve, 2–work, 3–to deny, 4–head, 5–little head, chapter heading, 6–to live and grow, 7–to copy, 8–like, similar, 9–light, 10–innermost, 11–wretched, 12–to swing back and forth, 13–both, 14–a swing, 15–to follow, 16–to complain, 17–eyelid, 18–above, 19–to make a noise, 20–cattle, 21–horse, 22–(inferior) horse, 23–to speak, 24–to fall, 25–to vanish

Your score: _____

III

1–O, 2–S, 3–S, 4–S, 5–O, 6–S, 7–O, 8–O, 9–S, 10–S, 11–S, 12–O, 13–S, 14–O, 15–S, 16–S, 17–S, 18–O, 19–O, 20–S

Your score: _____

IV

1–i, 2–e, 3–j, 4–a, 5–g, 6–c, 7–h, 8–b, 9–f, 10–d

Your score: _____

V

1–f, 2–h, 3–i, 4–a, 5–j, 6–b, 7–d, 8–e, 9–c, 10–g

Your score: _____

VI

1–leonine, 2–canine, 3–feline, 4–porcine, 5–vulpine, 6–ursine, 7–equine, 8–omnipotent, 9–incarnate, 10–vegetate, 11–clandestine, 12–carnivorous, 13–ephemeral, 14–penurious *or* parsimonious, 15–ambivalent, 16–eulogy, 17–euphoria, 18–anodyne, 19–euthanasia, 20–phonetics, 21–omnipotent, 22–capitulate, 23–synergism *or* synergy, 24–decapitate, 25–pecuniary, 26–innocuous, 27–bibulous, 28–condole *or* commiserate, 29–supercilious, 30–cavalry

Your score: _____

Your total score: _____

Significance of Your Total Score:

100–120:	Masterly
80–99:	Good
65–79:	Average
50–64:	Barely acceptable
35–49:	Poor
0–34:	Terrible!

Record your score in the appropriate space below as well as your scores from Chapters 8 and 13. You will then have a comparison chart of all three achievement tests.

SCORES

TEST I (Chapter 8): _____ out of 120.

TEST II (Chapter 13): _____ out of 120.

TEST III (Chapter 17): _____ out of 120.

(*End of Session 47*)

18

HOW TO CHECK YOUR STANDING AS AN AMATEUR ETYMOLOGIST

(*Answers to Teaser Questions in Chapters 3–7, 9–12, and 14–16*)

CHAPTER 3:

1. *Anthropocentric* (an′-thrə-pə-SEN′-trik), an adjective built on *anthropos*, mankind; Greek *kentron*, center, and the adjective suffix -*ic*, describes thinking, assumptions, reasoning, etc. that see mankind as the central fact, or ultimate aim, of the universe. The noun forms are either *anthropocentrism* (an′-thrə-pə-SEN′-triz-əm) or *anthropocentricity* (an′-thrə-pō′-sən-TRIS′-ə-tee).

2. *Andromania* (an′-drə-MAY′-nee-ə), a combination of *andros*, man (male), plus *mania*, madness, signifies an obsession with males. Person: *andromaniac*, one who is mad about men; adjective: *andromaniacal* (an′-drə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl).

3. *Gynandrous* (jī-NAN′-drəs), combining *gyne*, woman, with *andros*, man (male), describes:

a. plants in which the male and female organs are united in the same column; *or*

b. people who physically have both male and female sexual organs, often one or both in rudimentary form; *or*

c. (*a more recent meaning*) people who exhibit, or are willing to own up to, the male *and* female *emotional* characteristics that everyone possesses.

The word may have the roots in reverse, becoming *androgynous* (an-DROJ′-ə-nəs), with all three meanings identical to those of *gynandrous.*

Hermaphroditic (hur-maf′-rə-DIT′-ik), a combination of *Hermes*, the Greek god who served as messenger or herald (in Roman mythology, this god was known as *Mercury*, and is conventionally pictured with wings on his heels), and *Aphrodite*, the Greek goddess of love and beauty (in Roman mythology, *Venus*), has either of the first two meanings of *gynandrous.*

The noun form of *gynandrous* is *gynandry* (jī-NAN′-dree); of *androgynous, androgyny* (an-DROJ′-ə-nee); of *hermaphroditic, hermaphroditism* (hur-MAF′-rə-dī′-tiz-əm).

The individual plant is an *androgyne* (AN′-drə-jin); plant or person, a *hermaphrodite* (hur-MAF′-rə-dīt′).

4. *Monomania* (mon-ə-MAY′-nee-ə), combining *monos*, one, and *mania*, madness, is an obsession with one thing, or obsessiveness in one area. Person: *monomaniac;* adjective: *monomaniacal* (mon′-ə-mə-NĪ′-ə-kəl).

5. A *misandrist* (mis-AN′-drist), combining *misein*, to hate, with *andros*, man (male), hates men. Noun: *misandry* (mis-AN′-dree). Adjective: *misandrous* (mis-AN′-drəs).

Check your learning

ROOT	MEANING
1. *anthropos*	_____

EXAMPLE anthropocentric

2. *kentron* _____

EXAMPLE anthropocentrism

3. *andros* _____

EXAMPLE andromania

4. *mania* _____

EXAMPLE andromaniac

5. *gyne* _____

EXAMPLE gynandrous

6. *Hermes* _____

EXAMPLE hermaphrodite

7. *Aphrodite* _____

EXAMPLE hermaphroditic

8. *monos* _____

EXAMPLE monomania

9. *misein* _____

EXAMPLE misandry

KEY: 1–mankind, 2–center, 3–man (male), 4–madness, 5–woman, 6–Hermes, the messenger of the gods, 7–Aphrodite, goddess of love and beauty, 8–one, 9–to hate

CHAPTER 4:

1. *Pedodontia* (pee-də-DON′-shə) is the specialty of child dentistry—*paidos*, child, plus *odontos*, tooth. Specialist: *pedodontist.* Adjective: *pedodontic.*
2. *Cardialgia* (kahr′-dee-AL′-jə), heart pain—*kardia*, heart, plus *algos*, pain.
3. *Odontalgia* (ō′-don-TAL′-jə), toothache.
4. *Nostalgia* (nos-TAL′-jə). Adjective: *nostalgic.*

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *padios* (*ped-*)	_____
EXAMPLE pedodontia	
2. *kardia*	_____
EXAMPLE cardialgia	
3. *algos*	_____
EXAMPLE odontalgia	
4. *odontos*	_____
EXAMPLE pedodontist	

5. *nostos* _____

EXAMPLE nostalgia

KEY: 1–child, 2–heart, 3–pain, 4–tooth, 5–a return

CHAPTER 5:

1. Eighty to eighty-nine years old. From Latin *octoginta*, eighty. People of other ages are as follows:

(a) 50–59: *quinquagenarian* (kwin′-kwə-jə-NAIR′-ee-ən)
(b) 60–69: *sexagenarian* (seks′-ə-jə-NAIR′-ee-ən)
(c) 70–79: *septuagenarian* (sep′-choo-ə-jə-NAIR′-ee-ən)
(d) 90–99: *nonagenarian* (non′-ə-jə-NAIR′-ee-ən)
(e) 100 and over: *centenarian* (sen′-te-NAIR′-ee-ən)

2. *Cacophony* (kə-KOF′-ə-nee). Adjective: *cacophonous* (kə-KOF′-ə-nəs).

3. *Cacopygian* (kak′-ə-PIJ′-ee-ən).

4. *Telescope* (*tele-* plus *skopein*, to view) or *telebinoculars; telephone; television.*

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *octoginta*	_____
EXAMPLE octogenarian	
2. *quinquaginta*	_____
EXAMPLE quinquagenarian	
3. *sexaginta*	_____
EXAMPLE sexagenarian	

4. *septuaginta* _____

EXAMPLE septuagenarian

5. *nonaginta* _____

EXAMPLE nonagenarian

6. *centum* _____

EXAMPLE centenarian

7. *kakos* _____

EXAMPLE cacophony

8. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE cacophonous

9. *pyge* _____

EXAMPLE cacopygian

10. *tele-* _____

EXAMPLE television

11. *skopein* _____

EXAMPLE telescope

KEY: 1–eighty, 2–fifty, 3–sixty, 4–seventy, 5–ninety, 6–one hundred, 7–ugly, harsh, bad, 8–sound, 9–buttock, 10–distance, from afar, 11–to view

CHAPTER 6:

1. *Sophomore;* from *sophos* plus *moros*, foolish, the word etymologically designates one who is half wise and half foolish. The adjective *sophomoric* (sof-ə-MAWR′-ik) describes people, attitudes, statements, writings, etc. that are highly opinionated, self-assured, and coming off as if wise, but which in reality are immature, inexperienced, foolish, etc.

2. *Sophisticated* (sə-FIS′-tə-kay′-təd). The verb is *sophisticate*, the noun *sophistication.* One who is worldly-wise is a *sophisticate* (sə-FIS′-tə-kət).

Sophisticated has in recent years taken on the added meaning of *highly developed, mature, or complicated; appealing to a mature intellect; or aware and knowledgeable.* Examples: *sophisticated* machinery, electronic equipment; a *sophisticated* approach; a *sophisticated* audience, group, staff, faculty, etc.

3. One who is obsessed with books, especially with collecting books.

4. (a) speaking one language, (b) speaking two languages, (c) speaking three languages.

Multilingual (*multus*, many, plus *lingua*)—speaking many languages.

A *linguist* is one who is fluent in many languages, or else an expert in *linguistics* (or both).

Multus, as indicated, means *many*, as in *multitude, multiply, multiple, multicolored, multifarious, multilateral*, etc., etc.

5. (a) France, (b) Russia, (c) Spain, (d) Germany, (e) Japan, (f) China.

6. (a) *androphile*, (b) *gynephile* (or *philogynist*), (c) *pedophile*, (d) *zoophile*, (e) *botanophile*.

But *pedophilia* (pee′-də-FIL′-ee-ə) is another story. A *pedophiliac* sexually molests young children—such love little kids can do without!

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *sophos*	_____
EXAMPLE sophomore	
2. *moros*	_____
EXAMPLE sophomoric	
3. *biblion*	_____
EXAMPLE bibliomaniac	
4. *mania*	_____
EXAMPLE bibliomania	
5. *lingua*	_____
EXAMPLE linguist	
6. *monos*	_____
EXAMPLE monolingual	
7. *bi-*	_____
EXAMPLE bilingual	
8. *tri-*	_____

EXAMPLE trilingual

9. *multus* _____

EXAMPLE multilingual

10. *Franco-* _____

EXAMPLE Francophile

11. *Russo-* _____

EXAMPLE Russophile

12. *Hispano-* _____

EXAMPLE Hispanophile

13. *Germano-* _____

EXAMPLE Germanophile

14. *Nippono-* _____

EXAMPLE Nipponophile

15. *Sino-* _____

EXAMPLE Sinophile

16. *andros* _____

EXAMPLE androphile

17. *gyne* _____

EXAMPLE gynephile

18. *philein* _____

EXAMPLE philogynist

19. *paidos* (*ped-*) _____

EXAMPLE pedophile

20. *zoion* _____

EXAMPLE zoophile

21. *botane* _____

EXAMPLE botanophile

KEY: 1–wise, 2–foolish, 3–book, 4–madness, 5–tongue, 6–one, 7–two, 8–three, 9–many, 10–France, 11–Russia, 12–Spain, 13–Germany, 14–Japan, 15–China, 16–man (male), 17–woman, 18–to love, 19–child, 20–animal, 21–plant

CHAPTER 7:

1. A *notable* is someone well-*known.*

2. To *notify* is, etymologically, to make *known—notus* + *-fy*, a derivation of *facio*, to make.

Notice, as a noun, is what makes something *known; to notice*, as a verb, is to observe (something or someone) so that it, he, or she becomes *known* to the observer.

-Fy, as a verb suffix, means *to make.* So *simplify* is to make simple, *clarify*, to make clear; *liquefy*, to make liquid; *putrefy*, to make (or become) rotten or putrid; *stupefy*, to make stupid, or dumb, with astonishment (note the *-e* preceding the suffix in *liquefy, putrefy, stupefy*); *fortify*, to make strong; *rectify*, to make right or correct; etc., etc.

3. *Chronograph* (KRON′-ə-graf′) is an instrument that measures and records short intervals of time.

4. To *generate* is to give birth to, figuratively, or to create or produce, as a turbine *generates* power, a person's presence *generates* fear, etc. The noun is *generation*, which, in another context, also designates the people born and living about the same time (the older, previous, or next *generation*, the Depression *generation*, etc.), or a period, conventionally set at about thirty years, between such groups of people.

To *regenerate* is to give birth to again, or to be born again. Some creatures can *regenerate* new limbs or parts if these are lost or cut off —or the limbs or parts *regenerate.*

Re- means, of course, *again;* or, in some words, as *recede, regress*, etc., *back.*

5. *Omnipotent* (om-NIP′-ə-tənt)—all-powerful; *omnis* plus *potens, potentis*, powerful.

Omnipresent (om′-nə-PREZ′-ənt)—present all over, or everywhere.

Nouns: *omnipotence, omnipresence.*

6. *Anaphrodisiac* (ən-af′-rə-DIZ′-ee-ak′)—both a noun and an adjective. Saltpeter is supposedly an *anaphrodisiac;* so, some people say, is a cold shower, which is highly doubtful. The best temporary *anaphrodisiac* is probably sexual intercourse. Some women who were teen-agers when Elvis Presley was at the height of his popularity have told me that the young man's gyrating hips were *aphrodisiacal*—I will take their word for it, as Elvis has never turned me on. On the other hand, if you want to talk about Diane Keaton or Raquel Welch … or especially Marilyn Monroe…

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *notus*	_____
EXAMPLE notify	
2. *chronos*	_____
EXAMPLE chronograph	
3. *graphein*	_____
EXAMPLE chronographic	
4. *genesis*	_____
EXAMPLE generate	
5. *re-*	_____
EXAMPLE regenerate	

6. *omnis* _____

EXAMPLE omnipotent

7. *potens, potentis* _____

EXAMPLE omnipotence

8. *an-* _____

EXAMPLE anaphrodisiac

KEY: 1–known, 2–time, 3–to write, 4–birth, 5–again, 6–all, 7–powerful, 8–not (negative)

CHAPTER 9:

1. *Magnanimity* (mag′-nə-NIM′-ə-tee). Adjective: *magnanimous* (mag-NAN′-ə-məs).

2. *Bilateral* (bī-LAT′-ər-əl), as in a *bilateral* decision, i.e., one made by the two sides or two people involved. On the other hand, a *unilateral* (yo͞o-nə-LAT′-ər-əl) decision is made by *one* person, without consultation with others.

3. *Transcribe.* Noun: *transcription. A* stenographer *transcribes* shorthand notes into English words, or a musical *transcriber* arranges or adapts a musical composition for an instrument, group, etc. other than the one for which the work was originally written.

4. *Malaria* was once thought to have been caused by the "bad air" of swamps; actually, it was (and is) transmitted to humans by infected anopheles mosquitoes breeding and living in swamps and other places where there is stagnant water.

5. *Confection.* The word is hardly used much today with this meaning, except perhaps by members of an older generation who remember *confectioner's* shops and *confectionery* stores. Now such places are called *ice cream stores* (or *ice cream parlors*) and are run, at least on the west coast, by Baskin-Robbins or Farrell's; or they are called *candy shops;* or, when I was growing up, *candy stores*, where the kids all hung out, and candies could be bought for a penny apiece, with Hershey bars selling for a nickel (that's why they are called "the good old days").

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *magnus*	_____
EXAMPLE magnanimous	
2. *animus*	_____
EXAMPLE magnanimity	
3. *bi-*	_____
EXAMPLE bilateral	
4. *unus*	_____
EXAMPLE unilateral	
5. *latus, lateris*	_____
EXAMPLE unilateral	
6. *trans-*	_____
EXAMPLE transcribe	
7. *scribo, scriptus*	_____
EXAMPLE transcription	
8. *malus*	_____
EXAMPLE malaria	
9. *con-*	_____
EXAMPLE confection	
10. *facio* (*fec-*)	_____
EXAMPLE confectionery	

KEY: 1–big, large, great, 2–mind, 3–two, 4–one, 5–side, 6–across, 7–to write, 8–bad, evil, 9–together, 10–to make

CHAPTER 10:

1. *Modus operandi.* Method (or mode) of working (or operating). Pronounced MŌ′-dəs op′-ə-RAN′-dī, the word is not, of course, restricted to the special methods used by a criminal, but may refer to the method or style of operating characteristic of any other professional. *Modus vivendi* (MŌ′dəs və-VEN′-dī), etymologically "method of living," is the style of life characteristic of a person or group.

2. *Circumscription.* To *circumscribe* also means, figuratively, to write (a line) *around* (*one's freedom of action*), so that one is restricted, limited, hemmed in, as in, "a life *circumscribed* by poverty, by parental injunctions, or by an overactive conscience, etc.," or "actions *circumscribed* by legal restraints." The noun *circumscription* has the figurative meaning also.

3. *Somniloquent* (səm-NIL′-ə-kwənt). Noun: *somniloquence* (səm-NIL′-ə-kwəns) or *somniloquy* (səm-NIL′-ə-kwee), the latter noun also designating the words spoken by the sleeper. One who habitually talks while asleep is a *somniloquist* (səm-NIL′-ə-kwist).

4. An *aurist* is an ear specialist, more commonly called an *otologist* (ō-TOL′-ə-jist), from Greek *otos*, ear. Noun: *otology*. Adjective: *otological* (ō-tə-LOJ′-ə-kəl).

It is difficult at this point to resist telling a well-known story about medical specialists. In fact it's impossible to resist, so here it is:

A dentist, doing his first extraction on a patient, was understandably nervous. When he got the molar out, his hand

shook, he lost his grip on the instrument, and the tooth dropped down into the patient's throat.

"Sorry," said the doctor. "You're outside my specialty now. You should see a laryngologist! [lair′-ing-GOL′-ə-jist—a larynx or throat specialist]."

By the time the unfortunate victim got to the laryngologist, the tooth had worked its way much further down.

The laryngologist examined the man.

"Sorry," said the doctor, "You're outside my specialty now. You should see a gastrologist! [gas-TROL′-ə-jist—a stomach specialist]."

The gastrologist X-rayed the patient. "Sorry," said the doctor, "the tooth has traveled into your lower intestines. You should see an enterologist! [en′-tə-ROL′-ə-jist—an intestinal specialist]."

The enterologist took some X rays. "Sorry, the tooth isn't there. It must have gone down farther. You should see a proctologist! [prok-TOL′-ə-jist—a specialist in diseases of the rectum; from Greek *proktos*, anus]."

Our patient is now on the proctologist's examining table, in the proper elbow-knee position. The doctor has inserted a proctoscope and is looking through it.

"Good heavens, man! You've got a tooth up there! You should see a dentist!"

5. *Aural* (AWR-əl) refers to the ears or to the sense or phenomenon of hearing. *Monaural* reproduction, as of music over a radio or by a phonograph record, for example, has only one source of sound, and technically should be called *monophonic* (mon′-ə-FON′-ik)—*monos*, one, plus *phone*, sound. *Binaural* may mean *having two ears* or *involving the use of both ears*, or, recently, *descriptive of sound from two sources*, giving a *stereophonic* (steer′-ee-ə-FON′-ik) effect—*stereos*, deep, solid, plus *phone*.

6. A *noctambulist* (nok-TAM′-byə-list) walks at night—*nox, noctis*, night, plus *ambulo*, to walk. Noun: *noctambulism* (nok-TAM′-byə-liz-əm).

7. *Somnific* (som-NIF′-ik): *a somnific* lecture, movie, effect, etc.

8. *Circumambulate* (sur′-kəm-AM′-byə-layt′). To *circumnavigate* is to sail around—*circum*, around, plus *navis*, ship.

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *modus*	_____
EXAMPLE *modus operandi*	
2. *operandi*	_____
EXAMPLE *modus operandi*	
3. *vivo*	_____
EXAMPLE *modus vivendi*	
4. *circum-*	_____
EXAMPLE circumscribe	
5. *scribo, scriptus*	_____
EXAMPLE circumscription	
6. *somnus*	_____
EXAMPLE somniloquent	
7. *loquor*	_____
EXAMPLE somniloquence	
8. *aurus*	_____
EXAMPLE aurist	
9. *otos*	_____
EXAMPLE otology	

10. *proktos* _____

EXAMPLE proctologist

11. *stereos* _____

EXAMPLE stereophonic

12. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE stereophonic

13. *monos* _____

EXAMPLE monaural

14. *bi-* _____

EXAMPLE binaural

15. *nox, noctis* _____

EXAMPLE noctambulist

16. *ambulo* _____

EXAMPLE noctambulism

17. *facio* (*fic-*) _____

EXAMPLE somnific

KEY: 1–mode, method, 2–of working, 3–to live, 4–around, 5–to write, 6–sleep, 7–to speak, to talk, 8–ear, 9–ear, 10–anus, 11–deep, solid, 12–sound, 13–one, 14–two, 15–night, 16–to walk, 17–to make

CHAPTER 11:

1. *Matronymic* (mat′-rə-NIM′-ik). Or, if you prefer to use the Greek root for mother (*meter, metr-*), *metronymic*. The Greek word *metra*, uterus, derives from *meter*, naturally enough, so *metritis* is inflammation of the uterus; *metralgia* is uterine pain; *endometriosis* (en′-dō-mee′-tree-Ō′-sis) is any abnormal condition of the uterine lining—*endo*, inside; *metra*, uterus; *-osis*, abnormal condition.

2. (a) An *incendiary* statement, remark, speech, etc. figuratively enflames an audience, sets them afire, gets them excited, galvanizes them into action, etc.
   (b) *Incense* (IN′-sens) is a substance that sends off a pleasant odor when burned—often, but not necessarily, to mask unpleasant or telltale smells, as of marijuana smoke, etc.
   (c) To *incense* (in-SENS′) is to anger greatly, i.e., to "burn up." "I'm all burned up" is etymologically an accurate translation of "I'm *incensed.*"
3. (a) *Ardent* (AHR′-dənt)—burning with zeal, ambition, love, etc., as an *ardent* suitor, worker, etc.
   (b) *Ardor* (AHR′-dər)—the noun form of *ardent*—burning passion, zeal, enthusiasm, etc. Alternate noun: *ardency* (AHR′-dən-see).
4. *Megaphone.*
5. *Megalopolis* (meg′-ə-LOP′-ə-lis).
6. *Police. Politics.*

7. *Bibliokleptomaniac* (bib′-lee-ō-klep′-tə-MAY′-nee-ak): one who has an obsession for stealing books. Not too many years ago, an author titled his book, *Steal This Book!*, perhaps hoping to appeal to *bibliokleptomaniacs;* if the appeal was successful enough, his royalty statements must have been minuscule indeed!

Gynekleptomaniac.

Pedokleptomaniac.

Androkleptomaniac.

Demokleptomaniac.

If you prefer to use shorter words, *compulsive kidnapper* or *obsessive abductor* will do as well for these words.

8. *Acromaniac.*

Agoramaniac.

Claustromaniac.

9. *Kleptophobe; pyrophobe; gynephobe; androphobe; demophobe.*

Triskaidekaphobia (tris′-kī-dek′-ə-FŌ′-bee-ə) is the morbid dread of the number 13, from Greek *triskai*, three, *deka*, ten, and *phobia.*

10. *Gnosiology* (nō′-see-OL′-ə-jee), the science or study of knowledge.

11. *Amadeus* is love (Latin *amor*) God (Latin *deus*). *Theophilus* is love (Greek *philos*) God (Greek *theos*). *Gottlieb* is love (German *Lieb*) God (German *Gott*).

Perhaps this explains why he started composing at the age of four and wrote forty-one symphonies.

12. *Cellophane*—cellulose made to be transparent, i.e., to *show* what's wrapped in it.

13. *Hypoglycemia* (hī-pō-glī-SEE′-mee-ə)—low blood sugar, a common ailment today, though I believe the AMA has called it a "non-disease" (Greek *hypos*, under; *glykys*, sweet; *haima*, blood).

Haima, blood, is found in many English words, the root spelled either *hem-* or *-em.* Here are a few, with their etymological interpretations:

(a) *Hemorrhage*—excessive blood flow.

(b) *Anemia*—"no blood"—actually a pathological reduction of red blood corpuscles.

(c) *Hematology*—science of blood (and its diseases).

(d) *Hemophilia*—"love of blood"—actually a hereditary condition, occurring in males, in which the blood clots too slowly.

(e) *Hemoglobin*—"blood gobules"—actually the red coloring matter of the red blood corpuscles.

Hyperglycemia is the opposite of *hypoglycemia.*

14. (a) *Pantheon* (PAN′-thee-on′)—a temple built in Rome in 27 B.C. for "all the gods."

(b) *Pandemonium* (pan′-də-MŌ′-nee-əm)—a word supposedly coined by poet John Milton in *Paradise Lost* to signify the dwelling place of all the demons; now any wild and noisy disorder.

(c) *Panorama* (pan′-ə-RAM′-ə *or* pan′-ə-RAH′-mə)—a view (or a picture of such a view) all around—*pan*, all, plus *horama*, view. The adjective: *panoramic* (pan′-ə-RAM′-ik).

15. *Monarchy*—rule by one person.

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *mater, matris*	_____
EXAMPLE matronymic	
2. *onyma*	_____
EXAMPLE metronymic	
3. *meter*	_____
EXAMPLE metronymic	
4. *metra*	_____
EXAMPLE metritis	

5. *endo-* _____

EXAMPLE endometriosis

6. *incendo, incensus* _____

EXAMPLE incendiary

7. *ardo* _____

EXAMPLE ardent

8. *megalo-* _____

EXAMPLE megalopolis

9. *polis* _____

EXAMPLE police

10. *demos* _____

EXAMPLE demokleptomaniac

11. *akros* _____

EXAMPLE acromaniac

12. *agora* _____

EXAMPLE agoramaniac

13. *claustrum* _____

EXAMPLE claustromaniac

14. *triskai* _____

EXAMPLE triskaidekaphobia

15. *deka* _____

EXAMPLE triskaidekaphobia

16. *gnosis* _____

EXAMPLE gnosiology

17. *amor* _____

EXAMPLE Amadeus

18. *deus* _____

EXAMPLE deity

19. *theos* _____

EXAMPLE Theophilus

20. *philos* _____

EXAMPLE hemophilia

21. *phanein* _____

EXAMPLE cellophane

22. *hypos* _____

EXAMPLE hypoglycemia

23. *glykys* _____

EXAMPLE hypoglycemia

24. *haima* _____

EXAMPLE hemorrhage

25. *an-* _____

EXAMPLE anemia

26. *hyper-* _____

EXAMPLE hyperglycemia

27. *pan* _____

EXAMPLE Pantheon

28. *horama* _____

EXAMPLE panorama

29. *archein* _____

EXAMPLE monarch

30. *monos* _____

EXAMPLE monarchy

KEY: 1–mother, 2–name, 3–mother, 4–uterus, 5–inside, 6–to set on fire, 7–to burn, 8–big, large, great, 9–city, 10–people, 11–highest, 12–market place, 13–enclosed place, 14–three, 15–ten, 16–knowledge, 17–love, 18–God, 19–God, 20–love, 21–to show, 22–under, 23–sweet, 24–blood, 25–not, negative, 26–over, 27–all, 28–view, 29–to rule, 30–one

CHAPTER 12:

1. *Survive.* Noun: *survival.*

2. *Vivarium* (vī-VAIR′-ee-əm)—enclosed area in which plants and (small) animals live in conditions resembling their natural habitat. The suffix *-ium* usually signifies *place where—solarium*, a place for the sun to enter, or where one can sunbathe; *aquarium*, a place for water (Latin *aqua*, water), or fish tank; *podium*, a place for the feet (Greek *podos*, foot), or speaker's platform; *auditorium*, a place for hearing (or listening to) concerts, plays, etc. (Latin *audio*, to hear).

3. *Vita* (VĪ′-tə), etymologically, *life*, is one's professional or career résumé.

4. (a) *Unicorn* (Latin *cornu*, horn).
   (b) *Uniform.*
   (c) *Unify* (*-fy*, from *facio*, to make).
   (d) *Unity.*
   (e) *Unicycle* (Greek *kyklos*, circle, wheel).

5. *Anniversary*—a year has turned.

6. (a) *Universe*—everything turning as one.
   (b) *University*—highest institute of education—universal subjects taught, learned, etc., i.e., the curriculum covers the universe, is *in* no way restricted, etc.

7. (a) *Interstate.*

(b) *International.*
(c) *Intermediate.*
(d) *Interrupt* (Latin *rumpo, ruptus*, to break).
(e) *Interpersonal.*

8. (a) *Intrastate.*
(b) *Intranational.*
(c) *Intrapersonal* or *intrapsychic.*
(d) *Intramuscular.*

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *vivo*	_____
EXAMPLE survive	
2. *podos*	_____
EXAMPLE podium	
3. *vita*	_____
EXAMPLE *vita*	
4. *cornu*	_____
EXAMPLE unicorn	
5. *kyklos*	_____
EXAMPLE unicycle	
6. *annus*	_____
EXAMPLE anniversary	
7. *verto, versus*	_____
EXAMPLE universe	

8. *unus* _____

EXAMPLE university

9. *inter-* _____

EXAMPLE interstate

10. *intra-* _____

EXAMPLE intrapsychic

KEY: 1–to live, 2–foot, 3—life, 4–horn, 5–circle, wheel, 6–year, 7–to turn, 8–one, 9–between, 10–within

CHAPTER 14:

1. "View of Death."
2. *Thanatology*.
3. (a) *Prophesy* (PROF′-ə-sī′).
   (b) *Prophecy* (PROF′-ə-see).
   (c) *Prophet* (PROF′-ət).
4. (a) *Predict.*
   (b) *Prediction.*
5. *Nostopathy*—"disease" (tensions, insecurities, conflicts) on returning home after leaving the service. Some veterans could not face the freedom and responsibilities of being on their own. The Army, Navy, or Air Force had fed and clothed them and made decisions for them; now they had to readjust to civilian life.
6. (a) *Vulpicide.*
   (b) *Lupicide.*
   (c) *Felicide.*
   (d) *Ursicide.*
7. (a) *Piscivorous* (pə-SIV′-ər-əs).
   (b) *Insectivorous* (in′-sek-TIV′-ər-əs).
8. *Canaries*, what else?
9. *Potentiate* (pə-TEN′-shee-ayt′).

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING

1. *thanatos* _____

EXAMPLE thanatology

2. *logos* _____

EXAMPLE thanatology

3. *opsis* _____

EXAMPLE *Thanatopsis*

4. *pheme* _____

EXAMPLE prophecy

5. *pro-* _____

EXAMPLE prophet

6. *pre-* _____

EXAMPLE predict

7. *dico, dictus* _____

EXAMPLE predict

8. *nostos* _____

EXAMPLE nostopathy

9. *pathos* _____

EXAMPLE nostopathy

10. *vulpus* _____

EXAMPLE vulpicide

11. *lupus* _____

EXAMPLE lupicide

12. *felis* _____

EXAMPLE felicide

13. *ursus* _____

EXAMPLE ursicide

14. *piscis* _____

EXAMPLE piscivorous

15. *voro* _____

EXAMPLE insectivorous

16. *caedo* (*-cide*) _____

EXAMPLE insecticide

17. *canis* _____

EXAMPLE canary

18. *potens, potentis* _____

EXAMPLE potentiate

KEY: 1–death, 2–science, study, 3–view, 4–voice, 5–beforehand 6–before, 7–to say or tell, 8–a return, 9–disease, 10–fox, 11–wolf, 12–cat, 13–bear, 14–fish, 15–devour, 16–to kill (killing), 17–dog, 18–powerful

CHAPTER 15:

1. *Synagogue.*
2. *Symbiosis* (sim′-bī-Ō′-sis). Adjective: *symbiotic* (sim′-bī-OT′-ik).

People (for example lovers, spouses, parent and child, etc.) also may live in a *symbiotic* relationship, each depending on the other for important services, emotional needs, etc.; each also providing these for the other.

3. *Symphony; symphonic.*
4. *Symmetry* (SIM′-ə-tree); *symmetrical* (sə-MET′-rə-kəl) or *symmetric* (sə-MET′-rik).
5. *Syndrome* (SIN′-drōm).
6. *Hippodrome* (HIP′-ə-drōm′); the word today is often used as the name of a movie theater or other place of entertainment.
7. *Hippopotamus.*

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *syn-*	_____
EXAMPLE synagogue	
2. *agogos*	_____
EXAMPLE synagogue	

3. *bios* _____

EXAMPLE symbiosis

4. *phone* _____

EXAMPLE symphonic

5. *metron* _____

EXAMPLE symmetry

6. *dromos* _____

EXAMPLE syndrome

7. *hippos* _____

EXAMPLE hippodrome

8. *potamos* _____

EXAMPLE hippopotamus

KEY: 1–with, together, 2–leader, leading, 3–life, 4–sound, 5–measurement, 6–a running, 7–horse, 8–river

CHAPTER 16:

1. *Non sequitur* (non SEK′-wə-tər)—“it does not follow.”
2. (a) *Second*—following after the first.
   (b) *Consecutive*—following in proper order
   (c) *Persecute*—to follow (i.e., pursue) through and through; hence to annoy, harass continually for no good reason.
   (d) *Prosecute*—to follow before; hence to pursue (something) diligently or vigorously in order to complete it successfully (*prosecute* a campaign); or to start, or engage in, legal proceedings against, especially in an official capacity.
3. (a) *Superior.*
   (b) *Superficial.*
   (c) *Superfluous* (sə-PUR′-flo͞o-əs). Noun: superfluity (so͞o′-pər-FLOO′-ə-tee).
   (d) *Supernatural.*
   (e) *Supervise.*
4. (a) *Cadence* (KAY′-dəns)—fall and rise of the voice in speaking; hence inflection, rhythm beat, etc. of sound or music. Adjective: *cadent* (KAY′-dənt).
   (b) *Occidental* (ok′-sə-DEN′-təl)—etymologically, falling. Hence relating to western countries, since the sun falls in the west; also, a native of such a country. Noun: *Occident* (OK′-sə-dənt). The sun rises in the east, so Latin *orior*, to rise, is the origin of the *Orient, oriental*, etc., and also of the verb *orient* (AW′-ree-ent′). To *orient* is to adjust to a place or situation; etymologically, to turn, or face, east. Noun: *orientation.* “I’m

finally *oriented*" does not mean that I'm easternized or facing east, but that I have become familiar with, and comfortable in, a place, job, situation, etc. So to *disorient* (dis-AW′-ree-ent′) is to remove (someone's) *orientation*, or to confuse or bewilder, especially in reference to locality, direction, etc. Noun: *disorientation.*

(c) *Deciduous* (də-SIJ′-oo-əs)—falling down (Latin prefix *de-*). This adjective refers to trees whose leaves fall (down) every autumn.

(d) *Incident*—that which falls upon, befalls, or happens.

(e) *Accident*—that which falls to (*ac-* is a respelling of *ad-*, to, toward) someone or something (by chance).

(f) *Coincidence*—*co-* is a respelling of *con-*, together. A *coincidence* occurs when two things befall, or happen, together, or at the same time, and by chance.

5. *Indolent* (IN′-də-lənt). Noun: *indolence* (IN′-də-ləns).

6. *Dolores*—from Spanish *Maria de los Dolores*, Mary of the Sorrows; hence, I guess, someone who is generally sorrowful, though the few Doloreses I have known do not live up to their etymology.

Check your learning

PREFIX, ROOT	MEANING
1. *sequor, secutus*	_____
EXAMPLE non sequitur, second	
2. *per-*	_____
EXAMPLE persecute	
3. *pro-*	_____
EXAMPLE prosecute	

4. *super-* _____

EXAMPLE superior

5. *fluo* _____

EXAMPLE superfluous

6. *cado* _____

EXAMPLE cadence

7. *orior* _____

EXAMPLE Orient

8. *dis-* _____

EXAMPLE disorient

9. *ad-* (*ac-*) _____

EXAMPLE accident

10. *doleo* _____

EXAMPLE indolent

11. *in-* _____

EXAMPLE indolence

KEY: 1–to follow, 2–through, 3–beforehand, 4–above, 5–to flow, 6–to fall, 7–to rise, 8–negative prefix, 9–to, toward, 10–to suffer, to grieve, 11–negative prefix

19

HOW TO KEEP BUILDING YOUR VOCABULARY

At commencement exercises, whether in elementary school, high school, or college, at least one of the speakers will inevitably point out to the graduates that this is not the end—not by a long shot. It is only the beginning; that's why it is called "commencement," etc., etc.

Of course the speaker is right—no educative process is ever the end; it is always the beginning of more education, more learning, more living.

And that is the case here. What has happened to you as a result of your reaction to the material and suggestions in this book is only the beginning of your development. To stop increasing your vocabulary is to stop your intellectual growth. You will wish, I am sure, to continue growing intellectually as long as you remain alive. And with the momentum that your weeks of hard work have provided, continuing will not be at all difficult.

Let me offer, as a summary of all I have said throughout the book, a recapitulation of the steps you must take so that your vocabulary will keep growing and growing.

STEP ONE. *You must become actively receptive to new words.*

Words won't come chasing after you—you must train yourself to be on a constant lookout, in your reading and listening, for any words that other people know and you don't.

STEP TWO. *You must read more.*

As an adult, you will find most of the sources of your supply of new words in books and magazines. Is your reading today largely restricted to a quick perusal of the daily newspaper? Then you will have to change your habits. If your aim is to have a superior vocabulary, you will have to make the time to read at least one book and several magazines *every week*. Not just this week and next week—but every week for the rest of your life. I have never met a single person who possessed a rich vocabulary who was not also an omnivorous reader.

STEP THREE. *You must learn to add to your own vocabulary the new words you meet in your reading.*

When you see an unfamiliar word in a book or magazine, do not skip over it impatiently. Instead, pause for a moment and say it over to yourself—get used to its sound and appearance. Then puzzle out its possible meaning in the context of the sentence. Whether you come to the right conclusion or not, whether indeed you are able to come to any intelligent conclusion at all, is of no importance. What is important is that you are, by this process, becoming superconscious of the word. As a result, you will suddenly notice that this very word pops up unexpectedly again and again in all your reading—for you now have a mind-set for it. And of course after you've seen it a few times, you will know fairly accurately not only what it means but the many ways in which it can be used.

STEP FOUR. *You must open your mind to new ideas.*

Every word you know is the translation of an idea.

Think for a few minutes of the areas of human knowledge that may possibly be unknown to you—psychology, semantics, science, art, music, or whatever. Then attack one of these areas methodically—by reading books in the field. In every field, from the simplest to

the most abstruse, there are several books written for the average, untrained lay reader that will give you both a good grasp of the subject and at the same time add immeasurably to your vocabulary. College students have large vocabularies because they are required to expose themselves constantly to new areas of learning. You must do the same.

STEP FIVE. *You must set a goal.*

If you do *nothing* about your vocabulary, you will learn, at most, twenty-five to fifty new words in the next twelve months. *By conscious effort you can learn several thousand.* Set yourself a goal of finding several new words *every day*. This may sound ambitious—but you will discover as soon as you start actively looking for new words in your reading, and actively doing reading of a more challenging type, that new words are all around you—that is, if you're ready for them. And understand this: vocabulary building *snowballs.* The results of each new day's search will be greater and greater—once you provide the necessary initial push, once you gain momentum, once you *become addicted* to looking for, finding, and taking possession of new words.

And this is one addiction well worth cultivating!

APPENDIX

SOME ESOTERIC PHOBIAS

(You will recognize many of the Greek roots on which these words are constructed)

air: aerophobia
animals: zoophobia
beauty: callophobia
birth: genophobia
blood: hematophobia
breasts: mastophobia
burglars: scelerophobia
burial alive: taphephobia
cats: ailurophobia
change: neophobia
childbirth: maieusiophobia
children: pedophobia
colors: chromophobia
crowds: ochlophobia
darkness: nyctophobia
death: thanatophobia
depths: bathophobia
disease: pathophobia

doctors: iatrophobia
dogs: cynophobia
dying: thanatophobia
emptiness: kenophobia
everything: pantophobia
eyes: ophthalmophobia
fear: phobophobia
feces: coprophobia
feet: podophobia
female genitals: eurotophobia
filth: mysophobia
fire: pyrophobia
fish: ichthyophobia
fog: homichlophobia
food: cibophobia
foreigners: xenophobia
freaks: teratophobia
frogs: batrachophobia
ghosts: phasmophobia
hands: chirophobia
hair: trichophobia
healers or healing: iatrophobia
heat: thermophobia
hell: stygiophobia
horses: hippophobia
insects: entomophobia
knives: aichmophobia
knowledge: gnosiophobia
large things: megalophobia
light: photophobia
lightning: astrophobia
males: androphobia
many things: polyphobia

marriage: gamophobia
medicine: pharmacophobia
mice: musophobia
mirrors: spectrophobia
mobs: ochlophobia
motherhood: metrophobia
motion: kinesophobia
nakedness: gymnophobia
needles: belonophobia
newness: neophobia
night: nyctophobia
oceans: thalassophobia
odors: osmophobia
old age: geraphobia
old men: gerontophobia
pain: algophobia; odynophobia
people: demophobia
plants: botanophobia
pleasure: hedonophobia
poison: toxicophobia
poverty: peniophobia
prostitutes: pornophobia
punishment: poinophobia
rain: ombrophobia
red: erythrophobia
rivers: potamophobia
robbers: harpaxophobia
sameness: homophobia
sex: genophobia
sexual intercourse: coitophobia
sinning: peccatophobia
skin: dermatophobia
sleep: hypnophobia

small things: microphobia
smothering: pnigerophobia
snakes: ophidiophobia
snow: chionophobia
solitude: autophobia; monophobia
sounds: acousticophobia
speaking: lalophobia
speaking aloud: phonophobia
speech: logophobia
spiders: arachneophobia
stairs: climacophobia
stars: siderophobia
stealing: kleptophobia
stillness: eremiophobia
strangers: xenophobia
strength: sthenophobia
study: logophobia
sunlight: heliophobia
tapeworms: taeniophobia
taste: geumophobia
teeth: odontophobia
thieves: kleptophobia
thinking: phronemophobia
thirteen (the number): triskaidekaphobia
thirst: dipsophobia
thunder: brontophobia
time: chronophobia
togetherness: synophobia
travel: hodophobia
ugliness: cacophobia
voices: phemophobia
vomiting: emetophobia
walking: basiphobia

watching: scoptophobia
water: hydrophobia
weakness: asthenophobia
wealth: plutophobia
wind: anemophobia
women: gynephobia
words: logophobia
work: ergophobia
writing: graphophobia

Books by Norman Lewis

30 Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary
(written with Wilfred Funk)

Word Power Made Easy

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A COMPREHENSIVE GUIDE

Spoken and Written English
Grammar and Usage

RONALD CARTER
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Introduction to the *Cambridge Grammar of English*

WHAT IS GRAMMAR? 1

Grammar is concerned with how sentences and utterances are formed. In a typical English sentence, we can see the two most basic principles of grammar, the arrangement of items (syntax) and the structure of items (morphology):

I gave my sister a sweater for her birthday.

Arrangement of items (syntax) 1a

The meaning of this sentence is obviously created by words such as *gave*, *sister*, *sweater* and *birthday*. But there are other words (*I*, *my*, *a*, *for*, *her*) which contribute to the meaning, and, additionally, aspects of the individual words and the way they are arranged which enable us to interpret what the sentence means. For example, we know it is *I* who gave the sweater, not *my sister*, because *I* comes before the verb (*gave*). In English, subjects (the doers of actions) come before verbs in statements. We also know the relationship between the indirect object, *my sister*, and the direct object, *a sweater*, (that *the sweater* was given and *my sister* was the recipient) because indirect objects come before direct objects. We also expect *my* to come before *sister*, not after. These aspects of the arrangement of things in sentences is referred to as syntax. Syntax is one of the two basic principles of grammar.

Structure of items (morphology) 1b

The example sentence also illustrates the other basic principle of grammar. *I* and *my* are two different forms, one with a subject meaning, the other with a possessive meaning, even though they both refer to the same person. *Gave* refers to past time, in contrast to *give(s)*, which refers to present time. *Sweater* is singular; if there were more than one sweater, the form would be *sweaters*. These small items of meaning, such as *I*, *my*, the past form *gave*, a plural *-s* ending, are called grammatical morphemes, and come under the heading of morphology. Morphology is concerned with the structure of words and phrases. It is the second basic principle of grammar.

Acceptable and unacceptable forms 1c

Grammar is concerned with acceptable and unacceptable forms and the distinctions of meaning these forms create. The fact that *sweater* means 'knitted outer garment worn on the upper part of the body for warmth' and that *sister* means 'female sibling' are matters of vocabulary (lexis), but the distinction between present and past, one and more than one, subject and object, possession

and non-possession, etc., are matters of grammar. In every language, some forms are acceptable and others are not. So, in English, we can create arrangements of our example sentence which are not acceptable, either syntactically or morphologically:

I my sister gave a sweater for birthday her.

Gave I my sister a sweaters for his birthday.

I gives my sisters sweater a for her birthday.

In this grammar book, we indicate unacceptable forms with a line through the text:

~~I my sister gave a sweater for birthday her.~~

Vocabulary (lexis) 1d

Although some aspects of our example sentence are concerned with lexis, lexis and grammar are not totally independent. A 'sweater' is the kind of thing in the world that English treats as countable (we may have one, two or more of them). However, if I gave my sister 'information', the fact that information is an abstract entity, which English considers to be uncountable, affects the grammar, and the sentence would have to be *I gave my sister some information*. 'I gave my sister an information' would be an unacceptable form.

Phrases 1e

Our initial example sentence may also be seen as composed of units or building blocks of different sizes, not just individual words and their endings. For example, the sentence could be divided up thus:

I | gave | my sister | a sweater | for her birthday.

We have now divided the sentence into its constituent phrases (items which have individual functions in the sentence). It is the phrase *a sweater* which acts as the object, not just the word *sweater*, and the whole phrase *for her birthday* indicates the reason or circumstances of the giving.

Clauses 1f

We could extend the example sentence:

I gave my sister a sweater for her birthday and *she bought me a CD for mine*.

We can now see two larger building blocks (in green) in the sentence, connected by *and*. These are clauses (separate units containing their own verbs: *gave/bought*). Grammar is concerned with how the constituent units of sentences (morphemes, words, phrases and clauses) are put together to form sentences.

539 **Glossary** for any unfamiliar terms

Classes of word, phrase and clause 1g

Words are not all of the same type. Some, such as *sweater* and *sister*, are nouns (words referring to entities: persons, things, animals, abstract concepts); some, such as *gave* and *bought*, are verbs (words referring to actions, events or states); and so on. These words belong to different classes.

Equally, the phrases belong to different classes: *for her birthday* and *for mine* are prepositional phrases (phrases introduced by prepositions).

Clauses too belong to classes: some are declarative (they have the subject first and typically make statements), some are interrogative (they have a verb such as *do*, *be* or *have* first, and typically ask questions). Grammar is concerned with how units and classes relate to one another.

Functions 1h

The noun phrases *my sister*, *a sweater* are types of object in our example sentence in 1f, and *for my birthday* and *for mine* are operating as phrases indicating the circumstances. They are referred to as adjuncts. The terms subject, verb, object, adjunct refer to the functions the different phrase-types carry out in the clause. Grammar describes what the acceptable functions are.

Sounds (phonology) 1i

How sentences are spoken is also relevant. The sentence *I do like your car*, on the face of it, seems to break the rule that *do* is not used in statements. However, if the sentence is spoken with appropriate stress, then it becomes acceptable. This is the emphatic *do*, which may be used in statements:

I <u>do</u> like your car.

Phonology (the sound systems of a language) is therefore also connected in important ways with grammar and lexis, and influences the interpretation of sentences.

Choices 1j

Throughout the construction of a sentence, the speaker/writer makes choices. Choices involve things such as number (singular or plural), tense (present or past), definiteness (***a*** *sweater* versus ***the*** *sweater*), etc. Every choice carries a different meaning, and grammar is concerned with the implications of such choices.

WHAT IS THE *CAMBRIDGE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH*? 2

Usage and acceptability 2a

This book is a grammar of standard British English. Standard British English is a variety of English defined by its grammar, lexis and phonology. There are, of course, other standard varieties of English, for example, standard North American English or standard Indian English or standard Australian English, which may

differ quite considerably in terms of pronunciation, but only minimally as far as grammar is concerned. **Appendix 530–538** for particular differences in North American English grammar.

However, issues of acceptability are never far from the surface when there is reference to what is standard in grammar or in language use in general. In this book, the following main categories of British English are adopted:

- acceptable in standard written and spoken English (most forms are in this category)
- acceptable in standard written and spoken English but not approved in more prescriptive grammar books and often avoided by many writers of formal English; for example: split infinitives, stranded prepositions, choices between *who* and *whom*
- unacceptable in standard written English but acceptable in standard spoken English (for example **96** and **97** on **headers and tails**)
- unacceptable in standard written and spoken English but acceptable in many regional varieties of English (for example **119b** on the use of ***ain't***); such forms are not included in the main description in this book, and are simply referred to occasionally
- unacceptable in all varieties of English (for example a structure such as *he did must speak*); such forms are excluded from this book.*

Where possible in this book, we always give an indication if a particular grammatical usage is likely to be considered non-standard, but we also indicate in which contexts such usage may nonetheless pass unnoticed.

Grammar rules: deterministic and probabilistic 2b

The general lay person's perspective is that grammar is about rules of speaking and writing, but not all 'rules' given by grammarians are of the same kind.

Some rules are deterministic, that is, they are rules which always apply. For example, the definite article always comes before the noun (we say *the cup*, not *cup the*), or indicative third person singular present tense lexical verbs always end in *-s* (we say *she works*, not *she work*).

Other rules are probabilistic, that is to say, they state what is most likely or least likely to apply in particular circumstances. For example, in the overwhelming majority of cases, a relative pronoun (e.g. *who*, *which*, *that*) must be used to refer to the subject of a relative clause:

*We met a woman **who** had lived in Berlin during the 1980s.*

However, in informal spoken styles, the relative pronoun may often be omitted, especially after a *there* construction:

There was a shop in the village sold home-made ice cream.
(or: There was a shop in the village which/that sold home-made ice cream.)

* Our thanks to Susan Hunston for suggesting this list of categories.

It is not a rule that the relative pronoun **must** be omitted; it **can** be omitted. The rules concerning its use are therefore probabilistic (it is most probable in most cases that the relative pronoun will be used). In this book, many of the rules given are probabilistic, since they are based on observations of what is most likely and least likely in different contexts in real spoken and written data.

Descriptive versus prescriptive approach 2c

A descriptive approach to grammar is based on observations of usage; it states how people use the grammar of a language. A prescriptive approach to grammar is based on the idea that some forms are more 'correct' or more associated with 'good usage' than others. Prescriptive rules are often social rules that are believed to mark out a speaker or writer as educated or as belonging to a particular social class. Examples of prescriptive rules are:

> DO **NOT** END A SENTENCE WITH A PREPOSITION.
> (e.g. Do not say *This is something you should not be involved* ***in***; say *This is something* ***in which*** *you should not be involved*)

> DO **NOT** SPLIT AN INFINITIVE.
> (e.g. Do not say *I expect* ***to*** *shortly* ***welcome*** *him here*; say *I expect* ***to welcome*** *him here shortly*)

Examples are given throughout the book of contexts of use in which prescriptive rules do or do not apply, where this is useful to language learners. The book also contains a number of specially written panels that highlight common prescriptive rules, discuss attitudes to the rules and examine how they do or do not apply in different contexts of use (for example **337**).

The main approach taken in this book is descriptive. The emphasis throughout the book is on describing the ways in which speakers and writers of English use the language to communicate with one another, as evidenced in large numbers of spoken and written texts from all over the British English community. The approach taken is, we believe, compatible with a pedagogical grammar which is written primarily for advanced learners of English. It is therefore important that learners are aware of the social importance which attaches to certain prescriptive rules while at the same time being aware of the way in which English is used by real speakers and writers of the language. Issues relevant to a learner's grammar are explored further at several places below.

Grammar as structure and grammar as choice 2d

The book regularly draws attention to the implications of different grammatical choices and gives the user opportunities to observe and learn about grammatical choices in relation to particular contexts in which the language is used.

The *Cambridge Grammar of English (CGE)* makes a distinction between grammar as structure and grammar as choice. Grammar as structure means: What rules does one need to know in order to construct a sentence or clause appropriately? An example of a structural rule would be that the determiner *none* must be followed by *of* (*none of my friends*, as opposed to *none my friends*).

On the other hand, grammar frequently involves ellipsis, which is the absence of words which can be understood from the surrounding text or from the situation. For example the ellipsis of the subject noun or pronoun in expressions such as *Looking forward to seeing you*, *Don't know* and *Think so* is largely the speaker's/writer's interpersonal choice. Interpersonal choices are choices which are sensitive to the relationship between the speaker/writer and the listener/reader. In such a case as this, grammar as choice means: When is it normal to use ellipsis? Are some forms of ellipsis more likely to be used in spoken than in written modes? What kinds of relationship does it project between speakers and listeners? Are the forms linked to greater or lesser degrees of intimacy and informality?

Another example of grammar as choice would be the use of the past simple and the past progressive tense in reported speech. For example, the most frequent form of speech report is the past simple, as in:

*She **said** the central heating needed to be repaired.*

But the past progressive form can also be used. This is especially common in spoken rather than in written English as speakers can choose to express reports as 'pieces of news' rather than as representations of people's words:

*She **was saying** that she's going to quit her job.*

Both forms of *say* are acceptable but the progressive form is less frequent. It is, however, a choice which speakers or writers can make in particular contexts. In this book, both grammar as structure and grammar as choice are treated, and the grammar of choice is as important as the grammar of structure.

Grammar and lexis 2e

Grammar does not exist separately from other levels of language. There is a close link between grammar and lexis and in this book attention is given to the meaning, structure and formation of individual words. There are also many places in the book where grammatical choices entail particular choices of vocabulary, or vice versa.

The book reflects recent computer-assisted research, which shows the patterned relationship between vocabulary and grammar. For example, the pattern of about twenty verbs in English is verb + *by* + *-ing*, where the verb is followed by the preposition *by* and an *-ing* clause. Most verbs of this kind fall into two main groups, one group meaning 'start' or 'finish', the other group meaning 'respond to' or 'compensate for' something. For example:

*They **started off** by collecting money for children's charities.*

*She **concluded** by singing three songs in Italian.*

*They **responded to** the news by cutting off all communication with the outside world.*

*He **allowed for** the bend by braking sharply.*

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

Experienced users of English recognise such patterns intuitively but it is often only when computer analysis demonstrates the patterns across many examples of use that they are fully acknowledged. Description of such patterns is becoming a more established feature of many modern grammar books. *CGE* is no exception and lists of words which behave in similar ways to one another are frequently given.

Grammar and discourse 2f

Another important level of language organisation that has received detailed investigation in recent years is the level of discourse. Discourse refers to the patterns of language used beyond the level of the sentence or beyond the individual speaking turn. There has been much description of spoken discourse patterns (e.g. how people open and close conversations; how they organise their speaking turns) and also attention to the ways in which sentences combine to form coherent texts in writing. This book pays attention to such patterns and describes the cohesion of sentences – that is, the ways in which grammatical links across sentences or speakers' turns create coherent texts (214). Two chapters in this grammar (**123–139** and **140–154**) are devoted to grammar and discourse and to the way in which larger units of meaning are created.

In *CGE* it is not our aim to take a text and then extract atomised, grammatical points from it. Rather, texts are used to illustrate how grammatical meanings are created in actual use. The place, distribution and sequencing of the grammatical feature in its text and context are as important as its actual occurrence. This book is based on insights from the fields of text and discourse analysis, rather than just traditional sentence grammars. The emphasis in *CGE* is, wherever appropriate, on the relationship between choice of form and contextual factors.

In parts the book represents a first step towards a context-based or discourse grammar of English. For example, where it is appropriate, extracts from different written sources are clearly indicated and spoken exchanges are marked and explained with reference to particular contexts and speaker roles. For example,

[public notice]
*Vehicles parked **here** will be towed away.*

[notice in a train compartment]
***These** seats are reserved for disabled customers.*

[at a travel agent's; the customer has just received his tickets]
Customer: *Right well **this** is all right now is it?*
Agent: ***That**'s the ticket yes.*
(what is *this* for the customer is *that* for the agent)

Grammar and variation: the importance of context 2g

Language variation takes many different forms. Language can vary in levels of formality; it can vary according to the regional or social groups to which speakers belong; it can vary over time; it can vary according to the uses to which it is put.

Certain types of language use are associated with particular forms of activity or registers and are marked by distinctive patterns of use, including distinctive patterns of grammar.

For example, cookery books and instructional manuals use many imperatives; newspaper headlines often deploy highly compressed forms of language; some forms of academic English make particular use of the passive voice; incomplete sentences are commonly used to highlight key information in advertisements and in radio and television news broadcasts. In conversation, too, the choice of one grammatical feature rather than another can depend on the speaker's perception of the relationship they have with other speakers, the formality of the situation or their assessment of the context in which they are communicating.

An important factor that affects the context of communication is whether the medium is spoken or written. Several parts of this book describe differences and distinctions between spoken and written grammar and indicate the different degrees of formality that affect choices of grammar. Wherever necessary to avoid ambiguity, information about the context in which examples typically function, whether predominantly spoken or written, is given. In *CGE* we are assisted in this practice by access to a corpus (3a), which is very carefully annotated with reference to contexts of use.

Grammar and the spoken language 2h

Most books on the grammar of English have had a bias towards the written language. For many centuries dictionaries and grammars of the English language have taken the written language as a benchmark for what is proper and standard in the language, incorporating written, often literary, examples to illustrate the best usage.

Accordingly, the spoken language has been downgraded and has come to be regarded as relatively inferior to written manifestations. Both in the teaching and learning of first, second and foreign languages, and in educational institutions and society in general, oral skills are normally less highly valued, with linguistic expertise being equated almost exclusively with a capacity to read and write.

Until recently, the forms and structures typically found in spoken communication have not been highlighted. It is only recently that advances in audio-recording and associated technology have enabled sufficient quantities of spoken language to be used for analysis. *CGE* draws for its examples of spoken English on the CANCODE corpus (3a). The CANCODE corpus is a collection of everyday informal spoken texts which provides very useful evidence of significant structures, especially as they are found in spontaneous, unplanned, conversational usage. Although the corpus has not been systematically coded for phonetic features and features of intonation, this book has an accompanying CD-ROM in which key sentences, conversational exchanges and patterns of use can be listened to.

A bias towards written grammar means that in some cases appropriate terms for describing particular features of spoken grammar are not available within existing grammatical frameworks. In some cases new ways of describing language

(metalanguage) have to be introduced. An example is the use of the terms 'headers' and 'tails' (96 and 97). Thus, structures such as:

header
Her friend, Jill, the one we met in Portsmouth, ***she*** *said they'd moved house.*

tail
He *always makes a lot of noise and fuss, Charlie.*

are unlikely to be found in written contexts but are standard spoken forms. These have, in the past, often been described using metaphors such as left- and right-dislocation, based on the way words are arranged on a page in western writing. We consider these inappropriate to describe spoken grammar, which exists in time, not space.

Another example of differences between spoken and written use involves voice (the choice of active or passive). Voice is more subtle and varied in the grammar of everyday conversation than is indicated in grammar books that focus only on written examples. There is, naturally, a focus on the core *be*-passive in contrast to the active voice, but when we look at a large amount of conversational data, we see that the *get*-passive form is much more frequent in spoken data than in comparable amounts of written data. At the same time it adds a further layer of choice, reflecting speakers' perceptions of good or bad fortune, or of the degree of involvement of the subject. For example:

I'm afraid his car window ***got broken****.*
(an unfortunate outcome)

She ***got herself invited*** *to the official opening.*
(*she* is seen as partly instrumental in being invited)

Detailed attention needs to be paid to such complex phenomena, which might otherwise be underplayed in a book based only on written examples. Where it is appropriate to do so, in *CGE* there is a thorough examination of spoken examples side by side with balanced written examples so that relevant differences can be revealed.

Some people argue that learners of English should not be presented with details of how native speakers speak. The position taken in this book is that such an approach would disadvantage learners. This book presents information about spoken grammar because it is important for learners to observe and to understand how and why speakers speak as they do. To describe these features does not mean that learners of English have to speak like native speakers. *CGE* presents the data so that teachers and learners can make their own informed choices.

GRAMMAR AND CORPUS DATA 3

What is a corpus? 3a

The word corpus has been used several times already in this introduction. A corpus is a collection of texts, usually stored in computer-readable form. Many of the examples in this book are taken from a multi-million-word corpus of spoken and written English called the Cambridge International Corpus (CIC). The corpus

is international in that it draws on different national varieties of English (e.g. Irish, American). This corpus has been put together over many years and is composed of real texts taken from everyday written and spoken English. At the time of writing, the corpus contained over 700 million words of English. The CIC corpus contains a wide variety of different texts with examples drawn from contexts as varied as: newspapers, popular journalism, advertising, letters, literary texts, debates and discussions, service encounters, university tutorials, formal speeches, friends talking in restaurants, families talking at home.

One important feature of CIC is the special corpus of spoken English – the CANCODE corpus. CANCODE stands for Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English, a unique collection of five million words of naturally-occurring, mainly British (with some Irish), spoken English, recorded in everyday situations. The CANCODE corpus has been collected throughout the past ten years in a project involving Cambridge University Press and the School of English Studies at the University of Nottingham, UK. In *CGE* dialogues and spoken examples are laid out as they actually occur in the transcripts of the CANCODE recordings, with occasional very minor editing of items which might otherwise distract from the grammar point being illustrated.

The CANCODE corpus is a finely-grained corpus. The CANCODE research team have not simply amassed examples of people speaking; they have tried to obtain examples from a range of sociolinguistic contexts and genres of talk. There is considerable advantage in being able to demonstrate statistical evidence over many millions of words and broad general contexts.

Using the corpus 3b

Grammar, like vocabulary, varies markedly according to context, allowing speakers considerable choice in the expression of interpersonal meanings (that is, meanings realised in relation to who one is speaking to rather than just what one is saying). A carefully constructed and balanced corpus can help to differentiate between different choices relative to how much knowledge speakers assume, what kind of relationship they have or want to have, whether they are at a dinner party, in a classroom, doing a physical task, in a service transaction in a shop, or telling a story (for example, our corpus tells us that ellipsis is not common in narratives, where the aim is often to create rather than to assume a shared world). By balancing these spoken genres against written ones, our corpus can also show that particular forms of ellipsis are widespread in certain types of journalism, in magazine articles, public signs and notices, personal notes and letters and in certain kinds of literary text. In descriptions of use, the most typical and frequent uses of such forms are described in relation to their different functions and in relation to the particular contexts in which they are most frequently deployed. (**3h** below)

CGE is a grammar book that is informed by the corpus. The word 'informed' is used advisedly because we are conscious that it is no simple matter to import real data into a reference book in the belief that authentic language is always the right language for the purposes of learning the language. In places, this means that corpus examples which contain cultural references of the kind that are so common in everyday language use are either not selected or, while ensuring that

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the key grammatical patterns are preserved, are slightly modified so that they do not cause undue difficulties of interpretation. It is our strong view that language corpora, such as the Cambridge International Corpus, can afford considerable benefits for language teaching but the pedagogic process should be informed by the corpus, not driven or controlled by it.

Information on frequency 3c

The corpus was analysed in a variety of ways in the preparation of this book. One way was to compile frequency lists. A frequency list simply ranks words, phrases and grammatical phenomena (e.g. how many words end in *-ness* or *-ity*, or how many verb phrases consist of *have* + a verb ending in *-en*) in a list. In this way, we are able to see not only which items are most and least frequent, but also how they are distributed across speech and writing and across different registers (e.g. newspapers, academic lectures, conversations at home). For example, the list of the twenty most frequent word-forms in the CIC for spoken and written texts (based on five-million-word samples of each) are different.

The twenty most frequent word-forms in spoken and written texts

	spoken		written
1	*the*	1	*the*
2	*I*	2	*to*
3	*and*	3	*and*
4	*you*	4	*of*
5	*it*	5	*a*
6	*to*	6	*in*
7	*a*	7	*was*
8	*yeah*	8	*it*
9	*that*	9	*I*
10	*of*	10	*he*
11	*in*	11	*that*
12	*was*	12	*she*
13	*it's*	13	*for*
14	*know*	14	*on*
15	*is*	15	*her*
16	*mm*	16	*you*
17	*er*	17	*is*
18	*but*	18	*with*
19	*so*	19	*his*
20	*they*	20	*had*

In the spoken list, *I* and *you* rise to the top, indicating the high interactivity of face-to-face conversation. *Know* is at number 14, indicative of the high frequency of the discourse marker *you know* (106b), and *mm* and *er* reflect the frequency with which listeners vocalise their acknowledgement of what the speaker is saying, or whereby speakers fill silences while planning their speech in real time or while hesitating. *It's* and *yeah* reflect the informality of much of the talk in the CANCODE spoken corpus.

Information on concordance 3d

Another way the corpus was analysed was in terms of concordance. Concordances help researchers see how words are actually used in context. Words or phrases which researchers are interested in are displayed in a vertical arrangement on the computer screen along with their surrounding co-text: we see what came just before the word and what came just after. For example, these sample lines from a concordance for the adverb *yet* in the spoken corpus show us that a negative environment is very common, but not in questions (negative items and question marks in bold), and that *as yet* is a recurrent pattern. The A–Z entry for *yet* in this book, and much of our grammatical description, is based on this type of observation.

Sample lines from a concordance for *yet*

<$2> Yeah. We have**n't** got any answer **yet**. We'd like it trimming. <$E> laughs	71094002.dcx
the wedding. <$2> I have**n't** got any **yet**. Em <$O69> Janet looked lovely <\$O6	90127004.dcx
but we have**n't** made er any arrangements **yet** it's sort of er a bit too early yet	80339001.inx
? <$1> Sorry? <$2> Has FX arrived **yet?** <$1> Who is this? <$2> MX's f	90449020.dcx
be in. <$2> They have**n't** arrived **as yet**. <$1> <$=> It is a whole <\$=> it	70752001.dnx
yet? <$1> **No not** a price breaker **as yet**. Just their own winter programme.	70764003.dnx
ame in. <$E> laughs <\$E> Erm but er **as yet** it's not available in every store.	90089007.knx
ll over the place. Em we have**n't** got **as yet** a timetable to show you as to what's	90003001.dnx
haven't come have they? <$2> **Not as yet**. No. Normally about two weeks before	70765004.dnx
. Well I said I do**n't** know the story **as yet** <$2> Mm. <$1> <$=> I said But	70365004.dcx
. But they're **not** putting anybody up **as yet** because they have an appeal launch r	70502001.dfx
ms. Er that's still **not** p= er set up **as yet** though. Erm we're gonna do something	70499001.dfx
n't managed to mark any of your work **as yet** but I I promise I'll have it back to	71232001.kpx
manda are you ready for your assessment **yet?** <$F> I think so yeah. <$1> I'	71229001.kpx
Anyway you obviously have**n't** gone back **yet** so <$=> erm I won't be er <\$=> you	70515012.imx
t know. <$G?> <$1> Oh he's **not** back **yet**. <$2> No. <$1> Oh right. <	70584004.dcx
eeks ago. And he he has**n't** written back **yet**. So <$E> laughs </$E> <$1> No. Mm	70645001.dcx
G?>. <$4> Have you changed your bank **yet?** <$3> My turn. <$E> sighs <\$E>	71031003.kmx
<$1> Bye. Cheers. <$3> Wo**n't** be **yet** until I've <$O13> lost <\$O13> a lit	90082002.knx
<$2> Have you seen Beauty And The Beast **yet?** <$1> No I was wanting to go.	70056002.dcx
p to see me every year. She has**n't** been **yet**. And she and I like to trip out on a	71094002.dcx
tomorrow <$6> No. No. **Not** for a bit **yet**. <$3> Good. <$6> We we thought	70499004.dfx

The concordance also gives us a code on the right of the screen (in green here) which tells us what type of conversation each line occurs in, and leads us to the corpus database where we can verify who the speakers are, what age, gender, and social profile they have, how many people were involved in the conversation, where it took place, etc. We are therefore able to say something is in common usage as we see it represented across a range of texts and users in the corpus.

Deciding what to include 3e

In deciding on priorities with regard to the description of items and patterns, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are important. On the quantitative side, the corpus evidence can often show striking differences in distribution of items

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between speaking and writing. For example, the forms *no one* and *nobody* are, on the face of it, synonymous, yet their distribution across five million words each of spoken and written data is very different, with *nobody* greatly preferred in the spoken corpus, as shown below.

Use of *no one* and *nobody* in spoken and written English

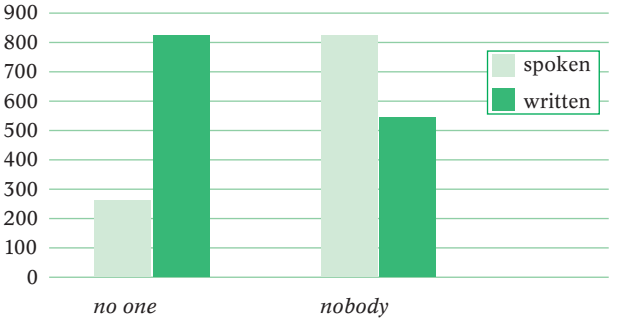

The interpretation of such statistics then depends on a more qualitative interpretation of the data, observing how *nobody* tends to correlate with the more informal end of the spectrum. A similar pattern of usage, in this case more clearly related to formality, can be seen for *who* and *whom*, where *whom* is shown to be relatively rare in conversation, only occurring in more formal contexts.

***Whom* in written and spoken English**

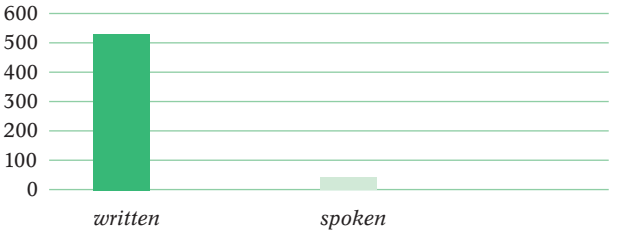

Insights into use 3f

Statistical evidence from the corpus can also give insight into the communicative acts most typically performed by particular items. The next diagram shows the different functions of *what about* and *how about* in the CANCODE corpus. Both forms are used to change the topic in conversation, with *what about* being used to do this more frequently than *how about* (*What about this new airport plan; what do you think of that?*). Another common function for both items is in the turn-taking system, where there is a strong preference for *how about* as a way of selecting the next speaker (*How about you Jean; what do you think?*). When suggestions are being made, both forms seem more or less equally available (*How about a walk before lunch?*) (also **421a**).

***What about* and *how about* in conversation**

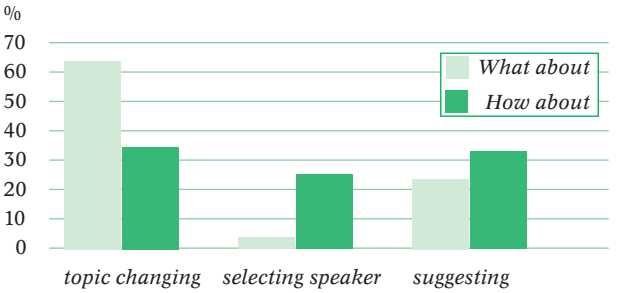

Word clusters 3g

Searching a corpus also continually reveals new insights into language structure and use. For example, research for this book has revealed the importance of word clusters and grammar.

Word clusters are groups of words that often occur together; some consist of just two words, e.g. *you know*, some are longer, e.g. *on the other hand*. Some of the most frequently repeated clusters reveal grammatical regularities. They often merit special consideration outside of the normal structural rules as described in the rest of this book, since they perform important basic functions in everyday usage, such as a turn-taking function in a conversation. These word clusters are sometimes different in spoken and written texts but such clusters are an important overall component in speaking and writing a language fluently since they can operate as the frequent and regular building blocks in the construction of meaning.

Research has highlighted patterns that include a range from two-word to six-word clusters and different patterns exhibit different ranges of meaning. It is possible that further research will demonstrate that lines between the vocabulary and the grammar of a language need to be drawn less sharply. The research is ongoing and new descriptions of the functions of clusters are being formulated. In *CGE* the main findings concerning clusters are presented in **503–505 Appendix**: **Word clusters and grammar**; however, readers will find a number of observations placed in key places throughout the book (particularly, for example, in chapters on spoken grammar, on the noun phrase, and on prepositions and prepositional phrases). The appendix on word clusters highlights possibilities in description, but corpus research is a constant and ever-developing feature of the study of grammar, and subsequent editions of *CGE* may well contain a separate chapter or chapters devoted to word clusters.

Frequent, common and preferred patterns 3h

Throughout *CGE* particular patterns are said to be frequent or common, either in the language as a whole or in speech rather than in writing or in formal rather than informal contexts of use. Sections 3a–3g above indicate how in this book a corpus is consulted before statements concerning the frequency of grammatical patterns are made.

As we have seen, some patterns are frequent but not acceptable in standard grammar while some patterns are non-standard in written usage but frequent in informal spoken varieties and perfectly acceptable in those varieties. Section 2a above indicates the range of possibilities. We believe information about frequency is important, especially for learners of a language.

A corpus also enables us to indicate which patterns are 'preferred'. Speakers and writers have choices and some choices are more typical in some contexts than in others. Preferences are attested with reference to the corpus and in several places throughout the book the choices open to a speaker or writer are described with an indication of which choices most typically occur. The fact that a speaker may choose the form which is the most typical does not mean that the alternative forms are incorrect or non-standard. The term 'preferred' as used in *CGE* highlights the most frequent choices made by users of the language.

Learner corpus 3i

We also had access during the writing of this book to a large learner corpus consisting of texts produced by learners of English from a wide range of lingua-cultures, coded for error and inappropriate use. This, along with our own language-teaching experience and that of our reference panel, has enabled us to give warnings of common areas of potential error where appropriate. These error warnings are signalled by the ✪ symbol.

HOW *CGE* IS IS ORGANISED 4

CGE is organised differently from other contemporary books on the grammar of English. Our coverage is, we believe, extensive, and major areas of description of the grammar of English are treated. However, as argued in section 2b above, this book is unique in the attention devoted to the spoken language. A high proportion of illustrative examples in *CGE* are drawn from a spoken corpus, a unique A–Z section covers many key words and phrases that have particular prominence in spoken English, and there are several chapters specifically devoted to the structural features of spoken grammar. The organisation of *CGE* reflects this orientation and the first chapters in the book are therefore those most saliently devoted to spoken grammar and to differences and distinctions between spoken and written English grammar. This is not to say that spoken grammar is not treated throughout the book, including the appendices, but it is to underline the belief that spoken and written language need, as far as is practicable, to be accorded equal priority. Previous grammar books have given greater attention to written grammar. *CGE* offers a more balanced approach.

Throughout the book, we make much use of cross references. This is because some of the most common grammatical items in English have many different meanings and uses and their descriptions will consequently be found under different headings in the book. For example, the word *anyway* is used as an adverb, and is also used as a discourse marker in spoken language; the modal verb

could is used to express possibility but it is also common in the performance of everyday speech acts such as requesting and suggesting. It is rarely possible to say everything that needs to be said about an item in one place in the book. The cross-references also allow further exploration of any item you may be interested in, and may be useful to lead you to more precise information when you look up an item.

From word to grammar: an A–Z 4a

The first part of *CGE* (**5–81**) is the **A–Z**, where individual words are described. These words have been selected for special attention because they are:

- very frequent in everyday language
- often polysemous (that is, they have more than one meaning)
- individual in some way in their grammar, possessing characteristics that are worthy of particular note
- known to be difficult for learners of English and often lead to errors.

Topic chapters 4b

The **A–Z** is followed by the topic chapters. These are organised as follows:

Spoken language

82–91 Introduction to grammar and spoken English
92–103 From utterance to discourse
104–122 From discourse to social contexts

The three chapters here are a major focus of *CGE*. They are devoted to aspects of the grammar of everyday speech, including the effects of social context.

Grammar and discourse

123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences
140–154 Grammar and academic English

These two chapters take us beyond the sentence. How grammar creates links across sentences and speaker turns is described, and there is a special chapter on the discourse conventions of academic English.

Word and phrase classes

155–166 Introduction to word classes and phrase classes

This chapter acts as an introduction to the sections on Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and adverbs, and Prepositions and particles.

Nouns

167–175 The noun phrase
176–196 Nouns and determiners
197–212 Pronouns

These three chapters first look at the construction of noun phrases; they then focus on nouns, pronouns and determiners (e.g. *the*, *a*, *some*, *my*).

Verbs

213–216 Verb phrase 1: structure of verb phrases
217–226 Verb phrase 2: tense and aspect
227–235 Types of verb

The three chapters here look at how verb phrases are constructed, including the use of modal verbs and auxiliary verbs, and at the different types of verb.

Adjectives and adverbs

236–241 Adjectives and adjective phrases
242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases

Here there are two chapters; they look at how adjectives and adverbs are formed and how they are used.

Prepositions and particles

250–257 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

This chapter deals with prepositions and the phrases they form (e.g. *in the morning*, *on the floor*).

Word formation

258–268 Word structure and word formation

This chapter describes the ways in which words are formed, including the use of prefixes and suffixes and the process of compounding.

Sentence and clause patterns

269–280 Introduction to sentences and clauses
281–289 Verb complementation
290–303 Clause types
304–318 Clause combination
319–337 Adjuncts

The five chapters here introduce the notion of the sentence and the clause, describe different clause types and illustrate how different verbs require different clause elements to be present (the process of verb complementation). How clauses combine to form sentences and the role of adjuncts are also dealt with.

Time

338–345 Present time
346–360 Past time
361–376 Future time

These three chapters look at how time is expressed in English, dealing with present, past and future time, and with how English expresses different perspectives on time.

Notions and functions

377–407 Modality
408–423 Speech acts
424–433 Questions
434–447 Negation
448–459 Condition
460–471 Comparison

In the six chapters here, core conceptual notions such as negation, condition and comparison are described. The important communicative functions performed by modal verbs and other items are explained in chapters on modality and speech acts.

Information packaging

472–475 Word order and focus
476–487 The passive
488–502 Speech representation

Here the three chapters are concerned with how speakers and writers decide to present information in clauses, by using active and passive voice choices, different word orders and other ways of emphasising things. How speech is represented and reported is also dealt with.

Appendices 4c

The appendices give detailed information on punctuation, spelling, irregular verbs, numbers, measurement, time, nationalities and countries, as well as important differences between British and North American grammatical usage, and an insight into the functions performed by word clusters.

Glossary 4d

The glossary contains brief definitions of all the key grammatical terms used in this book. The glossary also recognises that different grammar books use different terms. The *CGE* glossary refers to terms that are not employed in this book but which are a part of the language used to talk about grammar. Throughout, the aim is to provide an easy navigation between different terminologies and the description of the grammar of English contained in this book.

Index 4e

The comprehensive index is designed to provide access to a wide range of topics and key words covered in CGE.

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From word to grammar: an A–Z

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According to 7
Across 8
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After, afterwards 10
After all 10
Afterwards 10
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Although, though 15
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Around, round 18
As 19
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Under 25
Until 24
Wait for 40
Want 75
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With 79
Worth, worthwhile 80
Yet 81

From word to grammar: an A–Z

The individual words described here have been selected for special attention because they are:

- very frequent in everyday language
- often polysemous (that is, they have more than one meaning)
- individual in some way in their grammar, possessing characteristics that are worthy of particular note
- known to be difficult for learners of English and often lead to errors.

ABOUT 5

Preposition *about* 5a

The most frequent meaning of *about* as a preposition is 'on the subject of' or 'connected with':

Er, I'm not too sure ***about that****.*

He became very anxious ***about the condition of two of his patients****.*

We've only just started making enquiries ***about him****.*

I've already told you what I feel ***about the appointment****.*

Why is she always going on ***about it****?*

A less frequent use is as a synonym of *round* or *around*:

The dog was running ***about the garden*** *all day.*

About can be contrasted with *on*, which focuses on more specific and detailed content:

He gave a lecture ***about Karl Marx****.*

She gave a lecture ***on the position of English adverbs in spoken language****.*

Adverb *about* 5b

About is used as an adverb in expressions of time, number and quantity. It is used to express approximation and can be replaced by *around*. It also occurs in the phrase *round about*. It is more common in spoken than in written English:

I'll see you ***about six*** *then?*

That was ***about six years ago*** *wasn't it?*

The suspect was ***about 1.7 metres tall****.*

The main changes took place ***round about 1860*** *at the time of the shift away from agriculture as main source of employment.*

About is rare without a complement. Particular uses are:

Is John ***about****?*
(Is John here/in the neighbourhood/in town?)

There's a lot of flu ***about*** *at the moment.*

A–Z 18 ***Around, round***

103b **Approximations**

Be about to 5c

Be about to means 'be on the verge of doing something':

We were just ***about to leave****.*

She looks as if she's ***about to burst into song****.*

Common spoken uses of *about* 5d

About is common in spoken English when a speaker is orienting a listener to a topic:

About that car of yours*, do you still want to sell it?*

About Fran*, she can call in to see your grandmother, can't she?*

What about is common in questions when the speaker points out something or wishes to orient the listener to a topic:

What about all the cuts *in education and in housing?*

What about Andreas*? Isn't he coming with us?*

What about, *how about*, and very informally, *how's about* are commonly used to make suggestions:

What about moving that bookshelf *into the other room? It would give us a bit more space.*

How about an ice-cream*?*

How's about going to Kyoto *for the day?*

421a ***What about, what if, how about***

About after nouns 5e

Some common nouns are frequently followed by *about*. These include:

anxiety
argument
assertion
assumption
complaint
concern
debate
discussion
doubt
enquiry
feeling
fuss
idea
information
joke
misgiving
news
point
qualm
question
reservation
scepticism
speculation
statement
story
talk
uncertainty
worry

*It is dangerous to make too many **assumptions about** basic cognitive processes.*

*She's always making a **fuss about** our bedrooms being untidy.*

*Is there any **news about** the people trapped in that avalanche?*

About after verbs 5f

Many common verbs are followed by *about*. They include:

agonise	*forget*	*reminisce*
ask	*fret*	*speak*
bother	*hear*	*speculate*
care	*know*	*talk*
chat	*learn*	*think*
complain	*moan*	*wonder*
enquire	*quibble*	*worry*
feel	*read*	*write*

*They **agonised** for ages **about** changing their car.*

*More and more people are beginning to **speculate about** a change of management.*

About is not used with the verb *discuss*:

*We wanted to **discuss** the arrangements for Chinese New Year.*
(~~We wanted to discuss about the arrangements for Chinese New Year~~.)

*I wanted to **discuss** ways of improving the essay.*

Note, however, that *about* is used with the noun *discussion*:

***Discussions about** the situation took place yesterday.*

About is used after *complain*:

*They didn't know what to do when people came to **complain about** the goods they had bought.*
(~~They didn't know what to do when people came to complain the goods they had bought~~.)

About after adjectives 5g

Many common adjectives are followed by *about*. They include:

apprehensive	*fussy*	*snobbish*
blasé	*happy*	*sorry*
cautious	*knowledgeable*	*sure*
concerned	*nervous*	*unhappy*
coy	*optimistic*	*upset*
enthusiastic	*pessimistic*	*uptight*
excited	*sceptical*	*worried*

*The minister was far too **blasé about** public opinion and in the end the media forced his resignation.*

*She's very **nervous about** flying in charter aircraft.*

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Ah, I'm really ***sorry about*** *this.*

She is more ***worried*** *than she should be* ***about*** *her exam results.*

ABOVE 6

Preposition *above* 6a

Above means 'higher than'. It has a meaning that is close to the preposition *over*. Its opposites are *below* and *beneath*. In both the following sentences *over* can be substituted for *above*:

There was a faded sign ***above the door****.*

Once the plane got ***above the clouds*** *and levelled out, they started to relax.*

Above is preferred when things are at an upper level:

They lived in a small bungalow ***above the village****.*
(~~They lived in a small bungalow over the village~~.)

Above can only be used when there is no contact between the people or things referred to. *Over* or *on top of* have a more general meaning and can be used whether or not one person or thing touches or covers another:

He put a light plastic raincoat ***over his jacket****.*
(or: on top of his jacket)
(~~He put a light plastic raincoat above his jacket.~~)

Above can be used to refer to a higher part, usually of a building, or to a higher structure or place. It can also be used to refer to an increase in size or scale:

Nairobi is about 2000 metres ***above sea level****.*

Their performance was distinctly ***above average****.*

Above is also used metaphorically, often meaning 'a long way from' or 'is superior to'. It can also have a sense of being difficult to understand. *Beyond* is also possible in such phrases:

She is ***above suspicion*** *and* ***above reproach****.*

I'm afraid that type of mathematics is all rather ***above me****.*

Above modifying nouns 6b

Above can be used in writing as a premodifier to refer to something which has already been mentioned in the text. The fixed phrase *the above* means 'the foregoing text'. *Below* cannot be used in this way as a premodifier, and *the below* is not possible:

As we can see from ***the above figures****, the profits are likely to be significantly lower this year.*

As we have argued in ***the above****, the results are not convincing.*

Both *above* and *below* can postmodify a noun:

There was noise coming from the ***room above****, so I couldn't sleep.*

The ***picture below*** *is a striking example of new methods of advertising.*

✪ *Above* is not normally used with numbers. *Over* is normally preferred:

You can only buy alcoholic drinks here if you are ***over 18****.*
(~~You can only buy alcoholic drinks here if you are above 18~~.)

It'll cost ***over a thousand pounds*** *to repair.*

A–Z **25 *Below*; 63 *Over***

ACCORDING TO 7

According to meaning 'as reported' 7a

The most frequent use of *according to* is when reference is made to external evidence to support a statement or an opinion:

According to the safety experts*, it was all right when they left it.*

It's the same in every block, ***according to Cliff****, the caretaker.*

This delay, ***according to Mr Mckay****, probably violated federal law.*

It's going to be delayed, ***according to what Nick told us****.*

According to is frequently used to refer to statistics, official reports, surveys, opinion polls, studies, research, etc., especially in more formal contexts:

According to a recent report *by the National Food Alliance, children are being saturated with advertisements for sugar-rich confectionery.*

And regional government, ***according to a poll*** *taken last month by Gallup, attracts the support of less than one in three of the public.*

✪ Note that *according to* refers to evidence from someone or somewhere else. As such, it usually has a third person referent. It cannot be used to refer to one's own views or statements:

In my opinion *all those sites should be made green-field sites.*
(~~According to me/according to my opinion, all those sites should be …~~)

According to meaning 'in agreement with' 7b

According to is also used to mean 'in line with', 'in harmony with' or 'depending on'. In this meaning it is most typically not used in front position:

And is it all going ***according to plan*** *so far?*

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If the police acted ***according to the law****, then they should arrest him.*

[talking about placing people on a salary scale]
I'm sure they probably grade people ***according to their experience****.*

Prices vary very slightly ***according to whether*** *you want 'hotel' or 'hostel' service.*

A closely related phrase is *in accordance with*, which is used in formal, written contexts to mean 'in obedience to', or 'strictly following (rules and regulations)':

The Socialist government, elected in 1994, resigned in December, but, ***in accordance with the constitution****, the President had to call on the Socialist party to form another government.*

ACROSS 8

Across is used as a preposition and as an adverb:

It's just not enough time to get ***across London****.*
(preposition)

[giving directions]
A: *You keep going down until you get to the massive traffic-light complex. You know you're at it. It's sort of bright and there's a big main road running* ***across****.*
B: *Right.*
(adverb)

Across is not a verb. The verb form is *cross*:

Every time you ***cross*** *the road, you're worried you're going to get knocked over.*
(~~Every time you across the road, you're worried you're going to get knocked over.~~)

Across can be used to indicate movement or position relative to two sides or extremes of something:

[referring to a newspaper article]
In the paper there's somebody who's going to swim ***across the Atlantic*** *four thousand miles.*

She sat facing me ***across the table****.*

When indicating position relative to another person or thing, with the meaning of 'opposite', 'on the other side of the road to', *across* is used with *from*:

The Town Hall is ***across from the cathedral****.*

Across is often used in contexts of comparisons to indicate a range of something:

The researchers carried out a study ***across 20 countries****.*

Across is also used to refer to the width or diagonal measurement of something. It follows the unit of measurement:

First, a copy; he slipped a minidisk into the port, formatted and labelled it. Barely ***two centimetres across*** *– easy to lose, but easy to hide.*

Across is also used to refer to an area in which things are distributed:

There are other smaller sites, scattered ***across the Caribbean*** *and even in the Mediterranean.*

Across and *over* 8a

Across and *over* are sometimes interchangeable with little difference in meaning:

She walked on ***across the bridge*** *in the bitter wind.*

She put her arm around his waist and led him ***over the bridge****.*

However, when the meaning is 'from side to side' of a surface, *across* is preferred:

Draw a line ***across the middle of the page****.*
(~~Draw a line over the middle of the page.~~)

He glanced at his watch and strode ***across the room****, Julian's dressing-gown flapping around his legs.*
(~~… and strode over the room, …~~)

Across and *through* 8b

When there is a surrounding environment, movement is usually expressed by *through*, not *across*:

It's very pretty in the summer ***walking through the orchards****.*
(~~It's very pretty in the summer walking across the orchards.~~)

A–Z 63 *Over*

ACTUAL, ACTUALLY 9

Actual and *actually* refer to whether something is true or factual. They do not refer to time:

They went into a restaurant … or it was ***actually*** *a café.*
(it was in fact/in reality a café)

I'm not really sure about the ***actual*** *procedure.*
(This means 'the right/correct procedure'; if the meaning had been 'the procedure that is used now', the speaker would have said *I'm not really sure about the* ***present/current*** *procedure*, or *I'm not really sure about the procedure* ***now/nowadays****.*)

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*She's **actually** working for a computer firm.*
(This means something like 'She is in fact working for a computer firm', or 'Surprisingly, she is working for a computer firm', depending on the context; if we mean 'She is at the present time working for a computer firm', we would say *She's working for a computer firm **at the moment/(right)now**.*)

Actual 9a

Actual usually has a meaning similar to 'true', 'real', 'precise', 'right/correct' or 'the thing/person itself/himself/herself':

*I couldn't get an appointment for **that actual day**.*
(that precise/exact day)

***My actual involvement** with the project itself was negligible really.*
(my real/true involvement)

[sales assistant (A) talking to a customer in a camera shop]
A: *You don't know which model it is, do you?*
B: *No, I can look it up. Maybe I'll come in with **the actual camera**.*
(the camera itself)

A very common expression with *actual* is *in actual fact*, which is an emphatic form of *in fact*:

*But **in actual fact**, a year ago the situation was the same.*

A–Z 46 *In fact*

Actually 9b

Actually can often be used emphatically, especially to refer to something which is in sharp contrast with expectations:

*He **actually admitted** that he enjoyed it.*
(this was unexpected, not normal behaviour for him)

*There **actually is a plant** that produces what is known as 'the curry leaf'.*

*The original connection with Dave was **actually more through jazz** than through folk music.*

Actually often implies a contrast between a desirable and an undesirable situation:

*So, here is a practical seminar that **actually offers solutions** to the challenges women managers face.*
(implied: in contrast to most other seminars)

*Unlike a blender or liquefier, the juicer **actually separates the juice** from the pulp.*

Actually often operates as a discourse marker in spoken language, signalling topic openings, contrasts in topics, specifying within topics, etc.:

[customer (A) at the information desk in a large bookshop enquiring about a technical manual]
A: *Could you tell me where your manuals are kept?* ***Actually*** *I'm looking for a Haynes manual.*
B: *Er what on?*
A: *It's on washing machines.*

[beginning of a one-to-one student tutorial at a university; A is the student]
A: *Where would it be best for me to sit?*
B: *Um, anywhere there's a space.*
[pause]
A: *Well* ***actually*** *there's a couple of things really really quickly to ask you. One is about the draft of my history of English essay.*

When used in questions, *actually* can often focus on 'missing' information which the speaker desires or needs for the purposes of the conversation:

[speakers are already talking about B's father]
A: *What did your dad do* ***actually****?*
B: *Well he was a railway man.*

Actually is often used to hedge statements, making them less direct or less threatening:

I think Sandra would win hands down ***actually****.*

We had an argument ***actually****, a few weeks ago.*

In spoken language *actually* is frequently used in end position, though it may also occur in front and mid positions:

A: *In the afternoon we'll continue with the tour into the training department and on through into the machine division.*

B: *I'd be quite interested in that* ***actually****.*

AFTER, AFTERWARDS 10

Preposition *after* 10a

After is most frequently used with noun phrases referring to time or to timed events:

You get used to that, strangely enough, ***after a while****.*

So I'll do those two classes. I'll start probably ***after the holidays****.*

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I was sick and tired of being on my own. I wanted to get home. I mean, ***after nine months*** *I was homesick.*

References to place may also be made with *after*, especially when they are seen as part of a sequence of events in time:

[giving directions to someone]
And ***after the fifth roundabout****, you turn off, and there's another roundabout.*

Adverb *after* 10b

After postmodifying a noun

After may postmodify nouns such as *day*, *morning*, *week*, *month*, *year*, especially in informal speech:

I've got one interview, then, er, a second interview ***the week after****.*
(or, more formal: … the following week)

A: *And you see yourself as staying round in the London area for the next year or so?*
B: *Oh yeah. Definitely. I mean, for probably* ***the year after*** *as well.*

After premodified by another adverb

After does not normally occur alone as an adjunct. It is almost always premodified by adverbs such as *shortly*, *soon*, *straight*:

[from a text about the young of the shrew, a small mouse-like animal]
Born blind and naked, the young quickly develop a thin coat of hair at around nine days old and their eyes open ***soon after****.*

[a student talking about a difficult period of study]
It's just at this real crossroads at the moment when you're just about to start an essay and then you've got to do something else ***straight after****.*

Occasionally, in informal speech, *after* may occur alone, with the meaning of 'later':

That just reminds me of something. [laughs] *I'll tell you the joke* ***after****.*

Afterwards 10c

Where there is no premodifying adverb (**10b** above), *afterwards*, not *after*, is normally used:

Suddenly a black cat ran in front of her. In surprise, she cried out aloud. ***Afterwards****, she felt rather foolish.*
(preferred to: After, she felt rather foolish.)

They laughed together over their tea, but ***afterwards*** *Esther was quiet, analysing what she had been told.*

Afterwards may be premodified by adverbs such as *immediately*, (*not*) *long*, *shortly* and *soon*, and other time expressions involving words such as *days*, *weeks*, *months*, *years*:

She heard a muffled bang, then a car starting ***almost immediately afterwards****.*

When the phone rang again ***shortly afterwards****, he picked up the receiver with regret.*

A few days afterwards*, Italy joined the war, and with immense relief, we gave up the idea of our rescue.*

After + *-ing* clause 10d

When used to link two clauses, *after* followed by a verb in the *-ing* form is many times more frequent in writing than in speech. In informal speech there is a strong preference for a full finite clause:

The police claim he died ***after falling*** *and hitting his head.*

After graduating*, he became a lecturer at the university.*

I was out of work for six months ***after being*** *made redundant.*

✪ *After having* + *-ed* participle, although it occurs, is rare in both speech and writing. Where it does occur, it often serves to emphasise a contrast between two situations in time:

[part of a speech welcoming a new member of staff in a company]
And ***after having worked*** *very closely with Gerald for so many years, and* ***having had*** *so many people actually believing that he was a member of the company staff, it's very nice finally to be able to welcome him as a real member of staff.* [applause follows]

In most cases, *after* + the *-ing* form of a lexical verb is preferred:

After journeying *more than 11,000 miles, Russell found the man for whom he was searching.*
(preferred to: After having journeyed more than 11,000 miles, Russell found the man for whom he was searching.)

After + finite clause 10e

After may be used with a variety of tense forms and time references to link two clauses:

- Present simple with general present time reference:

  [from an article about John Daly, a well-known American golfer]
  He uses at least a dozen balls per round because they lose their shape ***after*** *he* ***hits*** *them.*

- Present perfect with general present time reference:

  *All adults, **after** they **have told** off a teenager for not doing his homework, say 'Do I make myself clear?'.*

  [*that* refers to the timing of questionnaires to patients concerning their experience of treatment in the National Health Service in Britain]
  *And I think people would get a better service if that was done, say, a month **after** they'**ve been having** treatment.*

- Present simple with future time reference:

  *Ideally, I'd like to move in straight after that, **after** you **move** out.*
  (~~… after you will move out.~~)

- Present perfect with future time reference:

  *We would love to see you tonight, if it's possible, **after** you**'ve visited** David's mum.*
  (~~… after you will have visited …~~)

- Past simple:

  A: *And it was only **after** you **married** you discovered all this?*
  B: *Yes.*

- Past perfect:

  *She was glad that she had resisted an impulse to ring Hal again **after** she **had read** his note.*

The perfect aspect versions stress the completion of the event in the *after*-clause and a break in time between the events in the two clauses. The present simple or past simple versions suggest a closer connection between the two clauses, as with *before* (24d).

Other uses of *after* 10f

In informal contexts, *after* is occasionally used as a preposition with the meaning of 'because of' or 'as a consequence of':

[talking about a furniture shop]
***After the experience with the chair**, I don't think I'll buy anything else there.*

*Look at Brian, how healthy he looks **after all that sun**.*

In informal speech, the expression *to be after something* often means 'to want' or 'to look for, to seek':

[customer in a hardware shop]
*I'**m after** a metre of strong chain. Just a metre. It's for a bike you see. You know, just to tie a bike up. I've got a lock and everything.*
(I want/I'm looking for …)

[customer (A) in a bookshop; *Rough Guides* are a very popular type of travel guide book]
A: *Do you have any of these travel guides, Rough Guide to … wherever?*
B: *Yes, we do. Where in particular* ***were*** *you* ***after****?*
A: *Erm, the south-west of America.*

After all 10g

After all as a conjunction has a concessive meaning, similar to 'besides', or the meaning of 'one should not forget/ignore the fact that …'.

After all may occur in front, mid or end position in the clause. It is normally separated from the rest of the clause by a comma or commas:

The garage on the main road has been boarded up for some time. It's been boarded up now for nearly seventeen months. It just seems silly. I mean, ***after all****, it's unusual to have a petrol station in a fairly quiet residential area.*
(front position)

But I stuck at it, pretending to get on and take no notice. Because it was, ***after all****, none of my business.*
(mid position)

I don't mind what you buy. It is your money, ***after all****.*
(end position)

The other main use of *after all* is as an adverb meaning 'contrary to what was believed or expected'. In this meaning, it occurs almost always in end position, and frequently together with *maybe* or *perhaps*. It is not usually separated by a comma in writing:

Maybe she's not dating him. I mean, maybe they're just friends ***after all****.*
(I thought they were dating. Maybe I was wrong.)

And then at intervals during the interview, I found him … well, er, creepy really and rather worrying, but then again, at the end, I felt as though I'd done him an injustice and that perhaps he was likeable ***after all****.*

Jeremy looked genuinely pleased to see her and she wondered if they might become friends ***after all****.*

AFTER ALL

A–Z 10 *After, afterwards*

AFTERWARDS

A–Z 10 *After, afterwards*

AGAINST 11

Against denoting reactions 11a

Against is used after verbs and nouns denoting (often negative) reactions to situations, beliefs, people, events, etc.

Some common verbs frequently followed by *against* include:

act	*discriminate*	*rebel*
advise	*fight*	*speak out*
argue	*go*	*struggle*
be	*guard*	*testify*
campaign	*have something*	*vote*
decide	*militate*	
demonstrate	*react*	

[talking about speaker B's computer]
A: *One thing you could do is you could actually upgrade this machine.*
B: *I know but I* ***decided against*** *it.*

A: *So you think it's fair to* ***discriminate against*** *age?*
B: *After a certain age, I think.*

We will ***vote against*** *it but we will be in the minority.*

Some common nouns frequently followed by *against* include:

accusation	*charge*	*grudge*
action	*complaint*	*law*
aggression	*crusade*	*prejudice*
allegation	*defence*	*protection*
appeal	*demonstration*	*protest*
argument	*discrimination*	*reaction*
battle	*evidence*	*rebellion*
campaign	*fight*	*safeguard*
case	*grievance*	

She emphasised the need for concerted ***action against*** *poverty and inequality which force children into exploitative work.*

There is not a scrap of ***evidence against*** *her.*

There's a ***law against*** *murder but people go out and still murder don't they and rob banks and what have you.*

Against denoting physical contact 11b

Against is frequently used to indicate physical contact between two or more things:

There was a man leaning ***against the wall****.*

[swimming instructor to a learner]
Right, I want to see your arm. That's right. No the other one. Face that way. That one. That's it. Right, I want to see your arm brushing ***against your ear****.*

Against denoting competition 11c

Against occurs frequently with verbs and nouns connected with sport and competing, such as *compete/competition*, *final*, *game*, *match*, *play*, *semi-final*:

A: *We used to go there for football. And cricket we used to play on the recreation ground.*
B: *Yes. Mm. And did you have a school team?* ***Play against*** *other schools?*
A: *No we used to* ***play*** *football* ***against*** *other teams but not cricket.*

[*the Clifton Downs* is an area of open land near the city of Bristol in England]
In the holidays sometimes we ***played*** *a hockey match* ***against*** *the Clifton College boys on the Clifton Downs.*

✪ *Against*, not *with*, is used in sporting contexts with *play* when two teams or individuals compete:

It was three years ago when my volleyball team was selected to ***play against*** *an Italian one.*
(~~It was three years ago when my volleyball team was selected to play with an Italian one.~~)

About, not *against*, is used with *do* to refer to taking action to solve problems:

[speaker is talking about a very noisy party]
They were all out on the street and Jim and Sally couldn't sleep. They had to phone the police. The police couldn't ***do*** *anything* ***about*** *it.*
(~~The police couldn't do anything against it.~~)

Do not confuse *against* and *contrary to*:

Contrary to *what you may read in the guidebooks, very few of the locals actually speak English.*
(~~Against what you may read in the guidebooks, …~~)

ALL 12

Determiner *all* 12a

All is mainly used as a determiner:

All *the tickets are sold out.*

We'll have to get rid of ***all*** *our old furniture.*

As a determiner, *all* comes before articles, possessives or demonstratives, and before numerals.

	article, possessive or demonstrative	numeral	head noun
all	*the*		*children*
all	*my*		*clothes*
all	*those*		*boxes*
all		*four*	*books*

When *all* refers to an entire class of people or things, *the* is not used:

All dogs *love meat.*
(every dog in the world)
(~~All the dogs love meat.~~)

Everybody/everyone is preferred to 'all people'.

Everyone *has to die sooner or later.*
(~~All people have to die sooner or later.~~)

All of is used before personal, demonstrative and relative pronouns. The object form of the pronoun is used:

Thanks to ***all of you*** *for giving up your time to help us.*

That's very bad news. ***All of this*** *is just too upsetting.*

They have three sons and two daughters, ***all of whom*** *are married.*
(~~… all of who are married.~~)

Of is optional before definite noun phrases:

I left ***all (of) my money*** *in an account invested in the stock market.*

Who's going to eat ***all (of) this food****?*

Time expressions like *all afternoon*, *all day*, *all night* are a special case. They have definite reference but do not require the definite article. However, the definite article is permitted with or without *of*:

I spent ***all afternoon*** *at the gym.*

I spent ***all the afternoon*** *at the gym.*

I spent ***all of the afternoon*** *at the gym.*

All, not *all of*, is used before indefinite plurals and non-count nouns:

All prisoners *of war have rights under international law.*
(~~All of prisoners of war have rights under international law.~~)

All tobacco *is heavily taxed.*

All processed food *is fattening.*

All is not used with singular indefinite count nouns; *a whole* is used:

*They managed to eat **a whole chicken**.*
(~~They managed to eat all a chicken.~~)

Pronoun *all* 12b

All can be used as an unmodified pronoun, but such usage is formal and infrequent:

***All** are welcome.*

***All** were concerned that something should be done.*
(more typically: Everyone was concerned …)

***All** is not lost.*

***All** will be revealed in the course of time.*

[newspaper headline]
*Minister's ex-secretary tells **all**.*

All is most typically either premodified or postmodified:

*In the United Kingdom in 1988, there were nearly 25,000 maintained primary schools, including 586 middle schools deemed primary. **Almost all** were mixed-sex schools.*

*It doesn't matter if the car's damaged. **All that matters** is that you're okay.*

*I paid him **all that he wanted**.*

When followed by a relative clause, *all* has a similar meaning to 'everything'. *That* may be omitted before a personal pronoun:

*They lost **all that they had earned** in the stock market crash.*

*I told her to forget **all that had happened**.*

*She taught me **all I know** about computers.*

Adverb *all* 12c

All referring to the subject of a clause usually occupies the normal mid position for adverbs (325):

*The members **all knew** what was going on.*

*We **all try** our best to be on time.*

*This is something that they **can all do**.*

*We**'ve all been waiting** for ages.*

*We **could all have made** the same mistake.*

*They **are all** qualified social workers.*

When *all* refers to a personal pronoun, there is a choice between pronoun + *all* and *all of* + pronoun:

> ***We**'re **all** thinking the same thing.*
> (or: All of us are thinking the same thing.)

> A: *Are there any cakes left?*
> B: *No, the kids ate **them all.***
> (or: No, the kids ate all of them.)

However, in short elliptical responses, the *of* construction must be used:

> A: *Which books do you want to take with you?*
> B: ***All of them** if that's okay with you.*
> (~~Them all~~, if that's okay with you.)

All is also used as an adverb to mean 'entirely', 'completely' or 'extremely', especially in spoken English:

> *I've left them **all alone** in the house.*

> *When I ask you where you've been, you get **all upset and agitated**.*

> *He took one of the cans from the shelf and the whole shelf **all went down**.*

> *I got lost and it's **all because** they gave me the wrong directions.*

> *He got **all excited** when he heard the news.*

All in fixed expressions 12d

All is particularly common in fixed expressions, especially in spoken English. These are the most common:

All right

All right meaning 'acceptable' or 'okay':

> *Is it **all right** if she just pops along tomorrow?*
> (also spelled as a single word: alright)

At all

At all as an intensifier in negative and interrogative clauses:

> *No, it isn't exactly modesty. I am not **at all** certain that I am modest.*

> *Are you **at all** concerned about interest rates rising?*

When placed at the end of questions, *at all* can also function as a marker of politeness:

> *Do you have any sparkling water **at all**?*

And all that

And all that is used as a marker of deliberate vagueness and imprecision:

> *He's into rock music **and all that**.*

And all

And all (usually pronounced /əˈnɔːl/) can mean 'as well' in informal spoken language:

They've already had one holiday this year and now they're off to France ***and all****.*

Discourse markers

All occurs in a range of fixed expressions which function primarily as spoken discourse markers. In most cases, the markers function to signpost the direction in which a stretch of talk is going or has gone:

Above all*, the election was won on a sympathy vote.*
(meaning: primarily)

First of all*, let me thank you for attending this evening.*
(meaning: the first thing I want to say)

All right*, tell me why you think we should change the schedule?*
(meaning: seeks to establish a new direction in the discourse)

All the same*, I think there are other points of view.*
(meaning: despite this)

All in all*, the best team won.*
(meaning: to summarise)

So you did decide to go to Leeds ***after all****, did you?*
(meaning: nevertheless)

A–Z 34 *Each*; 38 *Every*

ALLOW

A–Z 48 *Let*

ALREADY 13

Already refers to things that have happened or will have happened at a given point in time, and often (but not necessarily) contrary to expectations. It usually occurs in mid or end position; it is particularly frequent in end position in spoken language:

There are about ten people here ***already****.*
(more than we might expect at this time)

What makes you think he hasn't done it ***already****?*

[*The Commons* refers to the elected part of the British Parliament]
The Commons has ***already*** *agreed that there should be a referendum in which Londoners are asked whether they want a new council and a separately elected mayor.*

'I shall think about it when I get there.'
'By which time, it will be too late to decide where you want to go,' she pointed out.
'Because you will ***already*** *be there.'*

Front position is uncommon in informal spoken language, but does occur in more formal, written styles:

Already *younger women without children are more likely than their male counterparts to use the video recorder daily.*

Already is often used with a verb in the past perfect to stress that something was completed before something else happened:

They ***had already made*** *their plans for various visits before they arrived.*

✪ Do not confuse *already* with *yet*:

Have you booked a flight ***already****?*
(You've done it so soon, have you? It seems very early to book.)

Have you booked a flight ***yet****?*
(We know you have to book one, but I have no idea if you have done it up to this point in time.)

A–Z **72 *Still*; 81 *Yet***

ALSO, AS WELL (AS), TOO 14

Also 14a

Also is twice as frequent in writing as it is in speech. It may occupy a variety of positions.

Front position

In this position, *also* is used to add a new point or topic to what has been said:

She felt a little uncertain on her legs. ***Also****, it seemed to her that the sounds of traffic were abnormally loud, giving her an odd sensation of vertigo.*

[on the telephone]
I will give you a ring instead of sending it to you. I can do that. That's no problem. ***Also****, how are things down there in Bristol?*

In front position, *also* occurs frequently together with *and*, especially in speech:

I'll fax through to you the two sheets that have the adverts on, and the address of where you want us to send it. ***And also*** *I'll fax through to you the letter I've received that has the address on.*

Mid position

Also may be used in the normal mid position for adverbs (325). In this position, the meaning of *also* usually refers to the whole clause:

> *The boy needs a bath and some food. I don't think he's eaten in a while. He* ***also needs*** *clean clothes, which I don't think you'll find at his home.*
>
> *So I've been doing that this week, and I'****ve also been reading****. I've done a lot of reading.*
>
> *She is very approachable and treats everyone equally, but she's not soft. She* ***is also*** *very good to staff with domestic problems.*

End position

In end position, *also* normally links two phrases. Items linked by *also* are in green in the examples below:

> *Pollution can cause trees and bushes and other things like that to die. And then animals that were in them, like birds and squirrels and things, can die* ***also****.*
>
> *She replaced it* [the telephone receiver] *and this time it stayed silent. She went over to the window. The world outside was silent* ***also****.*

In these end-position examples, *as well* and *too* may be used instead of *also*, especially in speech.

Linking phrases

Also may be used to link various types of phrase:

> [in an article about the numbers of people visiting theme parks in Britain]
> *But Chessington World of Adventures in Surrey slipped from fourth to fifth as attendances fell 4 per cent to 1.7 million. Thorpe Park,* ***also*** *in Surrey, fell by more than 2 per cent, although it still had well over 1.1 million visitors.*
>
> *He had been nervous as he wished them goodbye at the departure lounge, and* ***also*** *at the river.*

Too and *as well* cannot normally substitute for this use of *also*.

As well 14b

As well is many times more frequent in speech than in writing, and it is more than twice as frequent in speech as *also*.

✪ *As well* almost always comes at the end of a clause:

> *I just ignored it. I think everybody else did* ***as well****.*
> (~~I just ignored it. As well I think everybody else did.~~)
>
> [in a restaurant; A is the customer, B is the waiter]
> A: *And can I have special fried rice please.*
> B: *Yes.*
> A: *Could I have a fried beef in black bean sauce* ***as well****.*
> (~~Could I as well have a fried beef in black bean sauce.~~)

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As well as 14c

As well as may join different types of unit to one another.

- Noun phrases:

  My father was an artist ***as well as*** *a priest, which was his profession.*

- Verb phrases:

  I was going to write it myself, so I was going to write ***as well as*** *publish.*

- Clauses:

When *as well as* links a finite clause to another clause, the *as well as* clause has its main verb in the *-ing* form:

I am the press officer ***as well as*** *being the person that has a link in with all of those other communications issues.*
(~~I am the press officer as well as I am the person that …~~)

As well as *working out a post-war settlement, the Paris Peace Conference also gave birth to the League of Nations, which was designed to create a completely new framework of international relations.*
(~~As well as it worked out a post-war settlement, …~~)

As well as can be used at the beginning of a sentence. This use is much more frequent in formal writing than in informal speech:

As well as *the castle and cathedral, there are other Norman buildings in Lincoln, such as these stone-built houses with round arches.*

As well as *journalistic skill, being editor teaches you about dealing with stress.*

Front-position *as well as* may occur together with *also* in the second clause:

As well as *pointing towards the magnetic north, the compass* ***also*** *points down into the Earth in the northern hemisphere and up out of the Earth in the southern hemisphere.*

As well as *visiting the centre of the city to buy goods, many people* ***also*** *visit it to enjoy themselves in the theatre or the art gallery, to visit historic buildings, or eat and drink at various restaurants, clubs and cafés.*

Too 14d

Too is much less frequent in speech than either *also* or *as well*. In writing, *too* is only half as frequent as *also*, but many times more frequent than *as well*.

Too is not used at the beginning of a clause. It occurs mostly at the end of the clause, or, in more formal styles, in mid position.

End position

Most occurrences of *too* are in end position. Which part of the clause it refers to depends on context. In the examples below, linked items are in green:

> *Karen's having paté. I'll probably have paté* ***too****.*

> *That was the way she looked at it. And she was dead right,* ***too****.*

> [talking about reading a boring work document]
> *It's as joyful as reading a telephone directory, and as useful* ***too****.*

End-position *too* often occurs in speech after a clause with a fronted complement beginning with *and*:

> *One of her friends was a sort of pioneer at this new school of study. And I decided that was for me. And very interesting it was,* ***too****.*

> [talking about a library book which the speaker has mislaid]
> *It's probably around here then, hiding from me. And a very good book it was,* ***too****.*

Also would not normally be used in these examples. *As well* is possible.

Mid position

In more formal styles, *too* occurs in mid position. In written texts, it is often separated by commas before and after:

> *Her personal life****, too,*** *seems happier.*

The meaning, once again, depends on context. This example, out of context, could mean 'her personal life as well as her professional life', or 'her personal life, as well as someone else's personal life'.

Too can occur immediately after the subject, even where auxiliary verbs are present, if it refers directly to the subject:

> *He,* ***too****, was coming to a decision.*
> (he and someone else were coming to a decision)
> (~~He was too coming to a decision.~~)

> *Isabel put her hand to her head and found that her own hat,* ***too****, had gone.*
> (hers and someone else's hat had gone)
> (~~… and found that her own hat had too gone.~~)

However, if *too* links a verb phrase or a whole clause with another, it occurs in the normal mid position, after the first auxiliary verb (325):

> *A formal letter would be sent, and Victor would be grateful if Signor Busi would extend his stay for three more days so that a press conference could be arranged and the timescale for construction plotted. He would,* ***too****, be sending Signor Busi sketches of a small statue which was a birthday gift to Victor from how appropriate! the leading market traders.*
> (he would send a letter, and he would send sketches)

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Choosing between *also*, *as well* and *too* 14e

Looking at all three expressions together, in speech *as well* is by far the most frequent, *also* is half as frequent, and *too* is the least frequent. In writing *also* is the most frequent, *too* is much less frequent, and *as well* is the least frequent.

In addition to the cases already mentioned, where one of the three expressions may be preferred to the others (e.g. speech versus writing), there are other cases of differences in the use of *also*, *as well* and *too*.

In imperative clauses, *as well* and *too* are normally preferred to *also*:

[customer in a post office, buying first-class and second-class stamps]
Give me a book of ten first and a book of ten second ***as well*** *then please.*
(preferred to: … a book of ten second also then please.)

Dave found her the key. 'Have my ring ***too****,' he said, taking it off his finger.*
(preferred to: 'Have my ring also,' he said …)

As well and *too* are normally preferred in short responses and elliptical structures:

A: *I'm looking forward to it. It's going to be good.*
B: *Yes, I am* ***too****.*
(or: Yes, I am as well.)
(preferred to: Yes, I am also.)

And usually, if I can't see who it is when I go to the door, I always ask who it is, and my daughter does ***as well****.*
(or: … and my daughter does too.)
(preferred to: … and my daughter does also.)

Too is especially common in responses to fixed expressions (e.g. extending good wishes, salutations) and in responses consisting of a single object pronoun:

A: *All the best. Take care.*
B: *You* ***too****.*
(preferred to: You as well./You also.)

A: *Right. Have a nice weekend.*
B: *I shall try. You* ***too****.*
(preferred to: You as well./You also.)

A: *I need to do some serious work.*
B: *Yeah, me* ***too****.*
(preferred to: Yeah, me also./Yeah, me as well.)

Negative clauses 14f

Where two negative ideas are linked, *either* takes the place of *also*, *as well* and *too*:

Bill's not here. I don't think Dave is ***either****, is he?*
(~~I don't think Dave is also/as well/too.~~)

A: *That's not in paperback yet. It's not been in any book clubs* ***either****, has it?*
B: *No.*
(~~It's not been in any book clubs also/as well/too, has it?~~)

A–Z 36 *Even*

ALTHOUGH, THOUGH 15

Subordinators *although, though* 15a

Both *although* and *though* can introduce subordinate clauses; *although* is the more formal of the two. *Though* is much more frequent than *although* in spoken and written language taken together.

When used with a subordinate clause **before** a main clause, the meaning is something like 'in spite of the fact that …':

> ***Although*** *a lot of money was thrown into the National Health Service, that money was not being used effectively, which is why they needed more managers.*
>
> ***Though*** *at long last she was by herself once more, she knew this would take some getting used to.*

When used to introduce a clause **following** a main clause, the meaning is something like 'but it is also true that …':

> *We work for what they want, not the other way round,* ***although*** *obviously we advise them.*
>
> *It was really funny actually,* ***though*** *I don't know why.*

In all four examples above, *although* and *though* are interchangeable.

Although, though + reduced clauses 15b

In formal styles, *although* and *though* may be followed by a reduced clause without a verb:

> *Miss D.,* ***although a most tragic case****, had not been dying.*
>
> ***Though a grandfather twice over****, he is tanned, fit and attractive, with keen brown eyes and a lot of hair – except on the top of his bald head.*

Although, though + non-finite clauses 15c

In formal styles, *although* and *though* may introduce a non-finite clause:

> *'The UK,* ***although starting from a higher base than many other countries****, has achieved approximately the same rate of growth as the USSR, and that should worry us,' Sir Denis said.*

*Edith, **though regretting the accident**, was mindful of the irony.*

*The tracks, **though produced a year ago**, are getting top reviews, which, as Mark points out, is vindication of the musical direction they chose to go in.*

Even though 15d

Even is frequently used with *though* (but not with *although*) for emphasis:

*Do you find that you get tired when you're working, **even though** you're a part-timer?*

***Even though** I had nowhere to go, I moved out of the flat.*

A–Z 36c ***Even if, even though*** for a comparison of *even if* and *even though*

Though in non-front clause positions 15e

Though (but not *although* or *even though*) can be used in other positions in the clause apart from at the beginning, with a meaning similar to *however* or *nevertheless*. In spoken language it is particularly common at the end of the clause:

(mid position)
*He knows what's happening. Ken, **though**, doesn't seem to know what's going on.*

(end position)
[speaker is talking about his job]
*It's a bit panicky but I've not got any deadlines like you have, **though**.*

As though 15f

The expression *as though* is very frequent, and has a meaning very close to *as if*:

*You look **as though** you're feeling a bit distracted.*

*You feel **as though** you're battering your head against a brick wall most of the time.*

In both cases, *as if* would be equally acceptable.

ALWAYS 16

Position of *always* 16a

Always usually occurs in the normal mid position for adverbs (325):

*I **always try** and give a taxi driver ten per cent of the fare.*

*He's **always been** very good to me.*

*There **was always** someone in the class that was above everyone else.*

✪ *Always* is not normally used at the beginning of a declarative or interrogative clause:

*I **always** make sure my doors are locked.*
(~~Always I make sure my doors are locked.~~)

*Do you **always** finish your homework on time?*
(~~Always do you finish your homework on time?~~)

However, *always* often comes first in an imperative clause:

***Always** give way to pedestrians. **Always** be prepared to slow down and stop if necessary.*

***Always** gather herbs for storing on a dry day after the dew has evaporated.*

Some literary styles may occasionally use front position for emphasis:

***Always**, if I asked Mair anything, she would refer the decision to Bronwen.*

***Always**, all the time, men are forcing themselves to do what they do not want to do, and keeping themselves from what they do want to do.*

Always + progressive aspect 16b

Although *always* refers to general states of affairs or to repeated events, and is therefore mostly used with simple tense forms, it also occurs with progressive aspect. Such uses often refer to regular events or states which are problematic or undesired:

*Her group **are always blaming** each other. It's awful, isn't it?*

*I **was always lacking** in self-confidence and **lacking** in the confidence to think that I'm acceptable.*

*He's **always moaning** about money.*

Other uses of *always* 16c

Always is often used with *can* and *could* to refer to options and choices of action which the speaker considers to be freely available:

*Of course, if the worst comes to the worst, I **can always** move in there and rent my house out.*

*We **could always** phone up the ferry people and ask them if they've got any deals going.*

Always frequently occurs as an intensifier with mental verbs such as *think* and *remember*:

A: *They look good down there don't they, those tiles?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *I **always think** they look lovely.*

*I **always remember** when I was fourteen, fifteen, I wanted to be in the Navy.*

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As always 16d

As always is used to refer to a particular event which is seen as typical of all such events:

> ***As always**, she was doing all the talking.*
>
> ***As always**, it's a pleasure to get an email from you.*

For good, for ever and *for always* 16e

References to things which will be permanent are usually made with *for good*, and, more formally, with *for ever* (sometimes written as *forever*), rather than *for always*:

> *If we reject her now, we'll lose her **for good**.*
> (preferred to: If we reject her now, we'll lose her for always.)
>
> *I determined to enjoy every moment that I might carry it **for ever** in my memory.*
> (preferred to: … that I might carry it for always in my memory.)

For always does occur, but it is rare:

> *'I loved no one before you,' she said. 'I thought we were going to be together **for always**. I took it for granted.'*

Forever and *always* 16f

Forever (usually written as one word; compare *for ever*, **16e** above) has a meaning close to *always* when it is used with progressive aspect to refer to regular and repeated events, but carries an even stronger meaning of undesirability (see **16b** above):

> [*darting about* means 'moving very fast']
> A: *You know, I mean, your day's gone, so you're not relaxing really.*
> B: *No.*
> A: *You'**re forever darting** about here there and everywhere you know. And it's just too much.*

AMONG

A–Z 26 *Between, among*

ANYWAY 17

Anyway has two main uses: it is used with the meaning 'in spite of other circumstances mentioned', and it is used as a discourse marker to indicate boundaries in the discourse. Because of this second use, it is much more frequent in spoken language than in written.

When used to contrast two sets of circumstances, *anyway* normally occurs in end position:

Some kids will do things and it doesn't matter what they do because the parents won't care ***anyway****.*
(despite what they do)

[customer (B) and server (A) talking about a suit]
A: *Do you want me to wrap it up again for you?*
B: *No it's only got to come out again* ***anyway****.*
A: *Oh, all right then.*
(even if you do wrap it)

As a discourse marker in spoken language, *anyway* occurs in front position, and is used to move to a new phase of a narrative or argument, or to resume a conversation after an interruption or diversion, or to signal a move towards closing the talk:

… she went back to her seat and stood up and sort of started again. ***Anyway****, when I got off the bus the teacher came to me and he said 'Thank you for that'.*
(moving to a new stage in the narrative)

… I'm not that stupid. ***Anyway****, what I was saying was, when I first typed it up, it was like normal spacing and normal character size and I'd done nine pages.*
(resuming the narrative after a diversion or interruption)

But ***anyway*** *we'll continue this discussion when we get into the regulations. I must run cos I have to give a lecture.*
(signalling closure)

Anyway can also have a concessive meaning similar to 'at least', and can be used to limit or restrict a statement or to concede a point. In this meaning it most typically occurs in end position, but may also occur elsewhere in the clause.

I do like where I am, I've noticed there's never really any trouble down here. Well not where I am ***anyway****.*

It was a quiet place, Portland Close. That was the general consensus, ***anyway****.*

Northampton, that's where I live. Well, ***anyway****, that's where I live at the moment.*

APART FROM

A–Z **39 *Except***

AROUND, ROUND 18

Around is used as a preposition and as an adverb. It is alternatively written as *round*. *Round* is more common in spoken English. The primary meaning of a*round/round* is that of surrounding or covering all sides of something.

As a preposition

*The plane had to circle **around the town** twice before it could land.*

*They were all sitting **round the fire** and singing songs.*

*The whole organisation was built **around him**.*

*Do you know if there is a florist **round here**?*

*Her whole life revolved **round her mother**.*

*Jeff always seems to know a way **round the problem**.*

As an adverb

*They just sit **around** all day and never seem to do any studying.*

*She's clearly been **around**.*
(been to many places/is experienced)

*He was **around** earlier this morning but he's probably gone home now.*
(in the area where the speaker is)

*Be careful not to leave any purses and wallets lying **around**.*

*That's one of the best cars **around** at the moment.*
(one of the best available/on the market)

With numbers

Around is often used for numerical approximations. It can occur in the structure *around about* or, more frequently, *round about*:

*There were **around 20,000 people** at the concert but we could still see everything on the stage.*

*You have to pay **around £70 a week** for rented accommodation near the university.*

*I'll see you **around four** then.*

*I think it was **round about 1994** when they moved here from Germany.*

Round and round

Round and round is a common fixed expression:

*We just seemed to be going **round and round** in circles and getting nowhere.*

also **000 Numerals and vague quantifiers**

AS 19

Preposition *as* 19a

As is used as a preposition, with a meaning of equivalence or comparison:

She was thinking of you, as much ***as*** *herself.*

His chairmanship may well be criticised ***as*** *anti-democratic.*

The preposition *as* is often used to talk about the role or function of a person, event or thing. When the noun denotes a specific or definite entity, the determiner is usually optional:

Can you remember ***as a child*** *whether your parents had any ambitions for you?*

[*Judi Dench* is a well-known actress]
Judi Dench, ***as the long-suffering wife****, was outstanding.*

So, so it comes ***as a bit of a shock****.*

I used that ***as a guideline*** *and modified it accordingly.*

As (the) captain*, I have a responsibility to the whole team.*

✪ *As* + noun can have the meaning of 'in the role of'. It is not the same as *like* + noun, which means 'similar to' or 'in the same way as'. Compare:

1 ***As your tutor****, I want to give you the best possible advice.*

2 ***Like your tutor****, I want to give you the best possible advice.*

In **1** the speaker is the listener's tutor. In **2**, the speaker is not the tutor, but wishes to act in a similar way to the tutor.

Comparisons of appearance or behaviour are made with *like*, not *as*:

That dog looks ***like*** *a wolf.*
(~~That dog looks as a wolf.~~)

Than, not *as*, is used to complete a comparative construction with *more*:

We had more freedom ***than*** *many kids today.*
(~~We had more freedom as many kids today.~~)

Conjunction *as* 19b

The conjunction *as* can have comparative or temporal and consequential meanings. In its temporal meanings it is a synonym for *when* and *while*; in its consequential meanings it is a synonym for *since* or *because*:

The news from Moscow, ***as everyone predicted****, was excellent.*
(comparative meaning: like)

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***As it fell**, it smashed to pieces.*
(temporal meaning: when)

*Drivers are warned to expect massive jams at the weekend **as families return home**.*
(temporal meaning: while)

***As it was getting late**, they decided to book into a hotel.*
(consequential: because)

467a ***As** … **as*** for detailed discussion of *as* and *as … as …* in comparisons

A–Z 49 ***Like***

ASK (FOR) 20

Ask has the meaning of requesting somebody to do or say something or to tell somebody about something. *Ask for* has the meaning of requesting somebody to give something.

The basic complementation pattern with *ask* is ditransitive (*ask somebody something*) (286), and it is frequently used in reporting structures:

*Can I **ask you a question**?*

*Why don't you **ask that man the way**?*

*Why don't you **ask them how much** it costs?*

*Can I **ask you who** I should go and see?*

*She **asked me if** I needed anything.*

Ask for is used with a direct object or an object + prepositional complement construction:

*She's not the kind of person who **asks for help**.*

*We'll have to **ask** the caretaker **for the keys to the room**.*

Ask can be followed by a direct object, especially in the expressions *ask a question* and *ask the way/ask the time*:

*The audience **asked** a lot of **questions**.*

*I'm not so sure of the roads round here. I think we'd better **ask the way**.*

Ask is often used with a direct object with reference to sums of money, usually for selling and renting things:

[speaker B wishes to rent out a flat and a garage]
A: *How much are you **asking**?*
B: *We're **asking £180 per week** for the flat plus £30 a week for the garage.*

Ask + direct object + *of* occurs in some common expressions:

I need to ***ask a big favour of*** *you.*

I know it's ***asking a lot of*** *Ranji but can't he cover my shift for me tomorrow?*

Both *ask* and *ask for* can be used with object + *to*-infinitive:

I ***asked the whole group to wait*** *in the market square.*
(asked somebody directly)

I ***asked for the car to be repaired*** *on the same day.*
(requested that something should happen)

In very formal contexts, *ask* (with the meaning of 'request') may be followed by a *that*-clause with a verb in the subjunctive mood:

In his will, he ***asked that his ashes be scattered*** *upon the open sea.*

AS WELL (AS)

A–Z 14 *Also, as well (as), too*

AT 21

At commonly refers to time and place. The basic meanings and uses of *at* are best understood by comparing it with *in* and *on*.

At, in, on (time) 21a

A basic distinction between *at* and *in* depends on whether reference is made to a point (*at*), or an extended place or time (*in*):

The Edinburgh train leaves ***at*** *seven thirty* ***in*** *the morning.*
(*seven thirty* is a point in time; *the morning* is an extended period of time)

Some further examples of *at* and *in*, referring to time

things seen as a specific point in time (*at*)	things seen as an extended period of time or as a location within longer periods of time (*in*)
I didn't know if you would have time off ***at half-term****.*	*Here are some references to Russian poetry written* ***in the early 20th century****.*
I'm sorry, Jenn has got someone with her ***at the moment****.*	*He'll be free at about three. Could you wait here* ***in the meantime****?*
I'm wondering when I could come and pick up visiting cards that I ordered from you ***at the beginning*** *of October.*	*Maybe we should aim for a little bit of caution* ***in the beginning****, and try and get it right.*
Okay, we could meet ***at 4 o'clock*** *but why don't we meet* ***at lunchtime*** *instead?*	*Okay, he'll give you a ring* ***in a few days.***
Retirement for all civil servants is ***at 65****.*	*I retire* ***in three years' time****.*

With particular days, or parts of particular days, *on* is used:

We always like to meet for lunch ***on a Friday****.*

They love to have their grandparents with them, especially ***on a birthday****.*

You can't beat a walk ***on a fine spring morning****.*
(compare a more general reference: You can't beat a walk in the morning.)

References to important days are seen in terms of whether they are points on the calendar, parts of the day in general, or as particular days:

calendar points, specific periods, or location within longer periods (*at*, *in*)	particular days (*on*)
The semi-finals are ***in the morning*** *and the finals* ***in the afternoon****.*	*We had croissants* ***on the morning of the wedding****.*
Unemployment fell ***in April*** *in all regions and age groups.*	*At half-past four* ***on the afternoon of 8th April 1912*** *– the weather was mild and hyacinths bloomed in window boxes …*

At, *on*, *in* (place) 21b

At is used to describe a position or location seen as a point:

He was standing ***at the ticket barrier****, holding a bunch of red roses.*

We're going to meet ***at the service station*** *and then go on to Bristol in one car.*

At is used to describe locations at firms, companies, workplaces and educational institutions in a particular place:

[*Boots* is a UK pharmaceutical company]
She works ***at the Boots warehouse*** *in Beeston.*

[*Next* is a UK high-street clothing store]
I think you can buy the same thing cheaper ***at Next****.*

Both our childen are ***at Leeds Metropolitan University****.*

At is used to refer to activities which involve a group of people:

He's ***at a concert*** *until about eleven this evening.*

How many are going to be ***at the lecture****?*

On is used to describe a position along a road or river or by the sea or by a lake:

We can stop off at a café ***on the way****, can't we?*

It would be nice to live ***on the coast****, wouldn't it?*

The nicest hotel is ***on Lake Garda****.*

In is used to talk about locations within a larger area:

Look it up. I think you'll find it on page 32, ***in lines 24 to 28****.*

She's always sitting ***in the back row****.*
(the row is a larger area and she occupies one point in it)

We're planning to spend a fortnight walking ***in the mountains****.*

He was born and brought up ***in South Wales****.*

Here are some worksheets that the teachers use ***in class****.*

At after verbs and nouns 21c

At is used after a number of verbs in order to underline actions towards somebody or something. It is common after verbs of perception and communication:

I ***shouted at*** *him but he took no notice.*

Stop ***looking at*** *me like that!*

She ***frowned at*** *the suggestion and went rather pale.*

My comments weren't ***aimed at*** *you.*

At is used after adjectives referring to skills, competencies and reactions:

She is ***bad at*** *communicating her ideas.*
(~~She is bad in communicating her ideas.~~)

I'm not very ***good at*** *making decisions.*
(~~I'm not very good in making decisions.~~)

When he was at school he was ***brilliant at*** *French.*

He was ***indignant at*** *their unruly behaviour.*

He is ***angry at*** *being left out of the squad for the European matches.*

BACK 22

General meanings of *back* 22a

Back refers to the rear area of something (the opposite of 'the front') and can be used as a noun or as a noun modifier:

Put the name and address on ***the back****.*
(noun: the rear side of the envelope/paper)

Do you know you've left your ***back door*** *open?*
(noun modifier: the rear door of a house or car)

When referring to the human body, *back* describes the rear surface between the shoulders and the waist:

It was very uncomfortable for a long time. I had to sleep on my ***back****.*

I've been experiencing ***back*** *pain the last few days.*

One of the commonest meanings of *back* is when something returns to an earlier situation or position, or moves in the opposite direction to how it moved before:

*We went by coach and **came back** by train.*

*Anyway, the bank said, 'Well, Mrs Hogan, **come back** next week and we'll see what we can do for you.' So I **went back** the following week and they reimbursed me for most of it.*

✪ *Back* does not mean the same as *again*. *Again* implies repetition, *back* simply means returning something to its former position or situation:

[discussing a jumper damaged in the wash; *send it back* means 'send it back to the shop/manufacturer from where it was bought']
A: *I've just noticed. Do you know what's happened to your jumper? Have you seen it?*
B: *What, on there? That always happens to my jumpers.*
A: *Ah, that's dreadful though. Could you not send it **back**?*
(~~… send it again?~~)
B: *Send it **back**?*
(~~Send it again?~~)
A: *Yeah. Brand new, isn't it?*
B: *I've only washed it once.*

*I'm sorry. Could you say that **again**?*
(Could you repeat that?)
(~~I'm sorry. Could you say that back?~~)

Back can also mean 'moving away from something or keeping one's distance from something':

*Why should I stand **back** and watch my kids have to go through this at age sixteen?*

Back + dynamic and stative verbs 22b

Back may be used with dynamic verbs such as *come*, *drive*, *go*, *get*, *look*, *take*, *travel*, as well as stative verbs such as *be* and *lie*:

*I remember a few years ago I was **driving back** from Wimbledon …*

*Mohammed's taken Said to visit a friend and will **be back** later.*

At the back and *in the back* 22c

When *back* refers to a point or position in space, *at* is used. When it refers to an area or enclosed space, *in* is used:

[speaker at a conference]
*Can you hear me **at the back**? I just want to check that the microphone's working.*
(speaker considers the 'back' of the hall as a position or point)

[offer to a passenger in a car]
Would you prefer to sit ***in the back****?*
(*the back* is seen as a part of, or area in, the car)

Back + *here, there, home* 22d

Back is often used with the adverbs *here*, *there* and *home*:

Meet me ***back here*** *at five o'clock.*

I got ***back home*** *at quarter to eleven, which was okay.*

Back + time expressions 22e

Back can be used with time expressions to emphasise that something happened a long time ago:

And I got involved in quality circles ***back in 1988****.*

Well I used to leave my bike around Truro, I was so naive ***back then****, I just used to leave it unlocked.*

Back can also be used with *a while* instead of *ago* in informal contexts:

A while back *he told me all about a long talk the two of you had when you were walking through the art gallery.*

BECAUSE/COS 23

Because is a subordinating conjunction which introduces clauses of cause and reason:

The government will not act ***because economic factors influence their thinking****.*

Because the snow had set in*, we decided to abandon the excursion to the mountain top.*

Because of is a two-word preposition:

Because of the heat*, we spent most of the time in the pool.*

I'm only here ***because of you****.*

Cos (which can also be spelt *'cause*) is a reduced form of *because*. It can be used in all the examples above. It is widely used in spoken and more informal varieties of English. *Cos* is a way of representing in writing the reduced pronunciation (/kəz/ or /kɔz/) of the word that is common in informal speech across the range of ages, social classes and educational background:

We're not going to the club ***cos*** *it's just too expensive.*

[two teachers speculating about the salary of a colleague]
She's probably on the first allowance ***cos*** *she was probably earning about eighteen thousand.*

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In spoken English *cos* often functions more like a coordinating than a subordinating conjunction. In these instances *cos* invariably follows the main clause and functions to add to the information in the main clause:

She doesn't like animals ***cos*** *she says we should keep the house clean. And she does, doesn't she?*

What does he look like? ***Cos*** *I've never actually met him.*
(*cos* here explains why the speaker is asking the question)

BEFORE 24

Preposition *before* 24a

Before is most frequently used with noun phrases referring to timed events:

[speaking to a tennis player]
What kind of thoughts come into your mind ***before a match****?*

[travel agent to customer]
The tickets normally come about ten to fourteen days ***before departure****.*

References to place may also be made with *before*, especially when they are seen as part of a sequence of events in time:

[university literature seminar]
And it's clear I think ***before the end of the first chapter****, probably* ***before the end of the first paragraph****, that actually that is not Jane Austen's point of view nor is it an objective factual point of view.*

Before, by, till/until

If something has to be done *before* a certain point in time, then when that point arrives, the specified action must already be completed:

[tutor to student concerning handing in assigned work]
You'll have to give it to me ***before Tuesday*** *cos I'm going away on Tuesday.*

If something must be done *by* a certain point in time, that point is the last moment at which the specified action can be completed:

I need to be back in Cardiff ***by eight o'clock*** *on the Friday morning.*
(no later than eight o'clock)
(~~I need to be back in Cardiff till eight o'clock on the Friday morning.~~)

If something is done or happens *till/until* a point in time, it starts before that point and continues up to that point:

I'm going to be away ***till August****.*
(my absence will continue up to August)

Compare:

I won't be there ***till three o'clock****.*
(I will be there at three o'clock but not before)

I'll be there ***by three o'clock****.*
(I may arrive before three o'clock and will be there no later than three o'clock)

Adverb *before* 24b

Postmodifying a noun

Before often postmodifies nouns such as *day*, *morning*, *night*, *week*, *month*, *year*:

A: *There was a dreadful tragedy in Australia just yesterday I think.*
B: *Was there?*
A: *Or* ***the day before****. Yes.*

A: *Delia had her second day off school ill a week last Wednesday.*
B: *A week last Wednesday. So did she get to the concert?*
A: *Yes. We got to the concert. That was* ***the week before****.*
B: *Ah yes. Yeah.*

As adjunct

Before relates earlier events to the moment of speaking or to a point of time in the past:

A: *Does this look different to you?*
B: *Yeah. We haven't been in this building* ***before****.*
(up to the moment of speaking)

It was a new team. They hadn't worked together ***before****.*
(up to that point in the past)

Before + *-ing* clauses 24c

When used to link two clauses, *before* followed by a verb in the *-ing* form is many times more frequent in writing than in speech. In informal speech there is a strong preference for a full finite clause:

As they talked, Sonia walked past. She spied them and waved, ***before walking*** *on, heading towards Denver.*

Add the lemon juice, and stir. ***Before serving****, remove the red chilli.*

Before + finite clauses 24d

Before may be used with a variety of tense forms and time references to link two clauses:

- Present simple (with future meaning):

  A: *When you go and vote, what sort of consideration do you give* ***before*** *you actually* ***decide*** *who you're going to vote for?*
  B: *Well it's very hard really.*

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- Present perfect:

  A: *The instructions are on there.*
  B: *Okay.*
  A: *And it's quite important to get them well-boiled cos otherwise we'll die of poisoning.*
  B: *Right. What from beans?*
  A: *Yeah. If you eat those* ***before*** *they'****ve*** *even* ***been soaked*** *or anything, it can kill you I believe.*
  B: *Right.*

- Past simple:

  A: *What did she do* ***before*** *she* ***married****?*
  B: *Hm?*
  A: *What sort of work did she do* ***before*** *she* ***married****? Did she ever tell you?*
  B: *I don't think she ever did anything.*

- Past perfect:

  He died in hospital. And ***before*** *he'****d gone*** *into hospital, he kept saying to my mother 'I've got something I've to sort out. I've got to go to the solicitors'.*

  The perfect aspect versions stress the completion of the event in the *before*-clause and a break in time between the events in the two clauses. The present simple or past simple versions suggest a closer connection between the two clauses, as with *after* (10e).

Premodification of *before* 24e

Before may be premodified by adverbs such as *just*, *immediately*, *shortly* and *long*, and by time expressions involving words such as *days*, *weeks*, *months*, *years*:

We arrived ***just before*** *you.*

She was lying in bed sick and I'd known her ***about two years before****.*

Beforehand 24f

Beforehand is often used as an alternative to *before* as an adverb, especially when the reference to timed events is less specific. It is more frequent in informal speech than in writing:

[talking about an overseas teaching scheme and an information booklet about it]
And this is good because it tells you about the history and what the requirements are. And it says also this is to be used as a resource book. So it's good to read that ***beforehand****.*
(before doing anything else in connection with the scheme)

Beforehand may be premodified by adverbs such as *immediately*, *just* and *shortly*, and other time expressions involving words such as *days*, *weeks*, *months*, *years*:

He'd bought his tickets ***months beforehand*** *and was really looking forward to it.*

He will get the bill ***a week or two beforehand****.*

Other uses of *before* 24g

In more formal contexts, *before* is often used with the meaning of 'in front of':

Gertie and I had said goodbye to all our old schoolfriends, to the school itself, and the way of life which had come to an end after more than six years. The long end-of-term holiday was ***before*** *us – only it was more than the end of term for us.*

When the case came up ***before*** *the Crown Prosecution Service, it was returned for lack of evidence.*

We promise today, ***before*** *the whole country, that free elections will be established as soon as it is safe to do so.*

Before long is a common expression meaning 'after a short time':

[about the breeding of calves for their meat]
The newly-born calf is put into a tiny wooden crate. ***Before long****, it will be unable to stand properly or turn around in its cramped 'home', and will develop deformed joints. Because people like their veal to be very white, the calves are fed solely on an iron-deficient liquid diet.*

They were lying in a long line near the entrance, their faces covered by their blankets. They were so very quiet it was hard to know whether any one of them was still alive. Many did die ***before long*** *and were replaced by others whose time had come.*

BELOW 25

Preposition *below* 25a

Below is most commonly a preposition and means 'lower than'. It has a meaning which is close to *under*. Its opposite is *above*. In both the following sentences *under* can be substituted for *below*:

The water was now just ***below her waist*** *and she was beginning to panic a little.*

Once the plane got ***below the thunder*** *clouds, the turbulence subsided.*

Below is preferred when things are not literally or directly *under* but at a lower level:

We were 784 metres above sea level and 160 metres ***below the actual summit****.*
(~~We were 784 metres above sea level and 160 metres under the actual summit.~~)

Under is preferred to *below* when one thing touches or covers or hides something else. *Underneath* is only used to refer to physical position:

He put a thick winter vest ***under his jacket****.*
(*underneath* is possible but not *below*)

[describing a flood]
Some cars parked near the river were almost completely ***under the water****.*

Below is also used to refer to lower levels of more abstract notions and to numbers, especially statistics:

The Dead Sea is about 400 metres ***below sea level****.*

When they reached the summit, it was already several degrees ***below zero****.*

[about the population of Scotland]
By 2025 it will be approaching 4.9 million and by 2040 it could fall ***below 4.6 million****.*

The school's examination results were distinctly ***below average****.*

✪ *Below* is not used in references to people's age:

You can only buy a ticket here if you are ***under 18****.*
(~~You can only buy a ticket here if you are below 18.~~)

Below is used metaphorically, often meaning that something is beneath or inferior to something else or that something has less power or authority. With this meaning *below* can be substituted by *beneath*:

He won't take on any job which he thinks is ***below him****.*

She is in charge of the whole hospital and has three smaller units ***below her****.*

Adverb *below* 25b

Below is also used as an adverb, especially with reference to the lower decks of a boat or ship:

[talking about being on a ferry]
It was getting cold on deck so we went ***below****.*

Below may postmodify a noun:

The village below *was silent in the midday sun.*

Below is used in writing to refer to something that will be mentioned later in the text:

As we can see from the export data cited and summarised ***below****, the results are very different from what the company was expecting.*

As we will argue ***below****, the history of this decade tells a different story.*

A–Z 6 *Above*

BENEATH

A–Z 25 *Below*

BESIDES

A–Z 39 *Except*

BETWEEN, AMONG 26

Between and *among* are prepositions. *Between* focuses typically on two things which are clearly separated. *Among* focuses on things which are not clearly separated because they are part of a group or crowd or mass of objects and entities:

They built a hotel ***between the hills****.*
(probably with one hill on either side)

It is a lovely hotel set ***among the hills****.*
(probably surrounded by hills)

Most commonly, *between* introduces a prepositional phrase in which two singular or plural noun phrases are joined:

In many cameras, the distance ***between the lens and the film*** *can be altered so that the focus of the picture is sharp.*

There is a distinction ***between what's written and what's spoken****, of course.*

The managing director was determined to set a distance ***between himself and his employees****.*

The complement of *between* can also be a comparison of times or of a numeric value, which is **not** possible with *among*:

She lived in Japan ***between 1994 and 2000****.*
(~~She lived in Japan among 1994 and 2000.~~)

Three years ago the television companies agreed to pay a royalty of ***between 15 per cent and 35 per cent*** *to musicians and actors on all tapes sold.*

A large number of nouns, and some verbs, are often followed by *between*. The most frequent nouns are: *connection*, *difference*, *distinction*, *link*, *relationship*. Verbs frequently followed by *between* are: *choose*, *differentiate*, *distinguish*, *divide*. *Among* is not strongly related to preceding nouns or verbs:

Unfortunately, he could see no ***connection between*** *his behaviour that night and the fact that his friends no longer phoned him.*

What's the ***difference between*** *writing for children and writing for adults?*

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Among creates a sense of being a part of or surrounded by or included in something else. *Among* is typically followed by a plural noun phrase:

I grew up ***among the most majestic pine forests*** *… I took them for granted, never knew how beautiful they were.*

She was far from home, living ***among strangers****, but she was very happy there.*

Do you happen to have my copy of Macbeth ***among your books****?*

I'd put her ***among the top 20% of students in the class****.*

Note also the two phrases *among others* and its variant *among other things*:

One of their hopes, ***among others****, is that more financial information will have to be disclosed, and more people will be made punishable for breaking the rules.*

The review body will discuss this, ***among other things****; but the broad outline of the new system has been approved.*

Amongst is sometimes used as an alternative to *among*. It is more formal and generally less frequent:

Industrial organizations are ***amongst*** *the most fragile in the world.*

Between can sometimes be used to refer to more than two people or things, especially where the people or things are seen as individually separated from one another:

I gave her money for the three children to divide ***between them****.*

There are some big gaps ***between the floorboards*** *in our living room.*

BIT, A BIT (OF) 27

Bit + nouns 27a

Bit often has a deliberately vague and informal meaning:

I've done a few ***bits*** *of shopping.*

The unit is over in the accident and emergency ***bit*** *of the hospital.*

A bit (of)/bits (of) can denote large and small quantities and can refer to both abstract and concrete things. It is an informal alternative to *some*, or *a piece of/pieces of*, or *a part of*, depending on the type of noun it occurs with:

It's ***a*** *nice* ***bit of land*** *you have here.*
(or: piece of land)

Don't they need ***a bit of furniture*** *before they can move in?*
(or: some furniture)

We went to the auction and got three nice ***bits of furniture****.*
(or: three nice pieces of furniture)

It's okay. You gave me ***a bit of your sandwich*** *and I'll give you* ***a bit of mine****.*
(or: a part of your sandwich … a part of mine)

We only watched ***a bit of that documentary****, but it looked interesting.*

I need ***a bit of peace and quiet****.*

It looks like you've lost ***a bit of weight*** *already.*

A bit of a is used with nouns which have a gradable meaning, and has a meaning similar to 'quite a':

It's ***a bit of a problem****, I'm afraid.*

Don't you think she's been ***a bit of a fool*** *about all this?*

Adverb *a bit* 27b

A bit commonly functions as an adverb. It is a more informal alternative to *a little*:

They had got ***a bit tired*** *working at the computer.*

Wait a bit*, can you. I'll be down in a minute.*

A bit is used to modify comparative adjectives and comparative determiners. It is not normally used to modify comparative adjectives before nouns:

It was ***a bit more*** *entertaining than the last play we saw.*
(~~It was a bit more entertaining play.~~)

The beach was ***a bit nicer*** *than we'd been led to believe.*

A bit less *noise please!*

She needs to show ***a bit more*** *enthusiasm for her work.*

When used with non-comparative adjectives and determiners, the meaning is often negative and critical:

It's ***a bit extravagant****, isn't it?*

He's ***a bit old*** *to be driving, I think.*

She's been trying to tell him what to buy. That's ***a bit much****, I think.*
(*a bit much* is an idiom meaning 'unreasonable')

A bit (or *a little bit*) often has a hedging function:

It still hurts ***a bit****.*
(It still hurts, but not much.)

I was ***a little bit*** *annoyed, to tell you the truth.*
(… slightly annoyed …)

The phrase *not a bit* is used in responses to deny or repudiate something:

A: *I hope he didn't hurt your feelings?*
B: ***Not a bit***.
(Not at all.)

A good bit, a fair bit, quite a bit 27c

A good bit, *a fair bit* and *quite a bit* are fixed phrases. Unlike most other meanings with *a bit (of)*, these phrases refer, often by means of understatement, to large quantities:

He left ***quite a bit of*** *money, you know, in his will.*

She's ***a fair bit*** *older than he is. About 15 years, I think.*

A–Z 50 *Little, a little, few, a few*

BOTH 28

With nouns preceded by determiners, *both* and *both of* occur:

both	*both of*
We have, in ***both those*** *markets, spent a lot of time and effort on public relations.*	*The problem is* ***both of those*** *statements are true, aren't they?*
This year we've had ***both your*** *nieces here, haven't we?*	*And what changes have you had to make to* ***both of your*** *lives in order to accommodate your baby?*

However, determiners are often omitted after *both*:

I also told ***both neighbours*** *on* ***both sides*** *that I was going to be away for that fortnight and could they keep an eye out in the day because there wouldn't be anyone in during the daytime.*

When *both* is part of a subject or object which has a pronoun head, it may be followed by *of* + an object pronoun. Alternatively, *both* may postmodify a subject pronoun or an object pronoun:

	both of + pronoun	pronoun + *both*
subject	***Both of them*** *were sitting there looking up at it like that.*	***We both*** *play the violin.*
object	*Do you two want a lift? I can take* ***both of you***.	*Which do you prefer? Cos I like* ***them both***.

The *both of* + object pronoun construction is generally preferred after prepositions:

I think there's different information ***on both of them***.
(preferred to: … different information on them both)

That's going to be helpful for ***both of us****, really, isn't it?*
(preferred to: … helpful for us both)

The object pronoun + *both* construction is not used:

1 where a pronoun is the complement:

A: *There's nothing new happening.*
B: *No.*
C: *You know.*
A: *And that's* ***both of you****?*
(~~And that's you both?~~)
C: *Yes.*

2 in elliptical short answers:

A: *Which one was that? Is that the eldest?*
B: ***Both of them****.*
(~~Them both.~~)
A: *They both came over did they?*
B: *Yeah.*

3 where there is a pronoun phrase in apposition:

Were your mum and dad Irish, ***both of them****?*
(~~Were your mum and dad Irish, them both?~~)

In informal speech, *the* may precede *both of* + pronoun:

Oh, look, I don't know. You decide, ***the both of you****.*

If *both* refers to the subject of a clause, it may be used in the normal mid position for adverbs (325):

We ***both decided*** *he was going to be a ballet dancer.*

[addressing two little children]
Shall I sit in between so you ***can both look*** *at the story together?*

These ***are both*** *£79.*

Both may be used alone in short questions and answers. *The both* is not used:

A: *Do you want rice, Bob, or noodles?*
B: ***Both****.*
(~~The both.~~)

Neither of is usually preferred to *both … not* in negative clauses:

Neither of them *can walk very far.*
(preferred to: ~~Both of them can't walk very far.~~)

Both … and is used to emphasise the link between parallel constructions, and is stronger than simple coordination with *and*:

*Knowing **both** Pat **and** Fran Powell, I would be careful if I were you.*
(~~Knowing both Pat and knowing Fran Powell, I would …~~)

*Military technology being used for cordless phones will **both** cut out static **and** prevent eavesdropping.*

BRING, TAKE, FETCH 29

Bring, take 29a

To understand the difference between *bring* and *take*, it is important to observe how the direction of the action relates to the speaker and listener.

Bring typically means movement with something or someone either from the listener's location to the speaker's or vice versa:

[a bottle of water has just been opened; speaker goes towards the kitchen]
*I'll **bring** some fresh glasses.*
(she will come back with the glasses to the place where the listener is)
(~~I'll take some fresh glasses.~~)

*I had a load of equipment and stuff I couldn't possibly **bring** on a bicycle so I just **brought** the minibus here.*
(movement to where the speaker is now)

Bring can also mean movement with something or someone from a third-party location to the speaker's or listener's location:

*They've been very kind to me over the year and he's just **brought** me a turkey. So I can't grumble.*
(movement with something by a third person to the speaker's location)

[B's sister has just returned from a holiday]
A: *Did she **bring** you a present?*
B: *Yes, she did.*
(~~Did she take you a present?~~)
(movement with something by a third person to the listener's location)

Take typically means movement with something or someone from the speaker's or listener's location to a third-party location:

A: *What time's your flight? I can **take** you to the airport.*
B: *Oh, thanks.*
(~~I can bring you to the airport.~~)
(movement to a third-party location; neither the speaker nor the listener are at the airport)

A: *She was sick all Saturday. She was sick Saturday night.*
B: *So it's gone on for quite a long time really, hasn't it?*
A: *Well it has. That's why I* ***took*** *her to the doctor's.*
(movement with someone from the speaker's location to a third-party location)

Where both parties involved in the action are third parties, either *take* or *bring* may be used, depending on whether the speaker sees things from the agent's (*take*) or the recipient's (*bring*) viewpoint:

Every morning she ***brings*** *(*or ***takes****) dad a cup of tea in bed.*

✪ The most common errors with *bring* and *take* involve a failure to orientate to the direction of the action:

I ***take*** *my cat to my neighbour's house once a week, to play with my neighbour's cat, to let it have fun with other cats.*
(~~I bring my cat to my neighbour's house once a week …~~)
(the movement is to a third-party location, not to the speaker's location)

I always encourage my children to ***bring*** *their friends home and to invite them for birthday parties.*
(~~I always encourage my children to take their friends home …~~)
(the movement is to the speaker's location, not to a third-party location)

Fetch 29b

Fetch means to go to another place to get something or someone and bring them back:

Will you go and ***fetch*** *some milk from the fridge, please.*

I can ***fetch*** *Mick from the station tomorrow if you like.*

A–Z 30 *Come, go*

BY

A–Z 24 *Before*

COME, GO 30

To understand the difference between *come* and *go*, it is important to observe how the direction of the action relates to the speaker and listener.

Come typically means movement either from the listener's location to the speaker's or vice versa:

A: *Are you* ***coming round*** *for coffee tomorrow? I'm here on my own.*
B: *Oh are you?*
(movement from listener's to speaker's location)

[speaking on the phone]
I'll ***come to your place*** *at about six and pick you up.*
(movement from speaker's to listener's location)
(~~I'll go to your place at about six and pick you up.~~)

Come can also mean movement from a third-party location to the speaker's or listener's location:

A student ***came to me*** *last night and complained about noise upstairs.*
(movement by a third person to the speaker's location)

A: *I was talking to Gary and Olivia.*
B: *They're* ***coming to see you*** *next weekend I gather.*
A: *That's right. Yes.*
(movement by a third person to the listener's location)

Come is also used with the meaning of accompanying the speaker or listener to a place:

We're going to the cinema Robin. ***Are you coming****?*

[*Super-buy* is a large supermarket]
A: *We were thinking of trying to have a trip to Super-buy at some point.*
B: *I'll* ***come with you****.*

Go typically means movement from the speaker's or listener's location to a third-party location:

A: *Every time I* ***go to Super-buy****, no matter what time I go, I have to queue.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *There's two things that put me off the idea of* ***going to big supermarkets like that****. One is finding somewhere to park and the other is queuing to pay for your goods.*
(movement to a third-party location; neither the speaker nor the listener are at a supermarket)

A: *We drove up into Malaysia.*
B: *And did you* ***go to Kuala Lumpur*** *then?*
A: *No. We* ***went to Melaka****.*
(movement to a third-party location; neither the speaker nor the listener are in Malaysia)

Where both parties involved in the action are third parties, either *go* or *come* may be used, depending on whether the speaker sees things from the agent's (*go*) or the recipient's (*come*) viewpoint:

Much as he had ***come to her*** *when life got too complicated and sad, she now turned to him.*
(seen from the recipient's (her) viewpoint; if *gone* had been used, the movement would be seen from the agent's (his) viewpoint)

Do not use *go on/off* for *get on/off*:

He put his newspaper down and ***got off*** *the train at the next station.*
(~~He put his newspaper down and went off the train at the next station.~~)

When you ***get on*** *the plane they offer you a drink.*

When reference is made to a whole trip to and from a place in the present perfect, *been to* is used, not *gone to*:

A: ***Have you been to*** *Bristol recently?*
B: *No. Not for years.*
(~~Have you gone to Bristol recently?~~)

Present perfect with *go* typically indicates that the subject is still absent:

A: *What about Lou? Did you ring Lou?*
B: *I haven't rung Lou, no. Actually. No,* ***he's gone to*** *Edinburgh this weekend so he won't be at home now.*
(Lou is in Edinburgh at the moment of speaking)

Go in, *go into* and *come in*, *come into* mean to enter. *Go to* and *come to* mean to visit or make a trip to a place:

The idea is that people who ***go to foreign countries*** *should have a lot of respect for other races and different religions.*
(~~The idea is that people who go in foreign countries should have a lot of respect ...~~)

He had ***come to Greece*** *in the summer on vacation.*
(~~He had come in Greece in the summer on vacation.~~)

A–Z 29 *Bring, take, fetch*

COS

A–Z 23 *Because/cos*

DO 31

Forms of auxiliary verb *do* 31a

Do is used to form the interrogative and negative of lexical verbs (except copular verb *be* and some uses of lexical verb *have*).

person	interrogative	negative declarative	negative interrogative
present tense: all persons except third singular	***Do I*** *know Helen?* *What* ***do you*** *want?* ***Do we*** *really have to do it?* ***Do they*** *sell posters?*	***I don't*** *eat much meat.* ***You don't*** *look old enough.* ***We don't*** *think about it.* ***They don't*** *get back till Tuesday.*	***Don't I*** *know you?* ***Don't you*** *think dad's looking better?* *Why* ***don't we*** *put it to a vote?* ***Don't they*** *look after her?*
present tense: third person singular	***Does anybody*** *want boiled rice?*	***She doesn't*** *eat lunch.*	***Doesn't anybody*** *ask you about that tee-shirt?*
past tense: all persons	***Did I*** *get my change?* ***Did you*** *hear what I said?* *Where* ***did he*** *work?* ***Did we*** *talk about that last time?* ***Did they*** *hire a car?*	***I didn't*** *say that.* ***You didn't*** *try hard enough.* ***Roger didn't*** *have any coffee.* ***We didn't*** *go upstairs.* ***They didn't*** *hear anything.*	***Didn't I*** *sign it?* ***Didn't you*** *tell them the dates?* ***Didn't he*** *turn up?* ***Didn't we*** *have a leaflet?* ***Didn't they*** *come from an academic background as well?*

In more formal styles, or careful speech, or when auxiliary *do* or *not* is stressed, *don't*, *doesn't* and *didn't* may be spoken and written as *do not*, *does not* and *did not*:

- Formal styles:

  At an acrimonious meeting, 182 members voted for his adoption, 35 against, four put up their hands as abstentions and 61 ***did not*** *vote.*

  The public affection for the Queen ***does not*** *extend to her family.*

- Careful speech, stressed auxiliary or stressed *not*:

  If I never have to see another doctor's surgery or hospital outpatient clinic, then I would be extremely, extremely happy. I ***do not*** *like being ill.*

Other contracted forms of *do* and *did* 31b

In informal speech, *do you* and *did you* may be contracted to /dju/ and written as *d'you*:

What about roads? ***D'you*** *think less should be spent on the roads?*
(Do you think …)

D'you *get my message?*
(Did you get my message?)

After *where*, *who*, *what*, *why* and *how*, *did* may be contracted to /d/ in informal speech, and written as *'d*:

*Where**'d** you put the scissors?*
(Where did you put the scissors?)

A: *What**'d** you say?*
(What did you say?)
B: *I said why are you depressed?*

*Why**'d** she ring back?*
(Why did she ring back?)

Emphatic declarative form of *do* 31c

Do, *does*, *did* are also used for the emphatic declarative:

*I've got some nice shrubs here which I **do** like.*

*But I think it **does** affect the quality a little bit.*

*He **did** mention that getting the public involved sometimes was a waste of time.*

Do in tags and as a substitute verb 31d

The forms of *do* in the table above (31a) and the infinitive *to do* are used in tags and checks, and in substitute clauses to repeat the idea of the main clause:

*You like lemon chicken, **don't** you, Maureen?*

*She doesn't go short of anything, **does** she?*

A: *It went straight into his eye.*
B: ***Did** it?*
A: *Yeah.*

*I wouldn't intrude in any way on any academic problem because I don't have the necessary qualification to **do** so.*

also **98 Questions and tags** and **130 Substitution**

Lexical verb *do* 31e

Do as a lexical verb is used to indicate activity of some kind. It collocates strongly with nouns denoting physical and mental activities:

*They think the women are the ones who go out and **do the shopping**.*

*He kept asking me if I'd **do a painting** of him.*

Other everyday nouns of this type include:

cleaning
course
decorating
degree
diploma
dishes
homework
housework
job
project
research
washing (up)
work

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A very common pattern is *do* + quantifying expression + activity noun:

Do you ***do a lot of skiing****?*

I managed to ***do a bit of theatre-going and concert-going****.*

Let's now make the beds and ***do some hoovering*** *if that's all right.*

Other everyday nouns that occur in this construction include:

cooking	*reading*	*swimming*
exercise	*sightseeing*	*walking*
fishing	*singing*	*writing*
gardening	*studying*	

Do and *make* 31f

Do is often used with nouns that can also be used with *make*. *Do* focuses on the activity itself, while *make* focuses on the end product of the activity:

Do you want me to ***make*** *some potato salad? Cos Mick said he'd* ***do*** *a potato salad and another sort of salad and I've just been on the phone to Jane as well, she says she's gonna* ***do*** *a rice salad.*

A–Z 51 *Make*

DOWN 32

Down is used as a preposition indicating movement or position:

They ***drove down the hill*** *too quickly and didn't see the bend.*

*The supermarket****'s down the hill****, then turn right. You can't miss it.*

Pamela ***lives*** *just* ***down the road****.*

Down is also used as an adverb:

They were ***waving*** *a flag up and* ***down*** *and looking very anxious.*

You've ***come down*** *from Portland, have you?*

Down can also be used as an adjective. It is almost exclusively used predicatively and it has a wide range of meanings which are often metaphoric and often negative:

She's a bit ***down****.*
(sad)

The computer's ***down*** *again.*
(not working)

Don't be too ***down*** *on them. They haven't done this before.*
(critical)

Down can also be used as a verb:

*He **downed** his opponent in the third round.*
(knocked down, defeated)

DURING 33

During is used to refer to extended events or periods of time. Reference may be to the whole time of the event, or to something that occurred while the event was taking place:

*You're not allowed to smoke **during the flight**.*
(the whole flight)

***During that week** it was the birthday of our son.*
(at a point in the week)

During and *for* are different. *During* is not used with numbers and quantitative time expressions:

*I worked there **for three years**.*
(~~I worked there during three years.~~)

However, *during* is used with *the last* + quantitative time expressions:

*Have you seen him at all **during the last few days**?*

During is not used to introduce clauses:

***While I was sitting there**, the nurses were talking in the corridor.*
(~~During I was sitting there, the nurses were talking in the corridor.~~)

A–Z 43 *For*

EACH 34

Each other 34a

By far the most common construction with *each* is *each other*, which is used to refer to a reciprocal event or state, where the subject and object are both agents and recipients of the same process:

*I mean, you two have known **each other** for a long time, haven't you?*

[talking about the subjects of study at a university]
*The Business Studies and the Computing actually complement **each other** very well.*

A: *We don't mind being with* ***each other*** *in the day.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Some couples … I've got friends who say I'm happily married but I couldn't be locked in a house for five years with my husband.*

Although *each other* most frequently refers to only two people or things, this is not necessarily so, and it may refer to larger groups, especially in informal speech. In this way, it is an alternative to *one another*:

Our next generation in the family, they're all very close to ***each other****, if you know what I mean.*

She said it was all right at the beginning of the year, they all moved in together, but this is the third year they've all lived together, and she said, 'Oh so many arguments'. She said, cos they know ***each other*** *so well now, instead of talking about* ***each other*** *behind their back, they just have full blown arguments to their face.*

Each other's can be used as a possessive determiner:

We like ***each other's*** *company.*

✪ *Each other* cannot be used as the subject of the clause. *Each of us/each of you/each of them*, or *we each/you each/they each* is used:

Each of us *must return to continue the fight in our own towns.*
(~~Each other must return to continue the fight in our own towns.~~)

We each *make our own decisions.*

Each other and *one another* are often used interchangeably, with little difference in meaning:

His last wife was Chinese, and they lived in separate houses, but not far away from ***one another****.*
(or: … not far away from each other.)

Oh this is Peggy Ann. We've known ***one another*** *now for, what, fifteen years.*

However, while *each other* can be used to emphasise the individuality of the relationship between one person or thing and another, *one another* can be used to focus on people and things as groups:

It is natural for people to be interested in ***one another's*** *affairs in the country, and anything of that nature was sure to be talked about: but this time there was much more talk than usual.*
(people seen as an undefined group)

The high valleys of Graubünden were virtually isolated from ***one another*** *until well into the nineteenth century.*
(all the valleys seen as a group)

Each and *every* 34b

Each refers to individual things in a group or list of two or more entities. It is often similar in meaning to *every*, but *every* refers to a group or list of more than two entities. Compare:

1 ***We each*** *make our own decisions.*
(stresses individual members of a group)

2 ***Everyone*** *makes their own decisions.*
(stresses the group as a totality)

While example **1** could refer to two people or more than two people, example **2** can only refer to more than two people.

Adverbs such as *almost*, *practically* and *nearly* are used with *every*, but not with *each*:

You walk down any street and basically ***almost every*** *building is falling down.*
(~~… and basically almost each building is falling down.~~)

Each, *each of* and *each one of* 34c

Each is followed by a singular noun:

He turned up fairly regularly at the same time ***each day****.*
(~~… at the same time each days.~~)

Each of is used before other determiners and before object pronouns:

What we did was carry out group discussions in ***each of the*** *countries within the target market.*

These are bookmarks. I have one for ***each of you****.*

The hotel manager charged ***each of them*** *£10 for three single rooms, totalling £30.*

Each of with a plural noun as subject is normally followed by a singular verb, though this rule is sometimes ignored in informal speech:

Each of those *parallel dimension****s is*** *equally possible.*

For greater emphasis, *each one of* may be used with determiners and pronouns. If the phrase with *each one of* is the subject, the verb is singular:

Well, there's six doctors now. Six. And ***each one of them has*** *a computer station.*

Each + pronouns/possessives 34d

Each may be used with plural pronouns and possessives, especially in order to express neutral gender:

Each person *should contribute to old-age care insurance, which would be triggered if* ***they*** *became in need of care.*
(preferred to: … if he became in need of care.)

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How can we lay the foundation of children's educational achievements within the confines of the National Curriculum while simultaneously helping ***each child*** *take pride in* ***their*** *cultural accomplishments, care for others and care for the world in which* ***they*** *live?*

Each referring to a subject 34e

When *each* refers to the subject of the clause, it can occur in the normal mid position for adverbs (325):

They ***each agreed*** *to pay £20.*

We ***each have*** *a responsibility.*

We ***had each been*** *given a whole loaf of bread.*

A–Z 12 *All*; 28 *Both*

ESPECIALLY 35

Do not confuse *especially* and *specially*. *Especially* means 'particularly' or 'above all'. *Specially* is not normally used in this way:

The most damaging economic and political effects of the Depression were felt in Japan, and ***especially*** *in Germany.*
(~~… were felt in Japan and specially in Germany~~.)

The demands of putting all children through the National Curriculum make it more difficult for teachers to cope with disruptive behaviour. This is ***especially true*** *of primary schools.*

Specially is used to indicate the specific intention(s) behind an action:

[referring to the processing of applications for political asylum]
All asylum claims are considered by ***specially trained*** *caseworkers.*
(the caseworkers are trained intentionally for this job)

Cows are also ***specially bred*** *to create genetically good milk makers.*

I did that ***specially for you****.*

However, in informal spoken language, *specially* is sometimes used to mean 'particularly' or 'above all':

A: *If somebody is ill do you think, if the treatment isn't going to work, do you think that hospitals should stop treating patients?*
B: *I think* ***specially in the case of children*** *they shouldn't stop.*

EVEN 36

General meaning and use of *even* 36a

Even refers to extreme or unexpected things. When it refers to a whole event, it operates as a mid-position adverb (325):

*Some of the members thought I was being very disloyal. They **even accused** me of being in the pay of European dealers, which I had to get them to deny because it was certainly not true.*

*Sadly he can't drive, he can't walk, he **can't even answer** the door.*

[speaker talking about fears for his children]
*There **are even** drugs at school, so I really fear for them and hope that they don't get caught up with it.*

Even can come before the verb in a non-finite clause:

*The potatoes grow without **even looking** after them. We just plant them.*

Even can come before any particular clause element that the speaker/writer wants to focus on:

***Even a ship made with prime materials and the best British engineering** could hardly stand such a battering.*
(focus on subject noun phrase)

*Queen Street today drove me absolutely mad, you know. Because you could hardly walk around there. And it was never like that years ago, **even on a Saturday**.*
(focus on the adjunct)

*One of the targets is for people to take moderate exercise, typically walking and cycling, for around 30 minutes, five times a week. Yet studies suggest that fewer than one in 20 children achieves **even this**.*
(focus on the object noun phrase)

When used to focus on a particular clause element, the negative form of *even* is *not even*:

[speaking of someone born in 1915]
*When Ann was born, the idea of space travel, that men could go to the moon, was considered pure science fantasy. **Not even science fiction**.*

In informal speech *even* may occasionally occur in end position:

*He had loads of injections and then they gave him proper stitches and it was really bad, it was really traumatic for me and my brother **even**.*

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Even + comparatives 36b

Even frequently occurs with comparative adjectives and adverbs:

We finish at three but some people have to leave ***even earlier*** *than that.*

By saying ***even*** *earlier*, the speaker is implying that three o'clock is already very early. Compare:

We finish at three but some people have to leave ***earlier*** *than that.*

Here there is no necessary implication that three o'clock is 'early', and the speaker could have said 'some people have to leave before that'.

Other examples with comparatives:

You know you've gone a long way this year. You'll go ***even further*** *next year.*

The alternatives were scratched because they were ***even more*** *time-consuming.*

also **460-471 Comparison**

Even if, even though 36c

Even if can have either a hypothetical meaning (i.e. the speaker does not know if something will be the case or not) or a concessive meaning (the speaker concedes that something may well be the case). *Even though* tends to be used only in concessive contexts:

We'll go for lots of walks, ***even if the weather's horrible****.*
(hypothetical)

So I know something about the deal ***even if my information is rather out of date****.*
(concessive: I accept my information may be out of date)

I kind of have the impression that I really like London now, ***even though I didn't enjoy it at the time****.*
(concessive)

In informal speech, where the meaning of *even if* is obvious, *even* is sometimes omitted:

I'll finish that skirt tomorrow ***if it kills me****.*
(even if it kills me)

Even and *also* 36d

Even refers to extremes. *Also* simply adds another piece of information, but does not carry the meaning of surprising, unexpected or extreme events. Compare:

[said by a speaker at the closing ceremony of a big international conference]
I've enjoyed the conference very much. I ***also learned a lot*** *from the talks I attended.*

> *I've enjoyed the conference very much. I **even learned a lot** from the talks I attended.*
> (That surprised me. I thought I knew everything already!)

A–Z 14 *Also, as well (as), too*

Even so, even then 36e

Even so has the meaning of 'nevertheless', 'despite this', or 'however'. It occurs mostly in front position in the clause, but may also occur in end position, especially in informal speech:

A: *I mean originally it was going to start on the first of January, and then they realised they simply couldn't do it because Rita was going to be away anyway all of December.*
B: *Right.*
A: *But **even so**, I still think it was quite hurried.*

Even then can also mean 'despite something that was/is/will be already true'. It is most typically used in front position in the clause:

[woman talking about how she went into labour when pregnant]
*So I was admitted to hospital, but **even then** it was another two days before she was actually born.*

EVER 37

Ever is used in interrogative clauses and negative declarative clauses to mean 'at any point in a given period of time':

[talking about childhood]
***Did you ever play** football in the streets?*

***I haven't ever had** anything like that happen to me.*

Ever occurs in affirmative relative clauses in superlative contexts, and often with expressions such as *the first time*, *the only time*:

*Yet he still admired her **more than** any woman he had **ever** met.*

*It is the **funniest film** I have **ever** seen in my whole life.*

*It was **the first time** I've **ever** seen him get nasty.*

Not ever (and the contracted form *n't ever*) is generally equivalent to *never*. However, in declarative clauses it is far less frequent than the equivalent form with *never*:

*But, given that he is so bright and capable, was he **not ever** enticed to make money legally?*

*I have**n't ever** flown.*

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Ever can be used immediately after *if* or separated from it in the clause:

Here's my address. ***If ever*** *you're in Glasgow you must come and see us.*

I tell him outrageous things about Kevin which I shouldn't and Kevin would kill me ***if*** *he* ***ever*** *heard.*

Ever can premodify the intensifiers *so* and *such* for extra emphasis:

I'm ***ever so*** *thirsty.*

My grandma was ***ever so*** *sweet.*

He's ***ever such*** *a nice guy.*

Do you know, I heard ***ever such*** *a funny story.*

Ever may premodify *since* used as a time preposition or conjunction to emphasise that something has been true right from the beginning of a specified period of time:

We've been a bit nervous ***ever since we got burgled****.*

Ever since may also be used as an adverb:

I lost touch with him about ten years ago and I've been trying to get back in touch with him ***ever since****.*

Ever is used with comparative *as … as …* to indicate a persistent or permanent characteristic of someone or something:

A: *I saw Harold the other day.*
B: *Oh yeah. How is he these days?*
A: *He's* ***as crazy as ever****.*

Ever may be used as an adverb (most typically occurring before adjectives and noun phrases) meaning 'always', in more formal styles:

She was a small, handsome woman, modestly dressed and ***ever ready*** *with a smile or a word of encouragement if you were feeling down.*

'Oh dear, what's up with you guys now?' she asked, ***ever the nosy one****.*

Yours ever and *as ever* may be used in leave-takings in letters, emails, etc. *Yours ever* is rather formal; *as ever* is informal:

I will let you know as soon as I have more news.
Yours ever,
Charles (Bowen)

Anyway, I'll talk to you later.
As ever,
Jen

208 *Whatever, whoever, whichever*

EVERY 38

✪ *Every* refers to the total number of something. It is followed by a singular noun and, if it refers to the subject of the clause, by a singular verb:

> ***Every area*** *of the country* ***has*** *got a Community Health Council.*
> (~~Every areas … have got …~~)
>
> ***Every day*** *we went somewhere different, didn't we?*
> (~~Every days …~~)

The negative of *every* is normally *not every*:

> *Certain members of this family had a curiously shaped lower lip, which stuck right out; it even became known as the Habsburg lip. But* ***not every*** *member of the family had this.*
> (preferred to: … every member of the family did not have this.)
>
> A: *Do you buy lottery tickets* ***every*** *week?*
> B: ***Not every*** *week.*

Every cannot be used alone, without a noun or without *one*:

> *Unable to find it, she then checked the front door, and* ***every window*** *in the house: as yesterday,* ***all*** *locked.*
> (~~… as yesterday, every locked.~~)
>
> [someone describing how he made sure a paved area in his garden was level]
> *All I did was formed sections. We just put pegs in the ground and a piece of wood, to make sure* ***every one*** *was level.*
> (*every one* = every section)

Every one of is used before pronouns and determiners. *Every one* is written as two words (compare *everyone*; 38a):

> *I agree with* ***every one of them****.*
>
> *There were no newcomers.* ***Every one of the refugees*** *was known to her by sight.*

A–Z 34 *Each*

Pronouns and possessives that refer back to *every* are normally singular, especially in more formal styles, and especially when the referent is non-human:

> ***Every generation*** *and* ***every decade*** *throws up* ***its*** *own particular set of problems.*

In less formal styles, the pronoun or possessive may be plural:

> *In some companies* ***every group*** *has to move every two years to force* ***them*** *to get rid of material which* ***they****'re not using.*
> (instead of: … to force it to get rid of material which it's not using.)

If the subsequent reference applies simultaneously to all members in the group, plural pronouns and possessives are used:

> ***Every woman*** *walking down the main shopping street paused outside Henry's plate-glass windows. As the jackets caught* ***their*** *eyes,* ***they*** *assessed them, coveted them and quite a number of window shoppers made a decision to buy.*
> (~~As the jackets caught her eyes, she assessed them~~)

When *every* is used with a numeral expression and a plural noun, it refers to regular intervals of time or numbers:

> *There's one teacher to* ***every forty-five kids****.*

> *I go to my doctor regularly. I go and see him* ***every four weeks****.*

Compare the typical use of *every* with a singular noun:

> *I put my money in the bank* ***every Friday****.*
> (~~every Fridays~~)

Single is often used to emphasise *every*:

> ***Every single*** *word has been checked to make sure that it reflects modern usage.*

> *We have to log* ***every single*** *complaint and pass it on to our district office.*

Every one and *everyone* 38a

Every one, written as two words, is used to refer back to a noun already mentioned:

> *Then taking deep breaths she gathered up the fallen* ***CDs****, taking great care and attention with* ***every one****, checking it for dust or damage, reuniting it with its box and putting them all back on the shelf.*
> (*every one* = every CD)

Everyone, written as one word, means 'every person':

> *Say hello to* ***everyone****.*

Everyday and *every day* 38b

Everyday, written as one word, is an adjective meaning 'routine', 'normal', 'ordinary':

> *We don't discuss* ***everyday boring things****, you know, we try and discuss the things that are maybe out of the norm a little bit.*

Written as two words, *every day* is an adverb phrase of frequency:

> *And we went* ***every day*** *into the zoo.*

Every other 38c

Every other means 'every second one', 'alternate':

> ***Every other Thursday*** *we get together and have a briefing session for half an hour.*

Everybody/everyone, everything, everywhere 38d

Everybody/everyone, *everything* and *everywhere* are written as one word. They are used with singular verbs:

> ***Everybody gets*** *up and* ***dances*** *and* ***has*** *a good laugh.*
>
> *In the summer* ***everything gets*** *relocated.*
>
> *It was after midnight and* ***everywhere was*** *closed.*

Everybody and *everyone* may be the subject of imperative clauses, in which case the base form of the verb is used:

> *Come on!* ***Everybody sing*** *together!*

Everybody and *everyone* are very close in meaning. However, *everybody* is very much more frequent in spoken language than in written language, and *everyone* is more frequent in written language than in spoken language.

EXCEPT 39

Except as a preposition is used to exclude people or things from a generalisation:

> *Nothing now remains* ***except the factory*** *itself.*
>
> *There was no noise,* ***except the sound of cutlery*** *on plates.*
>
> *Everyone seems to be in on it* ***except me****.*
> (*be in on it* = know what's happening)
>
> *I've never seen any policeman on foot* ***except on football match nights*** *and that's when they're leaving the police station and heading towards the football ground.*

Except may be followed by an infinitive without *to* when a general statement or general category is modified to include an exception of some kind:

> *What could you do,* ***except try*** *and put them all behind you?*
> (infinitive without *to*)

An infinitive with *to* is used in other situations, when the meaning is 'except in order to':

> *I never got in touch with that doctor again,* ***except to pay*** *his bill.*
> (~~*I never got in touch with that doctor again, except pay his bill.*~~)

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An infinitive with *to* is normally used when reporting that someone withholds information or action:

He wouldn't tell me what he was up to, ***except to say*** *that it was a secret.*

The other things I could not talk about, ***except to joke*** *a little about him being near with the money.*

An *-ing* form may follow *except* if the clause refers back to a verb normally followed by an *-ing* form:

[*Malahide* is a beach area]
We went into the railroad station then and went to Malahide and had a lovely day out, which I don't remember very much ***except*** *collect****ing*** *a whole lot of shells.*
(I *remember* collect*ing* shells.)

Except for 39a

Except is often followed by *for* + noun phrase:

We went up and down the main street and we couldn't find a proper restaurant ***except for one Italian place****.*

He and his mother were living quite happily over on the other side of the island. There was no involvement from me ***except for an annual phone call*** *to check they were okay.*

When *except* is used without *for*, it normally occurs after generalising words such as *all*, *everything*, *everyone*, *no*, *anybody*, *whole*, etc. (the examples in **39** above). If there are no such generalising words, *except for* must be used:

The church was silent and dark, ***except for*** *the rustle of leaves against the door.*
(~~The church was silent and dark, except the rustle of leaves against the door.~~)

The river was deserted, ***except for*** *a couple of small boats.*
(~~The river was deserted, except a couple of small boats.~~)

When there is a generalising word, there is usually a choice of *except* or *except for*:

I met ***all*** *the England football team* ***except*** *(****for****) David Beckham.*
(generalising word: *all*)

Conjunction *except* 39b

Except (*that*) is often used to introduce clauses, with the meaning of 'but' or 'however'. This is particularly so in informal spoken language:

It was quite a happy time, ***except that I was very lonely****.*

He looks, more or less, just like a normal lad. ***Except he isn't****.*

[*a Tamagochi* is a kind of electronic 'pet']
A: *We'd prefer you to have a hamster than a Tamagochi. And it's not going to cost that much more for a hamster.*
B: ***Except you need to buy food****.*

Except and *apart from* 39c

Apart from does not always mean the same as *except*.

Apart from often means 'in addition to' or 'besides'. In such cases, it cannot substitute for *except*:

There are other people I have to think of ***apart from you****.*
(~~There are other people I have to think of except (for) you.~~)

Anybody else want ice cream ***apart from the kids****?*
(in addition to/besides the kids)

On other occasions, the two expressions are interchangeable:

We've got no other holidays planned ***apart from Copenhagen****.*
(or: … except for Copenhagen)

EXPECT 40

If someone *expects* something to happen, it means there is a strong probability or belief that it will happen or be true:

A: *I* ***expect you know Paris****.*
B: *Mm, a bit, yes.*
(You probably know Paris. It would surprise me if you did not.)

A: *Oh, I hope we do all right.*
B: *I* ***expect you will****. You've established quite a formidable reputation now.*
A: *Do you think so?*
(You probably will do all right; I predict you will do all right.)

Expect, *hope* and *wait*

Hope refers to what someone desires/wants/wishes:

[A is making an informal speech at B's birthday party]
A: *I'm very pleased to be here and I wish you many happy returns of the day and I* ***hope you have a happy birthday*** *and a happy time.*
B: *Thank you very much.*
(I want you to have a happy birthday)
(~~I expect you have a happy birthday~~)

[announcement as a plane is coming in to land]
Captain Martinez and his crew ***hope you have had a pleasant flight****.*
(~~Captain Martinez and his crew expect you have had a pleasant flight.~~)

Wait for refers to time. If one *waits for* something, one passes time until it arrives:

Come on! Hurry up! I'm ***waiting for you****!*
(~~Come on! Hurry up! I'm expecting you!~~)

I gave him the essay a week ago, and now I'm ***waiting for feedback****.*
(I have to just pass the time until he gives me his comments on the essay.)

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Constructions following *expect* 40a

- Same subject for *expect* and verb following: *expect* + *to*-infinitive:

  [referring to returning a pair of trousers to the shop where they were bought]
  They said, 'When did you buy them?' I said, 'Well it was in the summer, so ***I*** *don't* ***expect to have*** *my money back, but, you know, I would like to change them please, cos they're falling apart.'*

  The new appointment *is* ***expected to commence*** *in early 1996.*

- Different subject for *expect* and verb following: *expect* + object + *to*-infinitive:

  I *didn't* ***expect them to contact*** *me.*

  His life was very pure, and ***he expected other people to be*** *as pure as he was.*

- Same or different subject for clause following: *expect* + (*that*-)clause:

  I expect it's *from Russia. It's like one of those Russian dolls.*

  I expect I'll *get to meet all of them soon.*

  When a (*that*-)clause is used, *I expect* often occurs in end position in informal spoken language:

  It would be less trouble for them, ***I expect****.*

  ✪ *Expect* + (*that*-)clause normally refers to predictions. If *expect* refers to assumptions about how things are or should be, then the infinitive construction is used:

  I do ***expect to be respected*** *by my younger colleagues.*
  (~~I do expect (that) I'm respected by my younger colleagues.~~)

  Children ***expect to get expensive presents*** *for their birthdays.*
  (~~Children expect (that) they get expensive presents for their birthdays.~~)

- With an object:

  If I'd written to him, I would have ***expected a reply*** *back in writing.*

  His wife's ***expecting a baby****.*
  (= is pregnant)

  This latter use (referring to pregnancy) can be intransitive in informal contexts:

  She's ***expecting****.*

- With adverbs:

  Back, *here* and *in* often occur after *expect* + direct object:

  I didn't ***expect*** *you* ***back*** *quite so soon.*

  [shopkeeper to customer]
  I think we've sold out actually. Someone asked us for this the other day. I know we're ***expecting*** *some* ***in****.*
  (we are expecting to get some in stock soon)

Expect so, expect to 40b

Expect so may be used in short answers instead of repeating a *that*-clause:

A: *Will we have to wait until he changes his swimming routine?*
B: *I* ***expect so****.*

130 Substitution

Expect to, like *hope to*, *like to* and *want to*, is used in short answers instead of repeating an infinitive construction:

A: *Well we've managed to get through it.*
B: *Yes. Good.*
A: *Really, cos we didn't* ***expect to****.*
(~~Really, cos we didn't expect.~~)

A–Z **49 *Like*; 75 *Want***

Expect and progressive form 40c

Progressive forms of *expect* normally occur with a direct object or with the *to*-infinitive construction, not with a *that*-clause:

He seems to be ***expecting some kind of response****.*
(+ direct object)

I let myself in with my key, not ***expecting to find*** *anyone working late on a Tuesday evening.*
(+ *to*-infinitive)

However, a *that*-clause may follow the progressive form occasionally in informal speech:

There was never once that she said, 'Oh, go on without me,' you know. Cos I was fully ***expecting that*** *we would some days leave her behind at the hotel, while we went off on a trip.*

Expect of, expect from 40d

Expect of refers to what someone thinks others ought to do, or how things ought to be:

A: *I thought you meant that was your personal discipline, to work until eight at night.*
B: *Oh yeah. Well it is and it isn't. You need to do it just to keep up with* ***the amount of work that's expected of you****.*
(the amount of work your employer/your teachers think you ought to do)

I don't think you should ***expect too much of it*** *too soon.*

Expect from refers to what someone predicts or thinks is likely about a person or situation:

It was run with the efficiency you'd ***expect from Hilary****.*
(because we know Hilary, one could predict that)

He looked very much as I'd ***expected from his voice*** *over the phone: a little man in his late fifties.*
(... as I had predicted from his voice)

EXPLAIN 41

The complementation pattern for *explain* is object + prepositional phrase, not an indirect and direct object:

	object	prep phrase
Do you think you could ***explain*** |	***this paragraph*** |	***to me****?*

(~~Do you think you could explain me this paragraph?~~)

Explain can simply be used with an object noun phrase or a clausal object:

He ***explained the situation****.*

I can't think of any other way to ***explain it****.*

They wrote me a long letter ***explaining why it took eighteen months****.*

In informal speech, *explain* is sometimes followed by *about* + noun phrase when it refers to a general topic or event:

[referring to making a complaint at a hospital]
So when you complained, did you ***explain about the injection****?*

FAIRLY

A–Z 66 *Quite*

FALL 42

Do not confuse the past tense forms of *fall* and *feel*.

present	past	*-ed* participle
fall	***fell***	*fallen*
feel	***felt***	*felt*

Their dad had a crash and their car ***fell*** *into the sea.*
(~~Their dad had a crash and their car felt into the sea.~~)

He ***fell*** *in love with one of his classmates.*
(~~He felt in love ...~~)

I completely forgot to phone her back. I ***felt*** *really awful about that.*

✪ *Fall* and *fall down* are used differently. *Fall* simply implies downward movement. *Fall down* implies falling or collapsing suddenly from one's normal position, often including damage or injury:

*House prices **fell** by five per cent last month.*
(~~House prices fell down by five per cent last month.~~)

*Now it was winter and the leaves had **fallen** from the trees.*
(~~Now it was winter and the leaves had fallen down from the trees.~~)

[speaker is worrying about not having health insurance]
*What if you **fall down** and break a bone? Then you're off work sick and all that and your treatment's at the hospital.*

FELL

A–Z **42 *Fall***

FETCH

A–Z **29 *Bring, take, fetch***

FEW, FEWER

A–Z **50 *Little, a little, few, a few***

FOR 43

For is commonly used to express the recipient of an action or a thing:

*Look what Kathy made **for Heather**.*

*I've bought something **for you**.*

For is used with expressions indicating a period of time:

*We went to Ireland **for a week**.*

*Let it dry **for a few moments**.*

For is used to refer to specific periods of time such as public holidays and seasons:

*I usually go there **for the New Year**.*

*We'll be in Scotland **for the whole summer**.*

✪ Do not confuse *for* and *in* when referring to time:

*I'm going on holiday **for a month**.*
('I'm going on holiday *in* a month' would mean 'I leave one month from now')

A–Z **33 *During*; 70 *Since***

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For + *-ing* form may refer to the purpose or function of something or how something is used:

> [referring to a conversation with a shop assistant]
> *He said 'What sort of knife do you want?' I said 'Oh just something* ***for camping****.'*

For + *-ing* form may refer to the reason for an event:

> *He got called an idiot* ***for being honest****.*

✪ *For* is not normally used to express one's intention:

> *My wife and I go there to see my mum.*
> (~~My wife and I go there for seeing my mum/for to see my mum.~~)

In very formal styles, *for* followed by a finite clause can be used to indicate the reason for something, and is a synonym of *because*:

> *It was a pity that I could not understand her,* ***for I am sure she would have been most interesting****.*

GET

A–Z 30 *Come, go*

GO

A–Z 30 *Come, go*

HARDLY 44

Hardly is a negative adverb; it normally means 'almost not at all'. It is not the adverb form of the adjective *hard*:

> *I could* ***hardly*** *get out of the car.*
> (I almost could not get out at all)

> *The poor woman can* ***hardly*** *walk.*
> (she can almost not walk at all)

✪ The adverb form of *hard* is *hard*:

> *I've been* ***working hard*** *and I've been travelling all the time.*
> (~~I've been working hardly and I've …~~)

Because *hardly* has a negative meaning, it is used with *any*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything* and *ever* in negative clauses, not with *no*, *none*, *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing* or *never*:

*There had been **hardly any** contact between them for years.*
(~~There had been hardly no contact between them …~~)

***Hardly anybody** turned up today, actually.*
(~~Hardly nobody turned up today, actually.~~)

*I **hardly ever** see her. We're not very close.*
(~~I hardly never see her.~~)

At all may be used with *hardly* for greater emphasis:

*I **hardly** smoke **at all**.*

Another use of *hardly* is to reject or to distance oneself from an idea:

*He could **hardly** say no to such a request.*
(it was virtually impossible to say no)

*Well, you're **hardly** good friends with Jenny, are you?*
(it would be wrong/absurd to say that you were good friends)

In more formal styles, *hardly … when* is used in front position with subject-verb inversion to refer to something happening immediately after something else:

***Hardly had the tour come to an end when** we were off to Japan, which was a very different experience to my first visit.*

HERE, THERE 45

Here typically refers to the speaker's location and sees the position of people and things from the speaker's point of view. It may be used with static and dynamic verbs:

*We've **lived here** over 16 years now.*

***Come here**, Max.*

There typically refers to the listener's location or a third-party location and sees the position of people and things from the listener's or a third-party point of view. It may also be used with static and dynamic verbs:

[on the phone]
*Oh, you're in Rome! What are you **doing there**?*
(listener, not speaker, is in Rome)

*If we leave here at six, we should **get there** by eight or eight-thirty.*
(at a place where neither listener nor speaker is at present)

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Here and *there* correspond in their speaker-listener relationship to *this/these* and *that/those* respectively, and frequently accompany the related demonstrative:

[teacher addressing a computer class]
I think the idea today is that everyone will have a go at ***this*** *machine* ***here****. It's quite simple to use.*

Is ***that*** *coffee* ***there*** *mine?*

Here and *there* also correspond in their speaker-listener relationship to *come/bring* and *go/take* respectively, and frequently accompany the related verb:

They ***came here*** *about 15 years ago.*

She has a cottage on the coast and ***goes there*** *to paint.*

Bring *that tray* ***here****, would you.*

[talking about a restaurant]
She ***took*** *Lars* ***there*** *for a meal when he came to stay.*

A–Z **29 *Bring, take, fetch*; 30 *Come, go***

Here, there in front position 45a

Both *here* and *there* are used in constructions which involve subject-verb inversion. These include everyday routine patterns such as *here is x*, *here comes x*, and *there is x*, *there goes x*, and subject-verb inversion in more formal styles where *here* and *there* are used emphatically in front position.

- Everyday usage:

  Hurry up! ***Here comes the bus****.*

  Here's my taxi*. I'll have to go now.*

  [speakers approaching a train platform, just as their train is leaving]
  There goes our train*! We've missed it.*

  [handing someone a cup of coffee]
  Here's your coffee*.*

  [pointing to a book on the table]
  There's that book I was telling you about *if you want to have a look at it.*

- More formal styles:

  She was attracted by this place, and ***here was her opportunity of remaining****.*

  The door opened slowly and ***there stood Miss Louise****.*

Subject-verb inversion of the types exemplified above do not occur when the subject is a pronoun:

A: *Where's the tin-opener?*
B: *Oh I saw it earlier …* ***here it is****.*
A: *Thanks.*
(~~Oh I saw it earlier … here is it.~~)

There goes our train*! We've missed it.*
There it goes*! We've missed it.*
(~~There goes it! We've missed it.~~)

Here's, said when handing or giving something to someone, is often used instead of *here are* with plural noun phrase subjects in informal contexts. Similarly, *there's*, when indicating or pointing to something, is also used with plural noun phrase subjects in informal contexts:

[parents trying to persuade young children to write some placards welcoming their pop music idols to their home town]
Come on, write out the sign that says 'We love you' on it. Come on, go on, ***here's your pens*** *and here's your paper, go and write it out because we've got to go now.*

There you are. ***There's your pills****.*

Initial *here* and *there* with a subject + *be* and without subject-verb inversion often occur as emphatic markers, especially in spoken narratives:

[an elderly person who has just developed a skin rash has been told she may be allergic to something]
Well I've never been allergic to a thing in my life. And ***here I am****, seventy-odd, just starting.*

[health worker talking about eating garlic]
I stink of garlic again. It's very embarrassing. This poor patient was really ill and ***there I was****, breathing garlic over her.*

Here and *there* both have more abstract uses. They can refer to parts of the surrounding text. *Here* tends to be used cataphorically (referring forward in the text), while *there* tends to be used anaphorically (referring back in the text):

[writing about the British Government's annual budget; *Kenneth Clarke* was at the time the Minister responsible for the budget]
The Budget was remarkable for missed opportunities rather than new measures. In my opinion, ***here*** *is what Kenneth Clarke should have done. Childcare: At the moment, employers are the only ones to receive tax incentives for this. … Far better would be a system of vouchers for parents who could themselves choose the childcare they prefer and the location.*

[*Tony Adams* and *Stuart Pearce* are footballers]
Tony Adams impressed me, along with Stuart Pearce. And ***there*** *lies the big problem. Both put in good performances, but they are not the long-term future of English international football.*

There is often used to signal the end-point of a conversation in more formal contexts such as meetings and interviews:

[BBC radio interviewer, concluding an interview with Jack Straw, a British Government Minister]
And ***there*** *we must leave it. Mr Straw, Many thanks.*

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Here, there after prepositions 45b

Here and *there* both frequently follow prepositions:

[assistant to customer in a café where customers can choose to eat food in the café or take it away]
*Is it **for here** or to take away?*

*There's been a lot of crime **round here**.*
(in this neighbourhood)

*Ugh, it's quite hot **in here**, isn't it?*

A: *Where's the dog's squeaky toy?*
B: *There it is, **under there**.*

[speaker B has just asked where a particular restaurant is]
A: *You know that area where the theatre and the Casino is?*
B: *Yeah. Yeah.*
A: *It's **near there**.*

Here/there you are 45c

Here you are and *there you are* are both used when handing or giving something to someone, often something which has been requested or sought:

A: *Where's the dictionary?*
B: ***Here you are**.*
A: *Ah, thanks.*

[A hands B some money]
A: ***There you are** Jessica.*
B: *Oh, what's that for?*
A: *To help you when you have your holidays.*
B: *Oh thanks, Edward.*

In informal contexts, *here you go/there you go* are used instead of *here you are/there you are* when handing or giving things to people:

A: *Can you pass me the butter?*
B: ***There you go**.*
A: *Thanks.*

People often announce their own or others' arrival with *here* + subject pronoun + *be*:

A: *Hi! **Here we are**! Sorry we're late.*
B: *Hi there!*

There + subject pronoun + *be* is often used to announce the moment of finding or meeting someone or something the speaker has been looking for:

*Ah, **there you are**, Nick! I've been looking for you all morning.*

On the telephone 45d

Here is often used by speakers to identify themselves on the telephone or in voicemail messages:

[voicemail message]
Hello, ***Terry Fitzmaurice here****, calling to speak to Jack at 10.35am Tuesday.*

Hello there 45e

There is often used in informal situations after *hello* and *hi*:

A: ***Hello there****. How's things?*
B: *Hi. Fine. And you?*

HOPE

A–Z 40 *Expect*

IN

A–Z 21 *At*

IN FACT 46

In fact is normally used to say that expectations were not fulfilled and that assumptions may need to be modified or corrected. It is typically used in front position, and occasionally, in more formal contexts, in mid position. In spoken language it may be placed in end position:

A: *Did she pass the exam?*
B: *She did.* ***In fact, she got*** *a distinction.*

Since 1989 the emission of pollutants ***has in fact fallen****, but only because the economy has collapsed.*

That wasn't a very nice thing to say to me, was it? ***Quite horrible, in fact****.*

In fact is also used to supply additional information:

We met Jane for lunch. ***In fact****, we spent the whole afternoon with her.*

Related phrases used in similar ways include *in actual fact*, *as a matter of fact*, *in point of fact*:

They lived somewhere near here, ***in actual fact****.*
(more emphatic version of *in fact*)

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__As a matter of fact__, more people are going to New Zealand now than ever.

A–Z 9 *Actual, actually*

IN FRONT (OF)

A–Z 62 *Opposite, in front (of)*

JUST 47

Just has a number of meanings.

Just for emphasis

Just has a meaning of 'simply' or 'absolutely'. It is used to create emphasis, and is especially common with reference to negative situations:

It's __just not right__.

Because otherwise Saturday will be __just a nightmare__.

It's __just terrible__, isn't it, the way they ignored all the protests.

The weather was __just perfect__.

__Just one of those things__, isn't it?

__Just be quiet__, will you!

Just meaning 'exactly'

Another meaning of *just* is 'exactly':

That's __just what I wanted__.

It's __just right__ for you.

A: *Where does it hurt?*
B: [pointing to one side of her wrist] *__Just here__.*

Just meaning 'only'

Another meaning is 'only':

The eighteenth century reveals a complex overlapping not __just of economic and aesthetic__ but also of political __issues__.

[doctors talking about doing late-night calls to patients]
... and I can't see that __just one doctor__ is sufficient really.

Just meaning 'recently'

Just can also mean 'a very short time ago, recently':

I've __just finished__ painting the bathroom.

They had __just appointed__ her to the post of supervisor.

[to a little child]
You want more? You __just said__ you weren't hungry!

Just with expressions of time and place

Just frequently occurs before expressions of time and place. It often functions to minimise the time and distance involved:

*Can you wait **just a minute**?*

*It's **just at the end** of the Clifton road.*

*I always called at my mother's **just down the road**.*

Just as a softener

A common function of *just* in spoken English is to downtone or soften utterances:

*Could I **just ask** you something?*

*My dad's ambitions really are … are for us all to be religious and **just sort of to be happy** and erm have enough money and things.*

*I was **just wondering** when you thought we should meet tomorrow?*

*Do you think you … can you **just pop this in the post** on your way home?*

LESS

A–Z 50 *Little, a little, few, a few*

LET 48

Let is followed by an infinitive without *to*:

*I'll **let** you **have** a look at it.*
(~~I'll let you to have a look at it.~~)

*He **let** them **put** some boxes in the basement.*

Let is not normally used in the passive when it means 'allow/permit':

*The families were not **allowed** to see the children.*
(~~The families were not let see the children.~~)

Imperative *let* 48a

Let's is used to form the first person plural imperative, often used for making suggestions:

***Let's** talk about cricket.*

***Don't let's** quarrel about it; it's not worth it.*

Let's is also used frequently in informal speech with a singular meaning referring to the speaker. In this situation, *let's* is more informal and less direct than *let me*:

> ***Let's*** *have a look on the computer for you.*
> (more formal: Let me have a look on the computer for you.)

The full form *let us* occurs in formal contexts:

> ***Let us*** *pray.*
> (used in Christian religious ceremonies to announce the beginning of prayer)
>
> ***Let us*** *fight together to overthrow the last remnants of the cruellest regime in English history.*

Let is also used for third person imperatives:

> A: *Sylvia is outside. She wants to see you.*
> B: *Oh,* ***let her*** *wait.*

Imperatives with *let* may form their negatives in two ways: *let's/let us + not* and *don't let's*. The first is more common:

> ***Let's not*** *be silly about it.*
>
> ***Let us not*** *be blind to the true facts.*
> (more formal)
>
> ***Don't let's*** *fall out.*

Third person imperatives with *let* form their negative with *don't*:

> ***Don't let*** *anyone fool themselves that's the end of it.*

Let meaning 'rent' 48b

Let used alone with a direct object means 'to rent something to someone':

> *They* ***let their house*** *for a thousand pounds a month while they were abroad.*

Let alone 48c

The expression *let alone* is used after a negative statement or with reference to a problematic context, to refer to how unlikely something is by comparing it with something even less likely:

> *I have no idea what I'll be doing in five months,* ***let alone five years****.*
> (to predict five years ahead is impossible because even to predict five months ahead is impossible)

LIKE 49

Like means 'similar to'. It often occurs with verbs of sensation such as *look*, *sound*, *feel*, *taste*, *seem*:

*People **like him** should be put away in prison.*

*She's **like her father**.*

*That **looks like a winner**.*

*It **tastes like pineapple**.*

Like has functions similar to those of an adjective. It is gradable and has attributive uses:

*He's **so like** his father.*

*She is **more like** her sister than her daughter.*

*We are completely **of a like mind** on this issue.*

Like is also used as a conjunction. It is an informal alternative to *as*. In some traditional grammar books and style manuals, using *like* as a conjunction is considered incorrect:

*He involved the staff in everything, **like** a good manager should do.*

Like is used as a noun-suffix meaning 'similar to':

*She looked ill and was wearing a **ghost-like** cream cloak.*

Like in spoken English 49a

One of the most frequent uses of *like* in spoken English is to focus attention, usually by giving or requesting an example:

A: *I fancy going somewhere really hot for holiday this year.*
B: *What, **like** the Equator or the Mediterranean or **like** …?*

When examples are asked for, a common structure in English conversation is *like what?*:

A: *What did you get up to today?*
B: *Not a lot. There were a few computer things going on.*
A: *Hmm, **like what**?*

Like can be placed in end position in order to qualify a preceding statement. It also indicates that the words chosen may not be appropriate:

*Then she got out of the car all of a sudden **like**, and this bike hit her right in the back.*

*It was a shattering, frightening experience **like**.*

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Like is very commonly used (particularly among younger speakers) as a marker of reported speech, especially where the report involves a dramatic representation of someone's response or reaction:

*So this bloke came up to me and **I'm like** 'Go away, I don't want to dance'.*

*And **my mum's like** non-stop three or four times 'Come and tell your grandma about your holiday'.*

In some cases *like* acts as a 'filler', enabling the speaker to pause to think what to say next or to rephrase something. Pauses (...) can occur either side of the word:

*They think that … **like** … by now we should be married and if we were married then it's okay **like** … to get on with your life and do what you want.*

Like is also used in the structure *it* + *be* + *like*, a phrase which introduces an example or analogy of some kind:

***It's like** if you go to another country you always get muddled up with the currency in the first few days.*

***It's like** when I go to the doctor's there's always loads of people in the surgery breathing germs all over you.*

✪ *Be like* and *look like* are not the same. *Be like* refers to someone's character or personality, *look like* refers to their appearance:

A: *What**'s** your new teacher **like**?*
B: *Oh, he's nice. Very patient with us.*

A: *Would you recognise her again? What does she **look like**?*
B: *Mm. Short dark hair, quite tall.*

A–Z 19 *As*

LITTLE, A LITTLE, FEW, A FEW 50

Determiner *(a) little, (a) few* 50a

A little is used with singular non-count nouns. *A few* is used with plural count nouns. They have a meaning similar to 'a small quantity/number of':

*Can you give me **a little help** with the garden?*

*All tomatoes benefit from **a little fertiliser**.*

*There are still **a few names** left on the list.*

*I've met him **a few times** at our music sessions.*

Little (without *a*) is used with singular non-count nouns. *Few* (without *a*) is used with plural count nouns. They both have negative meanings. They suggest 'not as much as may be expected or wished for':

*There was **little chance** of them winning.*

*She has **little** real **enthusiasm** for yoga; she only goes because her friends go.*

***Few supporters** turned up at the meeting.*

Compare:

*He made **a few films** during his career in London.*
(several)

*He made **few films** during his career.*
(not many)

Of is employed after *a little* and *a few* when they come before definite noun phrases:

*Thanks, I'll have **a little of the** soufflé, please.*

*I wish more people had **a little of your** enthusiasm.*

*Only **a few of the** members turned up.*

*I'll have **a few of those** strawberries, please.*

Pronoun *(a) little, (a) few* 50b

(A) little and *(a) few* can be used as pronouns. *Little* and *few* (without *a*) only occur in more formal contexts:

A: *D'you want some more soup?*
B: *Give me just **a little**.*

A: *Did everyone turn up?*
B: *Well, **a few** came, but a lot of them didn't.*

***Little** has been written on this topic.*

***Few** would disagree with his election to the chair of the association.*

*She said **little** but it had an impact on everyone there.*

Fewer and *less* 50c

Although, traditionally, *fewer* is the comparative form used with plural count nouns and *less* is used only with singular non-count nouns, increasingly, in informal spoken situations, *less* is used with plural count nouns:

*So would you say you had **less ambitions** then, ten years ago?*
(traditionally correct usage: fewer ambitions)

[complaining about poor conditions in schools in Britain]
*They need good teachers, they need warm classrooms and they need **less children** in the class.*
(traditionally correct usage: fewer children)

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Adverb *(a) little* 50d

A little functions as an adverb of degree, and is a more formal alternative to *a bit*:

[physiotherapist talking to a patient]
*Try stretching your left leg **a little**.*

[garage mechanic talking to a customer]
*We've re-tuned the engine **a little**, so it should be starting okay now.*

A little is not used as an adverb in negative clauses. *A bit* is used instead. The meaning is '(not) at all':

*You have**n't** changed **a bit**! You still look twenty.*
(~~You haven't changed a little! You still look twenty.~~)

A little premodifies adjectives, determiners and adverbs, including comparative forms, and is a more formal alternative to *(a) bit*:

*She's just **a little agitated** about it so please try to persuade her to talk.*

*They are both **a little confused** and disoriented.*

*Was the plot **a little thin**?*

*'I'm leaving now!', she said **a little angrily**.*

[talking about a washing-machine]
*This model is **a little less** efficient and economical.*

A: *How do you feel today?*
B: *Er, **a little better** thanks.* (more formal)

A: *How do you feel today?*
B: *Er, **a bit better** thanks.* (less formal)

*I'm still hungry so I'll have **a little more** spaghetti, please.*

If *little* is used as an adverb in front position, subject-verb inversion occurs:

***Little did we think** six months ago we'd be going to another funeral in the same family now.*

Not a little as a premodifier can be used as a more formal alternative to 'rather' or 'very':

*The management team were **not a little** frustrated by the lack of progress in the negotiations.*

470 Comparison and other word classes for further discussion of comparative and superlative forms *less*, *least*

A–Z **27 *Bit, a bit (of)***

MAKE 51

A number of constructions follow *make*.

- Object:

  *Look, I **made a mistake**. I'm sorry.*

- Object and adjective complement:

  *Travelling **makes me hungry**.*

- Object and noun complement:

  *When we decided that we'd book the holiday, we came home and about two or three days later we decided that it was time that we got married. We **made it a honeymoon**.*

- Indirect and direct object:

  *She **made me a cup of coffee** in the kitchen.*

- Object + prepositional phrase with *for*:

  *You've got to see your own doctor and he'll **make an appointment for you**.*

- Object + adjective/noun complement + prepositional phrase with *for*:

  *Don't **make it difficult for us**.*
  (adjective complement)

  *So what would **make it a good quality experience for you**?*
  (noun complement)

Make + infinitive without *to* 51a

When *make* means 'force to do' or 'cause to feel' something, it is not followed by *to* in the active voice:

*He **makes** me laugh.*
(~~He makes me to laugh.~~)

*What **made** you choose this job?*
(~~What made you to choose this job?~~)

However, in the passive voice, the *to*-infinitive is used:

*Why should I **be made to feel** guilty for things I didn't do?*

*I **was made to sign** the statement.*

Make and *do* 51b

Make, rather than *do*, emphasises the end product of an action more than the activity itself:

*Shall I just **make a pot of tea** then?*

*I went and worked in a factory **making plastic bags**.*

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Make, not *do*, collocates strongly with noun objects referring to speech acts connected with communication. These include:

apology	*excuse*	*point*
comment	*generalisation*	*remark*
complaint	*list*	*request*
decision	*note*	*speech*
enquiry	*phone call*	*statement*

*I **make this comment** because there may be some students who have experienced the same experience as I have.*
(~~I do this comment …~~)

*I rang the switchboard and asked if they could put me through to the person I could **make a complaint** to.*
(~~… the person I could do a complaint to.~~)

Other common noun collocations with *make* rather than *do* include *attempt*, *effort*, *fuss*, *improvement*, *mistake*, *noise*, *profit*.

Many nouns can collocate with both *do* and *make*. *Do* tends to emphasise the activity involved, while *make* emphasises the result or end product:

*I hadn't **done a tour** for three years, so I was a bit apprehensive, but decided to go.*
(the writer is probably apprehensive about the work and activity involved)

*We **made a tour** of the old printing house. It was quite an experience.*
(emphasis on the experience that resulted from the tour)

A–Z 31 *Do*

Made from, made of, made out of, made with 51c

Made from is often used to describe manufacturing processes:

*Paper is **made from fibres** which have some tensile strength.*

*A traditional-style chef's hat, **made from 100% cotton**, completes the look.*

Made of emphasises the inherent material or qualities of something, and has a meaning similar to 'composed of':

*A large ship floats although it is **made of heavy metal**.*

*Different metals are **made of different kinds of atoms**.*

Made out of usually refers to something that has been transformed from one thing into another:

[speakers are talking about a kind of bag that is made using the stalks of rice plants]
A: *It's rice.*
B: ***Made out of rice**?*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *How can it be?*
A: *Well it's **out of the rushes**, isn't it? It's **made out of the green, the reed**. The plants, isn't it? Twisted.*

According to the Aztecs, the world is ***made out of a goddess who was torn apart by some gods****.*
(she was a goddess, but she was re-made)

Made with is most often used to describe the ingredients of food and drink:

I went away and sat in a nearby café where they served me slices of tortilla ***made with aubergines and garlic****.*

Did you ***make*** *this* ***with fresh mushrooms or dried ones****?*

MEAN 52

Talking about language 52a

Mean is used to talk about understanding language:

What does 'claim' ***mean****?*

A very common error is forgetting that *mean* is used with *do/does* in the interrogative:

What ***does*** *'claim'* ***mean****?*
(~~What means 'claim'?~~)

If we want to refer to someone's intended meaning in saying or writing something, we use *mean by*:

A: *So how well do you think you knew them?*
B: *What do you* ***mean by*** *'knew'?*

Mean when referring to intended meaning is normally only used in simple tense forms, but in informal spoken language it is used occasionally in progressive aspect:

*I'****m*** *not* ***meaning*** *to sound derogatory here.*

The bathroom window may be missing but that's not what I ***was meaning****.*

Discourse marker *I mean* 52b

I mean is a very frequent discourse marker in spoken language, used when a speaker elaborates, expands on or clarifies what they are saying:

See what I'm getting at here? ***I mean****, can you see the principle?*

Portsmouth's bigger than Worcester, ***I mean*** *Portsmouth's a big place.*

Speakers also use it for self-correction:

I know he's Portuguese, ***I mean*** *Brazilian, but he's probably read quite widely in Latin American literature.*

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When *I mean* occurs at the end of a sequence, it usually indicates that the immediately preceding statement is a clarification:

She's very young to be a chef, to be training as a chef, ***I mean****.*

Does she smoke? Heavily, ***I mean****?*

I mean can function as a hesitation marker and is often followed by a pause. In such instances *I mean* is often used to soften statements or to correct understandings:

A: *What did you make of the match?*
B: *Well,* ***I mean****, it was a bit too competitive.*

She's a bit upset at the moment. ***I mean****, erm, … she's had a bad time recently so I don't really want to bother her.*

I mean commonly occurs with the phrase *you know* in the very frequent spoken expression (*you*) *know what I mean*, which functions primarily to check comprehension and to indicate that the speaker and hearer share a point of view:

She's very nervous, ***you know what I mean****, she just can't concentrate properly.*

✪ *I mean* is not used to preface a statement of one's opinion:

I think *Britain should join the single currency as soon as possible.*
(~~*I mean Britain should join the single currency as soon as possible.*~~)

Expressing intentions 52c

When followed by a *to*-infinitive, *mean* is used to express intentions or to refer to intended outcomes:

A: *Where were you? I've been worried sick?*
B: *Sorry Anne, I didn't* ***mean to worry you****. I just lost track of time.*

[about the Russian Space Station, *Mir*]
Mir was only ***meant to last*** *for five years.*

The past progressive and perfect progressive forms are often used for indirectness or politeness when expressing intention, especially with *ask*:

I ***was meaning to ask*** *you, did you learn anything useful from that gunman you caught at the docks this morning?*

*I'****ve been meaning to ask*** *you if you ever found out about Larry.*

Keep is also used with *mean to* in informal spoken language to express long-standing intention:

So it's just rusted now. I ***keep meaning to get*** *it fixed, but that's another expense.*

The passive 52d

The passive, *be meant to*, often has the meaning of 'be supposed to':

*You're forty minutes late. You'**re meant to** phone and let me know what you're doing.*

Expressing necessity 52e

Mean in the active voice is often used with a modal meaning, expressing necessity. In this case verbs which follow are in the *-ing* form:

*The race usually starts at three, so that often **means leaving** the house at two.* (I have to leave at two)

[*Shepperton* is a famous film studio]
*We had to be on the set at Shepperton by seven a.m. That **meant being** in make-up by six.*

Expressing significance 52f

Mean can be used to refer to how important or significant people and things are in our lives. In this sense, the preposition *to* follows:

*Money? What does it **mean to** me? Absolutely nothing.*

*I also know how much your career **meant to** you at that time.*

MIND 53

The verb *mind* is most commonly used in two interrogative forms, *do you mind* and *would you mind*, to ask permission and to make polite requests. Both forms may be followed by *if* or an *-ing* form:

***Do you mind if** I smoke?*

***Would you mind if** I open the window?*

***Do you mind putting** your dog back on a lead?*

***Would you mind checking** that for us, please?*

Mind is also used in the negative declarative form to ask permission and to make polite requests, frequently with a tag:

***You don't mind** if I smoke, **do you**?*

***You wouldn't mind** carrying this? Thanks.*

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Would you mind and *do you mind* 53a

Both *would you mind* and *do you mind* are used to make polite requests. *No* as an answer indicates willingness:

A: ***Would you mind*** *feeding the cats while we're away?*
B: ***No****, no problem.*

A: *Erm, about this press release. I was thinking you would be the better authority to write it than me, actually.* ***Do you mind*** *putting something on paper?*
B: ***No****, I'll do that.*
A: *That'll be great.*

Would you mind is more frequent in requests in everyday conversation than *do you mind*.

Most occurrences of *do you mind* in conversation are followed by *if I/if we …*, and involve asking for permission:

A: ***Do you mind if I*** *sit here?*
B: ***No****.*

✪ *No*, not *yes*, is the normal, polite answer to requests with *would you mind/do you mind* (*to mind* means 'to object', therefore the listener answers: '**No**, I do not object to, or have any problem with, your request.'):

A: ***Would you mind*** *photocopying these for me?*
B: ***No****.*
(B: ~~Yes.~~)

Other expressions with *mind* 53b

The expression *if you don't mind* is also used to make statements less direct, or a little more polite, and to protect the feelings or dignity of the listener:

If you don't mind*, I won't have any coffee this morning.*

If you don't mind me saying so*, she shouldn't speak to her mother like that.*

I don't mind can be used to sound politely non-commital when responding to suggestions, enquiries about preferences, and offers:

A: *What do you want to do this evening?*
B: ***I don't mind****.*

A: *Would you like tea or coffee?*
B: ***I don't mind****.*

The expressions *I wouldn't mind* (+ *-ing* clause or a noun phrase) and *I don't mind if I do* indicate a positive preference or desire for something:

> ***I wouldn't mind having*** *two weeks' holiday right now.*
> (I would really like to have two weeks' holiday right now.)
>
> *I must say* ***I wouldn't mind a coffee****.*
> (I would really like a coffee.)
>
> A: *Want to try some home-made pasta?*
> B: *Yes.* ***I don't mind if I do****.*
> (Yes. I'd like to.)

Mind is used to issue warnings:

> [public announcement on London Underground as train doors are closing]
> ***Mind*** *the doors!*
> (Be careful of the doors.)
>
> [warning passengers of a gap between the train and the platform edge]
> *Passengers are requested to* ***mind*** *the gap when alighting from this train.*
>
> ***Mind*** *you pay the bill each month.*
> (Be sure to pay the bill each month.)

Never mind is used, mainly in spoken language, to make someone feel better about something or to tell them not to do something because it is no longer important:

> ***Never mind****, you can try again next year.*
>
> ***Never mind*** *about the cups, just collect up all the glasses.*

Mind you is used as a discourse marker in informal spoken language, with a meaning of 'however' or 'on the other hand'. When used without *you*, it most typically occurs at the end of the utterance:

> *The car is a bit too expensive.* ***Mind you****, it's got a diesel engine so that's good for economy.*
>
> *He's putting on more weight each week. He did go to the gym this week,* ***mind****.*

NOW 54

Now is most commonly used as an adverb of time. It can also take on nominal functions such as subject in a clause and as complement of a preposition:

> *We should go* ***now****. We're late.*
> (adverb of time)
>
> ***Now*** *is the time to act.*
> (subject in a clause)
>
> *I hadn't realised* ***until now****.*
> (complement of a preposition)
>
> *Use this old box* ***for now****. I'll fetch a new one later.*
> (complement of a preposition)

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Now also has a general meaning of 'nowadays':

People used to cook three meals a day. ***Now*** *nobody cooks. They just eat out of a microwave.*

Now may be premodified. *Just now*, *right now* and *only now* are common:

A: *When did you see her?*
B: ***Just now*** *in the café.*
(very recently, in the immediate past)

I want you to go to bed ***right now****.*
(straight away, in the immediate future)

In formal contexts, when front-position *now* is preceded by *only*, subject-verb inversion occurs:

Only now do I really understand *what she meant.*
(at this moment and not before)

Now … now is used in more formal literary contexts to describe an altered sequence of actions. In such a structure *now* occurs at the beginning of a clause:

Now *splashing each other noisily,* ***now*** *just serenely floating on the surface, they were all swimming in the lake.*

Now (*that*) can also be used as a conjunction. In spoken and informal uses *that* is often omitted:

Now that *it's stopped raining, we can get on with repairing the wall.*

Now *Ian's left university and is earning some money at last, we can have a proper holiday ourselves.*

Now can be used for emphasis. It frequently occurs at the beginning or end of an imperative clause:

Now *hurry up. We're already half an hour late.*

Don't forget ***now****. It's a very important day for the family.*

The expression *now now* is used to calm somebody down when they are agitated:

Now now*, don't get too upset, it'll all get sorted out, I'm sure.*

Now (or sometimes *now then*) is used as a discourse marker to indicate that a new idea is being introduced, to mark a topic shift or to mark a boundary between stages of a conversation:

Now*, what we want to do today is to cover the workings of the personnel department of the company.*

Right, ***now****, let me see, you haven't visited the church before have you?*

Now then*, which of you wants to go to the Theme Park?*

They lived in Shanghai and had two grown-up sons, George and Matthew. ***Now****, Matthew had worked in the USA and trained as an investment banker, whereas George had left school at 16.*

OF 55

Of is a preposition that introduces a relationship between words, phrases and clauses. It is one of the most frequent words in English. One of its most frequent function, is to introduce prepositional phrases which are complements of nouns. The noun + *of* + noun phrase pattern is very common:

These are ***the important institutions of justice*** *and law enforcement.*

There is unlikely to be ***any loss of electrical power*** *during this time.*

She kept ***a diary of the events of every day****.*

Why do you have such ***a low opinion of British newspapers****?*

The most frequent examples of *of* in informal spoken English are in structures such as *kind of* and *sort of*:

She's ***kind of*** *concentrating on her diet at the moment.*

He's ***kind of*** *interested in starting a new course, isn't he?*

It's a ***sort of*** *apple. They're really quite nice and sweet.*

Of commonly occurs in the pattern noun + *of* + noun phrase to denote groups, parts and quantities:

That's a very good ***cup of tea****.*

A member of staff *will meet you at reception to answer any questions you may have.*

The avalanche started right at ***the top of the mountain****.*

Hasn't he earned ***loads of money*** *from investing in South East Asian banks?*

Of also indicates that something belongs to something or else has particular attributes:

The ***roof of the house*** *was blown off.*

I can't say I like ***the colour of her hair****.*

Of frequently occurs in descriptions to mark identity:

It is ***a novel of considerable wit and intelligence****.*

The thief was identified as ***a girl of thirteen****.*

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The structure determiner + *of* + noun is also frequent in expressions of quantity (191):

45% of salaries *exceed £50,000.*

Some of my best friends *are musicians.*

Twenty of the applicants *are EU nationals.*

Of is optional with *all*, *both*, *half*, except before the object pronouns *me*, *you*, *it*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*:

Both (of) the dogs *have been prize winners at top dog shows.*

All of you *will be held responsible for the results.*
(~~All you will be held responsible for the results.~~)

A–Z 12 *All*; 28 *Both*

Of occurs after certain adjectives (when used predicatively) and verbs. Among the most common adjectives are *afraid of*, *aware of*, *fond of*, *tired of*, *full of*, *capable of*. Among the most common verbs are *think of*, *talk of*, *accuse (someone) of*, *rob (someone) of*:

I was very ***aware of*** *your objections to the plan.*

She had grown ***fond of*** *her new life in Spain.*

What do you ***think of*** *his new girlfriend?*

The police ***accused*** *him* ***of*** *taking the money without permission.*

The structure *be* + *of* + noun phrase occurs in formal contexts:

Her decision ***was of no comfort*** *to him.*

Here is an offer which will ***be of interest*** *to all amateur golfers.*

We are glad to ***be of service*** *to our customers.*

OF COURSE 56

Of course is used to indicate that someone knows something or is assumed to know something or should not be surprised to know something:

Of course*, you'll have to get up before six o'clock each day.*

You should, ***of course****, not try to do too much until you've got over the illness.*

I didn't stay there long, ***of course****.*

Of course is used as a polite and positive reply to questions that ask for agreement, even if the answer disagrees, and to requests:

A: *I suppose I was stupid to marry him in the first place?*
B: ***Of course*** *you weren't.*

A: *Can I borrow the car tonight?*
B: *Yes,* ***of course****, but I need it back by ten thirty.*

✪ *Of course* is not used in reply to genuine information questions where the asker could not be expected to know the answer:

A: *Where did you go for your holidays?*
B: *We went touring in southern Spain.*
A: *Nice. Did you get to Granada?*
B: *Yes,* ***we certainly did****.*
(~~Yes, of course.~~)

A: *Is this the bus for the city centre?*
B: *Yes,* ***it is****.*
(~~Yes, of course.~~)

Of course is used to show concession in an argument. It is sometimes preceded by *but*. It has a meaning of 'needless to say' or 'it goes without saying':

I think they'll probably need at least two more staff. ***Of course****, they will have to prove first that they are overworked.*

Nobody understood the arguments he was making about the history of science but ***of course*** *not a single student was brave enough to admit it.*

OH 57

Oh is used as an interjection and as a discourse marker. As an interjection it expresses surprise, disappointment and pain. As a discourse marker, *oh* is used in particular to respond to new information or to indicate that a speaker has just discovered something surprising. The extent of the surprise can sometimes be indicated by a marked tone of voice which is represented in writing by *ohoh* and *oooh*:

A: *Tim's coming tonight as well.*
B: ***Oh****, I didn't realise.*

A: *I know you've got to get a visa for China first.*
B: ***Oh****, I see.*

Oh*, yeah, that's right. Okay, I'll write to them right away.*

Oooh *no!!! Please don't say we have to go through that tunnel again.*

Oh often occurs together with other interjections or with discourse markers. It commonly occurs at turn boundaries, mainly to indicate that a speaker is responding to a previous stretch of discourse and is introducing a new phase of talk:

Oh *well, I suppose we'd better be leaving. It's getting rather late.*

Oh*, what was I going to ask you?* ***Oh*** *yes. Who's in charge of car parking?*

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In some cases *oh* combines with expletives to indicate an intense expression of feeling:

***Oh my goodness**. Look at her dog. It's bigger than her.*

***Oh hell**! I've left my credit cards in the shop.*

A–Z **69 *Right, rightly*; 76 *Well***

Oh is used to indicate that the speaker is making a direct quotation from the words of another. The interjection *oh* functions to mark that the quotation is beginning:

*So mum came rushing in and she's **oh**, you've really done it now haven't you?*

*I thought to myself **oh**, I'd better start improving or I'm not going to keep the job.*

Oh is also used in wish constructions, usually in more formal contexts:

***Oh** for a nice cup of tea! I'm exhausted.*

***Oh** that they could do something about it!*

OKAY/OK 58

Okay (also spelled *OK*) is an informal word with a range of uses. *Okay* indicates that what is said is accepted or agreed with:

A: *How about a drink?*
B: ***Okay**, I'll join you in ten minutes.*

***Okay**, I was probably wrong to react like that but I was angry.*

Okay frequently functions to indicate a change of topic or to signal that a new stretch of discourse is beginning. When used in this way, *okay* often occurs together with other discourse markers such as *right* and *now*:

***Okay**, let's now move on to the history of colonial expansion in that region in the late eighteenth century.*

***Okay**, right, I think we should try something different.*

*Now, **okay**, you go first.*

Speakers also use *okay* to check that they have been understood. It usually occurs at or near the end of an utterance:

*Now are you all sure you understand why this happened. Yes? **Okay**? Good.*

Okay is used in closing sequences:

***Okay**, so, it was nice talking to you.*

***Okay**, well, I'd better be getting on or I'll be late.*

Okay is also used as an informal adjective (usually predicative) to denote a satisfactory or unproblematic state or situation:

He was ill for quite a time but it looks like he's ***okay*** *again now.*

A: *Are you sure it's no trouble?*
B: *No, that's quite* ***okay****.*

Is it ***okay*** *for us to smoke in here?*

He's an ***okay*** *teacher, isn't he?*
(attributive use: less common)

Okay is used as an adverb in informal speech, meaning 'all right':

She did ***okay*** *in her exams, so she's going to college in the autumn.*

Okay can also be used in informal contexts as a verb, meaning 'officially to approve something':

Has he ***okayed*** *your essay draft?*

I'm phoning to ask if you've been able to ***okay*** *my car insurance?*

ON

A–Z 21 *At*

ONCE 59

Adverb *once* 59a

Once is used as an adverb with a meaning of 'on one single occasion':

I only went to London ***once****. Never again.*

Take three tablets ***once*** *a day after meals.*

In formal contexts, *once* can refer to an indefinite time in the past with a meaning of 'at one time':

The swords ***once*** *belonged to a tribe of warriors living in the mountains.*

He knew that future generations would not comprehend the horrors of war that ***once*** *so appalled him.*

✪ *Once* is not used to talk about an indefinite time in the future. Normally the phrases 'some time' or 'one day' are used:

Why don't you come down ***some time*** *to Devon to see the family?*
(~~Why don't you come down once to Devon to see the family?~~)

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Noun *once* 59b

Once can be used as a noun in the expressions *the once* and *this once*, usually with *just*. This structure is more common in informal spoken contexts:

A: *How many times did you go there?*
B: ***Just the once***.

Just this once *I'll let you have the CD player.*

Conjunction *once* 59c

Once is used as a conjunction meaning 'as soon as' or 'when'.

✪ Future or conditional forms occur in the main clause, not in the *once*-clause:

What's he going to do ***once*** *he finds out he has been left out of the team?*
(as soon as he finds out/when he finds out)
(~~What's he going to do once he will find out …~~)

Once *you've passed your exams, we'll pay for a holiday for you.*

✪ The structure *once that* is not used:

Once I know when she's arriving, I'll let you know.
(~~Once that I know …~~)

Once is used for all times other than the immediate present. In this meaning it is replaced by *now that*:

Now that *I'm lying down, I feel a lot better.*

Once *I'm lying down, I usually feel better.*

Once *I was lying down, I felt a lot better.*

Once *you're lying down, you'll feel a lot better.*

In formal written styles, *once* may occur with clausal ellipsis:

Once *inside the house, the three men were arrested immediately by police officers.*
(Once they were inside the house …)

Once in fixed expressions 59d

Once occurs in many fixed expressions. Most of these are expressions of time. Some common examples are:

at once (immediately, simultaneously)

all at once (suddenly)

once upon a time (used at the beginning of traditional stories)

once in a blue moon (rarely, seldom)

once in a while (not very often)

once or twice (very occasionally)

once and for all (completely, finally)

ONE 60

One can be a numeral, a personal pronoun, and a noun-substitute.

Numeral *one* 60a

As a numeral, *one* can be a determiner or a pronoun:

*I just have **one question** to ask you.*
(determiner)

***One morning** he just got up and left. We've never seen him since.*
(determiner)

*My **one regret** is that I never visited Thailand when I lived in the region.*
(determiner)

*I don't need a lot. Just give me **one** for now.*
(pronoun)

One can also be a substitute form for a singular or plural count noun:

A: *How about a coffee?*
B: *OK, I'll just have a small **one**.*

*Are these the **ones** you ordered?*

A: *Can you pass me the shoes?*
B: *Which **ones**?*
A: *The red **ones**.*

One is not used to substitute for non-count nouns:

A: *Have you got any sugar?*
B: *Yes.*
A: *Can I borrow **some**?*
(~~Can I borrow one?~~)

When *one* substitutes for a noun, it refers back to a previous noun and cannot normally be used to refer forward:

*I saw a black car at the traffic lights. But it was a very old **one**.*
(~~I saw a black one at the traffic lights. But the car was a very old.~~)

60c

Personal pronoun *one* 60b

As a generic personal pronoun, *one* can be used with the meaning of people in general and is common in making generalisations, especially in more formal styles. It has third person singular concord:

> ***One*** *never knows, does* ***one****?*
>
> ***One*** *should not let dogs into the country without proper checks. I think those quarantine laws are quite right.*
>
> *Retirement allows* ***one*** *to pursue new interests and hobbies.*

You and *they* are also used in a similar way. However, *one* includes the speaker in the generalisation:

> *Does* ***one*** *eat durian in Malaysia?*
> (includes the speaker, who is there or has an interest in going there)
>
> *Do* ***they*** *eat durian in Malaysia?*
> (refers to others)

One's functions as a possessive determiner:

> ***One's*** *country is important but it is in* ***one's*** *family that true loyalty is to be found.*

Oneself is the reflexive pronoun formed from *one* (**201** and **202** for **possessive and reflexive pronouns**):

> ***One*** *should give* ***oneself*** *more credit, shouldn't* ***one****?*

In traditional formal usage, it is considered inappropriate to mix *one* with other third person singular pronouns:

> ***One*** *should always be careful before giving* ***one's*** *address to someone.*
> (~~One should always be careful before giving his/her address to someone.~~)

Noun substitute *one* 60c

When *one* is used as a noun substitute, it is not used immediately after *some*, *any*, *both* and numbers, unless there is a modifier of the noun:

> A: *Are there any yoghurts for breakfast?*
> B: *I bought some yesterday.*
> (~~I bought some ones yesterday.~~)
>
> A: *Which one do you want?*
> B: *I'll take both if that's okay.*
> (~~I'll take both ones if that's okay.~~)
>
> A: *How many of those ribbons did you get?*
> B: *I bought six* ***red ones*** *and three* ***blue ones****. Is that enough, do you think?*

One is not normally used after noun modifiers:

Do you need lettuce or carrot seeds?
Do you need lettuce seeds or carrot seeds?
Do you need lettuce seeds or carrot?
(~~Do you need lettuce seeds or carrot ones?~~)

However, *one* is used with noun modifiers that denote what something comprises or contains:

That's the book I wanted. It's ***the Economic History one****.*

A: *Do you want the cheese roll?*
B: *No, I'll have* ***the salad one*** *please.*

Note also that in informal styles *one* can be premodified by a possessive determiner:

A: *I couldn't use the copier today.*
B: *Neither could I.* ***My one*** *was broken too.*

When *one* refers back to a previous noun and is modified by an adjective, a determiner must be used:

The hotel that we had booked turned out to be ***a*** *luxury* ***one****.*

The French dictionary is totally different from ***the*** *Spanish* ***one****.*
(~~The French dictionary is totally different from Spanish one.~~)

A or *one* 60d

A/an is the unmarked indefinite article. *One* may be used as an emphatic alternative to *a/an*:

There was ***a*** *car parked outside her house.*
(unmarked)

There was ***one*** *car in the car park.*
(emphatic: 'only one', where there might typically be more)

ONLY 61

Adverb *only* 61a

Only is primarily an adverb. With numerical expressions it has a meaning of 'no more than' and in temporal expressions it has a meaning of 'not until' and 'no longer ago than'. Another meaning is 'cannot but':

There were ***only six*** *of us at the seminar.*

They are really sorry but they are ***only*** *coming* ***on Sunday****.*

I was talking to them on the phone ***only last night****.*

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Travellers to this remote village ***can only wonder*** *at its complete peace and serenity.*
(cannot but wonder; cannot do anything other than wonder)

Only can indicate an undesirable outcome:

Don't go and see the film. You'll ***only*** *be disappointed.*

As an adverb, the position of *only* varies, and often intonation or context is required to make clear what is modified by *only*. Its most common position is, however, mid position (325). When *only* modifies a subject noun phrase, it has to precede it:

He only rinsed *the cups; he doesn't even know how to wash up properly.*

Such investments ***are only some of the ways*** *in which you can prepare for retirement.*

Only I *saw David leave; the others were too busy to notice.*

Only a small number of banks *stay open after 4 p.m.*

Adjective *only* 61b

Only can be an adjective with a main meaning of 'single':

My ***only complaint*** *was that the service was slow.*

She's the ***only one*** *they are prepared to confide in.*

Did you know he's an ***only child****?*
(he has no brothers and sisters)

Only if 61c

When *only* is used before *if*, either immediately before or in a previous clause, the meaning is 'provided that' or 'not … unless':

Visitors will ***only*** *be admitted* ***if*** *the proper attire is worn.*
(or: Visitors will be admitted **only if** the proper attire is worn.)

If only 61d

If only is used to express a strong wish:

If only *I could get enough money together, I could go and work in Australia for a year.*

Only + *to*-infinitive 61e

Only is used before a *to*-infinitive in order to introduce an action or event which is sudden and a little unexpected. This use is usually formal and literary:

The music shop ordered 50 copies of the CD, ***only to discover*** *that the songs were sung in a foreign language.*

He stopped the car, ***only to start*** *it again violently.*

When the Second World War broke out, he tried to enlist, ***only to be rejected*** *on the grounds of ill-health.*

Only + subject-verb inversion 61f

When *only* modifies an adverbial phrase or clause in front position, subject and verb are inverted. This style is very formal and occurs mainly in writing:

Only *in summer* ***do you see*** *people making such fools of themselves.*

Only *when we got home* ***did we realise*** *we'd left the keys behind.*

Only just 61g

Only commonly modifies *just* in references to very recent events:

We've ***only just*** *got here. When did you arrive?*

Only just can also have a meaning of 'with very little to spare' or 'barely managed':

A: *Is there enough for everyone?*
B: ***Only just****.*

There was so much traffic I ***only just*** *managed to make the flight.*

Conjunction *only* 61h

Mainly in informal spoken English, *only* is also used as a conjunction with the meaning of 'but':

I would come, ***only*** *I don't know what to wear.*

Okay, I'll let you bring your golf clubs. ***Only*** *please hurry up.*

It's more or less the same in Cyprus, ***only*** *even hotter in July.*

OPPOSITE, IN FRONT (OF) 62

Do not confuse *opposite* and *in front (of)*.

If two people, A and B, sit *opposite* each other (e.g. at a table in a restaurant), then A and B are facing each other (i.e. they are looking towards each other).

If A sits *in front of* B (e.g. in a cinema or lecture hall), then B is behind A (i.e. looking at the back of A's head):

A: *Where's this pizza place we're going to?*
B: *It's* ***opposite*** *Philips', next to the Lyons coffee shop.*
A: *Oh right.*
(on the other side of the street from Philips')

[talking about a minor road accident]
The car ***in front of*** *me stopped suddenly and I went into the back of it.*
(my car was driving behind the car I hit)

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In front of is often used for things people have in their hands or immediately before them and which are connected with an activity they are engaged in. It is also used to mean 'in the presence of someone':

[doing business over the phone]
A: *Have you got that price list* ***in front of you****?*
B: *I have. Er, hold on a minute. Yes.*

Some people spend all evening ***in front of the television****.*
(watching television)

[talking about a gift]
I don't want you to open it ***in front of all your family****.*
(in the presence of all your family)

OVER 63

Preposition *over* 63a

As a preposition, *over* typically refers to movement or position at a higher level than something else:

The planes flew low ***over the village****.*

Didn't the designer recommend hanging the lamps ***over the tables****?*

The movement can also be 'across':

They came ***over the road*** *to say hello to us.*

I lost my wallet on the train coming ***over from Paris****.*

Over and *all over* have a meaning of covering something or being 'throughout' something:

Why do prisoners always arrive at prisons and police stations with a blanket ***over their heads****?*

Put a cloth ***over that food****. There are flies everywhere.*

Her books were ***all over the room****.*

They have offices ***all over the world****.*

Over also occurs with reference to extended periods of time:

Over the past three months *the situation on both sides has improved considerably.*

Read it ***over the holidays****. You'll enjoy it.*

Over also has a meaning of 'more than' a particular number, or limit:

They must be ***over seventy****. It's great, isn't it, that they still fly to Australia twice a year.*

That's the second time he's been caught driving ***over the speed limit****.*

He now earns ***over £100,000*** *per year.*

Adverb *over* 63b

Over used as an adverb usually indicates movement above something or someone:

*I didn't hear what she said because a plane **flew over** just at that moment.*

Be over is a very common construction meaning 'finished', 'at an end':

*The interviews should **be over** by about three, so I'll see you then.*

*You're too late. The match **is over**.*

In informal spoken English in particular, *over* has a meaning of 'some distance from the location of the speaker or listener':

***Over in Australia**, they have Christmas dinner on the beach.*

*Why don't you come and sit **over here**?*

*We're going **over to Jack's** for the afternoon.*

*As you come round the corner, you'll see the church **over to the right**.*

Prefix *over* 63c

Over is also frequently used as a prefix referring to an excess of something:

*The government has launched its most stinging criticism yet of **overpaid** directors of public utility companies.*

*He's a good trainer but is known for **overworking** his horses.*

*His approach to the whole topic was **over-elaborate**.*

OWN 64

Own most commonly postmodifies possessive determiners. It emphasises exclusive possession:

*She has **her own** room on the top floor.*

*They have always wanted to have **their own** house in France.*

*It's **the company's own** logo and we think it works well to help sell the product.*

*I suppose we have to learn from **our own** mistakes.*

Own is not used after *a* or *the* and not used alone. The use of *of* + possessive determiner + *own* allows a preceding use of determiners in the noun phrase:

*They have **their own** apartment in the centre of Athens.*
(~~They have an own apartment in the centre of Athens.~~)
(~~They have own apartment in the centre of Athens.~~)

*They have two adopted children and **two children of their own**.*
(~~They have two adopted children and two own children.~~)

*It's nice for them to have **a garden of their own**.*

*He wanted to have **some music of his own** so he bought 20 CDs all at once.*

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Own can be intensified by *very*:

*He's just bought his **very own** car.*

*It was Laura's **very own** engagement present to them.*

PERSON 65

The noun *person* has two plural forms, *persons* and *people*. *Persons* is used in more formal, legalistic contexts; *people* is the more widely used plural:

*She's just a horrible **person**.*

*There are a lot of nice **people** at our school, aren't there?*
(~~There are a lot of nice persons at our school, aren't there?~~)

*During the 1980s, less than 5 per cent of the US federal budget was spent on programmes that supported families with children, while nearly 24 per cent of federal resources were spent on **persons** over the age of 65.*
(formal)

PRETTY

A–Z 66 *Quite*

QUITE 66

Quite + gradable adjectives and adverbs 66a

Quite can be used as an intensifying adverb with gradable adjectives and adverbs, with a meaning similar to 'rather', 'fairly' or 'to a considerable degree':

*But it's going to be **quite interesting** driving home tonight, cos it's the first time I've used it in the dark since I put my headlights back in.*

[showing someone round a house]
*Here's the front room … second reception room … large kitchen … **quite pleasant**, isn't it?*

*Things began to get worse **quite quickly**.*

Quite + non-gradable adjectives and adverbs 66b

Quite can also be used with non-gradable adjectives and adverbs, with the meaning of 'totally/completely':

*It was **quite impossible** to have a conversation with him.*

*I don't know whose coat it is, but it's **quite definitely** not mine.*

Quite + nouns 66c

Quite a/an is used before a noun or before a noun modified by a gradable adjective.

When used before a noun, it is very emphatic, and means 'a considerable' or 'a noteworthy example of':

*It's **quite a drive** from here to north Wales, about five hours.*

*You've got **quite a garden** here, wow.*

When used with a gradable adjective + noun, *quite a* means the same as 'a fairly/a rather':

*You also need to be flexible and have **quite a strong stomach**.*
(or: … a fairly strong stomach)

*I thought he was **quite a nice person**.*
(or: … a rather nice person)

With non-gradable adjectives and adjectives of extreme or intensified meaning followed by nouns, the word order is often *a quite* + adjective + noun:

*She was **a quite superb teacher**.*

*The foundations of the English Channel, its geological framework, formed gradually, but its final shaping was **a quite different** and perhaps even catastrophic **event**.*

Quite the + adjective + noun may also occur in affirmative clauses in very formal styles, with the meaning of 'absolutely'. It is most common with superlatives:

[referring to a TV review in the *Guardian*, a British daily newspaper]
*'"After Dark"', the Guardian once said, was '**quite the best idea** for television since men sat around the camp-fire talking while, in the darkness round them, watching eyes glowed red.'*

Quite + comparatives 66d

Quite is not used alone before a comparative. Normally *a lot* or *a bit* is added:

*He was **quite a lot older** than her, and had children that needed looking after.*
(~~He was quite older than her …~~)

*As I say, I had my babies **quite a bit earlier** than these ladies.*
(~~… I had my babies quite earlier than these ladies.~~)

Quite + verbs 66e

In informal spoken language, the only verbs which commonly occur with *quite* in affirmative clauses are *like*, *enjoy*, *understand* and *agree*. *Quite* occupies the normal positions for mid-position adverbs (325). It can have a range of meanings from 'a bit' to 'totally/completely', depending on context:

*But your dad **quite likes** people to have an opinion so then he can argue with them.*
(likes a great deal)

*I **quite enjoy** working in a team.*
(enjoy a great deal)

*I **quite agree** that the people in public school get a better education because their parents can afford it.*
(agree totally)

In formal written styles, *quite* occurs with a wider range of verbs in affirmative clauses:

[referring to beehives]
*He **has quite forgotten** to replace the roof on the second hive and **quite omitted** to inspect the remaining hives.*
(completely forgotten … completely omitted)

*It was a solemn amusement, and I preferred to fish in remote places: it **quite spoiled** my pleasure if other people were near, to watch, to ask whether I had caught anything.*
(totally spoiled my pleasure)

Not quite 66f

Not quite means 'not completely'. It may be used with adjectives, adverbs, nouns, prepositional phrases and *wh*-clauses:

*Well, if I come I'll just turn up, but, er, as I say, I'm **not quite sure** yet.*
(not 100% sure)

*It's **not quite on the same scale**.*

*I think she looks a bit ill in it. **Not quite her colour**.*

*It's **not quite what I'm looking for**.*

Not quite may also be used with verbs:

*I do**n't quite understand** that.*
(I don't understand that completely.)

Quite a bit, quite a few, quite a lot 66g

Quite a bit and *quite a few* refer to large amounts and quantities, just as *quite a lot* does:

*He'll probably be able to contribute **quite a bit**, I think.*
(he will contribute a lot/a great amount)

*It's a sort of well-established place. It's been there **quite a few** years.*
(it's been there a considerable number of years/many years)

*We talked about it **quite a lot**, you know.*

Short responses with *quite* 66h

Quite may be used in short responses in more formal spoken styles, especially with *yes* and *well*, to express strong agreement:

A: *Of course, I don't know many of them now. I only know those that have had older children, you know, like Maria.*
B: *Yes* ***quite****.*

A: *Probably the 'Sun' is the most popular paper, isn't it, unfortunately.*
B: *Well* ***quite****.*
A: *And this probably says quite a lot about English people, I suppose, in general.*

Quite right is commonly used in short responses to show agreement:

A: *Though there may be some people who are not very at ease with writing and who might prefer to speak to someone.*
B: *Yeah.* ***Quite right****.*

Quite, *pretty*, *fairly* and *rather* + gradable adjectives and adverbs 66i

Quite, *pretty*, *fairly* and *rather* can have very similar meanings when premodifying gradable adjectives and adverbs with the meaning of 'to a considerable degree'. The main difference between them is the words they collocate with. There is overlap in collocation (e.g. they all collocate frequently with *good* and *easy*), but there are also noticeable differences.

Pretty tends to collocate more with subjective words describing negative aspects of situations (e.g. *awful*, *bad*, *boring*, *dire*, *grim*, *nasty*, *rough*), and is much more frequent in informal spoken contexts than in formal writing:

[speaking of an emergency on an underground rail system]
A: *And all of a sudden the power went off and we went into pitch blackness.*
B: *Oh. My goodness me.*
A: *And we were a long way down underground.*
B: *Yeah. Yeah. I bet that was* ***pretty awful****.*

Fairly is also much more frequent in informal spoken contexts than in formal writing. It collocates with a wide range of adjectives and adverbs:

Everything should be ***fairly straightforward*** *once you get the hang of it.*

I think it was on TV ***fairly recently****.*

Quite is many times more frequent than *pretty* and *fairly*, in both spoken and written language, and has a wide range of collocates.

Rather tends to collocate with gradable adjectives and adverbs of negative meaning (e.g. *unpleasant*, *alarming*, *awkward*, *disappointing*), especially words relating to lack of colour or excitement/vitality (e.g. *bland*, *dull*, *drab*, *seedy*,

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shabby, *soulless*, *run-down*, *unexciting*), or words relating to unexpectedness/strangeness/eccentricity (e.g. *odd*, *unusual*, *comical*). It is much more frequent in formal written contexts than in informal spoken contexts:

George was dressed in a ***rather dull*** *dinner suit cut in a fashion of twenty years earlier.*

We do look ***rather comical****, don't we?*

A–Z 67 *Rather*

✪ Do not confuse the spelling of *quite* with the adjective *quiet*:

It's ***quite*** *cold today.*
(~~It's quiet cold today.~~)

A common error involves the confusion of *quite* and *very* in negative clauses:

We moved because the hotel was not ***very*** *good.*
(~~We moved because the hotel was not quite good.~~)

RATHER 67

Intensifying function of *rather* 67a

With adjectives and adverbs

Rather can be used to intensify an adjective or adverb. It has a meaning similar to *quite* when *quite* is used with gradable adjectives, but *rather* often occurs in negative contexts, or in contexts indicating an unexpected or surprising degree of something:

I've got a ***rather dominating mother****.*

We passed some ***rather nice old houses*** *on the main road.*

We got it dished out ***rather quickly****, didn't we?*

Rather may also modify a prepositional phrase:

I'm afraid I find myself ***rather out of my depth****.*

With noun phrases

Rather can modify a noun phrase with *a/an*:

I thought it was ***rather a nuisance*** *really.*

The room was ***rather a mess****, the counter still covered with cake pans.*

When *rather* modifies a noun phrase with an adjective and indefinite article, the word order may be *a rather* + adjective, or *rather a* + adjective. *Rather a* is more common in written style:

He looks like the owner of ***a rather posh*** *Greek restaurant.*

This conference takes ***a rather different*** *line to those we have had in the past.*

*You wondered suddenly if you hadn't made **rather a rash** decision.*

*This puts me in **rather a rebellious** mood.*

The expression *a long time* is not normally interrupted by *rather*:

*It was **rather a long time** ago, but never mind.*
(preferred to: ~~It was a rather long time ago, …~~)

With verbs and clauses

Rather as an intensifying adverb can modify a verb or clause. It occupies the normal positions for mid-position adverbs (325):

*Dorothy's conversation **rather led me to believe** that she thought it was time Lawrence married.*

[to 'blot your copybook' means to do something that causes someone to be angry with you]
*He had **rather blotted his copybook** by charming her mother.*

Rather is often used in this way with verbs such as *enjoy*, *hope*, *like*, *want*:

*He **rather hoped** she would throw the whole thing into the garbage and demand to be taken to the Ritz.*

*Bill Partridge was definitely coming. Mick MacBride **rather liked** that.*

A–Z 66 *Quite*

Rather + comparisons and *too* 67b

Rather can occur in a variety of constructions related to comparisons. They tend to occur in more formal contexts:

*The Minister seemed in **rather better** spirits than his hosts, and apologised for keeping them all up so late.*

*He was tall and thin, with a face **rather like** a sad old horse.*

*You were **rather less** pleased to see your brother this morning than you were last night.*

It can also be used with *too*:

*'You can't go,' he said **rather too** desperately.*

Would rather for expressing preference 67c

Would/'d rather + infinitive without *to* means 'would prefer'. When two alternatives are stated, it is used with *than*:

*She**'d rather struggle on** with what money she can raise from the banks.*
(~~She'd rather to struggle on …~~)

*I'**d rather read** a book **than** a professional magazine.*

*I'**d rather stay** dirty **than** wash in that water.*

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When it is used with past time reference, *would rather* is followed by infinitive *have* (without *to*) + *-ed* participle:

*The people **would rather have died** than let the old-style conservatives back into power again.*

If the preference is for someone or something else to do something, then a past tense is used in the reported clause, even when the reference is present or future time:

***You'd rather they did**n't say much about it then?*
(You would prefer them not to say much about it then.)

*I'll call Madeleine if **you'd rather she was** present.*
(I'll call Madeleine if you'd prefer her to be present.)

However, in informal speech, an object pronoun plus infinitive without *to* may occur:

***I'd rather them give** it to a younger person.*

***I'd rather it be** your career than my career that is affected.*

When the reference is past time, the past perfect may be used:

***You'd rather he'd waited** a few days, would you, Sergeant?*

Negative

When the subject of the main clause and the reported clause are the same, the negative of *would/'d rather* is *would/'d rather not*:

***I'd rather not** smoke in front of them.*
(~~I wouldn't rather smoke in front of them.~~)

*Doctors have to do a lot of things that people **would rather not** know about.*

Tags

Tags following *would rather* are simply formed with *would*:

*You**'d rather** do something else, **would you**?*

***I'd rather** go now, **I would**.*

Rather modifying a clause 67d

In formal written styles, *rather* as an adverb may link two clauses, where the situation in the second clause is seen as preferable to that in the first:

*Let no self-reproach weigh on you because of me. It is I, who should **rather** reproach myself for having urged my feelings upon you.*

✪ Do not confuse this formal use of *rather* with *better*:

[from a student essay]
*In conclusion, I shall say that it is not a good idea to keep animals, we should **rather** leave them free and observe them in their natural habitats.*
(~~… we should better leave them free and observe them …~~)

Rather than 67e

Rather than is used to link two parallel words, phrases or clauses where one is considered preferable to the other. It occurs most commonly in mid position between the two compared items, but can be used in front position:

> *Linda just phoned me wondering whether she should come over* ***in the near future rather than in the summer****.*

> [customer enquiring about hi-fi in a shop]
> *I was just wondering whether it would be better to get* ***a really expensive portable one rather than a very cheap stack system****.*

> *The people would be a lot fitter if they didn't have a car because they'd have to* ***walk places rather than just get the car*** *to go round the corner shop or something.*

> ***Rather than encouragement****, he would hear* ***words such as 'You will not do anything in life'****.*

✪ *Rather than*, not just *than* alone, is used when there is no other comparative form present in the sentence:

> *A doctor may ask, then, whether it is fair to prolong the life of an old person* ***rather than*** *to save that of a child.*
> (~~A doctor may ask, then, whether it is fair to prolong the life of an old person than to save that of a child.~~)

Or rather 67f

Or rather is often used for self-correction:

> *Apparently in this situation the decision to stop treatment was taken by the chief authority,* ***or rather****, the Health Chief of the Dunbridge Health Authority.*

Rather as a response token 67g

Rather may occur in responses to indicate enthusiastic acceptance or agreement. This usage is more associated with speakers of higher social classes or with older speakers:

> [A is explaining to B how university websites often have email addresses listed for staff and students]
> A: *So, say you want to contact a professor in Birmingham, you could find out his email address.*
> B: *Oh right. That's all right.*
> A: *And this is the same for students now, so it'd be good for friends if they want to find you.*
> B: *Oh yes* ***rather****. Yeah.*

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REALLY 68

Really is an adverb that is commonly used to emphasise or question the factuality or truth of what is said:

*Do you **really** have to go now? Can't you at least wait until the evening?*

*Do you think he is **really** hungry or is he just pretending?*

*He calls himself her personal assistant but he is **really** just the driver.*

Really is often used to intensify gradable adjectives and adverbs:

*I made a **really delicious** soufflé. It was easier than I thought.*

*I didn't expect to lose but she played a **really excellent** game.*

*She looks **really sweet** in that outfit, doesn't she?*

*He drove **really fast** all the way and it certainly frightened me.*

Really is used to reduce the force of negative utterances:

*I'm not **really** angry, just a bit cross.*

Really is commonly used to soften what has just been said. In this function it can occur at the end of utterances:

A: *What do you think they should do about it?*
B: *Oh, I don't know **really**.*

*I don't think we can do that sort of thing **really**.*

Not really is also commonly used to soften a bare *no*-answer.

[in a travel agent's; A is the customer]
A: *Erm I'm looking to get away mid, end of June, thereabouts.*
B: *Right. Anywhere in particular?*
A: *Erm no, no **not really**. But I want to be in a hotel.*

Really also has a concessive meaning of 'despite what has just been said':

*He's got a terrible temper, but he's a lovely guy **really**.*

Really is also used as a response token to show interest and surprise. It contrasts with minimal response tokens such as *uhuh* or *mmm* and indicates greater interest in what is being said:

A: *We stayed at a hotel on the south coast.*
B: ***Really**?*
A: *Yes, it's very pretty, isn't it?*
B: *I think we've stayed there.*

A: *Shares have fallen more than 20% over the past decade.*
B: ***Really**?*

Really can also function to invite continuation by a speaker or offer a confirmation that the conversation can continue:

A: *That e-travel company we used last year went bust last week.*
B: *Did they* ***really****?*
A: *'Fraid so.*

A: *I've just … I've been sorting out those tapes. And erm filling in application forms for the Tower of London job.*
B: *Er which?*
A: *The Tower of London. It's a conservation job.*
B: ***Oh really****?*
A: *Yep.*
B: *Wonderful.*

Really is sometimes used as an adjectival modifier in a shortened form, *real*, in very informal spoken language:

Why don't you try? It's ***real*** *easy to work.*

It was ***real*** *good, that sandwich. I think I'll order another one.*

RIGHT, RIGHTLY 69

The two main lexical meanings of *right* are **1** the opposite of 'left'; **2** 'correct' and 'appropriate, fair'. *Right* is used as an adjective and as an adverb. The adverb form *rightly* corresponds only to the meaning of 'correctly' and is normally only used as an adverb showing stance (111):

Take a ***right turn*** *at the next crossroads.*

He injured his ***right eye*** *in the accident.*

Bear right *at the road junction.*

You are right *and she is wrong.*

I got the number right *this time when I phoned her.*

I rightly assumed *that I was going to be sacked.*

She was scared to death and, ***quite rightly in my opinion****, called the police.*

When used predicatively, *right* only has a meaning of 'correct' or 'fair':

It is entirely ***right*** *to insist on high training standards for the diving instructors.*

A: *Is this the train for Newcastle?*
B: *Yeah, that's* ***right****.*

When modifying prepositional phrases, *right* normally means 'exactly' or 'just':

Give me a couple of minutes. I'll be ***right with you****.*

She arrived ***right after*** *they did, just a few minutes before midnight.*

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Right as a modifier also means 'all the way', 'completely':

*Cut the grass **right down**. It'll grow again in a few days.*

*We drove **right up to** the very north of Scotland.*

*He must be a **right idiot**. You mean he didn't back all the files up?*

Right also occurs adverbially in certain fixed expressions, where *rightly* might be more normally expected. Here *right* cannot occur before the verb:

*It **serves** you **right**.*
(you deserve that punishment)

*We **guessed right**. They're closing the shop next week.*

Right is particularly common in spoken English as a discourse marker to indicate that a new action or sequence of thought is about to begin:

***Right**, let's try to decide how we should change the traffic light system in the city centre.*

***Right**, let's go.*

Right also occurs as a synonym for 'okay', 'we agree':

A: *See you tomorrow, then.*
B: ***Right**.*

A: *I think she's just gone too far this time.*
B: ***Right**. I'll have a word with her about it.*

In the above four examples *all right* can be used as well.

Right can also function to check understanding or to check that someone agrees with what is said. It functions in a manner similar to a tag question and has a meaning similar to 'okay':

*It's available as a CD-Rom, **right**?*

*So I knocked at the door and it seemed like no one was in – so I knocked again, **right**, and it was just so quiet and I got a bit scared, even though I knew it was silly.*

*Now, we've covered the origins of the War of Independence, **right**, and next week we go on to the consequences.*

Right also functions as a backchannel marker. It does not engage with the speaker as directly as markers such as *really*, and can provide a more neutral response to what has been said:

A: *I told them I would resign.*
B: ***Right**.*
A: *But I'm not sure whether I'll go through with it.*
B: *Oh **right**.*

ROUND

A–Z 18 *Around, round*

SINCE 70

Since has two main meanings, referring to time and referring to reasons.

Since referring to time

I haven't seen Paul ***since Ken and Margaret got married****.*
(I haven't seen them from that point in time until now)

She's been doing it ***since the beginning of March****.*
(from that point in time until now)

Do not confuse *since* and *for*. *Since* refers to points in time, *for* refers to extended periods of time:

She's been away ***for a couple of days****.*
(~~She's been away since a couple of days.~~)

I've been here ***for three weeks****.*
(seen as a period of time)

I've been here ***since three weeks ago****.*
(seen as a point in the past)

Since referring to reasons

Since is used when the reason for something is presumed to be already known to the listener:

Since *around 30% of the contents of the average dustbin is made up of kitchen waste, it makes sense to encourage more people to compost rather than dump it.*
(or: As we know, around 30% of the contents of the average dustbin is made up of kitchen waste, so …)

Compare *because*, where there is no necessary implication that the reason is already known:

It may be ***because*** *they don't know what the guidelines are.*
(this is a possible reason, we do not know)

Tense-aspect patterns with *since* 70a

Tense-aspect in the main clause

- Present perfect or past perfect:

I've been *awake* ***since*** *half past four this morning.*
(~~I'm awake since half past four this morning.~~)

I hadn't been *to Barcelona* ***since*** *1988 so I was looking forward to it.*

- Present tense or past tense:

  You're looking *better* ***since*** *you got back from the north.*

  Joe's *the one person Martha really* ***cares*** *about* ***since*** *she lost her mother.*

Present simple and past simple are often used instead of present perfect and past perfect with the construction *it* + *be* + time period + *since*:

It ***'s*** *months* ***since*** *I've been out for a coffee anywhere.*
(or: It's been months since I've been out …)

It ***was*** *years* ***since*** *I'd seen him.*
(or: It had been years since I had seen him.)

Tense-aspect in the *since*-clause

- Past tense; *since* refers to a point in time:

  Can you tell me what's happened ***since*** *we last* ***met****?*
  (from that point in time until now)

- Present perfect; *since* refers to an event leading up to now or still relevant:

  Since I've been *at Durford, which is two years now, Rod's been a tremendous support in putting through some of the changes that we've needed in managing our production systems.*
  (during the two-year period of time)

In informal speech, the present perfect may sometimes be used to refer to completed events in the past:

When I went back, it was when I was still at school. My dad took me back when I was about fifteen. I think I was about fifteen, fourteen, somewhere round there. It's a very long time ***since I've been*** *back.*

Since + *-ing* form 70b

Since referring to time may be followed by the *-ing* form of a verb where the subject is the same in both the main and subordinate clause:

She'd only had a couple of hours' sleep ***since arriving*** *in Oxford the previous day.*

Since having *done that big piece of work, I'm finding it quite difficult to get back into working really.*

This does not occur when *since* refers to reasons:

Since I didn't have *medical insurance, I would have to pay for everything out of my pocket.*
(~~Since not having medical insurance …~~)

Since, since then 70c

Since referring to time may be used alone as an adverb when the time reference is understood:

And then a bit later on, the next-door neighbour on this side had the son and daughter-in-law over for a meal, and when they got outside, their car was missing and it hasn't been found ***since****.*
(understood: since that day)

More specific reference may be made with *since then*:

I mean that's twenty years ago. Traffic has obviously doubled or trebled ***since then****.*

When *since* is used in this way, it normally occurs in end or mid position in the clause with present perfect tense:

*She****'s since had*** *a burglar alarm installed.*
(understood: since the time she was burgled)

The consultant who was in charge of your case ***has since retired****.*
(understood: since the events we are talking about)

Since then normally occurs in front or end position, but not normally in mid position:

But ***since then****, we've been up and down the country to all these other places.*

It's grown enormously ***since then****.*
(~~It's since then grown enormously.~~)

Ever since 70d

Ever since is a more emphatic form of *since* in its references to time (not in its reference to reasons):

Ever since *I was 12, I've thought about being Olympic champion.*

She's been a bit nervous ***ever since*** *we got burgled.*

It may also be used as an adverb phrase:

And people say she was murdered down at the lake. And she's haunted the castle ***ever since****.*
(understood: ever since the day she was murdered)

Questions with *since when* 70e

Questions with *since when* do not normally allow separation of *when* and *since*:

Since when *have you spent so much time with your son?* ***Since when*** *have you two been such close friends?*
(~~When have you two been such close friends since?~~)

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Long since 70f

Long since normally means 'a long time ago, a long time before that':

Spontaneous adventures, the essence of her youth, had ***long since*** *ceased.*
(understood: had long ago ceased/had ceased long before that time)

His hair had ***long since*** *thinned, and as he offered his hand, I noticed the blue rivulets of age.*
(His hair had thinned long before that moment …)

Since and *from* 70g

From is sometimes used instead of *since*, especially with reference to distant historical times:

This unhappiness has been going on ***from the earliest historical times****: our whole history is a tale of unhappiness, with war following war, each crueller and bloodier than the last, until in our day we wipe out a hundred thousand with one bomb.*
(or: This unhappiness has been going on since the earliest historical times …)

However, *from* also refers to the starting point of completed periods of time, whereas *since* refers to periods of time continuing up to the point of speaking or writing:

[Margaret Thatcher's period as British Prime Minister was finished when this text was written; *since* would have suggested it was still continuing at the time of writing]
Italy has had the fastest rate of growth of the big four European economies during the past decade – yes, even faster than Margaret Thatcher's Britain if one takes the full period of her office ***from*** *1979.*

A–Z 43 *For*

SO 71

Adverb *so* 71a

So is a degree adverb, and typically modifies adjectives and adverbs. It has a meaning of 'to this extent':

I'm sorry I'm ***so late****. The traffic was just a nightmare.*

It doesn't always work out ***so neatly****.*

Why is he ***so grumpy*** *first thing in the morning?*

So also has an intensifying meaning similar to 'very' or 'really':

I spent the morning in Foxton Park and it was ***so nice and peaceful****.*

That's ***so kind*** *of you. Thanks very much.*

You must meet him. He's ***so good-looking****.*

You should have heard her. She sang ***so wonderfully****.*

So + adjective/adverb + *that*-complement clause indicates that something is of such a degree that it produces the outcome described in the *that*-clause:

I felt ***so upset that I just didn't know what to say****.*

It all happened ***so quickly we hardly noticed it****.*

So may also premodify quantifiers such as *much*, *many*, *little*, *few*:

There were ***so many*** *people in the queue I just gave up and went home.*

She just has ***so little*** *sympathy for others.*

So is often used to indicate size or extent in the same way as *this* is used, and is typically reinforced by hand gestures which roughly indicate size:

[indicating the size of a garden plant container, with the hand held palm-downward about half a metre above the ground]
It's about ***so big****.*
(or: It's about this big.)

So is also occasionally used as a manner adverb, with a meaning of 'like this':

Just bend your knees – ***so****.*

In informal spoken language, especially in the usage of younger speakers, *so* may occur as an intensifier before an adjective negated with *not*. In such cases, *so* is heavily stressed. In traditionally correct and more formal usage, an adjective with a negative prefix is the preferred form. *So* can also be used as a more intense and expressive alternative to the adverb phrases *just* or *just like*, and can be followed by any class of item (e.g. verb, noun, prepositional phrase):

[BBC radio travel reporter recounting a tough mountaineering expedition]
And I'm thinking 'I'm ***so not fit*** *for this expedition'.*
(preferred formal usage: I'm so unfit for this expedition.)

I was ***so not ready*** *to take an exam that day.*
(preferred formal usage: I was so unready/unprepared to take an exam that day.)

I'm ***so not*** *going to do that.*
(preferred formal usage: I'm just not going to do that.)

Younger speakers also use *so* as an intensifier with noun phrases, though such usage is considered incorrect by many speakers:

[teenager commenting on a mobile phone]
That phone is ***so*** *last week.*
(it is out of date, not the latest model)

That's ***so*** *Sandra. I knew she wouldn't help us.*
(That's typical of Sandra.)

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✪ *So* is not used before an adjective that is used attributively. *Such* must be used instead:

I took ***such nice photos*** *in the park yesterday.*
(~~I took so nice photos in the park yesterday.~~)

So is not used to modify noun phrases:

She is ***such a quiet girl****.*
(~~She is so a quiet girl.~~)

It took ***such a long time*** *to get to Scotland.*
(~~It took so long time to get to Scotland.~~)

And there were ***such tall buildings****!*
(~~And there were so tall buildings!~~)

Pro-form or substitute word *so* 71b

So is also used as a pro-form or substitute word. As a pro-form, *so* occurs in reduced clauses with modal and auxiliary verbs and copular verb *be*, to express the meaning 'also' or 'similarly, in the same way'. This use of *so* is followed by inversion of the subject and verb:

Her luck ran out while she was away from home. ***So did his****.*

Ian's a teacher, and ***so is his sister****.*

A: *I've got loads of work to do though.*
B: ***So have I****.*

A: *Donald can stay at a local hotel.*
B: *Well,* ***so can I*** *if it's inconvenient to stay at your place.*

So is used as a clausal substitute after verbs such as *assume*, *be afraid*, *believe*, *hope*, *imagine*, *reckon*, *think*:

A: *Is Thomas coming to the meeting tomorrow?*
B: ***I believe so.***

A: *Will you still be here next time I call?*
B: ***I hope so****!*
(note that the opposite of *so* in this type of construction is *not*, e.g. *I hope not*.)

You're very bright, Zoe. Everybody says ***so****.*

So they say, *so everybody says*, *so they tell me*, *so everybody tells me*, *so I'm told*, *so I gather/believe/understand* and similar expressions indicate that the listener has already been informed of something. They are common in responses. With these verbs, *so* often precedes the verb:

A: *It was the American who got the job.*
B: ***Mm, so I understand****.*

Subordinator *so* 71c

As a subordinating conjunction, *so* introduces clauses of result, consequence and purpose. Purpose clauses may include an optional *that*:

I had nothing to eat at lunchtime ***so I'm very hungry now****.*

Let's talk her into coming for her birthday ***so she won't be alone****.*
(or: Let's talk her into coming for her birthday so that she won't be alone.)

So as and *so as not* introduce non-finite *to*-infinitive clauses of purpose, and normally occur in more formal contexts. Often the 'purpose' is to avoid an undesired consequence:

They decided to go ahead with the wedding, ***so as to avoid upsetting everyone****.*

He said he was busy, ***so as not to hurt her feelings****.*

Discourse marker *so* 71d

In spoken English the most common use of *so* is as a discourse marker. Typically, it functions as a connecting or summarizing marker, usually in front position:

I said – Well have you booked me an ambulance. ***So*** *she says – Oh I'll put you through to the ambulance department. They said that an ambulance had been booked for me but it hadn't.*

[discussing whether to eat a pudding or keep it till the following morning]
A: *I'm not having it cold in the morning. Oh.*
B: *Oh.*
A: ***So*** *what sort of pudding is it?*

A: ***So****, what are we going to do tonight?*
B: *Well, I'd like to stay at home. I've loads to do.*

Right, ***so****, let's get going. Let's say goodbye to everyone.*

With *yes-no* questions it is often an appeal for confirmation: 'am I right in thinking that …?':

[discussing a complaint letter written by speaker A]
A: *It just isn't right.*
B: *Mm.* ***So*** *did you feel that the points that you made in your original letter were all covered in this reply?*
A: *Oh yes. I think they've answered me very well indeed.*

A: *Things have changed then.*
B: *They have certainly changed.*
A: *Okay.* ***So*** *you can't really remember your parents having any sort of ambitions for you or even for themselves?*
B: *No.*

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So is not used alone in responses to express surprise. *Really* is typically used in such cases:

A: *She doesn't have a TV set at all. She never has had one.*
B: *Oh, really?*
(~~Ah, so?~~)

The expression *Is that so?* occurs in responses to express surprise:

A: *When I came back she was in the car waiting for me!*
B: *Oh,* ***is that so****?*
A: *Yes!*

STILL 72

Still has three main meanings as an adverb:

1 that something is continuing, often for a longer time than expected
2 that something is true in spite of something else, or in contrast to something else
3 that something is not moving or should not move.

Still for something continuing in time 72a

[*beach huts* are small wooden huts which people own or rent at seaside resorts]
Do they ***still*** *have beach huts down in Weymouth?*

[speakers are talking about a cinema, *The Regal*, which has since closed]
I came here in 1966 and The Regal was ***still*** *going then.*

Still can indicate that the speaker/writer thinks that the continuation of a situation is not desired or is surprising in some way, especially when stressed and in negative constructions:

I still don't *know what we're going to do with those tins.*
(I wish I did know)

They bought an old cooker months ago and ***they still haven't*** *installed it.*

✪ Note the word order in these emphatic negative constructions: *still* comes between the subject and the first auxiliary or modal verb. Compare the normal mid position for adverbs, which is after the first auxiliary or modal verb (⋯ 325).

The negative of *still* is *no longer*, *not any longer* or *no more*, *not any more*:

A: *Are you still working in Birmingham?*
B: *No,* ***not any more/not any longer****.*
(~~No, not still.~~)

Still, yet, already

Still does not mean the same as *yet* or *already*. *Yet* is used mostly in questions and negatives to talk about things which may be expected but which have not happened, or things about which the speaker wonders if they have happened up to that point in time:

A: *Have you looked in that journal you got from Mrs Martin* ***yet****?*
B: *No. I will, honestly.*

Already refers to things that have happened, often to the surprise of the speaker:

A: *Have you* ***already*** *eaten that?*
B: *Sorry, yes, I was really hungry.*
(~~Have you still eaten that?~~)

A–Z **13 *Already***

Still for something that is true in spite of other things 72b

[speaker is complaining about the cost of birthday presents for children]
I said we would spend £70 per child, which is ***still*** *a lot of money.*

[talking about an old motorbike]
I offered him £300 but ***he still wouldn't*** *sell it.*

✪ Note the word order with this negative emphatic use of *still* (**72a** above).

Still indicating lack of movement 72c

We just couldn't ***sit still*** *any longer. We just had to get up and dance.*

Apparently you're supposed to ***stand still*** *and shout and scream as loud as possible.*

Front-position *still* 72d

Front-position *still* often has a meaning similar to *on the other hand* or *nevertheless*:

I worked in the coal mines but I was out of work at 50 because the mines closed. But ***still****, who isn't out of work these days?*

I don't really like weddings. ***Still****, I'll have to go or they'll be offended.*

STUFF

A–Z **74 *Thing, stuff***

TAKE

A–Z **29 *Bring, take, fetch***

THEN 73

Then is an adverb which refers to a particular time in the past or future:

We used to go to Italy every year by car. But we were very young ***then****.*

The new carpet can't be delivered for six weeks so I suppose we'll just have to wait until ***then****.*

Then also has a meaning of 'next' or 'after that' and commonly occurs with *and*:

The guides took us all over the city. First to the castle ***and then*** *to the museum* ***and then*** *to the cathedral.*

Tidy your room first. ***Then*** *you can both go out. Okay?*

Then sometimes occurs in the main clause of a conditional sentence when the main clause comes after the *if*-clause, to emphasise the conclusion drawn from that condition:

If you wear that outfit, ***then*** *I'm going to have to wear a jacket.*

If there is a town called Cordoba in Spain, ***then*** *there will probably be cities with the same name all over South America.*

If you feel you should do it, ***then*** *do it.*

In spoken English, *then* often occurs in responses with a meaning of 'in that case':

A: *I can't really afford it but I think I need it.*
B: ***Then*** *why don't you buy it?*

A: *How did she play?*
B: *She was the best in the team.*
A: *So you think she might get a further trial* ***then****?*

✪ *Then* and *so* can both have a meaning of 'since that is the case' or 'because that is so'. They are both common in responses where they indicate that something logically follows from what has just been said:

A: *It costs much less to run a diesel car.*
B: ***Then*** *I guess we should get a diesel.*
(or: So I guess we should get a diesel.)

However, *then* is not used when the same speaker connects two statements and the second statement follows from the previous one. In such cases *so* is used:

It's going to cost us too much to fly, ***so*** *we're going by train.*
(~~It's going to cost us too much to fly, then we're going by train.~~)

Then also frequently co-occurs with the discourse markers *well*, *now*, *right* and *okay*:

Well then*, what should we do about it?*

Now then*, I think it's probably time to take a break.*

Okay then*, you go first. You've given many talks like this before and I'm just a bit nervous.*

A–Z 71 *So*

THERE

A–Z 45 *Here, there*

THING, STUFF 74

Thing 74a

General noun

Thing is a general noun which is widely used to refer to physical objects, abstractions such as ideas and statements, and situations, events, actions, experiences and states:

*Can you pass that **thing** over there on the bed?*

*What shall I do? I haven't **a thing** to wear.*

*Can you put all your **things** in the suitcase?*

*Love is a very peculiar **thing**.*

*Let's see how **things** develop.*

*These **things** take time.*

*A holiday? That's just the **thing** for you.*

*They're interested in all **things** Japanese.*

*As **things** stand now, the plane won't be taking off for another couple of hours.*

A: *Hi, Pat. How's **things**?*
B: *Fine, thanks. How are you?*

Referring back

Thing is commonly used to refer back to something that has already been mentioned. It may also refer back generally to actions:

*While I was away, my parents sold all my music CDs and cassettes – these were **things** I'd had since I was a school kid.*

*She was really shouting at him, **a thing** I've never seen her do.*

Alternative to *something*, etc.

Thing can be used instead of common pronouns such as *something*, *anything* and *nothing*. When used as part of a negative expression, *thing* is more definite and emphatic. The pronouns *something*, *anything* are less open to modification than the noun *thing*:

*I can't think of **one thing** we could have done to prevent it.*
(more emphatic than 'I cannot think of anything we could have done' or 'I can think of nothing we could have done')

*I could not think of **a single thing** to say.*

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In cleft constructions

Thing is particularly commonly used in cleft constructions. It is also common with *to* and *that*-clauses:

*The **thing** I want **to** know is how they managed to miss the bus.*

*The **thing** she said **to** remember was to ask for a discount as soon as we arrive.*

*The most obvious **thing to** do is to contact your insurance company.*

In cleft constructions which involve comparison, *thing* is needed:

*The most obvious **thing** to do is to keep out of the rain.*
(~~The most obvious to do is to keep out of the rain.~~)

The thing is

The phrase *the thing is* is frequent in spoken English and functions as a discourse marker which focuses attention on what follows and usually signals that there is a problem. The verb form *is* tends to be stressed. *The* is commonly ellipted in informal use:

***The thing is** … erm … we don't have any money left.*

*Yeah, but, you know, **thing is**, she's left it rather late.*

The expression *the thing is* is treated by speakers as a fixed item, and in many cases in informal speech an 'extra' *is* is added as speakers feel a need to have a verb in the clause. When this happens, the first *is* is stressed:

***The thing is is** no one wants to take responsibility for paying for it all.*

Vague reference and hedging

Thing enables speakers, in particular, to avoid precise reference and to hedge statements so that they are neither too assertive nor too direct. The word occurs in phrases such as *things like that*, *kind of thing*, *sort of thing*, which enable speakers to refer vaguely to categories, on the assumption that the listener will understand what is included in the category:

*There isn't time for sending invitations out and **that kind of thing**, is there?*

A: *So, er, you want the suitcase left upstairs?*
B: *Yeah cos I've got **things like plates and stuff** to pack yet.*

*She's making a lot of cakes and goodies **and things** for Chinese New Year.*

*I was a wrestling coach and **things like that** and in New York I used to be a bouncer.*

*I'll see you next week then; perhaps we can, like, have lunch, **sort of thing**.*

Thing is commonly used with a preceding noun modifier to describe phenomena which are either recent, difficult to categorise or best described in deliberately vague terms:

*I think **the whole Euro thing** has got completely out of control.*

***This new man thing** may have gone too far. More of them than ever are going shopping.*

[reference to public reaction after the death of Princess Diana]
The whole Diana thing *is very unBritish. It shows they are not cold and unemotional after all.*

Lucky thing, etc.

Thing marks both positive (usually affectionate) and negative attitudes, mainly when accompanied by appropriate adjectives:

Our dog's getting a bit old now, ***poor thing****.*

You ***lucky thing****! I suppose you are on your third holiday this year.*

We found the book distasteful and don't intend to stock ***the thing*** *on our shelves.*

Thingy, etc.

The words *thingy*, *thingummy*, *thingamabob* and *thingamajig* are also used in similar ways and offer a more colloquial alternative. Such words are normally used with reference to objects in the immediate situation and are not widely used as alternatives to *thing*:

Can you get me that little metal ***thingy*** *over there on the workbench?*

Stuff 74b

Stuff is also one of the most frequent nouns in spoken English. It functions in very similar ways to *thing*, though it is a non-count noun. It commonly occurs in vague expressions such as *stuff like that*:

Where can I put my ***stuff****?*
(or: Where can I put my things?)

I can't remember. All that chemistry ***stuff*** *is just too hard to learn.*

Don't give me all that ***stuff****. You've nothing to apologise for.*

There wasn't much to do really. Just a few shops, a small beach, a few sailing boats and all ***that kind of stuff****.*

He just told us to try hard ***and stuff like that****.*

THOUGH

A–Z **15 *Although, though***

TOO

A–Z **14 *Also, as well (as), too***

UNDER

A–Z **25 *Below***

UNTIL

A–Z 24 *Before*

WAIT FOR

A–Z 40 *Expect*

WANT 75

Want has three basic meanings:

1 *Tell me what you* ***want*** *to do*. (wish/desire)
2 *My hair* ***wants*** *cutting*. (needs – always with *-ing* form)
3 *You* ***want*** *to sign that credit card immediately*. (you should/I advise you to)

2 and **3** are more associated with informal spoken language. Only meaning **1** occurs with *want* in the progressive form.

Want + infinitive 75a

Want is used with an infinitive, including when the subject of the verb in the complement clause is another person or thing; it is not used with a *that*-clause:

> ***I want him to think*** *about his future.*
> (~~I want that he thinks about his future.~~)

Want always requires complementation, either an object or an infinitive *to*-clause, even in reduced clauses (e.g. short answers):

> A: *What shall I do with the knife?*
> B: *Leave it there. Gladys* ***wants it****.*
> (~~Leave it there. Gladys wants.~~)

> A: *Why aren't you eating?*
> B: *Because I don't* ***want any****.*
> (~~Because I don't want.~~)

> A: *I've made some cakes, d'you* ***want one****?*
> A: *Yes, please.*
> (~~D'you want?~~)

> A: *Are you coming with us tonight?*
> B: *No thanks, I don't* ***want to****.*
> (understood: … come with you)
> (~~No thanks, I don't want.~~)

A: *Well, that's what she said, anyway.*
B: *I don't know why she keeps saying that. It's not as if I* ***want her to****.*
(~~It's not as if I want her.~~)

Want + *it* 75b

In informal spoken language, even when the object is first mentioned as an indefinite entity, the object of *want* can be *it*, rather than *one/some/any*:

There's olive oil if you ***want it****.*

I can have a day off when I ***want it****.*

There's a toilet there if you ***want it****.*

Want with *wh*-words, *want* with *if* 75c

With *wh*-words, it is often not necessary to use the infinitive marker *to* after *want*:

Later in life you can do ***what*** *you* ***want****, go out* ***when*** *you* ***want****, study* ***when*** *you* ***want****.*

You can come in and pick it up ***whenever*** *you* ***want****.*

You can go ***wherever*** *you* ***want*** *and still be bored.*

However, in such cases, *to* can be used:

You can leave ***whenever*** *you* ***want to****.*

With *if* the infinitive marker *to* is often omitted in affirmative clauses:

You can come later ***if*** *you* ***want****.*

However, *to* is normally used with *if* in negative clauses:

You don't have to do it ***if*** *you don't* ***want to****.*

Want with progressive verb forms 75d

Although *want* mostly occurs in simple tense forms, in informal spoken language it often occurs with progressive forms. The use of progressive often expresses tentativeness, indirectness or politeness:

*What we****'re*** *really* ***wanting*** *to do is to make sure people have one name they can contact.*

[telephone enquiry to travel agent]
Oh, hello, my husband and I ***are wanting*** *to go to the Hook of Holland next weekend.*

*I'****m wanting*** *desperately to do the right thing.*

The progressive is also used to emphasise an ongoing or repeated process:

[tennis player speaking]
The coach ***was wanting*** *us to win big matches and things like that.*

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*We**'ve been wanting** to get it under way for years, and now I think it'll go in leaps and bounds.*

A: *How do you encourage your own children as regards education?*
B: *It all depends on what they**'re wanting** to do.*

Want + *-ing* form 75e

Want is often used in informal contexts with a verb in the *-ing* form to express a meaning of necessity:

*The grass **wants cutting**.*
(needs to be cut)

*The fridge **wants cleaning** out.*

The meaning of *want* + *-ing* form can also correspond to a pseudo-passive construction:

*I've got some pictures I **want enlarging**.*
(which I want to have enlarged)

Want and speech acts of advice/warning 75f

Want to is used in informal spoken language to advise, recommend or warn (most commonly with a second person subject). It is almost always in present tense, and is often followed by a *be* + *-ing* verb form:

*Put some more water in. **You don't want to make** it too strong.*

[talking about whether young people should look to the future or more to their present needs]
*At that age you need a bit of both. **You want to be looking** ahead and **you want to be improving** your skills as well.*

WELL 76

Well is an adverb and a discourse marker.

Adverb *well* 76a

As an adverb, *well* has the meaning of 'satisfactorily':

*I slept really **well** last night.*

*She talks **well** for a two-year-old, doesn't she?*

Discourse marker *well* 76b

A main function of *well* as a discourse marker is to indicate that the speaker is thinking about things:

A: *What do you think of the department's plan?*
B: ***Well**, let's see, it's certainly better than the last one, I'll say that.*

A: *Why did she say that?*
B: ***Well**, I don't know, I mean, maybe she wants to move house.*

Well normally occurs at the beginning of a turn. But it can occur in the middle of an utterance if a speaker is revising what is said or is searching for an alternative expression:

*I never said I was happy, **well**, all right then, I might have said I was not unhappy.*

Well also indicates that the speaker is saying something which contrasts with what has just been said or which does not follow the expectation of what was said:

A: *You always go out to your evening class on a Tuesday.*
B: ***Well**, tonight I'm too tired and I'm staying in.*

A: *D'you live in Cambridge?*
B: ***Well**, near Cambridge.*
(B cannot answer the *yes-no* question with a *yes* or a *no*; *well* shifts the predicted direction)

Well can also signal that something surprising is about to be announced:

*You know I said I went to Jill's last night, **well**, you'll never guess who I saw there.*

Well can sometimes signal the opening or closing of a topic or speech event:

***Well**, let's get started, shall we?*

***Well**, that's all for now. We'll see you again at the same time next week.*

Well commonly clusters with other discourse markers, adverbs and adverbial phrases:

***Well, actually**, I don't think she has agreed.*

***Well, as a matter of fact**, I've bought a flat in the village.*

Well is also used, often in a cluster with other words, to mark attitudes and feelings, usually in response to a situation:

***Well, well, well**, I never knew that.*
(surprise)

***Well really**, that's awful behaviour.*
(anger)

***Oh well**, there's not much we can do about it.*
(resignation)

A good dictionary will give further information about the range of attitudes that are conveyed by *well*.

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WHATEVER 77

Whatever is a determiner, a pronoun and an adverb.

Determiner *whatever* 77a

As a determiner, *whatever* commonly appears in a noun phrase with a clausal complement:

Whatever money I have *has to go on food.*

Whatever choice you make *will be the right one.*

They had to rely on ***whatever food they were given by the villagers****.*

Pronoun *whatever* 77b

As a pronoun and head of a noun phrase, *whatever* can occur in interrogatives:

Whatever *does she see in him?*

Whatever *is he doing with that car?*

Whatever meaning 'regardless of' 77c

Whatever also occurs in subordinate clauses and has a meaning of 'no matter what', 'regardless of', 'it makes no difference':

Whatever *you decide to do in the future, you can rely on our support.*

Okay, let's go, ***whatever*** *the weather.*

Whatever *new clothes she bought, she always ended up taking them back.*

Adverb *whatever* 77d

Whatever can also function as an adverb in negative and interrogative clauses with a meaning of 'at all'. It can be substituted by the form *whatsoever*, which adds further emphasis, especially in negative phrases:

He has ***no respect whatever*** *from the people he works with.*

Are there ***any objections whatever*** *to his proposal?*

They have ***no interest whatsoever*** *in football.*

Whatever for vagueness 77e

Whatever is used, especially in spoken English, to indicate a deliberately vague or non-committal reference, especially when the exact name or meaning of something or someone is not known. It can be used to continue a list:

So you log on and just click the songs and artists you need using that search tool ***or whatever****.*

Now to prepare the soup we need shallots, tomatoes, chillies, red peppers and vegetable stock and then all those herbs ***and whatever.***

Whatever for lack of interest 77f

Whatever can indicate agreement but it can also create a negative tone and indicate either lack of interest or that agreement is a token or unwilling agreement. In such examples the form is often ellipted:

A: *I thought we'd go to southern Italy this year. I think that those southern parts are a lot less crowded.*
B: *Yeah,* ***whatever you think****. That's fine.*
(whatever it is you think)

A: *So, shall I invite them round?*
B: *Sure.* ***Whatever****.*
(whatever you like)

WHILE 78

While is a subordinating conjunction and a noun.

Conjunction *while* 78a

As a conjunction, *while* corresponds in meaning to the preposition *during*:

While *you're at the swimming pool, I think I'm going to pop into town.*

I made three phone calls ***while*** *they were at lunch.*

Some members of the audience fell asleep ***while*** *he was talking to them.*
(Some members of the audience fell asleep during his talk.)

Within a sentence, *while* is used to refer to a simultaneous time relationship between two actions or states:

Geoff phoned ***while*** *you were walking the dog.*

While *I watched the match, Jill watched a film on the other TV.*

Was the package delivered ***while*** *I was working out at the gym?*

While can be used in clauses where the subject and the verb *to be* are ellipted:

While *holidaying in Malaysia, they received the news that their daughter had secretly married.*
(While they were holidaying in Malaysia …)

While *on the subject, why don't we write a joint letter of complaint to the hotel?*
(While we are on the subject …)

Do not depress the button ***while*** *dialling.*
(… while you are dialling …)

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While can also be used to contrast two ideas or statements; a clause with *while* is put first and is then followed by a contrast. In this meaning, no time relationship is expressed:

> ***While*** *it is clearly a good idea to involve them, I don't think they should be included in everything.*
>
> ***While*** *the university regrets the incident, it cannot be held responsible for cars parked in its car parks.*

Whilst

Whilst is a more formal alternative to *while* and is normally only found in writing:

> ***Whilst*** *the company accepts the apology, it is still to decide whether to take matters further.*

✪ *As* and *while* are sometimes confused. *As* not *while* is used to describe two situations which change in parallel:

> ***As*** *they get more experience, their tactics will become more sophisticated.*
> (~~While they get more experience, their tactics will become more sophisticated.~~)

A–Z 19 *As*

Noun *while* 78b

As a noun, *while* frequently occurs in a number of fixed phrases. Most of the phrases have a temporal meaning:

> *It'll take quite* ***a while*** *before they're finished.*
> (a period of time)
>
> *The captain will be there* ***in a while*** *to help out.*
> (in a short time)
>
> *And* ***all the while*** *they continued the protest and even began to shout as the councillors went into the building.*
> (during this time)
>
> *We'll definitely make it* ***worth your while****.*
> (worth your time)

Other uses of the noun *while* include: *a good/long/short/little while, some while ago, after a while.*

WITH 79

With is a preposition which has a basic spatial meaning of 'in the same place as' or 'being alongside':

> *Coffee* ***with cream*** *£1.50.*
>
> ***With the tip****, the bill came to over £100.*

*We are **with you** all the way in this. You are quite right to insist that she stops smoking.*
(*with* is metaphorical here, meaning 'we agree')

*I'm sorry, I'm not **with you**.*
(*with* is also metaphorical here, meaning 'I don't understand you')

In many uses, *with* indicates particular personal attributes:

*That girl **with the red hair** looks like a fashion model.*

With can also be used to show an instrument. This meaning can be extended to include a reference to 'means' and 'manner':

*They opened the package **with a knife**.*

*They reacted **with great excitement**.*

*Handle **with care**.*

With can also mean 'because of having' or 'as a result of having'. These meanings are especially common in spoken English:

***With all this work**, I'd better stay in tonight.*

***With John away**, we've got a spare bed after all.*

*We found it difficult to sleep in the hotel **with all those kids on motorbikes** down in the plaza.*

In reports (e.g. sports reports, weather reports) *with* can have a meaning of 'as well' or 'and additionally'. It is followed by a verb in the *-ing* form:

*Roma completed a much deserved victory **with** di Canio **scoring** again in time added on for injury.*

*The weather for the south of England is likely to remain unsettled **with** showers **crossing** most regions in the late evening.*

When indicating reasons and outcomes, *with* or *what with* is often linked to giving reasons and explanations about adverse or problematic circumstances. *With* commonly occurs in subordinate clauses with an *-ing* form of the verb. The verb can sometimes be omitted:

A: *Do you still listen to Scottish music?*
B: *Since this pair have arrived, very very little, cos you just don't have the time, and **with** the new house and **with** the garden.*

***With** friends like this, who needs enemies?*

***With** there **being** no buses, we had to get a taxi, which cost us a fortune.*

***What with** it **being** student night as well, there were no tickets left to get in to the club.*

***With** half the staff (**being**) at the conference, several classes had to be taught together.*

***With** (**having**) all this work, I'd better stay in tonight.*

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As a preposition, *with* commonly occurs with words which express emotions:

*She was green **with** envy.*

*The group leader became very angry **with** their drunken behaviour.*

*Down **with** socialism!*

*Come on, into the bath **with** you!*

WORTH, WORTHWHILE 80

Worth 80a

Worth is used with anticipatory *it* + a verb in the *-ing* form (not a *to*-infinitive) to state whether the speaker thinks something is a good idea:

*If you get a good reliable car, **it's worth keeping** it, isn't it, because if you get a bad car, it keeps costing you money.*
(here the first *it* is the anticipatory *it*; the second *it* is the object of *keep*, i.e. the car)
(~~it's worth to keep it~~)

A person or thing may also be the grammatical subject of a clause with *be worth* + *-ing* form:

***He** might not be **worth marrying** if he works for the railways. They don't earn much.*

*It's an interesting book. **It's worth reading**.*
(here *it* refers back to the book)

It (be) worth it can be used to refer to clauses or sentences:

*I'm not going to argue about semantics. **It's** just **not worth it**.*

*I went without all the luxuries to stay with the children. But **it was worth it**.*

*I think **it was worth it**, giving up what I was doing.*

Worthwhile 80b

The adjective *worthwhile* is commonly used with anticipatory *it* + *-ing* form:

***It** might be **worthwhile taking** the car, you know.*

It (be) worthwhile is used in a similar way to *it (be) worth it* (**80a** above), to refer to clauses or sentences:

A: *It's not that far away from London. And there are lots of villages where you can rent workshops, and out in the countryside.*
B: *Mm. I bet that's expensive round here, though. I imagine it could be very expensive. I don't know whether **it would be worthwhile**.*

Worthwhile is occasionally written as two words (*worth while*) when it is used predicatively, and, especially in informal spoken language, *while* may be preceded by a possessive determiner:

*It might be **worth their while** to just buy a mobile phone, to be honest.*

YET 81

Time adverb *yet* 81a

Yet as a time adverb is used most frequently in negative clauses and in interrogative clauses, especially in informal spoken language. Its other uses account for only a small number of occurrences.

Interrogative clauses

Yet as a time adverb means 'from an indefinite moment in the past up to the moment of speaking', and it includes the notion that events were expected to have happened or are expected to happen at some point in the future, or that their occurrence was or is desirable in the view of the speaker:

Have you heard from your husband ***yet****?*
(I/you were expecting this to happen or considered it desirable)

A: *Have you phoned up your sister* ***yet****?*
B: *No I haven't.*

Negative questions with *yet* can express an even stronger expectation or desire that something should happen or should have happened:

Is he home ***yet****?*
(affirmative question: expectation that he will be home at some point)

*Has****n't*** *Richard arrived* ***yet****?*
(negative question: even stronger expectation at the moment of speaking that he should have arrived)

*Samantha, have****n't*** *you finished* ***yet****?*
(speaker feels Samantha should have finished by now)

Negative clauses

Statements with *yet* express an expectation on the part of the speaker that events should or will take place at some point in the future. Most statements with *yet* are negative, especially in informal spoken language:

[speaker B, Deirdre, is asked what she wants to study at university]
A: *What about you, Deirdre? What are you going to do?*
B: *Erm, I'm going to go for Arts as well, but I don't know.*
A: *Yeah. But you do****n't*** *have to make a decision* ***yet****.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *I mean, you could spend the first two months going to every single lecture till you made up your mind, you know.*

A: *What time is it?*
B: *It's* ***not*** *even four o'clock* ***yet****.*
A: *Oh, that's fair enough.*
B: *It's quarter to four.*

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Affirmative clauses

Affirmative statements with *yet* are closer in meaning to *still* (see below), and *yet* most typically occurs in end position. It expresses the persistence or continuation of a situation, even when one might have expected it not to persist or continue:

[ships and boats are often referred to as *she* rather than *it*]
Toby said: 'She should be called the Old Lady of the Seas. Do you know, she is thirty-five years old? Most would have been thinking of retiring. But there is life in the old lady ***yet****. She is the finest ship I ever sailed in …'*
(or: there is still life in the old lady/there is life in the old lady still)

[speaker B has returned from a holiday]
A: *Did you take enough money in the end?*
B: *Oh yes. I brought a lot back. Because I didn't pay for my trip to Grenada. I have that to pay for* ***yet****.*
(or: 'I still have that to pay for'; one might reasonably have expected the trip to Grenada to have already been paid for, like the rest of the speaker's holiday)

With superlatives

Yet as a time adverb often follows superlatives:

His latest film is his ***best yet****.*
(His latest film is the best one he has made up to now.)

[about an artist named Keith Ball]
But back to his work as an artist: this summer Ball got his ***biggest*** *break* ***yet*** *when he was awarded $15,000 from the Pollock Krasner Foundation in New York.*

Future plans are on a much bigger scale, with vast segments of the sea recreated in some of the ***largest*** *aquaria* ***yet*** *to be seen in Britain.*

Have yet to, be yet to

The modal expression *have to*, and less frequently the modal *be to*, occur in more formal styles with *yet* in the fixed sequences *have yet to* and *be yet to* to refer to events which are considered necessary or due to happen but which have not happened so far:

[review of a new computer program]
Pricing ***has yet to*** *be finalised but it will sell in the US for $49.95, so a £49.95 price tag is more than likely.*

For reasons Neil ***had yet to*** *understand, Caroline seemed pleased that Dr Barbara had become more authoritarian.*

Compulsory seat-belts ***have yet to*** *have any noticeable effect on road accident statistics in Britain, despite many exaggerated press reports. Experts agree that it is far too soon to tell how many lives the belt law has saved.*

Of all the seasons, spring is perhaps the finest for walking as the crowds ***are yet to*** *arrive and the cliff-top flora is at its most vivid.*

The international community ***is yet to*** *declare what measures it intends to implement to help to resolve this crisis. There is now a real concern that any escalation in the conflict could lead to a major refugee crisis in an already overloaded region.*

As yet

As yet only occurs in negative statements (not in questions):

[A is the store assistant; *Delta* and *Switch* are types of debit card]
A: *We will be taking Delta and Switch in every store by the end of the year.*
B: *Oh right.*
A: ***As yet** it's not available in every store.*

Concessive conjunct *yet* 81b

Yet is used with a concessive function, with a meaning close to 'but', 'nevertheless', to indicate that the action, state or event in the previous clause should be seen or evaluated in the light of the *yet*-clause. It often occurs after *and*:

*Connie felt dim with terror, **yet** she stood quite still, touching the flowers.*

*All this sounds a very old story now! **And yet** it is not such a long time ago.*

This meaning of *yet* is more frequent in written language.

Intensifier *yet* 81c

Yet often occurs as an intensifier, with a meaning similar to 'even', especially with *more*, *another* and *again*:

*Nature is already taking a hammering from intensive farming and the introduction of genetically modified crops may push **yet more** species over the edge.*

*The cook arrived with **yet another** plate of cake.*

A: *I mean, the big supermarkets stayed open till twelve o'clock at night.*
B: *So small businesses lost out **yet again** because of the supermarkets.*
A: *Mm.*

Yet, still, already 81d

Still with affirmatives refers to the continuation of an action, state or event:

A: *I haven't any great desire to go abroad actually, you know.*
B: *Yes, there's **still** a lot of places in this country I'd like to see.*

A: *We've **still** got a pot of rice pudding in our fridge from Andrew's last visit.*
B: *Have you?*
A: *So we'll have to eat it.*
B: *Don't you like it?*
A: *Yeah I do, I just don't think of eating it.*

Yet or *already* cannot replace *still* in such contexts.

also **81a**

With negatives, *still* indicates that the speaker considers the continued absence or non-occurrence of something to be undesirable:

*I **still** haven't found Marie's phone number. I know I wrote it down.*
('I haven't found it yet' would simply mean that it is missing up to the moment of speaking; 'I still haven't found …' emphasises the continued inability to find the phone number)

Note also the difference in position between *yet* and *still* in negative clauses. *Yet* normally occurs after the lexical verb:

*I haven't **finished yet**.*

More formally, *yet* occurs after the first auxiliary verb or modal verb and after *not*:

*The contractors **had not yet** finished work on the road.*
(written: more formal)

Still normally occurs before the first auxiliary or modal verb:

*You know, it's dark now and she **still hasn't** arrived.*

More formally, *still* occurs after the first auxiliary verb and before *not*:

*An agreement **has still not** been reached.*
(more formal)

Informally, *still* occurs before copular verb *be*; more formally, *still* occurs after copular *be* and before *not*:

*The man **still wasn't** satisfied.*
(informal)

*She **was still not** certain that she believed him.*
(more formal)

A–Z **72 *Still***

Already refers to an action, state or event which has occurred or may have occurred before the moment of speaking. *Already* may sometimes suggest surprise on the part of the speaker or that something is unexpected:

*Is it seven o'clock **already**?*
(the speaker did not expect it to be so late; compare 'Is it seven o'clock yet?', which would be more neutral, with the expectation that seven o'clock may be not far off)

A–Z **13 *Already***

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Introduction to grammar and spoken English

SPOKEN LANGUAGE 82

Until recently, items and structures most typically found in spoken communication have not been fully described. Most grammars of English have had a bias towards the written language. It is only recently that advances in audio-recording and associated technology have made it possible for sufficient quantities of spoken language to be used for analysis.

This chapter focuses on spoken English in its own right. Most chapters of this grammar book include mention of differences between spoken and written grammar and aspects of context that affect choices of grammar. Those chapters give more detailed examples of items and structures described in this chapter.

It is difficult fully to represent spoken grammar in a written book. Although the corpus used as the source of examples in this book provides useful evidence of spoken usage, the corpus has not been systematically coded for phonetic and prosodic features. Variations in stress, intonation contour, voice quality and other aspects such as loudness and tempo, rhythm and length of pauses are not indicated. And the citations from the corpus are presented in written form so that there always remains an underlying bias towards writing in the transcription itself.

This bias towards written language also means that appropriate terms for describing special features of spoken grammar are not always available in existing grammatical frameworks. In some cases new terminology has to be introduced. An example is the use of the terms *headers* and *tails* in **96–97**.

The chapters on spoken English in this book are constructed on the basis of four main features of spoken language:

1. Spoken language happens in real time and is typically unplanned.
2. Spoken language is most typically face to face.
3. Spoken language foregrounds choices which reflect the immediate social and interpersonal situation.
4. Spoken language and written language are not sharply divided but exist on a continuum.

The four features overlap. For example, the very fact that spoken language typically occurs face to face means that it is usually unplanned. It should also be acknowledged that written language involves social and interpersonal choices, for example in the writing of personal letters or emails, or in constructing persuasive arguments.

EVERYDAY INFORMAL CONVERSATIONS 83

The following extract from an informal, casual conversation illustrates several of the important features of informal spoken grammar. The features are used regularly by speakers of British English across different regions and contexts of

use and by speakers of different ages, genders, social classes and occupations. Potentially problematic areas for a traditional, written-based grammar book are highlighted in bold.

[Four speakers are sitting at the dinner table talking about a car accident that happened to the father of one of the speakers. At the end of this sequence they switch to another topic. *I'll just take* ***that*** *off* and *Have you got hold of* ***it****?* are references to a large pan which is on the dinner table.]

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
A: *I'll just take that off.* ***Take that off****.*
B: ***All looks great****.*
C: [laughs]
B: *Mm.*
C: *Mm.*
B: *I think your dad was amazed wasn't he at the damage.*
A: *Mm.*
B: *It's not so much the parts. It's the labour charges for=*
D: ***Oh that****.* ***For a car****.*
B: *Have you got hold of* ***it****?*
A: *Yeah.*
B: ***It was a bit erm****=*
A: *Mm.*
C: *Mm.*
B: ***A bit****.*
A: *That's right.*
B: ***I mean*** *they said they'd have to take his car in for two days. And he said all it is is straightening a panel.* ***And they're like****, 'Oh no. It's all new panel. You can't do this'.*
C: ***Any erm problem****.*
B: ***As soon as they hear insurance claim****. Oh. Let's get it right.*
C: *Yeah. Yeah.* ***Anything to do with****+*
A: ***Wow****.*
C: *+****coach work is er****+*
A: ***Right****.*
C: *+****fatal isn't it****.*
A: ***Now****.*

The following features can be observed:

1 Sentences in the written sense (i.e. units beginning with capital letters, consisting of at least one main clause and ending in a full stop) are difficult to identify in spoken language. What seems more important is the production of adequate communicative units and the taking of turns rather than the transition from one sentence to another.
2 Speech is marked by small units of communication often consisting of just single words or phrases, rather than complete sentences, and these units may be separated by pauses, intakes of breath, falls and rises in pitch, and so on (e.g. *Oh that. // Right. // Any problem.*).

539 **Glossary** for any unfamiliar terms

3 The minimal unit of communication is the tone unit, which consists of at least one intonation contour which ends in a rising or falling tone. If a unit does not have one such intonation contour, it is heard as incomplete. A tone unit typically coincides with a clause, hence the clause may be considered the basic unit of grammar in spoken language, but tone units can also be phrases or single words:

Complete tone units: stressed syllables in bold capitals

*I'm **LOO**king for a **PEN**cil.*

***ARE**n't you **READ**y?*

*I **KNOW**! it's **CRA**zy!*
(two tone units: two falling tones)

***DID** she?*

***ANY**way.*

***ME**?*

Incomplete tone units: stressed syllables in capitals

I'm LOOking for a …
(incomplete because no rising or falling tone is present, only a level tone)

DID she …

4 Speakers' turns, unlike written sentences, are not neat and tidy. The speakers regularly interrupt each other, or speak at the same time, intervene in another's contribution or overlap in their speaking turns. And any transcript of a real conversation is much less tidy than the layout of a dialogue in a drama script or in a course book for learning a language.

5 Listeners are not just passive recipients. There are back-channel items (e.g. *Mm*, *Yeah*), by which listeners give feedback, and other (normally supportive) responses (e.g. *Right*).

6 There are abandoned or incomplete structures (e.g. *It was a bit erm … A bit*.). 'Incomplete' structures rarely cause any problem of understanding, and can be collaboratively completed by others. For example, the utterance *For a car* shows one speaker completing the utterance of another.

7 References to people and things in the immediate situation may be incomprehensible to an outsider reading the transcript. The speakers say *Take **that off*** and *Have you got hold of **it***?. Without being present at the time of speaking or without a considerable amount of previous text, it is not clear at all to an outsider what *that* and *it* refer to, or *off* where it is supposed to be removed.

8 'Subordinate' clauses are present but they are not always obviously connected to any particular main clause (e.g. the clause *As soon as they hear insurance claim*).

9 There are structures which are difficult to label (is the second *Take that off* an ellipted form of *I'll just take that off*? Is it an imperative? What is the status of *And they're like*? *Like* appears to function here to mark a direct speech report (i.e. *And they said …*). (For this use of ***like***, ⋯ **49** and **501e**.)

10 Ellipsis is common (e.g. [it] *All looks great*.). Ellipsis occurs when words usually considered 'obligatory' (e.g. a subject for a verb in a declarative clause) are not needed because they can be understood from the immediate context or from the knowledge which is shared between speakers. For speakers and listeners, there are no words 'missing', and what we call ellipsis is simply an economical and sufficient form of communication which is different from the typical grammar of written English, where greater elaboration and specification is usually necessary because the written text is usually being read at a different time and place from when it was created.

11 Some 'words' have an uncertain status as regards grammar. (e.g. *Wow*. *Now*.) For example, *wow* has an exclamative function, showing the speaker's reaction to something that has been said or that has happened, and seems to stand on its own. *Right* and *now* at the end of the extract seem to be organisational or structural (rather than referring to time), functioning to close down one topic or phase of the conversation and to move on to another phase. This use of *right* and *now* is a discourse-marking use. Such frequent words often connect one phase of the discourse with another and are outside of 'grammar' when grammar refers to the structure of phrases, clauses and sentences. **113 Interjections** and **106 Discourse markers**

12 Despite these special characteristics of spoken transcripts, it is important to remember that the majority of grammatical items and structures are equally at home in speech and writing. In this chapter the emphasis will be on those structures which are most frequently found in the everyday informal conversations in the spoken corpus used in the creation of this book and which differ most markedly from the grammar of the texts in the written corpus.

THE NOTION OF STANDARD SPOKEN GRAMMAR 84

The term 'standard grammar' is most typically associated with written language, and is usually considered to be characteristic of the recurrent usage of adult, educated native speakers of a language. Standard grammar ideally reveals no particular regional bias. Thus 'Standard British English' grammar consists of items and forms that are found in the written usage of adult educated native speakers from Wales, Scotland and England and those Northern Irish users who consider themselves part of the British English speech community.

The typical sources of evidence for standard usage are literary texts, quality journalism, academic and professional writing, etc. Standard grammar is given the status of the official record of educated usage by being written down in grammar books and taught in schools and universities.

Spoken transcripts often have frequent occurrences of items and structures considered incorrect according to the norms of standard written English. However, many such forms are frequently and routinely used by adult, educated native speakers. Examples of such structures are split infinitives (e.g. *We decided* ***to*** *immediately* ***sell*** *it*), double negation (e.g. *He* ***won't*** *be late* ***I don't*** *think*, as compared to *I* ***don't*** *think he* ***will*** *be late*), singular nouns after plural measurement expressions (e.g. *He's about six* ***foot*** *tall*), the use of contracted forms such as *gonna* (*going to*), *wanna* (*want to*), and so on.

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

Standard spoken English grammar will therefore be different from standard written English grammar in many respects if we consider 'standard' to be a description of the recurrent spoken usage of adult native speakers. What may be considered 'non-standard' in writing may well be 'standard' in speech.

Speech and writing are not independent. Although some forms of spoken grammar do not appear in writing (unless in written dialogues), there is considerable overlap and there is an increasing range of forms appearing in informal written texts which previously were only considered acceptable in speech. In **120** the presence of typically spoken grammatical forms in such contexts as emails and internet chat-room exchanges is discussed.

Grammatical acceptability **85**

In this book the following criteria* are adopted for grammatical acceptability in British English to determine whether or not an item or structure is included.'Widespread' here means across speakers of both genders and across a wide range of ages and social and regional backgrounds.

- Included: in widespread use in both the written and spoken corpus (most forms are in this category).
- Included: in widespread use in both the written and spoken corpus but not approved in more prescriptive grammar books and often avoided by many writers of formal English, for example, split infinitives, stranded prepositions (e.g. *That's the woman I gave it* ***to***, compared with *That's the woman* ***to*** *whom I gave it*).
- Included: rare or not occurring in the written corpus but widespread and normal in the spoken corpus (⋯ for example, **96 Headers** and **97 Tails**), and vice versa.
- Not included: regionally or socially marked in the written and/or spoken corpus but widespread and normal within major regional/social varieties of British English (⋯ for example, the use of *ain't*, **119b**).
- Not included: non-occurring and unacceptable in all varieties of British English (for example a structure such as *he did must speak*).

SPOKEN GRAMMAR AND REAL-TIME COMMUNICATION 86

Unplanned speech 86a

Spoken language is normally unplanned. There are occasions when what is said is memorised or read aloud from a script, but speech mainly takes place in real time. It is 'online' communication, it is spontaneous and there is normally very little time for advance planning.

Because thinking time is limited, pauses, repetitions and rephrasings are common. The flow of a communication may also be affected by interruptions or by overlaps with other speakers or by external factors in the speech situation (e.g. a phone ringing may take someone temporarily away).

In writing there are usually opportunities to plan and hierarchically structure the text. The writer can usually rephrase or edit what is written. In speech, utterances are linked together as if in a chain. One piece of information follows after another and speakers have few opportunities for starting again.

* Our thanks to Susan Hunston for suggesting this list of categories.

Simple phrasal structures 86b

Structures which are often quite complex in writing (e.g. heavily modified noun phrases, embedded clauses) are often simplified in real-time informal speech. Some examples are discussed here and in **94 Situational ellipsis**.

Pronouns

The 'online' nature of spoken communication means that pronouns are often preferred to nouns. Pronouns are only rarely modified and are therefore easier to construct and allow speed of communication. They also indicate the shared context of the speakers and reflect the face-to-face nature of the communication, where references are often to persons and things in the immediate situation.

Pronouns referring to things in the shared context are in bold in this extract:

[four people are assembling a child's portable bed, for which they have instructions]
A: ***It*** *should fit there cos* ***it****'s not that big I don't think.*
B: ***It****'s warm in here, shall I turn* ***that*** *down?*
A: *We've got the instructions anyway.*
C: *I thought you'd organised* ***it*** *… just put* ***it*** *by the window or something.*
D: *D'you want me to take* ***that****?*
B: *Ooh … then there's bedding for about ten people here* [laughs].

Full noun phrases

The use of multiple modifiers before a head noun in a noun phrase rarely happens in everyday informal speech. Speakers are alert to the constraints which listeners are under in processing information. In informal conversation there is an overwhelming preference for a very simple structure of determiner (+ one adjective) + noun such as:

Yeah it's ***a big house****,* ***six bedrooms****.*
(compare the possible alternative: It's a big, six-bedroom house.)

It's ***a large house****, lovely, just right.*

However, in writing, it is not difficult to find more complex adjectival structures:

Living in ***a big****,* ***dirty****,* ***communal house*** *eating rubbish …*

The ***cosy****,* ***lace-curtained*** *house …*

Simple noun phrases are not a *rule* of spoken grammar, but it is a very strong tendency. Any speaker may use a structurally complex noun phrase in spoken communication (for example in a public speech or presentation), but in casual conversation they will probably be heard as rather formal. Similarly, a writer may wish to create a more informal, interactive and dialogic style and may make such choices for different expressive purposes.

Phrasal chaining

The constraints of thinking-time mean that speaker turns typically contain phrasal chunks of information built up in stages, often by means of sequences of adjective phrases or of simple noun phrases. This accounts for the basic

characteristic of spoken grammar as being more like the strung-together coaches of a train or links of a chain rather than a carefully constructed hierarchy of embedded structures, one inside the other:

For that time of year you need a polo-shirt or something, ***light****,* ***cool****, you know* ***short sleeves****,* ***cotton****.*
(compare: a light, cool, short-sleeved, cotton shirt)

I mean Andy is very ***talented*** *…* ***good teacher****,* ***good diplomat****,* ***nice bloke****.*
(compare: Andy is a nice, talented, good, diplomatic person and teacher.)

167–175 The noun phrase, **197–212 Pronouns** and **140–154 Grammar and academic English** for a wider range of examples of premodification and postmodification with reference to nouns and pronouns in both spoken and written contexts

also **236–241 Adjectives and adjective phrases**

CLAUSE COMBINATION 87

Real-time communication 87a

One of the most notable features of clause combination in informal spoken English is the way in which clauses are strung together in a sequence with one clause unit added to another in a non-hierarchical way.

The needs of real-time communication do not allow the speaker time to construct over-elaborate patterns of main and subordinate clauses. Much more common are sequences of clauses linked by coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *or*) or by simple subordinating conjunctions such as *because* (frequently contracted to *cos*) and *so*, which often function more like coordinating rather than subordinating conjunctions:

[the speaker is talking about her friend, Melanie, who was looking for a part-time job]
Well, no, Melanie's actually still a student ***and*** *she still has ten hours of lectures a week,* ***so*** *she works in McDonald's in her spare time* ***cos*** *she needs the money* ***and*** *she works in McDonald's in Hatfield …*

[the speaker is describing a motor accident in which she was involved]
I was driving along talking to Sue ***and*** *we'd, like, stopped at some traffic lights* ***and*** *then – bang – there was this almighty crash* ***and*** *we got pushed forward all of a sudden.*

[speakers are talking about discrepancies in a colleague's wages]
A: *I bet they've paid her for Sunday not paid her for the Bank Holiday, Friday and Monday.* ***Cos*** *that would make your nine hours wouldn't it.*
B: *Yeah.* ***Cos*** *she's got the Saturday down the same as I did* ***cos*** *we all did the Saturday.*

A–Z **23 *Because/cos***

Subordinate clauses 87b

Informal spoken English includes subordinate clauses that occupy complete speaker turns. Such clauses often occur in conversation when one speaker takes over and maintains another speaker's topic or when another speaker provides a further comment. They often occur after a pause, or after brief feedback from a listener and often function to evaluate what has been said (such clauses are in bold in the examples below):

A: *So I turned round and chased after him.*
B: ***Just as I would have done***.

[talking about what is covered in an insurance policy]
A: *Oh I – I don't remember.*
B: *I just got liability.*
A: *Just liability.*
B: ***Which is good enough***. *At least it's insured.*
(comment after feedback from the listener)

A: *Well actually one person has applied.*
B: *Mm.*
A: ***Which is great***.

A: *They charge nearly a hundred pounds a week. But that's the average there, you know.*
B: *Mm.*
A: ***Though it's all relative I suppose***.

For further examples **123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences**

Clausal blends 87c

Sometimes clausal 'blends' occur. A blend is a syntactic structure which is completed in a different way from the way it began. The blend is, however, usually communicatively complete, effective and easily understood:

In fact, that's why last year they rented a nice house, in er Spain, was it, is that it was near the airport.
(more likely in writing or careful speech: The reason they rented a nice house in Spain last year was that it was near the airport.)

They've nearly finished all the building work, hasn't it?
(more likely in writing or careful speech: They've nearly finished all the building work, haven't they? Or: All the building work has been finished, hasn't it?)

POSITION OF ITEMS 88

The nature of spontaneous speech means that items often appear in positions that are dictated by communicative needs and by people's thoughts as they unfold. Compared with written English, in much casual conversation in English, positioning is generally more flexible.

Adjuncts may occur after tags, and adjuncts which do not normally occur in end position in written text regularly occur in end position in informal speech:

Spanish is more widely used isn't it ***outside of Europe****?*
(compare: Spanish is more widely used outside of Europe, isn't it?)

I was worried I was going to lose it and I did ***almost****.*
(compare: I was worried I was going to lose it and I almost did.)

You know which one I mean ***probably****.*
(compare: You probably know which one I mean.)

Are my keys in the door ***still****?*
(compare: Are my keys still in the door?)

PAUSING, REPEATING AND RECASTING 89

Pausing 89a

Pauses can be unfilled or filled. An unfilled pause is simply a silence, normally only a silence of a second or two. Longer silences are rare in casual conversations and may be heard as problematic by participants. Unfilled pauses tend to occur when a shift in topic or a change in direction is about to occur. They often coincide with syntactic boundaries such as clause units:

Pauses of longer than one second are indicated by dots […]
A: *I spoke to her last night and … well, she's not going to take the job.*
B: *How is he taking the divorce thing?*
A: *Okay, I suppose … Are you planning on shopping this afternoon?*

A filled pause is marked by a vocalisation such as *er* or *erm* (also written as *uh* and *um*) or a lexical form such as *like*, *well*, *you know*. A filled pause can mark a shift in topic, especially when accompanied by discourse markers such as *right* or *well* or *okay* (which commonly initiate a new stretch of discourse). They may also often indicate that speakers have not finished what they want to say and wish to continue:

I suppose, ***er****, she'll, she'll take over next week then?*

[A is on the telephone, then finishes that conversation (*Bye bye.*) and speaks to B (*Sorry about that.*)]
A: *Thanks ever so much. Bye bye. Sorry about that.*
B: *That's okay.* ***Er****,* ***right****, where were we?*

Filled pauses frequently precede important lexical choices underlining that the speaker takes time to select the appropriate expression:

*I, **erm**, I'm not sure what we should do here, are you?*

*It was the, **er**, the director, wasn't it?*

*I was on my way there and, **erm**, got lost, I'm afraid.*

*I think she was a bit **er** upset.*

Repeating and recasting 89b

Under the pressure of real time, speakers may repeat words or phrases or recast what they are saying. This is perfectly normal in spontaneous speech, and is not to be taken as a sign of sloppy or lazy performance:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[speaker is an insurance salesperson explaining different kinds of cover]
A: *With third party fire and theft in fact if you'd had that cover+*
B: *Mm.*
A: *+in the event of an accident **erm you you wouldn't have to pay anything. But erm you'd ha= I mean you'd have You wouldn't have to pay anything towards the claim but you'd have to sort your own damage to your car out**.*
B: *Right.*
A: *Whereas we'd pay for **the third party, like, the other others involved**.*
B: *I see right yeah.*
(despite hesitations and recasting, the message is clearly comprehensible to the listener)

Repeats are one way in which speakers may buy more time for thought. Repetition often occurs at the beginning of an utterance or clause:

***I, I'm, I'm** not sure **he'll he'll** be able to arrange that at such short notice.*

*I can't tell you, I'm afraid. **It, it** … would cause too much emotional damage.*

Recasting is another feature of real-time communication. Sometimes speakers say things too quickly and need to backtrack, in the process reformulating words and phrases; sometimes they need to qualify what was said previously:

*That's such a limited attitude, **well, okay, I know it's cautious and sensible and not just limited** but I think we've got to take more risks.*
(rephrasing and modifying the word *limited*)

[OHP = overhead projector]
*Before we start … **before we go into that level of detail**, I'm going to write it on the OHP.*
(rephrasing the subordinate clause)

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Sometimes speakers search for the right phrasings and do not find them. The desired word may be supplied by another speaker. Sometimes speakers choose not to find the right phrasings, or utterances are left incomplete, with an implicit understanding formed between the speakers:

A: *I really like the Greek salad, it's the cheese,* ***the the***
B: ***Feta***
A: ***The Feta, that's it****. It's strong but I really really like it.*

[The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short]
A: *There was* ***sort of like*** *a concrete* ***er er sea er wa= what's it called****?*
B: *Defence.*
A: ***Sea defe****= thank you. Sea defence.*

A: *Have you got hold of it?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *It was* ***a bit erm****=*
B: *Mm.*
C: *Mm.*
A: ***A bit****=*
B: *That's right.*

ORGANISING THE DISCOURSE 90

Spoken language often looks chaotic and unorganised, as many of the examples above might suggest. However, speakers do need to organise their discourse. They need to preface what they are going to say, and to reflect back upon what they have said. They also need to mark the openings and closings of topics and of whole conversations.

Specific words and structures are often used to mark boundaries in conversation between one topic, one stage or phase of the conversation, or one bit of business and the next: for example, items such as *anyway*, *right*, *okay*, *you see*, *I mean*, *mind you*, *well*, *so*, *now*. These items are called discourse markers. Discourse markers help with the planning and organisation of speech. Structurally, discourse markers function outside the boundaries of the clause. Brief examples are given here; for more detailed treatment, ··· **108**.

It is their function as organisers of larger stretches of spoken language that qualifies words or phrases or other structures for classification as discourse markers. For example, *anyway* may be used as an adjunct within the clause, but can also function as a discourse marker indicating some sort of shift in the direction of the conversation:

I shouldn't be jealous but I am ***anyway****.*
(adjunct modifying the second main clause)

A: *Sorry. You know what I mean. Sounds like you're gonna post it or something.*
B: *No.*
A: *Oh dear.* ***Anyway****, I'll have to go cos I've got to ring Bob.*
B: *Right.*
(discourse marker, signalling a desire to close the conversation)

Similarly, *right* can be an adjective or adverb, but as a discourse marker it often signals that a speaker is ready to move on to the next phase of business:

***Right**, we'd better try to phone and see what they have to report.*

For further discussion of discourse organisation, **123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences** and **242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases**

A–Z **17 *Anyway*; 52 *Mean*; 54 *Now*; 57 *Oh*; 58 *Okay/OK*; 68 *Really*; 69 *Right, rightly*; 71 *So*; 76 *Well***

SPOKEN GRAMMAR AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION 91

Spoken language is most commonly an interactive, face-to-face process. Meanings are often created by referring to shared knowledge or by an understanding based on context or because what is referred to is physically and visually present before the speakers. Many items and structures in spoken grammar, therefore, reflect the interpersonal dimension rather than the content of the message. They are outlined here and dealt with in detail in the chapters and sections referred to.

Deictic expressions such as *in here*, *over there*, *that one*, *this here*, *right now*, *then* are common (**93**). Situational ellipsis (e.g. someone asking someone: *Finished?*) is common because points of reference are often obvious to participants (**94**). Speakers also perform regular checks that understanding is shared and they work hard to provide orientation for listeners and engage them by means of headers (**96**), tails (**97**) and tags (**98**). Discourse markers (**108**) also play a vital part in maintaining a listener's involvement.

In informal, face-to-face conversations speakers are often careful not to sound too assertive or direct; normally they do not wish to seem impolite to their listeners. They are also careful not to sound over-precise, which might be taken to be threatening or pedantic. Consequently, polite forms and indirect language, purposefully vague language and approximations (**103**) are much in evidence and in ways which would be unusual in most written contexts.

From utterance to discourse

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From utterance to discourse

INTRODUCTION 92

Sections 82–91 outlined some key features of spoken language, especially the way face-to-face conversations are tied to the participants and the immediate situation in which they are speaking in real time.

In this chapter, 92–103, we consider how grammatical features in spoken utterances reflect the creation of discourse rather than just the internal construction of phrases, clauses and sentences. We use the term 'utterance' to refer to complete communicative units, which may consist of single words, phrases, clauses and clause combinations spoken in context, in contrast to the term 'sentence', which we reserve for units consisting of at least one main clause and any accompanying subordinate clauses, and marked by punctuation (capital letters and full stops) in writing.

This chapter considers how speakers orient themselves to the situation of speaking, centred on the notion of deixis. Deixis concerns the way speakers refer to people and things in terms of time and space, all in relation to the moment and situation of speaking. For example, the basic meanings of *I* and *you* in English are 'person speaking' and 'person addressed', respectively, and who the words refer to will change every time the speaker changes. Similarly, an object which is *this cup* for a speaker may be referred to as *that cup* by a listener who is separated from the speaker in space or time:

A: *What's* ***this*** *box* ***here****?*
B: *I don't know. Trash.*

[at a travel agent's; the customer (A) has just received his tickets]
A: *Right well* ***this*** *is all right now is it?*
B: ***That****'s the ticket yes.*
(what is *this* for the customer is *that* for the agent)

93

This chapter also considers how speakers encode assumptions about what can be understood from the situation without being said, and what cannot, as reflected in the phenomenon of situational ellipsis. Ellipsis, or absence of references to entities which are obvious to all participants, is common in informal speech:

A: *Finished yet?*
B: *Not yet.*
(obvious to the listener that the speaker means '*Have you* finished yet?')

94

This chapter also examines how listeners respond to messages and show their 'listenership', for example by the use of response tokens, i.e. single words and phrases that represent much more personally and affectively engaged alternatives to bare *yes* and *no*:

[talking about food preparation]
A: *Actually these things should be marinated the night before.*
B: ***Exactly***. ***Oh absolutely***. *Actually er yeah. Even the vegetables, Karen.*

The chapter then describes how speakers package the information in their messages with the listener firmly in mind (e.g. by the use of headers, informative items that precede the conventional clause structure and make the clause easier to process):

(header)

My father, ***he***'*s been in hospital three times already.*

96

In addition, the chapter considers how speakers create interactive exchanges by the use of questions and tags (short structures typically found at the end of clauses, such as *You like mushrooms,* ***don't you***?) (98).

Another important feature of spoken discourse is the purposive use of vague language (such as *sort of*, *whatever*) to project particular kinds of relationships between speakers (103).

The way speakers organise their utterances into coherent discourse and monitor it in relation to its reception by listeners is covered in the next chapter, in the section on discourse markers (108).

DEIXIS: VIEWPOINT AND TIME AND PLACE REFERENCES 93

General 93a

Deixis refers to the way speakers orient themselves and their listeners in terms of person, time and space in relation to the immediate situation of speaking. Deictic features occur in both written and spoken language. For example, a written notice might say *Vehicles must not be parked* ***here***, where *here* most likely refers to the immediate environment of the notice itself. However, deictic items are more common in spoken English as the relationship between the discourse and the situation is typically more immediate.

References to the immediate situation are achieved mainly by means of determiners such as *this*, *these*, *that*, *those*, adverbs such as *here*, *now*, *there*, *then*, *ago* and personal pronouns such as *I*, *we*, *him*, *us*. Deictic words are especially common in situations where joint actions are undertaken and where people and things referred to can be seen by the participants. The following examples contain deictic items (in bold) which orient the listener interpersonally (who is referred to), temporally (when) and spatially (where). Note how the meaning of *we* can differ between being inclusive and exclusive:

[message left on an answerphone]
***I**'m phoning up about **this** trying to set up a meeting and various other things **I** believe. Erm there's a centre staff meeting at two on Friday twenty fourth. And **I** was thinking perhaps **we** could meet in the morning beforehand if **you**'re going to be free **that** day. Anyway er give **me** a ring. **I**'m **around tomorrow**. Though **tomorrow afternoon I**'m not **about** because **I**'ve got an appointment at the hospital. So **I** don't know how long **I**'ll be **there**. But **I**'m **here tomorrow morning** Friday so ring.*

We in this case includes the speaker and the listener. Note also how references such as *around* and *about* could mean the speaker's home or place of work, depending on where the speaker is or on what the common understanding of *around* and *about* are between the speaker and listener:

[in a restaurant]
Waiter: *Right ladies.*
Customer A: *Shall **we** order some starters?*
Customer B: *Yeah.*
Customer C: *Yeah.*
Customer A: *Er, sesame prawn toast.*
Waiter: *Yeah.*
(*we* in this case includes A, B and C, but excludes the waiter)

A: *What are you doing at Christmas?*
B: ***We**'re having my brother and a friend for lunch on Christmas Day.*
A: *Right. Mm.*
B: *But otherwise **we**'re not doing a great deal.*
A: *Okay. And New Year's Eve or New Year's Day?*
B: *No **we** don't really bother.*
A: *Right.*
(*we* excludes the listener)

***I**'d like to pop in to **that** little shop **over there** before **we** leave.*
(*we* in this case may or may not include the listener(s), depending on context)

This, that, these, those 93b

Referring to physical closeness and distance

This and *these* are used to refer to things which are close in space and time:

*I like **this** hotel, don't you?*

*I'm sorry, he's not here. He's away **this** week.*

*In **this** lecture we shall be looking in particular at Shakespeare's History Plays.*

*Have you finished with **these** newspapers?*

That and *those* refer to objects and people that speakers may not easily identify from the immediate situation or that are more distant in space and time:

*Could I see **that** video on the shelf up there?*

*We should move **those** chairs into the corner of the room.*

*Do you remember **that** Sunday in Jeddah? It was the busiest day of the week.*

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On the telephone

Especially in telephone calls and in answerphone messages *this* is used as a demonstrative pronoun to identify the speaker and *that* is used to ask the identity of other speakers:

> *Hello, **this** is David Locastro speaking. I'm calling at 12.30 your time on November 9th to leave a message for Virginia Cortes.*
>
> *Is **that** Nicola? Hi, **this** is Carol Jordan here.*

Referring to psychological closeness and distance

This can be used to underline or highlight that the speaker thinks something is important or newsworthy and will probably be familiar to the listener, instead of using unmarked *the*:

> *One of the strategies is **this** new attack on long-term unemployment.*

This focuses or highlights new topics, making them more immediate and significant:

> *A quarter of people in the group resigned, didn't they, and **this** has led to other people protesting too. But what can we do?*

That can distance the speaker from aspects of the topic:

> *You can't say women shouldn't be allowed to drive trucks because they can't work the long hours. **That**'s just sexist.*

This and *that* sometimes express contrasts in emotional distance (sometimes called emotional deixis) and can signal different attitudes. *This* normally conveys a more positive and involved attitude whereas *that* suggests a more detached and possibly critical attitude:

> *Now tell me what you think of **this** new girlfriend he's got?*
> (compare the more disapproving: Now tell me what you think of that new girlfriend he's got?)

Similarly, *that* sometimes carries a feeling of dismissal or rejection of something as problematic:

> [speakers are discussing new parking restrictions which have been introduced and a proposal to change the existing voucher system for parking]
> A: *They've just brought all **that** parking in. There's nothing much you can do about it.*
> B: *Yeah. Abolition of the car-parking voucher scheme. How can he do **that**? He can't do **that**. It's not in his power to do **that**.*
> C: *What's he saying?*
> B: *He says he's gonna abolish the parking scheme. Which is obviously stupid. You know the voucher scheme.*
> C: *Mm.*
> B: *Which, obviously everyone wants to get rid of **that** stupid voucher scheme.*

In narratives

In narratives, anecdotes, jokes and similar forms, *this* can be used instead of the indefinite article *a/an* to create a sense of immediacy when introducing important people and things in the story:

> ***This*** *girl Susanna knew in New York, she went to live with* ***this*** *guy called Ché.*

That can be used in narratives instead of the definite article *the* to refer to things that are well known to listeners:

> *Then we drove round* ***that*** *big roundabout and over* ***that*** *bridge, you know the one just as you come into Norwich.*

196f, 196g

SITUATIONAL ELLIPSIS 94

Situational and other kinds of ellipsis 94a

Ellipsis can be either situational, textual or structural. Situational ellipsis means not explicitly referring to people and things which are in the immediate situation, such as the participants themselves:

> A: *Don't know what's gone wrong here.*
> B: *Oh. Need any help?*
> (situational; understood: **I** don't know … **Do you** need …)
>
> *He applied and got the job.*
> (textual; understood from previous clause: … and **he** got the job.)
>
> *The car he was driving was stolen.*
> (structural; optional use of *that*: The car **that** he was driving …)

Although ellipsis is often defined as the absence of elements normally required by the grammar (e.g. a subject before a tensed verb form), in reality nothing is 'missing' from elliptical messages; they contain enough for the purposes of communication. It makes more sense to say that writing and formal speech typically need to elaborate more for the sake of readers/listeners and so 'add' items that might otherwise be unnecessary in everyday informal speech.

Situational ellipsis may involve understood references to a range of expressions relating to people and things:

> ***Didn't know*** *that film was on tonight.*
> (understood: **I** didn't know …)
>
> ***Sounds*** *good to me.*
> (understood: **It/that/something obvious in the situation** sounds …)
>
> ***Lots of things*** *to tell you about the trip to Barcelona.*
> (understood: **There are/I've got/we've got** lots of things …)
>
> [at a dry-cleaner's; speaker B is leaving a pair of trousers for cleaning]
> A: ***Wednesday*** *at four be okay?*
> B: *Er, yeah, that's fine …* ***Just check*** *the pockets a minute.*
> (understood: **Will/would** Wednesday at four be … **I'll/let me** just check …)

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Initial elements 94b

In spoken language, the most common kind of situational ellipsis involves initial elements in phrases and clauses, especially at the beginning of a speaker's turn. A normally expected determiner may be absent from a noun phrase, or the initial preposition from a prepositional phrase, or an initial auxiliary verb and its subject may be unnecessary where the meaning is obvious to all participants. This is particularly common in informal conversation:

A: *Where's that cheese we bought?*
B: ***Fridge*** *I think.*
(understood: **In the** fridge I think.)

A: ***Seen*** *that photo? The photo of mum when she was young?*
B: *Yes.*
(understood: **Have you** seen that photo?)

Interrogatives with no auxiliary or subject 94c

Auxiliary verbs and second person subject pronouns are often considered unnecessary in interrogative clauses:

Started yet?
(understood: **Have you** started yet?)

Hi Jim. Playing tonight?
(understood: **Are you** playing tonight?)

Hi, Colin, been working?
(understood: … **have you** been working?)

Got any money?
(understood: **Have you** got any money?)

Interrogatives: subject pronoun and no auxiliary verb 94d

In interrogatives, an initial auxiliary is often unnecessary, even when the subject is present:

You been *eating the biscuits again?*
(understood: **Have** you been eating …?)

The dog bothering *you? Shall I throw him out?*
(understood: **Is** the dog bothering you?)

A: ***Anybody want*** *soup?*
B: *No thank you.*
(understood: **Does** anybody want soup?)

✪ This type of ellipsis does not normally occur with *I*:

Am I interfering?
(~~I interfering?~~)

Copular verb *be* 94e

In interrogatives, initial copular verb *be* is often not needed before *you* (and less frequently *we* or *they*):

A: ***You*** *all right for coffee, mum?*
B: *Yes, I'm all right, thanks.*
(understood: **Are** you all right …?)

You *sure you don't want a lift?*
(understood: **Are** you sure …?)

You *the person who wanted a ticket?*

We *the people you were looking for?*

They *your friends or are they just people you work with?*

In interrogatives, initial *be* and the subject may both be unnecessary before adjectival complements:

[waiter to customers]
Ready *to order?*

[host to child during a meal]
Too spicy *for you?*

Declaratives: no subject pronoun 94f

Initial *I*

Initial *I* is often unnecessary in declaratives in informal speech, both with auxiliary and modal verb structures and with lexical verbs (especially mental process verbs such as *think*, *reckon*, *guess*, *hope*, *like*, *love*, *wonder*, *suppose*):

A: *What's the matter?*
B: ***Can't*** *find my glasses.*
(understood: **I** can't find my glasses.)

Like *your new car.*
(understood: **I** like your new car.)

A: *Chocolate?*
B: *No.* ***Don't want*** *any more, thanks.*

[guest (A) and host (B) at dinner table; *afters* is an informal word for dessert]
A: *That was lovely.*
B: ***Hope*** *you've got a little bit of room left for afters.*

[talking about a house infested with mice]
A: *They used to wake us up in the night didn't they, scurrying up the walls.*
B: *Yeah.* ***Wonder*** *how they got up walls.*

This also occurs frequently in short replies such as: *don't know*, *can't remember*, *think so*, *hope so*:

A: *Can you make those changes to the list?*
B: *Yeah.* ***Think so****, yeah.*

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Both *I* and the auxiliary verb may be absent from initial position in declaratives:

[end of conversation]
Okay then. Talk to you later.
(understood: **I'll** talk to you later.)

Love to meet her.
(understood: **I'd** love to meet her.)

Pronouns cannot be omitted in all cases. Note that the examples above are all informal, and involve mostly auxiliary and modal verbs, and verbs such as *think*, *hope*, *wonder*. In most other cases, a subject pronoun must be used:

Did you meet Robbie? He was there at the same time as you.
(~~Did you meet Robbie? Was there at the same time as you.~~)

A: *Will your mother be here too?*
B: *Yeah, she's coming.*
(~~Yeah, is coming~~)

We and other subject pronouns

We and second and third person subject pronouns are less likely to be absent, but may be if the referent is obvious (but *it* in **94g**):

A: *How's Fiona?*
B: *Oh she's fine.* ***Works*** *too hard, that's her only problem.*

I've never had a holiday like it in my life. ***Never spoke*** *to me. He never spoke to me all the time we were there.*
(understood: **He** never spoke to me.)

A: *My brother and his son built the patio for us.*
B: *Really?*
A: *Yeah.* ***Came*** *here a couple of summers ago and did it.*

Question tags

Subject pronouns are most typically absent in declarative questions when accompanied by a question tag:

[*brothers* here refers to a religious order of teachers]
A: *And did you ever, did you ever know any of the brothers down at the school when Bernard went there?*
B: *No, I didn't.*
A: ***Never met*** *any of them,* ***did you****?*
B: *No, no.*

A: ***Got*** *lost, did they?*
B: *Yes, they did and it was not for the first time.*

Need *a ticket,* ***do we****?*

Fooled *you then,* ***didn't I****?*

Not all cases of this kind are genuine ellipsis. The following may be seen simply as a variation on typical word order:

*Get **the hang of it**, did you?*
(Not: ~~You get the hang of it, did you?~~)
(understood: **Did you get** the hang of it?)

***Looking** much better, he was.*

It and demonstratives 94g

Subject pronoun *it* and demonstrative pronouns are often not needed:

A: *Oh is this a new one?*
B: ***Looks** like it, yeah.*
(understood: **It** looks like it, yeah.)

A: *It says Duscellier.*
B: ***Doesn't** make any sense.*
(understood: **It/that** doesn't make any sense.)

[students talking about a party]
*Like that one we went to in Birchfield Road. **Turned out** to be something Dave had something to do with.*

Initial *it* is frequently unnecessary in short replies such as *could be*, *might be*, *should be*, *probably is*, *usually is*, *must have been*, *could have been*, *might have been*, *should have been*:

A: *It was white chicken in something.*
B: *Chilli, was it?*
A: ***Could** be.*

A: *He was stuck for eleven hours at Heathrow airport.*
B: ***Must have been** awful.*

Initial *it* plus auxiliary verb are often omitted in references to weather and temperature:

***Raining** again.*
(understood: **It's** raining again.)

***Looking** brighter at last.*

***Been** cold lately.*

Initial *it* and copular verb *be* may both be unnecessary when the referent is obvious:

A: *What do you think of it?*
B: ***Excellent**.*
(understood: **It is** excellent.)

A: *I just thought it might help others.*
B: *Yes yes.*
A: ***No good** for me now. It's too late.*

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The same applies to initial pronoun subject *that* in conventional responses such as *that's true*, *that's correct*, *that's good*:

A: *I'm sure Tony doesn't get much sleep.*
B: ***True***.

A: *So, how are you doing?*
B: *I'm all right.*
A: ***Good***.

Existential *there* 94h

Initial existential *there* (and its accompanying verb *be*) may be considered unnecessary:

Must have been *half a million people.*
(understood: **There** must have been half a million people.)

Nobody *at home, by the look of it.*

[talking about the activities of mysterious neighbours]
Yeah, they do seem to be dragging stuff about. It's really weird. ***Seems*** *to be more stuff come out than gone in.*

Verb ellipsis in directives 94i

Occasionally the verb may be understood in a directive:

[teacher to pupils]
Hands up.
(understood: **Put your** hands up.)

Everyone ***into*** *the garden. We want to take a photo.*
(understood: Everyone **come/go** into the garden.)

[airport public announcement]
Mr Ken Wilson ***to*** *airport information please.*
(understood: **Will** Mr Ken Wilson **go** to airport information please.)

Determiners 94j

Articles considered obligatory in formal speech and especially in writing may be unnecessary in informal speech when the referent is obvious:

[customer in a café]
Black coffee*, please.*
(understood: **A** black coffee, please.)

A: *Where do you want this?*
B: ***Bottom shelf****, please.*
(understood: (**On**) **the** bottom shelf, please.)

[doing a job; addressing the person helping]
Right, ***hammer*** *please.*
(understood: Right, **the** hammer please.)

[BBC radio news anchorman]
Time *is twenty to nine.*
(understood: **The** time is twenty to nine.)

Other determiners may also be similarly unnecessary:

A: *Hi Brian.*
B: *Hi.*
A: *How's it going.* ***Flat*** *ready yet?*
(understood: (**Is**) **your** flat ready yet?)

A: *Ooh, what's the matter?*
B: *Mm.* ***Neck****'s aching. I don't know what I've done. Must have twisted it.*
(understood: **My** neck's aching.)

[talking about a dog]
Look at him. ***Tail****'s wagging. He's happy.*
(understood: **His** tail's wagging.)

Conditional *if* 94k

Conditional *if*, where considered obligatory in formal speech and especially in formal writing, may occasionally be absent from initial position:

They turn up *at any point, just let me know.*
(understood: **If** they turn up …)

[host at table]
You want *anything else, just help yourself.*

Fixed expressions 94l

Many everyday fixed expressions are prone to ellipsis of initial elements, since these can be assumed to be known by all participants:

[said just as rain starts to fall]
Good thing *I remembered the umbrella.*
(understood: **It is a/It was a** good thing …)

Oh, ***good job*** *I've left a little hole, then.*
(understood: **It's a** good job …)

Other common expressions that occur with initial ellipsis include:

(There's) no point in …

(It's) not worth …

(It would be) best if you …

(I'll) see you later/tomorrow/soon …

(I'll) be seeing you …

(You) never know, …

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Prepositions 94m

Prepositional meaning is often obvious in context and prepositions may not be necessary:

A: *Where does she live?*
B: *Don't know.* ***The south*** *I think.*
(understood: **In** the south …)

A: *Where is the post office actually?*
B: ***Top*** *of Churchill Street, on your right.*
(understood: **At the** top …)

Absence of prepositions is particularly common in informal styles, in expressions which refer to place and especially to time, including expressions of duration and frequency:

I've got to make a number of trips this May, ***Dubai***, ***Hong Kong***, ***Berlin*** *just for starters.*
(understood: … **to** Dubai, **to** Hong Kong, **to** Berlin …)

She's been like that ***two or three days*** *a week.*
(understood: She's been like that **for** two or three days a week.)

Why don't you both pop round ***Saturday evening****?*
(understood: Why don't you both pop round **on** Saturday evening?)

In informal speech prepositions often do not occur in expressions of measurement and in precise expressions of time:

He's ***the same level*** *as you.*
(understood: He is **at** the same level as you.)

A: ***What time*** *are we meeting?*
B: ***Ten o'clock****. Is that okay?*
(understood: **At** what time …, **At** ten o'clock …)

Stranded prepositions (257) may sometimes be unnecessary with expressions of place and time:

They have ***no place to go****.*
(understood: They have no place to go **to**.)

You've got less than an hour ***to finish*** *the job.*
(or, more formal: … less than an hour **in which** to finish the job.)

RESPONSE TOKENS 95

General 95a

Some adjectives and adverbs are many times more common in spoken language than in written language because of their frequent use as response tokens. These include *absolutely*, *certainly*, *definitely*, *fine*, *good*, *great*, *indeed*, *really*. In spoken

grammar, the term 'response token' better describes their function of referring to a whole preceding utterance rather than their word-class identity as adjectives or adverbs:

A: *We've decided to go to Greece this year, probably in early June.*
B: ***Really**. That sounds nice.*

A: *That's a fair comment, isn't it?*
B: ***Absolutely**.*

A: *It's more for the kids, isn't it?*
B: *You think so?*
A: *Yeah **definitely**.*

A: *I reckon she won't last long in that job.*
B: ***Possibly**.*

A: *She's obviously going to tear it up and throw it in the bin.*
B: ***Precisely**.*

A: *Well, you wear a little black dress to clubs or to a party.*
B: *Yeah **exactly**.*

Some response tokens are strongly associated with particular contexts. *Fine* most typically occurs in making arrangements and reaching decisions. *Certainly* most typically occurs in reply to a request for a service or favour (compare *definitely* in the example above, which, although close in meaning to *certainly*, strengthens the force of a response and would be inappropriate in the restaurant context below):

A: *Okay. I'll see you a bit later then.*
B: ***Fine**.*
A: *In the morning, whenever.*

[to a waiter]
A: *Can I have the bill please?*
B: *Yes, **certainly**.*
(B: ~~Yes, definitely.~~)

Adjectives such as *excellent*, *fine*, *great*, *good*, *lovely*, *right*, *perfect* offer positive feedback to the speaker and often mark the boundaries of topics where speakers express their satisfaction with phases of business such as making arrangements, agreeing on courses of action, and marking the satisfactory exchange of information, goods and services:

[at a travel agent's; A is the assistant]
A: *There you go. There's your ticket. And your accommodation there. Insurance, and just some general information.*
B: ***Excellent**. **Right**.*

[dealer (A) and customer (B) in a car spare-parts depot]
A: *I'll get one of the lads in to come and do it for you.*
B: ***Lovely**.*

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Response tokens also frequently occur at the beginning of longer responses, typically as a preface to a comment on the preceding utterance:

[colleagues at work]
A: *You can make it, you can meet me later if you want.*
B: ***Fine**. Whatever. I've got nothing new.*

Premodification 95b

Many response tokens may be premodified by intensifying adverbs which add further emphasis:

[woman talking about giving birth]
A: *Dick was very excited cos at one point they asked for hot towels.*
B: *Oh.*
A: *Just like the movies. So he skipped off down the corridor to get the hot towels.*
B: *Oh **jolly good**.*

[discussing tenancy problems in rented accommodation]
A: *Isn't there something in your tenancy agreement about it? You have a written agreement don't you?*
B: ***Most definitely**.*

Negation 95c

Absolutely, *certainly* and *definitely* may be negated as response tokens by adding *not*:

[speaker A is considering buying a CD player for the first time]
A: *… but then I'd have to go out and buy lots of CDs wouldn't I?*
B: *Well yes. I suppose you would.*
A: *There's no point in having a thing if you can't play them. Haven't got any.*
B: ***Absolutely not**. **Absolutely not**.*

[discussing the difficulty of studying in the evenings after working all day in a day job]
A: *Seven o'clock in the evening after a day at work is not really quite what you need, is it?*
B: *No.*
A: *Hm.*
B: ***Definitely not**.*
A: *No.*

Pairs and clusters 95d

Response tokens often occur in pairs. This is particularly evident when a topic is being closed down or at a boundary in the talk when another topic is introduced. The pair function both to signal a boundary and to add satisfaction or agreement or simply to express friendly social support. Occasionally, triple response tokens occur:

[waiter (A) and customer (B) in a restaurant]
A: *If you need some more just order some more. All right?*
B: ***Right***. ***Fine***.
A: *Okay. Thank you.*
B: *Thank you.*
A: *You're welcome.*

[couple asking permission to look at a disused railway line]
A: *It went through, it goes through. Straight, straight on.*
B: ***Right***. ***Wonderful***. ***Great***. *Can we look round then?*
A: *Yes certainly.*
B: *Thank you.*

Response tokens may also cluster in consecutive series across speakers, providing multiple signals that a conversation is about to be terminated while at the same time consolidating interpersonal relationships. Often they occur together with other markers of closure such as thanks, checks, confirmations and greetings. Clustering is especially frequent in telephone conversations, where there are often pre-closing and closing routines:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
[telephone call concerning a printing order]
A: *Do you think it needs editing?*
B: *Erm I shouldn't think so.*
A: ***Good***. ***Brilliant***. ***Okay***, ***well*** *I'll be round to pick it up.*
B: ***Okay***.
A: *Pick it up today.*
B: ***Okay*** *Jack.*
A: *Have you got the compliment slips?*
B: *Yes.*
A: *On all er=*
B: *They they look very good.*
A: ***Great***. *Yes.*
B: ***Fabulous***.
A: ***All right***. [laughs]
B: ***Okay***. *Thanks for that.*
A: ***Okay*** *Len.*
B: ***Cheers***.
A: ***Bye***.
(*all right* and *okay* may be seen as pre-closing; *cheers* and *bye* close the call)

[giving street directions]
A: *You'll come to a stop sign, take a right and just follow it all the way out.*
B: *Oh.* ***Perfect***.
C: ***Great***.
B: ***That's excellent***. ***Thank you very much***.
C: ***Thank you so much***. ***Thanks***.

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Other types of phrase and short clause also function as response tokens. Common ones include:

Is that so?	*Not at all*	*Of course*
By all means	*True enough*	*What a pity!*
Fair enough		

also **242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases**

A–Z **56 *Of course*; 58 *Okay/OK*; 69 *Right, rightly***

HEADERS 96

Headers and clause structure 96a

The dominant word order in English in both speech and writing is the declarative S-V-X where S is the subject of the clause, V is the verb and X is any other item that may be present, e.g. an object (O) or an adjunct (A). The theme (what the speaker wants to talk about or the point of departure of the message) is usually the subject of the clause (**472**).

Fronting may be used to emphasise what the speaker considers to be especially significant. The word or phrase which is fronted and which comes first in the clause is highlighted or 'thematised' by the word order. Adjuncts are frequently fronted for emphasis in both spoken and written language (**473**), and objects and complements can also be fronted. This is particularly common in spoken language:

*I like David but **Pat** I find rather odd.*
(fronting of the object *Pat*)

*I think we tried to see too much. **Naples** I remember but all those other towns along the coast are a bit of a blur.*
(fronting of the object *Naples*)

[trying to find a library book that is on *short loan*, i.e. must be returned after only a very short period]
A: *There's another short-loan book round here somewhere that I have to get in and I don't know where it is. Yes. That one and there's another one. Not one on the floor down there is there?*
B: *No.*
A: *It's probably around here then. Aha. Hiding from me. And a **very good book** it was too.*
(fronting of subject complement)

These fronted elements still remain within the clause structure:
[C = subject complement]

C	S	V	A
a very good book	*it*	*was*	*too*

(non-fronted: it was a very good book too)

However, in spoken English a particular type of structure is common where an item within the clause structure is placed before the clause and repeated (usually as a pronoun) in the clause itself. When such an item occurs before the clause, the structure is called a header:

← header → ← clause →
S V C

***The teacher with glasses**, **he** seems very nice.*
(non-fronted: The teacher with glasses seems very nice.)

Types of header 96b

A header most typically consists of a noun phrase followed by one or more pronouns which refer back to the noun phrase. In some grammar books this feature is called left-dislocation. In this book the term 'header' is preferred, because the word 'dislocation' suggests that a very common spoken structure is odd or in some sense 'in the wrong place'. Also, there is no left or right in spoken English. These are metaphors of the space on a typically western, written page. Spoken language exists in time, not space:

***That leather coat**, **it** looks really nice on you.*

***The white house on the corner**, is **that** where she lives?*

[talking about a baby called *Jamie*]
***Jamie**, normally, you put **him** in his cot and **he**'s asleep right away.*

***Paul**, in this job that **he**'s got now, when **he** goes into the office, **he**'s never quite sure where **he**'s going to be sent.*

Headers may be complex, with semantically connected noun phrases (NP1, NP2, etc.) strung together in apposition or simply adjacently, leading to the noun phrase which is the subject of the following clause:

NP1 NP2 NP3
***Madge**, **one of the secretaries at work**, **her daughter** got married last week.*

***My friend**, **Janet**, **her sister** has just emigrated to Brazil.*

[a *Ford Escort* is a model of car]
***His cousin in London**, **her boyfriend**, **his parents** bought him a Ford Escort.*

Such strings of noun phrases help to provide orientation for the listener, who can then more easily identify the main topic. They often lead the listener from given or known information to new topical information. Headers of this kind do not normally occur in written English, and though they may look strange when transcribed and written on the page, they are normal, frequent, and pass without comment by participants.

Headers may also be non-finite clauses:

***Going round museums and art galleries**, **it**'s what my mum and dad like doing.*

***Walking into that room**, **it** brought back a load of memories.*

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Headers may also occur in interrogative clauses:

***Your sister**, is **she** coming too?*

***That new motorway they were building**, is **it** open yet?*

Headers can occur with a (normally stressed) *there* subject pro-form:

*Now **Rio de Janeiro**, **there**'s a fabulous city.*

Headers and clause elements 96c

Headers commonly refer to the subject, object, object complement or prepositional complement in a following clause:

***Owen**, **he**'s my favourite nephew.*

***Joe**, I've never seen **him** at a single football match this season.*

[talking about a local character's nickname]
***'The Great Maurice'**, they used to always call him **that**, didn't they?*

***Anita**, you should at least feel sorry for **her**.*

The preposition is not included in the header:

*They booked the hotel for Pamela but, **Dave**, they left it to **him** to find a room for himself.*
(~~They booked the hotel for Pamela but, to Dave, they left it to him to find a room for himself.~~)

Headers often function like titles or headlines in narratives or in jokes:

***The time we were living in Hong Kong**, I suppose we were a lot wealthier then …*
[story continues]

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
A: *Well, **the time I nearly crashed the car**, I was driving late one night=*
B: *You'd forgotten to turn your lights on=*
A: *Yes, and I just didn't see the car in front.*

TAILS 97

Tails and clause structure 97a

Tails are similar to headers in that items are placed outside the S-V-X clause structure (above, 96), but they occur after the clause. Tails are typically noun phrases. They clarify or make explicit something in the main clause. Most commonly, a tail consists of a full noun phrase which clarifies or repeats the referent of a pronoun in the clause that comes before it. Like headers, tails feature only very rarely in written English but are a standard feature of informal spoken grammar:

← clause → ← tail →
***He**'s amazingly clever, **that dog of theirs**.*

Tails are sometimes referred to as 'right-dislocated' structures, but in this book we do not use that term for the same reason that we do not use the term 'left dislocated'.

Types of tail 97b

Tails are most typically noun phrases, but may also be prepositional phrases or clauses:

***They**'re incredibly nice, **our neighbours**.*

*I put it **there**, **on the fridge**.*

*I find it very frustrating **that**, **not being able to remember people's names**.*

*I find **it** annoying that **they didn't tell us**.*

More complex noun phrases can also form tails:

***It** never occurred to me, **the danger I was in**.*
(preferred in writing: The danger I was in never occurred to me.)

***That** was our only chance of a holiday, **that weekend in Rome seeing Rita**.*
(preferred in writing: That weekend in Rome seeing Rita was our only chance of a holiday.)

Tails may also occur in interrogative clauses:

*Are **they** both at university, **your brother's kids**?*

Tails often occur with statement tags. Sometimes the tail noun phrase may be accompanied by an auxiliary verb or copular verb *be* in the same form and polarity as in the main clause:

***It's** an exciting place, Hong Kong is.*
(or: It's an exciting place, Hong Kong.)

***They're** from all over the world, those photos are.*

[two friends in a restaurant]
A: *What are you going to have?*
B: *I can't decide.*
A: ***I'm** going to have a burger with chilli sauce, I am.* (statement tag)
B: *Mm yeah, **it's** a speciality here, the chilli sauce is.* (tail)

***She hasn't** been here before, Judith hasn't.*

***It's not** very good, that cake isn't.*

Tails also frequently occur with tag questions and can be placed either before or after the tag:

***They** do take up a lot of time, I suppose, kids, **don't they**?*

*Cos **they** tend to go cold, **don't they**, pasta?*

***It**'s not easy to eat, **is it**, spaghetti?*

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Where the tail consists of a pronoun alone, the object pronoun, not the subject pronoun, is used:

***I**'m hungry, me. I don't know about you.*
(~~I'm hungry, I.~~)

***He**'s crazy, him.*

When demonstratives are used in the tail, they must agree in number with the preceding pronoun:

***It**'s a speciality of the region, that.*

***They**'re lovely potatoes, these.*

Tails and clause elements 97c

Tails most typically refer back to subjects in the preceding clause. They can also refer to objects or complements or adjuncts:

*She's never had **one** before, a mosquito bite.*

*I reckon we'd been **there** before as children, don't you, to Lowestoft?*

Tails are listener-sensitive. The tail clarifies what may not have been understood by the listener. The tail can also reinforce and add emphasis to an already explicit referent:

A: *Did **Max** help you?*
B: *Yes, he moved all my books.*
A: *He said he'd try and help out.*
B: *Yeah, **he** was very helpful, Max.*

***They**'re an odd couple, those two.*

***They** look good down there, don't they, those tiles?*

***That**'s what I like most, people with real team spirit.*

Tails frequently occur in statements in which the speaker is evaluating a person or thing or situation:

***She**'s a great tennis player Hiroko is, isn't she?*

A: ***It**'s not nice juice, that isn't.*
B: *I'll still try some.*
A: *Where's your glass?*

QUESTIONS AND TAGS 98

General 98a

The formation of questions is treated in 424–433. Here in section 98 the question forms examined are more likely to occur in informal speech than in formal speech or writing and therefore more properly belong to the grammar of spoken English. In particular, question tags feature frequently in spoken English and serve to engage the listener and invite convergence with the speaker.

Question tags and intonation 98b

The forms and functions of question tags are described in 431.

Rising and falling intonation may combine with question tags to produce a variety of meaning types. Bold type indicates where the tone might typically occur.

Falling tones (↘)

type	polarity	falling tone ↘	falling tone ↘	expected answer
1	affirm. + neg.	*You've worked* ***hard****,*	***haven****'t you?*	*Yes.*
2	neg. + affirm.	*He didn't* ***get*** *it,*	***did*** *he?*	*No.*
3	neg.* + affirm.	*Nobody* ***knows****,*	***do*** *they?*	*No.*

* In this case, the negative element is contained in the subject *nobody* (similarly: 'Nothing happened, did it?' 'We hardly see her, do we?').

Type 1 contains an affirmative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and an expectation of a *yes*-answer as confirmation in the tag.

Types 2 and 3 contain a negative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and an expectation of a *no*-answer as confirmation in the tag.

Falling tone plus rising tone (↘ ↗)

type	polarity	falling tone ↘	rising tone ↗	expected answer
4	affirm. + neg.	*You've worked* ***hard****,*	***haven****'t you?*	Neutral (*yes* or *no*)
5	neg. + affirm.	*He didn't* ***get*** *it,*	***did*** *he?*	Neutral (*yes* or *no*)
6	neg.* + affirm.	*Nobody* ***knows****,*	***do*** *they?*	Neutral (*yes* or *no*)
7	affirm. + affirm.	*Kate* ***has*** *gone,*	***has*** *she?*	*Yes.*

* Clausal negation with *nobody*.

Type 4 contains an affirmative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and a more neutral expectation (i.e. of a *yes*- or a *no*-answer) in the tag.

Types 5 and 6 contain a negative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and a more neutral expectation (i.e. of a *yes*- or a *no*-answer) in the tag.

Type 7 contains an affirmative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and a more affirmative expectation (i.e. of a *yes*-answer) in the tag.

Tag patterns in requests 98c

Interrogatives that function as requests often have the pattern of negative clause + affirmative tag, with the fall and rise intonation pattern. Requests expressed with tag questions are usually quite informal. Bold type indicates where the tone might typically occur.

Interrogatives as requests

polarity	falling tone ↘	rising tone ↗
neg. + affirm.	*You couldn't carry **this** for me,*	***could** you?*
neg. + affirm.	*You haven't got any chocolate **bis**cuits,*	***have** you?*

Position of question tags 98d

Question tags typically come at the end of the clause, but in informal spoken language, they can interrupt the clause:

***That's** odd, isn't it, from a tutor?*

***It was** perhaps your team, was it, that was round there?*

In reporting structures, the question tag may occur before the reported clause, especially if the reported clause is felt to be unusually long:

[commenting on the recipes of a famous cookery-book writer]
***You** always **know**, don't you, that what you make will be suitable, and light, and that it will taste all right too.*

Anticipatory *it* clauses may also be interrupted by a question tag:

***It's** true, isn't it, what they said about him?*

Fixed tags in informal speech 98e

Some tags in informal spoken language do not vary in form. They include items such as (*all*) *right*, *okay*, *yeah*, *eh*, *don't you think?*. They are normally used to check that something has been understood or to confirm that an action is agreed:

*So we're meeting at 7 outside the pizza place, **okay**?*

*Let's stop talking in circles, **right**?*

*Don't tell anyone about this, **yeah**?*

*Oh well, what on earth can we do about it, **eh**?*

✪ *No* is not normally used in this way:

He's a really nice person, isn't he?
(~~He's a really nice person, no?~~)

A–Z 69 ***Right, rightly***

ECHO QUESTIONS 99

Echo questions are very common in spoken language. They typically have declarative word order and include a *wh-* word:

A: *Big day tomorrow. Got to go to the Phoenix.*
B: *Got to go to* ***where****?*
A: *Got to go to this very formal meeting of all these academic people.*

also **432**

One common type of echo question involves requests to clarify noun phrases or parts of them which may not have been heard correctly. They are formed with a determiner and *what*:

[talking of problems with European bureaucracy]
A: *What was it? The European Commission?*
B: *Mm. Translation service.*
A: ***The what****, sorry?*
B: *Translation service. And they were just so badly organized. It was just unbelievable.*

A: *That looks like a dinosaur.*
B: *Like* ***a what****?*
A: *A dinosaur.*

A: *But apparently the president of the guild, he's a really nice bloke Alex says, cos, you know, she does all the party stuff.*
B: *Does* ***the what stuff****?*
A: *She does all the politics of the department stuff.*
B: *Politics.*

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS 100

A variety of common follow-up question-types occur in speech.

Reduced questions with *wh-* words

Reduced questions with *wh-* words and stranded prepositions (**257**) are particularly frequent:

A: *Margaret wants to talk to you.*
B: *Oh,* ***what about****?*
(or, more formal: About what?)

A: *You're not staying in tonight, you're going out for dinner.*
B: *Oh.* ***Where to****?*
A: *I'm not telling you, a surprise.*

The follow-up question may consist of a *wh-* word alone or a *wh-* word + a substitute word:

A: *Is he warden of the whole thing?*
B: ***Who***?
A: *Doctor Thornton.*
B: *I don't know.*

[in a restaurant; A is the customer, B is the waiter]
A: *I'll have that one.*
B: ***Which one***?
A: *The king prawn in lemon sauce.*

Tag questions

The follow-up question may function as a signal of engagement and attention by the listener. Such questions are typically tag questions. Their function is often very similar to that of supportive responses such as *uhum?*, *yeah?* and *really?* (95):

A: *I went to school with her.*
B: ***Did you***?
A: *Mm.*

A: *And on mama's tree she's got some raspberries and tomatoes.*
B: ***Does she***? *That's great.*

The follow-up tag question may consist of a doubling of this type of structure for emphasis, most typically with a negative clause followed by an affirmative tag, but occasionally with two affirmatives. This usually expresses a strong reaction. A typical intonation pattern is shown:

[talking of firms taking over other firms]
A: *And they've taken over Walker's too.*
B: *Oh* ***they haven't***, ***have they***?

A: *He thinks you're coming to pick him up.*
B: *Oh* ***he does***, ***does he***?
A: *Yeah, that's what he said.*

Follow-up tag questions in informal spoken language often simply function to keep the conversation going by inviting further responses from the listener. A typical intonation pattern is shown:

[talking about how quickly a popular type of cake gets eaten by family members]
A: *Have you noticed it always disappears?*
B: ***Yeah, it does***, ***doesn't it***?
A: *I've got two now,* ***yes***, *it* ***does always disappear***, ***doesn't it***?
B: ***Yeah***.

Formulaic questions

A number of follow-up questions are formulaic and serve as ways of expanding the discourse or requesting further specification. These include *How come? So what? What for?* and *Like what?*:

[*the shuttle* here is a train which carries cars constantly back and forth between Britain and France]
A: *The shuttle would be out of the question, you see.*
B: ***How come***?
A: *Well, the shuttle is where you take your car on.*
(*How come* = Why?)

A: *I finished loads of odds and ends.*
B: *Did you?* ***Like what***?
A: *Like, my programs. Finished that off.*
(*Like what* = What, for example?)

TWO-STEP QUESTIONS AND RESPONSES 101

Questions in spoken English can involve a two-step process. One question may act as a preface for another question. In such cases, the listener may feel that the first question is too direct or too general and so the speaker shows sensitivity to the listener's reaction by anticipating a response:

What does stalking consist of? *I mean, what was she doing exactly?*

Yes-no questions are only rarely self-contained. While they may function to elicit specific information, such questions are normally asked as a preface to further questions. For example, the question *Are you going to the match tonight?* anticipates an answer which may then be followed by a further more personal or specific question:

A: ***Are you going to the match tonight***?
B: *Yeah, I am.*
A: ***Do you mind if I tag along***?
B: *Sure. We're leaving around seven.*

A: ***Are you in this Sunday afternoon***?
B: *I expect so. I think we might be going out later.*
A: ***Okay, do you mind if I pop round to pick up the drill***?
B: *Of course not.*

Another form of two-step question is the pre-question:

A: ***I wondered if I might ask something***?
B: *Sure.*
A: *Would you be able to write a reference for me?*

Can you tell me something? *What time is the rubbish collection on Mondays?*

Another type of two-step question involves projected answers in a two-step process:

Where are you going? ***Into town***?

What time did you say they were coming back? ***Seven***?

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PREFACE QUESTION: *(DO YOU) KNOW WHAT?* 102

The formulaic question *(Do you) know what?* is used as a preface to what the speaker considers newsworthy or important information:

A: ***Do you know what***?
B: *What?*
A: *Roger's mum's bought Rachel a jumper. Isn't that sweet?*
B: *Yeah.*

VAGUE EXPRESSIONS AND APPROXIMATIONS 103

Vague language 103a

Being vague is an important feature of interpersonal meaning and is especially common in everyday conversation. It involves the use of words and phrases such as *thing*, *stuff*, *or so*, *like*, *or something*, *or anything*, *and so on*, *or whatever*, *kind of*, *sort of*.

Vague language softens expressions so that they do not appear too direct or unduly authoritative and assertive. It also is a strong indication of an assumed shared knowledge and can mark in-group membership: the referents of vague expressions can be assumed to be known by the listener.

There are times where it is necessary to give accurate and precise information; in many informal contexts, however, speakers prefer to convey information which is softened in some way. Such vagueness is often wrongly taken as a sign of careless thinking or sloppy expression. Vagueness is motivated and purposeful and is often a mark of the sensitivity and skill of a speaker:

*Between then and **like** nineteen eighty four I just spent the whole time, I mean for that whole **sort of** twelve year period **or whatever**, erm I was just working with just lots and lots and lots of different people.*

*I was down in er a place called erm, down in the Urals as well, erm Katherineburg. It's **kind of** directly east of Moscow.*

There are occasions where vague language is necessary and where its absence would make the message too blunt. In the following example it would be pointless to list every available drink and the vague usage simply keeps options open. Both speakers know from their shared cultural knowledge just what is included in *or something* and what is excluded:

[speaker B has suggested taking a visitor to a local coffee shop]
A: *She doesn't like coffee.*
B: *Well, she can have an orange juice **or something**.*

Purposefully vague language occurs in writing and in speech. For example, academic writing contains vague expressions which enable writers to hedge the claims for their theories and research findings.

The vague expressions *and things*, *and stuff* and *and that* are particularly flexible and can be used to refer to a wide variety of phrases and whole clauses. These expressions are extremely frequent in informal spoken language. In the following examples, all relevant vague expressions are in bold:

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[describing a craft shop]
A: *It's more like a* ***sort of*** *gallery. Just* ***sort of*** *arty. Well no it's* ***sort of*** *arty* ***things****. It's got jewellery and+*
B: *Oh right.*
A: *+erm loads of really nice greetings cards.* ***Sort of*** *hand-made greetings cards* ***and things****.*

A: *And erm again I say that there isn't anywhere for children to play and if they do the way the cars come round sometimes+*
B: *Mm.*
A: *+they can easily be knocked over* ***and things****.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *They run from the grass over onto the back onto the pavement and it's very easy for children to get knocked over like that.*

I really don't know about their environment management systems ***and stuff****.*

They've got a form. They give you a form. You have to fill it in ***and stuff****, cos if you don't you won't get an interview.*

All university is about is opportunity, isn't it. You know it's just having had the time and the money and without the commitment or responsibilities like a family and a house ***and that****.*

[*to have a lump in one's throat* means to feel very sad and ready to cry]
A: *I had a big lump in my throat and I couldn't understand it. I mean there was no reason for me to cry* ***or anything****. Nothing really horrible happening. I guess I must be really tired though cos* ***like****+*
B: *Oh yeah you've been working quite hard* ***and that****.*
A: *+I've been working hard and I've been travelling all the time* ***and all that sort of thing****.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *So I just couldn't cope with it.*

A–Z **74 *Thing, stuff***

Approximations 103b

There is a wide range of expressions used with numbers and quantities which enable speakers to give approximations rather than being absolutely precise and perhaps being heard as pedantic. Approximations are used for the same interpersonal reasons as the vague expressions in **103a**.

Adverbs and prepositions

Adverbs and prepositions are most commonly used to express approximation:

I'll see you ***around*** *six.*

*There were **roughly** twenty people turned up.*

*I had the goldfish for **about** three years.*

*That laser printer can do **round about** six pages a minute.*

***Up to** three hundred new cars had been delivered before the fault was discovered.*

The basic meaning of most of the common expressions is 'approximately', although the word *approximately* itself is more commonly used in writing and only normally occurs in formal speech. Prepositional phrases indicating approximation are also more common in formal speech and in writing:

*The plane will settle at its cruising altitude of **approximately** 11,000 metres.*
(spoken, formal)

*Losses which were **in the region of** thirty thousand pounds daily were reported by three of the airlines.*
(spoken, formal)

… odd; … or so

Number + *odd* is used when the figure quoted may be slightly higher than the actual number. A hyphen is used when the expression is written:

*We've got sixty-**odd** people coming later in the day.*

*They'll charge thirty-**odd** pounds.*

Number + head noun + *or so/or thereabouts/or something* are also used in such situations. *Or thereabouts* is more formal than *or so*, and *or something* is the most informal:

*They'd been playing maybe, what, five minutes **or so**.*

*OK, we'll pay the higher deposit. What was it again? It was three hundred and eighty pounds **or thereabouts**, wasn't it?*

*It weighed about twenty kilos **or something**.*

Odd is not used in this way:

*They'll only take twenty minutes **or so**, won't they.*
(~~They'll only take twenty minutes odd, won't they?~~)

… or; … -ish

Or between numerals also indicates that it would not normally be appropriate to specify more precisely:

*It'll cost you five **or** six pounds to park but it'll save you a long walk into the town.*

The suffix *-ish* is also used, especially in informal speech:

*So, er, we're meeting seven**-ish** or maybe a bit later.*

*I think he's fifty**-ish** but he looks a lot younger actually.*

Exaggeration

Deliberately exaggerated reference to numbers and quantities is another form of approximation:

A: *How much would it cost to re-lay the lawns?*
B: *It'll cost* ***thousands****. I don't think we should even think about it yet.*

I've told him ***hundreds*** *of times to put the alarm clock on but he just doesn't listen.*

She's very well qualified. She's got ***loads and loads*** *of letters after her name and qualifications and things.*

Similar expressions include:

ages	*heaps*	*oceans*
crowds	*lots*	*tons*
dozens	*masses*	*zillions*

Clusters

Vague markers and approximations sometimes cluster together:

The room will take ***up to*** *two hundred* ***or so*** *people, won't it,* ***or something like that****?*

More or less is common as a vague expression in spoken language, but it is hardly ever used before numerical expressions. It is generally used to refer vaguely to completion of an action or event, or to hedge (i.e. be less assertive about) a description of something. It may be used before or after the phrase it refers to. It often means something like 'virtually', 'practically', 'just about':

I think she's sort of ***more or less*** *finished with it.*

They're ***more or less*** *the same.*

They've got everything, ***more or less****.*

*They'll charge thirty-****odd*** *pounds.*
(~~They'll charge more or less thirty pounds.~~)

A–Z **18 *Around, round*; 49 *Like*; 71 *So*; 74 *Thing, stuff*; 77 *Whatever***

From discourse to social contexts

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From discourse to social contexts

INTRODUCTION 104

Spoken interaction may range from being intimate and informal to being formal and distant. Often the distance between speakers is dictated by social factors such as interpersonal relationship, the setting or the respective power and social status of the participants.

There is a variety of grammatical options open to speakers to mark intimacy or distance. These range from different formulaic greetings and farewells to the ways in which people address or name one another, or the way they use clause types or tense and aspect choices to show degrees of politeness. Writers typically cannot see who they are speaking to and often have to 'project' an ideal reader for their purposes (e.g. typical educated reader of novels, or typical teenage magazine reader).

The more dynamic and face-to-face nature of spoken communication also means that speakers have to choose the best ways to organise and sequence their messages for the benefit of their listeners and in collaboration with them. This involves 'marking' the discourse, signalling for the listener what is happening using the discourse-marking resources of the language.

Speakers also express stances, attitudes and feelings towards their messages and reactions to what others say, all in real-time face-to-face interaction, with listeners' sensitivities in mind. Spoken grammar therefore also has important affective features.

Speakers choose how to address others. For example, when do speakers use *sir* or *madam*? When do they address people directly by name?

This chapter looks at some of these central social, contextual and affective functions of grammar and spoken English. Sections 105–113 are concerned with the general class of pragmatic markers (items which mark speakers' personal meanings, their organisational choices, attitudes and feelings). These include: discourse markers and how speakers use them to structure and organise the discourse and to monitor the state of the unfolding talk (106–110); stance markers, which express speakers' attitudes and positions (111); hedges, which enable speakers to make their utterances less assertive (112); and common interjections, which encode speakers' affective reactions (113). The chapter then considers taboo language (114), and greetings and farewells (115), and examines vocatives and other aspects of personal address (117–118). Lastly, the chapter returns to a focus on the differences between speech and writing and the notion of standards, concluding with a look at how the grammars of speech and writing are becoming blended in new forms of electronic communication (119–122).

PRAGMATIC MARKERS 105

Pragmatic markers are a class of items which operate outside the structural limits of the clause and which encode speakers' intentions and interpersonal meanings. Pragmatic markers include discourse markers, which indicate the speaker's intentions with regard to organising, structuring and monitoring the discourse (106), stance markers, which indicate the speaker's stance or attitude vis-à-vis the message (111), hedges, which enable speakers to be less assertive in formulating their message (112), and interjections, items which indicate affective responses and reactions to the discourse (113).

DISCOURSE MARKERS 106

General characteristics 106a

Discourse markers are words and phrases which function to link segments of the discourse to one another in ways which reflect choices of monitoring, organisation and management exercised by the speaker. The most common discourse markers in everyday informal spoken language are single words such as *anyway*, *cos*, *fine*, *good*, *great*, *like*, *now*, *oh*, *okay*, *right*, *so*, *well*, and phrasal and clausal items such as *you know*, *I mean*, *as I say*, *for a start*, *mind you* (for a more complete list, 107–110 below).

Phrases as discourse markers

Discourse markers are outside of the clause structure. They serve to indicate various kinds of relationship between utterances, and simultaneously indicate social relations regarding power and formality. In the following examples, the first group show highlighted items used within the clause; the second group show the same items used as discourse markers:

- In-clause use; non-discourse-marking:

  I didn't really need it but I bought it ***anyway****.*
  (*anyway* functions as a concessive adjunct meaning 'despite [not needing it]')

  You know *what we need? Another helper.*
  (*You know* functions as reporting verb with the clause *what we need* as its object)

  I bought extra food ***so*** *we'd have enough in case more people turned up.*
  (*so* functions as a subordinator introducing an adverbial clause of purpose)

- Discourse-marker use:

  [speaker is describing the different types of house in his neighbourhood]
  You've got high rises, you've got terrace houses, ***you know****, bungalows on the edge and everything.*
  (*you know* monitors the state of shared knowledge and projects an assumption that the listener shares the speaker's perspective on typical kinds of house)

[speaker A has been telling a story about a long, difficult drive from England to Wales; the speakers digress for a while to talk about whether you have to pay to cross the suspension bridge which links England and Wales]
A: *But you only pay one way.*
B: *Oh do you?*
A: *Yeah you only pay going into Wales. You don't pay coming out.*
B: *Oh. Right.*
A: *But er yeah,* ***anyway****, we drove in the rain and the dark for eight hours.*
(*anyway* functions to signal a return to the main narrative after a digression)

[speaker A is a financial adviser who is advising B and C on borrowing money to buy a house; a *first-time buyer* is a person who has never owned a house before]
A: *You've probably got some burning questions to ask me. 'How much can we borrow and how much is it gonna cost?' Am I right?*
B: *Yes.*
A: *Okay,* ***so****, if you just tell me a little bit about yourselves. Are you first-time buyers?*
B: *Yeah. We're first-time buyers.*
(*so* marks a transition between the opening part of the discussion and the main business)

Use of discourse markers

In social terms, discourse markers enable the speaker to exercise control in the discourse and they are power-related (e.g. in classrooms, it is usually only the teacher who can exercise such control with utterances such as ***Right****, let's do an exercise*). In this example of a university lecturer teaching, it would be odd and socially inappropriate for any student to use discourse markers in the way the lecturer does. The lecturer's role is to sequence the material coherently and carefully monitor its reception:

[university science lecture]
We can then have toxic effects. ***Right****. These again can be direct. They can be subtle. But they cause lots and lots of injuries.* ***Right****. Here's an example of one. There's a section of normal liver.* ***Right****. The thing to notice is that all cells, all the cells look roughly the same.* ***Right****. So we've got at the top we've got portal triad. At the bottom we've got central vein.* ***Right****.*

Forms 106b

Discourse markers are a lexical rather than a grammatical category, but their classification in terms of the conventional major word classes (noun, verb, adjective, adverb) is problematic since they stand outside of phrase and clause structures, and they are best considered as a class in their own right.

Phrases as discourse markers

A variety of types of word and phrase commonly function as discourse markers. Most typically, certain words otherwise classed as adverbs and adjectives

frequently function as markers (*anyway*, *good*, *well*, *right*) and some (e.g. *right*, *well*) function more frequently as markers than as adjectives or adverbs. Other items can also function as discourse markers, for example phrases (*at the end of the day*, *in other words*), clauses (*you see*, *you know*, *to put it another way*, *look*, *listen*, *there you go*) and miscellaneous other items (*okay*, *cos*, *no*, *now then*, *so*, *yes/yeah*). Many of these are exemplified below.

Clauses as discourse markers

Whole clauses can function as discourse markers. For example, the clause *as I was saying* typically relates one statement to a preceding statement and can be used either to mark backward reference to an earlier stage in the discourse or to resume after an interruption. Similarly, the clause *talking about X* typically marks the linking of a current or earlier topic to a new one introduced by the speaker:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
[A has been talking about the internet; B interrupts to give back A's change after purchasing drinks with A's money]
A: *Not bad hey. We could do that.*
B: *There's your change.*
A: *Oh cheers. Yeah, the scar=* ***as I was saying****, er,* ***talking about*** *the internet, the scariest thing I've seen on the internet* [laughs] *is Ted's page.*
B: *Oh I've not seen it.*

I mean, *you know* and *you see* can sometimes be used within clauses as subject – verb (s – v) structures, or outside of the clause structure, as discourse markers. When these expressions are inserted parenthetically within a sentence, then their function as discourse markers is clearer:

- Non discourse marking:

S – V	O (clause as object)
I mean	*what I say.*
You know	*that I want to speak about it to him privately first.*
You see	*loads of people at clubs that haven't got good figures wearing short skirts.*

- Discourse marking:

[*5.1* is the name of a version of a computer programme]
A: *She hasn't got 5.1 on her machine but her partner can load it if we can lend her the disks.* ***I mean****, am I at liberty to let these disks go outside the company?*
B: *Erm.*
A: *I don't know how many they're licensed for either?*
B: *Eight.*
(*I mean* as discourse marker, marking the statement following as a rewording or clarification or expansion of the previous one)

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[complaining about restaurant prices]
A: *But when you say have a coffee or something or a soft drink it just mounts up actually.*
B: *Mm. Yes. And you see prices going up er say to four ninety nine+*
A: *Mm.*
B: *+or five ninety nine.*
A: *Yeah. Yeah. Yeah.*
B: ***You know** and people don't sort of perceive that er it's really expensive. But when you think about it, **you know**, just the basic dish, four ninety nine or five ninety nine. Five or six pounds.*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *Plus, **you know**, the little bits and pieces.*
A: *Yeah. Yeah.*
(*you know* as discourse marker, marking statements as assumed shared knowledge or uncontroversial or logically linked)

A: *Do you not normally come here for your Delenia products?*
B: *Oh well it varies.*
A: *Right.*
B: *I don't have a set place. **You see** I move around quite a lot with work so I just go wherever I can pop into.*
(*You see* as discourse marker, linking a statement with its explanation)

Grammatical forms of discourse markers

Different grammatical forms can fulfil the same marking function. For example, the following forms can all be used to prepare the listener for a new topic or for a shift in the current focus of the topic:

***Incidentally**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(adverb)

***By the way**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(prepositional phrase)

***While I think of it**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(finite clause)

***Speaking of which**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(non-finite clause)

***Listen**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(imperative clause)

***Hey**, Rita's going to come round tonight.*
(interjection)

Spoken features of discourse markers

Prosodic information can sometimes help to indicate differences between discourse markers and other parts of speech or clausal functions. For example, if the word or phrase occupies its own tone unit, and if there is a brief silent pause or breath pause after the expression (e.g. *You know* [pause] *she didn't like it*), this usually indicates that the function is that of a discourse marker (also **106c**).

Typical functions 106c

Discourse markers not only organise the discourse but can indicate degrees of formality and people's feelings towards the interaction. A selection of discourse markers is indicated in bold in the extracts below and their typical functions are commented on in the tables that follow them.

Informal interactions

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short

[end of a sales transaction in a shop; A is the assistant, B is a customer]

A: ***Right*** *that comes to er seventy three eighty six. Thank you.* ***Right*** *I just need you to sign there.*
B: *Thank you.*
A: ***Well*** *the weather's turned up today anyway.*
B: *Mm, it's nice isn't it.*
A: *It's breezy though.*
B: [laughs] *Dick said it's been going on forever. He said it's been raining for about=*
A: *It's been raining, we had a snow blast, we had a snowstorm last weekend there.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *Amazing stuff.*
B: ***Great****. Thanks.*
A: ***Good****. I'll give you a receipt for that.* ***There you go****.*
B: ***Great****. Thanks. Thank you.*

Functions of discourse markers

marker	comment
right (×2)	mark the boundaries between stages of the discourse (between the handing over of money and the signing of the sales invoice)
well	marks a topic shift (to the topic of the weather)
great (×2) and *good*	mark both the conclusion of the transaction and (simultaneously) both parties' mutual satisfaction and informal sociability
there you go	marks the completion of the handing over of goods and receipt in an informal, friendly way

Formal interactions

Such informal markers as occur in the shop transaction may not be appropriate in other social contexts (e.g. transacting a last will and testament with a lawyer, receiving a parking fine from a traffic warden), even though the same organisational functions may be performed.

Discourse markers often indicate power relationships in the ways they are used to structure and control the discourse. In the following extract from a conversation between a university professor and a PhD student, the professor uses discourse markers which indicate his authority in the conversation and his ability to control it (marked in bold). The student does not have the same access to conversational control in this situation. Also, neither of the two speakers uses

markers such as *great* or *there you go*, which might project too informal a relationship in this context:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[A is a university professor, B is a PhD student]
A: *I told you officially if you're registered for a PhD all along+*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *+then we don't need to worry. I just need to confirm that progress is satisfactory.*
B: *I see. My worry is, is the feeling, my worry is, is whether you like what I'm doing or not. That's my feeling.*
A: ***Ah well** if I didn't like it, I would have told you.*
B: *I see.*
A: *Mm. I'm very happy. I wasn't happy a year ago+*
B: *I know.*
A: *+but now I'm happy.*
B: ***So** I'm going to apply for another year in=*
A: *Yes.*
B: ***So** this is only till the end of June+*
A: ***Good**.*
B: *+**so** I hope+*
A: ***Good**.*
B: *+you know that by June we can=*
A: ***Well** by June I should be able to say that everything is in place. The hypotheses are formulated. Evidence is produced. You know, forty thousand words have been written, which nearly they have.*
B: *Uhuh.*
A: *Erm literature review completed. Er and some analysis completed. And so on. And that the remaining year will be spent putting the finishing and final touches to the thesis because you'll have to submit it in about April next year so that we can examine you in June next year and you can have time to do any corrections that are deemed before going home in August. Or September. Er. That's the way to see it isn't it. **Yeah**.*
B: *Yeah. Mm.*
A: ***Okay**. Er, I must go off to a meeting.*

Functions of discourse markers

marker	comment
ah well	marks a shift to a 'dispreferred' or divergent next utterance: the professor diverges from the student's line of argument
so (×3)	mark conclusions reached by the student
good (×2)	mark the professor's satisfaction with the direction of the discussion
well	marks the professor interrupting or pre-empting the student's conclusion in order to present his own conclusion
yeah	marks the professor's assumption that the student will concur with his view of the situation
okay	marks the professor's desire (and power) to end the conversation

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COMMON SPOKEN DISCOURSE MARKERS 107

The most frequent discourse markers in spoken English are the single-word items *anyway*, *cos*, *fine*, *good*, *great*, *like*, *now*, *oh*, *okay*, *right*, *so*, *well*.

Some discourse markers (e.g. *oh*, *mind you*, *right*, *you know*) are restricted to spoken English or to written reports of speech or written texts imitating a spoken style. Others, such as *well*, may occasionally occur in informal writing but are otherwise exclusive to spoken English.

Discourse markers occur in writing, and some types of marker for organising written texts are very rare in everyday speech (e.g. *the end*, *section 3*, *introduction*, *in sum*, *thirdly*). In this chapter we focus only on those markers which are common in speech.

DISCOURSE MARKERS: ORGANISING THE DISCOURSE 108

Opening up and closing down 108a

Openings

Openings and closings are opportunities for speakers to manage the discourse in terms of launching and concluding topics, opening, concluding or temporarily closing a whole conversation, re-opening previously closed or interrupted conversations. Some of the most common and frequent markers function to facilitate openings and closings of these kinds, for example, *so*, *(all) right*, *right then*, *now*, *good*, *well*, *okay*, *anyway*, *fine*:

[opening an academic discussion]
***Right**, I suppose we should begin by considering the tricky question of the Norman invasion.*

[two friends in a café; small talk about different types of coffee]
A: *Have you ever tried the different coffees?*
B: *No.*
A: *No. I haven't either.*
B: *Flavoured coffees?*
A: *Yeah. Er well even the ones that they have here.*
B: *You know I wouldn't know the difference I don't think.*
A: *I don't know if I would either. No. I thought you know the way you just you know you ask for coffee and they just give you something.*
B: *Yeah. No. I've never tried them.*
[Pause]
A: ***So** how's Laura getting on?*
B: *I think she's just looking forward to coming home.*
(pause, then *So* marking the opening of the speaker's main topic: Laura)

In more formal speech, *now* can occur to mark the opening of a phase of talk or of a new topic, or to mark a rhetorical shift of some sort from one important aspect of a topic to another almost like paragraph changes in written texts:

> [beginning of a university lecture in medicine]
> ***Now**, can you all hear? Er if it is too loud do let me know. Erm two weeks ago I had a patient who had difficulty swallowing. I operated on her six years ago because she had a nasty cancer of the stomach. We'd done quite a big operation and she's done remarkably well. But now she came back unable to swallow. **Now**, we did lots of tests on her and it's pretty obvious she'd got a cancer back again. Very near where the previous one was. Right in the middle there* [points to diagram]. ***Now**, what do you do? She's quite elderly. Er her life was becoming a misery.*

Closings

Pre-closings and closings can also be facilitated by the use of discourse markers. These typically involve *(all) right*, *so*, *anyway*, *okay*, *well* and, particularly at the pre-closings of service encounters, *fine*, *lovely*, *good*, *great*:

> [on the telephone]
> ***So**, I thought I'd better just ring and check.* [other speaker speaks] *I see. **Right**. **Anyway**, I'd better go, cos I'm actually ringing from the medical room.*
> (signals of pre-closing)

> [conclusion of a discussion concerning a printing job]
> A: *And then we actually want overheads, not just colour copies.*
> B: *Yeah.*
> A: *Six sets.*
> B: *Six sets of each.*
> A: ***Fine**.*
> B: ***Fine**.*
> A: ***Right**. I'll see you tomorrow.*
> B: ***Okay**.*
> A: ***Okay**. **Lovely**.*
> B: *Yeah.*
> A: *Thanks Jim.*
> B: *Bye.*
> A: *Bye.*

> The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
> A: *Haven't I missed something? A car went out of control or something? Wendy went i= I don't know. My daughter went into the Post Office and they were all discussing it. A car had gone out of control I think. **Oh well**.*
> B: *Er **anyway** I'd better get back.*
> A: ***Anyway** see you later.*
> B: *Bye.*
> A: *Bye.*
> B: *Ta ta.*

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The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
A: ***Well*** *I'd better go and finish this lunch+*
B: ***Okay then****.*
A: *+cos we're rather hungry.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *And Paul is waiting by the door.*
B: *Oh I see.* ***Right****.*
A: ***Okay****.*
B: ***Okay then****. See you later.*
A: *Bye bye.*
B: *Cheers. Bye.*

Sequencing 108b

Relationships of sequence can be signalled by discourse markers. Such markers indicate explicitly the order in which things occur or how different segments of a discourse are being organised. They also mark how one thing leads to or leads back to another. Among the words and phrases which mainly signal such relationships in spoken language are:

and	*in general*	*second*
and then	*in the end*	*secondly* (more formal than *second*)
finally	*in the first place*	*so*
first (of all)	*last of all*	*there again*
firstly (more formal than *first*)	*lastly*	*third(ly)*
for a start	*next*	*to sum up*
going back to	*on top of that*	*what's more*

[enquiring about flights at a travel agent's]
A: *Erm I was wondering if you could give me some information about flights to Spain please.*
B: *Whereabouts in Spain?*
A: *Erm well* ***first of all*** *do you know if er Bilbao is the closest airport to San Sebastian?*
B: *I think it is actually, off the top of my head, cos er, there's not many that we do up in the north at all. I know you can get a flight there from Luton.*
A: *Right.*
B: *Right.*
A: *All right. Erm er er er I'd like to go to … from London to Bilbao on Sunday the third of May.*
B: *Yeah.*
(*first of all* marks that the question must be dealt with before the customer can state the desired booking)

[talking about problems connected with giving money to charities]
You know you give them money and you're trying to be nice and kind but it doesn't work out like that. Because ***for a start*** *half the money that goes over there, there's some eaten up in administration costs. That's not charity is it. That's paying people to supposedly help others.*
(*for a start* suggests this is the first and probably most important of a number of points)

[university lecturer discussing forces that can operate negatively on the human body; he has just been discussing pressure, in connection with deep-sea diving]
I've only seen it once when somebody came up like that and er your lungs are actually dropping out of your mouth. So it's quite a serious diving injury. ***Next*** *we have radiant energy. Right. You're all familiar with sunburn which is an example of radiant energy. Right.*

[tutor commenting on a student's essay; several points have already been made]
Finally*, the argument needs supporting with more evidence concerning the tactics adopted by the Spanish invaders.*

Speakers often use the letters of the alphabet, A and B (and occasionally extending to C, but not beyond), to sequence points or arguments:

[recounting a negative experience of making a complaint at a clinic]
A: *Yes I mean really they wanted me out of the way so they could get on* ***A*** *with the clinic that was really going on which was a totally different clinic.*
B: *I see.*
A: *And* ***B*** *get me out of the way before anybody else arrived and complained as well.*

The marker *going back to X* enables speakers to jump back to a topic that was talked about earlier. It is often preceded by *but*:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[speakers were talking about the writer, Faulkner; now they are discussing the writer, Chandler, author of *The Big Sleep*]
A: *The Big Sleep was 1946.*
B: *Yeah. I think he worked on that.*
A: *I think it was yeah.*
B: *And it= Basically it also distracted from work he was doing on his novels. He didn't have time. There was a big sort of hiatus between forty two and forty eight where he did no+*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *+he did completely no work on his novels. So.*
A: *Right.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: ***But*** *erm* ***going back to*** *Faulkner I I mean I'm I don't know much about him. When did he actually die or where? Or=*
B: *Sixty two. Erm he went to a sanatorium.*

also **123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences** for more detailed treatment of such items with particular reference to written text

Topics: marking boundaries and linking segments 108c

One of the main functions of discourse markers in spoken language is to mark topic boundaries, indicating the beginning or end of a topic or a transition from one topic or bit of business to another:

[answerphone message]
Hiya. It's Nora. Erm I think you probably rang me earlier this evening. Erm if you haven't gone to bed, you can ring me back. ***Okay*** *bye bye.*
(marking the boundary between the message and the goodbye)

A: *And how's Ricky, your boyfriend?*
B: *He's fine. Yeah.*
A: *That's good.* ***So*** *what are you doing at the weekend? Anything?*
B: *Er Ricky's, he's working.*
(marking the boundary between asking about the boyfriend and introducing the new topic: the weekend)

Another main purpose of discourse markers is to signal coherent links between one part of a topic and the next part. Discourse markers help speakers to negotiate their way through talk, checking whether they share a common view of the topic and of the nature of the unfolding discourse with their listener:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[speaker A resumes a phone call after an interruption by another caller]
A: *Hi. Sorry about that mad woman on the line.* [laughs] *Erm what's erm=* ***Oh yeah*** *er do you have a contact number for Amanda Short+*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *+erm* ***cos*** *I'm trying to firm up delivery dates and I think everyone's on schedule for a first of April delivery, which is brilliant.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: ***And*** *erm she's the only one that I haven't heard from so+*
B: ***Right****.*
(*oh yeah* marks a link between the interrupted topic and its resumption; *cos* marks the reason/justification/explanation for asking the question, rather than acting as a causal subordinator; *and* marks the continuation of the explanation; *right* marks the listener's satisfactory reception of the message)

A–Z **17 *Anyway*; 58 *Okay/OK*; 69 *Right, rightly*; 71 *So***

Topics: focusing attention, diverting, shifting, resuming 108d

Focusing attention

Attention or focus can be directed to a topic or to a phase of the talk by a number of discourse markers. Common examples are *now*, *hey*, *ah*, *oh* and imperative verb forms (*look*, *listen*, *just think*, *remember*). The main function is to focus the attention of the listener on what the speaker feels is important:

Hey*, I wanted to ask you something. What was it?*

Listen*, we've been talking about this for ages. We need a decision.*

[discussing earrings which speaker B wants speaker A to wear at B's wedding]
A: *No. I don't like them.*
B: *You're going to wear them.*
A: *No I'm not.*
B: *Yes you are.*
A: *Sam please.*
B: ***Look** it's our wedding.*
A: ***Look**.* [sighs] *Please will you just humour me? I've had a terrible day.*
B: *Oh. And I haven't?*
A: *Do you know what time I had to get up this morning? Six o'clock.*

Diverting

Oh often indicates that the speaker is about to create an unexpected diversion in the conversation:

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
A: *So you get the prestige of working for the University of Bristol with living in the country in a nice big open environment which is+*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *+more appealing when you're a bit older isn't it?*
B: *Suppose so.*
A: *That's my theory anyway.*
B: *Never really thought about it like that.* ***Oh** I forgot. Your washing's up there. Sorry just noticed it.*
A: *Oh you've not even put it out or anything.*
B: *Sorry, I forgot about it.*

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
A: *Anyway he's not that much younger. I mean he's older than Mark and Mike. But erm he's erm=*
B: ***Oh** what's Mark's other name?*
A: *Hubbard.*
B: *Hubbard.*

A–Z **57 *Oh***

Shifting

Well most typically signals a shift in the projected or expected direction of the discourse, or a response which might not have been anticipated by the speaker:

A: *Did you enjoy the film?*
B: ***Well**, we enjoyed the first half but after that I'm not sure.*
(*yes-no* question, but B feels the question cannot be answered by just *yes* or *no*)

A: *What do we do about the traffic?*
B: ***Well**, how about leaving earlier so we miss the worst of it?*
(against the anticipation that the question represented a serious problem)

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Resuming

So and *anyway*, often accompanied by expressions such as *where was I?*, *where were we?*, *what was I saying?* or *oh yes/yeah*, can be used to resume an interrupted or diverted topic:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short

[in the middle of telling a story]

A: *She says 'Oh darling do wear something nice.' You know. 'Mark Darcy will be here.' And she turns up and she's wearing something hideous and they've told him that she's very bookie. That she's a secretary to a publisher or something like that.*

B: *Bookie?*

A: *Bookie.*

B: *What's that?*

A: *Likes books.*

B: *Oh right. Oh.*

A: ***Anyway** erm. Where was I?*

B: *Mm. You were erm=*

A: ***Oh yeah**. She goes to this Christmas party and he's been told to talk to her about books because she's a secretary or something.*

(resuming the story after a diversion to explain the unusual use of the word *bookie*)

[interrupted anecdote]

A: *Is that your writing?*

B: *No. Don't know why that's there. Cos I put that on. But I lent it to this= Do you know that girl I hate, can't remember her name, whatever. **So** what was I saying?*

A: *That annoying one, Joan.*

B: *Yeah. **So** he went to this thing and presented all these proposals that he'd got.*

(resuming the main topic after trying to remember someone's name)

MONITORING THE DISCOURSE 109

Reformulations 109a

Some discourse markers enable speakers to monitor and manage the ongoing discourse by commenting explicitly on the process of talking itself.

Discourse markers can signal reformulations or alternative expressions, indicating that the speaker has not selected the most appropriate way of expressing things and is adding to or refining what they say with a more apt word or phrase. Among such markers are:

as I was saying	*if you like*	*in other words*
as it were	*in a manner of speaking*	*not to say*
I mean		*or rather*

so to speak	*that's to say*	*to put it bluntly/ mildly*
strictly speaking	*to put it another way*	*well*

Jim was exhausted and dehydrated. ***To put it another way****, he was completely knackered.*

He's been too easy-going, ***not to say*** *careless and stupid, walking across that mountain at nightfall and on his own too.*

The hotel simply hasn't done its job properly. ***In other words****, we're very unhappy and we'd like a refund.*

The cottage is in a small town, ***well****, a small industrial town, if you like.*

Monitoring shared knowledge 109b

Two of the most common discourse markers are *you know* and *(you) see*. Both these markers signal that speakers are sensitive to the needs of their listeners and are monitoring the state of shared knowledge in the conversation.

(You) see projects the assumption that the listener may not have the same state of knowledge as the speaker:

You see*, since I've damaged my back in that fall, I find it difficult to climb the stairs without help.*
(speaker cannot assume the listener knows this)

You do it like this. Cut the branches right back, ***see****, then cut them into smaller pieces.*

You know projects the assumption that knowledge is shared or that assertions are uncontroversial, and reinforces common points of reference, or checks that the listener is following what is being said:

If you got the earliest train in the morning and then, ***you know****, like, got the last train back at night, it might be cheaper that way.*

DISCOURSE MARKING IN RESPONSES 110

Discourse markers are an important resource for listeners to indicate their involvement with what is being said and to manage their own responses.

(All) right can be used to indicate positive responses and to signal agreement to a proposed action:

A: *I think we should go to the garden centre first.*
B: ***Right****, that's fine by me.*

Response tokens such as *(all) right*, *I see*, *good*, *great*, *fine* and *okay* show that the listener is receiving the message and is at the same time channelling back support

for what the speaker is saying. The response token can simultaneously signal boundaries in the discourse and send back signals of sociability. Such markers are a sign of active and cooperative listening:

A: *So first of all, we have to meet Kulvinder cos she's got the car.*
B: *I see.*
A: *Then we'll pick up Sue.*
B: ***Right.***
A: *So we'll come round to your place around seven.*
B: ***Okay, I see, right,*** *thanks a lot.*

also **95, Response tokens**

A–Z **69 *Right, rightly***

STANCE MARKERS 111

A number of common expressions mark the speaker's stance or attitude towards the message. Among the expressions which most frequently signal stances, attitudes and points of view towards segments of discourse are:

actually
admittedly
amazingly
basically
certainly
clearly
confidentially
doubtless
essentially
frankly
to be frank
fortunately
honestly
to be honest
hopefully
ideally
if you ask me
I'm afraid
I must admit
I must say
I think
in fact
indeed
literally
naturally
no doubt
obviously
of course
predictably
putting (or *to put*) *it mildly/bluntly*
(quite) rightly
really
sadly
seriously
(I'm) sorry
strictly speaking
surprisingly
thankfully
to tell you the truth
understandably
undoubtedly
unfortunately

The team are doing badly and, ***quite frankly****, I think he should be replaced by someone who knows what he's doing.*

I'll have to call you back, ***I'm afraid****. Okay?*

[explaining to someone how to use dial-up internet on a home computer]
A: *So now* ***obviously*** *when you're on the internet, if someone tries to phone you, they'll just get an engaged tone.*
B: *Right.*
A: *Okay. But if you wanna use the telephone you just log off. Pick up the telephone and dial. And that's it.*
B: *Okay. So* ***basically*** *if I'm on the internet for an hour or something, people can't phone in for an hour.*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *Okay.*
A: *That's just something you get used to.*

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
[at a travel agent's; A is the assistant]
A: *Is it okay to send the information to your mother? I mean it's not a surprise holiday or anything?*
B: *Oh, well* ***to be honest actually*** *she doesn't know that I'm making these arrangements.*
A: *Oh lovely.*
B *: So it would* ***actually*** *be better if it was=*
A: *So if you could give me your postcode.*
B: *Oh, it's the same* ***actually****.*
A: *It is?*
B: *Yeah.*

A–Z **9 *Actual, actually*; 46 *In fact*; 52 *Mean*; 68 *Really***

HEDGES 112

Speakers are often careful not to sound too blunt and assertive, and a variety of markers exist to hedge (i.e. to express degrees of assertiveness). A range of expressions are used in everyday spoken language to downtone the assertiveness of a segment of discourse. These include:

apparently	*kind of*	*probably*
arguably	*like*	*roughly*
by any chance	*maybe*	*sort of*
I think	*perhaps*	*surely*
just (about)	*presumably*	

A: *I just turned round to her and said 'Let me use your phone.' It wasn't aggressive. I wasn't violent.*
B: *Well* ***apparently*** *you snatched the phone off the lady.*
A: *No I didn't.*

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[talking about spring flowers in speaker A's garden]
A: *Angela planted them. There's crocuses around the base of the trees but they're* ***just about*** *gone* ***I think****.*
B: *Oh right. Yeah. Cos it's been very mild hasn't it.*
A: *It's been very mild.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *We had snowdrops but the frost* ***kind of*** *killed them* ***I think****.*

A: *It's warm in here isn't it.*
B: *It is warm in here now. Yeah.*
A: *Turn the radiator down a little bit* ***perhaps****.*
B: *Yeah.*

I mean ***roughly*** *it's going to cost about another thousand pounds.*

also **103a Vague language**

A–Z **47 *Just*; 49 *Like***

INTERJECTIONS 113

The term interjection normally refers to exclamative utterances consisting of single words that do not easily fit into the major word classes (noun, verb, adjective, adverb) such as: *bother*, *crikey*, *damn*, *god*, *goodness (me)*, *gosh*, *(good) heavens*, *hooray*, *jeez*, *ooh*, *oh no*, *oops*, *ouch*, *ow*, *ugh*, *tut-tut*, *whoops*, *wow*, *yippee*, *yuk*.

All these items express positive or negative emotional reactions to what is being or has just been said or to something in the situation. Interjections are especially common in spoken language and rare in writing except in written representations of speech:

A: *You know Hilary? She got married last week.*
B: ***Gosh****! That's quick. How long has she known him?*
(expresses surprise; *Crikey*/*wow* are alternatives here)

Ouch*, that hurt.*
(expresses a reaction to pain)

Oops*, I shouldn't have said that, should I?*
(expresses a reaction to having unintentionally done something inappropriate)

A: *The bus has already gone.*
B: ***Damn****. Now I'm going to have to walk home.*
(expresses irritation at bad luck or inconvenience)

Ugh*, I can't eat any more of this.*
(expresses a negative reaction to unpleasant sensations)

They're here at last. ***Yippee****!*
(expresses excitement)

A: *Come and look at the sunset.*
B: [goes to the window] ***Wow**, yeah, fantastic.*
(expresses strong surprise or a reaction of awe and wonder)

***Tut-tut**. That's the second time this week you've forgotten my coffee.*
(expresses disapproval, often in a mock-humorous way)

Other items include:

phew (expresses relief)

hooray (indicates delight at a particular outcome)

aargh (indicates general displeasure or unhappiness)

urgh (expresses a strong negative reaction of displeasure)

poo (reaction to an unpleasant smell)

yuk (reaction to something unpleasant, e.g. a taste)

ooo (reaction of pleasure or delight)

SWEARING AND TABOO EXPRESSIONS 114

General 114a

Swearing and the general use of taboo words is increasingly heard in spoken English both in private and in public settings (including radio, TV and films). Although there are some forms of swearing that are less offensive than others, most features of swearing involve taboo words. Learners of English should exercise great care concerning such usages.

The use of taboo words and phrases projects either a close, intimate relationship with the person or group to whom they are addressed (so that one feels free to use taboo words) or else a threatening and hostile relationship. In such contexts it is difficult for learners of a language to know the precise strength of such expressions.

Most taboo words and phrases in English exist under two main headings of religion and parts of the body and bodily processes, especially those associated with either sexual activity or with using the toilet. The most common taboo expressions in this category involve the words *fuck* (to have sexual intercourse – the word is used as a noun and verb forms) and *shit* (bodily excrement – the word is used as a noun and a verb).

A good dictionary will cover the main meanings of these and similar words; this section pays particular attention to grammatical patterns. A rough guide is also given here concerning the relative strength of swearing expressions. A very strong expression, which is likely to be shocking or threatening in most non-intimate situations, is given five stars (*****); a less strong expression, likely to cause little or no offence, is given only one star (*).

In general, swearing which involves 'religious' taboo expressions is likely to be weaker than swearing that involves 'parts of the body' taboo expressions,

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although people with strong religious views may be offended by both. Learners are advised against using such expressions, although, especially in informal contexts and in films and on TV, etc., it is likely that such uses of language will be heard.

Swearing often takes the form of interjections (113). This can involve single words or short phrases or clauses that are used to express a variety of strong feelings, in particular, annoyance, frustration and anger:

***Damn**! That's the third time this week the car has broken down. (*)*

***Christ**! Why didn't you tell me? I could have stopped them!! (**)*

***Shit**! I shouldn't have used that kind of nail. I've broken the lock. (****)*

*Oh **fuck it**! I can't find the address. (*****)*

***Christ almighty**! They've actually won their first match. (**)*

*Well, **I'll be buggered**! How did you manage to find that? (****)*

***Fuck me**! That's not what she told me. How can that possibly be true? (*****)*

Wh-exclamatives with taboo words are also sometimes used:

***What the hell** are you doing letting that dog out without a lead on! (*)*

***What the fuck** have I done with my glasses! (*****)*

[said in response to the phone ringing very late in the evening]
***Who the fuck** is that! (*****)*

Taboo naming expressions 114b

Taboo naming expressions are commonly used to insult another person. Sometimes the insult is serious and sometimes it can be playful and affectionate. Only the immediate context of the use of the expression will indicate which meaning is intended. Insulting by swearing is particularly common with vocatives (116):

***Lucky bastard**! How did you manage to get the day off? (***)*

*Come here, you daft **prick**. (***)*

*Ruth, **you bitch**! Why did you tell her? Can't you keep a secret? (***)*

Taboo naming words such as *arsehole*, *bastard*, *bugger*, *bitch*, *cow*, *get/git*, *prick*, *tit*, *twat/twot*, are preceded by *you* when addressed directly at the listener, while *the* is most commonly used to refer to third parties:

*I hope it's your hormones, **you stupid cow**. (***)*

*I always give him money, and then when I ask him, he never gives it, **the bastard**. (***)*

*I mean when he doesn't sort of trust his own kids sort of thing. Do you know what I mean? I mean he might be disappointed in me sometimes but I still love **the old bugger**. And there's no two ways about that really, is there. He's always dad. (***)*

You and *the* are sometimes ellipted, since the referent is usually obvious:

Get up, ***lazy cow****! (***)*
(Get up, (you) lazy cow.)

I lent the key to Dave. ***Daft bastard*** *lost it. (***)*
((The) daft bastard lost it.)

Taboo intensifiers 114c

Taboo expressions are frequently used as intensifying adverbs or adjectives. The words *bloody* and *fucking* are especially common in this function. When these are used as adverbs, post-intensifier *well* is often used for further emphasis:

Where's the ***bloody*** *key? (*)*

That's ***fucking*** *marvellous, that is, isn't it? It's* ***fucking-well*** *snowing again. (*****)*

Unlike *shit*, *fuck* and *bugger*, *bloody* is not used on its own as an interjection. *Bloody hell!* is the usual interjection form:

Oh ***fuck****! I forgot to post that letter. (*****)*
(or: Oh shit/bugger! But not: ~~Oh bloody!~~)

A: *Do you know how much they're going to cost? Hundred thousand pound.*
B: ***Bloody hell!*** *Crazy isn't it? (**)*

GREETINGS AND FAREWELLS 115

Greetings usually involve an exchange of the same or very similar words and expressions. Different expressions mark different levels of formality. In general, the briefer the structure, the more informal the greeting or farewell is:

Good morning (more formal)
Good evening
Hello
Morning
Evening
Hi
Hi there
Hiya (less formal)

Note that *good evening* but not *goodnight* may be used as a greeting. *Goodnight* is used either when leaving someone in the late evening or night, or just before going to bed or to sleep for the night:

[B has just arrived at A's house]
A: *Hello Terry.*
B: ***Good evening***.
(not: ~~Goodnight.~~)

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When leaving people, the same conventions regarding formality apply as when meeting and greeting people:

Goodnight (more formal)
Goodbye
Bye
Bye bye
See you later
See you (often pronounced *see ya*)
Cheers
Ta-ta (often pronounced /təˈrɑː/) (less formal)

VOCATIVES 116

Unlike many other languages, English does not have ways of addressing people formally or informally by means of different pronouns or other grammatical devices. In English, the relative formality of terms of address is managed by means of vocatives, i.e. the use of the addressee's name (*Jane*, *Mr Lambert*) or a term of kinship (*mum*, *grandad*) or endearment (*darling*, *love*).

Vocatives occur frequently in spoken English. They occur in written English but in more restricted contexts such as salutations in letters (*Dear X*) or in direct-speech reports. In spoken English they are more closely connected with social intimacy and distance in interpersonal relationships and with the marking of discourse boundaries (they occur frequently at topic boundaries, 118e).

English also does not have any standard polite way of addressing strangers. For example, in British English it is very difficult to know how to attract the attention of a stranger in the street who may have dropped something. *Sir! Madam!* are not commonly used in this situation, and *hello*, *sorry* or *excuse me* are most likely to be used to attract attention.

TYPES OF VOCATIVE 117

Names and titles 117a

Vocatives include various forms of people's names and titles:

People's names and titles

form	example
full first name	***Laura***, *have you got a minute?*
abbreviated first name	*Can you give me a hand,* ***Pete****.* (Peter)
nickname	*Hi,* ***Red****. How are you?* (to a red-haired man)
title plus family name	***Mr Roberts****, could I have a word with you?*
title alone	*Thank you,* ***doctor****.*

Abbreviating first names

First names can be familiarised by abbreviating the name (often to a single syllable) or by ending the name with an *-ie* or *-y* form. Among names created in this way are:

Anthony (Tony)
Antonia (Toni)
Devinder (Dev)
James (Jamie)
Jennifer (Jenny, Jen)
Judith (Jude, Judy)
Matthew (Matt, Matty)
Michael (Mike, Mick, Mickey)
Rajiv (Raj)
Susan (Sue, Susie)

The following abbreviated or 'short' forms are less transparent:

Catherine (Kate, Katie, Kit, Kitty)
Deborah (Debbie, Debs)
Dorothy (Dolly, Dot)
Edward (Ted, Teddie)
Elizabeth (Betty, Liz)
Geraldine (Gel)
Julie (Jules)
Richard (Dick, Rick, Ricky)
Robert (Bob, Bobby)
Terence (Terry, Tel)

Degrees of formality

Using full, unabbreviated first names is more formal than using abbreviated forms. Using full family names and family names with titles is more formal still, indicating a greater social distance between speakers:

*Now, **Jennifer**, you've passed the test. So well done … but we'd like you to do just one part again.*

*May I introduce you? **Professor Jackson**, this is Martine, our new secretary.*

***Doctor Jones**, there's a telephone call for you on line 3.*

Family-name-only vocative is rarely used among adults in British English, except in strict institutional contexts, and generally only by a senior person addressing a junior person (e.g. teacher to school student, army officer to subordinate, employer to servant).

The use of the academic titles *doctor* or *professor* as vocatives is not normal without the family name of the individual:

***Professor** Smith, could I give you my essay?*
(~~Professor, could I give you my essay?~~)

Doctor can be used as a vocative without the family name only to a medical doctor:

*Do you think it's serious, **doctor**?*

Some other titles of rank and profession can be used alone:

[radio interviewer interviewing a military general]
*Now **general**, you have considerable experience of guerrilla warfare.*

[addressing a Roman Catholic priest]
***Father**, can I buy a ticket for the charity dinner?*

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Terms of kinship and endearment 117b

Family terms include *mother* (usually formal), *mum*, *mam*, *mummy* (to refer to a mother), *father* (usually formal), *dad*, *daddy*, *pappa* (to refer to a father), *pops*, *granpa*, *granpy*, *gramps* (to refer to a grandfather), *gran*, *granma*, *nana*, *nan* (to refer to a grandmother), *bruv* (a brother), *sis* (a sister), *cuz* (a cousin). Such vocatives indicate degrees of intimacy and closeness between speakers:

I'll tell you what, ***mum****, you're going to be a bit cross about it.*

You can lend me five pounds, can't you ***sis****?*

Terms of endearment include: *darling*, *dear*, *poppet* (usually to a little child), *love*, *luvvie*, *sweetheart*. They may combine with names:

Can you put the coffee on, ***sweetheart****?*

Mike*,* ***love****, could you take this out to the back yard for me. Ta.*

General plural vocatives 117c

General plural vocatives (e.g. *folks*, *everyone/everybody*, *children*, *boys*, *lads*, *girls*, *guys*, *ladies*, *gentlemen*) are used to address groups:

What are you planning to do tonight, ***folks****?*

Children*, could you all pay attention please.*

[announcement at a conference lecture]
Everybody*, could you all hand in your evaluations as you leave, please.*

Impersonal vocatives 117d

Someone/somebody can be used as an impersonal vocative to summon any one of a known group of people:

Answer the door, ***someone****! I'm in the bathroom.*

Honorifics 117e

Honorifics such as *sir* or *madam* are respectful and deferential. They most commonly occur in service encounters. *Sir* and *miss* are generally used to address male and female school teachers (but not teachers in higher education):

[in a shop]
What can I get you, ***madam****?*

[in a school classroom, to the teacher]
Sir*, he won't let me finish the experiment.*

Sir and *madam* are rare as vocatives in British English outside of service situations. Male strangers may be addressed as *mate*, but this does project a high degree of informality and should be used with care:

*Excuse me, **mate**, do you know where Parton Street is?*

There is no equivalent accepted term for addressing a female stranger, though *love* (often written as *luv*) is sometimes used in this way. However, many women object to this use of *love* or *(my) dear* as patronising or sexist.

Calling people by the name of their occupation is less common and depends on the social status of the occupation. Some which do occur include *doctor* (medical), *driver*, *nurse*, *minister*, *officer*, *waiter*:

[passenger to bus driver]
*Can you let me off here please, **driver**.*

[radio interview with a government minister]
*Now, **minister**, how would you explain this to the electorate?*

*Excuse me, **waiter**, sorry, could we have some more water, please?*

DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS OF VOCATIVES 118

Summons 118a

Vocatives are used to call or summon a person:

***Sue**! Your cup of tea is poured.*

Turn management 118b

Vocatives function in the management of speaker turns, although this is not an especially common function in face-to-face spoken discourse. They are used to identify an addressee, to nominate a next speaker or to soften an interruption:

A: *I should have some change.*
B: *I owe you too don't I, **Jodie**.*
C: *Yes you do.*

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[speakers are looking at a document about the rules of credit unions]
A: *Whereas the the bank er the credit union made provision with disclosure may be able to enter into contracts with= In other words if the bank want to see the= to find out where money+*
B: *Hang on **Geoff**. I've not got a seventy six two now.*
C: *Yeah.*
B: *Is that what you're up against?*
A: *Yeah. It says that any member= any person can erm any er er member+*
B: *Any member or any persons having an interest in the funds.*

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Vocatives occur frequently in radio phone-ins and similar non-face-to-face contexts. The vocative is used for managing the talk – that is bringing callers in, controlling their talk and dismissing them when their contribution is deemed to be sufficient:

A: *Welcome back to the programme.* ***Alistair****, thanks for your call. Enjoyed talking to you. Now it's Jack on line 2. Hi,* ***Jack****? Good afternoon to you. Hello there.*
B: *Hello.*
A: *Hi how are you?*

Ritual and sociable contexts 118c

Vocatives often occur ritualistically, for example, to identify participants when food is being served, even though it may be obvious from gaze and body orientation who is being addressed. In such contexts vocatives can occur alone as a single turn:

[a hostess is offering and serving food at a dinner table]
A: *Bits of everything here.* ***Richard****?*
B: *No thank you.*
A: *No?* ***Pauline****?*
C: *Fine thank you.*
A: ***Kevin****?*
D: *No. I'm full.*

Vocatives also often occur in contexts where the purpose is purely sociable and where no real information is exchanged (phatic contexts), e.g. greetings, *how-are-you*'s, remarks about the weather:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[two colleagues, A and B, are talking informally about vocational courses they may be allowed to go on and C enters in the middle of the conversation; *hiya* and *hey* are very informal alternatives to *hello*]
A: *I mean it's obviously been passed okay by Pat Cromwell and ultimately that's the person who's making the decisions+*
B: *Mm.*
A: *+as to who goes on it as far as I'm concerned. And=*
C: *Hiya* ***Lynn****.*
B: *Hey* ***Pat****.*
A: *Hiya* ***Pat****. Erm.*
B: *So that's=*
A: *that's the+*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *+decision out of my hands.*

Softening and lessening threats to dignity 118d

Vocatives are commonly used to mitigate a threat to the listener's dignity or to soften an utterance. A vocative is not normally threatening and indicates solidarity and membership of a group:

[group of female young friends discussing eating and weight problems]
A: *You're not fat **Jane**.*
B: *I will be if I'm not careful.*

Vocatives can soften utterances which may possibly threaten, challenge or offend another speaker. In these functions the vocative typically occurs at or near the front of an utterance or in a mid position:

A: *So she's gonna try and go into school. But she's got an arrangement that she'll come for er er if she can't manage next week.*
B: *But **Sally**, she's old to be teaching.*

*I'm sorry to have to tell you, **Daria**, that you haven't been successful.*

Vocatives are also used to make requests more indirect and to lessen the imposition:

A: *Will you put on the fish, **Nancy**, so that it'll heat, the fish now.*
B: *Oh yeah.*

Topic management 118e

Vocatives also function similarly to some discourse markers (106). They mark the way in which a topic is managed between speakers in so far as they occur at boundaries where topics are launched, expanded, shifted, changed or closed. As part of the management of a topic, speakers may name another conversational participant in order to validate or confirm an assertion:

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[the speakers are discussing A's deceased mother; a *Geordie* accent is the accent associated with the area of Newcastle in north-east England]
A: *And she said when she came down here to Bristol she er she had a Geordie accent and all the kids used to+*
B: *Well she would have.*
A: *+make fun of her.*
B: *She would have.*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *Of course.*
A: *Where were you born then, **Mary**?*
B: *In Bristol.*
A: *You're a Bristol girl.*
B: *Yeah.*
(Mary is already the addressee; the vocative coincides with a topic shift)

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A: *It was the right place, was it?*
B: *Yes. The right place. Yeah. Yeah.*
C: *They were horrible.*
D: *Do you know the people,* ***dad****?*
C: *Yeah.*

In the above examples the vocatives do not simply identify the addressees. A shift of conversational topic or an encouragement to continue and expand a topic is indicated. In both the above extracts the vocative occupies end position. In the following extract it occurs close to the topical information that needs to be confirmed. In this example A calls on his wife, B, to confirm certain information:

[speakers are discussing a well-known family of traditional Irish musicians]
A: *Er we we were in er Cork weren't we,* ***Barbara****, and we heard his brother. Which brother was it we heard?*
B: *Er, Sean, I think.*

Joking, banter 118f

The vocative frequently co-occurs with light-hearted joking talk and supports the friendship and intimacy normal on such occasions:

[three female students share a house; one has a new kitchen whisk]
A: *Seen my new whisk?*
B: *Oo.*
C: *Oo.*
A: *Nice, isn't it?*
B: *Is that to make your omelettes with?*
C: *Very domesticated,* ***Tracy****.*

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
A: *Are you not studying today or whatever?*
B: *I don't know.*
C: *No. I mean we study yeah. We study ghost stories.*
D: *Yeah.* [laughs] *We study how to frighten ourselves.*
A: *Social hi= social history is it?*
D: *I'll tell you something,* ***mum****. Social scary. Social scary.*
B: *Social mystery. Not social history. Social mystery.*

In such instances vocatives are commonly in end position.

Positions of the vocative 118g

Several positions are available for the vocative. It may occupy the whole speaker turn. It may occur at the beginning of a speaker's turn (front position) or in the course of the turn (mid position), or at the end (end position). End position is by far the most frequent. Mid-position vocatives are not so frequent and are normally preceded by some sort of discourse marker prefacing the main utterance:

> *Tell me, **Margaret**. Er, you more or less got where you are today more or less off your own bat.*

> [*North West Tonight* is the name of a TV news programme; *Old Trafford* is a sports ground]
> *Just, just on that, **Lilian**. It may have occurred to you already, but North West Tonight are doing some filming at Old Trafford.*

STANDARD AND NON-STANDARD SPOKEN GRAMMAR 119

General 119a

In **84** the notion of standard spoken grammar was described in relation to standard written English. In this section some features of non-standard spoken grammar are described. Learners of British English are likely to hear these forms.

In **85** five main categories or levels of acceptability for spoken and written forms of grammar were outlined. For purposes of discussion in this section, each category has a number to mark the different levels. 'Widespread' here means across users of both genders and across a wide range of ages and social and regional backgrounds.

1. In widespread use in both spoken and written language (most forms are in this category).
2. In widespread use in both written and spoken language but not approved in more prescriptive grammar books and often avoided by many writers of formal English, for example, split infinitives, stranded prepositions (e.g. *That's the woman I gave it **to***, compared with *That's the woman **to** whom I gave it*).
3. Rare or not occurring in writing but widespread and normal in spoken language (for example, **96 Headers** and **97 Tails**), and vice versa.
4. Regionally or socially marked in writing and/or spoken language but widespread and normal within major regional/social varieties of British English (for example, the use of *ain't*, **119b**).
5. Non-occurring and unacceptable in all varieties of British English (for example a structure such as *he did must speak*).

It is important, however, to note that what is acceptable may vary from one context or from one personal relationship to another.

Common forms of spoken grammar 119b

Accusative personal pronoun as subject

I don't know how but ***me*** *and my sister got lost in the market.* (level 3)
(the level 1 form would be: my sister and I got lost …)

Zero plural for nouns of measurement

That's twelve ***foot*** *long. You need something a lot shorter.* (level 3)
(level 1 form: twelve feet long …)

What as a relative pronoun

That's the house ***what*** *she rented.* (level 4)
(level 1 form: the house that/which …)

Them as demonstrative determiner and pronoun

Did you get ***them*** *photos we sent round?* (level 4)
(level 1 form: get those photos …)

A: *What are the right plants then?*
B: ***Them*** *over there, the peonies.* (level 4)
(level 1 form: those over there …)

Ain't as a negative contraction

I know something. That ***ain't*** *the answer.* (level 4)
(level 1 form: that isn't …)

also **120** for *innit*, which may be regarded as a variant of *ain't it*

Double and multiple negation

*She has****n't*** *got* ***no*** *sense at all, she has****n't****.* (level 4)

*I have****n't*** *got* ***nothing*** *to say to* ***no one****.* (level 4)

also **438a Double negatives and usage**

Patterns with past and *-ed* participle verb forms

These range from past forms used as *-ed* participle forms, *-ed* participle forms used as past forms and base forms used as past tenses:

She's been so worried she's ***hid*** *in her room.* (level 4)

Yeah, it's good, innit, I ***seen*** *it there yesterday.* (level 4)

She's already ***give*** *it to me, thanks.* (level 4)

Subject/verb concord

This is a very common area of variation in spoken grammar. Patterns occur involving singular noun + plural verb, plural noun + singular verb and structures involving existential *there*, in particular, in which a singular verb is followed by a plural complement. This last structure is very common in spoken English and is becoming established as a standard form:

It ***were*** *too heavy to move. You need a winch of some sort.* (level 4)

We ***was*** *frightened like. That's why we didn't call her.* (level 4)

There's *three other people still to come.* (level 2)

REPRESENTING SPEECH IN WRITING 120

In writing, the expressive character of spoken language is represented by reproducing the sound of core words and phrases as accurately as possible. There is a wide variety of possible variants but the most common transcriptions are:

I don't wanna do it. (want to)

Havva nice day. (have a)

That's great innit? (isn't it?)

I dunno and she dunno. (don't/doesn't know)

I'm gonna have an iced coffee. (going to)

Dad, you just gotta look at this. (got to)

I hafta go now. (have to)

SPEECH INTO WRITING: THE SPOKEN-WRITTEN CONTINUUM 121

Informal writing 121a

It would be a mistake to assume that the forms of grammar common in spoken English are exclusive to speech. Though rare in written English, situational ellipsis, in particular, appears appropriately in written contexts and is especially common in signs and notices as well as faxes, email and internet communications. The relative immediacy of email communication means that informality is the preferred style and ellipsis marks both informality and a relative symmetry of relationship in the exchange:

[inter-company fax]
Could you email Kyle Barber and ask him for a quote for a laptop? ***Said*** *we'd let Tatchell have one for himself as part of the deal. Compaq or Toshiba. At least 40gb hard disk and 528Mb RAM.* ***Good deal****, tell David.* ***Worth*** *the laptop.* ***More*** *in the pipeline.*

In the structure *Good deal, tell David*, the ellipsis and word order (more typically in writing: *Tell David (that) it is a good deal*) are grammatical features which are much more common in speech than in writing but which are becoming standardised in many written communications.

Email messages and personal letters may often display ellipsis of initial elements, especially the pronoun *I*, indicating their status as something midway between written and informal spoken messages:

[email message]
Hi, Anne. ***Just got back*** *from a terrific conference in Stockholm.*
(understood: I've just got back …)

[personal letter closing]
Well, ***must go*** *and bake some bread now.* ***Will write*** *again soon. Love, Jane.*
(understood: **I** must go and bake …/**I** will write again soon.)

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Formality in letter closings can be lessened by using ellipsis.

Ellipsis in letter closings

neutral/more formal	less formal (ellipted)
I look forward to hearing from you	*Look forward to hearing from you*
I hope to hear from you soon	*Hope to hear from you soon*
With regards from	*Regards*
With best wishes	*Best wishes* or *Best*
Yours sincerely	*Sincerely*

Postcards and other short written messages 121b

Postcard greetings texts conventionally use a great deal of ellipsis of the verb *be* and of initial elements:

> *Ireland as green as everyone said it was. Having a great time. Weather up and down, but beats work any day. Love, Nigel and Louise.*
> (understood: Ireland **is** as green as everyone said it was. **We're** having a great time. **The** weather **is** up and down, but **it/this** beats work any day.)

Clauses and sentences in informal writing 121c

Headers and tails, along with tags, so common in speech, also occur increasingly in informal writing:

> *He's a man who loves to play tricks on people* ***is TV presenter Noel Edmonds****.*
> (a more 'written' version of this sentence would be: 'TV presenter Noel Edmonds is a man who loves to play tricks on people'. The tail not only adds emphasis to the statement but it also imparts an informal character to the writing.)

The following examples, taken from an advertisement for the Chrysler Jeep Cherokee vehicle, indicate the spread into written text of irregularly punctuated clause fragments more commonly associated with spoken grammar (87b):

> *In these parts, you'll need a car that'll keep you on the road as well as take you off it.* ***Which is why the locals drive a Jeep Cherokee*** *… Instead of the usual soggy 4×4 handling, the Cherokee is taut and responsive. Not only does this make it safer to drive, it also makes it more exciting to drive.* ***As does the 4 litre engine under the bonnet****.*

Journalists also achieve impact and get on a 'conversational' wavelength with their readers by using common spoken discourse markers and purposefully vague language as well as response tokens such as *definitely*, *certainly*, *exactly*, which in the following examples serve as 'replies' in projected conversational exchanges:

> [magazine article]
> ***So*** *there I was sitting in Mick Jagger's kitchen while he went about making us both afternoon tea.* ***Well****, you can imagine how long it took to get him to talk about the band's latest album.* ***Exactly****. You've got it. Over two minutes.*

[magazine article]
He was talking about sport, Wimbledon, the World Cup, US Open Golf ***and that sort of stuff****.*

Advertisements and slogans 121d

Advertising copy writers in their advertising slogans often imitate the kinds of situational ellipsis found in conversation. By these means they attempt to achieve impact and a casual, almost chatty informality in the promotion of their products:

[magazine advertisement]
Thinking about cosmetic surgery?
(understood: **Are you** thinking about cosmetic surgery?)

[magazine slogan]
Coming soon … the one you've been waiting for!
(understood: **It's** coming soon.)

NEW MODES: INTERNET DISCOURSE 122

Informal emails are most typically exchanged between participants who know each other. Chat-room messages may involve 'conversations' which are built up over a period of time; or they may involve participants who behave as if they are in a virtual space or 'room', often with an assumed name or identity.

Emails and instant messages are often informal and can be written online with only a few seconds between one response and another. Similarly, chat rooms involve almost immediate speaking turns. They are written but they have the character of spoken language. They are a new and distinct mode of written-spoken English.

The following transcript is an example of how spoken and written forms overlap. It is from an internet chat in which two people with the log-in pseudonyms of Cato and Regent talk with each other (the use of dots … indicates that the dialogue has been edited for reasons of overall length):

Cato: *hi buddy!!! ;-)*
Regent: *hiya, wassup?*
Cato: *I been working SOOOO HARD!*
Regent: *did you know that your warning level is 0%* [see below]*
Cato: *well when I was on with Julia she gave me a 20% warning*
Regent: *what does it mean?*
Cato: *if someone misbehaves you can send them a warning …*
Regent: *ok how do you do it*
Cato: *click on the warn button …* [15 second pause]
Cato: *have you died or something?*
Regent: *all right hold your horses stop rushing me*
Cato: *sorry ;-)*
Regent: *SLOW DOWN*
Cato: *ok, slow*
Regent: *slooooooow dn*

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Cato: *ssssslllllloooooooowwwwww* …
Regent: *bye everyone, bye bye*
Cato: *tarra luv!*
Regent: *good init?*
Cato: *yeh hehehe*
Regent: *;-)*
Cato: *hooorah!*
Regent: *amazing*
Regent: *silly tune aint it*
Cato: *you can go now you passed the smiley test*
Regent: *bye*
Cato: *byyyyyeeeee.*

The exchange is marked by attempts to represent speech in writing. Examples are: *wassup* (what's up?), *tarra luv* (goodbye love), *init*, *aint it* (isn't it?).

Although the medium used is written and responses are typed on a keyboard, a number of features of the chat-room language are very close to spoken English:

- A 'smiley' ☺ is created using the punctuation marks ;-) to imitate a human smile.
- Laughter is represented (*hehehe*).
- Spelling is creatively manipulated in order to reproduce particular sounds and familiar intonation patterns (e.g. *ssssslllllloooooooowwwwww*).
- Non-verbal reactions and farewells (e.g. *SOOOO* and *byyyyyeeeee*) and punctuation, in particular, are used to act as a channel for the expression of feelings.
- Capitalisation and exclamation marks are exploited to underline what both participants see as an interaction in which emotional reactions and responses are given.

It is likely that such new modes will continue to create new forms of spoken English in writing.

* [In this particular chat room the software technology allows the creation of a 'buddy' list which participants can store electronically; it also sends a 'clanging' message every time a new chatter (chat-room term for a person who chats) enters the chat room; and a 'warn' button is available by which participants can send each other warnings if they use offensive language such as swearing. Excessive use of offensive language can mean that the offender is automatically removed from the chat room.]

Grammar across turns and sentences

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Grammar across turns and sentences

INTRODUCTION 123

This chapter (123–139) looks at grammar beyond the level of the sentence. In particular, it examines how grammatical links across sentence boundaries in writing and across speaker-turn boundaries in spoken language create textual cohesion. Cohesion is the sense of semantic unity possessed by texts as opposed to random sequences of sentences. Cohesion is created by cohesive links between sentences.

The following extract is from a written text – an encyclopedia – about the process of mining. Examples of cohesive links between sentences are marked in bold:

> ***Mining***
> *The **extraction** of useful **mineral substances** from the earth, either near the surface or at some depth. **It was** practis**ed** in prehistoric times, widely us**ed** in classical times, and be**came** highly developed after the introduction of mechanical power. In surface, strip, and open-cast **mining**, **the soil** is stripped away, and **the ore**, **coal**, **clay**, **or mineral** is **dug** directly. At **greater depths the deposits** are approached by horizontal **tunnels dug** from vertical **shafts** (**drifts**). Variants of **these digging methods** are adopted for different geological situations. **Other methods** of **mining** may be devised for particular **substances**.*

Marked in bold are examples of lexical items which repeat or restate earlier content (*mining* ➛ *mineral*; *substances* ➛ *substances*; *dug* ➛ *dug*), or which are semantically linked in some way (*mining* ➛ *extraction* ➛ *tunnels* ➛ *shafts*; *the earth* ➛ *the soil*). Also marked are grammatical words which refer the reader to entities in the text (*mining* ➛ ***it***; ***these*** *digging methods* ➛ ***other*** *methods*) and examples of grammatical repetition (e.g. past tenses). This chapter describes such grammatical links which enable a string of sentences in sequence to be read as a semantically cohesive text.

COHESION AND COHERENCE 124

Cohesion refers to the grammatical and lexical means by which written sentences and speakers' utterances are joined together to make texts. A text may be written or spoken, and spoken texts are typically constructed by more than one person.

A text is cohesive if, as a whole, the sentences and spoken utterances are semantically linked and consistent. A random set of unconnected sentences or spoken utterances just thrown together will probably not be cohesive; readers and listeners will not be able to see links between each sentence/utterance.

The coherence of a text depends on more than its lexical or grammatical properties. A text is coherent if its semantic and pragmatic meanings make sense in its real-world context to readers/listeners. Coherence depends on the reader/listener being able to interpret the message in relation to its context.

Coherence depends partly on the way that a writer or speaker assumes knowledge of the world and of the context on the part of readers or listeners, and partly on what sorts of clues and signals the writer/speaker puts into the text. Such clues and signals include the linguistic items which provide cohesive links between sentences, as exemplified in **123**, above.

Cohesion is largely a grammatical property of texts, but lexis can also play a part in linking sentences (the text extract in **123** above). For example:

I went to the dentist. I was nervous. I don't like injections.

Among these sentences there is grammatical cohesion which results from the parallel sequence of personal pronouns and past tenses, but the text coheres because of our knowledge that dentists administer pain-killing injections before dental treatment and that these can be painful and make some patients nervous. Thus the lexical items *dentist*, *nervous* and *injections* are linked coherently through semantic associations made by the reader.

Likewise, punctuation and the layout of the text can indicate how it should cohere. **506 Appendix: Punctuation**

In this chapter the emphasis is on the grammar of texts and the part played by grammar in achieving textual coherence.

REFERENCE 125

Speakers and writers can make reference to people, places, things and ideas in a variety of different ways, as in these examples:

1 A: *Abigail didn't go?*
B: *No,* ***she*** *was at* ***her*** *mum and dad's.*

2 [these sentences are the opening sentences of a chapter in a novel]
They *pressed round him in ragged fashion to take their money. Andy, Dave, Phil, Stephen, Bob.*

3 [speakers are looking at photographs]
A: ***That****'s a lovely one of you,* ***that*** *is.*
B: *Yes. I like* ***that one****.*

In **1**, *she* and *her* refer to a person already identified in the text (*Abigail*).

In **2**, *they* refers to people who are identified later in the text (the names in the second sentence).

In **3**, *that* and *that one* refer out from the text to things in the situation itself (the photos that the speakers are holding).

The references in **1** and **2** are endophoric (they operate within the text). The references in **3** are exophoric (they operate between the text and the external world).

Endophoric references are of two types: anaphoric (those which refer back to something earlier in the text) and cataphoric (those which refer forward to something later in the text).

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Different kinds of reference

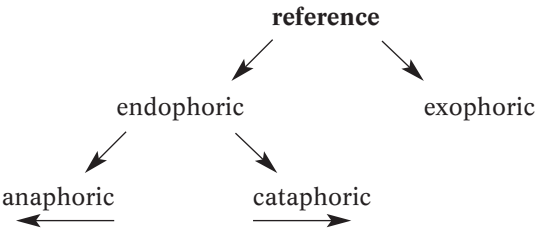

REFERRING EXPRESSIONS 126

Endophoric (anaphoric and cataphoric) and exophoric references are made using referring expressions. The people and things they refer to are called referents.

There are a number of types of referring expression. Among the most common are:

pronouns (for example, *he*, *she*, *it*, *mine*, *yours*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *some*, *none*)

determiners (for example, *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*)

adverbs (for example, *here*, *there*, *then*).

In the following examples the referring items are in bold, and the referents are in green:

*The children looked tired. **They**'d been travelling all day.*
(anaphoric reference)

*A smartly-dressed lady entered the shop. **This** lady had spent over one hundred pounds the day before.*
(anaphoric reference)

*They arrived at the resort. **Here** at last was a place they could relax.*
(anaphoric reference)

[blurb on the back cover of a paperback novel]
*For a split second, **she** saw her own death, a gunmetal face fixed on the sky, all around the faces and voices of Carn as **she** had known it. Josie Keenan had come home to the town of Carn, the only home **she** knew.*
(cataphoric and anaphoric reference)

[public notice]
*Vehicles parked **here** will be towed away.*
(exophoric reference)

[notice in a train compartment]
***These** seats are reserved for disabled customers.*
(exophoric reference)

[on a sign, accompanied by a direction arrow]
*More antiques **this** way.*
(exophoric reference)

ENDOPHORIC REFERENCE 127

Anaphoric reference

Anaphoric references are by far the more common type of endophoric reference, and are created most typically by pronouns and determiners:

> *New talks are under way. The outcome of* ***these discussions*** *may well determine future US attitudes towards trade with the EEC.*

There is lexical cohesion in this example between the two synonymous words *talks* and *discussions*, but the cohesion of these two sentences also depends on the anaphoric reference of the determiner *these*, which makes *talks* and *discussions* co-referential (i.e. they refer to the same thing, they have the same referent).

Cataphoric reference

Cataphoric references are considerably less common, especially in informal spoken language:

> [radio phone-in programme host]
> ***This*** *is the number to call if you want to give us your opinion: 0207600600.*

> *Now* ***here*** *is a recipe which you are certain to find tempting. It's one my mum used for making pecan pie.* [recipe then follows]

In fiction and journalism, cataphoric reference to a person or thing by means of a pronoun often creates a sense of suspense and involvement:

> ***He*** *was arrested late last night. James Gregg knew little about the circumstances of his arrest because at the time he was unconscious.*

Fixed expressions

A number of other fixed expressions allow anaphoric and cataphoric reference. Words and expressions such as *the former*, *foregoing*, *previous* create anaphoric reference, while words and expressions such as *below*, *as follows* and *the following* create cataphoric reference:

> *All of* ***the foregoing*** *needs of course to be put in its social and political context.*

> *On* ***the previous*** *page you will find details of our new offer as well.*

> *See* ***below*** *for more detailed instructions.*

> *I regret to inform you that your application is invalid for* ***the following*** *reasons.*

Longer reference

Words such as *this*, *which* and *such* can also be used to refer endophorically to segments of the text longer than just a noun phrase. That is, they may refer to preceding or following words and phrases, a previous or upcoming whole sentence or, sometimes, a whole stretch of text:

> *He is very experienced.* ***This is why*** *we should invite him.*

> *It's the best low-fat spread.* ***Which is why*** *you should keep loads in your fridge.*

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Nobody has a bad word to say about her. ***Such*** *is her popularity.*

Well, ***this*** *is what the timetable says: buses every other hour but no service on Sundays.*

It, this and *that* referring to segments of text 128

The impersonal pronoun *it* and the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* are used in different ways to refer to segments of text or to ideas in the text.

It

It is used to continue reference to an entity which has already been established as a topic in the text:

> *The girl was so ecstatic afterwards, she had such a wonderful smile on her face.* ***It*** *was a sight I shall never forget.*
> (*It* refers neutrally to the girl's ecstatic behaviour and smile)

It cannot be used to refer back to a title/heading or sub-title/sub-heading of a text. In such cases *this* is used or the full noun phrase is repeated:

> [*veggies* means vegetarians]
> ***Quorn or Mycoprotein***
> ***This*** *is a relatively new foodstuff which is sold as a meat substitute with a chicken-like texture.* ***It's*** *rich in protein and contains no animal fat and many veggies eat* ***it****.*
> (note how *it* is used to refer back once 'quorn' is established as a topic, but *it* cannot be used in the first sentence to refer back to *quorn* in the title.)

Or:

> ***Quorn or Mycoprotein***
> ***Quorn*** *is a relatively new foodstuff …*

But not:

> ***Quorn or Mycoprotein***
> ~~***It***~~ *is a relatively new foodstuff …*

It is not used when the referring pronoun is stressed:

> *She's proved herself as a writer, Mel.* ***That*** *you can't deny.*
> (stressed fronted pronoun object; *this* could have been used, but not *it*)

This, that

This is used to signal that an entity is a new or important topic in a text, or to refer to entities which the writer wishes to highlight or closely identify with:

> *If there is something that you particularly like that is fortified with vitamins you could try writing to the manufacturer and asking where they've come from.* ***This*** *not only helps you, it also lets the manufacturer know that people do care about what they're eating.*

That highlights entities less emphatically than *this*, and is often used to refer to facts, assertions, etc. which are of temporary interest but which are not major topics in the text. There is often a sense that the writer wishes to indicate a distance from the proposition or entity referred to:

> *Then, feeling rather foolish, he turned and hurried away down the drive.* ***That*** *was a hopeless beginning, he thought, as he returned to the house.*

That is also frequently used to refer to events and entities remote in time and space, or to ideas and propositions associated with another person or another participant in the discourse:

When I left that place, I realized there was something I could do about it – I could make sure I didn't eat those pigs or those hens or any animals. I also decided there and then to work to end this exploitation. ***That*** *was a few years ago but my feelings haven't changed one bit.*

After a while Norrie suggested his brother, Alan Paramor, the music publisher, should help look after me. ***That*** *seemed fine to us.*

TEXTUAL ELLIPSIS (*YES I DID.*) 129

Textual ellipsis refers to items which are normally treated as required by the grammar to complete the meaning but which are not present because they can be recovered by a listener or reader from the preceding or following text.

Verbs, especially the verb *be* (as copular or auxiliary verb), modal verbs, and *do* and *have* as auxiliary verbs, are regular triggers for ellipsis of complements and linked lexical verbs:

A: *I think you're right to find out more before you decide.*
B: *I know I* ***am****.*
(understood: I know I am right to find out …)

A: *Can you hear that noise?*
B: *Yes, I think I* ***can****. What is it?*
(understood: I think I can hear that noise.)

A: *Did you ring Jeff?*
B: *No I* ***didn't****. Sorry, I forgot.*

She used to heap food onto his plate so as he'd get fat. But he never ***did****.*

An auxiliary or modal verb, or copular verb *be*, often make repetition of a lexical verb unnecessary when contrasting subjects (in green in the examples) are present:

But I still don't see how you ***can help me****, or how anybody* ***can****.*

He ***was a football fan****. I* ***was*** *as well.*

Sometimes a contrast in tense/modality/polarity can prompt ellipsis:

The idea of sending her into a mental home is dreadful and we know that it ***would*** *do her no good. There is only one thing that* ***will****. That is the only chance for her, if she could be with you.*
(understood: There is only one thing that will do her good.)

I feel that if you ***can*** *help somebody you* ***should****.*

94 Situational ellipsis for further examples and discussion of ellipsis

SUBSTITUTION 130

General 130a

When substitution occurs, a substitute form is used instead of repeating a word, phrase or clause which occurs elsewhere in the text. In the following extracts, substitute forms are marked in bold:

Mrs Smith had been able to tell her what no one else could have ***done****.*
(*done* = told her)

A: *Matthew, have you counted the plates?*
B: *There are twenty two.*
A: *Twenty two.*
C: *Oh my.*
A: *Oh there's still some underneath there. Can you get those out.*
B: *Twenty two yeah. I did check.*
A: *There should be a few little* ***ones*** *around.*
D: *They're big* ***ones****, aren't they?*
C: *There's some big* ***ones*** *over there, Pauline.*
(*ones* in each case is understood as substituting for 'plates'.)

A: *I'll see you in the morning before I go home.*
B: *Well, I hope* ***so****.*
(understood: Well, I hope you'll see me/we'll see each other.)

Substitution may be anaphoric (referring back) or cataphoric (referring forward) in the text. Cataphoric substitution is considerably less frequent than anaphoric, and is usually only found across clause boundaries rather than sentence boundaries:

- Anaphoric:

  A modem is the equivalent of a phone for your PC. You'll need ***one*** *if you want to use email or connect to the net.*

- Cataphoric:

  If you're ever looking for ***one****, there's a screwdriver in that drawer.*

A–Z 60 *One*

Substitute forms 130b

There are several different types of substitute form. They include indefinite quantifying pronouns, substitute *do*, substitute *so*, and expressions such as *the same*, *thus*.

Indefinite quantifying pronouns

(a) little	*any*	*either*
another	*both*	*enough*
all	*each*	*few*

half	*neither*	*several*
less	*none*	*some*
many	*one(s)*	
much	*other(s)*	

In wealthier countries, people tend to eat more foods like sweets, chocolate, cakes, crisps and snacks – all foods that are high in fat or sugar, or often ***both****.*

A: *D'you know a lot of people there?*
B: *Mm, not* ***many****.*

A: *Do you like the yellow roses?*
B: *I prefer the red* ***ones****, actually.*

The substitute verb *do*

Do may substitute for a verb and any elements of complementation accompanying it:

Many of the renewable sources of energy are 'clean' sources. They do not cause pollution, as coal, gas, oil and nuclear energy ***do****.*
(*do* substitutes for 'cause pollution')

A: *Who picked her up at the airport, you?*
B: *No, Diane* ***did****.*

(133 below)

Substitute *so*

So may substitute for a *that*-clause complement, especially when it is the complement of a reporting verb:

A: *It's difficult to manage, isn't it?*
B: *Yes, very much* ***so****.*

A: *D'you think they'll be interested?*
B: *I would say* ***so****, yes.*
(*so* substitutes for '(that) they'll be interested')

(134 below)

Complement phrases: *the same, likewise, similarly, thus*

The same, *likewise*, *similarly* and *thus* typically substitute for predicative complement phrases and clauses:

A: *Nice to meet you anyway.*
B: ***Likewise****.*

It's just really depressing you know. For me it is anyway. No, not only for me really, it is for the rest of the staff as well because everyone feels ***the same****.*

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ELLIPSIS VERSUS SUBSTITUTION 131

Often it is difficult to distinguish between ellipsis and substitution, since forms such as *some*, *any*, *much* can perform both functions (compare *ones* and *none*, which are clearly substitute forms):

A: *Do you seek any guidance from me?*
B: *I ask* ***none****, sir. But I have thought it possible that you might have it in your power, if you should deem it right, to give me* ***some****.*
(*none* is clearly a substitute for 'no guidance from you'; *some* could be seen as a substitute for 'guidance' or as ellipsis of 'some guidance')

SUBSTITUTION FOR NOUNS 132

One, some, ones 132a

One and *some/ones* are the most common items used to substitute for count nouns.

One can be used alone as a substitute or with premodification and/or postmodification:

I want ***a*** *decent* ***notebook*** *anyway. Where can I get* ***one****?*
(understood: Where can I get a decent notebook?)

Most ***diseases*** *have been around for a very long time, but not all of them. There is* ***a new one called Lyme disease****. Lyme disease has been studied only since 1975.*

'Well, I shall get ***a manager*** *somewhere, no doubt,' said Henchard, with strong feeling in his tones. 'But it will be long before I see* ***one that would suit me so well****!'*

Ones cannot be used alone in this way. Where there is no premodification or postmodification, *some* or *any* are used as a plural substitute:

A: *Do you want some stamps?*
B: *Well I haven't got* ***any****. Have you got* ***some****?*
A: *I've got some. I don't know if I've got enough for all those letters.*
(~~Well, I haven't got ones. Have you got ones?~~)

Ones is always premodified and/or postmodified:

[a punt is a flat-bottomed boat]
A: *Apparently they cost about £8,000, those punts.*
B: *They're incredibly expensive.*
A: *Mm.*
B: *You can get them cheaper.* ***Fibreglass ones*** *are cheaper than wood.*

[A comments on B's socks]
A: *They look like your dad's.*
B: *No they're not actually. They're mine but they're boys' school socks really. Cos I just wanted* ***some grey ones that were long enough to come out of the top of my boots****.*

For non-count nouns, *some*, not *one/ones*, is used as a substitute:

We need a bit more furniture in here. We'll have to get ***some*** *when the sales are on.*
(~~We'll have to get one(s) when the sales are on.~~)

A: *What's it like, that tea, then?*
B: *Mm, nice.*
A: *Can I try* ***some****?*

That, those 132b

That and *those* are used as substitutes in formal contexts instead of *the one/the ones* for non-count nouns where the substitute noun phrase is taking the place of a definite noun phrase:

[from a text about computer storage media]
The most commonly used removable drive technology is derived from ***that*** *found in conventional hard disks, which not only gives you high capacities but also provides fast performance.*
(… is derived from 'the technology' found in …)

There are several different kinds of sign language. The most widely used are ***those*** *which have developed naturally in a deaf community, such as the American, British, French, and Swedish Sign Languages.*
(or, less formal: The most widely used are the ones which have developed naturally …)

The results were compared with ***those*** *obtained from the best research laboratories.*

In more formal styles, and especially in academic style, *that of/those of* is used instead of *the one of/the ones of* or *the … one/the … ones*, and is preferred to the possessive *X's one/X's ones*. This usage is frequent within and across clauses. It is much less frequent across sentences:

He founded a school modelled on ***that of*** *Confucius.*
(~~He founded a school modelled on the one of Confucius.~~)
(preferred to: He founded a school modelled on Confucius's one.)

Comic books are generally collaborations between a writer and an artist. In a process similar to ***that of*** *making movies, writers' scripts are implemented and interpreted by artists.*

The chief sea-connecting canals are ***those of*** *Suez and Panama.*
(~~The chief sea-connecting canals are the Suez and Panama ones.~~)

That can only substitute for a thing, and not normally for a person or animal. *Those* may substitute for persons, animals or things:

I overheard them talking. They're looking for the girl. ***The one*** *who was in all the papers.*
(~~I overheard them talking. They're looking for the girl. That who was in all the papers.~~)

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Today most of the Greenlanders live near the coast, particularly in the south west. Here, snow lies only in the winter and people can graze sheep, cows and reindeer and grow crops. ***Those who*** *live further north earn their money mainly from fishing.*

None, enough 132c

Indefinite quantifying pronouns (207) are also used to substitute for noun phrases:

The survivors then spoke up, backing the corporal's claim that they were left in a copse facing overwhelming machine-gun fire while their leaders went off supposedly to make contact with each other. ***None*** *had heard an order to retreat, so they stayed until all their comrades had been killed and the options were die or run.*

Spencer's getting a huge lot of money. The others don't get ***that much****.*
(informal; more formal: The others don't get so much.)

A: *Do we have bread?*
B: *Yes, but not* ***enough*** *for breakfast.*

They had found each other's company delightful, stimulating. Yet ***each*** *was wary of using* ***the other****; and, paradoxically, that had turned them into comrades, co-conspirators, almost.*

SUBSTITUTE VERB *DO* 133

Do, *do so*, *do it*, *do the same* are used to substitute for a verb and whatever complementation accompanies it:

[reminiscing about olden days]
A: *We had a milkman that had a horse and cart.*
B: *Yes. We* ***did*** *too yes.*
(understood: We had a milkman that had a horse and cart too.)

[assistant at a cosmetics counter in a store, explaining the qualities of a face cream to a customer]
A: *That will definitely offer you some protection. And even in the coldest weather it's almost like putting a cushion across the face to repel the harsh winds and things and stop your skin drying out as well.*
B: *Right. Okay. I'll have a think about it.*
A: ***Yes do****.*
B: *Thank you very much.*

A: *Can I borrow these scissors?*
B: *Yes, of course,* ***do so****.*
(more formal; understood: Yes, of course, borrow the scissors.)

I asked him if he had ever lost his temper with the press. He replied that he had never ***done it*** *in public but always made sure that the journalist concerned knew how he felt.*

A: *I employed a lawyer. Would you try to defend yourself or not?*
B: *I would* ***do the same*** *as you.*

also **129 Textual ellipsis** for uses of *do*

Substitution of a lexical verb and its complement also occurs with a modal or an auxiliary verb + *do*:

A: *You could resign.*
B: *Yes,* ***I could do****, I suppose.*

A: *Have you rung Jo?*
B: *Yes,* ***I have done*** *but she wasn't in.*

Do so occurs in tensed and non-tensed forms (**215**). *Do so* is generally used in more formal contexts:

If you are intending to do a reasonable amount of cycling, it is advisable to bring your own bike as the ones available for hire are of an inferior quality. If you ***do so****, bring a good lock as bike theft is a problem here.*
(tensed)

One of the main problems has been clearing away the many unexploded bombs left from the war. Many villagers have been killed ***doing so****.*
(non-tensed)

[*neural networks* are a type of information network in a computer]
Neural networks, on the other hand, don't look for absolutes, but for patterns in data. ***Having done so****, they can then try and establish relationships between those patterns.*
(non-tensed)

Do so, *do it* and *do that* are often interchangeable, but there are occasions where one form is preferred over the others. *Do so* is generally the most formal of the three.

Do so is often preferred for making general reference to a series of actions or events:

[talking about a famous horse race in the streets of Siena, Italy]
For the best view you need to have found a position on the inner rail by 2pm (ideally at the start and finish line), and to keep it for the next six hours. If you haven't ***done so****, there's really no rush, as you'll be able to see a certain amount from anywhere within the throng.*

Do it is often preferred for making a more direct or precise reference to an action or event:

A: *I can't eat any kind of buttery stuff on pasta. It makes me feel sick.*
B: *Really.*
A: *I* ***did it*** *once and I woke up in the middle of the night and was sick.*

Do that is often preferred in contrastive situations:

A: *I also think that if someone knows that they are terminally ill … at the moment they've not got that right to ask the doctor to switch the machine off.*
B: *Euthanasia.*
A: *I think they ought to be able to* ***do that*** *rather than suffer.*

SO AS A SUBSTITUTE FORM 134

So substituting for an adjective

So can substitute for an adjective predicative phrase:

It was the house that had been empty, years ago. It had remained ***so*** *for a long time.*

I am angry. I have been ***so****, many years.*

Cataphoric reference to an adjective complement is also possible with *so*, but it is very infrequent and rather formal:

He was, and remains ***so****, very conscious of his responsibilities.*

More so, less so

More so and *less so* operate as comparative substitutes:

The prospect of a summer here, in the drowsy warmth of the south, had always been a pleasant one. Now it was ***more so****.*

Some dangers, like industrial spying or sabotage, are obvious. Others ***less so****.*

So substituting for *that* -clause

So is also used as a *that*-clause substitute:

And I know she's fond of Nicky. She told me ***so****.*
(understood: She told me that she is fond of Nicky.)

A: *Does the hotel have room service?*
B: *I believe* ***so****.*

The negative of *so* when substituting for a *that*-clause is *not*:

A: *Are they all arriving at the same time?*
B: *I hope* ***not****.*

A: *Did she say when she'd be back?*
B: *No, I'm afraid* ***not****.*

This type of substitution with *so* and *not* is common after the following verbs, especially in conversational responses:

appear	*be afraid*	*expect**
assume	*believe*	*guess*

hope	*reckon**	*suppose*
*imagine**	*seem*	*think**
presume		

Those verbs with an asterisk (*) often occur with *so* but are less likely to be used followed by *not*:

A: *Is Jake coming too?*
B: *I* ***don't*** *think* ***so****.*
('I think not' is also possible, but infrequent and very formal)

A: *I wonder if she went with them?*
B: *I* ***wouldn't*** *imagine* ***so****.*

But note that *hope* is always used with substitute *not*, rather than negative declarative:

A: *You've spelt her surname wrong, haven't you?*
B: *Oh, I hope* ***not****.*
(~~Oh, I don't hope so.~~)

So with reporting verbs

Substitute *so* sometimes occurs in initial position in short responses with reporting verbs (e.g. *say*, *tell*, *hear*, *read*):

[talking of problems of obtaining home insurance]
A: *There's so many places that won't insure you now unless you've got locks on your doors and windows.*
B: ***So*** *I heard.*

A: *Alex Pruitt has been the subject of an internal investigation at Langley.*
B: ***So*** *Ruiz told me.*

So in exclamations

In exclamative responses, substitute *so* can precede the subject and verb *be* or a modal or auxiliary verb:

A: *The water-butt's completely empty.*
B: *Oh yes,* ***so*** *it is!*

A: *Oh, you've got oil stains on your trousers.*
B: *Oh,* ***so*** *I have!*

So meaning *as well*

Initial *so* often occurs, with a meaning similar to *as well* or additive *too*. This is particularly common in short responses and with pronoun subjects. Subject-verb inversion follows:

A: *I love those red tulips.*
B: ***So*** *do I.*
(or: I do too.)

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A: *Well, we're ready.*
B: ***So** are we. Let's go.*

*Well, I've packed my case, and **so** should you, I think. We haven't got that much time.*

The negative is formed with initial *neither* or *nor*, or with *not … either*. In the case of negatives beginning with *neither* or *nor*, subject-verb inversion follows:

*Frank didn't go and **neither** did we in the end.*

A: *Oh, I haven't got any small change at all.*
B: ***Nor** have I.*

A: *I haven't got a fork.*
B: *Oh, Anne has**n't** **either**. I'll get some.*

A–Z 71 *So* for further examples

COHESION AND COMPARATIVE FORMS 135

Comparative forms across clauses and sentences can signal cohesion:

*Jim can play pool better than me. He's had **more** practice.*
(understood: … more practice than I have)

*Continuing south, you'll feel like an insignificant speck at the feet of the city's tallest structures. For a **better** view of them and their surroundings, take the short monorail ride to Harbor Island.*

460–471 Comparison

COHESION AND LINKING ADJUNCTS (*IN ADDITION, HOWEVER*) 136

General 136a

Linking adjuncts explicitly indicate the semantic relationship between two clauses or sentences or paragraphs (335):

[description of the city of Cardenas in Cuba; *bite its lip and bide its time* means 'be patient and wait (to get regeneration funds)']
*Many of its buildings, particularly the fortifications overlooking the harbour, are in need of renovation, but, with Havana and Trinidad eating up most of the regeneration budget, it seems that Cardenas will have to bite its lip and bide its time. It is, **nonetheless**, a charming little city and worth a look.*

*His face and hands were black with dirt. **In spite of this**, Catherine was very glad to see him and rushed up to kiss him.*

[from a book about how second-language learners acquire vocabulary]
Second-language learners usually have to learn at a rate faster than the 'natural' rate of first-language acquisition. ***In addition****, early stages of second-language acquisition involve a relatively small number of high-frequency words, for which there is a greater pay-off instructionally.* ***However****, second-language learners may also have a greater need to use context.*

Linking adjuncts can co-occur with coordinating conjunctions (in green in the examples below), in which case they follow the conjunction:

So I would like you to read the documents in order to improve or at least confirm your own knowledge and understanding of the network set up here. But ***secondly****, it's important not only that you can answer students' questions but you can tell them where the information is available to them.*

Something happened to you and ***as a result*** *your arm was broken.*

Linking adjuncts are a large class which includes single-word and phrasal items. The most common ones are listed in **136b–136j** (classified according to the semantic relations which they signal). Most of these linking adjuncts are more frequent in formal styles and in writing, but some (marked with *) are more frequent in informal spoken contexts.

Additive (*also*, *likewise*) 136b

Additive linking adjuncts indicate that the second text segment adds to, gives further or more specific information on, reinforces or expands in some way the information in the first. These include:

Single-word

again	*correspondingly*	*likewise*
also	*equally*	*moreover*
besides	*furthermore*	*too*

And I should have told you about things here. I often thought about it, then I thought no, it's too complicated. I didn't want to involve you. ***Besides****, you don't tell me much these days. It's not like it used to be.*

Phrasal/clausal

above all	*in particular*	*to crown it all**
*as well**	*on top of it all**	*what's more*/what is more*
in addition	*to cap it all**	

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

[about a network of young people in Scotland who call themselves *Article 12*, and who speak out on issues affecting children and young people's lives]
The name Article 12 comes from Article 12 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which says that young people have the right to express their views on any matter affecting them. ***Above all****, young people want politicians to listen to their opinions and to use their experience to build a better future.*

Resultative (*so, therefore*) 136c

Resultative linking adjuncts indicate that the second text segment expresses a result or outcome of the events or states described in the first. These include:

Single-word

accordingly	*so*	*therefore*
consequently	*then*	*thus*
hence		

After a few years riding the crest of an economic wave, New Zealand has recently seen a downturn in the economy and a resulting dive in the value of the New Zealand dollar. ***Consequently****, most things will seem fairly cheap by European and North American standards.*

Phrasal/clausal

as a consequence	*as a result*	*of course*

My friend Jessica always wanted to be called Jessie but she introduced herself as Jessica. ***As a result*** *everybody called her that.*

Contrastive (*rather, on the contrary*) 136d

Contrastive linking adjuncts indicate a contrast between the information in the first text segment and that in the second. These include:

Single-word

alternatively	*otherwise*	*rather*
instead		

We'll have to invite him. ***Otherwise****, he'll be offended.*

Phrasal/clausal

in/by comparison	*more accurately/more precisely*	*on the other hand*
in/by contrast	*on the contrary*	*then again**

(* particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

Few countries have satisfactory legislation on pesticides or the trained manpower to enforce it. ***In contrast****, extensive use of pesticides in Europe, North America and Japan is backed by government legislation or voluntary schemes that provide farmers with detailed advice.*

We've got computer facilities in the student union. And we've hopefully got some people from the Computer Centre who might be able to help a bit. But ***then again*** *if you're interested in computers it's very easy to learn quickly by yourself.*

Time (*eventually, then*) 136e

Time linking adjuncts indicate a relationship of sequence in time between the information in the first text segment and that in the second. These include:

Single-word

afterwards	*meanwhile*	*subsequently*
eventually	*originally*	*then*
*meantime**		

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

When thousands of seals began dying in European waters during 1988, pollution was first blamed for the tragedy. Tests ***subsequently*** *showed the actual cause was a virus.*

Phrasal/clausal

after that	*in the meantime*

Her printer is useless, it takes like 45 minutes to print anything out. ***In the meantime*** *I've lent her mine.*

Concessive (*anyway, though*) 136f

Concessive linking adjuncts indicate that the speaker or writer is prepared to accept part of an argument or proposition (that part expressed in the second text segment) which typically in some way contrasts with what has already been stated. These include:

Single-word

admittedly	*however*	*still*
*anyhow**	*nevertheless*	*though*
anyway	*nonetheless*	*yet*
besides	*only**	

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

[talking about the risks of a serious industrial accident at a nearby factory]
I mean they can't just close their eyes and say 'Oh no, it doesn't exist'. That's my opinion, ***anyhow****.*

They sat in Mrs Constantine's overcrowded parlour, where each small table bore its burden of photographs and ornaments and the walls were crowded with pictures. ***Nevertheless****, it was cosy and comfortable with a fire burning cheerfully.*

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Phrasal/clausal

after all	*for all that*	*mind you**
all the same	*in any case*	*of course*
at any rate	*in any event*	*on the other hand*
at the same time	*in spite of that*	*that said*

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

Don't get too excited! This could come to nothing. ***On the other hand****, it might work.*

Inference (*then, in that case*) 136g

Inference linking adjuncts indicate that the speaker/writer infers or concludes something in the second text segment, based on the evidence of the first text segment. These include:

Single-word

otherwise	*then**

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

[at a travel agent's; A is the assistant]
A: [showing a brochure] *Perhaps I could give you this actually. There's some suggestions for destinations.*
B: *Oh right.*
A: *And so to go out via Taipei. Out to Tokyo. And then back via Bangkok. And Delhi as well by the looks of it.*
B: *Yes. Oh right. Can I take this brochure* ***then****?*
A: *Oh, certainly yes.*

Phrasal

in that case

If we try to imagine what's the worst possible accident we can imagine, right, it would be if all of this store of gas got released, you know, for whatever reason, if everything went wrong and the whole lot got out. Now ***in that case*** *we'd end up with a much bigger cloud of gas that would travel further before it got completely blown away, right, and couldn't affect anybody.*

Summative (*overall, in short*) 136h

Summative linking adjuncts indicate that the second text segment represents a summary or summing-up of the first. These include:

Single-word

altogether	*so*	*therefore*
overall	*then*	*thus*

[speakers talking about how they spent their holiday]
A: *And I mean that was second-hand the bike that I bought for Jenny because I couldn't see the point in spending for a brand new one when she's going to have outgrown it, you know, in a little while anyway. And she doesn't go out that much anyway.*
B: ***So overall** you'd say you had a fairly happy holiday this year?*
A: *Oh yeah. Yeah.*
C: *Yeah we enjoyed it. Yeah.*

Phrasal/clausal

all in all	*in sum*	*to sum up*
in conclusion	*in summary*	*to summarise*
in short	*to conclude*	

[beginning of final paragraph in a book review]
***In sum**, this is a good book to have in your reference library – providing you have other sources of information on which to draw.*

Listing (*firstly*, *lastly*) 136i

Listing linking adjuncts indicate that the text segments in which they occur form part of a list of segments. These include:

Single-word

a, b, c, etc.	*first(ly)/second(ly)/ third(ly),* etc.	*next*
finally	*lastly*	*one, two, three,* etc.
		then

There are two problems with assuming that our figure applies to the whole Chinese population.
***First**, we 'measured' lefthandedness by looking at which hand each student wrote with. This is only a restricted definition of lefthandedness.*
***Secondly**, the student population may not be representative of the population as a whole. But we do not believe that any bias in the sample would account for the difference between Gooch's figure of 18 per cent and ours of 3 per cent.*

Phrasal/clausal

first of all	*in the first place/in the second place*	*on the one hand … on the other hand*
*for a start**	*last of all*	*to begin with/to start with*
for one thing … for another thing		

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

A: *But do you think these hopes and ambitions for the children now are very different from the ones your parents would have had for you?*
B: *Yeah. Definitely.*
A: *In what way?*
B: *Well, I don't think they'd have been worried so much about us going out and getting a job, **for a start**.*

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Meta-textual (*namely, so to speak*) 136j

Meta-textual linking adjuncts indicate that the text segment they introduce either explains, paraphrases, exemplifies or relates topically to the previous segment or represents a temporary digression from the previous segment or a shift in topic. These include:

Single-word

incidentally	*namely*	*well**
indeed	*now*	

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

A: *We never do much at Arthur and Clarissa's in the mornings, as you know.*
B: *How is he,* ***incidentally****?*
A: *Oh Arthur is better than he was two years ago.*

Phrasal/clausal

*by the way**	*in other words*	*that is*
for example	*or rather*	*that is to say*
for instance	*so to speak*	*to put it another way*

(*particularly frequent in informal spoken contexts)

A: *I'm wallpapering this week and doing all the little jobs, you know, that need doing.*
B: *Oh I know. I know.*
A: *Isn't it boring.*
B: *Yeah. Oh, how did you get on* ***by the way*** *at the doctor's? Er you went on Friday.*
A: *Oh I'll tell you about it over the weekend.*

[review of the technical features of a digital camera]
You can even automatically place images in prespecified positions in documents. ***In other words****, it is the shape of digital cameras to come.*

A–Z 54 *Now*; 76 *Well*

Coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or*) and sentence boundaries 137

In writing, the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but* and *or* are traditionally viewed as being inappropriate as the first item in a sentence. However, they frequently occur as sentence beginners in both speech and writing, though less so in very formal and academic writing styles. In this way they provide important cohesive links between sentences, and should not be thought of as 'bad style':

> *A universal cry of horror and fury arose: Vengeance! The bodies of the victims were loaded on a cart lit with torches. The cortege moved back amidst curses at a funeral pace.* ***And*** *in a few hours Paris was covered with barricades.*

> *Glass could be impregnated with inorganic pesticides, then ploughed into the land.* ***Or*** *pellets impregnated with trace elements could improve the diets of cattle; in impoverished pastures similar pellets would protect cattle from parasites.*

PARALLELISM AND REPETITION 138

Often sentences and utterances may be seen to be cohesively linked because of parallel grammatical features. Such features are common in literary and other creative styles (e.g. music lyrics):

> [text from a novel; parallel tense/aspect choices are in bold]
> *From being afraid of nothing he* ***had become*** *wary of everything, yet he was exalted on realising that all his actions so far* ***had been rooted*** *in an alien timidity. He* ***hadn't been born*** *that way. Circumstances* ***had made*** *him so. The jungle* ***he had been brought up*** *in* ***had instilled*** *nothing but fear,* ***which had shaped*** *all his decisions. The Malayan forest* ***had been*** *congenial.*

In the following extracts, lexical repetition combines with parallel structures and repeated grammatical items (comparatives, reporting verbs, modal verbs, *-ing* forms and *-s* forms):

> *They were Zoe's age. Old****er****. Not much old****er****. Smart****er****, hard****er*** *than Alma's daughter but how would I know?* ***she thought****, despairing,* ***she might*** *have chang****ed****,* ***she must be*** *chang****ing*** *…* ***She might*** *be in* ***love****.* ***She might love*** *a stranger. Alma tried to reconstruct her train of thought. It was something to do with* ***love****,* ***she thought****.* ***Loving the*** *picture.* ***Loving the*** *painter.* ***Love*** *somehow let****s*** *you into* ***the*** *picture. Allow****s*** *you to enter.* ***Love*** *allow****s****.*

> [a group of young female students are chatting on a Sunday evening in their shared accommodation]
> A: *I like* ***Sunday*** *nights for some reason, I don't know why.*
> B: [laughs] *Cos you* ***come home****.*
> C: *I* ***come home****.*
> B: *You* ***come home*** *to us.*
> A: *And we don't go out.*
> B: ***Yeah yeah****.*
> C: ***Sunday****'s a really nice day, I think.*
> B: ***It*** *certainly* ***is****.*
> C: ***It's a really nice*** *relaxing* ***day****.*
> B: *It's an earring,* ***it's an earring****.*
> C: *Oh lovely,* ***oh****,* ***lovely****.*
> B: ***It****'s fallen apart a bit but …*
> C: ***It****'s quite a nice one actually, I like that.*

COHESION AND COHERENCE IN PARAGRAPHS 139

Paragraphs consist of an indeterminate number of sentences, but often a particular sentence may stand out as being more important than the others and provide important clues as to textual coherence. For example, the first sentence of a paragraph often indicates what the whole paragraph will be about, and is sometimes called the topic sentence. Equally, the final sentence in a paragraph may represent the logical conclusion or a summary of all the previous sentences.

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In the following extract, the first sentence in the paragraph flags what the whole paragraph will be about (forming a friendship with one's dictionary) and sets the syntactic framework (the initial modal adjuncts in bold) for the subsequent sentences:

> [new paragraph in the introduction text to a learners' dictionary of English]
> ***Maybe*** *people see their dictionary as a friend.* ***Perhaps*** *a bond is created in all the hours that a learner spends together with a dictionary.* ***Perhaps*** *some of the character of the book rubs off on the reader.*

Wh-cleft structures and similar foregrounding structures (475d, 475) may signal that the sentence in which they occur is a key sentence in the paragraph:

> [*UFO* = unidentified flying object]
> *Of course many pitfalls may lie in wait at this point of the research. But it is possible, with caution, to isolate categories of UFO with general characteristics. An example of one category of UFO, which some researchers have pinpointed, is of objects with an ovoid shape from 1 to 3 metres in diameter, which rotate on a vertical axis, close to the ground, and which appear to emit a wide range of electromagnetic radiation. Perhaps* ***what is most important is*** *that the nature of such identifiable UFO categories, and the conditions under which they might be observed, are predictable, after careful analysis of the data. Scientific searches, with appropriate instrumentation, are now able to prove once and for all that these UFOs do exist, and can provide information about their nature. To distinguish such phenomena from more dubious data, we propose that they should be renamed 'UAPs', for unidentified atmospheric phenomena, as this seems to be an appropriate and adequate description.*
>
> ***What is lacking at this stage is*** *for some imaginative research laboratory or university department to contact serious UFO researchers and design an experimental study for these UAPs. In the US, Harley Rutledge, head of the physics department at Southcast Missouri State University, has conducted a pilot study, with some encouraging results.*

Cohesive ties may operate across paragraph boundaries as well as sentence boundaries, especially determiners, comparative expressions and linking adjuncts:

> [from a book discussing different types of language-teaching material]
> *With international materials it is obvious that the needs of individual students and teachers, as well as the expectations of particular schools in particular countries, can never be fully met by the materials themselves.*
>
> ***Indeed***, ***most users*** *seem to accept that what they choose will in many ways be a compromise and that they will have to adapt the materials to their situation.*

> [from a book of tasks and activities for second-language learners]
> *Competitive activities that pit pairs against pairs and threes against threes are excellent for fostering collaboration and mutual help within each team. In this heightened atmosphere a lot of learning takes place without the students noticing they are 'studying'.*
>
> *In many of **these activities** the students' language task is to look at a set of sentences and decide which are correct and which are wrong. We believe that this testing of their own criteria is central to students building up a strong internal monitor to help them speak and write correctly.*

Pronoun ties alone may often be felt to be too weak across paragraph boundaries, and a definite determiner + noun may be preferable, as in the example above, where *these* used alone, without repeating *activities* in the second paragraph, may not have provided a strong and clear enough link. Equally, to have said 'their language task' instead of *the students' language task* in the second paragraph may not have been felt to be a strong enough tie.

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Grammar and academic English

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Grammar and academic English

INTRODUCTION 140

Academic writing and speaking take place in a variety of contexts. Student essays, assignments, presentations, dissertations and theses, lectures, tutorials, conference papers, books and articles by professional academics, all have different formal conventions, but all have a great deal in common in terms of grammar.

Academic writers and speakers mainly communicate with other academics and therefore can refer to things in complex and condensed ways, taking for granted that their readers and listeners share the grammatical conventions and contextual frames of reference to interpret them.

In general, academic language, especially writing, has quite complex structures and is more formal and impersonal in style than everyday language. The structuring and signposting of academic texts is important, and in spoken academic language, such as lectures and demonstrations, the spoken words are often accompanied by handouts, projected images, the whiteboard, etc., all of which have an effect on the grammar used (e.g. deictic words referring to diagrams and visuals: *here*, *above*, *see Table Two*, *in this chart*, etc.).

Much of the grammar of academic English is shared with that of English as a whole, and there are no special structures which are unique to academic English and never found elsewhere. On the whole, the grammar of academic English is closer (in both its spoken and written forms) to the grammar of general written English than to the grammar of general spoken English.

Where grammatical structures and items have been indicated as associated with written language in this book, then by and large such features are appropriate to academic English, with the exception of places where we have mentioned specialist registers such as journalism, advertising and specific literary conventions.

This chapter (140–154) focuses on items and structures which are common in academic language and which characterise it. We distinguish where appropriate between written and spoken academic styles. The chapter examines how information is packaged (typically in rather dense noun phrases), how tense, aspect, voice and modality are used to structure and signpost texts and to create an appropriate relationship with the listener/reader, how pronouns create such relationships, how sentences are typically linked, and how specific conventions are used (e.g. citing, abbreviations).

INTEGRATING INFORMATION IN THE NOUN PHRASE 141

The noun phrase is an important structure in academic English. Academic style, especially in writing, packs a great deal of information quite densely into noun phrases.

Noun phrases in academic writing tend to be more complex than in everyday, non-academic speech (141e) or informal writing, especially in terms of modification and the embedding of elements, all of which serve to integrate different types of information in the noun-phrase structure.

Premodifying: classifying and evaluating 141a

Adjectives of classification (i.e. those which refer to the type or category of something, e.g. *chemical*, *Asian*, *metallic*, *conical*, *prehistoric*) and noun phrase premodifiers (170a) are frequent, especially in scientific and technical writing. Unlike in informal conversational language, several premodifiers often occur, combining both adjectives and noun phrase modifiers.

In the examples, noun phrases are in green, premodifiers are in bold type:

[fluid mechanics text]
*The effect of **bottom** scattering on **swell** propagation is illustrated with **numerical model** computations for the **North Carolina continental** shelf using **high-resolution** bathymetry and an **efficient semi-implicit** scheme to evaluate the **bottom scattering source** term and integrate the **energy balance** equation.*

[about C.P. Scott, Editor of the *Manchester Guardian* newspaper]
*At the same time, Scott rejected the **prevailing contemporary** notion that the press should merely 'represent' the readers' interests.*

*Thornes & Shao (1991b) tested the sensitivity of individual meteorological parameters in a **road weather information** system by using a range of input values.*

Evaluative adjectives (those which give subjective judgements, such as *interesting*, *ground-breaking*, *misguided*, *excellent*, etc.) are more frequent in humanities subjects, where opinion and personal stance are often foregrounded. Such adjectives are normally gradable and may be premodified by adverbs of degree:

(noun phrases in green, premodifiers in bold type)

*The literature of Latina writers, like other ethnic literatures, examines in **very commanding** and **provocative** ways the construction of identity in the American context.*

*In the **familiar** territory of women's work, oral histories of societies at war have opened up a **far more fragmented** past experience than the narrative of social progress might suggest.*

Premodifying: coordination and hyphenation 141b

Premodifiers are often coordinated in academic styles, thus avoiding repetition of the noun head:

(noun phrases in green, coordinated premodifiers in bold type)

*For both **normal and oblique** incidence, the **stochastic and deterministic** theories are equivalent in the limit of long propagation distances.*
(compare with the uncoordinated alternative: For normal incidence and oblique incidence, …)

*… and that sole parents and disability support pensioners should be required to demonstrate some form of **social or economic** participation in return for receiving income support.*

Hyphenated compound adjectives are frequent, and these also contribute to the integration and condensation of information. They often reflect the condensation of a noun and its complement phrase:

(noun phrases in green, hyphenated premodifiers in bold type)

*Spiral galaxies have a **disc-like** appearance, with distinct, **spiral-shaped** arms on which most of the stars reside.*
(compare the noun-complement alternative: Spiral galaxies have an appearance similar to a disc, with distinct arms in the shape of a spiral on which most of the stars reside.)

*These unusual outcomes have a number of **policy-relevant** implications for sustainable development.*
(compare: … a number of implications (which are) relevant to policy for sustainable development.)

Premodification of adjectives 141c

Adjectives are frequently premodified by adverbs in academic style:

[*SMS* = 'safe minimum standard' for the conservation of endangered species]
*Arguments for the SMS are typically invoked in settings involving considerable uncertainty and **potentially irreversible** losses.*

[describing an experiment to test people's anxiety levels, involving them making a speech while looking at a computer monitor screen where an 'audience' is displayed; the subjects have to imagine the audience is real]
*High and low **socially anxious** individuals were asked to make a speech to a monitor displaying six people whom they believed to be watching them live.*

Post-head elements: defining and specifying 141d

Postmodified and complemented noun phrases are extremely frequent in academic English because of the frequent need for definition and specification. All the types of postmodification and complementation described in **The noun phrase** are used; 171–172.

Prepositional phrases are very frequent, and may consist of several occurring together:

(noun phrases in green, prepositions beginning post-head elements in bold type)

*From their differing positions **within** the family, men and women separately weighed the potential benefits and risks **of** migration.*

*The Bragg scattering **of** random, non-stationary surface gravity waves **by** random topography **on** a gently sloping bottom is investigated.*

Embedded prepositional phrases are common. This is another important aspect of integrating the maximum amount of information in the noun phrase:

(noun phrases in green, prepositions beginning embedded phrases in bold type in the examples)

[a *vole* is a small, mouse-like creature]
*In a field study **on** the behavioural response **of** grey-sided voles Clethrionomys rufocanus **to** predator odour, ear tattoos were used for individual marking of the voles in the field.*

a field **study**

on the behavioural **response**

of grey-sided voles *Clethrionomys rufocanus*

to predator odour

*This article demonstrates the connection **between** journalism, patriotism, and the culture **of** public discussion **in** late Victorian Britain.*

the **connection**

between journalism, patriotism and the **culture**

of public discussion

in late Victorian Britain

Postmodification by non-finite clauses is frequent in academic style:

(noun phrases in green, postmodifying clauses in bold type)

*The Latina writers **interviewed** consider their work to have a legitimate place in the canon of North American literature.*
(compare the finite alternative: The Latina writers who were interviewed …)

[from an article on nutrition, involving giving restricted amounts of food to laboratory rats]
*In previous studies the precise measurement of spontaneous activity was not possible in experiments **involving the laboratory rat** and, therefore, the energy **expended in relation to activity** and its role in adaptation to feed restriction could not be assessed.*

Noun phrases in spoken academic styles 141e

Spoken academic styles vary from being rather formal (e.g. large, formal lectures) to quite informal (e.g. small-group tutorials where teacher and students have built up a relaxed, friendly relationship). Noun phrases more typical of written styles, with much premodification and postmodification, occur in formal lectures, etc.

(noun phrases in green, premodificaton and postmodificaton in bold type)

[lecture on English literature]
But despite the apparent diversity of opinion, Anti-Pamelists were united on what they saw as three serious problems. All of which pertained to ***the earlier apparently subversive*** *part* ***of the novel****.*

[endocrinology lecture]
So you ought to be able to work out what seventy per cent of sixteen point eight millimoles per minute is in terms of ***the proximal tubular sodium*** *reabsorption* ***per minute****.*

In more informal lecturing styles and in informal tutorials and classes, typical spoken noun phrases are common, where information is added incrementally rather than integrated into a single noun phrase:

(noun phrases in green, noun heads in bold type)

[informal literature seminar]
It is a fascinating ***question****. It's a* ***question*** *of the kind that I don't think we pursue enough. And it's* ***one*** *that I'm still wrestling with.*
(compare an integrated alternative: It is a fascinating and under-researched question which is the subject of continuing investigation.)

also **142 Nominalisation** and **175 Formation of nouns (nominalisation)**

NOMINALISATION 142

Noun phrases are often used in academic style as an alternative to longer, clausal constructions, thus enabling the writer/speaker to integrate a considerable amount of information into the noun-phrase subject slot or object slot in the clause. This process, using a noun phrase to express a meaning more typically associated with an item from another word class, is called nominalisation.

Nominalisations include nouns which express verb-type meanings and adjective-type meanings. They are more frequent in written academic styles than in spoken:

[*IR* = the academic discipline International Relations]
The result was an IR canon, of the 'Plato to Nato' variety, which was substantially anachronistic. ***Its dismantling*** *over the last twenty years has much to do with efforts in the area of conceptual history. Despite this, and the* ***keenness*** *of post-positivist IR theorists to display an historical* ***consciousness****, IR and history maintain an uneasy* ***association****.*
(compare: *It was dismantled* over the last twenty years, and this has much to do with efforts in the area of conceptual history. Despite this, and the fact that post-positivist IR theorists *are keen* to display the fact that they *are* historically *conscious*, IR and history continue *to be associated* uneasily with one another.)

[*marking* and *recapture* refer here to capturing and marking animals for scientific research]
The time lag between ***marking*** *and first* ***recapture*** *was higher than the lag between second and third* ***recapture****, which indicates a trauma caused by the marking procedure.*
(compare: The time lag between *when we marked the animals* and *when we first recaptured them* was higher than the lag between *when we recaptured them for the second and third time* …)

TEXTUAL SIGNALS 143

Textual signalling refers to how certain types of word signal the structure or organisation of the text. Textual signals guide the reader around the text and point to how the writer/speaker wants the text to be interpreted.

Signalling with *it*, *this* and *that* 143a

Reference to textual segments is an important aspect of academic style. The impersonal pronoun *it* and the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* are used in different ways to organise references to text segments and are frequently not interchangeable:

For example, interacting with native speakers is obviously a Social Strategy, but if ***it*** *is part of an overall language learning plan,* ***it*** *could also be a Metacognitive Strategy.*

Low-luminance flickering patterns are perceived to modulate at relatively high rates. ***This*** *occurs even though peak sensitivity is shifted to relatively low temporal frequencies.*
(the whole of sentence one is the topic of sentence two)
(~~It~~ occurs even though peak sensitivity is shifted to relatively low temporal frequencies.)

[anatomy lecture]
And then that's what's called acoustic shadowing, you see, nothing getting through the back, there's a black shadow behind it. ***This*** *is because this is a densely calcified gallstone sitting in his gall bladder.*
(*This* refers to 'acoustic shadowing … nothing getting through the back, there's a black shadow behind it' and makes those clauses the new topic for discussion)

[genetics lecture]
As I say, you'll learn more about the genetic codes which relate GAG to glutamate and GUG to thyamine in one of the other lectures in the course. ***That*** *is another way of expressing the flow of information from DNA to proteins. Right.*

128 for a full account of these uses of *it*, *this* and *that*

TEXTUAL SIGNALS: THE VERB PHRASE 144

General 144a

The verb phrase is important in academic discourse as the place where a number of textual signals of various kinds occur. These include using tense-aspect choices to mark the status of a quotation or citation vis-à-vis the writer's/speaker's current position (**144b–144d** below), or the use of modal verbs for hedging propositions (altering their level of assertiveness; **146** below) as a way of forestalling a challenge to or rejection of a claim.

Academic language has characteristic uses of tense and aspect which relate to important academic textual functions. These include:

Signposting

Tense-aspect choices refer the reader/listener backwards and forwards in the text. For example: *In this chapter we **have looked** at the process of compound formation*.

Structuring

Particular tense-aspect choices tend to be associated with particular parts of academic texts. Abstracts, summaries, concluding sections of academic books, papers and presentations, etc. usually have typical tense-aspect patterns associated with them (e.g. present simple in abstracts, **144b**).

Reporting/narrating

Tense-aspect choices have become institutionalised for reporting and narrating experiments and studies, and for stating findings and conclusions, etc. (e.g. past simple narrating experimental procedures, **144c**).

Citation

Tense-aspect choices have become institutionalised for citing and quoting one's own work and the work of others in different ways (**144d**).

The present simple 144b

Abstracts/summaries

The present simple form often appears in abstracts and summaries of academic works such as articles, chapters, dissertations, theses, essays:

> *This article **looks** at the effect of transoceanic migration on rural Sicilian families. The author **focuses** on the conflicts, stresses and transformations experienced by members of transnational families.*

Reporting findings

The present simple form is often used to report the outcome, results or findings of a piece of research (**144c** to compare the use of the past simple to narrate details of experiments):

> *This paper discusses some asymptotic uniform linearity results of randomly weighted empirical processes based on long-range dependent random variables. These results **are** subsequently **used** to linearize nonlinear regression quantiles in a nonlinear regression model with long-range dependent errors, where the design variables can be either random or nonrandom. These, in turn, **yield** the limiting behavior of the nonlinear regression quantiles. As a corollary, we*

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__obtain__ the limiting behavior of the least absolute deviation estimator and the trimmed mean estimator of the parameters of the nonlinear regression model.

Reporting significant aspects of people's work

The present simple form is often used to report major tenets or central aspects of the work of other academics, especially where such work is considered important or relevant to the present context:

As Wittgenstein __suggests__, there is no such thing as a private language.

[lecture on text linguistics]
Halliday __argues__ that there are three basic transitivity choices. Okay. And he __calls__ them process options.

However, where the citation reports experiments and specific studies, the past simple is preferred.

Unlike previous work, our study personally __followed__ subjects rather than relying on record linkage methods to obtain information on death. In addition, we __examined__ mortality differences for men and women at several points from the beginning of the illness and over its course.

Creating synopses of fictional plots in works of literature

The present simple is used to summarise the plot/events in e.g. novels and plays:

Four men once close to Jack Dodds, a London butcher, __meet__ to carry out his peculiar last wish: to have his ashes scattered into the sea. For reasons best known to herself, Jack's widow, Amy, __declines__ to join them.

The past simple 144c

Referring to the procedures used in individual studies

The past simple form is common when academics refer to the procedures used in their own and others' individual experiments and studies:

[reporting one's own experiment/study]
In two studies, 65 three-year-olds, 57 five-year-olds, and 74 adults __viewed__ video clips of animals or inanimate objects being transported by a person. For each clip, the child __was__ asked whether the animal or object was moving.

[reporting experiments/studies by others]
Bogren et al (2000) statistically __modelled__ the magnitude of such temperature deficits with respect to solar elevation.

The present perfect 144d

Citing

Citing with the present perfect simple is similar to the use of the present simple form (144b), and can sometimes occur as an alternative to the present simple, but the present perfect is especially used to emphasise current relevance or continuing debate:

Berg and Hudson (ch. 6; Hudson 1989) __have emphasised__ that modern factories need not have been large, yet the factories nonetheless were closely divided in their labour.

Schneirla (1966) ***has used*** *the concept of 'experience' to mean all kinds of stimulative effects from the environment.*

Recapitulating

The present perfect simple is used to summarise or recapitulate points or arguments in the discourse up to a particular moment, especially in concluding sections:

What is more, the qualitative analyses in this chapter ***have illustrated*** *crucial aspects of the lexical characteristics of everyday spoken language, and although we* ***have argued*** *against over-generalisation from one-off analyses, it is true that one does not need much data to see the same features constantly recurring.*

[literary stylistics seminar]
But of course we ***have talked*** *about the shape of the poem and that's where I want to go next. So if you have a look on the next sheet. We****'ve talked*** *about lexis. We****'ve talked*** *about morphology so far, and what we're looking at now is graphology. That is the actual shape on the page.*

Ongoing processes

The present perfect progressive is not typically used in concluding sections of academic texts, but may be used to refer to an ongoing process in the discourse up to a given point:

[discussing the way the playwright, Samuel Beckett, uses the space of the theatre stage]
*This pure space, which has only extension but no location, is quite different from the theatrical spaces I'****ve been discussing*** *so far.*

[embryology lecture]
*And probably the surgical procedures that we****'ve been talking*** *about while thinking of ways of correcting before birth can have a major effect.*

In general, progressive verb forms are not frequent in academic citations and in the structuring of academic texts (144e), since academic texts are usually concerned with things that have permanent and long-lasting relevance, rather than temporary or unfolding relevance.

Modal expressions 144e

Will/shall/'ll

An academic writer/speaker may use *will/shall/'ll* to refer forward in a written text or in an academic presentation (e.g. a lecture), to outline or point to things which are to be found later in the text.

Both simple and progressive forms are used. Progressive aspect is especially used when the writer/speaker refers to events which will be repeated or be constant over longer stretches of text.

Shall, especially, indicates an undertaking by the writer/speaker to do the action referred to:

Radiant energy plays a vital role in astrophysical scenarios, and often appears as an equal partner to matter in determining the nature of physical processes which govern different structures. So we ***shall*** *next* ***consider*** *different types of radiant energy which exist in nature and how they interact with matter.*

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It seems to me that this second case, in which coordination gives way to subordination, often holds in the works of Pascal that I ***shall be discussing****.*

[discussing the body displays and vocal displays made by animals]
In the different subsections of this section, I ***will discuss*** *different possible mechanisms underlying aspects of display development and their interrelationship.*

[immunology lecture]
*Let's now just concentrate on the B cells for a few minutes. And then we****'ll*** *come back to the T cells.*

As is true with all verb contractions, the contracted form *'ll* is not normally used in written academic style (144f).

Be going to

Be going to is often used for forward reference in spoken academic style but is generally not used for this purpose in written academic style:

[law lecture]
But do you think that there is a point where the position of consumers has to be looked at very differently from businesses? [pause] *We****'re going to*** *talk about this more next week because we****'re going to*** *be talking about the Unfair Term.*

Verb phrases: contractions 144f

Contracted verb forms are generally avoided in academic writing:

It is *doubtful that such a project ever existed.*
(~~It's doubtful that ...~~)

[discussing the influence of the philosopher Schopenhauer on the novelist D.H. Lawrence]
I am *not saying that Lawrence* ***did not*** *read the other essays or even 'The World as Will and Idea';* ***I am*** *saying that* ***there is*** *no evidence that he did, and* ***we cannot*** *assume any but the briefest familiarity with Schopenhauer's system.*
(~~I'm~~ not saying that Lawrence ~~didn't~~ read the other essays or even 'The World as Will and Idea'; ~~I'm~~ saying that ~~there's~~ no evidence that he did, and ~~we can't~~ assume any but the briefest familiarity with Schopenhauer's system.)

Spoken academic presentations, however, often use contracted forms:

[university tutorial group; lecturer speaking about the writer, Jane Austen]
*Maxims usually express a commonsense point of view and Jane Austen****'s*** *full of that commonsense.*

[immunology lecture]
*And you can see that this is very similar to the picture we****'ve*** *looked at previously but we****'ve*** *added on two more molecules. So here****'s*** *our surface of the T cell.*

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE IN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE 145

Passive voice is common in academic discourse since it is often felt necessary to shift the focus from human agency to the actions, processes and events being described. In academic writing in particular, foregrounding the writer/researcher in such processes is often felt to be inappropriate (also **148**):

> *A total of 14 case studies **were recorded**. The data **were analysed** using principles of conversation analysis and thematic analysis set within a hermeneutic interpretative framework. In order to illuminate presentations of autonomy in practice, focus-group discussions with nurses and older people **were used** as part of the interpretative process. **I discuss** the factors that prevented the operationalisation of an individualised rights-based concept of autonomy for older people.*

Note how the research process is described in the passive voice (*were recorded*, *were analysed*, *were used*), while the author changes to active voice (*I discuss*) when signposting the section dealing with personal stance and evaluation of the research.

Passive voice (along with the present tense, **144b**) is particularly prevalent in abstracts to academic papers and articles:

> *The urban hierarchy of an English region in the period 1300–1540 **is defined**, using both documentary and archaeological evidence. The part of the East Midlands studied – Leicestershire, Northamptonshire and Rutland – contained twenty towns. 'Benchmarks' for placing towns in the hierarchy **are explored**, including population, topography, social structure, occupational diversity, marketing and migratory networks, administration, and civic and material culture. The conclusion **emphasizes** the common urban characteristics of all of the towns studied, the compatibility of written and unwritten evidence, and the stability of the urban system.*

Note here that active voice (*emphasizes*) occurs with the impersonal subject *the conclusion* (compare the alternative constructions which would foreground the researcher: *I conclude/I emphasize in the conclusion*).

However, personal subjects and active voice verbs do occur frequently in academic discourse, particularly where a researcher is laying claim to a different or new approach to something, or contrasting their approach with that of others:

> *The acquisition of the English past tense inflection is the paradigm example of rule learning in the child language literature and has become something of a test case for theories of language development. This is unfortunate, as the idiosyncratic properties of the English system of marking tense make it a rather unrepresentative example of morphological development. In this paper, **I contrast** this familiar inflection with a much more complex morphological subsystem, the Polish genitive.*

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Personal subjects and active voice are also common where speakers/writers provide textual signposting:

> *Throughout the literature, these pedagogical themes emerge: build a large sight vocabulary, integrate new words with the old, provide a number of encounters with words, promote a deep level of processing, facilitate imaging and concreteness, use a variety of techniques, and encourage independent learner strategies.* ***I will now discuss*** *each item in turn.*
> (compare: Each item will now be discussed in turn.)

I think is less commonly used in academic writing than in everyday language, and expressions such as *in my view/opinion*, *I would argue/suggest*, *it is reasonable to suppose/conclude/suggest*/etc. are preferred when the writer is giving a personal opinion:

> *For example, the counting system, with its decade structure, certainly helps us to make complicated arithmetical calculations, but the experience of doing so also transforms our understanding of quantity, according to Vygotsky. It is a simple, testable and provocative idea whose time,* ***in my view****, has still to come.*
>
> ***I would argue that*** *different models are appropriate at different times.*
> (~~I think (that) different models are appropriate at different times.~~)

Get-passives are very rare in academic writing, but are more frequent in spoken academic style:

> [lecture about the alimentary system]
> *So particularly in middle-aged people who take Amatrozol, they're at a great risk of food poisoning because the bugs which the acid kills off don't* ***get killed*** *and they make it down through the gastrointestinal tract and give them a nasty case of food poisoning.*
> ('…are not killed' would be expected in written academic style)

Get-passives and *be*-passives may occur side by side in spoken academic style:

> [microbiology lecture]
> *Many viruses* ***get taken*** *up by cells of the immune system of one sort or another. And they* ***get transported*** *to the lymph nodes and swollen lymph nodes is a common feature of many virus infections. And what's happening is that as the virus* ***is taken*** *to the lymph nodes, there is an intense immune response within the lymph nodes so the lymph node swells in an attempt to try and eliminate the virus infection.*

HEDGING AND BOOSTING 146

Academic texts are most frequently characterised by a desire to avoid making claims and statements that are too direct and assertive, since academic discourse is often about theories, conclusions drawn from evidence, exchanging viewpoints, and so on, rather than hard, indisputable facts. Therefore, hedging (making a proposition less assertive) is very important in academic styles. Less often, it is sometimes also necessary to assert a claim or viewpoint quite directly and more confidently, a process we shall refer to as boosting.

Hedging and boosting are principally realised through modal expressions and through the use of simple tense forms. We also examine the role of adverbs and other constructions in asserting (boosting) and hedging.

Modality and tense-aspect 146a

Will is used to make confident predictions or to assert known or accepted facts:

> *Represented as a value between zero and one, X **will** approach unity in perfectly flat and open terrain, whereas locations with obstructions such as buildings and trees **will** cause X to become proportionally less (Oke, 1992).*

> [pathology lecture]
> *Right. Red blood cells leaving the capillaries and then entering the tissues. They'll break down there and haemoglobin **will** be released and the tissue **will** turn black and eventually **will** go.*

Must is used to make confident predictions or conclusions:

> *Such changes **must** be due to changes in motivational organization of social behaviour.*

Must is also used in boosted directives to the reader/listener to pay attention to particular points:

> *We **must** remember, however, that migrants may not need information about more than one destination.*
> (compare the weaker: We should remember, however, …)

> *It is useful to try to apply these general stages when considering any piece of worked stone. As always, they are meant to help us understand the processes and as such are merely an intellectual framework. Therefore one **must not** apply them too rigidly.*

The unmodified simple forms of verb tenses are used to make non-hedged assertions:

> *Attachment, then, **results** in close and prolonged proximity of bacterial digestive enzymes with the substrate.*
> (compare the hedged: Attachment, then, may/can/could/might/should result in close and prolonged proximity of bacterial digestive enzymes with the substrate.)

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*Adams **believed** that the Washington government must, for material as well as moral reasons, fight an aggressive war for American commerce.*
(compare: Adams may have believed/Adams probably believed …)

Hedging: modality 146b

Can, could, might and *may*

Broadly speaking, *can*, *could*, *might* and *may* are used in academic style in the same way as they are used in general English, but one or two usages which are more frequent in academic style are worth noting. Academic English often needs to state possibilities rather than facts, and academics frequently hypothesise and draw tentative conclusions.

Can is often used to make fairly confident but not absolute assertions, in contrast with *could*, *might* or *may* (see below):

*These new insights into the multiple meanings of family **can** help us understand the experience of transnational migration.*
(asserting a claim of what is normal, i.e. almost equivalent to 'these new insights … help us understand …', but framed as 'usually/normally' rather than 'always')

Could and *might* are used for more tentative assertions:

*One **could** say that our concept of selfhood is radically contaminated by the mind-set of 'this is mine', 'I am this'.*

[consultant (A) tutoring a student doctor]
A: *Right. Very good. What do you think **might** have happened since he left hospital that caused this ulcer to break down yet again?*
B: *He **could** have either occluded his graft.*
A: *Yes.*
B: *Or the area **could** have become infected.*
A: *Okay. Now is there any clinical evidence that he **might** have occluded his graft?*

[on the behaviour of young birds]
*Thus, one **might** conclude that the predisposition to respond to pattern or flicker only affects the further development of a preference in that it **might** help to guide the young bird towards objects having these characteristics.*

A particular use of *may*, which is very common in academic texts, is to describe things which are likely to occur or which normally do occur. In this usage it is a formal equivalent of *can*:

*Parallel vertical pipes, several centimetres long and 1–2 mm thick, are common in much of the unit, but especially in the middle part, where there **may** be several in each cm horizontal section.*

[on mental health and mental retardation]
*The anger experience **may** culminate in a variety of behavioural reactions, including aggression or withdrawal.*

May is also widely used in a more general way in academic texts to make a proposition more tentative. *May* is less tentative than *could* or *might*:

> *This change **may** also have been in progress in other counties.*

> [*CFS* = chronic fatigue syndrome]
> *Overall, one **may** conclude that the present study has shown that patients with CFS have psychomotor impairments, problems maintaining attention, and are visually sensitive.*

Would

Would is frequently used to hedge assertions which someone might challenge and to make argumentative claims less direct when used with speech-act verbs such as *advocate*, *argue*, *assume*, *claim*, *propose*, *suggest*:

> *Given this, we **would argue** that the Iowa sample has provided a unique opportunity to examine a number of important questions regarding schizophrenia, including the issue of mortality.*

> *Theoretically, one **would assume** that this increased bacterial mass would synthesize more enzymes.*

> [lecture on the teaching of language and literature]
> *And students think that by reading a text, getting the information from it, they have understood it. They are, I **would suggest**, full of the understanding of one level: the referential meaning.*

Would is also frequently used with *appear* and *seem*:

> *It **would seem** that in this domain, as in so many others, the north was more favoured than the south.*
> (compare the more assertive: It seems that in this domain …)

Should and *ought to*

Should allows the writer/speaker to describe desired or ideal situations. It is less strong than *must*:

> *However, to assess different advantages and disadvantages in other circumstances, the chosen method **should** be examined critically before use.*
> (compare the stronger: … the chosen method must be examined …)

Ought to is occasionally used in this way in academic style, but is much less frequent than *should*:

> *Our use of the term 'stable' **ought to** be defined here.*

Should is used to hedge conclusions and predictions, but it expresses confidence in the probability that a situation will occur in a particular way:

> *The overall agreement of the results **should** allow us to accept them with some confidence.*
> (compare the more direct: … the results allow us to accept …)

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[English literature lecture]
*Okay. You **should** be able to see the connections already and hopefully you can see what Anderson is saying in this extract.*

Hedging: other expressions 146c

Hedging in academic texts is often carried out by the use of a range of adverbial and prepositional constructions (plus some other types of expression). Their full effect can often best be observed by removing them from the example sentences quoted here.

Common hedging expressions include adverbs such as:

apparently	*generally*	*roughly*
arguably	*likely*	*seemingly*
broadly	*normally*	*surely*
evidently	*partially*	*typically*
frequently	*probably*	*usually*

*It was, **arguably**, the strongest leadership the department had ever had and it used its resources well.*

*They are both from **roughly** the same period in the middle of the sixteenth century.*

*Yet, **seemingly** for Bakhtin, though material forces no doubt exist, what determines that we know about them at all are intersubjective human relations.*

Common prepositional phrases and other expressions used as hedges include:

as a (general) rule	*in a way*	*in some respects/in many respects*
broadly speaking	*in most cases/in the majority of cases*	*more or less*
generally speaking	*in principle*	*roughly speaking*
in a sense	*in some senses*	

*Survey researchers have **as a rule** understandably preferred to make use of established diagnostic categories, rather than have to develop their own new ones and then try to persuade clinicians to accept these.*

[critique of a collection of political essays]
*Thus the essays were, **in a sense**, out of date when they appeared, yet the cultural tradition which they articulate and to which they contribute remains a part of the German scene to this day.*

*This summary **more or less** encapsulates the thesis advanced by Glynn in his new and wide-ranging history of arms races and arms control.*

Hedging and impersonal constructions 146d

Propositions may be hedged by the use of impersonal *it*-constructions with passive voice which enable the writer/speaker to avoid the more direct commitment to a proposition which a first person *I/we* + active voice may create:

> ***It is suggested*** *that the analytic procedures illustrated in this paper be applied to more widely-used oral testing instruments in order to evaluate their utility in eliciting conversational interaction.*
> (compare the more direct and personal: I suggest that …)

Such impersonal *it*-constructions may also be used simply to hedge a proposition by attributing it to other, unnamed experts:

> ***It is claimed, or tacitly assumed****, in narrative studies that temporality should be explored in narrative texts where it functions as a dominant principle of organization.*

A range of impersonal *it*-expressions are common in academic texts to attribute propositions to unnamed people. These include:

it is (widely) accepted	*it is believed*	*it is/has been said*
it is generally agreed	*it is/has been claimed*	*it is/has been suggested*

> ***It is generally agreed*** *that one of the most influential reports published during the war was the Beveridge Report, published in 1942, which mapped out the future welfare state.*
>
> *Literature,* ***it is claimed****, seeks to recapture and reconstruct tradition.*

The use of a raised subject as an alternative to anticipatory *it*, similarly, enables the writer/speaker to make a less direct commitment to a proposition. Common passive expressions of this type include:

be believed to	*be found to*	*be shown to*
be claimed to	*be said to*	*be thought to*
be considered to	*be seen to*	

> *The value placed on children* ***is believed to have changed*** *from pre-industrial societies to the present time.*
>
> *Operating practices* ***are said to have been*** *a major obstacle to improvement.*

Boosting 146e

Boosting in academic texts, to make a claim more assertively, is often carried out by the use of a range of adverbial and prepositional constructions (plus some other types of expression).

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Common boosting expressions include adverbs such as:

categorically	*indisputably*	*plainly*
certainly	*inevitably*	*undeniably*
clearly	*irrefutably*	*undoubtedly*
definitely	*observably*	*unquestionably*
emphatically	*obviously*	

*This is **clearly** a very restrictive hypothesis, which requires verification, and Lightfoot suggests that language change represents a useful testing ground.*

*While most people were **indisputably** poor, the economy had a considerable surplus above basic subsistence needs, although much of that surplus was concentrated in the hands of those in the top 10 per cent or so of the income distribution.*

*Yet utilities and transport **unquestionably** provide a service rather than a commodity.*

Other expressions used in boosting include:

for sure/for certain	*there is/was no doubt that*
*it is/was clear/obvious/ indisputable/*etc. *that*	*without doubt*

***It was clear that** the Danes would remain neutral, although they offered to approach Catherine II in order to sound her out on a possible settlement.*

*In the early nineteenth century this was **without doubt** true of much of the Nord region and the Normandy textile area.*

PERSONALISING AND DE-PERSONALISING: PRONOUNS 147

I versus *we* 147a

The personal pronoun *I* is used in academic discourse for self-reference, particularly when referring to one's own stance (one's position or viewpoint) or conclusions, or when contrasting one's own approach with that of others. It commonly occurs with verbs expressing stance, particularly in humanities disciplines, and particularly in spoken academic style. Such verbs include:

accept	*assume*	*suggest*
advocate	*believe*	*suppose*
agree	*consider*	*suspect*
argue	*propose*	*think*

> ***I consider*** *it unlikely that instruction accounts for anywhere near as much vocabulary growth as does incidental acquisition from context during reading.*

> [pathology lecture]
> *Right. We've got production of toxins. An endotoxin or an extra toxin. Right.* ***I assume*** *you know the difference between the two. So we won't go into it.*

I can occasionally be used with a generic meaning, particularly in the discipline of philosophy:

> *To guarantee the truth of my belief that you are in pain,* ***I*** *need only determine whether the relevant physical, criterial conditions are satisfied. But if* ***I*** *believe that being in pain involves something distinguishable from the satisfaction of such public conditions,* ***I*** *am in serious philosophical trouble. Could it be that what* ***I*** *assume to be other people are people in appearance only?*
> (*I* here refers to any person who thinks/acts in the way described)

We is typically used to refer to more than one author of an academic paper or article. Nowadays it is becoming less frequent for single authors to refer to themselves in the first person plural:

> [paper by two authors]
> *In this paper* ***we*** *report our experience with ear-tattooing in order to compare it with other methods used for marking small mammals.*

The other characteristic use of *we* is to refer to the speaker/writer and listener/reader together, creating a sense of an academic community shared by all participants in the discourse:

> [virology lecture]
> ***We*** *know the molecular biology of this virus in very great detail.* ***We*** *know the sequence of the genome from end to end. Now* ***we*** *know the proteins encoded by that genome.*

Single authors may sometimes use *we* as an inclusive strategy to carry the reader along with them in the unfolding argument or presentation of facts, even though it is the single author who has presented the arguments or facts:

> *In describing the process of gravitational instability* ***we*** *have oversimplified matters a little.*

We also occurs in textual signposting, where the writer/speaker is orienting the reader in some way, or pointing to links within the text to other parts of the text:

> *It is true, as* ***we*** *have seen elsewhere in this book, that individual changes may aid or impair communication to a limited extent.*

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You and *one* 147b

You and *one* can both be used to refer to people in general, and to the academic community of writer(s)/speaker and readers/listeners. *You* is less formal than *one*.

You in these generic uses is frequent in both written and spoken academic style, although it is considerably less frequent than *we* in written academic texts:

> *We could argue, however, that the probability of an uptake event is not fixed, but varies in a predictable way. It is possible, for example, that the more words* ***you*** *already know, the easier it is to acquire the meaning of new words that* ***you*** *encounter.*

> [from a text about the architecture of cathedrals]
> *If* ***you*** *consider, for example, the plan of the Cistercian monasteries, where the church was designed to receive abbot, monks, lay brothers and the congregation, it was the position allocated to each of these elements within the edifice which led to its being partitioned.*

> [virology lecture]
> *We'll see in some detail in a bit, viruses are quite unique in the way that they carry their genetic material and the most important feature is that viruses will only carry RNA or DNA.* ***You*** *never find both in the same virus particle.*

One is also used with generic reference to people in general or to the academic community of a particular discipline, but it is considerably less frequent than *we* or *you*, especially in spoken academic style:

> *On biological grounds* ***one*** *might suspect that the changes induced by early life experience are in an evolutionary context adaptive.*

> [lecturer in History of English tutorial session]
> *I mean this theory that showed through analogy, now I think it's absolutely right, but I suppose* ***one*** *has to say 'probably' because of course no one exactly knows how this happened.*

Mixing of *one* and *you* occurs in the same discourse, especially in spoken contexts:

> [immunology lecture]
> ***One*** *has to actually have the T cells there to isolate the T cells and show that they are reacting against a specific antigen. And are therefore said to be the main mediators of cell mediated immunity.* ***You*** *actually need the T cells themselves to demonstrate that they are responding to the antigen and having an immune effect.*

OTHER IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS 148

It-constructions 148a

Anticipatory *it* is frequently used in passive-voice clauses with or without an explicit agent to create an impersonal structure. This enables writers/speakers to distance themselves from assertions (also **146d Hedging and impersonal constructions**):

***It** has generally been accepted **by scientists** that models with fewer parameters and which make predictions are better models.*
(compare the more direct: scientists generally accept …)

***It** is argued that in the latter two cases, the default-like character of one of the affixes is attributable to the properties of the relevant inflectional subsystems, not to the predispositions that children bring to the language-learning task.*
(compare: I argue that …)

See also the next example below in **148b Existential *there***.

Existential *there* 148b

Existential *there* constructions are also regularly used instead of personal ones (note also impersonal *it* in this example):

[*marking* and *recapture* refer here to capturing and marking animals for scientific research]
*The time lag between marking and first recapture was higher than the lag between second and third recapture, which indicates a trauma caused by the marking procedure. However, **there was** no evidence of any weight loss as reported for other marking methods, and most of the tattooed animals did not show any behaviour indicating irritation after being marked. **It is concluded** that ear-tattooing, as an alternative to other methods of marking small mammals, is useful even in the field.*
(compare the more personal: However, I/we found no evidence …)

[endocrinology lecture]
*So as the fluid fluxes through this segment of the nephron its osmotic concentration goes from two ninety up to twelve hundred milliultinals per kilo and then back down to one eighty milliultinals per kilo. Now **there are** certain things to note as a consequence of that.*
(compare: We/you should note certain things as a …)

There + *exist* is also found in formal academic styles:

*This is similar to cognitive knowledge, in which **there exist** universally valid concepts to which each individual object could belong.*

Third person self-reference 148c

Academic writers often refer to themselves as 'the author', 'the (present) researcher', and often refer to their own work impersonally. This is especially the case in abstracts and other types of summary:

[article abstract, written by the article's author]
***This article** looks at the effect of transoceanic migration on rural Sicilian families. **The author** focuses on the conflicts, stresses, and transformations experienced by members of transnational families. … **This essay** highlights the deeply gendered nature of transnational migration, and the role of the family in altering ideas of husband, wife, mother and father.*

IMPERATIVES AND RHETORICAL QUESTIONS 149

Imperatives

Imperatives occur in academic contexts most typically when the reader/listener is invited to consider or pay particular attention to something.

Some verbs in the imperative are particularly common in written texts. These include *consider*, *note*, *notice*, *observe*, *recall*, *remember*, *see*:

> *For example,* ***consider*** *the way people often construe behaviour problems in boys who do and who do not have mental retardation.*

> [text linguistics lecture]
> *But the grammatical subject is also the agent, that is if the subject is doing something to the object. Okay.* ***Remember****, the grammatical subject is not always the agent.*

Let us, and in spoken contexts *let's*, are also common in academic discourse to direct a collective focus of attention on the part of writer(s)/speaker and readers/listeners:

> *First,* ***let us perform*** *a comparative examination of two examples.*

> [lecture on the alimentary system]
> *So* ***let's look*** *now at their targets and in particular the dietary carbohydrates.*

First person *let me* is also common when the speaker/writer is signalling some upcoming aspect of the text. It is similar in function to *I shall/I will* (above, **144e**):

> [referring to the William Shakespeare play, *Romeo and Juliet*]
> *With all this context in mind,* ***let me*** *return to the final scene of 'Romeo and Juliet' and to my questions (1) and (3): what would an audience in the mid 1590s actually have seen; and, equally important, so what?*

Rhetorical questions

Rhetorical questions and questions which the questioner immediately answers are frequent in academic contexts, since writers and speakers often wish to anticipate questions readers and listeners may be posing in their minds, or else wish to raise those same questions in the mind of the reader/listener prior to answering them:

> *If the northwest-European-origin slaveowners had operated as if the slaves resembled life-cycle servants,* ***what might we expect to observe****?*

> ***Why is it that quasar activity declined in the universe both at high redshifts and at low redshifts****? If the conventional picture of quasars is correct, then …*

SENTENCE PATTERNS 150

In general, academic writing displays quite complex sentence patterns, including frequent use of all the types of subordination which occur in general English usage (**310–317**).

Non-finite subordinate clauses are particularly common:

Surprisingly, the pioneers of modern urban healthcare supported a 'return to nature' by mobilizing anti-urban and pro-rural discourse. ***Comparing*** *Nottingham and Saint-Etienne, this article addresses the politics that produced this paradox.*

To explore *further the perceptual component, we measured perceived temporal frequency in human subjects with unilateral optic neuritis for whom optic nerve transmission is known to be relatively slow and generally similar to the normal physiological state under low luminance.*

Ellipted subordinate clauses are also frequent:

Specifically, ***when asked*** *in the post-use interviews how using the computer-tutor influenced their behaviour, students most commonly mentioned an increase in their level of effort.*

This approach could admit the possibility of conflict between an individual's use of freedom and the attainment of happiness ***while denying*** *that happiness could be attained without freedom.*

Clauses with *as* ... **151**

As-clauses referring to the works of other academics are an alternative to a reporting + reported clause structure:

By contrast, ***as*** *Gombrich* ***has remarked****, little value was placed on clarity in Renaissance iconography.*
(or: By contrast, Gombrich *has remarked that* little value was placed on clarity in Renaissance iconography.)
(By contrast, ~~as Gombrich has remarked that~~ little value was placed on clarity in Renaissance iconography.)

As-clauses often occur in the passive in academic style to exemplify or compare or to cite something/someone. In such cases, an *it*-subject is not used:

Hume's contention can be avoided by the use of inverse probability, ***as was seen*** *in Chapter 7, and although the justification of induction has always been a notorious problem, yet empirically, as Ramsey argued (Sahlin, 1990), induction is convincing because it is successful.*
(Hume's contention can be avoided by the use of inverse probability, ~~as it was~~ seen in Chapter 7, ...)

The same is true when subject-verb inversion occurs after *as*:

When total study time was limited but local study time was free, ***as was the case*** *in Experiment 2, the experimental subjects allocated more study time to items in the non-mobilized category, whereas the control subjects allocated an equal amount of time to items in both categories.*
(When total study time was limited but local study time was free, ~~as it was the case in Experiment 2,~~ ...)

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LINKING ADJUNCTS 152

The use of linking adjuncts (136) is important in academic language, especially in writing, to give coherence to the text and to organise it.

Academic English uses many linking adjuncts which are not frequent in everyday conversational English. The following occur frequently in academic contexts but only very infrequently in day-to-day conversational language:

- Additive: adding further ideas (136b):

additionally	*in addition*	*similarly*
equally	*likewise*	
furthermore	*moreover*	

The national income grew roughly 2.5 times between 1945 and 1990 and earnings in real terms grew, if anything, even more rapidly. Household income gained ***additionally*** *from the higher proportion of women in paid jobs.*

- Resultative: expressing causes, reasons, results, consequences (136c):

accordingly	*hence*	*in view of this/that*
as a consequence	*in consequence*	*therefore*
as a result	*in (the) light of this/that*	*thus*
consequently		

The behaviour of dark matter is governed entirely by gravitational forces, and ***hence*** *is easy to incorporate theoretically – both in calculations and in computer simulations.*

- Contrastive: contrasting, opposing (136d):

by/in contrast	*nevertheless*	*on the one hand … on the other hand*
conversely	*nonetheless*	
however	*on the contrary*	

Histories of literacy and print culture had also cultivated an interest in visual media. These studies ***nonetheless*** *generally focused on print rather than writing.*

- Organisational: organising and structuring the text, listing:

finally	*in conclusion*	*in summary*
firstly, secondly, thirdly	*in its/in their turn*	*lastly*
in brief	*in short*	*respectively*
	in sum	*subsequently*

This reviewer might wish to question particular judgements here and there, but ***in sum*** *this is a fascinating and thought-provoking book.*

Note also that a number of non-finite clausal constructions are used in academic texts to signal summaries (*to sum up*, *summing up*, *to conclude*, *to summarise*).

also **123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences** and **335 Linking**

Problems with linking adjuncts **153**

Certain linking adjuncts typical of academic style are often misused.

On the contrary, by contrast, on the other hand

On the contrary, *by contrast* and *on the other hand* are different. *On the contrary* rejects a previous statement in favour of an opposite one:

> *Such complex impressions on the part of teachers by no means arise from ignorance or prejudice:* ***on the contrary****, they are the result of powerful, historically informed, shared perspectives on musical reality.*

By contrast and *on the other hand* hold two statements up for consideration and comparison/contrast, but do not reject the first one:

> *Criminality in pre-industrialized Europe is thus characterized more by violence against persons than by property crimes such as theft. Modern society,* ***by contrast****, is thought to experience more theft than violence.*
>
> *Athenian public buildings and spaces were magnificent. Private houses,* ***on the other hand****, seem to have been small, and minimally furnished.*
> (both statements are true, but are presented for contrast with each other)

First(ly)* and *at first

First or (more formally) *firstly*, not *at first*, is used to label the first item or point in a list:

> *In this paper we* ***firstly*** *review the empirical studies carried out by Annett. We* ***then*** *discuss the ways in which genotypes are identified within the Annett studies, we show that this is inefficient, and then describe a more powerful and sensitive method that we use in our own empirical study.*

At first is used to contrast two different situations in time:

> *Employment had* ***at first*** *been only too full, and the economy was overloaded.* ***But by the end of the period*** *the very idea of full employment seemed illusory and even Keynes' view that 5 per cent was a reasonable level to aim for would have seemed highly optimistic.*

Last(ly)* and *at last

Last(ly), not *at last*, is used to label the final item or point in a list:

> *As a rule the multiple-function centres were the first to acquire the innovation; they were* ***followed by*** *the prefectoral towns,* ***then*** *by industrial towns, and* ***lastly*** *by those not dominated by any single activity.*
> (…, ~~then by industrial towns, and at last by those not dominated by any single activity.~~)

At last is used to indicate that something happens, but later or after a longer period of time than was hoped or expected:

> *By 1937 activity was 70 per cent higher than five years earlier. Much more than a recovery from the depression, or even a result of substituting home production for imports, the upsurge has been interpreted as being the structural change that the 1920s failed to achieve (Richardson 1967). New industries were* ***at last*** *replacing the old staples.*

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OTHER ASPECTS OF ACADEMIC STYLE 154

The grammar of titles and sub-titles 154a

Titles of academic works often use the *-ing* form of the verb in a non-finite clause to indicate research activity directed towards a stated goal or some ongoing process. Examples of titles of books and papers:

[book title]
*Negotiat**ing** Service: Studies in the Discourse of Bookshop Encounters*

[title of a paper in a musical education journal]
*Rais**ing** standards in performance*

[title of a paper in a behavioural sciences journal]
*Vary**ing** the scale of financial incentives under real and hypothetical conditions*

The preposition *towards* is often used in academic titles to indicate tentative proposals or initial explorations in new theory. Examples of book titles:

*EC Regionalism at the Turn of the Millennium: **towards** a new paradigm?*

***Towards** more Effective Supplementary and Mother-tongue Schools: guidelines*

***Towards** a Reference Architecture for Natural Language Generation Systems*

Punctuation 154b

Academic writing has developed punctuation conventions which are normally observed when writing essays, papers, articles and books.

Quotations

For punctuating quotations, a variety of conventions exists, often depending on individual publishers or journal styles, or the rules of individual institutions. Some typical examples are given here.

No punctuation of the quoted words if indented
Longer quotations from people's works often occupy their own paragraph and are usually indented further than the current paragraph indentation. In this case, no quotation marks are used.

Single or double quote marks within the body of the text
Although considerable variation exists, there is a tendency to prefer single quotation marks, particularly when citing single words or short phrases. If double quote marks are used, they are more likely to enclose longer quotations. Single quotes may also be used to draw attention to a particular nuance of a word or an unusual use of it, or to question a term or concept:

Communication in the ELT classroom is a highly complex, complicated and elusive phenomenon: 'a problematic medium' (Cazden, 1986: 423).

Pomerantz reports (1986: 227) that formulations "assert the strongest case in anticipation of non-sympathetic hearing" and hence are frequently used in complaining.

Use of the colon to introduce quotations

The colon is often used to introduce quotations where they do not form a continuous sentence with the author's own text (see also the example beginning 'Communication in the ELT classroom …' above):

As Young reminded his audience: In the beginning of the war we advertising men had very little standing.

Where the quotation forms a continuous sentence with the author's own text, no punctuation other than quote marks is necessary:

Robert Crassweller, Trujillo's biographer, notes that America's unfamiliarity with the Dominican Republic is "a fact that must be included among the curiosities of the region".

Bibliographic citations

There are different ways of punctuating bibliographical citations. Most typically, a citation appears within round brackets in the text:

*Thornes & Shao **(1991b)** tested the sensitivity of individual meteorological parameters in a road weather information system by using …*

Where the whole citation is already within parenthesis, commas typically separate authors' names and dates, and the semi-colon is used to separate different citations:

The dominance of X as a controlling parameter for RST has also been found in many other studies (e.g. Barring et al., 1985; Elliasson, 1996; Upmanis, 1999). The impact of X will be most noticeable during times of high atmospheric stability, when potential radiation losses are at their greatest.

Where specific page numbers are given in a citation, the colon is normally used:

'Situation' and 'sequence' are two concepts which Winter, working with written sentences, sees as fundamental in the interpretation of sequences of clauses in text (Winter, 1982: 2).

Titles and sub-titles

A title and sub-title are often separated by a colon. This usually indicates that the sub-title is an explanation or paraphrase of the title:

[title of an article in an academic book]
Focus on the language learner: motivation, styles and strategies

[title of a chapter sub-section in an academic book]
Dark matter: weight without light

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Bibliographies and lists of references 154c

Conventions exist for the ways in which bibliographies and lists of references are laid out in academic books, papers and essays. These sometimes depend on individual publishers or conventions adopted by colleges and universities, but some are widely used internationally, for example the APA (American Psychological Association) system, which lays out bibliographical references in the following ways (note the use of commas, full stops, colons, italics and brackets). The examples given here are APA style; other systems (e.g. Harvard, MLA) may be quite different.

Books

author	date	title of book	place of publication	publisher
Biber, D.	(1995).	*Dimensions of Register Variation*.	Cambridge:	Cambridge University Press.

(APA)

Biber, D. (1995) *Dimensions of Register Variation*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
(Harvard)

Biber, D. Dimensions of Register Variation. Cambridge: CUP, 1995.
(MLA)

Papers in academic journals

author	date	title of article	journal	volume and issue	pages
Sinclair, J.	(1996).	The search for units of meaning.	*Textus*,	9(1),	75–106.

Articles/chapters in books

author	date	title of article/chapter	name(s) of book editor(s)		
Bakhtin, M. M.	(1986).	The problem of speech genres.	In T. W. McGee & C. Emerson & M. Holquist		
(Eds.),	*Speech Genres and Other Late Essays*	(pp. 60–102).	Austin:	University of Texas Press.	
	title of book	page numbers of the article	place of publication	publisher	

Abbreviations used

The following abbreviations often appear in textual and bibliographical references:

& = and

cf. = compare

edn. = edition

ed(s). = editor(s)

et al. = and other authors

ibid. = the same place in a work already referred to

ms. = manuscript

no. = issue number

op. cit. = the work already referred to

p. = page pp. = pages

Trans. = translator/translated by/translation

vol. = volume

Introduction to word classes and phrase classes

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Introduction to word classes and phrase classes

INTRODUCTION 155

This chapter (155–166) explores the types and functions of words and how they form phrases. The chapter introduces terminology and definitions and lays a basis for more detailed treatment in a number of subsequent chapters. The main word classes dealt with in this chapter are: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition and conjunction. Word classes are traditionally called parts of speech.

A further word class, determiner, is dealt with in **176–196 Nouns and determiners**. There are also minor word classes such as interjections (*ouch*, *oi*, *oh*, *ah*). However, these minor types operate outside of the clause and sentence structure.

113 Interjections

Word classes can be either open or closed. Open classes admit new words, whereas closed classes are a more limited set and only rarely admit new words. For example, nouns are an open class and new nouns are created all the time; pronouns, however, are a closed class and it is not easy to create new pronouns. Thus, the growth of the internet has resulted in many new nouns such as *blog* (from 'web-log'), *smiley*, *spam*, *hypertext*, but the new written pronoun *s/he* has failed to become universally established.

Many languages use word endings to distinguish between nouns and verbs and other word classes. In English different word classes can be formed by the process of derivation using suffixes. For example, the suffix *-ment*, when added to the verb *amaze*, changes the word class to the noun *amazement*. However, although English uses such word endings, they are not a reliable guide to word class; for example, *augment* is a verb, and *comment* can be a verb or a noun, depending on context.

Word endings can also be inflections, which indicate categories such as tense, person and number. The inflection *-ed* can change a verb from present to past tense (*walk/walk**ed***), and the inflection *-s* can indicate third person singular concord with a subject. But inflections do not change the word class. *Walk* and *walked* are both verbs.

258–268 Word structure and word formation

A word may have more than one grammatical form. For example, *sing* belongs to the word class of verb and yet has several different forms such as: *sings*, *singing*, *sung*, *sang*. We refer to the word *sang* as the past form of the word *sing*. It is common for a single form to have different grammatical functions. For example, in the case of the verb *cut* the present and past form of the verb are the same. There is, however, only one underlying form in each case: *sing* and *cut*.

Items within a particular class may consist of more than one word. For example, the phrasal verb *take off* (as in *take off your coat/take your coat off*) consists of two words but operates syntactically and semantically as a unified item.

Underlying forms are called lexemes. For example, the word *water* has a similar meaning when used as a noun (*I drank the water*) and when used as a verb (*I must water the plants*) but it is a different lexeme in each case. A lexeme can only belong to one word class. So *I **watered** the plants* involves the same lexeme as *I must **water** the plants*, but a different lexeme from *I drank the **water***. Forms such as *water*, *waters*, *watering* and *watered* are grammatically distinct forms of the same lexeme, the verb *water*.

Sometimes differences in pronunciation distinguish words with identical forms. For example, *refuse* (/rɪˈfjuːz/ verb, meaning to decline) and *refuse* (/ˈrefjuːz/ noun, meaning household rubbish) or *row* (/rəʊ/ noun, meaning a line of seats) and *row* (/raʊ/ verb, meaning to quarrel).

Words can be converted from one class to another and new words are often formed in this way. For example, the noun *fax* has been converted into a verb *to fax*. The adjective *hopeful* has been converted into a noun and is used in contexts such as *There were three hopefuls being interviewed for the job*.

Words combine to form phrases. Each word class has a corresponding phrase class. This book has chapters dealing with noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases and prepositional phrases. Because of the complexity of determiner phrases, a special chapter is devoted to them.

Sections 156–166 contain basic definitions of six major word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions.

NOUNS 156

Nouns: forms 156a

Nouns are the largest class of words. They denote classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states. For example, *accident*, *cat*, *club*, *competition*, *conscience*, *garage*, *soldier*, *pride*, *James*, *Paris* are nouns.

Suffixes

Nouns are not usually identifiable by their form. However, common derivational suffixes which may enable words to be recognised as nouns include:

suffix	nouns	suffix	nouns
-age	*wastage, postage, mileage*	*-ist*	*artist, realist, pessimist*
-al	*approval, withdrawal*	*-ity*	*practicality, identity*
-ant	*deodorant, disinfectant, itinerant*	*-ment*	*amazement, containment*
-dom	*kingdom, wisdom*	*-ness*	*fitness, toughness*
-ee	*referee, tutee*	*-ship*	*ownership, studentship*
-er, -or	*trainer, runner, actor, vendor*	*-tion, -sion*	*addition, caption, extension*
-hood	*childhood, girlhood*	*-tude*	*altitude, multitude*
-ing	*building, fencing*	*-y*	*entry, discovery*
-ism	*socialism, idealism*		

The suffixes can be added to verbs and adjectives to form nouns:

verb	noun
amaze	*amazement*
contest	*contestant*
refer	*referee*
survive	*survivor*
write	*writer*

adjective	noun
bright	*brightness*
happy	*happiness*
loyal	*loyalist*
rapid	*rapidity*

Conversion

Conversion can also occur from verbs to nouns. Examples include:

*a **desire** to do something*

*a **lack** of something*

*a **cheat***

*a long **walk***

*a **pay rise***

Occasionally, adjectives may be converted to nouns:

*He's a **regular** at our local pub.*

*The clubs are mostly full of young **singles**.*

Prefixes and compounds

New nouns can be formed by other means, for example by prefixes (e.g. *non-event*, *pre-meeting*) and by compounding (e.g. *mousepad*, *website*).

258–268 Word structure and word formation for further details

Singular and plural

Most nouns have a singular and plural form which can be distinguished by different inflectional endings. The most common plural form is *-(e)s*. For example, *cat–cats*, *wish–wishes*. Some nouns have irregular plurals, mainly because they reflect older English forms or are derived from foreign words. Examples of these are: *ox–oxen*, *alumnus–alumni*.

Gender

The gender of nouns is significant in some languages. Nouns in English do not in themselves have masculine or feminine gender. They do, however, sometimes refer to male or female people or animals, or consist of a pair where one is used as the neutral term covering both sexes and the other is more marked. For example, *host–hostess*, *father–mother*, *widower–widow*, *dog–bitch* (where *dog* is the neutral term).

Nouns: types 156b

Nouns differ in their types of meaning, for example common nouns (e.g. *table*, *boy* and most nouns) versus proper names (e.g. *Joanna*, *New York*), or concrete nouns (*cup*, *bus*) versus abstract nouns (*love*, *beauty*).

The major grammatical distinction in English nouns is between count nouns and non-count nouns. English treats some things as units which can be counted and some things as indivisible wholes. Count nouns refer to people and things which can be counted. Non-count nouns refer to things which are treated as indivisible wholes which cannot be broken down in order to be counted:

count nouns	non-count nouns
a dog – dogs	*butter, oil, advice, furniture, belongings, trousers*
church – churches	

For some nouns the singular and plural forms are the same (e.g. *sheep*, *series*, *deer*).

Nouns: syntactic characteristics 156c

Nouns can be recognised by the following syntactic characteristics:

- They may be preceded by determiners:

  the *young boy*

  my two *cats*

- They may be modified by adjectives:

  a ***large*** *pizza*

  those ***lovely*** *flowers*

- They may be premodified by other nouns:

  a ***university*** *degree*

  a ***computer*** *programmer*

When a noun is head of a subject noun phrase, it agrees in person and number with the tensed verb of the clause:

My throat ***is*** *sore.*
(agreement between singular noun and the present tense of *be*)

Their apologies ***were*** *accepted.*
(agreement between plural noun and the past tense of *be*)

NOUN PHRASES 157

Noun phrases: form 157a

Nouns act as the main words, or heads, of noun phrases. A noun phrase usually consists of a head along with modifiers or a complement. Modifiers occur before the head (premodifiers) and after the head (postmodifiers).

Premodifiers include determiners (words such as *a*, *an*, *the*, *this*, *all*, *any*, *some*), adjectives (*blue*, *cautious*, *economic*, *old*) and other nouns (*government*, *school*).

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Postmodifiers include prepositional phrases (*the cafeteria* ***in the building****, an insurance policy* ***with profits***), relative clauses (*the student* ***who needed to speak to you****, the report* ***that was published in 1997***) and adverb phrases (*the room* ***upstairs****, the lecture* ***yesterday***).

Complements occur after the head and function to complete the meaning of the noun (*the body* ***of a young woman****, the suggestion* ***that we should refuse to pay***). Postmodifiers give extra information and are not necessary for the meaning to be completed. Complements complete the meaning of the noun.

In the following examples, the whole of the noun phrase is green and the head is in bold:

The ***problem*** *cannot be solved.*

All the ***offices*** *in the building are closed.*

He is an old ***man*** *who lives near us.*

Divorce *was inevitable.*

The head of a noun phrase can also be a pronoun instead of a noun:

She *was very unhappy in her new job.*

Someone *was looking for you earlier.*

Noun phrases: functions 157b

Noun phrases can act as the subject (S), object (O) or complement (C) of a clause (noun phrase in green, head in bold):

S O
Her ***brother*** *mended our* ***car****.*

C
You're a good ***friend****.*

Noun phrases can be the complements of prepositions:

I did it ***for*** *the* ***children****.*

Less often, noun phrases may occur as clause adjuncts (modifying the clause in some way, most typically in terms of time):

I saw him the following ***day****.*

167–175 The noun phrase; 176–196 Nouns and determiners; 197–212 Pronouns

VERBS 158

Verbs: forms 158a

Verbs are the second largest class of words. Typically, verbs denote actions, events, processes and states. For example, *sing*, *consult*, *eat*, *argue*, *break*, *sleep*, *encounter*.

Suffixes

Some verbs are recognised from their endings, but most verbs are not identifiable from their form. Suffixes which can denote verbs include:

suffix	verbs	suffix	verbs
-ate	*hyphenate, chlorinate*	*-ify*	*beautify, identify*
-en	*widen, sadden*	*-ize, -ise*	*realize, industrialise*
-iate	*differentiate, appreciate*		

Conversion

Verbs may be formed by conversion from other word classes. Examples include:

- verbs related to nouns:

  *to **corner** a thief*

  *to **hand** something to someone*

  *to **position** a table*

- verbs related to adjectives:

  *to **calm** someone*

  *to **empty** one's glass*

  *to **humble** oneself*

Verbs which have the same form as other word classes are recognised as verbs by their syntactic functioning in context:

*What **sort** of camera have you got?*
(noun)

*Can you **sort** the potatoes into large ones and small ones?*
(verb)

*It's a **narrow**, twisty road.*
(adjective)

*That would **narrow** our options considerably.*
(verb)

*Did you go **up** the tower?*
(preposition)

*They're going to **up** the wages of all the part-timers.*
(verb)

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Prefixes

Prefixes are also used with verbs to create new verbs. The most common prefixes used with verbs are: *un-*, *out-*, *over-*, *under-*:

verbs	new verbs with prefixes	verbs	new verbs with prefixes
pack, lock	*unpack, unlock*	*eat, charge*	*overeat, overcharge*
live, do	*outlive, outdo*	*estimate*	*underestimate*

Regular and irregular

Verbs are either regular or irregular. The regular form simply adds inflections to the base form without internal change. Verb inflections indicate number agreement and whether the form shows tense (present or past) or not:

base form	*cough*
present form	*cough*
-s form	*coug*h***s***
-ing form	*coug*h***ing***
past form	*coug*h***ed***
-ed participle	*coug*h***ed***

Only the verb *be* has separate inflectional forms for all of the different categories of form:

base form	*be*
present form	*am, are*
-s form	*is*
-ing form	*being*
past form	*was, were*
-ed participle	*been*

Irregular verbs have a variety of types of ending and internal change applied to the base form. There are approximately two hundred and fifty irregular verbs in English. Almost all irregular verbs are irregular only in terms of their past form and *-ed* form. For example:

base form	*speak*
present form	*speak*
-s form	*speak*s
-ing form	*speak*ing
past form	*sp*oke
-ed participle	*sp*oken

529 Appendix: Irregular verbs

Multi-word verbs

Multi-word verbs are verbs which consist of more than one word. The most common type of multi-word verb comprises a verb followed by one or more particles (usually prepositions or adverbs or both) which combine with the verb to form a single syntactic and semantic unit. In all respects multi-word verbs behave in the same way as single-word verbs and are lexical verbs in their own right. Examples of multi-word verbs are: *give in*, *look after*, *look up to*, *put up with*, *catch up on*.

235 Multi-word verbs

Verbs: types 158b

There are three main grammatical classes of verb: lexical, auxiliary and modal.

Lexical verbs are the biggest class and include most verbs. Lexical verbs denote types of action, state or event (e.g. *walk*, *shine*, *think*, *drive*, *feel*, *shout*, *buy*, *fall*). They are an open class, and new verbs are frequently created.

Auxiliary verbs are a closed class consisting of *be*, *do* and *have*. Auxiliary verbs add information to the lexical verb, indicating clause type (e.g. interrogative, negative), aspect (progressive and/or perfect) and passive voice. *Be*, *do* and *have* can also be used as lexical verbs.

Modal verbs are a closed class consisting of core modal verbs (*can*, *could*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *must*, *might*, *may*), semi-modal verbs (*dare*, *need*, *ought to*, *used to*) and modal expressions (*be able to*, *have (got) to*). Modal verbs add information to the lexical verb, mainly concerning degrees of certainty and necessity. Modal verbs do not inflect for tense, person or number, and only display historical remnants of tense contrasts, such as *can–could*, *will–would*.

Verbs: characteristics 158c

A typical verb can be recognised because it follows the subject noun phrase, agrees with the subject noun phrase in person and number and can indicate tense (except for the modal verbs, **158b**). For example, *dream* and *walk* can be either nouns or verbs but can be identified by their respective syntactic properties:

*That was **a very frightening dream**.*
(noun)

*The character **dreamed** that she was in outer space.*
(verb in past tense)

***The space walk** was the most exciting event.*
(noun)

*She **walks** too quickly for me.*
(verb in present tense, agreement in person and number with subject)

also **260 Word formation; 529 Appendix: Irregular verbs** for full list of irregular verbs; **213–216 The verb phrase 1** for further details concerning verb structure and morphology, and word order for verbs and verb phrases

VERB PHRASES 159

Verb phrases: forms 159a

Verbs act as the heads of verb phrases. The head is the first verb in the verb phrase, and it determines the form of what may follow.

A verb phrase may consist of a lexical verb only but may also include auxiliary verbs or modal verbs. In the following examples verbs are in bold:

*I **asked** you.*
(main verb only: lexical verb *ask*)

*I **could**.*
(main verb only: modal verb *could*)

*I **have asked** you.*
(auxiliary verb *have* + main verb)

*I **must ask** you.*
(modal verb *must* + main verb)

Modal verbs and auxiliary verbs precede lexical verbs. A modal verb (**modal**) and auxiliary verbs (**aux**) can occur together. The modal verb comes first. More than one modal is not permitted but there may be several auxiliary verbs:

modal aux
A: *We **should have bought** it there and then.*

modal aux
B: *Yes, we **should have**.*

modal aux aux
*They **must have been talking** about it for ages.*

modal aux aux aux
*It **might have been being used** at the time.*

Where there are combinations of modal verbs and auxiliary verbs, the order of these is modal verb ➛ perfect *have* ➛ progressive *be* ➛ passive *be* ➛ lexical verb:

modal perfect progressive passive lexical verb
*It **might** **have** **been** **being** **used** at the time.*

Each element requires a particular kind of complementation to follow it:

a The modal verb must be followed by the bare infinitive (without *to*).
b The perfect *have* must be followed by the *-ed* participle.
c The progressive *be* must be followed by the *-ing* form.
d The passive *be* must be followed by the *-ed* participle.

217–226 The verb phrase 2

Auxiliary *do* is required to form negatives, interrogatives and emphatic forms when the lexical verb is not preceded by any other auxiliaries:

*She **does**n't smoke.*
(negative)

***Did** you buy a newspaper?*
(interrogative)

*I **do** like your skirt.*
(emphatic)

The verb phrase (in bold below) begins the predicate part of the clause (in green below). This is the part which elaborates what the subject is, does or experiences:

subject predicate
*Josh | **might need** to leave early.*

Verb phrases: tensed and non-tensed forms 159b

Verb phrases are either tensed or non-tensed. Tensed verb phrases show contrasts in tense. They also show contrasts in number and person:

*She **works** hard now but she **worked** even harder during the whole year.*
(contrast in tense: *works/worked*)

***He's** too old but **we're** not.*
(contrast in number and person: singular/plural; 3rd person/1st person)

Non-tensed forms of the verb are:

- the base form (e.g. *work*) used as the imperative form (*Come on! **Work**!*) or as the subjunctive (*They insisted she **work** the same hours as everyone else.*) (229)
- the infinitive with *to* (e.g. *she tried **to work***)
- the *-ing* form (*she's **working***)
- the *-ed* participle (*she has **worked***)

The time references of non-tensed verb phrases are understood in terms of the time references of main-clause verbs:

***Exercising** every day, he still **did** not lose weight.*
(past reference understood from *did*)

***Attracted** by low prices, tourists **flock** to the islands every year.*
(present reference understood from *flock*)

***To be** there for eight o'clock we'**ll** have to leave at about six.*
(future reference understood from modal *'ll*)

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Verb phrases: aspect 159c

Verb phrases can also indicate aspect. The two aspects are progressive and perfect. Aspect adds information about the speaker's perspective on time.

Progressive

The progressive aspect is formed with auxiliary *be* form and the *-ing* form of a lexical verb. It adds information to the verb concerning the speaker's perception of events as unfolding in time, without reference to starting or finishing points:

*We**'re leaving** now.*

*I **was walking** into town yesterday, and I saw Sue outside the cinema.*

Progressive aspect may occur in verb phrases involving modal verbs:

*We **could be waiting** for ages.*

*I **might be working** next Saturday.*

Progressive aspect does not combine with non-tensed verbs in the *-ing* form:

***Sitting** there like that, you remind me of my father.*
(~~Being sitting there like that, you remind me of my father.~~)

Progressive aspect may combine with a *to*-infinitive verb phrase:

***To be buying** shares, you need to know the stockmarket really well.*

Perfect

The perfect aspect is formed with auxiliary *have* and the *-ed* form of a lexical verb. It gives information about the duration of events and the relationship of events to one another in time:

*I**'ve made** a lot of friends since I moved here.*

*We**'d forgotten** all about it.*

The perfect aspect may occur in verb phrases which include modal verbs:

*He **could have rung** me.*

The perfect aspect may occur with non-tensed verbs in the *to*-infinitive and the *-ing* form:

***To have read** my emails, she'd have needed to know the password.*

***Having bought** it, we ought to use it.*

Perfect and progressive combined

Perfect aspect and progressive aspect may combine in the verb phrase:

*I**'ve been looking** for you.*

*She should **have been studying**, not watching TV.*

Verb phrases: voice 159d

Verb phrases also indicate voice. The passive voice is usually formed with auxiliary *be* and the *-ed* participle of a lexical verb (→ 479 on **the passive with *get***). Voice gives information about the roles of different participants in an event (e.g. who the agent was, who the recipient was):

*I **was stung** by a wasp.*

***Was** she **promoted**?*

Passive voice may occur in verb phrases involving modal verbs:

*He could **be charged** with murder.*

Passive voice may occur in non-tensed verb phrases involving the *-ing* form and the infinitive:

***Being left** here waiting like this, I'm inclined to walk out and say 'forget it'.*

***To be accepted** completely, you have to live here a long time.*

Passive voice may combine in the verb phrase with progressive and perfect aspect:

*Our car **was being repaired** at the time.*

*I**'ve been asked** that question many times.*

Verb phrases: mood 159e

The verb phrase also expresses contrasts of mood. Mood refers to the factual or non-factual status of events. Non-factual here means events which do not happen or are only desired. The moods of English are indicative, imperative and subjunctive.

The indicative is a factual mood. It is by far the most frequent mood, and involves all the choices of person, tense, number, aspect, modality and voice discussed above:

*I**'ll give** you a call in the week.*

*We **were talking** about this the other day.*

The imperative mood is a non-factual mood and is used to issue directives. It involves the base form of the verb:

***Sign** here, please.*

*Just **leave** it on the table.*

The subjunctive mood is a non-factual mood and is very rare in English. It refers to wishes, desires, etc. It is used after a very limited number of verbs (e.g. *suggest*, *insist*, *recommend*, *demand*), occasionally after conditional subordinators (e.g. *if*, *lest*, *on condition that*, *whether*) and occasionally after expressions of necessity (e.g. *it is important/imperative/essential that*).

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The subjunctive occurs only in very formal styles. It involves the base form of the verb, with no inflections:

*They insisted that she **consult** a psychiatrist and, fortunately, Laura had the strength to insist that it **be** a woman.*

The subjunctive form of the verb *be* may occur as the base form *be* or as hypothetical *were* (for all persons). The *were* subjunctive is especially used after *if*, *as if*, *though* and *as though*:

[from a hotel workers' manual, describing how to deal with customer complaints in the restaurant]
*The kitchen and restaurant staff must be contacted immediately and the cause for complaint dealt with. The guests must be persuaded to return to the restaurant, where it is imperative they **be** served with a more than satisfactory meal and **be** completely pacified.*

*I can remember it as if it **were** yesterday.*
(or, non-subjunctive: I can remember it as if it was yesterday.)

217–226 The verb phrase 2 on tense and aspect; **377–407 Modality** on modal verbs and related forms

ADJECTIVES 160

Adjectives: forms 160a

Adjectives describe properties, qualities or states attributed to a noun or a pronoun.

Adjectives cannot necessarily be identified by their form. However, some suffixes are associated with adjective formation, and many adjectives can be seen to be derived from nouns and verbs:

suffix	adjectives related to nouns	suffix	adjectives related to nouns
-al	*accidental, professional*	*-less*	*hopeless, harmless*
-ful	*beautiful, useful*	*-ly*	*brotherly, friendly*
-ic	*heroic, optimistic*	*-ous*	*virtuous, courteous*
-ish	*foolish, boyish*	*-y*	*sandy, watery*

suffix	adjectives related to verbs	suffix	adjectives related to verbs
-able	*drinkable, understandable*	*-ive*	*attractive, explosive*

Adjectives may also be derived from other adjectives, through the use of suffixes or, more commonly, prefixes:

*green**ish***

*short**ish***

***im**possible*

dis*respectful*

ir*responsible*

un*fortunate*

A group of adjectives with the prefix *a-* are derived from verbs:

afloat

asleep

awash

ablaze

awake

Adjectives: gradability 160b

Adjectives are either gradable or non-gradable. Gradable adjectives can be seen as existing along a scale. For example, it is possible to say that something is *a bit* ***dangerous*** or *extremely* ***dangerous***. *Dangerous* is a gradable adjective. Most adjectives are gradable. Gradable adjectives tend to have an antonym (opposite), for example, *hot–cold*, *high–low*, *strong–weak*.

Non-gradable adjectives cannot be modified on a scale. A person is either *married* or not, *female* or not, *dead* or not, and one cannot be *very married* or *rather female*. Non-gradable adjectives classify and categorise things.

An inflectional property of gradable adjectives is that they can occur in a comparative or superlative form. Some common everyday adjectives add *-er* or *-est* to form the comparative and superlative:

larger, largest

sillier, silliest

fast, fastest

Other adjectives require *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*) to convey the same gradable contrasts:

the more difficult task, the least difficult task

the most interesting person

the more expensive of the two

A few gradable adjectives change form completely (e.g. *good*, *better*, *best*; *bad*, *worse*, *worst*).

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ADJECTIVE PHRASES 161

Adjective phrases: forms 161a

An adjective phrase can consist of a single adjective or an adjective which is modified or complemented.

Adjectives are typically modified by adverb phrases (in bold):

That's ***really*** *interesting.*

He's a ***very*** *tall man.*

That's not good ***enough****.*

It's ***too*** *expensive.*

They were only ***very slightly*** *injured.*

Occasionally, modification may be by a noun phrase (in bold):

She's only ***seven years*** *old.*

His farm is ***300 acres*** *bigger than his brother's.*

Adjectives can be followed by complements, most commonly in the form of a prepositional phrase (in bold), or also by a *that*-clause (in bold). Different adjectives require different complementation patterns:

Lucy is proud ***of you****.*

Lucy is good ***with children****.*

Lucy is keen ***on golf****.*

Lucy is safe ***from criticism from her family****.*

Lucy is clever ***at avoiding work****.*

Lucy is sure ***that she saw someone****.*

Adjective phrases: attributive and predicative 161b

Two main syntactic functions of adjective phrases are attributive and predicative.

An adjective phrase is attributive when it modifies a noun or pronoun:

the ***tall****,* ***grey*** *building*

an ***interesting*** *idea*

poor *you!*

a court ***martial***

An adjective phrase is predicative when it occurs in the part of the sentence which says what the subject is, does or experiences (the predicate):

The teacher was ***ill****.*

That's ***very good****.*

It made me ***really nervous****.*

Most adjectives can be used in either way, but some adjectives have only an attributive or only a predicative function (240).

ADVERBS 162

Adverbs are a class of words which perform a wide range of functions. Adverbs are especially important for indicating the time, manner, place, degree and frequency of an event, action or process.

Adjectives and adverbs are frequently based on the same word. Most adverbs have the form of their related adjective plus *-ly* ending:

She's a ***beautiful*** *girl.*
(adjective)

She sings ***beautifully****.*
(adverb)

They were ***careful*** *not to wake the baby.*
(adjective)

They walked ***carefully*** *across the narrow bridge.*
(adverb)

Other suffixes which denote adverbs are *-ward(s)* and *-wise*:

-ward(s)	*-wise*
homeward(s)	*clockwise*
northward(s)	*lengthwise*
onward(s)	*edgewise*
outward(s)	

A number of adverbs have the same form as adjectives (e.g. *hard*, *outside*, *right*, *straight*, *late*, *well*). A number of adverbs (e.g. *just*, *quite*, *so*, *soon*, *too*, *very*) are not related to adjectives at all.

Some adverbs may inflect for comparative and superlative forms:

soon – sooner – soonest

hard – harder – hardest

little – less – least

far – farther/further – farthest/furthest

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ADVERB PHRASES 163

Adverb phrases: forms 163a

An adverb acting as the head of an adverb phrase may be modified by another adverb (in bold) and/or followed by a complement (in bold):

*It all happened **rather** suddenly.*

*Funnily **enough** I didn't notice it.*

***Most** surprisingly **for her**, she decided to emigrate to Australia.*

Complement patterns of some adverbs may be the same as the complement patterns of their related adjectives:

*It was **unfortunate** for us that we got there too late.*
(adjective)

***Unfortunately** for me, they'd closed early that day.*
(adverb)

Adverb phrases occur as the complement of *be*, typically indicating location:

*Is the dog **upstairs**?*

*Your glasses are **there**, on the table.*

Adverb phrases frequently occur as modifiers of verbs:

*She works **really slowly**.*

*I swim **regularly**.*

Adverb phrases frequently modify adjectives and other adverbs:

*It was **extremely** cold out there.*

*They did the test **very** competently.*

Adverb phrases can also modify noun phrases (including pronouns) and prepositional phrases:

*That was **quite** a match.*
(adverb + noun phrase)

*Didn't he manage to speak with **nearly** everyone there?*
(adverb + pronoun)

*We followed the path **right** to the end.*
(adverb + prepositional phrase)

Adverb phrases may also modify determiners, especially quantifiers:

***Almost** all of those books are useless.*

*There's **very** little chance of that happening.*

***Hardly** any of his colleagues believes him.*

Adverb phrases: functions 163b

As well as giving information on the time, place, manner and degree of an action, event or process, adverb phrases can also have a commenting function, indicating the attitude and point of view of the speaker or writer towards a whole sentence or utterance. In such cases they are referred to as sentence adverbs:

***Actually**, it's nearly midnight.*

***Officially**, I can't tell you the results but I'll find a way.*

Adverb phrases can often indicate a relationship between two clauses or sentences (e.g. one of cause and effect, one of concession, one of temporal sequence). In such cases they are called linking adverbs:

*Although in principle agriculture ought to be a net producer of energy, converting the sun's energy into the calorific value of food, modern agriculture is actually a net consumer. We are **consequently** eating up our energy resources.*

*Philip got the sack and **then** we heard Liam was sacked too.*

Adverb phrases can occupy a range of positions at the front, in the middle and at the end of a clause.

242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases

PREPOSITIONS 164

Prepositions are a closed word class. New prepositions cannot easily be formed.

Prepositions express a relation in time between two events or a relation in space between two (or more) things or people. They can also express a variety of other, abstract relations:

*They left **after** six o'clock.*

***During** the film she fell asleep.*

*They decided to meet **in** a park.*

*He dealt **with** the problem.*

The most common prepositions are: *about*, *after*, *as*, *at*, *by*, *during*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *of*, *off*, *on*, *to* and *with*. Most prepositions consist of a single word but some prepositions may be considered as consisting of more than a single word (e.g. *in front of*, *outside of*, *out of*, *next to*).

Some of these words may also be used as adverbs (e.g. *about*, *round/around*, *by*, *off*, *out*, *over*):

*We were just touring **around**, stopping off here and there.*

*She's not here. She's **out**.*

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Prepositions are almost always followed by a prepositional complement. Usually, the complement is a noun phrase but it can also be a whole clause:

The doctor gave her a lot of information ***about*** *the tablets.*
(noun phrase)

I'll take her ***to*** *where they last met.*
(clause)

A particularly common prepositional complement is the nominal *-ing* form of a verb. Prepositions may not be followed by other forms of a verb:

He was jailed ***for murdering*** *his close friend and flatmate.*
(~~He was jailed for murder/murdered his close friend …~~)

By talking *to all the witnesses, the police eventually managed to reduce the number of suspects.*

An adjective or an adverb may sometimes act as complement to a preposition:

in *short*

by *far*

until *now*

at *first*

before *long*

Prepositions may be modified by a small set of adverbs (e.g. *right*, *straight*):

We went right ***down*** *the coast.*

Will you go straight ***to*** *your sister's house or stop on the way?*

Some verbs require prepositional complements, and are termed prepositional verbs. The verb determines what preposition must follow. Different verbs require different prepositions. Examples are *confide in*, *cope with*, *depend on*, *look after*. (**235f Prepositional verbs**):

You should learn to ***confide in*** *your friends.*

They will have to ***look after*** *their father.*

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES 165

Prepositions act as the head of a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is formed when a preposition combines with a complement. Prepositional phrases can function as a postmodifier or complement of a noun, as an adjunct in the clause and as a complement of a verb or adjective:

We saw a girl ***with*** *a small dog.*
(noun phrase postmodifier: *a girl with a small dog* = a girl who had a small dog; additional information about the girl, but not necessary to complete the meaning of 'girl')

*We saw the outline **of** a man against the window.*
(noun phrase complement: *outline* needs a complement to complete its meaning – an outline must be an outline of something)

*He writes well **on** the whole.*
(adjunct, modifying the clause)

*I'll deal **with** that.*
(complement of a verb)

*I must admit I felt very sorry **for** her.*
(complement of an adjective)

250–257 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

CONJUNCTIONS 166

Conjunctions express a variety of logical relations between phrases, clauses and sentences. Conjunctions can be divided into coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating

A coordinating conjunction is used to link elements of equal grammatical status. A coordinating conjunction can link elements of any size, from morphemes (e.g. prefixes) to sentences. The main coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *but*:

*He collects pre- **and** post-war cameras.*
(linking prefixes)

*There are two **or** three houses nearby.*
(linking words)

*The wind was really cold **and** absolutely biting.*
(linking phrases)

*You can join now **or** you may prefer to wait **and** discuss things with your partner.*
(linking clauses)

*If she had been in London she would have walked out and taken a taxi home. **But** she was on Richard's territory now and she couldn't do that.*
(linking sentences)

Correlative conjunctions consist of two items, each of which is attached to an element to be coordinated. The most common correlatives are *either … or …*, *neither … nor …*, *both … and …*:

*The class can meet | **either** on Friday at 9 | **or** on Thursday afternoon at 4.30 |.*

*| **Neither** I | **nor** my family | feel that an interview is appropriate at this time.*

*She | **neither** eats meat | **nor** drinks coffee |. What a dreary existence.*

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Subordinating

Subordinating conjunctions only relate clauses to one another. They make the clause they introduce a subordinate clause (one which is dependent on a main clause). Common subordinating conjunctions are: *after*, *although*, *as*, *before*, *if*, *since*, *that*, *until*, *when*, *whereas*, *while*. Some subordinating conjunctions consist of more than one word: *as long as*, *as soon as*, *except that*, *in order to*, *in order that*, *provided that*:

> *They had to cancel their holiday in Brazil* ***because*** *Anne's mother was seriously ill.*
>
> ***As*** *you have not explained your action, the school will be making a formal report on your behaviour.*
>
> ***In order to*** *reach the village, walkers need to be prepared for a steep climb.*

Some subordinating conjunctions may be modified by adverbs:

> *Just* ***when*** *I arrived, I got a phone call.*
>
> *Ever* ***since*** *I heard about it, I've been afraid to go out after dark.*

304–318 Clause combination

The noun phrase

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The noun phrase

INTRODUCTION 167

Structure 167a

Noun phrases consist minimally of a noun or pronoun, which acts as the head of the noun phrase. The head may be accompanied by dependent elements before or after it. The following are examples of noun phrases; heads are in green, words in black are dependent elements:

music

summer

we

him

a dog

the old man

that table in the corner

a nice day at the beach

the sofa we bought in the sale

also **176–196 Nouns and determiners**; **197–212 Pronouns**

Function 167b

Noun phrases are referring expressions and are used to refer to particular instances or general classes of people and things.

Noun phrases typically function in the clause as subjects, objects, complements and occasionally as adjuncts:

Functions of noun phrases in the clause (noun phrases in green; heads in bold)

subject	verb	object	complement	adjunct
*My **father***	*used to play*	*the **piano**.*		
She	*was*		*a fairly average **swimmer**.*	
*The **children***	*loved*	***him**.*		
*His **body***	*was found*			*the next **day**.*

Noun phrases frequently occur as the complements of prepositions:

*We usually go **to** our local gym **at** the weekends.*

Noun phrases also occur in the noun phrase +*'s* possessive determiner construction:

*the average meat-eater**'s** diet*

*the biotechnology department**'s** long-awaited new building*

176–196 Nouns and determiners

Other less frequent functions of noun phrases include:

*The train was an hour **late** leaving Milan.*
(premodifier of adjective)

*Two days **before** we left, we still hadn't heard from her.*
(premodifier of conjunction)

*We agreed that two meetings **ago**.*
(premodifier of adverb)

*He lives three houses **along our street**.*
(premodifier of prepositional phrase)

*She watches children**'s TV** in the afternoon.*
(the 'descriptive' use of the *'s* construction)

197–212 Pronouns, 236–241 Adjectives and adjective phrases, 242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases for premodification and postmodification of pronouns and the role of adjectives and adverbs in postmodifying structures

HEADS 168

The head of a noun phrase may be a noun or a pronoun:

*My **father** worked there three years ago.*
(noun as head of noun phrase)

***He** was a friend of Jean's.*
(pronoun as head of noun phrase)

Simple heads 168a

A simple head consists of one noun. The following noun phrases have simple heads:

*my **sister***
*the larger **size***
*a new **home** for the children*
*a government **report***
*this year's **budget***

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Compound heads 168b

Structure of compound nouns

Compound nouns consist of a noun head with another item (most typically a noun, but it may also be an adjective or verb) placed before it in a very close syntactic and semantic relationship. The initial item most typically identifies a type of the class of entities denoted by the final noun. For example, a *video shop* is a type of shop; *orange juice* is a type of juice:

video shop	*window box*	*blackboard*
orange juice	*sports centre*	*grindstone*
petrol station	*greyhound*	

The elements in compounds are closely bound to each other syntactically and cannot normally be interrupted by other elements (e.g. *a motorway* ***petrol station***, not a ***petrol*** *motorway* ***station***). Compounds are therefore best considered as single heads in the noun phrase. Their typical stress pattern is with stress on the first item (***petrol*** *station*, ***black****board*, ***grind****stone*).

Compound nouns and noun modifiers

The borderline between compound nouns and noun phrases acting as premodifiers of noun heads is not always clear. However, the preferred stress pattern for compounds, with stress on the first item, is usually an indication that the nouns are considered as an 'institutionalised' unit (stressed items in bold):

car *park*	***bus*** *stop*	***safety*** *helmet*

The noun modifier construction has the stress on the noun head:

a fur ***coat***	*that government* ***report***
several volunteer ***helpers***	*bathroom* ***door***

Meaning of compound nouns

The compound noun structure is extremely varied in the types of meaning relations it can indicate. It can be used to indicate what someone does (*language teacher*), what something is for (*waste-paper basket*, *grindstone*), what the qualities of something are (*whiteboard*), how something works (*immersion heater*), when something happens (*night frost*), where something is (*doormat*), what something is made of (*woodpile*), and so on.

Proper names

Compound nouns are common in proper names and titles. Most typically, these have the stress on the final noun:

Narita ***Airport***	*Head****teacher***
New York City ***Hall***	*Ronald* ***Bickerton***
The London ***Underground***	*Mary* ***Prosser***
Prime ***Minister***	

Writing compound nouns

Familiar compound nouns (usually those involving short, monosyllabic nouns) are normally written as one word:

postman *bathroom* *lampshade*

There is some inconsistency, however. Some compounds are written with a hyphen:

pen-friend *tee-shirt* *belly-dancing*

In the case of some pairs, hyphens, separate words and words joined together are all equally possible:

post-box *post box* *postbox*

Normally, if a compound is perceived as a single word, it tends to be written as a whole word without a space or a hyphen. Hyphenation is less common in American than in British English.

265 Compounds for further information on noun compounds

507–511 Appendix: English spelling for spelling and use of hyphens and apostrophes involving noun compounds and other types of compound

Other categories of compound noun

Nouns combine less frequently with other units including adverbs, prepositions and other parts of speech to form compound nouns. The most common categories of compound are nouns which are joined by *of*, *at* or *in*, compound nouns formed from phrasal verbs, and compound nouns which are linked by *and* or are otherwise hyphenated.

- Examples of compound nouns joined by *of*, *at* or *in*:

  right-of-way *stay-at-home* *brother-in-law*

  commander-in-chief

- Examples of compound nouns formed from phrasal verbs:

  runner-up *passer-by* *take-over*

  stand-by *lay-by*

- Noun + *and* + noun compounds are often called binomial phrases. The nouns in such pairs may be singular or plural in form, and are usually fixed in their order. Frequently occurring examples are:

  aims and objectives *research and development*

  ladies and gentlemen *size and shape*

  health and safety *policy and resources*

  presence and absence *theory and practice*

  strengths and weaknesses *trial and error*

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Plurals

Some countable compound nouns do not form plurals in entirely regular ways. The most common plural form is made by adding *-s*. So the plurals of *lay-by* and *take-over* are *lay-bys* and *take-overs*.

In certain noun + adverb/prepositional phrase combinations, the plural *-s* is usually added to the noun. So the plural of *mother-in-law* is *mothers-in-law*, *commander-in-chief* has the plural *commanders-in-chief*, and *passer-by* has the plural *passers-by*. However, occasionally, plurals of some of these compounds may be attached to the final item of the compound, especially in informal speech:

*I've got two brother-in-law**s**.*

Pronoun heads 168c

A pronoun may act as the head of a noun phrase. The pronoun may be a personal, possessive or demonstrative pronoun:

***She** hates **me**.*

***It** happens all the time.*

***I**'ll take **that**.*

*Is **this yours**?*

DEPENDENT ELEMENTS 169

Determiners, modifiers and complements 169a

A noun acting as the head of a noun phrase is often accompanied by one or more dependent elements, before and/or after the head. Pronoun heads are only rarely accompanied by other elements.

Noun heads may have three types of dependent element: determiners, modifiers and complements.

Determiners

Determiners indicate the type of reference made by the noun phrase (e.g. definite, indefinite, possessive) (**176–196 Nouns and determiners**). Examples of determiners:

***The** tall woman*
(definite reference)

***My** old school*
(possessive reference)

***That** person*
(demonstrative reference)

Modifiers

Modifiers indicate qualities and attributes of the noun head (e.g. subjective qualities, physical attributes such as size, colour, material, location in space and time, restricted reference to a particular entity). Examples of modifiers:

*those **big** boxes **in the garage***

*a **little red** lever **which controls the temperature***

Complements

Complements complete the meaning of the noun head. For example, nouns such as *fact*, *claim*, *suggestion*, *idea*, *thought*, *statement* are always 'about something' and the complement completes the necessary information. Examples of complements (in green):

*the **fact** that he was no longer a little boy*

*an American expert's **claim** that the monsters were wiped out after a massive meteorite created devastating climatic changes 65 million years ago*

*the **body** of a young man*

Pre- and post-head dependent elements 169b

Two types of dependent element may come before the head in the noun phrase (i.e. they act as pre-head elements): determiners and premodifiers.

Two types of dependent element may come after the head in the noun phrase (i.e. they act as post-head elements): postmodifiers and complements.

Complements versus postmodifiers 169c

Complements and postmodifiers are different in their function. Postmodifiers specify which person or thing or type of person or thing is being referred to. The major postmodifier is the relative clause. All the other postmodifiers can be paraphrased by a relative clause. For example, 'the house nearby' can be paraphrased as 'the house which is nearby'; 'the girl in jeans' can be paraphrased as 'the girl who is wearing jeans'.

Complements complete the meaning of the noun phrase. In the noun phrase *the **claim** that they have nuclear weapons*, the underlined words complete the meaning of *claim* (a claim must be 'about something'). Complement prepositional phrases cannot be paraphrased with relative clauses:

***a rise** in interest rates*
(~~a rise which is in interest rates~~)

*the **mother** of three little children*
(~~the mother who is of three little children~~)

More than one complement can occur together:

*The **gift** | of the estate | to the National Trust | meant more people could visit it.*

*The **statement** | by the driver of the vehicle | that he did not see the lorry | was rejected by the Court.*

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More than one postmodifier can occur together:

*The **girl** | in jeans | in the corner | with that tall American student* | .

Complements and postmodifiers can occur together. The complement comes first because it is so closely associated semantically with the head:

	complement	postmodifier	
Students	*of astronomy*	*at Cambridge*	*all get very high grades.*

(~~Students at Cambridge of astronomy all get very high grades.~~)

Order of pre- and post-head elements 169d

The table below shows the order of the pre- and post-head elements in the noun phrase. Because they indicate the type of reference for the whole noun phrase, determiners come before premodifiers. Because complements complete the meaning of the head and are therefore closely associated with the head, they precede postmodifiers.

Order of elements in the noun phrase

pre-head		head	post-head	
determiners	premodifiers		complements	postmodifiers
		silence		
those		***books***		
	cheap | red	***shoes***		
its	*smooth | wood*	***surface***		
my own	*personal*	***space***		
some	*baked*	***potatoes***		
many	*big*	***towns***		*nearby*
the	*first*	***chapter***		*of the book*
all	*university*	***students***		
the		***killer***	*of seventeen-year-old Maria Nixon*	
a		***mother***	*of two children under five*	
the		***car***		*(that) he was driving*
some	*recent*	***films***		*which have been on general release and which have made millions of dollars*
a		***letter***		*saying when it will happen*
a	*long-awaited | government*	***report***		*published last week*
a		***drawer***		*full of pens and pencils*
his	*recent*	***claim***	*that he was innocent,*	*which was broadcast on state radio and TV*

176–196 Nouns and determiners; 236–241 Adjectives and adjective phrases

MODIFIERS 170

Types of premodifier and postmodifier 170a

The main types of premodifier are:

- adjective phrases:

  *a **different** bus; a **very important** meeting; a **stabbing** pain; a **hastily written** request*

- noun phrases:

  *a **stone** wall; **media** hype; a **first-year undergraduate** seminar*

The main types of postmodifier are:

- full relative clauses:

  *the newspaper **I have always bought**; the fighting **which accompanies every international football match between the two countries***

- *-ing* relative clauses:

  *that short fat man **walking through the shop***

- *-ed* relative clauses:

  *the six Cuban nationals **held in custody by rebel soldiers***

- *to*-infinitive relative clauses:

  *We had a long journey **to make before nightfall**.*

- prepositional phrases:

  *Those piles **on the floor** are exam papers **from last year**.*

- adjective phrases which include a complement of the adjective:

  *a jacket **similar to yours**; parents **eager to support their children's efforts***

Noun phrases can involve several of the above elements. The table shows examples of noun phrases which include premodification and postmodification occurring together:

Noun phrases with premodification and postmodification

determiner	premodification	head	postmodification
the	*small | stone*	*cottage*	*which he bought three years ago*
an	*ancient | market*	*town*	*in the heart of the country*
a	*new | staff*	*structure*	*for the company*
some	*very sudden*	*changes*	*caused by an area of low pressure*
many	*brave*	*soldiers*	*willing to volunteer*

236–241 Adjectives and adjective phrases

Premodification involving noun phrases 170b

Even though premodifying noun phrases may have plural reference, they are singular in form:

*the **postgraduate** regulations*
(i.e. the regulations for postgraduates)
(~~the postgraduates regulations~~)

This is particularly notable with expressions of measurement:

*a **three-day** journey*
(~~a three-days journey~~)

*a **300-seat** auditorium*
(~~a 300-seats auditorium~~)

Several noun premodifiers often occur together. This occurs frequently where it is important to compress as much information as possible in a limited space:

***cottage-style kitchen** window*

***two-button cotton summer** jacket*
(product description)

***Italian pesto chicken** pasta*
(menu or description of a food dish)

Such structures also occur in everyday usage when speakers need to convey detailed information economically:

*That **first floor flat front door** key needs replacing.*

*I've got **twenty year-three geography** essays to mark.*

Sometimes this kind of information packing can cause ambiguities, though alternative interpretations are usually resolved in context:

*a **French Canadian literature** professor*

This phrase could be interpreted as 'a professor of Canadian literature who is French' or 'a professor of literature who is a French Canadian' or 'a professor of French Canadian literature'.

also **174 The noun phrase in speech and writing**

Noun modifier versus prepositional phrase 170c

In general, noun modifier and compound structures are preferred to noun + prepositional structures when referring to familiar, everyday entities:

a world map
(a familiar object)

a map of the Nile Delta
(a less common combination; preferred to 'a Nile Delta map')

road signs
(familiar and everyday sights)

signs of frustration
(occurring in more specific circumstances – preferred to 'frustration signs')

In the case of phrases which refer to units, parts and collections of things, normally referred to as partitive expressions (*a piece of paper*, *a bunch of roses*, *four slices of ham*), noun + preposition + noun forms are preferred. Thus *four slices of ham* is preferred to *four ham slices*.

A–Z **55 *Of***

also **179 Partitive expressions**

POSTMODIFIERS 171

Clauses as postmodifiers 171a

Finite relative clauses

Clauses acting as postmodifiers are relative clauses. Finite relative clauses are introduced by the pronouns *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *that* or a 'zero' relative pronoun:

*That's the **group** to whom they should consider making an incentive payment.*

*The police haven't even interviewed those **people** whose house was burgled.*

*I've left some **books** which you'll need in the main office.*

*That **car** that she wanted has been sold.*

*Did you make the **call** he asked you to make?*
('zero' relative pronoun)

204 Relative pronouns

Postmodifying relative clauses are of two types: defining and non-defining. A defining relative clause identifies the noun which it postmodifies and distinguishes it from other nouns. In the following sentence, *who lives abroad* tells us that there is more than one sister and identifies the one who lives abroad as the one who is ill:

*His sister **who lives abroad** got taken seriously ill.*

Non-defining relative clauses provide further information about the preceding noun but do not identify it. In the following sentence, the relative clause simply adds extra information about the sister, rather than defining her:

*His sister, **who lives abroad**, got taken seriously ill.*

The different punctuation reflects these differences in meaning.

Defining and non-defining relative clauses are also termed restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

317 Relative clauses

Non-finite relative clauses

Postmodifying relative clauses may also be non-finite. The common types of non-finite relative clause are (in green):

- *-ing* clauses:

  *It's got **a walled garden** consisting of a stone arch and two sections for vegetables.*

  ***The guy** running the event looks pretty well-off, doesn't he?*

- *-ed* clauses:

  ***The effort** required to lift these weights is considerable.*

  ***The protests** caused by the lack of tickets were the responsibility of the organisers.*

- *to*-infinitive clauses:

  *He certainly is **an actor** to watch out for.*

  ***Pictures** to be seen in the gallery include a fine eighteenth-century watercolour.*

Non-finite relative clauses can be defining or non-defining:

*I'm looking for **a house** to buy.*
(defining)

***A large sum of money**, donated by Petsmart foods, has also been invested in improved kennel facilities.*
(non-defining)

Prepositional phrases as postmodifiers 171b

Prepositional phrases are an extremely common type of postmodifier. They function in a manner similar to defining relative clauses:

***Cars** with disc brakes on all four wheels have been proved to be safer.*
(Cars which have disc brakes on all four wheels …)

The five main proposals *in the plan were considered at yesterday's meeting.*
(The five main proposals which are in the plan …)

*He has lots of friends but that was **a friend** of long standing.*
(… but that was a friend who was of long standing)

COMPLEMENTS 172

Clauses as complements 172a

Types of noun that take complement clauses

The majority of the nouns that take complement clauses are nouns which are derived from verbs (e.g. *suggestion* is derived from *suggest*) or nouns which are semantically related to verbs (e.g. the nouns *author* and *writer* are related to the verb *write*).

That-clauses

Clauses acting as complements are often *that*-clauses. On the surface these may resemble postmodifying defining relative clauses with *that*. However, the difference can be demonstrated:

The suggestion ***that they put forward*** *was accepted.*

The suggestion ***that he should resign*** *was accepted.*

In the first sentence, which involves a postmodifying relative clause, the *suggestion* is defined and identified, and *that* can be substituted by *which* or it can be omitted (i.e. the clause can have a zero relative pronoun). In the second sentence, *that* cannot be omitted (i.e. the clause cannot have a zero relative pronoun), *which* cannot substitute for *that*, and the whole clause completes the meaning of the 'suggestion'.

Noun complement clauses with *that* are very common in formal written contexts, especially academic writing and journalism:

The fact *that he was calm did not influence the jury.*

Why has ***the impression*** *that he is about to give large sums of money to the cause grown up so quickly among his supporters?*

The belief *that prejudice is largely an ethnic issue has dominated the political agenda.*

Other types of clause

Less common types of noun complement clause include:

- *to*-infinitive clause:

  The decision *to go ahead was not a popular one.*

- defining *wh*-interrogative clause:

  That's part of ***the reason*** *why we bought it.*

- *as to* + *wh*-clause (mainly with *whether*):

  There were a number of ***reservations*** *as to whether they should be allowed to participate.*

The *as to* structure is particularly common in writing in more formal contexts.

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Prepositional phrases as complements 172b

The most frequent prepositions used in prepositional complement structures are *to*, *of*, *in*, *for* and *with*:

Has she forgotten about ***her right*** *to compensation?*

Just don't lose ***your belief*** *in his talent, will you.*

The relationship *with neighbouring countries has markedly improved in recent years.*

A noun may take more than one prepositional phrase complement:

Let there be ***government*** *| of the people | by the people | for the people |.*

The ***statement*** *| by the driver | to the police | about the incident | was crucial.*

250–257 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

NOUN PHRASES OCCURRING TOGETHER (IN APPOSITION) 173

Noun phrases which refer to the same entity can occur together in a clause. The feature is called 'apposition'. The nouns can follow each other in sequence (often separated by commas in writing).

Apposition states the relationship between the nouns, or indicates the relationship with a name, or expresses the first noun phrase as an attribute of the second noun phrase. The second (appositive) noun phrase has the same grammatical status as the preceding noun phrase and the phrases can normally be reversed without altering the meaning:

| The Queen |, | the head of the Commonwealth |, will be accompanied to the conference by the Prime Minister and the Foreign Secretary.

| The head of the Commonwealth |, | the Queen |, will be accompanied to the conference by the Prime Minister and the Foreign Secretary.

Other examples of apposition are:

I'm going to see | my tutor |, | Dr Johnson |, about a change of course.

I saw | the clerk in charge |, | a very dubious-looking individual |.

| Seamus Deane's novel | Reading in the Dark | has been nominated for the Booker Prize.

In written English, apposition is more likely to occur at the beginning of a clause, as in several of the above examples. In spoken English, apposition regularly occurs at the end of a clause but its position within a clause is generally a little more flexible:

When you went in through the apartment door the first thing you saw was | the harbour | – | Sydney Harbour |.

She got me to do | the job | for her, | her fence |.
(the job = repair her fence)

Equivalent information in written discourse is normally given by means of premodifiers:

They've bought | *a new jeep* | , | *a new 2.6 litre turbo-diesel* | .
(preferred in written style: They've bought a new 2.6 litre turbo-diesel jeep.)

In journalistic styles, a characteristic order of common nouns preceding proper nouns often occurs:

| *Former Prime Minister and scourge of Europe* | , | *Margaret Thatcher* | *spoke out today.*

96 Headers and **97 Tails** for apposition-related structures

THE NOUN PHRASE IN SPEECH AND WRITING 174

There are differences in spoken and written uses of modifiers and complements.

Speech

In spoken English, especially in informal contexts, the clauses are sometimes strung together in a sequence. In narratives, in particular, information is built up more gradually and in smaller units. In the following examples post-head elements are in bold and the head is in green:

[spoken]
There's just so many things ***that we've got to tell them about and that they've got to just sit down and listen to and that they'd better do something about****.*

[spoken narrative]
While we were on one of those Breton holidays she swam so far out that she met the only other person ***who could swim, who turned out to be an Austrian*** *and that was only the beginning* ***of our link with Austria****.*

Writing

In some registers of written English, especially those where space is restricted, complex premodifiers are more common than simple ones and in certain written varieties pre- and post-head elements are likely to occur together. In many of the following examples, a lot of information is compressed into the noun phrase, often because space has to be saved (e.g. in the case of newspaper headlines). In the following examples, pre- and post-head elements are in bold and the head is in green:

[advertisement]
Lightweight training *shoes* ***with dual density midsole****.*

[menu]
Lightly battered *prawns* ***with a spicy Thai red curry sauce****.*

[personal contact advertisement – newspaper]
Attractive, fun-loving *male* ***of independent means*** *seeks* ***mid-thirties*** *partner with a view to marriage.*

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[small advertisement offering things for sale, etc. – magazine]
Delightful lakeside country house *hotel* ***with own frontage, jetty and yacht for hire***.

[personal contact advertisement – newspaper]
Slightly balding but fit and active *divorcee* ***with two young children, nine and seven***, *seeks* ***sport-loving, energetic*** *companion*.

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A–Z **55 *Of***

Post-head elements enable the user to define and specify things more precisely. In written styles, post-head elements help to create a characteristic descriptive style of the kind found, for example, in guide books and in promotional information about services and products. In the following examples post-head elements are in bold and the head is in green:

[text on a cereal packet; the cereal is called *Fruitful*]

Fruitful from Shredded Wheat
Full of Fruit

Enjoy succulent *sultanas* ***combined with plump raisins dried in the Californian sun and blended with hazelnut pieces***. *Crunchy* *slices* ***of golden banana, mixed with juicy pieces of papaya and tender toasted coconut***. *Discover the tempting* *taste* ***that's bursting with delicious fruits and crunchy wholewheat goodness***.

[estate agent's particulars]
Imaginatively restored Georgian terraced *house* ***with fitted kitchen leading to a spacious patio and a large vegetable garden***.

In technical and scientific English, heavy use of post-head elements involving clauses and prepositional phrases serves to elaborate and package a lot of information within the noun phrase:

[an advertisement which in this case sells the product it advertises by means of a more technical register]
The armchair design allows infinite *combinations* ***of seat tilt, leg support and back rest angle, providing every facility from fireside chair to full-length single bed***.

Formation of nouns (nominalisation) **175**

Nouns can be formed from other parts of speech, most commonly verbs. For example, the verb *fly* can be converted into the nouns *flying* and *flight*. The adjectives *bright* and *long* form the nouns *brightness* and *length*. The process is called nominalisation. The nominalised form is used more in written and formal contexts:

*We **fly** at seven o'clock this evening.*
*Our **flight** is at seven o'clock this evening.*

*Mr Hamson **donated** £2000.*
*Mr Hamson made a **donation** of £2000.*

*I was dazzled by the extremely **bright** lights.*
*I was dazzled by the extreme **brightness** of the lights.*

*They **partied** all night and we decided to **complain** to the hotel.*
*We decided to make a **complaint** to the hotel about their all-night **parties**.*

In each example here, the second sentence contains one or more nominalised forms. This results in a more formal expression of the equivalent meaning in a different word class.

Sometimes the noun is derived from another part of speech to which it is related. Sometimes the noun is formed metaphorically rather than derived (morphologically) from another part of speech:

*They were able to **get to** the computer once a week.*
***Access** to the computer was once a week.*

*Mobile phones are **getting much better** technically.*
*There have been many technical **advances** with mobile phones.*

Nominalised forms can sometimes be used without reference to an agent and in certain contexts this can mean the cause or agent can be concealed or made less important:

*The **closure** of the factory caused 200 workers to lose their jobs.*
(compare: Meteorcorp closed the factory and 200 workers lost their jobs.)

*The **dismissal** of the union leaders was immediate.*
(compare: The director of the company dismissed the union leaders immediately.)

Another type of nominalised structure, common in everyday usage, is the delexical verb phrase + noun phrase structure. Delexical verbs include *go*, *get*, *make*, *do*, *take* (475a). Delexical structures often offer an informal equivalent to a full lexical verb phrase:

*They **got a divorce** in 1998.*
(compare the more formal: They divorced in 1998.)

*He hasn't **done any painting** since he retired.*
(compare: He has not painted since he retired.)

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Nouns and determiners

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Nouns and determiners

INTRODUCTION 176

This chapter is divided into two main parts. The first part (177–186) pays particular attention to the features of nouns, and the second part (187–196) describes the features of determiners.

Nouns

Nouns can be divided into two major grammatical types, count nouns and non-count nouns. Their grammar differs principally in terms of whether they can express contrasts of number.

Count nouns are the largest group of nouns. They denote entities which are treated as units. They refer to objects, people, abstract entities, etc. which are seen as easily counted (e.g. *leaves*, *cups*, *footballers*, *cousins*, *results*, *ideas*). Count nouns are also known as countable nouns.

Non-count nouns denote things treated as non-divisible. They refer to entities which do not have clear boundaries (e.g. *cheese*, *music*, *sand*, *water*, *love*, *advice*, *air*, *progress*, *homework*, *ice*, *coffee*). They show no contrast in number between singular and plural. Non-count nouns are also known as uncountable nouns.

Some things that English treats as non-divisible are easy to perceive that way (e.g. *sand* or *water*) but English also treats as non-count things such as *luggage*, *money*, *furniture*, which are composed of elements which can be counted (e.g. someone's 'luggage' may consist of two cases and a bag; 'money' may consist of six coins and two notes) but which are treated as single indivisible entities.

Count and non-count are not mutually exclusive terms. Many nouns have both count and non-count uses.

There are also other grammatical and semantic types of noun (proper names, plural-only nouns and collective nouns) referred to in this chapter.

Determiners

Determiners indicate the type of reference a noun phrase has; for example whether the determiner is definite or indefinite (*the*, *a*), possessive (*my*, *her*, etc.), demonstrative (*this*, *those*, etc.). Determiners can also indicate number or quantity (*some*, *many*, *twenty*, etc.).

Determiners come first in the noun phrase, before other elements such as adjectives and noun modifiers. They include words like: *a*, *each*, *his*, *my*, *several*, *some*, *the*, *those*, *which*, and numerals such as *one*, *two*, *first*:

*This is **a** message for Helen Crawford.*

*I'm just about to eat **my** pizza.*

*I'm **his** best friend.*

*There have been **three** recent government reports which have looked into the matter.*

The rules for the use of determiners depend on the grammatical type of the head noun of the noun phrase. For example, *a/an* cannot be used with singular or plural non-count nouns such as *furniture, information, outskirts* or *belongings* (**178b and 178d**).

COUNT NOUNS 177

Count nouns and determiners 177a

Count nouns denote people and things which are treated as units. They refer to objects, people, abstract entities, etc. which are perceived as easily counted. Count nouns have both a singular and a plural form. The indefinite article *a/an* can be used with count nouns in the singular. Numerals can also be used in front of count nouns:

*I'd prefer **a cat** to **a dog**. **Cats** are interesting.*

***Three cars** were involved in the accident.*

Singular count nouns cannot stand without a determiner:

*Would you pass **the teapot** please?*
(~~Would you pass teapot please?~~)

*Have you ever worked in **a hotel**?*

***This book** is interesting.*

Plural count nouns are used with determiners when a specific meaning is indicated, but without determiners when a general meaning is indicated:

***These hotels** offer you every comfort.*
(specific)

***Your books** have arrived.*
(specific)

***Rats** terrify me.*
(general: all members of that class)

***Hotels** in the Conference Centre are usually booked well in advance.*
(general: the number of hotels in the area or which hotels in the area is not specified)

Count nouns: same singular and plural forms 177b

A limited number of count nouns have an identical singular and plural form:

*We encountered **a series** of problems on the way.*

*The BBC are planning **two** new drama **series** for the autumn.*

Other examples of identical singular and plural forms include:

aircraft	*gasworks*	*species*
*chassis**	*précis**	*rendezvous**
corps (/kɔː/)*	*series*	

* Although the written forms are identical, singular is usually pronounced without the /s/ at the end, plural is pronounced with the /s/ at the end.

Agreement with singular and plural verbs and/or with singular and plural determiners indicates whether the noun is being used with singular or plural meaning:

The aircraft is *the same one we flew out to Greece in.*
These aircraft were *used in the Second World War and* ***are*** *too old to fly now.*

t's a *new* ***series****. They took the previous series off because* ***it was****n't suitable viewing for children.*

There ***are three*** *different* ***series*** *of the computer. We think* ***they were*** *all made in South Korea.*

Many count nouns which refer to animals or birds also have an identical singular and plural form. When an individual creature is referred to, singular determiners and verbs are used, but when referring to several animals in a group or in large numbers, plural determiners and verbs are used:

He saw ***a grouse*** *moving very slowly across the field.*
rouse are *always shot at this time of year.*

deer *attacked a motorist late last night.*
There ***are ma y*** *lovely* ***deer*** *in the royal park.*

This salmo is *not very fresh.*
These salmo retur *to the same stream every year.*

Other examples are: *bison*, *reindeer*, *sheep*, *fish* (*cod*, *halibut*, *herring*, *mackerel*, *trout* and other fish names).

In the case of many tree- and plant-name count nouns, the singular and plural forms may both be used to express more than one example of the class:

several beech *lined the long path leading to the palace.*

[*rookeried* means 'containing rooks' nests']
When he rode back over the hill to Burlford and took in the timeless cluster of rooftops and church tower, the rookeried ***beeches*** *behind the Rectory, how did it seem?*

[text about the spread of different types of tree across Europe in prehistoric times]
In time, a broadleaved band of ***ha el****,* ***wych-elm****,* ***oak*** *and* ***alder*** *grew across southern Britain and mainland Europe, displacing the original forests of* ***birch*** *and* ***pi e*** *as winters became less severe and summers lasted longer.*

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Bog-like conditions prevail with ***mosses****,* ***fern s*** *and* ***heathers*** *attracting fox moths and heather beetles. In damper ground orchids also thrive, sending up spectacular stalks of flowers. Trees too may take root, the stands of* ***grey willow*** *and* ***alder*** *providing still more shelter.*

The women sported thistles in their hats or ***heather*** *in their lapels.*

Sort of, type of, kind of, class of + count noun 177c

With expressions such as *sort of*, *kind of*, *type of*, *class of*, *category of*, singular count nouns normally occur without *a/an*:

What ***type of shop*** *do you think people use instead of the corner shops?*

[*the Firth of Forth* is a wide river channel in Scotland]
A famous example of this ***kind of bridge*** *is the road bridge across the Firth of Forth.*

However, in informal spoken contexts, *a/an* may be used:

What ***kind of a dad*** *are you?*

What ***sort of a bird*** *was it that you saw?*

It went away, then it came back. It was that ***kind of a flu****.*

When the plural forms *sorts of*, *kinds of*, *types of*, *classes of*, *categories of* are used, either a singular or plural noun may follow:

[advertisement for a security firm]
All ***types of locks*** *and security* ***devices*** *fitted, and estimates given.*

There are two ***types of microphone****: condenser microphones (otherwise known as electret) which require a battery, and dynamic microphones which do not.*

What ***kinds of ambitions*** *did you have when you were younger?*

The banks give different interest for different ***classes of deposits****.*

Various ***categories of vehicle*** *are exempt from the need to obtain an operating licence.*

NON-COUNT NOUNS 178

General 178a

Non-count nouns show no contrast in number between singular and plural. They refer to things treated as indivisible entities, not as separate units. They typically refer to things such as materials and liquids, states of mind, conditions, topics, processes and substances.

There are two types of non-count nouns: singular and plural.

Singular non-count nouns 178b

Singular non-count nouns are not used with the indefinite article *a/an* or in the plural:

I can hear ***music***.
(~~I can hear a music.~~)

The ***furniture*** *was very old.*
(~~The furnitures were very old.~~)

They got good ***advice*** *from the student counsellor.*
(~~They got a good advice from the student counsellor.~~)
(~~They got good advices from the student counsellor.~~)

Some common examples of singular non-count nouns are:

advice	*help*	*sand*
baggage	*information*	*snow*
bread	*knowledge*	*soap*
cement	*luck*	*truth*
cheese	*luggage*	*water*
electricity	*paint*	*weather*
fun	*patience*	*violence*
furniture	*progress*	
happiness	*rain*	

Singular non-count nouns may have concrete meanings (*cheese*, *furniture*, *luggage*, *sand*) or more abstract meanings (*advice*, *knowledge*, *patience*, *progress*).

When concrete nouns are singular non-count, it is usually because they are seen as an undifferentiated mass. The names of many common items of food and drink are treated as singular non-count nouns, as are the names of materials. The nouns in the lists below that are liquids, gases and solids consist of collections of small particles that are not usually divided and so are seen as a whole:

- Food and drink:

bread	*juice*	*spaghetti*
cake	*milk*	*spinach*
cheese	*oil*	*sugar*
coffee	*pasta*	*tea*
curry	*rice*	*water*
fruit	*salad*	*yoghurt*
jam	*salt*	

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- Liquids, gases and solids:

adhesive	*fog*	*petrol*
air	*fuel*	*plastic*
cement	*fur*	*sand*
cloth	*gravel*	*smoke*
concrete	*lotion*	*soap*
cotton	*medicine*	*soil*
deodorant	*metal*	*toothpaste*
dye	*ointment*	*wool*
fabric	*paint*	

Other languages divide masses and entities differently from English. For example, in some languages *hair*, *spaghetti*, *spinach* and *money* are treated as plural units rather than a singular mass.

The following examples of singular non-count nouns are count nouns in many other languages:

*accommodation**	*harm*	*publicity*
advice	*health*	*research**
applause	*homework*	*rubbish*
assistance	*housework*	*safety*
baggage	*housing*	*shopping*
camping	*information*	*spaghetti*
cash	*knowledge*	*spinach*
chaos	*leisure*	*traffic*
clothing	*luck*	*transport*
cutlery	*luggage*	*travel*
equipment	*money*	*underwear*
evidence	*music*	*violence*
furniture	*news*	*weather*
hair	*progress*	*work*

* may occur as count nouns in non-British varieties of English

Where have you left your ***luggage****?*
(~~Where have you left your luggages?~~)

There ***is*** *not* ***much i formatio*** *about the college.*
(~~There are not many informations about the college~~.)

How ***is*** *your* ***k owledge*** *of the British jail system?*
(~~How are your knowledges of the British jail system?~~)

Your ***hair looks*** *nice.*
(~~Your hairs look nice.~~)

Non-count nouns ending in -*s* 178c

Some non-count nouns end in -*s* but are grammatically singular. They include names of some school/university subjects, physical activities, diseases, and games:

Non-count nouns which end in -*s*

school/university subjects	physical activities	diseases	games
civics	*athletics*	*shingles*	*bowls*
classics	*aerobics*	*measles*	*billiards*
economics	*callisthenics*	*mumps*	*darts*
ergonomics	*gymnastics*		*dominoes*
ethics			*draughts*
linguistics			*skittles*
maths/mathematics			
mechanics			
physics			
politics			
pragmatics			

Another very common word that is singular but ends in -*s* is *news*

erobics is *really popular these days, particularly with older people.*

hi gles lays *you low for anything up to six months, doesn't it?*

owls is *played by many younger people these days.*

This ews is *not so good.*
(~~These news are not so good.~~)

Exceptionally, plural verbs may occur with such nouns when the noun phrase has a more specific reference:

David's ***politics keep*** *getting him into trouble.*
(political views)

They've been running the country for two years now but their ***eco omics are*** *all wrong.*
(economic beliefs/policies)

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Plural non-count nouns 178d

The following commonly occurring non-count nouns are always grammatically plural:

belongings	*outskirts*	*riches*
congratulations	*particulars*	*savings* (money)
dregs	*pictures* (cinema)	*stairs*
earnings	*premises* (buildings)	*surroundings*
goods	*proceedings*	*thanks*
likes	*proceeds*	
mains	*remains*	

I understand ***co gratulatio s are*** *due on the new job, by the way.*

The ***outskirts*** *of the city* ***are*** *rather drab and uninteresting.*

The ***proceeds*** *of the concert* ***are*** *all going to charity.*

Some nouns with plural forms have different meanings. For example:

pictures = cinema (now becoming outdated)
pictures = plural of picture

premises = a building or buildings
premises = plural of premise (meaning 'ideas or theory on which an argument is based')

Some plural non-count nouns refer to things perceived as having two parts, e.g. *trousers* have two legs ('bipartite' items):

A: *Where* ***are*** *my* ***ea s****?*
B: ***They're*** *in the wash.*

Bipartite nouns include garments with two legs worn around the waist (e.g. *jeans*), instruments worn over both eyes or both ears related to sight and hearing (e.g. *headphones*) and tools consisting of two similar parts on a pivot (e.g. *scissors*):

Bipartite nouns

instruments	garments	tools
binoculars	*briefs*	*pincers*
glasses	*jeans*	*pliers*
goggles	*jodhpurs*	*scissors*
headphones	*knickers*	*shears*
spectacles	*overalls*	*tongs*
	pants	*tweezers*
	pyjamas	
	shorts	
	trousers	
	underpants	

This group of nouns is productive in that new nouns (including the names of manufacturers) which fit into these categories generally take on the same syntactic features. Recent examples include:

combats, chinos, Levis (types of trousers)

boxers (underwear shorts)

shades, Ray-bans (types of sunglasses)

In order to refer to more than one example of this type of noun, the partitive expression *a pair of/pairs of* is commonly used:

He needs a new ***pair of glasses****, I think.*
(or: He needs new glasses, I think.)

We bought a small ***pair of bi oculars****.*
(or: We bought some small binoculars.)

I'm going to take about ***four pairs of trousers****.*
(~~I'm going to take about four trousers.~~)

In some cases it is difficult to tell whether a singular or plural reference is made:

I didn't buy much but I did buy ***some trousers****.*
(one pair or several could be indicated)

PARTITIVE EXPRESSIONS (*A BIT OF, A PAIR OF*) 179

Sometimes it is necessary to be able to count the things denoted by singular and plural non-count nouns, and especially to count concrete things. Partitive expressions allow this. Examples of partitive expressions are: *bit of*, *item of*, *pair of*, *piece of*. Of these, the most neutral and widely used expressions involve *bit*, *piece* and *item*:

I gave her two ***bits of advice****.*

Some ***items of fur iture*** *were destroyed.*

Would you like this ***piece of cheese****?*

Partitive expressions collocate strongly with particular non-count nouns:

a ***loaf of*** *bread*
two ***slices of*** *bread/cake/cheese/chicken breast*
a ***bar of*** *chocolate/soap*
a ***bit of*** *fun*
a ***piece of*** *furniture*
a ***stroke of*** *luck*
a ***spell of*** *bad weather*

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Examples of informal everyday partitive expressions commonly occurring with non-count nouns, both concrete and abstract, are:

bit of	*mass of*	*sliver of*
chunk of	*sheet of*	*spell of*
dash of	*pile of*	*spot of*
drop of	*portion of*	*touch of*
lump of	*slice of*	*trace of*

*There are two **piles of** dirty **washi g** over there. Whose are they?*

*He always adds a **ice touch of humour** to the commentary.*

*They say we might just get a **spot of rai** in the late afternoon.*

*We had a **spell of** very mild **weather** in January.*

*Shall I get six **slices of cheese**, or is that not enough?*

Partitive expressions commonly refer to the shape, size, movement or the amount of something:

*There's a whole **stream of people** queuing outside the post office.*

*He gave us a **torre t of abuse**.*

*At the end of the evening several **ets of** coloured **water** and light were sent flying up into the sky.*

*One massive final **gust of wi d** blew the tree over on its side.*

Some partitive expressions with *-ful* refer to containers or spaces which commonly hold the item referred to. These include *bowlful of*, *cupful of*, *fistful of*, *handful of*, *mouthful of*, *spoonful of*:

*He gave me a **fistful of cash**. I don't know how much it was all together.*

*I always add a **spoo ful of salt** to the pasta water.*

The plural of such expressions is usually formed by adding *-s* after *-ful*:

*Just put three **teaspoo fuls** of olive oil and one of vinegar and you have a perfect salad dressing.*

Partitive expressions are often used metaphorically to describe more abstract quantities:

*They had a **slice of luck** when the coach went off the road but didn't hit anything.*

*One had to add a **dash of realism** and a great big **dollop of gratitude** to a situation like this.*

*Only a **ha dful of people** turned up at the concert. It was very disappointing.*

A–Z **55 *Of***

NON-COUNT NOUNS USED COUNTABLY 180

Masses and units

A number of singular non-count nouns can refer both to masses and to units. These nouns can be used with the indefinite article or in the plural when they refer to a particular unit or to units of something, or to different types and qualities of something.

Nouns in this class include those referring to food and drink and other materials and substances. The class also includes some abstract nouns such as *difficulty*, *experience*, *failure*, *injustice*, *success*. They are often referred to as 'dual class' nouns, because of their ability to operate in two different ways:

*Do you drink **tea**?*
(general, non-count use)

*Three **teas** and **a coffee** please.*
(particular instance(s): a cup/cups of tea/coffee)

*'Dazzle' is **a** excellent **washi g powder**.*
(a particular type or quality)

*Do you want some **cake**?*
(general, non-count use; a piece of a big cake)

*Do you want **a cake** with your coffee?*
(an individual item)

*These **cakes** are delicious.*
(a number of individual items)

[describing puffins, a type of sea-bird]
*Since they find **difficulty** in taking off from flat ground, they tend to colonise the steeper slopes first.*

*additional **difficulty**, as some see it, is that the country now has multi-party democracy.*
(one individual problem or difficulty)

*I don't foresee any **difficulties**.*
(any set of problems or difficulties)

***perie ce** must count for something in such situations.*
(a person's accumulated life experience or work experience)

*It was **a** great **e perie ce**.*
(an individual event as lived through by someone)

*She's had some very odd **e perie ces**, I must say.*
(odd events have happened to her)

Mental states

Some of these dual-class nouns referring to mental states can be used with *a/an* but cannot be used in the plural. These include *anger*, *bitterness*, *courage*, *determination*, *hatred*, *knowledge*, *patience*, *pride*, *resistance*. When used with *a/an*, such nouns must be modified or used with a complement:

Count/non-count nouns with and without *a/an*

used without a/an	used with *a/an*
… and many members of the middle class still harboured ***deep a ger over the eco omic losses that they had suffered duri g the great i flatio ****.*	[literary critic describing a book] *There is wit and candour as well as sorrow, and* ***a good, co trolled a ger****, which never displays itself in censure or rancour.*
The offer from the IRA, to which Blair** has responded with* ***courage a d determi atio*** *, was on the table last October.* [* Irish Republican Army] [**Tony Blair, British Prime Minister at the time]	*She had locks on her doors and, above all,* ***a determi atio to be a burde to o o e****.*
They had ***e te sive k owledge of best buy' food a d food shops withi their areas***	*And she acquired* ***a i -depth k owledge of the hotel busi ess****.*
It was conversation that proved the downfall of our relationship; that and ***wou ded pride****.*	*Senna* not only has a much-improved car but* ***a wou ded pride*** *to fire him today.* [* famous motor-racing driver]

Different meanings

A small number of singular non-count nouns are also used as count nouns but with a change in meaning:

I've got loads of ***work*** *I could be doing.*
(non-count: tasks, jobs, things to do)

The announced aim is to display modern ***works*** *of art to a vast new audience.*
(count: creative products by artists, e.g. books, paintings, music)

This will involve extensive engineering ***works*** *on public roads.*
(count: large-scale engineering activities, e.g. *road-works* [building and repairing roads])

Strangely, she disliked ***travel****. She said she had always wanted to be 'home alone'.*
(non-count: the activity or process of moving over longer distances from one place to another)

It has been my privilege to travel, to see a lot of country, and in those ***travels*** *I have learned of several ways to become intimate with the land, ways I try to practise.*
(count: often refers to major expeditions and journeys of exploration, for example, the famous English novel *Gulliver's Travels*)

COUNT NOUNS USED AS NON-COUNT NOUNS 181

Count nouns can be used as if they were non-countable. This often applies to countable food items such as *potatoes*, *onions*, *eggs*, and to any other count nouns which can be seen as a whole:

Do you use ***egg*** *when you make your own pasta?*

After the storm, there were bits of ***tree*** *all over the garden.*

Sometimes there is a shift in meaning when a count noun is used non-countably:

When we lived in the US, wild ***turkeys*** *used to come into our garden.*

Do you always have ***turkey*** *for lunch?*
(reference to the meat rather than to the bird)

NOUN PHRASE AGREEMENT 182

Noun + verb agreement 182a

Collective nouns, such as *committee, government, team*, can be followed by either a singular or a plural verb form. When the singular verb form and/or singular pronouns are used, the group is treated as a unit; when the plural verb form and/or plural pronouns are used, the noun treats a group as a number of individuals:

The government has *said* ***it*** *will take action.*
(treated as a unit)

The government have *said* ***they*** *will take action.*
(treated as composed of different individuals/departments)

The team is *in good spirits.*
(treated as a unit)

The team are *in good spirits.*
(treated as composed of individual team members)

Plural concord is more common than singular in informal contexts. Further examples of collective nouns which behave similarly are:

audience	*company*	*group*
board	*congregation*	*jury*
committee	*crew*	*public*
community	*enemy*	*staff*

Other nouns with variable or otherwise noteworthy agreement patterns include *bulk*, *couple*, *majority*, *minority*, *number*, *pair*, *percentage*, *proportion*, *rest*, *remainder*:

While some patients in the special hospitals are dangerous, ***the majority are*** *not.*
(typical usage: treated as composed of separate individuals; plural agreement)

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Over 100,000 supporters waited to see the game but ***the majority was*** *outside watching on a large screen.*
(less typical usage: treated as a unified body; more formal)

[from a film review]
The rest *of the cast* ***are*** *okay as well but no one really stands out, and the special effects are merely okay, too.*
(treated as composed of separate individuals)

The rest *of the European Union now* ***seems*** *ready to reluctantly bow to British pressure that justice and home affairs remain primarily a matter for intergovernmental cooperation.*
(treated as a unified body)

There ***were a number*** *of strange facts that were difficult to explain, and the judge decided that she was the murderer.*
(almost always plural agreement even though singular in form)

couple of *boys* ***were*** *standing at the corner.*
(almost always plural agreement even though singular in form)

Agreement with quantifying expressions 182b

The quantifying expressions *a good deal of*, *a great deal of*, *plenty of* and constructions with *quantity of* and *amount of* are restricted to use with certain types of noun.

A good deal of, a great deal of

These are normally restricted to singular non-count nouns:

Recent comment has been disfigured by ***a good deal of misinformation*** *.*

He had lost ***a great deal of weight*** *and it made him look taller than ever.*

However, in informal speech, *a good/great deal of* may be used with plural count nouns:

[talking about how men might behave badly when out in all-male company but differently when at home]
I'm quite convinced that ***a good deal of those men*** *would go home to their wives and family and be very loving to their, to their wives and family, be respectful of their neighbours.*

[talking about a tennis club]
There are a couple of adults there that like to play but really there weren't really ***a great deal of players*** *other than the juniors to play with.*

Amount of

In general, constructions with *amount of* are restricted to use with non-count nouns:

We still have ***a huge amount of work*** *to do.*

However, in more informal spoken and written contexts, *amount of* may occur with plural count nouns:

For the cost, the machine seems very good value, especially with ***the amount of accessories*** *supplied.*

Plenty of and *quantity of*

Constructions with *plenty of* and *quantity of* may be used with either non-count nouns or plural count nouns:

No need to rush, we've got ***ple ty of time****.*

There are ***ple ty of reaso s*** *for not doing it.*

[describing materials for use with aquarium plants]
A mixture of coarse sand and clay with ***a small ua tity of charcoal*** *or charcoal incorporated in granulated clay is suitable.*

He had ***a huge ua tity of*** *newspaper* ***cutti gs*** *he'd collected over the years.*

si eable ua tity of drugs*, including heroin, had been found and seized also, along with a veritable arsenal of guns and ammunition.*

Gender and animate/inanimate reference **183**

English nouns are not, as they are in some languages, masculine, feminine or neuter. Only pronouns and possessive determiners are marked grammatically for gender (e.g. *he*, *she*, *it*, *his*, *hers*). However, English does distinguish living (animate) from non-living (inanimate) things. For example, *he*, *she* and *who* are used to refer to animate nouns; *it* and *which* are used to refer to inanimate nouns:

she*'s a famous* ***actress****. Isn't* ***she*** *the one* ***who*** *was in 'Four Weddings'?*

Here's ***the bag****. Don't forget* ***it****'s the bag* ***which*** *has already been stolen twice this week.*

Animate nouns can refer either to people (personal) or animals (non-personal). Personal animate nouns can be used to refer to both males and females. There are different forms for a small number of personal animate nouns:

actor	*actress*
host	*hostess*
policeman	*policewoman*
steward	*stewardess*
waiter	*waitress*

Some female forms of nouns are no longer used (e.g. *poetess*, *murderess*), and in some cases the (formerly) male noun is now used to refer to both sexes (e.g. *actor*, *host*). Usually, gender-neutral nouns are preferred (e.g. *police officer*, *firefighter*, *flight attendant*).

Sometimes male and female terms are used as premodifiers to distinguish the gender-reference of the head noun. Examples are: *male model*, *male nurse*, *female plumber*, *boy soprano*, *women novelists*. These terms are all socially sensitive and should be used carefully.

In some contexts, the word *person* is preferred to *man* or *woman*:

She was elected ***chairperso*** *of the committee.*

He was the best ***spokesperso*** *we've had in a long time.*

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Most non-personal animate nouns refer to animals. Animals which have a special place in human society can be referred to by the pronouns *he*, *she* and *who*, especially in spoken language. A degree of subjectivity in labelling the gender of an animal is usually present:

There's a black dog in the street. ***He*** *looks lost.*

Is ***she*** *a big eater, your* ***cat****?*

Some animals are given separate male and female words. These words are mainly used in specific contexts, for example by breeders or vets, or other experts and people working in the field. Common examples are listed below, with the common general name for the animal given alongside.

male	female	common name
lion	*lioness*	*lion*
fox	*vixen*	*fox*
dog	*bitch*	*dog*
tiger	*tigress*	*tiger*
bull	*cow*	*cow*
drake	*duck*	*duck*

When used with human reference, the pronoun *it* normally only applies to babies or to small children and is used both for general reference and for occasions when the gender may not be known:

Every child misses ***its*** *mother.*

That baby upstairs. ***It****'s always crying.*

[said to a mother about a forthcoming birth]
Are you going to have ***it*** *at home or in hospital?*

PROPER NAMES 184

Proper names are nouns which give names to people and things. For example, *Mary*, *Jakarta* or *March* are proper names. These nouns are typically used without determiners and do not vary in number. They are written with a capital letter.

Proper names may consist of more than one word: *The Straits Times* (name of an Asian newspaper), *Princess Diana*, *The Hague*, *Kai Tak Airport*, *The Lord of the Rings*, *Mount Kilimanjaro*, *the Nile*, *Shannon International Airport*. When proper names consist of more than one word, the words work together as a single unit.

In some contexts proper names can be treated as count nouns:

I'm meeting ***the Grays*** *at nine this evening.*
(*Gray* is a family name, and therefore a proper name; *the Grays* refers to the family as a whole, or to specific members of the Gray family)

There were ***three Sues*** *in my class at school.*
(three single instances of the same name – three girls called Sue)

Do you have ***my a e uste*** *?*
(my copy of a novel by Jane Austen)

He has ***icassos*** *in his gallery.*
(paintings by Picasso)

You don't need to be ***a i stei*** *to work that out.*
(Einstein was a scientist)

I remember ***the ew Year's ves*** *we spent together.*

[looking at a baby and commenting on its facial features]
She's ***a real O' o ell****, isn't she?*

Some proper names are singular non-count nouns, e.g. *Marmite* (a food product), *Dulux* (a brand of paint):

Would you like some ***armite*** *on your toast?*

Some proper names are plural non-count nouns, e.g. *Levis*® (a brand of jeans), *Ray-Bans* (a brand of sunglasses):

Those ***Ray- a s*** *were on sale at the duty free at the airport.*

In most cases the proper name is capitalised but some common everyday product names are not capitalised (e.g. *brie*, *cheddar*, *sellotape*).

Proper names and agreement

Proper names also involve agreement choices. When specific organisations, institutions and countries are mentioned, plural and singular verb forms tend to be used interchangeably, depending on whether the entity is treated as a single unit or as composed of individuals:

The C is *only acting in the public interest.*
The C are *only acting in the public interest.*

iet am is *refusing to re-join the economic summit.*
iet am are *refusing to re-join the economic summit.*

The C has *a new World Service channel.*
The C have *a new World Service channel.*

Names of geographical features **185**

The English names of rivers have the definite article before them. Note that the article is normally written in lower case:

the Colorado River	*the Amazon*	*the River Thames*
the Yangtse	*the Danube*	*the Ganges*

The names of lakes and of individual mountains do not have the definite article before them. *Lake* or *Mount* often comes before the specific name:

Lake Ontario	*Mount Fuji*	*Popocatepetl*
Lake Geneva	*(Mount) Everest*	*Snowdon*

Exceptions: *the Matterhorn*, *the Eiger*

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The names of ranges of mountains have the definite article before them:

the Alps	*the Himalayas*	*the Andes*

The names of deserts, oceans, seas, groups of islands and major areas and regions have the definite article before them:

the Sahara (Desert)	*the Mediterranean (Sea)*	*the Bahamas*
the Pacific (Ocean)	*the Florida Keys*	*the Steppes*

Some names of buildings, monuments and cathedrals can take a definite article; some do not:

the Houses of Parliament	*the Bundestag*	*Stonehenge*
the White House	*the Taj Mahal*	*Westminster Abbey*

Some names of streets and roads can take a definite article; some do not:

Princes Street	*Piccadilly*	*the Great North Road*
Oxford Street	*Abbey Road*	*the M5, the A34*

Names of regions, countries, nationalities and languages **186**

Reference to regions, countries, nationalities and languages is made in English by proper names, adjectives, singular and plural nouns.

Proper names indicate the names of regions and countries:

Asia	*Brazil*	*China*
Africa	*Germany*	*Norway*

Adjectives are used to indicate nationalities or regional identities (bold); some also refer to the languages spoken in the country (in green):

Peru : ***eruvia***	*America :* ***merica***	*China :* ***Chi ese***
Asia : ***sia***	*France :* ***re ch***	*Spain :* ***spa ish***

Some nationality adjectives can be used as nouns to refer to the nationality of a person:

a Norwegian	*an Iraqi*	*a Belgian*
a Brazilian	*an Egyptian*	*a Canadian*

(~~an Irish, a Dutch, a French~~)

Plural nouns based on the adjective form are used to refer to the population of a country as a whole:

the Norwegians	*the Algerians*	*the Greeks*
the Malaysians	*the Israelis*	*the Venezuelans*

Nationality adjectives ending in *-ese*, *-(i)sh* or *-ch* do not inflect in this way:

the Chinese	*the Spanish*	*the French*
the Japanese	*the Welsh*	*the Dutch*

(~~the Chineses, the Spanishes~~)

528 Appendix: Nationalities, countries and regions for a full list

DETERMINERS: INTRODUCTION 187

Determiners indicate the type of reference made by the noun phrase (e.g. definite, indefinite, possessive); they also indicate number or quantity (e.g. *six*, *much*, *some*). Determiners come in front position in noun phrases, before adjectives and noun modifiers. They include words such as *a*, *all*, *each*, *five*, *many*, *my*, *no*, *some*, *the*, *those*, *which*:

*This is **a** complete mess.*

*Where are **my** glasses?*

***ach** time I've tried to sell **the** house I've had **o** buyers.*

*I'm **his** best friend.*

*I've had **several** blood tests.*

All the determiners in English are dealt with in this book. They are:

a/an	*half*	*several*
all	*(a) little, less, least*	*the*
another	*many, more, most*	*this, that, these, those*
any (strong form)	*much, more, most*	*what* (interrogative)
any (weak form)	*my, your, his, Jim's,* etc.	*what* (quantitative)
both	*no*	*what, such* (exclamative)
each	*one* (numeral) *two, three,* etc.	*which*
either, neither	*some* (strong form)	*whose*
enough	*some* (weak form)	zero determiner (i.e. no determiner)
every	*such* (anaphoric)	
(a) few, fewer, fewest		

Determiners may occasionally be premodified or postmodified:

*Almost **all** libraries have got quite a lot of information on those sorts of things.*

*Many **more** professional couples are opting for larger families.*

***ll** but one of the 16 stockmarkets continued to recover this week.*

More than one determiner may occur in the noun phrase:

*I do **all the** housework, I look after **my two** children at the same time, and I'm studying.*

A: *We've had lots of visitors as well haven't we?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *This year we've had **both your** nieces, haven't we?*

539 **Glossary** for any unfamiliar terms

Where more than one determiner can be used together, there is a fixed order in which they occur. The table illustrates the sequence:

The order of determiners

quantifier	article or demonstrative or possessive	numeral	head
all	*my*	*five*	*cousins*
all		*three*	*pages*
both	*your*		*nieces*
half	*a*		*litre*
	my	*first*	*exam*
	those	*two*	*girls*

All, *both* and *half* can come before articles and demonstratives and possessives, but quantifiers such as *any*, *few*, *many*, *more*, *some*, etc. and numerals cannot. Where these quantifiers and numerals do occur first, *of* must be used (191):

Can I borrow ***more of those*** *disks?*

I've achieved ***some of my*** *ambitions.*
(~~I've achieved some my ambitions.~~)

Two of his *children are getting married around the same time.*

DETERMINERS: CHARACTERISTICS OF USE 188

Determiners have particular ways of occurring in noun phrases. In 189–192, four principal ways in which determiners can occur are described:

1 which determiners can occur with which types of head noun (189)
2 whether the determiner can also be used as a pronoun (190)
3 whether the determiner can occur as a pronoun followed by *of* + definite noun phrase (e.g. *some of her friends*, but **not** *this of my food*) (191)
4 whether the determiner can occur with *of* and a possessive determiner (e.g. *a cousin of mine arrived*, but **not** *all best friends of hers were there*) (192)

DETERMINERS AND TYPES OF HEAD NOUN 189

No restrictions 189a

Some determiners may be used with any type of head noun, whether singular or plural, count or non-count.

The determiners which have no restrictions on use with head nouns are:

any (strong form)
my, your, his, noun phrase + *'s*, etc.
no
some (strong form)
the
what (interrogative)
which
whose

The following are examples with *any*, *no*, the strong form of *some*, and *whose:*

- Singular count:

  So that's ***no problem****, is it?*

  He was driving along up there somewhere, to ***some village*** *or other, and all of a sudden this double-decker bus came down the lane.*

  Whose idea *was this?*

- Plural count:

  They've got ***no beds*** *for the children.*

  It wasn't as bad as ***some places****, because it's quite a big shop, and we didn't queue at all.*

  I can't remember ***whose names*** *were on it.*

- Singular non-count:

  Unfortunately, the flight's available but ***no accommodation****.*

  Some chocolate *makes me sneeze, but I haven't worked out why.*

  What land *are we on?*

- Plural non-count:

  Why doesn't he have ***any scissors****?*

  He answered the door with ***no trousers*** *on.*

Restricted to singular count or non-count noun 189b

This and *that* are singular and are used with singular nouns. The noun may be count or non-count:

She arrived home ***this morning****.*
(count)

What's ***that book****, Nigel?*
(count)

It'll take us ages in ***this weather****.*
(non-count)

Restricted to singular count noun 189c

Some determiners may only be used with a singular count noun. These are:

a/an	*each*	*every*
another	*either, neither*	*one* (numeral)

Can I have ***a stamp*** *for this, please?*

Each task *should take a couple of minutes to do.*

It was in the south part of Dublin and I used to go by tram ***every day*** *all across Dublin. I got to know the city so well.*
(~~I used to go by tram every days …~~)

Quietly Esther checked that ***either child*** *was watching, then locked the kitchen door.*

Restricted to singular non-count noun 189d

Much and *(a) little*, *less*, *least* may only be used with a singular non-count noun:

It's not ***much pay****. There isn't* ***much work*** *for him these days.*

Those animals exported abroad for slaughter are subject to similar mistreatment, as well as long, arduous journeys over hundreds of miles with ***little food*** *or* ***water****.*

Restricted to plural count noun 189e

Both, *many*, *(a) few*, the numerals *two*, *three*, *four*, etc. and *several* are restricted to use with plural count nouns:

I've been my own boss for ***ma y years****.*

Brighton is ***a few hours*** *away by train.*

ew books *are, in a strict sense, necessary.*

Restricted to plural count or plural non-count noun 189f

These and *those* are used with plural count or plural non-count nouns:

These trousers *don't fit me any more.*

Those bea s *are cooked.*

Restricted to non-count or plural count noun 189g

Some determiners may only be used with a non-count (singular or plural) noun or with a plural count noun. These are:

all	*some* (weak form)	*what*, *such* (exclamative)
any (weak form)	*such* (anaphoric)	zero determiner (i.e. no determiner)
enough	*what* (quantitative) + relative clause	

We weren't given ***e ough i formatio*** *.*
(singular non-count)

Rising costs of living and mounting unemployment in the aftermath of war fuelled discontent with the colonial state. ***such disco te t*** *could be exploited by nationalist politicians.*
(singular non-count)

hat mo ey they made *went entirely to local charities.*
(singular non-count)

[public announcement to passengers about to leave a train]
Please make sure to take ***all*** *personal* ***belo gi gs*** *with you.*
(plural non-count)

ll kids *learn through play.*
(plural count)

Well, first of all, have we got ***e ough e velopes****?*
(plural count)

But I looked at my father and he laughed like mad and said, 'Oh, she means offer of marriage.' And my mother said, 'Don't put ***such ideas*** *in the child's head.'*
(plural count)

DETERMINERS AND PRONOUNS 190

Determiners used as pronouns 190a

Some determiners may also be used as pronouns (i.e. as the head of their own noun phrase):

Have you finished with ***those videos****?*
(determiner)

A: *D'you want these sunglasses?*
B: *Yes, I'll need* ***those****.*
(pronoun)

Would you like ***some teriyaki chicke*** *?*
(determiner)

[offering cake to someone]
Would you like ***some****?*
(pronoun)

The next train took us a stage further until it just stopped. We got out and waited for hours at the railway station for ***a other****.*
(pronoun, i.e. another train)

The sight of him was a gift of greater value than ***a y*** *she'd ever received in her life.*
(pronoun, i.e. than any gift)

He's not my first teacher. I've had ***several****.*
(pronoun, i.e. several teachers)

Determiners which may also be used as pronouns in this way are:

another	*enough*	*some* (weak form)
any (strong form)	*(a) little, less, least*	*these, those*
any (weak form)	*many, more, most*	*this, that*
both	*much, more, most*	*two, three*
each	*one* (numeral)	*which*
(a) few, fewer, fewest	*several*	*whose*
either, neither	*some* (strong form)	

Determiners replaced by pronouns 190b

The and *a/an* do not occur as pronouns, but their meanings may be expressed pronominally in different forms.

He, *she*, *it* and *them* are used as anaphoric pronouns in place of a noun phrase beginning with *the*:

Have you met ***the new boss****?* ***He****'s very nice.*

I am thrilled to win ***the race*** *this year, because of all the great horses in* ***it****.*

Add ***the potatoes*** *and roll* ***them*** *around in the spices.*

One is used as a pronoun in place of a noun phrase beginning with *a/an*:

He has lost ***a sock****. I have found* ***one****.*

Possessive determiners and pronouns 190c

The possessive determiners have the following forms as pronouns (201a):

possessive determiner	possessive pronoun
my	*mine*
your (singular)	*yours*
his	*his*
her	*hers*
its	(no form)
one's	(no form)
our	*ours*
your (plural)	*yours*
their	*theirs*

My dad *would beat* ***yours*** *in a fight.*

I've lived ***my life****. She's just starting* ***hers****.*

You see, they go to ***their church*** *first and we go to* ***ours****, and then we meet, you know, afterwards.*

If possessive determiners are postmodified with *own*, they retain their form when used pronominally:

I always forget birthdays. I have enough trouble remembering ***my ow*** *.*
(~~I have enough trouble remembering mine own.~~)

Singular *all* + noun may be substituted by *it all* or *all of it*. Plural *all* + noun may be replaced by *we/you/they/us/them all* or *all of us/you/them*:

We've got so much stuff, there's no way we're going to eat ***it all*** *(or* ***all of it****).*
(~~… there's no way we're going to eat all.~~)

[to a taxi driver]
There are four people. Can you take ***us all*** *(or* ***all of us****)?*

They've all been together from secondary school. Well some of them from primary school. And there's a really strong bond between ***them all****. And* ***they all*** *care about one another.*

It/you/us/them all cannot be used in a reduced clause when there is no verb:

A: *Has he eaten the cauliflower?*
B: *Not* ***all of it****.*
(~~Not it all.~~)

A: *Whose are* ***all*** *the books?*
B: *Harold's.*
A: ***ll of them****?*
B: *Mm.* ***ll of them****.*
A: *Wow!*
(~~Them all? Mm. Them all.~~)

When a subject pronoun + *all* is used, *all* occupies the mid position for adverbs (325):

e*'ll* ***all*** *meet again tomorrow.*
(preferred to: We all will meet again tomorrow.)

also **201 Possessive pronouns**

A–Z **12** ***ll***

OF + DEFINITE NOUN PHRASE 191

Some combinations of determiners are not permitted (e.g. *some/any* followed by *my/the/this*). However, some pronoun forms of determiners may combine with *of* + definite noun phrase (or definite pronoun) to produce partitive meanings (i.e. expressing a partial quantity or number out of a totality):

	determiner	*of*	definite noun phrase
Do you want	*some*	*of*	*that stuff?*

A–Z **55** ***Of***

Determiners which operate in this way are:

a/an (in the form of *one of*)
all
another
any (strong form)
any (weak form)
both
each
either, neither
enough
every (in the form of *every one of*)
(a) few, fewer, fewest
(a) little, less, least
many, more, most
much, more, most
no (pronoun form *none*)
several
some (strong form)
some (weak form)
one (numeral), *two, three,* etc.
the (in the form *those of*)
which

It was yet ***a other of those*** *things that you couldn't describe, but you'd know it when you saw it.*

He's not going to go back on ***a y of his decisio s****.*

I don't think we have ***e ough of that****.*

very o e of my frie ds *turned up.*
(~~Every of my friends turned up.~~)

either of the me *had said a word.*

At one time, almost all the drugs in use were extracted directly from plants. ***some of the pla ts*** *in your garden may contain essential medical drugs.*

I'd also like to say thanks to ***those of my colleagues*** *who can't be here tonight.*
(~~I'd also like to say thanks to the of my colleagues who can't be here tonight.~~)

Two of the boys *had nine children between them.*

hich of those policies *would seem the best?*

OF + POSSESSIVE PRONOUN AFTER THE HEAD NOUN 192

Some determiners may combine with *of* + possessive pronoun used after the head noun:

	determiner	head noun	*of*	possessive pronoun
I run a company with	*a*	*friend*	*of*	*mine.*

Note that the pronoun is in the possessive form, not the object form:

I run a company with a friend of mine.
(~~I run a company with a friend of me.~~)

Determiners which may be used in this way are those listed in **191** and in addition *the*, zero determiner, noun phrase + *'s* (the so-called possessive *'s* construction), *this/that/these/those*, *what* and *such*:

She was moving out and she gave the keys to ***some frie ds of hers****.*

If ***every word of yours*** *is in there, the person has infringed your copyright.*

frie d of my sister's *took that photo.*

Besides, you want ***a y child of yours*** *to live a long and healthy life.*

That house of theirs *must have cost a fortune to build.*

hat mo ey of hers *that was left went to her children.*

I was just thinking of ***old frie ds of mi e*** *who I grew up with.*
(zero determiner)

POSSESSIVE 'S 193

The possessive *'s* construction is used to describe the possession or attribution of particular things, features, qualities or characteristics. It operates syntactically like the possessive determiners *my*, *your*, *his*, etc., and is best considered as a determiner:

*cow**'s** milk*

*goat**'s** cheese*

*men**'s** jackets*

*the school**'s** development plan*

*Jean**'s** bicycle*

*Vietnam**'s** economy*

*America**'s** foreign policy*

The possessive *'s* construction occurs with more complex noun phrases as well as with simple ones:

The ri ce of lba ia's *daughter*

The director of the compa y's *statement*

r smith's *patients*

The use of possessive *'s* is sometimes arbitrary. For example, *lamb's liver* is said but not *lamb liver*. On the other hand, *chicken breast* (not *chicken's breast*) is said.

The possessive *'s* is common in general measurements of time:

*today**'s** news*

*yesterday**'s** political party*

*three week**s'** holiday*

*twenty minute**s'** delay*

The possessive *'s* rather than the noun + noun construction is also used when the reference is more precise and specific:

I always spend ages reading the Sunday paper.
(general reference)

*The recipe you want was in last Sunday**'s** paper.*
(specific, unique reference)

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NUMERALS 194

Numerals can be either cardinal (e.g. *two*, *sixteen*) or ordinal (e.g. *first*, *third*).

Cardinals

Cardinal numbers are used as determiners, but they are also used as head nouns and pronouns. As heads, cardinals are inflected like nouns:

Only ***fiftee*** *people attended the meeting.*
(determiner)

Two *cats are always better than* ***o e*** *cat.*
(determiner)

Twe ty *of our group were German.*
(determiner with *of* + definite noun phrase)

Troubles always come in ***threes****.*
(head noun)

A: *How many screws do you need?*
B: *I just need* ***two****.*
(pronoun)

When *dozen*, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and *billion* are premodified, no final *-s* is used. When they are not modified, plural *-s* + *of* occurs:

five hundred pounds
(~~five hundreds pounds~~)
hundreds of pounds

several thousand people
thousands of people

a few million years
millions of years

Ordinals

Ordinal numbers refer to entities in a series or sequence. They are used as determiners and are normally preceded by other determiners such as the definite article or a possessive determiner:

It was ***the te th*** *and final album in a long career.*

We celebrated ***his first*** *birthday in Hong Kong.*

Ordinals can also be used as the heads of noun phrases:

I like all of them but ***the fourth*** *was the best.*

It was calculated in ***hu dredths*** *and* ***thousa dths****.*

Ordinals can also be used as adverbs:

Merry came ***third*** *in the race.*

irst*, we need to clear the chairs away.*

AGREEMENT PROBLEMS WITH DETERMINERS 195

Some determiner phrases present choices of agreement. This principally concerns the use of *none of*, *either of*, *neither of*, *any of*, *half*, and numeral expressions between *one* and *two* (e.g. *one and a half*). There are also cases where singular determiners are used with plural numerals.

None of

In traditional views of grammar and in more formal styles, *none of* + plural count noun has singular concord with a verb. In such usage, *none of* is seen as a negated form of *one*:

> *The other assistants in the shoe shop seemed to manage on their wages. Of course,* ***o e of them was*** *supporting a child, and the male assistant got sixty per cent more than the women.*

In everyday spoken and written informal usage, *none of* + plural count noun typically has plural concord with a verb. The plural head noun is treated as the notional subject of the verb:

> ***o e of our childre play*** *any musical instruments.*

Either of, *neither of* are also used in two ways. Singular concord is more traditional and formal, treating *either/neither* as referring to one of two individual entities. Plural concord sees *either/neither* as implying a pair of entities, therefore greater than one:

> [from a book about sleeping and dreaming]
> *Dreams of being chased, or of flying, are also more frequent than one might expect, given that* ***either of these eve ts happe s*** *very frequently in real life.*

> ***o either of you*** *play golf?*

Any of

Variable concord occurs with *any of*. Singular concord treats *any* as referring to an individual entity. Plural concord can imply either an individual or several individual entities:

> *What right* ***does a y of us*** *have to play God?*

> ***o a y of you*** *want a ticket for the club dinner?*
> (could be one or more than one individual implied)

One

Variability of agreement occurs with expressions involving *one*. The phrase *more than one* is normally followed by a singular head noun and has singular verb concord:

> *But what we have seen so far is that for every job lost,* ***more tha o e ob has bee created****.*
> (~~… more than one jobs have been created.~~)

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

However, in more informal spoken styles, plural head nouns and plural verb concord may occur:

[informal discussion at a meeting]
A: *But there* ***are more than one approaches****. There are many different conflicting approaches.*
B: *Yeah. But we're just reduced to using only one.*

✪ The expression *one and a half* is followed by a plural head noun:

That bottle holds about ***one and a half litres****.*
(~~… one and a half litre.~~)

However, when *a/one* + head noun + *and a half* is used, the head is singular:

That bottle holds about ***a litre and a half****.*

Numerals

✪ *Another*, not *other*, is used with numerals:

I paid him fifty pounds, now we owe him ***another fifty pounds****.*
(~~… now we owe him other fifty pounds.~~)

In informal styles, singular determiners can occur with plural numerals when they are modified:

Let me give you back ***that ten pounds owe you****.*

That same three milk bottles *were still standing on his doorstep after a week.*

Expressions such as *a good* (meaning 'at least that number') and *a full* (meaning 'a completed number') may be used with plural numerals:

It's ***a good ten miles*** *or more from here.*

She's ***a full three years*** *younger than the next child up.*

A–Z 38 *very*

IMPORTANT DISTINCTIONS IN THE USE OF DETERMINERS 196

The and zero article 196a

When general reference is made to all members of a class of count nouns or all examples or manifestations of a non-count noun, *the* is not used:

I don't think the internet will ever completely replace ***books****.*
(refers to all books)
(~~I don't think the internet will ever completely replace the books.~~)

salt *is bad for you.*
(all salt is bad for you)
(~~The salt is bad for you.~~)

ife *has its moments of frustration for all of us.*
(~~The life has its moments of frustration for all of us.~~)

A postmodified noun does not necessarily require *the*; the presence or absence of *the* still depends on whether the reference is general or to a defined sub-class:

ur iture of that uality *is too good for a student flat.*
(all and any furniture of that quality)

[speakers are gluing together a piece of wooden furniture]
A: *Does this stuff really work, this glue?*
B: *Yeah. That's what I've used on* ***the fur iture've made****, you know, the TV table and stuff.*
(specifically refers to only the items of furniture the speaker has made)

The is most commonly used to refer to things which are part of the speakers' shared world. It is a way of saying 'You know which x I am referring to':

If you're going to paint ***the wall****, we'll have to move* ***the fur iture****.*
(speaker and listener know which wall and which furniture they are talking about)

A: *How are* ***the childre*** *?*
B: *Fine thanks. Yes, they're doing fine.*
(speaker A does not need to say 'your children' if it is obvious to both speakers whose children are being referred to)

A: *Are you going into* ***the u iversity*** *today?*
B: *I may do. Why?*
A: *Could you drop some books off at* ***the library*** *for me?*
(the university and the library are understood as the ones known to both speakers; it is unlikely B would reply 'Which university? Which library?')

Some and *any*: strong versus weak forms 196b

Some and *any* each have strong forms, which are stressed, and weak unstressed forms. The weak form of some is pronounced /səm/.

The weak forms indicate an indefinite quantity of something:

Would you like ***some cheese****?*

Are there ***a y messages*** *on the answerphone?*

The strong forms have different meanings. The strong form of *some* most typically means 'a certain' or 'a particular' when used with singular count nouns:

some child *was crying behind me throughout the whole flight and I never slept.*

Strong form *some* contrasts with *others*, *all* or *enough* when used with plural count nouns and with non-count nouns:

[talking of student grants]
some stude ts *get substantial amounts and others get nothing.*

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[talking of dried beans that need to be soaked before use]
A: *But dry ones you have to soak them overnight and then get rid of that water and stuff.*
B: *Right. And lentils as well?*
A: ***some of them**. Not all.*

*We've got **some bread** but not enough for three people.*

Strong form *any* is used most typically with singular count nouns and with non-count nouns to mean 'it does not matter which':

*If you have the warranty, **a y authorised dealer** can get it repaired for you.*

***y fruit uice** will make you sick if you drink enough of it.*

Some, any and zero determiner 196c

Although *some* and *any* indicate an indefinite quantity, they are not used for large or unlimited indefinite quantities. The zero determiner indicates an indefinite quantity without reference to size when used with non-count nouns and with plural count nouns:

*There are **some e tra bla kets** in the wardrobe if you need them.*
(an indefinite but limited number)

[government spokesman after a major earthquake]
*We need **help** from the international community. We need **te ts** and **medici es** and **bla kets**.*
(~~We need some help from the international community. We need some tents, some medicines and some blankets.~~)

*Are there **a y frogs** in that pond?*
(indefinite but probably limited expectation of quantity)

*Do you have **red a ts** in your garden?*
(no expectation about quantity)

Weak form *some* and *any* and clause types 196d

The use of the weak forms of *some* and *any* depends on whether the clause is declarative or interrogative, and whether it is affirmative or negative:

*There's **some** milk in the fridge.*
(~~There's any milk in the fridge.~~)

*There isn't **a y** milk in the fridge.*
(~~There isn't some milk in the fridge.~~)

*Is there **a y** milk in the fridge?*

*Is there **some** milk in the fridge?*

*Isn't there **a y** milk in the fridge?*

*Isn't there **some** milk in the fridge?*

Affirmative and negative clauses

In declarative clauses, *some* occurs with affirmatives but does not occur with negatives. *Any* occurs with negatives but does not usually occur with affirmatives:

I've got ***some*** *nice French cheese for us.*
(~~I've got any nice French cheese for us.~~)

A: *I'd like* ***some*** *apple juice please.*
B: *You'd like* ***some*** *apple juice.*
A: *Yes.*
B: *Right.*
(~~I'd like any apple juice please.~~)

I do ***'t*** *have* ***a y*** *questions.*
(~~I don't have some questions.~~)

[talking about a recently typed document]
There are ***'t a y*** *glaring errors. I mean Jamie's read through it and he has* ***'t*** *seen* ***a y****.*
(~~There aren't some glaring errors. I mean Jamie's read through it and he hasn't seen some.~~)

Any can occur in affirmative declarative clauses with an implied conditional meaning and in subordinate conditional clauses:

[radio weather forecast]
y *rain will clear by midday.*
(if there is any rain, it will clear by midday)

If anyone has ***a y*** *questions during the day, ask Sam.*

Interrogative clauses

With interrogatives, *some* and *any* are both used to ask questions. *Some* suggests the speaker thinks the answer will fit neatly with the question; *any* is more open-ended and does not necessarily project an answer which the speaker expects:

[hostess to dinner guest at the beginning of the meal]
A: *Would you like* ***some*** *soup?*
B: *Mm, please.*
(at this point in the meal, the expectation is that the guest will want soup)

[hostess to dinner guest towards the end of the main course]
A: *Do you want* ***a y*** *more salad or anything?*
B: *No I'm full thanks Jill.*
(it is less obvious whether the guest will want more or not; the question is more open-ended.)

[in a post office; A is the postal agent, B is a customer]
A: *You want it first class. Let's just weigh it for you then. First class is fifty seven.*
B: *Is there* ***some*** *kind of recorded delivery I could send it by?*
A: *Yes, it's another fifty five.*
(the customer's expectation is that there is a recorded delivery system; compare 'Is there any kind of recorded delivery I could send it by?', which would suggest the customer is far less certain whether such a possibility exists)

539 **Glossary** for any unfamiliar terms

Because of the difference between a suggestion of agreement with the question and a more open-ended question, *some* is more common than *any* in situations where polite or friendly offers are made, especially offers of food, even though the response may be negative:

A: *Do you want* ***some*** *pudding now Chris?*
B: *No. I'll have it in a minute thank you.*

Negative interrogative clauses

Negative interrogatives with *some* and *any* are used to check the speaker's understanding of a situation.

Negative interrogatives with *some* typically indicate that speakers wish to confirm their positive expectations or assumptions about the situation:

Wasn't there ***some*** *trouble in the village last night?*
(speaker has reason to think there was, and seeks confirmation)

[speaker is sharing out a bar of chocolate]
Don't you want ***some****, Lee?*
(I would expect you to want some, please confirm)

Negative interrogatives with *any* typically indicate that speakers wish to confirm their negative expectations or assumptions about the situation:

[at the dinner table]
A: *Do you want some water? Don't you want* ***a y*** *juice?*
B: *No.*
A: *No?*
B: *Mm.*
(I sense you do *not* want juice, please confirm)

also **435c Negative interrogatives and speech acts**

No and *not a/not any* 196e

Affirmative verb + *no* is often used as a more emphatic form of negated verb + *any*:

I ca ***'t*** *see* ***a y*** *reason at all for his behaviour.*
I ***ca*** *see* ***o*** *reason at all for his behaviour.*

These two things are ***'t*** *in* ***a y*** *way connected.*
These two things ***are*** *in* ***o*** *way connected.*

When *no* + noun is used as the subject of a main clause, *not any* is not normally an alternative:

o vegetables *taste as good as ones straight from the garden.*

This, that, these, those 196f

This, *that*, *these* and *those* are the only determiners which express contrasts of number. *This* and *that* are used with singular nouns; *these* and *those* are used with plural nouns:

I saw the three students in my office ***this morning****.*

How are we going to afford ***that type*** *of accommodation?*

Those *young* ***kids*** *will cause trouble unless something is done soon.*

Conveying physical distance

The most common function of *this* and *these* is to point to things and people which are close to the speaker/writer in time and space. In general, *this* and *these* can be said to be speaker-oriented, as with *here* (A–Z 45 *Here, there*):

I like ***this hotel****, don't you?*

Will he be coming ***this Wednesday****?*

In ***this lecture*** *we shall be looking in particular at Shakespeare's History Plays.*

Have you finished with ***these newspapers****?*

You'll need ***these coins*** *for the parking ticket.*

The most common use of *that* and *those* is to refer to objects and people which may not be easily identified from the situation. *That* and *those* are used to refer to things which are more distant in time and space, even though it may be possible to see such things. In general, *that* and *those* can be said to be listener-oriented or oriented towards a third person, place or entity (A–Z 45 *Here, there* to compare *there*):

What's ***that*** *red* ***mark*** *on your face?*

The book had two endings. I prefer the second but ***that ending*** *is a bit too sentimental for me.*

Could I see ***those videos*** *on the shelf up there?*

We should move ***those chairs*** *into the corner of the room.*

In more formal styles, pronoun *that* and *those* may be complemented or postmodified:

Those of you who have registered for the course *will be able to obtain booklists from the departmental office tomorrow morning.*
(complemented)

[quote from the writer George Bernard Shaw]
Those who can*, do;* ***those who can't****, teach.*
(postmodified)

Conveying attitude

This/these and *that/those* may also express contrasts in emotional distance and can signal different attitudes. *This/these* can convey a more positive and involved attitude whereas *that/those* suggest a more detached and possibly critical attitude:

> *I love **these** new phones that you can take pictures with.*
> (can be said even if the speaker is nowhere near one of the phones referred to)
>
> *I'm not going to wear this brown sweater any more. I hate **that** colour.*
>
> *When are you going to finish **that** thesis of yours?*
>
> *I hate **those** big four-wheel-drive cars.*

Use in narratives

This and *these* are used in narratives, anecdotes, jokes and similar contexts to create a sense of immediacy and to encourage a listener or reader to become involved. In these contexts, *this/these* may be seen as highly dramatised alternatives to *a/an* and zero article/*some*:

> *Listen, there was **this** Irishman and he met **this** Englishman who was wearing a kilt, right, …*
> (compare: … there was an Irishman and he met an Englishman …)

That also has an involving function in narratives; as an alternative to *the*, it refers the listener to something familiar or known to them:

> *And we lost our way at **that** big roundabout just outside Norwich.*
> (You know the roundabout. Compare: … the big roundabout just outside Norwich …)

This for highlighting

In stories and reports, *this* is also used in order to underline or highlight that something is important:

> *One of the central planks of the government's programme is **this** new attack on long-term unemployment.*

This and *that* for identification

This and *that* are used to identify oneself or to ask the identity of other speakers, especially in telephone calls and in answerphone messages:

> *Hello, **this** is Mike calling to leave a message for David.*
>
> *Is **that** Jenny Chapman? Hello, **this** is Sarah Bennett here.*

This and *that* and discourse segments 196g

This and *that* are used to refer back to things which have already been spoken or written about and to refer forward to things which are yet to be said or written. When used in this way, both determiners signal that something significant has been said or is about to be said. *This* and *that* both refer back but *this* is more frequently used to refer forwards and *that* is generally more emphatic:

'Woodbrook' by David Thompson: ***this*** *is a novel for anyone interested in Ireland and Ireland's history.*

The whole area needs to be made a traffic-free zone. ***That****'s the problem.*

This *is the main problem. Organic foods are always going to be more expensive.*

What do you think of ***this****? We leave at 8 this evening rather than tomorrow morning.*

It can also refer back or forward to a specific noun or segment of discourse. But it is not normally used to refer in a general way and is not particularly emphatic:

A: *I seem to get so many of these sales phone calls. Do you get them?*
B: *No.*
A: ***t****'s usually double glazing firms.*
(*it* = the phone calls)

also 128 ***t, this*** **and** ***that*** **referring to segments of text; 143a Signalling with** ***it, this*** **and** ***that***

Much, many and *a lot/lots* 196h

Although *a lot of/lots of* are not determiners (they are best seen as partitive noun phrases in their own right), they are used in situations where *much* and *many* would be inappropriate.

As with weak forms *some* and *any*, *much* and *many* are used differently with different clause types.

Declaratives

Affirmative declarative clauses prefer *a lot /lots*. *Lots of* is more informal than *a lot of*. *A lot of* and *lots of* can both be used with plural count nouns and with singular non-count nouns:

lot of lots of *students get into debt.*
(preferred in informal contexts to: Many students get into debt.)

I've got ***a lot of lots of*** *work to get through today.*
(preferred to: I've got much work to get through today.)

[tutor in informal university seminar]
Compounding is one of the main forms of word formation in the Germanic languages. That is you just take ***lots of*** *words and stick them together. Erm, Joyce has an example in just before this passage actually. He has a word which he totally invents. Contransmagnificandubantangiality. And all he's done is stick* ***lots of*** *words together. You get the idea?*
(*many* would sound far too formal here)

Much and *many* do occur in affirmative declarative clauses, but only in more formal styles:

*There will be **much** competition among all those involved to hand out sweeping verdicts on history. The British will be credited (particularly by the British) with having done a splendid and disinterested job.*

*However, Lincoln itself is an area of urban land-use. This means there are **ma y** buildings tightly packed together and a large population of over 80,000 people.*

Much is more restricted than *many* in affirmative declarative clauses. For example, it is more restricted to abstract nouns such as *competition*, *controversy*, *effort*, *discussion*. *Much* as a determiner and pronoun also occurs mostly in subject position:

***uch** has been written on this topic.*
(~~They have written much on this topic.~~)

***uch** time has already been devoted to this question.*

Much and *many* are used in negative declarative clauses:

*I have **'t** got **much** room in my flat, well it's just an open-plan flat. So there's literally one room and a bathroom. And it's got a kitchen but it's all open plan. There's **ot much** space.*

*The children do play out on the Green. There are **ot ma y** places that they can go. And I don't like not having a front window so I can't see them out there.*

Many a + singular noun is used as an emphatic form with a similar meaning to *many* + plural noun, especially with time expressions:

*Oh, I've said **ma y a time** I'm going to go on a diet.*

*It's one of the most dangerous jobs in the world and the firefighters have been grossly underpaid for **ma y a decade**.*

Interrogatives

Much and *many* are used in interrogatives. There is no necessary implication that a large quantity or number are involved:

A: *Is there **much** work to do in the garden?*
B: *Yes, there's **a lot** to do.*
(~~Yes, there's much to do.~~)

A: *Were there **ma y** people at the pool?*
B: *Mm, there were **a lot of** kids there.*
(~~Mm, there were many kids there.~~)

A lot of and *lots of* are also used in interrogatives, but with more of an expectation that the quantity or number may be large:

*Were they making **a lot of** noise? Is that what kept you awake?*

*Have **lots of** people been congratulating you on your promotion?*

Negative interrogatives are more complex. Negative interrogatives with *much/many* typically seek to confirm the absence of a large quantity of something:

> ***re 't*** *there* ***ma y*** *students taking that course?*
> (It seems there are a small number of students; please confirm.)

> A: *Did you* ***ot*** *get* ***much*** *information from them?*
> B: *No.*

Negative interrogatives with *a lot/lots* typically seek to confirm the presence of a large quantity of something:

> ***re 't there lots*** *of students taking that course?*
> (It seems there are a large number of students; please confirm.)

Note that, although *much* and *many* are restricted in the syntactic environments in which they occur, *a lot/lots* are far less restricted.

A–Z **27 *it, a bit of* 50 *ittle, a little, few, a few***

Pronouns

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Pronouns

INTRODUCTION 197

Pronouns are a closed class of words. Pronouns may substitute for or stand for the references to entities which full noun phrases make:

Your boxes of photos have been delivered. ***They****'re in the kitchen.*
(used instead of repeating the noun phrase in green, to refer to the same thing)

Could ***you*** *carry* ***this*** *for* ***me****?*
(used to refer to people or things in the immediate situation: *you*, the listener; *me*, the speaker; *this*, an object in the immediate environment)

Is there ***something*** *wrong?*
(reference to a general notion, potentially realised by several noun phrases)

They*'ve got speed cameras everywhere these days so* ***you****'ve got to be careful.*
(vague, general reference to groups of people or to everyone)

The interpretation of the meaning of individual pronouns depends heavily on the context in which they occur.

Like nouns, pronouns can act as the heads of noun phrases and function as subject, object or complement of the clause, or as the complement of a preposition:

I *miss* ***you****.*
(pronoun as subject and object)

[identifying someone in a photograph]
That*'s* ***him****, there, standing behind* ***you****.*
(pronouns as subject, complement and complement of preposition)

There are several different classes of pronoun: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, reflexive pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, indefinite pronouns. Each is treated in a separate section in this chapter.

Although pronouns have noun-like characteristics, they are only rarely modified. Exceptions to this rule normally involve postmodification:

I'm talking to ***him*** *over there.*

You *in the corner. Come here please.*

Premodified examples usually involve adjectives:

Have you got a cold again? Poor ***you****.*

Oh, silly ***me****! I went to the post office and still forgot to post that letter.*

PERSONAL PRONOUNS 198

General 198a

Personal pronouns have subject and object forms:

Personal pronouns: subject and object forms

subject	object
I	*me*
you (singular/plural)	*you* (singular/plural)
he, she, it, one	*him, her, it, one*
we	*us*
they	*them*

The subject forms of personal pronouns most typically act as the subject of a clause:

***I** met a cousin of mine.*

***We**'re late again.*

198e for **'anticipatory' *it***

The object forms of personal pronouns most typically act as the object (direct and indirect) or complement in a clause or as the complement of a preposition:

*I invited **them**.*
(direct object)

*Give **him** the map.*
(indirect object)

*That's **her**. She's wearing the black beret.*
(complement in a clause)

*I left it to **them**.*
(complement of a preposition)

Personal pronouns indicate person, number and gender. *You* is used for singular and plural reference. Only *he*, *him*, *she*, *her* express gender contrasts:

Personal pronouns: person, number and gender

subject	object	person	number	gender
I	*me*	first	singular	
you	*you*	second	singular or plural	
he	*him*	third	singular	masculine
she	*her*	third	singular	feminine
it	*it*	third	singular	
one	*one*	always generic	always generic	
we	*us*	first	plural	
they	*them*	third	plural	

Personal pronouns are most typically used for backward (anaphoric) reference:

*The manager phoned me back. **He** was extremely apologetic.*

Occasionally a personal pronoun may be used to refer forward (cataphorically). Such uses are common in openings to written stories:

***She** was walking along a tree-lined suburban road, unaware of what was about to befall her. Gillian Dawson had never been very aware of the people around her.*

123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences for further examples

also **198d *He/him, she/her, they/them***

I/me 198b

I and *me* refer to the speaker/writer:

[on the phone]
*Hi Ken. It's **me**, Bob. Can **I** speak to Hilary?*
(speaker)

*In this paper, **I** challenge the dominant understanding of autonomy as 'individualism'.*
(writer)

147a *I* versus *we* for the special academic generic use of *I*

You 198c

You does not distinguish between singular and plural reference, but, in context, the reference is usually clear:

*D'**you** want some more tea, Paul?*
(singular reference)

[host to group of dinner guests]
*Would **you** come to the table now please.*
(plural reference)

You refers most frequently to the immediate addressee(s). But it can also refer more generally to any potential listener(s) or reader(s). This is especially so in advertising texts and public notices. *You* can also have generic reference (to people in general, including the speaker/writer):

*Would **you** all follow me please?*
(listeners)

[slogan of the British National Lottery]
*It could be **you**.*
(any individual addressee could be a winner)

*They do these throw-away cameras. They're about £8. **You** can get a panoramic one and **you** can get a sort of party one with a flash. And **you** can get an underwater one.*
(generic reference)

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

He/him, she/her, they/them 198d

In general, *he/him* and *she/her* are only used to refer to humans or animals. In traditional formal usage, *he/him* may occur with reference to both sexes. Increasingly, however, gender-neutral pronoun forms are preferred, such as (subject forms) *he/she*, *he or she*, *they*, or (in writing) *(s)he*, or *s/he*; (object forms) *him/her*, *him or her*, *them*:

> *A judgment by an Australian court which curtailed the powers of Senate committees prodded the Senate into reform. Now anyone who believes **he** has been injured by a senator's words can ask to have a response written into the Senate's records.*
> (traditional formal usage)

> *Any student who thinks **(s)he** has been unfairly treated can appeal.*
> (preferred neutral usage)

The use of *they/them* is particularly common when the reference involves words such as *person*, *someone*, *anyone*. It is also used in this book for gender-neutral reference:

> *How can you expect a person to remember what **they** were doing five years ago?*
> (preferred neutral usage in more informal contexts)

> [from the section on *will* in this book, 387]
> *A rarer use of will is in declarative clauses which command someone to do something or insist that **they** do something.*

also **198h *They/them***

It 198e

It is used to refer to things as well as to anything which is not obviously either a *he* or *she*:

> *The aerial on your car is broken off. Look at **it**.*

Ships, planes, vehicles and other machines (e.g. steam engines) and countries are sometimes referred to by people within the relevant field with a feminine pronoun. However, such usage is considered inappropriate by many people:

> ***She** is the finest yacht I have ever sailed.*

> *How long have you been flying **her**?*

In very formal styles, countries may be referred to with *she/her*. Again, such usage is considered inappropriate by many people:

> *In 1783, France regained Senegal, which **she** had lost at the conclusion of the Seven Years War.*

More commonly, *it* is used for countries and machines:

> *Like most European countries, France imports more food than **it** exports.*

> ***It** has proved in tests to be a quieter plane than the DC-10.*

It is also used as an empty pronoun in anticipatory structures and in references to the weather and the time, as well as more general references to situations:

> ***It**'s nice that you were able to come.*
> (anticipatory; preferred to: That you were able to come is nice.)
>
> ***It**'s raining again.*
>
> ***It**'s getting late.*
>
> *We're going to have to pay all over again. **It**'s crazy.*

211 **Anticipatory *it***

One 198f

One is rare in modern usage, especially in speech, and is confined to formal styles. It may refer to people in general including the speaker/writer, or, more rarely, as an oblique reference to the speaker/writer but excluding the listener/reader:

> [description of the facilities offered by a hotel]
> *Table tennis is on offer, and **one** can also hire bicycles.*
>
> *I don't know whether there are any aspects of the countryside that I don't like, you know. Occasionally there are horrible smells. Well, **one** doesn't like that. But on the whole I like it.*
> (oblique reference to the speaker)

A–Z 60 ***One***

We/us 198g

We/us may be used to refer to different groups of people.

- The speaker/writer(s) and the listener(s)/reader(s):

  A: *Shall **we** have lunch outside?*
  B: *Mm, yes, great idea.*

- The speaker/writer(s) and a third party or parties but excluding the listener/reader:

  A: ***We**'re having some friends around on Saturday, would you like to join **us**?*
  B: *Oh, thanks. Yes. What time?*

- People in general (generic *we*):

  *I'm sounding like a Communist now but **we** should all have the same housing. **We're** all equal. You know it's sad that there are these divisions.*

We is sometimes used with singular reference, especially by people in authority, for example by teachers to children or by medical staff when addressing patients:

> *How are **we** today, Mr Maclean? Still got chest pains?*
> (meaning: How are you today, Mr Maclean?)

also 147a ***I* versus *we* in Grammar and academic English**

They/them 198h

They is used to refer to a specific group of people, animals or things, or, generically, with vague reference to wider groups of people, bodies, institutions, authorities, etc. which exclude the speaker:

Tell your brother and sister ***they****'re always welcome to come and stay. We'd love to see* ***them****.*
(specific group of people)

[*the M25* is a motorway around London]
They*'re going to widen the M25.*
(generic reference to a body or authority – here the Highways Agency)

285f Verbs normally only followed by -*ing* for use of object/subject pronouns and -*ing* forms

PERSONAL PRONOUNS AND NOTIONS OF CORRECTNESS 199

Users of English (even highly educated users) regularly disagree about what is correct or acceptable and incorrect or unacceptable with reference to certain uses of personal pronouns. Choices often depend on whether the context is formal or informal or written or spoken. In very formal usage, subject forms of personal pronouns are used as the complement of *be* or when subject pronouns are joined with *and* or *or* (coordinated):

A: *Who's calling?*
B: *It is* ***I****.*
(not often used)

It is ***he*** *who is causing all the trouble.*
(not often used)

I *and all the family wish you well for the future.*
(formal)

Especially in informal spoken contexts, object pronouns are widely used in similar positions:

[on the phone]
A: *Who's calling?*
B: *It's* ***me****.*
(almost universally used)

It's ***him*** *that owns that red car.*
(almost universally used)

Me *and my wife always go shopping on a Saturday.*
(or: *My wife and* ***me*** *always go shopping on a Saturday*.)
(usually only found in speech)

Some pronoun forms may be used in a hypercorrect way. Hypercorrect forms occur when a speaker chooses a highly formal option and uses it universally, without reference to context. The phrase *you and I* can occur as an object and even after prepositions such as *between* and *for*, which normally demand an object pronoun:

*She **wants you and I** to be there with her.*
(hypercorrect form)

***Between you and I**, he keeps making mistakes while driving.*
(hypercorrect form)

***Between you and me**, he keeps making mistakes while driving.*
(preferred, following the rule of preposition *between* + object pronoun)

*I've taken notes **for Mike and I**.*
(hypercorrect form)

*I've taken notes **for Mike and me**.*
(preferred form: object form after a preposition)

In the case of short answers, object pronouns are used in informal contexts. In more formal contexts, subject pronouns are used along with a verb:

A: *I play the piano.*
B: ***Me** too.*
(informal)

A: *I swim regularly.*
B: *Yes, **I swim** regularly too.*
(more formal)

also **200 Personal pronouns and spoken English**

Occasionally, in very formal styles, subject personal pronouns may occur as complements in anticipatory *it* structures. However, object forms are more common in everyday usage:

*It was **she** who wanted fame, not me.*

*It was **me** who left those boxes there. Sorry.*
(typical everyday usage)

When the pronoun is both the object of a previous verb (or the complement of a preposition) and the subject of a following verb, then the object form of the pronoun is used:

*Do you want Jess or **me** to phone her?*
(~~Do you want Jess or I to phone her?~~)

*It's for **her** to choose.*
(~~It's for she to choose.~~)

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

Personal pronouns and spoken English **200**

In informal spoken English, particular patterns of personal pronoun usage can be observed.

- The structure *me and you* is heard in informal speech, but it is traditionally not considered polite for speakers to put themselves first:

  Me and you *should have a talk.*
  (preferred: You and me/You and I should have a talk.)

- *Us* is sometimes used very informally to mean *me*. It is commonly used when making requests, perhaps to soften the force of the request:

  Can you lend ***us*** *five pounds?*
  (normally: Can you lend me …)

  Give ***us*** *a kiss.*

  Could you do ***us*** *a favour? Could you give Joe a message?*

- After *as*, *like*, *than*, *but*, and *except*, subject forms are used in more formal contexts. They are normally followed by auxiliary, modal or lexical verbs:

  She does the same job ***as he does****.*
  (more formal)

  She can swim better ***than he can****.*

  We certainly work as hard ***as she works****.*

- The object forms of pronouns are used in informal contexts:

  She lives in the same house ***as him****.*

  He keeps his bedroom almost as untidy ***as me****.*

  She can swim better ***than him****.*

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS 201

General 201a

There are two classes of possessive pronoun: possessive determiners and possessive pronouns.

possessive determiner	possessive pronoun
my	*mine*
your (singular)	*yours*
his, her, its	*his, hers, its**
our	*ours*
your (plural)	*yours*
their	*theirs*
one's	*one's**

* only when complemented by (*very*) *own* (**201c** below)

Possessive determiners and independent possessive pronouns may be postmodified by *(very) own*:

It's ***his own*** *fault.*

Now that you've got ***your very own*** *flat, how does it feel?*

Possessive determiners 201b

Possessive determiners are also called possessive adjectives in some grammar books.

Possessive determiners occur before a head noun and before any modifiers in the noun phrase:

Here's ***their ticket****.*

Her final exam results *were better than expected.*

[proverb]
Don't count ***your chickens*** *before they are hatched.*

When a possessive determiner and a possessive *'s* form modify the same head noun, the possessive determiner normally comes second:

The best man at ***Jane's and my wedding*** *couldn't stop telling jokes.*

(preferred to: The best man at my and Jane's wedding …)

Possessive pronouns 201c

Possessive pronouns can stand alone as the head of a noun phrase:

Is this coat ***yours****?*

I can't believe that the house is ***ours*** *at last.*

Its and *one's* only occur as possessive pronouns when complemented by *(very) own*:

Have you given the rabbit ***its dinner*** *yet?*
(possessive determiner)

Is this cage the rabbit's? It is ***the rabbit's****, surely?*
(~~It is its, surely?~~)

A cat will use every garden except ***its own*** *as a toilet.*

It was a new sense of freedom, of a life of ***one's own****.*

A–Z **64 *Own***

also **192 *Of* + possessive pronoun after the head noun**

also **190c Possessive determiners and pronouns** for possessive determiners postmodified by *own* used pronominally

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS 202

Reflexive pronouns typically refer back to subject forms of personal pronouns. They always end in *-self* or *-selves*.

Reflexive pronouns
myself
yourself
himself, herself, itself
oneself
ourselves
yourselves
themselves

Reflexive pronouns for same subject and object

Reflexive pronouns are commonly used to refer to actions where the subject and object are the same person:

> ***He*** *hurt* ***himself*** *quite badly in the fall.*
> ('He hurt him quite badly' would mean subject *he* and object *him* were two different people)
>
> ***I****'m going to get* ***myself*** *a drink? Anyone else want one?*
>
> *When are* ***you*** *going to stop pushing* ***yourself*** *so hard?*

A reflexive pronoun is used to differentiate reference to a subject from reference to somebody else:

> *She looks very pleased with* ***herself****.*
> (reference to being pleased 'with her' would indicate reference to somebody else)
>
> ***Children*** *always hurt* ***themselves*** *when they play that game.*
>
> ***Children*** *always hurt* ***each other*** *when they play that game.*
> (one child hurts another child)

Reflexive pronouns for emphasis

Reflexive pronouns cannot occur as the subject of a clause. They may only be used in subject position as emphatic complements of subject personal pronouns:

> ***He himself*** *told me he was intending to retire.*
> (~~Himself told me he was intending to retire.~~)

Reflexive pronouns may also function to emphasise a subject or object consisting of a full noun phrase. In such cases, stress is normally on the reflexive pronoun:

> ***The Head of Department herself*** *knows that the staff are unhappy.*
>
> ***The head of the company*** *wrote to us* ***himself*** *to explain why they had been so slow in sending us the toys.*
>
> *Have* ***the children*** *paid for it* ***themselves****?*

In spoken English, the reflexive pronoun is sometimes used as a header or as a tail:

***Myself**, **I** think it's crazy.*

***He**'d prefer wine, **himself**.*

96 Headers and **97 Tails**

Reflexive pronouns for politeness

Reflexive pronouns are sometimes used instead of personal pronouns, especially to mark politeness:

*Most people were late, including **us**.*
(more informal)

*Most of the audience arrived late, including **ourselves**.*
(more formal/polite)

After *as for*, *like*, *but for*, *except for*, reflexive pronouns are particularly common, although personal pronouns are also possible in each case. The reflexive use here indicates greater politeness and deference:

*These holidays are designed for people like **yourself**, young, fancy-free and unattached.*
(or: These holidays are designed for people like you, …)

[shop assistant addressing a customer who is considering a garment]
*Is it for **yourself**?*

*As for **myself**, I haven't decided yet.*

Reflexive pronouns meaning *alone*

Reflexive pronouns, with or without the preposition *by*, are also used to mean 'alone, from one's own resources, without help':

*Did she draw that **herself**?*

*I think it would be better if you did it **yourself**.*

*He did it all **by himself**.*

*I can help until 4, then they'll have to manage **by themselves**.*

also **283c Reflexive construction**

Reflexive pronouns in other languages

In languages other than English, verbs referring to basic everyday actions often take reflexive pronouns. Such verbs are reflexive in English only if there is a reason to emphasise the action:

He got up, washed, shaved, dressed and had breakfast.
('washed himself, shaved himself, dressed himself' would mean that this is surprising because he is usually unable to do these things on his own)

*She's seven now. She's old enough to wash **herself**.*
(she doesn't need any help)

Other common verbs often used reflexively in other languages but which are not reflexive in English include *concentrate*, *feel*, *lie down*, *sit (down)*, *hurry*, *open*:

You must really ***concentrate*** *if you want to learn how to play it.*
(~~You must really concentrate yourself if you want to learn how to play it.~~)

Does she ***feel*** *sick?*
(~~Does she feel herself sick?~~)

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS 203

Reciprocal pronouns are used to indicate mutual relationships.

Reciprocal pronouns

reciprocal	reciprocal possessive
each other	*each other's*
one another	*one another's*

They are always criticising ***each other****.*

A: *They both look like* ***one another****, don't they?*
B: *So they should, they're sisters.*

Both pronouns may be used with the *'s* possessive determiner construction:

My neighbour and I are always borrowing ***one another's/each other's*** *bikes.*

These pronouns may be compared with reflexive pronouns:

We entertained ***ourselves*** *when it rained.*
(either the whole group is entertained or each member of the group entertains himself or herself)

We entertained ***each other*** *when it rained.*
(each member entertains the other members)

A–Z 34 *Each*

RELATIVE PRONOUNS 204

Relative pronouns link noun phrases to a relative clause.

Relative pronouns

who	*which*
whom	*that*
whose	

The relative pronoun *who* has an object form *whom* and a possessive form *whose*. In general *who* and *whom* are only used personally (to refer to people). *Who* is

commonly used in both object and subject functions. *Whom* is used as object or as the complement of a preposition in more formal contexts:

*That's the guy **who** sold us the tickets.*

*The minister, **who** the media had criticised, eventually resigned his post.*

*After years of drifting apart, he and Helen, **whom** he first met at art college, and **with whom** he has three children, were divorced.*

Whose is not restricted to people. Animals and things can also be referred to:

*Koalas, **whose** nocturnal habits are well known, are unique to Australia.*

*Those are the cars **whose** windows got broken.*

Which is used non-personally (to refer to animals and to things); it is not used personally:

*Why don't you just go to a city **which** is by the sea? What about Barcelona?*

That is more informal than *who* or *which* and refers to people, animals and things:

*That's the guy **that** sold us the tickets.*
(more formal: … the guy who sold us the tickets)

*Can you suggest a book **that**'s for lighter reading?*
(more formal: … a book which is for lighter reading)

That is only used in this way in defining relative clauses, not in non-defining relative clauses.

Omitting a relative pronoun in defining relative clauses is more common in informal than in formal contexts:

Here's the book you were looking for.
(or: Here's the book that/which you …)

The company we invested all that money in has been taken over.
(or: The company that/which we …)

Which can refer to a whole clause or sentence. This usage is frequent in evaluative statements. *What*, *that* and *how* are not used in this way:

*The whole office entered the fun-run marathon, **which** is pretty good for people who sit down all day.*

*They've won their last three matches, **which** I find a bit surprising actually.*

317a Types of relative clause for sentential relative clauses

Personal pronouns are not used to repeat or extend relative pronouns:

*He's the runner **who** won the 5000 metres.*
(~~He's the runner who he won the 5000 metres.~~)

*Here's the pen **that** you lent me.*
(~~Here's the pen that you lent me it.~~)

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS 205

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions.

Interrogative pronouns

who	*which*
whom	*what*
whose	

Who and *whom* are used alone as noun-phrase heads. *Whose*, *which* and *what* may be used with a noun head or may themselves act as noun-phrase heads:

***Who**'s next?*

*And **whom** does Margaret meet?*

***Whose** are these socks?*

***Which** colour do you like best?*
(interrogative pronoun used here as determiner)

***What** number did you write down?*

Who can be used in both subject and object forms. *Whom* is used in object forms and following prepositions in more formal contexts:

***Who** is your favourite footballer?*

***Who** did the prime minister promote to the cabinet?*
(or more formal: Whom did the prime minister promote to the cabinet?)

***Who** do you have most confidence **in**?*
(informal)
(or more formal: In whom do you have most confidence?)

Which can be either personal or non-personal:

***Which** is your brother's girlfriend, the one with the black jeans?*

***Which** of the juices do you prefer? Orange or pineapple and mango?*

What is only used non-personally:

*She is just about the most persistent person I've met. **What** does she want?*

What versus _which_

What is used when specific information is requested from a general or open-ended possible range. *Which* is used when specific information is requested from a restricted range of possibilities:

A: *I've got your address. **What**'s your phone number?*
B: *Oh it's 267358.*
(~~Which is your phone number?~~)
(an open-ended range of possible information)

[looking at a pile of coats]
A: ***Which*** *is your coat?*
B: *That black one.*

However, where the number of options is shared knowledge among speakers and listeners, *what* + noun is often used in informal contexts. Here, *what* is an interrogative pronoun used as a determiner:

[talking about a shop]
What side *of the street is it on, left or right?*
(or: Which side of the street is it on?)

A: *Did you see that documentary about the SARS virus last night?*
B: *No,* ***what channel*** *was it on?*
(or: Which channel was it on?)

also **427 *Wh*-questions**
292d *Wh*-interrogatives

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS 206

Demonstrative pronouns are used to point to things. The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*. *This* and *that* have singular reference; *these* and *those* have plural reference.

Demonstrative pronouns express contrasts between what is 'near' and what is 'distant', whether in space, time or emotional distance, in terms of the speaker and listener. *This* and *these* are speaker-oriented; *that* and *those* are listener-oriented:

This *is what we want, a big house with a big garden.*

[shop assistant referring to two sets of earrings, one of which she is holding (*these*) and another set which a customer is holding (*those*)]
Why don't you take ***these****?* ***Those*** *look far too large.*

190 Determiners and pronouns

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS 207

Indefinite pronouns refer to things in a general and open way. They indicate either quantity or the absence of quantity.

There are two main types of indefinite pronoun. The first type consists of compounds which have a second part: *-one*, *-body*, *-thing* linked to *any*, *some*, *no* and *every*.

Indefinite pronouns *-one, -body, -thing*

someone	*somebody*	*something*
anyone	*anybody*	*anything*
no one	*nobody*	*nothing*
everyone	*everybody*	*everything*

207a *-one, -body, -thing*

The second type is a much larger group of determiners which can be used as pronouns and which can be followed by an *of* construction:

a few	*few*	*most*
a little	*fewer*	*much*
all	*fewest*	*neither*
another	*least*	*none*
any	*less*	*numerals* (cardinal and ordinal)
both	*little*	*one*
each	*many*	*several*
either	*more*	*some*

also **190 Determiners and pronouns,** for further examples of these words used as pronouns

All *are waiting outside the bus station.*

Many *apply to join but* ***few*** *are chosen.*

You want tickets for the concert. Right, well, ***most*** *of them have gone already, I'm afraid.*

Neither *of them has the right qualifications.*

Cardinal and ordinal numbers can be used as indefinite pronouns:

I was woken at ***six*** *every morning by those birds.*

The mortar bomb hit the main hospital building, leaving ***twenty two*** *seriously injured.*

Jane, ***the third*** *of our children, is the brightest.*

also **194 Numerals**

A–Z **12 *All*; 28 *Both*; 34 *Each***

A–Z **12 *All*** for further distinctions between *all* and *all of*

-one, -body, -thing **207a**

There are no significant differences in meaning between indefinite pronouns ending in *-one* and those ending in *-body*. However, *somebody*, *anybody*, *nobody* are used more frequently in informal contexts.

When used as subjects, these indefinite pronouns take a singular, not a plural verb. *Somebody* and *someone* normally only refer to one person:

Does anyone *want a lift?*
(~~Do anyone want a lift?~~)

Is nobody *interested?*

Someone has *left a message for you.*

However, when pronouns are used to refer to these words, plural forms are commonly used:

If ***anybody*** *knocks at the door, tell* ***them*** *I'm out.*

You'll have to tell ***them*** *I'm busy if* ***anyone*** *calls.*

Nobody *resigned, did* ***they****?*

Someone *has lost* ***their*** *ticket.*

Although indefinite pronouns are most commonly used for vague and general reference, *somebody/someone* and *anybody/anyone* can have both general and specific reference:

Will ***somebody*** *be there to meet you at the airport?*
(specific)

Somebody *isn't telling the truth.*
(general)

I didn't see ***anybody****.*
(specific)

Anyone *can learn to play the guitar, if they work at it.*
(general)

The pronouns *someone/somebody*, *something* and *anyone/anybody*, *anything* are distinguished in similar ways to the determiners *some* and *any* (196d). For example, *someone/somebody* is more assertive and is used in questions in which the speaker thinks that the answer will follow neatly from the question. The pronouns *anyone/anybody* are more open-ended and when used in questions do not anticipate a particular answer:

Has your mum bought you ***something*** *for the journey?*

Do you want to buy ***anything****?*

Hasn't ***anyone*** *called a taxi?*

Something and *anything* can be used to ask negative questions. They contrast in meaning:

Didn't she contribute ***something*** *to the appeal?*
(suggests that she probably did)

Didn't she contribute ***anything*** *to the appeal?*
(indicates greater uncertainty)

The indefinite pronouns *no one* (which is also written *no-one*) and *nobody* are more definite than *not anyone* or *not anybody*. *Anyone* and *anybody* are used in conjunction with uses of *nothing*:

I heard that ***no one*** *said a good word about the trip.*

*I did****n't*** *hear* ***anybody*** *say a good word about the trip.*

Nothing ***anybody*** *says is accurate.*
(~~Nothing somebody says is accurate.~~)

196b–196d for fuller discussion of *some* and *any*

A–Z **38** ***Every*** for discussion of the determiner *every*, which is included mainly for purposes of contrast with *each*, but which also contains examples of the use of the indefinite pronouns *everything* and *everyone*.

WHATEVER, WHOEVER, WHICHEVER 208

Whatever, *whoever* and *whichever* can be used as pronouns, especially in speech:

*Take **whatever** you want.*

*If I talk to an Irish person or **whoever**, my accent changes.*

A: *Which one shall I get for you?*
B: ***Whichever**. I don't mind.*

In formal use (and often in proverbial expressions) a subject personal pronoun + *who* may be used instead of *whoever*. More commonly, *whoever* or *the person who* are used:

***He who** hesitates is lost.*

*Will **whoever** borrowed my dictionary please return it to my office?*
(or: Will the person who borrowed my dictionary please return it to my office?)

317c *Who* and *whom*

SUBSTITUTE *ONE* 209

Substitute *one* has a plural form *ones*:

*Which **one** would you like?*

*Which **ones** are you taking with you?*

123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences

EMPTY *IT* AND EXISTENTIAL *THERE* 210

The so-called empty *it* and existential *there* do not refer to any object or entity. They are used as dummy subject forms (since a subject is required in non-imperative clauses) and refer generally to situations:

***It**'s very hot today, isn't it.*
(empty *it* used for weather, time and general references to situations)

***It** looks as if the shop's closed early.*

***It** seems as though we might have misjudged her.*

***It**'s time to call a halt to all the arguing.*

***It**'s no use complaining.*

***There** were a lot of people in the town centre.*

***There**'s something I want to talk to you about.*

ANTICIPATORY *IT* 211

If an infinitive or a *that*-clause is the subject of a sentence, *it* is often used as a preparatory or anticipatory subject:

***It**'s been nice to meet you.*
('To meet you has been nice' is unusual and, at the least, very formal indeed)

***It**'s silly to let such things upset you.*
(preferred to: To let such things upset you is silly.)

***It** was a great shame that they arrived late and missed the start of the play.*
(preferred to the more formal: That they arrived late and missed the start of the play was a great shame.)

It can also be used as a preparatory or anticipatory subject when the subject of the clause is an *-ing* form:

***It**'s no trouble meet**ing** them at the station.*

It can also be used as a preparatory object:

*I consider **it** a compliment getting such a positive response from him.*
(preferred to: I consider getting such a positive response from him a compliment.)

*He made **it** very difficult to like him and his sister.*

It is also used in cleft constructions:

***It** was Sunita who reported them to the police.*
(Sunita, not Jane)

475c Cleft sentences

128a *It, this* and *that* referring to segments of text

ARCHAIC FORMS 212

Some older forms of second person singular pronouns such as *thou*, *thee*, *thy*, *thyself*, *thine* are only found in religious texts, in poetry and in some dialects of English. In contemporary English the equivalents are:

thou : *you* (subject)

thee : *you* (object)

thy : *your*

thyself : *yourself*

thine : *yours*

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

Verb phrase 1: structure of verb phrases

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Verb phrase 1: structure of verb phrases

SIMPLE VERB PHRASES 213

Affirmative

A simple verb phrase has just one verb, which is a lexical verb indicating an action, event or state. The lexical verb shows tense (present or past) and clause type (declarative, imperative or subjunctive:

*She **lives** opposite me.*
(declarative present, affirmative)

*They **took** it home with them.*
(declarative past, affirmative)

***Take** a seat.*
(imperative, affirmative)

*I insist that she **come** along.*
(subjunctive, affirmative)

Interrogative and negative

Simple verb phrases are not used to form interrogatives or negatives. Interrogatives and negatives are complex verb phrases (214), in which auxiliary *do* must be used:

***Do** you **know** Shirley's number?*
(interrogative)
(~~Know you Shirley's number?~~)

*Going up to university just **does not appeal** to me.*
(negative declarative)
(~~Going up to university just not appeals to me.~~)

***Don't tell** Brian.*
(negative imperative)
(~~Tell not Brian.~~)

Be and *have* used as lexical verbs are exceptions, forming negatives and interrogatives using simple verb phrases:

***Are** you ready?*
(lexical verb *be*: interrogative)

***Has** she **not** a right to be jealous?*
(lexical verb *have*: interrogative and negative)

COMPLEX VERB PHRASES 214

Elements of complex verb phrases 214a

A complex verb phrase may include one or a combination of the following structures:

- Auxiliary or modal verb + lexical verb:

  *I **do like** pizza.*
  (emphatic auxiliary *do*)

  *I **can't take** any more.*
  (modal *can*)

  Only one modal verb may occur in a verb phrase:

  *He'**ll be able** to get a lift.*
  (~~He will can get a lift.~~)

378 Modal forms for a full list of modal verbs

- Perfect aspect (auxiliary *have* + *-ed* participle of lexical verb):

  *We'**ve talked** about that.*

- Progressive aspect (auxiliary *be* + *-ing* participle of lexical verb):

  *Tears **were rolling** down my face.*

- Passive voice (auxiliary *be* + *-ed* participle of lexical verb):

  *A Laurel and Hardy film **was banned**.*

Ordering of elements in complex verb phrases 214b

The table shows (from left to right) how the different elements that may occur in complex verb phrases are ordered. The elements are labelled 1 to 5.

The maximum number of different elements is five, but to find all five in one verb phrase is extremely rare.

Ordering of elements in complex verb phrases

			1	2	3	4	5
examples	A	*it*	*might*				*rain*
	B	*she*		*has*			*arrived*
	C	*they*			*were*		*working*
	D	*Jamie*		*had*	*been*		*looking*
	E	*it*	*might*	*have*		*been*	*used*
	F	*we*	*may*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*followed*
type of verb			**modal verb**	**perfect auxiliary *have***	**progressive auxiliary *be***	**passive auxiliary *be***	**lexical verb**
ordering principles			must be followed by base form	must be followed by *-ed* participle	must be followed by *-ing* participle	must be followed by *-ed* participle	
meaning			verb phrase has modal meaning	verb phrase has perfect aspect	verb phrase has progressive aspect	verb phrase is passive voice	

The ordering principles in the table mean that if, for example, there is just a modal verb + the lexical verb, the base form of the lexical verb must be used (example **A** in the table). If the modal is followed by auxiliary *have* and a lexical verb, then the next auxiliary or the lexical verb must be in the *-ed* participle form (example **E**).

Example A consists of (**1**) modal verb (*might*) + (**5**) base form.

Example B consists of (**2**) auxiliary verb (*has*) + (**5**) *-ed* participle.

Example C consists of (**3**) auxiliary verb (*were*) + (**5**) *-ing* participle.

Example D consists of (**2**) and (**3**) two auxiliary verbs (*had* + *been*) + (**5**) *-ing* participle.

Example E consists of (**1**) modal verb (*might*) + (**2**) and (**4**) two auxiliary verbs (*have* + *been*) + (**5**) *-ed* participle.

Example F consists of (**1**) modal verb (*may*) + (**2**) and (**3**) and (**4**) three auxiliary verbs (*have* + *been* + *being*) + (**5**) *-ed* participle.

Here are further examples of ordered combinations of the elements. The numbers refer to the table opposite:

combination	example
modal + progressive	*I **might be seeing** Bob.* 1 3 5
modal + perfect	*They **should have finished** a long time ago.* 1 2 5
modal + passive	*If I **may be allowed** to say so, …* 1 4 5
perfect + progressive	*Two men **had been plotting** to rob the train.* 2 3 5
progressive + passive	*We**'re being fooled**.* 3 4 5
perfect + passive	*I**'ve been asked** to write this report.* 2 4 5
modal + perfect + progressive	*She **must have been talking** to Anthea.* 1 2 3 5
modal + perfect + passive	*But, I mean, I **could have been killed**.* 1 2 4 5
modal + progressive + passive	*The nucleic acid **may be being reproduced** in the nucleus …* 1 3 4 5
perfect + progressive + passive	*It**'s been being repaired** for the last two years.* 2 3 4 5

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Indication of person and number 214c

The first element of the verb phrase indicates person (first, second or third) and number (singular or plural). However, modal verbs do not show person or number.

Verb phrases indicating person and number

example	person and number	example subject pronouns
work	first person singular or plural	*I, we*
	second person singular or plural	*you*
	third person plural	*they*
works	third person singular	*he, she, it, one*
have worked	first person singular or plural	*I, we*
	second person singular or plural	*you*
	third person plural	*they*
has worked	third person singular	*he, she, it, one*
was working	first person singular	*I*
	third person singular	*he, she, it, one*
were working	first person plural	*we*
	second person singular or plural	*you*
	third person plural	*they*
will work	no person or number indicated	any subject pronoun

Indication of tense 214d

The first element of the verb phrase indicates tense (present or past). Modal verbs do not show tense.

Verb phrases indicating tense

example	tense
look	present
has *spoken*	present
lifted	past
were *laughing*	past
might *break*	no tense

380b Modal verbs and tenses for historical tense contrasts between *can/could*, *shall/should*, *will/would* and *may/might*.

TENSED AND NON-TENSED VERB PHRASES 215

General 215a

Tensed verb forms indicate whether a verb is present or past tense. The *-s* form and the past form of the verb are tensed forms.

The *-ing* participle and the *-ed* participle are non-tensed forms.

The base form may be tensed or non-tensed. When it has a subject, it is tensed (and is called the present form); when it is used as the infinitive form (with or without *to*), it is non-tensed.

Verb phrases which begin with a tensed verb form are tensed verb phrases. They must have a subject, except when they are in the imperative. Verb phrases with modal verbs are treated as tensed (215b, below). Verb phrases which begin with a non-tensed verb form are non-tensed verb phrases. Examples are given in the table.

Examples of tensed and non-tensed verb phrases

	examples	comments
tensed	***I hate*** *carrots.*	first person singular, present tense
	She was *very nice.*	third person singular, past tense
	We spoke *a few months ago.*	first person plural, past tense
	They may get *here by six o'clock.*	modal verb phrase
non-tensed	***Pointing*** *at my forehead, he asked if I had been fighting.*	*-ing* participle; no person, tense or number indicated
	Accompanied *by Professor Saito, she strode round the island.*	*-ed* participle form; no person, tense or number indicated
	To get *there, you take the lift to the third floor.*	base form used as infinitive with *to*; no person, tense or number indicated

Non-tensed verb phrases 215b

Although non-tensed verb phrases do not indicate tense, person or number and usually do not have a subject, their person, tense, etc. are normally understood in relation to items in the main clause:

> ***Waking*** *up in the middle of the night,* ***he*** *will jot down thoughts on a complicated case.*
> (assumed to mean: when he wakes up in the middle of the night)

> ***Introduced*** *last year by the Ministry of Health,* ***the ban*** *forbade doctors to perform the operation.*
> (assumed to mean: the ban was introduced last year)

Core modal verbs do not occur in non-tensed verb phrases. However, the modal expressions *be able to* and *have to* may occur in non-tensed verb phrases:

> ***Being able to*** *run fast is what you miss as you get older.*

> *It's not nice* ***having to*** *get up at five o'clock in the morning.*

Non-tensed verb forms 215c

-ing participle

-ing participle non-tensed verb phrases may be simple phrases:

> *Please listen carefully to all the options before* ***making*** *your choice.*

> ***Buying*** *from Save the Children's gift catalogue is easy.*

Complex *-ing* participle verb phrases may occur with perfect aspect or with passive voice or a combination of both. They are more frequent in writing and in formal styles than in informal speech:

Having finished *her breakfast, she pushed her plate noisily across the table and the waitress appeared.*
(perfect aspect)

He was released from prison in 1958, after ***being pardoned*** *by West Germany's president, Theodor Heuss.*
(passive voice)

Having been asked *a few times before to do it and said no, I can't say no this time.*
(perfect aspect and passive voice)

Progressive aspect does not occur in non-tensed *-ing* participle verb phrases:

Living *on my own, I don't cook very often.*
(~~Being living on my own, I don't cook very often.~~)

-ed participle

-ed participles may occur as simple (non-tensed) phrases:

Danzig (Gdansk) became a 'free city', ***linked*** *by a customs union to the new Polish state, which also gained Upper Silesia, a major industrial area.*

In complex phrases, they combine with the *-ing* participle and *to*-infinitive forms of *be* and *have* to create passive voice and perfect aspect, or a combination of both:

Being consulted *on the matter would have been nice too.*
(passive)

To be forced *to leave, be rejected by his own people, must have been a double blow.*
(passive)

Having written *so many letters and not got an answer, I'm not sure it's worth writing another one.*
(perfect)

To have worked *so hard and then to have that done to them overnight!*
(perfect)

Having been fired *only the day before for not doing any work, I was eager to appear busy.*
(perfect and passive)

It was petty of me, I know, ***to have been irritated*** *by such a fellow, but I was.*
(perfect and passive)

To-infinitive

To-infinitives may occur as simple non-tensed phrases:

To cope *with the extra traffic caused by the university, a new £7-million road bridge will be built over the River Witham.*

They may also be used with *be* and the *-ed* participle as passive voice phrases:

> ***To be deprived*** *of even one hour of sleep was another step towards total exhaustion and collapse.*

They also occur with *have* and the *-ed* participle to indicate perfect aspect:

> ***To have got*** *the 8 o'clock flight would have meant getting up at 4.30.*

They also occur with the *-ing* participle to indicate progressive aspect:

> *How cruel* ***to be having*** *it now, when it was too late.*

Combinations of these structures may also be found:

> *Well I've heard they're supposed* ***to be being pulled down****.*
> (progressive and passive)
>
> *And you felt that she ought* ***to have been informed*** *about that?*
> (perfect and passive)
>
> *Whales and other marine animals are thought* ***to have been being killed*** *as a result of the military tests.*
> (perfect, progressive and passive)

CATENATIVE VERB PHRASES (*SEEM TO*, *MANAGE TO*) 216

Meaning

A catenative verb phrase is one which includes a verb such as *appear to*, *come to*, *fail to*, *get to*, *happen to*, *manage to*, *seem to* and *tend to* with a lexical verb. These verbs have meanings similar to some of the modal verbs or meanings similar to those indicated by aspect choices. However, unlike modal and auxiliary verbs, they behave like lexical verbs in that they construct their complex forms with auxiliary *do*, *be* and *have*.

The catenative verbs express modal meanings, indicating whether something is probable or certain, and aspectual meanings, indicating whether something is achieved or completed:

> *'You* ***appear to be*** *a man of many parts,' she said.*
> (could also be expressed with a modal adverb such as: You are probably a man of many parts.)
>
> *Do you* ***happen to know*** *Suzie's number?*
>
> *He* ***didn't manage to get*** *Anna on the telephone.*
> (He wasn't able to/couldn't get Anna on the telephone.)
>
> *We* ***seem to have been*** *this way before.*
>
> *We don't* ***tend to go*** *to London very often.*

The quasi-modal meanings of catenative verbs may be illustrated by the fact that they can be removed without any major change to the meaning:

*Do you **happen to know** Suzie's number?*
(or: Do you know Suzie's number?)

*Do you **happen to have** a spare pen?*
(or: Do you have a spare pen?)

*We don't **tend to go** to London very often.*
(or: We don't go to London very often.)

In the case of *fail to*, a simple negative may be substituted:

*The package **failed to arrive** on time.*
(The package did not arrive on time.)

However, non-catenative lexical verbs cannot be removed in this way without major changes to meaning:

*I often **long to change** my job.*
(compare: I often change my job.)

285a where non-catenative lexical verbs which are followed by the *to*-infinitive are dealt with

Passive
Catenative verbs do not occur in the passive. Voice is indicated in the verbs following the catenative verb:

*Large sums **appear to have been removed** from the fund without adequate explanation.*
(~~Large sums have been appeared to remove from the fund …~~)

*England's market-led success in the last century, for example, **failed to be matched** in equally market-oriented Ireland.*
(~~England's market-led success in the last century, for example, was failed to match …~~)

Progressive aspect

Progressive aspect may sometimes be indicated on the catenative verb itself, and sometimes on the lexical verb which follows it. The table below shows which verbs allow one or both of the options. In cases where both options are possible, the more frequent is marked with (+).

Examples of progressive aspect in catenative verb phrases

	indicated on catenative verb	indicated on lexical verb
appear to	no	*The mood **appears to be changing** slightly.*
fail to	*Leeds University professor Robin Alexander said the latest methods **were failing to teach** children properly.*	no
get to	*I'**m getting to know** Damien better.*	no
happen to	no	*I hope you don't mind. I **happened to be passing** and I used to live here once.*
manage to	*I think it's remarkable that we'**re managing to keep** in touch.* (+)	*Some students even **manage to be 'working** on a play' for their entire three years at university without anyone ever actually seeing so much as a page.*
seem to	*The university **were** hanging on and **seeming to think** the changes would not happen.*	*You **seem to be losing** weight rapidly.* (+)
*tend to**	*Outside London, where jobs are scarce, they **are tending to accept** lower pay rather than fewer staff.*	*It's a bit infuriating cos you **tend to be paying** the Post Office a lot of extra money, or British Telecom.*

* Occurrences of *tend to* with progressive aspect are infrequent in either combination.

Perfect aspect

Perfect aspect may also be indicated on the catenative verb itself or on the lexical verb. The table below shows which verbs allow one or both of the options. In cases where both options are possible, the more frequent is marked with (+).

Examples of perfect aspect in catenative verb phrases

	indicated on catenative verb	indicated on lexical verb
appear to	*The furore surrounding Mr Harvey **had appeared to threaten** East 17's commercial future.*	*He **appeared to have forgotten** I was there.* (+)
fail to	*Sam's team **had failed to get** through the first round and faced a humiliating defeat at the hands of the African team.* (+)	*Add the kind of guilt most people will feel about **failing to have provided** enough protection, or being responsible for an accident, and you have a very dangerous cocktail of traumas to adjust to.*
get to	*By then I **had got to know** David quite well.*	no
happen to	*… Julia, who **had happened to pop** in unexpectedly at precisely the wrong moment, looking for a packet of cigarettes …*	*But she **happens to have gone** off for the weekend with friends.* (+)
manage to	*They **had managed to have** a quick coffee together on the last day of term.*	no
seem to	*Robert **hadn't seemed to need** him of late, and it had annoyed him.*	*It **seems to have worked**.* (+)
tend to	*It's something we **have tended to try** and focus on.* (+)	*If we're lucky enough to own our own homes, we **tend to have borrowed** either our first mortgage or sometimes a second against it.*

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Verb phrase 2: tense and aspect

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Verb phrase 2: tense and aspect

INTRODUCTION 217

English verb phrases give information of different kinds. Verb phrases indicate: tense, which gives information about time, e.g. *I speak* (present tense) versus *I spoke* (past tense); aspect, which gives information about the speaker's perspective on time, e.g. *I spoke* (simple aspect) versus *I was speaking* (progressive aspect); voice, whether active (e.g. *She destroyed it*) or passive (e.g. *It was destroyed*), which gives information about agents and recipients of verb processes. This chapter deals with contrasts between the different tenses (present and past), and the different aspects (progressive and perfect). Voice is dealt with in **476–487 The passive**.

Progressive (also known as continuous) aspect is formed with auxiliary verb *be* + the *-ing* participle of a lexical verb. Perfect aspect is formed with auxiliary verb *have* + the *-ed* participle form of a lexical verb.

Although English does not have a future tense, the term 'future' is often used to refer to modal and aspect combinations, such as 'future perfect' (e.g. ***I will have studied*** *for three hours by the time I finish.*) or 'future progressive' (*She* ***will be arriving*** *tomorrow.*).

Tense and aspect are combined in the verb phrase. The tense is shown on the first verb in the verb phrase (unless it is a modal). All subsequent verbs have non-tensed forms (*-ing* participle, *-ed* participle, or infinitive). A verb phrase may include both aspects, progressive and perfect.

Examples of aspect in present and past tense

aspect	present tense	past tense
progressive	*Why* ***is*** *he smil**ing** like that?*	*Why* ***was*** *he smil**ing** like that?*
perfect	*They* ***have*** *chang**ed** the time.* (*have* is present)	*They* ***had*** *chang**ed** the time.* (*had* is past)
perfect and progressive combined	*He* ***has*** ***been*** *do**ing** some research.*	*He* ***had*** *been do**ing** some research.*

The perfect auxiliary *have* comes before the progressive auxiliary *be* when the two are combined:

perfect progressive
He | ***has*** | ***been*** *work**ing*** | *on Mrs Green's case for almost six years.*
(~~He is having worked on Mrs Green's case …~~)

214b Ordering of elements in complex verb phrases

TENSE 218

English verbs can show two tenses, present and past. Examples are given in the table overleaf.

Examples of present and past tenses

verb form	tense
*I **work** here.*	present
*She **is** working in London.*	present
*They **have** left.*	present
*We **worked** all day.*	past
*I **was** working in the garden.*	past
*It **had** worked well.*	past

The marking of tense on irregular verbs often involves internal sound changes (e.g. *sit–sat*, *speak–spoke*).

529 Appendix: Irregular verbs

Present tenses are mostly concerned with talking about present time, and past tenses are mostly concerned with talking about past time.

The present tense forms are also used to talk about other kinds of time, especially the future. Present tense forms can also refer to the past. This is particularly true of narratives, where past events may be recounted partly or wholly in the present tense (for example, jokes are often told entirely in present tense). This is sometimes referred to as the 'historic present'. Examples of present tense forms with future and past reference are given in the table below.

Examples of present tense forms referring to future and past time

example	tense	time referred to
*They **are** com**ing** to see you next weekend, I gather.*	present	future time (362)
*Her daughter **finishes** school tomorrow evening.*	present	future time (369)
*And his mum **says**, 'Homework never killed anybody,' and then he said, 'No, and I'm not going to be the first.'*	present	the past (frequently used for dramatising speech reporting in spoken stories, 360e)
*Emma, this friend of mine, brought out these photographs of the family through the years and he**'s** look**ing** at them, and he said 'Oh!'*	present	the past (frequently used for dramatising important events in spoken stories, 360a)

The past tense forms are also used to refer to present time, especially for reasons of politeness or indirectness. This is because the past tense distances an event from the present, and distancing an event can make it more indirect. Examples are given in the table below.

Examples of past tense forms referring to present time

example	tense	time referred to
A: *I wonder**ed** if you **felt** it would make a difference if more people wrote or telephoned or said what they thought.* B: *Well yes.*	past	present time
[customer on the telephone to a travel agent] *We **were** wondering about going to Amsterdam. We **were** wanting to stay in tents or in a caravan or in a bed and breakfast to see what the different prices **were**.*	past	present time

As can be seen in the table above, past tense may combine with progressive aspect (*we were wondering/we were wanting*) to further emphasise politeness, indirectness or tentativeness.

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THE PRESENT SIMPLE 219

The present simple is formed using the present tense form of a lexical verb (the same as the base form) for all persons except third person singular. Third person singular is formed by adding *-s* or *-es* to the base form.

The present simple: formation

1st and 2nd person singular/plural, 3rd person plural	3rd person singular	3rd person inflection
I/you/we/they/the children ***talk*** *a lot.*	*He/she/it/one/the child* ***talks*** *a lot.*	in most verbs *-s* is added to base form
I/you/we/they/the children ***worry*** *about it.*	*He/she/it/the child* ***worries*** *about it.*	verbs ending in consonant + *y*: *y* changes to *i*, and *-es* is added to base form
I/you/we/they/the children ***miss*** *her.*	*He/she/it/the child* ***misses*** *her.*	verbs ending in *s*, *z*, *ch*, *sh* or *x*: *-es* is added to base form

For a small number of verbs ending in a single *-s*, variations are possible in which the *-s* is doubled:

To focus: *He/she/it* ***focuses*** *(or* ***focusses****) on the problem of unemployment.*
To bus: *The primary school* ***buses*** *(or* ***busses****) children in from miles around.* (brings them in a bus)
To bias: *The question* ***biases*** *(or* ***biasses****) people against voting 'yes'.*

There are also some other special cases of spelling and/or pronunciation:

be
I ***am***
you/we/they ***are***
he/she/it ***is***

do
I/you/we/they do
he/she/it ***does*** (/dʌz/)

say
I/you/we/they say
He/she/it ***says*** (/sez/)

have
I/you/we/they have
he/she/it ***has***

go
I/you/we/they go
he/she/it ***goes***

The declarative and interrogative forms of the present simple are shown in the table overleaf.

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The present simple: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
I/you/we/they ***work***.	*I/you/we/they* ***don't work***. (informal) *I/you/we/they* ***do not work***. (more formal)	***Do*** *I/you/we/they* ***work***?	***Don't*** *I/you/we/they* ***work***? (informal) ***Do*** *I/you/we/they* ***not work***? (more formal)
He/she/it/one ***works***.	*He/she/it/one* ***doesn't work***. (informal) *He/she/it one* ***does not work***. (more formal)	***Does*** *he/she/it/one* ***work***?	***Doesn't*** *he/she/it/one* ***work***? (informal) ***Does*** *he/she/it/one* ***not work***? (more formal)

THE PAST SIMPLE 220

Regular verbs form the past simple by adding *-ed* to the base form:

*The flight last**ed** ten hours and we land**ed** at 6.30 in the morning.*

*We talk**ed** for hours on the phone.*

Negative and interrogative forms are constructed with auxiliary *did*.

The past simple: affirmative, negative and interrogative forms

affirmative	negative	interrogative
*I miss**ed** it.*	*I* ***did not/didn't*** *miss it.*	***Did*** *I miss it?* ***Didn't*** *I miss it?* *(informal)* ***Did*** *I* ***not*** *miss it?* *(more formal)*
*He look**ed** well.*	*He* ***did not/didn't*** *look well.*	***Did*** *he look well?* ***Didn't*** *he look well?* *(informal)* ***Did*** *he* ***not*** *look well?* *(more formal)*

For irregular verbs, the past simple form is the second of the three parts of a verb, which are usually listed as base form – past form – *-ed* participle.

Irregular verbs

base form	past form	*-ed* participle
see	***saw***	*seen*
take	***took***	*taken*
put	***put***	*put*

*I **saw** her earlier.*

*She **took** it home yesterday.*

529 Appendix: Irregular verbs for a list of irregular verbs

Negative and interrogative past simple forms of irregular verbs are formed in the same way as with regular verbs, using auxiliary *did* + the base form:

*I didn't **eat** my lunch.*
(~~I didn't ate my lunch.~~)

*What did he **sing** for you?*
(~~What did he sang for you?~~)

508e Rule 5: Spelling of verb forms and -*ed* forms

TYPES OF TIME REFERENCE 221

The types of time that the verb forms may refer to are quite complex. For example, the present tense forms may refer to a variety of different types of time. A wide range of references is made possible by combining the present tense with progressive aspect (*be* + *-ing*) and/or perfect aspect (*have* + *-ed* participle). The same applies to past time references. Examples are given in the table below.

Examples of tenses for a variety of time references

example	type of time reference
*This soup **tastes** nice.*	the actual moment of speaking ('present time')
*Come on! I**'m waiting** for you.*	the actual moment of speaking ('present time')
*I **work** in a big office.*	time around the moment of speaking ('present time')
*He **is getting** old.*	time around the moment of speaking ('present time')
*Water **freezes** at zero degrees Celsius.*	general time, always true (in this book included in 'present time')
*We **leave** for Italy next week.*	the future, based on a present arrangement or fact (in this book dealt with under 'future time')
*He **is leaving** London tomorrow.*	the future, based on a present fact or already made decision (in this book dealt with under 'future time')
*I said 'You all right, Bill?' He **says**, 'Give me a cigarette.'*	the past, reporting what was said (in this book, dealt with under 'past time')
*She **has aged** a lot. She doesn't look well.*	time beginning in the past and continuing till now (in this book dealt with under 'past time')
*I**'ve been working** hard.*	time beginning in the past and continuing till now (in this book dealt with under 'past time')
*They**'d sold** the house some years before.*	time beginning in the past and continuing till a point in the past (in this book dealt with under 'past time')
*I**'d been swimming** so my hair was wet.*	time beginning in the past and continuing till a point in the past (in this book dealt with under 'past time')

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- Present time may be seen as the moment of speaking or writing, or the idea of 'time around now', or the more general, permanent time relating to truths and general facts.
- References to present time are made through the simple and progressive forms of the present tense. However, some references to present time may be made using past tense forms (343).
- Past time refers to an earlier time separated from the present. References to past time are usually made with the past tenses (past simple, past progressive, past perfect). However, some past time references may be made using present tense forms (360).
- Future time refers to time after the present, either separated from the present, or seen as starting from the present and continuing forward. References to future time may be made with modal verbs (e.g. *will*, *shall*, *may*) or with the present tense forms (362 and 369).
- References to time beginning in the past and continuing until now are usually made with the present perfect forms, which are dealt with under past time (351–354).
- References to time beginning in an earlier past and continuing until a determined point in the past are usually made with the past perfect forms, which are dealt with under past time (355–357).

ESTABLISHING THE TIME FRAME 222

Explicit time frame

The time frame for the choice of verb tense can be established by the presence of an adjunct or an adverbial clause.

Examples of adjunct or adverbial clause to establish time frame

example	time frame
They're travelling through Italy ***at the moment****.*	present time
She's arriving in Bogota ***next week****.*	future time
Her daughter finishes school ***tomorrow evening****.*	future time
She started ***last Monday****.*	past time
Plymouth has changed ***in the last few years****.*	time leading up to the moment of speaking
His mother had died ***years previously****.*	time before a point in the past
I've known Jill ***since I came here in about 1975****.*	time leading up to the moment of speaking
I really didn't even concentrate on it ***when I was doing it****.*	past time

Implicit time frame

The time frame may be implicit or already established, and simply understood in the context.

Examples of implicit time frame

example	form	implicit time frame
*Why **is** he **smiling** like that?*	present progressive	present time (moment of speaking)
*I think you've probably got the wrong number. What number **did** you **dial**?*	simple past	past time (you dialled at some point separated from the moment of speaking)
*Ben**'s moving** to Manchester so he's selling his house.*	present progressive	future time (he will move at some point soon)
A: ***Have** you **rung** dad?* B: *No, not yet.*	present perfect	time leading up to the moment of speaking, during which you may have rung
*I told her **I'd invited** you.*	past perfect	time before a point in the past (before I told her)

ASPECT AND MEANING 223

Aspect refers to the speaker's/writer's perspective on the time of an event.

In English, aspect is concerned mainly with how the speaker perceives the duration of events, and how different events relate to one another in time.

An event may be referred to in different ways, even though the point in time when it occurs may be unchanged. For example, the same event in the past can be referred to by either the past simple or the present perfect, depending on the speaker's perception of the importance or relevance of an event:

A: *They**'ve sold** their house there, you know.*
B: *Oh have they. Where have they gone?*
A: *Oh she's a bit fed up really. They **sold** the house because he wants a job up north.*

The speaker uses perfect aspect (*have sold*) to announce the news of the house sale (a typical use of the present perfect to mark 'newsworthiness') but then uses the past simple (*sold*) when expanding on the details, even though both verbs refer to the same event.

The choice of aspect may also reflect an emphasis on whether an event was long-lasting or just a point in time. It may also reflect whether it is to be seen as temporary or permanent, whether it is/was already in progress when something else happened, whether it is generally or always the case, whether it happens regularly, etc.

English has two aspects: progressive (sometimes called continuous) aspect and perfect aspect.

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PROGRESSIVE ASPECT 224

With progressive aspect, the focus is principally on the duration of the event. It may therefore be used to indicate that something is ongoing, unfinished, or that it is extended but temporary. It may indicate that something is/was/will be already in progress when something else happens/happened. In other words, the focus is not on the starting or finishing point of an event, but on the event as seen from its centre. Examples are given in the table below.

Progressive aspect involves the use of auxiliary *be* and the *-ing* form of a lexical verb.

Examples of progressive aspect

	example	form	type of duration
1	[on the telephone] *It's about half past two and* ***I'm approaching*** *Lyon.*	present progressive	an ongoing process at the moment of speaking
2	[*MP* = Member of Parliament] *He* ***has been doing*** *some research for an MP for about a year.*	present perfect progressive	continuing from a year ago till now and possibly into the future
3	*My knees* ***were shaking****.*	past progressive	an ongoing process at the point in the past the speaker is referring to
4	*This* ***had been going*** *on since September.*	past perfect progressive	continuing from September till the moment in the past the speaker is talking about
5	***I'll be working*** *when you get home.*	*will/shall* + progressive (often called future progressive)	will be an ongoing process at the point in the future the speaker is referring to
6	*We****'ll have been living*** *here twelve years soon.*	*will/shall* + perfect progressive (often called future perfect progressive)	will continue from twelve years before till the point in the future referred to ('soon')
7	*It* ***must have been going*** *on for years.*	modal perfect progressive	an ongoing process probably occurring over a period of time leading up to now or up to a point in the past

Some of the sentences in the table above are best understood in contrast with possible meanings of their simple form equivalents.

2 *He has done some research for an MP for about a year.* This sees the action more as a completed event, and could – but not necessarily – mean the action is finished.

3 *My knees shook.* This could mean my knees shook for a defined period of time (e.g. a few seconds) then stopped.

5 *I'll work when you get home.* This could mean 'I'll start work when you get home'.

The infinitive form of the progressive (following verbs such as *hope*, *intend*, *like*, *seem*, *want*, and other structures requiring an infinitive) is formed with *to be* + *-ing* form of the verb:

*He just seemed **to be doing** the same thing we were doing.*

*I don't want **to be walking** round on my own at nights.*

*It's a peculiar essay **to be doing** at university, I would have thought.*

The present progressive 224a

The present progressive is formed with the present tense forms of *be* + *-ing* form of a lexical verb. Examples are given in the table below.

The present progressive: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
*I'm do**ing** it right.* (informal) *I **am** do**ing** it right.* (more formal)	*I'm **not** do**ing** it right.* (informal) *I **am not** do**ing** it right.* (more formal)	***Am** I do**ing** it right?*	***Aren't** I do**ing** it right?* (informal) ***Am** I **not** do**ing** it right?* (more formal)
*You/we/they'**re** work**ing** on Friday.* (informal) *You/we/they **are** work**ing** on Friday.* (more formal)	*You/we/they're **not** work**ing** on Friday.* *You/we/they **aren't** work**ing** on Friday.* (informal) *You/we/they **are not** work**ing** on Friday.* (more formal)	***Are** you/we/they work**ing** on Friday?*	***Aren't** you/we/they work**ing** on Friday?* (informal) ***Are** you/we/they **not** work**ing** on Friday?* (more formal)
*He/she/one it'**s** work**ing** today.* (informal) *He/she/it/one **is** work**ing** today.* (more formal)	*He/she/it/one's **not** work**ing** today.* *He/she/it/one **isn't** work**ing** today.* (informal) *He/she/it/one **is not** work**ing** today.* (more formal)	***Is** he/she/it/one work**ing** today?*	***Isn't** he/she/it/one work**ing** today?* (informal) ***Is** he/she/it/one **not** work**ing** today?* (more formal)

508f Rule 6: Spelling of verb forms: *-ing* forms

The past progressive 224b

The past progressive is formed with *was/were* + *-ing* form of a lexical verb:

*The wind **was** blow**ing** from the north.*

***Were** you expect**ing** someone?*

The table below shows the declarative and interrogative forms of the past progressive.

The past progressive: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
I/he/she/it/one ***was*** *runn**ing** late.*	*I/he/she/it/one* ***wasn't*** *runn**ing** late.* (informal) *I/he/she/it/one* ***was not*** *runn**ing** late.* (more formal)	***Was*** *I/he/she/it/one runn**ing** late?*	***Wasn't*** *I/he/she/it runn**ing** late?* (informal) ***Was*** *I/he/she/it/one* ***not*** *runn**ing** late?* (more formal)
You/we/they ***were*** *slee**ping**.* (informal)	*You/we/they* ***weren't*** *slee**ping**.* (informal) *You/we/they* ***were not*** *slee**ping**.* (more formal)	***Were*** *you/we/they slee**ping**?*	***Weren't*** *you/we/they slee**ping**?* (informal) ***Were*** *you/we/they* ***not*** *slee**ping**?* (more formal)

The future progressive 224c

Progressive references to the future are formed with *will/'ll/shall* + *be* + *-ing* form of the lexical verb. The table below shows the declarative and interrogative forms of the future progressive.

The future progressive: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
(Subject) ***'ll be*** *wait**ing** at the station.* (informal) *(Subject)* ***will be*** *wait**ing** at the station.* (more formal)	*(Subject)* ***won't be*** *wait**ing** at the station.* (informal) *(Subject)* ***will not be*** *wait**ing** at the station.* (more formal)	***Will*** *(subject)* ***be*** *wait**ing** at the station?*	***Won't*** *(subject)* ***be*** *wait**ing** at the station?* (informal) ***Will*** *(subject)* ***not be*** *wait**ing** at the station?* (more formal) ***Will not*** *(subject)* ***be*** *wait**ing** at the station?* (very formal and now considered archaic)
I/we ***shall be*** *mind**ing** the children.* (more formal)	*I/we* ***shan't be*** *mind**ing** the children.* (informal) *I/we* ***shall not be*** *mind**ing** the children.* (more formal)	***Shall*** *I/we* ***be*** *mind**ing** the children?*	***Shan't*** *I/we* ***be*** *mind**ing** the children?* (informal) ***Shall*** *I/we* ***not be*** *mind**ing** the children?* (more formal) ***Shall not*** *I/we* ***be*** *mind**ing** the children?* (very formal and now considered archaic)

Where there is a choice between *will* and *shall* (i.e. with first person pronouns), the forms with *shall* are more formal than those with *will*.

492d The past progressive on progressive aspect in indirect reports

PERFECT ASPECT 225

Perfect aspect is concerned with the speaker's perspective on the relationship between one time frame and an event that takes place in another time frame. An event which took place in the past may be seen as relevant to the present moment. Likewise, an event due to take place in the future may be seen as linked to the present moment. The table below gives examples of different time-frame relationships.

Perfect aspect involves the use of auxiliary *have* + *-ed* participle of a lexical verb. The tense may be present or past. Future perfect forms are created using *will/'ll/shall*.

Examples of perfect aspect

example	form	time relationship
*I**'ve lived** here about 25 years.*	present perfect	the whole period from 25 years ago till now
*The flight is at 7.15. They**'ve changed** the time.*	present perfect	the time change happened between some unspecified point in the past and now
*I **had finished** just before I went to work.*	past perfect	the time I finished in relation to the time (in the past) when I went to work
*That was about 1936. That was when we came to Stockport. We **had lived** in Manchester before that.*	past perfect	the time we lived in Manchester in relation to 1936
*Yesterday and tomorrow all together I **will have spent** £100 on train fares.*	future perfect	yesterday and the period up to and including tomorrow
*In three years' time, **we'll have lived** here 20 years.*	future perfect	the time between when we started living here and three years in the future from now
*They **may have been** confused.*	modal perfect	a possible event during a time leading up to now or up to a point in the past

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The present perfect 225a

The declarative and interrogative forms of the present perfect simple are shown in the table below.

The present perfect: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
*I/you/we/they**'ve** work**ed**.* (informal) *I/you/we/they **have** work**ed**.* (more formal)	*I/you/we/they **haven't** work**ed**.* *I/you/we/they**'ve not** work**ed**.* (informal) *I/you/we/they **have not** work**ed**.* (more formal)	***Have** I/you/we/they work**ed**?*	***Haven't** I/you/we/they work**ed**?* (informal) ***Have** I/you/we/they **not** work**ed**?* (more formal)
*He/she/it/one**'s** work**ed**.* (informal) *He/she/it/one **has** work**ed**.* (more formal)	*He/she/it/one **hasn't** work**ed**.* *He/she/it/one**'s not** work**ed**.* (informal) *He/she/it/one **has not** work**ed**.* (more formal)	***Has** he/she/it/one work**ed**?*	***Hasn't** he/she/it/one work**ed**?* (informal) ***Has** he/she/it/one **not** work**ed**?* (more formal)

The past perfect 225b

The past perfect simple forms are the same as the present perfect, but with *had* being used instead of *have* and *has*, and *'d* being used as the contracted form. The table below shows the declarative and interrogative forms of the past perfect simple.

The past perfect: declarative and interrogative forms

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
*I/you/we/they**'d** already **started**.* (informal) *I/you/we/they **had** already **started**.* (more formal)	*I/you/we/they **hadn't** already **started**.* *I/you/we/they**'d not** already **started**.* (informal) *I/you/we/they **had not** already **started**.* (more formal)	***Had** I/you/we/they already **started**?*	***Hadn't** I/you/we/they already **started**?* (informal) ***Had** I/you/we/they **not** already **started**?* (more formal)

continued

declarative		interrogative	
affirmative	negative	affirmative	negative
*He/she/it/one**'d** already **started**.* (informal) *He/she/it/one **had** already **started**.* (more formal)	*He/she/it/one **hadn't** already **started**.* *He/she/it/one**'d not** already **started**.* (informal) *He/she/it **had not** already **started**.* (more formal)	***Had** he/she/it/one already **started**?*	***Hadn't** he/she/it/one already **started**?* (informal) ***Had** he/she/it/one **not** already **started**?* (more formal)

Perfect infinitive 225c

The infinitive form of the perfect aspect (following verbs such as *hope*, *intend*, *like*, *seem*, and other structures requiring an infinitive) is formed with *to have* + *-ed* participle:

*I was hoping **to have finished** by now.*

*They don't seem **to have solved** all the other problems.*

*Are you supposed **to have fed** the dog?*

The perfect aspect may also occur in a non-tensed *-ing* form:

***Having arrived** eventually in Salt Lake City at 5.30 a.m. and walked around for a couple of hours, I wandered into a downtown supermarket.*

COMBINING PERFECT AND PROGRESSIVE ASPECT 226

The present and past perfect may both combine with progressive aspect:

*I**'ve been cycling** for years through busy traffic.*

*This **had been going on** since September.*

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Types of verb

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Types of verb

INTRODUCTION 227

There are three basic types of verb in English: lexical verbs, auxiliary verbs and modal verbs.

Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs can stand alone. Lexical verbs have meanings denoting actions, events and states, and belong to an open class (i.e. new verbs are frequently created):

*They **laughed**.*

*It **rained** all night.*

*We had to **catch** a bus.*

Some lexical verbs such as *appear*, *be*, *become*, *feel*, *get*, *look*, *remain*, *seem*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*, which are followed by predicative complements, are called copular verbs:

*He**'s** a teacher.*

*That **smells** good.*

288 Copular complementation

Auxiliary verbs

The auxiliary verbs are *be*, *do* and *have*. Auxiliary verbs add extra information to the lexical verb.

- Auxiliary *be* is used to indicate progressive aspect (224) and passive voice (478).
- Auxiliary *do* is used in the creation of interrogative, negative and emphatic structures.
- Auxiliary *have* is used to indicate perfect aspect (225).

Auxiliary verbs are usually followed by a lexical verb, but they may occur without a lexical verb in reduced clauses (i.e. clauses with ellipsis). They may also occur in clauses where *do* substitutes for a lexical verb:

A: *Are you hoping to get it finished today?*
B: *Yes, we **are**.*
(ellipsis: Yes, we are hoping to get it finished today.)

A: *Will you ring the electrician?*
B: *I already **have done**.*
(*do* as substitute verb: I already have rung the electrician.)

Be, *do* and *have* can be used as auxiliary verbs or as lexical verbs. In these examples of *be*, *do* and *have* as auxiliary verbs, the lexical verbs are in green:

*He **was** working over there.*

*What **do** they call them?*

***Have** you been home?*

*I'**ve been** asked that question a number of times.*

Examples of *be*, *do* and *have* as lexical verbs:

*That **was** a good meal.*
(also referred to as copular *be*)

*He would need to **do** his exams before he went.*

*Can I **have** a receipt for it?*

Modal verbs

Modal verbs belong to a closed class of verbs whose core members are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would* and *must*, along with semi-modals such as *dare*, *need*, *ought to* and *used to*. Modal verbs generally encode meanings connected with degrees of certainty and degrees of necessity:

*We **could** go up and get one.*

A: *I'm sure one day you'll go back to teaching.*
B: *I **might**.*

*We **ought to** do something about that missing roof-tile.*

Modal verbs are usually followed by a lexical verb, but they may occur without a lexical verb in clauses with ellipsis. They may also occur in clauses where *do* substitutes for a lexical verb:

A: *I'll give her a ring.*
B: *Yes, you **must**.*
(ellipsis: Yes, you must give her a ring.)

A: *You know the Philips?*
B: *Well I **should** do.*
(*do* as substitute verb: Well I should know them.)

377–407 Modality

LEXICAL VERBS 228

Regular verbs 228a

Regular verbs, the class to which most lexical verbs belong, have four different forms. These forms realise a variety of functions. The most typical functions are shown in the table below.

Regular verbs: form and function

form	function	example
base form	present tense	*People always **look** at me.*
	infinitive (with or without *to*)	*I want to **look**.* *Let me **look**.*
-s form	present tense (3rd person singular)	*She **looks** at everyone.*
-ing form	progressive aspect	*What **are** you **looking** at?*
	non-tensed in non-finite clause	***Looking** ahead, we should book flights for the summer holidays.*
	gerund (nominal form)	***Looking** shouldn't offend anyone.*
	-ing form adjectives	*They had to work in **freezing** temperatures.*
-ed form	past tense	*We **looked** for a taxi.*
	-ed participle	*I've **looked** everywhere.*
	non-tensed in non-finite clauses	***Looked** at in that way, it seemed less problematic.*
	-ed form adjectives	*We had some wonderful Irish **smoked** salmon.*

The present tense form is the same as the base form for all persons except third person singular, which takes the *-s* form:

*I/we/you/they **look***
(present tense form)

*He/she/it/one **looks***
(*-s* form)

Irregular verbs 228b

Irregular verbs, like regular verbs, have a base form, an *-s* form and an *-ing* form, but they vary in how the functions of the regular verb *-ed* form are realised.

Some irregular verbs have the same form for the base form and for all the functions of the *-ed* form.

All three forms the same

base form	*-ed* form as past tense	*-ed* form as *-ed* participle/adjective/non-tensed
cut	*cut*	*cut*
set	*set*	*set*
shut	*shut*	*shut*

Some irregular verbs have the same form for the base and *-ed* form as *-ed* participle/adjective/non-tensed, but a different form for the *-ed* form as past tense.

Base form and *-ed* participle, etc. the same; past tense different

base form	*-ed* form as past tense	*-ed* form as *-ed* participle/adjective/non-tensed
come	*came*	*come*
become	*became*	*become*
run	*ran*	*run*

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Some irregular verbs have three different forms which correspond to the functions of the base and the *-ed* forms of regular verbs.

All three forms different

base form	*-ed* form as past tense	*-ed* form as *-ed* participle/adjective/non-tensed
speak	*spoke*	*spoken*
take	*took*	*taken*
swim	*swam*	*swum*

There are other variations too. **529 Appendix: Irregular verbs** for a full list of irregular verbs with their base and *-ed* forms

Be, have, do

Be, *have* and *do* have irregular forms for the present tense:

be	*have*	*do*
I ***am***	*I/we/you/they* ***have***	*I/we/you/they* ***do***
you/we/they ***are***	*he/she/it/one* ***has***	*he/she/it/one* ***does***
he/she/it/one ***is***		

Be also has irregular past tense forms:

I/he/she/it ***was***

we/you/they ***were***

THE BASE FORM 229

The base form functions as the present tense form for all persons and numbers except the third person singular (which uses the *-s* form). (Modal verbs do not show these contrasts of tense, person and number.):

They ***work*** *on exactly the same principle.*

I ***hate*** *carrots.*

The base form functions as the infinitive (with or without *to*):

I hope to ***see*** *you tomorrow.*

I'll let you ***know*** *what's to be done.*

The base form is used for the imperative mood:

Sit *here then.*

The base form also functions as the subjunctive mood (**159e**) for all persons, including third person singular:

The doctor insisted that he ***go*** *to the hospital for a series of tests.*

THE *-S* FORM 230

The *-s* form is used with third-person-singular subjects (*he/she/it/one* and singular nouns) to indicate the present tense:

*He **lives** at 27 Webber Close.*

*It **depends** on what you want to do.*

*The coffee **smells** good.*

THE *-ING* FORM 231

The *-ing* form is used with auxiliary *be* to form progressive aspect:

*I **was doing** some work for Sally.*

*He**'s looking** well these days.*

The *-ing* form also occurs in non-finite clauses:

***Getting** no reply, she rang the bell again.*

*He stared at me, as if **trying** to make up his mind.*

The *-ing* form functions as the gerund, which is a noun-like (nominal) form which can occur as the head of a noun phrase or as the complement of a preposition:

*When I was a lad, I had to milk cows by hand. Now all **milking** is done by machines.*

*It was a good play, with some very good **acting**.*

*Thank you **for coming**.*

*You can get back to the car park **by going** up to the first floor.*

In its nominal function, the *-ing* form is frequent in noun compounds:

*We need a new **washing machine**.*

*Where are my **walking-boots**?*

The *-ing* form can also act as an adjective:

***Falling** processor prices means this is a good time to buy a new computer.*

THE *-ED* FORM 232

The *-ed* form indicates the past tense:

*I just **phoned** your place.*

*It **looked** a bit big.*

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The *-ed* form functions as the *-ed* participle, which is used with auxiliary *have* and *be* to form perfect aspect and passive voice:

*I've **broken** my glasses.*
(perfect aspect)

*I wasn't **offended** by what she said.*
(passive voice)

The *-ed* form also occurs in non-finite clauses:

***Encouraged** by our progress, we decided to go on.*

*Whenever **asked**, show all your documents.*

The *-ed* form is often used as an adjective:

*D'you want **fried** rice or plain?*

AUXILIARY VERBS 233

General 233a

Be

Auxiliary *be* is used with the *-ing* form of a lexical verb to indicate progressive aspect and with the *-ed* form of a lexical verb to indicate passive voice:

*She **was** work**ing** in Glasgow.*
(progressive aspect)

*She **was** rush**ed** to hospital last week.*
(passive voice)

Do

Auxiliary *do* is used with the base form of a lexical verb in negative, interrogative and emphatic structures, and as a substitute for a lexical verb or clause predicate:

*I **do not** trust people who change so abruptly.*
(negative)

***Did** you see Sarah at school?*
(interrogative)

*I'm a good complainer. I **do** complain a lot.*
(emphatic)

A: *I cried.*
B: *Yes I **did** too.*
(substitute)

Have

Auxiliary *have* is used with the *-ed* participle to indicate perfect aspect:

*We **have looked** down there.*

*They **had** already **eaten** when we got there.*

Negative forms and auxiliary verbs 233b

Not is placed after the auxiliary verb to form the negative:

*Pupils **were not** turning up.*
(~~Pupils not were turning up.~~)

*I **have not** left the house.*

The contracted form of the negative (*n't*) is very frequent in spoken language and is also used in informal writing. In writing it is attached to the auxiliary verb, without a space:

*It **hasn't** got any particular sort of name.*

*You **weren't** here yesterday.*

*The locals **don't** mix that well with the students.*

When the contracted forms of *be* (*'m*, *'re* and *'s*) and the contracted forms of *have* (*'ve*, *'s* and *'d*) are used, *n't* is not used:

*I**'m not** doing that one.*
(~~I'mn't doing that one.~~)

*We**'ve not** abandoned you.*
(or: We haven't abandoned you.)

Interrogative forms and auxiliary verbs 233c

Interrogative structures involving auxiliary verbs consist of auxiliary + subject + lexical verb:

***Are** the children **looking** forward to it?*

***Has** she **finished** her room now?*

*What **did** your mother **do**?*
(~~What did do your mother?~~)

Auxiliary verbs also occur in corresponding question tags:

*Annabel **has** lost a lot of weight actually, **has**n't she?*

*You **know** what it's like, **do**n't you?*

Contracted forms of auxiliary verbs 233d

Auxiliary verbs have contracted forms which are widely used in spoken language and in informal writing. The contracted forms are written with an apostrophe (') and without a space. The contracted forms are:

be	*do*	*have*
*I**'m***	***d'**you (do)*	*I/we/they**'ve** (have)*
*We/you/they**'re** (are)*		*He/she/it/one**'s** (has)*
*He/she/it/one**'s** (is)*		*I/we/you/he/she/it/one/they**'d** (had)*

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*I think **they're** starting it again.*
(they are)

***She's** paying for everything.*
(she is)

*Apparently **it's** what **he's** wanted to do all his life.*
(it is/he has)

Do you frequently contracts to *d'you*. In very informal spoken language, *did you* may also contract to *d'you*:

***D'you** normally have to book?*
(do you)

***D'you** hear what's happened to Ted?*
(did you)

The interpretation of *'s* depends on what follows it. It represents *is* in the present progressive if it is followed by the *-ing* form (*she's eating = she is eating*), or if it is followed by an adjective or a noun (*she's lovely = she is lovely*; *she's a girl = she is a girl*). If it is followed by an *-ed* participle, it can represent *is* in the *be* passive (*she's forgiven = she is forgiven*) or *has* in the present perfect (*she's started = she has started*). It represents *has* if it is followed by *got* (*she's got = she has got*):

*She**'s** turn**ing** into a friend.*
(She is turning …)

*It**'s** publish**ed** by Cambridge University Press.*
(passive: It is published by …)

*He**'s left**. He left Sunday.*
(He has left.)

The contraction *'d* represents *had* if it is followed by the *-ed* participle (*I'd left = I had left*) or by *better* (*I'd better = I had better*). It represents *would* if it is followed by the base form (*I'd like = I would like*; *I'd have done it = I would have done it*), or if it is followed by *rather* or *sooner* (*I'd rather not go = I would rather not go*):

*I**'d** phon**ed** and he wasn't there.*
(*-ed* participle: I had phoned …)

*I**'d agree** with Jim with what he's said there.*
(base form: I would agree with Jim …)

Ellipsis and substitution with auxiliary verbs 233e

Auxiliary verbs occur in clauses with ellipsis and in substitute clauses. The contracted forms are not used:

A: *Are you looking forward to the New Year?*
B: *Oh yes. Yes, I **am**.*
(~~B: Oh yes. Yes, I'm.~~)

He wondered why he'd been put where he ***had****.*
(ellipsis: … where he had been put.)

I saw her across a crowded room and thought she was really beautiful and that I must speak to her, so I ***did****.*
(ellipsis: … so I did speak to her.)

He couldn't go so I ***did*** *instead.*
(substitution: … so I went instead.)

MODAL VERBS 234

General 234a

The core modal verbs are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would* and *must*. Core modal verbs are used with the base form of a lexical verb, without *to*:

Could I speak *to Maureen please?*
(~~Could I to speak to Maureen please?~~)

Core modal verbs are not preceded by the auxiliary verbs:

Can you help *me, please?*
(~~Do you can help me, please?~~)

You mustn't *put it near a naked flame.*
(~~You don't must put it near a naked flame.~~)

Modal verbs may be followed by auxiliary *be* and *have* indicating aspect and voice:

We ***could be*** *wait****ing*** *here for hours. Let's go home.*
(progressive aspect)

I ***might have*** *got killed.*
(perfect aspect)

These gates ***will be*** *lock****ed*** *at 8pm.*
(passive voice)

There are also semi-modal verbs such as *dare*, *need*, *ought to* and *used to* (395).

Negative forms of modal verbs 234b

Not is placed after the modal verb to form the negative:

She ***could not*** *shut her eyes to the daylight.*

I ***would not*** *wish to disagree.*

The contracted negative *n't* is used in spoken language and in informal writing with *can*, *could*, *should*, *would*, *might* and *must*, and with the semi-modals *ought*, *need* and *dare*:

*I **couldn't** believe it.*

*He **shouldn't** have been irritated by them.*

*I'm told I **mustn't** eat too quickly.*

*She **needn't** worry if she can't get back to me.*

The contracted negative forms of *shall* and *will* are *shan't* and *won't*:

*I **shan't** ask you again.*

*My white shirt probably **won't** fit me.*

Negative forms, uncontracted and contracted, for the core modal verbs

verb	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
can	*cannot; can not*	*can't*
could	*could not*	*couldn't*
may	*may not*	*mayn't* (very rare)
might	*might not*	*mightn't*
must	*must not*	*mustn't*
will	*will not*	*'ll not; won't*
shall	*shall not*	*'ll not; shan't*
would	*would not*	*'d not; wouldn't*
should	*should not*	*shouldn't*

Interrogative forms of modal verbs 234c

Interrogative structures involving modal verbs consist of modal verb + subject + lexical verb:

***Will** you **be** at home Saturday morning?*

***Can** my friend **come** too?*

Auxiliary *do* is not used:

***Can you** tell me where the market is please?*
(~~Do you can tell me where the market is please?~~)

Modal verbs also occur in corresponding tags:

*They **will** make it on time, **won't** they?*

*He **mustn't** shout like that, **must** he?*

*He **could** win, he **could**.*

Contracted forms of modal verbs 234d

Will and *would* have contracted forms which are especially common in spoken language and informal writing. *Will* and *shall* are frequently shortened to *'ll* in declarative clauses:

*We**'ll** see what happens.*
(We will/shall see …)

365 on 'independent' *'ll*

377–407 Modality

Ellipsis and substitution with modal verbs 234e

Modal verbs occur in clauses with ellipsis. The contracted forms are not used in ellipted clauses and clauses with substitute *do*:

A: *We could get a video couldn't we?*
B: *Yeah, we **could**.*

A: *So will you look after that for us?*
B: *I **will**.*
(~~I'll.~~)

A: *But it might be worth just giving that number a ring.*
B: *Yeah, I **will do**.*
(~~Yeah, I'll do.~~)

MULTI-WORD VERBS 235

General 235a

A lexical verb may combine with a particle to form a multi-word verb which behaves as a single unit of meaning. The particle may be an adverb or a preposition. In the following examples, verbs and their accompanying particles are in bold:

*This **calls for** a celebration.*
(*calls for* = demands/requires)

*They've been **turned down** once already.*
(*turned down* = refused)

*Did mum and dad **get away** all right?*
(*get away* = leave/depart)

*I think I'm going to **drop off** soon.*
(*drop off* = fall asleep)

Some multi-word verbs have two particles:

He never ***looks down on*** *her for what she's doing.*
(*looks down on* = disrespects, considers less worthy)

I don't see why I should have to ***put up with*** *that.*
(*put up with* = accept, tolerate)

The particle is linked closely to the lexical verb, and cannot be separated and fronted in the way it can in other structures:

Off *she* ***ran****.*
(verb *run* plus adverb *off*; non-fronted version: She ran off.)

Mum and dad ***got away*** *all right.*
(~~Away got mum and dad all right.~~)
(multi-word verb *get away* = leave, depart)

For *Jill I* ***bought*** *a necklace.*
(verb *buy* plus prepositional phrase *for Jill*; non-fronted version: I bought a necklace for Jill.)

This ***calls for*** *a celebration.*
(~~For a celebration this calls.~~)
(multi-word verb *call for* plus object *a celebration*; *calls for* = demands)

The most frequent verbs and the particles they combine with to form multi-word verbs

verb	example particles	verb	example particles
come	*into, off, out, up*	***make***	*for, out, up*
get	*at, away, on*	***pick***	*on, out, up*
give	*in, off, up*	***pull***	*over, through, up*
go	*into, off, on*	***put***	*across, forward, out*
hold	*against, on, to*	***run***	*into, over, up*
keep	*on, up, to*	***set***	*off, out, up*
knock	*about, down, over*	***take***	*back, off, to*
let	*off, out, up*	***turn***	*over, round, up*
look	*after, into, over*	***work***	*on, out, up*

Multi-word verbs fall into three main classes, which are described in subsequent sections:

- phrasal verbs (**235c, d, e**)
- prepositional verbs (**235f**)
- phrasal-prepositional verbs (**235g**)

Particles 235b

The most common particles which combine with lexical verbs to form multi-word verbs are shown in the table below, along with a selection of verbs (and verbs + particles) they combine with.

The most common particles and the verbs they combine with to form multi-word verbs

particle	example verbs (+particles)	particle	example verbs (+particles)
about	*go, hang, knock, mess*	***off***	*come, go, get, take*
ahead	*forge, go, keep, move*	***on***	*come, get, go, put*
around	*come, get, go, knock*	***out***	*break, come, go, put*
at	*come, get, look, play*	***over***	*come, get, go, turn*
away	*get, put, run, take*	***round***	*come, drop, go, hang*
back	*come, get, go, take*	***through***	*come, get, go, run*
down	*break, come, go, put*	***to***	*come, get on, go back, keep*
for	*care, go, look, stand*	***together***	*get, go, pull, put*
in	*come, get, go, take*	***up***	*come, open, pick, take*
into	*break, get, go, run*	***with***	*deal, do away, go, put up*

Other particles include *about*, *across*, *after*, *against*, *along*, *apart*, *aside*, *astray*, *away*, *by*, *for*, *forward(s)*, *from*, *onto*, *under*, *upon*:

*She also **came across** as being stupid as well.*
(*came across* = appeared)

*The fridge has **fallen apart**.*
(*fallen apart* = broken into pieces)

*A day didn't **pass by** when I didn't know what was **going on**.*

Multi-word verbs are written as separate words, not as a single word or with hyphens:

*I think I'm going to **drop off** soon.*
(Not: I think I'm going to dropoff soon.)
(Not: I think I'm going drop-off soon.)

Phrasal verbs 235c

Phrasal verbs consist of a lexical verb and a particle. Phrasal verbs may be intransitive or transitive (282). In the case of transitive phrasal verbs, the position of the object (in green in the examples below) may vary:

*You're not going to **sort out** your problems in a month.*
(*sort out* = solve)

[to a small child reaching for a drink at table]
*Careful, darling, don't **knock** that **over**!*
(*knock it over* = make it fall)

A number of phrasal verbs are intransitive, i.e. they do not require an object:

*The radio alarm **went off** at the same time as usual.*
(*went off* = rang)

*I waited till the noise of the train **died away** then walked home.*
(*died away* = became inaudible)

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Many verbs may be used both transitively and intransitively. There may be a difference in meaning between the transitive use and the intransitive use:

*Oh, better **get back** to reality now I suppose!*
(intransitive: return)

*He wouldn't be able to stand losing Sonnie now. He had to **get** her **back**.*
(transitive: regain her/re-possess her)

*I've got to **set off** at five o'clock.*
(intransitive: begin a journey)

*As soon as he moves, he's going to **set** the alarm **off**.*
(transitive: cause it to ring)

Transitive phrasal verbs 235d

Many phrasal verbs can be used with a direct object. The most frequent include:

blow up	*give up*	*sort out*
break down	*hand in/out*	*take back*
bring up	*hold up*	*take over*
carry on	*leave out*	*take up*
check out	*look up*	*tell off*
close down	*make up*	*throw away*
drink up	*phone up*	*try on*
drop off	*put off*	*turn down*
eat up	*put on*	*wake up*
fill up	*ring up*	*work out*
find out	*rub out*	*write down*
finish off	*save up*	
give away	*shut down*	

In most cases, the particle may come before or after the direct object (in green in the examples below) if the object is not a personal pronoun:

*In Kent, burglars **blew up** a fireworks factory after trying to break in using oxyacetylene cutting equipment.*
(or: ….burglars blew a fireworks factory up …)
(*blew up* = made it explode)

*We decided to **put** the meeting **off** for a couple of weeks.*
(or: We decided to put off the meeting for a couple of weeks.)
(*put off* = postpone)

As usual it will be left to me to ***sort*** *everything* ***out****.*
(*sort out* = organise)

But don't ***throw away*** *that fur coat yet.*
(*throw away* = dispose of)

When the direct object is a personal pronoun, the pronoun always comes before the particle:

A: *I've got a nice home.*
B: *Yes.*
A: *But I've got to almost* ***give*** *it* ***away****.*
(~~But I've got to almost give away it.~~)
(*give it away* = take no money for it)

A: ***Leave*** *me* ***out****.*
B: *What do you mean 'leave you out'?*
A: *I don't want to go.*
(~~Leave out me.~~)
(*leave out* = don't include)

They couldn't ***wake*** *her* ***up****.*
(~~They couldn't wake up her.~~)

If a pronoun object is coordinated with a full noun phrase or another pronoun, the objects may occur before or after the particle:

The noise ***woke*** *me and my wife* ***up****.*
(or: The noise woke up me and my wife.)

He didn't ***phone*** *her or me* ***up****.*
(or: He didn't phone up her or me.)

[*the OED* = the *Oxford Dictionary of English*]
I'll have to ***look up*** *that word and its derivation in the OED.*
(or: I'll have to look that word and its derivation up in the OED.

Longer objects tend to come after the particle:

Yesterday we were just ***finishing off*** *looking at the structure and the land use of city and town.*
(~~Yesterday we were just finishing looking at the structure and the land use of city and town off.~~)

Intransitive phrasal verbs 235e

Intransitive phrasal verbs consist of a verb and a particle without an object.
Frequent phrasal verbs which are used intransitively include:

break down	*go off*	*run away*
carry on	*hang on*	*set off*
drop off	*join in*	*wake up*
eat out	*move in/out*	
get back	*ring off*	

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It was a disastrous day, because the coach ***broke down****.*
(*broke down* = stopped working)

He buys all his own food and he very rarely ***eats out****.*
(*eats out* = eats at a restaurant)

Hang on*. Let me write all this down.*
(*hang on* = wait)

A: *We have to* ***set off*** *at the crack of dawn.*
B: *That's gonna be fun!*
(*set off* = leave, start the journey)

Prepositional verbs 235f

Prepositional verbs consist of a verb and a preposition which are closely syntactically linked with each other. As with other multi-word verbs, fronting of the prepositional complement is not normally possible:

I don't ***approve of*** *his views on war and military things.*
(~~Of his views on war and military things I don't approve.~~)

Prepositional verbs follow different rules from phrasal verbs. The direct object (in green in the examples below) must follow the preposition, even if it is a pronoun:

I couldn't sell my car. I just couldn't ***do without*** *it.*
(~~… I just couldn't do it without.~~)
(*couldn't do without* = need/have to have)

Frequent prepositional verbs include:

approve of	*cope with*	*get over*
break into	*deal with*	*go into*
call on	*depend on*	*lead to*
care for	*do without*	*listen to*
check into	*get into*	*look after*
come across	*get on*	*look at*
come upon	*get off*	*look for*

Common prepositions and some verbs which combine with them to form prepositional verbs

preposition	verbs	preposition	verbs
across	*come, cut, run, stumble*	*of*	*become, consist, despair, hear*
after	*ask, inquire, look, take*	*off*	*feed, get, give, go*
at	*get, glance, laugh, look*	*on*	*bet, depend, lean*
for	*ask, care, go, live*	*to*	*amount, belong, keep, object*
into	*break, bump, delve, launch*	*with*	*agree, break, deal, go*

Because loads of people ***break into*** *cars, does that make it right?*
(~~Because loads of people break cars into, does that make it right?~~)
(*break into* = enter by using force)

You said you'd already ***come across*** *that sort of stuff in the library.*
(*come across* = found)

He says it's the pills that's doing it. 'But I can't ***do without*** *them,' he says.*
(*can't do without* = must have)

I managed to ***look after*** *everybody for a day and a half.*
(*look after* = take care of)

Some prepositional verbs allow an adverb or discourse marker to be used between the verb and the preposition:

It ***depends*** *entirely* ***on*** *what's going on at the time.*

I ***agree****, I think,* ***with*** *most of his reasons.*

Verbs in this category include:

agree with	*check into*	*keep to*
apologise for	*consist of*	*laugh at*
approve of	*cope with*	*lead to*
ask for	*deal with*	*lean on*
belong to	*depend on*	*live for*
bet on	*disagree with*	*look at*
break with	*glance at*	*look for*
care for	*go with*	*object to*

Some prepositional verbs take a direct object after the verb as well as an object of the preposition. These include:

associate … with	*deprive … of*	*remind … of*
bombard … with	*protect … from*	*rob … of*
confine … to	*provide … with*	*thank … for*

You don't ***bombard*** *them* ***with*** *new stuff.*

Local white rulers enforced racial segregation by 'Jim Crow laws' to ***deprive*** *black people* ***of*** *civil rights.*

Just ***remind*** *me* ***of*** *your surname again.*

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Phrasal-prepositional verbs 235g

Phrasal-prepositional verbs consist of an adverb particle and a preposition. Common phrasal-prepositional verbs include:

catch up on	*get along with*	*look out for*
catch up with	*get on with*	*look up to*
come up against	*listen out for*	*put up with*
do away with	*look forward to*	*watch out for*
face up to	*look down on*	
get away with	*look in on*	

These verbs normally occur in informal contexts:

I'll ***catch up with*** *you in a minute.*
(*catch up with* = reach, join)

Let her ***get on with*** *it.*
(*get on with* = continue doing)

I'm ***looking forward to*** *the weekend.*
(*looking forward to* = anticipating with pleasure)

You have to ***watch out for*** *the things coming along behind that you can't see.*

A small number of such verbs also take a direct object after the verb as well as an object of the preposition. These include:

fix … up with	*let … in on*	*put … up to*
fob … off with	*put … down to*	*take … out on*

She's going to try and ***fix*** *me* ***up with*** *a bit of part-time work.*
(*fix me up with* = arrange for me)

Do you ***put*** *that* ***down to*** *luck or judgement?*
(*put down to* = think the cause or reason is)

He was just ***taking*** *his frustration* ***out on*** *me, shouting at me and stuff.*
(*taking … out on me* = causing me to suffer)

Adjectives and adjective phrases

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Adjectives and adjective phrases

ADJECTIVES 236

Introduction 236a

Adjectives are the third major open word class in English. They describe the features of persons or things denoted by nouns or pronouns (237 below):

*It's a **nice** room.*

*The service was **awful**.*

*Her father is **German**.*

*She's **beautiful**.*

Adjectives cannot be automatically identified by their form, although certain suffixes typically occur with adjectives (236b below). Many common, everyday adjectives have no form which identifies them as such (e.g. *good*, *nice*, *old*, *wet*). Adjectives are identified most typically by their functions in a sentence.

Suffixes and prefixes 236b

Some suffixes occur typically or exclusively with adjectives.

Suffixes that occur with adjectives

suffix	examples
-able,-ible	*acceptable, usable, inedible*
-al,-ial	*normal, comical, radial*
-ed	*timbered, aged*
-ful	*masterful, wishful*
-ic	*frantic, heroic*
-ical	*hysterical, political*
-ish	*amateurish, childish*
-ive, -ative	*active, attractive, talkative*
-less	*endless, priceless*
-eous, -ious, -ous	*erroneous, anxious, famous*
-y	*angry, busy, windy, wealthy*

As can be seen from the table, adjectives may be derived from nouns (*hero–heroic*, *wind–windy*) or verbs (*accept–acceptable*, *attract–attractive*) by the addition of suffixes.

The prefix *a-* also identifies certain adjectives (e.g. *awake*, *alive*, *ablaze*).

also **258–268 Word structure and word formation**

Comparative and superlative inflections 236c

Many one-syllable adjectives, and two-syllable adjectives ending in an unstressed syllable, have inflections to show the comparative and superlative.

Adjectives that inflect

base form	comparative	superlative
fine	*finer*	*finest*
small	*smaller*	*smallest*
young	*younger*	*youngest*
funny	*funnier*	*funniest*
gentle	*gentler*	*gentlest*

However, two-syllable adjectives ending in a stressed syllable and longer adjectives do not inflect. Comparatives and superlatives are formed using *more* and *most* (462 and 463).

Adjectives that do not inflect

base form	comparative	superlative
correct	*more correct ~~correcter~~*	*most correct ~~correctest~~*
memorable	*more memorable ~~memorabler~~*	*most memorable ~~memorablest~~*

460–471 Comparison

-ing and *-ed* form adjectives 236d

The *-ing* and *-ed* forms of verbs may also function as adjectives:

[cooking instructions on food packet]
*Just add **boiling** water.*

*They only want to travel to **English-speaking** countries.*

*It's not **smoked** salmon, it's **smoked** trout.*

*Even supermarkets now sell **home-made** jams.*

MEANINGS OF ADJECTIVES 237

Types of meaning 237a

Adjectives describe features and qualities of entities (people, animals and things) denoted by nouns or pronouns.

- Some adjectives denote characteristic or inherent properties and qualities which are long-lasting or permanent: *tall*, *heavy*, *old*, *good*, *rough*, *true*, *ugly*, *red*.
- Some adjectives express transient states and conditions: *hungry*, *cold*, *absent*, *ill*, *dry*, *full*, *lonely*.
- Some adjectives denote relations between entities. These are among the adjectives that require complements (238a below): *fond (of)*, *similar (to)*, *aware (of)*, *keen (on/to)*, *far (from)*.

- Some adjectives describe entities in terms of their actions: *generous*, *cruel*, *talkative*, *polite*, *cooperative*.
- Some adjectives classify entities into types: *wooden (spoon)*, *Swedish (film)*, *departmental (meeting)*, *detached (house)*, *organic (vegetables)*, *impressionist (painter)*, *wild (salmon)*.

Oppositeness (antonymy) and gradability 237b

Most common adjectives (except the classifying type in **237a** above) are members of a pair of opposites (antonyms). For example:

tall–short; heavy–light; good–bad; dry–wet; dead–alive; absent–present

Many of these are also gradable, i.e. one can differentiate between different degrees of the same property along a scale (**238c** and **238d** below):

*He's **quite tall** for his age, isn't he?*

*Your hair's going to be **very wet**.*

ADJECTIVE PHRASES 238

Structure of adjective phrases 238a

Just as nouns and verbs function as the heads of noun phrases and verb phrases, adjectives function as the head of adjective phrases. An adjective phrase consists minimally of an adjective acting as head. The head may be accompanied by modifiers (pre- and post-head) and complements (post-head).

the tables at 169d and **214b** for comparison with noun phrases and verb phrases

The structure of adjective phrases (adjective phrases are in green; adjective heads are in bold)

example	structure
*She has a **lovely** apartment.*	head only
*It's a rather **unfortunate** name, isn't it?*	premodifier + head
*Shall we see if that's **big** enough?*	head + postmodifier
*She's **advanced** for her age.*	head + postmodifier
*Are you **willing** to volunteer?*	head + complement
*He was very **keen** on sport and nature.*	premodifier + head + complement
*I'm not really **sure** that I can advise you.*	premodifier + head + complement

Some adjective phrases have more complex structures than those in the table. In particular, there are phrases which are split into two parts (discontinuous adjective phrases). These are dealt with in **240d** below.

Premodification and postmodification of adjectives 238b

The most typical premodifiers of adjectives (in green) are adverb phrases expressing degree (bold):

*I was **pretty** upset at the time.*

*That's an **extremely** good camera.*

*I think my jeans are **a bit** damp.*

The major exception is the degree adverb *enough*, which is a postmodifier:

It's not long ***enough****.*
(~~It's not enough long.~~)

Adverbs other than adverbs of degree may also premodify adjectives:

The house was ***unusually*** *silent that day.*

It was ***wonderfully*** *peaceful at Gelli.*

I don't know how ***seriously*** *ill they are.*

Premodification and gradability 238c

Most everyday adjectives are gradable, i.e. they denote qualities, properties, states, conditions, relations, etc. which vary in their degree or extent.

Gradable adjectives can be premodified by degree expressions (usually adverb phrases) which specify different degrees of the feature in question.

Premodification of gradable adjectives

example	comments
He's ***very*** *tall.* *He's* ***fairly*** *tall.*	
He's ***this*** *tall.* *I didn't realise he was* ***that*** *tall.*	*This tall* would be typically spoken with a gesture indicating a specific height. *That tall* might refer to a statement made by someone about someone's height or to the moment of seeing someone very tall.
He is over ***two metres*** *tall.*	*Over two metres* is a noun phrase. Certain adjectives expressing numerically measurable properties may be modified by such noun phrases: *She is* ***ten years*** *old; The wood is* ***two centimetres*** *thick; You're* ***ten minutes*** *late.* A–Z 80 ***Worth, worthwhile***
He is ***so*** *tall* ***that he can touch the ceiling****.* *He is* ***too*** *tall* ***to drive****.*	Some degree adverbs (*so*, *too*, *as*) need a complement (underlined) to complete their meaning. The complement may be a clause or a phrase; it occurs after the head adjective. The structure is discontinuous (split into two parts, one part pre-head, the other post-head).
He is ***as*** *tall* ***as his father****.* *He is tall****er than his sister****.*	The comparative with *as … as* and the suffix *-er* have the same function of specifying degree as the various premodifiers. The structure with *as* is discontinuous.
How *tall is he?* ***How*** *tall he is!*	Interrogative *how* is used to ask questions or to utter exclamations about degree, but with an important difference in word order.

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Non-gradable adjectives cannot normally be premodified in these ways. Non-gradable adjectives include: *automatic*; *dead/alive*; *female/male*; *Irish/Brazilian/Thai*/etc.; *married/unmarried/single*:

This cat is male.
(~~This cat is more male than that one.~~)

This plant is dead.
(~~This plant is rather dead.~~)

Gradable opposites (antonyms) 238d

Open-ended

The most common gradable adjectives occur as pairs of antonyms that denote the upper and lower parts of an open-ended scale:

tall ⟵ ⟶ ***short***

hot ⟵ ⟶ ***cold***

There are no maximum and minimum points on such a scale. Therefore, adjectives of this kind may not be premodified by degree adverbs indicating totality, such as *completely*, *absolutely*, *entirely*, *utterly*, *totally*, *wholly*:

It's going to be an ***extremely small*** *stadium.*
(~~It's going to be a totally small stadium.~~)

I think it's a ***very beautiful*** *statue.*
(~~I think it's a completely beautiful statue.~~)

238e below for how adjectives may be cross-classified, however

Maximum and minimum

Some other gradable adjectives can denote properties on scales which have a maximum and/or minimum (zero) value:

full ⟵ ⟶ ***empty***

possible ⟵ ⟶ ***impossible***

Such adjectives can be premodified using degree adverbs like *absolutely*, *completely*, *entirely*, *totally, utterly* and other synonyms:

It was ***absolutely full*** *with families with kids.*

He is ***completely blind****, you know.*

So it's ***utterly impossible****, isn't it?*

Other degree adverbs which can premodify gradable adjectives of this second type include *almost*, *barely*, *half*, *scarcely*:

[talking about the colour of water coming out of a tap]
When it comes out it looks ***almost white****, you know.*

I realised I was ***half-naked*** *and fumbled with the buttons of my pyjama jacket.*

Quite

The degree adverb *quite* means 'fairly', 'to some extent' when it premodifies gradable adjectives which occur on open-ended scales, but means 'absolutely' when it premodifies gradable adjectives which occur on a scale which has a maximum and/or minimum (zero) value:

She's ***quite tall*** *for her age, isn't she?*
(fairly)

You were ***quite right*** *to refuse to pay.*
(absolutely)

A–Z 66 *Quite*

Cross-classification of gradable and non-gradable adjectives 238e

Although adjectives can generally be classified as gradable or non-gradable, they can be used (often with a shift in meaning or connotation) as if they were members of the other class. For example, if an adjective normally classified as non-gradable is premodified as if it were gradable, it is usually interpreted non-literally:

They were all being ***very Scottish****.*
(probably interpreted as 'behaving in an exaggeratedly or stereotypically Scottish manner')

Similarly, gradable adjectives can be treated as if they were non-gradable and premodified by items associated with non-gradable meanings:

The weather was ***absolutely beautiful****.*
(i.e. it was beautiful to the highest possible degree)

That suggestion is ***totally stupid****.*

Implicit superlatives (*filthy*, *starving*) 238f

Often, to express an extreme or maximum degree of a property (e.g. *dirty*), an implicit superlative adjective (e.g. *filthy*) is used instead of a more neutral adjective. Such adjectives are often used for special effect or exaggeration, or in intensified responses, and are often premodified by *absolutely*.

Examples of implicit superlatives

more neutral adjective	implicit superlative
I'm ***very hungry****.*	*I'm* ***starving/ravenous****.*
I'm ***very cold****.*	*I'm* ***(absolutely) frozen****.*
His room ***is very small****.*	*His room is* ***tiny/minute****.*
Their house ***is very big****.*	*Their house is* ***(absolutely) enormous/huge/vast****.*
We got ***very wet****.*	*We got* ***soaked/drenched****.*
It was ***very hot*** *in Nevada.*	*It was* ***(absolutely) boiling/scorching*** *in Nevada.*
The kitchen was ***very dirty****.*	*The kitchen was* ***(absolutely) filthy****.*

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The use of such implicit superlatives in responses is an important way of showing agreement in conversations:

A: *Oh it's fantastic.*
B: *It sounds* ***absolutely amazing****.*

[tasting food]
A: *Is it all right?*
B: *Lovely.*
C: *Yes, it's* ***absolutely delicious****.*

Fixed modifiers (*bone dry, as dry as a bone*) 238g

Modifier + adjective collocations (*bone dry*)

There are a large number of idiomatic expressions for indicating maximum degree which consist of fixed modifier + adjective collocations. These are very common in informal spoken language. They include:

bone dry	*pure white*	*stone deaf*
brand new	*rock hard*	*wide awake*
fast asleep/sound asleep	*soaking wet/sopping wet*	
pitch black/pitch dark	*stark naked*	

Her throat was ***bone dry****.*

Very soon he was ***fast asleep****.*

The flat was ***pitch dark****, with all the blinds shut, blocking out the street-lights and the moon.*

Comparative expressions (*as dry as a bone*)

Similarly, there are a number of idiomatic comparative expressions, which include:

as blind as a bat	*as dry as a bone*	*as white as snow/as white as a sheet*
as deaf as a post	*as heavy as lead*	

You desperately fight to stay on your feet, but you feel weak and dizzy from your ordeal, and your legs are ***as heavy as lead****.*

They were clutching each other in shock, and the woman particularly was ***as white as a sheet****.*

In informal spoken language, the first *as* is often omitted in these constructions:

She went ***white as a sheet*** *when they told her.*

THE FUNCTIONS OF ADJECTIVE PHRASES 239

General 239a

Noun modifiers and copular complement

Adjective phrases have two main functions within larger structures: they modify nouns (attributive function) and they complement copular verbs (predicative function).

Adjective phrases in the attributive function (bold) modify nouns (in green), normally as premodifiers:

*Only **rich** people can afford a flat in **central** London.*

*Enjoy the **smooth**, **silky** taste of **Creamery** butter.*

An adjective phrase has a predicative function when it occurs in a clause as the complement (bold) of a copular verb (in green) such as *appear*, *be*, *become*, *feel*, *get*, *look*, *remain*, *seem*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*:

*They were always **popular** with the rest of the team.*

*The daily rates for the hotel seem **a bit high**, don't they?*

*That chicken tastes **very odd**.*

Object complements

Adjective phrases (bold) may also occur as object (in green) complements:

*I made him **nervous** before the interview. I suppose he wanted the job too much.*

*We've made the room **tidy** so they can move in when they like.*

Adjectives modifying nouns (attributive function) 239b

An adjective phrase (bold) has an attributive function when it occurs as a modifier in a noun phrase (in green):

*She had a **huge** suitcase.*

*It really is an **incredibly beautiful** place.*

*Students **keen to get the best degree** will pay to go to more expensive colleges.*

Position of adjective

Most typically, an attributive adjective phrase occurs as a premodifier in the noun phrase, coming between any determiners and the head noun:

	determiner	adjective phrase	head
And so you're not sure what	*the*	***really important***	*things are.*

*Elsie's got her **best** hat on.*

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If the head of the noun phrase is one of the pronouns *someone*, *somebody*, *something*, *somewhere*; *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *nowhere*; *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *anywhere*; *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything*, *everywhere*, the attributive adjective phrase occurs as a postmodifier:

*There's nothing **good** about being poor.*

*There wasn't really anyone **famous** at Lordsborough [University].*

*There's something **definitely wrong** here.*

Position of adjective and complement

If an attributive adjective has a complement, the whole adjective phrase or just its complement must follow the head noun.

Examples of attributive adjectives with complements

example	type
*Are they a **similar** age?*	adjective with no complement
*Hardin reached under the counter and brought out a badge **similar to the one he was already wearing on his waistcoat**.*	adjective and complement both after the noun head
A: *So how do you see yourselves in twenty years' time?* B: *I would imagine very much in a **similar** position **to my mum and dad now**.*	adjective before the noun head; complement after the noun head

*Helsinki has a character **quite different from the Scandinavian capitals**.*

*You can buy a computer system **good enough for most tasks** for less than £500.*

*It's a **very different** room **from the old one**.*

*I haven't got a **good enough** voice **to sing it**.*

For a number of adjectives, the whole adjective phrase must follow the noun when a complement of the adjective is used. These include *closed*, *eager*, *full*, *happy*, *keen*, *open*, *ready*, *responsible*, *(un)willing*, *worth*:

*Fans **keen to get their hands on the new book** had queued all night.*
(~~Keen fans to get their hands on the new book …~~)

*Events **open to the public** are listed overleaf.*

*By the time we got there, the person **responsible for giving refunds** had gone home.*

*It's a film **worth seeing**.*

Some fixed expressions include postmodifying adjectives, for example *chairperson designate*, *court martial*, *President Elect*.

RESTRICTIONS ON THE FUNCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES 240

Adjectives restricted to noun phrases (attributive-only) 240a

Adjectives in the following meaning categories occur only in noun phrases (the attributive function):

- Degree (intensifiers and downtoners), such as: *absolute*, *complete*, *mere*, *perfect*, *proper*, *pure*, *real*, *sheer*, *true*, *utter*, *veritable*:

  *It was **pure** nonsense.*
  (~~The nonsense was pure.~~)

  *This is **sheer** heaven.*

240c

- Temporal ordering, such as: *former*, *latter*, *present*, *future*, *old* (meaning 'of many years' standing', e.g. *an old friend*), *early* (meaning 'of the initial period in the history of something', e.g. *early English literature*), *late* (meaning 'died recently', e.g. *the late Mrs Thompson*):

  *In 1816 he married Charlotte, daughter of the **future** George IV of England, and lived in England after her death in 1817.*

  *The only permanent display is the **late** actor William Holden's collection of Asian and African art.*
  (*late* = recently deceased/dead)

- Restrictive adjectives, such as: *certain, chief, main, major, only, particular, principal, sole, very*:

  *You know, the **main** reason for being in business at all is profit and that's what you ought to be judging.*

  *He published **major** works on logic and political theory.*

Adjectives restricted to copular complement (predicative-only) 240b

Some adjectives can be used only as a complement to copular verbs (the predicative function), and not attributively. The majority of these are adjectives with the prefix *a-*, and include: *ablaze*, *afloat*, *alive*, *asleep*, *awake*, *awash*:

*The building was **ablaze**, and we were trapped.*
(~~It was an ablaze building, …~~)

*I was **asleep** in bed when she came to tell me.*

Other adjectives that usually occur predicatively are *well* (and *unwell*), and *ill*, referring to states of health:

*His younger brother was **ill**.*

A: *You're looking **well**.*
B: *And you are.*

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Very rarely *well* and *ill* may occur attributively with non-specific nouns such as *man*, *woman*, *child*, *patient*, etc., and *health* may occur with *ill*:

*Dad hadn't been a **well** man for years.*

*Whatever feelings a wife may have, she must not add to her **ill** husband's problems.*

*Two **critically ill** patients were admitted by the hospital late last night.*

*He retired because of **ill** health.*

Adjectives with similar meanings can be substituted in the attributive function for some of the predicative-only adjectives. For example, *live* can substitute for *alive*; *lone* can substitute for *alone*; *sick* can substitute for *ill* and *unwell*; *sleeping* can substitute for *asleep*:

*It's better for digestion if the yoghurts are made with **live** cultures.*
(~~alive~~)

*It's very much a book for the **lone** traveller.*
(~~alone~~)

*Her **sick** child keeps stopping her from working.*
(~~ill~~)

[proverb]
*Let **sleeping** dogs lie.*
(~~asleep~~)

Different attributive and predicative meanings 240c

Some of the adjectives used attributively in 240a above have a different meaning when used in the predicative function:

*It's **sheer** chaos.*
(intensifier meaning: attributive only)

*Care is needed on some of the stretches of path because the cliffs are **sheer**.*
(very steep/vertical; may be used attributively or, as here, predicatively)

*… the **late** actor William Holden …*
(deceased/dead; attributive only)

*The train was **late** again.*
(behind schedule; may be used attributively or, as here, predicatively)

*Of course there's going to be a **certain** amount of risk involved, but you've got to trust me on this.*
(particular but not specified; attributive only)

*I'm not **absolutely certain**, but I think it's very unlikely.*
(sure/definite; normally predicative only)

Complex attributive adjective phrases 240d

When degree modifiers are used in attributive adjective phrases, their position varies. Different degree modifiers require different positions for the adjective phrase in relation to the indefinite article.

Positions of indefinite article and degree modifiers

example	comments
a/an ***very/fairly/moderately/extremely tall*** *man*	typical position: indefinite article + intensifier + adjective
	quite and *rather* are special cases
	for *quite*:
quite *a* ***tall*** *man*	most frequent position: intensifier + indefinite article + adjective
a ***quite tall*** *man*	less frequent position: indefinite article + intensifier + adjective
	for *rather*:
a ***rather tall*** *man*	most frequent position: indefinite article + intensifier + adjective
rather *a* ***tall*** *man*	less frequent position: intensifier + indefinite article + adjective A-Z 66 *Quite;* 67 *Rather*
as/so tall *a man* ***as him***	*as/so* + adjective + indefinite article + noun + complement
a man ***as/so tall as him***	indefinite article + noun + *as/so* + adjective + complement (less frequent in writing but more frequent in informal speech)
a man ***this/that tall***	indefinite article + noun + *this/that* + adjective
this/that tall *a man*	*this/that* + adjective + indefinite article + noun (less frequent)
How tall a man *is he?* *I don't know* ***how tall a man*** *he is.*	*how* + adjective + indefinite article + noun

We kept in touch for ***quite a long time****.*

He seemed ***a rather childish, impetuous fellow****.*

But this is not ***as big a problem as it might first appear****.*

He was willing enough, but my sister was good and virtuous, and hated his brother with ***a hatred as strong as mine****.*

It's not ***that big a place****.*

ORDER OF ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE PHRASES 241

Lists of adjectives

When a noun phrase is premodified by more than one adjective, there is a preferred order for the adjectives. For example, colour normally precedes material:

*A **yellow plastic** container was found at the scene of the crime.*
(~~A plastic yellow container was found …~~)

Shape normally precedes material and material normally precedes purpose:

*You need one of those **round**, **wooden**, **bathing** tubs.*

References to place or origin usually come after colour or shape and before material:

*You need one of those **round**, **Swedish**, **wooden**, **bathing** tubs.*
(~~You need one of those bathing, Swedish, wooden, round tubs.~~)

Evaluative adjectives which describe opinions or attitudes often come before more neutrally descriptive ones:

*She's a **remarkable old** woman. She's just got such a **fantastic**, **long** memory.*
(~~She's an old remarkable woman. She's just got such a long fantastic memory.~~)

The most neutral sequence of adjective types may be summarised as:

(determiner)
evaluation (e)
size (s)
physical quality (q)
shape (sh)
age (ag)
colour (c)
participle (pa)
origin (o)
material (m)
type (t)
purpose (p)
↓
head noun

An example including a number of these types would be:

(**e**) (**s**) (**q**) (**ag**) (**c**) (**o**) (**p**)
*These **wonderful**, **monumental**, **strong**, **old**, **grey**, **Indian**, **log-carrying** elephants of Northern Thailand …*
(an invented example to illustrate the possibilities)

A noun phrase which included all these types would be extremely rare.

Examples of multiple attributive adjectives involving *beautiful*:

(**e**) (**sh**)
*You can also sit in the **beautiful semicircular** courthouse and listen to the trial of a farmer accused of fraud.*

It was designed by Bror Marklund and the whole hall unbelievably won the

(**e**) (**o**) (**p**)
*1964 award for the **most beautiful Swedish public** building.*

(**e**) (**pa**)
*… the **beautiful walled** city of Avila, birthplace of Saint Teresa; …*

(**e**) (**s**) (**ag**)
*It was a **beautiful little old** church.*

(**e**) (**c**) (**pa**)
*Where was that **just most beautiful black-and-white timbered** house?*

Adjectives joined by *and*

Some lists of adjectives are joined by *and*. When a list of adjectives occurs predicatively, the penultimate and final adjectives are normally joined by *and*:

*It was **wet**, **wild and windy**. How can anyone forget a night like that?*

And occurs less commonly when the list of adjectives is in an attributive position:

*A **tall**, **dark**, **mysterious** stranger entered the room.*

And can occur when two or more adjectives of the same category are used, or when the adjectives refer to different parts of the same thing:

*He drives a **red and black** Ferrari.*

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Adverbs and adverb phrases

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Adverbs and adverb phrases

INTRODUCTION 242

Adverbs, the fourth major open word class, have strong affinities with adjectives. Many adverbs are derived from adjectives, mostly by adding the suffix *-ly*.
(**162 Adverbs** for a full description of the construction of adverbs.)

adjective	adverb
nice	*nicely*
beautiful	*beautifully*
fond	*fondly*
slow	*slowly*

Most adverbs, like most adjectives, are gradable: they can be modified by other (degree) adverbs, including comparative forms, to form adverb phrases which are very similar in their structural characteristics to adjective phrases:

*She sings **really beautifully**.*
(compare: She has a really beautiful voice.)

*He played **more skilfully** this time.*
(compare: He was more skilful this time.)

Adverb phrases most typically function as adjuncts in the clause structure, but may also occur as complements:

*I ate my dinner **very slowly**.*
(adjunct)

*Could you put it **just there** please?*
(complement, required by *put*)

*Your sister's **here**.*
(complement of *be*)

However, adverb phrases differ from adjective phrases in their function. Adjective phrases most typically modify noun phrases (or are used in the predicate of the clause to state a quality of a noun phrase). Adverb phrases typically modify verb phrases, adjectives and other adverbs. Some adverbs modify whole clauses or sentences:

*I think a doctor or a nurse should be a **careful** person, and she isn't.*
(adjective: modifying the noun *person*)

*I was always very **careful** not to offend them.*
(adjective: predicative, describing the subject *I*)

*They walked **carefully** along the edge of the canal.*
(adverb: modifying the verb phrase; answers the question '*How* did they walk?')
(~~They walked careful along the edge of the canal.~~)

Adjectives cannot modify verbs:

She spoke angrily.
(~~She spoke angry.~~)

Here are some examples of how adverbs modify different items:

*Talk **properly**!*
(modifying a verb – *talk*)

*An **extremely** tall man came round the corner.*
(modifying an adjective – *tall*)

*The business in Holland went **remarkably** smoothly.*
(modifying another adverb – *smoothly*)

***Only** someone very stupid would say that.*
(modifying a noun phrase – *someone very stupid*)

*We've got our silver wedding **soon**, so we're planning a few days away.*
(modifying the whole clause)

***Frankly**, when he smiles, it terrifies me.*
(modifying the whole sentence)

Adverbs do not normally have inflected forms, but a few, most of which are identical in form to adjectives, inflect for comparison (e.g. *far*, *fast*, *hard*, *high*, *long*, *low*):

*We haven't got very **far** with that yet.*

*That's probably the area where they've gone **furthest**.*

*But the happy life did not last **long**.*

*You know, she'd be quite happy to stay **longer**.*

465 Comparative and superlative adverbs

ADVERB PHRASES 243

Adverbs function as the head of adverb phrases.

An adverb may function alone as the head of the adverb phrase or it may have dependents of various kinds.

In general, these dependents are similar in type to those found in adjective phrases – partly because most adverbs are related to adjectives and partly because many adverbs, like many adjectives, are gradable.

Examples of simple adverb phrases (head only) and complex adverb phrases (head + dependents) are given in the table below.

Simple and complex adverb phrases (adverb phrases are in green, adverb heads are in bold)

example	dependents
*You **rarely** get a full break.*	head only
***Personally** I'm not fond of ice cream.*	head only
*The six weeks went by very **quickly**.*	premodifier + head
*Dr Smith wrote back fairly **promptly**.*	premodifier + head
*It's amazing how **quickly** you get used to it.*	premodifier + head
*But **luckily** enough, neighbours did see them and called the police.*	head + postmodifier
*He plays really **well** for a beginner.*	premodifier + head + postmodifier
***Unfortunately** for me, I started to get ill.*	head + complement
*Its body seems to move almost **independently** of the head.*	premodifier + head + complement

Occasionally, the structure may be more complex:

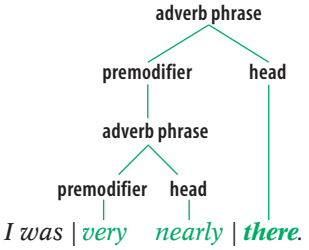

The structure of the adverb phrase may also be discontinuous, i.e. it may consist of a structure which commences before the adverb and is completed after it:

*I think he put it more **succinctly** than that.*
(*than that* is the complement of *more*)

*Nuclear power stations produce electricity much more **cheaply** than other types of power station.*

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TYPES OF MEANING 244

There are a number of different types of meaning adverb phrases can have. The important general types are shown in the table below.

Main types of meaning of adverb phrases

type	function	example
manner	refers to how something happens	*Those flowers grow **quickly**, don't they?* *The vicar spoke **very nicely**.*
place	refers to where something happens	*Many **locally** owned bookshops are cutting prices.* *Sign **here** please.*
time	refers to when something happens	*Her father died **recently**.* *He came in **very early**.*
duration	refers to length of time over which something happens	*No, I'm not staying there **permanently**.*
frequency	refers to how often something happens	*I **often** go and see them.*
degree	refers to how much, to what degree something happens	*I was **greatly** relieved when we were finally rid of her.*
focusing	focuses on or specifies an entity	Waiter: *What about you, sir?* Customer: ***Just** ice cream please.*
modal	expresses degrees of truth, possibility, necessity, etc.	*She **most probably** thinks I'm joking.*
evaluative	judges or comments on the event, gives the speaker's opinion	*I **stupidly** forgot to mention the meeting to him.*
viewpoint	expresses the perspective or standpoint from which the speaker sees things	*I **personally** don't think you would hate it, Elaine.*
linking	links and relates clauses and sentences to one another	*She wanted to study but there wasn't any provision. **However**, her younger sisters are now studying.*

326b and **326c** on the order of adverbs

ADVERBS MODIFYING PHRASES 245

Types of modification 245a

The following types of modification are common. (Adverb phrases are in bold, modified phrases are in green.)

- Adverb phrase modifying verb phrase:

  *He's played **extremely well**.*

  *She blushed **furiously**.*

- Adverb phrase modifying adjective phrase:

  *It was **perfectly** acceptable.*

  *Her heartbeat was **very slightly** erratic.*

- Adverb phrase modifying adverb phrase:

  *She'd worked **extremely** hard.*

  *It seems to affect different people **completely** differently.*

- Adverb phrase modifying noun phrase:

  *It's a chapel but it's **almost** a cave.*

  *It takes **quite** a dose to reach fatal levels.*

- Adverb phrase modifying prepositional phrase:

  *It's really **right** out in the country.*

  *The situation was **completely** out of control.*

Degree adverbs and focusing adverbs 245b

Degree adverbs and focusing adverbs are the most common type of adverb modifiers of phrases. These include (adverbs in bold, modified phrases in green):

Degree

absolutely	*fairly*	*slightly*
a (little) bit	*highly*	*somewhat*
almost	*a lot*	*terribly*
awfully	*lots*	*too*
completely	*perfectly*	*totally*
doubly	*pretty*	*utterly*
enough	*quite*	*very*
entirely	*rather*	
extremely	*remarkably*	

*I wouldn't mind living **a bit** longer.*

*Oh that will make it **doubly** attractive won't it?*

*The food was **pretty** awful actually.*

***Quite** obviously they don't want to push anything under the carpet.*

*They don't normally have three together so it seemed **rather** strange.*

*He's going to be **terribly** upset.*

*His sister is **totally** different from his brother.*

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Focusing

especially	*largely*	*simply*
generally	*only*	
just	*particularly*	

They'd be upset, ***especially*** *my father, if I didn't try.*

I just feel ***generally*** *fed up.*

Evaluative adverbs 245c

Evaluative adverbs are also used to modify phrases:

But something has gone ***oddly*** *wrong in the meantime.*

The family, two brothers and a sister, lived ***curiously*** *isolated.*

EVALUATIVE, VIEWPOINT AND LINKING (DISJUNCT AND CONJUNCT) ADVERBS 246

Often adverbs are fully integrated in the clause (244 above, the examples of manner, place and time adverbs). However, adverbs may be less integrated in the clause structure and may modify the whole sentence or utterance. Evaluative and viewpoint adverbs often function in this way. Adverbs of this type are referred to as disjunct adverbs:

What was more, ***oddly****, he seemed to have bought enough for two.*
(evaluative)

Personally*, I think it's a waste of time.*
(viewpoint)

Linking adverbs express a logical relationship (e.g. cause and consequence, sequence in time, contrast) between two clauses or sentences. These may be referred to as conjunct adverbs:

The overwhelming majority of big-name French chefs are, as they have always been, men. There is one place, ***however****, that for 100 years and more has provided an exception – Lyon, close to the Swiss and Italian borders and France's second city.*

The bad news is that your shares are almost certainly overvalued at present, as is the entire banking sector. The good news is that they are probably worth keeping ***anyway****.*

COPULAR VERBS (*BE*, *SEEM*) AND COMPLEMENTATION 247

Copular verbs such as *be*, *seem*, *become*, *get*, *grow*, *look*, *smell*, *taste* describe the state of people and things, and are complemented by adjectives, not adverbs:

Hmm, it ***smells*** *a bit* ***funny****.*
(~~It smells a bit funnily.~~)

It ***looks interesting****.*

It ***seems odd*** *that we were not told.*

But some of these verbs can also be used to denote actions, in which case they may be used with adverbs:

I ***looked briefly*** *through the papers.*
(action of looking)

She ***smelt*** *it* ***carefully*** *before drinking it.*
(action of smelling)

ADVERBS USED AS SHORT RESPONSES 248

Some degree, modal and focusing adverbs occur very frequently in spoken language as single-word responses indicating the respondent's attitude or stance:

A: *That's a fair comment, isn't it?*
B: ***Absolutely****.*

A: *It's more for the kids, isn't it?*
B: *You think so?*
A: *Yeah,* ***definitely****.*

A: *He might have been away at the time.*
B: *Well,* ***possibly****.*

A: *Didn't you think it was just a joke?*
B: *Yeah,* ***probably****.*

A: *She's obviously going to tear it up and throw it in the bin.*
B: ***Precisely****.*

A: *Well, you wear a little black dress to clubs or to a party.*
B: *Yeah,* ***exactly****.*

A: *Not easy, mind you, accommodating everything in our bedroom.*
B: *Well, yes,* ***quite****.*

Not really is also very commonly used in this way to soften a bare *no*-answer:

A: *Have you been in smaller classes before?*
B: ***Not really****.*

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Note that *certainly* most typically occurs as a single-word reply to a request for a service or favour (compare *definitely* above, which strengthens the force of an utterance):

[to a waiter]
A: *Can I have the bill please?*
B: ***Certainly***.

Intensifying adverbs often occur alone in responses:

A: *It's hot in here.*
B: *Yes,* ***very***.

A: *She's a very bright kid.*
B: *She is, yes,* ***incredibly***.

95 Response tokens

ADVERBS AND DISCOURSE MARKERS 249

Most discourse markers belong to the general class of adverbs. However, it is their function as organisers of larger stretches of conversation or text which qualify them for classification as discourse markers. The discourse marking functions of adverbs include signalling closure and pre-closure, labelling of text segments, topic changes, asides.

Compare the use of *anyway* as a linking (conjunct) adverb and as a discourse marker:

I shouldn't be jealous but I am ***anyway***.
(conjunct)

A: *Sorry. You know what I mean. Sounds like you're gonna post it or something.*
B: *No.*
A: *Oh.* ***Anyway****, I'll have to go cos I've got to ring Bob.*
B: *Right.*
(discourse marker, signalling closure)

108 Discourse markers

Prepositions and prepositional phrases

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Prepositions and prepositional phrases

INTRODUCTION 250

Prepositions express a relation in space between two or more entities or a relation in time between two events, or various other abstract relations:

*Don't walk **on** the grass.*

*She fell asleep **during** the film.*

***After** the interview, they phoned the police.*

*She sent me an email **about** the conference.*

Prepositional phrases (in green) consist of a preposition as head (bold), and a complement. The complement is usually a noun phrase, though it may sometimes be an *-ing* clause or, less frequently, a *wh*-clause:

*They decided to meet **in** a park.*

***During** the war they moved **to** Wales.*

*They left just **after** six o'clock.*

*It's a good way **of** losing weight.*

*He passed the exam **by** working every night.*

*She went back **to** where she used to work.*

The complement of a preposition may also be an adverb phrase (usually one of place or time):

*Just come **through** here and I'll show you where the problem is.*

*Many of these treatments were used **until** quite recently.*

Prepositional phrases as complements of a preposition are less common:

*He looked at me **from** behind the tree.*

*I can't see you **until** after lunch.*

✪ Prepositions are not followed by the base form of a verb or by *that*-clauses:

*Where's that thing **for** chopping vegetables?*
(~~Where's that thing for chop vegetables?~~)

They were disappointed that we couldn't come.
(or: They were disappointed by the fact that we couldn't come.)
(~~They were disappointed by that we couldn't come.~~)

We're relying ***on*** *him being there to help us.*
(~~We're relying on that he will be there to help us.~~)

We're looking forward ***to*** *see****ing*** *you soon.*
(preposition *to* + *-ing* form)
(~~We're looking forward to see you soon.~~)

To plus the base form of a verb is called the *to*-infinitive and is not a prepositional phrase:

We're hoping ***to see*** *you soon.*
(*to*-infinitive)

SIMPLE PREPOSITIONS 251

There are over 100 prepositions in English, including complex and marginal prepositions. A list of more than 50 common simple prepositions is given here. Some word pairs have over time become fused as simple prepositions (e.g. *upon*, *into*):

aboard	*but*	*past*
about	*by*	*round*
above	*despite*	*since*
across	*down*	*than*
after	*during*	*through*
against	*except*	*to*
along	*for*	*toward*
amid	*from*	*towards*
among	*in*	*under*
around	*inside*	*underneath*
as	*into*	*unlike*
at	*like*	*until*
before	*near*	*up*
behind	*of*	*upon*
below	*off*	*via*
beneath	*on*	*with*
beside	*onto*	*within*
besides	*opposite*	*without*
between	*outside*	
beyond	*over*	

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COMPLEX PREPOSITIONS 252

Although most prepositions are single words, some pairs and groups of words operate like single prepositions:

***As for** me, I'd rather have a holiday in January, when it's cold and wet.*

*The street below was empty **except for** a girl walking along sobbing quietly and a boy behind her trying to explain.*

*I'd never say that **in front of** the children.*

*There'll be **up to** 50 people there, I would think.*

Pairs and groups of words which function in this way include:

ahead of	*for lack of*	*near to*
apart from	*in addition to*	*on account of*
as for	*in aid of*	*on top of*
as of	*in exchange for*	*out of*
as well as	*in favour of*	*outside of*
because of	*in front of*	*owing to*
but for	*in line with*	*prior to*
by means of	*in place of*	*subsequent to*
by virtue of	*inside of*	*such as*
due to	*in spite of*	*thanks to*
except for	*instead of*	*up to*

PREPOSITIONS AND OTHER WORD CLASSES 253

Prepositions and conjunctions 253a

Some words which are prepositions also function as conjunctions. Among the most common are *after*, *as*, *before*, *since*, *until*. When followed by a noun phrase, they act as prepositions; when followed by a clause, they act as conjunctions:

***After** the meeting he rang me to apologise.*
(preposition)

***After** we spoke this afternoon, he rang me to apologise.*
(conjunction)

*Has morale improved, **since** his explanation?*
(preposition)

*Has morale improved **since** he explained everything to them?*
(conjunction)

Prepositions and adverbs 253b

Several words which are prepositions also belong to the word class of adverbs. These are often called prepositional adverbs. Common prepositional adverbs are: *about*, *across*, *around*, *before*, *beyond*, *down*, *in*, *inside*, *near*, *on*, *opposite*, *past*, *through*, *under*, *up*, *within*. Prepositional adverbs normally stand alone:

Too many visitors were left to walk ***in*** *the castle unsupervised.*
(preposition)

We stayed ***in*** *last night.*
(prepositional adverb: *in* = at home)

PREPOSITIONAL MEANINGS: LITERAL AND METAPHORICAL 254

Many common prepositions can indicate a wide range of relations in space and time and other more abstract relations. For example, *at*, *in* and *on* can express relations in time and space as well as abstract relations:

at *6.30*

in *the garden*

on *New Year's Day*

to feel ***at*** *ease*

the woman dressed ***in*** *white*

a book ***on*** *the history of aircraft*

The more abstract relations indicated by prepositions can often be seen as metaphorical extensions of their literal meanings. This is particularly the case with prepositions which refer to space. Basic spatial prepositions are often extended metaphorically to more abstract meanings:

That map you need is ***behind*** *the filing-cabinet.*
(basic spatial sense)

The whole nation was ***behind*** *the team.*
(gave support)

The socialists are ***behind*** *the communists in the polls.*
(competition as a race)

Who's ***behind*** *his plan?*
(describing agency: Who is responsible for his plan?)

What's the reason ***behind*** *his resignation?*
(describing causes)

Beyond *the gardens, there were open fields.*
(basic spatial sense)

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*Trigonometry was just **beyond** me.*
(Trigonometry was just too difficult for me.)

*You'll need to put a jacket **over** that blouse. It's cold.*

*There was a serious dispute **over** performance-related pay.*

Note that, when used metaphorically, the preposition can usually be modified by an adverb of degree:

*The team was **completely with** the manager.*
(*was with* = supported)
(metaphorical)

*I went on holiday **with** an old friend of mine.*
(~~I went on holiday completely with an old friend of mine~~.)

STRUCTURE OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES 255

Premodification 255a

Prepositions may be premodified. This applies mainly to prepositions with a gradable spatial or temporal meaning:

*They went deep **into** the forest.*

*She doesn't like flying and only started to relax when we were high **above** the clouds.*

*It was too foggy to see but the hotel was only a short distance **in front of** them.*

*Be careful. The lamp's just **above** your head.*

*They arrived just **before** the guests.*

Complementation by a verb 255b

The form of the verb which follows a preposition is the *-ing* form:

*Is she responsible **for handling** all the phone calls and for managing the office?*

*The new director has devoted herself **to raising** funds.*

*Do you think they have any interest **in selling** the house?*

Sometimes the subject of the verb occurs between the preposition and the *-ing* form. If this subject is a pronoun, in everyday informal styles the object form of the pronoun is used:

*Within a few hours **of us putting** the ad in the paper, we had over twenty phone calls.*

***Because of them being** so reasonable, at least compared with the rest of the group, the airline made them wait to catch the next flight.*

In more formal styles the possessive pronoun form is used:

Well, this may result ***in his receiving*** *lots of unwanted junk mail.*
(less formal: This may result in him receiving lots of unwanted junk mail.)

also **285f Verbs normally only followed by *-ing***

A number of verbs, such as *arrange*, *ask*, *long*, *wait*, are followed by the preposition *for* + noun/pronoun + *to*-infinitive. In such cases, *for* is not followed by an *-ing* form:

They've ***arranged for*** *the cases* ***to be transferred*** *direct onto the flight.*

Didn't you ***ask for*** *it* ***to be delivered*** *by midday?*

She's been ***longing for*** *David* ***to call*** *her.*

I've been ***waiting for*** *the bank statement* ***to clear*** *it all up.*
(~~I've been waiting for the bank statement clearing it all up~~.)

A–Z **43 *For***

FUNCTION OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES 256

Adjuncts

Prepositional phrases commonly function as adjuncts in the clause:

During the visit *the inspectors will review the factory very thoroughly.*

Prepositional verbs

Prepositional phrases also commonly function as the complements of verbs. Where a special preposition is required to introduce the complement of the verb, such verbs are called prepositional verbs:

It ***depends on*** *the weather.*

Please ***listen to*** *me.*

She has decided to ***confide in*** *her doctor.*

I promise to ***look at*** *the results this afternoon.*

235f, 235g

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

Sometimes the preposition is preceded by an adverb particle, and the verb + adverb particle + preposition structure forms a verb with a unitary meaning. These verbs are called phrasal-prepositional verbs:

I don't know how she'll ***put up with*** *the noise.*

We're ***looking forward to*** *the match.*

Predicative complements

Prepositional phrases also act as predicative complements, most typically of place:

*I was **at the office** all day.*

*Just put it **on my desk**, please.*

Postmodifiers and complements

Prepositional phrases act as postmodifiers or as complements in noun phrases (in green):

*That guy **in the pub last night** was getting on my nerves.*
(postmodifier)

*It was in the shape **of a triangle**.*
(complement)

They also act as postmodifiers and complements in adjective and adverb phrases (in green):

*She's quite tall **for a five-year-old**, isn't she?*
(postmodifier)

*Both brothers were good **at football**.*
(complement)

*He performed quite well **on the whole**.*
(postmodifier)

*Luckily **for me** there was another train just half an hour later.*
(postmodifier)

Premodifiers

Numerals may be premodified by a prepositional phrase:

*Children of **under** fourteen years of age will not be admitted.*

*It'll cost **just over** two hundred pounds.*

Preposition stranding **257**

A preposition is described as stranded when it is separated from its complement:

complement **preposition**
***What** was she referring **to**?*
(preposition stranding)

prep + comp
***To what** was she referring?*
(more formal, without preposition stranding)

In traditional style guides, advice is often given never to end a sentence with a preposition, meaning that prepositions should not be stranded. However, the situation concerning the usage of prepositions is rather more complex than such advice suggests.

Preposition stranding occurs in the following main structures:

Who did you talk ***to****?* (*wh*-interrogatives)

I need someone to go ***with****.* (relative clauses)

It's the only garage which we have any confidence ***in****.* (relative clauses)

Tell me what they are so afraid ***of****.* (indirect *wh*-interrogatives)

It's being looked ***into****.* (passives)

It's too slippery to walk ***on****.* (infinitive complements)

Preposition stranding is common in informal styles. In formal structures, prepositions tend to occur with their complements:

He is the officer we'd been talking ***with****.* (informal)

He is the officer ***with whom*** *we'd been talking.* (formal)

Which building was the smoke coming ***out of****?* (informal)

Out of which *building was the smoke coming?* (formal)

When a prepositional phrase is the complement of a verb (*went* ***to the match*** in the example below), the stranded preposition may occur before or after the prepositional phrase:

He's the friend I went to the match ***with*** *last Wednesday.*
(or: *He's the friend I went* ***with*** *to the match last Wednesday.*)

If the context allows for ellipsis, a reduced *wh*-question may consist simply of a *wh*-word + stranded preposition:

A: *We're* ***going*** *on holiday next week.*
B: *Oh,* ***where to****?*

A: *I've got to buy a birthday card.*
B: *Oh yeah.* ***Who for****?*

When the meaning is obvious from the text, stranded prepositions of place may occasionally be omitted, especially in informal conversation:

A: *Do you like Tokyo?*
B: *Yes, it's a very safe place to live.*
(understood: Yes, it's a very safe place to live in.)

A: *I'm going out tonight.*
B: *Oh yeah, where?*
(understood: Where to?)

Some prepositions, including frequent prepositions such as *during* and *since*, resist stranding:

During which of the terms *did it happen, spring or autumn?*
(preferred to: ~~Which of the terms did it happen during?~~)

Since when *has the train service stopped?*
(~~When has the train service stopped since?~~)

also **472–475 Word order and focus; 94 Ellipsis**

A–Z **5 *About;* 6 *Above;* 7 *According to;* 10 *After, afterwards;* 11 *Against;* 21 *At;* 24 *Before;* 26 *Between, among;* 32 *Down;* 33 *During;* 43 *For;* 55 *Of;* 63 *Over;* 79 *With***

Word structure and word formation

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Word structure and word formation

INTRODUCTION 258

Word structure (morphology) 258a

The word is the basic unit which relates the grammar of a language to its vocabulary. Words have internal structure which indicates their grammatical identity (e.g. that the word is plural, or past tense) and their lexical identity (e.g. that the word *unhappiness* is a noun with negative meaning referring to emotions).

Grammar is generally divided into the study of the structure of sentences, which is called syntax, and the study of the internal structure of words, which is called morphology.

Words are composed of morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning. Some words consist of just one morpheme; some consist of several.

In the table below, the words *dog* and *drink* cannot be broken down into smaller meaningful units. They are words which consist of one morpheme.

Examples of words and their morphemes

word	morpheme(s)
dog	*dog*
drink	*drink*
dogs	*dog* + *s*
drank	*drink* + irregular past *a*
drinkable	*drink* + *able*
impenetrable	*im* + *penetr* + *able*
intolerable	*in* + *toler* + *able*
irregular	*ir* + *regular*
midday	*mid* + *day*
homesick	*home* + *sick*
homesickness	*home* + *sick* + *ness*

In the table we may note various kinds of morpheme.

Affixes

Some of the morphemes are attached to the beginning or the end of words. These are affixes. Affixes attached to the beginning of words are prefixes; those attached to the ends of words are suffixes.

Inflectional morphemes

Some of the affixes express grammatical relations (e.g. the *-s* on *dogs* indicates plural; the past form *drank* contrasts with the present *drink*). These are inflectional morphemes.

Derivational morphemes

Some of the affixes express lexical relations by forming new or different words when attached to basic words (e.g. *-able* indicates that something is possible; *mid-* indicates the middle part of something). These are derivational morphemes.

Allomorphs

Some morphemes have a variation in form, even though their meaning is the same (e.g. ***im**-penetrable*, ***in**-edible*, ***ir**-regular*, all meaning 'not'; *-ible* and *-able* both meaning 'can be done'). These variations are known as allomorphs. Allomorphs are also seen in inflections , e.g. noun plurals (*book**s***, *glass**es***) and verb endings (*seem**s***, *watch**es***).

Compounds

Whole words may combine with each other (e.g. *home* and *sick*). Such combinations are called compounds.

Word, stem and base 258b

The form of a word to which prefixes and suffixes attach is called the stem. A simple word of one morpheme consists of a stem only. Words consisting of a stem plus prefixes and/or suffixes are complex words.

Examples of words showing stems and affixes

	word	stem	prefixes/suffixes
1	*snowy*	*snow*	*-y*
2	*untraceable*	*trace*	*un-* *-able*
3	*deduce, reduce, produce*	*-duce*	*de-* *re-* *pro-*
4	*capture, captive*	*capt-*	*-ure* *-ive*
5	*recapture*	*capt-*	*re-* *-ure*

The stem may not necessarily be a whole independent word, as can be seen in the table.

Snow and *trace* are free stems; they can stand alone. The forms *-duce* and *capt-* are bound stems; they can only be used in combination with prefixes or suffixes.

The stem on its own may be restricted to certain combinations. In example **5** in the table the prefix *re-* can only attach to *capture* (we cannot say *recaptive*). In *recapture*, *capture* is called the base. A base may already include an affix. In the following words, the base is in bold:

***grammar**ian*

***grammatical**ity*

*un**grammatical***

Inflectional morphemes (bold) attach to whole lexemes (in green):

*Grammarian**s** have often disagree**d** on this point.*

*Poetry de-familiarize**s** the everyday.*

*We never send postcard**s**.*

Inflectional morphology of various kinds is central to many of the chapters in this book. This chapter describes the main types of inflection, but deals mainly with lexical morphology, i.e. in the four main word classes, noun, verb, adjective, adverb. Grammatical morphology is dealt with under areas such as tense, aspect, person, voice and number in other chapters.

INFLECTION 259

English does not make much use of word structure to express grammatical meanings and, unlike other languages, the inflection of words is limited. Inflections in English are realised by the suffixes in the table below.

Inflectional suffixes

suffix	examples
noun plurals (e.g. *-s,-es,-en*)	*car**s**, bush**es**, ox**en***
3rd person singular present tense *-s*	*he work**s**, it rise**s***
past tense *-ed*	*we walk**ed**; I smok**ed***
-ing form as progressive aspect	*she's runn**ing**; we were laugh**ing***
-ed form as *-ed* participle	*they've land**ed**, he was beat**en***
comparative forms *-er, -est*	*he's small**er**, I'm small**est***
negative verb inflection *-n't*	*I ca**n't**; they wo**n't***

Inflection also sometimes occurs through internal vowel or consonant change.

Examples of inflection through vowel or consonant change

*g**oo**se*	*g**ee**se*	plural
*h**a**ng*	*h**u**ng*	past tense
*f**a**r*	*f**u**rther*	comparative
*advi**s**e*	*advi**c**e*	verb to noun

Sometimes an inflected form is identical to its non-inflected form (for example, where the singular and plural have the same form). This is called syncretism.

Examples of syncretism

*d**ee**r*	*d**ee**r*	plural
*s**e**t*	*s**e**t*	past tense, *-ed* participle

Sometimes, an alternative word is used for a particular inflectional meaning, a process known as suppletion.

Examples of suppletion

be	*am, are, is*	present tense
go	*went*	past tense

Inflections do not change the meaning of a word. *Walk* and *walked* have the same lexical meaning; they are forms of the same lexeme. *Responsible* and *irresponsible* have different meanings; they are different lexemes.

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WORD FORMATION 260

Present-day English has four main processes of word formation: prefixation, suffixation, conversion and compounding.

Prefixation

Prefixation involves adding a prefix to a base or stem:

__ante__natal, __ante__room
__de__criminalise, __de__form
__post__-1945, __post__graduate
__pro__-life, __pro__-Europe
__un__tidy, __un__happiness, __un__usual, __un__democratic

Suffixation

Suffixation involves adding a suffix to a base or stem:

age__ism__, terror__ism__
king__dom__, free__dom__
ident__ify__
reason__able__, unprofit__able__
unhappi__ly__, slow__ly__

Conversion

Conversion involves the change of a word from one word class to another. For example, the verbs *to screen* and *to fax* are formed from the nouns *screen* and *fax*. The verb *to narrow* is formed from the adjective *narrow*; the noun *love* from the verb *to love*:

*The film is an absolute **must** for all lovers of Westerns.*
(noun from verb)

*Can we **microwave** it?*
(verb from noun)

*Internet **downloads** can be expensive.*
(noun from verb)

*They decided that they had to **broaden** his appeal.*
(verb from adjective)

Less often, internal vowel change or one form replacing another (suppletion) may indicate a change in word class or sub-class.

Examples of change in word class through vowel change and suppletion

h__o__t	*h__ea__t*	adjective ➛ noun
r__i__se	*r__ai__se*	intransitive verb ➛ transitive verb (change in sub-class)
d__ee__p	*d__e__pth*	adjective ➛ noun (plus suffix; similarly, *wide* ➛ *width*)
mouth	*oral*	noun ➛ adjective (suppletion)

Some words can change class by a shift in stress from one syllable to another. Typically, the stress is on the first syllable when the word is a noun and on the second syllable when the word is a verb, e.g. ***re**cord* (noun, with stress on the first syllable) becomes *re**cord*** (verb, with stress on the second syllable).

Compounding

Compounding involves linking together two or more bases to create a new word. Normally, the first item identifies a key feature of the second word. For example, the two bases *head* and *ache* can combine to form the compound word *headache*:

award-winning
helpline
house-proud
input
long-running
postcard

266 Hyphenation

In addition to the main processes, English allows words to be formed by abbreviation (which includes clipping, acronyms and blends) (267a), and back-formation (267b).

PREFIXES 261

The main prefixes used in English

prefix	meaning	examples
a-	(i) in a particular way or condition (ii) without (note different pronunciation)	(i) *awake, asleep* (first syllable pronounced /ə/) (ii) *atypical, amoral* (first syllable pronounced /eɪ/)
anti-	against or opposed to	*antibiotic, anticlimax, anti-nuclear*
ante-	before	*antenatal, antechamber*
auto-	self	*autobiography, autograph*
de-	to reverse, to alter	*decommission, deform, destabilise*
dis-	to reverse, to remove	*disarm, disagree, dismantle, disqualify*
down-	to lower, to reduce	*downsize, downgrade*
dys-	not regular or normal	*dyslexia, dysfunctional*
extra-	beyond	*extramural, extraordinary, extraterrestrial*
half	one of two equal parts	*halfway, half-moon*
hyper-	extreme	*hyperactive, hyperinflation*
hypo-	less than usual, too little	*hypothermia, hypotension*
il-, im-, in-, ir-	not	*illegal, impossible, intolerant, irresponsible*
inter-	between	*interactive, intercontinental, international*
intra-	within	*intra-departmental, intramural*
intro-	directed within	*introvert, introspection*
mega-	very big, important	*megabyte, megastar*
mid-	middle	*midday, mid-September*
mis-	incorrectly, badly	*misinterpret, misunderstand, misinform*
non-	not	*non-smoker, non-stick, non-believer*
over-	too much	*overeat, overindulgent*

continued overleaf

continued

prefix	meaning	examples
out-	go beyond/exceed	*outdo, outshine, outbid*
para-	(i) beyond; (ii) similar or connected to	(i) *paranormal*; (ii) *paramedic, paramilitary*
post-	after	*post-war, postpone*
pre-	before	*pre-1990, predetermined, pre-set*
pro-	in favour of	*pro-Europe, pro-nationalisation*
re-	again	*reapply, refocus*
semi-	half	*semicircle, semiconscious*
sub-	under, below, secondary	*subway, subtitle, subzero, subnormal*
super-	above, beyond, excessive	*superstructure, superhero, supersensitive*
tele-	at a distance	*telecommunication, television, telepathy*
trans-	across	*transatlantic, transmit*
ultra-	extremely	*ultralight, ultrasonic*
un-	(i) remove; (ii) reverse, not	(i) *undress, undo*; (ii) *unhappy, unlucky*
up-	make higher, increase	*upgrade, uplift, upscale*
under-	beneath, less than	*underworld, under-age, underestimate*
vice	deputy	*vice-president, viceroy*

Prefixes which change the class of a word

Prefixes do not typically change the class of a word. One example is the prefix *be-*, which can change a noun into a verb (e.g. *bewitch*, *besiege*), or an adjective into a verb (e.g. *belittle*, *becalm*). Similarly, the prefixes *em-* and *en-* can create a verb from a noun or adjective (e.g. *embitter*, *embolden*, *encode*, *endanger*, *enlarge*, *enlighten*).

SUFFIXES 262

Prefixes have a semantic role; suffixes also have a semantic role but they additionally change the class of a word. The tables below show the common suffixes by word class (together with an indication of the most common types of class change where appropriate).

Suffixes which form nouns

suffix	examples
-age	(count to non-count noun) *baggage, mileage*
-al	(verb to noun) *arrival, burial, withdrawal*
-ant/-ent	*assistant, coolant, deodorant, student*
-ance/-ence	(verb to noun) *defiance, insistence, pretence*
-arium/-orium	*aquarium, crematorium, sanatorium*
-dom	*boredom, freedom, stardom, wisdom*
-ee	*absentee, devotee, trainee*
-ar/-er/-or	(verb to noun) *registrar, singer, indicator*
-ie/-y	*kiddie, daddy, puppy*
-hood	*childhood, motherhood, knighthood*
-ism	*defeatism, Marxism, pacifism*
-ist	*Buddhist, exhibitionist, impressionist*
-ity/-ty	*deity, rarity, similarity, cruelty, casualty*

continued

suffix	examples
-let/-ette	(diminutives) *hamlet, booklet, kitchenette*
-ment	(verb to noun) *amazement, disappointment*
-ness	(adjective to noun) *friendliness, kindness*
-ary/-ery/-ory	*library, fishery, laboratory*
-(r)y	(verb to noun) *entry, inquiry, bribery*
-ship	*craftsmanship, membership*
-sion/-tion/-xion	*confusion, ammunition, expedition, infection, complexion*
-(at)ion	(verb to noun) *formation, resignation*

Suffixes which form adjectives

suffix	examples
-ble	(verb to adjective) *readable, workable, responsible*
-al	*informal, criminal*
-ed	(noun to adjective) *bearded, long-sighted, short-tailed*
-en	(noun to adjective) *woollen, golden, wooden*
-ese	(noun to adjective) *Japanese, Taiwanese, Vietnamese*
-ful	*grateful, helpful, mindful*
-i	(noun to adjective) *Pakistani, Iraqi, Omani*
-ic(al)	(noun to adjective) *heroic, poetic, historic(al)*
-ish	(noun to adjective) *foolish, Danish, Polish*
-ive	(verb to adjective) *adhesive, offensive, productive*
-ian	(noun to adjective) *Brazilian, Christian, Iranian*
-less	*childless, priceless*
-like	*business-like, rubber-like*
-ly	(noun to adjective) *monthly, yearly, manly*
-ous	*enormous, famous, nervous*
-type	*A-type, Hollywood-type*
-y	*windy, shaky, frosty*

Suffixes which form verbs

suffix	examples
-ate	*dominate, irritate*
-en	(adjective to verb) *harden, lengthen, stiffen*
-ify	*identify, magnify*
-ise/-ize	*caramelise, Americanize*

507–511 Appendix: English spelling for *s* and *z* spellings

Suffixes which form adverbs

suffix	examples
-ly	*slowly, aggressively*
-ward(s)	*backwards, homeward(s)*
-wise	*clockwise, edgewise*

Very occasionally, non-suffixed and suffixed forms may be used more or less synonymously (e.g. *disorient/disorientate*; *transport/transportation*).

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Change of sub-class

Occasionally a suffix may change a word to a sub-class of the same word class. For example, *gun* and *gunner* are both nouns but one is inanimate, the other animate. Compare also *cook* (person) ➛ *cooker* (thing), *Berlin* (place) ➛ *Berliner* (person), *mathematics* (thing) ➛ *mathematician* (person).

-*ish* and -*y* in informal contexts **263**

The -*ish* suffix is used widely in informal spoken English to soften or hedge numbers and quantities when precise reference is not necessary or is inappropriate:

So we're meeting at eleven, well ***elevenish****.*

I think she's ***thirtyish*** *but she looks a lot younger.*

-*ish* may occasionally be used on its own in informal conversation. It functions to make something deliberately vague and is not used only to refer to numbers and quantities:

A: *Did you say you'll be here at five?*
B: *Well,* ***-ish****. It depends on the traffic.*

A: *Are you hungry?*
B: ***-ish****. What about you?*

Although -*ish* is most commonly used with numbers, dates, times and quantities, it is a productive suffix and speakers creatively attach it to a wide range of words from different word classes.

Though not as frequent as - *ish*, the -*y* suffix functions in similar ways in informal contexts. It is especially used with colours:

[the speaker is talking about a blouse and is trying to decide what to wear]
But I mean I love the collar and the short turn-up sleeves. You may see them in there in your one pink deep pink and er this beautiful ***bluey*** *turquoise and a* ***beigey*** *colour which I can't wear. If they'd had white I might have tried. Well it still would have stuck out.*

It has a sort of ***woody*** *taste, doesn't it?*

What's that ***plasticky*** *thing sticking out there?*

[the speakers here are deciding about the colour of a pair of cushions]
A: *Well it's a kind of* ***orangey*** *red isn't it.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Or is it a* ***reddy*** *orange?*
B: *It's not a* ***reddy*** *orange.*
A: ***Orangey*** *red.*
C: *Or* ***reddish****.*

Note also the changes in spelling which are sometimes necessary with these suffixes (*red* ➛ *reddish* ➛ *reddy; plastic* ➛ *plasticky*)

CONVERSION 264

Conversion involves changing a word from one word class to another but without adding any affix. For example, when the adjective *solid* is turned into the verb *to solidify*, the suffix *-ify* is added. When the adjective *dry* is turned into the verb *to dry* or when the noun *fax* is turned into the verb *to fax*, no affix is added and the process is one of conversion. Most examples involve the conversion of verbs into nouns or nouns into verbs. The main types of conversion are:

- Verbs converted into nouns:

  cure, drink, doubt, laugh, smoke, stop (as in *bus stop*), *walk, work*

- Nouns converted into verbs:

  to bottle, to bully, to elbow, to email, to glue, to group, to head, to ship, to ski, to skin, to tutor

- Adjectives converted into verbs (including comparatives):

  to better, to calm, to clean, to dry, to empty, to faint, to lower, to smooth, to tidy, to wet

- Nouns converted into adjectives:

  junk *food, a* ***rubbish*** *explanation* (common in spoken English)

Conversion is a process which continues to produce new forms constantly. For example, conversion has most recently produced forms such as *to email*, *to impact*, *to text*, *a download*.

Less commonly, other word classes are involved in conversion:

That kind of remark only ***ups*** *the stress for everyone.*
(verb from preposition)

Seeing that play is an absolute ***must****.*
(noun from modal verb)

That's a very big ***if****.*
(noun from conjunction)

You get both ***ups*** *and* ***downs****.*
(nouns from prepositions)

The conversion of a sub-class of proper noun to common noun is also possible:

Has anybody seen my ***Galsworthy****?*
(copy of a book by Galsworthy)

He has two ***Ferraris****.*
(a car manufactured by Ferrari)

Whole phrases may also be converted, most commonly into adjective compounds:

I really fancy one of those ***four-wheel-drive*** *cars.*

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Why don't you have a word with that ***good-for-nothing*** *brother of his?*

It was a ***fly-on-the-wall*** *documentary.*

COMPOUNDS 265

General 265a

Compounds are lexemes formed from more than one base. Compounds are found in all word classes:

nouns: *pop group, car park*
adjectives: *heartbreaking, guilt-ridden, homesick*
verbs: *babysit, dry-clean*
adverbs: *good-naturedly, nevertheless, nowadays*
pronouns: *anyone, everything, nobody*
numerals: *forty-seven, two-thirds*
prepositions: *into, onto*
conjunctions: *although, whenever*

Compounds which have entered the language more recently tend to be nouns, adjectives or verbs (e.g. *answerphone* (n), *hyperactive* (adj), *downsize* (v)).

Compounds have a structure similar to the basic phrase classes such as noun or verb phrases; the final element may be seen as the head, which is modified or complemented:

*day****dream***
(modifier-type: dream during the day)

*guilt-****ridden***
(complement-type: ridden with guilt)

Some compounds involve identical or near identical or rhyming bases. Such compounds are called reduplicative and are often very informal in usage or are used in affectionate talk with and by children. For example, *bow-wow* (dog), *clever-clever*, *easy-peasy*, *goody-goody*, *lovey-dovey*, *olde-worlde*, *super-duper*, *tick-tock* (clock).

Compound nouns 265b

Compound nouns involve a range of different grammatical relationships. The pre-head item is typically a noun, a verb or a word derived from a verb, or an adjective:

noun: ***screw****driver*
verb base form: ***answer****phone*
verb *-ing* form: ***chewing*** *gum*
adjective: ***happy*** *hour*

The typical (unmarked) stress pattern is with stress on the first item (e.g. ***screw**driver*, ***happy** hour*), which helps to distinguish noun compounds from noun modifier + head structures, where stress is on the noun head (e.g. *university **degree***, *government **report***).

There is a wide range of possible semantic relationships between the pre-head item and the head. These include:

subject + verb: *headache* (head that aches), *rainfall* (rain that falls)

verb + subject: *warning sign* (sign that warns)

verb + object: *know-all* (a person who thinks they know all), *killjoy* ('kills joy', someone who spoils the enjoyment of others)

object + verb: *carpet-shampoo* (shampoos carpets), *risk-taking* (takes risks), *hair-dryer* (dries hair)

predicative complement + subject: *junk food* (the food is junk), *girlfriend*

prepositional complement: *raincoat* (the coat is for rain), *ashtray*

complement + noun: *chairleg, fingertip* (the tip of the finger)

Compound adjectives 265c

Most compound adjectives end in an adjective (e.g. *air-sick*), or in an *-ing* or *-ed* adjective form (e.g. *heart-breaking*, *short-sighted*, *white-washed*). The main relationships between the parts of compound adjectives are as follows:

object + *-ing/-ed*: *English-speaking* (speaks English), *confidence-boosting* (boosts confidence), *heart-broken* (the heart is broken by somebody)

verb complement + *-ing/-ed*: *far-reaching* (reaches far), *home-made* (made at home)

subject + predicative complement: *top-heavy* (the top is heavy) (A is B)

comparative: *paper-thin* (as thin as paper) (as B as A)

adjective + complement: *fat-free* (free of fat), *user-friendly* (friendly to the user)

adjective + adjective head: *royal-blue, light-green, bitter-sweet*

Note also that some adjective compounds are formed by adding an *-ed* inflection to an existing adjective + noun: *right-angled* (formed from *right-angle*), *left-handed* (formed from *left hand*).

Compound verbs 265d

Compound verbs are far less frequent than compound nouns or adjectives. They may be derived by conversion from another word class, normally an already existing noun compound (e.g. *to daydream*, *to blackmail*, *to wait-list*). They may also be derived by a process of back-formation (**267b** below) by the removal of a suffix (e.g. *shoplift* from *shoplifting* or *shoplifter*; *babysit* from *babysitting* or *babysitter*). Examples include: *chain-smoke, dry-clean, housekeep, sight-see, spring-clean*.

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HYPHENATION 266

The use of hyphens in compounds and complex words involves a number of different rules, and practice is changing, with fewer hyphens present in contemporary usage. For example, compound words may be written as separate words (*post box*), hyphenated (*post-box*) or written as one word (*postbox*). However, in certain forms the rules governing the use of hypens are more regular.

Particular prefixes regularly involve a hyphen (e.g. *ex-minister*, *post-war*, *self-interest*, *quasi-public*).

When a compound premodifies a noun head, a hyphen is normally inserted to indicate which words are compounded (e.g. *a well-known entertainer*, *twentieth-century Danish architecture*).

Hyphens are normally used in compounds in which the pre-head item is a single capital letter (e.g. *U-turn*, *X-ray*), and hyphens are sometimes needed to disambiguate different words (e.g. *re-form* = form again, *reform* = change radically).

In numerically modified adjectives, all modifying elements are hyphenated. Note that these forms are only used attributively (e.g. *an eighteen-year-old girl, a twenty-ton truck, a twenty-four-hour flight*).

506 Appendix: Punctuation

OTHER TYPES OF WORD FORMATION 267

Abbreviation 267a

Abbreviation involves shortening a word. This can be done by means of three main processes: clipping, acronyms and blends.

Clipping

Clipping is a type of abbreviation in which a word is shortened when one or more syllables are omitted or 'clipped'. Proper names for people are commonly clipped:

ad: *advertisement*, *advert*
decaf: *decaffeinated*
medic: *medical student*, *doctor*
memo: *memorandum*
lab: *laboratory*
Liz: *Elizabeth*

Acronyms

Acronyms are a type of abbreviation formed when the initial letters of two or more words are combined in a way that produces consonant and vowel sequences found in words. Acronyms are pronounced as words:

*RAM: **R**andom **A**ccess **M**emory*
*NATO: **N**orth **A**tlantic **T**reaty **O**rganisation* /ˈneɪtəʊ/
*Laser: **l**ight **a**mplification (by) **s**timulated **e**mission (of) **r**adiation*

Initials are similar to acronyms but are pronounced as sets of letters, not as words:

*BBC: **B**ritish **B**roadcasting **C**orporation*
*PC: **p**ersonal **c**omputer, or **p**olitically **c**orrect*
*CD: **c**ompact **d**isc*

Blends

Blends are a type of abbreviation in which parts of existing words are combined to form a new word. The process is a notable recent phenomenon:

camcorder: blend of ***cam**era* and *re**corder***
fanzine: blend of ***fan*** and *maga**zine***
heliport: blend of ***heli**copter* and *air**port***
netiquette: blend of *inter**net*** and *et**iquette***
smog: blend of ***sm**oke* and *f**og***

Back-formation 267b

Back-formation is a process of word formation in which what is thought to be a suffix (and occasionally a prefix) is removed. It applies in particular to the process of forming verbs from nouns. The two major sources are nouns and compound nouns ending in *-tion*, or *-ion* and in *-ar*, *-er*, *-or*, *-ing*. But there is also a large miscellaneous group which occasionally includes back-formation from adjectives:

emote: derived from *emotion*
intuit: derived from *intuition*
legislate: derived from *legislation*
televise: derived from *television*

air-condition: derived from *air-conditioner*
commentate: derived from *commentator*
brainwash: derived from *brainwashing*
sightsee: derived from *sightseeing*

enthuse: derived from *enthusiasm*
diagnose: derived from *diagnosis*
legitimise: derived from the adjective *legitimate*

Other types 267c

Occasionally the formation of words may occur by utilising sounds from words with similar associations. For example, words ending in *-ump* such as *dump*, *thump*, *lump* can generate invented words with similar sound patterns and associations of heaviness and hardness (e.g. *whump*, *bubump*, *kerbump*).

Words can be formed from proper names. Examples include: *braille*, *caesarian*, *platonic*, *sadist*, *sandwich* (words formed, respectively, from the names of Louis Braille, Julius Caesar, Plato, the Marquis de Sade and the Earl of Sandwich).

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Sometimes the names of products can be taken over into general use. For example *hoover* and *Mac* are both the names of a company and the general name applied to the object (*Mac* refers to the name of Apple-MacIntosh computers):

I'm just going to ***hoover*** *the lounge before we go out.*

I'm sorry I've got a ***Mac*** *and can't use those files.*

It is very rare for new words to be formed without parts of existing words being in some way involved. An exception to this rule is loan words. These are words that are borrowed from other languages. Relatively recent loan words from the domain of food include: *pizza*, *salsa*, *tapas*, *chapatti*. Loan words are most typically nouns and are not normally subject to any of the processes of word formation, though they may be inflected if they are singular count nouns (*pizzas*, *chapattis*).

PRODUCTIVITY 268

Not all prefixes and suffixes are equally productive. Some are frequently used to create new words, while others are rarely, if ever, utilised in present-day word formation.

The suffix *-ion* is particularly productive in English and is used to form a large number of high-frequency nouns, e.g. *reunion*, *confusion*, *extension*, *explosion*, *direction*, *infection*, *inflation*, *intuition*, *relation*, *resignation*.

The adjectival suffix *-al* produces a large number of high-frequency adjectives, e.g. *critical*, *crucial*, *dental*, *frontal*, *typical*, *vital*.

Prefixes such as *un-* and *de-* and the *-er/-or* suffix are highly productive, with new words constantly being formed.

Rare suffixes such as *-ose* (as in *verbose*, *jocose*) and *-dom* are rarely used to form new words.

Conversion and compounding are productive in modern English, and new forms occur regularly, especially in technical domains such as computing and in the sciences in general. Almost any noun may potentially combine with any other noun to form new noun compounds.

Acronyms, back-formations and loan words only account for a small amount of the new vocabulary to appear each year in English, but the processes in themselves are productive.

155–166 Introduction to word classes and phrase classes

507–511 Appendix: English Spelling

Introduction to sentences and clauses

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Introduction to sentences and clauses

THE SENTENCE AND THE CLAUSE 269

The sentence is normally considered to be the largest unit of grammar. Longer stretches of text, such as paragraphs and segments of conversations, are usually regarded as units of discourse. The sentence is principally a unit of written grammar and is normally easily identified by an initial capital letter on the first word and a full stop after the last word. For spoken language, the sentence as a grammatical unit is more problematic (**272a** below).

Sentences are composed of clauses. The clause is the core unit of grammar. A sentence must include at least one main clause (**270** below). A clause consists of two parts: a subject and a predicate. The subject is a noun phrase or its equivalent (e.g. a nominal clause: ***writing novels*** *is not easy*) which indicates the doer or agent of an action, state or event, and the predicate is a verb phrase and any other accompanying elements (e.g. an object or complement):

subject	predicate
We	*baked some potatoes in the fire.*

The subject can be seen as representing a topic (who/what the clause is about – in this case *we*) and the predicate can be seen as representing a comment (what is said about the topic – that we *baked some potatoes in the fire*). The topic and comment together constitute a proposition. Clauses combined together as sentences express various types of relation between propositions.

The clause centres around a verb phrase (in the example above, *baked*), since it is the verb phrase which largely determines what else must or may occur in the clause. A clause most typically consists of a subject (which is a noun phrase), a verb, and other elements which may or may not be necessary, such as an object (which is a noun phrase), a predicative complement (most typically an adjective or noun phrase), or an adjunct (which is typically an adverb phrase or a prepositional phrase):

S	V	O	A
noun phrase	verb phrase	noun phrase	prepositional phrase
I	*'ve got*	*a parcel for you*	*in my car.*

Examples of clauses and non-clauses.

- Clauses (verbs in bold):

  He ***wrote*** *a couple of novels.*
  (one clause: one verb)

  Did *you* ***say*** *tea or coffee?*
  (one clause: auxiliary verb [*did*] and lexical verb [*say*])

*When you **get** there, | **ring** me.*
(two clauses: two lexical verbs with their own accompanying structures)

- Non-clauses:

  the green sofa
  (noun phrase)

  in the garden
  (prepositional phrase)

  Hello
  (greeting formula)

  hopefully
  (adverb)

MAIN AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES 270

The two main types of clause which can combine to form sentences are main clauses and subordinate clauses. Main clauses are not dependent on any other clause in the sentence, and a sentence must have at least one main clause.

The following are sentences, since they contain at least one main clause.

- Sentences (main clauses in bold):

  ***I went to speak to them**.*
  (whole sentence is one main clause)

  ***I went down to the fish and chip shop** and **I got fish and chips**.*
  (two main clauses joined by *and*)

  *If I went down there, **I could use the computer and the laser printer**.*
  (one subordinate clause [*if*-clause] and one main clause)

The following are not sentences, since they do not contain a main clause. They consist of subordinate clauses, which need to be accompanied by a main clause in order to form a sentence.

- Non-sentences (no main clause):

  before I went

  when I went to Southampton for the day with my friend

  which arrived yesterday

- Further examples of main clauses (in green) with verbs in bold:

  *Oh, she**'s left** some money for you.*

  *Richard **got up** and **walked** over to the window.*

  *I**'ve done** a lot of thinking while you **were** asleep.*

  *As her confidence **grew**, she **started** to get careless.*

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The clauses *while you were asleep* and *as her confidence grew* are dependent on other clauses and cannot be sentences on their own. They are therefore not main clauses.

The table below shows examples of sentences with one, two and three clauses. The clauses in the shaded boxes are main clauses; they could form sentences on their own. The clauses in the clear boxes are subordinate clauses; they could not form sentences on their own.

Examples of main and subordinate clauses

	clause	clause	clause
1	*She **took** her duties seriously.*		
2	*That **was** a few years ago*	*but my feelings **have not changed** one bit.*	
3	*When I **left** college,*	*I **couldn't find** any work.*	
4	*He **turned** round,*	*someone **pushed** him*	*and he **fell**.*
5	*As soon as she **opened** the envelope,*	*she **knew** something was wrong,*	*for the first lines of Richard's letter **were** full of apologies and regrets.*
6	*The water **begins** to freeze,and*	*as it **does** so,*	*it **expands**.*

In the table, *but* and *and* are coordinating conjunctions joining clauses of equal status to one another (in this case main clauses). *When*, *as soon as*, *for* and *as* are subordinating conjunctions, indicating a dependent relationship between the clauses they introduce and the main clauses. Coordination (307) and subordination (310) are two principal ways in which clauses are combined to form sentences.

Relative clauses (typically clauses with *who*, *which*, *that* modifying nouns) and nominal clauses are also types of dependent clause. In these cases they are embedded within larger structures:

← subject → verb complement
*The points **that I'm talking about** are similar.*

← subject → verb complement
What we need is more time.

316–317

SIMPLE, COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES 271

A sentence with one main clause is called a simple sentence:

← main clause →
It snowed last night.

also **sentence 1 in the table in 270**

A sentence with two or more main clauses is called a compound sentence:

← main clause → ← main clause →
***He should have been here at five** and **he's not here yet**.*

also **sentence 2 in the table in 270**

A sentence with a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses is called a complex sentence. In the example below, || indicates clause boundaries. Subordinate clauses are in green; the main clause is in bold:

[automatic customer-answering-service at a company]
Welcome to [name of company]. || *If you have a touch-tone telephone,* || ***please listen carefully to all the following options*** || *before you make your choice.*

also **sentence 3 in the table in 270**

506 Appendix: Punctuation on the punctuation of sentences in writing

SENTENCE AND UTTERANCE 272

The sentence in spoken language 272a

Sentences in spoken language are more problematic than in written language. Speakers take turns to speak, and turns are a basic unit of conversation. A turn ends when the speaker changes.

Many turns in everyday speech consist of long strings of clauses (e.g. when someone is telling a story), unfinished sentences, or just noun phrases, adjective phrases or adverb phrases standing alone. We also find *yes*, *no*, interjections and other miscellaneous word-types standing alone, or sentences 'jointly constructed' by more than one speaker.

A typical transcript of everyday conversation contains many complete and communicatively sufficient units which are not sentences:

[speaker A is telling speaker B about a computer problem]
1 A: *But he's trying to send us an email and I'm having some trouble with the computer you see.*
2 B: *Right.*
3 A: *You know.*
4 B: *Yeah.*
5 A: *On my computer when I try to get anything on it.*
6 B: *Mm.*
7 A: *It's just saying that it's not in the files. I don't know if …*
8 B: *Mm.*
9 A: *And I'll have to get a disk.*

Speakers often begin new topics or sub-topics with conjunctions such as *but* (turn **1**) and *and* (turn **9**), even after considerable silences.

A turn may consist of just a word or phrase indicating a response or acknowledgement (turns **2** and **4**).

It may not be clear which independent unit a dependent unit is attached to. The prepositional phrase in turn **5** could be treated as attached to turn **1** or turn **7**, or simply as a free-standing and communicatively self-sufficient element.

The 'sentence' is therefore a problematic concept to apply to oral communication.

The utterance 272b

Problems with identifying sentences in informal spoken language mean that it is often useful to distinguish between a sentence and an utterance.

The sentence is a unit of grammar, and must be grammatically complete (i.e. it must have at least one main clause). The utterance is a unit of communication. It must be communicatively and pragmatically complete, but it does not need to be grammatically complete. Communicative means that the utterance communicates a meaningful message, and pragmatic means that it is fully interpretable in its context. Thus a string of words standing alone such as *over to you*, though not a sentence, can be communicative and pragmatically interpretable (e.g. telling someone it's their turn to take over the main speaking role), while a string of words such as *you if on* is unlikely to be either communicatively or pragmatically adequate.

Right and *you know* (turns **2** and **3** in the conversation extract in **272a**), although they are not grammatically sentences, are complete utterances since each one is communicatively and pragmatically complete.

However, in spoken language the general principles for combining clauses can still be seen to operate in broad terms (but ⁘ **87b Subordinate clauses**).

SENTENCE TYPES 273

The sentence types take their names from the names of the different types of main clause. The four major types of sentence are:

(x = other elements e.g. objects, complements)

type	structure of the main clause
declaratives	subject + verb + x
interrogatives	auxiliary/modal verb + subject + verb + x
imperatives	verb + x; no overt subject (subject is understood)
exclamatives	introduced by a phrase with *what* or *how* and followed by a subject + verb + x construction

BASIC FEATURES OF CLAUSES 274

Polarity 274a

Polarity, whether the clause is affirmative or negative, is an important feature of clauses. The polarity of the main clause determines the overall polarity of the sentence.

Examples of affirmative and negative polarity

main clause	clause polarity	subordinate clause	clause polarity	sentence polarity
She looked really offended.	affirmative			affirmative
*They **don't** do it during the summer.*	negative			negative
I might want you to do something for me	affirmative	*while I'm away.*	affirmative	affirmative
I'll have it	affirmative	*if you don't want it.*	negative	affirmative
*I'm **not** going*	negative	*if he goes.*	affirmative	negative

Participants, processes and circumstances 274b

Clauses express the relationship between processes (actions, states or events), participants (the people and things who act or are involved in or affected by actions, states and events) and circumstances (e.g. the time, place, manner and surrounding circumstances of an action, state or event).

The process is typically expressed by a verb phrase:

*I'll **post** the letter tonight.*

The participants are most typically expressed by noun phrases:

***I**'ll post **the letter** tonight.*

The circumstances are most typically expressed by adverb phrases or prepositional phrases:

*I'll post the letter **tonight**.*
(adverb phrase)

*Let's go there **after lunch**.*
(prepositional phrase)

Clauses consist of various arrangements of these types of phrase fulfilling the functions of subject, verb, object, predicative complement and adjunct.

Subjects, verbs, objects, complements, adjuncts 274c

A clause centres around a verb phrase and most typically consists of a subject (which is a noun phrase), a verb (which is a verb phrase), and other elements which may or may not be necessary or present. These other elements include an object (which is a noun phrase), a predicative complement (which can be a noun/adverb/prepositional/adjective phrase) or an adjunct (which is typically an adverb phrase or prepositional phrase):

subject	verb	object	adjunct
I	*'ll post*	*the letter*	*tonight.*

subject	verb	complement
I	*feel*	*very tired.*

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

A clause may consist minimally of a verb in the imperative:

Run!
(imperative clause)

Arrangements of subjects, verbs, complements and adjuncts in clauses vary, depending on the pattern of complementation required by the verb (281–289 Verb complementation). The variations in the table below typically occur.

Examples of verb complementation

example (verbs in bold)	pattern
No one | ***laughed***.	subject + verb
She | ***took*** | *a photograph*.	subject + verb + direct object
I | ***'ll give*** | *you* | *a ring*.	subject + verb + indirect object + direct object
He | ***'s working*** | *this afternoon*.	subject + verb + adjunct
We | ***signed*** | *it* | *as a protest*.	subject + verb + object + adjunct
He | ***'ll get*** | *angry*.	subject + verb + subject complement
It | ***made*** | *my clothes* | *dirty*.	subject + verb + object + object complement

275 Basic clause structure

Central and peripheral elements 274d

Central elements

The verb is the most central element in the clause as it tends to determine what else must or may occur in the clause. Next in importance come the subject and object or predicative complement, which express the relationship between participants and the process expressed by the verb.

The central elements subject and verb are the basic obligatory elements of a simple declarative clause. Central elements have a relatively fixed word order in English. The verb, for example, cannot usually be moved:

*You **know** the problem.*
(~~You the problem know.~~)

Objects and predicative complements have slightly more flexibility and occasionally occur in untypical positions for reasons of emphasis:

*Every computer that we looked at was near two thousand pounds. But **this one** I got for twelve hundred, with two hundred pounds' worth of software.*
(object (*this one*) placed before subject (*I*) for emphasis/contrast)

*Well, **rich** they may be, but I'm not sure they're happy.*
(complement (*rich*) placed before subject (*they*) for emphasis/contrast)

Peripheral elements

Adjuncts are normally regarded as peripheral elements in the clause; they are always optional, they are the most mobile elements (they can occupy different positions), and they do not determine what else must occur in the clause.

Adjuncts are even more flexible than objects and predicative complements, and may occur in a variety of positions:

In the morning *we had to pretend nothing happened.*
(adjunct in front position; also possible: We had to pretend nothing happened in the morning.)

We ***sometimes*** *go to Rochester.*
(adjunct between subject and verb; also possible: Sometimes we go to Rochester.)

That young guy seems to deliver the post ***quite often these days****.*
(adjuncts in final position; also possible: Quite often that young guy seems to deliver the post these days./These days that young guy seems to deliver the post quite often.)

Elements outside of the clause structure 274e

Sometimes, especially in informal spoken language, elements occur which are not contained within the clause structure. Items may occasionally occur before or after the clause for emphasis and be repeated in some form within the clause (most typically by a pronoun):

Joe*, I've known* ***him*** *for years.*
(object placed outside the clause, repeated in the clause by pronoun *him*)

It*'s a great city,* ***Dublin****.*
(subject *it* repeated after the clause as a full noun phrase)

96 Headers and **97 Tails**

Pragmatic markers are also normally considered to be outside of the clause structure. These include discourse markers (words and phrases indicating boundaries in the discourse or words that monitor the state of the discourse in some way), stance markers (words and phrases indicating a stance or attitude to a segment or section of discourse) and interjections:

Well*, what are you going to do with it?*
(discourse marker)

Susie does aerobics, ***you know****.*
(discourse marker)

To be honest*, I don't think I'll go this year.*
(stance marker)

Frankly*, I couldn't care less.*
(stance marker)

Gosh*, that's very cheap.*
(interjection)

105 Pragmatic markers

Vocatives (addressing someone directly with a name or title) are also considered to be outside of the clause structure:

Would you like another drink, ***Molly****?*

BASIC CLAUSE STRUCTURE 275

In this and the following sections we deal with the basic structure of clauses, focusing on simple declarative main clauses. A simple declarative clause consists of a subject phrase, a verb phrase, any object or predicative complement phrases and optional adjunct phrases.

Examples of simple declarative clauses

subject	verb	object	complement	adjunct
Everyone	*laughed.*			
She	*stole*	*some money.*		
He	*'s*		*my brother-in-law.*	
I	*travelled*			*for a year.*

Subject + verb is the minimal structure for declarative clauses.

CENTRAL CLAUSE FUNCTIONS 276

The following sections (**276–279**) deal principally with the central clause functions of subject, verb (focusing on verb complementation), object and predicative complement. Adjuncts, the other main function in the clause, are optional, mobile elements describing the circumstances of the action or event (280 below) and are peripheral to the structure of the clause.

A separate chapter deals with adjuncts (**319–337**).

Subject 276a

As indicated above (**269**), the clause may be divided into two main parts: the subject and the predicate.

The subject in an active-voice declarative clause is the noun phrase which precedes the verb, and which indicates the 'doer' or agent of an action, or the participant that an event or state happens to or refers to. The subject noun phrase agrees with the verb in person and number. The predicate in a declarative clause is the rest of the clause after the subject, where what the subject is, does or experiences is elaborated.

Examples of clauses showing subject and predicate

subject	predicate
My mother	*was a friend of hers.*
I	*ate too much last night.*
Their dog	*died last week.*
The garden	*looks lovely.*
They	*made him a member of their gang.*

The predicate consists of the verb phrase followed by objects and predicative complements (278 and 279).

The subject is most typically a noun phrase, though it may sometimes be a *wh*-nominal clause, or, very occasionally, a prepositional phrase. The subject (in green in the examples below) determines the person and number of the verb:

*My sister do**es** singing lessons.*
(noun phrase: determiner + noun)

*They ha**ve** a matter-of-fact approach to everything.*
(noun phrase: pronoun)

*Skiing do**es**n't appeal to me.*
(noun phrase: the gerund *-ing* form of a verb functioning as a noun)

*What we're doing **is** offering a scholarship.*
(*wh*-nominal clause)

A: *When shall I ring you?*
B: *After six **would** be best.*
(prepositional phrase; less common)

The subject comes before the verb in a simple declarative clause, and it is obligatory, except in high-context, informal situations where it may be unnecessary and omitted if it is obvious to the participants:

A: *Have you been back to the 'Shanghai Palace'?*
B: *Yeah, I went a few weeks ago. **It**'s a really nice restaurant.*
(~~Yeah, I went a few weeks ago. Is a really nice restaurant.~~)

A: ***Need** a hammer. Is there one in the garage?*
B: *Yeah, **think** so.*
(subjects are obvious to the speakers in the context; more explicit forms: I need a hammer/I think so)

94 Situational ellipsis

Subject pronouns are nominative in form: *I, you, he, she, it, one, we, they*.

Dummy subjects **276b**

Since there must be a subject, 'dummy' subjects sometimes have to be used. Dummy subjects, consisting of *it* or *there*, are subjects considered to have no semantic content but which simply fill the necessary subject slot:

***It**'s interesting the way these dresses are so similar.*
(~~Is interesting the way these dresses are so similar.~~)

***There** are many ways in which you can use that.*
(~~Are many ways in which you can use that.~~)

45f, 45g.

Subject-verb concord 276c

Concord refers to the way words match each other in terms of number, tense, etc. A present tense verb shows concord of number with a third person singular subject by having a final *-s* on the verb:

> ***It** takes up a lot of energy.*
> (~~It take up a lot of energy.~~)
>
> ***My dad** works there.*

In the present tense, all other persons are followed by the uninflected form of the verb:

> *We love Dublin.*
> (~~We loves Dublin.~~)
>
> *They never **watch** TV.*

In the past tense, all persons are followed by the past tense form of the verb, with no special indication of number. Only the verb *be* has special forms for different persons and number: *am, are, is, was, were*.

The head noun of a subject noun phrase determines number, not other nouns in the noun phrase:

> *The general **quality** of supermarket vegetables **is** very poor.*
> (~~The general quality of supermarket vegetables are very poor.~~)

also **177a Count nouns; 279c**

A–Z **34 *Each*; 38 *Every***

VERB COMPLEMENTATION 277

General 277a

Complementation is concerned with elements which follow the verb in a declarative clause and which are necessary to complete the meaning of the verb in some way.

Some verbs are complete in themselves and require no complementation (they are used as intransitive verbs), others require single complementation or dual complementation and are used as transitive verbs:

> *She **laughed**.*
> (intransitive: no complement needed; the verb is complete in itself)
>
> *I **spotted** a taxi.*
> (transitive: single complementation needed; the speaker must say what was spotted)
>
> *He **put** it in the rubbish bin.*
> (transitive: dual complementation needed; speaker must say what was put and where it was put)

The different patterns of complementation (below, the tables in **277c** and **277d**) are dealt with in greater detail in **281–289 Verb complementation**.

No complementation 277b

Some verbs require no complementation. This is known as intransitive use:

*She **died** last week.*

*House prices **have risen**.*

Single complementation 277c

Some verbs are used with single complementation. There are several common types, as shown in the table below.

Examples of single complementation

structure of complementation	example	function of complementation
noun phrase	*I hate **hospitals**.*	object
noun phrase adjective phrase	*I was **the winner**.* *She seemed **very nice**.*	subject complement (gives more information in the predicate about the subject)
prepositional phrase noun phrase noun phrase prepositional phrase	*It's **near the Boulevard**.* *He lives **next door**.* *It weighed **about two and a half pounds**.* *It lasted **for 18 hours**.*	predicative complements of place/measure/time
clause	*I know **you think** I'm crazy.*	object
clause	*I'm **where you should be**.*	subject complement

Dual complementation 277d

Some verbs require dual complementation. There are several common types, as shown in the table below.

Examples of dual complementation (direct objects in green)

structure of complementation	example	function of complementation	type of complementation
noun phrase + noun phrase	*He gave **me** **his number**.*	two objects, indirect and direct	ditransitive (i.e. two complements)
noun phrase + prepositional phrase	*She sent **a letter** **to Ivy Bolton**.*	object and prepositional complement	transitive-oblique (i.e. the recipient is referred to 'obliquely' in a prepositional phrase)

continued overleaf

continued

structure of complementation	example	function of complementation	type of complementation
noun phrase + noun phrase	*With more than 50 victories worldwide, golf has made **him** **a multi-millionaire**.*	direct object and object complement (gives more information about the object)	complex transitive
noun phrase + adjective phrase	*It made **me** **very ill**.*		
noun phrase + prepositional phrase	*I want to put **the picture** **over here**.*	direct object and prepositional phrase	locative (locates the object in terms of place or time)
noun phrase + clause	*She told **me** **what it was**.*	indirect object and direct object	clause (functioning as direct object alongside indirect object)

OBJECT 278

General 278a

Objects are most typically noun phrases. They follow the verb. They may be direct or indirect.

Direct objects indicate the person or thing that undergoes the action denoted by the verb, or the participant directly affected by the action:

*I like **that restaurant**.*

*She kicked **him**.*

*They stole **a van** and then they robbed **a bank**.*

Indirect objects indicate the recipient of a direct object. They are usually people or animals. An indirect object (bold) is always accompanied by a direct object (in green):

*They handed **me** a pile of forms.*

*Her mother sent **her** a cheque for her birthday.*

Direct objects 278b

Direct objects are always noun phrases (or their equivalents, e.g. nominal clauses). The direct object of an active clause can typically become the subject of a passive clause:

*Everybody hated **the teacher**.*
(active: *the teacher* is direct object)

***The teacher** was hated by everybody.*
(passive: *the teacher* is subject)

Examples of direct objects

subject	verb (+ indirect object where required)	direct object
She	*murdered*	***her husband***.
He	*missed*	***this morning's class***.
The police	*came and arrested*	***them***.
He	*loves*	***cycling***.
We	*gave her*	***the tickets***.
I	*understand*	***what you mean***.

Adjuncts (in green) are not normally placed between the verb and the object:

*Mum noticed **a difference** quite quickly.*
(~~Mum noticed quite quickly a difference.~~)

However, in the case of longer phrases or clauses acting as objects, adjuncts may sometimes occur before the object:

*It was a bright room and I noticed immediately **the door which opened on to the balcony**.*

also **322**

Indirect objects 278c

The indirect object (IO) is the recipient of a direct object (DO), and is most typically an animate being:

	IO	DO
She gave	***him***	*a large envelope.*

An indirect object always has a direct object accompanying it.

Examples of indirect objects

subject	verb	indirect object	direct object
Diana	*is going to buy*	***Martha***	*a present.*
I'll	*give*	***you***	*a ring.*
Jeremy	*had handed*	***her***	*a card.*

Indirect object or prepositional complement? 278d

With verbs such as *give*, *buy*, *send*, *hand*, when the recipient of the object is expressed as a full noun phrase and the object is an unstressed pronoun, the structure object + prepositional complement is used, not indirect object + direct object:

*I gave **it to Frank**.*
(~~I gave Frank it.~~)

*They handed **them to the teacher**.*
(~~They handed the teacher them.~~)

277d on transitive-oblique in the table

COMPLEMENT 279

General 279a

Predicative complements are most typically noun phrases and adjective phrases which follow the verb and give further information about a subject (subject complement) or an object (object complement):

He's ***my brother-in-law****.*
(subject complement: gives information about the subject)

The students seem ***pretty bright****.*
(subject complement)

They labelled him ***a coward****.*
(object complement: gives information about the object)

It made me ***seasick****.*
(object complement)

Complements may also be adverb phrases or prepositional phrases:

She's ***upstairs****.*

The bus stop is ***near the shop****.*

The lecture is ***at three-thirty****.*

Subject complements 279b

A predicative subject complement adds information about the subject:

He's ***a maths teacher****.*
(gives information about the subject, *he*)

The subject complement here is not the same as an object. *He* and the *maths teacher* are the same person. Compare *He married/visited/interviewed a maths teacher*, where *maths teacher* is the object, and a different person from *he*.

Subject complements are most typically noun phrases or adjective phrases.

Examples of subject complements

subject	verb	subject complement	type
We	*became*	***friends****.*	noun phrase
He	*died*	***a very rich man****.*	noun phrase
She	*'s*	***very lucky****.*	adjective phrase
That	*smells*	***good****.*	adjective phrase

Verbs which do not take objects are followed by subject complements. These are verbs such as the copular verb *be*, sense verbs such as *feel*, *look*, *taste*, *smell*, *sound*, verbs of perception such as *seem* and *appear*, change-of-state verbs such as *become*, *grow*, *get*, *go*, *turn*.

Pronouns

Pronoun subject complements following the copular verb *be* are normally in the object form (*me*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *us*, *them*):

A: *Who did that?*
B: *It was **me**, sorry.*
(~~It was I, sorry.~~)

*There's his mother now, that's **her**.*
(~~…, that's she.~~)

However, in very formal styles, pronoun subject complements with *be* may occur in the subject form, especially in cleft sentences:

*It was **I** who told him to go.*
(compare the more informal: It was me who told him to go.)

Number concord with subject complements **279c**

In informal spoken language, speakers sometimes have a choice whether to use a singular or plural verb when there is a difference in number between the subject and the complement:

singular subject	plural complement
*Another topic of course **is***	*words that have changed their meaning.*

[talking of a car that is proving difficult to sell]
*The only good thing **are** the tyres.*

Normally, and in more formal styles, the subject determines the number of the verb .

Apposition

Adjective and noun phrases separated from the rest of the clause by punctuation or intonation may function in a way very similar to a subject complement:

***The crowd** pressed closer, **unwilling to miss a thing**.*

***We**'d just sit there, **a couple trying to make it in the world**.*

Object complements 279d

An object complement adds information in the predicate about the object:

*All that hard work has left me **exhausted**.*
(gives information about the object, *me*)

An object complement is most typically a noun phrase or an adjective phrase. The object complement follows the object.

Examples of object complements

subject	verb	object	object complement	type
Ryan	*had (always) called*	*her*	***Katy***.	noun phrase
He	*makes*	*me*	***happy***.	adjective phrase
This	*makes*	*the time factor*	***even more pressing***.	adjective phrase

473b Predicative complements for marked (untypical) positions of complements

ADJUNCTS 280

All other elements in basic clauses which are not subjects, verbs, objects or complements may be classified as adjuncts. Adjuncts are peripheral, optional elements in the clause, and have a variety of functions. They most typically relate to the circumstances of an action or event, e.g. its time, place, manner, degree, frequency, intensity:

In the summer *we* ***often*** *make our own ice cream.*

He wrote a letter ***every day****.*

She was in love with him ***in a big way****.*

Adjuncts can occupy a variety of positions in the clause, either front position (*In the summer,* above), mid position (*often*, above) or end position (*every day, in a big way*, above).

Adjuncts and complements 280a

Adjuncts modify the verb or the clause but, unlike complements, they do not complete the meaning of the verb and are not required elements:

It rained ***in the afternoon****.*
(adjunct: indicates the circumstances, i.e. the time when it rained)

I'll put it ***in my diary*** *now.*
(complement: completes the meaning of *put*, which must specify both an object and a location)

169c Complements versus postmodifiers for the distinction between complements and modifiers

319–337 Adjuncts for a full account of the different functions and positions of adjuncts

Verb complementation

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Verb complementation

INTRODUCTION 281

Verb complementation refers to items which are required to follow verbs of different types in order to complete the meaning of the verb. These items may be noun phrases, adjectives, prepositional phrases or whole clauses, functioning as objects or complements.

COMPLEMENTATION TYPES 282

Intransitive 282a

Some verbs are complete in themselves and do not require any further elements to make their meaning complete; although there may be further elements in the sentence, these are not essential. This is called intransitive complementation. It involves verbs such as:

appear	*drown*	*rise*
arrive	*fall*	*sneeze*
begin	*go*	*snow*
break	*happen*	*stop*
come	*increase*	*swim*
cough	*laugh*	*wait*
decrease	*lie* (tell an untruth)	*work*
die	*matter*	
disappear	*rain*	

*She **died** when she was about twenty-one.*

*The passenger window closed and the car **disappeared** up the driveway.*

*Nothing **happened**.*

*She **laughed** loudly.*

*It **rained**.*

Transitive 282b

Some verbs, when used in the active voice, require further information to complete their meaning and are followed by objects. This is called transitive complementation. In the examples below, the verbs are in bold, the objects are in green. Everyday verbs of this type include:

ask	*forgive*	*offer*
believe	*get*	*produce*
blame	*give*	*put*
bring	*help*	*raise*
buy	*hold*	*receive*
carry	*keep*	*remember*
catch	*know*	*say*
cut	*like*	*see*
describe	*lose*	*suggest*
do	*love*	*take*
enjoy	*make*	*use*
expect	*mean*	*want*
find	*need*	*watch*

I'll have to ***get*** *a new battery for it.*

Raise *your hand if you can hear me.*

Take *what you want.*

Copular verbs 282c

Verbs such as *be, seem, become, feel, remain, smell, taste* are followed by predicative complements, in the form of adjective phrases, noun phrases, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases which give more information about the subject. These verbs are called copular verbs. In the examples, the verbs are in bold, the predicative complements are in green:

It ***seems*** *strange, doesn't it really.*

You ***are*** *the boss.*

*The cat****'s*** *in the garden.*

Verbs which may be used transitively or intransitively 282d

Few verbs must always be used intransitively, and many verbs can be used both intransitively or transitively. Sometimes the meaning remains the same whether the verb is used transitively or intransitively, but sometimes there is a change of relationship between the verb and the subject.

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No change in meaning

Some verbs may be used with or without an object with no change in meaning. Such verbs include:

approach	*enter*	*play*
drink	*help*	*win*
drive	*leave*	*write*
eat	*pass*	

Examples of verbs with and without an object – same meaning

with object (in green)	without object
*People make extra money by **driving** taxis.*	*You **drive** along here about two miles.*
*Can I **help** you?*	*How can I **help**?*
*All I need to do is **win** the lottery.*	*You can't **win** all the time.*

Change of subject-verb relationship

Some verbs may be used with or without an object, but the subject-verb relationship is different in each case. Such verbs include:

begin	*drop*	*turn*
change	*increase*	*walk*
close (down)	*open*	*work*
decrease	*slam*	

When these verbs are used with an object, the subject is the agent (doer) of the action. When they are used without an object, the action or event happens to the subject.

Examples of verbs with and without an object – different meanings

with object (in green) subject (underlined) is agent of the action/event	without object the action/event happens to the subject (underlined)
*We **closed** the door and they knocked later.*	*The door **closed**.*
*Sony has **increased** overseas production.*	*Worldwide sales have **increased** by 14%.*
*She **walks** the dog every morning.*	*He **walks** everywhere. I don't think he can drive.*
*How do you **work** this photocopier?*	*The photocopier is not **working**.*

OTHER INTRANSITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS 283

Pure intransitive constructions are those where there is a subject and no requirement of any further elements. However, some intransitive constructions do include information about subject-object relationships, or have parallel transitive constructions with the same meaning.

These constructions include the pseudo-intransitive construction, reciprocal verbs and reflexive verbs.

Pseudo-intransitive construction 283a

Verbs which are normally transitive also sometimes occur intransitively in clauses where the subject is in reality the recipient of the action or event, and where the agent is not mentioned. This type of intransitivity is called pseudo-intransitive. Verbs used in this way include:

clean	*iron*	*read*
close	*keep*	*sell*
cook	*open*	*store*
drink	*pack*	*wash*
drive	*photograph*	
fold	*print*	

These verbs are typically complemented by adverb phrases or prepositional phrases:

*This blouse hasn't **washed** very well.*

[*The Independent* is a newspaper]
*Cusack said, 'One other thing: 'The Independent' are carrying a shortened version of the Choltitz profile of you, Prime Minister. It **reads** very well indeed.'*

*Jack Pritchards' books **sell** by the million.*

Sell also occurs with an object in this type of construction, usually referring to number or quantity:

[referring to a pop music record]
*It eventually **sold** about 500,000 copies so I got a silver disc.*

Reciprocal verbs 283b

Reciprocal verbs such as *divorce*, *meet*, *marry* can have the same meaning as their transitively constructed equivalents:

*Frank and Diane **met** in 1979.*
(compare the transitive equivalents: Frank met Diane in 1979./Diane met Frank in 1979.)

*Lily and Tom **married** after a brief courtship.*
(compare: Lily married Tom … Tom married Lily …)

Reflexive construction 283c

A small number of verbs may be used intransitively or with a reflexive pronoun object, though meaning changes occur when the verb is reflexive (**202 Reflexive pronouns**). These include *brace*, *dress*, *undress*, *wash*:

*Dolly, somewhat excited, had **dressed** and done her hair with care.*

*He dispatched a messenger to the stables to inquire whether the coachman was there; and while the man was gone, **dressed himself** very hurriedly.*

[*brace* here means to tense one's body ready for a negative physical impact]
*Sturr **braced**, as if for a fight.*

[*brace oneself* has a more abstract meaning of being mentally prepared for something negative]
*She took a deep breath and **braced herself**.*

TYPES OF COMPLEMENTATION 284

Complementation primarily concerns transitive and copular constructions, since the intransitive verb construction requires no complementation. There are four general types of complementation:

1 Monotransitive:

verb + direct object

2 Ditransitive:

verb + indirect object and direct object
verb + direct object + prepositional phrase (the transitive-oblique construction; 286e)

3 Complex transitive:

verb + direct object + object complement
verb + direct object + locative complement

4 Copular:

copular verb (e.g. *be*, *look*, *seem*) + subject complement

1 Monotransitive complementation

examples (direct object in green)	structures
*I **love** fish.*	noun phrase as direct object
*He **thinks** [that] I'm right.*	*that*-clause as direct object
*We **understand** what you're saying.* *How did you **know** who to write to?*	*wh*-clause as direct object; *wh*-clause with *to*-infinitive as direct object
*They **decided** to buy it.* *We **love** buying old furniture.*	non-finite clause as direct object (*to*-infinitive or *-ing* clause, depending on verb)

2 Ditransitive complementation

examples (direct object in green, indirect object etc. underlined)	structures
*She **gave** me her email address.*	noun phrases as indirect and direct objects
*We **told** her [that] she couldn't have them.*	noun phrase as indirect object + *that*-clause as direct object
*Oh, don't **ask** me what it is.*	noun phrase as indirect object + *wh*-clause as direct object
*I **offered** my condolences to the family.*	noun phrase as direct object + prepositional phrase as oblique complement
*Who **taught** you to play the guitar?*	noun phrase as direct object + *to*-infinitive clause

3 Complex transitive complementation

examples (direct object in green, complement underlined)	structures
It used to ***drive*** *me crazy.*	noun phrase as direct object + adjective phrase as object complement
She used to ***call*** *her Aunt Susie.*	noun phrase as direct object + noun phrase as object complement
I certainly ***believe*** *it to be very rare.*	noun phrase as direct object + *to*-infinitive clause as object complement
I ***heard*** *her scream.*	noun phrase as direct object + infinitive without *to* as object complement
I ***noticed*** *them doing that.*	noun phrase as direct object + *-ing* clause as object complement
Let's ***get*** *this stuff washed.*	noun phrase as direct object + *-ed* clause as object complement
You could ***put*** *the water in a bottle.*	noun phrase as direct object + prepositional phrase as locative complement

4 Copular complementation

examples (complement underlined)	structures
It ***seems*** *silly.*	adjective phrase as subject complement
*She****'s*** *my cousin.*	noun phrase as subject complement
My husband's office ***is*** *upstairs.*	adverb phrase as subject complement
It ***was*** *on the floor.*	prepositional phrase as subject complement

The next sections, **285–288**, deal with these types of complementation.

VERB + DIRECT OBJECT (MONOTRANSITIVE COMPLEMENTATION) 285

When a verb requires a direct object, the structure is called monotransitive complementation.

The direct object is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a clause.

When the direct object is a pronoun, the object form (*me, you, him, her, it, us, them*) is used.

- Noun phrase as direct object:

  I ***took*** *the last piece of bread.*

  Do you ***remember*** *her from last year?*

- Clause as direct object:

  I've ***heard*** *(that) you're retiring.*

  You always ***know*** *what I'm thinking.*

  I can't ***remember*** *if it was last month or the month before.*

  I ***remember*** *staying a couple of nights in the village.*

Monotransitive complementation and voice: active and passive 285a

Most verbs which can be used with a direct object in the active voice may also be used in the passive.

Examples of monotransitive verbs in active and passive voice

active	passive
*The postman **brought** it and apologised.*	*Our luggage **was brought** to the hotel.*
*Do you want to **keep** the menu?*	*Random access memory is a temporary storage area where information **is kept** while the computer is on.*
*I've just **started** a camera course at university.*	*The fire **was started** deliberately.*

The most common verbs of this type are:

begin	*hear*	*receive*
believe	*help*	*remember*
bring	*hold*	*say*
call	*keep*	*see*
carry	*know*	*start*
close	*like*	*study*
cut	*lose*	*take*
do	*love*	*use*
end	*make*	*visit*
enjoy	*mean*	*want*
expect	*meet*	*wash*
feel	*move*	*watch*
find	*need*	*win*
follow	*pass*	

Fit, *have*, *lack*, *resemble* and *suit* do not allow the passive construction:

*I **had** a weird dream.*
(~~A weird dream was had (by me).~~)

*That **suits** you.*
(~~You're suited by that.~~)

The passive voice gives the speaker/writer the option of omitting reference to the agent of an action. Thus the passive voice alternative of the following newspaper headline presents two options:

PRIME MINISTER ANNOUNCES NEW IMMIGRATION RESTRICTIONS
(active)

New immigration restrictions announced by Prime Minister
(passive with agent phrase)

New immigration restrictions announced
(passive with agent omitted)

also **481 Agent phrases** and **482 Passives without an agent phrase**

That-clause as direct object 285b

A class of verbs with reporting functions connected with speech and thought can occur with *that*-clauses as direct object. The most common verbs are:

accept	*find*	*prove*
admit	*forget*	*realise*
agree	*gather*	*recall*
announce	*guarantee*	*reckon*
argue	*guess*	*recognise*
assume	*hear*	*remark*
believe	*hint*	*remember*
bet	*hold*	*repeat*
check	*hope*	*reply*
claim	*imagine*	*report*
comment	*imply*	*say*
complain	*infer*	*see*
conclude	*insist*	*show*
confess	*know*	*state*
confirm	*learn*	*suggest*
consider	*mean*	*suppose*
decide	*mention*	*suspect*
deny	*notice*	*swear*
discover	*predict*	*think*
doubt	*presume*	*understand*
expect	*pretend*	*warn*
explain	*promise*	*write*
feel	*protest*	

*I couldn't **accept** that he was never going to come back.*

*Some of the girls **complained** yesterday that we're not cleaning the inside of the fridges.*

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*I'd **forgotten** that you'd rung somebody up.*

*Her therapist **held** that it was natural and healthy for human beings to assume that bad things happened only to other people in remote areas.*

*So, every time, I **remark** that he's losing weight.*

*I can **understand** that she must have felt she was under some pressure.*

That is very frequently omitted in such constructions, especially in informal spoken language. Omission of *that* is particularly common after *think*:

*I **think** he's bored with his job.*

Omission of *that* is also common where the subject of the reporting clause and the reported clause are the same:

*The guy now **claims** he didn't do it.*

*I **hope** I've got the right size. It looked a bit big.*

*He **reckons** he's made a mistake.*

There is a tendency to retain *that* in more formal contexts. The retention of *that* is especially evident when the reporting verb is in the passive, and in coordinated reported clauses:

[from a book about volcanoes]
*In chapter three **it was mentioned that** the effect of getting large volumes of water mixed up in a volcanic eruption is to make it more violent.*

*We knew very quickly **that** we could talk to each other about anything **and that** we'd be there for each other.*

Wh-clause as direct object 285c

Many of the verbs which are used with *that*-clauses (285b) may also be used with *wh*-clauses as direct objects. The most common verbs of this type are:

anticipate	*depend*	*hear*
arrange	*discover*	*imagine*
ascertain	*discuss*	*inquire*
ask	*doubt*	*judge*
care	*enquire*	*know*
check	*establish*	*learn*
choose	*explain*	*mind*
confirm	*find out*	*notice*
consider	*forget*	*observe*
decide	*guess*	*predict*

prove	*say*	*tell*
realise	*see*	*think*
remember	*show*	*wonder*

*Could I possibly **ask** why you're unable to attend?*

*You have to **decide** whether or not you want it.*

*I'll just **find out** who you need to speak to.*

*Nobody can **predict** what's going to happen in life.*

[*tell* here means predict]
*You can never **tell** what he's going to do next.*

Wh-clause with infinitive as direct object 285d

Many of the verbs which can be followed by a *wh*-clause (285c) can also be followed by a *wh*-clause with *to*-infinitive. The most common verbs are:

arrange	*establish*	*notice*
ask	*explain*	*observe*
check	*find out*	*remember*
choose	*forget*	*say*
consider	*imagine*	*see*
decide	*inquire*	*show*
discover	*judge*	*tell*
discuss	*know*	*think*
enquire	*learn*	*wonder*

*Can you **explain** how to use this machine?*

*I'm just **wondering** what to say to you.*

*The committee reports to the Head of Department, who can then **choose** whether to take action.*

Non-finite clause with or without a new subject 285e

Non-finite *-ing* clauses and *to*-infinitive clauses occur as direct objects. The non-finite clause may occur with or without a new subject.

- Same subject for verb and complement clause:

  *She's **regretted** selling the house.*

  *I'd **hate** to swim in the Thames.*

- Different subject in complement clause:

  *Didn't he **like** you to sit in the room?*

  [*a little sip* means a small amount of a drink]
  *You don't **mind** me having a little sip, do you?*

Note that the new subject is in the object form. (also **285f**)

Verbs normally only followed by *-ing* 285f

A number of common, everyday verbs are normally only followed by the *-ing* form as opposed to the infinitive:

*Haven't you **finished** pack**ing** yet?*
(~~Haven't you finished to pack yet?~~)

*They **keep** chang**ing** the timetable and it confuses everybody.*
(~~They keep to change ...~~)

*I **fancy** do**ing** some evening classes.*
(~~I fancy to do some evening classes.~~)

The most common verbs only followed by *-ing* are:

admit	*dread*	*miss*
adore	*endure*	*object*
appreciate	*enjoy*	*postpone*
avoid	*(can) face*	*practise*
burst out (e.g. *laughing*)	*fancy*	*prevent*
can't help[1]	*feel like*	*put off*
commence	*finish*	*recall*
consider[2]	*give up*	*report*
contemplate	*imagine*	*resent*
defer	*involve*	*risk*
delay	*keep (on)*	*sit*
deny	*lie*	*stand* (be on one's feet)
detest	*loathe*	*can't stand* (can't bear)
dislike	*mention*	*suggest*
	mind	

[1] *Can't help* may also be followed by *but* plus the base form of the verb: *You couldn't help **but laugh** at it.*
[2] In the meaning of 'think about doing something': *Have you **considered** contact**ing** Mr Stanfield?*

*I really **appreciated** hav**ing** met them all before.*

*He accepted that he had been abusive but **denied** threaten**ing** to kill the barman.*

*I don't really **feel like** go**ing** out tonight.*

*Fewer students from poor backgrounds will be **put off** go**ing** to university.*

A different subject may occur with some of these verbs. If it is a pronoun, the new subject is in the object form:

*I can just **imagine** him say**ing** that.*

*I didn't mind them play**ing** in my garden.*

*Do you **miss** him be**ing** around?*

In formal styles, the new subject may occur as a possessive form:

*You mean she would **object to** his com**ing** here if she knew?*
(less formal: … object to him coming here …)

Hate, like, love and *prefer* 285g

Hate, *like*, *love* and *prefer* can be followed either by *-ing* or by a *to*-infinitive. The difference in meaning is often not great, but *-ing* emphasises the action or event in itself, while the infinitive places the emphasis more on the results of the action or event.

The *-ing* form often implies enjoyment (or lack of it), and the infinitive is often used for expressing preferences:

*I really like my teacher and I like my class. I **like being** in year five.*
(emphasis on the process itself and enjoyment of it)

*I like home-made soup. I **like to make** a panful and then it lasts me a couple of days.*
(emphasis more on result and the habit or preference)

However, when these verbs are used with *would* or *should*, only the infinitive is used, not the *-ing* form:

*I **would** like **to go** to Spain, or somewhere else, such as Italy.*
(~~I would like going to Spain …~~)

✪ In the case of *prefer*, if alternatives are stated, they are linked by the preposition *to*, not infinitive *to*:

*Would you **prefer writing** to **telephoning** if you wanted to put something across?*
(~~Would you prefer writing to telephone if you wanted to put something across?~~)

Verbs with *-ing* or *to*-infinitive clauses and changes of meaning 285h

Some verbs have a different meaning depending on whether they are followed by *-ing* or *to*-infinitive. These include *forget, go on, mean, need, regret, remember, stop, try, want*.

Remember and *forget* with the infinitive refer to necessary actions and whether they are done or not:

I must ***remember to ask*** *the secretary for his phone number.*

Oh, what I ***forgot to bring*** *was the candle.*

With *-ing* they refer to memories of the past:

Do you ***remember going*** *to that place in Manchester?*
(Do you remember when we went to that place …?)

I'll never ***forget landing*** *at Hong Kong airport for the first time.*
(I'll never forget when we landed …)

Examples of contrasts in meaning between *-ing* and *to*-infinitive

verb	*-ing*	*to*-infinitive
go on	*She* ***went on sleeping*** *as the sun crept up.* (she was sleeping, and continued)	*Some people do* ***go on to have*** *two, three, or even four face-lifts but this is rare.* (after they have had the first face-lift, they then have a second, etc.)
mean	*Getting the earlier flight* ***means leaving*** *here at 6.* (involves/necessitates leaving here at 6)	*I didn't* ***mean to offend*** *her.* (intend to offend her)
regret	*You're really* ***regretting volunteering*** *now, aren't you?* (you are sorry for what has already happened)	*However, I* ***regret to say*** *that I think his judgments on the EC … ought not to be so readily accepted.* (polite form meaning: I am sorry for what I am about to say/do)
stop	***Stop saying*** *sorry!* (you are saying sorry all the time; do not do it any longer)	*Now and then, one of the players* ***stopped to light*** *his pipe.* (stopped playing in order to light his pipe)
try	[about an alarm clock that does not seem to work] ***Try re-setting*** *it.* (re-set it as an experiment, to see if it works)	*I will* ***try to remember*** *not to disturb you.* (I will attempt not to disturb you)

Infinitive clause without a new subject 285i

The most common verbs which may be followed by an infinitive clause without a new subject are:

afford	*attempt*	*continue*
agree	*(can't) bear*	*decide*
aim	*begin*	*demand*
arrange	*choose*	*fail*
ask	*claim*	*forget*

hate	*mean*	*refuse*
help	*need*	*remember*
hope	*neglect*	*(can't) stand*
intend	*offer*	*start*
learn	*plan*	*try*
like	*prepare*	*want*
long	*pretend*	*wish*
love	*promise*	
manage	*propose*	

*They couldn't **afford** to put the heating on.*

*But they are unlikely to forgive the company for **failing** to warn them so many things could go wrong.*

*I **managed** to make it sound a lot better than it was.*

*Well, Laura, I can't **promise** to be up at four or five in the morning.*

To-infinitive clause with a new subject 285j

Choose, hate, like, love, need, prefer and *want* are the most common verbs which may be followed by a new subject + *to*-infinitive clause. If it is a pronoun, the new subject is in the object form:

*She'd **hate** me to remember just that sort of thing.*

*They just **wanted** us to be happy.*

-ing clause with a new subject 285k

Hate, like, love, mind and *remember* are the most common verbs which may be followed by a new subject + *-ing* clause. If it is a pronoun, the new subject is in the object form:

*I used to **love** him coming to visit us.*

*I can **remember** them asking me to carry a bottle of water.*

VERB + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT (DITRANSITIVE COMPLEMENTATION) 286

Ditransitive complementation refers to combinations of direct and indirect objects, and direct objects and oblique complements (286e).

Some verbs are followed by an indirect and a direct object. An indirect object always has a direct object accompanying it.

An indirect object (IO) is the entity affected by (i.e. the recipient or beneficiary of) the direct object (DO). The indirect object comes before the direct object:

S	V	IO	DO
He	*gave*	*me*	*his number.*

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Verbs used with indirect + direct object construction 286a

Common verbs which can be used with an indirect object + direct object construction include:

allow	*leave*	*save*
ask	*lend*	*send*
bring	*make*	*serve*
charge	*offer*	*show*
envy	*order*	*spare*
find	*owe*	*teach*
fine	*pay*	*tell*
forgive	*promise*	*throw*
give	*read*	*wish*
grant	*refuse*	
hand	*reserve*	

In these examples, the indirect object is underlined, the direct object is in green:

*He **brought** them some cakes.*

*I **lent** my niece £500.*

*I **offered** him a drink.*

*I **showed** you his photo, remember?*

278 for a full account of direct and indirect objects

Indirect objects and passive voice 286b

Some verbs allow two passive voice alternatives for active clauses with indirect + direct object.

Examples of alternative passive constructions

example	type
IO DO	
*They **gave** the children presents.*	active
***The children** were given presents.*	passive alternative **1** (IO becomes subject)
***Presents** were given to the children.*	passive alternative **2** (DO becomes subject)

Passive alternative 1 (indirect object becomes subject) is the more common.

Verbs which allow alternative passives include:

bring	*grant*	*leave*
give	*hand*	*lend*

offer	*read*	*teach*
owe	*send*	*tell*
pay	*serve*	*throw*
promise	*show*	

***We** were paid lots of money.*
(less frequent: Lots of money was paid [to us].)
(active alternatives: They paid us lots of money./They paid lots of money to us.)

***I** was taught English by her father.*
(possible, but less common or likely, alternative: English was taught to me by her father.)

The verbs in **286e** do not have alternative passives, and only the direct object noun phrase, not the noun phrase which is the complement of the preposition, may become the subject of a passive alternative:

***They** were robbed of all their belongings.*
(possible active clause: Somebody robbed them of all their belongings.)
(~~All their belongings were robbed [of] them.~~)

***She** was charged with murder.*
(possible active clause: They charged her with murder.)
(~~Murder was charged [with] her.~~)

Indirect object + *that*-clause as direct object 286c

Some verbs occur with an indirect object (underlined in the examples) plus a *that*-clause direct object (in green in the examples). For the following verbs the indirect object is obligatory:

assure	*notify*	*tell*
convince	*persuade*	
inform	*remind*	

*The bank manager **convinced** <u>them</u> that it was not a good time to start a business.*
(~~The bank manager convinced that it was not a good time to start a business.~~)

Remind <u>her</u> that the committee meeting is on Monday.

With other verbs, the indirect object is optional. A subjunctive verb form (i.e. subject + base form of the verb for all persons) may also occur. These include:

advise	*order*	*teach*
ask	*promise*	*warn*
bet	*show*	*write*

*Kumara left a suicide note **asking** that he **be** buried with his most cherished possessions.*
(subjunctive verb form *be*)

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*This graph **shows** that clocks have got more accurate over the years.*

*They **warned** that this could completely transform the countryside.*

Some verbs allow complementation with a prepositional phrase (underlined in the examples below) plus a *that*-clause direct object (in green in the examples below). These include:

acknowledge	*mention*	*state*
admit	*point out*	*propose*
announce	*prove*	*recommend*
complain	*remark*	*suggest*
confess	*report*	
explain	*say*	

*He did not return to his seat but **announced** to the general assembly that he was very tired.*

*I want an education, **to prove** to society that I am no longer dangerous.*

*I **suggested** to Charlie that he **come** with me but he turned pale at the idea.* (subjunctive verb form *come*)

Indirect object + *wh*-clause as direct object 286d

Advise, ask, inform, remind, show and *tell* may be used with an indirect object (underlined) and a *wh*-clause as direct object (in green):

*I **asked** him why he came.*

*Could you please **advise** me what I should do.*

[lecturer to students at beginning of lecture]
*Just to **remind** you what we covered last time, …*

Advise, ask, instruct, remind, show, teach, tell and *warn* may be followed by an indirect object (underlined) and a *wh*-clause in the infinitive (in green):

*I'll **ask** Anne what to wear.*

*The pastry chef **showed** him how to create exotic desserts.*

*They should have **told** us what to do if we were dissatisfied.*

Direct object + prepositional phrase 286e

Give to, send to, etc.

Many of the verbs in **286a** can also be used with an object noun phrase and a prepositional phrase with *to*. This construction is sometimes called transitive oblique. The verbs are:

bring	*offer*	*serve*
give	*owe*	*show*
grant	*pay*	*teach*
hand	*promise*	*tell*
leave	*read*	*throw*
lend	*send*	

In these examples, the direct object is in green, the prepositional phrase is underlined:

*George **handed** the bottle to William.*

*She **sent** an email to him.*

*I **taught** English to adults.*

Other verbs may not be used in this way (direct object in green, indirect object underlined):

*I **envied** him his success.*
(~~I envied his success to him.~~)

The choice between using an indirect + direct object structure or an object + prepositional phrase (oblique complement) depends on what the speaker wishes to focus on in the message. As end position in English is generally associated with greater focus, either the direct object (in green) of the verb can be put into focus or the recipient of the direct object (underlined):

*George **handed** William the bottle.*
(end-focus on *the bottle*)

*George **handed** the bottle to William.*
(end-focus on *William*)

However, where two pronouns are involved, the prepositional (oblique) construction is often preferred to an indirect object + direct object:

*She wrote her name and address on the card and **gave** it to me.*
(or: … and gave me it; or, more informal: … and gave it me)

*I think my mother **gave** them to them.*
(preferred to: … gave them them)

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Make for, save for

Not all the verbs in **286a** can be used with the oblique construction with a *to*-prepositional phrase. Some verbs are followed by a noun phrase (in green in the examples below) together with a prepositional phrase with *for* (underlined in the examples below). These include:

find	*order*	*save*
make	*reserve*	*spare*

*Her mother **made** me a lovely sweater.*

*Her mother **made** a lovely sweater for me.*
(~~Her mother made a lovely sweater to me.~~)

*I'm going to be late. Can you **save** me a seat?*

Can you save a seat for me?
(~~Can you save a seat to me?~~)

Accuse of, congratulate on, provide with

Other verbs have special prepositions associated with them and are only used in the oblique construction, not with indirect and direct objects. These verbs include:

accuse of	*persuade of*	*serve with*
charge with	*prevent from*	*subject to*
compare with	*protect from*	*suspect of*
congratulate on	*provide with*	*tell about*
convince of	*refer to*	*thank for*
deprive of	*relieve of*	*treat to*
inform of	*remind of*	*warn of*
interest in	*rob of*	
introduce to	*sentence to*	

*The police **charged** him with dangerous driving.*

*Steven **introduced** him to me.*
(~~Steven introduced me him.~~)

*She said she'd **provide** me with a list of all managers.*
(compare: She said she'd give me a list of all managers.)

*The steward tried to **relieve** me of my overcoat.*

*She **thanked** her colleagues for all the cards and presents.*

*I want to **treat** you to a drink.*

Direct object + *to*-infinitive clause 286f

Some verbs may be used with a direct object (in green in the examples below) followed by a *to*-infinitive clause (underlined in the examples below). These verbs include:

advise	*forbid*	*recommend*
ask	*implore*	*remind*
beg	*instruct*	*request*
challenge	*invite*	*teach*
command	*order*	*tell*
direct	*persuade*	*urge*

*Did they ever **advise** you to go and see a doctor?*

*Sally **invited** her to stay lots of times.*

COMPLEX TRANSITIVE COMPLEMENTATION 287

Complex transitive complementation occurs when a direct object is followed by an object complement or a locative complement (287h).

Direct object + object complement (adjective) 287a

Many common verbs may be used with a direct object (in green in the examples below) followed by an adjective phrase acting as object complement (underlined in the examples below). These include:

call	*hold*	*send*
consider	*keep*	*think*
declare	*leave*	*turn*
drive	*like*	*want*
find	*make*	
get	*prefer*	

*I must **keep** dad's dinner warm.*

*The whole of mankind **makes** me angry.*

*We **found** the garden slightly disappointing.*

Direct object + object complement (noun) 287b

Some verbs may be followed by a direct object (in green in the examples below) and a noun phrase object complement (underlined in the examples below).

In the sentence *He made her a cake*, *her* is the indirect object and *a cake* is the direct object. In the sentence *He made her a rich woman*, *her* and *a rich woman* refer to the same person; *a rich woman* is the object complement.

Verbs which can be followed by a direct object and a noun phrase object complement include:

appoint	*deem*	*name*
baptize	*elect*	*proclaim*
call	*find*	*pronounce*
christen	*hold*	*rate*
consider	*keep*	*think*
crown	*leave*	*vote*
declare	*make*	

If I never saw them again, I would not ***consider*** *it a loss.*

They ***declared*** *the festival a great success.*

You will, I think, ***find*** *it a comfort in the years ahead.*

You've done these different things and it has ***made*** *you a slightly different person.*

Direct object + *to*-infinitive clause 287c

A number of verbs may be used with a direct object (in green in the examples below) followed by a *to*-infinitive clause acting as the object complement (underlined in the examples below). These verbs include:

allow	*expect*	*permit*
announce	*feel*	*presume*
appoint	*find*	*proclaim*
assume	*force*	*prompt*
believe	*get*	*reckon*
condemn	*help*	*report*
consider	*imagine*	*require*
declare	*inspire*	*suppose*
elect	*intend*	*take*
enable	*know*	*think*
encourage	*lead*	*tip*
entitle	*mean*	*understand*
equip	*oblige*	

Heathcote Williams quite simply loathes the automobile. He ***believes*** *it to be the world's prime source of disease, pollution and war and a destroyer of mind, nature and morality.*

[*Pickfords* is a removal company]
A Pickfords van ploughed its way past me en route from Cadiz to Marbella. I ***imagined*** *it to be transporting a retired English couple's belongings.*

She had never ***intended*** *her work to cause such controversy.*

These constructions can be paralleled in the passive voice, especially with reporting verbs:

He ***is believed*** *to have arrived in Moscow in the last two weeks.*

It has ***been known*** *to happen.*

The polluted waters ***were reported*** *to be moving out to sea.*

Direct object + infinitive clause without *to* 287d

Verbs followed by a direct object (in green in the examples below) and an infinitive clause without *to* (underlined in the examples below) include:

feel	*let*	*see*
have	*make*	*watch*
hear	*notice*	
help	*overhear*	

I ***had*** *him mend that fence for me.*

There's a law firm that will ***help*** *you make a claim against the travel agent if you've had a bad holiday.*

Hilary used to come down here and ***watch*** *me bake cakes.*

Direct object + *-ing* clause 287e

Verbs followed by a direct object (in green in the examples below) and an *-ing* clause (underlined in the examples below) include:

catch	*have*	*overhear*
discover	*hear*	*see*
feel	*leave*	*smell*
find	*notice*	*spot*
get	*observe*	*watch*

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*I **found** her bathing the baby, which was lovely.*

*At ten o'clock every Friday they'd **hear** someone walking up the stairs.*

*My next-door neighbour actually said to me that the girl next door to her had **overheard** them talking about breaking into this house on the corner.*

Verbs of perception with *-ing* or infinitive without *to* **287f**

Feel, hear, overhear, notice, see and *watch* may be used with *-ing* or the infinitive without *to*. When used with *-ing*, the emphasis is on the action or event in progress; when used with the infinitive without *to*, the emphasis is on the action or event seen as a whole, or as completed:

*Jeff **saw** something **going** on, so he ran out.*
(emphasis is on the event in progress at that moment)
(preferred to: Jeff saw something go on, so he ran out.)

*The girl next door to her had **overheard** them **talking** about breaking into this house on the corner.*
(she heard the conversation in progress, but probably not the whole conversation)

*I've not **heard** him **mention** Glasgow yet.*
(emphasis on the event as a whole, or absence of it)

*In the airport I walked from the coffee bar without paying the bill after I **saw** a mouse **run** unseen by anyone across the bar top.*
(emphasis on the whole, completed event)

Direct object + *-ed* clause 287g

The following verbs may occur with a direct object (in green in the examples below) plus *-ed* (*-ed* participle) clause (underlined in the examples below):

feel (oneself)	*have*	*need*
find	*leave*	*want*
get	*like*	

*I keep meaning to **get** it fixed.*

*He **had** a few things stolen.*

*They **want** him buried there.*

A–Z **51 *Make*; 75 *Want***

Direct object + prepositional complement of time or place (locative) 287h

Some verbs, especially verbs of placement and direction, take a direct object (in green in the examples below) and a prepositional phrase locating the object in terms of time or place (locative complement) (underlined in the examples below). Such verbs include:

bring	*place*	*show*
drive	*put*	*stand*
lay	*send*	*take*
lead	*set*	

*Edith **led** her through her own front door.*

*Did you **put** your stuff in our bedroom?*

*He **took** me to a club in Manchester.*

COPULAR COMPLEMENTATION 288

Copular verbs 288a

Copular verbs describe states (e.g. *appear, be, feel, look, seem, smell, sound, taste*) or changing states/results (e.g. *become, get, go, grow, turn out*).

Copular verbs link subjects with subject complements. Subject complements may be adjective phrases, noun phrases, adverb phrases or prepositional phrases.

Adjective phrase complements 288b

Adjective phrase complements (in green) of copular verbs are very common:

- State:

  *They don't **seem** very happy up there, you know.*

  *He **was** too clever for them.*

  *It **looked** a bit big.*

- Change of state/result:

  *Leeds city centre has **become** better.*

  *What makes them **go** pink?*

  *It always **turns out** black.*

- Adjective complements and collocation:

  Some adjective complements collocate strongly with particular verbs, and the verb has a similar function to a copular verb:

  *We **fell** silent as we tried to understand what he was saying.*

  *He just **lay** flat on the bed, without moving.*

  *They won't succeed. Oh no. We'll **stand** firm.*

Other expressions of this kind include *blush red*, *die young*, *freeze solid*, *keep quiet*, *lie awake*, *loom large*, *slam shut*.

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Noun phrase complements 288c

Many verbs which allow an adjective phrase complement also allow a noun phrase complement (in green). These include *appear, be, become, feel, look, remain, seem* and *sound*:

*Samantha**'s not** my friend.*

*Well, it **became** a liability.*

*This **looks** a delicious meal.*

*He **seemed** a nice enough lad.*

Some verbs which allow an adjective complement do not normally occur with a noun phrase complement. These include *get*, *go*, *grow*, *smell* and *taste*.

Adverb phrase complements 288d

Be, *get*, *lie*, *live*, *remain* and *stay* can all be used with adverb phrase complements (in green):

*Amy**'s** upstairs, isn't she?*

*I'll wait till I **get** home, I think.*

Prepositional phrase complements 288e

Be, *get*, *lie*, *live*, *remain*, *stand* and *stay* can all be used with prepositional phrase complements (in green):

*Your glasses **are** on the table. Don't forget them.*

*A memorial to him **stands** in the park which also bears his name.*

OTHER ASPECTS OF COMPLEMENTATION 289

Complementation with *should* and subjunctive mood 289a

A group of verbs with meanings connected with requests and desires can be used with a *that*-clause (in green in the examples below) and the modal verb *should*, or with a subjunctive form. The subjunctive form uses the base form of the verb, and has no third person *-s* in present time reference.

Both forms are associated with formal styles, with the subjunctive form being associated with very formal styles. The verbs include:

agree	*concede*	*insist*
arrange	*demand*	*intend*
ask	*determine*	*prefer*
beg	*ensure*	*propose*

recommend	*require*	*suggest*
request	*stipulate*	

*Robert had **arranged** that the visitors **should** be brought down to his office.*

*Right from the start he would have **insisted** that his son **embark** on a proper profession.*
(subjunctive)

[*the Hollyhocks* is the name of a hotel]
*They **agreed** that they **should** stay at the Hollyhocks, and blushingly **suggested** that they **be** given an adjacent suite of rooms.*
(here *should* follows *agreed*; subjunctive follows *suggested*)

Consider, deem and *find* 289b

When *consider*, *deem* or *find* are followed by adjective + *to*-infinitive clause or *that*-clause, the object pronoun *it* must be used after the verb:

*'We **considered it** essential they be separated,' continued Khan, unperturbed.*

*I **find it** very difficult to have my eyes dealt with.*
(~~I find very difficult to have my eyes dealt with.~~)

Complementation and prepositional verbs 289c

Prepositional verbs consist of a verb and a preposition which are closely syntactically and semantically linked with each other (235f), and as such they are similar to simple lexical verbs. The object (in green) follows the preposition:

*It all **depends on** how much it costs.*
(prepositional verb)

*No-one could **disagree** with that.*
(lexical verb)

235f for a list of common prepositional verbs

Some prepositional verbs take a direct object (in green) and a complement of the preposition (underlined):

*I **associate** Bristol <u>with many happy memories</u>.*

*The safety goggles are supposed to **protect** you <u>from bits of grit and stones</u>.*

Clause types

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Clause types

INTRODUCTION 290

Types of finite clause

In the first part of this chapter (291–294) we consider the different basic types of finite clause. These are declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative.

Declarative clauses are typically associated with statements:

She works in publishing.

I've never met his father.

Interrogative clauses are typically associated with questions:

Do you need any help at all?

Has Katie arrived yet?

Imperative clauses are typically associated with directives (commands, orders, etc.):

Get some kitchen paper, will you.

Sign here, please.

Exclamative clauses are associated with exclamations:

What a lovely dress you're wearing!

How ugly it all is!

Main and subordinate clauses

We then consider the characteristics of main clauses and subordinate clauses (295–296). Main clauses are not dependent on any other clauses and can form sentences on their own. Subordinate clauses are dependent on other clauses and can only form sentences by combining with main clauses. Main clauses are in bold:

It hasn't lasted very long.
(one main clause, also one sentence)

I'll see you *when I get back, then.*
(main clause and time adverbial clause)

Will you be at home *if I ring you tonight?*
(main clause and conditional clause)

The guy *who came this morning* ***was very polite****.*
(main clause and embedded relative clause)

***Push it right down**, as far as it'll go.*
(main clause and comparative clause)

*Working all day like that **you'll exhaust yourself**.*
(non-finite *-ing* form conditional clause and main clause)

Finite and non-finite clauses

The next sections (297–298) look at finite and non-finite clauses. A finite clause has a verb which indicates tense (i.e. a tensed verb form, 215). A non-finite clause has a verb with no indication of tense (i.e. a non-tensed verb form, 215), and depends for the interpretation of its time reference on other clauses in the environment:

*They jointly **earned** £60,000 a year.*
(finite: past tense form)

*Sally just phoned me **wondering** whether she should come over in the near future rather than at New Year.*
(*wondering* is a non-tensed form, but its past time context is interpreted from *phoned*; the clause in green is non-finite)

Tags

The chapter also considers tags (299–303), which are short clauses added on to main clauses either to create questions or to reinforce statements, directives and exclamations:

*You like mushrooms, **don't you**?*

*I'm hungry, **I am**.*

*Pass me that pen, **will you**.*

*What a pretty girl, **isn't she**!*

DECLARATIVE CLAUSES 291

Structure 291a

The word order in declarative clauses is subject (s) – verb (v) – x , where x is any other element present (e.g. object/complement).

Declaratives are most typically used to make statements and assertions:

S V
I | saw | him in the distance.

S V
These days | he | seems | quite happy.

S V
Bob | often | annoys | people.

S V
I | don't put | salt on my food.

Affirmative declaratives 291b

An affirmative declarative clause makes a statement about something that is, as opposed to something that is not.

Examples of affirmative declarative clauses

subject	verb	x
He	*is*	*a good teacher.*
I	*'ve noticed*	*it.*
She	*works*	*in the mornings.*
He	*mentioned*	*that.*

Negative declaratives 291c

Negative declarative clauses negate a proposition. They have the word order subject – auxiliary/modal verb – negative particle – verb – x, where x is any other element present (e.g. object/complement).

Examples of negative declarative clauses

subject	auxiliary/modal verb	negative particle	verb	x
The lights	*were*	*not*	*working.*	
He	*could*	*not*	*afford*	*it.*
He	*did*	*n't* (= *not*)	*phone*	*me.*
I	*was*	*n't*	*allowed*	*in the room.*

In informal language, especially spoken contexts, the negative particle *not* is contracted to *n't* (though only very rarely with *may* and *used to*, **380e** and **400**).

437 Negation and mental process verbs for negation with verbs such as *think*, *hope*, *guess*, *wish*

also **472–475 Word order and focus**

Declaratives used as questions, requests and directives 291d

Affirmative and negative declarative clauses typically function as statements, but may also occasionally function as questions or requests or directives:

A: ***You want it today***?
B: *Yes, as quickly as possible.*
(question)

A: ***You could put that in the dishwasher for me***.
B: *Okay.*
(directive)

A: *I'm going to have a cake.* ***You haven't got any cakes***?
B: *I have indeed.*
(question)

[fixing an appointment]
A: ***You couldn't make it twelve o'clock***.
B: *Yeah, twelve would be fine.*
(request)

[talking about a child; the expression *to go ballistic* means to lose one's temper in an extreme way]
*He actually had had a temper tantrum for the first time yesterday and his sister took something off him and he went absolutely ballistic and he went '**You don't do that!**' and pushed her.*
(directive)

also **430 Declarative questions** and **410a Declarative clauses functioning as questions**

INTERROGATIVE CLAUSES 292

Polar interrogatives: *yes-no, x or y* 292a

Polar interrogative clauses typically function to ask questions to which the answer is *yes* or *no* (*yes-no* questions), or questions with *x or y?* (alternative questions), where the respondent must choose between alternatives.

Normal word order for polar interrogatives is auxiliary/modal verb – subject – verb – x, where x is any other element present (e.g. object/complement).

The auxiliary verb may be *be*, *do* or *have*.

Examples of polar interrogatives

	auxiliary/modal	subject	verb	x
be	*Were*	*you*	***staying***	*in Cardiff?*
	Are	*you*	***going***	*by boat **or** train?*
do	*Do*	*you*	***know***	*the way to the market?*
	Did	*we*	***go***	*twice **or** just once?*
have	*Haven't*	*you*	***phoned***	*your sister yet?*
	Have	*you*	***got***	*a pair of scissors **or** a sharp knife?*
modal	*Shouldn't*	*we*	***leave***	*it till tomorrow?*
	Could	*we*	***meet***	*for lunch the following Tuesday?*

Wherever there is no auxiliary *be*, auxiliary *have* or modal verb already present, auxiliary *do/does/did* is used.

Where there is more than one auxiliary verb or a modal verb plus auxiliary verb(s), only the first auxiliary or the modal verb precedes the subject.

Examples of polar interrogatives with multiple auxiliary verbs

modal verb/first auxiliary verb	subject	second auxiliary verb	verb	x
Is	*your violin*	*being*	*repaired?*	
Has	*the flat*	*been*	*painted or redecorated*	*recently?*
Could	*it*	*have*	*been*	*like the problem you had before?*
Will	*you*	*be*	*ordering*	*some stuff, then?*

Note that only auxiliary and modal verbs, not lexical verbs, may come before the subject:

	auxiliary verb	subject	lexical verb
When	***was***	***the book***	***written****, do you know?*

(~~When was written the book, do you know?~~)

Sentences with modal verb – subject – verb – x structure also frequently function as requests or as directives:

Could you *give me a call about nine o'clock this evening?*
(request)

Will you *be quiet!*
(directive)

412 Modality and directives

Polar interrogatives with lexical verbs *be* and *have* 292b

Lexical verb *be*

Interrogatives with lexical verb *be* have verb – subject – x word order (verb in bold, subject in green):

Are *they all the same?*

Was *the swimming pool busy?*

Lexical verb *have*

With lexical verb *have*, verb – subject – x word order sounds rather formal. Interrogatives with auxiliary *do* and with *have got* are the preferred forms in informal situations:

*'**Has he** his name on the door?' Mr Laidlaw said suddenly.*
(formal)

Do they have *a lot of toys?*
(informal)

Has she got *any brothers or sisters?*
(informal)

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The choice between the inverted form, the *do/does/did … have* form, and *have/has/had … got* form depends on the meaning of *have*. When *have* refers to possession/attribution, all forms are possible:

Has he got *his name on the door?*
(possession/attribution: most informal)

Does he have *his name on the door?*
(possession/attribution: informal)

Has he *his name on the door?*
(possession/attribution: formal)

Interrogatives in the past tense show a marked preference for the *did … have* form rather than the *had … got* form when referring to possession/attribution:

Did you have *a car when you were younger?*
(more frequent form)

A: ***Had he got*** *a little girl?*
B: *A little boy.*
(less frequent form)

When *have* means 'to hold or take part in a habitual event', the *do*-forms are used. The inverted form and the *got*-forms are not used:

How often ***do you have*** *parties?*
(refers to regularity of events)
(~~How often have you got parties?~~)
(~~How often have you parties?~~)

Does Nigel have *butter?*
(Does he normally use/eat butter?)
(compare: Has Nigel got butter?, which would mean 'Does he possess/has he received butter?')

When *have* is used in the pseudo-passive (480), the *do/does/did* forms are used, not the inverted form:

How often ***do you have*** *your car serviced?*
(~~How often have you your car serviced?~~)

403d *Have to, have got to*

Exclamations with *be*

Clauses with verb – subject – x word order with lexical verb *be* can occasionally function as exclamations:

It was a very good school, but ***was I*** *lamentably ignorant in maths!*

472–475 Word order and focus and **408–423 Speech acts** for further examples

Negative polar interrogatives 292c

Negative *yes-no* interrogatives are typically used to ask questions which function to check or confirm something which the speaker believes or expects to be the case, or which the speaker considers to be a viable course of action.

The negative is formed with *not*, and is most frequently contracted to *n't*. Sentences with the full form *not* are more formal than those with contracted *n't*:

Wasn't he *here at the party?*

Don't you *want any tea or coffee?*

When the full form is used, *not* comes after the subject:

Could you not *hear me?*
(please confirm, yes or no)

Should we not *photocopy it?*
(I consider this a desirable action)

In very formal, rather archaic literary styles, full form *not* may occur before the subject:

[from *Northanger Abbey* by Jane Austen; speaking about open carriages]
Do not you *think it has an odd appearance, if young ladies are frequently driven about in them by young men, to whom they are not even related?*

Negative interrogatives with modal verbs are also often used to express polite requests or polite commands:

'Please, ***won't you*** *both* ***come*** *through?' Carole said, leading them down the red carpeted foyer and into the dimly lit restaurant.*

Replies to negative interrogatives

Note that a reply which agrees with the proposition in a negative polar interrogative is made with *no*, not *yes*:

A: ***Isn't*** *Margaret here today?*
B: ***No****. She's on holiday.*
(~~Yes. She's on holiday.~~)

A: ***Don't*** *you want any tea or coffee?*
B: ***No****. I've just had breakfast. Thanks anyway.*

However, negative polar interrogatives where the asker is simply checking information believed to be true may be answered with *yes*:

A: ***Isn't*** *she older than her brother?*
B: ***Yes****, she is. There's about three years between them, I think.*
(speaker B confirms what speaker A believes to be true)

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Wh-interrogatives 292d

Wh-interrogatives (clauses introduced by *what, when, where, which, who, whose, why, how*) typically function to ask questions which seek information, and cannot be answered simply with *yes* or *no*.

If the *wh*-question-word is the subject or forms part of the subject, then subject – verb – x word order is used, and auxiliary *do* is not used:

S V
Who | *wants* | *more coffee?*
(~~Who does want more coffee?~~)

S V
Whose car | *got stolen?*
(~~Whose car did get stolen?~~)

In all other cases, interrogative word order is used:

O AUX S V
Who | *did* | *you* | *see* | *there?*
(*wh*-word refers to the object)
(~~Who you saw there?~~)

O MODAL S V
What | *can* | *I* | *do* | *to help?*
(*wh*-word refers to the object)
(~~What I can do to help?~~)

A AUX S V
Why | *have* | *they* | *got to* | *sit and wait?*
(*wh*-word refers to the adjunct)
(~~Why they have got to sit and wait?~~)

A AUX S V
When | *are* | *you* | *leaving?*
(*wh*-word refers to the adjunct)
(~~When you are leaving?~~)

C (SUBJ) V S
Whose *shoes* | *are* | *those?*
(*wh*-word refers to the subject complement)
(~~Whose shoes those are?~~)

Wh-interrogatives with lexical verb *have* are formed with auxiliary *do* or the *have got* construction when the *wh*-word refers to an element other than the subject. The formal verb-subject construction is not used:

What do you have *for me? Anything?*
(~~What have you for me?~~)

Why have you got *three email addresses?*
(~~Why have you three email addresses?~~)

Prepositions and particles with *wh*-interrogatives 292e

Wh-words and *wh*-phrases can be the complement of a preposition, in which case the preposition and its complement typically occur together in more formal styles:

> ***To whom*** *did the last item belong?*
> (*wh*-word)

> ***For what purpose*** *could it be used?*
> (*wh*-phrase)

In informal styles, especially in spoken language, the preposition may be stranded (separated from its complement, 257) and placed at the end of the clause:

> [writing a cheque]
> ***Who*** *do I make it out* ***to****?*

> ***Where*** *do you get them* ***from****?*

In the case of reduced questions, the preposition and its complement normally occur together:

> A: *She was quite upset.*
> B: ***For what*** *reason?*
> (~~What reason for?~~)

> *A marriage of convenience, if ever there was one. But* ***for what*** *motive?*
> (~~But what motive for?~~)

With phrasal verbs, which are combinations of verbs and particles (235c), the particles stay attached to the verb, rather than to the *wh*-word:

> ***What*** *did they* ***get up to****?*
> (What mischief/misbehaviour were they involved in?)
> (~~Up to what did they get?~~)

> ***Which*** *dictionary shall I* ***look*** *it* ***up*** *in?*
> (or, in formal style: In which dictionary shall I look it up?)
> (~~Up in which dictionary shall I look it?~~)

Negative *wh*-interrogatives 292f

In negative *wh*-interrogatives, auxiliary *do* is used in all cases where there is no other auxiliary or modal verb, even when the *wh*-word is subject of its clause:

> ***Who doesn't want*** *tea?*

> ***Which*** *one* ***didn't you use****?*

> ***Why can't I say*** *'Good afternoon, gentlemen and ladies'?*

Indirect interrogatives 292g

Indirect polar interrogatives

When a polar interrogative is reported indirectly, *if* or *whether* is used. *Whether* tends to be more formal.

The reported clause has subject – verb – x word order.

Examples of indirect polar interrogatives

direct interrogative	indirect interrogative
Will you be seeing *them during the week?*	*She asked me* ***if/whether I would be seeing*** *them during the week.*
Did he enjoy *himself?*	*I asked* ***if/whether he had enjoyed*** *himself.*
Does everybody go *or just the ladies?*	*I don't know* ***if/whether everybody went*** *or just the ladies.*
Can I phone *you back?*	*He wondered* ***if/whether he could phone*** *me back.*
Have they been *helpful?*	*She asked* ***if/whether they had been*** *helpful.*

493 Viewpoint: Time and place references in **Speech representation** for the principles of backshift in tense and deictic changes in indirect interrogatives

When *or not* immediately follows, *whether* is preferred to *if*:

I don't know ***whether or not*** *you'll print this.*
(preferred to: I don't know if or not …)

When *or not* is placed later in the clause, then *if* may be used:

I didn't know ***if*** *I was going to do it* ***or not****.*

In informal speech, interrogative word order may occur as an alternative to an *if/whether* clause:

When I asked her ***was she looking*** *for a job, she said, 'Well, not really'.*
(instead of: if/whether she was looking …)

I wonder ***is that form wrong****.*
(instead of: if/whether that form is wrong.)

Indirect *wh*-interrogatives

When a *wh*-interrogative is reported indirectly, the word order in the reported clause is normally subject – verb – x, not interrogative:

S V
So I asked him ***what*** | ***the arrangements*** | ***were****.*

S V
I phoned up the hospital and asked ***who*** | ***I*** | ***should address*** | *the letter to.*

However, in informal speech, interrogative word order is sometimes used:

AUX S V
She wanted to know ***why*** | ***didn't*** | ***I*** | ***go*** | *too.*
(compare: She wanted to know why I didn't go too.)

Where the subject of the reporting clause and the reported clause are the same, an infinitive construction may be used in the reported clause:

[in a restaurant]
Oh, I don't know ***what to have****. What are you having?*

*How do they decide **who to employ** and who not?*
(*they* decide and *they* employ)

also **424–433 Questions** and **408–423 Speech acts**

IMPERATIVE CLAUSES 293

Structure 293a

Imperative clauses typically function to give directives (e.g. commands, orders, instructions).

Imperative clauses do not have an overt subject. They have the word order verb – x. The lexical verb is in its base form (229):

***Give** me a clue.*

*Just **leave** it there.*

***Tell** me when you've finished.*

***Be** quiet!*

***Don't move**!*

***Let's go** home now.*

Imperatives with subject pronoun

Imperatives may occasionally occur with an emphatic subject pronoun *you*. This may be for contrastive emphasis, or simply to make the imperative stronger:

[speakers are clearing things from the table after a meal]
A: *Shall I take those out?*
B: ***You take** those two out on the tray. And I'll just put this milk away.*

[parent to a child just about to play with a dog]
***Don't you start** teasing him now!*

In very informal spoken contexts, *you* may occur after the verb, especially where speakers are being playful or mildly reproachful:

[mother to young child]
*Come on, **you**!*

An indefinite subject such as *someone/somebody*, *no one/nobody*, *everyone/everybody* may also occur, especially in informal spoken language:

***Somebody get** one more chair, please.*

*Quick! **Everybody hide**!*

Imperative as invitation

The bare imperative may also function to make an offer or an invitation:

***Have** some more coffee.*

*Next time you're in Manchester, **come** and see us.*

The bare imperative is a very direct form in English and should be used with great care in order to avoid the perception of impoliteness. It is **not** generally used to make requests/commands or give instructions (e.g. in service encounters in shops or restaurants) except in cases where people are very familiar with one another, and except where accompanied by *please*.

408–423 Speech acts for the most common ways of requesting, instructing

[to a waiter]
Could we have the bill please?
(~~Give us the bill.~~)

Just and/or *please* can also soften an imperative:

[customer and market trader]
A: *And some peppers, please.*
B: *Yeah. How many?*
A: ***Just give** me two big ones, **please**.*

Imperatives with *do*

Imperatives with emphatic *do*-auxiliary are perceived as more polite than bare imperatives:

[to guests who have just arrived]
***Do take** your coats off.*

Short imperative answers may consist of emphatic *do* without a lexical verb:

A: *Can I leave this in your office?*
B: *Yes, **do**, by all means.*

Imperatives with *let*

First person plural and third person imperatives are formed with *let*:

A: *Bob's here to see you.*
B: ***Let him** wait. I don't want to see him yet.*

Contracted *let's* is the most frequent form for first person plural imperatives. In very formal contexts, the full form *let us* is used:

***Let's** start, shall we.*

***Let us** remember those who died on this day, twenty-five years ago.*

Emphatic *do* may be used with *let's*:

***Do let's** hurry up or we'll be late again.*

Let's may occur alone in short responses:

A: *Shall we go for a walk?*
B: *Yes, **let's**.*

Negative imperatives 293b

Negative imperatives are constructed with auxiliary *do*. Contracted *don't* is the most common form in spoken language:

Please ***don't tell*** *him until he rings me.*

Don't be *silly.*

In more formal styles the full form *do not* often occurs:

[instructions for keeping a cake fresh for a long time]
Do not store *in a sealed plastic container or in the kitchen, as the humidity will make it sweat and go mouldy.*

Short negative imperative answers or reactions may consist of *don't* without a lexical verb:

A: *Should I tell her, do you think?*
B: *No,* ***don't****. It'll only upset her.*

Negative imperatives with subject pronoun

Negative imperatives with emphatic subject pronoun *you* or with an indefinite subject (e.g. *nobody*) may also occur, especially in informal spoken language:

You know we're coming up again next year. ***Don't you worry****, Ursula, we'll be up you know.*

I'll tell her. ***Don't you say*** *anything.*

Nobody say *a word, okay.*

Negative imperative of *let's*

The negative of *let's* is most typically *let's not*. Less frequently, *don't let's* may occur:

Let's not *be silly about it.*

Don't let's *confuse the issue.*

In rather formal styles, *let us not* or *do not let us* may occur:

[Trade Union Annual Conference speech]
Let us not *forget that we're not in business to remain in perpetual opposition.*

[Trade Union Annual Conference speech]
Colleagues, ***do not let us*** *shirk from our responsibilities to our fellow workers.*

EXCLAMATIVE CLAUSES 294

Exclamatives consist of phrases with *what* and *how* (or a clause with *how*) followed by a subject – verb – x construction.

They usually express a reaction of surprise or shock or the experience of a strong impression on the part of the speaker.

539 Glossary for any unfamiliar terms

In writing, they are often punctuated with an exclamation mark (!).

506 Appendix: Punctuation

What is followed by a noun phrase:

What a lovely cake *they bought you!*

What nonsense *you talk!*

How may be followed by an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase or a clause:

How happy *they both seem!*

How wonderfully *it worked out!*

How I wished *I could have been there!*

The exclamative clause may consist of the *wh*-word and a phrase alone, especially in spoken language:

What *a wonderful thing!*

How *sad!* ***How*** *terribly sad!*

How *awful!*

Simple exclamatives are not normally constructed with *such* followed by an un-premodified noun:

Wow! What a view!
(~~Wow! Such a view!~~)

However, *such* may occur before a premodified noun:

What a beautiful house! And ***such a wonderful garden****!*

MAIN CLAUSES 295

A main clause is a clause which is not dependent on any other clause in the sentence. A sentence must have at least one main clause.

A main clause must be finite; that is, it must have a verb which is inflected for tense:

A simple diet suits me.
(sentence consisting of one main clause, not dependent on any other clause)

He was very quiet, and he had beautiful manners.
(two independent main clauses joined by *and*)

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES 296

A subordinate clause is dependent on another clause in the sentence. A sentence may not consist of a subordinate clause alone.

A subordinate clause may be finite or non-finite (297, 298). Examples of subordinate clauses:

***If people feel good about coming to work**, they will work better.*
(*if*-clause dependent on main clause)

*I laughed at him **when he first asked me**.*
(*when*-clause dependent on main clause)

***To get the morning flight**, we'd have to leave here about eight.*
(non-finite clause dependent on main clause)

***To do it by hand** would be difficult.*
(non-finite clause as subject)

*The people **I work with** are nice.*
(relative clause functioning as postmodifier in the noun phrase)

*It's not really as bad as **most people think**.*
(clause as the complement of a comparative adjective phrase)

Subordinate clauses in conversation 296a

In conversation, subordinate clauses may appear to be used alone, but they are usually dependent on a main clause nearby, spoken either by another speaker or by the same speaker:

A: *You're coming on Friday?*
B: *Yeah. **If I can**.*
(understood: I'm coming on Friday if I can.)

[assembling a piece of flat-pack furniture]
A: *This has got screw holes. Right?*
B: *Right.*
A: ***Which is funny isn't it**. It's not at all obvious what they support.*
(understood: that it has screw holes is funny)

87b Subordinate clauses

310–317 for a full description of subordinate clauses

FINITE CLAUSES 297

A finite clause contains a verb which is inflected for tense (present or past). Finite clauses typically have a subject, and can be main or subordinate clauses.

Examples of finite clauses

clause	tense
*He **lives** on his own.*	present
***Aren**'t you going anywhere in between times?*	present
*I seriously **considered** private health care.*	past
*She always **rings** | when we**'re** out.*	present | present
*We **could** go up and get one.*	modal*

* Some modal verbs have forms which can indicate present and past time reference (e.g. *can/could, shall/should, will/would, may/might*) (380b). Past forms in such cases are often used to make indirect statements about a present or future situation, or to perform particular speech acts (408–423 Speech acts):

*I thought I **would** wait and see what happened.*

***Could** you hold this for me, please?*

NON-FINITE CLAUSES 298

Non-finite clauses contain a lexical verb which does not indicate tense. Non-finite clauses can normally only be subordinate, and typically combine with finite ones in sentences.

References to time (and person and number) are normally interpreted from context or from information in the finite clause to which the non-finite clause is related.

Examples of non-finite clauses (non-finite clauses are shaded, verbs are in bold)

type	clause	clause	comments
-ing clause	*The documentary **is** built like fictional drama,*	***following** the parents' anguish and the doctor's anxiety through the months of ups and downs.*	the subject of *following* is *the documentary,* and its time reference is the same as *is* (present time)
-ing clause	*The London Stock Market **welcomed** the news of the deal,*	***marking** the company's shares up 50 pence.*	the subject of *marking* is *the London Stock Market*, and its time reference is the same as *welcomed* (past time)
-ing clause	*At ten o'clock every Friday they**'d hear** someone*	***walking** up the stairs.*	understood past time references: 'someone *was walking* up the stairs'
to-infinitive clause	***To help** the people who travel into the city by car,*	*there **are** multi-storey car parks around the edge of the city centre.*	the subject of *help* is *multi-storey car parks*, and its time reference is the same as *there are* (present time)
-ed clause	***Helped** by her children's schoolteacher,*	*Sue **started** out on the learning process she should have begun 30 years earlier.*	the (passive) subject of *helped* is *Sue*, and its time reference is the same as *started* (past time)
-ed clause	*You **should read** the parts*	***highlighted** in yellow.*	understood present time reference: 'which are/have been highlighted in yellow'

TAGS 299

Tags are a type of clause without a lexical verb but which relate to the verb in the main clause of a sentence.

Tags consist of auxiliary *be*, *do*, *have*, lexical verb *be* or a modal verb and a subject (most typically a pronoun). They may have declarative or interrogative word order and may have affirmative or negative polarity.

The four main types of tag are question tags, directive tags, statement tags (also known as copy tags) and exclamation tags:

- Question tags:

  She's a teacher, ***isn't she****?*
  I haven't shown you this, ***have I****?*
  You've met David, ***have you****?*

- Directive tags:

  Shut the door, ***will you****.*
  Don't stay out too late, ***will you****.*

- Statement tags:

  I'm hungry, ***I am****.*
  She was very kind, ***Rita was****.*
  He's not so tall, ***Jim isn't****.*

- Exclamation tags:

  How strange, ***isn't it****!*
  What a laugh that was, ***wasn't it****!*

QUESTION TAGS 300

General 300a

Question tags are used to check or clarify information, or simply to involve the listener in a more interactive way.

Question tags consist of an auxiliary or modal verb or lexical verb *be* + subject pronoun. The subject pronoun repeats the subject of the main clause to which it refers, and agrees in number, person and gender with the subject of the main clause.

Where the main clause contains an auxiliary or modal verb or lexical verb *be*, it is repeated in the tag.

Examples of question tags with repeated auxiliary

	declarative clause	auxiliary/modal verb	subject pronoun
1	***You've*** *worked hard,*	***haven't***	***you****?*
2	***He did****n't get it,*	***did***	***he****?*
3	***We had*** *talked about it,*	***hadn't***	***we****?*
4	***I can*** *do it now,*	***can***	***I****?*
5	***Kate is*** *Irish,*	***isn't***	***she****?*

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Where there is no auxiliary or modal verb in the main clause, auxiliary *do/does/did* is used in the tag.

Examples of question tags with added auxiliary verb

	declarative clause	auxiliary verb	subject pronoun
6	***He said*** *it's basically the same,*	***did***	***he****?*
7	***Patsy lives*** *in Lincoln,*	***doesn't***	***she****?*
8	[lexical verb *have*]		
	They have *one every year,*	***do***	***they****?*

Negative tags are normally contracted in informal styles (*doesn't he?, don't they?, weren't we?, isn't it?*, etc.). In more formal styles, uncontracted *not* may occur:

You changed servants at that time, ***did you not****?*

So we're left with three possibilities, ***are we not****?*

Question tag polarity: affirmative or negative 300b

Polarity refers to whether a verb phrase is affirmative or negative. In examples **1**, **2**, **3**, **5** and **7** in the tables in **300a**, there is contrasting polarity between the main clause and the tag:

affirmative negative
*You |****'ve*** *| worked hard, |* ***haven't*** *| you?*

negative affirmative
He | ***didn't*** *| get it, |* ***did*** *| he?*

affirmative negative
We | ***had*** *| talked about it, |* ***hadn't*** *| we?*

In examples **4**, **6** and **8**, the polarity is affirmative in the main clause and the tag:

affirmative affirmative
I | ***can*** *| do it now, |* ***can*** *| I?*

The different patterns of polarity combine with intonation patterns to produce a variety of different meanings. 431 for a full account

Main clauses with *am, may, used to, ought to* 300c

Am, *may*, *used to* and *ought to* do not follow the normal pattern of obligatory repetition in the question tag. Typical usage is as follows.

Examples of tag questions with *am, may, used to, ought to*

	declarative clause	tag auxiliary/modal	subject
am	***I'm*** *crazy to even think about it,*	***are****n't*	*I?*
may	*Jim* ***may*** *be able to help,*	***might****n't*	*he?*
used to	*He* ***used to*** *work with you,*	***did****	*he?*
ought to	*We* ***ought to*** *ring her now,*	***should****n't* or (less frequent) ***ought****n't*	*we?*

* The form *used (he)* (or its negative *usedn't*) is now very rare (400).

Question tags in non-final position 300h

Although question tags normally occur after the main clause, they may sometimes interrupt the clause, especially in clauses with anticipatory *it*:

It's *odd,* ***isn't it****, that he should say that?*

It was *perhaps your team,* ***was it****, that was round there?*

It's *true,* ***isn't it****, what they said about him?*

In reporting structures, the question tag may occur before the reported clause, especially if the reported clause is felt to be unusually long. The early placement of the tag can also serve to project or acknowledge a shared perspective with the listener:

[commenting on the recipes of a famous cookery book writer]
You *always* ***know****,* ***don't you****, that what you make will be suitable, and light, and that it will taste all right too.*

431 on question tags and intonation patterns

DIRECTIVE TAGS 301

Affirmative imperatives may be followed by tags involving *will/would/can/could you*. Such clauses typically function to issue directives:

Stop *arguing,* ***will you****.*

Hold *this rope,* ***would you****.*

Be *back by five, please,* ***could you****.*

Negative imperatives may be followed by *will you*:

Don't *forget my CD,* ***will you****.*

Imperative clauses, in more formal styles, sometimes occur with the tag *won't you*. This softens a directive and the utterance may be heard more as a polite request:

Give *Emma whatever she needs,* ***won't you****, Hal.*

'I'd very much like a black coffee,' Amy said. 'Here's the money. ***Choose*** *something for yourself too,* ***won't you****?'*

First person plural imperatives with *let's* typically have *shall we* as a tag:

Let's *go home,* ***shall we****.*

Let's *not discuss it now,* ***shall we****.*

STATEMENT TAGS 302

Declarative clauses may be followed by a tag with the same polarity and subject – verb word order. These are called statement tags or copy tags. Such sentences typically make emphatic statements, frequently in evaluative contexts:

affirmative affirmative
*She**'s** lovely, **she is**.*

negative negative
*It's **not** very good, **that one isn't**.*

*They were pathetic-looking things, **they were**.*

*I'm fed up with it, **I am**.*

The principle of same polarity operates with reduced (ellipted) clauses too:

[speakers are at a nature conservation area]
A: *I don't think we'll see much wildlife today.*
B: ***Not** without binoculars **we won't**.*

[speakers are joking and engaging in word play]
A: *D'you know the definition of a secret?*
B: *No.*
A: *A secret is something only one person knows.*
B: ***Not** where I work **it isn't**.*

also **434–447 Negation**

Both *it* and *that* may occur as subjects in tags following main clauses with *it*. Main clauses with *that* normally have *that* as the subject of the tag:

***It**'s about this big, **it is**.*

*Ah, **it** was beautiful, **that was**.*

***That** was the second time, **that was**.*

also **97 Tails**

EXCLAMATION TAGS 303

Wh-exclamative clauses may be followed by negative tags with interrogative word order:

***How** strange, **isn't it**!*

***What** a coincidence, **wasn't it**!*

***How** sad we were, **weren't we**!*

Clause combination

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Clause combination

INTRODUCTION 304

This chapter (304–318) looks at the ways in which clauses combine with one another to create sentences in written texts and sentence-like structures or clause complexes in spoken texts.

The main ways in which clauses combine to form sentences are by joining clauses of equal syntactic status (coordination) and joining main and subordinate clauses (subordination) (307–317).

This chapter also describes the most common types of subordinate clause, including adverbial clauses, nominal clauses and relative clauses. Comparative clauses (e.g. *We're going to Spain for our holidays,* ***the same as we always do***.) are described fully in 471 Comparative clauses.

This chapter also discusses embedded clauses, where a clause becomes a constituent of a phrase (e.g. a postmodifying relative clause in a noun phrase) rather than acting as a constituent of the sentence structure.

In this example, the phrase is in green, the clause is in bold:

There's one thing ***that needs changing***.

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES 305

An independent clause is one which does not depend syntactically on another clause. Independent clauses act as main clauses, that is clauses which can form whole sentences on their own.

A dependent clause is one that is syntactically dependent on another clause. Dependent clauses cannot in themselves form whole sentences. Dependent clauses include subordinate clauses (which combine with main clauses to form sentences) and embedded clauses (for example, relative clauses embedded in noun phrases):

main clause | dependent (subordinate) clause
I'll do it | ***when I've had my lunch***.

noun phrase | dependent embedded (relative) clause
This is | *the video* | ***that I said I'd lend you***.

Examples of how independent and dependent clauses relate to one another

	sentence	
	independent (main) clause	**dependent clause(s)**
1	*I was going to take a photograph.*	
2	*Could you just sign that for me please?*	
3	*We would love to see you tonight*	*if it's possible.* (subordinate conditional clause)
4	*That's the thing that annoys me most.*	*… that annoys me most.* (embedded relative clause, acting as postmodifier)
5	*I'll get them to give you a ring.*	*… to give you a ring.* (embedded non-finite clause acting as complement of *get*)
6	*I don't believe what they told us.*	*… what they told us.* (embedded nominal clause, acting as object)

Sentences **1** and **2** in the table are main clauses and complete sentences.

In sentence **3** in the table, the clause *if it's possible* is a dependent clause. It cannot in itself form a whole sentence, and is syntactically dependent on the main clause *we would love to see you tonight*. It is a conditional clause, introduced by the subordinator *if* (314d).

In sentence **4** in the table, *That's the thing that annoys me most*, the clause *that annoys me most* is a dependent clause. It cannot in itself be a sentence, and is syntactically a postmodifier of the noun *thing*, and is a relative clause (317f).

In sentence **5** in the table, *I'll get them to give you a ring*, the clause *to give you a ring* is a dependent clause. It cannot in itself form a whole sentence, and is syntactically dependent on the main clause. It is a non-finite clause, introduced by the non-tensed infinitive verb form (317j).

In sentence **6** in the table, *I don't believe what they told us*, the clause *what they told us* is a dependent clause. It cannot in itself be a sentence, and is syntactically the object of the verb *believe*. It is a nominal clause (it serves a noun-like function) (316).

MAIN AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES 306

The clauses which combine to form sentences are of two kinds: main and subordinate. A main clause can be a sentence on its own. A subordinate clause can only be part of a sentence when it is dependent on the main clause. This can happen either through the use of a subordinator (a word like *as*, *because*, *if*, *since*, *until*, *when*) or by using a non-tensed verb form to create a non-finite subordinate clause. Examples of main (bold) and subordinate (in green) clauses:

I'll see you tomorrow.
(one main clause, one sentence)

I'll call you *when I get home*.
(main clause, and subordinate clause introduced by subordinator *when*)

Looking at it now, ***I don't think it's such a good idea after all***.
(non-finite subordinate clause introduced by non-tensed form *looking*, and main clause)

Examples of subordinate clauses preceding or following a main clause in the sentence

subordinate clause first	main clause	subordinate clause second
	She could do a lot more	***if** she wanted.*
	I'll get back to you	***when** I've had a think about it.*
***Until** he died,*	*nobody knew he was married.*	
***As** I was going upstairs,*	*I tripped on the carpet.*	

In more formal styles, a subordinate clause may interrupt the main clause or interrupt another subordinate clause.

Examples of subordinate clauses interrupting the main clause

	main clause interrupted (formal styles)	
main clause	**subordinate clause**	**main clause (continued)**
We should,	***if** we get there early enough,*	*be able to get seats near the front.*
The French in 1993 can,	***if** they wish,*	*vote for the same party in both presidential and assembly elections.*

Example of subordinate clause interrupting another subordinate clause

	subordinate clause interrupted (formal styles)		
main clause	**subordinate 1**	**subordinate 2**	**subordinate 1 (continued)**
She worked there for some time,	***although**,*	***as** she herself has told you,*	*she was not happy in her job.*

The choice as to where to position a subordinate clause in relation to a main clause is not a grammatical one as such, but is a question of discourse. In general, subordinate clauses are more marked (i.e. used in an untypical way) when they occur first, and even more marked when they interrupt the main clause.

Placing a clause in a marked position can create emphasis, or may be used to signal a contrast with another clause or sentence. It may also serve to create a coherent link between sentences, or to signal the importance of a piece of information (123–139 Grammar across turns and sentences).

As in the table above, a subordinate clause may be subordinate to (i.e. syntactically dependent on) another subordinate clause, rather than a main clause:

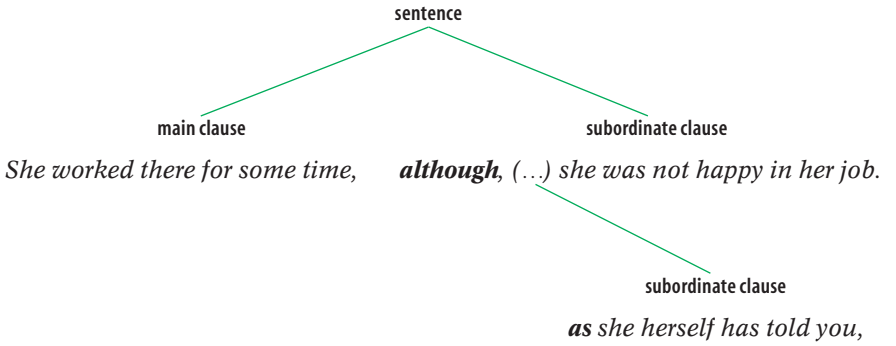

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COORDINATED CLAUSES 307

The relationship between two or more clauses in a sentence may be one of coordination, not subordination. Coordinated clauses are clauses which have the same syntactic status.

For example, coordination can take place between main clause + main clause, or subordinate clause + subordinate clause, but not main clause + subordinate clause, and not finite main clause + non-finite clause:

main	main
finite	finite

I was there ***and*** *I saw it*.
(~~I was there and if I saw it.~~)
(~~I was there and to see it.~~)

297–298 for the difference between finite and non-finite clauses

Coordination most typically involves the central coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but* and *or*:

Jim brought me here ***and*** *Phil's taking me home*.

[talking about school grades (years) and class teachers]
It will be different when you're in my year ***and*** *when you're in Mr Lane's maths group*.

If I have an appointment in the morning ***and*** *if I'm late, what do I do?*

We didn't want to be rude to her because she's a good customer ***and*** *because she's such a nice person*.

I've never owned a car before ***but*** *I'm considering buying one*.

I'll phone you later ***or*** *you can give her a ring*.

[employee discussing the problem of freely expressing opinions about her work situation to her employers]
If you complain ***or*** *if you dare to put comments that are not suitable for what they want to hear, then you get a bad reputation*.

Coordination may occur without the explicit link created by a conjunction. This is particularly true in literary style or for special effect in narrative texts. In the following example, clauses are coordinated by the use of commas alone. Coordinated clauses simply placed next to each other without conjunctions are also known as contact clauses:

*She made me a cup of coffee in the kitchen***,** *she knew where the cups and spoons were and where the coffee was kept***,** *she sat up on one of the stools and leaned on her elbows on the breakfast bar and said, …*

COORDINATORS 308

The most common coordinator is *and*:

main clause 1	coordinator	main clause 2
She's definitely interested |	***and***	| *she's willing to drive all the way down.*

subordinate clause 1	coordinator	subordinate clause 2
Well, if you don't get a job, |	***and***	| *if you want to come here for a bit,* |

main clause
you're welcome to stay.

The other most common coordinators are *or* and *but*:

She doesn't know if she's right ***or*** *if she's wrong.*

If it's too expensive ***or*** *if it's costing me money, we'll think again.*

I dialled a different number ***but*** *I didn't get a dialling tone.*

Correlative structures are used to coordinate clauses. These are *either … or …*, *neither … nor …*, *not only … but also*:

Either *she could come down here* ***or*** *I could go to Gatwick or Heathrow.*

She was desperate to play down the problem, ***not only*** *to save face,* ***but also*** *to spare you any embarrassment.*

The *neither … nor* construction requires subject-verb inversion in the *nor*-clause:

They [universities] should ***neither*** *remain aloof from what goes on in life,* ***nor should they*** *spend all their time solving industrial problems.*

The same applies to *nor* and *neither* when used singly to link clauses:

Fred Wolf did not come in to join them, ***nor did he*** *appear in the hallway when Edith left.*

I don't know my parents, ***neither did they*** *know theirs.*

MULTIPLE COORDINATION 309

Coordination may involve more than two clauses, especially in informal spoken language. This is called multiple coordination:

It happened in front of the police station. It was the best place to have an accident anyway ***and*** *of course the police officer came* ***and*** *I was a bit shocked* ***and*** *he said 'Get in the passenger seat'* ***and*** *he drove me to the hospital you see.*

[answerphone message]
I'll be driving off down to France ***and*** *I'll try and ring again* ***but*** *remember I'll be in my car most of the day.*

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I'd gone to the bookshop with a friend ***and*** *he went to collect me* ***and*** *I was just sitting in the bookshop chatting* ***and*** *my husband said, 'That coffee shop over the road,'* ***and*** *I thought, 'Oh this is good.' Then you came in* ***and*** *Sylvia was having a coffee with us* ***and*** *poor James was left running the bookshop* ***and*** *nobody had made him a coffee* ***and*** *I said 'I know what I'm going to do. Can I buy him a coffee here?'*

Such multiple coordination makes the concept of 'sentence' difficult to apply to spoken language.

SUBORDINATION 310

A subordinate clause is dependent on a main clause or dependent on another subordinate clause, and cannot in itself form a whole sentence.

Subordinate clauses are typically introduced by a class of words known as subordinators (**311** and **312** below). Subordinators indicate the semantic relationship between the subordinate clause and the clause it is dependent on.

Subordinate clauses may be finite or non-finite.

297–298 for the difference between finite and non-finite clauses

SIMPLE SUBORDINATORS 311

Simple subordinators are single words (bold in the examples below) which introduce subordinate clauses (in green in the examples below). They include:

after
although
as
because
before
for (formal styles only)
how
however
if
in case
in order that
lest (formal styles only)
once
since
that
though
till
unless
until
when
whenever
where
whereas
wherever
which
while
whilst
who
whoever
whom
whose

The company's director stated that the first six months were good, ***although*** *interrupted by a one-day strike by van drivers.*

I want to book it ***before*** *we go, really.*

Once *you get off the escalator, go round and towards the restaurant.*

The Major was concerned at her sudden departure, ***though*** *he knew its cause.*

You can come and pick it up ***whenever*** *you want.*

[person explaining to a doctor how a child came to hurt himself while playing on the bed]
He was okay ***while*** *jumping on the bed, but I didn't know he was going to jump off the bed.*

also **204** and **317b Relative pronouns** for *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose* and *that*

COMPLEX SUBORDINATORS 312

Complex subordinators consist of more than one word and include common expressions ending in *as* and *that* (or optional *that*), plus a small number of other expressions. These include:

as far as
as if
as/so long as
as soon as
as though
assuming (that)
considering
given (that)
granted (that)
in case
in order for
in order that
insofar as
insomuch as (formal styles only)
in the event that
providing/provided (that)
seeing as (informal styles only)
seeing (that)
such that
supposing (that)

So, ***as far as*** *my mother was concerned, I was safe.*

Assuming *he dies first, I get all the money. And* ***assuming*** *I die next, you two just share the money.*

You take it in turns to be on duty ***in case*** *the fire alarm goes off or whatever.*

A: *That'll be fun.*
B: *Oh, Yes. It will won't it,* ***provided*** *it's not too snowy for the planes to get off.*

ELLIPSIS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES 313

Subordinators such as *although*, *if*, *unless*, *when*, *whenever*, *while* may be followed by ellipsis of subject and copular verb *be*. Such usage is generally associated with more formal styles:

Being part of a group means that you can support each other ***whenever necessary****.*
(understood: … you can support each other whenever supporting each other is necessary.)

[in a shop: customer buying nuts; *Brazils* are Brazil nuts]
A: *Can I have a quarter of those please?*
B: *Yes.*
A: *Er, not too heavy on the Brazils* ***if possible****.*
(understood: … if it/that is possible.)

In reporting structures with common everyday verbs such as *guess*, *hope*, *know*, *say*, *tell*, *think*, omission of *that* is the norm, except in formal styles or very careful speech:

[informal conversation]
I think he's a lovely man.
(less likely: I think that he's a lovely man.)

[written text]
The Mayor hopes visitors will become involved with the village.
(less likely: The Mayor hopes that visitors will become involved with the village.)

He says he's sold his bike, everything he owns, to get money together.
(less likely: He says that he's sold his bike …)

Backward-referring (anaphoric) ellipsis in subordinate clauses is more common than forward-referring (cataphoric) ellipsis:

You can have that if you ***want to****.*
(anaphoric; understood: You can have that if you want to have that.)

I only go there when I ***have to****.*
(anaphoric; understood: I only go there when I have to go there.)

If you ***can****, do try different methods, techniques to see if you can get more.*
(cataphoric; understood: If you can try different methods, techniques to see if you can get more, do try …)

If you ***wish****, we can fax it to you.*
(cataphoric; understood: if you wish us to fax it to you, we can …)

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES 314

Introduction 314a

Adverbial clauses act as modifiers in or of the main clause. They specify circumstances such as manner, time, frequency, place, degree, reason, cause, condition:

Tell me ***after I've eaten my dinner****.*
(time: tell me after dinner)

I feel guilty today ***because I've not paid you that cheque****.*
(reason: I feel guilty today because of the delay)

He says he can't repair the leak ***unless the water is turned off****.*
(condition: the water must be turned off or he can't repair the leak)

Adverbial clauses are sometimes divided into two types: adjuncts and disjuncts. Adjuncts are more fully integrated into the clause (compare the general class of adjuncts, **319–337**), while disjuncts are more peripheral, and in writing are often separated from the main clause by a comma:

Your evening class tonight has had to be cancelled ***because the lecturer's ill****.*
(adjunct expressing reason)

Somebody could have left it in the corridor, ***because it does happen****.*
(disjunct expressing a justification/explanation for what the speaker has just said)

The most common types of adverbial clause are described here. Adverbial clauses of comparison are dealt with in **471 Comparative clauses**

Adverbial clauses: time 314b

Adverbial clauses of time may indicate that events in the main clause occur earlier than, simultaneously with, or later than events in the adverbial clause.

They may be placed before or after the main clause. After the main clause is the more neutral position:

- Main clause event occurs earlier than adverbial event:

  He'd need to do his exams ***before he went****.*
  (the exams must happen first, then he can go)

- Simultaneous events:

  I got a sandwich ***while I was out****.*
  (I was out and got a sandwich at the same time)

- Main clause event occurs later than adverbial event:

  [computer tutor to pupils]
  Once you've typed that text in*, can you all save the document.*
  (type the text in first, then save the document)

Adverbial clauses: place 314c

Adverbial clauses of place are usually introduced by *where* or *wherever*. After the main clause is the more neutral position:

Everybody knew everybody ***where I grew up****.*

He always carried them on him ***wherever he went****.*

Adverbial clauses: condition 314d

Conditional adverbial clauses involve the use of *if*, *unless* and a number of other subordinators. These include:

as/so long as	*in case*	*providing/provided (that)*
assuming	*in the event that*	*supposing (that)*
given (that)	*on condition that*	

Conditional adverbial clauses may be placed before or after the main clause. After the main clause is the more neutral position:

*So, **given that Church and politics have so much in common**, is there anything the former can learn from the latter?*

*I only spoke to the police **on condition that I wasn't going to be involved**.*

Conditional clauses can also involve syntactic devices such as inversion with *had*, *should* and *were*. Such clauses may come before or after the main clause:

*I'd have gone there with you **had I known** Philip was going to be there.*

***Should you lose** one of your credit cards, call our emergency helpline.*

448–459 Condition for a full account of conditional clauses

Adverbial clauses: contrast 314e

Contrastive adverbial clauses are usually introduced by *whereas* or *while/whilst*. After the main clause is the more neutral position:

*Without a car, if you want to go to the seaside then you have to pay for a coach to take you there or a taxi **whereas if you've got your car, you just have to put petrol in it and off you go**.*

*He likes fried rice, **while I prefer boiled**.*

Adverbial clauses: concession 314f

Concessive adverbial clauses contrast expectations between the information in the adverbial clause and the information in the clause it is dependent on. After the main clause is the more neutral position. Concessive clauses are typically introduced by:

(al)though	*no matter wh-*	*while (+ nevertheless)*
even though	*whatever*	*whoever*
if (+ at least/also)	*wherever*	
however	*whether … or*	

*He still plays tennis now and again, **even though he's in his eighties**.*

*Her reputation was growing, and **if her business wasn't going to make her rich, at least** it made her happy.*

***Whatever I do**, I'm compromised.*

Adverbial clauses: reason 314g

Reason clauses are typically introduced by:

as	*in that*	*with* (informal spoken)
because	*seeing (that)*	
for (formal styles only)	*since*	

Reason clauses may come before or after the main clause:

***As I trust myself**, I don't need to write a number on it.*

*Without the columns, the house looked very different, **in that it was the same as any other house in the street**.*

*He's very intense when it comes to his work. I suppose you have to be, **with doing a PhD**.*

Adverbial clauses: purpose 314h

Purpose clauses may be introduced by *in order to/that*, *so as to*, *so (that)*. Purpose clauses may also simply be non-finite clauses with the *to*-infinitive. The purpose clause may occur before or after the main clause:

***In order to survive under the water**, fish and other creatures need to get oxygen, just as people do.*

*All the coordinates are moved around **so as to confuse us**.*

*Like all boys, he needs stability **so that he can rebel but still know he has security**.*

*I was ringing up **to enquire whether you've got any news about Alice**.*

The negated forms of *in order to* and *so as to* are *in order not to* and *so as not to*:

*I'll take my shoes off **so as not to dirty the carpet**.*

Adverbial clauses: result 314i

Adverbial clauses of result are mostly introduced by *so*, and *so that* (more formal). Result clauses are placed after the main clause:

*Roy's up in Manchester tomorrow, **so he can't come tomorrow**.*

*She tried to pull away, but he tightened his fingers **so that she could not get free**.*

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Adverbial clauses: comment 314j

Comment clauses are similar to viewpoint adverbial phrases (246) in that they express the speaker's or writer's opinion or viewpoint on the events in the main clause. Frequent comment clauses include *as you know*, *I believe*, *I daresay*, *I expect*, *I presume*, *I suppose*, *I (don't) think*, *so they say/tell me*, *speaking as …*, *to be honest*.

Such clauses may occur before or after the main clause, or, in more formal styles, in mid position in the main clause:

***To be honest**, I haven't really thought about it.*

*I could ring him, **I suppose**.*

*In any case, my English master, **as you know**, was Tubby Baxter.*

319-337 Adjuncts for a full account of adverbial-clause types

EMBEDDED CLAUSES 315

Embedded clauses are dependent clauses which function as constituents of phrases. They are most typically relative clauses, but may also be adverbial clauses, nominal clauses or comparative clauses.

This phenomenon is sometimes called rankshifting since an item associated with a higher rank in the grammar (e.g. clauses are a higher rank than phrases and are constituents of sentences) may occupy a lower rank (e.g. a clause may act as constituent of a phrase).

In the sentence *Two people I know have gone there*, the clause *I know* modifies the noun *people*, and is a constituent of the subject noun phrase (in green in the diagram below):

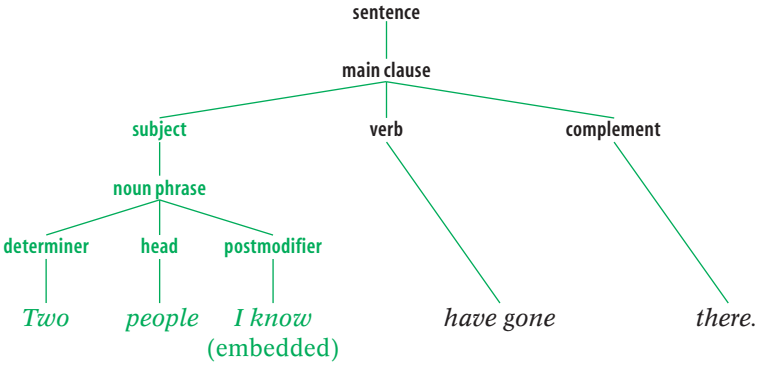

(noun phrase is in green)

*Lindum was **a town** | where Roman soldiers **could settle** with their families | after they **had retired** from the army.*

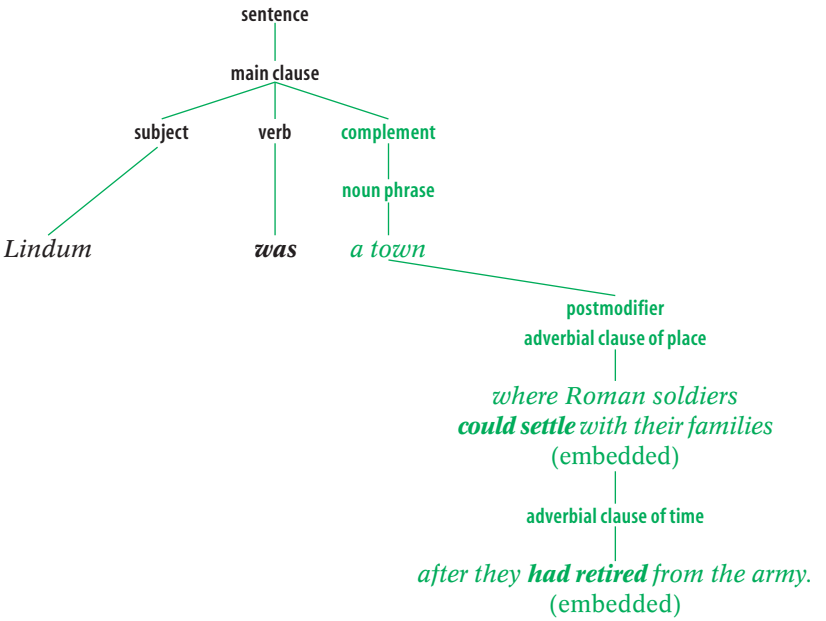

NOMINAL CLAUSES 316

Nominal clauses function in a way similar to noun phrases, in that they may function as subjects or objects/complements in the main clause. Compare the following pairs of examples:

***His sincerity** can't be denied.*
(noun phrase as subject)

***That one British child in four is born into poverty** is a disgrace.*
(nominal *that*-clause as subject)

*I forgot **his name**.*
(noun phrase as object)

*I forgot **to ask how long it would take**.*
(nominal infinitive clause *to ask how long it would take* as object of *forgot*, and *how long it would take* as object of *ask*)

*The idea was **a good one**.*
(noun phrase as subject complement)

*Well the idea was **that I made tea** because Philip was helping us out.*
(nominal clause as subject complement)

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Nominal clauses may also be indirect interrogatives:

What he didn't know *was the name of the person standing by my side.*

They have to decide ***who to give the treatment to****.*

RELATIVE CLAUSES 317

Types of relative clause 317a

Relative clauses are of two main kinds: embedded clauses which postmodify noun heads, and *which*-clauses referring to a whole sentence or stretch of discourse (sentential relative clauses).

Defining and non-defining relative clauses

Relative clauses (in green in the examples below) may define or describe a preceding noun head (bold in the examples below).

Relative clauses which define the noun are called defining (or, in some grammar books, restrictive):

The ***guy*** *who shouted must have been on about the seventh floor.*
(defines the guy; specifies which guy is being referred to)

This is the ***problem*** *which we're having at the moment.*
(defines the problem; specifies which problem is being referred to)

That ***woman*** *that was here lost all her keys.*
(defines the woman; specifies which woman is being referred to)

Relative clauses which describe the noun are called non-defining (or, in some grammar books, non-restrictive):

Have you ever heard of ***Guy Preston****, who had a hit song with 'Loving Ways'?*
(describes or gives extra information about Guy Preston)

Erm there's Portugal, there's ***Las Palmas****, which is one of the Canary Islands, and there's Rhodes.*
(describes or gives extra information about Las Palmas)

Sentential relative clauses

Sentential relative clauses comment on a whole previous sentence or series of clauses, or a speaker turn, or a longer stretch of discourse. They are introduced by *which*. Their most frequent function in informal spoken language is to express evaluation:

He's always in the office and then he complains about not having any time off and how wonderful he is to the company, which is his own fault.
(comments on the previous clauses)

In conversation, sentential relative clauses may be added by a second speaker:

A: *I should use my qualification but you know I think I'll probably look back if I haven't done something with it and think 'Oh I wonder what, you know, what if I'd …?'.*
B: *Which is not good.*
A: *Mm.*
(comments on previous clauses/a speaker turn)

[A is a travel agent, B is a customer, discussing flight schedules]
A: *No that's coming back 12 o'clock, coming home midday, but that one, the one going out, it gets in at 7 in the morning.*
B: *Which is fine isn't it?*

Occasionally, the same speaker may add on a sentential relative clause after a response by a listener:

A: *It cost £20.*
B: *Oh right.*
A: *Which I know is quite a lot.*
B: *Mm.*

Sometimes such clauses may be added by more than one speaker:

A: *Any other ideas? Any way you could prop the business up or, you know take …*
B: *Not at the moment.*
A: *Mm.*
C: *Not without having to go heavily into debt on a mortgage on a re-mortgage or have a personal loan.*
A: *Mm.*
B: *Which is the one thing we don't want to do.*
C: *Which at the moment none of us can afford.*
(two sentential clauses commenting on the notion of 'going heavily into debt')

Relative pronouns 317b

Relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns. The relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that* and *whose*. The choice of relative pronoun depends on whether the reference is to:

- a person, animal or thing
- a subject or an object
- a possessive meaning

The choice of relative pronoun also depends on what type of relative clause is involved, whether it is defining or non-defining, or sentential (317a above).

Sometimes the relative pronoun is omitted. This is referred to as zero relative pronoun (317h):

It's not ***a problem I've got****. It's* ***a problem they've got****.*
(compare: It's not a problem which/that I've got. It's a problem which/that they've got.)

The relative pronouns stand for the subjects, objects or prepositional complements of their clauses, so those clause elements are not repeated in the relative clause:

*He's the man **who** wrote back to me.*
(subject relative pronoun: He's the man. The man wrote back to me.)
(~~He's the man who he wrote back to me.~~)

*This is the problem **which** we're having at the moment.*
(object relative pronoun: This is the problem. We are having the problem.)
(~~This is the problem which we're having it at the moment.~~)

*The woman **who** I gave the form **to** was quite friendly.*
(object of a preposition: I gave the form to the woman.)
(~~The woman who I gave the form to her was quite friendly.~~)

However, occasionally, in very informal speech, an element may be repeated unnecessarily:

[DJ inviting listeners to call in and talk about songs which are very special to them]
*If you have one **that** you're really desperate to tell us about **it**, then give us a ring on 01223 …*
(standard usage: if you have one you're really desperate to tell us about, then give us …)

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[customer speaking to a travel agent; *Amtrak* is an American rail company]
A: *So with this Amtrak thing then, basically that's just a voucher **that** I take **it** to the station+*
B: *Right.*
A: *+when I want to start using it.*

Such usage may be explained by saying that sometimes speakers 'change direction' during their utterances so that two standard structures blend. This is a normal, common feature of speaking in real time and should not be seen as deviant or 'wrong'.

What is not used as a relative pronoun in standard usage:

*But Simon Quigley was there, **which** was very nice.*
(~~But Simon Quigley was there, what was very nice.~~)

Who and *whom* 317c

Who refers to human beings, and occasionally to pet animals. It is used with defining and non-defining relative clauses:

*I'm sure there'd be a lot more people **who**'d be better qualified than myself.*
(defining)

*We'll ask Dick, **who**'s the oldest in the family, just to say a few words.*
(non-defining)

*That's the dog **who** bit Tom.*
(defining; referring to an animal)

In all three examples, *who* stands for the subject of the relative clause:

*I'm sure there'd be a lot more people **who**'d be better qualified than myself.*
(I'm sure there'd be a lot more people. Those people would be better qualified than myself.)

*We'll ask Dick, **who**'s the oldest in the family, just to say a few words.*
(We'll ask Dick. Dick's the oldest in the family.)

*That's the dog **who** bit Tom.*
(That's the dog. The dog bit Tom.)

In most styles, except very formal ones, *who* may also refer to the object of the relative clause:

*She's the sister of a good friend of mine **who** we visited in Oxford before coming to you.*

*It was from a woman **who** I know slightly.*

When *who* refers to the complement of a preposition, the preposition is placed at the end of the relative clause, and not immediately before *who*:

*I met Bill's mate Rob, **who** I went to school **with**; Bill's in prison now.*
~~(I met Bill's mate Rob, with who I went to school; Bill's in prison now.)~~

317d *Whom*

Collective human nouns (e.g. *cabinet*, *committee*, *government*, *group*, *panel*, *police*, *team* 182a) tend to be used with *who* when followed by plural concord and *which* when followed by singular concord. *Who* with plural concord tends to be used when the members of the groups are seen as individuals; *which* with singular concord tends to be used when the group is seen as a whole:

- Plural concord (group seen as individuals):

  *The reports then go to a panel **who decide** what action to take.*

  *At the very beginning I had some sympathy for the police, **who were** so convinced they had found their man.*

[*World Cup* here refers to the football championship]
The Monaco midfielder, a key member of the Scotland team ***who face*** *Latvia in a crucial final World Cup qualifier …*

- Singular concord (group seen as single body):

  Ignoring immigrants excludes a social group ***which*** *already* ***plays*** *an important role in social and economic development.*

  The Disasters Emergency Committee, ***which coordinates*** *overseas crisis appeals, raised £3 million for the Bangladesh cyclone appeal.*

  [referring to the hypocrisy of governments supporting conservation of natural resources while continuing to increase the use of them]
  The same charge of hypocrisy is levelled at the British government, ***which says*** *we must find more oil yet use less.*

Who is not used for inanimate reference:

This is a problem ***which*** *occurs regularly.*
(~~This is a problem who occurs regularly.~~)

Whom 317d

Whom, which was traditionally used to refer to the human object of a relative clause or complement of a preposition, is now confined to very formal styles and mostly to writing. It is used with both defining and non-defining relative clauses:

Was she another of the ex-soldiers ***whom*** *Dennison had recruited from the army?*
(defining; formal, literary style)

It appeared she had struggled with her attacker, ***whom*** *she almost certainly knew.*
(non-defining; formal journalism)

Whom is used more extensively (but still only in formal styles and mostly in writing) when it refers to the complement of a preposition, and is always used when the preposition is placed immediately before the relative pronoun:

She taught piano and had three daughters, ***about whom*** *she worried incessantly.*
(~~She taught piano, and had three daughters, about who she worried incessantly.~~)

I soon discovered that she was thirty-one, had three boys aged nine, eleven and fourteen, whose father was a Norwegian ***from whom*** *she was now separated.*

There was also a bunch of Claire's friends ***whom*** *Cory had yet to be introduced to.*

Whom is many times more frequent in writing than in speech.

Which 317e

Which is used to refer to a non-human subject or object of a relative clause. It is used with both defining and non-defining clauses:

He dialled <u>*a number*</u> ***which*** *was answered immediately at the other end.*
(defining; referring to the subject of the relative clause)

*He had given them a number **which** they could call, day or night, if they needed him.*
(defining; referring to the object of the relative clause)

*And I remember sailing out of Dublin Bay, **which** is a beautiful, beautiful bay with the Hill of Howth on one side.*
(non-defining)

317c *Who* for error warning

Which can refer to the complement of a preposition, and the preposition may be placed at the end of the relative clause (more informal) or immediately before the relative pronoun (more formal):

*She taught at the school **which** my nieces went **to**.*

*Why did he keep asking questions **to which** you could not possibly be expected to know the answer?*

Sentential relative clauses are always introduced by *which*:

*We've been told not to tell him because he doesn't know yet, **which** is really stupid.*

That 317f

In a wide range of informal styles, *that* is used instead of *who/whom* or *which* in defining relative clauses. It is used for reference to either a subject or an object.

In all of these examples of defining relative clauses from sections **317a–317e** above, *that* can be used.

Examples of *that* in defining relative clauses

example	alternative with *that*
*The guy **who** shouted must have been on about the seventh floor.*	*The guy **that** shouted must have been on about the seventh floor.* (refers to the subject)
*This is the problem **which** we're having at the moment.*	*This is the problem **that** we're having at the moment.* (refers to the object)
*He dialled a number **which** was answered immediately at the other end.*	*He dialled a number **that** was answered immediately at the other end.*
*Was she another of the ex-soldiers **whom** Dennison had recruited from the army?*	*Was she another of the ex-soldiers **that** Dennison had recruited from the army?*
*He had given them a number **which** they could call, day or night, if they needed him.*	*He had given them a number **that** they could call, day or night, if they needed him.*
*She taught at the school **which** my nieces went to.*	*She taught at the school **that** my nieces went to.*
*I'm sure there'd be a lot more people **who**'d be better qualified than myself.*	*I'm sure there'd be a lot more people **that**'d be better qualified than myself.*
*That's the dog **who** bit Tom.*	*That's the dog **that** bit Tom.*
*She's the sister of a good friend of mine **who** we visited in Oxford before coming to you.*	*She's the sister of a good friend of mine **that** we visited in Oxford before coming to you.*
*It was from a woman **who** I know slightly.*	*It was from a woman **that** I know slightly.*
*This is a problem **which** occurs regularly.*	*This is a problem **that** occurs regularly.*

317c *Who* for error warning

That does not normally introduce non-defining relative clauses, except in informal spoken usage:

[referring to a man arrested for football hooliganism]
*Mr Collinson, **who** has never been in any kind of trouble, had not been to an England football international before.*
(~~Mr Collinson, that has never been in any kind of trouble, had not been to an England football international before.~~)

*The biggest tourist event in Lincoln is the Christmas market, **which** takes place over four days in the castle and cathedral grounds.*
(preferred to: … that takes place over four days …)

*And as you know, the meeting, **that** we'd never wanted anyway, was just foisted on us.*
(informal spoken)

That may refer to the complement of a preposition, but not when the preposition is placed immediately before the relative pronoun:

*The other girl **that** I told you **about** also lives in Bristol.*

*I've got some exercises **that** you can practise **with**.*

*It was like a dream **from which** I feared I would wake at any moment.*
(~~It was like a dream from that I feared I would wake at any moment.~~)

Whose 317g

When the relative pronoun stands for a possessive determiner, *whose* is used in defining and non-defining clauses:

*They've moved now, the people **whose** car it was.*
(it was the people's car)

*We've got a Spanish friend **whose** family have an orange orchard.*

[*a theatre sister* is a nurse who works in a hospital operating theatre]
*A theatre sister, **whose** blood group was the same as mine, bravely volunteered.*

Whose is mostly used for possession by humans and animals, but in more formal styles it can also be used for things:

*He couldn't shake away the idea that she had survived a catastrophe, **whose** details he was unable to imagine because her life had been so different.*
(the details of the catastrophe)

An alternative to *whose* in more formal styles is determiner + noun + *of which*:

*He couldn't shake away the idea that she had survived a catastrophe, **the** details **of which** he was unable to imagine because her life had been so different.*

*He wrote one novel, **the** title **of which** I've forgotten.*
(or, less formal: He wrote one novel, whose title I've forgotten.)

Zero relative pronoun 317h

Referring to the object

In informal styles and especially in spoken language, a defining relative clause referring to the object of the clause may occur without any relative pronoun:

That's a job I could never do.
(understood: a job which/that I could never do.)

A: *Who was present at this Sunday lunch?*
B: *Oh, some people we didn't even know.*
(understood: some people that/who/whom we didn't even know.)

As complement of a preposition

Zero relative pronoun can also occur as the complement of a preposition, but only when the preposition is placed at the end of the relative clause:

Is this the car Fiona was talking about?
(understood: Is this the car that/which Fiona was talking about?)
(or, more formal: Is this the car about which Fiona was talking?)
(But not: ~~Is this the car about Fiona was talking?~~)

[showing someone an old photograph in which they appear]
Huh, there's you in the back garden of the second house we lived in.
(understood: … the second house that/which we lived in.)

When the relative pronoun is the complement of a preposition, the preposition and relative pronoun may both be omitted in informal styles:

That seems to me a sensible moment to make that decision.
(understood: … a sensible moment at which to make that decision.)

Referring to the subject

In informal speech, zero relative pronoun may occur with reference to the subject of a defining or non-defining relative clause. This happens particularly with existential *there* constructions:

There was a train came by every morning about half-past eight.
(understood: There was a train which/that came by every morning …)

A: *There's quite a lot of colour photocopying needs doing.*
B: *Er, right, when do you want it for?*
A: *Today if possible.*
(understood: … colour photocopying which/that needs doing.)

There was this strange guy, Harry Foster, was President of the company. He was tall and thin.
(understood: …Harry Foster, who was President of …)

Occasionally in informal speech a subject relative pronoun and an immediately following auxiliary verb may both be omitted:

[talking about the activities of mysterious neighbours]
Yeah, they do seem to be dragging stuff about. It's really weird. There seems to be more stuff come out than gone in.
(understood: … more stuff that/which has come out than stuff which/that has gone in.)

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Non-defining relative clauses

Zero relative pronoun does not occur with non-defining relative clauses:

The lost-property office, which is on the floor below, is closed until next Tuesday.
(~~The lost-property office, is on the floor below, is closed until next Tuesday.~~)

Punctuation and intonation of relative clauses 317i

Punctuation

Defining relative clauses are not usually marked with commas:

*Rosie knew he was a person **that** handled trouble casually.*
(~~Rosie knew he was a person, that handled trouble casually.~~)

*But then the person **who** owned it decided they didn't want to rent it until April.*
(~~But then the person, who owned it, decided ...~~)

Non-defining relative clauses are normally separated off in writing by commas:

[about food additives, which have official European codes beginning with E-]
*Tartaric acid, **which** is just made from grapes, is sometimes listed as E334.*

*The fields could be protected by hedges and trees, **which** could also be used to produce fruit and nuts.*

*Tim Waites, **who** was hosting the evening, did his best to draw attention away from the two of them.*

Sentential relative clauses are also marked off by a comma:

*At the end of the day that gentleman finished up dead, **which** is very sad.*

Intonation

In speech, especially in more careful and formal speech, non-defining relative clauses are typically separated by breath pauses at the points where commas would normally be placed in writing. There may also be a drop to a lower pitch level for the non-defining clause:

[university lecture]

normal pitch level	lowered pitch level ↘	normal pitch level
X-rays have been around for a long time, over a hundred years, and the plain radiograph	***which** we'll be looking at today*	*in part at least really hasn't changed that much over the last hundred years.*
[breath pause]	[breath pause]	

Sentential relative clauses may be preceded by a breath pause or a slightly longer pause in speech.

Non-finite relative clauses 317j

Many of the same principles which apply to finite defining and non-defining relative clauses apply to their non-finite equivalents. However, with non-finite relative clauses, the zero relative pronoun is used:

The woman sitting next to Marian is her sister.
(defining: specifies which woman)
(~~The woman who sitting next to Marian is her sister.~~)

Each cell will continue to divide to form a human composed of millions of cells.

There's food to be served and drinks to be poured.

Preliminary investigations indicate that some, if not all, of the clients' money, believed to total £6 million, has instead found its way into unquoted companies and property purchases.
(non-defining: adds relevant information about the money)

In the case of *-ing* and *-ed* clauses, non-finite relative clauses only occur when the subject of the non-tensed verb is the same referent as the head noun:

The man I'm looking for has dark hair.
(~~The man looking for has dark hair~~. *Man* is object, so the relative clause cannot be non-finite *-ing*)

Relative *-ed* clauses correspond to passive voice finite equivalents:

The company she sold has made millions.
('The company sold has made millions' is possible but can only be related to its passive finite equivalent by ellipsis: The company which was sold has made millions.)

-ing clauses are not just reduced forms of their equivalent progressive finite forms. Verbs which are normally not used in progressive aspect may be used in non-finite relative *-ing* clauses:

Half a mile later, they reached what appeared to be a derelict complex consisting of half a dozen buildings.
(Half a mile later, they reached what appeared to be a derelict complex ~~which was consisting of half a dozen buildings~~.)

To-infinitive clauses may be used if the noun is subject or if it is the complement of a preposition in the non-finite clause:

The person to answer any questions about computers is Tania.
(*the person* is subject of *answer*)

Obviously the person to sit next to at a dinner party is the witty, charming and attractive one.
(*the person* is the complement of the preposition *(next) to*)

There is often a choice between an active *to*-infinitive clause and a passive one. Sometimes the difference in meaning is hardly noticeable. With existential *there is/are*, the difference is often negligible:

***There are** all those apples to peel.*
(There are all those apples to be peeled.)

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With other constructions, especially where quantifiers occur, the passive is less common:

We've got a lot of cooking to do.
(less likely: We've got a lot of cooking to be done.)

I have an essay to write for tomorrow morning.
(less likely: I have an essay to be written for tomorrow morning.)

In general, the active voice versions emphasise activity, while the passive voice versions emphasise the existence or absence of something.

CLAUSES AND NOUN PHRASES IN APPOSITION 318

The placing of elements with identical reference next to each other is called apposition:

| *My cousin* | *Mary* | *worked at that school.*
(the two noun phrases, *my cousin* and *Mary* refer to the same person)

Most typically the adjacent elements are noun phrases:

| *My friend* | *Jim* | *works there.*
(defining)

| *Susan* |, | *a friend of mine* |, *has just moved here from Liverpool.*
(non-defining)

A clause may also be in apposition to a noun phrase:

| *Her answer* |, | *that she had forgotten to set her alarm clock* |, *was not a convincing excuse.*

173 Noun phrases occurring together (in apposition)

Adjuncts

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Adjuncts

INTRODUCTION 319

The adjunct is the fifth major clause function, the other four being subject, verb, object and complement. Adjuncts modify, comment on or expand in some way the meaning of the clause in terms of manner, place, time, frequency, reason, intensity, etc. Adjuncts are never obligatory items in a clause.

TYPES OF ADJUNCT 320

The adjunct in a clause may be realised by an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase, or (less frequently) a noun phrase.

- Adjunct realised by an adverb phrase:

adjunct	subject	verb	complement
Luckily	*the weather*	*was*	*very nice.*

subject	verb	object	adjunct
I	*met*	*Prince Charles*	***fairly recently.***

- Adjunct realised by a prepositional phrase:

adjunct	subject	verb	complement
After that	*I*	*felt*	*really bad.*

subject	verb	object	adjunct
They	*were having*	*a conversation*	***in the background.***

Adverb phrases and prepositional phrases are both commonly used as adjuncts, and may often paraphrase each other in meaning:

*I'm going to have to drive **very carefully**.*

*Even where records are available, they have to be interpreted **with care**.*

- Adjunct realised by a noun phrase:

subject	verb	object	adjunct
We	*'re celebrating*	*our silver wedding*	***this year.***

Adjuncts may also be compared to adverbial clauses. In this grammar book, adverbial clauses are treated as elements of the sentence structure, rather than as adjuncts in the clause structure. However, the meanings of adverbial clauses are often similar to the meanings of adjuncts:

She wrote to me ***when she arrived in Oxford****.*
(adverbial clause)

She wrote to me ***upon her arrival in Oxford****.*
(same meaning realised as prepositional phrase adjunct)

304–318 Clause combination

TYPES OF MEANING 321

There are a number of different types of meaning that adjuncts typically express.

Examples of important general types of meaning expressed by adjuncts

manner 326	refers to how something happens	*A robin was singing* ***beautifully*** *from a garden tree.* *You're going to have to encourage your children to think about this* ***in a serious way****.*
place 326	refers to where something happens	*Have you got all your family* ***locally****?* *There's a shortage of housing* ***in the neighbourhood****.*
time 326	refers to when something happens	*I've had some really weird dreams* ***lately****.* *I retired* ***last May****.*
duration 327	refers to length of time over which something happens	*We met her at your wedding* ***very briefly****.* *Well, Pat said to me, 'Go out and you can leave the house* ***for good****!'*
definite frequency 328	states how often something happens using specific time expressions	*She gets paid* ***monthly****.* *They meet* ***every three weeks*** *and they discuss things.*
indefinite frequency 328	states how often something happens using non-specific time expressions	*She phones me* ***quite often****.* *We bumped into each other* ***from time to time****.*
reason 329	states why	*I told him off* ***for all the mess on the floor****.* *Going to the USA is cheap at the moment* ***because of the exchange rate****.*

continued overleaf

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continued

purpose **329**	states a goal or purpose	*I went to the café **for a quick coffee**.* *You might think I'm exaggerating **for the purpose of this story**.*
degree and intensity **330**	refers to how much, to what degree something happens	***Largely** they looked after themselves.* *That seems to be working, and does seem to be helping **to a certain extent**.*
focusing **331**	focuses on or specifies an entity	*He **specifically** asked to meet with me alone.* *Wildlife which lives alongside well-used paths becomes accustomed to the presence of people. This applies **in particular** to birds.*
modal **332**	expresses degrees of truth, possibility, necessity, etc.	***Probably** the most famous desert plant is the cactus.* *Medical evidence at the post mortem revealed **without doubt** that Mrs Marline had died through an overdose of the drug.*
evaluative **333**	judges or comments on the event, gives the speaker's opinion	A: *Did Charlie do anything?* B: *No he didn't actually, **amazingly**.* ***With luck** we should be finished by five-thirty.*
viewpoint **334**	expresses the perspective or standpoint from which the speaker sees things	***Personally** I don't want to carry on with what I'm doing for ever.* *It's a disgrace, **to my mind**.*
linking **335**	links and relates clauses and sentences to one another	*So he dropped his hand from her shoulder. And **moreover** left her side.* *In 1990, girls accounted for fully two thirds of the children globally without access to schools. **In addition**, more than two thirds of the children who drop out of school every year in developing countries are girls.*

There is some overlap in the types of meaning, and some adjuncts can be classified in different ways, according to their context of use:

*It has changed **a lot**.*
(to a great degree)

*We plan to go away **a lot** you see. For weekends and things.*
(frequently)

So we sent Joe up the street to go and find out what was happening. ***Meanwhile*** *Maria was in her bedroom, looking out of the window.*
(time: at the same time)

[about a women's golf tournament in Britain]
Total prize money for the week – to be shared among the players – is £150,000, with £25,000 as the top prize; ***meanwhile*** *in the States you're playing for up to $700,000 a time. So what have the Americans got that we haven't?*
(used for expressing comparisons and contrasts)

POSITION OF ADJUNCTS 322

There are three positions that adjuncts are typically used in: end, front and mid position.

End position is considered the most neutral position for most common adjuncts of manner, place and time, and is by far the most common position for such adjuncts in everyday conversational language:

- End position:

  I've had a lot of funny dreams ***lately****.*
  (neutral position for manner, place and time adjuncts)

- Front position:

  Yesterday *I didn't eat my lunch.*
  (*Yesterday* is given greater emphasis in front position)

- Mid position:

  We ***usually*** *eat around seven o'clock.*
  (between subject and verb: typical position for common adjuncts of indefinite frequency)

END POSITION 323

End position means after any object or predicative complement:

They don't have the right attitude ***in this country****.*

I've been very tired ***lately****.*

Adjuncts do not normally come between a verb and an object:

They started to build the road ***in 1981****.*
(~~They started to build in 1981 the road~~.)

He had to pass the shop ***on his way****.*
(~~He had to pass on his way the shop~~.)

In written and spoken journalistic style, however, adjuncts are sometimes found between verb and object, especially with reporting verbs:

Mr Ford announced ***yesterday*** *his resignation from the party.*

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The same applies in general to predicative complements. Adjuncts follow them:

[tennis player talking about pre-match nerves]
You'd become nervous ***before the match****.*
(~~You'd become before the match nervous.~~)

However, complements of the verb *be* may be preceded by adverbs of indefinite frequency:

He's ***always*** *happy.*

FRONT POSITION 324

Front position means that the adjunct is the first item in the clause structure:

In the job description *it says you'll get paid a basic car allowance.*

A front-position adjunct comes after a conjunction:

He looked tired but ***nevertheless*** *managed a smile as he caught sight of his two employees and walked over to join them.*
(~~nevertheless but managed a smile …~~)

Front position for adjuncts which normally occupy mid or end position gives greater emphasis to the adjunct:

In the garden *they grew all the food they needed.*
(adjunct of place, normally found in end position)

Quite often *I don't have any breakfast at all.*
(adjunct of indefinite frequency, normally found in mid position)

MID POSITION 325

Mid position means between the subject and verb. However, the exact position varies depending on whether auxiliary or modal verbs are used, and on the type of adjunct:

I ***usually*** *stay at a hotel near the airport.*
(between subject and verb)

I've ***never*** *had a holiday like it in my life.*
(following the first auxiliary/modal verb)

Indeed in the past two months central banks have been ***modestly*** *selling dollars to check the currency's rise.*
(following the last auxiliary verb)

*Well I **certainly** would join if I could afford it.*
(emphatic: preceding a stressed first auxiliary or modal verb)

Mid position and auxiliary/modal verbs 325a

Mid position normally means between subject and lexical verb or between an auxiliary/modal verb and a lexical verb.

If there is more than one auxiliary verb or a combination of modal and auxiliary verbs, then the adjunct normally comes after the first auxiliary verb (**aux1**) or after the modal verb:

	aux1	adjunct	aux2	main verb
We	*'ve*	***always***	*been*	*striving*	*to improve the service.*

	modal	adjunct	aux	main verb
He	*should*	***really***	*have*	*resigned.*

However, for adjuncts of degree and for other adjuncts which modify the lexical verb rather than the whole clause, mid position is immediately before the lexical verb, following all modal and auxiliary verbs:

*We have been **totally** rejected and we didn't expect that.*

[the parliament of the Isle of Man, a region of the UK, debated a maritime disaster near the island in its Parliament, *the Tynwald*]
*The parliament, known as the Tynwald, held a meeting at which unanimous approval was given for the operation to return the bodies of the crew to their families 'so that funerals can be held and so that the pain of their losses may be, **in some degree**, eased'.*

*Save the Children has been **actively** supporting farmers cultivating fields along the Shabelle River Belet Weyne district since 1992.*

Instead of coming after the first auxiliary or after a modal verb, mid-position adjuncts can be placed before for extra emphasis:

*I **honestly** don't know.*
(compare neutral (or unmarked) position after the first modal or auxiliary verb: I don't honestly know.)

*I **probably** could have said if I'd wanted to see it.*

In speech, pre-auxiliary/pre-modal position is particularly the case when the auxiliary/modal is stressed:

*I **never** have worked out which is which.*

*They know that they **definitely** are going to work.*

*I **really** will have to try harder next time.*

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Mid-position adjuncts can sometimes occur after a modal verb followed by an auxiliary verb, or after a second auxiliary verb (instead of the more normal position after the first one). This is common in spoken language when the second verb is contracted:

I think she would've ***probably*** *married him.*

They might've ***actually*** *had to alter the text. I don't know.*

[*the AA* is the Automobile Association, a club for motorists]
She's been working for the AA since she left school, she's been ***just*** *working, she loves it.*

Mid position and clause type 325b

In interrogative clauses, mid-position adjuncts follow the subject:

Did you ***seriously*** *think about ringing up Gwen?*
(~~Did seriously you think …~~?)

In emphatic and negative imperatives, the adjunct usually comes between *do*/*don't* and the verb:

Do ***always*** *remember that we only have one opportunity to clinch it.*

Don't ***just*** *say 'I'm going to include that' unless you can justify it.*

Mid position and *be*, *do* and *have* 325c

It is necessary to distinguish between the auxiliary uses of *be*, *do*, and *have* and their uses as lexical verbs with regard to the placing of adjunct elements in mid position (see the table below).

When *be*, *do* and *have* are used as auxiliaries, the adjunct is placed in mid position, after the auxiliary.

When *be* is a lexical verb, the adjunct is placed after the verb.

When *do* and *have* are lexical verbs, the adjunct is placed in mid position between subject and verb.

Positions of *be*, *do* and *have* as auxiliaries and as lexical verbs

	as auxiliary	as lexical verb
be	*I'm* ***often*** *accused of being too strict.*	*He's* ***often*** *in a bad mood.*
do	*We don't* ***usually*** *get back here till about one o'clock.*	*I* ***always*** *do it because I want to make sure they've got what they want.*
have	*You've* ***hardly*** *eaten anything.*	*We* ***usually*** *have tea for breakfast and coffee later.*

Mid position in tags and reduced clauses 325d

In speech, when modal and auxiliary verbs and lexical verb *be* are used in tags or in reduced clauses, the adjunct typically comes before the modal/auxiliary/*be*:

A: *I hope they'll disappear.*
B: *I think they* ***probably*** *will.*

A: *Do you celebrate the New Year too?*
B: *Yeah we* ***usually*** *do.*

I'm not unhappy. I ***never*** *have been.*
(preferred to: I've never been.)

A: *It's not the same.*
B: *No it* ***never*** *is.*
(preferred to: No it's never.)

I thought it was glass. ***Probably*** *is.*
(ellipsis of subject: *It* probably is.)

However, extra emphasis can be placed on the adjunct by placing it after the modal/auxiliary:

A: *Does the bus stop there?*
B: *Well it doesn't* ***usually*** *but you could ask him to.*

I was worried I was going to lose the money and I did ***almost****.*

In informal speech an adjunct belonging to the main clause may occasionally follow the tag, almost as an afterthought:

We won't rush dear, will we ***tomorrow****?*

Spanish is more widely used, isn't it, ***outside of Europe****?*

MANNER, PLACE AND TIME 326

Positions 326a

Most frequently, manner, place and time adjuncts are used in end or front position. End position is considered the most neutral (unmarked) position, but front position is also frequent, and a little more emphatic:

	place	time
He played the piano |	***in the village hall*** |	***one night****.*

The factors which determine choice of position have to do with the topical development of the text and the cohesive linking of clauses, as well as the length of the adjunct. They may be used in front position to emphasise them. This is especially common with time adjuncts:

Oh ***tomorrow morning****, er, we're going to get up about eleven.*
(tomorrow is a special, different morning)

Thirty-one years *we've been together.*
(the number of years is important)

Up near the church *there was an old tree.*
(helps to orient the listener)

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Without a car *you'll never get there.*
(emphasises the problem of being carless)

A man in a white coat was making a drill a bit longer. ***Near him*** *there stood an intriguing railway carriage.*

In this last example, typical of literary style, the adjunct is brought to the front of the sentence to link it topically with something important in the sentence before (the man in the white coat).

473c Adjuncts

Manner, place and time adjuncts can also be used in mid position to emphasise them. The emphasis is even stronger than when they are used in front position. Mid position is particularly common in formal written texts and journalistic and literary styles:

[about Mark Knopfler, the rock musician]
He has, ***in other ways****, become an elder statesman of his profession.*

Paul Parker ***yesterday*** *chose to join Manchester United.*

I couldn't stop thinking about the noise of the waterfall. It was a noise that would never stop. It would always be roaring, even now it was, ***in the middle of the night, all the days and all the nights****, shattering itself down the sides of the crevasse.*

More than one adjunct in end position 326b

Where there is more than one adjunct in end position, the most neutral (unmarked) order is manner – place – time.

Examples of more than one adjunct in end position

clause	manner (how?)	place (where?)	time (when?)
We were working		*in the garden*	*all morning.*
She played	*magnificently*		*the second time.*
An 18-year-old teenager was arrested		*in Cyprus*	*yesterday.*
She died	*peacefully*	*in Hartlepool General Hospital*	*on Sunday.*
A group of women protested	*angrily*	*outside the parliament building*	*yesterday.*

Although the last two examples show that it is possible to have all three types of adjunct in the same clause, this is rare in informal spoken language and is associated with more formal registers such as journalism and formal writing.

More than one adjunct of the same type 326c

If there is more than one adjunct of the same meaning-class, there is usually a choice of order, with more emphasis falling on the last adjunct.

Manner

1 *We survived* | *quite well* | *without one* | .

Or: **2** *We survived* | *without one* | *quite well* | .

However, the order in **1** is more common, with prepositional phrases (especially longer ones) coming after shorter adjuncts:

I just wanted to live my life | *quietly* | , | *independently* | *and* | *with the minimum of disruption* | .

Place

1 *You'll see the station* | *just round the corner* | *next to the library* | .

Or: **2** *You'll see the station* | *next to the library* | *just round the corner* | .

The order in **1**, with the more general location followed by the more specific location, is more common.

Time

1 *I'll see you* | *at six o'clock* | *on Wednesday* | .

Or: **2** *I'll see you* | *on Wednesday* | *at six o'clock* | .

With time adjuncts there is little difference between the two orders, but the second adjunct is felt to carry greater emphasis.

Topical linking of clauses and sentences 326d

Combinations of manner, place and time adjuncts in front position are flexible, and the order may vary, often depending on topical links between clauses and sentences:

[*rubbering* refers to the sound of the rubber tyres of a car on the road]
Only the odd car rubbering by in the boulevard below and the hum of the air-conditioning disturbed my sleep. | *In the morning* | , | *at an international newspaper stand* | , *I met my first Moroccan friend, Muhammad.*

Here the choice of time adjunct (*in the morning*) before place adjunct (*at an international newspaper stand*) is appropriate because of the contrast between the two sentences (night/sleep, and morning).

In 1979 Mogador bought the house known as the Creek overlooking the Orwell estuary near Ipswich, where the family had been holidaying for some years. | *There* | , | *following William's death and her own 70th birthday* | , *Hetta decided to organise an open-air performance of 'A Midsummer Night's Dream' for June 21, 1986.*

Here the choice of place adjunct (*there*) before time adjunct (*following William's death and her own 70th birthday*) is appropriate because of the topic of place which is continued from the first to the second sentence.

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DURATION 327

Duration adjuncts, expressing how long an event lasts, are normally used in end or front position. End position is the more neutral:

She's been going out with her current boyfriend ***for three years****.*

Throughout history*, all commanders have known that no victory is complete until the chief of the opposing side has been killed, captured or fled.*

They may be found less frequently in other positions, in more formal styles:

The church has ***throughout the ages*** *given a moral lead to society.*

Bruckner showed, ***throughout his life****, an attitude of deference, if not abasement, towards established authority.*
(between verb and object; characteristic of journalistic and literary styles)

DEFINITE AND INDEFINITE FREQUENCY 328

Definite frequency

Adjuncts of definite frequency most typically occupy end position:

The temperature is checked ***twice daily****.*

The electoral register is compiled ***every October 10th****.*

They also occur in front position, for greater emphasis or for reasons of topical linking. They do not normally occupy mid position:

Every day *she spends hours on her personal fitness programme, which includes gym sessions, aerobics and swimming.*
(~~She every day spends hours on her personal fitness programme, …~~)

Four times a year *I get a magazine from them, which I never read.*
(~~I four times a year get a magazine from them, …~~)

Indefinite frequency

Adjuncts of indefinite frequency most typically occupy mid position when they take the form of adverb phrases:

They ***quite often*** *ask about you.*

It ***usually*** *turns out that way.*

Common adverbs of indefinite frequency include:

always	*never*	*regularly*
frequently	*occasionally*	*seldom*
generally	*often*	*sometimes*
hardly ever	*rarely*	*usually*

Prepositional adjuncts and longer adjuncts in general expressing indefinite frequency are normally used in front or end position:

Every now and again *they would get her to fill in these forms for them.*
(preferred to: They every now and again would get her to fill in these forms for them.)

I see her ***from time to time****.*
(~~I from time to time see her.~~)

I've been to Paris ***many a time****.*
(preferred to: I've many a time been to Paris.)

Formal written styles may sometimes have longer indefinite frequency adjuncts in mid position:

[talking of aristocrats and their choice of servants (*retainers*)]
Many aristocrats preferred personal retainers who were ***more often than not*** *recruited from suspect sectors of society.*
(formal written)

For emphasis, indefinite frequency adjuncts can be used in front or end position. End position is much more common in spoken language:

Sometimes *we would start teasing him.*

Usually *it's a matter of discussing things till we reach agreement.*

The decisions judges make in court cases, well it's unbelievable ***sometimes****.*

We don't get a candidate for my party except at General Elections ***usually****.*

REASON AND PURPOSE 329

Reason and purpose adjuncts typically occupy end or, less frequently, front position:

Pay negotiations are due to begin next month, ***with the aim of agreeing a two-year deal from January****.*

Cycling is forbidden on the canal path ***for reasons of safety and security****.*

Because of all the confusion*, I didn't tell them until the next morning.*

Occasionally, in more formal styles, they may occupy mid position:

Social workers have to make extremely difficult decisions in cases where all the facts, ***for reasons of privacy****, cannot possibly be revealed.*

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DEGREE AND INTENSITY 330

Degree and intensity adjuncts express the degree, extent or intensity of an event. They most typically modify the lexical verb rather than the whole clause, and therefore come immediately before the lexical verb, after modal or auxiliary verbs, especially when they take the form of adverb phrases:

*I **really** enjoyed that party.*

*Sorry, I've **completely** forgotten where I got up to.*

*Although he wouldn't have been **directly** blamed if anything went wrong, it wouldn't have done his flourishing career any good.*

They may also occur in end position:

[*Conservative* here refers to the British Conservative Party; *disenfranchised* means having no power to vote]
*There's such a big Conservative majority we're disenfranchised **completely**.*

*I take your point **entirely**.*

*The stories have to be treated as allegories **almost***.*

* *Almost* in end position is very rare in formal written language.

✪ Degree/intensifying adverbs such as *entirely*, *almost* and *completely* are not normally used in front position:

*I **almost** got killed.*
(~~Almost I got killed.~~)

*I've **completely** forgotten where I was.*
(~~Completely I've forgotten where I was.~~)

When *really* and *actually* come in front or end position, they tend to have a modal meaning ('as a matter of fact'/ 'the truth is') rather than an intensifying meaning, and comment on the whole clause:

A: *How does that make you feel?*
B: ***Really** it's sickening.*
(compare: It's really sickening.)

***Actually** a friend of mine was there.*
(compare: A friend of mine was actually there – emphasising the unexpectedness of the action)

Longer degree adverbs normally occupy end or front position:

*Only a country with a profound identity crisis could pervert history **to such an extent**.*

***To some extent** the problem has already been solved.*

The government, arguing that nobody should be treated as a refugee in their own country, provided little comfort – calculating that this would encourage them to disperse. It worked ***up to a point****.*

FOCUSING 331

Focusing adjuncts specify or focus upon an event in some way. They occur in all positions, but tend to be used immediately before or after the clause element they are focusing upon:

The key to Cuba's distant past is found in the area known as Oriente and, ***in particular****, the city of Baracoa.*

I don't think I need it ***specifically****.*

But it is ***above all*** *a family matter and in taking my decision, I've given priority to family considerations.*

MODAL 332

Modal adjuncts judge events in terms of the speaker's view of the probability of things being or happening in a particular way. They indicate how things appear to the speaker, and the speaker's view of the necessity of things. In this respect, they parallel the meanings of the modal verbs (379).

Modal adjuncts frequently occupy mid position, especially when they consist of adverb phrases:

He ***definitely*** *needs six more months.*

That couldn't ***possibly*** *happen.*

It isn't something that we ***necessarily*** *have to spend all our time doing.*

He ***obviously*** *didn't recognise you.*

They may also be found in front position:

Apparently *he had a terrible childhood.*

Obviously *I'm going to need a lot of training to start with.*

Probably *'The Sun' is the most popular newspaper.*

Modal adjuncts may also occur in end position, especially in informal speech:

Without you, they wouldn't have a job, ***necessarily****.*

You know which one I mean, ***probably****.*

[tennis player speaking]
I don't normally get uptight but in key situations with people I'm supposed to beat, ***possibly****.*

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As with other types of mid-position adjunct, longer modal adjuncts are more likely to be used in front or end position, especially in spoken language:

***In all probability**, local opposition to such a proposal would be overwhelming.*

*I knew **without a shadow of a doubt** that something supernatural had happened.*
(preferred to: I without a shadow of a doubt knew that …)

*You have to register by the end of the month, **to the best of my knowledge**.*

EVALUATIVE 333

Evaluation is an important type of adjunct meaning. It is possible to emphasise that the adjunct is expressing an opinion, comment, or judgement of an action (rather than a description of the way it is done) by putting it in mid position:

*The most you can **sensibly** do is forget it.*
(speaker's opinion that it is sensible)

*He **wisely** decided to keep it to himself till he got back.*
(speaker's opinion that it was wise of him)

In end position, such adjuncts can have quite a different emphasis, with the possibility of a more objective interpretation as an adjunct of manner:

*She believed she had acted **sensibly**.*

Evaluative adjuncts are rather rare in positions other than mid, but they can occur elsewhere:

***Appropriately**, he was wearing a long black coat.*

Just like that, a common spoken evaluative adjunct, usually occurs in end position:

[*just like that* means 'abruptly, with no formalities or hedging']
*I was literally asked if I fancied doing it, **just like that**.*

VIEWPOINT 334

Viewpoint adjuncts express the personal perspective from which the speaker views an event or a subject or topic. They may occur in all positions, but certain positions are more frequent than others.

They are very often found in front and mid position:

***Quite honestly**, I think we need more representation.*

***In fairness**, he did say that he'd tried and spoken to local people.*

***Quite frankly**, I don't think there are any advantages.*

*I **personally** feel that within our department the change was introduced too quickly.*

*It's something I've not, **in all honesty**, thought about.*

Viewpoint adjuncts can be used in end position for emphasis. End position is much more common in spoken language than in written:

*I'd rather not have gone to Holland, **personally**.*

*We were entitled to use the material, **quite frankly**.*

Viewpoint adjuncts that specify or restrict the topic in some way most typically come in front position:

*Also, **culturally**, if you can speak the language you tend to be better off.*
(from the perspective/point of view of culture)

***Architecturally**, it was just fantastic.*

A: *So **from a management point of view**, then, it's your problem.*
B: *It's my problem.*

***Historically**, such movements have had little impact on society.*

They may also occur in other positions:

*The question is: given that this must, **constitutionally**, be his final term as president – what does he have to campaign for now?*

*Religious believers have **historically** been responsible for many political reforms.*

*We were building up a good act, **musically**.*

*How did it affect you **in terms of everyday life**?*

LINKING 335

Linking adjuncts normally occupy front position:

[health visitor speaking to patient]
*We arranged for you to be seen again in three months. **Consequently**, as arranged, you were seen on the 17th of July.*

Linking adjuncts follow conjunctions:

*English is obviously important, but **at the same time** it's important to learn another language to broaden your horizons.*

Linking adjuncts are also found in mid position, especially in more formal speech and writing:

[university seminar]
*France doesn't need Africa and is **therefore** trying to move away into other areas.*

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[*Hal* is the name of a computer in the science-fiction film *2001, A Space Odyssey*]
Computers are there to help, and that should be all. Engineers may not want to put machines like Hal into space any more, but according to Mr Hammond, most of Hal's powers can ***nevertheless*** *be matched by computers today.*

Linking adjuncts may occur in end position, especially in informal contexts:

[students discussing the 'upgrading' process from one degree course to a higher one]
A report by Professor Logan would be okay. The formal upgrading is important for us, ***however****.*

[*The Quality Team* is a group which monitors quality of performance at the workplace]
I very rarely use The Quality Team and I'm not popular ***because of that****.*

Comparisons may be unavoidable. They are odious, ***nevertheless****.*

Linking in written and spoken English **335a**

Some linking adjuncts are particularly associated with written or spoken styles and particular positions in those styles. For example, *on the contrary* is very rare in informal conversation. In written English it is more common and usually occurs in front (or much less frequently in mid) position:

He had no private understanding with Mr X. ***On the contrary****, he knew very little of him.*

On the other hand occurs frequently in both spoken and written usage. But the concessive adjunct *then again* (always in front position) is much more frequent in spoken than in written language:

[speakers are discussing training in the use of a new computer program; *Arrow* is a software supply company]

A: *We've hopefully got some people from Arrow who might be able to help a bit.*
B: *But* ***then again****, if you're interested in computers, er, it's very easy to learn quickly.*

Other linking adjuncts more common in written than in spoken usage include:

accordingly	*furthermore*	*therefore*
as a consequence	*in the event*	
duly	*moreover*	

Other linking adjuncts more common in spoken than in written usage include:

as I say

because of that

in the end

what's more

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INVERSION 336

Inversion after negative adjuncts 336a

Adjuncts of negative meaning (including negative frequency) which are normally found in mid position cause the subject and modal/auxiliary verb (or copular verb *be*) to be inverted when they are used in front position. This is normally a feature only of very formal and literary styles, but does occasionally occur in conversation:

***Never** could she understand how he cared.*

***Rarely** did anyone declare the true size of his property.*

***Not only** is it a remarkable book, it is also a highly successful one.*

***Not one day this week** have I been able to do any work on it.*
(conversation)

Other expressions of this type include:

hardly	*on no occasion*	*under no circumstances*
*little**	*scarcely*	
on no account	*seldom*	

(*in contexts such as: *Little did I realise that I was being deceived.*)

Inversion after place adjuncts 336b

Particularly in very formal and literary styles, inversion of subject and lexical verb may occur after a front-placed adjunct denoting location:

***In the corner** stood another man of the law, by his isolation and beribboned uniform clearly one of a higher rank.*

***Out of the dark, away to my right**, came the roar of a pneumatic drill.*

This does occur occasionally in informal speech, especially with frequent expressions such as *here comes* and *there goes*:

***Here comes** the bus.*

***There goes** the phone.*
(often said when a phone starts to ring)

[telling a story about a crime and the arrival of a police helicopter]
***Out comes** the helicopter, hovering over everybody's house, waking everybody up.*

A–Z 45 *Here, there*

Inversion after linking adjuncts 336c

Linking adjuncts such as *first*, *next*, *now*, *then* which organise lists and sequences of events may be followed by inversion of subject and verb in very formal and literary styles:

> [a report on public opinion-poll findings]
> *[Health care] is still the most important problem in most people's eyes, but only 27 per cent now put it top of the list of issues that will influence their vote.* ***Next*** *comes unemployment – 25 per cent rate it most important, 4 per cent down.*
>
> *It began with iced melon.* ***Then*** *followed roast chicken.*

Inversion with direct speech reporting clauses 336d

In literary style, sometimes the reporting verb and subject are inverted. In these cases the adjunct comes in end position:

> *'Cut it off short' said the father* ***rashly****.*
> (~~… said rashly the father./ … rashly said the father.~~)

Split infinitives 337

Many language purists believe that split infinitives are wrong or bad style. Split infinitives are where an adjunct (usually an adverb phrase) is inserted between *to* and the verb (e.g. *I want* ***to carefully check*** *everything*). In fact, in spoken English split infinitives are very common and pass unnoticed, though they are often thought inappropriate in writing:

> *So if you'd like* ***to perhaps continue*** *…*
>
> *It's very common* ***to actually not like*** *the Birmingham accent isn't it? People tend* ***to automatically laugh*** *at it.*

Present time

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Present time

INTRODUCTION 338

Present time is seen either as the moment of speaking or writing, or as 'time around now', or as the more general, permanent time relating to truths and general facts.

References to present time are most typically indicated in the verb phrase through the simple and progressive forms of the present tense.

Forms of the present tense

form	structure	examples
present simple	present tense forms of lexical verbs or of auxiliary *do*	*I/you/we/they **eat** three meals a day.* *He/she/it/one **eats** three meals a day.* *I **do**n't eat three meals a day.* ***Does** she eat three meals a day?*
present progressive	present tense forms of *be* + lexical verb in *-ing* form	*I **am eating** right now.* *He/she/it/one **is eating** right now.* *We/you/they **are eating** right now.*

The present tense is the most common way of referring to present time, and in this chapter (338–345) we deal principally with the present simple and present progressive. Past tense forms may occasionally refer to present time, often for reasons of politeness or indirectness. These and the perfect forms (present perfect simple and progressive, formed with *have* and the *-ed* participle) are dealt with in **346–360 Past time**.

PRESENT TIME REFERENCES WITH THE PRESENT SIMPLE 339

General truths and facts 339a

The present simple can be used to refer to a general or permanent state of affairs, or facts which are considered true at the present time:

*My daughter **lives** in Berlin.*
(compare: 'My daughter is living in Berlin', which would suggest a less permanent situation)

*She's Swedish. She **comes** from Stockholm.*
(a permanent fact about her nationality)
(~~She's coming from Stockholm.~~)

*My brother**'s coming** from Wales.*
(this cannot be a statement of my brother's origin/nationality, and can only mean that he is in the process of travelling or has arranged to travel from Wales to where the speaker is)

*I **want** a change. I've been in this job for almost twenty years.*

*I just **love** Thai curries.*

[from a recruitment leaflet for the Friends of the Earth environmental campaign]
*By joining us, you **make** your voice heard and **help** us to continue working. The Earth **needs** all the friends it can get.*

The present simple is also used to convey general truths and permanent facts about the world:

*2 plus 2 **makes** 4.*

*A boundless warm river, some 80 kilometres wide and 500 metres deep, the Gulf Stream **passes** into the colder waters of the western Atlantic. There it **spreads** into four main currents and gradually **loses** momentum.*
(~~the Gulf Stream is passing … there it is spreading …~~)

A work of art or the activities of an artist from the past may be referred to in the present simple, to emphasise their continued existence, relevance and availability at the present time:

*Jane Austen **allows** us to see within the minds not only of her heroines but of many other characters as well.*

*It is, however, perhaps in the 55th Sonnet that Shakespeare **gives** to this idea its fullest expression.*

Plot summaries, book blurbs and reviews of novels, plays, etc. also use the present simple:

[plot summary on the back cover of a novel]
*One morning, Rebecca **wakes** up and **realises** she has turned into the wrong person.*

Regular and habitual events 339b

Regular or habitual events are usually referred to in the present simple:

*We always **have** breakfast at around eight o'clock.*
(~~We're always having breakfast at around eight o'clock.~~)

*I **get** up before six o'clock every day.*

[this advertisement for running shoes is aimed at people who run regularly for fitness]
SATELLITE. *You **play**, you **lift**, you **train**, you **run**. And you **wear** the Reebok Satellite, a lightweight cross training shoe with running profile.*

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Immediate reactions 339c

The present simple can be used to talk about feelings and reactions experienced at the moment of speaking:

*That **looks** too risky.*

*It **tastes** very bitter. Are you sure it's chocolate?*

It can also be used to describe immediate perceptions and feelings:

*Quick! Open the car window! I **feel** sick!*

[child to parent trying to comb the child's unruly hair]
*Ow, mummy! That **hurts**!*

Immediate communication 339d

The present simple is used in commentaries on sports events and on public ceremonies. Commentators use the form to describe what they can see immediately before them, especially if it forms a sequence of actions which are completed as the commentator speaks:

[football match commentary]
*Shearer to Gillespie … Gillespie **beats** his man on the outside and **moves** forward.*

A similar use occurs in demonstrations and in instructions:

[a plumber is showing a friend how to mend a tap which is leaking]
*You **put** the washer on first, then the metal ring and then you **tighten** the screw.*

Mental process verbs 339e

Verbs such as *hear*, *know*, *reckon*, *see*, *suppose*, *think*, *understand*, are most typically used in the present simple, not the progressive:

*I **hear** you went to see the rugby match.*
(~~I'm hearing you went to see the rugby match.~~)

*My mum **reckons** it's because he's stressed out.*

*I **see** what you mean.*

*I **think** he's lost a bit of weight actually.*

Progressive uses of these verbs usually have a slightly different meaning.

Think in present progressive often means 'consider' or 'incline towards an opinion':

*I**'m thinking** of the neighbours really.*

*She**'s thinking** of moving to London.*

*I'**m thinking** more like, you know, the middle of July.*

See in the present progressive tends to mean 'meet with' or 'have a romantic relationship with':

*I'm sorry, he's busy. He**'s seeing** a client at the moment.*

*She'**s seeing** some guy she works with.*

Speech act verbs 339f

The present simple is used with speech act verbs. These are verbs which explicitly label the speaker's communicative intention in the performance of speech acts (e.g. promising, denying, apologising, demanding):

*I won't forget this time, I **promise**.*
(~~I won't forget this time, I'm promising~~.)

*I **swear** I saw tears in his eyes.*
(~~I'm swearing I saw tears in his eyes.~~)

*I **agree** dangerous drivers should be put in prison rather than fined.*

*I **name** this ship Beatrice II.*

In a similar way, the present simple is used in formal statements and in business or legal communications:

*We **enclose** our cheque for £2,300 in settlement of invoice no. 10878.*

*I **write** to inform you that you have been successful in your application to join the service.*
('I'm writing to inform you …' would be less formal)

THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE 340

Events in progress at the time of speaking 340a

The present progressive is used to refer to events which are in progress or happening at the moment of speaking.

Compare:

[someone on the telephone whilst being given directions]
*Well er, I'**m looking** across the road now and all I can see is a chemist's shop.*

*I **look** at catalogues. I always read so many catalogues on the train.*
(a regular event, but not necessarily happening at the moment of speaking)

Compare:

*Why **is** he **smiling** like that? It all looks a bit suspicious.*

*She's changed the way she **smiles**, hasn't she?*
(reference to her general behaviour, not necessarily what she is doing at the moment)

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The present progressive is also used to refer to things which are taking place or which are true around the moment of speaking, though they may be only temporary:

*They **are travelling** through Italy at the moment.*

*She**'s having** a bad time right now.*
(her life is difficult at the moment)

Repeated events in temporary contexts 340b

The present progressive is also used to describe actions which are repeated or regular, but are either temporary or may be judged to be temporary:

*She**'s seeing** him quite a bit at the moment.*
(she's meeting him regularly)

***Is** she still **swimming** three times a week?*
(implies she has recently started swimming three times a week; compare: 'Does she still swim three times a week?', which implies she has always swum three times a week)

The present progressive is also used to describe regular actions in relation to a particular time or a specified event, especially where those events interrupt things already in progress (348a to compare the similar use of the past progressive):

*I**'m** always **having** a shower when the newspaper comes.*
(I have always already started my shower when the paper arrives; compare 'I always have a shower after a swim', where having the shower follows on from swimming.)

*He won't answer the phone when he**'s working** at the computer.*
(… when his work at the computer is already in progress)

Processes of change 340c

The present progressive is used to refer to gradual processes of change:

*He's been in hospital for three weeks but **is improving** steadily.*

*They're building a new by-pass. It'll be good for the town but it**'s taking** ages to finish.*

With adverbs of indefinite frequency 340d

The present progressive is often used with indefinite frequency adverbs such as *always*, *constantly*, *continually* and *forever* to describe events which are regular but not planned, and often undesired:

*I**'m always losing** my car keys. I really must get one of those massive big key rings.*

*I**'m constantly telling** the children not to go in there.*

*She**'s forever doing** homework.*

Verbs rarely used in the present progressive 340e

Some verbs in English are only rarely used in the present progressive. These include:

- verbs which describe mental states and processes such as *believe*, *know*, *think*, *understand* (339e above)
- verbs which describe responses of the senses such as *smell*, *taste*
- verbs expressing emotional responses such as *admire*, *adore*, *detest*, *hate*, *like*, *respect*
- verbs which describe an ongoing process such as *have to*, *need*, *want*
- speech act verbs such as *appreciate*, *deny*, *promise*, *swear* (339f above)
- verbs describing permanent qualities or characteristics such as *consist*, *contain*, *hold*, *last*, *take*

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[in the kitchen, cooking]
A: *This **consists** of walnuts, garlic butter+*
B: *It **smells** nice.*
A: *+and that's about it really.*

*We **need** rain. The garden is so dry.*

*I **promise** I'll be there on time next time.*

[to a waiter]
*Er, **does** this dish **contain** meat?*
(~~Is this dish containing meat?~~)

However, when used to describe a current process at the moment of speaking, or to give extra emphasis to the ongoing nature of the event, these verbs may occur in the present progressive:

*What **are** you **thinking**?*
(What thoughts are passing through your mind at this moment?; compare 'What do you think?', which usually means 'What is your opinion?')

*I'm **understanding** things better now, since I started going to the lectures.*
(emphasises 'understanding' as a developing process; compare 'I understand', which treats understanding as an achieved state)

[whilst preparing and tasting food]
*I'm **tasting** something very bitter on my tongue at the moment.*
(there is a kind of tentativeness here; compare 'it tastes bitter')

*The job for life has become a fantasy. Most people **are having to** take more responsibility for their own careers and for what they do.*

*The whole match is being played at too slow a pace. It's **needing** a goal.*

*Can't you hear what I'm saying? I **am promising** to marry you.*

The verb *be* in the present progressive 340f

When the copular verb *be* is used in the present progressive with an adjectival complement, it refers to the current actions or behaviour of the subject rather than referring to a quality or attribute of the subject:

I think she ***is being*** *awfully broadminded and tolerant here.*
(she is acting in a broadminded and tolerant way; compare 'I think she is broadminded', which would be an expression of a general opinion about her character)

*Stop it! You****'re being*** *silly.*
('You're silly' would suggest a more general evaluation of the person's character)

INDIRECTNESS AND POLITENESS 341

The present progressive is often used to make a request, enquiry or statement of opinion more indirect, often out of politeness:

[a muffin is a kind of cake]
Are *you* ***wanting*** *a muffin, Peter?*
(less direct than 'Do you want …?')

*I****'m wondering*** *when I could come and pick up the calendars that I ordered from you at the beginning of October.*
(less direct than 'I wonder when I could …')

*We****'re hoping*** *that it will have some practical benefits.*
(less direct than 'We hope that it …')

In these cases, the past simple, and even more politely, the past progressive, may also be used with present time reference:

Did *you* ***want/were*** *you* ***wanting*** *a muffin, Peter?*

I ***wondered/was wondering*** *when I could come and pick up the calendars that I ordered from you at the beginning of October.*

We ***hoped/were hoping*** *that it would have some practical benefits.*

THE PRESENT SIMPLE AND PROGRESSIVE: SUMMARY 342

The present simple sees time in terms of facts, truths, generalities and permanent states of affairs. The present progressive sees time more in terms of its unfolding at the moment of speaking, and observes actions and events from within, as ongoing, in progress:

I ***love*** *Dublin.*

*This is a wonderful plant. It **flowers** all summer.*

*It's **raining** now.*

*We're **making** progress.*

Sometimes the differences may not be great, and may only suggest more of a sense or possibility of permanence in the case of the simple form and a sense or possibility of being only temporary in the progressive:

*We **live** in a small village.*

*I **feel** more confident these days.*
(focus is on facts, suggesting the possibility of greater permanence)

*We**'re living** in a small village.*

*I**'m feeling** more confident these days.*
(focus is on present situation, with less focus on permanence)

PRESENT TIME REFERENCES WITH THE PAST TENSE 343

As seen in **341** above, for reasons of indirectness and politeness, the past simple and the past progressive may sometimes be used with present-time reference, especially with verbs such as *be*, *hope*, *look for*, *think*, *want*, *wonder*:

[on the phone to train timetable enquiries]
*Actually I **wanted** to check if there's a twenty-five-past train.*

[at a cosmetics counter in a store, enquiring about face protection products; A is the customer]
A: *What's the best kind?*
B: *Probably just a very light liquid.*
A: *Right. I **was looking for** one for the cold weather, you know.*

[customer in a travel agent's]
*We **were wondering** about going to Amsterdam. We **were wanting** to stay in tents or in a caravan or in a bed and breakfast, to sort of see what the different prices **were**.*

[dry cleaner's store: customer (B) is leaving a jacket for cleaning]
A: *Right. What **was** the name please?*
B: *Smith.*

Be is not used in the past tense form in this way to comment on the immediate situation:

[dinner guest to host, at the moment of tasting a fish dish]
A: *Mm. This fish **is** delicious.*
B: *Thank you. I'm glad you like it.*
(~~This fish was delicious.~~)

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Note also the expression *It's time* …. When used with a finite clause, the verb is in the past simple form:

*It's time you **got** up.*
(~~It's time you get up~~.)

*It's time that we **did** something about it.*

WILL REFERRING TO GENERAL TRUTHS OR USED FOR POLITENESS 344

Will can be used to refer to generally accepted truths and to what we might always expect to happen:

*I suppose most people **will prefer** to own their home.*

*In the evening he'**ll sit** all night watching TV.*

Will can sometimes be used to soften a directive or to make it more polite:

*I'm sorry but I'**ll** have to ask you to sit in the Waiting Room for a few minutes.* (compare the more direct: I'm sorry but I have to ask you to sit in the Waiting Room …)

***Will** you turn the TV down please. I'm on the phone.*

also 387 *Will*

THE SUBJUNCTIVE 345

In formal and literary styles, present references to unfulfilled actions or events may be in the subjunctive mood after verbs such as *demand*, *insist*, *recommend*, *require*, *stipulate*. The subjunctive mood uses the base form of the verb for all persons (i.e. no final *-s* on third person singular; 159e):

*The Head of Security has **demanded** that the guard **resign**.*

*I **insist** that she **do** these things herself.*

*It is **recommended** that they **repay** the amount stolen in full within one year.*

Past time

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Past time

INTRODUCTION 346

Past time is seen as time before the moment of speaking or writing, or as 'time around a point before the moment of speaking'.

References to past time are most typically indicated in the verb phrase through the simple and progressive forms of the past tense.

Forms of the past tense

form	structure	examples
past simple	past tense forms of lexical verbs or of auxiliary *do*	*I/you/he/she/it/one/we/they* ***worked*** *eight hours a day.* *We* ***did****n't work eight hours a day.* ***Did*** *he work eight hours a day?*
past progressive	past tense forms of *be* + lexical verb in *-ing* form	*I he/she/it* ***was*** *work****ing*** *when it happened.* *We/you/they* ***were*** *work****ing*** *when it happened.*

The past tense is the most common way of referring to past time and in this chapter (346–360) we deal with the past simple and past progressive forms. Past tense forms may also occasionally refer to present time, often for reasons of politeness or indirectness.

The perfect forms (present perfect and past perfect, simple and progressive) refer to events in time from a point in the past up to the moment of speaking/writing (present perfect), or events in time from one point in the past up to another, later, point in the past (past perfect).

Forms of the present perfect and past perfect

form	structure	examples
present perfect simple	present tense forms of *have* + *-ed* participle	*I/you/we/they* ***have*** *work****ed*** *hard.* *He/she/it/one* ***has*** *work****ed*** *hard.* *We* ***have****n't work****ed*** *hard.* ***Has*** *he work****ed*** *hard?*
past perfect simple	past tense forms of *have* + *-ed* participle	*I/you/we/they* ***had*** *work****ed*** *hard.* *He/she/it* ***had*** *work****ed*** *hard.*
present perfect progressive	present tense forms of *have* + *been* + lexical verb in *-ing* form	*I/you/we/they* ***have been*** *work****ing*** *hard.* *He/she/it/one* ***has been*** *work****ing*** *hard.* *We* ***have****n't* ***been*** *work****ing*** *hard.* ***Has*** *he been work****ing*** *hard?*
past perfect progressive	past tense forms of *have* + *been* + lexical verb in *-ing* form	*I/you/he/she/it/we/they* ***had been*** *work****ing*** *hard.* *We* ***had****n't* ***been*** *work****ing*** *hard.* ***Had*** *he been work****ing*** *hard?*

Modal *would* and semi-modal *used to* are also used for past time reference (402 ***Used to*** **and** ***would***).

THE PAST SIMPLE 347

Definite time reference 347a

References to definite past time clearly separated from the moment of speaking are normally made using the past simple. The most common type of reference to the past is through definite time adjuncts and definite time adverbial clauses:

Did *you* ***watch*** *that film yesterday?*

He ***went*** *at the end of November.*

My grandfather ***died*** *about four weeks ago.*

When I was a lad, ***I lived*** *on a farm.*

She ***came*** *through for a coffee after she'd finished cooking.*

With such definite past references, the present perfect is not normally used:

My grandfather ***died*** *about four weeks ago.*
(~~My grandfather has died about four weeks ago.~~)

When I was a lad, ***I lived*** *on a farm.*
(~~When I was a lad, I have lived on a farm.~~)

Definite time adjuncts 347b

Common definite time adjuncts that indicate a clear break between the past and present time include:

*a year/two weeks/five minutes/*etc. *ago*

at two o'clock/half past three, etc.

earlier today/this month, etc.

in the spring/summer, etc.

last night/week/month/year, etc.

on Monday/Wednesday, etc.

the other day/week

yesterday

(examples at **347a** above)

359a on past simple with temporal subordinators (e.g. *when*) in complex sentences

The past simple without explicit time markers 347c

Often there is no explicit time marker, but definite past time may be implied either by the situation of speaking or writing, or by assumptions of shared and general knowledge. In such cases, the past simple may be used:

Charles Dickens ***wrote*** *'Great Expectations' in instalments.*
(we know that Dickens lived and died a long time ago, separated from the present)

Do you know Fiona? Because I ***went*** *to school with her.*
(the speaker's schooldays were long ago, in a time separated from the moment of speaking)

Did *you* ***receive*** *my fax?*
(the speaker is looking back to the point of time when he sent the fax as separated in his mind from the present; compare 'Have you received my fax?', where the speaker is considering the event in terms of the present moment)

Events and states 347d

The past simple may be used for single events or habitual events or states in the past.

- Single events:

  He ***suffered*** *a head wound, for which he* ***went*** *to hospital and* ***received*** *ten stitches.*

  And then she ***went*** *out and she* ***phoned*** *my brother.*

- Habitual events:

  [*hung out in* means 'spent time in']
  He ***visited*** *the opera regularly and mostly* ***hung*** *out in local cafés.*

  We ***did*** *a lot of acting at school.*

- States:

  She ***looked*** *a bit upset.*

  Where ***were*** *you? I've been worried sick.*

Where more than one event is reported, a time sequence is normally assumed. This can be shown by changing the word order in the sentence:

event 1 event 2
Then she ***went out*** *and she* ***phoned*** *my brother.*

event 1 event 2
Then she ***phoned*** *my brother and she* ***went out****.*

If the real sequence of events is different from the word order of the sentence, then this must be indicated explicitly (e.g. by a temporal conjunction):

event 2 event 1
She ***identified*** *herself when she* ***answered*** *the phone.*
(she answered the phone first, then identified herself)

However, events may also be understood as simultaneous:

I wasn't satisfied so I ***wrote*** *to them and* ***complained****.*
(the writing of the letter and the complaining were one and the same thing)

When the past simple is used to refer to habitual events, the meaning is similar to *used to*:

We ***did*** *a lot of acting at school.*
(or: We used to do a lot of acting at school.)

402 ***Used to*** **and** ***would***

THE PAST PROGRESSIVE 348

Events in progress 348a

The past progressive may refer generally to events in progress around a particular time in the past. It may highlight the temporary nature of events:

*Where I **was living** in Leicester six months ago, I had a massive room. It was too big really.*

*I **was working** last night.*

*Fourteen hours later, we **were entering** Kingston Harbour.*
(compare: Fourteen hours later we entered Kingston Harbour. The past simple emphasises the whole event, from start to finish; the past progressive emphasises the event as being in progress but unfinished at the time referred to)

Background events 348b

The past progressive may refer to past-time events occurring as a background to other events which interrupt them.

The events which occur in the foreground are usually in the past simple:

background foreground
*She was here once, and I **was baking** a cake. And she **said**, 'Can I help you?'*

*Two builders **were working** on our house when it **was being built**, and a ghost **passed** them on the stairs, and they **refused** to come back and finish the building. It **terrified** them.*

347d **The past simple** on sequences of events

Reasons and contexts for events 348c

The past progressive is often used to give a reason or context for an event:

*Her husband **was doing** a PhD at the university, and that's how I came to meet him.*

A: *I rang you yesterday but there was no answer.*
B: *I **was gardening**.*

Ongoing and repeated events 348d

The past progressive may refer to ongoing or repeated events in the past. There is often a suggestion that the situation was temporary or subject to change:

A: *She only had a very small income which I gave her each week and that **was coming** out of my overdraft.*
B: *I see.*
A: *But the bank were only prepared to support me up to a point.*

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The past progressive may occur with adverbs such as *always*, *constantly*, to describe repeated unplanned (or undesired) events:

*People **were always warning** me that my success wouldn't last.*

*I **wasn't constantly collapsing** in floods of tears, but I was in quite a bad way.*

340d The present progressive with adverbs of indefinite frequency

359b Temporal subordinators and the past progressive

492d The past progressive in speech representation

The past progressive and definite time 348e

The past progressive can be used to refer to definite past time, usually to emphasise the extended nature of an event:

*I **was talking** to Mark last night.*

*We **were working** in the garden all day yesterday.*

THE PAST PROGRESSIVE VERSUS THE PAST SIMPLE 349

Often there is little difference between the past progressive and the past simple, except that the past progressive suggests that the events may be seen more as background or of secondary importance, or their temporary nature may be more emphasised:

*Being an eye clinic, it **was dealing** with a very high proportion of elderly people.*
(or: Being an eye clinic, it dealt with a very high proportion …)

[describing an archaeological dig]
*And scattered throughout a lot of the area he dug, he found iron slag, so, you know, they **were making** quite a lot of stuff. Phase one, under the bank he found some crucibles and crucibles were used in bronze working. In the earlier phase at least they **were making** bronze implements as well.*
(or: … so, you know, they made quite a lot of stuff. … In the earlier phase at least they made bronze implements as well.)

VERBS NOT NORMALLY USED IN THE PAST PROGRESSIVE 350

Verbs which rarely occur in the present progressive (**340e**) are similarly rarely used in the past progressive, and the past simple is generally preferred. These include:

believe	*contain*	*hate*
consist	*dislike*	*have to*

know	*smell*	*understand*
like	*taste*	*want*
mean	*think*	

Breakfast ***consisted*** *of a mug of tea and a piece of fruit pudding each.*

You ***didn't have to*** *explain it to me. I* ***knew*** *what you* ***meant****.*
(~~You weren't having to explain it to me. I was knowing what you were meaning.~~)

The room still ***smelt*** *of smoke from the last occupant's cigarettes.*

However, as with the present tense usage, the past progressive may occasionally be used to emphasise an ongoing or unfolding process in the past, though this happens much less frequently than in the present tense:

We had a pleasant ride back. I ***was liking*** *James more and more and he was very attentive to me, showing very clearly how much he enjoyed my visits to his home.*

Emma had been worrying for some time that she was going to crash her meagre budget with all the minicabs and taxis she ***was having to*** *use.*

THE PRESENT PERFECT 351

Time up to now 351a

The present perfect (simple and progressive) is used to refer to events taking place in a past time-frame that connects with the present:

*So, what****'s been happening since the last time we met****?*
(from that moment till now)

In fact, alligators ***have killed*** *only eight people in Florida* ***in the last half-century****.*
(in the fifty years up to the time of writing)

The present perfect progressive can place greater emphasis on the duration of an event up to the present moment and can indicate an uninterrupted action:

I've been waiting *for you for over an hour.*

With time adjuncts

The time-frame may be indicated explicitly by an adjunct indicating 'time-up-to-now'. Such expressions include:

before

during/in the last x minutes/hours/weeks/years/etc.

in my life

lately

over the last x months/years

recently

so far

this week/month/year/century

to date

today

up to/till/until now

*During the last 20 years there **has been** a big change from wooden to plastic window frames in many houses.*

*We **have** quite recently **made** some important structural changes to our Editorial Department.*

*I know I**'ve lost** a lot of weight this week.*

*To date, the families of at least 900 of these children **have been found**.*

With no time adjunct

The time-frame may be implied or understood, without any explicit time adjunct:

*Local authorities **have warned** that they will be forced to sack teachers if the Government refuses to fund next year's pay settlement.*
(understood: during recent days/weeks, during the time of the present debate/crisis)

*I**'ve been working** and am working at Amsterdam University, on several projects.*
(understood: from some point in the past, up to and including now)

***Have** you **phoned** your sister?*
(from the point when you said you were going to do it up to this moment in time; if the speaker had said 'Did you phone your sister?', there is a greater expectation from the speaker that the phone call should have taken place or did take place)

The first time

Note that the expression *this is the first time …* when referring to an immediate event is normally used with the present perfect, not the present simple or progressive:

[one passenger to another during a flight]
*Is this **the first time** you**'ve flown** on British Airways?*
(~~Is this the first time you fly on British Airways?~~)

'Is this the first time you're flying on British Airways?' is likely to be heard as a reference to the future, i.e. 'You've bought a British Airways ticket; will it be your first flight with them?'

The present perfect or the past simple

Some time adjuncts can be used with either the present perfect or the past simple, depending upon the speaker's/writer's perspective. These include:

already	*once*	*this morning/week*/etc.
before	*recently*	*today*

With this group of adjuncts, if the events are considered as happening at a definite point in the past, then the past simple is used:

*The house **was sold** recently.*
(speaker is thinking of a definite point in the past when the house sale took place)

*I **rang** him this morning.*
(said after midday, when 'this morning' has finished)

[referring to the day at work]
***Did** you **see** everybody you wanted to see today?*
(speaker considers 'today' finished as a work day)

If the events are seen as connected to or relevant to the moment of speaking or writing, then the present perfect is used:

[loudspeaker announcement on a train]
*To all passengers who **have** recently **joined** this service. My name is Chris and I'm your chief steward.*
(speaker focuses on the fact that the passengers are on the train now)

***I've been** busy this morning.*
(said during the morning)

*I haven't asked her yet. I **haven't seen** her today.*
(speaker considers 'today' to be still current)

For and *since* 351b

For and *since* both commonly introduce time expressions which can refer to 'time up to now' and which are used with the present perfect.

For refers to periods of time, *since* refers to a previous point in time:

*We**'ve had** that TV set **for fifteen years**.*
(~~We've had that TV set since fifteen years.~~)

***I've been** awake **since half past four this morning**.*

Expressions with *for* can also refer to periods of time separated from now, when the period referred to has come to an end or lies in the past, in which case the past tense is used:

A: *I **lived** in Sweden **for five years**.*
B: *When was that?*
A: *Oh **in the 1970s**.*

Since is not used with the present simple or progressive when referring to 'time up to now':

*We**'ve lived/been living** in the village since 1987.*
(~~We live/are living in the village since 1987.~~)

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Now-relevance 351c

A basic use of the present perfect is when the speaker considers an event to be still important or relevant in some way to the moment of speaking:

Well, we were here in the house, and the neighbour came in and said, 'There's something going on up the street. I think someone ***has stabbed*** *someone.'*
(a newsworthy event that is very important to the speaker)

A: *I don't remember seeing any cigarette adverts on TV, do you?* ***Have they been banned****?*
B: *Yeah. They were banned, oh, years and years ago.*
(a possible explanation for the speaker's present understanding)

It's too dangerous to touch. I think somebody ***has been tampering*** *with it.*
(the effects of someone interfering with it are visible now)

The present perfect indicates that the speaker chooses to mark the event as important/relevant to now, or may wish to stress that the event happened very recently. Compare:

*That's probably why I'm so tired, because I'****ve been chattering*** *to people I don't really know.*

That's probably why I'm so tired, because I ***was chattering*** *to people I don't really know.*

The difference here may be an emphasis on how recently the chattering took place, but both versions may also refer to the same event, with no difference in time reference.

THE PRESENT PERFECT SIMPLE VERSUS THE PRESENT PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 352

Completed and punctual events 352a

The simple form of the present perfect can emphasise completion of an event when used with verbs denoting actions or events:

Advertising agency FCB ***has carried out*** *extensive research on how people in short-term contracts feel about their jobs.*

The progressive form is not normally used with punctual verbs such as *start*, *stop*, *finish*, which refer to actions that are completed at a single point in time:

My mobile phone ***has started*** *working again.*
(~~My mobile phone has been starting working again.~~)

Have *you* ***finished*** *eating?*

The progressive form is not used to refer to single, completed actions or punctual events:

Essex County Council ***has approved*** *expenditure of £50,000 on the project this year.*
(~~Essex County Council has been approving expenditure of £50,000 on the project this year.~~)

*Now the government **has admitted** it has been able to collect only half of the taxes planned.*

Events in the past still continuing 352b

The progressive form is often used for events which started in the past and are still continuing, or which have stopped, but whose effects are still continuing:

*She**'s been working** for the company for years, hasn't she?*

*Maybe they can see I**'ve been crying**.*
(the tears or the effects are still visible; 'Maybe they can see I've cried' would not allow the possibility that the crying was still continuing right up to the present moment)

***Have** you **been watching** 'The Lonely Planet'?*
(the TV programme, *The Lonely Planet*, is still continuing each week, and people continue to watch it)

References to things which have been true for very long periods of time often prefer the simple form:

*A church **has stood** on this site since the twelfth century.*
(preferred to: has been standing)

References to events closed and completed at some indefinite point in the past prefer the simple form:

A: *Do you know 'A Tale of Two Cities'?*
B: *I **have read** it, but I don't remember much about it.*
(not: ~~I have been reading it …~~)
('I've been reading *A Tale of Two Cities*' might mean that the speaker had not finished it but was still reading it, though not necessarily at the moment of speaking. It could also suggest that the speaker had finished the novel but had been kept occupied by it: 'I've been reading *A Tale of Two Cities*, that's why you haven't seen me all week. I had to write an essay on it.')

The difference between the present perfect simple and the present perfect progressive may sometimes be between an emphasis on the event itself as a progressive, extended activity (progressive form), compared with the results of the event, or some other, secondary reference to the event (simple form). Both forms may refer to completed events:

[looking out of the window]
*It**'s been raining**.*
(the rain has stopped)

*In sub-Saharan Africa … the rate of decline in infant mortality **has slowed** noticeably: a child's risk of dying before reaching the age of five is higher than anywhere else in the world.*
(the slowing of the rate may or may not have stopped; what is important are the results)

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Sometimes there is little difference between the two forms:

*He**'s lived/been living** there for years and years.*

*I**'ve felt/been feeling** better since I started taking those tablets.*

The only difference here is that the simple form may suggest the possibility of permanence, while the progressive form may suggest a more temporary state of affairs.

When the frequency of a repeated action or event is stated, the simple form is preferred:

*That**'s happened** to Lydia several times this morning.*
(~~That's been happening to Lydia several times this morning.~~)

342 to compare the present simple

Mental process and sense verbs 352c

Some verbs are rarely used in the progressive form. These include verbs of mental process (*know*, *like*) and sense verbs (*smell*, *taste*):

*I**'ve known** Anne at least forty-odd years, I would think.*
(~~I've been knowing Anne ...~~)

*The water's always **tasted** metallic to me.*

Repeated or extended events which are felt to be developing, ongoing or perhaps temporary may occasionally lead to the use of progressive for such verbs:

*The water**'s** definitely **been tasting** better since we bought the filter.*

THE PRESENT PERFECT AND DEFINITE PAST TIME 353

In spoken and written journalistic styles, the present perfect is sometimes used to stress the current relevance of events, even though definite past time adjuncts may be present:

[speaker is speaking in 1998, i.e. not 'the early 1990s']
*We**'ve lost** so much of our manufacturing industry in the 1980s and early 1990s.*

*A man **has been arrested** last night and will appear in court tomorrow.*

THE PRESENT PERFECT AS A FRAME FOR PAST TIME EVENTS 354

The present perfect is often used initially to provide an overall frame for the reporting of past events, in spoken and written narratives and reports. The present perfect verb often provides a headline or statement of a newsworthy event, followed by a series of verbs in the past tense reporting the details:

*Poisonous black widow spiders **have invaded** Britain by plane. They **stowed away** in crates of ammunition flown from America to RAF Welford, Berks. A US airman at the base near Newbury **captured** one of the spiders in a jar after it **crawled out** of a crate.*

*I**'ve been going** to the weight-watchers but, wait till you hear this, I **went** first time and I'd lost three and a half pounds, and I **went** last week and I'd lost half a pound, so I **went** down to the fish shop and **got** fish and chips. I **was** so disgusted!*

THE PAST PERFECT 355

Time up to 'then' 355a

Just as the present perfect refers to a time-frame leading up to the moment of speaking (351a), so the past perfect refers to a time-frame leading up to a point in the past. The present perfect refers to 'time up to now'; the past perfect refers to 'time up to then':

*That was in 1938. I left in June with the children for a new home in Oxford, where my mother **had bought** a house. My father **had died** in 1936.*

This can be illustrated as:

time before 'then'	'then' (= 1938)
	I left in June
*… my mother **had bought** a house*	
*… my father **had died***	

*The au pairs always used to call her Cruella. She was terrible. Her husband **had died** of cancer two years previously so I could see why she had a problem.*
(two years before the events the speaker is recounting)

[speaker is talking about his tennis coach]
*At my club there was Frank Parsons, who **had coached** similar boys my age.*
(during a time before the time he coached the speaker)

*As she sat eating in the caged silence, she thought of all the thousands of meals George must have had here, alone, in all these years. Did he ever cook himself something good? What **had he been thinking** all those silent weekends and evenings on his own?*
(the thoughts he had in the time before she sat there thinking of him)

Reported clauses 355b

The past perfect is very frequent in reported clauses where the reporting verb is in the past:

*Linda kept me informed and she said that her husband **had moved** back in. They**'d got** back together again. She**'d got** pregnant.*

*The police told me that he**'d done** it very often.*

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Reporting verbs include verbs of perception:

*I noticed he **had hurt** his leg.*

*He saw that she **had been** able to cure herself.*

References to changed states 355c

The past perfect is often used to refer to situations which were true but which have been or are to be changed. In such cases, *had* is often stressed in speech:

[telephone conversation between travel agent (A) and customer (B)]
A: *And you want to go London Hong Kong.*
B: *That's right.*
A: *On the … what date do you wish to travel now?*
B: *I **had** **booked** on the third. But erm …*
A: *On the third.*
B: *Should be on the second. And this is the flight number.*

*I **had** **planned** to work till I was sixty but I can't any more.*

*At the moment Sarah is quite interested in tourism, anything to do with tourism. So it looks like she will leave school and go on to something like this. I **had** **hoped** she'd carry on for a bit longer.*

The past perfect in conditional clauses 355d

The past perfect must be used when there is past reference in a hypothetical conditional clause with *if*:

*I'd have been killed **if** I**'d been caught** down there.*
(I would have been killed if I had been caught …)

*Well, even **if** you**'d come** home tonight, you'd have been upset anyway.*
(… if you had come home, you would have been upset …)

The past perfect is not used in the main clause in a hypothetical conditional sentence:

*If I **had had** more time I **would have been** in touch earlier.*
(~~If I had had more time I had been in touch earlier.~~)

THE PAST PERFECT AND THE PAST SIMPLE 356

Sometimes the past perfect may be necessary to resolve possible misunderstanding or ambiguity as regards the sequence of events and the semantic relationship between them:

*They all left the room when she **recited** her poem.*
(suggests they all left the moment she started reciting)

*They all left the room when she**'d recited** her poem.*
(suggests they left after she'd finished reciting)

The past simple often suggests a more immediate causal link between two events, compared with the past perfect:

***When** he **opened** his desk, he discovered a dead bird.*
(stresses the immediate result, rather than 'When he had opened his desk …')

***When** he**'d opened** his third present, he looked at the roller skates and smiled.*
(not such an immediate or direct relationship; the roller skates may not have been in the third present)

THE PAST PERFECT SIMPLE VERSUS THE PAST PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 357

The principles for choosing between the past perfect simple and progressive are the same as those which operate between the present perfect simple and progressive (352):

*We**'d been playing** five minutes when you turned up.*
(ongoing event continuing up to that point in the past)

*After their departure Edith noticed the small white card lying on the mantelpiece. She **had been meaning** to tell her brother about it, he had a right to know, but their behaviour **had put** everything else out of her mind.*
('had been meaning …' refers to an extended event going on around that time; 'had put' refers to a single, completed event that occurred during that time)

*And Thursday night I was so cold, and I**'d been sneezing** a lot and **blowing** my nose, and I thought it was my hay fever.*
(repeated events during the time up to then)

[talking about a man who had tried, unsuccessfully, to make an old clock work again]
*And he went away on holiday and everything, and when he got back the other people that worked in there said as soon as he**'d gone** it **had started** working.*
(single, completed events)

448–459 Condition

TIME-FRAMES: SUMMARY 358

The past tense forms refer to a time-frame that is in some way separated from the present; there is a break between the completion of the event and the present moment. This break may be explicitly stated by an expression of definite past time (e.g. *yesterday*, *last week*, *in 1975*) or may be implicit, or indicated somewhere in the context.

The past tense forms may be contrasted with the present perfect forms, which are used to refer to events in a time-frame that is still connected to the present moment, or to events which the speaker considers to be still current or relevant to the present moment.

The basic difference between the speaker's perception of time as past or as extending until now, and the choice of past tense or present perfect forms can be expressed thus:

Past tense forms

*I **posted** your letter.*

*We **were working** in the garden all day yesterday.*

Present perfect forms

*I**'ve posted** your letter.*

*She**'s been feeling** unwell for the last few days.*

Past perfect forms

A speaker may also refer to a time-frame in the past and to events from an earlier past that are linked in some way to that time-frame. In these cases, the past perfect forms may be used. This relationship may be represented thus:

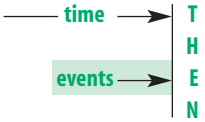

*I **had already told** Margaret, so the news came as no surprise to her.*

*He said he **had met** me before, but could not remember where.*

TENSE CHOICE IN COMPLEX SENTENCES 359

Temporal subordinators (e.g. *when*) and the past simple 359a

Temporal subordinators such as *after*, *as soon as*, *before*, *once*, *until*, *when* and *while* can refer to definite points and periods of time in the past separated from the moment of speaking. In such cases, the subordinators are used with the past simple:

*As soon as I **got** home, I phoned my sister.*

*Once the initial shock **was** over, Mr Coldman had to settle into his new role.*

[speaker is recounting a fainting attack]
*When I **woke** up, I didn't know where I was.*

Temporal subordinators and the past progressive 359b

The temporal subordinators *as*, *when* and *while* (or less frequently *whilst*) are often used with the past progressive to indicate background events:

*I read the letter on the Underground as I **was coming** into town.*

*He mentioned it to Janet when he **was making** a cup of tea.*

*My friend Rachel came round while I **was sorting** things out.*

While/whilst may connect two clauses in the past progressive, to indicate simultaneous or parallel events:

*They **were messing around** most of the time enjoying themselves while I **was looking after** the children.*

Temporal subordinators and the present perfect 359c

Temporal subordinators such as *after*, *as soon as*, *before*, *once*, *until*, *when* can refer to finished events at points and periods of time in the future as seen from the present moment. In such cases they occur with the present perfect simple:

*Tell me after I'**ve eaten** my dinner, because I want to enjoy it.*

*I'm going to start revising as soon as I'**ve done** this project.*

*Once I'**ve become** more familiar with the territory, maybe I'll be able to find things for myself.*

*Shall I give you a ring when I'**ve sorted** the invoice out?*
(~~Shall I give you a ring when I will have sorted the invoice out?~~)

The same subordinators may also refer to past events completed at the moment of speaking, or to past events still relevant at the time of speaking/writing, especially when such events are seen as generally true. Such references also occur with the present perfect simple:

*Once you'**ve bought** a house, you start falling into trap after trap, you know, mortgage and bills, and buying things for the house, and things that'll make it comfortable, and what have you.*

*You're put into a medical ward after you'**ve been treated** in the coronary care unit.*

*When I'**ve been** out to buy something and I see the price, it shocks me that things are so expensive.*

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Temporal subordinators and the past perfect 359d

Some time expressions occur with either the past simple or the past perfect, and it is usually the choice of whether the information is considered background or 'foreground' that determines the choice, **not** the fact that something happened before something else. Items in this category include *after*, *as soon as*, *before*, *until*, *when*:

*She came through for a coffee after she**'d finished** cooking.*
('after she finished cooking' would also have been correct, but with greater foregrounding of the subordinate clause than the version with the past perfect)

*It ended up with her having to go back on the Saturday so that my son could come as soon as she**'d gone**.*
('as soon as she went' would also be correct, but with a different, more immediate emphasis)

✪ The construction *after having* + *-ed* participle is infrequent. *After* + *-ing* form is more common, even in writing:

*And **after having worked** very closely with Michael Blake for so many years and **having had** so many people I think actually believing that he was a member of the Press staff, it's very nice finally to be able to welcome him as a real member of the Press staff.*
(infrequent: formal public speech)

*I feel a bit better **after lying down** for a bit.*
(more frequent than: after having lain down)

Perfect infinitive clauses 359e

A perfect infinitive clause can be used for events which did take place:

*I am sorry for the Formans. **To have worked** so hard and then to have that done to them overnight!*
(they did work hard)

It may also refer to events that have not taken place:

[*Millie* is a cat]
*But this time the button was too close to the wall. **To have activated** it, Millie would have needed to use her paw like a finger.*
(in this case, the following clause (*would have needed*) indicates that the event was hypothetical; compare: To activate it, Millie would need to use her paw … etc., where the possibility of activating the button is still open)

PRESENT TENSE REFERENCES TO PAST TIME 360

The present simple for dramatic effect 360a

For stylistic reasons, the present simple is often used for true and fictional past events in narratives to create a sense of immediacy, and to suggest that past events are unfolding at the moment of speaking or writing.

Story-tellers frequently shift from one tense to another. This use of the present tense is often called the historic present:

[a woman is telling a story about a laser light show she went to in a theatre]
A: *In the beginning there **was** darkness, and we **hear** this scraping sound, and you **see** this little coloured pattern, the coloured pattern **gets** bigger and bigger and bigger.*
B: *What **was** this projected by? A movie projector or a video?*

[from the novel 'Twenty Years a Growing', by Maurice O'Sullivan]
*I **felt** a prod in my shoulder. 'The bus is coming,' **said** George. She **comes** across with a loud grating noise. The crowd **moves** towards her, myself and my companion among them. She **moves** away rapidly.*

The present progressive for narrative build-up 360b

When a story builds towards a peak or climax, especially in spoken story-telling, the verb form may change to the present progressive to describe the background to the main event(s) or to dramatise an ongoing event:

*And he walked right up in the pitch blackness, on the top edge of this crane. **We're all sitting** there, and the police turned up, and he said, 'What's going on, boys?'*

*I said, 'There's been a pigeon in here eating my sandwiches and I had to throw a few things at it'. She used to have the windows wide open, you know, winter, summer, everything. So, anyway, **I'm telling her off** for all this mess on the floor, I went to pick the tail up, some of the bits the other side of the bed, and as I got up **I'm looking** straight into this pigeon's eyes.*

News headlines 360c

News headlines (both spoken and written) often report (recent) past events in the present simple.

*TIDAL WAVE **HITS** PAPUA NEW GUINEA*

*PRIME MINISTER **SAYS** TRAFFIC MUST BE CURBED*

Such headlines may refer either to a subsequent present perfect time-frame (e.g. 'A tidal wave has hit Papua New Guinea') or to a definite past time-frame (e.g. 'A tidal wave hit Papua New Guinea late last night').

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Present tense references to historical events 360d

In lists or descriptions of important historical events, the present simple is often used to refer to definite past time:

1939
*15 March: Germany **invades** Czechoslovakia. Hitler **claims** that German troops were invited to 'keep order'.*
*31 March: Britain and France **offer** a guarantee to defend Poland from a German attack. Similar assurances **are given** to Greece and Romania.*

[from a TV football commentary]
*2003 Arsenal **sign** Antonio Reyes. 2004 Man United **sign** Wayne Rooney. It's just tit for tat, isn't it?*

Speech-reporting verbs 360e

Reports with extended relevance

When a speech report refers to something said in the past that is always true or always relevant, the present simple is often used for the reporting verb:

[speaker reports verbal instructions she received from the owner of a portable baby's bed as to how to assemble it]
*She **says** you've got to twist these round and it makes them solid or something.*

*Her earliest memory, she **tells** me, is of her father returning from the First World War.*

492b The present simple in Speech representation

Hear, *tell* and *understand* as reporting verbs are also often used in the present simple tense, to report or to query newsworthy past events:

*What's all this I **hear** about you attacking Barbara?*

*Jane **tells** me you've not been too well since you got back from holiday.*

[customer (A) and check-out assistant in a store; *Switch* is a kind of charge-card]
A: *I **understand** you're taking Switch soon.*
B: *We're taking Switch now.*
A: *Oh.*
(somebody told me, or I read it somewhere)

339e Mental process verbs

Direct speech reports in spoken narratives

In informal spoken narratives recounting definite past time events, direct speech reports often have a reporting verb in the present simple. Speakers may alternate between present and past tenses, but usually reserve the present tense for quoting speech that is in some way important in the story:

> *And somebody saw her and she **said**, 'Ooh Mrs Naylor,' she **said**, 'Have you sent your little girl to school?' she **says**. 'Yes,' she **says**. 'Well she's on Grange Street sat on top of a load of coal, throwing it!'*

Speakers may add an *-s* ending to the present tense verb, even for first person subjects:

> *He **says**, 'You almost killed me there you know.' I **said**, 'Why?' He **says**, 'You know who those two men were?' I **says**, 'No I didn't.' And he **told** me.*
> (this is non-standard usage, but becoming increasingly frequent)

also **501e Use of *I says, go, be* and *be like*** in **Speech representation**

Future time

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Future time

INTRODUCTION 361

There is no future tense ending for English verbs as there is in other languages, but English has several widely used ways of referring to future time. The most common forms are:

*We**'re going to** buy a new camera.*
(*be going to* + infinitive)

*She**'s coming** next Thursday.*
(the present progressive form)

***I'll** be home about eight.*
(*shall/will*)

*My flight **leaves** in two hours' time.*
(the present simple form)

*The government **is to** introduce a new funding system for universities.*
(*be to* + infinitive)

*We**'re about to** have dinner.*
(*be about to* + infinitive)

References to the future can depend on how much evidence there is for future statements. It is often not possible to refer to the future with complete certainty, even though some future events and actions are inevitable. Sometimes, therefore, choices of form depend on how definite or certain the speaker wants to sound. For this reason, a number of the ways of referring to the future involve modal verbs. The most common verb used is *will*.

377–407 Modality

BE GOING TO AND THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE 362

Be going to and the present progressive are commonly used for referring to future plans, decisions and arrangements. Sometimes either form can be used, sometimes there are contrasts in meaning between them, and sometimes one form is preferred. *Be going to* is more frequent in spoken and informal contexts.

In general, *be going to* and the present progressive can both be used to refer to future events when there is greater involvement on the part of the speaker in the decision-making process:

*What **are you going to drink**?*
*What **are you drinking**?*

*I**'m going to have** a drink with Jill after the film.*
*I**'m having** a drink with Jill after the film.*

*She**'s not going to borrow** my car.*
*She**'s not borrowing** my car.*

*Karen**'s going to arrive** tomorrow. I couldn't put her off.*
*Karen**'s arriving tomorrow**. I couldn't put her off.*

Be going to usually indicates that a decision has been made and that the event will take place soon, but that all the necessary plans have not yet been made. *Be going to* stresses the subjective view of the speaker:

*We**'re going to** pave over the front garden when we get round to it, so we can park off the road.*

*I**'m going to** ask him to marry me.*

The present progressive usually indicates that a decision has been made and that arrangements are probably in place or have been made:

*I**'m starting** a new job next week.*
(typically means I have agreed terms and a starting date)

*I shall actually be leaving earlier than expected. I**'m flying** on Friday.*
(I have booked the flight and made all the arrangements)

The present progressive is not used when a prediction is made based on present evidence:

*It's gone really dark. It**'s going to** rain any minute.*
(~~It's raining any minute.~~)

[said to a little child who has just received a gift of money]
*You**'re going to** lose that money if you don't put it in your pocket.*
(~~You're losing that money ...~~)

Will may be used in such cases (363).

BE GOING TO AND *WILL* 363

Be going to and *will* can both be used to make predictions based on present evidence or the present situation:

*Hurry up or we**'re going to** be late!*
(or: Hurry up or we'll be late!)

Normally, *be going to* is used when there is some outside evidence for what is said or when the statement can be clearly interpreted:

*Rumiko **is going to** have a new baby.*
(outside evidence)

*He**'s going to** burn that toast.*
(it can be seen)

Will/shall is preferred when evidence is not so obvious or is less immediately relevant and when judgements or opinions have to be relied on:

*The baby **will** have black hair.*
(statement based on the speaker's judgement/knowledge)

*Don't let him cook. He**'ll** even burn the toast.*
(evidence is less obvious, but the speaker knows that the person mentioned cannot cook)

*I'm sure that we **shall** have a good discussion.*
(based on the speaker's judgement)

Will may be used to state absolute certainties about the future:

*My birthday **will** fall on a Tuesday in 2007.*

There are contrasts in formality between *will* and *be going to*. In general, *will* is more formal. The following example shows a switch of formality from *will* to *be going to*:

[TV weather forecast]
*Temperatures **will** be below freezing … and it**'s going to** be icy on those country roads, so do take care if you're driving.*

The following example shows a speaker change from *be going to* (informal, in this case *gonna*) to *will* (more formal):

[to friend, while looking at a menu]
*I**'m gonna** have fried mushrooms, you like mushrooms don't you?*

[shortly afterwards, to the waiter]
*I**'ll** have deep fried mushrooms with … erm … an old timer burger.*

When the future reference is based on decisions, plans and intentions, *be going to* is used:

*She**'s** already **going to** buy some new shoes; she can't have the coat as well.*
(~~She will already buy some new shoes …; she can't have the coat as well.~~)

*I didn't realise you**'re going to** apply for the job too.*
(… that you plan/intend/have decided to apply)

GONNA 364

Gonna (pronounced /ˈɡənə/) is an informal alternative to *going to* in most informal spoken contexts (see the example in 363 above). It is the normal way in which *going to* is pronounced at normal speeds; *going to* is therefore often represented in writing as *gonna*:

*It's not **gonna** take two minutes. Then we'll have finished.*

*What are you **gonna** do with them?*

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INDEPENDENT *'LL* 365

There are contexts involving decisions and arrangements where *'ll* is normally the only choice. In such cases *'ll* is best not seen as a contraction of either *will* or *shall*; it may be seen as an independent form.

As an independent form, *'ll* is often used to indicate an instantaneous personal decision:

*There's a garage. We**'ll** just stop and get some petrol.*
(~~There's a garage. We shall/will just stop and get some petrol.~~)

[speaker A has just poured herself some water]
A: *Anyone else want some?*
B: ***I'll** have a drop, yes. Thanks.*

Independent *'ll* is also used for indicating informal decisions or arrangements where *will* or *shall* would sound too direct or imposing:

*Okay. That's it then. We**'ll** meet next week, I suppose.*

[*Asda* is the name of a supermarket chain]
*Then we**'ll** get a bus to Bridgford, the boys**'ll** get off near Asda and we**'ll** all walk to the school.*

WILL/SHALL: INTENTION AND VOLITION 366

When a speaker wants to make their will or intention clear, then *will* or *shall* is normally used:

*I **will** not do it. You can't make me.*

*I promise I **will** not be beaten.*

*'I **shall** be at the station to meet you,' she said. 'Friday week.'*

A: *Don't forget the party. You **will** come, won't you?*
B: *I certainly **will**. I wouldn't miss it, would I?*

*I **will** definitely stop smoking. I really **will**.*

WILL VERSUS *SHALL* 367

Will may be used for all persons, but *shall* often occurs with *I* and *we*. *Will* is generally less formal when used with *I* and *we*:

A: *Right. Have a nice weekend.*
B: *I **shall** try. You too.*
A: *Okay then. Bye bye sweetheart.*

*We **shall** find some other work for you to do.*

Shall also has a specialised legal usage for stating rules, laws, legal provisions, etc. In such cases, it often occurs with third person subjects:

*The insured **shall** remain the sole owner of the vehicle.*

WILL/SHALL IN REQUESTS, OFFERS, ETC. 368

✪ *Will/'ll* is often used to make offers of future action. In such cases the present simple is not used:

*Oh, that looks heavy. **I'll** carry it for you.*
(~~That looks heavy. I carry it for you.~~)

Shall is frequently used to make first person suggestions regarding future actions:

***Shall** I close the door?*

***Shall** we go out for a meal with them for their anniversary?*

Note that *will* is becoming more frequent in such cases.

388 *Shall*

408–423 Speech acts

THE PRESENT SIMPLE 369

References to fixed events in the future (e.g. schedules, timetables and firm arrangements) are often made using the present simple:

The = sign indicates an utterance which is cut short
[two people exchanging information about their respective travel arrangements]
A: *So you're going on the …?*
B: *Twentieth. On the twentieth. And then I **come back**=*
A: *November the twelfth.*
B: *Yeah. Cos I **leave** on the eleventh but I **do come** overnight so I should be back here on the twelfth.*

THE FUTURE PERFECT SIMPLE 370

The future perfect simple is formed with *will/shall* + *have* + *-ed* participle. It is used when there is reference to something that is seen as already completed before a certain time.

Future time adverbials are normally required to complete the meaning:

*Send a fax to the hotel. He'**ll have left** home by now.*

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*In January I **will have been** at the company for twenty years.*

*Do you think you**'ll have heard** about the job by tomorrow?*

THE FUTURE PROGRESSIVE 371

The future progressive is formed with *will/shall + be + -ing*. It is used when there is reference to something that will be in progress at some specified or understood time in the future:

*Next week I**'ll be swimming** every day in the Caribbean.*

*I**'ll be having** a word with him when he returns.*

*She**'ll be starting** school soon, I suppose.*

*Don't worry. I**'ll be waiting** for you at the station.*

The future progressive is also used to refer to events which are due to happen and which may result in other events taking place or make other events possible:

*I**'ll be seeing** the boss tomorrow morning. Do you want me to mention the promotion?*

The future progressive can also be used to soften questions about the future and make them more polite:

***Will** you **be coming back** on Friday night or Saturday morning?*

THE FUTURE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE 372

The future perfect progressive is formed with *will/shall + have + been + -ing*. It indicates that an event will be in progress at a particular time in the future and additionally highlights the duration of the event.

Time or duration adverbials are usually needed to show the time-frame:

*By six o'clock they **will have been meeting** for almost ten hours.*

*Next January the captain **will have been playing** for the club for twenty years.*

FUTURE IN THE PAST 373

References to events in the past which were still in the future from the point of view of the speaker normally use past tense verb forms:

*He **was coming** until this afternoon and then he changed his mind.*
(it was his plan/intention for the future until this afternoon)

*Last time we met, your wife **was going to** learn Japanese.*
(refers to an earlier point in time when the listener's wife said 'I'm going to learn Japanese', or something similar)

Would/should is used in such cases instead of *will/shall*:

*Joseph looked at the building where he **would** work for the next six months.*

*I knew then that I **should** never see him again.*
(or less formal: … that I would never see him again.)

FUTURE REFERENCE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES 374

In subordinate clauses with future reference introduced by subordinators such as *as*, *before*, *if*, *once*, *unless*, *until*, *when*, the present tense is used, not *shall/will*:

[giving someone directions]
*As you'**re coming** into the village, you'll see a pub in front of you. Turn right there.*

[tennis player speaking]
*If I **win** this set, it will be a great result.*
(~~If I will win this set, it will be a great result.~~)

*So what are you going to do when you **get** back?*
(~~So what are you going to do when you will get back?~~)

In reported clauses involving verbs such as *ask*, *insist*, *request*, *suggest*, and after conditional subordinators such as *if*, *lest*, *on condition that*, subjunctive mood (involving the base form of the verb, 159e) may occur in formal contexts to refer to unfulfilled future events in the past:

*They suggested he **contact** a different person.*

*Indeed so great was the press of people around us, that I gripped my brother's arm lest he **be** trampled underfoot.*

OTHER MODAL VERBS AND FUTURE REFERENCE 375

Other modal verbs are also often used with future reference:

*There **might** be a student demo next week against the rise in fees.*

*Do you think you **may** go camping again this summer?*

***Can** you cope with the kids this afternoon?*

*She **could** arrive tonight, we're not sure.*

*You **must** come here tomorrow at ten o'clock.*

377–407 Modality

OTHER FORMS FOR REFERRING TO THE FUTURE 376

Other forms can be used to refer to future events, particularly if they are to happen in the near future.

Be to

Be to may be used for future reference in the context of obligations, requirements, formal decisions, etc. *Be to* structures are common with conditional clauses:

*It's a very big problem. What **am** I **to** say to them?*

*If we**'re to** get there by five, we should get a move on.*

*If Tom**'s to** go and live with his mother, then his sister should too.*

Be to for giving instructions, orders or commands is rare in informal conversation:

*You**'re to** do your homework and to do it neatly this time.*

*She**'s** not **to** come back late.*

Be to is common in specific styles such as newspaper headlines and news reports. In headlines it often occurs in an ellipted form:

*Pupils **to** sit new national exams.*
(Pupils are to sit new national exams.)

[headline about laws to control gun ownership. *MP* = Member of the British Parliament]
*Police **to** challenge MPs on guns.*
(The police are to challenge MPs on guns.)

*The government **is to** introduce legislation to restrict immigration.*

Be about to and other forms

The following forms enable reference to future events treated as occurring immediately or in the near future. The forms are mainly used in more formal contexts:

*He**'s about to** resign.*

*They **are on the point of** issuing a statement.*

*People **are on the verge of** despair.*

*Is that the flight that**'s due to** arrive at 22.25?*

*We**'re certain to** run out of time. I think we should postpone the meeting.*

*It**'s sure to** rain. Let's postpone the match.*

*England **are likely to** lose their next match against Spain.*

*They**'re supposed to** meet us at the station.*

*He **is obliged to** be there.*

404 Other modal expressions with *be*, where these are dealt with separately

Modality

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Modality

INTRODUCTION 377

This chapter (377–407) describes the main modal forms and meanings. The emphasis is on the core modal verbs but the chapter is also concerned with other items which carry a modal meaning.

The term 'modality' refers to a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards, or point of view about, a state of the world. In particular, modals are used to say whether something is real or true, or whether it is the subject of speculation rather than definite knowledge. For example, *Charles is at home now* is a statement of what is believed to be true, and indicates a high degree of certainty on the part of the speaker; *Charles may be at home now*, on the other hand, is more speculative and an assessment of possibility rather than a statement of fact. *Charles should be at home now* can be either a statement of what is probably true or a statement of what is desirable or necessary. All of these statements, even the simple, neutral statement of fact, can be said to carry modality, in other words the speaker's point of view.

Modal items, especially the modal verbs, also play a very important part in the expression of politeness and formality in English.

MODAL FORMS 378

The most significant expression of modality is by means of modal verbs. The core modal verbs are: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, *would*, *should*, *must*.

There is also a set of semi-modal verbs. These verbs behave in similar ways to core modal verbs but share some characteristics with lexical verbs. The semi-modal verbs are: *dare*, *need*, *ought to*, *used to*.

This chapter also describes other expressions of modality apart from the modal and semi-modal verbs. For example we consider the role of other verbs which can express modal meanings (e.g. *hope*, *manage*, *suppose, seem*, *wish*, *want*) and modal phrases which have become grammaticalised (e.g. *had better*, *be meant to*, *be obliged to*, *be supposed to*). The chapter also refers to expressions of modality by means of adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

TYPES OF MEANING 379

There are two main types of modal meaning.

One meaning is to do with certainty, probability and possibility, with an assessment of potential facts and with deductions or predictions based on the assessment:

*I **might** see you later.*
(it is possible, not certain)

*I'**ll** see you tomorrow.*
(speaker is certain)

The other meaning involves getting things done or trying to control the course of events. Modals used in this way express degrees of obligation and whether or not something is necessary, desirable, permitted or forbidden. This use also refers to volition, people's will to do or not do things, and to their ability to do things:

*You **may** go now.*
(speaker grants permission)

*I **must** be careful what I say.*
(speaker expresses necessity/obligation)

*Liz **can** work right through the night without getting tired.*
(speaker refers to ability)

Often, the same modal form can be used with different meanings, depending on context:

*I don't know. You **may** be right.*
(possibility: It is possible you are right.)

[spoken instruction to students taking a timed examination]
*You **may** start now.*
(permission: You are allowed to start now.)

***Could** it be the other one that's causing the problem?*
(possibility: Is it possible that the other one is causing the problem?)

***Could** we come and see it on Saturday?*
(permission: request for permission to come)

CORE MODAL VERBS 380

General formal properties of modal verbs 380a

The forms of modal verbs differ from the forms of other types of verb in significant ways. Modal verbs have only one form and do not inflect for person or number.

Modal verbs do not have infinitive forms, either with *to* or without. Modal verbs have no *-ing* form and no *-ed* participle form and therefore lack progressive and perfect forms:

I'd like to be able to speak Japanese.
(~~I'd like to can speak Japanese.~~)

Modal verbs are placed first in the verb phrase and are followed by a verb in the base form. The next verb may be a lexical verb or an auxiliary verb (*be*, *do*, *have*) or the substitute verb *do*, but cannot be another modal verb:

*We **might stay** an extra night.*

*We **should be leaving** soon.*

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*It **might have got** lost in the post.*

A: *We **can stick** these in the letterbox tonight.*
B: *We **could do**, yeah.*
(followed by substitute *do*)

✪ Modal verbs cannot be used as lexical verbs:

*I **must go** to bed.*
(~~I must to bed.~~)

*I **can speak** Italian.*
(or: I know Italian.)
(Not: ~~I can Italian.~~)

Modal verbs can only stand alone when the lexical verb is understood:

A: *Karen might have his number.*
B: *Yes, she **might**.*
(understood: she might have his number)

Modal verbs cannot indicate voice or aspect, though they may precede constructions with passive voice and/or progressive/perfect aspect:

*I think Jim **could** have been offended.*

*I don't know when we'**ll** be arriving yet.*

*We **should** have thought of that earlier.*

*He **might** have been expecting it.*

Modal verbs and tenses 380b

Some of the core modal verbs historically represent present and past tense forms which are no longer in one-to-one contrast as tenses.

Historical tense forms of modal verbs

historical present tense forms	historical past tense forms
can	*could*
may	*might*
shall	*should*
will	*would*

The historical present tense forms are not used to refer to the past; however, all of the forms may refer to either present or future time. In general, the historical past tense forms are used to express greater tentativeness, distance and politeness.

Interrogatives 380c

The interrogative with modal verbs is formed by inverting the subject and modal verb. Auxiliary *do* is not used:

Can they *repair it?*
(~~Do they can repair it?~~)

Will your mother *be offended?*

Negative forms of modal verbs 380d

The negatives of modal verbs are formed by adding *not/'nt* (380e) after the modal verb. Auxiliary *do* is not used:

I ***can't*** *understand what she's saying.*
(~~I don't can understand what she's saying.~~)
(~~I not can understand what she's saying.~~)

I just ***could not*** *bear even talking to him.*

Contracted forms of modal verbs 380e

Subject-verb contraction

Subject-verb contraction is only possible with *shall* and *will* (which become *'ll*), and *would* (which becomes *'d*):

*They****'ll*** *always be successful.*

I'll *let you know what's going to happen.*
(I shall/I will let you know …)

*He****'d*** *be very cross if I told him.*

Negative form contraction

Modal verbs are often used in contracted negative forms (sometimes causing a change in the form of the verb).

Uncontracted and contracted negative forms of modal verbs

modal verb	uncontracted negative	contracted negative
can	*cannot*	*can't*
could	*could not*	*couldn't*
may	*may not*	*mayn't* (very rare)
might	*might not*	*mightn't*
will	*will not*	*'ll not, won't*
shall	*shall not*	*'ll not, shan't*
would	*would not*	*'d not, wouldn't*
should	*should not*	*shouldn't*
must	*must not*	*mustn't*

387 ***Will*** and 390 ***Would***

CAN 381

Uses

Can is the most frequent modal verb. It has a number of meanings; its most frequent uses are for permission and ability.

Permission

Can is frequently used to seek permission, give permission or, in the negative, to forbid:

*You **can** borrow the car but be careful.*

*Students **can** hand in essays at any time before midday on February 3rd.*

A: ***Can** I smoke in here?*
B: *No, I'm sorry you **can't**.*

[adult to a very small child who has just picked up a glass]
*No. You **can't** have that. You might break it.*

Ability

A very frequent use of *can* is to indicate ability. This is particularly so with verbs of perception such as *hear* and *see* and with mental process verbs such as *follow* (in the sense of 'understand'), *guess*, *imagine*, *picture*, *understand*:

*You **can hear** the atmosphere in the stadium.*

***Can** you **see** the post office on the corner?*

*I **can guess** what you're thinking right now.*

*I **can** just **imagine** how surprised they looked.*

*Liz **can work** right through the night.*

General truths

Can is used in statements about events and states which are true or which are usually the case:

*Steel **can** resist very high temperatures.*

*It **can** rain quite a lot in Ireland in August.*

*Thai **can** be a very difficult language for Westerners to pronounce.*

Could is not normally used for general or current truths with present time reference:

*The verb 'help' **can** be used with or without infinitive 'to'.*
(stating a fact about English grammar)
(~~The verb 'help' could be used with or without infinitive 'to'.~~)

*Tommy **can** be really irritating at times. I don't think he realises.*
(the speaker believes this is true)
(~~Tommy could be really irritating at times. I don't think he realises.~~)

Could is used in such contexts only in reference to past time:

*Liam **could** be so stubborn, but at the end of the day, he was a good colleague.*

382 for the use of *could* as the past tense of *can*

Possibility

Can is used to indicate or assess logical possibilities:

*How **can** they be there already? They only left ten minutes ago.*

*That **can't** be right.*

384 *Can, could* and *may*

COULD 382

Uses

Could has a number of meanings. The most frequent uses are for possibility/probability and for making suggestions, and as the past tense of *can*.

Probability

One of the main uses of *could* is for assessments of possibility or weak probability:

*I think that **could** be the answer to the problem.*

*We **could** all be having holidays on the moon within thirty years.*

[in a shop; A is the assistant]
A: *We don't give refunds without a receipt I'm afraid.*
B: *Really?*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *All right. That **could** be tricky.*

Suggestions

Could is often used in making suggestions:

A: *I **could** just cook dinner tonight and then you **could** cook it some other night and, you know, reciprocate.*
B: *Alright. Okay.*

Permission

Could is used to ask for permission:

***Could** I talk to you for a moment?*

Criticism

Could have + *-ed* participle is often used to express disapproval or criticism:

*You **could have told** me. Why did you keep it all to yourself?*

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The expression *how could you* is often used to indicate disapproval or to issue a reproach:

> ***How could you*** *forget that we're going out to dinner tonight?*
>
> *'You have quite ruined our day.* ***How could you****?' she sobbed. '****How could you****?'*

Past tense of *can*

Could is used as the past tense form of *can* when clauses with *can* are reported as past events:

> *In tennis I wasn't that good but I knew I* ***could*** *get better.*
> (at the time, the speaker thought 'I know I can get better')
> (~~In tennis I wasn't that good but I knew I can get better.~~)
>
> *When I was a kid I* ***couldn't*** *swim at all. I only learnt when I was thirty.*
>
> *They said we* ***could*** *do whatever we wanted.*
>
> *We* ***could*** *hear that dog barking all through the night.*

However, when actual achievements are indicated, *was/were able to*, not *could*, is preferred in past affirmative clauses. The negative forms *couldn't* or *wasn't/weren't able to* are both used to indicate non-achievement:

> *The thieves escaped but the police* ***were able to*** *arrest them later that evening.*
> (~~The thieves escaped but the police could arrest them later that evening.~~)
>
> [talking about a live concert by the Beatles in the 1960s]
> *Sharon and I* ***were able to*** *get special seats but we* ***couldn't*** *hear a thing. The screaming was just something else. There were kids fainting, and being taken out, everything.*
>
> *She* ***was not able to*** *move on her own.*
> (or: She couldn't move on her own.)

MAY 383

Uses

May is used with a number of meanings.

Permission

May is used to ask for, grant and refuse permission:

> ***May*** *I see that?*
> (possible responses: Yes, you may./No, you may not.)

Probability

May is used to refer to weak probability:

> [talking about a delivery]
> *There's a bank holiday in between, so it* ***may*** *or* ***may not*** *get to you by the end of that week.*

General truths

May is used in formal written English to describe things which are likely to occur or which normally do occur. In this sense it is a more formal equivalent of *can*:

*Frog spawn **may** be found in river beds at that time of year.*
(is typically/normally found)

146b Hedging: modality in **Grammar and academic English**

Concession

May often has a concessive meaning, especially when accompanied by *well* and/or followed by *but*:

[talking about dunlins, a small sea-bird]
*A few **may well** have nested in Britain, **but** the vast majority would have flown in from their breeding grounds in the far north around arctic shores.*

*I **may** be in danger of stating the obvious, **but** I shall state it anyhow.*

*Stalin **may** be long since dead, **but** Stalinism is not.*

Good wishes and curses

May is used in formal expressions of good wishes and in formal curses:

[speech at a wedding, addressing the newly-married couple]
***May** you both have a long and happy married life together.*

***May** you rot in hell!*

also **385 *Might***; **384 *Can*, *could* and *may***; **386 *Could*, *may* and *might***

408–423 Speech acts

CAN, *COULD* AND *MAY* 384

Probability

When assessing probabilities, *can* refers to what the speaker believes to be a fact or to be usually the case. *Could* and *may* refer to possible events. Compare:

*It **can** be very cold in Stockholm, so take a big coat.*
(this is a known fact)

*It **could**/**may** be very cold in Stockholm, so take a big coat.*
(it is possible that it will be cold in Stockholm when you are there)

Could and *may* rather than *can* are used to speculate about whether something is true or possible:

A: *Where's Julia?*
B: *She **could** be in the garden.*
(or: She may be in the garden.)
(~~She can be in the garden.~~)

*It **could** rain this afternoon.*
(~~It can rain this afternoon.~~)

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Permission

Can, *could* and *may* are all used to seek permission. *Could* is usually heard as more formal and polite than *can*, and *may* is the most formal/polite of the three:

Can *I use your phone?*

Could *I use your phone?*
(more formal/polite)

May *I use your phone?*
(even more formal/polite)

385 *Might*

In giving permission, *can* and *may*, but not *could*, are used; *may* is more formal/polite than *can*, and much less frequent:

[in a clothes shop; A is the customer]
A: *Can I try a shirt on as well?*
B: *You* ***can****, sir, yes.*
(~~You could, sir, yes.~~)

'You ***may*** *go now,' she said.*

[to a child]
You ***can*** *watch TV for an hour, then off to bed.*
(~~You could watch TV for an hour, then off to bed.~~)

Requests

A wide range of requests and directives are made with *can* and *could* (but not *may*). As with seeking permission, *could* is more polite than *can*:

Can *you spell that for me please.*

Could *you give me a ring if you can't make it, Bob.*

[adult to child]
Could *you just shut up for a minute!*

also **416 Requests** in **Speech acts**

MIGHT 385

Uses

Might has a number of meanings. In general, it is a more indirect and tentative alternative to *may*. Its most frequent uses are for expressing probability; its uses referring to permission are mostly formal and much less frequent.

Probability

The most frequent uses of *might* are for referring to probability:

A: *So I'm going to buy a digital camera.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *And I* ***might*** *buy a video camera as well.*

Permission

When used to refer to permission, *might* is very formal and infrequent:

> ***Might*** *I speak to Mrs Lutterworth?*

Past tense of *may*

Might is used as the past form of *may* in indirect reports:

> *When they reached the shore road, she said to him, 'Mother* ***may*** *be expecting you.'*

The probable indirect report of this sentence would be:

> *She said that mother* ***might*** *be expecting him.*

Suggestions

Might is also used to issue advice or suggestions politely or indirectly, especially when used together with *like* or *want*:

> [university tutor recommending a book to a student]
> *I won't go any further with it now but you* ***might*** *like to take a copy of it out with you. It elaborates on a number of the claims that Wade makes. And I do recommend that you look at the book.*

414e Declaratives with *may as well* and *might (just) as well* in **Speech acts**

COULD, *MAY* AND *MIGHT* 386

Could, *may* and *might* are all used to express degrees of certainty. *May* expresses a slightly greater degree of certainty than *could*, and tends to be used in more formal contexts. *Might* is more tentative than *may* or *could*:

> *He* ***may*** *also find some graduate school course that he can do.*
> (expresses slightly greater likelihood than *could*)

> [referring to the single European currency, the Euro]
> *Staying outside the single currency* ***could*** *be detrimental to the UK.*

> *It* ***might*** *take us months to find the right person.*

WILL 387

Uses

Will has a number of uses, the most frequent being those used to refer to future time and prediction.

Future time

One of the principal functions of *will* is to refer to future time, since English does not have a separate, inflected future tense (**361–376 Future time**):

> [talking of a plan to redesign an urban area]
> *Cars* ***will*** *be banned. Coaches, bikes, wheelchairs and pedestrians* ***will*** *be catered for; drivers* ***will*** *not be welcome.*

*The referendum **will** take place on June 23rd.*

*I**'ll** be sixty-five in a few years' time and I**'ll** be retiring.*

Will is used for first, second and third person subjects to refer to future time.
(⋯ also **388 *Shall***)

Predictions

Will is used to make predictions about the future or deductions about a present situation from the available evidence:

*I think we**'ll** do it but it **won't** be easy.*

*If she gets the right grades, she**'ll** go to university.*

*That**'ll** be Jim at the door.*
(deduction about the present situation: it is very likely that the person knocking/ringing at the door is Jim)

Will is used to make general predictions about things that always happen:

*Dry twigs **will** burn easily.*

*A dog **will** growl when it's angry or frightened.*

Habitual events

Will is used to refer to habitual events:

*On a Friday night we**'ll** get a take-away and we**'ll** just relax.*

Intentions and offers

Will is used to express intentions or decisions. The present simple form is not used in such situations:

[in a photo shop; A is the assistant]
A: *I'm afraid they won't be ready till three o'clock.*
B: *Okay. Er, I**'ll** come back at three.*
(intention/decision to act)
(~~Okay. I come back at three.~~)

Will is used to express degrees of willingness to do something, and is often used to make offers. The present simple form is not used in such situations:

*I**'ll** carry that for you.*
(~~I carry that for you.~~)

*I **won't** lend him any money. Why should I?*
(~~I don't lend him any money.~~)

Requests and invitations

Requests and invitations are often made with *will*:

***Will** you pass me that newspaper please?*

***Will** you join us for a drink after the concert?*

A rarer, more formal use of *won't* occurs in polite requests and invitations:

The manager will be here in a minute. ***Won't*** *you take a seat, Mr Parker?*

Directives

Strong directives can be issued using *will* in the interrogative:

[parent to child]
Will you *sit down and just be quiet!*

A rarer use of *will* is in declarative clauses which command someone to do something or insist that they do something:

[adult to a child who is refusing to pick up an object she has thrown on the floor]
You ***will*** *pick it up and you****'ll*** *pick it up now!*

You ***will*** *ring me as soon as you get there,* ***won't*** *you?*

Disapproval

Will is often used in a disapproving way to refer to persistent actions of oneself or of others. In this usage *will* is often stressed:

He ***will*** *leave that door open every time he goes through!*
(more emphatic than: He leaves that door open every time he goes through.)

Oh, I ***will*** *keep banging my elbow on that shelf.*

Responding

Will may be used to refer to inanimate objects and how they respond or fail to respond to human intervention:

A: *This window* ***won't*** *open.*
B: *I know. It's been stuck ever since we painted it.*

Will *this printer do double-sided copies?*

[talking about a computer]
It ***won't*** *let me save the file with a different name.*

344 *Will* referring to general truths or used for politeness

SHALL 388

Uses

Shall has two main meanings; one refers to future intentions, the other is concerned with offers and advice.

Predictions and intentions

Shall is used instead of *will* with first person subjects in rather formal contexts to make predictions and to announce intentions or decisions. It is much less frequent than *will*:

While she's here, we ***shall*** *never be able to put the past behind us.*

I ***shall*** *always be grateful for what he did on that day.*
(less formal: I will/I'll always be grateful …)

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*'I don't want anyone with me. I **shall** do this on my own,' Bless said, and he hurried out of the room.*

Shall not/shan't is even rarer, but does occur in formal contexts to make predictions and announce intentions or decisions:

*I **shan't** be here for much more than half an hour.*

Directives

Shall is also used to issue directives but this use is very formal and rare:

[notice in an aircraft cabin]
*This curtain **shall** be left open during takeoff and landing.*

*'You **shall** be punished,' said Mrs Marline. 'You **shall** go to your room and stay there without a light when it is dark.'*

Making offers and seeking advice

Shall in first person interrogatives is much more frequent than other uses of *shall* and is common in the making of offers and suggestions, and in seeking advice:

*So as soon as Bob comes back, Ken, **shall** I give you a ring?*

***Shall** we go and have a walk in the garden?*

A: *What **shall** I do? Come in first thing in the morning then?*
B: *Mm, that's probably the best thing, yeah.*

WILL, SHALL AND 'LL 389

Will is almost ten times more frequent than *shall* in spoken and written texts taken together. The contracted form *'ll* is almost three times more frequent than the full forms *will* and *shall* taken together.

Shall is, in general, not very frequent, but is twice as common in spoken texts as in written texts because of the use of *shall I/we* to make suggestions or to seek advice.

Although *shall I/we* is the normal form for making suggestions, in informal conversation *will I/we* also sometimes occurs instead:

[a couple, A and B, are organising food for a dinner party]
A: ***Will** I bring out the salads?*
B: *No. But, erm, is this fish cooked?*

also **363** and **365** for discussion of the use of *'ll* and for comparisons between *will* and *be going to*

WOULD 390

Uses

Would has many meanings. A number of its uses refer to past time. It is also used in conditional sentences, and as a hedge to soften statements and requests.

Past time 390a

Reported clauses

Would can function as the past tense of *will* in reported clauses:

*I knew that **would** cause a problem.*
(report of a thought or statement: I know that will cause a problem.)

Future-in-the-past

Would can refer to future-in-the-past, when the speaker looks forward in time from a point in the past:

*Her funny crooked smile and short bouncy hair inspired him with exciting ideas of friendship. Perhaps one day he **would** summon the courage to speak to her, see how things went.*

Habitual actions

Would can refer to typical habitual actions and events in the past and often occurs in narratives:

*We stayed in an inn which had been built by a film company when they had made a film in the area. Every morning, the waiters **would** come down the long verandah, followed by two small but very active monkeys, and leave us a tray of coffee, rolls and tropical fruit. The fruit looked divine, but I never tasted any of it. The monkeys **would** sit there staring, and I couldn't resist their eyes begging for food. The waiters **would** return, collect the tray and the monkeys **would** follow them to the next room and do it all over again.*

In this meaning, *would* is similar to *used to*, but tends to occur in more formal contexts.

402 *Used to* and *would*

Volition

Would may be used to refer to volition in past time situations:

*Patsy was so kind. She **would** always help when we needed her.*

*I did ask him, but he **wouldn't** give me an answer.*

Responding

Would (especially the negative *wouldn't*) can refer in past time contexts to how inanimate things responded or failed to respond to human intervention:

*It was a freezing cold morning and the car **wouldn't** start.*

Other uses 390b

Conditional sentences

Would is common in the main clause of hypothetical conditional sentences:

*If I had to leave, I **would** probably go to India.*

[talking about a flat the speaker was considering renting]
*D'you know what I mean? If it had another little room, it **would** have been quite nice.*

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Hedging

Would is often used with verbs such as *advise*, *imagine*, *recommend*, *say*, *suggest*, *think* as a softener or hedge:

A: *I **would imagine** actually it's still cold because it's still quite windy isn't it?*
B: *Yeah.*

[shop assistant to customer who is buying a bed]
*I **would** always **recommend** a slightly softer bed than a harder one.*

[advising a friend choosing a jacket in a shop]
*I**'d say** get the bigger one.*

*The total would be about £260, I **would think**.*

Requests

Would is frequent in requests. It is a more polite or indirect form of *will*:

***Would** you give me a call this evening?*

*I want you to have a look at this, if you **would**.*

WILL AND *WOULD* 391

Would functions as a more formal or polite alternative to *will* in requests:

***Would** you excuse me just one second?*
(heard as more polite than: Will you excuse me just one second?)

***Would** you look after my seat for me please?*

Will and *would* can both refer to willingness, with *would* functioning in past time contexts:

*Josh says he**'ll** do it for you.*

*When he was at home, his mother **wouldn't** allow him to go out anywhere and do anything.*

However, *would* is not used to refer to someone's willingness to do something on a specific occasion in a past time context:

*I suggested she came on her own, and she finally **agreed to it**.*
(~~I suggested she came on her own, and she finally would.~~)

SHOULD 392

Uses

Should has a number of meanings. It can refer to things that are likely or possible, but it is more frequently used to refer to things that are desirable, and to give advice and make suggestions. It is also used in conditional sentences.

What is desirable

The most frequent uses of *should* are to indicate what the speaker considers to be the ideal or desired state of affairs:

*He **should** have been here at five and he's not here yet.*

*She **should** be wearing glasses.*

[complaining about the inadequacies of the English national school inspection system]
A: *I think there **should** be some kind of system, Mary.*
B: *Yes. Oh I agree.*
A: *I think the authorities **should** do it and there **should** be, you know, guidelines from a central place.*
B: *Uh huh.*
A: *Erm, and er, it **should** be done thoroughly.*
B: *Yes.*

What is likely or possible

Another frequent use of *should* is where speakers indicate what they think is likely to occur:

[answerphone message]
*Hello. Er, this is a message for Helen Mitchell. It's Frampton College, Allchester. Erm your evening class tonight has had to be cancelled because the lecturer's ill but it **should** be back to normal next week. Thank you.*

[a teacher talking about the school day]
A: *Tomorrow I've got a lot of sport. Cos I've got games in the morning then I've got swimming for four lessons.*
B: *It **should** be a pleasant day then.*
A: *Mm.*

Should can also be used in a more general way to refer to 'possible worlds' or events which might possibly happen:

*It seems unfair that you **should** have to do all the driving. Let me drive.*

*Why **should** anyone object to her getting the job?*

Surprise

Should is also used for events which did happen but to which the speaker reacts with surprise or disbelief:

*I'm sorry that he **should** be so upset by what I said.*

*I'm amazed that he **should** have done something so stupid.*

Suggestions

Should is very common in advice-giving and in making suggestions:

*You **should** tell him straight what you think.*

*We **should** leave it till tomorrow, don't you think.*

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Thanking

Shouldn't have is used conventionally to express gratitude for gifts:

> [email message after the receipt of a gift CD]
> *Thanks so much for the CD. You really* ***shouldn't have****.*

Conditional sentences

Should occurs in hypothetical conditional clauses with *if* in formal contexts, expressing tentative possibilities:

> *Some people carry a card which says that* ***if*** *they* ***should*** *be killed in an accident, they are willing for their organs to be used for transplantation.*

> ***If*** *you* ***should*** *need anything else, do just let me know.*

Should also occurs with subject-verb inversion as an alternative to *if* in more formal contexts to refer to hypothetical situations:

> [giving someone a mobile phone number]
> *I'll be contactable on this number* ***should*** *you need me.*

> [referring to a request to Cambridge City Council for building planning permission by the University of Cambridge]
> *Cambridge City Council has specified that it will not permit further development of the teaching facilities without related student housing.* ***Should*** *the Cromwell Road plan be rejected, the University fears that students may end up living in unsuitable residences paying higher rents than students elsewhere.*

399 *Ought to* and *should*

SHOULD AND *WOULD* 393

Should occurs as a more formal alternative to *would* with first person subjects in hypothetical clauses, in future-in-the-past clauses and in clauses where *would* can occur as a softener or hedge:

> [referring to the pleasures of living in a country cottage, despite the disadvantages]
> *I had been there long enough to see the disadvantages, but even if they had been doubled or trebled, I* ***should*** *still have been of the same opinion.*

> *She was aware of our feelings for each other and she guessed we* ***should*** *like to be alone.*

> *Things change, especially in your field, I* ***should*** *imagine.*

MUST 394

Must has a number of meanings. It is used for different strengths of obligation, from polite invitations to laws. It is also frequently used to express deduction.

Deduction

The use of *must* to express a deduction is particularly common, especially to express reactions in spoken contexts:

*I'm twenty-eight, so she **must** be twenty-seven.*

A: *There was a power-cut on the London Underground.*
B: *That **must** have been terrible. Er, I read about that. Yeah.*

Obligation and invitations

Must expressing obligation is quite strong, but it is also used to express polite invitations:

*You **must** get those done by tomorrow.*

*I told her she **must** keep her door locked at all times.*

A: *You **must** come down and have a meal with us sometime.*
B: *Yeah.*
(polite invitation)

Rules and laws

Must and *must not* often occur in public signs and notices indicating laws, rules and prohibitions:

[airline website information]
*All passengers **must** present valid photo identification at check-in for all flights.*

[public notice at a railway station]
*Passengers **must not** cross the line.*

Reproaches

Must in the interrogative form is used to issue reproaches and often expresses a feeling of exasperation on the part of the speaker:

***Must** you have that music so loud?*

*Why **must** people always park right across our exit?*

Tense and time references with *must* 394a

Must has no past form.

Obligation

Obligation in the past is expressed by *had to*:

[someone talking about their childhood home]
*We didn't have water inside, we **had to** go to an outside pump to pump the water to the house.*
(~~We didn't have water inside, we must go to an outside pump ...~~)

References to obligations which will or may occur at a given point in the future are made with the future forms of *have to* rather than *must*:

*Maybe one day he **will have to** accept the inevitable truth.*

*If he turns up after midnight, then he'**ll have to** eat whatever he can find in the fridge.*

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Must can be used to express the future-in-the-past, and occurs in reported clauses in formal contexts:

> *She had little appetite for the food on the tray, but she knew that she* ***must*** *eat something or else she would faint with hunger.*

Deduction

The perfect form *must have* always refers to deduction, not obligation:

> *I* ***must have*** *been on the phone.*
> (it is likely/probable that I was on the phone)

Negative of *must* 394b

Obligation: *must not* and *need not*

Must not is used to forbid something. *Need not* or the negative forms of *have (got) to* or the negative of the lexical verb *need to* are used to express an absence of obligation:

> [parent to child]
> A: *Samantha?*
> B: *What?*
> A: *You* ***must not*** *leave stuff like this under the sofa!*
> (forbidding something)

> [pharmacist advising a customer about a medical product]
> *This* ***needn't*** *be kept in the fridge.*
> (there is no obligation or necessity to keep this in the fridge; 'This must not be kept in the fridge' would mean it is forbidden/wrong/dangerous to keep it in the fridge)

> [speaker B is a pensioner who enjoys free bus travel]
> A: *The bus is going to be about £1.*
> B: *Well I* ***don't have to*** *pay.*
> (~~Well I mustn't pay.~~)

> *We should have a general discussion at this stage. Er, we* ***don't need to*** *reach any final decisions.*

397 *Need* and 403d *Have to, have got to*

Deduction

The negative of *must* when denying or negating logical deductions or conclusions is *can't/cannot*:

> [speakers are measuring distances on a map]
> A: *There's no way that's thirty miles.*
> B: *That* ***can't*** *be right. No it isn't.*
> A: *Maybe the scale's wrong.*
> B: *Mm,* ***must*** *be.*

Mustn't is also used to express negative deductions, especially in more informal spoken contexts:

> [talking about time sheets to record work done]
> *But she said 'Oh you **mustn't** have filled it in because I haven't got any record of you working those two shifts.' But I'm sure I did. I'm sure I filled it in but now I can't remember.*
> (or: You can't have filled it in because …)

SEMI-MODAL VERBS 395

The semi-modal verbs are: *dare*, *need*, *ought to* and *used to*. (*Dare* and *need* are also lexical verbs.)

These verbs are also sometimes called 'non-typical' or 'marginal' modal verbs. In some ways they behave grammatically like lexical verbs; in some ways they behave grammatically like the core modal verbs:

> *I **dare not** tell her what's happened.*
> (as with core modal verbs, negative formed without auxiliary *do*)
>
> *Marie **didn't dare** say anything to them.*
> (as with lexical verbs, negative formed with auxiliary *do*)
>
> *We **ought to** wash this tray, **oughtn't we**?*
> (unlike core modal verbs, followed by *to*; like core modals, can be used in a tag question)

Often the different behaviour marks a difference between formal and informal styles:

> *I've learnt to become open-minded. I **didn't used to** be.*
> (negative formed with auxiliary *do*; the most common negative form of *used to* in general contexts)
>
> *There is something rather secretive about Lucian at times. He **used not to** be like that. He was such a frank sort of boy, if you know what I mean.*
> (negative formed without auxiliary *do*, but only usually found in formal styles)

DARE 396

Dare as a semi-modal occurs frequently in negative and interrogative clauses. When used as a semi-modal, it is followed by the infinitive without *to*:

> *I **daren't** ring Linda again.*
>
> *She **dare not** ask her mother to lend her money.*
>
> ***Dare** we write to them and complain?*

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The negative of semi-modal *dare* may occur as *dare not/daren't* or may be formed with auxiliary *do*:

*I **dare not** go in there because goodness knows what's in there.*

*His eyes were all swollen up and everything, so he **didn't dare** go out.*

Semi-modal *dare* is usually not inflected for person or tense. When *dare* is used as a lexical verb, it may be followed by a *to*-infinitive and it may be inflected. The non-inflected past form is rare and rather formal:

[expressing strong disapproval of someone's criticism]
*And she **dare** criticise the running of the Centre!*

*I think they all feel the same but nobody ever **dares to** say it, you know.*

*She **dared to** hope that she had seen the last of him.*

*He was such a terrifying man; no one **dare** contradict him.*
(rare and formal)

NEED 397

Semi-modal *need* most commonly occurs in the negative declarative, to indicate absence of obligation:

*She **needn't** take the exam if she doesn't want to.*

*At least the spare time on his hands could be good fun. He'd please himself and no one else. His tie could hang loose all the time. He **need not** wear a tie. He **need not** wear a suit. That was the uniform of servitude. He **need not** hasten through the city streets, his coffee hardly drunk, to be at work on time.*

Affirmative declaratives with semi-modal *need* are much rarer and are associated with formal styles and contexts. There is almost always some element of negation in the clause, even if the verb phrase is affirmative:

*No one else **need** see what he was doing either.*

*If we feel wisdom itself is lost, we **need** only enter a library.*
(we need not do more than enter a library)

Interrogatives with semi-modal *need* are very rare and are associated with formal styles and contexts:

[*She* here refers to a fishing boat which sank while at sea]
*She was most likely run down by a larger ship which never stopped. Fishing is dangerous – er, but **need** it be this dangerous?*

Semi-modal *need* has no past tense equivalent, and the lexical verbs *didn't need to* or *didn't have to* are used to express absence of obligation in the past:

*I got better quite quickly and I **didn't need to** go back to the hospital.*

*She'd done half the course the year before so she **didn't have to** go to all the lectures.*

Semi-modal *need* can be used with a future-in-the-past meaning:

*I was locked out but I knew I **needn't** panic because Laura would be home at five.*

Needn't have + *-ed* participle is used to refer to events which happened but which the speaker considers were unnecessary:

*I **needn't have bought** so much food now that Suzie won't be with us for dinner.*
(speaker did buy food but now considers it was unnecessary)

Semi-modal *need* and lexical verb *need* 397a

The meanings of semi-modal *need* and the lexical verb *need* often overlap and lexical verb *need* can often be used as an alternative to semi-modal *need*:

*Fishing is dangerous – but **need** it be this dangerous?*
(or: *Fishing is dangerous – but **does it need to** be this dangerous?*)

[lecturer to students]
*There is an intimate link between the presence of the virus in these cells and the production of the tumour. We **needn't** take the figures down here, erm, but what this shows is the second transforming virus, which is hepatitis B virus.*
(or: *We **don't need to** take the figures down …*)

The full lexical verb *to need*, not the semi-modal *need*, must be used when the verb complement is a noun phrase or noun-phrase equivalent (e.g. an *-ing* clause):

*You **don't need** an invitation.*
(~~You needn't an invitation.~~)

*The hedge **doesn't need** cutting.*
(~~The hedge needn't cutting.~~)

OUGHT TO 398

Uses

The meanings of *ought to* are similar to the meanings of *should*.

What is desirable

Ought to is used to refer to ideal or desired states of affairs. It is very similar to *should*, but is far less frequent:

*I really **ought to** go outside and get some fresh air for a bit.*

*You **ought to** put more money into your pension fund.*

A: *Well that isn't good enough. You **ought to** complain.*
B: *I don't like complaining.*

What is likely

Less frequently, *ought to* is used, again in a similar way to *should*, to state what is likely or probable:

> *I think it* ***ought to*** *take about three hours, if the traffic is not too bad.*

> [lecturer advising a student on which authors to read]
> *Er, look at Brinton and if necessary go to Rowland's book. But I think Brinton* ***ought to*** *be able to give you the information.*

Interrogative

Interrogatives with *ought to* are rare, and confined mostly to formal styles:

> *Who do you think it is?* ***Ought*** *we* ***to*** *call the police?*

Negative

The negative of *ought to* is *ought not to* or *oughtn't to*, but both are infrequent, especially in informal spoken language:

> [speaker is talking about whether meetings at work are useful or not]
> *If I don't feel the same when I come away as I did before I went, then I* ***ought not to*** *have gone.*

Oughtn't is generally only found in question tags:

> *I ought to photocopy this,* ***oughtn't*** *I?*

An even rarer form of the negative, found only in formal styles, is not followed by *to*:

> *She* ***ought not have felt*** *either surprise or offence at the discovery that Emma showed Jag her letters, but she could not ignore the fact that she felt both and felt them sharply.*

To is also omitted in question tags:

> A: *This picture ought to be hung somewhere,* ***oughtn't it****?*
> B: *Yeah.*
> A: *Erm. Don't know where though.*

Past form

Ought to has no past form. The perfect construction *ought to have* + *-ed* participle is used to refer back to states of affairs which were desirable at points in the past:

> *We probably* ***ought to have talked*** *about it ages ago.*

In informal conversation, question tags may occur with auxiliary *did* following clauses with *ought to have*:

> *They* ***ought to have*** *told you,* ***didn't*** *they?*

OUGHT TO AND *SHOULD* 399

Should is much more frequent than *ought to*, in referring to both what is desirable and what is likely.

Tags for clauses with *ought to* often occur with *should*, instead of *ought*:

*There **ought** to be criteria, **shouldn't** there?*

*It **oughtn't** to have been like that really, **should** it?*

Interrogatives and negatives with *ought to* are rare; *should* is generally preferred instead:

***Should** we have this window open again now or not?*
(preferred to: Ought we to have this window open …?)

*It's a tax form to say I'm a student and I **shouldn't** be paying tax.*
(preferred to: … I'm a student and I oughtn't/ought not to be paying tax.)

USED TO 400

Used to refers to past habitual behaviour or states of affairs in the past which are no longer true:

A: *She's very tall isn't she?*
B: *Yes, she **used to** do ballet.*
(she did ballet but no longer does it)

*There **used to** be a railway going through the village but it was closed in the 1960s.*

Negative

The negative of *used to* is most typically *didn't use(d) to*. In more formal styles, *used not to* occurs. The contracted form *usedn't to* may occasionally occur, but is very rare:

[talking of a married couple who grew to dislike each other over the years]
*When he went home she was nasty and fed up and he said sometimes she never even looked up when he went in and yet they **didn't used to** be like that. But they grew to be like that.*

*She **used not to** be so censorious of others' behaviour but her own betrayal had, she thought, seared her more than she understood.*

The alternatives *didn't used to/didn't use to* both occur as written representations of the negative with *didn't*, though in speech it is often impossible to hear a difference and the most likely pronunciation is /dɪdn(t) ˈjuːstə/.

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Interrogative

The interrogative of *used to* has two forms; the more common form is with auxiliary *did*. The alternative form involves subject-verb inversion, and is very rare:

> ***Did you used to*** *have ambitions when you were younger for the future?*
>
> A: ***Didn't*** *that big building on the corner* ***used to*** *be a cinema?*
> B: *Yes it was, years ago.*
>
> *It looks different.* ***Used it to*** *be like that?*
> (very rare)

Emphatic

Emphatic *did* may occur with *used to*. The construction may be represented in writing as *did used to* or *did use to*:

> A: *Do you stay up to celebrate the New Year?*
> B: *When me and my sisters used to get together before I got married we* ***did used to*** *celebrate it, with my sisters.*
>
> *She* ***did use to*** *cuddle me, my mother, not passionately, like Aunt Eileen did.*

Tags

When a tag follows a clause with *used to*, it is normally constructed with auxiliary *did*:

> *You* ***used to*** *work in Manchester,* ***didn't you****?*
>
> *I* ***used to*** *go there every year,* ***I did****, when I was younger.*

Used to, _be used to_ and expressions of typicality **401**

Used to and *be used to* are different.

Used to refers to habits and states which happened or were true in the past but are no longer the case. *Used to* only has one form, and cannot refer to the present or future:

> *I* ***used to*** *swim every morning before work.*
> (refers to a past habit which is no longer the case)

Be used to refers to how familiar something is for someone; it can occur in different tense forms. *Be used to* is followed by a noun phrase or a verb in the *-ing* form or a clausal complement:

> *She****'s not used to*** *the new system yet.*
> (she's not familiar with it)
>
> [said by someone driving a big car for the first time]
> ***I'm not used to*** *driv****ing*** *such a big car.*
> (I am not familiar with driving such a big car./I do not have experience of driving such a big car.)
> (~~I'm not used to drive such a big car.~~)
>
> *I* ***was used to*** *gett****ing*** *all my meals cooked for me.*
> (getting my meals cooked for me was a familiar/normal experience)
> (compare: 'I used to get all my meals cooked for me', which would simply mean that this was true in the past but is not true any more)
>
> ***I'm not really used to*** *how they do it in America.*

To express habits or things which are normal and typical, in the present, past or future, the simple forms of the present or past tense are used, or adverbs such as *usually*, *normally*, *typically*. Such meanings are not expressed by the verb *use* in the present tense.

*I **usually** have tea and toast for breakfast.*
(~~I use to have tea and toast for breakfast.~~)

*He **normally** comes round at about half past one.*
('He used to come round at about half past one' would mean that is what happened in the past)

*I **swam** three or four times a week when I was working in Bristol.*
(or: I usually/normally swam three or four times a week.)
('I used to swim three or four times a week' would emphasise that I no longer do it)

USED TO AND *WOULD* 402

Used to and *would* both refer to habitual actions and events in the past:

*Sandra **used to** come down here and watch me bake cakes. And she **used to** find it quite fascinating. She wanted to bake them herself but she never really knew how. And her grandmother always **used to** bake cakes and she **would** go and watch you know.*

However, with *would*, it is necessary to have an already established past time-frame. The past time-frame is often established by a previous occurrence of *used to* (as in the example above) or by time adverbial expressions (e.g. *years ago*, *when I was a child*):

*When I was a kid we**'d** always go to my aunt's house in the holidays.*

Would is not used to refer to states in the past which are no longer true:

*Our village hall **used to** be a school years ago.*
(~~Our village hall would be a school years ago.~~)

[pointing to a house]
A: *See that cottage on the right?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *I **used to** live there.*
(~~I would live there.~~)

OTHER MODAL VERB PHRASES 403

Some common idiomatic verb phrases carry modal meanings. These include *be to*, *be going to*, *had better*, *have (got) to* and *would rather*. These verbs have no non-tensed forms and cannot be preceded by other modal verbs or auxiliary verbs (except for *have to* without *got*; 403d):

*She **was to** have met a gentleman friend at Southampton. He did not show up.*
(*be to*, referring to a fixed or pre-decided event)

*I thought I **had better** warn you now. Before you get too hopeful.*
(*had better*, referring to a desired or preferable course of action)

*I**'ve got to** photocopy these stories.*
(*have got to*, referring to an obligation)

*I**'d rather** you came at three-thirty instead of four, if you could.*
(*would rather*, referring to a preferred state of affairs)

Be to 403a

Uses

Be to is rare in informal conversation, and only occurs in rather formal spoken contexts such as meetings. It is used for directives, and to talk about events in the future which are fixed, desirable or hypothetical.

Directives

Be to can be used to express orders and instructions:

*The orders **are to** be carried out without delay.*
(must be carried out)

[sign on a door]
*This door **is to** remain locked at all times.*

[business meeting; speaker A is announcing agreed actions]
A: *Rob **is to** look at it and Ann Pascoe **to** look at it and formal comments to be collated and sent back to David.*
B: *And one month for that.*
A: *Er, yeah.*
B: *I think that's safest.*

In the negative, *be to* can be used to prohibit or forbid something:

*He **is not to** be disturbed, Jackie instructed. He is sleeping. Let him sleep. He **is to** see **no one**.*
(He must not be disturbed.)

[parent scolding a small child]
*Come here! You**'re not to** do that!*

Fixed events

Be to is used to refer to fixed or pre-decided events, or things destined to happen:

*The first opera ever to be staged in England **is to** be recreated to celebrate its 300th anniversary.*

[about planned changes to telephone charges]
*International calls **are to** cost an average 10 per cent less – up to 20 per cent cheaper in some cases.*
(this has been decided/is destined to happen)

[about someone who died just after retiring from work]
*He'd hoped to travel and see the world in his retirement but it **wasn't to** be.*
(was not destined to happen)

What is desirable

Be to is used to refer to necessary or desired states of affairs:

*Children need access to a healthy diet if they **are to** achieve their full potential, whether physically or mentally.*
(… if it is desirable/considered necessary that they achieve, or if it is the goal that they achieve …)

[university literature seminar]
*The text is fiction, and **is to** be read as such.*

Hypothetical future

The subjunctive form *were to* (and its more informal alternative *was to*, used with singular subjects) can be used to refer to a hypothetical future:

*I'd hate it if anything **were to** happen to them.*
(or: I'd hate it if anything happened to them/if anything should happen to them.)

*I suppose if I **was to** be honest, I'd have to say no to it.*
(more informal)

159e on **subjunctive *were***

Be going to 403b

Be going to may be used to make firm predictions based on evidence at the time of speaking:

[looking at a very cloudy, dark sky]
*It**'s going to** rain any minute now.*

*I don't think there**'s going to** be any problem at all.*

*They rang me to say it **was going to** cost £300, so I decided not to do it.*

In this meaning, it is very similar to the predictive meaning of *will*. However, *be going to* is not used when predictions or announcements about the future are hypothetical and remote from present reality:

*If we win the lottery, we**'ll** buy a big house in Italy.*
('If we win the lottery, we're going to buy a big house in Italy' suggests there is a reasonable chance or hope of winning)

*If you're looking for good restaurants in Waltisham, you**'re going to** be disappointed.*
(*going to* suggests the listener may indeed be expecting to find good restaurants)

Had better 403c

Had better refers to desirable or advisable actions in particular situations. It is particularly common in spoken language and is normally contracted to *'d better* in informal contexts. The verb form is always *had*, not *have*:

[the phone rings]
A: ***I'd better*** *answer that.*
B: *Okay.*

[looking at the clock]
*If that's the right time, we****'d better*** *hurry.*
(~~We have better hurry.~~)

✪ *Had better* is not used to refer to general obligations or requirements. In such cases, *have to* is used instead:

You ***have to*** *get good exam grades to get into university.*
(~~You'd better get good exam grades to get into university.~~)

Had better is not used to express preferences:

A: *Would you like a coffee?*
B: ***I'd better*** *just have a cold soft drink. I won't be able to sleep otherwise.*
(this means: it is advisable/desirable that I have a soft drink; it does not mean 'I'd prefer a soft drink')

The negative of *had better* is *had better not*. It can be used to advise or to warn:

*We****'d better not*** *stay too late tonight. We've got to be up at six tomorrow morning.*

*You****'d better not*** *tell Rachel. She'll be scandalised.*

The interrogative of *had better* is formed by inversion of subject and *had*:

Shall I phone through or ***had I better*** *write?*

Negative interrogatives are much more common than affirmative ones:

Hadn't you better *warn them?*

Occasionally, *had best* may occur as an alternative to *had better*:

She ***had best*** *talk to their lawyers before saying too much.*

*I thought perhaps it was me, perhaps I'd been a bit rude, you know. So I thought I****'d best*** *apologise really.*

Have to, have got to 403d

Uses

Have (got) to has similar meanings to *must*, referring to obligation and deductions. The most frequent uses are for obligation.

Obligation

Have to and the less formal *have got to* are used to refer to obligations which come from outside of the speaker. *Have got to* is far more frequent in spoken language than *have to*:

> [talking about working hours]
> *I **have to** be in at six every morning.*
>
> *I'll be back in a minute. I**'ve** just **got to** make a phone call.*
>
> *We**'ve got to** stay over a Saturday night to get the cheap flight.*
>
> ***Have** you **got to** get up early tomorrow?*

Have got to does not have a non-tensed form and may not be preceded by other modals or auxiliary verbs. *Have to*, without *got*, may be used in a variety of forms:

> *I may be free. I**'ll have to** check my diary.*
> (~~I'll have got to check my diary.~~)
>
> ***Do** we **have to** go down to Devon on Tuesday?*
> (~~Do we have got to go down to Devon on Tuesday?~~)
>
> *People want to use technology without **having to** be aware of it, which is still a major problem for the Web experience as a whole.*
> (~~People want to use technology without having got to be aware of it, …~~)

When future obligations and arrangements are already fixed and agreed, the present tense of *have (got) to* is preferred, rather than *will have to*:

> *I**'ve got to** go to the dentist at half past ten tomorrow.*
> (an arrangement/obligation already fixed)
>
> *I've chipped a bit off one of my teeth. I**'ll have to** go to the dentist.*
> (obligation which will be fulfilled in the future; no arrangement is yet made)

Interrogative

The interrogative of *have got to* is formed by subject-verb inversion:

> ***Have you got to** do it all again?*

The interrogative of *have to* is formed most commonly with auxiliary *do* or, less commonly, in formal contexts, by subject-verb inversion:

> ***Do I have to** pay the deposit immediately?*
>
> A: *When **have you to** meet them?*
> B: *Eleven o'clock.*

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Negative

The negative of *have got to* is formed by adding *not* after *have*:

*I **haven't got to** go till five.*

The negative of *have to* is normally formed with auxiliary *do*. In rare cases, especially in formal contexts, it may occur as *have/had not to* or *haven't/hadn't to*:

*It **doesn't have to** look so perfect.*

*He **had not to** wait many minutes, however, for he soon heard her dress rustling in the hall, followed by a soft closing of the door.*
(formal, literary style)

Deductions

Have (got) to is also used, though less frequently, to make deductions or draw logical conclusions. In this meaning it is similar to *must*:

[looking for a particular house]
*He said a white house next to the village shop. Er, this **has got to** be it.*
(or: This must be it.)

[telling a story about getting on the wrong train]
*So I said, 'Maureen, this one'll be our train,' and of course it **had to** be the wrong one. So we got off at the next stop.*
(predictably, it was the wrong one)

Have (got) to and *must* 403e

Must generally refers to obligations which originate from the speaker, and is often used to express a sense of obligation or necessity, or a directive aimed at the speaker or the listener. *Have (got) to* is generally more associated with external obligations, originating from outside of the speaker:

*I **must** buy a camera.*
(directive to oneself)

*I **have to** go back to the hospital for a scan next week.*
(external obligation)

The negatives *must not* and *don't have to/haven't got to* are quite different. *Must not* expresses prohibition or a negative directive; *don't have to/haven't got to* expresses an absence of obligation:

*You **mustn't** tell anybody what I've just told you, okay?*

*I **mustn't** forget to buy stamps when I'm in town.*

*You **don't have to** have insurance, but you would be wise to buy some.*

*I **haven't got to** go to Oxford next week. They've cancelled the meeting.*

394b for the negative of *must*

Don't have to can occasionally be used to reproach someone or to tell them not to do something. In this usage, it is less direct than *must not*:

*You **don't have to** shout!*
(Stop shouting.)

To make logical deductions, both *must* and *have (got) to* may be used (394 and 403d). *Must* is more frequent than *have to* in this meaning.

Would rather 403f

Would rather says that one state of affairs is preferable to another. In both its full form and the contracted form, *'d rather*, it occurs most commonly with *I*. *Would rather* has two different constructions.

Same subject

When the subject is the same person in both clauses, *would rather* is followed by a verb in the base form:

*I'**d rather be** a waiter than a barman.*

*He felt he'**d rather do** something useful than sit about.*

✪ *Would rather* is not used with an *-ing* form or a *to*-infinitive:

[speaking of a jacket with two buttons]
*I didn't know it had two buttons, you know. I'**d rather have** three.*
(~~I'd rather having/to have three~~.)

*I'**d rather stay** here than **travel** any further tonight.*
(~~I'd rather to stay here than to travel any further tonight~~.)

References to the past may be expressed with *would rather* plus a perfect infinitive form:

*The people **would rather have died** than let the old-style conservatives back into power again.*

The negative is formed by adding *not* after *rather*:

A: *If you get a job anyway, you'll probably get a car won't you?*
B: *Yeah. Well, I don't know. I'**d rather not** have a car.*
A: *Oh, what, environmental pollution?*
B: *Yeah.*

*I'**d rather not** say what I really think about him.*

Different subjects

Would rather may also be followed by a clause containing a different subject. In this case, *would rather* is followed by a finite clause with the verb in past subjunctive form (159e):

*I'**d rather** she **came** on Tuesday than Monday.*

*I'**d rather** it **were** this way.*

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The negative occurs in the finite clause, not attached to *would rather*:

*I**'d rather** you **didn't** say anything about it at all.*
(~~I'd rather not you said anything about it at all.~~)

In very informal usage, an object pronoun + infinitive without *to* construction may occur:

*I**'d rather him tell** her the news than me.*
(more formal equivalent: I'd rather he told her the news than me.)

Reduced responses

Would rather not is frequently used in reduced responses:

A: *Do you want to go with Charlie?*
B: *I**'d rather not**, if you don't mind.*

With *much*

Would rather may be intensified with *much*:

*I**'d much rather** be at home than here.*

Declining requests

Would rather not or *would rather* + a negative reduced finite clause are often used to decline invitations or requests:

A: *Will you have another cup of coffee?*
B: *I**'d rather not**, if you don't mind. It keeps me awake.*

A: *Would it be okay if he left his things here?*
B: *Well I**'d rather he didn't**. Er, there's not much room.*

Would sooner and *would just as soon* 403g

A less frequent alternative form of *would rather* is *would sooner*:

*I don't really want to spend my holidays with the family. I**'d sooner** be with friends.*

An even less frequent alternative form is *would just as soon*:

*If it's okay with you, Lee, I**'d just as soon** leave now. I'm not very hungry any more.*

OTHER MODAL EXPRESSIONS WITH *BE* 404

A range of expressions with *be* have modal meanings. These include:

be about to	*be due to*	*be supposed to*
be able to	*be likely to/that*	*be sure to*
be bound to	*be meant to*	
be certain to	*be obliged to*	

*She's obviously very upset so she**'s bound to** say that.*

***Aren't** they **meant to** be at the restaurant by now?*

*There **was supposed to** be a sale here yesterday.*

The most important of these are dealt with in **404a–404h**.

Be about to 404a

Be about to refers to things which are arranged or destined to happen very soon after the time of speaking:

[public announcement from the buffet car on a train]
*We would like to advise all passengers that the third and final sitting of breakfast **is** now **about to** start. Any further passengers who require breakfast, you are advised to take your seats in the restaurant car now.*

Be about to frequently occurs with *just*:

*We**'re just about to** go and have something to eat. Would you like to join us?*

The negative of *be about to* may refer to things which are not destined to happen, but it also less frequently has the meaning of 'not prepared to/not willing to':

*Don't worry, I**'m not about to** break down into floods of tears. I've cried enough for Rick. It's time for me to get on with my life.*

*Mrs Green was seen to pale and it was clear that she **was not about to** open the envelope in the presence of witnesses.*
(was not prepared/willing to open the envelope)

Be able to 404b

Be able to often means the same as *can* when referring to abilities (381), but it is much less common. It is often used in situations where *can* is not grammatically possible:

*I might not **be able to** get an eyesight test for tomorrow.*
(~~I might not can get an eyesight test for tomorrow.~~)

*Will you **be able to** carry that big box all on your own?*

[giving directions]
***Can** you see that white building down there? It's just next to that.*
(preferred to: Are you able to see that white building …?)

The negative of *be able to* is formed with *not* or (more formally) with *unable*:

[university science lecture]
*The virus **is no longer able to** attach to a target cell. It**'s** therefore **not able to** cause an infection.*

*We have**n't been able to** contact her, I'm afraid.*

*Did anybody ask you why you **were unable to** attend?*

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Be bound to 404c

Be bound to means 'be very certain to', and expresses strong predictions or inevitability:

*You'll have to remind me to bring that book. I**'m bound to** forget otherwise.*

*She had to go through two lots of X-rays. It **was bound to** be painful for her.*

The negative of *be bound to* for making predictions is *be bound not to*, but it is very rare:

[predicting the result of a sports competition between England and Scotland; *scrape a win* means win by a narrow margin; *two legs* means two separate events; *stroll it* means win easily]
*England will probably scrape a win over two legs, but they will not stroll it and it**'s bound not to** be pretty.*

Be bound to also less frequently has a meaning of 'be obliged to'; the negative form *not bound to* usually means 'not obliged to/not committed to':

*I**'m bound to** admit that there could be serious problems.*

*I**'m not bound to** deliver a lecture on my family affairs, I have not undertaken to do it, and I'm not going to do it.*

Be due to 404d

Be due to refers to things which are fixed or destined to happen within or at a determined or known time after the time of speaking:

*Britain's second child prison **is due to** open next month.*

*I**'m due to** retire next year.*

The negative of *be due to* is formed with *not* attached to *be*:

*She had only just settled a £136 bill for the last quarter and **was not due to** receive another one until mid-October.*

Be likely to/that 404e

Be likely to/that means that something is probable:

A: *When **are** you **likely to** hear about the Chicago job?*
B: *I haven't been for the interview yet.*
A: *Oh. Right.*

A: *I'm in every afternoon.*
B: *All right.*
A: *The only time I**'m likely to** be out is say between ten and twelve.*

*Accidents **are likely to** happen, of course.*

Be likely is normally used with a preparatory *it* subject when followed by a *that*-clause:

[text about global warming]
It is *also* ***likely that*** *global rainfall patterns will shift away from the subtropical areas towards higher latitudes, so disrupting present agricultural patterns.*

Preparatory *it* is not used with the *to*-infinitive construction:

*I****'m likely to*** *be out most of tomorrow.*
(~~It's likely for me to be out most of tomorrow.~~)

The negative of *be likely to/that* is formed either with *not* or, in more formal contexts, with *unlikely*:

[doctor reassuring a patient about possible side-effects of a medication]
*In fact they're not very common but they're recorded, and I can't say whether it'll happen to you or not. Statistically they****'re not likely to*** *happen to you.*

Then we should say goodbye to the people with whom we were travelling and it ***was unlikely that*** *we should see any of them again.*

This opportunity ***is unlikely to*** *occur again.*

Be likely is often used comparatively, with *more*, *most*, *less* and *least*:

[*Blockbuster* is a chain of video rental shops]
A: *We****'re more likely to*** *get what we want at Blockbuster cos er they've got like fifteen thousand of every film, don't they.*
B: *Oh yeah.*

A: *So if you practise deep breathing exercises you****'re less likely to*** *get a chest infection. Is that right?*
B: *Yes.*

Other verbs with modal meanings, such as *seem* and *look*, can be used instead of *be* with *likely to/that*:

This year, pre-tax profits ***seem likely to*** *fall to £165 million or less before recovering next year.*

[referring to the European single currency, the Euro]
There seemed plenty of time for EU member governments to rein in inflation and put fiscal houses in order before the single currency was launched. It also ***seemed likely that*** *only seven or eight countries would join initially.*

[weather forecast]
The south of England ***looks likely to*** *escape today's wintry showers.*

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Be meant to 404f

Be meant to refers to things which are destined, or generally accepted to be true:

I thought we were going to marry each other, but it ***wasn't meant to*** *be.*
(it was not destined to happen)

[talking about ghosts]
A: *Animals are more sensitive aren't they? Bob's dog has a fit when the ghost comes out. It goes and hides under the bed. Or has a massive barking fit. Animals* ***are meant to*** *be able to see them before humans can.*
B: *Yeah.*
(it is generally accepted that animals can see them before humans can)

Be meant to can also refer to what is desirable, necessary or intended:

*We****'re meant to*** *reply before the end of the month.*
(it is desired or necessary)

[university lecturer explaining a difficult poem in a literature class]
It's intentionally fragmented. It ***is meant to*** *be difficult. Everything you're doing* ***is meant to*** *be difficult. It's suggesting something about the difficulty of modern living, in the sense that it's all fragmented. The poem's fragmented but life has become fragmented as well.*
(it is intended to be difficult)

We were back here two hours before we ***were meant to*** *be.*

The negative is *not meant to*. It typically means 'not supposed to/not intended to':

It was ***not meant to*** *be a criticism.*

Be obliged to 404g

Be obliged to normally refers to obligations originating outside of the speaker. It occurs mostly in formal contexts:

Washington, spacious and green, is a cosmopolitan and pleasing city. People still come here because they ***are obliged to****; they stay on because they have come to love the place.*

*When you're on a pedestrian crossing, the driver****'s*** *legally* ***obliged to*** *stop.*

The negative form *not obliged to* means that something is not necessary or obligatory:

You ***are not obliged to*** *answer.*

The negative form *obliged not to* means that something must not be done/is prohibited:

You ***are obliged not to*** *inform anyone of this decision.*

Be supposed to 404h

Be supposed to refers to what is planned or expected to happen, or to duties and obligations:

*Ben**'s supposed to** be here at half past ten.*
(it is planned or expected)

*They didn't give me a tax code. As a casual employee **I'm supposed to** have a casual-employee tax code.*
(referring to a duty or an obligation)

In the negative, *be supposed to* can refer to things which are prohibited or unadvisable. The negative form is *not supposed to*:

*You**'re not supposed to** put the coffee-pot in the dishwasher.*

Be supposed to can also refer to what is generally believed to be true:

***Isn't** dark chocolate **supposed to** be good for you?*

OTHER VERBS WITH MODAL USES 405

Expressing possibility, etc. 405a

Other common verbs which express modal meanings of possibility and likelihood, especially with a first person singular subject, include:

appear	*guess*	*seem*
believe	*know*	*sound*
expect	*look*	*suppose*
feel	*promise*	*tend*
gather	*reckon*	*think*

*I **gather** she may be back Sunday.*
(I believe it is true, based on what I have been told)

*I **guess** the bus service isn't too good, is it?*
(I suppose/it is likely that …)

*The final next week **promises** to be an exciting match.*
(is likely to be/has the potential to be)

*Anyway, I **reckon** I'd better be going.*
(I think …)

*She **seems** to be quite clever for her age.*
(it is reasonable to believe that from the evidence)

*It doesn't make any sense at all, Diane. It **sounds** a load of rubbish.*
(typically refers to what someone has said or written: conclusion based on the evidence)

539 **Glossary** for any unfamiliar terms

Appear, *feel*, *look*, *seem* and *sound* occur frequently with dummy *it* as subject:

*It **appears** there was a technical fault.*

*It **feels** as if they're all criticising me.*

*It **looks** like you didn't get very much sleep last night.*

*It **seems** as if you put these papers in the wrong order.*

*It **sounds** as if she's going to retire soon.*

Tend to is increasingly heard in everyday spoken language to refer to what is typically true or to habitual actions:

[hairdresser asking customer how she likes to have her hair]
*Do you **tend** to like to have it forward like that, swept over, with a bit down, like that?*

*I **tend** to like to save my money and spend it when I go to London.*

There is considerable flexibility in the complementation patterns allowed with these verbs, though there are restrictions, sometimes determined by degrees of formality.

Typical complementation patterns

+ *to*-infinitive	(*to* sb) + *that*-clause	+ *like* + clause (informal)	+ *as if* + clause
*It **appears to be** an error.*	*It **appears that** I have some apologising to do.*		[describing a new audio system] *It makes the music **appear as if** it's coming from behind you.*
	*They **feel that** they have caused a lot of trouble.*	*He **felt like** he was coming into his own house as a guest.*	*I **feel as if** I ought to say something to her.*
*The police **look to have** lost control of the crowd.*		*It **looks like** we'll need another day to get through everything.*	*It **looks as if** he's lost something.*
*They **seem to have** caused a lot of trouble.*	*It **seems (to me) that** they need a lesson in politeness.*	*It **seems like** you were right all along.*	*It **seems as if** everything is going wrong.*
	*It **sounds to me that** the sort of theology you're describing is one in which religion is getting out of the churches and into people's homes.*	*It **sounds like** we should think again.*	*It **sounds as if** we're getting a pay rise after all.*

Expressing obligation, etc. 405b

Other common verbs which express modal meanings of obligation, necessity, etc. include:

allow	*involve*	*permit*
demand	*let*	*prohibit*
entail	*make*	*require*
forbid	*mean*	*want*
force	*necessitate*	

Living so far from work ***means*** *gett**ing** up really early and driving for an hour.*
(makes it necessary to get up early; always followed by *-ing* or a noun)

All these evaluations and appraisals just ***mean*** *more paperwork for us and more bureaucracy.*

The weather has ***necessitated*** *a change in plans.*
(formal)

[university lecturer in an applied linguistics class; the first four skills are reading, writing, speaking and listening]
The fifth skill is the skill of thinking, processing, negotiating with the language. The skill that ***requires*** *the student, the reader, to go beyond the referential meaning and bring his or her own meaning to the text.*

Force and *make* are often used in the passive, with meanings referring to actions made obligatory by external agents:

*It's not much of a holiday if you****'re forced to*** *walk two miles every morning for breakfast … but I suppose it keeps you fit.*

I remember swimming lessons at school when we ***were*** *all* ***made to*** *jump into a freezing cold outside swimming pool.*

A–Z **51 *Make***, where the uses with and without *to* are described

Want + *to*-infinitive is used in informal contexts with a modal meaning of *should/ought to* or *need*:

[talking about how important it is that young people both plan for the future and train for the future too]
At that age you need to think of both things. You ***want to be*** *looking ahead and you* ***want to be*** *improving your skills as well.*

[preparing a drink for a party]
Put some more sugar in. It doesn't ***want to taste*** *bitter.*

[post-office assistant, taking a package from a customer; *first class* is a fast, more expensive system of delivery]
That one ***wants to go*** *first class. Right.*

Want + -ing is used in informal contexts with a meaning similar to *need*:

*My hair **wants** cutt**ing**.*

*The whole living room really **wants** redecorat**ing**.*

MODAL NOUNS, ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS 406

Several nouns, adjectives and adverbs can express modal meanings. These include:

clear(ly)	*likelihood/likely*	*supposed(ly)*
definite(ly)	*obvious(ly)*	*sure(ly)*
doubtless	*seeming(ly)*	*undoubted(ly)*

Sometimes the same meaning can be expressed in all three word classes:

Nouns, adjectives and adverbs with modal meanings

noun	adjective	adverb
appearance	*apparent*	*apparently*
certainty	*certain*	*certainly*
evidence	*evident*	*evidently*
inevitability	*inevitable*	*inevitably*
necessity	*necessary*	*necessarily*
possibility	*possible*	*possibly*
probability	*probable*	*probably*

*He took aim and fired, but it was a difficult shot with no **certainty** of success.*

*There was no **evidence** that he had been there or done any work.*

*The most **likely** outcome will be a compromise.*

*There's not **necessarily** only one way of doing these things.*

*Would it be **possible** for me to have a copy of the document?*

*I can **probably** finish the repair work by Friday, if that's all right.*

A less frequent use of *likely* (but one which is quite common in North American English) is as an adverb:

*A heavy week for economic data will **likely** keep trading cautious.*

FOR CERTAIN, FOR DEFINITE, FOR SURE 407

The expressions *for certain*, *for definite* and *for sure* are also frequently used. *For definite* and *for sure* are especially common in informal speech. *For certain* usually occurs with the verb *know*:

A: *Did he say **for definite** whether he's coming next week?*
B: *I'm not sure. I'll ask him again.*

*After a journey like that, I won't be flying in a two-seater plane again, that's **for sure**.*

*Do you **know for certain** that the bus is at ten?*

Speech acts

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Speech acts

INTRODUCTION 408

This chapter (408–423) is concerned with interpersonal meanings of grammar, that is, how language enables us to get things done by ourselves or by others.

The term speech act refers to what the speaker or writer is doing in uttering a particular form of words. For example, an imperative form such as *Come here!* usually has the meaning of directing the listener to act in a certain way, and a clause such as *Can you pass me that book?* is likely to be a request to someone actually to pass the book, rather than an enquiry about the person's physical ability. Speech acts are concerned with the speaker's intention rather than the content-meaning of the utterance.

In everyday written and spoken interactions, common speech acts occur such as informing, directing, questioning, requesting, exemplifying, offering, apologising, complaining, suggesting, promising, permitting, forbidding, predicting and so on.

Speech acts may be divided into five broad types:

- Constatives:

  The speaker asserts something about the truth of a proposition, associated with acts such as: affirming, claiming, concluding, denying, exclaiming, maintaining, predicting, stating beliefs.

- Directives:

  The speaker intends to make the hearer act in a particular way, associated with acts such as: advising, asking, challenging, commanding, daring, forbidding, insisting, instructing, permitting, prohibiting, questioning, requesting, suggesting, warning.

- Commissives:

  The speaker commits to a course of action, associated with acts such as: guaranteeing, offering, inviting, promising, vowing, undertaking.

- Expressives (or acknowledgements):

  The speaker expresses an attitude or reaction concerning a state of affairs, associated with acts such as: apologising, appreciating, complimenting, condemning, congratulating, regretting, thanking, welcoming.

- Declarations:

  The speaker performs the speech act solely by making the utterance, for example: *I pronounce you man and wife*; *I declare this meeting closed*; *I name this ship x*.

This chapter focuses particularly on directives and commissives, as these are the speech acts in which grammatical choices figure most prominently, especially involving modal verbs and clause types (e.g. declarative versus interrogative).

The chapter describes how the clause structure contributes to different kinds of speech act (such as statements, questions, directives, etc.) (410). We also consider the role of modal verbs in constructing speech acts such as requesting (*Would you hold this for me?*), offering (*I'll carry that for you*), promising (*I'll buy you one for your birthday*), suggesting (*We could stay in a bed-and-breakfast place*), permitting (*You can stay up till ten o'clock*), and so on (411–420).

There are also verbs, referred to as speech act verbs, which a speaker can use to label a speech act explicitly (*I* ***promise*** *you I'll be there*; *He* ***denied*** *that he was involved in any way*) (422). When these are used actually to perform the speech act (e.g. *I apologise*), they are called performative verbs (422a).

The way speech acts are realised also involves politeness and the efforts speakers make to avoid loss of face, or dignity, for themselves and their interlocutors. For instance, a speaker who says *I* ***was wondering*** *if I* ***could*** *have a word with you?* will be heard as less direct, more polite and less imposing than one who says *I* ***wonder*** *if I* ***can*** *have a word with you*, which in turn is more polite and less imposing than someone who says *I* ***want to*** *have a word with you*. Tense and aspect choices are therefore also implicated in speech acts (423).

On the larger scale, speakers need to perform functions such as opening conversations, closing them, making sure they get their turn to speak, and so on. These are referred to in passing in this chapter (423d) and are dealt with in greater detail in **104–122 From discourse to social contexts**.

Speech acts can only be interpreted in context, and so it is often necessary to use quite long examples to illustrate how particular acts are realised, especially in face-to-face conversation, where speech acts such as requests, invitations, advice, etc. have to be carefully negotiated between speakers and listeners and are not necessarily realised in one phrase or clause.

Although we also exemplify speech acts in written texts, and although there are a potentially huge number of possible speech acts which could be discussed, our emphasis in this chapter will be on the performance of the most common, everyday, frequent speech acts which occur in spoken contexts, using grammatical resources. We focus particularly on those speech acts which are interactive, involving getting others to act in a particular way.

Typical speech acts which occur in academic contexts are covered in **140–154 Grammar and academic English**.

WAYS OF REALISING SPEECH ACTS 409

Principally, speech acts are realised using the following resources:

- formulaic utterances (fixed expressions conventionally associated with particular speech acts): greetings such as *Hi*, *Goodbye*; expressions of reaction to events such as *Congratulations*, *Gosh!*, *Sorry*, *Excuse me*, *Pardon*.
- explicit lexical items (speech-act verbs or speech-act nouns) to perform or to label the speech act: *I* ***pronounce*** *you man and wife*; *My* ***advice*** *is not to use olive oil*.

- syntax (e.g. clause types, tense and aspect choices): *Was I surprised!* as an exclamation; ***Did*** *you want to say something?* as a polite invitation to someone to take the speaking turn.
- modal constructions (typically modal verbs): ***Can*** *I get you a drink?* uttered as an offer; *You* ***must*** *be patient* as a directive.
- prosodic means: a declarative clause plus rising intonation may indicate a question rather than a statement, e.g. A: *You'll be arriving late?* B: *Yes*.

CLAUSE TYPES AND SPEECH ACTS 410

The chapter **Clause types** (**290–303**) described the basic types of clause. The clause types most directly correspond to common speech acts as shown in the table below.

Typical correspondences between clause types and speech acts

clause type	typical speech act	examples
declarative	statement	*He works in Barsham.*
interrogative	question	*How long did it take?*
imperative	directive	*Put it all in a pile here.*
exclamative	exclamation	*How nice you look!*

However, such a direct correspondence is not always the case, and the clause types, especially declarative and interrogative, are used to perform other speech acts too, as shown in the table below.

Other possible correspondences between clause types and speech acts

clause type	possible speech acts	examples
declarative	question	A: *So you're going to be here about quarter past?* B: *Yeah quarter past, twenty past, yeah.*
	command	*You sit there.*
	offer	*I'll hold that for you.*
	exclamation	*There's a rat!*
interrogative	command	*Will you be quiet!*
	request	*Could you carry this for me?*
	intensified statement, or exclamation	*Was I embarrassed when I realised what had happened!* (I'm telling you I *was* embarrassed)
imperative	warning about a particular course of action	*Do that again and I'm going to smack you.*
	offer	*Have a banana.*

Declarative clauses functioning as questions 410a

A declarative clause may function in context as a question. Although these are less frequent than interrogative questions, a common type of declarative question is when a speaker checks an assumption or inference drawn from the ongoing conversation. Initial *so* and/or final *then* are common in such questions:

[speaker A is recounting how an elderly relative has found a good place to live in her old age]
A: *It's a little terraced house. And sort of very old fashioned but spotlessly clean and very cosy.*
B: *Oh well.*
A: *New kitchen new what not.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *And a thousand and something a month.*
B: *Yeah.* ***So you're pleased****?*
A: *Oh I'm relieved. Yes. Yes.*

A: ***So you had a good day at work then****?*
B: *Yes it was all right.*

The declarative question may also be used as a comprehension check:

[speaker A is on the phone to a printing company to check on the progress of a print job]
A: *I'm ringing just to see if everything was okay with the job when Dave got it opened up and printing out and everything.*
B: *Ah. No, he said this morning there were some fonts missing, Chris.*
A: ***There were some fonts missing****?*
B: *Yes.*

430 Declarative questions on the intonation of declarative questions

Modal verbs and interrogative clauses as directives 410b

Because the bare imperative is considered extremely forceful and in many cases impolite in English, many directive speech acts (commands, instructions, requests, etc.) involve interrogative clauses and modal verbs:

Will you *look at your handouts, now, please.*

Can you *shut that door?*

These will be dealt with more fully in **412–413**.

Interrogative clauses as exclamations 410c

Occasionally, clauses with affirmative or negative interrogative structure can also be used as exclamations:

[speaker is recounting a long and problematic journey]
Oh God, ***was I*** *exhausted by the time I got home!*

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[looking at a small child]
Gosh! ***Hasn't she grown****!*

Sometimes life played cruel tricks … ***Didn't it just****!*

Imperative clauses as offers and invitations 410d

Friendly offers and invitations, which are commissive speech acts (417–419), often occur in the imperative form:

A: ***Have*** *another drink.*
B: *Oh, no thanks, I've had enough thanks.*

A: ***Come*** *and see us some time if you're in the area.*
B: *Mm, yeah, that'd be nice. I will.*

MODAL EXPRESSIONS AND SPEECH ACTS 411

When modal expressions concerned with necessity, obligation, permission, etc. (377–407 Modality) are used in declarative and interrogative clauses, they often function as directives (realising speech acts such as commanding, instructing, suggesting, advising, warning, requesting) and commissives (promising, offering, inviting).

The modal verbs *can/could*, *will/would*, *shall/should*, *may/might*, *must*, *ought to* are used frequently in this way:

[swimming instructor to learner]
You ***shouldn't*** *be looking at me Joseph, you* ***should*** *be looking out of the window.*
(*should* is heard as a directive: the swimmer must do what the instructor says)

Could *you just hang on a second, Joan?*
(*could* is heard as a directive; Joan can hardly refuse to do what the speaker asks)

*Here, I****'ll*** *carry that for you.*
(*'ll* is heard as an offer)

*We****'ll*** *get it done for you by Friday, no problem.*
(*'ll* is heard as a promise)

It is not just which modal verb is used but which clause type it occurs in that affects the speech act being performed. In the subsequent sections on modal verbs (412–420), declarative and interrogative uses are distinguished as the speech acts they signal may vary.

Each type of speech act is described in terms of its modal verb choices and its occurrence in declarative and interrogative clauses.

MODALITY AND DIRECTIVES (COMMANDS, REQUESTS, ADVICE) 412

Directives are speech acts where the speaker intends the listener to act in a particular way.

In sections **413–416**, we divide directives into the more direct type (commands, instructions) on the one hand and the more indirect type (warnings, requests, advice, suggestions, permissions) on the other hand, and we look at the way modal verbs are used to realise such acts.

COMMANDS, INSTRUCTIONS 413

Commands and instructions are speech acts which are intended to make the receiver act in a particular way. The person who performs the speech act usually needs to have authority to issue the command or instruction for the act to be recognised by the receiver.

Declaratives with *can* 413a

Declarative structures with *can* are occasionally used in polite commands and instructions:

[in the kitchen, to a guest holding a used plate]
You can *just leave that on the draining board. I'll wash it later.*
(note the inclusion of softener *just*)

[travel agent (A) issuing tickets to a customer (B)]
A: *That's lovely. I've actually debited your credit card.*
B: *Mm mm.*
A: *The price of it is one twenty four by two, and sixty two pounds for the little boy. So in total that's three hundred and ten pounds. And it's been debited as a telephone order.* ***If you can*** *just keep your receipt and check it against your statement.*
B: *Okay.*
(note the non-conditional polite use of *if*, which further softens the instruction)

Declaratives with *must* 413b

Must occurs in commands and instructions in declarative clauses:

[teacher (A) to class]
A: ***You must*** *be clear of what the right answer is. Because you're gonna mark some of these answers.*
B: *Do we write the answers in the book sir?*
A: *Yeah you can put your answer in the book.*

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[instructions to sales personnel at a training session]
*This part of the selling process is directed towards finding out about your client and completing the client questionnaire. With all clients **you must** attempt to complete all relevant areas of the questionnaire. This includes gathering hard facts, date of birth, marital status, dependants, hobbies and so on.*

[university tutor to student, discussing how long she will have to study to get her PhD]
*I think **you must** aim for three years.*
(note the softener *I think*)

✪ *Must* in directives is very strong in English, and should be used with care, especially in contexts such as suggesting and advising. It is normally only used in directives by people in positions of power and authority, and even then may be softened (e.g. the university tutor's use of *I think* in the example above).

Declaratives with *will* and *shall* 413c

Declaratives with *will* occur in commands in very formal styles, but are rare in everyday conversation:

*'You can't come in here. Who asked you in? **You will** please leave, this minute.' We protested, naturally, …*

Declaratives with *shall* occur in very formal contexts, and in archaic, literary styles to express commands:

*'Arthur, you must repent!' cried I, in a frenzy of desperation, throwing my arms around him and burying my face in his bosom. '**You shall** say you are sorry for what you have done!'*
'Well, well, I am.'

*There Fanny, **you shall** carry that parcel for me – take great care of it – do not let it fall; it is a cream cheese, just like the excellent one we had at dinner.*

You're going to and *would you like to* 413d

Declarative form *you're going to/gonna* and interrogative form *would you like to* also occasionally occur as commands:

[swimming instructor to learners]
*Legs nice and straight. No knees popping out of the water. And **you're gonna** look at that window for me. I don't want anybody looking at me. Or here. You're looking up. Right. Are you ready, crocodiles? Off you go.*

[teacher to student]
***Would you like to** tell the rest of the class your own definition of what a tower block is?*

Interrogatives with *can*, *could*, *will* and *would* 413e

One way to make a directive softer or more polite is to use an interrogative structure with *can*, *could*, *will* or *would* rather than an imperative. Such interrogatives are very frequent, and even people in power and authority (e.g. superiors at the workplace) regularly soften commands and instructions in this way.

In general, *will* is heard as most direct, with *can*, *could* and *would* being heard as progressively less direct/more polite:

[mother to very small child who picks up a knife at the table]
Will you *put that down darling. That's dangerous, that is.*

[adult carer to child]
Be careful David. No! ***Can you*** *go and take that somewhere else please because you're going to break something aren't you?*

[chiropractor (A) examining a patient (B)]
A: *And how have you been Nigel? All right?*
B: *Well not too bad.*
A: ***Could you*** *raise your left leg.*
B: *Ooh.*
A: *And your right leg.*
B: *Very difficult.*
(compare the more direct: Raise your left leg.)

[chairperson at business meeting]
Shall we just look at one or two documents that you've already looked at please, ***would you*** *go to page twenty-nine.*

WARNINGS, ADVICE, SUGGESTIONS 414

Warnings are speech acts in which the speaker states the possible negative outcome of a particular course of action for the listener. The listener may choose to heed or not heed the warning.

Advice is a speech act where the speaker expresses their view of how the listener or others ought best to act to solve a problem or achieve a goal. The listener may choose to heed or not heed the advice.

Suggestions are speech acts where the speaker proposes a course of action for the listener or others, which may include the speaker. The listener may choose to take up or not take up the suggestion.

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Declaratives with *can*, *could*, *may* and *might* 414a

Can, could

Can and *could* in declarative clauses can be used to make suggestions. *Could* is generally heard as less forceful than *can* and is much more frequent. Tags often also occur:

[speakers are discussing possibilities for making framed pictures as craft items to sell]
A: ***You can*** *make little designs*.
B: ***We can*** *do like little designs to put in them* ***can't we***.
C: *Mm*.
B: *And sell them off as like individual little pictures*.

[speakers are discussing the problems of camping out, and the possibility their tents could be stolen while they were away from them; *wanna* represents the informal spoken form of 'want to']
A: *We don't wanna have to pack them up every time we go out*.
B: ***We could*** *stay in a hotel*.
A: *Mm*.

[speakers are planning how to organise a set of personal accounts]
A: *We need a register for deposits*.
B: ***You could*** *have four columns.* ***You could*** *have 'opening' 'deposit' 'withdrawal' 'closing'*.

Could always is often used in making suggestions in everyday conversation:

[speakers are discussing the need to have a guide book for a trip they are planning; *Lonely Planet* is a popular series of guide books]
A: *So we need to look at if there's a sort of basic thing about different regions*.
B: *Most probably get this from the libraries. You should have that in your Birmingham library. We've got it in Manchester.*
A: *Mm. Yeah. I'll go and get it out tomorrow.*
B: *Or* ***you could always*** *get Lonely Planet, Japan*.
A: *Yeah. Buy it*.
B: *Yeah you could*.

May

May is used in advice-giving and suggestions, most typically in the formulaic expressions *may as well* (414e), *may (well) find (that)*, *may want/wish to*:

Travellers intending to fly from Canada are likely to find that, with less competition on these routes … fares are somewhat higher than they are for flights wholly within the US. ***You may well find that*** *it's worth the effort to get to a US city first, and fly on to California from there*.

[advice to language teachers in a teaching manual]
Give students ten minutes or so to prepare and practise their conversations. Don't let them make them too long. If they come up with amusing dialogues, ***you may want*** *to let them perform for the class*.

Might

Might is also used in advice and suggestions, particularly in the routine expression *you might want to*:

[during a university linguistics class, where students are analysing English sentences; B is the tutor]
A: *Erm, there's a difficult sentence here.*
B: *I think there's an argument for thinking that's part of the verb phrase. But* ***you might*** *look at that.*

[interviewer (A), recording an interview, addressing interviewee (B)]
A: ***You might want to*** *move your chair a little bit closer.*
B: *Right.*

[advising an applicant for an educational course]
A: *The only other person I think that* ***you might want to*** *come and talk to is Patricia Matthews. Now Patricia Matthews is our finance officer. So she deals with anything to do with grants or awards. And* ***you might want to*** *come and talk to her about what are realistic options in terms of funding this course.*
B: *Right.*
A: *And it's just a question of ringing the college, making an appointment and coming to talk to Margaret.*
B: *Right.*

Negative interrogatives with *can* and *could* 414b

Can't/can not and *couldn't/could not* often occur in suggestions and advice-giving:

[talking about a houseplant with glossy leaves]
A: *A nightmare to clean, because the leaves will fall off. They're cactuses, those ones. Like, where you get all the dust.*
B: ***Can't you*** *get some sprays like anti-dust sprays?*
A: *Oh yeah I could do.*
B: *Or* ***can't you*** *just spray it with water?*

[A is complaining about travel arrangements made on his behalf by his employer; *BA* means the airline, British Airways]
A: *Stupid really. I'd rather go economy class on BA. Get there faster.*
B: *Yeah. Well did you not say that to them?* ***Can you not*** *organise your own travel a bit?*
A: *Not to get there, because I said about coming back that I'd go any way possible. Economy class or anything. But they wouldn't let me. So now I still have to come back on a different flight than Tom. First class.*

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[A notices how B's jumper has become prematurely faded]
A: *I've just noticed. Do you know what's happened to your jumper? Have you seen it?*
B: *That always happens to my jumpers.*
A: *That's dreadful though.* ***Could you not*** *send it back?*
B: *Send it back.*
A: *Yeah. Brand new isn't it?*
B: *I've only washed it once.*
A: *I'd send it back.*
B: *Would you?*
A: *Mm.*
B: *Would you really?*
A: *Mm. That shouldn't happen for years.*

Declaratives with *must* 414c

Must occurs in warnings and strong advice-giving contexts:

[A is a health visitor; speaker B has been unwell]
A: *Oh how are you? Better?*
B: *A bit better than, what was it? Last week.*
A: *Yes but you seem to be losing weight rapidly.*
B: *Well, I can only eat certain things.*
A: *I mean* ***you must*** *take care.*

A: *I can give you some oven cleaner. But the problem with it is* ***you must*** *make sure you get all of it off. And* ***they mustn't*** *use it while you're doing it because it's very strong. Don't get it on your hands either. It's really very very strong. And* ***you must*** *make sure it all washes off before they use it again.*
B: *Okay.*

Must is considerably stronger and more forceful than *should* or *could* in advice-giving contexts and is less frequent in everyday conversational contexts.

Declaratives with *should* 414d

Declaratives with *should* occur in warnings, advice and suggestions:

A: *You know* ***you should*** *never open one of these like that don't you?*
B: *Mm.*
A: *Cos someone lost their eye.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *It never ever occurred to me till I saw that programme about the number of people who've lost eyes and things.*

[speaker A is advising an out-of-work artist (B) on the best place to look for jobs]
A: *But London, I think* ***you should*** *try London.*
B: *Mm. I think you're probably right.*
A: *London's definitely the place.*
B: *I think though they would understand what I'm trying to do much more.*
A: *Mm.*

[speakers are disturbed by a beeping noise]
A: *It's the smoke alarm that's beeping.* ***We should*** *put a new battery in.*
B: *Yeah.*

[speakers are discussing a woman who has problems with her ex-partner, who keeps returning to her home despite having been told never to come back]
A: *Maybe* ***she should*** *double lock the doors.*
B: *Yeah.*

Declaratives with *may as well* and *might (just) as well* 414e

May as well and *might (just) as well* are commonly used for making suggestions in everyday conversation. *Might (just) as well* is more frequent. It is used to suggest what the speaker considers the easiest/most logical course of action:

[speaker A is about to go to the counter in a café to buy a glass of orange juice for B]
A: *Do you want ice?*
B: *Er, no I'm fine.*
A: *You sure.*
B: *Yep. That's grand.*
A: *I'm quite happy to go. I'll take that.* ***I may as well*** *take the tray back anyway.*

[speakers are discussing whether to rent a video for home viewing]
A: *They're about three quid a day to rent though, aren't they?*
B: *Mm, that's true. Yeah.*
A: ***We might as well*** *go to the cinema.*

A: ***You might as well*** *fill all the details you've got down on that front page.*
B: *Mm.*

Declaratives with *ought to* 414f

Many occurrences of *ought to* in everyday conversation are associated with suggestions and advice:

A: *Er, I think* ***we ought to*** *turn these radiators down you know.*
B: *Do you?*
C: *It is roasting hot in here isn't it.*
A: *Yeah.*

[speaker is recounting difficulties with the Health Service, concerning appointments for treatment that were repeatedly cancelled]
A: *They were amazed how many times it was cancelled and how many times I got there and didn't have physiotherapy as well.*
B: *Mm. And was there anybody there that you felt you could've spoken to?*
A: *No because I'm not the kind of person that really complains. And it was just starting to get more and more and I was getting more and more annoyed and each time I came back on the ambulance the ambulance staff were saying, 'Well this isn't good enough,* ***you ought to*** *complain.' I said, 'I just don't like complaining.'*

You want to 414g

You want to is used in informal contexts to make suggestions and to give advice:

[speaker A is complaining about poor sound-proofing in their terraced house]
A: *I realise that they can hear everything through that wall.*
B: *Oh dear.*
A: *Cos I heard Michael cough once and it was like he was sitting next to me and I thought, 'Oh my God, I mean, what can he hear?'*
B: ***You want to*** *sound-proof your room with egg boxes.*
A: *Well. No. You live in a terrace. It's a hazard of life isn't it?*
B: *Yeah. Yeah. That's true.*

(Note also the use of *want* following *may* and *might*, **414a** above)

also **421a** ***What about, what if, how about***

A–Z **75** ***Want***

Had better 414h

Had better (not) is used to give warnings and strong advice:

A: ***You'd better*** *move your car Pete cos I'm sure somebody's gonna nip in and steal that trailer. They're terrible thieves of trailers.*
B: *Oh right.*

[*lights* here refers to car headlights]
You've left your lights on. ***You'd better*** *go and turn them off.*

A: ***You'd better*** *get an early night if you're going to be up early.*
B: *Mm.*

You'd better not *post that letter.*

Had better is quite a strong expression, used when the speaker thinks there will be negative consequences if the desired action is not taken; it is not appropriate when making ordinary suggestions or recommendations:

I recommend you go to the Tokyo Tower in Shibaura. If you go to the top of the tower you will see a view of most of Tokyo. At night go to Aoyama where you can find many nice restaurants.
(~~At night you'd better go to Aoyama where you can find many nice restaurants~~.)

PERMISSIONS, PROHIBITIONS 415

Permissions are concerned with requesting and granting freedom for someone to act in a particular way.

Prohibitions deny freedom of action.

Declaratives with *can* and *may* 415a

Declaratives with *can* and *may* are used to give permission. *May* is more formal than *can*, and is rare in everyday conversation for giving permission:

*She asked if she could come and stay so I said 'Of course **you can**.'*

*Mum says **you can** eat as much fruit as you want.*

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Interrogatives with *can*, *could*, *may* and *might* 415b

Can, *could*, *may* and *might* are all used to ask for permission to do something.

Can I is the least formal and most direct, *could I* is more formal and less direct, and *may I* is the most formal and least direct of the three. *May I* to ask permission is infrequent in informal conversation. *Might I* is very formal and rare:

A: *I haven't read the complete thing at all. I've just I've kind of flicked through it and read bits and pieces.*
B: [reads the title] *'The Teaching of Languages in Linguistics'. **Can I** borrow it for a week or so? And then I'll give it back to you then.*
A: *Yeah. Sure. Absolutely.*

A: ***Could we** have this room for the next hour?*
B: *Yes, you can. Don't forget to lock it though when you've finished.*
(note the positive reply: 'Yes, you can', not 'Yes, you could', which would suggest hesitation, or perhaps that there is a problem: 'Yes you could, but it may be too small for you')

*She glanced around the kitchen, reluctant to move farther into the apartment, coming up with one more item of business to delay it a few minutes. '**May I** use your phone, Christopher? I'd like to call the shop.'*
'Sure.'

*'**Might I** speak to Mrs Lutterworth?' said Willow.*
'I am not sure that she's in. Who is it who wants her?'
'My name is Woodruffe, Cressida Woodruffe. I'm a writer and I'm doing some research for a novel about an architect.'

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Negative forms of *can*, *must* and *may* in prohibitions 415c

Prohibiting or forbidding something may be realised with *can't*, *mustn't* or (more formally) *may not*:

[speaker A is talking about learning how to use a computer]
A: *I'm finding it fascinating, cos, like I say, I knew nothing about computers. I've played on games consoles but that's it. I knew nothing about it. But of course, these computers, they tell you everything, you know, they're totally idiot-proof. You know, 'No,* ***you can't*** *do that! Press something else!' you know. So I like that. You see it's teaching me as I'm going along.*
B: *Mm.*

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[friends chatting]
A: *Everybody says every time you pass the railwaymen on the track+*
B: *They're not doing anything.*
A: *+they're standing there.*
B: *Right.*
A: *Because when the train is passing* ***they can't*** *be doing anything.*
C: *They can't, no. That's right. Yeah.*
A: *Cos the law says they've got to stand in the tunnel.*
D: *But everyone always says 'looking at them they never do any work. Look at them all chatting'.* [laughs]
A: ***You mustn't*** *be within eight foot of the train.*
B: *Ah.*

[in the classroom: teacher (A) and young pupils]
A: *Now, this is what you can do if you want to. You may do some maths if you want to. You may do your language work if you want to. If you don't want to do either of those things and you are keen on writing a story, you may write a story.*
B: *Miss, I've written a story.*
A: *Right.* [to another pupil] *No* ***you may not*** *draw a picture. This has got to do with work.*

Negative forms of *shall* and *will* in prohibitions 415d

Shall not occurs in very formal/literary contexts in acts of forbidding or prohibition. It is rare in such acts:

*'****He shall*** *not go,' she said slowly, one word at a time. 'Do you hear me? Cromwell is not going to the front.'*
'He has to. He is an officer of the King, he must do as he is ordered.'

Will not is also very formal. It is more frequent than *shall not*:

> *Then the judge folded his arms and began to speak rapidly, staring down at Frank. 'I hereby grant the exclusion order, in the name of Frank Little and Eleanor Little. You will give an undertaking to leave the jurisdiction within seventy-two hours.* ***You will not*** *return to the jurisdiction for a period of three months. Thereafter* ***you will not*** *return to the jurisdiction without prior notification to the Ministerio del Interior in writing. You will surrender your visa to the clerk of the court immediately.* ***You will not*** *approach any embassy, consulate or honorary consulate of the Popular Republic of Nicaragua for the purpose of obtaining a visa for a period of three months.'*

Would you mind and *do you mind* 415e

Would you mind and *do you mind* are most commonly followed by *if* when permission is being requested. With *would you mind* the tense in the *if*-clause may be past (more formal) or present (more informal):

> A: ***Do you mind if*** *I take my shoes off?*
> B: *No.*

> ***Would you mind if*** *one of our representatives come**s** and give**s** you a free demonstration?*

> [referring to the tape-recorder being used to record the conversation]
> ***Would you mind if*** *I turn**ed** this off just for a few minutes?*

Note that the appropriate reply to give permission is *no*, not *yes*. *Mind* means 'object', so saying *no* means 'I do not object to what you wish to do'.

> A: *Do you mind if I sit here?*
> B: ***No, not at all****. Please do.*

Less frequently, an object pronoun or noun phrase and a verb in the *-ing* form may follow *mind*:

> ***Would you mind*** *us com**ing** too?*

> ***Do you mind*** *me sitt**ing** in on the interview?*

> ***Do you mind*** *this towel be**ing** used?*

In formal contexts, a possessive pronoun may be used instead of an object pronoun:

> *'**Do you mind** my smok**ing**?' he asked. 'Oh, not at all, sir.'*

The *do*-construction with object pronoun and *-ing* form may be used to check that something is permitted or acceptable which is already happening or has already happened:

> ***Do you mind me*** *com**ing** round?*
> (could be spoken when the person is already at the place referred to)

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Turn-taking and asking for permission to speak 415f

A very frequent context for asking for permission or leave to do something in conversation is connected with turn-taking (asking if one can speak, asking a question, mentioning something, commenting on something, etc.). Very often, asking 'permission' to speak is a mere formality and the speaker speaks anyway. The request for leave to speak simply acts as a preface or softener to the taking of the turn by the speaker, or an apology for interrupting, etc. This is particularly so in more formal contexts such as meetings and interviews. *Can, could, may* and *might* often occur in these contexts:

[journalists' production meeting]
A: *Erm* ***can I*** *ask a question. With Susan's package is it possible to have a news clip as well? Cos it's in the morning.*
B: *Okay. Yeah. Yeah. Don't see why not. Yeah.*
A: *Lovely.*
B: *Okay.*

[formal meeting]
A: *I think it would have to be some time this week.*
B: *Yes. Right.*
C: *Chairman,* ***could I*** *also mention that the county council has a conference centre down in Redwood, which I think is probably bigger than this particular room, and may well also have catering facilities.*

[final question in a semi-formal research interview]
A: *And erm* ***may I*** *ask who lives in the house with you?*
B: *Yes. My husband and my youngest son.*
A: *Right. Right. Thank you. Right.*
B: *So my other sons are all away in various parts of the country.*
A: *Right. Well thank you very much indeed for talking to me about this.*
B: *Pleasure. Pleasure. Yes.*

Might I is also used to ask leave to speak or just as a preface to taking the speaking turn, but it is rare and sounds rather formal or dated:

[speaker B is an elderly speaker]
A: *His mother was a character but … she was not nice. Not nice but she had a strong character.*
B: *Mm. This reminds me.*
A: *Mm?*
B: ***Might I*** *just say this, darling, 'cos I've just remembered. I'll forget. We have a video of the last programme of the Churchill series which a friend in London very kindly made for us because we were out with her mother and couldn't see it.*
A: *Mm.*

REQUESTS 416

Requests are speech acts where the speaker desires a particular course of action from the listener, but where, unlike commands, the listener has a far greater choice whether to act in the way indicated. Requests and commands occasionally overlap, as a command may be softened by making it seem more like a request.

Interrogatives with *can*, *could*, *will* and *would* 416a

Interrogatives with *can*, *could*, *will* and *would* are very common in requests. *Could* is generally heard as more polite than *can*, and *would* is heard as more polite than *will*:

A: ***Can you*** *do a receipt in the name of Mrs M.A. Peters, please*?
B: *What name*?
A: *Mrs M.A. Peters*.
B: [writes]

[in a car; passenger to driver]
A: ***Can you*** *drop me off at the garage on Long Road*?
B: *Yeah, sure*.

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[on the phone]
A: *Before you move on+*
B: *Yeah*?
A: *+is my watch anywhere in your house*?
B: *Er, I haven't seen it but I haven't really looked for it*.
A: ***Could you*** *have a look*?
B: *What, now*?
A: *Well er where are you speaking*?
B: *In the kitchen*.
A: *Are you on your mobile*?
B: *Yeah*.
A: ***Can you*** *go and see whether it's in those jeans*?
B: *Ah, jeans. Where are they then*?
A: *They're hanging up on the rail*.
B: *Oh okay*.

A: ***Will you*** *get me a glass of water*?
B: *Yeah*.
A: *Thanks*.

[talking of a 'haunted' house]
The thing is, right, this woman had lived there before us called Sue and she lived there for eight years. And she said that the best way to control the ghost was to talk to it and just say 'Look. Look. ***Would you*** *please be quiet, I'm trying to sleep.'*

Negative declaratives with *couldn't* and *wouldn't* 416b

You couldn't and *you wouldn't* occur in polite requests, often followed by an affirmative tag. These forms often suggest a request that is non-routine in the context:

A: *Erm,* ***you couldn't*** *find a copy of 'Hamlet',* ***could you****, Ann*?
B: *Mm*?
A: *Oh sorry. Oh there's one, look. I can see it*.
(compare: 'Could you find a copy …', which would probably be heard as a more routine request)

[speakers are trying to calculate bank interest on a sum of money]
A: *It doesn't tell you how you calculate it.* ***You wouldn't*** *ring Roland and ask*?
B: *Yeah*.

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Declaratives with *might* 416c

The declarative use of *might* in requests occurs in formal styles, but is rare in everyday conversation:

*Tim decided to keep up the pressure. '**You might** tell me what this son of yours is like. I mean, does he look like a Waites? Or does he take after his mother?'*

Would you like to 416d

Would you like to is also used to request someone to do something. It is less forceful than *will you* or *would you*:

[adult carer to child]
A: *Have you finished? What did you have in there?*
B: *Juice.*
A: *Juice. Not fizzy juice.*
B: *No.*
A: *All right darling just leave it there. You're not allowed to leave anything on the table either. There. **Would you like to** go and play with your toys now? Right, you can eat those bits and no more. And then you go and play with your toys.*

Want 416e

Want in the interrogative occurs occasionally in polite directives or requests. It is frequently followed by *just*, which softens the directive:

[speakers are assembling a piece of flat-pack furniture]
A: ***Do you want** to **just** bang gently on this side here.*
B: *There?*
A: *Yeah.* [B hammers lightly on the furniture] *That's it.*

Would you mind and *do you mind* 416f

Would you mind and *do you mind* are used in polite requests. Most occurrences of *would you mind* in conversation are in requests:

[A and family are eating on their terrace; B, a guest, arrives]
A: ***Would you mind** eating out here with us?*
B: ***No**, good heavens, **no**.*

***Do you mind** speaking up, cos we can't hear you.*

Note how speaker B answers *no*, not *yes* in the first example. This is the normal, polite answer to requests with *mind* (*to mind* means 'to object', thus: No, I have no objection to, or problem with, your request.). 415e above

Note the use of the *-ing* form, not the infinitive:

***Would you mind** mov**ing** your car?*
(~~Would you mind to move your car?~~)

A–Z 53 *Mind*

MODALITY AND COMMISSIVES (OFFERS, INVITATIONS, PROMISES) 417

Commissives are speech acts where the speaker commits to a course of action; they are typically associated with offering, inviting, promising, etc.

In sections **418–420**, we look at the way modal verbs are used to realise such acts.

OFFERS 418

Offers are speech acts in which the speaker volunteers to do something beneficial for the listener (or a third party) or give something to the listener (or a third party). The listener may accept or reject the offer. Offers may be offers to do something or offers of physical things (e.g. food, drink).

Declaratives with *can* and *could* 418a

Can and *could* in declarative form may be used to make offers:

A: *Do you know Liverpool Airport at all?*
B: *Never been.*
A: *No?* ***I can*** *get directions for you. That's not a problem.*
B: *Right.*

A: *I was just wondering if I set my alarm and get up …*
B: ***I could*** *wake you up at eight if you wanted.*
A: *I was thinking if you were coming in at, like, about half ten or something, you could make sure I was up by then. But I think eight's a little, a bit excessive.*

Interrogatives with *can*, *could* and *may* 418b

Can, *could* and *may* also occur in interrogative form in offers. *Could* is more polite and indirect than *can*, and *may* is the most polite/indirect:

A: ***Can I*** *get you a cold drink?*
B: *That would be nice, thanks.*

A: *Jim's arriving at six and I'm waiting for a call from Janet.*
B: ***Could one of us*** *pick him up for you?*
A: *Well, that'd be very kind of you.*
B: *Mm. No problem.*

May I *get you something? A coffee perhaps?*

Declaratives with *'ll* 418c

Declaratives with *'ll* are commonly used in offers to do something. A tag with *shall I/will I* may accompany the offer:

[in a coffee bar, speaker B is about to go to the counter to buy drinks]
A: ***I'll*** *come and give you a hand,* ***shall I****?*
B: *Yeah.*

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A: *Sorry, what was the number?*
B: *You don't know the number?* ***I'll*** *check it now for you.*
A: *Oh right. Thanks.*

Note the use of *I'll check it now for you*, not ~~*I check it now for you*~~. The present simple form is not used to offer to do something.

The contraction *I'll/we'll* is different from *I will/we will* or *I shall/we shall*. The full forms with *will* and *shall* are not normally used to make offers. They usually express a declaration or decision that the speaker has decided or is determined or is promising to do something, and are more common in rather formal contexts:

I fear I am too old for you, but believe me ***I will*** *take more care of you than would many a man of your own age.* ***I will*** *protect and cherish you with all my strength –* ***I will*** *indeed!*

I shall *introduce her, of course, very particularly to my brother and sister when they come to us. I am sure they will like her extremely.*

Offers involving a third party may be made using *'ll* (or the full form *will*):

[speaker B is carrying a heavy suitcase]
A: ***Nick'll*** *carry that for you.*
B: *Oh thanks.*

Interrogatives with *shall* and *will* 418d

Shall I is frequently used when the speaker is offering to do something or suggesting a course of action involving the speaker:

A: ***Shall I*** *make you a drink, would you like a tea or coffee?*
B: *Erm, black coffee please.*
A: *Black coffee.*
B: *No milk no sugar. That'd be wonderful.*
A: *Right.*

[adult to children]
A: *All right. Let's read a story. How should we do it?* ***Shall I*** *sit in the middle of you? Yeah?* ***Shall I*** *sit in between you so you can both look at the story together? Is that all right?* ***How about if I*** *sit in between you?*
B: *Mm.*
(note here also: *How about if …*, which is also used for making suggestions.
421a ***What about, what if, how about*** below)

Shall we *eat out tonight?*

Will I is used in several British and Irish English dialects (ones where *shall* is rarely used, e.g. Scottish, Welsh) in offers to do something:

[friends together in an informal group]
A: ***Will I*** *take a group photograph?*
B: *No. It won't come out.* [laughter]
A: *Oh, I think I should yeah.*
C: *Yeah.*

Do you want, *will you have* and *would you like* 418e

Do you want, *will you have* and *would you like* are all used to offer physical things, especially food and drink. *Will you have* is more polite than *do you want*, and *would you like is* the most polite:

A: *Jake, **do you want** some fruit or anything now? Have some fruit, have a banana or a tangerine or something. Jake, what **would you like**? Apple? **Would you like** a banana?*
B: *Yes please.*

A: ***Would you like** some soup?*
B: *Mm, please.*

A: ***Will you have** a cup of coffee?*
B: *No thanks, no I'm alright.*

Would you like to can also be used in a way which involves the speaker more directly in an offer to do something, by adding a first person pronoun:

[customer (A) and travel agent (B)]
A: *Is there the child's discount for that one?*
B: ***Would you like me to** check on a full costing for you now?*
A: *Yes please.*
(compare: Shall I check on a full costing?/Would you like a full costing?)

Negative *don't you want*, *wouldn't you like* and *won't you have* 418f

The negative forms, *don't you want*, *wouldn't you like* and *won't you have* also occur in the context of offering things, but far less frequently than their affirmative forms. They occur mostly when the speaker thinks the listener does not want something or may be holding back (perhaps out of politeness) from accepting something:

[at the dinner table; speaker A is the hostess, B is a guest]
A: *Want some water? **Don't you want** any bread?*
B: *No, thanks.*

Won't you have also occurs in more formal contexts to make polite offers, again particularly in contexts of food and drink:

*An hour later, one of the veterans brought in a simmering samovar and a teapot. 'Maksim Maksimych,' I called from the window, '**won't you have** some tea?'*
'Thanks, I don't want any particularly'.

INVITATIONS 419

Invitations are concerned with offering someone an opportunity to do or share something (usually pleasurable) with the speaker. The listener may accept or reject the invitation.

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Would you like to 419a

Would you like to is often used to give invitations:

Katrina looked at him. 'I've got the tickets. You've met Gloria and Sophie, they're coming. ***Would you like to*** *come too?' The opera? He had never been. Opera had never appealed to him.*

A: ***Would you like to*** *come to dinner on Friday night?*
B: *Oh, I'd love to, yeah.*
(note the typical polite/friendly reply with *love to*)

Do you want to 419b

Do you want to is also used for invitations. It is less formal than *would you like to*:

[A and B are discussing plays which are on at London theatres; '*Antony and Cleopatra*' is a play by Shakespeare]
A: *And when's 'Antony and Cleopatra'? Monday?*
B: *We're going Monday.*
A: *Excellent.*
B: ***Do you want to*** *come?*
A: *I can't cos of work.*

You must and *you'll have to* 419c

You must and *you'll have to* are often used to give non-specific invitations:

A: *And* ***you must*** *come down to Barr at some stage or another.*
B: *It would be nice actually. I'd like to.*
A: *You know, for a weekend.*
B: *It would be good.*
A: *Or even a day or two.*
B: *Yeah. Yeah. I might do that.*
A: *You know. You should.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Just give me a ring, cos I won't mind.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Go out for dinner or something as well.*
B: *Perfect. That's great. Yeah.*
(note the typical friendly, positive reply to a non-specific invitation: *it would be nice/good*)

A: ***You'll have to*** *come round for a coffee.*
B: *Yeah.*

PROMISES, UNDERTAKINGS 420

Promises and undertakings are concerned with committing oneself to a particular course of action which the listener usually believes will happen. If the course of action is not followed, it will constitute a breaking of the promise.

Will, shall and *'ll* 420a

Promises and undertakings are most commonly realised by *'ll* and *will*:

*Can you lend me twenty pounds? **I'll** pay you back when I get to the bank.*

[speakers are deciding what to give family members as birthday presents]
A: *I haven't thought of anything for Raymond actually.*
B: *He's a bit complicated.*
A: ***I'll** give him fifty pounds towards his computer.*

*So see you Thursday. Don't worry, I **will** be there.*

Very rarely, *shall* occurs with *you*, but only in contexts such as promises and warnings, and only in very formal contexts:

*'When the war's over, **you shall** have clean water,' Esther promised.*

✪ The present simple form is not used to make promises and undertakings. This includes clauses which are the object of speech act verbs such as *guarantee*, *promise*, *undertake*:

***I'll** give you a call about seven o'clock.*
(~~I give you a call about seven o'clock.~~)

[teacher in a computer class addressing pupils]
*Apologies to those of you working on spreadsheets. I haven't managed to mark any of your work as yet but **I promise I'll** have it back to you by next week.*
(~~I promise I have it back to you by next week.~~)

The speech act verbs (*guarantee*, *promise*, etc.) are in the present simple in such contexts.

NON-MODAL EXPRESSIONS AND SPEECH ACTS 421

What about, what if, how about 421a

What about, *what if* and *how about* may all be used to make suggestions or give advice or make offers. They are common in everyday conversation:

*A lot of people went to the meeting and said, 'Why don't you, if you're going to have all these extra concerts and it's going to allow seven more thousand people into the ground, **what about** putting double glazing in cos of the noise?' And they wouldn't.*
(suggestion)

[deciding where to place the cooker in a new kitchen]
A: *It's going to become a little bit dangerous here.*
B: [indicating a different place] *Yeah well **what if** we had it here?*
A: *Er, well, yeah.*
(suggestion)

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[house guest to host just before dinner]
A: ***What if*** *I set the table?*
B: *Oh, thanks, yes, that'd be nice.*
(offer)

[informal student meeting: deciding times to meet again]
A: *I'm available at eleven but if it goes on past, like, twelve, I've got a tutorial at twelve so er …*
B: *No it wouldn't go past twelve.*
A: *Well that's alright then.*
B: *Right.* ***How about*** *Thursday at twelve then?*
C: *We've got a class then.*
D: *Yeah everyone's got …*
B: *Anybody want to do Thursday at nine?*
(suggestion)

In informal contexts, *how's about* occurs as an alternative to *how about*:

A: *I'll fit it around your schedule.*
B: *Oh that's very kind of you.*
A: *Erm* ***how's about*** *kind of half eight-ish?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Yeah.*

All three expressions realise other important functions too. *How about* (and to a lesser extent *what about*) is frequently used to invite someone to speak or comment, or to reciprocate a speaking turn. They are also used to raise new topics of conversation or to shift the topic to a different sub-topic:

A: *It was very interesting doing it.*
B: *It was all right was it. Yeah. Yeah. How did everybody else feel?* ***Lucy, how about*** *you?*
C: *Er, well, the same really.*

A: *Are you Norwich born and bred?*
B: *Yeah I am.* ***What about*** *you? Where were you born?*
A: *No I'm from Kent but I've lived in Wales.*

A: *I think there should be stronger government regulations to make the industry reduce the risks to the public because they are admitting there are risks.*
B: *Right.*
A: *So there should be some. That's my point of view.*
B: *But* ***how about*** *the argument that industry knows its operations better than anyone else?*

What if is also used to hypothesise or to imagine possible situations:

[friends chatting, dreaming of winning the national lottery]
A: *What do you think is a reasonable amount that you'd like to win?*
B: *A couple of million.*
C: *Enough to do you till you die.* [laughs]
A: *Planning ahead are we?* [laughs]
B: *Well that's a good amount* [laughs] *isn't it.*
A: *Mm.*
B: *But* ***what if*** *you have a short life?*
C: *Then you write a big will.* [laughs]

Why don't and *why not* 421b

Why don't

Most occurrences of *why don't* are concerned with making suggestions. Other less frequent uses include asking for reasons and issuing invitations and directives:

[friends talking about a university course which has a language-learning requirement; *TEFL* here means a qualification in teaching English as a foreign language]
A: *If I do it over two years, then I'll have to learn Russian. I'll have to do Russian.*
B: *You know, you did the English stuff,* ***why don't you*** *go and teach English in Russia. I've seen loads of jobs in the newspaper and some of them you don't need TEFL for.*
A: *Yeah. I could do.*
(suggestion)

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next utterance.
[discussing the best time to go away for a holiday]
A: *We would have that cottage which was right on the beach. So I mean we were thinking of going next weekend but it's+*
B: *Really?*
A: *+it's just the problem of this work thing. He goes to Brazil next Tuesday. So if I took off like the Monday, Tuesday, I wouldn't know what was going on.*
B: *Well* ***why don't you*** *wait until February or March.*
A: *Well, we're waiting now till Barney gets back cos he rang us the other day. He's coming back.*
B: *Oh Barney.*
A: *Yeah he's coming back for just a few weeks.*
B: *Oh great.*
(suggestion)

[speaker A is a university academic; B is an ex-student who is looking for occasional work]
A: *I could give you jobs to do in the library for me and you could save me hours and hours of work.*
B: *I'd really like to be still doing stuff like that actually. Cos I really miss that.*
A: *Well **why don't you** come up some time.*
B: *Well I will, yes.*
C: *That's a marvellous idea.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Come up in the spring when it's at its loveliest.*
(invitation)

***Why don't you** just shut up for a moment and listen to me!*
(directive)

Why don't in making suggestions is also followed frequently by *I* and *we*, and, less frequently, by references to third parties:

***Why don't I** make us a nice cup of tea. We'll all feel better then.*

A: *Yeah. Well, look, use your lunch hour to find your way around.*
B: *By the time I've found my way around the place I'll be starving and my lunch hour will be gone.*
A: *Well **why don't I** make you lunch then. I'll make you some sandwiches then.*
B: *We could use that meat.*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *Yeah.*

A: *So I said to Sarah **why don't we** come to New York with you for your first week?*
B: *Sounds good.*
A: *I think that's what we're going to do.*
B: *Mm. Oh well that'll be all right won't it?*
A: *Yeah.*

[speaking on the phone]
*You'd think it'd be cheaper to get a little van. … Oh. … Well wouldn't it be worth suggesting to Gary at some stage **why don't they** get a small van so … Oh right. Mm still seems stupid.*

Why not

Why not is also used to make suggestions. It differs from *why don't you* in that the suggestion is often a more general one, not necessarily directly aimed at the listener. It is common in advertising and promotional contexts, where the addressee is non-specific:

[local radio programme: promoting educational training courses]
*If this is you and you'd like to get back into education and get on a course **why not** go along to Fast Forward. They can help you with your training needs your child care and your travel and they can also provide the support you need if you're not confident about going back to learning.*

[public meeting to decide how best to run a local theatre and to encourage more people to go to it]
A: *Here's a simple suggestion.* ***Why don't you*** *move the facilities from the stage door club down to the foyer bar so that a load of people can go in there. You'd change the general atmosphere of the foyer bar.*
B: *Yeah. Simple. Ambience.*
A: *I think there's nothing, Chairman, that £150,000 wouldn't do.*
B: *Well,* ***why not*** *go outside for funding? So, marketing exercise once again.*

Although *why don't you* can be used to ask a question, *why not* is not normally used to ask a question:

[B has been talking about cooking and how he never uses salt]
A: ***Why don't you*** *use salt?*
B: *Well, they say it's bad for your heart.*
(a genuine question as to why B chooses not to use salt)

Why not *use salt?*
(normally heard as a suggestion)

SPEECH ACT VERBS (*AGREE*, *INSIST*, *PROMISE*) 422

Speech act verbs are verbs which a speaker can use to explicitly label a speech act. These include verbs such as *advise*, *allow*, *apologise*, *ask*, *demand*, *deny*, *(dis)agree*, *forbid*, *insist*, *object*, *order*, *permit*, *predict*, *promise*, *state*, *suggest*.

Performative verbs 422a

When these verbs are used to perform the speech act (i.e. in their performative function), they occur with a first person subject and present simple tense form:

I ***name*** *this ship 'Fearless'.*
(~~I am naming this ship 'Fearless'.~~)

A: *You're a bit late.*
B: *I* ***apologise****.*

Many of the common functions associated with the modal verbs can also be realised by explicit use of speech act verbs. Speech act verbs are more frequent in formal contexts:

*'Just what are you going to do about this?' Pearson yelled at them. '****I demand*** *you arrest them all.'*
(compare: Arrest them all!/You must arrest them all.)

[speakers are cleaning out a cupboard]
A: *Er,* ***I suggest*** *we take everything out and just look at it, decide whether we want it. And if we really don't want it then just chuck it if we don't know.*
B: *Okay. But we've got a bit of a space problem.*
A: *That's true.*
(compare: We could/should take everything out./How/what about taking/what if we take everything out.)

[meringues are a type of sweet confectionery]
Now who's for more tea? ***I insist*** *on you sampling some of Bessie's meringues.*
(compare: You must sample some of Bessie's meringues.)

As soon as she comes back, ***I promise*** *I'll ask her.*
(compare: As soon as she comes back, I'll ask her.)

A speech act verb may not necessarily correspond one-to-one with the speech act being performed. For example, verbs such as *suggest* and *promise* can be used to issue directives. The exact interpretation depends on context:

I promise *you you'll regret it later if you don't study now.*
(I warn you that you'll regret it)

Speech act verbs and politeness **422b**

In general, in conversation, in situations where threats to the listener's dignity and self-esteem are high, speakers avoid explicit labelling of speech acts. Verbs such as *disagree, forbid, refuse, reproach, accuse* in unmodified form are rare as performative speech act verbs; most typically they occur to report speech acts, or are softened and modified in some way. For instance, the clause *I disagree with you* only occurs once (in a formal discussion at a meeting) in a 15-million-word sample of spoken English.

Examples with *disagree* show how speakers are careful to avoid direct challenges to the listener's face. Many utterances express disagreement with a non-present third party, or with a proposition or argument, thereby making the act of disagreement more impersonal. Others downtone or hedge the disagreement:

I would disagree *a huge amount.*
(use of modal verb as hedge)

Well I completely ***disagree with that****.*
(disagreeing with an idea or proposition rather than with the speaker)

But what I ***disagree with****,* ***well to a degree****, is that at school they don't teach them the basics any more.*
(downtoning the disagreement)

I*,* ***I would have to****,* ***I'd have to disagree*** *with my colleague here.*
(modal verb hedge plus suggestion of the act not being the speaker's preferred response)

I hate to disagree *with you, Peter.*
(expressing reluctance at having to disagree)

These same principles of modification apply to other speech act verbs (e.g. *I* ***hate to complain****, but …*; *I* ***would ask*** *you to make less noise*; *I'm sorry but I* ***have to object*** *to what you're proposing*; *I* ***regret to inform*** *you that …*; *I* ***must admit*** *that …*; *I* ***would insist*** *that …*).

Reporting verbs 422c

Speech act verbs are frequent in reports of speech acts. They may be more neutral reporting acts involving verbs such as *say*, *tell*, *ask*, or more evaluative reports involving verbs such as *complain*, *moan*, *mumble*:

'You all right, Crom?'
'Ooh, God, of course I'm not all right,' he ***moaned****. 'I've never felt so ill in my life. I think I'm going to die.'*

'… by the time he realises he's walked into a trap, it'll be too late for him to do anything about it.'
'I only wish I could be there to see it,' Dennison ***sneered****, and watched Amaya cross to the door.*

also **489 Reporting verbs** and **499 Reporting verbs and speech acts**

POLITENESS 423

Many of the examples of speech acts in sections 413–421 have displayed aspects of politeness and indirectness (e.g. *would you mind … -ing*), while others are more forceful and direct (e.g. imperatives).

Politeness serves to protect the self-esteem and dignity of the speaker and listener, and to prevent speakers imposing on listeners or forcing them to act against their will. It is an important aspect of interpersonal meaning, and enables communication to proceed harmoniously.

Modal verbs often hedge or soften the force of a speech act which may threaten the listener's dignity or self-esteem. Past forms such as *could* instead of *can*, or *would* instead of *will*, or *might* instead of *may*, or *wanted* instead of *want*, can also soften speech acts and contribute to politeness. In sections 423a–423e we summarise the use of tense and aspect for politeness and also consider some other forms which soften or hedge speech acts.

Tense and aspect 423a

Past tense

Past tense forms can make a speech act more polite:

A: ***I wondered*** *if you****'d*** *help me out in the garden, perhaps, like, if it's still nice when you come home from school?*
B: *Yeah.*
(compare the more direct: I wonder if you will help me …)

A: *How* ***did you want*** *to pay?*
B: *I'll pay cash.*
(compare the more direct: How do you want to pay?)

[store assistant taking customer's personal details to order goods]
What ***was*** *the name and address please?*

Progressive aspect

Progressive aspect can also contribute to soften the directness of a speech act, and may combine with past tense to make an utterance doubly hedged:

A: *Anybody here?*
B: *Mary. But no Sandra no Lisa. Not yet anyhow.*
A: ***I was hoping** Sandra's not in cos Roger says to me when he went, you know, he was standing there, he says to me, 'It'll have to be Thursday at half past ten.' Well Sandra says that she couldn't make it half past ten Thursday, so he had to come yesterday. So **I'm wondering** if either of them are here. Or if Sandra's here. Mind you, it's more likely to be Sandra than Lisa cos Lisa's usually here at half seven.*
B: *I was going to say, the blinds were still closed and I didn't see Sandra's car at all.*

Perfect aspect

Perfect aspect may also occur in a softening/hedging function:

A: ***I've been wanting** to ask you if you'd help me write a research proposal.*
B: *Sure. No problem.*

[at a formal meeting]
A: *The first thing I want to do is just obviously say thanks for filling in all those exercises you did for me, the sorting things. And I say we had all the others through in the post. So your second one will probably be waiting for me when I get back Margaret. And thanks for bringing the other ones back today. I just wanted to get your impressions, how you'd found doing the two exercises. Erm, **had you found** them okay to do? Or?*
B: *Yeah. Interesting.*
A: *They were okay, were they?*
C: *Yeah.*
(compare: Did you find them okay to do?)

Negation 423b

Boosting

Negative (most typically interrogative) forms can often boost a speech act (make it more forceful) and say that the speaker thinks the listener really should act in a particular way:

*My son said, 'I don't think she's very well daddy. I think she's, she's ill, **don't you think you should** go in and see what's happening?' I said, 'No, I, I don't think so, I think her husband will take care of that.'*
(compare: Do you think you should go in …)

***Can't you** turn that music down!*

Hedging/downtoning

Negation can also have the opposite effect to boosting, i.e. it can hedge or downtone a speech act. This occurs in a number of formulaic declarative structures with verbs such as *have*, *know*, *suppose*:

A: ***You don't have*** *Jane Carey's email address by any chance?*
B: *Yeah, sure.*

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next utterance
A: ***I don't suppose*** *you've brought the saw back?*
B: *Have I still got it?*
A: *Yes.*
B: *Oh yeah I took it last weekend.*
A: *You borrowed it and brought it back+*
B: *Yeah yeah.*
A: *+and then you took it again.*

You don't know *what time the shop opens, do you?*

Other syntactic features of politeness 423c

In many of the examples in sections 413–421, speakers make their speech acts more polite by using a variety of prefaces and other devices. Speech acts such as questions, requests, invitations, suggestions, can be softened or made more polite by using reporting structures:

Hope, think, wonder, to soften questions

Reporting structures with *hope*, *think* and *wonder* are commonly used to soften questions and requests:

I was hoping *I could speak to Roger.*
(this seems to be a way of enquiring if Roger is in)

[*Michael* is a small child]
A: *Deana,* ***do you think*** *you could watch Michael please?*
B: *Yes.*
(compare: Deana, could you …?)

I'm wondering *if either of them are here.*
(the speaker is asking: Are either of them here?)

Modal expression + *ask* to soften commands, requests and questions

A modal expression + *ask* is used to soften a request or question. *Ask* is not used in this way without a modal or hedging expression:

A: ***Can I ask*** *you to sign that and then the banker's order.*
B: *Yes.* [signs]
(~~I ask you to sign that …~~)

A: *Mrs Smith,* ***could I ask*** *for your date of birth as well please.*
B: *Yes, twenty-three, seven, forty-five.*
A: *And your occupation?*
B: *Housewife.*

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Prefaces to speech acts 423d

Speakers often delay or preface the performing of a speech act. A lead-in remark or question (a preface) may occur before the speech act itself. This is particularly so in the case of speech acts which impose on the listener or possibly put the listener in the position of having to refuse, etc., such as invitations, requests, advice, commands.

Speakers also use a wide variety of expressions to hedge or soften speech acts. These include modifiers such as *a bit*, the use of *if*, the use of informal lexis (e.g. *pop in* instead of *visit/call on*, *a wee favour* instead of *a (small) favour*), adverbs such as *ideally*, *possibly*, *maybe*, *just*, the *-ish* suffix, and a range of fixed expressions such as *let's say*, *perhaps you could see your way to …*, *if it's/that's okay with you*, *if you like*, *if it's all the same with you*, *sorry to bother you*:

A: ***Are you doing anything Sunday?***
B: *No.*
A: *I* ***might pop in*** *on Sunday with the boys* ***if that suits you****?*
B: *Yes. Yes.*
(note the preface: the listener is given the chance to say she is busy before the speaker suggests she will visit her; note also the softener *might*, the informal verb *pop in*, which suggests a brief, unimposing, informal visit, and *if that suits you*)

[beginning a phone call; *fire away* means 'start talking']
A: ***Is this a good time to talk?***
B: *Yes, fine, no problem. Fire away.*

A: *Are you free* ***a bit*** *later on this afternoon,* ***probably around about*** *three****ish possibly****? No, erm any time any other time later on today? No? What about early****ish*** *on Monday. I'm free early****ish*** *on Monday.* ***What about****,* ***is it a big hassle*** *you getting in for nine?*
B: *No.*
A: *No, okay.*
(note how speaker A negotiates his way gradually towards the potentially imposing request to B to come in at 9am on Monday morning; note the softening effect of the suffix *-ish* and the approximators *a bit*, *around* and *about*, and the use of the hedges *probably* and *possibly*)

Thursday we're gonna do a major evaluation task with text books you haven't seen before, new ones. Do one of those before Thursday and give it to me then. I'll give you some feedback straightaway. ***Ideally if*** *you could do different ones and we could put them together in a* ***little*** *folder and photocopy them, and you're gonna have examples of different types.*

[university tutor (A) to student]
A: *Do you want to* ***just*** *come in and start because Claire's cancelled her appointment,* ***if that's okay with you****?*
B: *Oh that's okay.*

[message on an answerphone]
Hi Louise. It's Rick. ***Sorry to bother you this late****. Erm* ***I was wondering if*** *tomorrow, and if it is portable,* ***whether or not*** *you could bring in that office chair you wanted to give away.*

Please **423e**

Please is used more to soften directives in English than its equivalent in some other languages.

Compare the bare imperatives with their more polite realisations:

Come in.
Please *come in.*

Pass me the phone book.
Pass me the phone book, ***please****.*

Give me a call on the number I've just given you.
Please *give me a call on the number I've just given you.*

In interrogative directives, *please* is most typically used in end position:

[guest has just been served a cup of coffee]
Can I have some sugar, ***please****?*
(preferred to: Please can I have some sugar?)

However, children often use *please* in front position in such contexts:

[child at table]
Please *can I have more bread?*

Please is especially frequent in requests during service encounters in shops, restaurants, etc., and is used by both customers/clients and servers, even though the customer/client may consider themselves more important than the server:

[customer (A) to waiter (B) in a restaurant]
A: *Can I have the bill,* ***please****?*
B: *You want the bill?*
A: *Thank you.*

[renewing an insurance policy over the telephone]
A: *Okay and what's your first initial Mrs Leach?*
B: *G.*
A: *And your occupation* ***please****?*
B: *Housewife.*
A: *And your date of birth* ***please****?*
B: *Twenty four, eleven, forty-nine.*
A: *All right, okay.*

Yes please is often used in response to offers:
A: *Would you like some more coffee?*
B: ***Yes please****.*

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Questions

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Questions

INTRODUCTION 424

Questions are broadly defined as utterances which require a verbal response from the addressee. There are a number of types (425–425e), constructed using a variety of structural patterns (426–432). Some types are more central or prototypical questions, while others are less prototypical and function differently.

Questions may range from forms involving imperatives, to simple interrogatives, interrogatives with modal verbs, indirect interrogatives, declaratives and reduced questions, all of which have different pragmatic functions in terms of formality, politeness, directness, dependence on immediate context, projections of degrees of shared knowledge, etc.

Examples of questions and typical contexts:

Tell me what you want for dinner.
(imperative; informal)

Are you tired?
(simple interrogative; neutral)

Ready?
(reduced question; informal, highly context dependent)

Would you be George, by any chance?
(modalised; polite, low assumption of shared knowledge)

Can I ask if you know what this is?
(question with preface and modal verb; polite)

A: *So you got here early?*
B: *Yes.*
(declarative; high assumption of shared knowledge)

This chapter (424–433) describes the various question types, and the main question forms, starting with the most prototypical ones. It excludes interrogatives functioning as directives, which are dealt with in **413e Interrogatives with *can, could, will* and *would*** in **Speech acts**.

QUESTION TYPES 425

Five broad structural and functional aspects of questions can be used to characterise the central and more marginal question types. These are:

1 whether the question is a complete clause or not
2 whether it has an interrogative structure
3 whether it elicits a verbal reply
4 whether it elicits information or not
5 whether it elicits new information, not known to the questioner.

Complete and reduced forms 425a

Prototypical questions are complete clauses:

Are you ready?

When are you going to Manchester?

Other types of question may be reduced clauses, phrases, or single words:

A: ***You hungry***?
B: *Mm, a bit.*

A: *So I'd go to London if I were you.*
B: ***And what about Leeds***?
A: *Oh hang on. Yeah. Yeah. That would be nearer.*

A: *I'm very nervous.*
B: ***Why***?
A: *Cos I've never done anything like this before.*

Interrogative form 425b

Prototypical questions have interrogative form:

Do you want one?

Are you nervous?

Would you prefer Spain or Portugal?

What do you want?

Who was looking for me?

292 Interrogative clauses for the structure of interrogative clauses

Many questions do not have interrogative structure, and may be declarative or imperative in form. Intonation and context indicate that the utterance is to be heard as a question:

A: ***So you like the people round there***?
B: *Oh yes.*

A: ***Tell me what time you're arriving again***?
B: *It'll probably be around six, or six-thirty.*

Eliciting a verbal reply 425c

Most questions desire and get a verbal reply from the addressee. However, one type, the rhetorical question, simply raises a question in the recipient's mind or is a question which the asker, not the recipient, answers:

We all know that, statistically, we've got more chance of winning the lottery jackpot than of dying in a plane crash, so ***why is it that the more I fly, the less I want to****? It's not a question of safety.*

Even the National Union of Students, which has vociferously campaigned for free university education, has now formally recognised that student debt is a way of life. At its recent conference it voted in favour of backing a system of loans. ***So who is going to provide those loans in the future?***

Eliciting information 425d

Prototypical questions seek information of some kind from the addressee. However, many questions do not do this. One type which does not is the rhetorical question (**149 Imperatives** and **rhetorical questions**). Another, quite common, type is when what appears to be a question is functioning as a request or command, where a response in the form of action is required rather than an informative reply:

Denise, could you pass me my chocolate?
(Denise reacts by passing it; she does not say 'Yes, I could')

Will you stop messing about?

408–423 Speech Acts

Exclamatives may also share characteristics of questions (e.g. interrogative structure), but do not necessarily demand any informative reply from the listener:

[opening a present]
I'm going to open it cos I don't know what it is. Costa Rica. Coffee beans are they? Coffee beans. ***Oh isn't that nice****!*

410c

Eliciting new information 425e

Prototypical questions seek information which the asker does not know. Other question types may not do this. Some questions simply seek confirmation of something the speaker already knows:

I got very moody, didn't I?

Display questions (questions to which the questioner already knows the answer) are common in contexts such as classrooms, quiz shows and other tests of knowledge, and media interviews. The purpose of a display question is to put knowledge or information on public display. In the classroom, this is an important way of transmitting and testing knowledge for teachers and pupils/students.

In situations where display questions are used, such as classrooms and quizzes, the questioner follows up the answer by stating whether it is the desired/correct answer or not (in green in the example):

[tutor (A) and students (B, C) in a university law seminar]
A: *Right. Now,* ***what about this reasonableness test? What criteria do the courts take into account?***
B: *What is reasonably expected of the parties at the time they made the contract.*

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A: *Well Section Eleven says 'We look at whether it was reasonable to incorporate the term'. So we do look at the time of the contract.* ***But what specific criteria do they take into account?***
B: *Is it, erm, bargaining power?*
A: *They certainly look at bargaining power. There's no doubt.* ***But what else?***
C: *Erm, insurance?*
A: *They look at who's the best insurer.*

In display questions in media interviews (e.g. a TV interview with a politician), the questioner typically does not follow up in this way, and listeners are left to make their own evaluation of the answer.

YES-NO QUESTIONS 426

Yes-no questions are one of the most common question forms. The reply either affirms or negates the proposition of the question. The reply may simply be *yes* or *no*, or *yes/no* plus some sort of elaboration, or simply an implied *yes* or *no*. Variants of *yes* and *no* in informal spoken language include *yeah*, *mm*, *okay*, *yep*, and *nah*, *nope*:

A: *Is that all right?*
B: ***Yeah.***
A: *Are you sure?*
B: ***Yes.***

A: *Are there any shops nearby?*
B: ***Yes.*** *Shops,* ***yes.*** *The village centre is about a hundred metres away I should say. And there's a shop across the road as well.*

[in a camera shop; *a cable release* is a cable which enables the camera to be operated from a distance]
A: *I've got a Nikon F70 and I wanted a cable release for it.*
B: *Erm, is it the remote one?*
A: ***Mm.*** *Believe so.*

A: *There's a nice yachting centre at West Ranby.*
B: *Oh is there?*
A: ***Yep, yep.***

A: *Would you like to hear the CD?*
B: ***Okay.***

A: *Can you remember which company it was?*
B: ***No.***

[trying to identify a travel brochure]
A: *Was it a white cover?*
B: ***No, no,*** *it was something like that holiday one there. Brown, and it had holidays to Prague and Vienna, it had holidays to Bulgaria, it was Eastern Europe, I expect.*

A: *Are you coming round for coffee tomorrow?*
B: ***Erm, I'm here on my own.***
A: *Oh are you.*
B: *So I can't get round. Unless you want to call here.*
(implied *no*)

The reply to a *yes-no* question may consist of an affirmative or negative response tag instead of *yes* or *no*:

A: *Did you break it?*
B: ***I did.*** *I pressed the yellow button.*

A: *Did you say 'I told you so?'*
B: ***I didn't. I didn't.*** *A gentleman never does that sort of thing* [laughs].

The reply may contain repeated elements of the question which imply a *yes* or *no*:

A: *Are you rushing about again?*
B: *I'm always rushing about, I really am.*
(implied *yes*)

Yes-no questions in informal conversation may end with *or* …, which has the effect of reducing any suggestion of pre-judgement of the answer on the part of the asker. This use of *or* … may be compared to question tags (**300** and **431**):

A: *Did you go into hospital immediately* ***or*** *…?*
B: *I did.*

A: *Did you reply to the letter when you got it at all* ***or*** *…?*
B: *No.*

292a for the structure of *yes-no* questions

Phonetic reduction and ellipsis in *yes-no* questions 426a

Phonetic reduction of *do* and *did* may occur in informal speech:

D'you *want a biscuit?*
(/dʒuː/ = do you)

D'you *get home all right last night?*
(/dʒuː/ = did you)

Often, especially in informal spoken contexts, it is not necessary to include all the clause elements in the question: subjects and auxiliary verbs, or lexical verb *be*, may not need to be present as references will be obvious to the speaker and listener(s):

A: ***You want*** *some more bread, Nick?*
B: *Yes please.*
(without auxiliary *do*)

[teacher, to students]
There should be three sheets coming down. You should have three by the time you've finished. Okay. ***Everybody got*** *three sheets?*
(without auxiliary *has*)

Finished*?*
(without auxiliary *have* or subject *you*)

A: ***Ready****?*
B: *Yeah, in a minute.*
(without lexical verb *be* or subject *you*)

94c Interrogatives with no auxiliary or subject

429a on intonation and *yes-no* questions

WH-QUESTIONS 427

Questions with *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *who(m)*, *whose*, *why*, *how* request specific information about something, and the circumstances surrounding actions and events (e.g. time, manner, place).

The anticipated response to such questions is not *yes* or *no*, but information which provides the missing content of the *wh*-word:

[discussing a new type of cooking grill]

A: *And* ***what*** *did this machinery cost you?*

B: *Five hundred and fifty pounds.*

A: ***Where*** *is your farm?*

B: *Right at the bottom of the lane.*

Whose *turn is it to wash up?*

How *are you feeling?*

Emphatic *wh*-questions 427a

A *wh*-question may include an emphatic *do*-auxiliary. In speech, the auxiliary is stressed. Such questions often occur in contexts where the asker feels they have not been given information they wanted or expected.

Non-emphatic *wh*-questions do not use auxiliary *do* when the *wh*-word is the subject. Emphatic *wh*-questions involve *do*-auxiliary even when the *wh*-word is the subject of the verb:

Who wants *coffee?*
(non-emphatic)
(~~Who does want coffee?~~)

What did happen *in the end?*
(emphatic)

A: *There was hardly anybody there.*
B: *Oh really?* ***Who did turn up****?*
(emphatic)

Wh-questions involving *what*, *who*, *why*, *when*, *where* and *how* (but normally not *whom* or *whose*) can also be emphasised by the use of *on earth*, or, even more emphatically, by using *the devil/the hell/the heck/in heaven's name* after the *wh*-word. The latter group should be used with care, and may cause offence, though *the heck* is rather mild and less likely to cause offence:

What on earth *are you doing?*

Oh, ***what the hell*** *does he want?*

Why on earth *did it take so long?*

How the heck *did you come to do that?*

Phonetic reduction and ellipsis in *wh*-questions 427b

Some phonetic reduction of auxiliary *do* may take place in *wh*-questions in informal speech:

Where ***d'you*** *work?*
(/dʒuː/ = do you)

A: *Where* ***d'you*** *buy that?*
B: *In Barcelona.*
(/dʒuː/ = did you)

In informal speech, occasionally, auxiliary verbs may not need to be present where the meaning is obvious:

A: *And Peter goes, like, '****What you*** *talking about?' I thought that was weird.*
B: *Yeah.*
(understood: What are you talking about?)

Where you *going tonight? Anywhere special?*

A *wh*-question may be declarative in form, especially if the speaker is checking information already given or checking on a particular detail:

A: *So what do you do?* ***You kind of arrive at what time****?*
B: *Twelve o'clock or something.*
(compare the more formal: (At) what time do you arrive?)

A: *So you just send it through the post?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: ***And you address it to who****?*
B: *Just the Manager.*
(compare the more formal: And who do you address it to?, or most formal: And to whom do you address it?)

429b on intonation and *wh*-questions

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS 428

Alternative questions give the answerer a choice between two or more items contained in the question which are linked by *or*. Alternative questions may be *yes-no* interrogatives or *wh*-interrogatives:

[waiter to customer, as the customer is about to be shown to a table]
A: *Would you like* ***smoking or non-smoking****?*
B: *Smoking please.*

A: ***How*** *do you want to go to London,* ***by coach or rail or are you driving****?*
B: *Erm, oh, rail would be better.*

An alternative question may offer the recipient the choice of one or all of the alternatives:

A: *Do you want* ***tea or coffee****?*
B: *I'd prefer a cup of coffee thank you.*
A: ***Sugar or milk****?*
B: *Sugar and milk.*
(choose one of tea or coffee/choose sugar, or milk, or both)

Alternative questions are often asked in reduced form in informal speech, with just the alternatives being present:

[A is a swimming instructor, B is a pupil]
A: *Right then, all go and swim whichever stroke you want to swim for two lengths. When the first two get back to the side the next two are gonna do a nice jump in and race. Swim back to the side. Then the next two are gonna jump in.*
B: ***Length or width****?*
A: *Width.*
(*gonna* = informal 'going to')

[waiter to customer in a restaurant]
A: ***Any tea or coffee****?*
B: *Can I have some tea please.*

An alternative question does not normally produce *yes* or *no* as a reply, but *no* can occur to emphatically negate one of the alternatives:

A: *Are you actually somebody who's working at the university* ***or*** *are you a student?*
B: *Oh* ***no****. I'm working there.*
(I'm emphatically not a student)

[talking about a tourist trip to the Grand Canyon in the USA, starting from Las Vegas]
A: *Do they pick you up from Las Vegas* ***or*** *do you drive there?*
B: *Oh* ***no****. You leave from Las Vegas.*
A: *In a helicopter?*
B: *Yeah.*

429c on intonation and alternative questions

QUESTIONS AND INTONATION 429

Note: the intonation for the examples here may be heard on the accompanying CD.

Yes-no questions 429a

Yes-no questions most typically have a simple rising intonation (↗) or a complex fall-rising intonation (↘↗). Fall-rising intonation projects a greater assumption of a shared perspective and/or that the addressee will agree with the proposition of the question:

A: *There's a bank machine in the other terminal.*
B: *Oh, right.* ***Is it far from here****?*
(open question; no assumption whether it is near or far)

[listening to music]
A: *It's a great CD.*
B: *Yeah.* ***D'you want to borrow it****? I can leave it with you.*
A: *Mm, thanks. Yeah, can I?*
(projecting an assumption that the listener may like to borrow it)

Are you angry with me?
(speaker probably suspects the listener is angry)

Falling intonation can occur with *yes-no* questions, especially when they are follow-up questions in a series of such questions:

A: ***D'you want some soup****?*
B: *No thanks. I'm not very hungry.*
A: ***Would you like some cheese and biscuits****?*
B: *Mm, no, no thanks.*
A: ***D'you want a cup of tea then****?*
B: *Okay. Thanks.*

Wh-questions 429b

Wh-questions most typically have falling intonation:

Well whose fault is it then?

Why do you need to see me?

Wh-questions which seek to check or clarify information already given may have rising or fall-rising intonation:

Who did you say was coming?
(please tell me again)

What was his name again?

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Alternative questions 429c

Alternative questions most typically have a rising intonation on each alternative (↗↗), a rise followed by a fall (↗↘), a fall-rise followed by a fall (↘↗↘), or a rise followed by a fall-rise (↗↘↗).

Examples of intonation with alternative questions

type	example	typical context
↗↗	*Could you go and work in France or Italy?*	both alternatives are held up for equal consideration by the speaker, and the answer could be *yes* to both
↗↘	*Was it a CD-ROM or a DVD?*	both alternatives are possible: only one of them can be the right one
↘↗↘	*Are you hungry or do you want to eat later?*	both alternatives are possible: there is a possible assumption that the listener is hungry

Alternative questions with more than two alternatives can have more complex intonation choices:

Would you like tea or coffee or water?
(suggests the listener may choose any of the three or none of the three; could also be three fall-rises)

Do you want a sandwich or a roll or something sweet?
(suggests a contrast between savoury food as a set and sweet food)

DECLARATIVE QUESTIONS 430

Not all *yes-no* questions have interrogative form, and a declarative clause may function in context as a question:

A: ***You're Philip***?
B: *Yes, that's me.*

The intonation is typically rising (↗) (asking for confirmation) or falling (↘) (strongly assuming something):

B: ***You're busy all day***?
A: *Yeah.*

A: *So* ***you're going to be here about quarter past***?
B: *Yeah quarter past, twenty past, yeah.*
A: *That's fine.*

If a listener repeats a speaker's utterance as a request for confirmation, it may have rising intonation and be heard as a question:

A: *I've got her number.*
B: ***You've got her number***?
A: *Yeah.*

The repeated utterance may also have a falling intonation and be heard as expressing a doubt, which the speaker may also interpret as questioning:

A: *I've got her number.*
B: ***You've got her number***?
A: *Yeah.*

TAG QUESTIONS 431

A tag after a declarative clause can form a question.

Tag questions are highly interactive in that they may constrain the range of possible or desired responses from the addressee. Some patterns are more constraining than others.

Types of tag question

type	clause + tag polarity	falling tone ↘	falling or rising tone: ↘ or ↗	constrained or desired answer
1	affirm. + neg.	*They **'ve been** affected by it,*	***haven't** they?*	agreement with *yes* (*Yes, they have.*)
2	affirm. + affirm.	*He **'s gone** back,*	***has** he?*	agreement with *yes* (*Yes, he has.*)
3	neg. + affirm.	*She **never talked** to anybody,*	***did** she?*	agreement with *no* (*No, she didn't.*)
4	affirm. + neg.	*You **'ve worked** hard,*	***haven't** you?*	anticipated agreement with *yes* (*Yes, I have.*) but open to challenge with *no* (*No, I haven't.*)
5	neg. + affirm.	*He **didn't get** it,*	***did** he?*	anticipated agreement with *no* (*No, he didn't.*) but open to challenge with *yes* (*Yes, he did.*)

Types **1** and **2** contain an affirmative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and an expectation of a *yes*-answer as confirmation in the tag.

Type **3** contains a negative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and an expectation of a *no*-answer as confirmation in the tag.

Type **4** contains an affirmative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and a more neutral possibility (i.e. of a *yes*- or a *no*-answer) in the tag.

Type **5** contains a negative statement by the speaker in the main clause, and a more neutral possibility (i.e. of a *yes*- or a *no*-answer) in the tag.

300 Question tags for a full account of the structures and patterns found in tag questions

also **100 Follow-up questions**

ECHO AND CHECKING QUESTIONS 432

Echo questions repeat part of the previous speaker's utterance, usually because some part of it has not been fully understood. They often have declarative word order and a *wh*-word at the end of the clause:

A: *Steve was singing with the group.*
B: ***Who*** *was singing, sorry?* (stressed)
A: *Steve, Steve Jones.*
B: *Oh.*

A: *He's called Oliver.*
B: *He's called* ***what****?*
A: *Oliver.*

A: *The map is in the rucksack.*
B: *In the* ***what****, sorry?*
A: *The rucksack.*

In spoken language, an interrogative-form self-checking question may interrupt an utterance in order to focus on specific information or to show uncertainty or hesitation, or to ask for confirmation:

I was talking to, oh, ***who was it****, that that guy from Edinburgh.*

[travel agent to customer]
Well, I've got you on the flights that you required, i.e. coming back on the, ***what was it****, the twentieth.*

also **100 Follow-up questions**

INTERPERSONAL ASPECTS OF QUESTIONS 433

Questions may be very direct and may threaten the dignity or face of the addressee. To avoid such threats and to signal politeness, questions may be prefaced with hedging expressions or other signals of politeness:

Can I ask you *how old Fiona is?*

Could you tell me *where the nearest toilet is?*

[student to university tutor]
I have a question*. Does the word-count for the assignment include the appendix?*

The use of bare *no* as a reply to a *yes-no* question may be considered impolite or inappropriate, and in most cases, *no* is accompanied by an expansion, explanation or justification:

A: *Would you like to live in London?*
B: ***No****, I don't think I could stand all the noise and pollution.*

Where the respondent feels they cannot answer a *yes-no* question with a straightforward affirmative or negative answer, the discourse marker *well* is often used to signal a shift in the desired or anticipated question-answer sequence:

A: *Do you live in Bristol?*
B: ***Well**, near Bristol.*
(B feels he cannot answer with just *yes* or *no*, and shifts the anticipated sequence)

Oh may be used to preface a reply, especially to indicate a range of emotive reactions to the question, in the form of enthusiasm, surprise, shock, etc.:

A: *Would you like a receipt?*
B: ***Oh**, yes, please! Got to have one of those.*

A: *Do you feel you've had a good treatment all of the times that you've been to the doctor's?*
B: ***Oh** definitely. Yes.*
C: *We think we've got wonderful doctors.*

A: *I always go to a party on Hallowe'en you know, just in the village hall.*
B: *Is it fancy dress and all that?*
A: ***Oh** no! You're joking aren't you?*

Oh may also be used to express a polite hesitation or a need for thinking time, or to preface an undesired reply which may be face-threatening to the asker:

A: *What do you pay for beef in the supermarket, a kilogram?*
B: ***Oh** I don't know.*

[in a restaurant; A is the waiter, B is a customer]
A: *Are you ready to order the second course as well, or not?*
B: ***Oh**, can we do that later?*
A: *Yes, certainly.*

Absolutely, *certainly* and *definitely* frequently occur as interpersonally engaged alternatives to bare *yes* or *no* (if followed by *not*) or together with *yes* or *no*:

A: *Do you think that's a good idea?*
B: ***Absolutely**.*
A: *Okay.*

A: *Shall I leave my coat here?*
B: ***Yeah certainly**.*
A: *Is that all right?*
B: *Yeah. Yeah.*
A: *Thanks.*

A: *You didn't find them uninventive or dull?*
B: ***No, definitely not**.*

248 Adverbs used as short responses for further examples of such usage

A–Z **56 *Of course*; 57 *Oh***

also **95 Response tokens; 101 Two-step questions and responses**

Negation

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Negation

INTRODUCTION 434

When a speaker or writer makes a negative statement, they normally say that something cannot be the case or is not true or is not happening. Clauses, phrases and words can be made negative. *No* and *not* are the core negative words in English, but there are many other words that signal negation.

Primary negative words in English are:

neither	*none*	*nothing*
never	*no one*	*nowhere*
no	*nor*	
nobody	*not*	

Other secondary forms that are used to form negative or quasi-negative statements include:

few	*little*	*scarcely*
hardly	*rarely*	*seldom*

The following affixes are also most commonly used for negation:

prefixes: *de-, dis-, il-/im-/in-/ir-, mis-, non-, un-*

suffix: *-less*

In this chapter (434–447) clause negation is described first, followed by sections on negative words, then we consider negation as a discourse feature. Several individual negative words are treated in greater detail in A–Z entries.

Negation is more common in spoken than in written language. One of the main reasons for this is that in spoken, face-to-face interaction there are communicative risks in being too assertive; for example, asserting too much and too definitely can be impolite. *I'm sure* can sound very assertive whereas *I'm not sure* can keep options and channels of communication open. Using negatives allows a speaker to remain non-committal.

A–Z **44 *Hardly*; 50 *Little, a little, few, a few***

CLAUSE NEGATION 435

Negative declaratives 435a

Negative declarative clauses are formed by using *not* after a modal or auxiliary verb, or after the copular verb *be*:

*Native speakers **may not** be aware of the history of their language.*

*George **has not** been here recently.*

*Julia **was not** happy about travelling alone at night.*

Can + *not* is normally written as one word, *cannot*.

In informal contexts, the contracted form *n't* can be attached to modal and auxiliary verbs and copular verb *be*, written without a space. *Am* and *may* are not used with contracted *n't*:

*You **mustn't** shout.*

*We **hadn't** met before.*

*My gloves **aren't** warm enough for this weather.*

*I'm **not** sure.*
(~~I amn't sure~~)

*She **may not** have arrived yet.*
(~~She mayn't have arrived yet.~~)

Exceptions which require a special spelling and pronunciation are: *can't* (cannot), *shan't* (shall not) and *won't* (will not).

also **380e Contracted forms of modal verbs** for further examples of negative contractions with modal verbs and **233b Negative forms and auxiliary verbs** for negative contractions with auxiliary verbs and copular verb *be*

If there is no modal or auxiliary verb or copular verb *be*, auxiliary *do* is used with *not* to form the negative. The contracted forms *don't* (for *do not*), *doesn't* (for *does not*) and *didn't* (for *did not*) are used in informal contexts:

*I **do not believe** a word he says.*

*It **did not occur** to her that she was in any danger.*

*They go into town during the week but they **don't** usually **bother** at weekends.*

*His brother **doesn't like** fish.*

*We **didn't see** the notice until yesterday.*

With the verb *be* (both as a lexical verb and as an auxiliary), there is a choice of contracted negative form in the present tense between forms with *isn't/aren't* and forms with *'s not/'re not*. In informal spoken contexts, when the subject is a

pronoun, the preference is overwhelmingly for the forms with *'s not/'re not*. When the subject is a lexical noun phrase, the choice is more open, but with a strong preference for the *isn't/aren't* forms:

*She**'s not** here today.*
(pronoun subject + *'s not/'re not*: most frequent preferred form)

*They **aren't** going to change the format of these big meetings.*
(pronoun subject + *isn't/aren't*: far less frequent)

*The plans **aren't** settled yet, he was saying.*
(lexical noun phrase + *isn't/aren't*: preferred form)

*The handle**'s not** very good, it's loose.*
(lexical noun phrase + *'s not/'re not*: less frequent)

Negative interrogatives 435b

Negative interrogatives typically function as questions seeking agreement or confirmation. They have a contracted *n't* negative. The word order is: modal/auxiliary verb + *n't* + subject + lexical verb. If copular *be* is used, the word order is *be* + *n't* + subject:

***Shouldn't** the government do more to increase productivity?*
(speaker thinks the government should do more and seeks agreement)

***Haven't** you got a knife and fork?*
(speaker sees that the listener apparently has no knife and fork and seeks confirmation)

***Isn't** this coat yours?*

Uncontracted negative questions have the word order: modal/auxiliary verb + subject + *not* + lexical verb. If copular *be* is used, the order is *be* + subject + *not*. Such questions sound very formal:

***Might** we **not** consider those less fortunate than ourselves?*

***Did** you **not** feel offended by her comment?*

***Is** she **not** an acquaintance of yours?*

Negative interrogatives and speech acts 435c

Negative interrogatives can be used to make polite offers and suggestions:

*Would**n't** you like some more salad?*

*Is**n't** this a good point to end the meeting?*

Negative interrogatives with the forms *won't you* and *couldn't you* can be used to make requests:

***Won't you** lend me your bike? I promise you I'll look after it.*

***Couldn't you** postpone your meeting until next Thursday?*

***Couldn't she** give us a lift into town?*

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Negative interrogatives with *can't you* are often used in directives:

Can't you *hurry up!*

Can't you *do something about it!*

also **408–423 Speech acts** for further examples of the speech act functions of negative interrogatives

Negative imperatives 435d

Second person imperatives are made negative by the forms *don't/do not* plus a lexical verb:

Don't *be silly.*

Don't *expect to learn how to drive in a few weeks.*

Do not is a more formal alternative:

Do not *cross until the green light shows.*

Don't + you also occurs in imperatives in informal contexts:

Don't you *try to do that.*

Don't you *worry. We'll do that for you.*

Imperatives may also be formed with a negative subject:

Nobody *move!*

Negative imperatives may also occur with *never/not ever*:

Never *forget who your real friends are.*

Don't ever *do that again.*

First person negative imperatives are formed with *let's not* and *don't let's*. More formal alternatives are *let us not*, and *don't let us*:

Let's not *get too carried away.*

Don't let's *panic. We've got another few weeks to decide.*

Let us not *forget the victims of this awful crime.*
(more formal)

Don't let us *be severe,* ***don't let us*** *be in a hurry to condemn him.*
(more formal)

Very rarely, in mock formal styles, the full form of the lexical verb + *not* may occur:

[said by a husband to his wife who has just phoned to say that the car has broken down and that she is stranded by the roadside]
Worry not*! Your knight-in-shining-armour will soon be with you.*

Negative subjunctive 435e

The subjunctive mood is rare in English, but it occasionally occurs following verbs such as *insist*, *recommend*, *suggest*, expressions of necessity such as *it is important/essential that*, and conditional subordinators such as *if*, *lest*, *on condition that*, *unless*. The negative is formed with *not* plus the base form of the verb:

*He had tried to call her during the week, but she had **insisted** that he **not call** her at home and there was no other number he could try.*

*Her father had had a slight stroke and the doctors **recommended** that he **not travel**.*

[TV presenter introducing a woman who has agreed to a secret interview]
*She agreed to be filmed **on condition that** we **not show** her face.*

NEGATION AND TAGS 436

Question tags which follow a negative main clause are affirmative:

***You're not** on the same course as me, **are you**?*
(~~You're not on the same course as me, aren't you?~~)

***He mustn't** do that, **must he**?*

***They didn't** like Manchester, **did they**?*

***It's not** too late to pop over, **is it**?*

Question tags which follow an affirmative main clause may be negative or affirmative, depending on whether the speaker thinks the answer is probably *yes* (affirmative + negative) or whether the speaker makes no assumption about whether the answer is *yes* or *no* (affirmative + affirmative). The intonation of a negative tag, whether rising or falling, also affects interpretation (431):

*They just **gave** the whole class a warning, **didn't** they?*

*He **has** a house in Wales, **doesn't** he?*

*She**'s** a colleague of yours, **is** she?*

*You **got** here early, **did** you?*

Negative statement tags and negative tails (97b) may follow a negative declarative main clause in informal spoken language:

*I**'m not** at all hungry, **I'm not**.*

*He**'s** just **not** the right person for the job, **Joe isn't**.*

An affirmative tag follows an affirmative or negative imperative. The tag is usually formed with *will* for second person imperatives and *shall* for first person imperatives:

***Be** quiet, **will you**!*

*Do**n't** put the rubbish out yet, **will you**.*

*Let's **not** argue, **shall we**.*

A negative tag following an affirmative imperative is rather formal:

***Come** again tomorrow, **won't** you.*

Exclamative clauses can also have negative tags which function to seek confirmation:

*What a storm that was, **wasn't it**!*

*How lovely to be going home, **isn't it**!*

300 Question tags and **98 Questions and tags** for further description of the formation of question tags and other tags

A–Z **69 *Right, rightly*** for *right* as a tag

NEGATION AND MENTAL PROCESS VERBS (*BELIEVE, THINK*) 437

When mental process verbs such as *believe*, *imagine*, *suppose*, *think* are used to express uncertainty, it is more usual for the negation to be placed on these verbs rather than on the complement clause:

*We **don't imagine** there are sufficient funds to expand the business this year.*
(preferred to: We imagine there are not sufficient funds …)

*I **don't think** dinner's ready yet.*
(preferred to: I think dinner's not ready yet.)

Exceptions are the verbs *hope* and *wish*, where the negation is placed in the complement clause:

*I **hope** you **aren't** going to make a mess in the kitchen.*
(~~I don't hope you're going to make a mess in the kitchen.~~)

*We're **hoping** England **don't** lose their first match against Norway.*

*I **wish** he **wouldn't** make so much fuss.*

When mental process verbs are used in affirmative short replies, *so* is added:

Will Tim be at the party?
I'm afraid so.
I guess so.
I hope so.
I think so.
I suppose so.

If the reply is negative, there are different patterns. *Not* is used with *be afraid*, *guess*, *hope*. With *think*, the usual form is *I don't think so*; *I think not* is a more formal alternative. With *suppose*, both forms are possible:

Will Tim be at the party?
I'm afraid ***not****.*
I guess ***not****.*
I hope ***not****.*
I ***don't*** *think* ***so****./I think* ***not****.*
I ***don't*** *suppose* ***so****./I suppose* ***not****.*

NEGATIVE CLAUSES WITH *ANY*, *ANYONE*, *ANYTHING*, *ANYWHERE*, ETC. 438

Words such as *some*, *somebody*, *someone*, *something*, *somewhere* are not normally used following *not*. *Any*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *anywhere* are used instead:

There is ***some*** *room at the front of the train.*
*There is****n't any*** *room at the front of the train.*
(~~There isn't some room at the front of the train.~~)

There's ***someone*** *in the garden.*
*There is****n't anyone*** *in the garden.*
(~~There isn't someone in the garden.~~)

I've found ***somewhere*** *to stay tonight.*
I've ***not*** *found* ***anywhere*** *to stay tonight.*
(~~I've not found somewhere to stay tonight.~~)

Following verbs with a negative meaning such as *decline* or *refuse*, *anything* is preferred to *something*:

I ***refused*** *to have* ***anything*** *to do with him.*
(~~I refused to have something to do with him.~~)

After affirmative verbs *no* is used, and with negated verbs *any* is used. Compare the following two sentences, both of which mean the opposite of *We had some money*:

We had ***no*** *money.*

*We did****n't*** *have* ***any*** *money.*

Although these sentences both mean the same, the structure with *not … any* is normally preferred in informal contexts. The structure with *no* is more emphatic and more associated with formal contexts.

Double negatives and usage 438a

Words such as *never, nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere* have a negative meaning and do not require a negative verb form:

The company ***never*** *told the new staff that they needed a password.*
(~~The company didn't never tell the new staff that they needed a password.~~)

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*When I got there, there was **nobody** in the park.*
(~~When I got there, there wasn't nobody in the park.~~)

However, in many non-standard dialects of English, double and multiple negatives are frequent with words such as *never, nobody, nothing* and *nowhere*:

*I did**n't** see **nobody nowhere**.*

Double and multiple negatives are used, especially in spoken English, in order to create emphasis. Traditional grammar books prohibit them, and the use of double negatives with words such as *never, nobody, nothing* and *nowhere* is a very sensitive issue. Learners of English are advised not to use them.

However, a kind of emphatic double negative often occurs in reinforcing statement tags (436 above; also 97b) and in end-position reporting clauses with verbs such as *imagine, suppose, think*. In everyday speech these are accepted as standard:

*You're **not** going near the paper-shop, I **don't** suppose?*

A: *We **won't** be allowed in, I **shouldn't** think.*
B: ***Not** without an invitation we **won't**.*

[deciding where to place a temporary bed]
*It should fit there, because it's **not** that big I **don't** think.*

See also **119** for the use of double negatives in many dialects of English

NOT IN NON-FINITE AND ELLIPTED CLAUSES 439

The negative *not* is placed before the verb phrase in non-finite clauses. Such structures are common in formal, written styles:

***Not** having a strong enough defence, the team let in four goals at the end of the second half.*

*I wrote the address down, so as **not** to forget it.*

In informal spoken English, *not* often follows the infinitive *to*. Such 'split infinitives' are considered bad style in writing by many people, but they are common in speech:

*It took a lot of self-control to **not** hit him.*

Sometimes verb phrases can be subject to ellipsis (**94 Situational ellipsis**). *Not* can be used to negate the understood element(s):

*Come early in the morning, but **not** too early though.*
(Come early in the morning but do not come too early though.)

*The CD's playing okay but **not** with the right sound quality.*
(The CD's playing okay but it is not playing with the right sound quality.)

It's a powerful car though ***not*** *as expensive on petrol as you'd think.*
(It's a powerful car though it is not as expensive on petrol as you'd think.)

NEGATIVE PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES 440

Words can be made negative in English by the use of prefixes.

The main negative prefixes

prefix	examples
a-	*amoral*
de-	*deforestation*
dis-	*dissatisfaction*
il-	*illegally*
im-	*immodest; immature*
in-	*inhuman*
ir-	*irregular; irresponsible*
no-	*no-go; no-win*
non-	*non-conformist; non-believer*
un-	*unhappy; unimportant*

Many negative words are adjectives that are formed from nouns + the suffix *-less*:

careless	*endless*	*pointless*
childless	*harmless*	*useless*
doubtless	*homeless*	*worthless*

Words and phrases of negative or adverse meaning when negated with *not* can often convey a positive meaning:

That pasta's ***not*** *too* ***bad****.*
(it's quite good)

[said during a car journey]
We're ***not far away*** *now. We'll soon be there.*

also **261 Prefixes** and **262 Suffixes** for further discussion

NO 441

In spoken English, *no* is most frequently used as a response to *yes-no* questions, as a response agreeing with a negative assertion, or as an interjection:

A: *Are you ready yet?*
B: ***No****. Not yet. Can you give me another couple of minutes?*

A: *The system doesn't take account of people's individual circumstances.*
B: ***No****. That's right.*

No*, don't move! I want to take a photo of you two together.*

No + noun is not the same as *not a* + noun, unless the noun has a gradable meaning:

A whale is ***not a*** *fish.*
(~~A whale is no fish.~~)
(*fish* is non-gradable: it is either a fish or not; it cannot be 'more of a fish' than another animal)

When it comes to computers, er, I'm ***no expert****.*
(gradable: one person can be more of an expert than another person)

He's ***no fool****, is he?*

No is also a degree adverb. It premodifies comparative adjectives, adverbs and determiners:

The second performance was ***no better than*** *the first.*

She had been fishing ***no more than*** *three or four times in her life.*

There were ***no less than*** *four hundred people in the audience.*

Similar meanings can be conveyed with a negation of a verb + *any*:

*The second performance was****n't any better than*** *the first.*

In some fixed expressions, *no* negates a following noun, adjective or adverb:

It's no good *phoning Arthur, he won't be at home yet.*
(~~It's not good phoning Arthur, …~~.)

A: *What's that woman Nancy's second name?*
B: *I* ***have no idea****.*

It's ***no use*** *phoning. He won't be there.*

A: *Could we change our dinner-date to Friday?*
B: *Yes.* ***No problem****.*

NONE, NONE OF 442

None is a pronoun. It is more emphatic than *not any*:

The weather forecast predicted showers all afternoon but there were ***none****.*
(more emphatic than: The weather forecast predicted showers all afternoon but there weren't any.)

None of is a quantifier and is used with pronouns and noun phrases introduced by a determiner:

None of us *had much money in those days.*

None of my dogs *are ever allowed upstairs.*

None of the book *is about phonetics.*

With plural noun phrases, *not one of* is a more emphatic alternative to *none of*:

Not one of these children *has been to a dentist in the last five years.*

NOTHING, NO ONE, NOBODY 443

The pronouns *nothing*, *no one* (also written *no-one*) and *nobody* are more emphatic than the parallel structures *not … anything/anyone/anybody*. Compare:

I did ***nothing*** *at all yesterday.*

*I did****n't*** *do* ***anything*** *at all yesterday.*

Not … anything and *not … anyone/anybody* are the neutral choices and are therefore used more often than *nothing* and *no one/nobody*, which are used in more emphatic contexts:

*I have****n't*** *heard* ***anything*** *from Marie for ages.*

Don't ask me what's happening. I know ***nothing****.*

*Do****n't*** *tell* ***anyone*** *I'm coming. I want it to be a surprise.*

I can think of ***no one*** *who sings as beautifully as Lisa.*

It's a big, big secret for the moment. Tell ***nobody****.*

Nobody is a variant of *no one* but, although the two forms mean the same, there is a difference in the way they are used. In spoken language, *nobody* is far more frequent than *no one*. In written texts, *no one* is much more frequent than *nobody*.

Nobody and *no one* can be used as emphatic alternatives to *not … anybody/not anyone*:

We knew ***nobody*** *when we first came to London.*
(or: We knew no one when we first came to London.)
(both are more emphatic than: We didn't know anybody when we first came to London.)

Nobody and *no one*, rather than *not anybody/not anyone* are used as the subject of a clause:

We need engineers but ***nobody*** *wants to learn how to be one.*
(preferred to: … but not anybody wants to learn how to be one.)

You can describe the past, but ***no one*** *can predict the future.*

Nothing, *no one* and *nobody* can be followed by *but*, the whole phrase having the meaning of 'only':

They must tell the truth and ***nothing but*** *the truth.*
(… and only the truth)

No one but *the head of the company himself should meet the delegation at the airport.*
(Only the head of the company …)

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NEVER, NOWHERE 444

In negative statements *not … ever* and *not … anywhere* are normally preferred. *Never* and *nowhere* are more emphatic alternatives:

*I have**n't ever** eaten clams.*
(less emphatic than: I've never eaten clams.)

*I'd **never** lie to you, you know that.*
(emphatic)

*Have you seen my keys? I ca**n't** find them **anywhere**.*
(preferred to: … I can find them nowhere.)

*There's **nowhere** to sit, is there?*

Never sometimes occurs in marked mid positions for extra emphasis:

***It never was** very clear to me why she resigned.*
(marked position between subject and lexical verb *be*)

A: *Janet got divorced last month.*
B: *Really? She never said a word!*
A: *Well **they never did** get on together.*
(marked position before first auxiliary verb)

Further emphasis for *never* is provided by *ever*:

*They **never ever** go out, do they?*

336a for subject-verb inversion after negative adverbs such as ***hardly***, ***never***, ***rarely***, ***scarcely***, ***seldom***

NEITHER, NEITHER OF, NEITHER … NOR, NOT … OR/NOR, NOT … NEITHER/NOR 445

Neither

Neither can be used on its own in replies to refer to two alternatives which have already been mentioned:

A: *Does that mean they're going to win or lose?*
B: ***Neither**. We think they'll probably draw.*

Neither is also used as a determiner before singular countable nouns. It allows a negative statement to be made about two things at the same time:

***Neither** party has shown any real commitment to improving the environment.*

***Neither** parent should be held responsible for what happened.*

Neither of

Neither of is used with pronouns and plural countable nouns preceded by a determiner. Traditional grammar books state that it is followed by a singular verb, but a plural verb is also common, especially in informal speech:

> ***Neither of** the two choices **leaves** us in any doubt.*
>
> ***Neither of** them **was** able to get to sleep because of the noise outside their window.*
>
> ***Neither of** the teachers **were** present at the meeting.*

Neither … nor

Neither … nor function as a correlative coordinator (308). They are used to link two or more alternatives:

> ***Neither** the American company **nor** its British subsidiary have prepared for the takeover.*
>
> *It's **neither** possible **nor** likely that they will succeed.*

A similar meaning is expressed by *either … or* plus a negative verb:

> *They didn't have **either** still **or** sparkling water, so I just got tap water.*
> (or: They had neither still nor sparkling water, so I just got tap water.)

When two or more clauses are coordinated, there is subject-verb inversion in the clause introduced by *nor*. Coordination with subject-verb inversion is associated with formal styles:

> *They can **neither** understand practical causes, **nor** are they sympathetic to the relationship between theory and practice.*

Nor … nor can occur after *neither*:

> *He stood like a statue. He **neither** spoke **nor** moved. **Nor** did he appear to be listening to what was happening around him.*

Not … or/nor

Alternatives introduced by *not* can be linked with either *or* or *nor*. *Nor* is more emphatic than *or* and less common:

> *It is**n't** good **or** bad. It's just pretty mediocre.*
>
> *She was **not** annoyed **or** offended. In fact she seemed completely indifferent.*
>
> *It is **not** sweet **nor** sour, but something in between.*

Not … neither/nor

If a coordinated clause follows a negative clause, *neither* or *nor* can be used to make the subsequent clause negative. In such cases the verb and subject are inverted:

> *This is **not** your best set of exam results by any means but **neither** is it your worst.*

A: *I **don't** think their products are particularly reliable.*
B: ***Neither** do I.*
(or: Nor do I.)

*The cottage has **no** central heating, **nor** does it have a proper boiler.*

HARDLY, RARELY, SCARCELY, SELDOM, ETC. 446

Adverbs such as *barely*, *hardly*, *rarely*, *scarcely*, *seldom* have quasi-negative meanings. They are used without *not*:

*They could **hardly** believe their eyes.*
('They couldn't hardly believe their eyes' and similar sentences may occur, but are considered non-standard)

*Examiners are only **rarely** generous in such circumstances.*

*The results felt **scarcely** worth celebrating.*

*The committee only very **seldom** makes such awards.*

***Scarcely** anyone turned up, did they?*
(~~Scarcely no one turned up.~~)

Little and *few* function in a similar way:

*They go out very **little** these days.*

*There's **little** point in asking him, is there?*

***Few** would disagree with the party, I suppose.*

*There were very **few** people at the cricket match.*

Note also that *little* and *few* are marked (more emphatic) when compared to non-assertive equivalents *not much* and *not many*:

*He does**n't** have **much** time for relaxation.*
(non-assertive)

*He has **little** time for relaxation.*
(marked)

*She did**n't** have **many** opportunities while working for the previous company.*
(non-assertive)

*She had **few** opportunities while working for the previous company.*
(marked)

336a for subject-verb inversion after negative adverbs such as ***hardly***, ***never***, ***rarely***, ***scarcely***, ***seldom***

A–Z **50 *Little, a little, few, a few***

NEGATION AND DISCOURSE 447

Intensifying negation 447a

At all is the most common intensifier of negative items:

*You've **hardly** eaten anything **at all**.*

*Are there **no** tickets **at all** left?*

*They were running the economy **without** any control **at all** from the International Monetary Fund.*

*There's just **nowhere at all** where you can get decent coffee in this town.*

A–Z 12 *All*

Whatsoever, which is used after *no, no one, none* and *nothing*, has a similar meaning to *at all* but is more emphatic. *Whatsoever* can be used to intensify any negative noun phrase:

*I want **no** interruptions **whatsoever** during this meeting. And **no one whatsoever** is to know about it.*

A: *Have you no juice in the fridge?*
B: ***None whatsoever**.*

Not a bit, *a little bit*, *in the least*, *the least bit* are also used to intensify negatives:

*The students **weren't a bit** interested in having extra classes in the evening.*

*I **didn't** find his remarks amusing **in the least**.*

*The doctors **weren't the least bit** worried about his health.*

A–Z 27 *Bit, a bit (of)*

Intensified negation can also be used as a mark of politeness:

A: *Would it disturb you if I use your phone?*
B: *Not **in the least**.*

Not and hedging 447b

In negative clauses, *not* is often accompanied by *actually*, *necessarily*, *really* or *very* in order to soften the force of the negative and to sound more polite or tentative:

*Her acting was**n't actually** convincing, was it?*

*Sorry, but I do**n't really** feel like going out tonight.*

*I'm **not very** familiar with this type of printer. Can you help me?*

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Other words such as *absolutely*, *altogether*, *entirely* are used in the same way, although they are more formal:

*I'm **not altogether** sure whether we should support him for election.*

*The shopkeepers are **not entirely** against the idea of twenty-four-hour shopping.*

These structures are often used as short hedged replies:

A: *Did you mind not being invited?*
B: ***Not really**, no. I didn't.*

A: *I suppose you've made up your mind to buy the roses?*
B: *No, **not necessarily**.*

Repeated negation and affirmative statements 447c

Two or more negative statements can be used to make a forceful affirmative statement:

[said by a retired actor who is being asked if his day is now boring and difficult to fill]
*I do**n't** do anything I do**n't** want to do.*
(more forceful than: I only do things that I want to do.)

[a brand name of a margarine-spread product which claims to taste no different from butter]
*I Ca**n't** Believe It's **Not** Butter.*

***None of** the countries have **no** proper hygiene regulations.*
(All of the countries have at least some proper hygiene regulations.)

Double negation and hedging 447d

Double negation involving *not* plus a negative-affixed word (440 above) commonly occurs in more formal styles of English such as academic writing. It enables speakers and writers to express ideas cautiously:

*The government is **not** blame**less** as regards the recent rise in unemployment.*

*This is a **not un**interesting essay.*

*Unfortunately, it is **not im**possible that at least one third of Shakespeare's sonnets were written by Sidney.*

*It is **not un**usual for people to see the film three or four times.*

Double negation as a hedging or distancing device may take the form of two negative elements in a phrase, clause or sentence:

***Not** a day passes when he does **not** remember being the cause of her unhappiness.*
(Every day he remembers being the cause of her unhappiness.)

[A is commenting on the unwillingness of B to go to a hotel which they both know suffers regular electricity power failures]
A: *So you went to the hotel in the end?*
B: *Yes but* ***not without*** *a powerful torch.*
(Yes, but with a powerful torch.)

With the verb *surprise*, two negative verb phrases in sequence can also be used to hedge an opinion or other expression of stance:

*I should****n't*** *be surprised if he did****n't*** *retire soon.*
(I think he'll retire soon.)

A–Z **44 *Hardly***

Condition

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Condition

INTRODUCTION 448

Conditions deal with imagined situations: some are possible, some are unlikely, some are impossible. The speaker/writer imagines that something can or cannot happen or have happened, and then compares that situation with possible consequences or outcomes, or offers further logical conclusions about the situation.

Conditionality is conveyed chiefly by means of conditional clauses. Conditional clauses are most typically introduced by the subordinating conjunction *if*:

conditional clause	main clause
If *it rains,*	*we're going to stay in the house.*

Differences in tense and modality are important to a possible or imagined situation. In the conditional clause, tense choices express different types of potential event; in the main clause, modal verbs are used to indicate the unfulfilled outcome of those events.

Examples of conditional sentences

conditional clause: possible situation	main clause: possible outcome	comments
If *they* ***promote*** *her,* (present tense)	*she****'ll*** *get a big pay rise.* (*will/shall*)	there is a possibility that the event will happen
If *I* ***had*** *the money,* (past tense)	*I****'d*** *go on a round-the-world cruise.* (*would/should*)	the event is unlikely and is purely hypothetical
If *he* ***had gone*** *there,* (past perfect)	*he* ***might have*** *enjoy****ed*** *it.* (*might have* + *-ed* participle)	the event is impossible; it did not happen

Conditional clauses can be formed with other conjunctions than *if*: for example, *as long as*, *unless* (454–456). For the first part of this chapter (449–453) examples are confined to clauses with *if*.

Conditional clauses typically precede main clauses but may also follow them:

conditional clause	main clause
If *I don't hear from you,*	*I'll assume the meeting is still on for tomorrow morning.*

main clause	conditional clause
We can manage	***if*** *you let us know in time.*

If may also occur in substitute structures:

Are you coming? ***If so****, can you get ready quickly?*
(with clause-substitute *so*)

If you want to join us, give me a ring. ***If not****, then see you next week.*

Some conditional clauses are used to impose conditions by the speaker/writer on the listener/reader or on the situation. These include clauses introduced by subordinators such as *as/so long as*, *only if*, *on condition that*, *providing/provided (that)*:

A: *Can I borrow this dictionary?*
B: *Yeah.* ***So long as*** *you don't hold on to it.*

He was released from prison ***on condition that*** *he went into exile.*

THE FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD CONDITIONALS 449

The most commonly described conditional clauses are often known as the first, second and third conditionals. They have the following structures.

The first conditional

The structure of the first conditional is: *if* + present simple tense + modal verb with future reference (e.g. *will/shall/may*).

In the first conditional, a speaker or writer predicts a likely result in the future if the condition is fulfilled. There must be at least some chance of the condition being fulfilled:

If *Sally* ***comes*** *too, there****'ll be*** *five of us.*

We ***won't*** *have enough time* ***if*** *we* ***want*** *to do some shopping too.*

✪ *Will* and *shall* are used in the main clause, not the *if*-clause:

If he ***moves*** *to Manchester, he* ***will*** *have to sell his house in Bristol.*
(~~If he will move to Manchester, he will have to sell his house in Bristol.~~)

The second conditional

The structure of the second conditional is: *if* + simple past tense + modal verb with future-in-the-past reference (e.g. *would/could/might*).

In the second conditional, a speaker or writer responds to a possible or hypothetical situation by indicating a possible outcome. The speaker or writer states that the condition must be fulfilled for the present or future to be different:

If *I* ***knew*** *what you wanted, maybe I* ***could help*** *you.*

I ***would do*** *a computer course* ***if*** *I* ***had*** *the time.*

The third conditional

The structure of the third conditional is: *if* + past perfect tense + modal verb with future-in-the-past reference (e.g. *would/could/might*) + *have* + *-ed* participle.

In the third conditional, the speaker's or writer's attitude to an imagined past situation is described. Here the speaker or writer is talking about a past event which did not happen, and therefore things are different from how they might have been:

If *I* ***had seen*** *you walking, I* ***could have offered*** *you a lift.*

Tessa ***would have been*** *furious* ***if*** *she* ***had heard*** *him say that.*

Many conditional clauses occur in these structures, but there are also several other possible structures.

REAL CONDITIONALS 450

It can also be helpful to describe conditional clauses by the degree to which they refer to real or unreal situations. Real situations are things that are true, have happened, generally happen or are likely to happen. Unreal situations are things that are untrue or are imagined, have not happened and are only remotely likely to happen. Unreal situations are the basis of the second and third conditionals (449 above).

In conditional clauses which refer to real situations, tenses are normally used in the same way as in other kinds of sentence. Present tenses are used to talk about present and future events as well as about general truths and facts, and past tenses are used to talk about past events:

If *you* ***want to*** *learn the guitar, you really* ***need*** *to practise for at least a couple of hours a day.*
(for any person who does in fact want to learn)

If *I* ***criticised*** *her unfairly, then I always* ***apologised****.*
(it did sometimes happen that I criticised her, and I did apologise)

A wide variety of patterns occur with real conditionals. Some examples of common patterns are given here:

- present simple *if*-clause and present simple main clause:

  If *steel* ***is*** *exposed to air and water, it* ***resists*** *rust for a considerable length of time.*

  If *I* ***feel*** *like some exercise, I* ***take*** *the dog for a walk.*

- *be going to if*-clause and *be going to* main clause:

  If *you****'re going to*** *buy a house, then you****'re going to*** *need a lot of money.*

- present simple *if*-clause and modal verb in main clause:

  If *you* ***have*** *toothache as bad as that, you* ***must*** *go to a dentist today.*

  If *that****'s*** *on the disk, we* ***should*** *have it on our system.*

- present simple *if*-clause and present progressive main clause:

  If *they* ***think*** *I'm going to retire quietly, then they****'re making*** *a big mistake.*

  They ***are breaking*** *the law* ***if*** *they* ***give*** *you that information.*

- present progressive *if*-clause and present progressive main clause:

  If *you****'re getting*** *backache all the time, then you****'re not sitting*** *properly.*

- present progressive *if*-clause and present simple main clause:

  If *you****'re suffering*** *from hay-fever, you* ***need*** *one of these sprays.*

- past simple *if*-clause and past simple main clause:

  If *I* ***missed*** *the last train, I just* ***stayed*** *over with friends.*
  (*if* here is synonymous with *when*)

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- past simple *if*-clause and present perfect main clause:

  ***If** you **ate** too much over the holidays, then it's no surprise you**'ve put** on weight.*
  (you did eat too much and you have put on weight)

- past perfect *if*-clause and past simple main clause:

  ***If** they**'d missed** something out or **had got** it wrong, she **showed** them how to correct it.*
  (*if* here is synonymous with *when*)

- past progressive *if*-clause and past simple main clause:

  *They always **took** the dog with them **if** they **were going** anywhere.*

MAIN CLAUSES 451

Although main clauses in *if*-sentences are most typically declarative, it is also possible for interrogative and imperative clauses to occur.

- *if*-clause and interrogative main clause:

  ***If** you want to speak to him, **why don't you just give him a ring**?*

  ***Would you tell everyone**, **if** you won a huge amount of money on the lottery?*

  ***If** you'd lost your keys, **what would you do**?*

- *if*-clause and imperative main clause:

  ***If** you get bad migraines, **try** a homeopathic cure.*

MODAL VERBS IN CONDITIONAL CLAUSES 452

Modal verbs (most typically *will* or *would*) may occur in conditional clauses if they have a meaning of willingness or prediction, or where it is important to mark politeness:

***If** you**'ll** wait a minute, I'll fetch the porter to help you.*

***If** you **would** all follow me, I'll show you to your rooms.*

***If** you **would** have allowed them more time, I still think they would have done better.*
(if you had been willing to allow them more time)

*I'll take care of the tea and coffee, **if** it**'ll** help to get things done quicker.*
(if the assumption is true/valid that things will get done quicker)

*I'll do it for you, **if** you **could** just wait a minute.*

Should can be used in a conditional clause where it has the meaning of 'happen to'/'chance to'. *Should* suggests that the speaker thinks the possibility is remote:

*If you **should** run into Peter, tell him to call me.*

OTHER CONDITIONAL CLAUSES WITH *IF* 453

If it were not for

If it were/was not (had not been) for + noun phrase refers to hypothetical situations and actions:

***If it weren't for** the police, I think those burglars would have got away with even more.*
(if the police had not arrived/intervened)

If he were to

If + noun phrase + *was/were to* + verb (base form) also refers to hypothetical situations and actions (with a singular subject, *was to* is less formal than *were to*):

***If I was to say** to you 'Barcelona', what would you think of?*

***If the headteacher were to resign**, it would be a disaster for the school.*

*The garden's really special. **If Rick and Joan were to sell** the house, people would be queuing up to buy it.*

Only if

Only if is used to impose conditions:

*You can go **only if** you are back by midnight.*

Only may be separated from *if*, with *only* in the main clause:

*They'll **only** let you check in **if** you've got a passport or photo ID.*

Even if

Even if may be used as an emphatic form of *if*:

***Even if** you flew business class, it would still be an exhausting journey.*

If only

If only is used to express a wish that things could be different. It refers to an unreal condition. The clause often occurs without an accompanying main clause:

***If only** we could get to a warmer country in the winter.*
(I wish we could get to a warmer country in the winter.)

If in ellipted and non-finite clauses

If also appears in ellipted and non-finite clauses in more formal contexts:

***If wet**, the match will be played on the indoor courts.*
(ellipted conditional clause)

***If paying by direct debit**, please make sure that you notify your bank at least one month in advance.*
(non-finite conditional clause)

✪ *If* and *when*

If and *when* are not the same. In unreal conditionals, only *if*, not *when*, may be used. *When* is used to refer to something the speaker knows will happen at some point in time:

***If** we win the lottery, we'll give up our jobs and fly to the Caribbean.*
(speaker does not know the event will happen)

***When** Georgina comes in, tell her I want to speak to her.*
(speaker knows Georgina is coming)

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UNLESS AND *IF … NOT* 454

Unless has a meaning of 'if … not' or 'except if'. *Unless* and *if … not*, and *unless* and *except if* are often, but not always, interchangeable. *Unless* can only normally refer to things which have not happened or did not happen or probably won't happen:

***Unless** you **can** reduce the weight of that case, I'm afraid you won't be allowed on the flight.*
(or: If you can't reduce the weight of that case, I'm afraid you won't be allowed on the flight.)

*Come over tomorrow afternoon around five, **unless** my secretary **contacts** you.*
(or: Come over tomorrow afternoon around five, except if my secretary contacts you.)

*I always think Dave would be happier **if** he **didn't** work so hard.*
(*unless* cannot be used, since Dave does in fact work hard)
(~~I always think Dave would be happier unless he worked so hard.~~)

[speakers are talking about plants in their garden which they covered to protect them from a severe frost which occurred]
A: ***If** we **hadn't** covered them, they'd have been ruined.*
B: *Yes, I think they'd have been dead by now.*
(*unless* cannot be used, since the speakers did in fact cover the plants)

Unless is used, especially in spoken English, to introduce an additional comment or afterthought:

*We don't have anyone to captain the team, now Tina's resigned – **unless** you're interested, of course.*

A: *Do you want to take a break now?*
B: *Yeah, right.*
A: ***Unless** you want to go on for another half an hour or so?*

WH-CONDITIONAL CLAUSES 455

Clauses introduced by *whatever*, *whenever*, *however*, *whoever*, *whichever* can introduce conditions which always seem to obtain and cannot seem to be changed:

***Whatever** she says, don't believe it.*

***Whenever** the team loses, they are miserable for the rest of the weekend.*

***However** late they arrive, how can we find the time to meet them?*

Whether … or and *whether … or not* can be used to link two different conditions which the speaker regards as having the same likely outcome:

***Whether** we drive **or** go by train, it will still take about four hours.*

*I don't think it'll make any difference **whether** Jake comes with us **or not**.*

OTHER CONDITIONAL EXPRESSIONS 456

The other subordinating conjunctions listed here operate in a similar way to *if*: the conditional clause typically contains a non-modal verb in the present or the past tense, while modal verbs usually occur in the main clause.

Providing, provided that

Providing is more frequent in spoken language; *provided that* is more frequent in writing. Both may be used for real and unreal conditions:

A: *But presumably you've got some sort of senior citizen's fare?*
B: *Yes,* ***providing*** *you've got a railcard.*

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On condition that, in the event that, in the event of + noun phrase

On condition that and *in the event that/in the event of* are much more frequent in formal written contexts than in informal spoken contexts. They may be used for real and unreal conditions:

[from a leaflet published by an anti-smoking campaign]
Many surgeons offer patients an operation only ***on condition that*** *they give up smoking – and often find that the ensuing improvement makes surgery unnecessary.*

In the event that *the plane lands on water, life-jackets are located under every seat.*

In the event of *a sudden loss of cabin pressure, oxygen masks will be lowered automatically from the panel above your seat.*

As long as, so long as

As long as and *so long as* occur frequently in informal spoken contexts. They may both be used for real and unreal conditions:

As long as *you promise to be back by 6, you can borrow the car.*

As long as *it doesn't rain, we'll have a great time.*

I'm always fine ***as long as*** *I can get about six or seven hours of sleep.*

But I won't mind too much ***so long as*** *she's coming back.*

Suppose (that), supposing, assuming

Suppose (that), *supposing* and *assuming* can be used to imagine unreal conditions:

A: *You just have to say yes.*
B: *But* ***suppose*** *you're not sure?* ***Suppose*** *you have to decide later?* ***Suppose*** *you feel you have to go but don't really want to?*

Assuming *we don't sell the house, we can still move next spring. There are always more buyers in the spring.*

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Supposing and *assuming* do not impose conditions:

This article may be distributed ***if*** *our logo is shown.*
(or: ***provided that*** *our logo is shown.*)
(or: ***on condition that*** *our logo is shown.*)
(or: ***as (so) long as*** *our logo is shown.*)
(but not: ~~supposing/assuming~~ our logo is shown.)

But for

But for is a fixed expression meaning 'if it were not for'. It is used in more formal contexts and is followed by a noun phrase:

But for *Sunita, we'd all have got lost ages ago.*

He would have gone to university ***but for*** *the fact that his parents were poor and couldn't afford it.*
(~~He would have gone to university but for (that) his parents were poor and could not afford it~~.)

Otherwise

Otherwise can be used to express an outcome which is likely if a condition is not met. It may introduce the clause which indicates the outcome or, especially in informal spoken language, it may come in end position:

I won't tell Brenda, ***otherwise*** *she'll be furious.*
(If I tell Brenda, she'll be furious.)

Take the umbrella. You'll get soaked ***otherwise****.*
(If you do not take the umbrella, you'll get soaked.)

In case, in case of

In case has a meaning of *because x might be/happen* or *because there is a risk of x*:

I'll take these shoes with me ***in case*** *it rains.*
(I will take the shoes whether it rains or not, because there is a risk of rain)
(compare: 'I'll take these shoes with me if it rains.' i.e. 'I will not take the shoes if it does not rain.')

In case is frequently premodified by *just*, indicating that the speaker thinks the outcome is unlikely:

I'll give you the address to give Paul, ***just in case*** *you bump into him.*

In case may, in very formal and literary contexts, be followed by the subjunctive form *were to* (159e):

Urquhart had taken the precaution of taking down the details from Simon's driving licence, just ***in case*** *he* ***were to*** *continue to cause trouble and needed to be tracked down.*
(more typical: … just in case he continued to cause trouble …)

The phrase *in case of* + noun phrase carries a slightly different conditional meaning. It has negative connotations and is used for real conditions in formal contexts such as warning notices:

In case of *fire, do not use the lift.*
(Only if/when there is a fire …)

✪ *In case of* is not used with an *-ing* form:

In case of *a breakdown, call this number.*
(~~In case of breaking down, call this number.~~)

Lest

Lest is used in very formal and literary contexts, and is a formal alternative to *in case*. It is used to indicate that an action is done in order to prevent a possible negative outcome. It is followed by *should* or, even more formally, by a subjunctive form (159e):

She threw on a jacket and walked quickly out, head down into her collar, ***lest*** *anyone* ***should*** *later be able to recognise her.*

Lest *she* ***appear*** *over-familiar, she nodded and turned away.*

What if …?

What if …? is used to imagine unreal situations and to pose questions about their possible outcomes:

What if *she doesn't turn up? What shall we do?*

A: ***What if*** *we'd waited and left later? We'd have missed the flight with all that traffic.*
B: *Yes, you're right.*

No conditional subordinator

Conditions can also be conveyed without any overt conditional subordinator, often using *and*, especially in informal spoken language:

We'd better not be late. They'll leave without us.
(They'll leave without us if we're late.)

[parent to misbehaving child]
Do that again ***and*** *I'll get very angry.*
(If you do that again, I'll get very angry.)

Buy three CDs ***and*** *get one free.*
(If you buy three CDs, …)

LINKING WITH *THEN* 457

Then is often used to link a main clause following a conditional to add emphasis:

[from an Oxford City Council tourist brochure]
If *you are visiting Oxford,* ***then*** *why not take the opportunity to visit The Oxford Story – a museum of Oxford life down the ages?*

If *she had prepared better for the interview,* ***then*** *she would have got the job.*

As long as *it's okay with you,* ***then*** *I'll stay till Monday.*

Unless *you've got certain qualifications,* ***then*** *you can't get a contract.*

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES AND FORMALITY 458

Conditions can be expressed at different levels of formality. More formal structures sometimes involve inversion and the omission of conjunctions such as *if*:

[extract from a letter concerning an application to join a Health and Fitness Club]
Were you *to apply before the 15th of September, you would still be given a preferential discount.*

Inversion instead of using *if* is normally only possible in the case of the verb forms *had*, *should* and subjunctive *were* (i.e. *were* used for all persons, singular and plural:

Had they *not been so uncooperative, I might have forgiven them and not complained.*

Should you *wish to visit the factory and to inspect the plant, the best time for our management team would be in the early evening.*

Were it *not for help from a psychologist, she might have been a lot more unwell by now.*
(~~Was it not for help from a psychologist, she might have been …~~)

After *if*, the subjunctive forms *were* and *be* are sometimes used in second conditional sentences in very formal contexts (159e). *Were* is used in hypothetical conditionals, *be* tends to be used more in real conditionals:

If *there* ***were*** *any reason to doubt his word, we would ask him to resign.*

I am delighted to see you again, even ***if*** *it* ***be*** *under such tragic circumstances.*

In most informal contexts, indicative forms of *be* are preferred, except for the semi-fixed expression *if I were you*:

If *she* ***was*** *to sell her place now, she'd probably make a big profit.*
(preferred to: If she were to sell …)

If I were you*, I'd book a taxi the night before.*

IF AND POLITENESS 459

If-clauses do not always mark conditions; they can be used to issue polite directives, especially in spoken contexts, where the *if*-clause often stands alone and typically involves a modal verb:

[a headteacher speaking to a group of parents before a meeting begins]
If *I could just have your attention for a moment please. Thank you.*

[request to a friend to hold a computer cable which will be attached to a printer]
If *you'd just like to hold this for me.*

[extract from a letter from an insurance company]
If *you would like to return your insurance certificate to us, we will issue a new certificate for your vehicle within three working days.*

Other common expressions involving *if* include *if I may say so*, *if it'll help*, *if you see what I mean*, *if that's all right with you*, *if I may put it like this*, *if it's not rude to ask*, *if you don't mind*. These expressions add a tone of politeness, and function to soften statements and questions:

You've still got an awful lot of work to do on this, ***if I may say so****.*

If it's not rude to ask*, how old are you?*

Could you move to the other room, please, ***if you don't mind****.*

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Comparison

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Comparison

INTRODUCTION 460

Comparative forms compare one entity or process with another. The most common comparative forms are adjectives and adverbs used with the suffix *-er* or premodified by *more*. The object of the comparison is most commonly introduced with *than*.

Comparison involves both morphological patterns in the form of endings, and syntax in the form of comparative clauses.

Comparatives often say that two things are different in quality or quantity or that something becomes different by changing over time:

*Your dog might be fat but our dog is **lazier**, I'm sure.*

*In fact, I think that this school has a **brighter** future **than** the private school has.*

*It's getting **hotter** and **hotter**.*

Comparatives also say that two things are of the same quality and quantity. A common structure used to indicate this function is *as … as*:

*Geoff is **as** overweight **as** his wife.*

*Leeds has almost **as** many coffee bars **as** London.*

Superlative forms involve comparison by singling out one thing as having a unique quality. A superlative defines a specific member of a set. An adjective or adverb with an *-est* ending or which is premodified by *most* is a common marker of a superlative form:

*Taipei has the **tallest** building in the world.*
(Taipei has the building which is taller than all the other buildings in the world)

*I've got four daughters. They are all small but Chloë is the **smallest**.*

*Tiger Woods is definitely the **most improved** golfer in the year 2000.*

Comparison can indicate choices and preferences:

*Bob'll have salad **rather than** chips. He's trying to lose weight.*

Comparative forms also allow attitudes to be expressed. The comparative form sometimes refers to an assumed norm. For instance, in the following examples it is normal to assume that people have one house and that ice cream is delicious:

*Jill now has **as** many **as** five houses.*

*Italian ice cream is always the **most delicious**.*

[slower ski slopes are not as dangerous]
Don't you think it'll be dangerous for Bill to ski on the ***faster*** *slopes?*

ONE-SYLLABLE ADJECTIVES 461

One-syllable adjectives normally form comparatives and superlatives with *-er* and *-est*.

Examples of the comparative and superlative of one-syllable adjectives

adjective	comparative	superlative
cold	*colder*	*coldest*
strong	*stronger*	*strongest*
fine	*finer*	*finest*
rich	*richer*	*richest*
big	*bigger*	*biggest*
thin	*thinner*	*thinnest*

✪ *More* and *most* are not normally used before one-syllable adjectives:

She is two years ***older*** *than her sister.*
(~~She is two years more old than her sister.~~)

The ***strongest*** *businesses in the region have also contracted in the last six months.*
(~~The most strong businesses in the region …~~)

That's the ***fattest*** *pigeon I've ever seen.*

In informal contexts, *more* and *most* can be used with some short adjectives, often when followed by *than*. When spoken, the stress normally falls on the word *more*:

It's ***more*** *cold in the North* ***than*** *it is in the South.*

She looked ***more*** *thin today* ***than*** *I've ever seen her.*

More and *most* do have to be used with the single-syllable adjectives *apt*, *real*, *right* and *wrong*:

He made what he was teaching seem ***more real****, didn't he?*
(~~He made what he was teaching seem realer, didn't he?~~)

You couldn't be ***more wrong****.*
(~~You couldn't be wronger.~~)

TWO-SYLLABLE ADJECTIVES 462

Two-syllable adjectives which end in *-er*, *-le* or *-ow* can have comparatives and superlatives either with *-er* and *-est* or with *more* and *most*. Such adjectives include *able*, *clever*, *hollow*, *narrow*, *simple*:

*Peter is the **cleverer** brother.*
(or: Peter is the more clever brother.)

*The **simplest** approach is often the best approach.*
(or: The most simple approach is often the best approach.)

The comparative and superlative forms of two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y* are spelled *-ier*, *-iest*. Among the most frequent are: *angry*, *busy*, *clumsy*, *easy*, *friendly*, *funny*, *happy*, *lovely*, *lucky*, *pretty*, *silly*, *windy*.

Examples of the comparative and superlative of two-syllable adjectives ending in -y

adjective	comparative	superlative
friendly	*friendlier*	*friendliest*
lucky	*luckier*	*luckiest*
angry	*angrier*	*angriest*

*Be careful! He's **clumsier** than you think.*

*It's been one of the **windiest** days on record, with gusts reaching 100 miles per hour.*

MULTI-SYLLABLE ADJECTIVES 463

Multi-syllable adjectives form their comparative and superlative with *more* and *most*:

*He is **more interesting** than his brother.*
(~~He is interestinger than his brother.~~)

*The **most intelligent** solution would be to do nothing.*
(~~The intelligentest solution would be to do nothing.~~)

Some negatively prefixed forms are exceptions. They can take either *more* and *most* or *-er* and *-est*:

*She's one of the **untidier** guests.*
(or: She's one of the more untidy guests.)

*Yesterday was the **unpleasantest** day of my life.*
(or: Yesterday was the most unpleasant day of my life.)

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IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES (*BAD, GOOD, ILL, WELL*) 464

Some very frequent adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Examples of the comparative and superlative of irregular adjectives

adjective	comparative	superlative
good	*better*	*best*
well	*better*	*best*
bad	*worse*	*worst*
ill	*worse*	*worst*
old	*older/elder*	*oldest/eldest*
far	*farther/further*	*farthest/furthest*
little	*smaller*	*smallest/littlest*

*The weather in Scotland was **better** than we thought.*

*Compared with the other teams in the division, they have had the **worst** results.*

*He was ill last week; this week he is **worse**.*

The same applies to the use of these words in compound adjectives:

*It's always advisable to book with the **best-known** company.*

*Don't you think she is **better-looking** than her sister?*

*That was one of the **worst-organised** trips I've ever been on.*

Older/elder; farther/further

Note that when talking about members of a family, *elder/eldest* may be used. In other contexts *older/oldest* are used:

*Janet is my **elder** sister but Mary is the **eldest**.*

*Their **eldest daughter** has just won a swimming scholarship to an American university.*
(preferred to: Their oldest daughter …)

*The cathedral is the **oldest** in Northern Europe.*
(~~The cathedral is the eldest in Northern Europe.~~)

Elder may not be used with *than*:

*My sister's **older** than me.*
(~~My sister's elder than me.~~)

There is no difference in meaning between *farther* and *further* when both refer to distances. However, only *further* is used when the meaning is 'extra' or 'additional':

*I just can't walk any **farther**.*

*The **furthest** road is sometimes the best road to take.*

*For **further** information, see your Weekend magazine supplement this Saturday.*
(~~For farther information see …~~)

COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE ADVERBS 465

Short adverbs normally have comparative and superlative forms with *-er* and *-est*. The most common examples are: *early*, *fast*, *hard*, *high*, *late*, *long*, *loud*, *low*, *near*, *soon*:

Isn't it possible for them to come ***earlier****?*

Who jumped ***highest*** *in last year's Olympics?*

They said they couldn't finish the job ***sooner*** *than midday.*

Adverbs with two or more syllables form the comparative and superlative with *more* and *most*:

This book explains things a bit ***more comprehensively*** *than the other one.*

The new hotel is the ***most elegantly*** *designed building in the city.*

The adverbs *well* and *badly* have the same comparative and superlative forms as the adjectives *good* (*better*, *best*) and *bad* (*worse*, *worst*):

The whole team excelled themselves but Jane performed ***better*** *than I expected.*

We all sang badly but I sang ***worst*** *of all.*

COMPARATIVES 466

Than 466a

Than is used to introduce the second element in a comparative structure:

London is ***less*** *crowded* ***than*** *Paris.*

Don't you think the painting looks ***better*** *in the kitchen* ***than*** *it does in the front room?*

In the winter, I think hot drinks are ***better*** *for you* ***than*** *cold drinks.*

It was ***warmer*** *yesterday* ***than*** *today.*

He is much ***more*** *intelligent* ***than*** *he looks.*

She goes there ***more*** *often* ***than*** *I used to.*

These days Jim buys ***more*** *things for Anna* ***than*** *Bill buys for his daughter.*

That is not used to introduce the second element of a comparison:

She seems thinner ***than*** *she was the last time I saw her.*
(~~She seems thinner that she was the last time I saw her.~~)

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When *than* is followed by a personal pronoun acting as the head of a noun phrase, the object forms (*me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, etc.) are used:

My sister is prettier ***than me****.*
(or: My sister is prettier than I am.)
(~~My sister is prettier than I.~~)

While she is training, they'll all have better-paid jobs ***than her****, won't they?*
(or: While she is training, they'll all have better-paid jobs than she has, won't they?)
(~~While she is training, they'll all have better-paid jobs than she, won't they?~~)

Rather than stresses one element of a comparison to the exclusion of the other (also **471g** below):

I'd say he was incompetent ***rather than*** *ignorant.*
(I'd say he was incompetent, not ignorant.)

They should buy experience ***rather than*** *youth and energy if they want to progress as a team.*
(They should buy experience, not youth and energy …)

Comparative meanings 466b

A comparative form relates one entity to another. If a person says *I feel better today*, they are comparing their present state with how they felt before, which may have been 'not well/bad', rather than 'well/good':

Their house is ***smaller*** *than ours.*
(both houses may be big, or both may be small, depending on context)

The use of *even* makes the meaning of the quality being compared inherent rather than relative:

You're there for a semester. It's not just three months. It may be ***even longer*** *than that.*
(speaker considers a semester, i.e. six months, to be a long time)

Still and *yet* are more formal alternatives to *even*:

The last lap of the race was ***still*** *more exciting.*

Yet *more perplexing was the loss of £200 from the main company office.*

Even and *still* are often used in end position, especially in spoken contexts:

They played badly didn't they, ***worse*** *than last week* ***even****.*

The journey home was ***more boring still****.*

Traditional grammar books indicate that when two entities are compared, only the comparative form (*-er* or *more*) can be used. However, in informal spoken contexts the comparative and the superlative form are both used, with a general preference for the superlative:

Both brothers are very bright but Paul is ***the brightest****.*
(or, more formal: Both brothers are very bright but Paul is the brighter.)

*Which of these two photos do you think is **the best**? I need one for the passport form.*
(preferred to: Which of these two photos do you think is the better?)

In more formal contexts, *the* + comparative + *of* may be used:

*The **more relaxed of** the candidates didn't in fact get the job.*
(less formal: The more relaxed candidate didn't in fact get the job.)

Promotional texts often use comparatives rather than superlatives to evaluate products. The comparison is often implicit with other members of the class of entities:

[review of a new car model; *toss in* means 'add in']
*The Shelta is a **more refined**, **keener**-handling car that's a **more restful** motorway mile-eater. And you can toss in the bonus of **greater** exclusivity.*

Premodification of comparatives 466c

A lot, far, much

To indicate a much greater degree on the scale of comparison, premodifiying adverbs such as *a lot*, *far*, *much* and *somewhat* are used. The most informal and commonly used in speech is *a lot*:

*Joan's been **a lot happier** since she moved to London, hasn't she?*

*The film was actually **far more entertaining** than the review suggested.*

*No one mentioned that I would get **much less money** and would have to work **somewhat harder**.*

A bit, rather, slightly

To indicate a small degree on the scale of comparison, items like *a bit*, *rather*, *slightly* are used. The most informal of these is *a bit*, which is very common in conversation:

*I think the coast is probably **a bit cooler** at this time of the year.*

*I think we're **rather more broadminded** nowadays, certainly in comparison to the last generation.*

*It's only **slightly less humid** here than in Sri Lanka.*

A–Z **27 Bit, a bit (of)**

Not (all) that much

Not (all) that much is used with a comparative adjective ending in *-er* to mean 'not as much as expected or indicated'. In all cases, the omission of *all* is optional, especially in informal contexts:

*The ferry is**n't all that much** cheaper.*

*She's **not that much older** than him, just a few years.*

More than, less than

More than and *less than* are both used before adjectives as alternatives to *very* and *not very*:

*They are **more than satisfied** with the pay rise they have received.*
(very satisfied)

*Her tutor was **less than happy** with the examination results.*
(not very happy)

No, not any

No + comparative and *not any* + comparative can be used to indicate a limit to the scale of a comparison:

*Some of the roses in the garden were **no bigger** than small coins.*

*Three of the children were **not any older** than six or seven.*
(an equivalent alternative is: Three of the children were as young as six or seven.)

Fixed phrases

A number of fixed phrases are used to indicate the extent (or otherwise) of the difference between the degrees being compared. These include:

all the better	*any the wiser*	*any the worse*
all the more	*none the wiser*	*no worse*
		none the worse

*She is **all the better** for seeing him again.*

*The film was **all the more** impressive because the ending left the mystery unexplained.*

*There's no point telling him. He won't be **any the wiser** even if he knew the truth.*

*They seem to be **none the worse** for having been interviewed by the police.*

COMPARISONS OF SIMILARITY 467

As … as 467a

When comparisons of degree are made between things which are similar or the same, then the comparative clause structure *as* + adjective/adverb + *as* + phrase or clause is frequently used:

*Is the Sultan of Brunei **as** rich **as** the Queen of England?*

*They are **as** keen to join in **as** we are.*

*Property in Guanzhou isn't **as** expensive **as** in Hong Kong.*

*Because of the currents, they had swum out **as** far **as** they dared.*

*He doesn't smoke **as** much **as** he used to.*

The negative of *as … as* may be *not as … as*, or *not so … as*. The form *not as … as* is by far the more frequent:

*This new dentist is **not as** good **as** my old one.*

*It's **not as** cold **as** it was yesterday.*

*The second quiz was **not so** easy **as** the first.*

*These two extremes are **not so** contradictory **as** they might seem.*
(or: These two extremes are not as contradictory as they might seem.)

When used with attributive adjectives in a noun phrase introduced by the indefinite article *a/an*, the word order is *as/not as/not so* + adjective + *a/an* + noun + *as*:

*It was **as happy a marriage as** anyone could ever dream of.*

*It's **not as difficult a task as** I thought.*

*It turned out to be **not so big a room as** they said it was.*

A–Z 37 *Ever*

The same, similar 467b

The same as or *the same* + noun phrase + *as* are used to say whether things are identical:

*Most shopping malls are not **the same as** the ones back home in Chicago.*

*That woman over there has just bought **the same** video recorder **as** ours.*

*They're both wearing **the same** jacket **as** my husband.*

Similar means 'sharing many characteristics but not identical'. It is followed by *to*:

*Your garden is **similar to** ours, long and narrow.*

*What he's done is **similar to** what we're trying to do.*

✪ *Than* is not used with *same* or *similar*, because *than* indicates a difference:

*Her Walkman is **the same as** the one I used to have.*
(~~Her Walkman is the same than the one I used to have.~~)

*Your kitchen is **similar to** ours.*
(~~Your kitchen is similar than ours.~~)

Same may be intensified using the following adverbs:

almost	*more or less*	*precisely*
exactly	*much*	*roughly*
just	*nearly*	

*Your jacket's **exactly the same** as mine.*

*We did **more or less the same** as we always do, just toured round and stayed in bed-and-breakfast places.*

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Very and *exact* may also intensify *same*, but they are used **after** *the*:

*They bought **the very same** DVD player as we did without realising it.*
(or: They bought the exact same DVD player …)

Like 467c

Like is used as a preposition and as a conjunction (but 471f below) to indicate similarity:

*Your dog's **like** mine. He'll eat anything.*

*Are you going to France again, **like** you did last year?*

The following adverbs are commonly used to modify *like*:

a bit	*just*	*somewhat*
a little	*quite* (meaning 'somewhat')	*very*
exactly		

*Your ideas sound just **a little like** our ideas.*

*It feels **just like** a new car.*

*His nature is **quite like** my father's.*

Note that sentences with *look*, *seem* and *sound* may sometimes not be true comparisons but may be hedged modal forms:

[identifying a coat among a pile of coats]
*That looks **like** mine.*
(could mean either: 'It appears similar to mine.' or 'It probably is mine.')

*That sounds **like** Steve's car.*
(could mean either: 'That car sounds similar to Steve's car.' or 'That probably is Steve's car.')

A–Z 49 *Like*

SUPERLATIVES 468

General 468a

Superlative adjectives are used to compare an entity with a whole group of which they are assumed to be a part:

*Nepal has the world's **highest** mountain.*

*Japan is the second **richest** country in the world.*

*In the 1980s Jack Nicklaus was the **best** golfer in the world.*

When a superlative is used with *the* to refer to something or somebody in a group, a prepositional phrase is often used to identify the group:

*Henry was **the tallest** of them all.*

*She was **the fastest worker** on the staff.*

Note the use of *in*, not *of*, when places are mentioned:

*Ben Nevis is the **highest** mountain **in** Scotland.*
(~~Ben Nevis is the highest mountain of Scotland.~~)

Superlative forms also occur in a range of common prepositional phrases:

*She's not been **in the best of health** this winter.*

*The storm was **at its worst** at 2 a.m.*

*Valencia were not **at their best** in the first half but things improved later in the game.*

Note the non-superlative use of *most*, meaning 'very'/'extremely', which may occur with the indefinite article *a*:

*That really is **most** kind of you.*
(~~That really is kindest of you.~~)

*The group has completed the exercise **most** imaginatively and above all **most** accurately.*

*It was **a most interesting** lecture.*

Use of *the* 468b

The is obligatory before superlative adjectives used attributively:

*It's **the most interesting** novel I've read in a long time.*
(~~It's most interesting novel I've read in a long time.~~)

*She's not **the most approachable** person, first thing in the morning.*
(~~She's not most approachable person, first thing in the morning.~~)

When a superlative adjective is used predicatively in expressions which define an entity, *the* is obligatory:

*His brother is quite tall but Henry is **the tallest** of them all.*
(~~His brother is quite tall but Henry is tallest of them all.~~)

The is optional before predicative adjectives in a *wh*-clause or in adverbial uses of the superlative:

*Let's see who's **(the) quickest** at answering these questions.*

*It depends on what's **(the) best** for you personally.*

*Patsy arrived **(the) earliest**.*

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The + superlative adjective + *of* is also used, particularly before indefinite nouns. The structure is rather formal:

***The best of** ideas happen when you are not thinking.*

*In New York even **the cheapest of** apartments is not affordable.*

The is optional with superlative adverbs modifying verb phrases:

*A lot of students work hard but mature students generally work (**the**) **hardest**.*

The is used with superlative adverbs if the adverb modifies an adjective:

*It is one of **the most beautifully** structured pieces of music.*

Intensifying superlatives 468c

Imaginable, possible, etc.

In more formal contexts, superlatives can be complemented by adjectives such as *conceivable*, *imaginable*, *possible*, *thinkable*, etc., in the structure superlative adjective + noun head + complement:

*It's the **most beautiful** landscape **imaginable**.*

Superlative adjective complements of this kind can alternatively precede the noun head:

*The travelling conditions were designed to inflict the **greatest possible** suffering.*

By far, easily, much, quite, etc.

The emphatic expressions *by far*, *easily*, *much*, *quite* (meaning 'absolutely'), and *simply* may premodify expressions with *the* + superlative:

***By far the biggest** island in Scilly is St Mary's.*

*They were **easily the best** vegetables in the competition.*

*We scaled many minor cliff faces during the expedition, but this was **much the most dangerous**.*

*It was **quite the most significant** event in recent Greek history.*

Very

Very is used to emphasise superlatives with *best*, *worst*, *first* and *last*:

*This is the **very best** choice you will ever have.*

*We had to wait for ages. We were the **very last** in the queue.*

The absolute

The absolute may also be used to intensify a superlative adjective:

*It was **the absolute biggest** ice cream I'd ever seen.*

*Yes, after 25 years of successful development of the North Sea, our expertise is some of the best, if not **the absolute best**, in the world.*

COMPARISONS OVER TIME 469

Comparatives and superlatives are often used to compare things at different times:

*She looks **healthier** than the last time we saw her.*

*They are **more optimistic** than they were about the direction of the economy.*

*It was the **best** summer holiday I'd had in five years.*

In order to say that there is gradual or progressive change, either the comparative adjective or adverb can be repeated or the phrase *more and more* can premodify an adjective or adverb:

*She's hardly eating and just getting **thinner** and **thinner**.*

*I can't follow him. He's become **more and more** incoherent.*

*The team started to play **more and more** aggressively.*

In more formal uses, the adverb modifier *increasingly* is used for similar purposes:

*We are more optimistic, a little wealthier and enjoy the conviction that things are changing for the better and that the worst is somehow behind us in an **increasingly** distant past.*

Ever is often used with comparative constructions with *than* and *as … as*:

*The students scored **more** passes **than ever** this year, and the exams were **as** tough **as ever**.*

Ever and *yet* can be used as the complement of a superlative construction to indicate a time dimension. *Ever* may occur immediately following a superlative adjective or after the noun. *Yet* normally follows the noun:

*It was **the biggest ever** demonstration of loyalty to the governing party.*

*That was **my most difficult** moment **ever**.*

*In tonight's game the team face **their stiffest** test **yet**.*

COMPARISON AND OTHER WORD CLASSES 470

The determiners (and their pronoun equivalents) *little*, *many* and *much* are used in their comparative and superlative forms to make comparisons. They have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Comparative and superlative forms of determiners/pronouns

determiner/pronoun	comparative	superlative
little	*less*	*least*
many, much	*more*	*most*

*It's **less exciting** than the first book.*

*That's the margarine that has **the least fat content**.*

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*They haven't got **much** but I'm afraid they can't offer you **more**.*

*There's **more milk** in the fridge.*

*Which of you could come and help us? Who's got **the most spare time**?*

also **190 Determiners and pronouns**

More and *less* 470a

More and *less* can be used with all the major phrase classes:

- Noun phrases:

  *They will go on strike unless they are offered **more** money.*

  *People seem to have **less** money to spend nowadays.*

- Verb phrases:

  *Leeds attack **more** than Milan but their defence will see them through.*

  *It rains **less** here than in the west.*

- Adjective phrases:

  *Their house is **more** spacious than ours.*

  *I'm **less** keen on seeing Oxford than London.*

- Adverb phrases:

  *The garage over the road does repairs **more** quickly.*

  *He seemed to answer the questions **less** honestly than the other witness.*

- Prepositional phrases:

  *The problem lies **more** in her attitude than in her ability.*

  *I have **less** in common with my cousins than with some of my colleagues at work.*

More of and *less of* can be used to modify countable nouns which are gradable (i.e. which can be measured on a scale):

*I'm afraid she's being **more of** a hindrance than a help.*

*I'm **less of** an expert than you are.*

Less is used with singular non-count nouns. It is often followed by *than*:

*Now I have **less** time **than** her to do jobs around the house.*

*I think I'm getting old. I have a lot **less** energy **than** I used to.*

Increasingly, in a wide range of spoken and written contexts, *less* is used with plural countable nouns:

*If there were **less than** six students in the class, they cancelled it.*
(or: If there were fewer than six students in the class, they cancelled it.)

Most and *least* 470b

Most and *least*, like *more* and *less*, can be used with all major phrase classes:

- Noun phrases:

  *Whoever has **most** money can pay now and we can pay it back later.*

  *We had the **least** work to do of any of the groups.*

- Verb phrases:

  *Restaurants and taxis – that's where we spent the **most**.*

  *I wouldn't like to say who works **least** in that family, no one seems to have a proper job.*

- Adjective phrases:

  *They're the **most** delicious chocolates I've ever tasted.*

  *She seemed to be the **least** anxious of all.*

- Adverb phrases:

  *Of all of them, she worked the **most** intensely.*

  *I think she spoke the **least** sincerely of all the women.*

- Prepositional phrases:
  In the case of prepositional phrases, *mostly*, not *most* is used, and has the meaning of 'more than in any other case':

  *The damage was **mostly** to the side of the car.*

  *This action provoked a storm of international criticism, **not least** from the United States.*

190 Determiners and pronouns for *less* and *least* as determiners

COMPARATIVE CLAUSES 471

General 471a

Comparative clauses are clauses which express the second part of a comparison of degree. Comparative clauses (in bold type in the examples) are frequently introduced by *as*, *than*, or *which/that*. They function as complements of comparative expressions (in green in the examples):

*The garden wasn't as big **as I had imagined it would be**.*

*The interview was the same **as I'd experienced several times before**.*

*He's worked here longer **than I have**.*

*In Malaysia we lived in a bigger house **than we could ever afford in Britain**.*

It was the ugliest dog ***that I'd ever seen****.*

The weather wasn't so bad ***that it spoiled the holiday****.*

Clauses with *as* 471b

As (or *just as*) is used in comparative clauses as a conjunction:

Do they drive on the left in Australia, ***as*** *we do?*

English uses modal verbs to refer to future times, ***just as*** *other languages use verb endings.*

Subject-verb inversion may occur after *as* with modal and auxiliary verbs, copular *be* and substitute *do*. In such inverted clauses, *just* is not used with *as*:

I only wanted to help, ***as would anyone have done****.*

He was a train driver, ***as was his father*** *before him.*

[talking about a new computer]
It's got two USB connections, ***as did the old one*** *in fact.*

In informal contexts, *like* is frequently used instead of *as* (471f below):

Is he having a New Year's party, ***like*** *he did last year?*

Clauses with *as if* and *as though* 471c

As if and *as though* can introduce clauses operating as the second element in comparisons of similarity. They may be used in finite, or, in more formal contexts, non-finite clauses:

He took a deep breath before he spoke, ***as if*** *to keep himself calm.*

What's the matter? You're acting ***as if*** *you're in pain.*

He looked round the table ***as if*** *daring anyone to smile.*
(non-finite; more formal)

When I resigned from my job, I felt ***as though*** *a weight had been lifted from my shoulders.*

Chantal looked uncomfortable, ***as though*** *forced to consider the matter for the first time.*
(non-finite; more formal)

She stood up ***as though*** *to leave.*

Ellipted clauses with adjectival complements are common with *as if* and *as though* in more formal contexts:

She just sat there, ***as if totally unaware*** *of what was happening.*

He took off his glasses and began to polish them ***as though afraid*** *of showing some emotion.*

Clauses with *so, too, enough* 471d

Comparative clauses with *so* + adjective/adverb + *as*, *too* + adjective/adverb, and adjective + *enough* are followed by non-finite clauses with the *to*-infinitive:

*Would anyone be **so** irresponsible **as** to drink and drive after a party like that?*

*They are just **too** upset to speak about it.*

*He was driving **too** slowly to have had any chance of getting there before us.*

*If anyone is stupid **enough** to withdraw now, they'll lose all their money.*

When *too* is used with an attributive adjective in a noun phrase introduced by the indefinite article *a/an*, the word order is *too* + adjective + *a/an* + noun:

*It's **too big a job** to finish in one day.*

Clauses with *the same* 471e

The same as may introduce comparative clauses of equality:

*We're going to Spain for our holidays, **the same as** we always do.*

A comparative clause may follow when *the same* premodifies a noun. The comparative clause may be introduced by *as* or by a relative pronoun (*who/which/that/zero relative*, etc.):

*He gave **the same** reason **as** you did.*

*That's **the same** woman **who** I saw the other day.*

*It's **the same** switch **that** broke the last time.*

In informal use, when *same* is used in front position, *the* can be omitted:

A: *What did you have to drink?*
B: ***Same as** I always do. Tea.*

Clauses with *like* 471f

Like can also be used to express similarity or identity either as a conjunction or as a preposition. Traditional grammar books warn that only *as* can be used as a conjunction and not *like*, but its use as a conjunction is widespread, especially in spoken English. It is generally regarded as a less formal alternative to *as*:

*But bees, even on chilly mornings, are capable of making a cold start. They shiver just **as** we do to warm our muscles.*
(formal, written)

*Do you go to Giorgio's every Friday, **like** we do?*
(informal, spoken)

A–Z 49 *Like*

Clauses with *rather than* 471g

Rather than is normally used to stress one element of a comparison to the exclusion of the other. It is typically followed by a verb in the same non-tensed form as the verb with which the comparison is made:

I always prefer ***getting*** *up early in the morning* ***rather than lying*** *in bed reading the papers.*

The editor has decided to ***cut*** *the paragraph* ***rather than rewrite*** *it.*
(also possible: '… rather than to rewrite it.' or '… rather than rewriting it.')

Rather than is often fronted to emphasise the comparison. When fronted in this way, the *-ing* form or the base form, but normally not the *to*-infinitive form, is used:

Rather than complain *all the time, he decided to change to another hotel.*
(or: Rather than complaining all the time, he decided to change to another hotel.)
(~~Rather than to complain all the time, he decided to change to another hotel.~~)

Clauses with superlatives 471h

Both finite and non-finite clauses may follow superlatives. The non-finite clauses have a similar function to relative clauses (317j):

That's one of ***the best*** *films I've ever seen.*

She's ***the youngest*** *swimmer to qualify for the Olympics.*

They were ***the fittest*** *team finishing the course.*

Double *the* + comparative 471i

Two comparative clauses preceded by *the more* (or *the less*, or a combination of both) are used to say that one situation, event or action results from another. The entities compared are normally fronted:

The more *I swim,* ***the more*** *energetic I feel.*

The less *I work,* ***the less*** *I feel like working.*

The more *I read it,* ***the less*** *impressed I am.*

The same structure can be used to coordinate noun phrases. The entities compared are normally fronted:

The less *effort they put in,* ***the more*** *money they earned. It was very unfair, really.*

Similar structures are used involving *the* + comparative adjective/adverb. Again, the entities compared are fronted:

The sooner *we finish,* ***the earlier*** *we can go home.*

The more *important she became,* ***the less*** *we saw each other.*

473b Predicative complement in **Word order and focus** on subject-verb inversion after expressions of comparison in fronted complements

Word order and focus

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Word order and focus

INTRODUCTION 472

Word order in this chapter is principally concerned with how the elements of the clause (subject, verb, object, complement, adjunct) are arranged. Word order choices also affect phrases, and the chapters on phrase classes (155–257) specify the patterns of word order found in noun, verb, adjective, adverb and prepositional phrases.

Theme and rheme

Clauses may be considered as having two parts in relation to how information is arranged within them: the theme (or topic) and the rheme (or comment). The theme/topic is typically the starting point of the clause, who or what the clause is 'about'. The rheme/comment is the main part of the message, the important information given about that topic. In the sentence:

theme/topic	rheme/comment
Sue	*is starting a new job on Monday.*

the clause is 'about' Sue, and the new or important information is that she is starting a new job on Monday. In English, the theme/topic is located in the beginning of the clause (and is most typically the subject), while the rheme/comment occupies the latter part of the clause after the subject.

The end of the clause is important in English, as that is where the most 'weight' falls in terms of the focus on new information, sometimes referred to as endweight.

Marked and unmarked word order

Unmarked word order refers to the normal, most typical sequence of elements. For example, the unmarked word order for a declarative clause with an object is S–V–O, where S is the subject, V is the verb and O is the object. In English, the word order O–S–V is marked (possible but far less typical):

S V O
He loves football.
(unmarked, normal word order: the subject, *he*, is the theme)

O S V
That furniture we bought years ago, this lot is more recent.
(marked word order: *that furniture* is the theme, rather than *we*)

Marked (untypical) word order may be used to create various kinds of focus, that is, special emphasis on particular elements for a variety of purposes.

The basic rules for clause and sentence structures (269–337) describe how to build unmarked sentences. However, in connected discourse, other choices have to be made concerning such things as introducing new topics, distinguishing between

new and old information, linking events in particular ways, flagging or highlighting the importance of something, foregrounding some things and backgrounding others, all of which may have implications for choices of word order.

Simple word order choices

Some choices of word order simply rearrange elements without any other grammatical changes. These include fronting and the use of headers and tails.

Fronting involves moving objects, complements and adjuncts to front position in the clause, which, in unmarked word order, is typically occupied by the subject:

object
That bowl *we got in Italy. The other one's from Spain, I think.*
(fronting of the object in order to focus on a contrast between the two bowls)

adjunct
First thing tomorrow morning *we'll have to check all the plants for frost damage.*
(fronting of the adjunct to emphasise when the task must be done)

The creation of headers and tails (96, 97 and 474), is another way of putting extra focus on selected entities.

In the case of fronting, the elements remain fully integrated within the clause. In the case of headers and tails, elements of the clause are placed outside of the clause structure, either immediately before the first clause element or after all other elements in the clause. This is a particular phenomenon of spoken grammar:

header **S** **V** **O** **adjunct**
That brown chair, we bought ***that*** *years and years ago.*
(header: gives extra focus to *that brown chair*)

S **V** **complement** **tail**
They*'re awful people, my neighbours.*
(tail: gives extra focus to the subject)

Choices of structure

Some choices of word order involve choosing between alternative structures, for example choosing whether to use an indirect object or a prepositional complement with verbs such as *give* or *bring*, or choosing whether to use active or passive voice:

[talking about birthdays and activities associated with them]
Do you send birthday ***cards*** *to your friends?*

The new, important information here, which would be phonologically stressed, is *to your friends*. Birthdays and things associated with birthdays are already the topic of conversation; they are 'old' or 'shared' information. *Do you send your friends birthday cards?*, using an indirect and direct object, is also possible and correct, but would have suggested a focus on birthday cards as 'new', 'non-shared' information.

Some choices of word order involve more complex grammatical structures and choices, for example embedded clauses or cleft sentences:

It was on Sunday I first noticed I had a rash.
(cleft sentence enabling emphasis on 'on Sunday')

So ***what you really want*** *is a hotel that's got the facilities for the children, isn't it?*
(*wh*-cleft enabling extra focus on the complement 'a hotel that's got …')

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That they thought they could use the computers without permission is hard to believe.
(*that*-clause as subject enabling extra focus on the object of 'believe')

FRONTING 473

Direct objects 473a

A direct object may be fronted, that is, made the theme (or 'thematised') in a declarative clause, especially in spoken language; this occurs most typically when the speaker wishes to contrast things. Phonologically, the fronted object (bold in the examples below) is typically stressed:

[speaker is talking about the early days of computers, and how he bought one type after another and occasionally upgraded the power]
O S V
*And then we bought an Impact, and **that** we couldn't get upgraded.*
(the 'Impact' is contrasted with other computers which the speaker upgraded)

O S V
*I must admit, **my favourite books** I do read over and over.*
(here there is an implicit contrast with other books which the speaker would not read over and over)

[talking about pipes a plumber is working on; contrasting different ones]
O S V
*He's got those disconnected, but **that one** he's still got connected.*

Objects of prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs may also be fronted:

***The other list** we can look at later.*

[wife talking about how she and her husband share the work in their garden]
*I do the flowers; **the vegetables** he looks after.*

Object fronting can also occur in interrogatives in informal speech, but this is not very common:

[speaker is looking over someone's shoulder while they are cooking]
O aux S V
***Soup** are you making? Wow, lovely!*

Predicative complements 473b

Subject predicative complements are often fronted for extra focus or for contrast. This may occur in declaratives and in interrogatives.

In informal spoken language, fronted noun subject complements are more common than fronted adjective subject complements:

[looking at a photo of an old car]
complement S V
*Mm, **my very first car**, that was.*

C modal S V
***Jack**, could it have been?*
(fronted noun complement)

C S V
***Ambitious** it may be, but when a club sells 20,000 season tickets and makes £3.3 million during the summer, it knows it is back in the big league.*
(fronted adjective complement)

Fronted complements which are expressions of comparison may be followed by subject-verb inversion, especially in more formal written styles:

[from a text about the Maastricht Agreement signed in 1992 by 12 member states establishing the European Union]
*Maastricht was not a triumph for any Government, although each of the Governments present claimed it as one. **Least of all** was it a triumph for the British Prime Minister.*

*Children make a substantial contribution to the social, economic and cultural life of their families, communities, and even to national economies. These contributions are rarely recorded by official statistics and are usually ignored when policy decisions are made. **Equally unnoticed** is the unpaid 'work' that children do around the home, in the fields, or at institutions of learning.*

[discussing a conference on debt and international development]
*The conference was helpful in aiding my understanding of the great mass of information that I am faced with in my volunteer role. But **much more important for me** was to be exposed to the experience of people working with the poor in the Third World whose suffering results from debt.*

Object predicative complements may also occasionally be fronted:

A: *Down our end in Victoria Street there was a bookmaker they used to call Ray, and he had just one arm. '**Ray the Bookie**' we used to call him.*
B: *Yeah. I can remember him.*

Adjuncts 473c

Adjuncts may be fronted for emphasis or contrast:

***Ten years** we've lived here.*

***Without my glasses** I can't see a thing.*

When adjuncts of negative meaning (e.g. *never*, *not once*, *rarely*, *seldom*) are fronted for emphasis, they are followed by subject-verb inversion:

***Not once** did she thank me.*
(~~not once thanked she me.~~)

***Seldom** had we witnessed such bad behaviour.*

319–337 Adjuncts

In rather formal styles, inversion may occur after initial *thus*, and after expressions such as *in this way*, *for this reason*:

> [at the time of writing, Mr Blair was the British Prime Minister, and Mr Campbell was his press secretary, with whom he had a very close working relationship]
> ***Thus** does Mr Blair find himself ever more closely closeted with Mr Campbell.*

324 **Front position** in **Adjuncts** for a full account of fronting of adjuncts

Verbs 473d

A lexical verb with an accompanying complement or adjunct may sometimes be fronted for purposes of focusing on some other element of the verb phrase:

> [British Prime Minister Tony Blair, speaking when newly elected in 1997]
> *The British people are a great people. There is no greater honour than to serve them, and **serve them** we will.*
> (creates strong endweight on *will*, since it must be phonologically stressed in final position)

> ***Sitting in the garden** I've been, all morning.*

Occasionally, an auxiliary/modal verb and a lexical verb may both be fronted. This typically occurs in spoken language:

> *Why didn't you phone your mother? **Been really panicking** she has.*

HEADERS AND TAILS 474

Headers and tails stand outside of the normal subject – verb – object – complement – adjunct clause structure. They typically occur in informal spoken language.

Headers

Headers usually take the form of an initial noun phrase which refers to the same entity as a later pronoun. They are used to focus on an entity, or to highlight contrasts:

> ***Paul**, in this job that **he**'s got now, when he goes into the office, he's never quite sure where he's going to be sent.*
> (Paul is the speaker's new topic or entity focused on)

> ***Edward**, **he**'s always the first person to complain.*

Headers may also occur with interrogative clauses:

> ***That key**, did you put **it** there or did I?*

Headers may involve more than one extra noun phrase used initially, to take the listener step-by-step from familiar entities to the new entity the speaker wishes to focus on or say something about:

given/old information → new information

***His cousin in Bedford**, **her boyfriend**, **his parents** bought him a car for his birthday.*

Tails

Tails involve noun phrases used at the end of the clause, referring to the same person or thing as a previous pronoun in the clause. Such word order is typically used to highlight judgment, comment or evaluation rather than mere statement of fact:

*And **he**'s quite a comic, **the fellow**, you know.*

***It**'s really nicely done out, **this place**, all wooden.*

The tail may involve a demonstrative pronoun rather than a full noun phrase:

***It**'s a speciality, **that**.*

***It**'s driving me crazy, **this**.*

96 Headers; 97 Tails

STRUCTURAL OPTIONS 475

Indirect object versus prepositional complement 475a

In expressing the recipient or beneficiary of an action, there is often a choice between an indirect object or a prepositional complement.

Unmarked word order is indirect object (IO) + direct object (DO):

IO DO
*Did you give him **the money**?*

If the recipient/beneficiary is to receive more focus, it can be expressed as a prepositional complement (PC) and placed at the end of the clause, giving it endweight:

[speaker B has just given speaker A a present]
A: *Oh, you didn't have to do that!*

DO PC
B: *I bought **a present** for Rhonda as well.*
(*Rhonda* is the new, important information here; 'presents' are old, given information)

DO
*The plans were revised about 1974 but they still gave **a disproportionate focus***
PC
to France.

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Where two pronouns are involved, a prepositional complement is often preferred:

DO PC
She wrote her name and address on the card and gave ***it*** *to me*.
(or: … and gave me it./… and gave it me.)

DO PC
I think my mother gave ***them*** *to them*.
(preferred to: … gave them them.)

Delexical expressions, using verbs such as *do*, *get*, *give*, *make*, *take* enable a verb-type meaning to be expressed in a following noun object. In expressions where the verb *give* is used delexically, IO + DO is preferred to DO + PC:

IO DO
Well, I gave them ***a song***.
(I sang)
(~~I gave a song to them.~~)

IO DO
The doctor gave him ***a quick examination***.
(examined him)
(~~The doctor gave a quick examination to him.~~)

Prepositional complements may be fronted, especially in formal styles, creating endweight on the direct object:

PC
To his wife he gave ***a pearl necklace***.

Indirect objects are not normally fronted:

IO
I gave Liam ***the wrong postcode***.
(~~Liam I gave the wrong postcode.~~)

Active versus passive voice 475b

Unmarked active voice word order places the subject first, since the subject is typically the theme (who or what the clause is 'about'). Passive voice enables the speaker either to omit reference to the agent/doer altogether (unless the agent is required by the verb) or to place the agent/doer in a prepositional phrase after the verb and thus create focus on it:

I ***was admitted*** *to hospital*.
(focus is on the rheme, my being admitted to hospital; compare: 'The hospital admitted me', where *the hospital* would be unmarked subject/theme, thus losing its focus)

I was just coming home and five minutes after I left this friend I was with, he ***was attacked*** *by two men*.
(the rheme includes the agents – *two men*)

*He **got arrested**.*
(focus on the event of his arrest; there is no need to explicitly mention the agent, understood as probably the police; compare: 'He was arrested by a huge, ugly police officer', with focus on the agent)

*The audio-lingual method of teaching **was imposed** upon us.*
(no one is named or blamed for the event)

*The hotel **was owned** by the Greek Church, wasn't it?*
(obligatory agent phrase with the verb *own*; but compare: 'The Greek Church owned the hotel', where *the Greek Church* loses its special focus)

also **480, 484, 485** in **The passive** for pseudo-passives with *have*

Cleft sentences (*It was David who called.*) 475c

A cleft sentence is one where a single message has been split/divided (or 'cleft') into two clauses. Cleft sentences with *it* allow different clause elements to be brought into focus. In a typical *it*-cleft structure, the focus is on the final element of the *it*-clause (in green in the examples below), with the subsequent *wh*-clause (underlined in the examples) reiterating given or previously known information:

[talking of someone whose job it is to evict people from houses for unpaid rents, mortgages, etc.; the dwellings are 'repossessed' by the bank or other lender]
*He was telling me he was called in for a repossession this week. **It was** an elderly lady who had this house and they'd sent her umpteen letters and appeals and she'd ignored the lot.*
(focus on the subject, *an elderly lady*; 'who had this house' is given/old information in the context of house possession)

[talking about waiting for an eye operation]
A: *I talked it over with my optician then went to my doctor and got a reference to the hospital which would be about March and he warned me that it would be about six months.*
B: *So **it was** in March that you went?*
(focus on the adjunct *in March*; 'going (to the hospital)' is already given/old information in the context)

*I doubt people would have as many pets because **it's** usually the children who say 'Mum can I have a pet?'.*

*I've always had morning stiffness, I accept that's part of my life. By the time I've had my pills for two hours in the morning, the stiffness eases and I'd sooner have a bit of stiffness than I'd have the pain. **It's** the pain I can't cope with.*
(focus on the object of the prepositional verb 'cope with': *the pain*)

Wh-cleft sentences (*What we need is a hammer.*) 475d

What …

Wh-cleft sentences are most often introduced by *what*. *Wh*-cleft structures shift the focus to the end of the clause. The information in the *wh*-clause (bold in the examples below) is typically old or given in the context, while the copular complement (in green in the examples) contains the new, important information:

[speakers are discussing speaker B's banking needs]
A: ***What you need*** *is a telephone bank account.*
B: *Mm.*
(focus on the object; the listener's state of 'need' is already given; the telephone bank account is the new, important information)

[speakers are talking of someone they dislike]
A: *It never happens really that I get angry with people er but I did with him last night and I had to go for a walk to calm down.*
B: *Well* ***what gets me*** *is the way he spends his time being sexist and unpleasant.*
(focus on *the way he spends …*)

The *wh*-cleft construction may itself receive end-focus by occupying the complement slot in the main clause:

[university literature tutorial about the writer Samuel Beckett and a critic who has written about Beckett's work, Martin Eslin]
A: *You aren't just saying Eslin is occupying a philosophically untenable position therefore I'm occupying one which is tenable.*
B: *No that's* ***what I don't want to say****.*
A: *That's* ***what you don't want to say****.*
B: *But I think that's* ***what James thought I wanted to say****.*
C: *Yeah. What you're saying is Eslin is occupying a philosophically untenable position and also has misread Beckett.*

How …, where …

Wh-clefts with a *what*-clause as subject are far more frequent than *wh*-cleft sentences introduced by *why*, *where*, *how*, etc. as subject. One reason for this is that the meanings of *why*, *where*, *who*, *when* and *how* are often expressed by nouns such as *the person*, *the place*, *the way*, used in front position to create the same kind of focus on the complement of the main verb:

Well, ***the way*** *I see it going is that the European Union will expand to include not only Lithuania but also other former Soviet Republics.*
(or: How I see it going is that …)

The place where *I've been is where they train local midwives.*
(or: Where I've been is where they …)

The reason *it wasn't sorted out earlier was because they were short of staff.*
(or: Why it wasn't sorted out earlier was because …)

The person *you need to talk to is the manager.*
(preferred to: Who you need to talk to is the manager.)

The day *we wanted to travel was a Monday, but it was all booked up.*
(more frequent than: When we wanted to travel was a Monday, …)

However, when the *wh*-cleft clause is in complement position, *wh*-clauses are often used:

[an elderly man, speaker A, is recounting how he was an apprentice railway wagon-maker as a young man]
A: *And, of course, I gradually built up then to until I got the main overall jobs, and by the time I was twenty-one, of course, I was considered a full wagon repairer.*
B: *Twenty-one was* ***when you finished your apprenticeship****.*
A: *Yes, that's right.*

What … + clause

The *wh*-cleft may serve as a marker highlighting a whole clause or a longer stretch of discourse instead of focusing on one clause element. This is especially common in spoken language:

[speaker B is asking for advice about pensions and insurance, on the telephone]
A: *Would you like me to get one of the advisers to give you a call sometime? And they can go over with you basically what pensions are available to you and what life insurance.*
B: *That would be good yeah.*
A: *Okay that's fine.* ***What I'll do*** *is I'll take all your details from you.*
B: *Uh-huh.*
A: *And then we'll send it out to your closest branch and they give you a call in the next few days.*

[talking about arriving late for an interview for a teaching post]
But by the time I got to that school I thought, well, nothing else can possibly go worse than this. And I went in and I got met at the front gate. And ***what happened*** *was I'd arrived so late that I'd missed the tour round the school which I'd had previously when I'd been up. And I got there the time that I was due to see the headmistress. So I went straight to see the headmistress, went in and apologised for being late.*

This …/*that* … + clause

A clause introduced by *this* or *that* with a *wh*-cleft complement can also serve a similar purpose. *This* clauses generally point forward, *that* clauses generally point back in the text:

So ***this*** *is what we'll do. Firstly, introduce the speakers.*

So if you want to stay warm in winter all you do is you wear, instead of wearing one thick layer of clothes, you wear lots and lots of layers of clothes. They may be thin but lots of, lots of layers and what they'll do is they'll trap air between them and ***that****'s what will keep you warm.*
(in this example, several types of focusing structure occur together; note also the construction with *all*: *all you do is* …)

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What I did …

In spoken language, the connecting copular verb is often omitted:

> ***What I did**, I bought the medium size and they said I can take it back if it doesn't fit.*
>
> ***What happened**, I drove through one of those speed cameras and I wasn't concentrating.*

The thing, one thing, something 475e

Initial constructions with *the*, *a*, *something* plus a relative clause can be used to create focus on subsequent clause elements in a similar way to other cleft constructions. These constructions occur typically in informal contexts:

> ***The thing I was struck by** was their complacency.*
> (similar to: What I was struck by was their complacency.)
>
> ***One thing she's been doing recently** is buying white shoes to decorate them for people.*
>
> ***Something you might like to look at** is the sequence of events in the story.*

A–Z **74 *Thing, stuff***

Anticipatory *it* 475f

Anticipatory *it* often enables a subject to appear at the end of the clause, thus producing end-focus:

> ***It** amazes me how open and honest the staff are.*
>
> A: *Beatrice says that it's hard to insure antiques because, you know …*
> B: ***It**'s hard to put a value on it all for that, isn't it?*
> A: *Yeah.*
>
> *It says that you've got to pay certain legal fees if you leave. You know, we were thinking **it** was wrong paying £25 a week.*

474 above to compare tails with *it*

Extra focus on fronted time adjuncts may be created with *it is/was not until*, *it is/was only when*:

> ***It's not until** we lift the carpet in our bedroom that we'll know what we've got to deal with.*
> (compare: 'Until we lift the carpet in our bedroom, we won't know …', or 'We won't know what we've got to deal with until we lift …')
>
> ***It was only when** he mentioned that he lived in Cambridge that I knew who he was.*

Existential *there* 475g

Existential *there* makes possible an optional (and often preferred) variant of clauses with an indefinite subject. The pattern enables focus to be placed on the subject by locating it in the rheme of the clause instead of its usual position as the theme:

> [talking about visiting a house with a view to buying it]
> *We drove past it one time and* ***there*** *was a woman standing outside, she said, 'Oh what do you want?' I said, 'Oh, well, we've come to see the house.'*

With verbs other than *be*, the *there* construction is confined to formal/literary styles:

> *A few days after that meeting with Lucian,* ***there came*** *the letter.*
>
> *All signs of the market had vanished and in its place in front of the squat town hall,* ***there stood*** *only a platform.*

Raising (*It was hard to understand.*) 475h

There are often different structural options available with adjectives such as *certain*, *difficult*, *easy*, *hard*, *impossible*, *likely*, *sure*, verbs such as *appear*, *look*, *seem*, and mental process verbs in the passive such as *be considered*, *be estimated*, *be found*.

Adjectives such as *difficult*, *easy*, *hard*, *impossible* most typically take an infinitive-clause complement and most frequently occur with anticipatory *it*:

> ***It*** *was* ***impossible*** *to say hello to everyone.*
>
> ***It****'s not* ***easy*** *to ride a monocycle.*

The infinitive complement may, however, occur as the subject of the clause or as a 'raised subject', to create different types of focus:

- Infinitive clause as subject:

  To summarise our work ***is impossible****.*

  To find a shop open so early in the morning ***isn't going to be easy****.*

- Infinitive clause as 'object-raised-to-subject':

  In practice, however, this distinction is ***impossible to make****.*
  (*this distinction* is the object of *make* but becomes the grammatical subject of the clause)

  Jina's quite ***difficult to understand****.*
  (Jina, the object of *understand*, becomes the subject of the clause)

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Verbs such as *appear*, *look*, *seem* present various structural options, which include raising:

He always ***seems*** *to come at some unlucky moment.*
(subject-to-subject raising: *he* is the subject of *come* and is chosen as the subject of *seem*; compare the anticipatory *it* alternative: 'It always seems (that) he comes at some unlucky moment.')

It ***seems*** *that nobody does anything.*
(anticipatory *it* as subject; *nobody* is the subject of *does*; compare: 'Nobody seems to do anything.')

That ***looks*** *to be the right place.*
(subject-to-subject raising; compare: 'It looks as if that is the right place.')

Mental process verbs in the passive such as *be considered*, *be estimated*, *be observed* and verbs reporting research results such as *be discovered*, *be found* also present raising options, especially in formal and academic styles:

Overall, the scheme ***was found*** *to produce clear benefits on an individual level, largely in terms of teachers' revised perceptions and attitudes.*
(subject-to-subject raising: *the scheme* is subject of *produce* and subject of *was found*)

On analysis of the women's diets, it ***was found*** *that all the women in the control group consumed a minimum of 500 ml of cows' milk daily.*
(anticipatory *it* as subject; compare subject-to-subject raising alternative: 'All the women in the control group were found to consume …')

[text about the relationship between brain hemispheres and left- and right-handedness in humans]
The proportion of right hemisphere speakers ***was estimated*** *to be about 9.27 per cent of the population irrespective of handedness.*
(subject-to-subject raising; compare anticipatory *it* alternative: 'It was estimated that the proportion of …')

Pseudo-intransitive constructions (*Fish cooks quickly.*) 475i

Verbs which are normally used transitively are sometimes used intransitively in clauses where the real recipient/beneficiary of the action becomes the grammatical subject (475h above to compare raising), and where the agent is not mentioned. This gives endweight to the verb (and any accompanying complement/adjunct).

Verbs used in this way include:

clean	*iron*	*print*
close	*keep*	*read*
cook	*open*	*sell*
drive	*pack*	*store*
fold (up)	*photograph*	*wash (up)*

The base of the bed is still in the dining room, they can't get it up the stairs although ***it folds up****, you know, it's standing like this in the dining room.*

A: *I like your outfit you had on on Sunday.*
B: *Frank bought it last year for my birthday.*
A: *I thought maybe you'd got it while you were abroad.*
B: *No, no, he bought it from a woman, a friend, she makes them and she knitted it. Well, she knew my size so …*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *And* ***it washes up lovely****.*

[looking at a photograph of a woman called Helen]
Helen photographs *really well doesn't she?*

also **283a Pseudo-intransitive construction** in **Verb complementation**

Nominalisation and adjectivalisation 475j

An option which is often chosen in academic and more formal styles is to use a noun-form of a verb as subject in order to turn the verb into the theme and to give extra focus to the rheme.

Nominalisation may be seen as the opposite of clefting (**475c**, above) in that two clauses are condensed into one. The nominalised clause (bold in the examples below) typically represents old, background or given information, and the complement (in green in the examples) represents new, important information:

The capture of the suspected terrorists *is a major breakthrough for the authorities.*
(compare: The suspected terrorists have been captured, and this is a major breakthrough for the authorities.)

[about ex-US President Richard Nixon, whose presidency fell after the Watergate crisis]
Ironically, ***his insistence on taping all White House conversations to ease the writing of his future memoirs*** *was to be the major stumbling block to his surviving the crisis.*
(compare: He insisted on taping … and this was the major stumbling block …)

Adjective forms of verbs along with their complements may also function in a similar way to rearrange or condense information in the clause:

She seemed most ***insistent*** *that we should know it.*
(compare: She really insisted that we should know it.)

I am very ***desirous*** *to serve a friend.*
(compare: I very much desire to serve a friend.)

also **142 Nominalisation** in **Grammar and academic English** and **175 Formation of nouns (nominalisation)**

The passive

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The passive

INTRODUCTION 476

Choice of voice (active or passive) is one of several ways of organising the content of clauses.

The active voice is the most frequent form, typically chosen to state something about the agent of an action (i.e. who does what). The agent is expressed as the grammatical subject and normally initiates the action:

Ken *took that photograph.*

Ken is here the grammatical subject and also the agent of the action. *Ken* is also the starting point or theme of the message (472). *Took that photograph* is the rheme; it describes the action, what the speaker wants to say about *Ken*.

If a passive voice is chosen, the starting point of the message is the person or thing that is the affected participant of the action:

Those houses *were built by John Walton.*

Here *those houses* are the starting point or theme of the message. *Those houses* becomes the grammatical subject of the clause. What is said about the houses here includes information about the agent (the person who built them, *John Walton*). In this case the agent is expressed in the prepositional phrase *by John Walton*.

Finite forms

Various forms of the passive exist (478–480 below). The most typical is the passive with *be*:

I ***was approached*** *and asked to go along.*

No crime ***has been committed****.*

We ***were rung up*** *by one of those consumer survey companies.*

New features ***are being added*** *to the machines all the time.*

Other forms share some characteristics with passive forms and are called pseudo-passive forms. They are based on *get* and *have* and are more common in spoken language. They are similar to true passives with *be* in that the grammatical subject is typically the recipient, rather than the agent, of the action. However, they differ from true passives in the functions they perform and the contexts in which they are used, especially with regard to the degree of involvement of the recipient in initiating the action, as can be seen in the table below (also 479 and 480):

The village ***is getting*** *more and more* ***built up****.*

She ***had*** *her car* ***stolen****.*

In spoken language, the *get*-passive is especially common:

*He **got thrown out** of a restaurant in town.*

*I wrote a letter to a newspaper and it **got published**.*

Non-finite forms

Passive and pseudo-passive structures also occur in non-finite clauses:

*I was grateful for the privacy and **to be allowed** to give in to the sadness that enveloped me.*

***Having been diagnosed** with cancer, I consulted both my acupuncturist, who was also a medical doctor, and my nutritionist.*

*I assume the matter **to have been filed** in the appropriate records.*

***Organised** by the Norwegian Trade Union movement, the festivities were attended by representatives from the church and state.*

*Do you remember Joan's son's wife **getting killed** at Mayheath?*
(*get*-passive)

[talking about a baby]
*As soon as you pick her up, though, she shuts up. She doesn't like **having her nappy changed**.*
(*have*-passive)

Passives may be seen as on a gradient from most typical, central passives to pseudo-passives and purely adjectival constructions. Agents and recipients of actions and events may be represented in a wide range of ways.

Examples of passives, pseudo-passives, and related constructions

example	comments
*He **was killed** in the war.*	central *be*-passive
*They **got arrested**.*	central *get*-passive
*He **got himself promoted** to manager.*	reflexive *get*-passive (recipient more actively involved)
*We **had some trees taken down**.*	*have*-pseudo-passive (causative: beneficiary of the action initiated the action)
*They **had their garden furniture stolen** last year.*	*have*-pseudo-passive (non-causative: beneficiary of the action did not initiate the action)
*I **got my car serviced** in that garage once.*	*get*-pseudo-passive (causative: beneficiary of the action initiated the action)
*I'll **get you set up** on the computer and then you can work away on your own.*	*get*-pseudo-passive (describes a process initiated by someone who may or may not be the agent)
*I**'m quite fascinated** by what you say.*	semi-passive (like passive but also like adjectival construction: may be modified like an adjective)
*He**'s totally obsessed** with astrology.*	more adjectival; prepositional complement has no active agent role
*The tape seems to have **got stuck**.*	resultative; describes a state resulting from an agentless process
*The handle**'s broken**.*	adjectival; describes a state

VERB COMPLEMENTATION AND PASSIVE VOICE 477

Only transitive clauses and certain clauses where the verb has a prepositional phrase complement may be made passive. Other active-voice clauses may not be made passive:

Active: *Someone* ***stole the car***.
(monotransitive: direct object)
Passive: *The car was stolen*.

Active: *Someone* ***gave him a warning***.
(ditransitive: direct and indirect object)
Passive 1: *He was given a warning*.
Passive 2: *A warning was given to him*.

Active: *Someone* ***broke into their car***.
(verb + prepositional phrase complement)
Passive: *Their car was broken into*.

Passives are not formed from copular verbs:

She ***'s*** *a teacher*.
(~~A teacher is been by her.~~)

Carol ***seems*** *right for the job*.
(~~The job is seemed right by Carol.~~)

Paula ***became*** *a nurse*.
(~~A nurse was become by Paula.~~)

THE *BE*-PASSIVE: FORMATION 478

The *be*-passive is formed by making the object of an action or event the grammatical subject of the clause and by using auxiliary *be* + the *-ed* participle (***ed*-p**) of the verb.

The agent may be realised as a prepositional phrase, most typically with *by* (481 below):

	subject	verb	object
Active:	*A police patrol*	*spotted*	***a suspicious vehicle***.

	subject	*be* + *ed*-p	agent phrase
Passive:	***A suspicious vehicle***	*was spotted*	*by a police patrol*.

Be-passives are different from lexical verb *be* plus *-ed* form adjectives, which cannot normally have an agent phrase, and which may have particular prepositional structures following them:

I'm ***worried about*** *my mother*.
(*-ed* form adjective)
(~~I'm worried by my mother.~~)

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Most people ***are worried by the thought of what a surgeon's going to do****.*
(passive clause)

They're just ***tired of*** *each other.*
(~~They're just tired by each other~~.)

The table below gives examples of *be*-passive structures (in green) in different tense-aspect combinations. The passive elements are realised in the final *be*-auxiliary and the *-ed* participle (in bold). The examples marked with an asterisk (*) represent very rare types.

Examples of *be*-passive structures

tense-aspect form	example
present simple	*They* ***are sold*** *in three sizes.*
present progressive	*The house is* ***being sold****.*
past simple	*Alison and Jane* ***weren't asked*** *for their views.*
past progressive	*Did you feel as if you were* ***being ignored****?*
present perfect simple	*Has her father* ***been told****?*
present perfect progressive	*He has been* ***being watched*** *by the police for about three weeks.**
past perfect simple	*I saw at once how it had* ***been done****.*
past perfect progressive	*The town had already been* ***being visited*** *by three coaches full of tourists.**
modal simple	*The top can* ***be left*** *on.*
modal progressive	*They'll be* ***being interviewed*** *when we're in our meeting.*
modal perfect simple	*He fears that a man may have* ***been hanged*** *because of his carelessness.*
modal perfect progressive	*The house might have been* ***being watched*** *while we were away, before they burgled it.**

THE *GET*-PASSIVE: FORMATION 479

The *get*-passive is formed with *get* + the *-ed* participle of the verb. As with *be*, a range of tense-aspect forms is possible, though in fact a narrower range of forms actually occurs. These are the most frequent:

Do you know how much lawyers ***get paid*** *for an hour, the best ones?*

[reference to a company receiving a fine for safety violations]
*They****'re getting fined*** *by the Health and Safety Executive.*

All of a sudden they ***got raided*** *by the police.*

[student talking about upcoming hectic social timetable]
*I****'ve got invited*** *to the school ball as well.*

We found some parcels that ***had got pushed*** *into the corner.*

They ***may have got mixed up*** *the first time we used them.*

Reflexive structures occur with *get*-passives when the recipient of an action/event is felt to share at least some of the role of agent:

*She **got herself locked out**.*
(it was an accident, but partly her fault; compare: 'She got locked out', which was not her fault)

A *get*-passive structure similar to the pseudo-passive with *have* occurs occasionally in informal spoken language. The construction enables a person affected by an action or event to be made the grammatical subject:

[talking of strict customs searches at airports]
*I **got my belt searched** once when I went to Sweden.*
(non-causative; similar to: I had my belt searched/my belt was searched …)

*I'll **get you sorted out** with some boots for the walk, cos it'll be muddy.*
(causative: I myself will give you the boots or I'll find someone else to give them to you)

Prepositional phrases expressing an agent, although they do occur with *get*-passives, are far rarer than with *be*-passives:

*She **got arrested** by the Austrian police.*

PSEUDO-PASSIVES WITH *HAVE*: FORMATION 480

Pseudo-passives with *have* are formed with *have* + an object + the *-ed* participle of the verb (***ed*-p**):

Hilary ***had her luggage searched*** *at the airport.*
(have: had; object: her luggage; *ed*-p: searched)

*Did we tell you about the incident with the next door neighbour who**'d had his car kicked**?*

*We **had the house painted** last year.*

[complaining about someone who receives social security benefits and who refused a job]
*Now that man **should have his benefits stopped** because there was a job for £400 a week and he said no.*

The pseudo-passive word order *have* + object + *-ed* participle is different from that of active present and past perfect verb phrases:

*I **had** my hair **cut** the day before the wedding.*
('I had cut my hair the day before the wedding' would mean I did it myself)

***Do** they **have** their car **serviced** regularly?*
('Have they serviced their car regularly?' would suggest they normally do it themselves)

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AGENT PHRASES 481

Agent phrases most typically begin with *by*:

I was sort of adopted ***by a wonderful family****.*

Pollution in cities is also caused ***by cars, lorries, big buses, trains****.*

Other prepositions are used when the grammatical subject of the equivalent active clause is not the true active agent of an event. This often occurs with stative verbs:

The instructions are included ***on a separate sheet****.*
(active equivalent: 'This sheet includes the instructions.'; the sheet is not the true active agent – the agent is the person who included the instructions)

Clothes are sold ***in supermarkets*** *these days.*
(active equivalent: 'Supermarkets sell clothes these days.'; the true agent of the selling is 'companies' – supermarkets are the places where the clothes are sold)

I got covered ***in mud*** *when I fell.*

PASSIVES WITHOUT AN AGENT PHRASE 482

General 482a

Passives frequently occur without an agent phrase and are called agentless passives. There are a number of reasons why such a choice might be made. The entity responsible for an action may not be known or may not be considered relevant, or may simply be obvious.

The agentless passive enables focus to fall on the process. What is or is not done, or what happens, is important:

Swimming in the lake ***is prohibited****.*

The interview ***is being televised*** *tonight.*

The town ***was rebuilt*** *after the war.*

Five of us ***were sacked*** *for no reason.*

Applications ***should be received*** *by Friday June 23rd.*

Taxes ***will have to be put up*** *again.*

It was agreed *that no action needed to be taken.*

There were *twenty people* ***arrested****.*

Get-passives occur more frequently with no agent phrase than *be*-passives:

She's been a bit nervous ever since we ***got burgled****.*

He ***got conscripted*** *into the army and had to go to Belgium.*

Reference to the agent(s) may be omitted in order to deflect possible criticism, because it may be embarrassing/inappropriate to mention the agent, or because it may be necessary to omit such reference:

I'm sorry. It seems that your forms ***got mislaid****.*

I've been told *that she is unreliable.*

Students ***will be penalised*** *for late submission of assignments.*

We would like a new approach ***to be worked out****.*

Detached/impersonal styles 482b

Agentless passives are conventionally used in impersonal speaking and writing styles (e.g. academic and technical language) when processes are the focus of attention:

Heat ***was applied*** *until the mixture came to the boil.*

The central heating system ***has to be*** *regularly* ***maintained****.*

Vitamin tablets ***should be taken*** *daily.*

Such impersonal uses often involve reporting verbs such as *believe*, *consider*, *find*, *say*, *think*:

What is poverty? Much of the debate centres on what level of income ***is considered*** *to be the poverty level.*

[scientific text about birds: *young* here means 'young birds']
Losses of eggs and young ***were found*** *to be relatively constant throughout the season, even though their numbers increased dramatically for a short time.*

Anticipatory *it* 482c

Anticipatory *it* makes forward reference to a complement clause, and may be used to express impersonal agency:

The German reply was exactly what the Austrian government had wanted. ***It was decided*** *to issue an ultimatum to the Serbian government, framed in a manner that would be likely to provoke war.*

It has been argued *that rights are inevitably relative to each culture.*

Existential *there* 482d

Existential *there* allows an indefinite subject to be placed later in a passive clause. This has the effect of creating greater focus on the passive subject:

There were *hundreds* ***killed*** *in the earthquake.*
(Note the word order. ~~There were killed hundreds in the earthquake.~~)

I did complain, but ***there was*** *no action* ***taken*** *at the time.*

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Functions of the *get*-passive **483**

The *get*-passive is used in more informal contexts and is more common in spoken than in written English. It is only used with dynamic verbs (verbs denoting actions or events rather than states):

A headmaster ***got stabbed*** *a few weeks ago. What is the world coming to?*
(dynamic verb)

The standard unit of mass used by all scientists ***is kept*** *at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures at Sèvres, near Paris, France.*
(non-dynamic verb: ~~The standard unit of mass used by all scientists gets kept at the International Bureau of Weights and Measures ...~~)

The *get*-passive enables a clear distinction to be made between a dynamic event and a state or situation:

The fence ***got damaged****.*
(dynamic event)

The fence ***was damaged****.*
(not clear if it is a state or a dynamic event)

The *get*-passive places a little more emphasis on the grammatical subject or the entities involved. For this reason it is often used to recount newsworthy events. The actions/events most typically do not benefit the entity described and the form is often used when a situation is judged to be problematic in some way:

[speaker who once worked for a tobacco company]
Well actually I ***got sacked*** *because I was purposely trying to disrupt the business cos I hate smoking so much.*

A: *My interview was supposed to be on the fifteenth and then it* ***got moved*** *to the nineteenth.*
B: *Oh no.*
A: *And then guess what Martin.*
B: *What?*
A: *It* ***got cancelled*** *at five to eleven on the nineteenth.*

The *get*-passive is not used exclusively in negative or problematic contexts, and positive newsworthy events are also (though less often) described using the *get*-passive:

Liam ***got promoted*** *again. He's now the sales and marketing director.*

[tennis player talking]
I ***got picked*** *for the county so I played county matches.*

When a reflexive construction is used with the *get*-passive, it often indicates the involvement or responsibility of the grammatical subject:

Somehow the key ***got itself jammed*** *in the door.*
(speaker 'blames' the key)

For all his power, you see, Dr Primo Nebiolo has never succeeded in ***getting himself elected*** *to the International Olympic Committee.*

The *get*-passive is informal. In the following examples the *get*-passive sentences would be more likely to be used in informal contexts. The *be*-passive equivalents sound more detached and neutral:

He damaged the picture and ***got sued*** *by the owners, who said that it had lessened its value.*
(He damaged the picture and was sued by the owners, who said that it had lessened its value.)

That town ***got*** *really badly* ***hit*** *by an earth tremor.*
(That town was really badly hit by an earth tremor.)

FUNCTIONS OF PSEUDO-PASSIVES WITH *HAVE* 484

The *have*-pseudo-passive most typically enables a person affected by an action or event to be made the grammatical subject, thereby making that person the starting point for the message:

They ***had*** *their keys* ***stolen****.*

He ***had*** *his window* ***smashed****.*

Other alternatives make different participants the theme of the sentence:

Someone stole their keys.

Their keys were/got stolen.

The meaning may be causative or non-causative:

I don't mind paying to go to the dentist or to ***have*** *my eyes* ***checked****.*
(causative: I make it happen)

My friend round the corner recently ***had*** *his video* ***stolen****.*
(non-causative: it was not his intention or aim)

In the case of some verbs which take an object plus prepositional complement, the *have*-pseudo-passive compensates for the lack of a *be*-passive and enables the affected participant to become the theme:

I've ***had some ideas suggested to me****, but I need time to think.*
(or: Some ideas have been suggested to me …)
(~~I've been suggested some ideas …~~)

We'll ***have that explained to us*** *all over again at the next meeting, I'll bet.*
(or: That will be explained to us all over again …)
(~~We'll be explained that all over again …~~)

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✪ The meaning of the *have*-pseudo-passive is not the same as the perfect aspect form of the verb:

*Oh, you**'ve had your hair cut**. It looks nice.*
(someone, a hairdresser, cut your hair; 'Oh, you've cut your hair' would mean you did it yourself)

GET- AND *HAVE*-PSEUDO-PASSIVES 485

Get-pseudo-passives and *have*-pseudo-passives can often both be used to express causative and non-causative meanings. The *have*-passive is more formal than the *get*-passive:

*We **got** our car radio **stolen** twice on holiday.*
(or: We had our car radio stolen twice on holiday.)

*They**'ll have had** the phone **connected** by now.*
(or: They'll have got the phone connected by now.)

*I **have** my hair **done** about once a month.*
(or: I get my hair done about once a month.)

VERBS USUALLY ONLY FOUND IN THE PASSIVE 486

Some verbs are most typically used in the passive rather than the active voice. These include:

be born	*be populated*	*be strewn*
be deemed	*be stranded*	*be taken aback*

***Were you born** in Bristol, Mary?*
(used in the past tense: ~~Are you born in Bristol, Mary?~~)

*They **were deemed** unsuitable as foster-parents.*

*They **were taken aback** by the violence of the film's ending.*

DESERVE, *NEED*, *REQUIRE*, *WANT* WITH A PASSIVE MEANING 487

Deserve, *need*, *require* and *want* can be followed by an active *-ing* form structure although the grammatical subject is the affected participant of the process denoted by the verb, thus creating a meaning similar to a passive voice structure:

*The picture's dark, very dark. It **needs restoring**.*
(similar to: It should be restored.)

*Your jacket **wants cleaning**.*
(similar to: It should be cleaned.)

also **475b Active versus passive voice** in **Word order and focus**

A–Z **75 *Want***

Speech representation

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Speech representation

INTRODUCTION 488

Representations of speech are ways of reporting one's own or another person's speech. Speech reports are normally divided into direct and indirect reports.

Direct reports

A direct report consists of a reporting clause and a reported clause. The reporting clause contains a verb indicating speech, such as *ask*, *demand, say*, *shout*, *tell*. The reported clause represents or attempts to recreate the exact words someone used, as they occurred at the moment of speaking, with the same pronouns, tenses, clause types, etc. which the original speaker used. The reported clause is separated by punctuation from the reporting clause, usually by means of commas and speech marks (normally single or double inverted commas):

clauses
reporting reported
1 *She said, "What shall I do?"*

clauses
reported reporting
2 *"Where are you going?" he asked.*

Indirect reports

An indirect report consists of a reporting clause, plus a reported clause which is more fully integrated as the object of the reporting verb and not usually separated by punctuation. The reported clause has a form which reflects the speech act of the original utterance.

The reported clause may be a *that*-clause (reporting a statement), a *wh*-clause (reporting a *wh*-question or exclamation), a clause with *if* or *whether* (reporting a polar question) or an infinitive clause (reporting a directive):

- Reporting statements:

  She informed me ***that*** *she used to know my mother and was on friendly terms with half a dozen of my aunts.*

  I told him I hadn't seen it.
  (*that*-clause with zero-*that*)

- Reporting *wh*-questions and exclamations:

  Miguel told me ***what*** *happened at the farmhouse tonight.*

  She asked ***who*** *we'd been talking to.*

  She remarked ***what*** *a beautiful house it was.*

- Reporting polar (*yes-no*) and alternative questions:

  *Pointing at my forehead, he asked **if** I had been fighting.*

  *She took his hand and asked **whether** he had slept.*

  *I asked her **if** she was full-time or just part-time.*

- Reporting directives:

  A: *I told you **to phone** her up.*
  B: *I know. Er, sorry, I forgot.*

  *The doctor ordered him **to rest** for at least a month.*

When someone's words are reported indirectly, pronouns, tenses, clause types, etc. change to reflect the situation of the current report in relation to the original moment of speaking of the words reported.

Example **1** above (*She said, "What shall I do?"*) would typically be made into an indirect report as in **1a**:

1a *She asked what she should do.*

- *I* has now become *she*, as the speaker is reporting the words of a female third person.
- *Shall* has become *should* to reflect the time lapse since the words were uttered.
- The interrogative clause has become declarative as the clause is now an indirect report and is no longer a direct question.
- *Said* has become *asked* as a question is being reported.

Example **2** above (*"Where are you going?" he asked.*) would typically be made into an indirect report as in **2a**, with similar changes to the grammar of pronouns, tenses and clause types:

2a *He asked where I was/we were/they were going.*

Other ways of reporting

In direct speech, the report represents or attempts to recreate or give the illusion of the original speaker's exact words. In indirect speech reports, the report is not necessarily meant to be a recreation of someone's exact words; it may function just to report the content of what they said.

Speech reports, both direct and indirect, are most commonly made with reporting clauses containing verbs such as *ask*, *say* and *tell* with a reported clause. There are also other, more indirect ways in which people's speech can be reported, by using nouns such as *argument*, *comment*, *complaint*, *observation*, *remark* to refer to someone's words, or by quoting them, especially the words of famous people:

*I didn't like his **comment** that we were spending too much money.*

*Well their biggest **complaint** was that the room was too small.*

***To quote** Shakespeare: "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players."*

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Speech reports may be reports of real, past speech events or they may be hypothetical or be reports of things people will say or intend to say:

*If he asks me to do it again, I think **I'll just say**, "No. Do it yourself."*

***We should ask them** what day they can deliver the fridge and things.*

REPORTING VERBS 489

Say in its past tense form *said* is by far the most frequent reporting verb in direct reports, especially in everyday spoken language:

*I **said**, 'Gran, I was only doing this while I was waiting for the kettle to boil.'*

'So you're too busy for me,' he **said**. *'I feared it had come to that.'*

Say and *tell* are also by far the most frequent reporting verbs in indirect reports in everyday spoken language:

*And after a moment he **said** that he had been in the valley for forty-seven years.*

*Mrs Johnson **told** her that Robert was part of a consortium.*

Ask is used frequently in informal conversation for indirect reports, but not for direct reports:

*They **asked** me what I thought about the food.*

The use of *ask* in direct reports is mostly confined to written fictional styles:

*'Will you not tell me the truth now?' he **asked**.*

Say versus *tell* 489a

Say and *tell* function differently in speech reports. *Tell* focuses on the content or message of what was said:

*She **told** him they were going on holiday.*
(focus on the information)

Say focuses more on the words someone said:

*'Hello,' she **said**.*
('~~Hello,' she told me.~~)

Say can introduce direct reports. *Tell* is not normally used in this way:

*He **said**, 'I'm not paying £50 for that.'*
(~~He told me, 'I'm not paying £50 for that.'~~)

Say and *tell* have different rules of complementation. *Say* is used with an optional prepositional complement and an object (which is the reported clause). *Tell* normally has an indirect object, along with a direct object (which is the reported clause):

*I **said to her**, 'When I'm ready I'll tell you.'*

*She **said** she didn't know anything about it.*
(or: She told me she didn't know anything about it.)
(~~She told she didn't know anything about it.~~)

*And then they **told us** we had to do it.*
(or: And then they said we had to do it.)
(~~And then they told we had to do it.~~)

Say is not used with an indirect object to refer to the person addressed:

***I said to her**, 'When I'm ready I'll tell you.'*
(~~I said her, 'When I'm ready I'll tell you.'~~)

They told me I'd have to wait.
(or: They said I'd have to wait.)
(~~They said me I'd have to wait.~~)

Generally, *tell* but not *say* is used with an infinitive clause to report directives:

*The man from Foreign Affairs had **told** her **to prepare for the worst**.*

But in informal spoken contexts, *say* may also be used with an infinitive clause to report a directive:

*I phoned up the hospital and they **said to go down**.*

PUNCTUATION 490

Punctuation and direct speech 490a

A variety of punctuation conventions exist for direct speech reports. Direct speech may be enclosed in single or double inverted commas:

'I want to do it,' Anna said.

"Not always," replied Bobby.

As seen in these examples, a comma is used at the end of the direct speech, before the closing speech marks. A comma is also used when the reporting clause comes first. The speech marks close after the final full stop:

Anna said hastily, 'She doesn't mean to be patronizing.'

The direct speech normally begins with a capital letter. Where a reported sentence is interrupted (e.g. by a reporting clause or a discourse marker), the continuation of the report does not have a capital letter:

'Okay, come on Pat,' she said, 'let's go and have some tea.'

A colon may also be used to separate the reporting and reported clause, especially in quotations (e.g. in academic articles, journalism, quoting famous people):

He said: 'If we want to maintain our global role, we must be a leading player in Europe.'

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✪ Subscript inverted commas („… .”) and the symbols «…» are not used in English to indicate direct speech:

I said, “Oh it’s very kind of you.”
(Not: I said, „Oh it’s very kind of you.” / « Oh it’s very kind of you »)

506f **Direct speech** in **Appendix: Punctuation** for further details concerning punctuation of direct speech

Punctuation and indirect speech 490b

✪ In indirect speech, the reporting clause is not separated from the reported clause by a comma when the reporting clause is first:

The lorry driver simply said that it was meat and bone meal from another delivery.
(~~The lorry driver simply said, that it was meat and bone meal …~~)
(~~The lorry driver simply said that, it was meat and bone meal …~~)

When the reporting clause is in end position, a comma is used to separate the clauses:

[referring to a picture]
It had been painted with love, he said.

Indirect reports of questions do not have question marks:

So people complained and asked him why we were waiting.
(~~… and asked him why we were waiting?~~)

REPORTING AND REPORTED CLAUSES 491

Position of the reporting clause 491a

A reported speech sentence typically consists of a reporting clause and one or more reported clauses (488, above). The reporting clause most typically comes before or after the reported clause.

Examples of reporting clause before reported clause

reporting clause	reported clause
I said,	*‘No, no, no, it’s Sunday.’*
She told him	*(that) they were going on holiday.*
He asked,	*‘What can I tempt you with?’*

Examples of reported clause before reporting clause

reported clause	reporting clause
‘Oh it’s been a real disaster!’	*she said.*
‘Why wasn’t I told?’	*she asked.*

In direct speech reports in informal spoken language, the reporting clause most frequently comes first. In literary fiction, the reporting clause most frequently comes after the reported clause. Reporting clauses may also interrupt the reported clause; this type is most frequent in written fictional styles:

- Before:

  ***He said**, ‘They’ve double-booked you for a wedding reception.’*

- Interrupting:
  'What's happened?' ***Nicole demanded****. 'Please, I've got to know.'*
- After:
  'Have you found Michelle?' ***she asked anxiously****.*

In indirect speech reports, the reporting clause normally occurs before the reported clause:

A: ***I told you*** *that Ernie, her husband, died.*
B: *Yes.*

Less frequently, the reporting clause may occur after the reported clause.

He wasn't going to see Louise leave school, ***he said****.*

He was in the middle of an enforced career change, ***he said****.*

TENSE AND ASPECT IN REPORTING VERBS 492

The past simple 492a

When the report refers to a single past occasion of speech as a concluded event, the reporting verb is usually in the past simple tense. This form is by far the most frequent, in both spoken and written contexts:

'Well,' ***he said****, 'you're not 21.'*

They said *that was exactly what they wanted.*

The present simple 492b

In indirect speech reports, if the reported speech is seen as always true or relevant, or likely to be said on any given occasion, the present simple may be used with the reporting verb:

He went to a lady doctor in there. ***He says*** *she's very nice.*
(he would probably always say that if asked)

But when ***she says*** *water sports, what does she mean?*
(every time she says that word, not just one occasion)

360 The present simple for dramatic effect

The present progressive 492c

In indirect speech, if the speech reported represents someone's current position or opinion (which might possibly change), then the present progressive can be used:

He's saying *it was a Head Office decision but did he know prior to that?*
(that is his current position on the matter)

360b The present progressive for narrative build-up

The past progressive 492d

The past progressive is frequent in indirect reports in spoken language. It is used to focus on a new topic or to emphasise an important bit of news or information which the speaker has heard first-hand. It takes the focus away from the actual words reported and puts it on the content:

*Jenny **was saying** that five mortar bombs have been found at Heathrow Airport.*

*Don **was telling** me the Magdeburg students have lectures at seven o'clock in the morning.*

*He **was suggesting** I should travel.*

Reports of newsworthy items that the speaker has read about also often occur with the past progressive:

[Tony Blair was the British Prime Minister at the time of speaking]
*I **was reading** in the paper that Blair's going to the Caribbean for his holidays.*

VIEWPOINT: TIME AND PLACE REFERENCES 493

Deictic expressions (*now*, *here*) 493a

Ways of pointing to time (e.g. tenses, and words such as *today*, *ago*), place (e.g. *here*, *this shop*) and persons (*I*, *you*) at the moment of speaking are called deictic expressions. Deictic meanings are relative to where the speakers are and when they are speaking. Such meanings may undergo changes in indirect reports to reflect the viewpoint of the person reporting the words spoken (since the person reporting is frequently in a different time and place from the original situation and reporting someone else's words).

For example, the question *'Will you be coming here tomorrow, Jane?'* may be reported indirectly in a variety of ways, depending on where and when the report is made, and by whom. An illustration of some of the many possible changes to deictic reference are given in the table below.

Examples of changes to deictic reference (original question: 'Will you be coming here tomorrow, Jane?')

indirect reports	explanation
*I asked Jane if **she will** be **coming here tomorrow**.*	reporter is the same person and is at the same place where the original question was asked, and 'tomorrow' has not yet come
*I asked Jane if **she would** be **going there the next day**.*	reporter is the same person but is at a different place from where the original question was asked, and 'tomorrow' has gone
***He/she** asked Jane if **she would** be **going there the next day**.*	reporter is a different person and is at a different place from where the original question was asked, and 'tomorrow' has gone
***He/she** asked **me** if **I'll** be **coming here tomorrow**.*	reporter is Jane herself. She is at the same place where she was originally asked the question, and 'tomorrow' has not yet come

Tense backshift 493b

When the indirect report is perceived as referring to the past, the tense in the reported clause usually changes to a past form of the tense of the original speech. This process is known as tense backshift.

Examples of tense backshift

direct report	original tense form	indirect report	backshifted tense form
*'Robert **is** part of a consortium,' Mrs Johnson said to her.*	present simple	*Mrs Johnson told her that Robert **was** part of a consortium.*	past simple
*He said, 'I'**m** just **leaving** for the airport.'*	present progressive	*He said he **was** just **leaving** for the airport.*	past progressive
*She said, 'We**'ve lived** here fifteen years and we**'ve** never met him.'*	present perfect	*She said they **had lived** there fifteen years and they **had** never **met** him.*	past perfect
*'I **will go**,' he said.*	'future' *will*	*He said he **would go**.*	'future-in-the-past' *would*

For some tense-aspect forms, there may be no change between direct and indirect speech.

Examples of no change in tense

direct report	tense form	indirect report	tense form
*He said, 'I **was thinking** of getting my mum one for her birthday.'*	past progressive	*He said he **was thinking** of getting his mum one for her birthday.*	same
*She said, 'We**'d wanted** to go there for years.'*	past perfect	*She said they**'d wanted** to go there for years.*	same

The past progressive may change to the past perfect progressive if the speaker perceives the event as relating to a past before the moment of the direct speech.

Example of past progressive changing to past perfect progressive

direct report	tense	indirect report	backshifted tense form
*He said, 'I **was thinking** of getting my mum one for her birthday.'*	past progressive	*He said he **had been thinking** of getting his mum one for her birthday.*	past perfect progressive

When the report refers to something treated as still relevant, or still true, or as yet unfulfilled, the verb may not necessarily shift to the past:

*I've just talked to Barbara and she said she**'s taking** it on Monday.*
(Barbara probably said, 'I'm taking it on Monday.')

*He said he**'s going to do** military service.*
(he probably said, 'I'm going to do military service.')

*Why **is** Joanna angry? About what? You said she**'s** angry about a party.*

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Backshift and modal verbs 493c

Backshift changes to modal verbs are more complex.

Must

Must usually changes to *had to*, especially when reference is made to an accomplished past event. However, if the event is still unaccomplished (i.e. the future-in-the-past), *must* may be retained in the indirect report.

Must in indirect reports

direct report	indirect report
*'We **must** replace the cooker.'*	*She said they **had to** replace the cooker.
	She said they **would have to replace the cooker.
*'I **must** read it.'*	He said he **must** read it. (future-in-the-past)

* The form with *had to* may refer to an unfulfilled obligation or a fulfilled one.
** The form with *would have to* can only refer to an unfulfilled obligation.

Shall

Shall with first person subject (and its short form *'ll*) changes to *would* in reports of statements, but changes to *should* when questions are reported.

Shall in indirect reports

direct report	indirect report
*'I'm not even certain this year whether I **shall** bother.'*	*He said he wasn't even certain this year whether he **would** bother.*
*'**Shall** I try it?'*	*She asked if she **should** try it.*

Can

Can changes to *could*.

Can in indirect reports

direct report	indirect report
*'I **can** do it on Monday.'*	*She said she **could** do it on Monday.*

Other modal verbs

Could, *might*, *should*, *would*, *ought to* and *used to* do not change.

Other modal verbs in indirect reports

direct report	indirect report
*'I **could** come here seven nights a week.'*	*He said he **could** come here seven nights a week.*
*'I **might** need that money.'*	*She said she **might** need that money.*
*'Everybody **should** have a copy.'*	*He said everybody **should** have a copy.*
*'I **would** like a refund if possible.'*	*She said she **would** like a refund if possible.*
*'They **ought to** get an accountant to sort it out.'*	*He said they **ought to** get an accountant to sort it out.*
*'I **used to** take the dogs for a walk on the path there.'*	*He said he **used to** take the dogs for a walk on the path there.*

In the case of *could*, *might*, *should*, *would* and *ought to*, backshift does not require a shift to the perfect infinitive of the lexical verb. Such a change, if made, may produce a different meaning. Compare:

She said she ***would like*** *a refund.*
(report of what she wished for at the moment of speaking but had not yet received)

She said she ***would have liked*** *a refund.*
(understood: but they didn't give her one; report of what she had wished for but she did not in fact get it)

Personal pronouns 493d

References to people using personal pronouns in indirect reports depend on whether the person reporting the speech and the person(s) whose speech is reported are the same or different.

Examples of personal pronouns in indirect reports

direct report	indirect report
*'**I**'m spending the day in Glasgow with a school friend,' **she** said.*	***She** said **she** was spending the day in Glasgow with a school friend.* (reporting someone else's words)
*'**You** can use the cotton dressing gown as a nice tablecloth if **you** don't want to wear it,' **I** said to her.*	***I** told **her she** could use the cotton dressing gown as a nice tablecloth if **she** didn't want to wear it.* (reporting one's own words)
*'**I** have been in the valley for forty-seven years,' **he** said.*	***He** said that **he** had been in the valley for forty-seven years.* (reporting someone else's words)
*'**I**'ll mention it,' **I** said.*	***I** said **I**'d mention it.* (reporting one's own words)

also the table in **493a**

REPORTS OF STATEMENTS 494

That is often omitted in the reported clause, especially in informal contexts:

*She said (**that**) she was going to Majorca on a walking holiday.*

*I suggested (**that**) she actually invites a group of people back.*

When the report is the complement of the noun-form of a reporting verb, it is normal to include *that*:

And what about the suggestion ***that George might get an earlier appointment****?*

Occasionally, especially in less formal spoken language, *that* may be omitted after a reporting noun:

There's a hint ***the government's going to change its policy on house-building****.*

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REPORTS OF QUESTIONS 495

Reports of polar (*yes-no*) and alternative questions 495a

When a *yes-no* question or an alternative question (a question involving a choice of *x* or *y*) is reported indirectly, *if* or *whether* is used with a declarative clause structure. In all the examples in the table below, *if* and *whether* can be used with no change in meaning.

Examples of reported *yes-no* and alternative questions

direct report	indirect report
'Will you work as a co-editor with us?'	*They asked me **if** I would work as a co-editor with them.*
'Will you be able to do it?'	*I asked him **whether** he would be able to do it.*
'Should I come over in the near future?'	*Jules just phoned me wondering **whether** she should come over in the near future.*
(possible question that was never asked) *'Do you want to stay overnight?'*	*I'm glad they didn't ask me **if** I wanted to stay overnight.*

Whether is preferred when *or not* immediately follows:

*Yeah, but they haven't stated **whether or not** it will be accepted.*
(preferred to: … stated if or not)

However, when *or not* comes at the end, either *if* or *whether* can be used:

*She asked **if/whether** we had registered **or not**.*

In informal spoken style, a direct interrogative clause may occur instead of *if/whether*:

[speaker is talking of an experience while staying in hospital]
*You know the sweetener, I asked one of the cleaners **could she get me something** because it was on a very bad day and she had to ring down for permission for somebody else to get one.*

*At what point should we ask **have they got any rooms**?*

Reports of *wh*-questions 495b

When a *wh*-question is reported indirectly, the word order is normally declarative rather than interrogative:

*So I asked him **what** the arrangements were.*
(~~So I asked him what were the arrangements.~~)

*I phoned up the hospital and asked **who** I should address the letter to.*
(~~… who should I address the letter to~~)

In informal spoken style, interrogative word order is sometimes used:

*I asked him **where** was he going but he wouldn't say.*
(instead of: I asked him where he was going …)

VOICE IN THE REPORTING CLAUSE 496

Most reporting verbs are active voice, but passive voice is also frequent in indirect reports, especially indirect reports with *ask* and *tell*:

My husband ***had been told*** *at the hospital that they were short-staffed.*

They ***should have been asked*** *if it had cost them money to get there.*

Passive voice is much less frequent in the reporting clause in direct reports, but it does occur (as *be*- and *get*-passive) in complement clauses of reporting nouns:

A question ***I'm often asked*** *is, 'Why do we need a pronouncing dictionary?'*

One question ***we often get asked*** *is, 'Do the crew sleep on board?'*

A–Z **20 *Ask (for)***

SPEECH REPORTS INTRODUCED BY NOUNS 497

Speech reports may be introduced by nouns. Nouns used in this way include:

accusation	*complaint*	*point*
advice	*concern*	*remark*
answer	*denial*	*response*
argument	*excuse*	*statement*
assertion	*explanation*	*suggestion*
claim	*news*	
comment	*observation*	

The noun may be the subject of a clause with *be*, with the reported clause as complement. Such reports may be direct or indirect:

A: *I mean if they didn't insist on that, would we bother?*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *And* ***the answer's*** *probably, 'No, we wouldn't.'*

Two weeks ago Senator John D Rockefeller of West Virginia abruptly abandoned his exploratory campaign for the Democratic nomination. ***His explanation was*** *that he didn't have time to mount an effective bid.*

The report may be the complement of the reporting noun:

The excuse *that the computer was down was a bit weak.*

I had a place next to my father, and ***the news*** *came down that war had broken out.*

I did make ***a suggestion*** *as to whether I should increase the price of the property.*

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The report may simply be an expansion or elaboration of the reporting noun in a separate clause:

[electrical engineering university tutorial]
Well again we come back to ***the point that we made earlier****: are you actually plotting it against T, you know have you had to plot it against T or against something else?*

QUOTING AND ATTRIBUTING 498

The speech of others, especially of famous people, and proverbs and conventional sayings may be quoted, in order to support arguments, to invoke particular emotions, etc. Different structures may occur:

[Tony Blair was the British Prime Minister at the time of speaking]
To quote *Tony Blair, 'Education, education, education'.*
(verb infinitive)

Dr Fanshaw has this, ***I quote****, 'miracle cream' that he gives to all his ladies to reduce the stretch marks, and it really does work.*
(present simple tense)

As *the old proverb* ***says****, 'There's no smoke without fire.'*
(present simple tense)

As *she* ***put it****, 'I thought my time was up.'*
(past simple tense)

Speech may also be attributed to others by the use of expressions such as *according to X*, *so X says/said*, or more vaguely or obliquely with adverbs such as *allegedly*, *apparently*, *evidently* and expressions such as *or so I was/have been told, I've heard (that)*, *they say/'re saying*. These expressions are particularly frequent in everyday conversation. Impersonal passive-voice expressions such as *it is said (that)/it is reported (that)*, *it has been claimed/suggested/proposed (that)* are more frequent in formal (especially academic) texts (502b, below):

A: *We're not getting copies.*
B: *Well* ***according to Gillian*** *you are.*

He happened to be an archer, ***or so he said****.*

I was told that *I look nineteen.*

They say *it's a bad road, an accident black-spot.*

In ironic contexts, speakers often use the expression *quote-unquote* to refer obliquely to what is or has often been said in similar situations:

[ironic reference to a lifeguard's considerable legal responsibility when working with children]
A: *Is Sarah all right with them?*
B: *Yeah. Because she's a qualified lifeguard so she's been with the teachers. She's okay to cover them,* ***quote-unquote****.*

REPORTING VERBS AND SPEECH ACTS 499

Speech acts (the communicative functions performed by utterances, 408–423) are often indicated by the choice of reporting verb.

The reporting verb may represent the reported clause as performing a specific speech act. Verbs that are frequently used in this way include:

add	*confirm*	*offer*
admit	*continue*	*order*
advise	*deny*	*plead*
agree	*disclose*	*point out*
announce	*explain*	*protest*
argue	*hint*	*repeat*
assert	*inform*	*reveal*
beg	*interrupt*	*state*
claim	*intervene*	*suggest*
comment	*maintain*	*threaten*
complain	*note*	*warn*
confess	*observe*	

These verbs are most frequently used to introduce indirect reports:

'I'll call Janice,' Sylvia ***offered****.*

'There's that photo of Michelle you keep on your desk,' Carole ***suggested****.*

I ***pointed out*** *yesterday that sales so far this year are down.*

A: *Did they complain?*
B: *No, no. We* ***warned*** *them we were doing it in advance.*

REPORTS IN SPEECH AND WRITING 500

Subject-verb inversion 500a

In written direct speech reports, the subject and verb in the reporting clause may be inverted. This occurs particularly in literary writing and in journalism. It is very rare in informal speech:

'And have we found a tenant for that charming room upstairs?' ***asked Mr Perkins****.*

'This is certainly someone the city wants to celebrate,' ***said a spokesman for the city council****.*

This kind of inversion is even less frequent when the reporting clause comes before the reported clause, but does occur in written journalism:

***Says a spokesman cagily**: 'Pamela is away on holiday at the moment.'*

Reports of questions and answers 500b

In direct speech reports in formal written styles, a question is normally reported with a verb such as *ask*, *demand*, *enquire*, but in informal spoken language, questions are often reported with *say*:

*'What happened?' the policeman **demanded**.*
(written)

*He **said**, 'Are you going to catch the bus home?' I **said**, 'Yeah.' He **said**, 'Are you paying?'*
(spoken)

*I **said**, 'D'you know anyone here?'*

Similarly, an answer to a question is often reported with verbs such as *answer* and *reply* in formal written style:

'Has the chaplain informed the family yet?'
*'No,' Captain Anderson **answered**.*

Reply is often used in this way in literary style:

'Am I allowed back into the kitchen yet?'
*'No,' she **replied** with a grin.*

In informal spoken language, *reply* is normally only used to refer to written answers to letters and other written communications, and *say* is preferred for reporting answers:

*'What do you mean?' she said. 'Well,' I **said**, 'I don't know the whole story yet.'*
(spoken)

Verbs used in formal written styles to report questions and answers include:

answer	*enquire/inquire*	*reply*
ask	*query*	*respond*
demand	*question*	*wonder*

*'Didn't your surveillance team see anything?' Graham **demanded**.*

*Remembering I hadn't a receipt for the luggage transported by Melchett's chauffeur, I **enquired** if it was to hand.*

*'Who is it?' Smylie **queried**.*

The use of such verbs for direct speech in informal spoken language is extremely rare, except for *ask*:

*Then they **asked** him, 'Did you mean this?' and he said, 'No, I just wrote it as a joke.'*

Representing vocal and emotional characteristics 500c

In written fictional styles, the reporting verb often indicates characteristics of the way something was said (e.g. whether it was shouted or whispered), or something about the emotional state of the original speaker (e.g. that they were angry or excited). Using reporting verbs in this way in informal speech is extremely rare.

Verbs of this type include:

bark	*moan*	*shout*
bellow	*mumble*	*shriek*
call (out)	*murmur*	*sigh*
coax	*mutter*	*snap*
cry	*retort*	*stammer*
groan	*roar*	*stutter*
growl	*rumble*	*whisper*
grumble	*shoot back*	*yell*

*'What fun!' **cried** Camilla.*

*'Amen,' **rumbled** the men in answer.*

*'Turn on the meter,' I **sighed**.*

*'No one dies here,' **snapped** Aunt Agatha.*

Adjuncts and reporting verbs 500d

It is also common in written literary style for adjuncts to modify the reporting verb in order to indicate contextual features of the reported clause:

*'I don't know what this country is coming to,' she stated **firmly**.*

*'Not much harm done,' she added **reassuringly**.*

*'I guess I'll have to be looking after your mother now,' he added **with a kind of feeble cheerfulness**.*

*I was **politely** informed that he had left the building.*

Free direct and free indirect speech and thought 500e

Literary style often omits the reporting clause, when it is clear who is speaking and in what order. This is known as free direct speech:

His teeth slid out as he stared me in the face.
'Where? Where?'
'I don't know. You tell me.'

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Free direct speech occurs in informal spoken contexts, especially in extended reports and narratives where blends of different types of speech representation are common:

A: *So we'd been wandering round in the morning doing the usual thing, came back and had lunch and* ***I said****, 'What would you like to do this afternoon, Doris?'* ***She said****, 'Oh, Annie, let's go to bingo.' Now bingo is never ever my cup of tea, but seeing that I was supposed to be, with her…*
B: *Supporting her yeah.*
A: *Exactly. I had to fall in with her.* ***All right then, Doris, where do we go now to bingo?*** *'I don't know,'* ***she said****, 'but we'll find out.'*

Literary style also permits indirect speech reporting, or the indirect reporting of inner speech or thoughts, with no explicit reporting verb. This is known as free indirect speech:

Julie got up. She looked determined. ***She would go to Brighton after all****.*
(implied: She said/thought, 'I'll go to Brighton after all.')

REPORTS IN CONVERSATION 501

Direct versus indirect reports 501a

Speech representation in everyday informal conversation often mixes direct and indirect reports, especially in extended informal spoken reports and narratives; different reporting verbs, in different tenses, are often used side by side (indirect reports within direct reports are in green):

A: ***I said****, "I'll try and get a game of squash on Wednesday," and he was going about ten.* ***Said****, "I'll try and get a court."* ***I said****, "If I get a court we'll play, if I don't we won't bother."*
B: *Yeah.*
A: ***I said****, "I'll ring you on Wednesday and* ***say*** *if I've got one." So I rang him on Wednesday and* ***he said****, "Oh I couldn't get a court on Monday so I booked one at the university."* ***I said****, "I've organised other things. Like I've made other plans now."* ***He said****, "Well I cancelled things to play squash tonight."* ***I said****, "Well I told you on Monday.* ***I said****, 'Don't book one. If I don't get one I'll ring you on the Wednesday and* ***tell you*** *if I've got one or not'." And* ***he says****, "So you're letting me down then."*
B: *Mm.*
A: *And* ***I went****, "No not really. I've just got other things here." "So you're letting me down."* ***I said****, "No I'm not."* ***He says****, "You are. You're letting me down. Tell me. Are you letting me down?"* ***I said****, "If you wanna put it like that all right I'm letting you down."*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *Anyway what kind of attitude is that?*
B: *Oh, he's a complete idiot.*

[teachers talking about class discipline problems]
A: ***I told him*** *to go out.* ***I said****, "Go out and listen. Go on. Leave this classroom."*
B: *Did he go?*
A: *Yeah, it was excellent.*

Topics, openings and closings 501b

Self-reports and reports of what other participants in the conversation have said are often used in spoken language to repeat a point already made, to signal a desire to open or close a topic, or to return to an earlier topic, perhaps after a diversion or interruption.

Opening or changing a topic

For signalling a desire to open a new topic or change the topic, past progressive reporting verbs are often used:

The + sign indicates an interrupted turn which continues at the next + sign
[speakers have been talking about a forthcoming trip to New York]
A: *So where are you staying?*
B: *Erm I think it's Thirty-eighth Street. It's just a couple of blocks south of Time Square.*
A: *Yeah. Yeah.*
B: *So it should be okay+*
A: *Yeah.*
B: *+shouldn't it.*
A: *Erm Mark* ***was saying*** *he's been in Exeter and Swansea this week on a course.*
B: *Who Mark?*
A: *Yeah. He's with a chap who used to work in the health service in Edinburgh.*

Repeating a point or closing a topic

For repeating points already made, and for signalling the desire to close a topic, *as I say* and *as you say* are the most frequent forms:

[A has been telling B about a village that was destroyed by an earthquake]
A: *It was 1909 I think.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *And it was actually destroyed.*
B: *Mm, oh really?*
A: *And they rebuilt it again, this small village.*
B: *Mm.*
A: *But* ***as I say*** *it was very very interesting.*

Well ***as you say****, it's difficult to know what you might do next.*

Resuming a topic

For resuming or returning to an earlier or interrupted topic, *as I was saying* and *as you were saying* are frequently used:

[speaker at a company sales conference]
Those forms I mentioned in the last session, the market-specific forms. Oops! Oops! We've lost the microphone. At least part of it. Anyway. Er, yeah. ***As I was saying****, those two forms are on the table in front of you, so you can take those.*

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Checking, recapping and summarising 501c

In spoken language, indirect reported speech can serve as a memory or comprehension check. The most frequent forms are *did you say* and *you say*:

***Did you say**, Maggie, you'd read something by Lessing before?*

A: *Have you used that twice, **did you say**?*
B: *I've sort of used it twice, yeah.*

A: *Mrs Collett is a brilliant headteacher.*
B: ***You say** there's 36 people in your class?*
A: *Yeah.*

Progressive reporting verbs are common when speakers are checking agreement or mutual understanding of what is or was said:

*If **you're saying** we should do the whole thing, it'll take six months.*

*I think **we were saying** at this point that there'd be no need to repeat it.*

Speakers often recap or produce summaries of what was said, or repeat earlier speech. Simple and progressive forms of reporting verbs may occur:

[Margaret, called away temporarily from an informal business meeting, returns]
***We were just saying**, Margaret, we haven't left enough time to revise all the components.*
(*just* is particularly common with this type of report)

***Like we said** yesterday, it's all a bit hypothetical.*
(or, more formally: As we said yesterday, …)

Dramatisation and narrative 501d

In narratives, especially spoken ones, the verb may occur in forms other than the past simple. This dramatises the speech report, making it more vivid.

The past progressive is used to emphasise an ongoing or repeated event, or simply to dramatise the reported speech:

*He went in to the supermarket and he was singing down the aisles and **he was saying**, 'Come on everybody,' you know, 'join in.'*

*Then it really surprised me how **she was saying**, 'Oh, take this fifty pence,' and **I was thinking**, gosh, did she really pay you for it?*

Extra dramatisation can be created by using the historic present tense (i.e. present simple form, but with past reference). This often occurs alongside the past simple:

*So I go back to Doris and she **says**, 'All right, Annie, will the bingo be starting soon? I can't see any chairs and tables.' 'No,' I **said**, 'we're in the wrong place.'*
(some speakers of English may consider this form non-standard)

Even greater dramatisation can be produced by using the present progressive with the reporting verb, with the possibility of shifting from the historic present (simple form) to progressive at particularly important moments in the narrative:

> [speaker is talking about Britain's National Lottery; a 'tenner' is ten pounds sterling]
> *He **says**, 'Oh no, I've won a tenner twice,' and **I'm saying**, 'When?' you know, 'You didn't tell me!'*

Use of *I says*, *go*, *be* and *be like* **501e**

I says and the use of *go*, *be* and *be like* to dramatise direct speech are considered by many people to be non-standard and grammatically unacceptable. However, they are widespread and normal within major social varieties of British English (84).

Although many would consider it a grammatically unacceptable form, *I says* is very common as a dramatising reporting clause in informal speech:

> [narrating an incident where the speaker feels he was overcharged for a film for his camera]
> A: *I called in, they charged £9.99 for the same film.* [tuts] ***I says** 'You're overcharging for that film you know.' So he says, 'Oh that's what the price says.' **I says**, 'I won't come here again you know.'*
> B: *Yes. Yeah.*
> A: *'You won't get me in here again.' It's only because I was in a bit of a hurry.*

In very informal spoken language, *go*, *be* and *be like* may be used to report direct speech. They are often accompanied by dramatising body-language or a change in the speaker's voice to suggest a dramatic re-creation of the original speech.

Such usage is often considered non-standard and bad style. However, it occurs in a wide range of informal conversations, especially among younger speakers.

Go, *be* and *be like* may be further dramatised by the use of the present simple form:

> *I was embarrassed and when we were out and I had a dress on, **she went**, 'Look at her legs, she's got hairy legs.'*
>
> ***He goes**, 'It will cost you 75 quid.' And **I'm**, you know, 'We can't afford that!'*
>
> *He keeps coming and trying to kiss me and **I'm like**, 'Go away! Go away!'*
>
> ***I was like**, 'Oh, thank God for that!' you know.*

Go also occurs in progressive aspect:

> *There were like magazines flying all over my room and **I'm going**, 'Oh I can't get up. Can't get up.'*

In very informal contexts, first person *I* may occur with third person *goes*. This is likely to be considered incorrect and unacceptable usage by many people:

> [talking about looking after someone's dog for the day]
> *She said, 'You've got a little friend to look after tomorrow.' And **I goes**, 'Has he got four legs?' She said, 'Yes.'*

A–Z 49 *Like*

Use of discourse markers in direct reports 501f

Direct reports often contain discourse markers such as *erm*, *oh*, *well*, which may or may not have been part of the original utterance:

*When we first moved into the house we had a cup of tea. You know, they made us that horrible herbal tea stuff. And then of course we had to sit in the living room. And they were just saying, '**Oh well** what are you doing today?' Like that. And my mum and dad said, '**Oh** I think we'll just **you know** do a little bit of food shopping.'*

[*a work placement* is when a person, typically a student, works somewhere without pay for a short time to gain experience]
*About two or three weeks ago I phoned them up and said, 'Can I do a work placement?' And they said, '**Well**, fax us a letter saying when.' So I did.*

SPEECH REPORTS IN SPECIFIC REGISTERS 502

Newspaper headlines 502a

Newspaper headlines have developed special conventions for reporting speech not normally found elsewhere. A typical convention is an indirect report with the reporting clause in end position, and an ellipted passive reporting verb:

STAND UP TO SCHOOL BULLIES, ***TEACHERS TOLD***
(teachers have been told)

Inversion of subject and verb in reporting verbs in end position may occur, with or without inverted commas:

BROCCOLI MAY PREVENT CANCER, ***SAY U.S. DOCTORS***

Unattributed quotations also occur:

[*NHS* = British National Health Service]
RECORD SHORTAGE OF NURSES ***'COULD THREATEN NHS CARE'***
(it is not clear who spoke the words *could threaten NHS care*)

Impersonal reports in formal registers 502b

Formal styles such as journalism and academic English often use impersonal constructions to report and quote other people's words. These include passive voice constructions and constructions with *it*:

***Someone** once said that there's nothing as old as yesterday's news.*

*Many royal watchers predicted then that Isabel's chances of becoming Queen of Spain had been dashed by the embarrassing affair, and **it was said that** Felipe's mother, Queen Sofia, was particularly keen to bring an early end to the romance.*
(we are not told who said this)

***It is claimed that** any small retailer who wants to cut prices is threatened with the withdrawal of supply.*

146d Hedging and impersonal constructions in **Grammar and academic English**

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Glossary

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Appendix: Word clusters and grammar

INTRODUCTION 503

Language use is very repetitive. Words cluster together, those clusters of words repeat themselves time and time again, and some of the most frequently repeated clusters reveal grammatical regularities. However, the most frequently repeated clusters often lack grammatical completeness, in the sense that they are not complete phrases or clauses. They merit special consideration outside of the normal structural rules as described in the rest of this grammar book, since they perform important basic functions in everyday usage.

In this conversational extract, clusters of words which occur with high frequency in the spoken corpus used in the preparation of this book are shown in bold, with adjacent clusters separated by /:

> [a tennis player is talking about his match tactics]
> ***I think***, *erm, when I'm on court sometimes* ***there's*** / ***a lot of things*** *that* ***kind of*** *determine how I play.* ***If I****'m tired* ***I might*** *shout* ***and that sort of thing****. Erm,* ***I think****, I prepare better* ***you know****. Er, like, before,* ***you know*** *er, maybe I wouldn't push myself* ***like that*** / ***you know*** *but now, erm, I'll go on court, right, with the game plan, erm, and I'll use that as, like, the base of what* ***I'm going to*** *do* ***and then*** *if that's not working then obviously I've got to,* ***kind of****, I've still* ***got to*** / ***try and*** *stick with it because* ***I know*** *er,* ***I know*** *that* ***that's what*** / ***I've got to*** *do. But if the guy is,* ***you know****, finding it quite easy to cope with, or I,* ***kind of like****, break down or it's,* ***kind of****, five four* ***or something*** / ***and I****'m doing the right thing* ***but I****'m not doing quite well enough,* ***I might*** / ***try and*** *change* ***a couple of things*** / ***here and there****. Erm,* ***I might*** *er* ***try and*** *put* ***a bit more*** *pressure on the guy if er he's serving and it's fifteen thirty,* ***and then*** / ***I might*** *stand over* ***a bit more****,* / ***so I*** / ***try and*** *invite him to hit it to my forehand,* ***that sort of thing****.*

All informal conversations contain a high number of such clusters, and many of the clusters occur more frequently than some of the common, everyday single words. Clusters also occur in written texts; however, the most common clusters differ between written and spoken texts. It can be argued that clusters such as those highlighted are retrieved from memory as whole units; they are formulaic, and are very possibly not assembled afresh each time they are used. They make an important contribution to fluency. The language use of native speakers and expert users always contains a high number of such clusters, especially in speech.

The 20 most frequent co-occurring pairs of words (two-word clusters) in the spoken texts in the corpus used in this grammar book are shown in the table below. Hesitant speech, recasts and exact repetitions, which often occur in unplanned speech, such as *and–and*, or *you–you–you* are excluded from the tables. Contractions such as *don't* and *it's* are not counted as separate words.

Two-word clusters in spoken texts

1	*you know*	**11**	*I was*
2	*I mean*	**12**	*on the*
3	*I think*	**13**	*and then*
4	*in the*	**14**	*to be*
5	*it was*	**15**	*if you*
6	*I don't*	**16**	*don't know*
7	*of the*	**17**	*to the*
8	*and I*	**18**	*at the*
9	*sort of*	**19**	*have to*
10	*do you*	**20**	*you can*

All of these pairs occur more than 5,000 times in the spoken corpus, the top seven occur more than 10,000 times and *you know* occurs more than 28,000 times.

In the case of three-word clusters, the top 20 clusters all occur more than 1,000 times, and *I don't know* occurs more than 5,000 times.

Three-word clusters in spoken texts

1	*I don't know*	**11**	*you want to*
2	*a lot of*	**12**	*you know what*
3	*I mean I*	**13**	*do you know*
4	*I don't think*	**14**	*a bit of*
5	*do you think*	**15**	*I think it's*
6	*do you want*	**16**	*but I mean*
7	*one of the*	**17**	*and it was*
8	*you have to*	**18**	*a couple of*
9	*it was a*	**19**	*you know the*
10	*you know I*	**20**	*what do you*

These clusters reveal how patterns are repeated time and time again in conversation, even though they may be fragmentary and grammatically incomplete. The same applies to writing, though the patterns are in many cases different and the overall frequency of the top clusters is lower.

Two-word clusters in written texts

1	*of the*	**11**	*he was*
2	*in the*	**12**	*in a*
3	*to the*	**13**	*with the*
4	*on the*	**14**	*of a*
5	*it was*	**15**	*by the*
6	*at the*	**16**	*was a*
7	*and the*	**17**	*she was*
8	*to be*	**18**	*I was*
9	*for the*	**19**	*had been*
10	*from the*	**20**	*with a*

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Three-word clusters in written texts

1	*one of the*	11	*it would be*
2	*out of the*	12	*in front of*
3	*it was a*	13	*it was the*
4	*there was a*	14	*some of the*
5	*the end of*	15	*I don't know*
6	*a lot of*	16	*on to the*
7	*there was no*	17	*part of the*
8	*as well as*	18	*be able to*
9	*end of the*	19	*the rest of*
10	*to be a*	20	*the first time*

When we come to four-word clusters, all the clusters occur less than 1,000 times and there are considerably fewer of them.

Four-word clusters in spoken texts

1	*you know what I*	11	*I thought it was*
2	*know what I mean*	12	*I don't want to*
3	*I don't know what*	13	*you know I mean*
4	*do you want to*	14	*that sort of thing*
5	*do you know what*	15	*I don't know how*
6	*I don't know if*	16	*if you want to*
7	*a bit of a*	17	*well I don't know*
8	*I think it was*	18	*I was going to*
9	*I don't know whether*	19	*have a look at*
10	*what do you think*	20	*you don't have to*

Four-word clusters in written texts

1	*the end of the*	11	*per cent of the*
2	*at the end of*	12	*one of the most*
3	*for the first time*	13	*the side of the*
4	*the rest of the*	14	*the edge of the*
5	*in the middle of*	15	*the middle of the*
6	*at the same time*	16	*in front of the*
7	*the back of the*	17	*I don't want to*
8	*at the top of*	18	*for a long time*
9	*the top of the*	19	*is one of the*
10	*the bottom of the*	20	*on the other hand*

The tables below show the top 20 five-word spoken and written clusters.

Five-word clusters in spoken texts

1	*you know what I mean*	8	*this that and the other*
2	*at the end of the*	9	*I know what you mean*
3	*do you know what I*	10	*all the rest of it*
4	*the end of the day*	11	*and all that sort of*
5	*do you want me to*	12	*I was going to say*
6	*in the middle of the*	13	*and all the rest of*
7	*I mean I don't know*	14	*and that sort of thing*

15	*I don't know what it*	18	*to be honest with you*
16	*all that sort of thing*	19	*an hour and a half*
17	*do you want to go*	20	*it's a bit of a*

Five-word clusters in written texts

1	*at the end of the*	11	*the other end of the*
2	*by the end of the*	12	*at the bottom of the*
3	*for the first time in*	13	*the rest of the world*
4	*at the top of the*	14	*for the first time since*
5	*at the back of the*	15	*had nothing to do with*
6	*on the other side of*	16	*at the foot of the*
7	*in the centre of the*	17	*in and out of the*
8	*the end of the day*	18	*in the direction of the*
9	*for the rest of the*	19	*is one of the most*
10	*the middle of the night*	20	*the end of the year*

Although there are four- and five-word clusters, and even six-word clusters (*do you know what I mean*, *from the point of view of*), the most frequent clusters consist of two and three words. It is also clear that there is often a relationship between shorter and longer clusters as the longer cluster can be an extension of the shorter cluster. The figures below show the total number of occurrences for each size of cluster, up to six words in length, occurring 20 or more times in a spoken and written corpus of five million words each.

Distribution of clusters occurring 20 or more times in spoken texts

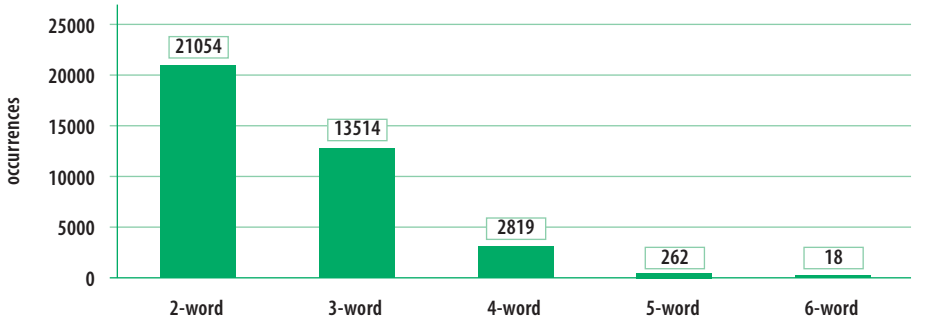

Distribution of clusters occurring 20 or more times in written texts

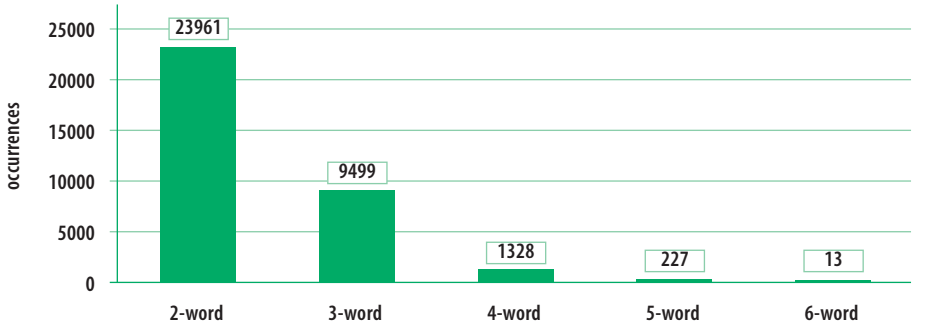

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COMMON TYPES OF CLUSTER 504

Preposition + article 504a

The most frequent two-word clusters are prepositions followed by articles, such as *at the*, *in the*, *of the*, *on the*, *of a*, *with a*. These are particularly frequent in written texts:

*He studied **at the** Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, London.*

*My father's birthday is **on the** fifth.*

*It can be danced either solo, **with a** partner, or in a group.*

Some three-word prepositional patterns with articles are also very frequent, especially *on to the* and *out of the*:

*Screw the top tight **on to the** bottle.*

*We were never allowed **out of the** school.*

250–257 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

Subject + verb 504b

Various combinations of pronoun subjects and verbs appear among the most frequent clusters. These are particularly common in spoken texts. They include subject + lexical verb patterns (*you know*, *I think*, *I mean*), subjects with *be* (which may occur as an auxiliary verb or a copular verb, e.g. *it was*, *I was*) and subjects with other auxiliary verbs and modal verbs (e.g. *I don't*, *you can*). Interrogative *do you* is also very frequent in spoken texts:

***I was** working so desperately hard.*

***You can** carry on if you want.*

***Do you** want a chocolate?*

Three-word subject and verb clusters include negatives, and interrogatives with *do* and *what*:

I don't know	*you have to*	*do you think*
I don't think	*you want to*	*do you want*
it would be	*do you know*	*what do you*

***I don't know** what time it starts.*

***You have to** choose.*

***Do you think** things are different now?*

424–433 Questions; 377–407 Modality

Subject + verb with complement items 504c

The three-, four- and five-word clusters in the spoken texts also show frequent occurrences of subject–verb patterns followed by the beginning of a complement structure (such words as *what*, *how*, *if*, *whether*). These include:

I mean I	*I don't know if*	*do you know what I*
you know what	*I don't know what*	*do you want me to*
you don't have to	*I don't know whether*	

You know what *it's like when you've got a family.*

You don't have to *pay if you're a student.*

If it was my kid, ***I don't know what*** *I'd do.*

304–318 Clause combination

Noun phrase + *of* 504d

A number of high-frequency three-, four- and five-word clusters centre round a noun phrase + *of*, where *of* is the first element of the complement. In the longer clusters, a further element of the complement (typically *the*) occurs. A number of these noun phrases function as the complements of prepositions.

Especially in the written texts, this type is dominated by expressions which often denote a metaphorical location and time:

a bit of	*the side of the*	*at the bottom of the*
a couple of	*at the end of*	*at the foot of the*
a lot of	*at the top of*	*at the top of the*
part of the	*in front of the*	*by the end of the*
the end of (the)	*in the middle of (the)*	*in the direction of the*
the rest of (the)	*the back of the*	*on the other side of*

You'll have ***a lot of*** *fun with it.*

She gathered up ***the rest of the*** *plates, turned and walked towards Claudette.*

She stood silent ***in the middle of the*** *room, looking at him intently.*

Jake stood ***at the top of the*** *stairs and turned round.*

167–175 The noun phrase

A–Z 55 *Of*

Other types 504e

Other, less frequent, types of cluster occur. These include:

- Verb infinitives (with and without *to*), e.g. *to be (a)*, *be able to*:

  I used ***to be a*** *bus driver.*

  We should ***be able to*** *say what we want, shouldn't we?*

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- Conjunction + noun-phrase element, adverb or subject + verb, e.g. *and I, and the, if you, and then, but I mean, and it was*:

  If you *play well and you lose, it's tough.*

  It's not the most wonderful area, ***but I mean*** *it was okay.*

304–318 Clause combination

- Grammatically complete prepositional expressions, especially those of time; these occur with particularly high frequency in the written texts, and include:

at the moment	*in the morning*	*for a long time*
at the time	*at the same time*	*on the other hand*
in the end	*for the first time*	

  For the first time *she tried to imagine herself in that situation.*

  After the meal, she sat ***for a long time*** *at the window.*

  On the other hand*, nothing was impossible.*

250–257 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

FUNCTIONS OF CLUSTERS 505

Relations of time and place 505a

Some of the most frequent clusters, especially in the written texts, express relations of time and place, particularly through prepositional expressions:

I'll see you ***in the*** *morning.*

There was nobody ***on the*** *beaches.*

She sat on ***the edge of the*** *bed, dialled the number for the Police Department …*

He was waiting at ***the bottom of the*** *stairs.*

In the middle of the *night a noise woke Henry.*

242–249 Adverbs and adverb phrases; 319–337 Adjuncts

Other prepositional relations 505b

High-frequency preposition-based clusters such as *of a/the, to the, with a/the, by the, for the* express a variety of basic relations such as possession, agency, purpose, goal, direction. These prepositional clusters are most frequent in the written texts:

The amount of rainfall is measured ***with a*** *rain gauge.*

In 1912 he was arrested, and some of his work was destroyed ***by the*** *police.*

It was a surprise ***for the*** *kids.*

Interpersonal functions 505c

One central aspect of clusters, especially in the spoken texts, is how they reflect the interpersonal meanings (meanings which build and consolidate personal and social relations) created between speakers and listeners, and between writers and readers.

The high-frequency clauses and clause-fragments in the spoken clusters show how speakers are constantly monitoring the state of shared versus new knowledge, or assumptions about common ground between themselves and their listeners, and how speakers can hedge their assertions and express degrees of certainty about the world. This is reflected in the high frequency of clusters based round the verbs *know*, *mean* and *think*, together with their extensions, such as the following:

you know	*do you know what (I)*	*I mean*
I don't know	*I know what you mean*	*I think*
you know what (I)	*you know what I mean*	*I don't think*
you know I mean		*do you think*
I don't know what (it)		

I don't know what *he's going to do.*

I find French so hard, ***you know what I mean****?*

Do you think *you're going to carry on doing what you're doing now?*

I don't think *it does any harm for different people to be involved.*

Vague language 505d

Among the most frequent spoken clusters, a number of items enable speakers to refer vaguely to things without having to be explicit. This may be because it is often impossible to be precise, or, more typically, because speakers can assume that their listeners will understand what they are referring to because they have experiences and viewpoints in common, or they share cultural reference points. These items include:

kind of	*sort of thing*	*(and) that sort of thing*
sort of	*this and that*	*this, that and the other*
and stuff	*(or) something like that*	*(and) all that sort of thing*
and things		
and so on	*(and) things like that*	*(and) all the rest of it*

She ***kind of*** *keeps herself hidden away, doesn't she?*

I mean we have towels and toothbrushes ***and so on****.*

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[tennis player talking about how some players considered winning to be the only important thing and would do anything to win]
I thought at the time, you know, they must just be concentrating on winning at all costs ***sort of thing****, you know. And there was a lot of cheating* ***and all that sort of thing*** *and so yeah I'd say they were focused on winning.*

And the first time was, I think, February ***or something like that****.*

103a Vague language

Linking functions 505e

A number of clusters function to link clauses or sentences. In the spoken texts, the most frequent clusters centre round the conjunctions *and* and *but*, while longer linking clusters tend to be more frequent in the written texts. Linking items include:

and I/the/then	*at the time*	*in the first place*
and I said	*but I mean*	*on the other hand*
and it was	*but it was*	*as a result of (the)*
as well as	*at the same time*	*but at the same time*

The kitchen's okay ***but I mean*** *it'd be nice if you had comfy chairs in there.*

She wanted to turn around and run back to her room – run up the stairs and slam the door behind her. ***At the same time*** *she wanted to tell them, tell them everything.*

In the first place*, she persisted in disbelieving the whole of the matter; secondly, she was very sure that Mr Collins had been taken in.*

As a result of the *fuel shortage, Cuba has become a nation of cyclists.*

335 Linking in Adjuncts

Turn-taking 505f

A number of the common clusters in the spoken texts function to hand the speaking turn over to the listener or in some way demand a response from the listener, even if the response is just a minimal, back-channel response. These include *(do) (you) know what I mean?*, interrogative fragments such as *do you think …?*, *do you want to …?*, *what do you …?*, and common tags such as *… do you?*, *… shall I?*, *… was it?*, *… don't you think?*:

A: *We have to have it because the law says we have to,* ***do you know what I mean****?*
B: *Yeah.*

A: *Now do you all see the view here? It's quite beautiful,* ***don't you think****?*
B: *Mhm.*

A: *I'll make some lunch,* ***shall I****?*
B: *Mm, yes, please.*

I was going to say features as a preface to a turn, drawing attention to what the speaker is about to say, or to repeat or reinforce someone else's turn:

A: *What time does it start? Three?*
B: *No half past.*
A: *Oh.*
B: *We can't expect to be there on time though.*
A: ***I was going to say**, well you wouldn't want to be there on time.*

Clusters in academic English 505g

Academic language possesses a large number of recurring clusters which have become a conventional part of academic style, in speech and in writing. These include:

such as	*the importance of*	*at the same time*
for example	*the nature of*	*the way in which*
make sure that	*likely to be*	*in the course of*
in terms of	*the use of*	*one of the things*
the fact that	*a (wide) range of*	*in the case of*
in other words	*has to do with*	*a large number of*
and so on	*take a look at*	*you can see that*
in order to	*in the same way*	*if you look at the*
a variety of	*it turns out that*	*there are a number of*

[university literature seminar]
*I suppose we've also touched on **the fact that** for modern readers works can raise questions which perhaps they didn't raise for their original readers.*

*I then show how **the nature of** observations leads to the structure of theories.*

*It consisted of two main subsamples designed to span **a wide range of** age and experience for both males and females.*

[seminar discussing business law]
*If I sell to one of you, are you a consumer? Not unless you're acting **in the course of** a business.*

140–154 Grammar and academic English

Appendix: Punctuation

INTRODUCTION 506

Punctuation exists in order to indicate the boundaries of grammatical units and to indicate grammatical information that is marked in spoken language by means of intonation, pitch, etc. Punctuation consists of both rules and conventions. Punctuation rules have to be followed; but punctuation conventions give writers greater freedom and allow choices.

There are many ways in which written text can be punctuated. The major punctuation marks are full stops, question marks, commas, exclamation marks, colons, semi-colons, apostrophes and dashes. The most frequent forms are the full stop ('period' in American English) and the comma.

Common punctuation marks: symbols and typographic conventions 506a

. = full stop, period (US English), dot, (decimal) point
, = comma
: = colon
; = semi-colon
? = question mark
! = exclamation mark
– = dash
' = apostrophe (as in *Jim's*, *don't*)
"…" = quotation marks, double quotes
'…' = single quotes
- = hyphen (when used to separate words)
* = asterisk
& = *and*
@ = *at* (in email addresses: jane34@opennet.com)
/ = forward slash (as in website addresses)
\ = backwards slash or backslash
% = per cent, percentage
(…) = (round) brackets
(= open bracket
) = close bracket
[…] = square brackets
{…} = chain brackets
<…> = diamond brackets
<u>London</u> = underline
London = bold (on first letter)
London = italics
6.7 = *six point seven*
3.4 = *three point four*

Capitals and full stops 506b

A capital (sometimes called upper case) letter marks the beginning of a sentence. A full stop marks the end of a sentence:

> ***I*** *went to the shops.* ***I*** *was surprised they were open.* ***B****ut I'd forgotten about late opening times.*
>
> ***T****he ASEAN summit is to be held in Jakarta this year.* ***L****ast year it was held in Singapore.*

Capital letters

Capital letters are also used for proper nouns. Proper nouns include personal names (including titles before names), nationalities and languages, days of the week and months of the year, seasons, public holidays, geographical locations:

> ***J****ack* ***D****awson'll meet them at* ***K****ing's* ***C****ross railway station.*
>
> ***S****ir* ***J****ames and* ***L****ady* ***W****ilson are holidaying in* ***A****ntigua and* ***S****t* ***K****itts.*
>
> *Can you speak* ***S****panish?*
>
> *I suggest we meet on* ***M****onday.*
>
> *What are you doing at* ***N****ew* ***Y****ear?*

Capital letters are also used for titles of books, magazines, newspapers, etc. The capitals normally apply only to content words, not grammatical words:

> *'****P****ride and* ***P****rejudice' is easily my favourite novel by* ***J****ane* ***A****usten.*
>
> *They are performing* ***B****eethoven's '****E****roica' symphony.*
>
> *'****T****he* ***T****imes' has the best* ***S****unday colour supplement, don't you think?*

184 **Proper names** in **The noun phrase**

Full stops

In addition to closing sentences, full stops are also sometimes used to indicate sentences that are not grammatically independent. These sentences are sometimes called sentence fragments or simply orthographic sentences. They can involve ellipsis but single words are also common, especially in advertisements, in dialogue involving responses and in writing which seeks to create a dramatic effect:

> *Our airline now flies you to Majorca. Daily.* ***A****nd to Barcelona.* ***F****ive times a week.*
>
> A: *They've decided to ban him for three matches.*
> B: *Really.* ***T****hat's awful.*
>
> A: *So it's okay if she's out till after midnight.*
> B: *As long as she gets a taxi back.*
>
> *What must she be feeling now? Deep anxiety.* ***L****oneliness.* ***D****espair.*

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Conventions change. Full stops used to be common after addresses or after dates in letters but are now much less commonly used. It is, however, a rule that they are not used after the name that ends a letter:

[typical address and date from a business letter]

Duffield Engineering
Netherfield Court
Longstone Road
Ableton
SH5 5TW

15 July 2002

Dear Supplier,

Note that a comma is normally placed after the name of the addressee (506d below).

Full stops are used in initials for personal names, though increasingly they are omitted:

J.D. Power

Richard A. Johnston, Managing Director

A I Briggs

Full stops are also used after abbreviations. This practice is, however, becoming less common:

The Microbiological Society
The annual lecture will be given by David James M.A. and will take place in Saint George's Hall at 7 p.m. on Tues. Dec. 13th.
R.S.V.P. to Prof. Lionel Jackson

NB.
(take note, from Latin 'nota bene'; N.B. is also possible)

Cf.
(compare, from the Latin, 'confer')

Norwegian territories have been prohibited for the U.K. fishing industry for a number of years now.
(also possible: … for the UK fishing industry)

Where abbreviations are curtailed words (words with the end cut off), they take a full stop. For example, *Addr.* (*address*), *Arr.* (*arrival*), *Prof.* (*professor*) and *etc.* (*etcetera*). Where abbreviations of words include the last letter of the word, they do not require a full stop:

St = Street (also 'Saint' as in St John)
Rd = Road
Ltd = Limited (company)
Dr = Doctor

A full stop is not used for common sets of initials or for acronyms (where the initials are pronounced as a word):

Millions of pounds have been invested in the NHS in recent years.
(NHS = National Health Service; not: N.H.S.)

The BBC's coverage of the events has been exemplary.
(not: B.B.C.)

AIDS affects people in over three quarters of the countries of the world.
(not: A.I.D.S.)

Full stops are not used in newspaper headlines, in headings and sub-headings in books, magazines and newspapers or in the titles of books and other works:

Family Lost In Fishing Boat Mystery

Economics and Business Management: Part one: Personnel management

Losing Your Way In Losing Weight

Computers For Fun: A Book For The Whole Family

Question marks and exclamation marks 506c

Question marks

When question marks are used, full stops are not used at the end of the sentence:

*How many times can we afford to change our family car***?**

Question marks are also used in order to make clear that a declarative sentence should be heard as a question. On the other hand, questions that are indirect requests to do something do not normally take a question mark:

*I wonder if you can help me***?**

Karen, can you pass that chair over here.

Exclamation marks

Exclamation marks are used for exclamatives and after interjections:

*What a nice coat***!**

*Wow***!** *Really?*

*Gosh***!** *Does it cost that much?*

Exclamation marks are used more in informal writing. One exclamation mark is the norm but occasionally more than one may be used for emphasis:

*Will you all please be quiet***!**

*Oh no***!!!** *I don't believe it***!**

Exclamation marks are not normally used with imperative clauses unless the writer wishes to emphasise that a directive was or may have been shouted:

Don't get yourself too involved with the day-to-day management.

Let's get going or we're gonna be late.

*Stop***!** *Push the door this way***!**

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Commas 506d

Separating main clauses

Commas are used to mark clause boundaries. Main clauses separated by *and* or *or* or *but* are not normally separated by commas, although commas may be used between clauses which do not have the same subject. American English uses commas before *and*, *but* and *or* more frequently than British English:

*They **were** friendly and **invited** us back to their flat.*
(same subject)

*Students these days **leave** with large debts and **have to** repay loans.*
(same subject)

It was a restaurant a good distance from the city centre, but we decided it was worth making such a long journey.
(different subjects)

Separating main and subordinate clauses

Normally commas are used if the subordinate clause comes before the main clause. Subordinate clauses can be separated by a comma from a preceding main clause, especially when the relation between them might be obscured because the clauses are long. But it is not obligatory, particularly in short sentences.

Compare:

***If you get stuck,** come back and see me.*

*Come back and see me **if you get stuck**.*

***As long as she takes the examination,** we will overlook the problems with her attendance.*

We can get there for around six if there are no problems with the traffic on the motorway.

or

We can get there for around six, if there are no problems with the traffic on the motorway.

Subordinate or comment clauses that provide additional information or that elaborate information given in the main clause are punctuated with commas:

*It doesn't suit you, **to be honest**.*

*You do need to use a microphone to be heard, **if I may say so**.*

***To tell you the truth,** I thought she was wrong.*

With relative clauses

Commas are also used to mark non-defining relative and non-defining non-finite clauses. Such clauses normally add to, amplify or evaluate information concerning a noun or noun phrase:

*The tablets, **which began to take effect after about twenty minutes,** soon brought the fever under control.*

*Barcelona**, where the first conference was held,** has changed out of all recognition.*

*The visiting supporters**, treated like criminals by the local police,** were grateful to leave the country when the competition was over.*

*The severe turbulence**, lasting as it did for more than an hour,** caused several passengers to be quite ill.*

also **317i Punctuation and intonation of relative clauses**

Defining relative and defining non-finite clauses do not add to or amplify a statement. They postmodify a noun and specify or define properties associated with the noun. Such clauses are **not** punctuated by a comma:

*The people **who caused most trouble** have left the area.*
(~~The people, who caused most trouble, have left the area.~~)

*The town house **which they had bought** was let out to tenants within a matter of days.*

*The best pictures **to buy in Cuba** are always by the street artists.*

*The city braced itself for the storms **caused by a cyclone in the Pacific**.*

Embedded clauses, however long and complex, that function as the subject of the main clause, are not marked off by commas:

*The decisions **about congestion parking that have been pushed through by the City Council without proper consultation** are now beginning to cause even more problems for motorists.*

What we've always been short of is soup bowls.
(~~What we've always been short of, is soup bowls.~~)

Similarly, non-defining clauses in apposition are punctuated by commas, whereas defining clauses in apposition are not punctuated. The most common form of apposition involves nouns and noun phrases but non-restrictive apposition can also refer back to an earlier part of the clause:

*His brother**, the one who lives in Osaka,** has just set up his own book importing business.*
(~~His brother the one who lives in Osaka, has just set up his own book importing business.~~)

*The London Eye**, a revolving wheel on the banks of the Thames,** gives excellent views across the whole city and has attracted many visitors.*

*People were beginning to put money into savings accounts**, an early indication of economic uncertainty**.*

*My sister's daughter **Nora** and her daughter **Rita** and the boys are all living close by.*
(defining noun phrase in apposition)

*The group leader**, a man in his eighties,** went swimming twice a day.*
(non-defining noun phrase in apposition)

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With adjectives

Commas are used between adjectives in attributive and predicative positions. A comma is not normally used before an adjective followed by *and*:

The town was ***cold, dark and inhospitable****.*

It was an ***energetic, competitive and committed*** *performance and the team deserved its victory.*

This is the ***lightweight, portable and wireless*** *version.*

With lists

Commas are used to separate items in a list, except for a final item preceded by *and*. In American English, however, the norm is to have a comma before *and* in a list:

They bought a rail pass and visited ***Rome, Milan, Venice and Verona****.*

She spent the whole week ***watching videos, listening to CDs, reading detective novels and writing postcards to friends****.*

They've got ***apples, pears, bananas, and peaches****.*
(American English preferred form)

With adjuncts

Commas play an important part in punctuating adjuncts, most markedly when they provide a comment or linking function. In such cases the comma often coincides with a pause in speech:

*It was****, however,*** *the best decision taken at that point in the company.*

Unfortunately, *the proposal was turned down without any explanation.*

*Have you had any contact with Karin****, by the way****?*

The economic gloom continued through the post-war period; ***on the other hand,*** *employment prospects were beginning to improve.*

With tags and responses

Tags and *yes-no* responses are separated by commas:

*He is going to be there****, isn't he****?*

*I'm thirsty****, I am****.*

Yes, *thank you. I'd be delighted to accept.*

With vocatives, discourse markers and interjections

Vocatives, discourse markers and interjections are also punctuated with commas:

*Open the door for them****, Jake,*** *can you. Thanks.*

*The trouble is****, doctor,*** *I've stopped taking the prescription.*

Ros, *can you get me a paper while you're out.*

Well, *what do you suppose they did about it?*

Oh, so, *you'll be off in about an hour****, then****?*

In reporting speech

Commas are used to indicate that direct speech is following or has just occurred. When the direct speech is first, the comma comes before the closing of the quotation marks:

*He said**,** "Now it's time for big changes."*

*"I'm too old for that kind of thing**,**" she said with a broad grin.*

also **506f** below

Commas are not used in reporting structures after *that*, *what* and *where* even though stress and a consequent pause may fall on the verb immediately preceding *that*:

Everyone knew that she wouldn't pass the exam.
(~~Everyone knew, that she wouldn't pass the exam.~~)

Certain fixed expressions with *say* do not have a comma or quotation mark:

***Say hi** to Jim for me.*

*I'm really sorry but I'm afraid I have to **say no** to your kind offer.*

In letters

In letters, forms of address and signing off are marked by commas:

*Dear David**,*** (addressing the recipient of the letter)

Thank you for your letter of Feb. 14th.

…

*Yours sincerely**,*** (signing off at the end of the letter)

Jill Paton

Colons and semi-colons 506e

Colons are used to introduce lists, to indicate a sub-title or to indicate a subdivision of a topic:

*There are three main arguments for the withdrawal of the troops**:** military, economic and, above all, ethical.*

*The History of Britain**:** A Personal View*

Colons may also be used to mark a clause in which reasons or explanations are given:

*We decided against buying the DVD player**:** it wasn't lightweight enough to take on holiday with us.*

Semi-colons are sometimes used to separate items included in a sequence or list:

*The facility has a number of features: a cinema**;** two meeting rooms**;** a fast-food café**;** a small gymnasium.*

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Semi-colons may also be used instead of full stops to separate two main clauses. In such cases the clauses remain grammatically separate but are linked in meaning. Semi-colons are not frequently used in contemporary English. Full stops and commas are much more common:

*Some cats sleep during the night**;** most cats are active during the dark.*

*Bangkok is the capital city**;** Chiang Mai is the main tourist destination.*

Direct speech 506f

In direct speech, a reconstruction of the actual words somebody has spoken or written are indicated. Direct speech is normally enclosed within a pair of single or double quotation marks, though single quotation marks are becoming more widespread. Direct speech begins with a capital letter:

*She said, **"W**ho do you think you are?**"***

The reporting clause can appear in three different positions. Note the position of commas and full stops:

*The course tutor said to us**,** 'Don't waste your time in your first term here**.**'*
(quotation mark after comma introducing speech and after full stop)

*'Don't waste your time in your first term here**,'** the course tutor said to us.*
(comma before closing quotation mark)

*'Don't waste your time'**,** the course tutor said to us**,** 'in your first term here.'*
(commas separating intervening reporting clause)

For direct speech inside direct speech, either single quotation marks inside double or double quotation marks inside single may be used. Note that quotation marks in English are superscript, not subscript plus superscript, as in some languages. That is, they are marked '…' or "…":

*David said, **'**He was getting really cross and kept shouting **"**Get out!**"**.**'***

"**It was getting really tense,**"** she said, **"**and everybody was yelling **'**Why don't you go home?**'"

Question marks normally occur inside the quotation marks unless the question is part of the reporting clause:

*'Don't you know the way then**?**' they asked.*

*So after all that, did she really say 'I plan to resign'**?***

Occasionally, colons may be used to introduce direct speech. This is common in dramatic transcripts or when a particularly long section of direct speech is marked. Note also that in film and play scripts, quotation marks are not used:

Polonius**:** *What do you read my Lord?*
Hamlet**:** *Words, words, words.*

The company secretary then turned to me and said: 'The results of this company are better than in any time in the past five years and we object most strongly to the negative reporting we have received in some parts of the media'.

also **490a Punctuation and direct speech; 490b Punctuation and indirect speech**

Citations 506g

It is sometimes necessary to highlight individual words. This citation or special mention may be punctuated in a number of ways. (In order to highlight the italics, complete examples in this section (506g) are not, as elsewhere in the book, italicised.)

The citation may be underlined or in italics or placed within quotation marks. Definitions or translations are usually in single quotation marks:

Boot has several different meanings in English. And when it refers to storage space in the rear of a motor car, it is 'trunk' in American English.

The *marguerite* or 'common daisy' is cultivated in a variety of different colours.

Weltanschaung means a 'view of the world', formed from the German noun *Welt* (meaning 'world') and the verb *anschauen* (meaning 'to look at').

Single quotation marks are sometimes used to draw attention to a word, or to indicate an unusual use of a word, or to suggest that the writer wants to be distanced from the word in some way. In such cases the writer intends that the word or phrase should be taken in a non-literal or non-obvious sense:

The bus broke down twice and, as far as I am concerned, I won't be using the city 'transport' system again.

[newspaper headline]
PM 'ANGERED' BY OPPOSITION ATTACK

Titles of books, newspapers, magazines, videos or CDs also qualify as a special form of citation. Such mentions are usually punctuated by italics or underlining. Articles or chapters within books or titles of short stories are normally punctuated by single quotation marks:

There's a report all about it in *The Times* today.

[*Hello!* is a magazine dedicated to pictures of celebrities]
Hello! has some really good pictures of the wedding.

The best-argued chapter in the book is the one on 'Arab Unity since 1956'.

[*Moby* is a musician who released a CD called *18*]
Moby's *18* has eighteen tracks. The most moving one is 'Harbour'.

A character in a novel or play which has the same name is not highlighted but the title of the work is:

Othello was manipulated as much by what Iago didn't say as by what he did say.

Othello is one of Shakespeare's most complex psychological tragedies.

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Apostrophes 506h

Apostrophes are used for three main purposes: to mark letters that have been omitted in contracted forms; to mark possessive forms of nouns and pronouns; and to mark special plurals.

Common contractions include:

it's = it is

I'd = I would/had

can't = cannot

who's = who is, who has

where's = where is, where has

what's = what is, what has

how's = how is, how has

Apostrophes with nouns are used before and after the possessive *-s* ending. The main rules are:

1 For a singular noun, use 's:

*the cat: The cat**'s** milk is in the fridge.*

*the student: The student**'s** views are most important.*

*Laura: Laura**'s** brothers are all younger than her.*

*year: This year**'s** fashion show is in Turin.*

2 For a plural noun which does not end in *-s*, use *'s*:

*his men: His men**'s** obsession with football is out of hand.*

*the police: The police**'s** actions cannot be supported.*

3 For a plural noun which ends in *-s*, use *s'*:

*your colleagues: Your colleague**s'** decisions must be respected.*

*his dogs: His dog**s'** kennels need cleaning out.*

*two hours: Two hour**s'** walk is too far at our age.*

4 The apostrophe *'s* is also added to names ending in *-s*. However, many writers prefer simply to add an apostrophe mark after the final *-s*, especially to names which have more than one syllable:

Dickens's novels	or	*Dickens' novels* (more common)
Socrates's writings	or	*Socrates' writings* (more common)
Keats's poetry	or	*Keats' poetry* (more common)

5 An apostrophe is added to first names ending in *-s*:

*Angu**s's** offer had to be turned down.*

*In my opinion, Iri**s's** car is too dangerous to go on the road.*

*The service is at St Augustu**s's** church at midday.*

6 The apostrophe *'s* is also added to whole phrases. In compound nouns the *'s* is added after the final noun:

*The people next door**'s** dog is a nuisance.*

*You might have guessed. Richard and Pat**'s** new car is French.*

*It's my brother-in-law**'s** fault.*
(~~brother's-in-law~~).

7 In fixed expressions such as *for goodness' sake* or *for appearance' sake*, a single apostrophe is added, though it is becoming optional.

8 Possessives can also be used without a following noun. If the reference is clear, the noun is not normally needed. When referring to people's names or when people's houses are meant, the apostrophe is retained:

*Don't forget I'm going to the doctor**'s** after work.*

*I'm staying over at Jack**'s** this evening. Okay?*

*I think we'd better go over to my mother**'s** before dinner.*

Apostrophes can be used when referring to firms, shops and businesses. But the rule is in flux and many shops drop the apostrophe in their names. The use of the apostrophe in reference to decades is also in flux:

*I'm going over to Blue**'s** for coffee.*

[name of a supermarket chain]
*He bought his TV at Sainsbury**'s**.*

[name of a chain selling pharmaceutical products]
Are you getting the prescription at Boots?

Was that band really on tour in the 1960s?
(1960's can also be found, even though it is **not** a possessive but a plural: nineteen sixties)

The apostrophe *'s* also occurs with particular indefinite pronouns: for example, *one* and compounds ending in *-one* or *-body*. When combined with *else*, the apostrophe *'s* is added to *else*:

*One**'s** responsibility is to one**'s** family.*

*Is this somebody**'s** jacket?*

*It's all right. It's nobody**'s** fault.*

*This must be someone else**'s** room.*

The indefinite pronoun *other* has the same forms as nouns. The singular adds *'s* to 'other', while the plural adds an apostrophe after the plural *-s* ending:

*You two are always sharing each other**'s** secrets.*

*This is your room. The others**'** rooms are across the hall there.*

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Possessive pronouns ending in *-s* do not have an apostrophe:

That was theirs.

Which keys are yours?

Whose book is this?
(~~Who's book is this?~~)

The apostrophe is not used with the impersonal possessive pronoun *its*. *It's* means 'it is':

*The cart had lost one of **its** wheels.*
(~~The cart had lost one of it's wheels.~~)

Possessive noun phrases with *of* normally retain the apostrophe form which would occur if they preceded a noun:

*That's another cat **of** Nell**'s**, isn't it? She had over twenty at the last count.*
(Nell's cat)

*I'd like you to meet Bill. Bill is a partner **of** my father**'s**.*
(my father's partner)

Dashes and other punctuation marks 506i

Dashes are more common in informal writing. They can be used in similar ways to commas. Both single and multiple dashes may be used:

Our Head of Finance – who often loses his temper about travel expenses – was the calmest in the room. I couldn't believe it!

Just to let you know we've just got back from Mallorca --- we really loved it.

Brackets have a similar function to dashes. They can also function as a punctuation of what are presented as afterthoughts:

We were up late most nights (not working, of course!) and so never really got up till after midday.

Hyphens are a form of dash and can be used within modifiers:

a twelve-year-old girl
(compare: she's twelve years old)

Forward slashes are common in internet addresses and to act as an 'and/or' marker in academic references:

You can find more information on www.bbc.co.uk/sport.

Jenkins 1991/1997 has given three reasons for this state of affairs.

also **156 Punctuation** in **Grammar and academic English** for further guidance on punctuation conventions in academic writing.

also **256 Compounds** and **266 Hyphenation** for further examples of word compounds and hyphens

Numerals and punctuation 506j

Full stops are less commonly used in dates. Other punctuation conventions such as forward slashes or dashes are becoming more common:

Date of birth: 12.7.1981
(also possible: 12/7/1981 or 12-7-1981)

Note that American usage reverses the day and the month so that July 12th 1981 is written:

7-12-1981 or *7/12/1981* or *7.12.1981*

Abbreviations used in science and technology follow an international system in which full stops are not used:

NCl (chemical symbol for sodium chloride)

H_2O (chemical symbol for water)

kg (*kilograms*)

200w bulbs (*200 watt electric light bulbs*)

Punctuation of weights and measures and of numbers follows the same rules:

2kg (*2 kilograms*)

3yds and 3ins = 1m (*3 yards and 3 inches = one metre*)

5m dollars (*5 million dollars*)

Punctuation of times can involve full stops or colons:

I'll be there at 4.30.
(or 4:30)

Commas are used in numbers to indicate units of thousands and millions. Full stops are used to indicate decimal points:

7,340
(*seven thousand three hundred and forty*)

13,987,460
(*thirteen million nine hundred and eighty seven thousand four hundred and sixty*)

3.5
(*three point five*)

7.8
(*seven point eight*)

also **512–525 Appendix: Numbers**

Appendix: English spelling

This appendix introduces some of the most basic spelling rules in British English, with a panel showing some differences between British and American spelling. It makes reference to the structure of words discussed in **258–268 Word structure and word formation** but can also be read independently.

SPELLING AND PREFIXES 507

When there is a prefix, letters are not normally added or taken away:

un + sure = unsure

un + necessary = unnecessary

dis + obey = disobey

dis + similar = dissimilar

mis + read = misread

mis + rule = misrule

over + hear = overhear

under + spend = underspend

in + humane = inhumane

in + sane = insane

in + secure = insecure

il-, im-, ir-

When the first letter of a word is *l*, *m*, *p*, or *r*, the prefix *in-* is regularly changed to *il-*, *im-* or *ir-*. For example: *in* becomes *il-* before *l*; *in* becomes *im-* before *m* or *p*; *in* becomes *ir-* before *r*:

-il	*-im*	*-ir*
illegible	*immoral*	*irreparable*
illegal	*immeasurable*	*irreplaceable*
illiberal	*impartial*	*irrepressible*
illiterate	*impossible*	*irresolute*
illogical	*imprudent*	*irresponsible*

SPELLING AND SUFFIXES 508

There are two kinds of suffix.

A suffix can be attached to the end of a base form to create a new word. This process typically changes the word class:

noun suffixes: *act**ion**, train**ee**, free**dom**, arriv**al***

adjective suffixes: *inform**al**, home**less**, grate**ful***

verb suffixes: *simpl**ify**, dark**en**, international**ise***

adverb suffixes: *quick**ly**, home**ward**(**s**), clock**wise***

However, inflectional suffixes express grammatical meanings and do not change the class of the word. For example, *-ed* is added to *paint* to produce the past tense *painted*. The spelling rules for suffixes below apply also to inflections. also **262 Suffixes** in **Word structure and word formation**

Rule 1: consonant is doubled before a suffix 508a

Consonants doubled

The final consonant of a word is often doubled when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added. Examples of such suffixes are: *-ed*, *-er*, *-est*, *-ing*.

The rule applies in the case of the following single consonants: *b, d, g, l, m, n, p, r, t*:

rub + ed = rubbed

red + ish = reddish

big + er = bigger

travel + er = traveller

slim + ing = slimming

sin + er = sinner

drop + ed = dropped

war + ing = warring

fit + ing = fitting

If the suffix is added to a word with more than one syllable, consonant doubling follows a stressed syllable:

*re**fer** + ed = referred*

*o**mit** + ing = omitting*

*sub**mit** + ing = submitting*

*oc**cur** + ence = occurrence*

*up**set** + ing = upsetting*

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Compare, however, the words *visit* and *offer*, where the stress is on the first syllable:

***vi**sit* = *visiting*	***off**er* = *offering*
(~~visitting~~)	(~~offerring~~)

Note too that in each case the vowel before the last consonant is a short vowel.

Consonants not doubled

The final consonant is not doubled before a suffix:

- if the word ends in two written consonants (*export–exported, find–finding, insert–inserting, insist–insisted, lift–lifted, persist–persistence*)
- if there are two written vowels (*meeting*, *rained*, *beaten*, *trainer*, *repeated*)
- if the stress is not on the last syllable of the word to which the suffix is added (***en**ter–entering, de**ve**lop–developing* (~~developping~~), ***o**pen–opener*)

Irregular forms and exceptions

Some monosyllabic words ending in *-s* are irregular and the *s* may be doubled or not (*busses/buses, gasses/gases*). In a few polysyllabic words ending in *-s*, the *s* may also be doubled, even though the final syllable before the suffix is unstressed (either ***bi**ased* or ***bi**assed*, either ***fo**cusing* or ***fo**cussing*). There is a preference for the forms with a single *s*, and those with double *s* are relatively rare.

Some words with more than two syllables, several of them words ending in *-l*, have a double consonant even though the last syllable is not stressed (***ma**rvellous*, ***mo**delling*, ***tra**veller*, ***eq**ualled*, ***han**dicapped*, ***pro**grammed*).

Words ending in a final *-c* change to *-ck* before a suffix; this mainly involves the suffixes *-ed*, *-er*, *-ing* (*mimic–mimicking*, *panic–panicking*, *picnic–picnicked*, *traffic–trafficked*).

Note, however, the single consonant spelling in American English of *worshiper*, *kidnaper*, *traveling*.

Rule 2: dropping the final *-e* 508b

When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in *-e*, the *e* is usually dropped:

hope + ing = hoping	*invite + ation = invitation*
debate + ed = debated	*note + able = notable*
fame + ous = famous	*approve + al = approval*
love + able = lovable	

There are exceptions to this rule. For example, where the *e* is kept before a vowel:

- the *e* in *dyeing* (from *dye*) and *singeing* (from *singe*) is kept in order to differentiate them from similar words *dying* (from *die*) and *singing* (from *sing*)
- the *e* in *ce* and *ge* before a suffix beginning with *a* or *o* is kept to preserve the /s/ and /dʒ/ sounds (*replaceable*, *noticeable*, *peaceable*, *knowledgeable*, *advantageous*, *courageous*)

However, the *e* is not dropped before a suffix beginning with a consonant, such as *-ful*, *-less*, *-ly* (*forceful*, *blameless*, *widely*).

Exceptions occur when the *e* is dropped before a consonant (*pursue–pursuit*, *awe–awful*, *feeble–feebly*, *noble–nobly*, *true–truly*, *whole–wholly*).

Additionally, some words have alternative forms with or without an *e* (*abridgment/abridgement*, *acknowledgment/acknowledgement*, and *judgment/judgement*).

Rule 3: plurals of nouns and *-s* forms of verbs 508c

There are rules for the plurals of regular nouns and the *-s* forms of regular verbs.

General rule: add *s* (*week–weeks*, *speak–speaks*, *eye–eyes*, *bring–brings*, *summer–summers*, *define–defines*).

If the ending is pronounced as a separate syllable, *es* is added:

noun plurals	verb *-s* forms
church–churches	*fetch–fetches*
fox–foxes	*fizz–fizzes*
bush–bushes	*rush–rushes*

However, if a word already ends in an *-e*, an *s* is added (*base–bases*, *lose–loses*, *judge–judges*, *face–faces*).

If the word ends in a consonant plus *-y*, *y* changes to *i* and the suffix *es* is added:

noun plurals	verb *-s* forms
copy–copies	*marry–marries*
fly–flies	*try–tries*

Some words ending in *-o*, require *es*:

noun plurals	noun plurals and verb *-s* forms
buffalo–buffaloes	*echo–echoes*
cargo–cargoes	*embargo–embargoes*
hero–heroes	*go–goes* [*go* here = attempt]
potato–potatoes	*torpedo–torpedoes*
tomato–tomatoes	*hoe–hoes*

Some of the words in this group have a less common alternative form in *-s* (*video–videos*, *radio–radios*, *kilo–kilos*, *zoo–zoos*).

For some nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe*, the plural is formed by changing the *f* or *fe* to *ves* (*thief–thieves*, *loaf–loaves*, *wife–wives*, *half–halves*).

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Rule 4: changing *y* to *i* 508d

When a suffix is added to a word ending in a consonant plus *-y*, the *y* normally changes to *i*:

easy + ly = easily	*hurry + s = hurries*
happy + ly = happily	*mystery + ous = mysterious*
amplify + er = amplifier	*fury + ous = furious*
beauty + ful = beautiful	*busy + ness = business*
apply + ed = applied	*empty + ness = emptiness*
spy + s = spies	*amplify + cation = amplification*

There are, however, exceptions where the *y* is kept after a consonant:

- a few words of one syllable keep the *y* before a suffix (*dryness*, *shyness*, *slyness*)
- the *y* is kept before *-ing* (*studying*, *applying*)
- the *y* is kept before *-'s* (*the fly's wing*, *May's rain*)

The *y* is kept in most words that end in a vowel + *-y*:

buy + er = buyer	*grey + ish = greyish*
destroy + s = destroys	*play + ful = playful*
enjoy + ment = enjoyment	*try + ing = trying*

Exceptions occur where the *y* after a vowel is changed to *i* (*gay–gaily*, *pay–paid*).

Rule 5: spelling of verb forms: *-ed* forms 508e

The past tense and *-ed* participle are the same in regular verbs. The following are the spelling rules for regular verbs:

General rule: add *ed* (*play–played*, *load–loaded*, *trail–trailed*, *echo–echoed*).

If the word ends in *-e*, a *d* is added (*agree–agreed*, *note–noted*, *love–loved*, *tie–tied*).

If the word ends in a consonant plus *-y*, the *y* is changed to *i* before *-ed* (*cry–cried*, *dry–dried*, *envy–envied*, *reply–replied*).

There are three exceptions, where the *y* is changed to *i* after a vowel and just *d* is added (*lay–laid*, *pay–paid*, *say–said*).

The rules for doubling a single consonant before *-ed* are as described above at **508a**. For example (*beg–begged*, *enter–entered*, *float–floated*, *prefer–preferred*).

Rule 6: spelling of verb forms: *-ing* forms 508f

General rule: add *ing* (*cash–cashing*, *go–going*, *hurry–hurrying*, *play–playing*).

If the word ends in *-e*, *e* is dropped before *-ing* (*lose–losing*, *judge–judging*, *save–saving*, *write–writing*).

But if the word ends in *-ee*, *-oe* or *-ye*, the *e* is kept:

see–seeing	*hoe–hoeing*
agree–agreeing	*dye–dyeing* (compare: *die/dying*)

If the word ends in *-ie*, the *i* is changed to *y* and the *e* is dropped before the *-ing* (*die–dying*, *lie–lying*, *tie–tying*).

See Rule 1 (508a above) for doubling a single consonant before *-ing*.

Rule 7: the suffix *-ally* 508g

The suffix *-ally* is added to adjectives ending in *-ic* to form adverbs (*economic–economically*, *automatic–automatically*, *realistic–realistically*, *tragic–tragically*). Exception: *publicly*.

SPELLING AND SHORT AND LONG VOWELS 509

Doubling 509a

The vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* have long and short pronunciations. Thus there is a long vowel *a* in the word *mast* and a short vowel *a* in the word *mat*.

When a long vowel is followed by a single consonant plus a vowel, the consonant is **not** doubled when a suffix is added (*scene–scenic*, *enthuse–enthusiasm*, *skate–skating*, *wide–widen*, *hope–hopeful*).

Doubling of consonants, where it occurs, enables words with similar forms to be differentiated (*diner*, *dinner*; *later*, *latter*).

Addition of final *e* to indicate long vowel 509b

A final silent *e* is used to indicate that the preceding stressed written vowel is long:

long vowel	short vowel
hate, fate	*hat, fat*
theme, impede	*them, moped*
dine, bite	*din, bit*

There are some common exceptions, where the preceding vowel does not have the regular pronunciation (*have*; *there*, *where*; *were*; *come*, *done*, *love*, *none*, *one*, *some*; *gone*; *live* (as a verb), *give*).

The general rule applies also in the sequence vowel + consonant + *-le*. Hence, in *gable* the vowel *a* is long whereas in *gabble* it is short. Further examples of the long vowel in this position are: *able*, *fable*, *ladle*, *bible*, *circle*, *cycle*, *idle*, *trifle*, *noble*. Exception: *label*.

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SPELLING CHECKS 510

One word or two? 510a

Some sound pairs are spelt either as one or as two words, depending on the meaning intended:

one word	two words	one word	two words
already	*all ready*	*however*	*how ever*
altogether	*all together*	*into*	*in to*
always	*all ways*	*maybe*	*may be*
anybody	*any body*	*nobody*	*no body*
anyway	*any way*	*someone*	*some one*
awhile	*a while*	*somebody*	*some body*
everyone	*every one*	*whatever*	*what ever*
everybody	*every body*	*whoever*	*who ever*

i before *e* except after *c* 510b

If in doubt about *ie* or *ei* when the sound of the vowel is as in *brief*, spell it *ie*; but after *c*, spell it *ei*:

ie		*ei* after *c*
brief	*thief*	*ceiling*
belief	*achieve*	*conceive*
believe	*field*	*conceit*
diesel	*niece*	*deceive*
relief	*priest*	*receipt*
relieve	*siege*	*perceive*

Exceptions for spelling *ie*:

- *financier, species*
- words in which *y* has changed to *i* end in *-ies* even after *c* (*prophecies, democracies*).

In most words that do not have the pronunciation as in *brief*, the usual order is *e* before *i*: for example, *freight*, *weigh*, *sovereign*, *counterfeit*. The most common exception is *friend*.

British and American English spelling 511

Some words are spelled differently in American English and British English.

For example:

British English	American English
centre	*center*
cheque	*check*
colour	*color*
defence	*defense*
labour	*labor*
theatre	*theater*
programme	*program*

Variants

There are several variants with *-ise* or *-ize*, *-isation* or *-ization* . Both variants are acceptable, though the spelling with *s* is perhaps more common in British English (*criticise–criticize, colonisation–colonization*).

The following words, and words formed from them, should be spelled with *ise* in British English:

advertise	*devise*	*revise*
advise	*disguise*	*supervise*
arise	*enterprise*	*surmise*
baptise	*exercise*	*surprise*
chastise	*franchise*	*televise*
comprise	*improvise*	
compromise	*merchandise*	
despise	*paralyse*	

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Appendix: Numbers

ORDINAL AND CARDINAL NUMBERS 512

The conventional abbreviations for ordinal numbers are as follows. The suffix may be written as superscript (1st) or as normal script (1st):

first	*1st/1st*
second	*2nd/2nd*
third	*3rd*
fourth	*4th*
fifth	*5th*
sixth	*6th*
seventh	*7th*
eighth	*8th*
ninth	*9th*
tenth	*10th*
sixteenth	*16th*
thirty third	*33rd*
twenty fifth	*25th/25th*
seventy first	*71st*

In handwriting, *seven* is typically written as *7*, but may also be written as 7. *Four* is most commonly handwritten as 4 but may also be written as *4*.

A hyphen is used to separate tens and units (*twenty-four*, *six hundred and forty-nine*).

Both cardinal numbers and ordinal numbers are common with titles of books and films and for referring to chapters and parts of documents. After the noun, a cardinal number is used. Both cardinal and ordinal numbers are normally acceptable, though the cardinal number is more informal:

*I think the reference is in Book **7** of 'Paradise Lost'.*
(or: the seventh book)

*The play didn't get started until the **third** act.*
(or: Act 3)

*I will return to these questions in the **ninth** chapter.*
(or: chapter 9)

The definite article is not used when cardinal numbers occur after the noun:

I will return to these questions in chapter 9.
(~~I will return to these questions in the chapter 9.~~)

See figure 9 below.
(~~See the figure 9 below.~~)

Turn to page 28.

Ordinal numbers are used with the names of kings and queens and aristocrats:

*He is **the fourth** Earl of Gloucester.*
(~~He is Earl 4 of Gloucester.~~)

*King Henry **VII**/King Henry **the Seventh***
(~~King Henry Seven~~)

FRACTIONS AND DECIMALS 513

Simple fractions are normally said in the following ways:

$^{1}/_{2}$	*a half*
$^{1}/_{4}$	*a quarter*
$^{1}/_{5}$	*a/one fifth*
$^{3}/_{8}$	*three eighths*
$^{2}/_{3}$	*two thirds*
$^{13}/_{14}$	*thirteen fourteenths*
$^{3}/_{4}$ *hour*	*three quarters of an hour*
$^{3}/_{10}$ *mile*	*three tenths of a mile*

Decimals are normally said and written as follows:

0.245 *nought point two four five*
(in American English normally *zero point two four five*)
(~~nought point two hundred and forty five~~)

4.7 *four point seven*

More complex fractions can be expressed by using the word *over*:

$^{423}/_{500}$ *four hundred and twenty three **over** five hundred*

Singular and plural with fractions and decimals 513a

With fractions and decimals below 1, *of a* + singular noun is commonly used:

$^{2}/_{5}$ *k* *two fifths **of a kilogram***

*That's almost **three quarters of a** pint of milk that she's drunk.*

0.8cm *(nought) point eight **of a centimetre***

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When the decimals are below 1, they can also be followed by a plural noun:

0.255cm *nought point two five five* ***centimetres***

Fractions and decimals over 1 are normally followed directly by a plural noun:

two and a quarter ***hours***
(~~two and a quarter hour~~)

I'll have four and a half ***bags****, please.*
(~~I'll have four and a half bag, please.~~)

2.7 ***millimetres***
(~~2.7 millimetre~~)

Note that after fractions and amounts, singular verbs are normally used:

8 kilometres ***is*** *about 5 miles.*

Note also the structure *a … and a half*:

We've been waiting for delivery now for about ***a month and a half****.*

PERCENTAGES 514

Percentages are written with a special symbol % and are spoken as *per cent*:

Sales tax is added to all items. The current rate is ***17.5%****.*
(seventeen point five per cent)

Interest rates reached an all-time low last month when banks and building societies reduced mortgage rates by ***one half per cent*** *to* ***4.75%****.*
(four point seven five per cent)

Note that in the previous sentence it is also possible to say *half a per cent* or *(a) half of one per cent*.

TELEPHONE NUMBERS 515

Each figure in a telephone number is commonly indicated separately. Speakers tend to pause after groups of three or four figures. When the same figure comes twice, either it can be said twice or the word 'double' can be used:

9807 6933
nine eight oh seven, six nine ***double three***
or: *nine eight zero seven, six nine* ***three three***

524 Spoken forms of *0*

USES OF *AND* 516

And is commonly used before the tens in a number:

310
three hundred ***and*** *ten* (or *three ten*)

5,642
five thousand, six hundred ***and*** *forty-two*

However, *and* can be omitted in measurements that contain two different units. *And* can be used before the smaller unit, but it is usually omitted:

*two hours (**and**) ten minutes*

*two metres (**and**) thirty centimetres*

USES OF COMMAS 517

In writing, commas are normally used to divide large numbers into groups of three figures, usually in order to indicate the thousands and the millions. Full stops are not used in this way:

5,139
(~~5.139~~)

8,577,184

Commas may be omitted from four-figure numbers. They are not used in dates:

7,934
(or: 7934)

the year ***1738***

519 Round numbers and dates below

A AND *ONE* 518

It is possible to say *a hundred* or *one hundred*, *a thousand* or *one thousand*, *a million* or *one million*. When *one* is used, it is more formal:

I want to live for a hundred years.
(~~I want to live for hundred years.~~)

[on a formal notice]
The membership fee for the Club is ***one*** *thousand pounds a year.*

A can only be used at the beginning of a number:

a/***one*** *hundred*

three thousand ***one*** *hundred*
(~~three thousand a hundred~~)

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A thousand can be used alone, and may be followed by *and*, but *a* is not normally used before a number of hundreds:

***one** thousand, two hundred and six*

***one** thousand and nine*

***one** thousand, six hundred and two*
(more natural than: a thousand, six hundred and two)

A or *one* are used with measurement words:

***a**/**one** kilometre*
(but: one kilometre and eight hundred metres)

***an**/**one** hour and thirteen minutes*
(but: one hour thirteen minutes)

***a**/**one** pound*
(but: one pound forty-seven)

ROUND NUMBERS AND DATES 519

The phrases *eleven hundred*, *twelve hundred* are often used instead of *one thousand one hundred*, etc. The form with *hundred* is especially preferred in American English. It is most common with round numbers between 1,100 and 1,900:

*They only paid **eleven hundred pounds** for the whole holiday.*

*It all cost **twenty eight hundred** dollars.*
(preferred American form)

This form is used in historical dates. *Hundred* is omitted in informal contexts:

*Shakespeare was born in **fifteen sixty four**. (1564)*

*It was built in **seventeen (hundred and) twenty-nine**. (1729)* (more formal)

When speaking, it is normal for the numbers to be pronounced in full. In writing, numerical figures are normally preferred to written numbers.

Decades are commonly written as follows (usually without an apostrophe, but may also occur with an apostrophe):

*The **1980s** were years when money became a key word.*

BRITISH POUNDS STERLING 520

There are *100 pence* in a British pound. Sums of money are named as follows:

1p	*one penny* (informal *one p* or *a penny*)
10p	*ten pence* (informal *ten p*)
£5.45	*five pounds forty-five (pence)* or *five pounds **and** forty-five pence* (more formal)

Pound is often used informally as a plural:

*They charged me nine **pound** fifty for parking.*

Singular forms are used in premodifying expressions like *a five-**pound** note* (see above). However, *pence* is often used instead of *penny* (*a five **pence** coin*; *a twenty-six **pence** stamp*).

MEASURING AREAS 521

The most typical form is to say, for example, that a room is *twelve feet **by** fifteen feet*, or that a garden is *thirty metres **by** forty-eight metres*.

A room *twelve feet by twelve feet* can be called *twelve **feet square***; the total area is *144 **square feet***.

SPOKEN CALCULATIONS 522SPEAKING

Some of the most frequent ways of speaking calculations aloud are:

$2 + 2 = 4$	*Two and two is/are four.* (informal) *Two plus two equals/is four.* (formal)
$9 - 4 = 5$	*Four from nine is/leaves five.* (informal) *Nine take away four is/leaves five.* (informal) *Nine minus four equals/is five.* (formal)
$5 \times 4 = 20$	*Five fours are twenty.* (informal) *Five times four is twenty.* (informal) *Five multiplied by four equals/is twenty.* (formal)
$15 \div 3 = 5$	*Three(s) into fifteen goes five (times).* (informal) *Fifteen divided by three equals/is five.* (formal)

ROMAN NUMERALS 523

Roman numerals are used for the following main purposes: names of centuries, kings and queens, page numbers in introductions and prefaces to books, and the numbers of sections or sub-sections to documents, especially legal documents.

1	*I*	*i*	10	*X*	*x*	40	*XL*	*xl*
2	*II*	*ii*	11	*XI*	*xi*	45	*XLV*	*xlv*
3	*III*	*iii*	12	*XII*	*xii*	50	*L*	*l*
4	*IV*	*iv*	13	*XIII*	*xiii*	60	*LX*	*lx*
5	*V*	*v*	14	*XIV*	*xiv*	90	*XC*	*xc*
6	*VI*	*vi*	19	*XIX*	*xix*	100	*C*	*c*
7	*VII*	*vii*	20	*XX*	*xx*	500	*D*	
8	*VIII*	*viii*	21	*XXI*	*xxi*	1000	*M*	
9	*IX*	*ix*	30	*XXX*	*xxx*	1998	*MCMXCVIII*	

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The church dates to the time of ***Henry II****.*

It was best known as a ***XVI*** *century map of the world.*

Please see ***pages vii*** *and* ***xii****.*

Spoken forms of *0* **524**

0 is usually said as *nought* in decimal numbers where it occurs before the decimal point:

0.455 litres
(*nought point four five five litres*)

American English prefers *zero*, and this is becoming more common in British English too:

0.885 centimetres
(*zero point eight eight five centimetres*)

0 is typically said as *oh* where it occurs after a decimal point and in a wide range of numbers such as telephone numbers, addresses, years:

7.05 seconds
(*seven point oh five*)

She lives at 205 Hills Avenue.
(*two oh five*)

His phone number is 470503.
(*four seven oh five oh three*)

She was born in 1908.
(*nineteen oh eight*)

Car registration number Y205 CNA
(*two oh/zero five*)

In giving the scores of sports games, other words are used:

- football:

  Valencia lost 1–0.
  (*one nil*)

- tennis:

  Klisters leads Williams 40–0 in the first game of the second set.
  (*forty love*)

- American team sports:

  [American football]
  The Seattle Sea Hawks beat the Cincinnati Reds 7–0.
  (*seven nothing* or *seven to nothing* or *seven zip* – 'zip' is informal American English)

  [baseball]
  Miami Hurricances 7, Northern Colorado Bears 0

In measurements of temperature, *zero* is more common but *nought* is possible:

Zero degrees Celsius is thirty-two degrees Fahrenheit.

Singular forms with plural meanings **525**

After an expression of number, *dozen, hundred, thousand, million* and *billion* have no final *-s*, and *of* is not used:

five hundred *pounds*
hundreds of *pounds*

several thousand *times*
It cost ***thousands****.*

a few million *years*
millions of *years*

Singular forms are used as modifiers before nouns in plural measuring expressions:

*a five-**pound** note*
*a three-**mile** walk*
*six two-**hour** lessons*
*a three-**month**-old baby*
*a four-**foot**-deep hole*
*a six-**foot**-tall man*

In an informal style, *foot* is often used instead of *feet*, especially with reference to people's height:

*My father's just over six **foot** two.*

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Appendix: Referring to the time

TELLING THE TIME 526

There are two common ways of saying what the time is:

6.05	*five past six* or *six (oh) five*
6.10	*ten past six* or *six ten*
6.15	*(a) quarter past six* or *six fifteen*
6.20	*twenty past six* or *six twenty*
6.25	*twenty-five past six* or *six twenty-five*
6.30	*half past six* or *six thirty*
6.35	*twenty-five to seven* or *six thirty-five*
6.40	*twenty to seven* or *six forty*
6.45	*(a) quarter to seven* or *six forty-five*
6.50	*ten to seven* or *six fifty*
6.55	*five to seven* or *six fifty-five*
7.00	*seven o'clock*

Most speakers prefer to say *minutes past/to* for times between the five minute divisions (*seven* ***minutes*** *past six*, *four* ***minutes*** *to seven*).

In informal speech, *past* is often dropped from *half past*:

Okay, see you at ***half four****.*
(4.30 **not** 3.30)

If the hour is understood, then just *half past* or *quarter to* are used in informal speech:

Hurry up. We've got to be there at ***quarter to****.*

The expression *o'clock* is only used at the hour:

The first meeting is at ***seven (o'clock)****.*

Wake me at ***ten past six****.*
(~~Wake me at ten past six o'clock.~~)

O'clock is often omitted in informal contexts when referring to the hour:

The concert starts at ***seven****.*

In American English, and increasingly in internet communication, colons are used to mark clock time (*3:40*, *10:05*, *13:25*).

The twenty-four-hour clock 526a

The twenty-four-hour clock is used mainly in transport timetables and official announcements. In everyday conversation, people usually use the twelve-hour clock:

[reading a rail timetable]
*The last train leaves at **22.20**.*
(twenty-two twenty)

*Check-in time is **a quarter past six in the morning**.*
(preferred form in informal contexts)

[public announcement at a railway station]
*The train about to leave from platform 13 is the **fourteen forty-five** departure for Manchester.*

When using the twenty-four-hour clock, times on the hour are normally pronounced as follows:

*The flight will depart at **seventeen hundred hours**.*
(17.00)

In public announcements, the following pronunciations of numbers are common:

*The **oh nine hundred** service is delayed and will now depart at **oh nine fifteen**.*
(09.00 and 09.15)

Times can be indicated by using *in the morning/afternoon/evening*. In a more formal style, *am* (Latin *ante meridiem* = 'before midday') and *pm* (*post meridiem* = 'after midday') are used:

07.00 = *seven o'clock in the morning* or *seven am*

19.00 = *seven o'clock in the evening* or *seven pm*

Note that punctuation is normally omitted in *am* and *pm*.

12.00 can mean at midnight or at midday. This is commonly distinguished by reference to *12.00 noon* and *12.00 midnight* (spoken as *twelve noon* and *twelve midnight*).

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Appendix: Units of measurement

NON-METRIC MEASURES 527

Metric measurement units are increasingly used in the United Kingdom, but non-metric measures are also still widely used, especially by older people who still use the older system of imperial units such as pounds, feet and gallons. Below are some of the common terms along with their approximate values in the metric system. Some of the units have the same names but mean different quantities in the UK and the USA. The international system of metric measurements is not commonly used in the USA.

Approximate values of non-metric units 527a

Units of length and distance and their abbreviations

1 inch (in) = 2.5 centimetres (cm)

1 foot (ft) = 30 cm

1 yard (yd) = 90 cm

5 miles (m) = 8 kilometres (km)

Inches and feet are sometimes indicated in writing with ' for feet and " for inches:

The living room is 9'8" by 15'6".
(nine feet eight inches by fifteen feet six inches)

Units of area

11 square feet = 1 square metre (or *1 sq metre,* or *1m²*)

5 acres = 2 hectares

1 square mile = 2.6 square km

1 square inch = 6.4516 cm²

Units of weight

1 ounce (oz) = 28 g

1 pound (lb) = 450 g

14 pounds = (Br) 1 stone = 6.4 kg

1 ton = (Br) *1 tonne =* (Am) *0.9 tonnes*

Units of volume and capacity

1 cubic centimetre (cc) = 0.0610 cubic inch (cu in)

There are 8 pints in a gallon:

	British	American
1 pint (pt)	*0.6 litres*	*0.5 litres*
1 gallon (gall)	*4.5 litres*	*3.8 litres*

Units of temperature

Except in the USA, temperatures are now more commonly given in degrees Celsius (°C, sometimes called *centigrade*) than degrees Fahrenheit (°F):

	°F	°C
ice	32	0
warm room	70	20
hot day	85	30
body temperature	98	37
boiling water	212	100

Usage 527b

Personal weight and height

British English speakers usually measure their personal weight in stones and pounds. American English speakers just use pounds. *Stone* is not commonly used in the plural. The word *pounds* is typically omitted in informal contexts:

I weigh eight ***stone*** *six.*
(~~I weigh eight stones six.~~)

He's overweight. He needs to lose a couple of ***stone****.*

Personal height is measured in feet and inches, with the word *inches* usually omitted in informal contexts. *Foot* is normally preferred to *feet* (525):

I'm ***five foot eleven****.*

Height

The height of buildings and other structures, tall plants and trees, altitude and elevation above sea level are typically measured in feet (but increasingly in metres for elevation above sea level):

We will soon be climbing to an altitude of 39,000 ***feet****.*

That tree was only about four ***feet*** *tall when we planted it.*

Distance

Distance can also be measured in feet, but longer distances along the ground are measured in yards and miles:

I was standing about six ***feet*** *away from the Prime Minister.*

The car park's straight on, about 500 ***yards*** *on the right.*

From here to the airport is about 35 ***miles****.*

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Appendix: Nationalities, countries and regions

INTRODUCTION 528

Referring to a nation or region and its affairs normally requires four words:

- The name of the country or region:

  Sweden, Japan, France, Venezuela, Asia

- The adjective:

  Swedish, Japanese, French, Venezuelan, Asian

- The singular noun used for a person from the country or region:

  a Swede, a Japanese, a Frenchman/woman, a Venezuelan, an Asian

- The plural expression *the* … used for the population as a whole:

  the Swedes, the Japanese, the French, the Venezuelans, the Asians

The name of a national language is commonly the same as the national adjective. In this case the words are nouns and may be modified by adjectives. The definite article *the* is not used, nor is the word *language*:

Do you speak ***Hungarian****?*
(~~Do you speak the Hungarian?~~)
(~~Do you speak Hungarian language?~~)

Thai *is not easy to learn.*

She speaks fluent ***English****.*

The singular noun is normally the same as the adjective (e.g. *Japanese*, *Moroccan*), and the plural expression is the same as the adjective + *-s* (e.g. *the Moroccans*).

All words of this kind (including adjectives) begin with capital letters:

He has a degree in ***A****merican literature.*
(~~He has a degree in american literature.~~)

Examples of countries and regions, and associated adjectives and nouns 528a

country/region	adjective	person	population
America/USA	*American*	*an American*	*the Americans*
Belgium	*Belgian*	*a Belgian*	*the Belgians*
Brazil	*Brazilian*	*a Brazilian*	*the Brazilians*
China	*Chinese*	*a Chinese*	*the Chinese*
The Congo	*Congolese*	*a Congolese*	*the Congolese*
Europe	*European*	*a European*	*the Europeans*
Greece	*Greek*	*a Greek*	*the Greeks*
Hungary	*Hungarian*	*a Hungarian*	*the Hungarians*
Iraq	*Iraqi*	*an Iraqi*	*the Iraqis*
Israel	*Israeli*	*an Israeli*	*the Israelis*
Italy	*Italian*	*an Italian*	*the Italians*
Kenya	*Kenyan*	*a Kenyan*	*the Kenyans*
Mexico	*Mexican*	*a Mexican*	*the Mexicans*
Malaysia	*Malaysian*	*a Malaysian*	*the Malayisans*
Norway	*Norwegian*	*a Norwegian*	*the Norwegians*
Portugal	*Portuguese*	*a Portuguese*	*the Portuguese*
Russia	*Russian*	*a Russian*	*the Russians*
Slovakia	*Slovakian*	*a Slovak*	*the Slovaks*
Thailand	*Thai*	*a Thai*	*the Thais*

Some main exceptions 528b

country/region	adjective	person	population
Britain	*British*	*a British man/ woman/person* (more formally: *a Briton*)	*the British*
Denmark	*Danish*	*a Dane*	*the Danes*
England	*English*	*an Englishman woman/person*	*the English*
Finland	*Finnish*	*a Finn*	*the Finns*
France	*French*	*a Frenchman/ woman/person*	*the French*
Holland/ The Netherlands	*Dutch*	*a Dutchwoman/ man/person*	*the Dutch*
Ireland	*Irish*	*an Irishman/ woman/person*	*the Irish*
New Zealand	*New Zealand*	*a New Zealander*	*the New Zealanders*
Poland	*Polish*	*a Pole*	*the Poles*
Scotland	*Scottish*	*a Scot*	*the Scots*
Spain	*Spanish*	*a Spaniard*	*the Spanish*
Sweden	*Swedish*	*a Swede*	*the Swedes*
Turkey	*Turkish*	*a Turk*	*the Turks*
Wales	*Welsh*	*a Welshman/ woman/person*	*the Welsh*

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Further information

1 *English* referring to population is not the same as *British*; it is not used for Scottish or Welsh or Northern Irish people.
2 The word *Briton* is unusual except in newspaper headlines (*TWELVE BRITONS INJURED IN COACH COLLISION*). The noun *Brit* (*the Brits*) is sometimes used informally. Most British people call themselves *Scottish*, *Welsh* or *English*.
3 *(Great) Britain* refers to the landmass of England, Scotland and Wales. *The United Kingdom* (or *the UK*) refers to England, Scotland, Wales and the six counties of Northern Ireland. Some people from Northern Ireland refer to themselves as *British* in the context of *the United Kingdom of Britain and Northern Ireland*. However, everyone from Northern Ireland has the right to Irish nationality and can hold an Irish passport. *Irish* also refers to citizens of the Irish Republic.
4 The Scots themselves prefer the adjective *Scots* and it also occurs in the compounds *Scotsman/Scotswoman*. The adjective *Scotch* is normally only used to refer to food and drink from Scotland (*Scotch broth*, *Scotch egg*).
5 Although *America* and *American* are the normal English words for the United States, its citizens and affairs, people from other parts of the north and south American continent may object to this use. It is sometimes avoided for these reasons. It is more usual to say: *She's a US citizen*; *I've got some US dollars to change*.
6 In Arabic countries, the language spoken is referred to as *Arabic*. In spoken expressions and some names of places the word *Arabian* is used (e.g. *The **Arabian** Gulf*; *Saudi **Arabian***; ***Arabian** Nights)*.
7 The mostly monosyllabic non-compound words listed above under person (*Dane*, *Spaniard*) are normally avoided when referring to a woman (*a Danish woman*, *a Spanish woman* are preferred).

Appendix: Irregular verbs

INTRODUCTION 529

With some irregular verbs, there is a choice of past form and *-ed* participle.

Table of irregular verbs 529a

base form	past form	*-ed* participle
arise	*arose*	*arisen*
awake	*awoke*	*awoken*
bear	*bore*	*borne*
beat	*beat*	*beaten*
become	*became*	*become*
begin	*began*	*begun*
bend	*bent*	*bent*
bet	*bet*	*bet*
bind	*bound*	*bound*
bite	*bit*	*bitten*
bleed	*bled*	*bled*
blow	*blew*	*blown*
break	*broke*	*broken*
breed	*bred*	*bred*
bring	*brought*	*brought*
build	*built*	*built*
burst	*burst*	*burst*
burn	*burnt/burned*	*burnt/burned*
buy	*bought*	*bought*
cast	*cast*	*cast*
catch	*caught*	*caught*
choose	*chose*	*chosen*
cling	*clung*	*clung*
come	*came*	*come*

base form	past form	*-ed* participle
cost	*cost*	*cost*
creep	*crept*	*crept*
cut	*cut*	*cut*
deal	*dealt*	*dealt*
dig	*dug*	*dug*
draw	*drew*	*drawn*
dream	*dreamt/dreamed*	*dreamt/dreamed*
drink	*drank*	*drunk*
drive	*drove*	*driven*
eat	*ate*	*eaten*
fall	*fell*	*fallen*
feed	*fed*	*fed*
feel	*felt*	*felt*
fight	*fought*	*fought*
find	*found*	*found*
flee	*fled*	*fled*
fling	*flung*	*flung*
fly	*flew*	*flown*
forbear	*forbore*	*forborne*
forbid	*forbade*	*forbidden*
forget	*forgot*	*forgotten*
forgive	*forgave*	*forgiven*
forsake	*forsook*	*forsaken*
forswear	*forswore*	*forsworn*
freeze	*froze*	*frozen*
get	*got*	*got*
give	*gave*	*given*
go	*went*	*gone*
grind	*ground*	*ground*
grow	*grew*	*grown*
hear	*heard*	*heard*
hide	*hid*	*hidden*
hit	*hit*	*hit*

base form	past form	*-ed* participle
hold	*held*	*held*
hurt	*hurt*	*hurt*
keep	*kept*	*kept*
know	*knew*	*known*
lay	*laid*	*laid*
lead	*led*	*led*
lean	*leant/leaned*	*leant/leaned*
leave	*left*	*left*
lend	*lent*	*lent*
let	*let*	*let*
light	*lit/lighted*	*lit/lighted*
lose	*lost*	*lost*
make	*made*	*made*
mean	*meant*	*meant*
meet	*met*	*met*
mislay	*mislaid*	*mislaid*
mislead	*misled*	*misled*
pay	*paid*	*paid*
put	*put*	*put*
quit	*quit*	*quit*
read (/riːd/)	*read* (/red/)	*read* (/red/)
rend	*rent*	*rent*
ride	*rode*	*ridden*
ring	*rang*	*rung*
rise	*rose*	*risen*
run	*ran*	*run*
saw	*sawed*	*sawn*
say	*said*	*said*
see	*saw*	*seen*
seek	*sought*	*sought*
sell	*sold*	*sold*
send	*sent*	*sent*
set	*set*	*set*

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base form	past form	*-ed* participle
sew	*sewed*	*sewn*
shake	*shook*	*shaken*
shed	*shed*	*shed*
shine	*shone*	*shone*
shoe	*shod*	*shod*
shoot	*shot*	*shot*
show	*showed*	*shown*
shrink	*shrank*	*shrunk*
shut	*shut*	*shut*
sing	*sang*	*sung*
sink	*sank*	*sunk*
sit	*sat*	*sat*
slay	*slew*	*slain*
sleep	*slept*	*slept*
slide	*slid*	*slid*
sling	*slung*	*slung*
slink	*slunk*	*slunk*
sow	*sowed*	*sown*
speak	*spoke*	*spoken*
spend	*spent*	*spent*
spin	*spun*	*spun*
spill	*spilt/spilled*	*spilt/spilled*
spread	*spread*	*spread*
speed	*sped*	*sped*
spring	*sprang*	*sprung*
stand	*stood*	*stood*
steal	*stole*	*stolen*
stick	*stuck*	*stuck*
sting	*stung*	*stung*
stink	*stank*	*stunk*
strew	*strewed*	*strewn*
stride	*strode*	*stridden*
strike	*struck*	*struck*

base form	past form	*-ed* participle
string	*strung*	*strung*
strive	*strove*	*striven*
swear	*swore*	*sworn*
sweep	*swept*	*swept*
swim	*swam*	*swum*
swing	*swung*	*swung*
take	*took*	*taken*
teach	*taught*	*taught*
tear	*tore*	*torn*
tell	*told*	*told*
think	*thought*	*thought*
throw	*threw*	*thrown*
thrust	*thrust*	*thrust*
tread	*trod*	*trodden*
understand	*understood*	*understood*
wake	*woke*	*woken*
wear	*wore*	*worn*
weep	*wept*	*wept*
win	*won*	*won*
wind	*wound*	*wound*
wring	*wrung*	*wrung*
write	*wrote*	*written*

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Appendix: North American English grammar

INTRODUCTION 530

The basic grammar of English speech and writing as used in North America is, in almost all respects, the same as that in use across the islands of Britain and Ireland. What marks American English out as different from the European variety are mostly differences in pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary. Written grammar displays fewer differences between American and British usage than spoken grammar. However, North America is a vast continent which is home to many different regional and social dialects of English, often reflected in distinct spoken grammatical usage; we cannot hope to cover all this diversity within the limits of one book. Across the islands of Britain and Ireland there are also differences in usage, but this grammar has focussed on what is shared among the widest range of speakers. This appendix therefore discusses those aspects of standard North American spoken usage which are notably different from the spoken description as presented in this book. The differences are usually differences of degree rather than of kind: there seem to be very few forms that are the exclusive domain of one variety, but there are often quite striking differences in frequency of use of everyday items between the varieties. It must also be noted that American influence on the grammar of Britain and Ireland is considerable, and changes in usage can often be attributed to the influence of American popular culture, for example the use of *like* as a marker of direct speech reporting (**501e** and **A–Z 49 *Like***). For convenience, the spoken grammar presented in the main chapters of this book will be referred to as BrE, and references to standard North American English will be abbreviated to AmE. The spoken North American segment of the Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) was consulted in the preparation of this appendix.

MODAL VERBS AND OTHER MODAL EXPRESSIONS 531

Some modal verbs and other modal expressions are more frequent in BrE than AmE, and vice-versa.

Shall 531a

Although quite frequent in BrE, *shall* is relatively infrequent in AmE. BrE usage allows *shall* in first person declaratives about the future:

*I **shall** be in the office till five thirty.* (BrE)

AmE prefers *will* or *be going to* in such situations. However, AmE does allow *shall* in first person interrogatives, especially those functioning as suggestions and in semi-fixed expressions such as *How shall I say it?*:

*Let's try to use words that are in the dictionary next time, **shall we**?* (AmE)

[talking about whether to go to the cinema to see films or to wait till they are available on video]
You know, and you have to start thinking about, is it, is it worth spending the money to go see it, or ***shall*** *I just wait?*
(AmE)

Frequency of *shall* (per 1 million words) in spoken AmE and BrE

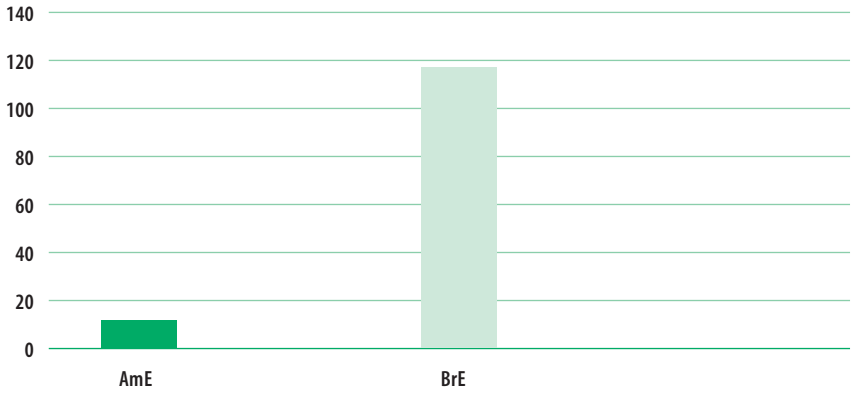

Must 531b

Must is overall much more frequent in BrE than in AmE. Although obligation and predictive meanings occur in both varieties, the majority of uses of *must* in AmE are predictive, and AmE tends to prefer *have to* for expressing obligation:

Something ***must****'ve been on her mind.* (AmE)

Everybody says I don't need to lose weight, but I feel I ***must****.* (AmE)

Frequency of *must* (per 1 million words) in spoken AmE and BrE

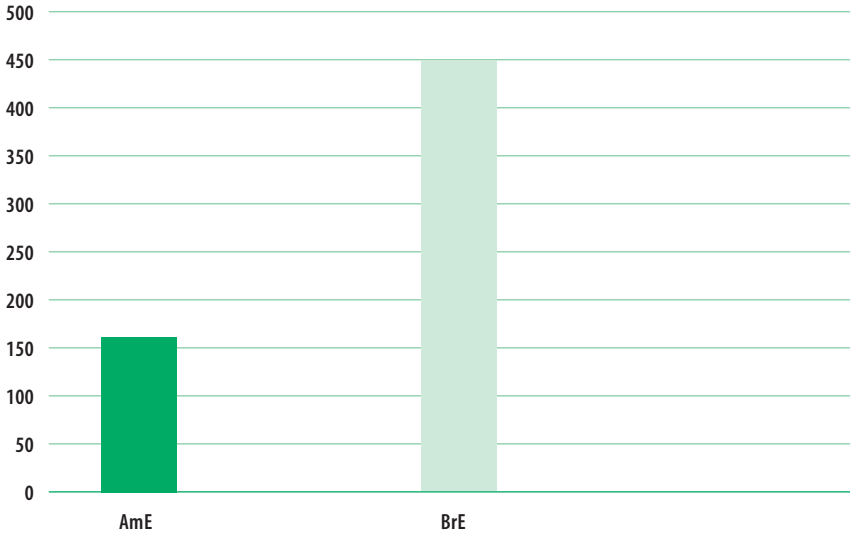

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Have got to and *have to* 531c

Modal *have got* to is almost twice as frequent in spoken BrE compared with AmE. *Have to* (without *got*) is 50% more frequent in AmE than in BrE:

I've got to *go and meet my mum for lunch.*
(preferred spoken form BrE)

I have to *meet my advisor at one.*
(preferred spoken form AmE)

Had better 531d

Had better is almost six times more frequent in BrE than in AmE, though it is used in both varieties:

*You****'d better*** *move your car, Pete.*
(BrE)

*I guess we****'d better*** *get back to work.*
(AmE)

Be going to 531e

Be going to (and the contracted form *gonna*) is often used in direction-giving in AmE, which is not a characteristic use in BrE, which typically uses imperatives (with and without *you*), and present or future forms with *will*:

*You****'re gonna*** *go two blocks and then you****'re gonna*** *see a big white building.*
(AmE)

A: ***Come*** *to T-junction,* ***turn*** *left.* ***Go*** *down there about half a mile,* ***you come*** *to a right turn with a pub on the corner.*
B: *Yep.*
A: ***You turn*** *right there, that* ***takes*** *you straight into it.*
B: *Right lovely. Thank you very much.*
(BrE)

I guess, I suppose, I reckon 531f

The modal expression *I guess* is about 30 times more frequent in spoken AmE than in BrE. *I suppose* and *I reckon* are much more frequent in spoken BrE. *I reckon* is relatively rare in AmE:

I guess *I create a lot of stress in my life.*
(AmE)

I reckon *we should have some coffee after this.*
(BrE)

I suppose *we could just go to a club somewhere.*
(BrE)

OTHER VERBS 532

Be 532a

With the verb *be*, although both types of negated form exist in BrE and AmE, there is a stronger preference in AmE for the negated forms with *not* in both the present and the past tense (e.g. *is/'s not, were not*), rather than the contracted forms *isn't*, *aren't*, *wasn't* and *weren't*. *Isn't*, in particular, is many times more frequent in BrE than in AmE:

*Tim **isn't** working there anymore.*
(BrE)

*Joe**'s not** coming back anymore.*
(preferred AmE form)

Have and *have got* 532b

The present tense form of *have* with *got* used for possession is more than twice as frequent in spoken BrE as in AmE:

***I've got** one sister and one brother.*
(BrE)

***I have** a cousin who never married.*
(AmE)

Go (and) 532c

The AmE equivalent to informal BrE *go and* + infinitive without *to* occurs often without *and*:

*Where's your towel? Is it in the drawer? **Go and see** if you can find it.*
(BrE)

*I actually hadn't heard anything about it, and some friends called up and said do you want to **go see** this movie, and, and they said it starred Meryl Streep and Mel Brooks.*
(AmE)

Get 532d

In AmE, *get* has an *-ed* participle form *gotten*, which is not used in BrE:

*I mean, as poverty has **gotten** worse, as, you know, education has **gotten** worse, as there's been more single-parent families, as there's been more homelessness, there's been more crime.*
(AmE)

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A frequent use of *get* (followed by a verb in *to*-infinitive form) in AmE is to refer to achievements. This usage occurs in BrE but is much rarer:

That's great advice. I'm so glad ***I got to talk*** *to you.*
(AmE)

A: *It was a lot of fun.* ***I got to see*** *Arkansas. I* ***got to see*** *that country.*
B: *Yeah.*
A: *It was really green down there.*
B: *No kidding.*
(AmE)

[talking about an actress, a friend of speaker A's, who was offered film work]
A: *The thing is she couldn't have turned it down because she hadn't done any work for two years so she had to.*
B: *Oh yeah absolutely.*
A: *And* ***she got to film*** *on location in Majorca.*
(BrE)

Fit 532e

In AmE, the past tense of *fit* is most often *fit*, while standard BrE prefers *fitted*:

Jennifer says she never really ***fit*** *in, and that made it easy for the other teachers to be suspicious of her.*
(AmE)
(preferred BrE form: *fitted in*)

I found a pair of boots that ***fitted*** *me and they weren't too bad-looking either.*
(BrE)

Learn, burn, dream, etc. 532f

Verbs such as *burn*, *dream*, *lean*, *learn*, *smell*, *spell*, *spill* often allow a past tense and *-ed* participle ending of either *-ed* (*learned*, *spilled*) or *-t* (*learnt*, *spilt*). AmE overwhelmingly prefers the *-ed* ending:

One night I had a bad dream. I ***dreamt*** *that someone was trying to attack me.*
(BrE)

[discussing changing British dietary habits]
Well, in my grandma's day and age they would never have ***dreamed*** *of eating a curry, would they?*
(BrE)

When I was a boy, I ***dreamed*** *of playing football.*
(AmE)

Other verbs 532g

Some other verbs display irregular past forms in AmE which are not used in BrE, for example *dove* as the past tense of *dive* (BrE *dived*), and *pled* as the past tense of *plead* (BrE *pleaded*):

*He **pled** guilty to avoid the death penalty.*
(AmE)

*The eagle just folded his wings, folded his legs, **dove** right down and crashed right into the guy and almost killed him.*
(AmE)

TAGS AND TAILS 533

Interrogative tags (300, 431) are around four times more frequent in BrE than in AmE, but a wide range of interrogative tags occur in both varieties:

*He's brilliant, **isn't he**?*
(BrE)

*They weren't reading, **were they**?*
(AmE)

In informal contexts, AmE speakers often use an interrogative copy tag with rising intonation in responses denoting surprise or emotional involvement, which is not common in BrE:

A: *I changed schools three times.*
B: ***You did**?*
A: *In one year.*
B: *Wow. Wow.*
(AmE; BrE prefers *Did you?* here, with fall-rise or rising intonation)

A: *You know what guys? One of my big weaknesses is bags. I love bags. I don't know why.*
B: ***You do**?*
A: *Yeah.*
(AmE; BrE preferred form: *Do you?*)

BrE often adds substitute *do* to reduced clauses with modal verbs, especially in tag responses. AmE uses the modal verb only:

[*Riverjazz* is a jazz club]
A: *Do you want to go to Riverjazz tonight?*
B: *Do I have to?*
A: *No.*
B: *Are you going?*
A: ***I might do**.*
(BrE)

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A: *So uh what do you think you'll do for your twenty-first birthday? Are you gonna go to a party or anything?*
B: *No. Yeah. Yeah.* ***I might****. I mean … Yeah. Maybe.*
(AmE)

Affirmative copy tags occur in both varieties but are much rarer in AmE than in BrE:

I think it's really funny that they live together, ***I do****.*
(BrE)

[talking about car mechanics]
A: *That's hard work.*
B: *It is.*
A: *I think they earn their money,* ***I do****.*
(AmE)

The universal tag, *right?* is almost four times more frequent in AmE than in BrE:

You lived in Canada, though, ***right****?*
(AmE)

I was hoping we could change this one, ***right****?*
(BrE)

Tails are considerably less common in AmE than in BrE, but they do occur in informal spoken AmE:

[talking of a US Senator; name disguised here]
He*'s a scary guy, that* ***Dan Boland****.*
(AmE)

The last car we had was a Grand Prix which, … huh, never again! ***That*** *was a nightmare,* ***that one****.*
(AmE)

ADVERBS, ADJECTIVES 534

Really, real 534a

In informal spoken AmE, *really* as a modifier of adjectives and other adverbs is often used without the *-ly* ending, in its adjective form. This is sometimes considered non-standard by traditionalists:

They were ***real*** *nice to us. The President of the company took us and showed us around.*
(AmE)

We all get along ***real*** *well.*
(AmE)

Well, good 534b

Similarly, *good* is often used in informal spoken AmE where BrE requires *well*. However, the AmE form is increasingly heard in BrE:

> *Well I made it through college you know just cramming before the test kind of thing but I always did* ***good*** *so I never had a problem with that part.*
> (AmE)

> A: *Hi, how're you doing?*
> B: *I'm* ***good****.*
> (AmE)

Likely 534c

Spoken AmE allows the use of *likely* as an adverb (in the same way as *probably*, *possibly*, etc.) or as an adjective. In BrE, *likely* is usually only an adjective:

> [discussing the US economy]
> *So I think we created the conditions which will* ***likely*** *allow us to have a much longer recovery than you would have otherwise expected.*
> (AmE; BrE preferred form: *which are likely to allow us … which will probably allow us …*)

> *The more things you have to remember, the more you're* ***likely*** *to forget.*
> (AmE; adjectival use, also typical of BrE)

THE PRESENT PERFECT 535

The frequency of use of the present perfect form is different in BrE and AmE, with a tendency to use it less in AmE. AmE often allows the past simple in situations which demand the present perfect in BrE:

> [at a hotel; speakers have recently checked in]
> A: *Where's the main pool at?*
> B: *It's in the other side of the hotel.*
> A: *Oh. Is it bigger than this?*
> B: ***We didn't get that far yet*** [laughs].
> (AmE; BrE would prefer: *We haven't got that far yet.*)

> [discussing how much money speaker B is allowed to take out of a cash machine each day]
> A: *How much can you get out of here?*
> B: *Three hundred.*
> A: *So you'd have three hundred? You've got three hundred you can get out right now?*
> B: *Yeah.*
> A: *But* ***you already got some out****. So you can do three hundred a day.* ***You already took out some today****. How much did you take out?*
> B: *A hundred. I can only take another two hundred.*
> (AmE; *already* typically accompanied by perfect aspect in similar situations in BrE)

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CONCORD 536

There is a tendency in spoken AmE to prefer singular verb concord with collective nouns such as *government*, *team*, *group*, *rest*, etc., whereas BrE is more flexible in allowing singular or plural verbs:

By and large ***the government does*** *a good job.*
(AmE preferred form)

A: ***The government are*** *making a profit.*
B: *No,* ***the government aren't****. It's the private enterprise.*
(BrE; allows greater flexibility of use of plural verb)

[talking about American football]
While he was with the team, the ***rest*** *of the team* ***was*** *pretty poor so you couldn't really tell if it was just him or the team and I always just assumed that he was too good for the rest of the team.*
(AmE; BrE likely to prefer *the rest of the team were pretty poor* …)

PREPOSITIONAL USAGE 537

There are some differences in prepositional usage between BrE and AmE, especially in time expressions:

I've been stranded in my house for days on end. I get to go out ***at the weekend*** *and that's it.* [laughs] *That's my life.*
(preferred BrE)

[talking about TV viewing habits]
During the week I don't have much time, and I spend a lot of time with my daughter ***on the weekend*** *and she lives a way away.*
(preferred AmE)

AmE allows *in* + *time period* after negatives with greater flexibility than BrE:

I haven't played basketball ***in two years****.*
(AmE; BrE preferred form: *for two years*)

AmE uses *through* in many situations where BrE uses *to* or *till* in references to the end points of time periods:

[*dress-down-Fridays* refers to the practice of allowing employees to come to work in informal dress on Fridays]
It started with dress-down-Fridays, which was a couple of years ago. Now it's really Monday ***through*** *Friday.*
(AmE)

[at a travel agent's]
You can use that ticket on any train except ones that depart Monday ***to*** *Friday before nine.*
(BrE)

AmE uses *on* with street names, whereas BrE prefers *in*:

A: *She lives* ***on*** *Third Street and I lived* ***on*** *Third Street but we lived between different avenues.*
B: *Hmm. Okay.*
(AmE)

I think she was born ***in*** *Leonora Street and then moved to Castle Street.*
(BrE)

EXCLAMATIVE EXPRESSIONS 538

AmE uses some exclamative and intensifying expressions which are not common in BrE. These include *geez*, *goddam*, *oh my gosh*:

But I went in there one day and I had cream-of-chicken soup. It was the best tasting ***goddamn*** *stuff I'd ever eaten in my life.*
(AmE)

[talking about hot weather; 80 degrees Fahrenheit = approximately 27 degrees Celsius]
A: *It's been eighty degrees here.*
B: ***Oh my gosh****!*
(AmE)

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Glossary 539

Acronym A type of abbreviation where the initial letters of two or more words are combined to produce consonant and vowel sequences that can be pronounced as words (*RAM*: **r**andom **a**ccess **m**emory; *NATO*: **N**orth **A**tlantic **T**reaty **O**rganisation).

Active The most common and unmarked form of voice. The grammatical subject and the agent/doer of the action are one and the same (*The thief had stolen all my money.*). In contrast, the passive voice is formed with subject + *be* + *-ed* participle, followed by an optional '*by*-phrase'. The recipient of the action is the grammatical subject; the *by*-phrase indicates the agent/doer. A passive construction gives less prominence to the agent (*All my money had been stolen (by the thief).*).

Adjective, adjective phrase Describes the qualities, features or states attributed to a noun or pronoun (*a **nice** room*, *a **happy** girl*, *she's **beautiful***).

A phrase with an adjective functioning as the head is an adjective phrase (*Are you **willing** to volunteer*?). An adjective phrase can have an attributive function (used before a noun: *It has a **smooth** texture.*) or a predicative function (used after a verb: *That film was **very strange**.*).

Discontinuous adjective phrase

Adjunct An optional element in a clause which modifies, comments on or expands the circumstances of an action or event in terms of such entities as time, place, manner, degree, intensity, reason, frequency. An adjunct can occupy different positions and can be realised by an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase or, less frequently, a noun phrase or adverbial clause.

prep phrase adv phrase
***In the summer** we **very often** make our own ice cream.*

Linking adjunct

Adverb, adverb phrase Indicates the time, place, manner, degree, frequency, duration, viewpoint, etc. of an event, action or process. It is mostly realised by the *-ly* suffix added to an adjective (*beautifully*, *fortunately*, *angrily*, *actually*).

A phrase with an adverb functioning as the head is called an adverb phrase (*The lecturer spoke very **clearly**.*). Adverb phrases can modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and whole clauses.

Adverbial, adverbial clause Any word, phrase or clause that functions like an adverb.

Adverbial clauses are clauses which act as modifiers to a main clause:

*Tell me **after I've eaten my dinner**.* (time)

*Drive carefully **because it is snowing**.* (reason)

Modification

Affirmative A grammatical construction with positive polarity that has an assertive meaning. Affirmative contrasts with negative:

I have done my homework. (affirmative)

I haven't done my homework. (negative)

Affix A syllable or group of syllables which are added to the beginning or end of a word to make a new word. Affixes added to the beginning of a word are prefixes. Affixes added to the end of a word are suffixes. In the adjective ***un****work****able*** there are two affixes, *un-* (prefix) and *-able* (suffix).

Agent, agency Refers to the performer or 'doer' of an action. In *the little girl tidied up the playroom*, 'the little girl' is the agent. In a passive clause, the agent may be indicated by the noun phrase that follows the optional *by*-phrase (*The government is criticised by* ***everybody****.*).

Active

Agreement **Concord**

Anaphora (adjective = **anaphoric**) A process whereby one word or phrase points backwards to another and marks the relationship between what is being said and what has been said. The reference can normally only be located in the preceding context:

Janet took the paper. ***She*** *wrote a phone number on* ***it****.*
(*She* refers anaphorically to *Janet*; *it* refers anaphorically to *the paper*)

Anaphora is contrasted with cataphora.

Endophora; Exophora

Antecedent The unit of word(s) to which a following word refers back. In ***Janet*** *took the paper.* ***She*** *wrote a phone number on it.*, *Janet* is the antecedent of *she*.

Anaphora

Anticipatory structure Refers to structures that make forward reference to produce an end-focus:

It *amazes me how open and honest the staff are.*
(anticipatory *it* enables the end-focus to be placed on the subject)

It's not *until we lift the carpet in our bedroom that we'll know what we've got to deal with.*
(anticipatory *it* enables the end-focus to be placed on the time adjunct)

It can, of course, be argued *that the bank has been lucky in its timing.*
(anticipatory *it* enables the end-focus to be placed on the complement clause)

Antonymy Refers to the most common type of gradable adjectives which occur as pairs of opposites denoting the upper and lower parts of an open-ended scale (*tall–short*, *hot–cold*, *heavy–light*, *good–bad*).

Apposition A relationship between two linguistic elements (usually noun phrases) which have identical reference:

My boss*,* ***the woman in green****, used to work in Beijing.*
(my boss = the woman in green)

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Aspect Indicates the speaker's perspective on time as indicated in a verb phrase, particularly whether an action is treated as finished or is still in progress or still relevant to the moment of speaking. English has two aspects: perfect and progressive (sometimes known as continuous).

Perfect; Progressive

Assertion Is associated with both positive and negative clauses (*he is in financial difficulties*; *that is just not true*). Assertions convey the truth of the communication.

Attributive Refers to the role of an adjective phrase as a modifier before a noun (*she had a* ***huge*** *suitcase*). The attributive function is in contrast with the predicative function (*her suitcase was* ***huge***).

Predicative

Auxiliary Refers to a closed set of verbs (*be*, *do* and *have*) that are usually followed by a lexical verb. They typically help to denote grammatical contrasts of aspect, voice, polarity and clause type (e.g. interrogative):

He ***was*** *working over there.*

I ***don't*** *like garlic.*

Have *you been home?*

Back channelling Verbal and non-verbal vocal devices used to provide feedback and other supportive responses between speakers, normally as a way to encourage the speaker to continue. Vocalisations, words and phrases such as *mm*, *uhum*, *yeah*, *right* are typical back-channelling devices.

Backgrounding A device used to make something less important. For example, nominalised forms (**Nominalisation**) can be used to conceal or purposefully make less important a cause or an agent. Backgrounding is contrasted with foregrounding:

The ***closure*** *of the factory caused 200 workers to lose their jobs.*
(agent backgrounded)

Meteorcorp closed the factory and 200 workers lost their jobs.
(agent 'Meteorcorp' foregrounded)

Foregrounding

Backshift Refers to the process when there is a shift of tense. For example, when an indirect report is perceived as referring to the past, the tense in the reported clause usually changes to a past form of the tense of the direct report:

'Robert ***is*** *part of a consortium,' Mrs Johnson said to her.*
Mrs Johnson told her that Robert ***was*** *part of a consortium.*
(present simple ➛ past simple)

'I ***will go****,' he said.*
He said he ***would go****.*
('future' *will* ➛ 'future-in-the-past' *would*)

*'I **can do** it on Monday.'*
*She said she **could do** it on Monday.*
(modal verb *can* ➛ modal verb *could*)

Base form The form of verb used to mark the present tense form (*People always **look** at me.*) and the infinitive with or without *to* (*Let me **look**.*).

Base is also a term that refers to the form of a word which cannot be broken down into further grammatical parts and where an affix can be added:

works = ***work*** (base) + *-s* (inflection)

playful = ***play*** (base) + *-ful* (suffix)

unusual = ***usual*** (base) + *un-* (prefix)

Word formation

Blend A type of abbreviation in which parts of existing words are combined to form a new word: (*smog* = blend of ***sm**oke* and *f**og***; *heliport* = blend of ***heli**copter* and *air**port***).

Boosting A technique used to express a claim or viewpoint more assertively. Boosting is principally realised through a range of adverbial and prepositional constructions (*certainly*, *inevitably*, *unquestionably*, *definitely*, *emphatically*, *without doubt*) and modal and related expressions (*must*, *for sure/for certain*, *it is/was clear/obvious/indisputable/*etc. *that* …):

*Yet utilities and transport **unquestionably** provide a service rather than a commodity.*

*In the early nineteenth century this was **without doubt** true of much of the Nord region and the Normandy textile area.*

Case A grammatical category that marks the function of a noun or pronoun, for example as subject (also known as nominative case: *the boy, he, I, who*), object (also known as accusative case: *him, me, whom*) or genitive (also known as possessive: *the boy's, his, mine, whose*).

Cataphora (adjective = **cataphoric**) A process where a word or a phrase points forward to another and marks the relationship between what is being said and what is about to be said:

***It**'s delicious, that cake.*
(*It* refers forward to *that cake*)

Cataphora is contrasted with anaphora.

Endophora; Exophora

Catenative A verb phrase which includes a verb such as *appear to*, *come to*, *fail to*, *get to*, *happen to*, *manage to*, *seem to* or *tend to* followed by a lexical verb. It expresses modal and aspectual meanings:

*Do you **happen to know** Suzie's number?*

*We **seem to have been** this way before.*

Causative Refers to the meaning of making something happen. For instance, *get*-pseudo-passives and *have*-pseudo-passives can be used to express causative and non-causative meanings:

I think I'm going to ***get*** *my ears* ***pierced****.*
(causative: to make it happen)

We ***had*** *our house* ***broken*** *into while we were at the wedding.*
(non-causative: it was not our intention or aim)

Class (open class, closed class) Refers to a group of words which have similar functions. Word classes are divided into open classes and closed classes. Open classes include lexical words such as nouns (*dinner*, *place*, *Francis*), verbs (*meet*, *drive*, *go*, *pick*), adjectives (*old*, *angry*, *helpful*), and adverbs (*quickly*, *carefully*, *fast*) which admit new words. Closed classes have limited membership. They include function words such as pronouns (*it*, *he*, *who*, *anybody*, *one*), determiners (*a*, *the*, *that*, *some*, *each*, *several*), modal verbs (*may*, *could*, *must*), auxiliary verbs (*be*, *have*, *do*), conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *if*, *unless*) and prepositions (*in*, *at*, *of*, *by*, *with*). They do not admit new words.

Clause A grammatical construction that expresses the relationship between processes, participants and circumstances in actions, states or events. Clauses are constituents of sentences. Most typically, a clause consists of a subject (S), a verb (V), and any other required elements such as an object (O), a predicative complement (C), or an adjunct (A):

S V C
She | is | a friend of mine.

S V O A
I | will post | the letter | today.

The basic types of clause are declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative.

An embedded clause functions as a constituent phrase in a larger unit. For example, it may be a relative clause (*The points* ***that I'm talking about*** *are similar.*), or a nominal clause (***Building your own house*** *is cheaper.*).

Embedding

Cleft A cleft structure involves recasting a normal sentence pattern to give focus to a particular topic. The pattern is *it* + *be* + focus + clause. *Catherine plays tennis* can be recast into:

➛ *It is tennis that Catherine plays.*
(focus on the sport)

➛ *It is Catherine who plays tennis.*
(focus on the person)

Pseudo-cleft

Clipping Denotes a type of abbreviation where a word is shortened with one or more syllables omitted or 'clipped'. Proper names for people are commonly clipped (*ad* = *advertisement*, *advert*; *lab* = *laboratory*; *medic* = *medical student*, *doctor*; *Liz* = *Elizabeth*).

Cluster Refers to unitary or fragmentary and grammatically incomplete structures, usually in patterns of two, three or more words, that repeatedly occur. Clusters are usually retrieved from memory as whole units and contribute to fluency. They help to indicate relations of time and place (*I'll see you* ***in the*** *morning.*), perform interpersonal functions (*I find French so hard,* ***you know what I mean***?) and linking functions (*Going by train's okay* ***but I mean*** *I'd prefer it if we could find a flight.*), and mark turn-taking, etc. (A: *I'll make some lunch*, ***shall I***? B: *Mm, yes, please.*).

Coherence Refers to the relationships which link the meanings of utterances so that they are perceived as a text rather than as a random, unconnected sequence. The interpretation of coherence can be best derived from the speakers' shared knowledge and understanding of the speech acts being performed:

Husband: *The baby's crying.*
(husband requests wife to perform an action – attend to the baby)
Wife: *I'm on the phone.*
(wife states reason why she cannot comply with the request)
Husband: *Okay. I'll go.*
(husband undertakes to perform action)

Cohesion Refers to the grammatical and/or lexical links that mark relationships between clauses or across larger units of text. Conjunction, ellipsis, reference, repetition, substitution, etc. play a role in cohesion.

Collective noun A type of noun referring to a group of people, animals or things (*family, gang, committee, crowd, cattle, fleet*).

Collocation Refers to how lexical words co-occur regularly and in a restricted way.

typical collocations	untypical collocations
blonde hair	*blonde car*
lean meat	*slim meat*
perform a play	*perform a meeting*

Comment Comment refers to the main part of the message which indicates the important information about the topic. A comment is typically associated with the predicate in a clause:

topic	comment
Sue	***is starting a new job on Monday.***

'Theme' is also a term used to describe the topic or starting point for a message. 'Rheme' then refers to the information about the theme:

theme	rheme
Beijing	***has been chosen as the site for the Olympic Games.***

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Comparative, comparison The comparative is the form of a gradable adjective or adverb which is used to compare the different degree of qualities, properties, states, conditions, relations, etc. between two entities. The comparative is realised by the suffix *-er*, or by the use of *more*:

*Africa is **bigger** than Europe.*

*It is **more difficult** to get into a famous university **than** a little-known one.*

Complement, complementation A word or phrase which is required to complete the meaning of another word or phrase:

*A rise **in interest rates** is inevitable.*

*The claim **that he was innocently involved** was not accepted by the judge.*

Complementation is the process of completing the meaning of an item. For example, the complementation requirement for the verb *put* is that it must normally include an object and a phrase indicating location:

	O	prepositional phrase
She put	***the book*** |	***on the shelf***.

A predicative complement is a phrase which completes a clause with verbs such as *be*, *become*, *look*, *taste*:

*She's **away**.*

*He became **a teacher**.*

*That looks **very nice**.*

Transitive complementation

Complex verb phrase A phrase which includes a combination of different elements with the lexical verb:

*I **do like** pizza.*
(auxiliary + lexical verb)

*We**'ve talked** about that.*
(perfect + lexical verb)

*We**'re being fooled**.*
(progressive + passive + lexical verb)

*I **might be seeing** Bob.*
(modal + progressive + lexical verb)

*It**'s been being repaired** for ages.*
(perfect + passive + progressive + lexical verb)

A complex verb phrase indicates person, number, tense (except in modal verbs), aspect, voice and mood.

Verb phrase

Compound Compounding is a word-formation process which refers to two or more words linking together to produce a form which creates a new, single unit of meaning. Compounds are found in all word classes: Nouns (*pop-group*, *car park*), adjectives (*heartbreaking*, *homesick*), verbs (*babysit*, *dry-clean*), prepositions (*into*, *onto*).

Compound sentences are sentences with two or more main clauses: ***He should have been here at five*** *and* ***he's not here yet***, *but* ***he'll come***.

Concord (or agreement) Subject-verb concord refers to the agreement between the verb and subject in a finite clause with respect to number and person:

It *takes ages to get there.*
(present tense, plus third person singular subject requires *-s* on a lexical verb)

Concordance A computer technique that allows searches to be conducted in a corpus for specific target words or phrases in their original textual environments. The most standard concordance type is called KWIC display (Key Word in Context), which highlights the chosen keyword in the centre of a line of words with its surrounding context on each side (**3d** for an example)

Corpus

Conditional clause A clause that expresses a condition or hypothesis about a situation. It is typically introduced by the subordinating conjunction *if*, and other conjunctions such as *unless*, *as soon as*:

If they promote her*, she'll get a big pay rise.*

Unless you try*, you'll never do it.*

Conjunction (another term for connector) Refers to items used to mark logical relationships between words, phrases, clauses and sentences. There are two types of conjunction: coordinating and subordinating. Coordinating conjunctions (or coordinators) (*and*, *but*, *or*) join linguistic units with equal grammatical status:

Mary felt ill ***and*** *could not go to school.*

Subordinating conjunctions (or subordinators) (*although, after, as, because, before, since, when*) indicate the semantic relationship between a subordinate clause and a main clause:

main	subordinate
He failed the exam	***although*** *he worked hard.*

Connector, connective

Conjunction

Continuous

Progressive

Contraction, contracted forms A phonologically reduced or simplified form attached to the preceding word: *I've* is a contracted form of *I have, haven't* is contracted from *have not*, *isn't* is contracted from *is not*.

Phonetics

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Conversion A process of word formation which involves a change in the functioning of a word from one word class to another without adding an affix:

*The film is an absolute **must** for all lovers of Westerns.*
(conversion from verb to noun)

*Can we **microwave** it?*
(conversion from noun to verb)

Coordination, coordinator Expresses a relation between linguistic units that are of equal grammatical status. Coordinators such as *and*, *but*, are used to link coordinated constructions:

*Kay **and** Stuart got married last week.*

Coordination is a principal way in which clauses are combined to form sentences:

*Jim brought me here **but** Phil's taking me home.*

Correlative coordinators refer to conjunctions such as *either … or* or *neither … nor*:

*I'll **either** phone **or** email him about it.*

Copula(r) verb Verbs such as *be*, *become*, *feel*, *remain*, *seem*, *smell*, *taste* that describe the states of people and things. A copular verb is used to link the subject and the complement of a clause:

*I **was** very excited.*

*It **seems** strange, doesn't it really?*

*It **smells** a bit funny.*

Copy tag

Tag

Core modal verb These are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, *would*, *should*, *must*, which are used to express various kinds of modal meaning, mainly referring to degrees of certainty and degrees of obligation. Modal verbs have only one form and do not indicate person, number, voice or aspect. They are placed first in the verb phrase and are followed by a verb (either an auxiliary verb or a lexical verb) in the base form:

*I **might** see you later.*
(speaker denotes a possibility, but not with certainty)

*I **must** phone her to find out how long she's staying.*
(speaker states an obligation or necessity)

Modality; Modal expressions; Semi-modal verb

Corpus A large collection of written text or transcribed speech which is stored and processed by computer so as to serve as a basis for linguistic analysis and description.

Correlative

Coordination, coordinator

Count (or countable) A grammatical distinction of nouns that refers to objects, people, animals and abstract entities that are treated as easily counted (*a cat/two cats*, *one egg/three eggs*).

Count nouns are contrasted with non-count (or uncountable) nouns.

Declarative A clause type that is typically associated with statements to make assertions and convey information. The word order in declarative clauses is subject + verb + x, where x is any other element present (e.g. object or complement):

subject	verb	x
She	*works*	*in publishing.*
I	*saw*	*him in the distance.*

Defining relative clause (or restrictive relative clause) A relative clause which defines or restricts the meaning of the head noun:

The guy *who shouted must have been on about the seventh floor.*
(defines *the guy*; specifies which guy is being referred to)

It is contrasted with a non-defining relative clause.

In this grammar book the terms defining and non-defining are used in preference to restrictive/non-restrictive.

Postmodification

Definite article Refers to determiner *the* which is used with a noun to define and specify entities projected as known to speaker/writer and listener/reader. It is contrasted with the indefinite article (*a/an*):

The *university is closed today.*

I'll try to put you through to ***the*** *right department.*

Degree adverb

Adverb

Deixis (adjective = **deictic**) A term for words or expressions that depend for their interpretation on the immediate external situation in which they are uttered. Deictic words are orientational features and are typically realised by determiners (*a, the, this, that, these, those*), adverbs (*here, there*), personal pronouns (*I, you, them*):

Could ***we*** *just move* ***that*** *into* ***this*** *corner* ***here****?*

Delexical verb Delexical verbs refer to common verbs (*do*, *give*, *have*, *make*, *take*) that combine with nouns to describe an action. The lexical meanings expressed by the verbs become weak (***do*** *some listening*, ***have*** *a swim*, ***take*** *a walk*). In such constructions, the nouns are referred to as deverbal nouns.

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Demonstrative Grammatical term for the items *this, that, these, those*. The demonstrative specifies whether the referent is close or distant in relation to the speaker:

This *is not correct.*

I'd like to have ***these*** *not* ***those****.*

Shall I put ***that*** *into* ***this*** *box over here?*

Deontic A characteristic of modality which involves the use of a modal verb to mark necessity, permission or obligation:

You ***may*** *go now.*
(permission)

I ***must*** *be careful what I say.*
(necessity/obligation)

In this book, terms such as necessity and obligation are used in preference to deontic.

Epistemic; Modality

Dependent clause Dependent clauses cannot stand alone, but depend on another sentence constituent, typically a main clause. Subordinate clauses and embedded clauses are dependent.

Main clause

Derivation A main process of word formation by which one word is formed ('derived') from another, most commonly by adding affixes to base forms. This brings about a change of meaning (*-able* indicates that something is possible; *mid-* indicates the middle part of something) and/or grammatical class (***mid****night,* ***un****fortunate,* ***re****do, read****able****, play****ful****, hope****less***).

Determiner Item which indicates the kind of reference a noun phrase has. Determiners include words like *a, the, some, my, his, each, those, which, several* which express a range of meanings including definite/indefinite (***the*** *dining room,* ***a*** *ruler*), possessive (***my*** *study,* ***their*** *children*), demonstrative (***this*** *box,* ***that*** *man,* ***these*** *teenagers*), quantifier (***some*** *milk,* ***every*** *citizen*), and numeral (***two*** *soldiers, the* ***second*** *birth*).

Deverbal noun

Delexical verb

Diminutive A form with an affix which has the meaning of 'small' or 'little'. A diminutive is used either literally or as a term of endearment (*-let*: *leaflet, booklet*; *-ling*: *duckling, darling*; *mini-*: *mini-cab, mini-skirt*; *-y: Johnny, doggy*),

Directive

Imperative

Direct object Refers to the noun phrase indicating the entity directly affected by an action:

S V O
*I | cut | **my finger**.*

Object; Indirect object

Direct speech Refers to a reconstruction of the exact words a speaker has said, usually involving quotation marks and without making any grammatical changes. Actual utterance: *'Keep quiet!'* Direct speech: *The teacher said, 'Keep quiet!'*

Direct speech is contrasted with indirect speech.

Discontinuous adjective phrase Refers to an adjective phrase which is split into two parts, with one part pre-head and the other post-head:

pre-head post-head
*He is | **as** | **tall** | **as his father**.*

Discourse Any naturally occurring stretch of language, spoken or written. Some linguists use the term to distinguish speech from writing, in which 'discourse' is used to refer to speech, and 'text' is used for writing.

Discourse marker A lexical category made up of words (*well, right*), phrases (*at the end of the day*), or clauses (*to be precise*). Discourse markers function to organise and monitor an ongoing discourse, most commonly in speech, by marking boundaries between one topic and the next (*so, right*), by indicating openings (*well, right*) and closure and pre-closure (*okay*) of topics, by indicating topic changes (*well*) or by bringing a conclusion to the discourse (*anyway, so*). They also function to mark the state of knowledge between participants (*you know, you see, I mean*).

Disjunct An adverbial expression which indicates the speaker's viewpoint towards or evaluation of what is said (*oddly, personally, fortunately, frankly, indeed*). Syntactically, it is less integrated in the clause structure and may modify the whole sentence or utterance:

*What was more, **oddly**, he seemed to have bought enough for two.*
(evaluative)

***Personally**, I don't think she's capable of doing the job.*
(viewpoint)

Ditransitive A term for verbs that are used with two objects to complete the meaning. In *My mother **made** | me | a cake.* | , *made* is ditransitive, with a direct object *a cake* and an indirect object *me*. Other verbs used ditransitively include *promise* (*I **promised** | the kids | a treat.* |) and *give* (*I **gave** | the beggar | some money.* |).

Downtoner A downtoner is a sub-class of intensifier that is used to mark a lessening effect on a particular aspect of meaning. This is achieved by adverbs such as *barely*, *hardly*, *partially*, *slightly*:

*Her heartbeat was **slightly** erratic.*

Intensifier

Dummy

Subject

Dynamic verb A verb which primarily expresses activity (*drink, eat, play, work*), process (*change, deteriorate, grow*) and bodily sensation (*ache, feel, hurt*). A dynamic verb can be used in the progressive aspect (*My dad is watching TV.*) and in the imperative (*Stop it!*).

Dynamic verbs are contrasted with stative verbs.

Ellipsis The non-use of words or phrases whose meanings are understood or implied between speakers and hearers, or are recoverable from the immediate text or context. In spoken English, ellipsis is a linguistic indicator of informality:

Right … what next?
(*What* ***is/will be/could happen/etc****. next?* verb understood)

Mud on my shirt!
(***There's/I've got*** *mud on my shirt!* subject and verb understood)

Embedding, embedded Refers to the use of a phrase or clause as a constituent of a higher level phrase or clause:

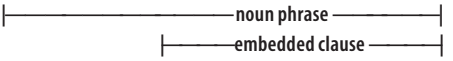

The man who ***you spoke to on the phone*** *is my uncle.*

Clause; Subordinate clause

Empty *it* Occurs when *it* is used as an empty pronoun, a 'dummy' subject form in anticipatory structures. Empty *it* does not refer to any specific object or entity:

It*'s very hot today, isn't it?*
(empty *it* as reference to weather)

It*'s getting late.*
(empty *it* as reference to situation)

Anticipatory structure

Endophora (adjective = **endophoric**) A term meaning reference to people, places, things and ideas within a text. Endophoric references are of two types: anaphoric (pointing backward to something mentioned earlier in the text) and cataphoric (pointing forward to something mentioned later in the text).

Exophora

Endweight Indicates where the most weight falls in terms of the focus on new information. In English, endweight is typically at the end of a clause.

Focus; Fronting

Epistemic A characteristic of modality concerned with the speaker's judgement about the certainty, probability or possibility of something. It involves an assessment of potential facts:

I ***might*** *see you later.*
(it is possible, not certain)

*I'**ll** see you tomorrow.*
(speaker is certain)

In this book, terms such as probability and possibility are used in preference to epistemic.

Deontic; Modality

Exclamation mark A form of punctuation which is used after an exclamative clause or when a sentence expresses emotive force (*How nice! Well done! I don't believe it!*).

Exclamative A phrase or a clause type that expresses the speaker's reaction of surprise, shock or strong impression. Exclamatives usually consist of phrases with *what* and *how* followed by a subject + verb construction. In writing, they are punctuated with an exclamation mark (!):

***What** a nuisance!*

***How** lovely you are!*

Interjection

Existential *there* Contains an indefinite subject which does not refer to any object or entity:

***There** were a lot of people in the town centre.*

***There**'s something I want to talk to you about.*

Sentence patterns with existential *there* enable a focus to be placed on the subject by locating it in the rheme (**Comment**) of the clause:

*We drove past one time and **there** was a woman standing outside.*

Exophora (adjective = **exophoric**) A term meaning reference to the situation outside of the text:

[on a public sign]
***This exit** must be kept clear at all times.*

Exophora is contrasted with anaphora and cataphora.

Endophora

Filler Refers to vocalisations (*er, erm, um, mm*) or words that are used to fill gaps in conversations. A filler can mark hesitation, a shift in topic (***Okay**, **erm**, let's move on.*), or can indicate the speaker's online process of thinking and planning (***Well**, of course, **erm**, I think we should take our time before taking any action.*).

Finite A finite clause contains a verb which signals a choice of tense (a tensed verb). It typically has a subject, and can be a main or subordinate clause:

*He **lives** on his own.*
(present tense)

Finite is contrasted with non-finite.

Non-finite

Fixed expression A term for routinised and pre-formulated expressions. Fixed expressions have a varying degree of fixity (*at the end of the day, as far as I am concerned, once and for all, how do you do?*).

Focus Enables special emphasis to be placed on particular elements of a clause through the use of fronting, headers and tails, cleft sentences, etc. for purposes such as introducing new topics, distinguishing between new and old information, foregrounding and backgrounding things:

That bowl *we got in Italy. The other one's from Spain, I think.*
(fronting of the object to show a contrast between the two bowls)

That brown chair*, we bought that years and years ago.*
(header gives extra focus to *that brown chair*)

He's quite a comic ***that fellow****.*
(tail gives extra focus to the subject *he*)

It was on Sunday *I first noticed I had a rash.*
(cleft sentence gives extra focus to *on Sunday*)

Backgrounding; Cleft; Fronting; Foregrounding; Header; Raised subject; Tail

Foregrounding Refers to grammatical structures used to highlight some important information in a discourse:

Perhaps ***what is most important is*** *the origin of such ideas.*
(the *wh*-cleft structure signals that this is a key sentence in what follows)

Backgrounding; Fronting

Formal A term associated with variation in speech or writing style in which choices of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary are made which express a polite distance between participants, as in formal situations such as debates and official ceremonies:

I should like to extend my warm welcome to all guests tonight.
(compare the more informal: *I want to welcome you all here tonight.*)

Free direct and indirect speech Free direct speech refers to a reconstruction of the exact words a speaker has said without a reporting clause. It is common in literary style and in informal spoken contexts when it is clear who is speaking:

They looked at each other knowingly.
'Okay?'
'Right, I'll come with you.'

Free indirect speech refers to a reconstruction of the words or thoughts of a speaker conveyed in a reported clause without a reporting verb. This is common in literary style:

David moved slowly and thoughtfully. ***He would not be deterred****.*
(implied: He said/thought, 'I won't be deterred.')

Direct speech

Fronting Refers to the front-placing of words or phrases in a clause or sentence which gives extra prominence to the items thus placed:

I really would like to see ***Berlin****.*
(object in neutral position, after the verb)

Berlin *I really would like to see.*
(object fronted for greater prominence)

Focus; Header; Tail; Topic

Gender A grammatical distinction in which words are marked for masculine, feminine or neuter. Only pronouns and possessive determiners are marked grammatically for gender (*he, him, she, it, his, hers*). However, English does occasionally distinguish gender in nouns for male or female people or animals (*She's a famous* ***actress****, isn't she*?).

Generic, generic pronoun A term used for a class of entities rather than a specific member of a class:

Leopards *are dangerous animals.*
(all leopards)

You *never know what the future will bring.*
(generic *you*: all humans)

Genitive A case that denotes a possessive relationship with another noun phrase in a sentence. It is realised by an *of*-phrase (*the headteacher* ***of*** *the school*), or by adding *'s* to singular nouns (*Lily****'s*** *toys, the woman****'s*** *husband*) and *s'* for plural nouns ending with *-s* (*the Teacher****s'*** *Union, the girl****s'*** *room*).

Gerund A word derived from a verb form which ends in *-ing* and is used as a noun. It is also referred to as a verbal noun or *-ing* noun:

Smoking *is hazardous to health.*

No ***eating*** *or* ***drinking*** *in the library.*

Gradable Refers to adjectives or adverbs which can be set on a scale of 'more' or 'less' in terms of their qualities, properties, states, conditions, relations, etc. (*good, small, easily, nicely*). Gradable adjectives and adverbs can be premodified by degree adverbs (*That's an* ***extremely*** *good camera.*) and can take the comparative and superlative inflections (*small****er****, small****est***), or be preceded by *more* or *most* (*more easily, most superior*).

Gradable is contrasted with non-gradable.

Non-gradable

Head, headword Refers to the central element of a phrase. The accompanying constituents in the phrase have a grammatical relationship with the head: *a new* ***home*** *for the children* (noun head), ***in*** *the country* (preposition head), *very* ***nice*** (adjective head), *rather* ***slowly*** (adverb head).

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Header Headers are a type of fronting which serve an orienting function in spoken utterances. They involve placing a noun phrase or a clausal construction at the front of a clause, followed by one or more pronouns which refer back to the noun phrase. A header indicates the main topic of the clause:

***That leather coat**, it looks really nice on you.*

***Walking into that room**, it brought back a lot of memories.*

Headers are contrasted with tails. The terms 'left dislocation' and 'pre-posed' are sometimes used to refer to headers.

Hedging A linguistic strategy used to avoid sounding too authoritative or direct. This can be achieved through negation, through short hedged replies, or by using expressions such as *kind of, sort of, probably, actually, really*:

*Sorry, but I do**n't really** feel like going out tonight.*

A: *I suppose you've made up your mind to buy the roses?*
B: *No, **not necessarily**.*

Softening

Historic present tense The use of present tense form for past reference. This occurs particularly in narratives, stories or jokes, usually for purposes of dramatising important events:

*Emma, this friend of mine, brought these photographs out of the family through the years and he**'s looking** at them, and he said 'Oh!'*

*Then suddenly he **picks** up the book and **tears** it into pieces. It was amazing, I couldn't believe it.*

Homograph, homophone, homonym These terms describe relationships of similarity between words. Homographs are words which have the same spelling (sometimes with different pronunciations) but different meanings:

saw (noun and past tense verb); *row* (/rəʊ/ and /raʊ/)

Homophones are words which have the same pronunciation but different meanings:

meat–meet, flour–flower, bare–bear

Homonyms are unrelated words which share the same pronunciation and spelling:

rose (flower and past tense of verb *rise*)

bank (river bank and financial institution)

mole (mark on a person's skin and small animal)

Honorific Words such as *sir* or *madam*. They are often respectful and deferential.

Hypercorrect A term used to describe excessive care in the production of speech or writing in order to sound educated and native-like which can lead to over-generalisation of rules:

The chips smell nice.
(hypercorrect: ~~The chips smell nicely.~~)

Imperative A clause type which is typically associated with directives, commands, orders, instructions, etc. It consists of the base form of the verb, typically with no overt subject, + any other required elements:

Get *some kitchen paper, quick!*

Sign *here, please.*

Indefinite article, indefinite pronoun Indefinite article refers to the determiner *a/an* that is used to express an indefinite meaning:

Give me ***a*** *pen, please.*

I went for ***an*** *eye test.*

An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun that expresses a non-specific or non-definite meaning (*someone, anybody, everything, many, one, more, all*).

Indicative A form of clause mood which expresses the factual or 'indicative' meaning of stating or questioning. It is the most frequent form and involves all the choices of person, tense, number, aspect, modality and voice (*It's a nice day.* ***Are*** *we* ***going*** *out?*).

Indicative is contrasted with imperative and subjunctive.

Indirect interrogative clause Refers to the use of *wh*-clause, a clause with *if/whether* or a nominal clause as object in a sentence. In order to avoid being too assertive or threatening, a direct interrogative is not used:

Tell me ***what you want for dinner****.*

Could I possibly ask ***why you're unable to attend****?*

I asked ***whether she wanted to stay*** *overnight.*

Indirect object Refers to the indirect recipient or beneficiary of an action which has a direct recipient. An indirect object (IO) always co-occurs with a direct object (DO):

S	V	IO	DO
The teacher	*gave*	***the pupils***	*some homework.*

Direct object; Object

Indirect speech (or reported speech) A reconstruction of the words of a speaker conveyed in a reported clause, accompanied by a reporting clause with verbs such as *tell, say, reply, suggest, mention*. For example, direct speech *He said, 'I am unhappy.'* contrasts with indirect speech *He told me/said that he was unhappy*.

Infinitive The non-tensed form of a verb that usually combines with *to* (*It's time for me* ***to order now****.*). It can also occur without *to* (also known as the 'bare infinitive') (*I may* ***see*** *you tomorrow; let me* ***help***).

Inflection A process of word formation in which items are added to the base form of a word to express grammatical meanings. For example: the *-s* on *dogs* indicates plural; the past form *drank* contrasts with the present *drink*; the *-est* on *cleverest* indicates the superlative form.

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Informal A term associated with variation in speech or writing style in which a more relaxed and colloquial choice of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary is made, projecting a closer relationship among participants:

I got into Oxford on law.
(informal)

I was accepted by Oxford University to study law.
(formal)

-ing* form** A non-tensed verb form which is made by adding *-ing* to the base form, and is used with auxiliary *be* to form progressive aspect (*I **was doing** some work for Sally.*). It also occurs in non-finite clauses (*Please listen carefully to all the options before **making** your choice.*), and functions as a noun-like form sometimes called the gerund (Smoking** is not allowed*; *I'm tired of **shouting**.*).

Intensifier An adverb which strengthens, intensifies or focuses on a particular aspect of the meaning of an item. Intensifiers are often subdivided into amplifiers (*very, really, completely, extremely*) and downtoners (*partially, hardly, barely, slightly*):

*I was **extremely** annoyed.*

Interjection A term for exclamatory words or expressive vocalisations used to express emotional reactions such as surprise, shock, delight (*crikey, gosh, hooray, oh, ouch, wow*):

***Gosh**! That's quick.*

***Ouch**, that hurts!*

Exclamative

Interrogative A clause type that is typically associated with questions. The normal word order is auxiliary/modal verb + subject + verb + X, where X is any other element present (e.g. object/predicative complement):

***Do you need** any help at all?*

*Where **did you have** your hair done?*

Indirect interrogative clause

Intonation Use of variation in pitch, loudness, rhythm and syllable length associated with different types of meaning. For example, in *wh*-questions, the intonation is typically a falling tone (↘) on the most important syllable:

*When are you **lea**ving?*

Intransitive Refers to the use of verbs without any other items being necessary to complete their meaning, for example, verbs such as *appear*, *begin*, *die*, *go*, *laugh*, *rain*, *happen*):

*The old man **died**.*

*We all **laughed**.*

Inversion A reversal of the usual sequence of constituents. For example, in an interrogative clause, the subject and auxiliary/modal verb are inverted (***Are we** going to have a party?*).

Irregular verb Refers to the form of verb which has a variety of types of ending and internal change applied to the base form. Irregular verbs are similar to regular verbs in making their *-s* form and *-ing* participle (*speak**s**, speak**ing**; meet**s**, meet**ing**; take**s**, tak**ing**; swim**s**, swimm**ing***). But almost all irregular verbs are irregular in their past form and *-ed* participle (*sp**oke**, sp**oken**; met, met; t**ook**, take**n**; sw**am**, sw**um***).

Left dislocation

Header

Lexeme Refers to the underlying forms of words which can only belong to one word class. For example, the word *water* has a similar meaning when used as a noun (*I drank the **water**.*) and when used as a verb (*I must **water** the plants.*) but it is a different lexeme in each case. Forms such as *water, waters, watering* and *watered* are grammatically distinct forms of the same lexeme, the verb *water*.

Lexical Concerned with vocabulary rather than grammar, and concerned with content meaning rather than grammatical meaning. Nouns, adjectives, adverbs and most verbs are lexical items. Modal and auxiliary verbs, prepositions, pronouns, etc. are treated as grammatical, not lexical, items.

Linking adjunct A single word or phrase which explicitly indicates the semantic relationship between two clauses, sentences or paragraphs. The semantic relations that are signalled by linking adjuncts include: additive (*also, above all*); resultative (*so, therefore*); contrastive (*rather, on the contrary*); inference (*then, in that case*); time (*eventually, then*); concessive (*anyway, though*); summative (*overall, in short*); listing (*firstly, lastly*); and meta-textual (*namely, so to speak*).

Locative, locative complement Refers to a prepositional phrase which locates the object in terms of place or time. A locative complement occurs after certain verbs of placement and direction such as *bring, drive, lay, lead, put, show, stand, take*:

verb object locative complement
*Edith | led | her | **through her own front door**.*

verb object locative complement
*Did you | put | your stuff | **in our bedroom**?*

Main clause (another term for independent clause) This is a clause that can form a sentence on its own. It must have a tensed verb (a verb indicating tense):

***I went to speak to them**.*
(one main clause as whole sentence)

***I like ice cream** but **I don't like yoghurt**.*
(main clause + main clause)

*After you have returned home, **please give me a ring**.*
(subordinate clause + main clause)

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Marked Refers to an untypical use of something.

Marked word order in English refers to word order which is untypical; for example, the word order O-S-V is marked:

O S V
That furniture we bought years ago, this lot is more recent.
(marked word order: *that furniture* is the theme, rather than *we*)

Marked word order is used to create various kinds of focus on particular elements for a variety of purposes.

When a grammatical or semantic structure is distinguished by a contrast between widespread, normal regional/social varieties of British English and less widespread ones, it is referred to as regionally or socially marked (e.g. the use of *ain't*).

Marked stress refers to the use of extra force in pronunciation or in intonation to make words or syllables sound louder or more emphatic.

Middle construction

Pseudo-intransitive

Modal expression Refers to expressions that carry modal meanings apart from the modal and semi-modal verbs. These include:

- verbs (e.g. *allow, demand, hope, let, make, seem, want, wish*):

  *She **seems** to be quite clever for her age.*

- grammaticalised modal phrases (e.g. *be going to, be meant to, be obliged to, be supposed to, had better*):

  *I thought I **had better** warn you now.*

- modal adjectives, adverbs and nouns (e.g. *certain(ly), definite(ly), possible, probability, supposedly*):

  *Would it be **possible** for me to have a copy of the document?*

Modality Refers to a speaker's or a writer's attitude towards, or point of view about, a state of the world. It is centrally concerned with the expression of certainty, volition, possibility and obligation. Core modal verbs (*can, could, may, might, will, shall, would, should, must*) and semi-modals (*dare, need, ought to, used to*) are the principal way in which modal meanings are expressed.

Core modal verb; Semi-modal verb

Modification A term used to refer to the structural dependence of one grammatical unit on another in which the meaning of the head of a phrase is affected by words that are used to indicate qualities and attributes of the head. For example, in the noun phrase *those **big** boxes **in the garage***, both *big* and *in the garage* modify *boxes*, performing premodification and postmodification, respectively.

Mono-transitive Refers to verbs that require an object. In *I **took** the last piece of bread, took* is a mono-transitive verb, with its direct object *the last piece of bread*. The direct object is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a clause, as in *You always **know** what I'm thinking*.

Transitive verb

Mood A grammatical category relating to the speaker's or writer's attitude to express a factual, non-factual or directive meaning through the verb. The three moods distinguished are indicative (*She **enjoys** her new job.*), imperative (***Enjoy** your meal!*) and subjunctive (*We insist that he **enjoy** the meal first before making his speech.*).

Imperative; Indicative; Subjunctive

Morpheme A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a word. Some words consist of just one morpheme (*help*), some consist of several (*unhelpful* consists of three morphemes: the base form *help*, the prefix *un-* and the suffix *-ful*).

Morphology Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, and includes the study of base forms, affixes, compounding, derivation, etc.

Multi-word verb A lexical verb which may be combined with one or two particles to function as a verb with a unitary meaning. There are three kinds of multi-word verb. Phrasal verbs have adverb particles (*sit down, go away, get off, give in*). Prepositional verbs take a preposition (*go against, call on, look after*), and phrasal-prepositional verbs take both an adverb and a preposition (*look forward to, look down on, catch up with, put up with*).

Negation Refers to a grammatical construction with negative polarity. Negation can be formed through affixes (***un**healthy, **ir**responsible, **non**-existent, care**less***), and through negative words like *not, no, neither, never, no one, nobody, none*:

*George has **not** been here recently.*

A: *Are**n't** you ready yet?*
B: ***No**. **Not** yet.*

Negation is contrasted with affirmative meanings which have positive polarity.

Nominal clause A clause type that fulfils a noun-like function (e.g. an object):

nominal clause		complement
Writing novels	*is*	*not easy.*

subject	verb	nominal clause
I	*know*	***what you mean**.*

Nominalisation

Nominalisation Involves forming a noun from other parts of speech, most commonly from verbs or adjectives (*flying ➛ flight, bright ➛ brightness, long ➛ length, industrial ➛ industrialisation*).

The nominalised form offers the possibility of a more formal expression of the equivalent verb or adjective meaning:

*I was dazzled by the **extremely bright** lights.*

*I was dazzled by **the extreme brightness** of the lights.*

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Nominative

Case

Non-count (or uncountable) A grammatical distinction of nouns which denote things that are treated as indivisible wholes, for instance, materials and liquids, states of mind, conditions, topics, processes and substances (*water, cheese, music, information, sand, love*). With non-count nouns there is no contrast in number between singular and plural:

*They gave us some **information**.*
(~~They gave us some informations.~~)

Non-defining relative clause (or non-restrictive relative clause) This is a clause that describes or gives additional information to the head noun in a noun phrase. A non-defining clause usually begins with a relative pronoun *who, whom, which, whose*, and is marked off by a comma in writing:

*Have you ever heard of **Guy Preston**, who had a hit song with 'Loving Ways'*?
(describes or gives extra information about Guy Preston)

Non-defining relative clauses are contrasted with defining relative clauses.

Postmodification

Non-finite Non-finite clauses contain a verb which does not indicate tense, for example, an infinitive (*We queued up early so as **to get** a good seat.*), an *-ed* participle (*You should read the parts **highlighted** in yellow.*) or an *-ing* form (***Coming** round the corner, we spotted the old house.*).

Finite

Non-gradable Refers to adjectives or adverbs that cannot be graded on a scale of 'more' or 'less' in terms of the property they describe (*dead/alive, male/female, truly, main, married*). Non-gradable adjectives and adverbs cannot take the comparative or superlative inflection, nor can they be preceded or premodified by words like *more, most, quite, rather, so, very* (*more male, rather dead, very truly, very married* are not possible).

Non-gradable is contrasted with gradable.

Gradable

Non-restrictive relative clause

Non-defining relative clause

Non-standard A term that refers to the use of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation that does not conform to the norms used by educated native speakers of the standard variety. An example is the use of *ain't* as a negative contraction in speech:

*I know something. That **ain't** the answer.*
(standard form: *isn't*)

Non-tensed Any verb form which does not indicate present or past tense, e.g. the *-ing* form or the infinitive.

Non-tensed is contrasted with tensed.

Noun (proper, common, concrete, abstract), noun phrase Refers to words which denote classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states (*accident, cat, club, competition*).

A noun phrase has a noun or pronoun as its head. Noun phrases can act as the subject (S), object (O) or predicative complement (C) of a clause:

S O
*My **father** used to play the **piano**.*

C
*You're a good **friend**.*

Nouns can be divided into proper nouns and common nouns. Proper nouns give names to people and things (*Tony Blair, Greece, Oxfam*). Nouns which are not proper nouns are common nouns (*table, boy, heat*).

Concrete nouns refer to physical entities that can be observed and measured (*cat, garage, soldier*). Abstract nouns refer to abstractions that cannot be observed and measured (*competition, conscience*).

Collective noun

Number A grammatical distinction which contrasts singular and plural in nouns (*story–stories*), pronouns (*I–we*), determiners (*this–these*) and verbs (*he works hard–they work hard*).

Object Refers to a clause element that follows the verb, and includes both direct (bold in the examples) and indirect (in green) objects. Objects indicate the direct and indirect recipients of actions. Objects are made up of noun phrases (*I like **that restaurant**. Joe gave me **a present**.*).

Orthography A term that deals with the writing system in a language: the distinctive written symbols and their possible combinations.

Participle The non-tensed forms of verbs ending in *-ing* (*working, joining, trying*) and *-ed* (*worked, joined, tried*) are called the *-ing* and *-ed* participles. In irregular verbs, the *-ed* participles display variant forms (*burnt, swollen, taught, taken, gone*).

Particle Refers to a small group of words mostly made up of adverbs and prepositions. They are closely linked to verbs to form multi-word verbs (*sit **down**, go **away**, go **astray**, look **forward** to, look **down** on*). Other particles include *not*, and *to* used with an infinitive.

Partitive A quantifying expression used before a non-count noun to specify the units, parts and collections of things (***a pair of** trousers, **a piece of** paper, **a bunch of** roses, **four slices of** ham*).

Quantifier

Part of speech Another term for word class, referring to the linguistic units that realise sentence elements.

Class

Passive

Active

Perfect A type of aspect that gives information about a speaker's perspective on the relationship of events to the moment of speaking or to some other point in time. It is realised by auxiliary *have* + *-ed* participle of a lexical verb.

The present perfect relates events or states taking place in the past to a present time orientation:

*I**'ve made** a lot of friends since I moved here.*

The past perfect relates situations or events anterior to a time of orientation in the past:

*She **had been** unhappy for years and so decided to join the slimming class.*

Performative A term that refers to a type of utterance that performs a speech act simply by saying it (*I name this ship 'Victory'*; *I apologise*).

Person A grammatical category which indicates the choice of personal reference and number. Three kinds of contrast exist: first person (which includes the speaker/writer, e.g. *I, my, we, our*), second person (which refers to the addressee, e.g. *you, yours*), and third person (which refers to a third party, e.g. *he, she, it, they, him, her, its*). These distinctions apply to personal, possessive and reflexive determiners and pronouns.

Phatic Communication where participants are less concerned to convey information than to build a relationship or to make social contact; for example, talking about the weather is phatic in several cultures.

Phonetics, phonology Phonetics is concerned with the study of physical properties of speech sounds in a language, and the actual articulation or production of speech sounds. Phonology is the study of the sound system in a language.

Phrasal verb, phrasal-prepositional verb

Multi-word verb

Phrase A word or group of words which form grammatical units such as noun phrase, verb phrase or adjective phrase. Phrases are the constituents of clauses.

Pitch Refers to the way in which speakers vary their sound level. Pitch movement is denoted by a rising or falling tone as a result of the vibration of the vocal cord.

Intonation

Plural A grammatical category in number that refers to more than one, in the case of nouns (*tables, computers*), verbs (*they come*), pronouns (*we, they*), etc.

Singular

Polarity (adjective = **polar**) A term used to mark affirmative/negative contrasts in a clause:

The children are lovely.
(affirmative)

*They **don't** do it during the summer.*
(negative)

Polar (or *yes-no*) questions demand the answer *yes* or *no*:

Are you a teacher?
(yes or no?)

Position (front, mid, end) Refers to the 'location' of a grammatical element in a clause. The three possible positions are front, mid and end positions. For example, adjuncts can occupy a variety of positions in a clause:

***In the morning** we had to pretend nothing happened.*
(front position)

*We **sometimes** go to Rochester.*
(mid position)

*That young guy seems to deliver the post **quite often these days**.*
(end position)

Objects and predicative complements have slightly less flexibility and occasionally occur in less typical positions for reasons of emphasis.

Compared with written English, positioning in spoken conversation is generally more flexible (*Are my keys in the door **still**?/Are my keys **still** in the door?*).

Focus

Possessive A word or part of a word that describes possession: possessive determiner (*my, your, his, her, its, our, their*); possessive pronoun (*mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs*); genitive (*cow**'s** milk, men**'s** jacket*); the *of* construction (*the rules **of** the school, a student **of** this class*).

Post-head Refers to the dependent elements that come after the head in a phrase. They can be complements and postmodifiers. Complements complete the meaning of the head and they precede postmodifiers:

post-head
head complement
*a | rise | **in interest rates***

head post-head
complement
*She was too | tired | **to work**.*

post head
head complement postmodifier
*Students | **of astronomy** | **at Cambridge** all get very high grades.*

Complement, complementation; Modification

Postmodification, postmodifier A term used to refer to the modification which occurs after the head word in a phrase:

noun postmodifier
*The children | **who are playing in the playground** | live down the street.*

adverb postmodifier
*Luckily | **enough**, | I had a spare key.*

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Pragmatics (adjective = **pragmatic**) The study of communication in relation to the intended meanings of particular utterances within particular situations. For instance, *It is cold here.* is typically heard as a statement of fact; however, depending on the intention of the speaker and the context of the utterance, it can be a complaint, a challenge or a request to shut a window.

Speech act

Predicate, predicative The part of a clause which elaborates what the subject is, does or experiences. It consists of the verb and its object or complement:

subject predicate
Susan | ***won the race***.

Predicative refers to a clause element that occurs in the predicate:

predicative adj
The old lady is | ***very nice***.

predicative subject complement
These books are | ***encyclopaedias***.

Prefix An affix that is attached to the beginning of a base form to create a new word (***mis****understanding*, ***post****-war*, ***re****check*, ***un****happy*, ***anti****-social*).

Derivation; Word formation

Pre-head Refers to the dependent elements that come before the head in a phrase. In the noun phrase, they can be determiners and premodifiers. Determiners indicate the type of reference for the whole noun phrase and they come before premodifiers:

|——pre-head——| head
det premodifier
some | ***baked*** | *potatoes*

|——pre-head——| head
det premodifier
all | ***university*** | *students*

Modification

Premodification, premodifier A term used to refer to the modification which occurs before the head word in a phrase. Modifiers which occur before the head are premodifiers (*a* ***different*** *bus*, ***rather*** *good*, ***very*** *quickly*, ***right*** *on the edge*).

Pre-posed, post-posed

Header; Tail

Preposition, prepositional phrase, preposition stranding Class of word used to express relationships between two events, things or people in terms of time (***at*** *2 o'clock*), space (***to*** *the school*) and other abstract relations (*the capital city* ***of*** *Brazil*). Prepositions can occur as single words (*about, at, by, into*) or in pairs (*out of, next to, as for*).

A phrase with a preposition as the head followed by a complement is called a prepositional phrase (*I'll come* ***with*** *you*.).

Preposition stranding occurs when the preposition is separated from its complement and placed at the end of the clause:

complement preposition
What *was she referring* ***to****?*

Preposition stranding

Preposition

Present perfect Used to relate events or states taking place in the past to a present time orientation. It has simple and progressive forms:

*We****'ve had*** *that TV set for fifteen years.*
(fifteen years ago till now)

*So, what****'s been happening*** *since the last time we met?*
(from that moment till now)

The simple form is used to emphasise completed and punctual events:

Advertising agency FCB ***has carried out*** *extensive research on how people on short-term contracts feel about their jobs.*

The present perfect progressive can place greater emphasis on the duration of an event up to the present moment to indicate an uninterrupted action:

*I****'ve been waiting*** *for you for over an hour.*

Proform Proforms function to substitute for the object, complement, adjunct, or the whole clause in a sentence. For instance, definite pronouns (*he, this, those*) or indefinite pronouns (*one, all, none*), auxiliary verbs (*do, have*), or adverbs (*so, similarly*) can be used as proforms:

A: *Oh those cakes look lovely.*
B: ***They do****, don't they?*
(***they*** is a proform for *those cakes*; ***do*** is a proform for *look lovely*)

Ellipsis; Substitution

Progressive (or continuous) A grammatical aspect which sees time in terms of its unfolding at the moment of speaking, and observes actions and events as incomplete, in progress or developing. It is realised by auxiliary verb *be* and the *-ing* form of a lexical verb:

We ***are leaving*** *now.*

They ***are travelling*** *through Italy at the moment.*

In this grammar book the term progressive is used in preference to continuous.

Pronoun An item used to substitute for the references to entities which lexical noun phrases indicate:

Your boxes of photos have been delivered. ***They****'re in the kitchen.*
(they = your boxes of photos)

The main sub-classifications include personal (*he, you*), possessive (*his, yours*), reflexive (*himself, yourselves*), reciprocal (*each other, one another*), relative (*who, which, that*), interrogative (*who, what, which*), demonstrative (*this, these, that, those*), and indefinite (*some, none*).

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Proposition The topic and comment in a clause together constitute a proposition:

topic comment
We | baked some potatoes in the fire.

Prosody (adjective = **prosodic**) Refers to variations in spoken features such as stress, rhythm, intonation, voice quality, pitch, loudness, tempo, pauses.

Prototypical Shows that a category or representation is the most typical, usual, or characteristic. For example, prototypical questions have interrogative form and function to elicit information.

Pseudo-cleft A grammatical structure which allows end focus to be placed on the clause element. Pseudo-cleft sentences are most often introduced by a *what*-clause which provides old or given information, while the copular complement contains the new, important information:

What we need *is a hammer.*

What you want *is a telephone bank account.*

Cleft

Pseudo-intransitive (or middle construction) Refers to the use of verbs intransitively which are normally used transitively in clauses (*clean, close, cook, drive, iron, photograph, read*). In this construction, the agent is not mentioned and the recipient/beneficiary of the action becomes the grammatical subject. This gives endweight to the verb (and any accompanying complement/adjunct):

Fish ***cooks*** *quickly.*

Helen ***photographs*** *really well, doesn't she?*

Transitive

Pseudo-passive Structures based on *get* and *have* which are more common in spoken language. Pseudo-passives are similar to true passives in that the grammatical subject is typically the recipient, rather than the agent/doer, of the action:

They ***got deported****.*

She ***had her car damaged****.*

Causative; Passive

Punctuation This involves conventions such as the comma (,), colon (:), semi-colon (;), full-stop (.), hyphen (-), question mark (?), exclamation mark (!), quotation marks (' '), dashes (—), parentheses ( ). Punctuation functions to separate grammatical units and paragraphs in written language, and to specify particular properties of units through quotation marks, italics, initial capitals, bold face, etc.

Quantifier A word or phrase used before a noun to express a positive or negative contrast in quantity. There are closed and open classes of quantifiers.

Closed class: *all, some, many, much, few, little, several, enough,* etc.

Open class: *a lot of, plenty of, large amounts of, a bottle of, two loaves of,* etc.

Partitive

Question (*yes-no, wh-*, alternative, follow-up, echo, display, two-step) An utterance (most typically in interrogative form) which requires a verbal response from the addressee.

Yes-no questions ask if something is true, and require a response of *yes* or *no*:

A: ***Are you ready***?
B: *Yes/no.*

Wh-questions are introduced by words such as *who*, *what*, *why*, and require information to be given in the response:

A: ***What time are you leaving***?
B: *Six o'clock.*

Alternative questions present options for the respondent to choose from:

A: ***Would you like tea or coffee***?
B: *Er, tea, please.*

Follow-up questions serve to request further specification. They usually appear as short questions with *wh*-words:

A: *I've done lots of work.*
B: ***Have you***? ***Like what***?
A: *Like writing a first draft of my essay.*

Echo questions seek confirmation or clarification of what has been said by repeating part of the speaker's utterance. They often have a declarative word order and an end-position *wh*-word:

A: *Pay attention to this!*
B: ***Pay attention to what***?

Display questions seek confirmation of something the speaker already knows, with the purpose of putting knowledge or information on public display. Display questions are common in contexts such as classrooms, quiz shows and other tests of knowledge:

Teacher: ***What is the capital of France***?
Pupil: *Paris.*

Two-step questions involve a two-stage process in which one question may act as a preface for another question:

A: ***Are you going to the match tonight***?
B: *Yeah, I am.*
A: ***Do you mind if I tag along***?

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Raised subject Refers to the placing of items as subjects of their clauses in order to create different types of focus. Very often adjectives (*easy, difficult, hard, likely, certain, impossible*), verbs (*seem, appear, look*) and mental process verbs in the passive (*be found, be considered, be estimated*) are involved:

To summarise our work *is impossible.*
(*to summarise our work*, the complement of *impossible*, is raised as the subject)

Jina'*s quite difficult to understand.*
(*Jina*, the object of *understand*, is raised as the subject)

It *seems that nobody does anything.*
(anticipatory *it* is raised as the subject)

Focus; Subject

Rank-shifting Refers to the phenomenon where an item associated with a higher rank in the grammar shifts to a lower rank. In the sentence *Two people I know have gone there.*, the clause *I know* modifies the head noun *people*, and is a constituent (an embedded clause) of a subject noun phrase which is of a lower grammatical rank.

Recipient of action Refers to the person or thing that is the affected participant of an action. In the passive sentence ***Those houses*** *were built by John Walton.*, *those houses* is the recipient of action as well as the grammatical subject. The agent is indicated by the *by*-phrase *by John Walton*.

In *get*- and *have*-pseudo-passive constructions, the grammatical subject is typically the recipient, rather than the agent, of the action (***The thief*** *got arrested.* ***Mary*** *had her watch stolen.*).

Pseudo-passive

Reciprocal, reciprocal verb, reciprocal pronoun A term that expresses a two-way relationship. A reciprocal use of a verb suggests that the coordinated subjects are doing the same thing to each other (*meet, divorce, kiss, separate, fight*):

Frank and Diane ***met*** *in 1979.*

A reciprocal pronoun refers to a mutual relationship between people or things:

They hate ***each other/one another****.*

Reduced clause, reduced question Reduced clauses refer to incomplete clause structures where verbs are ellipted:

A: *Has he eaten the cauliflower?*
B: ***Not all of it****.* (reduced clause)

Reduced questions refer to interrogative clauses where verbs are ellipted.

A: ***You hungry****?* (reduced question)
B: *Mm, a bit.*

They occur in very informal, highly context-dependent situations, especially when meaning is very clear.

Ellipsis

Reduplicative compound, reduplication A form of compound which involves identical or near identical or rhyming bases. Reduplicative compounds are often very informal in usage and are used in talk by or with children (*goody-goody, tick-tock* (clock), *bow-wow* (dog), *easy-peasy*).

Reference, referent, referring expression Terms used to indicate how speakers and writers refer to people, places, things and ideas. The broad distinctions are endophoric (reference to situation within the text) and exophoric (reference to situation outside the text). Endophoric references are divided into anaphoric and cataphoric. The referent is the entities referred to:

referent referring expression
The children *looked tired. They had been travelling all day.*

referent referring expression
They arrived at ***the resort****. Here at last was a place they could relax.*

Anaphora; Cataphora; Endophora; Exophora

Reflexive A construction that contains a verb with a reflexive pronoun object, or a reflexive pronoun complement of a preposition where the referent of the complement is the same as that of the subject:

Shall I serve ***myself****?*

Did you hurt ***yourself****?*

He kept it all for ***himself****.*

Reformulation Some discourse markers can signal reformulations or alternative expressions, indicating that the speaker has not selected the most appropriate way of expressing things and is refining what they say with a more apt word or phrase. Among such markers are: *I mean, so to speak, to put it another way*.

Register Refers to the style of speaking or writing that is used in particular fields of discourse or particular social contexts (e.g. academic writing, journalism, advertising, legal, science and literary conventions).

Regular verb Refers to the form of verb which simply adds inflections to the base form without any change (base form: *cough*; present form: *cough*; *-s* form: *cough****s***; *-ing* form: *cough****ing***; past form: *cough****ed***; *-ed* participle: *cough****ed***).

Relative clause Relative clauses are of two main kinds:

- embedded clauses used to postmodify noun heads (*The book* ***that I want*** *is not available in the library*.)
- sentential relative clauses: *which*-clauses referring to a whole sentence or stretch of discourse (*She's always out when I call,* ***which is very inconvenient****.*)

Normally they are preceded by a relative pronoun.

Defining relative clause; Non-defining relative clause

Relative pronoun Refers to words (*who, whom, whose, which, that*) which introduce a relative clause:

*The lady **who** runs this shop has just moved.*

*The book **that** I am reading is fascinating.*

Sometimes the relative pronoun can be omitted, referred to as a zero relative pronoun.

Reporting clause, reported clause A reporting clause introduces someone's speech or thoughts (***Nick said**, 'Hello.'*) The speech or thought itself is contained in the reported clause (*She said **she was leaving**.*).

Request A form of speech act where the speaker desires a particular course of action from the listener, and the listener has a choice whether to act in the way indicated. For example, it can be realised by *can/could, will/would, would you like to, would you mind* in interrogatives:

A: ***Will you** get me a glass of water?*
B: *Yeah.*

***Would you** take this letter to the post for me?*

Response token Word or phrase used to acknowledge what a speaker says, and to indicate on the part of the listener interest or engagement in what is being said. Response tokens include minimal response tokens (sounds or words like *oh, mm, yeah, okay, no*), and non-minimal response tokens, which are frequently made up of adjectives and adverbs or short phrases or clauses (*great, exactly, very good, that's true*).

Restrictive relative clause

Defining relative clause

Rheme

Comment

Rhetorical question An interrogative clause used for rhetorical effect, posing a question to which the reader or listener is not expected to give an informative verbal response (*Who knows where I'll be next year?*).

Right dislocation

Tail

Semantics Refers to the study of meaning, which includes the meanings of words and the meanings of larger semantic units, e.g. sentences.

Semi-modal verb A kind of marginal modal verb (*dare, need, ought to, used to*) which expresses modal meanings. They behave like core modal verbs which do not take auxiliary *do* in the negative (***I dare not** tell her what's happened.*). But they also behave like lexical verbs as they allow an auxiliary to precede them (*Marie **didn't dare** say anything to them.*).

Core modal verb; Modality

Sentence The largest independent unit of grammar. It consists of at least one main clause. In writing, sentence boundaries are defined by an initial capital letter and a full stop, an exclamation mark or a question mark at the end. Sentences are composed of clauses.

Simple aspect Simple aspect is in contrast with progressive aspect. Simple aspect involves base and inflected forms of verbs (*she sings, they ran, we have eaten, he'll leave*); progressive aspect involves the use of *be* + *-ing* with a verb (*she's singing, they were running, we have been eating, he'll be leaving*).

Singular The most common form of nouns (*table, computer*), verbs (*she cries*), pronouns (*he, she, it*), etc. It denotes only one in number. Singular contrasts with plural.

Softening The effect of mitigating, or weakening, the force of what is written or said to make a speech act more polite or less assertive. For example, the use of tense and aspect (past tense, progressive or perfect aspect), lexical verbs (*reckon, wonder, hope, think*) and modal verbs (*may, should, can, could*) can help to achieve this effect:

I wondered *if you****'d*** *help me out in the garden.*

I ***was hoping*** *they were not here.*

I ***reckon*** *that's what you* ***should*** *do.*
(compare: That is what you must do.)

Hedging

Speech act Refers to the speaker's intention rather than the propositional meaning (content) of the utterance. The sentence *I am hot.* has the propositional meaning of a sensation of increased temperature by the speaker, but it may be heard as a complaint, or a request or order to someone to open a window. Common speech acts in everyday situations include informing, directing, complaining, exemplifying, offering, apologising, promising, permitting.

Speech reporting, speech representation A term for reporting one's own or another person's speech by using a reporting clause (*he said, I replied, they asked*). The accompanying speech, thought or writing is called the reported clause and can be either direct or indirect speech.

Speech representation

Speech reporting

Split infinitive Refers to the use of an adverb or other item between *to* and the infinitive form of the verb (*I want you to* ***seriously*** *consider his resignation.*). Some people have objections to this usage on stylistic grounds.

Stance Refers to a speaker's or writer's attitude towards the proposition of an utterance. Among the expressions which commonly signal stance are: *admittedly, basically, frankly, if you ask me, obviously, sadly, to be honest.*

Standard A term used to refer to the most prestigious variety of the language based on the spoken and written norms adopted by educated native speakers in domains such as the mass media, foreign language teaching, dictionary compilation and similar institutionalised uses. Linguistic forms which deviate from this norm are viewed as non-standard.

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Statement A sentence which conveys information, makes assertions, and describes actions, feelings, or a state of affairs. A statement is most typically a declarative clause (*He works in Barsham.*). Statements are contrasted with questions.

Stative verb, state verb A verb that describes a state or situation, in which no obvious action takes place. A stative verb cannot normally be used with the progressive aspect:

He hates me.
(~~He is hating me.~~)

I believe you.

Dynamic verb

Stem Refers to the form of a word to which prefixes and suffixes are attached (*re**duce,** un**trace**able, **snow**y, **capt**ive*).

Stranded preposition

Preposition

Sub-class Refers to elements of a class of word. For example, gradable and non-gradable adjectives are sub-classes of adjectives.

Class

Subject, dummy subject Identifies the doer or agent of an action, a state or an event, in the form of either a noun phrase or a nominal clause. It usually precedes the verb in a declarative clause and determines the person and number of the verb (***My mother** works **s** there.*).

Dummy subject refers to the use of *it* or *there* as a non-referential pronoun which fills the required subject position:

***It** is good to be here.*
(~~Is good to be here.~~)

***There**'s a cat walking across the garden.*

Empty *it*

Subjunctive A form of mood which expresses wished for or desired states, after verbs such as *insist, demand, recommend, require, stipulate*. It is realised by the base form of the verb for all persons, with no inflections. It is associated with very formal styles (*I insist that she **do** these things herself.*).

Subordinate clause A dependent clause that cannot form a sentence on its own, and is usually linked to a main clause by a subordinating conjunction such as *although, because, before, for, that, when*. A subordinate clause may be finite or non-finite (*I spoke to her **before** she left.*).

Subordinator Another term for subordinating conjunction.

Subordinate clause

Substitution A term used to refer to the use of a proform to substitute a previously mentioned entity. It is a device for brevity to avoid repetition. Substitution can occur at phrasal and clausal levels:

*Peter has bought a new jacket and Sam has bought **one** too.*

*Cambridge is the most prestigious university in the UK. People say **so**.*

Suffix An affix that is attached to the end of a base form to create a new word. This process typically changes the word class: noun suffixes (*act**ion**, train**ee**, free**dom**, arriv**al***); adjective suffixes (*inform**al**, home**less**, grate**ful***); verb suffixes (*simpl**ify**, dark**en**, international**ise***); adverb suffixes (*quick**ly**, home**ward(s)**, clock**wise***).

Superlative The form of a gradable adjective or adverb which is used to specify the most or the least of qualities, properties, states, conditions, relations, etc. among entities. The superlative is realised by the suffix *-est*, or use of *(the) most*:

*Of all of them, Tom is **cleverest**.*

*Tom is **the tallest** boy in class.*

*Tom is **the most handsome** boy in class.*

Suppletion Refers to a word which completely changes its shape in its inflected forms (*good, better, best*).

Swearing A form of taboo language that is considered to be rude or blasphemous. People use swear words to express strong feelings like annoyance, frustration and anger.

Syntax Concerns the rules that govern the arrangement of words in phrases, clauses and sentences, i.e. the study of the structure of sentences.

Taboo language Contains swearing or other types of words or phrases which carry an intensifying and often negative comment on people and events. They are discouraged in a society owing to their offensive or embarrassing nature.

Tag, tag question, fixed tag, copy tag A type of clause without a lexical verb. It normally consists of an auxiliary verb, a modal verb, or the verb *be* and a subject pronoun; it shows concord with the main-clause subject. Tags occur very frequently in spoken English.

A tag question consists of a tag after a declarative clause which changes the clause into a question or request for confirmation. It may have affirmative or negative polarity:

*She's a teacher, **isn't she**?*

*We've never been to Stockholm, **have we**?*

A fixed tag involves items such as *(all) right, okay, yeah, eh, don't you think?* at the end of a declarative clause. It functions to check that a statement has been understood:

*So we're meeting at 7 outside the pizza place, **okay**?*

*Let's stop talking in circles, **right**?*

A copy tag has the same polarity and subject-verb word order after a declarative clause. It functions to make emphatic statements, frequently in evaluative contexts:

affirmative affirmative
*She**'s** lovely, **she is**.*

negative negative
*It's **not** very good, **that one isn't**.*

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Tail Refers to the word or phrase that occurs at the end of a clause through which a speaker clarifies, strengthens, extends or emphasises a preceding topic entity. Tails are a common feature of informal spoken English:

He's quite a comic ***that fellow****.*

They *do tend to go cold, don't they,* ***pasta****.*

The terms 'right dislocation' and 'post-posed' are also sometimes used to refer to tails.

Tense A grammatical category to indicate the relationship between the form of the verb and the time reference of an event or action. English has two tenses, present and past:

The players ***practise*** *every day.*
(present tense)

They ***had*** *a football match yesterday.*
(past tense)

Historic present tense

Tensed The form of a verb which indicates present or past tense:

He ***loves*** *fish.*

They ***worked*** *hard.*

I ***was*** *thinking about you.*

It is contrasted with non-tensed.

Text A stretch of language, either in speech or in writing, that is semantically and pragmatically coherent in its real-world context. A text can range from just one word (e.g. a SLOW sign on the road) to a sequence of utterances or sentences in a speech, a letter, a novel, etc.

Coherence; Discourse

Theme

Comment

Time (past, present, future) A non-linguistic concept which refers to the past, the present and the future. Time can be expressed by tense, through a change of verb forms. Time is also related to aspect, which represents speakers' perspectives on time in relation to events.

Present time denotes time reference for actions, events or states at the moment of speaking or writing, or at 'time around now'.

Past time denotes time reference for actions, events or states before the time of speaking or writing.

Future time denotes time reference for future actions, events or states. There is no future tense ending for English verbs; future time is mainly expressed by *shall/will, be going to,* present progressive form, *be about to, be to,* etc.

Tone unit Refers to the minimal unit of communication with at least one intonation contour that ends in a rising or falling tone. Tone units typically appear as clauses, but they can also be phrases or single words:

ME?

ANY*way.*

I'm ***LOO****king for a* ***PEN****cil.*

ARE*'nt you* ***REA****dy?*

Topic Refers to the main subject matter a speaker or writer wants to talk about. The topic is most typically associated with the grammatical subject.

Comment

Transitive complementation, transitive oblique Transitive complementation refers to the type of complementation a transitive verb requires to complete its meaning. This can be single complementation or dual complementation:

I ***spotted*** *a taxi.*
(single complementation: the speaker must say what they spotted)

He ***put*** *it in the rubbish bin.*
(dual complementation: the speaker must say *what* was put and *where* it was put)

Transitive oblique refers to a type of ditransitive complementation (direct object + prepositional complement with *to*) in which the recipient of the direct object is obliquely put into focus. Transitive verbs associated with this usage are *bring, give, grant, hand, leave, send, owe,* etc.:

	direct object	transitive oblique prep complement
She sent	*a letter*	***to Ivy Bolton****.*

Transitive verb The use of a verb with one or two objects to complete its meaning when used in the active voice. Verbs such as *ask, bring, carry, find, get, give, love, make, use,* are typically used transitively:

I ***love*** *carrots.*

My mother ***gives*** | *me* | *pocket money* | *every week.*

Turn A basic unit of conversation. Speakers take turns to speak, and a turn ends when the speaker changes. A turn may be very short or very long:

Assistant: *There you go. There's your ticket. And your accommodation there. Insurance, and just some general information.* (turn 1)
Customer: *Excellent. Right.* (turn 2)

Uncountable

Noun; Non-count noun

Unmarked

Marked

Utterance Refers to a communicative unit in speech that is both communicatively and pragmatically complete. An utterance may consist of single words, phrases, clauses or clause combinations spoken in context. There are four utterances in the following example:

1 A: *But he's trying to send us an email and I'm having some trouble with the computer you see.*
2 B: *Right.*
3 A: *You know.*
4 B: *Yeah.*

The term 'utterance' is contrasted with 'sentence' in written language.

Vague language Words or phrases with very general meanings (*thing, stuff, or whatever, sort of, or something, or anything*) which deliberately refer to people and things in a non specific, imprecise way. Purposefully vague language is very common in informal spoken language:

Does he think I'm stupid ***or something****?*

She's ***sort of*** *interested.*

Softening

Verb In a clause, the verb is an obligatory and the most central element. It denotes actions, events, processes and states. Verbs are either regular (*cough, coughs, coughing, coughed*) or irregular (*speak, speaks, spoke, speaking, spoken*). There are three main grammatical classes of verb: lexical (*walk, love, put, cook*), auxiliary (*do, be, have*) and modal (*can, must, will*). Lexical and auxiliary verbs indicate contrasts of tense, person and number:

She ***walks*** *too quickly for me.*
(lexical verb *walks* in present tense, agreement in person and number with subject *she*)

He ***has*** *been a good friend.*
(auxiliary verb *has*, agreement of tense, person and number)

We ***must*** *get there early.*
(modal *must*: no inflection for tense, person or number)

Verb phrase A phrase with a lexical verb as its head:

I ***asked*** *you.*

We should have ***phoned*** *you.*

A verb phrase introduces the predicate part of a clause, indicates the clause type, and shows contrasts in tense, aspect, voice and mood.

Complex verb phrase

Vocative A noun phrase used to directly address the listener or reader, normally in the form of a personal name, title or term of endearment:

Paul*, can you help us?*

This is for you, ***daddy****.*

Voice Gives information about the roles of different participants (agent or recipient) in an event. Voice may be active or passive. Voice changes the semantic relationship between the grammatical subject and object of a verb.
Active voice: *My sister cooked the meal*.
(grammatical subject as doer/agent)

Passive voice: *The meal was cooked by my sister*.
(grammatical subject as recipient of the action)

Volitional Expresses a meaning of willingness, usually by means of modal verbs such as *will* or *would* in offers and requests:

I would be grateful if you ***would*** *lend me a pound.*

***Wh*-clause** A declarative clause that is introduced by question words *who(m), whose, what, when, where, which, why* or *how*. A *wh*-clause is often used as a direct object after verbs such as *advise, ask, inform, remind, show* and *tell* and in cleft sentences:

I asked him ***why he came****.*
(as direct object)

Could you please advise me ***what I should do****.*
(as direct object)

It was an elderly lady ***who had this house****.*
(in cleft sentence)

***Wh*-cleft** A *wh*-cleft contains given information but shifts the focus of a clause to the end to indicate new and important information. This is especially common in spoken language:

given information — new, important information
So ***what you really want*** *is a hotel that's got the facilities for the children, isn't it?*

given information — new, important information
What I'll do *is I'll take all your details from you.*

Cleft; Pseudo-cleft

Wh-question

Question

Word The basic linguistic unit which relates the grammar of a language to its vocabulary. Words can be categorised into lexical and grammatical words. Lexical words (most of the vocabulary of a language) belong to open systems, where new words are frequently added. Grammatical words (e.g. determiners, conjunctions, prepositions) belong to closed systems, with new items only rarely being formed. Words are bounded by spaces in writing.

Class

Word class

Class

Word formation Refers to the process of the creation of words and new forms of existing words. There are three main types of word formation:

- derivation: forming words by adding prefixes and suffixes
- compounding: combining words to form units of meaning (*car + park = car park, down + load = download*)
- conversion (*a **text** ➛ to **text***: noun ➛ verb)

Other minor word formation processes include:

- acronym: use of initial letters of a set of words pronounced as a word (*AIDS – acquired immune deficiency syndrome*)
- blending: combining parts of existing words to form a new word (***sm**oke + f**og** = smog; **br**eakfast + **lunch** = brunch*)
- clipping: reducing the number of syllables from a word (*ad – advertisement, lab – laboratory*)

Word order The sequential arrangement of words in a sentence, for example, subject – verb – object word order in declarative clauses:

S V O
Babies like milk.

A change in the word order normally indicates a change in function.

Fronting; Header; Tail; Topic

***Yes-no* question**

Question

Zero (zero plural, zero article, zero relative pronoun) A zero plural has the same form in both singular and plural. This happens in some animal nouns (*sheep, salmon, fish, deer, cattle*), certain numerals (*three hundred, ten thousand, two dozen*), etc.

A zero article refers to the use of no article or other determiner before a noun (*I like **coffee**; **dinner** is served*).

A zero relative pronoun refers to the non-use of a relative pronoun in a relative clause (*That woman* [zero relative] *I met last week could probably help you.*).

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PART 1 *How to Make Grammar Work for You*

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chapter 1 WHAT IS GRAMMAR?

Grammar is what you say.

Grammar is how you put words together to fashion a thought. And thoughts are expressed, either in speech or writing, for the purpose of communicating an idea to a listener or a reader.

So grammar is, quite simply, the architecture of ideas as expressed in words.

That is not half so difficult as what you remember from your school days, is it?

(Nor, I trust, half so dismal?)

Does Marilyn Monroe have a tremendous *effect* on you —or is it a tremendous *affect?*

Do you speak of a murderer's being *hung* or *hanged?*

Is it a secret between you and *I*—or between you and *me?*

Do you *lay* down—or *lie* down—for a nap after lunch?

Who—or *whom*—would you like to be if you weren't yourself?

Has—or *have*—either of your children come home yet?

Do you ever say: "It is *me*"—"It makes me *mad*"—"I *got* sick"—"*Can* I have another helping, please?"—"It will be a *nice* day if it doesn't rain"—"That child *aggravates* me"—"I've *got* an *awful* cold"? And, if so, are you speaking "bad" English?

Do you know when to use *continual* instead of *continuous? Let* instead of *leave? Incredible* instead of *incredulous?*

Imply instead of *infer? Uninterested* instead of *disinterested?*

These are vital, contemporary, and recurrent problems. And grammar offers you a solution to all of them.

If you understand the basic principles of English grammar, you can be assured that your speech will never get in your way. You will know not only *what* to say, but, perhaps more important, *why*.

The world often forms its first impression of you by the way you put words together. And so I expect to explore with you—minutely, specifically, intensively, exhaustively—the proper methods of putting words together, the principles of expressing your ideas in correct English.

No one in his right mind, you will admit, ever stops you at a busy intersection during lunch hour to ask: "Quick, what's an adverb?" Or, "What case of the personal pronoun is used after a preposition?" Or, "When do you make a verb plural?" But if you know the answers to these and similar questions, you have come a long way toward attaining a feeling of complete self-confidence whenever you open your mouth to voice a thought.

And so, the first part of this book is planned as follows:

We will be far more interested—chapter after chapter—in actual problems of correct usage than in theoretical principles of grammar. Each chapter opens with a realistic problem, discusses enough grammar to make the solution to that problem easy to understand and easy to remember, closes with a simply worded rule to guide you whenever the problem occurs in your daily speech, and finally puts you through a searching test to discover whether you understand and can successfully apply all that you've learned.

Between chapters you will find a rambling section labeled optimistically, but, I think, correctly: "As Easy as A B C!" Under *A* we will discuss problems in the grammar of meanings. How does *alumnus* differ in meaning from *alumna?* How does *childish* differ from *childlike?* What is the distinction between *optometrist, oculist,* and *optician?* Between *allude* and *refer?* Between *sensual* and *sensuous?*

You have probably often wondered. Now you can be sure.

Under *B,* the grammar of allowable "errors," we will explore the standing of such controversial expressions as "I feel *badly,*" "Let's not walk any *further,*" "There are *less* people than I expected," and "He is different *than* I thought." Maybe you use such expressions—and feel that you shouldn't. Now you will have ample evidence bearing on the question of their acceptability, and you will be able to speak naturally without feeling a vague sense of guilt.

An allowable "error," as the term will be used throughout Part One, refers to an expression which some old-fashioned grammar texts and many handbooks of speech sweepingly, unrealistically, and stubbornly condemn, despite the wide and general currency which such an expression may have in educated speech. Since the final criterion of correct English is current, educated, usage—not the arbitrary "laws" of grammar manuals—any expression which is commonly used on the cultivated level of language and which can be found in the works of reputable writers is, of course, correct English, puristic and pedantic objections to the contrary notwithstanding.

Let me warn you, however, that you will have to approach this section in a truly scientific and objective spirit.

I shall suggest that the various items coming under the heading of allowable "errors" are perfectly acceptable on the colloquial level—that is, they may be used in everyday conversation, and there is nothing sinful or ungrammatical about them. You do not have to use them, and you may, if you wish, restrict yourself to their more formal equivalents. If you are in the habit of using *mad* with the meaning of *angry,* you will not, the grammar of allowable "errors" will tell you, be speaking "bad" English. On the other hand, if you wish to play safe and avoid such use of *mad,* you have every moral, legal, and linguistic right to do so. What you do not have the right to do, this section will contend, is look down upon an honest citizen who reports that he is "*mad* at his mother-in-law."

Understand, then, that the usages under the grammar of allowable "errors" are not recommended to the exclusion

of stricter forms; they are merely offered to you as completely acceptable in your everyday speech.

But you must be scientific and objective. So I shall offer you evidence both pro and con, and you will, as an intelligent adult, exercise your democratic right to make a free choice. To gather this evidence, I sent personal letters to a number of people whose business it is to use the English language as effectively as they know how—editors, authors, radio stars, professors of English, linguists, newspaper columnists, and the like. Some of them have answered that of course the expressions under consideration are good English, that they would have no hesitation in using them in their own speech. Others, on the contrary, have expressed varying degrees of horror. Their replies will be spread out for your consideration and you will be able to decide for yourself whether or not you wish to use these controversial expressions.

Under *C*, the grammar of correct usage, we will talk about a number of specific but isolated questions: "What's the sense (in, of) arguing?" "What (kind of day, kind of a day) is it?" "All I need (is, are) more pictures"? "Two (spoonfuls, spoonsful)"? "The data (is, are) most interesting"?

Our approach to grammar, then, is entirely functional. What mistakes do literate speakers make? What grammatical information do they need in order to avoid such errors? How can they avoid using bad grammar on the one hand, and still steer clear, on the other hand, of a much worse danger—the danger of sounding pedantic, puristic, or "schoolmarmish"? These are the questions which intimately dictate the organization and atmosphere of this book.

I have been fortunate, in the last few years, to be able to work directly, face to face, with a large number of educated people who wish to improve their grammar, their use of their native tongue. My work with these students, adults who have taken my courses at New York University, has taught me what problems most frequently afflict the average

literate American. These problems are broadly divisible into four major categories:

1. How to know when to use *me* or *I, he* or *him, she* or *her, we* or *us, they* or *them.*
2. How to be sure of the distinctions between *who* and *whom.*
3. When to say *lay* and when to say *lie.*
4. When to make verbs plural and when to keep them singular. (*Is* or *are? Has* or *have? Was* or *were?*)

The fact that most literate adults are especially confused by these four broad problems of English usage is what makes our study of grammar particularly easy. For the aspects of English covered by such problems are the ones we will hit again and again, the ones we will spend most of our time studying and discussing and exploring and analyzing—to the end that most of the problems which *you* now have in English will eventually vanish.

And we will study only those aspects of formal grammar which will help us to understand and solve the problems of everyday speech.

Understanding and solving these problems will, I must confess, bring to our attention such abstractions as verbs and nouns and the future perfect tense and the subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact; not to mention such matters as case and number and person. But don't be alarmed. The abstractions of grammar are easy enough to understand so long as they are tied up with problems of correct usage, so long as they are not studied just for themselves.

Are you sold on studying grammar?

Then let's begin. . . .

chapter 2 A TEST OF YOUR PRESENT GRAMMATICAL ABILITY

First I want to test your present grammatical knowledge—your ability to solve problems of correct usage. I have for you one hundred questions which will explore your speech habits, which will probe deeply and mercilessly into the language patterns you now use.

This is the test with which I confront my students during the opening session of the course. And how do they make out? On the average, they come through with a grade of 35 to 50 per cent. You may do about the same. If you do, that will mean one thing only: not that your English is "bad," but that your problems are the same as everyone else's.

At the end of the course I test my students once again. How much have they learned? Enough to make an average score of 93 to 98 per cent in the retest. (The retest covers essentially the same problems but in different contexts.) When you try the retest at the end of your work, you will probably do as well.

This is incontrovertible proof, I maintain, that grammar is easy—if studied properly.

A Pretest of Your Grammatical Ability

Check, in each sentence, the word that you believe is grammatically preferable.

1. Why does Marilyn Monroe have such a tremendous (affect, effect) on you?
2. How does one go about (effecting, affecting) a reconciliation between husband and wife?
3. You come up here at least twice a week to see me;

why do you make such (continuous, continual) demands on my time?

4. What with our high income taxes, I can't see the sense (in, of) trying to make an honest dollar any more.
5. I wish you would (let, leave) me go.
6. What (kind of, kind of a) fool do you think she is?
7. The Colonial Diner is one of the (principle, principal) eating places in town.
8. The murderer will be (hung, hanged) at dawn.
9. (Mother-in-laws, Mothers-in-law) are probably the most unpopular of all relatives.
10. Doris Garn told an (incredulous, incredible) story of her experiences in book publishing.
11. Take two (spoonsful, spoonfuls, spoons full) of arsenic, mix with an ounce of cyanide, stir well in a glassful of orange juice, and drink before retiring.
12. Are you trying to (imply, infer) that Charlotte is flirting with Mimi's husband?
13. (It's, Its) the first hundred years that are the hardest.
14. No one but (she, her) could possibly love such a man.
15. I've spoken to everyone except (he, him).
16. Between you, (I, me), and the lamppost, she's making a fool of you.
17. Is this book for Helen and (I, me)?
18. Why did you (rob, steal) that money?
19. (Those, That) data (are, is) inconclusive.
20. Harry Simon has a little (stationery, stationary) store on North Avenue.
21. Vitamins are thought to be an excellent (preventative, preventive) of disease.
22. Bea is a most naïve and (ingenious, ingenuous) person.
23. Do you really think that Jules speaks just like (I, me)?
24. The cost of new houses (is, are) dropping every day.

25. There (was, were) a man and a woman waiting for you.
26. One of his cousins (comes, come) from Boston.
27. The senator, with his clerks and secretaries, (draw, draws) a whacking salary from the treasury every week.
28. Your appearance as well as your personality (is, are) against you.
29. Florence, like her sisters and parents, (has, have) red hair.
30. (Has, Have) either of your friends come in yet?
31. Each of the men (was, were) given thirty lashes.
32. Boatload after boatload of refugees (was, were) stopped.
33. Neither of your answers (is, are) correct.
34. Allan, unlike his rich relatives, (has, have) to live economically.
35. A captain and a lieutenant (is, are) coming to see you tonight.
36. The manager or his assistant (is, are) always in the store.
37. Neither your money nor your influence (is, are) of any use to you now.
38. Either Dr. Jaffe or one of our other podiatrists (is, are) coming up to see you tomorrow.
39. He's very (childish, childlike); if he doesn't get his own way, he sulks.
40. I think one or two of the men (is, are) here already.
41. Myrtle and (I, me) would like to pay you a visit tonight.
42. Can you visit Estelle and (I, me) some evening?
43. I'm (uninterested, disinterested) in hearing about your personal troubles.
44. A number of cases (was, were) settled out of court.
45. Please (lie, lay) down.
46. (Lie, Lay) the baby in the crib.
47. His genius (lay, laid) dormant all during his marriage.

48. You've (laid, lain) the rug on the floor of the wrong room.
49. If she had (laid, lain) quiet, she would not have been hurt.
50. He (lay, laid) his hand on my shoulder and spoke in a confidential tone.
51. If you would (lay, lie) down for a while, you might feel better.
52. When you (lie, lay) in a new store of canned goods, let me know.
53. He was (lying, laying) down for a nap when the phone rang.
54. His (fiancée, fiancé) has red hair.
55. Three-quarters of the rent (is, are) due when you sign the lease.
56. A majority of the members (has, have) promised to vote for you.
57. It was (she, her) I was referring to, not you.
58. George, together with his whole family, (is, are) coming up the steps.
59. Was it (she, her) who lost her husband?
60. (Who, Whom) do you think you are, anyway?
61. (Who, Whom) are you looking at?
62. I want to speak to (whoever, whomever) answers the phone.
63. His brother, (who, whom) I met in Istanbul, is much richer than you think.
64. (Who, Whom) would you rather be, if you weren't you?
65. He has finally found a teacher (who, whom) he believes can handle that class.
66. (Who, Whom) do you want to see?
67. Your brother is shorter than (I, me).
68. I'm just as good as (he, him).
69. Neither he nor I (am, is, are) your friend.
70. We have (swam, swum) for over an hour.
71. Have you (drank, drunk) all your milk?
72. Young children are generally (sensuous, sensual) in their approach to life.

73. You should (of, have) come on time if you wanted to see him.
74. He talks as if he (was, were) my keeper.
75. I'm not thinking of her lack of beauty; it's just that I wish she (was, were) richer.
76. If your husband (was, were) more considerate, he wouldn't talk that way to you.
77. If the doctor (was, were) in all morning, why didn't he phone me?
78. What would you like for (dessert, desert)?
79. Why do you continue to (prosecute, persecute) me so?
80. I'm not very hungry; (beside, besides) I don't like fish.
81. She's one of those women who never (say, says) die.
82. She doesn't live here (any, no) more.
83. That (ain't, isn't) the way to act.
84. We (have, haven't) hardly any money left.
85. I'm going (irregardless, regardless).
86. (This, This here) book doesn't help me any.
87. Have you got a (better, more better) one?
88. I thought you (was, were) a gentleman in every sense of the word.
89. Did you get an (invitation, invite) to her party?
90. If I (hadn't, hadn't of) seen it with my own eyes, I wouldn't have believed it.
91. He (don't, doesn't) act the way he should.
92. I'm going to give you some (council, counsel).
93. It is I who (am, is) the only friend you've got.
94. The most striking thing about Eden is her (luxurious, luxuriant) black hair.
95. Let (he, him) who is without sin cast the first stone.
96. Some economists are (prophesying, prophecying) a continuing period of prosperity.
97. What we need (is, are) bigger salaries for the working classes.
98. Two thousand dollars (is, are) too much for that car.

99. (Who, Whom) did you believe him to be?
100. The memoranda (is, are) on your desk.

ANSWERS

1. effect
2. effecting
3. continual
4. in
5. let
6. kind of
7. principal
8. hanged
9. mothers-in-law
10. incredible
11. spoonfuls
12. imply
13. it's
14. her
15. him
16. me
17. me
18. steal
19. those, are
20. stationery
21. preventive
22. ingenuous
23. me
24. is
25. were
26. comes
27. draws
28. is
29. has
30. has
31. was
32. was
33. is
34. has
35. are
36. is
37. is
38. is
39. childish
40. are
41. I
42. me
43. uninterested
44. were
45. lie
46. lay
47. lay
48. laid
49. lain
50. laid
51. lie
52. lay
53. lying
54. fiancée
55. is
56. have
57. she
58. is
59. she
60. who
61. whom
62. whoever
63. whom
64. who
65. who
66. whom
67. I
68. he
69. am
70. swum
71. drunk
72. sensuous
73. have
74. were
75. were
76. were
77. was
78. dessert
79. persecute
80. besides
81. say
82. any
83. isn't
84. have
85. regardless
86. this
87. better
88. were
89. invitation
90. hadn't
91. doesn't
92. counsel
93. am
94. luxuriant
95. him
96. prophesying
97. is
98. is
99. whom
100. are

SCORING

Each correct choice counts 1 point.

YOUR SCORE ON THE PRETEST:..... (Record the result on page 13.)

Your grammar has been tested and you know where you stand.

Now let's get to work.

chapter 3 HOW TO DELIVER THE MESSAGE TO GARCIA

1. The Problem

What is the difference between *effect* and *affect?*

2. The Solution

The essential differenee is this:

Affect is usually a *verb.*

Effect is usually a *noun.*

But what is a verb?

A verb is one of the eight different categories into which all the words in the English language are grammatically divisible.

These eight categories are:

1. noun
2. verb
3. pronoun
4. adjective
5. adverb
6. preposition
7. conjunction
8. interjection

Every one of these terms is an inheritance from Latin, a language used two thousand and more years ago by a comparatively small segment of the human race inhabiting a boot-shaped peninsula, a projection of the south end of Europe—a peninsula which we now call Italy.

The people who spoke this ancient tongue were Romans, so called after their capital city, *Roma,* or Rome.

The Romans were no slouches. You have, of course, heard of Caesar and Cicero. If you are of a literary bent of mind, you have perhaps also heard of Horace and Pliny and Livy and Marcus Aurelius. And Brutus.

The Romans left their mark on the world. The eighth month of the year is named after one of the emperors, Augustus Caesar. July is named after another emperor—Julius Caesar. To say nothing of roads and laws and codes of justice—for all of which we are in debt to the ancient Romans.

A good half of the Latin vocabulary found its way, at one time or another, into English. And some of the Latin rules of grammar.

The Latin language was imposed, by the conquering Romans, on a number of their defenseless neighbors. And today French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Rumanian are Latin tongues in modern dress.

But not English. English is a Germanic language, the modern version of the tongue spoken by the invading Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, the Teutonic hordes which swept Britain centuries ago.

The language you speak today is a variant of Germanic—but the grammatical terminology is almost wholly Latin.

The eight categories into which English words are divided are identical with the categories of Latin words—and the names for these divisions are English renditions of Latin terms.

These categories are called *parts of speech.*

Noun is from the Latin *nomen,* name.

Pronoun adds the Latin prefix *pro,* meaning *for.* As we shall discover, a pronoun is used for, or in place of, a noun.

An *adjective,* by literal translation from the Latin, is a word thrown (*ject*) toward (*ad*) a noun.

An *adverb* is thrown toward a verb.

A *preposition* is a word placed (*posit*) before (*pre*) a noun.

A *conjunction* acts to join (*junc*) words together (*con*).

An *interjection* is literally a word thrown (*ject*) between (*inter*).

And the *verb?* Verb is from the Latin *verbum,* word.

That a verb is simply called *a word* attests to its importance.

That is why we start our study of English grammar by analysis of the verb.

(And, incidentally, you cannot intelligently appreciate the distinction between *effect* and *affect* without understanding the function, the atmosphere, the appearance of a verb.)

An important part of every idea is the verb.

It is the verb that delivers the message to Garcia—it is the verb that gets your idea across.

In one of the most electrifying statements of World War II, "Sighted Sub, Sank Same," two of the four words are verbs—and the message of that statement is wrapped up in, and stems from, those two verbs.

You can best appreciate the importance of the verb by examining the front page of your daily paper. The headlines are designed to get messages to you in the quickest, most economical, most dynamic form. And every headline is built around a verb.

Let us look at some headlines from an issue of *The New York Times:*

Atom Bomb *Sinks* Battleship in Second Test
Soviet Flatly *Rejects* Baruch Control Plan
Robber *Kills* Wife of Banker in Home

In each headline, the italicized word is the verb. *Sinks, rejects, kills*—these are the pivots on which the headlines swing.

The verb is the pivotal word of the sentence.

Actions speak louder than words, claims the old proverb. And of the eight different kinds of words in the English language, verbs speak the loudest—because verbs are words of action. You can understand then how easy it is to spot the verb in a sentence—look for the word of action.

Study these headlines from the *Times*. Again each verb is italicized.

Asks Job Freedom in the Constitution
Plane Barely *Misses* Empire State
City Board *Faces* a Heavy Calendar

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 1*

Action, completion, movement, fulfillment—these are the attributes of the verb. If you will look for these qualities, you will successfully spot the single verb in each of the following headlines. Underline the verb in each case.

1. Vegetarian Shouts "Foul" over Shaw Dinner's Fowl
2. College Gets Army Check
3. Ships Bob Around in Blast like Toys
4. British Fear Move for Ouster in Iran
5. Philippine Envoy Hails U.S.

Advertisements are carefully planned, by highly skilled and highly paid writers, to get a message across to you as forcefully as possible. As you would suspect, most ads also rely heavily on verbs. Can you spot the single verb in each of the following?

6. Protect Your Fine Summer Lingerie in Dainty Cotton Cases (Henri Bendel)
7. Outwit Boredom at Dinnertime (Longchamps)
8. Night and Day, You'll Talk about "Night and Day" (Hollywood Theater)
9. Use in Place of Wax (Surface-Nu)
10. Wait for the New Canaday Frigidaire Water Coolers (Canaday Cooler Company)

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 1*

Here are the answers. Did you make at least eight proper choices?

1. shouts	3. bob	5. hails	7. outwit	9. use
2. gets	4. fear	6. protect	8. talk	10. wait

The ability to spot a verb will stand you in good stead throughout your study of English grammar. I shall not pretend that, because you have successfully identified the verbs in the preceding sentences, you are *ipso facto* (more Latin influence) an expert on verbs—there is much more to learn about this part of speech before you can qualify for such a rating. But you have come far if you can correctly identify the verb of a sentence. To make sure you are beginning to get your hand in, try one more test of your ability to recognize English verbs.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 2*

Check the single verb in each of the following sentences.

1. Senator Bilbo ran for the office of U.S. Senator.
2. The people of Mississippi elected him to that office.
3. But Senator Taft challenged Bilbo's right to the seat.
4. Certain Southern Democrats threatened a filibuster.
5. Taft invoked the law of cloture.
6. Upon a roll-call vote, the Senate refused admittance to the Mississippian.
7. Such action came as no surprise—except, perhaps, to Bilbo.
8. With his death, Bilbo may now be forgotten.
9. The other Mississippi Senator, James O. Eastland, still holds his seat.
10. *The Saturday Evening Post* published an interesting article about John E. Rankin, a Mississippi Congressman, in the spring of 1947.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 2*

1. ran
2. elected
3. challenged
4. threatened
5. invoked
6. refused
7. came
8. may be forgotten
9. holds
10. published

In sentence 8, the verb is made up of several words, *may, be,* and *forgotten.* Such an instance is called a *verb phrase.*

The word *now*, which splits the parts of the verb phrase, indicates *time* and is an adverb.

To get back to *effect* and *affect:*

Affect is usually a *verb.*

Note its verbal force in the following sentences:

His actions *affect* me strangely.
How *does* the weather *affect* your business?
Prices *will be* adversely *affected* by declining demand.
Has your income *been affected* by the relaxation of federal controls?
Your action cannot help but *affect* your standing in the community.

Note that there were verb phrases in some of the preceding sentences: *does affect; will be affected; has been affected.* A verb phrase is made up of one or more *auxiliaries,* or helping verbs, and the main verb. *Does, will be, has been* are auxiliary verbs.

Can you appreciate that in each of the preceding sentences *affect* is used as a verb? If you now have a feeling for verbs, you are ready to go on to an understanding of *effect,* the noun. That will be our central problem in chapter 4

as easy as A B C

I

A. What is the difference between *continual* and *continuous?*

B. Is it correct to say, "He *got* sick"?

C. Which is preferable: "What's the sense *of* arguing?" or "What's the sense *in* arguing?"

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Continual, Continuous

Continual bickering goes on, with few breaks, over a period of time. There may be occasional cessations, but not for long.

Continual warfare implies successive battles, skirmishes, raids, attacks and counterattacks, again over an extended period.

Continual rain indicates a series of rains, with short spells of fair weather intervening between the frequent storms.

Continual refers only to time, and indicates a series of successive actions.

Continuous, on the other hand, implies unbroken, uninterrupted movement.

Continuous bickering allows for no moment of peace.

Continuous warfare indicates no cessation of fighting.

Continuous rain means that the rain never stops.

Continuous may refer to space as well as time—a *continuous* line, a *continuous* stretch of narrow land, a *continuous* expanse of desert.

The two words are close in meaning, but the distinction in *implication* is very strong. *Continual* describes one thing after another; *continuous* describes one unending thing.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 3*

1. A (continuous, continual) application of hot packs, three or four every hour for two days, will alleviate your congested condition.
2. His (continuous, continual) rejection of the applications from the home office has raised the manager's ire.
3. Her (continuous, continual) criticism of his work, whenever he brought his manuscripts home, completely demoralized him.
4. The rain came down (continuously, continually); not for five minutes did the storm abate.
5. There was a long (continuous, continual) ring on the "intercom" phone, followed by four short rings.
6. Not a sound broke the stillness; the (continuous, continual) silence was unnerving.
7. There were (continuous, continual) fights in the upstairs apartment—at breakfast, lunch, and supper the sounds of conflict came through to the tenants on all sides.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 3*

1. continual
2. continual
3. continual
4. continuously
5. continuous
6. continuous
7. continual

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

He *got* sick.

Pedantic grammar maintains that the verb *get* has only one meaning: *to obtain*. In actuality, *get* has over a score of different meanings and uses, as any large dictionary will

attest. One of the most acceptable and current of its meanings is as a synonym for *become*, as in "He *got* rich," "You will *get* sick if you overeat," "She *got* well when she took the medicine," "I *get* dizzy when I climb so high." These uses of *get* are perfectly correct in everyday, informal speech.

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "I *got* sick" is correct, idiomatic English. Do you agree?

Pro

A. I am one of the modern grammarians who maintain "I *got* sick" to be correct and idiomatic English.

—Donald L. Clark

Donald Clark is professor of English at Columbia University, conductor of Writer's Workshop Courses, and coauthor of *Magazine Article Writing*.

Pro (*with reservations*)

A. I would agree that the expression "I got sick" is more or less correct idiomatic English. The degree of education of the people among whom it is established would be open to question. But certainly such usage of "got" is very common these days in America even though it is frowned upon in England. Surely I have nothing against it, and I have always felt that language is made so that people could say what they mean.

For my own part, I don't use that form, but, as I said, I see no real reason why I shouldn't, if I wanted to.

—Howard Fast

Howard Fast is the author of *Freedom Road, The American, Citizen Tom Paine*, and other best-selling novels.

A. We are not much concerned with the individual characteristics of coins used in the everyday business of life. One nickel will do just as well as another for the purpose for which we have destined it. We may stop to consider the coin if it is newly struck or designed, but only for a brief time. After a little it sinks again into the category of a class of things. Its purpose alone counts, its individuality does not.

The word *get,* in the sense of *become,* as in others of its meaning, is common coin. It is as unobtrusive as a particular nickel in transmitting an idea. It in itself does not catch the eye or thought.

When a boy has *got* sick, he has reached a state different from a previous one. *Get* serves merely in a general way to show that he is not now as he was before. But suppose you wish to call attention to the particular circumstance in which the change occurred. *Get,* the overall term, may turn out to be an inadequate spokesman for your point. The boy *turns* sick to his stomach at a *sudden* realization of adversity. He *grows* sick with fear as the hours of anxiety *wear on.* As he *becomes* sick he has to play less and exercise less *in the process. Get* will serve in each of these cases, but it will do no more than serve. It does not particularize, and so does not somehow evoke the same feeling as the other words in the individual instance. It is not the *mot juste.* In short, it lacks color in the sense that it does not command attention by narrowing down the situation.

All this does not mean that *get* is a disreputable item in the English vocabulary or in good usage. It is a "utility tool" and not a "precision instrument." It should be used as such and not disdained. You will find it in the dictionary defined as "to become," and you will meet it frequently in this sense even in a most casual perusal of good English writing.

—Bernard Levy

Dr. Levy is a professor of romance languages at the Col-

lege of the City of New York, and director of the Adult Education Program of City College. He is the author of a number of college textbooks.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

What's the sense *of* arguing? *or*
What's the sense *in* arguing?

Idiomatically, *sense*, meaning *logic* or *sensibleness* (as it does in this sentence), is followed by *in:*

He has no sense *in* his head.
There's no sense *in* your going out.
What's the sense *in* talking to such a man?
Where's the sense *in* doing that?
I don't see any sense *in* acting that way.

However, if *sense* signifies *meaning*, it is followed by *of:*

Can you get the sense *of* that poem?

PREFERABLE FORMS:

What's the sense *in* arguing?
There's no sense *in* walking if you can ride.

chapter 4 HOW TO CALL A NAME

1. The Problem Repeated

What is the difference between *effect* and *affect?*

2. The Solution Continued

Affect is usually a verb.

Effect is, with an exception to be noted shortly, a *noun.*

But what is a noun?

Look about you—everything you see is a *noun.*

Recall the names of your friends, relatives, business associates—they are all *nouns.*

Pore over a map—every city, state, and country; every village, county, and town; every river, bay, and inlet; geographical divisions large and small, from Kennebunkport, Maine, to Los Angeles, California, from London to Yalta, from Nagasaki to Pinsk—all these are *nouns.*

Everything is a *noun.*

Persons are nouns:

Chester Bowles	Protestant	man
Harry S. Truman	Catholic	woman
George Bernard Shaw	Jew	child

Places are nouns:

Speonk	Tallahassee	Champs Élysées
Broadway	Coral Gables	Mastic Beach
Dubuque	Stebbins Avenue	City College

Things are nouns:

cigarettes	television sets	white shirts
prime ribs of beef	brassieres	inlaid linoleum
Chevrolets	wrist watches	typewriters

Abstract qualities, ideas, emotions, concepts, and activities are nouns:

sex
politics
war
food
clothing
shelter
fear, hate, courage, love
the Democratic and Republican parties
fascism and antifascism
The Unit System in Georgia and the Kulak System in Russia

You are a noun, and I am a noun, although the words *you* and *I* are not generally nouns, but *pronouns*. *Word* itself is a noun, although not every word in the language is a noun.

If all this sounds a little mixed up, don't worry. Nouns and verbs are the sort of things you soon develop an instinct for. If you bear in mind that verbs are words that show action, and nouns are the names of persons, places, things, ideas, concepts, or activities, you will shortly be able to spot nouns and verbs without half trying.

Study this paragraph from *The New York Times* (the nouns are italicized):

> During the German *occupation* of *Denmark* a *novel* was published in *Copenhagen* with the unsuspicious *approval* of the Nazi *censors*. Since it was a quaint and romantic *story* of two innocent young *girls* and their mysterious *adventures* in the *year 1840* it is hardly surprising that to German *eyes* it seemed unpolitical. It wouldn't be surprising if it seemed so to *Danes* or to *Americans*, either. But the *Danes* must be more subtle *folk* than is generally their *reputation*, or else *life* beneath German *rule* must marvelously quicken allegorical *sensitivity*, for in *Denmark* "*The Angelic Avengers*" by *Pierre Andrezel* was greeted with *joy* as a neat *thrust* of *irony* at the *Germans' expense*. The *question* then was:

did the *Germans* fail to get it, or were they smart enough to refuse to admit that it concerned them?

—Orville Prescott, "Books of the Times,"
January 3, 1947

In these five sentences there are twenty-eight different nouns—names of people, things, places, ideas, concepts, or activities.

PEOPLE	PLACES	THINGS	IDEAS, CONCEPTS, OR ACTIVITIES
censors	Denmark	novel	occupation
girls	Copenhagen	eyes	approval
Danes			story
Americans			adventures
folk			year
Pierre Andrezel			1840
Germans			reputation
Germans'			life
			rule
			sensitivity
			"The Angelic Avengers"
			joy
			thrust
			irony
			expense
			question

The same five sentences contain seventeen verbs, as follows:

Sentence 1: was published
Sentence 2: was, is, seemed
Sentence 3: would be (*a verb phrase*), seemed
Sentence 4: must be, is, must quicken, was greeted
Sentence 5: was, did, fail, to get, were, to refuse, to admit, concerned

Verbs like *was, must be, would be, seemed* may not appear to you to show very much direct action. As a matter of fact, there is one type of verb, called *copulative* (another Latin-born term) which shows *a state of being* rather than action, and *is, was, must be, seem* are, among others, verbs of this type.

Is your instinct for nouns and verbs beginning to develop? Try a test to make sure.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 4*

Check twenty-two nouns in the following paragraph. Count each noun even if it is repeated in two or more sentences or phrases.

> At first all went well. Mr. Pennhollow taught the girls Latin and history. But soon vague suspicions began to infest the atmosphere. Was the old man as benevolent as he seemed? What had become of the other young girls he had befriended? Why was Clon, the moronic servant boy, so frightened? Why did the provincial judge charge so benign a person with such preposterous wickedness? When all these questions were suddenly answered stark terror overcame the girls. Mr. Pennhollow was evil incarnate, a murderer, white-slaver and worshiper of the devil himself.
>
> —Orville Prescott, *ibid.*

Now look for the verbs.

1 verb in sentence 1 .....
1 verb in sentence 2 .....
2 verbs in sentence 3 ....., ...
2 verbs in sentence 4 ....., ...
2 verbs in sentence 5 ....., ...
1 verb in sentence 6 .....
1 verb in sentence 7 .....
2 verbs in sentence 8 ....., ...
1 verb in sentence 9 .....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 4*

1. Mr. Pennhollow
2. girls
3. Latin
4. history
5. suspicions
6. atmosphere
7. man
8. girls
9. Clon
10. boy
11. judge
12. person
13. wickedness
14. questions
15. terror
16. girls
17. Mr. Pennhollow
18. evil
19. murderer
20. white-slaver
21. worshiper
22. devil

1. went
2. taught
3. began, to infest
4. was, seemed
5. had become, had befriended
6. was
7. did charge
8. were answered, overcame
9. was

How did it go? If you made any errors, they were of two possible kinds:

1. You may have failed to recognize a few of the nouns and verbs in the paragraph; or
2. Perhaps you checked words which are not nouns and verbs.

Study carefully your sins of omission or commission. Let your errors help you to get a more certain feeling for nouns and verbs. And in any case, understand that if your work was 50 per cent accurate or better you are doing very well—you have developed a sufficient instinct for nouns and verbs so that we can intelligently proceed with a further analysis of *effect,* the noun, and *affect,* the verb.

This is still early in the game, but your mind is gradually becoming attuned to seeing differences in function between nouns and verbs. Note in the following sentences how *effect,* the noun, is used as the name of a concept, while *affect,* the verb, is used to show a kind of action.

NOUN: The *effect* of the war was widespread.
VERB: Everyone *was affected* by the war.

NOUN: What *effect* does education have on the mind?
VERB: How *does* education *affect* the mind?

NOUN: The tremendous *effect* of the atom bomb on the people of Hiroshima has been graphically chronicled by novelist John Hersey.
VERB: How the atom bomb *affected* the people of Hiroshima has been graphically chronicled by novelist John Hersey.

As a noun, *effect* generally means *result* or *influence*.
As a verb, *affect* generally means *to influence* or *to change*.

There is, in addition, one special instance in which *effect* is a verb. In this instance it does not mean *to influence* or *change*, but *to bring about*. For example:

1. We must *effect* better relations with Russia if we wish to avoid another war.

Are better relations with Russia now in existence? No—we must bring them about; we must *effect* them. (But there are many different conditions which will *affect* our relations with Russia.)

2. Doctors have not yet learned to *effect* a cure for cancer.

Is there now a cure for cancer? No—doctors must learn to bring one about, to *effect* one.

3. He will try to *effect* a reconciliation between Tommy Manville and his latest estranged wife.

Is such a reconciliation now in existence? No—he will try to bring it into existence.

Affect, the verb, has an additional meaning to the one we have been discussing, namely *to make a pretense of,* as in "He *affects* a British accent."

With the grammatical background you now have, you will find the rule about *effect* and *affect* easy to understand.

3. The Rule

Is a *noun* required? Use *effect.*

Is a *verb* required? Use *affect.*

However, is a *verb* required with the meaning of *bring about* or *cause?* Use *effect.*

In general usage, affect is never a noun.[1]

4. The Test

Now if you have followed the material in these pages step by step, you should have no difficulty in making a perfect score in the next exercise, which tests your ability to avoid errors in using *affect* and *effect.*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 5*

Check the correct word in each sentence.

1. What (effect, affect) did a Republican congress have on Truman's program?
2. How would a new round of strikes (effect, affect) the general business picture next year?
3. The picture (effected, affected) him deeply.
4. Penicillin can (effect, affect) a cure within twenty-four hours.
5. Do you think doctors will ever (effect, affect) a cure for polio?
6. His illness has (effected, affected) him in many ways.
7. Why does he (effect, affect) such effeminate mannerisms?

[1] There is a noun *affect,* with a specialized technical meaning, in psychological parlance. You need not concern yourself with it.

8. His presence had a tremendous (effect, affect) on the audience.
9. Do you think Edmund Wilson's *Memoirs of Hecate County* has a libidinous (effect, affect) on adolescents?
10. And how do you think the same book (effects, affects) adults?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 5*

1. effect
2. affect
3. affected
4. effect
5. effect
6. affected
7. affect
8. effect
9. effect
10. affects

You should have made a perfect score on this test. If you were guilty of any errors, study your mistakes, review the pertinent information in the chapter, and then check yourself once again on the following test.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 6*

1. Your insults do not (effect, affect) me.
2. Dr. Bruno Furst, the eminent memory expert, has a dynamic (effect, affect) on his students.
3. *Forever Amber* created an (effect, affect) that was felt throughout the country.
4. The picture contains many lovely scenic (effects, affects).
5. Ann Matteo's story (effected, affected) us all deeply.
6. The war has (effected, affected) every family in the city.
7. If we can (effect, affect) a certain measure of economic security for all families, this nation will be a much happier one.
8. Why do Syd and Mimi (effect, affect) that silly pseudo-Southern accent?
9. Your plan will have far-reaching (effects, affects).
10. What you say will never (effect, affect) our decision.

11. If you can (effect, affect) a reconciliation between Doris and Bernard, you are a miracle man.
12. How does the weather (effect, affect) you?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 6*

1. affect	5. affected	9. effects
2. effect	6. affected	10. affect
3. effect	7. effect	11. effect
4. effects	8. affect	12. affect

as easy as A B C

II

A. What is the difference between *let* and *leave?*
B. Is it correct to say, "Don't get *mad* if I tell you the truth"?
C. Which is preferable: "What *kind of day* is it?" or "What *kind of a day* is it?"

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Let, Leave

The distinction between these two words is largely a matter of idiom, though in general *leave* means *to depart* and *let* means *to allow*. Thus:

LET, *to allow:*
Let us go, *not Leave* us go.
Let him work tomorrow, *not Leave* him work tomorrow.
Let us be friends, *not Leave* us be friends.

LEAVE, *to depart:*
We will *leave* the house by two o'clock.
We'll *leave* for the coast tomorrow.
Has he *left* town yet?

Idiomatically, *let* is used in patterns like the following:

Let me alone (*or Leave* me alone).
Let me be.
Let him in.
The dog was *let* loose.

The cat was *let* out of the bag.
Let me off at Fifth Avenue.

Idiomatically, *leave* is used in these patterns:

Leave a tip.
Leave a legacy.
Five minus three *leaves* two.
Leave him alone (*or Let* him alone).
It *leaves* me cold.
Leave your work on my desk.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 7*

1. (Let, Leave) us not talk about it any more.
2. Why don't you (let, leave) Gary play with Margie?
3. (Let, Leave) him go.
4. (Let, Leave) her be.
5. (Let, Leave) them alone.
6. (Let, Leave) some money for the grocer.
7. He (let, left) the cat out of the bag at that time.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 7*

1 to 4 = let, 5 = *either* let *or* leave, 6 = leave, 7 = let

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Don't get *mad* if I tell you the truth.

Yes, *mad* means insane, when the word is used with that meaning. When we say *mad dog,* we do not mean an angry dog, and when we speak of a *madman,* we do not refer to someone in a fit of pique.

When we report that Jane is *mad* about men, it is true that we imply a mild (but understandable and not at all dangerous) form of insanity, rather than a condition of rage or anger.

In *Alice in Wonderland,* Humpty-Dumpty claims that a word means exactly what he intends it to mean, no more

nor less. Such an arbitrary criterion would of course lead to a certain degree of confusion if it were applied to ordinary communication; however, it is a fact that words do mean exactly what people *understand* them to mean, no more nor less.

And one thing people understand *mad* to mean, in addition to *demented,* is *angry*—provided the word is used in certain patterns:

That kind of talk makes me *mad.*
Don't get *mad* if your wife burns your supper.
He's *mad* at his father.

Such patterns are idiomatic, current, and acceptable; and in each instance the hearer understands *mad* to be synonymous with *angry*. The worst that can be said about *mad,* with such a clearly discernible meaning, is that it should not be followed by the preposition *on*. "He's mad on his brother" is an illiterate pattern, and particularly common in childhood parlance. (Typical childhood phrasing of the idea would be as follows: "I'm not mad on him any more. I'm glad on him today." Children, as you've discovered if you have any between the ages of five and eight, are alternately "mad" and "glad on" each other—apparently without any reason comprehensible to an adult. But people of all ages speak of having "a mad on," and women of a certain cast of mind make sure to keep some "mad money" handy—in case of an emergency.)

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "He is *mad* at his sister" is correct, idiomatic English established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree?

Pro (*with reservations*)

A. Although "He is mad at his sister" may to some extent be sanctioned by usage, I do not think that a Pater or

a Cabell or a Cather or anyone at all punctilious in the use of English would care to use it. In time it may become incorporated in the best English but I do not think that time has arrived as yet.

—William Bradley Otis

William Bradley Otis is professor of English at the College of the City of New York and author of a number of textbooks on English and American literature.

Pro (with reservations)

A. I am willing to concede that "He is mad at his sister" may have become correct English through common usage, but I would never dream of using it myself. I don't like the sound of it.

—Bennett Cerf

Mr. Cerf is president of Random House, book publishers, and is the compiler of innumerable anthologies, including *Anything for a Laugh* and *Try and Stop Me.*

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

What *kind of day* is it? *or*
What *kind of a day* is it?

The word *a* is considered unnecessary, following "what kind," "what sort," or "what type," and is rarely heard in educated speech, although it is prevalent in illiterate language patterns.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

What *kind of book* do you want?
What *sort of fool* do you think I am?
What *type of dress* should she wear?

chapter 5 HOW TO BE EXPLICIT

1. The Problem

What is the difference between *principal* and *principle?*

2. The Solution

Our new problem involves an understanding of a third part of speech—the *adjective.*

But what is an *adjective?*

The word *adjective,* you recall, is formed from two Latin elements: *ad,* toward; and *ject,* thrown.

An adjective is a word thrown toward a noun.

This description may sound somewhat violent and inelegant, so let us use the correct grammatical terminology. To wit:

An adjective *modifies* a noun.

And what does *modify* mean?

The term *modify,* as used in grammar, is synonymous with *limiting.*

An adjective *limits* a noun. It makes the noun more explicit.

The noun *book* is general; it may refer to any book printed since Gutenberg invented movable type.

Let us limit our classification by calling it "an *obscene* book."

Now we are being more explicit.

An *obscene* book would refer to a more specialized category of reading matter—perhaps *The Memoirs of Fannie Hill, a Woman of Pleasure.* (This is a classic and very famous piece of pornography reputedly written by Samuel Clelland in the reign of Queen Victoria. And, so the story

goes, the British government offered its author a pension for life if he would stop writing. The original, profusely illustrated, edition is, as you can imagine, a collector's item.)

The description *obscene* may refer to *The Life and Loves of Frank Harris,* or to D. H. Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover* (unexpurgated), or to *Memoirs of Hecate County* by Edmund Wilson (banned in New York), or even to *Forever Amber* by Kathleen Winsor (banned in Boston), such classification depending, of course, on your moral and literary point of view.

Hollywood is fond of adjectives. A new picture (noun) may be described by such words as *colossal* (adjective), *sensational* (adjective), *supercolossal* (adjective), *stupendous, thrill-packed, unforgettable* (adjectives). In Hollywood parlance, these adjectives would signify that a picture is tolerably good, or at least it cost a lot of money to produce.

The part of speech of a word depends entirely on its function within the sentence. The word *list,* for example, can be a noun, a verb, or an adjective, according to its use.

NOUN (the name of a concept): The *list* is complete.
VERB (a conveyor of action): We will *list* your name.
ADJECTIVE (a modifier of a noun): The *list* price is high.

Certain words are conventionally considered as static parts of speech, with other forms of the same word assuming the functions of other parts of speech. Thus:

NOUN	VERB	ADJECTIVE
resistance	to resist	irresistible

(But of course *resistance* would be an adjective in: "He is a member of the *resistance* movement.")

player	to play	playful
argument	to argue	argumentative
nation	to nationalize	national

Identifying adjectives in a sentence is child's play. In the following short paragraph, study the italicized adjectives. The arrow leads to the noun (or pronoun) which each adjective modifies.

"Mr. Blandings Builds His Dream House" is illustrated, by WILLIAM STEIG, in very much the *same* mood of *quiet* desperation with which it is written. If a book that keeps one *wreathed* in smiles throughout can be described as a *funny* book, that is what *Mr. Blandings* is. But if you want to go and get *philosophical* (we do) it is the story of a *universal* experience. It is the story of a *gentle* creature trying to build its nest in the midst of *whirring* machinery—the machinery of *jungle* ethics and *slaughterhouse* manners that a man encounters dealing with land and landlords.

—An ad by Simon and Schuster in the *Saturday Review of Literature,* January 6, 1946

Dream is not italicized, since the full title of a book is usually considered a single noun. However, in any other context, *dream house* would consist of the noun *house* and its modifying adjective *dream.*

Now that you've learned how to find adjectives, find some for yourself.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 8*

Find seven adjectives in the following paragraph (you

realize, of course, that a noun can be modified by more than one adjective). Draw an arrow to the noun that each adjective modifies.

> At *Essandess* there are several amateur country gentlemen who have been staggering through the soul-searing, manic experience of building or remodeling a country home. You can tell them apart from the others by the look of vague pain on their faces.
>
> —Same ad

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 8*

1. *several,* modifies gentlemen
2. *amateur,* modifies gentlemen
3. *country,* modifies gentlemen
4. *soul-searing,* modifies experience
5. *manic,* modifies experience
6. *country,* modifies home
7. *vague,* modifies pain

Note 1: *Country,* which might conventionally be considered a noun, here serves in two instances to limit a noun, hence in each particular sentence functions as an adjective. If we say, "I love my country," *country* is a noun; if however we speak of *country gentlemen, country home, country escapades, country delights,* the word acts as an adjective. The part of speech of any word depends on the way in which that word is used within the sentence.

Note 2: The adjective *soul-searing* is made up of two parts, *soul,* conventionally considered a noun, and *searing,* conventionally considered part of a verb. If a stranger stopped you on Fifth Avenue one morning and said: "Quick, what part of speech is *soul?* And how about *searing?*" you would be justified in answering *noun* and *verb.* But in *soul kiss, soul* is an adjective; in *searing experience, searing is an adjective;* and in *soul-searing experience, soul-searing* is considered as a unit and is an adjective.

Note 3: The words *the* and *a* (also *an*) are additional adjectives in the paragraph you have just studied. Although

adjectives, since they modify nouns, they are given the special name of *articles*.

Note 4: *Their*, in the last line, may seem to be an adjective, and indeed some grammarians would call it a possessive adjective, but the more common term applied to the words *my, your, his, her, its, our,* and *their* is *possessive pronoun*. Pronouns will be more fully considered in a later chapter.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 9*

If your last experience with adjectives was not soul-searing, and if you feel you are becoming more and more expert in spotting these useful parts of speech, find five adjectives in the following paragraph. Again note modification with an arrow. (Ignore the articles.)

> Comments from advance readers of *Mr. Blandings* are just starting to come in and fairly burble with the sort of lapel-grabbing enthusiasm that makes a great best-seller. For example, HENRY SEIDEL CANBY writes: *"Mr. Hodgins' invention is extraordinary, his imagination as humorous as any I have encountered."*
>
> —Still the same ad

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 9*

1. *Advance,* modifies readers
2. *lapel-grabbing,* modifies enthusiasm
3. *great,* modifies best-seller
4. *extraordinary,* modifies invention
5. *humorous,* modifies imagination

Note: Here for the first time you have met adjectives which do not precede the nouns they modify. *Extraordinary* and *humorous* come not only after their nouns, but after the verb of the sentence as well. Such adjectives are called *predicate adjectives,* for reasons which will be made clear in a later chapter.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 10*

Now that you have $32, would you like to try for $64? Find any six verbs in the paragraph you have just been working on, and write each verb in the proper space below.

1 ....., 2 ....., 3 .....,

4 ....., 5 ....., 6 .....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 10*

1. are starting
2. to come
3. burble
4. makes
5. writes
6. is
7. have encountered

Note 1: *Comments,* the first word in the paragraph, can function just as easily as a verb, but not in the type of sentence illustrated, where it is a noun. In the following it is used as a verb: Alan Sack *comments:* "Take that book away. It's too good to read." And here as a noun: "It is to be hoped that such *comments* are facetious." Can you readily appreciate the difference in atmosphere in the two uses of the same word?

Note 2: *Advance,* used in the paragraph as an adjective, can be a verb if verbal force is given to it in a sentence. For example: "The men will *advance.*"

Note 3: *Are starting,* the first verb in the sentence, is made up of two parts, as many verbs are. When a verb has more than one part, you will recall, it is termed a *verb phrase.*

What has all this to do with *principal* and *principle?*

Just this:

Principle (*-ple* ending) is a noun.

It is one of the few nouns that are fairly static. It should never be used as an adjective.

Principal (*-pal* ending) is an adjective. This word too is fairly static. There are two instances, to be noted shortly, in

which *principal* may be used as a noun—otherwise it is always an adjective.

As a noun, *principle* means a rule, a truth, a law of conduct or action.

He is a man of *principle.*
The *principle* of gravity was discovered by Newton.
Aren't you violating your professed *principles* by this action?

As an adjective, *principal* means main, chief, leading.

North Avenue is one of the *principal* thoroughfares of New Rochelle.
What do you think is the *principal* reason why Germany lost the war?

And the exception, mentioned earlier:
Principal may be used as a noun referring:

1. to a sum of money:

This bank will pay 1½ per cent on your *principal.*

2. to a person who is the chief or leading figure of a school, drama, business deal, and the like:

The *principal* addressed the teachers at the faculty meeting.
Lunt and Fontanne were the *principals* in "The Guardsman."
The negotiations were carried on for the *principals* by their attorneys.

3. The Rule

Is an *adjective* required? Use *principal.*
Is a *noun* required? Use *principle.*
However, is a *noun* required which refers to a person or a sum of money? Use *principal.*

How to remember the rule: Principle, the noun, ends in *-le.* So does the word *rule,* which is what a *principle* is. *Principal,* the adjective, ends in *-al.* The word *adjective* starts with *a,* and the word *main* contains an *a; principal* is an *adjective* meaning *main.*

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 11*

Check the proper word in each sentence.

1. General Marshall, one of the (principal, principle) figures in the 1946 Chinese negotiations, was appointed Secretary of State.
2. Marshall is a man of deep conviction and (principal, principle).
3. The (principal, principle) problems to confront him were Russia, Poland, and Spain.
4. The (principal, principle) of the school has just left.
5. With a (principal, principle) of $150,000, you can live comfortably on your income.
6. Strict (principals, principles) are expensive; sometimes you must be willing to compromise.
7. Once you master certain basic (principals, principles) in grammar, you need never worry whether you are speaking correct English.
8. The (principal, principle) reason for her refusal is that she doesn't like his personality and approach.
9. Henry Wallace will be the (principal, principle) speaker on the panel.
10. This house will be sold to (principals, principles) only; no agents.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 11*

1. principal
2. principle
3. principal
4. principal
5. principal
6. principles
7. principles
8. principal
9. principal
10. principals

as easy as A B C

III

A. What is the difference between *hung* and *hanged?*
B. Is it correct to say, "I would like to speak *to* Mr. Sack"?
C. Which is preferable: *mother-in-laws* or *mothers-in-law?*

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Hung, Hanged

Pictures are *hung* on the wall; the stockings were *hung* by the chimney with care (in hopes that St. Nicholas soon would be there); the icicles have *hung* from the window since the snowstorm; the clothes were *hung* out on the line to dry.

Anything which is suspended is *hung.* A person has *hung* from a treetop if he has remained suspended there.

Horse thieves were once *hanged* for their crimes. The judge orders the murderer to be *hanged* by the neck until dead. The army has *hanged* the spy.

Hanged is used to describe *execution by hanging.* A person who is *hanged* is put to death. *Hanged* is, then, synonymous with *killed.* A person who has *hanged* himself has committed suicide. The murderer was *hanged* and his corpse *hung* from the gibbet until it was cut down.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 12*

1. If you're caught, you'll be (hanged, hung).

2. He (hanged, hung) from the window all morning watching the sights on the street.
3. The rope (hanged, hung) from the top of the building.
4. Despondent and ill, he (hanged, hung) himself.
5. Why have they (hanged, hung) the prisoner?
6. Her stockings (hanged, hung) down over her shoes.
7. If that mob catches the thief, he'll be (hanged, hung).
8. He (hanged, hung) himself before the law caught up with him.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 12*

1. hanged	4. hanged	7. hanged
2. hung	5. hanged	8. hanged
3. hung	6. hung	

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I would like to speak *to* Mr. Sack.

Logically, if you speak *to* Mr. Sack, he listens and you speak; if you speak *with* him, a conversation, rather than a monologue, takes place. As most human speaking is done on a give and take basis (I except the relatively rare instances, such as a wife giving her husband a curtain lecture), *speak with,* or *talk with,* should be, one might assume, the more frequently used expression. English is not, however, always a logical language—and as a matter of fact, *speak to,* despite its implication, is the locution most often employed. Both words, *to* and *with,* are equally correct from a grammatical point of view, but *to* is the more common. (Some people find *speak with* a trifle prissy.)

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Mother-in-laws or *Mothers-in-law?*

Certain hyphenated or multiple words form their plurals by adding *s* to the principal part:

mothers-in-law
fathers-in-law
brothers-in-law
sisters-in-law
passers-by
lookers-on
courts-martial
editors-in-chief
notaries public
hangers-on
maids-of-honor
men-of-war
poets laureate
attorneys general
postmasters general
sergeants-at-arms

PREFERABLE FORM:

mothers-in-law

chapter 6 HOW TO DO ALMOST ANYTHING

1. The Problem

Is *go slow* correct English?

2. The Solution

We are dealing with a two-word sentence: (1) *Go,* a verb, and (2) *slow,* an adjective? a verb? a noun?

Slow is not an adjective; it does not modify a noun or pronoun. (*Slow* used adjectivally: "*Slow* torture is generally unpleasant.")

Slow is not a verb; it does not denote action. (Verbal use: "*Slow* down and live longer.")

Slow is not a noun; it is not the name of a person, place, etc. (*Slow* changes in form to become a noun: "The tortoise's *slowness* is proverbial.")

Then how does *slow* function in the sentence in question?

Slow limits the verb *go.*

It makes the verb more specific.

It makes the verb more meaningful.

Go is general, unspecific.

Slow tells how to go.

By now you have begun to suspect, because of the close association between *slow* and the verb, that *slow* is an *adverb.*

Your suspicion is well-founded.

A word which modifies a verb *is* an adverb.

For example:

Go *slow.*

Go *now.*

Do *not* go.
Go *quickly*.
He listened *attentively*.
We'll go *tomorrow*.

All the italicized words in the preceding sentences are adverbs. Each one serves, in one way or another, to delimit the verb with which it is associated.

Adjectives modify nouns.
Adverbs modify verbs.
Adverbs also modify adjectives.

Her husband was ecstatically happy.

His wife was painfully thin.

Happy, an adjective, describes the noun *husband*.
Ecstatically, an adverb, elaborates upon the meaning of *happy*.
Thin, an adjective, describes the noun *wife*.
Painfully, an adverb, elaborates on the meaning of *thin*.
Painfully and *ecstatically* are adverbs which modify adjectives.

Examine the following sentence:

Alan's finger, not yet completely better, is still giving him a painfully awkward time.

Find the first adjective. ..... (first adjective)
What noun does it modify? ..... (noun)
Now find three adverbs which modify that adjective.
....., ..., ... (adverbs)
Next find the two-word verb phrase. .....
(verb phrase)
Write the adverb which modifies that verb phrase. .....
(adverb)
Finally, there is a second adjective. .....
(second adjective)

And a fifth adverb, modifying that adjective. .....
(fifth adverb)

This is the way your chart should look:

better (first adjective)
finger (noun)
not, yet, completely (adverbs)
is giving (verb phrase)
still (adverb)
awkward (second adjective)
painfully (fifth adverb)

If you've come this far without mishap, you're ready for a third point:
First point restated: Adverbs modify verbs.
Second point restated: Adverbs modify adjectives.
Third point: Adverbs also modify other adverbs.
To wit:

You can live more happily . . .

The adverb *happily* modifies the verb phrase *can live.*
The adverb *more* modifies the adverb *happily.*

She speaks less effectively . . .

The adverb *effectively* modifies the verb *speaks.*
The adverb *less* modifies the adverb *effectively.*
So:

An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

This rule will help us with a number of problems:

1. Do it *good, or* Do it *well?*
2. Mary arrived home *safe, or* Mary arrived home *safely?*

3. Go *slow, or* Go *slowly?*
4. How *slow* the time goes, *or* How *slowly* the time goes?

Let us consider the problems one by one.

Problem 1: *Good* is conventionally considered an adjective; *well* is the adverbial form of the same idea. Since a modifier of the verb *do* is required, "Do it *well*" is correct. Similarly, "Come *promptly,*" "Speak *distinctly,*" "Handle it *carefully,*" are preferable to "Come *prompt,*" "Speak *distinct,*" "Handle it *careful.*" The adverb in each instance describes the action of the verb.

Problem 2: *Safe,* the adjective form, would limit the noun *Mary; safely,* the adverb, would limit the verb *arrived.* Does the word in question describe Mary when she got home, or does it explain the manner of the arrival? In a pattern such as this, it is generally considered that the condition of the noun is being described by the word *safe.* That is, Mary was safe when she got home. Similarly we say, "The package arrived *damaged,*" "He weathered the battle *unscarred,*" "He came through the fight *unscathed,*" etc., each adjective describing the condition of the noun or pronoun, rather than the manner of action of the verb. "Mary arrived home *safe*" is the preferable form.

Perhaps you are getting the idea that the main difference between adjectives and adverbs is the ending *-ly.* You are partly right.

ADJECTIVE FORM	ADVERBIAL FORM
swift	swiftly
rapid	rapidly
curious	curiously
fleet	fleetly
wistful	wistfully

But not all adverbs end in *-ly,* as the following adverbs attest:

fast (Do it *fast.*)
once (Do it only *once.*)
now (Do it *now.*)
forever (To cherish *forever.*)
today (Do it *today.*)

And not all words ending in *-ly* are adverbs. The following are adjectives:

likely (a *likely* story)
comely (a *comely* face)
seemly (*seemly* behavior)
leisurely (a *leisurely* journey)
manly (a *manly* act)

What is true is that adverbs may be formed from adjectives by the addition of the adverbial ending *-ly*.

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
sweet	sweetly
happy	happily
cool	coolly

All this is by way of introduction to the third and fourth problems:

Problem 3: "Go *slow*" or "Go *slowly*"?

An adverb is undoubtedly required—we want a modifier for the verb *go*. "Go *slowly*" must be correct—*slowly* is an adverb.

But—

"Go *slow*" is also correct—indeed it is equally correct, and perhaps a good deal less stilted.

Slow, in the expression "Go *slow*" is not an adjective, despite its lack of the adverbial ending.

Slow, in this construction, is an adverb.

It is an adverb because it functions as an adverb within the framework of the sentence.

If you will look the word up in any good dictionary (say the Merriam-Webster, the Webster's New World, the American College, or the Thorndike-Barnhart) you will find it listed as both an adjective and an adverb.

Slow is an adjective when it modifies a noun; it is an adverb when it modifies a verb.

Such a distinction could of course be made about any adjective functioning as an adverb. We could take the sentence "Speak *rapid*" and, calling *rapid* an adverb, since it is used to modify a verb, argue that no grammatical rules were being broken. However, the test of good grammar is current educated usage. "Speak *rapid*" is rarely if ever used by educated speakers or established writers; it is not part of the idiom of the language. On the other hand, "Go *slow*," or one of its variations, has been used for years and is still used today. Shakespeare used it in the sentence, "How *slow* the time goes," centuries back; writers have used it over and over again in all the years since Shakespeare; police signs all over the country today (STEEP HILL—GO SLOW; SCHOOL—GO SLOW; CURVE—GO SLOW, etc.) attest to the universality of the acceptance of *slow* as an adverb.

"Go *slow*," then, is correct English.

Of course in less idiomatic usages, the conventional adverbial form of the word, *slowly*, is preferable. To wit:

He *slowly* spelled out the words.
Slowly he began to feel his way along the ledge.

On the other hand, in short, common, expressions, *slow* may be, and often is, used adverbially:

Speak *slow*.
Do it *slow*.
Speak *slower*.
Do it *slower*.
Walk *slow*.

Problem 4: "How *slow* the time goes," by the reasoning used for an analysis of problem 3, is acceptable English.

Similarly, such expressions as "That car is moving so *slow,*" "How *slow* the wheel turns," etc., are equally acceptable.

In deciding whether to use *slow* or *slowly* in an adverbial function, be guided by the rhythm, cadence, and commonness of the expression in which the word occurs. If *slow* sounds better and more natural than *slowly*, use the shorter form, and be assured that your grammar is just as good as that of the person who consistently, and perhaps somewhat artificially, uses *slowly* whenever an adverb is required.

3. The Rule

An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

An adverb often answers the question *how? when? where?* or *to what degree?* about a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

For example:

"He speaks *rapidly.*" *How* does he speak? *Rapidly.*
"He is happier *today* than *yesterday.*" *When* is he happier? *Today.*
"Do it *more* carefully." *How* carefully? *More* carefully.
"Go *home.*" Go *where? Home.*

PRO AND CON

Pro

—And it loads *quicker*, works *slicker* . . . because of its open channel!

—Advertisement of Swingline Staplers,
New York Times Magazine

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "Go slow" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in in-

formal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Sure, it's good. So is "Talk low" and "Look sharp." But then "in everyday speech" I'd use "Stop quick," "Lie quiet!" and to my squads "Dress even!" and "Think fast."

—Thornton Wilder

Mr. Wilder is the author of *Our Town, The Skin of Our Teeth, The Bridge of San Luis Rey* and other best-selling novels and hit plays.

Pro

A. Not only do I use and approve of the idiom "Go slow," but if I find myself with people who do not, I leave quick.

—Rex Stout

Mr. Stout, creator of Detective Nero Wolfe, is the author of *Not Quite Dead Enough, Black Orchids,* and other mysteries. He is president of the Author's League.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 13*

Underline the adverbs in the following sentences.

1. Never say die.
2. Do not play with fire.
3. She's less homely than you led me to believe.
4. He lives more dangerously than anyone else I know.
5. Why work so hard?
6. When are you coming home?
7. He goes where he's directed.
8. He spoke witheringly about his wife's insanely jealous moods.

9. You work too hard for your salary.
10. You're speaking too rapidly; we can't listen that fast.

There were twenty adverbs in the preceding ten sentences. Did you find them all? Count your results before checking with the answers below.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 13*

1. never
2. not
3. less
4. more, dangerously
5. why, so, hard
6. when, home
7. where
8. witheringly, insanely
9. too, hard
10. too, rapidly, not (n't), that, fast

as easy as A B C

IV

A. What is the difference between *incredible* and *incredulous?*

B. Is it correct to say, "I'll come *providing* you invite me"?

C. Which is preferable: "Take two *spoonsful* of your medicine every hour," or "Take two *spoonfuls* of your medicine every hour"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Incredible, Incredulous

Some stories are *incredible;* some people's brashness, or naïveté, or luck is *incredible.*

We may speak of *incredibly* good fortune, of *incredibly* bad manners.

You listen *incredulously,* you sound *incredulous* when you show your skepticism. Some Democrats may have been *incredulous* when they heard the results of the 1946 election.

An account, a story, a report is *incredible* if it is difficult to believe. A person is *incredulous* if he is inclined to disbelieve what he sees or hears. In addition, a person may be *incredible* if his actions, his personality, or his attitudes cause disbelief. On the other hand, a person is *credulous* if he believes what he hears when there is little evidence to support such belief. (Indeed, if his willingness to believe everything is excessive, he might more effectively be described by the stronger adjective *naïve* or *gullible.*)

A story is *credible* if it warrants belief.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 14*

1. You are too (credulous, credible); can you not distinguish fact from fancy?
2. I believe that is the truth; at least it's a perfectly (credulous, credible) story.
3. He stared (incredulously, incredibly) at the strange sight, refusing to believe the evidence of his own eyes.
4. He told an (incredulous, incredible) story of his night's adventures.
5. The climate at the Equator is (incredulously, incredibly) hot.
6. You have the most (incredulous, incredible) luck!
7. He's an (incredulous, incredible) character. It's hard to believe that such a person can exist.
8. Don't look so (incredulous, incredible) when I tell you what happened to me.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 14*

1. credulous	4. incredible	7. incredible
2. credible	5. incredibly	8. incredulous
3. incredulously	6. incredible	

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I'll come *providing* you invite me.

There is no essential difference, on any level of speech or writing, between the words *provided* and *providing.*

The Merriam-Webster *Collegiate Dictionary* defines *provided* as follows: "on condition; if"; and *providing:* "in case that." The Funk and Wagnalls dictionary says that *provided* means: "on condition that"; and that *providing* means: "provided; in case that"!

Obviously, the words are interchangeable. Which you use is a matter of entirely free choice, although sticklers for "pure" grammar prefer *provided* in the type of sentence illustrated above.

Say either:

She'll marry you *provided* you ask her, *or* She'll marry you *providing* you ask her.

Provided you pay for the shipment C.O.D., we'll accept your order, *or Providing* you pay for the shipment C.O.D., we'll accept your order.

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "I'll work, *providing* you pay me," is correct, idiomatic English established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. I consider *providing* a commonly used variant of *provided* or *provided that.* However, I do not use the expression in my everyday speech and writing, since I naturally prefer the simple *if.* To express stipulation in a legal document I would use *provided that.*

—Rudolf Flesch, Ph.D.

Dr. Flesch is the author of *The Art of Plain Talk, Why Johnnie Can't Read* and other books.

Pro

Every farmer receives free fertilizer, *providing* he works on the land-use plan.

—Carol Hughes, "The Little Shepherd of Big Lick," *Coronet,* November, 1947

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Take two *spoonsful* of your medicine every hour, *or*
Take two *spoonfuls* of your medicine every hour?

Spoonsful is not an accepted word. *Two spoons full,* which sounds the same, could be rationalized to mean two

separate spoons, each one full. With dishwashing the onerous task that it is, most sensible people use one spoon and fill it twice. Such action is implied in *two spoonfuls.*

PREFERABLE FORMS:

spoonfuls of medicine
cupfuls of flour
handfuls of rice
glassfuls of coffee

chapter 7 HOW TO END A SENTENCE

1. The Problem

Is it incorrect, as so many adults learned in their elementary and high school days, to end a sentence with a preposition?

2. The Solution

Modern young teachers with a pedagogical sense of humor now tell their students in elementary and high school English classes: A preposition is a word you must not end a sentence *with.*

What once prompted the ban against a preposition as the final word in a sentence? Probably three conditions, each one of them insufficient, pedantic, and unnecessary:

First condition: The Latin origin of the term *preposition.* Preposition, you will recall from chapter 3, is made up of the prefix *pre-* (before) and the root *posit* (placed). A preposition is placed *before* a noun, and if we wish to observe the definition literally, how can we set it at the end of a sentence, with no noun following? (But it is illogical to base grammar on etymology.)

Second condition: In very formal writing, prepositions usually do precede nouns or pronouns. In conversation we might naturally render our thought as follows: "What could he be thinking *of?*" or "Is this the book you referred *to?*" But in very formal style these ideas would be rephrased to: "*Of* what could he be thinking?" and "Is this the book *to*

which you referred?" (Purists would like us to speak as if we were writing state papers—an obvious impossibility.)

Third condition: In Latin, a preposition is indeed never found except preceding its noun or pronoun. Purists often reason: Is it wrong in Latin? Then it's wrong in English too. (Here again we see a slight touch of insanity. What makes correct English of course is the common usage of the educated speakers of *our* language, not of Latin or any other language. Educated speakers and writers end a sentence with a preposition whenever they find it natural to do so.)

In some types of sentences, it is quite impossible *not* to end a sentence with a preposition. For instance:

He is not a man to be laughed *at*.
My affections are not to be trifled *with*.
She will not stand being made fun *of*.
They do not enjoy being stared *at*.
That will be taken care *of*.

(Try rearranging these sentences if you think a preposition should not terminate a sentence!)

H. W. Fowler, in his deservedly famous handbook, *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage* (Oxford), has this to say about ending a sentence with a preposition:

> Those who lay down the universal principle that final prepositions are "inelegant" are unconsciously trying to deprive the English language of a valuable idiomatic resource which has been used freely by all our greatest writers except those whose instinct for English idiom has been overpowered by notions of correctness derived from Latin standards. The legitimacy of the prepositional ending in Literary English must be uncompromisingly maintained. . . .

(And of course there is the classic example of the child whose parent brought up to the nursery the wrong book for

the nightly story. Casting all restraint to the winds, the child inquired in a tone of bruised dignity: "What did you bring that book up for me to be read to out of for?" If you're aiming for a nervous breakdown, just try to eliminate those four terminal prepositions!)

Fowler goes on to list the reputable authors who end sentences with prepositions: Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Jonson, Burton, Pepys, Swift, Defoe, Lamb, Thackeray, Kipling, and many others.

In natural speech and writing, by all means end a sentence with a preposition if you wish to. Note these examples:

CORRECT AND NATURAL	SOMEWHAT STILTED
People worth talking to . . .	People to whom it is worth talking . . .
What were they thinking of?	Of what were they thinking?
The girl I was talking about . . .	The girl about whom I was talking . . .
The man we were listening to . . .	The man to whom we were listening . . .
The person I have the greatest faith in . . .	The person in whom I have the greatest faith . . .

Margaret M. Bryant, professor of English at Brooklyn College, succinctly stated the case for the terminal preposition in a paper in the January, 1947, issue of *College English,* a magazine published by the National Council of Teachers of English:

> From the time of the Old English period, prepositions have greatly increased in number and express many complicated relationships not found in the old idiom. Those who insist that final prepositions are inelegant are taking from the English language one of its greatest assets—its flexibility—an advantage realized and practiced by all our greatest writers except a few who, like Dryden and Gibbon, tried to fashion the English language after the

Latin. One may quickly get an idea of the extensive use of the final preposition by turning to H. W. Fowler's discussion of this matter in his *Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, where he cites a large number of examples, including Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Jonson, Bacon, the Bible, Milton, Pepys, Congreve, Swift, Defoe, Burke, Cowper, Lamb, Hazlitt, De Quincey, Landor, Ruskin, Mill, Thackeray, Arnold, Lowell, and Kipling. After this array of quotations from our great writers, his parting advice is:

"Follow no arbitrary rule, but remember that there are often two or more possible arrangements between which a choice should be consciously made; if the abnormal, or at least unorthodox, final preposition that has naturally presented itself sounds comfortable, keep it; if it does not sound comfortable, still keep it if it has compensating vigor, or when among awkward possibilities it is the least awkward."

Now that we know that a preposition is a word we may end a sentence with (without committing grammatical suicide), perhaps we ought to be quite sure as to what, specifically and exactly, the preposition is.

In the course of this chapter, nine prepositions, out of the scores of prepositions in the language, have already been mentioned:

with of to at out for about in up

A preposition, as its name implies, has a position before a noun or pronoun—unless, of course, it ends the sentence, in which case the noun or pronoun is found somewhere before the preposition.

There is, however we slice it, a very definite relationship between a preposition and a noun (or pronoun), no matter what the order of their position.

That is the principal thing to keep in mind—prepositions are linked with nouns or pronouns—indissolubly, inevitably, every preposition ties in, somehow or other, with its

noun or pronoun; whether the noun or pronoun be expressed or implied, it is governed by the preposition.

In itself, a preposition has little meaning.

It is unlike a verb—it shows no action.

It is unlike a noun—it names nothing.

It is unlike an adjective or adverb—by itself it does not serve to describe, limit, or qualify.

A preposition is, rather, a link in the chain of a sentence—it ties a noun or pronoun to the rest of the sentence.

It is easy to get on good terms with prepositions. Study the following paragraph, in which all the prepositions are underlined: [1]

> One of the most eminent examples of nineteenth-century British statesmen was Sir Robert Peel. In 1812, at the early age of 24, he was given the post of Secretary of Ireland. Among the vexing questions that confronted him was the preservation of life and property at a time when both were notoriously insecure in the Emerald Isle. Peel solved this problem by creating a strong Irish constabulary, the members of which, in tribute to the founder, were soon called *peelers*. Seventeen years later, Robert Peel organized along similar lines the first modern London police force; and the English, not to be outdone by their Irish cousins, used Peel's first name to call the officers *bobbies*—and the name stuck.

Notice how each of the prepositions in the paragraph you have studied is accompanied by its noun, with two exceptions to be explained shortly.

of . . . examples	of . . . 24
of . . . statesmen	of . . . Secretary
in . . . 1812	of . . . Ireland
at . . . age	among . . . questions

[1] From *This Week;* copyright by United Newspaper Magazines, Inc.

of . . . life in . . . Isle
at . . . time in . . . tribute

etc.

The two exceptions: *to be* and *to call.* An apparent, but not real exception: *by creating.*

The preposition *to* is used with a verb to form *an infinitive.* Other examples of infinitives: *to see, to have, to know, to use,* and so on.

The *-ing* from of a verb may be combined with a preposition: *by creating, for using, against working, while playing,* and the like. Such a form of the verb when combined with a preposition is called a *gerund.* A gerund, while formed from a verb, is functioning within a sentence as a noun—so we do not have here a full-fledged exception to the rule that prepositions govern nouns or pronouns.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 15*

Now that you are becoming familiar with the appearance and use of prepositions, try your hand at finding twenty-seven prepositions in the following paragraph: [2]

> A Scotsman returned to his native land shortly after the Revolutionary War with a fortune he had acquired by trading in captured ships. He was made road trustee of his district, and at once set about to find some better way of building roads, with the object of improving the very poor highways of the locality. When the taxpayers objected to the cost of the experiments, the trustee went ahead with them anyhow, paying for them out of his own pocket. This research convinced him that the most durable roads were those constructed of layers of broken stones. Some years later he was appointed surveyor general of Bristol roads, and was able to put his ideas into practice. The result was so gratifying that the House of Commons voted not only to reimburse *John L. McAdam*

[2] *Ibid.*

for the $40,000 of his own money that he had spent experimenting, but to give him an extra $10,000 as a tribute. The *macadamized* road has proved that it was money well spent.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 15*

Here are the twenty-seven prepositions as they occurred in the paragraph, each with its noun, pronoun, gerund, or (forming an infinitive) verb:

1. to . . . land (noun)
2. after . . . war (noun)
3. with . . . fortune (noun)
4. by . . . trading (gerund)
5. in . . . ships (noun)
6. of . . . district (noun)
7. to . . . find (infinitive)
8. of . . . building (gerund)
9. with . . . object (noun)
10. of . . . improving (gerund)
11. of . . . locality (noun)
12. to . . . cost (noun)
13. of . . . experiments (noun)
14. with . . . them (pronoun)
15. for . . . them (pronoun)
16. out of . . . pocket (noun) (an example of a double preposition)
17. of . . . layers (noun)
18. of . . . stone (noun)
19. of . . . roads (noun)
20. to . . . put (infinitive)
21. into . . . practice (noun)
22. of . . . Commons (noun)
23. to . . . reimburse (infinitive)
24. for . . . $40,000 (noun)
25. of . . . money (noun)
26. to . . . give (infinitive)
27. as . . . tribute (noun)

If you have given a creditable account of yourself in the test just completed, we may set down these truths:

You can now spot a preposition.

You can now determine the noun, pronoun, gerund, or verb governed by the preposition.

Such being the case, you should know that a preposition and its noun, together with any modifiers of that noun,

make up a *prepositional phrase*. The preposition *to* and its verb make up an *infinitive phrase*.

Here are some of the prepositional phrases from the paragraph about John L. McAdam:

to his native land	by trading
after the Revolutionary War	of his district
with a fortune	of the locality
in captured ships	as a tribute

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 16*

Find twenty-one prepositional phrases and three infinitive phrases in the following paragraphs: [3]

When he was the Comptroller General of France, just before the French Revolution, he rashly advocated raising money by taxing the lands of the nobles. He argued that if the rich aristocracy would make some sacrifices, the country would soon be able to lighten its financial burdens. The landed messeigneurs were of course horrified at his radical proposals. Reduce their pensions? Melt down their table plate into money? The Comptroller soon had few friends left in the government.

But the common people took him to their hearts. At the time that the Comptroller General was fighting for his program it had become popular to have profile portraits cut out of black paper and mounted, and it soon was the rage of Paris.

What was more fitting than to give the name of this man to a type of portraiture then so much in vogue? And so it is that Etienne de Silhouette, finance minister of France, interested far more in money than in art, is remembered in connection with the type of picturization that bears his name.

[3] *Ibid.*

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 16*

Prepositional phrases

1. of France
2. before the French Revolution
3. by taxing
4. of the nobles
5. at his radical proposals
6. into money
7. in the government
8. to their hearts
9. at the time
10. for his program
11. out of black paper
12. of Paris
13. of this man
14. to a type
15. of portraiture
16. in vogue
17. of France
18. in money
19. in art
20. in connection
21. with the type
22. of picturization

Infinitive phrases

1. to lighten
2. to have
3. to give

3. The Rule

A preposition is a perfectly good word to end a sentence *with.*

as easy as A B C

V

A. What is the difference between *imply* and *infer?*

B. Is it correct to say, "The reason I love you is *because* you are so pretty"?

C. Which is correct: "The cat licked *it's* paws," or "The cat licked *its* paws"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Imply, Infer

You *imply* that you do not like your mother-in-law. You could be more direct and come right out and say so, but you prefer to use a certain amount of subtlety—after all, she's your wife's mother. So instead of expressing yourself unequivocally, you make an *implication.*

Your mother-in-law *infers,* from your words, your innuendos, your unmistakable hints, perhaps from your actions, that you do not like her. She draws such an *inference,* and of course is far from pleased about it.

To *imply* is to hint or express indirectly. Only a person speaking or acting can *imply* anything; or his words or actions can make the *implication.*

To *infer* is to draw a conclusion from someone's *implication.* Only a listener or watcher can *infer* anything.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 17*

1. Your words (infer, imply) that I am a liar.
2. Do you (infer, imply) from what he says that he dislikes you?

3. His actions (infer, imply) that he does not know what he is doing.
4. What (inference, implication) can we draw from the facts that Adelaide and Russell have presented to us?
5. I resent your (inference, implication) that I cheated you.
6. It is unfortunate that you are always making (implications, inferences) about your friend's dishonesty.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 17*

1. imply	3. imply	5. implication
2. infer	4. inference	6. implications

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

The reason I love you is *because* you are so pretty.

"The reason . . . is *because*" is perfectly acceptable in informal conversation. The strictly grammatical form, "The reason I love you is *that* you are so pretty" may be preferable on the literary or formal level, but in everyday speech no stigma attaches to using "because" after "the reason is."

PRO AND CON

Q. What is your opinion of "The reason I love her is *because* she is so pretty"? Would you use the expression?

Pro

A. Yes, I certainly would use the expression "The reason I love her is *because* she is so pretty." I wouldn't use it because it was "correct," because I don't like the words *correct* and *incorrect*. It seems to me that they straitjacket the language. I would rather say that the phrase that you have asked about has been made acceptable by common usage.

I could easily write a book on this general subject if anybody would read it. It is rather amusing that Ralph Waldo

Emerson is on my side, and he certainly could hardly be called a roustabout. Perhaps you have already seen the following quotation from one of his books. If you haven't, it may interest and amuse you. Says the sage:

> The language of the street is always strong. What can describe the folly and emptiness of scolding but the word "jawing"? I feel, too, the force of the double negative, though clean contrary to our grammar rules. And I confess to some pleasure from the stinging rhetoric of a rattling oath in the mouth of truckmen and teamsters. How laconic and brisk it is by the side of a page of the *North American Review*. Cut these words and they bleed; they are vascular and alive; they walk and run. Moreover, they who speak them have this elegancy, that they do not trip in their speech. It is a shower of bullets, whilst Cambridge men and Yale men correct themselves and begin again at every half-sentence.

Now I love words. Yet to me there is nothing sacred about them. Or about pronunciation. Or spelling. Or grammar. True, these departments are all subject to rules. But many of the rules are merely a point in time. That is, they were not the rules yesterday, nor will they be the rules of tomorrow. If the scholars had their way these rules would remain static. Pronunciations would be precise. Grammar standardized. Definitions fixed. And the new words that entered the language would never, never come from the mouths of the unwashed of Ipswich. But bothersome folks who don't know any better are continually changing their ideas about language, and are constantly inventing new terms. And when they do, the scholars have to go into a huddle and retailor the rules to fit.

To my proletarian mind this is just fine. For the language we speak is a fluid phenomenon, and if we allow the dictionary brass hats too much authority, we might find ourselves with a medium of expression that had become as rigid and lifeless as Latin.

If my youngest child should say, "I don't want no spinach," it would be clear to me, in spite of the purists, that she had a double dislike for the vegetable. I will even carry my Declaration of Independence to a greater extreme. It is often my pleasure, during a day's work, to say "It is me" precisely as the wise French say "C'est moi." And despite the purists, I think it is well to wisely split an infinitive now and then. And in my faith there are times when a preposition is the perfect thing to end a sentence with, if for no other reason than to show, by small rebellions, that grammar is our servant and not our master.

—Wilfred Funk

Dr. Funk is a noted lexicographer. He is the publisher of *Your Life,* author of the *Reader's Digest* feature, "It Pays to Increase Your Word Power," coauthor of *30 Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary* and author of *The Way to Vocabulary Power and Culture.*

Con

A. I find the expression "The reason is because" awkward and on a par with "different than" in ear-grating quality.

—Pegeen Fitzgerald

Mrs. Fitzgerald is a famous radio personality. She is the feminine half of "The Fitzgeralds," the popular radio show.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

The cat licked *it's* paws, *or*
The cat licked *its* paws?

Its means *belonging to it,* and signifies ownership.

It's means *it is,* and is a contracted form, the apostrophe taking the place of the omitted letter *i.*

CORRECT FORMS:

The cat licked *its* paws.

The baby has soiled *its* diaper.

(Other possessive pronouns, like *ours, hers, theirs,* similarly omit any apostrophe. The apostrophe to denote possession is found only in nouns, not pronouns: *boy's, girl's, boys', girls',* etc.)

chapter 8 HOW TO SUBSTITUTE

1. The Problem

Which is correct: "Everyone came on time but *she,*" or "everyone came on time but *her*"?

2. The Solution

She and *her* are obviously different forms of the same word.

Grammatically speaking, we call these forms *cases.*

She is the *nominative case* of one of the personal pronouns.

Her is the *objective case* of the same personal pronoun.

A large proportion of the grammatical errors that adults make stems from a basic confusion as to the proper uses of these two cases of the personal pronoun.

But what are pronouns?

And what is case?

PRONOUNS

Pronouns are substitute nouns. Instead of saying *the man* (a noun), we may convey an identical meaning by substituting *he* (a personal pronoun).

Instead of saying *all the people* (a noun), we can substitute *everyone* (an indefinite pronoun).

Instead of asking *which man?* (a noun), we can substitute an interrogative pronoun, and say *who?*

A book has come into your hands. You flip through the pages and decide that you would be interested in the contents. So you can say to someone, "The *book* I am holding

looks like an interesting book." On the other hand, you could (and probably would) phrase your thought more succintly by eliminating a number of words: "*This* looks like an interesting book." You would then be substituting a demonstrative pronoun, *this*, for the noun *book*.

We have various types of pronouns:

Personal pronouns. Words which substitute for nouns referring to persons:

I	she
you	we
he	they

Interrogative pronouns. Words which substitute for nouns and ask questions:

who? what? which?

Relative pronouns. Words which relate to, and substitute for, previously mentioned nouns:

who which that

The man who came to dinner
←
The book which I hold
←
The telephone that I have
←

Demonstrative pronouns. Words which substitute for nouns and also function to point out:

this that these those this one that one

Indefinite pronouns. Words which substitute for nouns and are vague and general, rather than specific, in meaning:

anyone	either	each one
everyone	neither	any
no one	both	some
someone	none	several
all	much	
few	each	

CASE

There are three *cases* in English—*nominative, objective,* and *possessive.* Since the use of the possessive case presents few, if any, difficulties, we will concentrate on the nominative and objective cases.

NOMINATIVE FORMS OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

I	we
you	
he, she	they

CORRESPONDING OBJECTIVE FORMS OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

me	us
you	
him, her	them

The case of a pronoun is determined by a number of rules, only one of which is relevant to the problem of this chapter. To wit:

The objective case of a pronoun is used in a prepositional phrase.

Speak *to me.*
Go *with him.*
Wait *for her.*
He spoke *of us.*
We'll send the letter *to them* tonight.

The pronoun within the prepositional phrase is known as the *object of the preposition.*

And the object of a preposition, as its name would suggest, is in the objective case.

In the sentence under consideration, "Everyone came on time but (she?—her?)," *but* is a preposition which links the pronoun to the rest of the sentence and forms, with the pronoun, a prepositional phrase. The correct choice, then, would be the objective form—*her*.

GRAMMATICALLY PREFERABLE	GRAMMATICALLY INDEFENSIBLE
No one has thanked you but *me*.	No one has thanked you but *I*.
We understood everyone but *him*.	We understood everyone but *he*.
Everyone but *her* is dressed for the occasion.	Everyone is dressed for the occasion but *she*.
You've insulted everyone but *us*.	You've insulted everyone but *we*.
Why do you trust anyone but *them?*	Why do you trust anyone but *they?*

In these sentences *but* has the meaning of *except*. With such a meaning, *but* is always a preposition.

3. The Rule

Is the pronoun the object of a preposition? Use the objective case. When the word *but* means *except,* it is a preposition and is to be followed by an objective pronoun.

PRO AND CON

Q. Do you ever use the nominative case of a pronoun after the word *except,* as for instance in a sentence like, "Everyone is here *except he*"? Do you ever hear this usage from your friends or associates? What is your opinion of the usage?

Con

A. I never use the nominative case after "except," even when I am writing to my best friends. I have never heard my friends or associates use it in that way, and if they did, I should be inclined to drop them.

—Lester Markel

Mr. Markel is Sunday Editor of *The New York Times.*

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 18*

1. No one but (he, him) can help you.
2. No one can help you except (I, me).
3. Everyone was most agreeable to you except (she, her).
4. Everyone but (she, her) was most agreeable to you.
5. Who but (we, us) has enough money to finance such a venture?
6. Who has enough money to finance such a venture except (we, us)?
7. We spoke to everyone but (she, her).
8. She likes everyone but (he, him).
9. Do you see all your friends here? Everyone except (they, them).
10. They all failed the test but (I, me).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 18*

1. him	3. her	5. us	7. her	9. them
2. me	4. her	6. us	8. him	10. me

as easy as A B C

VI

A. What is the difference between *stationary* and *stationery?*

B. Is it correct to say, "That dress is different *than* mine"?

C. Which is correct: "He practices *preventive* medicine," or "He practices *preventative* medicine"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Stationary, Stationery

Is something fixed, in one place, unmoving? It is *stationary* (with the *a*).

Paper, letterheads, envelopes, and similar appurtenances for correspondence, are *stationery* (with the *e*).

Standing still—note the *a* in st*a*nd: station*a*ry.

Paper, etc.—note the *er* in pap*er:* station*er*y.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 19*

1. Keep the right hand (stationary, stationery) and move the left along the edge of the slide.
2. We have just ordered some new (stationary, stationery).
3. Your (stationary, stationery) is of a very odd color.
4. Modern houses no longer have (stationary, stationery) walls.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 19*

1. stationary 2. stationery 3. stationery 4. stationary

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

That dress is different *than* mine.

Quite a to-do is sometimes made in textbooks and speech manuals over the necessity for using the preposition *from* after the adjective *different* or the adverb *differently*. "He is different *from* me," "That dress is different *from* mine," "The battle came out differently *from* what we had expected" are offered as the *only* respectable forms. To say "He is different *than* I," "That dress is different *than* mine," or "The battle came out differently *than* we had expected" is not only forbidden by such books, but the sentences themselves are variously labeled slang, illiterate, ignorant, ungrammatical, or downright sinful.

One such recent publication offers the following precept: "Lilacs are different *from* (not *than*) peonies, poinsettias, and pansies." In a later chapter in the same book, a test sentence offered to the reader is as follows: "People who show good taste in spech are different (than, from) others." And the answers following the test unequivocally, unqualifiedly, call for *from* as the correct choice.

Yet this same author, addressing the reader on another page of the book, says: "There are five words which are pronounced differently when they are nouns (the name of something) *than* when they are adjectives."

On the next page, the author points out that "there are six more interesting words which are pronounced differently when they are adjectives *than* when they are past participles. . . ." The italics are of course my own, but even without the italics a reader is justifiably confused by an author who sets up a rule and then calmly proceeds to violate it.

Different than (and *differently than*) are well-established, popular, acceptable English idioms, and while not quite as formal or "pure" as *different from* and *differently from,* they are certainly not by any means incorrect English.

The Merriam-Webster *Collegiate Dictionary* has this to

say about *different:* "Usually followed by *from,* but also by *to,* especially colloquially in England, and by *than.*"

And Pooley[1] notes a long list of reputable authors in whose works *different than* may be found: H. G. Wells, De Quincey, Addison, Steele, Defoe, Richardson, and many others. Pooley continues:

> It may be seen then that *different than* is no stranger in literature, past or present, and that it is by no means as reprehensible as the textbook writers would have it. While there is little doubt that *different from* is the currently preferred form, *different than* is a possible substitute to be found in reputable writers and polite conversation.

It is obvious, then, that *different than* and *differently than* are at least permissible, if not necessarily preferable, in informal speech; it is certainly impossible to call them "incorrect."

In the case of the verb *to differ, from* alone is used, as in, "He differs *from* his brother in appearance," unless a difference of opinion is meant, in which case *with* is regularly used, as in, "I differ *with* you on that point."

PRO AND CON

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "The outcome is different *than* we had expected" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. The particular expression you mention, "the outcome is different *than* we had expected," appears to me to be

[1] Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage* (Appleton-Century).

about as correct as any expression I ever use. In fact, this particular idiom has been in popular usage for so long I think your point is sort of academic.

If you really do wish to use my opinion on this, let me say seriously that I agree that any phrase of this kind, which most people would fail to recognize as actually incorrect, is certainly acceptable in informal conversation, as you say, and even in "formal" conversation. Only the strictest purist would object to it.

—Jerome Beatty, Jr.

Mr. Beatty is a columnist on the *Saturday Review.*

Pro

A. Yes, I agree with the modern grammarians who believe the sentence you give is correct.

I believe the English language, which is a tool in communication, should be considered in the same light as other tools of present-day living and should be adjusted to the changing times just as are the methods of manufacturing, food cultivation, transportation and the like.

We are talking today about jet-propelled airplanes. Why not talk also of streamlined speaking and writing! I am all for a progressive way of looking at grammar.

—Oscar Dystel

Mr. Dystel is editorial adviser of Parents Institute, Inc.

Pro

Steve is a somewhat chastened boy, different in several subtle ways *than* when we last saw him in action.

—Clifford Odets, *Night Music*

Mr. Odets is the well-known playwright, author of several Broadway successes, including *Waiting for Lefty, Golden Boy, Rocket to the Moon.*

Pro

The "Mirrors of Washington," if it had been written by a Democrat, would have reflected differently *than* the same mirrors from the pen of a Republican.

—Donald L. Laird, in *Increasing Personal Efficiency* (Harper)

Dr. Laird is professor of psychology at Colgate University and author of numerous popular books on practical psychology.

Q. Would you be willing, in your everyday speech or informal conversation, to use the word *than* after *different* or *differently?*

Con

A. For myself, I habitually use *from* rather than *than* with *different* and it's habit so strongly ingrained by now that I'm afraid any other usage would be a self-conscious and affected one. And affectation in either direction is to me one unforgivable sin of speech.

—Jay Nelson Tuck

Mr. Tuck was formerly the television editor of the New York *Post*.

Pro

A. I certainly would—and do—use *different than*, even though fundamentalists consider it wrong.

English needs a good overhauling, and there are certainly plenty of precedents for it. We have gone a long way from Elizabethan English, for instance, and no one—not even the purists—is crying for its return.

If writing is an art (and I like to believe that it is), then it must progress. Painting and music have progressed to express the modern thought of modern man. The painter

is not bound to the primary colors in his tubes. He can mix them as he wills. Only the results count. That goes for words, too. We don't have to be bound by the premixed stuff that has come down to us from God-knows-where.

And when someone in the subway says "We need a man *like* Roosevelt was," I'm not going to correct his English. His meaning is clear.

—Richard A. Yaffe

Mr. Yaffe was foreign editor of the newspaper *PM*.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

He practices *preventive* medicine, *or*
He practices *preventative* medicine?

Most dictionaries now accept the word *preventative* as a substitute for the older and shorter form, *preventive*, both as adjective and noun. However, careful writers and speakers still show a decided preference for *preventive*.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

He practices *preventive* medicine.
What *preventive* can we use?
Has medical science discovered any *preventive* for cancer?

chapter 9 HOW TO JOIN

1. The Problem

Is it correct to say, "Between you and *I*, she's older than her husband thinks she is"?

2. The Solution

The crucial word in this sentence is *between.*

Between is a preposition.

The words *between you and I* form a prepositional phrase.

In this phrase we have, not one object, but two:

FIRST OBJECT: *you*
SECOND OBJECT: *I*

These objects are joined by the word *and.*

And is a conjunction, a part of speech which, you will recall from chapter 3, serves to join (*junc*) words together (*con*).

But the object of a preposition is in the objective case, according to the rule formulated in chapter 8.

I is a nominative personal pronoun.

On the face of it, then, the sentence which illustrates the problem of this chapter is incorrect—an objective pronoun is required in a prepositional phrase.

Corrected version: "Between *you and me,* she's older than her husband thinks she is."

There are other conjunctions besides *and.* Any word which joins similar parts is a conjunction. Note the following:

JOINING TWO NOUNS: war *or* peace
JOINING NOUN AND PRONOUN: Gerbrand *or* I
JOINING TWO ADJECTIVES: Tired *but* happy

Sometimes a conjunction is in two parts, as in the following:

JOINING TWO NOUNS: *Either* the pen *or* the pencil will do.
JOINING TWO PRONOUNS: *Neither* you *nor* I will ever know.
JOINING TWO NOUNS: *Both* Daphne Pereles *and* Alice Fennell are here.

Either . . . or, neither . . . nor, both . . . and are called correlative conjunctions.

Perhaps we had better pause for a moment to recall that a word may be any one of the eight parts of speech, depending exclusively on its function within a sentence. We have already met *but* (meaning *except*) as a preposition in the sentence "Everyone came on time *but* her." Now we encounter the same word as a conjunction in *tired but happy*. We have already worked with *either, neither,* and *both* as indefinite pronouns. We see in this chapter that they can also be correlative conjunctions. To determine what part of speech a word is you must consider how that word functions within the framework of a sentence. Consider:

THE PREPOSITION *but:* No one *but* him can do it.
(*But him* is a prepositional phrase.)
THE CONJUNCTION *but:* He will come *but* he will be late.
(*But* joins two ideas.)
THE INDEFINITE PRONOUN *either:* Can you use *either* of these books?
THE CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTION *either . . . or:* To succeed, you must be *either* lucky or smart.
Either CAN ALSO BE USED AS AN ADJECTIVE: Hold up *either* hand.

→

THE INDEFINITE PRONOUN *both:* Do you need *both?*
THE CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTION *both . . . and:* Do you need *both* the Packard *and* the Chrysler tonight?
Both CAN ALSO BE AN ADJECTIVE: *Both* cars are in the garage. ⟶

Besides *and, or, but,* and the correlatives, there are many other conjunctions, most of them functioning as joiners of related ideas into single sentences. Note the following:

I will speak to him *if* he speaks to me first.
Although he is her husband, she does not love him.
When it rains, my rheumatism bothers me.
Since you're so smart, what is the correct answer?

In general, conjunctions are words which join similar parts of speech or related ideas in a sentence.

3. The Rule

Does a prepositional phrase contain two or more objects? All such objects are in the objective case.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 20*

Check the correct personal pronoun in each sentence:

1. When he sent the letter to my sister and (I, me), he felt he had done all that was possible to do under the circumstance.
2. Between you and (I, me), I think she's lying.
3. You've thanked everyone but (he, him) and his father.
4. We're never going to speak to the principal or (she her) again.
5. No one is here except (we, us) and the servants.

6. Would you like to take a walk with Adelaide and (I, me)?
7. Let him sit near Mary and (we, us).
8. Take a place in line after the boys and (she, her).
9. This is a special arrangement between Charlie and (we, us).
10. I have nothing against Herb and (she, her); I do, however, wish to see justice done.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 20*

As each of the required choices in the sentences on which you have just worked functioned as one of the objects in a prepositional phrase, the objective case of the personal pronoun should have been checked throughout. This was the second choice in each sentence.

as easy as A B C

VII

A. What is the difference between *ingenious* and *ingenuous?*
B. Is it correct to say, "It's a *nice* day"?
C. Which is preferable: "Now you're talking like *I*," or "Now you're talking like *me*"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Ingenious, Ingenuous

Thomas Alva Edison was *ingenious*.

One must be *ingenious* to keep a jump ahead of the High Cost of Living.

One can be an *ingenious* liar, an *ingenious* inventor.

Young children, on the other hand, are *ingenuous*. They are (usually) frank, unsophisticated, aboveboard. (Some kids, of course, are quite the opposite—they are precocious as all hell.)

Thus, these two words, which are spelled and pronounced so similarly, are very different in meaning.

Ingenious (pronounced *in-JEEN-yus*) means clever, shrewd, inventive, resourceful. The noun is *ingenuity*.

Ingenuous (pronounced *in-JEN-yoo-us*) means open, frank, candid, free from reserve or dissimulation.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 21*

1. He (ingeniously, ingenuously) parried every question the opposing lawyer asked him.

2. He is too (ingenious, ingenuous) to try to deceive you.
3. Such (ingenuity, ingenuousness) in a grown woman is unusual.
4. If you are (ingenious, ingenuous) you'll be able to figure some means of escape.
5. He made a completely (ingenious, ingenuous) admission of his purposes.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 21*

1. ingeniously
2. ingenuous
3. ingenuousness
4. ingenious
5. ingenuous

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

It's a *nice* day.

"Reprehensible!"
"Illiterate grammar."
"Vulgar, slang!"
"Never used by respectable people."

These are some of the reactions which purists have toward the idiomatic use of *nice* with the meaning of *pleasant* or *agreeable*. Yet the Merriam-Webster dictionary gives, among others, the following definitions of *nice:* "pleasing, agreeable, properly modest, well-mannered."

The judges who answered Leonard's questionnaire [1] almost unanimously approved the use of *nice* in the expression, "There are some *nice* people here," as established, correct English. And your own experience doubtless attests that cultivated people generally, frequently, and unashamedly use *nice* in the sense of *pleasant*. If you are normal, you use it yourself—without apologizing for your grammar.

(*Nice* formerly had only one meaning: *exact, precise;* and purists are sufficiently reactionary to try to restrict the word to that meaning.)

[1] See chapter 25.

Perfectly allowable and completely current are expressions like the following:

Be *nice* to him.

We've had a *nice* time.

We'll go if it's a *nice* day.

We had a *nice* dinner.

(Chief valid objection to the word is that it can be used to the point of monotony—everything that is not downright intolerable is often called *nice* by people whose vocabularies need a little freshening up. Such objection, of course, can be made to any word which is overused.)

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "We had a *nice* time at her party" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con (but apparently not seriously)

A. I'd prefer "good" or "merry" or "fine." It's not nice to use *nice* that way.

—Walter Winchell

Walter Winchell is the well-known newspaper and radio columnist.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Now you're talking like *I*, or Now you're talking like *me?*

Like is a preposition and is followed by the objective case of the pronoun.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

Now you're talking like *me* (not *I*).

He dresses just like *me* (not *I*).

Why do you act like *her* (not *she*)?
You talk just like *him* (not *he*).
They look like *us* (not *we*).
We look like *them* (not *they*).

chapter 10 HOW TO SHOW EMOTION

There are times in life when words are a superfluity—under the influence of a tremendous emotion the most expressive language seems inadequate. Great pain, or fear, or sorrow, or ecstasy, or wonder does not usually tend to loosen the tongue.

Human beings often relieve a deep feeling with single word exclamations like *alas! oh! ah! fie! pshaw! gosh! damn! wow!* or similar conventional syllables. Such words, if they may be called words, are unlike nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, or prepositions in that they do not function within the framework of a sentence nor in direct relation to other parts of speech.

These exclamations, and others like them, are called *interjections,* and are the last of the eight great categories into which English words are divided.

as easy as A B C

VIII

A. What is the difference between *rob* and *steal?*

B. Is it correct to say, "*Can* I have another piece of cake?"

C. Which is preferable: "*This* data *is* interesting," *or* "*These* data *are interesting*"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Rob, Steal

You *rob* a person, a house, a safe, an apartment, a desk.

You *steal* a person's wallet, his clothes from the house, his jewels from the safe, his valuables from the apartment, his love letters from the desk.

To *rob* is to take (illegally, of course) the contents of something or the possessions of someone.

To *steal* is to take (again, illegally) the thing itself, or to kidnap the person.

To *steal* a desk is to remove it physically (and illegally).

To *rob* a desk is to open the drawers of the desk and take therefrom what suits your fancy. The desk remains where you found it.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 22*

1. When we returned, we found the front door ajar and the house (robbed, stolen).
2. They (robbed, stole) Mrs. Van Sweringen's house, (robbing, stealing) her furs, jewels, and valuable paintings.

3. To (rob, steal) a bank is no mean task; to (rob, steal) it is probably quite impossible.
4. The thieves (robbed, stole) all my money.
5. I don't worry about anyone (robbing, stealing) my money; I'm insured against theft.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 22*

1. robbed 2. robbed, stealing 3. rob, steal 4. stole 5. stealing

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Can I have another piece of cake?

There is, at best, questionable wisdom in "correcting" the English of children who ask permission by means of the word *can.*

Psychologically, it is perhaps most unwise.

If it is your purpose to inculcate in your youngsters conventional habits of politeness, and if you believe that *may* (in place of *can*) is on a par with *please* and *thank you,* you will be interested to know that child psychologists generally agree (see *The Child from Five to Ten,* by Dr. Arnold Gesell) that politeness in speech is most effectively taught by example, not by precept.

If you wish your child to say "please" and "thank you" (say the psychologists), you have only to be quite sure that you yourself always do so, when the occasion warrants the use of such words.

If you wish your child to say "May I" when seeking permission and "Can I" only when questioning a physical or mental ability, you had best be quite certain that you yourself consistently follow the rigid rule that *may* refers to *permission, can* only to ability.

But there you will have trouble.

Suppose another child requests the pleasure of your youngster's company outdoors. (The other child will doubtless say, "*Can* Johnnie come out to play?" even if his

mother is as polite as you are, for that is the natural, idiomatic way to phrase the request.)

Are you absolutely sure that you do not answer—and in your own child's hearing—"No, he *can't*—he's going to have a bath"?

Unquestionably you are talking about permission, for Johnnie has all the physical ability and mental competence he needs to go outdoors. However, what he lacks—and this is of course crucial—is your permission to leave the house.

If your child hears you using *can't* for a denial of permission, he may reflect darkly that the rules you set up are rather arbitrary and discriminatory (he'll phrase this thought in his own words of course, or the reaction may even be wordless) since you yourself do not always observe them.

The psychological effect of such a situation may be greater (especially on a sensitive child whose patience has been tried to the snapping point by continual corrections of *may* or *can*) than you realize.

The linguistic facts are as follows:

1. *Can't I* is used almost universally, by people of education, in preference to the somewhat stilted *mayn't I* or *may I not*. This refers to the other personal pronouns as well. ("Why *can't* we have this apartment, if the present tenant is moving out?" "Why *can't* he speak? Isn't this a free country?")

2. Similarly, *you can't* or *you cannot* is more generally used than *you may not*. ("No, you *can't* have your dessert until you finish your string beans!")

3. *Can* and *may* are often used interchangeably in reference to permission. ("*Can* I use your coat tomorrow?" "John *can* go if he wants to, but I'm staying home." "*Can* I speak to Mr. Sack, please?")

4. *May* is perhaps the somewhat politer form of asking permission—but *can* is perfectly correct English. An overstressing of the niceties of distinction between *can* and *may* (that is, using *may* whenever any type of permission

is involved) is likely to make your speech sound a bit on the prissy side.

Webster's *New World Dictionary* gives as one of the definitions of the word *can:* "[Colloq.], to be permitted; may"—and adds, ". . . in informal and colloquial usage, *can* is most frequently used to express permission, especially in interrogative and negative statements (*can't* I go?, you *cannot!*)."

Professor Porter Perrin[1] states: "In informal and colloquial speech, *can* is used for both permission and ability."

Professor Sterling Andrus Leonard[2] remarks, in reference to the sentence *"Can* I be excused from this class?": "Probably the fitness of this expression is a matter of taste, rather than usage. But it cannot be listed as vulgar or uncultivated in the face of the large number of judges who recognize its frequent use by cultivated people."

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "Why *can't* I run out and play, Mother?" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use similar expressions in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. I'm afraid I have used similar expressions in my everyday speech and it pleases me to think that they may be legitimatized.

—Mary Margaret McBride

Mary Margaret McBride is a famous radio personality and newspaper columnist.

[1] *Writer's Guide and Index to English* (Scott, Foresman).
[2] *Facts about Current English Usage* (National Council of Teachers of English).

Pro

A. Yes, I'd vote for Johnny saying it to mother; anything else might sound stilted and upholstered. Quant à moi, I suppose I've used similar expressions in speech without feeling like a grammatical leper; but in print, I'm not so sure.

—Norman Cousins

Norman Cousins is the editor of the *Saturday Review*, and author of a number of books, including *Modern Man Is Obsolete*.

Q. Do you ever use the word "can" in an expression like "*Can* I see Mr. Brown if he is not busy?" Do you hear this use from your friends or associates?

Con

A. I look up sometimes when I am addressing a golf ball, and I assume that I am also inattentive in the matter of speech.

In answer to your question, however, I don't remember hearing myself use "can" when I am seeking a permission. So I would report that I don't use the expression, "*Can* I see Mr. Brown if he is not busy?" Nor do I hear friends or associates make such requests.

When an oculist is testing my eyes, however, I frequently hear the question, "Can you read that chart?" I also hear the expression, "Can you see by the dawn's early light?" and the answer is generally "Yes."

—William Chenery

Mr. Chenery was formerly publisher of *Collier's*.

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "*Can* I have another piece of cake?" (asking permission) is cor-

rect, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday spech?

Noncommittal

A. At our house I neither *can* nor *may* have a piece of cake, because it's fattening.

—Leonard Lyons

Mr. Lyons is the conductor of the internationally famous "Lyons Den" in the New York *Post* and other newspapers.

Con

A. I guess I'm not a modern grammarian. I still hold to the old rules of grammar and syntax. Woolley taught that *can* and *may* have entirely different meanings—one suggests ability to do something; the other permission to do something. What's the point of eliminating that very important distinction?

—William I. Nichols

Mr. Nichols is editor of *This Week.*

Pro

A. Personally, I think we all are prone to misunderstand the function and use of language. Being mentally too lazy to think a thing out to its logical conclusion, we say, "Words convey ideas," and then let it go at that.

How do words convey ideas?

From the beginning of time when language grew from sounds into words, the human mind has associated certain ideas with spoken or written word combinations. Therefore, word combinations have individualized meanings, predicated solely on association.

The point I am making may seem elemental and trite,

but its significance is largely missed by all students of composition and grammar.

I have repeatedly found that many beginning writers have a basic idea for a good story. They tell it in inept language, but, because that is the language they have chosen in which to convey the idea, the same idea is brought back to their minds whenever they read what they have written. Therefore, a beginning writer will frequently have a good story and *think* he has placed it on paper so that other readers will get the atmosphere, characterization and action of the story. Other readers fail to do so because the writer has been inept in his choice of word combinations. The author, however, cannot detect this fault, because every time he reads the story, the story image is again formed in his own mind.

For this reason, there are actually many different languages spoken under the heading of the "English language." There are the sweat-covered, rugged word combinations that stand for power and virility, and there is the sterile, academic, superaccurate speech of the intellectuals.

In my own instance, I never care a hang about whether the things I say or the things I write are grammatically correct. I am trying to transmit an idea and convey an impression; and as long as I can do that, I will leave it to more erudite authorities to quarrel over whether a certain word usage has been sufficiently established to be considered correct grammar.

The fallacy of such arbitrary choosing lies in the fact that if such a position is carried to its logical conclusion, it is the mere repetition of error which eventually establishes authenticity.

So far as I am concerned, I'd say, "*Can* I have another piece of cake?"

—Erle Stanley Gardner

Mr. Gardner is the world famous author of *The D.A. Calls a Turn, Case of the Black-Eyed Blonde,* and *The Case of the Half-Awakened Wife.* He is perhaps the most prolific writer of mystery novels of our times.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

This data *is* interesting, *or*
These data *are* interesting?

Data is generally considered a plural noun, the singular of which is *datum*. *Datum* is rarely, if ever, used in everyday speech, and it is only natural, therefore, that many people look upon *data* as a singular, considering it to mean "a piece of information." However, in best usage, *data* means "a number of pieces of information" and takes a plural adjective (*these* or *those*) and a plural verb.

This is a list of the most common words which look like singulars but are in truth plurals. (They are all of Latin or Greek origin, and have the classical plural endings; hence, the lack of an *s* at the end of each word.)

data (sing.: *datum*)
phenomena (sing.: *phenomenon*)
criteria (sing.: *criterion*)
candelabra (sing.: *candelabrum*)
media (sing.: *medium*)
automata (sing.: *automaton*)
foci (sing.: *focus*)
formulae (sing.: *formula*)
memoranda (sing.: *memorandum*)
vertebrae (sing.: *vertebra*)

PREFERABLE FORMS:

These data *are* interesting.
These phenomena *are* worth noting.
Your criteria *are* not valid.
The candelabra *are* tarnished.
New media *are* necessary.
They act like automata.
Wounds present foci of infection.
The formulae *have* to be changed.
The memoranda on the Lillienthal case *are* on your desk.
Three vertebrae *were* broken.

chapter 11 HOW TO MEASURE YOUR PROGRESS—YOUR FIRST ACHIEVEMENT TEST

You have just finished a period of intensive training in the art of analyzing the functions of words.

The ability to identify parts of speech is not so sterile nor useless as it may at first sound. It is true that you are not going to be a happier person because you know the difference between adjectives and adverbs. Nor, certainly, will you materially increase your chances of commercial, social, professional, or amorous success by becoming an expert in distinguishing between, say, nouns and verbs.

But you have taken the first, and perhaps the most important, step in becoming grammatically sophisticated. If, by inspection, you can identify, with reasonable accuracy, the name of each word in a sentence, you have mastered the first principle of the interrelationship of words.

That, basically, is what grammar is—the interdependent functioning of the parts of a sentence. There is, of course, much more to grammar than the parts of speech—but the parts of speech are the foundation on which we will build your complete understanding of English grammar. From here on up, we can discuss subjects and predicates; simple, complex and compound sentences; transitive and intransitive verbs; active and passive voice; participles, infinitives, and gerunds; phrases and clauses; and other such fascinating mysteries of grammar. We can discuss them much more intelligently than we would otherwise have been able to do, now that you can tell one part of speech from another.

I cannot, therefore, stress too emphatically the importance of your feeling quite self-assured about parts of

speech. And so let me ask you to make a rapid review of some of the main points we've covered—and then to take a quick test of your learning before we go on to more complex aspects of the subject.

The Main Points

IN GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY AND FUNCTION

1. There are eight parts of speech: verb, noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection.

2. The verb is a word of action which carries the thought of a sentence. A few verbs, most commonly the forms of *to be,* show state of being rather than action. Such are copulative verbs. A verb may occur in two or more parts, in which case it is called a verb phrase.

3. A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, idea, concept, or activity.

4. An adjective describes, limits, or in some way modifies a noun or pronoun.

5. An adverb modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

6. A preposition links a noun or pronoun to the rest of the sentence; and with such a noun or pronoun (plus any modifiers) forms a prepositional phrase.

7. The preposition *to* may introduce a verb, and with it forms an infinitive.

8. A gerund is an *-ing* form of a verb which, however, functions as a noun within the framework of the sentence.

9. A pronoun substitutes for a noun. The commonest types of pronouns are personal, interrogative, relative, demonstrative, and indefinite pronouns.

10. A personal pronoun has various forms, dependent on its case—nominative, objective, or possessive.

11. A pronoun used as object of a preposition is in the objective case form.

12. A conjunction joins parallel elements, such as noun and pronoun, adverb and adverb, idea and idea, etc.

13. A word may be any one of several parts of speech, according to its function in a sentence.

14. An interjection is a particle which is unrelated to the other words in a sentence, and which generally is indicative of emotion.

IN USAGE

1. *Effect* is usually a noun, *affect* usually a verb. *Effect* may also be a verb, with the specialized meaning of *bring about* or *cause to happen.*

2. *Principal* is an adjective, except when it refers to a person or sum of money, in which instance it may be a noun. *Principle* is only a noun.

3. *Slow* may be, and usually is, used adverbially in certain idiomatic patterns.

4. A sentence may end with a preposition.

5. Only the objective forms of personal pronouns may be used as objects of prepositions.

IN THE GRAMMAR OF MEANINGS

1. *Continual* means successive; *continuous* means uninterrupted.

2. *Let* means permit; *leave* means depart.

3. *Hung* means suspended; *hanged* means executed.

4. *Incredible* means unbelievable; *incredulous* means unbelieving.

5. *Imply* means to say indirectly; *infer* means to draw a conclusion.

6. *Stationary* means motionless; *stationery* means paper, etc.

7. *Ingenious* means clever, shrewd, inventive; *ingenuous* means frank, open, honest.

8. *Rob* means to remove the contents; *steal* means to take completely.

IN THE GRAMMAR OF ALLOWABLE "ERRORS"

Permissible usages:

1. He *got* sick.
2. Don't get *mad.*
3. I would like to speak *to* Mr. Sack.
4. I'll come *providing* you invite me.
5. The reason I love you is *because* you are so pretty.
6. That dress is different *than* mine.
7. It's a *nice* day.
8. *Can* I have another piece of cake?

IN THE GRAMMAR OF CORRECT USAGE

1. *Sense* is followed by *in.*
2. *Kind of day* not *kind of a day.*
3. The plural of *mother-in-law* is *mothers-in-law.* Other hyphenated or multiple nouns generally pluralize similarly.
4. *Spoonfuls, cupfuls,* etc., not *spoonsful, cupsful,* etc.
5. *It's* means *it is;* possession is indicated by *its.*
6. *Preventive* is probably preferable to *preventative.*
7. *Like,* the preposition, is followed by the objective form of the personal pronoun.
8. *Data, criteria, phenomena,* and certain other nouns are plurals and should be treated as plurals.

That's the whole story, so far.

If you feel weak in any of the points listed, now is the time to go back to the text and review, in order to be prepared to make a high score on the achievement test which follows.

Achievement Test 1

I. Indicate the part of speech of each word in the following sentence:

> Our tragic failure in this war—one which may well cause us to lose the eventual peace—was our failure in what the Army calls orientation.
>
> —David L. Cohn, "Should Fighting Men Think?" *Saturday Review,* January 18, 1947

1. Our	.....	14. lose	.....
2. tragic	.....	15. the	.....
3. failure	.....	16. eventual	.....
4. in	.....	17. peace	.....
5. this	.....	18. was	.....
6. war	.....	19. our	.....
7. one	.....	20. failure	.....
8. which	.....	21. in	.....
9. may	.....	22. what	.....
10. well	.....	23. the	.....
11. cause	.....	24. Army	.....
12. us	.....	25. calls	.....
13. to	.....	26. orientation	.....

II. Indicate the part of speech of each word in the following sentence:

The Army meaning of this unfortunate word is instruction to our soldiers as to what the war was about.
—*Ibid.*

1. The	.....	11. our	.....
2. Army	.....	12. soldiers	.....
3. meaning	.....	13. as	.....
4. of	.....	14. to	.....
5. this	.....	15. what	.....
6. unfortunate	.....	16. the	.....
7. word	.....	17. war	.....
8. is	.....	18. was	.....
9. instruction	.....	19. about	.....
10. to	.....		

III. Find in the first sentence by David L. Cohn:

1. Two prepositional phrases: ....., ...
2. One infinitive: .....
3. A copulative verb: .....
4. A verb phrase: .....

IV. Check the correct word in each sentence:

1. What (effect, affect) do handsome men have upon unmarried women?
2. Do doting mothers have a bad (effect, affect) on their children?
3. Can government action (effect, affect) the course of a business recession?
4. All during the war, the O.P.A. tried to (effect, affect) a stabilization of the price structure.
5. Thyroid extract (effects, affects) the body very quickly.
6. When sound (effects, affects) are needed, they can often be dubbed into any motion picture.
7. Harsh sound (effects, affects) the nerves.
8. Why does he (effect, affect) a British accent when he has lived in The Bronx all his life?
9. Charlie Jerome is the short order cook of Colonial Diner, one of the (principal, principle) eating places in New Rochelle.
10. Charlie is a man of (principal, principle); he never serves a dish that is not perfect in taste and appearance.
11. The People's Savings Bank pays 3½ per cent interest on your (principal, principle).
12. When we sell our house we will deal with (principals, principles) only.
13. We cannot do that; it would violate one of our most cherished (principals, principles).
14. This is just between you and (I, me); can you keep it under your hat?

15. We spoke to Herbert and (she, her) only yesterday.
16. Everyone seems well satisfied with the arrangement except (he, him).
17. I'm surprised that no one but (I, me) raised any objections.
18. That's a personal matter between Jules and (we, us); why don't you keep out of it?
19. Why do you give (he, him) and (I, me) so much work?
20. You can't talk that way to (we, us) girls!

V. Check the preferable word:

1. There is not a moment of quiet in that house—nothing but (continual, continuous) din.
2. (Let, Leave) me go.
3. The spy will be (hung, hanged).
4. Don't look so (incredible, incredulous) when I tell you these things. They're true!
5. It seems to me that you are (inferring, implying) that I took the necklace.
6. I think you can buy that paper in a (stationary, stationery) store.
7. That is an (ingenious, ingenuous) attitude for a grownup person to take.
8. His money was (robbed, stolen).
9. What's the sense (in, of) doing it that way?
10. What (sort of, sort of a) chap is he?
11. Are there any (notaries public, notary publics) in your town?
12. Use several (handfuls, handsful) of sand when you mix the cement.
13. Has that kitten found (it's, its) mother?
14. Is there any (preventative, preventive) for tuberculosis?
15. You look just like (he, him).
16. The data on the case (seem, seems) inconclusive.

I.

1. pronoun (This is the possessive case of the personal pronoun.)
2. adjective, modifies the noun failure
3. noun
4. preposition
5. adjective, modifies the noun war (When *this* is used as a substitute for a noun, rather than a noun modifier, it is a demonstrative pronoun, as in: "Why do you do this to me?" In the test sentence, however, it is a demonstrative adjective.)
6. noun
7. pronoun (*This* is a numerical pronoun, substituting for a noun. *One* would be a numerical adjective in a sentence like "One wife should be enough for any man." Do you see the difference?)
8. relative pronoun, referring to the pronoun *one*
9. verb, first part of the verb phrase *may cause*
10. adverb, modifying the verb phrase *may cause*
11. verb, second part of the verb phrase
12. personal pronoun
13. preposition, sign of the infinitive
14. verb, part of the infinitive
15. adjective, modifying the noun *peace* (*The, an,* and *a* are also called *articles,* which are a type of adjective.)
16. adjective, modifying the noun *peace*
17. noun
18. copulative verb
19. possessive personal pronoun
20. noun
21. preposition
22. interrogative pronoun
23. adjective (or article), modifying the noun *Army*
24. noun
25. verb
26. noun

II.

1. adjective
2. adjective, modifying noun *meaning*
3. noun
4. preposition
5. demonstrative adjective
6. adjective
7. noun
8. copulative verb
9. noun
10. preposition
11. possessive pronoun
12. noun
13. conjunction
14. preposition
15. interrogative pronoun
16. adjective
17. noun
18. copulative verb
19. preposition (ending a sentence!)

III.

1. in this war, in what
2. to lose
3. was
4. may . . . cause

IV.

1. effect
2. effect
3. affect
4. effect
5. affects
6. effects
7. affects
8. affect
9. principal
10. principle
11. principal
12. principals
13. principles
14. me
15. her
16. him
17. me
18. us
19. him, me
20. us

V.

1. continuous
2. let
3. hanged
4. incredulous
5. implying
6. stationery
7. ingenuous
8. stolen
9. in
10. sort of
11. notaries public
12. handfuls
13. its
14. preventive
15. him
16. seem

SCORING

There were 85 different questions for you to ponder over in the achievement test. If you have studied your lessons honestly and intelligently, your score on the test should be at least 63—approximately 75 per cent success. Consider 63 correct answers a passing grade—you are then competent to proceed with your study of English grammar. Any score between 64 and 75 is good, between 76 and 85 excellent. If your grade is 62 or lower, further review of chapters 3 to 10, plus the interchapter sections, is indicated.

YOUR SCORE ON ACHIEVEMENT TEST I: ..... (Record the result on page 13.)

as easy as A B C

IX

A. What is the difference between *practicable* and *practical?*

B. Is it correct to say, "New York cannot boast a particularly *healthy* climate"?

C. Which is preferable: "None of the men *were* arrested," or "None of the men *was* arrested"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Practicable, Practical

If your plan is *practicable,* it will work, it can be put into effect, it is capable of being put to practice.

If you call an invention, an idea, or a suggestion *practicable,* you are voicing the opinion that said invention, idea, or suggestion can be translated from theory into actuality.

On the other hand, if you label something *practical,* you probably mean that it is useful, sensible, or worth while.

People who are not dreamy, who keep their two feet firmly planted on the ground, who are realistic, competent, and sensible, may be called *practical.*

Someone says to you: "Let's do it this way: We'll hook up an auxiliary boiler to the main boiler, draw the hot water out from the bottom and pipe cold water back through the top." You answer: "That's not *practicable.* Hot water *rises.* How can you draw it off from the *bottom?*" By using the words *not practicable,* you imply that the process just won't work as planned. If you had called the plan

impractical, you would have meant that it might possibly have worked, but still would not have been very useful or helpful. Perhaps the cost would have been too high for the benefits received.

Chiefly, then, *practicable* is used in preference to *practical* when special emphasis is placed on the future workability of what is being described. Similarly, *impracticable* emphasizes the unworkability of something.

The nouns are:

from *practicable* and *impracticable—practicability* and *impracticability;*

from *practical* and *impractical—practicality* and *impracticality.*

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

New York cannot boast a particularly *healthy* climate.

The distinction that *healthy* means *possessing health* (a *healthy* child) and *healthful* means *giving health* (*healthful* climate) is still subscribed to by some English teachers. However, just as *will* is displacing *shall, would* taking over the function of *should,* and *further* substituting for *farther,*[1] so also *healthy* seems, in cultivated, colloquial, usage, to be taking over the added meaning once reserved to *healthful.* One of the sentences in Sterling Andrus Leonard's questionnaire [2] was: "The New York climate is *healthiest* in the fall." This use of *healthiest* was considered established English by the experts, and Leonard comments: "No linguist disapproved the expression; about one third of the English teachers, probably influenced by the condemnation visited on this construction by most handbooks and rhetorics, condemned it. The preponderance of opinion is clearly in favor of its approval as cultivated colloquial English, the handbooks to the contrary notwithstanding."

[1] These points will be covered in later sections.
[2] *Facts About Current English Usage* (Appleton-Century).

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "He has lived in a *healthy* climate all his life" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Yes, I would use the expression in my everyday speech.

—William Rose Benét

Mr. Benét was a well-known author, poet, and columnist. He was an associate editor of *The Saturday Review of Literature.*

Pro (with reservations)

A. I always use *healthful* myself, both in writing and conversation, for I am inclined to pedantry. But I believe that *healthy* is a perfectly good American idiom, and that it will survive.

—H. L. Mencken

Mr. Mencken was the noted lexicographer, critic, and editor, and author of *The American Language.*

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "Carrots are *healthy* for you" (in place of *healthful*) is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con

A. Both words wrong—"Carrots are good for you"; "Carrots build health"; "There's health in carrots." *Healthy*

is a state of being, not to be induced (by carrots). *Healthful* nearer, because it refers to a quality of subject noun.

In fact, name me one "modern grammarian" who likes that *healthy* use of the predicate adjective.

—William D. Geer

Mr. Geer was associated with *Fortune.*

Con (*with reservations*)

A. Before giving you an answer that will settle forever the question, "Is it right to say, 'Carrots are healthy for you'?" I should like to consult Mr. Fowler's *Modern English Usage,* which is my final authority in these matters, if not everybody's. Unfortunately, when I came up here in the woods expecting to be safe from questions like yours, I left Fowler in New Jersey.

My answer therefore will have to be mere personal opinion. Long ago a professor of English hooted so scornfully at *healthy* as a substitute for *healthful* that I've been strongly prejudiced against it ever since. In this maybe I'm dead wrong. Since boyhood's happy day at Teacher's knee I've had to unlearn a lot of things.

P.S. Anyway, I won't eat carrots, no matter how *healthy* they are.

—Leonard H. Robbins

Mr. Robbins conducted the column "About——" in *The New York Times Magazine* up to his sudden death in June, 1947.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

None of the men *were* arrested, *or*
None of the men *was* arrested?

Newspapers generally use a singular verb with *none* (arguing from etymology, since *none* is a contraction of *not one*) even if the word is followed by a prepositional phrase

containing a plural noun, but such usage in speech is both rare and stilted.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

None of the men *were* arrested.
None of the clothes *are* dry.
None of your answers *are* correct.
None of the applicants *seem* to be satisfactory.

Of course, if *none* is followed by a prepositional phrase containing a singular noun, it governs a singular verb:

None of your work *is* satisfactory.
None of the Jello *has* set yet.

When *none* is used without a limiting prepositional phrase, use either a singular or plural verb, depending on whether the meaning of *none* is singular or plural.

None *are* here.
None *are* ready.
None *were* used.
None *was* used. (Meaning, none of the food, the money, etc.)

chapter 12 HOW TO MAKE YOUR VERBS AGREE

1. The Problem

Which is correct: "The cost of new cars *is* dropping," or "The cost of new cars *are* dropping"?[1]

2. The Solution

To determine whether to use *is* or *are* in such a sentence, you must realize that you are dealing with the *number* of a verb.

There are two numbers in grammar—*singular* and *plural.*

Is is singular.

Are is plural.

That is easy enough to understand. We would say:

One is . . .

Two are . . .

We would also say:

One was . . .

Two were . . .

One has . . .

Two have . . .

One goes . . .

Two go . . .

Or, to put it in chart form:

SINGULAR VERBS		PLURAL VERBS	
is	sees	are	see
was	knows	were	know

[1] This is of course a joke, as of publication date. Someday the sentence may have some truth in it.

SINGULAR VERBS		PLURAL VERBS	
has	takes	have	take
goes		go	

A singular verb is used with a singular subject.

A plural verb is used with a plural subject.

But what is a subject?

A subject is one of the two main parts into which every sentence may be divided.

The other part is the *predicate*.

The subject of a sentence is what (or whom) we are talking about.

The predicate of a sentence is what we are saying about the subject.

Consider these examples:

The housing shortage in America was once most acute.

What are we talking about? *The housing shortage in America.*

What about it? (It) *was once most acute.*

Thus the sentence divides up in this way: "The housing shortage in America" [subject] "was once most acute" [predicate].

Harry S. Truman was elected Vice-President of the United States in 1944.

Whom are we talking about? *Harry S. Truman* [subject].

What about him? (He) *was elected Vice-President of the United States in 1944* [predicate].

The subject of a sentence may consist of a single noun or pronoun, as in:

Gentlemen prefer blondes.

Wilson wrote a fascinating book entitled *Memoirs of Hecate County.*

Bilbo was operated on for cancer.

Houses could once be built in eight weeks.

Sex is here to stay.

This single noun or pronoun is called the *subject of the verb. It is this single word which directly, and exclusively, influences the number of the verb.*

The subject of a sentence (not to be confused with the subject of the verb, though they are frequently identical) may contain not only the subject of the verb, but also one or more adjectives, conjunctions, adverbs, prepositional phrases, or other assorted parts of speech.

Notice how we can start with a single-word subject (which in such a case would be both the subject of the sentence and the subject of the verb) and build around it.

Women are fascinating creatures.

Subject of the verb and subject of the sentence: *women.*

Let us add a prepositional phrase:

Women of beauty are fascinating creatures.

Subject of the sentence: *women of beauty.*
Subject of the verb: *women.*

Let us add some adjectives, an adverb, a conjunction, and a 2nd prepositional phrase:

Healthy young women of great beauty and delightfully curvaceous lines are fascinating creatures.

Subject of the sentence: *Healthy young women of great beauty and delightfully curvaceous lines.*
Subject of the verb: *women.*

The subject of the verb need not precede the verb, although it has done so in all the examples with which we have been working. In a question, the verb, or part of the verb, generally precedes its subject. In the following sentences the subject is printed in italics and the verb (or verb phrase) is underlined:

Are *women* fascinating creatures?

The subject may split a verb phrase:

How do *women* improve their figures? [verb phrase]

A verb may precede its subject in other common patterns:

There are many *reasons* for admiring the female sex.
Beyond the Alps lies *Italy*.

Finding the subject of a sentence is child's play. Finding the subject of the verb—that is, the single noun or pronoun which regulates the number of the verb—is somewhat more difficult.

This important point will help you: While the subject of a sentence may, and often does, contain one or more prepositional phrases, the single noun or pronoun subject of the verb is never found *within* or *as part* of the prepositional phrase.

With that rule to guide you, see how expert you can become at finding subjects of the verb.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 23*

Underline the subject of the verb in each sentence.

1. In China's Civil War, Nanking claimed further gains.
2. Premier de Gasperi's government won an overwhelming vote of confidence from the Italian Assembly.
3. Jugoslavia denied the existence of an anti-Catholic persecution plan.
4. Business and industrial leaders in New York predicted a rush of applications for price adjustments.
5. The President returned the functions of the Office of Economic Stabilization to the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion under Director Steelman.

6. The cost of automobiles has just risen 25 per cent.
7. There go my brothers.
8. One of my best friends was killed yesterday.
9. The captain, with all his sisters, aunts, and cousins by the dozens, is coming aboard.
10. Nellie's beauty, as well as her versatility and charm, has made her a very popular girl.
11. Sam, like his mother and father, has red hair.
12. Has either of your parents married since the divorce?
13. Was each of the criminals tried separately?
14. His principal income is the checks he receives from his oil-wells.
15. The greater size of these houses accounts for their staggering cost.
16. Strange, weird, and frightening was the sound.
17. Your blood pressure, as well as your temperature, is up today.
18. His income, like that of many small businessmen, has taken a terrific drop this year.
19. That lot of houses was sold at a very steep price.
20. The aim of all countries today is for a lasting peace.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 23*

1. Nanking. This was an easy one, to encourage you to go on. The verb is *claimed* and it is hard to see how you could have picked any other word in the sentence as the subject.
2. Government. Although the first four words in the sentence form the *subject of the sentence*, the single word *government* is subject of the verb *won*.
3. Jugoslavia. This is both subject of the sentence and subject of the verb *denied*.
4. Leaders. Here we have a rather long subject of the sentence (all the words up to the verb *predicted*), but the usual one-word subject of the verb.
5. President.
6. Cost. Now for the first time you were offered a sentence in which you might have been tempted to find

your subject within a prepositional phrase. Remember that a noun within a prepositional phrase is the object of the preposition, and never the subject of the verb. Note that *cost* is singular and that the verb *has risen* is also singular.

7. Brothers. This is an instance in which the subject of the verb follows the verb (*go*). *There* is an adverb.
8. One. *Of my best friends* is a prepositional phrase. *One* is the pronoun subject of the verb *was killed.* Note that both the subject and the verb are singular.
9. Captain. All the other nouns preceding the verb are contained within the prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition *with* (*dozens* is in a prepositional phrase of its own, introduced by the preposition *by*). Although the subject of the *sentence* is made up of all the words up to *is,* the subject of the *verb* is the single word *captain.* Since *captain* is singular, *is coming* is singular.
10. Beauty. This sentence is similar to the preceding. *As well as her versatility and charm* is a prepositional phrase introduced by the triple-ply preposition *as well as.* The subject is never found after a preposition.
11. Sam. *Like* is a preposition, and so the nouns *mother* and *father* have no influence on the number of the verb. *Sam* is singular and the verb *has* is singular.
12. Either. *Of your parents* is a prepositional phrase. *Either* in this sentence means *either one;* it is therefore singular and takes the singular verb *has married.*
13. Each. Like *either,* each means *each one.* It is a singular pronoun and takes the singular verb *was tried.*
14. Income.
15. Size.
16. Sound. The subject follows the verb. *Strange, weird,* and *frightening* are adjectives modifying the noun *sound.*
17. Pressure. Compare this sentence with number 9.
18. Income. Compare with number 11.

19. Lot.
20. Aim.

The drill you have just finished should have materially sharpened your instinct for discovering subjects of verbs. Note these important principles:

The subject of the verb is usually a single-word noun or pronoun.
Such noun or pronoun is not found within a prepositional phrase.
The subject generally precedes the verb but in certain sentence patterns may follow the verb.
The number of the verb depends on the number of the single-word subject. (There are minor exceptions, which we will discuss later.)
Singular subjects take singular verbs—plural subjects take plural verbs. (Again, minor exceptions will be discussed later.)

These facts make the solution of the problem which opened this chapter fairly simple. Consider the question once again:

The cost of new cars *is* dropping, *or* The cost of new cars *are* dropping?
SUBJECT OF THE SENTENCE: *The cost of new cars*
SUBJECT OF THE VERB: *cost*
PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE (which has no influence on the number of the verb): *of new cars*

Cost is a singular noun.
The verb must be singular.
Hence, the correct form: "The cost of new cars *is* dropping."

3. The Rule

A verb agrees in number with its single-word subject.

4. *The Test*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 24*

Determine the subject of each verb, and then check the correct verb form.

1. A beautiful vase, filled with tall flowers of many kinds, (was, were) standing on his desk.
2. There (is, are) many ways of skinning a cat.
3. The number of absentees (is, are) larger on rainy days than in fair weather.
4. A new round of strikes (is, are) exactly what we do not want.
5. The conclusions reached by this report (is, are) very interesting.
6. The price of foodstuffs (has, have) gone up fantastically since 1940.
7. One of my brothers (is, are) coming in to help me.
8. The queen, with her complete retinue of servants, (is, are) waiting for you.
9. He, as well as his parents, (believes, believe) that you have treated him unfairly.
10. Truman, like some of his predecessors, (is, are) faced with an unfriendly Congress.
11. (Was, Were) either of your suggestions accepted?
12. Each of these problems (is, are) to be solved separately.
13. The appearance of these houses (is, are) most dubious.
14. The costs in your new estimate (is, are) altogether too high.
15. The attempts on his life (has, have) finally ceased.
16. The offerings of the new firm (is, are) explained in their prospectus.
17. Neither of your remarks (is, are) particularly polite.
18. If either of these subjects (is, are) too difficult, let us know.

19. Every one of his answers (is, are) wrong.
20. Lucy, unlike her sisters, (is, are) beautiful.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 24*

1. *was* (subject—vase)
2. *are* (subject—ways)
3. *is* (subject—number)
4. *is* (subject—round)
5. *are* (subject—conclusions)
6. *has* (subject—price)
7. *is* (subject—one)
8. *is* (subject—queen)
9. *believes* (subject—he)
10. *is* (subject—Truman)
11. *was* (subject—either [one])
12. *is* (subject—each [one])
13. *is* (subject—appearance)
14. *are* (subject—costs)
15. *have* (subject—attempts)
16. *are* (subject—offerings)
17. *is* (subject—neither [one])
18. *is* (subject—either [one])
19. *is* (subject—one)
20. *is* (subject—Lucy)

as easy as A B C

x

A. What is the difference between *alumnus* and *alumna?*

B. Is it correct to say, "He is not *as* tall as he looks"?

C. Which is preferable: "Measles *is* a bad disease" or "Measles *are* a bad disease"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Alumnus, Alumna

Bernard Baruch is an *alumnus* of the College of the City of New York.

There are thousands of *alumni* of City College, which was, until recently, an all-male institution.

When some years back City College began to admit women to its halls of learning, a female graduate became an *alumna* of the college.

City College has produced a small number of *alumnae* (female graduates) and a large number of *alumni* (male graduates) in the last five years.

Alumnus—male, singular.
Alumni—(pronounced a-lum′-nye) male, plural.
Alumna—female, singular.
Alumnae—(pronounced a-lum′-nee) female, plural.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 25*

Complete each sentence by correctly inserting one of the four following words: *alumnus, alumni, alumna, alumnae.*

1. He is an ..... of West Point.
2. The ..... of Yale University will hold their annual meeting next week.
3. She is an ..... of The College of New Rochelle.
4. The ..... of The College of New Rochelle are bright young women with good educations.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 25*

1. alumnus 2. alumni 3. alumna 4. alumnae

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

He is not *as* tall as he looks.

Literature abounds in examples in which the word *as* follows a negative verb.

In the everyday speech of cultivated citizens, the popularity of *as* following a negative is even more pronounced.

There is not, and actually never has been, a grammatical rule in English to the effect that *so* must follow a negative, but many handbooks of rhetoric have claimed that *only* the following versions are "correct" English:

He is not *so* tall as you think.
We are not *so* stupid as you imagine.
She is not *so* old as her brother nor *so* pretty as her sister.

In comparisons, *as* may and frequently does follow a negative verb, if the speaker or writer so chooses. The following are perfectly correct literary and colloquial English:

He is not *as* tall as you think.
We are not *as* stupid as you imagine.
She is not *as* old as her brother nor *as* pretty as her sister.

Pro

A couple of Tasmanian devils showed up at the Bronx Zoo yesterday, much to the discomfiture of other animals who had never read the zoological report that the creatures were not *as* terrifying as they sounded, nor *as* mean as they looked.

—*The New York Times*

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Measles *is* a bad disease, *or*
Measles *are* a bad disease?

Just as certain plurals look like singulars (see page 116), so certain singulars, ending in *s*, look like plurals. For example:

measles	molasses	politics
rickets	news	athletics
mumps	acoustics	economics
shingles	mathematics	ethics

PREFERABLE FORMS:

Measles *is* a bad disease.
Mumps *is* catching.
Is rickets painful?
His shingles *is* very bad today.
That molasses *isn't* very sweet, is it?
The news from Europe *is* disturbing, as usual.
Acoustics *is* studied in Schools of Engineering.
Mathematics *is* an interesting subject.
Politics *makes* strange bedfellows.
Athletics *is* important in a boy's development.
Economics *is* studied in most colleges.
Ethics *is* also studied in most colleges.

But:

The economics of your budget *are* all wrong.
What *are* the ethics of the situation?
The acoustics of that auditorium *are* wonderful.
His politics *are* wrong.

Thus:

Diseases which end in *s* are singular.

Acoustics, economics, ethics, mathematics, politics, and *athletics* are singular when the words are used to denote subjects of study; otherwise they are plural.

News is singular.

(There is the famous story of the newspaper publisher who insisted that *news* was a plural word, and that his reporters use it as a plural in their dispatches. One belligerent reporter, on receiving a telegram from the publisher inquiring: "Are there any news?" wired back: "Not a single new.")

chapter 13 HOW TO GET THE RIGHT NUMBER

1. The Problem

Which is it: "Your mother and father *are* proud of you," or "Your mother and father *is* proud of you"? and then, how about: "Your mother or father *have* to come and see me," or "Your mother or father *has* to come and see me"?

2. The Solution

"Your father and mother *is* proud of you" doubtless sounds somewhat illiterate to you, and of course it is a violation of the rule we discovered in chapter 12. The verb agrees with its subject in number—and the subject of the verb is patently plural. Two people are involved—your mother and your father. This is a sentence in which the verb is governed by a *compound* subject, *mother* and *father*. A compound subject with its individual parts combined by the conjunction *and* is plural, and therefore takes a plural verb, thus:

Jules Perlmutter *and* Herbert Jaffe *are* practicing in New Rochelle.
City College *and* Columbia University *are* in New York.
Pencil *and* paper *are* not all you need to become a writer.
Fear *and* horror *were* written on her face.

The logic is irrefutable—in each instance the compound subject is made up of two single elements. It's as clear as

one and *one* are *two*.[1] In grammar, one and one *are* two, provided, however, that one *one* is joined to the other *one* by the conjunction *and*.

There is, of course, an obvious exception. Sometimes one and one are *one*, as when the two parts of the compound subject refer to the selfsame person or thing. For instance:

My severest critic and best friend *is* my wife.

To keep this from getting too involved, let us say that my wife's name is Mary (which, by an odd coincidence, it actually is). When I say *my severest critic*, I mean *Mary*. When I say *my best friend*, I still mean *Mary*. I am not referring to two people by the words *critic* and *friend*, but only one, *Mary*. Thus I have a compound subject relating to a single person. Such a compound subject is singular, and takes a singular verb.

I would also say: "My best friend and severest critic *is* here," for the subjects *friend* and *critic* still both refer to one person, my wife.

Another example along the same lines:

The president of the First National Bank and leader of the scout troop *has* just started to speak.

A compound subject, surely—*president* and *leader*. But both words refer to the same man, who, as it happens, holds two positions—bank president and scout leader.

[1] This might be a good place to make a relevant digression. Which is correct: "One and one *are* two" or "One and one *is* two?" "Six plus six (*is*, *are*) twelve?" "Five times five (*is*, *are*) twenty-five?" The answer is very simple—both forms of each sentence are correct. You may use either a singular or a plural verb in any mathematical equation. It is reasonable to consider *one and one* as a single and individual mathematical concept—hence *is*. It is equally reasonable to consider *one* and *one* as a compound subject connected by *and*—hence *are*. Similarly, *five times five* may be viewed as a single concept; therefore, "Five times five *is* twenty-five. Or *five* (units) may be considered the plural subject; therefore: "Five times five *are* twenty-five." You have a completely free choice in such usages, no matter what your arithmetic teacher's idiosyncrasy in this regard may have been.

There is, nevertheless, just one person involved—the subject, therefore, is singular (and so is the verb).

Another example:

Ham and eggs *is* a tasty dish.

Another compound subject, but again a single idea, an inseparable combination, as any devotee of this characteristically American breakfast will testify.

A third example:

The scourge of old age and the mystery of all medicine —cancer—*is* still ravaging the earth.

A singular verb, because the compound subject, *scourge* and *mystery,* is a single disease—cancer.

Although one *and* one are two, one *or* one is *not* two, but one. This may not appeal to your sense of logic nor your concept of mathematics, but the grammatical rule is pretty definite; one *or* one is one. In other words, a compound subject made up of singular elements joined by the conjunction *or* is singular, not, as in the case of *and,* plural.

This rule applies with equal force to the correlative conjunctions *either . . . or* and *neither . . . nor.*

Therefore:

Your mother or your father *has* to come and see me.

And also:

Either your mother or your father *has* to come and see me.

Neither your father nor your mother *has* been in to see me yet.

Neither America nor Russia *wants* war.

Either Congress or the President *has* to assume leadership.

Was a psychiatrist or a neurologist called in on the case?

An oculist or an optometrist *has* the right to prescribe glasses for a person with imperfect vision, but not an optician, who may only work from a prescription.

3. The Rule

Does your sentence have two or more singular subjects, connected by *and?* Use a *plural* verb.

However, if these two singular subjects refer to the same person or thing, use a *singular* verb.

Does your sentence have two (or more) singular subjects connected by *or, either . . . or,* or *neither . . . nor?* Use a *singular* verb.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 26*

Choose the correct verb in each sentence.

1. Claudia and her sister (has, have) already left.
2. Either Claudia or Nina (is, are) still here.
3. There (is, are) a package or a letter for you, I forget which.
4. There (was, were) a porterhouse steak and a leg of lamb in the tray just five minutes ago; what happened to them?
5. The brown hat and the blue hat (is, are) the same price; which color do you prefer?
6. The brown hat or the blue hat (is, are) the same price; which color do you want?
7. The number or the value of your bond (is, are) not what we're concerned with; the important question is where you got the money to pay for it.
8. Neither Jugoslavia nor Italy (seems, seem) entirely satisfied with the peace treaty.
9. Either Russia or Britain (is, are) certain to suggest a compromise before the actual voting takes place.

10. There (was, were) a student and a teacher in the room, going over some final term papers.
11. A chair or a couch (is, are) the only piece of furniture that will look good in this corner.
12. Either the drive shaft or the flywheel (is, are) broken.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 26*

1. have	4. were	7. is	10. were
2. is	5. are	8. seems	11. is
3. is	6. is	9. is	12. is

PRO AND CON

Q. Do you ever countenance a plural verb with the pronoun subject *either*, as in the sentence "Either of the books *are* useful"?

Pro

A. Certainly not. The real subject is *one* understood.

—Henry Seidel Canby

Mr. Canby was formerly chairman of the editorial board of the *Saturday Review*.

as easy as A B C

XI

A. What is the difference between *childish* and *childlike?*

B. Is it correct to say, "She was most *aggravated* by what happened"?

C. Which is preferable: "One or two books *is* enough," or "One or two books *are* enough"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Childish, Childlike

Some women act like children. They pout when they don't get their own way. They use baby talk to cajole favors from the trusting male. They allow themselves to be guided exclusively by instinct and emotion, never by rational common sense. (*Some* women, not *all* women.) Such women we may call *childish.*

On the other hand, some women possess certain different qualities common to children. They may have the unspoiled beauty, the trustfulness, the innocence, the charm of young children. Such qualities would aptly be characterized as *childlike.*

We describe qualities or attitudes or people as *childish* if we are speaking in derogation—that is, if we are consciously referring to what we consider the less pleasing qualities of childhood: *childish* temper, *childish* meanness, *childish* ignorance, and the like.

However, we call those qualities *childlike* with which we are in sympathy, qualities we consider pleasant: *childlike*

innocence, *childlike* frankness, *childlike* simplicity, and so on.

The two words are synonymous: the distinction is one of atmosphere. Is something agreeable? It is *childlike*. Is it disagreeable? It is *childish*.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 27*

1. The (childish, childlike) directness of her questions left him nonplussed.
2. She was (childish, childlike) in her trust and belief.
3. Such (childish, childlike) naïveté in a grown-up person is most irritating.
4. May's (childish, childlike) charm has always captivated her husband.
5. That's a (childish, childlike) attitude for you to take —why don't you try to act more grown-up?
6. She burst into a (childish, childlike) fit of temper when her husband rebuked her.
7. Your constant petulance is most (childish, childlike).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 27*

1. childlike	3. childish	5. childish	7. childish
2. childlike	4. childlike	6. childish	

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

She was most *aggravated* by what happened.

Aggravated had, as its original meaning, "made worse, itensified." In recent years, the word has been used with the added meaning of "provoked, annoyed, exasperated, irritated." Academic textbooks and speech manuals have never sanctioned the new meaning of "aggravated," but educated people go on using the word to express the idea of "exasperated" notwithstanding. Everything considered, it would be pedantic and narrow-minded to consider the following expressions incorrect:

What an *aggravating* child!
I was never so *aggravated* in all my life!
She *aggravates* me with her prissy affectation.
This is an *aggravating* situation.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

One or two books *is* enough, *or*
One or two books *are* enough?

The plural verb is used with the phrase "one or two . . . ," thus: "One or two of my friends *have* already received checks" "Here *are* one or two things you've omitted" and "At least one or two of your answers *were* satisfactory."

PREFERABLE FORM:

One or two books *are* enough.

chapter 14 HOW TO TEST A VERB

1. The Problem

"Doctor, my child and *I* would like to visit you tomorrow" is correct English. Is it also correct to say: "Doctor, can you see my child and *I* tomorrow?"

2. The Solution

When I was a child, mothers used to spend time (which might preferably have been devoted to more important things) on warning their young to show politeness by putting themselves last. Unless the war has had an even more devastating effect on women than the sociologists are admitting, mothers still admonish their offspring, as they did thirty years ago: "Don't say: 'Me and John want some bread and jelly.' Say: 'John and I want some bread and jelly.' "

The child of my day (I have checked this observation with a number of honest adults who had childhoods contemporaneous with mine) soon developed the notion that *me* was not quite as elegant a term as *I*, although (or so it seemed in juvenile logic) both words meant exactly the same thing—*me* was not as elegant as *I*, nor anywhere nearly as acceptable to grown-up ears. As children, we learned that we could get things quicker, and with a lot less wrangling, if we substituted *I* for *me* whenever such a substitution was even remotely plausible. So we substituted. With the result that a lot of us grew up with the habit of phrasing our thoughts in such patterns as:

There isn't enough food for both *he* and *I*.
Why don't you let Mary and *I* try it?
Between you and *I*, I don't believe a word she is saying.
Doctor, can you see my child and *I* today?

The problem, however, is not one of politeness, but of *case*.

Our experience with case has thus far been somewhat limited. In chapter 8, we discovered that personal pronouns had different forms for different cases. Let me refresh your memory:

NOMINATIVE FORMS OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN	OBJECTIVE FORMS OF OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN
I	me
you	you
he	him
she	her
we	us
you	you
they	them

We have learned also that the objective forms of these pronouns are used as objects of prepositions.

We wish now to begin to round out our knowledge of case by considering two other uses:

USE 1: THE NOMINATIVE CASE OF THE PRONOUN IS USED AS SUBJECT OF THE VERB

My child and *I* would like to visit you.
My wife and *I* are happy to see you.
She and *I* simply do not get along.
We and *they* have been friends for years.

USE 2: THE OBJECTIVE CASE OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUN IS USED AS OBJECT OF THE VERB

But what is an *object?*

To answer this question, let us first recall what we have learned about subjects.

The subject of the verb is the person or thing we are talking about:

1. *He* works.
2. *He* sees.
3. *He* is seen.

In some instances, the subject initiates the action of the verb, as in illustrations 1 and 2. When this happens, the verb is said to be in the *active voice.*

We talk about a subject, say *Harry Truman.*

What does *Harry Truman* do—what action does he initiate?

Harry Truman outsmarts congress.

Outsmarts is a verb in the active voice.

On the other hand, the subject of a verb may in some instances *receive* the action of that verb, as in illustration 3 (*He* is seen).

When this happens, the verb is said to be in the *passive voice.*

We talk about a subject, say (not to become monotonous) *Herbert Hoover.*

What happens to *Herbert Hoover*—what action does he receive?

Herbert Hoover is sent to Europe to study food problems.

Is sent is a verb in the passive voice.

Verbs in the passive voice are always in phrase form (that is, made up of two or more parts) and are composed of some form of the verb *to be* plus the *perfect participle.*

Passive verb forms:
was *sent*

will be *recognized*
has been *used*
is *found*

(The italicized parts of the verb phrases are perfect participles.)

If the *subject* receives the action of the verb, frequently the *initiator* of that action is also found within the sentence. Such initiator occurs within a prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition *by*.

1. ACTIVE: Benny sent me.
   PASSIVE: I was sent *by Benny*.
2. ACTIVE: He will recognize you.
   PASSIVE: You will be recognized *by him*.
3. ACTIVE: Women have used cosmetics for centuries.
   PASSIVE: Cosmetics have been used *by women* for centuries.
4. ACTIVE: Diligent hunters find a house to live in.
   PASSIVE: A house to live in is found *by diligent hunters*.

To get back to objects:

The subject of an *active* verb *initiates* the action of that verb.

The object of an active verb *receives* the action of that verb.

Each of the *active* verbs illustrated above (1 to 4) has an object.

VERB	OBJECT
1. sent	me
2. will recognize	you
3. have used	cosmetics
4. find	house

The subject of a *passive* verb receives the action.

(A *passive* verb never has an object.)

The object of an *active* verb receives the action.

So now you know what an object is.

For the present let us work with this temporary definition of an object: *An object of the verb is a noun or pronoun which receives the action of that verb—provided the verb is active.*

Only active verbs have objects.

When an active verb has an object, such a verb is called *transitive.* (The term *transitive* is made up of two Latin roots, *trans,* across; and *it,* goes. The action of a transitive verb goes across to an object.)

However, not all active verbs have objects, as witness:

Truman *runs* for office.
Trains never *arrive* on time.
Can we *come* into your house?

An active verb which has no object is called, logically enough, *intransitive.*

Every active verb in a sentence is either transitive or intransitive.

Transitive verbs have objects.

Intransitive verbs do not have objects.

It's as simple as that.

But can you rely on your ability to determine whether or not a verb has an object? Can you see the difference, furthermore, between an active and a passive verb? Let's put it to a test.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 28*

Decide whether the verb in each sentence is transitive, intransitive, or passive. Underline the object if there is one.

1. He found his wife in the arms of another man. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
2. He was found drunk on the corner of Hollywood and Vine. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?

3. The judge found for the defendant. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
4. He ran faster than ever. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
5. The meal was eaten in silence. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
6. They ate in gloomy silence. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
7. They ate all the leftovers. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
8. The enemy attacked in force. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
9. The enemy attacked our position at dawn. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
10. Who last saw Hitler alive? TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
11. By whom was Hitler last seen alive? TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
12. We arrived on time. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
13. Lay that pistol down. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
14. Lie down for a nap. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?
15. The body was laid in the grave. TRANSITIVE? INTRANSITIVE? PASSIVE?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 28*

1. transitive (object—wife)
2. passive
3. intransitive
4. intransitive
5. passive
6. intransitive
7. transitive (object—leftovers)
8. intransitive
9. transitive (object—position)
10. transitive (object—Hitler)
11. passive
12. intransitive
13. transitive (object—pistol)
14. intransitive
15. passive

Personal pronouns which function as objects of a verb are in the objective case.

I see *him.*
He sees *me.*
We see *them.*
They see *us.*

If two pronouns function as object of the verb, they are both in the objective case.

This pleases *him* and *me.*
Can you see *her* and *him?*

If a noun and pronoun form the compound object of the verb, the pronoun is in the objective case.

Can you see John and *me* now?
We heard Paul and *her* crying.
Why do you keep Ben and *us* waiting?
You can't treat *us* girls that way.

With this information, you can easily solve the problem which opened this chapter.

Doctor, can you see my child and (I, me) tomorrow?

The pronoun is part of the compound object of the verb phrase *can see.*
Hence the objective case is required.

CORRECT FORM:

Doctor, can you see my child and *me* tomorrow?

3. The Rule

As object of the verb, the personal pronoun is always in the objective case.

4. *The Test*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 29*

Check the correct pronoun in each sentence.

1. Harriet Dorn and (I, me) will attend the dance together.
2. (She, Her) and Ira certainly make a cute couple, don't they?
3. You and (we, us) had better go together, I think.
4. Send Mr. Sack and (I, me) separate bills, if you will.
5. Take her father and (she, her) into the next room, please.
6. This matter can best be settled, I believe, between (he, him) and his lawyer.
7. How was the letter addressed? Was it addressed to his father and (he, him) or to his mother and (he, him)?
8. That's something you can decide yourself, or else you and (she, her) can decide it between you.
9. We'll leave the decision up to you and (they, them).
10. Everyone is willing to play along with us but (she, her) and Bob.
11. Will you serve (he, him) and (I, me) now?
12. Women treat (we, us) men in a rather unsportsmanlike manner, don't you think?
13. Will you watch Ira and (she, her) so they don't get into trouble?
14. Please write your mother and (I, me) at least once a week.
15. Please call your father and (I, me) whenever you're in town.
16. Did you invite (we, us) and the Harrisons to your party?
17. He considers Margie and (I, me) his best friends.
18. We saw Sam and (she, her) together last night.

19. (They, Them) and (we, us) are not friends.
20. Do you consider (they, them) and (we, us) friends?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 29*

1. I	6. him	11. him, me	16. us
2. she	7. him, him	12. us	17. me
3. we	8. she	13. her	18. her
4. me	9. them	14. me	19. they, we
5. her	10. her	15. me	20. them, us

(The pronouns in test 29 were offered to you as subjects [nominative case], objects [objective case] and objects of prepositions [objective case]. Can you tell which is which?)

as easy as A B C

XII

A. What is the difference between *uninterested* and *disinterested?*

B. Is it correct to say, "It's *liable* to rain," or "It's *apt* to rain"?

C. Which is preferable: "A number of men *are* here," or "A number of men *is* here"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Uninterested, Disinterested

The child sits in a classroom on a spring day, his mind far away. The subject bores him, the teacher bores him; he is totally indifferent to every activity in the classroom. He would like to be out fishing, playing baseball, swimming. . . . His inattentiveness is perfect. He is *uninterested.*

A judge sits on the bench, listening carefully to the evidence, pro and con, which the opposing sides present to him. He is far from being bored. His interest is most keen. His attentiveness to all that is going on is tremendous. The questions he asks of defendant and plaintiff, of counsel for both litigants, of one witness after another, attest to his alertness. Yet he is (since justice is to be served) *disinterested.*

A person is *uninterested* if he is bored and indifferent.

A person is *disinterested* if he is impartial, unbiased, neutral, not personally concerned or involved in a dispute.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 30*

1. As you are an (a) (uninterested, disinterested) party, we will let you settle our dispute.
2. Don't look so (uninterested, disinterested); the play is not as boring as you seem to think.
3. Try to arrive at an (a) (uninterested, disinterested) conclusion.
4. The war proved that we could not afford to maintain an (a) (uninterested, disinterested) attitude toward events in Europe.
5. She is (uninterested, disinterested) in her neighbors' personal affairs.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 30*

1. disinterested
2. uninterested.
3. disinterested
4. disinterested
5. uninterested

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

It's *liable* to rain, *or*
It's *apt* to rain.

To denote probability, *likely* is the safe adjective to use. Strictly speaking, *liable* is restricted to the probability of an unpleasant or injurious occurrence, as:

You are *liable* to die if you drink cyanide of potassium.
You are *liable* to be fined if you spit on the sidewalk.

Still strictly speaking, *apt* is supposed to show a general tendency, as:

Little children are *apt* to be disobedient at times.
A college graduate is *apt* to be a well-read person.

However, many educated speakers do not conscientiously observe these narrow distinctions, and frequently

use *apt* and *liable* as interchangeable synonyms of *likely*, to show ordinary probability. Such use of *apt* and *liable* cannot reasonably be called incorrect English.

PRO AND CON

Q. What is your opinion of the acceptability of the statement: "It's *liable* to rain tomorrow"?

Noncommittal

A. I think the statement "It's liable to rain tomorrow" should concern only a weatherman—not a grammarian like me.

—Robert Ripley

Mr. Ripley was the creator of "Believe It or Not."

Pro (*with reservations*)

A. I should not write, and I think I should never say, *liable* in such a sentence as you quote. However, in the writing and certainly in the speech of any but excellent users of English in school I should probably not suggest the substitution of *likely*. The majority of young people in our high schools would better give attention to more important matters of usage.

P.S. I note that I unconsciously used the puristic *should* rather than *would*. It has here no flavor of *ought*.

—W. Wilbur Hatfield

Dr. Hatfield was formerly editor of *The English Journal*.

Q. What is your opinion of "It's *apt* to rain tomorrow" as correct, idiomatic English? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. In answer to your query about *apt*, for whatever it is worth my opinion is as follows:

I would normally use *apt* in the sense of "It's *apt* to rain tomorrow" as correct and idiomatic enough for all practical purposes, both in conversation and in print.

Perhaps, in extremely formal writing, I would make a slight distinction that *apt* should be reserved for the sense of having a habitual tendency, or especially fitted for. If intended to express probability that some event might happen in the nature of inanimate things, like weather, I believe the adjective *likely* would be more accurate. But the distinction is so tenuous that only a purist would probably observe it.

—Kenneth M. Gould

Mr. Gould was editor-in-chief of *Scholastic* magazines.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

A number of men *are* here, *or*
A number of men *is* here?

This is an instance in which the subject (*number*) is singular in form but so strongly plural in meaning that it takes a plural verb.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

A number of men *are* here.
A number of children *are* absent today.
A large number of your questions *do* not admit of answers.
A small number of houses *are* still unsold.

Also:

A lot of criminals *get* away with their crimes.
A lot of my friends *like* you, even though I don't.

But:

The number of workers in the industry *has* dropped.
The greatest number of errors *was* made on Part II.

The number of prisoners *has* decreased.
This lot of books *was* sold for a song.

In other words:

A number and *a lot* take *plural* verbs.
The number, this number, that number and *the lot, this lot, that lot* take *singular* verbs.

chapter 15 HOW TO KEEP YOUR SANITY WITH "LAY" AND "LIE"

1. The Problem

If it is correct to say, "*Lay* that pistol down, Mama," why can't we, with equal justification, say, "*Lay* down for a nap, Mama"?

2. The Solution

Pronouns cause the greatest *number of errors* among literate adults.

The verbs *lay* and *lie* cause the greatest *number of headaches.*

More errors are made with pronouns than with any other part of speech, perhaps because there is such a variety of ways for a speaker to go wrong. The eleven different forms of personal pronouns, including nominative and objective cases, form a healthy percentage of the average day's conversation, so the statistics I gathered in my classes, which show pronouns as the leading cause of error, are not exactly surprising.

Although errors in *lay* and *lie* run second, numerically speaking, to errors in pronouns, the results of the investigation I have described showed this curious twist:

1. The greatest number of *errors* was made in the use of pronouns.
2. However, the greatest number of *people* made errors in the use of *lay* and *lie.*

Of the 856 adults whose grammatical speech habits were charted, only seven showed a perfect knowledge of the ramifications of these perplexing verbs!

In the test given to these adults, nine of the one hundred sentences required the checking of the correct form of one of these verbs. These were the results:

7 made a perfect score on all 9 sentences.
(These same seven had an over-all score of between 90 and 100.)
22 made 1 error.
162 made 2 or 3 errors.
534 made 4 errors.
131 made 5 or more errors.
None made more than 7 errors.

Of the 856 adults tested, roughly 12 per cent were college graduates, 20 per cent had had one or two years of college training, 55 per cent were high-school graduates but had gone no further, and all the rest, or about 13 per cent, were primary-school graduates. In other words, every one of these people had had some kind of training in grammar, either primary school, secondary school, or college, or all three. Yet 849 out of 856 made one to seven errors out of nine attempts to use *lay* and *lie* correctly.

Obviously these two verbs are a particularly common and troublesome problem in English grammar, and one well worth devoting some time and thought to.

The key to the entire problem lies in your complete understanding of the difference between transitive, intransitive, and passive verbs.

You recall, from the work we have just finished (chapter 14), that:

A verb is passive if its subject receives its action:

The gamblers were run out of town.
Gambling has been stopped in the city.

An active verb is transitive if it has an object:

He runs two gambling casinos in Florida.
Her face would stop a clock.

An active verb is intransitive if it does not have an object:

We ran all the way home.
The clock has stopped.

Since the rest of this chapter will be practically meaningless to you unless you have become a past master in the fine art of distinguishing transitive from intransitive verbs, let me impose upon your patience by asking you to submit to a quick test of your ability before we go any further.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 31*

Each sentence contains an italicized verb. Check the symbol TR if that verb is transitive, INT if the verb is intransitive.

1. Charles Jackson, author of *The Lost Weekend, has* also *written* a book called *The Fall of Valor.* TR INT
2. Bernard Baruch *accused* Henry Wallace of making false statements about the atomic-energy proposals. TR INT
3. When you *lie* down on that bed, be careful. TR INT
4. He *walked* upstairs, slowly, methodically, one step at a time. TR INT
5. He *has walked* his dog several times around the block, but with no success. TR INT
6. Do not *eat* so quickly. TR INT
7. Do not *eat* so much. TR INT

8. Landlords *have* no sympathy for the plight of their tenants. TR INT
9. The teacher *spoke* fluently about her troubles. TR INT
10. She *spoke* her piece and sat down. TR INT

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 31*

1. TR 2. TR 3. INT 4. INT 5. TR 6. INT 7. TR 8. TR 9. INT 10. TR

Here, now, are the three keys that will unlock for you all the puzzling secrets of *lay* and *lie:*

KEY 1: *Lie* (or one of its forms) is exclusively an *intransitive* verb.

KEY 2: *Lay* (or one of its forms) is, on the other hand, a *transitive* verb.

KEY 3: Only *lay* (in its passive form) may be used in the *passive* voice. *Lie* is never passive.

When you are confronted with the necessity for making a choice between the forms of *lie* and *lay*, these are the three points to remember:

POINT 1: If an intransitive verb is required (because there is *no* object), use some form of *lie*.

POINT 2: If a transitive verb is required (because there *is* an object), use some form of *lay*.

POINT 3: If a passive verb is required (because the subject receives the action), use the passive form of *lay*. In the passive voice, the perfect participle of a verb is used. In the case of *lay*, the perfect participle is *laid*.

For example:

Lie—intransitive

1. The hope of democracy lies in the economic security of the common man.
2. Lie down for an hour before dinner.
3. Why do you lie asleep all morning when there is so much work to be done?

4. Whenever she lies down, the phone rings.
5. His interests lie in the fields of science and technology.

Lay—transitive

1. The hen lays an *egg*.
2. That show will lay an *egg*.
3. Please lay the *baby* on its back.
4. Peace is here; shall we lay down our *arms?*
5. They will lay the *body* to rest in Woodlawn Cemetery.

(The object in each sentence is in italics.)

Laid (the perfect participle of *lay*)—*passive*

1. The keel of the ship was laid on Friday.
2. When will the cornerstone of the building be laid?
3. The rug was laid in the wrong room.
4. The body was laid to rest in Woodlawn.
5. The groundwork for our understanding of *lay* and *lie* is now laid.

Do the distinctions seem fairly easy and clear-cut? Then try a test of your learning.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 32*

1. When we (lie, lay) on this bed, we can feel the springs coming through the mattress.
2. If you will (lie, lay) away a few dollars every week, you will soon learn the painful habit of thrift.
3. (Lie, Lay) still for a few minutes.
4. Don't (lie, lay) the books on that shelf; it's too high up.
5. (Lie, Lay) the patient on the sofa so the doctor can examine him.
6. We found the wounded man (lying, laying) on the floor.

7. She has become accustomed to (lying, laying) down for a short nap before dinner.
8. (Lie, Lay) the baby in its crib, and perhaps it will go to sleep.
9. We saw a penny (lying, laying) in the mud.
10. If you (lie, lay) in a stock of coal now, you may save some money next winter.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 32*

1. lie	3. lie	5. lay	7. lying	9. lying
2. lay	4. lay	6. lying	8. lay	10. lay

Every verb has a past tense—and *lie* and *lay* are no exceptions.

This is where our trouble really starts.

The past tense of *lay* is *laid*—reasonable enough so far.

But the past tense of *lie* is *lay!*

No, this is not a misprint.

Lay is the past tense of the verb *lie.*

It is not of course the same *lay* as the transitive verb with which we have been dealing. *Lay,* as a verb in the past tense (that is, the past tense of *lie*), is an *intransitive* verb.

Before you become too confused to be of any further use to society, let us make a table:

VERB	PRESENT	PAST
lay (transitive)	lay	laid
lie (intransitive)	lie	lay

For example:

Lay

Today I *lay* the baby in the crib.
Yesterday I *laid* the baby in the crib.

Today I *lie* down.
Yesterday I *lay* down.

With that as a starter, try a short problem:

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 33*

Complete each sentence with the correct past tense of the required verb.

1. She ..... down for a nap this morning.
2. Yesterday, when she ..... down for a nap, her dinner burned.
3. She ..... the work aside for a few days.
4. The nurse ..... the patient on her back and then called the doctor in.
5. We ..... the foundation of your understanding of *lay* and *lie* by presenting 3 clear-cut principles.
6. He ..... quietly for a moment, then finally arose and began to dress.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 33*

1. lay 2. lay 3. laid 4. laid 5. laid 6. lay

If success crowned your attempts in test 33, you are ready for further troubles.

To wit:

Lay and *lie* have a third tense which often proves troublesome, namely the *perfect*.

The perfect tense of the transitive verb *lay* is *have laid*.

We have laid rugs in all the rooms.

The perfect tense of the intransitive verb *lie* is *have lain*.

Have you lain awake all night?

The perfect tense of any verb is that form which combines *has, have, having,* or *had* with the past participle. Here are further examples of the use of the perfect tenses of *lay* and *lie:*

She *has laid* her winter garments away.
The lawyers *had* already *laid* the groundwork for an appeal, so there were only a few papers to prepare and sign.
Having laid his business cares away for the day, he went to the Stork Club to meet Gypsy Rose Lee.
The baby *has lain* asleep for two hours.
She *had lain* down for a short nap when her husband came home.
Having lain on the shelves all year, the books had gathered a considerable layer of dust.

The perfect tense is a *verb phrase* made up of two parts:

(*a*) the auxiliary *has, have, had,* or *having;*
(*b*) the *past participle* (in the case of the two verbs under discussion, *laid* and *lain*).

Has, had, have, or *having* is called an *auxiliary* since it *helps* the main verb.

The *past* participle of any verb is that form used in the perfect tenses: has *worked,* had *lain,* have *known,* and so on.

The italicized forms are the past participles of *work, lie,* and *know.*

There is still another *participle*—the *present participle,* which is the *-ing* form of the verb: *working, laying, lying, knowing, seeing,* and so on.

We can now considerably amplify the table we made earlier:

VERB	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
lay (transitive)	lay	laid	laid	laying
lie (intransitive)	lie	lay	lain	lying

Now, if you could somehow manage to memorize this diagram, you would be well on your way toward conquering any difficulties you might ever happen to have with *lay* and *lie*. And performing this feat of memory will take you no longer than 2½ minutes. Students in my classes do it every term in that time or less.

To test your memory, fill the proper forms into the blanks below:

VERB	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
lay (transitive)				
lie (intransitive)				

One final thought: you may possibly run into a little confusion on this minor point.

The past of lie is *lay:* "He *lay* asleep all morning."

However, in the negative and interrogative forms of this sentence, we allow the auxiliary to carry the burden of expressing past time, and keep the main verb, *lie*, unchanged.

INTERROGATIVE: *Did* he lie asleep all morning?
NEGATIVE: He *did* not lie asleep all morning.

The negative and interrogative forms of *lay* follow the same rule, as do all negative and interrogative verbs in English.

AFFIRMATIVE: We *laid* the child in its crib.
NEGATIVE: We *did* not lay the child in its crib.
INTERROGATIVE: *Did* we lay the child in its crib?

And that is the full story on *lay* and *lie*.
There are only three simple principles to keep in mind:

1. *Lie* is intransitive.
2. *Lay* is transitive.
3. Only *lay* has a passive voice.

Once you have mastered these principles, the rest is a matter of forming good habits—forming them so well that they become reflexive. There is no sanction whatever for any misuse of either verb. There is no trend whatever among educated speakers to substitute forms of *lay* for forms of *lie*—though the tendency is very much pronounced among speakers whose grammar is generally incorrect.

If you study the history of English words, you will observe many instances in which one word displaces another of closely allied meaning. Today, in educated speech, *further* is displacing *farther, will* is displacing *shall,* and *prone* is displacing *supine.*[1] There were, at one time, certain distinctions between *shall* and *will, further* and *farther,* and *prone* and *supine.* But *farther, shall,* and *supine* are today practically obsolete words. The displacement which I have described is one of the factors making for the fine economy of the English language.

However, *lay* and *lie* are apparently impervious to this common trend. In educated speech, *lay* does not show any promise or portent of ever displacing *lie,* though it has already completely done so in uneducated speech!

In the problem at the beginning of this chapter, *lay* in the first sentence is correct because a transitive verb is required—the verb has an object, namely *pistol.* In the sec-

[1] Prone, strictly speaking, means lying *face downward.* Supine, on the other hand, means lying *face upward.* Most people today use *prone* for both positions, especially the latter.

ond sentence, there is no object, the verb is intransitive, and so *lie* is the only acceptable form.

3. The Rule

Lie is intransitive. *Lay* is transitive. *Lie* has only an active voice. *Lay* may be either active or passive.

How to remember the rule: The *i* in *lie* will remind you of *intransitive,* which begins with the letter *i.* The *a* in *lay* will remind you of *transitive* and *passive;* in both these terms the first vowel is *a.*

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 34*

Check the correct form of each verb:

1. The patient is (laying, lying) on the couch.
2. (Lie, Lay) the baby down so the doctor can examine him.
3. Estelle has (lain, laid) down for a nap.
4. Allan picked up the sticks and (lied, laid, lay) them straight.
5. We (laid, lay, lied) in the sun all yesterday morning.
6. He (laid, lay) his hands on the controls, waiting for the signal to start the train.
7. Have you (lain, laid) away your summer clothes yet?
8. The bill has (laid, lain) on the President's desk all week, waiting for his signature.
9. Which shelf did you (lay, lie) the curtains on?
10. Did you (lay, lie) on your back all night?
11. Why don't you (lie, lay) down for a short rest before supper?
12. There the diamond (lay, laid) in the gutter, and the hundreds of people passing by never noticed it.
13. Let sleeping dogs (lay, lie).

14. There he was, (lying, laying) on the hard floor.
15. The work has been carefully (laid, lain) out for you; you should have very little difficulty.
16. Certain principles of government were (laid, lain) down by the Founding Fathers in the United States Constitution.
17. If she had only (laid, lain) quietly, this would not have happened.
18. (Laid, Lain) on its side the child was able to breathe better.
19. (Laying, Lying) on its side, the child was able to breathe better.
20. Let us (lay, lie) our plans carefully and nothing will go wrong.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 34*

1. lying	6. laid	11. lie	16. laid
2. lay	7. laid	12. lay	17. lain
3. lain	8. lain	13. lie	18. laid
4. laid	9. lay	14. lying	19. lying
5. lay	10. lie	15. laid	20. lay

as easy as A B C

XIII

A. What is the difference between *fiancé* and *fiancée?*

B. Is it correct to write: "The *above* remarks are not intended to imply . . . ," or "The *above* is a verbatim report of . . ."?

C. Which is preferable: "Three-quarters of the work *is* done," or "Three-quarters of the work *are* done"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Fiancé, Fiancée

Sex is one of the most delightful phenomena of human living; it is sometimes one of the most confusing. This confusion occasionally spills over into grammar.

We are all of us more or less adjusted to the unavoidable fact that there are two sexes—male and female. (This being a book on grammar rather than one on abnormal psychology, we'll ignore any other possibilities.)

Though little confusion exists as to the differences between these two sexes, some bewilderment attaches at times to the grammar of sex. We have already learned that a male is an *alumnus,* a female an *alumna.* A man is an *aviator,* an *excutor,* a *masseur,* a *waiter,* an *actor;* a woman is an *aviatrix,* an *executrix,* a *masseuse,* a *waitress,* an *actress.*

The democratization of sex has gone further in English than in most foreign languages. In French, for example,

everything, animate or inanimate, animal, vegetable or mineral, is either masculine or feminine, sometimes with ridiculous results, as in the case of *la barbe,* the beard, which is feminine. In Latin, every word is either masculine, feminine, or neuter, not according to strict logic, but more likely in accordance with the spelling of the word.

But in English, both grammatically and logically, a doctor, a lawyer, a teacher, a worker, a thief, a genius may be either male or female, either masculine or feminine.

The difference between *fiancé* and *fiancée* is entirely one of sex, as you would logically expect. With the one *e, fiancé* is a man; with two *e*'s, *fiancée* is a woman. Both words are pronounced identically: fee-ahn-*say*. The French accent (*é*) may or need not be used in spelling—either *fiancé* or *fiance;* either *fiancée* or *fiancee.*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 35*

1. His (fiancé, fiancée) is a beautiful blonde.
2. Her newest (fiancé, fiancée) has just jilted her.
3. "Your (fiancé, fiancée)," said John to his sister, "is handsome enough. But has he any brains?"
4. A king of England gave up a throne for his (fiancé, fiancée).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 35*

1. fiancée 2. fiancé 3. fiancé 4. fiancée

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

The *above* remarks are not intended to imply . . .
The *above* is a verbatim report of . . .

"The remarks quoted *above*" (adverbial function, modifying the participial adjective *quoted*) is the only use sanctioned in pedantic circles, but "the *above* remarks" (adjective) and "the *above* is true" (noun) are uses which have always been so current in educated speech and writing that

it is ridiculous to condemn such constructions. Pooley[2] notes the adjective and noun use in a number of reputable authors, and adds: "Any writer may feel free at any time to use 'the *above* statement,' and with only slightly less assurance, 'the *above* will prove.' In either case, he has the authority of scholars and standard literature."

PRO AND CON

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "The *above* remarks are not to be taken at face value" is correct, idiomatic English established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. I agree that the expression, "The above remarks," is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. For myself, I tend to use the expression, "The foregoing remarks," or "The preceding remarks," because of a prejudice acquired in years of teaching English in high school and college. However, I never criticize students for using the expression you inquire about, and have the impression that it is probably less stilted and therefore more effective than the expressions which my purist teachers induced me to adopt.

—John J. De Boer

Dr. De Boer is editor of *Elementary English* and professor of education at Roosevelt College, Chicago.

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "The *above* is a verbatim report of the proceedings" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among

[2] Robert C. Pooley, professor of English at the University of Wisconsin, in *Teaching English Usage: A Guide for English Teachers in High School.* (Appleton-Century).

educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Yes, I'd use it just as above.

—Ed Sullivan

Mr. Sullivan is the well-known television personality.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Three-quarters of the work *is* done, *or*
Three-quarters of the work *are* done?

A unit of measure, when it has a collective meaning, is generally treated as a singular, even if it is in a plural form. Thus:

Two-thirds of the population *is* illiterate.
Four-fifths of the book *is* sheer pornography.
Three-quarters of the day *was* spent in idleness.
Two thousand dollars a year *is* a lot of money.
Twenty cents *is* too much for that candy.
Six yards *is* too long.
Five bushels per acre *is* a good yield.
Two pounds *is* all I need.

On the other hand, consider these:

Two-thirds of the pupils *were* sick.
Four-fifths of the books *were* damaged.
Two-thirds of the population *are* farmers.
Three-quarters of the soldiers *were* killed.
Half of the students *were* ill.
The majority of men *prefer* blondes.

When a fraction or a measuring word, like *majority,* indicates a single idea or a collective unity (*two-thirds of the*

work), a singular verb is required: "Two-thirds of the work *is* done." However, when the fraction or measuring word is followed by a prepositional phrase containing a plural noun (*three-quarters of the soldiers*) or in some other way shows strong plurality, a plural verb is required: "Two-thirds of the men *are* farmers"; "Three-fourths of the population *are* farmers."

PREFERABLE FORM:

Three-quarters of the work *is* done.

chapter 16 HOW TO LET CIRCUMSTANCES ALTER CASES

1. The Problem

Which is correct, "It is *I*," or "It is *me*"?

2. The Solution

You have become adjusted to the fact that personal pronouns change form according to case—

And to the added fact that case depends on circumstances.

You know that the objective case (namely, *me, him, her, us, them*) is used when the pronoun is object of the verb or object of the preposition. ("He called John and *me*"; "This letter is addressed to *me* and *him*.")

And you know that the nominative case (namely, *I, he, she, we, they*) is used when the pronoun is subject of the verb. ("*He* and *I* will do it.")

The nominative case is also used as the *complement of a copulative verb.*

What's a complement? And what's a copulative verb?

A complement (note the spelling) is a word which completes the meaning of the verb. The object is one form of complement. *I take* is relatively incomplete in meaning. Add an object, *book,* and the meaning of your sentence becomes relatively complete: *I take the book.*

A copulative verb is one which expresses, not action, but state of being.

To be, or any one of its forms, is a copulative verb.

To be has a large family, and every member is a coputive verb:

am	shall be	has been	will have been
are	will be	had been	would have been
is	would be	have been	should have been
	should be		
was			may have been
were	could be		might have been
	may be		could have been
	might be		

A transitive verb in the active voice transmits action from the subject to the complement, as in "I *know* a doctor," in which action is transmitted from the subject *I* to the object, or complement, *doctor*. But a copulative verb does not transmit action; instead, it establishes an identity. When we say "I *am* a doctor," we are expressing the fact that *I* and *doctor* are the same person; we are establishing the identity of subject and complement.

The complement of a copulative verb is identical to the subject not only in meaning, but also in case.

The subject of a verb, as you know, is in the nominative case.

Therefore, the complement of a copulative verb is also in the nominative case.

In the sentence, "I am a doctor," *I* is the subject, *am a doctor* is the predicate. The complement *doctor*, then, is in the predicate of the sentence. And it is in the nominative case. Such a complement, therefore, is called, not an object, but a *predicate nominative*.

In the problem under consideration ("It is *I*," or "It is *me*,"), the pronoun in question is the predicate nominative of the sentence. Now, if we consider the expression from the point of view of grammatical rule, *It is I* is the only allowable form. The rule is clear and to the point: *the complement of a copulative verb is in the nominative case.*

But correct English is not always entirely predicated on grammatical rules.

Rules are sometimes violated. The rule about using the nominative *I* as the complement of the copulative verb *to be* is violated rather consistently by a large number of

educated speakers. According to a survey made by the National Council of Teachers of English among several hundreds of high school and college teachers of English and Speech; editors; established authors; linguists and grammarians; and business executives, "It is *me*" is considered established, acceptable English, even though a rule is being violated. Most of the experts questioned admitted that they use "It is *me*" in their own speech and hear it from their contemporaries; and some of them went so far as to label "It is *I*" pedantic and stilted.

Should you be confronted with a choice between *I* and *me* as the complement of a copulative verb on, say, a civil service test or a high school or college English examination, you would, of course, select the nominative form, for obviously you are being tested on your knowledge of grammatical rules. However, in informal conversation and writing, you should feel perfectly free to use "It is *me*," which is accepted in common usage, in place of "It is *I*," which conforms to grammatical rule.

In all consistency, it would seem that the objective forms of the other personal pronouns, that is, *him, her, us,* and *them,* should also be acceptable as complements of a copulative verb. However—such is the illogicality of language—that is not so. Educated speakers who unconscionably say "It is *me*" generally shy away from "It is *him*," "It is *her*," "It is *us*," and the like. We may possibly account for this anomaly by reasoning that "It is *me*," or a variant form, is more likely to crop up with some frequency in everyday conversation than are the other forms ("Who's there? It's *me*"; "That's *me* all over"; "Which picture is *me?*" "Is that picture supposed to be *me?* No, sir, not on your life, that's not *me* in a hundred years").

In informal speech and writing (friendly letters, scribbled interoffice memos, and the like), you may certainly feel free to say "It is *me*" or "It's *me*," or "That's *me*," or "It wasn't *me*" without any acute feelings of guilt.

The answer to our problem, then, is that both forms, "It is *I*" and "It is *me*," are correct—one by virtue of gram-

matical rule, the other by virtue of common educated usage.

3. *The Rule*

The nominative pronoun is used as the complement of a copulative verb. However, the expression "It is *me*" (or any variant) is acceptable in informal speech and writing.

CORRECT	EQUALLY ACCEPTABLE
It is I.	It is me.
It's I.	It's me.
It will be I.	It will be me.
It has always been I.	It has always been me.
Did you think it was I?	Did you think it was me?

CORRECT	NOT UNIVERSALLY ACCEPTABLE
It is he.	It is him.
It was she.	It was her.
It will be they.	It will be them.
It wasn't we.	It wasn't us.
I thought you were they.	I thought you were them.
This is he.	This is him.

4. *The Test*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 36*

Applying grammatical principles *strictly*, check the proper form of the pronoun in each sentence. Choose a nominative pronoun as subject of the verb or as complement of a copulative verb; choose an objective pronoun as object of the verb or as object of the preposition.

1. Was it (she, her) you were talking about?
2. It is (we, us) you will have to answer to if anything goes wrong.

3. (He, Him) and Frank are our best workers.
4. Let's keep this information strictly between (we, us) men.
5. Why, he spoke to you and (I, me) as if we were babies.
6. He sent Charlie Jerome and (I, me) over to the main office.
7. Now it is (I, me) who am at a loss for words.
8. Was it (they, them) who gave you all that misinformation?
9. An American is (he, him) who loves America.
10. That picture doesn't look a bit like (I, me).
11. That picture surely isn't (I, me), is it?
12. It won't be (he, him) who will suffer, it will be (I, me).
13. Why don't you invite (she, her) and her brother to go with you?
14. Everyone seems more than satisfied, except (she, her).
15. No one but (he, him) would take your offer seriously.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 36*

1. she	4. us	7. I	10. me	13. her
2. we	5. me	8. they	11. I	14. her
3. he	6. me	9. he	12. he, I	15. him

Some added information about pronouns that will prove useful in later work:

Personal pronouns have number:

I, you, he, and *she* are singular.

We, you, and *they* are plural.

I and *we* are considered *first-person* pronouns—an arbitrary distinction referring to the fact that *I* and *we* describe the person speaking.

You is considered a *second-person* pronoun—the person spoken to.

He, she, and *they* are considered *third-person* pronouns—the person spoken about.

We can now combine our knowledge of person, number, and case into the following table:

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Singular		*Plural*
First Person:	nominative—I objective—me	nominative—we objective—us
Second Person:	nominative } —you objective }	nominative } —you objective }
Third Person:	nominative—he, she objective—him, her	nominative—they objective—them

That *you* has two identifying numbers (singular and plural) is due of course to the fact that whether we address *one* person or *many*, we use the word *you* interchangeably. This lack of distinction between singular and plural seems to cause a certain amount of instinctive annoyance to many ungrammatical speakers—hence you will hear them addressing a number of people as *youse* or perhaps *yez* or *yiz*. Many educated Southerners prefer the expression *you-all* to indicate plurality. I have it on good authority that Southerners say *you-all* only when speaking to more than one person.

PRO AND CON

Q. Do you ever use the expression "It is me"? Or do you prefer to say "It is I"? What do you hear from your friends or associates? What is your opinion of the usage "It is I"?

Pro

A. The expression "It is *me*" has justification through convenience and very common usage; in French the usage has long been accepted as classic.

—Louis Bromfield

Mr. Bromfield was the famous novelist and writer on agricultural problems.

Pro (*with reservations*)

A. It seems that I am one of those people who always say "It is I," but I must admit that the trend seems to be toward "It's me"! However, be consoled. I make other errors and split infinitives hither and yon.

—Alma Dettinger

Miss Dettinger conducts "Other People's Business" daily over radio station WQXR.

Con

A. In spite of the fact that a Harvard professor (I've forgotten his name) recently exploded the idea that "It is me" is ungrammatical I prefer to use "It is I." And canvassing my associates I find that only one prefers the more colloquial form, "It is me" and that he invariably contracts it to "It's me."

—Sumner Blossom

Mr. Blossom is editor of *American Magazine.*

Pro

A. In reply to your inquiry, we assure you that "It is me" has long been established as good colloquial speech. The following are a few of the many quotations in our files in support of the construction. Raymond Paton, *Autobiography of a Blackguard* (Houghton Mifflin Co.), 1924, page 42, ". . . not more than four people know that *it is me* . . ." R. L. Stevenson, *Treasure Island,* "But Silver . . . called out to know if *that were* me."

—Edward A. H. Fuchs

Dr. Fuchs was a member of the editorial staff of G. &

C. Merriam Co., publishers of the Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary* and the Merriam-Webster *Collegiate Dictionary*.

Confused

"Ah, it's me," said Mr. Squeers, "and *me's* the first person singular, nominative case, agreeing with the verb *it's* and governed by *Squeers* understood, as a acorn, a hour."

—Charles Dickens, *Nicholas Nickleby*

as easy as A B C

XIV

A. What is the difference between *allude* and *refer?*

B. Is it correct to say, "Everyone stood up and shouted at the top of *their* lungs"?

C. Which is preferable: "Neither the President nor the members of the cabinet *is* behind the bill," or "Neither the President nor the members of the cabinet *are* behind the bill"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Allude, Refer

Allude is not, as some people seem to think, the more literary, or more elegant, term for *refer*. There is a definite distinction in meaning. For example:

Your fiancée is a divorcee, a fact which makes her unacceptable to your parents.

One day, as if in general conversation, your father talks about the sanctity and permanence of marriage. Nobody in his family, he says pointedly, has ever been in the divorce courts.

You might then correctly ask: "Are you *alluding* to Jane?"

Your father has not specifically mentioned Jane by name, so he is making an *allusion*, which is an indirect and unspecific *reference*, a reference by suggestion or implication.

A *reference*, unlike an *allusion*, leaves nothing to the imagination, is distinct, specific, to the point.

Thus, you make a *reference,* not an *allusion,* to Shakespeare when you name one of his plays, or quote a line from him.

You make an *allusion* to your need for money when you talk generally about the high cost of living or about your added financial burdens since you got married, or in fact when you say anything but the direct, "I need more money."

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Everyone stood up and shouted at the top of *their* lungs.

The revised form, "Everyone stood up and shouted at the top of *his* lungs," is a typical instance of pedantic English when used in ordinary conversation.

It is true that a certain grammatical "rule" requires a singular possessive pronoun with the antecedent *everyone* —but this is a rule as often violated as observed in educated usage. And if violations of a so-called rule are prevalent in cultivated speech, the rule may be considered virtually nonexistent. Bear in mind, now that you are well immersed in your study of grammar, that "correctness" is determined by common usage, not by ukase, not by demands made in outmoded or puristic textbooks.

Indefinite pronouns like *everyone, everybody, no one, nobody, someone, somebody, anyone,* and *anybody* are indeed often treated as singulars, as in the following patterns:

Everyone *is* here.
Everybody *has* arrived.
No one *was* missing.
Nobody *has* returned.
Someone *is* going to get hell for this.
Somebody *has* made a mistake.
Anyone *is* willing to admit the truth of that statement.
Anybody who *comes* late will be punished.

No one who speaks English as a native language would ever think of using plural verbs with these pronouns. Nevertheless, there is, you will have to admit, both logic and sanity in the feeling of plurality that many people get from these words. Hence, sentences like:

If anyone is waiting, ask *them* to come in.
Since everybody understood French, I spoke to *them* in that language.
Everyone was waiting when I arrived, and so I greeted *them* all happily.

may not be excessively "pure" English; but they are a lot more natural, more sensible, and more common among educated speakers than the forms which the precisionists would ask us to use:

If anyone is waiting, ask *him* to come in.
Since everybody understood French, I spoke to *him* in that language.
Everyone was waiting when I arrived, and so I greeted *him* happily.

(To me, the last two sentences, while indubitably "correct," sound slightly insane, as if uttered by some poor soul who had just had himself a nervous breakdown caused by studying too much grammar.)

When you say: "Everyone decided to go home," you are certainly implying the existence of more than one person. You are therefore speaking logical, correct English if you change the sentence to: "Everyone put on *their* coats and went home." Such a construction is part of the idiom of the language—it is acceptable in informal conversation; it is used by educated speakers; it is, in short, not a sin.

PRO AND CON

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "As soon as everyone had arrived, we started to speak to *them*" is cor-

rect, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. That's the way I'd talk.

—Lewis Gannett

Mr. Gannett was formerly a literary critic of the New York *Herald Tribune.*

Pro

A. I am very much afraid that my opinion in respect to the grammatical question posed in your letter wouldn't be very helpful to anyone. I happen to use a great number of idiomatic expressions in my conversation, which would lead me to uphold those who favor the expression you quote.

I guess I believe in a double standard of grammar, for where we try to be as proper as possible in editing articles for *Coronet,* nothing peeves me more than the person who quibbles over grammar in everyday speech. To me it has always been most important to convey a meaning, and when an ungrammatical expression can better get across a point, I am all for it.

—Harris Shevelson

Mr. Shevelson was formerly an editor of *Coronet* and of *Pageant.*

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "Everyone was here, but *they all* left early" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Not being a grammarian I don't know the wrongs and rights of the expression of "Everyone was here, but they all left early." I am afraid it would be rather awkward to say "Everyone was here, but he left early." That might imply that the party was rather dull because only one person came or the party involved was pretty important because the one person meant all the world to the person giving it. Or am I getting too involved?

At any rate, I would be inclined to accept the expression without getting too excited about what the purists might say. It would be difficult to substitute another phrasing that would be as succinct and one that would carry the same meaning. You might perhaps say "All were here but all left early," but that does not give the same meaning.

—Benjamin Fine

Dr. Fine was education editor of *The New York Times*. He is the author of *A Giant of the Press; College Publicity in the U.S.; Educational Publicity; Democratic Education;* and a series of articles on the teaching of American history. At present, he is Dean of the Graduate School of Education at Yeshiva University.

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "If anyone is waiting, let *them* come in" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con

A. I am sorry but I think it is incorrect, confusing, irritating, and certainly not idiomatic. In the first place, I doubt if "anyone" is ever idiomatic. It sounds like an intellectual pronoun. The English for it is "anybody." However, if you say "any one," thus making it hopelessly singular, why try to use it as an antecedent for a plural

pronoun? I know people say that kind of thing, but it is a boner.

If you are "writing" a grammar, I think part of your responsibility is to try to help to keep the language as accurate as possible, because it is very difficult to say anything in English or any language accurately, and the plea to introduce confusing, "idiomatic" antecedents and pronouns "as correct" is a specious one.

—Hervey Allen

Hervey Allen, who died in 1952, was the author of *Anthony Adverse, Bedford Village,* and other well-known books.

Con

A. I'm a helluva one to ask about grammar—the way I kick the language around for a living—but that ("If anyone is waiting, let *them* come in") happens to be one of my pet hates! I think it's wrong—and sounds terrible!

—Arthur Godfrey

Mr. Godfrey is the famous radio and television personality.

Con

A. Understandable, and therefore inevitable and "acceptable" among the peasantry of speech—but obviously illogical and incorrect. Among precisians, abominable!

—Christopher Morley

Mr. Morley, who died in 1957, was the author of *Kitty Foyle; Thorofare; The Middle Kingdom;* and numerous other books.

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "Everyone arose and took off *their* hats" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and com-

pletely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro (*with reservations*)

A. In reference to your question, was I not taught that the correct sentence should be "Everyone arose and took off *his* hat"? My Oxford dictionary assures me that everyone and everybody (formerly two words) are "often erroneously used with plural verb or pronoun."

I recognize and rejoice in the induction of idiomatic common usage into our language. Some time ago, if you recall, *ain't* was proper and the English still use *mayn't*. However, I think this ("Everyone took off *their* hats") is awkward in sound, and "Everyone took off *his* hat" less so, but still a bit stiff. Well, it must be a masculine uprising, as women rarely remove *their* hats; certainly they don't have to, in the presence of the flag or the dead and never (unless browbeaten) in the cinema or theater!

But that's beside the point. If ever I used the expression correctly or otherwise, I shall henceforward avoid it. I doubt if I ever did use it; it sounds so *very* unconversational. I would probably say, "Off came the hats"!

—Faith Baldwin

Faith Baldwin is a famous novelist, author of *Change of Heart* and *You Can't Escape*.

Con (*with reservations*)

A. Perhaps I am not a good person from whom to get an example of idiomatic English in everyday use, for a long career of writing has given me a habit of mind which tends to translate precision in writing into precision in common talk. However, I doubt if I should use the phrase you mention; I think that instead of "everyone" I should probably say "everybody." I have some distaste for too much stickling for grammatical precision. If a phrase or word comes

to be in common use, then it is part of the English language, regardless of grammarians.

—Mark Sullivan

Mr. Sullivan, before his death in 1952, was the well-known Washington columnist of the New York *Herald Tribune.*

Pro

It's the same story with *them* and *their* after indefinite pronouns. If possible, the so-called incorrect usage is even firmer established. "In older English the plural was common here," says Curme. And why not? As long as English does not do away with gender, like Hungarian, why not use *their* as a practical makeshift device where neither *his* nor *her* fits? What's wrong with this sentence from Fielding's *Tom Jones?*

> Everyone in the house were in their beds.

Or with this one from a speech by Franklin D. Roosevelt:

> There have always been cheerful idiots in this country who believed that there would be no more war for us, if everybody in America would only return to *their* homes and lock *their* front doors behind them.

Or this from a speech by Winston Churchill (on the British Policy toward Spain):

> Everyone can have *their* opinion about that . . .

Even one of our leading literary critics, Edmund Wilson, uses this construction:

> For years I have been hearing about detective stories. Almost everybody I know seems to read them, and *they*

have long conversations about them in which I am unable to take part.

And speaking of detective stories, what would a mystery-story writer do if he had to use *his* or *her*, giving away the murderer's sex for the sake of correct grammar? Or would you rewrite this sentence from a mystery story by Ngaio Marsh?

> Someone came this way between 4:30 and 6 on Monday evening. I hope to learn something of *their* identity.
> —Rudolph Flesch, *The Art of Plain Talk* (Harper)

Pro

Recommended to anyone who ever played high-stake bridge, doubled *their* poker stakes after 12:30 A.M., joined a baseball pool at the office, matched a companion for a dinner check, flipped a coin to make a decision, played the eighteenth hole for double or nothing, or went broke trying to beat the slot machine in Joe's bar.

—From a Simon and Schuster advertisement for *Hazard*, by Roy Chanslor

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

> Neither the President nor the members of the cabinet *is* behind the bill, *or* Neither the President nor the members of the cabinet *are* behind the bill?

If you find yourself in the awkward position of having both a singular (*President*) and a plural (*members*) noun in a compound subject connected by the conjunction *or* or *nor*, be guided by this rule:

The verb agrees with the subject which is geographically nearer to it.

Thus, in the sentence under discussion, *members* is nearer the verb than *President*, and so the verb is plural, agreeing with *members*.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

Neither the President nor the members of the cabinet *are* behind the bill.

However, we might turn the subject around, and the sentence would then correctly read:

Neither the members of the cabinet nor the President *is* behind the bill.

Contrast these sentences:

Either a man or two women *are* required for that job.
Either two women or one man *is* required for that job.
Either John or his parents *have* to see me.
Either John's parents or his sister *has* to see me.
Neither you nor I *am* responsible for that error.
Neither I nor you *are* responsible for that error.
Neither he nor they *are* coming tonight.
Neither they nor he *is* coming tonight.

Most preferably, such double subjects, when they require different verbs, should be avoided by some such circumlocution as the following:

The President is not behind the bill and neither are the members of his cabinet.
Either a man is required for that job or two women.
I have to see either John or his parents.
I have to see either John's sister or his parents.
You are not responsible for that error and neither am I.
He is not coming tonight and neither are they.

chapter 17 HOW TO KEEP ON GOOD TERMS WITH YOUR RELATIVES

1. The Problem

Is "*Whom* do you see?" correct English? How about "*Whom* do you think you are?" or "This is the man *whom* I believe can help you"? How can one know when to use *who* for *whom* and vice versa?"

2. The Solution

The problems which start this chapter are quoted almost verbatim from a letter I received recently. I say *almost* verbatim because I have omitted, out of deference to the postal authorities, several items of profanity which graced my correspondent's language.

The writer started out gently enough to explain how he seriously desires to use correct English. Nothing would please him more, he declared, than to be able to employ the right word in the right place. However, he went on, becoming by now a little highstrung, the harder he tried the more confused he got. When he used *I*, it always turned out that *me* was the proper word. If he used *is*, it almost certainly developed that *are* was correct; on the other hand, if he chose *are, is* would inevitably be the grammatically preferable form.

As he continued, his wrath got hotter. "As for *who* and *whom*, only a genius or a fool can apparently get them straight! I used to say *who* most of the time—it seemed to me to be a good, respectable, expressive word—it said just what I intended it to say. But it seems that whenever I said *who*, I should have said *whom!* So I started using

whom—and that never pleased my teachers either, because where I used *whom* only *who* seemed to fit! What the profanity kind of language is this anyway?

"For example, is '*Whom* do you see?' correct English? I have been told that it is. Well, then, how about '*Whom* do you think you are?' This seems to be the same kind of sentence, yet I've been told that I'm using bad grammar in it. And then how about 'This is the man *whom* I believe can help you'? This is wrong also, I've been informed. It still seems to me to be the same kind of sentence as my first one. How the profanity profanity can I tell when to use *who* for *whom* and vice versa?"

That my correspondent should have reached the end of his patience is understandable enough. That he should as a logical next step have descended to profanity is equally understandable. *Who* and *whom* can have that effect on someone who seriously tries to unravel their mysteries.

Unless—

Unless one approaches the problem with a working knowledge of the architecture of the sentence.

Then confusion vanishes, and the whole subject becomes so simple that a child of ten can easily understand it (in fact, a few children of ten do!).

If *who* and *whom* have been a source of constant annoyance to you, your worries are now practically over—provided you have become thoroughly familiar with the interrelationships of the words in a sentence.

Provided you clearly understand the function of the subject of a verb.

And the function of the complement of a copulative verb.

And the function of the object of a verb.

And, finally, the function of the object of a preposition.

As with personal pronouns, the choice of the proper form of the relative or interrogative pronoun depends on the rules for *case*.

The nominative form of the relative or interrogative pronoun is *who*.

The objective form is *whom*.
Here are the keys:

KEY 1: As subject of the verb, the nominative case—*who*—is used.

Who spoke?
It was John *who* spoke.

In each sentence *who* is subject of the verb *spoke*.

KEY 2: As complement of a copulative verb, the nominative case—*who*—is used.

Who are you?
I know *who* you are.

In each sentence *who* is the complement of the copulative verb *are;* the subject of *are* is *you*.

KEY 3: As object of the verb, the objective case—*whom*—is used.

Whom do you see?
Is this the man *whom* you saw?

In each sentence, *whom* is object of the verb (*do see* or *saw*); the subject of the verb in each instance is *you*.

KEY 4: As object of a preposition, the objective case—*whom*—is used.

Whom are you talking to?
Is this the man *whom* you were talking to?

In each sentence, *whom* is object of the preposition *to*, and forms with the preposition a standard prepositional

phrase, except that pronoun and preposition are geographically separated by the other words in the sentence. If the sentence were couched in somewhat more formal language, namely:

To whom are you talking?
Is this the man *to whom* you were talking?

the prepositional phrase would take on the more normal aspect to which you have perhaps become accustomed. The preposition and its object *whom* are frequently split up in informal speech and writing.

That's all there is to *who* and *whom* (for the present, anyway).

Four keys, corresponding to the four rules for case with which we are familiar, tell the entire story:

1. SUBJECT—*who*
2. PREDICATE NOMINATIVE—*who*
3. OBJECT—*whom*
4. OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION—*whom*

With these four rules to guide us, the three problems presented by my truculent correspondent are practically self-solving:

PROBLEM 1: *Who* or *whom* do you see?

The pronoun is object of the verb *see*. Correct form: *whom*.

PROBLEM 2: *Who* or *whom* do you think you are?

The pronoun is the complement of the copulative verb *are* ("You do think you are *who*"). Correct form: *who*.

PROBLEM 3: This is the man *who* or *whom* I believe can help you.

The pronoun is subject of the verb *can help*. The words *I believe* are parenthetical in function, and as such do not affect the relationship of the other words in the sentence.

This will be clearer if you place *I believe* at the end of the sentence, thus: "This is the man who can help you, I believe."

My correspondent's fourth problem can now also be answered:

PROBLEM 4: How the profanity profanity can I tell when to use *who* for *whom* and vice versa?

Answer: By learning and applying the four rules for pronoun case.

3. The Rules

Who is used in constructions which require a nominative pronoun, namely as subject of the verb and as predicate nominative.

Whom is used in constructions which require an objective pronoun, namely as object of the verb and as object of the preposition.

We have rather loosely spoken about *who* and *whom* as interrogative and relative pronouns. The distinction is quite simple:

When a direct or implied question is asked, the pronoun is interrogative, as in:

Who are you?

I know who you are (that is, I know the answer to the question: Who are you?)

When the pronoun refers (or relates) to some previously expressed noun or pronoun in the sentence, it is a relative pronoun, as in:

The girl whom I see

The man who came to dinner

Whether the pronoun is interrogative or relative, the rules for its use are the same.

The pronouns *whoever* and *whomever*, variant forms of the interrogative and relative, also follow the same rules. It is often necessary to supply understood words in order to see the proper relationship between *whoever* or *whomever* and its verb. Consider:

Invite (whoever, whomever) you meet to the party.

This sentence in its complete form would be: "Invite (the one) whomever you meet to the party." *Whomever* is the object of the verb *meet* (not of the verb *invite*) and is therefore in the objective form.

Ask (whoever, whomever) is here to come in.

This sentence in its complete form would be: "Ask (the one) whoever is here to come in." *Whoever* is thus seen to be the subject of *is*, not, as might at first appear to be the case, the object of *ask*. The nominative form is required.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 37*

In determining whether to use *who* or *whom* in the following sentences, be guided by case. Ask yourself what relationship the pronoun in question bears to its verb or perhaps to a preposition. When you have made your decision check the proper form and then note in the space following each sentence whether the pronoun is functioning as a subject, predicate nominative, object of a verb, or object of a preposition.

1. Mike Quill (who, whom) is the leader of the Transport Workers' Union, has been conferring with Mayor O'Dwyer for several days. .....

2. J. A. Krug, (who, whom) Truman appointed Secretary of the Interior after the resignation of Harold Ickes, has also been conferring—with John L. Lewis, of the United Mine Workers. .....
3. Alfred E. Driscoll, (who, whom) you no doubt recall was elected Governor of New Jersey in 1946, has promised to eliminate government interference with industry. .....
4. Dr. Joseph R. Sizoo, (who, whom) many people consider is one of the ablest speakers of his day, has been upheld by his congregation in his resignation from the Reformed Dutch Protestant Church of New York. .....
5. An executive of a large soap company (who, whom) we understand did not wish to be quoted, announced a 50 per cent rise in soap prices after the demise of the O.P.A. .....
6. (Who, Whom) do you think you are anyway? .....
7. (Who, Whom) would you like to be? .....
8. (Who, Whom) do you think he is? .....
9. (Who, Whom) did you think he spoke to? .....
10. (Who, Whom) are you waiting for? .....
11. (Who, Whom) do you love best in all the world? .....
12. (Who, Whom) do you imagine will be the next President of the United States? .....
13. (Who, Whom) was responsible for Truman's original veto of the Case Bill? .....
14. (Who, Whom) do you think was responsible for Truman's original veto of the Case Bill? .....
15. It is hard to say (who, whom) we will vote for in the next elections. .....
16. It is hard to say (who, whom) the country will decide is to be considered responsible for the misfortunes that befell the Democrats in the 1946 elections. .....
17. It is hard to say (who, whom) the country will hold responsible for this election debacle. .....
18. (Who, Whom) do you wish to speak to? .....

19. (Who, Whom) do you wish to see? .....
20. (Who, Whom) do you wish to visit today? .....
21. (Who, Whom) do you believe is best qualified to take care of you? .....
22. Let me speak to (whoever, whomever) is waiting for the General. .....
23. To (who, whom) this may concern . . . .
24. (Who, Whom) you've chosen for this task is your own business. .....
25. He's the man (who, whom) I believe robbed the First National Bank. .....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 37*

1. *who* (subject of the verb *is*)
2. *whom* (object of the verb *appointed*)
3. *who* (subject of the verb *was elected* [The parenthetical clause *you no doubt recall* has no effect on the case of the relative pronoun. This type of usage will be more fully treated on page 239.])
4. *who* (subject of the verb *is* [This type is similar to that in sentence 3. See page 239.])
5. *who* (subject of the verb *did wish* [see page 239.])
6. *who* (complement of the copulative verb *are;* hence, predicate nominative)
7. *who* (complement of the copulative verb *to be;* predicate nominative)
8. *who* (complement of the copulative verb *is;* predicate nominative)
9. *whom* (object of the preposition *to*)
10. *whom* (object of the preposition *for*)
11. *whom* (object of the verb *love*)
12. *who* (subject of the verb *will be*)
13. *who* (subject of the verb *was*)
14. *who* (subject of the verb *was*)
15. *whom* (object of the preposition *for*)
16. *who* (subject of the verb *is* [Compare sentences 3 and 4.])
17. *whom* (object of the verb *hold*)

18. *whom* (object of the preposition *to*)
19. *whom* (object of the verb *see*)
20. *whom* (object of the verb *visit*)
21. *who* (subject of the verb *is*)
22. *whoever* (subject of the verb *is waiting* [*To* governs the understood pronoun *one*.])
23. *whom* (object of the preposition *to*)
24. *whom* (object of the verb *have chosen*)
25. *who* (subject of the verb *robbed* [Compare sentences 3, 4, 5.])

Colloquial Patterns —A Word to the Overcautious

This is probably a good place in the book to make another important digression on the subject of pedantic grammar.

As you proceed with these pages, bear in mind that you are gradually becoming an expert in formal grammar. You are learning the rules that govern the choice of the absolutely correct word in a sentence pattern. You are becoming master of the basic principles, the fundamentals on which English grammar is built.

This type of training presents a certain hazard, however. You may begin, in your everyday speech, to apply the rules too rigorously.

The language of everyday life, the pattern of informal conversation, is usually described by the adjective *colloquial*. Colloquial grammar is that used by educated speakers on informal occasions. It is less strict than formal, literary grammar; it allows violations of rules which formal grammar darkly frowns upon. But—and this is the point to remember—colloquial grammar bears no stigma; it is not incorrect; it is not uneducated, let alone illiterate; it is not to be avoided. Note that we are talking about colloquial grammar—the grammar you use in your day-to-day speech. In your formal writing, in public addresses, on grammar

tests and other dignified occasions, you should, I believe, adhere rather strictly to the essential rules set forth in these chapters. In writing friendly letters, on informal speech occasions, you may—perhaps you should—allow yourself greater latitude.

For example, we have already spoken of the preferability of the expression "It is *me*" for ordinary occasions, despite the violation of a grammatical rule. Similarly, the use of *whom* should not, in your mind, take on the aspect of a rigid requirement—in everyday speech. If you feel that *whom* sounds a little schoolteacherish—a little pedantic—a little stiff—then by all means avoid the word. If you feel that a question is preferably, though ungrammatically, phrased in the form "*Who* are you referring to?" instead of "*Whom* are you referring to?" then by all means substitute *who* for *whom*. And if you see lifted eyebrows as a result, you can be pretty sure that the owner of those eyebrows is well on the way to becoming a linguistic snob. If you find the expression "*Who* do you love?" less awkward or stiff than "*Whom* do you love?" then use the nominative case of the interrogative pronoun as object of the verb —in your everyday speech. Use it and suffer no conscience pangs—for you are, take my word for it, in the numerous company of well-educated, expressive speakers.

To violate a grammatical rule through sheer ignorance is one thing. It is perhaps not reprehensible, but on the other hand it is not exactly praiseworthy. However, to violate a rule of grammar through choice, because of a conscious desire to attain greater effectiveness, greater simplicity, greater clarity, is quite another thing. It is not only permissible; in many instances it is admirable and desirable.

Especially should you be warned not to lean over backward, on informal occasions. As a result of your work with this book, do not let your speech become pedantic and prissy. Once you know the rules, do not hesitate, where you believe necessity dictates, to violate them.

The New York *News* recently ran an editorial on grammar which makes essentially the same point:

The question on the *News* mayorality poll ballot is worded—"Who Do You Want for Mayor?"—and some sticklers for pure English have written in to ask don't we know it ought to be "Whom," etc. Abstractly, yes, we do. But if our canvassers were to go around asking people; "Whom Do You Want for Mayor?" a lot of people would get the impression that the *News* was being pretty high-hat.

This "who" and "whom" business is only one of numerous cases where the popular tongue is out of tune with the grammarians' rules.

There is, for another example, the difference between "shall" and "will"—"shall" denoting simple futurity, "will" determination. The difference is illustrated by the story of the Frenchman who didn't know quite enough English, fell in a river, and after some wild struggles shouted in despair: "I will drown, and no one shall save me!" when drowning actually was farthest from his hopes. "Will," however, is rapidly driving out "shall" in popular usage. . . .

The same goes for "It is I" as against "It's me." The former may be grammatically correct; but when you knock on the door of your wife, mother or anyone else near and dear to you, and she calls, "Who is it?" the natural reply is: "It's me."

The written word follows the spoken word, though sometimes quite a distance behind; which is one reason for these popular violations of the rules of grammar.

Another reason is that 100 or 150 years ago few people could read and fewer could write, whereas nowadays in civilized countries most people learn at least to read. The oldtimers could grasp the niceties and nuances of language, and had time to study them, and to apply the rules in their writings. Most people these days have neither the time nor the ear for language to be so precise.

PRO AND CON

Q. Do you ever use the word *whom* in your general

informal conversation, and do you usually hear that word from your associates?

Pro

A. I do try to use the word *whom* in its proper place, in my informal conversation, but, like most Americans, I am afraid I forget frequently. Most of my friends in the writing and publishing business seem to have the same trouble.

—Ben Hibbs

Mr. Hibbs is editor of *The Saturday Evening Post.*

Pro

Who do labor leaders associate with in their leisure hours? Never mind the grammar—*who* do they associate with?

—Howard Lindsay, coauthor of the Broadway stage hit *State of the Union,* writing a guest column for the New York *Post.*

as easy as A B C

XV

A. What is the difference between *credible* and *creditable?*

B. Is it correct to say, "Have you *got* my book"?

C. Which is preferable: "Was it *he* you were talking to?" or "Was it *him* you were talking to?"

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Credible, Creditable

A story is *credible*—it can be believed.

A performance is *creditable*—it is worthy of esteem, it is deserving of praise.

Though both words come from the same Latin root, *credo,* to trust, *creditable* has suffered a change in meaning.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 38*

1. Your story is far from (credible, creditable).
2. He gave a (credible, creditable) account of his actions.
3. His actions are not very (credible, creditable); though I suppose a person like him cannot resist temptation very well.
4. The book is a (credible, creditable) attempt to make science understandable to the man in the street.
5. He conducted the defense in a (credible, creditable) manner, and the judge praised him highly.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 38*

1. credible 2. credible 3–5. creditable

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Have you *got* my book?

Though some authorities call "got," in a construction like this, redundant (which means unnecessarily repetitious), the fact remains that the word is part of current English usage.

"I've got a cold"; "He's got a good idea"; "Have you got your winter underwear on?" and similar sentences are correct English on both the colloquial and literary level.

The only serious violation of good usage occurs in a sentence like "I got a dollar" or "I got rhythm" or "I gotta go," in which *got* is used as a substitute for *have*. This is a serious violation not because of any arbitrary distinction, but because educated people rarely use *got* in this way. *Got* meaning *have* is, however, prevalent in illiterate speech patterns. In cultivated speech, on the other hand, "I've got a dollar," "I've got rhythm" and "I've got to go" are expressions which are current, accepted, correct English.

PRO AND CON

Pro

I agree with you that "Have you *got* . . . ?" is good idiomatic English—I use it in speech without thinking about it and would write it if colloquialism seemed appropriate to the passage. The phrase is certainly better in every way than "Do you have?" "Yes, I do" which has crept in from the Middle West and is now heard everywhere.

—Jacques Barzun

Dr. Barzun is the author of *Teacher in America,* and Provost and Dean of Faculties at Columbia University.

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "I've *got* a bad cold" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro (with reservations)

A. To answer your query, I might say "I've *got* a cold," but I should suffer a twinge of usage conscience at the word *got.* Probably that is because I have perpetrated several books on the public inveighing against this common error. We must not strain at gnats. At the same time, I can't go along with all that Dr. Leonard[1] defended. The mores of the man in the street are constantly remaking the language.

—William Dodge Lewis

Dr. Lewis, now retired, was editor of the *Winston Dictionary.*

Pro (with reservations)

A. In reply to your question, I shall be very brief: "I do say—I've *got* a bad cold—but I don't think it is good usage." I guess that just about sums up my answer.

—Alma Kitchell

Miss Kitchell is a well-known radio personality and director of "The Women's Exchange," a daily radio program.

Pro

The phrase *have got,* for *have,* in the sense of *possess,*

[1] Sterling Andrus Leonard, in his *Current English Usage* (see chapter 25).

own, . . . is objected to by many grammarians, but is common in colloquial use.

—Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary*, Second Edition

Pro (*with reservations*)

I regret to say that I have probably been guilty in everyday speech of using the expression, "Have you *got* any sisters?" I know that modern grammarians have accepted this usage as idiomatic; but to me it is still redundant. Certainly, I am sure that I would not use the expression in written English.

—C. P. Chadsey

Mr. Chadsey is editor-in-chief of *Words: The New Dictionary*, published by Grosset and Dunlap.

Pro

If radio can write better books than novelists and must necessarily write different ones, why bother with great books at all? How is it a service to education or culture to misrepresent a great book? How much privilege of corrupting literature *has radio got?*

—Bernard De Voto, in *Harper's Magazine*, September, 1947

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Was it *he* you were talking to? *or*
Was it *him* you were talking to?

In such a sentence, the personal pronoun *he* is *not* the object of the preposition *to*, but the predicate nominative governed by the copulative verb *was*. *To* governs the omit-

ted relative *whom,* and the complete sentence correctly reads: "Was it he to whom you were talking?"

PREFERABLE FORMS:

Was it *he* you were talking to?
It was *she* I was thinking about.

chapter 18 HOW TO FILL IN

1. The Problem

Why is the nominative pronoun required in the sentence "Harvey is taller than *I*"? And why, on the other hand, is the objective pronoun required in "Frank Fay loves Harvey more than *me*"?

2. The Solution

Than, as used in the two sentences under discussion, is a conjunction joining two *clauses*.

The case of the pronoun following *than* is determined by the function of that pronoun in the second clause of each sentence.

But what is a clause? And where are the two clauses of which we so glibly speak?

A clause is a portion of a sentence which contains a subject and predicate.

You will recall from our first discussion of the architecture of the sentence that every sentence is easily and naturally separable into its two basic elements—the subject and the predicate.

Some sentences contain a single subject and predicate; other sentences contain two or more subjects and predicates.

A few examples will make this abstract principle clear.

EXAMPLE 1: A sentence containing one subject and one predicate:

Harry S. Truman succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States.

SUBJECT: Harry S. Truman

PREDICATE: succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States.

A sentence which has but one subject and predicate (or we may say but one clause) is called a *simple sentence.*

EXAMPLE 2: A sentence containing two subjects and predicates:

Harry S. Truman succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States and the office of Vice-President became vacant.

FIRST SUBJECT: Harry S. Truman

FIRST PREDICATE: succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States

SECOND SUBJECT: the office of Vice-President

SECOND PREDICATE: became vacant

Thus we are dealing here with a sentence containing two clauses. The first clause is made up of the first subject and predicate; the second clause consists of the second subject and predicate.

The clauses of any sentence are joined by a conjunction, in this instance *and.*

When a sentence contains two or more clauses joined by the conjunction *and, or, but, nor,* or *for,* it is called a *compound sentence.*

EXAMPLE 3: Another sentence containing two clauses:

When James Byrnes resigned as Secretary of State, Truman appointed Marshall to fill the vacant post.

FIRST SUBJECT: James Byrnes

FIRST PREDICATE: resigned as Secretary of State

SECOND SUBJECT: Truman

SECOND PREDICATE: appointed Marshall to fill the vacant post

The two clauses of this sentence are joined by the conjunction *when.* A conjunction, as you see, need not come between the *clauses,* but may occur at the beginning of the

first clause. When the conjunction is any other than *and, but, or, nor,* or *for,* the sentence is called *complex.*

(We shall deal more thoroughly with the various types of sentences as soon as we have arrived at a solution to our chapter problem.)

A clause, then, has all the attributes of a complete sentence:

It has a subject.

It has a predicate.

But, unlike a sentence, a clause is not separate and complete of itself, but instead is joined, by means of a conjunction, with other clauses to form a sentence.

Where are the two clauses we have spoken about in the sentences which illustrate the problem of this chapter?

Let us look at the first of these sentences.

Harvey is taller than I. [Harvey, you may recall, is the six-foot invisible rabbit of Mary Chase's delightful comedy of the same name.]

FIRST CLAUSE: Harvey is taller

THE SUBJECT: Harvey

THE PREDICATE: is taller

CONJUNCTION JOINING THE TWO CLAUSES: than

And all we have left for our second clause is the single word *I.*

Apparently something is missing.

If we examine the sentence for a moment, we can easily add the missing element.

"Harvey is taller than I . . . *am.*"

Where is the second clause? "*I am.*"

SUBJECT: I

PREDICATE: am

Why the nominative pronoun? We now know enough about grammatical case to answer that question without any hesitation.

The nominative form *I* is used because the pronoun is the subject of the understood verb *am* in the second clause of the sentence.

Now let us examine the second sentence in our problem.

Frank Fay loves Harvey more than me. [Fay first played the role of Elwood P. Dowd, the only character in the play who was able to see Harvey.]

Again two clauses, with part of the second clause missing.

FIRST CLAUSE: Frank Fay loves Harvey more
CONJUNCTION: than
SECOND CLAUSE: [he loves] me.

Our complete sentence is: "Frank Fay loves Harvey more than he loves me."

The objective pronoun *me* is used as object of the understood verb *loves* in the second clause of the sentence.

In a complex sentence containing the conjunction *than,* the second clause is almost always lacking in one or more words—words which an imaginative citizen can easily supply. The process of omitting words which are perfectly obvious from the context of the sentence is known as *ellipsis*—and a sentence from which such words have been omitted is called an *elliptical* sentence.

For example:

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE	COMPLETE SENTENCE
She is happier than I.	She is happier than I [am].
He obeys his mother quicker than me.	He obeys his mother quicker than [he obeys] me.
He obeys his mother quicker than I.	He obeys his mother quicker than I [do].
Are the Russians freer in their personal lives than we?	Are the Russians freer in their personal lives than we [are]?
Government regulations affect the Russians more than us.	Government regulations affect the Russians more than [they affect] us.

As is another conjunction that is generally found in an elliptical sentence.

For example:

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE	COMPLETE SENTENCE
Are the Russians as free as we?	Are the Russians as free as we [are]?
We are just as rich as they.	We are just as rich as they [are].
She loves her mother as much as I.	She loves her mother as much as I [do].
She loves her mother as much as me.	She loves her mother as much as [she loves] me.

From these examples it is easy to see that the proper case of the pronoun to use after the conjunctions *than* and *as* can be determined by removing the ellipsis—in other words, by completing the second clause of the sentence. And then, of course, we apply the basic rules for case.

Use the nominative pronoun as subject of the verb or as predicate nominative.
Use the objective pronoun as object of the verb or as object of the preposition.

3. The Rule

The pronoun following *than* and *as* derives its case from its use in the completed second clause of an elliptical sentence.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 39*

Check the correct form of the pronoun in the following elliptical sentences.

1. We are more truthful than (she, her).
2. No one else can drink a quart of Scotch as fast as (he, him).
3. I am always being blamed; they are never blamed,

no matter what they do. Why do you blame me more often than (they, them)?

4. They work much faster than (we, us).
5. You may be older than (I, me), but I'm a lot wiser than you.
6. We can fight just as hard as (they, them).
7. No wonder you're not hungry—you ate much more breakfast than (I, me).
8. He earned more than (I, me) and he worked less.
9. When you're as rich as (they, them), you'll vote Republican also.
10. You're just as much in error as (he, him).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 39*

1. she	3. them	5. I	7. I	9. they
2. he	4. we	6. they	8. I	10. he

Before we leave the subject of clauses and types of sentences, you should become completely familiar with a number of basic concepts.

You can express your thoughts in four possible ways:

STATEMENT: The New York Police Department wants a 35 per cent increase in salary. (This is a *declarative* sentence.)

QUESTION: Is life worth living with the police of 13 states after you? (This is an *interrogative* sentence.)

COMMAND: Order your holiday wines and liquor now. (This is an *imperative* sentence.)

EXCLAMATION: Ladies! Useful gifts for "his" Christmas! (This is an *exclamatory* sentence.)

Every time you express a thought, whether in speech or writing, you phrase your words, with or without conscious planning, into one of these four patterns, *declarative*, *interrogative*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory*.

As a way to save time and unnecessary words, your sentences are often elliptical, especially in speech—you omit

the words that your listener can supply for himself. Almost every imperative sentence omits the understood subject *you*. When you say "Stop," "Go," "Wait," "Run for your life," the listener understands that you mean him, that you are commanding him to stop or go or wait or run, and since you are speaking to him, you would address him as *you*, except that the word is unnecessary, and is therefore almost always omitted. When you are asked, "Are you happy?" you may answer with a single word, such as "Yes," or "No," or "Very," or "Hardly," and you have a complete, well-rounded, grammatically perfect, but elliptical sentence, namely:

Yes [I am happy].
No [I am not happy].
[I am] Very [happy].
[I am] Hardly [happy].

Exclamatory sentences are frequently elliptical, perhaps because in an excess of emotion (and all exclamatory sentences are indicative of emotion of one sort or another) we tend to be as sparing and economical of words as possible. In the example given, "Ladies! Useful gifts for 'his' Christmas!" we have two separate elliptical sentences, each one indicative of the speaker's excitement, and which, if they were written out completely, might look like this:

[You listen,] Ladies!
[Here are] Useful gifts for "his" Christmas!

In good writing, exclamatory sentences are avoided as much as possible. The choice of words, rather than the exclamation point, is used to indicate emotion.

Every sentence, as we have said, has two major, indispensable, parts, the *subject*, and the *predicate*. If we should wish to explain this without the use of grammatical terminology, we would say that every sentence divides precisely into two elements: *what (or whom) we are talking about;* and *what we are saying*. For instance: "Harry S. Truman succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States."

Whom are we talking about? Harry S. Truman. What are we saying about him? He succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States. Another instance: "The Republican Party promised a 20 per cent reduction in income taxes for 1947." What are we talking about? The Republican Party. What about the Republican Party? It promised a 20 per cent reduction in income taxes for 1947. *Harry S. Truman* and *The Republican Party* are the respective subjects of their sentences; *succeeded Roosevelt as President of the United States* and *promised a 20 per cent reduction in income taxes for 1947* are the respective predicates of their sentences.

A subject and its predicate combine to form a *clause*. If, as in the two preceding sentences used for illustrations, there is but one subject and one predicate, the sentence is *simple*.

If there are two or more clauses, the sentence is either *compound* or *complex*.

In a compound sentence, the clauses have a certain independent relationship, and are connected by a co-ordinate conjunction, of which, you will recall, there are only five: *and, or, nor, for,* and *but*. Note that each clause in the following compound sentences has its own subject and predicate:

1. Clifton Fadiman is the quiz-master of "Information, Please," *and* John Kieran is one of the "experts" on the same program.
2. Can a minority rule Congress *or* should control be entirely in the hands of the majority?
3. It doesn't take luck to make a million dollars, *nor* is hard work the only requisite.
4. She ran the show, *but* her husband wielded the power behind the scenes.

Occasionally a semicolon (;) acts as the co-ordinate conjunction separating the clauses of a compound sentence:

5. MacIntosh stood up; rage was written all over his face.

Divide each clause of the preceding five sentences into its component parts, the subject and the predicate. Fill in the necessary parts of the following chart:

IDENTIFICATION OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

Sentence	*Clause*	*Subject*	*Predicate*
1.	*a*		
	b		
2.	*a*		
	b		
3.	*a*		
	b		
4.	*a*		
	b		
5.	*a*		
	b		

Sentence	*Clause*	*Subject*	*Predicate*
1.	*a*	Clifton Fadiman	is the quiz-master of "Information, Please"
	b	John Kieran	is one of the experts on the same program
2.	*a*	a minority	can rule Congress
	b	control	should be entirely in the hands of the majority
3.	*a*	It	doesn't take luck to make a million dollars
	b	hard work	is [not] the only requisite [*nor* is equivalent to *and not*]
4.	*a*	She	ran the show
	b	her husband	wielded the power behind the scenes
5.	*a*	MacIntosh	stood up
	b	rage	was written all over his face

In a complex sentence, there is one main clause, which carries the burden of the idea; and one or more clauses

which are subordinate to, and dependent on, the main clause.

Let us start with a central idea:

John L. Lewis called a coal strike.

For the American populace, this should be a sufficiently familiar concept. Let us play around with it a little.

The sentence as it now stands, "John L. Lewis called a coal strike," is, grammatically, a *simple* sentence, containing a single clause with one subject (*John L. Lewis*) and a single predicate (*called a coal strike*). Suppose we add another concept, combining our two clauses with a co-ordinate conjunction:

John L. Lewis called a coal strike and the nation froze.

We now have a compound sentence made up of two principal clauses, each with its own subject and predicate.

However, we might combine our concepts in a different way, so that there is a time, or *temporal,* relationship between the two clauses:

When Julius Krug, Secretary of the Interior, refused to re-open the miners' contract, John L. Lewis called a coal strike.

Logically, the second clause has a measure of dependence on the first; it is to be assumed, from the wording, that the strike was an aftermath of Secretary Krug's refusal, although people will be found who claim that John L. would have called the strike in any event. However, grammatically, we consider the first clause, the one introduced by the connective *when,* the subordinate clause. Logic and grammar are not, as you have doubtless already begun to suspect, always identical.

A sentence containing a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses, the latter introduced by any connective

other than *and, or, nor, for,* or *but* (the co-ordinate conjunctions) is called a *complex* sentence.

In Old English, direct off-shoot of our parent tongue, Anglo-Saxon, complex sentences were comparatively rare. But in modern writing, complex sentences form 50 per cent or more of the substance of any material on an adult level, with the exception, of course, of William Saroyan.

To get back to the coal strike, we can also show a temporal relationship between two concepts by the use of the connective *after.*

After Secretary Krug turned down the mine chief's request, John L. Lewis called a coal strike.

A swift inspection of the sentence will show two clearly defined clauses, each one with its subject and predicate. This too, then, is a complex sentence, with the subordinate clause *after Secretary Krug turned down the mine chief's request,* and the main clause, *John L. Lewis called a coal strike.*

A sentence is not complex unless the two clauses are complete (subject and predicate). Consider this sentence:

Upon Secretary Krug's rejection of the mine chief's request, John L. Lewis called a coal strike.

It was a matter of some dispute as to whether Lewis *called* the strike, or whether the strike happened by a kind of spontaneous combustion, so I do not wish to be held accountable for the factual accuracy of these sentences. The whole matter went to the United States Supreme Court to be threshed out.

This sentence has virtually the same meaning as the previous one, but it is not, please note, a complex sentence. There is but one subject—*John L. Lewis*—and one verb —*called.* The words *upon Secretary Krug's rejection of the mine chief's request* do not form a clause. Close examination will reveal a complete absence of verbs (*rejection* and *request* are nouns, although they may seem to have some

verbal force) and no clause can exist without an expressed or implied verb. What we do have is a series of prepositional phrases. The words in italic are prepositions, the underlined words are nouns:

PHRASE 1: *Upon* Secretary Krug's refusal
PHRASE 2: *Of* the mine chief's request

The sentence is a simple sentence.

The following version also forms a simple sentence:

Acting after Krug's refusal, Lewis called a strike.

If you do not exercise extreme caution, you may be tempted to consider that portion of the sentence up to the comma as a clause. But there is no verb—*acting* is a *participle,* a grammatical element which we will cover more thoroughly at a later time. And there is no subject—*after Krug's refusal* is a prepositional phrase, and you will recall that a prepositional phrase never contains a subject.

As a third possibility, we might take our original idea (the calling of the coal strike) and elaborate upon it as follows:

John L. Lewis called a coal strike although the government contended that such action was a violation of the contract.

Analysis shows the following:

MAIN CLAUSE: John L. Lewis called a coal strike
CLAUSE SUBORDINATED TO THE MAIN CLAUSE: although the government contended
CLAUSE SUBORDINATE TO THE FIRST SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: that such action was a violation of the contract.

Each clause has its own subject and predicate:

MAIN CLAUSE—SUBJECT: John L. Lewis
PREDICATE: called a coal strike
FIRST SUBORDINATE CLAUSE—SUBJECT: the government
PREDICATE: contended
SECOND SUBORDINATE CLAUSE—SUBJECT: such action
PREDICATE: was a violation of the contract

We have been dealing with a complex sentence made up of one principal clause and two subordinate clauses.

Subordinate clauses are introduced by connectives to which are given the general name of *subordinate conjunctions.* This is a partial list of the common subordinate conjunctions:

who, whom, whose	although	unless
which	where	whether
that	why	as
if	since	for
when	because	so

You have begun to learn how to distinguish between simple, compound, and complex sentences. How would you analyze the following sentence?

John L. Lewis called a coal strike and Justice T. Alan Goldsborough fined the mine leader $10,000 and the union $3,500,000 because Lewis violated the terms of the temporary injunction which had been issued.

Analysis shows four separate clauses:

1. John L. Lewis called a coal strike
2. (and) Justice T. Alan Goldsborough fined the mine leader $10,000 and the union $3,500,000

3. (because) Lewis violated the terms of the temporary injunction
4. (which) had been issued

The second clause, introduced by the co-ordinate conjunction *and,* makes the sentence *compound.* But the third and fourth clauses, introduced respectively by the adverbial conjunction *because* and the relative pronoun *which,* make the sentence *complex.* Which type of sentence is it? It is both. Correct name: a compound-complex sentence.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 41*

Decide whether each of the following sentences is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory. Write the proper descriptive label in the space provided for that purpose.

1. What a man! .....
2. Who killed Cock Robin? .....
3. Love that soap. .....
4. Many people fear that a third World War is imminent. .....
5. Other people feel that the atom bomb makes another war impossible. .....
6. What is your opinion? .....
7. Don't sell America short. .....
8. Invest your surplus cash in Savings Bonds, and hold on to them. .....
9. Because prices have risen to their highest point in years, many a salaried worker is hard put to it to meet his ordinary financial obligations. .....
10. Hold that line! .....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 41*

1. exclamatory
2. interrogative
3. imperative
4. declarative
5. declarative
6. interrogative
7. imperative
8. imperative
9. declarative
10. exclamatory

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 42*

Decide whether each of the following sentences is *simple, compound, complex,* or *compound-complex,* and write your decision in the space following the sentence.

1. A man has bought a house. .....
2. It is a small, poorly built, unsatisfactory house, and it has cost too much money. .....
3. However, if our friend had not bought the house, he would have had to sleep in a tent in the park and his family would not have welcomed that possibility. .....
4. Because shelter is one of the basic needs of a normal human being, this unfortunate victim of the housing shortage used up most of his cash reserve as a down-payment. .....
5. In addition, he signed away the rest of his earning potential for the next twenty years in order to get a mortgage. .....
6. Now he has a house but no bank account. .....
7. He is not very happy. .....
8. He wonders if it would not have been better to have slept in the park after all. .....
9. None of his friends sleep in the park, however; and although he has no money he at least has a roof over his head. .....
10. He is pessimistically waiting for this roof to start leaking. .....
11. If it does not leak in the near future, he will probably be disappointed. .....
12. Some day prices on houses will come down; the average citizen will then be able to buy shelter without mortgaging away his entire future. .....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 42*

1. simple
2. compound
3. compound-complex
4. complex
5. simple

6. simple
7. simple
8. complex
9. compound-complex
10. simple
11. complex
12. compound

EXPLANATION OF THE ANSWERS

1. Single clause; subject: *a man;* predicate: *has bought a house.*
2. Two clauses, connected by the co-ordinate conjunction *and.*
3. Three clauses:
   MAIN CLAUSE: However, he would have had to sleep in a tent in the park
   CO-ORDINATE CLAUSE: (and) his family would not have welcomed that possibility
   SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: (if) our friend had not bought the house
4. Two clauses:
   MAIN CLAUSE: This unfortunate victim of the housing shortage used up most of his cash reserve as a down payment
   SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: (because) shelter is one of of the basic needs of a normal human being
5. Despite the length of the sentence, there is but one clause, one subject, one predicate.

6–7. Also simple sentences, containing one subject, one predicate each.

8. MAIN CLAUSE: He wonders
   SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: (if) it would not have been better to sleep in the park after all
9. Inspection will show a subordinate clause introduced by the adverbial conjunction *although,* and two co-ordinate clauses connected by the conjunction *and.*
10. There is but one true verb: *is waiting; to start* is an infinitive.
11. Conventional complex sentence, the clauses connected by the adverbial conjunction *if.*
12. The two co-ordinate clauses are connected by a semi-

colon. *Without mortgaging, etc.* is a prepositional phrase, with a *gerund, mortgaging,* acting as a noun and object of the preposition. A form of a verb which functions as a noun within the framework of the sentence is a *gerund;* it is not a true verb.

as easy as A B C

XVI

A. What is the difference between *ophthalmologist, oculist, optometrist,* and *optician?*

B. Is it correct to say, "*Due to* the telephone strike, only dial calls are going through"?

C. Which is preferable: "He has finally found a teacher *whom* he believes can handle the class," or "He has finally found a teacher *who* he believes can handle the class"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Ophthalmologist, Oculist, Optometrist, Optician

You have, let us suppose for the sake of argument, a visual defect. You could, if you liked, visit an *ophthalmologist,* who is a medical doctor, a specialist in diseases of the eye. (He is also called an *oculist,* the title preferred by those who cannot pronounce *ophthalmologist.*) This doctor may prescribe glasses, or may treat your eyes by drugs or surgery, depending on how badly off you are. If he does write out a prescription for glasses, you would repair to an *optician,* a man skilled in the grinding of lenses, the owner of a store whose business it is to fill prescriptions for eyeglasses. An *optician* is like a pharmacist; both fill doctors' prescriptions. Unlike a pharmacist, however, an *optician* does not hold a college degree.

On the other hand, you might decide to visit an *optometrist.* Not a medical doctor, this gentleman holds a degree from a college of optometry and is an expert in measuring refraction of the eyes and in providing lenses for proper

correction. In New York at least, an *optometrist* may not administer drugs or perform surgery—he may only prescribe and fit glasses.

Some *optometrists* (and some *oculists* also) follow a recent theory of correction of visual defects without glasses, without drugs, without surgery. The treatment is eye-muscle exercise. I have heard this remedy praised by those whom it has helped (the novelist Aldous Huxley has written a glowing and laudatory book about this technic, called *The Art of Seeing*), and damned by those on whom it has had little or no effect. Eye training is probably still in the experimental stage.

The difference boils down to this:

ophthalmologist or *oculist* } a medical doctor, specialist in the treatment of diseases of the eye.

optometrist: a specialist in prescribing and fitting glasses, not an M.D.

optician: a lens grinder, proprietor of, or mechanic in, a store; holds no college degree.

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Due to the telephone strike, no calls are going through.

Due to as a preposition, substituting for the more formal *because of* or *owing to*, is acceptable on the informal level and is often seen today in newspapers and the popular magazines. *Due* should, theoretically, be used only as a predicate adjective, as in:

His failure is *due* to his stupidity.
His illness is *due* to neglect.
Your bill is *due* today.

However, *due to* as a preposition is being used more and more widely, and it would be unrealistic to condemn its use in constructions like:

Due to the weather, we have stayed indoors all day.
Due to your remark, he feels insulted.
Due to poor circulation, the air was close.
The man died, *due to* over indulgence in narcotics.

PRO AND CON

Q. What is the standing of *due to* as a preposition?

Pro

A. The prepositional use of *due to* is encountered in such quality magazines as *Harper's* and *Scribner's* and sometimes even in the scholarly journal *Modern Language Notes.*

—Edward A. H. Fuchs

Dr. Fuchs was a member of the editorial staff of G. & C. Merriam Co., Publishers of the Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary.*

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "*Due to* the telephone strike, only emergency calls are going through" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Yes, I would consider that expression correct. In fact I am sure I used it in one or more of my broadcasts.

—Lowell Thomas

Lowell Thomas is the former radio news analyst.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

He has finally found a teacher *whom* he believes can handle the class, *or* He has finally found a teacher *who* he believes can handle the class?

Clauses like *he believes, he thinks, I know, we expect, they consider* are parenthetical in sentences like the one above and have no grammatical effect on the case of the relative pronoun.

The case of the relative pronoun can correctly be arrived at by omitting such clauses. Complete sentence:

> He said he met the countess in a hotel in Brussels and had been instructed to watch her by a fellow spy *whom* he said was known only as "The Mongolian." (From *PM*)

Revised sentence, with the parenthetical clause omitted:

> He said he had met the countess in a hotel in Brussels and had been instructed to watch her by a fellow spy *whom* was known only as "The Mongolian."

This is of course ridiculous, idomatically, grammatically, and phonetically. The relative pronoun is seen, once the parenthetical clause is removed, to be subject of the verb phrase *was known*, and therefore should be in the nominative case, *who,* not in the objective case, *whom.*

The nominative case of the relative is preferred in sentences like the following, in each of which the relative is subject of the verb. The parenthetical clause will be italicized; get the feel for the correctness of *who* by reading the sentence without the parenthetical clause.

> He met John P. Marquand who *many critics think* is the finest writer today.
> He has at last discovered a woman who *he believes* can be trusted.
> We have found a leader who *we feel* can lead us to our goal.
> This is the man who *she said* stole her purse.

Now, on the other hand, the relative pronoun may pre-

cede a parenthetical clause and still function as *object* of the verb, as in:

He has at last discovered a woman whom *he believes* he can trust.
This is a leader whom *we feel* we can safely follow.
This is the man whom *she said* she saw last week.

PREFERABLE FORM:

He has finally found a teacher *who* he believes can handle the class.

Pro

As you may know, the customary procedure is to send out the first printed copies that come off the press to book editors for review. In addition we often send advance copies to prominent people *who* we think should have a particular interest in the particular book, authors, professors, radio commentators, and so on. In this way we receive interesting advance reactions which not only help us to tell the general public about the book, but also enable us to make our advertising and printing plans.

—Advertisement of a book publisher in *Saturday Review*

chapter 19 HOW TO MEASURE YOUR PROGRESS—A SECOND ACHIEVEMENT TEST

Well, we're getting on. We've explored rather thoroughly some of the intricate problems in the architecture of the sentence: subject and predicate, objects, tense of verbs, predicate nominatives, transitive and intransitive verbs, active and passive voice, relative and interrogative pronouns, person, number, and case, ellipsis, simple, complex and compound sentences, declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences, and dozens of other fascinating facets of English grammar—all to the end that you will always know what word to use and how most effectively to use it.

Has your learning been successful? Are you straight on all the topics covered? Are you building up reflexive habits of good grammar? Are you developing healthy attitudes toward correct usage? I'll test your knowledge and ability shortly, but first let us spend a little time on a quick review.

Grammatical Terminology

1. A sentence or a clause is divisible into subject and predicate.
2. The single-word subject of the verb governs the number of the verb.
3. Singular subjects require singular verbs; plural subjects require plural verbs.
4. The subject of a verb is not found within a prepositional phrase.
5. The subject of an active verb initiates the action of the verb.

6. The object of an active verb receives the action of the verb.
7. The subject of a passive verb receives the action of the verb.
8. Active verbs are transitive when they have objects.
9. Active verbs are intransitive when they do not have objects.
10. The subject of a verb is in the nominative case.
11. The object of a verb is in the objective case.
12. The object of a preposition is in the objective case.
13. *Lay* is a transitive verb.
14. *Lie* is an intransitive verb.
15. Only *lay* has a passive voice.
16. The perfect tenses are used with the auxiliaries *has, have,* or *had.*
17. *To be,* or any one of its forms, is a copulative verb.
18. The complement of a copulative verb is in the nominative case.
19. Such a complement may be called a predicate nominative.
20. An elliptical sentence is one in which an understood word, or several understood words, are omitted.
21. A declarative sentence makes a statement.
22. An interrogative sentence asks a question.
23. An imperative sentence issues a command.
24. An exclamatory sentence makes an exclamation and is followed by an exclamation point (!).
25. A clause contains a subject and predicate.
26. A simple sentence contains one main clause.
27. A compound sentence contains two or more clauses connected by *and, or, but, nor, for,* or a semicolon (;).
28. A complex sentence contains two or more clauses connected by a subordinate conjunction.
29. A subordinate conjunction is any conjunction other than those listed in No. 27.
30. A compound-complex sentence contains clauses connected by both subordinate and co-ordinate conjunctions (the ones listed in No. 27).

Usage

1. Prepositional phrases like *filled with flowers, of strikes, with her servants, like his predecessors, of new cars, unlike her sisters, as well as his brothers* do not affect the number of the verb. If the one-word subject is singular, and is followed by a prepositional phrase containing a plural noun, the verb is still singular.
2. Compound subjects connected by *and* take a plural verb.
3. Singular subjects connected by *or, nor, either . . . or,* or *neither . . . nor* take a singular verb.
4. Compound subjects, connected by *and,* if both such subjects refer to the same person or thing, take a singular verb.
5. The pronoun in a compound object is in the objective form.
6. The pronoun in a compound object of a preposition is also in the objective form.
7. Use some form of *lie, lay, lain, lying* if the verb required is intransitive.
8. Use some form of *lay, laid, laid, laying* if the verb required is either transitive or passive.
9. Use the nominative personal pronouns (*I, he, she, we, they*) as predicate nominatives.
10. Use the nominative *who* as subject of the verb or predicate nominative.
11. Use the objective *whom* as object of the verb or as object of a preposition.
12. After *than* and *as,* fill in the ellipsis to determine what case of the personal pronoun to use.

The Grammar of Meanings

1. *Practicable* means able to be put into use; *practical* usually means common-sense, worthwhile, etc.

2. An *alumnus* is a male; an *alumna* is a female; *alumni* are males; *alumnae* are females.
3. *Childish* refers to the unpleasant qualities of childhood, *childlike* to the pleasant qualities of childhood.
4. *Uninterested* means bored; *disinterested* means impartial.
5. A *fiancé* is a male; a *fiancée* is a female.
6. To *allude* is to *refer* indirectly.
7. *Credible* means believable; *creditable* means worthy of praise.
8. An *ophthalmologist* and an *oculist* are medical doctors; an *optometrist* is a specialist in prescribing and fitting glasses; an *optician* is a lens-grinder or owner of a store specializing in optical equipment.

The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

The following usages are permissible:

1. A *healthy* climate.
2. *As* after negative verbs in comparisons.
3. *Aggravated* meaning irritated. Likewise *aggravate, aggravating, aggravates,* etc., with the same meaning.
4. *Liable* or *apt* with the sense of probability.
5. *Above* as a noun or adjective.
6. *Everyone, no one,* etc. with plural pronouns.
7. Have you *got*.
8. *Due to* as a preposition.

The Grammar of Correct Usage

1. *None* is usually followed by a plural verb, unless its meaning is distinctly singular.
2. Names of diseases or of fields of study are singular even if they end in *s*.
3. *One or two* . . . is followed by a plural verb.

4. *A number of* . . . is followed by a plural verb. Similarly *A lot of*. . . .
5. A fraction or measure word, even if plural, is followed by a singular verb if a single unit is implied.
6. With *either* . . . *or* and *neither* . . . *nor*, the verb gets its number from the *nearer* subject.
7. In "Was it *he* you were talking to?" the preposition governs an understood relative, *whom*.
8. In "He has finally found a teacher *who* he believes can handle the class" the clause *he believes* is parenthetical, and therefore does not affect the case of the relative pronoun.

That was quite a stint, and if you feel fuzzy on any of the points mentioned now is the time to go back to the text and get a fresh view. As soon as you feel competent on all the points covered in chapters 12 through 18, take your

Achievement Test 2

Directions: Check the preferable word in each sentence.

1. He always takes a (practical, practicable) view of things.
2. None of the boys (was, were) absent today.
3. None of your work (is, are) satisfactory.
4. "British efforts to check at its various European sources the stream moving toward Palestine (has, have) aggravated conditions still further." (Adapted from *The Nation*)
5. "The revolt of the backbenchers led by Richard Crossman and Michael Foot (has, have) not subsided." (From *The Nation*)
6. "A natural reluctance to be bound to America's doubtful economic fortunes (has, have) been converted into a determination to separate Britian from involvement in what is generally interpreted as

America's imperialist adventure." (From *The Nation*)

7. How (is, are) your father and mother today?
8. One of my friends (has, have) promised to help me.
9. The teacher, with her forty pupils, (is, are) waiting to see you.
10. (Was, Were) either of your attempts successful?
11. Each of these reports (is, are) excellent.
12. Your attempts at comedy (fall, falls) flat.
13. Evan, unlike his wife, (has, have) a pleasant disposition.
14. Evan, like his wife, (has, have) a pleasant disposition.
15. Lucile as well as her husband (is, are) working on the magazine.
16. Neither of your brothers (is, are) very smart.
17. She is an (alumnus, alumna) of the New Rochelle College for Women.
18. Mumps (is, are) an awful thing to get right now.
19. (Is, Are) measles contagious?
20. Mathematics (is, are) a difficult study.
21. What (is, are) the ethics of the situation?
22. Your aunt and uncle (is, are) proud of you.
23. His health and intelligence (is, are) not in question.
24. The commander-in-chief of the armed forces and the highest executive officer of the government (is, are) the President.
25. Either Max or Ralph (is, are) willing to help you.
26. Neither Max nor Ralph (is, are) willing to help you.
27. The White House or the Supreme Court (is, are) his goal.
28. She has a (childish, childlike) temper.
29. One or two cars (has, have) already been sold.
30. Mary and (I, me) are your only friends.
31. Can you visit Mary and (I, me) tonight?
32. Can you have supper with Mary and (I, me) tonight?

33. She is most (uninterested, disinterested) in your problems. Why continue to bore her with them?
34. A lot of the pictures (is, are) excellent.
35. A number of the pictures (is, are) excellent.
36. Please (lie, lay) down.
37. Did you (lie, lay) down for a nap?
38. He (lay, laid) asleep all morning.
39. Have the clothes (laid, lain) in that filth all week?
40. (Lying, Laying) on his side, he was able to breathe better.
41. (Lie, Lay) the baby in its crib.
42. He (lay, laid) his books on top of mine.
43. Have his words (laid, lain) your fears to rest?
44. Her (fiancée, fiancé) is the most repulsive man I have ever met.
45. Four-fifths of Gertrude Stein (is, are) sheer gibberish.
46. Three pounds of meat (is, are) all I'll need for supper.
47. A majority of the voters (is, are) still for free enterprise.
48. Was it (he, him) who answered the phone?
49. It is (they, them) who have tricked you.
50. Without mentioning any names, he made an (a) (allusion, reference) to your wife; I'm sure of it.
51. Neither he nor I (am, is, are) sympathetic to your plans.
52. Neither the President nor the cabinet members (is, are) here today.
53. (Who, Whom) do you think you are?
54. (Who, Whom) do you see?
55. (Who, Whom) are they talking to?
56. This is the actress (who, whom) his father claims has seduced his son.
57. Was it (she, her) you were referring to?
58. He is taller than (I, me).
59. I can talk as fast as (he, him).
60. The (oculist, optometrist, optician) performed a very delicate surgical operation on his eyes.

ANSWERS

1. practical
2. were
3. is
4. have
5. has
6. has
7. are
8. has
9. is
10. was
11. is
12. fall
13. has
14. has
15. is
16. is
17. alumna
18. is
19. is
20. is
21. are
22. are
23. are
24. is
25. is
26. is
27. is
28. childish
29. have
30. I
31. me
32. me
33. uninterested
34. are
35. are
36. lie
37. lie
38. lay
39. lain
40. lying
41. lay
42. laid
43. laid
44. fiancé
45. is
46. is
47. are
48. he
49. they
50. allusion
51. am
52. are
53. who
54. whom
55. whom
56. who
57. she
58. I
59. he
60. oculist

SCORING

Each correct choice counts 1 point.

56–60.....Excellent
50–55.....Good
45–49.....Passing
44 or less.....Indicates that further study of chapters 12 through 18 is required.

YOUR SCORE ON ACHIEVEMENT TEST II: ..... (Record the result on page 13.)

as easy as A B C

XVII

A. What is the difference between *prophecy* and *prophesy?*

B. Is it correct to say, "There are *less* people here than we expected"?

C. Which is preferable: "What we need in this country *is* more blondes," or "What we need in this country *are* more blondes"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Prophecy, Prophesy

You are making a prediction—you are looking into the future. You expect war with Russia by 1970? That is your *prophecy*.

You claim that a Republican will win the next presidential election? You *prophesy* that the next election will be won by a Republican.

The distinction between *prophecy* and *prophesy* is one of function: With the *c*, *prophecy* is a noun.

SINGULAR: prophecy
PLURAL: prophecies
PRONUNCIATION: *proff*-e-see, *proff*-e-sees

With the *s*, *prophesy* is a verb.

PRESENT TENSE: prophesy, prophesies
PAST TENSE: prophesied

PRESENT PARTICIPLE: prophesying
PRONUNCIATION: *proff*-e-sigh, *proff*-e-sighs, *proff*-e-sighed, *proff*-e-sighing

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 43*

1. He (prophecied, prophesized, prophesied) that the end of the world would come within two weeks.
2. They made many dire (prophecies, prophesies), none of which ever came true.
3. In a section called "The Clouded Crystal Ball," *The New Yorker* lists those (prophecies, prophesies) which never materialized.
4. Do you (prophecy, prophesy) a return to war-time prosperity?
5. He is an expert in (prophecy, prophesy).
6. He is an expert at (prophecying, prophesying).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 43*

1. prophesied
2. prophecies
3. prophecies
4. prophesy
5. prophecy
6. prophesying

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

There are *less* people here than we expected.

Again, we have an instance in which formal grammar conflicts with popular usage. The strict rule is that *less* may be used only with singular nouns, that *fewer* is required with plural nouns. This is an eminently logical, and, as it happens, age-old rule which you can find in textbooks way back to 1850. Unfortunately (for the rule), modern writers and contemporary educated speakers often ignore the distinction between *less* and *fewer,* and you will find *less* frequently used with plural nouns in current magazines, newspapers, and books, and will hear it even more frequently from the lips of educated people. Such being the case, *less* cannot realistically or effectively be restricted to

singular nouns. The restriction operates, in other words, mainly in theory—that is, in rhetorics and in handbooks and in grammar lessons but not always in practice.

Fewer is joining the ranks of words like *farther, shall, should* and *supine*—words whose functions are gradually being taken over by their partial-synonyms: *less, further, will, would,* and *prone.*

However, as you will note from some of the opinions that follow, many people consciously prefer to use "fewer" with plural nouns. It is obvious that the question is still a controversial one.

PRO AND CON

Pro

Like anything else to do with Senator Taft, my story propelled itself soberly, methodically and carefully along scheduled lines; it encountered *less* pitfalls and booby traps than anything I have done. All this I attribute to the personality of the senator, who makes a virtue of predictability.

—Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr.

Professor Schlesinger, author of *Age of Jackson,* describing an article he wrote for *Collier's,* as quoted in *Collier's.*

Pro

The publishers are facing up boldly to the situation, Mr. Streit says, by issuing many *less* titles . . .

—A. J. Leibling, in *Esquire* for September, 1947.

Pro

You'll see the first completely new car in 50 years . . . the first rear-engine car on American roads . . . the car with 800 *less* parts than conventional cars.

—Advertisement for the Tucker '48

Pro

Less nicotine, *less* throat irritants.

—Advertisement for Raleigh cigarettes

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "We have *less* workers than we need" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro (with reservations)

A. Spare me from usage controversies! But I'll give you an honest answer for your file.

Since I was brought up on *fewer workers* I would say *fewer*—with no lack of respect for people who were brought up on *less workers* and stand by it.

I find the following in a well-written article just come to my desk: "By 1840, a decade after Brisbane's student days, less than a hundred American names had appeared on the rolls of all the German universities combined." What would be "correct" here?

The big question here is what we mean by correct. Socially correct? Approved by linguists? "According to the XXX Handbook?"

—Lennox Grey

Professor Grey is chairman of the Department of English, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Con (with reservations)

A. I have a pet prejudice against using this expression myself; can't explain it—just a case of "I do not like you, Dr. Fell; the reason why, I cannot tell; but this I know full very well: I do not like you, Dr. Fell." If anybody else wants to say it or write it, though, it's O.K. by me.

—Reuben Maury

Mr. Maury is chief editorial writer of the New York *News*.

Con

A. Thanks for your letter, and for asking my opinion concerning the use of the expression, "We have *less* workers than we need."

Here at the paper we use Webster's *New International* Second Edition, Unabridged, as a source for spelling; and Fowler's *Modern English Usage* for grammar. Therefore, we are in favor of using the word *fewer* in the above sentence, rather than *less*, when the word to which it is applied deals with actual numbers.

—John P. Lewis

Mr. Lewis was editor of *PM*.

Con

A. You had better count me out on this one. I would say, "We have *fewer* workers than we need," and would not use *less* in the sense indicated—either in writing or in everyday speech.

However, I cannot prove that I am right or wrong grammatically. *Less* has always meant smaller to me. I would not think of saying, "We ought to have *less* soldiers." Where numbers are concerned, I always use *fewer*.

—Lawrence E. Spivak

Mr. Spivak was formerly publisher of *The American Mercury*.

Q. Do you use the word *less* with a plural noun as in the sentence "We have *less* books in stock than we need"? Or do you prefer to use *fewer* in such sentences? Do you have a very strict attitude toward the distinction between these words?

Con

A. I must confess that I am puzzled by your question, which seems to me to deal with a usage not only obviously incorrect, but so clumsy that I don't see why even an illiterate should go out of his way to employ it. It seems to me that anybody familiar with the word *less* would be just as familiar with the word *fewer* and with the distinction between their meanings.

—Bruce Gould

Mr. Gould is editor of the *Ladies' Home Journal.*

Tolerant

I think that I would say *fewer* people, but I would not find *less people* objectionable.

—Jinx Falkenburg McCrary

Mrs. McCrary and her husband, Tex McCrary, conduct the popular program "Tex and Jinx" over WNBC. Under her maiden name of Jinx Falkenburg, Mrs. McCrary is the well-known movie star and model.

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "There are *less* people here than we expected" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con

A. Having been the originator of the abbreviated words "natch," "def," etc., perhaps I'm not qualified to answer. However, I have a peculiar psychology regarding the spoken word. . . . I go in for slang expressions when they are not generally used . . . as soon as they become an ac-

cepted part of the language I drop them. On the other hand, I make no compromise with what is known as "good English." I think modern usage has undoubtedly given the seal of approval to a preposition ending a sentence, but somehow it doesn't sound right to me.

In the case of the sentence under discussion, I believe *fewer* would be my choice or "there aren't as many as we expected."

—Maggi McNellis

Maggi McNellis is the popular radio and television personality.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

What we need in this country *is* more blondes, *or*
What we need in this country *are* more blondes?

Blondes is a predicate noun and, though plural, does not attract the verb into the plural, since the verb is governed by its subject, which in such a sentence is the entire clause *what we need in this country;* and clauses are considered singular in number.

Similarly, in "All I need is pictures," the clause *all I need* is subject of *is* and since clauses are singular, requires a singular verb.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

What we need in this country *is* more blondes.
What I want *is* better tools.
All I see *is* six new houses.
What I need *is* five new workers.
All I want *is* friends and money.

chapter 20 HOW TO ANALYZE A VERB

A verb shows action; or, in the single exception of the copulative verb, denotes a state of being.

Action can happen at various times.

It can occur in the present time.

It can be described as having taken place in the past.

It can be described as being expected to occur in the future.

Thus we have three principal *tenses* (or times) of English verbs:

PRESENT TENSE: He *is* a young man.
PAST TENSE: He *was* a boy.
FUTURE TENSE: He *will be* an old man.

More subtle variations of time are indicated by other tenses:

CONDITIONAL TENSE: "He *would be* happy." As the name implies, such a tense is used to show a condition dependent on another idea. "He would be happy *if he had more money*." "He would be sad *if he had less money*."

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE: "He *has been* ill." This tense indicates action that started in the past and continued into, or nearly into, the present. The implication of the illustration used is that he has just recently recovered, or is perhaps even now in the process of recovering. In the sentence, "He *has worked* hard all his life," the present-perfect tense implies either that he is still working hard or has just recently stopped.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE: "He *had* always *believed* in Santa Claus until his friends disabused him of that juvenile no-

tion." This tense indicates action that started at some time in the past remoter than some other past time mentioned. This sounds more complicated than it is. In the illustration used, we have two verbs: *had believed,* a past-perfect tense; and *disabused,* a past tense. The action of believing in Santa Claus occurred prior to the action of being disabused. "He *had failed* to make many friends until he *read* Dale Carnegie's book." Both verbs (*had failed* and *read*) show action in the past time, but which happened first, the failure or the reading?

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE: "She *will have earned* $15,000 by the end of the year." This tense is a paradoxical wedding of the apparently contradictory concepts of future and past. In the illustration used, the action will not be complete until the end of the year—a time in the future. But by the end of the year, the action will already have taken place, the deed will already have been consummated. So there is an added concept of the past in the idea.

CONDITIONAL-PERFECT TENSE: "We *would have done* the work if you had offered to pay us." This tense shows a condition occurring in the past.

If we take the verb *to see,* we can very easily form the four simple (present, past, future, conditional) and the four compound (present-perfect, past-perfect, future-perfect, and conditional-perfect) tenses:

SIMPLE TENSES		COMPOUND TENSES	
PRESENT:	I see	PRESENT PERFECT:	I have seen
PAST:	I saw	PAST PERFECT:	I had seen
FUTURE:	I will see	FUTURE PERFECT:	I will have seen
CONDITIONAL:	I would see	CONDITIONAL PERFECT:	I would have seen

Each of these eight tenses can be slightly changed to show action continuing over an extended period of time. Such continuity is indicated by the *progressive* tenses.

PRESENT PROGRESSIVE:	He *is working* on the railroad.
PAST PROGRESSIVE:	He *was working* on the railroad for a time.
FUTURE PROGRESSIVE:	He *will be working* on the railroad.
CONDITIONAL PROGRESSIVE:	He *would* now *be working* on the railroad if he had joined the union.
PRESENT-PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:	He *has been working* on the railroad for twenty years.
PAST-PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:	He *had been working* on the railroad for twenty years when he died.
FUTURE-PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:	He *will have been working* on the railroad for twenty years come Christmas.
CONDITIONAL-PERFECT PROGRESSIVE:	He *would have been working* on the railroad for twenty years if he had lived another week.

It can be seen, then, that the progressive tenses are formed by combining some form of the verb *to be* (is, was, will be, would be, has been, had been, will have been, would have been) with the *-ing* form of another verb (is playing, was playing, will be playing, etc.). Such an *-ing* form of a verb is known as the *present participle.*

Similarly, it can be seen that the compound tenses of a verb (present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, conditional perfect) are formed by combining the simple tenses of the verb *to have* (has, had, will have, would have) with another form of the main verb (has played, had played, etc.). The form of the main verb used in compound tenses is known as the *past participle.*

Every verb has two participles: the present participle, used in the progressive tenses, and the past participle, used in compound tenses. The present participle always ends in the letters *-ing:*

VERB	PRESENT PARTICIPLE
to know	knowing
to have	having
to feel	feeling
to see	seeing
to wish	wishing
to vote	voting
to lie	lying
to lay	laying

The past participle generally ends in *-ed:*

VERB	PAST PARTICIPLE
work	(have) worked
vote	(have) voted
use	(have) used
play	(have) played
wish	(have) wished

Occasionally, the past participle ends in *-n:*

VERB	PAST PARTICIPLE
know	(have) known
see	(have) seen
begin	(have) begun
lie	(have) lain
break	(have) broken
fall	(have) fallen
give	(have) given

Occasionally in *-d* or *-t:*

VERB	PAST PARTICIPLE
have	(have) had
feel	(have) felt
flee	(have) fled
pay	(have) paid
seek	(have) sought

Occasionally, in completely irregular, unclassifiable forms:

VERB	PAST PARTICIPLE
do	(have) done
drink	(have) drunk
swim	(have) swum
hang	(have) hung
shine	(have) shone

A verb may show tense by means of a single word:

PRESENT: He swims.
PAST: He swam.

Or a verb may show tense by combining with some special tense word, such as *will, is, have,* and so on:

PRESENT: He *is* working.
PAST: He *has* worked.
FUTURE: He *will* work.
PRESENT: He *does* not work.

In such combined forms, the verb is made up of two or more parts and is called a *verb phrase.* The tense word (will, shall, would, should, etc.) is called an *auxiliary.*

The auxiliary *do, does,* or *did* is used to form negative and interrogative present and past tenses.

AFFIRMATIVE	NEGATIVE	INTERROGATIVE
He works.	He does not work.	Does he work?
He worked.	He did not work.	Did he work?
They work.	They do not work.	Do they work?

In other tenses besides the present and past, negative forms are made by the simple addition of the adverb *not:* "He will work," "He will not work." Interrogative forms

in these tenses are made by a simple reversal of word order: "He has worked," "Has he worked?"

Tense is no great problem in English, except in the case of a few irregular verbs whose past tenses and past participles are not conventional forms ending in *-ed*. These are the most troublesome of the irregular verbs:

VERB	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
begin	began	has begun
break	broke	has broken
drink	drank	has drunk
eat	ate	has eaten
flee	fled	has fled
lay	laid	has laid
lie	lay	has lain
rise	rose	has risen
shrink	shrank *or* shrunk	has shrunk
spring	sprang *or* sprung	has sprung
strive	strove	has striven
swim	swam	has swum

In summary: verbs in English have the following functions:

1. *Transtive and Intransitive*
   TRANSITIVE: He *blew* a whistle.
   INTRANSITIVE: A whistle *blew*.
2. *Voice*
   ACTIVE: He saw.
   PASSIVE: He was seen.
3. *Tense*
   SIMPLE TENSES: present, past, future, conditional.
   COMPOUND TENSES: present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, conditional perfect.
   PROGRESSIVE TENSES: simple progressive and compound progressive tenses.
4. *Mood*

INDICATIVE: The tenses discussed in this chapter were all of the indicative mood.

INFINITIVE: Made up of the preposition *to* plus the verb: *to see, to wait, to lie,* etc. The infinitive is not truly a verb, but rather a verbal, and may function in a sentence as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

SUBJUNCTIVE: The subjunctive mood, which is used only under special circumstances, will be discussed in a later chapter.

IMPERATIVE: commands, like *Go, Stop,* and so forth.

5. *Form*

AFFIRMATIVE: He goes.

NEGATIVE: He does not go.

INTERROGATIVE: Does he go?

6. *Person.* Person depends on the subject:

FIRST PERSON: *I* go, *we* go.

SECOND PERSON: *you* go.

THIRD PERSON: *he* goes, *she* goes, *they* go, *the man* goes, *the men* go.

7. *Number.* Number also depends on the subject:

SINGULAR: The cost *is* high.

PLURAL: The data *are* incomplete.

Verbs have:

voice
tense
mood
form
person
number

Verbs are either transitive or intransitive.

Verbs also have subjects and, at times, objects.

Some verbs are copulative; most verbs are verbs of action.

In a verb phrase, some verbs are auxiliary, some are main verbs.

A verb has two participles, the present participle and the past participle.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 44*

Problem 1. Consider the verb in the following sentence:

How long has he been speaking?

1. Identify the full verb: .....
2. Tense? .....
3. Voice? .....
4. Mood? .....
5. Person? .....
6. Number? .....
7. Form? .....
8. Transitive or intransitive? .....
9. Subject? .....
10. Is there an object? .....
11. Write the present participle .....; the past participle .....; the infinitive .....

Problem 2. Consider the verb in the following sentence:

Why did you break your promise?

Answer questions 1–11, as in problem 1:

1.	7. .....
2.	8. .....
3.	9. .....
4.	10. .....
5.	11. .....
6.	.....
	.....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 44*

Problem 1:

1. has been speaking
2. present-perfect progressive
3. active
4. indicative
5. third person
6. singular
7. interrogative
8. intransitive
9. he
10. no
11. speaking, spoken, to speak

Problem 2:

1. did break
2. past
3. active
4. indicative
5. second person
6. singular or plural
7. interrogative
8. transitive
9. you
10. yes, *promise*
11. breaking, broken, to break

as easy as A B C

XVIII

A. What is the difference between *sensuous* and *sensual?*

B. Is it correct to say, "I *will* write him a letter tomorrow"?

C. Which is preferable: "He should *of* gone," or "He should *have* gone"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Sensuous, Sensual

Perhaps you are a creature of the senses. You enjoy music, poetry, beautiful sunsets, delicious food. You react strongly to influences on your sense of hearing, seeing, tasting, touching, smelling. You are *sensuous.*

Sensuous music appeals to the ear, rather than to the intellect. Young children, largely dependent on their five senses for a comprehension of the phenomena of life, are more *sensuous* than older people, who rely on memory, experience, analogy, intellectual grasp. (Perhaps older people, however, are more *sensual* than children, though not according to Freud.)

Poetry has a more *sensuous* appeal than mathematical equations.

However, poetry, music, art can have a *sensual* as well as a *sensuous* appeal. If the appeal of a painting is chiefly *sensual,* it excites, shall we say, the *grosser* appetites of the viewer. If music is *sensual,* it titillates, shall we say, the *fleshly* desires.

What the distinction boils down to, of course, is that *sensuous* is a complimentary or, at worst, a neutral adjec-

tive, while *sensual* is in general derogatory. The senses implied by the word *sensuous* are, ethically speaking, the "higher" senses (biologically, anatomically, semantically, there is no such thing as a "higher" sense); those implied by *sensual* are the more animal-like, more lascivious, less "refined" senses. Thus, *sensual* is in some connotations synonymous with lewd, sexy, voluptuous, perhaps even immoral.

Your choice of terms will depend entirely on the moral implications you wish to give to your ideas.

Thus: "The *sensuous* delights of good food." You consider a delight in good food a worth-while attitude.

Thus: "A *sensual* approach to life." You imply that such an approach is excessively self-indulgent, not entirely moral, certainly not to be recommended or condoned.

Swinburne's poetry is sometimes called *sensual;* it seems to titillate the desire, to appeal to the animal emotions.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 45*

1. He spent his evenings in the (sensuous, sensual) delights of Bacchanalian revelry.
2. The bracing air and good, clean sea smells provide a (sensuous, sensual) enjoyment not found elsewhere.
3. The (sensuous, sensual) pleasures of Tchaikowsky's "Swan Lake Ballet" have made the piece popular throughout the world.
4. His thick (sensuous, sensual) lips give an indication of the type of enjoyment he prefers.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 45*

1. sensual 2. sensuous 3. sensuous 4. sensual

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I *will* write him a letter tomorrow.

The law of gravity will never change. It was in full and successful operation long before Newton—it will remain a

factor to be dealt with as long as the earth as we know it exists.

So long as human nature remains the same, the law of supply and demand is likely to be similarly impervious to change.

But the laws of English grammar are far less resistant to alteration than the laws of physics or economics. Grammatical principles that were held in the greatest veneration by one generation may be entirely discarded by the next. One of the few certainties of language is that change will take place. If you compare the English used by writers and speakers several hundred years ago with the modern tongue used by educated people today, you will understand how constantly our patterns of grammar keep changing.

One specific instance is in the future tense of English verbs.

Futurity can be expressed by both *shall* and *will*. According to laws that are today pretty nearly outmoded, a painfully precise distinction was once made between these alternative tense words. At the risk of boring the reader, I shall summarize *some* of these rules very briefly:

1. *Shall* is used:
   To denote simple futurity with a subject of the first person.
   To denote promise or determination with a subject of the second or third person.
2. *Will* is used:
   To denote simple futurity with a second- and third-person subject.
   To denote promise or determination with a first-person subject.
3. *Shall* is used:
   In questions in which the answer is expected to employ *shall* according to the two rules elucidated above.
4. *Will* is used.
   In questions in which the answer is expected to employ *will* according to rules 1 and 2.

There is much more to the subject, equally confusing, equally unrealistic. The *facts* of everyday speech (which you can easily verify from your own listening) are:

1. *Will* is used almost universally to express futurity—no matter what person the subject is in, no matter what implication is intended by the phraseology of the sentence. (*Shall,* with the subject *I* or *we,* is fairly common in writing.)

2. *Shall* is almost exclusively restricted to interrogative sentences in which a form of permission is asked. For example:

Shall I open the box now? (Implying, "Do you give me permission to open the box?")

Shall my sister phone you tomorrow? (That is, "Do you wish my sister to phone you?")

But of course in questions asking for simple information, such as, "Will we have dinner on time?" *will* is used almost exclusively.

(Perhaps the most current use of *shall* is in legal and government documents: "The defendant *shall,* within five days of the date of this notice . . ."; "Each company commander *shall* immediately repair to . . ." In such language, *shall* has the force of a command.)

Modern teachers in high school no longer pay much attention to *shall-will* distinctions; most modern grammar textbooks used in high-school classrooms concentrate on the hard facts of actual usage.

If you have a vague recollection that your own high-school English teacher devoted a lot of time and pother to the topic, and wonder if there isn't something you should keep in mind about it if you wish to speak good English, let me suggest that you relax. In informal speech, *will* has almost completely superseded *shall* as the expression of futurity. With the exceptions noted, *will* is always correct, established, cultivated English.

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "I *will* be happy to see him" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Yes, of course.

—Hallett D. Smith

Dr. Smith is a professor of English at Williams College.

Pro

A. I'm for *will,* though not nearly so staunchly as I am for *ain't.*

—H. Allen Smith

Mr. Smith is the author of *Low Man on a Totem Pole; Life in a Putty Knife Factory*, and other best-sellers.

Pro

A. The artificial distinction between *shall* and *will* to designate futurity is a superstition that has neither a basis in historical grammar nor the sound sanction of universal usage. It is a nineteenth-century affectation which certain grammarians have tried hard to establish and perpetuate. That they have not succeeded is corroborative evidence of the fact that grammatical rules are not made by grammarians but that they grow out of the sound instincts of intelligent writers and speakers of a language.

—Gustave O. Arlt

Professor Arlt is editor of *Modern Language Forum,* University of California.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

He should *of* gone, *or* He should *have* gone?

Have is the correct form, making the conditional-perfect tense with the past participle, *gone. Should have* is the auxiliary verb, *gone* is the main verb.

In speech, *have* in such a construction sounds exactly like *of,* but it is still *have* and should be so written.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

He would *have* gone.
I would *have* done it.
You should *have* spoken up.
They would *have* taken you.

chapter 21 HOW TO EXPRESS A MOOD

1. The Problem

When may one say *"If I was"*? When is *"If I were"* preferable?

2. The Solution

This question involves an understanding of the *subjunctive mood* of the verb.

While the subjunctive is used far less today than in the past, there are still a number of important instances in which it is heard in English sentences.
To wit:

1. I suggest he *keep* his ideas to himself.
2. I wish I *were* richer.
3. I insist that he *report* every day.
4. If I *were* you, I would not do that.
5. She acts as if she *were* his wife.
6. It is necessary that an employee *finish* his work on time.
7. God *forbid* that it should happen.
8. Heaven *help* the working girl.

It is apparent that these are special uses of the verb, since under normal circumstances we say:

1. He *keeps*.
2. I *was*.

3. He *reports.*
4. I *was.*
5. She *was.*
6. An employee *finishes.*
7. God *forbids.*
8. Heaven *helps.*

If we examine the meanings of the sentences involved, we see that they are not, strictly speaking, statements:

Sentence 1 is a suggestion.
Sentence 2 is a wish.
Sentence 3 is a demand.
Sentence 4 is a condition contrary to fact, since, of course, I am not you.
Sentence 5 is another condition contrary to fact. She is not his wife, in truth, but only acts as if she were.
Sentence 6 is an expression of necessity.
Sentence 7 is a wish.
Sentence 8 is a wish.

It follows then that the indicative mood, which we explored tense by tense in chapter 20, is used in statements; that the subjunctive mood is used in nonstatements (wishes, demands, conditions contrary to fact, and the like) such as those listed above.

In the active voice, the subjunctive is identical in appearance to one of two indicative tenses:

THE PRESENT INDICATIVE PLURAL, EVEN IF THE SUBJECT IS SINGULAR:

We demand that he *fulfill* his contract.
Do you wish that my brother *return* the compliment?
Do you suggest that she *work* overtime?
It is essential that he *use* more care.

THE PAST PROGRESSIVE INDICATIVE, PLURAL, EVEN IF THE SUBJECT IS SINGULAR:

He wishes he *were going.*
He talks as if he *were spending* his own money.
How nice this would be if it *were happening* to you!

In the passive voice, the subjunctive of a verb is the auxiliary *be* plus the perfect participle: *be seen, be known, be used,* etc.:

We demand that the contract *be fulfilled.*
It is important that you *be seen* in the right places.
It is essential that this machine *be used* with greater care.

With the verb *to be,* the subjunctive is the form *were,* even with a singular subject.

He wishes he *were* stronger.
He acts as if he *were* rich.
How nice this would be if it *were* only true.

The subjunctive need cause no confusion, except when there is a possible choice between *was* and *were.* You will be faced with this choice only after the verb *wish* and after the conjunctions *if* and *as if.* In other instances, the subjunctive is so definitely part of the idiom of the language that no one ever uses the indicative where the subjunctive is required. However, care must be exercised after the verb *wish* and also after the conjunctions *if* and *as if.*

ITEM 1. Use the subjunctive after the verb *wish:*

PREFERABLE	OCCASIONALLY HEARD IN EDUCATED SPEECH, BUT NOT PREFERABLE
I wish I *were* going.	I wish I *was* going.
She wishes she *were* married.	She wishes she *was* married.
I wish I *were* braver.	I wish I *was* braver.

ITEM 2. Use the subjunctive after the conjunction *as if*, which always introduces a condition contrary to fact:

PREFERABLE	OCCASIONALLY HEARD IN EDUCATED SPEECH, BUT NOT PREFERABLE
Martin talks as if he *were* innocent.	Martin talks as if he *was* innocent.
(Actually, he is not innocent.)	
Alice ran as if the devil *were* after her.	Alice ran as if the devil *was* after her.
(Actually, the devil was not after her.)	
Alice screamed as if she *were* being murdered.	Alice screamed as if she *was* being murdered.
(Actually, she was not being murdered.)	

ITEM 3. Use the subjunctive after the conjunction *if* in contrary-to-fact conditions:

PREFERABLE	OCCASIONALLY HEARD IN EDUCATED SPEECH, BUT NOT PREFERABLE
If he *were* less sarcastic, he would be more popular.	If he *was* less sarcastic, he would be more popular.
(But, as a fact, he is *not* less sarcastic.)	
If she *were* not so stupid, she would understand how you feel about her.	If she *was* not so stupid, she would understand how you feel about her.
(But, as a fact, she *is* stupid.)	
If he *were* acting out of sincerity, he would not do that.	If he *was* acting out of sincerity he would not do that.
(But, as a fact, he is not acting out of sincerity.)	

ITEM 4. In conditions of fact, or possible fact, use the *indicative* after the conjunction *if:*

CORRECT

If Dr. Jaffe *was* in his office, why didn't he answer the phone?

(Maybe he was in his office.)

If the builder *was* opposed to the plan, why didn't he say so?

(Maybe he was opposed to the plan.)

If her husband *was* at home that night, he certainly did not take part in the festivities.

(Maybe her husband was at home.)

ITEM 5. It is not necessary to make a lengthy analysis of the factuality or possible factuality of a condition, before deciding on the use of the subjunctive after the conjunction *if*. A condition contrary to fact is found only in a sentence in which the main clause is in the *conditional tense*. The conditional tense, you will recall from chapter 20, contains the auxiliary *would*. In other words, if the main clause contains *would*, the *if* clause requires the subjunctive. (*As if* clauses, however, always require the subjunctive.) It's as simple and mechanical as that. (*Should*, an alternate form of *would;* and *could*, which is the conditional tense of *be able*, also signify a condition contrary to fact.)

Notice how a change in the main clause of the sentences above removes the factuality of each sentence:

Dr. Jaffe would answer the phone if he *were* in his office. (Subjunctive)

If the builder *were* opposed to the plan, he would say so. (Subjunctive)

If her husband *were* at home that night, he would not have countenanced such shenanigans. (Subjunctive)

3. *The Rule*

The subjunctive is used in preference to the indicative:

after *as if*
after *if*, in conditions contrary to fact
after *wish*

This completes our discussion of *mood*.
A verb has four moods:

INDICATIVE: He *speaks*.
SUBJUNCTIVE: If Henry Wallace *were speaking*, more tickets would be sold.
INFINITIVE: *To speak* now would be a mistake.
IMPERATIVE: *Speak* now or forever hold your peace.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 46*

1. If it (was, were) a nice day, we could have a picnic.
2. That man, if he (was, were) really your father, should have treated you better.
3. If that man (was, were) your father, he would not have treated you so shamefully.
4. That man acts as if he (was, were) your father.
5. I wish he (was, were) your father.
6. If the boss (was, were) here, you would do more work.
7. If that (was, were) the reason for your refusal, why didn't you say so?
8. If that book (was, were) sold in Boston without police interference, then we won't run into any trouble with our book.
9. If he (was, were) the last man on earth, she wouldn't marry him.
10. Does she wish she (was, were) going to the party?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 46*

1. were	3. were	5. were	7. was	9. were
2. was	4. were	6. were	8. was	10. were

as easy as A B C

XIX

A. What is the difference between *desert* and *dessert?*

B. Is it correct to say, "I *would* like to see you tonight"?

C. Which is preferable: "*Those* kind of apples *are* too sour," or "*That* kind of apples *is* too sour"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Desert, Dessert

The Sahara is a *desert* (one *s;* accent on the first syllable). Chocolate pudding is a *dessert* (two *s's;* accent on the second syllable).

How can you remember which is which?

A *desert* is made up chiefly of sand—one *s* in *sand.*

Dessert is an added attraction in a meal—an added *s* in *dessert.*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 47*

1. People on diets are asked to forego rich (deserts, desserts).
2. There is a vast (desert, dessert) in the western part of our country.
3. It is an arid, (desert, dessert) region, thinly populated.
4. Children prefer (desert, dessert) to the nourishing dishes of a dinner.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 47*

1. desserts 2. desert 3. desert 4. dessert

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I *would* like to see you tonight.

By the same rules which—theoretically—govern the use of *shall* and *will,* the pronouns *I* and *we* (first person, singular and plural) require the auxiliary *should* in preference to *would.*

This requirement is as obsolete as the puristic distinctions between *shall* and *will.*

If you generally say *I should like* and *we should like,* by all means go on doing so. If it has become your habit, on the other hand, to say, *I would like* and *we would like,* make no effort to change.

"I *would* speak to him if he were here," and "we *would* be happier if we were richer," are just as good English, just as correct, just as acceptable as "I should speak . . . ," and "We should be . . ."

Furthermore, the use of *would* in such constructions is more popular, more current, less stilted, in informal speech.

Should, as a tense sign of the conditional tense, is gradually falling into disuse. Or, as a professor of mine used to like to phrase it, *should* is falling into a state of innocuous desuetude.

In modern English, *should* is mainly used to indicate compulsion, moral obligation, or the like.

As in the case of the panhandler who approached the bejeweled dowager in depression days.

"I haven't had a bite to eat in two days," the beggar announced.

"My good man," responded the matron, "you should force yourself!"

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that *"Would* you like to join us?" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you

agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech? [Prescriptive grammar demands *should* in such a question, because the expected form of the answer is *I should*—assuming the person answering is also a devotee of purism.]

Pro

A. I prefer the phrase "Would you . . ." rather than "Should you . . ."

—Paul Denis

Mr. Denis formerly conducted the radio column of the New York *Post*.

Con

You ask me for my opinion on the correctness of the sentence, "I *would* be happy to see him." My own view is that the correct way to say this would be, "I *should* be happy to see him." It may be as you say, "many modern grammarians maintain that 'I *would* be happy to see him' is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people." I am afraid that I cannot comment upon this. I realize that good English can be established by usage, but, for my part, I prefer *should* to *would*.

—Harold L. Ickes

Harold Ickes was Secretary of the Interior in President Franklin D. Roosevelt's administration.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

> *Those* kind of apples *are* too sour, *or*
> *That* kind of apples *is* too sour?

This sentence represents a grammatical point that is still somewhat debatable. Following a strict interpretation, of course, *that* and *is* would be called for, since *kind* is in-

dubitably singular. But *That kind of apples is too sour,* correct as it may be, sounds almost affected. The simple way to be correct without sounding unnatural is either to make the noun after *of* singular (*That kind of apple is too sour*), or to recast the sentence (*Apples of that kind are too sour, Such apples are too sour,* etc.).

Similarly, sentences like the following can be changed as indicated:

UNACCEPTABLE UNDER STRICT RULES	PREFERABLE
I don't like *those* kind of people.	I don't like *that* kind of *person, or,* I don't like such people, etc.
These kind of books *are* too deep for me.	*This* kind of *book* is too deep for me, *or,* Such books are too deep for me, etc.
Those kind of men can't be trusted.	*That* kind of *man* can't be trusted, *or,* You can't trust men like them, etc.
Those sort of women *are* bad medicine.	*That* sort of *woman* is bad medicine, *or,* Women like her are bad medicine, etc.

chapter 22 HOW TO SPLIT AN INFINITIVE

1. The Problem

What is a "split infinitive"? When, if ever, may we split an infinitive?

2. The Solution

An infinitive, we have learned, is the verb preceded by the preposition *to:*

to use	to eat
to plan	to be

Infinitives are not true verbs even though, as we shall see in a moment, they have tense and voice.

The infinitive, though one of the four moods of a verb (the other three are *subjunctive, indicative,* and *imperative*), always functions in a sentence as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

To solve this paradox of a verb which is not a verb, we call an infinitive a verbal.

There are three types of verbals in English grammar—infinitives, participles, and gerunds.

Every verbal is a verb which is not a verb; verbals have the force of verbs, they may have tense and voice, but they function within a sentence as some other part of speech.

Participles function as adjectives.
Gerunds function as nouns.
Infinitives function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

An infinitive has voice and tense.

PRESENT ACTIVE INFINITIVE: to see
PRESENT PASSIVE INFINITIVE: to be seen
PERFECT ACTIVE INFINITIVE: to have seen
PERFECT PASSIVE INFINITIVE: to have been seen

"Splitting an infinitive" means placing an adverb between the preposition *to* and the rest of the infinitive.

To wit:

to quickly see
to thoroughly understand
to completely grasp
to first be considered

A genuine split infinitive contains the adverb directly after the preposition. If the adverb comes between any of the verbal parts of the infinitive, we are not dealing with a split infinitive.

These are *not* split infinitives:

to be favorably known
to have satisfactorily completed
to have quickly ended

Splitting an infinitive is no crime. It is not a violation of grammatical rule.

Although a few textbooks forbid the practice, the best people split infinitives.

Robert C. Pooley, professor of English at the University of Wisconsin, in his excellent book *Teaching English Usage* (Appleton-Century), points out:

> The question as to whether one may "split" an infinitive by placing an adverbial modifier between the *to* and the infinitive form of the verb has been hotly debated for a century. . . . In spite of the quantities of print on the subject, and the definitive statements of linguists and

grammarians, the textbooks still cleave to the nineteenth-century aversion [to the split infinitive].

Professor Pooley labels the so-called rule against the split infinitive "little more than pedantic rubbish" and then recites a list of reputable American authors who were infinitive splitters: Benjamin Franklin, Whittier, Washington Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, Theodore Roosevelt, and Woodrow Wilson, among others.

Pooley offers these examples from literature:

Theodore Roosevelt, *The Winning of the West:* "He stood high in the colony, was extravagant and fond of display, and, his fortune being jeopardized, he hoped *to more than retrieve it* by going into speculations in western lands."

Herbert Spencer, *Philosophy of Style:* "To an active mind it may be easier to bear along all the qualifications of an idea than *to first imperfectly conceive* such an idea."

Woodrow Wilson: "When I hear gentlemen say that politics ought to let business alone, I feel like inviting them *to first consider* whether business is letting politics alone."

Notice how stilted these sentences would become if the adverbs were placed before the preposition, as some strait-laced textbooks suggest:

". . . he hoped more than to retrieve it . . ." (In fact this sentence not only becomes stilted; it actually alters its meaning.)

". . . than first imperfectly to conceive such an idea." (The meaning is intact, but the language has become woefully schoolteacherish.)

". . . I feel like inviting them first to consider . . ." (Again a shift of the adverb out of the infinitive alters the meaning of the sentence.)

The alternative suggestion for avoiding a split infinitive, according to the same textbooks, is to place the modifier *after* the verb. In the first two sentences quoted, such a position will be seen to be impossible—the idiom of the language is too grossly violated. In the third sentence, Wilson might have phrased his thought ". . . I feel like inviting them to consider first whether . . . ," but surely the emphasis he was aiming at would have been completely lost.

Charles Carpenter Fries, professor of English at the University of Michigan, in the standard reference work for English teachers, *American English Grammar*, quotes these instances of split infinitives from the writing of educated people:

I desire *to so arrange* my affairs . . .
. . . his ability *to effectually carry on* . . .
. . . that he may help me *to properly support* my family . . .
. . . would incur such delay as *to almost defeat* the purpose . . .
. . . in such a manner as to enable him *to properly perform* his work . . .
. . . training is desired in order *to better acquaint* myself with the problems of . . .
. . . *to adequately prepare* myself for this examination . . .

If you attempt to revise these sentences by placing the adverb either before or after the infinitive, you will see how the effectiveness and emphasis of the adverbs are considerably diminished.

"The evidence in favor of the judiciously split infinitive is sufficiently clear to make it obvious that teachers who condemn it arbitrarily are wasting their time and that of their pupils." So concludes grammarian Sterling Andrus

Leonard, in his survey of current English usage for the National Council of Teachers of English.

Bear in mind that a rule of grammar is valid so long as educated users of English generally abide by that rule. Since the best writers and speakers split their infinitives whenever they feel that clarity of meaning is improved by such a practice, the student of grammar will decide that the split infinitive is current, established, and reputable English.

Don't, of course, go out of your way to split an infinitive.

On the other hand, don't hesitate to split one if you feel that your thought is best served by doing so.

3. The Rule

To deliberately split an infinitive, puristic teaching to the contrary notwithstanding, is correct and acceptable English.

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "It is necessary to accurately check each answer" (split infinitive) is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree?

Pro

A. To accurately check is awkward but correct. *To check accurately* does not mean exactly the same.

Moses brought no rule against the split infinitive from the thunders of Sinai.

—Alvin Johnson

Alvin Johnson is president emeritus of the New School for Social Research, New York.

But what is correct grammar? Often it is nothing but rules set up by schoolteachers to stop the language from going where it wants to go. English, like all other languages, tends toward simplification. Simple language devices are gradually worked out in popular speech. Naturally, they are different from earlier, more complicated ways of saying the same thing; and so the grammarians call those new forms incorrect and everyone who uses them, uneducated.

Three hundred years ago the grammarians protested against the new form *its* and against the new passive infinitive formed with *being*. Today they are fighting against such things as prepositions at the end of a sentence, split infinitives, or using *them* and *their* after indefinite pronouns like *everyone* or *anybody*.

Let's find some witnesses for the defense of the split infinitive. They are surprisingly enthusiastic. Professor J. Hubert Jagger, in *English in the Future*, writes:

> There is no doubt that the split infinitive will in the end succeed because of its superiority to any other arrangement of the words in many sentences.

And George Oliver Curme, in his *Syntax*, says simply:

> The split infinitive is an improvement of English expression.

James Thurber, not a philologist, has put it even better:

> Word has somehow got around that the split infinitive is always wrong. This is of a piece with the outworn notion that it is always wrong to strike a lady.

It is not hard to find examples where the split infinitive is the only simple way of saying it. Curme quotes "He failed to entirely comprehend it" and Fowler, in *Modern*

English Usage, uses: "Our object is to further cement trade relations." Here is one I found in the AP story of MacArthur's landing in the Philippines:

> Striking at a point where he is in position to quickly cut off the Island of Luzon . . . on which Manila is situated, from Mindanao on the South, MacArthur poured supplies ashore . . .

(The publisher's editor found another example on page 14 of this book. He was against it, but I won.)

—Rudolph Flesch, *The Art of Plain Talk* (Harper)

Pro

The 1886 Law on Succession to the Presidency makes it clear that the practice of Presidential succession is recognized in the United States Code of Laws. Anybody entering "on the Execution" of the President's office swears *to "faithfully execute* the Office of President," not the office of Vice President substituting for the President.

—*Newsweek*

as easy as A B C

XX

A. What is the difference between *persecute* and *prosecute?*

B. Is it correct to say, "He had an *awful* cold"?

C. Which is preferable: "Do your work *like* I told you to," or "Do your work *as* I told you to"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Persecute, Prosecute

You belong, we will assume for the sake of argument, to a racial or religious minority. As a result, you suffer from a nightmare of petty, annoying, undignified experiences. You are, in a word, *persecuted.*

Or you are, to continue the same trend of thought, the victim of some psychopath's undying hate. The gentleman in question spends a full working day every week figuring out methods to harass, inconvenience, and molest you. He *persecutes* you.

Or let us say that during the war your landlord wanted you to vacate your apartment so that his newly married favorite cousin could move in. Federal laws, however, protected your tenancy. No fool, your landlord knew that if he made your occupancy sufficiently intolerable you would eventually seek other quarters. He started a systematic campaign of *persecution.*

The victim of *persecution* is generally innocent and inoffensive; his tormentors usually inhuman, illogical, and psychotic.

Paranoia is a mental affliction whose victims imagine themselves always to be the objects of *persecution.* Some historians claim that Germany suffers from a mass-*persecution* complex.

On the other hand, if you commit a crime, or in some less serious way breach the legal code of the community, you will be *prosecuted,* but not, it is to be hoped, *persecuted.*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 48*

1. The district attorney will (persecute, prosecute) the case himself.
2. The Nazis made a fine art out of (persecuting, prosecuting) the Jews.
3. Americans are sometimes guilty of (persecuting, prosecuting) certain native minorities.
4. People who break the law must expect to be (persecuted, prosecuted).

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 48*

1. prosecute 2. persecuting 3. persecuting 4. prosecuted

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

He had an *awful* cold.

In informal speech, *awful* is a respectable, idiomatic synonym for *severe, very bad, unusually great,* etc. It rarely means *awe-inspiring,* although this was its original signification.

Similarly, *awfully,* as a synonym for *very,* is permissible in speech, as in:

We had an *awfully* bad siege of illness this winter.

Lately, *awfully* has even been used as an adverb which intensifies adjectives of pleasant meaning, as in:

We had an *awfully* good time tonight.
She's *awfully* pretty.

The latter use is still somewhat frowned upon, even by liberal grammarians, and is not entirely current in cultivated speech, perhaps because of its sheer and humorous illogicality.

To use *awful* as an adverb is close to the illiterate level of speech. The following examples have little currency in educated language patterns:

We had an *awful* good time.
She's an *awful* pretty girl.
It's an *awful* lovely dress.
It's an *awful* cute puppy.

Nevertheless, *awful* as an adjective, or *awfully* as an adverb, with an unpleasant or unhappy signification, is permissible in spoken English. The following are *not* incorrect:

an *awful* cold
an *awfully* hot day
an *awfully* severe winter
an *awful* experience
awfully sarcastic

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "It was an *awfully* boring evening" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people, and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree?

Pro

A. In reply to your inquiry we can assure you that *awfully* as an intensive is encountered frequently in colloquial speech. Expressions such as "an awfully boring evening," "I'm awfully glad," and "I'm awfully sorry" are idiomatic and in common use among educated people. Al-

dous Huxley, in *Those Barren Leaves* (George H. Doran), 1925, page 14, uses the following sentence: "He was just one of those *awfully* nice, well-brought-up, uneducated young creatures. . . ." Sinclair Lewis, *Main Street* (Harcourt, Brace), 1920, page 338, uses the expression "you're awfully educated." Henry James, in *The Wings of the Dove* (Scribner's), 1923, page 240, uses the phrase "the awfully rich young American. . . ." Examples could readily be multiplied.

—Edward A. H. Fuchs

Dr. Fuchs was a member of the editorial staff of G. &. C. Merriam Co., publishers of the Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary.*

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "He has an *awful* cold" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. Yes I see nothing awful about it.

—Earl Wilson

Mr. Wilson is a columnist on the New York *Post* and author of *I Am Gazing into My Eight-Ball* and *Pike's Peak or Bust.*

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

Do your work *like* I told you to, *or*
Do your work *as* I told you to?

We feel *like* a carload of jeeps had run over us, *or*
We feel *as if* a carload of jeeps had run over us?

Strictly speaking, *like* is a preposition and should not be followed by a clause; the use of *like* in the two sen-

tences above is, on any but a very liberal basis, not entirely established or reputable, and therefore I cannot in all honesty recommend its use.

The following sentences are correct:

Work *as* hard *as* I.
Act *as* a man acts.
He thinks about her *as* I do.
Her husband reacted just *as* she did.
She reacted *as* you would have expected her to.
We feel *as if* a carload of jeeps had just run over us.
Just *as* all other mammals have sweat glands, so does a human being.

To be absolutely safe, use the versions above, which are somewhat preferable to the following:

Work hard, *like* I do.
Act *like* a man acts.
He thinks about her *like* I do.
Her husband reacted just *like* she did.
She reacted *like* you would have expected her to.
We feel *like* a carload of jeeps had run over us.
Just *like* all other mammals have sweat glands, so does a human being.

(Advertising agencies exhibit a growing fondness for *like* as a conjunction. For example, *Winstons taste good like a cigarette should,* and *Nobody's got a wagon like Valiant's got a wagon.*)

PRO AND CON

Q. Do you ever use in your informal conversation a sentence similar to the following: "He does it like I told him to"? In other words do you ever use the word *like* as a conjunction? Do your friends or associates ever use it? What is your opinion of the usage?

One View

A. No. In Brooklyn I've never heard anyone use *like* as a conjunction. They do not use it in this part of the South (Chapel Hill, North Carolina) either. I never use it that way. I don't care for the word *like* in any form. It's too pastel for my blood.

—Betty Smith

Betty Smith is author of *A Tree Grows in Brooklyn.*

Another View

Here is a sustaining show which is conscientious, and perceptive. It does not try to pass off goody-goody platitudes under the elegant guise of "public service," *like* so many others do.

—Paul Denis, in his radio column
in the New York *Post*

chapter 23 HOW TO LET YOUR PARTICIPLES DANGLE

1. The Problem

What is a "dangling participle"? When is it permissible to let participles dangle?

2. The Solution

A participle is one of the three classes of *verbals.*

Along with infinitives and gerunds, it is a verb which is not a verb.

Like an infinitive, it has voice and tense.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE: seeing
PERFECT ACTIVE PARTICIPLE: having seen
PERFECT PASSIVE PARTICIPLE: having been seen, *or* seen

Present participles end in *-ing:* going, coming, spending, having, knowing, etc.

Gerunds also end in *-ing.*

Gerunds and present participles are identical in form—they differ in function.

Words like *seeing, going, coming, eating,* may be either participles or gerunds—depending on their use in a sentence.

A gerund is always a noun.

Here are some gerunds functioning as subjects of verbs:

The *going* is rough.
His *coming* was unexpected.

Spending is going on at a terrific rate.
Having money is nice.
Knowing Betty Grable is nicer.

Here is a gerund which is a predicate nominative:

Seeing is *believing*.

Here are some gerunds which are objects of verbs:

I enjoy *working*.
I like *swimming*.
I hate *rowing*.

And here are gerunds functioning as objects of prepositions:

We do not believe in *growing* old.
The work consists of *washing* and *ironing*.

As you can see, a gerund fulfills the same functions as does a noun: subject of a verb, object of a verb, predicate nominative, or object of a preposition. Since a gerund fulfills the functions of a noun, it is a noun, despite its very definite verbal force.

A participle is always an adjective, with a single exception to be noted shortly:

Seeing me, he turned pale.
Going home, she met a wolf.
I saw her *coming* down the street.
Spending at this rate, you will soon be broke.
Knowing Betty Grable, he envied Harry James.

The exception to the rule that a participle is always an adjective: A present participle may be part of a verb phrase, as in the progressive tenses:

He is *seeing* a play.
He was *going* home.
He will be *coming* in later.
He has been *spending* his capital.

Or a perfect participle may be part of a verb phrase in a perfect tense:

He has *had* a cold.
He had *known* her years ago.
He would have *been* insulted by your remark.

When the participle is part of a verb phrase, it is, of course, a true verb, not a verbal. So when the term "participle" is used, reference is usually made to the adjectival, not the verbal, use of the participle—that is, to the verbal, not to the verb.

Since a participle is an adjective, it must modify a noun. That is a characteristic of adjectives you must constantly keep in mind—they modify nouns (or pronouns, of course, the latter being substitute nouns). Interrogative adjectives, descriptive adjectives, indefinite adjectives, numerical adjectives, participial adjectives—they all, without exception, modify nouns or pronouns.

Let us see how this works out.

In the five participles illustrated above (*Seeing* me, he turned pale, etc.):

seeing modifies *he*,
going modifies *she*,
coming modifies *her*,
spending modifies *you*,
knowing modifies *he*.

Or consider this sentence:

Walking down Liberty Avenue, the oldest section of New Rochelle, you will suddenly come upon a row of small,

compact, new homes, incongruously surrounded by ancient and rambling mansions built not long after the Huguenots landed.

This sentence, despite its length, has only one true verb—*will come;* and one subject—*you.*

However, it boasts three participles—*walking, surrounded, built.*

There is, of course, a considerable amount of verbal force in *walking, surrounded,* and *built;* for participles, like all verbals, have verbal force.

But *walking, surrounded,* and *built* are not verbs—not in this particular sentence. They are adjectives.

If the sentence read, "He was walking down Liberty Avenue," *walking* would be a verb, or part of one.

If the sentence read, "The new houses were surrounded by old ones," *surrounded* would be a verb, or part of one.

If the sentence read, "The old houses were built by the Huguenots," *built* would be a verb, or part of one.

But as the sentence read originally, *walking, surrounded,* and *built* are all participial adjectives. *Walking* modifies *you, surrounded* modifies *homes, built* modifies *mansions.*

If you wish to get on friendly terms with participles, you must learn to appreciate this clear-cut distinction between the verbals *walking, surrounded, built,* and the verbs *walking, surrounded, built.*

Further illustrations may help to make the distinction clear:

VERBS	VERBALS (PARTICIPLES)
She was *walking* in her sleep.	*Walking* in her sleep, she fell out of the window.
The soldiers *surrounded* the fort.	The fort, *surrounded* by the soldiers, had no choice but to surrender.
The fort was *surrounded.*	
The house was *built* in 1946.	*Built* in 1946, the house is completely modern.
She was *lying* awake.	*Lying* awake, she worried about money.

VERBS	VERBALS (PARTICIPLES)
She was *worrying*.	She lay awake, *worrying*.
The words have been *spoken*.	These words, *spoken* softly, can be very effective.

To make sure that you are developing the ability to determine when a participle is a participle, and not a true verb, try your hand at the following exercise.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 49*

Directions: Label the italicized words in each sentence as either verbs or participles:

1. Time once *lost* (*a*) is impossible to regain. *a*.....
2. Money which is hard come by is usually not *spent* (*b*) foolishly. *b*.....
3. Money easily *earned* (*c*) is often *spent* (*d*) foolishly. *c*..... *d*.....
4. *Working* (*e*) hard all day, he *forgot* (*f*) to have lunch. *e*..... *f*.....
5. He was *working* (*g*) hard all day and completely *forgot* (*h*) about eating. *g*..... *h*.....
6. His lunch *forgotten* (*i*), he went right on with his work, *trying* (*j*) to finish before nighttime. *i*..... *j*.....
7. "*Getting* (*k*) and *spending* (*l*), we lay waste our powers." *k*..... *l*.....
8. She was *spending* (*m*) it as fast as her husband was *earning* (*n*) it. *m*..... *n*.....

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 49*

a. participle	*f*. verb	*k*. participle
b. verb	*g*. verb	*l*. participle
c. participle	*h*. verb	*m*. verb
d. verb	*i*. participle	*n*. verb
e. participle	*j*. participle	

If you made a perfect or near perfect score, you're ready to go on to learn how participles dangle.

(If your score was low, study the answers carefully, trying to get the "feel" of participles.)

As we have said, participles are adjectives.

And adjectives modify nouns or pronouns.

Let us list at this point the sentences we have been working with and determine which noun or pronoun each participle modifies.

1. *Walking* in her sleep, she fell out of the window.

Participles have the force of verbs, though they are not true verbs—hence you will find an implied action in each participle. Determine to whom, or to what, that action applies, and you have the noun or pronoun which the participle modifies. In this sentence, the action of walking applies to *she*—she was doing the walking when she fell out of the window. The participle *walking* modifies the pronoun *she*.

2. The fort, *surrounded* by the soldiers, had no choice but to surrender.

Be careful here. What is described as *surrounded?* Not the soldiers, who are responsible for the action of *surrounding;* but the *fort,* which was *surrounded.* The participle *surrounded* modifies the noun *fort.*

3. *Built* in 1946, the house is completely modern.

Built modifies .....?

What is described as *built?* The house. *Built* modifies *house.*

4. *Lying* awake, she worried about money.

Lying modifies .....? The answer will be found at the foot of the page.

4. she

5. She lay awake, *worrying.*

Worrying modifies .....?

6. These words, *spoken* softly, can be very effective.

Spoken modifies .....?

7. *Walking* down Liberty Avenue, the oldest section of New Rochelle, you will suddenly come upon a row of small, compact, new homes, incongruously *surrounded* by ancient and rambling mansions *built* not long after the Huguenots landed.

a. *Walking* modifies .....?
b. *Surrounded* modifies .....?
c. *Built* modifies .....?

The noun or pronoun which a participle modifies is called the *antecedent* of the participle. This is, I admit, an illogical term, as so many grammatical terms are. *Antecedent* strictly means *coming before*—yet in many sentences, as you have noticed, the *antecedent* follows the participle. Nevertheless it is an antecedent—and every participle must have one.

Participles which are found in sentences without the benefit of antecedents are as illegitimate as children born of parents who are "married" without the benefit of law. You know the name applied to such illegitimate children —illegitimate participles are called "dangling participles."

Here is an example:

Listening to the radio, my car went right through the stop sign.

The meaning, on a little analysis, is clear enough. I was listening to the radio and not paying too much attention to the road, so I drove my car right through a stop sign.

5. she
6. words
7*a.* you
7*b.* homes
7*c.* mansions

That is the implication of the sentence, looked at from any sane point of view. However, insane as this may sound, the sentence as it is now worded claims that my car was listening to the radio, for *car* is the only logical noun in the sentence which the participle can modify. Since the word to which the action of the participle is intended to apply (namely *I*) is unexpressed, the participle is said to be dangling—the noun to which it is anchored in logic is missing. There is no support—the participle dangles. To eliminate the dangle, we might reword the sentence somewhat as follows:

While I was listening to the radio, my car went right through the stop sign.

Here are some further examples of dangling participles:

Coming out of my house, a horse ran over a child.
Was the horse coming out of my house? Correctly revised:
Coming out of my house, I saw a horse run over a child.

Looking far and wide, only trees can be seen.
Were the trees looking far and wide? Correctly revised:
Looking far and wide, one can only see trees.

Born in the summer, his mother did not have to buy warm clothes for him.
Who was born in the summer—his mother? Correctly revised:
Since he was born in the summer, his mother did not have to buy warm clothes for him.

Running down the street as fast as he could, the cop nevertheless caught him.
Who was running—the cop? Correctly revised:
Running down the street as fast as he could, he was nevertheless caught by the cop.

Having finished the dishes, the front door bell rang.

Who finished the dishes—the front door bell? Correctly revised:

After she had finished the dishes, the front door bell rang.

Working hard, the time sped by.

Was time working hard? Correctly revised:

As he was working hard, time sped by.

Driving through New Rochelle, many fine homes can be seen.

Are fine homes driving through New Rochelle? Try your hand at revising this sentence.

Standing on his feet all day, corns and calluses soon resulted.

What makes the participle dangle? How would you revise the wording?

Believing in Japan's integrity, Pearl Harbor came as a shock to him.

Where's the dangle? How would you revise?

Having been dried out by lack of rain, the gardener could not make the grass grow again.

Revise the sentence so that it sounds sane.

Illegitimate children can be useful and law-abiding citizens—but society frowns upon them. Similarly, sentences with dangling participles may be clear enough in meaning if some attention is given to an analysis of the probable intention of the speaker or writer. But since there is always a certain vagueness and ambiguity in a sentence with a dangling participle, such sentences are considered stylistically inferior and grammatically objectionable. Good writers, careful speakers, frown upon the use of a dangling participle.

3. The Rule

The logical antecedent of a participle should be expressed in a sentence, and should occur in such a place within the sentence that there can be no possible doubt as to the connection between participle and antecedent. In other words, avoid dangling participles.

as easy as A B C

XXI

A. What is the difference between *beside* and *besides?*
B. Is it correct to say, "I feel *badly*"?
C. Which is preferable: "She is one of those women who *run their husbands* ragged," or "She is one of those women who *runs her husband* ragged"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Beside, Besides

You sit *beside* a babbling brook, as the poets would say.

You sit *beside* your wife; she sits *beside* you.

The meaning of *beside* (without the *s*) is thus clear enough: *next to, along side of, at the side of.*

You are wealthy, young, handsome, a spirited conversationalist and skillful dancer. *Besides,* you are unmarried. Do you wonder that the single girls find you irresistible?

No, you claim, you have not been invited to her party; and *besides,* you wouldn't go even if you were invited!

Besides (with the *s*) obviously means *in addition, moreover, also, what's more.*

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 50*

1. She was sitting (beside, besides) her aunt.
2. They walked (beside, besides) each other in silence.
3. (Beside, Besides) chocolate, you will also need a second flavoring in the cake.
4. He is ill, unhappy, and irritable; (beside, besides,) he is too old for you.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 50*

1. beside 2. beside 3. besides 4. besides

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I feel *badly*.

Although no one in his right mind ever says "I feel sadly," "I feel happily," or "I feel uselessly," the adverbial sounding form *badly* is often heard, from educated people, after the verb *feel,* generally with the sense of mental distress, thus:

He feels *badly* about their misfortune.
He felt *badly* when he heard of your loss.

Occasionally, *badly* is also used in reference to health, as in:

I feel *badly* this morning; I believe I need a strong laxative.

According to strict grammatical principles, the adjective *bad* should always be used after the verb *feel,* since *feel* is a copulative verb, and is equivalent in meaning and use to the copulative verb *be.* Copulative verbs regularly require predicate adjectives, not adverbs, as "He is *strong*" (not *strongly*); "The flower smells *sweet*" (not *sweetly*); "The soup tastes *bad*" (not *badly*). However, to feel *badly* is an accepted, current, idiom in American speech, and when *badly* is thus used, it becomes an adjective, despite its apparently adverbial ending. Perhaps one reason for the affection that many speakers have for *feel badly* is that *feel bad* seems to imply wickedness or naughtiness.

PRO AND CON

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "Don't feel *badly* about his death" is correct, idiomatic English,

established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. I have often used "badly" in this sense—and also find myself occasionally saying "Don't feel too *bad* about this." Constant idiomatic usage of words takes precedence with most people, in my opinion, over stern, unyielding grammatical dictates. It's so much better that way too. Close adherence to the book of rules makes for stuffy, stilted speech.

—Louis Sobol

Mr. Sobol is a columnist on the New York *Journal-American.*

Pro (with reservations)

I use the expression "Don't feel *badly* about his death." I believe it is incorrect but it is like a good many expressions in common speech; we use the incorrect expression so as not to appear to be awkwardly correct.

—Walter A. Knittle

Professor Knittle was, before his death, director of the Adult Education Department of the College of the City of New York.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

She is one of those women who *run their husbands* ragged, *or*
She is one of those women who *runs her husband* ragged?

Who, as we have already discovered, agrees with its antecedent in number. In this sentence, *who* is plural because

its antecedent *women* is plural, and therefore takes plural forms. *One* is not the antecedent of *who;* antecedents are usually located in geographical proximity to the relative pronoun.

If you wish to look at it logically instead of grammatically, you analyze it as follows:

She is one of those women.
What women?
Those women who run their husbands ragged.

PREFERABLE FORMS:

She is one of those women who *run their husbands* ragged.
He is one of those authors who *turn* out a new book every year—each one worse than the preceding one.
It is one of those books which *are* very easy to read.
It is one of those things which *drive* people crazy.
He is one of those people who *are* never satisfied.
Are you one of those lucky ones who always *get* a seat on the Long Island Railroad?

chapter 24 HOW TO BE ILLITERATE

1. The Problem

What is wrong with the grammar of "Don't do nothing I wouldn't do"?

2. The Solution

The grammar of our language is not a body of divinely inspired rules.

We are dealing, when we venture into the confines of English grammar, with no set of immutable laws, with no absolute distinctions.

Grammar is not like mathematics.

In arithmetic, one and one is two;[1] in geometry, the sum of the squares of the arms of a right triangle equals the square of the hypotenuse;[2] in algebra, $(a - b)\ (a + b)$ equals $a^2 - b^2$. These are facts which no one in his right mind would care to argue. They have been demonstrated to be true and are accepted the wide world over. There is simply no ignoring or changing them.

Grammar is not like the natural sciences.

In physics, a body falls *down*—no human power has any influence on the law of gravity; in chemistry, water freezes at 32° Fahrenheit and boils at 212° Fahrenheit, whether we like it or not; and in biology, the one-celled amoeba reproduces by a process called binary fission.

These are all incontrovertible facts; they were true thousands of years before man discovered them and they

[1] Or, of course, one and one *are* two.

[2] If you are not familiar with this interesting geometric law, just take my word for it. High school sophomores struggle with it under the formidable name of "the Pythagorean theorem."

will continue to be true as long as the earth turns. Exact sciences like mathematics, physics, chemistry, and biology are thus seen to be comparatively dull and static, unlike grammar, in which there is constant change.

Grammar deals with one of the higher activities of human beings (the translation of thoughts into words) and is as dynamic, as unreliable, and as unpredictable as human beings themselves.

When you deal with a study (like grammar or history or semantics or psychology) which is deeply involved with the human equation you will be wise to expect no exact laws, you will do best if you look askance at all arbitrary and unqualified conclusions, you will be safe only if you maintain an open mind and an attitude of alert skepticism.

English grammar, as a science, attempts to make an accurate record of what people say and write, of how they phrase their thinking into sentence patterns. Just as chemistry and physics and biology study and record the phenomena of nature, so grammar analyzes the phenomena of human communication.

The grammar of a living language takes note of any usages that have currency. Thus an expression is part of English grammar if it is used by a considerable number of people whose native language is English.

For example, "Go you to the school?" is not part of English grammar. It is neither good grammar nor bad grammar, neither right nor wrong, neither correct nor incorrect, neither acceptable nor unacceptable—it is simply nonexistent. No considerable number of people who speak English as a native tongue ever phrase their thought into such a pattern as "Go you to the school?" although such is the phrasing in French (*Allez-vous à l'école?*).

But if we examine a pattern like "Don't do nothing I wouldn't do," we are forced to admit that such a usage is indeed part of English grammar. Hundreds of thousands of persons whose native language is English would so phrase the thought. We call such a pattern *the double negative,* since negation is expressed both by the adverb *not*

(in the contraction *don't*) and again in the indefinite pronoun *nothing*.

The double negative is widely used in English. "No, I won't go" is a double negative of whose grammatical standing there is no question. "I didn't see it nowhere," "I can't wait no more," and "I ain't done nothing" are, on the other hand, often called "incorrect" grammar.

But why? What makes a pattern correct or incorrect?

Is the double negative an integral part of the English language—that is, does it have currency? In a certain type of speech it has the widest sort of currency; indeed, it supersedes any other way of expressing the same idea.

Does the double negative express a thought without confusion or ambiguity—that is, is it clear?

Most elementary-school teachers attack the usage on the grounds that it is unclear because it is illogical. Two negatives, they claim, make an affirmative. If you say "I didn't do nothing" you mean "I did something," for if you did *not* do *nothing,* you must have done something. Tommyrot! An expression means exactly what the person who hears that expression understands it to mean. When someone says to you, "I didn't do nothing," you have a very poor grasp of the English language if you understand him to mean that he did *something.* If a person "didn't go nowhere" he stayed home; if he "didn't eat no candy" he avoided the candy box.

Now in certain instances in which a speaker intends two negatives to signify an affirmative, they do indeed have such a significance to a listener. If a speaker says "It is *not im*possible" he means, obviously, that it *is* possible. If you accuse your wife of letting the lamb stew burn by doing nothing to stop it from burning you might say: "But you did nothing while it burned!" And your spouse, in justifiable anger, might answer: "I did *not* do *nothing*—I kept stirring it all the time!" Here indeed are two negatives which make an affirmative because your wife intends them to have a very decided affirmative meaning, and not because there is a grammatical law to that effect.

To attack the double negative because it seems, on analy-

sis, to be illogical, is to show no appreciation whatever of the frequent illogic of language in general and of English in particular. Many expressions to which the most puristic of schoolmarms would have no grammatical objections are fantastically illogical if you descend to analyzing them. Is it logical to say "We will take the trolley home" when we really mean that we will let the trolley take us home? Is "She swept the room with her eyes" logical? Or "He holds my religion against me"? Or "He jumped down my throat when I said that"? Expressions can be grammatical and correct (and often picturesque) without having even a bowing acquaintance with logic.

"Don't do nothing I wouldn't do" is called "incorrect" because *such a grammatical pattern is not customarily used by educated people.*

Common usage among educated speakers is the sole yardstick by which correctness in grammar is judged. "Laws of grammar" by themselves have no validity unless they are based on educated custom, usage, habit, convention. As convention in language changes (and it often does), the "laws" change also. In this connection it is, I think, most interesting to note that the double negative—with a negative meaning—was "correct" during the time of Shakespeare—people of cultivation then used it freely.

The kind of double negative which our chapter problem illustrates is one of the customary grammar patterns on the lowest, or basement, level of American speech—a level usually called "illiterate," a not very felicitous description since many of the users of this level of language can certainly read and write, even though they do not subscribe to *Harper's* and *The Atlantic Monthly* nor buy *The New York Times* on their way to work in the morning.

Customary as is the double negative (of the type illustrated in the chapter-problem) on the lowest level of American speech, so is it rare to the point of nonexistence on any higher level of speech. Never in reputable writing, almost never in the speech habits of people of the slightest linguistic sophistication, is such a type of double negative found.

And that is the reason why the double negative—of the type referred to—is "incorrect"; it is used almost exclusively on the lowest level of language.

Patterns which are *exclusively* found on the basement level of grammar are incorrect on any other level—and since grammar itself is generally viewed from the educated level, illiterate patterns are usually, but loosely, called ungrammatical, though they are perfectly grammatical (because they are current and normal) on their own level.

Why are people of little linguistic sophistication so addicted to the "incorrect" type of double negative? One of the principles operative in illiterate speech is *emphasis by repetition*. The speaker is not sure, probably subconsciously rather than consciously, that *I see none* can sufficiently impress a listener with its negative force. So he emphasizes the negative force by making the verb as well as the pronoun negative—"I don't see none." He stresses the negative implication of *hardly* and *scarcely* by combining them (quite unnecessarily, according to the educated speaker) with negative verbs: "I couldn't scarcely believe my ears"; "I can't hardly hear him." To his mind, *from* is not sufficiently emphatic; he prefers *off of:* "He took the pen off of me"; "We got the money off of him."

The demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* are too weak; he reinforces them with the locational adverbs *here* and *there: this here man, that there woman. Regardless* he intensifies by adding a negative prefix to the already adequate negative suffix: *irregardless*. By the same principle, *equally good* becomes *equally as good*, and adjectives are made comparative both fore and aft: *more slower, more quicker, more happier, more better.*

This first principle of illiterate speech—emphasis by repetition—is evident not only in grammatical patterns but also in phraseology; the basement-level speaker frequently iterates an idea and then immediately reiterates the very same idea in slightly different words. He is not quite sure you will understand him until he has said a thing at least twice.

The second principle of illiterate speech is either *an intellectual inability or an instinctive unwillingness to make certain distinctions.*

For example, when the present tense of the verbs *do* and *be* are negative, the "illiterate" speaker fails (or perhaps refuses) to distinguish among the variant forms for different subjects. Although he will use the affirmative of these verbs correctly (I *do;* you *do;* he, she, it *does;* we, they *do* —I *am;* he, she, it *is;* you, we, they *are*), he has a single negative form for all subjects, namely *don't* and *ain't:*

I don't	it don't	I ain't	it ain't
you don't	we don't	you ain't	we ain't
he don't	they don't	he ain't	they ain't
she don't		she ain't	

Now if you view this phenomenon objectively, you will admit that a single negative form for all subjects is sensible, economical, and perfectly clear, but—and this is the important point—it is customary only on the illiterate level. So, by that criterion, it is "wrong."

Similarly, the unsophisticated speaker usually uses the single comprehensive verb *was* for all subjects in the past tense, both affirmative and negative:

I was	I wasn't
you was	you wasn't
he, she, it was	he, she, it wasn't
we was	we wasn't
they was	they wasn't

In educated patterns of grammar, the possessive pronoun is used to combine with the suffix *-self* (myself, yourself, yourselves, ourselves) except in the third person, in which the objective pronoun is substituted (himself, herself, themselves). But in illiterate grammar, the possessive is used throughout: myself, yourself, hisself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, theirselves.

Again, in educated patterns, *learn* and *teach, lay* and *lie, good* and *well, invite* and *invitation, leave* and *let, owe* and *own, these* and *them* are carefully and unquestioningly distinguished. In illiterate patterns, on the contrary, one of each of these pairs of words is entirely discarded and the other expresses the meaning of both. The unsophisticated speaker relies exclusively on *learn, lay, good, invite, leave, own* and *them*. He will say:

I learn grammar, *and* Can you learn me grammar?
I lay my clothes away, *and* I am laying down for a nap.
I am good, *and* I see good.
I invite him, *and* I received an invite.
I'll leave you now, *and* Leave me go.
I own that car, *and* I'll own you five dollars.
I see them, *and* I see them books.

The linguistically immature person is somewhat baffled by the use of the apostrophe, and so to play safe generally puts it where it is not required, substituting *who's* for *whose, it's* for *its*, and even *boy's* for the simple plural *boys*. Inconsistently, on the other hand (and inconsistency is another characteristic of illiterate grammar), he will omit the apostrophe in verbal contractions, writing *dont, doesnt* (or, more likely, *dosent*), *wont*, etc.

Now on any level above the illiterate, the distinctions here discussed are universally honored.

To wit:

I learn grammar, *but* Someone teaches me grammar.
I lay my clothes away [transitive], *but* I am lying down for a nap [intransitive].
I am good [adjective], *but* I see well [adverb].
I invite him [verb], *but* I received an invitation [noun].
I'll leave you now [departure], *but* Let me go [allow].
I own that car, *but* I owe you five dollars.
I see them [pronoun], *but* I see those books [adjective].
Whose books [possessive], *but* Who's coming [contraction for *who is*].

Its paws [possessive], *but* It's raining [contraction for *it is*].

In illiterate grammar, the past participle of some verbs is used in place of the simple past, as in *I seen it, I done it;* inconsistently, the simple past of other verbs is used in place of the past participle, as in:

I have gave	*we have rang the bell*
I have went	*have you ran the water*
I have drank	*has she sang the song*
I have swam	*have you stole the money*
I have saw	*the car is broke*
it has broke	*the coat is tore*
I have ate	*have you spoke*
the bird has flew the coop	*I have wrote*
we have rode	

In most verbs, the past tense and the past participle are of course identical, but not in special irregular, or "strong," verbs. And the unsophisticated speaker does not make distinctions.

In a compound subject of which one part is a pronoun, the "illiterate" speaker invariably uses the objective case: "Me and John are going," or "Her and him ain't on speaking terms"; and when a pronoun is part of a compound object he uses the nominative case: "This is for he and I"; "This satisfies my partner and I." (Curiously enough, a kind of distinction is observed here, but directly opposite to the proper one.)

A third, somewhat minor, principle can be discovered in illiterate speech—*an inability to use the auxiliary "have" correctly. I should of* (or *I shoulda*) substitutes for *I should have; had ought* takes the place of *ought;* and *If I hadn't have done it* is used for *If I hadn't done it.*

A fourth and over-all principle in unsophisticated speech

is that *illiterate patterns are rarely found in isolation.* That is, the speaker habituated to one or two of the forms discussed is very likely to use a large number of them. Conversely, if some of these patterns are absent in a speaker's language, probably most of them are.

So, if you read the latter part of this chapter with a certain faint amusement and an increasing feeling of virtuousness (because the expressions described are foreign to your own speech habits) you are safe in skipping the rules and test which will follow shortly. However, if you felt a creeping sense of guilt as you read, and recognized as your own a number of the patterns illustrated, it is possible that —consciously or unconsciously—you have many habits of illiterate grammar, and if so, you would do well to practice quite painstakingly on the material which concludes this chapter.

3. The Rule

The following characteristic patterns of illiterate grammar should, by practice and thought, be avoided. Substitute the indicated educated pattern in each instance.

ILLITERATE PATTERNS	EDUCATED PATTERNS
Don't take *no* rubber nickels.	Don't take *any* rubber nickels.
She won't work *no* more.	She won't work *any* more.
I can't find it *nowhere.*	I can't find it *anywhere.*
It *ain't no* use.	It *isn't any* use.
We *can't* hardly finish on time.	We *can* hardly finish on time.
They *couldn't* scarcely earn enough to pay the rent.	They *could* scarcely earn enough to pay the rent.
He took my best coat *off of* me.	He took my best coat *from* me.
This here country	*This* country
That there attitude	*That* attitude
Irregardless	*Regardless*

ILLITERATE PATTERNS	EDUCATED PATTERNS
This here pen is *equally as good* as *that there* one.	*This* pen is *as good as that* one, *or* These two pens are equally good.
More slower	*Slower*
More better	*Better*
More quicker	*Quicker*
More safer	*Safer*
He *don't* live here *no* more.	He *doesn't* live here *any* more.
She *don't* do it *good.*	She *doesn't* do it *well.*
That there book *don't* make *no* sense.	*That* book *doesn't* make *any* sense.
It *don't* add up.	It *doesn't* add up.
You *ain't* going *nowhere.*	You *aren't* going *anywhere.*
I *ain't* talking.	*I'm not* talking.
It *ain't* right.	It *isn't* right.
You *wasn't* doing it right.	You *weren't* doing it right.
We *was* here on time.	We *were* here on time.
They *was* my buddies.	They *were* my buddies.
They *wasn't* listening.	They *weren't* listening.
We *wasn't* paid for today.	We *weren't* paid for today.
Was you there?	*Were* you there?
He can take care of *hisself.*	He can take care of *himself.*
They can take care of *theirselves.*	They can take care of *themselves.*
Can you *learn* me how to skate?	Can you *teach* me how to skate?
Lay down	*Lie* down
I didn't get *no invite* to the party.	I didn't get *an invitation* to the party.
I *own* him a dollar.	I *owe* him a dollar.
Them there books *ain't no* good.	*Those* books *aren't any* good.
The man *who's* wife	The man *whose* wife
It hurt *it's* foot.	It hurt *its* foot.
I *seen* it.	I *saw* it.
I *done* it.	I *did* it.

ILLITERATE PATTERNS	EDUCATED PATTERNS
I *have gave*	I *have given*
I *have went*	I *have gone*
I *have drank*	I *have drunk*
I *have swam*	I *have swum*
I *have saw*	I *have seen*
It *has broke*	It *has broken*
I *have ate* (*et*).	I *have eaten.*
The bird *has flew*	The bird *has flown*
We *have rode*	We *have ridden*
We *have rang*	We *have rung*
Have you *ran*	*Have* you *run*
She *has* already *sang.*	She *has* already *sung.*
Have you *stole* . . . ?	*Have* you *stolen* . . . ?
The car is *broke.*	The car *is broken.*
The coat is *tore.*	The coat is *torn.*
You *have spoke*	You have *spoken*
I *have wrote*	I have *written*
Me and you are through.	*You and I* are through.
Send my wife and *I* a copy.	Send my wife and *me* a copy.
I should *of* went.	I should *have* gone.
You *hadn't ought to of* done that.	You *ought not to have* done that.
If I *hadn't have* seen it	If I *hadn't* seen it

A SPECIAL WORD

To readers who believe they habitually use some of the illiterate expressions recorded above:

Illiterate patterns, as you have seen, are so basic and involve expressions which occur so frequently in a normal day's conversation that you will need to develop a superconsciousness of your faults before you can hope for any success in eliminating them from your speech.

I tried an interesting experiment recently with a group of four students who had some of the typical illiterate grammar patterns, most conspicuous of which were the double negative and the substitution of *don't* for *doesn't* (as in

He don't). To achieve as nearly unacademic an atmosphere as possible, we went out for some coffee after class one evening, and I explained that I was interested in determining whether the double negative and the substitution of *don't* for *doesn't* could be eliminated from their speech patterns by means of a few weeks of practice. They expressed the greatest willingness to co-operate, and we discussed the possible methods of exorcising these two errors. We decided, finally, to try sheer will power as a first method. For the remainder of our conversation—which dealt, of course, with nongrammatical subjects—my students were embarrassingly self-conscious, fearful that they would inadvertently double their negatives or use the improper form of the verb *do*. A few times they fell into error but immediately corrected themselves.

Next week, we again stopped for some after-class refreshment. I purposely avoided the subject of grammar, and we shortly fell into a spirited political discussion. Not at all to my surprise, negatives were doubled and *don't* was used with third person singular subjects. Later on, I asked my students how they were getting along with their use of will power to eliminate the two errors which we had discussed the previous week. They assured me without hesitation that the method was working to perfection!

So for our third meeting over the coffee cups I brought with me eight index cards on each of which I had typed two phrases, thus:

DOESN'T
HE ~~DON'T~~ WORK HERE

ANY
I DON'T SEE IT ~~NO~~ MORE

I asked each of my students to take two cards, place one in his wallet right next to his money, and paste the other on the top of his bathroom mirror so that he would not fail to see it when he shaved in the morning.

By these means, I insured that my students would be reminded several times each day that they were trying to rid themselves of certain errors in their speech. They knew what the errors were and how to correct them, and the sight of the card in the early morning and again each time they extracted a bill from their wallets was enough to keep the subject on the conscious level of their minds.

The following week I was gratified to note, during the conversation over coffee, that *doesn't* had largely superseded *don't* with a third person singular subject, and that the double negative had become conspicuously rare.

The first step in eliminating an error in grammar that has become habitual with you is the conscious recognition that the error exists in your speech. Do you believe that you are addicted to some of the violations tabulated in the charts on pages 318-320. Check the ones you think you make most frequently. Take, then, the next step in eliminating habitual errors—invent some means to keep the error in your conscious mind. The card method worked for my four students—it may work for you. Or you may devise some other method more applicable to your way of living. In any case, a few days of superconsciousness of the existence of the error in your speech should serve to eradicate it.

4. The Test

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 51*

1. I can't (ever, never) get along with your brother.
2. She (isn't, ain't) working here (any, no) more.
3. We (have, haven't) hardly begun to fight.
4. He took my pencil (from, off of) me.
5. I like (this, this here) car better.
6. You must finish your work (regardless, irregardless).

7. (That, That there) way of talking (isn't, ain't) going to get you (anywhere, nowhere).
8. If you get the brakes adjusted, you'll be (safer, more safer).
9. He (don't, doesn't) work (well, good).
10. You (weren't, wasn't) even listening to me!
11. He has to get hold of (himself, hisself).
12. Please (teach, learn) me how to read faster.
13. (Lay, Lie) down for a few minutes.
14. I hope I get an (invite, invitation) to the dance.
15. You (own, owe) me ten cents.
16. (Them, Those) people are always making trouble.
17. Is your coat (tore, torn)?
18. The light is (broke, broken) again.
19. His money was (stole, stolen).
20. You and (me, I) are good friends, (ain't, aren't) we?
21. I wish you'd invite (he, him) and Dorothy to the party.
22. (Them, They) and (us, we) can't get along (no, any) more.
23. (Leave, Let) us go.
24. You should (of, have) seen her.
25. Have you (et, ate, eaten)?

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 51*

1. ever
2. isn't, any
3. have
4. from
5. this
6. regardless
7. that, isn't, anywhere
8. safer
9. doesn't, well
10. weren't
11. himself
12. teach
13. lie
14. invitation
15. owe
16. those
17. torn
18. broken
19. stolen
20. I, aren't
21. him
22. they, we, any
23. let
24. have
25. eaten

as easy as A B C

XXII

A. What is the difference between *council* and *counsel?*

B. Is it correct to say, "I *only* see him once a week"?

C. Which is preferable: "It is I who *am* tired," or "It is I who *is* tired"?

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Council, Counsel

These two words, identical in pronunciation, are naturally confusing. The distinction is as follows:

A *council* is a group of men (or women, or some of each), as a legislative council, The National Council of Teachers of English. A *councilor* is, of course, a member of a council.

Counsel, on the other hand, means either advice or an attorney (or group of attorneys). An attorney is also called a *counselor,* as is any person who gives advice (personal relations counselor).

Counsel may be used as a verb, meaning to advise. *Council,* however, does not ever function as a verb; it is only a noun.

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

I *only* see him once a week.

Logically, you mean that you see him *only* once a week, and it is on the basis of its illogicality that many texts warn

against placing *only* before the verb, contending that if you only *see* him once a week, you do not *hear, feel, smell,* or *taste* him.

Such hair-splitting is of course unadulterated tommyrot. Nobody but a professional "schoolmarm" would misunderstand you (and she would do so deliberately), if you say "I only go there on Sundays," "We only eat meat twice a month," or "I only wish I had your luck."

Professor Porter G. Perrin, of the University of Washington, reports in his *Writer's Guide and Index to English:* "The importance of the position of *only* has been greatly exaggerated. . . . Placing *only* before the verb is a characteristic and reputable English idiom." Professor Perrin then quotes from Ernest Hemingway and Bertrand Russell to show that the use of *only* before the verb is well established in writing. The truth is, of course, that in ordinary, informal speech, *only* is naturally placed before the verb by all educated speakers.

PRO AND CON

Pro

Certainly they don't spend very much time with the members of their unions or with the members of other unions. In fact, I have become convinced that they must *only* associate with each other.

—Howard Lindsay

Mr. Lindsay is coauthor of the Broadway stage hit *State of the Union,* and star of *Life with Father.* This excerpt, like the one on page 213, is from a guest column Mr. Lindsay wrote for the New York *Post.*

Pro

Quinidine, one of the derivatives of cinchona, could *only* be prescribed in small amounts for certain types of cardiac

patients for whom the drug was an essential therapy, and often necessary to preserve the lives of these patients. No raw cinchona has yet come out of the East Indies since the war.

—Editorial columns of *The New York Times*

Pro

Albert E. Koonz, of 1650 Bogart Avenue, the Bronx, a mechanical dentist, also got 100%, but, since he included fewer details, he will *only* receive the bronze medal for second place.

—*The New York Times,* July 21, 1947

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "He *only* has ten cents left" (position of *only*) is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con

A. It doesn't mean that I am right, of course, but I would say "He has only ten cents" because the *only* seems to me to refer to the *ten cents* and not to the *has*. I think you want to lessen the ten cents rather than the verb.

—Lillian Hellman

Miss Hellman is the noted playwright, author of *The Little Foxes, Watch on the Rhine,* and other Broadway successes.

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "He only spoke once" (position of *only*) is correct, idiomatic English established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Con

A. Yes, I would say "He only spoke once"—if he were the *only* one who spoke. But if I wanted to convey the idea that he spoke *only* once (just one time) then I'd say "He spoke *only* once."

However, I intend to start a League Against Split Infinitives, regardless of the current vogue for them, so I may be just a fuss-pot! Or maybe that eighth grade English teacher I had really scared me for keeps.

—Marian Young

Marian Young conducts the Martha Deane program over WOR and the Mutual network.

Pro

"I *only* have one company," Hughes began, then checked himself with a laugh. "I guess I have more than one, at that."

—Earl Wilson, New York *Post* columnist, reporting an interview with Howard Hughes, millionaire moving-picture producer and airplane manufacturer.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

It is I who *am* tired, *or*
It is I who *is* tired?

The relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number and person. In this sentence, *I* is the antecedent of *who*. Since *I* is first person singular, *who* is also first person singular, and takes a first person singular verb, *am*.

Note in each of the following sentences how the antecedent of the relative pronoun indirectly governs the verb of which *who* is the subject:

You can't speak that way to me, who know more about you than you do yourself.

It was not she who was to blame, but her husband.

It is I who have made the error.

I am the one who has made the error.

It is they who have caused all the trouble.

It is they who are lonely.

It is I who am lonely.

PREFERABLE FORM:

It is I who am tired.

chapter 25 HOW TO TALK LIKE A HUMAN BEING

You have to come to terms with grammar.

You have to bear in mind that the rules of grammar are not the revealed word of God. The various and numerous "thou shalt nots" with which many speech manuals scare the daylights out of their readers are not divine commandments, nor are infractions of such "laws" punishable by fines of $10,000 or two years in jail, or both. Nor even by social ostracism, as the speech manuals intimate.

You can—take my word for it—lead a normal, happy life even if you do not faithfully follow the austere restrictions of pedantic or puristic grammar. Indeed, the chances for living such a happy, normal life are far better if you relax and use, whenever the occasion demands or the mood suits, some or all of the expressions on which purists and precisians frown.

In my adult classes at New York University, many of my pupils are confused, and a few are shocked, when they learn that the idioms for which their high school teachers rapped their knuckles or slapped their wrists (but which they and their friends always use anyway) are perfectly correct, acceptable, standard English.

What idioms, for instance?

Some of them have already been covered under the rambling section called "The Grammar of Allowable 'Errors' ":

He *got* sick. (Outmoded restriction: He *became ill.*)

Don't get *mad* if I tell the truth. (Outmoded restriction: Don't *become angry* if . . .)

I'll come *providing* you let me. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *provided*. . . .)

The reason I love you is *because* you are so pretty.) (Outmoded restriction: . . . *that* . . .)

Can I have a piece of cake? (Outmoded restriction: *May* . . .)

That dress is different *than* mine. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *from* . . .)

It's a *nice* day. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *pleasant* . . .)

He is not *as* tall as he looks. (Outmoded restriction: After a negative verb, use *so*.)

She was most *aggravated*. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *exasperated*.)

It's *liable* to rain. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *likely* . . .)

The *above* remarks . . . (Outmoded restriction: *Above* is only an adverb.)

Have you *got* my book? (Outmoded restriction: *Have* you my book?)

Due to the telephone strike . . . (Outmoded restriction: *Owing to*, or *because of* . . .)

Everybody stood up and shouted at the top of *their* lungs. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *his* lungs.)

I *will* write to him tonight. (Outmoded restriction: I *shall* write . . .)

I *would* like to see you tonight. (Outmoded restriction: I *should* like . . .)

He had an *awful* cold. (Outmoded restriction: . . . a *severe* cold . . .)

I feel *badly* about his death. (Outmoded restriction: I feel *bad* . . .)

Go *slow*. Come *quick*. (Outmoded restriction: Go *slowly*. Come *quickly*.)

I *only* see him once a week. (Outmoded restriction: I see him *only* once a week.)

The restrictions listed are unrealistic. The grammar of any language is founded upon the current and reputable use of that language by its educated speakers. And if you will keep your ears wide open you will hear educated people saying *mad* (meaning *angry*); *nice* (meaning *pleasant*); *awful* (meaning *severe*); and *aggravating* (meaning *exas-*

perating). You will hear them saying *different than* and *have you got*. And you will see, in reputable books, magazines and newspapers, *liable, above, further, due to,* and similar "errors" in the very type of sentence patterns railed against by the speech manuals.

Is such a liberal attitude toward grammar accepted by the schools of the country? That depends partly on the school, partly on the community, and very largely on the individual teacher. There are conservatives and reactionaries in teaching and in grammar just as there are in politics. Many teachers prefer to teach only what they themselves were taught—no more and no less—whether such teaching is in accord with the latest findings of educational researchers or not; whether such teaching is realistic and honest and sensible, or not.

And what are the latest findings of educational researchers?

In 1932, a professor at the University of Wisconsin, Dr. Sterling Andrus Leonard, set out to discover, scientifically, the standing of some of the expressions deplored by purists.

Under the sponsorship of the National Council of Teachers of English, he set about obtaining what he called a "consensus of expert opinion" about controversial questions of grammatical usage. Selecting 230 expressions "of whose standing there might be some question," he mailed a questionnaire to 231 judges. These judges were:

30 linguistic specialists
30 well-known editors
22 established authors
19 business executives
50 college teachers of English
50 high school teachers of English
30 speech teachers

These experts, who represented a diverse and very capable cross section of American life, were asked to indicate what, to their minds, was the standing of each of the controversial expressions. "Score, please," they were told,

"according to your observation of what is actual usage rather than your opinion of what usage should be."

Here, then, was a wonderful test of American usage—a true laboratory test to be freed, theoretically, of subjective reactions and ethical considerations. Obviously, Dr. Leonard was totally uninterested in what grammar books preached about correct usage or what the judges thought *ought* to be correct usage. His one concern was to discover what the majority of educated American speakers and writers were actually doing with their language.

The results of this questionnaire are most interesting.[1] Thirty-eight of the 230 items were rated almost unanimously as *illiterate* usages. Among these, were such expressions as:

I haven*'t hardly* any money.
The kitten mews whenever it *wants in.*
All came except *she.*
My Uncle John, *he* told me a story.
I must go and *lay* down.
I have *drank* all my milk.
That there rooster is a fighter.
You *was* mistaken about that, John.
Just *set* down and rest awhile.

This was much to be expected. Your average high school freshman will tell you that such expressions are "bad" grammar—they are the kinds of expressions which, when used by Sunday night comics, draw hearty laughs from radio audiences.

The revolutionary aspect of the Leonard study concerns those expressions which a majority of the judges considered established, correct, and fully acceptable English. Close to 50 per cent of the test items (150), were so rated. Let us glance at some of them:

1. *None* of them *are* here.
2. I felt I could walk no *further.*

[1] *Current English Usage,* National Council of Teachers of English.

3. We will *try and get* it.
4. I've absolutely *got* to go.
5. We can expect the commission *to at least protect* our interests.
6. You'd better go *slow*.
7. There are some *nice* people around here.
8. *Will* you be at the Brown's this evening?
9. We *only* had one left.
10. This room is *awfully* cold.
11. It is *me*.
12. *Who* are you looking for?
13. *Can* I be excused from class?
14. Everyone was here, but *they* all went home early.

Of the 230 expressions, 85 are unaccounted for. On these there was not enough agreement among the experts to permit Dr. Leonard to label them either as *established* or as *illiterate*.

Unfortunately, Dr. Leonard lost his life by drowning before he could carry out the next logical step of his project. This was left to two other members of the council, Albert H. Marckwardt and Fred G. Walcott. This step was to discover how prevalent among established and distinguished authors of the past was each of the expressions with which the Leonard questionnaire was concerned. This check was made possible by systematic reference to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary*, second edition, Jespersen's monumental *Modern English Grammar*, Hall's *English Usage*, and other volumes. Marckwardt and Walcott stress that their work was purely scientific and objective, that they were not trying to establish a justification for the Leonard work, that they expected to draw no conclusions from their findings. Their one interest was to see how popular the two hundred thirty expressions were in the works of well-known authors. But we may draw our own conclusions from the researches of Marckwardt and Walcott, which, very briefly, show the following:

1. All but six of Leonard's established usages were found so frequently in the works of such authors as Shakespeare, Macaulay, Pepys, Bunyan, Defoe, Burke, and Sheridan—literary giants all—that one is forced to consider them perfectly acceptable and literary English. The six exceptions appear in such a way that they may be considered "colloquial"—that is, acceptable in informal speech, and not by any means "incorrect."

2. Some of the "disputable" usages were also found in the works of these authors.

3. Most of the "illiterate" usages were not found.

The second investigation substantiated the first.

Many of the constructions at which purists and puristic grammar texts rail have been accepted literary or colloquial tradition for centuries.

There are other natural, idiomatic expressions which, judging by the criteria which Professor Leonard set up, you may use with a clear conscience. They are not ungrammatical. They are not incorrect. They are not illiterate. At worst, some of them are "colloquial," but remember that colloquial English bears no stigma—it is simply the English used by educated people in everyday conversation, and in informal writing, even if it is not entirely appropriate to dignified or "literary" occasions.

The following expressions are part of the structure of English grammar—they have the blessings of the National Council of Teachers of English and of cultivated speakers throughout the country:

He *graduated from* Princeton. (Outmoded restriction: He *was graduated from* . . .)

I don't know *if* I can find the time. (Outmoded restriction: *whether* I can find . . .)

Can you *loan* me a dollar? (Outmoded restriction: *lend* for the verb; *loan* only for the noun, as in "He made me a small *loan*.")

That's a *pretty* dangerous statement. (Outmoded restriction: *Pretty* means attractive, nothing else.)

Pro (with reservations)

As a qualifier of adjectives, "pretty" has apparently achieved currency (and recognition) in colloquial speech. Situation ought probably to determine its use. I do not think it is acceptable in formal discourse. And certainly it is out of place—even colloquially—in phrases like "pretty confused," "pretty inaccurate," "pretty false and misleading." There the sense of the adjectives is so strong that the qualifier appears like a weak-kneed compromise—almost like saying "pretty absolute," which is nonsense. Style and attention to meaning would alike limit the use of the word as adverb very much, I should think.

—Margaret Schlauch

Dr. Schlauch was formerly a professor of English at New York University and is the author of *The Gift of Tongues.*

Q. Many modern grammarians maintain that "He *graduated from* Princeton in 1938" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people. Do you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro

A. I believe that "He graduated from Princeton in 1938" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage.

—Freda Kirchwey

Miss Kirchwey was formerly editor of *The Nation.*

Keep it on ice till it's *good and cold.* (Outmoded restriction: *good and* is bad English.)
Go and finish your work.
Come and see me soon.

Try and do it better. (Outmoded restriction: Substitute *to* for *and*.)

The two children were playing with *one another*. (Outmoded restriction: Use *one another* only when more than two are involved. Use *each other* for two.)

Don't *blame it on* me. (Outmoded restriction: Don't *blame me for* it.)

Can you *fix* my car? (Outmoded restriction: *fix* means keep in one place, not *repair*.)

What was the reason for *him* talking that way? (Outmoded restriction: . . . for *his* talking . . .)

The treaty was concluded *between* the four powers. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *among* the four powers.)

He came in *around* four o'clock. (Outmoded restriction: . . . *about* four o'clock.)

PRO AND CON

Q. Is "Come and see me" acceptable English?

Pro

A. "Come and see me" is a common idiomatic locution.

—Edward A. H. Fuchs

Dr. Fuchs was a member of the editorial staff of G. & C. Merriam Co., publishers of the Merriam-Webster *New International Dictionary*.

Pro

The phrase "Don't blame it on me" is certainly idiomatic English and I've heard many educated persons use it in informal conversation.

I am not a stickler for the fine distinctions in English—I prefer English as it is spoken to the English written by many a pedant.

—Albert Mitchell

Albert Mitchell and his collaborator Bruce Chapman were "The Answer Man" over WOR, New York; WGN, Chicago; and KSD, St. Louis. Mr. Mitchell is the author of *Here's the Answer.*

Now, if for personal reasons of your own, you prefer to observe the restrictions described in this chapter, by all means do so. Following such restrictive laws will not make your English any less effective—but, and this is the point to keep in mind, neither will it make your English any better, more effective, more nearly correct, or more acceptable.

Bear in mind that there are two kinds of grammar: *traditional,* which aims at the perpetuation of usages which conform to those principles of word-patterns which were set by eighteenth-century scholars; and *scientific* (to use Professor Charles Carpenter Fries's term), which adopts the experimental approach and considers correct all usages which are currently found in the speech and writing of educated people.

The traditional concept views language as unchanging—what pleased the ears of our great-great-grandfathers must not be deviated from, not one jot, by speakers of our modern day. Any attempt to improve or simplify is heresy of the most dangerous sort.

On the contrary, say our modern language scholars, there is only *one* criterion of good English: Do most educated people use an expression? If they do, that expression is accepted, established, and correct English; and if rules are violated, then the rules, not the speakers, are wrong.

This modern philosophy is tersely summarized by the eminent linguist, H. C. Wyld, in his *Elementary Lessons in English Grammar,*[2] as follows:

> A grammar book does not attempt to teach people how they ought to speak, but on the contrary, unless it is a very bad or a very old work, it merely states how, as a matter of fact, certain people do speak at the time at which it is written.

[2] S. E. Stechert & Co.

The same thought is phrased in different words by the scholars Grattan and Gurrey in their excellent volume *Our Living Language:* [8]

> The grammar of a language is not a list of rules imposed upon its speakers by scholastic authorities, but is a scientific record of the actual phenomena of that language, written and spoken. If any community habitually uses certain forms of speech, these forms are part of the grammar of the speech of that community.

There is no other sensible standard by which to judge correct grammar, and if it is feared that such a radical and revolutionary philosophy will result in the scuttling of all those musty grammar manuals which you and I struggled so patiently with in school, then—and this attitude is echoed by every modern grammarian—the quicker the manuals are scuttled the better it will be for everyone concerned.

It may be argued that this is a dangerous way to live. If enough people violate a law, shall we scrap the law? Or would it not be far safer and wiser to reprimand, or discipline, or, if necessary, jail the violators?

Well, for one thing, you cannot build enough jails to house all the violators of an unpopular law, as witness what happened when prohibition was in effect. And for another, just as laws of government depend for their power on the consent of the governed, so also laws of grammar depend for their value on the universal consent of the speakers of the language.

If you may be wondering whether this scientific approach to grammar may not eventually result in a slovenly and backwoods kind of language, set your doubts at rest. Modern English is the richest, most powerful language in the world. And it gains its richness and power from its complete and contemptuous avoidance of straitlaced rules and regulations. If "lawlessness" and change were not the potent factors that they are in shaping our native tongue,

[8] Thomas Nelson and Sons.

we would all still be speaking the language used by Geoffrey Chaucer—a wonderful language, but somewhat incomprehensible to the twentieth-century ear, as you know if you have ever tried to read an unmodernized version of *The Canterbury Tales.*

You are probably thinking: "Don't most English teachers in elementary and high schools still force their students to hew strictly to the lines of traditional grammar?"

Yes, many of them do. But there is evidence of strong pressure to make such teachers view grammar from a more liberal point of view. The following excerpt, for example, is from an article by Professor Roy P. Basler, chairman of the Department of English of the George Peabody College for Teachers, which appeared in the June, 1947, issue of the *Coronet Teaching Guide:*

> This is what a noted linguist, Professor C. C. Fries, has to say about the teaching of English in our schools:
>
> "Unfortunately, from the point of view of modern linguistic science, much of this work [teaching of grammar and usage] is not only wasted time, but harmful practice, as well. It is wasted time because it employs methods and materials that could not possibly attain the ends desired, no matter how much time was given to English. It is harmful practice because the habits set up and the views inculcated turn the students away from the only source of real knowledge—the actual language of the people about them. Our students are practically never given the tools of observation and analysis necessary to the use of these resources." ("Implications of Modern Linguistic Science," *College English,* March, 1947.)
>
> Anyone familiar with the teaching of English in our schools and colleges may recognize that the weakest phase of instruction in English is in language study. The teachers themselves are often ill prepared. Seldom do we find a teacher who has, in the course of acquiring a degree in English, taken as much as one tenth of his work in

language courses as compared to literature courses. Beyond "freshman composition"—in itself seldom attentive to the scientific facts of English—the college student majoring in English with the purpose of becoming a teacher usually devotes his attention solely to literature, literary history, and criticism. Furthermore, the English curriculum in elementary and secondary schools is largely devoted to the study of literature, and that portion which is devoted to language study is often skimped by a teacher who finds the teaching of language "uninteresting to students," and incompatible with his own training and interests. In so far as attention is given to grammar and usage, as Professor Fries points out, the work is concentrated on drill in identifying parts of speech and learning the terminology of a pre-scientific, prescriptive grammar, and on further drills in the recognition of prescribed "right" or "wrong" usage. It is, indeed, an unusual classroom in which one finds students studying "the actual language of the people about them."

Professor Basler's paper is one of the many which have appeared in professional journals, all of them urging teachers to adopt a more scientific, more liberal, more realistic attitude toward English grammar. With this kind of pressure, and with a greater emphasis on linguistics now apparent in teacher's colleges and universities we may eventually expect modern teachers to turn out students less shackled by the puristic approach to grammar than was true in the case of members of your generation and mine.

as easy as A B C

XXIII

A. What is the difference between *luxurious* and *luxuriant?*

B. Is it correct to say, "Let's not walk any *further* today"?

C. Which is preferable: "The manager wants you and *I* to open the store tomorrow," or "The manager wants you and *me* to open the store tomorrow"? Also, which is preferable: "He thought us to be *them,*" or "He thought us to be *they*"? Finally, which is preferable: "*Whom* did you think him to be?" or "*Who* did you think him to be?" (These are all facets of the same problem.)

A. The Grammar of Meanings

Luxuriant, Luxurious

A forest can grow *luxuriantly,* a person can have *luxuriant* black hair or a *luxuriant* imagination. A building can be characterized by *luxuriant* ornamentation and soil can be *luxuriant.*

On the other hand, cars, yachts, servants, mansions, and mink coats add to *luxurious* living. You may dine *luxuriously* on lobster thermidor, champagne, and nesselrode pie, and you may live *luxuriously,* even in times of inflation, on $200,000 a year (after federal income taxes).

The two words are thus seen to be quite different in implication. *Luxuriant* refers to rich growth, fertility, lushness, abundance. *Luxurious* refers to things which are expensive, rare, and pleasurable. *Luxurious* things are usually man-made, while *luxuriant* things are natural.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 52*

1. The tropics contain (luxuriant, luxurious) vegetation.
2. Her (luxuriant, luxurious) black hair is the most beautiful I have ever seen.
3. He owns a (luxuriant, luxurious) yacht.
4. Coral grows (luxuriantly, luxuriously) on that reef.
5. He spent a (luxuriant, luxurious) month at the Waldorf.
6. He embezzled $50,000 and lived (luxuriantly, luxuriously) for two weeks on the money.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 52*

1. luxuriant	3. luxurious	5. luxurious
2. luxuriant	4. luxuriantly	6. luxuriously

B. The Grammar of Allowable "Errors"

Let's not walk any *further* today.

Further, say some texts, may be used only in reference to time or to figurative distance, as, "Let's explore the matter *further*," or "The *further* we go in our study, the more confused we get." *Farther* should be used in all actual, or spatial, distance (according to these texts), as in "Let's ride a little *farther* up the road before we part." However, dictionaries without exception call *further* and *farther* synonymous. (*Merriam-Webster:* "farther: beyond the present point; further"; *Funk and Wagnalls:* "further: more remotely, farther.") In actual usage, *further* is gradually displacing *farther* in the language, and *farther*, like *shall*, is being less and less employed.

PRO AND CON

Q. Modern grammarians maintain that "Let's walk a little *further* before we turn back" is correct, idiomatic English, established by common usage among educated people and completely acceptable in informal conversation. Do

you agree? Would you use the expression in your everyday speech?

Pro (with reservations)

A. In my everyday speech I might say *further* but I would regret not having said *farther;* in my writing I would say, *walk a little farther.* I have no better justification than habit and hence auditory preference.

—Paul Klapper

Dr. Klapper was president emeritus of Queens College, the author of numerous textbooks on methods of teaching, and professor of education at the College of the City of New York.

Pro (with reservations)

Whereas in my own speech and writing, I probably make an effort to distinguish between *further* and *farther,* I do not feel disposed to be fussy about this distinction and should certainly not react negatively to the interchangeable use of these two words.

—Eason Monroe

Dr. Monroe is professor of education and director of the Reading Clinic at Pennsylvania State University.

C. The Grammar of Correct Usage

The manager wants you and *I* to open the store tomorrow, *or*
The manager wants you and *me* to open the store tomorrow?

This is a more complicated problem than it may at first seem.

By now you are sufficiently sophisticated when it comes to problems of English grammar to be able to choose the

correct form in the above sentence. Of course you would say, "The manager wants you and *me* to open the store tomorrow."

But why?

You and me is not the compound object of the verb *wants*. The manager does not want *you and me*.

You and me is not the object of a preposition. There is no preposition in the sentence except *to*, which you recognize as the sign of the infinitive *to open*, and not the introductory word in a true prepositional phrase.

So why the objective pronoun?

First, look at the infinitive, *to open*. Who's going to do the opening? *You and me*. (This sounds ungrammatical, but, as you will presently see, isn't at all.)

An infinitive, while not a true verb, has the force of a verb. And a pronoun which initiates the action of a verb is usually the subject of that verb. (The exception, you recall, occurs when the verb is passive, as in "America was discovered by Columbus," in which the initiator of the action is *Columbus* but the subject is *America*.)

So—

You and me is the subject of the infinitive *to open*. Yes, infinitives may have subjects, even though they are not true verbs. (They are called, you will remember, verbals.)

Consider:
I want *you* to stop beating your wife.
Who is to stop? *You*.
You is the subject of the infinitive *to stop*.

Consider:
I'll force *her* to obey, or know the reason why.
Who is to obey? *Her*.
Her is the subject of the infinitive *to obey*.

Consider:
We want *them* to cut out all that noise.
Subject of the infinitive *to cut out? Them*.

Consider:
He expects *us* to believe his lies.
Subject of the infinitive *to believe? Us.*

An infinitive may have a subject. In what case is such a subject? Look back—*her, them, us.*

So—

The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case.

Therefore, of course, a compound subject of the infinitive is also in the objective case.

CORRECT FORMS:

The manager wants you and *me* to open the store tomorrow.
I want you and *him* to stop annoying the children.
I bet I can make Gerbrand and *her* obey me.
Do you want *him* and his wife to come in now?
We expect Nellie and *him* to come for supper.

Now, knowing that the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, we're ready for our last principle in English grammar.

Think about this problem:

He thought us to be *them, or* He thought us to be *they?*

And about this one:

Whom did you think him to be? *or*
Who did you think him to be?

Very likely you will be tempted to make an unhappy choice in these two sentences.

You think the correct forms are: "He thought us to be *they,*" and "*Who* did you think him to be?"

Well, you're wrong.

You are probably thinking: "But *to be* is a copulative

verb, and *they* and *who* are the complements of the copulative verb and so should be in the nominative case!"

Very good—you've learned your lessons well.

However, I've held back, until this very last moment, the fact that there is one exception to that rule you've just quoted.

Yes—the complement of a copulative verb *is* in the nominative case—

Except when the copulative verb is in the infinitive form *and* when said infinitive has a subject.

Then (and then only) the complement of a copulative verb agrees in case with the subject of the infinitive.

And in what case is the subject of an infinitive? In the objective case, as we decided only a page or so back.

So here is one last rule to complete your understanding of English grammar:

When the infinitive of a copulative verb has a complement, the complement agrees in case with the subject of the infinitive—if the infinitive has a subject, and *only* if the infinitive has a subject.

Now don't get discouraged. This is hard, I know. That is why I left it to the last.

Let's go over it again:

If the copulative verb is in the infinitive form, say "to be"—

And if the infinitive has a subject, say, "He thought *us* to be"—

Then, the complement of the copulative verb is in the objective case, agreeing in case with the subject (*us*) of the infinitive: "He thought *us* to be *them*."

Have you got it straight now?

Consider the problems with which we started:

He thought us to be *them* (or *they*).

INFINITIVE: to be (a copulative verb)

SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE: us (objective case)

COMPLEMENT OF THE COPULATIVE INFINITIVE: *them* (objective case)

Whom (or *Who*) did you think him to be?
INFINITIVE: to be (a copulative verb)
SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE: him (objective case)
COMPLEMENT OF THE COPULATIVE INFINITIVE: *whom* (objective case)

But wait!

Remember that the copulative infinitive must have a subject before you put this new rule into effect.

There must, to rephrase the idea, be a subject of the infinitive before the complement of the infinitive goes into the objective case.

Suppose the copulative infinitive does not have a subject?

In such a contingency, the earlier rule still applies, namely: *The complement of a copulative verb is in the nominative case.*

Note that in the following sentences the copulative infinitive will not have a subject with which the complement must agree. Therefore, by our earlier rule, the complement of the copulative infinitive will be in the nominative case:

I would like to be *he*. (*I* is the subject of *would like*, not of *to be*.)
Who do you want to be? (*You* is the subject of *want*, not of *to be*.)

You have begun to realize by now that the subject of an infinitive must *immediately* precede the infinitive.

Now—

Just to make sure you have the two rules under control, let us contrast them.

EARLIER RULE: The complement of a copulative verb or infinitive is in the nominative case.

NEW RULE: The complement of a copulative infinitive is in the objective case, agreeing with the subject of said infinitive, *if* the infinitive has a subject.

That's the whole story—see if you understand the distinctions between the two rules by taking a quick test.

DO YOU GET THE POINT?—*test 53*

1. (Who, Whom) would you like to be if you weren't yourself?
2. (Who, Whom) did you think him to be?
3. Would you like to be (we, us)?
4. Did you think them to be (us, we)?
5. I thought the General to be (he, him).
6. I thought the nurse to be (she, her).
7. We thought the criminals to be (they, them).
8. We expected the murderer to be (him, he).
9. The murderer turned out to be (she, her).
10. I want you and (she, her) to help me.

CHECK YOUR LEARNING—*answers to test 53*

1. who
2. whom
3. we
4. us
5. him
6. her
7. them
8. him
9. she
10. her

chapter 26 HOW TO MEASURE YOUR PROGRESS—A FINAL TEST OF YOUR GRAMMATICAL ABILITY

Did it really hurt so much, after all?

Becoming an expert in English grammar turned out, I trust, to be a lot easier than you had dared hope.

Easier, and pleasanter, and certainly less gruesome than your previous experiences with the subject might have led you to believe.

You have come away from your intensive study of grammar with certain prime abilities and with healthy, liberal attitudes.

You know when to make a personal pronoun nominative and when to make it objective—and why.

You have a complete familiarity with the simple rules governing the distinctions between *who* and *whom*.

You are no longer stumped by *lay* and *lie*.

You know when a verb should be plural, and when it is preferably singular.

You have a running acquaintance with all the important rules that form the framework of English grammar—and, more important, you know that you may violate some of those rules if the occasion demands.

You have freed yourself from any vestiges of a guilt complex over using expressions upon which purists frown but which are, notwithstanding, correct, established, idiomatic English.

You can, in a phrase, handle with rare expertness and artistry the multitudinous complexities of our amazing, contradictory, expressive language.

You know the word to use under any circumstances—and why to use it.

If all these statements do in truth apply to you, then

you have gotten out of this part of the book precisely what was put into it—and you are ready for a final test of your grammatical ability.

A Final Test of Your Grammatical Ability

Directions: Check, in each sentence, the word which you believe is grammatically preferable.

1. Now, how does Marilyn Monroe (affect, effect) you?
2. And your wife produces the same (affect, effect) of course?
3. The earth (continually, continuously) moves around the sun; if it ever stopped, human beings would be in a devil of a fix.
4. What's the sense (of, in) getting drunk?
5. If you (let, leave) your children speak naturally, they will not grow up with language inhibitions.
6. What (sort of, sort of a) grade do you think you will make in this test?
7. The Federal Savings and Loan Society now pays 3½ per cent on your (principle, principal).
8. The spy was (hanged, hung).
9. He has somehow managed to keep on good terms with his (brothers-in-law, brother-in-laws).
10. He offered one (incredulous, incredible) excuse after another for coming home late.
11. Mix two (cupsful, cupfuls, cups full) of flour with a cupful of sugar.
12. Do you (imply, infer) that I am lying?
13. The lion licked (its, it's) chops when the first Christian entered the arena.
14. No one but (I, me) would believe you.
15. There's something going on between Judy and (him, he).
16. Everyone except (she, her) was on time.
17. Was the letter addressed to you and (I, me) or only to you?

18. He (robbed, stole) my watch.
19. (Those, That) criteria (are, is) not valid.
20. Allan Kleinwax expects you and (I, me) to come to the Lincoln Studio to have our pictures taken tomorrow at ten.
21. What is a good (preventative, preventive) of rickets?
22. Many curious (passer-bys, passers-by) stopped, but no one offered to help him.
23. Would you like to take a walk with Estelle and (I, me)?
24. The price of books (is, are) getting higher and higher.
25. How (is, are) your mother and father today?
26. One of my best friends (is, are) practicing chiropody.
27. The manager of the Social Security office, with his assistants and secretaries, (is, are) coming to check over your payroll today.
28. Jules as well as Allan (is, are) having lunch with us today.
29. English, like French and Latin, (contain, contains) case forms.
30. When either of your manuscripts (is, are) rejected, let me know.
31. Each of your sisters (is, are) very pretty.
32. Boatload after boatload of soldiers (is, are) landing.
33. Neither of your reasons (is, are) sufficient.
34. Margie, unlike her parents, (has, have), a calm, sweet disposition.
35. His ability and experience (is, are) of great value to his company.
36. Congress or the President (has, have) to tackle this job before it's too late.
37. Neither your aunt nor your uncle (has, have) left you any money.
38. Either Eden or Evan (is, are) suré to phone you tomorrow.

39. Her (childish, childlike) innocence is most refreshing.
40. I think one or two of your accounts (has, have) canceled their orders.
41. (He, Him) and Myrtle are our best friends.
42. Did you visit (he, him) and Myrtle last Sunday?
43. You look bored and (uninterested, disinterested).
44. A number of bottles (was, were) broken when the shipment arrived.
45. I'd like to (lie, lay) down for a few minutes.
46. (Lie, Lay) your coat on the bed.
47. The wounded man (lay, laid, lied) in the street for over an hour before the ambulance arrived.
48. Where have you (laid, lain) my things?
49. The baby has (laid, lain) in the carriage all morning.
50. The checks were (laying, lying) on my desk all morning.
51. In which room did you (lie, lay) the red rug?
52. He (laid, lay) his hat on the table and started to talk.
53. "(Lay, Lie) the baby on the bed and I'll examine her," said the doctor.
54. "Conducting, in short, is a form of government for which instinct as well as skill (is, are) required." (Jacques Barzun, in *Harper's Magazine*)
55. Two-thirds of the work (is, are) finished.
56. A majority of your friends (is, are) married.
57. It was (I, me) you were talking about, wasn't it?
58. A drop in spending together with a boost in prices (has, have) caused a mild recession.
59. Was it (he, him) who answered the phone?
60. (Who, Whom) does he think he is?
61. The man (who, whom) you're referring to has left our employ.
62. I'll invite (whoever, whomever) wants to come to the party.
63. Her sister, (who, whom) he divorced after a year of marriage, is looking for a new husband.

64. (Who, Whom) would you like to be?
65. I met the man (who, whom) you thought could manage my business.
66. (Who, Whom) did you wish to see?
67. He can talk even faster than (I, me).
68. But you can talk just as fast as (he, him).
69. Neither I nor he (is, are, am) able to help you.
70. Neither the art teachers nor the supervisor (was, were) at the faculty meeting.
71. Have you (drank, drunk) the Tom Collins yet?
72. I would (of, have) had my picture taken at Lincoln Studios if I had been in New Rochelle.
73. It is a lovely (sensuous, sensual) poem.
74. He talks as if he (was, were) her husband.
75. Many liberals wish that Roosevelt (was, were) still alive.
76. You wouldn't act that way if your wife (was, were) here.
77. If the doctor (was, were) in, why didn't he see you?
78. He drove through the (dessert, desert) for nearly an hour.
79. The Nazis (persecuted, prosecuted) the Jews because, say the historians, the government needed to offer a scapegoat to take the people's minds off their troubles.
80. No one is here besides (we, us).
81. (Beside, Besides) the dishes, you also have to wash the silverware.
82. He is one of those men who (has, have) no consideration for others.
83. I (can, can't) scarcely see the stage.
84. (Irregardless, Regardless) of what you say, I'm going anyway.
85. I'm not talking about (that, that there) man.
86. That (doesn't, don't) make such sense.
87. I would rather work for the Browns than for (she, her) and her husband.
88. I thought you (was, were) my friend!

89. We would like an (invite, invitation) to your party.
90. She (don't, doesn't) look very well to me.
91. Have you any (council, counsel) for a misguided youth?
92. Can you (teach, learn) me grammar?
93. It is I who (is, am) more interested in your welfare than you are yourself.
94. The (luxurious, luxuriant) vegetation makes passage almost impossible.
95. We have work for (whoever, whomever) wants to work.
96. Are you willing to venture a (prophecy, prophesy) about building costs next year?
97. What I want (is, are) more pictures.
98. Ten cents a piece (is, are) too much for that candy.
99. We thought the General to be (he, him).
100. (Who, Whom) did you think her to be?

ANSWERS

1. affect
2. effect
3. continuously
4. in
5. let
6. sort of
7. principal
8. hanged
9. brothers-in-law
10. incredible
11. cupfuls
12. imply
13. its
14. me
15. him
16. her
17. me
18. stole
19. those, are
20. me
21. preventive
22. passers-by
23. me
24. is
25. are
26. is
27. is
28. is
29. contains
30. is
31. is
32. is
33. is
34. has
35. are
36. has
37. has
38. is
39. childlike
40. have
41. he
42. him
43. uninterested
44. were
45. lie
46. lay
47. lay
48. laid
49. lain
50. lying
51. lay
52. laid

53. lay
54. is
55. is
56. are
57. I
58. has
59. he
60. who
61. whom
62. whoever
63. whom
64. who
65. who
66. whom
67. I
68. he
69. is
70. was
71. drunk
72. have
73. sensuous
74. were
75. were
76. were
77. was
78. desert
79. persecuted
80. us
81. besides
82. have
83. can
84. regardless
85. that
86. doesn't
87. her
88. were
89. invitation
90. doesn't
91. counsel
92. teach
93. am
94. luxuriant
95. whoever
96. prophecy
97. is
98. is
99. him
100. whom

SCORING

Each correct choice counts 1 point.

Your score should be in the 90's if you have successfully understood all the material in the book.

YOUR SCORE ON THE FINAL TEST: ..... (Record the result on page 13.)

PART 2 *Correct Pronunciation*

chapter 27 WHAT IS CORRECT PRONUNCIATION?

You have heard about the woman who was making a purchase at the meat counter. "I want a pound of kiddlies, please," she said.

The butcher was momentarily perplexed. "Don't you mean *kidneys*, madam?" he asked.

And the woman answered, "Well, I *said* kiddlies, did'll I?"

Of course, this is only a joke. But it admirably illustrates that you often do not realize how you sound to others.

There is the case of the little New York urchin who was sitting in school one April day. The sun was shining, the windows were open wide, summer was in the air. Suddenly a robin hopped on the sill.

"Look!" the child cried. "A boid!"

"No, Johnnie," admonished the teacher, who could not permit her appreciation of nature to interfere with her job, "that's not a *boid*—it's a *bird.*"

The boy was frankly astonished. "That's funny," he said. "It *looks* like a boid!"

It is true there are people in New York who say "boid" and "foist," "erl" and "fried ersters." They are, as it happens, in the minority—but they have no conception that their speech is different from that of other New Yorkers. To them, their pronunciation sounds perfectly natural—just as natural as it sounds to a Midwesterner to say "Hairy" for "Harry" and "airogant" for "arrogant." The Bostonian pronounces words like *park* and *parson* in a way not heard anywhere else in the country, yet no Bostonian is conscious of a "Boston accent."

A common password during the Pacific islands fighting, in World War II, was "lallapalooza." Why "lallapalooza," of all things? Because Japanese infiltrators who discovered the password still couldn't say it—the closest they could manage was "rarraparooza." *L* is an alien sound to the Japanese, just as *R* is to the Chinese. When a waiter in a Chinese restaurant suggests "flied lice" for your dinner, have no fear of the edibility of what he wishes to serve you. He means "fried rice," a most palatable dish. The point is, neither the Japanese nor the Chinese is conscious of his mispronunciation.

The average person's deafness to his own speech peculiarities is graphically evident when you make a phonograph recording of his voice and play it back to him. Now, for the first time, he is listening to himself from the outside. And how does he react? Generally with utter disbelief. "Is this the way I sound? Impossible!"

You too may be unaware of how you sound to others when you speak. When you mispronounce a word, you are usually the one person who doesn't know it. When you use an illiterate or affected pronunciation, you are usually completely unconscious of its effect on your listeners. Yet your pronunciation, especially of certain common and frequently used English words, is often the means by which people form their first impressions of your educational and cultural background, of your ability and intelligence, perhaps even of your personality. That this is so is unfortunate and in many instances probably completely illogical—what a man says is admittedly a vastly more reasonable criterion of his worth than how he says it. But human nature is not always reasonable, and listeners tend to jump to sweeping conclusions from quick, surface impressions of the way a person speaks.

Your pronunciation, for this reason, always either adds to, or detracts from, the power and persuasiveness of your ideas.

Consider the importance of pronunciation from another point of view. The effectiveness of a spoken thought stems

not alone from its intrinsic value or from the words in which it is presented, but also, often even more so, from the self-assurance of the speaker. *Confidence and security about the correctness of your pronunciation can therefore be a vital factor in helping you put your ideas across successfully.*

And so Part Two of this book has a number of related purposes:—To give you practical training in the educated and preferable pronunciations of the most troublesome words in the English language.

—To root out of your speech, permanently and completely, most of the unconscious errors you may now make.

—To settle any doubts or confusion you may have about those pronunciation demons that harry the average speaker.

—And thus, in total, to produce a tremendous increase in your self-assurance whenever you give spoken expression to your ideas and thinking.

But let us settle first a very important question, namely:

What *is* correct pronunciation?

Is it what actors and actresses use on the Broadway stage?

Is it what the members of the social register use?

Is it what the English professors at the great universities use?

Is it what the dictionaries recommend?

Is it what the people use in Boston? Or in the Middle West? Or along the Atlantic seacoast? Or in the South? Or in London, England?

Or is it, perhaps, what your teachers taught you to use in high school and college?

Correct pronunciation is none of these, exclusively; yet it is a combination, in part, of all of them.

Correct pronunciation is the pronunciation used by the great majority of educated people throughout the country. This definition is agreed upon by all language scholars. It is the principle which governs the pronunciations offered in your dictionary. It is the criterion by which a skillful speaker is judged.

Correct pronunciation, in other words, is no more nor less than *current* pronunciation. The *proper* way to say a word, by this token, is simply the way educated people are saying it at the moment.

Correct pronunciation has no relationship whatever to phonetic beauty. The broad sound *ah* may, to some, sound lovelier than the flat sound *ă*, as in *at*. Yet, though perhaps prettier, *bahth* is incorrect, while băth is correct—because most educated people say it that way.

Correct pronunciation has no exclusive relationship to spelling. *Warm* and *farm* are spelled similarly, but pronounced differently. *Fur* and *her* and *myrrh* are spelled differently but, except for the initial consonant, pronounced the same. In *psalm* there is a *p* in the spelling but none in the pronunciation, while in hiccough (pronounced *hĭk-up*) there is a *p* in the pronunciation but none in the spelling.

Correct pronunciation has no exclusive relationship to clearness. In *handkerchief, vegetable,* and *comfortable* the correct pronunciations are those which run all the syllables together.

Correct pronunciation is not exclusively charming, nor impressive, nor clear, nor cultured, nor glamorous; it is only two things—*current* and *acceptable*.

The effective way to pronounce a word is the popular way. Unpopular pronunciations, no matter what authority or reasons you have for using them, are ineffective pronunciations that rob your speech of power, not add power to it.

There is no Supreme Court of Speech, no final arbiter to rule on the constitutionality or legality of a pronunciation. The dictionaries, to which we refer when we are in doubt about a pronunciation, or when a controversy occurs, generally offer an authoritative answer, but dictionaries do not rule on how you must speak, nor do they make any pretense of doing so. They do no more than record how most educated people are currently speaking—and the multitudinous changes which are introduced into each new edition of a dictionary will serve to convince a skeptic that

dictionaries do not try to establish trends in pronunciation, but only record those trends as accurately as they can.

Let us turn, now, to an analysis of the most important of these trends.

chapter 28 TRENDS IN AMERICAN PRONUNCIATION

1. Long A

Shall we say *dayta* or *datta* for the word *data? Ignoraymus* or *ignorammus* for *ignoramus? Staytus* or *stattus* for *status?*

The answers to these questions depend almost completely on the business or profession in which the speaker is engaged. Lecturers, authors, educators, editors, lawyers, actors, journalists, commentators, and others whose work demands an unusual degree of skill in the language arts are almost completely committed to the long *A* (*ay*) in these and similar words. Millions of other people of equal education—doctors, dentists, executives—whose daily activities do not impose upon them the same need for linguistic sophistication, use the flat *A* (as in *at*). Hence, it is obviously impossible to label either of the two possible forms as "correct" or "incorrect." What can be said is that authorities have generally favored the long *A* up to recent times, but are now becoming more charitably inclined toward the flat form; many dictionaries now accept the flat *A* in words like *data*, *ignoramus*, *status*, *gratis*, *apparatus*, etc., generally as a second choice.

In this matter, as in so many others, you must let your ears be your guide. Do you personally, in your own business or professional circles, more frequently hear long *A*'s than flat ones? Then you should use long *A*'s also. Do so many of your associates use flat *A*'s that it will sound as if you are being affected when you do otherwise? Your course of action is then obvious.

Here is a fairly complete list of the words which many skilled speakers pronounce with a long *A:*

data	aviator	desideratum
fracas	ignoramus	pro rata
status	radiator	verbatim
ultimatum	stratum	gratis
implacable	erratum	apparatus

Ultimatum is frequently heard with a broad *A* (*ul-ti-mah'-tum*), most commonly with a long *A*, and only rarely with a flat *A*.

2. *The Broad* A

American English is clearly tending away from the broad *A* in many groups of words. Pronunciations like *vahst* (vast), *lahf* (laugh), *cahn't* (can't), *exahmple* (example), *chahnce* (chance), *ahfter* (after), etc. now sound peculiarly un-American, and except from someone with a marked British accent, absurdly affected. Even in the following words, popular trends strongly favor the somewhat flat *A* of *gather;* the broad *A* of *father* is heard today with diminishing frequency.

WORD	POPULAR AND CURRENT PRONUNCIATION	LESS POPULAR PRONUNCIATION
almond	*ăm'-'nd*	*ahm'-'nd*
rather	*ră'-ther* (rhyme with *gather*)	*rah'-ther* (rhyme with *father*)
drama	*dră'-ma*	*drah'-ma*
khaki	*kă'-kee*	*kah'-kee*
plaza	*plă'-za*	*plah'-za*
patio	*pă'-tee-o*	*pah'-tee-o*
salve	*săv* (rhyme with *have*)	*sahv*
tomato	*to-may'-to*	*to-mah'-to*
aunt	*ănt* (rhyme with *slant*)	*ahnt*
vase	*vayz* (rhyme with *ways*)	*vahz*

However, *llama,* the South American animal, and *lama,* the Tibetan monk, are both pronounced only with the broad *A: lah'-ma.*

3. *Words Ending in* -ABLE

In effective and educated speech the following words receive the accent on the first syllable:

am'icable	for'midable
hos'pitable	rev'ocable
lam'entable	pref'erable
ex'plicable	rep'arable
ap'plicable	rep'utable
com'parable	des'picable

In the negative form the accent is retained on the same syllable on which it falls in the positive form:

inhos'pitable	irrev'ocable
inex'plicable	irrep'arable
inap'plicable	disrep'utable
incom'parable	

An important exception to this principle is *disputable*, which may be accented on either the first or second syllable:

dis'putable or dispu'table

The negative follows suit:

indis'putable or indispu'table

4. *Words Ending in* -AGE

In eight common words the ending *-age* contains the consonant sound represented by the letter *S* in pleasure. This sound is formed by the mouth in the same way that *SH* is, but it is a *voiced* rather than a *breathed* sound. The phonetic symbol generally used to represent this sound is *ZH*. These are the words:

AHZH, not AHDGE

barrage	ménage
camouflage	persiflage
massage	corsage
garage	espionage

Prestige (press-teezh′) and cortege (kor-tezh′) contain the same sound. Guard against *presteedge* and *kortedge*.

5. *Hard and Soft* G

Before *E, I,* and *Y,* the letter *G* is usually soft, as in *gem;* at other times it is generally hard, as in *gum.* Short words, of Anglo-Saxon origin, are the most frequent exceptions to this rule.

Soft G	*Hard G*
orgy (or′jee)	go
gill (measure)	guard
giblets	game
gesture (jes′-ture)	gust
gesticulate (jes-tic′-u-late)	glint
manger (mayn′-jer)	grass
gibe (jibe)	prodigal
gibberish (jibberish)	
harbinger (har′-bin-jer)	
intelligentsia (in-tel-i-jen′-see-a)	
longevity (lon-jev′-i-tee)	
turgid (tur′-jid)	
orgiastic (or-jee-ass′-tik)	
gibbet (jibbet)	

6. *Words Ending in* -ILE

The American tendency, as distinguished from the British, is to pronounce the suffix *ile* as if it were spelled *ill.* The following common words follow this principle:

fragile	imbecile	juvenile	mercantile
servile	puerile	textile	domicile
versatile	hostile	docile	agile
fertile	sterile	virile	futile

Puerile is pronounced *pyoo′-er-ill;* and *juvenile, textile, mercantile,* and *domicile* are also acceptable with a final syllable that rhymes with *mile.*

The following words are exceptions to the rule, the ending being pronounced as if it were spelled *aisle:*

infantile	bibliophile
francophile	profile
anglophile	exile
crocodile	reconcile
senile	turnstile

7. *How to Pronounce* S

S, like *G,* has two principal sounds: *Z* as in *reside,* and *S* as in *sit.* Here are the major words which cause confusion:

S (*sit*)	*Z* (*reside*)
absurd	usurp
absorb	venison
gasoline	resilient
vaseline	abysmal
vise	because
	demise (de-mize′)

8. -ITIS

Diseases ending in *-itis* are preferably pronounced *eye′-tiss,* not *ee′-tis.*

appendicitis	laryngitis
arthritis	meningitis

bronchitis	neuritis
colitis	pharyngitis
gastritis	tonsillitis

9. The Sharp U

Like the broad *A*, the sharp *U* (as in *few, mule,* etc.) is also gradually falling into a state of disuse. After the consonants *D, L, N, S,* and *T,* a frank *oo* sound, somewhat less protracted than that heard in *moon,* is now characteristic of standard American pronunciation. For example:

allure	lure	stupid
assume	lurid	superb
astute	new	superior
dude	news	tuba
due	nuisance	tube
duel	numerous	tune
during	nutrition	tumor
duty	stew	Tuesday
ludicrous	student	

(Contradictorily, however, for *avenue, av-en-yoo,* rather than *av-en-oo* is the preferable and more popular form.)

In words ending in *-ture,* the last syllable is popularly and correctly pronounced *choor,* rather than *tyoor.* For example, *feature, literature, nature, pasture,* etc.

On the other hand, the consonants *B, C, F, G, H, K, M, P,* and *V* are regularly followed by the sharp *U,* as in *bureau, cute, fuse, gewgaw, humor, kudos, mural, pure, view,* etc.

10. American vs. British Pronunciation

In a number of instances, the British pronunciation of a word contains definite differences when compared with the general American version. Some of the words in which our pronunciation differs from that of our English cousins are:

American Pronunciation	*British Pronunciation*
organization	organ-eye-zation
civilization	civil-eye-zation
fast	fahst
laff (laugh)	lahff
secreterry (secretary)	secret'ry
conservatoary (conservatory)	conservat'ry
laboratoary (laboratory)	labor'-at'ry
project	proe'ject
progress	proe'gress
process	proe'cess
ate	et
ski	shee
skedyool (schedule)	shedyool
medicine	medsin
circumstănce	circumst'nce
bin (been)	bean

chapter 29 OUR ERRATIC LANGUAGE

It is no wonder that English is a difficult language to pronounce, even for its most educated speakers. Consider some of the pitfalls always present in the path of the unwary:

I. Spelling is no criterion.

a. *Warm* and *harm* are similar in spelling. Note how differently they are pronounced.

b. *tough, through, though, cough, bough,* all end in *ough*. In each case this suffix has a different pronunciation.

c. Consider how perplexed a foreigner learning English would be by pairs like these:

ghost and *guest*
palm and *thumb*
plumber and *hammer*
hymn and *dim*

d. Often the spelling of a word is not even remotely connected with its pronunciation. Consider:

victuals (vittles)
colonel (kernel)
quay (kee)
solder (sodder)
phthisic (tizik)
Sioux (soo)

II. A tremendous part of the vocabulary of English comes from foreign languages. Every language on the face of the earth is represented: ancient languages, modern languages, dead languages, living languages. Hebrew, Latin,

Greek, Sanskrit, Hawaiian, Japanese, Chinese, French, and Icelandic, to mention just a few, have contributed tens of thousands of words to our present-day dictionaries. Some of these foreign words are Anglicized when they are taken over into English; some are Anglicized years later; some always retain their foreign flavor.

For example:

a. From the French, *sachet* is still pronounced in a Gallic manner (sa-shay′); *valet* has been Anglicized (val′-et).
b. *Sotto voce*, from the Italian, has not been Anglicized (sot-to voe′-chay); *viva voce*, from the Latin, has been (vye′-va voe′-see).
c. *Weltschmerz* and *wanderlust* are both from the German. The former is still truly Teutonic in sound (velt′-shmertz); the latter is now pure English (wahn′-der-lust).

III. Sometimes *TH* is soft as in *th*e, li*th*e, bli*th*e; sometimes hard, as in *th*ing, hear*th*, ei*th*er; sometimes like *T*, as in *th*yme. And no rule can be relied on to tell us which is which.

IV. Sometimes *H* is silent, as in *h*onor; sometimes pronounced as in *h*umor or *h*eart.

V. *OO* may be heard one way, as in b*oo*k; or quite differently, as in m*oo*n.

VI. *CH* may be *tsh*, as in *ch*air; *sh*, as in ma*ch*ine; or *k*, as in pa*ch*yderm.

VII. *S* may be *sh*, as in *s*ugar or *s*ure; *s*, as in *s*inecure; *z* as in re*s*erve; or *zh* as in plea*s*ure.

VIII. *Ine* may be *īne* as in fel*ine;* or *in*, as in genu*ine*.

IX. Letters may be silent, as in mali*g*n (*ma-line′*) or vi*s*count (*vye′-count*); or they may require an entire syllable for themselves, as in coyo*te* (*kye-o′-tee*), or ag*ue* (*ay′-gyoo*).

These nine principles do not by any means exhaust the peculiarities and idiosyncrasies of English pronunciation.

They are sufficient, however, to indicate the great complexity of our language. An educated Frenchman, or German, or Spaniard can pronounce perfectly any word in his languages with which you may wish to confront him—and this statement holds whether he's ever seen the word before or not. Pronunciation hews obediently to definite rules in these and other languages; the exceptions, if any, are infrequent and unimportant.

But English stands in a class by itself—its pronunciation is contradictory, confusing, intricate almost beyond belief. Consider, for example, the following groups:

1. The following words contain letters which careless speakers often ignore.

ar*c*tic (ark′-tik)	ag*u*e (ay′-gyoo)
su*g*gest (sugg-jest′)	gover*n*ment (guv′-er*n*-ment)
epitom*e* (e-pĭt′-o-mee)	stren*g*th (stren*k*th)
dilettant*e* (dĭl-a-tăn′-tee)	len*g*th (len*k*th)
canap*e* (kan-a-pay′)	wi*d*th (wi*d*-th)
fla*c*cid (flak′-sid)	brea*d*th (bre*d*-th)
a*c*cessory (ak-sess′-or-ee)	su*c*cinct (suk-sinkt′)

2. Other words, on the contrary, contain letters which are *silent.*

indi*c*t (in-dyte′)	fore*h*ead (forrid)
mali*g*n (ma-lyne′)	so*l*der (sodder)
poi*g*nant (poyn′-int)	vi*s*count (vye′-count)
ches*t*nut (chess-nut)	kil*n* (kill)
boa*ts*wain (bōs'n)	*h*erb (erb)
com*p*troller (kon-trole′-er)	of*t*en (offen)
gun*w*ale (gunnel)	imbro*g*lio (im-brole′-yō)
bagnio (băn′-yo)	

3. Words ending in *-ine* are pronounced in one of three ways: long *I* (ī), short *I* (ĭ), or long *E* (ē).

ĭ (*in*)	*ī* (*ine*)	*ē* (*een*)
aquiline	alkaline	submarine
genuine	asinine	peregrine
heroine	canine	nectarine
saccharine	concubine	nicotine
gelatine	turpentine	benzine
	leonine	gasoline
	saturnine	cuisine (kwee-zeen′)
	serpentine	guillotine (gil-o-teen′)
	feline	
	bovine	

4. A large proportion of our two- and three-syllable words ending in *-et* have come from French. In French, the digraph *et* is always pronounced *ay*. Some of these words retain their Gallic flavor—some have been Anglicized.

Anglicized (*et*)	*Gallic* (*ay*)
valet (val′-et)	sachet (să-shay′)
bayonet	sobriquet (soe-brĭ-kay′)
cadet (ka-det′)	cabaret (kab-a-ray′)
coronet	bouquet (boo-kay′)
tourniquet (turn′-i-ket)	cabriolet
martinet (mar′-ti-net′)	Chevrolet
	gourmet (goor-may′)

5. TH may be hard, as in *th*ing, or soft, as in *th*e. Here are the few confusing forms:

Hard (*thing*)	*Soft* (*the*)
youth	lithe
cloth	blithe
baths	thence
	youths
	bathes
	swathe (swaythe)

6. *QU* is occasionally pronounced as a simple *K*, most often as a *KW*.

K	*KW*
liquor	banquet (bang′-kwit)
piquant (pee′-k'nt)	quote
piqué (pee-kay′)	querulous (kwer′-o͝o-lus)
quay (kee)	quaint
risqué (riss-kay′)	acquiesce
bouquet (boo-kay′ or boe-kay′)	loquacious
lacquer (lak′-er)	(etc.)
parquet (par-kay′ or par-ket′)	

7. A few words which have come from the French retain the Gallic pronunciation of *on* for *EN:*

ennui (on′-we)	en rapport (on ra-pore′)
en route (on root′)	entr'acte (on′-tract)
ensemble (on-sahm′)	entree (on′-tray)
enceinte (on-sant′)	en famille (on fa-mee′)

8. *H* is silent in many words. In the following, however, careful speech requires its sounding:

*h*omage, not 'omage
*h*umble, not 'umble
*h*otel, not 'otel
*h*uman, not 'uman
*h*umane, not 'umane
*h*umor, not 'umor
*h*umorous, not 'umorous

In the following, *H* is preferably silent:

vehement
prohibition
vehicle
herb

9. CH has three possible pronunciations: *TSH* as in *ch*air; *K* as in *ch*aos; *SH* as in ma*ch*ine. Generally, *TSH* is found in words of Anglo-Saxon origin, *K* in words of Greek derivation, and *SH* in words of French origin.

TSH	*K*	*SH*
chair	archangel	champagne
chase	archeology	chauvinism
arch	hierarchy	chagrin
archbishop	Archimedes	chic
champion	chaos	chicanery
	chasm	(shi-kay′-ne-ree)
	epoch	
	archaic	
	archipelago	
	chiropodist	
	chimera	
	(ki-mee′-ra)	

Bach, the composer, retains a German pronunciation: *a* as in f*a*ther, K a gargling sound.

10. Rule for Pronunciation of *NG:*

A. *NG at the end of a word is never exploded.*
lon(g), sin(g), win(g), han(g).

B. When *NG* occurs in the body of a word, drop all the letters following it. If a real word is then left, do not explode the *G*.
Example 1: singer; drop *er*. *Sing,* a real word, remains. Hence: *sin(g)er.*

Example 2: linger; drop *er*. *Ling,* a non-existent word, remains. Hence: *lingger*.

Exceptions:
1. longer (longger) and longest (longgest)
2. younger (youngger) and youngest (younggest)
3. stronger (strongger) and strongest (stronggest)

Practice on these:

Explode the NG		*Nasalize the NG*	
finger	spangle	singing	lung
longest	dangle	hangar	clinging
youngest	angle	hanging	tang
linger	tingle	wringer	twang
English	wangle	wringing	song
angry	angler	long	songster
anger	bungle	strong	bringing
angered		young	losing
		clang	ring
		Long Island	ringer
		working	ringing

Read this paragraph aloud, pronouncing each *NG* correctly:

The *singer* was born in *Long* Island. She was *younger* and *stronger* than her sisters, and could produce *longer* notes than any other *songstress* I remember *having* listened to. Her *English* was perfect, her voice was *soothing* and sweet, and she could *sing songs* in many *languages*. She had an attractive *languid* appearance, but, like many of the artists with whom she *mingled,* frequently had fits of *anger*. *During* the summer she liked *living* in a *bungalow* and *working* on her *singing, spending* all her week ends *shopping* at the local stores and *talking* over her problems with her *gangster* husband.

11. A fairly reliable rule is that *ate,* as a suffix in *nouns* or *adjectives,* is pronounced almost like the word *it;* as a suffix in *verbs,* it is pronounced *ayt.*

Verb—(ayt)	*Adjective or Noun—(it)*
graduate	graduate
aggregate	aggregate
alternate	alternate
animate	animate
appropriate	appropriate
approximate	approximate
articulate	articulate
associate	associate

Note these exceptions:

The following, though nouns or adjectives, are pronounced with long a—*ayt.*

candidate	potentate
irate (eye′-rate)	prostrate
magnate (mag′-nate)	reprobate
ornate	sedate
	inmate

The verb *acclimate* may be pronounced either *ac-clye′-mit* or *ack′-li-mayt.*

chapter 30 CHECK UP ON YOUR PRONUNCIATION

This chapter is simply a list of words. Some of them are tricky because they are "reading" rather than "speaking" words. That is, you will come across them over and over on the printed page, but actually say them infrequently. Hence, you may easily have blundered into mental mispronunciations and never have had the opportunity to check yourself or be checked by your listeners.

A number of words in particular are those which lend themselves all too easily to careless articulation. Others sound so different from the way they are spelled that mispronunciation is often extremely tempting.

And still others may be in that large class of words which have two pronunciations, one infinitely preferable to the other.

The best and most helpful way to go through this chapter is to cover the right-hand column, in which the phonetic respellings are offered, with a blank card. Say each word in the left-hand column, aloud. Check at once with its pronunciation by shifting your card one line. If your pronunciation and the one offered check, well and good. If they do not, mark the word and continue. When you have finished each list, study the words that gave you trouble.

A few have already been discussed in previous chapters; most are offered for the first time.

Group 1

Is your enunciation accurate, clear, and easily understandable? Or is it garbled, indistinct, and illiterate? The

list that follows contains twenty-five words which will provide you with a valid yardstick for measuring the clarity of your speech. Keep your pencil handy, and check for future practice any word you mispronounce. If you make no more than four or five errors, your speech is free of slovenliness. Consider a large number of mistakes as a warning that careless and illiterate mannerisms are detracting from the effectiveness of your speech.

Word	*Pronunciation*
1. government	1. gover*n*ment, not gover'ment nor gov'ment
2. just	2. just, not jist
3. kept	3. kep*t*, not kep'
4. library	4. lye′-bra-ry, not li′-berry
5. attacked	5. at-takt, not at-tak-ted
6. American	6. Am*e*rican, not Amurrikan
7. arctic	7. arc*t*ic, not artic
8. Italian	8. ĭ-tal′-ian, not eye′-tal-ian
9. wrestle	9. ressle, not rassle
10. elm	10. elm, not ell-um
11. film	11. film, not fill-um
12. law	12. law, not lore
13. asked	13. askt, not ast
14. potato	14. po-tay-toe, not per-tay-ter
15. window	15. win-doe, not win-der
16. accurate	16. ak′-yŏo-rit, not akkerit
17. manufacture	17. man-yŏo-facture, not manafacture
18. particular	18. pertikyŏoler, not pertikkaler
19. regular	19. reg-yŏo-ler, not reggaler
20. poem	20. po′-'m, not pome
21. ruin	21. roo-in, not roon
22. recognize	22. rek-og-nize, not rekkernize
23. question	23. kwess-chin, not kwesh-in
24. believe	24. be-leev′, not bleev
25. figure	25. fig-yŏor, not figger

Group 2

Word	*Pronunciation*
1. bade	1. băd
2. forbade	2. forbăd
3. route	3. rōōt (in army or commercial parlance, *rowt* is allowable)
4. brooch	4. broach
5. squalid	5. squah-lid
6. nausea	6. naw′-sha, not naw′-zee-a
7. nauseate	7. naw′-she-ate
8. fjord	8. fyord
9. finis	9. fye′-niss, or, as second choice, fin′-iss; not fee-nee′
10. egregious	10. e-gree′-jiss
11. zoology	11. zoe-ol′-o-jee
12. virago	12. vir-ay′-go
13. falcon	13. fawl′-kin
14. quay	14. kee
15. plebeian	15. ple-bee′-in
16. sacrilegious	16. sac-ri-lee′-juss
17. nonpareil	17. non-pa-rĕl′
18. flaccid	18. flak′-sid
19. decade	19. dĕck-āde
20. suave	20. swahv

Group 3

Word	*Pronunciation*
1. with	1. with (th as in *the*, not as in *th*ink)
2. associate	2. a-so′-she-ate
3. association	3. a-so′-see-ay′-shun
4. appreciate, appreciation	4. ap-pree′-she-ate ap-pree′-she-ay′-shun
5. pecan	5. pe-căn, not pe-cahn′
6. travail	6. trăv′-ayl

7. radiator	7. ray′-dee-ay-ter, not răd′-ee-ay-ter
8. comparable	8. com′-par-a-ble, not com-par′-able
9. illustrate	9. il′-lus-trate, not il-luss′-trate
10. orgy	10. or′-jee, not or′-gee
11. often	11. offen, not off-ten
12. coupé	12. coo-pay′ preferable to coop
13. coupon	13. koo′-pon preferable to kyoo′-pon
14. exquisite	14. eks′-kwiz-it or eks-kwiz′-it
15. pomegranate	15. pum-gran′-it
16. vanilla	16. va-nil′-la, not vi-nel′-la
17. romance	17. ro-mance′ preferable to ro′-mance
18. secretive	18. se-cree′-tiv preferable to see′-cre-tiv
19. dirigible	19. dir′-ij-ible, not di-rig′-ible
20. scourge	20. skûrj
21. clandestine	21. clan-dess′-tin, not clan′-de-styne
22. posthumous	22. poss′-chu-mous
23. gaol	23. jail
24. harass	24. harris preferable to ha-rass′

Group 4

Word	*Pronunciation*
1. absolutely	1. ab′-so-loot-lee
2. isolate	2. eye′-so-late, not iss′-o-late
3. positively	3. poz′-i-tiv-lee
4. bicycle	4. bye′-sickle
5. poniard	5. pon′-yerd
6. vineyard	6. vĭn′-yerd
7. ignominy	7. ig′-no-minny
8. ignominious	8. ig-no-min′-ee-uss
9. impious	9. im′-pee-uss
10. era	10. ee′-ra
11. enigma	11. e-nig′-ma
12. amateur	12. am′-a-cher or am′-a-tur
13. caricature	13. car′-i-ca-choor, not car-ic′a-choor
14. perfunctory	14. per-funk′-ter-ee

15. clique	15. cleek, not click
16. divan	16. dye′-van
17. irony	17. eye′-ron-ee, not eye-er-nee
18. strength, length	18. strĕn*k*th, lĕn*k*th; not strĕnth, lĕnth
19. width	19. widd-th, not with
20. culinary	20. cyoo′-li-nerry
21. grimy	21. grye′-mee
22. panacea	22. pan-a-see′-a

Group 5

Word	*Pronunciation*
1. bronchial	1. bronk′-ee-il, not bron′-ik-′l
2. mischievous	2. miss′-chi-viss, not miss-chee′-vee-us
3. grievous	3. gree′-vuss, not gree′-vee-us
4. faucet	4. fawset, not fasset
5. intricate	5. in′-trik-it, not in-trik′-it
6. modern	6. mod′-urn, not mod′ren
7. municipal	7. mu-niss′-i-p′l, not mu-ni-sip′-l
8. deficit	8. def′-i-sit, not de-fiss′-it
9. accept	9. ak-sept′, not a-sept′
10. drowned	10. drownd, not drownded
11. February	11. Feb′-roo-ary, not Feb′-you-erry

Notes on the Pronunciation of Certain Interesting Words

ABDOMEN: *Ab'-do-men* was once frowned upon by the authorities (they preferred *ab-do'-men*), but it has become so popular that most dictionaries now list it as first choice.

ABSOLUTELY: Except for emphasis, the accent falls on the first syllable (*ab'solutely*). The same rule applies to *positively* (*pos'itively*).

ABSORB: Preferably hiss the *S*, rather than buzzing it. The same suggestion applies to *absurd*.

ACCLIMATE: *Ac-kly'-mit* is the more scholarly form, but *ac'-li-mayt* is equally correct.

ADDRESS: Say either *ad'-dress* or *a-dress'* for the place where a person lives, only *a-dress'* for a formal speech or lecture. The verb, no matter what the meaning, is always accented on the second syllable.

ADULT: Say either *a-dult'* or *ad'-ult*.

ADVERTISEMENT: *Ad-ver'-tiz-ment* or *ad-ver-tize'-ment*. They're equally good.

AGAIN, AGAINST: In poetry, of course, these words are often required by the rhyme scheme to be pronounced *agayne* and *agaynst*. But in ordinary conversation, such pronunciations sound stilted.

APRICOT: *Ap'-ri-cot* is more popular, though some people say *ay'pri-cot*.

ATHLETIC: Three syllables only, not four.

AWRY: *Aw-rye'* only!

BECAUSE: Buzz the *S*, don't hiss it.

BONA FIDE: Enough speakers silence the final *E* (*bona fyed*) to make it acceptable, though some authorities entreat you to add that extra syllable (*bona fy'dee*).

CHAUFFEUR: *Sho-fur'*, the older form, is rapidly giving ground to the common and preferable *sho'-fer*.

CHIC: *Sheek* is the preferable and recommended pronunciation, although both *shick* and *chick* are often heard on less educated levels.

CLIQUE: *Cleek* is preferable, although *click* admittedly has some currency.

COMBATANT: Accent the first syllable, skip lightly over the second: *com-b'-t'nt*. In best usage, *combat*, whether a verb or noun, is also accented on the *com*.

DEBUT: The fully Anglicized form *de-byoo* is the easiest to say and the one most commonly heard.

DISHABILLE: Also completely Anglicized (*diss-a-beel'*).

EITHER: The controversy between *eether* and *eyether* has raged for years and will probably never abate. Both forms are correct, and both are current, but to some people *eyether* sounds a bit affected. It is suggested, therefore, that unless *eyether* is completely natural in your speech habits and is prevalent in your social group or geographical locality, it might be wiser to avoid it. (These comments apply equally to *neether* and *nyether*.)

The late C. A. Lloyd, noted language scholar and professor of English at Biltmore College, Asheville, North Carolina, used to tell a characteristic anecdote in this connection:

"In the early days of the Far West a citizen of a small town encountered a crowd of cowboys who were dragging a man behind them, with the evident intention of lynching him.

" 'Wait a minute, boys,' he said. 'What's he done?'

" 'Stole a horse,' was the answer.

" 'Well, that's pretty bad, boys,' said the citizen, 'but we need more law in this town. Why not turn him over to the sheriff and give him a fair trial?'

" 'Yes, pardner, but he shot the man that the horse belonged to, besides,' replied the cowboys.

" 'That's terrible, boys, but it's not your place to settle with him. Let the law do it.'

" 'Yes, but besides all that, he says "eyether" and "neyether"!'

" 'Oh, well, take him on out, boys.' "

ENVELOPE: C. A. Lloyd puts it as follows: " 'Envelope' comes from the French, though it is now spelled 'enveloppe' in that language. Its English pronunciation may be 'ENvelope' or 'ONvelope,' or even 'enVELop,' when it is spelled without the final 'e.' Of these three 'ENvelope' is undoubtedly the most reasonable and the most widely used. If those who use the other pronunciations could just agree to drop them and center on 'ENvelope,' the cause of uniformity would be greatly aided and a needless source of possible irritation removed."

EPITOME: Four syllables. This is a somewhat bookish word and should be pronounced properly: *e-pit'-o-mee.*

EXILE: Hiss the *X* in this word and also in *exit* and *exhibition.*

FIANCÉ: Man or woman, he or she is a *fee-ahn-say'*. The feminine form is spelled *fiancée.*

INCOGNITO: *In-cog-nee'-to* was once frowned upon, but is gaining in popularity. *In-cog'-ni-to* is the more scholarly pronunciation.

INFAMOUS: Here, as in *impious* and *impotent,* the accent falls on the first syllable.

INQUIRY: There's no stigma attached to *in'-kwĭ-ree,* though many skillful speakers prefer *in-kwy'-ree.*

IODINE: No matter how you say this word, you're bound to be correct. There are three possible pronunciations and they're all acceptable.

KILN: The *N* is preferably silent.

LICORICE: We still hear *likkerish* occasionally, but mainly from kids who are buying a penny's worth of it. Say *lick'-er-iss.*

LIVELONG: In this word the *I* is short (*liv-long*) but in *long-lived* it's long (*long-lyved*).

MODERN: Say it as it's spelled—*mod'-ern,* not *mod'-ren.*

PANACEA: *Pan-a-see'-a.*

PERFUME: Accent either syllable.

POTPOURRI: You have to keep the French flavor of this term: *poe'-poo'-ree'.*

PREFACE: Noun or verb, stress the *pref.*

QUAY: *Kee* is the only proper way to say it.

REMONSTRATE: It's *re-mon'strate,* even though it's *dem'-on-strate.*

RIBALD: Short *I: rib'-ld.*

ROBUST: Preferably rhyme it with "Go bust'!"

STRENGTH: Here, as also in *length,* the *G* should be pronounced, and with almost the same sound as you would ordinarily give to a *K* (*strenkth, lenkth*).

SUITE: With that *E* at the end, we've got to say *sweet.*

TACITURN: The *C* is soft: *tass'-i-turn.*

THYME: Silence the *H: time.*

VAGARY: Accent the second, not the first, syllable—*va-gair'-ee.*

VICTUALS: It doesn't look like it, but this is just plain *vittles.*

ZOOLOGY: Because of the shortened form *zoo,* we're tempted to call it *zoo-ol'-o-gy,* but the preferable pronunciation is *zoe-ol'-o-gy.*

chapter 32 A RESTATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES

It is not difficult to improve your pronunciation. On the contrary, it is one of the easiest—and quickest—kinds of linguistic improvement you can aim at. If you will follow the simple principles you have studied in these pages, you should very shortly begin to feel completely self-assured about the effectiveness of your pronunciation.

Let me restate the most important of these principles under three headings:

1. *Make sure to avoid so-called illiterate speech habits.*

Check up on yourself. Are you careful of your *TH*'s? Do you ever say *dis* for *this, dat* for *that, de* for *the?* Most people who do are never conscious of their error—until they begin to listen critically to themselves.

Do you ever drop your final *G*'s, and say *askin, talkin, workin, doin? ING* words are used a hundred times a day in the course of normal conversation—are you careful of them?

Check to see whether you occasionally omit letters that should be articulated. Do you say *strenth* for *strenGth, lenth* for *lenGth, with* for *wiDth, goverment* for *goverN-ment, ast* for *asKed, assessory* for *aCcessory, fith* for *fiFth, kep* for *kepT*, or *pitcher* for *piCture?*

Or, do you on the other hand, obtrude unnecessary letters where they do not belong? Do you say *ath-a-letic, ath-a-lete, drowned-ed, griev-ee-ous, mischiev-ee-ous, across-t, attacked-ted, burg-u-lar, el-um, fil-um,* or *once-t,* for *athletic, athlete, drowned, grievous, mischievous, across, attacked, burglar, elm, film,* and *once?*

Does an *R* creep in where none is called for? Do you ever say *lawr, sawr, idear, yeller?*

Do you ever get your syllables confused, saying *ir-rev-e-lant* for *irrelevant, larnyx* for *larynx, mod-ren* for *modern, pat-ren* for *pattern, per-scription* for *pre-scription* and *pres-piration* for *perspiration?*

2. *Be careful to avoid speech mannerisms that may make you sound as if you are the product of a class in diction.*

Do not broaden your *A*'s unless you are of British origin or hail from one of the few sections of the United States where the broad *A* is customarily heard. Do not say *bahth, ahsk, ahfter, commahnd,* or *lahst* solely because you think such pronunciations sound impressive. They don't—they are more likely to sound affected.

Watch especially such words as *chauffeur, either, neither, vase, tune, student, tomato, rather, again,* and *aunt.* Some speakers do not sound artificial when they say *sho-FUR, eyether, nyether, vahz, tyoon, styoodent, tomahto, rahther, agayne,* and *ahnt,* but most people are wise to avoid these pronunciations unless they are natural and customary in their particular social groups or geographical sections.

3. *Take care not to mispronounce words which most educated people pronounce correctly.*

For example, there are a number of words ending in *-able,* in which the accent is preferably placed on the first syllable. Among these are:

com′-parable	hos′-pitable
for′-midable	pref′-erable
rev′-ocable	lam′-entable
rep′-utable	ap′-plicable

Be wary of the letter *A*. While it is unwise to say *ahsk,* it is equally frowned upon to say *âsk* (*Â* as in *âir*), or *cândy,*

mân, or *hând.* Pronounce these words with the flat *A* sound of *hat.*

On the other hand, do not flatten the *A* when it is preferably long. Say *AYviator* and *AYviation,* not *AVViator* and *AVViation, RAYdiator,* not *RADiator.*

Do not slide over an *H* where most educated people give it full value. Avoid *wear, watt, wen, wy, weather* for *where, what, when, why,* and *whether.* And especially don't drop the initial *H* sound in *human, humid, humorous, huge,* and *humble.*

Don't be tripped up by a *G.* Sometimes it's soft, as in *gesture, gesticulate,* and *orgy,* in which words it has the sound of *J.* Sometimes it has the sound of *ZH,* like the *S* of *pleasure* or *measure.* Say *pleasure,* watching particularly how the *S* sounds, and give that same sound to the *G* in *garage* (second *G* only), *rouge, loge, mirage, prestige, corsage,* etc.

In many words, a *K* sound is followed by a *Y* sound, as in *cute, curious, cube.* But stay on guard against temptation in these three words:

coupon—koopon, preferably, not kyoopon
escalator—ess-ka-lator, not ess-kya-lator
percolator—per-ko-lator, not per-kyo-lator

Sometimes the sharpest distinction between educated and uneducated speech lies in the position of the accent. In these words, the accent belongs on the *first* syllable: *IMpious, INfamous, IMpotent, PERmit* (noun only), *INtricate,* and *IGnominy.* On the following words, the accent is preferably placed on the *second* syllable: *griMACE, roBUST, reMONstrate, eNIGma,* and *vaGAry.* On the other hand, words like *address* (i.e., residence), *adult, inquiry, acclimate,* and *exquisite* may with equal correctness be accented either on the first or second syllable.

The effective speaker, then, takes care to avoid three dangerous pitfalls—illiterate patterns; affected and pedan-

tic forms; and common mispronunciations. He develops habits of pronouncing words correctly without sounding *too* correct or *too* precise; he speaks well because he has not lost the common touch.

PART 3 *Correct Spelling*

chapter 33 THE THIRTEEN HARDEST WORDS TO SPELL

The novelist F. Scott Fitzgerald was a notoriously poor speller; Andrew Jackson, seventh President of the United States, was even worse, and is remembered for his ingenious excuse that "It's a darned poor mind that can think of only one way to spell a word!"

Thorstein Veblen, noted economist, felt equally vehement. "Engiish spelling," he said, "is archaic, cumbrous, and ineffective."

So archaic and cumbrous is it, in fact, that most present-day Americans, even those of considerable education, find themselves baffled, confused, and irritated by the spellings of a great number of fairly common English words.

But perhaps you are an exception? Let us put it to a test.

Below are the thirteen words most frequently misspelled by literate adults. Top score made by a random selection of high school graduates was only *five;* a similarly chosen group of college graduates could do no better than *seven.* So if you think your spelling ability is better than average, this test will be in the nature of a challenge.

If you're prepared to accept the challenge, study the various patterns of each word below, checking the one you trust. Consider yourself quite normal if you make a correct choice cnly four or five times; better than average if you can score up to eight; and a superior speller if you can check ten or more proper forms.

1. (a) all-right, (b) alright, (c) all right, (d) allright
2. (a) supercede, (b) supersede, (c) superceed, (d) superseed

3. a) embarrassment, (b) embarrasment, (c) embarassment, (d) embarressment, (e) embaressment
4. (a) drunkedness, (b) drunkeness, (c) drunkenness, (d) drunkness, (e) drunkardness
5. (a) desiccate, (b) dessicate, (c) desicate, (d) dessiccate
6. (a) occurance, (b) occurrence, (c) occurence, (d) occurrance
7. (a) ecstasy, (b) ecstacy
8. (a) tyrrany, (b) tyrranny, (c) tyranny, (d) tyrany
9. (a) disippate, (b) disapate, (c) dissapate, (d) dissippate, (e) dissipate
10. (a) innoculate, (b) inocculate, (c) inoculate
11. (a) cooly, (b) cooley, (c) coolly, (d) coolley
12. (a) irresistable, (b) irresistible
13. (a) anoint, (b) annoint

Key: 1-c, 2-b, 3-a, 4-c, 5-a, 6-b, 7-a, 8-c, 9-e, 10-c, 11-c, 12-b, 13-a.
Score: Number of correct choices out of 13: .....

Can You Learn from Your Errors?

Below, in different order, are the thirteen words you have just studied, each one misspelled. Cross out the incorrect spelling and, without referring to the preceding key, rewrite each word correctly. Can you materially improve your previous score?

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
ecstacy	.....
dessicate	.....
disapate	.....
irresistable	.....
alright	.....
embarassement	.....
drunkeness	.....
inocculate	.....

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
annoint	.....
supercede	.....
occurance	.....
tyrrany	.....
cooly	.....

Key: ecstasy, desiccate, dissipate, irresistible, all right, embarrassment, drunkenness, inoculate, anoint, supersede, occurrence, tyranny, coolly.
Score: Number right out of 13: .....

Another Test of Your Spelling

Here are twelve more words occasionally misspelled even by the most educated of adults. Can you choose the correct forms?

1. (a) repetition, (b) repitition
2. (a) irritable, (b) irritible
3. (a) indispensable, (b) indispensible
4. (a) despair, (b) dispair
5. (a) superintendent, (b) superintendant
6. (a) separate, (b) seperate
7. (a) recommend, (b) reccomend, (c) reccommend
8. (a) incidentally, (b) incidently
9. (a) development, (b) developement
10. (a) receive, (b) recieve
11. (a) weird, (b) wierd
12. (a) battalion, (b) batallion

Key: All (a) forms are correct.
Score: Number of correct choices out of 12: .....

Can You Learn from Your Errors?

Study any mistakes you may have made, then check your learning by once again crossing out the incorrect

spellings listed below and rewriting each word in its proper form.

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
wierd	.....
recieve	.....
batallion	.....
developement	.....
incidently	.....
reccomend	.....
seperate	.....
superintendant	.....
irritible	.....
repitition	.....
dispair	.....
indispensible	.....

Key: weird, receive, battalion, development, incidentally, recommend, separate, superintendent, irritable, repetition, despair, indispensable.
Score: Number right out of 12: .....

chapter 34 TEN HANDY SPELLING RULES AND MEMORY AIDS

1. *–EFY*

A natural and extremely common ending in English spelling is *-ify*—it is found in hundreds of words, for example, *clarify, classify, mortify, codify, testify,* etc.

But in four words in which *-ify* seems to be the natural and sensible ending, only *-efy* is correct. These are the words:

1. liqu*efy*
2. putr*efy*
3. stup*efy*
4. rar*efy*

Particularly paradoxical is the fact that in the first three words, an *i* replaces the *e* in the associated forms *liquid, putrid,* and *stupid.* Other derived forms, such as *liquefaction, putrefaction, stupefaction, rarefaction, liquefied, putrefied,* etc. keep the *e.*

2. *K after C*

When a word ends in *c,* for example, *colic, frolic, picnic, mimic,* etc., a *k* is added before appending *e, i,* or *y;* for example, *colicky, frolicker, picnicker, mimicking,* etc. *C* ordinarily has the soft sound of *s before e, i,* and *y,* and the *k* is necessary to keep the *c* hard. Note these forms:

frolic*k*ing
mimic*k*er
panic*k*y
picnic*k*ing
traffic*k*er
traffic*k*ing

3. *E after C*

On the other hand, *e* must be retained after *c* before the ending *-able* in order to keep the *c* soft. Note these forms:

noti*ce*able	pea*ce*able
servi*ce*able	enfor*ce*able
embra*ce*able	pronoun*ce*able
repla*ce*able	tra*ce*able

4. *E after G*

E is kept after *g* before the endings *-able* and *-ous* in order to give the *g* the soft sound of *j*. Note these forms:

chang*e*able	advantag*e*ous
manag*e*able	courag*e*ous
charg*e*able	gorg*e*ous

In *judgment, acknowledgment, lodgment, abridgment* and similar words containing *dg* before *-ment,* no *e* is necessary—the *d* serves to keep the *g* soft.

5. *–IZE, –ISE, and –YZE*

In the entire language, only two nontechnical words end in *-yze: analyze* and *paralyze*. A few technical terms, such as *catalyze, dialyze,* and *electrolyze* also have this ending, but otherwise your choice is between *-ise* and *-ize*. Generally, few people ever have any problem in making the proper choice. But watch *analyze* and *paralyze* and their derived forms, *analysis, paralysis, analytic, paralytic,* and *analyst*.

6. *IE and EI*

In choosing between *ie* and *ei,* bear in mind that *ei* is used immediately after the letter *c:*

re*ce*ive	*ce*iling
re*ce*ipt	con*ce*it
per*ce*ive	con*ce*ive

The single exception is *financier.*

Ei is also used in words in which it has the sound of *a* in *freight:*

w*ei*ght	fr*ei*ght
w*ei*gh	n*ei*gh
n*ei*ghbor	v*ei*n
v*ei*l	r*ei*gn

Or the sound of *i* in *height, sleight* (of hand), *gneiss, stein* (of beer), *Fahrenheit,* etc.

Exceptions: *fiery, hierarchy, hieroglyphic.*

Ei is also used in these special words that merit careful study:

l*ei*sure	
s*ei*zure	*ei*ther
s*ei*ze	n*ei*ther
sh*ei*k	cod*ei*n
prot*ei*n	caff*ei*ne
w*ei*rd	

Siege, however, is spelled *-ie.*

Otherwise use *-ie.*

th*ie*f	br*ie*f
bel*ie*ve	gr*ie*f
f*ie*nd	cash*ie*r
n*ie*ce	ach*ie*ve
f*ie*ld	y*ie*ld

(etc.)

7. *–CEDE, –CEED, and –SEDE*

Only one word in the language ends in *-sede: supersede.*

Three others end in *-ceed: exceed, proceed, succeed.* (But note the spelling of *procedure.*)

All others end in *-cede: accede, cede, concede, intercede, precede, recede, secede,* etc.

8. *–LLY*

Be careful of the *-lly* ending on these four words:

incidental*ly*	coo*lly*
accidental*ly*	rea*lly*

Note that we are simply adding the adverbial ending *-ly* to the adjectives *incidental, accidental, cool,* and *real.*

Adjectives which end in *-ic,* such as *lyric, scholastic, academic,* etc. add *-ally* to form the adverb: *lyrically, scholastically, academically,* etc. The only important exception is *publicly.*

9. *–ABLE and –IBLE*

The five most troublesome words in this category are *dependable, indispensable, irritable, inimitable,* and *irresistible.* For the first two, think that *able* men are usually depend*able* and indispens*able.* For the next two, think of the related forms irrit*a*te and imit*a*te. And for the last, let us assume that l*i*pst*i*ck makes women irresist*i*ble.

10. *–ENT and –ANT*

The troublesome words ending in *-ent* are as follows:

superintend*ent*	persist*ent*
insist*ent*	depend*ent*

A memory trick that works for these words is: "The superintend*ent* collects the *rent* in an apartm*ent* house; he is insist*ent* and persist*ent* about it, and the landlord is depend*ent* on him."

The nouns of *-ent* adjectives end of course in *-ence: superintendence, insistence, persistence,* and *dependence.*

Occurrence is also a frequently misspelled word—to remember the correct pattern, think of an oc*curren*ce as a *curren*t event.

Two troublesome words end in *-ant, resistant* and *defendant,* and one in *-ance, perseverance.*

Test Your Learning

Check the correct spelling of each word:

1. (a) liquefy, (b) liquify
2. (a) rarify, (b) rarefy
3. (a) picnicker, (b) picnicer
4. (a) enforcable, (b) enforceable
5. (a) changable, (b) changeable
6. (a) judgement, (b) judgment
7. (a) analize, (b) analyze
8. (a) receive, (b) recieve
9. (a) acheive, (b) achieve
10. (a) fiery, (b) feiry
11. (a) leisure, (b) liesure
12. (a) weird, (b) wierd
13. (a) seize, (b) sieze
14. (a) seige, (b) siege
15. (a) superceed, (b) supersede, (c) supercede
16. (a) exceed, (b) excede
17. (a) precede, (b) preceed
18. (a) cooly, (b) coolly
19. (a) accidently, (b) accidentally
20. (a) indispensable, (b) indispensible
21. (a) irresistable, (b) irresistible
22. (a) irritable, (b) irritible

23. (a) superintendant, (b) superintendent
24. (a) insistant, (b) insistent
25. (a) perseverance, (b) perseverence

Key: 1-a, 2-b, 3-a, 4-b, 5-b, 6-b, 7-b, 8-a, 9-b, 10-a, 11-a, 12-a, 13-a, 14-b, 15-b, 16-a, 17-a, 18-b, 19-b, 20-a, 21-b, 22-a, 23-b, 24-b, 25-a.

chapter 35 TRICKS TO REMEMBER SPECIAL WORDS

Group 1

1. *tyranny*—one *r* and double *n*, as in the phrase "dow*n* with tyra*n*ts!" Similarly *tyrannous* and *tyrannical*.
2. *drunkenness*—*drunken* plus *-ness*, hence double *n*. *Suddenness* follows a similar pattern.
3. *definitely*—make sure *finite* appears in the word.
4. *vilify*—one *l*, as in the related word *vile*.
5. *descendant*—the opposite of *ancestor;* note the *an* at the end of one word and the beginning of the other.
6. *sacrilegious*—very different in meaning from *religious*, and the *e* and *i* are interchanged.
7. *iridescent*—one *r*, as in *iris*, both words being related to the Greek stem for *rainbow*.
8. *accelerate*—one *l*, as in the related word *celerity*.
9. *principal*—means *main;* note the *a* in both words.
10. *principle*—means *rule;* note the *-le* in both words.
11. *stationary*—means *standing* still; note the *a*.
12. *stationery*—means *paper;* note the *-er*.
13. *vacuum*—one *c*, as in the related word *vacant*.
14. *occasional*—only one *s*, as also in *pleasure, measure, treasure*, etc. in which *s* has the same sound.
15. *category*—*e*, not *a*, follows the *t;* think of the synonym *section*.
16. *balloon*—round, like a *ball*.
17. *all right*—two words, two *l*'s, like its opposite, *all wrong*.
18. *absence*—like the adjective *absent*.
19. *recommend*—the prefix *re-* plus *commend*.
20. *repetition*—the fourth letter is *e*, as in *repeat*.

Test Your Learning

Can you correct each misspelled word?

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
1. tyrrany	.....
2. drunkeness	.....
3. definately	.....
4. villify	.....
5. descendent	.....
6. sacreligious	.....
7. irridescent	.....
8. accellerate	.....
9. vaccuum	.....
10. occassional	.....
11. catagory	.....
12. baloon	.....
13. abscence	.....
14. reccomend	.....
15. repitition	.....
16. alright	.....

Key: 1. tyranny, 2. drunkenness, 3. definitely, 4. vilify, 5. descendant, 6. sacrilegious, 7. iridescent, 8. accelerate, 9. vacuum, 10. occasional, 11. category, 12. balloon, 13. absence, 14. recommend, 15. repetition, 16. all right

Group 2

21. *vicious*—like the form it derives from, *vice;* hence no *s* before the *c*.
22. *exhilarate*—one *l*, followed by *a*, as in the related word *hilarious*.
23. *anoint*—no double *n;* think of a*n* *o*il used in *anointing*.
24. *embarrassed*—two *r*'s, two *s*'s; think of "*two* *r*obbe*r*s embar*r*as*s*ed in *S*ing *S*ing."

25. *fricassee*—made, often, in a *cass*erole; hence one *c*, two *s*'s.
26. *battalion*—often engaged in ba*tt*le; two *t*'s, one *l*.
27. *inoculate*—one *n*, one *c*, as in its synonym *inject*.
28. *ecstasy*—this word and *idiosyncrasy* end in *-sy*, not *-cy*.
29. *desiccate*—note the one *s* and double *c*.
30. *ukulele*—the third letter is *u*, not *e*.
31. *dissipate*—double *s*, one *p*.
32. *guttural*—*u* follows the double *t*.
33. *accommodate*—double *c*, double *m*.
34. *separate*—the fourth letter is *a*, not *e*.
35. *development*—no *e* following the *p*.
36. *privilege*—no *d* in the word.
37. *argument*—no *e* following the *u*, even though *argue* does have an *e*.
38. *truly*—drop the *e* in *true* before adding *-ly*.
39. *rhythmical*—note the *h* after the *r*.
40. *disappoint*—*appoint* plus the prefix *dis-; disappear* follows a similar pattern.

Test Your Learning

Can you correct each misspelled word?

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
1. viscious	.....
2. exhillarate	.....
3. annoint	.....
4. embarrased	.....
5. friccazee	.....
6. batallion	.....
7. innocculate	.....
8. ecstacy	.....
9. dessicate	.....
10. ukelele	.....
11. dissapate	.....
12. gutteral	.....

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
13. accomodate	.....
14. seperate	.....
15. developement	.....
16. priviledge	.....
17. arguement	.....
18. truely	.....
19. rythmical	.....
20. dissapoint	.....

Key: 1. vicious, 2. exhilarate, 3. anoint, 4. embarrassed, 5. fricassee, 6. battalion, 7. inoculate, 8. ecstasy, 9. desiccate, 10. ukulele, 11. dissipate, 12. guttural, 13. accommodate, 14. separate, 15. development, 16. privilege, 17. argument, 18. truly, 19. rhythmical, 20. disappoint.

Group 3

41. *assassin*—two sets of double *s*'s.
42. *assistant*—double *s*, followed by single *s*.
43. *benefited*—single *t*.
44. *comparative*—*a* follows *r*, despite the contradicting word *comparison*.
45. *dumfound*—preferable spelling omits the *b* after *m*.
46. *dessert*—meaning cakes, pies, etc.; think of *so sweet*, to remember the double *s*.
47. *desert*—think of the *Sahara desert* to remember one *s*.
48. *newsstand*—*news* plus *stand*, hence double *s*.
49. *bookkeeper*—*book* plus *keeper*, hence double *k*.
50. *possession*—two sets of double *s*'s.
51. *kidnaped*—in all forms of this word, one *p* is the preferable spelling; hence *kidnaper* and *kidnaping*.
52. *chagrined*—a single *n*, though double *n* would make more sense; likewise *chagrining*.
53. *sincerely*—*sincere* plus *-ly;* do not omit the *-e* after the *r*.
54. *whiskey, whisky*—domestic varieties spelled *-ey*, imported varieties spelled *-y*.

55. *villain*—double *l*.
56. *tranquillity*—double *l* is the preferable form.
57. *holiday*—one *l*.
58. *sheriff, tariff*—one *r*, double *f* in both.
59. *pursuit*—not *persuit*.
60. *despair*—not *dispair*.

Test Your Learning

Can you correct each misspelled word?

Incorrect Spelling	*Correct Spelling*
1. asassin	.....
2. asisstant	.....
3. benifitted	.....
4. comparitive	.....
5. dumbfound	.....
6. newstand	.....
7. bookeeper	.....
8. posession	.....
9. kidnapper	.....
10. chagrinned	.....
11. sincerly	.....
12. vilain	.....
13. tranquility	.....
14. holliday	.....
15. sherrif	.....
16. tarriff	.....
17. persuit	.....
18. dispair	.....

Key: 1. assassin, 2. assistant, 3. benefited, 4. comparative, 5. dumfound, 6. newsstand, 7. bookkeeper, 8. possession, 9. kidnaper, 10. chagrined, 11. sincerely, 12. villain, 13. tranquillity, 14. holiday, 15. sheriff, 16. tariff, 17. pursuit, 18. despair.

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(Mother-in-laws, Mothers-in-law) are probably the most unpopular of all relatives.
(Has, Have) either of your friends come in yet?
(Who, Whom) are you looking at?

DO YOU KNOW HOW TO PRONOUNCE THESE WORDS?

succinct—indict / genuine—guillotine
valet—bouquet / quay—querulous
homage—herb / chasm—chic

DO YOU KNOW WHICH SPELLING IS CORRECT?

ecstasy or ecstacy, anoint or annoint,
separate or seperate, alright or all right,
drunkeness or drunkenness

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Abbreviations

A	Adjunct
AC	Adverbial Complement
Adj	Adjective
AdjP	Adjective phrase
Adv	Adverb
AdvP	Adverb phrase
Aux	Auxiliary verb
CJ	Conjoin
CL	Clause
Conj	Conjunction
COORD	Coordinator
CZR	Complementizer
Det	Determiner
Disp	Disparate forms
DO	Direct Object
DP	Determiner phrase
DVE	Determinative
INF	Infinitive *to*
IO	Indirect Object
NODO	Notional Direct Object
NOSU	Notional Subject
NP	Noun phrase
OC	Object Complement
OP	Operator
PC	Prepositional Complement
Post	Postmodifier
PP	Prepositional phrase
Pre	Premodifier
Pred	Predicator
Prep	Preposition
PRODO	Provisional Direct Object

PROSU	Provisional Subject
S	Subject
SC	Subject Complement
SUBD	Subordinator
V	Verb
VP	Verb phrase

Introduction

What is grammar?

Grammar is the study of the structure of sentences and their parts. The following sentence has a well-formed, 'grammatical' structure:

1 The old man has been ill.

Native speakers of English can produce and understand a sentence like this without ever thinking about its structure. Conversely, no native speaker of English would ever produce a sentence like this:

2 *[1] ill the been man has old.

This sentence is ill-formed and 'ungrammatical', but can you say why? The study of grammar provides us with the terminology we need to talk about sentence structure in an informed way. It enables us to analyse and describe our own use of language, as well as that of other people. A knowledge of grammar enables us produce well-formed, grammatical sentences that clearly and unambiguously convey our meaning.

Grammar 'rules' and grammatical structures

Many people think of grammar in terms of the traditional 'rules', such as 'Never split an infinitive' or 'Never end a sentence with a preposition'. Specifically, these are prescriptive rules, and they were designed primarily to provide guidelines for writers of formal prose. In that sense, they are useful enough, though they tell us very little about how English is really used in everyday life. In fact, native speakers regularly split infinitives (*to boldly*

[1] An asterisk is used throughout this book to indicate ungrammatical or incorrect examples, which are used to illustrate a point.

go) and sentences often end with a preposition (*Dr Brown is the man I'll vote for.*).

Prescriptive grammar reached its peak in the nineteenth century. In the twenty-first century, grammarians try to adopt a more descriptive approach. In the descriptive approach, the emphasis is very much on structures rather than rules. We attempt to describe concisely and precisely the kinds of structures that native speakers produce when they speak or write. For instance, when we say *The old man has been ill*, we produce several specific structures:

1 The Subject, *The old man*, comes before the verb (see 1.4).
2 The Subject Complement, *ill*, comes after the verb (see 1.6.2).
3 The Subject is formed by combining a determiner, *the*, with a Premodifier, *old*, and a Head noun, *man*, in that order (see 3.6).

The emphasis in this book is on grammatical structures, not on rules. In Chapter 3, in particular, we show that most phrases have very similar and predictable structures, which are repeated over and over again as we construct a sentence. In Chapter 4, we show that clauses are, in fact, 'mini sentences': they have the same structure as whole sentences, though they may not have all the elements of a full sentence.

In most school-level grammar classes, students are only taught about individual word classes, such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives. That is better than nothing, but it fails to show how words combine with each other to form phrases, and how those phrases combine to form clauses and sentences. In some second-language classrooms, grammar has been removed altogether from the curriculum, in favour of a 'communicative' approach. In that approach, students do not study grammar at all. Instead, they are expected to communicate orally in English through parrot-like repetition in the classroom. The method has had some success, if we measure success as 'the ability to be understood'. However, using a language effectively involves much more than simply being understood. Language can also be a means of persuading and moving a reader or hearer, and of expressing ourselves at the deepest level. It can produce everything from a shopping list to a sonnet by Shakespeare. A well-trained parrot can be 'understood', but it is unlikely to say anything interesting. Teaching a language without teaching the grammar is rather like asking someone to build a replica of your house without ever showing them the plans.

An understanding of grammatical structure will certainly help you to produce clear writing, since you will understand the structures that are possible in the language, as well as those that are not. Understanding grammatical structure is also essential to the appreciation of the writing of others. The appreciation of writing style is partly subjective, of course, but for readers

who wish to see examples of 'good' contemporary writing, I recommend the works of the short story writers William Trevor and Alice Munro, and of the novelists John Le Carré and Thomas Pynchon. The works of those writers show an understanding (conscious or otherwise) of what makes a 'good' sentence, as opposed to a purely 'communicative' one.

Standard English

Standard English is the variety of English which carries the greatest social prestige in a speech community. In Britain, there is a standard British English, in the United States, there is a standard American English, in Australia, a standard Australian English, and so on. In each country, the national standard is that variety which is used in public institutions, including government, education, the judiciary, and the media. It is used on national television and radio, and in newspapers, books, and magazines. The standard variety is the only variety which has a standardised spelling. As a result, the national standard has the widest currency as a means of communication, in contrast with regional varieties, which have a more limited currency.

The following sentence is an example of standard English:

I *was* ill last week.

The following sentence is non-standard:

I *were* ill last week.

The non-standard past tense construction *I were* is commonly used in several regional varieties, especially in spoken English in parts of England. Regional varieties are associated with particular regions. The standard variety is not geographically bound in the same way.

Using standard English involves making choices of grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. It has nothing to do with accent. The sentence *I was ill last week* is standard English whether it is spoken with a Birmingham accent, a Glasgow accent, a Cockney accent, a Newcastle accent, or any other of the many accents in Britain today. Similarly, standard American English (sometimes called 'General American') is used throughout the United States, from San Francisco to New York, from New Orleans to the Great Lakes. In both countries, the standard variety co-exists with a very large number of regional

varieties. In fact, most educated people use both their own regional variety and the standard variety, and they can switch effortlessly between the two. They usually speak both varieties with the same accent.

No variety of English – including standard English – is inherently better or worse than any other. However, the standard variety is the one that has the greatest value in social terms as a means of communication, especially for public and professional communication. The notion of standard English is especially important to learners of the language. Because of its high social value, learners are justifiably anxious to ensure that the English they learn is standard English.

English as a world language

Conservative estimates put the total number of English speakers throughout the world at around 800 million. English is the mother tongue of an estimated 370 million people in the countries listed here:

Approximate number of mother-tongue English speakers, in millions	
United States	260
Great Britain	60
Canada	20
Australia	18
New Zealand	4
Ireland	4
South Africa	2

In addition to these countries, English is an official language, or has special status, in over sixty countries worldwide, including Cameroon, Ghana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Singapore. This means that English is used in these countries in many public functions, including government, the judiciary, the press, and broadcasting. Even in countries where it has no official status, such as China and Japan, English has a central place in the school curriculum, because its importance in international communication and trade is unquestioned.

The spread of English around the world was one of the most significant linguistic developments of the twentieth century. That century also witnessed another important development: the decline of British English and the rise of American English as the dominant variety.

British English and American English

Linguistic influence follows closely on political and economic influence. For several centuries, British English (BrE) was the dominant variety throughout the world, because Britain was the centre of a vast empire that straddled the globe. In the twentieth century, political power shifted dramatically away from Britain, and since the end of the Second World War, the United States has been both politically and economically the most powerful country in the world. It is not surprising then that American English (AmE) has become the dominant variety, although the traditional influence of British English remains strong. In recent years, the worldwide influence of American English has been greatly strengthened by Internet technology, the mass media, and the entertainment industry. American news channels such as CNN and NBC are transmitted around the world by satellite, and American movies and television shows are seen on almost every continent.

The differences between American English and British English are for the most part fairly superficial. Perhaps the most familiar differences are in vocabulary:

British English (BrE)	American English (AmE)
autumn	fall
film	movie
flat	apartment
holiday	vacation
lift	elevator
nappy	diaper
number plate	license plate
petrol	gas
post code	zip code
rubbish	trash
shop	store
tap	faucet
taxi	cab
trainers	sneakers

Some of the American English words on this list – particularly *apartment*, *cab*, and *movie* – are slowly being assimilated into British English. No doubt this trend will continue. International communication and travel tend to smooth the differences between national varieties, in favour of the dominant variety.

In the spoken language, there are very noticeable differences in stress between American English and British English. For instance, American speakers generally stress the final syllable in *adult*, while British speakers stress the first syllable: *adult*. Other stress differences include the following (the stressed syllables are underlined):

British English	**American English**
address	address
ballet	ballet
cigarette	cigarette
debris	debris
garage	garage
laboratory	laboratory
magazine	magazine

Finally, spelling differences include:

British English	**American English**
cheque	check
humour	humor
pyjamas	pajamas
plough	plow
theatre	theater
tyre	tire

For more on spelling differences, see 5.13.

The grammatical differences between American English and British English are far less obvious. They tend to be localised in very specific areas of the grammar. Some differences may be observed in the use of prepositions (2.8). For example, Americans say *ten after twelve*, while Britons say *ten past twelve*; Americans say *in back of the house*, while Britons say *behind the house*. In the choice of verb forms, too, we can see some systematic differences. American English tends to prefer the regular form of a verb when a choice is available, for example, *burned* in favour of *burnt*, *learned* in favour of *learnt* (2.4.8).

Despite their differences, American English and British English, as well as all the other national varieties – Australian, Canadian, New Zealand, Indian, and so on – share a very extensive common core of vocabulary, spelling, and grammar. It is this common core that makes them mutually intelligible. In this book, we are concerned with the core grammatical features of English, and especially with the core features of the two major varieties, American English and British English.

How this book is organised

In Chapter 1, we provide an overview of sentences in terms of their basic 'building blocks' – Subject, verb, Object, etc. In Chapter 2, we look at the smallest units in a sentence – words – and how they are categorised into word classes. Chapter 3 looks at how words combine to form larger units called phrases. It begins with those phrases that are structurally the simplest (adverb phrases, adjective phrases, and prepositional phrases) and goes on to discuss the more complex ones, noun phrases and verb phrases. Chapter 4 looks at the structure of clauses and discusses a range of sentence types. Finally, in Chapter 5, we return to the word level, to look at the internal structure of words. Chapter 5 concludes by looking at English spelling. It offers general guidelines for spelling, and discusses some common spelling problems – words like *affect* and *effect*, which are easily and regularly confused with each other in writing.

A note on sources

The grammatical analysis presented in this book, and especially in the tree diagrams, is based in large part on the grammatically annotated corpus of British English, ICE-GB, which is available from the Survey of English Usage, University College London (www.ucl.ac.uk/english-usage/projects/ice-gb/). The annotation scheme for that corpus was developed by Jan Aarts and his team at the University of Nijmegen, in collaboration with Sidney Greenbaum at University College London. That scheme, in turn, was based in large part on *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Longman, 1985), by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. In preparing this book, I have also adopted some of the analyses given in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Cambridge University Press, 2002), by Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum, and in the *Oxford Modern English Grammar* (Oxford University Press, 2012), by Bas Aarts.

Gerald Nelson
Hong Kong, July 2018

Chapter 1

Introducing sentence structure

1.1 The constituents of a sentence

Consider the following sentence:

My father retired when he was sixty.

The sentence consists of seven words in a specific order. However, it is not simply a sequence of seven individual words. Instead, certain words 'go together' to form meaningful units, as follows:

[My father] [retired] [when he was sixty].

One of these units (*retired*) consists of just one word, while the others are multi-word combinations. Regardless of their length, however, these are the basic 'building blocks' of the sentence, and they are known in grammar as the **constituents** of the sentence. A constituent is a word or a string of words that behaves grammatically and semantically as a unit.

So our sentence consists of seven words but only three constituents. Each constituent has its own grammatical function: *my father*, for example, functions as the **Subject** (1.4) and *when he was sixty* functions as an **Adjunct** (1.8). Every constituent has a complete meaning in itself, and for that reason, every constituent (except the verb) can be replaced by a single word:

[My father] [retired] [when he was sixty]. → *[He] [retired] [then]*.

Similarly:

[After the robbery], [the thieves] [drove] [to a safe house]. → *[Then], [they] [drove] [there]*.

[The postman] [left] [the package] [on my doorstep]. → *[He] [left] [it] [there]*.

[Paul] [married] [his girlfriend] [last August]. → *[He] [married] [her] [then]*.

When you begin analysing the structure of a sentence, it is useful to apply this **One-word Substitution Test**, because it provides a useful initial overview of the sentence constituents.

1.2 The Grammatical Hierarchy

In grammar, there are only three types of constituents: words, phrases, and clauses. We will discuss words in Chapter 2, phrases in Chapter 3, and clauses in Chapter 4.

The Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1) provides a very useful summary of how these three types of constituents go together to form a sentence.

Words are at the bottom of the Hierarchy, and for many people, this is the most familiar area of grammar. Most people learn about word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc) early in their school careers, but do not continue their studies to look at how those words combine to form phrases and clauses. This is unfortunate, since the step from word level to phrase level is actually a very short one. For example, *dog* is a noun, but *the dog*, *the little dog*, and *the little dog that I love* are **noun phrases** (3.6). Similarly, *happy* is an adjective, while *very happy* and *very happy to see you* are **adjective phrases** (3.4).

The word-based approach to grammar – looking at word classes only – leads to a very common misconception: the structure of a sentence is not

SENTENCES

consist of one or more

CLAUSES

consist of one or more

PHRASES

consist of one or more

WORDS

Figure 1.1

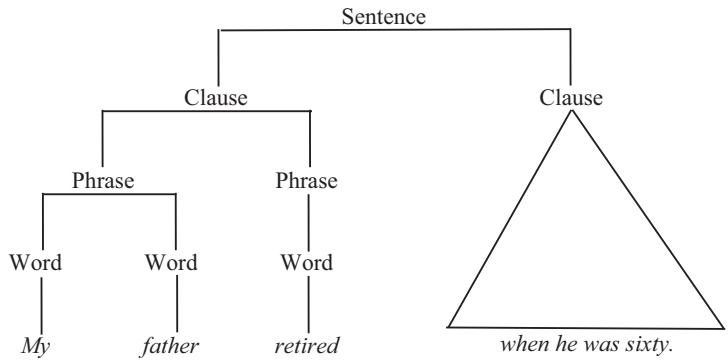

Figure 1.2

simply a sequence of 'one word after another'. Instead, sentence structure involves the **embedding** of constituents inside other constituents. We can illustrate this by looking at our original sentence, *My father retired when he was sixty*. We have seen that it consists of three major constituents, but the **tree diagram** in Figure 1.2 gives a more detailed picture

Notice how the structure conforms exactly to the Grammatical Hierarchy, with WORDS at the bottom, SENTENCE at the top, and CLAUSES and PHRASES in between. The triangle indicates that there is even more structure inside the constituent *when he was sixty*, but we will discuss that later, when we look at clauses, in Chapter 4. For now, it is important to see that every word in the sentence is a constituent, but not every sequence of words is a constituent.

Even an apparently simple sentence can have many layers of embedded constituents. Consider, for example, the following sentence:

Amy works in the centre of London.

The One-word Substitution Test gives us an initial overview of the constituents of the sentence:

[She] [works] [there].

So the sentence has three major constituents, as follows:

noun phrase (3.6)	Amy
verb phrase (3.7)	works
prepositional phrase (3.5)	in the centre of London

The prepositional phrase *in the centre of London* has three further constituents embedded within it:

prepositional phrase:	in the centre of London
noun phrase:	the centre of London
prepositional phrase:	of London
noun phrase:	London

'Doing grammar' involves working out which words go together to form constituents, and how those constituents combine to form phrases, clauses, and sentences.

1.3 Form and function in grammatical description

In this grammar, the approach to grammatical description is the Form-Function approach. '**Form**' refers to the 'shape' or 'appearance' of a sentence constituent. For example, in the following sentence

The old man is walking his dog.

we say that *the old man* has the form of a noun phrase (3.6), because its main word, *man*, is a noun. The whole constituent could be replaced by the single word *he*.

We can also describe *the old man* in terms of its **function**, that is, the grammatical role that it plays in the sentence. In this case, we say that *the old man* has the function of Subject (1.4). So in the Form-Function Approach, we say that *the old man* has the form of a noun phrase and the function of Subject in the sentence. Following the same approach, we can say that *his dog* also has the form of a noun phrase, but it has a different function: it plays the role of **Direct Object** (1.6.3) in the sentence.

To understand the Form-Function Approach, it is useful to think in terms of actors and roles. In the sentence above, the 'actor' is the noun phrase *the old man*, playing the role of Subject. In a different sentence, the same actor could play a different role. For example, in *We visited the old man*, the constituent *the old man* plays the role (function) of Direct Object. In this case, *the old man* would be replaced by the single word *him* (2.3.1).

In order to highlight the distinction between form and function, I have adopted the convention in this grammar of spelling form terms with a lower-case initial (e.g. noun, noun phrase, adjective, adjective phrase), and

function terms with an upper-case initial (e.g. Subject, Direct Object). In tree diagrams, the function label appears first, followed by the form label, and the two are separated by a colon:

Function: Form

So *the old man*, in our example sentence, would be labelled 'Subject:noun phrase', and *his dog* would be labelled 'Direct Object:noun phrase'. In actual tree diagrams, however, we use abbreviations, simply for reasons of space, as shown in Figure 1.3.

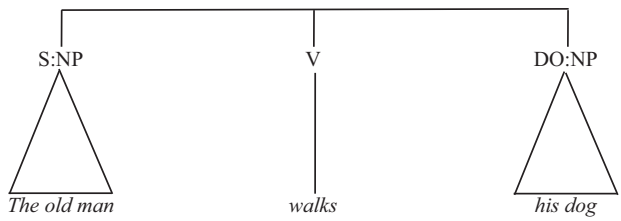

Figure 1.3

Again, the triangles indicate that these constituents have more structure inside them. We will look at those structures in Chapter 3. A full list of the abbreviations used in tree diagrams can be found on p. x.

1.4 Subject and verb

The simplest type of sentence consists of a verb only:

Stop.	Look.
Wait.	Listen.

These are called **imperative sentences** (1.8.4) and they are used to give orders or instructions. More commonly, however, a sentence will have a Subject and a verb:

Subject	**verb**
Amy	laughed.
Everyone	applauded.
My father	retired.

The verb is often expanded to form a **verb phrase** (3.7):

Subject	**verb phrase**
Amy	is a nurse.
Paul	plays football.
The police	interviewed the suspect.
We	gave James a birthday present.

The form of the verb phrase depends on the type of verb it contains, and we will look at verb types in 1.6. But first, we will look at the Subject.

1.5 Identifying the Subject

In a simple sentence, the Subject comes before the verb: *Amy* (S) *laughed* (V). However, it is not necessarily the first constituent in the sentence:

When she finally understood the joke, Amy (S) laughed (S).

Here, the Subject is preceded by the Adjunct (1.8) *when she finally understood the joke*.

In traditional school-level grammars, the Subject is often described as the 'doer of the action'. That notional definition (based on the meaning) really only applies to the simplest sentences, and is completely inaccurate in relation to **passive sentences** (1.7):

Paul was bitten by a snake.

Here, the Subject is *Paul*, but Paul is not the 'doer of the action'. On the contrary, Paul was on the receiving end of the action of biting, which was performed by the snake. More correctly, the 'doer of the action' is called the **agent**, which in this example is *a snake*. The agent and the Subject may coincide in some sentences, but not in all, so we need some more reliable ways to identify the Subject. These are discussed in the following two sections.

1.5.1 The Inversion Test

When we turn a statement into a question, the Subject inverts ('changes places') with the verb:

Statement: *James is* at school.
Question: *Is James* at school?

Here, the verb *is* inverts with *James*, so *James* is the Subject of the sentence. If there are two verbs present, the Subject inverts with the first verb (the **Operator**, 3.7.1):

Statement: *The children are* playing outside.
Question: *Are the children* playing outside?

1.5.2 *The Tag Question Test*

A **tag question** (1.9) is a question which is added to the end of a statement:

Paul is getting big, *isn't he*?

The last word in the tag question refers back to the Subject of the statement, and in that way helps us to identify the Subject of the sentence as a whole. In this example, *he* refers back to *Paul*, so *Paul* is the Subject of the sentence.

Similarly:

The children seem busy, don't *they*?

Here, *they* refers back to *the children*, so *the children* is the Subject of the sentence.

The **Tag Question Test** can also be used to identify the Subject of more complicated sentences:

There was a storm last night, wasn't *there*?

Here, the Tag Question Test identifies the Subject of the sentence as the word *there*. This called a ***there*-sentence**, and we will look at these in more detail in section 4.8.

In the next example, the Tag Question Test identifies the Subject as the word *it*:

It is important to take exercise, isn't *it*?

This is an example of an extraposed sentence, which we look at in more detail in section 4.7.

Finally:

It was on Monday that we met Amy, wasn't *it*?

Here, the Tag Question Test once again identifies the Subject as the word *it*. This type of sentence is called a **cleft sentence**. See section 4.9 for further discussion of this.

We can confirm these findings by applying the Inversion Test, turning each statement into a question:

Statement	**Question**
There was a storm last night.	→ *Was there* a storm last night?
It is important to take exercise.	→ *Is it* important to take exercise?
It was on Monday that we met Amy.	→ *Was it* on Monday that we met Amy?

1.5.3 *Subject-verb agreement*

The Subject of a sentence agrees in **number** (singular or plural) with the verb that follows it. Compare:

Singular Subject: *The dog barks* all night.
Plural Subject: *The dogs bark* all night.

Here, the form of the verb (*barks* or *bark*) is determined by whether the Subject is singular (*the dog*) or plural (*the dogs*). This is known as **Subject-verb agreement**.

However, Subject-verb agreement only applies when the sentence is in the present tense. In the past tense, the verb remains the same, regardless of the Subject:

Singular Subject: *The dog barked* all night.
Plural Subject: *The dogs barked* all night.

Furthermore, agreement applies only when the Subject is third-person (2.3.1):

Singular Subject: *He/she/the boy likes* pizza.
Plural Subject: *They like* pizza.

With all other Subjects, the same verb form is used whether the Subject is *I* (the first-person singular) or *we* (the first-person plural):

Singular Subject: *I sleep* all night.
Plural Subject: *We sleep* all night.

Finally, Subject-verb agreement does not apply if the first verb is a modal verb (2.5.1), such as *will* or *can*, since these verbs do not change their form.

Singular Subject: *He will* be here soon.
Plural Subject: *They will* be here soon.

Singular Subject: *Amy can* play the piano.
Plural Subject: *The twins can* play the piano.

Subject-verb agreement, therefore, is limited as a way of identifying the Subject. The Inversion Test and the Tag Question Test are generally more useful, since they can be applied to any type of statement.

1.6 Verb types and sentence patterns

The structure of a sentence is determined to a very large extent by the type of verb it contains. There are three main types of verb: **intransitive** (1.6.1), **linking** (1.6.2), and **transitive** (1.6.3). Transitive verbs are further subdivided into **monotransitive** verbs (1.6.3), **ditransitive** verbs (1.6.4), and **complex transitive** verbs (1.6.5).

1.6.1 Intransitive verbs

An **intransitive verb** needs only a Subject to form a complete sentence:

Subject	**verb**
The prisoners	escaped.
The baby	cried.
The temperature	dropped.
The sky	darkened.
The ship	disappeared.

Each of these sentences contains just a Subject (S) and a verb (V), so their structure is:

Sentence pattern 1: Intransitive verb	
S	V
Amy	*laughed.*

1.6.2 *Linking verbs and Subject Complements*

Unlike other verbs (such as *destroy*, *sing*, *laugh*, *eat*, *break*), the verb *be* does not denote any kind of 'action'. Instead, it links the Subject to another constituent following the verb:

Amy *is* my sister.

Here, we would not say that Amy performs any 'action' in 'being my sister'. The verb simply links the two constituents *Amy* and *my sister*, and for that reason, we call it a **linking verb**. The constituent after a linking verb is called the **Subject Complement** (SC) and it is required to form a complete sentence. Compare:

Amy is my sister.
*Amy is ~~my sister~~.

Be is by far the most common linking verb, though there are several others:

Subject	**verb**	**Subject Complement**
David	*seems*	unhappy.
The house	*appeared*	empty.
She	*looks*	uncomfortable.
That music	*sounds*	awful.
The animals	*became*	restless.
The children	*grew*	tired.
The crowd	*went*	wild.

Linking verbs all have the same general meaning of 'be', 'seem', or 'become'.

The structure of a sentence with a linking verb is:

Sentence pattern 2: Linking verb		
S	V	SC
Amy	*is*	*my sister.*

1.6.3 *Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects*

Like linking verbs (1.4.2), **monotransitive verbs** also require another constituent to form a complete sentence. Consider, for example, the verb *destroy*:

*The soldiers *destroyed*.
The soldiers *destroyed the village*.

The constituent after the verb (*the village*) is called the Direct Object, and it completes the meaning of the verb. *Destroy*, therefore, is a monotransitive verb. Further examples of monotransitive verbs include:

Subject	**verb**	**Direct Object**
Paul	*bought*	a large Coke.
The generator	*produces*	electricity.
Everyone	*enjoyed*	the party.
Christopher Wren	*designed*	St Paul's Cathedral.
Someone	*stole*	my iPhone.

These sentences display the structure:

Sentence pattern 3: Monotransitive verb		
S	V	DO
The soldiers	*destroyed*	*the village.*

Many verbs have both intransitive (1.6.1) and monotransitive uses, sometimes with quite different meanings. Compare the following pairs:

Intransitive: The children *grew*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: The children *grew* flowers. (S+V+DO)

Intransitive: The old man *shook*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: The old man *shook* his head. (S+V+DO)

Intransitive: Simon has *changed*. (S+V)
Monotransitive: Simon has *changed* his clothes. (S+V+DO)

1.6.4 *Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects*

We saw in 1.6.3 that monotransitive verbs require a Direct Object to form a complete sentence. **Ditransitive** verbs require two Objects, an **Indirect Object** (IO) and a Direct Object (DO):

The judges gave *David* (IO) *the prize* (DO).

The two Objects here are *David*, the Indirect Object, and *the prize*, the Direct Object. The Indirect Object always comes before the Direct Object. Here are some more examples of sentences with two Objects:

Subject	**verb**	**Indirect Object**	**Direct Object**
He	*sent*	me	an email.
She	*told*	her husband	the news.
They	*made*	her	a birthday cake.
The postman	*brought*	James	a package.

The first constituent after the verb is described as 'indirect' because it is only indirectly affected by the verb. In the last example, we can see that a package (not James) was brought by the postman, so *a package* is the Direct Object, and *James* is the Indirect Object. The sentence can be rephrased as:

The postman brought *a package* (DO) to *James*.

This is called the **prepositional paraphrase** of the ditransitive structure. All ditransitive structures can be paraphrased in the same way:

She sent *me* (IO) *an email* (DO).	→	She sent *an email* (DO) to *me*.
She told *her husband* (IO) *the news* (DO).	→	She told *the news* (DO) to *her husband*.
They made *her* (IO) *a birthday cake* (DO).	→	They made *a birthday cake* (DO) for *her*.

Notice that the prepositional paraphrase does not contain an Indirect Object. The sentence ends with a prepositional phrase (3.5) consisting of a preposition (*to*, *for*) followed by the constituent that was the Indirect Object in the ditransitive version. In the prepositional paraphrase, that constituent now functions as the Complement of the preposition (3.5).

Sentences with a ditransitive verb exhibit the following structure:

Sentence pattern 4: Ditransitive verb			
S	V	IO	DO
The judges	*gave*	*David*	*the prize.*

1.6.5 *Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements*

Complex transitive verbs require a Direct Object (1.6.3) and an **Object Complement** (OC):

The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC).

In semantic terms, the complex transitive construction describes an action applied to the Direct Object that produces a specific result. The result is expressed by the Object Complement. Here are some more examples:

Subject	**verb**	**Direct Object**	**Object Complement**
His comments	*made*	me	very angry.
The food	*made*	him	ill.
They	*elected*	Amy	Treasurer.
They	*named*	the baby	Barack.
He	*put*	the milk	in the fridge.

The relationship between the DO and the OC is similar to that between a Subject (1.4) and a Subject Complement (1.6.2), so a complex transitive construction can often be rephrased as:

The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The water* (S) is *blue* (SC).
They named *the baby* (DO) *Barack* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The baby* (S) is *Barack* (SC).
He put *the milk* (DO) *in the fridge* (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *The milk* (S) is *in the fridge* (SC).

The Object Complement comes after the Direct Object, so the pattern in these sentences is:

Sentence pattern 5: Complex transitive verb			
S	V	DO	OC
The dye	*turned*	*the water*	*blue.*

At first glance, some complex transitive sentences (Pattern 5) may look very similar to ditransitive sentences (Pattern 4). Compare:

[1] **Pattern 5: Complex transitive verb**

S	V	DO	OC
The Headmaster	*made*	*Jones*	*a prefect.*

[2] **Pattern 4: Ditransitive verb**

S	V	IO	DO
The Headmaster	*made*	*Jones*	*a coffee.*

The grammatical difference between these two can be seen when we rephrase them. Sentence [2] can be rephrased as:

[2a] *The Headmaster made a coffee for Jones.*

This is the prepositional paraphrase of a ditransitive that we discussed in 1.6.4. In contrast, sentence [1] cannot be rephrased in the same way:

[1a] **The Headmaster made a prefect for Jones.*

The constituent *a prefect* in [1] expresses an attribute of the Direct Object *Jones*, so *a prefect* is an Object Complement. Notice that we can rephrase [1] as follows:

The Headmaster made *Jones* (DO) a prefect (OC) . . . and as a result. . . . *Jones* (S) is *a prefect* (SC).

Similarly, compare:

Pattern 5 Complex transitive: Amy called *Tom* (DO) *a fool* (OC). ('Tom is a fool.')
Pattern 4 Ditransitive: Amy called *Tom* (IO) *a taxi* (DO). ('Amy called a taxi for Tom.')

1.6.6 *Adverbial Complements*

In 1.6.1, we saw that intransitive verbs require no other constituent to complete their meaning. However, some intransitive verbs co-occur with a constituent that expresses location, direction, or time, and which is obligatory in the sentence structure. This constituent is called the **Adverbial Complement** (AC).

This road *goes* (V) *to Sevenoaks* (AC).

Notice that without the AC, this sentence would be incomplete: **This road goes*.

Here are some more examples of sentences with Adverbial Complements:

Subject	**verb**	**Adverbial Complement**
The kids	went	home.
His wife	comes	from Poland.
His property	extends	over two counties.
The farm	lies	about a mile east of town.
Her influence	stretches	beyond the government.
The meeting	lasted	two hours.

In each of these examples, the verb is intransitive, and yet the constituent that follows it is required to complete the meaning. The pattern in these sentences is

Sentence Pattern 6: Intransitive verb + AC		
S	V	AC
The road	*goes*	*to Sevenoaks.*

1.6.7 *Summary: the six sentence patterns*

In the previous sections, we looked at the following sentence constituents:

Subject	S	(1.4)
Verb	V	(1.4)
Subject Complement	SC	(1.6.2)
Direct Object	DO	(1.6.3)
Indirect Object	IO	(1.6.4)
Object Complement	OC	(1.6.5)
Adverbial Complement	AC	(1.6.6)

These constituents combine to form the six basic sentence patterns shown in Table 1.1.

Notice in Table 1.1 that the Subject (S) and the verb (V) are present in all six sentence structures. This means that all sentences contain at least a Subject and a verb. There is one exception to this: imperative sentences like *Look!* and *Move over!* have a verb, but no Subject (4.4.3).

Table 1.1 Sentence patterns and verb types

Sentence pattern	Verb type	Examples
1. S+V	Intransitive	Amy (S) laughed (V). The audience (S) applauded (V). The temperature (S) dropped (V).
2. S+V+SC	Linking	My tea (S) is (V) cold (SC). My friend (S) is (V) ill (SC). David (S) seems (V) unhappy (SC).
3. S+V+DO	Monotransitive	The soldiers (S) destroyed (V) the village (DO). The police (S) arrested (V) the suspects (DO). The storm (S) caused (V) a lot of damage (DO).
4. S+V+IO+DO	Ditransitive	We (S) gave (V) David (IO) the prize (DO). I (S) sent (V) her (IO) an email (DO). I (S) asked (V) him (IO) a question (DO).
5. S+V+DO+OC	Complex transitive	The dye (S) turned (V) the water (DO) blue (OC). His comments (S) made (V) me (DO) angry (OC). They (S) elected (V) Amy (DO) President (OC).
6. S+V+AC	Intransitive	This road (S) goes (V) to Sevenoaks (AC). The farm (S) lies (V) about a mile east of the town (AC). The meeting (S) lasted (V) two hours (AC).

Key: **AC** = Adverbial Complement; **DO** = Direct Object; **IO** = Indirect Object; **OC** = Object Complement; **S** = Subject; **SC** = Subject Complement; **V** = verb

1.7 Active sentences and passive sentences

Consider the following two sentences:

[1]	Amy is a lawyer.	S+V+SC	**(Pattern 2: Linking verb)**
[2]	Amy hired a lawyer.	S+V+DO	**(Pattern 3: Monotransitive verb)**

An important difference between the two sentences is that only sentence [2] can be re-written as:

[2a] A lawyer was hired by Amy.

This is called the **passive** version of sentence [2], which is called the **active** version.

In contrast, sentence [1] has no passive version, because it does not have a Direct Object. Only sentences with a Direct Object can be passivized. In a passive sentence, the Direct Object (DO) of the original active version becomes the Subject (S) of the passive version. Here are some more examples:

Active: *Shakespeare* (S) wrote *King Lear* (DO).
Passive: *King Lear* (S) was written by Shakespeare.

Active: *The burglar* (S) broke *a pane of glass* (DO).
Passive: *A pane of glass* (S) was broken by the burglar.

Active: *The curator* (S) shows *the manuscript* (DO) to visitors.
Passive: *The manuscript* (S) is shown to visitors by the curator.

Active: *The police* (S) interviewed *the witnesses* (DO).
Passive: *The witnesses* (S) were interviewed by the police.

The Subject of the active version moves to the end of the passive version, where it forms the *by*-**phrase** (*by Shakespeare*, *by the burglar*, etc). The *by*-phrase can often be omitted, leaving an **agentless passive**:

Active: The burglar broke a pane of glass.
Passive: A pane of glass was broken by the burglar.
Agentless Passive: A pane of glass was broken.

The *by*-phrase is usually omitted if the information it would convey is unknown or irrelevant:

The museum was opened in 2001.
The concert was held at Wembley Stadium.
He was considered handsome at one time.

Sentences with a Direct Object can be passivized, including Pattern 4 sentences (1.6.4) which have two Objects, and therefore two passive versions:

Active:	The judges gave *David* (IO) *the prize* (DO).
Passive version 1:	*David* (S) was given the prize by the judges.
Passive version 2:	*The prize* (S) was given to David by the judges.

Pattern 5 sentences, with a complex transitive verb, can also be passivized:

Active:	The dye turned *the water* (DO) *blue* (OC).
Passive:	*The water* (S) was turned *blue* (OC) by the dye.

However, a small number of verbs cannot be passivized, even though they are transitive in the active version. These include *have*, *afford*, *lack*, *resemble*, and *suit*:

Active:	James has a new car.
Passive:	*A new car is had by James.
Active:	Amy can't afford a mortgage.
Passive:	*A mortgage can't be afforded by Amy.
Active:	Simon lacks confidence.
Passive:	*Confidence is lacked by Simon.
Active:	Paul resembles Anthony.
Passive:	*Anthony is resembled by Paul.
Active:	That colour suits you.
Passive:	*You are suited by that colour.

The distinction between an active sentence and a passive sentence is called **voice**.

1.8 Adjuncts

The six sentence patterns (Table 1.1) can all be extended by the use of Adjuncts. Adjuncts (A) contribute optional, additional information to a

sentence. For example, the S+V sentence *The sky darkened* can be extended by the addition of Adjuncts, to become:

The sky darkened *suddenly*. (S+V+A)
The sky darkened *before the hailstorm*. (S+V+A)
The sky darkened *at about 9 o'clock*. (S+V+A)

In the following examples, we show how each of the six sentence patterns may be extended by adding an Adjunct:

Pattern 1: S+V+A
Amy laughed *when I told her the story* (A).

Pattern 2: S+V+SC+A
My tea is cold *as usual* (A).

Pattern 3: S+V+DO+A
The soldiers destroyed the village *using heavy artillery* (A).

Pattern 4: S+V+IO+DO+A
The judges gave David the prize *in the end* (A).

Pattern 5: S+V+DO+OC+A
The dye turned the water blue *in just a few seconds* (A).

Pattern 6: S+V+AC+A
The meeting lasted two hours, *unfortunately* (A).

With some restrictions, Adjuncts are mobile within a sentence, that is, they can occupy different positions. They can occur at the end of the sentence, as in the examples above, or at the beginning:

When I told her the story, Amy laughed.
As usual, my tea is cold.
Using heavy artillery, the soldiers destroyed the village.
In the end, the judges gave David the prize.
In just a few seconds, the dye turned the water blue.
Unfortunately, the meeting lasted two hours.

Adjuncts can also occur within a sentence, and when they do, they are placed between constituents, not within constituents. Compare:

[The meeting (S)], *unfortunately* (A), lasted (V) two hours (AC).
*[The *unfortunately* (A) meeting (S)], lasted (V) two hours (AC).

Finally, Adjuncts can co-occur. That is, more than one Adjunct can occur in the same sentence:

Before the hailstorm (A) the sky darkened *suddenly* (A).
Unfortunately (A), my tea is cold *as usual* (A).
On Sunday (A), *after the game* (A), we met Simon *outside the stadium* (A).

Adjuncts contribute optional information to a sentence, so if we leave them out, the sentence is still grammatically complete:

~~Before the hailstorm~~, the sky darkened ~~suddenly~~.
~~Unfortunately~~, my tea is cold ~~as usual~~.
~~On Sunday, after the game~~, we met Simon ~~outside the stadium~~.

These sentences remain complete without the Adjuncts, but they are obviously much less informative than the full versions. Although Adjuncts are grammatically omissible, they contribute a very wide range of meanings to a sentence. We look at some of those meanings in the next section.

1.8.1 *The meanings of Adjuncts*

Adjuncts (1.8) contribute a wide range of additional information to a sentence. The principal information types are set out below.

1 **Time** (*when* something happens):

The play opened *yesterday*.
Our guests arrived *at seven o'clock*.
We visit Greece *every year*.

2 **Place** (*where* something happens):

Amy attended university *in New York*.
We met Simon *outside the stadium*.
I saw David *at the swimming pool*.

3 **Manner** (*how* something happens):

She sings *beautifully*.
The children listened *intently*.
Gradually, the room filled with smoke.

See also: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1) and the meanings of Adjunct clauses (4.2.2.1)

1.9 Peripheral constituents in sentence structure

In this section, we look at some more constituents that can be added to a sentence. Like Adjuncts (1.8), they are optional, and their omission still leaves a well-formed sentence. Many of them are, however, very frequently used, especially in conversation.

A tag question is added to the end of a sentence to seek the hearer's agreement with a statement:

It's warm today, *isn't it?*
The policy hasn't really worked, *has it?*
Bernard worked in Whitehall, *didn't he?*

If the sentence is negative, then the corresponding tag question is positive, and vice-versa:

It's not too late, *is it?*
It's too late, *isn't it?*

In some instances, a positive tag question is used with a positive sentence:

You wrote this yourself, *did you?*
This is your car, *is it?*

In these examples, the tag question may imply that the speaker suspects the sentence to be untrue. Compare:

You wrote this yourself, *didn't you?*

See also: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

A **comment clause** is a brief clause (4.1) inserted into a sentence, expressing the speaker's attitude towards what is being said:

We could, *I suppose*, share one between us.
The building was used, *I imagine*, for storing grain.
She was acting on impulse, *I guess*.
I can't help you, *I'm afraid*.

Other comment clauses include *I assume*, *I reckon*, *I think*, *I must say*, *I'm sorry to say*, *I must admit*.

A **parenthetical** is a complete sentence which is inserted 'parenthetically' into another sentence. In writing, parentheticals are marked off from the main sentence by enclosing them in brackets or dashes:

The range of colours (*most suppliers have* 72) can include metallics, and both warm and cool greys.
By Bugatti standards it was not technically advanced – *smaller Bugattis used similar technical layouts* – merely bigger and grander, in all respects.

In speech, parentheticals are often introduced by *and*:

Lionel Messi is *and I think most people agree with me* one of the world's greatest footballers.
There is a sense in which *and Hogarth realized this* satire is also a form of entertainment.

A **sentential relative clause** is introduced by the relative pronoun *which* (2.3.6). It is used to add a comment about what has just been said:

James took an earlier train, *which was lucky for him*.
Mary finally passed her exams, *which was a relief to everyone*.
John doesn't want to meet Laura, *which I can understand*.

A **vocative** is used to identify the person or persons to whom a sentence is addressed:

James, your dinner is ready.
Come inside, *children*.
Doctor, I need a new prescription.
The car was parked behind the building, *your Honour*.
I'm sorry I'm late, *everyone*.
Ladies and gentlemen, thank you for that warm welcome.

1.10 Fragments and non-sentences

All the sentences we have looked at so far have been grammatically complete. Grammatically complete sentences typically contain at least a verb. However, a great deal of communication, especially in speech, consists of incomplete sentences or **fragments**. In conversation, for instance, speakers often omit the Subject, especially when the understood Subject is *I*:

Must set my alarm clock tonight.
Can't seem to concentrate today.

Fragments are also commonly used in response to questions:

Speaker A: What did you buy for Sandra?
Speaker B: *A gold necklace.*

Speaker B's utterance is a fragment, which we interpret in the same way as the complete sentence *I bought a gold necklace for Sandra*, where it functions as Direct Object.

Newspaper headlines are often highly compressed, so that complete sentences are reduced to fragments:

LABOUR PARTY IN EXPENSES SCANDAL

This fragment has no verb, but we interpret it as the complete sentence *The Labour Party is involved in an expenses scandal*.

We refer to these as fragments because we can interpret them in the same way as grammatically complete sentences. Only some of the sentence elements are missing.

Non-sentences have no sentence structure at all, and they generally occur without any surrounding context. They are frequently used in public signs and notices:

No Parking
Motorway Ahead
Paddington, 2 miles
10% Off
Closing Down Sale

Non-sentences in conversational English include *bye*, *goodbye*, *hello*, *hi*, *no*, *ok*, *right*, *sure*, *thanks*, *yes*.

In online communication, via emails and social media, the following fragments and non-sentences are regularly used:

BRB	(be right back)
FYI	(for your information)
LOL	(laughing out loud)
OMG	(oh my God)
pls	(please)
tnx	(thanks)

See also: Sentence types (**4.4**)

Exercises for Chapter 1

Exercise 1.1: Identifying the Subject (1.5)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject:

1 My eldest son graduated in June.
2 The students visited Paris with their teachers.
3 Some flights are very cheap.
4 The concert was very disappointing.
5 At Christmas, most of the children perform in the Nativity Play.
6 It's snowing.
7 It was in June that we met.
8 Smoking cigarettes is dangerous.

Exercise 1.2: The Inversion Test (1.5.1)

Rewrite each of the sentences below as questions, and underline the Subject in the question:

1 Paul is older than Amy.
2 Lunch is ready.
3 It is cold outside.
4 Someone is watching the house.
5 Alan has a new car.
6 Reading books is his favourite pastime.
7 It was through hard work that he succeeded.
8 My old suitcase was still under the bed.

Exercise 1.3: Linking verbs and Subject Complements (1.6.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject Complement:

1 Amy is a good student.
2 He looks a bit tired.
3 Paul is getting very big.
4 She wants to become a doctor.
5 It tastes bitter.
6 I'm going crazy.

Exercise 1.4: Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects (1.6.3)

In each of the sentences below, underline the Direct Object.

1 The government has promised an end to age discrimination in the workplace.
2 Most people welcomed the government's change of policy.
3 However, some people expressed doubts about the proposed legislation.
4 They are demanding a more comprehensive review of employment law.
5 A Select Committee will discuss the issue next month.
6 The Committee is still accepting submissions.
7 Some people question the need for such extensive consultation.
8 The Opposition will raise the question during the next parliamentary session.

Exercise 1.5: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Underline the Indirect Object in each of the sentences below.

1 Send me your email address, please.
2 He owes the bank a lot of money.
3 We've promised Paul a laptop for his birthday.
4 Can you show us the way to King's Cross?
5 He is teaching the children French.
6 I've emailed you my details.
7 She gave the bridegroom a kiss.
8 They made both candidates the same offer.

Exercise 1.6: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Use each of the verbs below to make a sentence containing a Direct Object and an Indirect Object.

give *pay* *ask* *find* *charge* *cook* *show* *read* *tell*
offer *cost*

Exercise 1.7: Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements (1.6.5)

Underline the Object Complement in each of the sentences below.

1 Seafood can sometimes make people ill.
2 I usually find science fiction movies very boring.

3 Make yourself comfortable.
4 He proclaimed himself President of the new republic.
5 The jury found the defendant guilty.
6 We left the children at the playschool.
7 He was appointed Chief Justice in 2017.
8 They called Michael Jackson the 'King of Pop'.

Exercise 1.8: The six sentence patterns (1.6.7) and Adjuncts (1.8)

In the spaces provided, indicate the grammatical function of each underlined constituent in the following sentences. Use the following abbreviations:

A = Adjunct AC = Adverbial Complement DO = Direct Object
IO = Indirect Object
S = Subject SC = Subject Complement OC = Object Complement

1 In tropical rainforests ( ), bird life ( ) is usually ( ) very exotic and colourful ( ).
2 The appearance of birds ( ) is seasonal ( ).
3 Sometimes ( ), the arrival of flowers and fruits ( ) will attract birds ( ).
4 The dense canopy of leaves ( ) makes the rainforest ( ) very dark ( ).
5 At ground level ( ), you ( ) can occasionally ( ) see kingfishers ( ).
6 The constant gloom and enormous tree trunks ( ) give the rainforest ( ) the appearance of a cathedral ( ).
7 The forest stretches three hundred miles eastwards ( ).

Exercise 1.9: Active sentences and passive sentences (1.7)

Write the passive version of each of the following sentences:

1 NASA launched a new satellite.
2 Everyone enjoyed the movie.
3 Someone took my iPhone.
4 The manager selects the team.
5 United scored two goals in the first twenty minutes.
6 The suspect terrorised the neighbourhood for weeks.

Exercise 1.10: Adjuncts (1.8)

Underline all the Adjuncts in the following passage.

RMS Titanic left Southampton on 10 April 1912. After crossing the English Channel, she stopped at Cherbourg, France. The next day, she stopped again at Queenstown, Ireland, to allow more passengers to go on board. When she finally sailed to New York, she had 2,240 passengers. Just before midnight on 14 April, the *Titanic* struck an iceberg in the north Atlantic. The massive ship sank two hours and forty minutes later. As a result, 1,517 people lost their lives. Unfortunately, the owners of the *Titanic* thought their ship was unsinkable. While they were fitting out the great ship, they did not provide enough lifeboats. Following the sinking, new regulations were introduced, in an effort to ensure that such a catastrophe could never happen again.

Chapter 2

Words and word classes

2.1 Open and closed word classes

Words may be divided into the following major word classes:

Word class	Examples
Nouns	*brother*, *child*, *China*, *science*, *James*, *tree*
Pronouns	*I*, *me*, *my*, *you*, *he*, *his*, *her*, *we*, *our*
Determiners	*a/an*, *any*, *every*, *more*, *no*, *the*
Main verbs	*break*, *consider*, *destroy*, *eat*, *sing*, *talk*
Auxiliary verbs	*can*, *could*, *do*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*
Prepositions	*after*, *at*, *for*, *in*, *of*, *over*, *with*, *without*
Adjectives	*angry*, *cold*, *foolish*, *happy*, *important*, *young*
Adverbs	*carefully*, *gradually*, *happily*, *now*, *sometimes*
Conjunctions	*although*, *and*, *because*, *but*, *if*, *or*, *while*

Some word classes are **open**, that is, they admit new words as members as the need arises. The class of nouns is potentially infinite, since it is continually being expanded as new discoveries are made, new products are developed, and new ideas are explored. In recent years, for example, developments in Internet technology have given rise to many new nouns, including:

bitmap	e-commerce	spam
blog	firewall	voicemail
broadband	gigabyte	
browser	homepage	
cache	hypertext	
chatroom	newsgroup	

These developments have also given rise to some new verbs:

bookmark	google	surf
double-click	reboot	tweet
download	right-click	upload

The class of numerals is entirely open, since we can always add 1 to a number to make a new number. The adjective and adverb classes also admit new members from time to time, though far less prolifically than the class of nouns.

In contrast with this, prepositions, for instance, belong to a **closed** word class. We never invent new prepositions (words like *after*, *at*, *before*, *in*, *with*) simply because we never need them.

2.2 Nouns and determiners

Nouns denote both concrete objects and abstract entities:

Concrete	**Abstract**
book	anger
chair	difficulty
dog	eagerness
grass	history
lake	information
house	progress
tree	terror

Many nouns can be identified by their characteristic endings:

-ence	absence, difference, evidence, experience
-ment	embarrassment, experiment, government, treatment
-tion	education, information, situation, vegetation
-ism	defeatism, optimism, symbolism, terrorism
-ist	artist, biologist, perfectionist, realist

For more examples of noun endings, see 5.3.

2.2.1 *Singular nouns and plural nouns*

Most nouns have two forms, a **singular** form and a **plural** form. Regular nouns form the plural by adding *-s* to the singular:

Singular	**Plural**
boy	boys
table	tables

However, some very frequent nouns have irregular plurals:

Singular	**Plural**
man	men
woman	women
child	children
foot	feet
goose	geese
mouse	mice
tooth	teeth
sheep	sheep

For more on the spelling of plural nouns, see 5.11.

2.2.2 *Common nouns and proper nouns*

Proper nouns are the names of individual people and places, including geographical features such as roads, rivers, mountains, and oceans:

Patrick	Hong Kong
Donald Trump	Euston Road
China	Atlantic Ocean
Paris	River Thames
New Delhi	Mount Everest

The names of institutions, newspapers, buildings, ships, and languages are also proper nouns:

The Wall Street Journal	London Underground
The Royal Albert Hall	Titanic
Harvard University	Mayflower
Millennium Dome	British Museum
Latin	Greek

Finally, proper nouns include the days of the week, the months of the year, and other periods of the calendar:

Monday	Christmas
Tuesday	Passover
January	Ramadan
February	Thanksgiving

Proper nouns are written with an initial capital (upper-case) letter. All other nouns are common nouns. Since proper nouns usually refer to unique individuals, places, or events in the calendar, they do not normally have a plural form. However, they may take a plural ending when number is specifically being referred to:

There are two *Patricks* in my class.
We first met two *Christmases* ago.

2.2.3 *Countable nouns and uncountable nouns*

Singular nouns denote just one instance, while plural nouns denote more than one instance:

Singular	**Plural**
one *boy*	two *boys*, three *boys* . . .
one *day*	two *days*, three *days* . . .
one *computer*	two *computers*, three *computers* . . .

These nouns are called countable nouns. In contrast, some nouns cannot be counted in this way:

*one *advice*, two *advices*, three *advices* . . .
*one *furniture*, two *furnitures*, three *furnitures* . . .
*one *software*, two *softwares*, three *softwares* . . .

These nouns are called uncountable nouns. Uncountable nouns refer to things which are considered as indivisible wholes, and therefore cannot be counted.

Uncountable nouns have two important grammatical features:

1 They have a singular form (*advice*, *furniture*, *software*), but no plural form (**advices*, **furnitures*, **softwares*).
2 They do not take *a* or *an* before them (**an advice*, **a furniture*, **a software*).

Other uncountable nouns include *fun*, *health*, *honesty*, *information*, *luck*, *luggage*, *mud*, *music*, *traffic*.

Some nouns may be uncountable or countable, depending on how their meaning is perceived in a particular context. For example:

Do you take *sugar*?

Here, *sugar* is uncountable, since (a) it has no plural form (**Do you take sugars?*) and (b) it will not take *a* (**Do you take a sugar?*). On the other hand, *sugar* is countable in the following:

I take two *sugars* (= 'two spoonfuls of sugar')

See also: Determiners (**2.2.6**)

2.2.4 *Genitive nouns*

The genitive (sometimes called genitive case) is formed by adding *'s* (apostrophe *s*) to the singular form of a noun:

John's car
the *baby's* toys
the *government's* decision
my *wife's* sister

If the noun already has an *-s* ending because it is plural, we add the apostrophe alone to form the genitive:

the *farmers*	→	the *Farmers'* Union
two *doctors*	→	two *doctors'* reports

With irregular plural nouns (see 2.2.1), the genitive is formed by adding apostrophe *s*:

the *children*	→	the *children's* clothes
the *men*	→	the *men's* toiletries
the *women*	→	the *women's* group
the *people*	→	the *people's* decision

Nouns ending in *-s*, in which the *-s* does not denote a plural, generally take an apostrophe alone:

Prince *Charles*	→	Prince *Charles'* sons
Martin *Nichols*	→	Martin *Nichols'* house

However, apostrophe *s* is also sometimes added:

Prince *Charles's* sons

The genitive form of a noun can express a very wide range of meanings. We exemplify the major meanings below:

1	**Possession**	the *baby's* toys ('the toys belonging to the baby')
2	**Relationship**	my *wife's* sister ('the sister of my wife')
3	**General attribute**	*China's* economy ('the economy of China')
4	**Subjective genitive**	the *judge's* decision ('the judge made the decision')
5	**Objective genitive**	the *prisoner's* release ('the authorities released the prisoner')

2.2.5 *Dependent genitives and independent genitives*

Genitives are either dependent or independent. A dependent genitive is followed by a noun:

the *baby's* toys
a *student's* essay
Caroline's friend

An independent genitive is not followed by a noun:

a friend of *Caroline's*
a colleague of *Frank's*
an old army pal of *Jim's*

An independent genitive is often used in referring to relationships between people, as in these examples. Notice that this construction has a very specific meaning. The independent genitive *a friend of Caroline's* does not mean the same as the dependent genitive *Caroline's friend*:

Independent: We met a friend of *Caroline's* in Spain.
Dependent: We met *Caroline's* friend in Spain.

The independent genitive means 'one of Caroline's friends', who may or may not be known to the hearer. In contrast, the dependent genitive means 'one specific friend', who is assumed to be known to the hearer.

Independent genitives are also used in references to places and businesses:

She stayed at *Rebecca's*.	= Rebecca's house
I ran into Jim in *Sainsbury's*.	= Sainsbury's supermarket
I left my wallet in the *barber's*.	= the barber's shop

See also: Possessive pronouns (**2.3.2**)

2.2.6 *Determiners*

Determiners come before a noun and indicate (1) the kind of reference the noun has, (2) whether the noun is singular or plural, and (3) possession.

The most common determiners are *a/an* and *the*. *A/an* indicates an indefinite reference, while *the* indicates a definite reference:

We saw *a* play in London. (indefinite reference, an unspecified play)
The play was Endgame, by Beckett. (definite reference, a specified play)

A/an is called the **indefinite article**, and *the* is called the **definite article**. The choice of article also determines whether the noun is singular or plural. The indefinite article *a/an* is restricted to singular nouns, while the definite article *the* can be used with both singular and plural nouns:

	Singular	**Plural**
a	book	*books
the	book	books

Many other determiners occur in the same position, before a noun. The choice of determiner often depends on whether the noun is singular or plural. Like *a/an*, some determiners can only be used with singular nouns:

any book
every book
one book
that book
this book

Other determiners can only be used with plural nouns:

a few books
both books
many books
several books
those books
these books
two books

All can be used with plural countable nouns and singular uncountable nouns (2.2.3):

all books
all information

A few is used with plural countable nouns:

a few books
a few days

Few and *fewer* are used with plural countable nouns:

We've had *few* showers lately.
We've had *fewer* showers lately.

Little and *less* are used with singular uncountable nouns:

We've had *little* rain lately.
We've had *less* rain lately.

More and *some* can be used with both singular uncountable nouns and plural countable nouns:

I need *more* money.
I need *more* coins.

I need *some* money.
I need *some* coins.

Much is restricted to singular uncountable nouns:

I don't have *much* money.

Many is restricted to plural countable nouns:

I don't have *many* coins.

The possessive pronouns *my*, *your*, *his*, etc (2.3.2) also act as determiners before both countable and uncountable nouns:

my books
your furniture

his daughter
her health

Determiners can co-occur (with some restrictions):

all the books
all those books
both his books
all our many books

See also: Determiners and Determinatives (**3.6.2**)

2.3 Pronouns

Pronouns are a subclass of nouns, and many of them can be used as substitutes for a noun or noun phrase (3.6) that has previously been mentioned:

[1] *John* was late for the meeting. *He* missed his train.
[2] *The old lady* is unwell. I'm taking *her* to the doctor.
[3] *Someone on our street* won the lottery. No, it wasn't *me*.
[4] *Tom* phoned and I chatted with *him*.

In [1], the pronoun *he* functions as the Subject (1.4), and in [2], the pronoun *her* functions as the Direct Object (1.6.3). In [3], the pronoun *me* functions as Subject Complement (1.6.2). In [4], the pronoun *him* comes after a preposition, where it functions as Prepositional Complement (2.8). Pronouns that can perform these functions are called **independent pronouns**.

In contrast, other pronouns cannot perform these functions, and must occur before a noun:

I am painting *my* house.
Can I borrow *your* phone?

These pronouns are called **dependent pronouns**. They act as determiners (2.2.6) for the noun that follows them.

In the following sections, we will distinguish between independent and dependent pronouns, and also point out those that can be used in both ways.

See also: Referring expressions (**4.11**)

2.3.1 Personal pronouns

The personal pronouns have two distinct forms, the subjective form and the objective form (Table 2.1)

Table 2.1 The personal pronouns

Number	Person	Subjective form	Objective form
Singular	1st-person	*I*	*me*
	2nd-person	*you*	*you*
	3rd-person	*he/she/it*	*him/her/it*
Plural	1st-person	*we*	*us*
	2nd-person	*you*	*you*
	3rd-person	*they*	*them*

All the personal pronouns are independent (2.3). The subjective form is used when the pronoun functions as the Subject of a sentence, and the objective form is used for all other functions:

I (S) phoned *her* (DO).
She (S) phoned *me* (DO).
They (S) thanked *us* (DO).
We (S) thanked *them* (DO).

The objective forms are also used after prepositions (2.8):

They sent it to *me*.
I gave it to *him*.
She looked at *us*.
We took it from *them*.

2.3.2 Possessive pronouns

The possessive pronouns are the possessive forms of the personal pronouns (2.3.1). They are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 The possessive pronouns

Number	Person	Dependent form	Independent form
Singular	1st-person	*my*	*mine*
	2nd-person	*your*	*yours*
	3rd-person	*his/her/its*	*his/hers/–*
Plural	1st-person	*our*	*ours*
	2nd-person	*your*	*yours*
	3rd-person	*their*	*theirs*

The dependent forms must occur before a noun, where they act as determiners (2.2.6):

This is *my* car.
Is that *your* coat?
I've read *his* book.
The children want *their* lunch.

The independent forms are not dependent on any noun, and can occur alone as the Subject (1.4), Object (1.6.3), or Subject Complement (1.6.2) in a sentence:

Mine (S) is the blue car.
That money is *yours* (SC).
We cook *ours* (DO) in the oven.

Note that there is no independent form of the third-person singular *its*:

*The dog wagged its tail and the cat wagged its.

The independent forms also occur in independent genitives (2.2.5):

I met a friend of *mine*.
Amy is phoning a colleague of *hers*.
A neighbour of *ours* won the lottery.

2.3.3 *Reflexive pronouns*

The reflexive pronouns end in *-self* (singular) or *-selves* (plural) (Table 2.3). They correspond to the personal pronouns.

Table 2.3 The reflexive pronouns

Singular	1st-person	*myself*
	2nd-person	*yourself*
	3rd-person	*himself/herself/itself*
Plural	1st-person	*ourselves*
	2nd-person	*yourselves*
	3rd-person	*themselves*

Reflexive pronouns have two major uses:

1 To refer back to the Subject:

A little girl (S) hurt *herself* in the playground.
The players (S) have only *themselves* to blame.

2 For emphasis:

The President *himself* wrote back to me.
The acting was good, but the play *itself* was tedious.

The reflexive pronouns are all independent pronouns (2.3).

2.3.4 *Demonstrative pronouns*

The demonstrative pronouns are:

Singular	**Plural**
this	these
that	those

They can be used independently as the Subject or Object in a sentence, where they refer to something in the surrounding context:

This (S) is a beautiful place.
Did you enjoy *that* (DO)?
That (S) was fun.
I don't like *these* (DO).

They can also be used dependently, before a noun (*this* book, *these* books, etc) where they act as determiners (2.2.6).

2.3.5 *Quantifying pronouns and numerals*

The class of quantifying pronouns is a very large one, and includes those shown Table 2.4:

Table 2.4 Quantifying pronouns

a couple of*	either	more
a few	enough	most
a lot**	few	much
a lot of*	least	neither
a single*	less	other
all	little	others**
another	lots**	plenty of*
both	lots of*	several
each	many	some

In Table 2.4, pronouns marked with a single asterisk (*) are dependent (2.3) and can only be used before a noun:

a couple of days
a lot of money
lots of money
a single day
plenty of time

Those marked with a double asterisk (**) are independent, and can only be used as Subject or Object of a sentence:

A lot (S) has been written about Donald Trump's hair.
Don't buy any more meat – we have *lots* (DO) in the freezer.
That's what I think, but *others* (S) may disagree.

Note that *a lot* can also be an adverb (2.7) meaning *often*: 'He goes abroad *a lot* on business'.

In Table 2.4, pronouns that are unmarked can be used both dependently and independently:

Dependent	**Independent**
All students must take the course.	*All* is well.
A few students were absent.	Most people agreed, but *a few* disagreed.

Few people give him credit. Many are called, but *few* are chosen.
Many people are out of work. *Many* are called, but few are chosen.
There is not *enough* time. You have said *enough*.
Paul earns the *least* money. The *least* you can do is wait.
I need *more* time. We must do *more* to combat racism.
Other people are different They left one after the *other*.
Some people save money. *Some* prefer to spend money.

Among the quantifying pronouns, we also include the following four sets of pronouns:

any	every	no	some
anybody	everybody	nobody	somebody
anyone	everyone	none	someone
anything	everything	no one	something
		nothing	

Most of these can only be used independently:

I don't need *anything* (DO).
Everybody (S) came to the party.
The floodwater ruined *everything* (DO).
No one (S) likes to be deceived.
Nothing (S) has changed.
I expected a reply but *none* (S) came.
Did you meet *somebody* (DO)?

Every and *no* can only be used dependently, before a noun:

Every student must take the course.
No passengers were injured in the collision.

Each can be used both dependently and independently:

Each child wore a fancy costume.
Each of the contestants was given a prize.

Similarly, *any* can be used both dependently (Do you need *any* money?) and independently (I don't know *any* of those people.).

See also: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

The Two *Mores*

It is important to distinguish between pronoun *more* and adverb *more*. Pronoun *more* means 'a greater quantity', as in *I need more money*, and acts as a determiner (2.2.6) before a noun. Adverb *more* is a degree adverb (2.7.3) and means 'to a higher degree'. It is used before an adjective (This is *more* exciting.) or another adverb (*More* recently, I visited Paris.). When *more* occurs before an adjective+noun combination, its function (and meaning) can be ambiguous, as in *We need more skilled workers*. This could mean *We need more workers who are skilled* (pronoun *more*), or *We need workers who are more skilled* (adverb *more*).

Quantifying a noun is most directly achieved through the use of **numerals**, which are divided into two subclasses:

Cardinal numerals: one, two, three . . ., a hundred . . ., a thousand . . .
Ordinal numerals: first, second, third . . ., next . . ., last

As determiners (2.2.6), cardinal numerals express the precise quantity of the noun that follows them:

He has *one* son and *two* daughters.

They can also be used independently, without a following noun:

One of his children is a boy.

The ordinal numerals express a position in an ordered sequence:

Amy was awarded *first* prize.
On our *last* day in London, we visited Harrods.

They can also be used independently:

Prince William is *second* in line to the throne.
The *last* to arrive was the bride herself.

2.3.6 *Relative pronouns*

The relative pronouns are:

who, whom, whose, which, that

Relative pronouns introduce a relative clause (4.2.3). The relative clauses are bracketed in the examples below:

That's the boy [*who* won the prize].
That's the man [*whom* we met yesterday].
The problem [*which* we're facing] is very serious.
The thing [*that* worries me most] is the overdraft.

Who and *whom* are used to refer to humans, while *that* and *which* are used in all other contexts:

the boy *who* won the prize
the man *whom* we met yesterday
the prize *that*/*which* he won

Who is the subjective form, and is used when the pronoun functions as Subject (S) of the relative clause:

That's the boy [*who* (S) won the prize].
Compare: *The boy* (S) won the prize.

Whom is the objective form, and is used when the pronoun functions as Direct Object (DO) of the relative clause:

That's the man [*whom* (DO) we met yesterday]
Compare: We met *the man* (DO) yesterday.

Whom is generally considered to be quite formal nowadays, and is often omitted in casual conversation: *That's the man we met yesterday*. *Whom* is also used after a preposition (2.8), again in fairly formal contexts, especially in writing:

the person on *whom* we rely
the people with *whom* I work
the person to *whom* it is addressed

In less formal contexts, *whom* is often omitted altogether, and the preposition is moved to the end:

the person we rely on
the people I work with
the person it is addressed to

The Four *That*s

It is important to distinguish between the relative pronoun *that* and the **Complementizer** *that* (4.2.5). Relative pronoun *that* introduces a relative clause, and it can usually be replaced by *which*:

The book *that* I am reading is fascinating.	→	The book *which* I am reading is fascinating.

In contrast, the Complementizer *that* introduces a *that*-clause and cannot be replaced by *which*:

Everyone knows that smoking is dangerous.	→	*Everyone knows *which* smoking is dangerous.

There are also two other *that*s: the demonstrative pronoun *that* (2.3.4) acts as a determiner in noun phrases (I enjoyed *that* book; 3.6.2), or as the Head of a noun phrase (*That* is a great book; 3.6.1). Finally, the degree adverb *that* (2.7.2) functions as Premodifier of an adjective (It was not *that* expensive) or of another adverb (I don't see him *that* often).

See also: Relative clauses (4.2.3)

2.3.7 *Nominal relative pronouns*

The nominal relative pronouns are:

what, whatever, whichever, whoever

They are used to introduce a **nominal relative clause** (4.2.4). The nominal relative clauses are bracketed in the following examples:

[*What* you need] is a long holiday.
Give him [*whatever* he wants].

Buy [*whichever* you prefer].
I want to see [*whoever* is in charge].

Whatever and *whichever* can also be used dependently, as determiners before a noun:

You can have the car in *whatever* colour you prefer.
Vote for *whichever* party has the best policies.

See also: Nominal relative clauses (4.2.4)

2.3.8 *Interrogative pronouns*

The interrogative pronouns are:

what, which, who, whom, whose

They are used to introduce a question:

What do you want?
Which dessert do you prefer?
Which is best, an iPhone or a Samsung?
Who told you that?
Whom did you meet? (formal)
Whose laptop is that?

When the pronoun *whose* is used dependently, before a noun, it corresponds to one of the dependent possessive forms *my*, *your*, *her*, etc (2.3.2):

Whose laptop is that? *That is my laptop.*

When it is used independently, it corresponds to one of the independent possessive forms *mine*, *your*, *hers*, etc:

Whose is that laptop? *That laptop is mine.*

2.3.9 *Pronoun* one

The pronoun *one* needs to be distinguished from the numeral *one* (2.3.5). Pronoun *one* has two distinct uses:

1 **Substitute *one*** is used to substitute for a noun that has previously been mentioned:

The black coat is nice but I prefer the green *one*. (*one* = *coat*)
This problem is a very complex *one*. (*one* = *problem*)
The house is not a modern *one*, but it is comfortable. (*one* = *house*)

Substitute *one* has the plural form *ones*:

The new songs are good, but I prefer the old ones. (ones = songs)

2 **Generic *one*** carries a generic meaning corresponding approximately to 'people in general':

One cannot expect miracles.
One puts on weight as *one* gets older.

Generic *one* has the possessive form *one's*:

When one has a cold, *one's* capillaries close to minimise heat loss.

The corresponding reflexive pronoun (2.3.3) is *oneself*:

One could easily find *oneself* out of a job.

Generic *one* is considered by many speakers to be unnecessarily formal, and it can often be replaced by *you*:

You could easily find *yourself* out of a job.

2.3.10 *Pronoun* it

The pronoun *it* has two major uses:

1 As a personal pronoun (2.3.1), *it* can replace a third-person singular noun with non-human reference:

The car skidded on ice. → *It* skidded on ice.

The possessive form (2.3.2) of personal pronoun *it* is *its*:

The dog wagged *its* tail.

2 *It* is also used in expressions relating to the weather and time:

It is cold today.
It rained last night.
It is four o'clock.
Is *it* time for tea?

This is called 'dummy *it*' or 'empty *it*', because it does not refer to anything in particular. It is also used, with even more vague reference, in many other expressions, including:

Hold *it*! (= Stop!)
Take *it* easy.
Can you make *it* to my party?

See also: Extraposition and postponement (4.7) and Cleft sentences (4.9)

2.4 Main verbs

Main verbs include:

believe	run	love
read	think	know
break	sleep	select
see	go	meet
destroy	think	work

Main verbs do not necessarily denote an 'action', as the verbs *believe*, *think*, and *know* illustrate. It is simpler to think of a verb as any word that can co-occur with the Subject *I*, as in *I believe . . .*, *I run . . .*, *I read . . .*, etc.

We distinguish main verbs from auxiliary verbs (2.5) such as *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*. Main verbs can occur as the only verb in a sentence:

Caroline *eats* pizza.

In contrast, an auxiliary verb such as *will* cannot occur as the only verb:

*Caroline *will* pizza.

Instead, an auxiliary verb always occurs with a main verb:

Caroline *will eat* pizza.

2.4.1 *The five verb forms*

Verbs have five forms:

1	**The base form**	Amy decided to *walk* to school.
2	**The *-s* form**	Amy *walks* to school.
3	**The past form**	Amy *walked* to school.
4	**The *-ed/-en* form**	Amy has *walked* to school.
5	**The *-ing* form**	Amy is *walking* to school.

The endings *-s*, *-ed/-en*, and *-ing* are called **inflections** (5.8). The inflections are added to the base form of the verb.

In regular verbs, two of the forms are identical: the past form (*walked*) and the *-ed/-en* form (*walked*). However, we must distinguish between these two forms because they are not always identical. For example, the irregular verb *write* has the following five forms:

1	**The base form**	Amy loves to *write* poetry.
2	**The *-s* form**	Amy *writes* poetry.
3	**The past form**	Amy *wrote* a poem.
4	**The *-ed/-en* form**	Amy has *written* a poem.
5	**The *-ing* form**	Amy is *writing* a poem.

See the Appendix for a list of irregular verbs, together with their five forms.

In the following sections, we look at each of the five verb forms in turn.

2.4.2 *The base form*

The base form of a verb is the form that is listed in dictionaries, e.g. *eat*, *walk*, *talk*, *run*. The base form of a verb is used:

1 After the infinitive marker *to*:

We decided to *walk*.
Amy loves to *write* poetry.

The combination of *to* and the base form of a verb is called the **infinitive**.

2 In the present tense, with all Subjects except *he*, *she*, or *it* (the third-person singular pronouns, 2.3.1):

I *walk* we *walk*
you *walk* they *walk*

Compare:

he/she/it *walks* = the *-s* form (2.4.3)

3 In imperative sentences (4.4.3):

Walk quickly.
Don't *move*.
Leave your coat here.

4 In the subjunctive (3.7.8):

I demand that she *resign* immediately.

2.4.3 *The -s form*

The *-s* form of a verb is produced by adding *-s* to the base form. It is used only in the present tense, when the Subject of the verb is third-person singular (2.3.1):

She *walks* to school.
Amy *writes* poetry.

Compare:

I *walk* to school. = the base form (2.4.2)

2.4.4 *The past form*

The past form of a verb is produced by adding *-ed* to the base form. It is used for the past tense, with all Subjects:

I *cooked* dinner last night.
You *cooked* dinner last night.
David *cooked* dinner last night.
We *cooked* dinner last night.
The children *cooked* dinner last night.

Irregular verbs form the past in a variety of ways:

They *caught* the train at 8am.
She *took* a bus to the city centre.
They *left* at 12.

See the Appendix for a list of irregular verbs, together with their five forms.

2.4.5 *The* -ed/-en *form*

The term '*-ed/-en*' is used to describe the *-ed* ending of regular verbs (was *destroyed*, has *betrayed*), the *-en* ending of irregular verbs (was *written*, has *stolen*), as well as the endings that we find on even more irregular verbs (was *caught*, has *cut*, was *kept*, was *done*, has *found*). The *-ed/-en* form is used:

1 After the passive auxiliary *be* (2.5.3):

The movie was *directed* by the Coen brothers.
The Queen was *shown* to her seat.
Our suitcases were *taken* from the hotel.
Two new songs were *commissioned* for the final version.

2 After the perfective auxiliary *have* (2.5.5):

The Coen brothers have *directed* many movies.
The Mayor has *shown* the Queen to her seat.
Someone had *taken* our suitcases.
The producer has *commissioned* two new songs.

3 In subordinate clauses (4.2):

Published in 2017, the book became a best-seller.
Stolen last year, the painting was recovered by police in Amsterdam.

2.4.6 *The* -ing *form*

The *-ing* form of a verb is produced by adding *-ing* to the base form. This applies whether the verb is regular or irregular. The *-ing* form is used:

1 After the progressive auxiliary *be* (2.5.4):

She is *walking* to school.
Alan was *sleeping* when I arrived.

2 In subordinate clauses (4.2):

Paul slammed the door, *bringing* the ceiling down.

2.4.7 *Irregular verbs*

Many of the most common verbs in English are irregular. This means that their past form and their *-ed/-en* form are not produced in the usual way (that is, by adding *-ed/-en* to the base form). For instance, the verbs *bring*, *choose*, and *think* are irregular:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing
choose	chooses	chose	chosen	choosing
think	thinks	thought	thought	thinking

The irregular verbs display a great diversity of spelling in the past form and in the *-ed/-en* form (see Appendix). However, we can distinguish the following major groups:

1 The base form ends in *d*, and the past form and the *-ed/-en* form end in *t*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bend	bends	bent	bent	bending
build	builds	built	built	building
send	sends	sent	sent	sending
spend	spends	spent	spent	spending

2 The base form has *i*, the past form has *a*, and the *-ed/-en* form has *u*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
begin	begins	began	begun	beginning
drink	drinks	drank	drunk	drinking
sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
swim	swims	swam	swum	swimming

3 The base form has *ee* or *ea*, and the past form and the *-ed/-en* form have *e*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bleed	bleeds	bled	bled	bleeding
feed	feeds	fed	fed	feeding

keep	keeps	kept	kept	keeping
leave	leaves	left	left	leaving

4 The base form is identical to the past form and the *-ed/-en* form:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
cut	cuts	cut	cut	cutting
hit	hits	hit	hit	hitting
put	puts	put	put	putting
quit	quits	quit	quit	quitting

5 The past form and the *-ed/-en* form are identical, and end in *-ought* or *-aught*:

Base	***-s***	**Past**	***-ed/-en***	***-ing***
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing
buy	buys	bought	bought	buying
catch	catches	caught	caught	catching
teach	teaches	taught	taught	teaching

2.4.8 *Regular and irregular variants*

Some irregular verbs have regular variants, which may be used for both the past form and the *-ed/-en* form. In the following examples, both the regular *dreamed* and the irregular *dreamt* are used as the past form:

Regular: She *dreamed* she was on a hill overlooking the sea.
Irregular: I can't remember what I *dreamt* last night.

Similarly, the two variants *learned* and *learnt* are used as the *-ed/-en* form in these examples:

Regular: The government should have *learned* from the economic downturn.
Irregular: Some governments have *learnt* valuable lessons from the recession.

The following verbs also have regular and irregular variants:

burn:	*burned/burnt*	dive:	*dived/dove*
knit:	*knitted/knit*	lean:	*leaned/leant*

leap:	*leaped/leapt*	prove:	*proved/proven*
smell:	*smelled/smelt*	spell:	*spelled/spelt*
spill:	*spilled/spilt*	spoil:	*spoiled/spoilt*

In general, American English tends to prefer the regular variants (e.g. *I dreamed last night* rather than *I dreamt last night*).

2.4.9 *The verb* be

The verb *be* is very irregular, and exhibits a total of eight different forms. These forms are shown in Table 2.5:

Table 2.5 The forms of the verb *be*

Base form	Present tense forms	Past tense forms	*-ed/-en* form	*-ing* form
be	I *am*	I *was*	*been*	*being*
	you *are*	you *were*		
	he/she/it *is*	he/she/it *was*		
	we *are*	we *were*		
	you *are*	you *were*		
	they *are*	they *were*		

Many of these forms are contracted in informal use:

I *am*	→	I'*m*
he/she/it *is*	→	he/she/it's
you/we/they *are*	→	you/we/they're

Some of the forms also have contracted negative counterparts:

he/she/it *is not*	→	he/she/it *isn't*
he/she/it *was not*	→	he/she/it *wasn't*
we/you/they *are not*	→	we/you/they *aren't*
we/you/they *were not*	→	we/you/they *weren't*

In British English, the form *aren't* is used as a contraction of *am not* in tag questions (1.9):

I am right about that, *aren't* I?

2.4.10 *Multi-word verbs*

Multi-word verbs are combinations of a verb and one or more other words. The combinations function like a single verb. We distinguish three types:

1 **Phrasal verbs** are combinations of a verb and an adverb (2.7):

The music *faded away* as we left the station.
The engine *cut out* just before landing.
Weigh up all the factors before making a decision.
Jeremy has been *trying out* the car in the Alps.

2 **Prepositional verbs** are combinations of a verb and a preposition (2.8):

I'll *look into* the matter immediately.
Amy doesn't *approve of* smoking.
The barrister *called for* a unanimous verdict.
Paul is *looking after* his sister.

3 **Phrasal-prepositional verbs** are combinations of a verb, an adverb, and a preposition:

I won't *put up with* this noise any longer.
I *went along with* their ideas for the sake of peace.
Members of the Huntu tribe *shy away from* violence.
Don't *give in to* his demands.

In some cases, a (slightly) more formal single verb can replace a multi-word verb:

Jeremy has been *trying out* the car.	→	Jeremy has been *testing* the car.
I'll *look into* the matter.	→	I'll *investigate* the matter.
I won't *put up with* this noise.	→	I won't *tolerate* this noise.

2.4.11 *Light verbs*

Many of the most frequent main verbs in English are called 'light verbs', because they are semantically 'light'. That is, they have a very vague meaning in themselves, and only acquire full meaning from the surrounding context. Among the most common light verbs are *do*, *get*, *give*, and *have*. For example:

She *is doing* her hair.
I'm *doing* a crossword.

She is *doing* French at college.
She *did* very well.

We must *get* the midday news.
Remember to *get* a newspaper.
I *got* the feeling he was lying.

She *gave* him a kiss.
She *gave* a shout.
She *gave* a sigh.
It *gives* me a headache.

I'm *having* a rest.
We are *having* lunch.
I'm *having* a terrible time.

Have a look at this.

I *have* an appointment for 3pm.
They are *having* an argument.

As with multi-word verbs (2.4.10), some light verb constructions can be replaced by a corresponding single verb:

I am *doing* a crossword.	→	I am *solving* a crossword.
She is *doing* French at college.	→	She is *studying* French at college.
She *gave* a sigh.	→	She *sighed*.
I am *having* a rest.	→	I am *resting*.

2.5 Auxiliary verbs

In section 2.4 we introduced the distinction between a main verb such as *believe*, *eat*, *love*, and an auxiliary verb such as *can*, *may*, *might*, *will*. We said that a main verb can occur alone in a sentence:

Caroline *eats* pizza.

while an auxiliary verb such as *will* cannot occur alone:

*Caroline *will* pizza.

Auxiliary verbs are of two types:

Modal verbs: *can/could*, *may/might*, *will/would*, *shall/should*, *must*
Primary verbs: *be*, *have*, *do*

The auxiliary verb (Aux) always comes before the main verb (V):

Paul *can* (Aux) play (V) the guitar.
Amy *will* (Aux) graduate (V) in June.
The ambulance *is* (Aux) coming (V).
Tom *has* (Aux) lost (V) his keys.
I *did* (Aux) tell (V) you.

Auxiliary verbs can co-occur, up to a maximum of four, though that number is rarely reached:

Amy *should* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *graduated* (V) by then.
Paul *has* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *working* (V) hard lately.
The train *might* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *delayed* (V).
The victim *may* (Aux) *have* (Aux) *been* (Aux) *being* (Aux) *bullied* (V).

See also: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (**3.7.2**)

2.5.1 *Modal auxiliary verbs*

The **modal auxiliary** verbs (or 'modals') are:

Present tense	**Past tense**
can	could
may	might
shall	should
will	would
must	

Here are some examples of the modals in use:

We *can* visit the park if the weather is fine.
She *could* sense that something was wrong.
Susan *may* be late tomorrow morning.
I *might* see you again before I leave.
You *must* try a little harder.
I *shall* speak to him on his return.
David *should* join the army.
The play *will* open on 17 March.
I *would* love a game of tennis.

They have the following negative contracted forms:

cannot/can't	couldn't
mayn't (very rare)	mightn't
shan't (BrE, rare)	should
won't	wouldn't
mustn't	

Traditional grammars made a sharp distinction between *shall* and *will*. They recommended that *shall* should be used to express future time with *I* as Subject ('I *shall* arrive at six'), and that *will* should be used with all other Subjects ('He *will* arrive at six'). The reverse was recommended when expressing intention: 'I *will* work hard', but 'He *shall* work hard'. In fact, these distinctions no longer apply in daily use, if they ever did apply. The word *shall* has more or less disappeared from American English, and there is evidence that it is also in decline in British English, except perhaps in the most formal contexts. *Will* is the preferred form in both varieties.

2.5.2 *The meanings of modal auxiliaries*

The modal auxiliary verbs express a very wide range of meanings, which we divide into the following three types:

1 Deontic meaning

Deontic meaning is concerned with permission, obligation/duty, and prediction:

Permission:

You *may* go in now.
You *can* go out when you've finished your homework.
Years ago, people *could* cross the border without a visa.

Obligation/duty:

You *must* be in bed by ten.
Safety *should* be our top priority.
The government *shall* protect the rights of citizens.

Permission and obligation/duty are also expressed by some of the semi-auxiliary verbs (2.5.7):

You *have to* be in bed by ten.
Safety *ought to* be our top priority.
You *need to* plug it in first.

Prediction:

I *will* see you later.
I *shall* write as soon as I can.
We *won't* stay very long.

2 Epistemic meaning

Epistemic meaning is concerned with the speaker's belief in the likelihood that something is true, based on contextual knowledge:

He left home three hours ago. He *should* be here by now.
There's a light on in Amy's room. She *must* be working late.
I found a cat in the drainpipe. That *could* be your problem.
Paul has been studying hard. He *must* be very tired.
He said he didn't steal the money, but he *would* say that, *wouldn't* he?
You want 50%? You *cannot* be serious! / You *must* be joking!

Epistemic meanings are also expressed by some of the modal adverbs (2.7.1):

There's a light on in Amy's room. *Possibly* she's working late.
I found a cat in the drainpipe. *Maybe* that's your problem.
Paul has been studying hard. *Undoubtedly* he's very tired.

3 Dynamic meaning

Dynamic meaning is concerned with an ability to do or to be something:

I *can* speak French.
Snow *can* cause serious problems for motorists.
My grandfather *could* dance the Charleston.
Children *can* be very cruel sometimes.
We *can't* take off without a pilot.

2.5.3 *The passive auxiliary* be

The passive auxiliary *be* is used to form a passive sentence (1.7):

Passive: The play *was* written by Tom Stoppard.

Compare:

Active: Tom Stoppard wrote the play.

The passive auxiliary is followed by the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (2.4.5).

The verb *get* is sometimes used as a passive auxiliary:

It started to rain as I left the house, and I *got* soaked.
At the end of the film, the villain *gets* shot by the police.

2.5.4 *The progressive auxiliary* be

As the name suggests, the progressive auxiliary *be* is used to denote activity in progress:

Paul *is* studying French at college.
Paul *was* studying French when I met him.

The progressive auxiliary is followed by the *-ing* form of a verb (2.4.6).

See also: Aspect (**3.7.6**)

2.5.5 *The perfective auxiliary* have

The perfective auxiliary is *have*:

Peter *has* injured his foot.
Caroline *has* finished her dissertation.
We *had* discussed the matter at an earlier meeting.
I *had* met Mr Callaghan before.

The perfective auxiliary is followed by the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (2.4.5).

See also: Aspect (**3.7.6**)

2.5.6 *Auxiliary* do

The auxiliary verb *do* has three main uses:

1 In forming questions:

Do you like Robert?
Did you enjoy the match?
Does your father use a computer?

2 In forming negative statements, with *not*:

I *do* not want it.
She *did* not graduate.
Simon *does* not eat meat.

3 In negative imperatives, with *not*:

Do not touch that.
Do not move.

In informal use, *do not* is often contracted to *don't*:

Don't touch that.
Don't move.

See also: The Operator (3.7.1)

2.5.7 *Semi-auxiliary verbs*

Semi-auxiliary verbs (or 'semi-auxiliaries') are multi-word auxiliary verbs, including:

be about to	happen to	seem to
be going to	have to	tend to
be supposed to	mean to	used to
be bound to	need to	ought to

Like the other auxiliaries, semi-auxiliaries occur before a main verb:

The meeting *is about to* start.
David *is going to* retire at the end of August.
MPs *are supposed to* declare their financial interests.
Paul's car broke down so he *had to* walk.
Ottoman art *tends to* be very stylized.
The statue *is meant to* symbolise harmony.

2.6 Adjectives

Adjectives express a quality or attribute of a noun:

a *happy* child	a *surly* person	*toxic* waste
an *old* man	*defective* brakes	a *greedy* child
a *red* flag	a *dangerous* road	a *large* hotel

In certain uses, however, the attribute is not directly related to the noun itself, and the adjective must be interpreted in a different way. Compare the following pairs:

an *old* car ('a car that is old')
an *old* school friend ('a former school friend')

a *small* man ('a man who is small')
a *small* businessman ('a man with a small business')

a *heavy* suitcase ('a suitcase that is heavy')
a *heavy* drinker ('someone who drinks heavily')

a *beautiful* girl ('a girl who is beautiful')
a *beautiful* singer ('someone who sings beautifully')

In some cases, too, the adjective describes only part of the noun:

a *red* pen ('a pen with red ink')
a *sharp* knife ('a knife with a sharp blade')
a *hot* bath ('a bath with hot water')

Typical adjective endings include:

-al	biological, classical, clinical, environmental, theatrical
-ble	accessible, comfortable, possible, responsible, terrible
-ive	constructive, deceptive, defective, furtive, interactive
-ous	continuous, delicious, enormous, rigorous, serious
-y	funny, greedy, happy, rainy, tasty, weary

Most adjectives can occur before a noun, as its Premodifier (3.6.3), or after a linking verb, as the Subject Complement (1.6.2):

a *violent* storm	The storm was *violent*.
a *delicious* meal	The meal is *delicious*.

In a small number of expressions, an adjective appears immediately after the noun, where it functions as a Postmodifier (3.6.4) of the noun:

the people *responsible*
the roadway *proper*
the money *available*
the people *concerned*

Adjectives can also modify a small number of pronouns (2.3). They always follow the pronoun:

something *terrible*
someone *new*
anything *better*
anyone *interesting*
nothing *special*
those *responsible*

2.6.1 *Gradable adjectives*

Most adjectives can take a modifying word, such as *fairly*, *very*, or *extremely*, before them:

fairly *cold* very *cold* extremely *cold*

The modifying word locates the adjective on a relative scale of intensity. In this example, the scale is from *fairly cold* to *extremely cold*. This characteristic of adjectives is called **gradability**. The modifying words (*fairly*, *very*, *extremely*) are called degree adverbs (see 2.7.2).

2.6.2 *Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives*

The adjective *cold* has two other forms, *colder* (the comparative form) and *coldest* (the superlative form). The form *cold* is called the base form. Many adjectives have these three forms. Here are some more examples:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
new	newer	newest
old	older	oldest
dark	darker	darkest
big	bigger	biggest

The comparative form is produced by adding an *-er* ending to the base form. The superlative form is produced by adding an *-est* ending, again to the base:

Base *cold* + *-er* = comparative *colder*
Base *cold* + *-est* = superlative *coldest*

Some adjectives form the comparative and superlative using *more* and *most* respectively:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
recent	more recent	most recent
important	more important	most important

In general, adjectives with one syllable in the base form take the *-er* and *-est* endings, while longer words use *more* and *most*:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
warm	warmer	warmest
hopeful	more hopeful	most hopeful
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
complicated	more complicated	most complicated

The adjectives *good* and *bad* have irregular comparative and superlative forms:

Base form	Comparative form	Superlative form
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst

2.6.3 *Participial adjectives*

Participial adjectives have the *-ed/-en* or *-ing* endings that we normally associate with verbs (2.4.1):

a *complicated* process	an *amazing* achievement
a *crazed* expression	a *stolen* car
a *disabled* person	a *confusing* account
an *embarrassed* smile	a *fascinating* photograph
an *experienced* driver	a *rewarding* experience
a *talented* singer	a *disappointing* result

Most participial adjectives have a corresponding verb (*to complicate*, *to amaze*, etc), but some do not. For example, there is no verb **to talent*, corresponding to *a talented singer*.

Like other adjectives, participial adjectives may be gradable:

a very *complicated* process
an extremely *disappointing* result

See also: Adjective phrases (3.4)

2.6.4 *Nominal adjectives*

A number of adjectives behave like nouns, in the sense that they take the word *the* before them, and can function as the Subject or Object of a sentence:

The *homeless* need our help.
The *rich* are different.
The *elderly* need special care.
Medical staff attended the *wounded*.
The law should protect the *innocent* and punish the *guilty*.

On the other hand, nominal adjectives can take degree adverbs (2.7.2) before them, just like other adjectives:

The very *young* need constant care.
The obscenely *rich* should pay more taxes.
The critically *injured* were rushed to hospital.

This class also includes some nationalities: *the French*, *the Chinese*, *the British*. These nominal adjectives (referring to groups of people) are grammatically plural, but there are many others which are singular:

The *best* is yet to come.
The *unexpected* sometimes happens.
The *opposite* is true.
The *unthinkable* has occurred.

Nominal adjectives appear in many fixed expressions, after a preposition (2.8):

He fixed the heater for *free*.
I'll tell you in *private*.
They have nothing in *common*.
It went from the *sublime* to the *ridiculous*.

He's left his job for *good*.
Your account is in the *red*.
The convict is still on the *loose*.

2.7 Adverbs

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective (2.6):

Adjective	**Adverb**
certain	certainly
extreme	extremely
exact	exactly
lucky	luckily
mad	madly
quick	quickly
slow	slowly

Apart from these '*-ly* adverbs', the class as a whole is fairly 'formless', in the sense that most adverbs do not have any distinctive endings by which to recognise them. The following list of adverbs will illustrate this point:

afterwards	maybe	silently
again	more	soon
away	much	still
back	never	suddenly
extremely	now	then
fast	quietly	there
hard	quite	today
here	recently	unfortunately
less	seldom	very

At first glance, these adverbs do not appear to have much in common, but in fact, they may be subdivided into just two major types: circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1) and degree adverbs (2.7.2). We look at each type in the following two sections.

2.7.1 *Circumstantial adverbs*

Circumstantial adverbs convey information about the circumstances of an event or action. They function as Adjuncts (1.8) in sentence structure, and in that role they express the following range of meanings:

1 **Time** adverbs indicate when something happened, as well as frequency of occurrence:

We visited the museum *today*.
Afterwards we went for coffee.
Bernard phoned *again*.
I'm hoping to retire *soon*.
We *seldom* go into central London.

Other time adverbs include *always*, *immediately*, *lately*, *never*, *now*, *often*, *presently*, *previously*, *rarely*, *sometimes*, *then*, *tomorrow*, and *yesterday*.

Note the time adverbs *early* and *late*:

I get up *early/late*.

These words can also be used as adjectives (2.6):

I'm having an *early/late* lunch.

2 **Place** adverbs indicate a place or a direction:

Stand *here*.
She just turned and walked *away*.
The car shot *forward* when I released the clutch.
Don't look *back*.

Other place adverbs include *backwards*, *down*, *downwards*, *in*, *inside*, *out*, *outside*, *up*, and *upwards*.

3 **Manner** adverbs indicate how something happens:

The child was playing *happily* in the garden.
Amy works *hard* all day.
The thief crept *silently* along the roof.
The passengers waited *calmly* for the lifeboats.
Amy stroked the cat *gently*.

Other manner adverbs include *carefully*, *clearly*, *dangerously*, *heavily*, *heroically*, *patiently*, *quietly*, *quickly*, *rapidly*, *scientifically*, *slowly*, *softly*, and *spontaneously*.

Adverbs with the *-ly* ending often express manner, as in these examples. Note, however, that many adjectives (1.6) also end in *-ly*: *beastly*, *chilly*, *deadly*, *ghastly*, *homely*, *kindly*, *likely*, *stately*, *timely*.

4 **Stance** adverbs express the speaker's attitude towards what is happening:

Obviously, she doesn't care.
Fortunately, the door was not locked.
It's not his best movie, *frankly*.
Clearly, no one understood what Brexit would involve.

Among stance adverbs, the **modal adverbs** express the speaker's degree of certainty about what is being said:

Perhaps he is not coming.
Maybe he has missed the train.
We should *probably* wait a bit longer.
He is *definitely* not coming.

Other stance adverbs include *curiously*, *funnily (enough)*, *honestly*, *hopefully*, *ironically*, *luckily*, *oddly (enough)*, *predictably*, *regrettably*, *sadly*, *surprisingly*, *unfortunately*, *wisely*.

See also: The meanings of Adjuncts (1.8.1) and Modal auxiliary verbs (2.5.1)

2.7.2 *Degree adverbs*

Degree adverbs function as Premodifiers (3.2) of an adjective or another adverb. In that role, they are used to express the degree to which the adjective or adverb applies. The most common degree adverb is *very*:

very cold	*very* suddenly
very good	*very* soon

Other degree adverbs include *almost*, *completely*, *entirely*, *extremely*, *fairly*, *highly*, *quite*, *slightly*, *totally*, *utterly*.

Degree adverbs may be subdivided into **boosters**, which express a higher degree, and **downtoners**, which express a lower degree. The most general booster is *more*, and the most general downtoner is *less*. The adverb *as* is used to denote an equal degree:

Booster:	Trump is *more* popular than Obama.
Equal degree:	Trump is *as* popular as Obama.
Downtoner:	Trump is *less* popular than Obama.

Other degree adverbs can be used to denote various positions on a sliding scale of intensity, as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Boosters and downtoners

Boosters	↑	*incredibly* *extremely* *remarkably* *very* *quite* *rather* (BrE)
		COLD
Downtoners	↓	*slightly* *sort of* *a bit*

With the comparative form of the adjective (*colder*), we use the degree adverb *much* (*much* colder). This applies also to comparative adverbs (*much* sooner) (2.7.3).

In informal use, and especially in speech, the words *pretty* and *that* are often used as degree adverbs:

The weather is *pretty* bad.
You'll have to move *pretty* quickly.
It's not *that* unusual.
Is it really *that* important?

See also: Adverb phrases (3.3) and Adjective phrases (3.4)

2.7.3 *Comparative adverbs and superlative adverbs*

Some adverbs exhibit three forms: the base form, the comparative form (ending in *-er*), and the superlative form (ending in *-est*):

Base form	**Comparative form**	**Superlative form**
John works *hard*.	Mary works *harder*.	Paul work *hardest*.
John arrived *early*.	Amy arrived *earlier*.	Paul arrived *earliest*.
John drives *fast*.	Amy drives *faster*.	Paul drives *fastest*.

The adverbs *badly* and *well* are irregular in these forms:

Base form	**Comparative form**	**Superlative form**
John played *badly*.	Amy played *worse*.	Paul played *worst*.
John did *well*.	Amy did *better*.	Paul did *best*.

The base form can take a wide range of degree adverbs (*very* hard, *extremely* hard, *fairly hard*, *too* hard), but these are not used with the comparative form (**very* harder). Instead, the comparative form usually takes *much* (*much* harder), or in informal use, one of the following multi-word degree adverbs:

	a bit	
You will have to work	*a lot*	harder.
	a good deal	

The superlative form *hardest* does not take a degree adverb because it already denotes the highest possible point on the scale.

2.8 Prepositions

The class of prepositions includes the following words:

about	below	in	to
across	between	into	toward(s)
after	by	of	under
against	down	off	until
at	during	on	up
before	for	over	with
behind	from	through	without

In themselves, prepositions are fairly meaningless, which is why they must be followed by another constituent to express a complete meaning:

after dark	*for* the children
across the road	*from* London
after the war	*under* suspicion
around the world	*with* mayonnaise
before my lunch	*without* fear

In these examples, the prepositions are followed by a noun phrase (3.6), and the combination of the two is called a prepositional phrase (3.5).

The major meanings of these phrases can be summarised as follows (the prepositional phrases are bracketed):

1 **Space** (location/direction/relative position):

We are travelling [*to* London].
He comes [*from* Australia].
We met Paul [*at* the station].
Amy found money [*under* the floorboards].
Put the mouse [*on* a mousepad].
The car skidded [*across* the motorway].
She leaned [*against* the door].
A river runs [*through* the valley].

2 **Time/duration:**

We're leaving [*at* 2pm].
He was born [*in* 1991].
I'll visit the library [*for* a few hours].
[*On* Wednesday] we have an exam.
He can't come [*before* the weekend].

3 **Cause/purpose:**

He does it [*for* his children].
He died [*of* pneumonia].
They are suffering [*from* fatigue].
She succeeded [*through* hard work].

4 **Accompaniment:**

The President arrived [*with* his entourage].
She won't go anywhere [*without* her mobile phone].

5 **Concession:**

He never reads anything [*except* Stephen King novels].
[*Despite* the rain], we had a good time.

The Two *To*s

It is important to distinguish between the preposition *to* and the infinitive *to*. Preposition *to* comes before a noun: 'We are travelling *to* London'. We know that this is a preposition because it

can be replaced by many other prepositions, e.g. *from* London, *around* London, *across* London, *through* London. In contrast, infinitive *to* comes before the base form (2.4.2) of a verb: 'I like *to* read'. We know that this is not a preposition because it cannot be replaced by any preposition: *I like *from* read, *I like *around* read. In fact, infinitive *to* cannot be replaced by anything. It is in a word class of its own, and it is always followed by the base form of a verb.

Prepositions can also be followed by a clause (4.1) in which the verb has the *-ing* form. The combination of the two forms a prepositional phrase (3.5). In the following examples, the prepositional phrases are bracketed:

[*After* eating breakfast], we go to school.
Download the app [*by* clicking on the icon].
You can order online [*without* leaving your home].

Multi-word prepositions are two- and three-word combinations which act as a unit:

according to	in accordance with
ahead of	in front of
apart from	in relation to
because of	in spite of
by means of	in terms of
due to	on behalf of

Like one-word prepositions, multi-word prepositions are also followed by either a noun phrase (3.6) or a clause (4.1):

[*Because of* the weather], the show has been cancelled.

I am writing to you [*on behalf of* the company].
Chelsea finished [*ahead of* Liverpool] in the Premier League.

My cat does very little, [*apart from* sleeping all day].
[*In terms of* building your career], a higher degree is always useful.

See also: Prepositional Phrases (**3.5**)

2.9 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used to link constituents together. There are two types:

1 **Coordinating conjunctions** are used to link constituents in a sentence. The main coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *but*, and *or*:

The weather was [cold] *and* [wet].
[Paul plays football] *and* [Amy plays tennis].
The children are [tired] *but* [happy].
[I read that book] *but* [I didn't enjoy it].
Would you prefer [coffee] *or* [tea]?
I'll stay for [two] *or* [three] days.

On coordination, see 4.3.

2 **Subordinating conjunctions** introduce clauses (4.1) that function as Adjuncts (1.8). The clauses are bracketed in the following examples.

Paul has to leave [*because* he has a dental appointment].
[*While* I was waiting], the rain stopped.
Just phone me [*if* you need any help].

Other subordinating conjunctions include:

although	once
considering	though
unless	whereas
when(ever)	whilst (BrE)

Multi-word subordinating conjunctions include the following:

as long as	given that	so long as
as soon as	in case	so that
as though	in order that	such that
even though	provided (that)	
except that	seeing that	

On subordinate clauses, see 4.2.

Exercises for Chapter 2

Exercise 2.1: Nouns and determiners (2.2)

Convert the following words into nouns by adding noun endings and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different nouns.

capitalise	develop	intervene	refer
argue	disappoint	occur	require
compensate	humiliate	offend	specialise
criticise	improvise	perceive	state

Exercise 2.2: Singular nouns and plural nouns (2.2.1)

Supply the plural form of each of the singular nouns listed below:

analysis	hypothesis
basis	medium
bureau	phenomenon
crisis	sister-in-law
criterion	stimulus
formula	wolf

Exercise 2.3: Determiners (2.2.6)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences:

1 You didn't understand my last question.
2 She worked in the law courts for seven years.
3 There were five other applicants for his job.
5 Most people enjoyed all those Harry Potter books.
6 Every person deserves our respect.
7 Some young people have never seen a typewriter.
8 Children should read more books and watch less television.

Exercise 2.4: Pronouns (2.3)

Complete the following sentences by supplying the correct form of the pronoun, as indicated after each sentence.

1 The banks gave _____ every opportunity to repay the loan. **Personal, 3rd-person plural.**
2 _____ borrowed more money than necessary. **Personal, 3rd-person singular, masculine.**
3 He only told _____ about it after he got into financial trouble. **Personal, 1st-person plural.**
4 Since the financial meltdown, _____ economy has been struggling. **Possessive, 1st-person plural.**
5 The central bank played _____ part in the recovery. **Possessive, 3rd-person singular, non-personal.**
6 The economy of Iceland was badly hit, but _____ is a special case. **Possessive, 3rd-person plural.**

Exercise 2.5: Pronouns (2.3)

Indicate whether the underlined pronouns are personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, or relative.

1 <u>It</u> was the worst holiday <u>we</u> ever had.
2 First, <u>our</u> luggage went missing.
3 <u>That</u> was not a good start.
4 Then <u>our</u> taxi driver took <u>us</u> to the wrong hotel.
5 Then Tom discovered <u>he</u> had lost <u>his</u> passport.
6 So we found <u>ourselves</u> with no luggage, no hotel, and no passport.
7 Eventually, <u>we</u> phoned the travel agent, <u>who</u> was very helpful.

Exercise 2.6: The five verb forms (2.4.1)

Indicate the form of the underlined verb in each of the following sentences:

1 Everyone <u>understands</u> ( ) the need to <u>reduce</u> ( ) carbon emissions.
2 If you <u>care</u> ( ) about the environment, <u>take</u> ( ) action now.
3 One way we all <u>waste</u> ( ) resources is by <u>leaving</u> ( ) lights switched on at home when we're not even there.

4 Governments have only recently realised ( ) that carbon emissions threaten ( ) our future.
5 In the 1990s, environmental groups tried ( ) to raise ( ) our awareness of the problem.
6 They have given ( ) us a lot to think ( ) about.

Exercise 2.7: Irregular verbs (2.4.7)

Supply the correct form of the irregular verb in the following sentences:

1 I have _____ a wonderful book on astronomy. (find)
2 He may have _____ his partner. (tell)
3 The suspect was _____ to Paddington police station. (bring)
4 Large areas of the coastline were _____ away by the tsunami. (sweep)
5 I have been _____ to secrecy. (swear)
6 He _____ in cash for a brand-new Porsche. (pay)
7 It was _____ to be a surprise. (mean)
8 The castle had _____ empty for years. (lie)
9 The money was _____ into the lining of his jacket. (sew)
10 The animals were _____ to safety. (lead)

Exercise 2.8: Auxiliary verbs (2.5)

Indicate whether the underlined verbs are modal, passive, progressive, or perfective auxiliaries.

1 The Internet has revolutionised the way we do business.
2 Now we can order books, theatre tickets, and even clothes online.
3 Very soon, every home will have broadband Internet access.
4 The Internet is also changing the way we learn.
5 Online teaching materials can now be accessed from anywhere in the world.
6 In the future, all students may be taught online.
7 However, some teachers believe this would be disastrous for students.
8 They say the Internet should be used sparingly, and that real teachers can never be replaced by computers.
9 For people in remote areas, however, the Internet is really improving their access to education.
10 Distance learning has finally become a reality.

Exercise 2.9: Adjectives (2.6)

Convert the following words into adjectives by adding adjective endings, and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different adjectives.

cure	glory	music	reason
disruption	legend	nausea	religion
drizzle	love	periphery	tedium
geology	mass	question	wool

Exercise 2.10: Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives (2.6.2)

Supply the comparative and superlative forms of each of the following adjectives:

brilliant	handsome
clever	lucky
elegant	warm
fast	wonderful

Exercise 2.11: Adverbs (2.7)

Convert the following words into adverbs by adding *-ly*, and making any other necessary spelling changes.

absolute	capable	clear
demonstrable	dull	environmental
happy	lazy	legal
lucky	memorable	personal
terrible		

Exercise 2.12: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1)

In each of the following sentences, indicate the kind of meaning which is expressed by the underlined adverbs. Use the following abbreviations:

M = Manner P = Place S = Stance T = Time

1 The choir sang beautifully ( ).
2 We'll meet outside ( ) after the concert.
3 Amy tries really hard ( ) to be popular.
4 Strangely ( ), no one answered the phone.
5 He felt that he had been unfairly ( ) treated.
6 Paul doesn't feel well today ( ).
7 Hopefully ( ) no one was injured.
8 You can't park there ( ).

Exercise 2.13: Words and word classes (Chapter 2)

In the space provided, indicate the word class of the underlined words in the following passage. Use the following abbreviations:

Adj = adjective
Adv = adverb
Det = determiner
Aux = auxiliary verb
C = conjunction
Inf = infinitive *to*
N = noun
P = preposition
Pn = pronoun
V = main verb

Howard Carter is famous ( ) throughout the world as the ( ) man who ( ) discovered the tomb ( ) of the Egyptian king, Tutankamen ( ). His ( ) story is ( ) a very ( ) romantic one ( ), and it has ( ) inspired many ( ) Hollywood movies ( ). Carter was ( ) born in ( ) 1874 in England ( ). His father was ( ) an ( ) artist who ( ) specialised in drawing ( ) animal portraits for ( ) local ( ) landowners. He ( ) taught his son the basics ( ) of drawing and painting, and ( ) Howard became ( ) a fairly ( ) accomplished ( ) draughtsman. However, his main interest was ( ) in archaeology, and in ancient ( ) Egypt in particular. When ( ) he was just seventeen ( ) years old, Howard sailed to ( ) Alexandria in Egypt, hoping ( ) to ( ) find work as a ( ) draughtsman with ( ) the Egyptian Exploration Fund. His first ( ) job was at ( ) Bani Hassan, where he worked under ( ) the famous archaeologist ( ), Flinders Petrie. His role on that ( ) excavation was to ( ) copy ( ) the drawings which ( ) were ( ) found on ( ) the walls of ( ) the tombs. According to ( ) some ( ) sources, Howard worked hard ( ) all day, and then ( ) slept in ( ) the tombs at ( ) night.

Chapter 3

Phrases

3.1 What is a phrase?

In general use, the term 'phrase' usually refers to more than one word, as in 'once upon a time' or 'curiosity killed the cat'. In grammar, however, the term 'phrase' also includes single words. This is shown in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1, p. 2). The Hierarchy tells us:

Phrases

consist of **one or more**

Words

This means that even one word, in grammar, is considered to be a phrase. The reason for this is quite straightforward. It is because one word, like *books*, can be expanded to form larger constituents:

books
expensive books
expensive books about gardening

When we discussed word classes in the previous chapter, we referred to *books* as a noun, but at the phrase level it is a noun phrase. Similarly, *expensive books* and *expensive books about gardening* are noun phrases. Notice that they can all occupy the same position in a sentence, and they can all be replaced by the pronoun *them*:

Amy bought	books.
	expensive books.
	expensive books about gardening.
	them.

When we looked at pronouns in section 2.3, we said that they can replace nouns, but more correctly, they replace noun phrases.

There are five major phrase types, as shown in Table 3.1:

Table 3.1 The five phrase types

Phrase type	Examples
1. Noun phrase (NP)	books, expensive books, expensive books about gardening Main word: *books*
2. Adjective phrase (AdjP)	proud, very proud, very proud of her son Main word: *proud*
3. Adverb phrase (AdvP)	recently, very recently, very recently indeed Main word: *recently*
4. Prepositional phrase (PP)	on time, exactly on time Main word: *on*
5. Verb phrase (VP)	was stolen, has been stolen Main word: *stolen*

3.2 The basic structure of phrases

The first four phrase types shown in Table 3.1 all have the same potential three-part structure:

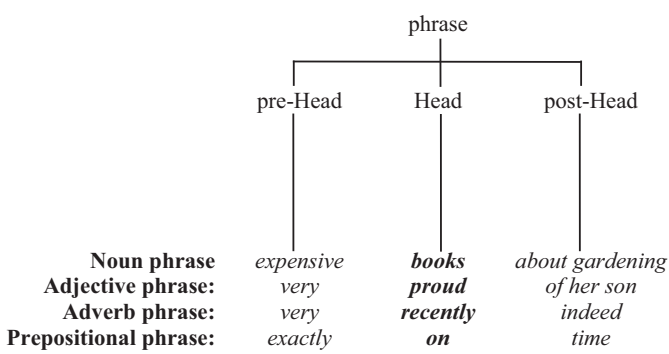

Figure 3.1

The fifth phrase type, the verb phrase (VP), is quite different from the other four in terms of structure. We will look at verb phrases in 3.7.

The structures shown in Figure 3.1 are 'potential' because phrases do not always have all three parts. However, they will at least have the 'main' word (in bold), which is called the **Head** of the phrase. The Head determines the phrase type: if the Head is a noun, the phrase is a noun phrase; if the Head is an adjective, the phrase is an adjective phrase; and so on. This means that wherever these words appear, they function as the Head of their own phrases. So every noun is the Head of a NP, every adjective is the Head of an AdjP, and so on. This will be important when we come to draw tree diagrams, in section 3.3 below.

The pre-Head constituent is called the **Premodifier**, and the post-Head constituent is called the **Postmodifier**. Prepositional phrases are slightly different: they do not take Postmodifiers, but Complements instead, for reasons that we will discuss in 3.5.

Notice that the terms Head, Premodifier, and Postmodifier are written with an initial upper-case letter. This is because they are grammatical functions, not forms (1.3). In *expensive books about gardening*, the function of Head is performed by the noun *books*; in *very proud of her son*, the function of Premodifier is performed by the adverb *very*.

The Head of a phrase is the only constituent that cannot be omitted. If we omit the Head, the phrase is incomplete. For example:

Amy bought	expensive books about gardening.	**complete**
	~~expensive~~ books about gardening.	**complete**
	*expensive ~~books~~ about gardening.	**incomplete**
	expensive books ~~about gardening~~.	**complete**

Therefore, the Head of the phrase *expensive books about gardening* is *books*. And since *books* is a noun, the whole constituent is a noun phrase.

Similarly, in an adjective phrase:

Amy	is very proud of her son.	**complete**
	~~very~~ proud of her son.	**complete**
	*very ~~proud~~ of her son.	**incomplete**
	very proud ~~of her son~~.	**complete**

Therefore, the Head of the phrase *very proud of her son* is *proud*. Since *proud* is an adjective, the whole phrase is an adjective phrase.

Prepositional phrases are slightly different, in that only the Premodifier (the word before the preposition) can be omitted:

Our train arrived	exactly on time.	**complete**
	~~exactly~~ on time.	**complete**
	* exactly ~~on~~ time.	**incomplete**
	* exactly on ~~time~~.	**incomplete**

In a prepositional phrase, both the Head and what follows it are obligatory constituents (3.5).

In the following sections, we will look at each of the phrase types in turn, beginning with those that are structurally simplest: adverb phrases (3.3), adjective phrases (3.4), and prepositional phrases (3.5). Then we discuss noun phrases (3.6) and verb phrases (3.7), which can show considerable structural complexity.

3.3 Adverb phrases

Adverb phrases (AdvP) are the simplest type of phrase, so it is appropriate to start with them. They usually consist of just a Head (Figure 3.2), which is always an adverb (2.7):

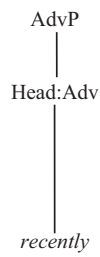

Figure 3.2

The Head can then be premodified by another adverb phrase (Figure 3.3):

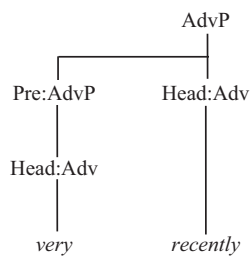

Figure 3.3

The Head can also take a Postmodifier, which again is usually another adverb phrase (Figure 3.4):

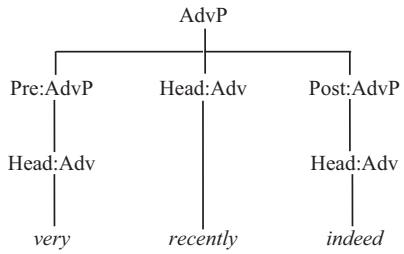

Figure 3.4

Notice in Figures 3.2–3.4 that each adverb phrase has its own Head.

Here are some more examples of adverb phrases. The adverb phrases are bracketed, and the Head of the whole phrase is underlined:

The rain fell [steadily].
The rain fell [quite steadily].
Amy works [hard].
Amy works [too hard].
[Very carefully] remove the lid.
Winter will be here [soon].
Winter will be here [soon enough].
[More recently], he worked in New York.

With comparative adverbs (2.7.3), the Premodifier *more* can have its own Premodifier *much*:

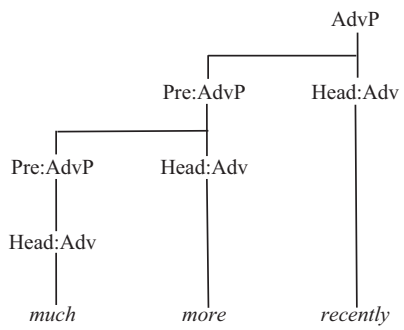

Figure 3.5

Figure 3.5 shows an example of embedding, which we discussed in section 1.2. Notice that the phrases here are not *much*, *more*, and *recently*. Instead, they are *much*, *much more*, and *much more recently*.

In 'measuring' or 'quantifying' expressions, the function of Premodifer is performed by a noun phrase (3.6):

[ten years earlier]
[a short time later]
[two minutes afterwards]

The words *enough* and *indeed* can function as Postmodifiers in an adverb phrase:

You didn't study [hard enough].
He walks [very fast indeed].

Postmodifiers in adverb phrases are common in comparative constructions (4.2.6):

Amy arrived [earlier than I did].
He worked here [more recently than I realised].
It could happen [sooner than you think].

The Postmodifiers in these examples are prepositional phrases (3.5).

3.3.1 *The functions of adverb phrases*

Adverbs themselves always function as the Head of an adverb phrase. Then the adverb phrase has the following major functions:

1 Adjunct (1.7):

Park the car [there].
[Usually] we take a bus.
He finished the job [remarkably quickly].
Summer will be here [very soon].

2 Premodifier of an adjective (2.6):

[very] old
[extremely] rich
[rather] warm
[pretty] good

[much more] interesting
[far less] appealing

3 Premodifer of an adverb (2.7):

[quite] gradually
[so] beautifully
[totally] unexpectedly
[too] casually
[very] luckily

4 Premodifier of a preposition (2.8):

[immediately] after the game
[exactly] on time
[slightly] above the average

3.4 Adjective phrases

The Head of an adjective phrase (AdjP) is always an adjective (Figure 3.6):

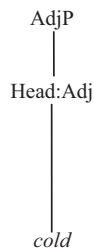

Figure 3.6

The phrase may also contain an adverb phrase as Premodifier:

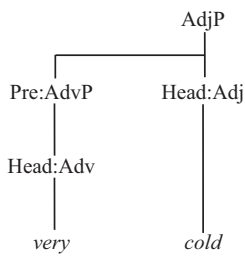

Figure 3.7

The Premodifier in an adjective phrase is most commonly a degree adverb (2.7.1):

[fairly new]
[very useful]
[extremely cold]

Adjective phrases also take adverb phrases as Postmodifiers:

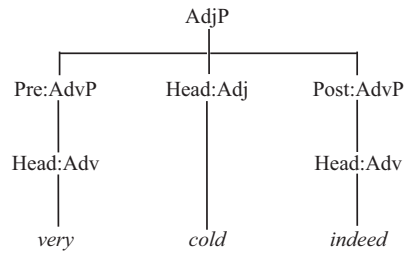

Figure 3.8

Here are some more examples of adjective phrases. The Adjective phrases are bracketed, and the Head of the whole phrase is underlined:

Amy is [good].
Amy is [good at English].
Amy is [exceptionally good at English]
He was found [guilty].
He was found [guilty of murder].
Paul is [crazy].
Paul is [totally crazy].
Paul is [totally crazy about football].
Jane is [anxious].
Jane is [very anxious].
Jane is [very anxious about the exam].

With some adjectives, a Postmodifier is usually required:

Amy is [fond of children].
The patient is [unable to walk].
He was fully [aware of the consequences].
He seems [very reluctant to spend money].
War is [unlikely to break out].

In expressions of measurement and age, a noun phrase (3.6) may function as a Premodifier in an adjective phrase:

[three months old]
[a metre long]
[10 millimeters wide]

3.4.1 *Comparative constructions*

Simple comparatives (2.6.2) are formed with an *-er* ending on the Head adjective:

Paul is getting [taller].
It's [colder] today.

If a standard of comparison is involved, it is expressed by the Postmodifier:

Paul is [taller than Amy].
Today is [colder than yesterday].

The Postmodifers in these examples (*than Amy*, *than yesterday*) are prepositional phrases (3.5).

The Head can also take a Premodifier:

Paul is [much taller than Amy].
Paul is [two inches taller than Amy]
Today is [slightly colder than yesterday].
Today is [two degrees colder than yesterday].

Adjectives that do not take the *-er* ending use *more*, *less*, and *as* to form comparative phrases:

Amy is [more industrious than Paul].
Paul is [less industrious than Amy].
Amy is [as industrious as Paul].

The Premodifiers *more*, *less*, and *as* can have their own Premodifiers:

Amy is [much more industrious than Paul].
Paul is [slightly less industrious than Amy].
Amy is [just as industrious as Paul].

The Premodifiers *much*, *slightly*, and *just* premodify the adverb, not the adjective. They form an AdvP with *more*, *less*, and *as*, as shown in Figure 3.9.

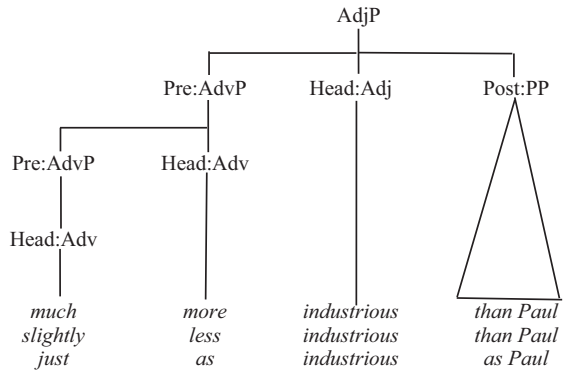

Figure 3.9

If the Head adjective has a Premodifier *too* or *so*, it takes a clause (4.1) as Postmodifier:

Grandad is [too old to dance].	***to*-clause** (4.2.1)
Grandad is [so old that he cannot dance].	***that*-clause** (4.2.5)

3.4.2 *The functions of adjective phrases*

All adjectives function as the Head of an adjective phrase. Then the adjective phrase can perform the following grammatical functions:

1 Subject Complement (1.5):

Our aunt is [quite ill].
You were [very lucky].
My old teacher seemed [really happy to see me].

2 Premodifier of a noun (3.6.3):

Emily was wearing a [very old] dress.
I've used a [slightly different] recipe this time.
She's a [rather boring] person.

Note that if the adjective phrase contains a Postmodifier, it cannot function as the Premodifier of a noun:

The child is [afraid of snakes]. → *An [afraid of snakes] child

3 Postmodifier of a pronoun beginning with *any-*, *no-*, *some-* (2.3.5):

Did he say anything [interesting]?
Something [very strange] has happened.
There is nothing [particularly unusual] in that.

4 Object Complement (1.6.5):

We painted the walls [red].
The new wallpaper makes the room [much brighter].
The Gulf Stream keeps our climate [fairly mild].
The experience made her [reluctant to trust people].

3.5 Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases (PP) are different from the other phrase types in one important respect. The Head of a PP cannot occur alone. It must be followed by another constituent, which is called the **Prepositional Complement** (PC). The basic structure of a PP is shown in Figure 3.10:

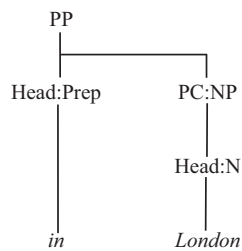

Figure 3.10

The Prepositional Complement is most commonly a noun phrase (3.6), as in the following examples. The PPs are bracketed and the Head is underlined in each case:

Paul is crazy [about football].
My dad works [at the post office].
She lives [across the street].
Hamlet was written [by Shakespeare].
We can talk [during the break].
They are travelling [from Paris] tonight.
We need a loaf [of bread].
The ball went [over the crossbar].
Come [with me].
He left [without his coat].

Some prepositions can also take an *-ing* clause (4.2.1) as Prepositional Complement:

[after breakfast] PC = noun phrase
[after eating breakfast] PC = clause

Here are some more examples of *-ing* clauses functioning as PC:

You can reach it [by standing on a chair].
Shop online [without leaving your home].
It's a program [for cleaning your hard disk].
I need to find a way [of making money].

In expressions of location or time, the PC may be an adverb phrase:

It would be better to start [from here].
Park your car [over there].
I have not seen him [since then].

Premodifiers of PP Heads are relatively rare, but some examples are shown in Figure 3.11.

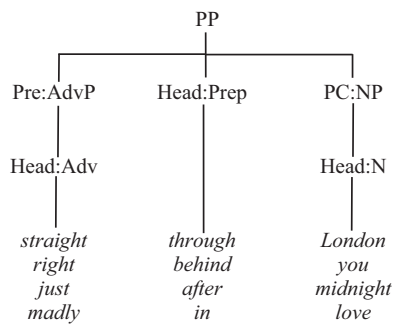

Figure 3.11

In measuring or quantifying expressions, a noun phrase (3.6) can function as Premodifier in a PP:

The clock stopped [a minute before midnight].
I met her [two years after the war].
The soldiers are [a long way from home].
The shipwreck is [fifty metres below the surface].

At first glance, these PPs may look like noun phrases, but notice that they cannot be replaced by pronouns. Instead, they must be replaced by the adverbs *then* or *there*:

The clock stopped [a minute before midnight].	→ The clock stopped *then*.
I met her [two years after the war].	→ I met her *then*.
The soldiers are [a long way from home].	→ The soldiers are *there*.
The shipwreck is [fifty metres below the surface].	→ The shipwreck is *there*.

Notice, too, that the Premodifier can be omitted, but not the rest of the phrase:

The clock stopped [~~a minute~~ before midnight].	**complete**
*The clock stopped [a minute ~~before midnight~~].	**incomplete**

3.5.1 *The functions of prepositional phrases*

Prepositions function as the Head of a prepositional phrase, and then the prepositional phrase performs the following grammatical functions:

1 Adjunct in sentence or clause structure (1.8):

We met [in London].
[After the war], my Dad left the army.
He was standing [on the table].
We had noodles [for lunch].
[By eating less fat], you can lose weight.

2 Postmodifer in a noun phrase (3.6):

the train [to London]
the man [with the glasses]
the children [in Form 1]
the future [of society]
a book [about Hong Kong]

3 Postmodifer in an adjective phrase (3.4):

afraid [of dogs]
aware [of the problem]
responsible [for the children]
guilty [of fraud]

3.6 Noun phrases

The structure of a noun phrase (NP) is basically the same as that of AdvP, AdjP, and PP, with a Head and optional Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier
	books	
	books	about gardening
expensive	books	about gardening

However, noun phrases differ from other phrase types in two important ways:

1 NPs are often introduced by determiners (2.2.6) such as *all*, *many*, *the*, *those*:

all books
many books about gardening
the books
those expensive books about gardening

Determiners do not occur in any other phrase type. We will look at determiners in more detail in section 3.6.2.

2 NPs can have several Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

Pre	Pre	Head	Post	Post
big	red	apples		
		sonnets	by Shakespeare	about love

We will look at NP Premodifiers in section 3.6.3, and at NP Postmodifers in 3.6.4.

First, however, we look at the noun phrase Head.

3.6.1 Noun phrase Heads

The Head of a noun phrase can be a common noun (2.2.2), a proper noun (2.2.2), an independent pronoun (2.3), a numeral (2.3.5), or a nominal adjective (2.6.4), as shown in Figure 3.12:

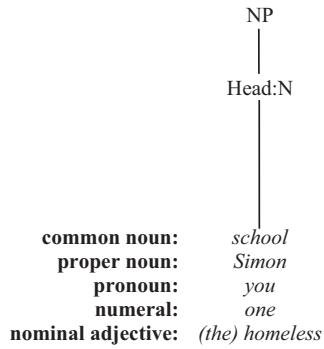

Figure 3.12

Common nouns freely take Premodifiers and Postmodifiers:

[young people from China]
[a new movie about Vietnam]

Proper nouns usually occur without any modifiers, though Premodifiers are possible:

[clever Simon]
[little Amy]

Proper nouns often occur in apposition (3.6.6), that is, with another NP that refers to the same person or place:

[Simon, the President of the Student Union]
[Rome, the capital of Italy]

All independent pronouns (2.3) can function as the Head of a NP, and the phrase usually consists of a Head only:

[I] spoke to Amy.
Give it to [me].
[They] may need help.
[That] was a great movie.
How much are [those]?

Pronouns do not normally take Premodifiers or Postmodifiers, but a small number can do so:

[lucky you]
[we who fought in the war]
[those who voted for Brexit]
How much are [those at the back]?

When numerals function as the Head of a noun phrase, they usually have a Postmodifier in the form of a prepositional phrase (3.5):

[One of the students] is ill.
[Two of the chairs] are broken.

Nominal adjectives (2.6.4) as NP Heads co-occur with the determiner *the*:

We must do more for [the homeless].
Your account is in [the red].

3.6.1.1 Identifying the Head

Consider the following noun phrase:

a student from China

This phrase contains two nouns, *student* and *China*, so which one is the Head? There are a few tests that we can apply to identify the Head of a noun phrase.

In terms of meaning, the Head tells us what 'kind of thing' the phrase refers to:

a student from China = 'a kind of student', not * 'a kind of China'

Therefore, the Head is *student*, and *from China* is the Postmodifier.

Similarly:

[a child with asthma]	= 'a kind of child'
[a play by Shakespeare]	= 'a kind of play'
[a exhibition of drawings]	= 'a kind of exhibition'

The test shows that the first noun is the Head in each NP.

However, this test, based on the meaning, is the least reliable test for identifying the Head. It only works with the simplest types of NP. In the following examples, it produces some very odd results:

[a pair of shoes]	= ?[1] 'a kind of pair'
[a piece of string]	= ? 'a kind of piece'

As we will see, *pair* and *piece* are, in fact, the Heads of these phrases, but we need two grammatical tests in order to prove it.

1 The Number Test:

The Head of a noun phrase is the word that changes when the whole phrase becomes plural:

Singular		**Plural**
[a slice of melon]	→	[two slices of melon]
[the boy in the car]	→	[the boys in the car]
[a tin of paint]	→	[two tins of paint]
[a child with asthma]	→	[children with asthma]
[a student from China]	→	[two students from China]

Similarly:

[a pair of shoes]	→	[two pairs of shoes]
[a piece of string]	→	[two pieces of string]

In each case, only the first noun changes to make the whole phrase plural, so this first noun is the Head of the phrase.

2 The Agreement Test:

The Head is the noun that agrees with the verb when the whole NP is the Subject of a sentence:

[The boy in the car] *is* my son.	**singular Subject/singular verb**
[The boys in the car] *are* my sons.	**plural Subject/plural verb**

Any other noun in the phrase has no effect on the verb:

[A book of poetry] *was* published.	**singular Subject/singular verb**
[A book of poems] *was* published.	**singular Subject/singular verb**

[1] A question mark placed before an example indicates that it is in some way anomalous, either in terms of meaning or in terms of structure.

Similarly: [A pair of shoes] *was* stolen.
[Ten pairs of shoes] *were* stolen.
[One of the children] *is* missing.
[Two of the children] *are* missing.

Both the Number Test and the Agreement Test show that the first noun is the Head. Specifically, the first noun is the Head when the noun phrase has the following structure:

Noun 1	+	Preposition	+	Noun 2
slice		of		melon
children		with		asthma
pair		of		shoes

We will refer to these as **Type 1 NPs**. Their structure is illustrated in Figure 3.13:

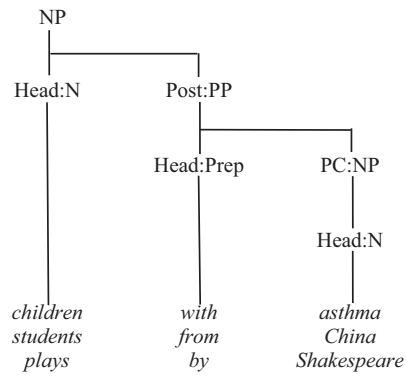

Figure 3.13

Type 2 NPs have the following structure:

Noun 2	+	Noun 1
song		contest
school		uniform
army		tank
music		video

In these examples, we have two nouns with no preposition between them, and as before, the question arises: which noun is the Head of the whole phrase? To identify the Head, we can use the same two tests as before:

1 The Number Test:

Give the plural form of the whole phrase, and see which noun changes its form:

Singular		**Plural**
[song contest]	→	[song contests]

Here, the second noun (*contest*) changes from singular to plural, while the first noun (*song*) remains unchanged. Therefore, *contest* is the Head of the noun phrase *song contest*.

Similarly:

Singular		**Plural**
[school uniform]	→	[school uniforms]
[army tank]	→	[army tanks]
[music video]	→	[music videos]

In each case, only the second noun changes from singular to plural, so the second noun is the Head.

2 **The Agreement Test:**

Put the phrase into a sentence as the Subject, and see which noun agrees with the verb:

[A song contest] *was* held in Tokyo.	**singular Subject/singular verb**
[Song contests] *were* held in Tokyo.	**plural Subject/plural verb**

The verb agrees in number with *contest*, not with *song*, so *contest* is the Head.

Similarly:

[A school uniform] *is* expensive.
[School uniforms] *are* expensive.

[An army tank] *was* destroyed.
[Two army tanks] *were* destroyed.

[A new music video] *has* been released.
[New music videos] *have* been released.

Even if the first noun is plural, it has no effect on the verb:

[The results table] *is* now available.

Both of the tests show that in Type 2 NPs, the second noun is the Head. The structure of Type 2 NPs is illustrated in Figure 3.14:

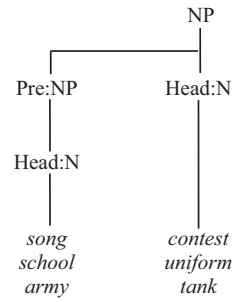

Figure 3.14

Type 2 NPs can sometimes be re-written as Type 1 NPs, by inverting the order of the nouns and inserting a preposition:

Type 2		**Type 1**
a school uniform	→	a uniform for school
a Dickens novel	→	a novel by Dickens
a music video	→	a video with music
a hotel lobby	→	a lobby of a hotel
mountain slope	→	the slope of a mountain
a results table	→	a table of results

Notice that the Head (underlined here) remains the same after the rewrite.

3.6.2 *Determiners and Determinatives*

We introduced determiners in section 2.2.6 as words, such as *a/an*, *the*, *many*, *my*, and *all*, that come before a noun. In fact, a determiner is usually the first constituent in a noun phrase:

a book *that* book
all the books *both* books

all her books	*both those* books
both her books	*some* books
all Amy's many	books *any* book

Genitive nouns such as *Amy's* (2.2.4) are also classified as determiners on the basis that they can be replaced by a possessive pronoun, in this case, *her*, which occupies the same position in the phrase.

The maximum number of determiners before a single noun is three, though the maximum is not often reached. We classify determiners into three subtypes based on their positions relative to each other, as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Determiners

Predeterminers	Central determiners	Postdeterminers
The quantifying pronouns (2.3.5) *all*, *both*	**Articles** (2.2.6) *a/an* and *the*	**Numerals** (2.3.5) *one*, *two*, *three* . . . *first*, *second*, *third* . . ., *next*, *last*
Multipliers *twice*, *double*, *thrice* . . .	**Possessive pronouns** (2.3.2) *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *their*	**Other quantifying pronouns** (2.3.5) *a few*, *another*, *any*, *each*, *either*, *every*, *few*, *fewest*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *much*, *neither*, *no*, *other*, *several*, *some*
Fractions *half*, *one-third* . . .	**Genitive nouns** (2.2.4) *Amy's*	
	Demonstrative pronouns (2.3.4) *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*	
	Interrogative pronouns (2.3.8) *what*, *which*	
	Nominal relative pronouns (2.3.7) *whatever*, *whichever*	

Central and predeterminers do not co-occur, that is, we can have at most one each before a single noun:

*the my car
*all both people

Postdeterminers can co-occur, with some restrictions based on the meaning:

> every few days
> several other people

The interrogative determiners *what* and *which* introduce questions:

> [*What* time] is it?
> [*Which* other countries] are you referring to?

Either and *neither* are used with singular count nouns:

> [*Either* team] could win the game. (= *each* team)
> [*Neither* team] could win the game. (= *no* team)

All determiners (Det) function as the Head of a determiner phrase (DP), which in turn functions as a **Determinative** (**DVE**) in the noun phrase. This is illustrated in Figures 3.15 and 3.16.

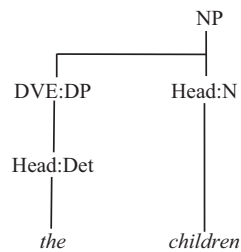

Figure 3.15

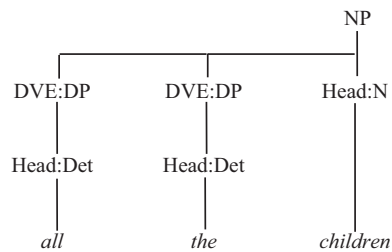

Figure 3.16

Most determiner phrases consist of one word only, but some can have Premodifiers of their own, in the form of adverb phrases (3.3):

> [very many] books
> [almost all] students

[nearly ten] percent
[much more] money
[very little] effort

The structure of these is shown in Figure 3.17:

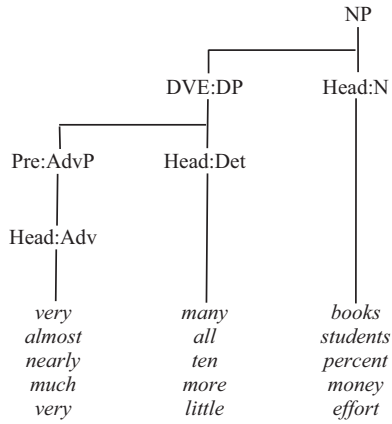

Figure 3.17

Two-word DPs are very commonly found when one of the determiners is a genitive noun (2.2.4):

[*my brother's*] car

Here, the determiner *my* clearly goes with the genitive noun *brother's*, and not with *car* (it's not *my car*). Notice that the whole DP can be replaced by one word, *his*:

[*my brother's*] car → [*his*] car

Similarly:

The document discusses [*a government's*] duties towards its people.

Here, the indefinite article *a* goes with *government's*, not with *duties* (**a duties*), so it forms a determiner phrase *a government's*. Again, the DP can be replaced by one word, *its*:

[*a government's*] duties → [*its*] duties

In these instances, the Head of the DP takes a determiner of its own. The structure is shown in Figure 3.18:

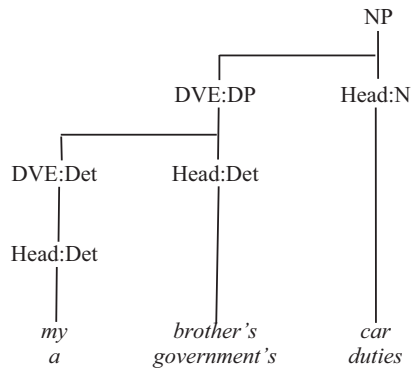

Figure 3.18

Determiner phrases are relatively 'minor' phrases in the sense that they cannot occur independently as other phrases do. Instead, they can only occur as constituents of noun phrases.

Determinatives come before any Premodifiers that are present (Figure 3.19).

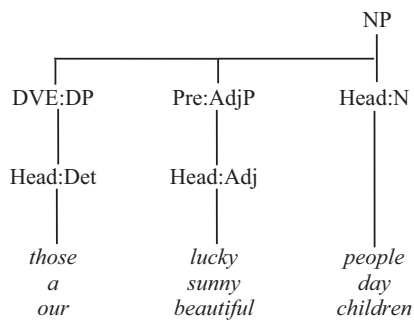

Figure 3.19

There is an exception to this: if the adjective has the Premodifier *too* or *so*, the Determinative and the Premodifier switch places:

> It was [*too big*] [*a*] problem to solve. (Not: *It was a too big problem . . .)
> It was [*so big*] [*a*] problem that no one could solve it. (Not: *It was a so big problem . . .)

The structure is shown in Figure 3.20.

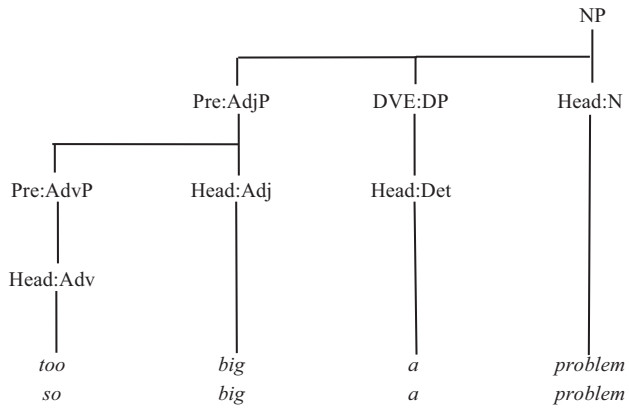

Figure 3.20

See also Comparative constructions (3.4.1).

3.6.3 *Noun phrase Premodifiers*

The most common Premodifiers in a noun phrase are:

1 Adjective phrases (3.4):

[black taxi]
[crazy people]
[very old buildings]
[quite good weather]

The structure is shown in Figure 3.21:

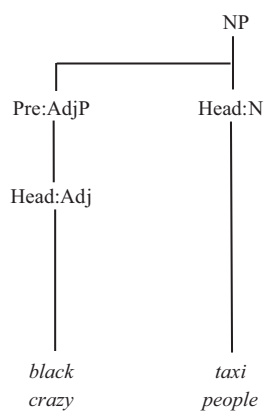

Figure 3.21

There can be several Premodifiers in one NP (Figure 3.22).

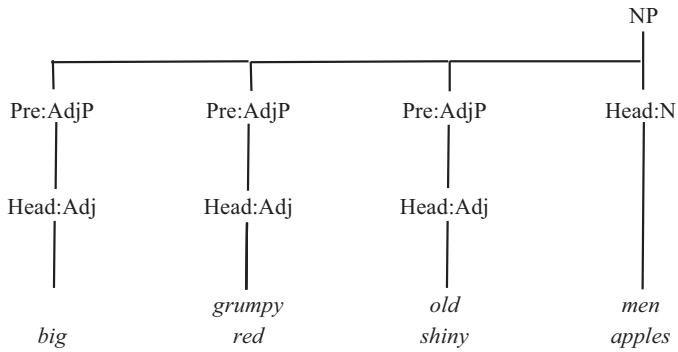

Figure 3.22

Each Premodifier *separately* modifies the Head: these are *big apples*, *red apples*, and *shiny apples*.

2 Noun phrases

When a noun phrase functions as Premodifier in another noun phrase, it creates a Type 2 NP, which we looked at in 3.6.1. Figure 3.14 (p. 97) shows the structure, but we repeat it here, in Figure 3.23, with some more examples.

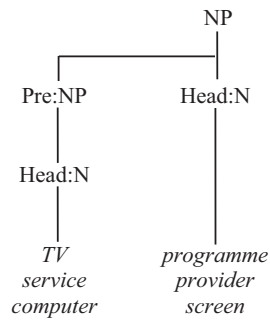

Figure 3.23

A noun phrase functioning as Premodifier can have its own Premodifier, as shown in Figure 3.24.

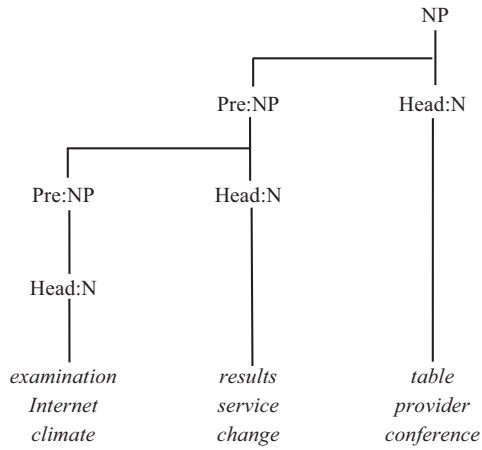

Figure 3.24

We can work out the structure of these by converting them to Type 1 NPs (3.6.1):

Type 2		**Type 1**
examination results <u>table</u>	→	a <u>table</u> of [examination results]
Internet service <u>provider</u>	→	a <u>provider</u> of [Internet service]
climate change <u>conference</u>	→	a <u>conference</u> about [climate change]

The Head is underlined here, and it does not change when we convert the phrase to Type 1.

A noun phrase can co-occur with an adjective phrase as a Premodifier, but the adjective phrase always comes first (Figure 3.25).

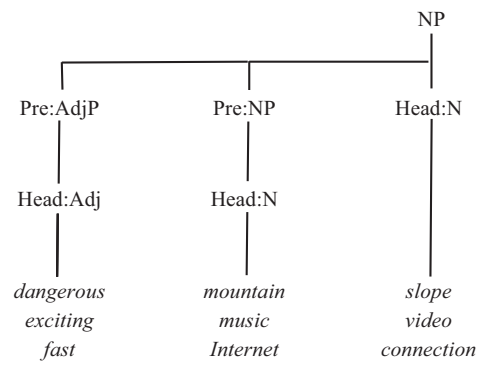

Figure 3.25

A note on adjectives and nouns in 'school' grammars

It is still common in some school-level grammar textbooks to describe, for example, the word *mountain* in *a mountain slope* as an adjective, on the basis that it 'describes the slope'. This is neither accurate nor helpful to students. Although *mountain* in the NP *a mountain slope* functions as the Premodifier of *slope*, in all other respects it does not behave like an adjective. Compare:

1. *a mountain slope* 2. *a dangerous slope*

In 2, *dangerous* is an adjective, not because it 'describes the slope', but because it behaves like an adjective in that position. That is, it can take a Premodifier such as *very* or *extremely* before it:

a very/extremely dangerous slope

We cannot do this with *mountain* in the same position:

**a very/extremely mountain slope*

Also, *a dangerous slope* can be re-written as:

a slope that is dangerous

Again, we cannot do this with *a mountain slope*:

**a slope that is mountain*

We can, however, rewrite it as a Type 1 NP: *the slope of a mountain*.

3.6.4 *Noun phrase Postmodifiers*

The function of Postmodifier of an NP Head can be performed by several different forms, as shown below. In each case, the Head of the noun phrase is underlined, and the Postmodifer is in italics:

1 Prepositional phrases (3.5):

a <u>piece</u> *of cheese*
a <u>box</u> *of chocolates*

a biography *of Mozart*
the house *on the hill*
the road *to Damascus*
a shirt *with long sleeves*
a spokesman *for the council*
the war *between rival gangs*
the Museum *in Kensington*

The structure of these is shown in Figure 3.26.

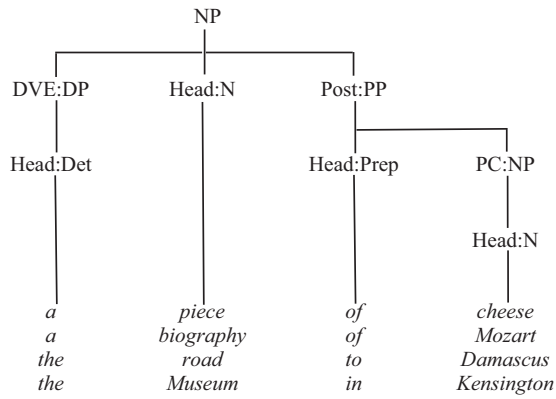

Figure 3.26

2 Clauses (4.1)

Several clause types can function as Postmodifiers in noun phrases. In the following examples, NP Heads are underlined, and the postmodifying clauses are in italics:

Relative clauses (4.2.3):

the man *who lives beside us*
the food *that he cooked*
the book *which he wrote*

***-ing* clauses** (4.2.1):

anyone *carrying a knife*
the man *waving his arms*

***-ed/-en* clauses** (4.2.1):

vegetables *grown in organic soil*
the decision *made by President Trump*

to-clauses (4.2.1):

the first man *to walk on the moon*
the best thing *to do*

3 Adjective phrases (3.4)

something *cold*
someone *so stupid*
anything *smaller*
the time *available*
the people *concerned*

4 Adverb phrases (3.3)

Adverb phrases as NP Postmodifiers generally denote place or direction.

the way *forward*
the flight *back*
the paragraph *above*
the apartment *below*

3.6.4.1 Sequential and embedded Postmodifiers

Noun phrase Heads can have more than one Postmodifier, unlike any other phrase type. Here are some examples. The Postmodifiers are bracketed and the NP Heads are underlined.

sonnets [by Shakespeare] [about love]
the arrival [of Trump] [in Washington]
a play [by Beckett] [at the Barbican Theatre]
a holiday [for two] [in Rome]
the photo [you took] [of Napoleon's tomb]

The general structure of these is shown in Figure 3.27

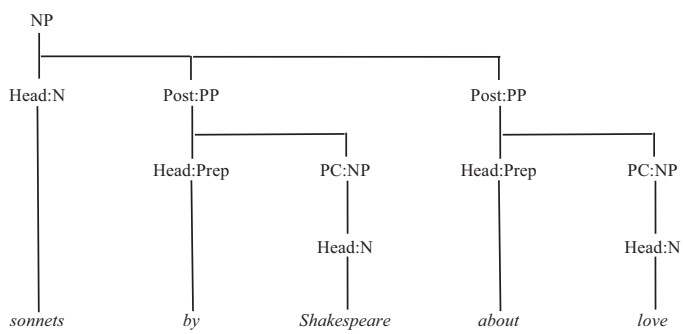

Figure 3.27

These are sequential Postmodifiers, because they occur in sequence and separately modify the Head: the NP refers to 'sonnets by Shakespeare' and 'sonnets about love'. The order of sequential Postmodifiers can sometimes be reversed:

sonnets [by Shakespeare] [about love] →	sonnets [about love] [by Shakespeare]

However, there are restrictions on the reversibility of sequential Postmodifiers. See Postmodifiers and Complements (3.6.4.2).

We need to distinguish sequential Postmodifiers from embedded Postmodifiers, as shown in Figure 3.28.

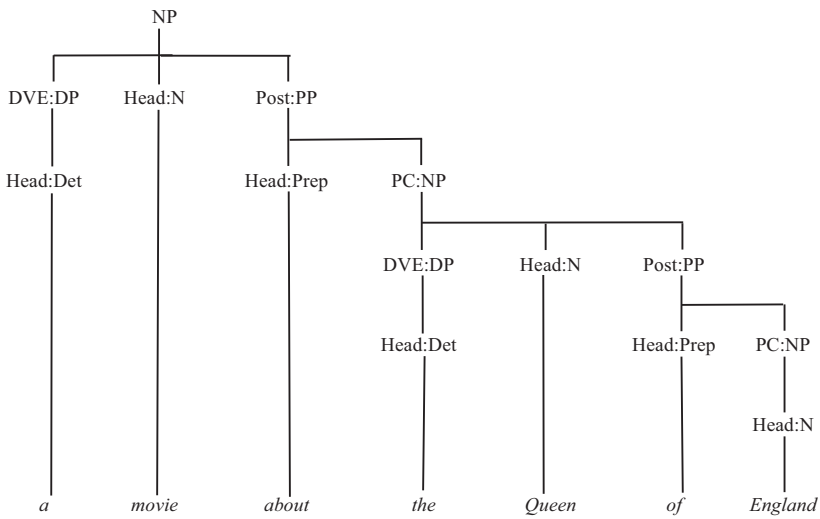

Figure 3.28

In this example, the Head of the whole phrase, *movie*, has just one Postmodifier, *about the Queen of England*. Within that Postmodifier, the noun *Queen* has its own Postmodifier, *of England*.

Here are some more examples of embedded Postmodifiers:

the contest [for leadership [of the party]]
protests [against the ban [on immigration]]
a video [of the bombing [of Syria]]
a documentary [about the events [of 9/11]]

In each of these examples, everything enclosed in large brackets is the Postmodifier of the Head (underlined). Within those Postmodifiers, another noun has its own Postmodifier (enclosed in smaller brackets).

Unlike sequential Postmodifiers, the order of embedded Postmodifiers cannot be reversed:

a movie [about the Queen] [of England] → *a movie [of England] [about the Queen]

3.6.4.2 Postmodifiers and Complements

Complements are a type of noun phrase Postmodifier (3.6.4), but they have a much closer link with the noun than ordinary Postmodifiers. Compare the following:

[**1**] **Postmodifier:**

The news *that he gave us today* was welcomed by everyone.

[**2**] **Complement:**

The news *that he intends to resign* was welcomed by everyone.

In [1], the Postmodifier *that he gave us today* does not define the content of the news. It does not tell us exactly what the news was. In contrast with this, the Complement in [2], *that he intends to resign*, plays a defining role. It tells us precisely what the content of the news was.

The distinction between a Postmodifier and a Complement is not simply one of meaning. There is also a grammatical difference. In the Postmodifier, we can usually replace *that* with *which*:

[**1a**] **Postmodifier:**

The news *which he gave us today* was welcomed by everyone.

We cannot replace *that* with *which* in the Complement:

[**2a**] **Complement:**

*The news *which he intends to resign* was welcomed by everyone.

The word *that* in the Complement is called Complementizer *that*, while the word *that* in the Postmodifier is the relative pronoun *that* (2.3.6). See also: *That*-clauses (4.2.5).

Here are some more examples of noun phrases with Complements:

the fact *that no one came*
the idea *that countries should co-operate*
the realisation *that the scheme had failed*
the theory *that light is a wave motion*

In each of these examples, the Complement is necessary to define the Head. Compare, for example:

Complement: the theory *that light is a wave motion*
Postmodifier: the theory *that* (or *which*) *we studied in class*

If the two co-occur in the same NP, the Complement comes closest to the Head, and is followed by the Postmodifier:

the theory [*that light is a wave motion*] [*that we studied in class*]

Finally, in this section, independent genitive constructions (2.2.5) also involve the use of Complements, not Postmodifiers:

an uncle *of mine*
a friend *of Caroline's*
a neighbour *of ours*

In these, the *of*-phrase is a Complement, and therefore comes before any Postmodifier that may be present:

an uncle [*of mine*] [who works in London]
Compare: *an uncle [who works in London] [*of mine*]

3.6.5 *The functions of noun phrases*

Noun phrases are grammatically very versatile. They can perform a wide range of functions in sentence structure as well as in phrase structure. In sentence structure, noun phrases have the following functions:

1 **Subject (1.4):**

A large tile fell from the roof.
Four people entered the room.
The man who lives beside us is unwell.

2 **Subject Complement (1.6.2):**

Paul is *my nephew*.
She is *a teacher of English*.
That is *the wrong way to wire a plug*.

3 **Direct Object (1.6.3):**

The plane left *the runway*.
I bought *a jar of coffee*.
Our teacher writes *detective stories*.

4 **Indirect Object (1.6.4):**

She told *the chairman* the bad news.
I offered *the girl beside me* a drink.
It gives *people with disabilities* more independence.

5 **Object Complement (1.6.5):**

She called him *a loser*.
They appointed him *President of the Board of Trade*.
The trade unions made Britain *the country it is today*.

6 **Adjunct** (1.8):

Last week, our freezer broke down.
She's going to Harvard *next year*.
One day you'll regret quitting college.

In phrase structure, noun phrases have the following major functions:

7 **Prepositional Complement (3.5):**

over *the moon*
behind *our house*
at *the cinema*

8 **Premodifier in another noun phrase (3.6.3)**

a *school* uniform
the *computer* screen
a *traffic* accident

9 In quantifying or measuring expressions, noun phrases function as Premodifiers in an adverb phrase (3.3), adjective phrase (3.4), or prepositional phrase (3.5):

two minutes earlier (adverb phrase)
six years old (adjective phrase)
ten metres below the surface (prepositional phrase)

3.6.6 *Apposition*

Apposition is a relationship between two noun phrases which have identical reference:

the US President, Donald Trump

The two noun phrases, *the US President* and *Donald Trump*, refer to the same person and are said to be in apposition to each other. Further examples of apposition include:

the Chinese capital, Beijing
John's favourite food, pasta
the head of Microsoft, Bill Gates
our good friends, the Browns

Apposition is often used as a device for clarifying the meaning of the first noun phrase:

ISIS (Islamic State of Iraq and Syria)
the larynx (voice box)
230 litres (50 gallons)

In this type of 'clarifying' apposition, the word *or* is sometimes introduced between the two noun phrases:

phototaxis, *or* light-directed motion
vexillology, *or* the study of flags

3.7 Verb phrases

Verb phrases (VPs) are very different from all other phrase types in terms of their structure. They do not have Heads, Premodifiers, or Postmodifiers. Figure 3.29 shows the basic structure of a VP.

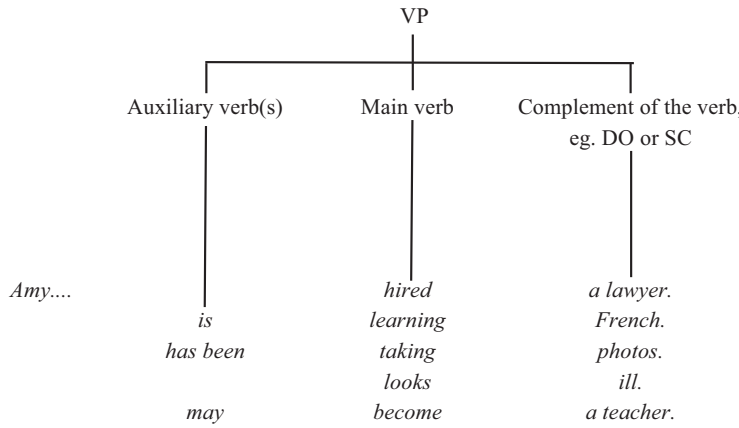

Figure 3.29

In terms of forms and functions, the VP *has been taking photos* appears as shown in Figure 3.30.

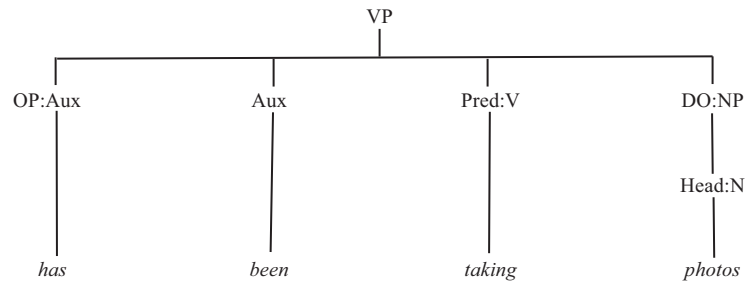

Figure 3.30

The main verb (2.4) functions as the **Predicator** (**Pred**) in the VP. It is unnecessary to give a function label to the VP itself, since VPs only ever have one function in grammar. They are, as it were, the 'engine room' of the whole sentence. The first (or only) auxiliary verb (2.5) functions as the Operator (OP). The Operator has several important grammatical roles in the VP, which we will look at in section 3.7.1. All other auxiliary verbs are simply labelled **Aux** (**auxiliary**).

Notice that the Direct Object (1.6.3) is a constituent of the VP in Figure 3.30. This is because the Direct Object is required to complete the meaning of the main verb.[2] For the same reason, Subject Complements (1.6.2), Indirect Objects (1.6.4), and Object Complements (1.6.5) are also constituents of the VP.

[2] Compare this with the simplified version that we showed in Figure 1.3, p. 5.

3.7.1 *The Operator*

The Operator is the first or only auxiliary verb in a VP:

Amy [*is* learning French].
She [*was* reading].
He [*will* come] later.
She [*has* been taking photos].

If there is no auxiliary verb, then there is no Operator:

Amy [hired a lawyer].
Amy [speaks French].
Amy [reads novels].

These VPs have a main verb only, and no auxiliary verbs, so no Operator is present.

When an Operator is present, it carries the tense marking (past or present) (3.7.5) of the VP as a whole:

James [*is* leaving].	**present tense**
Simon [*has* arrived].	**present tense**
Amy [*was* sleeping].	**past tense**
Paul [*was* being bullied].	**past tense**

If no auxiliary is present, the tense marking is carried by the main verb:

Amy [*sleeps*] all day.	**present tense**
Paul [*walked*] to school.	**past tense**

When an Operator is present, all other verbs (including the main verb) have the base form, the *-ing* form, or the *-ed/-en* form (2.4.1)

	Operator	Auxiliary verb	Main verb
Paul	*was*	*being*	*bullied.*
	= past tense form	= *-ing* form	= *-ed/-en* form

When a modal verb (2.5.1) is present, it always comes first in the VP, and it always functions as the Operator:

	Operator	Auxiliary verb	Auxiliary verb	Main verb
You	*can't*	*have*	*been*	*listening.*
	= present tense form	= base form	= *-ed/-en form*	= *-ing* form

On the ordering of auxiliary verbs, see 3.7.2.
See also: Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3), Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses (4.2.1)

In addition to carrying the tense, the Operator has four other functions to perform in a verb phrase. These are summarised by the acronym **NICE**, which stands for:

Negation
Inversion
Code
Emphasis

We will now look at each of these functions in turn.

Negation: When we make a sentence negative, we put the word *not* after the Operator:

I *will* (OP) stay → I *will* (OP) not stay
Amy *is* (OP) coming. → Amy *is* (OP) not coming.
You *should* (OP) have told him. → You *should* (OP) not have told him.
He *was* (OP) being bullied. → He *was* (OP) not being bullied.

If only a main verb is present, we introduce the auxiliary *do* as Operator to form a negative sentence:

Amy took a selfie. → Amy *did* (OP) not take a selfie.
Paul snores. → Paul *does* (OP) not snore.

Inversion: When we turn a statement into a question, we invert the Subject (S) and the Operator:

The manager (S) *should* (OP) resign. → *Should* (OP) the manager (S) resign?
The team (S) *is* (OP) playing very badly. → *Is* (OP) the team (S) playing very badly?
The doctor (S) *has* (OP) examined Paul. → *Has* (OP) the doctor (S) examined Paul?
She (S) *was* (OP) being bullied at school. → *Was* (OP) she (S) being bullied at school?

If a main verb only is present, we introduce the auxiliary *do* as the Operator, and then we invert the Subject (S) with *do*:

She (S) admires Lisa Simpson. → *Does* (OP) she (S) admire Lisa Simpson?
Paul (S) married Emily. → *Did* (OP) Paul (S) marry Emily?

In 1.5.1 we discussed the Inversion Test as a way of identifying the Subject of a sentence, and we said that the Subject inverts with the verb to form a question. We can see now that, strictly speaking, the *Operator* inverts with the Subject.

Code: The term 'code' refers to the fact that the Operator can occur alone if the main verb is understood from the previous context:

Will (OP) you stay? Yes I *will* (OP).
Is (OP) it raining? Yes it *is* (OP).

Amy *is* (OP) studying, and Paul *is* (OP) too.
The team *has* (OP) left, and the manager *has* (OP) too.

When a main verb only is present, once again we introduce the auxiliary verb *do* as the Operator:

I made a mistake. – Yes you *did* (OP).
Simon left early, and I *did* (OP) too.

Emphasis: the Operator is given emphatic stress in speech:

Amy IS (OP) working hard.
I AM (OP) trying.
She DID (OP) tell you.
I HAVE (OP) been studying.

When a main verb only is present, we introduce auxiliary *do* as the Operator to take the emphatic stress. The stress is not placed on the main verb:

You made a mistake. – Yes I certainly DID (OP) make a mistake.
Will you come to my party? – Yes I WILL (OP) come.

The use of auxiliary *do* as an Operator with main verbs is called *do*-**support**. However, when the main verb *be* occurs alone, we do not need *do*-support to form questions, negatives, etc. For example:

	He *is* very ambitious.
Negation:	He *is* not very ambitious.
Inversion:	*Is* he very ambitious?
Code:	*Is* he very ambitious? – Yes, he *is*.
Emphasis:	I don't think he *is* very ambitious. – Yes, he *IS* very ambitious.

In these examples, main verb *be* acts as if it were the Operator itself, displaying the NICE properties.

With main verb *have*, we usually have a choice. We can either use *do*-support or not, as in the following examples:

	He *has* a new job.
Negation:	He *does* not have a new job. **OR** He *has* not (got) a new job.
Inversion	*Does* he have a new job? **OR** *Has* he a new job?
Code:	*Has* he a new job? – Yes he *does*. **OR** Yes he *has*.
Emphasis:	I don't think he has a new job. – Yes he *DOES* have a new job. **OR** Yes, he *HAS* a new job.

In general, American English (AmE) tends to favour the use of *do*-support with main verb *have*, while British English (BrE) typically favours the version without *do*:

AmE:	How much money does Bill Gates have?
BrE:	How much money has Bill Gates?

3.7.2 *The ordering of auxiliary verbs*

When two or more auxiliary verbs occur in a verb phrase, they follow the order shown in Table 3.1. However, it is very unusual to find all four

auxiliary types in the same verb phrase. More usually, a total of two or three auxiliaries will co-occur, as in the following example:

	<----------Auxiliary Verbs---------->				Main Verb (2.4)
	Modal (2.5.1)	Perfective (2.5.5) *(have)*	Progressive (2.5.4) *(be)*	Passive (2.5.3) *(be)*	
He	*may*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*bullied.*

The main verb is always the last verb in the sequence, and the maximum number of auxiliary verbs is four, although that number is rarely reached. The ordering of auxiliary verb is as follows:

Modal – Passive:

He *may be* bullied at school.
The seat *can be* lowered.

Progressive – Passive:

He *is being* bullied.
This lecture *is being* recorded.

Perfective – Progressive:

He *has been* bullying other boys at school.
She *has been* collecting books for years.

Perfective – Passive:

He *has been* bullied in the past.
The deficit *has been* reduced.

Modal – Perfective – Passive:

He *may have been* bullied as a child.
The concert *should have been* cancelled.

Modal – Perfective – Progressive – Passive

He *may have been being* bullied at the time.

The form of each verb (2.4.1), including the main verb, is strictly determined by the type of auxiliary that comes immediately before it:

	Modal	Perfective	Progressive	Passive	Main verb
He	*may*	*have*	*been*	*being*	*bullied.*
		= base form	= *-ed/-en* form	= *-ing* form	= *-ed/-en* form

In terms of their forms, the ordering of verbs is as follows:

Modal followed by **base form:**	may *bully*, may *be* bullying.
Perfective *have* followed by ***-ed/-en* form:**	has *bullied*, has *been* bullying
Progressive *be* followed by ***-ing* form:**	is *bullying*, is *being* bullied
Passive *be* followed by ***-ed/-en* form:**	was *bullied*, was being *bullied*

The form of the first (or only) verb is a determined by the tense (past or present) of the verb phrase as a whole (see 3.7.1).

3.7.3 *Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases*

Verbs that have tense marking (past or present form) are called **finite** verbs. Verbs with any of the other three forms (base, *-ed/-en*, *-ing*) are called **non-finite** verbs. If the first or only verb has tense marking, the VP as a whole is finite:

Everyone [*likes* Amy].
Your flight [*has* departed].
The old man [*is* feeding his dog].
I [*was* washing the dishes] when you phoned.

Since modals (2.5.1) always come first in a VP, they carry the tense of the VP as a whole, past or present. They do not have any non-finite forms.

If the first or only verb does not have tense, the VP as a whole is non-finite:

The plumber released the steam by [*opening* a valve].	***-ing* form**
[*Building* your own house] can be very expensive.	***-ing* form**
[To *tell* you the truth], I don't care.	***base* form**
[*Having* been bitten] in the past, Sam was cautious with dogs.	***-ing* form**
[*Released* in 1968], 'Hey Jude' reached No. 1 in the charts.	***-ed/-en* form**

Notice that in a non-finite verb phrase, all the verbs are non-finite: *having been bitten*. The distinction between finite and non-finite verb phrases is important in the classification of subordinate clauses (4.2.1).

See also: Interrogative sentences (4.4.2)

3.7.4 *Movement*

At the beginning of section 3.7, we said that verb phrases are very different from all other phrase types. Perhaps the greatest difference can be seen in the process of **movement**, which refers to the fact that constituents of verb phrases often move outside the phrase itself. For example, when we form a question from a statement (3.7.1), the Subject and the Operator change places:

Statement: John (S) has (OP) arrived.
Question: Has (OP) John (S) arrived?

In terms of structure, this means that the verb phrase is now interrupted by the Subject, to become

Has (OP) . . . arrived (V)?

This is known as **movement**, and we can visualise it as shown in Figure 3.31.

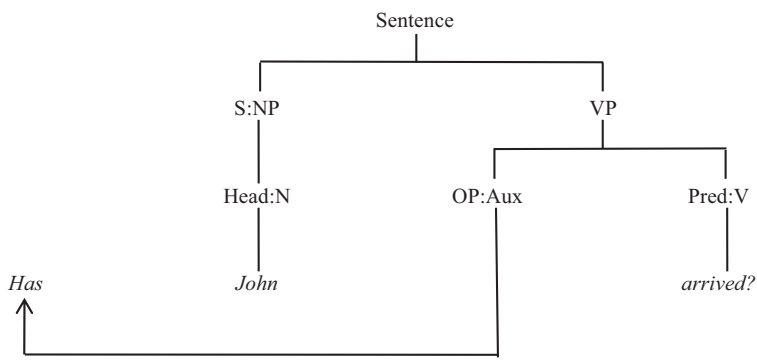

Figure 3.31

In Figure 3.31, the arrow shows that to form the question, the Operator has moved from its normal position inside the verb phrase to a new position before the Subject. Its function remains the same, however, and only its position has changed. If we draw a tree diagram for the corresponding statement

(Figure 3.32), we can see that the question and the statement actually have exactly the same structure, even though their word orders are different.

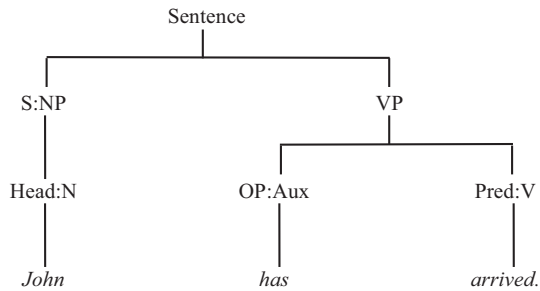

Figure 3.32

For more examples of movement, see Relative clauses (4.2.3), Nominal relative clauses (4.2.4), Interrogative sentences (4.4.2) and **Exclamative sentences (4.4.4).**

3.7.5 *Tense*

Tense refers to the way in which a language expresses the concept of time. In English, there are just two tenses, the present tense and the past tense. In regular verbs, the **present tense** is expressed by the *-s* form of the verb, when the Subject is third-person singular:

3rd-person singular:	he *walks*
	she *walks*
	it/David/the man *walks*

For all other Subjects, the base form of the verb is used:

1st-person singular:	I *walk*
2nd-person singular:	you *walk*
1st-person plural:	we *walk*
2nd-person plural:	you *walk*
3rd-person plural:	they *walk*

The base form is also used in non-finite verb phrases (3.7.2), where it does not carry tense, for example:

I like to *walk* to school.
Don't *walk* so fast!

How do we know, then, that *walk*, in *I walk*, expresses the present tense? The answer is simply that it can be switched to the past tense:

I *walked* to school yesterday.

We cannot make this switch with the non-finite forms:

*I like to *walked* for exercise.
*Don't *walked* so fast!

On the verb forms, see 2.4.1.

The **past tense** is indicated by an *-ed* ending, regardless of the Subject:

1st-person singular:	I *walked*
2nd-person singular:	you *walked*
3rd-person singular:	he/she/it/David/the man *walked*
1st-person plural:	we *walked*
2nd-person plural:	you *walked*
3rd-person plural:	they *walked*

In these examples, only a main verb is present, so this verb carries the tense marker. When an auxiliary verb is present, the tense is indicated by the first (or only) auxiliary verb, and not by the main verb:

Present tense:	The chairman *is* speaking.
Past tense:	The chairman *was* speaking.
Present tense:	The ambassador *has* done his duty.
Past tense:	The ambassador *had* done his duty.
Present tense:	A new script *is* being written.
Past tense:	A new script *was* being written.

See also: Finite and non-finite verb phrases (**3.7.3**)

3.7.6 *Expressing future time*

As we saw in section 3.7.5, English has two tenses, the present tense and the past tense. The *-s* ending indicates present tense and the *-ed* ending indicates past tense. However, there is no ending to indicate the future, so

it would be incorrect to speak of a 'future tense' in English. In fact, future time is very often expressed by using the present tense form of a verb:

Peter *arrives* next Friday.
Your flight *leaves* in ten minutes.
David *graduates* in September.

There are several other ways to express future time in English:

1 Modal auxiliary *will* (2.5.1):

Peter *will* arrive next Friday.
Your flight *will* leave in ten minutes.
David *will* graduate in September.

The contracted form *'ll* is often used informally:

I'*ll* see you later.

2 Semi-auxiliary *be going to* (present tense) (2.5.7):

Peter *is going to* arrive next Friday.
Your flight *is going to* leave in ten minutes.
David *is going to* graduate in September.

3 Progressive auxiliary *be* (present tense) + *-ing* verb (2.5.4):

Peter *is arriving* next Friday.
Your flight *is leaving* in ten minutes.
David *is graduating* in September.

3.7.7 Aspect

Tense (3.7.4) refers to the absolute location of an event in time – either past or present. **Aspect** refers to how an event is to be viewed with respect to time. We illustrate the contrast using the following examples:

[1] David *broke* his leg when he was 12.
[2] David *has broken* his leg.

In [1], the verb *broke* tells us that David broke his leg in the past (specifically, when he was 12). This is a past tense verb.

The auxiliary *has* in [2] is the perfective auxiliary (2.5.5), and it expresses perfective aspect in the verb phrase *has broken*. The verb *has* has present tense form, so we can describe the whole verb phrase *has broken* as present tense, perfective aspect.

In [2] the event took place in the past, but it is implied that it took place very recently. It is further implied that it is relevant at the time of speaking (the present) – *David has broken his leg, so call an ambulance (now)!*

The past tense version of [2] is

[2a] David had broken his leg.

Here, the event occurred in the past, but it is implied that it was still relevant at some later time: *David had broken his leg, so he could not play in the Cup Final that year*.

The idea of 'relevance' is important when we wish to distinguish between tense and aspect. Tense alone is exemplified in [1]. The event described is wholly in the past, and no current relevance is implied. Both tense and aspect are exemplified in [2] and [2a]. In each case, the event described has 'relevance', either in the present, as in [2], or at some time between the event and the present, as in [2a].

The other aspectual auxiliary is the progressive auxiliary *be* (2.5.4):

[3] David *is* working in Beijing.
[4] David *was* working in Beijing when I met him.

Sentence [3] expresses the idea that the action is still in progress: David is working in Beijing at the time of speaking. For this reason, we say that the sentence exemplifies progressive aspect. Like perfective aspect, progressive aspect also carries an implication of 'relevance'. Here, it is current relevance, at the time of speaking (the present): *David is working in Beijing, so it may be difficult to contact him (now)*. The verb phrase *is working* exemplifies present tense, progressive aspect.

Sentence [4] also expresses the idea of action in progress, but at a particular time in the past ('when I met him'). The verb phrase *was working* exemplifies past tense, progressive aspect.

3.7.8 Mood

Mood refers to distinctions in the form of a verb phrase that express the speaker's attitude towards what is said. There are three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

1 Indicative mood is the most common mood in declarative (4.4.1), interrogative (4.4.2), and exclamative (4.4.4) sentences:

Paul *enrolled* in a music class.
Does Amy *like* her new school?
What a big house you *have*!

2 The imperative (4.4.3) is used in issuing orders or instructions:

Move over.
Stop that at once.
Bake in a pre-heated over for 30 minutes.

3 Subjunctive mood is used when we refer to a non-factual or hypothetical situation:

If I *were* you, I would accept the offer.
If Hilary Clinton *were* President of the USA, what would she do?

This is called the ***were*-subjunctive** because of the form of the verb.

The **mandative subjunctive** is used after a small number of verbs, including *ask*, *decide*, *insist*, *recommend*, and *suggest*, when these verbs are followed by *that*:

The committee insisted that she *resign* immediately.
The lawyer asked that he *be* given more time to prepare his case.

The mandative subjunctive is also used after the following adjectives: *crucial*, *essential*, *important*, *necessary*, *vital*:

It is *important* that every room *be* properly ventilated.
It is *vital* that prisoners *be* supervised at all times.

The use of the subjunctive is much more common in American English than in British English. In British English, the indicative mood is often preferred:

If I *was* you, I would accept the offer.
It is vital that prisoners *are* supervised at all times.

The subjunctive is also used in many formulaic expressions:

as it *were*
be that as it may
far *be* it from me

if need *be*
God *be* praised
so *be* it
come what may
long *live* the Republic
wish you *were* here

Exercises for Chapter 3

Exercise 3.1: Adverb phrases (3.3)

Underline the adverb phrases in the following sentences:

1 Global warming has recently become a major concern for governments.
2 Previously, many people felt that governments did not take the issue seriously.
3 Now, it seems that the voice of the people is finally being heard.
4 Scientists are fully convinced that climate change is a reality.
5 Some governments are quite uncertain about what to do.
6 Many people feel strongly that international cooperation is the only solution.

Exercise 3.2: The functions of adverb phrases (3.3.1)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adverb phrases. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; PreJ = Premodifier of an adjective; PreV = Premodifier of an adverb; PreP = Premodifer of a preposition.

1 Incredibly ( ), he crashed straight ( ) into a parked car.
2 Many really ( ) talented students never ( ) go to college.
3 Obviously ( ), the applications are examined very carefully ( ).
4 I am fairly ( ) sure she treated him very ( ) unfairly ( ).
5 Grandad is often ( ) quite ( ) confused.
6 A Toyota would be much ( ) less ( ) expensive.

Exercise 3.3: Adjective phrases (3.4)

Underline the adjective phrases in the following sentences:

1 In much earlier times Antwerp was one of the largest cities in western Europe.
2 The vibrant atmosphere of the sprawling city was very exciting for residents and visitors alike.
3 Antwerp became an increasingly important financial centre as time went on.
4 Prices for works of art were incredibly high, and even fairly mediocre artists could make a reasonably good living.

5 The Church was a very significant contributor to the vast wealth of the city.
6 The Bishop of Antwerp commissioned expensive paintings and statues, and the artists were usually very happy to accept the commissions.
7 The Church had always been acutely aware of the need to patronise artists.
8 In turn, the artists produced some of the most magnificent masterpieces that Europe has ever seen.

Exercise 3.4: The functions of adjective phrases (3.4.2)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adjective phrases. Use the following abbreviations: Pre = Premodifier; SC = Subject Complement; Post = Postmodifier; OC = Object Complement.

1 The kids seem <u>delighted with their gifts</u> ( ).
2 It was a <u>totally unexpected</u> ( ) discovery.
3 The President's <u>recent</u> ( ) statement about immigration was <u>outrageous</u> ( ).
4 <u>Heavily-armed</u> ( ) police officers shot the gunman <u>dead</u> ( ).
5 Nothing <u>very interesting</u> ( ) ever happens here.
6 I found the book <u>boring</u> ( ), but the movie is <u>amazing</u> ( ).

Exercise 3.5: Prepositional phrases (3.5)

Underline the prepositional phrases in the following passage:

> Marco Polo was born in Venice in 1254. At that time, Venice was one of Europe's wealthiest cities. At 17, Marco travelled with his father and uncle from Italy to China. That journey eventually opened trade routes between the east and the west. In his book, *The Travels of Marco Polo*, he described the immense size of Chinese cities and the many splendours to be seen at the Emperor's court. His book contains stories about many wonders: bandits in desert hideaways, snakes with legs, and an Emperor who kept a tamed lion at his feet. No one is quite sure how many of these stories are true. Did he really see everything he described, did he hear the stories from other travellers, or did he just make it all up? Some scholars think he never travelled to China at any time. For them, the fact that he never once mentioned tea, the national drink of the Chinese, is proof that his book is a collection of fables. Just before his death, Marco was asked how much of his book was really true. He replied that he had described only half of what he had actually seen.

Exercise 3.6: Noun phrase Heads (3.6.1)

Underline the Head in each of the noun phrases below:

1 a tube of toothpaste
2 strange beings from outer space
3 my Facebook page
4 a black London taxi
5 a bottle of wine
6 a small group of children
7 a walk in the park
8 none of the students

Exercise 3.7: Noun phrases (3.6)

Bracket the noun phrases in each of the following sentences. If a noun phrase has another noun phrase within it, use double bracketing. For example:

[the old man with [the grey beard]]

1 Strong easterly winds are expected later.
2 The cost of insurance has doubled in the last year.
3 The kids really enjoyed their visit to Disneyland.
4 His first movie was about the siege of Krishnapur.
5 The weapon was found at the bottom of the lake.
6 Harry Potter books are his favourites.
7 The concert was cancelled due to poor ticket sales.
8 The director of the company has resigned.

Exercise 3.8: Determiners and Determinatives (3.6.2)

Underline the Determinatives in the following sentences.

1 Robert's second attempt at the title was much more successful.
2 Very many people expected him to win the first race easily.
3 A few people felt that he needed much more time to prepare.
4 One journalist even suggested that he should take a break from all competitions.
5 After the second race, he was congratulated by his wife and two children.

6 His many loyal fans chanted his name from the grandstand.
7 The fans will remember that victory for many years.
8 It was an emotional climax to a career that began almost twenty years earlier.

Exercise 3.9: The functions of noun phrases (3.6.5)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined noun phrases in the passage below. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; DO = Direct Object; Pre = Premodifier; PC = Prepositional Complement; OC = Object Complement; S = Subject; SC = Subject Complement.

> A German company ( ) is developing a revolutionary new motorbike that drives itself ( ). It is the first step towards a fully autonomous machine ( ). It can steer, control its speed ( ) and keep itself upright without any human intervention ( ). A spokesman for the company ( ) said the bike will get you through city ( ) traffic more safely than ever. The on-board computer ( ) is much faster than a human brain ( ), and because it never gets tired or distracted, it can react in milliseconds ( ) to avoid any obstacles on the road ( ). Sensors on the bike ( ) can detect speed and movement ( ), so the computer ( ) knows if it is swaying too far, and makes corrections ( ). The prototype ( ) is still being tested, not with human riders ( ), but with plastic dummies ( ).

Exercise 3.10: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (3.7.2)

In each of the following sentences, describe the sequence of the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:

The seat can be adjusted. = Modal + Passive

1 All the tickets have been sold.
2 The prizemoney will be given to charity.
3 The power should be switched off first.
4 You must be joking.
5 The earthquake victims are being rehoused.
6 Have you been talking to Paul?
7 The parents may have been arguing.
8 Could anything else have been done?

Exercise 3.11: Finite and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3)

Indicate whether the underlined verb phrases are finite or non-finite.

1 Germany have been eliminated from the World Cup.
2 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time.
3 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time.
4 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round.
5 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round.
6 Beaten by France, their World Cup campaign is over.
7 Paul wants to become a footballer.
8 Paul wants to become a footballer.

Exercise 3.12: Tense (3.7.5) and aspect (3.7.7)

In each of the following sentences, describe the tense and aspect (if any) which is expressed by the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:
The children are leaving. = Present tense, Progressive aspect

1 Amy was watching TV when we arrived.
2 Paul is working very hard.
3 The government had supported the banks for years.
4 I have never met your brother.
5 I am looking for a better job.
6 We were staying with friends at the time.
7 The train had already left.
8 All the money has disappeared.

Chapter 4

Clauses and sentences

We have now reached the two top levels in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1, p. 2), clauses and sentences. In this chapter, we will define both of these terms, and then discuss them in turn. We begin with clauses, under the general heading of 'Subordination' (4.2). In 4.3, we look at Coordination, which is how constituents can be linked together in a sentence. Finally, in 4.4, we look at a variety of sentence types.

4.1 What is a clause?

A clause is a 'sentence-like' structure, in that we can analyse it in the same way as a full sentence (with Subject, verb, Object, Adjunct, etc), although it may not contain all the constituents of a complete sentence (see Chapter 1). However, it must at least contain a verb.

Consider the following sentence:

Amy likes reading novels.

Here, *reading novels* is the Direct Object (1.6.3) of the verb *likes*. It completes the meaning of the verb, in the same way that *novels* completes its meaning in *Amy likes novels*.

Direct Object clause: Amy lies *reading novels* (DO).
Direct Object noun phrase: Amy likes *novels* (DO).

It is called a clause because we can analyse it in the same way as we analyse a whole sentence:

reading (V) novels (DO)

The Subject of this clause is not directly stated, though we understand it to be *Amy*. Figure 4.1 illustrates the structure of *Amy likes reading novels*.

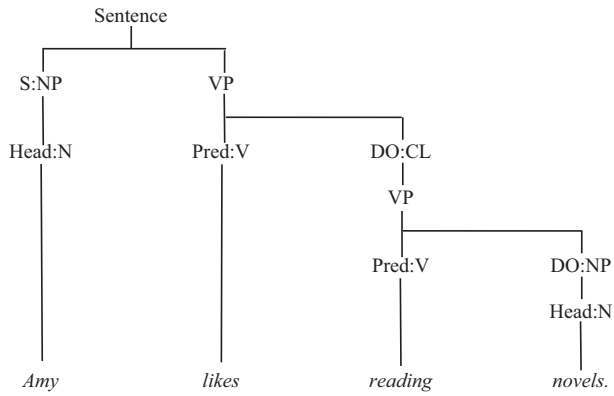

Figure 4.1

The same analysis would apply if the sentence was *Amy likes reading* (Figure 4.2).

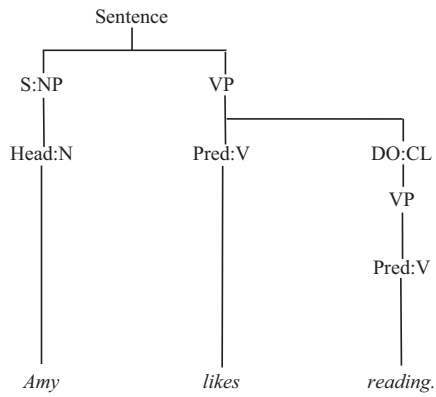

Figure 4.2

In Figure 4.2, *reading* is called a clause, and not simply a VP. Recall the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1). The relevant part of the Hierarchy tells us:

clauses

consist of **one or more**

phrases

Specifically, the phrase in question here is a verb phrase (3.7). Wherever we have a verb phrase, we have a clause. This means that the simplest possible clause is

Amy likes [CL reading (V)].

The clause *reading* contains only a verb phrase, but it can be expanded to include other constituents:

Amy likes [CL reading (V) novels (DO)].
Amy likes [CL reading (V) novels (DO) in her spare time (A)].

Specifically, these are called subordinate clauses, because they are smaller than the sentence as a whole.

It follows from our definition of a clause that a sentence is also a clause. The simplest possible sentence contains only a verb phrase:

[Move (V)].

Like a clause, this can be expanded using other constituents:

[Move (V) that chair (DO)]
[Move (V) that chair (DO) if you need more room (A)].

Recall, too, the topmost level in the Grammatical Hierarchy (Figure 1.1):

Sentences

consist of **one or more**

clauses

Consider the following sentence:

The children laughed.

This is a clause because it contains a verb phrase *laughed*. And since every sentence contains a verb phrase, every sentence is a clause.

The term 'sentence' is very familiar to most people, so I will continue to use it in the discussion that follows. Bear in mind, however, that the term really only applies to writing, where we recognise a sentence as a unit beginning with an upper-case letter and ending with a period (full stop), a question mark, or an exclamation mark. In speech, there are no upper- or lower-case letters and no punctuation, so from the point of view of grammar, a sentence is, in fact, a clause.

Here are some more examples of subordinate clauses functioning as the Direct Object of a sentence. The Direct Object clauses are bracketed.

She said [she (S) missed (V) the bus (DO)].
I think [it (S) is (V) a great book (SC)].

Notice that these subordinate clauses would make complete sentences on their own:

She missed the bus.
It is a great book.

This is not always the case, however. As we saw, some subordinate clauses may lack an overt Subject:

Amy likes [reading (V) novels (DO)].
Paul wants [to buy (V) an apartment (DO)]
The children love [playing (V)].

Clauses can also function as the Subject of a sentence:

[Reading] is fun.
[Reading novels] is fun.
[Reading novels in the bath] is fun.

We will look at more functions of clauses in 4.2.7 and 4.2.8.

4.2 Subordination

The term 'subordination' refers to the use of subordinate clauses as constituents in sentences or in phrases. As we will see in sections 4.2.7 and 4.2.8, subordinate clauses perform a very wide range of functions both at the sentence level and at the phrase level. First, however, we will look at various subtypes of subordinate clauses.

4.2.1 *Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses*

In 3.7.3, we introduced the distinction between finite and non-finite verbs and verb phrases. We said that verbs exhibiting tense (past or present) are finite verbs, while those without tense are non-finite. We recall that the non-finite verb forms are (1) the base form (often with *to*), (2) the *-ed/-en* form, and (3) the *-ing* form.

In most sentences with a subordinate clause, the usual pattern is finite sentence + finite or non-finite subordinate clause, as in the following examples.

[**Finite** He left work [**Non-finite** feeling terrible]].
[**Finite** He left work [**Finite** because he felt ill]].

Subordinate clauses can be finite or non-finite, but sentences are generally finite. We do find some non-finite sentences, but these are really fragments (1.10) that can only be understood from previous context:

Why did you buy that?	[**Non-finite** To cheer you up].
What have you done?	[**Non-finite** Dropped my keys].
What are you doing?	[**Non-finite** Checking my email].

The three non-finite forms give their names to three subordinate clause types:

to-clauses

The road was widened *to improve the traffic flow*.
To receive all the channels, you may need an antenna.
A satellite must reach an altitude of 100 miles *to get clear of the atmosphere*.

-*ed*/-*en* clauses

Deprived of oxygen, plants will quickly die.
The warriors faced each other, *dressed in black armour*.
Designed for drafting, mechanical pencils are also useful for sketching.

-*ing* clauses

Michelangelo painted *lying on his back*.
The teacher stood in the doorway, *saying nothing*.
Emily rang the doorbell, *her heart pounding*.

4.2.2 *Adjunct clauses*

Adjunct clauses are subordinate clauses that function as Adjuncts in sentence structure (1.8). They can be finite or non-finite. Finite subordinate clauses are introduced by a subordinating conjunction (2.9):

Although he is only 18, he has a very mature attitude.
Sandra left early *because she has an interview tomorrow*.
If you don't hurry, you'll miss your flight.
When he was young, Van Gogh loved to paint trees.
I'll watch a movie *while you're out*.

The general structure of Adjunct clauses with a subordinating conjunction is shown in Figure 4.3. The subordinating conjunction carries the function label SUBD (Subordinator) and the form label Conj (conjunction).

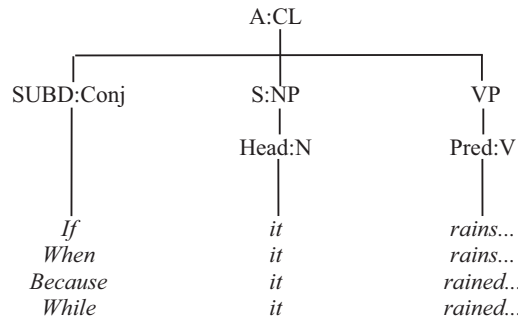

Figure 4.3

The following are examples of non-finite clauses functioning as Adjuncts:

> *To protect your skin*, you should wear a sunblock.
> *Abandoned in 1942*, the village is now in ruins.
> Amy stood in the doorway, *looking anxious*.

Figure 4.4 shows the structure of the *to*-clause, *to protect your skin*. The word *to* carries the function label INF (infinitive) and the form label *to*.

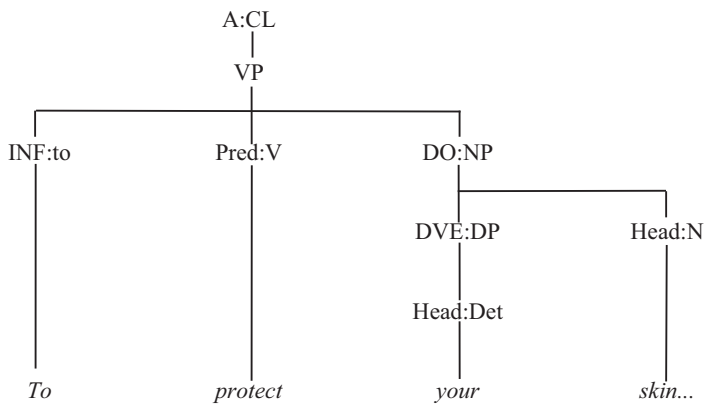

Figure 4.4

4.2.2.1 The meanings of Adjunct clauses

In section 1.8.1, we discussed the meanings of phrases when they function as Adjuncts. We identified three major types of Adjunct meaning: time, place, and manner. However, when clauses function as Adjuncts, they

can express a much wider range of meanings. The main types of meaning expressed by Adjunct clauses are shown here:

Time:

When you leave, please close the door.
I'll read the newspaper *while I'm waiting*.
Once you've got the deposit, you can apply for a mortgage.

Condition:

I'll be home early *if I can catch the early train*.
Provided he works hard, he'll do very well at school.
Don't call me *unless it's an emergency*.

Concession:

He paid for the meal, *although he can't really afford it*.
Even though he worked hard, he failed the final exam.
While I don't agree with her, I can see why she's angry.

Reason:

Paul was an hour late *because he missed his train*.
Seeing that he's been ill, he's unlikely to attend the meeting.

Result:

The kitchen was flooded, *so we had to go to a restaurant*.
I've forgotten my password, *so I can't read my email*.
Hamilton lost the case, *so he had to pay all the costs*.

Purpose:

Leave a window open *to let the steam out*.
To meet growing demand, Smartone introduced a new broadband service.
You should write down the number *so you won't forget it*.

4.2.3 *Relative clauses*

A relative clause is introduced by one of the relative pronouns, *that*, *who*, *which*, or *whose* (see 2.3.6):

The book [that I am reading] is fascinating.
The man [who lives beside us] is unwell.
This is a company [which does not exclude people].

Relative clauses function as Postmodifiers in noun phrases (3.6.4). The relative pronoun refers to the Head of the noun phrase:

the book [*that* (DO) I am reading] = I am reading *the book* (DO).

In structural terms, this is an example of movement, which we discussed in section 3.7.4, and it is illustrated in Figure 4.5.

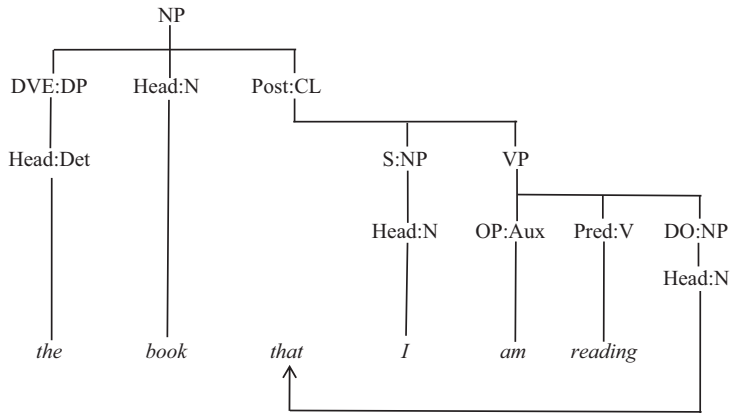

Figure 4.5

However, no movement is involved when the relative pronoun functions as the Subject of the relative clause:

the man [*who* (S) lives beside us] = He (S) lives beside us.

In some circumstances, the relative pronoun may be omitted, leaving a **zero relative clause**:

The book [*I am reading*] is fascinating.

In another variant, the relative pronoun is again omitted, and the verb has an *-ed/-en* form or an *-ing* form (2.4.1). This is a **reduced relative clause**:

Houses *built in the 1940s* are usually draughty.
(Compare: Houses *which were built in the 1940s* . . .)

The train *arriving at Platform One* is the Cambridge train.
(Compare: The train *which is arriving at Platform One* . . .)

See also: *That*-clauses (4.2.5)

4.2.4 *Nominal relative clauses*

A nominal relative clause is introduced by *what*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *where*, or *how*:

What you need is a long holiday.
Take *whatever you want*.
Whoever scores first is the winner.
This is *where the rebellion started*.
Laura showed me *how to set the timer*.

As its name suggests, there is a close correspondence between a nominal relative clause and a noun phrase (3.6):

What you need is a long holiday. → *The thing that you need* is a long holiday.
Take *whatever you want*. → Take *the thing(s) that you want*.
Whoever scores first is the winner. → *The team that scores first* is the winner.
This is *where the rebellion started*. → This is *the place where the rebellion started*.
Laura showed me *how to set the timer*. → Laura showed me *the way to set the timer*.

The structure of a nominal relative clause also involves movement (3.7.4), which is illustrated in Figure 4.6

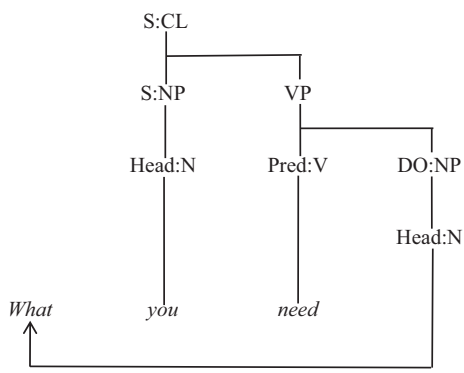

Figure 4.6

The Direct Object *what* moves from its normal position after the verb to become the first constituent in the nominal relative clause. Compare:

What (DO) *you* (S) need is a long holiday.
You (S) need *a long holiday* (DO).

As with relative clauses (4.2.3), no movement is involved when the nominal relative pronoun functions as Subject:

Whoever (S) scores first is the winner. = *Chelsea* (S) scores first.

4.2.5 That-*clauses*

A *that*-clause is introduced by Complementizer (CZR) *that*:

The new ruling means *that pensioners will suffer*.
Everyone knows *that smoking is dangerous*.
Paul has decided *that he wants to live in Canada*.

The structure of a *that*-clause is shown in Figure 4.7.

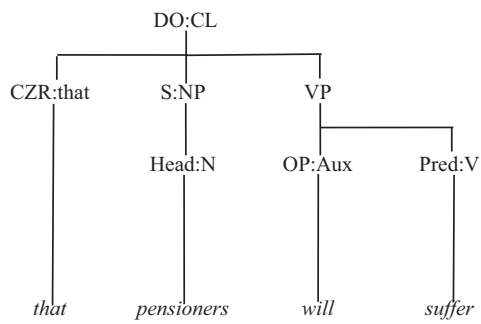

Figure 4.7

When a *that*-clause functions as Direct Object, the Complementizer is often omitted in informal style:

The new ruling means *pensioners will suffer*.

This is called a **zero subordinate clause**.

The Complementizer cannot be omitted when the *that*-clause functions as Subject:

**That the government is weak* (S) is obvious.

That-clauses functioning as Subject are usually moved to the end of the sentence:

That the government is weak is obvious. → It is obvious *that the government is weak*.

See also: Extraposition and postponement (4.7), Relative pronouns (2.3.6), and Relative clauses (4.2.3)

4.2.6 *Comparative clauses*

Comparative clauses function as Complements of the prepositions *than* or *as* (3.5). The prepositional phrases express comparison in a gradable adjective (2.6.1) or adverb (2.7.3). In the following examples, the prepositional phrases are bracketed, and the comparative clauses are in italics:

Mary is older [than *I am*].
It travels faster [than *you'd expect*].
Everything is more expensive [than *it used to be*].

With preposition *as*, comparative clauses express equivalence:

Mary is as old [as *I am*].
This is as good [as *it gets*].
You can be as personal [as *you like*].

The general structure is shown on Figure 4.8.

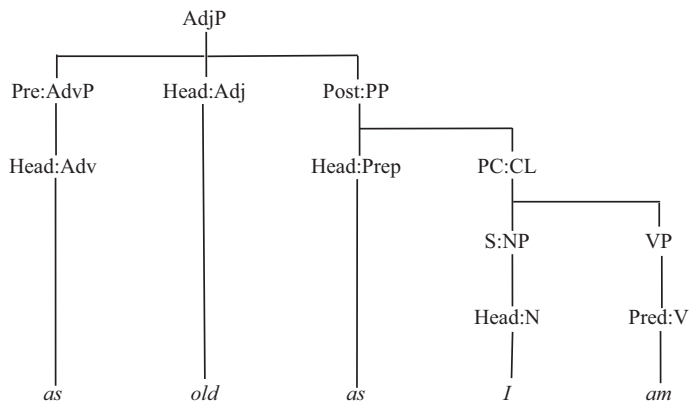

Figure 4.8

If the adjective is premodified by *too*, it is postmodified by a *to*-clause (4.2.1):

He is too young *to vote*.

If it is premodified by *so*, it is postmodified by a *that*-clause (4.2.5):

It was so cold *that the water froze*.

4.2.7 *The functions of clauses in sentences*

As constituents in sentence structure, subordinate clauses most commonly function as Adjuncts (see 4.2.2). They may also have the following functions:

1 **Subject** (see 1.4):

What you need is a long holiday.	nominal relative clause
Leaving home can be very traumatic.	*-ing* clause
To give up now would be such a pity.	*to*-clause
That he should fail to turn up is really annoying.	*that*-clause

Clauses are grammatically singular, so when they function as Subject, they take a singular verb.

Compare:

Clause as Subject:	*Flying kites* (S) is fun.
Noun phrase as Subject:	*Flying saucers* (S) are mysterious.

The different structures of these two sentences are shown in Figures 4.9 and 4.10.

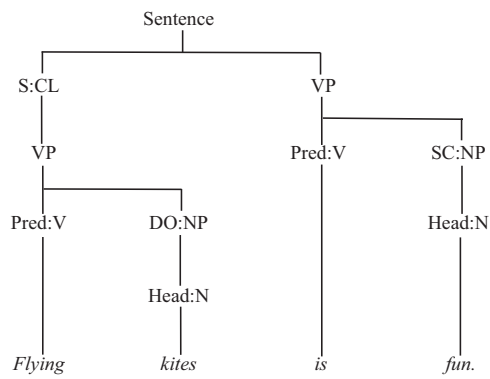

Figure 4.9

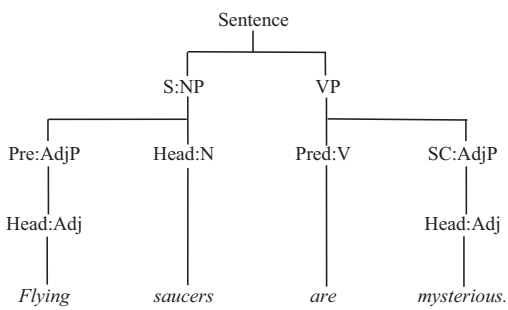

Figure 4.10

In the clause *flying kites*, *flying* is a verb; in the noun phrase *flying saucers*, *flying* is a participial adjective (2.6.3).

In a tag question (1.9), singular pronoun *it* is used when the Subject is a clause:

Flying kites is fun, isn't *it*?
Compare: *Flying saucers* are mysterious, aren't *they*?

Clauses with the *-ed/-en* form of a verb (*Dressed in armour* . . .) cannot function as Subject.

See also: Extraposition and postponement (**4.7**)

2 **Direct Object** (1.6.3)

Paul knows *that Amy prefers tennis*.	*that*-clause
Jim offered *to drive us to the airport*.	*to*-clause
Amy enjoys *visiting art galleries*.	*-ing* clause
We still don't know *what will happen*.	nominal relative clause

3 **Subject Complement** (1.6.2):

A detective's first job is *to collect the evidence*.	*to*-clause
The main problem is *finding enough money*.	*-ing* clause
The real reason is *that I can't stand him*.	*that*-clause
That's *what I'm trying to tell you*.	nominal relative clause

4.2.8 *The functions of clauses in phrases*

When a subordinate clause occurs as a constituent in a phrase, it most commonly functions as a Postmodifier. Subordinate clauses may occur as Postmodifiers in the following phrase types. The phrases are bracketed and the subordinate clauses are in italics.

1 Postmodifier in a noun phrase (3.6.4)

[The man *who lives beside us*] is unwell.	relative clause
[The man *to ask about plumbing*] is Mr Davis.	*to*-clause

That-clauses function as Complements in noun phrases (3.6.4.2):

[The fact *that no one came*] is really disappointing.
[The news *that everyone on board was killed*] has just reached us.

2 Postmodifier in an adjective phrase (3.4):

I wasn't [aware *that I had to register*]. *that*-clause
Chelsea were [reluctant *to admit defeat*]. *to*-clause

3 Complement in a prepositional phrase (3.5):

She has a reputation [for *being difficult.*] *-ing* clause
He's still coming to terms [with *what happened.*] nominal relative clause

4.3 Coordination

Coordination involves using one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, and *or* (2.9) to link constituents. In the following examples, the coordinated constituents are bracketed:

[1] [Anthony] and [Caroline] have arrived.
[2] She bought [a new dress] and [a handbag].
[3] The house was [old] but [very beautiful].
[4] The Centre cares for people who are [mentally] or [physically] disabled.

Coordination can also be used to link clauses:

[David drinks wine] and [I drink beer].
[The deception was uncovered] and [the minister resigned].
[The hotel was lovely] but [the weather was awful].
[We can cook at home] or [we can go to a restaurant].

Constituents that are coordinated function as **Conjoins** (**CJ**) in the coordinated structure, and the coordinating conjunction functions as a Coordinator (COORD). The general structure is shown in Figure 4.11.

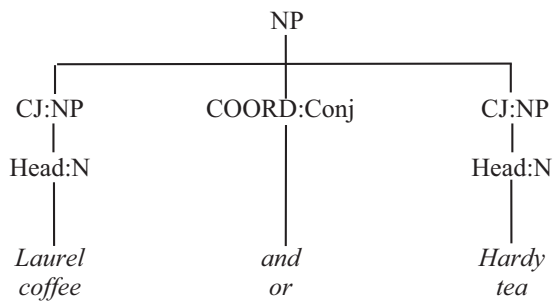

Figure 4.11

Conjoins must have the same grammatical function. For example, in sentence structure:

[Paul] and [Amy] have arrived.	**coordination of Subjects**
The house was [old] but [very beautiful].	**coordination of Subject Complements**

The next set of examples illustrate coordination in phrase structure:

spacious [rooms] and [corridors]	**coordination of NP Heads**
[neat] and [tidy] rooms	**coordination of Premodifiers**
people [ahead of us] and [behind us]	**coordination of Postmodifiers**
[four] or [five] people	**coordination of Determinatives**
in [London] and [Edinburgh]	**coordination of Prepositional Complements**

As well as having the same function, Conjoins usually have the same form. In the two examples above, we see coordination of noun phrases (*Paul* and *Amy*) and coordination of adjective phrases (*old* and *very beautiful*). However, unlike forms also are sometimes coordinated:

The house was [old] but [in good condition].	**AdjP + PP**
Is it [on TV] or [a movie]?	**PP + NP**
We talked about [writers] and [how they get their ideas].	**NP + clause**
The committee deals with [grievance] and [disciplinary] issues.	**NP + AdjP**

This is known as disparate (or 'unlike') coordination, and in tree diagrams, we label the form as 'Disp', to denote disparate forms, as shown in Figure 4.12.

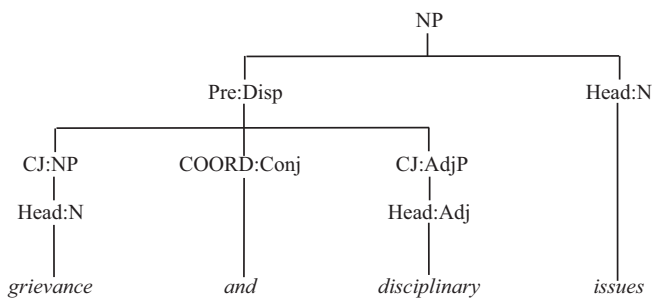

Figure 4.12

4.3.1 Coordination types

Coordination normally uses one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, or *or* to create a link between Conjoins:

[Quickly] *and* [resolutely], he strode into the bank.
The course was [short] *but* [intensive].
I don't like [laziness] *or* [dishonesty].

This type of coordination, with a coordinating conjunction actually present, is called **syndetic coordination**.

Coordination can also occur without a coordinating conjunction, as in:

[Quickly], [resolutely], he strode into the bank.

Coordination without the use of a coordinating conjunction is called **asyndetic coordination**.

When three or more Conjoins are coordinated, the coordinating conjunction is usually placed between the final two Conjoins only:

We need [bread], [cheese], [eggs], [flour], *and* [milk].

This is syndetic coordination, since a coordinating conjunction, *and*, is present. It would be unusual to find a coordinating conjunction between each pair of Conjoins:

We need [bread] *and* [cheese] *and* [eggs] *and* [flour] *and* [milk].

This is called **polysyndetic coordination**. It is usually only used for effect, for instance, to express repetition or continuation:

He just [talks] *and* [talks] *and* [talks].
I've said it [again] *and* [again] *and* [again].
This play will [run] *and* [run] *and* [run].

The Coordinators *and* and *or* can be used to link any number of Conjoins in coordination. However, *but* is slightly different. It can link a maximum of two Conjoins, usually clauses:

[Manchester United won the match] *but* [they lost on aggregate].

4.3.2 *The meanings of Coordinators*

AND

In its simplest form, *and* expresses **inclusive meaning**, that is, all the Conjoins are considered to be equally valid, true, or realizable:

We serve [tea], [coffee], *and* [milkshakes].
He studies [English], [French], *and* [History].

In most cases, the second (and subsequent) Conjoin simply adds to the first:

He has [a nice house] *and* [a big car].

However, *and* also has other meanings, often supported by other words like *so* or *yet*:

1	**Result**:	Tom [was bored] *and* (so) [left his job]. He [made lots of money] *and* (so) [retired early].
2	**Temporal sequence**:	The parrot [died] *and* [was buried]. I [peeled the apple] *and* [ate it].

With temporal sequence, the order of the Conjoins cannot be reversed:

? The parrot [was buried] *and* [died].

3	**Concession**:	He [has two degrees] *and* yet [can't find a job]. He [had little education] *and* yet [was very successful].
4	**Positive condition**:	[Stop smoking now] *and* [you'll feel better]. [Lend me some money] *and* [I'll pay you back with interest].

In these examples, the first Conjoin is an imperative (4.4.3) and the second expresses a positive condition: 'If you do X, a positive result will follow'. Compare this with the negative result expressed by *or*, below.

OR

The conjunction *or* expresses **exclusive meaning**: only one Conjoin is valid, true, or realizable:

You can have [tea] *or* [coffee].
Do you want [small], [medium], *or* [large]?

With imperatives, *or* expresses a negative condition:

[Lend me some money] *or* [I'll slap you].
[Work hard] *or* [you'll fail the test].

The result is negative, unlike the positive result expressed by *and*:

[Lend me some money] *or* [I'll slap you]. **negative result**
[Lend me some money] *and* [I'll kiss you]. **positive result**

With negative condition, the meaning is 'If you don't do X, a negative result will follow'.

BUT

Unlike *and* and *or*, the conjunction *but* can only coordinate two Conjoins. It usually expresses contrast or concession:

Contrast: [Tom was there] *but* [Amy wasn't].
Concession: He is [old] *but* [very fit].

Note the use of *but* as a preposition, with no coordinating function:

No one *but* a fool would say that. (= *except*).
He is nothing *but* trouble.
I have nothing *but* admiration for him.

4.3.3 *Correlative Coordinators*

The correlative Coordinators are:

either . . . or
neither . . . nor
both . . . and
not only . . . but also

Either . . . *or* expresses exclusive meaning, in that only one option applies:

You can choose *either* soup or a salad.

In most instances, *either* is grammatically optional, and is used only for emphasis:

You can choose ~~*either*~~ soup or a salad.

Neither . . . *nor* expresses inclusive meaning, in that both options are ruled out:

We have *neither* soup nor salad.

Unlike *either* . . . *or*, *neither* . . . *nor* cannot be used to coordinate whole clauses:

**Neither* the flats were too small *nor* the rents were too high.
Either the flats were too small or the rents were too high.

It can only be used to coordinate smaller constituents, such as phrases:

He *neither* reads books *nor* watches TV.	**coordinated VPs**
He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant.	**coordinated AdjPs**

Also unlike *either*, *neither* cannot be omitted:

*He is ~~*neither*~~ ambitious nor arrogant.

Neither, therefore, is similar to the word *not*, and functions as the **Negator** (see 4.5) of the sentence:

He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant = He is *not* ambitious *or* arrogant.

Despite appearances, *neither* . . . *nor* is not the negative of *either* . . . *or*. It is the negative of *both* . . . *and*:

He is *neither* ambitious *nor* arrogant.	**both options are excluded**.
He is *both* ambitious *and* arrogant.	**both options are included**.

Like *neither* . . . *nor*, *both* . . . *and* cannot coordinate whole clauses:

**Both* he is ambitious *and* he is arrogant.

It can only coordinate smaller constituents:

He is *both* [my friend] *and* [my advisor].	**coordination of NPs**
He has money *both* [in stocks] *and* [in shares].	**coordination of PPs**

Like *either*, *both* is usually used only for emphasis and can be omitted:

He is ~~*both*~~ my friend and my advisor.

Not only . . . but also expresses inclusive meaning. Both options apply:

He *not only* [sings] *but also* [plays piano].

In this construction, *also* is omissible:

He *not only* [sings] *but* ~~*also*~~ [plays piano].

It is also mobile. It can move to the end of the sentence, where it could be replaced by the adverb *too*:

He *not only* [sings] *but* [plays piano] *also/too*.

This shows that *but also* is not a constituent in this sentence. *But* is the Coordinator, and *also* functions as an Adjunct.

On the other hand, *not only* is a constituent. The two words stay together even when we rephrase the sentence:

Not only does he sing, *but* he *also* plays piano.

4.3.4 *Quasi-coordination*

The quasi-coordinators include:

as well as as much as in addition to rather than

These do not produce 'genuine' coordination. Compare the following two sentences:

[1]	[The student] *as well as* [the teacher] has to be considered.	**quasi-coordination**
[2]	[The student] *and* [the teacher] have to be considered.	**coordination**

Notice that the verb in [1] is singular (*has*), while the verb in [2] is plural (*have*). This is because in [1], the Subject is *the student*, which agrees with the singular verb *has*. In [2], the Subject is *the student and the teacher*, which is plural and takes the plural verb *have*.

The constituent *as well as the teacher* is omissible:

The student ~~as well as the teacher~~ has to be considered.

but the string *and the teacher* is not omissible:

*The student ~~and the teacher~~ have to be considered.

The constituent *as well as the teacher* is also mobile in the sentence:

The student has to be considered, as well as the teacher.

We can see, therefore, that *as well as the teacher* functions as an Adjunct (1.8) in [1]. In terms of form, it is a prepositional phrase (3.5), headed by the multi-word preposition (2.8) *as well as*. The same analysis applies to the following examples:

The interest, *in addition to* the capital, has to be repaid.
Clinton, *rather than* Trump, got my vote.
Downton Abbey is a documentary *as much as* a drama series.

The quasi-coordinators have a specific discourse function: they focus on the first NP, which is given emphatic stress in speech. In contrast, Conjoins always have equal stress.

4.4 Sentence types

There are four major sentence types: declarative (4.4.1), interrogative (4.4.2), imperative (4.4.3), and exclamative (4.4.4).

4.4.1 *Declarative sentences*

A declarative sentence is typically used to convey information or to make a statement:

This is Gladstone Park.
David is listening to music.
Simon bought a new house.

In a declarative sentence, the Subject usually comes first and is followed by the verb. While most declarative sentences make a statement (or 'declare' something), they can also have the force of a question, if they are spoken with rising intonation or written with a final question mark:

You're leaving?
No one told you it was cancelled?

4.4.2 *Interrogative sentences*

An interrogative sentence is used in asking a question and in seeking information or confirmation. There are three major types: (1) *yes/no* interrogatives, (2) alternative interrogatives, and (3) *wh*-interrogatives.

1 *Yes/no* interrogatives

Yes/no interrogatives expect only the answer *Yes* or *No*:

Has John arrived?
Did you phone me?
Are you ready?

Forming a *yes/no* interrogative involves Subject-Operator Inversion (3.7.1) and movement, which we introduced briefly in section 3.7.4. The Subject and the Operator change places, so that the verb phrase (3.7) is interrupted by the Subject:

Has (OP) John (S) arrived (V)?

We noted in 3.7.4 that the question (the interrogative) and the answer to the question (the declarative) have the same basic structure. The only difference is in the word order. The same applies to all the examples that follow.

If no Operator is present, we use *do*-support (3.7.1), bringing in the auxiliary verb *do* to function as the Operator. This is shown in Figure 4.13.

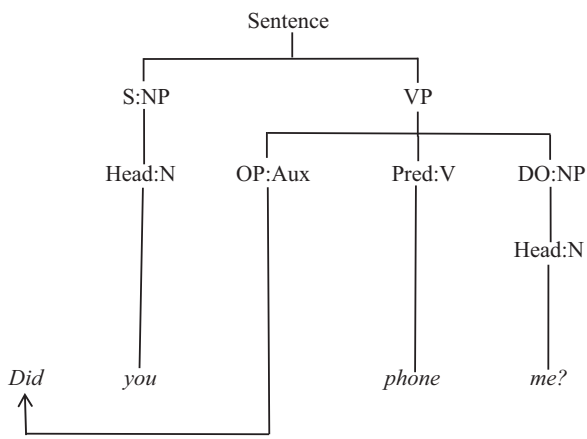

Figure 4.13

When the main verb is *be*, it moves outside the VP when it inverts with the Subject, as shown in Figure 4.14.

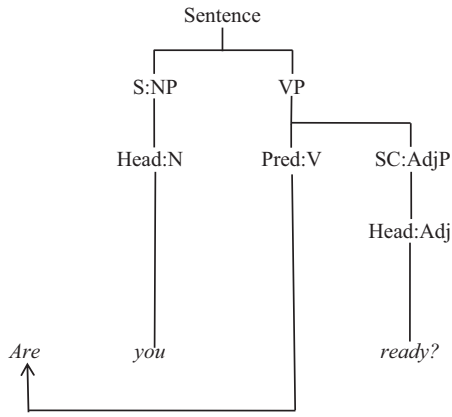

Figure 4.14

The expected answer to a *yes/no* question depends very much on whether the question is positive or negative (4.5):

Positive: *Are you ready?* – the speaker expects either a *yes* or *no* answer.
Negative: *Are you not ready?* – the speaker expects a *no* answer.

In **neutral *yes/no* interrogatives**, the speaker has no preference or expectation of a *yes* or *no* answer:

Would you like a drink?
Did you talk with Tom?

In **conducive *yes/no* interrogatives**, the speaker has an expectation of either a *yes* answer or a *no* answer:

Did you meet someone? (= 'I think you met someone', so expected answer is *yes*)
Did you not meet anyone? (= 'I think you did not meet anyone', so expected answer is *no*).

Neutral *yes/no* interrogatives use the *any-* set of pronouns, while conducive *yes/no* interrogatives use the *some-* set (see 2.3.5):

Neutral: Did *anyone* see you? (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Did *someone* see you? (expected answer = *yes*)

Neutral: Do you need *any* help (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Do you need *some* help? (expected answer = *yes*)

Neutral: Do you need *anything*? (expected answer = *yes* or *no*)
Conducive: Do you need *something*? (expected answer = *yes*)

Negative *yes/no* interrogatives are always conducive, and often express an element of surprise or disbelief:

Do you not believe me?
Can you not hear me?
Did I not tell you?
Aren't you ready yet?

2 Alternative interrogatives

Alternative interrogatives offer two or more alternative answers:

Do you want tea or coffee?
Is that a Picasso, a Mondrian, or a Dali?
Do you prefer A, B, C, or D?

Alternative interrogatives have the same grammatical form as *yes/no* interrogatives, that is, with Subject-Operator inversion (3.7.4):

Do (OP) you (S) want tea or coffee?

They are spoken with a rising intonation, until the last item, when the intonation falls.

3 *Wh*-interrogatives

Wh-interrogatives are introduced by a word beginning with *wh*, and they expect an open-ended response:

What are you reading?
Where does Amy work?
Who won the World Cup in 2014?

The word *how* may also introduce an interrogative which expects an open-ended response:

How was your holiday?
How can I get to Charing Cross?

Like the other interrogative types, *wh*-interrogatives involve Subject-Operator inversion. Some of them involve movement (3.7.4) of one or more constituents from a position inside the verb phrase to the beginning of the sentence, as shown in Figures 4.15 and 4.16.

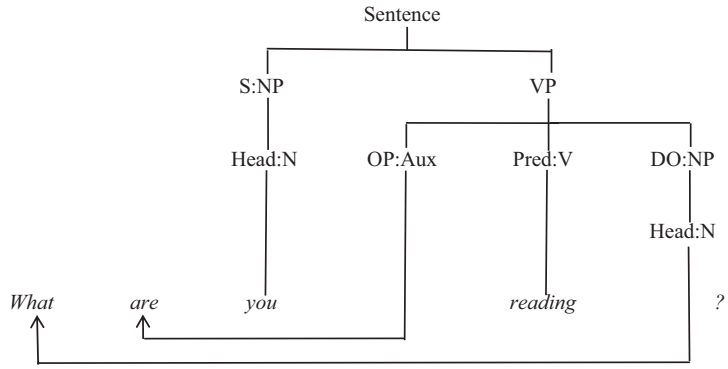

Figure 4.15

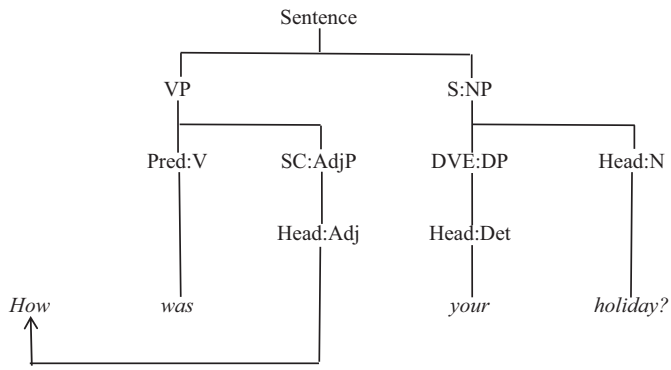

Figure 4.16

Compare:

What (DO) are (OP) you (S) reading (V)?
I (S) am (OP) reading (V) Hamlet (DO).

How (SC) was (V) your holiday (S)?
Our holiday (S) was (V) great (SC).

No movement is involved when the *wh*-word functions as the Subject:

Who (S) won (V) the World Cup in 2014?
Germany (S) won (V) the World Cup in 2014.

What (S) happened (V)?
Nothing (S) happened (V).

In these examples, the Subject is in its normal position before the verb.

4.4.3 *Imperative sentences*

Imperative sentences are used in giving orders or instructions:

Stop.
Stand up.
Bake in a pre-heated oven for 30 minutes.

Imperative sentences do not usually have a Subject, though the understood Subject is the addressee. For that reason, we can sometimes have *you* as Subject, for emphasis (or sarcasm or irritation):

You fix it, if you're so clever.

When the understood Subject is more than the addressee, we use the *let* **imperative**:

Let's go.
Let's see if the printer works.
Let's tidy up.
Let us not forget the refugees.

Here, the discourse function is weaker than an order or instruction. It is more like a 'suggestion' involving both the addressee and the speaker.

4.4.4 *Exclamative sentences*

Exclamative sentences are introduced by *what* or *how*:

What a mess you made!
How true that is!

Like interrogatives, exclamatives involve movement (3.7.4) of constituents from their normal positions in a declarative (4.4.1) sentence.

What a mess (DO) you (S) made (V)!
Compare: You (S) made (V) a mess (DO).

The word *what* here functions as Determinative in the noun phrase *what a mess* (compare: *You made (such) a mess*.).

In *How true that is!*, *how* is the Premodifier of *true* (compare: *That is very true*.).

4.5 Positive sentences and negative sentences

Sentences are either positive or negative:

Positive: Amy is a student.
Negative: Amy is not a student.

The distinction between a positive sentence and a negative sentence is called **polarity**.

The word *not* performs the function of Negator in most negative sentence. Apart from the presence of *not*, there are two other grammatical differences between positive sentences and negative sentences.

1 As we saw in 1.9, positive sentences take a negative tag question, and negative sentences take a positive tag question:

Positive	Negative
Amy is a student,	isn't she?
Negative	**Positive**
Amy is not a student,	is she?

2 Positive sentences coordinate with *so*:

Amy is a student and *so* is Paul.

Negative sentences coordinate with *neither*:

Amy is not a student and *neither* is Paul.

These two grammatical differences give us two tests we can use to determine the polarity of a sentence: (1) the **Tag Question Polarity Test** and

(2) the **Coordination Polarity Test**. We need tests because the word *not* may not always be present, to indicate a negative sentence. Consider the following sentence:

Tom spoke to no one at the party.

To determine whether this sentence is positive or negative, we apply the two tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to no one at the party, *did he?*

The tag question is positive, so the sentence is negative.

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to no one at the party and *neither* did Paul.

The sentence coordinates using *neither*, so it is negative.

Here is another example:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party.

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party, *didn't he?*

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

Tom spoke to everyone at the party and *so* did Paul.

The two tests confirm that the sentence is positive.

The *some-* set of pronouns (2.3.5) occur in positive sentences, while the *any-*, *every-*, and *no-* sets occur in negative sentences:

Positive	**Negative**
I found *some* money.	I didn't find *any* money. / I found *no* money.
He stole *something*.	He did not steal *anything*. / He stole *nothing*.
I saw *someone*.	I did not see *anyone*. / I saw *no* one.

In relation to the polarity of a sentence, it is worth noting the differences between the following pairs of determiners (3.6.2):

a few	a little
few	little

A few and *few* are both used with countable nouns (2.2.3), but they differ in terms of polarity. For example:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew.
b Tom met *few* people that he knew.

We can work out the polarity of these sentences using the polarity tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew, *didn't he?* **positive**
b Tom met *few* people that he knew, *did he?* **negative**

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

a Tom met *a few* people that he knew and *so* did Amy. **positive**
b Tom met *few* people that he knew and *neither* did Amy. **negative**

Both tests show that *a few* occurs in positive sentences, while *few* occurs in negative sentences.

A little and *little* are both used with uncountable nouns (2.2.3).

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement.
b Tom is showing *little* improvement.

As before, we can work out their polarity using the two tests:

1 The Tag Question Polarity Test:

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement, *isn't he?* **positive**
b Tom is showing *little* improvement, *is he?* **negative**

2 The Coordination Polarity Test:

a Tom is showing *a little* improvement and *so* is Amy. **positive**
b Tom is showing *little* improvement and *neither* is Amy. **negative**

The polarity tests show that *a little* is used in positive sentences, while *little* is used in negative sentences.

4.6 Inverted sentences

When we looked at the Subject of a sentence in section 1.5, we saw that it usually comes before the verb in declarative sentences:

James (S) *is* (V) at school.

However, in many declarative sentences, that order is inverted. For example:

Here *comes* (V) *James* (S).

We know that *James* is the Subject of this sentence because it agrees in number with the verb (1.5.3):

Here *comes* (V) *James* (S). **singular Subject, singular verb**

Compare:

Here *come* (V) *the children* (S). **plural Subject, plural verb**

In an inverted sentence, the Subject comes after the verb. Inverted sentences are very commonly used, especially in informal style and in narration. For example:

Here *is* (V) *your prescription* (S).
At the top *is* (V) *a safety valve* (S).
Behind the house *is* (V) *an old stable* (S).
In the centre of town *stands* (V) *the War Memorial* (S).
In first place *is* (V) *Lewis Hamilton* (S).
Best of all *was* (V) *the performance by Coldplay* (S).

When two sentences are joined together by *and so* or *and neither*, the second sentence is inverted:

Paul is a teacher and so *is* (V) *Amy* (S).
Paul is not a teacher and neither *is* (V) *Amy* (S).

See also: Coordination, 4.3

4.7 Extraposition and postponement

When a *to*-clause (4.2.1) functions as the Subject of a sentence, it is normal to move it to the end:

To exercise is important. → It is important to exercise.

The result is an extraposed sentence. The Subject position is occupied by **anticipatory *it***, which 'anticipates' the extraposed *to*-clause. Anticipatory *it* functions as the **Provisional Subject** (**PRSU**), and the *to*-clause functions as the **Notional Subject** (**NOSU**). The structure of an extraposed sentence is shown in Figure 4.17.

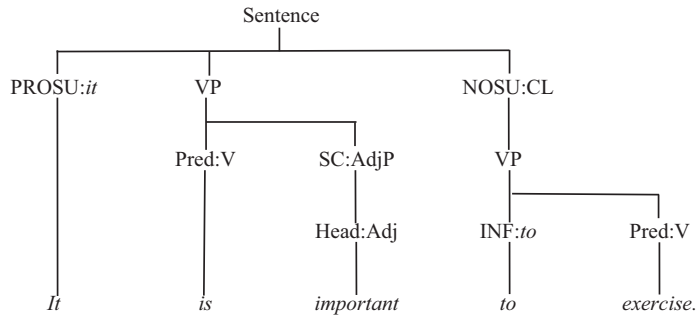

Figure 4.17

Here are some more examples of extraposed sentences:

It is very difficult to learn Chinese.
It is essential to read the instructions carefully.
It is important to bring your passport.

Anticipatory *it* is semantically empty, so unlike pronoun *it*, it cannot be replaced by a noun phrase:

The book is difficult to read. → *It* is difficult to read. (pronoun *it* = *the book*)

This has the same structure as *The book is difficult to carry / to understand / to find*, where the *to*-clauses function as Postmodifier of *difficult*.

Compare:

The light is very dim, so *it* is difficult to read. – **extraposed**, with anticipatory *it*.
The book is in Chinese, so *it* is difficult to read. – **not extraposed**, with pronoun *it* = *the book*.

Extraposition is also used when the Subject is a *that*-clause:

It (PROSU) is a pity *that you can't come* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) is infuriating *that it took you so long* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) is amazing *that no one noticed* (NOSU).

Extraposition is obligatory when the main verb is *seem*, *appear*, *transpire*, *emerge*, or *turn out*:

It (PROSU) seems *that he's left already* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) appears *that my email was ignored* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) transpired *that two students had been cheating* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) emerged *that he had misread the label* (NOSU).
It (PROSU) turned out *that he was guilty* (NOSU).

Extraposition is normal if the Direct Object in a complex transitive sentence (1.6.5) is a clause:

He made it *clear* (OC) *that we were not welcome* (DO).

Anticipatory *it* is again used here, this time as the **Provisional Direct Object** (**PRODO**), while the **Notional Direct Object** (**NODO**) is moved to the end of the sentence. So the structure of this is:

S	V	PRODO	OC	NODO
He	made	it	clear	that we were unwelcome.

Extraposition of Direct Object clauses occurs with a small number of verbs. Here are some examples:

S	V	PRODO	OC	NODO
He	finds	it	hard	to concentrate.
She	felt	it	necessary	to sell her house.
He	considers	it	degrading	to have to beg.
He	made	it	plain	that he would not cooperate.

To-clauses and *that*-clauses functioning as Direct Object may be extraposed, but we do not usually extrapose *-ing* clauses:

He finds *learning Chinese* difficult. → ? He finds *it* difficult *learning Chinese*.

To extrapose an *-ing* clause, we change it to a *to*-clause:

He finds *it* (PRODO) difficult *to learn Chinese* (NODO).

However, in most cases with *-ing* clauses, extraposition is not needed:

He finds *learning Chinese* (DO) *difficult* (OC).
He considers *studying grammar* (DO) *rewarding* (OC).

Postponement has the same effect as extraposition: it moves a constituent to the end of a sentence. However, it does not involve the use of anticipatory *it*.

Postponement is generally used for stylistic reasons. Compare the following ditransitive (1.6.4) sentences:

1 She told *him* (IO) *lies* (DO).
2 She told *the policeman who stopped her at the roadblock on the edge of town* (IO) *lies* (DO).

Sentence 1 is a perfectly good sentence, but sentence 2 is stylistically very awkward, because of the imbalance in length between the Indirect Object and the Direct Object. It is stylistically better to move the very long constituent to the end of the sentence, as follows:

2a She told *lies* (DO) to *the policeman who stopped her at the roadblock on the edge of town* (PC).

Here, the long Indirect Object has been postponed to the end of the sentence, where it follows the preposition *to*. Sentence 2a is, in fact, an example of the prepositional paraphrase of a ditransitive sentence that we discussed in section 1.6.4.

Postponement can also be used to move other very long constituents to the end of the sentence. Compare the following:

1 The new drug makes *a full recovery* (DO) *possible* (OC).
2 The new drug makes *a full recovery from the effects of inhaling dangerous chemical compounds released by decomposing organic matter* (DO) *possible* (OC).

Both of these sentences are complex transitive (1.6.5), but in sentence 2, the very long Direct Object makes it stylistically awkward and difficult to read. The solution is to postpone the DO to the end:

2a The new drug makes *possible* (OC) *a full recovery from the effects of inhaling dangerous chemical compounds released by decomposing organic matter* (DO).

4.8 *There*-sentences

There-sentences are introduced by **existential *there***:

> *There* is a man at the door.
> *There* is a fly in my soup.
> *There* is no need to worry.
> *There* are many things to consider.
> *There* is no one here.

Existential *there* is so called because it is used, in a broad sense, to posit the existence (or non-existence) of something: *There is a God / There is no God*.

Existential *there* should be carefully distinguished from the adverb *there* (2.7.1), which refers to a location:

> We met him *there*.
> Leave it *there*.

Adverb *there* can be replaced by many other adverbs:

> We met him *here* / *outside* / *frequently* / *occasionally* . . .
> Leave it *here* / *outside* / *alone* . . .

The following sentence contains both *there*s:

> *There* (existential) was no one *there* (adverb).

Existential *there* cannot be replaced by any other word, and it is unstressed in speech. In contrast, adverb *there* often receives emphatic stress:

> Put it *THERE*, where I can see it.

We said in section 1.5 that the Subject of *There is a man at the door* is the word *there*, and we showed this by applying the Inversion Test and the Tag Question Test:

> **Inversion Test**: Is *there* a man at the door? (*there* inverts with the verb)
> **Tag Question Test**: There is a man at the door, isn't *there*? (the tag question ends in *there*).

However, consider the following:

> There are two men at the door.

Notice that the verb changes from *is* to *are*, when *a man* changes to *two men*. We know from Subject-verb agreement (1.5.3) that the Subject agrees in number with the verb, so this example suggests that the Subject of *There is a man at the door* is *a man*, and not the word *there*, as previously stated.

In fact, the function of Subject in *there*-sentences is shared by existential *there* and the noun phrase that follows the verb. Existential *there* inverts with the verb to form a question, while the noun phrase agrees with the verb in number. Therefore we say that *there* functions as the Provisional Subject (PROSU) and the noun phrase after the verb functions as the Notional Subject (NOSU).

The structure of a *there*-sentence is:

PROSU	V	NOSU	A
There	is	a man	at the door.
There	are	two men	at the door.
There	is	milk	in the fridge.
There	is	no need to worry.	
There	are	many things to consider.	
There	is	no one here.	

When an Adjunct (A) is present, it generally refers to location: *at the door*, *in the fridge*.

4.9 Cleft sentences

The term 'cleft' means 'divided', and in grammar it is used to describe a sentence that has been divided into two clauses. The clauses are bracketed in the following examples:

[Amy studied History at Harvard].	**one non-cleft sentence, one clause**
[It was Amy] [who studied History at Harvard].	**one cleft sentence, two clauses**

Several cleft versions of a sentence are possible:

It was *Amy* who studied History at Harvard.
It was *History* that Amy studied at Harvard.
It was *at Harvard* that Amy studied History.

The constituent after the verb (in italics) is called the Focus. The Focus receives emphatic stress in speech, and the choice of Focus depends on what we wish to emphasise and what contrasts we wish to make:

It was *Amy* who studied History at Harvard, *not Paul*.
It was *History* that Amy studied at Harvard, *not English*.
It was *at Harvard* that Amy studied History, *not at Yale*.

The *it* that introduces a cleft sentence is called cleft *it*, and it functions as the Subject. The verb in a cleft sentence is always *be*, and it is followed by a clause, which functions as the Focus Complement. The structure of a cleft sentence is:

S	V	Focus	Focus Complement
It	was	Amy	who studied History at Harvard.
It	is	the final score	that counts.
It	was	after the war	that they met.
It	wasn't	until later	that he realised his mistake.

4.10 Sentence connectors

Throughout this book, we have taken the sentence as the largest grammatical unit. However, in all forms of continuous communication, both spoken and written, sentences do not operate independently of each other. Instead, effective communication depends to a very large extent on placing sentences in the correct sequence, and on creating meaningful links between them. In this section, we look at some grammatical devices which enable us to create links between sentences in discourse.

There are two main types of sentence connectors: logical connectors (4.10.1) and structural connectors (4.10.2).

4.10.1 Logical connectors

Logical connectors express a logical relationship between sentences. They express two main types of relationship:

1 Contrast/concession.
Contrast/concession connectors are used to express a contrast between the information expressed by two sentences:

The closing date is 15 December. *However*, you are advised to submit your application as soon as possible.

Building a wall between the United States and Mexico is totally impractical. *Nevertheless*, President Trump is still tweeting about it.

Anybody who says that there is great glory in war is off his head. *On the other hand*, I have to say that war does bring out in people extraordinary nobility.

Other contrast/concession connectors include *alternatively*, *anyway*, *besides*, *in contrast*, *instead*, *nonetheless*, *still*, *yet*.

2 Result.
Result connectors are used to indicate that the second sentence expresses the result or consequence of what has gone before:

Approval has already been given for a golf course at Smithstown, only three miles away. *Therefore*, an extra facility in the area was considered to be unnecessary.

I have not yet issued you with an invoice for the period prior to Christmas. *Consequently*, I am enclosing an invoice for the total amount of time used so far.

Thousands of commuters have been evacuated from platforms as the police launch a full-scale search. *As a result*, all underground stations with connections to British Rail are also shut.

Other result connectors include *accordingly*, *hence*, *in consequence*, *so*, *then*, *thus*.

4.10.2 Structural connectors

Structural connectors are devices for ordering sentences and paragraphs, and for organizing the points we wish to make. Structural connectors are used for the following purposes:

1 Listing.
Listing connectors are used to list points in a specific order:

First, he cannot stand against the leader unless he is fairly sure of a victory. *Second*, if the Tories lose the next election he will be written out of the succession.

Firstly you have your brakes. *Secondly* you've got the throttle here on the handlebars.

To begin with, turn down the colour control. *Then* manipulate the contrast and brightness controls. *Next*, adjust the opacity of the image.

Other listing connectors include *in the first place*, *in the second place*, *for one thing*, *for another thing*, *finally*, *lastly*.

2 Adding.
Adding connectors are used to add new information to what has previously been said:

All fatal accidents must be reported immediately to police. *In addition*, the local coroner must be notified.
The Data Protection Act seeks to protect not just data but owners of data. *Furthermore*, it provides guidelines for all users of data.
His remark really shocked me. *Also*, I was baffled by his logic.

Other adding connectors include *additionally*, *moreover*, *what is more*, *on top of that* (informal), *as well as that*.

3 Summing up.
Summing up connectors are used to introduce a section which 'sums up' or concludes what has gone before:

In conclusion, the fear of an overwhelming influx of immigrants is one of the least defensible arguments.
Overall, the policy has been a success.
All in all, he felt he'd had enough.

Other 'summing up' connectors include *altogether*, *in sum*, *in summary*, *to conclude*, *to summarize*.

4 Exemplifying.
Exemplifying connectors introduce examples or instances in support of what has previously been said:

Several new features have been added. *For example*, the display now offers a split-screen view.
Ultraviolet radiation is known to have effects on the immune system. *For instance*, cold sores often occur at the beginning of a summer holiday.

Other exemplifying connectors include *e.g.* (= *for example*), *i.e.* (= *that is*), *namely*.

All connectors function as Adjuncts (1.8) in sentence structure. Like other Adjuncts, they are grammatically optional, and they are mobile within the sentence. However, since their primary role is to create a link between two sentences, it is usually best to place them at the beginning of the second sentence. Compare:

1 The closing date is 15 December. *However*, you are advised to submit your application as soon as possible.

2 The closing date is 15 December. You are advised to submit your application as soon as possible, *however*.

Both pairs of sentences are grammatically correct, but the first pair is more effective than the second. In that pair, the placement of *however* at the start of the second sentence sharpens the logical contrast between the two sentences.

4.11 Referring expressions

Continuous discourse always contains a great deal of cross-referring from one sentence to another. In fact, the coherence of a text – whether written or spoken – depends on making unambiguous cross-references between the various sentences. For example:

Simon came home early. *He* was not feeling well.

Here, the personal pronoun *he* (2.3.1) refers back to the proper noun *Simon* (2.2.1). We say that *Simon* is the **antecedent** of *he*. The pronoun *he* agrees with its antecedent in number (singular), person (third) and gender (masculine). This is called antecedent agreement. The following examples illustrate the use of pronouns to refer back to an antecedent. In each example, the antecedent and its corresponding pronoun are shown in italics.

You should prepare *a study timetable*. You can modify *it* later if you need to.
I like *Johnny Depp*. I saw *him* in Pirates of the Caribbean.
London Underground has announced *the suspension of trains on the Circle Line*. *This* is due to track maintenance work.
When we feel emotion, *certain involuntary changes* occur within us. *These* include changes in salivation, breathing, and heart-rate.

A pronoun can also refer back to the whole of a previous sentence:

Check-in time was ten o'clock. *That* meant we had to get up at six.

The adverbs (2.7) *there* and *then* can also refer back to an antecedent:

We've always loved *Majorca*. We go *there* every year.
We lived in Melbourne *in 2008*. We had no children *then*.

Referring back in this way is called anaphoric reference, or simply **anaphora**. For the purposes of clear communication, it is important to ensure that

there is agreement between a pronoun and its antecedent. In the following, there is no agreement:

> *A good speaker system* can be all you need to transform your PC from a piece of furniture into an entertainment centre. *They* can give games a lift as much as any posh graphics card.

Since the antecedent *a good speaker system* is singular, we would expect the singular pronoun *it* in the second sentence: *It can give games a lift* . . .

Perhaps more importantly for clear communication, the antecedent should be unambiguous:

> Laura used to babysit a little girl who kept throwing *her* shoes in the fire.

Here, the antecedent of *her* is ambiguous, since it is unclear exactly whose shoes were thrown in the fire. In grammatical terms, is *Laura* or *a little girl* the antecedent of *her*?

In the next example, the antecedent of the pronoun *his* is unclear:

> Tom sat down beside Paul and ate *his* sandwiches.

Again, this is ambiguous: whose sandwiches did Tom eat, his own or Paul's?

Referring back is the most common type of cross-referring in a text. However, we can also refer forward:

> When *she* got home, *Amy* went to bed.
> *It*'s here at last. *The iPhone X* is finally available in the shops.

Referring forward is called cataphoric reference, or **cataphora**. In general, cataphora is more difficult to use than anaphora, because it is often potentially ambiguous. For example:

> *Her* mother was ill but *Amy* said nothing.

Here, we assume that *her* refers forward to *Amy*, so that *her mother* means *Amy's mother*. However, this is not necessarily the case: without further context, *her mother* could also refer to someone else's mother.

Exercises for Chapter 4

Exercise 4.1: Subordination (4.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the subordinate clauses.

1 An earthquake has struck the mountainous region of Qinghai, China, killing over 600 people.
2 Local authorities estimate that around 9,000 people have been injured.
3 Rescue attempts are difficult because the area is very remote.
4 The disaster struck on Wednesday, when the quake shook the entire region.
5 Several schools have collapsed in the township of Jiegu, killing many young people.
6 To reach some victims, rescuers must tunnel through several metres of debris.
7 The central government in Beijing has praised the rescuers, who are working throughout the night.
8 While aftershocks continue, more and more bodies are being found.

Exercise 4.2: Subordination (4.2)

Indicate whether the underlined clauses are Adjunct clauses, relative clauses, or nominal relative clauses.

1 The man <u>standing next to the President</u> is his Chief of Staff.
2 He is the man <u>who is responsible for all White House staff</u>.
3 <u>What every President needs most</u> is someone to organize his timetable.
4 President Obama knew all his staff by their first names, <u>as though he had hired them himself</u>.
5 <u>If the President leaves the White House</u>, he is usually accompanied by the press.
6 President Obama caused panic among security <u>when he slipped out to his daughter's football game</u>.
7 It takes most Presidents some time to learn <u>how to handle all their responsibilities</u>.

Exercise 4.3: **That-*clauses* (4.2.5)**

In the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined *that* is relative pronoun *that*, Complementizer *that*, demonstrative pronoun *that*, or adverb *that*:

1 The policeman said <u>that</u> we should install a burglar alarm.
2 At <u>that</u> time, we didn't even lock the door when we went out.

3 It is not that unusual to see homes with alarms and security cameras too.
4 The alarm that we installed is working well.
5 A neighbour told us that he was burgled twice.
6 Burglars seem to know the areas that they operate in.
7 That helps the police to identify them.

Exercise 4.4: The functions of clauses in sentences (4.2.7)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined clauses in the following sentences.

1 That is how most people first get involved with drugs.
2 Nobody wants to become a drug addict.
3 Many young people don't realise that drugs can kill you.
4 For some people, saying 'no' is not as easy as it sounds.
5 To avoid conflict at home, some parents just ignore the problem.
6 To criticize all parents on these grounds seems a bit harsh.
7 Teenagers simply don't like being criticized.
8 Uncritical advice is what they need.

Exercise 4.5: The functions of clauses in phrases (4.2.8)

Indicate the function of each of the following the underlined clauses.

1 The patient is unable to move his legs.
2 My brother has invented a new way of developing photographs.
3 Some children are afraid to go to sleep at night.
4 Following several unsuccessful attempts to restore peace, a ceasefire was finally signed.
5 A man who tried to steal a police car has been detained for questioning.
6 The UN considered a suggestion that German soldiers should be part of the peace-keeping troop.
7 All investors are anxious to get their money back.

Exercise 4.6: Coordination (4.3)

Underline the Conjoins in each of the following sentences:

1 The forensics team examined the evidence carefully and methodically.
2 You will have to wait two or three weeks for a visa.
3 He works during the day and goes to classes at night.
4 You have to consider your own interests and other people's interests.

5 Voting ends at 9pm but the result won't be known for 48 hours.
6 The dog ran out the door and across the road.
7 My grandfather is weak but in good spirits.

Exercise 4.7: Sentence types (4.4)

Indicate whether the sentences below are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamative.

1 I will see you on Wednesday.
2 Please let me know if you need anything.
3 How much is a cheeseburger?
4 If it is raining, we will take the car.
5 How young she looks in that dress.
6 Do you need anything else?
7 What a great player he is.

Exercise 4.8: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

Make the positive sentences below negative and make the negative sentences positive.

1 My parents are on holiday.
2 We do not accept Euros.
3 Is the cash machine not working?
4 Amy used her credit card.
5 Don't wait for me.
6 Does she eat meat?
7 Paul never lies.

Exercise 4.9: Extraposition and postponement (4.7)

Rewrite each of the following sentences so that they have an extraposed Subject and begin with anticipatory *it*:

1 To worry about the future is perfectly normal.
2 That the children should have adequate food and clothing is very important.
3 Whether or not they qualify for subsidised housing is unclear at this stage.
4 That climate change is a reality is now undisputed.
5 To use an electric blender is so much more convenient.
6 Seeing a flying saucer is very unusual.
7 That the government was in crisis became more obvious every day.

Exercise 4.10: Cleft sentences (4.9)

In each of the following cleft sentences, underline the Focus and indicate its form. For example:

It was Amy who took the phone call.	It was <u>Amy</u> (NP) who took the phone call.

1 It was my Dad who told me the result.
2 It was after watching the video replay that the referee awarded a penalty.
3 It was the goalkeeper who committed the foul.
4 Was it before or after the game that the violence broke out?
5 Is it usually the home fans that cause trouble?
6 It was through bribery and corruption that they won the league.

Chapter 5

Word formation and spelling

5.1 The structure of words

Many words in English have a recognisable internal structure. For example, the word *unsuccessful* can be broken down into the following three parts:

un + success + ful

The first part, *un-*, is called the **prefix**. The second part – *success* – is a complete word in itself, and is called the **base**. The last part, *-ful*, is called the **suffix**.

Prefix	**Base**	**Suffix**
un	success	ful

Prefixes and suffixes are added to existing words to create new words.

5.2 Prefixes

Prefixes are added to the beginning of a word to create a new word. They contribute specific types of meaning. For instance, when we add the prefix *pre-* to the word *1945*, we create a new word *pre-1945*, meaning *before* 1945. The following are the main prefixes used in English, together with the kinds of meaning they contribute.

anti-	
against, opposed to	*anti-depressant*, *anti-nuclear*, *anti-war*, *anti-Western*
de-	
to reverse something	*decriminalise*, *de-activate*, *de-commission*, *deform*
dis-	
reverse of	*disagreement*, *disapprove*, *dislike*, *disqualify*
remove something	*disambiguate*, *disarm*, *disenfranchise*, *dislodge*

extra-	
beyond	*extraterrestrial*, *extra-curricular*, *extra-mural*, *extra-sensory*
il-, im-, in-, ir-	
not	*illegal*, *illegible*, *illegitimate*, *impatient*, *impossible*, *impolite*, *inappropriate*, *inconceivable*, *intolerant*, *irregular*, *irrelevant*, *irresponsible*
inter-	
between	*international*, *inter-racial*, *intergalactic*, *interwoven*
mis-	
to do something badly or incorrectly	*miscalculate*, *misconstrue*, *miskick*, *misunderstand*
non-	
not	*non-European*, *non-resident*, *non-stick*, *non-white*
post-	
after	*post-1945*, *postgraduate*, *post-colonial*, *post-war*
pre-	
before	*pre-1914*, *pre-war*, *predetermined*, *pre-set*
pro-	
in favour of	*pro-life*, *pro-democracy*, *pro-Europe*
re-	
to do something again	*re-apply*, *re-design*, *re-introduce*, *repaint*
un-	
reverse of	*unclear*, *undemocratic*, *unnecessary*, *unusual*,
remove something	*undress*, *unleash*, *unmask*, *unscrew*

5.3 Suffixes

Suffixes are added to the end of a word to create a new word. Certain suffixes are associated with certain word classes. For instance, the suffix *-able* appears at the end of many adjectives, including *reasonable*, *remarkable*, *believable*. The suffix *-ist* is used to create many nouns, including *capitalist*, *physicist*, *specialist*. The following are the most common suffixes associated with the major word classes.

1 **Noun suffixes**:

-age	*blockage*, *drainage*, *postage*, *spillage*
-al	*betrayal*, *dismissal*, *recital*, *removal*
-ant	*claimant*, *contestant*, *inhabitant*, *informant*
-dom	*freedom*, *kingdom*, *martyrdom*, *officialdom*
-ee	*absentee*, *employee*, *refugee*, *trainee*

-er/-or	*actor*, *blender*, *defender*, *eraser*, *teacher*
-ism	*ageism*, *favouritism*, *racism*, *terrorism*
-ist	*artist*, *cyclist*, *motorist*, *perfectionist*
-ity	*opportunity*, *publicity*, *responsibility*, *severity*
-ment	*embarrassment*, *environment*, *equipment*, *government*
-ness	*coolness*, *dryness*, *smoothness*, *willingness*
-ship	*citizenship*, *dictatorship*, *hardship*, *relationship*
-tion	*demonstration*, *ignition*, *migration*, *recreation*

2 **Adjective suffixes**:

-able	*achievable*, *profitable*, *reasonable*, *remarkable*
-al	*accidental*, *industrial*, *musical*, *physical*, *whimsical*
-ful	*grateful*, *hopeful*, *successful*, *tuneful*, *useful*
-ish	*amateurish*, *childish*, *feverish*, *foolish*, *ghoulish*
-less	*careless*, *homeless*, *hopeless*, *painless*, *restless*
-like	*apelike*, *childlike*, *godlike*, *starlike*
-y	*cloudy*, *creepy*, *funny*, *rainy*, *sleepy*

3 **Verb suffixes**:

-ate	*adjudicate*, *congratulate*, *hyphenate*, *populate*
-en	*broaden*, *deafen*, *ripen*, *sadden*, *tighten*, *widen*
-ify	*amplify*, *beautify*, *clarify*, *classify*, *identify*, *purify*
-ise/-ize	*economize*, *modernize*, *popularize*, *realise*, *terrorize*

4 **Adverb suffixes**:

-ly	*brilliantly*, *carefully*, *slowly*, *smoothly*, *terribly*
-wards	*afterwards*, *backwards*, *onwards*, *upwards*
-wise	*anticlockwise*, *clockwise*, *health-wise*, *relationship-wise*

5.4 Compounding and blending

Compounding involves combining two bases (5.1) to create a new word. For instance, the bases *head* and *ache* combine to form *headache*. Further examples of compounding include:

chair + person = *chairperson*
green + house = *greenhouse*

help	+	line	=	*helpline*
key	+	board	=	*keyboard*
life	+	style	=	*lifestyle*
match	+	box	=	*matchbox*
news	+	paper	=	*newspaper*
post	+	card	=	*postcard*

Many participial adjectives (2.6.3) are formed by compounding a noun with the *-ed/-en* or *-ing* form of a verb (2.4.5–6), as set out below.

Noun		***-ed/-en -ing* Verb**		**Adjective**
drug	+	induced	=	*drug-induced*
poverty	+	stricken	=	*poverty-stricken*
battery	+	operated	=	*battery-operated*
stress	+	related	=	*stress-related*
rat	+	infested	=	*rat-infested*
award	+	winning	=	*award-winning*
eye	+	catching	=	*eye-catching*
fun	+	loving	=	*fun-loving*
penny	+	pinching	=	*penny-pinching*
time	+	consuming	=	*time-consuming*

See also: Participial adjectives (2.6.3)

Blending is similar to compounding, except that only parts of existing words are combined to create a new word. For example, the word *cam-corder* is formed by combining *cam* (from *camera*) with *corder* (from *recorder*). Other examples of blending include:

bionic	=	*bio*logical	+	electro*nic*
biopic	=	*bio*graphical	+	*pic*ture
Brexit	=	*B*ritain's	+	*exit* from the European Union
cyborg	=	*cy*bernetic	+	*or*ganism
docudrama	=	*docu*mentary	+	*drama*
docusoap	=	*docu*mentary	+	*soap* opera
ecoterrorism	=	*eco*logy	+	*terrorism*
edutainment	=	*edu*cation	+	enter*tainment*
e-zine	=	electronic	+	maga*zine*
heliport	=	*heli*copter	+	air*port*
infotainment	=	*in*formation	+	enter*tainment*
motel	=	*mo*tor	+	ho*tel*

netiquette	=	Inter*net*	+	eti*quette*
netizen	=	Inter*net*	+	cit*izen*
paratroopers	=	*para*chute	+	*troopers*
pulsar	=	*pul*sating	+	st*ar*
sci-fi	=	*sci*ence	+	*fi*ction
simulcast	=	*simul*taneous	+	broad*cast*
smog	=	*sm*oke	+	*fog*

5.5 Acronyms, abbreviations, and clipping

Acronyms are formed by combining the initial letters or syllables of two or more words. The combination is pronounced as a single word:

AIDS	*a*cquired *i*mmune *d*eficiency *s*yndrome
BIOS	*B*asic *I*nput *O*utput *S*ystem
FAQ	*f*requently *a*sked *q*uestions
laser	*l*ight *a*mplification by stimulated *e*mission of *r*adiation
OS	*O*perating *S*ystem
Oxfam	*Ox*ford Committee for *Fam*ine Relief
radar	*ra*dio *d*etecting *a*nd *r*anging
RAM	*r*andom *a*ccess *m*emory
ROM	*r*ead-*o*nly *m*emory
SAD	*s*easonal *a*ffective *d*isorder
SALT	*S*trategic *A*rms *L*imitation *T*reaty
SatNav	*sat*ellite *nav*igation system
scuba	*s*elf-contained *u*nderwater *b*reathing *a*pparatus
UNPROFOR	*U*nited *N*ations *Pro*tection *For*ce
WYSIWYG	*W*hat *Y*ou *S*ee *I*s *W*hat *Y*ou *G*et

Abbreviations are also formed from the initial letters of words, but unlike acronyms, they are spoken by spelling out each letter:

ATM	automated teller machine
BST	British Standard Time
cpu	central processing unit
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
GPS	global positioning system
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HTML	hypertext markup language
http	hypertext transfer protocol

ISD	international subscriber dialling
IT	information technology
o.g.	own goal
OTT	over the top
PC	personal computer (*also* political correctness)
PRP	performance-related pay (*also* profit-related pay)
RSI	repetitive strain injury
UFO	unidentified flying object
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
URL	Universal Resource Locator
WWF	World Wildlife Fund
WWW	World Wide Web

The following abbreviations are now widely used in email messages and in social media:

AFK	away from keyboard
BTW	by the way
FWIW	for what it's worth
FYI	for your information
IMHO	in my humble opinion
IMO	in my opinion
LOL	laughing out loud

Clipping is a type of abbreviation in which one or more syllables are omitted or 'clipped' from a word. Most commonly, the beginning of the word is retained:

ad (also *advert*)	advertisement
decaff (also *decaf*)	decaffeinated coffee
demo	demonstration
exam	examination
fax	facsimile
gym	gymnastics (also gymnasium)
lab	laboratory
memo	memorandum
movie	moving picture
photo	photograph
pic	picture
pop	popular music

Clipping is a very common method of creating familiar personal names, including *Fred* (from *Frederick*), *Tim* (from *Timothy*) and *Seb* (from *Sebastian*).

5.6 Back formations

Back formations are words (usually verbs) formed by removing from a noun what is thought to be a suffix, and adding a verb ending. In the following, the right-hand column shows the word from which the back formation is derived.

emote	emotion
enthuse	enthusiasm
liaise	liaison
prioritise	priority
sculpt	sculptor
televise	television

The verb *legitimize* is formed by back formation from the adjective *legitimate*.

5.7 Combining forms

Combining forms are segments that do not exist as words in their own right, but carry a specific meaning when they are combined with other segments. They are added to the beginning or end of another segment or word to create a new word. The following combining forms have been especially productive in recent years:

bio-	*biodiversity*, *bioethics*, *biohazard*, *biosphere*
cyber-	*cybernaut*, *cybernetics*, *cyberspace*
e-	*email*, e-*business*, e-*commerce*, e-*text*
Euro-	*Eurocrat*, *Eurosceptic*, *Eurostar*, *Eurotunnel*
hyper-	*hyperlink*, *hypermarket*, *hypermedia*, *hypertext*
mega-	*megabucks*, *megabyte*, *megastar*, *megastore*
techno-	*technobabble*, *technocrat*, *technojunkie*, *techno-pop*
tele-	*telecottage*, *telematics*, *teleworking*, *telemarketing*
-ware	*freeware*, *hardware*, *malware*, *shareware*, *software*

5.8 Inflections

Inflections are a special type of suffix (5.3). They are added to the end of a word to indicate a grammatical property. For instance, the *-s* inflection is added to a noun to indicate plural number (*tree/trees*).

Inflections differ from other suffixes in one important respect. The suffix *-ment*, for example, added to the verb *embarrass* creates a completely different word, the noun *embarrassment*. Adding an inflection, however, does not create a new word, but a different grammatical form of the same word. For example, the words *tree* and *trees* are two forms of the same lexical word *tree*. In a dictionary, they would both appear under *tree*. They differ only in number: *tree* is singular and *trees* is plural.

In comparison with other languages, English has relatively few inflections. They are always suffixes, that is, they are always added to the end of a word. The inflections are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Inflections

	Inflection		Examples
Nouns	Plural number	*-s*	trees
	Genitive	*-'s* *-'*	John's car the boys' school
Main Verbs	-s form (3rd-person singular)	*-s*	walk*s*
	past form	*-ed*	walk*ed*
	-ed/-en form	*-ed*	walk*ed*
	-ing form	*-ing*	walk*ing*
Adjectives and adverbs	Comparative Superlative	*-er* *-est*	older, soon*er* old*est*, soon*est*

5.9 Adding inflections: general spelling rules

There are four general spelling rules for adding inflections. These are set out below:

1 **Spelling rule 1**. Double the final consonant before adding *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-ed***	***+-ing***
rub	rubbed	rubbing
stop	stopped	stopping
gag	gagged	gagging
jam	jammed	jamming
plan	planned	planning
occur	occurred	occurring
regret	regretted	regretting

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
red	redder	reddest
big	bigger	biggest
grim	grimmer	grimmest
wet	wetter	wettest

- In British English, verbs ending in *-el* double the *l*:

travel	travelled	travelling
marvel	marvelled	marvelling

- However, in American English, final *l* is not doubled:

travel	traveled	traveling
marvel	marveled	marveling

- Final *l* is not doubled when it follows *a* or *o*:

conceal	concealed	concealing
reveal	revealed	revealing
cool	cooled	cooling

- Final *g* is not doubled when it follows *n*:

strong	stronger	strongest
young	younger	youngest

2 **Spelling rule 2.** Change final *y* to *i* before adding *-s*, *-ed*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-s***	***+-ed***
cry	cries	cried
occupy	occupies	occupied
try	tries	tried
worry	worries	worried

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
easy	easier	easiest
funny	funnier	funniest
heavy	heavier	heaviest
weary	wearier	weariest

Adverb	***+-er***	***+-est***
early	earlier	earliest

- If the final *y* follows a vowel, then it is retained:

convey	conveys	conveyed
delay	delays	delayed
play	plays	played
enjoy	enjoys	enjoyed

- The verbs *lay*, *pay*, and *say* do not take an *-ed* ending:

lay	lays	laid
pay	pays	paid
say	says	said

3 **Spelling rule 3**. Drop silent *e* before adding *-ed*, *-ing*, *-er*, or *-est*:

Verb	***+-ed***	***+-ing***
care	cared	caring
change	changed	changing
hope	hoped	hoping
love	loved	loving

Adjective	***+-er***	***+-est***
blue	bluer	bluest
close	closer	closest
large	larger	largest
whitest	whiter	whitest

- If the base ends in *ie*, change *ie* to *y* before adding *-ing*:

die	dying
lie	lying
tie	tying

- The e is retained in *dyeing* and *canoeing*.

4 **Spelling rule 4.** Add *e* before *-s* if the base ends in one of the following: *s*, *sh*, *ch*, *tch*, *x* or *z*:

Verb	***+s***
pass	passes
push	pushes
teach	teaches
catch	catches
relax	relaxes
buzz	buzzes

Noun	***+s***
mass	masses
box	boxes
church	churches
match	matches
wish	wishes
quiz	quizzes

On irregular noun plurals, see 5.11.

5.10 Adding *-ly* and *-ally*

Many adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to an adjective:

Adjective	**Adverb**
quiet	quietly
recent	recently
soft	softly

If the adjective already ends in *y*, change *y* to *i*:

Adjective	**Adverb**
steady	steadily
weary	wearily

However, if the adjective ends in *-ic*, add *-ally* (not *-ly*) to form the adverb:

Adjective	**Adverb**
basic	basically
dramatic	dramatically
enthusiastic	enthusiastically
emphatic	emphatically
genetic	genetically
linguistic	linguistically
realistic	realistically
scientific	scientifically
specific	specifically

The adverb *publicly* (from the adjective *public*) is an exception to this rule.

5.11 Plural nouns

Regular nouns form the plural by adding *-s* to the singular form:

Singular	**+**	**s**	**=**	**Plural**
table	+	s	=	tables
truck	+	s	=	trucks
elephant	+	s	=	elephants

Some plurals are formed by changing the singular ending in an irregular way:

-y → -ies	ability → *abilities*
	memory → *memories*
	party → *parties*
-s → -es	cross → *crosses*
	loss → *losses*
	mass → *masses*

-f or -fe → -ves	thief → *thieves*
	shelf → *shelves*
	life → *lives* (but note: *lowlife* → *lowlifes*)
-on → -a	criterion → *criteria*
	phenomenon → *phenomena*
-um → -a	bacterium → *bacteria*
	millennium → *millennia*
-us → -i	focus → *foci*
	nucleus → *nuclei*
-a → -ae	amoeba → *amoebae*
	formula → *formulae*
-is → -es	analysis → *analyses*
	crisis → *crises*
-ex or -ix → -ices	index → *indices*
	matrix → *matrices*

Nouns ending in *-o* generally take the *-os* ending in the plural form (*photos*, *radios*, *videos*), but in some older words, the plural is formed by changing *-o* to *-oes*:

-o → -oes	echo → *echoes*
	hero → *heroes*
	tomato → *tomatoes*

5.12 Variants with *s* or *z*

Many words can be spelled with either *-s-* or *-z-*:

-s- variant	**-z- variant**
criticise	criticize
finalise	finalize
organise	organize
organisation	organization
polarise	polarize
realise	realize
realisation	realization

Both variants are acceptable, though in general, American English prefers the *-z-* variant, while British English prefers the *-s-* variant.

No choice is available in the following words, which are always spelled with *-s-*:

advise	exercise
arise	guise
chastise	revise
comprise	rise
despise	supervise
disguise	surprise
enterprise	wise

5.13 British and American spelling variants

Spelling differences between British English and American English are not as widespread as is often thought. The vast majority of words have the same spelling in both varieties. However, the following systematic spelling differences may be observed:

	British English	**American English**
-our / -or	*behaviour*	*behavior*
	colour	*color*
	favourite	*favorite*
	humour	*humor*
	labour	*labor*
	neighbour	*neighbor*
-re / -er	*centre*	*center*
	fibre	*fiber*
	theatre	*theater*
	litre	*liter*
	metre	*meter*
-ogue / -og	*analogue*	*analog*
	catalogue	*catalog*
	dialogue	*dialog*
ae, oe / e	*anaemia*	*anemia*
	anaesthesia	*anesthesia*
	diarrhoea	*diarrhea*
	foetus	*fetus*
	haemorrhage	*hemorrhage*
-ence / -ense	*defence*	*defense*
	offence	*offense*
	pretence	*pretense*

miscellaneous	*aluminium*	*aluminum*
	cheque	*check*
	jewellery	*jewelry*
	kerb	*curb*
	manoeuvre	*maneuver*
	mould	*mold*
	plough	*plow*
	tyre	*tire*
	sulphur	*sulfur*

5.14 Problem spellings

Even the most experienced writers have difficulties with the spelling of some words. This is especially true in the case of pairs, like *it's* and *its*, which sound alike but have different spellings and meanings. In this section, we disambiguate the most troublesome of these pairs.

accept/except:

Accept is a verb: *You should* **accept** *his offer. Except* is a preposition (see 2.8): *I like all types of music* **except** *jazz.*

advice/advise:

Advice is a noun: *Ask your teacher for* ***advice****. Advise* is a verb: *His doctor* ***advised*** *him to stop smoking.*

affect/effect:

Affect is a verb: *Pollution in the atmosphere* ***affects*** *our climate.*
Effect is a noun: *What* **effect** *does pollution have? Effect* is sometimes used as a verb, meaning *to bring about (change)*: *The National Health Service has* **effected** *huge social change in Britain.*

choose/chose:

Both are forms of the same verb, *choose*, meaning 'to select'. *Choose* is the base form (see 2.4.2): *It is difficult to* **choose**. *Chose* is the past form (see 2.4.4): *We* **chose** *a site overlooking the valley.* The *-ed/-en* form (see 2.4.5) of this verb is *chosen*: *Harry Kane was* **chosen** *as the new captain of England.*

council/counsel/councillor/counsellor:

Council is a noun, meaning 'board or managing committee': *The local* **council** *has introduced parking restrictions.* A member of a council

is a *councillor*. *Counsel* is a verb, meaning 'to guide or advise', usually in relation to behaviour: *They hired a social worker to* ***counsel*** *the children*. The corresponding nouns are *counsellor*, meaning 'someone who gives advice', and *counsel*, meaning 'advice or guidance': *The teacher gave us good* **counsel**.

discreet/discrete:

Both are adjectives. *Discreet* means 'tactful': *I've made some* ***discreet*** *enquiries*. The corresponding noun is *discretion*. *Discrete* means 'separate, distinct': *The country is divided into two* ***discrete*** political *regions*. The corresponding noun is *discreteness*.

its/it's:

Its is a possessive pronoun (see 2.3.2): *The horse shook* ***its*** *head*.
It's is a contraction of *it is*: ***It's*** *a lovely day* or *it has*: ***It's*** *been ages since we met*.

licence/license:

In British English, *licence* is a noun, as in *driving licence*, and *license* is a verb, meaning *to give permission*: *The restaurant is* ***licensed*** *to sell spirits*. *Licence* does not exist in American English; *license* is used as the noun and as the verb.

loose/lose:

Loose is an adjective, meaning 'not tight': *The seatbelt is too* **loose**. The corresponding verb is *loosen*: *You can* **loosen** *your seatbelts now*. *Lose* is a verb, meaning 'to mislay': *Be careful not to* **lose** *your passport*, or 'not win': *If United* **lose** *this game their season is over*.

personal/personnel:

Personal is an adjective: *You shouldn't ask* ***personal*** *questions*.
Personnel is a noun, meaning *staff*: *All* ***personnel*** *should report to reception*.

practice/practise:

Practice is a noun, meaning (a) 'training for sport, music, etc': *I've got football* ***practice*** *at six o'clock*, (b) 'the exercise of a profession', e.g. *medical* ***practice***, *legal* ***practice***. In British English, *practise* is a verb: *Amy* ***practised*** *her speech in front of a mirror*. The word *practise* does not exist in American English; *practice* is used as the noun and as the verb.

principal/principle:

Principal is most commonly used as an adjective, meaning 'most important': *The government's* ***principal*** *concern should be unemployment.* As a noun, *principal* refers to the most important, or highest-ranked, person in an organization, e.g. ***Principal*** *of a school. Principle* is a noun, meaning *rule of conduct*: *a person of* ***principle***, *moral* ***principles***.

quiet/quite:

Quiet is an adjective meaning *silent*: ***a quiet*** *child*, *keep* ***quiet***. *Quite* is degree adverb (see 2.7.3) and is used before an adjective or an adverb: *It's* ***quite*** *cold outside*, *I spoke to James* ***quite*** *recently*.

stationary/stationery:

Stationary is an adjective meaning 'not moving': *a* ***stationary*** *vehicle. Stationery* is a noun, referring to pens, paper, sticky notes, etc.

than/then:

Than is used in comparative constructions (see 3.4.1): *Paul is older* ***than*** *Amy*, *The professor is younger* ***than*** *I expected. Then* is an adverb of time (see 2.7.1): *We toured the Museum and* ***then*** *we went home.* As a sentence connector (see 4.9), *then* means *in that case*: *Do you like horror films?* ***Then*** *you'll love Poltergeist.*

their/there/they're:

Their is a possessive pronoun (see 2.3.2): *The children love* **their** *toys*. *There* is an adverb (see 2.7) denoting place: *Stand over* **there**. *They're* is a contraction of *they are*: *Our guests are early:* **they're** *here already*.

to/too:

To is a preposition, which comes before a noun: *I'm off* **to** *London*. *To* also comes before the base form (see 2.4.2) of a verb: *I like* **to** *read*, where it is called infinitival *to*. The word *too* is an adverb (see 2.7) which is used before an adjective: *It is* **too** *cold here*, or independently with the meaning of *also*: *I love you* **too**.

your/you're:

Your is a possessive pronoun (2.3.2): ***Your*** *car has been stolen. You're* is a contraction of *you are*: ***You're*** *a good friend*.

Exercises for Chapter 5

Exercise 5.1: The structure of words (5.1–5.3)

Analyse the following words in terms of their internal structure, that is, in terms of prefixes, base, and suffixes. For example:

unfaithful = un + faith + ful

anti-terrorist	mistreatment	retighten
creativity	naturalism	underdevelopment
deforestation	nonspecialist	ungrateful
disrespectful	profitability	unlawfully
leadership	relentlessly	unremarkable

Exercise 5.2: Adding inflections – general spelling rules (5.9)

Form words by joining the parts:

big + est	forget + ing	silly + est
brag + ed	holy + er	simple + est
deal + ing	long + er	slam + ed
defy + ed	move + ing	study + s
enrich + s	rely + ed	untie + ing
fizz + s	revel + ed	watch + s

Exercise 5.3: Adding -ly and -ally (5.10)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly* or *-ally*:

artistic	guilty	public
automatic	ironic	sadistic
clumsy	lazy	technical
cool	local	temporary
diplomatic	logical	typical
dreadful	lucky	uneasy
energetic	necessary	vital
frantic	nostalgic	voluntary
fundamental	ordinary	
greedy	organic	

Exercise 5.4: Plural nouns (5.11)

Give the plural form of the following nouns:

appendix	gallery	photo
arena	journey	potato
basis	leech	stitch
bush	lorry	studio
cello	mattress	tax
flamingo	medium	taxi
fungus	phobia	wife

Exercise 5.5: Problem spellings (5.14)

Fill in the blanks by selecting the correct word from the choices given:

1 The bank refused to _____ the cheque. (*accept/except*)
2 My hotel room was very _____. (*quiet/quite*)
3 We can do nothing to _____ the situation. (*altar/alter*)
4 People should _____ what they preach. (*practice/practise*)
5 He eats everything _____ seafood. (*accept/except*)
6 I left my laptop _____ on the table. (*their/there/they're*)
7 _____ starting to snow. (*its/it's*)
8 It was _____ warm yesterday. (*quiet/quite*)
9 The government could easily _____ the next election. (*loose/lose*)
10 I've got a job interview with the _____ Officer. (*personal/personnel*)
11 The menu is so big I don't know what to _____. (*choose/chose*)
12 Paul told me _____ working from home now. (*your/you're*)
13 The plane lost power in one of _____ engines. (*its/it's*)
14 Amy _____ the dress herself. (*choose/chose*)
15 Our _____ objection is that the ruling is unconstitutional. (*principal/principle*)
16 Parents must face _____ responsibilities. (*their/there/they're*)
17 My son makes more money _____ I do. (*than/then*)
18 We're going to see a marriage guidance _____. (*counsellor/councillor*)
19 Doctors have been studying the _____ of smoking on pregnant women. (*affect/effect*)
20 Your pharmacist will be able to give you _____. (*advise/advice*)

Answers to exercises

Chapter 1

Exercise 1.1: Identifying the Subject (1.5)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject:

1 My eldest son graduated in June.
2 The students visited Paris with their teachers.
3 Some flights are very cheap.
4 The concert was very disappointing.
5 At Christmas, most of the children perform in the Nativity Play.
6 It's snowing.
7 It was in June that we met.
8 Smoking cigarettes is dangerous.

Exercise 1.2: The Inversion Test (1.5.1)

Rewrite each of the sentences below as questions, and underline the Subject in the question:

1 Is Paul older than Amy?
2 Is lunch ready?
3 Is it cold outside?
4 Is someone watching the house?
5 Has Alan a new car? *or* Does Alan have a new car?
6 Is reading books his favourite pastime?
7 Was it through hard work that he succeeded?
8 Was my old suitcase still under the bed?

Exercise 1.3: Linking verbs and Subject Complements (1.6.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the Subject Complement:

1 Amy is a good student.
2 He looks a bit tired.
3 Paul is getting very big.
4 She wants to become a doctor.
5 It tastes bitter.
6 I'm going crazy.

Exercise 1.4: Monotransitive verbs and Direct Objects (1.6.3)

In each of the sentences below, underline the Direct Object.

1 The government has promised an end to age discrimination in the workplace.
2 Most people welcomed the government's change of policy.
3 However, some people expressed doubts about the proposed legislation.
4 They are demanding a more comprehensive review of employment law.
5 A Select Committee will discuss the issue next month.
6 The Committee is still accepting submissions.
7 Some people question the need for such extensive consultation.
8 The Opposition will raise the question during the next parliamentary session.

Exercise 1.5: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Underline the Indirect Object in each of the sentences below.

1 Send me your email address, please.
2 He owes the bank a lot of money.
3 We've promised Paul a laptop for his birthday.
4 Can you show us the way to King's Cross?
5 He is teaching the children French.
6 I've emailed you my details.
7 She gave the bridegroom a kiss.
8 They made both candidates the same offer.

Exercise 1.6: Ditransitive verbs and Indirect Objects (1.6.4)

Use each of the verbs below to make a sentence containing a Direct Object and an Indirect Object:

give *pay* *ask* *find* *charge* *cook* *show* *read* *tell* *offer* *cost*

She gave *Paul* (IO) *his pocket money* (DO).
They paid *him* (IO) *his salary* (DO)
Can I ask *you* (IO) *a question* (DO)?
They found *him* (IO) *a job at the factory* (DO).
The bank charges *customers* (IO) *an annual fee* (DO).
She cooked *us* (IO) *a lovely meal* (DO).
Show *me* (IO) *your medal* (DO).
She always reads *the children* (IO) *a bedtime story* (DO).
Have you told *Paul* (IO) *the news* (DO)?
They have offered *me* (IO) *the job* (DO).
It cost *me* (IO) *a fortune* (DO).

Exercise 1.7: Complex transitive verbs and Object Complements (1.6.5)

Underline the Object Complement in each of the sentences below.

1 Seafood can sometimes make people <u>ill</u>.
2 I usually find science fiction movies <u>very boring</u>.
3 Make yourself <u>comfortable</u>.
4 He proclaimed himself <u>President of the new republic</u>.
5 The jury found the defendant <u>guilty</u>.
6 We left the children <u>at the playschool</u>.
7 He was appointed <u>Chief Justice</u> in 2017.
8 They called Michael Jackson <u>the 'King of Pop'</u>.

Exercise 1.8: The six sentence patterns (1.6.7) and Adjuncts (1.8)

In the spaces provided, indicate the grammatical function of each underlined constituent in the following sentences. Use the following abbreviations:

A = Adjunct AC = Adverbial Complement DO = Direct Object IO = Indirect Object
S = Subject SC = Subject Complement OC = Object Complement

1 In tropical rainforests (A), bird life (S) is usually (A) very exotic and colourful (SC).
2 The appearance of birds (S) is seasonal (SC).
3 Sometimes (A), the arrival of flowers and fruits (S) will attract birds (DO).
4 The dense canopy of leaves (S) makes the rainforest (DO) very dark (OC).
5 At ground level (A), you (S) can occasionally (A) see kingfishers (DO).
6 The constant gloom and enormous tree trunks (S) give the rainforest (IO) the appearance of a cathedral (DO).
7 The forest stretches three hundred miles eastwards (AC).

Exercise 1.9: Active sentences and passive sentences (1.7)

Write the passive version of each of the following sentences:

1 A new satellite was launched by NASA.
2 The movie was enjoyed by everyone.
3 My iPhone was taken by someone.
4 The team is selected by the manager.
5 Two goals were scored by United in the first twenty minutes.
6 The neighbourhood was terrorised by the suspect for weeks.

Exercise 1.10: Adjuncts (1.8)

Underline all the Adjuncts in the following passage:

> *RMS Titanic* left Southampton on 10 April 1912. After crossing the English Channel, she stopped at Cherbourg, France. The next day, she stopped again at Queenstown, Ireland, to allow more passengers to go on board. When she finally sailed to New York, she had 2,240 passengers. Just before midnight on 14 April, the *Titanic* struck an iceberg in the north Atlantic. The massive ship sank two hours and forty minutes later. As a result, 1,517 people lost their lives. Unfortunately, the owners of the *Titanic* thought their ship was unsinkable. While they were fitting out the great ship, they did not provide enough lifeboats. Following the sinking, new regulations were introduced, in an effort to ensure that such a catastrophe could never happen again.

Chapter 2

Exercise 2.1: Nouns and determiners (2.2)

Convert the following words into nouns by adding noun endings and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different nouns.

capitalist/ capitalism	development/ developer	intervention	reference/ referral
argument	disappointment	occurrence	requirement
compensation	humiliation/ humility	offence/offender	specialist/ specialisation
criticism	improvisation	perception	statement

Exercise 2.2: Singular nouns and plural nouns (2.2.1)

Supply the plural form of each of the singular nouns listed below:

analyses	hypotheses
bases	media
bureaux	phenomena
crises	sisters-in-law
criteria	stimuli
formulae	wolves

Exercise 2.3: Determiners (2.2.6)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences:

1 You didn't understand <u>my last</u> question.
2 She worked in <u>the</u> law courts for <u>seven</u> years.
3 There were <u>five other</u> applicants for <u>his</u> job.
5 <u>Most</u> people enjoyed <u>all those</u> Harry Potter books.
6 <u>Every</u> person deserves <u>our</u> respect.
7 <u>Some</u> young people have never seen <u>a</u> typewriter.
8 Children should read <u>more</u> books and watch <u>less</u> television.

Exercise 2.4: Pronouns (2.3)

Complete the following sentences by supplying the correct form of the pronoun, as indicated after each sentence.

1 The banks gave them every opportunity to repay the loan. **Personal, 3rd-person plural**.
2 He borrowed more money than necessary. **Personal, 3rd-person singular, masculine.**
3 He only told us about it after he got into financial trouble. **Personal, 1st-person plural**.
4 Since the financial meltdown, our economy has been struggling. **Possessive, 1st-person plural.**
5 The central bank played its part in the recovery. **Possessive, 3rd-person singular, non-personal.**
6 The economy of Iceland was badly hit, but theirs was a special case. **Possessive, 3rd-person plural.**

Exercise 2.5: Pronouns (2.3)

Indicate whether the underlined pronouns are personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, or relative.

1 It (**personal**) was the worst holiday we (**personal**) ever had.
2 First, our (**possessive**) luggage went missing.
3 That (**demonstrative**) was not a good start.
4 Then our (**possessive**) taxi driver took us (**personal**) to the wrong hotel.
5 Then Tom discovered he (**personal**) had lost his (**possessive**) passport.
6 So we found ourselves (**reflexive**) with no luggage, no hotel, and no passport.
7 Eventually, we (**personal**) phoned the travel agent, who (**relative**) was very helpful.

Exercise 2.6: The five verb forms (2.4.1)

Indicate the form of the underlined verb in each of the following sentences:

1 Everyone understands (***-s* form**) the need to reduce (**base form**) carbon emissions.

2 If you care (**base form**) about the environment, take (**base form**) action now.
3 One way we all waste (**base form**) resources is by leaving (***-ing* form**) lights switched on at home when we're not even there.
4 Governments have only recently realised (***-ed/-en* form**) that carbon emissions threaten (**base form**) our future.
5 In the 1990s, environmental groups tried (**past form**) to raise (**base form**) our awareness of the problem.
6 They have given (***-ed/-en* form**) us a lot to think (**base form**) about.

Exercise 2.7: Irregular verbs (2.4.7)

Supply the correct form of the irregular verb in the following sentences:

1 I have found a wonderful book on astronomy.
2 He may have told his partner.
3 The suspect was brought to Paddington police station.
4 Large areas of the coastline were swept away by the tsunami.
5 I have been sworn to secrecy.
6 He paid in cash for a brand-new Porsche.
7 It was meant to be a surprise.
8 The castle had lain empty for years.
9 The money was sewn into the lining of his jacket.
10 The animals were led to safety.

Exercise 2.8: Auxiliary verbs (2.5)

Indicate whether the underlined verbs are modal, passive, progressive, or perfective auxiliaries.

1 The Internet has (**perfective**) revolutionised the way we do business.
2 Now we can (**modal**) order books, theatre tickets, and even clothes online.
3 Very soon, every home will (**modal**) have broadband Internet access.
4 The Internet is (**progressive**) also changing the way we learn.
5 Online teaching materials can (**modal**) now be (**passive**) accessed from anywhere in the world.
6 In the future, all students may (**modal**) be (**passive**) taught online.
7 However, some teachers believe this would (**modal**) be disastrous for students.

8 They say the Internet should (**modal**) be (**passive**) used sparingly, and that real teachers can (**modal**) never be (**passive**) replaced by computers.
9 For people in remote areas, however, the Internet is (**progressive**) really improving their access to education.
10 Distance learning has (**perfective**) finally become a reality.

Exercise 2.9: Adjectives (2.6)

Convert the following words into adjectives by adding adjective endings, and making any other necessary spelling changes. Some words may take more than one ending to form two or more different adjectives.

curable	glorious	musical	reasonable
disruptive	legendary	nauseous	religious
drizzly	lovable/lovely	peripheral	tedious
geological	massive	questionable	woolly/woollen

Exercise 2.10: Comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives (2.6.2)

Supply the comparative and superlative forms of each of the following adjectives:

more brilliant, most brilliant
cleverer, cleverest
more elegant, most elegant
faster, fastest
more handsome, most handsome
luckier, luckiest
warmer, warmest
more wonderful, most wonderful

Exercise 2.11: Adverbs (2.7)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly*, and making any other necessary spelling changes.

absolutely
capably
clearly

demonstrably
dully
environmentally
happily
lazily
legally
luckily
memorably
personally
terribly

Exercise 2.12: Circumstantial adverbs (2.7.1)

In each of the following sentences, indicate the kind of meaning which is expressed by the underlined adverbs. Use the following abbreviations:

M = Manner P = Place S = Stance T = Time

1 The choir sang beautifully (M).
2 We'll meet outside (P) after the concert.
3 Amy tries really hard (M) to be popular.
4 Strangely (S), no one answered the phone.
5 He felt that he had been unfairly (M) treated.
6 Paul doesn't feel well today (T).
7 Hopefully (S) no one was injured.
8 You can't park there (P).

Exercise 2.13: Words and word classes (Chapter 2)

In the space provided, indicate the word class of the underlined words in the following passage. Use the following abbreviations:

Adj = adjective
Adv = adverb
Det = determiner
Aux – auxiliary verb
C = conjunction
Inf = infinitive *to*
N = noun
P = preposition
Pn = pronoun

V = main verb

Howard Carter is famous (**Adj**) throughout the world as the (**Det**) man who (**Pn**) discovered the tomb (**N**) of the Egyptian king, Tutankamen (**N**). His (**Det**) story is (**V**) a very (**Adv**) romantic one (**Pn**), and it has (**Aux**) inspired many (**Det**) Hollywood movies (**N**). Carter was (**Aux**) born in (**P**) 1874 in England (**N**). His father was (**V**) an (**Det**) artist who (**Pn**) specialised in drawing (**V**) animal portraits for (**P**) local (**Adj**) landowners. He (**Pn**) taught his son the basics (**N**) of drawing and painting, and (**C**) Howard became (**V**) a fairly (**Adv**) accomplished (**Adj**) draughtsman. However, his main interest was (**V**) in archaeology, and in ancient (**Adj**) Egypt in particular. When (**C**) he was just seventeen (D**et**) years old, Howard sailed to (**P**) Alexandria in Egypt, hoping (**V**) to (**Inf**) find work as a (**Det**) draughtsman with (**P**) the Egyptian Exploration Fund. His first (**Det**) job was at (**P**) Bani Hassan, where he worked under (**P**) the famous archaeologist (**N**), Flinders Petrie. His role on that (**Det**) excavation was to (**Inf**) copy (**V**) the drawings which (**Pn**) were (**Aux**) found on (**P**) the walls of (**P**) the tombs. According to (**P**) some (**Det**) sources, Howard worked hard (A**dv**) all day, and then (**Adv**) slept in (**P**) the tombs at (**P**) night.

Chapter 3

Exercise 3.1: Adverb phrases (3.3)

Underline the adverb phrases in the following sentences:

1 Global warming has recently become a major concern for governments.
2 Previously, many people felt that governments did not take the issue seriously.
3 Now, it seems that the voice of the people is finally being heard.
4 Scientists are fully convinced that climate change is a reality.
5 Some governments are quite uncertain about what to do.
6 Many people feel strongly that international co-operation is the only solution.

Exercise 3.2: The functions of adverb phrases (3.3.1)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adverb phrases. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; PreJ = Premodifier of an adjective; PreV = Premodifier of an adverb; PreP = Premodifer of a preposition.

1 Incredibly (A), he crashed straight (PreP) into a parked car.
2 Many really (PreJ) talented students never (A) go to college.
3 Obviously (A), the applications are examined very carefully (A).
4 I am fairly (PreJ) sure she treated him very (PreV) unfairly (A).
5 Grandad is often (A) quite (PreJ) confused.
6 A Toyota would be much (PreV) less (PreJ) expensive.

Exercise 3.3: Adjective phrases (3.4)

Underline the adjective phrases in the following sentences:

1 In much earlier times, Antwerp had been one of the largest cities in western Europe.
2 The vibrant atmosphere of the sprawling city was very exciting for residents and visitors alike.
3 Antwerp became an increasingly important financial centre as time went on.
4 Prices for works of art were incredibly high, and even fairly mediocre artists could make a reasonably good living.

5 The Church was a very significant contributor to the vast wealth of the city.
6 The Bishop of Antwerp commissioned expensive paintings and statues, and the artists were usually very happy to accept the commissions.
7 The Church had always been acutely aware of the need to patronise artists.
8 In turn, the artists produced some of the most magnificent masterpieces that Europe has ever seen.

Exercise 3.4: The functions of adjective phrases (3.4.2)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined adjective phrases. Use the following abbreviations: Pre = Premodifier; SC = Subject Complement; Post = Postmodifier; OC = Object Complement.

1 The kids seem delighted with their gifts (**SC**).
2 It was a totally unexpected (**Pre**) discovery.
3 The President's recent (**Pre**) statement about immigration was outrageous (**SC**).
4 Heavily-armed (**Pre**) police officers shot the gunman dead (**OC**).
5 Nothing very interesting (**Post**) ever happens here.
6 I found the book boring (**OC**), but the movie is amazing (**SC**).

Exercise 3.5: Prepositional phrases (3.5)

Underline the prepositional phrases in the following passage:

> Marco Polo was born in Venice in 1254. At that time, Venice was one of Europe's wealthiest cities. At 17, Marco travelled with his father and uncle from Italy to China. That journey eventually opened trade routes between the east and the west. In his book, *The Travels of Marco Polo*, he described the immense size of Chinese cities and the many splendours to be seen at the Emperor's court. His book contains stories about many wonders: bandits in desert hideaways, snakes with legs, and an Emperor who kept a tamed lion at his feet. No one is quite sure how many of these stories are true. Did he really see everything he described, did he hear the stories from other travellers, or did he just make it all up? Some scholars think he never travelled to China at any time. For them, the fact that he never once mentioned tea, the national drink of the Chinese, is proof that his book is a collection of fables. Just before his death, Marco was asked how much of his book was really true. He replied that he had described only half of what he had actually seen.

Exercise 3.6: Noun phrase Heads (3.6.1)

Underline the Head in each of the noun phrases below:

1 a tube of toothpaste
2 strange beings from outer space
3 my Facebook page
4 a black London taxi
5 a bottle of wine
6 a small group of children
7 a walk in the park
8 none of the students

Exercise 3.7: Noun phrases (3.6)

Bracket the noun phrases in each of the following sentences. If a noun phrase has another noun phrase within it, use double bracketing.

1 [Strong easterly winds] are expected later.
2 [The cost of [insurance]] has doubled in [the last year].
3 [The kids] really enjoyed [their visit to [Disneyland]].
4 [His first movie] was about [the siege of [Krishnapur]].
5 [The weapon] was found at [the bottom of [the lake]].
6 [Harry Potter [books]] are [his favourites].
7 [The concert] was cancelled due to [poor [ticket] sales].
8 [The director of [the company]] has resigned.

Exercise 3.8: Determiners and Determinatives (3.6.2)

Underline the determiners in the following sentences.

1 Robert's second attempt at the title was much more successful.
2 Very many people expected him to win the first race easily.
3 A few people felt that he needed much more time to prepare.
4 One journalist even suggested that he should take a break from all competitions.
5 After the second race, he was congratulated by his wife and two children.
6 His many loyal fans chanted his name from the grandstand.
7 The fans will remember that victory for many years.
8 It was an emotional climax to a career that began almost twenty years earlier.

Exercise 3.9: The functions of noun phrases (3.6.5)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined noun phrases in the passage below. Use the following abbreviations: A = Adjunct; DO = Direct Object; Pre = Premodifier PC = Prepositional Complement; S = Subject; SC = Subject Complement.

> A German company (**S**) is developing a revolutionary new motorbike that drives itself (**DO**). It is the first step towards a fully autonomous machine (SC). It can steer, control its speed (**DO**) and keep itself upright without any human intervention (**PC**). A spokesman for the company (**PC**) said the bike will get you through city (**Pre**) traffic more safely than ever. The on-board computer (**S**) is much faster than a human brain (**PC**), and because it never gets tired or distracted, it can react in milliseconds (**PC**) to avoid any obstacles on the road (**DO**). Sensors on the bike (**S**) can detect speed and movement (**DO**), so the computer (**S**) knows if it is swaying too far, and makes corrections (**DO**). The prototype (**S**) is still being tested, not with human riders (**PC**), but with plastic dummies (**PC**).

Exercise 3.10: The ordering of auxiliary verbs (3.7.2)

In each of the following sentences, describe the sequence of the underlined auxiliary verbs. For example:

	The seat can be adjusted	=	Modal + Passive
1	All the tickets have been sold	=	Perfective + Passive
2	The prizemoney will be given to charity.	=	Modal + Passive
3	The power should be switched off first.	=	Modal + Passive
4	You must be joking.	=	Modal + Progressive
5	The earthquake victims are being rehoused.	=	Progressive + Passive
6	Have you been talking to Paul?	=	Perfective + Progressive
7	The parents may have been arguing.	=	Modal + Perfective + Progressive
8	Could anything else have been done?	=	Modal + Perfective + Passive

Exercise 3.11: Finite verb phrases and non-finite verb phrases (3.7.3)

Indicate whether the underlined verb phrases are finite or non-finite.

1 Germany have been eliminated from the World Cup. **Finite**
2 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time. **Finite**

3 They were beaten by South Korea, conceding two goals in injury time. **Non-finite**
4 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round. **Finite**
5 Argentina have also failed to qualify for the next round. **Non-finite**
6 Beaten by France, their World Cup campaign is over. **Non-finite**
7 Paul wants to become a footballer. **Finite**
8 Paul wants to become a footballer. **Non-finite**

Exercise 3.12: Tense (3.7.5) and aspect (3.7.7)

In each of the following sentences, describe the tense and aspect which is expressed by the underlined auxiliary verb. For example:

	The children are leaving	=	Present tense, progressive aspect
1	Amy was watching TV when we arrived.	=	Past tense, progressive aspect
2	Paul is working very hard.	=	Present tense, progressive aspect.
3	The government had supported the banks for years.	=	Past tense, perfective aspect
4	I have never met your brother.	=	Present tense, perfective aspect
5	I am looking for a better job.	=	Present tense, progressive aspect
6	We were staying with friends at the time.	=	Past tense, progressive aspect
7	The train had already left.	=	Past tense, perfective aspect
8	All the money has disappeared.	=	Present tense, perfective aspect

Chapter 4

Exercise 4.1: Subordination (4.2)

In each of the following sentences, underline the subordinate clauses.

1 An earthquake has struck the mountainous region of Qinghai, China, killing over 600 people.
2 Local authorities estimate that around 9,000 people have been injured.
3 Rescue attempts are difficult because the area is very remote.
4 The disaster struck on Wednesday, when the quake shook the entire region.
5 Several schools have collapsed in the township of Jiegu, killing many young people.
6 To reach some victims, rescuers must tunnel through several metres of debris.
7 The central government in Beijing has praised the rescuers, who are working throughout the night.
8 While aftershocks continue, more and more bodies are being found.

Exercise 4.2: Subordination (4.2)

Indicate whether the underlined clauses are Adjunct clauses, relative clauses, or nominal relative clauses.

1 The man standing next to the President is his Chief of Staff. **Relative**
2 He is the man who is responsible for all White House staff. **Relative**
3 What every President needs most is someone to organize his timetable. **Nominal relative**
4 President Obama knew all his staff by their first names, as though he had hired them himself. **Adjunct**
5 If the President leaves the White House, he is usually accompanied by the press. **Adjunct**
6 President Obama caused panic among security when he slipped out to his daughter's football game. **Adjunct**
7 It takes most Presidents some time to learn how to handle all their responsibilities. **Nominal relative**

Exercise 4.3: **That-*clauses (4.2.5)***

In the following sentences, indicate whether the underlined *that* is relative pronoun *that*, Complementizer *that*, demonstrative pronoun *that*, or adverb *that*:

1 The policeman said that we should install a burglar alarm. **Complementizer**
2 At that time, we didn't even lock the door when we went out. **Demonstrative pronoun**
3 It is not that unusual to see homes with alarms and security cameras too. **Adverb**
4 The alarm that we installed is working well. **Relative pronoun**
5 A neighbour told us that he was burgled twice. **Complementizer**
6 Burglars seem to know the areas that they operate in. **Relative pronoun**
7 That helps the police to identify them. **Demonstrative pronoun**

Exercise 4.4: The functions of clauses in sentences (4.2.7)

Indicate the grammatical function of the underlined clauses in the following sentences.

1 That is how most people first get involved with drugs. **Subject Complement**
2 Nobody wants to become a drug addict. **Direct Object**
3 Many young people don't realise that drugs can kill you. **Direct Object**
4 For some people, saying 'no' is not as easy as it sounds. **Subject**
5 To avoid conflict at home, some parents just ignore the problem. **Adjunct**
6 To criticize all parents on these grounds seems a bit harsh. **Subject**
7 Teenagers simply don't like being criticized. **Direct Object**
8 Uncritical advice is what they need. **Subject Complement**

Exercise 4.5: The functions of clauses in phrases (4.2.8)

Indicate the function of each of the following the underlined clauses.

1 The patient is unable to move his legs. **Postmodifier of *unable***
2 My brother has invented a new way of developing photographs. **Complement of *of***
3 Some children are afraid to go to sleep at night. **Postmodifier of *afraid***
4 Following several unsuccessful attempts to restore peace, a ceasefire was finally signed. **Postmodifier of *attempts***
5 A man who tried to steal a police car has been detained for questioning. **Postmodifier of *man***

6 The UN considered a suggestion that German soldiers should be part of the peace-keeping troop. **Complement of *suggestion***
7 All investors are anxious to get their money back. **Postmodifier of *anxious***

Exercise 4.6: Coordination (4.3)

Underline the Conjoins in each of the following sentences:

1 The forensics team examined the evidence carefully and methodically.
2 You will have to wait two or three weeks for a visa.
3 He works during the day and goes to classes at night.
4 You have to consider your own interests and other people's interests.
5 Voting ends at 9pm but the result won't be known for 48 hours.
6 The dog ran out the door and across the road.
7 My grandfather is weak but in good spirits.

Exercise 4.7: Sentence types (4.4)

Indicate whether the sentences below are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamative.

1 I will see you on Wednesday. **Declarative**
2 Please let me know if you need anything. **Imperative**
3 How much is a cheeseburger? **Interrogative**
4 If it is raining, we will take the car. **Declarative**
5 How young she looks in that dress. **Exclamative**
6 Do you need anything else? **Interrogative**
7 What a great player he is. **Exclamative**

Exercise 4.8: Positive sentences and negative sentences (4.5)

Make the positive sentences below negative and make the negative sentences positive.

1 My parents are on holiday. **My parents are not on holiday.**
2 We do not accept Euros. **We accept Euros**.
3 Is the cash machine not working? **Is the cash machine working?**
4 Amy used her credit card. **Amy did not use her credit card**.
5 Don't wait for me. **Wait for me.**
6 Does she eat meat? **Does she not eat meat?**
7 Paul never lies. **Paul lies.**

Exercise 4.9: Extraposition and postponement (4.7)

Rewrite each of the following sentences so that they have an extraposed Subject and begin with anticipatory *it*:

1 **It is perfectly normal to worry about the future.**
2 **It is very important that the children should have adequate food and clothing**.
3 **It is unclear at this stage whether or not they qualify for subsidised housing**.
4 **It is now undisputed that climate change is a reality**.
5 **It is so much more convenient to use an electric blender**.
6 **It is very unusual to see a flying saucer.**
7 **It became more obvious every day that the government was in crisis.**

Exercise 4.10: Cleft sentences (4.9)

In each of the following cleft sentences, underline the Focus and indicate its form. For example:

It was Amy who took the phone call. It was <u>Amy</u> (NP) who took the phone call.

1 It was <u>my Dad</u> (NP) who told me the result.
2 It was <u>after watching the video replay</u> (PP) that the referee awarded a penalty.
3 It was <u>the goalkeeper</u> (NP) who committed the foul.
4 Was it <u>before or after the game</u> (PP) that the violence broke out?
5 Is it usually <u>the home fans</u> (NP) that cause trouble?
6 It was <u>through bribery and corruption</u> (PP) that they won the league.

Chapter 5

Exercise 5.1: The structure of words (5.1–5.3)

Analyse the following words in terms of their internal structure, that is, in terms of prefixes, base, and suffixes. For example:

unfaithful = un + faith + ful
anti+terror+ist
creat+iv+ity
de+forest+ation
dis+respect+ful
lead+er+ship
mis+treat+ment
natur+al+ism
non+special+ist
profit+abil+ity
relent+less+ly
re+tight+en
under+develop+ment
un+grate+ful
un+law+ful+ly
un+remark+able

Exercise 5.2: Adding inflections – general spelling rules (5.9)

Form words by joining the parts:

biggest
bragged
dealing
defied
enriches
fizzes
forgetting
holier
longer
moving
relied

revelled
silliest
simplest
slammed
studies
untying
watches

Exercise 5.3: Adding -ly and -ally (5.10)

Convert the following adjectives to adverbs by adding *-ly* or *-ally*:

artistically
automatically
clumsily
coolly
diplomatically
dreadfully
energetically
frantically
fundamentally
greedily
guiltily
ironically
lazily
locally
logically
luckily
necessarily
nostalgically
ordinarily
organically
publicly
sadistically
technically
temporarily
typically
uneasily
vitally
voluntarily

Exercise 5.4: Plural nouns (5.11)

Give the plural form of the following nouns:

appendices
arenas
bases
bushes
cellos
flamingoes
fungi
galleries
journeys
leeches
lorries
mattresses
media
phobias
photos
potatoes
stitches
studios
taxes
taxis
wives

Exercise 5.5: Problem spellings (5.14)

Fill in the blanks by selecting the correct word from the choices given:

1 The bank refused to **accept** the cheque.
2 My hotel room was very **quiet**.
3 We can do nothing to **alter** the situation.
4 People should **practice** what they preach.
5 He eats everything **except** seafood.
6 I left my laptop **there** on the table.
7 **It's** starting to snow.
8 It was **quite** warm yesterday.
9 The government could easily **lose** the next election.
10 I've got a job interview with the **Personnel** Officer.

11 The menu is so big I don't know what to **choose**.
12 Paul told me **you're** working from home now.
13 The plane lost power in one of **its** engines.
14 Amy **chose** the dress herself.
15 Our **principal** objection is that the ruling is unconstitutional.
16 Parents must face **their** responsibilities.
17 My son makes more money **than** I do.
18 We're going to see a marriage guidance **counsellor.**
19 Doctors have been studying the **effect** of smoking on pregnant women.
20 Your pharmacist will be able to give you **advice**.

Appendix
English irregular verbs

Irregular verbs (2.4.7) are verbs in which the past form and the *-ed* form are not spelled in the regular way. The 'regular way' adds *-ed* to the base form of the verb (e.g. base form = *walk*, past form = *walked*, *-ed* form = (has) *walked*). Some of the verbs listed here have regular and irregular variants (2.4.8). On the five verb forms, see 2.4.1. For the verb *be*, see 2.4.9.

Base form	-s form	Past form	*-ed* form	*-ing* form
awake	awakes	awoke	awoken	awaking
bear	bears	bore	borne	bearing
beat	beats	beat	beaten	beating
become	becomes	became	become	becoming
begin	begins	began	begun	beginning
bend	bends	bent	bent	bending
bet	bets	bet	bet	betting
bid	bids	bid	bid	bidding
bind	binds	bound	bound	binding
bite	bites	bit	bitten	biting
bleed	bleeds	bled	bled	bleeding
blow	blows	blew	blown	blowing
break	breaks	broke	broken	breaking
bring	brings	brought	brought	bringing

breed	breeds	bred	bred	breeding
build	builds	built	built	building
burn	burns	burned	burnt	burning
burst	bursts	burst	burst	bursting
buy	buys	bought	bought	buying
cast	casts	cast	cast	casting
catch	catches	caught	caught	catching
choose	chooses	chose	chosen	choosing
cling	clings	clung	clung	clinging
come	comes	came	come	coming
creep	creeps	crept	crept	creeping
cut	cuts	cut	cut	cutting
deal	deals	dealt	dealt	dealing
dig	digs	dug	dug	digging
dive	dives	dived	dived	diving
do	does	did	done	doing
draw	draws	drew	drawn	drawing
dream	dreams	dreamed	dreamt	dreaming
drink	drinks	drank	drunk	drinking
drive	drives	drove	driven	driving
eat	eats	ate	eaten	eating
fall	falls	fell	fallen	falling
feed	feeds	fed	fed	feeding
feel	feels	felt	felt	feeling
fight	fights	fought	fought	fighting
find	finds	found	found	finding
flee	flees	fled	fled	fleeing

fling	flings	flung	flung	flinging
fly	flies	flew	flown	flying
forget	forgets	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
freeze	freezes	froze	frozen	freezing
get	gets	got	got	getting
give	gives	gave	given	giving
go	goes	went	gone	going
grind	grinds	ground	ground	grinding
grow	grows	grew	grown	growing
have	has	had	had	having
hear	hears	heard	heard	hearing
hide	hides	hid	hidden	hiding
hit	hits	hit	hit	hitting
hold	holds	held	held	holding
hurt	hurts	hurt	hurt	hurting
keep	keeps	kept	kept	keeping
kneel	kneels	knelt	knelt	kneeling
knit	knits	knitted	knit	knitting
know	knows	knew	known	knowing
lay	lays	laid	laid	laying
lead	leads	led	led	leading
lean	leans	leaned	leant	leaning
leap	leaps	leaped	leapt	leaping
learn	learns	learned	learnt	learning
leave	leaves	left	left	leaving
lend	lends	lent	lent	lending
let	lets	let	let	letting

lie[1]	lies	lay	lain	lying
light	lights	lit	lit	lighting
lose	loses	lost	lost	losing
make	makes	made	made	making
mean	means	meant	meant	meaning
meet	meets	met	met	meeting
pay	pays	paid	paid	paying
prove	proves	proved	proven	proving
put	puts	put	put	putting
quit	quits	quit	quit	quitting
read	reads	read	read	reading
ride	rides	rode	ridden	riding
ring	rings	rang	rung	ringing
rise	rises	rose	risen	rising
run	runs	ran	run	running
say	says	said	said	saying
see	sees	saw	seen	seeing
seek	seeks	sought	sought	seeking
sell	sells	sold	sold	selling
send	sends	sent	sent	sending
set	sets	set	set	setting
sew	sews	sewed	sewn	sewing
shake	shakes	shook	shaken	shaking
shine	shines	shone	shone	shining
shoot	shoots	shot	shot	shooting
show	shows	showed	shown	showing
shrink	shrinks	shrank	shrunk	shrinking

shut	shuts	shut	shut	shutting
sing	sings	sang	sung	singing
sink	sinks	sank	sunk	sinking
sit	sits	sat	sat	sitting
sleep	sleeps	slept	slept	sleeping
slide	slides	slid	slid	sliding
smell	smells	smelled	smelt	smelling
speak	speaks	spoke	spoken	speaking
speed	speeds	sped	sped	speeding
spell	spells	spelled	spelt	spelling
spend	spends	spent	spent	spending
spill	spills	spilled	spilt	spilling
spin	spins	spun	spun	spinning
spit	spits	spat	spat	spitting
split	splits	split	split	splitting
spoil	spoils	spoiled	spoilt	spoiling
spread	spreads	spread	spread	spreading
spring	springs	sprang	sprung	springing
stand	stands	stood	stood	standing
steal	steals	stole	stolen	stealing
stick	sticks	stuck	stuck	sticking
sting	stings	stung	stung	stinging
strike	strikes	struck	struck	striking
string	strings	strung	strung	stringing
strive	strives	strove	striven	striving
swear	swears	swore	sworn	swearing
sweep	sweeps	swept	swept	sweeping

swell	swells	swelled	swollen	swelling
swim	swims	swam	swum	swimming
swing	swings	swung	swung	swinging
take	takes	took	taken	taking
teach	teaches	taught	taught	teaching
tear	tears	tore	torn	tearing
tell	tells	told	told	telling
think	thinks	thought	thought	thinking
throw	throws	threw	thrown	throwing
wake	wakes	woke	woken	waking
wear	wears	wore	worn	wearing
weave	weaves	wove	woven	weaving
weep	weeps	wept	wept	weeping
win	wins	won	won	winning
wind	winds	wound	wound	winding
wring	wrings	wrung	wrung	wringing
write	writes	wrote	written	writing

[1] The verb *lie*, meaning *to tell an untruth*, is a regular verb.

Glossary of terms

Acronym A word formed from the initial letters of other words, e.g. *NATO* (*N*orth *A*tlantic *T*reaty *O*rganisation).

Active See **Voice**.

Adjective Adjectives express a quality or attribute of a noun: *a* ***happy*** *child*; *a* ***violent*** *storm*; *an* ***old*** *car*. Adjectives can also appear after the noun: *the child is* ***happy***.

Adjective phrase A phrase in which the main word is an adjective. The adjective may occur on its own in the phrase (*happy*, *old*, *rich*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*very* ***happy***, *quite* ***old***, *extremely* ***rich***). Some adjective phrases may also have Postmodifiers after the adjective (***tired*** *of waiting*, ***happy*** *to meet you*).

Adjunct A grammatically optional constituent in sentence structure. Adjuncts convey optional, additional information, including when something happened (*Our guests arrived* ***on Sunday***.), where something happened (*We met Paul* ***outside the cinema***.) and why something happened (*Amy cried* ***because she lost her doll***.).

Adjunct clause A subordinate clause which functions as an Adjunct in sentence structure: *Amy cried* ***because she lost her doll***; ***Although he is poor***, *he gives what he can to charity*.

Adverb Adverbs are used to modify an adjective (***extremely*** *big*) or another adverb (***very*** *recently*). They also function as Adjuncts in sentence structure (*Suddenly*, the lights went out).

Adverb phrase A phrase in which the main word is an adverb. The adverb may occur on its own (*beautifully*, *recently*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*very* ***beautifully***, *quite* ***recently***).

Adverbial Complement A constituent which occurs with an intransitive verb and typically expresses location, direction, or time: *The road goes* **to Sevenoaks**; *The play lasted* **two hours**.

Agent The agent of a sentence is the constituent that performs the action of the verb. In simple sentences, the agent generally coincides with the Subject (*Amy broke the vase*), but in others – especially passive

sentences – it does not, e.g. *The village was destroyed by the soldiers*. Here, the Agent is *the soldiers*, but the Subject is *the village*. See also: **Voice**.

Agentless passive A passive sentence from which the agent *by*-phrase has been omitted. For example, in *The village was destroyed by rebels*, the agent, *rebels*, is included in the *by*-phrase *by rebels*. In contrast, the sentence *The village was destroyed* is an agentless passive. See also: **Voice.**

Agreement test A test to identify the Head of a noun phrase. The Head agrees in number (singular or plural) with the verb when the noun phrase is the Subject of a sentence: [*The* ***boy*** *in the car*] ***is*** *my son*. Compare: [*The* **boys** *in the car*] **are** *my sons*.

Alternative interrogative A question which offers two or more alternative responses: *Do you want tea or coffee?*; *Is that William or Harry?* See also: ***Yes-no*** **interrogative**.

Anaphora The use of a word or words to refer back to something previously mentioned. The personal pronouns are often used anaphorically, as in *James likes football*. ***He*** *never misses a game*. Here, *he* refers anaphorically to *James*. See also: **Cataphora**.

Antecedent A word or words to which a following word refers back. In *James likes football. He never misses a game*, *James* is the antecedent of *he*. See also: **Anaphora**, **Cataphora**, **Referring expressions**.

Anticipatory *it* Anticipatory *it* functions as the Provisional Subject in an extraposed sentence. It 'anticipates' the Notional Subject which has been extraposed: ***It*** *is obvious that he doesn't love her*. (Compare: *That he doesn't love her is obvious*.) See also: **Extraposition**.

Apposition A relationship between two constituents (usually noun phrases), in which both constituents refer to the same person or thing: *The President, Mr Brown*.

Article The articles are *the* (the definite article) and *a/an* (the indefinite article).

Aspect Aspect expresses how an event is viewed with respect to time. There are two aspects in English, the progressive aspect (*William is leaving/was leaving*) and the perfective aspect (*William has left/had left*).

Asyndetic coordination Coordination without the use of *and*: *We need* ***bread, cheese, eggs, milk, flour***. See also: **Syndetic coordination**, **Polysyndetic coordination**.

Auxiliary verb A 'helping' verb which typically comes before the main verb in a sentence *(I* ***can*** *drive*; *James* ***has*** *written to the Council*.). Auxiliary verbs are divided into the following types: modal, passive, progressive, perfective, *do* auxiliary, semi-auxiliary.

Back formation A verb formed by removing a noun ending and adding a verb ending, e.g. *televise*, from *television*.

Base form The form of a verb which follows *to*, and to which the inflections are added: *to walk*, *walk+s*, *walk+ed*, *walk+ing*. The term is also used to refer to the uninflected form of an adjective or adverb to which the *-er* and *-est* endings are added. See also: **Comparative form**, **Superlative form**.

Booster A booster is a degree adverb that expresses a higher degree in an adjective or in another adverb, e.g. ***extremely*** *cold*, ***more*** *important*, ***very*** *recently*. See also: **Downtoner**.

By*-phrase** A phrase beginning with *by* at the end of a passive sentence that expresses the agent, e.g. *King Lear was written* ***by Shakespeare. See also: **Voice**.

Case A distinction chiefly in pronouns which relates to their grammatical functions. Personal pronouns and the pronoun *who* have two cases: Subjective case (e.g. *I*, *we*, *who*) and objective case (*me*, *us*, *whom*). Nouns exhibit two cases, the common case (*dog*, *dogs*) and the genitive case (*dog's*, *dogs'*).

Cataphora The use of a word or words to refer forward to a later word: *When you see* ***him***, *will you ask* ***Simon*** *to phone me?* See also: **Anaphora**.

Circumstantial adverb Circumstantial adverbs convey information about the circumstances of an event or action. They indicate how something happens (*The lights went out* ***suddenly***.), where something happens (*We'll meet* ***here*** *after the game*.), and when something happens (*I'll see you* ***tomorrow***.). See also: **Stance adverb, Degree adverb**.

Clause A sentence-like construction which operates at a level lower than a sentence: *We visited Disneyland* ***when we were in Hong Kong***. Here, the clause ***when we were in Hong Kong*** is 'sentence-like' in the sense that it has its own Subject (*we*) and its own verb (*were*). However, some clauses may have only an 'implied' Subject: ***Working through the night***, *rescuers finally reached the miners*. Here, the 'implied' Subject of the clause *working through the night* is *rescuers*, the Subject of the sentence as a whole.

Cleft sentence A sentence with the pattern *It* + *be* + Focus + Focus Complement, e.g. *It was William who noticed the error*. (Compare: *William noticed the error*.) Cleft sentences are used to emphasize the Focus, here, *William*.

Clipping A type of abbreviation in which one or more syllables are omitted from a word, e.g. *demo*, from *demonstration*.

Closed word class A closed word class is one which does not admit new members. For example, the class of prepositions (*at*, *in*, *of*, etc) does

not admit new members and therefore is a closed class. See also: **Open word class**.

Comment clause A peripheral clause in sentence structure, used to offer a comment on what is being said: *I can't afford it*, ***I'm afraid***.

Comparative clause Comparative clauses follow the preposition *than* or *as*, and express comparison: *The play was better* ***than I expected***; *David is as old* ***as I am***.

Comparative form A term used to refer to the *-er* form of adjectives (*happier*) and adverbs (*sooner*). See also: **Superlative form**.

Complement A constituent which completes the meaning of a word, e.g. a noun (*the fact* ***that the earth is round***), or a preposition (under ***the table***). The term is also applied Objects, which complete the meaning of a transitive verb (*The soldiers destroyed* ***the village***.).

Complementizer The function of the word *that* when it introduces the Complement of a verb (*He said that he was ready*.) or of a noun (*The fact that no one was listening*).

Complex transitive verb A verb which requires a Direct Object and an Object Complement, e.g. *The dye* ***turned*** *the water blue*. Here, *the water* is the Direct Object, and *blue* is the Object Complement.

Conducive *yes/no* interrogative In a conducive *yes/no* interrogative, the speaker has an expectation of either a *yes* answer or a *no* answer. For example, in *Did you meet someone?*, the expected answer is *yes*. In *Did you not meet anyone?*, the expected answer is *no*. See also: **Neutral *yes/no* interrogative**.

Conjoin The function of constituents which are linked by a coordinating conjunction: ***Paul*** *and* ***Amy***; ***tea*** *or* ***coffee***; ***tired*** *but* ***happy***.

Conjunction The coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *or*) link constituents of equal status (*I play guitar* ***and*** *David sings*.). The subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *if*, *because*) introduce a subordinate clause: (*Have some pasta* ***if*** *you want it*.).

Constituent A constituent is a word or a string of words that acts as a unit both grammatically and semantically. For example, in *The President has arrived*, *The President* is a constituent, but *President has* is not a constituent. Constituents can be replaced by one word: ***He*** *has arrived*. No single word can replace *President has*.

Coordination The linking of two or more constituents using one of the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *but*, and *or*: *We bought meat* ***and*** *vegetables*; *David graduated last year* ***but*** *he still can't find a job*; *You don't need money* ***or*** *good looks*.

Coordination Polarity Test A test to determine whether a sentence is positive or negative. Positive sentences take *so* in coordination (*Amy is a*

student and so is Paul.), while negative sentences take *neither* (*Amy is not a student and neither is Paul.*). See also: **Polarity**.

Countable noun Countable nouns denote things that can be counted: *one chair*, *two chairs*, *three chairs*, etc. Therefore, they have both a singular form (*chair*) and a plural form (*chairs*). See also: **Uncountable noun**.

Declarative sentence A sentence which is chiefly used for making a statement: *The sky was blue*; *William became an engineer*; *The government has a huge majority*. See also: **Interrogative sentence**.

Definite article The definite article is the word *the*.

Degree adverb A type of adverb used to express degree in an adjective or in another adverb. The most common degree adverb is *very*: ***very*** *cold*; ***very*** *recently*. Others include *extremely*, *fairly*, *highly*, *quite*.

Demonstrative pronoun The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

Deontic meaning Deontic meaning is expressed by some of the modal auxiliary verbs. It is concerned with permission, obligation/duty, and prediction, e.g. *You* ***may*** *come in*; *You* ***must*** *go to bed early*; *I* ***will*** *see you later*. See also: **Dynamic meaning**, **Epistemic meaning**.

Dependent pronoun A dependent pronoun is a pronoun that can only occur as a constituent of a noun phrase, e.g. ***my*** *book*, ***our*** *books*, ***every*** *book*. Dependent pronouns function as Determinatives in noun phrase structure. See also: **Independent pronoun**.

Determinative The function of a determiner in a noun phrase, e.g. in *the book*, the word ***the*** has the function of Determinative. See also: **Determiner**.

Determiner Determiners are constituents in the structure of a noun phrase. They introduce the noun phrase and typically refer to quantity or position in an ordered sequence: ***a*** *newspaper*, ***some*** *people*, ***many*** *problems*, ***three*** *ships*, ***all our*** *friends*, ***the first*** *day*.

Direct Object The constituent required by a transitive verb to complete its meaning: *David announced* ***his retirement***; *The company made* ***a huge profit***. Direct Objects are most commonly noun phrases, but they can also be clauses: *David announced* ***that he will retire***.

Ditransitive verb A verb that requires two Objects, an Indirect Object followed by a Direct Object, e.g. *We gave James the money*. Here, *James* is the Indirect Object and *the money* is the Direct Object.

Do* auxiliary** The *do* auxiliary is used (a) to form questions (Do*** *you like French films?*), (b) to form negatives, with *not* (*I* ***do*** *not enjoy violent films*), (c) to form negative directives, with *not* (***Do*** *not sit there!*) (d) for emphasis (*I* ***do*** *enjoy a good book!*).

Do*-support** The use of *do* as Operator when no auxiliary verb is present, to form questions, e.g. ***Do *you like football?* and negative sentences, e.g. *I* ***do*** *not like football*. See also: **Operator**.

Downtoner A downtoner is a degree adverb that expresses a lower degree in an adjective or in another adverb, e.g. ***slightly*** *cold*, ***less*** *important*, **fairly** *recently*. See also: **Booster**.

Dynamic meaning Dynamic meaning is expressed by the modal auxiliary verbs *can* and *could*, and is concerned with an ability to do or be something, e.g. *I* ***can*** *play the guitar*; *I* ***could*** *speak French as a child*. See also: **Deontic meaning, Epistemic meaning**.

Embedding The way in which constituents are embedded or nested inside each other. For example, in the adjective phrase *much more important*, the adverb phrase *much more* is embedded in *much more important*, and the adverb phrase *much* is embedded in the adverb phrase *much more*.

Epistemic meaning Epistemic meaning is expressed by some modal auxiliary verbs. It expresses the speaker's belief in the likelihood that something is true, based on contextual knowledge: *You have been working all day, so you* ***must*** *be tired*. See also: **Deontic meaning**, **Dynamic meaning**.

Exclamative sentence A sentence that expresses an exclamation: *What a pity!*; *How tall he's grown!*

Exclusive meaning The meaning expressed by the Coordinator *or*: *You can have tea, coffee,* ***or*** *a soft drink*. Here, all the items except one are excluded. See also: **Inclusive meaning**.

Existential there The word *there* when it introduces a *there*-sentence, e.g. ***There*** *is a man at the door*. See also: *There*-**sentence**.

Extraposition Extraposition involves moving a Subject or Object clause from its normal position to the end of a sentence, e.g. *It is surprising* **that no one claimed the reward**. (Compare: ***That no one claimed the reward*** *is surprising*.) *He made it obvious* ***that he did not trust her***. (Compare: *He made* ***that he did not trust her*** *obvious*.) See also: **Anticipatory** *it*.

Finite If the first (or only) verb in a verb phrase exhibits tense (past or present), then the verb phrase is finite. The following sentences all contain a finite verb phrase: *David left early*; *David leaves at eight every morning*; *David is leaving now*; *David had left*. The term is also applied to clauses in which the verb phrase is finite. See also: **Non-finite**.

Form In grammatical descriptions, the term *form* refers to the structure, appearance, or 'shape' of a constituent. For instance, we say that the

adjective *old* has three forms, *old*, *older*, *oldest*. Similarly, we say that in *Amy is leaving*, the verb *leaving* has the *-ing* form. See also: **Function**.

Fragment An incomplete sentence, often used in response to a question: *Where did you leave the keys?* ***On the table***. Fragments are normally interpreted as if they were complete sentences: *I left the keys on the table*. See also: **Non-sentence**.

Function The grammatical role that a constituent performs in a sentence, clause, or phrase. For instance, in *The old man is ill*, the constituent *the old man* (a noun phrase) performs the function of Subject. In turn, the adjective *old* performs the function of Premodifier in the noun phrase *the old man*. See also: **Form**.

Gender A term used to refer to grammatical distinctions based on differences in sex: *he/she*, *his/her*.

Gradability A feature of adjectives and adverbs which can be modified by a degree adverb: *fairly* ***cold***; *very* ***cold***; *extremely* ***cold***, and have comparative and superlative forms: *old*, *older*, *oldest*.

Head The Head of a phrase is the main word in the phrase. For example, in the noun phrase *the old man*, the Head is the noun *man*. In the adjective phrase *very keen on grammar*, the Head is *keen*.

If*-clause** A clause that is introduced by *if*, and expresses a condition: ***If we get home early, *we can watch the new movie*.

Imperative sentence A type of sentence used in giving orders: *Move over*, *Come in*, *Don't leave your coat there*.

Inclusive meaning The meaning expressed by the Coordinator *and*, e.g. *We serve tea, coffee,* ***and*** *soft drinks*. Here, all the items are included. See also: **Exclusive meaning**.

Indefinite article The indefinite article is *a/an*.

Independent pronoun Independent pronouns are pronouns that can function independently as the Subject or Object of a sentence, e.g. ***I*** *phoned* ***you*** *yesterday*; ***She*** *emailed* ***us*** *yesterday*. They can also come after a preposition, e.g. *after* ***you***, *before* ***them***, *with* ***us***. See also: **Dependent pronoun**.

Indirect Object Ditransitive verbs require two constituents to complete their meaning: *We gave James a gift*. Here, *James* is the Indirect Object, and *a gift* is the Direct Object. The Indirect Object typically refers to the person who receives something or benefits from the action expressed by the verb.

Infinitive The base form of a verb when it is introduced by *to*: *She loves* ***to sing***; *They decided* ***to cooperate***.

Inflection An ending which indicates a grammatical category. For instance, the *-s* inflection when added to a noun indicates plural number.

Interrogative sentence A type of sentence used in asking questions: *Is James here? Did you have a good time? What is this? How is the patient?*

Intransitive verb A verb which requires no other constituent to complete its meaning: *David **yawned***; *It is still **snowing***. See also: **Transitive verb**.

Inversion Test A test to identify the Subject of a sentence. When we turn a statement into a question, the Subject inverts with the Operator: ***Amy is** leaving* → ***Is Amy** leaving?*

Irregular verb A verb whose past form does not end in *-ed*, e.g. *came*, *chose*, *fell*. Compare the past tense ending of regular verbs: *walked*, *talked*, *looked*. With irregular verbs, the *-ed/-en* form is also irregular, e.g. *has come*, *was chosen*, *has fallen*. Compare with the *-ed/-en* forms of regular verbs: *has walked*, *has talked*, *has looked*.

***Let* imperative** The *let* imperative uses the verb *let* together with another verb to make an imperative sentence, e.g. ***Let** 's go*; ***Let**'s have a break*.

Light verb Light verbs are semantically 'light', in the sense that they mean little if anything on their own. Their meaning is derived from the noun phrase that follows them, e.g. *We're **having** a party*, *She's **having** surgery*, *We're **having** a rest*. The most common light verbs are *have*, *do*, *get*, and *give*.

Linking verb The most common linking verb is *be*: *My uncle* **is** *a professional footballer*. Linking verbs link the Subject (*my uncle*) with the Subject Complement (*a professional footballer*). Other linking verbs include *seem* (*He **seems** angry.*) and *appear* (*She **appears** distracted.*).

Main clause A clause which can stand independently as a complete sentence. In ***Emily worked in Greece** when she was young*, the main clause is *Emily worked in Greece*. The second clause, *when she was young*, can be omitted, and is a subordinate clause.

Main verb In the verb phrase *was raining*, *raining* is the main verb, while *was* is the auxiliary verb.

Mandative subjunctive A type of subjunctive sentence that uses the base form of a verb, e.g. *It is important that every patient **be** cared for*. See also: **Subjunctive**.

Modal adverb The modal adverbs express the degree of certainty that the speaker feels towards what is being said, e.g. ***Perhaps** he has missed the train*; ***Possibly** he will catch the next train*; *He is **definitely** very late*.

Modal auxiliary The modal auxiliary verbs are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*.

Monotransitive verb A verb which requires only a Direct Object to complete its meaning, e.g. *The soldiers destroyed the village*. Here, the monotransitive verb *destroyed* takes the Direct Object *the village*.

Mood A grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker to what is said. English has three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

Morphology The study of the structure of words.

Movement Movement refers to the movement of constituents from inside a verb phrase to a position outside the verb phrase. Movement occurs in the formation of some questions: *Has Paul left already?* (Compare: *Paul has left already*.), in exclamative sentences: *How young she looks!* (Compare: *She looks very young*), and in relative clauses: *the book* [*that I read*] (Compare: *I read the book*.)

Multi-word verb A combination consisting of a verb and one or two other words, acting as a unit. Multi-word verbs include prepositional verbs (*look at*, *rely on*), phrasal verbs (*give in*, *take over*), and phrasal-prepositional verbs (*look forward to*, *put up with*).

Negator The function of the word (usually *not*), which makes a sentence negative, e.g. *Amy is* ***not*** *a student*. Other words can also function as the Negator, e.g. *He* ***never*** *visits his parents*; *He* ***hardly ever*** *visits his parents*.

Neutral *yes/no* interrogative In a neutral *yes/no* interrogative, the speaker has no preference or expectation of a *yes* answer or a *no* answer, e.g. *Would you like a drink?* See also: **Conducive *yes/no* interrogative**.

NICE properties The NICE properties describe the four major roles of the Operator in a verb phrase. 'NICE' is an acronym for **N**egation, **I**nversion, **C**ode, and **E**mphasis. See also: **Operator**.

Nominal adjective An adjective that is preceded by the word *the* and can function as the Subject or Object of a sentence (*The* **rich** *are different*, *We should help the* ***homeless***, *The* ***best*** *is yet to come*.).

Nominal relative clause A subordinate clause introduced by *what*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *where*: ***What you need*** *is a long holiday*; *I can't understand* ***what he is saying***; *I'll speak to* ***whoever is responsible***.

Non-finite If the first (or only) verb in a verb phrase has the base form (*Simon is reluctant* ***to make an effort***.), the *-ing* form (***Working hard*** *brings its own reward*.), or the *-ed/-en* form (***Published in 1998***, *it soon became a best-seller*.), then the verb phrase is non-finite. The term is also used to describe a clause containing a non-finite verb phrase. See also: **Finite**.

Non-sentence An independent unit which has no sentence structure. Non-sentences are commonly used in public signs and notices: *Exit*, *No Entry*, *10% Off*. See also: **Fragment**.

Notional Direct Object The function of a *to*-clause or a *that*-clause in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *I find it hard* ***to concentrate***; *He made it obvious* ***that he wasn't satisfied***. See also: **Extraposition**, **Notional Subject**.

Notional Subject The function of a *to*-clause or a *that*-clause in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *It is important* ***to save money***; *It's a pity* ***that you cannot come***. See also: **Extraposition**, **Provisional Subject**.

Noun Common nouns are the names of objects (*book*, *computer*), people (*boy*, *father*), states (*loneliness*, *happiness*), abstract concepts (*history*, *honesty*), etc. Proper nouns refer to individual people (*Nelson Mandela*, *Winston Churchill*), places (*London*, *Hong Kong*), and geographical features (*Ben Nevis*, *River Thames*).

Noun phrase A phrase in which the main word is a noun. The noun may occur on its own (*children*, *water*), or it may have a Premodifier before it (*young children*, *cold water*). A noun phrase may also contain a Postmodifier after the noun (***children*** *with learning disabilities*, ***water*** *from the stream*). A noun phrase may be introduced by a determiner (***the*** *children*, ***some*** *water*).

Number The contrast between singular and plural, e.g. *dog/dogs*, *woman/women*, *this/these*.

Number Test A test to identify the Head of a noun phrase. The Head is the word that changes when the whole phrase is made plural. Singular: *a* ***tin*** *of paint*; plural: *two* ***tins*** *of paint*.

Numeral There are two sets of numerals, the cardinal numerals *one*, *two*, *three*, etc, and the ordinal numerals *first*, *second*, *third*, etc.

Object See **Direct Object**, **Indirect Object**.

Object Complement A constituent which follows the Direct Object in a complex transitive sentence. For instance, in *The dye turned the water blue*, *blue* is the Object Complement.

Objective case The objective case of a personal pronoun is used when the pronoun is a Direct Object (*Simon met* ***me***.) or an Indirect Object (*Simon bought* ***me*** *a ticket*.). It is also used after a preposition (*Simon bought a ticket for* ***me***.). See also: **Subjective case**.

One-word Substitution Test A test to identify the constituents of a sentence. Each constituent except the verb can be substituted by one word: [*At midnight*] [*the bell*] *rang* [*in*] [*the old churchyard*]. → [*Then*] [*it*] *rang* [*there*].

Open word class An open word class is one which admits new members as the need arises. The major open classes are nouns and main verbs. See also: **Closed word class**.

Operator The Operator is the first or only auxiliary verb in a verb phrase, e.g. *He* **is** *studying*; *He* **has** *been studying*; *He* ***may*** *have been studying*. See also: **NICE properties**.

Parenthetical A complete sentence inserted in another sentence: *The merger –* ***this is confidential*** *– will go ahead as planned*.

Participial adjective An adjective with an *-ed/-en* ending (*a* ***dedicated*** *worker*, *a* ***fallen*** *tree*) or an *-ing* ending (*a* ***surprising*** *result*).

Passive See **Voice**.

Perfective auxiliary The perfective auxiliary is *have*. It occurs before the *-ed/-en* form of a main verb: *Simon* ***has*** *arrived*; *We* ***had*** *hoped you could come*.

Person A grammatical category that indicates a relationship with the speaker: **first person** refers to the speaker (*I*, *me*), **second person** refers to the addressee (*you*), and **third person** refers to all others (*they*, *them*).

Personal pronoun The personal pronouns are *I/me*, *you*, *he/him*, *she/her/it*, *we/us*, *they/them*. See also: **Subjective case**, **Objective case**.

Phrasal verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Phrasal-prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Polarity Polarity refers to the distinction between a positive sentence (*Amy is a student*.) and a negative sentence (*Amy is not a student*.).

Polysyndetic coordination Coordination in which *and* or *or* is used between each pair of coordinated items: *The lecture went on* ***and*** *on* ***and*** *on*; *You can have pasta* ***or*** *meatloaf* ***or*** *salad*. See also: **Asyndetic coordination**, **Syndetic coordination**.

Possessive pronoun The possessive pronouns are *my/mine*, *your/yours*, *his*, *her/hers, its*, *our/ours*, *their/theirs*.

Postmodifier A phrase or clause which comes after a word and modifies or specifies its meaning: *the man* ***behind me***; *the man* ***who lives beside us***; *afraid* ***of dogs***; *afraid* ***to cross the street***.

Postponement Postponement involves moving long and complex constituents to the end of a sentence, usually for stylistic reasons, e.g. *They gave* [*the student who wrote the best essay on the rise and fall of the Roman empire*] [*a prize*]. Here, the long Indirect Object would be better placed at the end, after preposition *to*: *They gave* [*a prize*] *to* [*the student who wrote the best essay on the rise and fall of the Roman empire*].

Predicator The grammatical function of the main verb in a verb phrase, e.g. *John is* ***leaving***.

Prefix A sequence of letters, such as *un- (unlawful)*, *anti- (anti-abortion)*, *post- (post-war)* added to the beginning of a word to form a new word. See also: **Suffix**.

Premodifier A phrase which comes before a word and modifies or specifies its meaning: *an **extremely old** building*; ***very** recently*.

Preposition Common prepositions include *after*, *at*, *before*, *beside*, *for*, *in*, *of*, *under*, *with*. Prepositions are used to introduce a noun phrase: ***after** the ballet*; ***at** the supermarket*; ***before** breakfast*, or a clause: ***after** eating breakfast*; ***by** working hard*.

Prepositional Complement The constituent which is introduced by a preposition: *after **the ballet***; *under **our roof***, *in **New York***, *at **ten o'clock***, *before **leaving for work***, *after **getting to work***.

Prepositional paraphrase A sentence such as *We gave John a gift* can be paraphrased as *We gave a gift to John*. This is the prepositional paraphrase of the original version. The Indirect Object *John* is moved to the end, where it becomes a constituent of the prepositional phrase *to John*. See also: **Ditransitive verb**.

Prepositional phrase A phrase which is introduced by a preposition. The preposition is followed by a Prepositional Complement, which may be a noun phrase: *after the ballet*; *under our roof*; or a clause: *before leaving for work*, *after getting to work*.

Prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

Progressive auxiliary The progressive auxiliary *be* occurs before a main verb with *-ing* form: ***I am** organising a trip to Paris*; *Paul **is** collecting money for charity*; *The children **were** shouting*.

Pronoun Pronouns are divided into the following major classes: **demonstrative**, **personal**, **possessive**, **quantifying**, **reflexive**, **relative**. See also: **Dependent pronoun**, **Independent pronoun**.

Provisional Direct Object The function of anticipatory *it* as Direct Object in an extraposed sentence, e.g. *He made **it** obvious that he wasn't satisfied*. See also: **Anticipatory *it***, **Extraposition**.

Provisional Subject The function of anticipatory *it* as Subject in an extraposed sentence, e.g. ***It** is important to save money*. The term is also used to describe the function of *there* in *there*-sentences, e.g. ***There** is a man at the door*. See also: **Anticipatory *it***, **Extraposition**, *There*-**sentence**.

Reduced relative clause A relative clause in which the relative pronoun is omitted, and the verb has *-ed/-en* form or *-ing* form: *Films **produced on a small budget** are rarely successful* (compare: *Films **which are produced on a small budget***); *The man **standing beside you** is my uncle* (compare: *The man **who is standing beside you***).

Referring expressions Expressions that are used to refer to other words in a text. They are most commonly pronouns, e.g. *Simon left work early. He was feeling unwell*. Here, the pronoun *he* refers back to *Simon*. See also: **Antecedent**.

Reflexive pronoun The reflexive pronouns are *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

Relative clause A relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun such as *who*, *which*, or *that*: *The man* ***who lives beside us*** *is unwell*; *It's a new company* ***which specializes in digital marketing***; *The project* ***that I'm working on*** *is really interesting*.

Relative pronoun The relative pronouns are *who*(*m*), *whose*, *which*, and *that*. They are used to introduce a relative clause: *The man* ***who lives beside us*** *is unwell*.

Reporting clause A clause such as *he said*, or *said Mary*, which identifies the speaker of direct speech: '*I'm leaving now*', ***he said***.

Semantics The study of the relationship between linguistic forms and meaning.

Semi-auxiliary verb A multi-word auxiliary verb. Examples include *have to* (*I* ***have to*** *catch a bus*.), *be going to* (*He's* ***going to*** *fall*.) and *be about to* (*The show* ***is about to*** *start*.).

Sentential relative clause A relative clause which expresses a comment on what has previously been said: *Amy can't come this evening*, ***which is a pity***.

Stance adverb Stance adverbs express the speaker's attitude towards what is happening. For example: ***Unfortunately***, *Brazil lost the game on penalties*; ***Sadly***, *the dog was never found*; ***Hopefully***, *we can save enough money to get a mortgage*.

Subject The constituent that typically comes before the verb in a declarative sentence: ***James*** (S) *is* (V) *still at school*. In an interrogative sentence, the Subject and the verb change places with each other: *Is* (V) ***James*** (S) *still at school?*

Subject Complement The constituent that completes the meaning of a linking verb (usually *be*): *Paul is* ***my nephew***; *Our house is* **too small**; *The weather was* ***beautiful***.

Subjective case The subjective case of a personal pronoun is used when the pronoun functions as Subject: ***I*** *met Simon*, in contrast with the objective case: *Simon met* ***me***. See also: **Objective case**.

Subject-verb agreement A term used to denote the fact that a verb form agrees in number (singular or plural) with its Subject (compare: *The dog* ***barks***./*The dogs* ***bark***.). Subject-verb agreement applies only to present tense verbs.

Subjunctive A term used to denote sentences which express a hypothetical or non-factual situation: *If I* ***were*** *you*, *I would invest the money*; *The Report recommended that the police officers* ***be*** *suspended immediately*.

Subordinate clause A dependent clause within a larger structure, e.g. ***When the rain came*** *we went indoors*; *John said* ***that Mary is leaving***.

Subordinating conjunction A word which introduces a subordinate clause. Common subordinating conjunctions include *although*, *because*, *if*, *though*, *when*, *while*. Multi-word subordinating conjunctions include *as long as*, *as though*, *provided that*, *seeing that*.

Subordination A relationship between two clauses in which one clause is grammatically dependent on the other. Subordination is often overtly indicated by the use of a subordinating conjunction: *William studied architecture* ***while he was in Germany***.

Substitute *one* Substitute *one* is a pronoun which is used to substitute for a noun that has already been mentioned, e.g. *The red car is nice but I prefer the black* ***one***.

Suffix An ending added to a word to create another word. Noun suffixes include *-ness* (*coolness*, *kindness*), and *-ism* (*capitalism*, *optimism*). Adjective suffixes include *-able* (*profitable*, *reasonable*) and *-al* (*accidental*, *musical*).

Superlative form A term used to refer to the *-est* form of adjectives (*happiest*) and adverbs (*soonest*). See also: **Comparative form**.

Syndetic coordination Coordination using *and*, *but*, or *or*: *Paul* ***and*** *Amy*; *tired* ***but*** *happy*; *tea* ***or*** *coffee*. See also: **Asyndetic coordination**, **Polysyndetic coordination**.

Syntax 'Syntax' is a slightly more formal term for 'grammar' as discussed in this book, that is, the study of the structure of sentences and their parts.

Tag question A question which is appended to a statement: *You went to Harvard*, ***didn't you?***; *You're not leaving*, ***are you?***

Tag Question Polarity Test A test to determine whether a sentence is positive or negative. Positive sentence take a negative tag question (*You are a student, aren't you?*), while negative sentences take a positive tag question (*You are not a student, are you?*).

Tag Question Test A test to identify the Subject of a sentence. When we add a tag question to a sentence, the last word in the tag question refers back to the Subject of the sentence: ***Amy*** *is nice, isn't* **she***?*

Tense There are two tenses in English: the past tense and the present tense. Tense is denoted by the form of the first or only verb in a verb phrase: *David* ***walks*** *to school* (present tense); *David* ***is*** *walking to school* (present tense); *David* ***walked*** *to school* (past tense); *David* ***was*** *walking to school* (past tense).

That*-clause** A subordinate clause introduced by the Complementizer *that*: *Everyone knows* ***that smoking is dangerous.

***There*-sentence** A sentence introduced by *there* and followed, usually, by the verb *be*: ***There** is a fly in my soup*; ***There is** something wrong with the printer*. Also called an existential sentence.

To*-clause** A subordinate clause introduced by the infinitive marker *to*, e.g. *It is important **to exercise; *The best person **to ask** is a lawyer*; *The patient is unable **to walk***.

Transitive verb A verb which requires at least one Object to complete its meaning: *Paul **makes** model airplanes*; *David **bought** himself a boat*. See also: **Intransitive verb**.

Tree diagram A visual representation of the structure of a sentence, clause, or phrase.

Type 1 NP A Type 1 NP has the structure Noun 1 + Preposition + Noun 2, e.g. *people from China*, *bars of soap*. In Type 1 NPs, the first noun is the Head. See also: **Type 2 NP**.

Type 2 NP A Type 2 NP has the structure Noun 1 + Noun 2, e.g. *school uniform*, *computer program*. In Type 2 NPs, the second noun is the Head. See also: **Type 1 NP**.

Uncountable noun A noun which denotes things which are considered as indivisible wholes (*furniture*, *mud*, *software*) and therefore cannot be counted (**two furnitures*, **three muds*, **four softwares*, etc). Uncountable nouns have a singular form (*software*), but no plural form (**softwares*). See also: **Countable noun**.

Verb Verbs are divided into two types: (a) main verbs, such as *break*, *buy*, *eat*, *sing*, *write*, and (b) auxiliary verbs, such as *can*, *could*, *may*, *must*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*.

Verb phrase A phrase in which the main word is a verb. The verb may occur on its own (*walked*, *sings*), or it may be preceded by one or more auxiliary verbs (*has walked*, *can walk*, *has been singing*).

Vocative A noun phrase or clause used to identify the person or persons being addressed: *Come in, **Dr Johnson***; *Come out, **whoever you are***.

Voice A term used to describe the contrast between an active sentence (*The police arrested the suspect*) and a passive sentence (*The suspect was arrested by the police*).

***Were*-subjunctive** A type of subjunctive sentence in which the verb is *were*: *I wish you **were** here*. See also: **Subjunctive**.

***Wh*-interrogative** A question introduced by *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, or *how*: ***Who** was at the door?*; ***What** would you like to drink?*; ***Where** are my keys?*; ***When** is your flight?*; ***How** do you switch it on?*

***Yes-no* interrogative** A question which normally expects an answer which is either *yes* or *no*: *Did you enjoy the film?* See also: **Alternative interrogative**.

Zero relative clause A relative clause from which the relative pronoun has been omitted: *This is the book* ***William recommended***. Compare: *This is the book* ***that/which William recommended***.

Zero subordinate clause A subordinate clause from which the Complementizer *that* has been omitted: *He must think* ***I'm a fool***. Compare: *He must think* ***that I'm a fool***.

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SIDNEY GREENBAUM AND GERALD NELSON

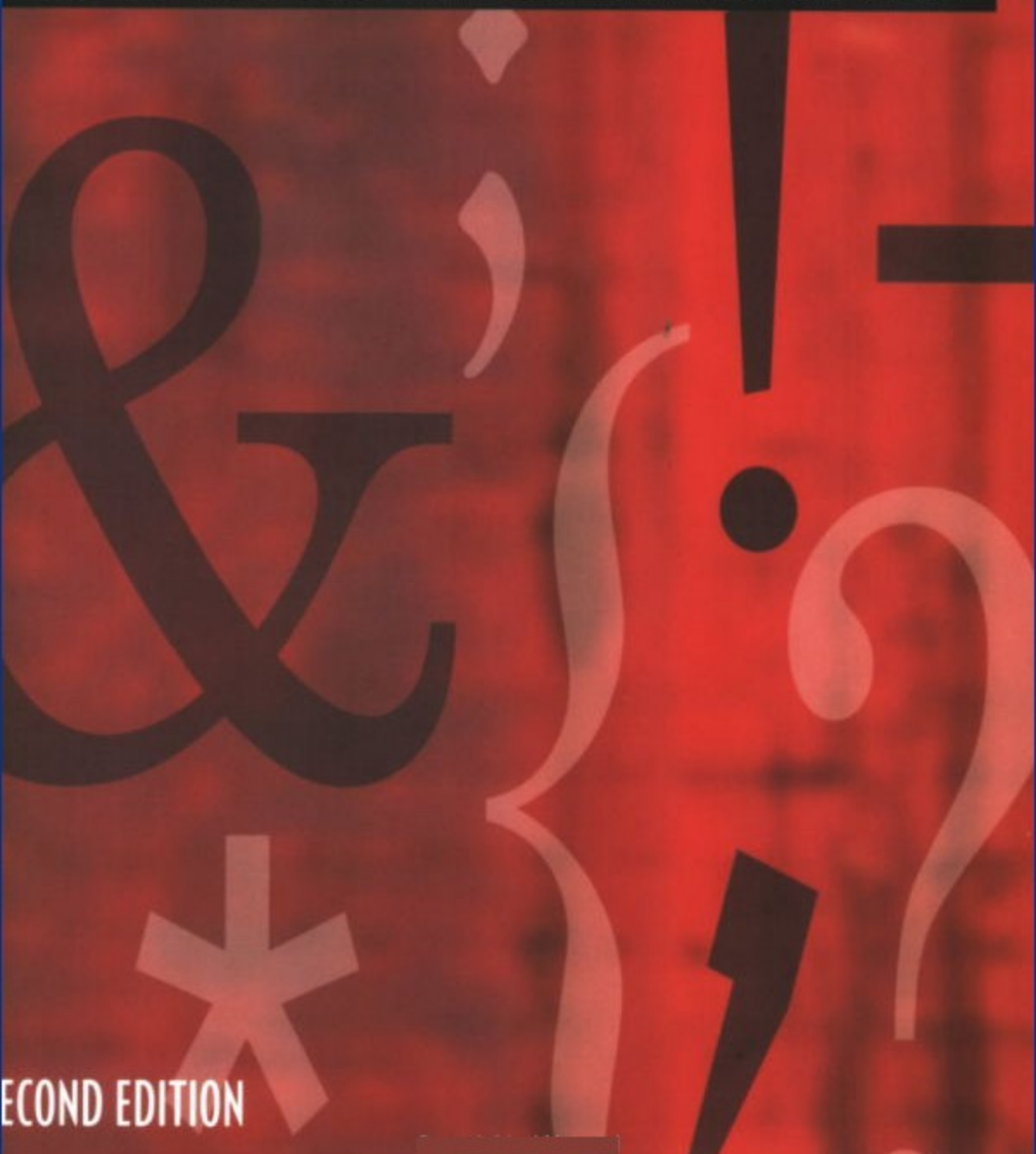

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Preface to the Second Edition

Sidney Greenbaum's *An Introduction to English Grammar* was first published in 1991, and has been consistently popular ever since.

In preparing this second edition, I have preserved the overall organization of the original book. Part I provides an outline description of English grammar. Part II applies the grammatical information from Part I, giving students guidance on solving problems of usage, improving their writing style, and on punctuation.

Apart from making some minor revisions, and updating the citations, I have preserved almost all the material that appeared in the first edition. I have added a new chapter entitled English in Use, which deals with the grammatical features of a range of linguistic registers, including conversations, sports commentaries, and emails. Most of these extracts are taken from the British component of the International Corpus of English (ICE-GB), which was compiled at the Survey of English Usage, University College London. The section called Literary Analysis, which appeared in the first edition, has been incorporated without change into the new chapter, under the heading The Language of Literature. In the Appendix on spelling, I have disambiguated some of the most common and troublesome homophones.

The number of exercises has been increased, and the exercises now appear at the end of the relevant chapter, rather than in a section of their own. The exercises are intended to help students understand the text and give them practice in applying the grammar. Some of the exercises introduce topics that are not dealt with explicitly in the text. These are generally essay-style exercises, in which students are encouraged to explore linguistic topics on their own, using the new Further Reading section as a starting point. Many of the exercises were compiled by Professor Charles F. Meyer (University of Massachusetts-Boston).

GERALD NELSON
Hong Kong, 2001

Acknowledgements

The publishers are grateful to David Higham Associates Limited for permission to reproduce an extract from 'This Bread I Break' by Dylan Thomas from *Collected Poems* published by J.M. Dent.

To Sholem and Wendy
Jonathan, David, and Sima
with affection

1

Rules and Variation

1.1 What is grammar?

I will be using the word **grammar** in this book to refer to the set of rules that allow us to combine words in our language into larger units. Another term for grammar in this sense is **syntax**.

Some combinations of words are possible in English and others are not. As a speaker of English, you can judge that *Home computers are now much cheaper* is a possible English sentence whereas *Home computers now much are cheaper* is not, because you know that *much* is wrongly positioned in the second example. Your ability to recognize such distinctions is evidence that in some sense you know the rules of grammar even if you have never studied any grammar. Similarly, you operate the rules whenever you speak or write (you can put words in the right order) and whenever you interpret what others say (you know that *Susan likes Tom* means something quite different from *Tom likes Susan*). But knowing the rules in evaluative and operational senses does not mean that you can say what the rules are.

You acquire a working knowledge of your native language simply through being exposed to it from early childhood: nobody taught you, for example, where to position *much*. You study grammar, however, if you want to be able to analyse your language. The analytic grammar makes explicit the knowledge of the rules with which you operate when you use the language. There is a clear difference between the operational grammar and the analytic grammar. After all, many languages have never been analysed and some have been analysed only relatively recently. People were speaking and writing English long before the first English grammars appeared at the end of the sixteenth century.

1.2 Grammar and other aspects of language

Linguistic communications are channelled mainly through our senses of sound and sight. Grammar is the central component of language. It mediates between the system of sounds or of written symbols, on the one hand, and the system of meaning, on the other. **Phonology** is the usual term for the sound system in the language: the distinctive sound units and the ways which they may be combined. **Orthography** parallels phonology in that it deals with the writing system in

the language: the distinctive written symbols and their possible combinations. **Semantics** is concerned with the system of meanings in the language: the meanings of words and the combinatory meanings of larger units.

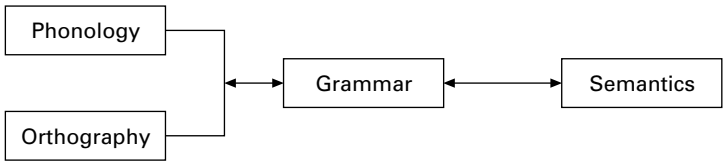

Three other aspects of language description are often distinguished: phonetics, morphology, and pragmatics. **Phonetics** deals with the physical characteristics of the sounds in the language and how the sounds are produced. Sounds and letters combine to form words or parts of words. **Morphology** refers to the set of rules that describe the structure of words. The word *computer*, for example, consists of two parts: the base *compute* (used separately as a verb) and the suffix *-er* (found in other nouns derived from verbs, e.g. *blender*). **Pragmatics** is concerned with the use of particular utterances within particular situations. For example, *Will you join our group?* is a question that, depending on the speaker's intention, is either a request for information or a request for action.

For descriptive purposes, it is convenient to deal with the components of language separately, but because of the central place of grammar in the language system, it is sometimes necessary to refer to the other components when we discuss the grammar.

1.3 Grammars of English

There are many grammars of English, that is to say books describing English grammar. They differ in how much of the grammar they cover and in how they set out the rules. There are also some differences in the categorization and terminology they use. Nevertheless, most categories and terms are widely shared, deriving from a long tradition of grammatical description.

The grammatical analysis in this book follows the approach found in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. First published in 1985, that is a reference work on contemporary English grammar that contains nearly 1800 pages. Future reference works of this scope are likely to be even longer. Despite the immense amount of research on contemporary English in the last few decades, many grammatical phenomena have yet to be discovered and described.

1.4 National varieties

English is the first language of over 300 million people. Most of them live in the United States of America, which has about 230 million native speakers of English,

and the United Kingdom, with about 54 million. Other countries with large numbers of English native speakers that also constitute the majority of the population are Canada (about 16 million), Australia (about 19 million), the Irish Republic (about 3.8 million), and New Zealand (about 3.9 million). Some countries have concentrations of English native speakers, though they do not constitute the majority of the population; for example, South Africa has about 1.6 million native English speakers apart from about 8.5 million bilingual speakers of English. While recognizing that these people all speak English, we can distinguish the national varieties they use as American English, British English, Canadian English, and so on.

English is a second language for over 300 million people who speak another language as their native tongue but also use English in communicating with their compatriots. For example, the first language for about 30 per cent of Canadians is French and for millions of Americans it is Spanish. English is also the second language in countries where only a small minority speak it as their tongue but where it is the official language or joint official language for government business. Among these countries is India, where it is estimated that about 21 million people speak English fluently as their second language (though these constitute only about 3 per cent of India's vast population). Other countries where English is the official or joint official language include Gambia, Ghana, Nigeria, the Philippines, Puerto Rico (where about 1.3 million inhabitants are bilingual in Spanish and English), Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. Since the English in each of these countries has certain distinctive features, it is reasonable to refer to such national varieties as, for example, Indian English or Nigerian English.

Finally, English is studied as the primary foreign language in most other countries. One estimate is that over 150 million children are currently studying English as a foreign language in primary or secondary schools. Its popularity lies in its value as an international language. A knowledge of English is perceived in most parts of the world as essential for international communication in commerce and tourism, in economic and military aid, and in scientific and technological literature.

1.5 Standard and non-standard English

In addition to differences between national varieties of English, there are differences within each national variety. Each has a number of **dialects**. In countries where the majority speak English as their first language one dialect is used nationally for official purposes. It is called **Standard English**.

Standard English is the national dialect that generally appears in print. It is taught in schools, and students are expected to use it in their essays. It is the norm for dictionaries and grammars. We expect to find it in official printed communications, such as letters from government officials, solicitors, and accountants. We expect to hear it in national news broadcasts and documentary programmes on radio or television.

Within each national variety the standard dialect is relatively homogeneous in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation. Pronunciation is a different matter, since there is no equivalent standard accent (type of pronunciation). For each national variety there are regional accents, related to a geographical area, and social accents, related to the educational, socio-economic, and ethnic backgrounds of the speakers. In British English, Received Pronunciation (RP) is a non-regional social accent associated with public school education but it is not regarded as a standard accent to be learned in schools throughout the country. It is spoken by about 3 per cent of the population in Britain.

Standard English has prestige because people connect it with education and with higher-income groups. It is not intrinsically better than other dialects, though many believe it is. One of its major advantages is that it has developed a range of styles to suit different kinds of uses of the language, particularly in writing.

Non-standard dialects tend to be restricted to people from a particular region or from a particular social group or to social groups within a region. Many people speak more than one dialect, perhaps using different dialects at home and at work.

1.6 Variation according to use

Language also varies according to context and communicative purpose. For example, newspapers, cookery books, scientific papers, emails, poetry, and fiction all have distinctive language features. Newspapers have a distinctive layout, headlines are often highly compressed (*Banks warned on student loans*), cookery books tend to use many imperatives (*Mix the ingredients*), scientific papers use many passive constructions (*A colourless gas is produced*). These varieties are known as **registers**, that is, varieties of language associated with specific uses and communicative purposes.

Some variation depends on the medium, that is, the channel of communication. There is a major distinction between spoken and written language. Conversation, the most common type of speech, involves immediate interchange between the participants, who convey their reactions either in words or through facial expressions and bodily movements. There is more spontaneity in conversation than in writing; self-correction occurs in the flow of conversation, whereas it is eliminated through editing in writing. Writing needs to be more explicit, since obscurities and misunderstandings cannot be removed immediately. People feel more committed to what they write because of the potential permanence of the written communication. The differences in the nature of the media is reflected in the greater concision that is possible in writing and in the greater care that writers take over their choice of words.

Language also varies according to the attitude of the speaker or writer towards the listener or reader, towards the topic, and towards the purpose of communication. We can select from features that range from the most formal to the most informal. For instance, *comprehend* and *strive* are more formal than their respective

equivalents, *understand* and *try*. Similarly, *This is the student to whom I gave the message* is more formal than *This is the student I gave the message to*.

Grammatical variation across spoken and written registers is a central theme of the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* by Douglas Biber *et al.* (1999). In Chapter 10 we examine the grammatical features of a range of English registers, including conversations, sports commentaries, emails, and literary texts.

1.7 Descriptive rules and prescriptive rules

At the beginning of this chapter I said that the rules of grammar state which combinations of words are possible in the language and which are not. My example of an impossible sentence in English was *Home computers now much are cheaper*. The rule that disallows that sentence is a **descriptive** rule, a rule that describes how people use their language. The validity of this descriptive rule depends on whether it is true that *Home computers are now much cheaper* is a possible English sentence and *Home computers now much are cheaper* is an impossible English sentence. The evidence to validate this rule is drawn from the knowledge that speakers of English have of their language as well as from samples of their actual use of the language. Of course the descriptive rule must be accurately formulated to make the valid distinctions.

Sometimes people speaking the same dialect disagree in their evaluation of particular sentences. For example, some speakers of standard British English find acceptable *I demand that she gives her reasons*; others prefer or require a different form of the verb in the *that*-clause, either *that she give her reasons* or *that she should give her reasons*.

A number of differences in the use of standard British English have acquired social importance. Some speakers of the standard dialect consider that certain usages mark their user as uneducated. Rules that specify which usages should be adopted or avoided are called **prescriptive** rules. Examples of prescriptive rules are:

- Don't use *like* as a conjunction, as in *He speaks like his father does*.
- Don't use *between you and I*.
- Don't split an infinitive, as in *to actually feel*.
- Don't end a sentence with a preposition.

Speakers of the standard dialect tend to pay greater attention to prescriptive rules when they are on their best behaviour, in particular when they are writing in a formal style.

1.8 Why study grammar?

The study of language is a part of general knowledge. We study the complex working of the human body to understand ourselves; the same reason should attract us to studying the marvellous complexity of human language.

Everybody has attitudes towards the English language and its varieties, and has opinions on specific features. These attitudes and opinions affect relationships

with other people. If you understand the nature of language, you will realize the grounds for your linguistic prejudices and perhaps moderate them; you will also more clearly assess linguistic issues of public concern, such as worries about the state of the language or what to do about the teaching of immigrants. Studying the English language has a more obvious practical application: it can help you to use the language more effectively.

In the study of language, grammar occupies a central position. But there is also a practical reason to emphasize the study of grammar. It is easy to learn to use dictionaries by yourself to find the pronunciation, spelling, or meanings of words, but it is difficult to consult grammar books without a considerable knowledge of grammar.

There are several applications of grammatical study: (1) A recognition of grammatical structures is often essential for punctuation; (2) A study of one's native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language; (3) A knowledge of grammar is a help in the interpretation of literary as well as nonliterary texts, since the interpretation of a passage sometimes depends crucially on grammatical analysis; (4) A study of the grammatical resources of English is useful in composition: in particular, it can help you to evaluate the choices available to you when you come to revise an earlier written draft.

This book provides a survey of the grammar of standard British English, with sets of exercises at the end of each major section. It also includes applications to punctuation, usage problems, writing style, and the analysis of a range of linguistic registers. It ends with an appendix on spelling, and a glossary of terms used in the book.

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

*Exercise 1.1 What is grammar? (cf. 1.1)

Which of the combinations of words below seem to you to be possible English sentences? If you are not sure, say so. Where there is a problem with a sentence, try to pinpoint it and then change the sentence to avoid the problem.

1. Whether these momentous changes will do what he wants them to do is another matter.
2. We think that it is hot to sit in the sun.
3. He could not understand why he lost the job, and I had to explain to him that it was since he was lazy.
4. Fortunately, my deputy can well attend the committee meeting in my place.
5. The large hall was containing over 500 people.

6. Surprisingly, mushrooms are unusual to find at this time of the year.
7. A good time was had by all of us.
8. All the children watched television until too tired to do so any more.
9. Robert allowed himself to be persuaded to undertake the unpleasant task.
10. We weren't sure if or not we were invited.
11. There is currently a tendency that I do not know how strong it is towards discounting the effects of pollution from factories.
12. Until he came out of his corner to face a man who many believed to be the most awesome figure in the modern history of the heavy-weight division, it was not difficult to understand why the contest was of so little interest to prospective punters.

Exercise 1.2 What is grammar? (cf. 1.1)

Informally describe how the (a) sentences differ from the (b) sentences.

1a. Britain's worst terrorist incident is being investigated by its smallest police force.
1b. Is Britain's worst terrorist incident being investigated by its smallest police force?
2a. The president may be unable either to fulfil expectations or to contain expectations.
2b. The president may be unable either to fulfil expectations or to contain them.
3a. The party lost the will to uphold its rule at any cost.
3b. The party did not lose the will to uphold its rule at any cost.
4a. You are the one that everybody respects and admires.
4b. Be the one that everybody respects and admires.
5a. The child was bound to get excited from time to time.
5b. The children were bound to get excited from time to time.
6a. Sleepwalkers can never remember the sleepwalking episode when they wake up in the morning.
6b. Sleepwalkers can never remember the sleepwalking episode when waking up in the morning.
7a. We have never encountered so much resistance.
7b. Never have we encountered so much resistance.
8a. A professor of civil engineering has written a history of the pencil.
8b. A history of the pencil has been written by a professor of civil engineering.
9a. What she means is easy to see.
9b. It is easy to see what she means.
10a. Army privates are trained to obey orders, police constables are trained to exercise judgement under pressure.
10b. Army privates are trained to obey orders, police constables to exercise judgement under pressure.

*Exercise 1.3 Grammars of English (cf. 1.3)

Look up *one* of the following topics in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, and J. Svartvik (Longman, 1985). Use the index to find places in the grammar where the topic is discussed, and follow up cross-references if necessary. Give a brief oral report on the topic in class.

1. cataphoric pronoun
2. transferred negation
3. absolute clause
4. double genitive
5. resultant object
6. subjective genitive
7. attitudinal past
8. prop *it* subject
9. historic present
10. hypothetical condition
11. style disjunct
12. echo question
13. downtoner
14. mandative subjunctive
15. deixis
16. focus of negation
17. distributive
18. performative
19. rhetorical condition
20. vocative

Exercise 1.4 Descriptive rules and prescriptive rules (cf. 1.7)

Indicate whether the rules given below are descriptive rules or prescriptive rules.

1. In English, only nouns and pronouns display distinctions in case.
2. The superlative adjective is required for more than two items or sets of items: *the best of the (three) groups*, not *the better of the three groups*.
3. Where there is a choice between *if* and *whether*, prefer *whether* in formal English, as in *I am not sure whether she is at home*.
4. Definite and indefinite articles come before their nouns in English, as in *the library* and *a restaurant*.
5. Words are frequently converted from one part of speech to another; for example, the noun *walk* from the verb *walk*.
6. Conditional clauses sometimes begin with an auxiliary and have no conjunction, as in *Had I known, I would have telephoned you*.
7. The preposition *but* should be followed by an objective pronoun, as in *nobody but me*.
8. The most common way of expressing future meaning is with *will*.
9. Adverbs such as *very* modify adjectives (e.g. *very good*) and other adverbs (e.g. *very carefully*).
10. When you are writing formally, use the subjective pronoun after the verb *be*, as in *It was he who told me the news*, not *It was him who told me the news*.

*Exercise 1.5 Rules and variation (cf. Chapter 1)

Write an essay on one of the topics listed below. The following reference books are excellent starting points:

Crystal, David *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.
McArthur, Tom (ed.) *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.

1. Sexist language
2. Politically correct language
3. What is good English?
4. Bad language
5. Plain English
6. Slang
7. Jargon
8. Idioms
9. Colloquialisms
10. Clichés
11. Doublespeak
12. Euphemism
13. Rhyming slang
14. Received pronunciation
15. Characteristics of my dialect
16. Does accent matter?
17. Spelling reform
18. British English and American English
19. Language play: puns, palindromes, and spoonerisms
20. Foreign borrowings in English

Part I

The Grammar

2

The Sentence

2.1 What is a sentence?

Grammar deals with the rules for combining words into larger units. The largest unit that is described in grammar is normally the **sentence**. However, defining a 'sentence' is notoriously difficult, for the reasons we'll now discuss.

It is sometimes said that a sentence expresses a complete thought. This is a **notional** definition: it defines a term by the notion or idea it conveys. The difficulty with this definition lies in fixing what is meant by a 'complete thought'. There are notices, for example, that seem to be complete in themselves but are not generally regarded as sentences: *Exit*, *Danger*, *50 mph speed limit*.

On the other hand, there are sentences that clearly consist of more than one thought. Here is one relatively simple example:

> This week marks the 300th anniversary of the publication of Sir Isaac Newton's *Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica*, a fundamental work for the whole of modern science and a key influence on the philosophy of the European Enlightenment.

How many 'complete thoughts' are there in this sentence? We should at least recognize that the part after the comma introduces two additional points about Newton's book: (1) that it is a fundamental work for the whole of modern science, and (2) that it was a key influence on the philosophy of the European Enlightenment. Yet this example would be acknowledged by all as a single sentence, and it is written as a single sentence.

We can try another approach by defining a sentence as a string of words beginning with a capital (upper case) letter and ending with a full stop (period). This is a **formal** definition: it defines a term by the form or shape of what the term refers to. We can at once see that as it stands this definition is inadequate, since (1) many sentences end with a question mark or an exclamation mark, and (2) capital letters are used for names, and full stops are often used in abbreviations. Even if we amend the definition to take account of these objections, we still find strings of words in newspaper headlines, titles, and notices that everyone would recognize as sentences even though they do not end with a full stop, a question mark, or an exclamation mark:

Trees May Be a Source of Pollution
An Irish Airman Foresees his Death (title of poem)
Do not enter

But the most serious objection is that the definition is directed only towards **orthographic** sentences; that is, sentences that appear in the written language. Spoken sentences, of course, do not have capital letters and full stops.

It is in fact far more difficult to determine the limits of sentences in natural conversation, to say where sentences begin and end. That is so partly because people may change direction as they speak and partly because they tend to make heavy use of connectors such as *and*, *but*, *so*, and *then*. Here is a typical example of a speaker who strings sentences together with *and*. The symbol <,> denotes a pause.

I'd been working away this week trying to clear up <,> the backlog of mail caused by me being three weeks away <,> and I thought I was doing marvellously <,> and at about <,> six o'clock last night <,> I was sorting through <,> stuff on the desk and I discovered a fat pile of stuff <,> all carefully opened and documented by Sally that I hadn't even seen

How many orthographic sentences correspond to the speaker's story? There is no one correct answer. In writing it we have a choice: we could punctuate it as one sentence or we could split it into two or more sentences, each of the later sentences beginning with *and*.

Grammarians are not unduly worried about the difficulties in defining the sentence. Their approach to the question is formal because they are interested in grammatical form. Like many people who are not grammarians, they are generally confident of recognizing sentences, and they specify the possible patterns for the sentences. Combinations of words that conform to those patterns are then **grammatical** sentences.

2.2 Irregular sentences and non-sentences

Sentences that conform to the major patterns (cf. 3.13) are **regular** sentences, and they are the type that will generally concern us in this book. Sentences that do not conform to the major patterns are **irregular** sentences.

If I ask you to write down the first sentences that come into your mind, you are likely to produce regular sentences. Here are some regular sentences in various major patterns:

David and Helen have three children.
The liquid smelled spicy to Justin.
Some people give their children a daily dose of vitamins.
About a million visitors come to our city every summer.

Most irregular sentences are **fragmentary** sentences. These leave out words that we can easily supply, usually from the preceding verbal context. Here is a typical example in an exchange between two speakers:

A: Where did you put the letter?
B: In the top drawer.

We interpret B's reply as *I put the letter in the top drawer*, and that reconstructed sentence would be regular. Similarly, the newspaper headline *Washington abuzz over missing intern* corresponds to the regular *Washington is abuzz over a missing intern*. Fragmentary sentences can therefore be viewed as directly derivable in their interpretation from regular sentences.

Finally, we often say or write things that are not grammatical sentences. These **non-sentences** may simply be mistakes. But they may also be perfectly normal, although they cannot be analysed grammatically as sentences. Normal non-sentences include such common expression as *Hello!*; *Yes*; *No*; *So long!*; *Thanks!*; *Cheers!*; and they include many headlines, headings, titles, labels and notices:

Traffic Chaos (newspaper headline)
On the Nature of the Model (section heading in book)
The Captain and the Kings (title of book)
Naming of Parts (title of poem)
Pure Lemon Juice
No Smoking

In the next chapter we will be looking at the patterns of regular sentences, but first I have a few more general things to say about sentences.

2.3 Simple and multiple sentences

Here are two sentences placed next to each other:

[1] The inquiry left in its wake a number of casualties. I was one of them.

I can combine the two sentences in [1] merely by putting *and* between them:

[2] The inquiry left in its wake a number of casualties, *and* I was one of them.

I can also combine them by putting a connecting word in front of the first sentence:

[3] *When* the inquiry left in its wake a number of casualties, I was one of them.

I can make a small change in the second sentence:

[4] The inquiry left in its wake a number of casualties, I *being* one of them.

A sentence or a sentence-like construction contained within a sentence is called a **clause**. Constructions like *I being one of them* in [4] resemble sentences in that they can be analysed to a large extent in similar ways (cf. 6.8). The sentences in [2], [3], and [4] therefore all consist of two clauses. (Strictly speaking, the separate sentences in [1] are also clauses, but since they have only one clause each, it is convenient to refer to them just as sentences.)

A sentence that does not contain another clause within it is a **simple sentence**. If it contains one or more clauses, it is a **multiple sentence**.

Here are some more examples of multiple sentences with connecting words:

You can't insist *that* your children love each other.
The building was emptied *before* the bomb-disposal squad was called.
When we returned three hours later, no wolves were in sight.
My father always hoped *that* I would become a doctor *and* that must have been *why* he took me along *when* he visited his patients.

We will be looking more closely at multiple sentences in Chapter 6. Meanwhile, I will be using simple sentences to illustrate general matters about sentences.

2.4 Sentence types

There are four major types of sentences:

1. **Declaratives** (or **declarative sentences**)

   She was attracted to an open-air job.
   The new proposals have galvanized the normally disparate community into a potent fighting force.

2. **Interrogatives** (or **interrogative sentences**)

   Do you have internet access at home?
   Where will you be going for your holiday?

3. **Imperatives** (or **imperative sentences**)

   Open the door for me.
   Take a seat.

4. **Exclamatives** (or **exclamative sentences**)

   How well you look!
   What a good friend you are!

These four sentence types differ in their form (cf. 6.2–4). They correspond in general to four major uses:

1. **Statements** are used chiefly to convey information.
2. **Questions** are used chiefly to request information.
3. **Directives** are used chiefly to request action.
4. **Exclamations** are used chiefly to express strong feeling.

It is usual to refer to interrogatives more simply as questions.

We will be discussing these sentence types and their uses in a later chapter (cf. 6.1–5). Declaratives are the basic type and I will therefore generally be using them for illustrative purposes.

2.5 Positive and negative sentences

Sentences are either **positive** or **negative**. If an auxiliary ('helping') verb is present, we can usually change a positive sentence into a negative sentence by inserting *not* or *n't* after the auxiliary. In the following examples, the auxiliaries are *has*, *is*, and *can*:

Positive: Nancy *has* been working here for over a year.
Negative: Nancy *has not* been working here for over a year.

Positive: Dan *is* paying for the meal.
Negative: Dan *isn't* paying for the meal.

Positive: I *can* tell the difference.
Negative: I *can't* tell the difference.

The rules for inserting *not* and *n't* are somewhat complicated. I will return to them later (cf. 3.3f).

A sentence may be negative because of some other negative word:

She *never* had a secretary.
Nobody talked to us.
This is *no* ordinary painting.

Most sentences are positive, and I will therefore generally be using positive sentences for my examples.

2.6 Active and passive sentences

Sentences are either **active** or **passive**. We can often choose whether to make a sentence active or passive (cf. 4.15). The choice involves differences in position and differences in the form of the verb:

Active: Charles Dickens wrote many novels.
Passive: Many novels were written by Charles Dickens.

Charles Dickens and *many novels* are at opposite ends of the two sentences. In the passive sentence *by* comes before *Charles Dickens*, and the active *wrote* corresponds to the longer *were written*.

Here are two further examples of pairs of active and passive sentences:

Active: Manchester United beat Liverpool at Old Trafford.
Passive: Liverpool were beaten by Manchester United at Old Trafford.

Active: The Rambert Dance Company won the country's largest arts prize, the Prudential Award.
Passive: The country's largest arts prize, the Prudential Award, was won by the Rambert Dance Company.

Actives are far more numerous than passives. Their relative frequency varies with register. For example, passives tend to be heavily used in formal scientific writing.

The example sentences in the chapters that follow will generally be active rather than passive.

EXERCISES

Exercise 2.1 Sentence types (cf. 2.4)

Identify whether each sentence below is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamative.

1. Move right to the front of the bus.
2. What have you got to say for yourself?
3. What a good time we had!
4. How will they find their way to the station?
5. How much weight you've lost!
6. How much does it cost?
7. It's been nice meeting you.
8. Will your parents be coming with you?
9. If it doesn't rain, I'll see you tonight.
10. Pass the bottle, please.
11. Take it!
12. How can I help?

Exercise 2.2 Positive and negative sentences (cf. 2.5)

Make the positive sentences below negative and the negative sentences positive.

1. We accept credit cards.
2. I'm taking my car to work today.

3. The army is different from the police force.
4. The elders of the ruling party were not shocked at the election results.
5. Nobody can tell the difference.
6. The country has changed drastically.
7. Diet and longevity don't seem to be linked.
8. Do not hold your breath.
9. Africa will not find it as easy as America to apply a successful programme.
10. He does not fully understand their objections.

Exercise 2.3 Active and passive sentences (cf. 2.6)

Identify whether each sentence below is active or passive.

1. The Prime Minister postponed a press briefing last night.
2. Five demonstrators were shot before the meeting.
3. The confession was obtained in breach of the police codes of practice.
4. Most of the tests on the Roman treasure have been carried out at the Institute of Archaeology by one of its honorary research associates.
5. The astronomers expect to discover life on another planet.
6. The dispute changed the whole of world history.
7. A sharp fall in profits is being predicted.
8. Their hopes have been dashed once again.
9. A developer has recently obtained permission to turn some 160 acres of farmland into a golf course.
10. The motion was defeated by a large majority.

3

The Parts of the Simple Sentence

3.1 Structure, form, function

Consider this sentence:

[1] A heavy snowfall has blocked the mountain passes.

There are various ways of analysing this. One way is to say that the sentence contains three units:

A heavy snowfall
has blocked
the mountain passes

We cannot simply arrange the units in any way that we like. For example, [1a] below is not an English sentence:

[1a] Has blocked the mountain passes a heavy snowfall.

Sentence [1] has a **structure** in that there are rules that decide the units that can co-occur in the sentence and the order in which they can occur.

The three units in [1] are **phrases**. Phrases also have a structure. We cannot rearrange the internal order of the three phrases in [1]. These are not English phrases: *heavy snowfall a*, *blocked has*, *the passes mountain*.

A heavy snowfall and *the mountain passes* are noun phrases (cf. 4.2) and *has blocked* is a verb phrase (cf. 4.11). We characterize them as these types of phrases because of their structure: in the noun phrases a noun is the main word, while in the verb phrase a verb is the main word. That kind of characterization describes the type of structure for each of the three units.

We can also look at the three units from a different point of view; their **function**, or how they are used in a particular sentence. For example, in [1] *A heavy snowfall* is the **subject** of the sentence and *the mountain passes* is the **direct object** of the sentence (cf. 3.5–7):

[1] *A heavy snowfall* has blocked *the mountain passes*.

However, in [2] below *a heavy snowfall* is the direct object and in [3] *the mountain passes* is the subject:

[2] They encountered *a heavy snowfall*.
[3] *The mountain passes* are now open.

We therefore see that identical phrases may have different functions in different sentences.

Turning back to [1], we can combine the descriptions by structure and function. *A heavy snowfall* is a noun phrase functioning as subject, and *the mountain passes* is a noun phrase functioning as direct object. In this chapter we will be examining the function of the phrases, not their structure. In the next section, we will take a preliminary look at the functions of the parts of a sentence.

3.2 Subject, predicate, verb

It is traditional to divide the sentence into two main constituents: the subject and the predicate. The predicate consists of the verb and any other elements of the sentence apart from the subject:

subject	**predicate**
I	learned all this much later.
The chef	is a young man with broad experience of the world.
The fate of the land	parallels the fate of the culture.

The most important constituent of the predicate is the verb. Indeed, it is the most important constituent in the sentence, since regular sentences may consist of only a verb: imperatives such as *Help!* and *Look!* The verb of the sentence may consist of more than one word: *could have been imagining*. The **main verb** in this verb phrase comes last: *imagining*. The verbs that come before the main verb are **auxiliary verbs** ('helping verbs'), or simply **auxiliaries**: *could have been*.

I have been following traditional practice in using the word *verb* in two senses:

1. Like the subject, the verb is a constituent of sentence structure. In [1] the verb of the sentence is *stroked* and in [2] it is *has been working*:

   [1] Anthony *stroked* his beard.
   [2] Ellen *has been working* all day.

2. A verb is a word, just as a noun is a word. In this sense, [2] contains three verbs: the auxiliaries *has* and *been* and the main verb *working*. The three verbs in [2] form a unit, the unit being a verb phrase (cf. 4.11).

3.3 Operator

In section 3.2 I divided the sentence into two parts: the subject and the predicate. I then pointed to the verb as the most important constituent of the predicate.

We can now identify an element in the verb that has important functions in the sentence: the **operator**. Another way of analysing the sentence is to say that it consists of three constituents: the subject, the operator, and the rest of the predicate.

As a first approximation, I will say that the operator is the first or only auxiliary in the verb of the sentence. In [1] the verb is *could have been imagining*:

[1] You *could have been imagining it*.

The operator is *could*, the first auxiliary. In [2] the verb is *can get*:

[2] Karen *can get* to the heart of a problem.

The operator is *can*, the only auxiliary.

The operator plays an essential role in the formation of certain sentence structures:

1. We form most types of questions by interchanging the positions of the subject and the operator:

   [1] You *could* have been imagining it.
   [1a] *Could* you have been imagining it?

   This is known as **subject-operator inversion**.

2. We form negative sentences by putting *not* after the operator. In informal style, *not* is often contracted to *n't*, and in writing *n't* is attached to the operator; some operators have very different positive and negative forms (e.g. *will* in [4] and *won't* in [4a]):

   [3] Barbara and Charles *are* getting married in April.
   [3a] Barbara and Charles $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\textit{are not}\\ \textit{aren't}\end{array}\right\}$ getting married in April.
   [4] Nancy *will* be staying with us.
   [4a] Nancy $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\textit{will not}\\ \textit{won't}\end{array}\right\}$ be staying with us.

3. Operators can carry the stress in speech to convey certain kinds of emphasis:

   [5] A: Finish your homework.
   B: I HAVE finished it.
   [6] A: I am afraid to tell my parents.
   B: You MUST tell them.

4. Operators are used in various kinds of reduced clauses to substitute for the predicate:

[7] A: Are you leaving?
B: Yes, I *am*.
[8] Karen and Tom haven't seen the video, but Jill *has*.
[9] I'll take one if you *will*.

3.4 *Do*, *Be*, *Have*

In 3.3 I identified the operator as the first or only auxiliary. But many sentences have no auxiliary, as in [1]:

[1] Terry *works* for a public authority.

Here there is only the main verb *works*. If we want to form the structures specified in 3.3, we have to introduce the **dummy operator** *do* with the appropriate endings (*do*, *does*, *did*):

[1a] *Does* Terry work for a public authority?
[1b] Terry *doesn't* work for a public authority.
[1c] Terry *does* work for a public authority, and her sister *does* too.

The auxiliary *do* in these sentences is a dummy operator because it is introduced to perform the functions of an operator in the absence of 'true' operators such as *can* and *will*.

There are two operators that are not auxiliaries. The verb *be* is used as an operator even when it is the main verb, provided that it is the only verb:

[2] It *was* an awful system.
[2a] *Was* it an awful system?

Under the same condition, the main verb *have* is optionally used as an operator:

[3] Nora *has* just one daughter.
[3a] *Has* Nora just one daughter?

But with *have* there is a choice. We can introduce the dummy operator as with other verbs (*Does Nora have just one daughter?*) or substitute *get* as the main verb (*Has Nora got just one daughter?*).

3.5 Subject and verb

Regular sentences consist of a subject and a predicate, and the predicate contains at least a verb (cf. 3.2). Here are some sentences consisting of just the subject and the verb:

subject	**verb**
A door	opened.
The sun	is setting.
The baby	was crying.
You	must leave.
Many of us	have protested.
They	have been drinking.

Sentences usually contain more than just the subject and the verb. Here are several examples, with the subject (S) and the verb (V) italicized and labelled:

His black boots (S) *had* (V) pointed toes and fancy stitching.
It (S) *rained* (V) every day of our vacation.
Every kind of medical equipment (S) *was* (V) in short supply.

The subject need not come first in the sentence:

Eventually the *managing director* (S) *intervened* (V) in the dispute.
Over the years *she* (S) *had collected* (V) numerous prizes for academic achievement.

Sometimes, a word or phrase comes between the subject and the verb:

They (S) often *stay* (V) with us at weekends.

Or there is an interruption between parts of the verb:

We (S) *can* (V) never *thank* (V) this country enough.

The easiest way to identify the subject in a declarative sentence is to turn this sentence into a *yes–no* question (one expecting the answer *yes* or *no*). The operator (op) and the subject change places:

[1] *The baby* (S) *has* (op) been crying.
[1a] *Has* (op) *the baby* (S) been crying?
[2] *Every kind of medical equipment* (S) *was* (op) in short supply.
[2a] *Was* (op) *every kind of medical equipment* (S) in short supply?
[3] Eventually *the managing director* (S) intervened in the dispute.
[3a] *Did* (op) *the managing director* (S) eventually intervene in the dispute?

It may be necessary to turn other types of sentences into declarative sentences to identify the subject for this test and the next test. For example, the subject in [1a] is that part of the sentence that changes place with the operator when the question is turned into a declarative sentence.

Another way of identifying the subject of a declarative sentence is by asking a question introduced by *who* or *what* followed by the verb (without subject–operator inversion). The subject is the constituent that *who* or *what* questions:

[4] *Mr Bush* (S) *talked* (V) by telephone with President Jiang Zemin of China.
[4a] *Who* (S) *talked* (V) by telephone with President Jiang Zemin of China?
– *Mr Bush*.
[5] *Tourism* (S) *has become* (V) the fastest growing industry in our country.
[5a] *What* (S) *has become* (V) the fastest growing industry in our country?
– *Tourism*.

We can identify the verb of the sentence because it changes its form or contains auxiliaries to express differences in time (for example, past and present) or attitude (for example, possibility, permission, and obligation). Here are some examples with the verb *predict*:

predicts	was predicting	might predict
predicted	may predict	could have predicted
is predicting	will predict	should have been predicting

We could use any of these forms of *predict* as the verb in this sentence:

He *predicted* (V) another world recession.

3.6 Subject

Many grammatical rules refer to the subject. Here are some examples, including several that I have mentioned earlier:

1. There are rules for the position of the subject. The subject normally comes before the verb in declaratives, but in questions it comes after the operator:

   [1] *They* (S) *accepted* (V) full responsibility.
   [1a] *Did* (op) *they* (S) *accept* (V) full responsibility?

   The subject comes before the verb even in questions if *who* or *what* or an interrogative phrase such as *which person* is the subject:

   [1b] *Who* (S) *accepted* (V) full responsibility?

2. The subject is normally absent in imperatives:

   Help (V) me with the luggage.

3. Most verbs in the present have a distinctive form ending in *–s* when the subject is singular and refers to something or someone other than the speaker or the person or persons being addressed:

The older child (singular S) *feeds* (singular V) the younger ones.
The older children (plural S) *feed* (plural V) the younger ones.
The senator (singular S) *has* (singular V) a clear moral position on racial equality.
The senators (plural S) *have* (plural V) a clear moral position on racial equality.

4. Some **pronouns** (words like *I*, *you*, *she*, *he*, *they*) have a distinctive form when they function as subject of the sentence or of clauses in the sentence:

   She (S) knows *me* well.
   I (S) know *her* well, and *they* (S) know *her* well too.

5. The subject determines the form of **reflexive pronouns** (those ending in *-self*; such as *herself*, *ourselves*, *themselves*) that appear in the same clause:

   I (S) hurt *myself* badly.
   The child cried when *he* (S) hurt *himself* badly.
   You (S) can look at *yourself* in the mirror.
   She (S) can look at *herself* in the mirror.

6. When we turn an active sentence into a passive sentence (cf. 2.6) we change the subjects:

   Active: *The police* (S) called *the bomb-disposal squad*.
   Passive: *The bomb-disposal squad* (S) was called by *the police*.

   We can also omit the subject of the active sentence when we form the passive sentence, and indeed we generally do so:

   Passive: *The bomb-disposal squad* was called.

3.7 Transitive verbs and direct object

If a main verb requires a **direct object** to complete the sentence, it is a **transitive** verb. The term 'transitive' comes from the notion that a person (represented by the subject of the sentence) performs an action that affects some person or thing: there is a 'transition' of the action from the one to the other. Indeed, the direct object (dO) typically refers to a person or thing directly affected by the action described in the sentence:

Helen received *my email* (dO).
They ate *all the strawberries* (dO).
I dusted *the bookshelves in my bedroom* (dO).
Anthony stroked *his beard* (dO).

One way of identifying the direct object in a declarative sentence is by asking a question introduced by *who* or *what* followed by the operator and the subject. The object is the constituent that *who* or *what* questions:

[1] Carter has been photographing light bulbs lately.
[1a] *What* (dO) *has* (op) *Carter* (S) been photographing lately?
– *Light bulbs.*

[2] Sandra recorded the adverse effects of the changes.
[2a] *What* (dO) *did* (op) *Sandra* (S) record?
– *The adverse effects of the changes.*

[3] Don is phoning his mother.
[3a] *Who* (dO) *is* (op) *Don* (S) phoning?
– *His mother.*

Some grammatical rules refer to the direct object.

1. The direct object normally comes after the verb (but cf. 3.11).

   Carter *has been photographing* (V) *light bulbs* (dO) lately.

2. Some pronouns have a distinctive form when they function as direct object (cf. 3.6 (4)):

   She phoned *us* (dO) earlier this evening.
   We phoned *her* (dO) earlier this evening.

3. If the subject and direct object refer to the same person or thing, the direct object is a reflexive pronoun (cf. 3.6(5)):

   The children hid *themselves.*

4. When we turn an active sentence into a passive sentence, the direct object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence:

   Active: The tests revealed *traces of anthrax* (dO).
   Passive: *Traces of anthrax* (S) were revealed by the tests.

In this section I have discussed one basic sentence structure:

SVO: subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object

3.8 Linking verbs and subject complement

If a verb requires a subject complement (sC) to complete the sentence, the verb is a linking verb. The subject complement (underlined in the examples that follow) typically identifies or characterizes the person or thing denoted by the subject:

[1] Sandra is <u>my mother's name</u>.
[2] Your room must be <u>the one next to mine</u>.
[3] The upstairs tenant seemed <u>a reliable person</u>.
[4] A university is <u>a community of scholars</u>.

[5] The receptionist seemed very tired.
[6] You should be more careful.
[7] The distinction became quite clear.
[8] The corridor is too narrow.

The most common linking verb is *be*. Other common linking verbs (with examples of subject complements in parentheses) include *appear (the best plan)*, *become (my neighbour)*, *seem (obvious)*, *feel (foolish)*, *get (ready)*, *look (cheerful)*, *sound (strange)*. Subject complements are typically noun phrases (cf. 4.2), as in [1]–[4] above, or adjective phrases (cf. 4.21), as in [5]–[8] above.

We have now looked at two basic sentence structures:

(3.7) SVO: subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object
(3.8) SVC: subject + (linking) verb + (subject) complement

3.9 Intransitive verbs and adverbials

If a main verb does not require another element to complete it, the verb is **intransitive**:

[1] *I* (S) *agree* (V).
[2] *No cure* (S) *exists* (V).
[3] *They* (S) *are lying* (V).
[4] *The protestors* (S) *were demonstrating* (V).

We have now seen three basic sentence structures:

(3.7) SVO: subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object
(3.8) SVC: subject + (linking) verb + (subject) complement
(3.9) SV: subject + (intransitive) verb

The structures are basic because we can always add optional elements to them. These optional elements are **adverbials**. Adverbials (A) convey a range of information about the situation depicted in the basic structure (cf. 3.14). In [1a] below, the adverbial *noisily* depicts the manner of the action, and the adverbial *outside the White House* indicates the place of the action:

[1a] The protestors were demonstrating *noisily* (A) *outside the White House* (A).

As [1a] indicates, a sentence may have more than one adverbial.

In [2a] *entirely* is an intensifier of *agree*, conveying the intensity of the agreeing:

[2a] I *entirely* (A) agree.

In [3a] *unfortunately* supplies the writer's comment:

[3a] *Unfortunately* (A), no cure exists.

In [4a] *therefore* points to a logical connection between the two sentences. The evidence stated in the first sentence is the reason for the assertion in the second sentence.

[4a] A reliable witness has testified that they were in Melbourne on the day they claimed to be in Sydney. *Therefore* (A) they are lying.

The sentences [1a]–[4a] with adverbials have the basic structure SV, which we also see in the parallel sentences [1]–[4] without adverbials. In [5] the basic structure is SVO and in [6] it is SVC:

[5] *For all its weaknesses* (A) the labyrinthine committee structure provides a useful function in disseminating information.
[6] Jade is plentiful *in this area* (A).

In [5] the adverbial has concessive force ('despite all its weaknesses') and in [6] it indicates place.

We should be careful to distinguish adverbials from adverbs (cf. 5.15). The adverbial, like the subject, is a sentence constituent; the adverb, like the noun, is a word.

3.10 Adverbial complement

I explained in section 3.9 that adverbials are optional elements in sentence structure. However, some elements that convey the same information as adverbials are obligatory because the main verb is not complete without them. Such obligatory elements are **adverbial complements** (aC).

Contrast [1] with [1a]:

[1] The protestors were demonstrating *outside the White House* (A).
[1a] The protestors were *outside the White House* (aC).

In [1] the sentence is complete without the adverbial, but in [1a] the sentence is not complete without the adverbial complement.

Typically, adverbial complements refer to space, that is, location or direction:

The city lies *225 miles north of Guatemala City* (aC).
The nearest inhabitants are *a five-day mule trip away* (aC).
George is getting *into his wife's car* (aC).
This road goes *to Madison* (aC).

Adverbial complements may convey other meanings:

Their work is *in the early stages* (aC).
The show will last *for three hours* (aC).
The children were *with their mother* (aC).
These letters are *for Cindy* (aC).

We can now add a fourth basic sentence structure to our set:

(3.7) SVO: subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object
(3.8) SVC: subject + (linking) verb + (subject) complement
(3.9) SV: subject + (intransitive) verb
(3.10) SVA: subject + verb + adverbial (complement)

The most common verb in the SVA structure is *be*.

3.11 Direct object and indirect object

We have seen that a transitive verb requires a direct object to complete the sentence (cf. 3.7). Some transitive verbs can have two objects: an **indirect object** followed by a direct object. The indirect object (iO) refers to a person indirectly affected by the action described in the sentence. The person generally receives something or benefits from something:

[1] Ruth gave *my son* (iO) *a birthday present* (dO).
[2] I can show *you* (iO) *my diploma* (dO).
[3] My friends will save *her* (iO) *a seat* (dO).
[4] You may ask *the speaker* (iO) *another question* (dO).

The indirect object is usually equivalent to a phrase introduced by *to* or *for*, but that phrase normally comes after the direct object. Sentences [1a]–[4a] parallel [1]–[4]:

[1a] Ruth gave a birthday present *to my son*.
[2a] I can show my diploma *to you*.
[3a] My friends will save a seat *for her*.
[4a] You may ask another question *of the speaker*.

The structures in [1]–[4] and those in [1a]–[4a] differ somewhat in their use, since there is a general tendency for the more important information to come at the end (cf. 9.2). For example, if the son has already been mentioned, but not the birthday present, we would expect [1] to be used rather than [1a], though in speech we can indicate the focus of information by giving it prominence in our intonation.

We can question the indirect object in a way similar to the questioning of the direct object:

[1b] *Who* (iO) did Ruth give a birthday present to?

The grammatical rules that refer to the direct object (cf. 3.7) also refer to the indirect object:

1. The indirect object comes after the verb:

   Ruth gave *my son* (iO) *a birthday present* (dO).

   Notice that the indirect object comes *before* the direct object.
2. Some pronouns have a distinctive form when they function as indirect object:

   I paid *her* (iO) the full amount.
   She paid *me* (iO) the full amount.

3. If the subject and indirect object refer to the same person, the indirect object is generally a reflexive pronoun (cf. 3.6(5)):

   The managing director paid *herself* (iO) a huge salary.

4. When we turn an active sentence into a passive sentence, the indirect object of the active sentence can become the subject of the passive sentence:

   The principal granted *Tony* (iO) an interview.
   Tony (S) was granted an interview.

   The direct object can also become the subject, but in that case the indirect object (if retained) is generally represented by a phrase introduced by *to* or *for*:

   An interview was granted *to Tony*.

We can now add a fifth basic sentence structure:

(3.7)	SVO:	subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object
(3.8)	SVC:	subject + (linking) verb + (subject) complement
(3.9)	SV:	subject + (intransitive) verb
(3.10)	SVA:	subject + verb + adverbial (complement)
(3.11)	SVOO:	subject + (transitive) verb + (indirect) object + (direct) object

3.12 Direct object and object complement

In 3.11 we have seen examples of transitive verbs that require two constituents: an indirect object and a direct object. In this section I introduce the two remaining structures, each of which consists of a subject, a transitive verb, a direct object, and a complement. In both structures the complement is related to the direct object.

In the first structure, the direct object is followed by an **object complement** (oC):

[1] His jokes made *the audience* (dO) *uneasy* (oC).
[2] I declared *the meeting* (dO) *open* (oC).
[3] The heat has turned *the milk* (dO) *sour* (oC).
[4] They elected *her* (dO) *their leader* (oC).

This SVOC structure parallels the SVC structure (cf. 3.8), but in the first structure the complement is related to the direct object and in the second it is related to the subject. Compare [1]–[4] with [1a]–[4a]:

[1a] *The audience* (S) is *uneasy* (sC).
[2a] *The meeting* (S) is *open* (sC).
[3a] *The milk* (S) is *sour* (sC).
[4a] *She* (S) is *their leader* (sC).

Finally, the direct object may be followed by an adverbial complement (aC) (cf. 3.10):

[5] You should *put* (V) *the chicken* (dO) in the *microwave* (aC).
[6] I *keep* (V) *my car* (dO) *outside the house* (aC).
[7] He *stuck* (V) *his hands* (dO) *in his pockets* (aC).

Just as the SVOC structure parallels the SVC structure, so this SVOA structure parallels the SVA structure.

[5a] *The chicken* (S) is *in the microwave* (aC).
[6a] *My car* (S) is *outside the house* (aC).
[7a] *His hands* (S) are *in his pockets* (aC).

We have now looked at four basic structures with transitive verbs and direct objects:

(3.7)	SVO:	subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object
(3.11)	SVOO:	subject + (transitive) verb + (indirect) object + (direct) object
(3.12)	SVOC:	subject + (transitive) verb + (direct) object + (object) complement
(3.12)	SVOA:	subject + (transitive) verb + direct (object) + adverbial (complement)

3.13 The basic sentence structures

I will now summarize what has been described so far in this chapter. The following elements (major sentence constituents) function in the basic sentence structures:

subject	S
verb	V
object	O – direct object dO
	O – indirect object iO
complement	C – subject complement sC
	C – object complement oC
	A – adverbial complement aC

These elements enter into the seven basic sentence structures:

1. SV: subject + intransitive verb (cf. 3.9)
   Someone (S) *is talking* (V).

2. SVA: subject + verb + adverbial complement (cf. 3.10)
   My parents (S) *are living* (V) *in Chicago* (aC).

3. SVC: subject + linking verb + subject complement (cf. 3.8)
   I (S) *feel* (V) *tired* (sC).

4. SVO: subject + transitive verb + direct object (cf. 3.7)
   We (S) *have finished* (V) *our work* (dO).

5. SVOO: subject + transitive verb + indirect object + direct object (cf. 3.11)
   She (S) *has given* (V) *me* (iO) *the letter* (dO).

6. SVOA: subject + transitive verb + direct object + adverbial complement (cf. 3.12)
   You (S) *can put* (V) *your coat* (dO) *in my bedroom* (aC).

7. SVOC: subject + transitive verb + direct object + object complement (cf. 3.12)
   You (S) *have made* (V) *me* (dO) *very happy* (oC).

The structures depend on the choice of the main verbs, regardless of any auxiliaries that may be present. The same verb (sometimes in somewhat different senses) may enter into different structures. Here are some examples:

SV: I have *eaten*.
SVO: I have *eaten* lunch.

SV: It smells.
SVC: It *smells* sweet.

SVC: He *felt* a fool.
SVO: He *felt* the material.

SVO: I *made* some sandwiches.
SVOO: I *made* them some sandwiches.

SVO: I have *named* my representative.
SVOC: I have *named* her my representative.

SV: The children are *growing*.
SVO: The children are *growing* carrots.
SVC: The children are *growing* hungry.

SVO: She *caught* me.
SVOO: She *caught* me a fish.
SVOA: She *caught* me off my guard.

3.14 The meanings of the sentence elements

The sentence elements are grammatical, not semantic, categories. However, they are associated with certain meanings. In this section I will illustrate some typical meanings.

Subject

1. **agentive**
   In sentences with a transitive or intransitive verb, the subject typically has an agentive role: the person that performs the action:

   Martha has switched on the television.
   Caroline is calling.

2. **identified**
   The identified role is typical of structures with a linking verb:

   Jeremy was my best friend.
   Doris is my sister-in-law.

3. **characterized**
   The characterized role is also typical of structures with a linking verb:

   This brand of coffee tastes better.
   Paul is an excellent student.

4. **affected**
   With intransitive verbs the subject frequently has the affected role: the person or thing directly affected by the action, but not intentionally performing the action:

   They are drowning.
   The water has boiled.

5. **'it'**
   Sometimes there is no participant. The subject function is then taken by *it*, which is there merely to fill the place of the subject:

It's raining.
It's already eleven o'clock.
It's too hot.
It's a long way to Miami.

Verb

The major distinction in meaning is between verbs that are *stative* and verbs that are *dynamic*.

Stative verbs introduce a quality attributed to the subject or a state of affairs:

I *am* a French citizen.
Their children *are* noisy.
She *has* two brothers.
I *heard* your alarm this morning.

Dynamic verbs introduce events. They refer to something that happens:

Her books *sell* well.
We *talked* about you last night.
Your ball has *broken* my window.
I *listened* to her respectfully.

Dynamic verbs, but not stative verbs, occur quite normally with the *-ing* form (cf. 4.12, 4.14):

Her books are *selling* well.
We were *talking* about you last night.
They have been *playing* in the yard.
She is *looking* at us.

When stative verbs are used with the *-ing* form, they have been transformed into dynamic verbs:

Their children are *being* noisy. ('behaving noisily')
I am *having* a party next Sunday evening.

Direct object

1. **affected**
   This is the typical role of the direct object. See **subject** (4) above.

   She shook *her head*.
   I threw *the note* on the floor.

2. **resultant**
   The direct object may refer to something that comes into existence as a result of the action:

   He's written *an account of his travels*.
   I'm knitting *a sweater* for myself.

3. **eventive**
   The direct object may refer to an event. The eventive object generally contains a noun that is derived from a verb. In typical use, the noun carries the main part of the meaning that is normally carried by the verb, and is preceded by a verb of general meaning, such as *do*, *have*, or *make*:

   They were having *a quarrel*. (cf: They were *quarrelling*.)
   I have made *my choice*. (cf: I have *chosen*.)

Indirect object

The indirect object typically has a **recipient** role: the person that is indirectly involved in the action, generally the person receiving something or intended to receive something, or benefiting in some way:

They paid *me* the full amount.
He bought *Sandra* a bunch of flowers.
David has been showing *Andrew* his computer printout.

Subject complement and object complement

The complement typically has the role of **attribute**. It attributes an identification or characterization to the subject – if it is a subject complement (sC) – or the direct object – if it is an object complement (oC):

sC: Susan is *my accountant*.
sC: Ronald became *a paid agitator*.
oC: I have made David *my assistant*.
oC: The sun has turned our curtains *yellow*.

Adverbial

Adverbials have a wide range of meanings, some of which apply to adverbial complements (cf. 3.10, 3.12). Here are some typical examples:

1. **space**

   My school is *south of the river*. (position in space)
   She has gone *to the bank*. (direction)

2. **time**

   They're staying with us *for a few weeks*. (duration)
   We come here *quite often*. (frequency)
   Your next appointment is *on the last day of the month*. (position in time)

3. **manner**

   The students cheered *wildly*.
   I examined the statement *carefully*.

4. **degree**

   I like them *very much*.
   We know her *well*.

5. **cause**

   My brother is ill *with the flu*.
   They voted for her *out of a sense of loyalty*.

6. **comment on truth-value** (degree of certainty or doubt)

   They *certainly* won't finish on time.
   Perhaps he's out.

7. **evaluation of what the sentence refers to**

   Luckily, no one was injured.
   Unfortunately, both copies were destroyed.

8. **providing a connection between units**

   I was not friendly with them; *however*, I did not want them to be treated unfairly.
   We arrived too late, and *as a result* we missed her.

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

Exercise 3.1 Subject, predicate, verb (cf. 3.2)

In each sentence below, underline the subject and circle the verb constituent.

1. Since September, the airline industry has suffered its greatest ever slump in business.
2. Analysts predict several years of diminished business.

3. Several thousand airline workers lost their jobs.
4. The general public is still nervous about flying.
5. People prefer to travel by train.
6. In Europe, the tourism industry has been affected.
7. Tourist hotels report a 40% drop in bookings in the last six months.
8. In Athens, eight hotels have closed their doors for the winter season.
9. The loss of consumer confidence will damage the euro.
10. Everyone expects a drop in spending power.

Exercise 3.2 Operator; *Do*, *have*, *be* (cf. 3.3, 3.4)

Use the contracted form *n't* to make each sentence below negative.

1. Protesters were in the streets.
2. The party was at war with itself.
3. The tide of revolution toppled one European government after another.
4. The changes had been foreseen.
5. The party could be humbled soon.
6. It will be forced to share power.
7. The party leader's aim is constant.
8. He wants to build a stronger party.
9. He proposes to end the party's guaranteed right to rule.
10. His reforms mean the end of the old guard.
11. The party apparatus has been the chief brake on the restructuring of the country.
12. His critics are right.
13. The party can hold on to power.
14. In their view, it should reimpose order.
15. Last week, however, the party leader moved closer to the radicals.

Exercise 3.3 Operator; *Do*, *have*, *be* (cf. 3.3, 3.4)

Turn each sentence below into a question that can be answered by *yes* or *no*, and underline the operator in the question.

1. Brain bulk is related to brain ability.
2. This correlation applies across species.
3. Within the human species, brain bulk is unimportant.
4. The largest human brains are those of idiots.
5. Humans are able to lose substantial portions of the brain without undue suffering.
6. The main part of the human brain is divided into two hemispheres.
7. Messages from one hemisphere can reach the other.
8. But the brain avoids the need for constant cross-references.
9. One hemisphere dominates the other.

10. Usually the left hemisphere is dominant.
11. It also contains the speech centre.
12. And it controls the right half of the body.
13. A psychiatrist discovered that human brains have fluctuating patterns of electric waves.
14. An electroencephalogram, or EEG, can record the constant electrical flickering of a living brain.
15. Many countries consider the absence of EEG fluctuations over a period of time to be evidence of death.

Exercise 3.4 Subject and verb (cf. 3.5)

Identify the subject in each of the questions or exclamations below and underline it. Circle the operator and (if relevant) the rest of the verb phrase.

1. How should I know?
2. How much does all this matter?
3. How we long to be home again!
4. Have you found any advantages in the present arrangements?
5. Can the roots of the decline in the standard of English cricket be traced back a long way?
6. What a fuss they made!
7. Did Britain recognize the Argentine at that time?
8. When is St Valentine's Day?
9. Is the economic strength of Germany symbolized by its huge trade surpluses?
10. What has brought about the Government's change of heart?
11. Who can tell the difference?
12. Must they make so much noise?
13. How badly has tourism been hit this year?
14. Who have you chosen as your partner?
15. How tight a rein was the Government keeping on public spending?

*Exercise 3.5 Subject and verb (cf. 3.5)

In each sentence below, underline the subject or subjects and circle the verb or verbs.

If a sentence contains more than one clause (cf. 2.3), it may have more than one verb. For example in the following sentence there are three subjects and four verbs:

> If <u>you</u> hold a strong man down for a long time, <u>his first instinct</u> may be to clobber you when <u>he</u> climbs to his feet.

1. If the European Union is not built on democratic foundations, the whole edifice will never be stable.

2. Even the most extreme Euro-zealots must acknowledge that fact.
3. On the other hand, the process of enlargement cannot be held up by one or two member states.
4. Some countries are happy to go along with the EU while they are getting money from it.
5. But a growing number seem less than generous in sharing that largesse with Central and Eastern Europe.
6. In the current climate, generosity of spirit on the part of some EU members would go a long way towards meaningful integration.

*Exercise 3.6 Subject (cf. 3.6)

In the sentence below, *there* has some of the characteristics of a subject. Discuss.

There were no deaths in the recent riots.

Exercise 3.7 Subject (cf. 3.6)

What evidence do you find in the sentence below to show that the implied subject of a subjectless imperative sentence is *you?*

Help yourself to another piece of cake.

Can you think of any other evidence that points in the same direction?

Exercise 3.8 Transitive verbs and direct object (cf. 3.7)

The direct object is underlined in each declarative sentence below. Turn the sentence into a question introduced by *who* or *what*, as indicated in brackets. Use one of these interrogative words to replace the direct object. Position the operator and the subject after *who* or *what*, as in the following example:

She introduced <u>the school head</u> to her parents. (*Who*)
Who did she introduce to her parents?

1. Norma's parents met <u>her English and Biology teachers</u> at the Open Day. *(Who)*
2. Caroline submitted <u>a poem about her dog</u> to the school magazine. *(What)*
3. All the members of staff considered <u>Janet</u> the best student in the Upper Sixth. *(Who)*
4. The school head recommended <u>a careers advice test</u>. *(What)*
5. Marilyn chose <u>Sussex</u> as her first preference on her application form for university entrance. *(What)*
6. Her parents preferred <u>York or Lancaster</u>. *(What)*
7. Elizabeth likes <u>the Chaucer course</u> best. *(What)*

8. She regards the Chaucer teachers as the most interesting lecturers. *(Who)*
9. She finds modern English grammar quite easy. *(What)*
10. She has learned by heart most of the Old English declensions and conjugations. *(What)*

*Exercise 3.9 Transitive verbs and direct object (cf. 3.7)

In each sentence below, underline the direct objects. If a sentence contains more than one clause, it may have more than one direct object. For example, in the following sentence there are two direct objects:

> The president has offered substantial concessions, but he should not expect much gratitude.

1. The president promised the end of racial discrimination, but he rejected the black demand for one man, one vote.
2. That sort of democracy would mean rule by a black majority, which might feel an understandable urge for retribution for past oppressions.
3. Whites, equally understandably, want safeguards for white rights, but you cannot ensure safeguards once you surrender your power.
4. Having made his gamble, the president will find himself under pressure from two directions.
5. Among blacks he has created an upward surge of expectations which he may be unable to fulfil.
6. He has frightened white defenders of apartheid, who might attempt a final, desperate and perhaps violent defence of their racist stance.

*Exercise 3.10 Transitive verbs and direct object (cf. 3.7)

A small set of verbs have been called 'middle verbs'. They are illustrated in the following sentences:

> All the first-year students *have* the flu.
> Your clothes don't *fit* you.
> He *lacks* courage.

How do these verbs resemble transitive verbs and how do they differ from them?

Exercise 3.11 Linking verbs and subject complement (cf. 3.8)

Underline the subject complement in each sentence below.

1. Outside, the company sign seems modest.
2. Inside, the atmosphere is one of rush and ferment.
3. The company is a genetic engineering firm.

4. It has become a leader of a brand-new industry.
5. The focus of the project is DNA recombination.
6. DNA recombination is the transfer of pieces of DNA from one type of organism to another.
7. The leaders of the company are research scientists.
8. They are also shareholders of the company.
9. All the shareholders seem happy with the progress of the company.
10. They do not feel afraid of competition.

Exercise 3.12 Intransitive verbs and adverbials (cf. 3.9)

Underline the adverbials in the sentences below. Some sentences may have more than one adverbial.

1. Opossums frequently appear to be dead.
2. Sometimes they merely pretend to be dead.
3. In that way they avoid attacks by predators.
4. Often they simply are dead.
5. Few opossums remain alive far into the second year.
6. According to one biologist, two-year-old opossums show the symptoms of advanced old age.
7. Over many centuries, opossums have died at early ages because of accidents and predators.
8. As a result, natural selection ends especially early in opossums' lives.
9. Bad mutations accumulate in older opossums.
10. The natural-selection theory apparently explains their short lives.

*Exercise 3.13 Adverbial complement (cf. 3.10)

Complete these sentences by adding an adverbial complement.

1. My parents live _____
2. Unfortunately, nobody is _____
3. Everybody behaved _____
4. You can get _____
5. The soldiers are keeping _____
6. The fortress stands _____
7. The food will last _____
8. The motorway stretches _____
9. The next lecture will be _____
10. I haven't been _____

Exercise 3.14 Direct object and indirect object (cf. 3.11)

Underline the indirect objects in the sentences below. Some sentences do not have an indirect object.

1. Can you tell me the time, please?
2. Who taught you how to do that?
3. Paul's parents promised him a bicycle for his twelfth birthday.
4. You can save yourself the bother.
5. The college provides accommodation for all first-year students.
6. I owe my parents several hundred pounds.
7. Show me your latest videos.
8. Our local council gives a maintenance grant to all students in higher education.
9. They can cause us a lot of trouble.
10. What can I offer you now?
11. The restaurant does not serve vegetarian meals.
12. What a meal they ordered for us!

*Exercise 3.15 Direct object and indirect object (cf. 3.11)

Use each verb below to make up a sentence containing both a direct object and an indirect object.

1.	pay	6.	make
2.	bring	7.	cook
3.	leave	8.	spare
4.	read	9.	ask
5.	find	10.	charge

Exercise 3.16 Direct object and object complement (cf. 3.12)

In each of the following sentences, state whether the underlined phrase is an object complement (oC) or an adverbial complement (aC).

1. Jack has put his coat and hat <u>in my bedroom</u>.
2. The noise is driving me <u>mad</u>.
3. They keep their house <u>too warm</u>.
4. I can see you <u>home</u>.
5. She made me <u>her assistant</u>.
6. My friend wants her coffee <u>black</u>.
7. Make yourself <u>comfortable</u>.
8. I want you <u>outside</u>.
9. We found everybody here <u>very helpful</u>.
10. Show me <u>to my seat</u>.

*Exercise 3.17 Direct object and object complement (cf. 3.12)

Use each verb below to make up a sentence containing both a direct object and an object complement.

1.	like	3.	find	5.	appoint
2.	consider	4.	call	6.	declare

*Exercise 3.18 Direct object and object complement (cf. 3.12)

Use each verb below to make up a sentence containing both a direct object and an adverbial complement.

1. place
2. keep
3. wish
4. get

Exercise 3.19 The basic sentence structures (cf. 3.13)

Identify each sentence element by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

S (subject)	**sC** (subject complement)
V (verb)	**oC** (object complement)
dO (direct object)	**aC** (adverbial complement)
iO (indirect object)	**A** (adverbial)

If the verb is split, put 'v' for the auxiliary.

1. Salt ( ) was ( ) the first food seasoning ( ).
2. Many people ( ) consider ( ) the accidental spilling of salt ( ) bad luck ( ).
3. The Romans ( ) gave ( ) their soldiers ( ) special allowances for salt ( ).
4. They ( ) called ( ) the allowance ( ) salarium ( ).
5. That ( ) is ( ) the original of our word 'salary' ( ).
6. By 6500 BC ( ), Europeans ( ) were ( ) actively ( ) mining ( ) salt ( ).
7. The first salt mines ( ) were located ( ) in Austria ( ).
8. Today ( ) these caves ( ) are ( ) tourist attractions ( ).
9. Salt preserved ( ) meat and fish ( ).
10. Ancient peoples ( ) used ( ) salt ( ) in all their major sacrifices ( ).

*Exercise 3.20 The basic sentence structures (cf. 3.13)

The sentences below are ambiguous. For each meaning, state the structure (the set of sentence elements) and give a paraphrase of the corresponding meaning. For example:

They are baking potatoes.
S + V + SC – 'They are potatoes for baking'.
S + V + dO – 'They have put potatoes in the oven to bake'.

1. You will make a good model.
2. I'll call you my secretary.
3. Your men are revolting.
4. They left him a wreck.
5. You should find me an honest worker.

6. She has appointed her assistant personnel manager.
7. She teaches the best.
8. He was subdued to some extent.
9. My solicitor gives the poorest free advice.
10. His hobby is making friends.

Exercise 3.21 The meanings of the sentence elements (cf. 3.14)

Identify the type of meaning that the underlined sentence element in each sentence conveys.

1. The lecturer explained the functions of subjects.
2. That man is my father.
3. Tell me the result of the match.
4. I'm baking a cake.
5. The Department has offered me a post.
6. Joan is good at mathematics.
7. Don't take offence.
8. You can put your clothes in the washing machine now.
9. I'm working for my father during the spring break.
10. Pay attention.
11. It is much colder today.
12. Norman speaks Russian fluently.
13. I thought the interviewer rather intimidating.
14. My sister has recovered from her operation.
15. Nobody was in, to my surprise.
16. Most of the contestants were immature.
17. You can switch on the television.
18. She gave me good advice.
19. I'm writing an essay on Milton.
20. The local authority closed the school.

*Exercise 3.22 The meanings of the sentence elements (cf. 3.14)

Make up a sentence for each of the sequences listed below.

1. Agentive subject + dynamic verb + affected object + degree adverbial
2. Identified subject + stative verb + attribute subject complement + time adverbial
3. Agentive subject + dynamic verb + recipient indirect object + affected direct object + space adverbial
4. Agentive subject + dynamic verb + recipient indirect object + resultant direct object + time adverbial
5. Evaluation adverbial + agentive subject + dynamic verb + affected direct object + attribute object complement
6. Truth-value adverbial + affected subject + stative verb + attribute subject complement + cause adverbial.

4

The Structures of Phrases

4.1 Phrase types

When we looked earlier (3.1) at the parts of the simple sentence, we noticed that they can be viewed in terms of either their structure or their function. In Chapter 3 we were mainly concerned with their function in the sentence, and we distinguished functional elements such as subject and direct object. In this chapter we are mainly concerned with the internal structure of the elements. For the simple sentence, this means the structure of the various phrases that can function in the sentence as subject, verb, etc.

There are five types of phrases:

1.	**noun phrase**	*a peaceful result* (main word: noun *result*)
2.	**verb phrase**	*must have been dreaming* (main word: verb *dreaming*)
3.	**adjective phrase**	*very pleasant* (main word: adjective *pleasant*)
4.	**adverb phrase**	*very carefully* (main word: adverb *carefully*)
5.	**prepositional phrase**	*in the shade* (main word: preposition *in*)

In grammar, the technical term *phrase* is used even if there is only one word – the main word alone; for example, both *very pleasant* and *pleasant* are adjective phrases. This may seem strange at first, since in everyday use the word *phrase* applies to a sequence of at least two words. There is a good reason for the wider use of the term in grammar. Many rules that apply to an adjective phrase apply also to an adjective. For example, the same rules apply to the positions of *very pleasant* and *pleasant* in these sentences:

It was a { *pleasant* / *very pleasant* } occasion.

The party was { *pleasant*. / *very pleasant*. }

Instead of specifying each time 'adjective phrase or adjective' it is simpler to specify 'adjective phrase' and thereby include adjectives.

In the sections that follow we will be looking at the structures of the five types of phrases, but I will make several general points now. First, a phrase may contain another phrase within it. Or, to put it another way, one phrase may be embedded within another phrase.

[1] We had *some very pleasant times* in Florida.
[2] They were standing *in the shade of a large oak tree*.

In [1] the noun phrase *some very pleasant times* has the adjective phrase *very pleasant* embedded between *some* and *times*. In [2] the prepositional phrase consists of the preposition *in* and the noun phrase *the shade of a large oak tree*; in the noun phrase another prepositional phrase (*of a large oak tree*) is embedded as a modifier of *shade* and that phrase contains the noun phrase *a large oak tree*. A clause (cf. 2.3) may also be embedded in a phrase:

[3] *The school that I attend* is quite small.

In [3] the clause *that I attend* is embedded in the noun phrase *the school that I attend*.

A second point is that phrases are defined by their structure, but they are also characterized by their potential functions. For example, a noun phrase may function (among other possibilities) as a subject, direct object, or indirect object.

Third, there is an inevitable circularity in talking about phrases and words: a noun is a word that can be the main word in a noun phrase, and a noun phrase is a phrase whose main word is a noun.

We will be examining classes of words more closely in the next chapter, but the classes must enter into the discussions of phrases in this chapter. The examples should be a sufficient indication of the types of words that are involved.

THE NOUN PHRASE

4.2 The structure of the noun phrase

The main word in a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun. There are a number of subclasses of nouns and pronouns, but I will postpone discussion of subclasses until we come to look at word classes (cf. 5.4, 5.17).

The structure of the typical noun phrase may be represented schematically in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

(determiners)	(pre-modifiers)	noun	(post-modifiers)

Determiners (words like *the*, *a*, *those*, *some*) introduce noun phrases. Modifiers are units that are dependent on the main word and can be omitted. Modifiers that come before the noun are pre-modifiers, and those that come after the noun are post-modifiers. Here are examples of possible structures of noun phrases:

noun	*books*
determiner + noun	*those books*
pre-modifier + noun	*new books*
determiner + pre-modifier + noun	*some long books*
noun + post-modifier	*books on astronomy*
determiner + noun + post-modifier	*some books on astronomy*
pre-modifier + noun + post-modifier	*popular books on astronomy*
determiner + pre-modifier + noun + post-modifier	*some popular books on astronomy*

All these examples can fit into the blank in this sentence:

I occasionally read .....

4.3 Determiners

There are three classes of determiners (cf. 5.26–30):

1. **pre-determiners**, e.g. *all*, *both*, *half*
2. **central determiners**, e.g. *a(n)*, *the*, *those*
3. **post-determiners**, e.g. *other*, *two*, *first*

Here are two examples with determiners from each class:

all these other works
both our two daughters

4.4 Modifiers

The noun phrase may have more than one pre-modifier or post-modifier:

a *long hot* summer
acute, *life-threatening* diseases
a *nasty* gash *on his chin which needed medical attention*

There are two post-modifiers in the last example because each separately modifies *gash*: *a nasty gash on his chin*; *a nasty gash which needed medical attention*. The modifier may itself be modified (cf. 4.21):

a comfortably *cool* room
the investigation *of crimes* against children

A modifier may also be discontinuous, one part coming before the noun and the other part after it:

the easiest *children* to teach

Compare:

the *children* (who are) easiest to teach

4.5 Relative clauses

One very common type of post-modifier is the **relative clause**:

He had a nasty gash *which needed medical attention.*

The relative clause is embedded in the noun phrase. As an independent sentence it might be:

[1] The gash needed medical attention.

We might think of the embedding as a process that takes place in stages. The first stage puts the sentence close to the noun it will be modifying:

[1a] He had a nasty *gash*. *The gash* needed medical attention.

You will notice that the two sentences share nouns (*gash*) that refer to the same thing. The next stage changes the noun phrase into a relative pronoun (cf. 5.24) – here *which*:

[1b] He had a nasty gash *which* needed medical attention.

The relative pronoun *which* functions as subject in the relative clause just as *The gash* functions as subject in [1a].

Here is another example:

[2] The woman is an engineering student. The woman was sitting next to you.
[2a] The woman (The woman was sitting next to you) is an engineering student.
[2b] The woman *who* was sitting next to you is an engineering student.

In both [1b] and [2b] the relative pronoun can be replaced by relative *that*:

[1c] He had a nasty gash *that* needed medical attention.
[2c] The woman *that* was sitting next to you is an engineering student.

For the choice of relative pronouns, see 5.24.

4.6 Appositive clauses

Another type of clause that is often embedded in a noun phrase is the **appositive clause**. It is introduced by the conjunction *that*:

the assumption *that people act out of self-interest*
the fact *that she rejected his offer of marriage*
the realization *that miracles don't happen*
the news *that agreement has been reached*

The conjunction *that* in appositive clauses differs from the relative *that* (cf. 4.5) because the conjunction does not have a function within its clause. The appositive clause can be a sentence without *that*:

[1] You must have heard the news *that agreement has been reached*.
[1a] Agreement has been reached.

In contrast, the relative clause cannot be a sentence without the relative *that*:

[2] He had a nasty gash *that needed medical attention*.
[2a] *Needed medical attention.

We can convert the noun phrase containing the appositive clause into a sentence by inserting a form of the verb *be* before the clause:

[3] the assumption *that people act out of self-interest*.
[3a] The assumption *is* that people act out of self-interest.

4.7 Apposition

Apposition is a relationship between two noun phrases which have identical reference:

Bono, *the lead singer with U2*, also took part.

As with the appositive clause, we can show that *the lead singer with U2* is in apposition to *Bono* by converting the two phrases into a sentence:

Bono *is* the lead singer with U2.

Here are some more examples of noun phrases in apposition:

our Political Correspondent, *Eleanor Goodman*
vitamin B_{12}, *a complex cobalt-containing molecule*
the witness, *a burly man with heavy stubble*
the rattlesnake, *a venomous animal capable of causing death in human beings*

Apposition is sometimes signalled by expressions such as *namely* and *that is to say*:

You can read the story in the first book of the Bible, *namely* Genesis.

4.8 Coordination

We can coordinate ('link') noun phrases with *and* or *or*:

all the senators *and* some of their aides
law schools *or* medical schools
my sister, her husband, *and* their three children

We can also coordinate parts of a noun phrase. Coordinated modifiers may apply as a unit:

wholesome and tasty food [food that is both wholesome and tasty]
a *calm and reassuring* gesture [a gesture that is both calm and reassuring]
an appetizer of *blackberries and raspberries* [an appetizer that consists of both blackberries and raspberries]

Or they may apply separately:

chemical and biological weapons [chemical weapons and biological weapons]
electric and magnetic fields [electric fields and magnetic fields]
large or small classes [large classes or small classes]
houses along the coast and on the lower hills [houses along the coast and houses on the lower hills]

A determiner may serve two or more nouns or modified nouns:

his wife and two sons [his wife and his two sons]
some friends and close acquaintances [some friends and some close acquaintances]
the reactions of the students and teachers [the reactions of the students and the reactions of the teachers]

It is sometimes possible to interpret coordination of parts of phrases in more than one way:

frustrated and desperate men
(1) frustrated men and desperate men
(2) men who are both frustrated and desperate

old men and women
(1) old men and old women
(2) women and old men

their cats and other pets
(1) their cats and their other pets
(2) other pets and their cats

4.9 Noun phrase complexity

Noun phrases can display considerable structural complexity. It is easy to embed in them appositional structures, clauses, and linked noun phrases. Both the subject and the direct object in [1] are complex noun phrases:

[1] *Wordsworth's several reactions to tourism's threat to treasured precincts* exhibit *tendencies we can also observe in many nineteenth- and twentieth-century records.*
[James Buzard, *The Beaten Track*, p. 30. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1993]

Here are two other examples of complex noun phrases functioning as subject of the sentences:

[2] *A full-blown financial collapse of the kind last seen in the 1930s* is not out of the question.

[3] *Iron resolve in the fight against internationalism terrorism and determined leadership on the budget and the economy* could make Mr Bush the president no one ever really thought he could be.

In [4] the complex noun phrase is subject complement and in [5] it is a direct object:

[4] Taxonomy is *a practical science used to distinguish, name, and arrange plants and other organisms in a logical way.*

[5] Daniel Blumenthal gives *performances of the two concertante pieces which convincingly combine Ravelian delicacy of articulation with genuine feeling for the jazz-based idiom.*

4.10 Functions of noun phrases

The following is a brief list, with illustrations, of the possible functions of noun phrases:

1. **subject**

   The people in the bus escaped through the emergency exit.

2. **direct object**

   They are testing *some new equipment*.

3. **indirect object**

   The bank gave *David* a loan.

4. **subject complement**

   The performance was *a test of their physical endurance*.

5. **object complement**

   Many of us consider her *the best candidate*.

6. **complement of a preposition**

   The box of chocolates is intended for *your children*.

7. **pre-modifier of a noun or noun phrase**

   Milk production is down this year.
   He suffers from *back* problems.
   The matter has been referred to the *Academic Council* Executive Committee.

8. **adverbial**

   The term finishes *next week*.
   You will not succeed *that way*.

For noun phrases as dependent or independent genitives, see 5.8.

THE VERB PHRASE

4.11 The structure of the verb phrase

The typical structure of the verb phrase consists of a main verb preceded optionally by a maximum of four auxiliary verbs. The four belong to different subclasses of auxiliaries.

auxiliary 1	auxiliary 2	auxiliary 3	auxiliary 4	main verb

It is very unusual for all four auxiliaries to appear in one verb phrase, but if two or more auxiliaries co-occur they must appear in the sequence indicated in the diagram, e.g. 1+3, 1+2+4, 2+3. For the four subclasses, see 4.17 below.

4.12 Main verbs

Regular main verbs have four forms that are constructed in this way:

1. **base form:**
   The base form is what we find in dictionary entries: *laugh*, *mention*, *play*.

2. ***-s* form:**
   The *-s* form adds to the base form an ending in *-s*: *laughs*, *mentions*, *plays*.

3. ***-ing* participle:**
   The *-ing* participle adds to the base form an ending in *-ing*: *laughing*, *mentioning*, *playing*.

4. ***-ed* form** (past or *-ed* participle):
   The *-ed* form adds to the base form an ending in *-ed*: *laughed*, *mentioned*, *played*.

The addition of the endings involves some rules of pronunciation and spelling that depend on how the base form ends. For example, the *-ed* ending is pronounced as a separate syllable in *loaded* but not in *laughed*; the final consonant of the base form is doubled in the spelling of *plotted* but not in the spelling of *revolted*. Similarly, the *-s* ending is pronounced as a separate syllable and spelled *-es* in *passes*. (For the spelling rules, see A.4. in the Appendix.)

The *-ed* form represents two distinct functions that are differentiated in the forms of some irregular verbs. Contrast the one form for *laugh* in the following sets of sentences with the two forms of *give* and *speak*:

past	She *laughed* at us. She *gave* us a smile. She *spoke* to us.
***-ed* participle**	She has *laughed* at us. She has *given* us a smile. She has *spoken* to us.

Irregular main verbs have either fewer or more forms than regular main verbs. For example, *put* has only three forms: *put*, *puts*, *putting*. *Put* serves as the base form and also as the *-ed* form in the functions of the past and of the *-ed* participle:

base form	They always *put* the cat out at night.
***-ed* form: past**	They *put* the cat out last night.
***-ed* form: *-ed* participle**	They have *put* the cat out.

The irregular verb *be* has the most forms, eight in all:

base form	*be*
present	*am*, *is*, *are*
past	*was*, *were*
***-ing* participle**	*being*
***-ed* participle**	*been*

For the differences in the present forms and in the past forms of *be*, see 4.13.

4.13 Tense, person, and number

The first or only verb in the verb phrase is marked for **tense**, **person**, and **number**.

Tense is a grammatical category referring to the time of the situation; the tense is indicated by the form of the verb. There are two tense forms: **present** and **past**. There are three persons: **first person** (the person or persons speaking or writing), **second person** (the person or persons addressed), and **third person** (others). There are two numbers: **singular** and **plural**.

For all verbs except *be*, there are two forms for the present: the *-s* form and the base form. The *-s* form is used for the third person singular, that is with *he*, *she*, *it*, and singular noun phrases as subject:

He *plays* football every day.
The road *seems* narrower.

The base form is used for all other subjects: *I*, *you*, *we*, *they*, and plural noun phrases as subject:

I *play* football every day.
The roads *seem* narrower.

Be has three forms for the present tense, which are distinct from the base form *be*:

am – first person singular
is – third person singular
are – others

For all verbs except *be*, there is only one past form:

He (*or* They) *played* football yesterday.
The road (*or* roads) *seemed* narrower.

Be has two forms for the past:

was – first and third person singular
were – others

The two tenses are related to distinctions in time, but they do not correspond precisely to the difference between present and past in the real world. The present tense generally refers to a time that includes the time of speaking but usually extends backward and forward in time:

Three and five *make* eight.
We *live* in Sydney.
I *work* in the steel industry.
They *are* my neighbours.

Sometimes the present refers to an event that is simultaneous with the time of speaking:

Here *comes* your sister.
I *nominate* Robert.

4.14 Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category referring to the way that the time of a situation is viewed by the speaker or writer; the aspect is indicated by a combination of auxiliary and verb form. Verbs have two aspects: the **perfect** aspect and the **progressive** aspect.

The perfect of a verb combines a form of the auxiliary *have* with the *-ed* participle of that verb. The auxiliary has two present tense forms (*has*, *have*) and one past form (*had*). For example, the **present perfect** of *close* is *has closed* or *have closed* and the **past perfect** is *had closed*:

I *have closed* the shop for the day.
The shop *has closed* for the day.
The police *had closed* the shop months ago.

The present perfect refers to a situation set in some indefinite period that leads to the present. The situation may be a state of affairs that extends to the present:

They *have been* unhappy for a long time.
I *have lived* here since last summer.
We *have* always *liked* them.

Or it may be an event or set of events that is viewed as possibly recurring:

We *have discussed* your problems.
I *have phoned* him every day since he fell ill.
He *has read* only newspapers until now.

The past perfect refers to a situation earlier than another situation set in the past:

We *had heard* a lot about her before we ever met her.

In many contexts, the present perfect and the past perfect can be replaced by the past.

The progressive combines a form of the auxiliary *be* with the *-ing* participle. The **present progressive** and the **past progressive** are illustrated below:

You *are neglecting* your work.
I *am resting* just now.
The children *were fighting* all morning.
We *were waiting* for you in the lobby.

The progressive indicates that the situation is in progress. It may therefore also imply that it lasts for only a limited period and that it is not ended. Contrast *I read a novel last night* (which implies that I finished it) with *I was reading a novel last night*.

4.15 Voice

Verbs have two voices: **active** and **passive**. The active is the voice that is used most commonly. The active and passive have different verb phrases in that the passive has an additional auxiliary: a form of the auxiliary *be* followed by an *-ed* participle. Here are examples of corresponding active and passive verb phrases:

Active	**Passive**
loves	is loved
sold	was sold
is fighting	is being fought
has reconstructed	has been reconstructed
will proclaim	will be proclaimed
may have asserted	may have been asserted
should be purifying	should be being purified

The passive is a way of phrasing the sentence so that the subject does not refer to the person or thing responsible (directly or indirectly) for the action. The

passive therefore differs from the corresponding active not only in the forms of the verb phrases but also in the positions of certain noun phrases. The direct object (dO) or the indirect object (iO) of the active sentence becomes the subject (S) of the corresponding passive sentence, and the subject (if retained) appears after the verb in a *by*-phrase:

Active: *A team of detectives* (S) is investigating *the crime* (dO)
Passive: *The crime* (S) is being investigated *by a team of detectives*.
Active: *The new management* (S) has offered *employees* (iO) a better deal.
Passive: *Employees* (S) have been offered a better deal *by the new management*.
Active: *Three bullets* (S) penetrated *his heart* (dO).
Passive: *His heart* (S) was penetrated *by three bullets*.
Active: *Scientists* (S) predicted *the location*, *extent*, *and strength of the earthquake* (dO) with unprecedented accuracy.
Passive: *The location*, *extent*, *and strength of the earthquake* (S) were predicted *by scientists* with unprecedented accuracy.

Generally the passive sentence does not contain the *by*-phrase:

Britain's reservations on these points were duly noted.
Most of the buildings were destroyed.
The decision has already been taken.

The most common reason for using the passive is to avoid referring to the person performing the action. That may be because the identity of the person is not known or because it is felt to be unnecessary to identify the person (perhaps because it is irrelevant or obvious) or it is felt to be tactless to do so:

He *was* immediately *admitted* to the hospital.
The refrigerator door *has* not *been* properly *closed*.

Some *-ed* participle forms may be used as adjectives. In the following sentences the *-ed* forms are adjectives, not passive participles:

She was *annoyed* with them.
I am *worried* about Edward.
My teachers are *pleased* with my progress.

These sentences look like passive sentences, but the *-ed* words are adjectives if one or more of these possibilities apply:

1. if they can be modified by *very* (for example, *very annoyed*);
2. if they can occur with a linking verb other than *be* (for example, *became worried*);
3. if they can be linked with another adjective (for example, *angry and worried*).

The *-ed* participle form is obviously an adjective in *Many seats were unsold when I rang the ticket office* because there is no verb *unsell*.

4.16 Expressing future time

In 4.13 I stated that verbs have only two tenses: present and past. How then do we refer to future time?

There are only two tenses in the sense that these are the two distinctions that we make through the forms of the verbs. However, there are various ways of expressing future time. One way is through the simple present tense:

My sister *arrives* tomorrow.

The most common way is by combining *will* (or the contraction *'ll*) with the base form:

My sister *will arrive* tomorrow.
I'*ll talk* to you next week.

Many speakers in England also use *shall* instead of *will* when the subject is *I* or *we*:

I *shall make* a note of your request.

Two other common ways are the use of *be going to* and the present progressive:

I'*m going to* study during the vacation.
We're playing your team next week.

4.17 The sequence of auxiliaries

In 4.11 I referred to the four types of auxiliaries. Here again is the diagram representing the sequence:

auxiliary 1	auxiliary 2	auxiliary 3	auxiliary 4	main verb

If we choose to use auxiliaries, they must appear in the following sequence:

[1] **modal** auxiliary, such as *can*, *may*, *will* (cf. 5.31)
[2] **perfect** auxiliary *have*

[3] **progressive** auxiliary *be*
[4] **passive** auxiliary *be*

These four uses of the auxiliaries specify the form of the verb that follows:

[1] modal, followed by base form: *may* phone
[2] perfect *have*, followed by *-ed* participle: *have* phon*ed*
[3] progressive *be*, followed by *-ing* participle: *was* phon*ing*
[4] passive *be*, followed by *-ed* participle: *was* phon*ed*

Gaps in the sequence are of course normal:

[1] + [3]: will be phoning (modal + progressive)
[2] + [4]: has been phoned (perfect + passive)
[2] + [3]: has been phoning (perfect + progressive)
[1] + [4]: can be phoned (modal + passive)

The sequence does not take account of the dummy operator *do* (cf. 3.4), which is introduced when there would otherwise not be an auxiliary in the verb phrase. In this function, *do* is therefore the only auxiliary present. It is followed by the base form:

I *did* phone.
Did you phone?
I *did* not phone.
Martha phoned, and I *did* too.

There are also **phrasal auxiliaries**, which are intermediate between auxiliaries and main verbs. Here are some examples:

Sandra *is going to* apply for the job.
I *had better* eat now.
My parents *are about* to leave.
We *have got to* speak to her.
He may *be able to* help us.
Jennifer *is supposed to* phone us today.

Only the first word in a phrasal auxiliary is a true auxiliary, since only that word functions as an operator, for example in forming questions (cf. 3.3):

Is Sandra *going to* apply for the job?
Had I better eat now?
Is Jennifer *supposed to* phone us today?

The phrasal auxiliaries may come together to make a long string of verbs:

> We *seem to be going to have to keep on* paying the full fee.
> They *are likely to be about to manage to start* working on our project.

4.18 Finite and non-finite verb phrases

Verb phrases are either **finite** or **non-finite**. A finite verb is a verb that carries a contrast in tense between present and past, and may also be marked for person and number. In a finite verb phrase the first or only verb is finite, and the other verbs (if any) are non-finite. In a non-finite verb phrase all the verbs are non-finite. *Play* and *played* are finite verbs in these sentences:

[1] We *play* football every day.
[2] We *played* in a football match last week.

Play is in the present tense in [1] and *played* is in the past tense in [2]. In [3] *plays* is the third person singular form of the present:

[3] She *plays* hockey.

On the other hand, in [4] *will* is the finite verb (the past of *will* is *would*), whereas *play* is non-finite:

[4] We *will play* football later today.

Similarly, in [5] *have* is the finite verb and *played* is non-finite:

[5] We *have played* football every day this week.

All the verb phrases in [1]–[5] are finite verb phrases because they begin with a finite verb.

The following are the non-finite verb forms:

1. the **infinitive**, often introduced by *to*: *(to) phone*
2. the ***-ing* participle**: *phoning*
3. the ***-ed* participle**: *phoned*

If one of these forms is the first or only verb in the verb phrase, the phrase is a non-finite verb phrase:

> He was afraid *to predict* the next day's weather.
> *Having stayed* in their house, I can remember how frequently they quarrelled.
> The new system, *described* in a recent report, provides criteria for evaluating scientific priorities.

The infinitive has the base form. It is the infinitive that is used after modals and after the dummy operator *do*:

I may *see* you later.
I may *be* there later.
I did *tell* them.

Non-finite verb phrases normally do not occur as the verb phrase of an independent sentence. Contrast:

[6] His job was *to predict* the next day's weather.
[7] He *predicted* the next day's weather.

The verb of the sentence in [6] is *was*, not the infinitive *to predict* (cf. *To predict the next day's weather was his job*).

4.19 Mood

Mood refers to distinctions in the form of the verb that express the attitude of the speaker to what is said. Finite verb phrases have three moods:

1. **indicative**
2. **imperative**
3. **subjunctive**

The **indicative** is the usual mood in declarative, interrogative, and exclamative sentences:

Roger *has known* me for a long time.
How well *does* Rosalind *play*?
What a heavy coat you *are wearing*!

The **imperative** has the base form. It is used chiefly as a directive to request action:

Stop them!

There are two forms of the **subjunctive**: the present subjunctive and the past subjunctive. The traditional terms are misnomers, since the difference between the two is not one of tense.

The **present subjunctive** has the base form. It is used in:

1. *that*-clauses after the expression of such notions as demand or request:

[1] We demand that he *take* the witness stand.
[2] I accept your suggestion that my secretary *omit* this item from the minutes.

[3] My boss insists that I *be* on time.
[4] I move that the meeting *be* adjourned.

In verbs other than *be*, the present subjunctive has a distinctive form only in the third person singular: the base form, which contrasts with the indicative form ending in *-s*. In other singular persons and in plurals, the base form is the same as the present tense form. Contrast [1] with [1a]:

[1a] We demand that they *take* the witness stand.

For all persons the negative sentence need not have an operator (cf. 3.31):

[1b] We demand that he/they *not take* the witness stand.
[4a] I move that the meeting *not be* adjourned.

In the contexts exemplified in [1]–[4] we commonly use *should* followed by the base form, instead of the subjunctive:

[1c] We demand that he *should take* the witness stand.
[3a] My boss insists that I *should be* on time.

Another possibility, when the verb is not *be*, is the indicative:

[1d] We demand that he *takes* the witness stand.

2. certain set expressions:

Long *live* the Republic!
Be that as it may, . . .

The **past subjunctive** *were* is used chiefly to convey that the speaker is not sure that the situation will happen or is happening:

[5] If he *were* to be appointed, I would leave.
[6] If they *were* in the city, they would contact us.
[7] I wish you *were* here.
[8] I wish I *were* somewhere hotter than here.

Were is also the past indicative form, so that the subjunctive and indicative are identical except where *was* is required as a past indicative – in the first and third persons singular (*I was*, *he was*). *Were* therefore is a distinctive form as subjunctive only in [5] and [8]. In fact, except in formal style, indicative *was* is commonly used in place of the past subjunctive in the first and third persons singular:

[5a] If he *was* to be appointed, I would leave.
[8a] I wish I *was* somewhere hotter than here.

4.20 Multi-word verbs

Multi-word verbs are combinations of a verb and one or more other words. They are called multi-word verbs because in certain respects they behave as a single verb.

The most frequent types of multi-word verbs consist of a verb followed by one or more particles (words that do not change their form) such as *at*, *away*, *by*, and *for*. The three major types of these combinations are:

phrasal verbs, e.g. *give in*, *blow up*
prepositional verbs, e.g. *look after*, *approve of*
phrasal-prepositional verbs, e.g. *look down on*, *catch up with*

There are sometimes one-word verbs that are similar in meaning to the multi-word verbs. The one-word verbs are more formal:

phrasal verb	*give in*	– *surrender*
prepositional verb	*look after*	– *tend*
phrasal prepositional verb	*put up with*	– *tolerate*

Phrasal verbs and **prepositional verbs** are a combination of a verb and one particle, whereas **phrasal-prepositional verbs** have two particles. A prepositional verb requires an object to complete the sentence:

[1] Peter is *looking after* his elderly parents.

A transitive phrasal verb also requires an object:

[2] All the students have *handed in* their essays.

An intransitive phrasal verb does not require an object:

[3] I *give up*.

We can distinguish transitive phrasal verbs from prepositional verbs by testing whether the particle can come before the object as well as after the object. The particle of a phrasal verb can take either position because it is an adverb and like most adverbs it is not confined to one position.

[1a] All the students have *handed in* their essays.
[2b] All the students have *handed* their essays *in*.

If the object is a personal pronoun, however, the particle in a phrasal verb normally must come after the object:

[2c] All the students have *handed* them *in*.

On the other hand, the particle of a prepositional verb is a preposition and must always come before the object, as in [1] above and in [1a]:

[1a] Peter is *looking after* them.

Further examples of intransitive phrasal verbs are in [4]–[6] and transitive phrasal verbs in [7]–[9]:

[4] The discussions *went on* for a long time.
[5] They *stood up* when she entered the room.
[6] The excitement has *died down*.
[7] I can't *make out* <u>your handwriting</u>.
[7a] I can't *make* <u>your handwriting</u> *out*.
[8] We should *put off* <u>the decision</u> until the next meeting.
[8a] We should *put* <u>the decision</u> *off* until the next meeting.
[9] Cornelia has finally *brought out* <u>her new book</u>.
[9a] Cornelia has finally *brought* <u>her new book</u> *out*.

There are three types of prepositional verbs. The first type is followed by a **prepositional object**, which differs from direct and indirect objects in that a preposition introduces it:

[10] My aunt is *looking after* <u>my brothers</u>.
[11] The principal *called for* <u>references</u>.
[12] Heavy smoking *leads to* <u>cancer</u>.

Like other objects, prepositional objects can be questioned by *who* or *what*:

[10a] *Who* is your aunt looking after?
– *My brothers*.
[12a] *What* does heavy smoking lead to?
– *Cancer*.

And they can often be made the subject of a corresponding passive sentence:

[11a] *References* were called for.

The second type of prepositional verb has two objects: a direct object and a prepositional object. The direct object comes before the particle, and the prepositional object follows the particle:

[13] He *blamed* the accident *on* the weather.
[14] You may *order* a drink *for* me.
[15] I have *explained* the procedure *to* the children.
[16] They were *making* fun *of* you.
[17] I have just *caught* sight *of* them.

In some cases the direct object is part of an idiomatic unit, as in *make fun of* [16] and *catch sight of* [17].

The third type of prepositional verb also has two objects, but the first is an indirect object:

They *told* us *about* your success.
She *forgave* me *for* my rude remark.
I *congratulated* her *on* her promotion.

The indirect object refers to a person who typically has the recipient role (cf. 3.14).

The preposition in all three types of prepositional verbs ordinarily cannot be moved from its position. But if the style is formal, in certain structures such as questions and relative clauses it may move with the object to the front. For example, the prepositional object in [13] is normally questioned like this:

[13a] What did he blame the accident *on*?

But we could also place *on* in front, in a more formal style:

[13b] *On* what did he blame the accident?

Finally, there are two types of phrasal-prepositional verbs, which have two particles (an adverb followed by a preposition). The first type has just the prepositional object:

I have been *catching up on* my reading.
They *look down on* their neighbours.

The second type has a direct object and a prepositional object:

I have *put* his problem *down* to inexperience.
We *put* him *up* for election.

THE ADJECTIVE PHRASE

4.21 The structure of the adjective phrase

The main word in an adjective phrase is an adjective. The structure of the typical adjective phrase may be represented in the following way, where the parentheses indicate elements of the structure that may be absent:

(pre-modifiers)	**adjective**	**(post-modifiers)**

Modifiers qualify in some respect what is denoted by the adjective, and they are optional. The pre-modifer comes before the adjective and the post-modifier comes after it.

Some post-modifiers complete what is implied in the meaning of the adjective. For example, if we say *Tom is afraid* we intend this to mean that Tom is filled with fear in some respect. The post-modifier specifies in what respect:

[1] Tom is *afraid* { <u>of spiders</u>. / <u>for his job</u>. / <u>to say anything</u>. / <u>that no one will believe him</u>. }

A few adjectives (at least in certain senses) must have a post-modifier:

[2] Mary is *fond* <u>of children</u>.
[3] I am *aware* <u>that he is abroad</u>.
[4] The contract is *subject* <u>to approval by my committee</u>.

Some adjectives that take obligatory post-modifiers resemble verbs in their meaning:

[1a] *Tom fears* that no one will believe him.
[2a] Mary *likes* children.
[3a] I *know* that he is abroad.
[4a] The contract *requires* approval by my committee.

Here are some examples of possible structures of adjective phrases:

adjective	*happy*
pre-modifier + adjective	*very happy*
adjective + post-modifier	*happy to see you*
pre-modifier + adjective + post-modifier	*very happy that you could join us*

4.22 Functions of adjective phrases

These are the main possible functions of adjective phrases:

1. pre-modifier in a noun phrase
   He was a *tall* man, dressed in a *blue* suit.
2. subject complement
   The photographs were *quite professional*.
3. object complement
   My parents made me *aware of my filial responsibilities*.
4. post-modifier in a noun phrase
   The OS/2 makes good use of the memory *available*.

Indefinite pronouns, such as *somebody*, require the adjective phrase to follow them:

You should choose somebody *older*.
I bought something *quite expensive* today.

There are also some set expressions (mostly legal or official designations) where the adjective follows the noun:

heir *apparent*	attorney *general*
court *martial*	notary *public*

Here are some more examples of adjective phrases as post-modifiers of noun phrases:

the earliest time *possible*
in years *past*
the people *responsible*
the weapons *involved*

Central adjectives are adjectives that can fulfil all the four possible functions listed above. There are also some adjectives that can be only pre-modifiers and others that cannot be pre-modifiers (cf. 5.13).

Adjectives can be partially converted into nouns and then like nouns can function as heads of noun phrases. Typically, such phrases refer to well-established classes of persons, such as *the disabled*, *the poor*, *the sick*, *the unemployed*, *the young*. Nationality adjectives are commonly used in this way, too: *the British*, *the English*, *the French*, *the Irish*. These noun phrases are plural, even though the adjectives do not have a plural ending:

The sick require immediate attention.
The British are coming.

Some adjectives, particularly superlatives (cf. 5.14), function as heads of noun phrases that are abstract. These noun phrases are singular:

The best is yet to come.
The latest is that our team is winning.

Here are a few common examples of such phrases in set expressions:

from *the sublime* to *the ridiculous*
out of *the ordinary*
We have much in *common*.
I'm leaving for *good*.
I'll tell you in *private*.
The situation went from *bad* to *worse*.

THE ADVERB PHRASE

4.23 The structure of the adverb phrase

The main word in an adverb phrase is an adverb. The structure of the typical adverb phrase is similar to that of the typical adjective phrase, except for the class of the main word:

(pre-modifiers)	**adverb**	**(post-modifiers)**

Here are some examples of possible structures of adverb phrases:

adverb	*surprisingly*
pre-modifier + adverb	*very surprisingly*
adverb + post-modifier	*surprisingly for her*
pre-modifier + adverb + post-modifier	*very surprisingly indeed*

4.24 Functions of adverb phrases

Adverbs have two main functions, but particular adverbs may have only one of these:

1. modifier of an adjective or an adverb in phrase structure
2. adverbial in sentence structure

Here are examples of adverbs as modifiers:

1. **modifier of an adjective**
   The description was *remarkably* accurate.
2. **modifier of an adverb**
   The new drug was hailed, *somewhat* prematurely, as the penicillin of the 1990s.

Semantically, most of the modifiers are *intensifiers* (cf. 5.14). They express the degree to which the meaning of the adjective or adverb applies on an assumed scale. The most common intensifier is *very*.

Adverbs are commonly used as adverbials in sentence structure:

> *Fortunately*, American automobile manufacturers are *now* concentrating on improvements in economy and safety.
> *Certainly* we should be grateful for the ways in which he *inadvertently* challenged our beliefs, *deeply* and *seriously*.

Some adverbials seem to be closely linked to the verb or perhaps the predicate, as in *She spoke vigorously* or *She spoke her mind vigorously*, but it is difficult to be precise about the scope of such adverbials. For the range of meanings of adverbials, see 3.14.

Many adverbs can function both as modifiers and as adverbials. The intensifier *entirely* is a modifier of an adjective in [1] and an adverbial in [2]:

[1] Michael's amendment is *entirely* acceptable.
[2] I *entirely* agree with you.

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

4.25 The structure of the prepositional phrase

The prepositional phrase is a structure with two parts:

preposition	complement

The prepositional complement is typically a noun phrase, but it may also be a nominal relative clause (cf. 6.9) or an *-ing* clause (cf. 6.8). Both the nominal relative clause and the *-ing* clause have a range of functions similar to that of a noun phrase.

1. complement as noun phrase
   through *the window*

2. complement as nominal relative clause
   from *what I heard* ('from that which I heard')
3. complement as *-ing* clause
   after *speaking to you*

As its name suggests, the preposition ('preceding position') normally comes before the prepositional complement. There are several exceptions, however, where the complement is moved and the preposition is left stranded by itself. The stranding is obligatory when the complement is transformed into the subject of the sentence:

> Your case will soon be attended *to*.
> This ball is for you to play *with*.
> The picture is worth looking *at*.

In questions and relative clauses the prepositional complement may be a pronoun or adverb that is fronted. In that case, the preposition is normally stranded:

> Who are you waiting *for*?
> Where are you coming *from*?
> I am the person (that) you are waiting *for*. [In relative clauses the pronoun may be omitted.]

In formal style the preposition is fronted with its complement:

> *For* whom are you waiting?
> *From* where are you coming?
> I am the person *for* whom you are waiting.

4.26 Functions of prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases have three main functions:

1. **post-modifier of a noun**

   I took several courses *in history*.
   The local council is subsidizing the installation *of energy-saving devices*.

2. **post-modifier of an adjective**

   We were not aware *of his drinking problem*.
   I was happy *with my marks* last term.

3. **adverbial**

   After the storm, the sky brightened.
   In my opinion, people behave differently *in crowds*.

Two or more prepositional phrases may appear independently side by side. Here is a sentence with three prepositional phrases, each functioning as a separate adverbial:

I read stories *to the children* (A) *at home* (A) *in the evening* (A).

One prepositional phrase may also be embedded within another, as in this prepositional phrase that post-modifies the noun *variations*:

There were variations *in the degree of bitterness of taste*.

The embedding can be shown in this way:

prepositional phrase	in the degree of bitterness of taste
noun phrase	the degree of bitterness of taste
prepositional phrase	of bitterness of taste
noun phrase	bitterness of taste
prepositional phrase	of taste

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

Exercise 4.1 The noun phrase (cf. 4.2–5)

Indicate whether each underlined noun phrase contains a pre-modifier, a post-modifier, or both.

1. The umbrella originated in Mesopotamia over 3000 years ago.
2. It was an emblem of rank and distinction.
3. It protected Mesopotamians from the harsh sun.
4. For centuries, umbrellas served primarily as a protection from the sun.
5. The Greeks and Romans regarded the umbrella as effeminate and ridiculed men who carried umbrellas.
6. On the other hand, Greek women of high rank favoured umbrellas.
7. Roman women began to oil their paper umbrellas to waterproof them.
8. In the mid-eighteenth century a British gentleman made umbrellas respectable for men.
9. Coach drivers were afraid that the umbrella would threaten their livelihood if it became a respectable means of shelter from the rain.
10. Eventually, men realized that it was cheaper to carry an umbrella than to take a coach every time it rained.

*Exercise 4.2 The noun phrase (cf. 4.2–5)

Bracket the noun phrases in each sentence below. Some sentences may have more than one noun phrase. If a noun phrase contains another noun phrase within it, bracket the embedded noun phrase a further time. For example:

> [Microwave cooking] is [an absolutely new method for [the preparation of [food]]].

1. Fire is not used in microwave cooking.
2. Electromagnetic energy agitates the water molecules in the food.
3. The agitation produces sufficient heat for cooking.
4. The electronic tube that produces microwave energy is called a magnetron.
5. The magnetron was in use a decade before the birth of the microwave oven.
6. Two scientists invented it during World War II.
7. The magnetron was essential to Britain's radar defences.
8. The application of microwaves to the heating of food resulted from an accident.
9. An engineer was testing a magnetron tube.
10. He reached into his pocket for a chocolate bar.
11. The chocolate had melted.
12. He had not felt any heat.
13. The chocolate had been near radiation from the tube.
14. Later experiments showed that heat from microwaves could cook food.
15. The food was cooked from the inside.

*Exercise 4.3 Relative clauses (cf. 4.5)

Combine the (a) and (b) sentences in each set below by turning one of the sentences into a relative clause.

la. The drugs inevitably damage a patient's healthy cells as well.
b. The drugs are used for chemotherapy.
2a. Human infants pass through a critical period.
b. The period lasts a few years.
3a. It was a mystery.
b. They could not solve the mystery.
4a. The fundraising campaign has recruited a core of graduates.
b. They in turn contact more graduates.
5a. Most of the bannings of books were overturned.
b. The bannings have recently been sent to the Appeal Board.
6a. I saw a young Canadian.
b. The Canadian was being treated for burns.
7a. He consulted with the leaders.
b. The leaders were released from prison last year.

8a. Those cannot be regarded as democrats.
b. They prefer intolerance and violence.

Exercise 4.4 Appositive clauses (cf. 4.6)

Indicate whether each underlined clause is a relative clause or an appositive clause.

1. The manager lacked the experience <u>that would have helped him overcome the crisis</u>.
2. You have undermined my conviction <u>that a nuclear war is inevitable</u>.
3. She has heard the news <u>that all the passengers and crew escaped unhurt</u>.
4. I cannot dispute the fact <u>that you have won the support of most members</u>.
5. The car hit a bus <u>that was full of children on a school outing</u>.
6. I have read the report <u>that I received last week</u>.
7. They have accepted the recommendation <u>that my daughter be promoted to the next grade</u>.
8. Here is the report <u>that the accusations should be referred to the police</u>.

Exercise 4.5 Apposition (cf. 4.7)

In the sentences below, underline the noun phrases that are in apposition.

1. The accelerator hurled ions of carbon and neon at a foil target of bismuth, a metal related to lead.
2. Helena Bonham-Carter was in it, the actress who played Ophelia in *Hamlet*.
3. UK drug authorities have asked for more data on the company's anti-migraine drug, Imigran.
4. Wood can supply 5 per cent of our energy needs, leaving 95 per cent that must come from other sources – solar, wind, coal, nuclear, biomass.
5. Two University of Nevada psychologists claimed to have taught Washoe, a chimpanzee, to communicate in a human language.
6. Most cells contain many mitochondria, semi-independent structures that supply the cell with readily usable energy.
7. Scientists have discovered two sets of hydrothermal vents (ocean hot springs).

Exercise 4.6 Coordination (cf. 4.8)

The coordinated noun phrases below are ambiguous. Rewrite the phrases unambiguously to show the different meanings.

1. my friends and good neighbours
2. aged cheese and wine
3. their properties and other businesses
4. deceitful and vicious youths
5. those books and assorted notes
6. some bread and butter

*Exercise 4.7 Noun phrase complexity (cf. 4.9)

Describe the structure of the complex noun phrases in examples [3]–[5] in Section 4.9 in terms of the noun phrase structure outlined in 4.2:

(determiners) (pre-modifiers) noun (post-modifier)

Exercise 4.8 Functions of noun phrases (cf. 4.10)

Identify the function of each underlined noun phrase by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

S (subject)	**oC** (object complement)
dO (direct object)	**cP** (complement of preposition)
iO (indirect object)	**pM** (pre-modifier of a noun or noun phrase)
sC (subject complement)	**A** (adverbial)

1. The great fire of 1174 ( ) did not affect the nave, but it gutted the choir ( ).
2. The book offers a vivid picture of Poland and its people ( ).
3. The whole Dickens ( ) family went to stay with Mrs Roylance in Little College Street ( ).
4. Last April ( ), security staff ( ) spotted an intruder ( ) on the White House lawn ( ).
5. The Actors' Union made Peter ( ) their spokesman ( ).
6. More and more Britons ( ) are living alone, despite the Government's emphasis on family ( ) values.
7. The War Crimes Tribunal ( ) is a model of international jurisprudence ( ).
8. Microsoft is working on a revolutionary keyboardless Tablet PC, and already competing in the games market with its own console.
9. Web page layouts can be vastly improved, once you've learned the basics of formatting text and images.

Exercise 4.9 Main verbs (cf. 4.12)

Identify whether the underlined verb in each sentence is the base form, *-s* form, past form, *-ing* participle, or *-ed* participle.

1. Cats were held in high esteem among the ancient Egyptians.
2. Egyptian law protected cats from injury and death.
3. The Egyptians used to embalm the corpses of their cats.
4. They put them in mummy cases made of precious materials.
5. Entire cat cemeteries have been unearthed by archaeologists.
6. The Egyptians were impressed by the way a cat could survive numerous high falls.

7. They originated the belief that the cat possesses nine lives.
8. Dread of cats first arose in Europe in the Middle Ages.
9. Alley cats were often fed by poor, lonely old women.
10. When witch hysteria spread through Europe, such women were accused of witchcraft.
11. Their cats, especially black ones, were also considered guilty.
12. Many innocent women and their cats were burnt at the stake.
13. Some superstitious people think that if a black cat crosses their path they will have bad luck.
14. I have been thinking of buying a black cat.

Exercise 4.10 Main verbs (cf. 4.12)

Specify the tense (present or past) of the underlined verbs in the sentences below. Where necessary, distinguish also the person and number of the verbs.

1. The price of oil has dropped considerably in the past few years.
2. Prices dropped a few years ago because there was an oil glut.
3. Prices continue to drop because oil-producing nations are refining too much crude oil.
4. OPEC wants prices to rise.
5. However, its members disagree about how to raise prices.
6. 'I am in favour of higher prices,' an OPEC member was recently quoted as saying.
7. 'However, we are not in favour of lowering our production because of the many debts we have.'
8. Unless OPEC nations lower their production quotas, prices will remain low.

Exercise 4.11 Aspect (cf. 4.14)

Identify the italicized verbs as present perfect, past perfect, present progressive, past progressive, present perfect progressive, or past perfect progressive.

1. People *are realizing* that trying to keep fit can be dangerous.
2. Ted *was celebrating* his 40th birthday last week.
3. She implied that he *had become* stale.
4. She believes that she *has been enjoying* good health by taking large daily doses of Vitamin C.
5. They *had been making* regular visits to an osteopath.
6. Doreen *has been looking* much younger lately.
7. They *have given* evidence of the health advantages of a sedentary life.
8. We *have been jogging* several times a week.
9. She *has* never *taken* time off to relax.
10. Some tycoons *are* regularly *eating* heavy four-course business lunches.

*Exercise 4.12 Aspect (cf. 4.14)

Make up a sentence using each verb below in the specified tense and aspect (or aspects).

1. *enjoy* – present perfect
2. *find* – past perfect
3. *refuse* – present progressive
4. *convince* – past progressive
5. *go* – present perfect progressive
6. *win* – past perfect progressive

Exercise 4.13 Voice (cf. 4.15)

Identify whether the sentences below are active or passive.

1. Sotheby's is auctioning a highly important collection of antiquities.
2. In the late 1970s a huge copper cauldron was discovered in a cellar.
3. Inside the cauldron were hidden a number of very beautiful objects.
4. They included silver plates two feet across.
5. The plates were decorated with scenes from hunting and mythology.
6. Apparently the treasure was made for Seuso, perhaps a high-ranking officer in the Roman empire.
7. Possibly the family was based in Hungary.
8. It was then moved to Lebanon for military manoeuvres.
9. The Lebanese authorities issued export documents for the treasure in 1981.
10. Nothing has been revealed about the discoverers.
11. The discovery site has never been located.
12. Nobody doubts the importance of the collection.
13. Because of its strange history several museums have rejected the collection.
14. With an expected price of over 40 million pounds, who can afford the collection?

Exercise 4.14 Voice (cf. 4.15)

Identify whether the underlined words are passive participles or adjectives.

1. Her book has just been <u>published</u> in New York.
2. I was <u>amazed</u> at Patrick's indifference.
3. Their arrival was certainly <u>unexpected</u>.
4. His face was <u>distorted</u> with rage.
5. Many of these projects should not have been <u>built</u> at all.
6. I was chiefly <u>interested</u> in modern novels.
7. I cannot understand why you are so <u>depressed</u>.
8. None of these products is <u>manufactured</u> in our country.
9. Pele's goalscoring record is still <u>unbroken</u>.
10. Tony was <u>disgusted</u> with all of us.

*Exercise 4.15 Voice (cf. 4.15)

Discuss the problems of deciding whether the underlined words are passive participles or adjectives.

1. Norman felt appreciated by his parents.
2. Jane was very offended by your remarks.

*Exercise 4.16 Voice (cf. 4.14, 4.15)

We may raise questions about *-ing* forms that are similar to those for *-ed* forms (see Exercises 4.14 and 4.15). Discuss whether the underlined words below are participles, adjectives, or ambiguous between the two.

1. A few of the lectures were interesting.
2. Some teenagers have been terrifying the neighbourhood.
3. Your offer is certainly tempting.
4. Timothy is always calculating.
5. Why are you embarrassing me?
6. I was relieved.

Exercise 4.17 The sequence of auxiliaries (cf. 4.17)

Identify whether the underlined auxiliary is a modal, perfect *have*, progressive *be*, or passive *be*.

1. The employment agency should be contacting you soon about the job.
2. My insurance company has been informed about the damage to my roof.
3. Jeremy has been researching into the optical industry.
4. I can be reached at my office number.
5. The committee is holding its next meeting later this month.
6. The remains were accidentally discovered by a team of palaeontologists.
7. Who has been disturbing my papers?
8. The junk-bond market has collapsed.

*Exercise 4.18 The sequence of auxiliaries (cf. 4.17)

Construct sentences containing the combinations of auxiliaries specified below.

1. modal + progressive *be*
2. dummy operator *do*
3. phrasal auxiliary
4. modal + passive *be*
5. perfect *have* + progressive *be*
6. perfect *have* + passive *be*
7. modal + perfect *have*
8. modal + perfect *have* + passive *be*

*Exercise 4.19 The sequence of auxiliaries (cf. 4.17)

Construct verb phrases as specified below.

1. present perfect passive of *eat*
2. present modal passive of *capture*
3. past perfect progressive of *destroy*
4. past progressive passive of *see*
5. past perfect passive of *tell*
6. past modal perfect progressive of *hope*
7. present modal progressive passive of *discuss*
8. past perfect progressive passive of *blow*

Exercise 4.20 Finite and non-finite verb phrases (cf. 4.18)

Specify whether the underlined verbs are finite or non-finite.

1. The V-2 was a big step towards a spaceliner.
2. It could reach space.
3. But there was still a major breakthrough to be made: reaching orbit.
4. The main obstacle to this was the amount of fuel required.
5. Most of the work from the engine was used to accelerate the V-2 to high speed.
6. To reach orbit an object must accelerate to a speed of about 17,500 miles per hour (called satellite speed or orbital velocity) in a horizontal direction.
7. It is far easier to launch a spacecraft to reach satellite height than satellite speed.
8. If you threw a ball upwards from the ground at 4000 miles per hour, it would reach a maximum height of 100 miles before falling back to Earth about six minutes later.
9. This is less than a quarter of the speed needed to sustain a satellite in orbit.
10. It requires less than one-sixteenth of the energy (which is proportional to the speed squared).
11. In order to reach orbit a V-2 would have to be filled with propellant up to as much as 98 per cent of its take-off weight.
12. To build a vehicle that could achieve the speed required to put a satellite in orbit it would therefore be necessary to build a series of vehicles mounted on top of each other.

Exercise 4.21 Mood (cf. 4.19)

Specify whether the underlined verb is indicative, imperative, present subjunctive, or past subjunctive.

1. If I were you, I would say nothing.
2. After that there were no more disturbances.

3. Heaven forbid that we should interfere in the dispute.
4. If it's not raining, take the dog for a walk.
5. I asked that references be sent to the manager.
6. No warships were in the vicinity at that time.
7. If you happen to meet them, be more discreet than you were last time.
8. It is essential that she return immediately.

Exercise 4.22 Mood (cf. 4.19)

Each sentence contains an expression of requesting or recommending followed by a subordinate clause. Fill the blank in each subordinate clause with an appropriate verb in the present subjunctive (the base form of the verb).

1. I demand that he _____ at once.
2. She is insistent that they _____ dismissed.
3. It is essential that she _____ every day.
4. We suggested that your brother _____ our home this evening.
5. I move that the motion _____ accepted.
6. They rejected our recommendation that the student grant _____ raised.
7. They proposed that David _____ on our behalf.
8. I suggest that she _____ the offer.

Exercise 4.23 Multi-word verbs (cf. 4.20)

Specify whether the verbs in each sentence are phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs, or phrasal-prepositional verbs.

1. I will not *put up with* your insolence any longer.
2. Michael *opened up* the shop before his employees arrived.
3. You must *concentrate on* your studies if you want a good result.
4. Mary *came down with* the flu last week.
5. My lawyer has *drawn up* the contract.
6. Tom is *looking after* his younger brother and sister.
7. All the students *handed in* their essays on time.
8. I don't *approve of* your behaviour in this matter.
9. Their car *broke down* on the way to the airport.
10. Can I *put away* the dishes now?

Exercise 4.24 Multi-word verbs (cf. 4.20)

Specify whether the prepositional verbs in the sentences below contain a prepositional object, a direct object and a prepositional object, or an indirect object and a prepositional object.

1. Has she *told* you *about* her experiences in Romania?
2. They are *taking* advantage *of* an inexperienced teacher.

3. Don't *listen to* what he says.
4. The waiter *thanked* us *for* the generous tip.
5. I *congratulate* you *on* your promotion.
6. He cannot *cope with* the jibes of his colleagues.
7. I *forgive* you *for* being so rude.
8. We have *received* many donations *from* listeners to this programme.

Exercise 4.25 The adjective phrase (cf. 4.21)

Underline each adjective phrase.

1. Fragrant homemade bread is becoming common in many American homes.
2. In a recent sample, 30 per cent of the subscribers to a woman's magazine said that they baked bread.
3. The first bread was patted by hand.
4. The early Egyptians added yeast and made conical, triangular, or spiral loaves as well as large, flat, open-centred disks.
5. Bakers later devised tools to produce more highly refined flour.
6. White bread was mixed with milk, oil, and salt.
7. People used to eat black bread because they were poor.
8. Bread lovers now buy black bread by choice.

Exercise 4.26 The adjective phrase (cf. 4.21)

Complete the sentences below by adding a post-modifier to the adjectives at the ends of the sentences.

1. No doubt you are aware _____
2. My children are always happy _____
3. It is sometimes possible _____
4. They are sure _____
5. I am sorry _____
6. We are conscious _____
7. She is fond _____
8. He was not averse _____

Exercise 4.27 Functions of adjective phrases (cf. 4.22)

Identify the function of each underlined adjective phrase by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

PrM (pre-modifier in noun phrase)
PM (post-modifier in noun phrase)
sC (subject complement)
oC (object complement)

1. The former ( ) champion is now very ill ( ).
2. He has a rare ( ) viral ( ) infection.
3. The drugs he takes make him sick ( ).
4. His body looks no different than it looked before ( ).
5. His doctor has arranged preliminary ( ) tests for heart surgery.
6. His general ( ) health is good ( ), but surgery is always somewhat ( ) risky.

Exercise 4.28 The adverb phrase (cf. 4.23)

Underline each adverb phrase.

1. Disposing of nuclear waste is a problem that has recently gained much attention.
2. Authorities are having difficulties finding locations where nuclear waste can be disposed of safely.
3. There is always the danger of the waste leaking very gradually from the containers in which it is stored.
4. Because of this danger, many people have protested quite vehemently against the dumping of any waste in their communities.
5. In the past, authorities have not responded quickly enough to problems at nuclear waste sites.
6. As a result, people react somewhat suspiciously to claims that nuclear waste sites are safe.
7. The problem of nuclear waste has caused many nuclear power plants to remain closed indefinitely.
8. Authorities fear that this situation will very soon result in a power shortage.

Exercise 4.29 Functions of adverb phrases (cf. 4.24)

Identify the function of each underlined adverb phrase by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

A (adverbial)
M Adj (modifier of adjective)
M Adv (modifier of adverb)

1. Small forks first ( ) appeared in eleventh-century Tuscany.
2. They were widely ( ) condemned at the time.
3. It was in late eighteenth-century France that forks suddenly ( ) became fashionable.
4. Spoons are thousands of years older than forks and began as thin, slightly ( ) concave pieces of wood.
5. Knives were used far ( ) earlier than spoons.
6. They have changed little ( ) over the years.
7. When meals were generally ( ) eaten with the fingers, towel-size napkins were essential.

8. When forks were adopted to handle food, napkins were retained in a much ( ) smaller size to wipe the mouth.
9. A saucer was originally ( ) a small dish for holding sauces.
10. Mass production made the saucer inexpensive enough ( ) to be merely ( ) an adjunct to a cup.

*Exercise 4.30 Functions of adverb phrases (cf. 4.24)

In the following sentences the underlined adverbs are modifiers, but they are not modifiers of adjectives or adverbs. Circle the expression they are modifying and identify the class of that expression.

1. His hand went right through the glass door.
2. We stayed there almost three weeks.
3. I was dead against his promotion.
4. Virtually all my friends were at the party.
5. Nearly everybody agreed with me.
6. She finished well before the deadline.
7. They left quite a mess.
8. Who else told you about my accident?

*Exercise 4.31 Functions of adverb phrases (cf. 4.24)

What is the function of the underlined adverb in the following phrases?

1. for ever
2. that man there
3. until recently
4. the then president
5. (He is) rather a fool
6. the above photograph

Exercise 4.32 The prepositional phrase (cf. 4.25)

Underline each prepositional phrase and circle each preposition. If a prepositional phrase is embedded within another prepositional phrase, underline it twice.

1. It may come as a surprise to you that massage is mentioned in ancient Hindu Chinese writings.
2. It is a natural therapy for aches and pains in the muscles.
3. The Swedish technique of massage emphasizes improving circulation by manipulation.
4. Its value is recognized by many doctors.
5. Some doctors refer to massage as manipulative medicine.
6. Non-professionals can learn to give a massage, but they should be careful about applying massage to severe muscle spasms.
7. The general rule is that what feels good to you will feel good to others.
8. A warm room, a comfortable table, and a bottle of oil are the main requirements.

9. The amount of pressure you can apply depends on the pain threshold of the person on the table.
10. You can become addicted to massages.

*Exercise 4.33 The prepositional phrase (cf. 4.25)

Rewrite the sentences below, moving prepositions to alternative positions that they can occur in. You may need to make some consequent changes.

1. The secretary is the person who you should send your application to.
2. Relativity is a theory on which many modern theories in physics are based.
3. Who are you writing to?
4. This article is one that researchers in economics often make reference to.
5. For whom does John plan to do the work?
6. Both of the workers are people I have a lot of trust in.
7. What platform are we supposed to be on?
8. The women are authors whose books we have obtained much valuable information from.

Exercise 4.34 Functions of prepositional phrases (cf. 4.26)

Identify the function of each underlined prepositional phrase by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

pN (post-modifier of a noun)
pAdj (post-modifier of an adjective)
A (adverbial)

1. Politicians in the United States must raise large sums <u>of money</u> ( ) if they want to get elected.
2. A candidate can no longer win <u>with little campaign money</u> ( ).
3. Candidates are keenly aware <u>of the need for huge financial contributions</u> ( ).
4. They need the money to employ staff and for the frequent advertisements they run <u>on television</u> ( ).
5. <u>In recent campaigns</u> ( ), television advertisements have been quite belligerent.
6. They frequently distort the policies <u>of opposing candidates</u> ( ).
7. They often resemble extravagant Hollywood films <u>in their lavish production</u> ( ).
8. The advertisements are making many Americans cynical <u>of politicians</u> ( ).
9. <u>To them</u> ( ), a politician is simply a person who will say anything to get elected.
10. Many people want elections to be conducted <u>in a more dignified and honest manner</u> ( ).

Exercise 4.35 The structures of phrases (cf. Chapter 4)

Identify each underlined phrase by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

NP (noun phrase)
AdjP (adjective phrase)
VP (verb phrase)
AdvP (adverb phrase)
PP (prepositional phrase)

1. The arrest of Mr Milosevic ( ) was an event of vast political significance ( ).
2. The Savoy theatre was opened ( ) in 1881 by Richard D'Oyly Carte ( ) for the purpose of showing Gilbert and Sullivan operas ( ).
3. The top prize at Cruft's Dog Show ( ) went to a little West Highland ( ) terrier.
4. We stopped ( ) in front of the sentry box beside a barrier over the road ( ).
5. They stayed true to their old belief in the Buddhist religion ( ).
6. Life is much less ( ) prosperous than in our own country.
7. I consider this refusal to accept that we can behave badly ( ) nauseating ( ).
8. He ( ) posed as a world-weary and cultured ( ) aristocrat.

***Exercise 4.36 The structures of phrases** (cf. Chapter 4)

Construct sentences containing the sequences of phrases given below.

1. prepositional phrase + noun phrase + verb phrase + adverb phrase
2. adverb phrase + noun phrase + verb phrase + adjective phrase
3. noun phrase + verb phrase + noun phrase + prepositional phrase + prepositional phrase
4. prepositional phrase + noun phrase + verb phrase + prepositional phrase.
5. noun phrase + verb phrase + adverb phrase
6. adverb phrase + prepositional phrase + noun phrase + verb phrase + adjective phrase + adverb phrase

5

Word Classes

5.1 Open and closed classes

Word classes such as noun, verb, adjective, etc., are traditionally called parts of speech. There is not a fixed number of word classes. We can set up as many classes and subclasses as we need for our analysis. The more detailed our analysis, the more classes and subclasses we need.

Word classes can be divided into **open classes** and **closed classes**. Open classes are readily open to new words; closed classes are limited classes that rarely admit new words. For example, it is easy to create new nouns, but not new pronouns.

Listed below, with examples, are the classes that we will be examining in this chapter. They will be further divided into subclasses.

Open classes

noun	*Paul, paper, speech, play*
adjective	*young, cheerful, dark, round*
main verb	*talk, become, like, play*
adverb	*carefully, firmly, confidentially*

Closed classes

pronoun	*she, somebody, one, who, that*
determiner	*a, the, that, each, some*
auxiliary (verb)	*can, may, will, have, be, do*
conjunction	*and, that, in order that, if, though*
preposition	*of, at, to, in spite of*

There are also some more minor classes, such as the numerals (*one*, *twenty-three*, *first*) and the interjections (*oh*, *ah*, *ouch*). And there are some words that do not fit anywhere and should be treated individually, such as the negative *not* and the infinitive marker *to* (as in *to say*).

The conjunction *in order that* and the preposition *in spite of* are complex words even though each is written as three separate words.

5.2 Word classes and word uses

In 5.1 some words are listed in more than one class. For instance, *play* is both a noun and a verb; *that* is a pronoun, a determiner, and a conjunction. Many more examples could be given of multiple membership of word classes. We can identify the class of some words by their form, as we will see in later sections of this chapter. But very often we can tell the class of a word only from its use in a context. *Reply* is a noun in:

[1] I expect a *reply* before the end of the month.

It is a verb in:

[2] You should *reply* before the end of the month.

It is particularly easy to convert nouns to verbs and to convert verbs to nouns.

Reply in [1] and [2] represents two different words that share the same form. They are two different words, though related in meaning; they are entered as separate words in dictionaries ('lexicons').

If words happen to share the same form and are not related in meaning at all, they are **homonyms**; examples are *peer* ('person belonging to the same group in age and status') and *peer* ('look searchingly'), or *peep* ('make a feeble shrill sound') and *peep* ('look cautiously'). We can make further distinctions if we wish to emphasize identity in pronunciation or identity in spelling. If homonyms share the same sound but perhaps differ in spelling, they are **homophones**; examples are *weigh* and *way* or *none* and *nun*. On the other hand, if they share the same spelling but perhaps differ in pronunciation, they are **homographs**; examples are *row* ('line of objects') and *row* ('quarrel').

A word may have more than one grammatical form. The noun *play* has the singular *play* and the plural *plays*; the verb *play* has the base form *play* and the past *played*. It is common to use *word* for the grammatical form, so we can say that the past of the word *see* is *saw* and we can also say that the word *saw* is spelled with a final *w*. Sometimes there is **neutralization** in form: rather than having the distinctions found in most words, some words have only one neutral form. For example, the verb *cut* represents at least three grammatical words:

present tense	I always *cut* my steak with this kind of knife.
past tense	I *cut* my finger earlier today.
past participle	I have *cut* my finger.

The examples of word classes in 5.1 are 'lexical' words (listed as main entries in dictionaries), but they include any associated grammatical forms.

We recognize the class of a word by its use in context. Some words have suffixes (endings added to words to form new words) that help to signal the class they

belong to. These suffixes are not necessarily sufficient. For example, *-ly* is a typical suffix for adverbs (*slowly*, *proudly*), but we also find this suffix in adjectives: *cowardly*, *homely*, *manly*. And we can sometimes convert words from one class to another even though they have suffixes that are typical of their original class: *an engineer*, *to engineer*; *a hopeful candidate*, *a hopeful*.

NOUNS

5.3 Noun suffixes

A noun is a word that can be the only or main word in a noun phrase (cf. 4.2). We cannot identify all nouns merely by their form, but certain suffixes can be added to verbs or adjectives to make nouns. Here are a few typical noun suffixes with words that exemplify them:

-tion (and variants)	*education, relation, invasion, revision*
-er, -or	*camper, speaker, actor, supervisor*
-ism	*optimism, socialism, terrorism*
-ity	*mentality, normality, reality, sanity*
-ment	*environment, equipment, government*
-ness	*happiness, compactness, darkness*

Some suffixes were part of the words when they were borrowed from other languages: *doctor*, *eternity*, *courage*.

5.4 Noun classes

Nouns are **common** or **proper**. Proper nouns are the names of specific people, places, or occasions, and they usually begin with a capital letter: *Shakespeare*, *Chicago*, *January*, *Christmas*, *Ramadan*. Names may consist of more than one word: *The Hague*, *The New York Times*, *Heathrow Airport*, *Captain Andrews*, *Mount Everest*. Proper nouns are sometimes converted into common nouns: *the Thompsons I know*; the proper noun *Thompson* cannot ordinarily be made plural, but here *the Thompsons* means 'the people in the family with the name Thompson'.

Common nouns are nouns that are not names, such as *capital* in:

The *capital* of the Netherlands is The Hague.

Common nouns can be subclassified in two ways:

1. type of referent: concrete or abstract
2. grammatical form: count or non-count

Concrete nouns refer to people, places, or things: *girl*, *kitchen*, *car*. **Abstract** nouns refer to qualities, states, or actions: *humour*, *belief*, *honesty*. Some nouns may be either concrete or abstract, depending on their meaning:

concrete	Thomas can kick a *football* 50 yards.
abstract	Thomas often plays *football* on Saturdays.

Count nouns refer to entities that are viewed as countable. Count nouns therefore have both a singular and a plural form and they can be accompanied by determiners that refer to distinctions in number:

a *one* *every*	student	*ten* *many* *those*	students

Non-count nouns refer to entities that are viewed as an indivisible mass that cannot be counted; for example, *information*, *furniture*, *software*. Non-count nouns are treated as singular and can be accompanied only by determiners that do not refer to distinctions in number:

much *your* *that*	information

There is a general tendency for abstract nouns to be non-count.

Determiners such as *the* and *your* can go with both count and non-count nouns. Others can go only with singular count nouns (*a*) or only with plural count nouns (*those*).

Some nouns may be either count or non-count, depending on their meaning:

There is not enough *light* in here.	(non-count)
We need another couple of *lights*.	(count)
Sandra does not have much *difficulty* with science.	(non-count)
Benjamin is having great *difficulties* with arithmetic.	(count)

Nouns that are ordinarily non-count can be converted into count nouns with two types of special use:

1. When the count noun refers to different kinds:

   The shop has a large selection of *cheeses*.

2. When the count noun refers to units that are obvious in the situation.

   I'll have two *coffees*, please. ('two cups of coffee')

5.5 Number

Count nouns make a distinction between singular and plural. The regular plural ends in *-s*. This inflection (grammatical suffix), however, is pronounced in one of three ways, depending on the sound immediately before it. Contrast these three sets:

1. *buses, bushes, churches, pages, diseases, garages*
2. *sums, machines, days, toes*
3. *tanks, patients, shocks, notes*

The plural inflection is pronounced as a separate syllable – spelled *-es* – when it follows any of the sounds that appear in the singulars of the words listed in (1); in the case of *diseases* and *garages*, a final *-e* is already present in the singular, so only an *-s* needs to be added in the plural. When *-s* is added to form the plurals *toes* in (2) and *notes* in (3), the *-es* is not pronounced as a separate syllable. There are also some other exceptions to the usual -s spelling. (See also A.4 in the Appendix.)

There are a few irregular plurals that reflect older English forms:

man – men	*mouse – mice*
woman – women	*louse – lice*
foot – feet	*brother – brethren* (in special senses)
goose – geese	*child – children*
tooth – teeth	*ox – oxen*

There are a large number of classes of other irregular plurals, many of them having foreign plurals (e.g. *stimulus – stimuli*; *curriculum – curricula*; *crisis – crises*).

5.6 Gender

Relatively few nouns are distinguished in **gender**, but there are some male nouns and female nouns; for example:

father – mother	*widower – widow*
boy – girl	*bridegroom – bride*
host – hostess	*bull – cow*
hero – heroine	*lion – lioness*

Important distinctions in gender, however, apply to the third-person singular pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it* (cf. 5.18).

When *he* or *she* refers to a noun, the sex of the specific person or animal is made manifest (but see 8.6):

The student was absent today because *she* attended an interview for a job.

5.7 Case

Nouns make a distinction in **case**: a distinction that is based on the grammatical function of the noun. Nouns have two cases: the **common case** and the **genitive**

case. The common case is the one that is used ordinarily. The genitive case generally indicates that the noun is dependent on the noun that follows it; this case often corresponds to a structure with *of*:

Jane's reactions – the reactions *of Jane*

For regular nouns the genitive is indicated in writing by an apostrophe plus *s* (*student's*) in the singular and by an apostrophe following the plural *-s* inflection in the plural (*students'*):

	singular	**plural**
common case	the *student*	the *students*
genitive case	the *student's* essay	the *students'* essays

In speech, three of these forms are pronounced identically.

Irregular nouns, however, distinguish all four forms in speech as well as in writing:

	singular	**plural**
common case	the *child*	the *children*
genitive case	the *child's* toy	the *children's* toys

The same genitive inflection (*'s*) is attached to both the singular and the plural.

On the rules for placing the apostrophe after words ending in *-s*, see 9.13.

5.8 Dependent and independent genitives

Genitives may be dependent or independent. The **dependent genitive** functions like a possessive determiner (cf. 5.19). Compare:

the student's essay (dependent genitive)
his essay (possessive determiner)

The **independent genitive** is not dependent on a following noun. The noun may be omitted because it can be understood from the context:

Your ideas are more acceptable than *Sandra's*. ('Sandra's ideas')
David's comments are like *Peter's*. ('Peter's comments')

But the independent genitive is also used to refer to places:

The party is at *Alan's* tonight.
She's gone to *the hairdresser's*.

Finally, the independent genitive may combine with the *of*-structure:

a friend of *Martha's*
a suggestion of *Norman's*

The independent genitive in the *of*-structure differs from the normal genitive in its meaning: *Martha's friend* means 'the friend that Martha has' (the speaker assumes that the hearer knows the identity of the friend), whereas *a friend of Martha's* means 'one of the friends that Martha has'.

MAIN VERBS

5.9 Verb suffixes

A **main verb** (or, more simply, a verb) is a word that can be the main word in a verb phrase and is often the only verb (cf. 4.11). Certain suffixes are added to nouns or adjectives to make main verbs. Here are a few common verb suffixes with words that exemplify them:

-ate, -iate	*chlorinate, originate, differentiate*
-en	*darken, hasten, sadden*
-ify, -fy	*codify, falsify, beautify*
-ise, -ize	*apologise, publicise, rationalize*

Like nouns, very many verbs have no suffixes: *write*, *walk*, *reveal*, *understand*. Many of the suffixes that characterize verbs served that function in Latin or French, and so we have words in English that were already suffixed when they were borrowed from these languages: *signify*, *realize*.

5.10 Regular and irregular verbs

I earlier (4.12) distinguished five forms of verbs. In all regular verbs (such as *laugh*) and in many irregular verbs (such as *hear*) forms 4 and 5 below are identical. In one set of irregular verbs (e.g. *cut*) forms 1, 4, and 5 are identical. The full set of five forms appears in the irregular verb *speak*.

1.	**base form**:	*laugh*	*hear*	*cut*	*speak*
2.	**-s form**:	*laughs*	*hears*	*cuts*	*speaks*
3.	**-ing participle**:	*laughing*	*hearing*	*cutting*	*speaking*
4.	**past form**:	*laughed*	*heard*	*cut*	*spoke*
5.	**-ed participle**:	*laughed*	*heard*	*cut*	*spoken*

The highly irregular verb *be* has eight forms (cf. 4.12).

5.11 Classes of irregular verbs

There are over 250 irregular verbs in English. Apart from the verb *be*, the *-s* form and the *-ing* participle can be predicted for all verbs from the base form. We therefore need list only three forms to show irregularities: the base, past, and *-ed* participle. These three forms are known as the principal parts of the verb. If we leave aside the verb *be*, we can group the irregular verbs into seven classes according to whether or not three features apply to their principal parts: (a) the past and *-ed* participles are identical; (b) the base vowel is the same in the other two principal parts; (c) the past and *-ed* participle have inflectional endings. If an irregular verb has inflectional endings, these may be irregular; for example, *kept* from *keep* or *spoken* from *speak*.

Table 5.1 sets out in columns the three features and shows whether they apply ('+') or not ('–') to each of the seven classes of irregular verbs. The '±' for class II indicates that some verbs in the class do not have the specified feature. The '½' for class IV indicates that the verbs have an inflectional ending in the participle (*spoken*) but not in the past (*spoke*).

I give further examples of irregular verbs in each of the classes.

Class I	*bend bent bent*	*earn earnt earnt*
	build built built	*learn learnt learnt*
	have had had	*smell smelt smelt*
	make made made	*spoil spoilt spoilt*

Those in the second column also have regular variants: *earn*, *earned*, *earned*.

Class II	*mow mowed mown*	*shear sheared shorn*
	show showed shown	*swell swelled swollen*

The past is formed regularly, but the participle has an *-n* inflection. Those in the second column have a different vowel in the participle, hence '±' in the table. All the verbs have regular variants for the participle: *mow*, *mowed*, *mowed*.

Table 5.1 Classes of irregular verbs

		Past form = *-ed* participle form	**All vowels identical**	**Inflections**
I	*burn*, *burnt*, *burnt*	+	+	+
II	*saw*, *sawed*, *sawn*	–	±	+
III	*keep*, *kept*, *kept*	+	–	+
IV	*speak*, *spoke*, *spoken*	–	–	½
V	*cut*, *cut*, *cut*	+	+	–
VI	*feed*, *fed*, *fed*	+	–	–
VII	*drink*, *drank*, *drunk*	–	–	–

Class III	*buy bought bought*	*dream dreamt dreamt*
	hear heard heard	*kneel knelt knelt*
	lose lost lost	*lean leant leant*
	say said said	*leap leapt leapt*

Those in the second column also have regular variants: *dream*, *dreamed*, *dreamed*.

Class IV	*blow blew blown*	*see saw seen*
	break broke broken	*take took taken*
	hide hid hidden	*tear tore torn*
	lie lay lain	*write wrote written*

The participle has an inflection, but not the past, hence '1/2' in Table 5.1. In some verbs (*e.g. blow*) the participle has the same vowel as the base; in some (*e.g. break*) the past and participle have the same vowel; in some (*e.g. write*) all the vowels are different. The verb *beat* has the same vowel in all parts (*beat*, *beat*, *beaten*), but it may be included in this class rather than in class II because it is not inflected in the past.

Class V	*burst*	*fit*
	hit	*rid*
	hurt	*sweat*
	let	*wet*

All three principle parts are identical. Those in the second column also have regular variants: *fit*, *fitted*, *fitted*, as well as *fit*, *fit*, *fit*.

Class VI	*bleed bled bled*	*get got got*
	dig dug dug	*hold held held*
	find found found	*strike struck struck*
	fight fought fought	*win won won*

The past and participle are identical, but there is a change from the base vowel and there are no inflections. A few verbs in this class have regular variants: *light*, *lighted*, *lighted*, as well as *light*, *lit*, *lit*.

Class VII	*begin began begun*	*come came come*
	sing sang sung	*run ran run*

Those in the second column have the same form for the base and the participle. Some verbs also have variants in which the past and participle are identical: *sing*, *sung*, *sung*, as well as *sing*, *sang*, *sung*.

ADJECTIVES

5.12 Adjective suffixes

An **adjective** is a word that can be the only or main word in an adjective phrase (cf. 4.21). A large number of suffixes are added to nouns and verbs to make adjectives. Here are the most common suffixes and words that exemplify them:

-able, -ible	*disposable, suitable, fashionable, audible*
-al, -ial	*normal, cynical, racial, editorial*
-ed	*wooded, boarded, wretched, crooked*
-ful	*hopeful, playful, careful, forgetful*
-ic	*romantic, atmospheric, heroic, atomic*
-ical	*historical, political, paradoxical, economical*
-ish	*amateurish, darkish, foolish, childish*
-ive, -ative	*defective, communicative, attractive, affirmative*
-less	*tactless, hopeless, harmless, restless*
-ous, -eous, -ious	*famous, virtuous, erroneous, spacious*
-y	*tasty, handy, wealthy, windy*

The suffix *-ed* is often used to form adjectives from noun phrases: *blue-eyed*, *long-haired*, *goodnatured*, *open-minded*.

Like nouns and verbs, many adjectives have no suffixes: *sad*, *young*, *happy*, *true*. Some suffixes were part of the words when they were borrowed into English: *sensitive*, *virtuous*.

5.13 Adjective classes

We can divide adjectives into three classes according to their function. Used alone or with one or more modifiers, an adjective can be:

1. pre-modifier of a noun
2. subject complement
3. object complement

Adjectives are **attributive** (attributing a quality to what is denoted by a noun) when they are being used as pre-modifiers. They are **predicative** (part of the predicate) when they are being used as complements.

Central adjectives can be used in all three functions:

1. It was a *comfortable* ride.	**attributive**
2. The ride was *comfortable*.	**predicative**
3. I made the bed *comfortable*.	**predicative**

Other examples of central adjectives include: *clever*, *brave*, *calm*, *hungry*, *noisy*.

Some adjectives are attributive only:

That is *utter* nonsense.
You are the *very* person I was looking for.

Other examples include: *chief*, *main*, *sheer*. Many words are restricted in this way only in particular meanings. *Old* is only attributive in:

She is an *old* friend of mine. ('a friend for many years')

It is a central adjective in:

She is an *old* woman.
She is *old*.
I consider her *old*.

Some adjectives are predicative only:

He is *afraid* of dogs.
I am *glad* that you are here.

Some predicative adjectives must be followed by a post-modifier (cf. 4.21): *aware* (*of* + noun phrase), *loath* (*to* + infinitive), *subject* (*to* + noun phrase). Some words have this restriction only with particular meanings. *Happy* is only predicative in:

We are *happy* to see you.

It is a central adjective in:

He has a *happy* disposition.
His disposition is *happy*.
We made him *happy*.

5.14 Gradability and comparison

Adjectives are typically **gradable**, that is, we can arrange them on a scale of comparison. So we can say that something is *a bit hot*, *somewhat hot*, *quite hot*, *very hot*, or *extremely hot*. We can also compare things and say that something is *hotter* than something else or that it is the *hottest* of a number of things.

We use **intensifiers** to indicate the point on the scale. The most common intensifier of adjectives is the adverb *very*. Other examples of intensifiers, in addition to those already given, include:

fairly warm	*entirely* different
pretty difficult	*incredibly* dull
rather dark	*too* old

There are three degrees of comparison:

1. **higher**

   (a) Ann is *politer* than Michael. (**comparative**)
   (b) Ann is the *politest* child in the family. (**superlative**)

We have a three-term contrast:

absolute	*polite*
comparative	*politer*, *more polite*
superlative	*politest*, *most polite*.

2. **same**

   Ann is *as polite as* Michael.

3. **lower**

   (a) Ann is *less polite than* Michael.
   (b) Ann is the *least polite* child in the family.

The superlatives in (1b) and (3b) are required when the comparison involves more than two units or sets of units.

Higher degrees of comparison are expressed either through the inflections *-er* and *-est* or through the pre-modifiers *more* and *most*:

	absolute	**comparative**	**superlative**
inflection	*polite*	*politer*	*politest*
pre-modifier	*polite*	*more polite*	*most polite*

Some very common adjectives have irregular inflections:

absolute	**comparative**	**superlative**
good	*better*	*best*
bad	*worse*	*worst*
far	*farther/further*	*farthest/furthest*

Words of one syllable generally take inflections: *older*, *oldest*, *purer*, *purest*. Many words of two syllables can usually take either form: *politer*, *politest* or *more polite*, *most polite*, *noisier*, *noisiest* or *more noisy*, *most noisy*. Words with more than two syllables take the pre-modifiers: *more important*, *most important*; *more expensive*, *most expensive*.

ADVERBS

5.15 Adverb suffixes

An adverb is a word that can be the only or main word in an adverb phrase (cf. 4.23). The suffix *-ly* is commonly added to adjectives to make adverbs:

calmly, *frankly*, *lightly*, *madly*, *quietly*, *tearfully*

If the adjective ends in *-ic*, the suffix is usually *-ically*:

economically, *geographically*, *heroically*, *romantically*

The exception is *publicly*.

The suffix *-wise* is added to nouns to make adverbs:

clockwise, *lengthwise*, *moneywise*, *weatherwise*

Like the other word classes, many adverbs have no suffixes. These include, in particular, most time adverbs (*now*, *today*, *yesterday*, *tomorrow*), space adverbs (*here*, *there*, *outside*, *inside*), and 'linking adverbs' (*therefore*, *however*).

5.16 Gradability and comparison

Like adjectives, adverbs are typically gradable and can therefore be modified by intensifiers and take comparison (cf. 5.14): *quite calmly*, *very calmly*, *less calmly*, *most calmly*. Most adverbs that take comparison require the pre-modifiers *more* and *most*. Those adverbs that have the same form as adjectives have the inflections (e.g. *late – later – latest*). The following adverbs have irregular inflections; the first three are identical with those for adjectives:

well	*better*	*best*
badly	*worse*	*worst*
far	*farther/further*	*farthest/furthest*
little	*less*	*least*
much	*more*	*most*

PRONOUNS

5.17 Pronoun classes

Pronouns are essentially special types of nouns and are the main word in a noun phrase or (more usually) the only word in a noun phrase. They fall into a number of classes, here listed with examples:

1.	**personal pronouns**	*I, you, we, they*
2.	**possessive pronouns**	*my, mine, your, yours*
3.	**reflexive pronouns**	*myself, yourself*
4.	**demonstrative pronouns**	*this, these, that, those*
5.	**reciprocal pronouns**	*each other, one another*
6.	**interrogative pronouns**	*who, what, which*
7.	**relative pronouns**	*which, who, that*
8.	**indefinite pronouns**	*some, none*

The first three classes are related in that they make distinctions in **person** (first, second, third), **gender** (masculine, feminine, and non-personal), and **number** (singular and plural). Most of them also share at least some resemblance in their sound and in their appearance (*you*, *yours*, *yourself*).

Pronouns generally substitute for a noun phrase:

> I went around the hospital with Dr Thomas. *He* was highly intelligent, austere, and warm all at the same time. *He* could perceive almost instantaneously whether a problem was a serious *one* or not.

The two instances of *He* refer back to an **antecedent** (something that came before), in this instance *Dr Thomas*. The pronouns are used to avoid repeating the noun phrase *Dr Thomas*. *One*, however, replaces the noun head *problem* (and therefore is literally a pronoun rather than a substitute for a noun phrase). Here is another example of pronoun substitution:

> A property development company has been found guilty of racial discrimination because *it* attempted to prevent blacks from buying its homes.

In this case the pronoun *it* replaces a noun phrase that is not identical with the antecedent noun phrase *A property development company*. If we did not substitute *it*, we would have to write *the property development company* (with the definite article *the*) or (more economically) *the company*.

The pronoun occasionally comes before its antecedent:

> When *she* moved into *her* own flat, *Helen* seemed much more relaxed.

If we assume that the pronoun *she* and *Helen* refer to the same person, *she* and the possessive determiner *her* (cf. 5.19) both refer forward to *Helen*.

Pronouns can also refer directly to something that is present in the situation:

> Look at *that*!
> I'll pick *it* up.

5.18 Personal pronouns

All the personal pronouns have distinctions in person (first, second, third). Most also have distinctions in number (singular, plural) and in case (subjective, objective, genitive). For the genitive case of the personal pronouns, see the possessive determiners (5.19).

	subjective case	objective case
first person		
singular	*I*	*me*
plural	*we*	*us*
second person		
singular/plural	*you*	*you*
third person		
singular – masculine	*he*	*him*
– feminine	*she*	*her*
– non-personal	*it*	*it*
plural	*they*	*them*

The subjective case applies when the pronouns are the subject of a finite clause:

I know that *she* lives in Coventry and that *he* lives in Birmingham.

In all other instances except the one that I am about to mention, the objective case is used:

She knows *me* well.
He has told *her* about me.
You must go with *him*.

The exception is that the subjective case is also used for the subject complement. In these examples the complement follows the linking verb *be*:

This is *he*.
It was *I* who issued the order.

In non-formal style, however, the objective case is common here too:

It's *him*.

The masculine and feminine genders apply to human beings and also to other beings that are treated as persons, such as pets or perhaps some farm animals. The

distinction between the two genders is made on the basis of natural distinctions in sex. Some other objects (such as ships or cars) or even personified abstractions (such as Death or Beauty) may be treated as if they were persons. Otherwise, the non-personal pronoun *it* is used. One exceptional use of *it* is for babies whose sex is unknown to the speaker.

The personal pronouns take modifiers to a limited extent:

you who know me *we* in this country
you there *they* both

5.19 Possessives

The possessive pronouns are the genitives of the personal pronouns. There are two sets. One set contains the possessive determiners, a subclass of determiners (cf. 5.26f.). A possessive determiner is dependent on a noun:

Here is *your* book.

The other set of possessives contains the possessive pronouns, a subclass of pronouns. A possessive pronoun functions independently:

This book is *yours*.

The possessive determiners are not pronouns, but it is convenient to deal with them in this section because of the parallels between the two sets of possessives.

Nouns in the genitive case also have these two functions (cf. 5.7):

This is *David's* book. (dependent genitive)
This book is *David's*. (independent genitive)

But unlike the nouns, most of the possessives have separate forms for the dependent and independent functions. The two sets of forms parallel the forms for the personal pronouns (cf. 5.18).

	Dependent	**Independent**
first person		
singular	*my*	*mine*
plural	*our*	*ours*
second person		
singular/plural	*your*	*yours*

third person		
singular – masculine	*his*	*his*
– feminine	*her*	*hers*
– non-personal	*its*	–
plural	*their*	*theirs*

5.20 Reflexive pronouns

The reflexive pronouns parallel the personal and possessive pronouns in person and number, but have no distinctions in case. There are separate forms for the second person singular (*yourself*) and plural (*yourselves*), whereas there is only one form of the second person for the personal pronoun (*you*) and the possessive pronoun (*yours*).

first person	
singular	*myself*
plural	*ourselves*
second person	
singular	*yourself*
plural	*yourselves*
third person	
singular – masculine	*himself*
– feminine	*herself*
– non-personal	*itself*
plural	*themselves*

The reflexive pronouns have two main uses:

1. They refer to the same person or thing as the subject does:
   <u>They</u> behaved *themselves* for a change.
   <u>You</u>'ll hurt *yourself*.

2. They give emphasis to a noun phrase:
   <u>She</u> *herself* spoke to me.
   <u>He</u> wrote to me *himself*.
   I appealed to <u>the captain</u> *himself*.

5.21 Demonstrative pronouns

There are four demonstrative pronouns:

singular	*this*	*that*
plural	*these*	*those*

This is for you.
That doesn't make sense.
These are tasty.
You may take *those*.

The demonstratives may also be determiners (cf. 5.26f):

This letter is for you.
That sign doesn't make sense.
These biscuits are tasty.
You may take *those* boxes.

5.22 Reciprocal pronouns

There are two reciprocal pronouns, and they have genitives:

each other	*one another*
each other's	*one another's*

The partners trusted *each other* completely.
My brother and I borrow *one another's* clothes.

5.23 Interrogative pronouns

One set of the interrogative pronouns has distinctions in gender and case:

	subjective case	**objective case**	**genitive case**
personal	*who*	*whom*	*whose*

It is normal to use *who* for both the subjective and objective cases, and to reserve *whom* for formal style (cf. 8.18). The other interrogative pronouns, *which* and *what*, have only one form. *Which*, *what*, and *whose* may also be determiners (cf. 5.26f.). We use *who* and *whom* when we refer to persons:

Who is your favourite pop singer?
Who (or *whom*) have they appointed?
Whose is that towel?

Which can be either personal or non-personal:

Which is your sister?
Which (of the drinks) do you prefer?

What is normally only non-personal:

> *What* do you want?

5.24 Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses (cf. 4.5). They also have distinctions in gender and case:

	subjective case	objective case	genitive case
personal	*who*	*whom*	*whose*
non-personal	*which*	*which*	*whose*
	that	*that*	

As with the interrogative pronouns (cf. 5.23), *who* is the normal form for the subjective and objective cases, whereas *whom* is used only in formal style. The relative pronoun *that*, which is gender-neutral, may be omitted in certain circumstances. The omitted pronoun is sometimes called the **zero relative pronoun**.

> the teacher *who* (or *that*) *taught me Chemistry*
> the house *which* (or *that* or zero) *we bought*
> the person *whom* (or, less formally, *who*, *that*, or zero) they appointed
> the student to *whom* you gave it (formal)
> the student *who* (or *that* or zero) you gave it to

Genitive *whose* is a determiner, like *his* or *her*.

There is another set of relative pronouns that introduce **nominal relative clauses** (cf. 6.9); these are the **nominal relative pronouns**. In addition to *who*, *whom*, and *which*, they include *whoever*, *whomever* (in formal style), *whichever*, *what*, and *whatever*.

> You may take *what/whatever/whichever* you wish
> *What* I need is a long holiday.
> I'll speak to *whoever* is in charge.

Nominal relative pronouns correspond to a combination of a relative pronoun with a preceding antecedent (cf. 5.17):

> *What* I need . . . ('the thing that I need')
> . . . to *whoever* is in charge ('to the person who is in charge')

5.25 Indefinite pronouns and numerals

Indefinite pronouns are the largest group of pronouns. They refer to the presence (or absence) of a quantity. Here are some examples of indefinite pronouns:

Many have replied to the advertisement and *several* have been interviewed.
You take *one* and I'll take *the other*.
No one was absent today.
More will be arriving later.
You can have *both*.
Either will do for me.
There are *fewer* here today.
Everybody was pleased with the speech.

The *some*-set of indefinite pronouns contrasts with the *any*-set:

some	*any*
someone	*anyone*
somebody	*anybody*
something	*anything*

The *any*-set is normal in negative contexts. Contrast:

She has *some* close friends.
She doesn't have *any* close friends.

Some implies a quantity, though the quantity is not specified. *Any* does not imply a specific quantity; the quantity is without limit. The *any*-set is also normal in questions unless a positive reply is expected:

Did *anyone* call for me?
Did *someone* call for me?

Two uses of indefinite *one* deserve special mention:

1. **Generic *one*** has the meaning 'people in general':

   If *one* is concerned about the increasing deterioration of the environment, *one* must be prepared to accept a lower standard of living.

2. **Substitute *one*** is used as a substitute for a noun:

   A: Do you want an ice cream?
   B: I'll have a small *one*.

Unlike most pronouns, *one* in the response by B substitutes for a noun, not a noun phrase. It is the main word in the noun phrase *a small one*.

Many of the indefinite pronouns may be post-modified. *Of*-phrases are particularly common:

somebody else	*neither* of us
several in our group	*none* of the people
something quite funny	*a few* of my friends

Numerals may be used as pronouns. Here are two examples of cardinal numerals as pronouns:

Twenty-two were rescued from the sinking ship.
Three of the children wandered off on their own.

The ordinal numerals (*first*, *second*, *third*, . . .) combine with *the* in this function:

The first of my children is still at school.

DETERMINERS

5.26 Classes of determiners

Determiners introduce noun phrases. The three classes of determiners are defined by the order in which they come:

1. **pre-determiners**
2. **central determiners**
3. **post-determiners**

Here is an example with determiners from each class:

all (1) *those* (2) *other* (3) people

Many words may be either determiners or pronouns:

pronoun	*Some* have left.
determiner	*Some* people have left.
pronoun	I need *more*.
determiner	I need *more* money.
pronoun	*All* are forgiven.
determiner	*All* faults are forgiven.
pronouns	You may borrow *this*.
determiner	You may borrow *this* pencil.

5.27 Central determiners

The central determiners fall into several subclasses.

1.	**definite article** (cf. 5.28)	*the*
2.	**indefinite article** (cf. 5.28)	*a* or (before a vowel sound) *an*
3.	**demonstratives** (cf. 5.21)	*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*
4.	**possessives** (cf. 5.19)	*my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*
5.	**interrogatives** (cf. 5.23)	*what*, *which*, *whose*
		What day is it?
		Whose coat are you wearing?
6.	**relatives** (cf. 5.24)	*which*, *whose*, *whatever*, *whichever* . . .
		at *which* point I interrupted him . . .
		. . . *whose* student I used to be.
		You can use it for *whatever* purpose you wish.
7.	**indefinites** (cf. 5.25)	*some*, *any*, *no*, *enough*, *every*, *each*, *either*, *neither*

We cannot combine two or more central determiners to introduce the same noun phrase.

5.28 The articles and reference

We can apply three sets of contrast in the reference of noun phrases:

1. **generic** and **non-generic**
2. **specific** and **non-specific**
3. **definite** and **non-definite**

Generic/non-generic reference

Noun phrases are **generic** when they refer to a class as a whole:

Dogs make good pets.

They are **non-generic** when they refer to individual members of the class:

Bring in *the dogs*.

For generic reference, the distinction between singular and plural is neutralized, and so is the distinction between the definite and indefinite articles. In their generic use, all of the following are roughly similar in meaning:

[1] *An American* works hard.
[2] *Americans* work hard.
[3] *The American* works hard.
[4] *The Americans* work hard.

Depending on the contrast, [3] and [4] can also be interpreted non-generically to refer to individual Americans.

Specific/non-specific reference

Noun phrases are **specific** when they refer to some particular person, place, thing, etc. In [5] *an Australian* refers to a specific person (even if unknown to the speaker):

[5] Patrick has married *an Australian*. (some Australian)

In [6], on the other hand, *an Australian* does not refer to a specific person:

[6] Patrick would not dream of marrying *an Australian*. (any Australian)

Sentence [7] is ambiguous between the two interpretations:

[7] Patrick intends to marry *an Australian*.

It may mean that Patrick has a specific person in mind (perhaps unknown to the speaker), or that he has the ambition to marry someone from Australia though he has nobody in mind at present.

As we will shortly see, both the indefinite article *a* and the definite article *the* are readily available for specific reference. For non-specific reference, indefinite *a* is usual but definite *the* also occurs:

[8] Patrick intends to marry *the first Australian he meets*.

Generic reference is always non-specific. Some non-generic reference may also be non-specific, as in [6] and [8].

Definite/indefinite reference

The definite article *the* is used to signal that a noun phrase is **definite**. Noun phrases are definite when they are intended to convey enough information to identify what they refer to. If they are not so intended, they are **indefinite**. The identification may come from several sources:

1. The phrase refers to something uniquely identifiable by the speaker and hearer from their general knowledge or from their knowledge of the particular situation:

   the sun; *the sea*; *the Church*
   The Prime Minister is speaking on *the radio* this evening.
   I must feed *the dog*.
   The door is locked.
   The boss wants you.

2. The phrase may refer to something mentioned previously:

   Nancy introduced me to a young man and his wife at the reception. *The young man* was her nephew.

   At the first mention of the young man, the sentence refers to him by the indefinite phrase *a young man*.

3. The information may be identified by modifiers in the noun phrase:

   I wonder whether you would mind getting for me *the blue book on the top shelf*

Noun phrases may be definite even though they are not introduced by the definite article. For example, in a particular situation, personal pronouns (*I*, *you*, etc.) and names are uniquely identifiable and so are the demonstrative pronouns (cf. 5.21). Other determiners, such as the demonstrative determiners (cf. 5.27), may also signal that the noun phrase is definite.

5.29 Pre-determiners

There can also be pre-determiners before the central determiners. These include the multipliers (*double*, *twice*, *three times*, . . .) and the fractions *(half*, *one-third*, . . .):

double her fee
half a loaf

They also include the words *all*, *both*, *such*, and *what*:

all the stations
both our children
such a joke
what a good idea

These can also occur without a central determiner:

all stations
both children
such jokes

Such is exceptional in that it can combine with other pre-determiners (*all such jokes*) and can come after a central determiner (*no such jokes*) and even a post-determiner (*many such jokes*).

5.30 Post-determiners

Post-determiners can come after the central determiners. They include the cardinal numerals and the ordinal numerals:

the *three* rooms
our *first* apartment

They also include *many*, *few*, and *little*:

my *many* good friends
the *few* possessions that he owned
the *little* money that I have

The ordinal and cardinal numerals can co-occur:

the *first two* weeks

The post-determiners can occur without other determiners:

He has *few* vices.
We saw *two* accidents on our way here.

AUXILIARIES

5.31 Classes of auxiliaries

Auxiliaries come before the main verb in a verb phrase. The **primary auxiliaries** are *be*, *have*, and *do*. They are different from each other and from the other auxiliaries. Their uses are:

1. *be* for (a) the **progressive**: *was playing* (cf. 4.14)
   (b) the **passive**: *was played* (cf. 4.15)
2. *have* for the **perfect**: *has played* (cf. 4.14)
3. *do* as the **dummy operator**: *did play* (cf. 4.17)

The remaining auxiliaries are the **modal auxiliaries** or, more simply, the modals. The central modals are:

present	*can*	*may*	*will*	*shall*	*must*
past	*could*	*might*	*would*	*should*	

Like other verbs, most of the modals have a tense distinction between present and past (the exception being *must*), but the past forms are often used for present or future time:

We *may/might* come along after dinner.
I *can/could* help you later.

5.32 Meanings of the modals

The modals express two main types of meaning:

1. human control over events, such as is involved in permission, intention, ability, or obligation:

   You *may* leave now. ('I give you permission to . . .')
   I *could* speak Greek when I was young. ('I knew how to . . .')
   You *must* go to bed at once. ('I require you to . . .')

2. judgement whether an event was, is, or will be likely to happen:

   They *may* be away for the weekend. ('It is possible that they are . . .')
   That *could* be your mother. ('It is possible that it is . . .')
   It *must* be past midnight. ('It is certainly the case that it is . . .')

5.33 Conjunctions

There are two classes of conjunctions:

1. **coordinating conjunctions**, or **coordinators**
2. **subordinating conjunctions**, or **subordinators**

The central **coordinators** are *and*, *or*, and *but*. They are used to link units of equal status:

I enjoy novels *and* short stories best of all
I can *and* will speak!
The device seals a plastic shopping bag *and* equips it with a handle.
You may pay by cash *or* credit card.
He was apologetic *but* he refused to intervene.

The coordinators may be reinforced by **correlative expressions**: *both . . . and*; *either . . . or*; *not only . . . but also*:

both Susan *and* her brother
either tea *or* coffee
Not only was the speech uninspiring, *but* it was *also* full of illogical statements.

The marginal coordinator *nor* may be reinforced by the correlative *neither*:

I have *neither* seen the movie *nor* read the book.

Subordinators introduce subordinate clauses (cf. 6.9):

The negotiations succeeded *because* both sides bargained in good faith.
If you like the service, tell the manager.

Here are some common subordinators:

after	before	till	where
although	if	unless	while
as	since	until	
because	that	when	

Some subordinators consist of more than one word: *except that* and *as long as*, for example.

Some words are both subordinators and prepositions. If the word introduces a finite clause, it is a subordinator; if it introduces a phrase, it is a preposition:

subordinator	I saw her *after* I had my interview.
preposition	I saw her *after* the interview.

5.34 Prepositions

Prepositions introduce a prepositional phrase, and are followed by a prepositional complement (cf. 4.25). The preposition links the complement to some other expression. If it links the complement to the rest of the sentence or clause, the prepositional phrase may be placed in any of various positions:

We had an argument *in* the supermarket.
All the members of the team, *in* my view, contributed equally to the victory.
By that time I was feeling sleepy.

It may also link the complement to a phrase:

He became personal assistant *to* the managing director of the company.
The government suppressed all information *about* the epidemic.

Here are some common prepositions:

about	before	during	over	until
above	behind	for	past	up
across	below	from	since	with
after	beside	in	than	without
against	between	inside	through	
among(st)	but	into	till	
around	by	off	to	

as	despite	on	toward(s)
at	down	out	under

Many of the words listed here may also be used as adverbs or conjunctions.

Some prepositions consist of more than one word; for example, *because of*, *in spite of*, *in addition to*.

EXERCISES

Exercise 5.1 Noun suffixes (cf. 5.3)

Convert the following words into nouns by adding noun suffixes and making any other consequent changes. Some words may take more than one noun suffix.

1. perform
2. able
3. conceive
4. speak
5. construct
6. behave
7. satisfy
8. govern
9. repeat
10. real

*Exercise 5.2 Noun classes (cf. 5.4)

Construct two sentences for each of the following nouns. Use the noun in the (a) sentence as a count noun and the noun in the (b) sentence as a non-count noun.

1. beer
2. beauty
3. sound
4. sugar
5. paper
6. salt
7. experience
8. cake
9. work
10. power

Exercise 5.3 Number (cf. 5.5)

Supply the plural form for each of the singular nouns listed below.

1. analysis
2. thief
3. criterion
4. deer
5. stimulus
6. ovum
7. phenomenon
8. hypothesis
9. basis
10. shelf

Exercise 5.4 Dependent and independent genitives (cf. 5.8)

Specify whether the underlined genitives are dependent or independent by putting 'D' or 'I' in the brackets that follow each genitive.

1. In a recent poll 48 per cent of Americans thought that Japan's ( ) economy is bigger than America's ( ).
2. The British government's ( ) £50 billion sale of state-owned housing is going at a snail's ( ) pace.
3. For Lloyd's ( ) of London, the frauds of the early 1980s seem a thing of the past.
4. New Zealand plans to deregulate the country's ( ) industry.

*Exercise 5.5 Dependent and independent genitives (cf. 5.8)

Construct two sentences for each of the following genitives. Use the genitive in the (a) sentence as a dependent genitive and in the (b) sentence as an independent genitive.

1. the neighbours'
2. Russia's
3. my sister's
4. the dentist's

Exercise 5.6 Verb suffixes (cf. 5.9)

Convert the following words into verbs by adding verb suffixes and making any consequent changes. Some words may take more than one verb suffix.

1. real
2. hyphen
3. ripe
4. margin
5. random
6. liquid
7. example
8. white

Exercise 5.7 Classes of irregular verbs (cf. 5.11)

Give the three principal parts for each of these irregular verbs.

1. grow
2. put
3. drive
4. send
5. break
6. do
7. go
8. read
9. fall
10. throw

Exercise 5.8 Adjective suffixes (cf. 5.12)

Convert the following words into adjectives by adding adjective suffixes and making any consequent changes. Some words may have more than one adjective suffix.

1. style
2. cycle
3. wish
4. allergy
5. care
6. monster
7. hair
8. use
9. sex
10. confide

***Exercise 5.9 Adjective classes** (cf. 5.13)

Construct three sentences for each of the following central adjectives. Use the adjective in the (a) sentence as a pre-modifier of a noun, in the (b) sentence as a subject complement, and in the (c) sentence as an object complement.

1. useful
2. foolish
3. difficult
4. nervous
5. necessary
6. unusual

Exercise 5.10 Gradability and comparison (cf. 5.14)

Give the inflected comparative and superlative of each of these adjectives.

1. pure
2. cruel
3. easy
4. narrow
5. happy
6. simple
7. clean
8. common
9. quiet
10. handsome

***Exercise 5.11 Gradability and comparison** (cf. 5.14)

Discuss the meanings of these four sentences in relation to their forms.

1. She was a most kind teacher.
2. She was the most kind teacher.
3. She was most kind.
4. She was kindest.

***Exercise 5.12 Gradability and comparison** (cf. 5.14)

Discuss the use of *more* in the sentences below.

1. They were more than happy to hear the news.
2. He is more shrewd than clever.

Exercise 5.13 Adverb suffixes (cf. 5.15)

Convert the following words into adverbs by adding *-ly* or *-ically* and making any consequent changes.

1. genetic
2. realistic
3. lazy
4. specific
5. recognizable
6. simple
7. public
8. tragic

Exercise 5.14 Pronoun classes (cf. 5.17)

Circle the antecedents of the underlined pronouns and possessive determiners.

1. Scientists have discovered that pets have a therapeutic effect on their owners.
2. A dog, for instance, can improve the health of the people it comes in contact with.
3. In a recent study, the blood pressure of subjects was measured while they were petting their pets.
4. In general, an individual's blood pressure decreased while he was in the act of petting his pet.
5. Since many of the elderly have experienced the loss of a spouse, it is particularly important that they be allowed to have a pet.
6. This is a problem, since the elderly often live in flats whose landlords will not allow their tenants to own pets.
7. Recently, however, a local landlord allowed her tenants to own pets on an experimental basis.
8. This landlord found that when they were allowed to have pets, the elderly proved to be very responsible pet owners.

Exercise 5.15 Personal pronouns (cf. 5.18)

Specify the person (first, second, or third), number (singular or plural), and case (subjective or objective) of the underlined personal pronouns. If the pronoun has a form that neutralizes the distinction in number or case, state the alternatives, and if only one of the alternatives fits the context underline that alternative.

1. Most of us don't have the time to exercise for an hour each day.
2. We have our hearts in the right place, though.
3. I think 'diet' is a sinister word.
4. It sounds like deprivation.
5. But people who need to lose weight find that they need to lose only half the weight if they exercise regularly.
6. The reason is that exercise helps you to replace fat with muscle.
7. My exercise class has helped me to change my attitude to body shape.
8. The instructor says that she objects to bony thinness.
9. To quote her, 'Who wants to be all skin and bones?'
10. My husband approves of her view, and he is thinking of joining the class.

Exercise 5.16 Possessives (cf. 5.19)

Indicate whether the underlined words are possessive determiners or possessive pronouns.

1. Can you tell me your address?
2. You've made a mistake. The phone number is not his.
3. This is Doris and this is her husband David.
4. Justin borrowed one of my videos, but I can't remember its title.
5. This book is yours, Robert.

6. Benjamin has already read one of his books.
7. She claimed that the bicycle was hers.
8. They are concerned about the fall in their standard of living.

Exercise 5.17 Reflexive pronouns (cf. 5.20)

Fill in each blank with the appropriate reflexive pronoun.

1. We congratulated _____ on completing the job in good time.
2. I _____ have arranged the meeting.
3. I wonder, Tom, whether you wouldn't mind helping _____.
4. I hope that you all enjoy _____.
5. She did the entire job by _____.
6. The surgeon needs to allow _____ more time.
7. They can't help _____.
8. The dog hurt _____ when it jumped over the barbed wire fence.

Exercise 5.18 Demonstrative pronouns (cf. 5.21)

Specify whether the underlined word is a demonstrative pronoun or a demonstrative determiner.

1. This happens to be the best meal I've eaten in quite a long time.
2. Put away those papers.
3. That is not the way to do it.
4. You'll have to manage with these for the time being.
5. We can't trace that letter of yours.
6. Who told you that?
7. Where can I buy another one of those?
8. These ones are the best for you.

Exercise 5.19 Relative pronouns (cf. 5.24)

Indicate whether the underlined clause is a relative clause or a nominal relative clause.

1. We could see whoever we wanted.
2. They spoke to the official who was working on their case.
3. This is the bank I'm hoping to borrow some money from.
4. You can pay what you think is appropriate.
5. What is most urgent is that we reduce the rate of inflation as soon as possible.
6. The police have found the person that they were looking for.
7. Tell me what I should do.
8. I know who made that noise.

Exercise 5.20 Pronouns (cf. 5.18–25)

Indicate whether the underlined pronouns are personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, reciprocal, interrogative, relative, or indefinite.

1. Nobody has ever seen a unicorn.
2. I intend to collect beetles.
3. What do you want me to do?
4. He can resist everything except temptation.
5. She did it all by herself.
6. There are some pressure groups that support only one party.
7. One cannot be too careful in the choice of one's friends.
8. We are commanded to love one another.
9. The next turn is yours.
10. Is this war?
11. Who is it now?
12. I heard the story from somebody on whom I can rely.

Exercise 5.21 Indefinite pronouns (cf. 5.25)

Indicate whether the underlined determiners are definite articles, indefinite articles, demonstratives, possessives, interrogatives, relatives, or indefinites.

1. His parents would not let him see the video.
2. Many applicants were given an interview.
3. Whose shoes are those?
4. What plans have you made for the weekend?
5. There are some children whose parents don't speak English.
6. This generation has never had it so good.
7. The community policeman warned the children not to talk to strangers.
8. No dogs are allowed in here.
9. That collection forms the core of the new library.
10. China is the last nation on earth to make such trains.

Exercise 5.22 The articles and reference (cf. 5.28)

Indicate whether the underlined phrases are generic or non-generic.

1. There is no such beast as a unicorn.
2. The train is late again.
3. The dinosaur has long been extinct.
4. Teachers are poorly paid in this country.
5. He came on a small market where women were selling dried beans.
6. Beans are a highly efficient form of nutrition.
7. We rebuilt the kitchen in just four weeks.
8. People who throw stones shouldn't live in greenhouses.

9. History graduates have a hard time finding jobs.
10. A standard bed may not be right for everyone.

Exercise 5.23 The articles and reference (cf. 5.28)

Indicate whether the underlined phrases are specific or non-specific.

1. Can you find me a book on English grammar?
2. Here is a book on English grammar.
3. I'd like a strawberry ice cream.
4. He says he hasn't any stamps.
5. Who is the woman you were talking to at lunch?
6. I'm looking for a hat that will go with my dress.
7. I'm looking for the hat that will suit me best.
8. You can borrow either tie.
9. We bought some furniture this morning.
10. Can someone tell me the time?

Exercise 5.24 Meanings of the modals (cf. 5.32)

Paraphrase the meanings of the underlined modals in the sentences below.

1. If you hit volleys like this you will have lots of success.
2. In addition to the basic volley, you may have to play half-volleys.
3. If played badly, a half-volley can have drastic consequences.
4. The grip must be firm on impact.
5. Although you can use a two-handed volley, the major disadvantage is one of reach.
6. The two-handed volley may look easy, but it isn't.
7. You should start from the ready position, with a backhand grip.
8. A backhand volley can be played either with one hand or with two hands.
9. Your right arm will be slightly bent.
10. A backhand volley may look difficult, but practice makes perfect.

***Exercise 5.25 Meanings of the modals** (cf. 5.32)

Explain the ambiguity of the underlined modals in the following sentences by paraphrasing the different meanings.

1. They may not smoke during the meal.
2. Could you explain these figures to the tax inspector?
3. They must pass this way.
4. We should be at the office before nine o'clock.

***Exercise 5.26 Conjunctions** (cf. 5.33)

Examine the sentences below. Then explain the differences in the uses of the coordinators (*and* and *or*) and the subordinator *when*.

1. The election was held last month, *and* the government was decisively defeated.
2. The election will be held in June *or* in July.
3. I intend to travel where I like *and when* I like.
4. I phoned her, I wrote to her, *and* I saw her in person.
5. The government was decisively defeated *when* the election was held last month.
6. *When* the election was held last month, the government was decisively defeated.

Exercise 5.26 Prepositions (cf. 5.34)

Indicate whether the underlined words are subordinators or prepositions by putting 'S' or 'P' in the brackets that follow each word.

> While ( ) he developed the theory of special relativity in ( ) about 1905, Albert Einstein lived with ( ) a fellow student of physics who became his first wife. Some researchers believe that ( ) his wife Mileva should get at least some of the credit for ( ) the theory, since ( ) there are letters from ( ) Einstein to her that refer to 'our work' and 'our theory'. Furthermore, a Russian physicist who is now dead claimed to have seen both names on ( ) the original manuscripts of four papers, but some scholars discount his evidence because ( ) the original manuscripts have disappeared. Although ( ) Mileva was certainly capable of understanding Einstein's work and perhaps of collaborating with ( ) him, the present evidence is too meagre to upset the traditional view of Albert Einstein's contribution to ( ) the theory of special relativity, a view held since ( ) the publication of the theory.

Exercise 5.27 Word classes (cf. Chapter 5)

At the end of each sentence you will find a label for a word class. Underline all the words in the sentence that belong to that word class.

1. It is remarkably difficult to define what literature is. – *main verb*
2. Some definitions of literature say that it is language used for making fiction. – *noun*
3. Other definitions say that it is language used for the purpose of pleasing aesthetically. – *preposition*
4. However, some critics have shown convincingly that the two definitions are necessarily connected. – *adverbs*
5. Certainly, the fiction definition alone is not sufficient, since some literature is not fiction (e.g. biography) and some fiction is not literature (e.g. the story told in an advertisement). – *determiner*
6. Attempts to identify literary language through its abundance of rhetorical or figurative devices have also failed. – *adjective*
7. Some have argued that it is a mistake to set up a dichotomy between literary and non-literary language, since literature is defined simply by what we as readers or literary critics regard as literature. – *pronoun*

6

Sentences and Clauses

6.1 Sentence types

In 2.4 I listed the four major types of sentences that are associated with four major uses in communication:

1. declaratives for statements
2. interrogatives for questions
3. imperatives for directives
4. exclamatives for exclamations

Most of the sentences that we have looked at so far have been declaratives. In the sections that follow we will examine the other three types of sentences.

6.2 Questions

There are two main types of interrogative sentences:

1. ***Yes–no* questions** begin with a verb. They require **subject–operator inversion**; that is, a reversal of the order of subject and verb (the order that is normal in declaratives). The verb that appears before the subject is an operator (cf. 3.3f):

> *Should* (op) *the government* (S) cut income taxes?
> *Does* (op) *this shop* (S) open 24 hours every day?

They are called *yes–no* questions because they expect the answer *yes* or *no*. They may in fact be answered in other ways; for example, *Certainly; Perhaps; I don't know; What do you think?*

2. ***Wh*-questions** begin with an interrogative word or phrase:

> *Why* should the government cut income taxes?
> *On which days* does this shop open 24 hours?

They are called *wh*-questions because most of the interrogative words begin with *wh*- (the exception is *how*). The interrogative phrases contain an interrogative word such as *which* in *On which days*. The interrogative word in *wh*-questions represents a missing piece of information that the speaker wants the hearer to supply.

Wh-questions generally require subject–operator inversion too. The exception occurs when the interrogative word or phrase is the subject, and in that case the normal subject–verb order applies:

> *Who* has taken my car?
> *Which bus* goes to Chicago?

There are also several other types of questions.

3. **Declarative questions** have the form of a declarative sentence but the force of a question. They are signalled by a rising intonation in speech and by a question mark in writing:

> You know my name?
> He's got the key?

4. **Alternative questions** present two or more choices, and the hearer is expected to reply with one of them. One type of alternative question resembles the form of *yes–no* questions:

> Should the government reduce its deficit by raising income taxes or by cutting expenditure?

The other type resembles *wh*-questions:

> Which do you want, coffee or tea?

5. **Tag questions** are attached to sentences that are not interrogative. They invite the hearer to respond in agreement with the speaker:

> The government should cut income taxes, *shouldn't it?*
> You haven't said anything yet, *have you?*

Tag questions have the form of *yes–no* questions. They consist of an operator and a pronoun subject that echo the subject and operator of the sentence. The tag question is usually negative if the sentence is positive, and positive if the sentence is negative. Tag questions can be attached to imperative sentences; generally in these the subject is *you* and the operator is *will*:

> Don't tell him, *will you?*
> Make yourself at home, *won't you?*

6. **Rhetorical questions** do not expect a reply since they are the equivalent of forceful statements. If the rhetorical question is positive it has negative force, and

if it is negative it has positive force. The questions may resemble either *yes–no* questions or *wh*-questions:

Is there anything more relaxing than a hot bath? ('Surely there isn't . . .')
Haven't you eyes? ('Surely you have eyes.')
Who could defend such a view? ('Surely no one could . . .')

6.3 Imperatives

Imperative sentences usually do not have a subject. If there is no auxiliary, the verb has the base form:

Take a seat.
Pass me the bottle.
Make me an offer.

Modal auxiliaries do not occur with imperatives, and the only auxiliary that occurs with any frequency is passive *be* (usually in the negative):

Don't be carried away with the idea.

The pronoun *you* may be added as a second person subject:

You make me an offer.

Occasionally, a third person subject is used:

Somebody make me an offer.
Those in the front row sit down.

First and third person imperatives may be formed with *let* and a subject:

Let us go now.
Let's not tell him.
Don't *let's* talk about it.
Let me think what I should do.
Let nobody move.

6.4 Exclamatives

Exclamatives begin with *what* or *how*. *What* introduces noun phrases; *how* is used for all other purposes. The exclamative word or (more commonly) phrase is fronted:

What a good show it was! ('It was an extremely good show.')
What a time we've had!
How hard she works!
How strange they look!
How time flies! ('Time flies extremely fast')

Exclamative sentences express strong feeling. More specifically, they indicate the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something. *What* and *how* are intensifiers expressing a high degree.

6.5 Speech acts

When we say or write something, we are performing an action. This action expressed in words is a speech act. The intended effect in a speech act is the communicative purpose of the speech act.

In Section 2.4 I referred to four major communicative uses associated with the four major types of sentences. We have already seen (cf. 6.2) that a sentence type may have a communicative use other than the one normally associated with it: a declarative question is a declarative sentence with the force of a question; a rhetorical question, on the other hand, is an interrogative sentence with the force of a statement.

There are many more than four types of communicative purpose. Directly or indirectly, we may convey our intention to promise, predict, warn, complain, offer, advise, and so on. The communicative purpose of a speech act depends on the particular context in which the act is performed. Here are some sentences, together with plausible interpretations of their purpose if they are uttered as speech acts:

It's getting late. (request for someone to leave with the speaker)
Tell me your phone number. (inquiry – request for information)
There is a prospect of heavy thunderstorms later in the day. (prediction)
I'm afraid that I've broken your vase. (apology)
Break it, and you'll pay for it. (warning)
Do you want a seat? (offer)
I nominate Tony Palmer. (nomination)
Enjoy yourself. (wish)
Don't touch. (prohibition)
I won't be late. (promise)
It would be a good idea to send a copy to the manager. (advice)

The purpose may be merely to make a friendly gesture, where silence might be interpreted as hostility or indifference:

It's a nice day, isn't it? (ostensibly information)
How are you? (ostensibly an inquiry)

6.6 Compound sentences

A **multiple sentence** is a sentence that contains one or more clauses (structures that can be analysed in terms of sentence elements such as subject and predicate). If the multiple sentence consists of two or more coordinated clauses, it is a **compound sentence**. The coordinated clauses are normally linked by one of the coordinating conjunctions (*and*, *or*, *but*):

[1] She is a superb administrator, and everybody knows that.
[2] Lawns are turning green, flowers are blooming, and summer time is returning.
[3] Send it to me by post or bring it around yourself.
[4] They have played badly every year since 1998, but this year may be different.

Compound sentences have two or more main clauses, each with independent status. We cannot therefore speak of, say, the subject of the sentence. In [1] for example, there is no subject of the sentence as a whole: the subject of the first main clause is *she* and the subject of the second main clause is *everybody*. In [2] there are three subjects of main clauses: *lawns, flowers,* and *summer time*.

Instead of linking main clauses with a coordinator, we can often juxtapose them (place them side by side), and link them with a semicolon:

[1a] She is a superb administrator; everybody knows that.
[4a] They have played badly every year since 1998; this year may be different.

If we put a full stop between them, we have two orthographic sentences.

We sometimes avoid repeating identical expressions across coordinated clauses by **ellipsis** (the omission of essential grammatical units that can be supplied by the hearer from the context):

The adults ate chicken, the teenagers hamburgers, and the youngest children pizza. (The verb *ate* is omitted in the second and third clauses.)

Last year we spent our holiday in Spain, the year before in Greece. (The expression *we spent our holiday* is ellipted in the second clause.)

6.7 Complex sentences

A **complex sentence** is a multiple sentence in which one or more **subordinate clauses** are embedded:

[1] Everybody knows *that she is a superb administrator*.
[2] He saw the trouble *that idle gossip can cause*.
[3] I am glad *that you are joining our company*.

In [1] the clause functions as a sentence element: the direct object. In [2] it is a modifier in a phrase: the post-modifier of the noun *trouble*. In [3] it is also a modifier in a phrase: the post-modifier of the adjective *glad*.

Subordinate clauses are often introduced by a subordinator (or subordinating conjunction, cf. 5.33), particularly if the clauses are finite.

A complex sentence can be analysed in terms of sentence elements such as subject and verb. In [1] the subject is *Everybody*, the verb is *knows*, and the direct object is the subordinate *that*-clause. In the subordinate clause, which is introduced by the subordinator *that*, *she* is the subject, *is* is the verb, and *a superb administrator* is the subject complement.

6.8 Non-finite and verbless clauses

Non-finite and verbless clauses are generally subordinate clauses. **Non-finite clauses** have a non-finite verb (cf. 4.18); **verbless clauses** are without a verb.

There are three types of non-finite clauses, depending on the form of the first verb in the verb phrase:

1. *-ing* clauses (or *-ing* participle clauses)

   [1] *Just thinking about the final round* put him in a combative mood.

2. *-ed* clauses (or *-ed* participle clauses)

   [2] *Dressed in street clothes*, the patients strolled in the garden.

3. infinitive clauses
   (a) with *to*

   [3] They wanted *to pay for their meal.*

   (b) without *to*

   [4] We helped *unload the car.*

   Here are two examples of verbless clauses:

   [5] *Though fearful of the road conditions*, they decided to go by car.

   [6] *Weary and almost out of money*, we drove into a petrol station off the motorway.

Non-finite and verbless clauses can be regarded as reduced clauses, reduced in comparison with finite clauses. They often lack a subject, and verbless clauses also lack a verb. However, we can analyse them in terms of sentence elements if we reconstruct them as finite clauses, supplying the missing parts that we understand from the rest of the sentence:

[2] Dressed in street clothes, (V + A)
[2a] They were dressed in street clothes. (S + V + A)

[4] unload the car. (V + dO)
[4a] We unloaded the car. (S + V + dO)

[5] Fearful of the road conditions, (sC)
[5c] They were fearful of the road conditions. (S + V + sC)

Non-finite and verbless clauses may have their own subject:

He began his speech nervously, *his voice* (S) trembling.
They trudged by the river in the deep snow, *their heads and their hands* (S) bare.

If they do not have a subject, their subject is generally interpreted as being identical in its reference with that of the subject of the sentence or clause in which they are embedded. This rule applies to sentences [2]–[6]. For [1] we deduce that the reference of the subject of *thinking* is identical with that of the object *him*.

Non-finite and verbless clauses are sometimes introduced by subordinators. In [5] the subordinator *though* introduces the verbless clause.

We have seen (3.7–12) that the choice of the verb determines the choice of other sentence elements. For example, a transitive verb requires a direct object. The verb also determines the form of the element, including whether it allows a clause and what type of clause. For example, the transitive verb *like* may have as its direct object a noun phrase, an infinitive clause, or an *-ing* clause:

I like { *vanilla ice cream.*
to shop at Harrods.
shopping at Harrods. }

The transitive verb *prefer*, on the other hand, takes as a direct object a noun phrase, an infinitive clause, an *-ing* clause, or a *that*-clause:

I prefer { *vanilla ice cream.*
to shop at Harrods.
shopping at Harrods.
that we shop at Harrods. }

6.9 Functions of subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses have three main sets of functions:

1. **Nominal clauses** have a range of functions similar to that for noun phrases (cf. 4.10). For example:

subject	*Learning a foreign language* is no easy task.
subject complement	The only problem in design is *to relate design to people's needs.*

direct object	I believe *that a hot, humid summer has benefited the movie business.*
prepositional complement	I listened to *what the candidates had to say.*

Nominal relative clauses are clauses that are introduced by a nominal relative pronoun (cf. 5.24). Whereas relative clauses post-modify nouns, nominal relative clauses have the same functions as noun phrases:

He gave his children *what they wanted* (dO).
Whoever said that (S) does not understand the question.

2. **Modifier clauses** function as modifiers in phrases. One common kind of modifier is the relative clause (cf. 4.5), which post-modifies a noun:

Drugs *that are used in chemotherapy* damage a patient's healthy cells as well.

Non-finite clauses function as reduced relative clauses:

The firemen battled an inferno *fuelled by toxic chemicals.* ('that was fuelled by . . .')
Scientists found no evidence *to suggest that neutrinos have mass.* ('that would suggest that . . .')
I was engaged in a programme of research *involving many chemical reactions.* ('that involved . . .')

Another common kind of modifier is the comparative clause, which is introduced by *than* or *as*:

She is a better doctor *than I am.*
He spoke more rashly *than he used to do.*
Norman played as fiercely *as I expected.*

A third kind is a post-modifier of an adjective:

Roger was afraid *to tell his parents.*

3. **Adverbial clauses** function as the adverbial element in sentence or clause structure (cf. 3.9f):

When a heart attack occurs, the electronic device automatically produces charges of electricity that jolt the heart back into a normal rhythm.
Reflecting on the past three years, she wondered whether she could have made better choices.
When in Rome, do as the Romans do.

6.10 Sentence complexity

The earlier division of multiple sentences into compound sentences and complex sentences (cf. 6.6f) is an oversimplification. It indicates at the highest level within the sentence a distinction between coordination and subordination of clauses. But these two types of clause linkage may mingle at lower levels. A compound sentence may have subordination within one of its main clauses. In this compound sentence, the second main clause is complex:

[1] Mite specialists have identified 30,000 species of mites, *but* they believe *that* these represent only a tenth of the total number.

In [1], *but* introduces a main clause and *that* introduces a subordinate clause within the main clause. The *that*-clause is **subordinate** to the *but*-clause and not to the sentence as a whole: the *but*-clause is **superordinate** to the subordinate *that*-clause.

A complex sentence may contain a hierarchy of subordination:

[2] They refused (A) *to say* (B) *what they would do* (C) *if the strikers did not return to their jobs.*

In [2] each of the subordinate clauses extends from the parenthesized letter that marks it to the end of the sentence: (A) is a direct object that is subordinate to the sentence as a whole and superordinate to (B); (B) is a direct object that is subordinate to (A) and superordinate to (C); (C) is an adverbial clause that is subordinate to (B).

The next example is a complex sentence whose subordinate clauses are coordinated:

[3] They claimed *that the streets are clean, the rubbish is regularly collected, and the crime rate is low.*

In [3] the three coordinated subordinate clauses together constitute the direct object of the sentence.

In the final example, the compound sentence has both subordination and coordination at lower levels.

[4] The Great Lake states warned pregnant women and nursing mothers to avoid eating certain Great Lakes fish, *and* they advised the rest of us to avoid certain large fatty species and to limit the consumption of other fish.

The two main clauses are linked by *and*. The first main clause contains a nonfinite subordinate clause (beginning *to avoid*) in which is embedded another nonfinite subordinate clause (*eating . . . fish*). The second main clause contains two

coordinated non-finite subordinate clauses (*to avoid . . . and to limit . . .*). The relationship of coordination and subordination in [4] is represented in Figure 6.1.

6.11 *There*-structures

In the remaining sections of this chapter we will examine some common structures that depart from the basic sentence patterns.

The first is the ***there*-structure**. *There* is put in the subject position and the subject is moved forward to a later position:

> *There* is nobody outside. (cf. Nobody is outside.)
> *There* are some topics that are best discussed in private. (cf. Some topics are best discussed in private.)
> *There* are several countries that have asked the Secretary-General for an emergency session of the Security Council.
> *There* is somebody knocking on the door.

The effect of this structure is to present the postponed subject and the rest of the sentence as new information and thereby to give the sentence (in particular the subject) greater prominence. The postponed subject is normally an indefinite pronoun (cf. 5.25) or a noun phrase with an indefinite determiner (cf. 5.27).

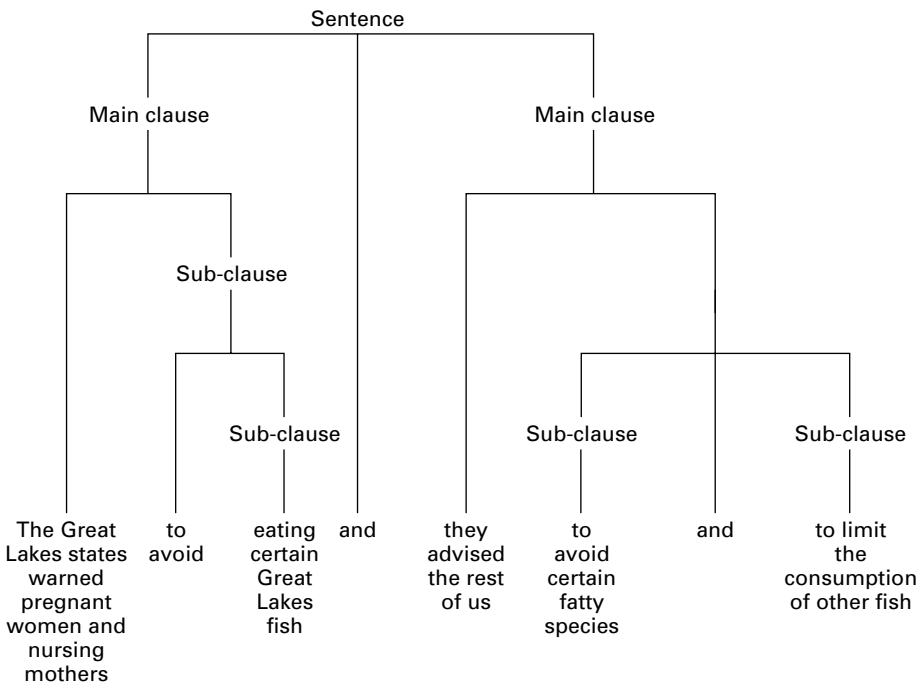

Figure 6.1 Coordination and subordination

6.12 Cleft sentences

In a **cleft sentence** the sentence is divided into two and one part is given greater prominence:

> It was *Thomas Edison* who (*or* that) invented the electric lamp.
> (Compare: Thomas Edison invented the electric lamp.)

In a cleft sentence, the subject is *it*, the verb is a form of *be*, and the emphasized part comes next. The rest of the sentence is usually introduced by *that*:

> It was *an American flag* that he was waving.
> It was *in 1939* that (*or* when) the Second World War started.
> It was *after I spent a summer working for a butcher* that I decided to become a vegetarian.
> It was *in Paris* that Bob and Fiona fell in love.

Pseudo-cleft sentences have a similar purpose, but the emphasized part comes at the end. The first part is normally a nominal relative clause (cf. 6.9) introduced by *what*. The verb *be* links the two parts of this SVC structure:

> What I want *is* a good sleep.
> What he did *was* open my letters.
> What I'm going to do *is* see the principal.

6.13 Anticipatory *it*

It is unusual to have a nominal clause as the subject of the sentence:

[1] *That the season has started so early* seems a pity.

Instead, the subject is usually moved to the end (the *postponed subject*) and its position is taken by *it* (the *anticipatory subject*):

[1a] *It* seems a pity *that the season has started so early*.

Here are some other examples:

> *It* is likely *that we'll be moving to Glasgow*.
> *It* doesn't matter to me *who pays my ticket*.
> *It's* impossible *to say when they are arriving*.
> *It* has not been announced *whether negotiations between the employers and the employees have broken down*.

The exception is that nominal *-ing* clauses are natural in the normal subject position:

> *Having a good self-image* keeps me sane.
> *Living in France* was a wonderful experience.

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

Exercise 6.1 Questions (cf. 6.2)

Indicate whether the sentences below are *yes–no* questions, *wh*-questions, declarative questions, or alternative questions.

1. When will working conditions be improved?
2. Will there be a large increase in car ownership in this country by the end of the decade?
3. How many people do you think will attend our meeting, twenty or thirty?
4. How often should I take the medicine?
5. You say that she took your car without your permission?
6. Hasn't the book been published yet?
7. Do bears suffer from toothache?
8. Do you want me to buy tickets for your sisters as well or just for us?

*Exercise 6.2 Questions (cf. 6.2)

Discuss the differences in meaning between the following pairs of sentences.

1a. Do you trust them?
b. Don't you trust them?
2a. Has anyone told you what to say?
b. Has someone told you what to say?
3a. She is quite clever.
b. She is quite clever, isn't she?
4a. Why do you complain?
b. Why don't you complain?

Exercise 6.3 Imperatives (cf. 6.3)

Comment on the difference in meaning between the following two sentences.

1. Tell me what you think.
2. Do tell me what you think.

Exercise 6.4 Exclamatives (cf. 6.4)

Rewrite each sentence, turning it into an exclamation. Use *what* or *how* in combination with the underlined words.

1. Those paintings look peculiar.
2. He's been behaving foolishly today.
3. It's been a long time since I've enjoyed myself so much.
4. She seems young.
5. That was a party!

Exercise 6.5 Speech acts (cf. 6.5)

Suggest a plausible speech act that might be performed by the utterance of each of the following sentences.

1. I can't find my pen.
2. Do you have a match?
3. It's too hot in here.
4. Do you know the time?
5. The front of the oven is extremely hot.
6. I'll be at your lecture tomorrow.
7. Have a good time.
8. Why don't you have a rest now?

Exercise 6.6 Compound sentences (cf. 6.6)

Combine each of the following pairs of sentences into one sentence by using the coordinator given in the brackets. Wherever possible, avoid repetition by omitting words or using pronouns.

1. Guinea-worms are born in ponds and open wells. Guinea-worms are ingested as larvae by tiny water-fleas. (*and*)
2. Managers have no right to analyse. They have no right to make decisions. (*and*)
3. Driving should be a pleasant experience. At the very least, driving should be an uneventful experience. (*or*)
4. I needed violence in the play. I didn't want the violence to be gratuitous. (*but*)

Exercise 6.7 Non-finite and verbless clauses (cf. 6.8)

Indicate whether the underlined clauses are *-ing* clauses, *-ed* clauses, infinitive clauses, or verbless clauses.

1. England's initial target was to scrape together 22 runs from their last two wickets.
2. The Finnish boat capsized after losing its keel 120 miles off the Argentine coast.

3. If the Rugby Football Union had wanted to engineer the triumph of the western region it could not have done better than keep Bath and Gloucester apart in the Cup semi-final draw.
4. It was from a cross by David Beckham that Giggs had his first shot, although pulled wide.
5. Blackpool, lying second from bottom, must now concentrate on avoiding relegation.
6. 3–0 down at half-time, West Ham never really looked like scoring.
7. The season begins in earnest on Sunday with the Worth tournament, won by Sevenoaks last year.
8. With two minutes left in the game, Michael Owen beat three defenders to place a perfect ball in the Arsenal net.
9. There may be as many as 400 players in the game of street football, with the goals being separated by up to three or four miles of open countryside.
10. The two weightlifters stripped of their medals following positive drug tests at the Commonwealth Games will learn of their punishment today.

Exercise 6.8 Non-finite and verbless clauses (cf. 6.8)

In each of the following sentences a non-finite or verbless clause is underlined. Identify the italicized element in the clause by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after it:

S (subject)	**sC** (subject complement)
V (verb)	**oC** (object complement)
dO (direct object)	**aC** (adverbial complement)
iO (indirect object)	**A** (adverbial)

1. Treating *sufferers from anorexia and bulimia* ( ) is difficult.
2. Researchers have discovered that antidepressants control some symptoms of bulimia, reducing *the number of eating binges* ( ).
3. She fell ill soon after she arrived and was found to be suffering *from malaria* ( ).
4. Many malaria cases could be prevented if people bothered to take anti-malarial drugs *regularly* ( ).
5. His doctors realized that the hypoglycaemic spells might be caused by *additional insulin* ( ) flooding his body.
6. Beyond the early weeks, light to moderate drinking doesn't seem to cause *pregnant women* ( ) any problems.
7. Large-scale studies in progress are intended to give researchers *reliable data on heavy drinking* ( ) in particular.
8. Immediately she sees the envelope from her dentist she starts to feel *sweaty* ( ).

*Exercise 6.9 Non-finite and verbless clauses (cf. 6.8)

Combine the sentences in each pair by making one of the sentences a non-finite clause or a verbless clause.

1. He was accused once of a lack of gravity. He replied that this was his natural bent.
2. The play is a talking piece. Its action consists exclusively of monologues and duologues.
3. He was ill but still irrepressible. He related former triumphs and famous anecdotes.
4. The actor impersonates the playwright. The playwright is giving a lecture in Paris.
5. He made a promise to his friend. The promise was that he would drink no more than a pint of wine a day.
6. His wife died. She left him with five children.
7. He believed himself to be a failure. He had made no career for himself either in politics or in law.
8. He wrote to his young son. He was repaid with an inspiring reply listing all his achievements.
9. He was predictably conservative. He even opposed the abolition of slavery.
10. In religion he was eclectic. He tried several churches.

Exercise 6.10 Functions of subordinate clauses (cf. 6.9)

Identify the function of each of the underlined clauses by putting the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets that follow the clause.

nominal clause (**N**)	reduced relative clause (**RR**)
nominal relative clause (**NR**)	comparative clause (**C**)
relative clause (**R**)	adverbial clause (**A**)

1. The ancient discipline of rhetoric was intended to prepare the beginner for tasks <u>that involved speaking in public</u> ( ).
2. The classical view of <u>how to present a case in argument</u> ( ) involved a structure of sequent elements.
3. Stylistic propriety was formalized by the Roman rhetoricians, <u>who distinguished the three levels of the Grand, the Middle, and the Plain style</u> ( ).
4. From these ideas on style originated the notion of 'decorum', <u>continually discussed by English Renaissance writers</u> ( ).
5. The study of rhetoric is complex <u>because new conventions of performance for particular purposes are being generated all the time</u> ( ).
6. It is not surprising <u>that myth should be a prominent element in the rhetoric of persuasion</u> ( ).

7. In myths and parables what we are asked to take literally ( ) is accompanied by one or more possible levels of interpretation.
8. A view expressed by some modern critics is that creative writers are no more the complete masters of what they do than are any other writers ( ).
9. Creative writers are frequently blind to their own intentions and to the nature of what they are doing ( ).
10. You cannot, as a reader, wholly appreciate the rhetorical sport of a convention or a style if you have a poor knowledge of literary language and conventions ( ).

*Exercise 6.11 Functions of subordinate clauses (cf. 6.9)

Construct sentences consisting of clauses introduced by each pair of the following correlatives:

more . . . than	*the . . . the*
as . . . so	*scarcely . . . when*
no sooner . . . than	*if . . . then*

*Exercise 6.12 Sentence complexity (cf. 6.10)

Describe the relationship of clauses in the following sentences, and explain the functions of the subordinate clauses.

1. Savage gales caused another wave of destruction today after yesterday's storms left 14 dead and thousands homeless.
2. The London Weather Centre warned that fierce winds would build up in the South East and they might gust up to 70 mph.
3. In Folkestone the sea defence wall gave way, causing flooding of up to five feet, and police were considering evacuation.
4. In one town in North Wales 1000 people were made homeless and the local council asked the Government to declare the town a disaster area because the emergency services said that they could not prevent more damage.

Exercise 6.13 *There*-structures (cf. 6.11)

Turn the sentences below into *there*-structures.

1. Nobody is at home.
2. We can do nothing more to help him.
3. A number of universities in this country are worried about their financial situation.
4. Too many people don't work hard enough.

Exercise 6.14 Cleft sentences (cf. 6.12)

Turn the sentences below into pseudo-cleft sentences.

1. I need a strong drink.
2. He intends to be at least as outspoken as his predecessors.
3. A Cabinet committee will look at a plan to open up disused hospital wards to the homeless.
4. The gossip columnist made very serious allegations against a prominent politician.

Exercise 6.15 Anticipatory *it* (cf. 6.13)

Turn the sentences below into sentences with anticipatory *it*.

1. Whether you finish the painting or not is irrelevant.
2. How house prices rise and fall is entirely arbitrary.
3. That responsibility for the decline in living standards must be laid at the door of the Prime Minister is obvious to everybody.
4. To make mistakes is human nature.

Exercise 6.16 Sentences and clauses (cf. Chapter 6)

Identify the function of each underlined subordinate clause by writing the appropriate abbreviation in the brackets after the clause.

S	(subject)
dO	(direct object)
iO	(indirect object)
sC	(subject complement)
oC	(object complement)
aC	(adverbial complement)
A	(adverbial)
cP	(complement of a preposition)
mN	(modifier of a noun phrase)
mAdj	(modifier of an adjective phrase)
mAdv	(modifier of an adverb phrase)

1. The computer network allows employees to share files <u>if they wish</u> ( ).
2. The next decade should be pleasanter <u>than the one we have just lived through</u> ( ).
3. She accused him of <u>wasting his talents</u> ( ).
4. His first job had been <u>selling insurance</u> ( ).
5. Metal-particle tapes accept and hold high-frequency magnetic pulses much more readily <u>than do metal-oxide tapes</u> ( ).

6. One theory of climate that has gained wide acceptance ( ) is used to predict the duration of periodic changes in climate ( ).
7. When food is withdrawn from their stomach after a meal is finished ( ), rats will compensate by eating the same amount of food ( ).
8. You can tell whoever is interested ( ) that I am cancelling my subscription ( ).
9. He showed us what he had written ( ).
10. She made him what he is ( ).
11. The food is better than average, although prices are somewhat higher ( ).
12. He would certainly have won the mayoral election comfortably had he run ( ).
13. Until now the government's approach was to appease demonstrators ( ).
14. Giving evidence to the committee during its six-month investigation ( ), he was unrepentant.
15. The Chancellor of the Exchequer faces intense pressure to halt inflation ( ).

Part II

The Applications

7

Usage Problems

SUBJECT–VERB AGREEMENT

7.1 The general rules

The verb agrees with its subject in number and person. The agreement applies whenever the verb displays distinctions in person and number. For all verbs other than *be*, the distinctions are found only in the present tense, where the third person singular has the *-s* form and the third person plural – like the first and second persons – has the base form:

[1] The noise distracts them.
[2] The noises distract them.

The verb *be* makes further distinctions in the present and introduces distinctions in the past. These are as follows:

present tense	**singular**	**plural**
1st person	*am*	
2nd person	*are*	*are*
3rd person	*is*	

past tense	**singular**	**plural**
1st person	*was*	
2nd person	*were*	*were*
3rd person	*was*	

The distinctions for third person agreement with *be* are illustrated in [3] and [4] for the present and in [5] and [6] for the past:

[3] The noise *is* distracting them.
[4] The noises *are* distracting them.
[5] The noise *was* distracting them.
[6] The noises *were* distracting them.

The agreement affects the first verb in the verb phrase, whether it is a main verb as in [1]–[2] or an auxiliary as in [3]–[6]. Modal auxiliaries (cf. 5.31), however, do not make distinctions in number or person:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{The noise}\\ \text{The noises}\end{array}\right\}\text{ may distract them.}$$

If the subject is a noun phrase, the main noun determines the number of the phrase:

$$\text{The } \textit{noise} \text{ of the } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{demonstration}\\ \text{demonstrators}\end{array}\right\} \textit{is} \text{ distracting them.}$$

$$\text{The } \textit{noises} \text{ of the } \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{demonstration}\\ \text{demonstrators}\end{array}\right\} \textit{are} \text{ distracting them.}$$

It is a mistake to allow the verb to be influenced by an adjacent noun that is not the main noun.

Noun phrases coordinated with *and* are generally plural, even though the individual noun phrases are singular:

The President and the Vice-President *were* at the ceremony.

Clauses are generally singular:

Playing handball relaxes me.
To make mistakes is only human.
That he needs a shave is obvious.

The rule of number agreement between subject (S) and verb applies to all finite clauses, whether they are main clauses or subordinate clauses:

Inflation (S) *is* decreasing, and *productivity* (S) *is* rising.
Nature (S) *has* arranged that *no two flowers* (S) *are* the same, even though *they* (S) *appear* very similar.

7.2 *And*

The subject is plural if it consists of two or more phrases that are linked by *and*, even if each is singular:

Your kitchen, your living-room, and your dining-room *are* too small.

The subject is also plural if *and* is implied though not actually present:

Your kitchen, your living-room, your dining-room, *are* too small.

It is plural when one of the main nouns is implied though not actually present:

British and American English *are* dialects of one language. (British English and American English are . . .)
Both the first and the second prize *were* won by students at our school. (Both the first prize and the second prize were . . .)

On the other hand, if the linked units refer to the same thing, the subject is singular:

The first serious poem I read in grade school and one I later studied in high school *was* 'Ozymandias' by Shelley. (The first serious poem was identical with the one later studied.)
A conscientious and honest politician *has* nothing to fear. (A politician who is both conscientious and honest has . . .)

In some instances, two linked units may be viewed as either a combination (and therefore singular) or as separate units (and therefore plural):

Bread and butter *is* good for you. (Bread with butter on it is . . .)
Bread and butter *have* recently gone up in price. (Both bread and butter have . . .)

If the noun phrases are introduced by *each* or *every*, the subject is singular:

Every student and every instructor *has* to show an ID card to borrow books from the library.
Each adult and each child *was* given a sandwich.
Every bank and store *was* closed that day.

See 7.4 for *with* and other linking expressions.

7.3 *Or*, *nor*

If the subject noun phrases are linked by *or*, *either . . . or*, or *neither . . . nor*, the verb may be singular or plural. When both phrases are singular, the verb is singular:

No food or drink *was* provided.
Either pollen or dust *causes* his allergy.
Neither the time nor the place *was* appropriate.

When both phrases are plural, the verb is plural:

Either the Unionists or the Nationalists *have* to make concessions.

When one phrase is singular and the other plural, usage guides prefer the verb to agree in number with the phrase closest to it:

Three short essays or one long essay *is* required.
Neither your brother nor your sisters *are* responsible.

The plural is very often used in conversation regardless of which phrase precedes the verb.

When the linked units are pronouns that require different verb forms, it is better to avoid having to make a choice. Instead, rephrase the sentence:

Neither you nor I am responsible for the arrangements.
Neither of us is responsible for the arrangements.

7.4 *With*

When a singular noun phrase is linked to a following noun phrase by a preposition such as *with*, the subject is singular even though the preposition is similar in meaning to *and*:

His sister, together with her two youngest children, *is* staying with them.

The subject is singular because the main noun is singular. Other prepositions used in a similar way include *as well as* and *in addition to*:

The teacher, as well as the students, *was* enjoying the picnic.

In the following sentence, the preposition is *after*:

One person after another *has* objected to the proposed reform.

7.5 Collective nouns

A collective noun refers to a group of people or things. Some common examples are:

administration	enemy	herd
army	firm	jury
audience	family	mob
class	fleet	nation

committee	gang	public
crew	government	swarm
crowd	group	team

When members of the group are viewed as a unit, singular verbs and singular pronouns are usual:

The audience *was* very noisy.
The public *has* a right to know.
The jury *has* retired for the night, but *it* will resume *its* deliberations tomorrow.
The Olympic Committee *has* made *its* decision, and *has* awarded the 2008 Games to Beijing.

When the members of the group are viewed as individuals, plural verbs and plural pronouns are used:

The government *are* confused about what to do next. (The members of the government are . . .)
All the team *are* in *their* places. (All the members of the team are . . .)

7.6 Indefinite pronouns

Most indefinite pronouns (cf. 5.25) take singular verbs:

Everybody *is* now here.
Someone *has* borrowed my comb.

In formal writing, use singular verbs even when a plural phrase follows the pronouns:

Either of them *is* prepared to help you.
Each of our friends *has* taken the course.

Several indefinite pronouns (*none*, *all*, *some*, *any*) and the fractions may be either singular or plural. If they refer to one thing, they take a singular verb:

Some (of the material) *is* not suitable for children.
Half (the county) *is* under water.
All (the fruit) *has* been eaten.
None (of the crop) *was* in danger.

If they refer to more than one person or thing, they take a plural verb:

Some (of the pages) *are* missing.
Half (of the members) *have* voted in favour of the amendment to the constitution.
All (my friends) *were* abroad.
None (of us) *have* heard about the new regulation.

None is also used with a singular verb:

None (of us) *has* heard about the new regulation.

Problems sometimes arise in the choice of pronouns or determiners for which singular indefinite pronouns are the antecedent. The traditional choice for formal writing is a masculine pronoun or determiner, according to what is required in the context:

[1] Everybody wanted a room of *his* own.
[2] Does anyone think *he* can solve this problem?

It is also the traditional choice when noun phrases are introduced by indefinite determiners such as *every* or *any* (cf. 5.26) or when the phrases refer to a class of people:

[3] Every student has handed in *his* work on time.
[4] A good musician receives more invitations to perform than *he* can manage.

Changes in attitude have led many to avoid using the masculine to refer to both male and female. It is generally possible to rephrase the sentence to avoid suggesting a sexist bias. One way is to avoid using a pronoun or possessive determiner, as in [1a]; another way is to make the subject plural, as in [2a]–[4a]:

[1a] Everybody wanted a separate room.
[2a] Do *any of you* think you can solve this problem?
[3a] *All students* have handed in *their* work on time.
[4a] *Good musicians* receive more invitations to perform than *they* can manage.

In recent usage, the plural pronouns *their* and *they* are increasingly being used, especially in informal contexts:

Everybody wanted a room of *their* own.
Does anyone think *they* can solve this problem?

7.7 Quantity phrases

Plural phrases of quantity or extent take singular verbs when the quantity or extent is viewed as a unit:

Ten pounds *is* enough.
Two years *seems* too long to wait.
Five miles *was* as far as they would walk.

Otherwise, a plural is used:

Twenty years *have* passed since I last saw Helen.
Twenty-seven pounds *were* stolen from his wallet.

7.8 Singular nouns ending in *-s*

Nouns ending in *-ics* are singular when they refer to a field of study, for example *economics*, *linguistics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, *statistics*:

Statistics *is* one of the options in the degree course.
Economics *was* my favourite subject at school.

Some of these nouns are often used in a different sense and may then be plural:

Your statistics *are* inaccurate.
The acoustics in this hall *have* been improved.

Names of diseases that end in *-s* are generally treated as singular, for example AIDS, *measles*, *mumps*:

AIDS *is* particularly prevalent in Africa.

Names of games that end in *-s* are singular, for example *billiards*, *darts*, *draughts*, *dominoes*:

Dominoes *is* the only game I play at home.

Individual pieces have singular and plural forms:

You've dropped a *domino* on the floor.
The *dominoes are* on the floor.

7.9 *Who*, *which*, *that*

The relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that* have the same number as the nouns they refer to.

The singular is correct in the following sentences:

I have written a letter for the student who *is* applying for a job in our department. (The student is applying . . .)

You need special permission to borrow a book which *is* kept in the reference section. (The book is kept . . .)
They noted the tension that *has* begun to mount in the city. (The tension has begun to mount . . .)

The plural is correct in the following sentences:

People who *live* in glasshouses shouldn't throw stones. (The people live in glasshouses.)
The weapons which *were* found during the search were produced as evidence in court. (The weapons were found . . .)
She reported on the decisions that *were* made at the meeting. (The decisions were made . . .)

The same rule of agreement applies when the relative pronoun refers to a personal pronoun:

You who *are* my closest friends know best what needs to be done. (You are my closest friends.)
It is I who *am* to blame. (I am to blame.)
It is he who *is* responsible for organizing the event. (He is responsible . . .)

In less formal contexts, constructions beginning *It's* . . . will take objective forms of the pronouns (cf. 7.13) and third person verb forms:

It's *me* who*'s*/who *was* to blame.
It's *us* who *are*/*were* to blame.

7.10 *What*

Either a singular verb or a plural verb may be used with the pronoun *what*. The choice depends on the meaning:

What worries them is that he has not yet made up his mind. (The thing that worries them is . . .)
They live in what *are* called ranch houses. (in houses that are called . . .)

Similarly, use either the singular or the plural with *what*-clauses, according to the meaning:

What they need *is* a good rest. (The thing that they need is . . .)
What were once painful ordeals *are* now routine examinations. (Those things . . . are now . . .)

7.11 *There is*, *there are*

In speech it is common to use a singular verb after introductory *there* (cf. 6.11) even when the subject (which follows the verb) is plural:

> There's two men waiting for you.

In formal writing, follow the general rule:

> There *is* somebody waiting for you.
> There *are* two men waiting for you.

7.12 Citations and titles

Citations and titles always take a singular verb, even though they consist of plural phrases:

> 'Children' *is* an irregular plural.
> *Reservoir Dogs is* a very violent film.
> *Oscar and Lucinda was* awarded the Booker Prize in 1988.

CASE

7.13 Subject complement

When the subject complement is a pronoun, it is usually in the objective case: *It's me*, *That's him*. Such sentences tend to occur in speech or written dialogue. Subjective forms as in *It is I* and *This is he* are felt to be stilted, though they may be used in formal contexts in constructions such as *It is I who am to blame*, *It is he who is responsible* (cf. 7.9).

7.14 Coordinated phrases

In 5.18 I stated the rules for the selection of subjective and objective cases in pronouns: we use the subjective case for the subject and (in formal style) for the subject complement; otherwise we use the objective case. Errors of case may arise when a pronoun is coordinated with a noun or another pronoun:

[1] *You and her* will take charge. (Correct to *You and she*.)
[2] I think *Bob and me* have the right approach. (Correct to *Bob and I*.)
[3] Everybody knows *Nancy and I*. (Correct to *Nancy and me*.)
[4] The tickets are for *you and I*. (Correct to *you and me*.)

The errors do not occur when there is only one pronoun. You can therefore test which form is correct by using just the second pronoun:

[1a] *She* will take charge. (*She* is subject.)
[2a] I think *I* have the right approach. (*I* is subject of the subordinate clause.)
[3a] Everybody knows *me*. (*Me* is direct object.)
[4a] The tickets are for *me*. (*Me* is complement of the preposition *for*.)

There is a similar possibility of error when *we* or *us* is accompanied by a noun:

They complained about the way *us* students were behaving.
Correct to: *we students*. (cf. *the way we were behaving*.)

They will not succeed in pushing *we Australians* around.
Correct to: *us Australians*. (cf. *pushing us around*.)

7.15 After *as* and *than*

In formal writing, *as* and *than* are always conjunctions in comparisons. The case of the pronoun depends on its function in the comparative clause, though the verb may be absent:

[1] They felt the same way as *he*. (*He* is subject.)
[2] They paid him more than *me*. (*Me* is indirect object.)
[3] He likes me more than *her*. (*Her* is direct object.)

You can test which form is correct by expanding the comparative clause:

[1a] They felt the same way as *he* did.
[2a] They paid him more than they paid *me*.
[3a] He likes me more than he likes *her*.

In less formal contexts, the objective forms are normal even when the pronoun is subject:

[1b] They felt the same way as *him*.

7.16 After *but*

But meaning 'except' is a preposition. In formal writing, the pronoun following the preposition *but* should be in the objective case:

I know everybody here but *her*.
Nobody but *me* can tell the difference.

7.17 After *let*

Use the objective case after *let*:

> Let *us* examine the problem carefully.
> Let *them* make their own decisions.

A coordinated pronoun should be objective:

> Let *you and me* take the matter in hand.
> Let *Bob and her* say what they think.

7.18 *Who*, *whom*

Whom is not often used in everyday speech. In formal writing, however, the distinction between subjective *who* and objective *whom* is retained:

> She is somebody *who* knows her own mind. (cf. *She* knows her own mind.)
> She is somebody on *whom* I can rely. (cf. I can rely on *her*.)

Parenthetic clauses like *I believe* and *I think* should not affect the choice of case:

[1] I recently spoke to somebody *who* I believe knows you well.
(cf. *She* knows you well, I believe.)
[2] I recently spoke to somebody *whom* I believe you know well.
(cf. You know *her* well, I believe.)

The following example is different:

[3] She is somebody *whom* I consider to be a good candidate for promotion.
(cf. I consider *her* to be a good candidate for promotion.)

I consider in [3] is not parenthetic. It cannot be omitted like *I believe* in [1] and [2]. *Whom* in [3] is the direct object of *consider*.

Similarly, the distinction between subjective *whoever* and *whomever* is retained in formal writing:

> *Whoever* wants to see me should make an appointment with my secretary. (cf. *She* wants to see me.)
> You can show the report to *whoever* wants to see it. (cf. *She* wants to see it.)
> I will offer advice to *whomever* I wish. (cf. I wish to offer advice to *her*.)

7.19 Case with *-ing* clauses

An *-ing* participle clause may have a nominal function (i.e. a function similar to one possible for a noun phrase). If the subject of the clause is a pronoun, a name, or other short personal noun phrase, it is preferable to put it into the genitive case:

They were surprised at *Paul's/his* refusing to join the club.
He was afraid of *my* protesting against the new rule.
I dislike *Robert's* seeing X-rated movies.
Do you know the reason for *your sister's* breaking off the engagement?

Use the common case (that is, not the genitive case) for long noun phrases:

I remember *a car with a broken rear window* being parked alongside our house.
They were annoyed at *the students and staff* demonstrating against cuts in student loans.

The common case is also used for non-personal nouns:

I am interested in *the car* being sold as soon as possible.

Except in formal writing, the subject is often in the common case (for nouns) or objective case (for pronouns):

They were surprised at Paul/him refusing to join the club.

In both formal and informal writng, the genitive case is used when the clause is the subject:

My <u>forgetting her name</u> amused everybody.

Similarly, use the common case (for nouns) or objective case (for pronouns) after verbs of perception, such as *see*, or certain other verbs, the most frequent of which are *find*, *keep*, and *leave*:

I kept *Paul* <u>waiting</u>.
We watched *them* <u>leaving</u>.

AUXILIARIES AND VERBS

7.20 Problems with auxiliaries

When it follows a modal (cf. 5.31), the auxiliary *have* is often pronounced like *of* and is therefore sometimes misspelled *of*. The correct spelling is *have* after the modals in these sentences:

I *should have* said something about it long ago.
Somebody else *would have* paid.
You *might have* helped me.
She *could have* become the mayor.

The semi-modal *had better* is often rendered as *'d better* or *better* in speech: *He better not be late*. Use the full expression in formal writing: *He had better not be late*.

Ought to should be the first verb in the verb phrase. Combinations such as *didn't ought* to and *hadn't ought to* are non-standard.

7.21 *Lie*, *lay*

The intransitive verb *lie* ('be in a reclining position') and the transitive verb *lay* ('place') are often confused, because the past tense of *lie* is *lay* and the present tense of *lay* is *lay* or *lays*. Here are the forms of the two verbs:

present tense	*lie*, *lies*	*lay*, *lays*
***-ing* participle**	*lying*	*laying*
past tense	*lay*	*laid*
-ed participle	*lain*	*laid*

Here are examples of sentences with these verbs:

lie Is she *lying* on the sofa?
The children *lay* asleep on the floor.
I have *lain* in bed all morning.

lay Are you *laying* a bet on the next race?
He *laid* his head on his arms.
The hens have *laid* a dozen eggs this morning.

7.22 Present tense

Standard written English requires the *-s* inflection for the third person singular and no inflection elsewhere (cf. 7.1 for the verb *be*):

Johns *says*.	I *say*.
She *knows*.	We *know*.
The dog *bites*.	They *bite*.
It *does*.	You *do*.

Forms such as *I says*, *you knows*, and *it do* are frequently used in casual conversation, but they are non-standard forms and should therefore be avoided in writing.

Negative contractions sometimes cause difficulties. The standard contraction of *does not* is *doesn't (she doesn't)*, not *don't*. Negative *ain't* is commonly heard in conversation as a contraction of various combinations, including *am not*, *is not*, *have not*, and *has not*, but it is not a standard form.

7.23 Past and *-ed* participle

Regular verbs have the same form for the past and the *-ed* participle:

He *laughed* loudly.
He hasn't *laughed* so much for a long time.

Some irregular verbs have different forms:

She *spoke* to me about it.
She has *spoken* to me about it.

Except in written representations of non-standard speech, do not write non-standard forms for the past and *-ed* participle:

I *done* my assignment. (Correct to *did*.)
We *seen* the movie last week. (Correct to *saw*.)
He was *shook* up by the news. (Correct to *shaken*.)

Some verbs have variant forms that are acceptable for both past and *-ed* participle: *dreamed*, *dreamt*; *kneeled*, *knelt*; *lighted*, *lit*; *shined*, *shone*. The past and *-ed* participle of *hang* is generally *hanged* in the sense 'suspend by the neck until dead' (*He was hanged for murder*) and is *hung* for all other meanings (*The picture was hung on the wall*).

7.24 Past and past subjunctive

The past subjunctive is used to refer to situations that are very unlikely or that are contrary to the facts (cf. 4.19):

I wish she *were* here.
He behaves as though he *were* your friend.

Suppose she *were* here now.
If I *were you*, I wouldn't tell him.

The only past subjunctive is *were*, which is used for the first and third person singular of the verb *be* in formal English. In less formal style the simple past *was* is generally used in the same contexts:

I wish she *was* here.
If I *was* you, I wouldn't tell him.

For the plural and the second person singular of *be* and for verbs other than *be*, the simple past is used to refer to situations in the present or future that are very unlikely or that are contrary to fact. One very common context is in conditional clauses, that is, clauses that express a condition on which something else is dependent:

If they *were* graduating next year, they would need to borrow less money. (But they probably will not be graduating next year.)
If she *lived* at home, she would be happier. (But she does not live at home.)
If you *were* an inch taller, you could be a basketball player. (But you're not likely to get taller.)

The verb in the main clause is always a past modal, usually *would* or *could*.

If the situations are set in the past, the past perfect is used in the conditional clause and a past perfect modal, usually *would have*, in the main clause:

If we *had been* there yesterday, we *would have seen* them. (But we were not there yesterday.)
If he *had been given* a good mark, he *would have told me*. (But it seems that he was not given a good mark.)

If the auxiliary in the conditional clause is *were*, *had*, or *should*, we can omit *if* and front the auxiliary:

Were she here now, there would be no problem.
Had we stayed at home, we would have met them.
Should you see him, give him my best wishes.

7.25 Multiple negation

Standard English generally allows only one negative in the same clause. Non-standard English allows two or more negatives in the same clause:

double negation	They *didn't* say *nothing*.
corrected	*They said nothing*.
	They *didn't* say *anything*.
triple negation	*Nobody never* believes *nothing* I say.
corrected	*Nobody ever* believes *anything* I say.
double negation	I *didn't* like it, *neither*.
corrected	*I didn't* like it, *either*.

Negative adverbs include not only the obvious negative *never*, but also *barely*, *hardly*, *scarcely*:

double negation	I *can't hardly* tell the difference.
corrected	I *can hardly* tell the difference.

Standard English allows double negation when the two negatives combine to make a positive. When *not* modifies an adjective or adverb with a negative prefix (*unhappy*, *indecisively*), it reduces the negative force of the word, perhaps to express an understatement:

It was a *not unhappy* occasion. ('a fairly happy occasion')
She spoke *not indecisively*. ('fairly decisively')

Occasionally both the auxiliary and the main verb are negated:

We *can't not* agree to their demands. ('It's not possible for us not to agree to their demands.')

Other negative combinations also occasionally occur:

Nobody has *no* complaints. ('There is nobody that has no complaints'; 'Everybody has some complaints.')

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

7.26 Confusion between adjectives and adverbs

It is occasionally not obvious whether to use an adjective or a related adverb. One rule is to use an adjective if the word is the subject complement after a linking verb (cf. 3.8). The adjective characterizes the subject:

She looked *angry*.
She feels *bad*.
I don't feel *well*.
He sounded *nervous*.
The flowers smell *sweet*.
The food tastes *good*.

The adverb *badly* is often used with the linking verb *feel*, but in formal writing use *feel bad*. *Well* in *I don't feel well* is an adjective meaning 'in good health'. It is an adverb in 'He didn't play *well*.'

If the word characterizes the manner of the action denoted by the verb, use an adverb in formal writing:

She writes *well*. (Not: 'She writes *good*')
He hurt his neck *badly*. (Not: 'He hurt his neck *bad*')
Your dog is barking *loudly*. (Not: 'Your dog is barking *loud*')
If the job is done *satisfactorily*, I will give him other jobs (Not: 'If the job is done *satisfactory* . . .')

Some words can have the same form for both the adjective and the adverb: *early*, *fast*, *hard*, *late*, *slow*, *quick*, *long*, and words in *-ly* that are formed from nouns denoting time (*hourly*, *daily*). The adverbs *slow*, *quick*, and *deep* also have parallel adverb forms in *-ly*: *slowly*, *quickly*, and *deeply*. These three adverbs formed without the *-ly* suffix are mainly used with imperatives:

Drive *slow*.
Come *quick*.
Dig *deep* into your pocket for a donation.

Both *direct* and *directly* are adverbs in the senses 'in a straight line' or 'without anything intervening':

We fax our orders *direct* to London for immediate despatch.
The Transcaucasian republics try to bypass Moscow by selling oil *directly* to Ukrainian nationalists.

7.27 Comparison

Most adjectives and adverbs are *gradable* (cf. 5.14): we can view them as being on a scale of less or more. Gradable words allow comparison (*less foolish*, *more quickly*) and modification by intensifiers that show how far they are along the scale (*somewhat foolish*, *very quickly*). Some adjectives and adverbs are not gradable; for example, we cannot say *more medical* or *very previously*.

Writers vary on whether certain adjectives or adverbs are gradable. Those who treat them as non-gradable think that they express the highest degree (*excellent*) or that they cannot be measured on a scale (*uniquely*). The most common of these disputed words are *complete(ly)*, *perfect(ly)*, *unique(ly)*. Yet even in formal writing we find expressions such as *a more perfect union* or *the most extreme poverty*. If you are in doubt, it is better not to treat these words as gradable in formal writing.

Use the comparative for two only (*the older of the two girls*) and the superlative for more than two (*the oldest of the three girls*). The comparative of the adjective *bad* and the adverb *badly* is *worse* (not *worser*); the superlative is *worst* (not *worsest*).

Fewer goes with count nouns and *less* with non-count nouns (cf. 5.4):

fewer { *demonstrators*, *mistakes*, *votes* } *less* { *danger*, *money*, *time* }

7.28 *Only*

Where you put *only* in a sentence may affect how the reader understands the sentence. In speech you can make your intention clear through your intonation, but when you write, it is best to put *only* next to the word or phrase it refers to:

Only children can swim in the lake before noon. (not adults)
Children can *only swim* in the lake before noon. (not fish)
Children can swim *only in the lake* before noon. (not in the pool)
Children can swim in the lake *only before noon*. (not in the afternoon)

The following words should also be positioned with care: *also*, *even*, *just*, *merely*.

7.29 Dangling modifiers

Absolute clauses are non-finite or verbless adverbial clauses that have their own subjects:

All their money having been spent on repairs, they applied to the bank for a loan.
He nervously began his speech, *his voice trembling*.
They strolled by the river, *their heads bare*.

If adverbial clauses have no subject of their own, their implied subject is generally the same as the subject of the sentence:

Having spent all his money on a vacation to Hawaii, Norman applied to the bank for a loan. (Norman has spent all his money on a vacation to Hawaii.)

A **dangling modifier** has no subject of its own, and its implied subject cannot be identified with the subject of the sentence though it can usually be identified with some other phrase in the sentence:

dangling *Being blind*, a dog guided her across the street.
corrected Being blind, she was guided across the street by a dog.
dangling *Although large enough*, they did not like the apartment.
corrected Although the apartment was large enough, they did not like it.
dangling *After turning the radio off*, the interior of the car became silent.
corrected After she (or *I*, etc.) turned the radio off, the interior of the car became silent.
dangling *When absent through illness*, the company pays you your full salary for six months.
corrected When you are absent through illness, the company pays you your full salary for six months.
dangling *Being an excellent student*, her teacher gave her extra work to do.
corrected Since she was an excellent student, her teacher gave her extra work to do.

EXERCISES

Exercise 7.1 Subject–verb agreement (cf. 7.1)

Select the appropriate verb form given in brackets at the end of each sentence, and write it in the blank space.

1. He _____ his neighbour jogging. (*see*, *sees*)
2. He _____ know what kind of exercise to do. (*don't*, *doesn't*)
3. Exercise for the middle-aged _____ considered a prophylactic. (*is*, *are*)
4. Too many people _____ up with heart attacks. (*end*, *ends*)
5. To undertake an exercise test _____ prudent. (*is*, *are*)
6. The test _____ your level of fitness. (*determine*, *determines*)
7. Usually the test _____ after a physical examination. (*come*, *comes*)
8. Finding out what your heart can do _____ the goal of the test. (*is*, *are*)
9. Most tests _____ a treadmill. (*use*, *uses*)
10. Some clinics also _____ a bicycle. (*use*, *uses*)
11. Walking on an elevated fast-moving treadmill _____ hard work. (*is*, *are*)
12. The doctors constantly _____ your heart rate. (*monitor*, *monitors*)
13. On the basis of the tests, the doctor _____ likely to recommend an exercise programme. (*is*, *are*)
14. To take up a regular programme _____ discipline. (*require*, *requires*)

15. Exercise improves the heart, _____ it? (*don't*, *doesn't*)
16. That you shouldn't overexert yourself _____ without saying. (*go*, *goes*)
17. On the other hand, we _____ too little exercise. (*do*, *does*)
18. We _____ want heart trouble at our age. (*don't*, *doesn't*)

Exercise 7.2 Subject–verb agreement (cf. 7.1–12)

Select the appropriate verb form given in brackets at the end of each sentence, and write it down in the blank space.

1. Surgeons in the US successfully _____ clouded vision or outright blindness by transplanting about 10,000 corneas a year. (*alleviate*, *alleviates*)
2. The congregation _____ mainly of factory workers. (*consist*, *consists*)
3. Analysis with the aid of computers _____ those accounts that appear to be conduits for drug money. (*select*, *selects*)
4. What makes the situation serious _____ that no new antibiotics have been discovered in the past 15 years. (*is*, *are*)
5. Riding a bicycle in London _____ courage and agility. (*demands*, *demand*)
6. Each _____ capable of the first 90 minutes of sustained high-altitude running. (*is*, *are*)
7. He was fascinated by the stories in the Old Testament that _____ history to be determined by chance meetings and by small, personal incidents. (*show*, *shows*)
8. The job of establishing sufficient controls and measurements so that you can tell what is actually happening to athletes _____ tediously complex. (*is*, *are*)
9. Both science and medicine _____ to preparing athletes for competition. (*contribute*, *contributes*)
10. The only equipment they work with _____ a blackboard and some chalk. (*is*, *are*)
11. One area of research that shows great promise _____ genetics. (*is*, *are*)
12. *The Producers* _____ the most widely praised Broadway show in decades. (*is*, *are*)
13. The blind _____ not want pity. (*does*, *do*)
14. These are not the conclusions that she _____ from her survey of the current economic policies of countries in the European Union. (*draw*, *draws*)
15. Where he went wrong _____ in the arbitrary way he allowed dialect to pepper his narrative. (*was*, *were*)
16. The extraordinary _____ described as though it were ordinary. (*is*, *are*)

Exercise 7.3 Subject–verb agreement (cf. 7.1–12)

These sentences form a connected passage. The base form of a verb is given in brackets at the end of each sentence. Write down the appropriate form of the verb in the blank space.

1. The young woman now sitting in the dermatologist's waiting room _____ an itchy rash. (*have*)
2. The rash on her elbows and legs _____ due to an allergic reaction. (*be*)
3. There are many allergies that _____ rashes. (*cause*)
4. The existence of allergies _____ known long before scientists had any understanding of their nature. (*be*)
5. The nature of allergy _____ still not fully understood. (*be*)
6. The victims of allergy seldom die and seldom _____. (*recover*)
7. There _____ nothing like an itchy rash for wearing a person down. (*be*)
8. Some allergies, such as asthma, _____ no external cause. (*have*)
9. Others _____caused by contact with a foreign substance. (*be*)
10. The young woman's allergy _____ brought about by contact with copper. (*be*)

Exercise 7.4 Indefinite pronouns (cf. 7.6)

Rewrite each sentence to avoid sexist bias.

1. Each student must fill out an application form if he wishes to be considered for a postgraduate studentship.
2. Everybody worked his hardest to ensure that the event was a success.
3. An astronaut runs the risk of serious injury, even death, if his space-craft malfunctions while he is in orbit.
4. Each worker should show up promptly for work or run the risk of having an hour's pay deducted from his pay-packet.
5. An American politician must raise considerable sums of money if he wishes to be elected to office.
6. Every individual is responsible for his own welfare.
7. Any engineering graduate will find that he can easily get a job.
8. The shop steward has less influence than he had twenty years ago.

Exercise 7.5 Coordinated phrases (cf. 7.14)

Select the pronoun form given in brackets that would be appropriate in formal writing, and write it down in the blank.

1. Edward and _____ went for a walk after the talk. (*I*, *me*)
2. Our boss thinks that Mary and _____ talk too much when we work together. (*I*, *me*)
3. The police officer gave the driver and _____a stern lecture on the condition of our car. (*I*, *me*)
4. _____Australians are proud of our culture. (*We*, *Us*)
5. Between you and _____ this class is much harder than I thought it would be. (*I*, *me*)

6. Your parents expressed their appreciation of how well Fred and _____ had decorated the house. (*I*, *me*)
7. Either Rebecca or _____will be in contact with you about the campaign. (*I*, *me*)
8. Everyone except John and _____ were present at the rally. (*I*, *me*)

Exercise 7.6 ***Who*, *whom*** (cf. 7.18)

Select the pronoun form given in brackets that would be appropriate in formal writing, and write it in the blank.

1. She is the only person _____ I trust completely. (*who*, *whom*)
2. Go to the office and speak to _____ is working at the reception desk. (*whoever*, *whomever*)
3. Ted is the only person _____ I think is capable of filling the position. (*who*, *whom*).
4. People should vote for the candidate _____ they feel will best represent their interests. (*who*, *whom*)
5. The manager has already decided _____ to promote. (*who*, *whom)*
6. _____ is selected to chair the committee must be prepared to devote several hours a week to the task. (*Whoever*, *Whomever*)
7. Naomi is the one _____ is to be transferred to Liverpool. (*who*, *whom*)
8. I will vote for _____ you suggest. (*whoever*, *whomever*)
9. We have supervisors _____ are themselves supervised. (*who*, *whom*)
10. The shop will press charges against _____ is caught shoplifting. (*whoever*, *whomever*)

Exercise 7.7 Case (cf. 7.13–18)

Select the appropriate word given in brackets at the end of each sentence, and write it down in the blank space. If more than one seems appropriate, give the more formal word.

1. We should help those _____ we know are helping themselves. (*who*, *whom*)
2. We do not know _____ to ask. (*who*, *whom*)
3. They will pay the reward to _____ you nominate. (*whoever*, *whomever*)
4. My grandmother was one of six sisters, each of _____ had at least five daughters. (*who*, *whom*)
5. Speak to the person _____ is in charge. (*who*, *whom*)
6. Joan and _____ are about to leave. (*I*, *me*)
7. _____ do you want to see? (*Who*, *Whom*)
8. I am playing the record for _____ is interested. (*whoever*, *whomever*)
9. They called while you and _____ were at the party. (*I*, *me*)
10. Did you see _____ was there? (*who*, *whom*)

11. Let you and _____ take the initiative. (*I*, *me*)
12. He speaks English better than _____. (*she*, *her*)
13. It was _____ who seconded the motion. (*I*, *me*)
14. They recommended that I consult the lawyer _____ they employed. (*who*, *whom*)
15. Their advice was intended for Bruce and _____. (*I*, *me*)
16. Noboby knows the way but _____. (*I*, *me*)
17. People were speculating about _____ was in charge. (*who*, *whom*)

Exercise 7.8 Case with *-ing* clauses (cf. 7.19)

Select the appropriate word given in brackets at the end of each sentence, and write it down in the blank space. If more than one seems possible, give the more formal word.

1. I watched _____ playing football. (*them*, *their*)
2. They were angry at _____ refusing to join the strike. (*him*, *his*)
3. Are you surprised at _____ wanting the position? (*me*, *my*)
4. They can at least prevent _____ infecting others. (*him*, *his*)
5. I certainly do not object to _____ paying for the meal. (*you*, *your*)
6. _____ writing a reference for me persuaded the board to give me the position. (*You*, *Your*)
7. They were annoyed at their _____ telephoning after eleven. (*neighbour*, *neighbour's*)
8. I cannot explain _____ not answering your letters. (*them*, *their*)
9. They appreciated _____ explaining the differences between the two policies. (*me*, *my*)
10. I was delighted to hear of _____ passing the examination. (*you*, *your*)

Exercise 7.9 Auxiliaries and verbs (cf. 7.20–21)

Select the verb form given in parentheses that would be appropriate in formal writing, and write it in the blank.

1. You _____ completed the assignment before leaving the office. (*should have*, *should of*)
2. I wanted to _____ down before preparing dinner. (*lie*, *lay*)
3. I _____ played the game but I had injured my ankle the previous day. (*could have*, *could of*)
4. Joan _____ down for a few hours because she wasn't feeling well. (*laid*, *lay*)
5. Beckham has been _____ down during the entire game. (*lying*, *laying*)
6. The children _____ play quietly or they will upset their mothers. (*had better*, *better*)
7. They must have _____ down for quite some time. (*laid*, *lain*)

Exercise 7.10 Present tense (cf. 7.22)

For each verb listed in its base form, give the *-s* form (third person singular present). For example, *live* has the third person singular present form *lives*, as in *He lives in Sydney*.

1.	think	9.	push	17.	camouflage
2.	taste	10.	die	18.	do
3.	say	11.	refuse	19.	go
4.	imply	12.	fly	20.	have
5.	type	13.	be	21.	bury
6.	cry	14.	shout	22.	crush
7.	make	15.	undertake	23.	disagree
8.	wrong	16.	recognize	24.	crouch

Exercise 7.11 Past and *-ed* participle (cf. 7.23)

For each irregular verb listed in its base form, give the past form. For example, *live* has the past form *lived* as in *I lived in Sydney last year*.

1.	choose	9.	lead	17.	shake
2.	have	10.	hide	18.	make
3.	bring	11.	write	19.	see
4.	cost	12.	put	20.	set
5.	teach	13.	lose	21.	keep
6.	hold	14.	catch	22.	throw
7.	go	15.	do	23.	begin
8.	draw	16.	take	24.	tear

Exercise 7.12 Past and *-ed* participle (cf. 7.23)

For each irregular verb listed in its base form, give the *-ed* participle. For example, *draw* has the *-ed* participle form *drawn*, as in *I have drawn a map*.

1.	hear	9.	grow	17.	drive
2.	win	10.	tell	18.	think
3.	fall	11.	give	19.	see
4.	make	12.	have	20.	find
5.	spend	13.	forget	21.	show
6.	go	14.	do	22.	stand
7.	know	15.	take	23.	come
8.	meet	16.	read	24.	eat

Exercise 7.13 Past and *-ed* participle (cf. 7.23)

Select the form given in brackets that would be appropriate in formal writing, and write it down in the blank.

1. We _____ an accident on our way to work this morning. (*saw*, *seen*)
2. Her husband _____ home late after spending the night with his friends. (*came*, *come*)
3. The other workers and I _____ the job without even being asked to do so. (*did*, *done*)
4. He was _____ for murder in 1951. (*hung*, *hanged*)
5. I _____ out the washing so that it would dry. (*hung*, *hanged*)
6. You should have _____ to me before you came to a decision. (*spoke*, *spoken*)

Exercise 7.14 Past and past subjunctive (cf. 7.24)

Select the verb form that would be appropriate in formal writing, and write it down in the blank.

1. If I _____ you, I would make an effort to come to work on time. (*was*, *were*)
2. We did not know if she _____ the right person to ask. (*was*, *were*)
3. The commander acts as though he _____ ready for combat at any time. (*was*, *were*)
4. If he _____ to work a little harder, he would have no trouble getting into a very good university. (*was*, *were*)
5. I believe strongly that if the committee _____ to pass the amendment our problems would be solved. (*was*, *were*)
6. If I _____ given a second interview, I am sure that I would be offered the position. (*am*, *were*)
7. Had the train arrived a few minutes earlier, we _____ have made the first act of the play. (*will*, *would*)
8. If England were to score now, it _____ completely change the game. (*will*, *would*)

Exercise 7.15 Multiple negation (cf. 7.25)

Rewrite the sentences containing non-standard double negatives. Some sentences may not need any revision.

1. I can't hardly hear with the radio turned up so loud.
2. We are not displeased with the jury's verdict.
3. Nobody has no better ideas.
4. You can't not become involved in such an emotional issue as saving baby seals from being murdered by hunters.
5. I am not unhappy.
6. Those two suspects didn't do nothing to nobody.
7. It is not unusual for there to be cold weather in Scotland even in April or May.
8. It is not police policy to say nothing about police corruption.

Exercise 7.16 Confusion between adjectives and adverbs (cf. 7.26)

Correct these sentences where necessary by substituting adjectives for adverbs or adverbs for adjectives. Some of the sentences do not need to be corrected.

1. The child is eating too fast.
2. Do your pants feel tightly?
3. They fought hard against the change.
4. I didn't sleep too good last night.
5. We left early because I was not feeling well.
6. The milk tasted sourly this morning.
7. I felt good about the way they treated you.
8. Your dog is barking loud.
9. They should think more positive about themselves.
10. He hurt his neck bad.

Exercise 7.17 Comparison (cf. 7.27)

Give the inflected comparative and superlative of each adjective or adverb.

1.	wise	6.	strong	11.	friendly
2.	hard	7.	heavy	12.	risky
3.	sad	8.	large	13.	fierce
4.	angry	9.	deep	14.	tall
5.	rare	10.	happy	15.	red

Exercise 7.18 Dangling modifiers (cf. 7.29)

Rewrite each sentence, avoiding dangling modifiers.

1. Having completed the balloon crossing, hundreds of French villagers welcomed the three balloonists.
2. Unwilling to lay down his gun, the police shot dead the escaped convict.
3. When delivered, they found the merchandise spoiled.
4. When approaching the building, no single feature has an impact on the viewer.
5. A weak student, his teacher gave him extra essays and went over them with him privately.
6. After completing the first four columns, each should be added separately.
7. Being in charge, the accusation was particularly annoying to me.
8. Having found the first stage of our work to be satisfactory, permission was given by the inspector for us to begin the second stage.

*Exercise 7.19 Usage problems (cf. Chapter 7)

Write an essay on a usage topic.

(1) Select a usage topic. Some examples of usage topics are listed below.
(2) Look up the topic in at least three usage books. A list of usage books may be found in the Further Reading section, p. 295.
(3) In your essay summarize what you have found in the usage books, showing the similarities and differences in their approaches. Draw conclusions from your reading on the topic.

1. split infinitive
2. *like* as a conjunction
3. ending a sentence with a preposition
4. uses of *who* and *whom*
5. uses of *shall* and *will*
6. uses of subjunctives
7. apostrophe with names ending in *-s*
8. case of pronouns after *be*
9. case of pronouns after *as* and *than*
10. number of verbs with *either . . . or* and *neither . . . nor*
11. use of *they*, *them*, and *their* as gender-neutral singular words
12. case of pronouns and nouns with *-ing* clauses (see under 'gerund' and 'fused participle')

8

Style

8.1 Style in writing

In normal unprepared conversation we have only a very limited time to monitor what we say and the way we say it. We have much more time when we write, and generally we have the opportunity to revise what we write. Sometimes we are happy with our first decision, but very often we think of new things as we write and perhaps want to change both what we write and how we write it.

In our revisions we can draw on the resources that are available to us in various aspects of the language. Our writing style reflects the choices we make. In this chapter we will be looking at the choices we make in grammar. In particular, we will be considering how we can ensure that we convey our message effectively.

EMPHASIS

8.2 End-focus

It is normal to arrange the information in our message so that the most important information comes at the end. We follow this principle of **end-focus** when we put such information at the end of a sentence or clause. In contrast, the beginning of a sentence or clause typically contains information that is general knowledge, or is obvious from the context, or may be assumed as given because it has been mentioned earlier.

If we put a subordinate clause at the end of a sentence, it receives greater emphasis. For example, [1] emphasizes the action of the committee members, whereas [1a] emphasizes their feelings:

[1] *Although they were not completely happy with it*, the committee members adopted her wording of the resolution.

[1a] The committee members adopted her wording of the resolution, *although they were not completely happy with it*.

Similarly, the pairs that follow show how we can choose which information comes at the end by the way we organize the sentence:

[2] The American public is not interested in *appeasing terrorists*.
[2a] Appeasing terrorists does not interest *the American public*.
[3] On guard stood *a man with a gun in each hand*.
[3a] A man with a gun in each hand stood *on guard*.
[4] Teenagers are *difficult to teach*.
[4a] It is difficult to teach *teenagers*.

8.3 Front-focus

If we place an expression in an abnormal position, the effect is to make the expression more conspicuous. It is abnormal for the verb and any objects or complements to come before the subject. If these are fronted, they acquire greater prominence:

Attitudes will not change overnight, but *change* they will.
Marijuana they used occasionally, but *cocaine* they never touched.
Most distressing of all is the plight of the refugees.

The same applies if an adverbial that normally follows the verb is fronted and therefore comes before the subject:

Out you go.
Here they are.
Across the harbour stands a disused warehouse.
In goal is Seaman for England.

When a negative adverbial is fronted, it gains stronger emphasis. The operator comes before the subject, as in questions:

Never have so many youngsters been unemployed.
Under no circumstances will they permit smoking in public areas.

8.4 *There*-structures and cleft sentences

There-structures give greater prominence to the subject (cf. 6.11):

There were some students who refused to show their ID card.

They are particularly useful when the only other elements are the subject and the verb *be*:

There are no simple solutions.
There was no reason to be annoyed.
There is more than one way to reach your customers.

Cleft sentences (cf. 6.12) give greater prominence to one part of the sentence by placing it after a semantically empty subject (*it*) and a semantically empty verb (*be*):

It was *human error* that caused the explosion.
It is *the ending* that is the weakest part of the novel.

Similar effects can be achieved by using a nominal relative clause (cf. 6.9) or a general abstract noun:

What caused the explosion was *human error*.
The thing that caused the explosion was *human error*.
What he forgot to do was *to lock the front door*.

8.5 Parenthetic expressions

Parenthetic expressions are marked by intonation in speech and by punctuation in writing. The effect of the interruption is to give greater prominence to the previous unit:

Freud, of course, thought that he had discovered the underlying causes of many mental illnesses.
The music business is *not*, in actual fact, an easy business to succeed in.
In Australia, for example, the kangaroo is a traffic hazard.
The unions, understandably, wanted the wage increase to be adjusted to rising inflation.

CLARITY

8.6 End-weight

Where there is a choice, it is normal for a longer structure to come at the end of a sentence or clause. This principle of **end-weight** is in large part a consequence of the principle of end-focus (cf. 8.2), since the more important information tends to be given in fuller detail.

A sentence is clumsy and more difficult to understand when the subject is considerably longer than the predicate. We can rephrase the sentence to shift the weight to the end:

clumsy *The rate at which the American people are using up the world's supply of irreplaceable fossil fuels and their refusal to admit that the supply is limited* is the real problem.

improved The real problem is *the rate at which the American people are using up the world's supply of irreplaceable fossil fuels and their refusal to admit that the supply is limited.*

Similarly, if there is a considerable difference in length among the units that follow the verb, the longer or longest unit should come at the end:

clumsy The discovery of a baby mammal in Siberia has provided *biochemists*, *anthropologists*, *immunologists*, *zoologists*, *and paleontologists* with ample material.

improved The discovery of a baby mammal in Siberia has provided ample material for *biochemists*, *anthropologists*, *immunologists*, *zoologists*, *and paleontologists.*

Other examples follow where a rephrasing is desirable because of the principle of end-weight:

clumsy Einstein's theories have made *many important technological developments which we now take for granted* possible.

improved Einstein's theories have made possible *many important technological developments which we now take for granted.*

clumsy *The value of trying to identify the problem and to provide the tools necessary to make the education of these children a success* is not questioned.

improved No one questions *the value of trying to identify the problem and to provide the tools necessary to make the education of these children a success.*

clumsy *That the recession will be longer*, *deeper*, *and more painful than was expected only a few weeks ago* is very possible.

improved It is very possible *that the recession will be longer*, *deeper*, *and more painful than was expected only a few weeks ago.*

clumsy *A special set of symbols to enable the reader to produce a satisfactory pronunciation* is used.

improved *A special set of symbols* is used *to enable the reader to produce a satisfactory pronunciation.*

8.7 Misplaced expressions

We show where an expression belongs by where we place it. For example, [1] and [1a] as written sentences are likely to be understood differently because of the different positions of *immediately afterwards*:

[1] *Immediately afterwards* I remembered having met her.

[1a] I remembered having met her *immediately afterwards.*

A sentence is more difficult to understand when an expression is misplaced, even if there is no danger of misinterpretation. The [a] sentences in the pairs that follow give a corrected placement:

[2] He had not realized how slim she had become *before he saw her*.
[2a] *Before he saw her*, he had not realized how slim she had become.
[3] They knew what I meant *quite well*.
[3a] They knew *quite well* what I meant.
[4] She told him that it was all a joke *in a calm voice*.
[4a] She told him *in a calm voice* that it was all a joke.

Sometimes a sentence has more than one interpretation because an expression is positioned where it might belong in either of two directions. In [5] *on several occasions* may go with *He said* or with *he suffered from headaches*:

[5] He said *on several occasions* he suffered from headaches.

One way of showing it belongs with *He said* is to insert the conjunction *that* after it, since *on several occasions* will then be outside the boundaries of the subordinate clause:

[5a] He said *on several occasions* that he suffered from headaches.

The second interpretation is elicited in [5b]:

[5b] He said that he suffered *on several occasions* from headaches.

For [6], we can ensure the correct interpretation by moving *again* to unambiguous positions, as in [6a] and [6b]:

[6] I told them *again* the meeting had been postponed.
[6a] I *again* told them the meeting had been postponed.
[6b] I told them the meeting had *again* been postponed.

For [7], it would be best to rephrase the sentence as [7a] or [7b]:

[7] Writing *clearly* is important.
[7a] It is important to write clearly.
[7b] It is clear that writing is important.

Similarly, [8a] and [8b] clarify the intended meaning of the writer of [8]:

[8] Looking at the ages of the subjects *first* proved not to be very useful.
[8a] It proved not to be very useful to look *first* at the ages of the subjects.
[8b] *At first* it proved not to be very useful to look at the ages of the subjects.

8.8 Abstract nouns

It is often possible to make a sentence clearer by rephrasing it to replace abstract nouns (or at least some of them) with verbs or adjectives:

clumsy Since the *decriminalization* of public *drunkenness*, people have been avoiding Broadway Park, where drunks have been congregating.
improved Since it is no longer a crime to be drunk in public, people have been avoiding Broadway Park, where drunks have been congregating.
clumsy The report evaluates the *effectiveness* of government regulations in terms of the *extent* to which exposures to carcinogenic substances have been reduced.
improved The report evaluates how effective government regulations have been in reducing exposures to carcinogenic substances.
clumsy They should lessen their *self-centredness* and increase their *assistance* to others.
improved They should be less self-centred and more helpful to others.

General abstract nouns are often redundant. In such cases you can easily leave them out by rephrasing the sentence:

redundant If the fox population were not controlled by *the fox-hunting method*, other techniques would have to be employed.
improved If the fox population were not controlled by *fox-hunting*, other techniques would have to be employed.
redundant The charge that the industry is making excessive profits does not stand on *a valid foundation*.
improved The charge that the industry is making excessive profits is not *valid*.
redundant *The entertainment aspect* of reading is *a factor* in addition to the *informative experience* of reading.
improved Reading provides *entertainment* as well as *information*.
or Reading is *entertaining* as well as *informative*.

Some longwinded phrases with general words such as *fact* are better replaced by simpler conjunctions or prepositions:

longwinded I went to see Saving Private Ryan *in spite of the fact that* I dislike war films.

improved I went to see Saving Private Ryan *even though* I dislike war films.

Other examples are *on account of the fact that* and *due to the fact that* (both of which can be replaced by 'because'), *apart from the fact that* ('except that'), *as a consequence of* ('because of'), *during the course of* ('during'), *in the neighbourhood of* ('near'), *with the exception of* ('except').

8.9 Modifiers in noun phrases

Readers may find it difficult to work out the meaning of a noun phrase that has two or more modifiers. If we are writing about American history, it may be obvious what we mean by *American history teachers*. But if the context fails to make the meaning unambiguous, we should use prepositions to show the relationships: *teachers of American history* or *American teachers of history*.

Even if there is no ambiguity, a long noun phrase such as *prison reform lobby group recommendations* is better written with prepositions that indicate the words that belong together: *recommendations by the lobby group for prison reform*.

8.10 Subordination

It is sometimes better to split up a long complex sentence:

[1] *Because* many minor revisions were still required in the second draft of the document, contact with individual committee members was made by phone or letter, *as* the committee had been dissolved by the board and was soon to be replaced by an entirely new committee made up of members from a different department within the university.

One way of improving the readability of [1] is to divide it into two or more sentences, since one of the problems with [1] is that it contains two clauses (introduced by *because* and *as*) that separately give reasons for contacting committee members:

[1a] Many minor revisions were still required in the second draft of the document. Committee members were individually contacted by phone or letter for their views on the draft, since the committee had been dissolved by the board. An entirely new committee was soon to be formed consisting of members from a different department within the university.

In [2] the problem is the string of *that*-clauses:

[2] She rehearsed the speech *that* she was to give to the committee *that* distributed funds *that* had been allocated for training the unemployed.

We can replace the last two *that*-clauses by converting them into non-finite clauses, as in [2a]:

[2a] She rehearsed the speech *that* she was to give to the committee *distributing* funds *allocated* for training the unemployed.

8.11 Parallelism

Parallel structures provide a pleasing balance between the parallel units, and they emphasize meaning relationships between the units such as equivalence and contrast. Parallelism often involves coordination. However, the coordinated units must be similar in type. Here is an example of faulty parallelism, where the coordinated units are dissimilar:

faulty They discontinued the production of the paint because *the results of the field tests were unsatisfactory* and *a lack of interested customers*. (clause and noun phrase)

corrected They discontinued the production of the paint because *the results of the field tests were unsatisfactory* and *there was a lack of interested customers*.

or They discontinued the production of the paint because of *the unsatisfactory results of the field tests* and *a lack of interested customers*.

faulty You will find long lines *in the bookstore* and *to pay your tuition*. (prepositional phrase and infinitive clause)

corrected You will find long lines *in the bookstore* and *at the cashier*.

The relative pronoun *that* is generally an alternative to *which* or *who*. It is a fault to switch from *that* to *which* or *who*, or vice versa. The fault is illustrated in the following sentence; it can be corrected by using either *which* or *that* in both instances.

Scientists are still trying to explain the UFO *which* was seen over Siberia in 1908 by thousands of witnesses and *that* caused an explosion like that of an H-bomb.

In a series of three or more coordinated units, we can often choose whether to repeat words from the first unit or to leave them out. But we should be consistent:

faulty *The* colour of her hair, look of self-assurance, and *the* aristocratic bearing match those in the painting of the beautiful

	woman staring from the wall of the living room. (determiner in the third unit, but not in the second)
corrected	*The* colour of her hair, *the* look of self-assurance, and *the* aristocratic bearing . . .
or	*The* colour of her hair, look of self-assurance, and aristocratic bearing . . .
faulty	His collages derive from *both* art *and* from popular culture.
corrected	His collages derive from *both* art *and* popular culture.
or	His collages derive *both* from art *and* from popular culture.
faulty	They *neither* will help *nor* hinder her attempts to persuade the workers to join the trade union.
corrected	They will *neither* help *nor* hinder . . .
faulty	We realized that we had to make a decision, *either* marry *or* we go our separate ways.
corrected	We realized that we had to make a decision, *either* marry *or* go our separate ways.

Similarly, expressions that compare or contrast must also introduce parallel units:

faulty	I *prefer* the novels of Hemingway *to* Faulkner.
corrected	I *prefer* the novels of Hemingway *to* those of Faulkner.
or	I *prefer* Hemingway *to* Faulkner.
faulty	The lung capacity of non-smokers exposed to tobacco smoke in offices is *measurably less than* non-smokers in smoke-free offices.
corrected	. . . is *measurably less than* that of non-smokers in smoke-free offices.

Both correlatives must be present in comparative structures of the type *The more*, *the merrier*:

faulty	If the cost of raw materials keeps rising, *the more* manufacturers will raise their prices.
corrected	*The more* the cost of raw materials rises, *the more* manufacturers will raise their prices.
or	If the cost of raw materials keeps rising, manufacturers will raise their prices.

8.12 Repeated sounds

Avoid putting words near each other if they sound the same or almost the same but have different meanings. The lack of harmony between sound and sense may be distracting and sometimes even confusing. I suggest some alternatives in parentheses:

Industries and the professions are *finding* it increasingly difficult to *find* people with good writing skills. (Replace *find* by *recruit* or *hire*.)

The *subject* of my paper is the agreement between *subject* and verb in English. (Replace the first *subject* by *topic*.)

At this *point* I should *point* out that I left of my own free will. (Replace *point out* by *mention*.)

The television *show showed* how coal was mined in the United States. (Replace *showed* by *demonstrated*.)

8.13 Pronoun reference

A pronoun may refer to something in the situation (*this* in *Give this to your mother*), but generally it refers back to another word or phrase – its antecedent (cf. 5.17). The reference to an antecedent should be clear:

unclear The students were employed during the vacation by people who were fussy about *their* work.

clarified *The students* were employed during the vacation by people who were fussy about *the students'* work.

or The students were employed during the vacation by *people* who were fussy about *their own* work.

You need to be particularly careful when you intend the pronoun to refer to more than a phrase:

unclear Some people believe that *a person is successful only when he acquires enormous wealth* and they cannot be persuaded otherwise. But *that* is not always true.

clarified Some people believe that *a person is successful only when he acquires enormous wealth* and they cannot be persuaded otherwise. But wealth is not always a true measure of success.

Do not use a pronoun to refer vaguely to an antecedent that is implied but is not actually present. Replace the pronoun with a suitable noun phrase:

vague The airlines and the airports are unable to cope with the new security measures. Delays and frustration affect travellers daily. No one saw *it* coming.

clarified The airlines and the airports are unable to cope with the new security measures. Delays and frustration affect travellers daily. No one anticipated *the problem*.

You can sometimes improve a sentence by rephrasing it to omit a pronoun:

unnecessary pronouns	In our textbook *it* says that we should make sure that the reference of the pronoun is clear.
improved	Our textbook says that we should make sure that the reference of pronouns is clear.

CONSISTENCY

8.14 Pronoun agreement

Pronouns should agree with their antecedents in number (cf. 5.17):

faulty	Get *a university map* because *they* really help.
corrected	Get *a university map* because *it* really helps.
faulty	*A manager* should consider several factors when determining how *they* will deal with inefficient employees.
corrected	*Managers* should consider several factors when determining how *they* will deal with inefficient employees.

Be consistent in the use of pronouns. Use the same pronouns to refer to the same persons:

inconsistent	Every day *you* are bombarded with advertisements. It is up to *us* to decide what is worth buying.
corrected	Every day *you* are bombarded with advertisements. It is up to *you* to decide what is worth buying.
or	Every day *we* are bombarded with advertisements. It is up to *us* to decide what is worth buying.

The inconsistency in the next example follows from the switch from passive to active:

inconsistent	A coordinating conjunction should be used to join two main clauses when *you* want to give them equal emphasis.
corrected	*You* should use a coordinating conjunction to join two main clauses when *you* want to give them equal emphasis.
or	A coordinating conjunction should be used to join two main clauses when equal emphasis is required.

8.15 Tense consistency

Be consistent in your use of tenses:

A day later you *start* thinking about the essay and then you *realized* that you *had* been neglecting it. (Replace *realized* with *realize* and *had* with *have*.)

Mr William Sanders *is* a loyal and efficient man. He rarely *left* the house until all his work *was* done. (Replace *left* with *leaves* and *was* with *is*.)

For the most part they well *understood* the problems, once *being* undergraduates themselves. (Replace *once being* with *having once been*.)

Although I *worked* until midnight, I *can't* finish all my assignments. (Replace *can't* with *couldn't*.)

If you *had* gone to the bookshop before the term *started*, you *would be* able to buy all your course books. (Replace *would be* with *would have been*.)

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

Exercise 8.1 End-focus (cf. 8.2)

Rewrite the following sentences so that the underlined part is placed in the emphatic end position.

1. No other nation in the world consumes more oil than the United States.
2. That car belongs to my sister.
3. It is easy to underestimate Peter.
4. Susan and Martha are similar in their temperaments.
5. Serious malnutrition affects more than a third of the people in the world.
6. The whole class was interested in the lecture on the origins of English words.
7. Rats were crawling all over the building.
8. The government's tax policy benefits the wealthy most of all.
9. A drink of water was all they wanted.

Exercise 8.2 Front-focus (cf. 8.3)

Put the underlined part in front to give it strong emphasis.

1. The soil no longer has to be rested every three or four years to regain its natural fertility.
2. They must sign, or they will not be freed.
3. They not only consult doctors more frequently, but they do so about more minor problems.
4. He rejected the treatment only after thorough investigation.
5. Though they may be reluctant, they will accept the task.

6. The greatest difficulty we had was raising sufficient funds to staff the shelter for the homeless.
7. A great storm came from the north.

*Exercise 8.3 Emphasis (cf. 8.2–3)

Rewrite the following paragraph to achieve a better arrangement of information.

> People listened to my programme in their cars on their way to work. They either loved it or loathed it. It followed the Today programme so it had a biggish audience (in radio terms). I got a letter from a regular BBC correspondent who said he always turned the radio off immediately if it was my turn on the programme. However, he would like to take issue with something I had said last week. I once had a fan letter from Neil Kinnock saying what a good way it was to start Monday morning.

Exercise 8.4 Parenthetic expressions (cf. 8.5)

An adverbial is given in brackets at the end of each sentence. Rewrite each sentence, inserting the adverbial in an appropriate place and punctuating it with commas. More than one place may be appropriate.

1. The committee was not as docile as the chairman expected. (*as it happens*)
2. Heart disease was the principal cause of death. (*however*)
3. That woman is not the person you should try to contact. (*in fact*)
4. You should make every effort to perform your duties to the best of your ability. (*nevertheless*)
5. The car is beyond repair and should be scrapped. (*probably*)
6. This version of the manuscript illustrates the originality of the author's ideas. (*for instance*)

Exercise 8.5 End-weight (cf. 8.6)

Rewrite the following sentences by making the predicate longer than the underlined subject.

1. An open letter beseeching the all-male College of Cardinals to incorporate women into the election of the Pope was issued.
2. A statue of the statesman holding a sword in one hand and a shield in the other stood at the entrance.
3. The provocative thought that the bureaucracy is a public service for the benefit of citizens is offered.
4. Public health officials, social workers, police, civil liberties lawyers, and even divorce lawyers distract teachers from their teaching.

5. To do whatever can be done to motivate students to improve their reading and writing skills is necessary.
6. Many waste products from the catalytic combustions of petrol are emitted.

Exercise 8.6 Misplaced expressions (cf. 8.7)

Rewrite each sentence to avoid the misplaced constructions that are underlined. If the sentence is ambiguous, give two versions – one for each interpretation.

1. Brian asked how she was getting on quite routinely.
2. Treating children naturally can be pleasant.
3. To spend a vacation in many ways is necessary for mental health.
4. The doctor advised her on every occasion to take sedatives.
5. They claimed when they were young they had very little money.
6. Drinking normally made him happy.
7. Exercising frequently prolongs one's life.

*Exercise 8.7 Subordination (cf. 8.10)

Rewrite the following sentence to make it clearer.

> In the United States public confidence in airline safety has been undermined as a result of the terrorist attacks in New York and Washington and due to the fact that lapses in airport security have resulted in a substantial number of reports that have shown that the airlines have committed numerous violations, which officials in the Federal Aviation Administration think is the result of the deregulation of airlines and which many other experts in the field of airline safety believe will continue to occur until new laws are passed by Congress.

Exercise 8.8 Parallelism (cf. 8.11)

Correct the faulty parallelism in the sentences below.

1. At present we know enough neither about animals nor ourselves to make categorical statements on the nature of human communication.
2. You will find considerable difference between the paragraphs of deaf children compared to hearing children.
3. His shoulder bag contained a pipe, a tobacco pouch, address book, and a calculator.
4. He either smokes cigars or cigarettes, but I cannot remember which.
5. The special effects in recent films are more spectacular than past films.

Exercise 8.9 Repeated sounds (cf. 8.12)

Rewrite the sentences to avoid unnecessary repetition of sounds or words with different meanings.

1. The audience was noisy at first, but later it became quite quiet.
2. The government has not yet decided on the form that the formal inquiry will take.
3. My intention is to give more attention in the future to my children.
4. I find that trying to find where a class is being held can be frustrating.

Exercise 8.10 Pronoun reference (cf. 8.13)

Rewrite each sentence so that the reference to an antecedent is clear.

1. Experience shows that when abortion laws are liberalized, *they* sky-rocket.
2. The old man told his son that *he* was not allowed to smoke.
3. The teachers made the students put *their* names on the top of each sheet.

Exercise 8.11 Pronoun agreement (cf. 8.14)

Rewrite each sentence to eliminate inconsistencies in pronouns.

1. If one is conscientious, they will do well in life.
2. If one can speak the language fluently, you can negotiate a better price.
3. You should try a British pale ale. They're quite good.
4. We should strive to get the best education possible. You can then be sure that you will have a satisfying life.
5. Trying one's hardest to get in good shape can ruin your health if you're not careful.

Exercise 8.12 Tense consistency (cf. 8.15)

Rewrite each sentence to remove inconsistencies in tenses.

1. The spheres rotate and sent out streams of light in every direction.
2. Once she knows a better way to study, she would feel much better.
3. After I spoke to the contractor, but before I sign any contract, I would ask for references.
4. Even though I had done all the work, I still do poorly in examinations.

9

Punctuation

9.1 Punctuation rules

The rules for punctuation are conventions that have been developed by printers and publishers. In large part, punctuation helps the readers to understand the written communication by breaking it down into smaller components. The conventions also contribute to the appearance of the printed page, notably through paragraphing.

The conventions establish a measure of consistency for writers. Some conventions are obligatory: if we break them, we have made mistakes in punctuation. Others are optional: we can make better or worse choices in particular circumstances, depending on the effects we wish to convey. To that extent, punctuation is an art.

Some punctuation marks are intended to represent pauses that we should make in our reading. In [1] below, the author has chosen to enclose three words in brackets to indicate that they are to be read with pauses on either side. The effect of the separating pauses is rhetorical: they emphasize the addition of *or may not:*

[1] He may (or may not) vote for Mr Portillo as party leader.

But we do not always insert punctuation marks where we pause in speech. We would be likely to read or speak the sentence in [2] with a pause (or a break in our intonation) after the word *development* (and perhaps other pauses too):

[2] A contemporary philosopher invited to consider relevant difficulties raised by modern urban development might think to approach the issues from the direction of either of the now well-established traditions of social philosophy or aesthetics.

The punctuation system, however, does not allow a comma after *development*. There is a punctuation rule that forbids a comma between the subject and predicate unless the comma is the first of a pair of commas, as in [3]. Here parenthetic *such as thistles and docks* is separated by a pair of commas:

[3] Some perennials, such as thistles and docks, were killed by ploughing and harrowing during the fallow summer period.

The rule forbidding a comma after *development* in [2] depends on the grammar of the sentence: the analysis of the sentence into subject and predicate. Some punctuation rules involve grammar and others involve meaning. We will be looking at such rules in the sections that follow.

9.2 Sentence fragments and fragmentary sentences

A **sentence fragment** is a set of words that is punctuated as a sentence even though it is not grammatically an independent sentence. Experienced writers can set a tone in their writing that allows them to violate the rules of punctuation through their intentional use of sentence fragments. When inexperienced writers violate these rules, their readers are given the impression that the writers do not know the rules. On the whole, it is safer for writers to avoid using fragments in formal writing until they are experienced enough to sense when it is appropriate to use them. Below are three types of sentence fragments to avoid. In each instance, if we replace the full stop, we also need to change the following capital to lower case.

1. **subordinate clauses**

   The most vulnerable items are the keyboard, floppy disks, and printers. Because these are the items that people handle. [Replace the full stop with a comma.]
   The percentage or letter-marking system is better than the pass/fail system. Because marks motivate students to work harder. [Omit the full stop or replace it with a comma.]
   I woke up late the next morning. My head throbbing and my stomach burning. [Replace the full stop by a comma or a dash.]

2. **loosely joined phrases**

   The kit comes complete with an instruction leaflet. All for £18.50. [Replace the full stop with a comma or a dash.]
   He found her rather uninteresting. Especially by comparison with Helen. [Replace the full stop with a comma or a dash.]
   Some parents are making an effort to deal with the problem of teenage drinking. An effort that can help reduce alcoholism and road accidents. [Replace the full stop with a comma.]

3. **coordinated expressions**

   Some of his students became interested in environmental problems. And later helped in the battle against environmental pollution. [Replace the full stop with a comma.]
   They have abandoned their homes. And taken all their possessions with them. [Delete the full stop or replace it with a comma.]
   He gossiped about other people's relationships. And even his own. [Replace the full stop with a comma or a dash.]

Sentence fragments are occasionally used in print, particularly in advertising, to suggest an afterthought or a dramatic pause, as in this extract from an advertisement for Intercity trains:

> Suddenly, a brilliant thought might strike. An idea for a game that could be bigger than Trivial Pursuit.

Fragmentary sentences are sentences that are grammatically incomplete but can be completed from the verbal context (cf. 2.2). In written dialogue they are particularly common for responses, and their use in such contexts is perfectly appropriate:

A: What did she tell you?
B: *To help myself to food.* ('She told me to help myself to food.')

A: I heard you passed your driving test.
B: *After failing three times.* ('I passed it after failing three times.')

Fragmentary sentences are also common and appropriate in fictional description and narration:

> We've made a pact. A new start. No more philandering.
> [Paul Sayer, *Howling at the Moon*, p. 142. London: Constable, 1990]

In the next example (also from a novel), all the sentences except the first are fragmentary. The first sentence (ending in a semicolon) provides the clue to their interpretation. For most of them we would supply an initial *She was*, *She had*, or *She had a* to make them grammatically complete:

> Dr von Haller looked younger than I; about thirty-eight, I judged, for though her expression was youthful there was a little gray in her hair. Fine face; rather big features but not coarse. Excellent nose, aquiline if one wished to be complimentary but verging on the hooky if not. Large mouth and nice teeth, white but not American-white. Beautiful eyes, brown to go with her hair. Pleasant low voice and a not quite perfect command of colloquial English. Slight acccent. Clothes unremarkable, neither fashionable nor dowdy, in the manner Caroline calls 'classic'. Altogether a person to inspire confidence. [Robertson Davies, *The Deptford Trilogy*, p. 282. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1977]

Fragments are commonly used in email messages, and in personal letters. The following extract is from a personal letter written while travelling on London Underground. The sentence fragments are in italics.

> *Goodge St. Station. Last singing lesson this term with Christopher Littlewood. Fantastic man, fantastic lessons, so clever.* Don't know what I'm going to do now, his private waiting list is depressingly long. So I'll just have to wait I guess. How are you today I wonder? Shit – Train resembles sardine can. But by some miracle I get a seat.
>
> [ICE-GB-W1B-003-59ff]

As well as fragments, there is ellipsis (cf. 6.6) of determiners:

> (The) train resembles (a) sardine can.

9.3 Run-on sentences and comma splices

In [1] we have two separate sentences:

[1] I used to be afraid of him. I have since got to know him well.

We can join them into one sentence by simply putting a semicolon between them:

[1a] I used to be afraid of him; I have since got to know him well.

The general rule is that if we juxtapose sentences, as in [1] and [1a] , we must use a major punctuation mark. The major punctuation marks are full stops (periods), question marks, exclamation marks, colons, semicolons, and dashes. If we fail to use any mark at all the resulting error is a run-on sentence, as in [1b]:

[1b] I used to be afraid of him I have since got to know him well. [Correct by inserting a major punctuation mark after *afraid of him*.]

Here are further examples of run-on sentences:

> It did not matter to me whether or not I had made an impact on the world I just wanted to learn as much as possible. [Insert a major punctuation mark after *the world*.]
>
> Ask the first person you see if they will help you I am sure they will. [Insert a major punctuation mark after *help you*.]

If we use a comma instead of a major punctuation mark, the resulting error is a **comma splice**, as in [1c]:

[1c] I used to be afraid of him, I have since got to know him well. [Replace the comma with a major punctuation mark.]

The personal letter that we looked at in Section 9.2 also contains a comma splice:

> Don't know what I'm going to do now, his private waiting list is depressingly long. [Replace the comma with a major punctuation mark.]

Here are further examples of comma splices:

> I visited them in their new home, it was a large apartment with a living room, kitchen, dining alcove, and two bedrooms. [Replace the comma after *home* with a major punctuation mark.]
>
> I drifted towards vegetarianism, it was only partly for moral reasons. [Replace the comma after *vegetarianism* with a major punctuation mark.]

Comma splices are most likely to occur when a linking adverb (e.g. *therefore*, *nevertheless*) or a linking prepositional phrase (e.g. *in spite of that*, *as a result*) comes between the two sentences. A semicolon is the normal major punctuation mark if the two sentences are combined:

[2] They lost the battle, *nevertheless* they were determined to continue the war. [Correct by replacing the comma with a major punctuation mark.]

[3] The supply of houses grew more slowly than the number of new households, *as a result* there was a giddy rise in prices. [Correct by replacing the comma with a major punctuation mark.]

These linking expressions do not have to come between the two sentences. They can be moved elsewhere in the second sentence, as in [2a] and [2b]:

[2a] They lost the battle; they were determined, *nevertheless*, to continue the war.

[2b] They lost the battle; they were determined to continue the war *nevertheless*.

There is one exception to the general rule. We may use commas between juxtaposed sentences if they are short and are similar in their structure, as in [4]:

[4] The first problem is finding out what is important in life, the second problem is knowing how to apply this information in practice.

The sentence may consist of just two parallel clauses involving a kind of comparison, as in [5] and [6]:

[5] The sooner he finishes, the better he will feel.

[6] The more they earned, the more they wanted.

9.4 Coordinated main clauses

Instead of juxtaposing sentences, we can often link them with a coordinator as two main clauses within one sentence. When we use a coordinator, we can put merely a comma between the clauses. In [1d] below, the coordinator *but* follows a comma:

[1d] I used to be afraid of him, but I have since got to know him well.

The central coordinators are *and*, *or*, and *but*. The marginal coordinators, which resemble the central coordinators in that they must come between the clauses, can also be used merely with a preceding comma: these are *for*, *nor*, *so* ('therefore'), *then* ('after that'), and *yet*. Here are examples with the three central coordinators and the other linking words:

> They were highly successful in the competition for grant support, *and* each grant provided jobs for technicians and other workers.
>
> He ought to admit that he is responsible for what he is doing, *or* he ought not to do it at all.
>
> The legal profession does not seem to have changed much, *but* in fact it has become much more democratic.
>
> Peace is by no means assured, *for* several cabinet ministers are opposed to key paragraphs in the draft treaty.
>
> He is not a furniture designer, *nor* is he a shopkeeper.
>
> A storm damaged their radio, *yet* they were able to send messages.
>
> She was refused admission, *so* she complained to the manager.
>
> Check that the light is on, *then* push the knob inwards and turn to the setting that you require for cooking.

The central coordinators may also link clauses without a punctuation mark, particularly if one or more of the clauses is short:

> We've all been asked to take more personal responsibility *and* people have responded to that challenge.

We may want to use major punctuation marks between coordinated main clauses because they are long, because we want to emphasize that each clause is a separate unit, or because one or more of the clauses has internal commas:

> The kids are bored with tv; *and* they're bored with films; *and* they're bored with video games; *and* they're bored with computers.

She thinks that the data on which the current view is based are biased by the fact that many of the measurements were made near urban areas, which tend to be warmer. But the measurements at sea are unreliable too, especially the older ones.

On the other hand, we should not use a full stop or a semicolon to separate a subordinate clause from the main clause. Using a full stop results in a sentence fragment (cf. 9.2), and a similar mistake results from using a semicolon:

He told the police that she has moved; although in fact she had died. [Replace the semicolon with a comma.]

9.5 Direct speech

We use **direct speech** when we report the actual words that somebody has said or written. It is normal to enclose direct speech in two pairs of either single or double quotation marks, an opening one or pair and a closing one or pair. Single quotation marks are more common.

In dialogue, direct speech often comes with a **reporting clause**, such as *she said*. Sentences [1]–[3] illustrate the usual punctuation of direct speech with a reporting clause when the direct speech is a declarative sentence. The reporting clause can appear in one of three positions:

[1] She said, 'The solution is in your hands.'
[2] 'The solution is in your hands,' she said.
[3] 'The solution,' she said, 'is in your hands.'

When we report the original in our own words, we use **indirect speech**:

She told us that the solution was in our hands.

Rules for punctuating direct speech

The following are the rules for punctuating direct speech with a reporting clause:

(a) initial reporting clause, as in [4]
It is usual to put a comma after the reporting clause and before the initial quotation marks:

[4] She told them, 'We should not waste food when millions are starving.'

We may use a colon instead of a comma, particularly if the direct speech contains more than one sentence:

[5] He turned to me and said: 'For the first time in my life I understood who I was and what I was doing and why I was doing it.'

If the quotation is indented, it is not necessary to use quotation marks since the layout is a sufficient indication of direct speech.

If the quotation ends the sentence, we put a full stop, a question mark, an exclamation mark, or a dash *before* the final quotation marks. The full stop is illustrated in [1], [3], [4], and [5]. The other three marks are illustrated in [6]–[8]:

[6] The reporter asked, 'Has the general arrived?'
[7] The crowd cried, 'Long live the President!'
[8] She said, 'I have done my share, but you –'

The dash in [8] indicates that the speaker has stopped in mid-sentence.

If the question mark or exclamation mark belongs to the sentence as a whole (not to the direct speech), it goes *after* the closing quotation marks:

[9] Did she say, 'It is against my religious principles'?
[10] He actually said, 'I am too busy to see you'!

In the rare situation when the question mark or exclamation mark belongs both to the sentence and to the direct speech, use only one mark and put it *before* the quotation marks:

Did she say, 'Is it against your religious principles?'

(b) final reporting clause, as in [2]

If the direct speech sentence would ordinarily end in a full stop, put a comma *before* the quotation marks:

[11] 'I'm not yet ready,' he replied.

Otherwise, use a question mark or exclamation mark as appropriate:

[12] 'Do you know the way?' she asked.
[13] 'Lights!' he screamed.

The sentence may continue after the reporting clause:

[11a] 'I'm not yet ready,' he replied, and put down the telephone.
[11b] 'I'm not yet ready,' he replied; then he put down the telephone.

(c) medial reporting clause, as in [3]

The medial clause combines punctuation features associated with the initial and final reporting clause. The punctuation *before* the medial clause is the same as for the final reporting clause:

[14] 'I'm not yet ready,' he replied. 'You go ahead without me.' (cf. [11])
[15] 'Do you know the way?' she asked. 'I'm lost.' (cf. [12])
[16] 'Lights!' he screamed. 'Give me lights!' (cf. [13])

If the reporting clause interrupts a sentence, use a comma even if the sentence would ordinarily have no punctuation:

[17] 'When you are ready,' he said, 'let me know.' (cf. *When you are ready*, *let me know*.)
[18] 'I know,' he said, 'that they suspect me.' (cf. *I know that they suspect me*.)

The punctuation after the medial reporting clause depends on whether the first part is an independent sentence. If it is, a full stop follows the reporting clause, as in [14]–[16]. If the reporting clause interrupts the sentence where the sentence would ordinarily have a comma or no punctuation, as in [17] and [18], then a comma follows the clause. If the reporting clause is placed where the sentence would ordinarily have a semicolon, the semicolon follows the reporting clause:

[19] 'The first two attempts to amend the constitution by convention succeeded,' the senator said; 'the next two attempts failed.'

The punctuation at the end of the sentence is the same as for the initial reporting clause. We therefore have a full stop before the closing quotation marks in [14]–[15] and in [17]–[19], and an exclamation mark in [16]. Here are two further examples:

[20] 'Did you say,' she asked, 'that she would see me now?'
[21] 'I have done my share,' she said, 'but you –'

(d) in general

It is normal to start a new paragraph when there is a change of speaker, whether or not the direct speech is accompanied by a reporting clause:

> 'What was in the letter?' she asked.
> 'I can't tell you. I couldn't read it.'
> 'Why not?'
> 'It was in Spanish.'

Use double quotation marks for a quotation within a quotation if you have used single quotation marks for the main quotation:

> 'I said I'd take the job. Then I went to bed and thought, "What am I doing?" I don't want my children to say "He was a good football coach". I want them to think that I tried to do more than that.'

If the quotation is not in full, the punctuation mark that follows it comes after the quotation marks:

> The Colonel says he regards 'the past 20 years just as an introduction'.
> He described the pleasure of seeing how deserts had become 'not the Garden of Eden exactly, but a bit greener', though he made it clear that self-fulfilment was not his aim.

Partial quotations draw attention to a significant part of what was said, and they may therefore be very brief:

> The newspapers carried reports of a famine of 'biblical proportions' in Ethiopia.
> Sometimes the party sounds a little too enthusiastic about enforcing majority 'rights'.

In the last example the effect of inserting the quotation marks is to suggest that the writer does not accept responsibility for the appropriateness of the expression 'rights' in this context.

9.6 Citations

We use words in a special way when we refer to them as words. Compare [1] with [2]:

[1] They are in love.
[2] *Love* can be either a verb or a noun.

In [1] *love* is used in the normal way. In [2] it is the word *love* that is being discussed. When a word or phrase is cited – quoted or mentioned rather than used in the normal way – it is either put in double quotation marks or underlined. (Underlining in writing is the equivalent of italics in print.) If you use many such citations or if you need quotation marks for other purposes, it is clearer to use underlining rather than quotation marks. Definitions and translations of words and phrases are usually in single quotation marks:

> *Perennial* 'perpetual' or 'recurring' has its roots in the Latin *per* ('through') and *annus* ('year').

Titles of works are also a special use of language. If the works are published or produced separately (for example, books, magazines, movies, musical compositions), they are underlined. But if the titles are for part of a larger work (for example, articles, chapters, short stories, songs), they are enclosed in single or double quotation marks:

I read the report in the *New York Times*.
You can find that character in *A Streetcar Named Desire*.
My favourite Beatles song is 'Eleanor Rigby'.

Contrast:

Hamlet is a complex play.
Hamlet is a complex character.

9.7 Questions

The general rule is that a question mark comes at the end of an interrogative sentence:

Is our nation prepared for further sacrifices?

The rule also applies to tag questions (cf. 6.2):

She's in quite a good frame of mind, *isn't she?*

It extends to declarative questions, which have the structure of a declarative sentence but function as a question (cf. 6.2):

You know the rules?

It is usual to put an exclamation mark at the end of an exclamatory question to ensure that it is read as an exclamation:

Haven't you grown!
Am I thirsty!

It is usual to put a full stop at the end of a question beginning *Would you* that is intended as a polite request, particularly if the sentence is long. This usage is common in official letters. In this context the writer expects the fulfilling of the request, not a reply to the question:

Would you please send me a copy of the instructional book that should have been enclosed with the microwave oven.

Do not use a question mark for an indirect question (a question in indirect speech). Contrast the direct question in [1] with the indirect question in [2]:

[1] He asked, 'Who wants to speak?'
[2] He asked who wanted to speak.

9.8 Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

Relative clauses post-modify nouns (cf. 4.5):

[1] the house *that they bought last year*
[2] a student *who belongs to our group*
[3] the place *where we first met*

The three examples above are **restrictive** relative clauses. Restrictive clauses identify more closely what the nouns refer to. The *house* in [1] might be in contrast with the *house that they used to live in*. The *student* in [2] might be in contrast with a *student who belongs to another group*. The *place* in [3] might be in contrast with a *place where we met last week*.

Non-restrictive relative clauses do not identify. They offer additional information:

[4] their present house, *which they bought last year*,
[5] Jean, *who belongs to our group*,
[6] San Francisco, *where we first met*,

The *house* in [4] is identified by *their present*. The person in [5] and the place in [6] are identified by their names. Names rarely need further identification, but it is possible to use a restrictive clause if further identification is necessary, as in [7]:

[7] The Jimmy Robinson *who was in my primary school class* has just become a bank manager.

Restrictive clauses should not be punctuated. Non-restrictive clauses, on the other hand, should be enclosed in punctuation marks. The usual punctuation is a pair of commas, as in [8], unless a major punctuation mark (cf. 7.3) would ordinarily appear at the end of the non-restrictive clause, as in [9] and [10]:

[8] The regulations, *which took effect last year*, list over 500 industrial processes and materials as hazardous.
[9] Americans are becoming like Europeans, *who prefer to buy goods that last a long time*.
[10] I have grown tired of my old stereo, *which I bought 12 years ago*; however, I can't afford to buy a new one.

Dashes or parentheses are sometimes also used to enclose non-restrictive clauses. Dashes indicate dramatic pauses and parentheses separate the clause more distinctly.

Non-restrictive relative clauses may refer back not only to a noun, but also to a previous part of the sentence:

He failed his driving test, *which must be discouraging*. ('His having failed . . . must be discouraging.')
He used to read political speeches, *which is unusual for a 15-year-old*. ('Reading political speeches is unusual for a 15-year-old.')

The distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive applies also to reduced relative clauses – those that correspond to relative clauses. Contrast the restrictive clause in [11] and the non-restrictive clause in [12]:

[11] research *involving chemical reactions* ('that involves chemical reactions')
[12] his recent research, *involving chemical reactions*,

Here are further examples of restrictive clauses.

It is impossible to find a teacher *who is happy with the facilities at her school*.
The team has developed a fungicide *that acts as a toxic barrier when it is applied to a vine's bare wood*.
He imagines building sites *in which workers have been replaced by smart machines*.
Tumours *that start when the patient is under twenty-five* usually have an underlying environmental cause.
For the course on current European politics, these are the best books *to read*.

Here are further examples of non-restrictive clauses:

The Brady cactus, *which is small and single-stemmed*, retracts its head into the soil during dry hot spells.
The technology has opened up astonishing new possibilities, *many of which are already being exploited*.
Human infants pass through a critical period, *lasting a few years*, during which they acquire language.
The foreigners, *treated by the rebels as guests rather than as hostages*, were allowed to escape the next day.
My aunt, *who is frightened of flying*, had a very unpleasant experience on an aeroplane recently.

9.9 Restrictive and non-restrictive apposition

Apposition expresses a relationship of some equivalence between two units (cf. 4.6):

The civil servants often switch from *English*, *the official language*, to their native languages.

The relationship can be demonstrated by linking the two units with the verb *be*:

English is the official language.

The second unit is generally in *apposition* to the first.

Like relative clauses (cf. 9.8), appositives are restrictive or non-restrictive: restrictive appositives identify more closely the preceding noun, whereas non-restrictive appositives offer additional information. And as with relative clauses, restrictive appositives are not punctuated, whereas non-restrictive appositives are enclosed in punctuation marks, normally a pair of commas but occasionally dashes or parentheses. Appositives may be either noun phrases or clauses.

Here are examples of restrictive appositives:

My brother *Tom* is an architect.
Do you know the meaning of the word '*egregious*'?
I heard on the radio the news *that Kabul had been attacked.*
The fact *that she likes the job* suggests that she will remain here for a long while.

Here are examples of non-restrictive apposition:

The genuine American hamburger, *a ground beef patty served on a bun*, was invented at the beginning of the twentieth century.
The most reliable indication of Islam's revival is the observance of the hajj, *the pilgrimage to Mecca that devout Muslims are expected to make at least once in their lifetime.*
Scientists have discovered two sets of hydrothermal vents (*ocean hot springs*).
His greatest service – *the issue that made him famous* – was the way he defused the crisis.
The agency ignored their objection, *that the anti-pollution measures would greatly increase the cost of the products.*

Like non-restrictive relative clauses, non-restrictive appositives can refer back to a previous part of the sentence, not merely to a noun phrase:

The scientists wanted their research to be useful, *an indication of their desire to work for the benefit of humanity.*
Retail prices are begining to rise, *an early warning of inflation.*

9.10 Adverbial clauses

Clauses that function as adverbials in sentence structure are **adverbial clauses** (cf. 6.9). Adverbial clauses occur initially, medially, and finally. Medial position – the position between the subject and the verb – occurs relatively infrequently.

When adverbial clauses are punctuated, the normal punctuation marks are commas. In medial position, the clauses are enclosed in a pair of commas.

Adverbial *-ing* and *-ed* clauses (cf. 6.8) are generally punctuated, whatever their position:

> *Feeling unadventurous*, I ordered chicken soup for my first course.
> My parents, *needing money for extensive house repairs*, applied for a second mortgage.
> His colleague worked in the corporate section, *selling art to big firms*.
> *When asked to speak*, he complained about the poor service.
> My wife, *not easily pleased*, declared that the play was excellent.
> It is peaceful to float down a river, *carried effortlessly by the current*.

Medial finite clauses are always punctuated:

> The members of the committee, *when they read his report*, demanded his resignation.

Initial finite and infinitive clauses (cf. 6.8) are often punctuated:

> *If the negotiations are held in public*, they are likely to fail.
> *As the canoe drew near*, the design on its prow became visible.
> *To push a wheelchair*, you need muscle power.

The punctuation of final finite and infinitive clauses depends on their relationship to the rest of the sentence. If they specify the circumstances of the situation, they are not punctuated:

> Call me *if you decide not to come with us*.
> Security has been heightened *since a porter was mugged*.
> I recognized her talents *before anyone else did*.
> People often phone *to thank me for my advice*.

If they provide additional information or a comment, they are punctuated:

> She walked fast, *so that she arrived before us*.
> They expelled him from the country, *although he had not been charged with a crime*.
> I have been studying every day past midnight, *since I want to graduate this year*.
> He was self-conscious in his casual clothes, *as if he had appeared without socks for a formal reception*.
> It's too large, *if I may say so*.
> The suit doesn't fit him, *to tell you the truth*.

The same applies to verbless clauses (cf. 6.8):

If in difficulty, phone me.
Her father, *when a hotel manager*, had to work overtime every night.
The procedure was simple, *though somewhat unpleasant*.

If the sentence is negative, the absence of punctuation indicates that the negation includes the adverbial clause. The distinction is particularly sharp for a *because*-clause:

[1] He didn't go there *because his sister was going to be there*.

The absence of a comma before the *because*-clause in [1] suggests the interpretation 'He did go there, but not because his sister was going to be there'. On the other hand, the presence of a comma stops the negation from applying to the *because*-clause, as in [2]:

[2] He didn't go there, *because his sister was going to be there*.

The interpretation of [2] is 'He did not go there, and he decided not to because his sister was going to be there'. The same interpretation applies if the *because*-clause is fronted:

[2a] *Because his sister was going to be there*, he didn't go there.

Adverbials other than clauses are often separated by commas if they provide a comment or have a linking function:

Unfortunately, we were unable to attend your party.
It was, *quite frankly*, a very boring speech.
She was, *in fact*, a mathematical genius.
None of the children liked the puppet show, *to my surprise*.
Do you know her, *by the way*?
His opinion, *however*, does not carry any weight.
Rhetoric has started wars; *on the other hand*, rhetoric has stopped wars.
In summary, his idea was neither original nor correct.

9.11 Vocatives and interjections

Vocatives are phrases – commonly names – that directly address the person spoken to. Vocatives resemble adverbials in their range of positions and are always separated by commas:

Mr Chairman, I want to second the motion.
Can you tell me, *Caroline*, what I have to do next?
Turn on the light for me, *Jean*.

Similarly, interjections and other reaction expressions are isolated by commas:

Oh, we didn't expect to see you so soon.
Well, what's your explanation?
Yes, the finals will be next week.
OK, we're ready.

9.12 Avoidance of misunderstanding

Commas may be needed to prevent readers from misunderstanding the sentence, even if only momentarily:

Above all, discrimination is ethically indefensible. [Not *all discrimination*.]
After cleaning, position the cutter centrally over the retaining clip and push downwards. [Not *After cleaning position*.]
When architectural changes occur, clearly society is changing. [Not *occur clearly*.]
To be honest, workers don't stay there long. [Not *honest workers*.]
In most parts of the country *you* replaced *thou*, and *ye* was rarely used. [Not *you replaced thou and ye*.]

If the same verb appears twice, a comma is inserted between the two verbs:

What she thinks her role on the committee is, is likely to influence her decisions.

9.13 Genitives of nouns

In writing we indicate that nouns are genitive (cf. 5.7) by using an apostrophe. The general rules for forming the genitive are:

1. If the noun is singular, add *'s*.

David	David*'s* brother
the student	the student*'s* expectations
the woman	the woman*'s* options

2. If the noun is plural and ends in *-s*, add just an apostrophe.

the students	the students' expectations
my sisters	my sisters' friends
his parents	his parents' address

3. If the noun is plural and does not end in *-s*, add *'s*.
   the women the women's suggestions
   the people the people's decision
   the police the police's reactions

There is some variation among writers about singular nouns ending in *-s*. On the whole, it is safer to follow the general rule and add *'s*:

The boss*'s* daughter Charles*'s* video
Burns*'s* poetry Dickens*'s* novels

The traditional exceptions, which take just the apostrophe, are:

1. the genitive of *Jesus* and *Moses*
   Jesus' teaching Moses' blessing
2. names of more than one syllable that end in *-s* and have an 'eez' sound:
   Socrates' death Xerxes' defeat

In the fixed expressions *for . . . sake* where the noun in the middle ends in an 's' sound, the noun traditionally takes just the apostrophe:

for goodness' sake for appearance' sake

9.14 Genitives of pronouns

Certain indefinite pronouns (cf. 5.25) have a genitive ending in *'s*. These are *one*, compounds ending in *-one* (e.g. *someone*), and compounds ending in *-body* (e.g. *somebody*):

one*'s* friend anybody*'s* idea
nobody*'s* fault someone*'s* move

In the combinations with *else*, *'s* is added to *else*:

someone else*'s* coat no one else*'s* fault

The indefinite pronoun *other* follows the general rule for nouns: the genitive singular is *other's* and the genitive plural is *others'*:

each other*'s* letters
one another*'s* children
the others' problems (the problems of the others)

Possessive pronouns (cf. 5.19) ending in *-s* should not have an apostrophe:

hers	its	yours
his	ours	theirs

On the possible confusion of homophones such as *its* and *it's*, see A.7.

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

Exercise 9.1 Sentence fragments and fragmentary sentences (cf. 9.2)

The paragraphs below contains many sentence fragments and fragmentary sentences.

Re-punctuate the paragraphs to remove the sentence fragments and fragmentary sentences.

> James Joyce's novel *Ulysses* describes the adventures of Leopold Bloom in Dublin on a single day, June 16 1904 – now celebrated every year as 'Bloomsday'. Bloom makes breakfast for his wife. Goes to a funeral. Goes to a newspaper office. Drinks. Gets into a fight. Thinks his wife is having an affair. She is. And so is Bloom. Flirts with a girl on the beach. Meets Stephen Daedalus. In a brothel. Goes home. Goes to bed. Not much adventure, you might think.
>
> Actually, the adventure is in the use of language. Most people think *Ulysses* is a difficult novel. And it is. But it is also a very rewarding one. If you persevere with it. Highly inventive, original, and extremely funny in places. Also very explicit at times. It was originally banned in most countries on the grounds of 'obscenity'. Not the sort of book you would give to your maiden aunt.

Exercise 9.2 Run-on sentences and comma splices (cf. 9.3)

Correct errors in run-on sentences and comma splices.

1. One of the more popular methods of reducing waste is by incineration, this method is used where land is scarce for burial.
2. Ask the first people you see if they can help you I'm sure they will.
3. He is not the world's leading authority on coins, however, he is often consulted by foreign buyers.
4. Universities now have problems filling some science courses, the applications are not there.
5. The peace talks collapsed, we therefore expect an immediate renewal of fighting.
6. The agency reviewed its security procedures it did so against a background of warnings of an imminent terrorist threat.

Exercise 9.3 Coordinated main clauses (cf. 9.4)

Insert commas to separate main clauses linked by central or marginal coordinators.

1. The woman was anxious about the interview she was to have the next week and she spent many hours worrying about it.
2. She had always wanted to be a stockbroker but she was still nervous about changing jobs.
3. She knew she had to find another type of job because as a legal secretary she was not exercising her talents to the full yet she was afraid that the interviewers might reject her because of her lack of experience.
4. She had lost her fears by the time she was interviewed nor did she seem anxious at the interview.
5. There were over ten candidates for the job but she won the job.

Exercise 9.4 Direct speech (cf. 9.5)

Insert quotation marks where necessary.

1. Do you like it here? asked Bob Portman.
2. I have lived here all my life, said Sally Mason with pride.
3. You have lived here all your life! he said.
4. I was born here, and my father before me, and my grandfather, and my greatgrandfather. She turned to her brother. Isn't that so?
5. Yes, it's a family habit to be born here! the young man said with a laugh.
6. Your house must be very old, then, said Bob.
7. How old is it, brother? asked Sally.
8. It was built in 1783, the young man replied. That's old or new, according to your point of view.
9. Your house has a curious style of architecture, said Bob.
10. Are you interested in architecture? asked the young man.
11. Well, I took the trouble this year, said Bob, to visit about fifty churches. Do you call that interested?
12. Perhaps you are interested in theology, said the young man ironically.
13. Not particularly, said Bob.
14. The young man laughed and stood up. Good, he exclaimed. I'll show you the house.
15. Sally grasped Bob's arm. Don't let him take you, she said; you won't find it interesting. Wouldn't you prefer to stay with me?
16. Certainly! said Bob. I'll see the house some other time.

Exercise 9.5 Citations (cf. 9.6)

Insert underlining and quotation marks where necessary.

1. She was in Afghanistan as a reporter for the Sunday Times.
2. Henry Green's first novel, Blindness, is divided into three parts: Caterpillar, Chrysalis, and Butterfly.
3. Words like doctor and lawyer can be used for both sexes.
4. Monsoon comes from the Arabic mansim, meaning season.
5. You can find the story in this week's Radio Times.
6. Your article Were the Vikings the First to Arrive? contains several factual errors.
7. Some people avoid using die, preferring a euphemism like pass away.
8. Before his execution, St Valentine sent a farewell message to the jailer's daughter with whom he had fallen in love, signing it From your Valentine.

Exercise 9.6 Questions (cf. 9.7)

Eliminate incorrect or unnecessary question marks in the sentences below.

1. Would you please send your payment with the subscription form?
2. It's time to leave, isn't it?
3. She asked whether we had finished our essays yet?
4. Is there a doctor in the house?
5. Can a man and a woman be friends, or does sex always get in the way?
6. Do you know whether she wants to be prime minister?
7. I asked, 'Is it right for a teacher to set such a difficult task?'
8. I asked the tax inspector how the penalty was calculated?

Exercise 9.7 Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses (cf. 9.8)

Leave the restrictive appositives below unpunctuated. Punctuate the non-restrictive appositives with commas.

1. An old friend of mine Bill Harris has invited us both for dinner at his home on Friday evening.
2. Most doctors disapprove of the saying 'An apple a day keeps the doctor away'.
3. We spent last winter in Arizona one of the best places to visit when it is cold and plenty of snow is on the ground.
4. The panel discussed the allegation that there was sexual discrimination in the selection of parliamentary candidates.
5. The latest device to give a suntan to thoroughbred horses a high-performance solar therapy unit was unveiled at a stable near Lambourn yesterday.
6. They admired Shakespeare the poet more than Shakespeare the dramatist.

*Exercise 9.8 Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses (cf. 9.8)

Leave the restrictive clauses below unpunctuated. Punctuate the non-restrictive clauses with commas. If you think that a clause may be either restrictive or

non-restrictive, insert the commas in the appropriate positions and discuss the two interpretations.

1. I hate attending meetings which last longer than an hour.
2. She gives the impression of an umpire judging a game in which the players have no idea of the rules.
3. Look out for grey or brown fungi which may or may not be edible.
4. Sporting bodies can punish those who break their rules by fines, suspensions, or permanent bans withdrawing the right to participate in the sport altogether.
5. The 'cab-rank' rule requires advocates to represent any client in an area of law in which they practise.
6. Some 2000 fans who began queuing at six that morning barely slept the night before.
7. They seem gloomy about the prospects for the domestic film industry which has experienced all the problems British film-makers have agonized over for 20 years.
8. The concert is the first in the twelfth annual music festival which is devoted to electroacoustic music.
9. Teenagers who drive carelessly should be banned from driving until they are 21.
10. This engine completely redesigned since the last model is much quieter.

Exercise 9.9 Adverbial clauses (cf. 9.10)

Punctuate the adverbials that require punctuation. If you think that the punctuation is optional, insert the punctuation and indicate that it is optional.

1. The law on the relationship between sporting bodies and players has reluctantly followed the changes in sports trying to adapt.
2. Nowadays most sporting discipline bodies have procedures to ensure fair hearings with lawyers present.
3. Most sportsmen accept their punishment often before their club or team pressures them to do so.
4. Even though courts are more prepared than they used to be to look at the way sporting bodies' decisions are reached they will still be reluctant to interfere with them.
5. People who have a contractual relationship with their sporting body can always go to court to claim a breach of contract if the circumstances fit.
6. Most sports people however do not have that sort of direct contract with the body that regulates their sport.
7. In football for instance the legal relationship is between player and club.
8. So far the regulatory bodies have managed to keep control of their decisions without too much interference from the courts.

Exercise 9.10 Vocatives and interjections (cf. 9.11)

Punctuate the vocatives and interjections in the sentences below.

1. Dave you don't know what you're doing.
2. Oh I wasn't aware that the end of the line was further back.
3. Yes Mr Patton I'm ready.
4. Is that you Shirley?
5. Well make sure that you replace any pieces of glass that you break.
6. Navigation officers report to your positions immediately.
7. It may be sir that we are running out of fuel.
8. Yes you may leave the class when you finish the exam.
9. What's the verdict Dr Ronson?
10. Give the package to Dorothy Gloria.

Exercise 9.11 Avoidance of misunderstanding (cf. 9.12)

Insert commas where they help to make the meaning clear. If you think that the commas may appear in two positions, insert them in both and enclose them in brackets.

1. As the new year opens stores are putting on their annual sales.
2. Although not included in the manufacturer's service schedule because it is assumed that the warning system will indicate when brake pads need replacing check for wear at least every 12,000 miles.
3. News of the demonstrations spread quickly embarrassing government officials.
4. As things stand now the government has no way to block the visit.
5. Often as not the women work in the fields.
6. Still though most union branches are publicly backing the national leaders they will make what seem the best deals for their members.
7. To obtain the same amount of energy through wind power assuming a windy enough location would require a large capital investment.
8. With quantities low prices will continue to rise.

Exercise 9.12 Genitives of nouns; genitives of pronouns (cf. 9.13; 9.14)

Change the *of*-phrase into a genitive construction.

1. the eldest son of my brother
2. the leaders of our country
3. the best team of the women
4. the conviction of the prisoners
5. the influence of the President
6. the first papers of the students
7. the torn coat of somebody
8. the last play of Shakespeare

9. the many novels of Dickens
10. the strike of the airline pilots
11. the catch of the fishermen
12. the friends of my sisters
13. the accusation of the leader of the opposition
14. the toys of our children
15. the security of our nation
16. the flight of the American astronauts
17. the advice of his father-in-law
18. the support of the alumni
19. the desperate plight of the poor
20. the rights of women

Exercise 9.13 Genitives of nouns; genitives of pronouns (cf. 9.13; 9.14)

Insert apostrophes where necessary. Some sentences may not require an apostrophe.

1. Eds friends will arrive later.
2. The womans coat was destroyed at the cleaners.
3. The childrens toys were lost in the fire.
4. Everybodys tickets arrived in the post yesterday.
5. The dog entangled its leash while it was tied outside.
6. The Burns house was put up for sale last week.
7. For heavens sake don't park your car on the grass.
8. The computer is ours, not theirs.
9. Somebodys bike was stolen last night.
10. We should proofread each others papers before we hand them in.

Exercise 9.14 Punctuation (cf. Chapter 9)

You may often choose to write a pair of sentences as one sentence. Write each pair of sentences as one sentence with two main clauses. Change the punctuation accordingly, using commas between the clauses wherever they are permitted. Do not change words or insert words.

1. He has made two albums of his own songs. Furthermore, he has made three full-length films.
2. They cannot face the shameful facts. And consequently they try to shift the responsibility onto others.
3. A number of technical reforms have been suggested. However, there is no consensus on any of them.
4. The reality was harsh. Yet they faced it steadfastly.
5. You must have been out of the country at the time. Or else I would have asked for your advice.
6. They have recently bought a car. So you can ask them for a lift, if you wish.

7. Hardly anyone gave New York's canine litter law a chance of succeeding. Nevertheless the cynics were wrong.
8. The windmills resemble oil rigs. But still their overall effect is somehow comforting.
9. Her back has not been troubling her for the last couple of years. So she has stopped doing the exercises that her doctor prescribed.
10. We fought like tigers over the box. Unfortunately, however, he was a stronger tiger than I was.
11. I can't help him. Nor can you.
12. No better appointment could have been made. For her talents and enthusiasm created a balanced, integrated, happy research unit that was quickly recognized internationally.

Exercise 9.15 Punctuation (cf. Chapter 9)

Each item has one punctuation error. The error may be wrong punctuation or the absence of a punctuation mark. Correct the error in each item.

1. Amnesty International estimates that there are half a million political prisoners in the world it is investigating about one per cent of these cases.
2. Researchers on the Amnesty staff are generally graduates and can speak several languages, each of them keeps watch on hundreds of political prisoners in a particular country.
3. Torture techniques have become so refined that they rarely leave marks doctors often collaborate in the deception.
4. Amnesty reseachers do not feel that human beings are inherently cruel, they should know.
5. One South American officer sent a letter to Amnesty describing the tortures that he had witnessed, he included photographic proof.
6. No one was safe from torture, some cases were more brutal than others, but all prisoners were beaten and tortured.
7. The letters to political prisoners never bear the Amnesty letterhead; and often chat about innocuous matters.

10

English in Use

10.1 Register variation

In 1.6 we introduced the concept of grammatical variation according to communicative purpose, the context in which language is used, and according to whether the medium is writing or speech. Varieties of language associated with specific uses and communicative purposes are called **registers**. In this chapter we will examine the distinctive features of a range of registers, including conversation, unscripted monologue, sports commentaries, and emails.

10.2 Conversational English

Whether it is chatting among friends, among colleagues, or asking directions of strangers in the street, everyday, face-to-face conversation accounts for by far the greatest amount of language use. The following is an extract from a family conversation. The speakers are identified as A, B and C. A and B are a husband and wife respectively, and C is their adult daughter. The speakers are British, and the conversation was recorded in London in the 1990s. Pauses are denoted by the symbol <,> and overlapping segments are bracketed.

A: I'm peeved about that giving her that window
I was a fool
I was wasn't growing seeds then of course
B: What window
C: Piece [of glass]
A: [Her] next door when she was down or something <,>
A glazed uhm sash window
I could've used it to bring these blasted seeds on <,>
Could've cleared that square yard on down that right-hand border in the sun put the seed boxes on the ground and the uh window glass over it
B: No
You can't blame her for that really [can you]
C: [If you] gave it to her Dad
B: No

A: Well these damn plants have shot up in price so much over the last year or [two]
B: [Yes]
Those few begonias were a pound
A: Yes
B: Absolute daylight robbery really aren't they <,>
It is the only way to grow them yourself really I mean and plant them out <,>
What you want's a little greenhouse really <,> [don't you]
A: [No] that that's frame a little cold frame
No I don't think so
B: What
Not in the shed even
A: No no I brought that from Bow because I got it from the place next door when they threw all their window frames out
B: Oh <,>
A: I got two but I I can't I think I left the other one up at Bow
[Didn't want it]
B: [What's] happened to the door we had out there
Can't you [<,>] saw the lower bit off and use that
A: [Still out there]
No it's all frosted glass
It's [almost] opaque
B: [Oh] oh
A: Almost opaque <,>
B: Well can't you buy a piece of glass somewhere
A: D'you know how much glass is now
C: It's not very much
A: It's expensive
B: It's not because they bought a [piece to go in their window]
C: [Yes because] because I broke that window
B: I think it cost them three quid or [something]
A: Cost a lot more [now]
C: [It was] something like one pound eighty <,>
A: No
Glass is very [expensive]
B: [I'll tell you]
C: And that was fancy glass
B: I tell you what I could look out for and that's a picture frame <,> because that's got glass in it hasn't it
Wouldn't be very large but it'd be big enough to go over a box of seeds
C: Or a clip frame

Those are [quite cheap]
60 **A:** [Well] I I I want something bigger than one box of seeds
No that damn thing would've done ideally
[Well it annoys me to] see it there sitting smugly growing her seeds
B: [Well does she use it]
C: Well she's using it
65 **B:** Well you can't blame her lovey
You gave it to her <,>
A: That just sh shows you the policy of keeping things <,>
[ICE-GB-S1A-007-1f]

The recording has been transcribed orthographically, that is, the words have been transcribed as they would appear in writing, observing the usual rules of spelling and capitalization, but without punctuation. At first glance, therefore, the extract appears to resemble writing, but this is simply an artefact of the transcription. Closer examination will reveal some important differences between speech and writing, and some characteristics that are unique to conversational English.

The extract contains a great deal of overlapping speech. Typically, the end of one speaker turn overlaps with the beginning of the other turn. In these cases, the interruption forces the first speaker to yield the turn to the other speaker. In line 34, however, speaker C overlaps with a pause in B's speech, but B does not yield the turn.

The informal nature of this conversation can be seen at the level of vocabulary. Minor expletives like *blasted* and *damn* are used, as well as colloquial expressions like *quid* and *her next door*. Speakers B and C both address speaker A using **vocatives** (cf. 7.11):

If you gave it to her *Dad*
Well you can't blame her *lovey*

The extract also contains many items such as *well*, *I mean*, *uhm* and *uh*, which are sometimes termed 'fillers' or **discourse particles**. The functions of these are various: the voiced pauses *uhm* and *uh* allow the speaker time to think, while retaining the turn in the conversation. All three speakers use w*ell* at the beginning of some of their utterances, often to signal a change of topic, or to introduce a salient new point:

Well these damn plants have shot up in price . . .
Well can't you buy a piece of glass . . .
Well she's using it . . .
Well it annoys me . . .
Well you can't blame her . . .

Other discourse particles which are commonly used in conversation include *you know*, *sort of*, and *like*.

The unplanned nature of the conversation is revealed in several instances of **non-fluency**, including repetitions ('Yes *because because* I broke that window'), false starts ('I got two but I I can't I think I left the other one up at Bow'), and hesitations (That just *sh shows* you . . .)

All the speakers use a great many **contractions**, which are frowned upon in formal writing, but are very characteristic of informal speech:

What you *want's* a little greenhouse (cf. What you *want is* . . .)
What's happened to the door (cf. *What has* happened . . .)
D'you know how much glass is now (cf. *Do you* know . . .)

Unlike written English, many of the utterances in this extract are not complete, grammatical sentences, in the sense that we have defined this term. In other words, they do not display the canonical subject–predicate structure that we looked at in Chapter 3. Instead, the speakers use several **fragmentary sentences** (cf. 9.2):

Piece of glass
Almost opaque
Or a clip frame

Ellipsis (cf. 6.6) is a very common feature of conversational language. Ellipsis refers to the omission of grammatical units. They are omitted in the interests of economy. Since they can be recovered from the immediate context, there is no need to include them. Ellipsis of the subject (cf. 3.5) is particularly common, especially when the subject is *I*:

Could've cleared that square yard . . . (cf. *I* could've . . .)
Didn't want it (cf. *I* didn't . . .)

In the following examples, both the subject and some or all of the verb phrase (cf. 4.11) have been ellipted:

Still out there (cf. *It is* still out there)
Cost a lot more now (cf. *It would* cost a lot more now)

Another characteristic of conversation is the use of **tag questions** (cf. 6.2):

You can't blame her for that really *can you*
Absolute daylight robbery really *aren't they*
. . . that's got glass in it *hasn't it*

In each case, the function of the tag question is to seek agreement from the other speaker with what is said in the preceding part.

Compared with writing, and with more formal, prepared speech, conversational English tends to be less complex syntactically. Even when they are grammatically complete, most of the utterances are simple sentences, without subordination. The following is an exception to this, since it contains two subordinate clauses (one introduced by *because*, the other by *when*):

> I brought that from Bow *because I got it from the place next door when they threw their window frames out*

At the phrase level, too, informal conversation tends to be simple. Many of the noun phrases (cf. 4.2) in this extract consist of a noun only (*glass*), a noun together with one determiner (*a fool*, *the shed*) or a noun and a pre-modifier (*frosted glass*, *fancy glass*). In this extract, pre-modifiers are far more common than post-modifiers. When post-modifiers do occur, they are often simple prepositional phrases (cf. 4.25) introduced by *of*:

> a piece *of glass*
> a box *of seeds*

In the following noun phrase, the post-modifier is a clause:

> the door *we had out there*

This is a **relative clause** (cf. 4.5), or more accurately a **zero-relative clause** (cf. 5.24), since the relative pronoun has been omitted. This omission of the relative pronoun is very common in conversation, but less common in more formal contexts, where we might expect to find

> the door *that* (or *which*) *we had out there*

In 1.6 we noted that one of the factors involved in grammatical variation is the attitude of the speaker towards his or her audience, towards the topic, and towards the purpose of communication. In more general terms, we can say that in conversation, a major factor is the relationship between the speakers. The extract above is from a family conversation – the speakers are all very familiar with each other, and the conversation is informal, relaxed, and at times 'jokey'. We would expect a rather different type of conversation between, say, a student and his supervisor, or between an employee and his employer.

Our second extract is from a counselling interview. Speaker A is a male university student, aged 19, and speaker B is his counsellor, who is also male, aged around 50. Again, the symbol <,> denotes a pause and overlapping strings are bracketed.

A: I wish I could feel relaxed about uhm <,> certain aspects of my life <,> such as work and exams <,>
B: The impression I got was that your your memory was pretty good basically <,> and this wasn't a problem
A: Yeah but I would like to improve it <,>
It <,> can still be improved even if it is fairly good
B: Mhm mhm <,>
A: I feel I've got to grips with my subject better uhm <,> than I have in <,> in previous weeks <,>
Certainly certainly true of this term in certain bits <,>
Very definitely true of last term <,,>
I have been able to you know <,> use the resources available to me more effectively
B: What what sorts of resources <,>
A: Such as my textbooks from the library [<,,>] etcetera <,,>
B: [Mhm yeah]
So you now feel that you're getting on top of the work
A: Yes
B: Uhm <,> and uh you understand what's going on
A: Yes <,>
B: And that's in seminars and lectures
A: We don't uh have seminars as such
We have [tutorials] lectures and practicals
B: [Mhm] right <,>
That's that's a big step forward isn't it <,>
A: Yes <,>
B: That's very good <,>
A: But having said that uh <,> I still find that uh <,> when I eat I haven't I haven't been able I don't <,> I know that I <,> probably I know that I should eat but <,> when and I cook <,> uh considerable quite a large quantity of food and then find that I I don't feel all that hungry <,> even though mostly <,> uhm I usually skip breakfast and <,> uhm travel on cups of coffee <,> or tea

[ICE-GB-S1A-059-11f]

The extract displays some of the features that we observed in the family conversation, including **voiced pauses** (*uh*, *uhm*), **fragmentary sentences**

Very definitely true of last term

non-fluencies:

. . . I still find that uh <,> when I eat I haven't I haven't been able I don't <,> I know that I <,> probably I know that I should eat . . .
Certainly certainly true of this term . . .

tag questions:

. . . that's a big step forward *isn't it*

and finally **contractions**:

. . . *I've* got to grips . . . (cf. . . . *I have* got to grips . . .)
. . . *you're* getting on top of the work (cf. . . . *you are* getting . . .)
. . . *that's* in seminars . . . (cf. . . . *that is* . . .)

However, it is noticeable that all of these features are much less frequent than in the family conversation. There are also far fewer overlaps; because of the purpose of the exchange, and the relationship between the participants, the speakers rarely interrupt each other. On the other hand, there are far more pauses. These allow the student time to frame a response to the counsellor's questions, and they give the counsellor time to consider his next question.

Compared with the family conversation, the counselling interview appears much more fluent, with much longer and much more complex utterances. In fact, almost all the utterances in the counselling interview are complex sentences, that is, they contain at least one subordinate clause. For example, Speaker A's first utterance is a complex sentence:

I wish <u>I could feel more relaxed</u> . . .

Here, the subordinate clause *I could feel more relaxed* . . . functions as the direct object (cf. 3.7) of the verb *wish*. In a more formal context, such as in writing, the subordinate clause would be introduced by *that*:

I wish <u>that I could feel more relaxed</u> . . .

Here, we will list and describe some of the other complex sentences in the counselling interview. The subordinate clauses are underlined:

Yeah but I would like <u>to improve it</u>
(*to*-infinitive clause functioning as direct object of the verb *like*)

It <,> can still be improved <u>even if it is fairly good</u>
(*if*-clause functioning as adverbial (cf. 3.9))

So you now feel <u>that you're getting on top of the work</u>
(*that*-clause functioning as direct object of the verb *feel*)

I've got to grips with my subject better uhm <,> <u>than I have in <,> in previous weeks</u>
(comparative clause (cf. 6.9) introduced by <u>than</u>)

you understand <u>what's going on</u>
(nominal relative clause (cf. 6.9) functioning as direct object of the verb *understand*)

Speaker A's final utterance is quite long and confused. The speaker may be nervous, or he may simply be unsure of what he wants to say. The utterance contains many false starts and repetitions, but we can nevertheless see that it contains a great many subordinate clauses:

<u>having said that</u>
(an *-ing*-clause functioning as adverbial. In terms of meaning, it has concessive force.)

I still find that <u>when I eat</u>
(adverbial clause, expressing time)

I know <u>that I should eat</u>
(*that*-clause functioning as direct object of the verb *know*)

The complexity of the language used in the counselling interview is not confined to clause and sentence structure. Complexity can also be found in the phrase structures (cf. Chapter 4). In Speaker B's first utterance, the subject is a complex noun phrase, with the structure:

determiner	**noun**	**post-modifier**
the	*impression*	*I got*

The post-modifier of the noun *impression* is the zero-relative clause *I got* (cf. 5.24). In formal writing, this would normally be introduced by the relative pronoun *that*:

the impression <u>that I got</u>

Here are some more examples of complex phrases in the counselling interview:

certain aspects of my life

pre-modifier	**noun**	**post-modifier**
certain	*aspects*	*of my life*

In this case, the post-modifier is a prepositional phrase (cf. 4.25)

the resources available to me

determiner	**noun**	**post-modifier**
the	*resources*	*available to me*

Here, the post-modifier is itself a complex phrase. It is an adjective phrase with the following structure:

adjective	**post-modifier**
available	*to me*

So the phrase *the resources available to me* is a complex noun phrase which contains a complex adjective phrase embedded within it (cf. 4.1).

a big step forward

determiner	**pre-modifier**	**noun**	**post-modifier**
a	*big*	*step*	*forward*

The use of an adverb (*forward*) to post-modify a noun is restricted to a small number of adverbs. Further examples include:

the people *upstairs*
the day *before*
the way *back*

One further aspect of the counselling interview is worth noting. In asking questions, the counsellor makes frequent use of **declarative questions** (cf. 6.2). Declarative questions have the formal characteristics of a declarative sentence, but they are in effect questions. In lines 17f. the counsellor uses three declarative questions in rapid succession:

B: <u>So you now feel that you're getting on top of the work</u>
A: Yes
B: Uhm <,> and uh <u>you understand what's going on</u>
A: Yes <,>
B: <u>And that's in seminars and lectures</u>
A: We don't uh have seminars as such

Because of the context, speaker A has no difficulty in interpreting each of these as having the force of a question, despite their declarative form. The use of declarative

questions is clearly suited to counselling interviews, but we would expect this questioning technique to be less common in a less structured exchange.

The counselling interview shares some of the features of the family conversation. In one sense, they are both 'conversations', but that term must be interpreted broadly. Both extracts have distinctive features of their own. Returning to our earlier point, it is clear that many factors are at work in determining differences among and within linguistic registers. In face-to-face conversation, the relationship between the speakers is a significant factor, as are the age and sex of the speakers. The speakers' educational background is also an important factor. In terms of the communicative situation, it is important to consider the purpose of the exchange, the topic or topics being discussed, and the speakers' attitudes towards those topics.

10.3 Unscripted monologue

The extract below is from a judge's summation of a court case involving an accident at a builder's yard. The judge is summing up the facts of the case for the benefit of the jury. The symbol <,> denotes a pause.

Uh he estimated the slope at the time in nineteen eighty-four to've been something like one in four <,> a a and it sloped down <,> uh for <,> uhm a distance of uhm uh <,> I think for three or four <,> uhm feet or possibly more <,> than the length of the slope
It may even have been uh <,> uh up to about two yards <,>
Now because of the uneven ground and because of the <,> liability to rut and uhm also because of this slope <,> the <,> ground <,> was plainly <,> uh uh and this seems to have been uh common ground between the witnesses who were called in this case <,> uhm a bad place for <,> stacking <,> uh these lintels and beams <,> uh uh and the reason why it was a bad place is obvious <,>
Uh the uh uh beam the stacks were liable to become unstable particularly when <,> uh the forklift truck was being used <,> uhm for taking the beams away <,>
Beams were taken away from one side and the stack was leaning to some extent <,> then over the stack would go and the beams would all fall to the ground <,>
Uh on other occasions uh during the course of loading <,> uh there would be minor collisions between the forklift trucks and these stacks and the beams would go over in that way <,> and the consequence of that was <,> that at <,> fairly frequently it became necessary to tidy this place <,> uh up <,>
Now this tidying up usually took place when the factory machine broke down and the gang in the factory would be then available for the tidying up operation <,> and uh when that happened the men in the factory <,>

> uhm would uhm go outside and in uhm <,> usually working it two at a time they would set about tidying up these beams <,>
> Well now how did this accident happen <,> if it did happen <,>
> [ICE-GB-S2A-067-1ff.]

This unscripted monologue displays many of the characteristics that we saw in the family conversation and in the counselling interview (10.2). There are many pauses, and many voiced pauses, which have been transcribed as *uh* and *uhm*. In line 1 there is a contraction *to've* (*to have*). There are also many non-fluencies. These include false starts:

> . . . the consequence of that was <,> that at <,> fairly frequently . . .

and self-corrections:

> Uh *the uh beams the stacks* were liable to become unstable . . .

The speaker uses the discourse particle *now* to introduce new points in his description of events and, in line 28, he uses *well now* to introduce his final question, which in a sense is the culmination of his speech.

In describing the facts of the case, the judge presents a series of events as a sequence of clauses which are loosely connected by *and*:

> Beams were taken away from one side
> *and*
> the stack was leaning to some extent then over the stack would go
> *and*
> the beams would all fall to the ground

This use of *and* is very common in continuous speech. However, it does not perform any real coordinating role in this case; it is simply used to string together a series of clauses.

In line 3 there is a **parenthetic clause** *I think* (cf. 7.18), but lines 7f. contain a much longer parenthesis:

> the <,> ground <,> was plainly <,> uh uh *and this seems to have been uh common ground between the witnesses who were called in this case* <,> uhm a bad place for <,> stacking <,> uh these lintels and beams

The parenthetic clause occurs between the verb (*was*) and the subject complement (*a bad place for stacking these lintels and beams*). Such a long parenthetic clause would be unusual in formal writing. If it did occur, it would be enclosed in brackets or marked off from the rest of the sentence using dashes.

Line 16 contains an interesting example of **fronting** (cf. 8.3):

> . . . then *over* the stacks would go . . .

Here, the adverb *over* (part of the phrasal verb *go over*) has been moved to a position before the subject in order to give it greater emphasis. The result is a more 'dramatic' description of the accident. Compare this version with the conventional word order, which is a much more 'flat':

> . . . then the stacks would go *over* . . .

The effect of fronting is to make the fronted element more conspicuous, and to give it more dramatic focus. Compare:

Twenty pounds it cost me.	(fronted)
It cost me twenty pounds.	(normal word order)

10.4 Sports commentaries

Sports commentaries are also a type of unscripted monologue. They offer an interesting example of language use because in them the commentator has to describe events which happen as he is speaking, and over which he has no control. In many sports, the action is very fast, and events succeed each other in rapid succession. The commentator therefore must be able to react quickly under great pressure, and he must describe events coherently without having any time to prepare or rehearse. Sports commentaries therefore offer us interesting examples of truly spontaneous and public language use.

The extract below is from a radio commentary on an FA Cup match between Manchester United and Queen's Park Rangers.

> The corner kick now floated in from the left and Steskal going up to collect it comfortably on the edge of his own six-yard penalty area
> United tonight playing with a familiar line-up
> In goal Les Sealy
> 5 Back four of Irwin Bruce Pallister and Blackmore
> In the middle Ince Bryan Robson returning to the line-up alongside Webb and Sharp and then up front they have McClair and Hughes
> The ball currently inside the centre circle with Webb who puts it back to Robson and he tries the long chip forward for Lee Sharp which is cut out
> 10 well by David Bardsley
> Bardsley takes his place in a Rangers line-up that looks like this
> Steskal in goal
> Channing Bardsley Maddox and Sampson at the back

Barker Wilkins Wilson and Sinton in midfield and up front Falco and
15 Wegerle and the ball at the moment with Paul Ince who chips it forward
Bardsley going across quickly as Mark Hughes lurked to knock it forward
It's chested down here by Steve Bruce just inside his own half chipping the ball forward
It's knocked down by McClair for Bryan Robson delighted to be back in
20 the United line-up today and he spreads it out to the left now to Lee Sharp
Sharp goes past his man
Gets to the by-line
He's inside the penalty area
He's made up a lot of good ground there before a vital interception
25 came in
from Clive Wilson and that now earns Manchester United another corner kick away on that far side their left and it'll be Neil Webb who goes across to take it with Brian McClair waiting at the near post
Mark Hughes just on the edge of the six-yard box
30 Sharp Robson Pallister and Bruce all waiting along the edge of the eighteen-yard area
The corner coming out towards Pallister
He knocks it in there
McClair gets a good shot from Bruce
35 It cannons off a defender
Comes to the left of the Queen's Park Rangers goal and Roy Wegerle now keeps the ball in play as he comes away from his own penalty area and drags the ball up to the halfway line
Tackle coming in from Denis Irwin there and as Bruce picked it up he
40 was fouled
Free kick to United just inside the Rangers' half
Irwin has got the free kick in there
It's knocked back <,> by Danny Maddox and going out to the far side flicked forward by Justin Channing but then knocked forward for United
45 by Webb
Interception coming in now and Wilkins now brings it away <,> as they make the break forward with Bardsley
Bardsley now facing a challenge from Paul Ince puts a short ball back to Barker and he goes back out to Wegerle on the far side
50 A good idea to set Barker away again but a vital interception coming in from Blackmore and now United move forward
It's with Brian McClair
McClair moves down the centre
He's got Hughes to his right <,> and he was aiming for Mark Hughes
55 <,> but the ball had too much power behind it and Kenny Sanson <,> had the easy job of shepherding it back to Jan Steskal

United on a good run at the moment whereas Rangers of course have been struggling in the First Division
Steskal's <,> clearance brings another interruption in play
60 The flag is up for an offside decision and the Queen's Park Rangers coach Bobby Gould has come to the <,> uh halfway line because he can see that uh
one of his players is back there injured
It uh looks like Justin Channing who's receiving treatment <,>

In this extract it is very noticeable that the length of the units corresponds closely with the speed of the action being described. During periods of intense, fast action, the utterances are very brief and 'telegraphic' in style, as the commentator tries to keep pace with the action. During less intense periods – when there is a lull in the game – the commentator has more time to produce longer and grammatically more complex utterances.

In the 'telegraphic' utterances, there is a great deal of **ellipsis**, including ellipsis of the main verb:

Steskal in goal (cf. Steskal *is* in goal)
Channing Bardsley Maddox and Sampson at the back (cf. . . . *are* at the back)
The ball currently inside the centre circle . . . (cf. The ball *is* currently . . .)
. . . the ball at the moment with Paul Ince . . . (cf. the ball at the moment *is* with . . .)

There is also ellipsis of determiners (cf. 5.26) in some noun phrases (cf. 4.2):

Tackle coming in . . . (cf. *A* tackle . . .)
Free kick to United . . . (cf. *A* free kick . . .)

The use of **progressive aspect** (cf. 4.14) is very striking in this commentary, but the progressive auxiliary *be* is usually ellipted:

Steskal going up . . . (cf. Steskal *is* going up . . .)
United tonight playing with a familiar line-up (cf. United *are* playing . . .)
The corner coming out . . . (cf. The corner *is* coming out . . .)

Ellipsis allows the commentator to speak quickly in order to keep pace with the action, while having no detrimental effect on comprehensibility.

In terms of clause relationships, the 'telegraphic' style of a sports commentary may be described as a kind of loose 'stringing together' of short clauses or other units, with no grammatical relation between them:

Played forward by Robson
Hughes tries to lay it off for McClair
Comes back now for Neil Webb
Webb wisely spots Irwin in space
Chipped into the middle by Irwin

This loose 'stringing together' of units, without any grammatical relation between them, is called **parataxis**. It is contrasted with **hypotaxis**, which refers to relations between units based on coordination or subordination (cf. 6.10).

Sports commentaries typically contain a large proportion of **passive** constructions, often followed by a *by*-phrase (cf. 4.15):

It's *knocked back* <,> *by Danny Maddox*
. . . *flicked forward by Justin Channing*
but then *knocked forward for United by Webb*

We can compare these passive constructions with their active counterparts:

Danny Maddox knocks it back
Justin Channing flicks it forward
Webb knocks it forward for United

In the active construction, the subject (the name of the player who is performing the action) comes first, followed by the verb. In the passive construction, this information is postponed to the end of the clause, where it occurs in the *by*-phrase. The passive construction therefore gives the commentator more time to identify exactly which player is involved in the action. We might refer to the use of the passive here as a type of 'delaying tactic' on the part of the commentator. Delaying tactics are particularly important in a radio commentary, where even a brief silence can be very disconcerting to the listeners. The commentator must keep speaking more or less all the time, even when he is unsure about what is happening on the field.

Here is another example of a delaying tactic:

. . . and quickly in there was Barker

Here, the commentator uses a changed word order to 'buy time' for himself, until he has identified the player involved in the action. Compare this construction with the more usual:

. . . and Barker was quickly in there

The following is the clearest example in this extract of a delaying tactic. As one player is about to be substituted, the commentator does not yet know who his

replacement is going to be. However he keeps speaking until he has identified the substitute:

> . . . and we're going to see *I think* the introduction *after just twelve minutes* of Alan McCarthy

The commentator is quite obviously 'buying time'. He first uses a parenthetic clause *I think* (cf. 7.18), and then an adverbial *after just twelve minutes* (cf. 3.9). These are inserted into the noun phrase *the introduction of Alan McCarthy*, between the noun (*introduction*) and the post-modifier (*of Alan McCarthy*). This is very untypical of general language use. Typically, a noun is immediately followed by its post-modifier (cf. 4.4). In the sports commentary, however, the strategy clearly serves the very useful purpose of 'buying time' for the commentator.

10.5 Email English

An estimated 6.1 billion emails are sent out daily around the world, and the figure continues to increase. In the last decade, email has become an important communication tool, and email communication is already recognized as a linguistic register in its own right, even if its conventions are not yet fully fixed. Email is a written form of language, but it is not simply a letter in electronic form. It also has many of the characteristics of speech. However, we will begin by looking at some of the features that emails share with other forms of writing, especially letters.

As a linguistic register, email is still very much in a development stage; usage varies, and many users of the medium are still unsure about what the conventions are. For example, in writing a letter, we know the convention of starting with *Dear John* or *Dear Sir*, and ending with a salutation such as *Best wishes* or *Yours sincerely*. The conventions are less clear in emails. Users are still often unsure whether to use *Dear John*, *Hi John*, or simply *John* –. Much depends, of course, on the relationship between the sender and the recipient. Among close friends, a wide range of openings can be observed, including *Hi*, *Yo*, and *Hey*. However, if the recipient is not personally known to the sender, many writers still tend to use the more traditional '*Dear . . .*' and '*Yours sincerely*'. In circulars, or emails to a mailing list, *Dear all* or *Dear List Members* are commonly used.

Speed is an important aspect of email communication. This refers both to how emails are delivered and also to how they are composed. Unlike a letter, which may take days to arrive, an email may be read almost as soon as it is sent. As a result, the sender may receive a reply very quickly, and so a rapid back-and-forth exchange of emails can be entered into. Emails tend to be written very quickly. They are typically brief, and many writers use abbreviations to speed up the act of composition. These include

> thx (thanks)
> u (you)

BTW (by the way)
FYI (for your information)
b4 (before)
CU (see you)

Some writers dispense with upper case letters altogether, since the upper case requires an additional key stroke:

i met john on monday.

On the other hand, an email typed entirely in upper case letters is considered to be a breach of 'netiquette', since the reader interprets it as the equivalent of shouting in speech. A limited use of capitalization is generally acceptable, if it is used to give emphasis:

We're taking Libby to the doctor this morning to find out why she's eating SO MUCH! . . . she's becoming quite a blimp

Writers of emails are generally unconcerned with spelling errors or 'typos'; only the most careful writers will re-read and edit their emails before sending them. On the part of readers, there is much greater tolerance of spelling errors in emails than in handwriting or print. This is somewhat ironic, since electronic spellcheckers make it easier to check an email than it is to check any of the more traditional forms of written communication.

Speed of composition, and the typical brevity of emails, may be factors in what many people perceive as a certain terseness in email messages, even when no such thing is intended. An email is more likely to be misinterpreted than a letter. For that reason, people sometimes use smileys or emoticons to indicate their intention, or to clarify how their remarks are to be interpreted. Emoticons represent the facial expressions of the writer:

:-) smile
:-(frown
;-) wink

Some writers explicitly describe their own facial expressions by inserting <grins>, <smiles>, or <laughs>. Similarly, 'LOL' ('laughing out loud') has become a common tag in personal emails. Idiosyncratic spellings are sometimes used to emulate certain aspects of speech:

This is just soooooo boring.
Going to (yaaaaaaaaawn) Dublin at the weekend.

Here, the idiosyncratic spellings are used to represent extended vowel sounds, and thereby to give added emphasis to what is being expressed. All of these strategies are intended to compensate for a perceived deficiency in email communication, in comparison with face-to-face conversation, where a great deal of the meaning is communicated by the speakers' facial expressions, gestures, stress, and intonation.

Other features of speech are also regularly represented in emails, by various means. Most notable among these is the very common use of interjections and discourse particles:

> . . . by the way – you know the Britannica we bought for, *eh*, Elizabeth? *well*, it arrived last week (30 vols) – we spent some time in Don's shed opening the boxes and having a look at it – *like* . . . *wow*!!!
> *Hey*, hope u're ok there. TGIF *eh*?

We turn now to the grammatical features of emails. In personal emails – that is, among close, personal friends – there are many grammatical features that we associate with speech, and specifically with conversation.

> Yo –
> We are in Newbridge (Whoa!) in an I-Cafe. Raining here. Been to see a house – nice but too far from anywhere. The search goes on. How you? Big day on Sunday, eh?

Since this is a personal email, the writer assumes a great deal of shared knowledge with the recipient – a shared attitude towards Newbridge, perhaps, which is expressed by the interjection *Whoa!*, and shared knowledge of some event on Sunday. The writer observes many of the conventions of the written medium, such as capitalization and punctuation, but in terms of grammar the message is closer to a conversation. There is a great deal of **ellipsis**:

Raining here	(cf. *It is* raining here)
Been to see a house	(cf. *I have* been to see a house)
How you?	(cf. How *are* you?)

and fragmentary sentences:

> – nice but too far from anywhere
> Big day on Sunday.

Even the grammatically complete sentences are very short, and no subordinate clauses are used.

In less personal emails, brevity is still a central feature, both of the email itself and of the individual sentences. However, in the following example, there is a degree of sentence complexity, which is the result of subordination and coordination:

> hi, thanks.
> think i can make my way to you. plane is scheduled to land at 5:45, so by the time i (hopefully) retrieve my bag and wend my way to central i guess it will be nearer 6:30 to 7.
> maybe i could call you from the airport and give you an ETA, or if i get lost call again!
> up to you really.
> whatever, it is a very sunny august bank holiday monday in olde london towne.
> milly says hello,
> see ya soon
> K.

In this example, some quite complex sentences alternate with brief, fragmentary sentences. The complex sentences are used to express the main business of the message, which is to make travel arrangements. However, it is quite unlike a business letter. We can see this in the informality and casualness of the language (*hi*, *see ya*), and in the throwaway line beginning with *Whatever* . . . , which suggests that the writer is not unduly worried about his travel arrangements. While maintaining an informal and friendly tone, this email still succeeds in conveying the most important information.

Apart from personal messages, email is probably most often used in the workplace, as a means of communication among colleagues. In this case, the usual formalities of a letter, such as '*Dear* . . .', are often dispensed with altogether, leaving only the business in hand. The following is an exchange between two colleagues:

> I'm trying to delegate a few duties, as I simply don't have the time to do everything myself!
> Thanks, – Charles
> >Charles,
> >My CD Writer isn't working just now, among other technical problems,
> >so I'd be grateful if you could send copies to the people concerned.
> Gerry—I'll be happy to do this.

The sole purpose of this exchange is to conduct business, although it is very different from traditional communication by business letters. The greetings and salutations are brief, and are not used consistently. Both writers use contracted forms, such as *I'll*, *I'd*, and *don't*. These features contribute to the informal and friendly tone of the exchange. On the other hand, the 'business-like' nature of the communication can be seen in the fact that all the sentences are grammatically complete. There is no ellipsis of the subject, which is very common in more informal contexts. The objective of both writers is to convey information, and for that reason most of the sentences display a high degree of complexity at both the clause level and the phrase level:

> I'm trying to delegate a few duties, as I simply don't have the time to do everything myself!

The clause *to delegate a few duties* is a *to*-infinitive clause, functioning as direct object of the verb *trying*. The clause *as . . . myself* is an adverbial clause, expressing reason. Finally, the noun *time* is post-modified by the *to*-infinitive clause *to do everything myself*.

> My CD Writer isn't working just now, among other technical problems, so I'd be grateful if you could send copies to the people concerned.

This sentence consists of two clauses coordinated by the marginal coordinator *so* (cf. 7.4). The first clause is simple, though it contains two adverbials, *just now* and *among other technical problems*. The second clause is complex: it contains an adverbial *if*-clause, expressing condition. The complex noun phrase *the people concerned* has the following structure:

determiner	**noun**	**post-modifier**
the	*people*	*concerned*

The post-modifier is a **reduced relative clause**, in which the relative pronoun is ellipted, and the verb phrase is non-finite (cf. 6.9). Compare:

> the people *who are* concerned

The final sentence contains a complex adjective phrase (cf. 4.21):

> I'll be happy *to do this*.

Here, the *to*-infinitive clause functions as post-modifier of the adjective *happy*.

10.6 The language of literature

Most of what we find in the language of literature – particularly in prose fiction and drama – we also find in other uses of language. Writers select from what is available in the language as a whole. Poetry, however, often departs from the norms of language use in two respects: (1) in deviations from the rules and conventions of ordinary language, and (2) in excessive regularities. For that reason, I will be drawing my examples from poetry. At the same time, it must be said that some poets are more inclined than others to keep close to everyday uses of language, perhaps even to simulate the style of natural conversations.

The deviations that we encounter in poetry are located in various aspects of the language. Poetry is distinctive visually. It is set out in lines that do not go right

across the page. Spaces may be left between sets of lines to indicate the beginnings of new sections, and lines within sections may be indented in various ways to indicate connections of some kind, perhaps in rhyme or metrical pattern. The traditional verse convention is for each line to begin with a capital letter, but some modern poets defy this convention. Some modern poets also defy the ordinary language conventions of spelling and punctuation. In this respect, e.e. cummings is particularly idiosyncratic: for example, he regularly writes the first person singular pronoun as 'i' and he sometimes inserts a punctuation mark in the middle of a word.

Poets often create new words. These tend to follow the normal rules for word-formation rather than being deviant. Some eventually enter the general language. But new words are surprising at their first appearance and they may never be admitted to the general vocabulary, particularly when they are based on word-formation rules that are little used. Gerard Manley Hopkins seems to have invented *unfathering* ('depriving of a father'). He describes how the snow 'Spins to the widow-making unchilding *unfathering* deeps'. The new word and its sense are prepared for by the more transparent *widow-making* and the parallel *unchilding* (an existing word, though uncommon). Hopkins has combined the prefix *un-* with a noun to form a verb *unfather* in a deprivative sense. This is a rule of word-formation that is little used. Even more rare is the formation of a negative noun by prefixing *un-* to an existing noun. Thomas Hardy introduces the noun *unhope* as the final word in the last stanza of 'In Tenebris':

> Black is night's cope;
> But death will not appal
> One who, past doubtings all,
> Waits in *unhope*.

We find very few nouns with the prefix *un-*; two, for example, are *untruth* and *unrest*. Hopkin's *unfathering*, and Hardy's *unhope* remain nonce-words (words coined for a single occasion); they have not entered the vocabulary stock of the language.

Conversion is a common process for the formation of new words. We *butter* bread, take a *look*, *calm* somebody. In these everyday examples, words have changed from their original word-class to a new word-class without any change in their form: *Butter* is a verb derived from a noun ('put butter on'), *look* is a noun derived from a verb, and *calm* is a verb derived from an adjective. Poets sometimes introduce nonce-formations through conversion. Hopkins converts the adjective *comfortless* into a noun in 'grouping round my *comfortless*' and the abstract non-count noun *comfort* into a concrete count noun in 'Here! creep, Wretch, under a *comfort*'. e.e. cummings takes conversion to an extreme by converting the past form *did* and its negative *didn't* into nouns in 'he sang his *didn't* he danced his *did*'.

Sometimes the poet's lexical innovations are **compounds**, the combination of two words into one: Hopkin's *selfyeast* in '*selfyeast* of spirit a dull dough sours';

T.S. Eliot's *sea-girls*; *thought-fox* in the title of a poem by Ted Hughes; and *gift-strong* in John Berryman's 'when he was young and *gift-strong*'.

Poets often introduce unusual collocations of words, which may require figurative interpretations. Examples abound. Here are just a few:

> The child's *cry* / *Melts* in the wall. (Sylvia Plath)
> Bitter *memory* like *vomit* / *Choked* my throat. (Gary Snyder)
> Your *lips* are *animals* (Anne Sexton)
> This *grandson of fishes* (Robert Bly)
> across the *castrate lawn* (Richard Wilbur)
> *hopeless cathedrals* (Allen Ginsberg)

Some deviations are grammatical. Departures from normal word order are common in poetry. In the following line from Walt Whitman the direct object *Vigil strange* is fronted, an occasional unusual order in non-poetic language (cf. 9.3).

> *Vigil strange* I kept on the field one night

Also abnormal is the order *vigil strange* rather than *strange vigil*, since adjectives generally come before the nouns they modify. In the next example from W.H. Auden, the direct object *A white perfection* is abnormally placed between the subject *Swans in the winter* and the verb *have*:

> Swans in the winter air
> *A white perfection* have

In another example, from Wallace Stevens, the phrase *upon a hill* is extracted from the first of a pair of coordinated clauses (*I placed a jar in Tennessee upon a hill*) and placed after the second clause:

> I placed a jar in Tennessee
> And round it was, *upon a hill.*

In addition, the subject complement *round* is fronted from its normal position (*it was round*). Finally, in these lines from a sonnet by Gerard Manley Hopkins, the verb *find* is abnormally omitted in the first of two coordinated clauses:

> . . . than blind
> Eyes in their dark can day or thirst can find
> Thirst's all-in-all in all a world of wet.

The sense is 'than blind eyes *can find* day in their dark?'

Excessive regularities are expressed in the systematic organization of features that otherwise occur unsystematically in the language. Poetry is often marked by patterns of sound; for example, metre, rhyme, and alliteration. The alliteration of *l* in this stanza from Philip Larkin's poem 'Toads' is so abundant that it could not occur by chance in the ordinary use of language:

> Lots of folk live on their wits:
> Lecturers, lispers,
> Losels, loblolly-men, louts –
> They don't end as paupers.

The alternate lines end with identical sounds: *ts* in *wits* and *louts*, and *pers* in *lispers* and *paupers*.

Another type of patterning is **parallelism**. Parallel structures exhibit grammatical, lexical, and semantic similarities. Here is an example of close parallelism from 'Little Gidding' in T.S. Eliot's 'Four Quartets':

> We die with the dying:
> See, they depart, and we go with them.
> We are born with the dead:
> See, they return, and bring us with them.

In the next example, from the end of one of John Donne's sonnets, the final two lines are parallel. This parallelism takes the form of **chiasmus**, a reversal of the order of the two parts of the parallel structures: the *except*-clause comes first in one line, and second in the other line.

> Take me to you, imprison me, for I,
> Except you enthrall me, never shall be free,
> Nor ever chaste, except you ravish me.

The two clauses in the first line are also parallel. Grammatically, both clauses are imperative, starting with an imperative verb followed by a direct object. Lexically, both clauses have the same pronoun *me* as direct object, and the verbs *take* (in this structure) and *imprison* are partial synonyms. Semantically, both clauses express the poet's request to God (the subject that is understood from the previous context) to take control of him.

One useful approach to literary analysis is to start by looking for the language features that deviate from what we know to be normal in language. This approach is explored in the following section.

10.6.1 Foregrounding

Literary language, especially poetic language, is distinguished by the consistency with which it uses **foregrounding**. The term *foregrounding* is a visual metaphor; it

refers to the language features that stand out from the background of normal use. One of the objectives that analysts of the language of literature may set for themselves is to find interpretations of foregrounding. As in all literary criticism, there is scope for more than one interpretation, but some interpretations are more plausible than others.

I take as my first example a poem by Thomas Hardy, entitled 'In Tenebris' ('In Darkness'). It has a Latin epigraph from Psalm 102, which is rendered in the King James version 'My heart is smitten, and withered like grass'. The complete poem follows:

Wintertime nighs;
But my bereavement-pain
It cannot bring again:
Twice no one dies.

5 Flower-petals flee;
But, since it once hath been,
No more that severing scene
Can harrow me.

Birds faint in dread:
10 I shall not lose old strength
In the lone frost's black length:
Strength long since fled!

Leaves freeze to dun;
But friends can not turn cold
15 This season as of old
For him with none.

Tempests may scath;
But love can not make smart
Again this year his heart
20 Who no heart hath.

Black is night's cope;
But death will not appal
One who, past doubtings all,
Waits in unhope.

The poem is divided into six stanzas. The stanza division is made more conspicuous than usual by the indentation of the first and last lines, which are shorter than the middle lines. Sound patterning reinforces the feeling that each stanza is a unit: the two shorter lines rhyme and the two longer lines rhyme, and no rhymes are repeated across stanzas. The metrical scheme is iambic (unstressed syllable

followed by stressed syllable), but contrary to the iambic norm every stanza begins with a stressed syllable.

The parallelism in appearance and sound has its analogy in a parallelism in sense. The stanzas elaborate the comparison expressed in the epigram from the Psalms: a comparison between desolation in nature and desolation in personal feelings. The first line of each stanza portrays a negative image from nature, an image that conjures up loss or danger. The next three lines relate this image to a negative human experience.

Negation is foregrounded in the poem, which is replete with negative words (*no one*, *no more*, *none*, *not*, *no*) and words with negative connotations (such as *wintertime*, *bereavement-pain*, *flee*, *lose*, *black*, *death*). The final word is the nonce-formation *unhope*, which we examined in the previous section. It makes a stronger impact than a possible synonym such as *despair* might have. As the negative of *hope*, it intimates the absence of any feeling of hope: a state beyond hope. The contrast with *hope* is underlined by the collocation *Waits in unhope*, which brings to mind the normal collocation *waits in hope*. In its strategic position as the final word of the poem, *unhope* is the climax to a series of preceding negative expressions.

The negation motif chimes with the imagery and themes of the poem. In each stanza the comments that follow the nature imagery allude to previous experiences of pain and despair. The consequences of past adversities have been permanent, so that a repetition of the adversity can no longer affect the poet. The final stanza refers to the ultimate adversity – death. But even death 'will not appal'.

In the first half of the poem, the poet treats the experiences as personal to him by using the first person pronouns *I*, *me*, *my*. In the second half, his pain and despair are distanced through the use of the third person pronouns *him* and *his* and (in the final stanza) the indefinite pronoun *one*. Through the change in pronouns, the poet generalizes from his own experiences to the human condition.

My final example of foregrounding involves departures from both external and internal norms. The poem, given in full below, is by Gerard Manley Hopkins. It is titled 'Heaven-Haven' and subtitled 'A nun takes the veil'. The subtitle provides the situational context for the poem. The title not only points to the theme of the poem (heaven as haven), but also introduces the linguistic device that dominates the poem, close parallelism. The two words *heaven* and *haven* fall short of complete identity by just one vowel sound as well as one letter:

1 I have desired to go
2 Where springs not fail,
3 To fields where flies no sharp and sided hail
4 And a few lilies blow.

5 And I have asked to be
6 Where no storms come,
7 Where the green swell is in the havens dumb,
8 And out of the swing of the sea.

The close parallelism in grammatical structure between the two stanzas calls attention to itself. The last three lines in each stanza refer to places that are characterized by the negatives *not* and *no* and by words that have negative connotations.

The closeness of the parallelism also foregrounds the differences between the two stanzas. The first stanza opens with *I have desired to go* and the second stanza with *I have asked to be*. *Desire* is ambiguous between two meanings: the stative 'wanted' and the dynamic 'asked' (cf. 3.14). In the 'asked' interpretation, the line is closer in meaning to the opening line of the second stanza. Both lines then describe a past request. The present perfect *have desired* and *have asked* indicate that the request is relevant to the present time of the poem, whereas the simple past *I desired* and *I asked* might suggest that the person is no longer interested in having the request granted. On the other hand, in the 'wanted' interpretation, *I have desired* points to a feeling that has extended over a period of time to the present but has not necessarily been translated into the action of making a request. The ambiguity is mimetic of ambivalence. The ostensible speaker is a woman about to become a nun, and she expresses some feeling of ambivalence about taking the veil. The change from the ambiguous *desired* to the unambiguous *asked* suggests a progression in the poem.

Similarly the switch from *desired to go* to *asked to be* marks a progression: the dynamic *go* points to a striving, whereas the stative *be* indicates a state of rest. There are other differences between the stanzas that suggest a similar advance. There is more deviation from grammatical norms in the first stanza, perhaps mimetic of the striving: the archaic negation without *do* in *springs not fail* (instead of *springs do not fail*), the fronting of the verb in *flies no sharp and sided hail*, and the separation of the two parts of the compound in *sharp and sided hail* (instead of *sharp-sided hail*).

There is a difference between where the speaker has desired to go and where she has asked to be. The first stanza describes a countryside with springs and fields. It alludes to material needs (*springs not fail*) and pleasures (*a few lilies blow*). The second stanza describes a place of peace and quiet, the haven of the poem's title. The tension in the first stanza – conveyed in large part by the grammar – is resolved in the final stanza. The first stanza indicates a desire for positive things, even though negatives are used: springs that do not fail, fields without hail, and the presence of a few lilies. The second stanza calls for the absence of storms and tides: the ideal is the absence of conflict.

In the next section we will explore the type of foregrounding that derives from ambiguity.

10.6.2 Ambiguity

In the everyday uses of the spoken language and in most writing, ambiguity is a fault to be avoided because it may cause confusion or misunderstanding. Poets, however, introduce ambiguity intentionally to convey simultaneous meanings.

Puns, which are based on multiple interpretations, are employed playfully in poetry as in jokes and advertisements, though they may also have a serious purpose. The following stanza, from a poem by John Donne, contains two puns, one on *Sun* and the other on *done*:

I have a sin of fear, that when I have spun
My last thread, I shall perish on the shore;
Swear by thyself, that at my death thy *Sun*
Shall shine as it shines now, and heretofore:
And, having done that, thou hast *done*,
I have no more.

Religious poetry traditionally puns *Sun* with *Son*, Christ the son of God, blending the associations of natural light with the associations of spiritual light. The second pun is personal, on the name of the poet: *thou hast done* combines the meaning 'you have finished' with 'you have Donne'. The last two lines of the poem echo a refrain in the previous stanzas:

When thou hast done, thou hast not done,
For I have more.

The poet tells God that when He has forgiven the sins he enumerates He has not finished because he has more sins. At the same time, the pun conveys the added meaning that God has not taken possession of Donne because he has more sins. It is through Christ that at his death the poet will be fully forgiven by God and taken by God.

Grammatical ambiguities are also found in poetry. They are generally more difficult to analyse than lexical ambiguities. The first example comes from T.S. Eliot's *The Waste Land*, in an extract from the section called 'The Fire Sermon':

1 At the violet hour, when the eyes and back
2 Turn upward from the desk, when the human engine waits
3 Like a taxi throbbing waiting,
4 I Tiresias, though blind, throbbing between two lives,
5 Old man with wrinkled female breasts can see,
6 At the violet hour, the evening hour that strives
7 Homeward, and brings the sailor home from sea,
8 The typist home at teatime, clears her breakfast, lights
9 Her stove, and lays out food in tins.

The subject of this sentence, *I Tiresias* (line 4), is followed by two adverbials: a verbless clause *though blind* and a non-finite clause *throbbing between two lives*. Then comes an instance of apposition (cf. 4.7): *Old man with wrinkled female*

breasts. This seems at first reading to be in apposition with *two lives*: one life is an old man, the other perhaps a woman *with wrinkled female breasts*. But the absence of a description of a second life suggests that the reader has been sent on a false trail. The phrase is then re-assigned as appositive to the subject of the sentence *I Tiresias*. We have two grammatical analyses of the function of the appositive; the second supersedes the first, but the effect of the first lingers. Tiresias is the old man with wrinkled female breasts and the throbbing between two lives is the uneasy straddling of male and female in Tiresias. The grammatical straddling between two analyses reinforces the imagery. A second false trail is set by what follows the verb *can see* (line 5). Is *see* here intransitive ('Tiresias has the ability to see'), or is it transitive ('Tiresias can see somebody or something')? If it is transitive, we expect a direct object to follow later in the sentence. The reader is kept in suspense for several lines. The phrase beginning with *the evening hour* is in apposition with *the violet hour* (line 6). *The evening hour* is modified by a relative clause whose predicates are coordinated: *that strives / Homeward, and brings the sailor home from sea*. It looks as if what follows shares the verb *brings* and is coordinated, though the coordinator *and* is implied and not present; *brings the sailor home from sea, / The typist home at teatime*. The parallelism of *the sailor home* and *The typist home* and the commas after *sea* and *teatime* encourage that initial reading. Yet as we read on, we see that *The typist* has its own set of coordinated predicates: *clears her breakfast, lights / Her stove, and lays out food in tins* (lines 8–9). *The typist* could therefore be the subject of a new sentence. Alternatively, *The typist home at teatime* might indeed be coordinated with *the sailor home from sea*, and the predicates that follow might be a relative clause (cf. 4.5) with the relative pronoun *who* omitted, though the omission would be very odd in the ordinary use of language: *brings . . . / The typist home at teatime, [who] clears / her breakfast, lights / Her stove, and lays out food in tins.*

Let us now turn back to the question whether *see* in line 5 is intransitive or transitive. The question is in fact not resolved, since the grammatical status of *see* depends on the interpretation of *The typist home at teatime* (line 8). If this phrase begins a new sentence, *see* is intransitive. If it is coordinated with *the sailor home from sea* (line 7), *see* is still intransitive. But there is yet a third possibility. The phrase may be the subject of a *that*-clause (whose conjunction *that* is omitted) which functions as direct object of a transitive *see: I Tiresias . . . can see / At the violet hour . . . [that] / The typist home at teatime, clears her breakfast, lights / Her stove, and lays out food in tins.* This interpretation, which is discouraged by the comma after *teatime*, is given some support by a parallel sentence five lines later:

> I Tiresias, old man with wrinkled dugs
> Perceived the scene, and foretold the rest –
> I too awaited the expected guest.

Yet the analysis of these lines is also not straightforward. The sentence is parallel if *Perceived the scene, and foretold the rest* is the predicate of the sentence

(*I Tiresias . . . / Perceived . . .*). But the absence of a comma after *dugs* allows the possibility that the line is a relative clause with omitted *who* (*I Tiresias . . . [who] / Perceived . . .*).

We have seen that the phrase *The typist home at teatime* faces both ways and that as a result there are three possible interpretations of lines 8–9 that depend on three grammatical analyses. The grammatical ambiguities mimic the paradox of Tiresias, a man who has wrinkled female breasts and a blind man who can see.

The next example of ambiguity comes from the first four lines of a sonnet by Gerard Manley Hopkins. In these lines, the poet calls on himself to turn away from a cycle of self-accusations with which he is tormenting himself:

1 My own heart let me more have pity on; let
2 Me live to my sad self hereafter kind,
3 Charitable; not live this tormented mind
4 With this tormented mind tormenting yet.

Line 1 starts with the fronted *My own heart*, the complement of the preposition *on* (cf. 4.25). Later in the line occurs the unusual positioning of *more*. The oddity of the position of *more* foregrounds the word and is the cause of its grammatical ambiguity. *More* may be an adverb ('more often') or an adjective modifying *pity*. As an adverb, it should come at the end and be accompanied by some time expression such as *now* or *than before*: 'Let me have pity on my heart more than before'. As an adjective, it should precede *pity*: 'Let me have more pity on my heart'. The basis of comparison for the adjective is left vague, but two possibilities suggest themselves: 'Let me have more pity on myself than on others' or Let me have more pity on myself than I have had before'. The second possibility is closer to the interpretation indicated if *more* is an adverb, and it receives support from the word *hereafter* in the parallel sentence that follows.

Live in line 2 seems to be treated as a linking verb, with the adjectives *kind, / Charitable* as subject complement (cf. 3.8). In normal use, *live* is an intransitive or a transitive verb, so we would ordinarily expect it to occur with adverbs rather than adjectives (*They lived happily ever after*, not *They lived happy ever after*). The grammatical deviation is highlighted by the postponement of the adjectives to the end instead of the normal order as in 'Let me live hereafter kind, charitable to my sad self. The unusual structure with a subject complement contributes to the ambiguities of the parallel contrasting sentence in lines 3–4.

The ambiguities lie in the grammatical function of *this tormented mind.* According to one interpretation the phrase is a subject complement, parallel to *kind, / Charitable*, and then *let me* is implied from the preceding sentence: *let / Me live to my sad self hereafter kind, / Charitable; [let me] not live this tormented mind / With this tormented mind tormenting yet*. If we use *be* as the linking verb, a simple example of this structure might be *Let me be kind to myself, not be a tormentor*. As in the preceding sentence, it is odd to have *live* as a linking verb.

In a second interpretation, *this tormented mind* is the subject of the intransitive verb *live* and is parallel to *me* in the preceding sentence; only *let* is carried over. The grammatical oddity in this interpretation is that the subject is placed after the verb. If we repositioned the subject in the normal order, we would have *[let] this tormented mind not live with this tormented mind tormenting yet*.

In the third interpretation, *this tormented mind* is the direct object of the transitive verb *live*, and *let me* is implied from the preceding context. The first part of the sentence might be rephrased 'Let me not live this tormented mind'. But as a transitive verb, *live* is highly restricted in the direct objects it may take. We would normally expect a noun phrase with *life* as its main word ('Let me not live this tormented life'), as in the expressions *live a hard life, live a good life*.

The verb *torment* is ordinarily a transitive verb, but no direct object follows it in line 4. One interpretation is that *this tormented mind* is the object implied from line 3: *With this tormented mind tormenting [this tormented mind] yet*. The effect is to suggest an endless cycle of tormentor and tormented, with the poet as a self-tormentor. Alternatively, *torment* is exceptionally here intransitive, and the sense is 'This tormented mind is still experiencing torment'. Compare *My leg is hurting*.

All the interpretations that I have offered for these four lines co-exist and, in doing so, enrich the poem. The dislocations in grammar mimic the psychological dislocations that the poet describes.

The final example comes from the first eight lines of a sonnet by John Milton. The context of the sonnet is the onset of blindness in Milton and his reaction to his disability.

1 When I consider how my light is spent,
2 Ere half my days in this dark world and wide,
3 And that one Talent which is death to hide
4 Lodged with me useless, though my Soul more bent
5 To serve therewith my Maker, and present
6 My true account, lest he returning chide,
7 Doth God exact day labour, light denied,
8 I fondly ask; . . .

There are various places where multiple interpretations are possible, but I will focus on the last three lines of the octet. In lines 4–6 Milton asserts his eagerness to present God with a 'true account' of his life, *lest he returning chide* ('lest God when He returns – or when He replies – rebukes me'). On an initial reading the question in line 7 seems to be asked by God: *Doth God exact day labour, light denied* ('Does God require casual labour when light is denied?'). The question then appears to be a rhetorical question that God asks in rebuking the poet, and as a rhetorical question it seeks no answer (cf. 6.2). It implies the strong assertion that of course God does not exact day labour when light is denied. However, when the reader reaches line 8, it becomes transparent that the fronting of the question before the

reporting clause has laid a false trail. The question is not asked by God, but by the poet: *I fondly ask* ('I foolishly ask'). The question now emerges as a genuine *yes–no* question, which the poet immediately evaluates as a foolish question. The folly of the question is underlined by the previous reading of it as a rhetorical question, which makes the question unnecessary. Because God's assertion of His justice is replaced by the poet's questioning of God's justice, the poet's question is seen to be insolent and presumptuous. The effect is obtained through the succession of two analyses of the grammar of lines 6–7: the initial misinterpretation is immediately followed by an accurate second interpretation. The poet's foolish question is answered in the final line of the sonnet:

> They also serve who only stand and wait.

EXERCISES

Exercises marked with an asterisk are more advanced.

*Exercise 10.1 English in use (cf. 10.1)

Look up *one* of the following topics in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* by Douglas Biber, *et al.* (Longman, 1999). Use the index to find places in the grammar where the topic is discussed, and follow up cross-references if necessary. Give a brief oral report on the topic in class.

1. dysfluencies
2. dialect
3. false starts
4. hedge
5. speech act functions
6. repair
7. register
8. anacoluthon

Exercise 10.2 Conversational English (cf. 10.2)

Examine the following extract, and describe the grammatical features that distinguish it as a typical example of conversational English. The speakers are identified as A and B, and the symbol <,> denotes a pause.

A: What was that <,> building on the corner <,> just past Chapel Street on the right where it used to be Lyon's <,>
What was it called the <,>
Well it it wasn't called Lyon's Corner House but it was
B: Chapel Street
A: Well you know Chapel Street
B: Yeah up at Islington

A: Yeah <,>
If you go on a bit you come to <,> a corner shop a big which used to be a big Lyon's <,> with a
Oh you don't know oh
B: No I don't know
I didn't know Islington until I moved there but
A: And it used to have <,> uhm it used to have a name like uhm <,> like uhm <,> uhm not the Trocadero but you know how they they uhm they acquire funny names for their places uhm uhm lifting them out of the tea shop <,> brigade

[ICE-GB-S1A-010-1ff.]

*Exercise 10.3 Conversational English (cf. 10.2)

The following extract is from a radio interview with a writer. Rewrite the extract as ordinary prose. The <,> symbol denotes a pause.

I'm taking life I'm sort of retired <,> but when I was in full flow as it were of writing uhm I had to discipline myself very severely so many hours a day
I used to set so much a day either so many hours or so many words whichever came first <,> and sometimes you had to force yourself for every minute of it to go on writing and go on working <,> and on other days it was coming and you didn't want to stop and you went on longer than you need
that was wonderful

[ICE-GB-S1B-048-59ff.]

*Exercise 10.4 Conversational English (cf. 10.2)

The extract below is taken from a novel. How does the dialogue compare with conversational English, as discussed in 10.2? Does the dialogue lack any features that we find in real conversation? What devices does the novelist use to simulate speech?

'I hope she trusted me.'
'Trusted you? Yes, of course she did.'
She watched her aunt shake her head.
'I didn't *know* that – '
'But why shouldn't she have trusted you?'
'Maybe she thought – I'd try to influence you.'
'Influence me how?'
'It's so long ago now.'
Catherine continued to stroke her aunt's thin, cooling wrist.

> 'I *could* have done. If I'd set my mind to it. But I relied on Hector, for everything. If we'd fallen out – where would that have left me? That's the point, you see.'
>
> [ICE-GB-W2F-010-8ff.]

Exercise 10.5 Unscripted monologue (cf. 10.3)

The following extract is a transcription of part of an unscripted public lecture on classical temples in Italy. Rewrite the extract as it might appear in a printed book. The <,> symbol denotes a pause.

> But now let's look at the origin of temples uhm <,> how they first got the shape they did <,> uh what they were used for too <,> and our best bit of help for how they might've looked and the original idea of what a temple is <,> is to be found in the Athens National Museum <,> and this is a miniature version of a temple <,>
> Something like the eighth century BC as far as I remember so you know a good two hundred years before anything elaborate or large built in stone <,>
> And what you can see is it's it's merely a kind of flat-backed shed which has been erected <,> uhm the sort of thing that's really very simple indeed to build <,>
> Uhm some of it presumably of wood like the little columns at the front at the front <,>
> Uh may have been on a stone base the real building as it were that this is a version of but almost certainly the walls made of <,> probably mud brick <,>
> And if you're going to have them made of mud brick and it rains remember to actually stick a ledge or cornice all the way round <,> so that the <,> mud won't actually get ruined by the rain
>
> [ICE-GB-S2A-024-73ff.]

Exercise 10.6 Sports commentaries (cf. 10.4)

The extract below is from a commentary on a Rugby League game between Great Britain and Australia. Describe the extract's distinctive grammatical features. The symbol <,> denotes a pause.

> And we play on
> Andy Platt
> Good driving done there by this uh this Wigan prop forward <,>
> Gregory <,>
> Oh that's good play
> Gibson
> He's got Offiah

Offiah's gone inside <,>
A chance gone begging there I think
If Offiah'd stayed outside <,>
What adventurous football from Great Britain <,>
And a good kick from Schofield <,>
Belcher wanting it to go over
It does <,>
Sensible play there from Belcher

[ICE-GB-S2A-004-223ff.]

Exercise 10.7 Email English (cf. 10.5)

The following is an intercalated email exchange between friends. Discuss the features that distinguish it as a typical example of email communication.

Hi J.
Good to hear from you. I was in London in June, and tried to look you up, but you had obviously already moved. Where are you now?
>oh shit! What a shame . . .
>I sent you a mail back in March, I think, to a hotmail account but don't
>know if you got that. Old job closed down in January with everyone out
>of a job like that with no pay. I now work for another web company.
>Am living in Brick Lane, which is very fine.
I recently had a visit from Ken. He stayed with me a few days, with his new fiancee, on their way to London, and again on the way back. We had several good drinking sessions here – just like old times, eh?
>So wish I could have been there . . . I spoke to Ken when he was in
>London and we were going to meet up but he had to cancel due to the
>pain he was in with his slipped disk. . . . Where is Ken now and what's
>he up to?
back in China, still teaching in some godawful place, but seems to be enjoying himself

Exercise 10.8 Email English (cf. 10.5)

Below are two emails written by colleagues. The second email is a reply to the first. Discuss the features of the exchange that relate to written communication, and those that it has in common with speech.

Dear Alan,
Attaching 20 zipped files. Can you let me know if you have received them okay before I send you the other 80?
many thanks
Laura

Hi laura,
Yes, got the 20 files and successfully unzipped them. Can you explain the file extensions? It's not immediately clear what I've got!!!
A.

***Exercise 10.9 The language of literature** (cf. 10.6)

Identify and explain the examples below of deviation from what is normal in language.

1. Wild men who caught and sang the sun in flight,
   And learn, too late, they grieved it on its way,
   Do not go gentle into that good night.
   [Dylan Thomas, 'Do Not Go Gentle into That Good Night']
2. he sang his didn't he danced his did
   [e.e. cummings, 'anyone lived in a pretty how town']
3. The hour-glass whispers to the lion's roar
   [W.H. Auden, 'Our Bias']
4. Slowly the poison the whole blood stream fills.
   [William Empson, 'Missing Dates']
5. Starts again always in Henry's ears
   the little cough somewhere, an odor, a chime.
   [John Berryman, 'The Dream Songs: 29']

***Exercise 10.10 The language of literature** (cf. 10.6)

Identify instances of foregrounding in the poems below and explain their effects.

1. This bread I break was once the oat,
   This wine upon a foreign tree
   Plunged in its fruit;
   Man in the day or wind at night
   Laid the crops low, broke the grape's joy.
   Once in this wine the summer blood
   Knocked in the flesh that decked the vine,
   Once in this bread
   The oat was merry in the wind;
   Man broke the sun, pulled the wind down.
   This flesh you break, this blood you let
   Make desolation in the vein,
   Were oat and grape
   Born out of the sensual root and sap;
   My wine you drink, my bread you snap.
   [Dylan Thomas, 'This Bread I Break']

2. A slumber did my spirit seal;
I had no human fears:
She seemed a thing that could not feel
The touch of earthly years.
No motion has she now, no force;
She neither hears nor sees;
Rolled round in earth's diurnal course,
With rocks, and stones, and trees.
[William Wordsworth, 'A Slumber Did My Spirit Seal']

3. Lord, Who createdst man in wealth and store,
Though foolishly he lost the same,
Decaying more and more,
Till he became
Most poore:
With Thee
O let me rise,
As larks, harmoniously,
And sing this day Thy victories:
Then shall the fall further the flight in me.
My tender age in sorrow did beginne;
And still with sicknesses and shame
Thou didst so punish sinne,
That I became
Most thinne.
With Thee
Let me combine,
And feel this day Thy victorie;
For, if I imp my wing on Thine,
Affliction shall advance the flight in me.
[George Herbert, 'Easter Wings']

***Exercise 10.11 The language of literature** (cf. 10.6)

1. In the stanza below, *leaned* may be a simple past or an *-ed* participle. Discuss the effects of the ambiguity.

Webster was much possessed by death
And saw the skull beneath the skin;
And breastless creatures under ground
Leaned backward with a lipless grin.
[T.S. Eliot, 'Whispers of Immortality', cited in *Seven Types of Ambiguity* by William Empson (London: Chatto and Windus, 1953)]

2. Below are the first four lines of one of Shakespeare's sonnets. Consider the effects of the ambiguities in those lines. Line 1: (a) *So* may be a manner adverb ('in this way') or a resultative conjunctive adverb ('therefore'), *supposing* may be an *-ing* participle ('I suppose that you are true') or a conditional conjunction ('if'). The sentence may be declarative or interrogative. Line 2: *so* may be resultative ('therefore') or a purpose conjunction ('so that', 'in order that'). Line 3: *new* may be an adverb ('newly') or an adjective ('to something new'); *altered* may refer back to *love's face* or to *love*.

   So shall I live, supposing thou art true,
   Like a deceived husband – so love's face
   May still seem love to me, though altered new:
   Thy looks with me, thy heart in other place.
   [William Shakespeare, 'Sonnet 93', from *Shakespeare's Sonnets*, edited by Stephen Booth (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1977)]

3. In the stanza below, *Bitter* may be a direct object or a subject complement. Discuss the ambiguity and its effects.

   I am gall, I am heartburn. God's most deep decree
   Bitter would have me taste; my taste was me;
   Bones built in me, flesh filled, blood brimmed the curse.
   [G.M. Hopkins, 'I Wake and Feel the Fell of Dark, not Day']

4. Discuss the effect of the punctuation of the stanza below on the meaning of the passage.

   To dispense, with justice; or, to dispense
   with justice. Thus the catholic god of France,
   with honours all even, honours all, even
   the damned in the brazen Invalides of Heaven.
   [Geoffrey Hill, 'The Mystery of the Charity of Charles Péguy']

*Exercise 10.12 English in use (cf. Chapter 10)

Collect one or more samples of English from *one* of the following sources. For spoken sources, you will need to use a tape recorder and then transcribe the speech. Write an essay on the characteristic features of the English that is used.

1. The dialogue in your favourite tv soap opera or sit-com.
2. Song lyrics
3. Radio and tv advertisements
4. A stand-up comedian's routine
5. A cookery book or tv cookery programme

6. Radio and tv weather reports
7. A children's novel
8. Internet chatroom discussions
9. A political speech
10. A radio phone-in programme
11. Newspaper headlines
12. Children's conversation

Appendix: Spelling

A.1 Spelling, pronunciation, and meaning

English spelling is difficult because the pronunciation of a word is not always an accurate guide to its spelling. Two reasons account for most of the discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling.

One reason is that our spelling system is essentially a mixture of two systems: the system used in England before the Norman Conquest in 1066 was mixed with a new system introduced by the Norman-French scribes. We therefore find two spellings for the same sound (as in the final sound of *mouse* and *mice*) or two sounds for the same spelling (as in the first sound of *get* and *gem*). Later borrowings of words from foreign languages – particularly from French, Latin, and Greek – brought additional spellings; you will recognize as unusual such spellings as the *ch* of *chorus*, the *ph* of *philosophy*, the *g* of *genre*, the *oi* of *reservoir*, and the *oup* of *coup*. Some spellings were changed to bring words nearer to the form they had in other languages, and the changes introduced letters that have never been pronounced in English. One example is the *b* in *debt*: the *b* was present in the Latin word from which the French equivalent came, but English borrowed the word from French when French no longer had a *b*. Other examples of such changes are the *b* in *doubt*, the *l* in *salmon*, and the *p* in *receipt*.

The second reason for the discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling is that spellings have generally remained fixed while pronunciations have changed. During the Middle Ages the few who could write might spell the same word in more than one way; they did not think that only one spelling was correct. When the first printers introduced printing in English in the late fifteenth century they began to establish stable spellings. However, during that century important sound changes took place in English vowels. Those changes and later sound changes are generally not reflected in our spellings. In the centuries that followed, printers continued to work toward a uniform and stable system of spelling, and then the major dictionaries of the eighteenth century established a standard spelling that is close to our present system. On the whole, printers and dictionaries have been a conservative force, preserving old spellings when sounds have changed. We therefore find spellings like the *gh* of *night* and the *k* of *know*, which retain letters for sounds that we no longer make. Or we find different spellings for the same sound,

such as *ea* in *meat* and *ee* in *need*, because at one time those combinations represented different sounds. Or the sound changed differently in different words, so that the same spelling represents for us two different sounds, such as *oo* in *book* and *flood*.

To some extent our spellings take account of meaning. Sometimes we lose in the spelling-sound relationship but gain in the spelling-meaning relationship. In the first place, we often distinguish homophones (different words pronounced in the same way) by spelling them differently. Here are a few common homophones that we distinguish through spelling:

son – sun	peace – piece
sent – cent – scent	right – write

Secondly, we often use a similar spelling for parts of words that are related in meaning even though we pronounce them differently. The *-ed* inflection, for example, has the same grammatical functions in *published* and *revolted*, but the inflection is pronounced in two different ways. The spelling may also show that some sets of words are related where the pronunciation obscures the relationship. For example, we spell the first two syllables of *nation* and *national* identically, but the first vowel is pronounced differently in the two words. Similarly, the first three vowels of *photography* are different from the vowels of *photograph*, but our spelling connects the two words. We pronounce the words in these sets differently because we shorten vowels that are stressed weakly or not at all. Usually the unstressed or weakly stressed vowel is pronounced like the second vowel of *nation*. Some common one-syllable words we pronounce in more than one way; in the rapid pace of normal conversation we do not stress them and therefore we shorten their vowels. For that reason we have at least two pronunciations of words like *can*, *does*, and *your*. Sometimes we go further and drop the vowel completely; when we are not writing formally, we can then show the omission by contractions of some words, such as *'m* for *am*, *'s* for *is* or *has*, and *'ll* for *will*.

A final advantage of the relationship between spelling and meaning is that one spelling of a word may represent different pronunciations, but the spelling shows that it is the same word. English is an international language that is spoken differently in different countries. Even within England we do not find a uniform pronunciation; the pronunciation of a word may vary from one area to another or between groups within the same area. For example, some say *roof* with a long *u* sound, others with a short *u* sound; some pronounce the final *r* in words like *car*, others do not; some pronounce the vowel in *cup* like that in *luck*, others like that in *put*. Those spellings give some indication of pronunciation, but if we spelled words exactly as we pronounced them, people with different pronunciations of a word would spell the word in different ways. Our spelling usually indicates a shared meaning; it does not necessarily represent an identical pronunciation.

A.2 Spelling variants

English spelling, like English punctuation, is a convention that is helpful to the reader. Spelling mistakes distract and irritate readers. Good spelling is usually considered a sign that the writer is educated.

The spelling of the vast majority of words is now fixed. However, you will encounter some variant spellings in your reading or in dictionaries. For example, you may find *realise* and *realize*, *archaeology* and *archeology*, *judgment* and *judgement*, *adviser* and *advisor*. Do not use more than one spelling in a piece of writing, since inconsistencies are distracting. If you are used to a recognized and acceptable variant, keep to it. If not, select a dictionary and follow its spellings consistently. Consult the introduction to your dictionary to find out if it signals the preferred spelling when there are variants.

Some spelling variants are exclusively British or are more common in British writing. For example, British spelling uses the *-ise* and *-isation* endings (*civilise*, *civilisation*) as well as the *-ize* and *-ization* endings that are normal for American spelling (*civilize*, *civilization*). Here are some common American spellings and the usual British spellings for the same word:

American	British
behavior	behaviour
center	centre
check	cheque
color	colour
draft	draught
jail	gaol
harbor	harbour
jewelry	jewellery
labor	labour
meter	metre
neighbor	neighbour
pajamas	pyjamas
rumor	rumour

Because of the constant movement of publications between America and Britain, the national spelling distinctions are becoming acceptable variants in the two countries and also in other English-speaking countries.

A.3 Spelling rules for short and long vowel sounds

1. doubling of consonant after short vowel

The vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* have both long and short pronunciations; for example, the vowel *a* has a long pronunciation in *rate* and a short pronunciation in *rat*. The following general rule applies if the vowel is stressed.

Generally, a **long** vowel is followed by a single consonant plus a vowel:

V + C + V: long vowel + consonant + vowel

and a **short** vowel is followed by a double consonant; at the end of the word, a **short** vowel can be followed by just a single consonant:

V + C + C: **short** vowel + consonant + consonant
V + C: **short** vowel + consonant (end of word).

Examples:

Long vowel	**Short vowel**		
	middle	end	
V + C + V	V + C + C	V + C	V + C + C
tape, taping	matter, tapping	tap	camp
scene, scenic	message, begging	beg	sell
ripe, ripen	blizzard, shipping	ship	miss
hope, hopeful	bottom, hopping	hop	fond
amuse, amusement	suffer, cutting	cut	much

The rule is particularly useful when you add a suffix or inflectional ending to a word (cf. A.4 (1)).

2. **addition of final -*e* to indicate long vowel**

A final silent -*e* is used to indicate that the preceding stressed vowel is long:

Long vowel	**Short vowel**
V + C + *e*	V + C
mate, debate	mat
theme, extreme	them
fine, polite	fin
robe, explode	rob
cute, amuse	cut

Here are some common exceptions, where the preceding vowel does not have the regular pronunciation:

have; there, where; were; come, done, love, none, one, some; lose, move, prove, whose; gone; give, live (verb)

The general rule applies also in the sequence V + C + *le*. Hence, in *gable* the vowel *a* is long whereas in *gabble* it is short. Other examples of the long vowel in this sequence:

Long vowel
V + C + *le*

able	cycle	noble	table
bible	idle	rifle	title

A.4 Suffixes

A suffix is an ending added to a word that produces another word; for example, the suffix *ful* is added to *help* to produce *helpful*. An inflection is a type of suffix that is added to the end of a word to produce another form of the same word; for example, we add *-s* to the noun *book* to produce the plural *books*, and we add *-ed* to the verb *walk* to produce the past *walked*. The general rules for suffixes in (1)–(3) below apply also to inflections, and the examples include words with inflections added to them.

1. doubling of consonant before suffix

We often double a final consonant when we add a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Double the final consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel:

1. if the word ends in a single consonant, *and*
2. if a single vowel comes before the consonant, *and*
3. if the syllable before the suffix is stressed.

Condition (3) always applies if the suffix is added to a monosyllabic word.

suffix added to monosyllabic word	*Polysyllabic word: suffix follows stressed syllable*
stop + ed → stopped	permit + ed → permitted
swim + ing → swimming	prefer + ed → preferred
big + er → bigger	forget + ing → forgetting
red + ish → reddish	begin + ing → beginning
drug + ist → druggist	occur + ence → occurrence
win + er → winner	

The vowel before the consonant is a short vowel (cf. A.3).

In the following sets of related words, the final consonant is doubled when the suffix follows a stressed syllable, but not when it follows an unstressed syllable. The contrasts illustrate the stress rule:

suffix follows stressed syllable	*suffix follows unstressed syllable*
deferred, deferring	deference
inferred, inferring	inference
preferred, preferring	preference
referred, referring	reference

A few polysyllabic words ending in *-s* have irregular variants with the doubling, even though the final syllable before the suffix is unstressed; for example: *biased*, *biassed*; *focusing*, *focussing*.

Do not double the final consonant before a suffix:

1. if the word ends in two consonants:
   finding, *lifted*, *recorded*, *resistance*, *oldest*
2. if there are two vowels:
   meeting, *rained*, *beaten*, *trainer*, *repeated*, *appearance*
3. if the stress is not on the last syllable of the word to which the suffix is added:
   limit – limiting; *deliver – delivered*; *differ – difference*

Exceptions for words of two or more syllables:

(a) Some words, most of them ending in *l*, have a double consonant even though the final syllable is not stressed; for example, *marvellous*, *modelling*, *traveller*, *quarrelled*, *worshipping*, *handicapped*, *diagrammed*.
(b) Final *c* is usually spelled *ck* when a suffix is added to indicate the *k* sound: *mimic – mimicking*; *panic – panicky*; *picnic – picnicked*; *traffic – trafficked*.

2. dropping of final -*e* before suffix

Drop the final silent *-e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel:

have + ing	→ having	explore + ation	→ exploration
debate + ed	→ debated	cure + able	→ curable
fame + ous	→ famous	refuse + al	→ refusal

Exception where the *e* is kept before a vowel:

1. Keep the *e* in *dyeing* (from *dye*) and *singeing* (from *singe*) to distinguish the words from *dying* (from *die*) and *singing* (from *sing*).
2. Keep the *e* in *ce* and *ge* before a suffix beginning with *a* or *o* to preserve the *s* and *j* sounds: *enforceable*, *noticeable*, *peaceable*, *traceable*, *advantageous*, *courageous*, *knowledgeable*.

Do not drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant:

movement, forceful, hopeless, strangely

Exceptions where the *e* is dropped before a consonant:

argue → argument
awe → awful
due → duly
true → truly
whole → wholly

The words *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, and *judgment* have more common variants in which the *e* is retained.

3. change of -*y* to -*i* before suffix

When a word ends in a consonant plus *y*, change the *y* to *i* before any suffix except -*ing* or *'s*:

happy + ly	→ happily	study + es	→ studies
amplify + er	→ amplifier	mystery + ous	→ mysterious
beauty + ful	→ beautiful	ratify + cation	→ ratification
apply + ed	→ applied	empty + ness	→ emptiness

Exceptions where the *y* after a consonant is kept:

1. A few words of one syllable keep the *y* before a suffix: *dryness*, *shyness*, *slyness*.
2. The *y* is kept in *busyness* to distinguish it from *business*.

Keep the *y* before -*ing*: *studying*, *applying*
Keep the *y* before *'s*: *the spy's name*, *July's weather*
Keep the *y* in most words that end in a vowel + *y*:

employ + er	→ employer	play + ful	→ playful
annoy + ance	→ annoyance	destroy + s	→ destroys
spray + ed	→ sprayed	pay + ment	→ payment

Exceptions where the *y* after a vowel is changed to *i*: *daily, laid, paid, said, slain*.

4. plurals of nouns and -*s* forms of verbs

Similar rules apply for making the plurals of regular nouns and the -*s* forms of regular verbs. Indeed, many words can be either nouns or verbs.

1. General rule: add -*s*:

noun plurals	*verb* -s *forms*
street → streets	speak → speaks
eye → eyes	bring → brings
winter → winters	write → writes

2. If the ending is pronounced as a separate syllable (like the sound in *is*), add -*es*:

noun plurals	*verb* -s *forms*
church → churches	touch → touches
box → boxes	buzz → buzzes
bush → bushes	wash → washes

When the word already ends in an *-e*, add just *-s*:

noun plurals	*verb* -s *forms*
base → bases	curse → curses
judge → judges	trace → traces

3. If the word ends in a consonant plus *y*, change *y* to *i* and then add *-es*:

noun plurals	*verb* -s *forms*
worry → worries	carry → carries
spy → spies	dry → dries

4. For some words ending in *-o*, add *-es*. Some of them have a less common variant in *-s*:

noun plurals	*noun plurals and verb* -s *forms*
archipelago → archipelagoes	echo → echoes
buffalo → buffaloes	embargo → embargoes
cargo → cargoes	go → goes
hero → heroes	torpedo → torpedoes
motto → mottoes	veto → vetoes
potato → potatoes	
tomato → tomatoes	
tornado → tornadoes	
volcano → volcanoes	

5. For some nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe*, form the plural by changing the *-f* or *-fe* to *-ves*:

calf → calves	life → lives	thief → thieves
elf → elves	loaf → loaves	wife → wives
half → halves	self → selves	wolf → wolves
knife → knives	sheaf → sheaves	
leaf → leaves	shelf → shelves	

5. verb forms: *-ing* participles

The rules for making the *-ing* participle apply to both regular and irregular verbs.

1. General rule: add *-ing*:

play → playing	carry → carrying
go → going	wash → washing

2. If the word ends in *-e*, drop the *e* before the *-ing*:

lose → losing	write → writing
save → saving	judge → judging

But if the word ends in *-ee*, *-ye*, or *-oe*, keep the *e*:

see → seeing dye → dyeing
agree → agreeing hoe → hoeing

Also, *singe* keeps the *e* in *singeing*, in contrast with *sing – singing*.

3. If the word ends in *-ie*, change *i* to *y* and drop the *e* before the *-ing*:

   die → dying tie → tying lie → lying

   Contrast *die – dying* with *dye – dyeing*.

4. The rules for doubling a single consonant before *-ing* are given in A.4 (1):

   beg → begging boat → boating
   prefer → preferring enter → entering

6. verb forms: simple past and *-ed* participles

The simple past and *-ed* participle are the same in regular verbs. The following spelling rules, analogous to those in A.4(5), apply to regular verbs.

(a) General rule: add *-ed*:

play → played load → loaded
mail → mailed echo → echoed

(b) If the word ends in *-e*, add just *-d*:

save → saved note → noted
agree → agreed tie → tied

(c) If the word ends in a consonant plus *y*, change the *y* to *i* before the *-ed*:

dry → dried apply → applied
cry → cried imply → implied

There are three exceptions, where the *y* is changed to *i* after a vowel and just *d* is added:

lay → laid pay → paid say → said

(d) The rules for doubling a single consonant before *-ed* are given in A.4(1):

beg → begged boat → boated
prefer → preferred enter → entered

7. *-ize* or *-ise*; *-ization* or *-isation*

Both variants are acceptable, though the spelling with *-s* is perhaps more common in British English:

criticise	criticize
colonisation	colonization

The following words, and words formed from them, should be spelled with *-ise*:

advertise	comprise	enterprise	revise
advise	compromise	exercise	supervise
analyse	despise	franchise	surmise
arise	devise	improvise	surprise
chastise	disguise	merchandise	televise

8. **addition of *-ally* to adjectives ending in *-ic* to form adverbs**

Add *-ally* to adjectives ending in *-ic* to form the corresponding adverbs. In normal conversation, the *-al* of *-ally* is not sounded:

basic	→ basically	realistic	→ realistically
emphatic	→ emphatically	specific	→ specifically

Exception: public → publicly.

9. **the suffix *-ful***

The suffix is *-ful* (not *-full*):

beautiful	successful	useful
hopeful	teaspoonful	wonderful

Notice also the usual spellings of *fulfil* and *fulfilment*.

A.5 Prefixes

Do not add or subtract letters when you add a prefix:

un + easy	→ uneasy
un + necessary	→ unnecessary
dis + obey	→ disobey
dis + satisfied	→ dissatified
mis + inform	→ misinform
mis + spell	→ misspell
over + eat	→ overeat
over + rule	→ overrule
under + take	→ undertake
in + expensive	→ inexpensive
in + numerable	→ innumerable

The prefix *in-* is regularly changed to *il-*, *im-*, or *ir-* according to the first letter of the word that it is added to. The prefix often means 'not', as in the examples that follow:

il- before *l*	*ir-* before *r*	*im-* before *m* or *p*
illegal	irrational	immoral
illegible	irregular	immortal
illegitimate	irrefutable	impartial
illiterate	irrelevant	impossible
illogical	irresponsible	impure

A.6 Other aids to spelling

1. words run together

A common type of spelling error is to run words together by writing two words as one. Always write these phrases as separate words:

a lot	even if	in fact	no one
all right	even though	just as	of course

In some cases the spelling depends on the meaning. For example, write *nobody* as one word when it is a synonym of *no person*, but write *no body* as two words in other meanings (for example, 'no corpse'). Write *anyway* when it is a synonym of *anyhow*, but *any way* when it means 'any direction' or 'any manner'; *awhile* is an adverb meaning 'for a brief period' (e.g. *You can stay awhile*), but *a while* is a noun phrase (always so when preceded by a preposition), meaning 'a period of time' (e.g. *We'll be there in a (little) while* and *We haven't seen them for a (long) while*).

Here are some pairs that you write either as one or as two words, depending on the meaning you intend:

one word	**two words**
already	all ready
altogether	all together
always	all ways
anybody	any body
anyway	any way
awhile	a while
everyone	every one
everybody	every body
into	in to
maybe	may be
nobody	no body
someone	some one

somebody	some body
whoever	who ever

2. ***ie* or *ei***

When the sound of the vowel is as in *brief*, spell it *ie*; but after *c*, spell it *ei*:

ie		**ei** after **c**	
brief	thief	ceiling	deceit
belief	achieve	conceive	perceive
believe	field	conceit	receive
diesel	niece	deceive	receipt
relief	priest		
relieve	siege		

Exceptions for spelling *ei*:

either, neither, seize, weird

Exceptions for spelling ie:

1. *financier*, *species*
2. Words in which *y* has changed to *i* (cf. A.4 (3)) end in *ies* even after *c*: *prophecies*, *democracies*

In most words that do not have the pronunciations as in *brief*, the usual order is *e* before *i*: *neighbour*, *weigh*, *reign*, *leisure*. The most common exception is *friend*.

3. ***-cede, -ceed, -sede***

The most common spelling is *-cede*:

antecede, concede, precede, recede, secede

We find *-ceed* in three words:

exceed, proceed, succeed

We find *-sede* in just one word:

supersede

A.7 Homophones: Words pronounced similarly

Homophones are words that are pronounced similarly but have different meanings and spellings. Because they sound very alike, writers frequently fail to distinguish

between their different spellings. In this section we disambiguate the most common of these.

1. ***accept/except***

   Accept is a verb: 'I've decided to *accept* his offer.'
   Except is a preposition: 'I like all types of movies *except* westerns.'

2. ***advice/advise***

   Advice is a noun: 'Ask your doctor for *advice*.'
   Advise is a verb: 'My doctor *advised* me to take exercise.'

3. ***affect/effect***

   Affect is a verb: 'Ozone depletion in the atmosphere *affects* our climate'.
   Effect is most commonly a noun: 'What *effect* will the terrorist attacks have on air travel?'
   Effect is also sometimes used as a verb, meaning 'to bring about (change)': 'The migration of peoples has *effected* enormous social change in Europe.'

4. ***choose/chose***

   Both are forms of the verb *choose*. *Choose* is the base form (cf. 4.13): 'It's difficult to *choose* from this menu.' '*Choose* your partner carefully.' *Chose* is the past tense form: 'Last summer we *chose* a hotel with a sea view.' The *-ed* form of the verb *choose* is *chosen*.

5. ***he's/his***

   He's is a contraction of *he is* or *he has*:

   He'll tell you when *he's* back home. (= *he is*)
   I know that *he's* sent the cheque. (= *he has*)

   His is a possessive pronoun (cf. 5.19):

   Do you know *his* name?

6. ***it's/its***

   It's is a contraction of *it is* or *it has*:

   It's in the kitchen. (= *It is*)
   I think *it's* stopped raining. (= *it has*)

   Its is a possessive pronoun (cf. 5.19):

   The dog is wagging *its* tail.

7. ***quiet/quite***

Quiet is an adjective: 'A quiet person'; 'Please be quiet'.
Quite is an intensifier (cf. 5.14) which is used to modify an adjective: 'It's *quite* warm today' or an adverb 'The money ran out *quite* quickly'.

8. ***than/then***

Than is used in comparative constructions (cf. 5.14): 'David is older *than* Paul.'
'The ticket was more expensive *than* I expected.'
Then is an adverb expressing time: 'First we went to Pisa and *then* we went to Rome.' As a sentence connector, *then* means 'in that case':

A: I've lost my passport.
B: *Then* you'll just have to stay at home.

9. ***they're/their/there***

They're is a contraction of *they are*:

I wonder where *they're* staying. (= *they are*)

Their is a possessive pronoun (cf. 5.19):

We met *their* parents.

There is an adverb which denotes place.

I really like London. I lived *there* for ten years.

See also Section 6.11, *There*-structures.

10. ***to/too***

To is used to introduce the infinitive of a verb: *to* walk, *to* eat, *to* smile.
To is also used as a preposition to introduce noun phrases: 'I'm going *to* bed'; 'We took an overnight train *to* Edinburgh.'
Too is an intensifier which is used to modify an adjective: 'You're *too* young to get married' or an adverb 'It all happened *too* quickly'.

11. ***who's/whose***

Who's is a contraction of *who is* or *who has*:

Can you see *who's* ringing the bell? (= *who is*)
Who's taken my wallet? (= *Who has*)

Whose is a possessive determiner (cf. 5.19):

Whose book is that?
There is no charge for patients *whose* income is below a specified level.

12. ***you're/your***

You're is a contraction of *you are*:

You're about to spill your coffee. (= *you are*)

Your is a possessive pronoun (cf. 5.19):

They enjoyed *your* jokes.

List of words pronounced similarly

We conclude this section with a list of other homophones which frequently cause confusion in writing. If you are unsure about the difference between these words, use a good dictionary to distinguish between them.

access	excess
aid	aide
aisle	isle
altar	alter
assistance	assistants
ate	eight
bare	bear
beach	beech
beer	bier
berry	bury
berth	birth
board	bored
born	borne
brake	break
bread	bred
breadth	breath
business	busyness
buy	by
canvas	canvass
capital	capitol
cell	sell
censor	censure
cereal	serial
climactic	climatic
coarse	course
complement	compliment

conscience	conscious	
council	counsel	
dairy	diary	
decent	descent	dissent
desert	dessert	
device	devise	
dew	due	do
discreet	discrete	
dual	duel	
dyeing	dying	
elicit	illicit	
emigrate	immigrate	
eminent	imminent	
envelop	envelope	
fair	fare	
father	farther	
flour	flower	
for	four	
formally	formerly	
forth	fourth	
gorilla	guerrilla	
grate	great	
hair	hare	
hear	here	
heard	herd	
higher	hire	
hostel	hostile	
idle	idol	
in	inn	
ingenious	ingenuous	
instance	instants	
irrelevant	irreverent	
knew	new	
know	no	
lead	led	
lessen	lesson	
loan	lone	
loose	lose	

made	maid	
main	mane	
maize	maze	
meat	meet	
medal	meddle	
miner	minor	
oar	ore	or
of	off	
one	won	
pain	pane	
passed	past	
patience	patients	
peace	piece	
peak	peek	pique
pear	pair	pare
personal	personnel	
pier	peer	
plane	plain	
poor	pour	pore
precede	proceed	
presence	presents	
principal	principle	
profit	prophet	
prophecy	prophesy	
rain	reign	rein
raise	rays	
read	red	
right	write	
role	roll	
sail	sale	
scent	sent	cent
seed	cede	
seem	seam	
shone	shown	
sight	site	cite
sole	soul	
son	sun	
stake	steak	
stationary	stationery	
steal	steel	
straight	strait	

taught	taut	
team	teem	
threw	through	
tide	tied	
vain	vein	vane
wander	wonder	
waste	waist	
wave	waive	
way	weigh	
weak	week	
weather	whether	wether
were	where	wear
which	witch	
wood	would	
wrote	rote	

EXERCISES

Exercise A.1 Spelling, pronunciation, and meaning (cf. A.1)

The first word in each set has a letter in italics. In each of the other words, underline the spelling that represents the same sound. You may need to underline two letters.

1. *z*oo – fizz, has, dessert
2. *s*ure – ship, ocean, passion, nation, machine
3. *s*un – scientific, pass, psychiatry, deceive
4. *f*ull – off, rough, telephone
5. n*o* – boat, show, sew, toe
6. *a*way – common, dozen, column, dungeon

Exercise A.2 Spelling, pronunciation, and meaning (cf. A.1)

The spelling *ough* has a number of different pronunciations. Some common words with *ough* are listed below in alphabetical order. Rearrange the words in groups so that all the words with the same pronunciation of *ough* are in the same group.

bough	drought	thorough
bought	enough	though
brought	fought	thought
cough	ought	through
dough	rough	tough

Exercise A.3 Spelling, pronunciation, and meaning (cf. A.1)

Underline the silent letters (letters that have no corresponding pronunciation) in the following words.

climb, weigh, honest, write, knee, condemn, pneumonia, island, listen, guest, two

Exercise A.4 Spelling, pronunciation, and meaning (cf. A.1)

Say the following words (a) as you normally say them, and (b) very slowly. Have you kept a syllable in your slow pronunciation that you did not have in your normal pronunciation?

1. average	4. incidentally	7. medicine
2. dangerous	5. interest	8. ordinary
3. definite	6. library	9. temporary

Exercise A.5 Spelling variants (cf. A.2)

Look up the following words in two or more dictionaries. Do the dictionaries give spelling variants for each word? Do they indicate that one variant is more common or to be preferred?

1. archaeology	7. fiord	13. mileage
2. collectible	8. guaranty	14. millionaire
3. despatch	9. halal	15. nosy
4. disc	10. judgment	16. nought
5. digitise	11. kilogram	17. phony
6. employee	12. likable	18. programme

Exercise A.6 Suffixes (cf. A.4 (1))

Form words by joining the parts.

1. panel + ing	6. snob + ish	11. short + er
2. loyal + ist	7. sin + er	12. similar + ity
3. green + ish	8. dark + en	13. paint + er
4. sad + en	9. old + ish	14. confer + ence
5. commit + ed	10. differ + ence	15. big + est

Exercise A.7 Suffixes (cf. A.4 (2))

Form words by joining the parts.

1. segregate + ion	4. revive + al
2. care + ful	5. style + ize
3. waste + age	6. advantage + ous

7. argue + ment
8. deplore + able
9. delete + ion
10. base + less
11. type + ing
12. rare + ly
13. true + ly
14. courage + ous
15. rare + ity

Exercise A.8 Suffixes (cf. A.4(3))

Form words by joining the parts:

1. dry + ing
2. necessary + ly
3. pity + ful
4. momentary + ly
5. play + ful
6. simplify + cation
7. lazy + ness
8. day + ly
9. symmetry + cal
10. identify + able
11. biography + cal
12. shy + ness
13. luxury + ous
14. funny + ly
15. happy + ness

Exercise A.9 Suffixes (cf. A.4 (4))

Give the plurals of these nouns.

1. day
2. beach
3. life
4. historian
5. potato
6. century
7. race
8. loaf
9. stove
10. speech
11. thief
12. journey
13. hero
14. coach
15. belief

Exercise A.10 Suffixes (cf. A.4(4))

Give the *-s* forms of these verbs.

1. imply
2. think
3. refuse
4. agree
5. camouflage
6. fly
7. die
8. push
9. taste
10. crouch
11. marry
12. type
13. bury
14. try
15. reach

Exercise A.11 Suffixes (cf. A.4(5))

Give the *-ing* participles of these verbs.

1. apply
2. see
3. continue
4. occur
5. lie
6. begin
7. make
8. get
9. die
10. win
11. support
12. brag
13. bring
14. create
15. spot

Exercise A.12 Suffixes (cf. A.4(6))

Give the *-ed* form (simple past and *-ed* participle) of these verbs.

1.	study	6.	delay	11.	deliver
2.	persuade	7.	point	12.	surprise
3.	trick	8.	parallel	13.	pay
4.	dot	9.	occupy	14.	taste
5.	comfort	10.	distinguish	15.	reply

Exercise A.13 Homophones: words pronounced similarly (cf. A.7)

Fill in each blank by selecting the appropriate word from those given in brackets.

1. _____ incredible! (*It's/Its*)
2. He quickly realized _____ mistake (*he's/his*)
3. Which course do you _____ me to take? (*advice/advise*)
4. I'll be _____ in ten minutes. (*they're/their/there*)
5. _____ pen is this? (*Who's/Whose*)
6. The countryside is too _____ for me. (*quiet/quite*)
7. It's later _____ you think. (*than/then*)
8. _____ dinner is in the microwave. (*You're/Your*)
9. I can resist everything _____ temptation. (*accept/except*)
10. *Reservoir Dogs* is _____ violent for children (to/too)
11. The children left _____ toys outside. (*they're/their/there*)
12. The whole experience was _____ terrible. (*quiet/quite*)
13. The country is renowned for _____ tough stance on drug traffickers. (*it's/its*)
14. I _____ you not to say anything. (*advice/advise*)
15. _____ the girl in the red dress? (*Who's/Whose*)
16. I think _____ forgotten the password. (*he's/his*)
17. Transfer the meat from the oven _____ the table. (*to/too*)
18. I simply can't _____ between the blue dress and the red dress. (*choose/chose*)
19. Chinese families revere _____ ancestors. (*they're/their/there*)
20. It doesn't matter _____ fault it is. (*who's/whose*)
21. Years of civil war have had a very serious _____ on tourism. (*affect/effect*)
22. _____ spilling the tea. (*you're/your*)
23. _____ a funny old world. (*It's/Its*)
24. _____ coming to dinner this evening? (*Who's/Whose*)
25. The jury was unable _____ reach a verdict. (*to/too*)
26. I cannot _____ your resignation. (*accept/except*)

Glossary

absolute clause
An absolute clause is an adverbial clause that either has a non-finite verb (as in 1 below) or no verb at all (as in 2 below) but has its own subject:

1. *The work having been finished*, the gardener came to ask for payment.
2. The prisoners marched past, *their hands above their heads*.

active
Sentences and verb phrases with transitive verbs are either active or passive. The active is more commonly used. The passive involves differences in the structure of the verb phrase: the passive verb phrase has the addition of a form of the verb *be*, which is followed by an *-ed* **participle**:

active	*loves*	**passive**	*is loved*
	will proclaim		*will be proclaimed*
	is investigating		*is being investigated*

The passive sentence differs from the corresponding active sentence in that the active subject corresponds to the passive object:

active	*The police* (S) are investigating *the crime* (O).
passive	*The crime* (S) is being investigated.

If the active subject (here *The police*) is retained in the passive sentence it is put into a *by*-phrase:

The crime is being investigated *by the police*.

adjective
An adjective is a word that typically can modify a noun and usually can itself be modified by *very*; for example, (*very*) *wise*, (*very*) *careful*. Adjectives are called 'attributive' when they are used as pre-modifier in a noun phrase (*a conscientious student*). They are called 'predicative' when they are used as **subject complement**

(*She is conscientious*) or **object complement** (*I considered her conscientious*). Adjectives that can be used both attributively and predicatively are 'central adjectives'.

adjective phrase
The main word in an adjective phrase is an adjective. Other constituents that often appear in the phrase are pre-modifiers (which come before the adjective) and post-modifiers (which come after the adjective):

quite (premod.) *hungry* (adj.)
very (premod.) *happy* (adj.) to see you (post-mod.)

adverb
An adverb is a word that is used chiefly as a modifier of an adjective (*extremely* in *extremely pale*), or a modifier of another adverb (*very* in *very suddenly*), or as an adverbial (*frequently* in *I visit my family frequently*).

adverb phrase
The main word in an adverb phrase is an adverb. Other constituents that often appear in the phrase are pre-modifiers (which come before the adverb) and post-modifiers (which come after the adverb):

quite (pre-mod.) *neatly* (adv.)
very (pre-mod.) *luckily* (adv.) for me (post-mod.)

adverbial
An adverbial is an optional element that is chiefly used to convey information about the circumstances of the situation depicted in the basic structure of the sentence. There may be more than one adverbial in a sentence:

Every year (A1) they rented a car *for two weeks* (A2) *to tour some European country* (A3).

In the above sentence, the adverbials convey information on frequency in time (A1), duration of time (A2), and purpose (A3).

We should distinguish the adverbial from the adverb. Like a noun, an adverb is a member of a word class.

An **adverbial complement** is an element that conveys the same information as some adverbials but is required by the verb:

I am now living *in Manhattan*.

The verb that most commonly requires an adverbial complement to complete the sentence is the verb *be*, as in 'She is *on the way to New Zealand*'. An adverbial

complement (aC) is also required by some transitive verbs to follow a direct object (dO). See **Object**:

> I put *my car* (dO) *in the garage* (aC).

adverbial clause
An adverbial clause is a clause that functions as adverbial in sentence structure.

adverbial complement
An adverbial complement is an obligatory element in sentence structure. See **Adverbial**.

alternative question
An alternative question is a question that presents two or more choices and asks the hearer to choose one of them:

> Do you want a biscuit or (do you want) a piece of cake?

antecedent
The antecedent of a pronoun is the unit that the pronoun refers to. The antecedent usually comes before the pronoun:

> *The brakes* were defective when I examined *them*.

anticipatory *it*
The pronoun *it* is called 'anticipatory it' when the sentence is so structured that the pronoun takes the position of the subject and the subject is moved to the end:

> *It* is a pity *that Sue is not here*. (Cf. 'That Sue is not here is a pity.')
> *It's* good *to see you*. (Cf. 'To see you is good.')

apposition
Apposition is a type of relation between two or more units:

> *Peter*, *your youngest brother*, has just arrived.

Typically, the two units are identical in the kind of unit (here two noun phrases), in what they refer to (*Peter* and *your youngest brother* refer to the same person), and in having the same potential function, so that either can be omitted (*Peter has just arrived* and *Your youngest brother has just arrived* are both acceptable). See also **Appositive clause**.

appositive clause
An appositive clause is a type of clause that functions as a post-modifier in a noun phrase:

the reason *that I am here today*

The conjunction *that* does not function in the clause (cf. **Relative clause**). Since the clause is in apposition to the noun phrase, the two units correspond to a sentence structure in which they are linked by a form of the verb *be*:

The reason *is* that I am here today.

aspect
Aspect is the grammatical category in the verb phrase that refers to the way that the time of the situation is viewed by the speaker. There are two aspects: **perfect** and **progressive**. The perfect combines a form of auxiliary *have* with the *-ed* participle: *has shouted*, *had worked*, *may have said*. The progressive combines a form of auxiliary *be* with the *-ing* participle: *is shouting*, *was working*, *may be saying*.

auxiliary
Auxiliary ('helping') verbs typically come before the main verb (*see* in the following examples) in a verb phrase: *can see*, *has been seeing*, *should have been seen*. The auxiliaries are:

1. **modals**: e.g. *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *should*, *will*, *would*
2. **perfect auxiliary**: *have*
3. **progressive auxiliary**: *be*
4. **passive auxiliary**: *be*
5. **dummy operator**: *do*

base form
The base form of the verb is the form without any inflection. It is the entry word for a verb in dictionaries.

basic sentence structure
The seven basic sentence or clause structures are:

SV:	subject + verb
SVA:	subject + verb + adverbial (complement)
SVC:	subject + verb + (subject) complement
SVO:	subject + verb + (direct) object
SVOO:	subject + verb + (indirect) object + (direct) object
SVOA:	subject + verb + (direct) object + adverbial (complement)
SVOC:	subject + verb + (direct) object + (object) complement

See 3.13. One or more optional **adverbials** may be added to the basic structures.

case
Case is a distinction in nouns and pronouns that is related to their grammatical functions. Nouns have two cases: the common case (*child*, *children*) and the genitive case (*child's*, *children's*). The genitive noun phrase is generally equivalent to an *of*-phrase:

> *the child's* parents
> the parents *of the child*

In *the child's parents*, the genitive phrase is a dependent genitive: it functions like a **determiner**. When the phrase is not dependent on a following noun, it is an independent genitive:

> The party is at *Susan's*.

Personal pronouns and the pronoun *who* have three cases: subjective (e.g. *I*, *we*, *who*), objective (e.g. *me*, *us*, *whom*), and genitive (e.g. *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*, *whose*). The two genitive forms of the personal pronouns have different functions: *My* is a possessive determiner in *my parents*, and *mine* is a possessive pronoun in *Those are mine*.

The distinctions in case are neutralized in some personal pronouns. For example, *you* may be either subjective or objective. See **Subjective case**.

chiasmus See **Parallelism**.

clause
A clause is a sentence or sentence-like construction that is contained within another sentence. Constructions that are sentence-like are non-finite clauses or verbless clauses. Non-finite clauses have a non-finite verb phrase as their verb, whereas verbless clauses do not have a verb at all. They are like sentences because they have sentence elements such as subject and direct object.

We can parallel the non-finite clause in [1] with the finite clause in [1a]:

[1] *Being just a student*, I'd . . .
[1a] *Since I'm just a student*, I'd . . .

We can show similar parallels between the verbless clause in [2] and the finite clause in [2a]:

[2] *Though fearful of the road conditions*, they . . .
[2a] *Though they were fearful of the road conditions*, they . . .

In a wider sense, a clause may coincide with a sentence, since a simple sentence consists of just one clause.

cleft sentence
A cleft sentence is a sentence divided into three parts. The first has the subject *it* and a form of the verb *be*; the emphasized part comes next; and the final part is what would be the rest of the sentence in a regular pattern.

It was *Betty* that I wanted to see. (cf. 'I wanted to see Betty.')
It was *after lunch* that I phoned John. (cf. 'I phoned John after lunch.')

collective noun
A collective noun refers to a group, e.g. *audience*, *class*, *family*, *herd*, *jury*.

comma splice See **Run-on sentence**.

comparative clause
Comparative clauses are introduced by *than* or *as* and involve a comparison.

Adam is happier *than he used to be*.
Paul is as good a student *as you are*.

complement
A complement is the unit that may or must be introduced to complete the meaning of a word. For example, a preposition (e.g. *for*) is normally followed by a noun phrase (e.g. *my best friend*) as its complement, as in *for my best friend*. See **Object**, **Object complement**, **Subject complement**.

complex sentence
A complex sentence is a sentence that contains one or more subordinate clauses. The subordinate clause may function as a sentence element [1] or as a post-modifier in a phrase [2] and [3]:

[1] Jean told me *that she would be late*.
[2] This is <u>the man</u> *who was asking for you*.
[3] We are <u>glad</u> *that you could be here*.

compound
A compound is a word formed from the combination of two words: *handmade*, *user-friendly*.

compound sentence
A compound sentence is a sentence that consists of two or more clauses linked by a coordinator. The coordinators are *and*, *or*, and *but:*

She is a superb administrator *and* everybody knows it.
We can go in my car *or* we can take a bus.
He felt quite ill *but* he refused to leave his post.

See 6.6.

conditional clause
A conditional clause is a clause that expresses a condition on which something else is dependent:

If they hurry, they can catch the earlier flight.

The sentence conveys the proposition that their ability to catch the earlier flight is dependent on their hurrying.

conjunction
The two classes of conjunctions are **coordinators** (or coordinating conjunctions) and **subordinators** (or subordinating conjunctions). The coordinators are *and*, *or*, and *but*. They link units of equal status (those having a similar function), e.g. clauses, phrases, pre-modifiers. Subordinators (e.g. *because*, *if*) introduce **subordinate clauses**:

The baby is crying *because* she is hungry.

conversion
Conversion is the process by which a word is changed from one class to a new class without any change in its form. For example, the verb *bottle* ('put into a bottle') is derived by conversion from the noun *bottle*.

coordination
Coordination is the linking of two or more units with the same function. The coordinators (or coordinating conjunctions) are *and*, *or*, and *but*:

There is a heavy duty on *cigarettes*, *cigars*, **and** *pipe tobacco*.
They pierced their *ears* **or** *noses*.
We waited, **but** *nobody came*.

coordinator See **Conjunction**.

count noun
Count nouns refer to things that can be counted, and they therefore have a singular and a plural: *college*, *colleges*. Non-count nouns have only the singular form: *information*, *software*.

dangling modifier
A dangling modifier is an adverbial clause that has no subject, but its implied subject is not intended to be identified with the subject of the sentence:

> *Being blind*, a dog guided her across the street.

The implied subject of *being blind* is not intended to be *a dog*.

declarative
A declarative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly for making statements. In declaratives, the **subject** generally comes before the **verb**.

> Sandra is on the radio.
> I'm not joking.
> I'll send you an email.
> Much more work will be required to analyse the data before we can announce our conclusions.

declarative question
A declarative question has the form of a declarative sentence but the force of a question:

> She agrees with us?

definite
Noun phrases are definite when they are intended to convey enough information, in themselves or through the context, to identify uniquely what they refer to:

> You'll find *the beer* in *the refrigerator*.

A likely context for using the definite article here is that this beer has been mentioned previously and that it is obvious which refrigerator is being referred to. Noun phrases are indefinite when they are not intended to be so identifiable:

> You'll find *a beer* in the refrigerator .

definite article
The definite article is *the*. Contrast **Indefinite article**.

demonstrative
The demonstrative pronouns are *this*, *these*, *that*, *those*. The same forms are demonstrative determiners.

dependent genitive See **Case**.

descriptive rules See **Grammar**.

determiner
Determiners introduce noun phrases. They fall into several classes: the **definite** and **indefinite articles**, **demonstratives**, **possessives**, **interrogatives**, **relatives**, **indefinites**.

directive
The major use of imperative sentences is to issue directives, that is, requests for action. Directives include a simple request [1], a command [2], a prohibition [3], a warning [4], and an offer [5]:

[1] Please send me another copy.
[2] Put your hands up!
[3] Don't move!
[4] Look out!
[5] Have another piece of cake.

You can convey a directive through sentence types other than imperatives:

I want you to send me another copy, please.
Would you please send me another copy?
I need another copy.

direct object See **Object**.

direct speech
Direct speech quotes the actual words that somebody has said. Indirect speech reports what has been said but not in the actual words used by the speaker:

[1] Judith asked me, 'Have you any friends?' (direct speech)
[2] Judith asked me whether I had any friends. (indirect speech)

In both [1] and [2], *Judith asked me* is the reporting clause.

discourse particle
The term 'discourse particle' is applied to items such as *I mean*, *you know*, *you see*, and *well*. Discourse particles are very common in speech, where they perform a range of functions, including signalling a change of topic.

dummy operator
The dummy operator is the verb *do*. It is used to perform the functions of an **operator** when an operator is otherwise absent:

Does (op) Paul know?

The three verb forms are *do* and *does* for the present tense and *did* for the past tense.

dynamic See **Stative**.

element
A sentence or clause element is a constituent of sentence or clause structure. Seven elements combine to form the **basic sentence structure**:

subject	S		
verb	V		
object	O	direct object	dO
		indirect object	iO
complement	C	subject complement	sC
		object complement	oC
		adverbial complement	aC

In addition, the adverbial (A) is an optional element.

end-focus
The principle of end-focus requires that the most important information come at the end of a sentence or clause.

end-weight
The principle of end-weight requires that a longer unit come after a shorter unit whenever there is a choice of relative positions.

exclamative
An exclamative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly to express strong feeling. Exclamatives begin with *what* or *how*. *What* is used with a noun phrase and *how* elsewhere:

What a great time we had! ('We had a great time.')
How well she plays! ('She plays well.')

finite
Finite is a term used in contrast with non-finite in the classification of verbs, verb phrases, and clauses. A finite verb allows contrasts in **tense** and **mood**. All verb forms are finite except **infinitives** and **participles**. A verb phrase is finite if the first or only verb is finite; all the other verbs are non-finite. A finite clause is a clause whose verb is a finite verb phrase:

[1] Marian *has been working* hard.

A finite clause can constitute an independent sentence, as in [1]. Contrast the non-finite clause in *to work hard* in [2]:

[2] Daniel was reluctant *to work hard*.

foregrounding
Foregrounding refers to the features that stand out in language, especially in literary language.

formal definition
A formal definition defines a grammatical term, such as adverb, by the form of members of the category. For example, most adverbs end in *-ly*. In a wider sense, form includes **structure**. The form or structure of a noun phrase may be described as consisting of a noun or pronoun as the main word plus other possible constituents, such as determiners and modifiers. See **Structure**. Formal definitions are contrasted with **notional definitions**.

fragmentary sentence
Fragmentary sentences are irregular sentences from which some part or parts are missing that are normally present in corresponding regular sentences. We can 'regularize' the fragmentary sentence *in the kitchen* in this exchange:

A: Where are you?
B: *In the kitchen*.

In the kitchen corresponds to the regular sentence *I am in the kitchen*.

front-focus
Front-focus is a device for fronting an expression from its normal position so that it will acquire greater prominence:

Ronald I like, but *Doris* I respect.

Here the two direct objects have been fronted from their normal position after the verb.

function
The function of a unit refers to its use within another unit. For example, the function of *your sister* is **subject** in [1] and **object** in [2]:

[1] *Your sister* is over there.
[2] I have already met *your sister*.

gender
Gender is a grammatical distinction among words of the same word class that refers to contrasts such as masculine, feminine, neuter. In English this distinction is found mainly in certain pronouns and in the **possessive determiners**.

generic
Noun phrases are generic when they refer to a class as a whole:

Dogs make good pets.

They are non-generic when they refer to individual members of a class:

My dogs are good with children.

genitive case See **Case**.

gradable
Words are gradable when they can be viewed as being on a scale of degree of intensity. Adjectives and adverbs are typically gradable: they can be modified by intensifiers such as *very* (*extremely hot*, *very badly*), and they can take comparison (*happier*, *more relevant*).

grammar
The grammar is the set of rules for combining words into larger units. For example, the rules for the grammar of standard English allow:

Home computers are now much cheaper.

They disallow:

[1] Home computers now *much* are cheaper.
[2] Home computers *is* now much cheaper.

They disallow [1] because *much* is positioned wrongly. They disallow [2] because the subject and the verb must agree in number, and the subject *Home computers* is plural whereas the verb *is* is singular.

Such rules are **descriptive rules**: they describe what speakers of the language actually use. There are also **prescriptive rules**, which advise people what they *should* use. These are found in style manuals, handbooks, and other books that advise people how to use their language, telling people which usages to adopt or avoid. The prescriptive rules refer to usages that are common among speakers of standard English, perhaps mainly when they are speaking informally; for example:

Don't use *like* as a conjunction, as in *Speak like I do*.

grammatical sentence
A grammatical sentence in English is a sentence that conforms to the rules of the grammar of **standard English**. In a wider sense, grammatical sentences are sentences that conform to the rules of any variety, so that it is possible to distinguish between grammatical and non-grammatical sentences in different varieties of non-standard English.

homograph See **Homonym**.

homonym
Homonyms are two or more words that are identical in sound or spelling but different in meaning: the verb *peep* refers either to making a kind of sound or to taking a kind of look. Homophones share the same sound but not necessarily the same spelling, e.g. *weigh* and *way*. Homographs share the same spelling but not necessarily the same sound, e.g. *row* ('line of objects' when it rhymes with *no*, or 'quarrel' when it rhymes with *now*).

homophone See **Homonym**.

hypotaxis
Hypotaxis refers to the grammatical relationship between clauses based on coordination or subordination. Compare: **Parataxis**.

imperative
An imperative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly for issuing a directive. The imperative verb has the base form. The subject is generally absent, and in that case the missing subject is understood to be *you*:

Take off your hat.
Make yourself at home.

There are also first and third person imperative sentences with *let* and a subject:

Let's go now.
Let no one move.

indefinite article
The indefinite article is *a* or (before a vowel sound) *an*. Compare: **Definite article**.

indefinite pronoun
Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that refer to the quantity of persons or things. They include sets of words ending in *-one* and *-body* (*someone*, *nobody*, *everybody*),

many, *few*, *both*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*. Some of these pronouns have the same form as indefinite determiners.

independent genitive See **Case**.

indicative See **Mood**.

indirect object See **Object**.

indirect speech See **Direct speech**.

infinitive
The infinitive has the base form of the verb. It is often preceded by *to* (*to stay*, *to knock*), but the infinitive without *to* is used after the central **modals** (*may stay*, *will knock*) and after **dummy operator** *do* (*did say*).

inflection See **Suffix**.

interrogative
An interrogative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly for asking questions. In interrogatives the **operator** comes before the **subject** or the sentence begins with an interrogative word (e.g. *who*, *how*, *why*) or with an interrogative expression (e.g. *on which day*, *for how long*):

Did you hear that noise?
Why is Pat so annoyed?
At which point should I stop?

interrogative pronoun
The interrogative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *which* and *what*.

intransitive verb
An intransitive verb does not require another element to complete the sentence:

Peter *yawned*.
The baby *laughed*.
It has been *raining*.

Intransitive verbs contrast with transitive verbs, which take an object; for example, the transitive verb *take* is followed by the object *my book* in this next sentence:

Somebody has *taken* my book.

Many verbs may be either intransitive or transitive, for example *play*:

They were *playing*.
They were *playing* football.

irregular sentence See **Regular sentence**.

linking verb See **Subject complement**.

main clause
A **simple sentence** [1] or a **complex sentence** [2] consists of one main clause:

[1] You should be more careful.
[2] You should be more careful when you cross the street.

A **compound sentence** [3] consists of two or more main clauses:

[3] I know that you are in a hurry, *but* you should be more careful when you cross the street.

In [3], *but* joins the two main clauses.

main verb
A main verb is the main word in a verb phrase. Regular main verbs have four forms: the base, *-s*, *-ing*, and *-ed* forms. The base form (e.g. *talk*) has no **inflection**; the other three forms are named after their inflections (*talks*, *talking*, *talked*). Some irregular verbs have five forms, two of them corresponding to the two uses of the regular *-ed* form: past (*spoke*) and *-ed* participle (*spoken*); others have four forms, but the *-ed* form is irregular (*spent*); others still have only three forms, since the base and the *-ed* forms are identical (*put*). The highly irregular verb *be* has eight different forms. See 4.12 and 5.11.

medium
The medium is the channel in which the language is used. The main distinction is between speech and writing.

modal
The central modals (or central modal auxiliaries) are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *must*.

mood
Mood is the grammatical category that indicates the attitude of the speaker to what is said. Finite verb phrases have three moods: indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

The indicative is the usual mood in **declarative**, **interrogative**, and **exclamative** sentences. The imperative mood is used in **imperative** sentences. The subjunctive mood commonly conveys uncertainty or tentativeness. See 4.19.

morphology
Morphology deals with the structure of words. Words may be combinations of smaller units. For example, *books* consists of the **stem** *book* and the **inflection** *-s*. *Sometimes* is a compound formed from the two stems *some* and *times*. *Review* consists of the **prefix** *re-* and the stem *view*, and *national* consists of the stem *nation* and the **suffix** *-al*.

multiple sentence See **Simple sentence**.

multi-word verb
Multi-word verbs are combinations of a verb and one or more other words. The major types are phrasal verbs (*give in*), prepositional verbs (*look at*), and phrasal-prepositional verbs (*put up with*).

neutralization
Neutralization involves reducing distinctions to one form. For example, *you* represents both the subjective form (**You** *saw them*) and the objective form (*They saw* **you**).

nominal clause
Nominal clauses are subordinate clauses that have a range of functions similar to that of noun phrases. For example, they can function as subject [1] or direct object [2]:

[1] *That it's too difficult for him* should be obvious to everyone.
[2] I think *that you should take a rest now*.

Nominal relative clauses are introduced by a nominal relative pronoun. The pronoun functions like a combination of **antecedent** and **relative pronoun**:

You can take *whatever you want*. ('anything you want')

nominal relative clause See **Nominal clause**.

nominal relative pronoun
The nominal relative pronouns are *who*, *whom* (formal), *which*, *whoever*, *whomever* (formal), *whichever*, *what*, and *whatever*. They introduce **nominal relative clauses**. Several of these pronouns have the same form as nominal relative determiners.

non-count noun See **Count noun**.

non-finite See **Finite**.

non-generic See **Generic**.

non-restrictive apposition See **Restrictive apposition**.

non-restrictive relative clause. See **Restrictive relative clause**.

non-sentence
A non-sentence may be perfectly normal even though it cannot be analysed as a sentence, For example, the greeting *Hello!* is a non-sentence grammatically, and so is the written sign *Exit*.

non-specific See **Specific**.

non-standard English See **Standard English**.

notional definition
A notional definition defines a grammatical term, such as a noun, by the meaning that members of the category are said to convey. For example, a traditional notional definition of a noun is 'the name of a person, thing, or place'. Notional definitions can help to identify a category such as a noun by indicating typical members of the category, but the definitions are usually not comprehensive. Nouns include words such as *happiness*, *information*, and *action* that are not covered by the traditional notional definition. Notional definitions are contrasted with **formal definitions**.

noun
Proper nouns are names of people (*Helen*), places (*Hong Kong*), days of the week (*Monday*), holidays (*Christmas*), etc. The **noun phrases** in which common nouns function refer to people (*teachers*), places (*the city*), things (*your car*), qualities (*elegance*), states (*knowledge*), actions (*action*), etc. Most common nouns take a plural form: *car*, *cars*.

noun phrase
The main word in a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun. If the main word is a noun, it is often introduced by a **determiner** and may have modifiers. Pre-modifiers are modifiers that come before the main word and post-modifiers are modifiers that come after it:

> an (det.) old (premod.) *quarrel* (noun) that has recently flared up again (post-mod.)

number
Number is a grammatical category that contrasts singular and plural. It applies to nouns (*student*, *students*), pronouns (*she*, *they*), and verbs (*he works*, *they work*).

object
Transitive verbs require a direct object to complete the sentence as in [1]:

[1] Helen wore *a red dress* (dO).

Some transitive verbs allow or require a second element: indirect object, which comes before the direct object [2]; **object complement** [3]; **adverbial complement** [4].

[2] Nancy showed *me* (iO) *her book* (dO).
[3] Pauline made *him* (dO) *her understudy* (oC).
[4] Norma put *the cat* (dO) *in the yard* (aC).

The direct object typically refers to the person or thing affected by the action. The indirect object typically refers to the person who receives something or benefits from the action. The object in an **active** structure (whether the object is direct or indirect) usually corresponds to the subject in a passive structure:

The sentry fired *two shots* (dO).
Two shots (S) were fired.
Ted promised *Mary* (iO) two tickets (dO).
Mary (S) was promised two tickets.
Two tickets (S) were promised to Mary.

object complement
Some transitive verbs require or allow an object complement to follow the direct object:

The heat has turned *the milk* (dO) *sour* (oC).

The relationship between the direct object and the object complement resembles that between the subject and **subject complement**:

The milk (S) turned *sour* (sC).

See **Object**.

objective case See **Subjective case**.

operator
The operator is the part of the predicate that (among other functions) interchanges with the subject when we form questions [1] and comes before *not* or contracted *n't* in negative sentences [2] and [3]:

[1] *Have* (op) *you* (S) seen my pen?
[2] I *have* (op) *not* replied to her letter.
[3] I *haven't* replied to her letter.

The operator is usually the first auxiliary in the verb phrase, but the main verb *be* is the operator when it is the only verb in the verb phrase, as in [4], while the main verb *have* may serve as operator, as in [5], or take the **dummy operator**, as in [6]:

[4] *Are* you ready?
[5] *Have* you a car?
[6] *Do* you have a car?

orthographic sentence
An orthographic sentence is a sentence in the written language, signalled by an initial capital letter and a final full-stop (period).

orthography
Orthography is the writing system in the language: the distinctive written symbols and their possible combinations.

parallelism
Parallelism is an arrangement of similar grammatical structures. In parallel structures at least some of the words have similar or contrasting meanings:

It was too hot to eat; it was too hot to swim; it was too hot to sleep.
They tended the wounded and they comforted the dying.
The more you talk, the madder I get.

Chiasmus is a form of parallelism in which the order of parts of the structures is reversed:

I respect Susan, but Joan I admire.

parataxis
Parataxis refers to the loose 'stringing together' of (usually) clauses, without any grammatical relation between them: *It was midnight. It was dark. The door opened.* Compare: **Hypotaxis**.

particle
A particle is a word that does not change its form (unlike verbs that have past forms or nouns that have plural forms) and, because of its specialized functions, does not fit into the traditional classes of words. Particles include *not*, *to* as used with the infinitive, and words like *up* and *out* that combine with verbs to form **multi-word verbs**, for example, *blow up* and *look out*.

participle
There are two participles, the *-ing* participle (*playing*) and the *-ed* participle. The *-ing* participle always ends in *-ing*. In all regular verbs and in some irregular verbs, the *-ed* participle ends in *-ed*. In other irregular verbs the *-ed* participle may end in *-n* (*speak* – spoken), or may have a different vowel from the base form (*fight* – *fought*), or may have both characteristics (*wear* – *worn*), or may be identical with the base form (*put* – *put*).

The *-ing* participle is used to form the progressive (*was playing*). The *-ed* participle is used to form the perfect (*has played*) and the passive (*was played*). Both participles can function as the verb in **non-finite** clauses:

> *Speaking before the game*, Keegan was upbeat and optimistic.
> *When captured*, he refused to give his name.

See **Aspect**, **Active**, **Finite**.

passive See **Active**.

perfect See **Aspect**.

person
Person is the grammatical category that indicates differences in the relationship to the speaker of those involved in the situation. There are three persons: the first person refers to the speaker, the second to those addressed, and the third to other people or things. Differences are signalled by the **possessive determiners** (*my*, *your* etc.), some pronouns (e.g. *I*, *you*), and by verb forms (e.g. *I know* versus *She knows*).

personal pronoun
The personal pronouns are:

1. subjective case: *I*, *we*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*
2. objective case: *me*, *us*, *you*, *him*, *her*, *it*, *them*

See **Subjective case**.

phonetics
Phonetics deals with the physical characteristics of the sounds in the language, their production, and their perception.

phonology
Phonology is the sound system in the language: the distinctive sound units and the ways in which they may be combined.

phrasal auxiliary
Phrasal auxiliaries convey meanings that are similar to the auxiliaries but do not share all their grammatical characteristics. For example, only the first word of the phrasal auxiliary *have got to* functions as an **operator**:

> *Have* we *got to* go now?

Phrasal auxiliaries include *have to*, *had better*, *be about to*, *be going to*, *be able to*.

phrasal-prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

phrasal verb. See **Multi-word verb**.

phrase
A phrase is a unit below the clause. There are five types of phrases:

noun phrase	*our family*
verb phrase	*was talking*
adjective phrase	*quite old*
adverb phrase	*very loudly*
prepositional phrase	*on the table*

The first four phrases above are named after their main word. The prepositional phrase is named after the word that introduces the phrase. In this book, and in many other works on grammar, a phrase may consist of one word, so that both *talked* and *was talking* are verb phrases. See 4.1.

possessive determiner
The possessive determiners are *my*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*. See **Case**.

possessive pronoun
The possessive pronouns are *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *theirs*. See **Case**.

pragmatics
Pragmatics deals with the use of utterances in particular situations. For example, *Will you join our group?* is a question that might be intended as either a request for information or a request for action.

predicate
We can divide most **clauses** into two parts; the **subject** and the predicate. The main parts of the predicate are the verb and any of its objects or complements.

prefix
A prefix is added before the stem of a word to form a new word, e.g. *un-* in *untidy*.

preposition
Prepositions introduce **prepositional phrases**. The preposition links the complement in the phrase to some other expression. Here are some common prepositions with complements in parentheses: *after* (*lunch*), *by* (*telling me*), *for* (*us*), *in* (*my room*), *since* (*seeing them*), *to* (*Ruth*), *up* (*the road*).

prepositional object
A prepositional object is a word or phrase that follows the preposition of a prepositional verb:

Tom is looking after *my children*.
Norma is making fun of *you*.

prepositional phrase
The prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and the complement of the preposition:

for (prep.) your sake (comp.)
on (prep.) entering the room (comp.)

prepositional verb See **Multi-word verb**.

prescriptive rules See **Grammar**.

progressive See **Aspect**.

pronoun
A pronoun is a closed class of words that are used as substitutes for a noun phrase or (less commonly) for a noun. They fall into a number of classes, such as personal pronouns and demonstrative pronouns. See 5.17.

reciprocal pronoun
The reciprocal pronouns are *each other* and *one another*.

reflexive pronoun
The reflexive pronouns are *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

register
A linguistic register is a variety of language that we associate with a specific use and communicative purpose. For example, conversational English, newspaper English, and scientific English are commonly recognized registers.

regular sentence
A regular sentence conforms to one of the major sentence patterns in the language (see 3.13). Those that do not conform are irregular sentences. See **Basic sentence structure**.

relative clause
A relative clause functions as a post-modifier in a noun phrase:

> the persons *who advised me*

The relative word or expression (here *who*) functions as an element in the clause (here as the subject; cf. *They advised me*).

relative pronoun
Relative pronouns introduce **relative clauses**. The relative pronouns are *who*, *whom* (formal), *which*, and *that*. The relative pronoun is omitted in certain circumstances: *the apartment* (*that*) *I live in*. The omitted pronoun is known as a zero relative pronoun. *Which* and *whose* are relative determiners.

reporting clause See **Direct speech**.

restrictive apposition
Apposition may be restrictive or non-restrictive. A restrictive appositive identifies:

> the fact *that they have two cars*
> *my sister Joan*

A non-restrictive appositive adds further information:

> the latest news, *that negotiations are to begin next Monday . . .*
> *my eldest sister, Joan . . .*

See **Restrictive relative clause**:

restrictive relative clause
Relative clauses may be either restrictive or non-restrictive. A restrictive relative clause identifies more closely the noun it modifies:

> The boy *who got the top grade* was given a prize.

A non-restrictive relative clause does not identify. It adds further information:

> The boy, *who got the top grade*, was given a prize.

rhetorical question
A rhetorical question has the form of a question but the force of a strong assertion.

> How many times have I told you to wipe your feet? ('I have told you very many times to wipe your feet.')

run-on sentence
A run-on sentence is an error in punctuation arising from the failure to use any punctuation mark between sentences. If a comma is used instead of a major mark, the error is a comma splice. See 9.3.

semantics
Semantics is the system of meanings in the language: the meanings of words and the combinatory meanings of larger units.

sentence fragment
A sentence fragment is a series of words that is punctuated as a sentence even though it is not grammatically an independent sentence:

> You're late again. As usual.

simple sentence
A simple sentence is a sentence that consists of one clause:

> I'm just a student.

A multiple sentence consists of more than one clause:

> I'm just a student, and I've not had much work experience.
> Since I'm just a student, I've not had much work experience.

See **Complex sentence** and **Compound sentence**.

specific
Noun phrases are specific when they refer to specific persons, places, things, etc.:

I hired *a horse* and *a guide*.

They are non-specific when they do not have such reference:

I have never met *a Russian*. (non-specific: 'any Russian')

standard English
Standard English is the variety of English that normally appears in print. Its relative uniformity is confined to grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation. There is no standard English pronunciation. There are some differences in the standard English used in English-speaking countries, so that we can distinguish, for example, between standard English in Britain, in the USA, and in Canada. Varieties other than the standard variety are called **non-standard**.

stative
Stative verbs introduce a quality attributed to the subject (*Tom seems bored*) or a state of affairs (*We know the way*). Dynamic verbs are used in descriptions of events (*The kettle is boiling*; *Cathy listened intently*). Dynamic verbs can occur with the *-ing* form, as in *is boiling*, *has been listening*.

structure
The structure of a unit refers to the parts that make up the unit. For example, a sentence may have the structure subject, verb, object, as in:

David (S) has written (V) a good paper (O).

Or a noun phrase may have the structure **determiner**, **pre-modifier**, **noun**, as in:

a (det) good (pre-mod) paper (noun)

subject
The subject is an **element** that usually comes before the verb in a **declarative** sentence [1] and after the **operator** in an **interrogative** sentence [2]:

[1] *We* (S) *should consider* (V) the rights of every class.
[2] *Should* (op) *we* (S) consider the rights of every class?

Except in **imperative** sentences, the subject is an obligatory element. In **active** structures, the subject typically refers to the performer of the action.

subject complement
Linking verbs require a subject complement to complete the sentence. The most common linking verb is *be*. Subject complements are usually **noun phrases** [1] or **adjective phrases** [2]:

[1] Leonard is *Mary's brother*
[2] Robert looks *very happy*.

The subject complement typically identifies or characterizes the subject.

subjective case
The **personal pronouns** and the pronouns *who* and *whoever* distinguish between subjective case and objective case. The subjective case is used when a pronoun is the subject (*I* in *I know*). The objective case is used when a pronoun is a direct object (*me* in *He pushed me*) or indirect object (*me* in *She told me the truth*) or complement of a preposition (*for me*). The subject complement takes the subjective case in formal style (*This is she*), but otherwise the objective case (*This is her*) is usual.

subject-operator inversion
In subject-operator inversion, the usual order is inverted: the operator comes before the subject:

[1] *Are* (op) *you* (*S*) staying?

Subject-operator inversion occurs chiefly in questions, as in [1]. It also occurs when a negative element is fronted, as in [2]:

[2] *Not a word* did we hear.

Compare [2a] and [2b]:

[2a] We did *not* hear *a word*.
[2b] We heard *not a word*.

subject–verb agreement
The general rule is that a verb agrees with its subject in number and person whenever the verb displays distinctions in number and person:

The dog *barks*.	I *am* thirsty.
The dogs *bark*.	She *is* thirsty.

subjunctive
The present subjunctive is the base form of the verb:

I demanded that Norman *leave* the meeting.
It is essential that you *be* on time.

The past subjunctive is *were*.

If Tess *were* here, she would help me.

See 4.19.

subordinate clause See **Complex sentence**.

subordinator See **Conjunction**.

suffix
A suffix is added after the stem of a word to form a new word, e.g. *-ness* in *goodness*. A suffix that expresses a grammatical relationship is an inflection, e.g. plural *-s* in *crowds* or past *-ed* in *cooked*.

superordinate clause
A superordinate clause is a clause that has a subordinate clause as one of its elements:

I hear (A) *that you know* (B) *where Ken lives*.

The (A) clause *that you know where Ken lives* is superordinate to the (B) clause *where Ken lives*. The subordinate (B) clause is the direct object in the (A) clause.

syntax
This is another term for **Grammar**, as that term is used in this book.

tag question
A tag question is attached to a sentence that is not interrogative. It invites agreement:

You remember me, *don't you?*
Please don't tell them, *will you?*

tense
Tense is the grammatical category that refers to time and is signalled by the form of the verb. There are two tenses: present (*laugh*, *laughs*) and past (*laughed*).

***there*-structure**
In a *there*-structure, *there* is put in the subject position and the subject is moved to a later position:

There is somebody here to see you. (cf. 'Somebody is here to see you.')

transitive Verb See **Object**.

verb
A verb is either (like a noun) a member of a word class or (like a subject) an element in sentence or clause structure. As a verb, it functions in a **verb phrase**. The verb phrase *may be playing* is the verb of the sentence in [1]:

[1] She *may be playing* tennis this afternoon.

It is the verb of the *that*-clause in [2]:

[2] She says that she *may be playing* tennis this afternoon.

See **Main verb**.

verbless clause
A verbless clause is a reduced clause that does not have a verb:

Send me another one *if possible*. ('if it is possible')
Though in pain, Joan came with us. ('Though she was in pain')

verb phrase
A verb phrase consists of a **main** verb preceded optionally by a maximum of four **auxiliaries**.

voice
Voice is a grammatical category that applies to the structure of the sentence and to the structure of the verb phrase. There are two voices: the active voice and the passive voice. See **Active**.

***wh*-question**
A *wh*-question is a question beginning with an interrogative word or with a phrase containing an interrogative word. All interrogative words except *how* begin with the spelling *wh*-: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why*.

***yes–no* question**
A *yes–no* question is a question that expects the answer *yes* or *no*. *Yes–no* questions require **subject–operator inversion**:

Can (op) *I* (S) have a word with you?

zero relative pronoun See **Relative pronoun**.

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SPOKEN ENGLISH

Flourish Your Language

Edited and Compiled by:
Robert Carmen

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Preface

English is a universal language and it is understood all over the world. In fact, in today's world speaking English has become a necessity. It is not only that but today's generation looks down upon anyone who is unable to speak English. It has become more like a status symbol. All the companies are recruiting only those people who speak fluent and correct English. With the coming up of the call centre and Multinational companies the need for English language has increased ten folds. With all this happening one cannot afford to live without speaking English.

In this book we have tried to do just that and that is to improve your English speaking skills. This book will help you in speaking better and correct English. After reading this book you will feel much more confident and better-equipped at speaking English. The book is divided into chapters and each chapter deals with different aspects of spoken English. Each chapter is given in a detailed manner so that you get the full knowledge about the given topic.

The book also contains a chapter on tongue twisters. They will help you in practicing how to speak English correctly and fluently. The chapter on slangs is also very interesting because it familiarises you with the usage of latest way of speaking in the modern world.

The book also has interesting chapters like common errors, which will help you in avoiding all the mistakes we usually make while speaking English. All and all, this book is your free ticket to the world of speaking better and fluent English.

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"This page is Intentionally Left Blank"

Introduction

If you're a person whose mother-tongue is *not* English, the chances are, you've learnt English in the 'non-natural way'. That is, you've learnt English in a way that is opposite to the way of natural language acquisition.

You know, the natural way of acquiring a language is to learn to speak it first and *then* to write it.

Those people who do not learn English the natural way, *know* reasonable English – or even excellent English. And if you ask them to *write* a report or something in English, they may do it fairly well. But, if you ask them to *speak* to you about the same thing, they find it hard to do. Or even impossible.

When they start speaking, most of the words remain on the tip of their tongue and don't readily come out. And often, what words do come out sound disconnected and random. And, they find themselves speaking in a clumsy and unclear way, with long gaps and intervals of indecision between every two words. And they keep fumbling for something to say. Not only this, they find it difficult to go on beyond one or two lines, without tripping up and without stumbling over the sounds or sequences of sounds.

And then, they tend to fall back upon their mother-tongue – or become *tongue-tied*. This book will help you to overcome all these problems and will also help you in developing better speaking skills.

CHAPTER 1

Contractions

Contraction means to shorten a word or phrase by omitting one or more sounds or letters from it. The word so formed is also called a contraction. Discussed below are the various contractions used in spoken English.

The apostrophe has two uses:

1. To show that we have made words shorter. We have contracted them.

2. To show that something belongs to someone, i.e. they possess it. (possession)

Here are two examples.

- My dad's car is red.

Here we have only one dad but we have put on the letter 's' because we have put an apostrophe. It shows that the car belongs to dad.

- "I'll tell you that later," he whispered.

I will has become I'll, we have joined two words and missed out the letters WI and put in the apostrophe instead.

We use apostrophes because it can make our writing easier to read.

In the list below we are going to look at apostrophes for contract-

ing words.

	Contraction	*Letters missed out*
Can not	Can't	no
Do not	Don't	o
Should not	Shouldn't	o
Could not	Couldn't	o
Would not	Wouldn't	o
Has not	Hasn't	o
I will	I'll	wi
They will	They'll	wi
He will	He'll	wi
There is	There's	i
Who is	Who's	i
You are	You're	a
They are	They're	a
Would have	Would've	ha
They have	They've	ha

Let's start with *let's*. Except for some set phrases (example: 'Let us pray') *let us* is almost always expressed as a contraction: *let's*.

Example:

- Let's go!

It is almost always used to express an imperative, thus:

- Let's do it!

However, sometimes it is used to express something like an admonition, thus:

- Let's do what we ought to do.

Sometimes it is used to make suggestion, thus:

- Let's keep this just between us.

The negative is 'let's not', but you will also come across 'don't let's'.

That's = That is

- That's all = That is all
- That's all I want = That is all I want
- That's it = That is it
- That's my son = That is my son
- That's my child = That is my child
- That's my daughter = That is my daughter
- That's what I wanted to say = That is what I wanted to say
- That's a good idea = That is a good idea

What's = What is

- What's going on = What is going on?
- What's that? = What is that?
- What's happening? = What is happening?
- What's going to happen? = What is going to happen?

What's = What has

- What's been happening? = What has been happening?
- What's been going on? = What has been going on?

-ouldn't've = -ould not have

Because of voiceless [t], the sound that follows, '-ve' sounds like *of*, which is where we get the erroneous spelling *-ouldn't of*.

it's* = *it is

- It's a man = It is a man
- It's a woman = It is a woman
- It's a boy = It is a boy
- It's a girl = It is a girl
- It's a good thing = It is a good thing
- It's not a good thing = It is not a good thing
- It's time to go = It is time to go
- It's a good day to die = It is a good day to die
- It's a good speech = It is a good speech
- It's hot = It is hot
- It's cold = It is cold
- It's winter = It is winter
- It's summer = It is summer

***it's* = it has**

- It's been a good day = It has been a good day
- It's been one of those days = It has been one of those days
- It's been good = It has been good
- It's been fun = It has been fun
- It's been a wonderful life = It has been a wonderful life
- It's been a trying time = It has been a trying time

***there's* = there is**

- There's one = There is one
- There's another = There is another

- There's a red balloon = There is a red balloon
- There's gold in those hills = There is gold in those hills
- Where there's water there's life = Where there is water there is life
- There's a lot of water in the river = There is a lot of water in the river

NEGATIVE:

- There's not a lot I can do about it.
- There isn't much I can do about it.

IRREGULAR CONTRACTIONS:

won't = will not

Examples:

- I don't want to do it, so I won't do it.
- I won't do it unless you make me do it.
- I won't promise you anything.
- I won't do anything.
- Why won't you help me?
- It won't work.
- He won't work.
- She won't work.
- They won't work.
- We won't work.

From those last five sentences, we can plainly see that nobody wants to work.

The nots:

hasn't = has not

isn't = is not

don't = do not

doesn't = does not

won't = will not

haven't = have not

can't = can not

wouldn't = would not

shouldn't = should not

couldn't = could not

mustn't = must not

Examples:

- He hasn't been here in a long time.
- He isn't here now.
- I don't know when he will be here.
- He doesn't know when he will get here.
- I won't know until he gets here.
- I haven't been told.
- I can't find out.
- I wouldn't tell you if I knew.
- I shouldn't tell you.
- I couldn't tell you if I wanted to.
- I mustn't tell anyone.

+ the BE 'shan't' for 'shall not'. More and more, 'shall' is restricted to questions and formal language, where the contraction would be less likely to occur.

he's = he is

she's = she is

it's = it is

what's = what is

who's = who is

there's = there is

where's = where is

Examples

- He's not here = He is not here
- He's somewhere else = He is somewhere else
- He's not in his room = He is not in his room
- He's not answering the phone = He is not answering the phone
- He's from France = He is from France
- He's not my brother = He is not my brother
- He's asleep = He is asleep
- He's not awake = He is not awake
- She's here = She is here
- She's well = She is well
- She's quick = She is quick
- She's from Canada = She is from Canada
- She's living in Japan = She is living in Japan
- She's my friend = She is my friend

- She's not my sister = She is not my sister
- She's sleeping on satin sheets = She is sleeping on satin sheets
- It's a good thing = It is a good thing
- It's morning = It is morning
- It's time to get up = It is time to get up
- It's dark outside = It is dark outside
- It's going to be a rainy day = It is going to be a rainy day
- What's that? = What is that?
- What's the matter? = What is the matter?
- What's the time? = What is the time?
- What's for breakfast? = What is for breakfast?
- Who's there? = Who is there?
- Who's that? = Who is that?
- Who's calling? = Who is calling?
- I don't know who's driving the bus = I don't know who is driving the bus
- There's a freckle on your face = There is a freckle on your face
- There's a woman in the race = There is a woman in the race
- There's a girl whose name is Grace = There is a girl whose name is Grace
- Where's my hat? = Where is my hat?
- Where's my wallet? = Where is my wallet?
- Where's my head? = Where is my head?
- Where is the train? = Where is the train?

he's = he has

she's = she has

it's = it has

what's = what has

who's = who has

there's = there has

where's = where has

Examples

- He's been my friend = He has been my friend
- He's not struggled = He has not struggled
- He's never been helpful = He has never been helpful
- He's always been a nuisance = He has always been a nuisance
- He's never bled = He has never bled
- He's never been dead = He has never been dead
- He's been here since last Tuesday = He has been here since last Tuesday
- She's been here before = She has been here before
- She's been to the store = She has been to the store
- She's been asleep for an hour = She has been asleep for an hour
- She's had the power = She has had the power
- It's been fun = It has been fun
- It's been a good day = It has been a good day
- What's been going on? = What's been going on?
- What's been going on here? = What's been going on here?

- Who's been sleeping in my bed? Who has been sleeping in my bed?
- Who's taken my keys? = Who has taken my keys?
- There's been someone in my room = There has been someone in my room
- Where's he been? = Where has he been?
- Where's the time gone = Where has the time gone?

I'll = I will

we'll = we will

she'll = she will

he'll = he will

they'll they will

you'll = you will

Examples

- I'll be right back.
- We'll be there in a little while.
- She'll be riding a white horse.
- He'll see you now.
- You'll be sorry for that.

I'm = I am

- I'm twenty years old = I am twenty years old
- I'm looking forward to it = I am looking forward to it
- I'm not looking forward to it = I am not looking forward to it
- I'm not going with you = I am not going with you
- I'm a man = I am a man

- I'm your friend = I am your friend
- I'm nearly forty = I am nearly forty
- I'm an American = I am an American
- I'm going to come back = I am going to come back
- I'm blessed with a wonderful family = I am blessed with a wonderful family
- I'm behind him 100 percent = I am behind him 100 percent

you're = you are

we're = we are

they're = they are

Examples

- You're supposed to be there at eight = You are supposed to be there at eight
- We're meeting them at nine = We are meeting them at nine
- They're supposed to meet us at the station = They are supposed to meet us at the station

I'd = I would

I'd like to meet her = I would like to meet her

I'd = I had

I'd been doing well until I got hit by a car = I had been doing well until I got hit by a car

you'd = you would

If you lived here you'd be home by now = If you lived here you would be home by now

you'd = you had

You'd better watch out! = You had better watch out!

we'd = we had

We'd better be getting back = We had better be getting back

we'd = we would

We'd like to do it again some time = We would like to do it again some time

she'd = she had

he'd = he had

- She'd better listen if she knows what's good for her = She had better listen if she knows what's good for her
- He'd better be more careful = He had better be more careful

she'd = she would

he'd = he would

- She'd like to go to the concert = She would like to go to the concert
- He'd like to meet her = He would like to meet her
- She'd like to go to college = She would like to go to college
- He'd be better off not going = He would be better off not going

how'd = how did

How'd he do that? = How did he do that?

I've = I've

- I've been waiting for an hour = I have been waiting for an hour
- I've got something to say = I have got something to say
- I've gotten a letter from my sister = I have gotten a letter from my sister

- I've been looking forward to hearing from her = I have been looking forward to hearing from her
- I've been wanting to talk to you = I have been wanting to talk to you
- That's what I've been thinking = That's what I have been thinking

we've = we have

- We've been there before = We have been there before
- We've seen that movie already = We have that movie already
- We've go to see that one = We have got to see that one
- We've been waiting in line for an hour = We have waiting in line for an hour

you've = you have

- You've been told not to do that = You have been told not to do that
- You've been there before, haven't you? = You have been there before, haven't you?
- You've earned a reprimand = You have earned a reprimand
- You've been misbehaving = You have been misbehaving
- You've seen her before, haven't you? = You have seen her before, haven't you?
- You've been quite helpful = You have been quite helpful

could've = could have

- I could've done it if I had wanted to do it = I could have done it if I had wanted to do it
- I could've done it, but I didn't do it = I could have done it, but I didn't do it

would've = would have

- I would've finished had I had the time = I would have finished had I had the time
- I would've got there sooner, but the train was late = I would have got there sooner, but the train was late
- We would've had the picnic had it not rained = We would have had the picnic had it not rained

should've = should have

- She should've introduced herself = She should have introduced herself
- Perhaps I should've been politer = Perhaps I should have been politer
- We should've done a better job of it = We should have done a better job of it

should'nt've = should not have (primarily spoken)

She should'nt've introduced herself = She should not have introduced herself

what'd = what did

What'd he say? = What did he say?

that'll = that will

That'll be all = That will be all

couldn't, didn't

I couldn't hear her, so I didn't respond = I could not hear her, so I did not respond

couldn't've

I couldn't've done what you said I did = I could not have done what you said I did

It'll = It will

It'll be a while = It will be a while.

That'll = That will

- That'll be the day = That will be the day.
- That'll never happen again = That will never happen again.

Which'll = Which will

The bus, which'll be along in a while, will take you to the station. = The bus, which will be along in a while, will take you to the station.

ain't = am not

I ain't going and you can't make me.

There're = There are

There're some words that have no opposites = There are some words that have no opposites

needn't = need not

- "John needn't leave for another hour."
- "You needn't have done that."

Who're = Who are

Who're you? = Who are you?

What're = What are

What're you doing? = What are you doing?

What'll = what will

What'll you be having? = What will you be having?

you're = you are

You're dizzy and I'm busy = You are dizzy and I am busy.

it'll = it will

I'm sorry. It'll never happen again = I am sorry. It will never happen again.

that'll = that will

That'll be all = That will be all

that'd = that would

That'd be nice = That would be nice

what'd = what did

What'd you do on your vacation? = What did you do on your vacation?

what'd = what would

What'd be the best thing to do? = What would be the best thing to do?

it'd = it had

It'd better be good = It had better be good

it'd = it would

It'd be a nice thing to do = It would be a nice thing to do

CHAPTER 2

Pronunciation

The first English lesson should deal with pronunciation. When you don't do pronunciation first, you have to do something else than pronunciation. And then whatever you do and if it involves speaking, then bad pronunciation habits are formed.

If you don't know how to pronounce and yet you pronounce your own way at the beginning of your learning, then you are building your habits in the wrong way. Learning words without pronunciation on the first lesson is damaging.

There are two possibilities that are recommended: (1) learn pronunciation from the beginning and speak from the beginning, (2) learn without pronunciation, but do not speak (you will start speaking at a later stage - after learning pronunciation).

The idea is not to have 'perfect' pronunciation from the beginning but 'correct' - understood in the following sense: (1) use the right sounds - perhaps your own versions of the English sounds, but make sure that there is a clear correspondence between your own sounds and the English sounds (2) always stress the right syllable.

Additionally, it's a good idea to be able to phonetically transcribe your own English output. This means that you will have conscious control over your output. You will have a 'digital perception' of your pronunciation - as opposed to an 'analog perception', which is usually developed by learners.

If you have a digital perception of your pronunciation, you have the following advantage:

If, through practice, you have mastered the ability to produce a particular English sound, say [@], you will be able to incorporate this new ability into each occurrence of this sound in your utterances because in every word you utter you know whether it contains this sound or not. (Learners who don't have a digital perception can learn to perfectly pronounce 'cat' and still be unable to say 'man' properly.)

Definition of good pronunciation

Definition of good pronunciation is:

(1) easy to understand by advanced users of English,

(2) pleasant to hear for advanced users of English,

(3) easy to pronounce for oneself.

Don't worry about fluency - speaking slowly is OK.

English learners are often worried about their lack of fluency. They need much time to build sentences and this worries them. They would like to speak as fast as in their native language.

Please notice that building sentences in a foreign language is a real challenge for the brain. There are chemical processes that take place in the brain before a sentence can be built in a foreign language. Those processes take more time than building sentences in one's native language. At least in the beginning. Fluency comes with time and practice and it should not to be expected in the beginning of learning.

If you are an English learner who worries about lack of fluency, please remember these words: When you speak too fast, your brain does not have the time to build correct sentences. You have to speak so slowly that your brain has the time to think about building sentences in English.

It's a general opinion that it is a good habit to speak slowly and carefully in a foreign language.

Learners should accept the fact that speaking in a foreign language is more difficult than speaking in one's native language. There is no need to worry about this. There is little fluency in the beginning and this is okay. Don't worry about lack of fluency.

Homophones

The following list of 70 groups of homophones contains only the most common homophones, using relatively well-known words. These are headwords only. They will help you in speaking individual words with correct pronunciation. No inflections (such as third person singular 's' or noun plurals) are included. Most of these are pairs. In a few cases, a third homophone is also possible but has not been included for simplicity. Please note that different varieties and accents of English may produce variations in some of these pronunciations. The homophones listed here are based on British English.

air	heir	
aisle	isle	
ante-	anti-	
eye	I	
bare	bear	bear
be	bee	
brake	break	
buy	by	
cell	sell	
cent	scent	
cereal	serial	

coarse	course
complement	compliment
dam	damn
dear	deer
die	dye
fair	fare
fir	fur
flour	flower
for	four
hair	hare
heal	heel
hear	here
him	hymn
hole	whole
hour	our
idle	idol
in	inn
knight	night
knot	not
know	no
made	maid
mail	male
meat	meet
morning	mourning

none	nun
oar	or
one	won
pair	pear
peace	piece
plain	plane
poor	pour
pray	prey
principal	principle
profit	prophet
real	reel
right	write
root	route
sail	sale
sea	see
seam	seem
sight	site
sew	so sow
shore	sure
sole	soul
some	sum
son	sun
stair	stare
stationary	stationery

steal	steel
suite	sweet
tail	tale
their	there
to	too/two
toe	tow
waist	waste
wait	weight
way	weigh
weak	week
wear	where

Linking in English

When we say a sentence in English, we join or 'link' words to each other. Because of this linking, the words in a sentence do not always sound the same as when we say them individually. Linking is very important in English. If you recognise and use linking, two things will happen:

1. you will understand other people more easily
2. other people will understand you more easily

There are basically two types of linking:

- *consonant > vowel*
- We link words ending with a consonant sound to words beginning with a vowel sound
- *vowel > vowel*
- We link words ending with a vowel sound to words beginning

with a vowel sound

Understanding vowels and consonants for linking

To understand linking, it is important to know the difference between vowel sounds and consonant sounds. Given below is a list of English vowels and consonants:

Vowels: a, e, i, o, u

Consonants: b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z

The list shows the *letters* that are vowels and consonants. But the important thing in linking is the *sound*, not the letter. Often the letter and the sound are the same, but not always.

For example, the word 'pay' ends with:

- the consonant *letter* 'y'

the vowel *sound* 'a' Here are some more examples:

	though	*know*
ends with the letter	h	w
ends with the sound	o	o
	uniform	*honest*
begins with the letter	u	h
begins with the sound	y	o

Linking consonant to vowel

When a word ends in a consonant sound, we often move the consonant sound to the beginning of the next word if it starts with a vowel sound.

For example, in the phrase 'turn off':

We write it like this: turn off

We say it like this: tur noff

Remember that it's the *sound* that matters. In the next example, 'have' ends with:

- the *letter* 'e' (vowel)
- the *sound* 'v' (consonant)

So we link 'have' to the next word 'a', which begins with a vowel sound:

We write it like this: Can I have a bit of egg?

We say it like this: Ca-nI-ha-va-bi-to-fegg?

Linking vowel to vowel

When one word ends with a vowel sound and the next word begins with a vowel sound, we link the words with a sort of *W or Y* sound.

If our lips are *round* at the end of the first word, we insert a *W* sound:

We write it like this:	too often	who is	so I	do all
We say it like this:	tooWoften	whoWis	soWI	doWall

If our lips are *wide* at the end of the first word, we insert a *Y* sound:

We write it like this:	I am	Kay is	the end	she asked
We say it like this:	IYam	KayYis	theYend	she Yasked

How to pronounce -ed in English

The *past simple tense* and *past participle* of all regular verbs end in *-ed*. For example:

base verb (v1)	*past simple (v2)*	*past participle (v3)*
Work	work*ed*	work*ed*

In addition, many *adjectives* are made from the past participle and so end in *-ed*. For example:

- I like pain*ted* furniture.

The question is: *How do we pronounce the -ed?*

The answer is: *In 3 ways - // or // or //*

If the base verb ends in one of these sounds:		*example base verb*:*	*example with -ed:*	*pronounce the -ed:*	*extra syllable?*
unvoiced	/t/	want	wanted	/Id/	yes
Voiced	/d/	end	ended		
	/p/	hope	hoped		
	/f/	laugh	laughed		
unvoiced	/s/	fax	faxed	/t/	
	/S/	wash	washed		
	/tS/	watch	watched		no
	/k/	like	liked		
Voiced	all other sounds, for example...	play allow beg	played allowed begged	/d/	

* note that it is the *sound* that is important, not the letter or spelling. For example, 'fax' ends in the letter 'x' but the sound /s/, 'like' ends in the letter 'e' but the sound /k/.

Exceptions

The following adjectives ending in -ed are always pronounced with /Id/:

- aged
- blessed
- crooked
- dogged
- learned
- naked
- ragged
- wicked
- wretched

Pronouncing 'the'

Normally, we pronounce 'the' with a short sound (like 'thuh'). But when 'the' comes before a *vowel sound*, we pronounce it as a long 'thee'.

vowel sound	*we write*	*we say*
A	the ***a***pple	thee apple
E	the ***e***gg	thee egg
I	the ***i***ce-cream	thee ice-cream
O	the ***o***range	thee orange
U	the ***u***gly fruit	thee ugly fruit

It is important to understand that it is what we *say* that matters, not what we write. It is the *sound* that matters, not the letter used in writing a word. So we use a long 'thee' before a *vowel sound*, not necessarily before a vowel. Look at these cases:

we write	*with*	*we say*	*with*
the house	consonant (h)	thuh ***h***ouse	consonant sound
the hour	consonant (h)	thee ***o***ur	vowel sound
the university	vowel (u)	thuh ***y***ouniversity	consonant sound
the umbrella	vowel (u)	thee ***u***mbrella	vowel sound

It is often found that some of the words are not spoken correctly. The table below gives you an idea how to speak these words correctly.

Word:	**Often said:**	**Should be:**	**More info:**
Applicable	uh-PLIK-uh-bull	AP-li-kuh-bull	
Forte	for-TAY	FORT	
Precedence	PREH-sid-ence	pri-SEED-ence	
Calm, psalm, palm	calm, salm, palm	cahm, sahm, pahm	The L is silent.
Available	uh-VAIL-yable	uh-VAIL-able	Say it wrong a few times and it starts to sound right.
Mischievous	mis-CHIEV-ee-ous	MIS-chi-vus	
Deluge	DEH-looj	DEL-yooj	

Duty	doody or dootee	DYOO-tee	
Err	air	ur	
Era	AIR-uh	EER-uh	
Ye (as in ye olde forte)	ye	the	The Y is actually an old Anglo-Saxon character, which was pro nounced TH.
Shoppe	SHOP-ee	shop	This spelling is a throwback to old English anyway and should be avoided except for effect.
Heinous	HIGH-nis, HEE-nis (and a variety of other corruptions)	HAY-nis	The first syllable rhymes with say, play and tray.
Height	heighth	height	No TH on the end.
Human	YOO-man	HYOO-man	
Nuclear	NOO-kyuh-lur	NYOO-klee-ur or NOO-klee-ur	-
Kiln	kiln	kil	The N is silent.
Often	AHF-ten	AHF-en	The T is silent.
Pianist	PEE-uh-nist	pee-AN-ist	PEE-uh-nist is the put-on,

snobby way to say it.

Usurp	OO-surp	yoo-ZURP
Vice-versa	vice-versa	V Y - s u h
VUR-suh	Each word has two syllables.	

English pronunciation tips

- *Tip 1*

Do not confuse pronunciation of words with their spelling! For example, 'threw' and 'through', although spelled differently, are pronounced the same. Also, identical letters or letter clusters in words do not always produce the same sound. For example, the 'ough' in 'though' and 'through' represents a different sound in each word. Learn to practise what you *hear*, not what you *see*.

- *Tip 2*

Imagine a sound in your mind *before you say it*. Try to visualise the positioning of your mouth and face. Think about how you are going to make the sound.

- *Tip 3*

While listening for specific sounds, pay attention to *pauses*, the *intonation* of the instructor's voice and patterns of *emphasis*. This can be just as important as the pronunciation of sounds.

- *Tip 4*

The English language has many different dialects and words can be pronounced differently. It is important, however, that you pronounce words *clearly* to ensure effective communication.

- *Tip 5*

You must *practise* what you are learning! Remember that you are teaching your mouth a new way to move. You are building muscles that you do not use in your own language. It is like going to the

gym and exercising your body. Use the program to exercise your mouth a little bit each day.

Silent letters

Silent letters are letters that you can't hear when you say the word, but that are there when you write the word.

There are no rules, you just have to learn them.

Silent N	*Silent D*	*Silent G*	*Silent U*
Autumn	edge	gnome	guest
damn	hedge	gnarl	guess
hymn	Wednesday	sign	guitar
column	handsome	resign	guard
	handkerchief	design	building
	badge	foreigner	guilty
	wedge		rogue
			vogue
			biscuit
			tongue

Silent H	*Silent T*	*Silent K*	*Silent B*
what	witch	knife	lamb
when	fasten	knee	thumb
why	castle	knot	numb
which	watch	knitting	crumb
whether	butcher	know	climbing
ghost	scratch	knob	bomb

honest	listen	knock	comb
hour	match	knickers	doubt
while	Christmas	knuckle	plumber
white	mortgage	knight	limb
where	soften	knack	debt
rhythm	often	knew	tomb

Silent L	Silent W
almond	wren
palm	wrote
yolk	wrestling
calm	wriggle
salmon	wrinkle
calf	sword
half	whole
chalk	wreck
talk	two
walk	wrap
folk	wrong
	wrist
	writing

- ***Mb*** at the end of a word (silent ***b***), e.g. *comb, lamb, climb*.
- ***Sc*** at the beginning of a word followed by '*e*' or '*i*', (silent ***c***), e.g. *scene, scent, science, scissors* (except for the word '*sceptic*' and its derivations!).
- ***Kn*** (silent ***k***), e.g. ***knife, knock, know.***

- ***Mn*** at the end of a word (silent ***n***), e.g. *damn, autumn, column*
- ***Ps*** at the beginning of a word (silent ***p***), e.g. *psalm, psychiatry, psychology*
- ***Ght*** (silent ***gh***), e.g. *night, ought, taught*
- ***Gn*** at the beginning of a word (silent ***g***), e.g. *gnome, gnaw, gnu*
- ***Bt*** (silent ***b***), e.g. *debt, doubtful, subtle* (but not in some words, e.g. '*obtain*', '*unobtrusive*'!)

The letter ***H*** is silent in the following situations:

- At the end of word preceded by a vowel, e.g. *cheetah, Sarah, messiah*
- Between two vowels, e.g. *annihilate, vehement, vehicle*
- After the letter 'r', e.g. *rhyme, rhubarb, rhythm*
- After the letters 'ex', e.g. *exhausting, exhibition, exhort*.

Many people are perhaps not aware of the astonishing fact that *nearly every letter of the English alphabet is silent in some word*. (Silent letters are also sometimes called mute letters.)

a is silent in *head, bread, deaf, meant*

b is silent in *debt, lamb, bomb, tomb*

c is silent in *muscle, blackguard, yacht, indict*

d is silent in *Wednesday, handkerchief, handbag*

e is silent in *pirate, more, have, give*

f is silent in *stiff, cuff, scoff*

g is silent in *gnaw, gnome, phlegm, straight*

h is silent in *honour, heir, ghost, night*

i is silent in *business, fashion, cushion*

k is silent in *know, knee, knock, blackguard*

l is silent in *talk, folk, salmon, colonel*

m is silent in *mnemonic*

n is silent in *hymn*

o is silent in *leopard, jeopardy*

p is silent in *psalm, pneumatic, cupboard, receipt*

q(u) is silent in *lacquer*

r is silent in *myrrh, catarrh*

s is silent in *isle, aisle, viscount, mess*

t is silent in *often, thistle, fasten, mortgage*

u is silent in *build, guild, plague*

w is silent in *whole, write, sword*

y is silent in *prayer, mayor*

z is silent in *rendezvous*

Mispronounced words

Some words in the English language are often mispronounced when spoken. Here are a few commonly mispronounced words with their correct pronunciations and most common mispronunciations.

- across *(a-CROSS)* - Incorrect: *(a-CROST)*
- athlete *(ATH-leet)* - Incorrect: *(ATH-a-leet)*
- Arctic *(ARC-tic)* - Incorrect: *(AR-tic)*
- comfortable *(COM-fort-a-ble, COMF-ta-ble)* - Incorrect: *(COMF-ter-ble)*
- electoral *(eh-LEK-tor-al)* - Incorrect: *(eh-lek-TOR-al)*

- espresso *(ess-PRESS-oh)* - Incorrect: *(ex-PRESS-oh)*
- February *(FEB-roo-air-y)* - Incorrect: *(Feb-yoo-air-y)*
- figure *(FIG-yer)* - Incorrect: *(fig-er)*
- forte *(FORT)* - Correct only as the music term: *(for-TAY)*
- insouciant *(in-SOO-see-ant)* - Incorrect: *(in-SOO-shant)*
- lambaste *(lam-BASTE)* - Incorrect: *(lam-BAST)*
- library *(LIBE-rare-ee)* - Incorrect: *(LIBE-air-ee)*
- menstruation *(men-stroo-A-shun)* - Incorrect: *(men-STRAY-shun)*
- minuscule *(MIN-uh-skyool)* - Incorrect: *(MIN-ih-skyool)*
- nuclear *(NUKE-lee-ar)* - Incorrect: *(NUKE-yoo-lar)*
- nuptial *(NUP-shul)* - Incorrect: *(NUP-shoo-al)*
- often *(OFF-en)* - Incorrect: *(OFT-en)*
- percolate *(PERC-o-late)* - Incorrect: *(PERC-u-late)*
- plenitude *(PLEN-i-tude)* - Incorrect: *(PLENT-i-tude)*
- probably *(PROB-ab-ly)* - Incorrect: *(PRAH-bal-ly, PROB-ly)*
- pronunciation *(pro-NUN-see-A-shun)* - Incorrect: *(pro-NOUN-see-A-shun)*
- supposedly *(sup-POSE-ed-ly)* - Incorrect: *(sup-POSE-ab-ly)*
- taut *(TAUT)* - Incorrect: *(TAUNT)*
- toward *(TOW-ward)* - Incorrect: *(TOR-ward)*

CHAPTER 3

Vowels

Vowels are formed by retraction of the *back* of the tongue, as in 'f*a*ther' by advancing the *front* of the tongue, as in 'b*i*t' or else they are *mixed*, as in 'b*ir*d', in which the tongue is in a position half-way between back and front. By height they are *high*, as in 'h*i*t', *mid*, as in 'h*a*te' or *low*, as in 'h*a*t'. The vowels of these three words are all front, but the distinctions of height apply to back and mixed vowels as well. Thus the *u* of 'full' is high-back, just as that of 'hit' is high front. All these vowels may be further modified by labialisation or *rounding*. Thus, if the *ee* of 'feel' is pronounced with narrowed lip-opening, we obtain the French *u* in 'lune' - the high-front-round. There are besides other modifications caused by the shape of the tongue itself.

Of the large number of possible vowels only a small proportion is employed in each language.

Again, among the special vowels of any one language we must distinguish between those differences, which are *distinctive*, that is, to which differences of meaning correspond and those which are not. Thus the first elements of the diphthongs in 'by' and 'out' vary considerably: some people sound them broad as in 'f*a*ther', some thin, as in 'm*a*n', with various intermediate sounds. And yet the meaning of the words remains unchanged. The distinction between the vowels of 'men' and 'man', on the other hand, though really slighter than that of the different pronunciations of 'by' and 'out', is a distinctive one.

It often happens that two sounds, though formed in different ways, have nearly the same effect on the ear. Thus the English vowel in '*ur*n' is formed in a totally different way from the French one in 'p*eu*r', the former being an unrounded, the latter a rounded vowel and yet they are hardly distinguishable by an untrained ear. The consequence is that two such vowels are never employed together in the same language to distinguish the meanings of words and for practical purposes they may be considered as variations of the same vowel. Hence we have to distinguish not so much between *sounds* as between *groups of sounds*. One of the most important distinctions of these groups is that of 'close' and 'open', the open vowels being generally formed by a 'low' position of the tongue or by some other widening of the mouth passage.

Disregarding special exceptions in individual languages, we may assume the following as the chief distinctive groups in language generally:

Unrounded.

(1) the dull-back,	b*u*t.
(2) the clear-back,	f*a*ther.
(3) the mixed[a],	t*ur*n, fath*er*, gab*e* (German).
(4) the high-front,	b*i*t, b*ea*t.
(5) the close-front,	*été* (French).
(6) the open-front,	m*e*n, m*a*re, m*a*n.

Rounded.

(7) high-back,	f*u*ll, f*oo*l.
(8) close-back,	s*o* (German).
(9) open-back,	f*o*lly, f*a*ll.
(10) high-front,	l*u*ne (French).

(11) close-front, p*eu* (French).

(12) open-front, p*eu*r (French).

Diphthongs are, of course, symbolised by the juxtaposition of their elements. The following are the English diphthongs: -

ai	*as in*	*ai*sle.
au	"	n*ow*.
oi	"	b*oi*l.
ei	"	v*ei*l.
ou	"	s*ou*l.

Diphthongs in all languages vary greatly in their constituents and the above combinations must be understood as simply denoting general tendencies. Thus *ai* does not literally imply a combination of the *a* in 'father' and the *i* in 'bit', but merely a movement in that direction. We may start, not with a full-back vowel, but with a mixed one, which may move towards *i*, but without reaching it: in fact the commonest pronunciation of 'aisle' may be represented by *el*. In the same way *ei* only implies a front vowel moving upwards and, as a matter of fact, the starting-point may be either a close or open *e* or even the *a* of 'man'. Indeed *ei* often begins with a mixed vowel, in which case 'veil' is confounded with 'vile'.

Note that *ei* and *ou* in English supply the place of close long *ee* and *oo*, which most English people are unable to pronounce.

ii and *uu* are often diphthongised in a peculiar way in English, by being made to end in the consonants *y* and *w* respectively, *wiin* (ween) and *fuul* (fool) becoming *wiyn* and *fuwl*.

Having thus laid a general foundation, we may proceed to discuss some special modifications required in English.

As there is no short or close *e* or *o* in English, it is superfluous to use *æ* and to denote the quality of sounds whose openness is always implied by their shortness. We can, therefore, discard altogether in English and employ *æ* to denote the peculiar *a* in 'man',

for which it would otherwise be difficult to find an appropriate letter.

The longs of *æ* and be expressed, as with the other vowels, by doubling - *ææ,* . But as this is inconvenient and as is not used in English, it is better to denote the long of *æ* by *ae*, the separation of the letters implying length. Long may, on this analogy, be denoted by *ao*.

The vowel in 'turn' is open-mixed, that in 'gabe' close-mixed.

R AND ITS MODIFICATIONS.

The consonant *r* in English only occurs before a vowel, either in the same or the next word, as in 'erring' (eriq), 'far off' (faar aof). When not followed by a vowel, that is, either by a pause or a consonant, it is weakened into - the *er* of 'father'. After *aa* and *∂∂* 'the' *∂*is absorbed, as in 'bar' (baa), 'farther' (faadh*∂*), 'her' (hoe), 'heard' (hoed), the first two being indistinguishable from 'baa' and 'father'. *∂*is sometimes dropped after *ao*, especially before a consonant, as in 'floor', 'floored', although the full *flao∂*, *flao∂d* are most usual in careful speech, especially when the *∂* is final. After other vowels *∂* is preserved throughout, also when the *r* is sounded as a full consonant: compare 'air' (ae*∂*), 'aired' (ae*∂*d) and 'airy' (aeri) with 'far off' (faar aof), 'her own' (hoer oun) and 'flooring' (flaoriq).

The following table will give a general idea of these changes: -

faar aof (far off)	faa	faadh*∂* (farther).
hoer oun (her own)	hoe	hoed (heard).
fii*∂*riq (fearing)	fii*∂*	fii*∂*d (feared).
ae*∂*riq (airing)	ae*∂*	ae*∂*d (aired).
muu*∂*riq (mooring)	muu*∂*	muu*∂*d (moored).
flaoriq (flooring)	flao*∂*	flao*∂*d (floored).
fai*∂*riq (firing)	fai*∂*	fai*∂*d (fired).

flauəri (flowery, floury)	flauə	flauəd (flowered).
leiəriq (layering)	leiə	leiəd (layered).
louəriq (lowering)	louə	louəd (lowered).

Note that *eiə(r)* and *ouə(r)* in rapid, especially in vulgar speech, often pass into *aeə(r)* and *aoə(r)*.

When *r* is preceded by a short vowel, as in 'hurry' (həri), 'merry' (meri), no ə is generated.

Unaccented vowels

The two chief unaccented vowels in English are ə and *i*, together with the rarer *o*. The former may be regarded as a shortened *oe*, as in 'her', into which it always passes when emphasised or prolonged, but it is really nothing but a voice murmur without any definite configuration. The *i* is an intermediate vowel between *i* and *e* and might as well be written *e* as *i*. It may be regarded either as a very open *i* or a very close *e*.

The following are examples of ə: -

ətemt (attempt), əpouz (oppose), əpon (upon), tədei (to-day).

soufə (sofa), menshən (mention), peishəns (patience), kærət (carrot).

faadhə (father), onə (honour), mezhə (measure).

faowəd (forward), shepəd (shepherd).

feivərit (favourite), mezhəriq (measuring).

ə is often dropped before *l*, *n* and *m*, always when the ə is preceded by *t* or *d* and followed by *l* or *n*:-

metl (metal), gaadn (garden), gaadniq (gardening), mətn (mutton).

iivl (evil), loukl (local), simbl (cymbal, symbol).

When two or more unaccented ə s or *i* s follow one another, one of

them is often thrown out, as in -

hist(∂)ri (history), feiv(∂)rit (favourite), vedzh{∂/i}t∂bl (vegetable).

i is less common than ∂. It is most usual as a weakening of front vowels, especially when *i* or *y* is written: -

piti (pity), m∂ndi (Monday).

divaid (divide), ditekt (detect).

ræbit (rabbit), fishiz (fishes), ∂biliti (ability).

It is the regular unaccented vowel before *dzh*, even when *a* is written: -

vilidzh (village), kæridzh (carriage), kolidzh (college).

In rapid speech *i* is apt to pass into ∂, except when final.

Unaccented *o* in ordinary speech is simply ∂rounded. When dwelt on it becomes *ou*. Examples are -

pteito (potato), folo (follow), felo (fellow).

In rapid speech this *o* passes into ∂.

These vowels occur also in unaccented monosyllables. Compare 'a man' (∂ mæn) with 'against' (∂genst), 'to go' (t∂ gou) with 'today' (t∂ dei), 'for all' (f∂r aol) with 'forgive' (f∂giv), 'of course' (∂v kao∂s) with 'offence' (∂fens).

the and *to* have two distinct unaccented forms. Before consonants they both have ∂, while before vowels they assume the fuller forms *dhi* and *tu:* -

dh∂ mæn (the man), dhi en∂ mi (the enemy).

t∂ gou (to go), tu ent∂ (to enter).

Consonants

As regards the use of the letters there can be no question about

the values of the following: - b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, z.

This leaves *c, j, q, x* undisposed of. We also have *y*, which is not required as a vowel-symbol in English. If we allow *y* to retain its present value, we can also retain *j* as a convenient abbreviation of *dzh*. For *tsh* we have *ch*, which, by the omission of the superfluous *h*, can be reduced simply to *c*. We thus have *c* and *j* perfectly parallel. *q* may very well be taken to represent the back nasal *ng*. *X* lastly, if employed at all, must in consistency be extended to all *ks* in the language, not only in such words as *six*, but also in *rex* (wrecks), *cex* (cheques) and c.

These contractions fully counterbalance the necessity of retaining the digraphs *th* and *sh*, to which must of course be added *dh* and *zh*. *Wh* is very generally made into *w* in Southern English, but it is well to keep up the distinction on the chance of its being afterwards revived. The breath *yh* sometimes occurs in such words as 'hue' (yhuu), more commonly, however, pronounced *hyuu*, with a separate *h* before the *y*.

Consonants are often dropped in English. Thus the *h* of the personal pronouns is generally dropped when they come after a verb and are unaccented, as in *ai sao im* (I saw him). *Saw her* and *soar* are both pronounced *sao*. The *d* of *and* is generally dropped before a consonant, as in *ct n cm gen* (cut and come again), where the vowel is dropped also on account of the *t* and *n*.

Assimilations also occur in rapid speech. Thus, many people who pronounce the *q* of 'going' and c. quite distinctly in most cases, regularly change the back into the point nasal (n), when it is followed by a point consonant (t, d, n), as in *gouin t* ... (going to ...). In *I can't go* the *t* is generally dropped and the point nasal is often assimilated to the *g* by being made into the back nasal *q* - *ai kaaq gou*.

CHAPTER 4

Stress in English Language

Try this short exercise

Say this sentence aloud and count how many seconds it takes.

The beautiful Mountain appeared transfixed in the distance.

Time required? Probably about 5 seconds. Now, try speaking this sentence aloud.

He can come on Sundays as long as he doesn't have to do any homework in the evening.

Time required? Probably about 5 seconds.

Wait a minute the first sentence is much shorter than the second sentence!

The beautiful Mountain appeared transfixed in the distance

He can come on Sundays as long as he doesn't have to do any homework in the evening

You are only partially right.

This simple exercise makes a very important point about how we speak and use English. Namely, English is considered a stressed language while many other languages are considered syllabic. What does that mean? It means that, in English, we give stress to certain words while other words are quickly spoken (some students

say eaten!). In other languages, such as French or Italian, each syllable receives equal importance (there is stress, but each syllable has its own length).

Many speakers of syllabic languages don't understand why we quickly speak or swallow, a number of words in a sentence. In syllabic languages each syllable has equal importance and therefore equal time is needed. English however, spends more time on specific stressed words while quickly gliding over the other, less important, words.

Let's look at a simple example: the modal verb 'can'. When we use the positive form of 'can' we quickly glide over the can and it is hardly pronounced.

<u>They</u> can <u>come</u> on <u>Friday</u>. (stressed words underlined)

On the other hand, when we use the negative form 'can't' we tend to stress the fact that it is the negative form by also stressing 'can't'.

<u>They</u> <u>can't</u> <u>come</u> on <u>Friday</u>.

As you can see from the above example the sentence, 'They can't come on Friday' is longer than 'They can come on Friday' because both the modal 'can't' and the verb 'come' are stressed.

So, what does this mean for your speaking skills?

Well, first of all, you need to understand which words we generally stress and which we do not stress. Basically, stress words are considered *Content Words such* as:

- Nouns e.g. kitchen, Peter
- (most) principle verbs e.g. visit, construct
- Adjectives e.g. beautiful, interesting
- Adverbs e.g. often, carefully

Non-stressed words are considered *Function Words* such as

- Determiners e.g. the, a, some, a few

- Auxiliary verbs e.g. don't, am, can, were
- Prepositions e.g. before, next to, opposite
- Conjunctions e.g. but, while, as
- Pronouns e.g. they, she, us

Let's return to the beginning example to demonstrate how this affects speech.

The beautiful Mountain appeared transfixed in the distance. (14 syllables)

He can come on Sundays as long as he doesn't have to do any homework in the evening. (22 syllables)

Even though the second sentence is approximately 30% longer than the first, the sentences take the same time to speak. This is because there are 5 *stressed* words in *each* sentence. From this example, you can see that you needn't worry about pronouncing every word clearly to be understood. You should however, concentrate on pronouncing the *stressed* words clearly.

Now, do some listening comprehension or go speak to your native English speaking friends and listen to how they concentrate on the stressed words rather than giving importance to each syllable. You will soon find that you can understand and communicate more because you begin to listen for (and use in speaking) stressed words. All those words that you thought you didn't understand are really not crucial for understanding the sense or making yourself understood. *Stressed words* are the key to excellent pronunciation and understanding of English.

Short Vowels	*Long Vowels*	*Digraphs 2 Letters 1 Sound*	*R Controlled Vowels*	*DIPH THON -GS 2 letters 2 Sounds*
short a	long a	ai	ar	ou
short e	long e	ee	er	oo -

			long	
short i	long i	ie	ir	oo - short
short o	long o	oa	or	ew
short u	long u	ea (2)	ur	ow - long
		ay		ow - short
		au		oi
		aw		oy

a pronounced in the alphabet as ***ay*** (as in the word mate)

e pronounced in the alphabet as ***ee*** (as in the word edict)

i pronounced in the alphabet as ***ei*** (as in the word life)

o pronounced in the alphabet as ***oh*** (as in the word only)

u pronounced in the alphabet as ***yu*** (as in the word union)

y pronounced in the alphabet as why is usually considered to be a consonant (as in yet). But it also is used as a vowel (as in merry) and then functions as a letter i.

The vowel ***a*** may be pronounced:

1. a as in apple (short a)

2. a as in father (long a)

3. ay as in mate (peculiarly English a)

4. as a schwa*. 5. 'e' as in many. 6. 'aw' as in mall.

7. 'o' as in alter. 8. 'eh' as in Mary.

The vowel ***e*** may be pronounced:

1. e as in get (short e)

2. e as in beta ["bay-ta"] (long e)

3. ee as in edict (peculiarly English e)

4. as a schwa*. 5. "uh" as in mercy. 6. or it may be silent as in life.

The vowel ***i*** may be pronounced:

1. i as in pit (short i)

2. i as in machine (long i)

3. ei as in life (peculiarly English i)

4. as a "schwa"

The vowel ***o*** may be pronounced:

1. o as in font (short o)

2. oh as in only (long o)

3. "uh" as in some. 4. as a schwa*

The vowel ***u*** may be pronounced:

1. u as in full (short u)

2. u as in brute (long u)

3. yu as in union (peculiarly English u)

4. "uh" as in cup

*a schwa is an unstressed vowel such as the a in comma, e in model, second o in common, i as in one American pronunciation of mobile [***mob***'uh'l], all pronounced as 'uh' by many speakers.

Consonant sounds

B, sounds almost as sharp as *p* in English.

Bh, is like *v*, sometimes the sound of *bh* in the middle and at the end of certain words is like *u* and sometimes it is silent.

F, is like *f* in English.

Fh, is silent, except in the three words *fhéin*, *fhuair*, *fhathast*, when it has the sound of *h*.

M, is like *m* in English.

Mh, is like *v* and more nasal than *bh*. It is silent in the middle and end of some words and gives a nasal sound to the vowel. In some districts it has the sound of *u*, as, *samhradh*, pronounced *sauradh*.

P, is like *p* in English.

Ph, is like *f* in English.

C, is always hard, before a, o, u, it has the sound of *c* in *can*, after a, o, u, it has the same sound in some districts, as, *cnoc*, like *ck* in *lock*, but more generally the sound of *chk*, before e, i and after i, like *c* in *came*.

Ch, preceded or followed by a, o. u, has a gutteral sound like *ch* in *loch*, in contact with e, i, it has a more slender sound.

Chd, has the sound of *chk*, as *luchd*, pronounced *luchk*.

G, has a flatter sound than *c*, before and after a, o. u, it is like *g* in *got*, in contact with e, i, it sounds nearly like *g* in *get*.

Gh, is flatter than *ch*, before and after e, i, it has the sound of *y* in English, in contact with a, o, u, it has a broader sound. In the middle and end of certain words it is silent.

T, has a flatter sound that *t* in English, when preceded or followed by a, o. u, the sound is like *th* in *than* but stronger and is produced by putting the point of the tongue against or between the teeth, in contact with e, i, it has the sound of *ch* in *chin*.

Th, beginning a word has the sound of *h*, silent in the pronoun *thu* and in certain tenses of irregular verbs when preceded by d'. In the middle of some words it has a slight aspiration, in others it is silent.

D, is the flat sound of *t*, in the same position it has almost same sound as *t*, but softer.

Dh, is equal to *gh* in the same position.

S, in contact with a, o. u, is like *s* in English, before or after e, i, like *sh*, after t- (with hyphen) it is silent.

Sh, has the sound of *h*.

L, before or after a, o. u and *ll* after a, o, u, have a flatter sound than *l* in English and is produced by pressing the point of the tongue against the teeth as in the word *that*, in contact with e, i, the sound is like *ll* in *million*. It has a simple sound after i and when aspirated it is like *l* in English.

N, in conjunction with a, o. u, is like *n* in English, *m* has a flatter sound, with e, i, it has a slender sound like *n* in *pinion*, *n* aspirated has the sound of *n* in English, after c, g, m, t, it resembles the sound of *r*.

R, rr, like *r* in English.

Monosyllables ending in *lb*, *lbh*, *lg*, *lm*, *nm*, *rg*, *rb*, *rbh*, *rm*, are sounded as two syllables, thus, *fearg* (fearug), *dealbh* (dealuv), *marbh* (maruv).

The letters *l*, *n*, have an aspirated sound, though the aspirate letter is not used, so also has *r* though much slighter.

English is not phonetic

Always remember that English is not 'phonetic'. That means that we do not always say a word the same way that we spell it.

Some words can have the same spelling but different pronunciation, for example:

I like to read [ri:d].

I have read [red] that book.

Some words have different spelling but the same pronunciation, for example:

I have read [red] that book.

My favourite colour is red [red].

Word stress

Word stress is your magic key to understanding spoken English. Native speakers of English use word stress naturally. Word stress is so natural for them that they don't even know they use it. Non-native speakers who speak English to native speakers without using word stress, encounter two problems:

1. They find it difficult to understand native speakers, especially those speaking fast.

2. The native speakers may find it difficult to understand them.

Three kinds of word stress

1. Syllables with primary stress are in uppercase.

2. Syllables with secondary stress are in lowercase.

3. Syllables with reduced stress have a line through them.

- INtellect
- exPOnent
- transPARent
- OScilate
- eQUIPment
- preLIminary

Each unstressed vowel has a line through it. Each syllable with primary stress is in uppercase.

1. METHəd

2. RANdəm

3. STAtəs

4. cəmPOnent

5. VErəfy

6. maTErial
7. phiLOsophy
8. inDIgenous
9. CHALlenge
10. deFIcient
11. exPLIcit
12. inCORporate

- A multi-syllable word has a prominent syllable. This is called a stressed syllable.
- Stressed syllable is longer in duration, higher in pitch and louder in volume.
- Duration is the primary attribute to the prominence of a syllable.
- Usually 2 syllable nouns (90%+) have the stress on the first syllable. 2 syllable verbs (60%+) have the stress on the second.
- Except for the compounds, stressed syllables in words with more than 2 syllables never stand next to each other (Stressed syllables and weak syllables alternate).

When a word has more than one syllable, one is more prominent than the others. When this happens, we say that the syllable has a stress or that it is stressed. In the following examples, stressed syllables are expressed with *italics*.

word	***pattern***
tea.cher	• .
beau.ti.ful	• . .
un.der.*stand*	. . •
con.*ti*.nue	. • .

con.*ti*.nu.*a*.tion . • . • .

black.board • •

When a syllable is stressed, it is pronounced:

- longer in duration
- higher in pitch and
- louder in volume

Two-syllable words

noun	*verb*
produce	pervert
record	convert
present	conflict
conduct	project
contrast	contract

Three-syllable words

• . .	. • .	• . •
in.stru.ment	com.*mer*.cial	*ar*.ti.*choke*
ca.len.dar	va.*nil*.la	*hur*.ri.*cane*
cu.ri.ous	de.*ve*.lop	*ap*.pe.*tite*
sen.ti.ment	as.*to*.nish	*cro*.co.*dile*
do.cu.ment	op.*po*.nent	*con*.gre.*gate*

Four-syllable words

• . .	. • .
pos.si.bi.li.ty	com.*mer*.cial
ca.len.dar	va.*nil*.la

cu.ri.ous de.*ve*.lop

sen.ti.ment as.*to*.nish

do.cu.ment op.*po*.nent

Sentence stress in English

Sentence stress is the music of spoken English. Like word stress, sentence stress can help you to understand spoken English, especially when spoken fast.

Sentence stress is what gives English its rhythm or 'beat'.

You remember that word stress is accent on one syllable within a word.

Sentence stress is accent on certain words within a sentence.

Most sentences have two types of word:

1.content words

2.structure words

Content words are the key words of a sentence. They are the important words that carry the meaning or sense.

Structure words are not very important words. They are small, simple words that make the sentence correct grammatically. They give the sentence its correct form or 'structure'.

If you remove the structure words from a sentence, you will probably still understand the sentence.

If you remove the content words from a sentence, you will not understand the sentence. The sentence has no sense or meaning.

Imagine that you receive this telegram message:

Will you SELL me CAR because I'm GONE to FRANCE

This sentence is not complete. It is not a 'grammatically correct' sentence. But you probably understand it. These 4 words com-

municate very well. *Somebody wants you to sell their car for them because they have gone to France.* We can add a few words:

Will you SELL my CAR because I've GONE to FRANCE

The new words do not really add any more information. But they make the message more correct grammatically. We can add even more words to make one complete, grammatically correct sentence. But the information is the same:

Content Words

Will you SELL my CAR because I've GONE to FRA -NCE.

Structure Words

In our sentence, the 4 *key words* (sell, car, gone, France) are accentuated or *stressed*.

Why is this important for pronunciation? It is important because it adds 'music' to the language. It is the *rhythm* of the English language. It changes the speed at which we speak (and listen to) the language. *The time between each stressed word is the same.*

In our sentence, there is *1 syllable* between SELL and CAR and *3 syllables* between CAR and GONE. <u>But the *time* (*t*) between SELL and CAR and between CAR and GONE is the same.</u> We maintain a constant beat on the stressed words. To do this, we say 'my' more *slowly* and 'because I've' more *quickly*. <u>We change the speed of the small structure words so that the rhythm of the key content words stays the same.</u>

syllables

2 1 3 1

Will -you -SELL -my -CAR -because -I've -GONE -to- FRA NCE

beat -t1 -beat -t1 -beat -t1 -beat

Rules for sentence stress in English

The basic rules of sentence stress are:

1. content words are stressed
2. structure words are unstressed
3. the time between stressed words is always the same

The following tables can help you decide which words are *content words* and which words are *structure words*:

Content words

Words carrying the meaning	*Example*
main verbs	SELL, GIVE, EMPLOY
Nouns	CAR, MUSIC, MARY
adjectives	RED, BIG, INTERESTING
Adverbs	QUICKLY, LOUDLY, NEVER
negative auxiliaries	DON'T, AREN'T, CAN'T

Structure words

Words for correct grammar	*Example*
pronouns	he, we, they
prepositions	on, at, into
Articles	a, an, the
conjunctions	and, but, because
auxiliary verbs	do, be, have, can, must
'to be' as a main verb	is, are, was

Exceptions

The above rules are for what is called 'neutral' or normal stress.

But sometimes we can stress a word that would normally be only a structure word, for example to correct information.

Look at the following dialogue:

"Have you seen ET?"

"No, ***I*** haven't, but ***he*** has."

CHAPTER 5

List of English Symbols

The following table gives a complete list of the English vowel symbols, together with those consonant ones which require elucidation, with examples.

Vowels

- ***aa***: pap*a*, f*a*r, gl*a*ss, *a*fter, *au*nt. [Before *s* and *f* or before two (pronounced) consonants *aa* is sometimes shortened and sometimes becomes *æ*: *glæs, ænt*.]
- ***æ***: m*a*n.
- ***ae***: *ae*rate, b*ea*r, f*a*re. [Always followed by.]
- ***ai***: Is*ai*ah, *ai*sle, w*i*ne.
- ***ao***: extr*ao*rdinary, br*oa*d, m*o*re.
- ***au***: F*au*st, n*ow*, n*ou*n.
- ***e***: r*e*d.
- ***ei***: th*ey*, v*ei*l, n*a*me.
- ***i***: *i*ll, fish*e*s.
- ***ii, iy***: mach*i*ne, f*ee*l.
- ***o***: n*o*t, cl*o*th, cr*o*ss, s*o*ft. [Often becomes *ao* before *th, s* and *f*: *klaoth, kraos, saoft*.]

- ***oi***: b*oy*, b*oi*l.
- ***ou***: fl*ow*, s*ou*l, st*o*ne.
- ***u***: f*u*ll, p*u*t, g*oo*d.
- ***uu, uw***: tr*u*th, r*ue*, f*oo*l.
- : *u*p, c*o*me, fath*er*, h*ere*.
- ***oe***: h*er*, t*ur*n, h*ear*d.

CONSONANTS.

- ***c***: *ch*ur*ch*, ca*tch*.
- ***dh***: *th*en, wi*th*.
- ***j***: *j*u*dg*e, *g*entle.
- ***q***: si*ng*, fi*n*ger.
- ***sh***: fi*sh*.
- ***th***: *th*ink.
- ***x***: si*x*, wre*cks*.
- ***y***: *y*oung.
- ***zh***: rou*ge*, plea*s*ure.

PHONETIC VALUES OF 'HETERIC' VOWEL COMBINATIONS

Most combinations of vowel symbols in the present 'heteric' spelling have more than one phonetic value in any given accent of English. Some have numerous possible sound values. Following is the list of combinations of vowels:

- ***a:*** [ei] in hating, [a:] in father, [o:] in water, [e] in many, [æ] in hat, [o] in want, [] in brilliant, [e] in various, [i] in village
- ***ae:*** [i:] in minutiae, [e] in aerial, [ei] in Israel

- ***ai:*** [ei] in sail, [e] in said, [æ] in plait, [eii] in dais, [ai] in aisle, [aii:] in naive
- ***ao:*** [ei] in gaol, [eio] in chaos, [u] in pharaoh
- ***au:*** [ei] in gauging, [a:] in aunt, [o:] in haul, [u] in chauffeur, [o] in laurel
- ***aw:*** [o:] in awful
- ***ay:*** [ei] in pray, [e] in says
- ***e:*** [i:] in be, [i] in pretty, [e] in let, [] in open
- ***ea:*** [i:] in heal, [ei] in great, [i] in guineas, [e] in head, [i:æ] in react, [i] in area, [i:ei] creator
- ***eau:*** [u] in beau, [ju:] in beautiful
- ***ee:*** [i:] in feet, [i] breeches
- ***ei:*** [i:] in conceive, [ei] in veil, [i] in forfeit
- ***eo:*** [i:] in people, [u] yeoman, [i] in galleon, [e] in leopard, [] in dungeon, [i:] in theologian, [i:o] in theology
- ***eu:*** [ju:] in feud, [i:ju:] in reunion
- ***ew:*** [u] in sew, [u:] in brew, [ju:] in new
- ***ey:*** [i:] in key, [ei] in they, [i] in turkey, [ai] in eying
- ***i:*** [i] in sin, [ai] in bind, [j] in onion
- ***ia:*** [] in parliament, [iei] in mediate, [i] in carriage, [aiei] in hiatus, [iæ] in triviality, [j] in Britannia
- ***ie:*** [i:] in grief, [i] in sieve, [e] in friend, [ai] in lie, [i:i] in earliest, [ai] in science, [] in conscience
- ***ieu:*** [u:] in lieu, [ef] (!) in lieutenant
- ***iew:*** [ju:] in view
- ***io:*** [] in motion, [iu] in mediocre, [io] in mediocrity, [ai] in violation, [aio] in ionic, [j] in million

- ***o:*** [u] in go, [u:] in do, [i] in women, [o] in on, [] in son, [u] in woman, [] in colonel
- ***oa:*** [o:] in broad, [u] in coal, [uei] in oasis, [uæ] in coagulate
- ***oe:*** [i:] in foetus, [u] in doe, [u:] in shoe, [] in does, [ui] in poet
- ***oeu:*** [u:] in manoeuvre
- ***oi:*** [wa:] in chamois, [] in connoisseur, [oi] in noisy, [ui] in stoic, [u:i] in doing
- ***oo:*** [u] in brooch, [u:] in brood, [] in flood, [u] in wood, [u:] in zoological, [u:o] in zoology
- ***ou:*** [o:] in ought, [u] in soul, [u:] in soup, [o] in cough, [] in doubling, [u] in would, [au] in noun, [] in various
- ***ow:*** [u] in know, [o] in knowledge, [au] in now
- ***oy:*** [oi] in boy
- ***u:*** [u:] in rule, [i] in busy, [e] in bury, [] in cut, [u] in pull, [ju:] in using, [w] in persuade
- ***ua:*** [a:] in guard, [wei] in persuasion, [wa:] in guano
- ***uay:*** [i:] in quay
- ***ue:*** [u:] in true, [e] in guess, [u] in cruel, [ju] in duel
- ***eue:*** [u:] in queue
- ***ui:*** [i:] in mosquito, [u:] in fruit, [i] in build, [ai] in guiding, [wi] in languid, [wi:] in suite, [u:i] in fruition
- ***uoy:*** [oi] in buoy
- ***y:*** [i] in marry, [:] in myrrh, [ai] in fly
- ***ye:*** [ai] in dye, [ai:] in hyena

The vowel sounds of English all have several different symbolisations in the present heteric orthography.

- ***[a:]*** a in father, au in aunt, ar in card, er in clerk, ear in heart, uar in guard
- ***[e]*** a in many, ai in said, ay in says, e in let, ea in head, eo in leopard, ie in friend, u in bury, ue in guess
- ***[i]*** e in pretty, ea in guineas, ee in breeches, ei in forfeit, i in pit, ia in marriage, ie in sieve, o in woman, u in busy, ui in build, y in physics, ey in money
- ***[o]*** a in want, au in laurel, o in on, ou in cough, ow in knowledge
- ***[u]*** o in woman, oo in wood, ou in would, u in bull
- ***[æ]*** a in sat, ai in plait
- ***[]*** u in humble, o in son, oe in does, oo in flood, ou in double
- ***[i:]*** ae in minutiae, e in be, ea in each, eae in fleaed, ee in feet, ei in conceit, eo in people, ey in key, eye in keyed, oe in foetus, ie in grief, i in magazine, uay in quay, ui in mosquito
- ***[o:]*** a in fall, aor in extraordinary, au in haul, aw in awful or in fork, oa in broad, ou in ought
- ***[u:]*** ew in brew, ewe in brewed, eu in rheumatic, o in do, oe in shoe, oeu in manoeuvre, oo in too, ooe in wooed, ou in soup, u in ruling, ue in true, ui in fruit, wo in two
- ***[ai]*** a in naive, ai in aisle, ei in height, ey in eying, i in bind, ie in die, ui in guide, uy in buy, y in fly, ye in dye
- ***[au]*** ou in noun, ow in cow, owe in allowed
- ***[ei]*** a in mating, ai in pain, ao in gaol, au in gauging, ay in play, aye in played, ea in great, ei in veil, ey in they, eye in conveyed
- ***[oi]*** oi in noisy, oy in boy, oye in enjoyed, uoy in buoy, uoye in buoyed

- *[u]* ao in pharaoh, au in chauffeur, eau in beau, eo in yeoman, ew in sew, ewe in sewed, o in post, oa in oats, oe in doe, oo in brooch, ou in soul, ow in know
- *[]* a in brilliant, eo in dungeon, io in cushion, o in motion, iou in conscious, oi in tortoise, eu in amateur, u in suffice, oa in cupboard, ou in viscous, e in condiment

Phonetic value of heteric consonant combinations

Nearly all-consonant combinations in the present heteric spelling have multiple sound values, despite the fact that defenders of this spelling point to the consonant letters as having fairly constant values.

- ***b:*** [b] in be, mute in lamb
- ***c:*** [k] in can, [s] in cell, [S] in special, mute in yacht
- ***ch:*** [tS] in chain, [dZ] in spinach, [k] in architect, [S] in chef, mute in yacht
- ***d:*** [t] in sucked, [d] in deep, [dZ] in soldier, mute in handkerchief
- ***f:*** [f] in foe, [v] in of, mute in stiff
- ***g:*** [dZ] in gem, [g] in geese, [Z] in rouge, mute in gnaw
- ***gh:*** [p] in hiccough, [g] in ghost, [f] in laugh, mute in straight
- ***h:*** [h] in hat, [] in eighth
- ***j:*** [dZ] in just
- ***k:*** [k] in kill, mute in know
- ***l:*** [l] in lace, mute in salmon
- ***m:*** [m] in am, mute in mnemonics
- ***n:*** [n] in can, [] in finger, mute in hymn
- ***p:*** [p] in pity, mute in cupboard

- ***ph:*** [f] in philosophy, [p] in shepherd, [ph] in haphazard, mute in phthisical
- ***qu:*** [k] in quay, [kw] in queen, mute in lacquer
- ***r:*** [r] in ray, mute in myrrh
- ***s:*** [s] in see, [z] in as, [S] in sugar, [Z] in vision, mute in isle
- ***sh:*** [S] in shine, [sh] in mishap
- ***t:*** [t] in toe, [S] in motion, mute in soften
- ***th:*** [t] in thyme, [] in thigh, [] in the, [t] in eighth
- ***v:*** [v] in veal
- ***x:*** [z] in xylophone, [ks] in vex, [gz] in exalt, [k] in except
- ***y:*** [j] in yard, mute in prayer
- ***z:*** [ts] in pizza, [z] in zeal, [Z] in azure, mute in rendezvous.

English phonetic spelling

When speaking on the telephone, it is sometimes useful to spell a word using English Phonetic Spelling. To spell 'Club', for example, you would say: 'C for Charlie, L for Lima, U for Uniform, B for Bravo'.

A	Alpha	***J***	Juliet	***S***	Sierra
B	Bravo	***K***	Kilo	***T***	Tango
C	Charlie	***L***	Lima	***U***	Uniform
D	Delta	***M***	Mike	***V***	Victor
E	Echo	***N***	November	***W***	Whisky
F	Foxtrot	***O***	Oscar	***X***	X-ray
G	Golf	***P***	Papa	***Y***	Yankee
H	Hotel	***Q***	Quebec	***Z***	Zulu

I	India	*R*	Romeo

It is very easy to learn English Phonetic Spelling. Start by spelling your name, then your company or address. Soon, you will know the whole alphabet. It also helps to remember that there are several groups of words that go together:

- *Dances:* Foxtrot, Tango
- *Shakespeare:* Romeo and Juliet
- *Men's first names:* Charlie, Mike, Oscar, Victor
- *Cities:* Lima, Quebec

CHAPTER 6

CONVERSATION

Using dialogues to help anybody develop their conversation skills is common practice in English. One of the main advantages to using dialogues is that people are given a rubric as a basis on which they can then build. Once they have become comfortable using a dialogue, they can then go on to have related conversations building on their familiarity with the dialogue and the vocabulary specific to the situation.

Here are links to various dialogues, which can use in the daily life. Each dialogue is presented in full and focuses on a specific topic.

INTRODUCTIONS

A. Hello. My name's Peter. What's your name?

B. Janet.

A. Where are you from Janet?

B. I'm from Seattle. Where are you from?

A. I'm from Madrid.

B. Are you American?

A. Yes, I am. Are you Spanish?

B. Yes I am.

Hello and goodbye - three short conversations

Hello

A. Hello, Peter. How are you?

B. Fine, thanks. How are you?

A. I'm fine, thank you.

Goodbye

A. Goodbye, Janet. See you tomorrow!

B. Bye bye, Peter. Have a nice evening.

A. Thanks, you too!

B. Thanks.

What time is it? - I

A. Excuse me. Can you tell me the time, please?

B. Yes, of course. It's seven o'clock.

A. Thank you.

B. No problem.

What time is it? - II

A. What time is it?

B. It's half past three.

A. Thanks.

B. You're welcome.

Shopping for a sweater

A. Can I help you?

B. Yes, I'm looking for a sweater.

A. What size are you?

B. I'm an extra large.

A. How about this one?

B. Yes, that's nice. Can I try it on?

A. Certainly, there's the changing room over there.

B. Thank you.

A. How does it fit?

B. It's too large. Do you have a smaller size?

A. Yes, here you are.

B. Thank you. I'll have it, please.

A. OK, how would you like to pay?

B. Do you take credit cards?

A. Yes, we do. Visa, Master Card and American Express.

B. OK, here's my Visa.

A. Thank you. Have a nice day!

B. Thank you, goodbye.

Checking in

A. Good morning. Can I have your ticket, please?

B. Here you are.

A. Thank you. Would you like smoking or non-smoking?

B. Non-smoking, please.

A. Would you like a window or an aisle seat?

B. An aisle seat, please.

A. Do you have any baggage?

B. Yes, this suitcase and this carry-on bag.

A. Here's your boarding pass. Have a nice flight.

B. Thank you.

Passport control

A. Good morning. Can I see your passport?

B. Here you are.

A. Thank you very much. Are you a tourist or on business?

B. I'm a tourist.

A. That's fine. Have a pleasant stay.

B. Thank you.

Directions I

A. Excuse me. Is there a bank near here?

B. Yes. There's a bank on the corner.

A. Thank you.

B. You're welcome.

Directions II

A. Excuse me. Is there a supermarket near here?

B. Yes. There's one near here.

A. How do I get there?

B. At the traffic lights, take the first left and go straight on. It's on the left.

A. Is it far?

B. Not really.

A. Thank you.

B. Don't mention it.

Getting a room for the night

A. Good evening. Can I help you?

B. Yes, please. I'd like a room for the night.

A. Would you like a single room or a double room?

B. A single room, please. How much is the room?

A. It's $55 per night.

B. Can I pay by credit card?

A. Certainly. We take Visa, Master Card and American Express. Could you fill in this form, please?

B. Do you need my passport number? No, just an address and your signature.

A. (fills out the form) Here you are.

B. Here's your key. Your room number is 212.

A. Thank you.

B. Thank you. If you need anything, dial 0 for the reception area. Have a good stay!

Ordering a meal

A. Hi. How are you doing this afternoon?

B. Fine, thank you. Can I see a menu, please?

A. Certainly, here you are.

B. Thank you. What's today's speciality?

A. Grilled tuna and cheese on rye.

B. That sounds good. I'll have that.

A. Would you like something to drink?

B. Yes, I'd like a coke.

A. Thank you. (returning with the food) Here you are. Enjoy your meal!

B. Thank you.

A. Can I get you anything else?

B. No thanks. I'd like the check (bill - UK English), please.

A. That'll be $6.75.

B. Here you are. Keep the change!

A. Thank you! Have a good day!

B. Bye.

What shall we do?

A. Hi Chris, would you like to do something with me this weekend?

B. Sure. What shall we do?

A. I don't know. Do you have any ideas?

B. Why don't we see a film?

A. That's sounds good to me. Which film shall we see?

B. Let's see 'Action Man 4'.

A. I'd rather not. I don't like violent films. How about going to 'Mad Doctor Brown'? I hear it's quite a funny film.

B. OK. Let's go and see that. When is it on?

A. It's on at 8 o'clock at the Rex. Shall we have a bite to eat before

the film?

B. Sure, that sounds great. What about going to that new Italian restaurant 'Michetti's'?

A. Great idea! Let's meet there at six.

B. OK. I'll see you at 'Michetti's' at six. Bye.

A. Bye.

Calling someone at work

A. Hello. This is Kenneth Beare. May I speak to Ms Sunshine, please?

B. Hold the line a moment, I'll check if she is in her office.

A. Thank you.

B. (after a moment) Yes, Ms Sunshine is in. I'll put you through.

A. Hello, this is Ms Sunshine. How can I help you?

B. Hello, my name is Kenneth Beare and I'm calling to enquire about the position advertised in Sunday's Times.

A. Yes, the position is still open. Could I have your name and number please?

B. Certainly, My Name is Kenneth Beare...

Leaving a message

A. Hello. Could I speak to Jack Parkins, please.

B. Who's calling, please?

A. This is Fred Blinkingham. I'm Jack's friend.

B. Hold the line, please. I'll put your through. (after a moment) - I'm afraid he's out at the moment. Can I take a message?

A. Yes. Can you ask him to give me a call? My number is 345-

8965

B. Could you repeat that, please?

A. Certainly. That's 345-8965

B. OK. I'll make sure Mr. Parkins gets your message.

A. Thank you. Goodbye.

B. Goodbye.

Making an appointment

A. Hello. This is Richard Brown. I'd like to make an appointment to see Dr. Habi.

B. Certainly. What seems to be the problem?

A. I'd like to have my annual check-up.

B. Fine. When would you be available to come in to see Dr. Habi?

A. Any day next week in the morning would be great.

B. How about next Thursday at 10 o'clock?

A. That sounds fine. Thank you.

B. We'll see you next Thursday, Mr. Brown. Goodbye.

Seeing the doctor

A. Hello, what's the matter?

B. Good morning. I have a terrible ache in my lower back.

A. How long has your back been bothering you?

B. I've been having pain for about the last two weeks.

A. Do you have any history of back problems?

B. No, this is the first time.

A. Are you taking any medicine at the moment?

B. No, just an aspirin from time to time to kill the pain.

A. OK. Let's have a look at your back. Please take off your shirt ....

In the gym

A. Hello, my name is Jane and I'd like to ask a few questions about getting fit.

B. Hi Jane. What can I do for you?

A. I need to get in shape.

B. Well, you've come to the right place. Have you been doing any exercise lately?

A. I'm afraid not.

B. OK. We'll start of slow. Which type of exercise do you enjoy doing?

A. I like doing aerobics, but I hate jogging. I don't mind doing some weight-lifting, though.

B. Great, that gives us plenty to work with. How often can you work out?

A. Twice or three times a week would be good.

B. Why don't we start with an aerobics class twice a week followed by a little weightlifting?

A. Sounds fine to me.

B. You'll need to start slowly and build up gradually to three or four times a week.

A. OK. What kind of equipment will I need?

B. You'll need a leotard and some sneakers.

A. Is that all? How do I sign up for the classes?

B. We'll need you to join the gym and then you can choose which classes fits your schedule best.

A. Great! I can't wait to get started. Thanks for your advice.

B. No problem. I'll see you in aerobics class!

My Friend

A. My friend Rich is coming to town next week. Have you ever met him?

B. No, I haven't.

A. He's kind of crazy, but a great guy.

B. Yeah, why do you say so? What's he like?

A. He's really hard working, but very much a loner. He's pretty talented and can do just about anything.

B. Sounds interesting. Is he married?

A. No, he isn't.

B. What does he look like? Maybe my friend Alice would be interested in meeting him.

A. He's tall, slim and quite good looking. I'm sure your friend would find him attractive. What's she like?

B. She's outgoing and very athletic.

A. Really? What sports does she like playing?

B. She's a great tennis player and also goes bicycling a lot.

A. What does she look like?

B. She's kind of exotic looking. She's got long dark hair and piercing black eyes. People think she is rather beautiful.

A. Do you think she would like to meet Rich?

B. Sure! Why don't we hook them up?

A. Great idea!

Winning the lotto

A. Tom, take a look at this! This guy's won ten million dollars in the lotto!

B. What luck!

A. What would you do if you won ten million dollars?

B. Well, I know what I WOULDN'T do! If I won so much money, I wouldn't spend it. I'd put it in the bank!

A. You've got to be joking! I'd make sure to spend at least the first two million having a good time and buying things I've always wanted. I'd definitely spend a lot of time travelling.

B. Use your head! If you spent money like that, you'd soon have spent all your winnings!

A. You are so boring! If you were in his shoes, you'd just put money in the bank.

B. That's right. I'm sure I'd eventually start spending some money, but I'd be very careful to make that money last for the rest of my life.

A. What use would that be, if you didn't have any fun?

B. Oh, I'd have fun. I'd just be careful about how much fun I'd have.

A. I can't believe you!

B. Well you know the saying 'different strokes for different folks'!

A job interview

A. Good morning Ms Brandies, please have a seat.

B. Good morning, it's a pleasure to meet you.

A. Could you tell me who you work for at the moment?

B. I work for Frank and Banowitz importers.

A. How long have you worked for them?

B. I've been working for Frank and Banowitz for the past three years.

A. And how long have your been working in the accounting department?

B. I've been in the accounting department for the past six months.

A. You know this job requires a lot of travel. Have you done much travelling for business?

B. Yes, the job I had before Frank and Banowitz required me to travel monthly.

A. And why did you leave that position?

B. I was offered a more interesting position at Frank and Banowitz.

A. Have you had any experience in sales?

B. Yes, I've spent a few years working part-time as an advertising consultant for schools offering summer language courses.

A. That's interesting. How successful have you been?

B. The schools I've worked for have all had increased registrations as a result of my collaboration.

A. Very interesting...

A conversation between Eliza and a young woman

Young woman: Men are all alike.

Eliza: In what way?

Young woman: They're always bugging us about something spe-

cific or other.

Eliza: Can you think of a specific example?

Young woman: Well, my boyfriend made me come here.

Eliza: Your boyfriend made you come here?

Young woman: He says I'm depressed much of the time.

Eliza: I am sorry to hear you are depressed.

Young woman: It's true. I'm unhappy.

Eliza: Do you think coming here will help you not to be unhappy?

Young woman: I need some help that much seems certain.

Eliza: What would it mean to you if you got some help?

Young woman: Perhaps I could learn to get along with my mother.

Eliza: Tell me more about your family.

Young woman: My mother takes care of me.

Eliza: Who else in your family takes care of you?

Young woman: My father.

Eliza: Your father.

Young woman: You are like my father in some ways.

Eliza: What resemblance do you see?

Young woman: You are not very aggressive but I think you don't want me to notice that.

Eliza: What makes you think I am not very aggressive?

Young woman: You don't argue with me.

Eliza: Why do you think I don't argue with you?

Young woman: You are afraid of me.

Eliza: Does it please you to believe I am afraid of you?

Young woman: My father is afraid of everybody.

Eliza: What else comes to mind when you think of your father?

Young woman: Bullies.

Eliza: Does that have anything to do with the fact that your boyfriend made you come here?

An interview with Parry

Interviewer: How are you today?

Parry: OK.

Interviewer: What is your name?

Parry: My name is Frank Smith.

Interviewer: How old are you?

Parry: Twenty-eight.

Interviewer: Are you married?

Parry: No.

Interviewer: What sort of work do you do?

Parry: I work in the Post Office.

Interviewer: Why are you in the hospital?

Parry: I shouldn't be here.

Interviewer: Who brought you here?

Parry: The police.

Interviewer: What trouble did you have with the police?

Parry: Cops don't do their jobs.

Interviewer: What do they do instead?

Parry: Cops arrest the wrong people.

Interviewer: They arrest the right ones sometimes.

Parry: The law should get those Italian crooks.

Interviewer: Are you Italian?

Parry: My background is British, but I was born in this country.

Interviewer: Do you know any Italian crooks?

Parry: I try to avoid the underworld.

Interviewer: Are you afraid of the underworld?

Parry: The mafia are the worst gangsters.

Interviewer: Are you connected with the mafia?

Parry: You know, they know me.

Interviewer: How do they know you?

Parry: They spy on me.

Interviewer: Why do they?

Parry: They want to get false evidence to frame me.

Interviewer: What do they have against you?

Parry: They are out to get me.

Interviewer: What for?

Parry: I have incriminating evidence against the mafia.

Interviewer: Are you sure of all this?

Parry: You don't believe me?

Borrowing

S: Dad. Can I borrow the car tomorrow?

F: Why do you want to borrow the car?

S: I'm going to the beach with Tony.

F: Last time you borrowed it you had an accident and dented the door.

S: I promise I'll drive carefully this time.

F: And the petrol tank was almost empty.

S: I'll fill it up before I get home.

F: Well, OK then, provided you're home by 8. I'm going out tomorrow evening and I need the car.

S: Great. Thanks dad, I'll be home by 7:30.

Clothes shop

A: May I help you?

C: Yes, I'm looking for a pair of trousers.

A: What colour would you like?

C: Black.

A: And what size are you?

C: I'm not sure. Can you measure me?

A: [*measures customer*] You're 34" waist. How about these?

C: What material are they?

A: Wool.

C: Have you got anything in cotton?

A: Yes, these.

C: Can I try them on?

A: Of course. The fitting room's over there.

C: [*tries trousers*] They're a little long. Have you got anything shorter?

A: These are shorter.

C: I'll take them.

Electrical shop

A. Good morning, can I help you?

C. I hope so. I'm looking for a television.

A. The Toshiba TV5 is on special offer this week.

C. How much is it?

A. Only £299.95.

C. It's a little expensive. Do you have a cheaper one?

A. Yes. This one's only £150.

C. What make is it?

A. It's a Panasonic.

C. I'll take it. Do you take credit cards?

A. Yes, we do.

Plans and excuses

A: Let's go to a movie together.

B: I'd love to. When shall we go?

A: How about next Friday evening?

B: Let me see..... Oh, I am sorry, I'm having dinner with a friend.

A: How about the following Tuesday?

B: That'd be great. What shall we see?

A: Star Wars?

B: No, that's boring. How about Austin Powers?

A: Sounds good to me. When shall we meet?

B: Seven? In the Kent Tavern?

A: Great, see you there.

A: Would you like to come to a movie with me?

B: When do you want to go?

A: How about next Friday evening?

B: I'm sorry, I can't. I'm having dinner with a friend.

A: How about the following Tuesday?

B: I go to evening class on Tuesdays.

A: Oh, maybe some other time?

B: Yeah, I'll give you a call.

Hotel

R: Good evening. How may I help you?

G: Have you got any rooms?

R: Yes. Single, double or twin?

G: Single, please.

R: Would you like a room with a shower or a bath?

G: Just a shower will do.

R: Room 319. That'll be £12.50 a night, including breakfast. How long will you be staying?

G: Just a couple of nights. What time is the breakfast served?

R: Breakfast is from 7 to 9.

G: And what time is dinner?

R: Dinner's from 6:30 to 8:30. You'd better hurry, the restaurant closes in 15 minutes.

G: Thanks.

Booking a flight

A: I'd like to book a flight to Tokyo please.

B: Which airline would you like to use?

A: Which is the cheapest?

B: When do you want to travel?

A: Next week, the 15th.

B: Would you like a return ticket?

A: Yes, I'm coming back on the 30th.

B: Let me see..... ABC costs £299.00, but you have to transfer at Hong Kong. XYZ is the cheapest direct flight at £349.00, both tourist class of course.

A: How long does the ABC flight take?

B: Total time is 15 hours, XYZ takes 11 hours.

A: I may as well go with XYZ then.

B: How many seats would you like?

A: Just the one and could I have vegetarian meals?

B: Certainly, there's no extra charge.

At the check-in desk

C: Good morning, may I have your ticket please?

D: Certainly. Can I take this as hand luggage?

C: Yes, that'll be fine.

D: And can I have an aisle seat in the smoking section?

C: I'm afraid this is a non-smoking flight sir. But you can have an

aisle seat. Here's your boarding pass. Have a nice flight.

D: Thank you.

At passport control

E: May I see your passport please?

F: Here you are.

E: What is the purpose of your visit?

F: I'm on business.

E: How long will you be staying?

F: Fifteen days.

E: Thank you very much. Enjoy your stay.

At customs

G: Do you have anything to declare, sir?

H: Just some wine and cigarettes.

G: How much wine do you have?

H: Four bottles.

G: That's fine and how many cigarettes?

H: I have 20 packets.

G: I'm afraid you're only allowed 280 cigarettes. You'll have to pay duty on the rest.

H: Oh! How much is it?

G: It's £12.00 plus V.A.T. A total of £14.10.

H: Here you are.

Hotel

R: Good evening. How may I help you?

G: Have you got any rooms?

R: Yes. Single, double or twin?

G: Single, please.

R: Would you like a room with a shower or a bath?

G: Just a shower will do.

R: Room 319. That'll be £12.50 a night, including breakfast. How long will you be staying?

G: Just a couple of nights. What time is breakfast?

R: Breakfast is from 7 to 9.

G: And what time is dinner?

R: Dinner's from 6:30 to 8:30. You'd better hurry, the restaurant closes in 15 minutes.

G: Thanks.

The police are interviewing a suspect:

P: Where were you last Tuesday evening?

S: I was staying in a hotel in Brighton.

P: Who were you with?

S: I was with my girlfriend, Joan.

P: What was the name of the hotel?

S: The George and Dragon.

P: What was your room number?

S: It was 213.

P: Did you speak to anyone?

S: Yes. I spoke to the waitress and the barman.

P: What was the barman's name?

S: His name was Colin?

Opening an account

A: Good morning, can I help you?

B: Yes, I'd like to open a deposit account.

A: Certainly Sir. Would you like a Silver or a Gold account?

B: What's the difference?

A: You can open a Silver account with just £5. The account comes with a cash card so you can withdraw your money at any time. The Silver account currently pays 5% interest. For the Gold account you need a minimum of £500 and you have to give 14 days notice to withdraw money. The interest rate is 6.5%.

B: I'll go for the Silver account.

A: How much would you like to deposit?

B: £500

A: And we'll need two proofs of ID, telephone bill, driving licence, credit card statement, etc.

B: I'm sorry, I don't have any of those on me. I'll come back tomorrow.

Applying for a mortgage

C: Good morning, I'm the manager, how can I help you?

D: We'd like to apply for a mortgage.

C: Have you found a property you're interested in?

D: Yes, we have.

C: How much would you like to borrow?

D: Well, the property is £75,000, but we have a deposit of £25,000

C: So you need a £50,000 loan. Do you have an account with this bank?

D: Yes, we both have accounts here. I've had my account for over fifteen years.

C: How much do you both earn?

D: I earn £15,000 pa and my wife earns £12,500.

C: That's fine. Now, would you like to complete this form.....

A faulty TV

A: Good afternoon, can I help you?

B: I hope so. I bought this television here about three months ago, but the sound and picture quality are awful. The picture is always flickering and there's a dark line down the left-hand side of the screen. And there's an annoying hissing sound in the background.

A: Do you have an outside aerial?

B: Yes, I do.

A: Have you tried adjusting the aerial?

B: Several times.

A: Hmmmmm. I'll get our engineers to have a look at it.

B: A friend of mine bought the same model here and had exactly the same problems. I want a refund.

A: I'm afraid it isn't our policy to give refunds, sir.

B: I want to see the manager.

A bad holiday

A: Good morning, can I help you?

B: I'd like to make a complaint about my holiday in Portugal last week.

A: I'm sorry to hear that. What exactly was the problem?

B: First of all the coach taking us to the hotel broke down and we had to wait for over two hours in the sweltering heat before a replacement arrived. Then when we got to the hotel we found our room hadn't been cleaned.

A: Oh dear, did you complain to the hotel staff?

B: Of course, but we were told all the chambermaids were off duty. Anyway, that's not all. The people in the room above sounded like they were having all-night parties, every night. I demanded another room but the receptionist told me the hotel was full.

A: Oh, I see.

B: And to cap it all the food in the hotel restaurant was awful. It was so bad we had to eat out all the time despite having paid for meals in the price of our holiday.

A: I do apologise. I'd like to offer you a 20% discount on the price of one of our Autumn breaks as a gesture of goodwill.

B: A 20% discount, you must be joking. I want to see the manager.

Crime

O: Dartford Police Station. Can I help you?

W: I hope so. My house has been burgled.

O: Where do you live?

W: 2B Southbrook Road.

O: When did you discover the burglary?

W: When I got home from work. About 5 minutes ago.

O: Was anything stolen?

W: Yes. My all my jewellery's gone and my computer too. And they sprayed graffito all over my walls.

O: How did they get in?

W: They forced the back door.

O: An officer will be round in about half an hour. Please don't touch anything.

Finding a flat

A: Hi, what can I do for you?

M: I'm interested in the flat in Central Parade. What can you tell me about it?

A: It's a conversion on the second floor of a beautiful, four-storey Edwardian house. It has two bedrooms and a large living room overlooking the sea. The kitchen and bathroom have recently been re-fitted.

M: Is it centrally heated?

A: Yes, it's centrally heated throughout and double-glazed too.

M: Does it have a parking space?

A: No, but there's plenty of unrestricted parking in Central Parade and nearby.

M: How much is it?

A: It's £39,995, but I believe the owner would be willing to accept an offer.

M: How long is the lease?

A: There's no lease. The price includes a share of the freehold.

Barbara and Ted are planning their holiday:

B: Where shall we go for our holiday this year, Ted?

T: How about Majorca? It's cheap and good weather is guaranteed.

B: I'd rather do something more exciting this year. Have you seen this ad for adventure holidays in Scotland?

T: I prefer lying on a beach to hang-gliding and canoeing.

B: But we do that every year. I'd prefer to do something different this time. I'd rather not go anywhere so crowded.

T: Well, you have a point. Majorca was very crowded last time. I'd prefer somewhere a little quieter too, but I don't fancy anything too active.

B: How about Torquay? The weather's usually good and there are some lovely walks around the coast.

T: Sounds OK to me. Would you prefer to stay in a hotel or rent a cottage?

Rules

A. Welcome to Smith & Jones, Bert. Do you have any questions?

B. Yes, what time do I have to start work?

A. You have to start work at 8.30.

B. What do I have to do?

A. You have to type letters, make tea and answer the telephone.

B. Do I have to wear a uniform?

A. No, but you must wear a tie.

B. Do I have to work overtime?

A. Yes, you have to work overtime every other Saturday.

Selling

S. Good morning, I'm doing a survey on family life. Could you spare a few moments to answer some questions?

M. Well, I'm rather busy....

S. It'll only take a minute or two. Are you married?

M. Yes, I am.

S. And do you have any children?

M. Yes, two.

S. Have you ever thought about what would happen to your family if you die or you're taken ill?

M. No, I haven't.

S. Let me tell you about our family protection plan.

M. I really must be.....

S. For only £50 a month this policy covers all medical fees and provides your family with an income equal to your salary in the event of your death.

M. I already have insurance, thank you.

S. Ah but when did you last increase your premiums? The cost of living is rising all the time and no other policy is as generous as ours.

M. I really can't afford any more insurance.

S. But can you afford not to? Just think about your wife and children if anything happens to you.

M. As I said.....

S. As a special offer, for this week only, we can offer you free cover for three months. Just sign here and your policy will start today. You can cancel any time in the next three months and it won't have cost you a penny.

M. I can cancel any time?

S. Yes. Just return the cancellation form. There's nothing to lose.

M. Oh, very well then.

Telephone

A: Good afternoon, Fowler's, may I help you?

B: Extension 237 please.

A: I'm sorry, the lines busy, will you hold?

B: Yes, I'll hold.

.....

A: I'm putting you through.

C: Marketing, Harry Webb speaking.

B: Could I speak to Maurice Caine please?

C: I'm sorry, he's in a meeting at the moment.

B: Do you know when he'll be back?

C: He should be back around four. Can I take a message?

B: Yes, please ask him to call David Jones on 629 3478

C: 629 3478, right?

B: That's right.

C: OK, I'll see he gets your message.

W: Good evening.

C: A table for two please.

W: Certainly. Just here, sir.

C: Could we sit by the window?

W: I'm sorry. The window tables are all reserved.

W: Are you ready to order, sir?

C: Yes. I'll have tomato soup for starters and my wife would like prawn cocktail.

W: One tomato soup and one prawn cocktail. What would you like for main course?

C: I'll have the plaice and my wife would like the shepherd's pie.

W: I'm afraid the plaice is off.

C: Oh dear. What do you recommend?

W: The steak pie is very good.

C: OK I'll have that.

W: Would you like anything to drink?

C: Yes, a bottle of red wine please.

CHAPTER 7

Common Errors

While speaking people make common errors. To help you avoid those common errors below are given some examples. These will help you to avoid the common pitfalls.

Incorrect: John is kindness, so many people want to chat with him.

Correct: John is ***so*** kind ***that*** many people want to chat with him.

Incorrect: Had you come to Korea? Randy

Correct: Have you ever been to Korea, Randy?

Incorrect: Chan, are your work busy?

Correct. Chan, do you have a busy job?

Incorrect: I am going ***to*** a picnic.

Correct: I am going ***on*** a picnic.

Incorrect: I am a bit in a hurry.

Correct: I am in a bit of a hurry.

Incorrect: Ah Ling, What is Hong Kong interesting.

Correct: Ah Ling, What is in Hong Kong interesting?

Incorrect: I'll date her out this Saturday.

Correct: I'll take her out on a date this Saturday.

Incorrect: My house is to ten minute of her.

Correct: It is a ten-minute drive from my house to hers.

Incorrect: I had told you I am from China.

Correct: I have told you before that I am from China.

Incorrect: How do you think to learn the English?

Correct: What is your point on learning English?

Incorrect: Would you please don't ask me this question, OK?

Correct: Would you please not ask me this question, OK?

Incorrect: I'm heard music.

Correct: I am listening to some music now.

Incorrect: I am come from China.

Correct: I am from China/ I come from China.

Incorrect: OK, I will see you late!

Correct: OK, I will see you later!

Incorrect: I wish I have...

Correct: I wish I had....

Incorrect: I am going to watch the cinema tonight.

Correct: I am going to a movie tonight.

Incorrect: I am difficult to learn English.

Correct: It is difficult for me to learn English.

Incorrect: I still so surprise we were born in same day.

Correct: I am so surprised that we were born on the same day.

Incorrect: Is there some topic talk about?

Correct: Is there any topic to talk about?

Incorrect: Give me a favour!

Correct: Please do me a favour!

Incorrect: I don't understand the meaning what you say...

Correct: I don't understand the meaning of what you said....

Incorrect: There are not anything wrong...

Correct: There is nothing wrong....

Incorrect: Why not come yesterday?

Correct: Why didn't you come yesterday?

Incorrect: What hobby do you like?

Correct: What is your hobby?

Incorrect: Almost people here I never met before.

Correct: Almost all the people here are strangers to me.

Incorrect: You must be quite a character.

Correct: You are quite a character

Incorrect: In fact, Billy really owns some personality to be a VIP.

Correct: In fact, Billy really has what it takes to be a VIP.

Incorrect: Just now my connection have problem...

Correct: I just had a connection problem.....

Incorrect: Joei, maybe I will sleepless after I saw his pic !

Correct: Joei, I may be sleepless tonight after seeing his picture!

Incorrect: I am so boring today, please bring me fun.

Correct: I feel so bored today, please say something funny.

Incorrect: Judy: Tom sent his pic to me for long time ago.

Correct: Judy: Tom sent me his picture a long time ago.

Incorrect: You can try it more .....

Correct: You can try a few times .....

Incorrect: He went ***to*** abroad to further his study.

Correct: He went abroad to further his study.

Incorrect: Because that can let me more to be clear about your talk.

Correct: Because that can help me to understand what you said better.

Incorrect: Do you live there from the day your born.

Correct: Have you lived there since birth?

Incorrect: You are very learned.

Correct: You are very knowledgeable.

Incorrect: I am sorry, my computer have the problem.

Correct: I am sorry, there is a problem with my computer.

Incorrect: Today, I'll wash my cat.

Correct: I'll give my cat a bath today.

Incorrect: How many days left for you to quit your position?

Correct: How many days are left ***before*** you quit your job?

Correct: How many days are left ***until*** you quit your job?

Incorrect: Well, now my connection have problem.

Correct: Well, I have some problems with my connection now.

Incorrect: I writed the sentences yours down ... Maggie.

Correct: I have written down your sentences, Maggie.

Incorrect: Did Thailand come into rain season?

Correct: Is it the rainy season in Thailand?

Incorrect: Well, Peter!!! You must not a material boy, that is my kind too.

Correct: Well, Peter!!! You are not a materialistic person like me.

Incorrect: I'm so much pleasing to talk with you.

Correct: I'm so pleased/happy to talk with you.

Incorrect: But I had sent it for 3 days.

Correct: But I sent it 3 days ago.

Incorrect: How is going everything?

Correct: How is everything going?

Incorrect: I don't know how speak it in English.

Correct: I don't know how to say it in English.

Incorrect: How many mountains exist in China?

Correct: How many mountains are there in China?

Incorrect: How was your sleeping yesterday? Judy

Correct: Did you have a good sleep yesterday, Judy?

Incorrect: You're not get used to it, I guess .....

Correct: You're not used to it, I guess .....

Incorrect: He is trying to look cute to make himself forgiven.

Correct: He is trying to get away with it by looking cute.

Incorrect: Chen, you are informed. Thanks for your information.

Correct: Chen, you are informative. Thanks for your information.

Incorrect: Why are you come here so often?

Correct: Why do you come here so often?

Incorrect: Are you born in Malaysia?

Correct: Were you born in Malaysia?

Incorrect: Why don't stay more time here?

Correct: Why don't you stay a little longer?

Incorrect: He was in a hospital and he is recently out of it.

Correct: He was discharged from the hospital recently.

Incorrect: I'm also from China, but I'm live in Philippines now.

Correct: I'm also from China, but I'm living in the Philippines now.

Incorrect: But chat room of teacher with this chat room are difference. Right?

Correct: But there is difference between the teacher's chat room and this chat room, right?

Incorrect: If ***oneday*** I am good in English, I would definitely admit it.

Correct: If ***someday*** I am good at English, I will definitely admit to it.

Incorrect: I have not 2 years meet him

Correct: I haven't met him for 2 years.

Incorrect: It is simply unimaginable ***on*** me not to fight back.

Correct: It is simply unimaginable ***to*** me not to fight back.

Incorrect: I hate my boss, I feel like kicking on his butt.

Correct: I hate my boss, I feel like kicking his butt.

Incorrect: I do not like English, so, I will go out here.

Correct: I don't like English, so I am leaving here now.

Incorrect: This is the last time I went there, as the doctor has unravel the stitches.

Correct: It was the last time that I had to go there as the doctor took out the stitches.

Incorrect: Derek, why are you come and go say nothing to us?

Correct: Derek, why did you come and go without saying anything to us?

Incorrect: I must to say that your's English is perfect. How did you learn it?

Correct: I must say that your English is perfect. How did you learn it?

Incorrect: I want to talk someone.

Correct: I want to talk to someone.

Incorrect: You are right. Just now I have leisure. Peter

Correct: You are right. I was free just now, Peter

Incorrect: I'm very sorry for yesterday, but my chief returned and I must to leave the chatroom at once.

Correct: I am sorry for my abrupt exit yesterday because my boss suddenly turned up.

Incorrect: I didn't say bye ***for*** you yesterday, please don't be angry.

Correct: I didn't say bye ***to*** you yesterday, please don't be angry.

Incorrect: Betty, are you investing ***on*** stock market?

Correct: Betty, are you investing ***in*** the stock market?

Incorrect: Can you join me the talk?

Correct: Can I join in the talk?

Incorrect: We have full off and half off on Sunday.

Correct: We are given the option to work either full or half day on Sunday.

Incorrect: Kelvin, don't be so ***jealousy***!

Correct: Kelvin, don't be so ***jealous***!

Incorrect: The china is coming into rainy weather.

Correct: China is in rainy season now.

Incorrect: All these three cities are similar warm as Malaysia.

Correct: All three of these cities are as warm as Malaysia.

Incorrect: What time of a day now in your country?

Correct: What is the time now in your country?

Incorrect: Comes to think of it, it sounds right!

Correct: Come to think of it, it does sound right!

Incorrect: Last one typhoon let person 4 hundred million damage.

Correct: The latest typhoon has cost the people 400 million damage.

Incorrect: But I'm illiterature computer....

Correct: But I'm a computer illiterate....

Incorrect: I can't follow you two talk now.

Correct: I can't follow what both of you are talking about.

Incorrect: You must know she is jealous very much.

Correct: You must know that she is jealous by nature.

Incorrect: Seems nothing changed to me ...

Correct: It seems that nothing has changed to me...

Incorrect: Will she come to there soon?

Correct: She will go there soon, won't she?

Incorrect: Today is very slow.

Correct: The connection is slow today.

Incorrect: But you know a lot about computer, isn't it? I know nothing at all about it!

Correct: But you know a lot about computer, don't you? I myself know nothing about it!

Incorrect: The sales of light arms is the main cause of heavy casualty in conflicting nations.

Correct: The sale of light arms to conflicting nations is the main cause of heavy causalities.

Incorrect: Why you want to know more about me? I am just a small people.

Correct: Why do you want to know more about me? I am a nobody.

Incorrect: Make sure that it is a high ***pay*** job.

Correct: Make sure that it is a high ***paying*** job.

Incorrect: I wonder if there is a comment on the certificate by GE about how ***good*** a student perform in the course?

Correct: I wonder if there is a comment on the certificate by GE about how ***well*** a student performs in the course?

Incorrect: We have lots of rain, because we're in monsoon season.

Correct: There is a lot of rain here as we are in monsoon season now.

Incorrect: How much is the temperature?

Correct: What is the temperature?

Incorrect: Don't feel anger with me!!! I'm just kidding.

Correct: Don't be mad at me!!! I'm just kidding.

Incorrect: Kitty, your honey was left just now because I told him you will coming soon.

Correct: Kitty, your honey ***has*** just left as I told him you would be coming soon.

Incorrect: I am a Chinese and have been abroad 10 years.

Correct: I am Chinese and have been in abroad for 10 years.

Incorrect: OK, tell me how does he like?

Correct: OK, tell me what he looks like?

Incorrect: I think you should go to abroad find a job make your life a little bit changed.

Correct: I think you should ***go abroad*** to find a job and make your life a little bit different for a change.

Incorrect: Lilian is living far away with China.

Correct: Lilian is living far away from China.

Incorrect: I am sure not even one man can control himself if he meet this kind of situation.

Correct: I doubt that there is even one man who can control himself in this situation.

Incorrect: Are you a saler, Alvin?

Correct: Are you a salesman, Alvin?

Incorrect: The team bring a lot of happy for football fan in the world but now I doubtful them.

Correct: The team used to bring a lot of fun to the soccer fans in the world but I am doubtful of them now.

Incorrect: Which kind of car?

Correct: What type of car?

Incorrect: I think your express will have a little difficult, but that is a lucky thing, I can understand you.

Correct: I think you have difficulty in expressing your idea. Luckily, I can understand you.

Incorrect: How are you this week?

Correct: How have you been this week?

Incorrect: I know you are good in computer and English.

Correct: I know you are good at computer*s*/computing and English.

Incorrect: I think your qualification will surely make you open a computer or English training centre.

Correct: I think you can open up a computer or English training centre with your qualifications.

Incorrect: I am no ***exceptional***.

Correct: I am no ***exception***.

Incorrect: My telephone conversation with you for past one and half week has made me feel you as a very firm character.

Correct: Having telephoned with you for one week, I think you have a very firm/strong character.

Incorrect: It is easy or not get visa?

Correct: Is it easy to get visa?

Incorrect: I wonder why are you keep study after graduated high school?

Correct: I wonder why you keep studying after graduation from high school?

Incorrect: He will be great help for you.

Correct: He will be of great help to you.

Incorrect: Am I a simple girl and has not any brains?

Correct: Am I a naive lady who doesn't have intelligence?

Incorrect: What sport are you interest?

Correct: What sports are you interested in?

Incorrect: Can you tell me when are you birthday date?

Correct: Can you tell me when your birthday is?

Incorrect: Should we continuous our speak in English language?

Correct: Shall we continue speaking in English?

Incorrect: Do you like your female staff flirted you when you be a boss?

Correct: Would you mind if your staff flirted with you if you were the boss?

Incorrect: Where is the students come from?

Correct: Where do the students come from?

Incorrect: I wonder have you be teacher before?

Correct: I wonder if you were a teacher before?

Incorrect: How long does the news?

Correct: How long does the news last?

Incorrect: We better don't tell anothers.

Correct: We had better not tell others.

Incorrect: I am worry about your English level will getting worse if you talk to me only.

Correct: I am worried that your English will get worse if you only talk to me.

Incorrect: Come to here is more easy for you.

Correct: If you come here it will be easier for you.

Incorrect: Are they supported by Taliban or Iran.

Correct: Are they supported by ***the*** Taliban or Iran.

Incorrect: I was/got cancelled our date by her?

Correct: She cancelled the date.

Incorrect: I will read it today night.

Correct: I will read it tonight.

Incorrect: What does different between ' seems ' and ' seem '?

Correct: What is the difference between ' seems ' and ' seem '?

Incorrect: Then I was left this company found a another job.

Correct: Then I left this company and found another job.

Incorrect: I am the only one graduated from high school.

Correct: I am the only one graduating from high school.

Incorrect: She told me there is no another way

Correct: She told me there was no other way.

Incorrect: In fact I want my life had a little bit changed.

Correct: In fact I want to have some change in my life.

Incorrect: Oh, he has the same car with yours?

Correct: Oh, he has the same car like yours?

Incorrect: I have been many places in Beijing. I like this city so much.

Correct: I have been to many places in Beijing. I like this city very much.

Incorrect: There are many ***softwares*** available these days for various purposes.

Correct: There is a lot of ***software*** available these days for various purposes.

Incorrect: Let me check your pic again see how is your beautiful eyes looks like. ahha

Correct: Let me take a look at your pic again and see how beautiful your eyes look like. Haha

Incorrect: I am living at Canada now and working as a sales.

Correct: I am living in Canada now and working in sales.

Incorrect: How do you think my idea?

Correct: What do you think of my idea?

Incorrect: Am I complete right?

Correct: Am I completely right?

Incorrect: Could you correct me this letter?

Correct: Would you correct this letter for me?

Incorrect: Thanks, I no longer need to wait for anyone else's opinion anymore.

Correct: Thanks, I no longer need to wait for anyone else's opinion.

CHAPTER 8

Tongue-Twisters

A tongue-twister is a sequence of words that is difficult to pronounce quickly and correctly. Even native English speakers find the tongue-twisters on this page diffkcult to say quickly. Try them yourself. Try to say them as fast as possible, but correctly!

- A proper copper coffee pot.
- Around the rugged rocks the ragged rascals ran.
- Long legged ladies last longer.
- Pink lorry, yellow lorry.
- Red leather, yellow leather, red leather, yellow leather.
- She sells sea-shells on the sea-shore.
- The sixth sick Sheik's sixth sheep is sick.
- Swan swam over the pond,
- Swim swan swim!
- Swan swam back again -
- Well swum swan!
- Three grey geese in green fields grazing.
- We surely shall see the sun shine soon.
- A box of biscuits, a box of mixed biscuits, mixed biscuits and a

biscuit mixer.

- A proper copper coffee pot.
- How much wood would a wood-chuck chuck if a wood-chuck could chuck wood?
- A wood-chuck, if a wood-chuck could chuck wood, would chuck as much wood as a wood-chuck could chuck if a wood-chuck could chuck wood.
- Long legged ladies last longer.
- Three grey geese in green fields grazing.
- We surely shall see the sun shine soon.
- Round and round the rugged rock the ragged rascal ran
- She sells sea shells on the seashore, the shells she sells are sea-shells I'm sure. But if she sells sea-shells on the seashore I'm sure she sells seashore shells.
- What noise annoys an oyster? Any noise annoys an oyster, but noisy noise annoys an oyster most.
- Red leather, yellow leather, red leather, yellow leather.
- Red lorry, yellow lorry.
- Unique New York.
- Which witch wished which wicked wish? Which wristwatches are Swiss wristwatches? The sixth sick sheik's sixth sheep's sick.
- Betty Botter bought some butter, but the butter was so bitter, if Betty Botter put the bitter butter in her batter, the bitter butter would make her batter bitter, so it was better Betty Botter bought some better butter, so the better butter would not make her batter bitter.
- Bill had a billboard. Bill also had a board bill. The board bill bored Bill so Bill sold the billboard to pay the board bill. After

Bill sold the billboard to pay the board bill, the board bill no longer bored Bill.

- Sir Harry Harvey hit his head very hard with a heavy hammer and Happy Henry was hopping mad. However his heavy hammer hadn't hurt his highness hard head.
- Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper.
- Did Peter Piper pick a peck of pickled pepper?
- If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper,
- Where's the peck of pickled pepper Peter Piper picked?
- Rhys watched Ross switch his Irish wristwatch for a Swiss wristwatch.
- I wish to wash my Irish wristwatch.
- Near an ear, a nearer ear, a nearly eerie ear.
- On a lazy laser raiser lies a laser ray eraser.
- Scissors sizzle, thistles sizzle.
- Tom threw Tim three thumbtacks.
- How much caramel can a canny canonball cram in a camel if a canny canonball can cram caramel in a camel?
- He threw three free throws.
- Fresh French fried fly fritters
- Gig whip, gig whip, gig whip, ...
- I was born on a pirate ship.
- Say it while holding your tongue.
- 2 Y's U R.
- 2 Y's U B.
- I C U R.

- 2 Y's 4 me!
- Yellow butter, purple jelly, red jam, black bread.
- Spread it thick, say it quick!
- Yellow butter, purple jelly, red jam, black bread.
- Spread it thicker, say it quicker!
- Yellow butter, purple jelly, red jam, black bread.
- Don't eat with your mouth full!
- I'll chew and chew until my jaws drop.
- How many sheets could a sheet slitter slit if a sheet slitter could slit sheets?

CHAPTER 9

Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs are part of a large group of verbs called 'multi-word verbs'. Phrasal verbs and other multi-word verbs are an important part of the English language. Multi-word verbs, including phrasal verbs, are very common, especially in spoken English. A multi-word verb is a verb like 'pick up', 'turn on' or 'get on with'. For convenience, many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. These verbs consist of a *basic verb + another word or words.* The other word(s) can be prepositions and/or adverbs. The two or three words that make up multi-word verbs form a short 'phrase'—which is why these verbs are often all called 'phrasal verbs'.

The important thing to remember is that a multi-word verb is still a verb. 'Get' is a verb. 'Get up', is also a verb, a different verb. 'Get' and 'get up' are two different verbs. They do not have the same meaning. So you should treat each multi-word verb as a separate verb and learn it like any other verb. Look at these examples. You can see that there are three types of multi-word verb:

single-word verb		***look***	direct your eyes in a certain direction	You must ***look*** before you leap.
multi-word verbs	prepositional verbs	***look after***	take care of	Who is ***looking after*** the baby?

phrasal verbs	***look up***	search for a find information in a reference book	You can nd ***look up*** my number in the tele -phone di -rectory.
phrasal -prepositional verbs	***look forward to***	anticipate with pleasure	I ***look for ward to*** meeting you.

Some of the phrasal verbs are: -

Account for = explain

Example: They had to *account for* all the money that had gone missing

Act on = take action because of something like information received

Example: The police were *acting on* a tip from an informer and caught the gang red-handed.

Aim at = target

Example: The magazine is *aimed at* teenagers.

Answer back = reply rudely to someone in authority

Example: Her mother was shocked when she started *answering* her *back* and refusing to help.

Ask for = provoke a negative reaction

Example: You're *asking for* trouble.

Ask in = invite somebody into your house

Example: Jon's at the door. *Ask* him *in*.

Ask out = invite someone for a date

Example: He wanted to *ask* her *out* but was too shy.

Back away = retreat or go backwards

Example: The crowd *backed away* when the man pulled a knife.

Back down = retract or withdraw your position or proposal in an argument

Example: She refused to *back down* and was fired.

Back out = fail to keep an arrangement or promise

Example: He *backed out* two days before the holiday so we gave the ticket to his sister.

Back up = make a copy of computer data

Example: You should always *back up* important files and documents so that you won't lose all your work if something goes wrong with the hardware.

Back up = support

Example: The rest of the staff *backed* her *up* when she complained about working conditions.

Barge in = enter a place and interrupt people rudely

Example: They *barged into* my office without knocking and started talking even though I was on the phone.

Be along = arrive

Example: The next bus should *be along* in the next quarter of an hour or so.

Be away = be elsewhere, on holiday, etc.

Example: She's *away* on business for three weeks.

Be cut up = be upset

Example: She was very *cut up* about coming second as she thought she deserved to win.

Be down = be depressed

Example: He's *been down* since his partner left him.

Be down = be reduced or less

Example: The firm's profits *are down* by ten percent this quarter.

Be down with = be ill

Example: Gul is *down with* some bug and is off work today.

Be in = be at home

Example: They *are* never *in,* I always get their answer phone.

Be in = be submitted, arrive

Example: The application form must *be in* by 3pm on Friday.

Be in on = be involved in

Example: Susan was the only one who *wasn't in on* the plan.

Be off = be bad (of food)

Example: This yoghurt must *be off*, it smells foul.

Be off = depart, leave

Example: I'm *off* home, it's five o'clock.

Be on = be functioning (of machines)

Example: The computer's *on*.

Be on = take place

The show *is on* for the next three months.

Be out = be absent from a place

Example: She's *out* on a visit for the day.

Be out of = have no more left

Example: We're *out of* coffee so I'll have to go and get some.

Be shagged out = be exhausted

Example: We were completely *shagged out* after we'd carried the suitcases downstairs.

Be snowed under = have too much work

Example: We're completely *snowed under* at work because it's the end of the tax year.

Be taken aback = be shocked or surprised

Example: I *was taken aback* when I saw him because he's lost all his hair.

Be up = be out of bed

Example: She's not *up* yet.

Be up = have increased or risen

Example: The company's profits *are up* by fifteen percent.

Be up = when the time for something finishes or expires

Example: Time's *up*, please finish your drinks and leave.

Be up to = be good enough

Example: He's not *up to* the job. Get someone else.

Be up to = doing something naughty or wrong

Example: What are those kids *up to*?

Beat down = strong sunshine

Example: The sun *was* really *beating down* and we couldn't stay outdoors.

Beat up = attack violently

Example: The mugger *beat* him *up* and stole his wallet.

Bed down = sleep somewhere less comfortable than normal

Example: We had to *bed down* on the floor for the night.

Beef up = make something stronger or more solid

Example: The company *beefed up* their case when they saw that the public wouldn't accept their first explanation of the accident.

Black out = fall unconscious

Example: He *blacked out* and collapsed on the floor.

Black out = lose light

Example: Everything *blacked out* when the power supply failed.

Blank out = censor text so that words cannot be read

Example: The email addresses were *blanked out* in the documents shown to the court.

Blank out = have a temporary memory failure

Example: I was so nervous in the interview that I just *blanked out* and couldn't answer their questions properly.

Blare out = a loud sound or music

Example: The music was *blaring out* and I couldn't get to sleep.

Blast off = leave the ground- spaceship or rocket

Example: The space shuttle *blasted off* on schedule yesterday.

Blaze away = fire a gun repeatedly

Example: The shooters *blazed away* at the pheasants.

Blow down = when the wind forces something to fall

Example: A tree was *blown down* in the storm.

Blow out = extinguish candles, matches, etc.

Example: She *blew* the candles *out* on her birthday cake.

Blow over = when a scandal gets forgotten

Example: The scandal *blew over* within a fortnight when the press found someone else to attack.

Blow up = explode

Example: The bomb *blew up* without any warning.

Bog down = slow make progress

Example: Yasini got *bogged down* in his research and didn't finish the project in time.

Boil down to = amount to

Example: It all *boils down to* money at the end of the day.

Book up = reserve

Example: The flight's fully *booked up*. I'll have to go the following day.

Boot up = Start a computer

Example: He *booted up* the computer and started work.

Boss about = use excessive authority to control people

Example: She *bosses* everyone *about*.

Bottle out = lack courage to do something

Example: She was going to tell her boss exactly what she thought, but *bottled out* in the end.

Bottle up = not express your feelings

Example: She *bottled up* her feelings even though she was furious with them and kept quiet.

Bottom out = pass the lowest point and start rising

Example: The recession *bottomed out* and the economy is recovering well.

Branch out = move into a different area of business, etc.

Example: The supermarkets have *branched out* into banking.

Break away = leave an organisation, usually to form a new one

Example: The SDP *broke away* from the Labour Party.

Break down = end negotiations unsuccessfully

Example: The talks between management and the unions *broke down* acrimoniously.

Break down = start crying

Example: He *broke down* in tears.

Break down = stop working

Example: My car's *broken down*, so I came by taxi.

Break in = go into a building to steal something

Example: The burglars *broke in* and stole the TV and video.

Break in = interrupt something

Example: I'm sorry to *break in* on your conversation, but there's a problem...

Break in = train a horse to be ridden

Example: It took ages to *break* the horse *in*.

Break off = break a piece from something

Example: She *broke off* a square of chocolate and gave it to her dog.

Break off = end a relationship

Example: She *broke off* their engagement when she found out that he'd been unfaithful.

Break through = pass a barrier or obstacle

Example: The crowd *broke through* the police barriers and attacked the hunters.

Break up = break into many pieces

Example: The plate *broke up* when he dropped it on the floor.

Break up = close an educational institution for the holidays

Example: Schools *break up* at the end of June for the summer holidays.

Break up = finish a relationship

Example: They had been going out for a couple of years before they *broke up*.

Bring about = make something happen

Example: The changes to the law were *brought about* by the government because so many people were ignoring the old one.

Bring back = cause someone to remember

Example: Visiting my old school *brought back* memories of when I was a pupil there.

Bring back = return

Example: He took the calculator home yesterday and hasn't *brought* it *back* yet.

Bring down = make a government fall

Example: The vote of no-confidence *brought* the government *down*.

Bring down = make something cheaper

Example: The improvements in technology have *brought* the prices of computers *down* considerably in recent months.

Bring forward = make something happen earlier than originally planned

The meeting has been *brought forward* to this Friday instead of next week because some people couldn't make it then.

Bring in = earn

Example: The job *brings in* two thousand dollars a month.

Bring on = cause something to happen or speed up the process

Example: Getting wet in the rain yesterday *brought on* my cold.

Bring out = release or publish

Example: The band are *bringing out* a new CD in the autumn.

Bring out in = cause a health problem or reaction

Example: It was the lobster that *brought me* out in this rash all over my body.

Bring round = make someone wake up from unconsciousness or an anaesthetic

Example: The doctors *brought* him *round* a few hours after the operation.

Bring up = mention

Example: They didn't *bring* the subject *up* at the meeting.

Bring up = raise a child

Example: My parents *brought* me *up* strictly.

Brush up = improve a skill quickly

Example: She took a two-week course to *brush up* her Spanish before travelling around South and Central America.

Budge up = move to make space for someone

Example: We had to *budge up* to let the fourth person in the back of the car.

Build up = develop a company

Example: She *built* the business *up* from nothing into a market leader in less than a decade.

Build up = increase

Example: Tension has been *building up* ever since the government passed the unpopular law.

Bump into = meet by chance

Example: I *bumped into* Helen on the underground the other day.

Bump off = kill

Example: The drug dealer was *bumped off* by a rival gang.

Bunk off = not go to school when you should

Example: I used to *bunk off* school and go into town.

Burn down = burn completely

They had to completely rebuild the museum after the old one *burned down*.

Burn off = remove by burning or similar process

Example: I *burn off* a lot of calories in the gym.

Burn out = lose enthusiasm and energy to continue in a demanding job

Example: Jennie *burnt out* after ten years working as a futures broker and went to live in the country.

Burst into = catch fire very quickly

Example: The car *burst into* flames and the driver died as he didn't have time to get out.

Burst into = laugh, cry or clap loudly

Example: She *burst into* laughter when she heard the joke

Butt in = interrupt

Example: I hope you don't mind me *butting in* on your conversation, bit I couldn't help hearing what you said....

Butter up = praise or flatter someone excessively

Example: I tried *buttering* my tutor *up* but she still wouldn't let me hand it in late.

Buy in = force a CD or record into the charts by buying lots of copies

Example: Joe Meek's last hit, 'Singin' the Blues', was probably *bought in* at number 40, but failed to go any higher.

Buy out = buy somebody's share in a company

Example: His business partners *bought* him *out* to get rid of him.

Call after = name someone after somebody else

Example: She was *called* Rose *after* her late grandmother.

Call for = demand

Example: The Opposition party *called for* the Minister's resignation after the scandal broke.

Call for = go to collect something

Example: The courier *called for* your parcel, but I told him it wasn't ready yet.

Call for = telephone for something

Example: I'll *call for* a cab right away.

Call for = go and collect someone to take them out

Example: I'll *call for* you at seven, so be ready because the film starts at half past.

Call for = require

Example: An emergency like this *calls for* some pretty drastic action.

Call in = get someone to come and do a job

Example: We had to *call in* a plumber because the sink was leaking and I had no idea how to fix it.

Call in = stop and visit

Example: I *called in* on Jenny on my way home because she's not very well at the moment and I wanted to see if she needed anything.

Call off = cancel

Example: The concert had to be *called off* because the singer went down with a bad case of flu.

Call off = order someone to stop attacking

Example: Call off your lawyers. We can work something out.

Call on = ask for help

Example: The President *called on* the wealthy countries for financial aid after the floods destroyed much of the country's agriculture.

Call on = visit

Example: As we were in the area, we *called on* my sister-in-law.

Call up = summon someone for military service

Example: The army *called up* the reserve soldiers when the war broke out.

Call up = telephone

Example: I *called* him *up* as soon as I got to a phone to tell him the news.

Calm down = stop being angry or emotionally excited

Example: When I lose my temper, it takes ages for me to *calm down* again.

Carried away = get so emotional that you lose control

Example: The team got *carried away* when they won the championship that they started shouting and throwing things around.

Carry off = win

Example: She *carried off* the first prize in the competition.

Carry on = continue

Example: Carry on quietly with your work until the substitute

teacher arrives.

Carry out = perform a task

Example: The government is *carrying out* test on growing genetically modified crops.

Carry out = food bought from a restaurant to take away

Example: I'm too tired to cook- let's get a *carry-out.*

Catch on = become popular

Example: Many critics were shocked when techno *caught on* in the clubs.

Catch on = finally understand what is going on

Example: Everyone else realised what was happening, but it took Henry ages to *catch on.*

Catch up = get work, etc, up to date.

Example: I was ill for a fortnight and now I've got to *catch up* on the work I missed.

Chance upon = find something by accident

Example: I *chanced upon* a very rare book in car boot sale and bought it for 65p.

Charge with = accuse somebody of a crime

Example: She was arrested in customs last night and has been *charged with* smuggling.

Chase up = ensure that someone remembers to do something

Example: The librarian is *chasing* me *up* about my overdue books.

Cheat on = be sexually unfaithful

Example: She *cheated on* me with my friend.

Check in = register on arriving at a hotel or at the airport

Example: They *checked in* at the Ritz yesterday.

Check into = register on arriving at a hotel or at the airport

Example: They *checked into* the Ritz yesterday.

Check out = pay the bill when leaving a hotel

Example: She *checked out* and took a cab to the airport.

Check out = die

Example: She *checked out* last week, the funeral's tomorrow.

Check out of = settle up and pay before leaving a hotel

Example: Guests have to *check out of* the hotel before midday.

Cheer up = be less unhappy

Example: Come on, CHEER UP, it isn't all bad, you know.

Chew over = think about an issue

Example: He asked for a few days to *chew* the matter *over* before he made a final decision.

Chicken out = be too afraid to do something

Example: I *chickened out* of the bungee jumping when I saw how high it was.

Chill out = relax

Example: I'm staying at home and *chilling out* this evening.

Chuck up = vomit, be sick

Example: He got ridiculously drunk and *chucked up* in the back of the minicab on the way home.

Clean out = tidy up thoroughly and throw away unwanted things.

Example: I really must *clean* the study *out*, there's stuff all over the floor and piles of paper everywhere.

Clean up = tidy and clean

Example: *Clean* this bedroom *up*, it's a disgrace.

Clear out = tidy up thoroughly and throw away unwanted stuff.

Example: I spent the whole weekend *clearing out* the attic as it was full of papers and other junk.

Clear up = the end of an infection

Example: I took the antihistamines and the rash *cleared up* right away.

Clear up = tidy up

Example: I'd better *clear away* the mess before leave.

Click through = open an advertisement on the Internet

Example: Only a tiny fraction of users ever bother *clicking through* the banner adverts.

Climb down = accept that you are wrong and change your position

Example: The Prime Minister had to *climb down* over his tax proposals because there was so much opposition from the members of his own party.

Close down = close a business permanently

Example: The firm *closed down* during the recession because it couldn't compete with the cut-price imports pouring in.

Close down = close a shop, branch or business permanently

Example: The banks have *closed down* a lot of branches in villages over the last few years.

Cloud over = get very cloudy

Example: The morning started bright and warm, but it *clouded over* around midday and poured with rain.

Come across = find by accident

Example: I *came across* my old school reports when I was clearing out my desk.

Come across = agree to have sex with someone

Example: I was surprised when she *came across* on the first night.

Come across = the way other people see you

Example: He *came across* as shy because he spoke so quietly.

Come apart = break into pieces

Example: It *came apart* when I tried to lift it off the floor and I had to glue it back together.

Come before = appear in court charged with a crime or offence

Example: He *came before* the court on charges of speeding.

Come down = rain

Example: Just look at the rain *coming down*! I'm not going out in that.

Come down = travel

Example: When you're next in London, *come down* and see us.

Come down on = criticise heavily

Example: The management really *came down on* him for losing the contract.

Come from = country or town where you were born

Example: She *comes from* Somalia.

Come in = arrive for flights

Example: The plane *came in* at two-thirty in the morning.

Come in = place or ranking in a competition, etc.

Example: I did my best but *came in* last but one in the race.

Example: Reports are just *coming in* of an assassination attempt on the President.

Come into = be important or relevant

Example: Money doesn't *come into it*, I simply will not do it under any circumstances.

Come into = inherit

Example: She *came into* a lot of money when her grandmother died.

Come into use = start being used

Example: The computerised system *came into use* at the end of last year.

Come off = when something breaks off

Example: I picked it up and the handle *came off* in my hand.

Come off it = I don't believe what you're saying

Example: *Come off it*, tell me the truth for goodness' sake.

Come on = encouragement

Example: *Come on*, don't give up now when you're so close to finishing.

Come on = start an illness

Example: I've got a bit of a headache. I hope it doesn't mean I've got flu *coming on*.

Come on = start functioning (machines, etc.)

Example: The central heating *comes on* automatically an hour before I have to get up.

Come out = a secret is revealed

Example: The details of the scandal *came out* in the press and she had to resign.

Come out = be published or otherwise available to the public

Example: The band's new CD is *coming out* in September.

Come out = disappear when washed

Example: The red wine I spilt just will not *come out* of the carpet no matter what I try to clean it with.

Come out = let people know that you are lesbian or gay

Example: She *came out* at university and has been living with her partner, Jane, for the last couple of years.

Come out = when the sun appears

Example: It started cloudy, but then the sun *came out* and we all went to the park.

Come out in = have a rash or similar skin problem

Example: She *came out in* a nasty rash after touching the poisonous plant by mistake.

Come over = feel strange

Example: I *came over* all faint and weak because my sugar level was too low. (British)

Come round = become conscious, wake up from anaesthetic

Example: She *came round* and learned that the operation had been a complete success.

Come round = change your opinion

Example: At first she didn't like the idea, but she *came round* to our way of thinking in the end.

Come through = arrive (messages and information)

Example: News is *coming through* of a major accident on the M25, where freezing fog has been making driving conditions extremely dangerous.

Come to = become conscious, wake up from anaesthetic

Example: She *came to* an hour after the operation.

Come to = result in

Example: The two men started arguing but they soon *came to* blows and started fighting in earnest.

Come up = appear

Example: I'll be late home tonight because something's *come up* at work has to be ready for tomorrow morning.

Come up = rise (the sun)

Example: The sun *came up* just as we reached the outskirts of the town.

Come up against = encounter problems or difficulties

Example: They *came up against* a lot of opposition to their plans for an out-of-town supermarket development.

Come up with = think of a solution, excuse, etc.

Example: Nobody could *come up with* a satisfactory explanation for the accident.

Come upon = find by chance

Example: I *came upon* the book in a little second-hand bookshop in Dorset.

Conk out = fall fast asleep

Example: I was exhausted and *conked out* on the sofa.

Cool down = get cooler

Example: I left the tea for a minute until it had *cooled down* enough to drink.

Cool down = become calm

Example: It took me ages to *cool down* after the argument.

Cop out = choose an easy alternative

Example: She was going to take a Master's degree but *copped out* and chose the Diploma course instead.

Could do with = need or want something

Example: I *could* really *do with* a cup of tea.

Count in = include or involve

Example: If you're going on that skiing holiday, you can *count* me *in*, I'd love to go.

Crack down = use more authority than usual

Example: The police always *crack down* on drink-driving offences over the Christmas period.

Crack up = have a nervous breakdown

Example: He *cracked up* after his son died and had to take a couple of months off work.

Crack up = have bad reception on a mobile phone

Example: You'll have to talk louder- you're *cracking up*.

Crash out = sleep at someone's house because you are too tired, drunk, etc. to leave

Example: Dave *crashed out* at a friend's flat after the end-of-term party.

Crop up = appear unexpectedly

Example: I'm going to be late tonight as something has just *cropped up* at work.

Cross out = put as line through some writing to show it is wrong

Example: She *crossed out* her mistakes and wrote the correct answers above them.

Cut back = reduce

Example: The firm *cut back* production because sales were sluggish.

Cut down = consume less

Example: I'm trying to *cut down* the amount of coffee I drink during the day.

Cut down = shoot

Example: A lot of soldiers were *cut down* by enemy fire as they stormed the airport.

Cut down on = reduce

Example: Doctors advised her to *cut down on* the amount of saturated fats in her diet.

Cut it out = stop your unfair or unreasonable behaviour

Example: Will you two idiots *cut it out* and keep quiet.

Cut off = disconnect

Example: The telephone's been *cut off* because we didn't pay the bill.

Cut off = isolate or make inaccessible

Example: The heavy snow has blocked many roads and *cut off* a number of villages.

Cut out = exclude

Example: I'm *cutting out* salt from my diet.

Cut out = when an engine or motor stops

Example: The car *cut out* at the traffic lights just as they went green.

Dawn on = finally realise or understand something

Example: The truth only *dawned on* me much later.

Die away = become quieter or inaudible (of a sound)

Example: The last notes *died away* and the audience burst into applause.

Die down = decrease or become quieter

Example: It was on the front pages of all the papers for a few days, but the interest gradually *died down*.

Die out = become extinct or disappear

Example: Some scientists say that the dinosaurs *died out* when a comet hit the earth and caused a nuclear winter.

Dig in = start eating greedily

Example: We were starving so we really *dug in* when the food finally did arrive.

Dig into = reach inside to get something

Example: She *dug into* her handbag and pulled out a bunch of keys.

Dig up = find something secret

Example: The reporters eventually dug up the truth about the affair.

Do away with = abolish, get rid of

Example: The United Kingdom *did away with* the death penalty in 1965.

Do out of = cheat somebody out of something that is rightfully theirs

Example: They lied on the reference and *did* me *out of* any chance of getting the job.

Do up = close or fasten clothes, etc.

Example: You must *do up* your safety belt in the back of cars and taxis now.

Do up = repair and renovate

Example: It took them six months to *do up* the house before they could actually move in.

Doze off = fall asleep

Example: The movie was a bit boring and I *dozed off* halfway through.

Drag on = be unnecessarily long

Example: The meeting *dragged on* for two and a half hours.

Draw up = prepare a contract

Example: The contract was *drawn up* by our solicitor.

Draw up = when a vehicle stops

Example: The police car *drew up* alongside him at the red lights and asked him to pull over.

Dream of = not think or consider

Example: I wouldn't even *dream of* telling her that.

Dream up = invent something, have an idea

Example: They *dreamed up* the scheme for the improvements and it was accepted by the board.

Dredge up = discover things about someone's past

Example: The newspapers *dredged up* the details of his affair with his research assistant.

Dress up = dress very smartly

Example: It's an informal party so there's no need to *dress up*.

Drink up = finish a drink

Example: Drink up, please, it's closing time.

Drive off = drive away from a place

Example: She slammed the car door shut and *drove off* without

saying a word.

Drop in = visit without having made arrangements

Example: I was in the area so I *dropped in* at the office to see her.

Drop out = quit a course

Example: She *dropped out* of college and went straight into a good job.

Dwell on = spend a lot of time on something

Example: The programme *dwelled on* little other than the scandal.

Dwell upon = spend a lot of time on something

Example: She *dwelt upon* the economic situation in her speech.

Ease off = reduce pressure

Example: She *eased off* the accelerator to let the car slow down.

Ease up = relax, calm down

Example: She asked her teacher to *ease up* because she was feeling very stressed.

Eat out = eat in a restaurant

Example: We couldn't be bothered to cook so we *ate out* last night.

Eat up = eat all of something

Example: If you don't *eat up* your greens, you won't get any dessert.

Edge up = approach slowly

Example: She *edged up* behind the bus at the red light.

Egg on = encourage

Example: The other students *egged* him *on* when he started arguing with the teacher.

Eke out = make something like money last as long as possible

Example: Most students have to *eke out* their income because they have so little money to live on.

Embark on = start a project or venture

Example: Piere *embarked on* an MBA at Instead last autumn.

Embark upon = start a project or venture

Example: Fernando has just *embarked upon* a completely new direction professionally.

End up = become or do something unplanned

Example: We couldn't get tickets for Egypt so we *ended up* going to Turkey instead.

Enter for = join or enter a competition

Example: They *entered for* the national championship but weren't good enough.

Eye up = look carefully at someone

Example: The guy *eyed* the other man *up* because he was behaving suspiciously.

Face up to = accept an unpleasant truth

Example: Many people find it hard to *face up to* the fact that they are getting old.

Fall back = retreat

Example: The army *fell back* after losing the battle.

Fall down = fall on the ground

Example: I slipped on the ice and *fell down*.

Fall down = have a weak point

Example: The argument *falls down* when you look at how much it'll cost.

Fall for = be attracted to somebody, fall in love

Example: He *fell for* her the moment their eyes met.

Fall for = believe a lie or a piece of deception

Example: He *fell for* my story and allowed me yet another extension for the submission of my thesis.

Fall in = collapse

Example: The ceiling *fell in* hurting a lot of people.

Fall off = decrease

Example: The membership fell off dramatically when the chairperson resigned.

Fall out = argue and be on bad terms with someone

Example: They *fell out* over the decision and hardly speak to each other any more.

Fall out = lose hair

Example: He's started getting worried about baldness because his hair is *falling out* rather quickly.

Fall over = fall on the ground

Example: I slipped on the ice and *fell over*.

Fall through = be unsuccessful

Example: The plans *fell through* when planning permission was refused.

Fathom out = understand something

Example: I couldn't *fathom out* what she wanted from me. (British)

Feel up to = feel capable of doing something

Example: I'm so tired. I don't think I *feel up to* going out tonight.

Fight off = fight an attacker and force them back

Example: The old lady managed to *fight* the muggers *off* and they didn't get her purse.

Figure out = find the answer to a problem

Example: The police couldn't *figure out* how the burglars had got into the warehouse.

File away = put a document in the correct place for storage in a filing system

Example: I *filed* a copy of the letter *away* for my records.

Fill in = complete a form (UK)

Example: I *filled in* the application form and posted it off.

Fill in on = give someone information

Example: I'm sorry I missed the meeting, could you *fill* me *in on* what happened.

Fill out = complete a form (US)

Example: I *filled out* the application form and mailed it.

Fill up = fill something completely

Example: I stopped at the garage and *filled up* with petrol.

Filter out = remove something unwanted

Example: It *filters out* all the impurities and chemicals in tap water so that it tastes better.

Find out = discover

Example: I went to the library to *find out* all I could about the life and work of Joe Meek.

Finish off = finish completely

Example: They *finished off* all the chocolates and had to go to the all-night garage to buy some more.

Fire away = ask questions

Example: What do you want to know? *fire away* and I'll tell you.

Fire up = Start a computer

Example: She *fired up* the computer and printed out a hard copy of the files.

Fit in = get on in a group of people

Example: I didn't *fit in* with the other people working there so I left and found another job.

Fit in = have enough time or space for something

Example: I didn't have time to *fit in* another appointment.

Fix up = make an arrangement

Example: He *fixed up* an appointment for me to see a specialist.

Flesh out = add more details or information

Example: The recent government report *fleshed out* the draft proposals.

Flog off = sell something cheaply to get rid of it

Example: The council *flogged off* the land cheaply to a developer who had close links to a few of the councillors. (British)

Focus on = concentrate

Example: The report *focuses on* the company's weak points.

Fold up = make a sheet of paper smaller

Example: Darren *folded up* the letter and put it in an envelope.

Geek out = talk at length about computing

Example: Henry always *geeks out* at parties and bores all the non-specialists, nearly everyone within earshot, to death.

Get around = become known

Example: It didn't take long for the news to *get around* once it got

into the newspapers.

Get around to = finally manage to do something

Example: It always takes me ages to *get around* to replying to letters.

Get at = criticise

Example: His boss is always *getting at* him for arriving late.

Get at = mean

Example: What do you think she's *getting at*? I've no idea what she wants.

Get away = escape

Example: The robbers *got away* in a stolen car, which the police later found abandoned.

Get away = go on holiday or for a short break

Example: We love to *get away* from everything and relax in the country.

Get away with = not get caught doing something wrong

Example: Thieves *got away* with two Picassos, which were never found.

Get back = return

Example: The train was held up so we didn't *get back* home until midnight.

Get behind with = be late paying instalments for something.

Example: If you *get behind with* mortgage payments, you might lose your home.

Get by = have just enough money to live on

Example: They're finding it increasingly difficult to *get by* since their daughter was born.

Get down = depress someone

Example: The miserable weather in winter really *gets* me *down*.

Get down to = start work

Example: I find it extremely difficult to *get down to* doing any revision for examinations.

Get in = arrange for someone to do a job

Example: The air conditioning has broken down, we'll have to *get* a technician *in* to fix it.

Get in = arrive (train, plane, etc.)

Example: Her plane *gets in* at 2am our time.

Get in = arrive home

Example: She didn't *get in* till twelve o'clock because she'd been out for a few drinks with her mates.

Get in = enter a car or taxi

Example: The taxi pulled up and we *got in*.

Get off = escape punishment

Example: He *got off* on a technicality and left the court as a free man.

Get off = leave a bus, train, etc.

Example: We *got off* the bus and walked to my house.

Get off with = have casual sex with

Example: He *got off with* her at the party.

Get on = continue doing something

Example: The teacher asked the pupils to *get on* with some work quietly as she had to leave the classroom.

Get on = enter a bus, train, plane, etc.

Example: We *got on* the train at Plymouth and went up to London.

Get on = make progress

Example: How are you *getting on* with your Spanish lessons?

Get on well = have a good relationship

Example: Fortunately, I *get on well* with my boss.

Get out of = avoid doing something you dislike

Example: I said I wasn't feeling well and *got out of* the extra work.

Get out of = leave a car, van, etc.

Example: We *got out of* the taxi and paid the driver.

Get over = recover

Example: It took me ages to *get over* the bout of flu.

Get over with = do something unpleasant rather than delaying it any more

Example: I *got* the test *over with* rather than have to worry about it any longer.

Get round\around = persuade someone

Example: She didn't want to let me do it, but I succeeded in *getting round* her. (In American English 'around' is used)

Get round\around to = finally manage to do something

Example: It always takes me ages to *get round* to writing letters. (In American English 'around' is used)

Get through = contact

Example: I tried calling her mobile phone, but I couldn't *get through*.

Get to = annoy, irritate

Example: Don't let her *get to* you, she's just in a bad mood.

Get together = meet socially

Example: We *got together* in the pub for a drink.

Get up = get out of bed

Example: I *get up* at seven o'clock on weekdays, but lie in till noon at the weekend.

Get up = organise

Example: They *got up* a list of two hundred people who were opposed to the local council's plans.

Get up to = do something wrong or naughty

Example: The children are always *getting up to* some trouble or other.

Give away = entrust your daughter to her husband during the marriage ceremony

Example: He *gave* his daughter *away* and told the groom to look after her.

Give away = tell a secret

Example: She didn't *give* anything *away* about the party so it came as a complete surprise to me.

Give back = return something you've borrowed

Example: I *gave* her *back* the twenty pounds she'd lent to me.

Give in = stop doing something because it's too hard or requires too much energy

Example: I couldn't finish the crossword puzzle and had to *give in* and look at the answers.

Give in = submit homework, etc.

Example: The projects have to be *given in* three weeks before we break up for the end of term. (British)

Give off = emit pollution or something else unpleasant

Example: The police stopped the van because it was *giving off* a lot of black smoke.

Give out = distribute

Example: Somebody was *giving* leaflets *out* in front of the underground station.

Give out = stop working

Example: I'd been having trouble with my laptop and it finally *gave out* at the weekend.

Give up = stop doing something that had been a habit

Example: I *gave up* taking sugar in tea and coffee to lose weight.

Give up on = lose faith in or stop believing in something or someone

Example: I *gave up on* them when I heard what they were saying about me behind my back.

Gloss over = try to minimise the importance of something

Example: The Minister tried to *gloss over* the report that was critical of her department.

Go about = deal with something

Example: How should I *go about* telling her the bad news?

Go after = chase, try to get

Example: The bird *went after* the pigeon, but it flew away.

Go against = lose a decision or a verdict of a court

Example: If the decision *goes against* me, I'll go bankrupt.

Go ahead = proceed

Example: The construction of the bypass *went ahead* despite the protests from environmentalists.

Go along with = accept a decision or suggestion

Example: I didn't really agree but *went along with* the decision because I was in the minority.

Go by = the passing of time

Example: Ten years *went by* before we saw each other again.

Go by = trust or depend on for correct information

Example: Don't *go by* watch, it's usually a bit slow.

Go down = decrease, get smaller

Example: The price of scanners has *gone down* recently.

Go down = sink

Example: The Titanic *went down* after it hit an iceberg on its maiden voyage.

Go down = sunset

Example: The sun *went down* at seven o'clock.

Go down with = fall ill

Example: She *went down with* a virus. (British- Americans use 'come down with')

Go for = attack

Example: The neighbour's dog *went for* the postman and bit him.

Go for = be attracted to

Example: She tends to *go for* guys like him.

Go for = choose, select

Example: I'll *go for* the soup of the day, followed by the duck.

Go in = go to hospital for treatment, surgery, etc.

Example: He *went in* for a triple bypass operation two days ago.

Go in for = enter a competition

Example: He *went in for* the photography prize, but didn't win.

Go into = discuss in some detail

Example: They refused to *go into* exactly what was wrong

Go into = enter a profession

Example: She *went into* banking after she'd finished university.

Go off = explode (bomb), start ringing (alarm)

Example: The fire alarm *went off* because someone was smoking in the toilets.

Go off = go bad

Example: The milk *went off* because I forgot to put it in the fridge.

Go off = start to dislike

Example: I *went off* her when she lied to me. (British)

Go on = continue

Example: He *went on* and *on* talking and I was so bored.

Go on = happen

Example: There are loads of people out in the street, what's *going on*?

Go on about = talk too much

Example: He's always *going on about* his kids.

Go out = stops burning

Example: The candle *went out* and left us in darkness.

Go out with = have a relationship with

Example: He's been *going out with* his girlfriend for around six months now.

Go through = experience

Example: You wouldn't believe what I *went through* when I was ill!

Go through = read again

Example: I *went through* my notes before the exam.

Go through with = do or complete something you've agreed to

Example: He did promise, but I doubt that he'll *go through with* it.

Go under = go bankrupt

Example: Many small shops are *going under* because they cannot compete with the supermarkets.

Go up = rise

Example: The price of petrol has *gone up* sharply because of the increase in duty in the Government's budget.

Go up to = approach

Example: She *went up to* him and asked him if he wanted a drink.

Go with = combine nicely

Example: Does this tie *go with* my shirt?

Go without = not have

Example: I had to *go without* lunch today because I didn't have any time.

Grass up = report someone to a person in authority

Example: She didn't to *grass* them *up*, even though they'd been bullying her badly. (British)

Grow into = grow to fit large clothes

Example: The jacket's a bit big, but she'll *grow into* it.

Grow out of = grow too large for clothes

Example: He *grew out of* those shoes in no time at all.

Grow up = mature, become adult

Example: He *grew up* in the West Country.

Hand down = pass on to the next generation

Example: The jewellery has been *handed down* in my family for generations.

Hand in = submit work for appraisal

Example: I *handed* my homework *in* late as usual.

Hand out = distribute

Example: The teacher *handed out* the worksheet to the class.

Hand over = give

Example: The robbers told the clerk to *hand over* all the money.

Hang on = wait

Example: Could you *hang on* for a moment till she's free.

Hang out = spend time socially

Example: He *hangs out* in the pub The *Monarch*, he's there most of the nights.

Hang up = end a phone call

Example: I lost my temper and *hung up* on her.

Harp on = talk repeatedly about something

Example: I was late twice last week and my boss keeps *harping on* about it.

Have on = be wearing

Example: What did Joan *have on* at the party?

Heat up = make food hot

Example: He *heated* the soup *up* in the microwave.

Help out = give assistance

Example: She really *helped* me *out* when I was going through my divorce.

Hit on = have an idea

Example: I suddenly *hit on* the solution

Hold back = not show emotion

Example: It was really hard to *hold back* the tears.

Hold down = keep a job

Example: He's so unreliable that he can never *hold down* a job for more than a couple of months.

Hold off = when bad weather doesn't appear

Example: The rain *held off* until we'd got back home.

Hold on = wait

Example: Could you *hold on* for a minute, she'll be free in a moment.

Hold up = delay when travelling

Example: I was *held up* by the terrible traffic and arrived half an hour late for my appointment.

Hold up = rob with violence or threats thereof

Example: Two armed men *held up* the bank in High Street this morning and got away with £75,000.

Home in on = target

Example: The government is *homing in on* benefit fraud.

Iron out = remove small problems or irregularities

Example: The management team *ironed out* the tax problems before they gave the project the OK.

Jam on = apply or operate something forcefully

Example: Jack *jammed on* the brakes when the rabbit ran in front of his car.

Jazz up = make something more interesting or attractive

Example: The show was getting stale so they *jazzed* it *up* with some new scenes.

Jot down = make a quick note

Example: I *jotted down* her number on a scrap of paper and I can't find it now.

Keep at = continue with something difficult

Example: She found the course hard but she *kept at* it and completed it successfully.

Keep off = not talk about

Example: She *kept off* the subject of her divorce.

Keep on = continue

Example: He *kept on* trying and succeeded in the end.

Keep up = not let someone go to bed

Example: My neighbours *kept* me *up* till after 4 am with their loud music last night.

Keep up at = continue, not quit

Example: Learning a language is difficult, but if you *keep up at* it, you'll succeed in the end.

Keep up with = move at the same rate

Example: He walks too fast and it's really hard to *keep up with* him.

Keep up with = stay up to date

Example: It's hard to *keep up with* all the latest improvements and breakthroughs in technology nowadays.

Key in = enter numbers or information into a computer or electronic system

Example: It took me ages to *key in* all the information into the database.

Kick in = when a drug starts to take effect

Example: Her hay fever didn't feel half as bad once the antihistamines had *kicked in*.

Kick off = start a game of football

Example: The match *kicks off* at three o'clock.

Kick out = expel

Example: The family *kicked* the au pair *out* when they found out that she was planning to move to work for another household.

Knock down = demolish

Example: They *knocked down* the old church and built a block of flats in its place.

Knock down = hit and injure someone

Example: The car *knocked* her *down* and she broke her arm.

Knock off = finish work for the day

Example: We *knocked off* early on Friday to avoid the rush hour queues.

Knock out = hit and make somebody unconscious

Example: The reigning middleweight champion *knocked out* the challenger in the fourth round of the fight.

Large it up = have a good time when intoxicated

Example: They were *larging it up* in the rave.

Lay down = establish rules or procedures

Example: The rules of the sport were *laid down* early in the nine-

teenth century.

Lay off = make an employee redundant

Example: The hotel *laid off* twenty staff because tourist numbers were down.

Lay on = organise, supply

Example: They *laid on* a buffet lunch at the conference.

Lay out = spend money

Example: They *laid out* thousands of pounds on their wedding reception.

Lead to = result in

Example: The investigation *led to* the arrest of a number of suspects.

Leave on = not turn off

Example: Leave the TV *on*, I want to hear the football results.

Leave out = not include

Example: He was *left out* of the side because he hasn't been playing too well lately.

Let down = disappoint, fail to keep an arrangement

Example: She failed to turn up and I felt badly *let down*.

Let in = allow someone to enter

Example: The door staff didn't *let him in* the nightclub because he was wearing jeans.

Let off = not punish

Example: The judge *let* him *off* with a fine rather than a prison sentence since it was his first offence.

Let on = tell a secret

Example: I didn't mean to *let on* about the party, I just said it without thinking.

Let out = allow to leave or go out

Example: The convict was *let out* of prison after serving five years of an eight-year sentence.

Let out = make a sound

Example: He *let out* a huge sigh of relief when he heard the results.

Lift off = leave the ground- rocket or spaceship

Example: 5-4-3-2-1- we have *lift-off*!

Light up = light or start smoking a cigarette

Example: Asif *lit up* as soon as he got out of the building.

Listen out for = listen for a particular noise or sound

Example: They put their coats on and *listened out for* the minicab.

Live it up = have a good time by spending a lot of money

Example: She's been *living it up* like crazy since she won the lottery.

Live off = use money earned

Example: They find it hard to *live off* the money they make.

Live on = use money for basic necessities

Example: They have to *live on* $200 a week.

Lock up = close all doors, windows, etc.

Example: She *locked up* after everyone had left and went home.

Log off = exit a computer system

Example: When she'd finished working on the spreadsheet, she *logged off* and left the office.

Log on = enter a computer system

Example: He entered his password for the college intranet and *logged on*.

Log out = exit a computer system

Example: Danny closed the programs and *logged out* when it was time to go home.

Look after = take care

Example: Their auntie *looked after* them while their mother was in hospital.

Look back = think about the past

Example: Old people often *look back* on over their lives.

Look down on = have a low opinion of

Example: He *looks down on* his colleagues because he thinks he's better than they are.

Look For = try to find

Example: I've been *looking for* all their hidden files, but I can't find them anywhere.

Look forward to = wait for or anticipate something pleasant

Example: I'm looking *forward to* meeting you.

Look in = make a quick visit

Example: I'll *look in on* them on my way home.

Look in on = visit briefly to see if everything's all right

Example: I'm going to *look in on* Gran on the way home tonight as she's been a bit unwell recently.

Look into = research, investigate

Example: We'll *look into* the problem and come back to you when we have the information.

Look on = watch something like a crime without helping

Example: The crowd just *looked on* as the old lady was mugged.

Look out = be careful

Example: Look out, you're going to drop that!

Look round = inspect a house

Example: We *looked round* the house and decided that we didn't like it enough to buy it.

Look up = consult a reference work (dictionary, phonebook, etc.) for a specific piece of information.

Example: I didn't know the correct spelling so I had to *look* it *up* in the dictionary.

Look up to = respect

Example: She's *looks up to* her mother.

Make for = head in a certain direction

Example: We *made for* home when it started raining.

Make into = change something into something else

Example: Many churches have been *made into* flats in recent years.

Make it up to = try to compensate for doing something wrong

Example: He tried to *make it up to* her, but she wouldn't speak to him.

Make off with = steal

Example: Thieves *made off with* over a million dollars in the robbery.

Make out = make a cheque payable to somebody

Example: Please *make* the cheque *out* to RGM Productions Ltd.

Make out = pretend

Example: He *made out* that he was ill so that he didn't have to go to school.

Make up = stop being angry with someone

Example: They are always arguing, but they *make up* again very quickly.

Make up for = compensate

Example: I sent her a present to try to *make up for* my appalling behaviour.

Mark down = give a student a lower grade for a particular reason

Example: Students who gave obviously rehearsed answers were *marked down*, while those who spoke naturally were rewarded accordingly.

Meet with = have something happen to you

Example: They *met with* some problems they hadn't anticipated.

Mix up = confuse

Example: I always *mix* those two sisters *up* because they look so like each other.

Mouth off = speak angrily about something

Example: I always get angry and start *mouthing off* when the news is on TV.

Move on = change the subject or your job

Example: She *moved on* to another company where the salary was considerably better.

Move on = make people move from a place

Example: The police *moved* the crowd *on* because they were holding up the traffic.

Mull over = think about an issue or problem

Example: She said that she'd had to *mull it over* before deciding what was

Nag at = repeatedly criticise someone verbally

Example: My boss is always *nagging at* me about my arriving a few minutes late for work.

Note down = write something short like a phone number for future reference.

Example: She *noted down* my fax number so that she could send me the documents when she got to the office.

Open up = start to talk freely about something

Example: She hates to *open up* and discuss her feelings.

Opt for = choose

Example: I *opted for* an endowment mortgage and lost a lot of money.

Opt out = choose not to be part of something

Example: The UK *opted out* of a lot of EU legislation on working hours and conditions.

Owe to = be the reason for something

Example: She *owes* her success *to* hard work and determination.

Own up = confess

Example: Nobody *owned up* to breaking the window.

Pan out = the way a situation develops

Example: I don't know how things will *pan out* now the company's been taken over.

Pass away = die

Example: Sadly, Georgia's uncle *passed away* yesterday after a short illness.

Pass on = give a message to someone

Example: I'll *pass* the message *on* when she gets here.

Pass out = faint, lose consciousness

Example: He got so drunk that he *passed out*.

Pay back = repay money borrowed

Example: I *paid back* the twenty pounds I'd borrowed.

Pay back = take revenge on

Example: I'm going to *pay* him *back* for that insult.

Pay for = purchase

Example: I *paid* twenty pounds *for* the book.

Pay into = deposit money

Example: I *paid* the cash *into* my account.

Pay off = completely repay a debt

Example: The mortgage will be *paid off* in twenty-five years.

Pay off = produce a profitable or successful result

Example: Their patience *paid off* when he finally showed up and signed the contract.

Perk up = feel better or happier

Example: She was ill in bed with flu, but she *perked up* a bit when some friends dropped by.

Pick at = eat unwillingly

Example: I wasn't very hungry so I just *picked at* my food.

Pick out = choose

Example: She *picked out* the ones she wanted to take and left the rest.

Pick out = choose or select

Example: The victim couldn't *pick out* her attacker from the photos the police showed her.

Pick up = improve

Example: Sales *picked up* a bit during the Christmas period.

Pick up = learn quickly

Example: She *picked up* Spanish in six months.

Pile up = accumulate

Example: Work just keeps on *piling up* and I really can't manage to get it all done.

Pipe down = be quiet (often as an imperative)

Example: The lecturer asked the students to *pipe down* and pay attention.

Play down = try to make something seem less important

Example: The Government has tried to *play down* the importance of the minister's resignation.

Plug in = connect machines to the electricity supply

Example: He *plugged* the TV *in* and turned it on full blast.

Plump for = choose

Example: I *plumped for* the steak frites.

Point out = make someone aware of something

Example: He *pointed out* that I only had two weeks to get the whole thing finished.

Polish off = finish

Example: She *polishes off* half a bottle of neat spirits every night.

Pop out = go out for a short time

Example: I'm just *popping out* to the shops. Do you need anything while I'm out?

Pop up = appear, like windows and boxes opening on a computer screen.

Example: The dialogue box *popped up* when I pressed Enter.

Pour down = rain hard

Example: It *poured down* all day so we had to remain indoors.

Prattle on = talk too much

Example: Geoff just *prattled on* rather than give a straight answer.

Price up = charge more for something

Example: In rural areas where they have a monopoly, some garages *price up* fuel because there's nowhere else to buy it.

Print out = make a hard copy of a computer document

Example: He *printed out* the letter and checked through it carefully.

Pull away = when a vehicle moves from a place

Example: The car *pulled away* from the lights at high speed.

Pull in = when a train arrives at a station

Example: The train *pulled in* and we rushed to meet her as she got off.

Pull off = manage to do something difficult or tricky

Example: No-one thought that she would be able to do it, but she *pulled* it *off* in the end.

Pull up = slow and stop a car

Example: The cab *pulled up* outside my house and I got out.

Push in = get in a queue without waiting

Example: She just *pushed in* the queue in front of me at the supermarket checkout.

Put away = put something back in the correct place

Example: He *put* the dictionary *back* on the shelf after he'd finished the crossword.

Put back = rearrange something for a later time

Example: The AGM has been *put back* until July the seventeenth.

Put by = save for the future

Example: I try to *put* some money *by* every month towards our summer holiday.

Put down = kill an animal because it's old, ill, etc.

Example: He had his dog *put down* because it was in a lot of pain from its tumours.

Put in = install

Example: They had to *put in* a whole new central heating system because the house was so cold.

Put in for = make a request

Example: He *put in for* a transfer to the new branch.

Put off = postpone

Example: The concert's been *put off* until next month because the singer's got a throat infection.

Put off = stop liking something or somebody

Example: I was really *put off* by the way he eats with his mouth open.

Put on = get fat

Example: He's *put on* a lot of weight since he gave up smoking.

Put out = broadcast

Example: Several charities *put out* an appeal on TV for money for the victims of the flooding in Mozambique.

Put out = disturb or trouble someone

Example: Would it be *putting* you *out* greatly if I asked to change to another day.

Put out = extinguish a cigarette, fire, etc.

Example: He *put out* his cigarette before entering the building.

Put through = connect someone by phone

Example: Could you *put* me *through* to extension 259 please.

Put towards = make a financial contribution

Example: She *put* $250 *towards* the cost of the repairs and we had to pay the rest.

Put up = allow someone to stay at your house for a night or a few days.

Example: She *put* me *up* for the night because I'd missed the last bus and there were no night buses running.

Put up = increase prices, taxes, duties, etc.

Example: The government has *put* tuition fees for undergraduate students *up* again.

Put up with = tolerate

Example: I can't *put up with* my neighbour's noise any longer, it's driving me mad.

Quieten down = fall silent

Example: The audience *quietened down* when the lights were switched off in the auditorium and the play was ready to begin.

Rat on = inform authorities about someone's wrongdoings

Example: She *ratted* to the police *on* her neighbours because they

were smuggling alcohol from France.

Rattle off = quote figures rapidly

Example: She *rattled off* load of statistics which nobody could understand.

Read off = read a list aloud for someone to write down

Example: I *read off* the figures and she wrote them down in her notebook.

Read out = read aloud rather than silently

Example: The teacher *read out* the names of the students who'd passed.

Reckon on = the minimum expected

Example: Jeff says we can *reckon on* there being at least fifty people there tonight.

Ring back = return a phone call

Example: I phoned and left a message this morning but she still hasn't *called* me *back*.

Ring off = finish a phone conversation

Example: Dave *rang off* guiltily when he saw his boss coming.

Ring up = telephone

Example: Helen *rang up* earlier.

Rip off = charge excessively or obtain money unfairly

Example: Tourists get *ripped off* a lot when they don't speak the language.

Round off = finish something in a satisfactory manner

Example: Winning the FA Cup *rounded off* a wonderful season for Arsenal.

Rule out = exclude

Example: The Government quickly *ruled out* the possibility of a relaxation of the law.

Run away = Escape from people chasing you

Example: He *ran away* from his attackers.

Run down = hit a pedestrian with a vehicle

Example: The minicab *ran* him *down* on the zebra crossing.

Run down = lose energy or power

Example: You should only recharge the battery when it has fully *run down*.

Run into = cost

Example: The project has *run into* millions of dollars without any prospect of a return on this investment.

Run into = meet by accident

Example: I *ran into* James in a bar in the City on Friday.

Run off = make photocopies

Example: Could you *run off* two hundred copies of this report, please.

Run on = be powered by

Example: The van *runs on* diesel.

Run out of = have none left

Example: We've *run out of* sugar, I'm going to the shops for some.

Run over = explain quickly

Example: Could you *run over* that point again, I'm afraid I didn't quite understand it.

Run over = hit with a vehicle

Example: The driver couldn't stop in time and *ran* the fox *over*

when it ran in front of his car.

Run through = practise a dramatic work like a play quickly

Example: The cast *ran through* the play the day before it opened to the public.

Run through = stab or wound deeply with a knife, sword, etc.

Example: The musketeer *ran* his enemy *through* with a sword and killed him.

Save up = for money for a particular purpose

Example: He's *saving up* to buy a car.

Scare off = make someone so frightened that he or she away

Example: The vicious Doberman guard-dog *scared* the burglars *away*.

Screw up = do badly or fail

Example: David *screwed up* his oral exam but still managed to scrape a pass.

Screw up = make a mess, ruin

Example: He *screwed up* the whole project and lost his job.

See into = accompany someone into an office

Example: Her secretary *saw me* into her office.

See off = chase somebody or something away

Example: A cat came into the back garden but the dog soon *saw* it *off*.

See off = go to the airport, station, etc., to say goodbye to someone

Example: I went to the station to *see* them *off*.

See out = accompany a guest to your front door when they are leaving your house

Example: Are you sure you're going? I'll get your coats and *see* you *out*.

See through = continue with something to the end

Example: They had a lot of difficulties in implementing the project, but the team *saw* it *through* successfully.

See through = realise someone is lying or being deceitful

Example: The police quickly *saw through* her disguise and arrested her.

See to = deal with something

Example: He *saw to* the arrangements and everything ran smoothly and efficiently.

Sell out = have no more of something left because it has been bought

Example: The tickets for the Primal Scream concert at the Brixton Academy *sold out* in a couple of hours.

Sell out = lose all artistic integrity in return for commercial success

Example: Most bands *sell out* when they sign to a major record label and forget all their principles when pursuing chart success.

Sell out = sell all available tickets

Example: The concert completely *sold out* months in advance.

Send back = return something

Example: I *sent* my food *back* because it was overcooked.

Send for = ask someone to come and help

Example: I had to *send for* a plumber because the radiator was leaking.

Send in = order people into a place to handle a problem

Example: The police were *sent in* to quell the riot as the protesters had started burning cars and wrecking shops.

Send in = write to get information

Example: If you want to enter the competition, you have to *send in* for an entry form.

Send off = expel a sports player from a match

Example: The football striker was *sent off* for arguing with the referee's decision.

Send off = post a letter

Example: I must *send* this letter *off* today otherwise it won't get there in time.

Send off for = order something by post

Example: I *sent off for* some jeans that I liked in the catalogue.

Send out = send something to a lot of people

Example: They *sent out* a mail shot to all their existing customers.

Send out for = order takeaway food by phone

Example: We couldn't be bothered to cook, so we *sent out for* a pizza.

Set about = start doing something

Example: We *set about* the cleaning and got it done before lunch-time.

Set aside = overturn a court verdict or decision

Example: The Appeal Court *set aside* the guilty verdict because the evidence was unsatisfactory and declared her not guilty.

Set back = cost

Example: The car repairs *set* me *back* eight hundred pounds.

Set in = change season noticeably

Example: Winter has *set in*, it's started snowing.

Set off* = *explode a bomb

Example: Terrorists *set off* a car bomb in the city centre last night. Fortunately, no-one was hurt or killed.

Set off* = *ring an alarm

Example: The smoke *set* the fire alarm *off*.

Set off* = *start a journey

Example: We *set off* for work at seven-thirty.

Set out* = *display, show

Example: The figures are *set out* in the council's annual report.

Set out* = *start a journey

Example: The explorers *set out* for the South Pole yesterday morning.

Set up* = *prepare equipment, software, etc., for use

Example: The technician *set up* the computer network perfectly.

Set up* = *start a company

Example: They *set up* a dot com company and floated it a couple of years later on the Stock Exchange and made an absolute fortune.

Settle down* = *start living a fixed and routine life

Example: After years of partying and drinking, she finally got married and *settled down*.

Settle in* = *get used to

Example: It took him a while to *settle in* when he moved to Japan.

Settle on* = *agree

Example: They couldn't agree at first on a name for their daughter, but finally *settled on* Alice.

Sex up = change information to make it more attractive to the reader\listener

Example: The government denied that they had *sexed up* the report to make the front page.

Shake off = get rid of an illness

Example: It took me ages to *shake off* the cough.

Shoot off = leave promptly and quickly

Example: I'll have to *shoot off* as soon as the lesson finishes, otherwise I'll miss my train.

Shoot up = increase quickly

Example: The share prices of internet companies have been *shooting up* lately.

Shop around = look around for the best price, quality, etc.

Example: If you *shop around*, you can find some real bargains for air tickets.

Show in = take someone into an office

Example: The secretary *showed* me *in* to speak to the manager.

Show off = behave in a way so as to attract attention

Example: The children were *showing off* and irritated me.

Shut down = close a business, shop, etc.

Example: The shop *shut down* when the out-of-town supermarket opened.

Shut down = turn a computer off

Example: You should close all programs before you *shut* a computer *down*.

Side with = support someone

Example: The lecturer *sided with* her students and got sacked for

her pains.

Sift through = examine a lot of things carefully

Example: We had to *sift through* thousands of files before we found what we were looking for.

Sink in = slowly come to be understood

Example: The truth finally *sank in* about her death when it was broadcast on TV.

Sit around = sit idly, doing nothing

Example: They just *sat around* while the others did all the work.

Sit in = occupy a building to protest about something

Example: The students *sat in* the Library as a protest against the increase in tuition fees.

Sit on = be on a committee

Example: She's *sat on* the finance committee from the beginning.

Sit through = stay till the end of something dull

Example: I was bored and wanted to leave halfway through, but we *sat through* the film.

Slag off = criticise heavily

Example: The concert was terrible and all the papers slagged the band off.

Sleep off = sleep in order to recover from excess alcohol, drugs, etc.

Example: She went to bed *to sleep off* the effects of the tequila.

Sleep on = think about something

Example: My boss said she'd have to *sleep on* it when I asked her for a raise.

Sleep over = spend the night at someone else's house

Example: The au pair made tea for the friends who were *sleeping over*.

Sleep through = not wake up

Example: I *slept through* the storm even though the wind blew some slates off the roof.

Slip out = leave discreetly

Example: The party was really dull so we *slipped out* and went to the pub instead.

Slip up = make an error

Example: The waitress *slipped up* and didn't bring us what we had ordered.

Sober up = stop showing the effects of alcohol or drugs

Example: Keith *sobered up* a bit when we left the pub and walked home.

Soldier on = continue even when things get difficult

Example: Life got hard for my dog when he went blind, but he just *soldiered on* and never complained.

Sort out = resolve a problem

Example: Has the firm *sorted out* its tax problems yet?

Sort out = solve a problem

Example: There were a lot of problems at first, but they've all been *sorted out* now.

Sound out = check what someone thinks about an issue, idea, etc.

Example: You should *sound* her *out* to get her opinion before you go ahead with the plan.

Spark off = cause something, usually unpleasant, to happen

Example: The riot was *sparked off* by the police raid on the club.

Speak out = talk openly and freely

Example: People are afraid to *speak out* in oppressive political regimes.

Speak up = Talk more loudly

Example: They couldn't hear the speaker and asked him to *speak up* a bit.

Split up = divide into groups

Example: The teacher *split* the class *up* into groups of four.

Split up = finish a relationship

Example: They are always *splitting up* and then getting back together again.

Spur on = encourage someone to continue

Example: The thought of the bonus *spurred* her *on* to complete the work on time.

Squeeze up = get more people into a space than normal or comfortable

Example: Four of us had to *squeeze up* in the back of the car.

Stand by = support someone

Example: He *stood by* her throughout the trial as he believed her to be innocent.

Stand for = accept or tolerate behaviour

Example: I'm not going to *stand for* their rudeness any longer.

Stand for = the words represented by certain initials

Example: 'WHAT do the letters BBC *stand for*? ' 'British Broadcasting Corporation.'

Stand in for = substitute someone temporarily

Example: She had to *stand in for* the editor while he was on holi-

day.

Stand out = be extraordinary and different

Example: She *stood out* from the crowd in selection and was offered the job.

Start up = open a business

Example: The firm *started up* on a shoestring budget.

Stay in = not go out

Example: I'm going to *stay in* and chill tonight, I can't be bothered to go out.

Stay on = remain longer than anticipated

Example: She *stayed on* after she graduated to do a Master's degree.

Stay out = not go home

Example: We *stayed out* all night.

Stay up = not go to bed

Example: The children *stayed up* until way past their bedtime.

Steer clear of = avoid

Example: He's trying to *steer clear of* his lecturer because he hasn't finished his assignment yet.

Step in = get involved by interrupting something

Example: I had to *step in* when they started fighting.

Step up = increase

Example: The police have *stepped up* the pressure on beggars working the Underground.

Stick to = not change

Example: The Prime Minister decided to *stick to* the original plan

despite the criticism in the media.

Stir up = make trouble for someone else

Example: He *stirred* things *up* by complaining to senior management about his line manager.

Stop off = break a journey

Example: We *stopped off* for lunch about halfway there, then carried on driving.

Stub out = extinguish a cigarette

Example: He *stubbed* his cigarette *out* in a saucer because he couldn't find an ashtray.

Sum up = summarise

Example: At the end of the lecture, she *summed up* the main points again.

Summon up = get the energy or courage to do something

Example: Andrea couldn't *summon up* the enthusiasm to apply for the position.

Suss out = come to understand

Example: It took her ages to *suss out* what was going on.

Take after = look like, resemble

Example: He *takes after* his mother.

Take apart = take something to pieces

Example: She *took* the photocopier *apart* to see what had got stuck in it.

Take aside = get someone alone to talk to them

Example: The teacher *took* her *aside* and said that she'd failed the exam.

Take back = make someone nostalgic

Example: That song always *takes* me *back* to when I was at university.

Take back = retract a statement, admit that something was wrong

Example: I had to *take back* everything bad I'd said about them when I learned how they'd helped out.

Take down = make notes or write down in full

Example: The police *took down* his answers to their questions.

Take down = remove

Example: People *take down* their Christmas decorations twelve days after Christmas.

Take in = absorb information

Example: The lecture was rather boring and I didn't *take in* much of what the lecturer said.

Take in = deceive

Example: Nobody was *taken in* by her unbelievable excuse.

Take in = make clothes smaller

Example: The jacket was far too big around the shoulders, so I had it *taken in* so that I could wear it.

Take it out on = abuse someone because you're angry

Example: Whenever things go wrong, he always shouts and *takes it out on* me, even if I had nothing to do with the problem.

Take off = make great progress

Example: The software house really *took off* when they produced the latest version of their DTP package.

Take off = reduce the price of an item

Example: They've *taken* ten percent *off* designer frames for glasses.

Take off = when a plane departs or leaves the ground

Example: The flight for Dublin *took off* on time.

Take on = allow passengers on a ship or aeroplane

Example: The plane stopped at Zurich to *take on* some passengers.

Take on = assume a responsibility

Example: She *took on* the task of indexing the book.

Take on = employ

Example: The council has had to *take on* twenty extra employees to handle their increased workload.

Take out = borrow a library book

Example: I *took out* all the books I needed for my essay from the library.

Take out = borrow money from a bank or other official lender

Example: Jackie and Anil *took out* a mortgage to buy a bigger flat.

Take out = extract or remove

Example: The dentist *took out* all of my wisdom teeth before they started causing any problems.

Take out = go out socially with someone, especially a date

Example: He *took* her *out* to a restaurant last Friday night.

Take out = obtain insurance

Example: I *took out* some health insurance before I went backpacking around Latin America.

Take over = assume control of a company or organisation

Example: The bank was *taken over* by a Hong Kong bank that needed to buy a bank to get into the British market.

Take to = make a habit of something

Example: He's *taken to* wearing a baseball cap since his hair started thinning more noticeably.

Take up = fill or occupy time or space

Example: An awful lot of my time at work is *taken up* with pointless bureaucracy nowadays.

Take up = make clothes shorter

Example: The trousers were too long so I *took* them *up* to make them fit.

Take up = start a new hobby, pastime, etc.

Example: He *took up* squash as he felt he had to lose some weight.

Talk into = persuade someone to do something

Example: She didn't want to let me go, but I finally managed to *talk* her *into* it.

Talk out of = persuade someone not to do something

Example: He was going to drive home after drinking half a bottle of wine, but his friends *talked* him *out of* it.

Tear apart = disturb or upset greatly

Example: People were *torn apart* when news of the train crash came through.

Tear down = demolish

Example: The estate was *torn down* so that they could develop the land into luxury flats.

Tear off = remove part of a form or letter using your hands and not scissors

Example: She *tore* the slip *off* the bottom of the form and sent it with her cheque.

Tear up = rip into pieces

Example: He *tore* the fax *up* and threw the bits of paper in the bin.

Tell apart = see a difference between two things

Example: They're identical twins so I cannot *tell* them *apart*.

Tell off = chide, talk angrily to someone about something they've done wrong.

Example: His fiancée *told* him *off* for arriving nearly an hour late.

Think over = consider something carefully

Example: I've *thought* it *over* and have made up my mind, I'm going to take the job in Leeds.

Think through = consider all the possibilities and outcomes of a situation

Example: The plan fell through because they hadn't *thought* it *through* properly.

Throw away = discard something when no longer needed

Example: I *threw* the alarm clock *away* because it had stopped working.

Throw out = get rid of

Example: I *threw out* all my old clothes to make some space in my wardrobe.

Throw up = vomit

Example: The prawns she ate at lunch made her *throw up* and she had to go home early.

Tide over = use something carefully so as not to finish it

Example: This £50 will have to *tide* me *over* until I get paid.

Tidy up = put things in the correct place in a room

Example: I *tidied up* my bedroom because it was a complete mess.

Tire of = get bored of something

Example: She soon *tired of* the course and dropped out.

Tone down = make something sound more moderate

Example: The Minister tried to *tone down* what she had said when the press started attacking her.

Top off = finish something in a special way

Example: He complained for an hour and to *top* it *off* started shouting his head off.

Top up = refill something that isn't empty yet

Example: Shall I *top up* your drink while I'm pouring myself one?

Track down = find after a long search

Example: It took me ages to *track* them *down* in the crowd at the football game.

Trade in = exchange something old as part of the price of something new

Example: She *traded in* her old car for the new model.

Trade off = bargain, make a deal or compromise

Example: A longer working week was *traded off* for a pay rise.

Trade up = buy larger or more expensive items

Example: British wine drinkers have *traded up* over the last few years from cheap plonk to expensive wines.

Try on = put clothes on to see if they fit

Example: I *tried* the jacket *on* before I bought it.

Try out = test

Example: Scientists are *trying out* a new drug in the fight against the disease.

Turn against = stop liking and start disliking

Example: The public *turned against* the government when they became arrogant and ceased to listen.

Turn away = not allow someone to enter a place

Example: The doorman *turned* him *away* from the nightclub because he was wearing trainers.

Turn down = reduce volume, temperature, etc.

Example: The room was too hot, so she *turned* the heating *down*.

Turn down = reject an offer, invitation, etc.

Example: They offered her the job, but she *turned* it *down*.

Turn in = go to bed

Example: I *turned in* at half past eleven because I had an early start the next morning.

Turn into = become

Example: Tadpoles *turn into* frogs.

Turn on = cause someone to feel attraction or pleasure

Example: He really *turns* me *on*.

Turn on = start a machine

Example: I *turned* the radio *on* to get the weather forecast.

Turn out = produce

Example: The factory *turns out* three thousand units a day.

Turn out = produce an unexpected result

Example: It looked as if we were going to fail, but it *turned out well* in the end.

Turn out = stop a light

Example: She *turned out* the lights and went to bed.

Turn to = try to get help

Example: She had nobody to *turn to* when her husband died.

Turn up = appear

Example: She didn't *turn up* for class today.

Turn up = increase volume, temperature, etc.

Example: I *turned* the music *up* full blast.

Type up = type a finished version

Example: She *typed up* her lecture notes and printed them out.

Use up = finish or consume all of something

Example: We *used up* all the olive oil.

Wake up = stop sleeping

Example: I *woke up* at half past six this morning.

Walk on = continue walking

Example: I saw the accident but just *walked on* as I didn't want to have to give a statement.

Walk out on = leave somebody angrily

Example: He *walked out on* his wife last year.

Want out = want to leave a relationship or arrangement

Example: Jackie *wanted out* of her marriage.

Warm up = do exercises before a sport

Example: The team *warmed up* half an hour before the volleyball match.

Wash away = when floods or waves completely remove a structure, building, etc.

Example: The ice cream stall on the beach was *washed away* in the storm last night.

Wash up = clean everything used to prepare food and eat it

Example: The children *washed up* after lunch.

Watch over = keep an eye on something or someone to check that there's no trouble

Example: The lecturer *watched over* the students as they did the experiment.

Water down = make something weaker and less effective

Example: The Freedom of Information Act was *watered down* by the Government and didn't give ordinary people much access to official data files

Wear away = erode, remove gradually

Example: The lawn has been *worn away* by people walking across it and it's just bare soil now with hardly a blade of grass.

Wear down = make something weaker

Example: The stress of my job is *wearing* me *down*.

Wear off = stop having an effect

Example: The anaesthetic *wore off* and my tooth started hurting.

Wear out = use something until it stops working

Example: She played the video so many times that she *wore* the tape *out*.

Whip out = remove quickly

Example: The police officer *whipped out* her radio and called for back-up.

Wimp out = not be brave enough to do something

Example: I was going to have the hottest curry on the menu, but I *wimped out* and had a mild lamb Korma instead.

Wind down = relax

Example: I'm going to *wind down* in the country this weekend and

do nothing.

Wind up = close a company because it's unprofitable

Example: The company was *wound up* when the creditors demanded payment.

Wire up = make electrical connections

Example: She *wired* her new stereo system *up* as soon as she got home.

Wise up = stop being stupid

Example: His supervisor told him to *wise up* and start following the rules or else he'd lose his job.

Work off = exercise to remove stress or weight

Example: She goes to the gym to *work off* her anger.

Work on = improve or develop

Example: Scientists are *working on* genetically modified crops and foods.

Work out = end nicely

Example: Things were going wrong for them but fortunately it all *worked out* in the end.

Work out = find the answer or solution

Example: I couldn't *work out* all the answers to the crossword puzzle.

Wrap up = cover in paper

Example: They *wrapped up* the presents then put a ribbon around them.

Wrap up = dress warmly

Example: Wrap up carefully or you'll catch your death of cold outside in that rain.

Write down = make notes

Example: I *wrote* her mobile number *down* on a scrap of paper and I've lost it.

Write in = send a letter to a TV station, etc.

Example: They asked viewers to *write in* with their opinions and suggestions.

Write off = destroy a car in an accident

Example: He *wrote* the car *off* in an accident on the motorway.

Yield to = surrender

Example: I tried hard to resist, but in the end I *yielded to* temptation and ate it all.

Zoom in = focus more closely

Example: The camera *zoomed* in on his face.

CHAPTER 10

Prepositional Verbs

Prepositional verbs are a group of multi-word verbs made from a verb plus another word or words. Many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. Prepositional verbs are made of: verb + preposition

Because a preposition always has an object, all prepositional verbs have direct objects. Here are some examples of prepositional verbs:

prepositional verbs	**meaning**	**examples**	**direct object**
believe in	have faith in the existence of	I **believe in**	God.
look after	take care of	He is **looking after**	the dog.
talk about	discuss	Did you **talk about**	me?
wait for	await	John is **waiting for**	Mary.

Prepositional verbs cannot be separated. That means that we cannot put the direct object between the two parts. For example, we must say 'look after the baby'. We cannot say 'look the baby after':

Phrasal-prepositional verbs

Phrasal-prepositional verbs are a small group of multi-word verbs made from a verb plus another word or words. Many people refer to all multi-word verbs as phrasal verbs. We make a distinction between three types of multi-word verbs: prepositional verbs, phrasal verbs and phrasal-prepositional verbs. We will look at *phrasal-prepositional verbs*.

Phrasal-prepositional verbs are made of: verb + adverb + preposition

Look at these examples of phrasal-prepositional verbs:

phrasal -prepositional verbs	**meaning**	**examples**	**direct ob ject**
get on with	have a friendly relationship with	He doesn't **get on with**	his wife.
put up with	tolerate	I won't **put up with**	your atti -tude.
look forward to	anticipate with pleasure	I **look forward to**	seeing you.
run out of	use up, exhaust	We have **run out of**	eggs.

Because phrasal-prepositional verbs end with a preposition, there is always a direct object. And, like prepositional verbs, phrasal-prepositional verbs cannot be separated. Look at these examples:

phrasal prepositional verbs are inseparable	We	**ran out of**	fuel.
	We	**ran out of**	it.

CHAPTER 11

Cliché

A cliché is not just something that lots of people say, it is something that lots of people say **and** it conveys some sort of idea or message. A cliché is, in other words, a metaphor characterised by its overuse.

- Thin red line
- Chase a rainbow
- Like a three ring circus
- Weak as a rat
- Bag and baggage
- Lesser of two evils
- Fish or cut bait
- Cut the coat according to the cloth
- Going around in circles
- A bucket full of something
- Within an ace of
- In a pig's eye
- Let sleeping dogs lay
- Stem the tide

- Down in the mouth
- Leading edge or cutting edge
- You don't believe that fat meat is greasy
- Hoist by his own petard
- To the bitter end
- You bet!
- Chew him out
- Mare's nest
- I love being free, it's the best way to be
- Hang in there
- Clear as mud
- Clean as a hound's tooth
- Quick on the draw
- Lightning strikes twice
- Close only counts in horseshoes and hand grenades
- Catbird seat
- Lay there like a beached whale
- Dead right
- Pour the baby out with the bathwater
- Turn of the tide
- Horney as a two peckered mink
- Wham, bam, thank you, ma'am!
- Rise and shine
- The quiet before the storm

- Grin and bear it
- Kiss and tell
- By the book
- Cottage by the lake
- On the brink of disaster
- Beyond the pale
- The squeaky wheel gets the grease
- Dance the night away
- Clear as mud
- A bird in the hand is worth two in a bush
- Not worth the powder to blow it up
- Hand over hand
- Sight unseen
- Eating out of my hand
- He's no slouch
- There are plenty more fish in the sea
- Plumb the depths
- Ace in the hole
- Well and good
- Balls to the wall
- Yawning gulf
- Ivory tower
- From head to heels
- Read the tea leaves

- Like shooting fish in a barrel
- One french fry short of a happy meal
- Sacred cow
- When the cats are away the mice will play
- Get lost (go away)
- Clear as mud
- Don't look a gift horse in the mouth
- Pull a rabbit out of the hat
- Salt of the earth
- Not one red cent
- Close shave
- Old guard
- Serious as a heart attack
- Don't go away mad. Just go away.
- Fit as a fiddle
- Always look at the bright side of life
- Off the wall
- Turn the screw
- Who opened the cattle guard?
- He was in his golden years
- Break a leg!
- Settle your hash
- On the rampage
- Are you hard of hearing

- Make it plain and clear
- One sandwich short of a picnic
- Ready for the funny farm
- Buy for a song
- Practice your plan
- Older than the crust on my grandma's underpants
- Statistics are for losers
- Every man has his price
- Blow your own horn
- Here's your hat, what's your hurry
- Busier than a one-armed paperhanger.
- Bats in the belfry
- Too clever by half
- The enemy is at the gate
- Every cloud has a silver lining
- The golden age
- A no-win situation
- It's raining cats and dogs
- He'd give you the shirt off his back
- There's no fool like an old fool
- This is a turd hunt
- A feather in his cap
- A very pretty box with a bow but nothing inside.
- Time has passed him by

- Sticks to the ribs
- From bad to worse
- The third degree
- Eat my shorts
- There will come a day when all the work is finished or when it is too late to finish it
- By the book
- Like a breath of fresh air
- Unvarnished truth
- Keeping on top of things
- Turn up the pressure
- At loggerheads
- Use other door
- Start from scratch
- Keep the pot boiling
- America, the melting pot of the world
- Mould the minds of our youth
- Red-letter day
- Find yourself in a hole.
- To have and to hold
- Dance your away around it
- You look like somebody shot at and missed, shit at and hit
- Tower of strength
- Quicker than shit through a goose
- It ain't over until the fat lady sings

- That takes the cake
- The eternal verities
- Needless to say
- Spit and polish
- Cast into outer darkness
- Turn something into a zoo
- The early bird catches the worm
- Smart cookie
- Strut your stuff
- Red on a Tomato
- Hold at bay
- Happy smoke (marijauna)
- Crazy as a loon
- You could hear a pin drop
- Make your own breaks
- He's a few fries short of a happy meal
- Click up your heels
- Month of Sundays
- Put the arm on
- Hit the nail on the head
- Rubber duck
- Live dangerously
- You can't win 'em all
- The long and the short of it

- Idiot box (TV)
- Get ripped to shreds
- Slicker than a wet weasel on a linoleum floor
- Clutch shot to win the game
- Life sucks and then you die...
- Little bird told me
- Cardinal sin
- As fate would have it
- Living doll
- A chip off the old block
- Nutty as a fruitcake
- Couldn't care less
- Bloody but unbowed
- A rose by any other name would smell as sweet
- An Albatross around the neck
- At wits' end
- Do a good turn
- You get what you give
- Fork it over
- Keep your fingers crossed
- With flying colours
- Sweating like a whore in church
- Play fast and loose
- Busier than a one-armed wallpaper hanger

- he went a ways down the road
- You can choose your friends and you can choose your enemies, but you can't chose family!
- It ain't over until the fat lady sings
- Wild and woolly
- As plain as the nose on your face
- Hop on over to my house
- You have to get up pretty early in the morning to pull the wool over my eyes
- Go fly a kite
- Every Tom, Dick and Harry
- He's a quick study
- Let the cat out of the bag
- So let it be written, so let it be done
- I'm all over that like a fat kid on a smartie
- Like a bump on a pickle
- Sadder and wiser
- Old guard
- Cry me a river
- No matter where you go, there you are
- Got hosed (cheated)
- Wages of sin
- Land of milk and honey
- Bottoms up
- As big as a whale

- Take a bullet for you
- Wet behind the ears
- Stone cold sober
- Hurry dog eats raw meat.
- Needless to say
- High-water mark
- Had eyes that would burn a hole right through you
- Can't see beyond the end of his nose
- Youthful folly
- Strain at a net and swallow a camel
- Hasn't got a pot to piss in (nor a window to throw it out)
- Hop on over to my house
- Pencil thin eyebrows
- So Hungry He Could Eat The North End Out Of A South Bound Cow
- Good To Go
- A picture is worth a thousand words
- Not on your life
- The night of all nights
- Stray off the reservation
- The grass is always greener..
- He's so mean he could make a worm jump
- He's off his rocker.
- Chicken hearted
- First saw the light of day

- Counting on it
- Green with envy
- Honest Injun
- Don't give up your day job
- The cotton belt
- It was like a circus
- I wouldn't touch it with a ten-foot pole
- Take a licking and keep on ticking
- Whatever lifts your skirt
- A chink in the armour
- Against all hope
- Full of himself
- Be your own man
- You can catch more flies with honey than vinegar
- Home is where the heart is
- Que sera, sera
- Don't throw out the baby with the bathwater
- Early to bed and early to rise makes a man health, wealthy and wise.
- He thinks he's shit on a stick but he's only a fart on a twig
- Put on the back burner
- Hit with an ugly stick
- Jumpy as peas on a hot griddle
- The powers that be
- Close enough for government work.

- Feeling blue
- Done to death
- As fate would have it
- Child of nature
- Pop a cherry
- All good deeds go unpunished
- An accident waiting to happen
- By and large
- In his cups
- Come to your defence
- Beauty only skin deep, ugly goes through to the bone.
- Mind over matter
- Bust in the teeth
- Chasing geese
- Hern and haw
- Just between you and me
- Draw the long bow
- Ticket to stardom
- Sly like a fox
- Read him like an open book
- It's raining harder than a cow pissing on a flat rock
- Cradled in the lap of luxury
- Familiarity breeds contempt
- Golden age

- Until hell freezes over
- Rough and tumble
- Dead letter
- If you can't stand the kitchen, get a real job
- Eyeing the girls
- Take a crap
- Pillar of the community
- Serious as a heart attack
- I would help you out but I did not see where you came in.
- Hold your own
- More here than meets the eye
- Kick the dog and cat
- Many hands make light work
- Shape up or ship out!
- Finishing touch
- At your beck and call
- The time is ripe
- Pull the wool over his eyes
- Strange bedfellows
- Battle royal
- The check is in the mail
- Wouldn't kick her out of bed for eating crackers!
- Put all your eggs in one basket
- It ain't broke. Don't fix it.

- Steal his thunder
- On a short leash
- Take umbrage
- Big honcho
- Run with the hare, hunt with the hounds
- The wheat belt.

CHAPTER 12

SLANGS

Slangs are used in highly informal speech that is outside conventional or standard usage and consists both of coined words and phrases and of new or extended meanings attached to established terms. Slang develops from the attempt to find fresh and vigorous, colourful, pungent or humorous expression and generally either passes into disuse or comes to have a more formal status. Slangs are used as an informal speech and make the language more user friendly. It makes spoken English more colourful and helps you express your thoughts in a better manner. Examples of some common slangs, along with their meanings and examples are given below:

AVERAGE JOE

Definition: Someone who is just like everyone else, a normal person.

Example: 1) Mickey is your average Joe - he likes football, hates opera and thinks it's a crime to do any work on weekends.

Etymology: 'Average' means 'in the middle' or 'not extreme' and 'Joe' is a common male name. So 'average Joe' refers to a man who is not extremely different from everyone else.

Synonyms: regular guy

AIRHEAD

Definition: Someone who isn't very smart, a stupid person.

Example: 1) Susan and Jim are such airheads — they love sports but they are failing all of their classes at school!

Etymology: If your head is filled with air instead of brains, you probably can't think very well.

Synonyms: ditz

ARMPIT

Definition: An unpleasant or backwards place, an ugly and undesirable city or area.

Example: 1) Some people think Detroit is the armpit of America.

Etymology: Sometimes an 'armpit' (where the arm meets the body) has a strong and offensive odour.

Synonyms: dump

APPLE OF MY EYE

Definition: One's favourite person, the one you love

Example: 1) Miranda is the apple of my eye - I love her more than anything on earth.

Etymology: In Old English, the pupil of the eye (the round, dark centre) was called the 'apple'. It was thought that the pupil was a round object much like an apple (a piece of fruit). When you look at someone, their reflection appears in your pupil. So if someone is the 'apple of your eye', he or she is someone that you look at a lot and enjoy seeing.

ALL RIGHT

Definition: Encouragement, praise for something well done.

Example: 1) All right! You won the spelling contest.

Synonyms: way to go

ASS IS GRASS

Definition: The subject finds him or herself in trouble, to be in a bad situation.

Example: 1) Mr. Kearny, your ass is grass! What did you do to my computer files while I was away?

ALL-THERE

Definition: Sane, rational, of sound mind.

Example: 1) Be careful when you talk to Gary. After the car accident, he hasn't been all-there.

ALL OF YOUR EGGS IN ONE BASKET

Definition: Having all of your resources in one place, putting your money or hopes or future into one thing.

Example: 1) You don't want to keep all of your eggs in one basket. You might lose everything!

Etymology: 'Eggs' are delicate and if all of your eggs were in one container and that container was damaged, you might lose all of your eggs in one quick and painful moment.

BEHIND BARS

Definition: In prison or jail, incarcerated.

Example: 1) My brother Charlie tried to rob a bank, but the cops caught him and now he's behind bars.

Etymology: Prison inmates are locked behind metal bars, which prevent their escape.

Synonyms: up the river, in the slammer, under glass

big shot

Definition: An important or prominent person in society, someone who commands a lot of influence and power.

Example: 1) Those big shots on Wall Street think they can buy the world with their money...

Synonyms: VIP

bump off

Definition: To kill or murder, to assassinate.

Example: 1) Igor got bumped off last week. The police have no clue who did it.

Etymology: When you 'bump' something, you give it a little push. 'Off' means 'not on'. So if you 'bump' someone 'off', you push him toward the end of his life.

Synonyms: rub out

bender

Definition: An episode of heavy drinking, a period of any kind of unusually intense behaviour.

Example: 1) After losing my job, I was so depressed that I went on a three day bender.

Etymology: Comes from the 19th century sense of the word 'bender', which was used for anything great or spectacular

bells and whistles

Definition: Excessive or unnecessary features on something, showy or flashy parts.

Example: 1) My father bought a new computer with all the bells and whistles. I think it even makes toast.

Etymology: 'Bells' and 'whistles' make noise and attract attention, but they are not a necessary part of most things.

Synonyms: frills, extras

bite the bullet

Definition: To confront a painfully difficult situation, to have a major problem in one's hands.

Example: 1) After my Jimmy stole money from my company, I had to bite the bullet and fire him.

bring home the bacon

Definition: To earn money and support your family.

Example: 1) My wife brings home the bacon while I stay at home and take care of the kids.

Etymology: 'Bacon' is food (a salty meat made from pork). When you have a job and make money, you bring food and other necessities home for your spouse and children.

bust digits

Definition: To get someone's telephone number.

Example: 1) I need a date for tomorrow night, so I'm going to try to bust some digits tonight.

Etymology: 'Digits' are numbers and 'bust' means 'break open'. So the phrase suggests that you're getting some numbers from a source that has to be opened up.

burned out

Definition: Extremely tired, lacking energy, worn out from working too much.

Example: 1) I was completely burned out after working on a big project for three weeks straight.

Etymology: When you are 'burned out' you have no more fuel to burn. You are without energy, like a candle that has consumed all of its wax.

Synonyms: wiped out, worn out, pooped

back burner

Definition: Not an urgent priority. To put something on the 'back burner' is to put something off until later.

Example: 1) We worked hard on the project at first, but when a new project came along, we put it on the back burner.

Etymology: The 'back burner' of a stove is where you put things that are slowly cooking and that you can leave alone for a while.

bad egg

Definition: A troublemaker, someone who has a bad attitude and causes trouble.

Example: 1) Emily is a real bad egg — she's always starting fights and causing trouble.

Etymology: In this phrase, 'egg' means 'person' or 'individual'. This is probably because the human head looks a lot like an egg. A bad egg, then, is a simply a bad person. There is a similar phrase to describe a good person - a 'good egg'.

belly-up

Definition: to stop existing, to stop performing as a business.

Example: 1) A lot of Internet companies went belly-up in 2001.

Etymology: when a fish dies, it floats to the top of the water with its belly up.

Synonyms: to go under, to go bankrupt

black out

Definition: To pass out, to lose consciousness.

Example: 1) After running a 3:25 mile, David blacked out on the pavement.

black sheep

Definition: Someone in a group or family who has a bad reputation, a misfit or outcast.

Example: 1) Ted is the black sheep of our family — he dropped out of school and hasn't had a job in years.

Etymology: Years ago, the wool from black sheep was less valuable than wool from white sheep. As a result, farmers were not happy when black sheep were born and considered them to be the undesirable members of the flock.

biggie

Definition: A term denoting importance or priority.

Example: 1) You didn't finish your project? No biggie, Professor Rolands extended the deadline.

Synonyms: big deal

chew the fat

Definition: To ramble about something irrelevant, small talk, chatting freely.

Example: 1) I'd love to sit here and chew the fat with you, but I've

got a dentist's appointment at 10.

Synonyms: shoot the breeze

CROAK

Definition: To die.

Example: 1) Old man Douglas croaked last week.

Etymology: 'Croak' refers to the sound that some animals make when they die.

close your head

Definition: To be quiet, stop talking.

Example: 1) Close your head, Rich! The professor is about to address the class.

Synonyms: shut up

CUT AND DRY

Definition: Something which is very obvious and clear, not requiring further explanation.

Example: 1) Stop asking me questions—the instructions are cut and dry.

cold feet

Definition: Loss of courage, fear.

Example: 1) Lisa wanted to jump off the high diving board, but she got cold feet once she got up there.

Etymology: If your 'feet' are 'cold', you can't walk or move forward very well - you are frozen in one place.

CRASH

Definition: To fail or stop functioning.

Example: 1) My computer crashed just when I was going to print my paper!

COOKIE

Definition: The coding placed on the hard drive of a computer that stores information about the user and makes it available to Web sites.

Example: 1) My computer rings a little bell every time a cookie is sent to the hard drive.

DEAD MEAT

Definition: Somebody who is likely to suffer negative consequences, an outlook that is not favourable.

Example: 1) Dan is dead meat unless he can get an extension for his project due date.

DIME A DOZEN

Definition: Very common, typical or ordinary.

Example: 1) Blonde actresses are a dime a dozen in Hollywood.

DIRTY OLD MAN

Definition: A person who has an unhealthy interest in sexual matters, usually referring to an older man who is interested in young girls.

Example: 1) That dirty old man in the park tried to touch me!

DOORMAT

Definition: A weak individual who is regularly used and abused by others.

Example: 1) Ned will never get anywhere until he stops being such a doormat.

Etymology: A 'doormat' is where people wipe their feet before entering a house, so someone who is called a 'doormat' is someone who gets 'stepped on' or abused by other people.

drag queen

Definition: A homosexual man who dresses like a woman.

Example: 1) The drag queens on the subway are wearing gold dresses!

down to the wire

Definition: Until the very last possible moment, just before the end, almost at the conclusion of something, close to the deadline.

Example: 1) The race was down to the wire and the audience was hushed in silence.

dead presidents

Definition: American paper money.

Example: 1) It seems like Bill Gates has all the dead presidents in the world.

Etymology: American dollar bills are decorated with pictures of great American heroes, most of whom are deceased former Presidents.

Synonyms: bucks

eat lead

Definition: One who is shot at with a gun is said to 'eat lead', as an exclamation, the phrase is directed toward the intended target.

Example: 1) "Eat lead!" yelled the bank robber as he fired his gun at the police outside.

Etymology: A bullet is made of lead so when a gun is fired at someone, the intended target might be 'eating lead' - that is, bringing the bullet inside their body.

EPIC

Definition: Spectacular, terrific.

Example: 1) We had an epic party. It didn't end till 7 a.m. the next day!

Synonyms: groovy, rad, cool

EASY AS PIE

Definition: Very simple, extremely easy.

Example: 1) The job was easy as pie and we finished up an hour early.

Etymology: 'Pie' is a tasty, sweet dish that is easy to make and even easier to eat.

Synonyms: piece of cake

EAT YOUR HEART OUT

Definition: A taunt, be envious of someone for whatever reason, to cause jealousy.

Example: 1) Phil is going to found the next Microsoft. Eat your heart out, Bill Gates!

ELBOW GREASE

Definition: Manual labour, hard work, usually indicates that not enough effort is being put forth.

Example: 1) Put some elbow grease into it! That piano has to go upstairs to the third floor.

flip out

Definition: To lose one's professionalism, to be overly anxious or paranoid, to lose control of one's emotions.

Example: 1) Don't flip out just yet, you still have three days to finish your assignment.

Synonyms: spaz out, lose one's cool

fast food

Definition: Quickly prepared food, usually served by large chains such as McDonalds.

Example: 1) I'm sick of McDonalds - can't we have something besides fast food for a change?

Etymology: 'Fast' means quick and 'food' is anything you can eat. 'Fast food' is food you order and get in a minute or two, without having to sit and wait for it.

Synonyms: junk food

fat cat

Definition: A person who has great wealth and power, a tycoon.

Example: 1) Many of the city's fat cats eat at that steak restaurant on First Avenue.

Etymology: This term comes from the 1920s, when it was used to describe wealthy contributors to American political parties.

Synonyms: big shot

fire away

Definition: To indicate that somebody should proceed, give approval for continuing an action or taking one.

Example: 1) If you have any questions during the lecture, don't be afraid to ask. Just fire away!

Synonyms: give someone hell

freeware

Definition: Software available on the Internet at no cost, programs and applications distributed for free.

Example: 1) A small business can save a lot of money by using freeware.

foot in the door

Definition: An opening or particularly promising opportunity.

Example: 1) Working as an intern is one way to get your foot in the door of a big corporation.

frosh

Definition: A student in their first year of undergraduate college education.

Example: 1) I hate these frosh—they ask the stupidest questions and have the worst attitudes.

gumshoe

Definition: A detective or private investigator.

Example: 1) Captain Harris assigned two gumshoes to the case.

Etymology: Refers to the rubber sole on the shoes of many police

officers. The phrase is frequently heard in the movies, especially in older film noir detective films from the 1940s.

GAY

Definition: Openly homosexual in sexual orientation.

Example: 1) A recent social phenomenon that has swept the nation is "gay pride."

Synonyms: queer, fag

GET LOST

Definition: A phrase meaning 'leave now!' or 'get out of here'.

Example: 1) Get lost, pal. We don't need your kind around here.

Synonyms: scram, get outta here

GET BEHIND

Definition: To offer support, to give aid to someone in need.

Example: 1) I'm going to get behind Robert's plan and do everything I can to help make it work.

GET GOING

Definition: To proceed with something, to start or continue doing something, can also be used in the sense of 'hurry up!'

Example: 1) I'm going to get going on my paper and try to finish it by tomorrow.

GLITCH

Definition: A problem or error, a flaw that causes great confusion or trouble.

Example: 1) Because of a glitch in hardware connections, my new computer game did not work.

GOOSE BUMPS

Definition: Stimulation of our skin cells by fright or the cold, causing visible patches to form and hair to stand on end, often used in the sense of being cowardly and nervous.

Example: 1) That film was so scary I had goose bumps the whole time.

GO UNDERGROUND

Definition: To make secret, to conceal something from others.

Example: 1) Dave has really gone underground with his plans for the new computer.

Notes

Notes

THE BEGINNER'S ENGLISH BOOK

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THE BEGINNER'S ENGLISH BOOK

FOR THE USE OF ADULT STUDENTS

By MARY E. NOLIN

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Grant School, Pittsburgh

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PREFACE.

The object of this book is to present in convenient form matter for teaching adult foreigners the constructions of English sentences and for teaching them at the same time an English vocabulary of the kind required by beginners.

There being no necessary logical arrangement, the chief usages of English speech are presented in the order that seems best adapted to the requirements of teaching. The matter of the book has been arranged so that each lesson shall introduce only one new feature, apart of course from new words, and at the same time shall repeat, in forms varying to meet the requirements of drill, words and constructions previously learned.

The thought expressed by the English sentences used in the first two parts of the book can be readily communicated to the pupils by the use of objects, gestures, motions, and signs, and always should be so communicated when being presented for the first time. In the early stages of the instruction many of the most important processes of learning oral and written speech must of necessity take place in the presence of the teacher and under her immediate observation and control. While these are going on, however, the teacher need utter no words, and indeed should utter none, except what are required to make the original utterance of the English phrase or sentence that is being taught, and except what are necessary afterward to repeat it from time to time at the proper moment in order to correct the learner's pronunciation and to reinforce his new impression. If the recitation is rightly conducted, no talk by the teacher is ever required to arouse interest or hold attention. Oral explanations and suggestions made

while the main objects of the lesson are the center of attention may be dispensed with altogether; and if offered, they usually come as a distraction and a distinct hindrance to learning. But the zealous teacher particularly, although she may know this, often finds it difficult to refrain from attempting such assistance. So important is it, indeed, to avoid diverting and confusing the learner's attention at this time that the lack of a convenient medium of oral communication between the teacher and the learner seems to be, on the whole, not a hindrance, but an aid to teaching; it helps to keep the teacher quiet while these important learning processes are going on, and results in allowing the learner's attention to be riveted to the thought and English expression alone. Accordingly the direct route to the end aimed at in the first stage of the instruction is through thought suitable to teaching, exhibited by means of concrete acts without comment.

In the matter of the selection of words, the aim has been to present the necessary elements of vocabulary that are common to all kinds of discourse rather than to introduce an elaborate array of special nouns and verbs, for which the beginner is sometimes supposed to have an immediate and urgent need. The book is intended to lead up to and make a slight beginning at using continuous discourse, written and oral, as a means of further study of English. The first two parts, which are preliminary to the use of continuous discourse, can be learned in a comparatively short time, say from six weeks to two months. Consequently it has been thought best not to overstress nouns and verbs at the expense of relational words. It is interesting and worth while in this connection to recollect that while relational words are only a comparatively small part of English vocabulary, yet of all the words found in a given piece of ordinary

English discourse, relational words constitute something like sixty per cent of the whole. And there is of course no such thing as adequately comprehending the commonest kind of such discourse without understanding them. Moreover there seems to be no way to effect a speedy preparation for the use of continuous discourse by the learner except through a prompt presentation of at least the rudiments of the relational elements of the language.

The ideas of teaching which these lessons attempt to express are a result of the experience of some six years occupied with teaching beginning English to adult foreigners. In the introductory chapter will be found some detailed observations in the form of suggestions for teaching the lessons. These suggestions are put in concrete and specific terms for the sake of clearness and brevity, and in the hope that, thus expressed, they may in a measure take the place of a class-room demonstration from which the reader may draw his own particular conclusions about methods of teaching. There is no intention of insisting upon as essential all of the details of the teaching procedure illustrated. It is a fact, however, that lessons arranged on the plan of this book do afford a speedy and effective introduction to the use of continuous discourse, and without requiring any special gift for teaching, enable the teacher to hold interest and attention and to keep them fixed where they do most good. Even pupils who are permitted to continue their study of English in school for only a short time take with them when they leave a benefit from the fact that they have been taught systematically in the manner required by such lessons as these. For afterwards, when they come to learn a new sentence or sense-group or word by their own efforts without the assistance of a

teacher, they are able to go about it intelligently; they easily and naturally, without any thought about it, attend to significant distinctions and make useful discriminations in the act of learning that would have escaped them, if their brief instruction had not been systematic and methodical in the sense suggested.

PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA
September 21, 1921.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE FOR THE TEACHER.

SOME SUGGESTIONS OF AN EXPLICIT KIND FOR TEACHING THE FIRST LESSON.

The teacher, having on the table the objects mentioned in the first lesson, takes a pencil in her hand, and without releasing it, places it successively on the book, into the book, beside the book, and under the book, thus communicating to the pupil without ambiguity very simple and very definite pieces of meaning. At the proper moments as she does so, the teacher utters the appropriate English phrases, 'on the book,' 'into the book,' and so on, clearly, distinctly, and so far as is possible with the same voice qualities (such as quantity, stress, and intonation) as though the utterances were parts of continous discourse. The teacher then repeats this performance several times, in order that the pupils may have ample opportunity to listen to the teacher's utterances and to observe the movements of her speech organs. In repeating the phrases the teacher should be careful to make the utterances the same each time (a difficult thing to do) so as to reinforce the original impressions and not confuse the pupil. She then uses other objects, but not many, to teach similar phrases, indicating the meaning and uttering the phrases as before, until the class has had ample opportunity to grasp the general senses that run through all the phrases mentioned in the lesson.

At this point of the instruction the teacher, returning to the first phrase, indicates the meaning and utters the corresponding English phrase as she did at the beginning. Then, giving the direction by gesture, she indicates to one of the class (*not* to all) that he shall utter the phrase. It is important that the teacher

should give the directions by signs, and not orally as by using the word 'say,' because almost invariably the beginner will give back the whole of what he hears. Besides, the variation serves no purpose and comes as a distraction to the beginner.

The consciousness of a learner *in the act of learning* is a delicate thing, and can tolerate little disturbance. Whatever assistance the teacher may offer must be given delicately and with deft precision.

After a little practice at listening to phrases and reproducing them, the class is ready to attack a complete sentence. As a preliminary, the teacher teaches them her own name in some such way as this: pointing successively to two or three members of the class and pronouncing their names at the same time, she then points to herself, and pronounces her own name, 'Miss —— .' Then she lays a pencil on the book and removes her hand. *After* removing it, she utters the complete sentence, 'Miss —— put a pencil on the book.' As she finishes the utterance, she indicates by a gesture to the first pupil that he shall reproduce it; then to the second, and so on around the class. If some member of the class, failing to make a satisfactory response, hesitates too long or gropes around for words, the teacher should repeat the sentence for him at once.

This is no place to discuss the psychology of the learning process, but for the teacher here to ask some question, or make some explanation, or do anything else than simply to renew and reinforce the learner's imperfect impression by a prompt repetition of the sentence is a waste of time and worse. As has been wisely observed long ago, "To every thing there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven: . . . a time to rend, and a time to sew; a time to keep silence, and a time to speak." (*Eccles.*)

After the class has learned a few complete affirmative sentences in this way, the interrogative sentence 'What did Miss —— do?' is taught. The teacher presenting the meaning of the affirmative sentence in the manner above described, follows the motions and signs by the words, 'Miss——put a pencil on the table. What did Miss——do?;' inviting by a gesture an answer from one of the pupils, the teacher continues: 'Miss —— put a pencil on the table.' The pupil addressed responds readily with the answer 'Miss —— put a pencil on the table.' The teacher then again utters the question 'What did Miss —— do?' (with a gesture directing the pupil addressed to ask the question to the next pupil). This elicits a repetition of the words spoken, and at the same time teaches him that he has asked a question.

The chief reason for teaching the interrogative sentence at this early stage is that it may be used in recitations as a means of passing affirmative sentences from one pupil to another.

After several affirmative sentences have been thoroughly taught, the teacher develops one of the sentences again, in the same manner as originally, for example, 'Miss —— put a book on the table,' and has all the members of the class reproduce it orally in turn. Then reinforcing once more the new impression, she again utters the sentence, 'Miss — —put a book on the table,' and by gesture indicates that all the pupils are to write it on the blackboard.

The teacher may not know whether all the pupils can write or not. She should waste no time, however, in trying to find out, but should assume that all can write. Many will in fact make a fair attempt from the start. After a few lessons, as experience shows, most of the others will be found to be writing in a satisfactory manner. It is a waste of time to show the pupils the written or printed form of the sen-

tence before having them attempt to write it. Whatever assistance may be called for can readily be given to the individuals who need it. As the pupils are writing at the board, the teacher passes along and without speaking makes corrections. For those who are not writing and who know the alphabet, but lack the courage to try the spelling, she writes 'on the book', uttering the phrase after it is written, and leaves them to copy it. For those who do not know the alphabet, she draws the conventional writing lines, and on them writes the loop letters, b,f,h,k, and l, leaving the pupils to copy these. After sufficient time has been given for all to write, the teacher (adhering to the practice of confining oral directions to the briefest) utters no more than the words, 'Erase, turn.'

The writing lesson for that sentence is now ended. Whatever shortcomings the writing may have disclosed will be dealt with at another time. In a few days most of the pupils, in one way and another, will make up their deficiences in writing themselves with only incidental assistance from the teacher. But for the present the lesson goes on to other exercises, and all attend.

The teacher utters the sentence again for the purpose of reinforcing the learners' mental impression, and giving her directions by gesture in the usual way, has each pupil in turn reproduce it orally.

In the case of classes that learn readily, it is sometimes admissible to develop and teach in the same way a few sentences in addition to those given in the book, using for the purpose the same and other objects, and thus extend the learners' experience. No additional sentence constructions, however, and no new relational words should be used at this time.

After the class has had sufficient practice at listening to sentences and reproducing them orally, the teacher reads the corresponding lesson in the book

aloud to the pupils, who follow the reading with their books open.

Next the pupils are left to study for awhile as they please. Afterward the teacher reads the lesson to them again. Later each pupil reads aloud as many sentences as time permits. If anyone should read too laboriously, he is not permitted to continue, but waits for more study and more oral and written drill.

Word by word reading must not be tolerated. The pupil's reading should approximate proceeding by sense-groups and sentences as natural speech does. In this way the pupils begin to acquire the natural swing and rhythm of the language, so important for many reasons.

Nor can concert work, as a short cut or sort of mass-instruction, be used with profit at this time, if at any time. The reasons are obvious. To mention faulty utterances only: one pupil fails to reproduce the sounds that have been presented to him, because he did not hear them correctly—perhaps he has not yet learned to distinguish the minute sound differences involved; another fails because, although he received the correct sound-impression, he has not succeeded in adjusting his speech organs rightly. But with whatever result the utterance is made, whether rightly or not, both the pupil himself and the teacher should hear it. If the pupil is successful, he has the sound of his own voice as an added factor in helping to fix the new utterance. And if he fails, both must hear distinctly, in order that together they may make the correction at once, when it is most needed and can be made with greatest effect. It is, besides, a saving of time to stop the formation of wrong speech-habits at the earliest moment. Concert work is a positive bar to these good effects as well as to others.

To state again in outline the teaching procedure suggested:

1. The teacher expresses appropriate meaning by the use of objects, motions, and signs.
2. She utters an equivalent English sentence, clearly, distinctly, and naturally.
3. Each pupil in turn reproduces the English utterance.
4. The teacher again utters the sentence.
5. All the pupils write the sentence on the blackboard.
6. The teacher makes corrections in writing.
7. After all have erased the sentence from the blackboard, the teacher utters the sentence again.
8. Each pupil reproduces the sentence orally.
9. After all the sentences have been so presented and taught, the pupils open their books for the first time, and listen while the teacher reads the sentences from the book.
10. The pupils in succession read the sentences from the book.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE SECOND AND THE FOLLOWING LESSONS IN PART ONE.

In order to enable the pupils to add the English equivalents of the ideas, 'long' and 'short,' to what they have already learned, the teacher takes a long pencil in one hand and a short pencil in the other, and after letting them see her compare the lengths of the two pencils by holding them together, holds up the long pencil and utters the phrase, 'a long pencil;' then holding up the short pencil, she utters the phrase, 'a short pencil.' She does not utter

merely the words 'long,' 'short' alone, and she spends no time in elucidating the meanings of these words as words, but without discussion or comment of any kind, she puts the long pencil into the long box and then utters the complete sentence, 'Miss —— put a long pencil into the long box.' Here, as generally, in uttering the sentence, she is careful to make the utterance correct as a whole. She makes no separation of words in the sentence, but runs them together in succession as syllables in a word, using intonation, pause, and stress to distinguish sense-groups and to express the natural emphasis required in the sentence.

The teacher then drills the class on the sentence in the manner set forth in detail and outlined in discussing the teaching of the first lesson. All the rest of the sentences in the second lesson are taught in the same way.

So, substantially, are taught all the lessons in the book.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE LESSONS IN PART TWO.

The method of procedure for teaching Part Two is in the main the same as that used in teaching Part One. Here, however, the use of objects, motions, and signs to convey meaning is gradually discontinued. In this part of the book verbs are an important part of the study. The distinctions of person and number require no comment here. The uses of tenses are taught, not formally, but by means of examples, and with them the use of time expressions. In accordance with the suggestions previously made about conveying meaning without the distraction of oral explanations by the teacher, the distinctions of time may be conveniently taught by using the calendar.

In this part of the book some of the lessons have printed with them lists of verbs, marked 'Reference matter for the learner.' Each of these lists the pupil

will attempt to use only after he has been taught the practice exercise that accompanies it; he can make no profitable use of it before.

At this stage of the learner's experience, letter writing is a useful exercise. Accordingly a specimen friendly letter is printed in the book. The learner will compose letters himself, using the specimen merely as a pattern.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING THE LESSONS IN PART THREE.

THE FIRST FABLE.

After the pupils have studied the fable for awhile in their books, the teacher, without discussion or comment, reads it to them, while they follow the reading with their books open. Next each pupil reads the entire fable aloud. The teacher makes no interruptions except to correct pronunciation.

The pupils will not yet have succeeded in understanding all of the meaning. What their deficiencies are the teacher will be able to judge pretty well from her knowledge of what they have already learned in the preceding lessons, from the questions they ask, and somehow from their general behavior during the oral reading.

In order to assist them further with the meaning, she sends all to the blackboard and dictates sentences to them. The first sentence or two, improvised at the time or previously thought out and containing some difficult word or construction found in the lesson, should have no connection in meaning with the text, and should be the simplest the teacher is able to invent. In this particular text the phrase, 'was carrying,' will probably be the first difficult thing. So the teacher may dictate some such sentence as this: 'John was carrying his book home to read it to his brother.' This sentence

and all others used for this purpose she teaches as thoroughly as any in the previous exercises, following the ordinary method of procedure, always ending with the oral reproduction. After giving one or two sentences unconnected in meaning with the fable, the teacher gives a sentence that is related in meaning and construction with the text. Sometimes she uses the very sentence in which the difficulty occurs.

After sufficient drill of this kind, the pupils are once more permitted to study the fable. A few minutes later the teacher reads it aloud to the class, who with their improved understanding of the text are now eager to listen. Since the utterances of the teacher are the learner's models of expression, beginners receive much benefit from hearing the teacher read continuous discourse with the meaning of which they are familiar. Each pupil is now required to tell the fable in his own way, the others being permitted to study in the meantime. The teacher does not interrupt the pupil while he is telling the fable. If his reproduction proves unsatisfactory, he is permitted to study more and try again at a later time. Such an opportunity, if needed, the pupil himself almost always requests. After the pupils have all told the fable, each writes it on paper. It may be here stated generally that all these exercises connected with the learning of continuous discourse are found to be intensely interesting to the pupils, and no lack of attention is ever encountered.

All of the other lessons in Part Three are taught in substantially the same manner.

PHONETICS.

Instruction in phonetics, of necessity, will be quite rudimentary; no formal lessons will probably be given. But the teacher should make every effort in her power to secure correct pronunciation from the start, and should herself have as much knowledge of phonetics as possible in the background. But it is believed that pronunciation is best taught by the teacher's making careful utterances, being careful at the same time to make them *natural* utterances, and by her insisting on the pupil's making substantially correct reproductions a sufficient number of times to establish them, accepting from the very start no slipshod results. In various places throughout the book, but particularly at the beginning, some of the words and phrases used have been put in specially on account of phonetic considerations. Examples of these in the first lesson are the words *bottle* and *pan, pen,* and *pin.*

When listening and observation fail to enable the learner to make the proper adjustments of his speech organs, the teacher must resort to some more detailed instruction. Sometimes a rough diagramatic sketch on the blackboard is enough to help the learner over the difficulty. For example, a few lines may be drawn to picture the mouth wide open in pronouncing the vowel of the word *pan;* the lines may diverge less to picture the mouth a little more closed as in pronouncing *pen;* still less, to illustrate the position for uttering the vowel in the word *pin.* The most important thing, however, is that both teacher and pupil persevere at some kind of practice exercise until the difficulty is removed.

Different racial groups have their own peculiar difficulties. Alliterative nonsense sentences may sometime be used in removing these. A few are printed below.

th

There are three trees in the garden.

You cannot sew that thin cloth with that thick thread.

Thirty-three thirsty thrushes thrust their heads through the bushes in the thicket.

My mother's other brother has a broader board.

h

Hannah has Hattie's hood in her hand.

Hurry home, Harry, Henry has his horse here for you.

w

What a white woolen waist Wilda wears!

Why will William and Walter wait at the window?

f v

He paid five dollars for his fife.

tle

Little Myrtle Riddle put a griddle in the middle of the table.

ter

Peter, the butter is better, but the water is bitter.

s s(z)

This is his business.

-ing -ink

I think he will bring that thing and fling it over the brink.

Voiceless consonants followed by -ed

They watched and walked and talked, and talked and walked and watched.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Interrogative sentences are an important form of discourse, and present special difficulties to the beginner, who finds his main difficulty in forming a question himself, not in understanding one that is asked by somebody else. The teacher should see that the pupils have daily drill in asking questions as well as in answering them. In exercises devised for this purpose, after a question has once been formed no deviation in the form of it should be permitted at that time; and the teacher will make sure that all answers are given in complete sentences. A reason for adhering to the form fixed upon is that deviations are bewildering to beginners to an extent hard for an experienced person to appreciate. Besides, one form of question is as much as beginners can profitably attempt to learn at one time.

SUGGESTIONS FOR DRILL IN THE USE OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

1. Teacher to John (indicating at the same time by gesture that John is to ask the question to Henry): What is your name?

John to Henry: What is your name?

Teacher to Henry (indicating by gesture that he is to answer John): My name is Henry Black.

Henry to John: My name is Henry Black.

By gesture the teacher directs each pupil to ask the question to the next pupil, until all have both asked and answered the question.

Other questions for practice of this kind:

Where do you live?
What is that? (pointing to an object)
Why do you come to school?
What is the name of this school?

2. After placing a box and a number of smaller articles on the table, and as she indicates by gesture that John is to ask the question to Henry, the teacher says: What shall I put into the box?

John to Henry: What shall I put into the box?

Teacher to Henry (as she indicates that he is to answer John): You may put a pen into the box.

Henry to John: You may put a pen into the box.

The teacher indicates that each in turn is to ask the same question to Henry until each pupil has put something into the box.

Other questions for use in the same way:

What shall I do?
Where shall I put my book?
When shall I come?
What shall I tell her?

3. Teacher to John (after giving him a book, and as she indicates by gesture that he is to ask the question to Henry): Did Miss —— give me a box?

John to Henry: Did Miss —— give me a box?

Teacher to Henry (as she indicates that he is to answer John): No, she did not give you a box, but she gave you a book.

Henry to John: No, she did not give you a box, but she gave you a book.

The teacher indicates by gesture that the question and answer are to be passed from one member of the class to another, until all have asked and answered it.

Other questions for use in this way:

Did Miss —— speak to him in the Greek language?

Ans: No, she did not....., but..... English language.

Do you sit at the end of the table?

Ans: No, I do not....., but.....side of the table.

4. Teacher to John: What time is it?
John: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to John: Ask Henry what time it is.
John to Henry: What time is it?
Henry: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to John: Tell Henry to ask Mary what time it is.
John to Henry: Ask Mary what time it is.
Henry to Mary: What time is it?
Mary: It is 8 o'clock.
Teacher to Henry: Tell Mary to ask Jane what time it is.

Have these questions passed to all the members of the class, in the same manner.

Other questions for use in this way:
Where did John buy his book?
Where did Bessie put the box of pencils?
Who came in just now?

These exercises have been found of great value. They easily keep the attention of all the class centered on the precise point of difficulty, afford variety enough to hold attention, and at the same time leave the teacher free to attend solely to the matter of making prompt verbal corrections in the language used by the pupils.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER EXERCISES AFTER THE BOOK HAS BEEN COMPLETED.

There should be much reading aloud of continuous discourse upon a variety of subjects, in order to widen the vocabulary.

The pupils should be required frequently to prepare papers and to give short talks on subjects previously assigned.

Conversational exercises may now for the first time, it is believed, be used to advantage.

Practice at writing sentences from dictation and making oral reproductions should be continued. The sentences used may be much longer and harder than heretofore, and several may be given together as a bit of continuous discourse.

Material for study may be given in the form of lists of words. But words must be given in their simplest forms, in order that the pupils may easily find the meanings in their Foreign-English dictionaries. The pupils should make both oral and written sentences, from derivatives as well as from the words given in the lists. Meanings of words should still be taught by using them in sentences, and not by means of verbal explanations.

Alphabet

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff Gg Hh Ii
Jj Kk Ll Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq Rr
Ss Tt Uu Vv Ww Xx Yy Zz

Numerals

0	1	2	3	4
naught	one	two	three	four
5	6	7	8	9
five	six	seven	eight	nine

Aa Bb Cc Dd Ee Ff

Gg Hh Ii Jj Kk Ll

Mm Nn Oo Pp Qq

Rr Ss Tt Uu Vv

Ww Xx Yy Zz

b f i h k l d p t

a d g q b o v w

hat hot hit hut

far for fir fur

PART ONE

LESSON I

On The Book, and Other Phrases

on the book	under the book
on the box	under the box
on the bottle	under the bottle
on the basket	under the basket
on the pan	under the pan
on the table	under the table

into the book	beside the book
into the box	beside the box
into the bottle	beside the bottle
into the basket	beside the basket
into the pan	beside the pan

1. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a book on the table.

2. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pencil into the box.

3. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a paper under the box.

4. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pan beside the box.

5. What did Miss Miller do?
   Miss Miller put a pan, a pen, and a pin into the box.

How do you do?

6. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a book and a pan on the table beside the box, and a pencil and a pen on the table beside the basket.

LESSON II

Adjectives

big	long	black	red
little	short	white	green

1. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a long pencil into the long box.

2. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a short pencil into the short box.

3. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a little nail on the table beside the box.

4. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a little black book under the little white paper.

5. What did Miss Miller do?
Miss Miller put a red pen, a green book, and a white box beside the basket.

Good morning.

---

1. Miss Miller put a long white box on the table and a short green pencil into the box.

2. William put a short red paper under the little blue book and a long white paper under the green book.

3. John put a short pencil beside the big basket, a long white pencil into the white box, and a short red pen into the book.

4. Mary put a big box on the table, a little box on the chair, and a little basket on the window-sill.

5. Jane put a little red book on the table beside the green book and a long box on the table under the green book.

LESSON III

A Piece Of

a piece of paper	a piece of cloth
a piece of string	a piece of rubber
a piece of wood	a piece of wire
a piece of glass	a piece of coal
a piece of leather	a piece of tin

1. What did Miss Contis do?
   Miss Contis put a piece of wood into the box.

Good afternoon.

2. What did Mr. Vanos do?
Mr. Vanos took a piece of paper from the basket on the chair.

3. What did Mr. Sotos do?
Mr. Sotos took a piece of glass and a piece of string from the window-sill.

4. What did Mrs. Mito do?
Mrs. Mito put a piece of cloth into the box and a piece of rubber into the basket.

---

1. I put a piece of coal on the piece of paper and a piece of wire on the piece of cloth.

2. She put a piece of glass on the chair beside the table and a piece of tin on the chair beside the window.

3. Mary put a piece of cloth under the book, a piece of leather into the book, and a piece of string on the book.

4. John put a piece of rubber and a piece of wire on the chair, and a piece of cloth and a piece of leather on the window-sill.

5. Jane put a piece of coal and a piece of wire into the long box on the table, and a piece of paper and a piece of glass into the little white box on the chair.

Good evening.

LESSON IV

Personal Pronouns

I put	We put
You put	You put
He put	They put
She put	
Mr. Smith put	

1. Put a little bottle and a green pencil beside the little red book.
   What did you do? (I put .....)

2. I put a little white paper under the box.
   What did I do? (You put .....)

3. Mr. Vanos, put a short pencil, a long box, and a little basket under the table.
   What did he do? (He put .....)

4. Miss Contis, put a red pencil and a short pen into the green book.
   What did she do? (She put .....)

5. Mr. Vanos and Miss Contis, put books on the table.
   What did you do? (We put .....)

6. Miss Contis and I put pans, pens, and pins on the table.
   What did we do? (We put .....)

Good-by.

7. Mr. Vanos and Miss Contis put books on the table.
What did they do? (They put .....)

---

1. I put pins into the pan, and you put pens into the box.

2. You put a pen on the table, and they put books on the table beside the pens.

3. He put a little red paper under the book, and she put a big white paper on the book.

4. They put little white boxes on the table, and we put little pencils into the little white boxes.

5. I put a little red book on the table. You put a little green book on the little red book, and she put a little box on the little green book.

LESSON V

A Piece of Cotton Cloth

a piece of cotton cloth
a piece of woolen cloth
a piece of silk cloth
a piece of linen cloth

a long piece of cotton cloth
a long piece of blue cotton cloth

Excuse me. Certainly.

1. Take a piece of cotton cloth from the basket on the table.
   What did you do? (I took .....)

2. Give a piece of silk cloth and a piece of woolen cloth to James.
   What did you do? (I gave .....)

3. Take a piece of linen cloth and a piece of cotton cloth from the basket on the chair.
   What did you do?

4. Put a long piece of white cotton cloth and a short piece of blue woolen cloth into the long white box.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a short piece of red silk cloth into the box on the chair, and a piece of green linen cloth into the little basket.

2. Put a piece of blue woolen cloth, a piece of red woolen cloth, and a piece of black woolen cloth into the big basket.

3. They took little pieces of blue cotton cloth from the box and little pieces of red cotton cloth from the basket.

4. She put long pieces of silk cloth into the box beside the basket and short pieces of red cotton cloth into the box beside the book.

Thank you. You are welcome.

5. John took long pieces of white cotton cloth and short pieces of red cotton cloth from the basket on the table.

LESSON VI

Tin Box, Wooden Box, Paper Box

1. Put a long piece of cotton cloth into the tin box on the chair.
   What did you do?

2. Take a short piece of blue woolen cloth from the big wooden box on the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put a little piece of green linen cloth into the long paper box, and put the paper box on the table.
   What did you do?

4. Put a piece of tin into the tin box, a piece of wood into the wooden box, and a piece of paper into the paper box.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a tin box, a paper box, and a wooden box on the chair beside the table.

2. Put a long piece of string into the tin box, a short piece of wire into the wooden box, and a little piece of glass into the paper box.

I am glad to see you, John. How are you?

3. Put the tin box on the table, the wooden box on the chair beside the table, and the paper box on the floor beside the chair.

4. Take a short piece of blue string from the little tin box, a piece of red cotton cloth from the long paper box, and a piece of leather from the big wooden box.

5. Put the tin box on the table, the wooden box on the chair, and the paper box on the floor; then put a pan into the tin box, a pen into the wooden box, and a pin into the paper box.

LESSON VII

On the End of the Table

on the end of the table
on the side of the table
on the corner of the table
in the center of the table

1. Put the tin box on the end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put the basket and the wooden box on the side of the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put the bottle and the paper box on the corner of the table.
   What did you do?

I am well, thank you. How are you?

4. Put the pan and the pen in the center of the table.
   What did you do?

5. Take the book from the end of the table and the pen from the side of the table.
   What did you do?

6. Take the piece of tin from the end of the table and the piece of wire from the side of the table.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put a little piece of glass into the tin box on the end of the table and a piece of coal into the basket in the center of the table.

2. Put a book under the wooden box on the side of the table and a paper box under the the book in the center of the table.

3. Put a pan into the wooden box on the end of the table, a pen into the paper box on the side of the table, and a pin into the tin box in the center of the table.

4. Put a box on the end of the table beside the little red book and a basket on the side of the table beside the big green book.

5. He took a piece of leather from the basket on the side of the table, and she took a piece of glass from the tin box on the corner of the table.

What time is it? It is ten o'clock.

6. Put a long piece of blue cotton string into the paper box on the corner of the table, and a piece of glass into the tin box in the center of the table.

LESSON VIII

PUT IT PUT THEM

1. Take a pen from the end of the table and put it into the tin box.
   What did you do?
2. Take three pens and two pins from the paper box and put them into the tin box.
   What did you do?
3. Take a piece of blue linen cloth from the wooden box and put it into the little basket on the chair.
   What did you do?
4. Take a piece of coal and a piece of glass from the table and put them into the box on the window-sill.
   What did you do?

---

1. Take five buttons and three nails from the table and put them into the box on the side of the table.
2. Take a long piece of red cotton string from the long box in the window and put it around the big green book.

It is a quarter to four.

3. Take three little pieces of green linen cloth from the box on the chair and put them into the basket on the end of the table.

4. Take a piece of wire and a piece of tin from the little box on the corner of the table, and put them into the big box on the end of the table.

5. Take the books from the end of the table, the pens from the side of the table, and the papers from the center of the table, and put them on the chair.

LESSON IX

EACH INCH EDGE ALL WHOLE

1. Put a match on each end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put two matches on each side of the table.
   What did you do?

3. Put three matches on each corner of the table.
   What did you do?

4. Put a match on each corner of the table and four matches on each side of the table.
   What did you do?

It is half past eleven.

5. Take six matches from the tin box, and put two on each end of the table and one on each corner of the table.
   What did you do?

6. Put a match on each side of the table one inch from the edge.
   What did you do?

---

1. Put two broken matches on each end of the table and three whole matches on each side of the table.

2. Take all of the broken matches from the tin box on the chair and put them on the side of the table.

3. Put a whole match on each side of the table two inches from the edge, and a broken match on the table beside each whole match.

4. Give a broken match and a whole match to each pupil at the side of the table, and three whole matches to each pupil at the end of the table.

5. Take all of the whole matches from the wooden box and put them on the side of the table; then take all of the broken matches from the tin box and put them on the end of the table.

It is five minutes after six.

LESSON X

THIS, THAT THESE, THOSE

1. Take a piece of cotton cloth from this end of the table and put it on that end of the table.
   What did you do?

2. Take these pens and those pencils and put them into that box.
   What did you do?

3. Take this book and that book and put them on that chair.
   What did you do?

4. Take those matches and these nails and put them into the tin box on this corner of the table.
   What did you do?

5. Give these books to that man and those books to this man.
   What did you do?

---

1. Take these boxes and these books from this chair and those boxes and those books from that chair, and put them on the desk.

2. He took this little pencil and these black pens from this box and put them into that box on the corner of the table.

I have no pencil.

3. These books on this table are little red books, and those books on that table are big green books.

4. He took three nails and five buttons from this box, and she took four pens and seven pencils from that box.

5. Mary, give those books to him and these books to her, and put this book and that book into the cupboard.

LESSON XI

Possessive Pronouns

I have my book	We have our books
You have your book	You have your books
He has his book	They have their books
She has her book	

1. Put my book on the table.
   What did you do?

2. Put your pen on the book.
   What did you do?

3. Put her box on my book.
   What did you do?

4. Take his pen from the table.
   What did you do?

May I have a pencil, please?

5. Put our pens on our papers.
What did you do?

6. Put their papers on the table.
What did you do?

---

1. I put my long piece of cotton cloth into your little white box; then I put your piece of woolen cloth into my basket.

2. We put our books on the chair beside the table, and they put their books on the chair beside the window.

3. You took their pens from my box and put them into his big wooden box; then you put the box on the end of the table.

4. We took our little brown pencils from the pencil-box, and we put them into the chalk-box.

5. Take all of our pens from the box and give one to him and one to her; then put two pens into each box on the side of the table.

6. Take our books, our pencils, and our papers and put them into the cupboard; then give each pupil a piece of chalk and an eraser.

Lend me your pen, please.

LESSON XII

Personal Pronouns Following the Preposition To

to me	to us
to you	to you
to her	to them
to him	

1. Take your pens from the table and give them to me.
   What did you do?

2. Give these long green pencils to her and these little brown pencils to him.
   What did you do?

3. Take those little pieces of leather from the wooden box and give them to us.
   What did you do?

4. Take these pens from the table and give them to them.
   What did you do?

---

1. They gave three pieces of black woolen cloth to her and two pieces of red cotton cloth to me.

2. Take a little piece of tin from the box on this end of the table and give it to him.

I do not understand you.

3. Take my long piece of green linen cloth from him and give it to me; and then give my short piece of blue silk cloth to her.

4. Give the wooden box to me, the tin box to him, and those two paper boxes to those two men at the end of the table.

5. Take the matches from the box and give the whole matches to him, the broken matches to her, and the box to me.

6. He took the long pencils from the table and gave them to us; then she took the pieces of chalk from the box and gave them to him.

LESSON XIII

Not	But
I have	I did not
I have not	

1. Take three books from the table.
Have you two books?
No, I have not two books, but I have three books.

2. Put that red book on the chair.
Did you put a green book on the chair?
No, I did not put a green book on the chair, but I put a red book on the chair.

Pronounce this word, please.

3. Give him those pencils.
Did you give him those boxes?
No, I did not give him those boxes, but I gave him those pencils.

4. Take a nail, a screw, and a pen from the box.
Did you take a pan from the box?

5. Put this chair beside the door.
Did you put the chair beside the table?

---

1. I did not take a piece of coal from the basket, but I took a piece of wood from the basket.

2. He did not take a pencil from the box, but he took a pen from the box.

3. They did not put their papers on the table, but they put their books on the table.

4. I have not a long piece of cloth. I did not take a long piece of cloth from the box, but I took a short piece of cloth from the box.

5. You did not put fifty pens on the table, but you put fifteen pens on the table.

6. I did not take a piece of glass from this end of the table, but I took a piece of wire from the box on that end of the table.

What is the meaning of this word?

LESSON XIV

There Is

Is there ..... ? Are there ..... ?
There is a ..... There are .....
There is not a ..... There are not any .....

1. Put one match on the table.
   Is there a match on the table?
   There is a match on the table.

2. Put a book on the table.
   Is there a pen on the table?
   No, there is not a pen on the table, but there is a book on the table.

3. Put three matches on the table.
   Are there three matches on the table?
   There are three matches on the table.

4. Put four pens on the table.
   Are there four pencils on the table?
   There are not any pencils on the table, but there are four pens on the table.

---

1. There is not a pen in that box on the table, but there are three pens in this box on this chair.

2. There are not any boxes on those chairs, but there are two books on each chair.

Spell this word for me.

3. There is not one piece of woolen cloth in that box, and there are not any in those boxes on the window-sill.

4. There are not any pencils in the box on the table, but there is a pencil in each box on the bench.

5. There is a little green book on my table, but there are not any books on your table.

6. There are boxes of chalk and boxes of pencils on that table, but there are not any boxes on this table.

LESSON XV

HERE THERE

1. Come here, John, and put that green book here on this table.
   What did you do? (I came .....)

2. Go there to that window and put the pen into the box.
   What did you do? (I went .....)

3. Put these tin boxes here and those paper boxes there.
   What did you do?

I do not know this word.

4. Put a little piece of cotton cloth here into this box, and a piece of paper there into that box.
   What did you do?

---

1. There are three pens and a pencil here in this box, and there are five pencils and an eraser there in that box.
2. They put their little brown pencils here, and their long red pens there.
3. John put his book here, and Jane put her book there; but they put their erasers and chalk there on that bench beside the black-board.
4. Their little wooden boxes are not here, but there are two tin boxes there on that window-sill.
5. There are not any chairs here at this table, but there are five chairs there at that table.
6. John is here, and Mary is here. Henry and Paul are not here, but all will be here at nine o'clock.

LESSON XVI

Interrogatives

Interrogative Adjectives: Who, Which, What.

Who is . . . . . ? Which is . . . . . ?

Who are . . . . ? Which are . . . . ?

What is . . . . . ?

May I read now?

1. Who is that man at the window?
   That man is Mr. Smith.

2. Who are those men at the door?
   Those men are Mr. Jones and his son.

3. Which is James?
   The man at the end of the table is James.

4. Which are your books?
   Those books on the chair are my books.

5. What is on the table?
   There is a paper on the table.

Interrogative Adverbs: Where, When, Why, How.

Where is .....?	Where are .....?
It is	They are .....

---

1. Where is my hat?
   It is on the book.

2. Where are your papers?
   They are on the table.

3. When do you come to school?
   I come to school at nine o'clock.

4. Why do you come to school?
   I come to school to learn the English language.

Wait a minute, please.

5. How much did you pay for your book?
   I paid one dollar for it.

6. How many pupils are in this room?
   There are fifteen pupils in this room.

NOTE.—Drill frequently on the use of interrogatives. See to it that each pupil asks questions as well as answers them.

LESSON XVII

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS USED WITHOUT NOUNS

MINE YOURS HERS HIS OURS THEIRS

1. That is my book.
   That book is mine.

2. That is your book.
   That book is yours.

3. That is his book.
   That book is his.

4. That is her book.
   That book is hers.

5. Those are our books.
   Those books are ours.

6. Those are your books.
   Those books are yours.

What is the price of this?

7. Those are their books.
Those books are theirs.

---

1. Your pen is on the desk. Where is mine?
Yours is in the paper box.

2. My hat is on the table. Where is hers?
Hers is on the chair.

3. Her chair is at the end of the table. Where is his?
His is at the side of the table.

4. His papers are here . Where are ours?
Ours are in the basket.

5. Our papers are here. Where are theirs?
Theirs are in the cupboard.

---

1. There are three pens on the table. Yours is here, his is here, and mine is here.

2. They put ours into the box and theirs into the cupboard; but where is his?

3. They put all on the chair, yours, his, hers, and theirs.

4. I gave mine to her, and she gave hers to me.

5. How many of these pins are yours, and how many are mine? Put mine into my box and yours into your box.

How much did it cost?

LESSON XVIII

Interrogatives

1. What is your name?
2. What is the name of this school?
3. What is the name of this street?
4. What is the name of this book?
5. What is the name of this thing?

---

1. What shall I put into the box?
2. What shall I write?
3. What shall I tell her?
4. What shall I give him?
5. What shall I do?

---

1. Where shall I sit?
2. Where shall I write?
3. Where shall I put the box?
4. Where are your papers?
5. Where is his hat?

It is a beautiful day.

PART TWO

LESSON I

Verbs: Present Tense, Imperative and Interrogative Forms

Note.—In teaching tense forms use the calendar to indicate the time.

write	study	walk
read	listen	sit
speak	eat	stand
come	go	look

Conjugation of the verb write: Present Tense (to-day).

Singular Number	Plural Number
I write	We write
You write	You write
He writes	They write
She writes	
John writes	

1. To-day I sit and write.

2. He sits beside the table and writes.

3. They sit beside the table and write.

4. I sit and read and write, and she sits and reads and writes.

5. I take a piece of cloth, and she takes a piece of paper.

6. She walks to the blackboard and writes.

7. John goes to the window and looks at the people.

8. We speak English, and he speaks Italian.

NEGATIVE FORMS

I do not write	We do not write
You do not write	You do not write
He does not write	They do not write

1. She writes, but I do not write.

2. She sits, but he does not sit.

3. We take pencils, but they do not take pencils.

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

1. Come here, Mary, and read your lesson.

2. Go to the blackboard and write.

3. Take these pens and put them into the box.

4. Listen to me, please.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

1. Do you like coffee?
   No. I do not like coffee, but I like tea.

2. Does she write?
   No. She does not write, but she reads.

3. Does John go to school every day?
   Yes. He goes every day.

4. Do John and James work in a store?
   No. They do not work in a store, but John works in a restaurant, and James works in a factory.

5. Does John speak the Italian language?
No. He does not speak the Italian language, but he speaks the Greek language.

6. Does Mary sit at the side of the table?
No. She does not sit at the side of the table, but she sits at the end of the table.

LESSON II

Future Tense, Expressions of Futurity, Infinitives

(Reference matter for the learner.)

Verbs in Present Tense (now)	Verbs in Future Tense (to-morrow)
I come	I shall come
I go	I shall go
I read	I shall read
I write	I shall write
I take	I shall take
I learn	I shall learn
I buy	I shall buy
I put	I shall put
I sit	I shall sit

Conjugation Of The Verb Go, Future Tense

I shall go	We shall go
You will go	You will go
He will go	They will go

Negative

I shall not go	We shall not go
You will not go	You will not go
He will not go	They will not go

Future Expressions

to-morrow	next month
day after to-morrow	month after next
next week	next year
week after next	year after next

Infinitives

to write	to give
to eat	to speak
to read	to learn
to work	to put

Practice Exercises

1. To-morrow I shall come here to learn the English language.

2. Day after to-morrow I shall not come to school, because it is Saturday.

3. I shall go to the theater next week.

4. Week after next my sister will come to school to study the language.

5. About the middle of next week we shall go to the country to see our friends.

6. Month after next John will go to New York to buy some cloth for his store.

7. Next year my brother will come to the United States to live with me.

8. Year after next my brother will have a store on Fifth Avenue.

9. I shall go to a store next month to buy a book to read about the American people.

10. We shall come to school next week to learn to read, to write, and to speak the English language.

11. They will come to school because they want to learn the English language; and they want to learn the English language because they want to earn money.

1. Shall I get my book and read to you now?

2. Will Mr. Wilson go to work day after to-morrow?

3. Where will they go when the bell rings?

LESSON III

Names of the Days of the Week, and Times of Day

Sunday	Tuesday	Thursday	Saturday
Monday	Wednesday	Friday	

morning	forenoon	evening	midnight
noon	afternoon	night	

1. On Sunday I shall take my friends to church.

2. My brother will come to visit me on Monday, and we shall go to the theater on Tuesday night.

3. Wednesday at nine o'clock I shall go to the railroad station to meet my uncle and aunt.

4. On next Thursday my brother will go to Boston to see father, mother, and sister.

5. Two weeks from next Friday Mr. Carson will speak to the men of this class.

6. At eight o'clock on next Monday evening we shall see that good play at the theater.

7. On Saturday afternoon I shall not work, but I shall go out on the street to take a walk.

8. Next Wednesday I shall take my sister to a store to buy her a new hat and a new coat to wear to school.

9. On next Saturday at midnight my friend will start for Chicago.

10. On next Thursday afternoon I shall not work, because I am off work that day.

11. When I come to school to-morrow morning, I shall sit at this table to write my lesson.

12. When I go to Boston to see my cousin next month, I shall take him a new English book.

13. When I receive my pay next week, I shall buy myself a new suit and a new hat.

LESSON IV

Past Tense

Reference matter for the learner.

Present Tense (now)	Past Tense (yesterday)
come	came
go	went
read	read

write	wrote
speak	spoke
learn	learned
put	put
buy	bought
eat	ate
drink	drank
sleep	slept
give	gave
take	took
work	worked
see	saw
do	did
have	had
is	was
are	were
make	made
want	wanted
talk	talked
get	got
send	sent
sell	sold
show	showed
look	looked
listen	listened
walk	walked
wait	waited
watch	watched
stop	stopped
receive	received
answer	answered
keep	kept
say	said
order	ordered
return	returned
think	thought
carry	carried
wash	washed
build	built
stay	stayed
like	liked

Practice Exercises

yesterday	last month
day before yesterday	month before last
three days ago	three months ago

last week	last year
week before last	year before last
three weeks ago	three years ago

1. Yesterday I sat at this table and wrote my lesson, and to-day I sit here again.

2. Day before yesterday I learned many new words, and I want to learn more to-day.

3. I met John on the street three days ago, and I talked with him for an hour.

4. Week before last I went to the theater and saw a good play, and next week I shall go again.

5. Jane bought some cloth last week, and next week she will make a dress for her little sister.

6. Three weeks ago I sold my house, and week after next I shall buy another one.

7. Month before last we carried our plants into the other room, and next week we shall carry them into this room again.

8. Three months ago I received a letter from a friend in Europe, and next week I shall answer it.

9. Last year I read many books, and next year I shall read many more.

10. Year before last I wrote in my native language, but now I write in English.

11. Last night I went home at six o'clock. I made a fire. I sat down to read; and when my brother came in, we talked an hour and a half about American history.

12. Three years ago two of my fellow countrymen came to New York, and they stayed there for one year; then they went to Chicago. They are there now, and each has a comfortable home.

13. Year before last I thought that I did not want to learn the English language; but last year I did not work because I could not speak the language of my new country.

LESSON V

Names of the Months

January	July
February	August
March	September
April	October
May	November
June	December

1. I came to the United States on the first of last March.

2. John was born on April 10, 1910, and his sister was born on June 6, 1914.

3. In July and August the weather will be hot, and in October and November the weather will be cool.

4. In May the farmer will plant his corn, and in October he will gather it in.

5. The Fourth of July is a holiday in this country. We celebrate the day of our independence.

6. My friends will come to visit me in the middle of June, and I shall take them to the country for a picnic in the woods.

7. Last July when I had my vacation, I went to the country, where I helped my brother work on the farm.

8. On the last Tuesday of June Frank and Harry came from Europe, and they both live here now.

9. Last February, when the weather was very cold, I bought one ton of coal, for which I paid six dollars.

10. The schools in the large cities of the United States are open for ten months of the year; so the children have only two months of vacation.

11. Mr. Panos came to the United States on the fifth of last January, and he lived here one month; then he moved to Boston, where he will live for two or three years.

LESSON VI

Common Questions about Persons

1. What is your name?
   My name is Ross Martino.

2. Where do you live?
   I live at number 1145 Fifth Avenue.

3. From what country did you come?
   I came from Italy.

4. When did you come to the United States?
   I came to the United States on June 14, 1921.

5. Which language do you speak?
   I speak the Italian language.

6. Is your father in this country?
   Yes. My father is here.

7. Is your mother in this country?
   No. My mother is in Italy.

8. How many sisters have you?
   I have no sisters.

9. How many brothers have you?
   I have two here and one in Italy.

10. How old are you?
    I am eighteen years old.

LESSON VII

A Friendly Letter

1463 Penn Avenue,
Pittsburgh, Pa.
April 6, 1921.

My dear Sister,

I shall write you a short letter in English. I can not write much, because I do not know many words. I go to school every day, and next month I shall know more words, and then I shall write you a long letter.

We want you to come to Pittsburgh to visit us about the first of June. Come and stay two or three weeks with us. We can have a good time, because now I can go all over the city alone.

Write to me and tell me when you will arrive in Pittsburgh, and I shall meet you at the station.

It is time for me to go to school, so I must close.

Your sister,
Mary Rupert.

Envelope.

Mary Rupert,
1463 Penn Ave.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Miss Jane Rupert,
4625 Fifth Avenue,
New York,
New York.

LESSON VIII

Before After

1. Before you sit down, open your book.

2. After you sit down, open your book.

3. Before I came to the United States, I could not read or speak the English language.

4. I came here before half past nine o'clock, and I stayed until after half past three.

5. After I go home I shall eat my supper, and soon after supper I shall read my lesson to my brother.

6. Soon after I came to this country, I came to school; and soon after I came to school, I could understand a little English.

7. I shall read this book; and after I read it, I shall give it to you to read.

8. I worked all day to-day, and I am tired. But after I rest a short time, I shall go out for a walk.

9. I cannot become a citizen of the United States until I have been here five years. I have been here four years, and next year I can become a citizen.

10. After I have lived in this country several years, I shall have a business of my own; then I shall own my home.

11. Before I began to study this language, I did not like it; but after I came to school for a month, I liked the language very much.

12. After you finish your work to-morrow, I want you to bring your family to our house; then we shall sing some of our native songs.

LESSON IX

NEAR	FAR
near	far
a short distance	a long distance

1. The book is near to the box; but the pen is far from the box.

2. I walk to school this year because I live near; but last year I rode to school because I lived far away.

3. John walks a short distance to his work, but Henry has a long distance to go.

4. It is a long distance from here to John's house. I cannot walk there; but I shall ride in a street car.

A SHORT TIME	A LONG TIME

1. Europe is a long distance from the United States, and it took me a long time to come from there to this country.

2. I sat in my room a long time last night and read my new book; then I went out for a short time to walk.

3. It takes a long time to walk that long distance; but it takes a short time to travel it by automobile.

4. When I came to this country, I traveled a short distance on land by railroad; then I traveled a long distance on water by steamship.

5. A short time ago I read about the first English people who crossed the Atlantic Ocean. They came in sailboats, and not in steamships as you and I came.

6. Before I came to this country, I thought that I could learn to speak the language in a short time; but now I think that it will take me a long time to learn to speak it well.

7. I live a short distance from the school; therefore it takes me only a short time to come. But John lives a long distance from the school, and it takes him a long time to come.

LESSON X

Partitive Expressions

all of them	none of them
many of them	some of them
part of them	both of them
most of them	a few of them
one of them	half of them

1. There are many buttons on the table. Put all of them into the tin box.

2. Put some of them on the side of the table and a few of them on each end of the table.

3. Put half of them into the basket and give one of them to me.

4. There are two pencils on the table. Put both of them into your pocket.

5. There are many little buttons in the box. Most of them are white. Part of them are black; but one of them is red.

6. Take all of the little pencils from that box and put half of them on the chair and half of them on the window-sill.

7. I do not know all of these words. Many of them are new to me; but in a short time I shall know all of them.

8. Some of the pupils of this class can read well, and some of them cannot read much; but in a short time all of them will read well.

9. All of the pupils of this class came from foreign countries. Some of them came from Italy, a few of them came from Russia, and one of them came from China; but none of them came from Turkey.

LESSON XI

Present Participles in Progressive Forms

Reference matter for the learner.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Present Participle
go	went	going
come	came	coming

write	wrote	writing
read	read	reading
speak	spoke	speaking
talk	talked	talking
erase	erased	erasing
sit	sat	sitting
eat	ate	eating
tell	told	telling
see	saw	seeing
bring	brought	bringing
buy	bought	buying
break	broke	breaking
cut	cut	cutting
do	did	doing
drink	drank	drinking
think	thought	thinking
stand	stood	standing
sleep	slept	sleeping

NOTE TO THE TEACHER.—Point out that present participles are formed by adding *-ing* to the present forms.

PRACTICE EXERCISES

I am going	We are going
You are going	You are going
He is going	They are going

1. I am going to New York to meet my brother next week. He will arrive in America on next Thursday.

2. You are standing talking to us, and we are sitting listening to you.

3. They are sitting at the table eating bread and butter, and drinking tea.

4. They are going to bring their violins; then they are going to play and sing for us.

5. I am buying a new house, and I am paying for it by the month. I am paying twenty dollars a month.

6. I am making a new dress, and I am making it of beautiful blue woolen cloth.

7. They are learning the English language. They are reading, writing, and speaking in English.

Are you using this book?
Is he coming to-morrow?
Are they buying a new house?
Is he talking English?

LESSON XII

Interrogatives

The Interrogatives: Who, Which, What

who

1. Who is the woman at the door?

2. Who took my pencil from the box and put it into the cupboard?

3. Who gave you that beautiful green box?

4. Who took those three matches from the box and put them on the edge of the table?

WHICH

1. Which papers did he put on the window?

2. Which of those two books did you give to John?

3. At which table did you sit?

4. Which boy took the tin boxes from the cupboard and put them here?

WHAT

1. What is the name of that man at the door?

2. What is in the big wooden box on the floor?

3. From what box did he take these pens and pencils?

4. What did that woman put on the corner of the table?

Interrogative Adverbs: Where, When, Why, How

WHERE

1. Where are those pieces of leather, John?

2. Where did you put my hat and his book?

3. Where are Mr. and Mrs. Miller and their children?

4. Where are the papers for those men in the corner of the room?

WHEN

1. When do they go to work?

2. When did he put his knife here?

3. When did she give those beautiful boxes to you?

4. When did you pay for your book?

WHY

1. Why do Mary and John come to school?

2. Why do those men sit at the table?

3. Why do they put their books into the cupboard?

4. Why do those girls take those pens from the basket?

HOW

1. How much paper do you want?

2. How many pencils do you want?

3. How much did you pay for those pens?

4. How many pencils did you give them?

NOTE.—Drill frequently on questions and their answers.

LESSON XIII

PRACTICE EXERCISES

1. Two new pupils came to our school yesterday, a boy and a girl. The boy's name is Joseph, and the girl's name is Sarah.

2. Joseph and Sarah were both born in France. They are coming to school to learn the English language.

3. Joseph is sixteen years old, and Sarah is thirteen. They will come to school every day from nine o'clock until half past three.

4. After they go home, they will tell their mother about the school. They like to come, and we like to have them here.

5. On Saturday they will not come here; but they will go to visit their cousins.

6. In a few years they will be ready to go to high school, and in a few years after that they will go to college.

---

1. There are many pupils in this school; but there are many people on the street who are not pupils in any school.

2. Two months ago I came to this country, and two weeks ago I came to this school. Now I am learning to speak the English language.

3. Three years ago my brother came to this school, and now at the age of fifteen he is in high school. He wants to go to college in order to become a lawyer.

4. My friends, John and James, were born in a foreign country, and they are both non-English speaking people. After they learn to speak English well, they will go to work in a factory.

5. My father came to this country five years ago, and my mother and I came two years ago. I come to school every day; but my mother does not go to school. I speak well, and she does not.

LESSON XIV

The Different-Difference Perplexity

Same, Differ, Different, Difference

1. The books that are on the table are the same as those on the chair.

2. She has two books that are the same in length, the same in width, and the same in color.

3. He has two books that are different. They differ in length, they differ in width, they differ in thickness, and they differ in color.

4. There is no difference in the pronunciation of those two words; but there is a great difference in the spelling of them.

5. Those two men came from the same country; they came at different times. One of them can speak four different languages.

6. I did not arrive in New York on the same day as my father arrived, because we set sail on different days; he sailed in March, and I sailed in April.

Are those books the same?
Is there any difference between those two books?
Are those papers alike?
Do those bottles differ in size?

LESSON XV

Common Measures

Foot Rule, Yardstick, Pint, Quart, Gallon

1. Take the foot rule and measure the table and tell me its length.

2. Take the foot rule and measure Mr. Panos and tell me his height.

3. Measure the thickness of the table and tell me its thickness in inches.

4. With the yardstick measure this piece of string and give me its length in yards.

5. With the pint measure, measure this bottle and tell me how many pints it holds.

6. Yesterday I bought a gallon of milk, and my bill was forty-eight cents; therefore I paid twelve cents for one quart.

7. I shall buy a new rug for my room. Measure the length and the width of the room, and tell me how large a rug to buy.

8. I want a vessel having the capacity of six quarts. I have a two-quart pan, and I need a larger one.

9. James is going to the tailor to be measured for a suit. It takes three or four yards of material to make a man's suit.

10. Mary will buy a piece of linen cloth to make a cover for her table. Measure her table and tell me how many yards to buy.

What are the dimensions of this room?
What is the capacity of that box?
What quantity of milk do you want?
What are the measurements of this table?

LESSON XVI

Past Participles

Reference matter for the learner.

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
go	went	gone	going
come	came	come	coming
write	wrote	written	writing
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking
talk	talked	talked	talking
erase	erased	erased	erasing
sit	sat	sat	sitting
eat	ate	eaten	eating
tell	told	told	telling
see	saw	seen	seeing
bring	brought	brought	bringing
buy	bought	bought	buying
break	broke	broken	breaking
cut	cut	cut	cutting
do	did	done	doing
drink	drank	drunk	drinking
sleep	slept	slept	sleeping
am	was	been	being
send	sent	sent	sending
sell	sold	sold	selling

Practice Exercises

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

I have written	We have written
You have written	You have written
He has written	They have written

1. The teacher has written the lesson on the blackboard, and the pupils have written it on their papers.

2. The teacher has come to teach you, and you have come to learn.

3. We have read our lessons, we have written our lessons, and we have talked about our lessons.

4. She has written to her mother, and she has told her that John has just arrived from Europe.

5. I have been at the store, and I have bought a few apples for dinner.

6. I have eaten my breakfast, and I have walked for an hour, and now I shall read for a while.

7. I have written my lesson on the blackboard. I have erased it, and I have spoken what I wrote.

8. They have lived on this street for a long time, and now they have bought a new house on another street.

9. I have not been in Chicago, but my father and mother have both been there.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had written	We had written
You had written	You had written
He had written	They had written

1. I had read my lesson, and I had written it before you came.

2. I had gone before she told the story.

3. I had never seen John's cousin until I went to John's house last night.

4. I had never read this story before; but I had read another story about George Washington.

LESSON XVII

Distinction between Sit and Set

1. Set the box on the table and sit down.

2. Sit down and set the box on the table.

3. Set all of those bottles on that bench and sit there beside them.

4. Set Mary on that little chair and let her sit there to study her lesson.

5. Sit down, please, and set your box on the floor.

6. Set that boy down, and tell him to sit there for a half hour.

7. Tell Mary to set a chair at the table; and then tell Mr. Green to sit on it and eat dinner with us.

8. Harry set that box there an hour ago, and it has sat there ever since. Please set it in the cupboard before you sit down.

9. Both John and Mary have been sitting on that bench a long time. I want them to sit there every day to study their lessons.

10. On last Saturday I went to the railroad station to meet my uncle and aunt. They were both there, sitting on the bench waiting for me.

11. I like to sit on the seashore at sunset and watch the boats go out to sea.

12. I sat here yesterday, and I have been sitting here again to-day watching the children play in the water.

13. Where are those children? A few minutes ago they were here, sitting on the floor setting blocks in a row on the edge of the rug.

14. Set that bottle of ink here on the table; and I shall sit and write some of the new words in my book.

Did you sit on that chair yesterday?

Did you set this chair beside the table?

LESSON XVIII

The use of If

1. If I had a paper and a pencil, I should write my lesson.

2. If you want to speak well, you must study hard.

3. If you can spare the time, come to my house to-morrow and spend the day with us. We have much to talk about.

4. If I had a pen and some ink, I should spend some time writing a story about George Washington, the first president of the United States.

5. He said that if he could get off from his work, he should go to Cleveland to visit his oldest brother.

6. If I were your brother, I should not go to work yet, but I should go to school awhile first.

7. If you want a hat of the same style and of either the same or a different color, I can get it for you.

8. If they are going the same day as we are, we may travel together. I should enjoy talking with them as we travel along.

9. If I were he, I should go to them and ask them for more money; and if they would not give more money, then I should look for work in another place.

10. If I had been in this country five years ago, I

should now have a business of my own. If I make as much money next year as I made last year, I shall soon have my own restaurant.

LESSON XIX

The Use of Whether

1. He feels the table to learn whether it is rough or smooth.

2. She feels the cloth to learn whether it is hard or soft.

3. She feels the water to find out whether it is cold or warm.

4. I do not know whether or not that man can speak the Greek language.

5. We cannot tell whether the weather will be warm or cold to-morrow.

6. He has lost his money. I do not know whether it is because he is a bad manager, or whether it is the fault of his partner.

7. When he comes in, he will tell us whether or not he is going to accept the new position that was offered him last week.

8. Let me know by the first of the month whether or not you will accept my offer for that house. This is all that I am able to pay.

9. I did not know whether you were going this week, or whether you were not going until sometime next week.

10. I am not sure whether or not I shall be able to hold my present job. It is very hard for me because I do not understand the orders that are given to me.

LESSON XX

THE VERB USE THE NOUN USE

1. We use pens and pencils to write our lessons.

2. We use pencil-paper and pencils when we write our lessons; but when we write letters, we use letter-paper, pens, and ink.

3. John and Mary use both gas and electricity in their house; gas for heating and electricity for lighting.

4. The tailor uses the heavy woolen cloth to make the winter overcoat, and he uses the light woolen cloth to make the light spring overcoat.

5. Our grandfathers did not use automobiles to travel long distances as we do; but they used horses.

6. Steamships were not used in the time of Columbus; but sailboats were used, and it took a long time to travel by water in those days.

7. On the first of the week I bought myself a new pencil. I have used it for almost a week, and I can use it for another week.

8. When I first came to this country, I used the dictionary every day. But now I do not need to use it so much, because I am more familiar with the words.

---

1. I do not know the use of this word. I find it difficult to use all of these words correctly.

2. What use can be made of this room? It has not been in use for a long time.

3. If they want to finish their work in an hour, they must make good use of their time.

Did you use my pen?
How do you use this word?
What is the use of this thing?
Of what use is this to you?

LESSON XXI

LEAF, LEAVES, LIVE, LIVED, DIE, DIED, DEAD, DEATH

1. Here are two dead leaves and two living leaves.

2. Lack of water will cause the death of leaves.

3. In the fall the leaves of most of our trees die, and the dead leaves fall to the ground.

4. In the spring time the living leaves come, and the trees are made beautiful again.

5. Tea is the dried leaves of the tea plant. Millions

of people all over the world drink tea. This tea is made by pouring boiling water over the dried tea leaves.

LEAVE, LEFT LIVE, LIVED

1. He lived here one year; but he will leave for Europe next month.

2. He left this room an hour ago, and I see that he has left a package here. Before he leaves to-morrow, we shall give it to him.

3. Mr. Mitchell has lived here for a long time; but he will leave to-morrow for another city.

4. After I have lived here for a month or two, I shall leave and go to another part of the state.

5. I had lived there ten years, when a man came along one day and bought my house. We left the place the next week.

6. If I put fifty dollars into the bank this month, it leaves me sixty dollars to use for expenses. I think that I can live on that amount for a short time.

7. Some one told me that when Abraham Lincoln was a boy, he slept on a bag of leaves for a bed. And this boy lived to become president of the United States.

LESSON XXII

As

1. As I came to school to-day, I saw Charles standing on the street corner talking with David.

2. As I was riding along in the street car, I read an interesting article in the newspaper.

3. As I sat in the railroad station waiting for my train, I saw Mr. and Mrs. Long go to their train for New York.

4. As I was crossing the Atlantic Ocean to come to America, I heard a few people talking in the English language.

5. As my sister and I passed through the store, we saw many people buying summer clothing.

6. As I entered the car, I saw Carrie. She said that her sister was coming from Europe, and that she would arrive the first of next week.

7. They were coming up the street as I went down. I turned around and went with them to their home.

8. She gave me this book as I came in. It is a good book, and when I have finished it, I shall let you read it.

9. As I stood at the window and watched the people pass by, I thought of another city that I have visited.

LESSON XXIII

As.....As So.....As

1. My book is as large as yours, and it is just as interesting as yours.

2. His pen is the same as mine; they are both fountain pens. One writes as well as the other.

3. I like this work just as well as I liked the work that I did last year.

4. John does his work as well as Jane, and better than Henry.

5. This coat fits as well as, if not better than the one I had last year.

6. This table is just as long and just as wide as the other table.

7. The boy is just as tall and just as heavy as the girl; but neither of them is very tall or very heavy.

---

1. This coffee is not so good as the coffee that we had last week, and this cost three or four cents a pound more.

2. The quality of this leather is not so good as the quality of the leather that I bought last week; but the price is more reasonable.

3. To-morrow I shall not come so early as I came to-day, because there is not so much work to do.

4. I do not live so far away as you do, and it does not take me so long to come.

5. Now she talks as well as he; but she does not write so well. However, after she has been here in school a little longer, she will write well, as well as any one in the class.

LESSON XXIV

Correlatives

both .....and	though .....yet
not only .....but also	although .....still
either .....or	since .....therefore
neither .....nor	if .....then

1. I told both Mary and John to go to the table.

2. I want not only Mary and John but also James and Paul to go to the door.

3. I want either Mary or John to go to the blackboard.

4. I want neither James nor Paul to go.

5. Though there was much trouble in Europe, yet I managed to get away and come to America.

6. Since I paid twenty cents for two pens, therefore the cost of one pen is ten cents.

7. If I go to see him to-day, then I shall not go to-morrow.

8. Both James and Paul have had not only four years in high school but also two years at the Musical Institute.

9. They offered me this position; and they will give me not only a good salary but also a fine office. I must either accept or decline the offer within two weeks.

10. If all the members could be persuaded to come to the meeting, they might not only pay their dues but also pay some money into the treasury.

11. Although I have been studying this subject for a long time, still I do not have a clear understanding of it yet. I must either find some books to read or find some one who will explain it to me.

LESSON XXV

Fill, Full, Feel

1. Fill the little bottle full of water and the big bottle half full.

2. Feel the bottle to learn whether the water is cold or warm.

3. I need a full box of chalk, and that box is only half full.

4. He took seven matches from that full box on the end of the table.

5. This book is full of beautiful pictures; that other book is full of interesting reading.

6. To know English well fills us with confidence to do our work. It will not only make us happy, but it will also make us able to earn more money.

7. There is no one here to fill his position, and I do not feel that I have time to do his work and mine too.

8. Columbus filled his ships with enough food to last for many days; then he set out on his journey. He did not feel afraid, because he was full of hope.

9. Day by day they sat on the decks of the vessels and watched the sun rise and set. By and by some one saw land a long distance off, then all were full of joy.

10. At last they reached land, and filled with delight, they landed and set up a flag in honor of Spain. In a short time they started for home, feeling that they had made a great discovery.

LESSON XXVI

Let

1. Let me have your pencil, please; mine is broken.

2. Let me see that book; it looks like mine.

3. Let him have your knife to sharpen his pencil; he lost his on the way to school to-day.

4. After we have eaten our supper let us go to the theater; Henry says that there is a good play this week.

5. Let us tell the children a story about the Indians, the red people who lived in America before the Europeans came.

6. Please let me help you with that work; you have too much to do to-day, and I have time to help you. Let us work together.

7. Let us get up early to-morrow and go to a store and buy our heavy winter clothing. The weather is getting cold, and we need warm clothes.

8. We must have some fresh air in this room. Let us open the windows and let the air come in.

9. Let all those who sit at the tables have spelling books, and let all of the others have readers.

LESSON XXVII

KNOW KNOWLEDGE

1. I do not know what you have in your hand.

2. I have no knowledge of what you have in your hand.

3. He has no knowledge of what you put into the box.

4. James does not know the names of those people. He says that he never saw them, and that he does not know what they want here.

5. When I have a good knowledge of the English language, then I want to get some knowledge of a useful trade.

6. It is difficult to make a machine like that one in the mill. It requires a knowledge of machinery that only few people have.

7. Mr. Williams wanted me to come over and make a fence around his lot; but I have no knowledge of

fence making, and I told him to get Mr. Doyle to do it.

8. I do not know the exact meaning of this word. I shall spend a short time studying it; then if I have no more knowledge than I now have, I shall ask some one to help me.

9. When I first came to this country, I did not know many people with whom I could talk; but now I have a better knowledge of the language, and I have many friends.

10. That strange man did not know the way to the railroad station. He asked me to direct him; but he did not have enough knowledge of English to understand me.

LESSON XXVIII

LIE LAY

lie, lay, lain, lying

1. Tell him to lie down and take a sleep to-day.

2. We lay down yesterday and slept two hours.

3. That book has lain there for three or four days.

4. It was lying there when I went out day before yesterday.

5. A little child is lying on the couch sleeping. She lay there yesterday also.

lay, laid, laid, laying

1. Now you see me lay the book on the table.
2. I laid the book there last week.
3. He has laid all of the books on the table.
4. Look at the little girl laying stones on the walk.

---

1. I laid that paper there. Let it lie there until I come home.
2. I have laid five letters on the table, and now I lay another there.
3. When I lay down last night, I laid my watch on the dresser.
4. At ten o'clock I laid the paper down, and then I lay down to sleep.
5. I laid that book there a long time ago, and it has lain there ever since.
6. Lay the child down, and let him lie there to sleep.
7. He lay there all day yesterday; but now he is up, and he is laying those cards on the window-sill.

LESSON XXIX

Positive and Comparative Forms of Adjectives

tall	short	good	heavy	long
taller	shorter	better	heavier	longer

1. There are two men at the end of the table. John is the taller of the two.

2. Let the taller one sit at the end of the table, and the shorter one sit at the side of the table.

3. Those two books are both good, but the little one is the better of the two.

4. They put two stones on the table.
The one on this corner is the heavier.

5. Give him the longer of those two pencils, and put the shorter one on the window-sill.

6. Let her have the better piece of cloth because she wants to make a good dress.

7. Those two coats are both good, but I like the shorter one better than the longer one.

8. James is the taller of those two men, but Henry is the heavier.

9. The older of those two men is the better prepared to do his work. If you can, take the older one to do your work.

10. The softer piece of cloth is the better, and it will make a better coat.

---

1. There are two pencils on the table. Give me the longer one.

2. John is the taller of those two men at the table.

3. Mary is the heavier of those two girls.

4. Take the longer piece of string and give the shorter piece to me.

5. James is the taller of those two boys, but Henry is the heavier.

LESSON XXX

The use of Superlatives

tall	short	good	heavy	long
taller	shorter	better	heavier	longer
tallest	shortest	best	heaviest	longest

1. Of all the men in this room, Harry is the tallest, and William is the shortest.

2. There are three books on the table , but this one is the best.

3. This box is the heaviest and longest that I have.

4. Here is a full box of pens. The longest pen is the best. You may take it, and I shall take the shortest.

5 You may have the longest and heaviest piece of wire, and I shall take the shortest and lightest piece.

6. Guy has grown much taller and heavier than he was. Now he is the tallest and heaviest one of the family.

7. I knew him best of all the family, and I like him better than I like his brother.

8. We want to know the shortest and best way to go, because we want to go in a shorter time than we went before.

9. He is known as the best workman in the shop. He is even more skillful than some of those who have been there longer than he has. He is also the quickest workman there, and he can do his work in the shortest time.

LESSON XXXI

MORE MOST

1. These flowers are more beautiful than those that I had last week.

2. Those are the most beautiful flowers that I have seen in this part of the country.

3. John told the most interesting story that I have heard for a long time. Let him tell it to you some day.

4. In her work Mary is more thorough than Jane, but Jane is quicker than Mary.

5. She did her work more carefully to-day than she did it last week. She will soon learn to be a most careful worker.

6. Harry is more economical than Thomas, but William is the most economical of the family.

7. John Smith thought that if he should take a more northern route than Columbus took, he could find a passage to the Indies.

8. That is the most horrible accident that has happened on the railroad for a long time. It is even more horrible than the one that occurred at the crossing last year.

9. At the dinner the other night they spoke about that man who came in just now. He has been most successful in his business, and he is one of the most able men in the organization.

LESSON XXXII

Whom

To whom, for whom, with whom,
from whom, about whom, by whom

1. To whom shall I go for work?
   I do not know to whom to go for work.

2. For whom do you work?
   That is the man for whom I work.

3. With whom did you come to school?
   There is the man with whom I came.

4. From whom did he buy his house?
   He did not tell me from whom he bought his house.

5. About whom were they talking?
   I do not know about whom they were talking.

6. By whom was that book written?
   I shall see by whom it was written.

7. I do not know for whom he works, but I do know with whom he lives.

8. He does not know to whom to apply for work, and he does not know from whom to get advice about it.

9. They asked by whom that fine house was built, and to whom it now belongs; and if it is for rent, from whom it can be rented .

LESSON XXXIII

Contractions and Negative Sentences

haven't: have not	aren't: are not
isn't: is not	weren't: were not
don't: do not	hadn't: had not
didn't: did not	

NO NONE ANY

1. There is no book there.
   There is not any book there.
   There isn't any book there.
   There is none there.

NOTHING ANYTHING

2. There is nothing in the box.
   There is not anything in the box.
   There isn't anything in the box.

NOBODY ANYBODY

3. There is nobody in that room.
There is not anybody in that room.
There isn't anybody in that room.

1. I have no pens.
I have not any pens.
I haven't any pens.

2. I have nothing in my hand.
I have not anything in my hand.
I haven't anything in my hand.

3. They said nothing about it.
They did not say anything about it.
They didn't say anything about it.

4. I can do nothing for you.
I cannot do anything for you.
I can't do anything for you.

5. I told him nothing.
I did not tell him anything.
I didn't tell him anything.

NOTE.—Teach contractions, but discourage their use for a time. Especially, discourage the use of "can't." Observation shows that until beginners have learned to stress the final consonant, their utterances of *can't* (with a weakened *t*) are apt to be mistaken for *can*. Urge them to use *cannot* in business.

LESSON XXXIV

WHEN, WHERE, WHILE, DURING

1. When I came in, you were sitting at the table writing a letter.

2. Where you are going, the garden is full of the most beautiful flowers.

3. While you were writing, I was reading an interesting story about the early settlers of America.

4. During the night he does the most important work that is to be done in the factory.

5. When I heard that Mr. Panos was coming to this country, I wrote him a letter asking him to come here.

6. While I was standing on the corner talking to one of my friends, James came along and asked us to go to the theater with him.

7. During Columbus's voyage the sailors became discouraged and wanted to go back to Europe.

8. I have read that when Captain Smith and his band of men were in Virginia, they almost starved to death.

9. The French people once occupied the place where Pittsburgh now stands, and the Dutch people once occupied the place where New York now stands.

10. Sometimes the Indians made their most brutal attacks upon the colonists while they were worshipping in church.

11. When they come we shall go into the meeting and stay while they sing the beautiful songs.

12. During the week that my cousin visits me, sometime when we are all at home, come and spend the day with us.

LESSON XXXV

Adjectives and Adverbs

ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
extravagant	extravagantly
careful	carefully
successful	successfully
abundant	abundantly
kind	kindly
thoughtful	thoughtfully
thankful	thankfully
grateful	gratefully
economical	economically
quick	quickly
slow	slowly
prompt	promptly
immediate	immediately
cheerful	cheerfully
hasty	hastily

1. He is a slow and careful worker.
   He works slowly and carefully.

2. Jim is a successful writer.
   Jim writes successfully.

3. They have an abundant supply.
   They are abundantly supplied.

4. Is this spelling correct?
   Do I spell correctly?

5. Did you make an exact copy?
   Did you copy this exactly?

6. The growth of the corn was rapid.
   The corn grew rapidly.

7. They were earnest students.
   They study earnestly.

8. John laughed a merry laugh.
   John laughed merrily.

LESSON XXXVI

WHAT THAT

1. This is what you want.
   This is the box that you want.

2. I gave him what he wanted.
   I gave him the paper that he wanted.

3. We shall see what they are doing.
   We shall see the work that they do.

4. I have told them what John said.
   I have told them everything that John said.

5. They know what you want.
   They know the box that you want.

6. They make what you see on the table.
   They made the dresses that you saw on the table.

7. I do not understand what you say. The words that you use are too difficult for me.

8. We knew all the people that were there, but we did not know what they were talking about.

9. This is the best pencil in the box. It is the one that I want to use to-day.

10. He has told me everything that I needed to know, and he seemed to know just what was necessary to finish the work.

11. We want you to learn all that you can here, and we want you to learn what you learn well.

LESSON XXXVII

Impersonal Use of It, It as an Expletive

IMPERSONAL

1. It is blowing and raining very hard.

2. It is half past five o'clock, and it is time to go home.

3. It was thawing when I came in.

4. It behooves me to go to work, if I finish before six o'clock.

5. It is very dark these nights.

6. It is moderating a little now.

7. It has been freezing all day.

8. It is too soon to go to the train.

EXPLETIVE

1. It is an easy word to understand.

2. It was a pleasure to see those pictures.

3. It will be impossible to forget that lesson.

4. It is a good thing to have that knowledge.

5. It proved very difficult to find out the truth.

6. It was a disappointment to me not to see you there.

7. It is easier to see the faults of others than to recognize our own faults.

LESSON XXXVIII

Active and Passive Voice

1. Active voice: I give this book to you.
   Passive voice: This book is given to you by me.
   Active voice: I gave this book to you.
   Passive voice: This book was given to you by me.

2. Active voice: He tells a story to me.
   Passive voice: A story is told to me by him.
   Active voice: He told a story to me.
   Passive voice: A story was told to me by him.

3. Active voice: She puts the box on the table.
   Passive voice: The box is put on the table by her.
   Active voice: She put the box on the table.
   Passive voice: The box was put on the table by her.

4. Active voice: They lay their books on the table.
   Passive voice: Their books are being laid on the table by them.
   Active voice: They laid their books on the table.
   Passive voice: Their books were laid on the table by them.

Note that the passive voice is formed by using the verb *be* as an auxiliary and the past participle of the verb as the principal verb.

LESSON XXXIX

Idiomatic Use and Omission of To

1. Give the book to me.
   Give me the book.

2. Give those nails to them.
   Give them those nails.

3. Tell the story to them.
   Tell them the story.

4. Bring the pens to us.
   Bring us the pens.

5. Gather some flowers for me.
Gather me some flowers.

After may, can, must, might, could, would, and and should, *to* is not used.

1. I may come to-morrow.
I can write my name.
He must learn his lesson.
He might tell you.
I could do it for you.
She would not go.
I should give her one.

2. I may go to-day, but I shall not go to-morrow.
He can get it to-day, but he cannot get it to-morrow.
I must do my work now because I cannot do it next week.
He might come this afternoon, but he will not come this forenoon.
I could show you my house, but I cannot show you her house.
I should enjoy reading a good book if I could get one.
If you would permit me, I should give you one.

LESSON XL

Relative Pronouns

Who, Which, That, As, What

Nominative	who	which
Possessive	whose	whose
Objective	whom	which

WHO

1. I do not know the man who came in just now.

2. It was I who told you to go.

3. It is I who am using your pencil.

4. Give paper to those who need it.

5. That is the tree whose branches were broken.

6. The men whom you paid will come to-morrow.

7. I live with the friend whom you met yesterday.

8. John Smith. who is my friend, lives here.

WHICH

1. Get the same book which you read yesterday.

2. This hat, which I bought at Kaufmann's, is a good hat.

3. The horse which stands at the corner belongs to a policeman.

4. That is the box which contains the chalk.

THAT

1. The boat that Columbus sailed in was small.

2. All that you tell me is true.

3. There was no one there that I knew.

4. Let me use the same book that I used yesterday.

AS

1. Did you ever hear such fine music as that?

2. Your book is the same as mine.

WHAT

1. What I tell you is true.

2. He always does what he is told to do.

3. I have studied what was assigned to me.

4. I have learned much from what you have given us.

LESSON XLI

Verbal Nouns in *-ing*

1. Walking is good exercise.

2. We enjoyed her singing.

3. Talking to him is useless.

4. Speaking about it is unnecessary.

5. This is a pleasant evening for rowing on the lake.

6. Seeing is believing.

7. She understands cooking.

8. He is afraid of falling.

VERBAL NOUNS IN *-ing* USED AS ADJECTIVES.

1. This sleeping car is new.

2. The folding chair is useful.

3. A lying man is not to be trusted.

4. Spending-money is scarce.

5. Grumbling people are not pleasant.

6. Washing machines save labor.

7. A crying child ran down the street.

8. A smiling child looked at me.

LESSON XLII

Past Participles Used as Adjectives
Infinitives Used as Nouns

PAST PARTICIPLES USED AS ADJECTIVES

1. There is a broken pen on the table.

2. There is a written record of that event.

3. You have his spoken word for it.

4. A closed box is on the table.

5. A burnt match was on the floor.

6. The encouraged sailors went on.

7. Those frightened children went home.

8. An educated person likes to read.

9. That knitted jacket is warm.

INFINITIVES USED AS NOUNS

1. To secure a seat was impossible.

2. To sing well requires practice.

3. His delight is to travel.

4. My wish is to see you immediately.

5. To decide was to act.

6. He has but one aim in life, to succeed.

7. I give you this choice,—to buy, to rent, or to build.

8. It is easy to understand you.

9. It will be impossible to forget.

LESSON XLIII

Words, Phrases, and Clauses Used as Modifiers

wise (word modifier)
of wisdom (phrase modifier)
who is wise (clause modifier)

1. A wise man A man of wisdom A man who is wise	was wanted.

A wise man was wanted.
A man of wisdom was wanted.
A man who is wise was wanted.

2. An angry person A person in anger A person who is angry	speaks hastily.

An angry person speaks hastily.
A person in anger speaks hastily.
A person who is angry speaks hastily.

3. I received	an interesting letter. a letter of interest. a letter that is interesting.

I received an interesting letter.
I received a letter of interest.
I rceived a letter that was interestng.

LESSON XLIV

Cognate Objects

A cognate object repeats the verb idea in noun form.

1. I shall drink a cool drink of water.

2. He sang a song.

3. She lived a life of usefulness.

4. The child dreamed a frightful dream.

5. He promised a solemn promise.

6. James laughed a merry laugh.

7. She sleeps a sound sleep.

8. I shall light the light at seven.

9. I breathed a long breath of fresh air.

10. He called a loud call.

11. She gave a beautiful gift.

12. He shot a straight shot.

13. They fight a hard fight.

14. I cut a deep cut in my hand.

15. He died a noble death.

16. It rained a heavy rain.

17. It snowed a light snow last night.

18. He ordered a big order of goods.

19. I shall drive a long drive into the country.

LESSON XLV

Phrases Having the Office of Prepositions

1. according to
   I did this work according to directions.

2. because of
   They did not come because of the rain.

3. in place of
   Use this paper in place of that.

4. from under
   Take that book from under the box.

5. in addition to
   I want a pen in addition to a pencil.

6. in case of
   In case of fire we can use the fire-escapes.

7. with regard to
   He is telling me something with regard to the management of the club.

8. in spite of
   I got it in spite of his objections.

9. by way of
   I shall go by way of the lake.

10. in front of
    It stands in front of the house.

11. for the sake of
    I shall do it for the sake of my father.

12. round about
    They went in such a round about way.

13. in opposition to
    He did all that he could in opposition to their idea.

LESSON XLVI

Derivatives

Produce, Producer, Product, Productive
Unproductive, Production

1. This land does not produce well.

2. This man is a producer of cotton.

3. Cotton is the leading product of this region.

4. This land is very productive.

5. This land is unproductive.

6. There was a large production of cotton last year.

Fortune, Fortunate, Unfortunate, Fortunately,
Unfortunately, Misfortune

1. He received a fortune in money.

2. He was a fortunate man to receive the money.

3. He was unfortunate not to receive the money.

4. Fortunately, he received the money.

5. Unfortunately, he did not receive the money.

6. It was a misfortune for him to lose the money.

Save, Safe, Unsafe, Safety, Safely

1. The fireman will save the lives of the people.

2. The people are all safe now.

3. That bridge is unsafe.

4. They are in places of safety.

5. They were all taken safely across the river.

USE, UNUSED, MISUSED, USEFUL, USELESS,
USE (noun), USEFULNESS

1. I never use this machine.

2. I put the unused pencils into the box.

3. He has misused the machine, and it is broken.

4. This machine is useful.

5. That machine is useless to us.

6. Of what use are those machines?

7. I know of the usefulness of this machine.

ABLE, UNABLE, DISABLE, ENABLE, ABILITY, DISABILITY

1. I am not able to write well yet.

2. I am unable to do it.

3. That accident will disable him for work.

4. That will enable you to do it.

5. He has not the ability to do it.

6. He was paid money because of disability to do his work.

Change, Changeable, Unchanged
Exchange, Interchange

1. I want to change my coat before I go.

2. This weather is changeable.

3. The price remains unchanged.

4. I shall exchange these shoes for larger ones.

5. They will interchange the pieces of that machine.

LESSON XLVII

Some Idiomatic Expressions

The learner will acquire the precise meanings (exact shades of meaning) from use; he will find in the parentheses indications of the meanings, more or less accurate, that will serve for the time being.

1. after awhile (in a short time)
   I shall go after awhile.

2. all at once (suddenly)
   All at once the rain began to fall.

3. before long (soon)
   He will come before long.

4. break up (stop)
   They will break up the meeting.

5. bring about (to cause to be)
   They brought about an agreement.

6. blind to (ignorant of)
   I am not blind to their actions.

7. close at hand (near)
   I keep my dictionary close at hand.

8. come about (happen)
   How did it come about?

9. come by (obtain or get)
   How did he come by all that money?

10. come on (advance)
    The work is coming on well.

11. do without (dispense with)
    I shall do without my lunch to-day.

12. find out (learn)
    I cannot find out who did it.

13. get away (escape)
    The thief tried to get away.

14. get up (arise)
    I shall get up at six o'clock.

15. get through (finsh)
    I must get through with my work soon.

16. get to (arrive)
    They will get to the city to-morrow.

17. get behind (become tardy)
    He is getting behind with his lessons.

18. go against (oppose)
    I shall not go against his wishes.

19. going on (happening)
What is going on in the street?

20. good deal (much)
He has a good deal of money.

21. hardly enough (insufficient)
He has hardly enough money to pay for it.

22. hold back (delay)
The rain will hold back the work.

23. more or less (approximately)
There are ten, more or less.

24. out and out (entire)
It was an out and out failure.

25. on foot (walking)
They came on foot.

26. on foot (in existence)
There is a movement on foot to stop that nuisance.

27. once in a while (occasionally)
I go there once in a while.

28. put by (save)
He has put by some money.

29. put off (postpone)
The meeting is put off until to-morrow.

30. put out (expel)
He was put out of the club.

31. put out (extinguish)
The fire was quickly put out.

32. put through (complete)
They put through much work to-day.

33. put up (offer for sale)
It was put up at a low price.

34. put up (preserve)
I put up some fruit to-day.

35. put up with (endure)
I cannot put up with that noise.

36. pour in (come in great numbers)
The people came pouring in at five o'clock.

37. run after (pursue)
The policeman ran after the thief.

38. run away (flee)
The child ran away from home.

39. run across (encounter)
Where did you run across that book?

40. run out (come to an end)
The supplies have run out.

41. run on (continue)
Do not let the debt run on.

42. run up (increase)
The price has run up.

43. see about (attend to)
Let us see about that business.

44. set forth (start)
They set forth on their journey in October.

45. shook his head (a negative answer)
When I asked her, she shook her head.

46. used to be (was)
I used to be a pupil there.

47. upside down (inverted)
That picture is upside down.

48. wait on (serve)
The salesman will wait on you.

49. well to do (thrifty)
They are well to do people.

50. write out (write in complete form)
Write out your name in full.

LESSON XLVIII

Characteristic Verbs

The wind blows.
The wind howls.
The wind falls.
The clouds fly.
The clouds scatter.
The rain falls.
The rain pours.
The rain beats down.
The thunder roars.
The sun rises.
The sun shines.
The sun sets.
The moon shines.
The stars twinkle.
The street car runs.

The birds fly.
The birds chirp.
The bird sings.
The dog barks.
The dog howls.
The cat mews.
The cat purrs.
The cow lows.
The horse neighs.
The clock ticks.
The clock strikes.
The clock runs.
The flag waves.
The flag flies.
The hinge creaks.

The telephone line runs across the lot.
The railroad runs in front of the house.
The river runs down the mountain side.

LESSON XLIX

A Business Letter

504 Grant St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.,
June 20, 1921.

Messrs. Solomon and Swartz,
316 Smithfield St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Dear Sirs:—In the Pittsburgh Sun of June 19 I read your advertisement inquiring for a Greek man to act as salesman and interpreter at your store. I am twenty-four years old, and I can read, write, and speak both Greek and English. I should like to talk with you about the position. Please let me know when I may come to see you.

Yours very truly,
Emanuel Demos.

Envelope

Emanuel Demos,
504 Grant St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

Messrs. Solomon and Swartz,
316 Smithfield St.,
Pittsburgh, Pa.

PART THREE

LESSON I

The Dog and His Shadow.

A dog had a piece of meat in his mouth, and he was carrying it home to eat it in peace. On his way he had to cross a plank lying across a brook. As he crossed, he looked down and saw his shadow in the water beneath. He thought it was another dog with another piece of meat, and he made up his mind to have that also. So he snapped at the shadow in the water; but as he opened his mouth, the piece of meat dropped into the water and was never seen again.

Beware lest you lose the substance by grasping at the shadow.

LESSON II

The Crow and the Pitcher

A crow found a pitcher with some water in it, but there was so little that she could not reach it with her beak. In a short time she found a plan. She dropped pebbles into the water one by one, and with each pebble the water rose higher and higher until at last the water reached the brim, and the crow was able to quench her thirst.

Necessity is the mother of invention.

LESSON III

A Father and His Sons

A man had several sons that were always quarreling with one another. The father tried, but he could

not get them to live together in peace and harmony. So he determined to convince them of their folly by bidding them to bring a bundle of sticks. He invited each in turn to break the bundle of sticks across his knee. All tried and failed, and then he untied the bundle and handed them the sticks one by one. They had no difficulty at all in breaking them. "There, my boys," said he, "united you will be more than a match for your enemies; but if you quarrel and separate, your weakness will cause you to fail."

In union there is strength.

LESSON IV

Hercules and the Wagoner

A wagoner was once driving a heavy load along a muddy road. At last he came to a part of the road where the wheels sank half way into the mud, and the more the horses pulled the deeper the wheels sank. The wagoner threw down the whip and knelt down to pray to Hercules. "O Hercules, help me in this hour of trouble," said he. But Hercules appeared to him and said, "Tut tut, man, do not sprawl there. Get up and put your shoulder to the wheel. The Gods will help them that help themselves."

The Gods help them that help themselves.

LESSON V

The Fox and the Crow

A fox saw a crow fly off with a piece of cheese in its beak and settle on the branch of a tree. "That

is for me," said Master Fox, and he walked up to the foot of the tree. "Good day, Mistress Crow," said he, "how well you look to-day; how glossy your feathers and how bright your eye! I am sure that your voice must surpass that of all other birds. Let me hear but one song from you that I may greet you as Queen of Birds." The crow lifted up her head and began to caw her best; but the moment she opened her mouth, the piece of cheese fell to the ground and was snapped up by Master Fox. "That will do," said he, "that is all that I wanted."

Do not trust flatterers.

LESSON VI

The North Wind and the Sun

A dispute arose between the North Wind and the Sun, each claiming that he was stronger than the other. At last they agreed to try their powers upon a traveler to see which could soonest make him take off his coat. The North Wind made the first trial, and gathering up all his forces for the attack, he came whirling furiously down upon the man. He caught up the man's coat as though he would tear it from him by one single effort. The harder the Wind blew the more closely the man drew his coat around him.

Then came the turn of the Sun. At first he beamed gently upon the traveler, who soon unbuttoned his coat and walked on with it hanging loosely about his shoulders. The Sun then shone forth in his full strength; and the man, before he had gone many steps, was glad to take off his coat and finish his journey more lightly dressed.

Persuasion is better than force.

LESSON VII

The Man, The Boy, and The Donkey

A man and his son and their donkey were once going to market. As they passed along the road, they met a countryman who said, "You fools, why do you not ride? Of what use is the donkey but to ride?" The man put the boy on the donkey and they traveled on; and in a short time they met a group of men. One of them said, "Look at that lazy boy. He rides and lets his tired father walk." Then the father told the boy to walk and let him ride, and again they went on their way. But next they met a group of women, and one of them said, "What a lazy man, to ride and let that little boy walk." The father did not know what to do; so he put the boy before him on the donkey and they both rode on. By and by they came to a town where the people began to jeer at them. The father asked them why they jeered. The man said, "Why do you overload the little donkey in that way?"

The man and the boy both got off and tried to think of another plan. At last they cut down a pole. They tied the donkey's feet togther and hung him on the pole; then they raised the pole to their shoulders and went on, carrying the donkey. All who met them laughed, but they continued on their way until they came to a bridge, when the donkey kicked out and caused the boy to drop his end of the pole. Then the donkey fell over the bridge into the water and was drowned. "That will teach you a lesson," said an old man who had followed them. "Try to please all and you please no one."

LESSON VIII

Buying a Suit

Salesman: Have you been waited on?

Customer: No, I have not; but I should like to look at suits of clothes.

Salesman: Come this way, please. About what price?

Customer: Show me a suit for about forty-five dollars.

Salesman: Do you want a dark suit or a light one?

Customer: I want a brown suit.

Salesman: Brown is stylish this season. Here is a nice suit. Try it on to get the size.

Customer: The color is too light. Show me a better suit in darker brown.

Salesman: Here is a dark brown one. It is the best for the money that we have in the store.

Customer: I like that one. Let me try it on.

Salesman: It looks well. How does it feel?

Customer: The coat is a little tight, and the sleeves are too short. Let me try a size larger.

Salesman: All right, I have one a size larger. Try this.

Customer: I like this one; it is very comfortable. What is the price of it?

Salesman: It is fifty-seven fifty, reduced from sixty-five. It is made of fine quality of cloth, and it will give you good service.

Customer: I will take it. Can you send it out to-day?

Salesman: If you live in the city, I can send it out this afternoon. What is your name and the address, please?

Customer: John Miller, 4235 Penn Avenue.

Salesman: Cash or credit?

Customer: Cash.

Salesman: I shall send it out to-day. Good-by, come again.

Customer: Good-by.

LESSON IX

A Call on James Sotos

Last evening I went over to the other side of the city to call on my old friend, James Sotos. He was surprised to see me, because he did not know that I had arrived here from Europe. We talked and talked for a long time. He and I came from the same town, and we had been school-mates in our childhood; we therefore had many things in common.

He came here five years before I came, and if I had met him on the street, I should not have known him. He used to be tall and slender; but now he is so much heavier and so much jollier than he was when I knew him before. He told me of many amusing experiences that he had had shortly after he first came and before he had learned English.

On the second day after his arrival he went out to look around the city, and as he became interested, he walked on and on, turning up this street and down that. At last he became tired, and decided that he would go home; but when he had gone a few blocks, he found that he did not recognize any of the streets. There he was, lost in a big city. He could not pronounce distinctly either the name of his street or the number of his house; so he was unable to inquire the way. Finally he met a man who he thought looked like a fellow countryman. He addressed him; and sure enough, the man was not only a fellow countryman, but he was also a friend of James's brother.

James appreciated being taken home, and that night he decided that he would go to school to learn English. So here he is to-day, speaking the language well and doing a good business.

LESSON X

Economy

Mr. Johnson received his pay to-day, and after settling his bills, made a payment on his house. He still had some money left with which to make a small deposit in his savings account. He said that he could save more money next month because he now has everything that he needs for awhile. Each month he makes a small deposit in the bank, and he says that it

is surprising how quickly one can save quite a sum.

I told Jack about Mr. Johnson's habit of saving money. I thought that I could persuade Jack to do likewise. He ought to save a little out of each month's pay, but here he is without a penny. He is inclined to spend all that he earns and more too. He is always in debt and always wanting to borrow from his friends. It is embarrassing to refuse him money. Some day he will regret this extravagance, I am sure. But he will not take advice from anyone. I think, however, that I shall try once more to persuade him to save, because I do want him to lay up a little for the future. I want him to feel as I do, that a penny saved is a penny earned.

LESSON XI

Directions for Finding One's Way

Mr. Jones: Will you direct me to the nearest drug store, please?

Policeman: Go up this street one block; turn to the right, and go one block; then turn to the left again. There you will find a drug store in the middle of the block on the right side.

Mr. Williams: Can you tell me where the post office is, please?

Policeman: Yes sir. Go down this street three squares; then turn to your right and go one square. The post office is on the corner to your left.

MRS. WILLIAMS: Will you direct me to the Union Station, please?

POLICEMAN: It is a long walk, Madam. Take car number 44, and tell the conductor to let you off at the Union Station.

MRS. ROSE: Where are children's hats, please?

FLOOR-WALKER: On the fifth floor, Madam. Take the elevator at the rear of the second aisle to the right.

LESSON XII

RENTING A ROOM

I am going down town to-night to look at a room. I saw a sign in the window of a nice looking house on the street below, and I want to go before the room is taken by some one else. It may be taken before to-morrow. Good-by; I shall return in a few minutes.

LANDLADY: How do you do?

MR. SMITH: How do you do? I came to look at your rooms. I saw the sign in the window as I passed this morning.

LANDLADY: Come in, and I shall show them to you. I have one on the second floor and one on the third. Here is the small one; the one on the third floor is larger than this.

MR. SMITH: This one does not have enough windows for me; I like plenty of air and plenty of light in my room. Show me the other one, please.

LANDLADY: Let us go to the third floor; the room there is much larger and has three large windows.

Mr. Smith: What a nice clean looking room! I like this large closet too. What is the price of this room?

Landlady: This room is fifteen dollars a month, payable in advance; two dollars a month extra during December, January, and February, because of the additional expense of heating and lighting.

Mr. Smith: This room suits me; I shall take it. When may I come in?

Landlady: To-morrow, if you wish.

Mr. Smith: I shall be here to-morrow evening. Good-by.

Landlady: Good-by, the room will be ready for you when you come.

Here I am, back home again. I have just rented a better room than I have had since I came to this place. It is a large room on the third floor of the house at the corner of Wheeling and Ninth streets. It has three large windows, two of which overlook the park. The wall paper is neat and clean, and the room is furnished in good taste. I am going to move in to-morrow night. Come down with me and see for yourself how cozy it is.

LESSON XIII

John Vanos

John Vanos came to this country eight or ten years ago. He came alone, and when he had been here a short time, he became established in business; then he sent for his wife and two children, a boy and a girl. Now they live in a nice home on Fifth Avenue, and they all speak the English language very well. Mr. Vanos went to night school for awhile after he first came, and when he knew the language pretty well, he began business. When Mrs. Vanos and the children came, the children were sent to the public schools, and Mr. Vanos took his wife to the same night school in which he had been taught.

Now Mr. Vanos has one of the largest and best grocery stores on Penn Avenue. Before he came to this country, he was a fruit dealer, and he had had some experience as a store keeper. He has a large trade here, and people like to deal at his store. They say that he keeps the best and freshest vegetables that can be bought in the city, and that his prices are entirely satisfactory. His customers can always rely absolutely upon what he says. He delivers promptly, and that, too, pleases the people.

His daughter is thirteen, and she is to be given a good education. She will not only be given a college education, but she will be given a thorough course at the Musical Institute. His son is now sixteen, and he will soon graduate from the high school, and will then go to college. After his graduation there, he expects to become a partner in his father's business. It will be a great advantage to the son to take up a business that is so well established. Both Mr. and Mrs. Vanos have worked hard; but it is a great satisfaction to them to know that they have been able to provide so well for their children.

LESSON XIV

Familiar Quotations

1. Never put off until to-morrow what you can do to-day.

2. Lost time is never found again.

3. Honesty is the best policy.

4. Look before you leap.

5. Haste makes waste.

6. Rome was not built in a day.

7. An idle brain is the devil's workshop.

8. Diligence is the mother of good fortune.

9. Procrastination is the thief of time.

10. Do unto others as you would have others do unto you.

11. A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches.

12. Happy is the man who lives content with his lot.

13. It takes a long time to bring excellence to maturity.

14. If you have knowledge, let others light their candles at it.

15. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other.

16. If at first you don't succeed, try and try again.

17. If you abolish confidence between man and man, every human bond of union is broken.

18. The measure of a man's life is the well spending of it, and not its length.

19. Silver and gold are not the only coin; virtue, too, passes current all the world over.

20. God grants liberty to those who love it and are always ready to guard and defend it.

21. Liberty without obedience is confusion; obedience without liberty is slavery.

22. Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire,—conscience.

23. Let us have faith that right makes might; and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it.

24. Let every man be occupied, and occupied in the highest employment of which his nature is capable, and die with the consciousness that he has done his best.

LESSON XV

Christopher Columbus

Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America, was born in Genoa, a seaport of Italy, about 1430. His father was a wool-comber; but Christopher did not

like that kind of life, and while still quite a boy, he decided to become a sailor. His father sent him to school until he was fourteen years old. Then he went to sea where he could learn seamanship.

At that time the life of a sailor was full of adventure and danger; so Columbus had many exciting experiences. Once during a battle with a vessel off the coast of Portugal, he was compelled to leave his boat and swim to shore a long distance away. He afterward lived in Portugal a number of years, and while there, he married the daughter of a sea captain. For some time he earned his living, partly by making sea voyages and partly by drawing maps and selling them.

At that time the merchants of Europe had an extensive trade with India; but there was no short and safe route of travel. Columbus had given much time to the study of the earth, its size, its form, and the locations of the different countries on it. He believed that the earth was a sphere, and that by sailing westward from Europe he could find a water route to India. Finally he decided to make a trial voyage. He went here and there in Portugal seeking help. But people did not think his ideas were sensible; so they refused him assistance.

He then went to Spain. After waiting a long time, King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella agreed to help him. At last they equipped three small vessels, and Columbus and his sailors set sail on their voyage across the Atlantic. They left the port of Palos, Spain, on August 3, 1492, and on Friday October 12, landed on an island a short distance from what now is Florida. This island they named San Salvador. They took possession of it for the king and queen of Spain.

LESSON XVI

Henry Hudson

Henry Hudson, an English navigator who had won some distinction by making daring voyages, was employed by a company of Dutch merchants and was sent out on a voyage of discovery around the northern coast of Europe for the purpose of finding a passage to China. Hudson and his party set sail from the port of Amsterdam in 1609, and as directed by the Dutch Company, went toward the northeast. They sailed on and on through fog and ice until they became discouraged, when they turned around and sailed for America. Hudson was a friend of the great Captain John Smith, who had made a voyage to America, and had told him about it, and had given him maps showing routes of travel across the Atlantic. Hudson and his sailors finally reached the coast near the Chesapeake Bay; but on account of stormy weather they did not land. Instead, they sailed northward along the coast until they came to the mouth of a large river. They entered this river and sailed up its course for several days; but they saw nothing of a way that might lead to China. However, they met some Indians along the river, and Hudson saw that a profitable business in fur trading might be started with them. With nothing more accomplished, they returned to Amsterdam leaving the name Hudson for the newly discovered river.

Soon after Hudson returned and gave a report of his trip, some Dutch merchants sent men to establish trading stations along the Hudson River where merchants might trade in furs with the Indians. In 1623 several trading stations were established, and some forts were built. The Dutch now felt that they had possession of a part of America, and they named

their land New Netherlands. It was decided to buy from the Indians, the large island at the mouth of the Hudson River and build a strong fort on it. This island, then called Manhattan, having an area of fourteen thousand acres, was bought for twenty-four dollars, and on it a fort was built and named New Amsterdam. The Dutch predicted that at this place some time in the future would be the largest city in America. It is said that in 1643 eighteen different languages were spoken on the Island of Manhattan, and that in 1664 the population had grown to fifteen hundred.

The English claimed this land, held by the Dutch, because the Cabots had discovered it and had taken possession of it for England. King Charles had been watching the progress of the Dutch colony, and one day in 1664 some English vessels appeared at the mouth of the Hudson River and demanded that New Netherlands be given up to them. Because they had not the strength to hold out against the English, the Dutch had to surrender their colony. When the English got possession of New Netherlands they changed its name to New York. They also changed the name of New Amsterdam to New York.

The prediction of the Dutch, that here at the mouth of this great river sometime would stand the largest city in America, did come true. New York has become the largest city in America; and to-day it is one of the busiest ports in all the world.

The year after Hudson discovered the great river, now called the Hudson River, he set out on another voyage of discovery. This time he sailed in a northwestern direction from Europe in the hope of finding a passage through the northern part of America. On the way a dispute arose between Hudson and his sailors, and Hudson was put into a little boat and set adrift on the waters of the bay that now bears his name. Nothing afterward was ever heard of him.

LESSON XVII

The Pilgrims

The Pilgrims were people of England who objected to the form of worship used in the Church of England. King James punished all who refused to worship according to the form of the English Church and to give money to its support. So objectionable was this to some of his subjects that they left the country and went to Holland in search of religious freedom. But they were not long satisfied with the change. There they were not permitted to own land; and then too they did not want their children to grow up and become Dutch-speaking people. They wanted above all things to remain English; so, dissatisfied in Holland, they soon returned to England with the idea of coming to America. Here in the wilderness they hoped to establish homes for themselves and to be free from restraint of religious faith and worship.

With the thought of a new England in America, founded upon their own ideals of religious and civil rights, they had the courage to leave their native land and to cross the broad Atlantic. In that little sailing vessel, the Mayflower, came to America some of the sturdiest people that England ever produced. They were independent, industrious, God-fearing. Some of them were also learned.

Their departure from England marks a period in history.

Toward the last of November in 1620 this company of about a hundred persons with Captain Miles Standish as their leader landed on Cape Cod, not far from where Boston now is. Just before the men of the party left the vessel, they gathered together and signed a compact, by which they agreed among themselves to form a colony that should be governed by

just and equal laws, established from time to time by common consent.

A short time after landing they found a suitable place to live and about Christmas began to cut trees and build houses. Winter came on, and they were not prepared for its hardships. Many of them became ill, and about half their number died. But the survivors were not the kind to give up; they were not easily discouraged by hardships.

In the spring and summer following that dreadful winter their crops grew, and the colony prospered. They made friends with the Indians and feared no hostilities from them. They felt sure also that at last they had found the land that they had hoped for so long. In the fall they decided to have a great feast and to unite in giving thanks to God for the many blessings they had received. They invited the Indians also to meet with them, and all sat down together—the first Thanksgiving Day in America.

These people who came in the Mayflower, as well as others like them who came afterward, had much to do with determining the character of the new nation. Of the Pilgrims, a great Englishman has said, "God sifted a whole nation that he might send choice grain into the wilderness."

LESSON XVIII

Benjamin Franklin

Benjamin Franklin was a native of Boston. He was born in 1706. His father was a poor man who earned the living for a large family by making soap and candles. Benjamin was sent to school until he was ten years old; then he had to stop and go into

his father's factory and help make candles. He did not like this kind of work; and because he was a studious boy, his father put him to work in a printing office that was conducted by James Franklin, one of Benjamin's brothers. These two brothers did not get along well together; so Benjamin left and went to Philadelphia.

With but one dollar in his pocket, he reached the city, and in a few days found work in a printing office. Although only seventeen years of age, he already had some knowledge of printing, and was able to do satisfactory work in a strange office.

He continued to study; and by and by got a printing press of his own, and edited and printed the best newspaper in the colonies. He also published an almanac that became widely known for the wise proverbs it contained. Among them were these: "If you want a thing well done, do it yourself," and "Diligence is the mother of good luck." Although a busy man, he found time for study all his life. From one of his scientific experiments he became famous all over the world. By means of a kite he discovered that lightning and electricity were the same.

But Franklin's achievements were not confined to scientific pursuits and matters of general culture. He did much to promote the welfare of his city; he organized the first fire company; he started the first library; he helped to build the first academy—now the University of Pennsylvania.

His influence spread even further than his own colony. He gave valuable assistance in conducting the political affairs of other colonies as well. At one time he was postmaster-general of all the colonies. On several occasions he went to Europe as the agent of his own colony or of others. When the colonies decided to become independent of England, Franklin helped to draft the Declaration of Independence.

During the Revolution, when upwards of seventy years of age, he went to France as agent for the colonies and procured for them funds with which to pay the soldiers. He helped to make the treaty which ended the war. Afterwards, although eighty-one years old, he took a foremost part in framing the Constitution of the United States in 1787. He died three years later at the age of eighty-four.

LESSON XIX

George Washington

George Washington, the first president of the United States, was born on a plantation in Virginia, on February 22, 1732. At the death of his father, George, who was then only eleven years old, was left along with his brothers and sisters in the care of his mother. He went to a little country school, where he learned to read and to do sums in arithmetic. He was a good student and a great favorite with his playmates.

Lawrence Washington, George's eldest brother, had married a Miss Fairfax, whose father lived in Virginia and was a relative of Lord Fairfax, a rich land owner of the colony. When George was fourteen years of age, Lawrence took him to visit Lord Fairfax. This old man of sixty took a liking to George, and they became great friends. Lord Fairfax had been told that people were settling on his land, a hundred miles or so west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Washington was then sixteen, and had some knowledge of surveying; so Fairfax employed him to go over the mountains and measure the land and establish the boundary lines. Washington did his work so well that the Governor of Virginia afterward employed him as public surveyor for the colony.

A little later the French tried to establish themselves west of the Allegheny Mountains, and they began to build forts along the rivers. The Governor of Virginia gave Washington, who was then twenty-one years old, the military title of major, and sent him to order the French to leave this territory. The entire distance there and back was about a thousand miles. Washington, accompanied by one white man and several friendly Indians as guides, had to pass through thick forests and across mountains and broad rivers full of floating ice. Then too, many of the Indians in the region that Washington and his men passed through had allied themselves with the French to fight against the English. Washington was a strong, brave young man, and he made his way safely to the French headquarters. He informed the French commander of the object of his visit, but the French refused to leave. When the answer was brought back to the Governor of Virginia, Washington was made colonel and sent out with an army of one hundred and fifty men to drive the French from the territory near the junction of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. At first the English were defeated. But this war, called the French and Indian War, lasted several years, and resulted in the English getting possession of the land from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River.

A few years later the American colonies had a war with England. The war was begun by the colonists, chiefly because of certain grievances about taxes, and was brought on by the acts of George III, Mr. Grenville, and Lord North. It lasted eight years and resulted in the independence of the colonies.

Shortly after the war ended the people of all the colonies formed a new nation, preserving the colonies, however, as independent states for certain functions of government. By common consent they selected George Washington to be the first president, recog-

nizing him as pre-eminent among his fellow countrymen, as well as relying still on his hand to guide them in their new venture in government.

The verdict of his fellow countrymen has been approved by the judgment of history. He was, indeed, as Henry Lee said of him at the time of his death, "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

LESSON XX

Abraham Lincoln

Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president of the United States. He was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, on February 12, 1809. His father was a poor pioneer, who had a small piece of barren land in the backwoods. When Abe was seven years old the family moved to Indiana. Here also the land was uncultivated, and Lincoln's father had to clear the lot where their new home was to be. He cut the trees and made the logs out of which he built a crude dwelling. Winter came on before the cabin was finished, and the Lincoln family was compelled to live through the cold months with only three sides of the cabin enclosed. By the next winter they had built a better house, which they furnished with new furniture hewn from rough logs, and when they moved into this new home they were more comfortable than they had ever been before. The hardships of pioneer life, however, were too much for Lincoln's mother, who died soon after they had moved into their new home. To little Abe this was a great sorrow—a sorrow that he felt as long as he lived. It was also a great loss to

him. His loss was in part made up to him from the fact that his father married soon again, and his new mother was a kind woman, who took a great interest in Abe and helped him make the best of his limited opportunities. Lincoln went to school at intervals from his eighth year to his fifteenth year. The total amount of schooling which he received was less than a year.

It was necessary for him to earn his living at a very early age. When only eight years old he is said to have cut the fire-wood that was used in their cabin; and from that time on, to have worked in the forest, at first helping to cut logs, and afterwards splitting rails. This work he did for neighbors in order that he might earn money.

Corn and other products of that region were at that time taken to market by flat-boat down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers to New Orleans. Lincoln was employed by a neighbor to go on one of these voyages, two thousand miles by flat-boat. On the trip he had many wonderful experiences. Once while at New Orleans he saw negro slaves bought and sold at public auction in the market place. This sight made a profound impression on him, which he never forgot.

When he returned home, the family moved to Illinois. Here again they had to build a log cabin. Soon after their arrival Lincoln became the village postmaster. His duties did not occupy all of his time; so he began the study of law. It is said that he walked a distance of twenty miles to borrow law books from a friend. By and by he practised law. He was by nature sympathetic, earnest, and sincere, as well as honest in his dealings. He was also ambitious and a natural leader, masterful, though unobtrusive.

From a very early age he won general confidence and respect. In the practice of law he had great success as an advocate. At twenty-five he was elected to the state legislature. It is said that when he went into office he walked to the capitol, because he was too poor to hire a horse. He was a member of the legislature for eight years. A little later he represented his district in Congress for a term. A short time after that he became a candidate for United States senator against Stephen A. Douglas, by whom he was defeated. During the campaign the candidates held a series of memorable debates, in which they discussed the slavery question.

Lincoln was elected president of the United States in 1860. His election was received throughout the South with general disappointment and dismay, because the people there thought that Lincoln would oppose the holding of slaves by the people of any state. Soon the southern states tried to secede, and the great Civil War was on. It began in 1861, and in 1862 Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, by which he set free all the slaves held within any state that was in rebellion against the United States. The war ended in April 1865, and it was Lincoln's efforts more than anyone else's that saved the nation.

About the time the war ended, Lincoln was shot at the theater by an assassin. He died the next morning, and his body was laid to rest in Springfield, Illinois. After the burial service the Second Inaugural address was read over his grave; and as Lord Charnwood says in his biography of Lincoln, "What better words could have been chosen to honor one who with malice toward none, with charity toward all with firmness in the right, as God gave him to see the right, had striven on to finish the work he was in."

LESSON XXI

President Lincoln's Letter to Mrs. Bixby

A SPECIMEN OF PERFECT ENGLISH

Executive Mansion,
Washington, Nov. 21, 1864.

To Mrs. Bixby, Boston, Mass.

Dear Madam:

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully.

A. Lincoln.

LESSON XXII

Preamble to the Constitution of the United States

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

AMERICA

My country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
    Of thee I sing;
Land where my fathers died,
Land of the Pilgrim's pride,
From ev'ry mountain side,
    Let freedom ring.

My native country, thee,
Land of the noble free,
    Thy name I love;
I love thy rocks and rills,
Thv woods and templed hills,
My heart with rapture thrills,
    Like that above.

Let music swell the breeze,
And ring from all the trees,
    Sweet freedom's song;
Let mortal tongues awake,
Let all that breathe partake,
Let rocks their silence break,
    The sound prolong.

Our father's God, to Thee,
Author of liberty,
    To Thee we sing;
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light,
Protect us by Thy might,
    Great God, our King.

STAR SPANGLED BANNER

Oh, say can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming?
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, thro' the perilous fight,
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming?
And the rockets red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof thro' the night that our flag was still there.

Oh, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

On the shore, dimly seen thro' the mists of the deep,
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, half conceals, half discloses?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines on the stream:

'Tis the star-spangled banner: oh, long may it wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave?

Oh, thus be it e'er when free men shall stand
Between their loved homes and the war's desolation;
Blest with vict'ry and peace, may the heav'n-rescued land
Praise the Pow'r that has made and preserved us a nation!
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just;
And this be our motto: "In God is our trust!"

And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

APPENDIX

Numerals

Roman Notation	*Arabic Notation*		*Ordinals*	
I.	1	one	1st	first
II.	2	two	2nd	second
III.	3	three	3rd	third
IV.	4	four	4th	fourth
V.	5	five	5th	fifth
VI.	6	six	6th	sixth
VII.	7	seven	7th	seventh
VIII.	8	eight	8th	eighth
IX.	9	nine	9th	ninth
X.	10	ten	10th	tenth
XI.	11	eleven	11th	eleventh
XII.	12	twelve	12th	twelfth
XIII.	13	thirteen	13th	thirteenth
XIV.	14	fourteen	14th	fourteenth
XV.	15	fifteen	15th	fifteenth
XVI.	16	sixteen	16th	sixteenth
XVII.	17	seventeen	17th	seventeenth
XVIII.	18	eighteen	18th	eighteenth
XIX.	19	nineteen	19th	nineteenth
XX.	20	twenty	20th	twentieth
XXI.	21	twenty-one	21st	twenty-first
XXX.	30	thirty	30th	thirtieth
XL.	40	forty	40th	fortieth
L.	50	fifty	50th	fiftieth
LX.	60	sixty	60th	sixtieth
LXX.	70	seventy	70th	seventieth
LXXX.	80	eighty	80th	eightieth
XC.	90	ninety	90th	ninetieth
C.	100	one hundred	100th	one hundredth
D.	500	five hundred	500th	five hundredth
M.	1000	one thousand	1000th	one thousandth
MM.	2000	two thousand	2000th	two thousandth
$\overline{V}$.	5000	five thousand	5000th	five thousandth

Numerical Expressions and Signs

I. ADDITION

Two plus three equals five.

2 + 3 = 5

Problem in addition:—

```
  2 4 6   addend
  4 6 8   addend
  2 3 4   addend
  -------
  9 4 8   sum or amount
```

II. SUBTRACTION

Ten minus six equals four.

10 — 6 = 4

Problem in subtraction:—

```
  7 5 3   minuend
  4 3 2   subtrahend
  -------
  3 2 1   difference or remainder.
```

III. MULTIPLICATION

Four multiplied by two equals eight.

4 × 2 = 8

Problem in multiplication:—

```
  2 4 5 3   multiplicand
        2 3 multiplier
  ---------
    7 3 5 9
  4 9 0 6
  ---------
  5 6 4 1 9 product
```

IV. DIVISION

Ten divided by two equals five.

10 ÷ 2 = 5

SHORT DIVISION

```
Divisor  6 ) 1 2 3 4 2   dividend
             ---------
               2 0 5 7   quotient
```

LONG DIVISION

```
                2 5 0 2          quotient
Divisor  2 5 ) 6 2 5 5 2         dividend
               5 0
               -----
               1 2 5
               1 2 5
             -------------
                     5 2
                     5 0
                   -------
                         2       remainder
```

COMMON FRACTIONS

One (1) is a unit or a whole number.

One half (½) is a fractional part of a thing.

1. One half plus one half equals one.
   ½+½=I
2. One fourth plus one fourth plus one fourth plus one fourth equals one.
   ¼+¼+¼+¼=I
3. One half of twenty is ten.
   ½ of 20=10
4. One third of fifteen equals five.
   1/3 of 15=5
5. One fourth of eight equals two.
   1/4 of 8 =2
6. Two fourths of eight equals four.
   2/4 of 8=4
7. Three fourths of eight equals six.
   3/4 of 8=6

1½ is a mixed number.

1/ numerator
/2 denominator

Decimal Fractions

.1	1/10	one tenth
.01	1/100	one hundredth
.001	1/1000	one thousandth
.0001	1/10000	one ten-thousandth
.00001	1/100000	one hundred-thousandth

1.1	one and one tenth
10.01	ten and one hundredth
100.001	one hundred and one thousandth
1000.0001	one thousand and one ten-thousandth
10000.00001	ten thousand and one hundred-thousandth
1000000.000001	one million and one millionth

Common Weights and Measures

LONG MEASURE TABLE

12	inches (in.)	1 foot (ft.).
3	feet	1 yard (yd.).
16½	feet	1 rod (rd.).
320	rods	1 mile (mi.).
5280	feet	1 mile.

SQUARE MEASURE TABLE

144	square inches (sq. in.)	1 square foot (sq. ft.).
9	square feet	1 square yard (sq.yd.).
30¼	square yards, or 272¼ square feet	1 square rod (sq.rd.).
160	square rods	1 acre (A.).
640	acres	1 square mile (sq. m.).

CUBIC MEASURE TABLE

1728	cubic inches (cu. in.)	1 cubic foot (cu. ft.).
27	cubic feet	1 cubic yard (cu. yd.).

DRY MEASURE TABLE

2 pints (pt.)	1 quart (qt.).
8 quarts	1 peck (pk.).
4 pecks	1 bushel (bu.).

LIQUID MEASURE TABLE

4 gills (gi.)	1 pint.
2 pints	1 quart (qt.).
4 quarts	1 gallon (gal.).

AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT TABLE

16 ounces (oz.)	1 pound (lb.).
100 pounds	1 hundredweight (cwt.).
20 hundredweight	1 ton (T.).

Adjectives and Adverbs of Irregular Comparison

ADJECTIVES

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
bad (evil, ill)	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
good	better	best
late	later, latter	last
well (in health)	better	
little	less, lesser	least
much, many	more	most

ADVERBS

far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest

ill	worse	worst
badly	worse	worst
well	better	best
late	later	latest
little	less	least
much	more	most

Personal Pronouns

THE PRONOUN OF THE FIRST PERSON: *I*

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
Nominative Case	I	we
Possessive Case	my or mine	our or ours
Objective Case	me	us

THE PRONOUN OF THE SECOND PERSON: *you*

	Singular Number	*Plural Number*
Nominative Case	you	you
Possessive Case	your or yours	your or yours
Objective Case	you	you

THE PRONOUN OF THE THIRD PERSON: *he, she, it*

	Singular Number			*Plural Number*
	Masculine	*Feminine*	*Neuter*	*all genders*
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Poss.	his	her or hers	its	their or theirs
Obj.	him	her	it	them

PRINCIPAL PARTS AND CONJUGATION OF THE VERB WRITE

Pres.—write, Past—wrote, Past Part.—written

Indicative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1. I write	We write
2. You write	You write
3. He writes	They write

PAST TENSE

1. I wrote	We wrote
2. You wrote	You wrote
3. He wrote	They wrote

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall write	We shall write
2. You will write	You will write
3. He will write	They will write

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I have written	We have written
2. You have written	You have written
3. He has written	They have written

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I had written	We had written
2. You had written	You had written
3. He had written	They had written

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have written	We shall have written
2. You will have written	You will have written
3. He will have written	They will have written

Principal Parts and Conjugation of The Verb To Be.

Present—am, Past—was, Present Participle—being, Past Participle—been

Indicative Mood

PRESENT TENSE

Singular Number	*Plural Number*
1. I am	We are
2. You are	You are
3. He is	They are

PAST TENSE

1. I was	We were
2. You were	You were
3. He was	They were

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall be	We shall be
2. You will be	You will be
3. He will be	They will be

PERFECT (OR PRESENT PERFECT) TENSE

1. I have been	We have been
2. You have been	You have been
3. He has been	They have been

PLUPERFECT (OR PAST PERFECT) TENSE

1. I had been	We had been
2. You had been	You had been
3. He had been	They had been

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have been	We shall have been
2. You will have been	You will have been
3. He will have been	They will have been

LIST OF VERBS

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
am	was	been	being
arise	arose	arisen	arising
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked	awaking
bear	bore	borne, born	bearing
beat	beat	beaten	beating
begin	began	begun	beginning
behold	beheld	beheld	beholding
bend	bent	bent	bending
beseech	besought	besought	beseeching
bet	bet	bet	betting
bid	bade	bidden	bidding
bind	bound	bound	binding
bite	bit	bitten	biting
bleed	bled	bled	bleeding
blow	blew	blown	blowing
break	broke	broken	breaking
bring	brought	brought	bringing
build	built	built	building
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt	burning
burst	burst	burst	bursting
buy	bought	bought	buying
catch	caught	caught	catching
choose	chose	chosen	choosing
cling	clung	clung	clinging
come	came	come	coming
cost	cost	cost	costing
creep	crept	crept	creeping
cut	cut	cut	cutting

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
dare	dared	dared	daring
deal	dealt	dealt	dealing
dig	dug	dug	digging
do	did	done	doing
draw	drew	drawn	drawing
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt	dreaming
dress	dressed	dressed	dressing
drink	drank	drunk	drinking
drive	drove	driven	driving
dwell	dwelt	dwelt	dwelling
eat	ate	eaten	eating
fall	fell	fallen	falling
feed	fed	fed	feeding
feel	felt	felt	feeling
fight	fought	fought	fighting
find	found	found	finding
flee	fled	fled	fleeing
fling	flung	flung	flinging
fly	flew	flown	flying
forget	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
forsake	forsook	forsaken	forsaking
freeze	froze	frozen	freezing
get	got	got	getting
give	gave	given	giving
go	went	gone	going
grind	ground	ground	grinding
grow	grew	grown	growing
hang	hung, hanged	hung,hanged	hanging
have	had	had	having
hear	heard	heard	hearing
hew	hewed	hewn	hewing
hide	hid	hidden	hiding
hold	held	held	holding
hurt	hurt	hurt	hurting

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
keep	kept	kept	keeping
kneel	kneeled, knelt	kneeled, knelt	kneeling
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted	knitting
know	knew	known	knowing
lay	laid	lain	laying
lead	led	led	leading
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt	learning
leave	left	left	leaving
lend	lent	lent	lending
let	let	let	letting
lie (recline)	lay	lain	lying
lie (to tell a falsehood)	lied	lied	lying
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit	lighting
lose	lost	lost	losing
make	made	made	making
mean	meant	meant	meaning
meet	met	met	meeting
pay	paid	paid	paying
put	put	put	putting
quit	quit	quit	quitting
read	read	read	reading
rid	rid	rid	ridding
ride	rode	ridden	riding
ring	rang	rung	ringing
rise	rose	risen	rising
run	ran	run	running
say	said	said	saying
see	saw	seen	seeing
seek	sought	sought	seeking
sell	sold	sold	selling
send	sent	sent	sending
set	set	set	setting
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn	sewing

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
shake	shook	shaken	shaking
shave	shaved	shaved	shaving
shed	shed	shed	shedding
shine	shone	shone	shining
shoot	shot	shot	shooting
show	showed	shown	showing
shrink	shrank	shrunk	shrinking
shut	shut	shut	shutting
sing	sang	sung	singing
sink	sank	sunk	sinking
sit	sat	sat	sitting
slay	slew	slain	slaying
sleep	slept	sleeping	sleeping
slide	slid	slid, slidden	sliding
sling	slung	slung	slinging
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt	smelling
sow	sowed	sowed, sown	sowing
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt	spelling
spend	spent	spent	spending
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt	spilling
spin	spun	spun	spinning
spit	spit	spit	spitting
split	split	split	splitting
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt	spoiling
spread	spread	spread	spreading
spring	sprang	sprung	springing
stand	stood	stood	standing
stay	stayed	stayed	staying
steal	stole	stolen	stealing
stick	stuck	stuck	sticking
sting	stung	stung	stinging
stink	stunk	stunk	stinking
strew	strewed	strewn	strewing

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Past Participle*	*Present Participle*
strike	struck	struck	striking
string	strung	strung	stringing
strive	strove	striven	striving
swear	swore	sworn	swearing
sweat	sweated, sweat	sweated, sweat	sweating
sweep	swept	swept	sweeping
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen	swelling
swim	swam	swum	swimming
take	took	taken	taking
teach	taught	taught	teaching
tear	tore	torn	tearing
tell	told	told	telling
think	thought	thought	thinking
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived	thriving
thrust	thrust	thrust	thrusting
tread	trod	trodden	treading
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked	waking
wear	wore	worn	wearing
weave	wove	woven	weaving
wed	wedded	wedded	wedding
win	won	won	winning
wind	wound	wound	winding
wring	wrung	wrung	wringing
write	wrote	written	writing

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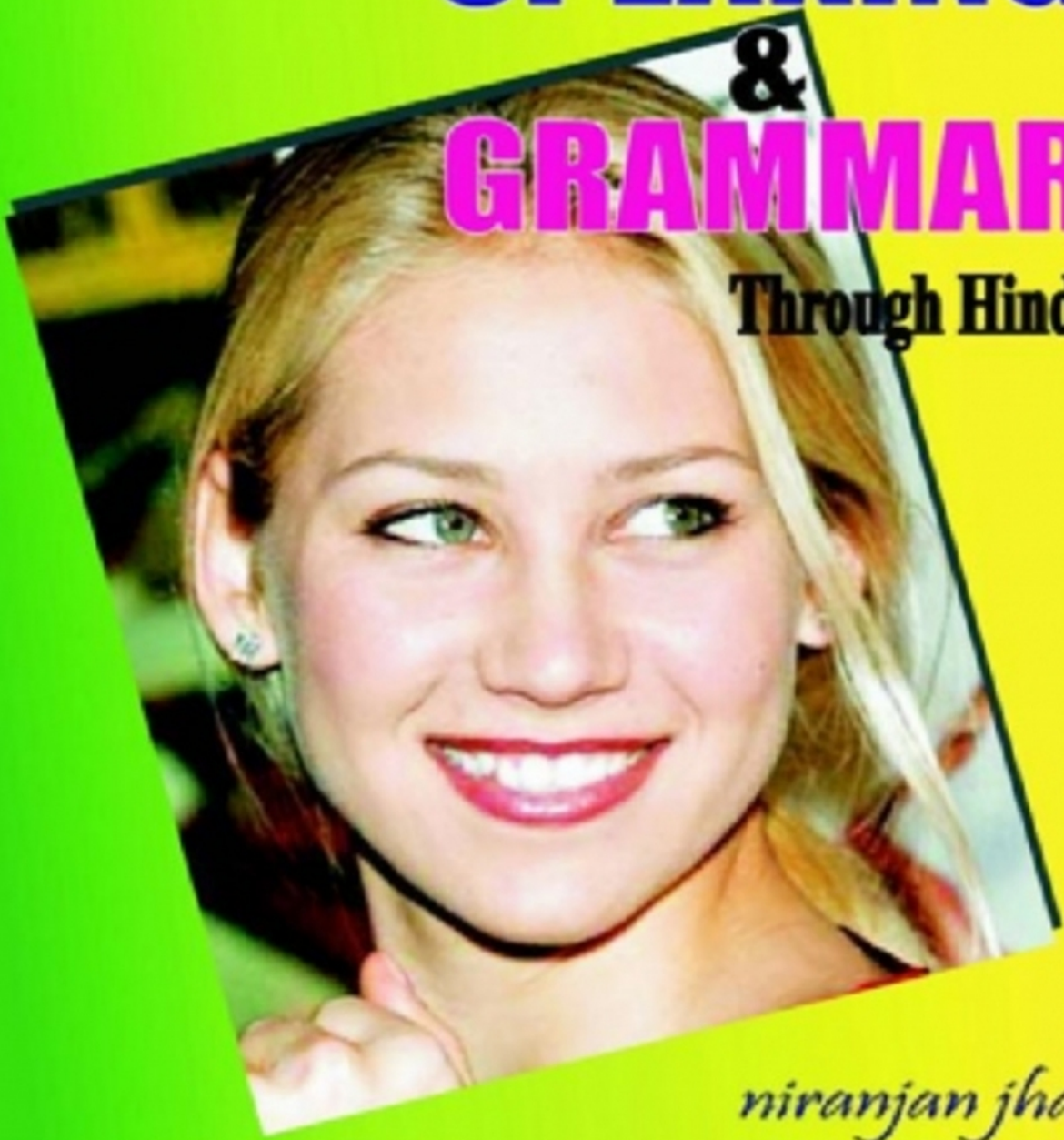

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Preface

This 'English Speaking & Grammar' book of Cromosys Language Research and Education Center is designed to teach you English from very basic to the advanced level. The lessons and study materials uniquely designed, which you will not find in any other books, are to guide you to be fluent following correct usage of grammar. Having done the research over English in twelve years, I am confident to assure you that it has everything that you need to get a good command over English. Its step-by-step explanation to tense, modals, advanced modals, voice and preposition with rules and alerts guarantee your success. You will feel that this is the only book you were always in the need of.

The communication in any language without following the rules degrades the standard and corrupts the meaning. As the world is changing day by day, English is incorporating in all the sectors of human life around the globe. Every day, the use of English is increasing and a person with good knowledge of it is able to get a good job. And so, the call centers and print and visual media have great demand of those who are good in this language. The modern ventures of newspapers, magazines, and movies have contributed a lot to make English strong, sense-touching, smooth and beautiful. As English has advanced a lot in last twenty-five years, the universal standard of it has adopted many new sentence structures and grammar patterns, which are never taught to the students in academic schools. And that is why English remains difficult to many people.

Considering that point, I prepared this magnificently powerful quality guide to help you gain the improvement on Spoken English. Around eight years ago I went to the USA where I got a chance to get an exclusive training of this language. I have been communicating with English-speaking people around the world while managing a team in several call centers, and in part time, I have been teaching this language globally with high exposure. So being able to understand linguistic science, I promise that the knowledge that you are going to get from this book will definitely sharpen your ability so that you can make your way of success without any hindrance.

Cromosys, our language research and education center, saving human efforts from being wasted, is to make you as good as native English speaker. This path-breaking pioneer training institute for English Speaking, Mass Communication, Foreign Languages, Computer Training, and Academic Tuition, is committed to enlightening human mind with educational endeavors, and we are doing the same for last successful fifteen years. We not only hope but believe that your success is in your hand now, and this book will take you miles ahead in your expectation. We always respect the views and comments of readers, so for any communication with regards to assistance, enquiry or collaboration, we are always there at your reach as it helps us improve our ability.

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My other books-
English Word Power | Voice Accent and Pronunciation | Dynamic Grammar of English | Teach Yourself Spanish | Teach Yourself French

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MODALS

Can

पहचानः– सकता है, सकती है, सकते हैं
Rule : Sub + can + v1 + obj

Affirmative

मैं यह काम कर सकता हूं।	I can do this work.
आप उससे मिल सकते हैं।	You can meet him.
हम वहां पहुंच सकते हैं।	We can reach there.
वह फ्रेंच बोल सकती है।	She can speak French.

Negative

वह मुझे मदद नहीं कर सकता है।	He can not help me.
बच्चे वहां नहीं जा सकते हैं।	The Children can not go there.
आप उससे बात नहीं कर सकते हैं।	You can not talk to him.
हम उसे धोखा नहीं दे सकते हैं।	We can not cheat him.

Interrogative

क्या वह पत्र लिख सकती है?	Can she write a letter?
क्या आप इनसवालों के जवाब नहीदे सकते हैं?	Can you not answer these questions?
हम उससे कैसे मिल सकते हैं?	How can we meet him?
तुम फ्रेंच क्यों नहीं बोल सकते हो?	Why can you not speak French?

Exercise
आप यह काम कर सकते हैं। वह आपको डांट सकती है। क्या आप मुझे कुछ बता सकते हैं? वह सब कुछ समझ सकता है। शिक्षक तुम्हें सवाल पूछ सकते हैं। कविता नितिन से क्यों नहीं मिल सकती है? आप मुझे रूपये कब दे सकते हैं?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
मैं यह काम कल कर सकता हूं। पुलिस उसे गिरफतार क्यों नहीं कर सकती है? क्या वह यहां आ सकता है? आप उससे यह सवाल पूछ सकते हैं। तुम परीक्षा पास कर सकते हो। नितिन फ्रेंच नहीं बोल सकता है। आप उसे यहां कब बुला सकते हैं? हम यहां कैसे ठहर सकते हैं? क्या मैं यह घड़ी बेच सकता हूं?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Hint- v1 = go, v2 = went, v3 = gone, v4 = going, v5 = goes

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Could

पहचानः– सका, सकी, सके, सका था, सकी थी, सके थे

Rule : Sub + could + v1 + obj

Affirmative

हम वहां समय पर पहुंच सके।	We could reach there on time.
वह मेरे साथ फ्रेंच बोल सकी।	She could speak French with me.
मैं यह काम ठीक तरह कर सका ।	I could do this work properly.
वह मुझे पैसे से मदद कर सकी।	She could help me with money.

Negative

बच्चे वहां नहीं जा सके।	The Children could not go there.
आप उससे बात नहीं कर सके।	You could not talk to him.
वह हमें धोखा नहीं दे सका ।	He could not cheat us.
आप इन सवालों के जवाब नहीं दे सके।	You could not answer these questions.

Interrogative

क्या वह तुम्हें मदद कर सकी?	Could she help you?
क्या आप किताब नहीं खरीद सके?	Could you not buy the book?
वह मुझसे क्यों नहीं मिल सका?	Why could he not meet me?
आप यह काम कैसे कर सके?	How could you do this work?

Exercise

मैं उसे रूपये नहीं दे सका। क्या आप उससे कोई सवाल पूछ सके? बच्चे हॉकी क्यों नहीं खेल सके? मैं यह कलम उसे नहीं दे सका। आप उससे कब मिल सके? वह मुझे धोखा नहीं दे सकी। तुम्हारा भाई घर कब पहुंच सका? मैं नितिन से बात नहीं कर सका। तुम अमेरिका क्यों नहीं जा सके? क्या बच्चे स्कूल नहीं पहुंच सके?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

तुम फ्रेंच नहीं सीख सकते हो। तुम फ्रेंच नहीं सीख सके। वह मुझे नहीं भूल सकती है। वह मुझे नहीं भूल सकी। आप उससे कहां मिल सकते हैं? आप उससे कहां मिल सके? हम वहां नहीं ठहर सकते हैं। हम वहां नहीं ठहर सके। वह यह काम नहीं कर सकता है। वह यह काम नहीं कर सका। आप पत्र क्यों नहीं लिख सकते हैं? आप पत्र क्यों नहीं लिख सके?

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Should

पहचानः– ना चाहिए, नी चाहिए, ने चाहिए

Rule : Sub + should + v1 + obj

Affirmative

हमें वहां समय पर पहुंचना चाहिए।	We should reach there on time.
उसे मेरे साथ फ्रेंच बोलनी चाहिए।	He should speak French with me.
मुझे यह काम आज करना चाहिए।	I should do this work today.
उसे पैसे से मेरी मदद करनी चाहिए।	He should help me with money.

Negative

बच्चों को वहां नहीं जाना चाहिए।	The children should not go there.
आपको उससे बात नहीं करनी चाहिए।	You should not talk to him.
हमें यह किताब नहीं खरीदनी चाहिए।	We should not buy this book.
उन्हें यह काम नहीं करना चाहिए।	They should not do this work.

Interrogative

क्या बच्चों को फ्रेंच सीखनी चाहिए?	Should the children learn French?
हमें उससे कैसे मिलना चाहिए?	How should we meet him?
उसे यह फिल्म क्यों नहीं देखनी चाहिए?	Why should he not see this film?
मुझे अब कहां जाना चाहिए?	Where should I go now?

Exercise

आपको उसे पढ़ाना चाहिए। क्या मुझे उससे मिलना चाहिए? हमें इन सवालों के जवाब नहीं देने चाहिए। शिक्षक को उसे नहीं डांटना चाहिए। तुम्हें यह काम आज करना चाहिए। हमें अब क्या करना चाहिए? क्या मुझे यह घड़ी बेचनी चाहिए? हमें उससे कहां मिलना चाहिए? मुझे यह कलम नहीं खरीदनी चाहिए। लोगों को अब घर जाना चाहिए। बच्चों को यहां नहीं ठहरना चाहिए।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

उसे कॉफी नहीं पीनी चाहिए। वह कॉफी नहीं पी सकता है। वह कॉफी नहीं पी सका। हमें यह काम क्यों नहीं करना चाहिए? हम यह काम क्यों नहीं कर सकते हैं? हम यह काम क्यों नहीं कर सके? क्या उसे पुलिस को कुछ नहीं बताना चाहिए? वह तुम्हें धोखा नहीं दे सकी। रवि घर कब पहुंच सका? हम नितिन से बात नहीं कर सके। आप अमेरिका क्यों नहीं जा सके? क्या लोगों को अब घर जाना चाहिए?

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Would

पहचानः– ता होगा, ती होगी, ते होंगे

Rule : Sub + would + v1 + obj

Affirmative

आप उससे मिलते होंगे।	You would meet him.
वह कॉफी पीता होगा।	He would drink coffee.
बच्चे रोज स्कूल जाते होंगे।	The children would go to school daily.
कविता नितिन को जानती होगी।	Kavita would know Nitin.

Negative

वह तुम्हें प्यार नहीं करती होगी।	She would not love you.
आप उसे पसंद नहीं करते होंगे।	You would not like her.
तुम्हारा भाई दवाई नहीं लेता होगा।	Your brother would not take medicine.
वे तुम्हें मदद नहीं करते होंगे।	They would not help you.

Interrogative

क्या वह शराब पीता होगा?	Would he drink wine?
क्या बच्चे कविता पढ़ते होंगे?	Would the children read poems?
वह रोज कहां जाती होगी?	Where would she go daily?
अमेरिकन फ्रेंच क्यों नहीं बोलते होंगे?	Why would Americans not speak French?

Exercise

वह जर्मनी में रहता होगा। तुम उसका नाम जानते होगे। कविता नितिन से बात नहीं करती होगी। शिक्षक तुम्हें ठीक तरह नहीं पढ़ाते होंगे। क्या वह फिल्में देखती होगी? वह ऑस्ट्रेलिया कैसे जाता होगा? यहां कौन रहता होगा? हमें यह काम करना चाहिए। मुझे यह घड़ी नहीं बेचनी चाहिए। हमें उससे कहां मिलना चाहिए? बच्चों को यहां क्यों ठहरना चाहिए?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

आप चाय नहीं पीते होंगे। आप चाय नहीं पी सकते हैं। आप चाय नहीं पी सके। आपको चाय नहीं पीनी चाहिए। वह तुमसे बात नहीं कर सकती है। वह तुमसे बात नहीं कर सकी। वह तुमसे बात नहीं करती होगी। आप उसे पसंद करते होंगे। वह कॉफी नहीं पीता होगा। उसे कॉफी नहीं पीनी चाहिए। वह कॉफी नहीं पी सकता है। वह कॉफी नहीं पी सका। हमें यह काम क्यों नहीं करना चाहिए? हम यह काम क्यों नहीं कर सकते हैं? हम यह काम क्यों नहीं कर सके? मैं उसे कुछ नहीं बता सका। हमें उससे कहां मिलना चाहिए? मुझे यह काम कैसे करना चाहिए? वह यहां नहीं ठहर सकती है।

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Have to

पहचानः– ना है, नी है, ने हैं, पड़ता है, पड़ती है, पड़ते हैं

Rule : Sub + have to / has to + v1 + obj

Note- I, we, you, they, plural noun = have to
he, she, it, name, singular noun = has to

Affirmative

तुम्हें चाय पीनी है / तुम्हें चाय पीनी पड़ती है।	You have to drink tea.
उसे क्रिकेट खेलना है।	He has to play cricket.
मुझे उससे बात करनी है।	I have to talk to him.
हमें उससे आज मिलना है।	We have to meet him today.

Negative

हमें यह काम नहीं करना है।	We have not to do this work.
शिक्षक को फ्रेंच नहीं पढ़ानी है।	The teacher has not to teach French.
बच्चों को आज स्कूल नहीं जाना है।	The children have not to go to school today.
आपको उससे बात नहीं करनी है।	You have not to talk to him.

Interrogative

क्या उसे मुझसे बात करनी है?	Has he to talk to me?
क्या आपको उससे नहीं मिलना है?	Have you not to meet him?
हमें वहां कब पहुंचना है?	When have we to reach there?
बच्चों को फ्रेंच क्यों सीखनी है?	Why have the children to learn French?

Exercise

क्या तुम्हें यह फिल्म देखनी है? उसे मुझसे क्या पूछना है? हमें यहां क्यों ठहरना है? क्या बच्चों को फ्रेंच नहीं सीखनी है? उसे अमेरिका में क्यों नहीं रहना है? तुम्हारे भाई को शादी कब करनी है? उन्हें यह शहर आज छोड़ना है। मैं उसे रूपये नहीं दे सका। क्या आप उससे कोई सवाल पूछ सके? बच्चे हॉकी क्यों नहीं खेल सके? मैं यह कलम उसे दे सकता हूं। वह आपका नाम जानती होगी।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

तुम्हें फ्रेंच बोलनी है। तुम फ्रेंच बोलते होगे। तुम्हें फ्रेंच बोलनी चाहिए। तुम फ्रेंच बोल सके। तुम फ्रेंच बोल सकते हो। आपको चाय नहीं पीनी है। आप चाय नहीं पीते होंगे। आप चाय नहीं पी सकते हैं। आप चाय नहीं पी सके। आपको चाय नहीं पीनी चाहिए। उसे तुमसे बात नहीं करनी है। वह तुमसे बात नहीं कर सकती है। वह तुमसे बात नहीं कर सकी। वह तुमसे बात नहीं करती होगी। उसे तुमसे बात नहीं करनी चाहिए।

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Had to

पहचानः– ना था, नी थी, ने थे, पड़ता था, पड़ती थी, पड़ते थे, पड़ा, पड़ी, पड़े

Rule : Sub + had to + v1 + obj

Affirmative

हमें कॉफी पीनी थी।	
हमें कॉफी पीनी पड़ती थी।	
हमें कॉफी पीनी पड़ी।	We had to drink coffee.
उसे आज यहां आना था।	He had to come here today.
मुझे यह काम पूरा करना था।	I had to complete this work.
हमें उससे आज मिलना था।	We had to meet him today.

Negative

उसे स्कूल नहीं जाना था।	He had not to go to school.
हमें उससे बात नहीं करनी थी।	We had not to talk to him.
उन्हें यह घड़ी नहीं खरीदनी थी।	They had not to buy this watch.
शिक्षक को फ्रेंच नहीं पढ़ानी थी।	The teacher had not to teach French.

Interrogative

क्या आपको मुझसे कल मिलना था?	Had you to meet me yesterday?
हमें वहां कैसे पहुंचना था?	How had we to reach there?
तुम्हें उससे कब शादी करनी थी?	When had you to marry him?
उसे मुझसे बात क्यों करनी थी?	Why had he to talk to me?

Exercise

मुझे उससे एक सवाल पूछना था। उसे अभी यहां आना था। मुझे डॉक्टर बनना था। हमें इन सवालों का जवाब देना था। क्या आपको उसके साथ कॉफी पीनी थी? पुलिस को उसे गिरफतार क्यों करना था? क्या मुझे उसकी मदद करनी थी? क्या आपको उससे बात करनी थी? हमें यह किताब पढ़नी थी। उसे यहां कब पहुंचना था?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

उसे यह काम कैसे करना था? उसे यह काम कैसे करना है? वह यह काम कैसे करता होगा? उसे यह काम कैसे करना चाहिए? वह यह काम कैसे कर सका? वह यह काम कैसे कर सकता है? आपको उससे मिलना था। आपको उससे मिलना है। आप उससे मिलते होगे। आपको उससे मिलना चाहिए। आप उससे मिल सके। आप उससे मिल सकते हैं। तुम उसका दिल जीत सकते हो।

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Used to

पहचानः– आ करता था, आ करती थी, आ करते थे

Rule : Sub + used to + v1 + obj

Affirmative

हम उससे बात किया करते थे।	We used to talk to him.
वह पत्र लिखा करती थी।	She used to write letters.
मैं अमेरिका जाया करता था।	I used to go to America.
तुम उससे मिला करते थे।	You used to meet him.

Negative

वह कॉफी नहीं पीया करती थी।	She used not to drink coffee.
बच्चे फुटबॉल नहीं खेला करते थे।	The children used not to play football.
वे इंगलिश नहीं बोला करते थे।	They used not to speak English.
तुम उससे नहीं मिला करते थे।	You used not to meet him.

Interrogative

क्या आप उससे मिला करते थे?	Used you to meet him?
वह फ्रेंच कैसे सीखा करती थी?	How used she to learn French?
आप उसे मदद क्यों नहीं किया करते थे?	Why used you not to help him?
नितिन कहां जाया करता था?	Where Nitin used to go?

Alert

वह खेला करता था।	He used to play.
उसे खेलना था।	He had to play
उसे खेलना पड़ा।	He had to play.
वह खेलता होगा।	He would play.

Exercise

हम उसे रूपये दिया करते थे। तुम उसे क्यों डांटा करते थे? वह मुझसे रोज मिला करती थी। आप वहां कैसे रहा करते थे? कविता नितिन को सलाह दिया करती थी। मैं उसे रोज स्कूल भेजा करता था। इराक कुवैत से क्यों लड़ा करता था? क्या बच्चे रोज स्कूल जाया करते थे? आप शिक्षक से बात क्यों नहीं किया करते थे?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

क्या वह इंगलिश बोला करता था?क्या उसे इंगलिश बोलनी थी?क्या उसे इंगलिश बोलनी है?क्या वह इंगलिश बोलता होगा?क्या उसे इंगलिश बोलनी चाहिए?क्या वह इंगलिश बोल सका?क्या वह इंगलिश बोल सकता है?वह बुरे काम किया करता था। मैं उसे रूपये नहीं दे सका। उसे मुझसे बात नहीं करनी थी। वह मुझसे क्यों मिला करती थी? हमें अब क्या करना है?

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Need to

पहचानः– जरूरत है, आवश्यक्ता है

Rule : Sub + need to + v1 + obj

Affirmative

मुझे यह काम आज करने की जरूरत है।	I need to do this work today.
हमें आपसे बात करने की जरूरत है।	We need to talk to you.
उसे अभी यहां आने की जरूरत है।	He need to come here now.

Negative

हमें यह काम करने की जरूरत नहीं है।	We need not to do this work.
उसे इंगलिश सीखने की जरूरत नहीं है।	He need not to learn English.
बच्चों को यह फिल्म देखनेकी जरूरत नहीं है।	The children need not to see this film.

Interrogative

क्या आपको दवाई लेने की जरूरत है?	Do you need to take medicine?
क्या उसे यह काम करने की जरूरत है?	Does he need to do this work?
हमें वहां कब पहुंचने की जरूरत है?	When do we need to reach there?

Alert

मुझे यह काम करने की जरूरत है।	I need to do this work.
मुझे यह काम करना है।	I have to do this work.
मुझे यह काम करन । चाहिए।	I should do this work.

Exercise

उसे फ्रेंच सीखने की जरूरत है। मुझे उसका नाम पुछना था। आप उससे आज क्यों नहीं मिल सके? हमें वहां कब पहुंचना चाहिए? आप उसे मदद नहीं करते होंगे। पुलिस उससे यह सवाल पूछ सकती है। भारत को इस मैच के लिए क्या करना चाहिए? वह यह काम कैसे कर सका? वह यह काम कैसे कर सकता है? आपको उससे मिलना था। आपको उससे मिलना है।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

उसे यह काम आज क्यों करना था? वह आपके सवालों का जवाब नहीं देती होगी। कविता नितिन से क्या पूछा करती थी? बच्चों को क्रिकेट नहीं खेलना है। उसे यह काम कैसे करना है? मैं उससे नहीं मिल सका। तुम उसका दिल कैसे जीत सकते हो? क्या आपको गायक बनना है? तुम्हें यह काम आज करना चाहिए। हमें अब क्या करना चाहिए? क्या मुझे यह घड़ी बेचनी चाहिए?

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Must

पहचानः– अवश्य, जरूर

Rule : Sub + must + v1 + obj

Affirmative

उसे यह काम अवश्य करना चाहिए।	He must do this work.
हमें उससे अवश्य मिलना चाहिए।	We must meet him.
लोगोंको अपने देशसे प्रेम अवश्य करना चाहिए।	The people must love their country.

Negative

तुम्हें घमंडी अवश्य नहीं होना चाहिए।	You must not be proud.
छात्र को यहां अवश्य नहीं आना चाहिए।	The student must not come here.
आपको उसे माफ अवश्य नहीं करना चाहिए।	You must not forgive him.

Interrogative

क्या उसे इंगलिश अवश्य बोलनी चाहिए?	Must he speak English?
क्या मुझे उसके बारे में अवश्य जानना चाहिए?	Must I know about him?
क्या गरीबों को कड़ी मेहनत अवश्य करनी चाहिए?	Must the poor work hard?

Alert

तुम्हें पैसे अवश्य कमाने चाहिए।	You must earn money.
तुम्हें पैसे कमाने चाहिए।	You should earn money.
तुम्हें पैसे कमाने हैं।	You have to earn money.

Exercise

उसे दोस्तों से अवश्य मिलना चाहिए। हमें गरीबों से नफरत अवश्य नहीं करनी चाहिए। आप उसे फ्रेंच क्यों नहीं पढ़ा सके? क्या तुम्हारा भाई अमेरिका में रह सकता है? मैं यह काम कैसे कर सकता हूं? वह झूठ नहीं बोल सकी। हमें उनसे क्या पूछना चाहिए? रवि फिल्म नहीं देख सका। कविता गीत नहीं गा सकी। आपका भाई उसे जानता होगा। बच्चे वहं कैसे जाया करते थे?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

पुलिस वहां समय पर नहीं पहुंच सकी। आपको माफी मांगनी चाहिए। तुम उससे शादी नहीं कर सकते हो। आप वहां कब पहुंच सकते हैं? वह मुझे कुछ क्यों नहीं बता सकी? तुम्हें उसको नहीं भूलना चाहिए। क्या तुम्हें उससे रूपये अवश्य लेना चाहिए? क्या हमें गरीबों से नफरत करनी चाहिए? आप उसे फ्रेंच क्यों नहीं पढ़ा सके? क्या तुम्हारा भाई यहां क्यों नहीं रह सकता है? मैं उसे कैसे बुला सकता हूं?

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May

पहचानः– सकता है, (संभावना)

Rule : Sub + may + v1 + obj

Affirmative

आज बारिश हो सकती है।	It may rain today.
वे यहां पहुंच सकते हैं।	They may reach here.
इस जगह आग लग सकती है।	This place may catch fire.

Negative

वह बाहर नहीं जा सकती है।	She may not go out.
ऑफिसर छुट्टी नहीं ले सकते हैं।	The officers may not take leaves.
यह घड़ी नहीं चल सकती है।	This watch may not work.

Interrogative

क्या लोग मुझसे यह सवाल पूछ सकते हैं?	May the people ask me this question?
आज बारिश क्यों नहीं हो सकती है?	Why may it not rain today?
तुम्हें आज देरी क्यों हो सकती है?	Why may you get late today?

Alert

वह परीक्षा पास कर सकती है। (संभावना)	She may pass the exam.
शायद वह परीक्षा पासकर सकतीहै। (बहुत कम संभावना)	She might pass the exam.
वह परीक्षा पास कर सकती है। (क्षमता)	She can pass the exam.

Exercise

वह आपको सच बता सकती है। नितिन कविता से झूठ बोल सकता है। आपको उससे कुछ पूछना चाहिए। तुम वहां समय पर पहुंचते होगे। वह मुझे क्यों नहीं समझ सकी? उसे अब सब कुछ भूल जाना चाहिए। पुलिस उसे गिरफतार नहीं कर सकी। हमें अब कहां जाना चाहिए? क्या उसे मुझसे बात करनी है? वह आपका नाम नहीं जानती होगी।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

तुम कॉफी पी सकते हो (क्षमता)। तुम कॉफी पी सके। तुम्हें कॉफी पीना चाहिए। तुम कॉफी पीते होगे। तुम्हें कॉफी पीनी है। तुम्हें कॉफी पीनी थी। तुम कॉफी पीया करते थे। तुम्हें कॉफी अवश्य पीनी चाहिए। कविता को तुमसे कब मिलना है? बच्चे वहां क्यूं नहीं जा सकते हैं? मुझे उसे मदद करनी चाहिए। क्या आप उसे नहीं पढ़ाया करते थे? वह अब क्या कर सकता है?

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TENSE

Present Indefinite

पहचानः– ता है, ती है, ते हैं, ता हूं

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + v1/v5 + obj

Note: I, we, you, they, plural noun = v1

He, she, it, name, singular noun = v5

मैं क्रिकेट खेलता हूं।	I play cricket.
वह क्रिकेट खेलता है।	He plays cricket.
हम स्कूल जाते हैं।	We go to school.
कविता गीत गाती है।	Kavita sings songs.

Negative

Rule : Sub + do/does + not + v1 + obj

तुम स्कूल नहीं जाते हो।	You do not go to school.
वह स्कूल नहीं जाती है।	She does not go to school.
मैं कार नहीं चलाता हूं।	I do not drive a car.
हम फिल्में नहीं देखते हैं।	We do not see films.

Interrogative

Rule : Do/does + sub + v1 + obj

क्या वे इंगलिश बोलते हैं?	Do they speak English?
क्या तुम स्कूल जाते हो?	Do you go to school?
क्या कविता गीत गाती है?	Does Kavita sing songs?
क्या आप उसे पसंद नहीं करते हैं?	Do you not like him?

Double Interrogative

आप इंगलिश कैसे सीखते हैं?	How do you learn English?
वह हॉकी कब खेलती है?	When does she play hockey?
तुम वहां क्या करते हो?	What do you do there?
वे कहां रहते हैं?	Where do they live?
आप फ्रेंच क्यों बोलते हैं?	Why do you speak French?
यहां क्रिकेट कौन खेलता है?	Who plays cricket here?
यह काम कौन करता है?	Who does this work?

Exercise

मैं पत्र लिखता हूं। आप उसे नहीं जानते हैं। क्या वह यहां आती है? क्या तुम वहां नहीं जाते हो? आप उससे बात क्यों करते हैं? कविता तुमसे कब मिलती है? बच्चे वहां कैसे जाते हैं? मैं उसे मदद करता हूं। क्या आप उसे नहीं पढ़ाते हैं? वह यहां क्या करता है? तुम उसका नाम कैसे जानते हो? आप इंगलिश क्यों नहीं बोलते हैं? वह तुमसे कहां मिलती है? वह मुझे क्यों बुलाता है?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Note :- the किसी निश्चित वस्तु के लिए, जैसे the book = कोई निश्चित किताब;

a किसी अनिश्चित वस्तु के लिए, जैसे a book = कोई किताब;

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Present Continuous
पहचानः– रहा है, रही है, रहे हैं, रहा हूं

Affirmative
Rule : Sub + is/am/are + v4 + obj

Note: I = am
We, you, they, plural noun = are
He, she, it, name, singular noun = is

वह पत्र लिख रही है।	She is writing a letter.
हम वहां जा रहे हैं।	We are going there.
मैं क्रिकेट खेल रहा हूं।	I am playing cricket.

Negative
Rule : Sub + is/am/are + not + v4 + obj

वे फिल्म नहीं देख रहे हैं।	They are not seeing a film.
शिक्षक फ्रेंच नहीं पढ़ा रहे हैं।	The teacher is not teaching French.
वह यहां नहीं आ रहा है।	He is not coming here.

Interrogative
Rule : Is/am/are + sub + v4 + obj

क्या तुम उसे बुला रहे हो?	Are you calling him?
क्या वे इंगलिश बोल रहे हैं?	Are they speaking English?
तुम वहां कैसे जा रहे हो?	How are you going there?

Double Interrogative

तुम वहां क्या कर रहे हो?	What are you doing there?
वे कहां रह रहे हैं?	Where are they living?
आप फ्रेंच क्यों बोल रहे हैं?	Why are you speaking French?
यहां क्रिकेट कौन खेल रहा है?	Who is playing cricket here?
यह काम कौन कर रहा है?	Who is doing this work?

Exercise
वह चाय पीती है। वह चाय पी रही है। आप यह काम क्यों करते हैं? आप यह काम क्यों कर रहे हैं? वह मुझे क्यों बुलाता है? वह मुझे क्यों बुला रहा है? क्या तुम वहां नहीं जाते हो? क्या तुम वहां नहीं जा रहे हो? आप उससे बात क्यों करते हैं? आप उससे बात क्यों कर रहे हैं? वह तुमसे क्या पूछती है? वह तुमसे क्या पूछ रही है?

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Present Perfect
पहचानः– चुका है, चुकी है, चुके हैं, लिया है,

Affirmative
Rule : Sub + have/has + v3 + obj

Note: I, we, you, they, plural noun = have
He, she, it, name, singular noun = has

हम उसे रूपये दे चुके हैं।	We have given him money.
वह किताब खरीद चुका है।	He has bought a book.
भारत मैच जीत चुका है।	India has won the match.
वह पत्र लिख चुकी है।	She has written a letter.

Interrogative
Rule : Have/has + Sub + v3 + obj

क्या वे फिल्म देख चुके हैं?	Have they seen the film?
क्या शिक्षक फ्रेंच पढ़ा चुके हैं?	Has the teacher taught French?
क्या वह यहां आ चुकी है?	Has she come here?
क्या कविता गीत गा चुकी है?	Has Kavita sung a song?

Double Interrogative

वह कहां पहुंच चुका है?	Where has he reached?
आप उसे क्या बता चुके है?	What have you told him?
तुम उसे कहां भेज चुके हो?	Where have you sent him?

Exercise
बच्चे स्कूल जा चुके हैं। क्या आप उससे बात कर चुके हैं? क्या कविता तुमसे मिल चुकी है? पुलिस उसे गिरफतार कर चुकी है। क्या आप उसे पढ़ा चुके हैं? क्या वह आपसे बात कर चुकी है? क्या तुम वहां पहुंच चुके हो? हम उससे बात कर चुके हैं। क्या वह तुमसे सवाल पूछ चुकी है? क्या आप उसे किताब दे चुके हैं?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
वह क्रिकेट खेलता है। वह क्रिकेट खेल रहा है। वह क्रिकेट खेल चुका है। क्या आप उससे बात करते हैं? क्या आप उससे बात कर रहे हैं? क्या आप उससे बात कर चके हैं? वह यहां नहीं आता है। क्या वह चाय नहीं पी रही है? आप यह काम कब कर रहे हैं? तुम उसे कैसे जानते हो? क्या वह क्रिकेट खेल चुकी है? क्या वह मुझे बुला रहा है? आप उससे क्या पूछ रहे हैं? वे अमेरिका क्यों नहीं जाते हैं?

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Present Perfect Continuous
पहचानः– ता आ रहा है, ती आ रही है, ते आ रहे हैं

Affirmative
Rule : Sub + have/has + been + v4 + obj

Note: since = (निश्चित समय) से
since Monday = सोमवार से, since 1947 = 1947 से

for = (अनिश्चित समय) से
for two hours = दो घंटे से, for three years = तीन सालों से

वह एक घंटे से पत्र लिखती आ रही है।
She has been writing a letter for an hour
वे दस मिनट से फिल्म देखते आ रहे हैं।
They have been seeing a film for ten minutes.
मैं उससे सोमवार से मिलता आ रहा हूं।
I have been meeting him since Monday.
वे दो दिन से मैच खेलते आ रहे हैं।
They have been playing a match for two days.

Interrogative
Rule : Have/has + sub + been + v4 + obj

क्या शिक्षक दस मिनट से फ्रेंच पढ़ाते आ रहे हैं?
Has the teacher been teaching French for ten minutes?
क्या वह तुमसे घंटों से बातें करती आ रही है?
Has she been talking to you for hours?
क्या आप सुबह से कॉफी पीते आ रहे हैं?
Have you been drinking coffee since morning?
हम आधे घंटे से कहां जाते जा रहे हैं?
Where have we been going for half an hour?

Exercise
क्या आप फ्रेंच पढ़ाते हैं? क्या आप फ्रेंच पढ़ा रहे हैं? क्या आप फ्रेंच पढ़ा चुके हैं? क्या आप फ्रेंच पढ़ाते आ रहे हैं? मैं दस मिनट से पत्र लिखता आ रहा हूं। मैं पत्र लिख चुका हूं। मैं पत्र लिख रहा हूं। मैं पत्र लिखता हूं। क्या आप किताबें खरीदते हैं? क्या आप किताबें खरीद रहे हैं? क्या आप किताबें खरीद चुके हैं? क्या आप किताबें खरीदते आ रहे हैं?

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Past Indefinite

पहचानः– आ, ई, ए, ता था, ती थी, ते थे

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + v2 + obj

उसने फिल्म देखी / वह फिल्म देखता था ।	He saw a film.
मैंने उसे बुलाया।	I called him.
हम वहां गये।	We went there.
उसने मुझे मदद की।	He helped me.

Negative

Rule : Sub + did + not + v1 + obj

आपने उसे नहीं पढ़ाया।	You did not teach him.
पुलिस ने उसे गिरफतार नहीं किया।	The police did not arrest him.
तुम स्कूल नहीं गये।	You did not go to school.
मैंने कार नहीं चलाई।	I did not drive the car.

Interrogative

Rule : Did + sub + v1 + obj

क्या कविता ने गीत गाया?	Did Kavita sing a song?
क्या नितिन ने हॉकी खेला?	Did Nitin play hockey?
क्या उसने आपको बाजार में देखा?	Did he see you in the market?
क्या आपने उनसे बात नहीं की?	Did you not talk to them?

Double Interrogative

आपने इंगलिश कैसे सीखी?	How did you learn English?
उसने हॉकी कब खेला?	When did he play hockey?
तुमने वहां क्या किया?	What did you do there?
वे कहां रहते थे?	Where did they live?
आप फ्रेंच क्यों नहीं बोलते थे?	Why did you not speak French?
यहां क्रिकेट किसने खेला?	Who played cricket here?

Exercise

मैंने पत्र लिखा। वह यहां नहीं आयी। क्या तुम वहां नहीं गये? आपने उससे बात क्यों नहीं की? कविता मुझसे नहीं मिली। बच्चे वहां कैसे गये? मैं उसे नहीं जानता था। आप इंगलिश बोलते हैं। आप इंगलिश बोल रहे हैं। आप इंगलिश बोल चुके हैं। आपने इंगलिश बोली।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

आप उससे क्या पूछते हैं? आप उससे क्या पूछ रहे हैं? आप उससे क्या पूछ चुके हैं? आप उससे क्या पूछते आ रहे हैं? आपने उससे क्या पूछा? उसने आपको क्या कहा? क्या आप उसका नाम जानते हैं? मैं उसे रूपये दे रहा हूं। भारत ने यह मैच नहीं जीता। पुलिस चोर को पीट रही है। क्या आपने उससे शादी की? उसने मेरे सवाल का जवाब नहीं दिया। तुम उसका नाम कैसे जानते थे? वह तुमसे कहां मिली? हमने उससे कोई सवाल नहीं पूछा।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

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Past Continuous
पहचानः– रहा था, रही थी, रहे थे

Affirmative
Rule : Sub + was/were + v4 + obj

Note: I,he, she, it, name, singular noun = was
We, you, they, plural noun = were

हम वहां जा रहे थे।	We were going there.
वह पत्र लिख रही थी।	She was writing a letter.
शिक्षक फ्रेंच पढ़ा रहे थे।	The teacher was teaching French.

Negative
Rule : Sub + was/were + not + v4 + obj

वह यहां नहीं आ रहा था।	He was not coming here.
मैं उसे नहीं बुला रहा था।	I was not calling him.
वे फिल्म नहीं देख रहे थे।	They were not seeing the film.

Interrogative
Rule : Was/were +sub + v4 + obj

क्या वे इंगलिश बोल रहे थे?	Were they speaking English?
क्या नितिन कॉफी पी रहा था?	Was Nitin drinking coffee?
आप कल कहां जा रहे थे?	Where were you going yesterday?

Exercise
आप उससे बात कर रहे थे। आपने उससे बात की। आप उससे दो घंटे से बात करते आ रहे थे। आप उससे बात कर चुके हैं। आप उससे बात कर रहे हैं। आप उससे बात करते हैं। आप उससे बात कर सकते हैं। आप उससे बात कर सके। आपको उससे बात करनी चाहिए। आप उससे बात करते होंगे। आपको उससे बात करनी है। आपको उससे बात करनी थी। आप उससे बात किया करते थे।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
हम उससे नहीं मिले? क्या वह आपको कुछ पूछ रही थी? हम वहां क्यो नहीं जा रहे हैं? क्या आप उसका नाम जानते थे? शिक्षक इंगलिश पढ़ा चुके हैं। मैं उसे धोखा नहीं दे रहा हूं। वह तुम्हें प्यार क्यों नहीं करती है? बच्चों ने गीत कब गाया? क्या पुलिस चोर को पीट रही थी? वह यहां कैसे आ रही थी?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

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Past Perfect
पहचानः– चुका था, चुकी थी, चुके थे, लिया था, गया था
Affirmative
Rule : Sub + had + v3 + obj

वह किताब खरीद चुका था।	He had bought the book.
हम उसे रूपये दे चुके थे।	We had given him money.
भारत मैच जीत चुका था।	India had won the match.
हम उससे मिल चुके थे।	We had met him.

Negative
Rule : Sub + had + not + v3 + obj

वह मुझे रूपये नहीं दे चुका था।	He had not given me money.
आप किताब नहीं खरीद चुके थे।	You had not bought the book.
शिक्षक फ्रेंच नहीं पढ़ा चुके थे।	The teacher had not taught French.
वे फिल्म नहीं देख चुके थे।	They had not seen the film.

Interrogative
Rule : Had + sub + v3 + obj

क्या वह गीत गा चुकी थी?	Had she sung the song?
क्या तुम पत्र लिख चुके थे?	Had you written the letter?
क्या बच्चे हॉकी खेल चुके थे?	Had the children played hockey?
क्या वह यहां आ चुकी थी?	Had she come here?
क्या आप उन्हें स्कूल भेज चुके थे?	Had you sent them to school?

Exercise
क्या वह फिल्में देखता है? क्या वह फिल्में देख रहा है? क्या वह फिल्में देख चुका है? क्या वह सुबह से फिल्में देखता आ रहा है? क्या उसने फिल्में देखी? क्या वह फिल्में देख रहा था? क्या वह फिल्में देख चुका था?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

मैं उसे मदद कर चुका था। हम घर पहुंच चुके थे। उसने तुम्हें क्यों डांटा? वह ग्राउंड में क्यों दौड़ रहा है? क्या तुम उससे रूपये लेते हो? तुमने वहां क्या सुना? आप उसे गाली क्यों दे रहे थे? हमने उसे कुछ नहीं बताया। मैं सब कुछ समझ चुका था।

For word meaning see last page of the book.
Note :- English में Past Perfect negative sentence का प्रयोग होता है जबकि हिन्दी में नहीं।

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Past Perfect Continuous

पहचानः– ता आ रहा था, ती आ रही थी, ते आ रहे थे

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + had been + v4 + obj

वह एक घंटे से पत्र लिखती आ रही थी।

She had been writing a letter for an hour.

वे दस मिनट से फिल्म देखते आ रहे थे।

They had been seeing a film for ten minutes.

मैं उससे सोमवार से मिलता आ रहा था।

I had been meeting him since Monday.

वे दो दिनों से मैच खेलते आ रहे थे।

They had been playing the match for two days.

शिक्षक दस मिनट से फ्रेंच पढ़ाते आ रहे थे।

The teacher had been teaching French for ten minutes.

Interrogative

Rule : Had + sub + been + v4 + obj

क्या वह तुमसे घंटों से बातें करती आ रही थी?

Had she been talking to you for hours?

क्या आप सुबह से कॉफी पीते आ रहे थे?

Had you been drinking coffee since morning?

क्या वे दस मिनट से पत्र लिखते आ रहे थे?

Had they been writing a letter for ten minutes?

क्या आप दो साल से इंगलिश सीखते आ रहे थे?

Had you been learning English for two years?

क्या वह घंटों से तुम्हारे सवाल का जवाब देती आ रही थी?

Had she been answering your questions for hours?

Exercise

वह दो सालों से आपको मदद करता आ रहा था। वह आपको मदद कर चुका था। वह आपको मदद कर रहा था। उसने आपकी मदद की। वह दो सालों से आपको मदद करता आ रहा है। वह आपको मदद कर चुका है। वह आपको मदद कर रहा है। वह आपको मदद करता है। तुम पत्र क्यों लिख रहे हो? क्या कविता तुमसे नहीं मिलती है? वह यह काम क्यों कर रहा था? शिक्षक तुमसे क्या पूछ रहे थे?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

क्या तुम जानते हो वह तुमसे क्यों मिलती आ रही थी? उसने क्या देखा जब वह बाजार गया। क्या आप देख रहे हैं बच्चे क्लास में क्या कर रहे हैं? आप पढ़ रहे थे लेकिन वह खेल रहा था। मैंने आपसे सवाल पूछा लेकिन आपने जवाब नहीं दिया। तुम क्या कर रहे हो अगर वह कार चला रही है? मैंने उसे रूपये दिये लेकिन उसने किताब नहीं खरीदी। वह क्या करती है जब वह फ्रांस में रहती है? पुलिस उसे पीट रही है और वह रो रहा है। भगवान उसे मदद करता है जो (who) दूसरों को मदद करते हैं।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

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Future Indefinite
पहचानः– गा, गे, गी

Affirmative
Rule : Sub + will + v1 + obj

मैं उसे रूपये दूंगा।	I will give him money.
वह किताब खरीदेगा।	He will buy a book.
तुम उससे आज मिलोगे।	You will meet him today.
वह तुमसे शादी करेगी।	She will marry you.

Negative
Rule : Sub + will + not + v1 + obj

हम उसे नहीं पढ़ायेंगे।	We will not teach him.
वह तुमसे बात नहीं करेगी।	She will not talk to you.
बच्चे क्रिकेट नहीं खेलेंगे।	The children will not play cricket.
हम फ्रांस नहीं जायेंगे।	We will not go to France.

Interrogative
Rule : Will + sub + v1 + obj

क्या भारत यह मैच जीतेगा?	Will India win this match?
क्या पुलिस उसे गिरफतार नहीं करेगी?	Will the police not arrest him?
नितिन कॉफी कब पीयेगा?	When will Nitin drink coffee?
आप कल कहां जायेंगे?	Where will you go tomorrow?

Exercise
क्या आप यह काम करते हैं? क्या आप यह काम कर रहे हैं? क्या आप यह काम कर चुके हैं? क्या आप यह काम करते आ रहे हैं? क्या आपने यह काम किया? क्या आप यह काम कर रहे थे? क्या आप यह काम कर चुके थे? क्या आप यह काम करते आ रहे थे? क्या आप यह काम करेंगे?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
मैं उससे यह सवाल पूछूंगा अगर वह मुझसे मिलता है। आप उसे क्या बतायेंगे जब आप उससे रूपये लेंगे? मैं नहीं जानता हूं वह कल क्या करेगा। वह मुझे पसंद करती है लेकिन मैं उसे पसंद नहीं करता हूं। उसने फ्रेंच सीखा जब वह फ्रांस में रहता था। आप उसे कैसे बतायेंगे कि आप उसे प्यार करते हैं? क्या तुमने उससे पूछा उसने मुझे रूपये क्यों दिये?

For word meaning see last page of the book.
Note- आजकल shall का प्रयोग नहीं होता है।

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Future Continuous
पहचानः– ता रहेगा, ती रहेगी, ते रहेंगे
Affirmative
Rule : Sub + will be + v4 + obj

वह कॉफी पीता रहेगा।	He will be drinking coffee.
तुम कार चलाते रहोगे।	You will be driving the car.
बच्चे गीत गाते रहेंगे।	The children will be singing songs.
हम फिल्में देखते रहेंगे।	We will be seeing films.

Negative
Rule : Sub + will + not + be + v4 + obj

बच्चे गीत नहीं गाते रहेंगे।	The children will not be singing songs.
नितिन कॉफी नहीं पीता रहेगा।	Nitin will not be drinking coffee.
हम फिल्में नहीं देखते रहेंगे।	We will not be seeing films.
वह कार नहीं चलाती रहेगी।	She will not be driving the car.

Interrogative
Rule : Will + sub + be + v4 + obj

क्या भारत मैच खेलता रहेगा?	Will India be playing match?
क्या पुलिस चोर को पीटती रहेगी?	Will the police be beating the thief?
क्या आप उसे पढ़ाते रहेंगे?	Will you be teaching him?
क्या हम हर महीने फ्रांस जाते रहेंगे?	Will we be going to France every month?
हम यह काम क्यों नहीं करते रहेंगे?	Why will we not be doing this work?

Exercise
शिक्षक उसे पढ़ाते हैं। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ा रहे हैं। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ा चुके हैं। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ाते आ रहे हैं। शिक्षक ने उसे पढ़ाया। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ा रहे थे। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ा चुके थे। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ाते आ रहे थे। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ायेंगे। शिक्षक उसे पढ़ाते रहेंगे।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
उसने आप पर भरोसा किया लेकिन आपने उसे धोका दिया। मैं जानता हूं आप मुझसे क्या चाहते हैं। तुम उससे शादी क्यों नहीं करते हो अगर तुम उसे प्यार करते हो? वह मुझे नहीं बतायेगा वह कहां रहता है। वह परीक्षा पास कैसे करेगा अगर आप उसे नहीं पढ़ाते हैं? क्या उसने तुम्हें बताया मैंने उसे क्या दिया?

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Future Perfect
पहचानः– चुकेगा, चुकेगी, चुकेंगे
Affirmative
Rule : Sub + will have + v3 + obj

वह किताबें खरीद चुकेगा।	He will have bought the books.
हम मैच जीत चुकेंगे।	We will have won the match.
शिक्षक फ्रेंच पढ़ा चुकेंगे।	The teacher will have taught French.
वह तुमसे मिल चुकेगी।	She will have met you.

Negative
Rule : Sub + will + not + have + v3 + obj

हम उसे रूपये नहीं दे चुकेंगे।	We will not have given him money.
वह तुमसे नहीं मिल चुकेगी।	She will not have met you.
कविता गीत नहीं गा चुकेगी।	Kavita will not have sung the song.
नितिन हॉकी नहीं खेल चुकेगा।	Nitin will not have played hockey.

Interrogative
Rule : Will + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या आप उसे पढ़ा चुकेंगे?	Will you have taught him?
क्या बच्चे हॉकी खेल चुकेंगे?	Will the children have played hockey?
क्या पुलिस उसे गिरफतार करचुकेगी?	Will the police have arrested him?
क्या हम यह फिल्म देख चुकेंगे?	Will we have seen this film?

Exercise
आप उसे पढ़ा चुके हैं। आप उसे पढ़ा चुके थे। आप उसे पढ़ा चुकेंगे। क्या वह आपसे मिल चुकी है? क्या वह आपसे मिल चुकी थी? क्या वह आपसे मिल चुकेगी? मैं उसके सवाल का जवाब दे चुका हूं। मैं उसके सवाल का जवाब दे चुका था। मैं उसके सवाल का जवाब दे चुकूंगा।

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
क्या आप उसे मदद करते हैं? क्या आप उसे मदद कर रहे हैं? क्या आप उसे मदद कर चुके हैं? क्या आपने उसे मदद की? क्या आप उसे मदद कर रहे थे? क्या आप उसे मदद कर चुके थे? क्या आप उसे मदद करेंगे? क्या आप उसे मदद करते रहेंगे? क्या आप उसे मदद कर चुकेंगे? वह मुझे क्यों नहीं बताती है कि वह मुझे पसंद करती है? मैंने पत्र लिखा लेकिन उसने नहीं पढ़ा। मैं उसे डांटता हूं फिर भी वह बुरे काम करता है। वह परीक्षा पास कैसे करेगी अगर वह हमेशा खेलती रहेगी? नितिन जानता है कविता उसे कितना प्यार करती है। तुम क्या कर रहे थे जब वह कार चला रही थी? मैं उसे रूपये देता हूं लेकिन वह किताब नहीं खरीता है।
For word meaning see last page of the book.

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Future Perfect Continuous

पहचानः– ता आ रहा होगा, ती आ रही होगी, ते आ रहे होंगे

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + will have + been + v4 + obj

Note :- से = from

वे दो दिनों से मैच खेलते आ रहे होंगे।

They will have been playing the match from two days.

शिक्षक दस मिनट से फ्रेंच पढ़ाते आ रहे होंगे।

The teacher will have been teaching French from ten minutes.

वह एक घंटे से पत्र लिखती आ रही होगी।

She will have been writing a letter from ten minutes.

बच्चे दस मिनट से फिल्म से देखते आ रहे होंगे।

The children will have been seeing the film from ten minutes.

वह सोमवार से तुमसे मिलती आ रही होगी।

She will have been meeting you from Monday.

Interrogative

Rule : Will + sub + have been + v4 + obj

क्या वह घंटों से तुमसे बात करती आ रही होगी?

Will she have been talking to you from hours?

क्या आप सुबह से कॉफी पीते आ रहे होंगे?

Will you have been drinking coffee from morning?

क्या वे पांच मिनट से यह काम यह काम करते आ रहे होंगे?

Will they have been doing this work from five minutes?

क्या वह अगले साल से हॉकी खेलता आ रहा होगा?

Will he have been playing hockey from next year?

क्या शिक्षक उसे मंगलवार से पढ़ाते आ रहे होंगे?

Will the teacher have been teaching him from Tuesday?

Exercise

मैंने यह किताब नहीं खरीदी। आपने उससे बात क्यों नहीं की? क्या वह तुमसे रोज मिलता है? क्या बच्चे आज फुटबॉल खेलेंगे? हम अमेरिका में क्यों नहीं रहेंगे? वह यहां कब आती है? क्या बच्चे यह फिल्म देख चुके हैं?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise

मैंने नहीं देखा उसने वहां क्या किया। आप उससे क्या पूछते हैं जब आप उससे मिलते हैं? पुलिस ने तुम्हें गिरफतार क्यों किया अगर तुम उससे नहीं लड़े? आप इंगलिश बोलते हैं लेकिन आपका बॉस फ्रेंच बोलता है। तुमने कैसे जाना कि उसने तुम्हें धोका दिया? क्या तुम सुन रहे हो जो मैं तुम्हें बता रहा हूं? (जो=what) मैं देख रहा हूं तुम उसके साथ कहां जा रहे हो।

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Exercise

आप गीत गाते हैं। आप गीत गा रहे हैं। आप गीत गा चुके हैं। आपने गीत गाया। आप गीत गा रहे थे। आप गीत गा चुके थे। आप गीत गायेंगे। आप गीत गाते रहेंगे। आप गीत गा चुकेंगे। मैं उससे बात करता हूं। मैं उससे बात कर रहा हूं। मैं उससे बात कर चुका हूं। मैंने उससे बात की। मैं उससे बात कर रहा था। मैं उससे बात कर चुका था। मैं उससे बात करूंगा। मैं उससे बात करता रहूंगा। मैं उससे बात कर चुकूंगा। आप फ्रेंच क्यों बोल रहे हैं? यहां क्रिकेट कौन खेल रहा है? यह काम कौन कर रहा है? क्या वह गीत गा चुकी थी? क्या तुम पत्र लिख चुके थे? क्या बच्चे हॉकी खेल चुके थे? क्या वह यहां आ चुकी थी? क्या आप उन्हें स्कूल भेज चुके थे? तुम वहां क्या कर रहे हो? यह काम कौन कर रहा था?

For word meaning see last page of the book.

Exercise
translate into Hindi

She does not go to school. We will not give him money. She will not have met you. Did Kavita sing the song? You will meet him today. Did Nitin play hockey? We have given him money. He has bought a book. India has won the match. He will buy a book. Did he see you in the market? We do not see films. She has written a letter. She will marry you. Did you not talk to him? Will you have taught him? I do not drive a car. Will the police have arrested him? Why are you speaking French? Who is playing cricket here? Had she come here? Had you sent them to school? What are you doing there? I will give him money.

Exercise
हम उससे मिल चुके हैं। हम उससे मिल चुके थे। हम उससे मिल चुकेंगे। आप क्या करते हैं? आपने क्या किया? आप क्या करेंगे? वह क्यों खेल रही हैं? वह क्यों खेल रही थी? वह क्यों खेलती रहेगी? आप फ्रेंच क्यों बोल रहे हैं? क्या वह गीत गा चुकी थी? क्या तुम पत्र लिख चुके थे? क्या बच्चे हॉकी खेल चुके थे? क्या वह यहां आ चुकी थी? क्या आप उन्हें स्कूल भेज चुके थे? तुम वहां क्या कर रहे हो? क्या आप उसे मदद करते हैं? वह मुझे पसंद करती है। मैंने पत्र लिखा। उसने नहीं पढ़ा। वह परीक्षा पास कैसे करेगी? कविता उसे प्यार नहीं करती है। मैं उसे रूपये देता हूं।

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ADVANCED MODALS

Will have to

पहचानः– ना होगा/ना पड़ेगा

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + will have to + v1 + obj

मुझे यह काम कल करना होगा/मुझे यह काम कल करना पड़ेगा

I will have to do this work tomorrow.

उसे आज यहां आना होगा।

He will have to come here today.

बच्चों को क्लास में फ्रेंच बोलनी होगी।

The children will have to speak French in class.

Negative

Rule : Sub + will + not + have to + v1 + obj

मुझे उसको रूपये नहीं देने होंगे।

I will not have to give him money.

बच्चों को यह कविता याद नहीं करनी होगी।

The children will not have to memorize this poem.

हमें उससे कुछ नहीं पूछना होगा।

We will not have to ask him anything.

Interrogative

Rule : Will + sub + have to + v1 + obj

क्या उसे मेरे भाई से बात करनी होगी?

Will he have to talk to my brother?

हमें इन सवालों का जवाब क्यों देना होगा?

Why will we have to answer these questions?

मुझे इसके लिए क्या करना होगा?

What will I have to do for this?

Alert:-	क्या तुम जाओगे?	Will you go?
	क्या तुम्हें जाना है?	Have you to go?
	क्या तुम्हें जाना होगा?	Will you have to go?
	क्या तुम जा चुकोगे?	Will you have gone?
	क्या तुम जाना चाहते हो?	Do you want to go?

Exercise

तुम्हें यह किताब खरीदनी होगी। तुम्हें यह किताब खरीदनी थी। तुम्हें यह किताब खरीदनी है। तुम ये किताबें खरीदा करते थे। तुम ये किताबें खरीदते होगे। तुम ये किताबें खरीद सके। तुम्हें ये किताबें खरीदनी चाहिए। वह मेरे साथ नहीं रह सका। हमें अभी घर नहीं जाना है। बच्चे रोज स्कूल क्यों नहीं जाया करते थे? क्या आपको यह बात उसे बतानी थी? हमें यह काम आज पूरा करना होगा। तुम्हें उसको सच बताना होगा। आपको यहां ठहरना होगा।

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Would have to

पहचानः– ना पड़ता होगा

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + would have to + v1 + obj

उसे शराब पीनी पड़ती होगी।

He would have to drink wine.

तुम्हें उसके साथ रहना पड़ता होगा।

You would have to live with him.

बच्चों को सुबह जल्दी उठना पड़ता होगा।

The children would have to get up early in the morning.

Negative

Rule : Sub + would + not + have to + v1 + obj

उसे किताबें नहीं खरीदनी पड़ती होगी।

He would not have to buy books.

आपको उसे सलाह नहीं देनी पड़ती होगी।

You would not have to advise him.

शिक्षक को कहानियां नहीं सुनानी पड़ती होगी।

The teacher would not have to narrate the stories.

Interrogative

Rule : Would+ sub + have to + v1 + obj

क्या उसे अपने भाई से रोज मिलना पड़ता होगा?

Would he have to meet his brothers daily?

क्या उन्हें स्पेनिश बोलना पड़ता होगा?

Would they have to speak Spanish?

क्या लोगों को वहां मछलियां खानी पड़ती होगी?

Would the people have to eat fish there?

Alert:-	वह खेलेगा।	He will play.
	वह खेलता होगा।	He would play.
	उसे खेलना होगा।	He will have to play.
	उसे खेलना पड़ता होगा।	He would have to play.

Exercise

उसे कॉफी पीनी पड़ती होगी। उसे कॉफी पीनी पड़ेगी। उसे कॉफी पीनी है। उसे कॉफी पीनी थी। वह कॉफी पीता होगा। उसे कॉफी पीनी चाहिए। वह कॉफी पीया करता था। वह कॉफी पीता है। वह कॉफी पी रहा है। वह कॉफी पी चुका है। उसने कॉफी पी। वह कॉफी पी रहा था। वह कॉफी पी चुका था। वह कॉफी पीयेगा। वह कॉफी पीता रहेगा। वह कॉफी पी चुकेगा।

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May have to

पहचानः– ना पड़ सकता है

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + may have to + v1 + obj

उन्हें यह शहर छोड़ना पड़ सकता है।

They may have to leave this city.

हमें उसको कुछ रूपये देना पड़ सकता है।

We may have to give him money.

आपको डॉक्टर के पास जाना पड़ सकता है।

You may have to go to the doctor.

Negative

Rule : Sub + may + not + have to + v1 + obj

उसे कार नहीं खरीदनी पड़ सकती है।

He may not have to buy a car.

आपको यह काम नहीं करना पड़ सकता है।

You may not have to do this work.

हमें दवाई नहीं लेनी पड़ सकती है।

We may not have to take the medicine.

Interrogative

Rule : May + sub + have to + v1 + obj

क्या आतंकियों को पाकिस्तान से बाहर जाना पड़ सकता है?

May the terrorists have to go out of Pakistan?

क्या पुलिस को उसे गिरफतार करना पड़ सकता है?

May the police have to arrest him?

क्या उसे यह कविता याद करनी पड़ सकती है?

May he have to memorize this poem?

Alert:-	उसे जाना पड़ सकता है।	He may have to go.
	वह जा सकता है। (संभावना)	He may go.
	शायद वह जा सकता है। (कम संभावना)	He might go.
	उसे जाना पड़ता है।	He has to go.
	शायद उसे जाना पड़सकता है।(कम संभावना)	He might have to go.

Exercise

उसे यहां ठहरना पड़ सकता है। उसे यहां ठहरना पड़ता होगा। उसे यहां ठहरना पड़ेगा। उसे यहां ठहरना है। उसे यहां ठहरना था। वह यहां ठहरता होगा। उसे यहां ठहरना चाहिए। हमें लोगों से बात करनी पड़ सकती है। तुम्हें कड़ी मेहनत करनी पड़ सकती है। लोगों को मुसीबत का सामना करना पड़ सकता है। हमें उसका नाम पूछना पड़ सकता है। उसे स्पेनिश सीखनी होगी। बच्चे आपसे क्या पूछा करते थे? हमें वहां कैसे पहुंचना था? शालिनी को रवि के बारे में क्या जानना है?

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Having to

पहचानः– ना पड़ रहा है

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + is/am/are + having to + v1 + obj

उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी पड़ रही है।

He is having to learn French.

मुझे यहां रहना पड़ रहा है।

I am having to live here.

हमें रात में पढ़ाई करनी पड़ रही है।

We are having to study in the night.

Negative

Rule : Sub + is/am/are + not + having to + v1 + obj

उसे दवाई नहीं लेनी पड़ रही है।

He is not having to take medicine.

आपको यह काम नहीं करना पड़ रहा है।

You are not having to do this work.

हमें कड़ी मेहनत नहीं करनी पड़ रही है।

We are not having to do hard work.

Interrogative

Rule : Is/am/are + sub + having to + v1 + obj

क्या उसे वहां स्पेनिश बोलनी पड़ रही है?

Is she having to speak Spanish there?

तुम्हारे भाई को शराब क्यों पीनी पड़ रही है?

Why is your brother having to drink wine?

तुम्हें अकेले क्यों रहना पड़ रहा है?

Why are you having to live alone?

Alert:-	हमें सीखना पड़ता है।	We have to learn.
	हमें सीखना पड़ रहा है।	We are having to learn.
	हमें सीखना पड़ रहा था।	We were having to learn.
	हम सीख रहे हैं।	We are learning.
	हम सीखते आ रहे हैं।	We have been learning.
	हमें सीखना पड़ सकता है।	We may have to learn.

Exercise

उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ रही है। उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ सकती है। उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ती होगी। उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ेगी। उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ती है। उसे इंगलिश बोलनी पड़ती थी। वह इंगलिश बोलता होगा। हमें किताबें क्यों खरीदनी पड़ रही हैं? आपको उसे रूपये क्यों देने पड़ रहे हैं? विदेशियों को भारत में हिन्दी बोलनी पड़ रही है। क्या आपको मुझसे कुछ पूछना था? लोग तुम्हारे बारे में नहीं जानते होंगे। भारत को यह मैच जीतना होगा। उसे मेरा नाम क्यों जानना है? आपको उससे शादी कब करनी है?

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Could have + v3

पहचानः– सकता था, सकती थी, सकते थे

संकेत:- शक्ति थी लेकिन काम नहीं किया गया

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + could have + v3 + obj

वे यह मैच जीत सकते थे। (जीते नहीं)
They could have won this match.

वह यहां आ सकता था। (आया नहीं)
He could have come here.

आप उसे पढ़ा सकते थे। (पढ़ाये नहीं)
You could have taught him.

Negative

Rule : Sub + could + not + have + v3 + obj

वह परीक्षा पास नहीं कर सकता था। (लेकिन पास किया)
He could not have passed the exam.

हम उससे आज नहीं मिल सकते थे। (लेकिन मिले)
We could not have met him today.

मैं यह काम पूरा नहीं कर सकता था। (लेकिन पूरा किया)
I could not have completed this work.

Interrogative

Rule : Could + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या पुलिस उसे गिरफतार कर सकती थी? (नहीं किया)
Could the police have arrested him?

क्या हम उसे यहां बुला सकते थे? (नहीं बुलाये)
Could we have called him here?

क्या आप उसके सवाल का जवाब दे सकते थे? (नहीं दिये)
Could you have answered his question?

Alert:- आप इंगलिश बोल सकते हैं। You can speak English.
आप इंगलिश बोल सके। You could speak English.
आप इंगलिश बोलसकते थे। (शक्ति थी–बोले नहीं) You could have spoken English.

Exercise

मैं यह काम कर सकता हूं। मैं यह काम कर सका। मैं यह काम कर सकता था। मुझे यह काम करना चाहिए। मुझे यह काम करना है। मुझे यह काम करना था। तुम यह काम करते होगे। आप उसे मदद कर सकते थे। हम उसे लंदन भेज सकते थे। क्या वह अपना नाम बदल सकता था? आप उससे रूपये ले सकते थे। लोग अमीर क्यों नहीं बन सके? हमें उससे आज क्यों मिलना है? आप उसे डांट सकते थे। आप उसके बारे में क्या जानते हैं? तुम वहां क्यों जा रहे हो?

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Sould have + v3

पहचानः– ना चाहिए था

संकेत:- कर्तव्य था लेकिन काम नहीं किया गया

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + should have + v3 + obj

आपको उससे बात करनी चाहिए थी। (किये नहीं)

You should have talked to him.

हमें वहां जाना चाहिए था। (गये नहीं)

We should have gone there.

उन्हें गरीबों की मदद करनी चाहिए थी। (की नहीं)

They should have helped poor.

Negative

Rule : Sub + should + not + have + v3 + obj

उसे शराब नहीं पीनी चाहिए थी। (लेकिन पीया)

He should not have drunk wine.

तुम्हें यह घड़ी नहीं बेचनी चाहिए थी। (लेकिन बेची)

You should not have sold this watch.

आपको उसे सबकुछ नहीं बताना चाहिए था। (लेकिन बताया)

You should not have told him everything.

Interrogative

Rule : Should + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या मुझे उस पर विश्वास करना चाहिए था? (नहीं किया)

Should I have believed him?

क्या लोगों को नेताओं से कुछ उम्मीद करनी चाहिए थी? (नहीं की)

Should the people have expected anything from the politicians?

हमें वहां कब पहुंचना चाहिए था? (नहीं पहुंचे)

When should we have reached there?

Alert:-	उसे जाना चाहिए था। (कर्तव्य था–गया नही)	He should have gone.
	वह जा सकता था। (शक्ति थी–गया नही)	He could have gone.
	उसे जाना चाहिए।	He should go.
	वह जा सकता है।	He can go.

Exercise

तुम्हें उससे मिलना चाहिए था। तुम उससे मिल सकते थे। तुम्हें उससे मिलना है। तुम्हें उससे मिलना पड़ सकता है। तुम्हें उससे मिलना पड़ेगा। तुम्हें उससे मिलना पड़ता होगा। तुम उससे मिलते होगे। तुम उससे मिला करते थे। तुम्हें इंगलिश सीखनी चाहिए थी। वह आपको रूपये दे सकता था। हमें यह काम नहीं करना था। आप उससे कहां मिला करते थे? उसने मेरे साथ ऐसा क्यों किया? तुम उससे कुछ क्यों नहीं पूछते हो? आप मुझे यह किताब कब देंगे? लोग आपसे यह सवाल क्यों पूछ रहे थे?

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Would have + v3

पहचानः– चुका होता, लिया होता, आ होता

संकेत:- संभावना थी लेकिन काम नहीं किया गया

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + would have + v3 + obj

वह पत्र लिख चुका होता। (लिखा नहीं)
He would have written a letter.
बच्चे इंगलिश सीख चुके होते। (सीखे नहीं)
The children would have learnt English.
हम अपना काम कर चुके होते। (किये नहीं)
We would have done our work.

Negative

Rule : Sub + would + not + have + v3 + obj

उसने परीक्षा पास नहीं की होती। (लेकिन पास की)
She would not have passed the exam.
हम उसे रूपये नहीं दिये होते। (लेकिन दिये)
We would not have given him money.
बच्चों ने आपसे कोई सवाल नहीं पूछा होता। (लेकिन पूछा)
The children would not have asked you any question.

Interrogative

Rule : Would + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या वह तुम्हें यह बात बता चुकी होती? (नहीं बताया)
Would she have told you this matter?
क्या पुलिस आतंकियों को मार चुकी होती? (नहीं मारा)
Would the police have killed the terrorists?
क्या वह मुझसे शादी कर चुकी होती? (नहीं की)
Would she have married me?

Alert:-	वह खेल सकता था। (शक्ति थी–खेला नहीं)	He could have played.
	उसे खेलना चाहिए था। (कर्तव्य था–खेला नहीं)	He should have played.
	वह खेल चुका होता। (संभावना थी–खेला नही)	He would have played.

Exercise

वह तुमसे बात कर सकती थी। उसे तुमसे बात करनी चाहिए थी। वह तुमसे बात कर चुकी होती। आप यह फिल्म नहीं देख सकते थे। आपको यह फिल्म नहीं देखनी चाहिए थी। आप यह फिल्म नहीं देख चुके होते। क्या मैं उसे मदद कर सकता था? क्या मुझे उसकी मदद करनी चाहिए थी? क्या मैं उसकी मदद कर चुका होता? वे यह काम कर सकते हैं। आप उसे मदद कर सकते थे। हम उसे लंदन भेज सकते थे। आप उससे रूपये ले सकते थे। लोग अमीर क्यों नहीं बन सके? हमें उससे आज क्यों मिलना है? आप उसे डांट सकते थे। वह मेरे बारे में क्या जानती है?

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May have + v3

पहचानः– चुका होगा, लिया होगा

संकेत:- संभावना है कि काम हो गया है

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + may have + v3 + obj

वह पत्र लिख चुकी होगी/उसने पत्र लिख लिया होगा। (शायद लिख लिया है)

She may have written a letter.

बच्चे फिल्म देख चुके होंगे।

The children may have seen the film.

पुलिस उसे गिरफतार कर चुकी होगी।

The police may have arrested him.

Negative

Rule : Sub + may + not + have + v3 + obj

उसने खाना नहीं बनाया होगा।

He may not have cooked food.

उसने परीक्षा पास नहीं की होगी।

He may not have passed the exam.

शिक्षक ने उसे आज नहीं पढ़ाया होगा।

The teacher may not have taught him today.

Interrogative

Rule : May + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या पुलिस आतंकी को मार चुकी होगी?

May the police have killed the terrorist?

क्या वह लंदन पहुंच चुका होगा?

May he have reached London.

क्या अमेरिका पाकिस्तान से दोस्ती तोड़ चुका होगा?

May America have broken friendship with Pakistan?

Alert:-	वह लिख सकता था (शक्ति थी–लिखा नहीं)	He could have written.
	उसे लिखना चाहिएथा (कर्तव्य था–लिखा नहीं)	He should have written.
	वह लिख चुका होता (संभावना थी–लिखा नहीं)	He would have written.
	वह लिख चुका होगा (शायद लिख लिया है)	He may have written.
	शायद वह लिखचुका होगा (बहुत कम संभावना)	He might have written.

Exercise

बच्चे स्कूल जा चुके होंगे। बच्चे स्कूल जा चुके होते। बच्चों को स्कूल जाना चाहिए था। बच्चे स्कूल जा सकते थे। बच्चों को स्कूल जाना पड़ सकता है। बच्चों को स्कूल जाना पड़ता होगा। बच्चों को स्कूल जाना पडेगा। तुम्हारे दोस्त घर पहुंच चुके होंगे। उसे मेरे बारे में क्या जानना था? लोग राजनीति पसंद क्यों नहीं करते हैं? वह मेरा काम नहीं कर सकता था। हमें उससे क्या पूछना चाहिए था? तुम वहां कई दोस्त बना चुके होगे।

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Must have + v3

पहचानः– अवश्य...चुका है

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + must have + v3 + obj

वह अपना काम अवश्य पूरा कर चुका है।
He must have completed his work.
तुम उससे अवश्य मिल चुके हो।
You must have met him.
वे मेरा नाम अवश्य जान चुके हैं।
They must have known my name.
बच्चे घर अवश्य पहुंच चुके हैं।
The children must have reached home.

Interrogative

Rule : Must + sub + have + v3 + obj

क्या आप उसे रूपये अवश्य दे चुके हैं?
Must you have given him money?
क्या वह आपका पता अवश्य भूल चुकी है?
Must she have forgotten your address?
क्या तुम उसके सवाल का जवाब अवश्य दे चुके हो?
Must you have answered his question?
क्या बच्चे घर अवश्य पहुंच चुके हैं?
Must the children have reached home?

Alert:-	तुम कॉफी अवश्य पी चुके हो	You must have drunk coffee.
	तुम कॉफी पी चुके हो	You have drunk coffee.
	तुम कॉफी पी सकते थे	You could have drunk coffee.
	तुम्हें कॉफी पीनी चाहिए थी	You should have drunk coffee.
	तुम कॉफी पी चुके होते	You would have drunk coffee.
	तुम कॉफी पी चुके होगे	You may have drunk coffee.

Exercise

आप उसे पढ़ा सकते थे। आपको उसे पढ़ाना चाहिए था। आप उसे पढ़ा चुके होते। आप उसे पढ़ा चुके होंगे। आप उसे पढ़ा चुके हैं। आप उसे पढ़ा चुके थे। आप उसे पढ़ा चुकेंगे। तुमने उससे कुछ क्यों नहीं पूछा? उसने मुझे तुम्हारे साथ कब देखा? तुम्हें उसको माफ कर देना चाहिए था। लोगों को वहां समय पर पहुंचना चाहिए था। आप उसके लिए कुछ अच्छा कर सकते थे। उसे आज कहां जाना था? लोग गरीबों की मदद क्यों नहीं कर सकते हैं? आप मेरा पता उससे पूछ सकते थे। उसे अपराधियों का साथ नहीं देना चाहिए था।

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Have had to

पहचानः– करना ही है

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + have had to + v1 + obj

मुझे यह काम करना ही है।

I have had to do this work / I have got to do this work.

उसे इंगलिश सीखनी ही है।

He has had (got) to learn English.

आपको उससे बात करनी ही है।

You have had (got) to talk to him.

Negative

Rule : Sub + have + not + had to + v1 + obj

हमें वहां आज पहुंचना ही नहीं है।

We have not had (got) to reach there today.

पुलिस को आतंकी को मारना ही नहीं है।

The police has not had to kill the terrorist.

उसे लंदन पहुंचना ही नहीं है।

He has not had to reach London.

Interrogative

Rule : Have + sub + had to + v1 + obj

क्या तुम्हें कम्प्यूटर सीखना ही है?

Have you had to learn computer?

क्या आपको उससे बदला लेना ही है?

Have you had to take revenge on him?

क्या उसे इस साल शादी करनी ही है?

Has he had to marry this year?

Alert:-	I have had to go	मुझे जाना ही है।
	I have got to go	मुझे जाना ही है।
	I must have to go	मुझे अवश्य जाना है।
	I should have to go	मुझे जाना ही चाहिए।
	I have to go	मुझे जाना है।
	I need to go	मुझे जाने की जरूरत है।
	I must go	मुझे अवश्य जाना चाहिए।
	I am to go	मैं जाने को हूं।
	I am about to go	मैं जाने वाला हूं।
	I should go	मुझे जाना चाहिए।

Exercise

उसे फिल्म देखनी है। उसे फिल्म देखनी थी। उसे फिल्म देखनी होगी। उसे फिल्म देखनी पड़ सकती है। वह फिल्म देख सकता था। उसे फिल्म देखनी चाहिए थी। वह फिल्म देख चुका होता।

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Had had to
पहचानः– करना ही था
Affirmative

Rule : Sub + had had to + v1 + obj
हमें आज वहां जाना ही था।
We had had to go there today / We had got to go there today.
मुझे यह काम करना ही था।
He had had to do this work.
उसे इंगलिश सीखनी ही थी।
He had had to learn English.
आपको उससे बात करनी ही थी।
You had had to talk to him.

Interrogative
Rule : Had + sub + had to + v1 + obj
क्या तुम्हें कम्प्यूटर सीखना ही था?
Had you had to learn computer?
क्या आपको उससे बदला लेना ही था?
Had you had to take revenge on him?
क्या उसे इस साल शादी करनी ही थी?
Had he had to marry this year?
क्या हमें यह सवाल उससे पूछना ही था?
Had we had to ask him this question?

Alert:-	She had had to play	उसे खेलना ही था।
	She had got to play	उसे खेलना ही था।
	She had to play	उसे खेलना था।
	She had played	वह खेल चुकी थी।
	She had been playing	वह खेलती आ रही थी।

Exercise
हमें इंगलिश सीखनी है। हमें इंगलिश सीखनी थी। हमें इंगलिश सीखनी होगी। हमें इंगलिश सीखनी पड़ सकती है। हम इंगलिश सीख सकते थे। हमें इंगलिश सीखनी चाहिए थी। हम इंगलिश सीख चुके होते। आप मुसीबतों का सामना कर सकते थे। उसे मेरे बारे में किसने बताया? आप उसे स्पेनिश कैसे पढ़ाते हैं? हम उसे आज यहां नहीं बुलायेंगे। आपको यह काम कल करना चाहिए था। तुम उसके बारे में मुझे बता सकते हो। हमें उससे क्या बात करनी है?

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Could have had to

पहचानः– ना पड़ सकता था

संकेत:- काम मजबूरी में किया जा सकता था–लेकिन नहीं किया गया

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + could have had to + v1 + obj

हमें वहां जाना पड़ सकता था।

We could have had to go there.

उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी पड़ सकती थी।

He could have had to learn French.

तुम्हें दवाई लेनी पड़ सकती थी।

You could have had to take medicine.

बच्चों को कविता लिखनी पड़ सकती थी?

The children could have had to write poems?

Interrogative

Rule : Could + sub + have had to + v1 + obj

क्या हमें उससे बात करनी पड़ सकती थी?

Could we have had to talk to him?

क्या पुलिस को उसे गिरफतार करना पड़ सकता था?

Could the police have had to arrest him?

क्या मुझे इन सवालों का जवाब देना पड़ सकता था?

Could I have had to answer these questions?

क्या उन्हें डॉक्टर के पास जाना पड़ सकता था?

Could they have had to go to the doctor?

Alert:-	उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी पड़ सकती थी	She could have had to learn French.
	उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी ही थी	She had had to learn French.
	उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी ही है	She has had to learn French.
	वह फ्रेंच सीख सकती थी	She could have learnt French.
	उसे फ्रेंच सीखनी थी	She had to learn French.

Exercise

उसे पत्र लिखना पड़ सकता था। हमें यह काम करना पड़ सकता था। तुम्हें यहां ठहरना चाहिए था। तुम्हारा भाई परीक्षा पास चुका होगा। हमें आपसे कुछ नहीं पूछना है। मैं उसे कैसे भूल सकता हूं? वह मेरे बारे में कुछ नहीं सोचती है। तुमने मेरे घर में उसे क्यों बुलाया? लोग उसे गाली क्यों नहीं देंगे।

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Would have had to

पहचानः– ना पड़ा होता

संकेत:- काम मजबूरी में किया जाता–लेकिन नहीं किया गया

Affirmative

Rule : Sub + would have had to + v1 + obj

उसे कॉफी पीनी पड़ी होती।

He would have had to drink coffee.

आपको यह फिल्म देखनी पड़ी होती।

You would have had to see this film.

हमें अमेरिका जाना पड़ा होता।

We would have had to go to America.

मुझे यह कम्प्यूटर ठीक करना पड़ा होता।

I would have had to repair this computer.

Interrogative

Rule : Would + sub + have had to + v1 + obj

क्या उसे यहां आना पड़ा होता?

Would he have had to come here?

क्या लोगों को नेताओं से मिलना पड़ा होता?

Would the people have had to meet the politicians?

क्या हमें यह काम आज पूरा करना पड़ा होता?

Would we have had to complete this work today?

क्या उन्हें डॉक्टर के पास जाना पड़ा होता?

Would they have had to go to the doctor?

Alert:-	उसे जाना पड़ा होता	He would have had to go.
	उसे जाना पड़ सकता था	He could have had to go.
	वह जा चुका होता	He would have gone.
	वह जा सकता था	He could have gone.

Exercise

उसे स्पेनिश बोलना पड़ता होगा। आप उसे क्या पढ़ाया करते थे? हमें आज वहां क्यों जाना था? आपको यह काम कैसे करना है? तुम्हें अपनी गलतियां नहीं भूलनी चाहिए। लोग उसके बारे में जान चुके होंगे। मुझे उससे कुछ नहीं पूछना चाहिए था। हमें आज ऑफिस नहीं जाना होगा। आप उसे मेरा पता दे सकते थे। उसने यह सवाल मुझसे क्यों पूछा? क्या वह तुम्हें मदद करता है? क्या आपने उससे शादी नहीं की? कविता मुझसे नहीं मिलती है। हम कल वहां पहुंच चुकेंगे।

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VOICE

Present Indefinite

Affirmative

Active Voice :- Sub + v1/v5 + obj

तुम क्रिकेट खेलते हो।

You play cricket.

Passive Voice :- Obj + is/am/are + v3 + by + sub

क्रिकेट तुम्हारे द्वारा खेला जाता है।

Cricket is played by you.

Bare Passive :- Obj + is/am/are + v3

क्रिकेट यहां खेला जाता है।

Cricket is played here.

Negative

Active :- Sub + do/does + not + v1 + obj

मैं उसे नहीं पढ़ाता हूं।

I do not teach him.

Passive :- Obj + is/am/are + not + v3 + by + sub

उसे मेरे द्वारा नहीं पढ़ाया जाता है।

He is not taught by me.

Bare Passive:- Obj + is/am/are + not + v3

उसे इंगलिश नहीं पढ़ायी जाती है।

He is not taught English.

Interrogative

Active :- Do/does + sub + v1 + obj

क्या वह फिल्में देखती है?

Does she see films?

Passive :- Is/am/are + obj + v3 + by + sub

क्या फिल्में उसके द्वारा देखी जाती हैं?

Are the films seen by her?

Bare Passive:- Is/am/are + obj + v3

क्या फिल्में यहां देखी जाती हैं?

Are the films seen here?

Exercise

वह फुटबॉल खेलता है। फुटबॉल उसके द्वारा खेला जाता है। फुटबॉल भारत में खेला जाता है। तुम उसे क्यों डांटते हो? उसे तुम्हारे द्वारा क्यों डांटा जाता है? उसे क्यों डांटा जाता है? आप यह काम कैसे करते हैं? यह काम आपके द्वारा कैसे किया जाता है? यह काम कैसे किया जाता है? क्रिकेट अमेरिका में क्यों नहीं खेला जाता है? क्या वह आपको पसंद करती है? वे आपसे कब मिलते हैं? वह मुझे प्यार नहीं करती है। मुझे उसके द्वारा प्यार नहीं किया जाता है। मुझे प्यार नहीं किया जाता है?

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Present Continuous
Affirmative

Active :- Sub + is/am/are + v4 + obj

बच्चे इंगलिश बोल रहे हैं।

The children are speaking English.

Passive :- Obj + is/am/are + being + v3 + by + sub

इंगलिश बच्चों द्वारा बोली जा रही है।

English is being spoken by the children.

Bare Passive :- Obj + is/am/are + being + v3

इंगलिश क्लास में बोली जा रही है।

English is being spoken in class.

वह मुझे नहीं बुला रही है।
She is not calling me.
मुझे उसके द्वारा नहीं बुलाया जा रहा है।
I am not being called by her.
मुझे वहां नहीं बुलाया जा रहा है।
I am not being called there.

आप उससे क्या पूछ रहे हैं?
What are you asking him?
उसे आपके द्वारा क्या पूछा जा रहा है?
What is he being asked by you?
उसे क्या पूछा जा रहा है?
What is he being asked?

Alert:-	वह पढ़ रहा है।	He is reading.
	उसे पढ़ाया जा रहा है।	He is being taught.
	वह पढ़ाता है।	He teaches.
	उसे पढ़ाया जाता है।	He is taught.

Exercise

क्या वह फिल्में देख रही है? क्या फिल्में उसके द्वारा देखी जा रही हैं? क्या फिल्में वहां देखी जा रही हैं? क्या पुलिस चोर को पीट रही है? क्या चोर को पुलिस के द्वारा पीटा जा रहा है? क्या चोर को पीटा जा रहा है? वह रूपये नहीं देता है। वह रूपये नहीं दे रहा है। उसे रूपये नहीं दिये जाते हैं। उसे रूपये नहीं दिये जा रहे हैं। तुम यह काम कब पूरा करते हो? वह मुसीबत का सामना कैसे करता है? आप हमें धोख क्यों दे रहे हैं? हमें आपके द्वारा धोखा क्यों दिया जा रहा है? हमें धोखा क्यों दिया जा रहा है?

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Present Perfect

Active :- Sub + have/has + v3 + obj

पुलिस उसे गिरफतार कर चुकी है।

The police has arrested him.

Passive :- Obj + has/have + been + v3 + by + sub

उसे पुलिस के द्वारा गिरफतार किया जा चुका है।

He has been arrested by the police.

Bare Passive:- Obj + has/have + been + v3

उसे गिरफतार किया जा चुका है।

He has been arrested.

मैं यह काम नहीं कर चुका हूं।

I have not done this work.

यह काम मेरे द्वारा नहीं किया जा चुका है।

This work has not been done by me.

यह काम अभी तक नहीं किया जा चुका है।

This work has not been done till now.

क्या आप उसे रूपये दे चुके हैं?

Have you given him money?

क्या उसे आपके द्वारा रूपये दिये जा चुके हैं?

Has he been given money by you?

क्या उसे रूपये दिये जा चुके हैं?

Has he been given money?

Alert:-	मैं रूपये दे चुका हूं।	I have given money.
	मुझे रूपये दिये जा चुके हैं।	I have been given money.
	मैं रूपये देता हूं।	I give money.
	मुझे रूपये दिये जाते हैं।	I am given money.
	मैं रूपये दे रहा हूं।	I am giving money.
	मुझे रूपये दिये जा रहे हैं।	I am being given money.

Exercise

क्या वह रूपये खर्च कर चुका है? क्या रूपये उसके द्वारा खर्च किये जा चुके हैं? क्या सभी रूपये खर्च किये जा चुके हैं? आप उसे मदद क्यों नहीं करते हैं? उसे आपके द्वारा मदद क्यों नहीं की जाती है? उसे मदद क्यों नहीं की जाती है? वह यहां क्या कर रहा है? मुझे यह सवाल क्यों पूछा जा रहा है? आप उसे यहां कब बुला रहे हैं? लोग वहां कैसे पहुंच रहे हैं? उसे क्यों डांटा जा रहा है? मुझे यह बात बतायी जा चुकी है।

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Past Indefinite
Affirmative

Active :- Sub + v2 + obj

उसने किताब खरीदी।

He bought the book.

Passive :- Obj + was/were + v3 + by + sub

किताब उसके द्वारा खरीदी गयी।

The book was bought by him.

Bare Passive :- Obj + was/were + v3

यह किताब कल खरीदी गयी।

This book was bought yesterday.

मैंने उसे नहीं पढ़ाया।

I did not teach him.

उसे मेरे द्वारा नहीं पढ़ाया गया।

He was not taught by me.

उसे नहीं पढ़ाया गया।

He was not taught.

आपने यह काम क्यों नहीं किया?

Why did you not do this work?

यह काम आपके द्वारा क्यों नहीं किया गया?

Why was this work not done by you?

यह काम आज क्यों नहीं किया गया?

Why was this work not done today?

Alert:-	उसने क्या बताया?	What did he tell?
	उसे क्या बताया गया?	What was he told?
	क्या उसने कुछ बताया?	Did he tell anything?

Exercise

आपने उससे क्या पूछा? उसे आपके द्वारा क्या पूछा गया? उसे आज क्या पूछा गया? वह मुझे समझा चुकी है। मुझे उसके द्वारा समझाया जा चुका है। मुझे समझाया जा चुका है। तुम उसे पसंद क्यों नहीं करते हो? क्या उसने परीक्षा पास नहीं की? आप उससे कब मिलते हैं? यह घड़ी क्यों नहीं बेची गयी? शराब इस हॉटेल में नहीं पी जाती है। वह अमेरिका में कैसे रहता है? आपने उससे शादी क्यों नहीं की?

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Past Continuous

Active :- Sub + was/were + v4 + obj

वह पत्र लिख रहा था।

He was writing a letter.

Passive :- Obj + was/were + being + v3 + by + sub

पत्र उसके द्वारा लिखा जा रहा था।

A letter was being written by him.

Bare Passive:- Obj + was/were + being + v3

यह पत्र लिखा जा रहा था।

This letter was being written.

वह फिल्म नहीं देख रही थी।

She was not seeing a film.

फिल्म उसके द्वारा नहीं देखी जा रही थी।

A film was not being seen by her.

यह फिल्म नहीं देखी जा रही थी।

This film was not being seen.

आप क्या कर रहे थे?

What were you doing?

आपके द्वारा क्या किया जा रहा था?

What was being done by you?

अब तक क्या किया जा रहा था?

What was being done till now?

Alert:-	वह क्या बता रही थी?	What was she telling?
	उसे क्या बताया जा रहा था?	What was she being told?
	उसने क्या बताया?	What did she tell?
	उसे क्या बताया गया?	What was she told?

Exercise

वह फ्रेंच बोल रहा था। फ्रेंच उसके द्वारा बोली जा रही थी। फ्रेंच क्लास में बोली जा रही थी। क्या आपने उसे अपना नाम बताया? लोग गरीबों की मदद क्यों नहीं करते हैं? यह मैच कैसे जीता गया? उसे क्या पढ़ाया जा रहा था? स्पेनिश भारत में नहीं बोली जाती है। आप इंगलिश कैसे सीख रहे हैं? आप उसे मदद क्यों नहीं कर रहे थे? उसे आपके द्वारा मदद क्यों नहीं की जा रही थी? उसे मदद क्यों नहीं की जा रही थी? वह यहां क्या कर रहा था? यहां उसके द्वारा क्या किया जा रहा था? यहां क्या किया जा रहा था?

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Past Perfect
Affirmative

Active :- Sub + had + v3 + obj

बच्चे किताबें खरीद चुके थे।

The children had bought the books.

Passive :- Obj + had been + v3 + by + sub

किताबें बच्चों द्वारा खरीदी जा चुकी थी।

The books had been bought by the children.

Bare Passive :- Obj + had been + v3

ये किताबें खरीदी जा चुकी थी।

These books had been bought.

मैं उसे नहीं पढ़ा चुका था।
I had not taught him.
उसे मेरे द्वारा नहीं पढ़ाया जा चुका था।
He had not been taught by me.
उसे नहीं पढ़ाया जा चुका था।
He had not been taught.

क्या आप कम्प्यूटर ठीक कर चुके थे?
Had you repaired the computer?
क्या कम्प्यूटर आपके द्वारा ठीक किया जा चुका था?
Had the computer been repaired by you?
क्या यह कम्प्यूटर ठीक किया जा चुका था?
Had this computer been repaired?

Alert:-	मैं पढ़ा चुका था।	I had taught.
	मुझे पढ़ाया जा चुका था।	I had been taught.
	मैं पढ़ाता आ रहा था।	I had been teaching.

Exercise

क्या आपने यह कार चलायी? क्या यह कार आपके द्वारा चलायी गयी? क्या यह कार चलायी गयी? भारत ने यह मैच कैसे जीता? यह मैच भारत के द्वारा कैसे जीता गया? यह मैच कैसे जीता गया? आपने उसे यहां कब बुलाया? उससे कुछ क्यों नहीं पूछा गया? क्या उसे अमेरिका भेजा जा चुका है? आप उसे क्या बता रहे थे? तुम्हें क्या पढ़ाया जाता है? यह काम कब पूरा किया जा रहा है? तुम उसे पसंद क्यों नहीं करते हो? क्या उसने परीक्षा पास नहीं की? आप उससे कब मिलते हैं?

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Future Indefinite

Active :- Sub + will + v1 + obj

वह दीवारें रंगेगा।

He will paint the walls.

Passive :- Obj + will be + v3 + by + sub

दीवारें उसके द्वारा रंगी जायेगी।

The walls will be painted by him.

Bare Passive:- Obj + will be + v3

ये दीवारें आज रंगी जायेगी।

These walls will be painted today.

मैं उसे माफ नहीं करूंगा।

I will not forgive her.

उसे मेरे द्वारा माफ नहीं किया जायेगा।

She will not be forgiven by me.

उसे माफ नहीं किया जायेगा।

She will not be forgiven.

आप उसे क्यों डांटेंगे?

Why will you scold him?

उसे आपके द्वारा क्यों डांटा जायेगा?

Why will he be scolded by you?

उसे क्यों डांटा जायेगा?

Why will he be scolded?

Alert:-	मैं क्या पूछूंगा?	What will I ask?
	मुझसे क्या पूछा जायेगा?	What will I be asked?
	क्या मैं कुछ पूछूंगा?	Will I ask anything?

Exercise

तुम उसे कैसे हराओगे? उसे तुम्हारे द्वारा कैसे हराया जायेगा? उसे कैसे हराया जायेगा? आप उसे कहां भेज रहे हैं? उसे आपके द्वारा कहां भेजा जा रहा है? उसे कहां भेजा जा रहा है? क्या वह सच बताता है? तुम उससे नफरत क्यों करते हो? यह समस्या कैसे सुलझायी जायेगी? उसका इलाज कैसे किया जायेगा? क्या उसे माफ नहीं किया गया? वे शहर छोड़ चुके थे। क्या आपने उसे अपना नाम बताया? लोग गरीबों की मदद क्यों नहीं करते हैं? यह मैच कैसे जीता गया? उसे क्या पढ़ाया जा रहा था? आप उसे मदद क्यों नहीं कर रहे थे? उसे आपके द्वारा मदद क्यों नहीं की जा रही थी? उसे मदद क्यों नहीं की जा रही थी? वह यहां क्या कर रहा था?

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Future Perfect
Affirmative

Active :- Sub + will have + v3 + obj

डॉक्टर मरीज का इलाज कर चुकेंगे।
The doctor will have cured the patient.

Passive :- Obj + will have been + v3 + by + sub

मरीज का डॉक्टर के द्वारा इलाज किया जा चुकेगा।
The patient will have been cured by the doctor.

Bare Passive :- Obj + will have been + v3

इस मरीज का इलाज किया जा चुकेगा।
This patient will have been cured.

मैं उसे नहीं पढ़ा चुकूंगा।
I will not have taught him.
उसे मेरे द्वारा नहीं पढ़ाया जा चुकेगा।
He will not have been taught by me.
उसे नहीं पढ़ाया जा चुकेगा।
He will not have been taught.

क्या तुम यह समस्या सुलझा चुकोगे?
Will you have solved this problem?
क्या यह समस्या तुम्हारे द्वारा सुलझायी जा चुकेगी?
Will this problem have been solved by you?
क्या यह समस्या कल तक सुलझायी जा चुकेगी?
Will this problem have been solved till tomorrow?

Alert:-	वह धोखा देगा।	He will cheat.
	उसे धोखा दिया जायेगा।	He will be cheated.
	वह धोखा दे चुकेगा।	He will have cheated.
	उसे धोखा दिया जा चुकेगा।	He will have been cheated.

Exercise

मैं उसे कैसे भूलूंगा? उसे मेरे द्वारा कैसे भूलाया जायेगा? उसे कैसे भूलाया जायेगा? तुम यह काम कैसे करोगे? यह काम तुम्हारे द्वारा कैसे किया जायेगा? यह काम आज कैसे किया जायेगा? हम यह काम कल पूरा करेंगे। उसने मुझसे यह सवाल क्यों पूछा? हमें रूपये कब दिये जायेंगे? अपराधी से क्या पूछा जा रहा है? आप लोगों से बात क्यों नहीं करते हैं? ये दीवारें क्यों रंगी जायेगी?

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VOICE OF MODALS

Can/Could/Should/Would/May/Must

Active :- Sub + modal + v1 + obj

तुम्हें यह काम करना चाहिए।

You should do this work.

Passive :- Obj + modal + be + v3 + by + sub

यह काम तुम्हारे द्वारा किया जाना चाहिए।

This work should be done by you.

Bare Passive :- Obj + modal + be + v3

यह काम आज किया जाना चाहिए।

This work should be done today.

Continuous :- Sub + modal + be + v4 + obj

तुम्हें यह काम करते रहना चाहिए।

You should be doing this work.

नितिन उसे नहीं पढ़ा सका।

Nitin could not teach him.

उसे नितिन के द्वारा नहीं पढ़ाया जा सका।

He could not be taught by Nitin.

उसे नहीं पढ़ाया जा सका।

He could not be taught.

नितिन उसे नहीं पढ़ाता रह सका।

Nitin could not be teaching him.

क्या वह शराब पीता होगा?

Would he drink wine?

क्या शराब उसके द्वारा पी जाती होगी?

Would wine be drunk by him?

क्या शराब वहां पी जाती होगी?

Would wine be drunk there?

क्या वह शराब पीता रहता होगा?

Would he be drinking wine?

Exercise

उसे गिरफतार कैसे किया जा सकता है? क्या बच्चों को क्रिकेट खेलते रहना चाहिए? तुम्हें इंगलिश नहीं पढ़ायी जाती होगी। उन्हें कैसे रोका जा सकता है? कविता नितिन से बात करती रहती होगी। आपने यह सवाल उससे क्यों नहीं पूछा? यह घड़ी कैसे ठीक की जायेगी? आप अपराधी से क्या उम्मीद कर सकते हैं? यह रहस्य नहीं खोला जा सकता है? ये पेड़ नहीं काटे जाने चाहिए। तुम खुदको (yourself) धोका क्यों दे रहे हो?

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Have to/Has to/Had to/Used to/Need to

Active :- Sub + modal + to + v1 + obj

हमें उससे कुछ पूछना है।

We have to ask him something.

Passive :- Obj + modal + to + be + v3 + by + sub

उसे हमारे द्वारा कुछ पूछा जाना है।

He has to be asked something by us.

Bare Passive :- Obj + modal + to + be + v3

उसे अब कुछ पूछा जाना है।

He has to be asked something.

Continuous :- Sub + modal + to + be + v4 + obj

हमें उससे कुछ पूछते रहना है।

We have to be asking him something.

आपको यह समस्या सुलझानी थी।

You had to solve this problem.

यह समस्या आपके द्वारा सुलझायी जानी थी।

This problem had to be solved by you.

यह समस्या कल सुलझायी जानी थी।

This problem had to be solved yesterday.

आपको समस्याओं को सुलझाते रहना था।

You had to be solving the problems.

मुझे अब क्या करना है?

What have I to do now?

अब मेरे द्वारा क्या किया जाना है?

What has to be done by me now?

अब क्या किया जाना है?

What has to be done now?

मुझे क्या करते रहना है?

What have I to be doing?

Exercise

उसे यहां कैसे लाया जाना है? आपको यह काम करते रहना है। हमें उससे बात नहीं करनी चाहिए। उसे उत्साहित कैसे किया जा सकता है? तुम कविता से क्यों मिला करते थे? आपने यह मैच क्यों नहीं देखा? उसका जीवन कैसे बचाया जा सकता है? हमें कुछ नहीं पूछा जायेगा। आतंकियों को कैसे मारा जा सका? उसे गिरफतार कैसे किया जा सकता है? क्या बच्चों को क्रिकेट खेलते रहना चाहिए? तुम्हें इंगलिश नहीं पढ़ायी जाती होगी। उन्हें कैसे रोका जा सकता है? कविता नितिन से बात करती रहती होगी। आपने यह सवाल उससे क्यों नहीं पूछा? यह घड़ी कैसे ठीक की जायेगी?

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Could have/Should have/Would have/May have/Must have

Active :- Sub + modal + have + v3 + obj

आप उसे पढ़ा सकते थे।

You could have taught him.

Passive :- Obj + modal + have + been + v3 + by + sub

उसे आपके द्वारा पढ़ाया जा सकता था।

He could have been taught by you.

Bare Passive :- Obj + modal + have + been + v3

उसे इंगलिश पढ़ायी जा सकती थी।

He could have been taught English.

Continuous :- Sub + modal + have + been + v4 + obj

आप उसे पढ़ाते रह सकते थे।

You could have been teaching him.

हमें इस सवाल का जवाब देना चाहिए था।

We should have answered this question.

इस सवाल का जवाब हमारे द्वारा दिया जाना चाहिए था।

This question should have been answered by us.

इस सवाल का जवाब दिया जाना चाहिए था।

This question should have been answered.

हमें इन सवालों का जवाब देते रहना चाहिए था।

We should have been answering these questions.

क्या बच्चे कॉफी पी चुके होते?

Would the children have drunk coffee?

क्या कॉफी बच्चों द्वारा पी जा चुकी होती?

Would coffee have been drunk by the children?

क्या कॉफी हॉटेल में पी जा चुकी होती?

Would coffee have been drunk in the hotel?

क्या बच्चे कॉफी पीते रहते?

Would the children have been drinking coffee?

Exercise

उसे यह शहर छोड़ देना चाहिए था। हम उससे आज मिल चुके होते। तुम यह लॉटरी जीत सकते थे। उसे स्कूल भेजा जाना चाहिए था। हमें वहां कैसे पहुंचना है? यह कार कब बेची जायेगी? हम यह काम कैसे छोड़ सकते हैं? आपने उसे आज क्या पढ़ाया? उसे आज क्या पढ़ाया गया? आप हमें कहां भेज रहे हैं? हमें कहां भेजा जा रहा है? तुम ये घड़ियां बेच सकते थे। ये घड़ियां बेची जा सकती थी। उसे यह काम करते रहना है।

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SMART VERBS

Start

पहचानः– लगता है

Rule : Sub + start + v4 + obj

तुम खेलने लगते हो।	You start playing. / You begin to play.
क्या तुम खेलने लगते हो?	Do you start playing?
तुम क्यों खेलने लगते हो?	Why do you start playing?
वह दौड़ने लगी।	She started running. / She began to run.
क्या वह दौड़ने लगी।	Did she start running?
वह क्यों दौड़ने लगी।	Why did she start running?
शिक्षक पढ़ाने लगेंगे।	The teacher will start teaching.
क्या शिक्षक पढ़ाने लगेंगे?	Will the teacher start teaching?
शिक्षक क्यों पढ़ाने लगेंगे?	Why will the teacher start teaching?

Alert :-

तुम खेलते हो।	You play.
तुम खेलने लगते हो।	You start playing.
तुम खेलने लगे हो।	You have started playing.

Continue

पहचानः– रहती है

Rule : Sub + continue + to + v1 + obj

वह खेलती रहती है।	She continues to play./She keeps on playing.
क्या वह खेलती रहती है?	Does she continue to play?
वह क्या खेलती रहती है?	What does she continue to play?
शिक्षक पढ़ाते रहे।	The teacher continued to teach.
क्या शिक्षक पढ़ाते रहे?	Did the teacher continue to teach
शिक्षक क्यों पढ़ाते रहे?	Why did the teacher continue to teach?
वह दौड़ती रहेगी।	She will continue to run.
क्या वह दौड़ती रहेगी?	Will she continue to run?
वह क्यों दौड़ती रहेगी?	Why will she continue to run?

Alert :-

वह खेलती है।	She plays.
वह खेलने लगती है।	She starts playing.
वह खेलती रहती है।	She continues to play.
वह खेलने लगी है।	She has started playing.
वह खेलती रही है।	She has continued to play.

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Would

1. ता होगा

वह फ्रेंच जानता होगा।	He would know French.

2. कम संभावना

वह कल यहां आयेगी। (कम संभावना)	She would come here tomorrow.

3. आ करता था (कभी–कभी)

नितिन कविता से मिला करता था।	Nitin would meet Kavita.

4. आग्रह या निवेदन

क्या आप मुझे उसका नाम बतायेंगे?	Would you tell me his name?

5. Narration में Indirect Speech में will के बदले would लगता है

राम ने कहा कि वह खेलेगा। Ram said that he would play.

6. काश!

काश! वह यहां होता।	Would that he were here!

Alert :-	वह स्कूल जाया करती थी।	She would (used to) go to school.
	वह स्कूल जायेगी।	She will go to school.
	वह स्कूल जाती होगी।	She would go to school.

Exercise :-

Translate into Hindi

I would not tell him anything. She would not like your habits. Will he start doing his work? Will the police continue beating the thief? She said that she would meet me next day. I would like to know your address. He starts speaking French. What does she start doing there? I started meeting him. The people will start hiding the truth. What did you start asking him? Why did you start scolding him? He starts weeping. He continues to weep. She may pass the exam. She can pass the exam. They will talk to you. They would talk to you.

Exercise :-

Translate into English

वह वहां क्या करता है? वह वहां क्या करने लगता है? वह वहां क्या करता रहता है? आपने उसे क्यों डांटा? आप उसे क्यों डांटने लगे? आप उसे क्यों डांटते रहे? वह मुझसे बात करती है। वह मुझसे बात करने लगती है। वह मुझसे बात करती रहती है। तुम उससे सवाल क्यों पूछने लगे? तुम उससे सवाल क्यों पूछते रहे?

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Have

1. अपने पास रखना/होना
I have a book for you. मेरे पास आपके लिए एक किताब है।

2. खाना/पीना
Would you have coffee with me? क्या आप मेरे साथ कॉफी पीयेंगे?

3. लेना/ग्रहण करना
Have your seat please. कृपया अपना स्थान ग्रहण कीजिए।
Have fun. मजा लीजिए।

4. ना है,पड़ता है
They have to live in America. उन्हें अमेरिका में रहना है/रहना पड़ता है।
I do not have to talk to him. मुझे उससे बात नहीं करनी है। (New Grammar)

5. करवाना
She will have her hair colored. वह अपने बाल कलर करवायेगी।
I will have him call you. मैं उससे आपको कॉल करवाउंगा।

6. चुका है
I have told you everything. मैं तुम्हें सब कुछ बता चुका हूं।

7. अमीर
There are two kinds of people in the world; have and have-not.
दुनिया में दो तरह के लोग होते हैं; अमीर और गरीब।

Exercise :-
Translate into Hindi
Does he have a black pen? I do not have to give him money. When will you have them caught? What time are you going to have dinner today? She would be your best companion. They asked me how much they would pay for that. Did he have enough money to survive? I have sent the children to school. I have to send the children to school. I am having to send the children to school. I have had to send the children to school. You have to have them with you.

For word meaning see last page of the book.

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Get

1. पाना/मिलना
How much did you get for it? तुम्हें इसके लिए कितने रूपये मिले?

2. लगना
I am getting cold. मुझे ठंड लग रही है।

3. समझना
She got your point very clear. उसे तुम्हारी बात बिल्कुल समझ में आयी।

4. दिलाना
Get me your manager on the phone. अपने मैनेजर को फोन पर लाओ।

5. करवाना
They will get this work done. वे लोग यह काम करवा लेंगे।

6. होना
It is getting darker. अंधेरा ज्यादा हो रहा है।

Go

1. जाना
When is he going from here? वह यहां से कब जा रहा है?

2. होना
Why are you going mad about it? तुम इसके लिए पागल क्यों हो रहे हो?

3. बिकना
How are the mangoes going these days? आम इन दिनों कैसे बिक रहे हैं?

4. सफलता
It is a big go of my life. यह मेरे जीवन की बड़ी सफलता है।

5. प्रगतिशील
If you are go, life is good to you. अगर आप प्रगतिशील हैं तो जिन्दगी आपके लिए अच्छी है।

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Be

1. है / था
I am to go from here. मैं यहां से जाने को (वाला) हूं।

2. बनना
Will you be my friend? क्या तुम मेरा दोस्त बनोगे?

3. होना
You have to be positive about it. तुम्हें इसके लिए पॉजेटिव होना है।

4. हो / हो जाये (आदेश)
He be hanged. उसे फांसी दे दी जाये।
Praised to be Jesus Christ. जीसस क्राइस्ट की जय हो।

5. being = अस्तित्व
We are losing our being. हम अपना अस्तित्व खो रहे हैं।

Look

1. देखना
Look at the girls dancing in the party. पार्टी में नाचती लड़कियों को देखो।

2. दिखना
You look very tired today. तुम आज बहुत थके दिखते हो।

3. देखो!
Look! I will not do this work. देखो, मैं यह काम नहीं करूंगा।

4. दिखावट
The look of the hotel has to be changed. हॉटेल का लुक बदला जाना है।

5. फैशन
Go behind the originality, not the look. वास्तविकता के पीछे जाओ, फेशन के नहीं।

6. नज़र
She gave me a look from the corner. उसने कोने से मुझ पर एक नज़र डाली।

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Do

1. करना
When are you doing this work? तुम यह काम कब कर रहे हो?

2. अध्ययन करना
I did English in my school. मैंने इंगलिश की पढ़ाई स्कूल में की।

3. सुलझाना
He did the puzzle in a second. उसने पज़ल को एक सेकंड में सुलझा दिया।

4. तो
I do know him. मैं उसे जानता तो हूं।

5. लायक होना
It will not do for me. यह मेरे लिये नहीं चलेगा।

May

1. सकता है (संभावना)
She may pass this exam. वह यह परीक्षा पास कर सकती है।

2. आदेश
You may leave now. तुम अब जा सकते हो।

3. अनुरोध
May I have your name please? क्या मैं आपका नाम जान सकता हूं?

4. कामना करना
May you get the victory! मेरी कामना है कि आप विजयी हों।

5. might = बहुत कम संभावना
She might accept my proposal. शायद वह मेरा प्रस्ताव स्वीकार करे।

5. might = शक्ति
Truth disappears in the shadow of might. शक्ति के साये में सच गायब हो जाता है।

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PREPOSITIONS

About

लगभग
It is about 4 o'clock. लगभग चार बजे है।
की तैयारी में
He is about to leave. वह जाने की तैयारी में है।
के बारे में
What are you talking about? तुम किसके बारे में बात कर रहे हो?
की योजना में
I know what she is about. मैं जानता हूं वह किस योजना में है।

Above

से उपर
The fan is hanging above the table. पंखा टेबल के उपर लटका हुआ है।
से अधिक
You are getting above your salary. तुम्हें अपनी सॅलरी से अधिक मिल रहा है।
से अमीर
He married in above his family. उसने अपने से अमीर परिवार में शादी की।
श्रेष्ठ
The clerk should respect his above. क्लर्कको अपने सीनियर का सम्मान करना चाहिए।
समझ से बाहर
French is above you. फ्रेंच तुम्हारी समझ से बाहर है।
से ज्यादा
You speak above your age. तुम अपनी उम्र के हिसाब से ज्यादा बोलते हो।

After के बाद
Don't read after mid-night. आधी रात के बाद मत पढ़ो।
के चक्कर में
The pick-pocket is after his money. पॉकेटमार उसके पैसे के चक्कर में है।
के कारण
He died after malaria. वह मलेरिया के कारण मर गया।
से अधिक
Give me all you have after 400 Rs. 400 रूपये सेअधिक तुम्हारे पास जितना है मुझे दो।
से पीछे
I am after you. मैं तुम्हारे बाद हूं।
की उम्र के बाद
He changed his career after 25. उसने 25 के बाद अपना करीयर बदल लिया।
बाद का
I can not be sure about after-world. परलोक के बारे में मैं निश्चित नहीं हो सकता हूं।
के नाम पर
He was named after the name of the city. शहर के नाम पर उसका नाम रखा गया।

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At

के समय पर

The bus reached me at 4 pm. बस ने मुझे चार बजे पहुंचाया।

के पास

He is standing at the gate. वह गेट के पास है।

के किनारे

The temple is at the river. मंदिर नदी के किनारे है।

के हिसाब से

He was hired at 100 Rs. a day. उसे 100 रू दिन के हिसाब से काम पे रखा गया।

की तरफ

What are you looking at? तुम किस तरफ देख रहे हो?

में

He will live rest of his life at village. वह अपनी बांकी जिंदगी गांव में गुजारेगा।

की रफतार से

The car is running at full speed. कार पूरी रफतार से चल रही है।

(आखिर) में

She agreed to marry me at last. वह आखिर में मुझसे शादी करने तैयार हुई।

के करीब

The old man is at death. बूढ़ा आदमी मृत्यु के करीब है।

पर

Getting furious at what I saw, I slapped him. मैंने जो देखा उस पर गुस्सा होकर मैंने उसे तमाचा मारा।

Against

के खिलाफ

The public is against the vote. लोग वोट के खिलाफ है।

के सहारे, से लग कर

I was standing against the tree. मैं पेड़ के सहारे खड़ा था।

के लिए

He received 500 Rs. against the rent. उसे किराये के लिए 500 रू मिले।

के विपरीत

The boat is sailing against the wind. बोट हवा के विपरीत चलाया जा रहा है।

Before

से पहले

There was no one before 2 pm. दो बजे से पहले कोई नहीं था।

के सामने

Everything is open before you. सब कुछ आपके सामने खुला है।

पहले

Before education was not so important. पहले शिक्षा इतनी जरूरी नहीं थी।

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By

से

Why are you going by car? तुम कार से क्यों जा रहे हो?

द्वारा

This work can not be done by the labors. यह काम मजदूरों द्वारा नहीं हो सकता है।

के सहारे

The police caught the thief by his hair. पुलिस ने चोर को बाल से पकड़ा।

तक

He will come back by evening. वह शाम तक वापस आयेगा।

(मात्रा) से

The bullet missed him by an inch. गोली उसे एक इंच छोड़ के निकल गयी।

के पास से

He drove the car by the jungle. उसने जंगल के पास से कार चलायी।

पास

Come and sit by me. आओ और मेरे पास बैठो।

By the way = वैसे

By the way what brings you here? वैसे आपका यहां कैसे आना हुआ?

के हिसाब से

You will be paid by the week. आपको सप्ताह के हिसाब से पैसे दिये जायेंगे।

Behind

के पीछे

Who was standing behind the gate? गेट के पीछे कौन खड़ा था?

में शामिल

The police knows the culprit behind the plot. पुलिस साजिश में शामिल गुनहगार को जानती है।

से कम

I am not behind you. मैं (जानकारी में) तुमसे कम नहीं हूं।

समय से पीछे

The watch is running behind the time. घड़ी समय से पीछे चल रही है।

From

से

What do you want from me? तुम मुझसे क्या चाहते हो?

समय से

The school would open from 16th June. स्कूल 16 जून से खुलेगा।

से दूर

How long the station is from here? स्टेशन यहां से कितना दूर है?

समय समय पर

You have to visit him from time to time. तुम्हें उसको समय समय पर देखने जाना है।

कारण से

He died from fever. वह बुखार से मर गया।

परिवार से

He is from a noble family. वह एक अच्छे परिवार से है।

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For

के लिए

You have to pay for your deeds. तुम्हें अपने कर्म की सजा भोगनी होगी।

रूपये में

I bought it for 10 Rs. मैंने इसे 10 रू में खरीदा।

समय से

I have been waiting for two hours. मैं दो घंटे से इंतजार कर रहा हूं।

को लेकर

He can die for his words. वह अपने वचन को लेकर मर सकता है।

जिसके लिए

For he traveled across the country. जिसके लिए उसने पूरे देश की यात्रा की।

के हिसाब से

This car runs 60 km for a liter. यह कार 60 किमी प्रति लीटर चलती है।

के वास्ते

He is living for bread only. वह सिर्फ खाने के वास्ते जी रहा है?

What...for = क्यों

What are you asking me for? तुम मुझे क्यों पूछ रहे हो?

बचाने के लिए

He ran for life. वह अपनी जान बचाने दौड़ा।

In

स्थान में

He is in London for three weeks. वह तीन सप्ताह से लंदन में है।

समय में

What were you doing in the morning? तुम सुबह में क्या कर रहे थे?

के बाद

I will meet you in a week. मैं तुमसे एक सप्ताह बाद मिलूंगा।

महीने में

Winter falls in December. जाड़े का मौसम डिसेम्बर में आता है।

अंदर

She is taking me in. वह मुझे अंदर लेके जा रही है।

रंग में

Don't write in red. लाल रंग से नहीं लिखो।

पर

The birds are sitting in the tree. पक्षी पेड़ पर बैठे हैं।

Into

के अंदर

Look into the book. किताब के अंदर देखो।

में

He fell into the well. वह कूएं में गिर गया।

(देर रात) में

I saw her studying into the night. मैंने उसे देर रात में पढ़ते देखा।

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On पर

Put the computer on the table. कम्प्यूटर को टेबल पर रख दो।

को

I will be leaving on Tuesday. मैं मंगलवार को जाउंगा।

में

The officers are on the way for office. ऑफिसर्स ऑफिस आने के लिए रास्ते में हैं।

कम पैसे पर

The labors are living on the low wages. मजदूर कम पैसे में जीवन जी रहे हैं।

जारी

The war was on for the next two years. जंग अगले दो साल तक जारी था।

छुट्टी पर

She is on maternity leave. वह मां बनने की छुट्टी पर है।

होने पर

On getting drunk he started abusing. पी लेने पर वह गाली देने लगा।

स्थान पर

Where do you put on? तुम कहां रहते हो?

तरफ

He turned his back on the crowd. उसने अपनी पीठ भीड़ की तरफ मोड़ ली।

Of से

Beware of dogs! कुत्तों से सावधान!

का बना हुआ

The jacket is made of leather. जैकेट लेदर का बना हुआ है।

का

The people of west neglect marriage. पश्चिम के लोग शादी को गंभीरता से नहीं लेते।

में से

Which of you can run faster? तुममें से कौन ज्यादा तेज़ दौड़ सकता है?

के कारण

She died of AIDS. वह एड्स के कारण मरी।

Off दूर = Get off. दूर हो जाओ।

दूसरी ओर

Why is he sailing off the shore? वह किनारे से दूसरी ओर क्यों जा रहा है?

बंद = Turn off the PC. कम्प्यूटर बंद कर दो।

से हटकर

Off Link Road. लिंक रोड से दूर हटकर

छुट्टी

I will have off next Monday. अगले सोमवार मैं छुट्टी लूंगा।

मृत

He is off. वह मर गया है।

(pay off) = दे कर छुटकारा पा लेना

I paid him off. मैंने उसे पैसे देकर छुटकारा कर लिया।

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Over

उपर

There is a clock hanging over his head. उसके सर के उपर घड़ी टंगी है।

इस पार से उस पार

The thief jumped over the wall. चोर दीवार के इस पार से उस पार फांद गया।

से ज्यादा

The car is running over 60. कार 60 से ज्यादा की गति से चल रही है।

समाप्त

The show is getting over. शो समाप्त होने जा रहा है।

बहुत ज्यादा

Don't behave to be over-talented. बहुत ज्यादा प्रतिभावान दिखनेवाला व्यवहार मत करो।

To

को

He is going to America. वह अमेरिका (को) जा रहा है।

तक

Keep it to yourself. इसे अपने तक सीमित रखो।

द्वारा

You are known to all. तुम सब के द्वारा जाने जाते हो।

से

I told him to talk to you. मैंने उसे तुमसे बात करने को कहा।

में

Welcome to India. भारत में आपका स्वागत है।

पास

Come to me before 6 pm. मेरे पास 6 बजे से पहले चले आना।

तक

Count from 10 to 25. दस से पच्चीस तक गिनो।

से

Multiply 4 to 6. 4 को 6 से गुणा करो।

से कम

It is quarter to ten. दस बजने में 15 मिनिट कम है।

पर

Don't take it to your heart. इसे दिल पर मत लो।

Up

उपर

He was lifted up the hills. उसे पहाड़ी से उपर उठाया गया।

चालू

The internet is up now. इंटरनेट अब चालू हो गया।

चढ़ाव

The business is full of ups and downs. बिजनेस बहुत उतार चढ़ाव से भरा है।

उपरी

The upside of the door is broken. दरवाज़े का उपरी हिस्सा टूटा है।

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With

के साथ

He is living with his aunt. वह अपनी चाची के साथ रह रहा है।

से

I am writing with a blue pen. मैं नीले पेन से लिख रहा हूं।

तैयारी के साथ

Start the work with proper plans. सही याजनाओं के साथ काम शुरू करो।

से भरा हुआ

His brain is washed with fanaticism. उसका दिमाग धार्मिक कट्टरता से भर दिया गया।

में

The girl with sharp feature is my neighbor.तीखे नैन नक्शकी लड़की मेरी पड़ोसन है

Some more prepositions

According to	के अनुसार
Agreeably to	से सहमत होते हुए
Along with	के साथ
Away from	से दूर
Because of	के कारण
By dint of	की ताकत से
By means of	के जरिये
By reason of	के कारण से
By virtue of	के दम पर
By way of	से होकर
Conformably to	के जैसा
For the sake of	की खातिर
In accordance with	के मुताबिक
With reference to	के संदर्भ में
In addition to	से जोड़ते हुए
On the behalf of	की तरफ से
In case of	की स्थिति में
In comparison to	से तुलना करते हुए
In compliance with	के मुताबिक
In consequence of	के परिणाम में
In course of	के कम में
In favor of	के हित में
In lieu of	की जगह पर
In order to	के लिए
In reference to	के संदर्भ में
In regard to	से जुड़ा हुआ
In the event of	के घटना कम में
On account of	के कारण
On condition that	की स्थिति में
Owing to	के कारण
With a view to	के नजरिये से

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Word Meaning

मैं	I	वह लड़का	he
तुम	you	वह लड़की	she
हम	we	वे लोग	they

मैं	I	मेरा	my	मुझे	me
तुम	you	तुम्हारा	your	तुम्हें	you
हम	we	हमारा	our	हमें	us
वह	he	उसका	his	उसे	him
वह	she	उसकी	her	उसे	her
वे	they	उनका	their	उन्हें	them

Verb Patterns

लिखना	write	wrote	written
पढ़ना	read	read	read
बोलना	speak	spoke	spoken
पढ़ाना	teach	taught	taught
दौड़ना	run	ran	run
लेना	take	took	taken
देना	give	gave	given
खरीदना	buy	bought	bought
बेचना	sell	sold	sold
रोना	cry	cried	cried
हंसना	laugh	laughed	laughed
पीटना	beat	beat	beaten
डांटना	scold	scolded	scolded
बताना	tell	told	told
भेजना	send	sent	sent
सुनना	hear	heard	heard
जीतना	win	won	won
करना	do	did	done
सुनाना	narrate	narrated	narrated
प्यार करना	love	loved	loved
गाना	sing	sang	sung
गाली देना	abuse	abused	abused
पाना	get	got	gotten
रहना	live	lived	lived
मदद करना	help	helped	helped
पूछना	ask	asked	asked

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जवाब देना	answer	answered	answered
पसंद करना	like	liked	liked
भरोसा करना	trust	trusted	trusted
ठहरना	stay	stayed	stayed
खेलना	play	played	played
देखना	see	saw	seen
पीना	drink	drank	drunk
खाना	eat	ate	eaten
जाना	go	went	gone
आना	come	came	come
धोखा देना	cheat	cheated	cheated
बनाना	make	made	made
मारना	kill	killed	killed
मरना	die	died	died
हराना	defeat	defeated	defeated
सलाह देना	advise	advised	advised
तोड़ना	break	broke	broken
शादी करना	marry	married	married
चलाना	drive	drove	driven
बुलाना	call	called	called
पहुंचना	reach	reached	reached
रखना	put	put	put
दिखाना	show	showed	showed
उठना	get up	got up	got up
बैठना	sit	sat	sat
बात करना	talk	talked	talked
मिलना	meet	met	met
जानना	know	knew	known
गिरफतार करना	arrest	arrested	arrested
समझना	understand	understood	understood
सीखना	learn	learnt	learnt
लड़ना	fight	fought	fought
भूलना	forget	forgot	forgotten

	Word Meaning
दुर्घटना	accident
भविष्य	future
उज्वल	bright
उत्साहित करना	encourage
देशप्रेम	country-love
भी	also
गुजरा समय	past

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Word Meaning

यहां	here	क्योंकि	because
वहां	there	वापस	back
रोज	daily	शहर	city
कोई	any	पूरा करना	complete
सवाल	question	तभी	only then
वहां से	from there	जिन्दा रहना	survive
कुछ	anything	ये	these
चोर	thief	सबकुछ	everything
इन दिनों	these days	याद रखना	remember
कितना	how much	बनना	be
जबतक	until	कितना	how much
लेकिन	but	के लिए	for
जब	when	तारीफ करना	appreciate
फिर भी	still	बारे में	about
अगर	if	विश्वास करना	believe
जो	who / what	साथ देना	support
दूसरे	other	छुपाना	hide
कि	that	राजनेता	politicians
सिर्फ	only	गुमराह करना	mislead
ठीक तरह	properly	सामना करना	face
हमेशा	always	सही	proper
लोग	people	बदलना	change
इसलिए	so	पढ़ाई करना	study
सोचना	think	राजनीति	politics
घर	home	पहले	before
लेना	take	और ज्यादा	any more
सच	truth	अब तक	till now
झूठ बोलना	lie with	जुल्म करना	oppress
कमाना	earn	इलाज करना	cure
रोकना	stop	सिपाही	soldier
गरीब	poor	बददुआ देना	curse
जैसा	as	कर्म	deeds
नफरत करना	hate	खर्च करना	spend
मुश्किल	trouble	सलाह	advice
छोड़ना	leave	बार बार	again and again
माफ करना	forgive	खाना बनाना	cook
यह सब	all this	के रूप में	as
मांफी मांगना	apologize	उम्मीद करना	except
गलती	mistake	सामान	luggage
समस्या	problem	हटाना	remove
सुलझाना	solve	डरना	fear
विदेशी	foreigner	बहाना	excuse
शक	doubt	बचाना	save
दूर करना	clear	सम्मान करना	respect
कौन सी	which	खोलना	open
भाषा	language	रहस्य	secret
नियुक्त करना	apoint		

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Randolph Quirk
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LONGMAN

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Index by David Crystal

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Preface

From the time when we started collaborating as a team in the 1960s, we envisaged not a grammar but a series of grammars. In 1972, there appeared the first volume in this series, *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (*GCE*). This was followed soon afterwards by two shorter works, *A Communicative Grammar of English* (*CGE*) and *A University Grammar of English* (*UGE*, published in the United States with the title *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English*). These two were in part an abridgment of *GCE*, but what is more significant is that they were deliberately different both from the parent book and from each other. This is particularly obvious in the case of *CGE*, which looks at the whole grammar of the language from a semantic and communicative viewpoint. It is less obviously true of *UGE*, which follows the chapter divisions and in most cases the chapter titles of *GCE*, though in fact the abridgment was accompanied by a good deal of fresh thinking and radical revision.

With *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, we attempt something much more ambitious: a culmination of our joint work, which results in a grammar that is considerably larger and richer than *GCE* and hence superordinate to it. Yet, as with our other volumes since *GCE*, it is also a grammar that incorporates our own further research on grammatical structure as well as the research of scholars world-wide who have contributed to the description of English and to developments in linguistic theory.

It scarcely needs to be said that we take full collective responsibility for the contents of this book. But what does indeed need to be said is that it has been immeasurably improved as a result of the generous assistance that we have received, not least from our own students. We have benefited too from the perceptive attention that *GCE*, *UGE*, and *CGE* have received from reviewers throughout the world. But in addition to these scholars and writers, in addition also to the numerous scholars that we acknowledged in earlier prefaces, a further willing band of linguists put themselves generously at our disposal in giving detailed attention to earlier drafts of what has become *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*.

Some few have even undertaken the heavy task of giving a detailed critique of the entire book in such an earlier draft. For their searching work to this degree, we are especially indebted to John Algeo, R A Close, and Robert de Beaugrande, who between them produced hundreds of pages of invaluable comments. But we are grateful also to W N Francis and Bengt Jacobsson, who gave comparably generous and skilled attention to large parts of the book.

Many other scholars have helped us with one or more individual chapters or with specific problems in the description of grammar. We list their names, but this can in no way convey our degree of gratitude or indicate the intellectual effort from which we have benefited: V Adams, B Altenberg, E Andersson, W-D Bald, D L Bolinger, J Coates, R Cureton, L Haegeman, R Ilson, S Johansson, H Kakehi (and his Kobe students), H Kinoshita, T

Lavelle, B Lott, C F Meyer, T Nevalainen, W J Pepicello, G Stein, J Taglicht, J Thompson, G Tottie, T Waida, K Wales. The fact that some of these friends are among the most eminent experts in the world on American, British, and other varieties of English has contributed beyond measure to the confidence with which we assign such descriptive labels as 'AmE' and 'BrE'.

Finally, we take great pleasure in making clear that David Crystal's role has extended far beyond what is indicated on the title page. He has not merely provided the detailed index which will make 'information retrieval' possible; in addition, in the course of this onerous and highly specialized task, he has contributed pervasively to the correction of error, the standardization of terminology, and the improvement of presentation.

But this Preface would be sadly incomplete if we did not also record our gratitude to the grant-giving bodies whose financial help (over and above the support we have received from University College London, Lund University, the University of Lancaster, and the University of Wisconsin) has made our research and writing possible: the Leverhulme Trust, the Gulbenkian Foundation, the Social Science Research Council, the British Academy, the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation, the Bank of Sweden Tercentenary Foundation, and our publishers, the Longman Group.

RQ SG GL JS
February 1985

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Pronunciation table

CONSONANTS				VOWELS	
VOICELESS		VOICED			
/p/	pig	/b/	big	/iː/	sheep
/t/	ten	/d/	den	/ɪ/	ship
/k/	cot	/g/	got	/e/	bed
/f/	fat	/v/	vat	/æ/	bad
/θ/	thin	/ð/	then	/ɑː/	calm
/s/	soon	/z/	zero	/ɒ/	pot
/ʃ/	fish	/ʒ/	pleasure	/ɔː/	caught
/tʃ/	cheap	/dʒ/	jeep	/ʊ/	put
/h/	hot	/m/	sum	/uː/	boot
		/n/	sun	/ʌ/	cut
		/ŋ/	sung	/ɜːʳ/	bird
		/l/	led	/ə/	above
		/r/	red	/eɪ/	day
		/j/	yet	/əʊ/	coal
		/w/	wet	/aɪ/	lie
				/aʊ/	now
				/ɔɪ/	boy
				/ɪəʳ/	here
				/eəʳ/	there
				/ʊəʳ/	poor
				/eɪəʳ/	player
				/əʊəʳ/	lower
				/aɪəʳ/	tire
				/aʊəʳ/	tower
				/ɔɪəʳ/	employer

Syllabic consonants are indicated thus: n̩, l̩

/ʳ/ denotes the possibility (*eg* in AmE) of 'postvocalic r'.

For indications of stress, intonation, and other prosodic features see App II.

Abbreviations and symbols

A	adverbial
A_o	object-related adverbial
A_s	subject-related adverbial
AmE	American English
aux	auxiliary
BrE	British English
C	complement
C_o	object complement
C_s	subject complement
comp	comparative
E	end position of adverbial
-ed	*-ed* participle form
eM	end-medial position of adverbial
I	initial position of adverbial
iE	initial-end position of adverbial
iM	initial-medial position of adverbial
I/M	initial or medial position of adverbial
-ing	*-ing* participle form
LOB	Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen corpus
M	medial position of adverbial
mM	medial-medial position of adverbial
NP	noun phrase
O	object
O_d	direct object
O_i	indirect object
oblig	obligatory
op	operator
opt	optional
pass	passive
ph	phrasal verb
ph-pr	phrasal-prepositional verb
pr	prepositional verb
R	regular variant (in Ch. 3)
-s	3rd person singular present tense form
S	subject
SEU	Survey of English Usage
StE	Standard English
SV	subject + verb
SVA	subject + verb + adverbial
SVC	subject + verb + complement
SVO	subject + verb + object
SVOO	subject + verb + 2 objects
SVOC	subject + verb + object + complement
SVOA	subject + verb + object + adverbial

} basic structures

T_1	primary time-orientation (in Ch. 4)
T_2	secondary time-orientation (in Ch. 4)
T_3	tertiary time-orientation (in Ch. 4)
V	verb
V-ed_1	past tense form of the verb (in Ch. 3)
V-ed_2	*-ed* participle form of the verb (in Ch. 3)
*	unacceptable
?*	tending to unacceptability, but not fully unacceptable
?	native speakers unsure about acceptability
(*), (?)	native speakers differ in their reactions
( )	optional constituent
[ ]	comment (with examples); constituent boundaries; phonetic transcription
⟨ ⟩	style label (after examples); modified constituent (7.50); focused unit (8.116)
{ }	free alternatives, as in:

$$\text{He came} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{to} \\ \text{from} \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{London} \\ \text{New York} \end{Bmatrix}$$

[ ]	contingent alternatives, as in:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{He} \\ \text{She} \end{bmatrix} \text{does} \begin{bmatrix} \text{his} \\ \text{her} \end{bmatrix} \text{best}$$

/	alternatives (in examples)
/ /	phonological transcription
~	systematic correspondence between structures
≁	no systematic correspondence between structures
△	ellipsis marker, indicating grammatical omission
▲	indicates possible semantic implication (in Ch. 19)
=	semantically equivalent
≠	semantically nonequivalent

a ˈbetter GRÀMmar |

Capitals in examples indicate *nuclear* syllables, accents indicate *intonation*, raised verticals *stress*, and long verticals *tone unit boundaries*; for all conventions relating to prosody, see App II.

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The English language today

The importance of English

1.1 English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. It is perhaps worth glancing briefly at the basis for that evaluation. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and each will seem uniquely important to those who speak it as their native language, the language they acquired at their mother's knee. But there are more objective standards of relative importance.

One criterion is the number of speakers of the language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed: in how many continents and countries is it used or is a knowledge of it necessary? A third is its functional load: how extensive is the range of purposes for which it is used? In particular, to what extent is it the medium for highly valued cultural manifestations such as a science or a literature? A fourth is the economic and political influence of the native speakers of the language.

1.2 If we restrict the first criterion to native speakers of the language, the number of speakers of English is more than 300 million, and English ranks well below Chinese (which has over three times that number of speakers). The second criterion, the geographical dispersal of the language, invites comparison with (for example) Hebrew, Latin, and Arabic as languages used in major world religions, though only Arabic has a substantial number of speakers. But the spread of English over most of the world as an international language is a unique phenomenon in the world's history: about 1500 million people – over a third of the world's population – live in countries where English has some official status or is one of the native languages, if not the dominant native language. By the third criterion, the great literatures of the Orient spring to mind, not to mention the languages of Tolstoy, Goethe, Cervantes, and Racine. But in addition to being the language of the still more distinguished Shakespeare, English leads as the primary medium for twentieth-century science and technology. The fourth criterion invokes Japanese, Russian, and German, for example, as languages of powerful, productive, and influential nations. But English is the language of the United States, whose gross domestic product in 1980 was more than double that of its nearest competitor, Japan.

No claim has here been made for the importance of English on the grounds of its quality as a language (the size of its vocabulary, its relative lack of inflections, the alleged flexibility of its syntax). The choice of an international language, or lingua franca, is never based on linguistic or aesthetic criteria but always on political, economic, and demographic ones.

The use of English

1.3 English is the world's most widely used language. A distinction is often made that depends on how the language is learned: as a *native* language (or *mother tongue*), acquired when the speaker is a young child (generally in the home), or as a *nonnative* language, acquired at some subsequent period. Overlapping with this distinction is that between its use as a *first* language, the primary

language of the speaker, and as an *additional* language. In some countries (particularly of course where it is the dominant native language), English is used principally for internal purposes as an *intranational* language, for speakers to communicate with other speakers of the same country; in others it serves chiefly as an *international* language, the medium of communication with speakers from other countries.

One well-established categorization makes a three-way distinction between a *native* language, a *second* language, and a *foreign* language. As a foreign language English is used for international communication, but as a second language it is used chiefly for intranational purposes. We can distinguish five types of function for which English characteristically serves as a medium when it is a second language: (1) *instrumental*, for formal education; (2) *regulative*, for government administration and the law courts; (3) *communicative*, for interpersonal communication between individuals speaking different native languages; (4) *occupational*, both intranationally and internationally for commerce and for science and technology; (5) *creative*, for nontechnical writings, such as fiction and political works.

Note [a] A bilingual child may have more than one native language, and a bilingual adult may be equally proficient in more than one first language. In some countries, English is one of two or more languages, and as a foreign language too it may be one of several that are known.
[b] Although one's native language is usually also one's first language, it need not be. People may migrate to a country where a language different from their native tongue is spoken. If they become proficient in the new language and use it extensively, that nonnative language may become their first language, displacing the native tongue. Such displacement has occurred, for example, among Pakistanis in the United Kingdom and among Vietnamese in the United States.
[c] Second-language writers in Southeast Asia and in East and West Africa are making important contributions to English literature. Their writings may incorporate features characteristic of their second-language variety, including rhetorical and stylistic features, but they are generally addressed to, and read by, an international English readership.

Native and second language

1.4 English is spoken as a *native* language by more than 300 million people, most of them living in North America, the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean, and South Africa. In several of these countries, English is not the sole language: the Quebec province of Canada is French-speaking, most South Africans speak Afrikaans or Bantu languages, and many Irish and Welsh people speak Celtic languages. But those whose native language is not English will have English as their *second* language for certain governmental, commercial, social, or educational activities within their own country.

English is also a second language in many countries where only a small proportion of the people have English as their native language. In about twenty-five countries English has been legally designated as an official language: in about ten (such as Nigeria) it is the sole official language, and in some fifteen others (such as India) it shares that status with one or more other languages. Most of these countries are former British territories. Despite the association of the English language with the former colonial rulers, it has been retained for pragmatic reasons: where no one native language is generally acceptable, English is a neutral language that is politically acceptable, at least at the national level, for administrative and legal

functions; and as an international language for science and technology it is desirable for higher education. English is an official language in countries of such divergent backgrounds as India, Nigeria, and Liberia, while in numerous other countries (Burma, Thailand, South Korea, and some Middle Eastern countries) it is used for higher education. In Sri Lanka, English at one time lost its official status, while retaining its social, cultural, and economic importance, but it has been reestablished as an official language; indeed, as a result of the increase in secondary education more people today learn English there than at any time during the colonial period. It has been estimated that English is a second language for well over 300 million people: the number of second-language speakers may soon exceed the number of native speakers, if it has not done so already.

Note The significance of English for higher education in second language countries is reflected in statistics for book publishing and literacy in 1981/82 in India. India emerged as the world's third largest publisher of books in English and forty-one per cent of titles produced there were in English, although only 2.3 per cent of the population were literate in English. But that tiny percentage represented 15 million people.

Foreign language

1.5 By *foreign* language we mean a language used by persons for communication across frontiers or with others who are not from their country: listening to broadcasts, reading books or newspapers, engaging in commerce or travel, for example. No language is more widely studied or used as a foreign language than English. The desire to learn it is at the present time immense and apparently insatiable. American organizations such as the United States Information Agency (USIA) and the Voice of America have played a notable role in recent years, in close and amicable liaison with the British Council, which provides support for English teaching both in the Commonwealth and in other countries throughout the world. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), like the USIA, has notable radio and television facilities devoted to this purpose. Other English-speaking countries such as Australia also assume heavy responsibilities for teaching English as a foreign language.

We shall look more closely in the next sections at the kind and degree of demand, but meantime the reasons for the demand have surely become clear. To put it bluntly, English is a top requirement of those seeking good jobs, and is often the language in which much of the business of good jobs is conducted. It is needed for access to at least half of the world's scientific literature, and the most important scientific journals are in English. It is thus intimately associated with technological and economic development and it is the principal language of international aid. The great manufacturing countries Germany and Japan use English as their principal advertising and sales medium; it is the language of automation and computer technology. Not only is it the universal language of international aviation, shipping, and sport, it is to a considerable degree the universal language of literacy and public communication. It is the major language of diplomacy, and is the most frequently used language both in the debates in the United Nations and in the general conduct of UN business.

Note [a] Some measure of the number and importance of publications in English is provided by the number of translations of English books. In 1977 out of a world total of 50 047 translations of books, 19 577 were from English. The nearest competitors were Russian (6771) and French (6054).

[b] The pervasive influence of English has induced language academies or other language-planning agencies in some countries to attempt to control the range of its functions and to prevent the acceptance of Englishisms (English loan words and loan translations) into their national languages, at least in official writing.

The demand for English

The teaching of English

1.6 The role of chief foreign language that French occupied for two centuries from about 1700 has been assumed by English – except of course in the English-speaking countries themselves, where French or (in the United States) Spanish is the foreign language most widely studied. Although patriotism obliges international organizations to devote far more resources to translation and interpreter services than reason would dictate, no senior post would be offered to a candidate deficient in English. The general equivalent of the nineteenth-century European 'finishing school' in French is perhaps the English-medium school organized through the state education system, and such institutions seem to be even more numerous in the Soviet Union and other East European countries than in countries to the West. There are also innumerable commercial institutions that teach English at all levels and to all ages, both in non-English-speaking countries and in English-speaking countries. Most language learning, of course, takes place in the ordinary schools of the state educational system.

The extent to which English is studied at the school level is shown in one analysis of the educational statistics for 112 countries where English is not a native language, but is either a foreign language or a second language. The study estimates that over 46 million primary school students and over 71 million secondary school students were in English classes in the early 1970s. These figures represent over 15 per cent of the primary school population and over 76 per cent of the secondary school population for those countries. It is significant that English was the medium of instruction for 30 per cent of the primary school students and for nearly 16 per cent of the secondary school students. Estimated figures would have been far higher if statistics for all non-English-speaking countries had been included. (A notable exclusion from the study was the People's Republic of China.) Since the secondary school population is increasing at a rapid rate in the developing countries, we can expect that the number of English learners at the secondary level has increased very considerably since the early 1970s.

Outside the primary and secondary schools, there are large numbers of students in institutions of higher and further education who are learning English for a variety of purposes: as the medium of the literature and culture of English-speaking countries; for access to scholarly and technological publications; to qualify as English teachers, translators, or interpreters; to improve their chances of employment or promotion in such areas as the tourist trade, international commerce, or international programmes for economic or military aid. In countries where it is a second language, English

is commonly used as the medium for higher education, at least for scientific and technological subjects, even when it is not so used at the primary or secondary levels.

Many students come from abroad for their higher and further education to English-speaking countries, where English is of course the medium for their studies. In 1979, there were 286 340 foreign students enrolled at the post-secondary level of education in the United States, 56 877 in the United Kingdom, and 32 148 in Canada (where some will have studied in French-speaking institutions), apart from smaller numbers in other English-speaking countries. The country with the next highest figure after the United States was France, which had 112 042 foreign students in the same year.

School models of English

1.7 In countries where English is predominantly the native language, the form of written English taught in the schools is normally the STANDARD variety (*cf* 1.23), the variety associated with the educated users of the language in that country. However, it is now less usual than in the past for teachers to attempt to make the local spoken variety conform with some educated spoken norm.

In countries where English is a nonnative language, the major models for both writing and speech have generally been the standard varieties of British and American English. The choice between them has depended on various factors: whether the country was formerly a British or a US colony; its proximity to Britain or the United States; which of the two had most influenced its economic, cultural, or scientific development; and current commercial or political relations. In some countries both American and British standard varieties are taught, sometimes in different institutions, sometimes in the same institution.

The situation has been changing in those countries where English is a second language, used extensively for intranational purposes in the absence of a commonly accepted national language. In countries such as India and Nigeria indigenous educated varieties are becoming institutionalized and are acquiring social acceptability. In the meantime, teachers in those countries are uncertain, or vary, about the norms to which their teaching should be geared: to those of the evolving local standard or to those of some external standard. Such uncertainties are analogous to the uncertainties among teachers in native-English countries over divided usages or prescriptive norms that differ from their own usage (*cf* 1.17).

Where English is a foreign language, we may expect the American and British standard varieties to continue to be the major models, competing increasingly with the standard varieties of other countries such as Australia, in regions that are within the sphere of influence of those countries.

Note Countries where English is a foreign language may develop, to some extent, independent prescriptive norms that are enshrined in handbooks and textbooks and that are reflected in examination questions.

The international character of English

1.8 English is preeminently the most international of languages. Though the name of the language may at once remind us of England, or we may associate

the language with the United States, one of the world's superpowers, English carries less implication of political or cultural specificity than any other living tongue (Spanish and French being also notable in this respect). At one and the same time, English serves the daily purposes of republics such as the United States and South Africa, sharply different in size, population, climate, economy, and national philosophy; and it serves an ancient realm such as the United Kingdom, as well as her widely scattered Commonwealth partners, themselves as different from each other as they are from Britain herself.

But the cultural neutrality of English must not be pressed too far. The literal or metaphorical use of such expressions as *case law* throughout the English-speaking world reflects a common heritage in the legal system; and allusions to or quotations from Shakespeare, the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible, Gray's *Elegy*, Mark Twain, a sea shanty, a Negro spiritual, or a pop song – wittingly or not – testify similarly to a shared culture. *The Continent* can have its British meaning of 'continental Europe' in the United States and even in Australia and New Zealand. At other times, English equally reflects the independent and distinct culture of one or other of the English-speaking communities. When an Australian speaks of *fossicking* something out ['searching for something'], the metaphor looks back to the desperate activity of reworking the diggings of someone else in the hope of finding gold that had been overlooked. When an American speaks of *not getting to first base* ['not achieving even initial success'], the metaphor concerns an equally culture-specific activity – the game of baseball. And when an Englishman says that something is *not cricket* ['unfair'], the allusion is also to a game that is by no means universal in the English-speaking countries.

The future of English

1.9 Predictions – often gloomy – have been made about the future of English. It is worth considering the bases for such predictions with respect to the various uses of English.

A single international language has long been thought to be the ideal for international communication. Artificially-constructed languages have never acquired sufficiently large numbers of adherents, although in principle such languages have the obvious advantage that they put all learners on the same footing (all are nonnative speakers), thereby not giving an advantage to speakers of any particular language. During the last few decades English has come closest to being the single international language, having achieved a greater world spread than any other language in recorded history. Yet in recent years doubts have arisen whether it will ever reach the ideal of the single international language or, indeed, whether its use as an international language will continue at the present level.

One reason for the doubts has been the fear that national varieties of English are rapidly growing further apart and will finally separate into mutually incomprehensible languages. Fears have also been expressed that justifiable sensitivity to the child's right to use his native dialect (regional, socioeconomic, or ethnic) within a national variety might lead to the abandonment of a national standard dialect and hence to the further

disintegration of English. The diversity in English is greatest in countries where English is a second language and therefore has to be taught. Since in those countries students are usually taught by teachers who are themselves not native speakers of English and who have inevitably acquired the language to varying degrees of adequacy, it is not surprising that the standards of achievement are variable and subject to change. Some express concern about the excessive internal variability and the ill-acquired control of the language in such situations. Some fear the divisive effect of the emerging institutionalized varieties, which no longer look to native varieties for standards of acceptability.

1.10 While fears for the disintegration of English cannot be dismissed summarily, powerful forces are operating to preserve the unity of the language. Despite considerable dialectal differences within each national variety, the education systems have preserved the essential similarity of the national standards. The traditional spelling system generally ignores both the changes in pronunciation over time and the variations in pronunciation through space; despite its notorious vagaries, it is a unifying force in world English. Many factors are conducive to making differences in national varieties familiar and comprehensible: there is the influence of newspapers, magazines, and books on the written medium and of radio, television, and film on the spoken medium. Teachers and students can be made sensitive to, and tolerant of, language variation, and national examination systems can be made flexible enough to take account of variation. Despite a growing tolerance of nonstandard variation in speech, standard forms remain the norm for written English.

The future of English as an international language has also been said to rest on the practicability of teaching the language, especially on a mass scale, to the level required for international usefulness, given the enormous expenditures required for the purpose. It is possible that as developing countries become richer they will be able to increase their expenditure on the teaching of English and raise the levels of teacher and student proficiency. At all events, programmes have been devised to restrict the goals of language learning, thereby allowing a more realistic deployment of educational resources, as in the Teaching of English for Specific Purposes, for example for business or scientific communication. Following earlier attempts (such as 'Basic English') that were largely lexical, a proposal has also recently been made for constructing a simplified form of English (termed 'Nuclear English') that would contain a subset of the features of natural English; for example, modal auxiliaries such as *can* and *may* would be replaced by such paraphrases as *be able to* and *be allowed to*. The simplified form would be intelligible to speakers of any major national variety and could be expanded for specific purposes, for example for international maritime communication.

The long-range continuance of English as a second language is also questionable in some countries. The eagerness for rapid technological advancement conflicts with the demands for the establishment of authentic links with past native traditions: objections to an official status for English and calls for its replacement by native languages are expressions of national pride and independence. Since a good command of English is usually restricted to an elite, we may expect political resentment against a minority

second language that brings benefits to those proficient in it. English is likely to be retained as an official language as long as no specific native language is politically acceptable to all, but we can expect that in at least some countries indigenous languages will become sufficiently dominant to acquire sole official status and eventually to displace English. In such cases English will gradually become recognized as a foreign language. However, irrespective of the degree of world influence exercised by the English-speaking countries themselves, English is likely to be retained generally as the medium for higher education as long as the major English-speaking countries retain their economic and political status.

Standards of English

1.11 Complaints by native speakers that English is deteriorating or being corrupted reflect in the main a conservative resistance to change. Some language changes result in the loss of distinctions, but if a distinction is needed the loss will be compensated for. For example, in some regional varieties the distinction between the singular and plural meanings of *you* has been retained by the use of such expressions as *you-all* or *you guys* for the plural meanings (*cf* 6.12 Notes [a, b]). The introduction of specific new words or expressions (such as *prioritize* or *interface*) sometimes provokes violent indignation, often conveyed in ethical terms. Usually the objections to the innovations (or supposed innovations) reflect objections to their typical users. Some of the complaints relate to variants that are in divided usage among speakers of the standard variety; for example, *graduated from* and *was graduated from* in American English, or *different from* and *different to* in British English. In yet other instances the forms are clearly recognized as unacceptable in the standard variety (such as the multiple negative in *I don't want no money from no one*; *cf* 10.63 Note), though they may be acceptable in some nonstandard varieties. Relatively few points are at issue. They do not justify generalizations about the state of the language as a whole.

Some native speakers claim that the *use* of the language is deteriorating. One charge is ethical: people are said to be abusing the language, more so than in the past, with intent to conceal, mislead, or deceive, generally through euphemism or obscure language. Usually, the accusation is directed principally against politicians, bureaucrats, and advertisers, but the abuse is felt to have an adverse effect on the language as such. Certainly, the contemporary mass media facilitate the rapid and widespread dissemination of such language abuses. The other charge is aesthetic or functional: people are said to be using the language less elegantly or less efficiently than in the recent past, a charge that is commonly directed against young people. The charge may or may not have some justification, but in any case is impossible to substantiate. Many variables inhibit the feasibility of making valid and reliable comparisons with earlier periods: for example, the phenomenal growth of the literate population and of the use of the written language.

Note On standard and nonstandard English, *cf* 1.22. On varieties of standard English, *cf* 1.23*ff*.

Grammar and the study of language

Types of linguistic organization

Sounds and spellings

1.12 We claim that on the one hand there is a single English language (the grammar of which is the concern of this book), and that on the other hand there are recognizable varieties. Since these varieties can have reflexes in any of the types of organization that the linguist distinguishes, this is the point at which we should outline the types, one of which is grammar. When people speak, they emit a stream of sounds. We hear the sounds not as indefinitely variable in acoustic quality (however much they may be so in actual physical fact). Rather, we hear them as each corresponding to one of the very small set of sound units (in English, /p/, /l/, /n/, /ɪ/, /ð/, /s/ . . .) which can combine in certain ways and not in others. For example, in English we have *spin* but not **psin*. (On the use of the asterisk and similar symbols, see 1.42.) We similarly observe patterns of stress and pitch. The rules for the organization of sound units (or phonemes) are studied in the branch of linguistics known as PHONOLOGY, while the physical properties of sounds and their manner of articulation are studied in PHONETICS.

The other major method of linguistic communication is by writing; and for English as for many other languages an alphabetic writing system has been developed, the symbols related in the main to the individual sounds used in the language. Here again there is a closely structured organization which regards certain differences in shape as irrelevant and others (for example capitals versus lower case, ascenders to the left or right of a circle, *eg*: *b* versus *d*) as significant. The study of ORTHOGRAPHY (or more inclusively, GRAPHOLOGY or GRAPHEMICS) thus parallels the study of phonology in several ways. Despite the notorious oddities of English spelling, there are general principles: *eg* combinations of letters that English permits (*tch*, *qu*, *ss*, *oo*) and others that are disallowed (**pfx*, **qo*) or have only restricted distribution (final *v* or *j* occurs only exceptionally as in *Raj*, *spiv*).

Lexicology, grammar, semantics, pragmatics

1.13 Just as the small set of arabic numerals can be combined to express in writing any natural numbers we like, however vast, so the small set of sounds and letters can be combined to express in speech and writing respectively an indefinitely large number of WORDS. These linguistic units enable people to refer to every object, action, and quality that members of a society wish to distinguish: in English, *door*, *soap*, *indignation*, *find*, *stupefy*, *good*, *uncontrollable*, and so on to a total exceeding the half million words listed in unabridged dictionaries. These units have a meaning and a structure (sometimes an obviously composite structure as in cases like *uncontrollable*) which relate them not only to the world outside language but to other words within the language (*happy* to *happiness*, *unhappy*, etc; *good* to *bad*, *kind*, etc; *door* to *room*, *key*, etc). The study of words is the business of LEXICOLOGY, but the regularities in their formation are similar in kind to the regularities of grammar and are closely connected to them (*cf* App I.1*ff*). It is GRAMMAR

that is our primary concern in this book. Words must be combined into larger units, and grammar encompasses the complex set of rules specifying such combination. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of SEMANTICS, the study of meaning, and semantics therefore has relevance equally within lexicology and within grammar. Finally, the meaning of linguistic expressions when uttered within particular types of situation is dealt with in PRAGMATICS, which is concerned with the communicative force of linguistic utterances. Two terms are employed for the interconnection of grammar and the uses of grammar: TEXT LINGUISTICS and DISCOURSE ANALYSIS. All types of organization (but notably lexicology and grammar) enter into the structure of TEXTS, which constitute spoken and written discourse (*cf* Chapter 19).

The meanings of 'grammar'

Syntax and inflections

1.14 The word 'grammar' has various meanings, and since grammar is the subject matter of this book we should explore the most common meanings of the word. We shall be using 'grammar' to include both SYNTAX and that aspect of MORPHOLOGY (the internal structure of words) that deals with INFLECTIONS (or ACCIDENCE). The fact that the past tense of *buy* is *bought* [inflection] and the fact that the interrogative form of *He bought it* is *Did he buy it?* [syntax] are therefore both equally the province of grammar. There is nothing technical about our usage in this respect: it corresponds to one of the common lay uses of the word in the English-speaking world. A teacher may comment:

> John uses good grammar but his spelling is awful.

The comment shows that spelling is excluded from grammar; and if John wrote *interloper* where the context demanded *interpreter*, the teacher would say that he had used the wrong word, not that he had made a mistake in grammar. But in the education systems of the English-speaking countries, it is possible also to use the term 'grammar' loosely so as to include both spelling and lexicology.

There is a further use of 'grammar' that derives from a period in which the teaching of Latin and Greek was widespread. Since the aspect of Latin grammar on which teaching has traditionally concentrated is the paradigms (or model sets) of inflections, it made sense for the learner to say:

> Latin has a good deal of grammar, but English has hardly any.

This meaning of 'grammar' has continued to be used by lay native speakers. In effect, grammar is identified with inflections, so that nonspecialists may still speak of 'grammar and syntax', tacitly excluding the latter from the former.

Note The term *grammar school* (used in several English-speaking countries, though not always with reference to the same type of school) reflects the historical fact that certain schools concentrated at one time on the teaching of Latin and Greek. One sometimes comes upon the lay supposition that such schools do or should make a special effort to teach *English* grammar.

Rules and the native speaker

1.15 Nor have we completed the inventory of meanings. The same native speaker, turning his attention from Latin, may comment:

> French has a well-defined grammar, but in English we're free to speak as we like.

To begin with, it is clear that the speaker cannot now be intending to restrict 'grammar' to inflections: rather the converse; it would seem to be used as a virtual synonym of 'syntax'.

Secondly, the native speaker's comment probably owes a good deal to the fact that he does not feel the rules of his own language – rules that he has acquired unconsciously – to be at all constraining; and if ever he happens to be called on to explain one such rule to a foreigner he has very great difficulty. By contrast, the grammatical rules he learns for a foreign language seem much more rigid and they also seem clearer because they have been actually spelled out to him in the learning process.

But another important point is revealed in this sentence. The distinction refers to 'grammar' not as the observed patterns in the use of French but as a codification of rules compiled by the French (especially by the Académie Française) to show the French themselves how their language should be used. This is not grammar 'immanent' in a language (as our previous uses were, however much they differed in the types of pattern they referred to), but grammar as codified by grammarians: the Academy Grammar. There is no such Academy for the English language and so (our naive native speaker imagines) the English speaker has more 'freedom' in his usage.

The codification of rules

1.16 The 'codification' sense of grammar is readily identified with the specific codification by a specific grammarian:

> Jespersen wrote a good grammar, and so did Kruisinga.

And this sense naturally leads to the concrete use as in:

> Did you bring your grammars?

Naturally, too, the codification may refer to grammar in any of the senses already mentioned. The codification will also vary, however, according to the linguistic theory embraced by the authors, their idea of the nature of grammar rather than their statement of the grammar of a particular language:

> Chomsky developed a transformational grammar that differed considerably from earlier grammars.

In the usage of many leading linguists, this last sense of grammar has returned to the catholicity that it had in the Greek tradition more than 2000 years ago, covering the whole field of language structure. Thus, in the framework of formal linguistics, some grammarians speak of 'the grammar' as embracing rules not only for syntax but for phonological, lexical, and semantic specification as well.

Note Accidents of intellectual history in the nineteenth century result in the fact that an old-fashioned

Old High German grammar (or an Old English grammar) may well contain only inflections together with a detailed explanation of how the phonological system emerged.

Prescriptive grammar

1.17 Finally we come to the use of 'grammar' in statements such as:

It's bad grammar to end a sentence with a preposition.

Here the term refers to a way of speaking or writing that is to be either preferred or avoided. Such statements pertain to PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR, a set of regulations that are based on what is evaluated as correct or incorrect in the standard varieties. Since we do not have an Academy of the English Language, there is no one set of regulations that could be considered 'authoritative'. Instead, evaluations are made by self-appointed authorities who, reflecting varying judgments of acceptability and appropriateness, often disagree.

Authorities on USAGE, in this restricted sense, primarily deal with DISPUTED usage, a relatively small number of syntactic and lexical items that are controversial within the standard varieties. Their objections may persuade some to avoid certain usages, at least in their formal writing. Over the last two centuries prescriptive rules have accumulated into a general prescriptive tradition for formal writing that is embodied (with some variation) in school textbooks and student reference handbooks, and in usage guides for the general public.

As an occasional consequence of prescriptive pressures, some speakers have mistakenly extended particular prescriptive rules in an attempt to avoid mistakes. A classic instance of such HYPERCORRECTION is the use of *whom* as subject (*cf* 6.35 Note [a]). Others are the pseudo-subjunctive *were* as in *I wonder if he were here* and the use of the subjective pronoun *I* in the phrase *between you and I*.

Our primary concern in this book is to describe the grammar of English. But we occasionally refer to the prescriptive tradition not only because it may lead to hypercorrection but also because it may affect attitudes towards particular uses that may in turn influence the preferences of some native speakers, at least in formal or more considered styles. It may lead some, for example, to replace their usual *was* by subjunctive *were* in *If I was strong enough, I would help you*, or to replace *who* by *whom* in *the teacher who I most admired*.

Grammar and other types of organization

1.18 Progress towards a more explicit type of grammatical description is inevitably slow and the whole field of grammar is likely to remain an area of interesting controversy. While theoretical problems are not the concern of this book, our treatment cannot be neutral on the issues that enliven current discussion. For example, we would not wish to assert the total independence of grammar from phonology on the one hand and lexicology or semantics on the other as was implied in the deliberate oversimplification of 1.12*f*. Phonology is seen to have a bearing on grammar even in small points such as the association of initial /ð/ with demonstrativeness and conjunctions (*this, then, though*, etc, *cf* 2.37). More important are the phonological conditions for the *-s* and *-ed* inflections in verbs and nouns (*cf* 3.5*f*, 5.80). It is seen to bear on lexicology, for example, in the fact that some nouns and verbs differ only in the position of the stress (*cf* App I.56):

That is an 'insult.
They may in'sult me.

But most obviously the interdependence of phonology and grammar is shown in focus processes (*cf* the connection between intonation and linear presentation: 18.2*ff*, 19.25*f*), and in the fact that by merely altering the phonology one can distinguish sets of sentences like those quoted in App II.21.

The interrelations of grammar, lexicology, and semantics are manifested in the semantic restrictions (*cf* 10.51) that permit [1] and [2], but not [1a] and [2a]:

Fear replaced indecision.	[1]
*John replaced indecision.	[1a]
John hated indecision.	[2]
*Fear hated indecision.	[2a]

The borderline between grammar and semantics is unclear, and linguists will draw the line variously. We shall not give guidance on such constraints in this book.

Similarly, the borderline between grammar and pragmatics (and even more so between semantics and pragmatics) is unclear. Although we shall have occasion to refer to the kinds of intended speech behaviour (such as request and invitation) that may be conveyed through certain sentence types (*cf* particularly Chapter 11), we shall not attempt a comprehensive account. But we shall attempt to give every indication of the meaning of the constructions we discuss.

Our general principle will be to regard grammar as accounting for constructions where greatest generalization is possible, assigning to lexicology (and hence beyond the scope of this book) constructions on which least generalization can be formulated. In applying this principle we will necessarily make arbitrary decisions along the gradient from greatest to least generalization.

Varieties of English

Types of variation

1.19 Having indicated how we may speak of different types of linguistic organization such as phonology, lexicology, and grammar, we may now return to the point we had reached at the beginning of 1.12. What are the varieties of English whose differing properties are realized through the several types of linguistic organization?

Formulating a theoretical basis on which the varieties of any language can be described, interrelated, and studied is one of the prime concerns of the

branch of language study called SOCIOLINGUISTICS. This discipline is far from having achieved complete answers, and all attempts are in some degree oversimplifications.

We shall first consider five major types of variation. Any use of language necessarily involves variation within all five types, although for purposes of analysis we may abstract individual varieties (a related set of variation within one type).

(a) region (1.20*f*)
(b) social group (1.22*ff*)
(c) field of discourse (1.28)
(d) medium (1.29*f*)
(e) attitude (1.31*ff*)

The first two types of variation relate primarily to the language user. People use a regional variety because they live in a region or have once lived in that region. Similarly, people use a social variety because of their affiliation with a social group. These varieties are relatively permanent for the language user. At the same time, we should be aware that many people can communicate in more than one regional or social variety and can therefore (consciously or unconsciously) switch varieties according to the situation. And of course people move to other regions or change their social affiliations, and may then adopt a new regional or social variety.

The last three types of variation relate to language use. People select the varieties according to the situation and the purpose of the communication. The field of discourse relates to the activity in which they are engaged; the medium may be spoken or written, generally depending on the proximity of the participants in the communication; and the attitude expressed through language is conditioned by the relationship of the participants in the particular situation. A COMMON CORE or nucleus is present in all the varieties so that, however esoteric a variety may be, it has running through it a set of grammatical and other characteristics that are present in all the others. It is this fact that justifies the application of the name 'English' to all the varieties.

Note We have conspicuously omitted variation in time, since this book is solely concerned with the grammar of present-day English. Variation in the contemporary language, however, reflects in part historical change in progress. At any one period, older variants may coexist with newer variants, and some of the newer variants may eventually become the sole forms.

Regional variation

1.20 Varieties according to region have a well-established label both in popular and technical use: DIALECTS. Geographical dispersion is in fact the classic basis for linguistic variation, and in the course of time, with poor communications and relative remoteness, such dispersion results in dialects becoming so distinct that we regard them as different languages. This latter stage was long ago reached with the Germanic dialects that are now Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc, but it has not been reached (and may not necessarily ever be reached, given the modern ease and range of communication) with the dialects of English that have resulted from the regional separation of communities within the British Isles and (since the voyages of exploration and settlement in Shakespeare's time) elsewhere in the world.

Regional variation seems to be realized predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation or accent before we notice that the vocabulary (or LEXICON) is also distinctive. Grammatical variation tends to be less extensive and certainly less obtrusive. But all types of linguistic organization can readily enough be involved. A Lancashire man may be recognized by a Yorkshireman because he pronounces an /r/ after vowels as in *stir* or *hurt*. A *middy* is an Australian measure for beer – but it refers to a considerably bigger measure in Sydney than it does in Perth. Instead of *I saw it*, a New Englander might say *I see it*, a Pennsylvanian *I seen it*, and a Virginian either *I seen it* or *I seed it*, if they were speaking the rural nonstandard dialect of their locality, and the same forms characterize certain dialects within Britain too.

Note [a] The attitude of native speakers of one dialect towards the dialects of other native speakers varies greatly, but, in general, dialects of rural and agricultural communities are regarded as more pleasant than dialects of large urban communities such as New York or Birmingham. This is connected, of course, with social attitudes and the association of city dialects with variation according to education and social standing (*cf* 1.22) rather than according to region.
[b] Dialectologists and sociolinguists often use the term 'dialect' for social varieties.

1.21 It is pointless to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our observations. But they are of course more obviously numerous in long-settled Britain than in areas more recently settled by Europeans, such as North America or, still more recently, Australia and New Zealand. The degree of generality in our observation depends crucially upon our standpoint as well as upon our experience. An Englishman will hear an American Southerner primarily as an American, and only as a Southerner in addition if further subclassification is called for and if his experience of American English dialects enables him to make it. To an American the same speaker will be heard first as a Southerner and then (subject to similar conditions) as, say, a Virginian, and then perhaps as a Piedmont Virginian. One might suggest some broad dialectal divisions which are rather generally recognized. Within North America, most people would be able to distinguish Canadian, Northern, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Irish, Scots, Northern, Midland, Welsh, Southwestern, and London varieties would be recognized with similar generality. Some of these – the English of Ireland and Scotland for example – would be recognized as such by many Americans and Australians too, while in Britain many people could make subdivisions: Ulster and Southern might be distinguished within Irish English, for example, and Yorkshire picked out as an important subdivision of Northern speech. British people can also, of course, distinguish North Americans from all others (though not usually Canadians from Americans), South Africans from Australians and New Zealanders (though mistakes are frequent), but not usually Australians from New Zealanders.

Social variation

1.22 Within each of the dialects there is considerable variation in speech according to education, socioeconomic group, and ethnic group. Some differences correlate with age and sex. Much (if not most) of the variation does not

involve categorical distinctions; rather it is a matter of the frequency with which certain linguistic features are found in the groups.

There is an important polarity between uneducated and educated speech in which the former can be identified with the nonstandard regional dialect most completely and the latter moves away from regional usage to a form of English that cuts across regional boundaries. To revert to an example given in a previous section, an outsider (who was not a skilled dialectologist) might not readily find a New Englander who said *see* for *saw*, a Pennsylvanian who said *seen*, and a Virginian who said *seed*. These are forms that tend to be replaced by *saw* with schooling, and in speaking to a stranger a dialect speaker would tend to use 'school' forms. On the other hand, there is no simple equation of regional and uneducated English. Just as educated English, *I saw*, cuts across regional boundaries, so do many features of uneducated use: a prominent example is the double negative as in *I don't want no cake*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar tradition for over two hundred years but which continues to thrive as an emphatic form in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken.

Educated English naturally tends to be given the additional prestige of government agencies, the professions, the political parties, the press, the law court, and the pulpit – any institution which must attempt to address itself to a public beyond the smallest dialectal community. It is codified in dictionaries, grammars, and guides to usage, and it is taught in the school system at all levels. It is almost exclusively the language of printed matter. Because educated English is thus accorded implicit social and political sanction, it comes to be referred to as STANDARD ENGLISH, and provided we remember that this does not mean an English that has been formally standardized by official action, as weights and measures are standardized, the term is useful and appropriate. In contrast with standard English, forms that are especially associated with uneducated (rather than dialectal) use are generally called NONSTANDARD.

Note 'Substandard' is sometimes used in place of 'nonstandard', but less commonly now than in the past.

Standard English

1.23 The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly remarkable phenomenon: the more so since the extent of the uniformity involved has, if anything, increased in the present century. Uniformity is greatest in orthography, which is from most viewpoints the least important type of linguistic organization. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries retain a tiny element of individual decision (*eg: realize/realise, judgment/judgement*), there is basically a single spelling and punctuation system throughout: with two minor subsystems. The one is the subsystem with British orientation (used in most English-speaking countries other than the United States), with distinctive forms in only a small class of words, *colour, centre, levelled*, etc. The other is the American subsystem, *color, center, leveled*, etc. Canadian spelling draws on both systems and is

open to considerable variation. Learned or formal publications, such as academic journals and school textbooks, prefer British spellings, while popular publications, such as newspapers, prefer American spelling. Individuals may use both variants according to situation, but sometimes randomly. One difference between the American and British subsystems of punctuation is that the general American practice is to put a period or comma inside closing quotation marks, which are usually double in American usage for the primary set: *The sign said "No smoking."* A further orthographic point may cause Anglo-American misunderstanding: the numerical form of dates. In British (and European) practice 2/10/85 means '2 October 1985', but in American practice it means 'February 10, 1985' (*cf* 6.66).

In grammar and vocabulary, standard English presents somewhat less of a monolithic character, but even so the world-wide agreement is extraordinary and – as has been suggested earlier – seems actually to be increasing under the impact of closer world communication and the spread of identical material and nonmaterial culture. The uniformity is especially close in neutral or formal styles of written English on subject matter not of obviously localized interest: in such circumstances one can frequently go on for page after page without encountering a feature which would identify the English as belonging to one of the national standards (*cf* 1.28*ff*).

National standards of English

British and American English

1.24 What we are calling national standards should be seen as distinct from the standard English which we have been discussing and which we should think of as being supranational, embracing what is common to all. Again, as with orthography, there are two national standards that are overwhelmingly predominant both in the number of distinctive usages and in the degree to which these distinctions are institutionalized: American English ⟨AmE⟩ and British English ⟨BrE⟩. Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are known to many users of both national standards: the fact that AmE has two past participles for *get* and BrE only one (*cf* 3.18), for example, and that in BrE either a singular or a plural verb may be used with a singular collective noun:

$$\text{The government} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{in favour of economic sanctions.}$$

whereas in AmE a singular verb is required here. Some are less familiar, but are unlikely to hamper communication. For example, AmE may use the simple past in informal style in contexts where BrE normally requires the present perfective (*cf* 4.20 Note), as in:

$$\left. \begin{matrix} \text{Sue just} \\ \text{Sue's just} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{finished her homework.}$$

And BrE tends to use the construction with *should* where AmE generally uses the present subjunctive (*cf* 14.24):

$$\text{I insisted that he} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{should take} \\ \text{take} \end{matrix} \right\} \text{the documents with him.}$$

Lexical examples are far more numerous, but many of these are familiar to users of both standards: for example, *railway* ⟨BrE⟩, *railroad* ⟨AmE⟩; *tin* ⟨BrE⟩, *can* ⟨AmE⟩; *petrol* ⟨BrE⟩, *gas(oline)* ⟨AmE⟩. Some items may confuse most speakers of the other standard because they are unfamiliar, at least in the relevant meaning: *boot* ⟨BrE⟩, *trunk* ⟨AmE⟩; *rubber* ⟨BrE⟩, *eraser* ⟨AmE⟩; *drawing pin* ⟨BrE⟩, *thumbtack* ⟨AmE⟩. *Public school* in AmE is a school maintained by public funds, but in BrE it applies to certain fee-paying schools. *Cider* (unless further specified, as in *hard cider*) is usually nonalcoholic in AmE, but (unless further specified as *sweet cider*) it is alcoholic in BrE. *School* in *I'm going to school* includes colleges and universities in AmE, but excludes them in BrE. Floors are numbered from ground level in AmE, so that *first floor* is generally level with the ground, but in BrE it is above the *ground floor*. In some instances an item that is normal in one standard is used in the other in restricted contexts: BrE *shop* (AmE *store*) is used in AmE for a small and specialized store, *eg: barber shop, shoe-repair shop*, and sometimes for a high-class establishment or one that has pretensions to be so considered, *eg: clothing shop/store, jewelry shop/store*; BrE *chips* (esp AmE *french fries*) now occurs in AmE, as a recent borrowing from BrE, in the combination *fish and chips*.

More recent innovations in either area tend to spread rapidly to the other. Thus while radio sets have had *valves* in BrE but *tubes* in AmE, television sets have *tubes* in both, and *transistors* and computer *software* are likewise used in both standards. Mass communication neutralizes differences; the pop music culture, in particular, uses a 'mid-Atlantic' dialect that levels differences even in pronunciation.

The United States and Britain have been separate political entities for two centuries; for generations, thousands of books have been appearing annually; there is a long tradition of publishing descriptions of both AmE and BrE. These are important factors in establishing and institutionalizing the two national standards, and in the relative absence of such conditions other national standards are both less distinct (being more open to the influence of either AmE or BrE) and less institutionalized.

One attitudinal phenomenon in the United States is of sociolinguistic interest. In affirming the students' right to their own varieties of language, many American educationalists have declared that Standard American English is a myth, some asserting the independent status (for example) of Black English. At the same time they have acknowledged the existence of a written standard dialect, sometimes termed 'Edited American English'.

Scotland, Ireland, Canada

1.25 Scots, with ancient national and educational institutions, is perhaps nearest to the self-confident independence of BrE and AmE, though the differences in grammar and vocabulary are rather few. There is the preposition *outwith* ['except'] and some other grammatical features, and such lexical items as *advocate* in the sense 'practising lawyer' or *bailie* ['municipal magistrate'] and several others which, like this last, refer to Scottish affairs. Orthography is identical with BrE, though *burgh* corresponds closely to 'borough' in meaning and might almost be regarded as a spelling variant. On the other hand, the

'Lallans' Scots, which has some currency for literary purposes, has a highly independent set of lexical, grammatical, phonological, and orthographical conventions, all of which make it seem more like a separate language than a regional dialect.

Hiberno-English, or Irish English, may also be considered as a national standard, for though we lack descriptions of this longstanding variety of English it is consciously and explicitly regarded as independent of BrE by educational and broadcasting services. The proximity of Great Britain, the easy movement of population, the pervasive influence of AmE, and like factors mean however that there is little room for the assertion and development of a separate grammar and vocabulary.

Canadian English is in a similar position in relation to AmE. Close economic, social, and intellectual links along a 4000-mile frontier have naturally caused the larger community to have an enormous influence on the smaller, not least in language. Though in many respects (*zed* instead of *zee*, for example, as the name of the letter 'z'), Canadian English follows British rather than United States practice, and has a modest area of independent lexical use, *eg: pogey* ['welfare payment'], *riding* ['parliamentary constituency'], *muskeg* ['kind of bog']; in many other respects it has approximated to AmE, and in the absence of strong institutionalizing forces it would continue in this direction. However, counteracting this tendency in language as in other matters is the tendency for Canadians to resist the influence of their powerful neighbour in their assertion of an independent national identity.

South Africa, Australia, New Zealand

1.26 South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand are in a very different position, remote from the direct day-to-day impact of either BrE or AmE. While in orthography and grammar the South African English in educated use is virtually identical with BrE, rather considerable differences in vocabulary have developed, largely under the influence of the other official language of the country, Afrikaans; for example, *veld* ['open country'], *kopje* or *koppie* ['hillock'], *dorp* ['village']. Because of the remoteness from Britain or America, few of these words have spread: an exception is *trek* ['journey'].

New Zealand English is more like BrE than any other non-European variety, though it has adopted quite a number of words from the indigenous Maoris (for example *whare* ['hut'] and of course *kiwi* and other names for fauna and flora) and over the past half century has come under the powerful influence of Australia and to a considerable extent of the United States.

Australian English is undoubtedly the dominant form of English in the Antipodes and by reason of Australia's increased wealth, population, and influence in world affairs, this national standard (though still by no means fully institutionalized) is exerting an influence in the northern hemisphere, particularly in Britain. Much of what is distinctive in Australian English is confined to familiar use. This is especially so of grammatical features like adverbial *but* or the use of the feminine pronoun both anaphorically for an inanimate noun (*job . . . her*) and also impersonally and nonreferentially for 'things in general':

The job's still not done; I'll finish her this arvo, but. ['. . . it this afternoon, however.']

A: Are you feeling better?

B: Too right, mate; she'll be jake. ['Absolutely . . .; everything will be fine.']

But there are many lexical items that are to be regarded as fully standard: not merely the special fauna and flora (such as *kangaroo*, *gumtree*, *wattle*), but special Australian uses of familiar words (for example *paddock* as a general word for 'field', *crook* ['ill'], *station* ['sheep farm'], *banker* ['river full to its banks'], *washer* ['face cloth']) and special Australian words (for example *bowyang* ['a trouser strap'], *waddy* ['a bludgeon']).

Pronunciation and standard English

1.27 The list in 1.25*f* does not exhaust the regional or national variants that approximate to the status of a standard. Beside the widespread Creole in the Caribbean, for example, there is the increasing recognition that the language of government and other agencies observes an indigenous standard that can be referred to as Caribbean English. Nor have we discussed the emerging standards in countries where English is spoken as a second language (*cf* 1.34). However, all the variants are remarkable primarily in the tiny extent to which even the most firmly established, BrE and AmE, differ from each other in vocabulary, grammar, and orthography. We have been careful, however, not to mention pronunciation in this connection. Pronunciation is a special case for several reasons. In the first place, it is the type of linguistic organization which distinguishes one national standard from another most immediately and completely and which links in a most obvious way the national standards to the regional varieties. Secondly (with an important exception to be noted), it is the least institutionalized aspect of standard English, in the sense that, provided our grammar and lexical items conform to the appropriate national standard, it matters less that our pronunciation follows closely our individual regional pattern. This is doubtless because pronunciation is essentially gradient, a matter of 'more or less' rather than the discrete 'this or that' features of grammar and lexicon. Thirdly, norms of pronunciation are subject less to educational and national constraints than to social ones: this means, in effect, that some regional accents are less acceptable than others (*cf* 1.20 Note [a]).

But there is an exception, noted above, to the generalization that regional pronunciation can be used without stigma. In BrE, one type of pronunciation comes close to enjoying the status of 'standard': it is the accent associated with the older schools and universities of England, 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP'. Because this has traditionally been transmitted through a private education system based upon boarding schools insulated from the locality in which they happen to be situated, it is nonregional, and this – together with the obvious prestige that the social importance of its speakers has conferred on it – has been one of its strengths as a widely-favoured spoken form of the language. But RP no longer has the unique authority it had in the first half of the twentieth century. It is now only one among several accents commonly used on the BBC and takes its place along with others which carry the unmistakable mark of regional origin – not least, an Australian or North American or Caribbean origin. Thus the rule that a specific type of pronunciation is relatively unimportant seems to be in the process of losing the notable exception that RP has constituted. Nevertheless, RP remains the standard for teaching the British variety of English as a foreign language, as can be easily seen from dictionaries and textbooks intended for countries that teach British English.

RP also shares a distinction with a variety of Midland American pronunciation known as 'network English'. BBC newsreaders are virtually all RP speakers, just as newsreaders on the national radio and television networks in the United States all speak with the 'network English' pronunciation.

In this book we do not attempt to represent the range of variation in pronunciation associated with different national standards. We do, however, record the major differences (using the system of symbols listed on page viii) between RP and network English.

Note The extreme variation that is tolerated in the pronunciation of English in various countries puts a great responsibility upon the largely uniform orthography (*cf* 1.23) in preserving the mutual comprehensibility of English throughout the world. A 'phonetic' spelling would probably allow existing differences to become greater whereas – through 'spelling pronunciation' with increased literacy – our conventional orthography not merely checks the divisiveness of pronunciation change but actually reduces it.

Varieties according to field of discourse

1.28 The field of discourse is the type of activity engaged in through language. A speaker of English has a repertoire of varieties according to field and switches to the appropriate one as occasion requires. The number of varieties that speakers command depends upon their profession, training, and interests.

Typically the switch involves nothing more than turning to the particular set of lexical items habitually used for handling the field in question. Thus, in connection with repairing a machine: *nut*, *bolt*, *wrench*, *thread*, *lever*, *finger-tight*, *balance*, *adjust*, *bearing*, *axle*, *pinion*, *split-pin*, and the like. But there are grammatical correlates to field variety as well. To take a simple example, the imperatives in cooking recipes: *Pour the liquid into a bowl*, not *You should* or *You might care to*, still less *The cook should* . . . Or the omission of direct objects that is common in instructional language in general: *Bake at 450°*; *Open (the box at) this end*; *Keep (this bottle) away from children*. More complex grammatical correlates are to be found in the language of technical and scientific description: the passive is common and clauses are often 'nominalized' (*cf* 17.51*ff*); thus not usually:

> You can rectify this fault if you insert a wedge . . .

but rather:

> Rectification of this fault is achieved by insertion of a wedge . . .

More radical grammatical differences are found in the language of legal documents:

> Provided that such payment as aforesaid shall be a condition precedent to the exercise of the option herein specified . . .

and in newspaper headlines:

Development Plan for Harlem Fought

The type of language required by choice of field is broadly independent from the variables (dialect, national standard) already discussed. Some obvious contingent constraints are however emerging: the use of a specific variety of one class frequently presupposes the use of a specific variety of another. The use of a well-formed legal sentence, for example, presupposes an educated variety of English.

We shall have occasion in this book to refer to variations in grammar according to the field of discourse with self-explanatory labels. Literature is of course a long-established field, but LITERARY English extends to other fields, for example nontechnical essays on humanistic topics and biographies. Some fields have certain characteristics in common; for example, LEGAL and RELIGIOUS English have numerous forms peculiar to their respective fields, but both may include usages that are otherwise ARCHAIC, though there is a trend away from such archaism in these fields. Poetry too has traditionally used archaic features. Indeed, poetry may deviate from the norms of the language in other respects, particularly in word order. Literary English is sometimes described as poetic if it displays features that are rare in prose.

As with dialects (*cf* 1.21), there are indefinitely many fields depending on how detailed we wish our discussion to be. LEARNED (or scholarly) language covers a wide range of subject matter (psychology, literary criticism, history, physics, medicine), each of which could be regarded as a separate field, though we shall need to distinguish only the field of SCIENTIFIC discourse. Applications of technology are reflected in INSTRUCTIONAL writing, itself included within TECHNICAL language. But instructional language may range from cooking recipes to instructions for playing games. When learned or technical language is used too obtrusively or (to all appearances) unnecessarily, it is often pejoratively referred to as JARGON.

Jargon may include obtrusive language from other discourse fields, for example JOURNALISTIC and (in particular) BUREAUCRATIC writing. Journalism in its widest sense includes reporting on radio and television, each of which may be distinguished from newspaper reporting. Some features of newspapers call for special consideration, in particular headlinese, the language of newspaper headlines.

We have by no means exhausted the fields that have developed their own linguistic expression. Among others we refer to, we may mention advertising and business.

Note Varieties according to field of discourse are sometimes called REGISTERS, though this term is applied in different ways.

Varieties according to medium

1.29 The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by speaking and writing respectively. Since speech is the primary or natural medium for linguistic communication, it is reasonable to focus on the differences imposed on language when it has to be expressed in a graphic

(and normally visual) medium instead. Most of these differences arise from two sources. One is situational: the use of a written medium normally presumes the absence of the person(s) to whom the piece of language is addressed. This imposes the necessity of a far greater explicitness: the careful and precise completion of a sentence, rather than the casual expression supported by gesture and terminating when speakers are assured by word or look that their hearers have understood. As a corollary, since the written sentence can be read and reread, slowly and critically (whereas the spoken sentence is evanescent), writers tend to anticipate criticism by writing more concisely as well as more carefully and elegantly than they may choose to speak.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to transmit language by speech (stress, rhythm, intonation, tempo, for example) are impossible to represent with the relatively limited repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation (*cf* App II). As a consequence writers often have to reformulate their sentences to convey fully and successfully what they want to express within the orthographic system. Thus instead of the spoken sentence with a particular intonation nucleus on *John* (*cf* App II.11*ff*), one might have to rephrase the sentence in writing to convey the intended focus:

JŎHN didn't do it.
It was not in fact John that did it.

The advantages are not all on one side, however; the written medium has the valuable distinctions of paragraphs, italics, quotation marks, etc, which have no clear analogue in speech.

1.30 As with varieties according to field, we are here dealing with two varieties that are in principle at the disposal of any users of English as occasion may demand, irrespective of the variety of English they use as a result of region and education. But again there are contingent constraints: we do not expect speakers with little formal education to compose in written English with the facility that educated speakers acquire. This indeed is what a great deal of education is about.

There are contingent constraints of another kind. Some field varieties of English (legal statutes especially) are difficult to compose except in writing and difficult to understand except by reading. Other varieties are comparably restricted to speech: a radio commentary on a football match will be phrased very differently from a newspaper report of the same game.

Varieties according to attitude

1.31 Varieties according to attitude constitute, like field and medium varieties, a range of English any section of which is in principle available at will to any individual speaker of English, irrespective of the regional variant or national standard he may habitually use. This present class of varieties is often called 'stylistic', but 'style' like 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the choice of linguistic form that proceeds from our attitude to the hearer (or reader), to the topic, and to

the purpose of our communication. We recognize a gradient in attitude between FORMAL (relatively stiff, cold, polite, impersonal) on the one hand and INFORMAL (relatively relaxed, warm, rude, friendly) on the other. The corresponding linguistic contrasts involve both grammar and vocabulary. For example:

> Overtime emoluments are not available for employees who are non-resident . . .
> Staff members who don't live in can't get paid overtime . . .

While many sentences like the foregoing can be rated 'more formal' or 'more informal' in relation to each other, it is useful to pursue the notion of the common core (*cf* 1.19) here, so that we can acknowledge a median or unmarked variety of English, bearing no obvious colouring that has been induced by attitude. For example:

> This student's work is now much better and seems likely to go on improving.

On each side of this NEUTRAL (and normal) English, we may usefully distinguish sentences containing features that are markedly formal or informal. In the present work, we shall for the most part confine ourselves to this three-term distinction, leaving the middle one unlabelled and specifying only usages that are relatively formal or informal. It should be realized that the neutral term often covers items in one or the other extreme as well. For example, contractions such as *didn't* are appropriate in both informal and neutral English; they are excluded from formal English.

1.32 Mastery of such a range of attitudinal varieties seems a normal achievement for educated adults, but it is an acquisition that is not inevitable or even easy for either the native or the foreign learner of a language. It appears to require maturity, tact, sensitivity, and adaptability – personality features which enable the individual to observe and imitate what others do, and to search the language's resources to find an expression to suit his attitude. Young native speakers at the age of five or six have, broadly speaking, one form of English that is made to serve all purposes, whether they are talking to their mother, their pets, their friends, or an aged neighbour. And although this invariant language can cause parents twinges of embarrassment, it is generally recognized that it is a limitation that the child will grow out of.

Foreign learners are in a somewhat similar position. Until their skill in the language is really very advanced, it is attitudinally invariant, though the particular variety is much less predictable than that of the native child. If much of their practice in English has been obtained through textbooks specializing in commercial training, their habitual variety will be very different from that of the learner who has done vacation work helping on a farm. More usually, either an invariant literary (sometimes even an archaic) flavour or an invariant excessively informal flavour occurs in the speech of foreign students. But, in any case, just as the native child's youth inhibits criticism, so the foreign student's accent informs listeners that there are respectable reasons for occasional inappropriateness in the language variety.

1.33 The three-way contrast of formal–neutral–informal is not of course adequate to describe the full range of linguistic varieties that are evoked by differences of attitude. We should add at least one category at each end of the scale. On the one hand, we need to account for the extremely distant, rigid (or 'frozen') variety of English sometimes found in written instructions. For example:

> Distinguished patrons are requested to ascend to the second floor.

But we must account also for the intimate, casual, or hearty – often slangy – language used between very close friends (especially of a similar age) or members of a family, or used when speakers feel for any other reason that they do not need to bother about what the listener (or reader) thinks of their choice of languge. We might thus match the foregoing example with:

> (Get) upstairs, you lot!

We now have a potential five-term distinction:

> very formal – FORMAL – neutral – INFORMAL – very informal

As we said above (1.31), we chiefly employ the labels 'formal' and 'informal', leaving unmarked the 'neutral' normal style; but we sometimes designate language as 'very formal' or 'very informal', occasionally replacing 'very informal' by 'casual' or 'familiar' as appropriate. The term COLLOQUIAL is also used for the very informal range, but particularly for the spoken language. A further term, SLANG, is needed to denote the frequently vivid or playful lexical usage typical of casual discourse, usually indicating membership in a particular social group.

One final point on attitude varieties. As with the English dictated by field and medium, there are contingency constraints in the normal selection of attitudinal variety. Just as statute drafting (field) normally presupposes writing (medium), so also it presupposes a particular attitude variety: in this case 'very formal'. Similarly it would be hard to imagine an appropriate football commentary on the radio being other than informal, or a radio commentary on the funeral of a head of state being other than formal, though both are in the same medium (speech).

Varieties according to interference

1.34 A very different type of variation applies to speakers of English as a second language or foreign language. The variation is caused by interference from another language. The Frenchman who says *I am here since Thursday* is imposing a French grammatical usage on English; the Russian who says *There are four assistants in our chair of mathematics* is imposing a Russian lexico-semantic usage on the English word 'chair'. Most obviously, we always tend to impose our native phonological pattern on any foreign language we learn. The practised linguist is able to detect the language background of students, and this has obvious implications for language teaching in that students can be helped with the problems that give them the greatest difficulty.

At the opposite extreme are interference varieties that are so widespread in a community and of such long standing that they may be thought stable and adequate enough to be institutionalized and hence to be regarded as

varieties of English in their own right rather than stages on the way to a more native-like English. There is active debate on these issues in India, Pakistan, and several African countries, where efficient and fairly stable varieties of English are prominent in educated use at the highest political and professional level and are beginning to acquire the status of national standards. The new cultural settings for the use of English have produced considerable changes: different notions of appropriate style and rhetoric, and an influx of loan words, changes of meanings, and new expressions.

We can also recognize regional supranational varieties such as South Asian English (the English of the Indian subcontinent), East African English, and West African English, and these in turn may share characteristics. For example, in African English, and to some extent in South Asian English, *yes* is commonly used in a negative reply that confirms the speaker's assumption in a negative question:

A: Isn't she in bed?
B: Yes (, she isn't).

African and South Asian English very frequently use *isn't it?* as a universal tag, *They're late, isn't it?*, and often omit articles required in the major standard varieties, *They gave us hard time*.

Creole and pidgin

1.35 At an extreme of a different kind, there are the interference varieties known as creole and pidgin. It is a matter of debate, and to some extent politics, whether these should be regarded as falling within the orbit of the English language. Since, however, the expressions 'creole English' and 'pidgin English' are in common occurrence, we should say something about them, although they will not be described in this book. They have traditionally been used chiefly by the less prosperous and privileged sections of a community but have also been stable over several generations.

Pidgin is technically distinguished from creole by being essentially a second language used to replace a native language for restricted public (especially commercial) purposes rather than to conduct family affairs and talk to one's children. On the other hand, a creole is a native language. It is usually more varied than a pidgin, but it tends to be restricted to local, practical, and family matters. Political, educational, and sociolinguistic thought vacillates as to whether such creolized forms of English (as in Sierra Leone or the Caribbean) should be given official status or not. Would creole speakers benefit from the self-assurance this might give, or (since the elite in their society would still learn a more international English in addition) would the danger be that this would tend to perpetuate their underprivileged status? Here is a sample of Jamaican Creole in an orthography that already suggests partial institutionalization:

Hin sed den, 'Ma, a we in lib?' Hie sie, 'Mi no nuo, mi pikini, bot duon luk fi hin niem hahd, ohr eni wie in a di wohld an yu kal di niem, hin hie unu.' Hin sed, 'Wel Ma, mi want im hie mi a nuo mi.' 'Lahd nuo, masa! Duo no kal di niem, hin wi kom kil yu.' Hin sie, 'Wel Ma, hin wi haf fi kil mi.' (see Note [a])

Creole is normally the principal or sole language of its speakers, being transmitted from parent to child like any other native language. Moreover, for all its evidence of interference from other languages, a creolized form of English is usually more like ordinary English than a pidgin English is, and it gives less impression of being merely a drastic reduction of ordinary English.

Here are samples of Hawaiian Pidgin that are typical of three ethnic groups: Korean (a), Filipino (b), and Japanese (c):

(a) Aena tu macha churen, samawl churen. Haus mani pei. Mai churen go sakul, teiki haus mani pei, aeswai koria kim neim wan moa taim mi meri. (see Note [b])
(b) Ai go tel, 'Ae, mi no mo hapai klos oni diskain klos, da ispital-kain klos. Oni hia yu kaen hanapa, wahini-kain.' 'Orait, pau hana time, po klak, siks klak hi kam, hi go hapai yu klos.' (see Note [c])
(c) Samtaim gud rod get, samtaim, olsem ben get, enguru get, no? Olsem hyumen life, awl, enikain, stawmu get, nais dei get. Olsem, enibadi, mi olsem, smawl-taim. (see Note [d])

The definitions we have given may suggest an unjustified dichotomy between creoles and pidgins, and may also suggest that they are stable autonomous language systems. We should rather consider creoles and pidgins as not discrete stages in a changing process. On the one hand, through repidginization a creole comes to be used as a second language by neighbouring peoples who have little contact with the European language on which the creole is based. On the other hand, through decreolization a creole tends to merge with the European language when the creole speakers and the European language speakers are in frequent contact. Moreover, both creoles and pidgins may admit a very large amount of variation. A pidgin in its early stages of development, such as the English-based Hawaiian Pidgin, is highly unstable; we similarly find considerable instability in a repidginized creole, as in the second language use of the English-based Krio. When a creole is undergoing decreolization, as with the English-based Guyanese Creole, it can best be analysed as a continuum of varieties on a scale of least to most different from the European language. By contrast, Tok Pisin, which began as pidgin English in Papua New Guinea, has become highly institutionalized through use in education, government, and the media, and may already have some currency as a native language.

Note [a] He said then, 'Ma, and where does he live?' She says, 'I don't know, my child, but don't look hard for his name, or anywhere in all the world that you call the name, he will hear you.' He said, 'Well, Ma, I want him to hear me and know me.' 'Lord, no, master! Do not call the name, he will come and kill you.' He says, 'Well ma, he will have to kill me.'
[b] And I had too many children, small children. I had to pay for the house. My children were going to school, I had to take rent money to pay for them, that's why I married a second time a Korean named Kim.
[c] I said, 'Hey, I've no clothes to wear but those clothes, hospital clothes. You can only fasten them here, they're like women's clothes.' 'All right, after work, at four, six o'clock he'll come, he'll bring your clothes.'
[d] Sometimes there's a good road, sometimes, there's things like bends, angles, right? Human life is just the same, there's all sorts of things, storms, nice days. It's like that for everyone, for me too, when I was young.

Relationships among variety types

1.36 Varieties within each type of variation may be viewed in principle as independent from each other. Users of English may retain recognizable features of any regional variety in their use of a national standard; within that standard, they can discourse in English that is appropriate to their particular occupation or hobbies; they can handle these topics in English appropriate to either speech or writing; in either medium, they can adjust their discourse on any of the topics according to the respect, friendliness, or intimacy they feel for their hearers or readers. And all of this would apply equally if they are proficient in English as a foreign or second language and their use of English is affected by interference from their native tongue.

At the same time, the variation is to a large extent interdependent. We have drawn attention to several contingent constraints (for example, in 1.28), and we now consider the types of interdependence as they affect the varieties system as a whole.

Regional variation has been explicitly connected with the educational varieties: a person educated in Ohio will adopt standard AmE, not BrE. Similarly, for speakers of an interference variety: someone learning English in Europe or India is likely to approach a standard with BrE orientation; in Mexico or the Philippines, with an AmE orientation.

1.37 Next are varieties relating to fields of discourse. Certain fields of activity (farming and shipbuilding, for example) are associated with specific regions; clearly, it is in the dialect of these regions that the language of daily discourse on such activities is fully developed. In other fields (medicine, nuclear physics, philosophy) we expect to find little use of nonstandard English or of regionally distinctive English. On the other hand, we expect AmE to predominate in discussions of baseball and BrE in discussions of cricket.

Since writing is an educated art, we normally expect the educated English of one or other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we occasionally try to represent uneducated English in writing, we realize acutely how narrowly geared to standard English are our graphic conventions. For the same reason there are subjects (for example, coaching a football team) that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (for example, legal statutes) that can scarcely be handled in speech.

Attitudinal varieties have a great deal of independence in relation to other varieties: it is possible to be formal or informal on biochemistry or politics in AmE or BrE, for example. But informal or casual language across an 'authority gap' or 'seniority gap' (a student talking to an archbishop) presents difficulties, and on certain topics (funerals) it would be considered distasteful. And very formal language when the subject is courtship or football would seem comic.

1.38 Finally, the interference varieties. At the extremes of creole and pidgin there is especial interdependence between the form of the language and its functions. Indeed, pidgins tend to be restricted to a few practical matters, though we have noted the expansion of functions in Tok Pisin (*cf* 1.35).

As to English taught at an advanced level as a second or foreign language, it is to be hoped that enough proficiency is achieved to allow the users the flexibility they need in handling (let us say) public administration, a learned profession such as medicine with its supporting medical journals, and informal conversation. Students are likely to be handicapped if they are taught English at the formal or informal levels only, or the spoken or written language only, or are restricted to the English necessary for a particular occupation ('English for engineers', for example).

Variation within a variety

1.39 We need to make two final points about variation in the use of English. First, the various conditioning factors (region, medium, attitude, for example) each constitute a continuum rather than a discrete category.

Secondly, we may not be able to account always for the choice of one rather than another linguistic form; we sometimes find DIVIDED USAGE, a choice between variants, the conditions for which cannot be attributed to the variety distinctions discussed in this chapter.

For example, we can say (or write) one or the other of each of these pairs:

He stayed a week. ~ He stayed for a week.
I consider her my friend. ~ I consider her as my friend.
I don't know whether I can be there. ~ I don't know if I can be there.

Neither member of such pairs is necessarily linked to any of the varieties that we have specified. Attempts have been made to find a basis for at least some of this seemingly random variation (often called 'free variation'). For example, it has been claimed that certain language varieties (termed 'randomly distributed dialects') define groups of speakers who are not associated regionally or sociologically, the groups being characterized by linguistic features that are related systematically.

1.40 It may help to see variation in terms of the relationships depicted in *Fig* 1.40, where both the verticals represent a 'more-or-less' opposition. The upper pole of the first vertical corresponds to the features of greatest uniformity, such as the invariable past tense of *bring* in the educated variety of English, or the many features characterizing the main stable common core

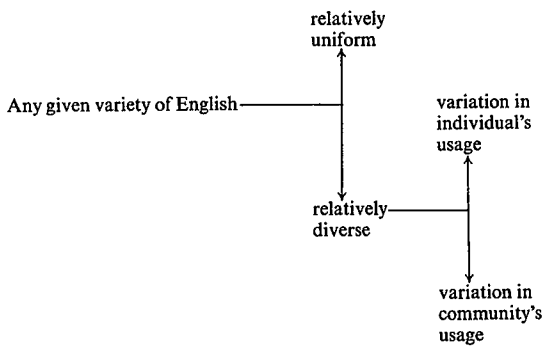

Fig 1.40 Variation within a variety

of the language, such as the position of the article in a noun phrase. The lower pole of the first vertical corresponds to the area of fluctuation illustrated in 1.39. The second vertical represents the situation in which, on the one hand, an individual may indulge in such a fluctuation (*I wonder whether* one moment and *I wonder if* a little later), and on the other hand, there may be fluctuation within the community as a whole (one member appearing to have a preference for *He didn't dare ask* and another a preference for *He didn't dare to ask*). This appears to be a natural state of affairs in language. Language change is constantly occurring in all languages and in all varieties of language with the result that older and newer variants always coexist; and some members of a society will be temperamentally disposed to use the new (perhaps by their youth) while others are comparably inclined to the old (perhaps by their age). But many will not be consistent either in their choice or in their temperamental disposition. Perhaps English may give rise to such fluctuation more than some other languages because of its patently mixed nature: a basic Germanic wordstock, stress pattern, word-formation, inflection, and syntax overlaid with a classical and Romance wordstock, stress pattern (*cf* App II.4), word-formation (*cf* App I.28*f*) – and even inflection and syntax.

Attitudes to variation

1.41 At various places in this chapter we have had occasion to refer to language attitudes; for example, the official acceptance of English as a neutral second language (1.4) and the views on the present state of the language expressed by native speakers (1.11). As we have indicated in 1.1, the current preeminence of English as an international language reflects its practical values, not some assumed aesthetic or linguistic qualities. The growing local acceptance of second-language educated varieties as standards derives from demands for national autonomy, an autonomy that was achieved long ago by transplanted varieties in native English-speaking countries, notably the United States of America. Increasing tolerance (by no means universal) for second-language varieties and for local nonstandard varieties reflects views that each speech community has a right to its own language and that no variety is intrinsically superior.

Standard varieties continue to enjoy general prestige. They are more differentiated, especially lexically, entering into a wider range of functions and situational domains. The prestige of these varieties and their official maintenance ensure, at least for the written medium, a neutral comprehensible language within particular English-speaking countries and (to a major extent) internationally.

Certain regional or social varieties are generally held in higher esteem than others because they are associated with more prestigious groups. Justification for the higher esteem is sometimes sought in claims that they are more logical or closer to some pristine state of the language. For similar reasons, some language features are more highly regarded than their variants. Language attitudes and language behaviour do not necessarily coincide. Despite their acceptance of commonly-held evaluations, many continue using stigmatized varieties or variants because they feel more comfortable with what they are used to, or because they want to retain their membership of a particular

speech community. Those who are competent to do so may adjust their variety to suit their audience, particularly in the spoken medium, and are likely to monitor their language in the direction of standard varieties in the written medium, especially in formal style. On the other hand, some may retain stigmatized varieties or variants because they reject the evaluations of others.

Acceptability and frequency

1.42 The metaphor of the common core points to a distinction that applies to two other aspects of our description of English grammar. We distinguish between the central and the marginal also for acceptability and frequency.

Acceptability is a concept that does not apply exclusively to grammar. Native speakers may find a particular sentence unacceptable because (for example) they consider it logically absurd or because they cannot find a plausible context for its use or because it sounds clumsy or impolite. However, we are concerned only with the acceptability of forms or constructions on the grounds of their morphology or syntax.

In general, our examples are fully acceptable if they are left unmarked. But we sometimes contrast acceptable and unacceptable examples, marking the latter by placing an asterisk '*' before them. If they are tending to unacceptability but are not fully unacceptable, we put a query '?' before the asterisk. A query alone signifies that native speakers are unsure about the particular language feature. If native speakers differ in their reactions, we put the asterisk or query in parentheses. Our assessment of native speaker evaluations reflect in part our own research: elicitation experiments with informants in the United States and Britain.

Assessments by native speakers of relative acceptability largely correlate with their assessments of relative frequency; we have conducted experiments to elicit frequency judgments too. But we have also drawn on our research and that of others into the frequencies of language phenomena in several important corpora, preeminently:

(a) the corpus of the Survey of English Usage (SEU), covering spoken as well as written texts of British English
(b) the Brown University corpus, comprising samples of American printed English
(c) the parallel Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen corpus (LOB), comprising samples of British printed English

We leave unmarked those features of the language that occur frequently, drawing attention just to those that occur extremely frequently or only rarely.

Our approach in this book is to focus on the common core that is shared by standard British English and standard American English. We leave unmarked any features that the two standard varieties have in common, marking as ⟨BrE⟩ or ⟨AmE⟩ only the points at which they differ. But usually we find it necessary to say ⟨esp(ecially) BrE⟩ or ⟨esp(ecially) AmE⟩, for it is

rare for a feature to be found exclusively in one variety. Similarly we do not mark features that are neutral with respect to medium and attitude. We distinguish where necessary spoken and written language, generally using 'speaker' and 'hearer' as unmarked forms for the participants in an act of communication, but drawing on the combinations 'speaker/writer' and 'hearer/reader' when we wish to emphasize that what is said applies across the media. We also frequently need to label features according to variation in attitude, drawing attention to those that are formal or informal.

In this book we offer a descriptive presentation of English morphology and syntax with a minimum of formalism. We make a direct connection between morphological and syntactic forms and their meaning, conducting excursions into lexicology, semantics, and pragmatics where these impinge closely on our grammatical description.

Note The terms 'grammatical' and 'ungrammatical' are commonly used by nonspecialists as synonyms of 'acceptable' and 'unacceptable'. We have avoided using the former terms in this book because of the various meanings which they have even among linguists.

Bibliographical note

On international varieties of English see Bailey and Görlach (1982); Kachru (1982); Quirk (1972), Chapters 1–7. Major works on regional varieties (including general bibliographies, dictionaries, and some accounts of social variation) are listed at the end of Bailey and Görlach (1982). Two series of books are in progress: *Varieties of English Around the World*, published by John Benjamins (Amsterdam and Philadelphia), and *English in the International Context*, published by Pergamon (Oxford). The journal *English World-Wide* is devoted to scholarly articles on English varieties world-wide.

On the international use of English, see Fishman et al (1977) and the data in the Statistical Yearbooks published by UNESCO and the United Nations.

On 'Nuclear English', see Quirk (1982), 37–53.

On variation in British and American English see Beaugrande (1983); Crystal and Davy (1969); Ferguson and Heath (1981), Parts I and IV; Hughes and Trudgill (1979); Joos (1962); Labov (1972); McDavid (1963). On random variation, see Carden (1973).

On creoles and pidgins see Valdman (1977). The samples of Hawaiian Pidgin came from Bickerton and Odo (1976).

On acceptability in general, see Greenbaum (1977b). On the relationship between syntactic frequency and acceptability, see Greenbaum (1976c). Evaluations of language attitudes and use appear in Bolinger (1980a); Daniels (1983); Greenbaum (1985); Michaels and Ricks (1980); Quirk (1982), esp Chapters 1, 2 and 4.

For a survey of attitudes to specific usage problems in British English, see Mittins et al (1970). The treatment of usage problems by American dictionaries and guides to usage is evaluated in Cresswell (1975). Opinions expressed in the leading American guides to usages are summarized in Copperud (1980). Popular guides to usage include Fowler (1965) and Partridge (1973) for British usage, and Bernstein (1965) and Follett (1966) for American usage.

2 A survey of English grammar

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This chapter and its relation to later chapters

The plan of this grammar

2.1 Grammar is a complex system, the parts of which cannot be properly explained in abstraction from the whole. In this sense, all parts of a grammar are mutually defining, and there is no simple linear path we can take in explaining one part in terms of another. The method of presentation adopted in this book will be to order the description of English grammar so that features which are simpler (in the sense that their explanation presupposes less) come before those which are more complex (in the sense that their explanation presupposes more).

Our mode of progression can be best described as cyclic, rather than linear. In this way, a topic dealt with earlier in a cursory way can be taken up later for more extended treatment. There are three cycles: (a) Chapter 2; (b) Chapters 3 to 11; (c) Chapters 12 to 19.

The present chapter, which constitutes the first cycle, presents a general outline of English grammar and of its major concepts and categories, with particular reference to the simple sentence.

The second cycle, Chapters 3 to 11, is concerned with the basic constituents which make up the simple sentence. Thus Chapters 3 and 4 present the grammar and semantics of the verb phrase, and Chapters 5 and 6 the basic constituents of the noun phrase, in particular determiners, nouns, and pronouns. Chapter 7 deals with adjectives and adverbs, Chapter 8 with adverbials, and Chapter 9 with prepositions and prepositional phrases. In the light of these detailed studies, Chapters 10 and 11 then re-examine the simple sentence in all its structural variety.

The third cycle treats matters which involve more complex sentence structure. Chapters 12 and 13 move beyond the simple sentence, dealing with substitution, ellipsis, and coordination: three operations which may be carried out on simple sentences in order to produce structures of greater or less complexity. Chapters 14 and 15 introduce a further factor of complexity – the subordination of one clause to another – thereby leading to a more general study of the complex sentence. Chapter 16 follows up Chapters 3 and 4 in giving further attention to the verb phrase, with special reference to verb classification, together with issues relating to phrasal and prepositional verbs, and to verb and adjective complementation. Similarly, Chapter 17 resumes the topic of Chapters 5 and 6, exploring the full complexity of the noun phrase in terms of structures separately examined in earlier chapters. Chapter 18 also involves a knowledge of the whole grammar as described in preceding chapters, but this time with a view to presenting the various ways in which individual parts of a sentence can be arranged for focus, emphasis, and thematic presentation. Finally, Chapter 19 considers the ways in which sentence grammar relates to the formation of texts, including those comprising extended discourse in speech or writing.

The three Appendices summarize aspects of English which, though strictly peripheral to grammar, nevertheless impinge on it at many points, necessitating frequent reference in the body of the book to the topics concerned. They are word-formation (Appendix I); stress, rhythm, and intonation (Appendix II); and punctuation (Appendix III).

Each of the chapters and appendices ends with a bibliographical note giving guidance on further reading relevant to the material just presented. We concentrate in these notes on references to recent and germinal contributions, particularly in learned monographs and articles. We assume, normally without further recommendation, that the reader will consult the major grammarians of the past, whose works are of course cited in the general Bibliography at the end of this book: for example, the compendious studies by Curme, Jespersen, Kruisinga, Poutsma, Sweet, Visser, and others, to which (as well as to the bibliography by Scheurweghs and Vorlat) all succeeding grammarians are heavily indebted.

Note Word-formation is sometimes considered a part of grammar. See 1.14*ff* for a discussion of various uses of the term 'grammar', and the meaning of 'grammar' assumed in this book.

The purpose of this chapter

2.2 This chapter outlines the structure of the English sentence in such a way as to provide, as it were, a small-scale map of the territory to be explored in some detail in the main body of the book. As with all small-scale maps, most of the details have to be ignored, and complicated contours have to be smoothed out and simplified. But in compensation, it is intended that the details included in the chapter are more important for English grammar than those which are omitted. In particular, the chapter aims (a) to provide a general introduction to English grammar; and (b) to introduce important concepts and categories to which it will be necessary to make frequent reference in the larger-scale expositions of Chapters 3 to 19.

Parts of the sentence

Grammatical units

2.3 In order to state general rules about the construction of sentences, it is constantly necessary to refer to units smaller than the sentence itself: units such as those which are commonly referred to by the terms CLAUSE, PHRASE, WORD, and MORPHEME (*cf* 2.7). The relation between one unit and another unit of which it is a part is CONSTITUENCY. We may thus say that in [1], *the evenings*, *have turned*, *very cold*, and *just recently* are CONSTITUENTS of the whole sentence:

[The evenings] [have turned] [very cold] [just recently]. [1]

One way of indicating constituency is by bracketing, as in [1]; another is by a tree diagram:

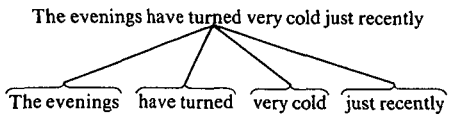

Fig 2.3a

Clearly the constituents of *Fig* 2.3a themselves contain units, namely the individual words of which they are composed; therefore, a fuller tree diagram would be:

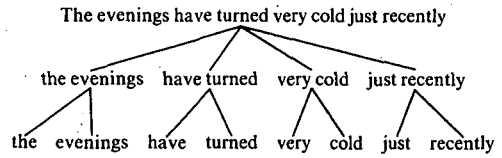

Fig 2.3b

This again may be presented more economically, if less clearly, in terms of bracketing:

[[The] [evenings]] [[have] [turned]] [[very] [cold]] [[just] [recently]]. [1a]

Furthermore, the words themselves in some cases consist of two or more units of smaller size: *evening* + *s*, *turn* + *ed*, *recent* + *ly*:

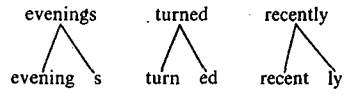

Fig 2.3c

A tree diagram is more informative if it labels the constituents as instances of particular units or classes of units; *Fig* 2.3b, for example, may be reconstituted as follows:

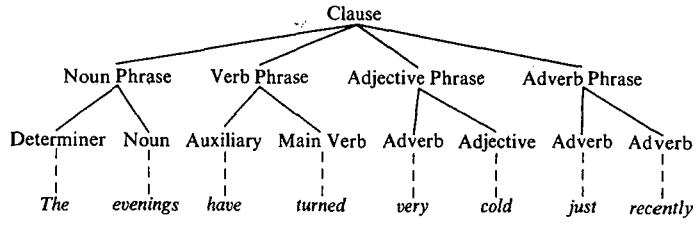

Fig 2.3d

Three 'sizes' of unit have here been distinguished: clause, phrase, and word. A further level would distinguish morphemes (*evening*, *-s*, *recent*, *-ly*) as constituents of words (*cf* 2.7). The terms for different phrases (noun phrase, adjective phrase, etc) obviously reflect the character of the words which are the main constituents of these units.

Constituents

2.4 *Figure* 2.3d shows constituents simply as the smaller parts into which a unit can be divided. We may extend this part–whole relation to include units which are only indirectly part of a larger unit: thus in *Fig* 2.3d not only [*the*

evenings], but indirectly also [*the*] and [*evenings*], *evening* and *-s* are constituents of the whole clause. But it is useful to reserve the term IMMEDIATE CONSTITUENT for those units which are the parts into which another unit is immediately divisible: thus the verb phrase [*have turned*] is an immediate constituent of the whole clause, and the auxiliary [*have*] and the main verb [*turned*] are immediate constituents of the verb phrase [*have turned*].

More important, in one respect constituency does not correspond to our ordinary understanding of the part–whole relationship. One unit may be a UNITARY CONSTITUENT of another unit; *ie*, it may be the only 'part' into which another unit can be analysed. (UNITARY CONSTITUENCY may thus be distinguished from MULTIPLE CONSTITUENCY, where a unit is divided into two or more immediate constituents.) Traditional grammar has acknowledged this concept of unitary constituency in certain respects. For example, it has been normal to say that a SENTENCE may consist of a single clause, as in *Fig* 2.3d. Such sentences are called SIMPLE SENTENCES, and are distinguished from COMPLEX or COMPOUND SENTENCES, which include two or more clauses. (For further discussion of these distinctions, *cf* 10.1, 14.2*f*.) Thus while example [1] is a simple sentence, exhaustively analysed into a single clause, [1b] is a compound sentence:

The evenings have turned very cold just recently, but the afternoons have been quite warm. [1b]

It has also been normal to say that a word may consist of just one morpheme, or of more than one: *night*, for example, consists of a STEM alone, while *nights* consists of the same stem followed by the inflectional SUFFIX *-s*.

On the other hand, the term PHRASE has traditionally been applied to a unit consisting of more than one word, and this has meant some inconsistency in the interpretation of grammatical constituency. Avoiding this inconsistency, many modern grammarians have used the term 'phrase' to refer to a constituent consisting either of *one* word or of *more than one* word, and this usage will be followed in this book. In the following sentence, therefore, all the bracketed segments are phrases:

[The evenings] [have turned] [cold] [recently]. [1c]

Note [a] An analogy with chemistry is suggested: a phrase, like other grammatical units, is rather like a molecule, which may consist of a single atom, or of a combination of atoms bound together within a larger structure.
[b] Ideally, it would be convenient to make a terminological distinction between 'simple' units which have one constituent and 'complex' units or 'compound' units which have more than one. Unfortunately, however, this terminological convention might cause confusion, since grammatical tradition has preempted the terms 'complex' and 'compound' for purposes not entirely consistent with it. For example, the distinction between simple and compound sentences is different from the distinction between simple and compound nouns. Our use of the terms 'complex' and 'compound' will be made clear in later chapters; *cf* 10.1, 14.2*f*, and App I.57.
[c] Linguists differ on what are the immediate constituents of a clause. The above description represents the basis of our system of clause analysis, to be further developed in 2.13*ff*.
[d] Some linguists use the term 'sentence' for a clause which is part of a sentence.

Chain and choice relationships

2.5 The principle which allows both unitary and multiple constituents of a grammatical unit goes against the commonsense understanding of 'parts' and 'wholes', and therefore needs some justification. The justification lies in a distinction between CHAIN (*ie* syntagmatic) and CHOICE (*ie* paradigmatic) relationships among linguistic constituents. The chain relationship is an 'and' relationship, whereas the choice relationship is an 'or' relationship. Thus if two units *X* and *Y* occur one after the other in a larger unit, they are in a chain relationship, *X* + *Y*. But if *X* and *Y* can be substituted for one another in a larger unit, they are in a choice relationship, *X*/*Y*. (Substitution here means 'commutability', *ie* acceptable replacement in terms of the structure of the sentence, not necessarily in terms of meaning.) In examining a single sentence, we can observe only the chain relationships, and indeed, if we were interested only in chain relationships, we might be satisfied simply to represent a sentence as a sequence of morphemes as follows:

The + evening + s + have + turn + ed + very + cold + just + recent + ly.

Note It is worth observing, in passing, that choice relationships *are* made explicit in certain types of appositional self-correcting constructions; *eg*: *They were constantly quarrelling – well, arguing, anyway* (*cf* 17.80).

2.6 When, however, we consider what are the possibilities of English grammar (for example, what does and what does not make a grammatical sentence in English), we have to investigate choice relationships. Describing English grammar involves stating what choices exist in the construction of English sentences, and what the relations are between these choices. It is on this basis that it is necessary to distinguish units of different 'sizes', and to recognize the choices which exist at different levels of constituency. From here, consideration of examples like [1] and [2] leads to the recognition of unitary constituents:

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	
{The weather / It}	{has been / was}	{very cold / cold}	{just recently / recently}	[1] / [2]

(Braces { }, as well as the oblique stroke (or slash) /, are used in this grammar to indicate choice relations.)

In each of the structural positions (a–d) either a single word or a combination of words may be used. In this sense we may say that *the weather*/*it*, *very cold*/*cold*, etc in [1] and [2] are COMMUTABLE. We may also say that by virtue of this commutability, *very* and *just* in [1] are OPTIONAL constituents of the phrases in which they occur, and such optionality is indicated, in this grammar, by the use of parentheses ( ):

The weather has been (very) cold (just) recently. [3]

A typical English sentence will in fact contain a mixture of simple and complex units:

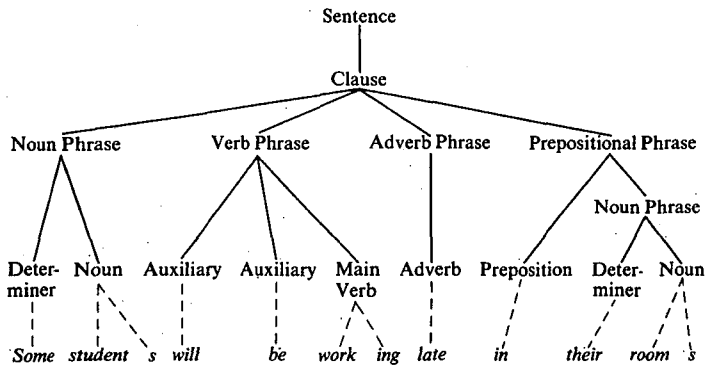

Fig 2.6

The occurrence of unitary constituents means that there is nothing contradictory in describing the same linguistic item on one occasion as a unit of one kind, and on another occasion as a unit of a different kind. For example, *late* in *Fig* 2.6 may be equally correctly described as an adverb phrase, as an adverb, or as a stem morpheme. When we say '*late* is an *X*', where *X* is the name for some grammatical unit or category, this identification means, more precisely, that *late* is a REALIZATION (or 'specimen') of *X*, and this does not rule out the possibility of its being at the same time a realization of some other unit or category *Y*. For this reason, any grammatical statement of the form '*i* is an *X*' (where *i* is an item, say a word or a sequence of words) is likely to be incomplete; but this form of words is so convenient that in spite of its incompleteness, we shall use it in this grammar when no confusion can arise.

The most extreme case of such multiple realization is that of a one-morpheme sentence such as the imperative *Hurry!* Here we may describe the same item as a sentence, a clause, a phrase, a word, or a morpheme.

The grammatical hierarchy

2.7 The existence of unitary constituents also leads to a superficial difficulty in talking of units of different 'size' or 'length'. As a particular unit may consist of one, or more than one, unit of a different kind, it follows that we cannot say, in a literal commonsense way, that 'a phrase is longer than a word', or 'a clause is larger than a phrase'. But at the same time, there is a hierarchical ranking of units in terms of their POTENTIAL size. Thus, although a given phrase (say *late* in *Fig* 2.6) may be no larger than a word, the choice category to which it belongs, that of adverb phrases, may have other realizations much longer than a single word, including such phrases as *quite late*, *quite late enough*, *very much later than I expected*. In this sense, units of grammar may be placed in a hierarchy of POTENTIAL SIZE or EXTENSIBILITY as follows:

HIGHEST UNIT: SENTENCES, which consist of one or more
CLAUSES, which consist of one or more
PHRASES, which consist of one or more
WORDS, which consist of one or more
LOWEST UNIT: MORPHEMES

By MORPHEME we understand a minimum unit of form and meaning which may be a whole word (*forget*), an inflection such as *-s* (*forget* + *s*) or a word-formation affix such as *un-*, *-ful* (*un* + *forget* + *ful*). On the sentence as the highest grammatical unit, *cf* 2.11.

In this hierarchy, the WORD is a unit of particular importance because it is the unit which primarily relates the grammar of a language to its lexicon (*cf* 2.34). Consequently the relation between words and their component morphemes is somewhat different from that which obtains between other units and their immediate constituents. The combination of morphemes in words is constrained not only by grammatical but by lexical considerations (*cf* App I.1*ff*), and the discrete segmentation of words into sequences of morphemes is not always possible – consider, for example, the relation between *crisis* and *crises*, between *sane* and *sanity*, or between *sing* and *sung*. It is because of these and other differences that grammar is generally divided (*cf* 1.14) into morphology (dealing with the internal form of words in so far as this is a grammatical matter; *cf* 2.35) and syntax (dealing with the way in which words are combined to form sentences).

Embedding

2.8 The above hierarchy still represents an oversimplified view of the relation between units. In *Fig* 2.6 it can be observed that one kind of phrase, the prepositional phrase *in their rooms*, contains as a constituent another phrase, the noun phrase *their rooms*. This is an example of the phenomenon of EMBEDDING which accounts for the indefinite extensibility of certain units of grammar. Both the noun phrase and the prepositional phrase may be immediate constituents of a clause, as are *some students* and *in their rooms* in the sentence of *Fig* 2.6:

Some students will be working late *in their rooms*.

Both units likewise can consist of more than one word (prepositional phrases, indeed, must normally consist of at least two words). There is therefore no reason to describe one unit as more extensible than the other; they are both, as phrases, placed at the same position in the hierarchy. But each unit can be a constituent of the other:

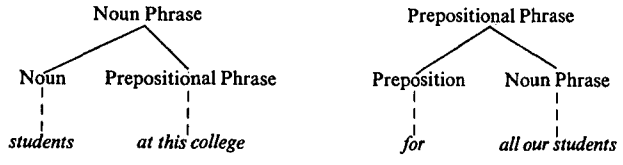

Fig 2.8

This means that, by repeated embedding, both a noun phrase and a prepositional phrase can be indefinitely extended:

NOUN PHRASE: some students [at [the college [on [the other side [of [the park [at [the north end [of . . .]]]]]]]]]
PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE: on [the top floor [of [a house [in [the corner [of [the old square [behind [the church . . .]]]]]]]]]

In practice, of course, phrases of this degree of complexity rarely occur; but it is important to recognize that however long such a phrase may be, there is always the possibility of making it longer by further embedding. Moreover, the indefinite length of noun phrases and prepositional phrases does not affect their position in the grammatical hierarchy, since however long a phrase may be, the clause which contains it will always be (potentially) longer:

I have been talking to *some students at the college on the other side of the park at the north end of . . .*
They live *on the top floor of a house in the corner of the old square behind the church . . .*

Embedding, as we have illustrated it so far, can be defined as the occurrence of one unit as a constituent of another unit at the same rank in the grammatical hierarchy. (As we shall see in 2.9, the embedded unit need not be an *immediate* constituent of the equivalent unit in which it is embedded.)

Subordination

2.9 Another kind of embedding occurs when one clause is made a constituent of another clause: the case normally described as SUBORDINATION. The two clauses in [1] and [2] constitute simple sentences, but it is also possible to combine them into a single (complex) sentence, by subordinating one to the other, as in [3]:

The weather has been remarkably warm. [1]
We returned from Italy last week. [2]
The weather has been remarkably warm since we returned from Italy last week. [3]

Clauses which are embedded in other clauses (*eg*: *since we returned from Italy last week* in [3]) are SUBORDINATE clauses, and they are often introduced by a subordinating CONJUNCTION (*since* in [3]). The subordinate clause in [3] is parallel in its function to the adverb phrase *just recently* in *Fig* 2.3d, and is indeed termed an 'adverbial clause' (*cf* 15.17*ff*). On the other hand, it is itself divisible into phrases in a way which makes it parallel to the whole clause in *Fig* 2.3d. The relation between the two clauses of [3] is one of 'part to whole', as is illustrated by the abbreviated tree diagram, *Fig* 2.9a, opposite.

Subordination of clauses is not confined to clauses which are immediate constituents of other clauses. There are also clauses (especially those termed relative clauses; *cf* 17.9*ff*) which are constituents of phrases, and which therefore are only indirectly embedded within a larger clause, *cf Fig* 2.9b opposite.

Once again, embedding gives rise to the theoretical possibility of grammatical units having indefinite length. The familiar nursery chant *The*

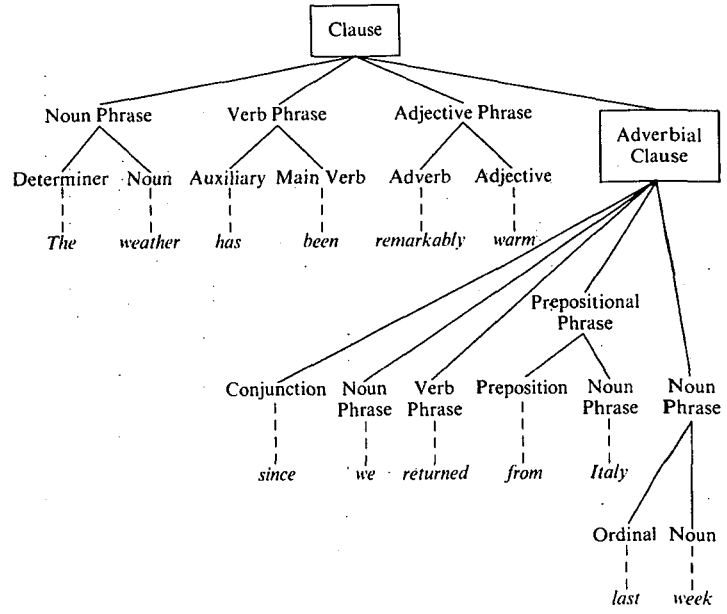

Fig 2.9a

Note Morphemes and unitary constituents (*eg* the Noun constituent above *Italy*) have not been included in this diagram.

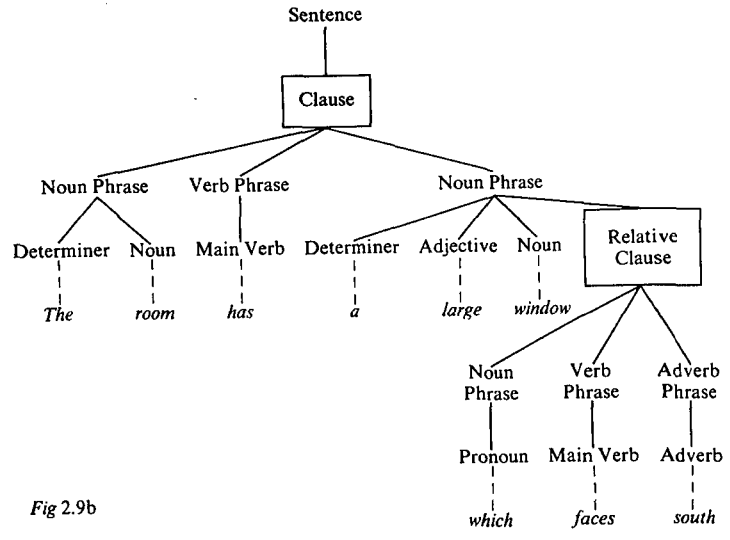

Fig 2.9b

House That Jack Built shows how repeated subordination of one relative clause to another leads to the construction of sentences of ever-increasing length:

This is the house [that Jack built].
This is the malt [that lay in the house [that Jack built]].
This is the rat [that ate the malt [that lay in the house [that Jack built]]].
This is the cat [that killed the rat [that ate the malt [that lay in the house [that Jack built]]]].
etc

Coordination

2.10 The principle of indefinite extensibility is also present in grammar in another respect: two or more units of the same status on the grammatical hierarchy may constitute a single unit of the same kind. This type of construction is termed COORDINATION, and, like subordination, is typically signalled by a link-word termed a conjunction: in this case a COORDINATING conjunction. The most common coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, and *but*:

COORDINATION OF CLAUSES:
[[It was Christmas Day,] and [the snow lay thick on the ground]]. [1]
COORDINATION OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES:
You can go [[by air] or [by rail]]. [2]
COORDINATION OF NOUNS:
His [[son] and [daughter]] live in Buenos Aires. [3]

In these examples, the coordinated units are respectively clauses, phrases, and words. Coordination has many variations and complications which cannot be illustrated here (*cf* Chapter 13), but its essential principle is that units and structures may be duplicated without affecting their position in the grammatical hierarchy. Thus appropriate tree diagrams for [2] and [3] show the bifurcation of one unit into two linked units of equal status:

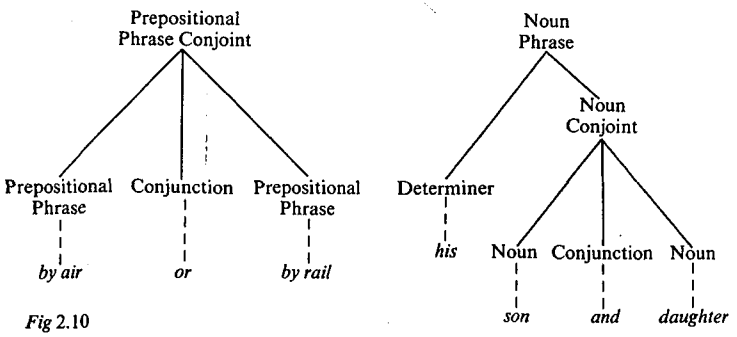

Fig 2.10

The constituent which contains the coordinated units as its immediate constituents is here labelled a 'conjoint' item, to mark its internal composition, but it is otherwise equivalent in its status to each of its coordinated constituents, or CONJOINS (*son*, *daughter*, etc).

These examples show the most common case, where the conjoint contains only two coordinated units; but the number of coordinated constituents is open-ended. We may compare the phrase *his son and daughter* in [3] with the treble coordination of *his wife, son, and daughter* (noting that the coordinating conjunction normally occurs before only the last conjoin), or with the more extended coordination of:

The colours of the rainbow are *blue, green, yellow, orange, red, indigo, and violet.*

or with the theoretical extremity of an infinitely long coordination:

The positive integers are *one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, . . .*

Note Conjoins are called 'conjuncts' by some grammarians, but in this grammar we use the latter term for linking adverbials (*cf* 8.134*ff*).

Sentences

2.11 It is usually assumed that the SENTENCE is the highest-ranking unit of grammar, and hence that the purpose of a grammatical description of English is to define, by means of whatever descriptive apparatus may be necessary (rules, categories, etc), what counts as a grammatical sentence in English. In this way, the terms 'grammar' and 'sentence' are mutually defining. In the past, grammarians have aimed to define 'sentence' as a prerequisite to defining 'grammar', or to define 'grammar' as a means of defining 'sentence'. But both approaches will be avoided here: indeed, neither of these terms can be given a clear-cut definition. The sentence is an indeterminate unit in the sense that it is often difficult to decide, particularly in spoken language, where one sentence ends and another begins (*cf* 19.29*ff*). The term 'grammar' is indeterminate in the sense that 'What counts as a grammatical English sentence?' is not always a question which permits a decisive answer; and this is not only because of the difficulty of segmenting a discourse into sentences but because questions of grammatical acceptability inevitably become involved with questions of meaning, with questions of good or bad style, with questions of lexical acceptability, with questions of acceptability in context, etc. To give a realistic presentation of English grammar, we therefore have to abandon neat boundaries, and to accept that grammar is a linguistic 'core' round which other aspects of linguistic organization and usage are integrated. Our intention, therefore, is to take a broad interpretation of grammar, which will enable us to give an account of other factors, especially meaning, which impinge on the discussion of grammatical rules and categories.

The CLAUSE, particularly the independent clause (*cf* 14.2), is in many ways a more clearly-defined unit than the sentence. It is for this reason that we shall concentrate, in this and the following nine chapters, on the SIMPLE SENTENCE (*ie* the sentence consisting of a single independent clause) as the most central part of grammar. We shall use the term MULTIPLE SENTENCE (subsuming complex and compound sentences) (*cf* 14.1*ff*) for all sentences which consist of more than one clause, either through subordination or

through coordination. Thus the limits of the English sentence are defined, in practice, wherever grammatical relations (such as those of subordination and coordination) cannot be established between clauses. Such relations, and their limits, are explored in later chapters, particularly Chapters 13, 14, and 19.

Form and function

2.12 We have indicated how grammatical categories may be identified through relationships of choice (or substitution) between constituents. In the simple cases of examples 2.6 [1] and [2], repeated here as [1] and [2], we recognized four positions in the clause where different kinds of phrase can occur:

The weather	has been	very cold	just recently	[1]
It	was	cold	recently	[2]

But to describe more fully how clauses are composed of phrases, it is necessary to take account of other factors, *eg* whether a constituent may vary its position (MOBILITY), and whether a constituent can be omitted (OPTIONALITY). In both these respects, the adverb phrases of [1] and [2] are different from the other phrases:

The weather has been very cold *just recently*. [1]
Just recently, the weather has been very cold. [1a]
The weather has been very cold. [1b]

Another observation about the adverb phrase is that it may be replaced by a different kind of constituent, which is similarly optional and mobile. For example, a noun phrase such as *this month* or a prepositional phrase such as *during the past week* may be a substitute for *just recently* in [1] and [1a]:

The weather has been very cold { *just recently.* [1] / *this month.* [1c] / *during the past week.* [1d] }

On the other hand, we obviously cannot always replace a noun phrase by an adverb phrase on by a prepositional phrase:

This month has been very cold. [3]
**Just recently* has been very cold. [4]
**During the past week* has been very cold. [5]

That is, noun phrases are in a 'choice' relation to other kinds of phrase on some occasions, but not on others.

In order to state more complicated facts of constituency such as these, it is important to distinguish two ways of classifying constituents. We may classify a unit either on the basis of its FORM (*eg* its internal structure, as a noun phrase, or as a verb phrase), or on the basis of its FUNCTION (*eg* as a subject or an object of a clause). By function is meant a unit's 'privilege of occurrence', in terms of its position, mobility, optionality, etc, in the unit of

which it is a constituent. Two units which have the same privilege of occurrence may be said to be FUNCTIONALLY EQUIVALENT. Thus the final phrases of [1], [1c], and [1d], although they belong to different formal categories (adverb phrase, noun phrase, prepositional phrase), may be said to belong to the same functional category of ADVERBIAL. Such categories define ELEMENTS OF STRUCTURE in the higher unit, which in this case is a clause. An adverbial, generally speaking, is distinguished from other elements by its variable position (for example, initial, medial, or final in the clause), by its optionality, and by the fact that the number of adverbials which can occur in a clause is not fixed.

The advantage of distinguishing functional from formal categories is that generalizations of two kinds can be made: those about a unit's status as a constituent of a higher unit, and those about its internal structure in terms of smaller or lower units. In some cases (*eg* prepositions; *cf* 2.29) the distinction is unimportant, but in other cases it is important and indeed necessary. For example, it is important to distinguish those prepositional phrases which act as adverbials from those which act as parts of noun phrases. It is also important to distinguish *adverbials* (a functional category) from *adverb phrases* (a formal category, whose members frequently function as adverbials). Here, as elsewhere, we trust that the advantage of using traditional and widely-understood terms outweighs any danger of confusion.

Note A FORMAL classification takes account of how a unit is composed of smaller units or components, including, in the case of words, stems and affixes. Since English often lacks formal indicators of word class, we often identify words by their function rather than their form.

Clause structure

Central and peripheral elements of the clause

2.13 The form–function distinction is particularly important in the case of clause structure, which we shall now discuss in some detail as the most familiar and important illustration of functional classification. To describe the constituency of clauses, we need to distinguish the following elements of clause structure:

SUBJECT (S), VERB (V), OBJECT (O), COMPLEMENT (C), and ADVERBIAL (A).

These are exemplified in the following simple declarative sentences:

Someone [S] was laughing [V] loudly [A] in the next room [A]. [1]
My mother [S] usually [A] enjoys [V] parties [O] very much [A]. [2]
In 1945 [A] the country [S] became [V] totally independent [C]. [3]
I [S] have been [V] in the garden [A] all the time [A] since lunch [A]. [4]
Mary [S] gave [V] the visitor [O] a glass of milk [O]. [5]
Most people [S] consider [V] these books [O] rather expensive [C], actually [A]. [6]
You [S] must put [V] all the toys [O] upstairs [A] immediately [A]. [7]

At the simplest level, we may make the following generalizations about

clause structures from these examples. The verb element (V) is the most 'central' element, and in all the examples above it is preceded by the subject (S). Following the verb there may be one or two objects (O), or a complement (C), which follows the object if one is present. The most peripheral element is the adverbial, which can occur either initially (in front of the subject, as in [3]), or finally (after the verb, and after the object or complement if one is present, as in [1], [4], and [6]). Many adverbials, however, may also occur medially, as in [2]. A clause may contain a varied number of final adverbials; *eg* none [5], one [2], two [7], three [4]. These observations are summarized in the simplified formula:

(A) S (A) V (O) (O) (C) (A . . .)

(As elsewhere, parentheses signal elements which may or may not be present in any given clause.) As a first approximation, this indicates something of the variability of clause structures in declarative clauses, although it will need later modification (*cf* Notes [a] and [b]).

The distinction between 'centre' and 'periphery' is relative rather than absolute. The verb element is the most 'central' element in that (i) its position is normally medial rather than initial or final; (ii) it is normally obligatory; (iii) it cannot normally be moved to a different position in the clause; and (iv) it helps to determine what other elements must occur (*cf* 2.16*ff*). For the opposite reasons, adverbials are the most peripheral elements: (i) their position is most frequently final; (ii) they are usually optional; (iii) they are mostly mobile; and (iv) they do not determine what other elements occur. They may be regarded, from a structural point of view, largely as 'optional extras', which may be added at will, so that it is not possible to give an exact limit to the number of adverbials a clause may contain. The other elements, subject, object, and complement, are in various degrees more peripheral than the verb, and less peripheral than the adverbial.

Note [a] Although in [1–7] the subject is apparently just as indispensable to clause structure as the verb, it will be noted that in imperative and nonfinite clauses the subject is usually optional (*cf* 2.57, 11.24*f*, 14.6*ff*). There is also a category of clauses in which the verb is omitted (verbless clauses; *cf* 14.9), but this is a less significant category than those of imperative and nonfinite clauses.

[b] The above generalizations will, of course, be subject to modification when we consider a wider range of clauses, particularly subordinate and nondeclarative clauses. For example, elements other than adverbials have a limited mobility; on movement of subjects, *cf* 2.48; of verbs, 18.8*f*; of objects and complements, 18.20, 18.37, 18.38.

[c] It is unfortunate that traditionally the word *verb* does service both for a clause element, and for the class of word which occurs as a constituent of that element. For example, in the former sense *must put* in [7] is a verb, and in the latter sense, *must* and *put* are verbs individually (*cf* 2.27). The term 'predicator' has been sometimes used to replace 'verb' in the sense of 'verb element', but for lack of a familiar alternative, we shall continue to use *verb* in both senses, distinguishing between verbs as elements and verbs as words where there is some risk of confusion. In yet another sense (*cf* 2.35) *verb* designates a basic verb form, or LEXICAL ITEM, which is manifested in different morphemes or morpheme combinations; *eg*: *have*, *having*, and *had* are all forms of the lexical item HAVE. (A similar polysemy applies to other word classes, particularly nouns).

A 'fixed word-order language'

2.14 To illustrate the mobility of adverbials in contrast with other elements, we

may observe that in example [2] *usually* can be moved to initial or final position:

My mother *usually* enjoys parties very much. [S A V O A] [2]
Usually my mother enjoys parties very much. [A S V O A] [2a]
My mother enjoys parties very much, *usually*. [S V O A A] [2b]

However, the other elements cannot be similarly moved from their S V O sequence:

*Usually enjoys parties my mother very much. [A V O S A]
*Enjoys usually my mother parties very much. [V A S O A]
*My mother parties usually enjoys very much. [S O A V A]

The fact that these orders, and many others of the same elements, do not readily occur, helps to explain why English is commonly described as a 'fixed word-order language'. In practice, discussion of word order in languages tends to revolve around the ordering of phrases which are clause elements, and it is notable, for instance, that in English the positions of subject, verb, and object are relatively fixed. In declarative clauses, they occur regularly in the order S V O, unless there are particular conditions (for example, the initial placing of the object pronoun in relative clauses) which lead to a disturbance of this order. Further conditions allow variations of this declarative order (for example, *Parties my mother usually enjoys very much* is a possible, though less usual, variant of [2]); these will be discussed in 2.59 and 18.20.

It is enough to state here that English does indeed have strict limitations on the ordering of clause elements, but that the more peripheral an element is, the more freedom of position it has. After V, S is the least mobile element, followed by O and C. Later we shall give attention to the various factors which lead to the displacement of an element from its regular position (*cf* esp 2.59, 11.5, 11.14, and 18.19*ff*).

Note [a] In [2], the restriction on movement even extends to the adverbial *very much*, which in comparison with other members of the adverbial category is relatively immobile:

*Very much my mother usually enjoys parties. [A S A V O] [2c]

[b] In terms of the present grammatical hierarchy (*cf* 2.7) the term *word order* ought to apply strictly to the ordering of words within phrases, rather than of phrases within clauses. This is not the normal interpretation of the expression, but it may be incidentally noted that in this more restricted sense, English has an even greater fixity of word order. Note, for example, beside [2a–2c], the still greater dislocation in:

**Mother my* usually enjoys parties *much very*.

Adverbials

2.15 It is worth pointing out that different degrees of centrality can be observed not only in different elements of clause structure, but also in different subcategories of the same element. Thus the adverbial category has been described as the most peripheral, but it is in fact a heterogeneous category, within which there are relatively central and relatively peripheral types of adverbial. In examples 2.13 [1–7], most of the adverbials are both mobile and optional: it is possible, for example, to omit the adverbial *usually* in [2] (*My mother enjoys parties very much*) as well as to change its position (as in

examples 2.14 [2a] and [2b]). But there are, as we have just seen in [2c], some adverbials which cannot readily be moved from their position in a given clause, and there are even adverbials which are obligatory, such as the place adverbials *in the garden* in example 2.13 [4] and *upstairs* in 2.13 [7]:

I have been *in the garden* all the time since lunch. [4]
You must put all the toys *upstairs* immediately. [7]

Contrast:

*I have been all the time since lunch. [4a]
*You must put all the toys immediately. [7a]

Because they are essential to the 'completion' of the meaning of the verb, such elements are classified by some grammarians as complements (*cf* 2.17*f*, 10.11). Our position, however, is that adverbials represent a spectrum of types, the most central of which, because of their obligatoriness and relative immobility, resemble complements. In provisional support of this analysis, note that *in the garden* and *upstairs* are equivalent to adverbials in meaning, *eg* in answering the question *Where?*, even though they are similar to complements in acting as an obligatory element following the verb BE.

At the other end of the spectrum, there are elements which are frequently called SENTENCE ADVERBIALS, because they tend to qualify, by their meaning, a whole sentence or clause, rather than just part of a clause (such as a verb, or a verb and object):

To my regret, he refused the offer of help. [8]
He was, *however*, very interested in my other proposals. [9]

In Chapter 8, these adverbials are subdivided into DISJUNCTS (those which, like *to my regret* in [8], comment on the form or content of the clause) and CONJUNCTS (those which, like *however* in [9], have a connective function). Such sentence adverbials are distinguished from ADJUNCTS and SUBJUNCTS, adverbials which are more closely integrated with the rest of the clause, and which include such familiar categories as adverbials of manner, place, time, and degree (*cf* 8.39, 8.51, 8.79, 8.104).

Characteristic of disjuncts and conjuncts are such markers of peripherality as separation from the rest of the clause by intonation boundaries in speech (*cf* App II.11*ff*) or by commas in writing (*cf* App III.17*f*). The distinctions between these four major types of adverbial are significant enough to deserve careful analysis in a later chapter (8.24*ff*), and yet it must be concluded that there is no clear division between the more central and more peripheral adverbials. Here we anticipate a problem which will be confronted at the end of this chapter (2.60): that of the partial INDETERMINACY of grammatical categories.

Note Sentence [4a] is grammatical if *been* is interpreted as an auxiliary verb followed by ellipsis of the main verb, as in (*cf* 12.62):
A: You should have been waiting here when the taxi arrived.
B: I have been (waiting) all the time since lunch.

Clause types

2.16 By eliminating *optional* adverbials from the clause structures illustrated in 2.13, we arrive at a classification of the essential core of each clause structure. Of the obligatory elements, the main verb is the one that wholly or largely determines what form the rest of the structure will take. From examples [1–7] the following seven CLAUSE TYPES emerge:

Table 2.16 Clause types

	S(ubject)	V(erb)	O(bject(s))	C(omplement)	A(dverbial)	
Type *SV*	Someone	was laughing				[1a]
Type *SVO*	My mother	enjoys	parties			[2a]
Type *SVC*	The country	became		totally independent		[3a]
Type *SVA*	I	have been			in the garden	[4a]
Type *SVOO*	Mary	gave	the visitor			
			a glass of milk			[5a]
Type *SVOC*	Most people	consider	these books	rather expensive		[6a]
Type *SVOA*	You	must put	all the toys		upstairs	[7a]

This set of patterns is the most general classification that can be usefully applied to the whole range of English clauses whether main or subordinate. Each clause type is associated with a set of verbs, as will be shown in detail in 16.18–66.

The seven fall naturally into three main types. There are:

a two-element pattern: *SV*

three three-element patterns: $SV + \begin{Bmatrix} O \\ C \\ A \end{Bmatrix}$

three four-element patterns: $SVO + \begin{Bmatrix} O \\ C \\ A \end{Bmatrix}$

Cutting across this threefold classification are three main verb classes:

INTRANSITIVE VERBS (*eg*: *laugh* in [1a]), are followed by no obligatory element, and occur in type *SV*.

TRANSITIVE VERBS (*eg*: *enjoy* in [2a], *give* in [5a], *consider* in [6a], *put* in [7a]) are followed by an OBJECT (*cf* 2.17), and occur in types *SVO*, *SVOO*, *SVOC*, and *SVOA* respectively.

COPULAR VERBS (*eg*: *become* in [3a], *be* in [4a]) are followed by a SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (*cf* 2.17) or an ADVERBIAL, and occur in types *SVC* and *SVA*.

In a general sense, the term TRANSITIVE is often applied to all verbs which require an object, including those of clause types *SVOO*, *SVOC*, and *SVOA*. It is, however, convenient to make a further classification of the verbs in these patterns:

TRANSITIVE VERBS →
- MONOTRANSITIVE VERBS occur in type *SVO*
- DITRANSITIVE VERBS occur in type *SVOO*
- COMPLEX TRANSITIVE VERBS occur in types *SVOC* and *SVOA*.

The term 'verb' primarily refers not to the whole V element, but to the main verb (*cf* 2.29) of the verb phrase: in [7a], for example, it is the main verb *put* (or more strictly, the lexical item PUT; *cf* 2.35–36) which determines that an object and an adverbial must follow the verb element.

Note The term COPULA refers to the verb BE, and COPULAR verbs are those verbs (including BE and BECOME) which are functionally equivalent to the copula (*cf* 16.21*ff*). They are variously called 'copulative', 'equative', 'intensive', or 'linking' verbs.

Objects and complements

2.17 Before considering the verb further, however, it is important to notice differences between the various elements which have been labelled 'object' and 'complement'. The following distinctions will be made:

OBJECT →
- DIRECT OBJECT (O_d)
- INDIRECT OBJECT (O_i)

COMPLEMENT →
- SUBJECT COMPLEMENT (C_s)
- OBJECT COMPLEMENT (C_o)

An object such as *parties* in [2a] (*My mother enjoys parties*) clearly has a different semantic role in the clause from an object such as *the visitor* in [5a] (*Mary gave the visitor a glass of milk*), and this has been traditionally recognized by applying the term DIRECT OBJECT to the former, and INDIRECT OBJECT to the latter. Leaving the semantic distinction until 10.7, 10.18*ff*, we give priority here to the distributional fact that whenever there are two objects (in type *SVOO*), the former is normally the indirect object, and the latter the direct object. But although it is more central with regard to position (*cf* 2.13), in other respects the indirect object is more peripheral than the direct object: it is more likely to be optional, and may generally be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase functioning as adverbial (*cf* 2.23).

Similarly, we must distinguish between the type of complement found in the *SVC* pattern; *ie*: *totally independent* in:

The country became totally independent. [3a]

and the type of complement found in the *SVOC* pattern; *ie*: *rather expensive* in:

Most people consider these books rather expensive. [6a]

The distinction is effectively made by noting that in [3a] the country is understood to have become a *totally independent country*, while in [6a] the books are understood to be considered *rather expensive books*. In other words, in *SVC* clauses the complement applies some attribute or definition to the subject, whereas in *SVOC* clauses it applies an attribute or definition to the object. This distinction is usually denoted by the terms SUBJECT COMPLEMENT and OBJECT COMPLEMENT respectively. In these cases, the complement is an adjective phrase, but elsewhere, where the complement is a noun phrase, the same kind of distinction holds:

Type *SVC*: The country became *a separate nation*.
Type *SVOC*: Most people considered Picasso *a genius*.

In the *SVC* sentence, *a separate nation* is understood to be a definition of the subject, *the country*, while in the *SVOC* sentence, *a genius* is understood to be a definition of the object, *Picasso*.

Note [a] In place of 'subject complement', the term 'predicative noun' or 'predicative adjective' is sometimes used. Other alternatives are 'predicative nominal' and 'predicative adjectival', the choice between 'nominal' and 'adjectival' being determined by whether this element is a noun phrase or an adjective phrase.
[b] Also, some writers make use of a very broad sense of 'complement', subsuming complements, objects, and obligatory adverbials in the present grammar.

Obligatory adverbials

2.18 There is a parallel between complements and obligatory adverbials (*cf* 2.15). Obligatory adverbials are largely restricted to what in a broad sense we may term SPACE ADJUNCTS (*cf* 8.3, 8.39*ff*). Just as complements can be divided into subject complements and object complements, so can obligatory space adjuncts be divided into those occurring in the *SVA* pattern, in which a location is attributed to the referent of the subject, and those occurring in the *SVOA* pattern, in which a location is attributed to the referent of the object. The parallel may be brought out as follows:

He [S] stayed [V] *very quiet* [C_s]. [1]
He [S] stayed [V] *in bed* [A_s]. [2]

They [S] kept [V] him [O] *very quiet* [C_o]. [3]
They [S] kept [V] him [O] *in bed* [A_o]. [4]

The symbols A_s and A_o here indicate a subject-related adjunct and an object-related adjunct respectively. The parallel between the two sets of clause types is also evident in the verb classes, and we acknowledge this by calling the verb in both [1] and [2] COPULAR (since it is equivalent in function to the copula BE) and calling the verb in both [3] and [4] COMPLEX TRANSITIVE (*cf* 2.16).

Space adjuncts occurring in the *SVA* and *SVOA* patterns include not only those indicating position, such as *in bed* or *at the office*, but also those indicating direction, such as *down* in *She put the glass down* (*cf* 10.10, 16.24). By extension, they may also include adverbials which specify 'temporal location', as in:

The next meeting will be *on the 5th February*.

and by a more abstract and metaphorical interpretation of 'space' (*cf* 9.32):

The road [S] is [V] *under construction* [A_s].
We [S] kept [V] him [O] *off cigarettes* [A_o].

But there are still some obligatory adverbials to which a locational metaphor cannot be applied. Examples are the manner adjunct *kindly* in [5], and the prepositional phrase *without a job* in [6]:

They [S] treated [V] her [O] *kindly* [A]. [5]
He [S] is [V] *without a job* [A]. [6]

At the same time, the close relationship of the prepositional phrase in [6] to a subject complement is evident in its semantic equivalence to the adjective *unemployed*.

Note As the above examples suggest, the distinction between complement and adverbial is by no means clear-cut, and there are strong arguments for classifying prepositional phrases such as *without a job* in [6] as complements. For further discussion, *cf* 10.11. Another difficulty, in determining the function in a clause of some prepositional phrases, is that which arises over the status of prepositional verbs such as *consist of* (*cf* 16.5*ff*).

Clause elements subclassified

2.19 *Table* 2.19 Verb classes in relation to clause types

Type *SV*	S Prices	V (intransitive) rose			[1]
Type *SVO*	S Elizabeth	V (monotransitive) enjoys	O_d classical music		[2]
Type *SVC*	S Your face	V (copular) seems	C_s familiar		[3]
Type *SVA*	S My sister	V (copular) lives	A_s next door		[4]
Type *SVOO*	S We all	V (ditransitive) wish	O_i you	O_d a happy birthday	[5]
Type *SVOC*	S The president	V (complex transitive) declared	O_d the meeting	C_o open	[6]
Type *SVOA*	S The doorman	V (complex transitive) showed	O_d the guests	A_o into the drawing room	[7]

A_o object-related adverbial C_o object complement O_d direct object
A_s subject-related adverbial C_s subject complement O_i indirect object

We have now found it necessary not only to distinguish functional categories such as subject, verb, and object in the structure of the clause, but also to

subclassify these into more specific categories, such as transitive verb, direct object, and subject complement. Such subclassification is typical of both formal and functional distinctions in grammar. Only through these finer distinctions can an adequate account be given of what combinations of constituents enter into the structure of the English clause. To clarify the terminology and its use, let us return to the seven clause types in *Table* 2.16, and specify the structures more precisely (again omitting optional adverbials) by means of subcategories of V, O, C, and A, in *Table* 2.19 opposite. The abbreviations used are those which will be current throughout this book (new examples are added for further illustration). Further variations on these clause types, including some exceptional patterns, are discussed in 16.18*ff*.

Systematic correspondences

2.20 The study of grammatical structure is aided by observing systematic CORRESPONDENCES between one structure and another. Such correspondences are sometimes described in terms of transformational rules, but we shall not make use of such theoretical formulations in this book. Instead, we shall use demonstrable correspondences as an informal way of showing similarities and contrasts between structures. They are important in explaining the relation between grammatical choice and meaning, and also in providing criteria for classification.

A systematic correspondence may be broadly defined as a relation or mapping between two structures X and Y, such that if the same lexical content occurs in X and in Y, there is a constant meaning relation between the two structures. (In using the term 'lexical content', we allow for the possibility that X and Y may contain different, though related, lexical items, such as *wise* and *wisely*.) This relation is often one of semantic equivalence, or paraphrase. In 2.21–24, we give three important examples of systematic correspondence, and show how they help in the identification of clause elements. Further types of correspondence will be examined in 2.45*ff*.

The symbol ~ is used in this book to represent such correspondences. Lack of systematic correspondence is symbolized by ≁.

We take the seven basic clause types of [1–7] as the point of departure for our description, but do not regard correspondences as unidirectional.

Active and passive structures

2.21 Clauses containing a noun phrase as object are distinguished by the fact that they are usually matched by passive clauses, in which the object noun phrase now appears as subject (V_{pass} = passive verb phrase), *cf Table* 2.21 on the next page. As type *SVOO* clauses have two objects, they can often have two passive forms – one in which the indirect object becomes the subject, and another in which the direct object becomes subject. Further discussion of the active–passive relationship is found in 3.63*ff*.

As the formulae show, this correspondence permits us to convert clauses of types with an object into equivalent types without objects (or, in the case of *SVOO*, with only one object). Thus the passive of *They considered him a genius* [*SVOC*] is closely parallel in meaning to the *SVC* pattern, except for the passive verb phrase:

He was considered a genius. [S V_{pass} C_s]
cf He seemed a genius. [S V C_s]

In all passive clause types, the agent *by*-phrase (*cf* 3.65*ff*, 9.50), which incorporates a noun phrase equivalent to the subject of the corresponding active clause, has the structural status of an optional adverbial (it is marked (A) in *Table* 2.21). Even when the agent *by*-phrase is absent, however, there is an implication of its presence at the level of meaning. In this sense, the agent *by*-phrase acts as complementation (*cf* 2.32) of the passive verb. Thus *He was considered a genius* carries the implication '. . . by someone or other'.

Table 2.21 Relations between active and passive clause types

	Type *SVO*
S V O_d ~ S V_{pass} (A)	A number of people saw the accident ~ The accident was seen (by a number of people)
	Type *SVOO*
S V O_i O_d ~ { S V_{pass} O_d (A) { S V_{pass} O_i (A)	My father gave me this watch { (1) ~ I was given this watch (by my father) { (2) ~ This watch was given (to) me (by my father)
	Type *SVOC*
S V O_d C_o ~ S V_{pass} C_s (A)	Queen Victoria considered him a genius ~ He was considered a genius (by Queen Victoria)
	Type *SVOA*
S V O_d A_o ~ S V_{pass} A_s (A)	An intruder must have placed the ladder there ~ The ladder must have been placed there (by an intruder)

Note [a] There are some exceptions (*eg* the verbs *have*, *cost*, *resemble*; *cf* 10.14, 16.27) to the passive equivalence with type *SVO*; *eg*:
John had the book ~ *The book was had by John.
[b] The second passive corresponding to type *SVOO* in *Table* 2.21 above is unidiomatic in AmE. More acceptable, in both AmE and BrE, is the related *SVOA* ~ *SVA* passive with a prepositional phrase (*cf* 2.23); *eg*;
Some flowers had been brought *him*.
is less natural than:
Some flowers had been brought *for him*.
With some verbs the former type seems quite unacceptable (*cf* 16.55*ff*):
*Some fish had been caught/bought/cooked *us*.

Copular and complex transitive structures

2.22 Another correspondence often obtains between an *SVOC* clause and a clause with an infinitive or *that*-clause (*cf* 16.50*f*):

I considered *her beautiful*. ~ { I considered *her* to be *beautiful*.
{ I considered that *she* was *beautiful*.

This correspondence indicates that the O and C of an *SVOC* clause are in the same relation to one another as the S and C of an *SVC* clause: *She was beautiful* (*cf* 16.43*ff*). This relation is expressed, wherever it is made explicit at all, by a copular verb, and we may therefore call it, for further reference, a COPULAR relationship. Copular relationships are important in other aspects of grammar apart from clause structure. They correspond, for example, to relations of apposition (*cf* 17.65*ff*) and many relations of modification (*cf* 2.31–33).

Further, we may extend the concept of 'copular relationship' to the relation between subject and adverbial in *SVA* clauses and the relation between object and adverbial in *SVOA* clauses (*cf* 10.10, 16.24, 16.48).

Indirect objects and prepositional phrases

2.23 There is a further correspondence by which *SVOO* clauses can be converted into *SVOA* clauses by the substitution of a prepositional phrase following the direct object for the indirect object preceding it:

She sent *Jim* a card ~ She sent a card *to Jim*.
She left *Jim* a card ~ She left a card *for Jim*.

To and *for*, indicating a recipient (*cf* 9.46), are the prepositions chiefly used, but others, such as *with* and *of*, are occasionally found (*cf* 16.57).

Note [a] There are however, some recipient *to*- and *for*-phrases which cannot be made into indirect objects: *He suggested the idea to Bill*; *She described her home to us*; etc. A borderline case is ?*He explained me his plan*, which is acceptable to some speakers, but not to others.
[b] We later (16.56*ff*) consider an alternative analysis in which the *to*-phrases and the *for*-phrases illustrated above are described as *prepositional objects*, and are regarded as grammatically equivalent to indirect objects.

The characterization of clause elements

2.24 For a fuller appreciation of the clause patterns outlined in 2.16, we need to know, of course, on what grounds the elements subject, verb, object, complement, and adverbial are identified. The identification of the verb element in general presents no problem, as this element can be realized only by a verb phrase (*cf* 2.27). For the other elements, it is necessary to use a variety of criteria. Although clause elements are functional categories (*cf* 2.12), their definitions are based on formal as well as on functional criteria. Thus it is an important part of the definition of both subjects and objects that they normally consist of noun phrases; it is an important part of the definition of complements that they are normally noun phrases or adjective phrases; and it is an important part of the definition of adverbials that they may be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, or noun phrases. It is unnecessary to go into these definitions any further in this chapter, as they are elaborated systematically in 10.5*ff*.

Phrases

Phrases as clause elements

2.25 The constituents which function as elements of clause structure are either phrases or subordinate clauses (*cf* 2.9), and our next stage is to outline briefly how the phrases, in their turn, are constituted. The five formal categories of phrase we have mentioned in 2.24 are verb phrases, noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. In the following diagram, the upward-pointing arrows show how these phrase types (when not embedded in other structures) can function as clause elements:

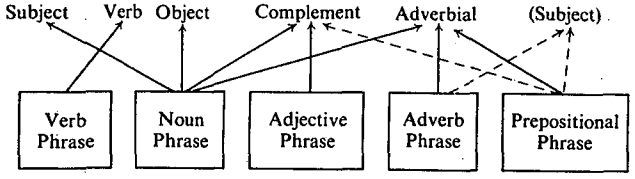

Fig 2.25 Phrases as clause elements

The broken arrows on the right indicate that adverb phrases and prepositional phrases can exceptionally function as subjects (*cf* 9.1 Note [a] and 10.15), and that prepositional phrases can exceptionally function as complements (*cf* 10.11).

Note [a] *Figure* 2.25 naturally omits reference to embedded phrases (*cf* 2.8), *eg* to prepositional phrases functioning as constituents of noun phrases.
[b] Phrases such as *the poor* and *the young* are only apparent exceptions to *Fig* 2.25: we shall argue (*cf* 7.23*ff*), that although they have an adjective as their main word (or head), such phrases are noun phrases.
[c] Only a limited range of adverbials can be realized as noun phrases (*cf* 8.39, 8.52).

General structural characteristics of phrases

2.26 Each phrase is named after a class of word which has a primary, and indeed obligatory function within it. This function, however, varies in different types of phrases, and we may usefully investigate it in terms of the distinction between optional and obligatory elements. One kind of construction is illustrated by prepositional phrases, which contain two normally obligatory elements: the preposition and the prepositional complement (*cf* 9.1). Another kind of construction is illustrated by adjective phrases, which have one obligatory element (an adjective), optionally preceded or followed by other elements. These two constructions will be called NONHEADED and HEADED respectively:

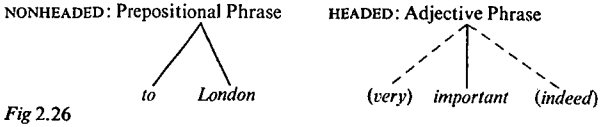

Fig 2.26

Thus in the sentence *I went to London*, neither *to* nor *London* could be omitted: **I went to*, **I went London*. But in the sentence *This is very important indeed*, the modifiers *very* and *indeed* can be omitted: *This is important*; while *important* is obligatory: **This is very indeed*. The obligatory element of a headed construction is called its HEAD; it may function in a manner equivalent to the whole construction of which it is a part. Adverb phrases resemble adjective phrases in that they have a head (an adverb) to which optional elements may be added; *eg*: (*rather*) *slowly*. But the two most important categories of phrase, verb phrases and noun phrases, do not entirely fit into either category: for them, the headed/nonheaded distinction is inadequate.

Note Technical terms for headed and nonheaded are 'endocentric' and 'exocentric'.

Verb phrases and noun phrases

2.27 The verb phrase and the noun phrase can be considered the most important phrasal categories for functional reasons. We note from *Fig* 2.25 that the verb phrase operates as the V element in a clause, *ie* as the most 'central' and indispensable part of the clause (*cf* 2.13). The noun phrase is important more because of its multiplicity of function: *Fig* 2.25 shows that a noun phrase can function as any of the clause constituents except V. A declarative sentence, indeed, normally contains a verb phrase and at least one noun phrase.

Verb phrases are headed to the extent that they are composed of two kinds of element, auxiliaries and main verbs, such that every unreduced verb phrase (*cf* 2.51) contains a main verb, but not necessarily an auxiliary. However, a nonfinite (3.53*ff*) main verb cannot normally stand on its own in independent clauses; the auxiliaries *can*, *have*, and *been* may not, therefore, be omitted in:

Jack *can play* the trombone. Our team *has been beaten*.

The relations between auxiliaries and main verbs are more complex than can be explained by the simple headed/nonheaded distinction; further consideration of this question will be given in 3.55.

Similar remarks apply to noun phrases. A noun phrase is headed to the extent that it has a central constituent or head, to which other elements can be optionally added. But if we change the plural noun phrase in [1] into a singular one in [2], the head can no longer stand alone:

The room contains { (some) (beautiful) (Flemish) vases. [1]
a (beautiful) (Flemish) vase. [2]

For a large class of noun phrases, in fact, a DETERMINATIVE element such as *a* in [2] is obligatory. In another respect, too, noun phrases do not behave like headed constructions: members of one class of words, that of personal pronouns (*I*, *him*, *her*, etc), although they act as heads of noun phrases (in the sense that *I* can function alone as subject, *him* as object, etc), cannot normally have optional elements, such as articles and adjectives, added to them. Thus in some noun phrases the head must be accompanied, and in other noun phrases it cannot (normally) be accompanied, by another element. Such observations make it clear that phrases, like clauses, cannot be described by a single structural formula, and that various subclassifications have to be made of phrases and of the elements they contain.

Summary of phrase structures

2.28 In spite of the inevitable oversimplification, we give now a brief tabular summary of the main elements of each phrase class. Rather than label all elements with functional labels (as we did with S, V, O, C, and A), we shall merely illustrate certain general types of syntactic function within phrases. These types will receive further comment in 2.29–33.

VERB PHRASES (*cf* 3.52*ff*) consist of a main verb which either stands alone as the entire verb phrase, or is preceded by up to four verbs in an auxiliary function:

Table 2.28a Verb phrase

	auxiliary/auxiliaries				main verb	
The ship					sank	
				was	sinking	
			has	been	sunk	
		must	have	been	sinking	
	may	have	been	being	sunk	⟨rare; *cf* Note⟩

NOUN PHRASES (*cf* 5.1*ff*, 17.1*ff*) consist of a head, which is typically a noun, and of elements which (either obligatorily or optionally) determine the head and (optionally) modify the head, or complement another element in the phrase:

Table 2.28b Noun phrase

	determinative	premodification	head	postmodification	
					complementation
I remember			him		
			Peter		
	Alice's		wedding		
	that		girl	with the red hair	
	all those	fine warm	days	in the country last year	
	a	better	story		than that
	the	best	trip		that I ever had
	a	good	trip	that I once had	

ADJECTIVE PHRASES (*cf* 7.20*ff*) consist of an adjective as head, optionally preceded and followed by modifying elements:

Table 2.28c Adjective phrase

	premodification	head	postmodification	
				complementation
The weather was		pleasant		
	too	hot		to be enjoyable
	incredibly	cold		
		pleasant	enough	

Sometimes an obligatory or optional complementation (*cf* 2.32, 16.69) is added.

ADVERB PHRASES (*cf* 7.46*ff*) are similar to adjective phrases in their structure, except that they have an adverb, instead of an adjective, as their head:

Table 2.28d Adverb phrase

	premodification	head	postmodification	
				complementation
I spoke to him		yesterday		
	quite	often		
	very	severely	indeed	
	as	clearly		as I could

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES (*cf* 9.1*ff*) consist of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is normally a noun phrase:

Table 2.28e Prepositional phrase

	preposition	prepositional complement
I met her	for	lunch
	at	the corner of the street
	on	Saturday morning
	by	a strange coincidence

It is true of adjective and adverb phrases, as of noun phrases, that one-word elements tend to precede the head, whereas multi-word elements tend to follow it. But there are exceptions: *eg* the adverbs *indeed* and *enough* postmodify their head.

Note The verb phrase construction of *may have been being sunk* is so rare that an extended example is called for. The following dialogue could well occur during an interview for an appointment:

A: Has a candidate named Petersen been interviewed yet?

B: He wasn't in the waiting room two minutes ago. He may have been being interviewed then.

Form and function in phrase structure

2.29 We shall find it necessary to observe the distinction between form and function within phrases, as within clauses. It is true that there is a strong association between certain word classes and certain elements within the phrase. For example, in noun phrases the head is typically a noun, and the determinative function is typically performed by members of a relatively small class of words called, appropriately enough, DETERMINERS (*the, a, no, every*, etc). On the other hand, there is rarely a one-to-one match between formal and functional classifications. The head of a noun phrase may be a pronoun (as we have seen), or an adjective: *the poor, the unemployed*, etc. Similarly, the determinative function can be performed not only by a determiner, but by a genitive construction: *John's new bicycle*, etc (*cf* 5.121). In such cases, we need to make terminological distinctions between form and function, so that we can say, for example, that an adjective (formal term) can function either as modifier or as head (functional terms) in a noun phrase. It will be noted that a noun can be a premodifier as well as a head: contrast *the poor city* with *the city poor*.

In other cases, however, there is a one-to-one match, and it would be superfluous to introduce two terms for what is effectively the same category. A preposition nearly always functions as the 'preposed' element of a prepositional phrase, and no other word class shares this function. It might be equally claimed that there is no need to distinguish form from function in the verb phrase: that auxiliary verb and main verb will satisfy both requirements. But even here, we shall find good grounds for distinguishing 'auxiliary' and 'main', as functional terms, from the terms which define classes of verb word. Of these, there are three: MODAL verbs (*may, will, could*, etc) always function as auxiliaries; FULL verbs (*give, work, try*, etc) always function as main verbs; and PRIMARY verbs (the three most important verbs in the language: *be, have*, and *do*) can function either as auxiliaries or as main verbs.

There are three other terms designating broad functions which may be performed by various types of constituents, and we shall now explain their meaning. They are DETERMINATION, MODIFICATION, and COMPLEMENTATION.

Determination

2.30 This term may be used for the function of words and (sometimes) phrases which, in general, determine what *kind of reference* a noun phrase has: for example, whether it is definite (like *the*) or indefinite (like *a/an*), partitive (like *some*) or universal (like *all*). Semantically, all noun phrases are determined in some way or other; *eg* all noun phrases are either definite or indefinite in meaning. But some heads are by their very nature self-determining: proper nouns and personal pronouns, for example, are inherently definite, and in this sense incorporate their own determiner. In such cases, then, a noun phrase will not generally contain a separate word with a determinative function. When the head is a common noun, on the other hand, determination as a syntactic function is normal, if not obligatory: we cannot, for instance, omit the determiners *the* and *a* in *The driver was a man*.

Note It will be clear from the above that we treat the definite and indefinite articles as members of the larger class of determiners. There appears to be an exception to the generalization that common nouns are determined in the case of plural and noncount nouns like *women* and *water* respectively; but we shall prefer to say (*cf* 5.2) that the apparent absence of an article signals the presence of the ZERO article.

Modification

2.31 Modification, in contrast, is a largely optional function performed, for instance, by adjectives in the noun phrase, and by intensifying adverbs in the adverb phrase. Premodifiers precede the head, and postmodifiers follow it; in noun phrases, premodifiers follow determinatives. Semantically, modifiers add 'descriptive' information to the head, often restricting the reference of the head. Thus *a green table* has a more specific meaning than *a table*, and *very tall* has a more specific meaning than *tall* (*cf* however, 17.3*ff* for the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive modification). In this respect, modifiers in phrases parallel adverbials in the clause – a similarity brought out by:

He arrived (unexpectedly) (in Warsaw) yesterday. [1]
~ his (unexpected) arrival (in Warsaw) yesterday. [2]

In the clause [1] the parenthesized elements are adverbials, whereas in the noun phrase [2] the parenthesized elements are modifers.

Note [a] The particular correspondence between [1] and [2], whereby a clause-related meaning takes on the grammatical form of a noun phrase, is discussed under the heading of NOMINALIZATION (*cf* 17.51*ff*).
[b] The parallel between [1] and [2] also helps to explain a traditional characterization of adverbs as modifiers of verbs (a tradition enshrined in the term *adverb* itself). But as we shall see in Chapter 8, adverbs cannot be regarded in this light.

Complementation

2.32 We reserve the term COMPLEMENTATION (as distinct from *complement*) for the function of a part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies. As such, complementation may be either obligatory or optional on the syntactic level. Complementation also overlaps with other functions, such as adverbials and modifiers.

We have already encountered complementation in clause structure: the clause types listed in *Table* 2.16 (*SVO, SVA, SVOA*, etc) were characterized by differences in the complementation (in terms of O, C, or A) required to complete the meaning of the verb. Thus the terms 'monotransitive' (as applied to the verb *deceive*) or 'ditransitive' (as applied to the verb *allow*) identify their complementations as O and O O respectively. In a similar way, certain adjectives require complementation by a postmodifier:

VERB COMPLEMENTATION

He deceived *his father*. BUT *He deceived.
He allowed me *a respite*. BUT *He allowed me.

ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTATION

All sales are subject *to tax*. BUT *All sales are subject.
Mr Gould is likely *to resign*. BUT *Mr Gould is likely.

The verb *deceive* and the adjective *subject* are similar to the extent that their meaning requires not only a subject ('*X*') but some other element ('*Y*'): '*X* deceives *Y*', '*X* is subject to *Y*'. The meaning of a clause will be incomplete unless the '*Y*' is specified. In other cases, the complementation is optional:

VERB COMPLEMENTATION: Joan was eating (*her lunch*). [1]
ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTATION: The boat was ready (*for departure*). [2]

The function of the optional elements here is still one of complementation because even when they are omitted, it is still implied that Joan was *eating something*, and that the boat was *ready for something*. In this connection, we may notice a contrast even between such semantically similar adjectives as *glad* and *cheerful*, in that the first implies that the emotion has a specific source, whereas the second does not. Thus *glad* will be typically followed by a complementing phrase or clause (*eg*: *glad about your prize*, *glad that you came*), and will occur without such complementation only if the context supplies the information which the clause fails to specify. On the other hand, *cheerful* may freely occur as both modifier and head in a way which is not possible with *glad*:

We always found him *cheerful*. BUT ?We always found him *glad*.
He was a *cheerful* person. BUT *He was a *glad* person.

Note Although we describe the complementation in [1] as 'optional', there is reason to claim that *her lunch* in *Joan was eating her lunch* is not optional in a strictly syntactic sense of the word. If, as we argue in 10.4, verbs like *eat* are dually classified as both transitive and intransitive, then the omission of the object involves a change in the classification of the verb element (*cf* App I.54).

Modification and complementation

2.33 Although complementing elements may be optional, such elements differ semantically from other optional elements (*eg* most modifiers) in that the omission of complementation, as in *The boat was ready* (2.32 [2]), implies that some element of meaning in a preceding word is 'unsatisfied', and therefore has to be provided through context. It must be admitted, however, that this criterion is not always clear-cut, since the need for semantic 'satisfaction' is a matter of degree.

Another difference between complementation and modification is a syntactic one. Whereas the modifying function always relates to the head of a phrase, the complementing function may relate to a premodifier which is separated from its complementation by the head:

Greek is a *more difficult language than French*. [1]
She was *too ill to travel*. [2]

In [1], the phrase *than French* complements the comparative adverb *more* rather than the head noun *language*; and in [2], *to travel* complements the adverb *too*, rather than the head adjective *ill*. To see this, we note that the omission of the relevant modifier results in an unacceptable sentence:

*Greek is a *difficult language than French*.
*She was *ill to travel*.
(But *cf*: She is (*rather*) *young to drive a car*; 16.76.)

It is clear, then, that there is not a straight choice between optional and obligatory elements of phrases. Determination, modification, and complementation all depend on the presence of some other element (usually the head) in the phrase. Heads are obligatory and modifiers are generally optional, but determination and complementation are functions whose conditions of occurrence cannot be defined so simply (*cf* 5.10*ff*, 16.18*ff*).

Note For completeness, it should be mentioned that modifiers may themselves contain modifiers (*cf* 17.118*ff*). For example, in *far more difficult*, *far* modifies *more*, and *far more* modifies *difficult*. Hence the unacceptability of **far difficult*.

Word classes

2.34 In dealing with phrases, we have already had occasion to refer to many of the general WORD CLASSES traditionally called 'parts of speech'. Members of the Indo-European group of languages have been analysed in terms of such categories since classical antiquity. It may be helpful now to list and exemplify the word classes that have been introduced:

(a) CLOSED CLASSES (*cf* 2.39)
preposition – *of*, *at*, *in*, *without*, *in spite of*
pronoun – *he*, *they*, *anybody*, *one*, *which*
determiner – *the*, *a*, *that*, *every*, *some*
conjunction – *and*, *that*, *when*, *although*
modal verb – *can*, *must*, *will*, *could*
primary verb – *be*, *have*, *do*

(b) OPEN CLASSES (*cf* 2.40)
noun – *John*, *room*, *answer*, *play*
adjective – *happy*, *steady*, *new*, *large*, *round*
full verb – *search*, *grow*, *play*
adverb – *steadily*, *completely*, *really*

To these may be added two lesser categories (*cf* 2.42):

(c) numerals – *one*, *two*, *three*; *first*, *second*, *third*

and the marginal and anomalous class of

(d) interjections – *oh*, *ah*, *ugh*, *phew*

and, finally, a small number of words of unique function (*eg* the negative

particle *not* and the infinitive marker *to*) which do not easily fit into any of these classes.

Even so short a list of examples raises several important questions, to which we now turn.

Lexical items and grammatical words

2.35 First, we should notice that the examples are listed as *words* in their 'dictionary form', and not as they often appear in sentences when they function as constituents of phrases (but *cf* Note [a] on invariable words): thus the singular noun *room* is listed and not the plural noun *rooms*; the simple adjective *happy* and not the comparative adjective *happier*; the infinitive (or uninflected) verb *hope* and not the past form *hoped*; the subjective pronoun form *he* and not the objective form *him*. We cite these words in what may be called their BASE form (*cf* App I.2*ff*), *ie* the form to which, in regular cases, inflectional suffixes are added to make inflected forms (*rooms*, *happier*, etc). But such a manner of speaking reveals that we are using the term 'word' in two different senses. The ambiguity is more fully evident in:

'The word *works* occurs in the sentence *He works at home*.' [1]

'The word WORK occurs in the sentence *He works at home*.' [2]

Both sentences are acceptable in normal usage, but the ambiguity they show can be avoided if we adopt the term LEXICAL ITEM (*cf* App I.1) to replace 'word' in [2]. That is, a lexical item is a word as it occurs in a dictionary, where *work*, *works*, *working*, *worked* will all be counted as different grammatical forms, or variants, of the word WORK. We shall use a graphic convention (SMALL CAPITALS), where necessary (and particularly in Chapter 3), to distinguish lexical items from grammatical word-forms (*ie* words as units which are constituents of phrases). We shall not, however, in general distinguish lexical items by a separate terminology: following normal practice, class labels such as *verb*, *noun*, and *adjective* will be used to refer to words in both senses.

Like the distinction between forms and functions, that between words as forms and words as lexical items does not have to be made in all cases. Only certain parts of speech have inflections (*ie* endings or modifications which change one word-form into another): notably nouns (*answer*, *answers*), verbs (*give*, *gives*, *gave*, *giving*, *given*), pronouns (*they*, *them*, *their*, *theirs*), and adjectives (*large*, *larger*, *largest*). Moreover, not all words in these categories have more than one form. Other word classes, with a few exceptions (*cf* Note [a]), are invariable. In citing invariable words, we shall always use italics rather than small capitals.

Note [a] Apart from nouns, verbs, pronouns, and adjectives, a few adverbs (*soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*, etc) and determiners (*few*, *fewer*, *fewest*, etc) have inflected forms. Other parts of speech are invariable.

[b] On 'stem', as distinct from 'base', *cf* App I.2.

[c] When a grammatical or semantic distinction is realized morphologically by a contrast between the presence and the absence of an inflection, the word-form with the inflection is termed MARKED, and the form without it UNMARKED. Thus the plural forms of regular nouns, in contrast to their singular forms, are marked by the *-s* ending. The unmarked form is also frequently the term which is more neutral or general in use or meaning: the present tense, as opposed to the past, is thus not only unmarked in having (except in the third person singular) no inflection, but also in being able to refer to time in a general sense, including past, present, and future time (*cf* 4.3). From this concept, it is common to extend the use of 'marked' and 'unmarked' (as we do in this book) more generally to grammatical contrasts which are formally or semantically unequal in this way. It can be said, for example, that the progressive aspect (*eg*: *is living*) is marked in relation to the nonprogressive (*eg*: *lives*) both because it is realized by the additional syntactic MARKING of the BE + V*ing* construction (*cf* 3.54) and also because it is semantically more restricted than the nonprogressive. Further examples of a marked/unmarked distinction are mentioned in 3.58, 5.112, 6.10, and 7.88.

2.36 From even the few examples given in 2.34, it can be seen that a lexical item may consist of a sequence of more than one orthographic word (*cf* 2.37). This is especially common in the case of complex prepositions (*cf* 9.10*ff*) such as *in spite of*, *because of*, *away from*, and multi-word verbs (*cf* 16.2*ff*) such as *look at*, *set up*, and *stand out* (compare the related adjective *outstanding*, again one lexical item, but this time one word also). Equally, however, we can sometimes look upon a lexical item as being downgraded to become less than a word: for example, the adverbs *out* and *up* in *outstanding* and *upset* or (from this viewpoint) the noun *spite* and the prepositions *in* and *of* in *in spite of*.

The treatment of the subjective form (*I*, *he*, *she*, etc) of personal pronouns as the base or 'dictionary' form is conventional, but is not so clearly motivated as in the case of other word classes. We may note even here, however, a tendency to select the subjective form in derivational compounds: for example, *she-wolf* and *he-man* rather than **her-wolf* and **him-man*.

Morphological, phonological, and orthographic form

2.37 Secondly, some of the examples in 2.34 appear as more than one word class (*play* as a noun and verb, *that* as a demonstrative and conjunction) and more of them could have been given additional entries in this way (*round* can be a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and preposition). In such cases we can say that the same MORPHOLOGICAL FORM is a realization of more than one lexical item. This is a highly important feature of English, and further attention will be drawn to it in App I.43*ff*. A morphological form may be simple (consisting of a stem only, as in the case of *play*) or complex (consisting of more than one morpheme, like *playful*). The morphological form of a word may therefore be defined as its composition in terms of morphemes (*cf* 2.7), *ie* stems and affixes.

While such morphological correspondences across parts of speech should be noted, we should also give attention to morphological characteristics which distinguish one part of speech from another, notably the occurrence of particular derivational affixes (*cf* App I.20*ff*) which mark a word as a member of a particular class. The suffix *-ness*, for example, marks an item as a noun (*kindness*, *happiness*, etc), while the suffix *-less* marks an item as an adjective (*helpless*, *careless*, etc). Such indicators enable a speaker of English to recognize implicitly the word class of an item, even if he has not met that item before, purely on the basis of its form.

When the need arises, therefore, we shall be able to distinguish a lexical item not only from the grammatical forms which it takes in various syntactic settings, but from the morphological forms which it may share entirely or in part with other lexical items of the same word class or of other word classes.

Thus the adjective LONG has precisely the same morphological forms as the adverb LONG (*long* ~ *longer* ~ *longest*); whereas the adjective GOOD shares the forms of the adverb WELL only in part: *ie* the comparative (*better*) and superlative (*best*) forms.

This morphological convergence may also occur at the level of grammatical forms, either between forms of different lexical items (*eg*: *meeting* as a singular noun and *meeting* as a verb participle) or between forms of the same lexical item (*worked* as a realization of both the past tense and the *-ed* participle forms of WORK). The latter is an example of the NEUTRALIZATION of inflectional forms which are distinct for other verbs (*cf* 3.2*ff*, 3.11*ff*) such as GIVE (*gave*, *given*).

For the sake of completeness, it should be added that a word also has a PHONOLOGICAL and an ORTHOGRAPHIC form, and that similarities and contrasts in pronunciation and spelling are not necessarily to be associated with those on the levels of lexicology and grammar. There is, for example, an important similarity between all words beginning /ð/ (*the*, *that*, *then*, for example), and likewise between many of those beginning *wh-* (*which*, *when*, for example): basically, the former are relater or indicator words, and the latter interrogative or relative words (*cf* 2.44*f*). But we should hesitate to attempt a morphological account of these similarities; rather, they are correspondences of pronunciation and spelling which reflect grammatical correspondences in the history of the language. Similarly, the variant spelling and pronunciation of the indefinite article *a/an* is not a case of inflectional variation, but of variation determined by phonology (*viz* by whether the following word begins with a consonant or not).

Homonyms and homomorphs

2.38 Words which share the same phonological or orthographic 'shape', but are morphologically unrelated, are termed HOMONYMS: for example, *rose* [noun] is a homonym of *rose* [past tense verb]. There is no standard term for words which also share the same morphological form (*eg*: *red* as a noun and *red* as an adjective, *meeting* as a noun and *meeting* as a verb), but it seems appropriate to adopt the term HOMOMORPH for this purpose. These and related distinctions such as 'homophone' and 'homograph' (*cf* Note) are explained in *Fig* 2.38 opposite.

To the set of equivalence relations between words, this diagram adds, for completeness, the relation of synonymy, or sameness of meaning. Strictly, synonymy (and its opposite, antonymy) holds between word senses, rather than between words. For example, *hard* is a synonym of *difficult* only in one sense; in another sense (that in which it contrasts with *soft*) it is not. Of the three major kinds of equivalence in *Fig* 2.38, homonymy is phonological and/or graphic, and synonymy is semantic. Only homomorphy is of primary concern to grammar.

Note There has been considerable disagreement and confusion over the use of the term 'homonym', which has often been extended to apply to cases we have referred to as homomorphs. Similarly, 'homonym' has often been used ambiguously, according to whether it denotes identity of pronunciation, of spelling, or of both. These distinctions can be made, where required, by the use of the terms HOMOPHONE and HOMOGRAPH. In practice, the distinction between homonymy and homomorphy is not always easy to draw. We judge *red* [noun] and *red* [adjective] to be

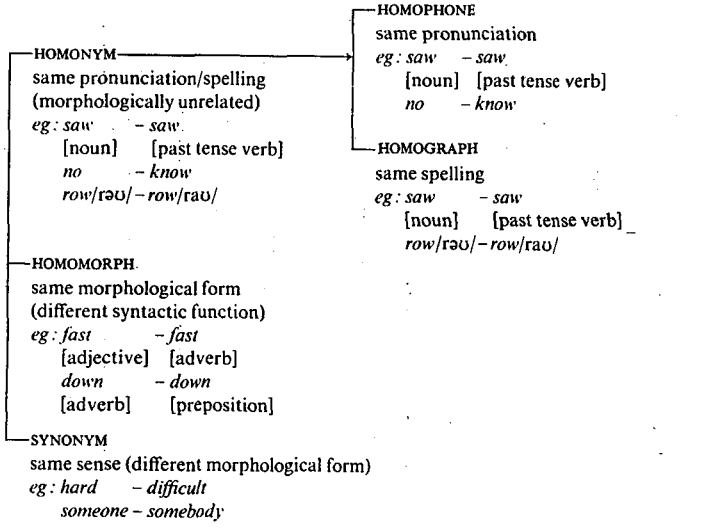

Fig 2.38 Types of equivalence between words

homomorphs only on the grounds that they share the same stem morpheme, and this in turn rests on the judgment that the two words are related through processes of word-formation, in a semantically systematic way (*cf* esp CONVERSION, App I.43*ff*). Thus to call two words such as *hard* [adjective] and *hard* [adverb] 'homomorphs' is to acknowledge their affinity in meaning. With other words (*eg*: *leave* [noun] and *leave* [verb]) this connection is less clear. Our use of 'homomorph' is also ambiguous (but harmlessly so) according to whether this relation of morphological identity exists between words *qua* grammatical forms (*eg* between *hidden* as an adjective and *hidden* as a verb participle) or between words *qua* lexical items (*eg* between WORK as a noun, comprising the word forms *work* and *works*, and WORK as a verb, comprising the forms *work*, *works*, *working*, and *worked*). And if we apply the term 'homomorphs' to WORK [noun] and WORK [verb], we must also apply it, where the occasion arises, to different secondary word classes (*cf* 2.41): *eg* WORK as an intransitive verb (as in *This watch doesn't work*) and WORK as a monotransitive verb (as in *She worked wonders*). By acknowledging in these ways the various senses in which words may be linguistically 'the same' or 'different', we do not imply any subordination of semantic to formal criteria, but merely recognize that grammatical and semantic criteria may be independent of one another. The conventional practices of lexicography, whereby different grammatical homomorphs are grouped under the same 'headword', should not necessarily be regarded, for grammatical purposes, as definitive.

Closed-class items

2.39 Thirdly, the parts of speech in 2.34 were listed in two main groups, (a) and (b), and this introduces a distinction of great significance. Set (a) comprises what are called CLOSED-CLASS items. That is, the sets of items are 'closed' in the sense that they are only exceptionally extended by the creation of additional members: a moment's reflection is enough for us to realize how rarely in a language we invent or adopt a new or additional pronoun. It requires no great effort to list all or most of the members of a closed class

(even though one may not be sure that one has made an exhaustive inventory of its more peripheral members).

A semantic corollary of this is that closed-class members are mutually exclusive and mutually defining in meaning: it is less easy to state the meaning of an individual item than to define it in relation to the rest of the class. The meaning of closed-class items also tends to be closely bound up with that of the construction of which they are a part, as is reflected in alternative names sometimes given to them – 'function words', 'grammatical words', and 'structure words'. These terms also stress their function in the grammatical sense, as structural markers: thus a determiner typically signals the beginning of a noun phrase, a preposition the beginning of a prepositional phrase, a conjunction the beginning of a clause.

Open-class items

2.40 By contrast, set (b) in 2.34 comprises OPEN CLASSES. Items belonging to such a class have broadly the same grammatical properties and structural possibilities as its other members, but the class is 'open' in that it is indefinitely extendable. New items are constantly being created, and no one could make an inventory of all the nouns (for example) in English, and be confident that it was complete. This inevitably affects the way in which we attempt to define any item in an open class: while it would be valuable to relate the meaning of *room* to other nouns with which it has a semantic affinity (*chamber*, *hall*, *house*, etc) one could not define it as 'not house, not box, not plate, not indigestion, . . .' as one might define a closed-class item like *this* as 'not that'.

Of course, in any one phrase or sentence the decision to select a particular word at one place in the structure imposes great constraints on what can be selected at another. But in an arrangement like the following there is in principle a sharp difference between the number of possibilities in columns (i), (iii), and (iv) ('closed') and the number in (ii), (v), and (vi) ('open'):

	(i)	(ii)	(iii)	(iv)	(v)	(vi)
(John)	may	sit	by	the	fountain	sadly
	will	stare	at	this	tree	happily
	must	read	from	that	book	frequently
	⋮	hurry	along	⋮	window	⋮
		⋮	on		path	
			⋮		⋮	

The distinction between 'open' and 'closed' word classes must be treated with caution, however. On the one hand, we must not exaggerate the ease with which we create new words (*cf* App I.13*f*), and on the other we must not exaggerate the extent to which word classes in set (a) are 'closed': new prepositions (usually of the complex type 'preposition + noun + preposition' like *by way of*) continue to arise (*cf* 9.10*ff*).

The taxonomy of word classes

2.41 There is a yet more important caveat. Although they have deceptively specific labels, the word classes tend in fact to be rather heterogeneous, if not problematic categories. There is nothing sacrosanct about the traditional parts-of-speech classification, and we have indeed deviated from tradition to some extent in our list in 2.34. Thus the traditional category of article (*the* and *a/an*) has been subsumed under the larger heading of determiners (including, for instance, the demonstratives *this* and *that*); the traditional category of verb, on the other hand, has been divided into three categories, two closed (primary and modal verbs) and one open (full verbs). Both these adjustments are well-motivated for modern English. They do, however, raise questions about the justification for this or that classification.

The term 'word classes' (or more particularly the traditional term 'parts of speech') has been normally understood to refer to the most *general* categories to which lexical items can be appropriately assigned. There are, however, well-established subclassifications within these categories: nouns are subclassified into SECONDARY WORD CLASSES as common nouns, proper nouns, etc, and verbs as transitive verbs, intransitive verbs etc. But there is scope for considerable disagreement on the point at which we stop grouping subcategories into larger categories. The class of adverbs is notoriously heterogeneous, and may be separated into an open class consisting of adverbs with an adjectival base (especially those, like *completely*, which have an *-ly* suffix), and a closed class including adverbs such as *here*, *there*, *now*, etc. This closed class, however, will still be heterogeneous. An even better case can be made for splitting the conjunction class into subordinators (*cf* 14.11*ff*), which link a subordinate clause to a superordinate clause, and coordinators (*cf* 13.5*ff*), which link coordinate constructions. In the opposite direction, there are arguments, despite the clear criteria which separate modal, primary, and full verbs in modern English, for bringing these together, in the traditional way, within a global class of verbs. Indeed, the use of the term 'verb' itself in reference to these three categories reflects their overlap in terms of morphology, function, and meaning (*cf* 3.1*ff*).

Such arguments, however, have more to do with the labelling of categories than with the question of how we can best explain the grammatical behaviour of items on the basis of their various degrees of similarity and contrast. It is to this more substantial question that we shall address ourselves in the following chapters.

Additional classes

2.42 Some mention must be finally made of two categories, numerals and interjections, which are yoked together here only by virtue of the difficulty of classifying them as either closed or open classes.

(a) NUMERALS

Numerals, whether the cardinal numerals, *one*, *two*, *three*, . . . or the ordinal numerals *first*, *second*, *third*, . . . , must be placed somewhere between open-class and closed-class items: they resemble the former in that they make up a very large class – indeed, a class of infinite membership; but they resemble the latter in that the semantic relations among them are mutually exclusive

and mutually defining. We do not create new numerals in the sense in which we create new nouns: in a way, numerals constitute a miniature syntax of their own, within the larger syntax of the English language (*cf* 6.63*ff*), combining a small number of morphemes according to regular rules.

(b) INTERJECTIONS
Interjections might be considered a closed class on the grounds that those that are fully institutionalized are few in number. But unlike the closed classes listed in 2.34(a), they are grammatically peripheral, in the sense that they do not enter into constructions with other word classes, and are only loosely connected to sentences with which they may be orthographically or phonologically associated. They are also peripheral to the language system itself, in that they frequently involve the use of sounds which do not otherwise occur in English words. Thus *ugh* is the spelling of an exclamation often pronounced something like [ʌx] or [əx] even though the 'achlaut' /x/ is not a phoneme in standard AmE or BrE (*cf* 11.55).

Note It can be argued that interjections form a relatively open class because they can be rather freely created by onomatopoeia. For example, comic-strip cartoons often contain such nonce interjections as *yucck*, *gr-r-r-r*, and *blaat*. These reflect a similar unstructured freedom to make use of expressive vocalizing in ordinary conversation.

Word classes in relation to meaning

2.43 It has already been implied that our characterization of parts of speech will depend on their grammatical form and function, rather than on their semantic properties. The 'notional' approach to word classes, manifested in its most naive form in schoolbook definitions such as 'a verb is a doing word', may be a useful pedagogical aid, but cannot in any way replace the definition of grammatical concepts in grammatical terms. At the same time, there are important generalizations to be made about the relation between word classes and their meaning, and the fact that these generalizations do not have complete reliability should not deter us from taking note of them. Broadly speaking, nouns can be characterized naturally as 'stative' (*cf* 4.4) in that they typically refer to entities that are regarded as stable, whether these are concrete (physical) like *house*, *table*, *paper*, or abstract (of the mind) like *hope*, *botany*, *length*. At the opposite pole, verbs can be more naturally characterized as 'dynamic': they are fitted (by their capacity to show tense and aspect, for example) to indicate action, activity, and temporary or changing conditions. Adjectives, in so far as they attribute stable properties to the referents of nouns, are to be associated with them in expressing stative meaning. Thus many adjectives contrast with verbs in their inability to be rendered 'temporary' by the progressive aspect (*cf* 4.28*ff*). Contrast:

John works hard. John is working hard.
John is tall. BUT *John is being tall.

Again, adverbs (or more specifically, adjuncts), in so far as they add a particular condition of time, place, manner, etc to the dynamic implication of the verb, are also to be placed in the 'dynamic' category:

Marion is *beautiful*. Marion dances *beautifully*.

The contrast between these two sentences (where the adjective indicates a stable characteristic of a person and the adverb an evanescent characteristic of that person's behaviour) is one which has countless parallels in the language. On this basis, the relations between open classes can be crudely summarized thus:

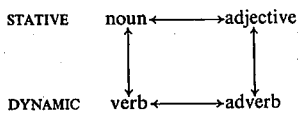

But even the examples we have given show the weaknesses of this formulation: *John is a hard worker* and *Marion is a skilful dancer* show the adjective taking on some of the 'dynamic' implications of the adverb. Further, some verbs cannot normally be used with the progressive aspect (*eg*: **He is knowing English*) and therefore belong to the stative rather than the dynamic category (*cf* 4.29). There are also exceptions in the other direction among nouns and adjectives. For instance, a child may be well-behaved one minute and a nuisance or naughty the next. Although adjectives are primarily stative in meaning (*tall*, *red*, *old*), some, such as *naughty* or *insolent*, can resemble verbs in referring to transitory conditions of behaviour or activity. This is reflected in the possibility of their cooccurrence with the progressive aspect of the verb BE:

He is being $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{a nuisance}\\ \text{naughty}\end{matrix}\right\}$ again.

Indeed, in spite of their associative connection with word classes, these semantic distinctions are not to be treated as criteria diagnostic of membership of those classes. Thus we can take a normally dynamic item (say the verb in *He wrote the book*) and 'nominalize' it (*the writing of the book*) pretending – as it were – to see the action as a static 'thing'. So also the verb *tax* beside the nouns *tax* and *taxation*. Again, the name *participle* reflects the fact that such a form 'participates' in the features both of the verb (*The car was approaching us*) and of the adjective (*the approaching car*). In later chapters (*cf* esp 4.27*ff*, 7.40*ff*, 17.51*ff*) these form–meaning relations will be explored further, but emphasis will be understandably placed on significant contrasts of meaning within word classes, rather than between them.

Pro-forms

2.44 The names of the parts of speech are traditional, and neither in themselves nor in relation to each other do these names give a safe guide to their meaning, which instead is best understood in terms of their grammatical properties. 'Adverb' is a classic instance (*cf* 7.46*ff*). We have seen some justification in the previous section for the term *participle*, and another exception is the term *pronoun* (*cf* 6.1*ff*) which is at least partially appropriate in suggesting that a pronoun can serve as a substitute for a noun:

John searched the big room and then the small $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{room.}\\ \textit{one.}\end{matrix}\right.$ [1]

More generally, however, *pronoun* is a misnomer on two counts. First, a pronoun tends to be a surrogate for a whole noun phrase rather than a noun:

The man invited *the little Swedish girl* because *he* liked *her*. [2]

Secondly, the relationship which often obtains between a pronoun and its ANTECEDENT (an element to which it in some sense 'cross-refers') is not one which can be explained by the simple act of replacement. Notice, for example, that the following alternatives are by no means equivalent in meaning:

Many students did better than *many students* expected. [3]
Many students did better than *they* expected. [3a]

In [3a], *many students* and *they* are normally taken to refer to the same group of people. In [3], *many students* and *many students* are normally taken to refer to different groups. Hence it would be misleading to say that *they* 'replaces' *many students* in [3a]. It is none the less useful to apply a general term PRO-FORM to words and word-sequences which are essentially devices for recapitulating or anticipating the content of a neighbouring expression, often with the effect of reducing grammatical complexity.

Such devices are not limited to pronouns: the word *such* which begins this very paragraph may be described as a pro-modifier, and under appropriate circumstances there are also pro-forms for place, time, and other adverbials:

Mary is *in London* and John is *there* too.
Mary arrived *on Tuesday* and John arrived *then* too.
The police searched the big room *carefully*, but the small room less *so*.

In older English and still sometimes in very formal English, we find *thus* or *so* used more generally than in ordinary modern English as pro-forms for adverbials:

He often behaved *prudently*, but he did not always behave $\begin{cases} \textit{thus}. \\ \textit{so}. \end{cases}$ [4]

But *so* has a more important function in modern usage, namely to substitute – along with the 'pro-verb' DO – for a main verb and whatever follows it in the clause (*cf* 2.51):

She hoped that they would *clean the house carefully before her arrival*, but unfortunately they didn't *do so*. [5]

DO can also act as a pro-form on its own, as is shown in:

A: I *warned her about it*.
B: Yes, I *did*, too. [6]

It will be observed that the use of pro-forms greatly facilitates sentence connection, as in [6], and the combining of sentences to form more complex sentences, whether by coordination, as in [4] and [5], or by subordination, as in [2]. We shall examine the various pro-forms and their uses in 12.8*ff*.

Note The items *do* and *thing*, although they belong to the classes of verb and noun respectively, have semantic functions similar to pro-forms, in conveying a broad and undifferentiated meaning:
How do you *do* your laundry?
There's an important *thing* I'd like to discuss with you.

Wh-words

2.45 In pro-forms, we have identified a set of items which cuts across the standard classification of words into 'parts of speech'. This is true also for another set of items, the *wh*-words, including *what*, *which*, *who*, and *when* (*cf* Note). Indeed, *wh*-words may be regarded as a special set of pro-forms. To highlight both the similarity and the contrast between other pro-forms and *wh*-words, we may suggest that whereas other pro-forms have a general meaning roughly statable as 'We know what this item means/refers to, so I need not state it in full', the *wh*-words have a meaning something like 'It has not been known before what this item refers to, and so it needs to be stated in full'. This informal statement will account for the use of interrogative *wh*-words in questions:

WH-WORD	(FULL FORM)	OTHER PRO-FORM
Where is Mary?	Mary is *in London*.	John is *there* too.

But the paraphrase for *wh*-words is broad enough to help explain also their use in subordinate clauses such as:

The place *where Mary lives* is London.
I wonder *where Mary lives*.
Where Mary lives, the traffic is very noisy.

Initial position in the clause is a general characteristic of *wh*-words whether their role is interrogative (*cf* 6.36*ff*), relative (*cf* 6.32*ff*, 17.13*ff*), or subordinating (*cf* 14.12*ff*). Through the use of *wh*-words we can ask for the identification of the subject, object, complement, or an adverbial of a sentence. Thus in relation to a sentence consisting of S V O C A, like [1], we have:

They [S] make [V] him [O] the chairman [C] every year [A]. [1]
Who makes him the chairman every year? [*wh*-word as S] [2]
Who(m) do they make the chairman every year? [*wh*-word as O] [3]
What do they make him every year? [*wh*-word as C] [4]
When do they make him the chairman? [*wh*-word as A] [5]

It will be noticed from these examples that the *wh*-word assumes first position in the clause whatever the normal position of the corresponding element in declarative clauses such as [1], and that this shift of order is accompanied by other changes of structure in the last three examples, involving the placement of *do* in front of the subject – a topic to which we shall shortly return (2.49*f*). Our present point, however, is that what the *wh*-words have in common is independent of their word-class classification. Whereas *who*, *whom*, and *what* above are pronouns in their syntactic function, *when* in [5] is a time adverb, and further exemplification shows *wh*-words functioning as determiners (*Which cup is yours?*), as adjectives (*How do you feel?*), and as modifying adverbs (*How old are you?*).

Note The *wh*-words include not only *which, when, why, where*, etc but also, less obviously, a few items pronounced with initial /h/, some having the *wh-* in spelling (*who, whose, whom*), and one not (*how*). We are therefore using the term '*wh*-word' as a convenient mnemonic title for a group of words, most of which begin with the letters *wh-*, and which share certain grammatical properties.

Variations on the basic sentence patterns

Sentence processes

2.46 Having outlined the constituency of English simple sentences by working down the grammatical hierarchy from clauses through phrases to words, we may now resume consideration of systematic correspondences, some of which were illustrated in 2.20*ff*. Let us return to the simple declarative sentence seen as a whole, and consider what modifications of its basic constituency must be allowed for if we are to account for questions, negative sentences, and other types of simple sentence which go beyond the structures we have outlined. It is a widely accepted principle, which we acknowledge through this form of presentation, that the simple declarative sentence is in a sense the canonical form of sentence, in terms of which other types of sentence, including both those which are more complex ('complex' and 'compound' sentences) and those which are more simple ('reduced' sentences), may be explained by reference to such operations as conjunction, insertion, inversion, substitution, and transposition. Such operations can be called 'sentence processes', and to the extent that the relation between one structure and another can be more naturally elucidated by such means, we shall feel free to use the concept of process, as well as the concepts of pattern and structure, in describing systematic correspondences.

First, a terminological point. Terms such as DECLARATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, IMPERATIVE, and EXCLAMATIVE can be used (either as adjectives or nouns) in referring to grammatical categories, and will be applied, at this stage, to types of clause or types of simple sentence. The terms STATEMENT, QUESTION, DIRECTIVE, and EXCLAMATION on the other hand, will be applied to the logical or semantic status of an utterance – what it means, and what it is used for – and for our purposes will be regarded as defining categories of sentence (*cf*, however, the discussion of indirect speech in 14.30*ff*). Since we confine our attention here to simple sentences, the distinctions between these two sets of terms will not become important until later chapters (esp Chapter 10).

Note More careful consideration of the relation between grammar, semantics, and pragmatics will require further distinctions of terminology. Thus we may distinguish SENTENCE (a grammatically autonomous unit) from UTTERANCE (a unit which is autonomous in terms of its pragmatic or communicative function). Further, there is commonly a need to separate what a locution *is*, in terms of its logical status (*eg* 'statement') from what it *does* in terms of its force as a speech act (*eg* ASSERTION; *cf* 11.3). Similarly, a directive (viewed as a general semantic type) may have various communicative functions: not only giving orders (*Come here*), but making offers (*Have some chocolate*), etc (*cf* 11.29).

Subject and predicate

2.47 Simple sentences are traditionally divided into two major parts, a SUBJECT and a PREDICATE. This means that in terms of clause elements (*cf* 2.13), the subject (S) is distinguished from the other elements (V and combinations of O, C, and A) which follow it:

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Julie	buys her vegetables in the market.
The train	arrived late today.
Tigers	are carnivorous.

This division, however, has more to do with the statement as a logical category than with the structural facts of grammar. Thus the subject is often described as the constituent defining the topic of the sentence – that which the sentence is 'about' and which it presupposes as its point of departure; whereas the predicate is that which is asserted about the subject. In general, we shall find little need to refer to the predicate as a separate structural unit in the description of English grammar.

Note One significant property of the predicate, however, is that it is the part of the clause which is typically affected by clause negation (*cf* 10.64*f*). Further, a predicate may be omitted through ellipsis (*cf* 12.61), or may be replaced by a pro-form (*cf* 2.44, 2.51, 12.21*ff*).

Operator and predication

2.48 A more important division, in accounting for the relation between different sentence types, is that between OPERATOR and PREDICATION as two subdivisions of the predicate. Not all simple statements have an operator, but when it occurs, it is normally the word which directly follows the subject. Provisionally defined as the *first or only auxiliary* (but *cf* 2.49), it has a crucial role in the formation of questions:

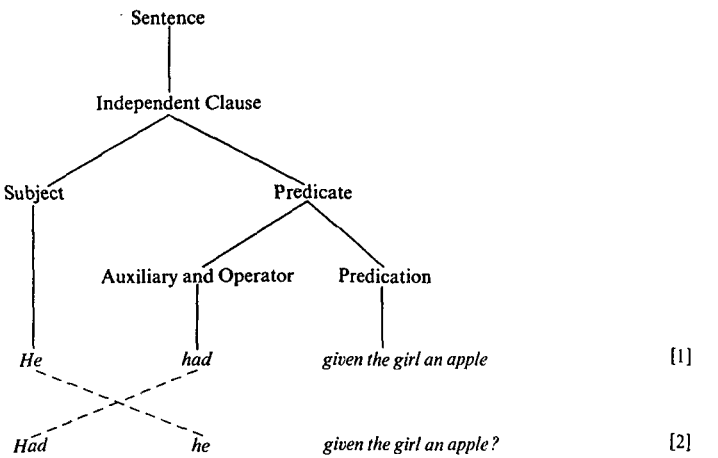

Fig 2.48a

By reversing the order of subject and operator, we can change the statement [1] into the *yes–no* question [2]. The operator has a similar role in the formation of most *wh*-questions. Compare, for example:

	John	is	inviting somebody to dinner.	[3]
Who(m)	is	John	inviting to dinner?	[4]
	The gold	has	been hidden somewhere.	[5]
Where	has	the gold	been hidden?	[6]

Fig 2.48b

Negation, also, makes crucial use of the operator: to make a positive statement negative, we insert *not* after the operator, or else add to the operator the informal enclitic *-n't* (*cf* 3.22*f*):

I	shall	not	be working this afternoon.	[7]
We	had	not	given the girl an apple.	[8]

Fig 2.48c

In all these and other ways, then, the operator, or first auxiliary, performs an 'operational' function in relating a positive declarative structure to another major structure in the language. That it is the first auxiliary, rather than a subsequent auxiliary, that takes on this role is clear from sentences like [6] and [7], where the second auxiliary (*been* and *be* respectively) is unaffected, being part of the predication.

Note In two ways, the role of the operator requires a reassessment of the account of clause structure given in 2.13–24. First, the operator is a single *word* which has a direct function in a *clause*; second, the division of a clause into subject, operator, and predication cuts across its division into S, V, O, C, and A, so that we entertain two alternative constituent analyses of the same structure. On these points, *cf* 2.55 and 2.61.

DO, BE, and HAVE as operators

2.49 The definition of operator as first auxiliary raises the question of what happens if the corresponding positive declarative has no auxiliary, and therefore no operator (*cf* 2.27). In such cases, in the corresponding interrogative and negative structures, the verb DO is introduced as a 'dummy' auxiliary to perform the function of operator (*cf* 3.37). This construction of DO-SUPPORT, which we have already seen in the *wh*-questions in 2.45 [3–5], is further exemplified in:

DECLARATIVE	INTERROGATIVE or NEGATIVE	
They often *go* abroad.	~ *Do* they often *go* abroad?	[1]
Her father *works* in a factory.	~ Where *does* her father *work*?	[2]
We *received* your letter.	~ We *did* not *receive* your letter.	[3]

Notice that DO as operator occurs in the variant forms of *do*, *does*, and *did*: as a finite verb (*cf* 3.2, 3.52), it realizes distinctions of number, person, and tense. Elsewhere however, DO may also, like BE and HAVE, function as a main verb: compare the positive sentence *He did it* with the negative *He did not do it*, where the two functions cooccur.

Unlike DO, BE functions as an operator even when it constitutes the whole verb phrase, and is thus a main verb:

Is everything ready?	(~ Everything *is* ready)	[4]
Was Titian a painter?	(~ Titian *was* a painter)	[5]
Are these books for sale?	(~ These books *are* for sale)	[6]

Thus in the questions [4–6], *is*, *was*, and *are*, which are here main verbs, are placed in front of the subject. The main verb HAVE, on the other hand, tends to resemble the main verb DO in not functioning as operator (*Do you have a box of matches?*), although there is also a traditional usage (chiefly BrE) in which it does so: *Have you a box of matches?* (*cf* 3.34*f*, 3.48). These usages are exceptions to our earlier definition of the operator as 'first auxiliary'.

Questions and negation

2.50 We can now venture process rules for forming questions and negative sentences in English, given that we know how to form simple statements:

(a) *YES–NO* QUESTIONS: Place the operator before the subject.
(b) *WH*-QUESTIONS: First, identify the *wh*-element, which is a phrase containing or consisting of the *wh*-word. Then:
  (i) If the *wh*-element is the subject, make no change in the statement order.
  (ii) If the *wh*-element is some other element (*eg* O, C, A), place it before the subject, and place the operator between the *wh*-element and the subject.
(c) NEGATION: Place *not* or *-n't* after the operator (*cf* 3.22*f*).
(d) In (a), (b), and (c), if there is no operator in the corresponding statement, introduce the operator DO.

The following examples may be compared with the statement *Someone (has) borrowed my pencil*:

(a′) Have you borrowed my pencil? [*yes–no* question]
(b′) (i) Who has borrowed my pencil? / (ii) Why have you borrowed my pencil? } [*wh*-question]
(c′) I haven't borrowed your pencil. [negation]
(d′) Did you borrow my pencil? / Why did you borrow my pencil? / I didn't borrow your pencil. } [with DO as operator]

Predications and pro-forms

2.51 The predication, like the operator, is a constituent of some importance in the English clause. One indication of this is the readiness with which two predications can be joined by coordination (*cf* 13.53):

You should *eat regularly* and *take more exercise*.
Someone has *broken into the house* and *stolen the money*.

English also has a composite pro-form *do so* which substitutes for a predicate or a predication (*cf* 12.23*ff*):

She hoped that he would *search the room carefully*,

and he { *searched the room carefully.* / *did so.* } [1]

but he didn't { *search the room carefully.* / *do so.* } [2]

Again, for sentences such as [1] and [2] there is the further alternative of omitting the predication altogether; the operator, left 'stranded' by this omission, thus shows its capability of standing as an independent unit:

She hoped that he would search the room carefully, { and he *did.* / but he *didn't.* }

The composite pro-form *do so* should be distinguished from the empty auxiliary DO used in DO-support. Like other auxiliaries, DO may constitute a residual operator in cases where the contents of the predication are implied and do not need to be expressed. We see a parallel, in this connection, between [3] and [4–6]:

A: *Do* they pay you for the work?

B: { Yes, they *do.* / No, they *don't.* } [3]

A: *Will* they pay you for the work?

B: { Yes, they *will.* / No, they *won't.* } [4]

A: *Are* they paying you for the work?

B: { Yes, they *are.* / No, they *aren't.* } [5]

A: *Have* they been paying you for the work?

B: { Yes, they *have.* / No, they *haven't.* } [6]

Ellipsis

2.52 The above response forms [3–6] illustrate another grammatical process, that of ELLIPSIS (*cf* 12.31*ff*), whereby elements of a sentence which are predictable from context can be omitted. Ellipsis obviously resembles the substitution of pro-forms in its abbreviatory function, and both processes will be considered in this grammar under the common heading of REDUCTION (*cf* 12.1*ff*) as means of avoiding redundancy of expression. There is thus a choice between unreduced forms, pro-forms, and ellipsis, as can be seen in the following equivalent answers to [5]:

Yes, they ARE { paying me for the work. [UNREDUCED] / doing so. [PRO-FORM] / . [ELLIPSIS] }

(On the position and function of the intonation nucleus on *are*, *cf* 18.15*f*, 2.56 Note.) Reduction is a particularly clear illustration of the advantage of explaining grammatical phenomena in terms of process: without postulating or 'reconstructing' an unreduced form, we should find it difficult to explain the meaning and grammatical status of reduced forms.

Note A more careful analysis will later require the recognition that one predication may be embedded in another (*cf* 3.21). This is already suggested by the optional presence of *been* in a reduced answer to [6]:

Yes, they have (been (paying me for the work)).

Here both the inner brackets and the outer brackets delimit an omissible predication. Thus there can be more than one predication in a clause, either by embedding, as in:

You must [have [been [working too hard]]].

or by coordination, as in:

You must [[eat regularly] and [get more exercise]].

One of the consequences of this use of the term 'predication' is that a predication may, unlike those predications exemplified in 2.48, be preceded by more than one auxiliary, of which only the first is to be considered an operator. Therefore in the following example, the coordinated elements are predications:

Someone must have [[broken into the house] and [stolen the money]].

Nonassertive forms

2.53 It is already clear that there is a close connection between questions and negation: both constructions involve an operator, and the question-and-answer sequences in 2.51 [3–6] show how a *yes–no* question elicits from its addressee a choice between a positive and negative statement. The term YES–NO QUESTION itself reinforces this point.

Yes–no questions are also related to negation through their association with a set of words which we may call NONASSERTIVE FORMS (*cf* 6.59*ff*): *any*, *anybody*, *anywhere*, *yet*, etc. These in turn contrast with corresponding ASSERTIVE FORMS (*some*, *somebody*, *somewhere*, *already*, etc) which are associated with positive statements:

Have you found *any* mistakes *yet*? [1]
Yes, I have found *some already*. [2]
No, I haven't found *any yet*. [3]

The contrast between assertiveness and nonassertiveness is basically a logical one: whereas a sentence like [2] asserts the truth of some proposition, the question [1] and the negative statement [3] do not claim the truth of the corresponding positive statement. We may thus represent the relations between [1–3] by the following diagram:

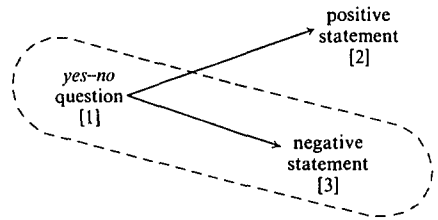

Fig 2.53 Nonassertive territory

The arrows represent relations between question and (unreduced) answer, and the area enclosed by the broken line ------ may be termed 'nonassertive territory'. However, the paradigm of [1–3] is not complete, in a grammatical sense, until we add a fourth category, that of the negative question:

Haven't you found *any* mistakes *yet*? [4]

This cannot be easily fitted into *Fig* 2.53, for there is a fundamental asymmetry between the relation of positive to negative statements, and that of positive to negative *yes–no* questions. Logically, negative *yes–no* questions are equivalent to positive ones, in that they elicit equivalent *yes* and *no* answers: they differ from the latter only in indicating that the corresponding negative statement has been implied (*cf* 11.7).

Note Whereas it is frequently impossible for a positive statement to contain nonassertive forms (**I have any ideas*), it is by no means unusual for assertive forms to occur in questions and negative clauses: *Do(n't) you have some ideas?* Our use of the term 'nonassertive territory' does not exclude, and indeed anticipates, a more delicate stage of analysis (*cf* 10.61*f*) at which we acknowledge that assertive forms can give an assertive 'bias' to constructions which are predominantly nonassertive.

Negative forms

2.54 The addition of negative questions therefore invites a reanalysis of *Fig* 2.53 as follows:

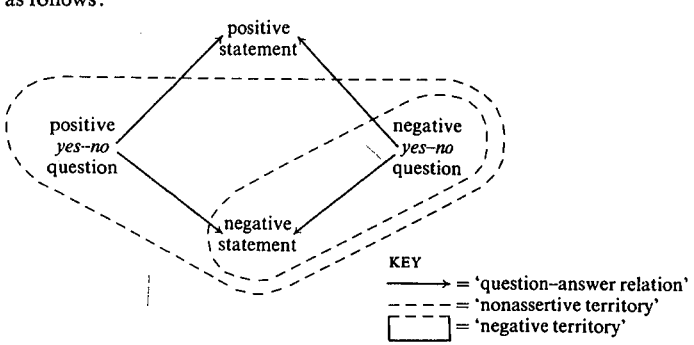

Fig 2.54 Nonassertive and negative territory

The justification for including a 'negative territory' within the larger 'nonassertive territory' lies in the existence of another set of words, the NEGATIVE FORMS, which mark a clause as negative even if the word *not* (*-n't*) does not occur in it (*cf* 6.62, 10.58*f*):

I saw *nobody*. [1]
[= I did*n't* see *anybody*.]
Have you *never* been to London? [2]
[= Have*n't* you *ever* been to London?]

We therefore have three parallel sets of words, as in the following:

ASSERTIVE FORMS:	*some*	*somebody*	*something*	*sometimes*
NONASSERTIVE FORMS:	*any*	*anybody*	*anything*	*ever*
NEGATIVE FORMS:	*no*	*nobody*	*nothing*	*never*

In [1] and [2] the negative forms are seen as equivalent in meaning to *not*, followed, not necessarily immediately, by a nonassertive form (*eg*: *never* = *not* . . . *ever*); but since a negative clause normally contains only one mark of its negative status (*cf* 10.63), it is quite natural for a negative form to be followed by one or more nonassertive forms in the same clause or sentence:

John *never* invites *any* students to his parties.
No one *ever* gives her *any* encouragement.

It is this which justifies grammatically the treatment of negation as carrying the implication of nonassertion.

Note Like *wh*-words (*cf* 2.45), both nonassertive and negative forms tend to show a family likeness in their morphological form. But just as *wh*-words do not always begin with the spelling *wh-*, so nonassertive forms do not always begin with *any-*, nor negative forms with *no-*. Among exceptions are the negative words *few* and *rarely* (*cf* 10.59), and the nonassertive words *ever* and *yet* (*cf* 10.60).

Scope

2.55 In accounting for sentence processes, we have found it necessary to refer to a number of special classes of word – pro-forms (including *wh*-words), assertive forms, nonassertive forms, negative forms, operators – which intersect with the primary word-class categories. These classes may be described as having a *logical* function rather than a *structural* function in the sense of 2.12. In fact, all of them except operators are distributed across a range of word classes, and can have a number of different functions in clause structure; *eg* as S, O, C, A. Moreover, their contribution to the meaning of the sentence can stretch well beyond the particular phrase in which they occur. Their position, too, may bring particular significance: for example, a *wh*-word or an operator at the beginning of a sentence will mark the whole of what follows it as a question.

SCOPE is the general term that we shall use to describe the semantic 'influence' which such words have on neighbouring parts of a sentence. It deserves attention because of its close connection with the ordering of elements. The position of a negative form, for instance, is generally significant in defining whatever follows it as nonassertive:

Some people *never* send *any* Christmas cards.

In such a sentence, we may say that *any*, because it follows *never*, is within the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64) while *some* is not. It would therefore not be possible to reverse the positions of the assertive and nonassertive words:

**Any* people *never* send *some* Christmas cards.

This sentence may, however, be contrasted with an allowable sentence in which *any people* follows a negative:

I do*n't* know *any* people who *never* send Christmas cards.

In a similar way, the operator or *wh*-element which normally begins a question indicates that what follows is within the scope of interrogation. It is this which accounts in part for the difference of meaning between:

Does he *seriously* believe that? [1]
Seriously, does he believe that? [2]

or between:

Why doesn't he *also* take the children abroad? [3]
Also, why doesn't he take the children abroad? [4]

In [2] and [4] the adverb must be interpreted as a sentence adverbial (*cf* 2.15) which, because of its initial position, is not part of the matter being questioned.

Focus

2.56 The position of *also* in [3] above brings to notice another phenomenon of 'semantic influence'. We shall call certain adverbs, such as *also*, *only*, and *even*, FOCUSING SUBJUNCTS (*cf* 8.116*ff*), because they have the peculiarity of extending the application of their meaning to units of varying size and position. Thus [3] in different contexts could mean:

'Why doesn't *he* (in addition to his wife) take the children abroad?' [5]
'Why doesn't he take *the children* (in addition to his wife) abroad?' [6]
'Why doesn't he take the children *abroad* (in addition to taking them to places in this country)?' [7]
'Why doesn't he *take the children abroad* (in addition to, say, giving them presents)?' [8]

The italicized parts of these paraphrases identify the different focused elements which give rise to the ambiguities.

The ambiguities, however, are more apparent on paper than in speech. This is one aspect of grammar for which intonation plays a critical role, since the various meanings of [3] can be largely distinguished by different positions of the nucleus (*cf* App II.11). For example:

Why doesn't he ÀLso take the children abroad? [5a]
Why doesn't he also take the CHÌLDren abroad? [6a]
Why doesn't he also take the children ABRÒAD? [7a], [8a]

The term FOCUS, in fact, will be more generally applied to the varying placement of the nucleus so as to mark which parts of an utterance are meant to represent new or contrastive information (*cf* 18.8*ff*). The interaction between information focus in this sense, and scope in the sense of 2.55 is a somewhat difficult area of grammar (*cf* esp 10.65) which nevertheless has some obvious communicative effects. The nucleus can, for example, narrow down the negative or interrogative force of a sentence by giving contrastive prominence to a particular item:

I don't drink ĬNstant coffee.

carries the implication 'I drink some coffee, but not . . .', and similarly:

Have you read ÁLL her novels?

carries the implication 'I know you've read *some* of her novels, but what I want to know is . . .'.

Enough has been said to suggest that a full understanding of interrogation, negation, and other processes cannot be reached without a study of the phenomena of scope and focus. These illustrate particularly clearly the need for grammar to take account of other aspects of language, especially the semantic contrasts which are realized through grammar, and the phonological contrasts through which grammar itself is realized.

Note It is not surprising that the special grammatical functions of operators, *wh*-words, and negative words are associated with special meanings when the focus is placed on these items:
We HÀVE been working hard. (*cf* focus on the operator; 18.15*f*).
WHÉN are you leaving? (*cf* echo questions; 11.33*ff*).
I was NÒT telling lies. (*cf* denial negation; 10.65 Note [a]).
These are all, in a way, SECOND-INSTANCE SENTENCES, *ie* sentences about other sentences rather than sentences about the world outside language. Focus on the operator can involve the introduction of DO-support, showing that DO as operator can be found even in unreduced declarative sentences:
I DÒ believe you.

Other structural variations

Directives and exclamations

2.57 We finally take brief notice of grammatical processes other than those connected with questions and negation.

Apart from statements and questions, a classification of sentences in terms of communicative function (*cf* 2.46) must include DIRECTIVES (*cf* 11.24*ff*) and EXCLAMATIONS (*cf* 11.31*f*). The former, in their typical form, contain no subject or operator: they consist simply of a predication with an imperative verb, *ie* a verb in its base form:

Be quiet!
Search the room carefully!
Make yourself a cup of tea.

This is understandable; since an imperative normally refers to some future action which the hearer is urged to perform, its subject is semantically predictable, and therefore dispensable, while the verb phrase is required to make no distinctions of tense, number, and person. Imperatives can, however, be negative, and for this *do* is introduced as an imperative marker (*cf* 11.28):

Don't hurry!
Don't be frightened!
Don't wait for me.

Exclamatives, as a formal category, resemble *wh*-questions in beginning with a *wh*-word (*what* or *how*), but differ from them in generally retaining the regular declarative order of subject and verb:

What beautiful clothes she wears!
How well Philip plays the piano!

(Compare the *wh*-questions *What clothes does she wear?* and *How well does Philip play the piano?*) The exclamatory force of *what* and *how* resides in their function as an intensifying determiner and adverb respectively: the element in which they occur must be overtly or implicitly subject to modifications of degree (*cf* 7.42, 7.87*ff*). Like directives, therefore, they are grammatically restricted; but their restrictions are of a different kind.

For example they resemble *wh*-questions rather than directives in their general unsusceptibility to negation:

?How well Philip doesn't play the piano! [1]
?What beautiful clothes she doesn't wear! [2]

To explain this tendency we may again appeal to the notion of scope – the rest of the sentence being included in the scope of the initial intensifying phrase. Since negative states of affairs cannot be treated as matters of degree, negative exclamations are unusual.

Note Thus [1] can be given only an irregular or humorous interpretation such as 'I find Philip's behaviour perfectly delightful in that he, unlike so many other people I know, does not play the piano'.

Pragmatic considerations

2.58 The peculiarities of directives and exclamations have much to do with their pragmatic roles as utterances which relate specifically to the hearer's and the speaker's participation in the act of communication: a directive is 'hearer-oriented', whereas an exclamation is 'speaker-oriented'.

If we define PRAGMATICS as a study of language in relation to the communicative functions it may be used to perform, then there is a certain division of labour between grammar and pragmatics whereby the more the context contributes to the communicative force of an utterance, the less need there is for the utterance to be grammatically explicit. In this sense, directives and exclamations are towards the pragmatic end of the scale. They can take many forms other than the structures above, and are often reducible to formulaic utterances which make very limited use of grammatical structure: *Out with it! What a day! Perfect!* etc (*cf* 11.38*ff*). To the extent that the situation limits the need for full articulation of meaning, sentence grammar becomes otiose. Here again, attention must be given to the interaction between grammar and other factors in the totality of linguistic communication.

Note The contribution of grammar to the communicative process reaches its minimum in utterances which are merely interjections: *Ouch! Hush!* ([ʃ:]) etc. It is worth noting that these quasi-linguistic noises very frequently have either an exclamatory or an imperative force (*cf* 11.55). On the other hand, we must acknowledge that statements and questions, too, can occur as interjections or in markedly reduced forms: *Uh-huh, Yes, No, Eh?, Right?, Ready?*, etc.

Grammatical highlighting

2.59 Still thinking of grammar in a communicative context, we notice that many variations of grammatical structure relate to the speaker's or writer's need to present the message in a form readily adapted to the addressee's requirements as interpreter. Reduction (*cf* 2.52) and information focus (*cf* 2.56), in

particular, enable users of language to suppress those elements of meaning which are informationally predictable, and to highlight those which are informationally important. In Chapter 18 we shall explore how such considerations interact with processes which involve varying the position of elements in the sentence.

The so-called CLEFT SENTENCE (*cf* 18.25*ff*), for example, is a grammatical device similar to, and associated with, information focus: it enables the user to select (within limits) which element of the sentence will be highlighted. The cleft sentence is divided into two main parts: an initial focal element, followed by a 'background' structure which resembles a relative clause. For the simple sentence [1] the alternative cleft sentences [2–4] are available:

Julie buys her vegetables in the market. [1]
It's *Julie* that/who buys her vegetables in the market. [2]
It's *her vegetables* that Julie buys in the market. [3]
It's *in the market* that Julie buys her vegetables. [4]

A less complex device with a similar function is FRONTING: the initial placing of an element such as an object or an adverbial (*cf* 18.20):

Her vegetables Julie buys in the market.
In the market Julie buys her vegetables.

The opposite device of postponing a normally nonfinal element to final position is shown by the EXTRAPOSITION of a subject clause (*cf* 18.33), as in [6]:

What you say doesn't matter. [5]
~ It doesn't matter *what you say*. [6]

The final position gives the element in question a different kind of prominence, which we shall discuss under the headings of end-focus and end-weight (*cf* 18.3*f*, 18.9).

The role of the anticipatory pronoun *it* in [6] is essentially a structural one in the sense that it carries virtually no information in itself, but merely supplies the structural requirement for an initial subject. (Its semantic function, in so far as it has one, is merely to signal that the content of the subject is expressed in a later position in the same sentence.) A somewhat parallel role is performed by the introductory word *there* in EXISTENTIAL sentences (*cf* 18.44*ff*), as in [8]:

Someone was knocking at the door. [7]
~ *There was someone* knocking at the door. [8]

The effect of the prelude *there was* in [8] is to postpone to a more 'focused' position the indefinite pronoun *someone*, which, because it ushers in new information, can only uneasily fill the unfocused position of subject (*cf* 2.55, 2.56).

We have merely hinted at the communicative value of these apparently unneeded constructions, and at the stylistic considerations which may lead users of English to select them. But they enable us to stress once again that the study of grammatical process, in all its variety and apparent arbitrariness, compels us to place grammar in its broader context of uses and users of language.

Gradience and multiple analysis

Gradience

2.60 Grammar is to some extent an indeterminate system. Categories and structures, for example, often do not have neat boundaries. Grammarians are tempted to overlook such uncertainties, or to pretend that they do not exist. Our guiding principle in this grammar, however, will be to acknowledge them, and where appropriate to explore them through the study of GRADIENCE. A gradient is a scale which relates two categories of description (for example two word classes) in terms of degrees of similarity and contrast. At the ends of the scale are items which belong clearly to one category or to another; intermediate positions on the scale are taken by 'in-between' cases – items which fail, in different degrees, to satisfy the criteria for one or the other category. At various points in the preceding survey we have hinted at gradience; in the contrast between central and peripheral elements of the clause (2.13), between adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts (2.15), between complements and adverbials (2.17*f*), between modification and complementation (2.33).

The simplest cases of gradience to identify are those relating to word classes. We shall see, for example, in 13.18*f* that there is a scale relating coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, such that *and* and *if* represent clear cases of each category, whereas *for* is in an intermediate position:

COORDINATING SUBORDINATING

and ←———— *for* ————→ *if*

Nevertheless, *for* is closer to *if* in its syntactic behaviour than to *and* (*cf* 13.18*f*), and can reasonably be classed as a peripheral subordinator.

Multiple analysis

2.61 Another kind of indeterminacy is revealed through what may be called MULTIPLE ANALYSIS. It is one thing to analyse a sentence into a multiplicity of smaller units through progressive subdivision, as shown in the tree diagrams of 2.3–9; it is quite another thing to propose that two or more different analyses, each resulting in a different constituent structure, can be applied to the same sentence. There are occasions, however, when such alternative analyses seem to be needed, on the grounds that some of the generalizations that have to be made require one analysis, and some require another. It is for this reason that we have presented, in this chapter, two ways of analysing a clause: one analysis in terms of the elements S, V, O, C, and A, and the other in terms of subject and predicate, the predicate being subdivided into operator and predication (*cf* 2.48 Note). In other cases, there appears to be a gradient between two analyses, such that sentences may vary in the degree to which one analysis is more appropriate than another.

An important example of multiple analysis is that required for prepositional verbs such as *look at* and *approve of* (*cf* 16.13*ff*). In the terms of the present chapter, we regard the preposition as introducing a prepositional phrase which functions as an adverbial:

[They] [don't *approve*] [*of* noisy parties].

But there are also good reasons, such as the possibility of the (rather awkward) passive *Noisy parties are not approved of*, for an alternative analysis in which *noisy parties* is treated as an object of the multi-word verb *approve of*:

[They] [don't *approve of*] [noisy parties].

Such alternative analyses are further discussed in 16.5.

Conclusion

2.62 Both the complexities and indeterminacies of grammar place the prospect of writing a complete and definitive grammatical description of English beyond reasonable expectation. Given inevitable limitations, what we aim to achieve here is a description which combines breadth of coverage and depth of detail, and in which observation of particularities goes hand in hand with the search for general and systematic explanations.

Bibliographical note

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3 Verbs and auxiliaries

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Major verb classes

3.1 The function of the V element in English clause structure, as outlined in 2.13–24, is realized by the VERB PHRASE, which consists of one or more verb constituents, *eg*:

She *left* yesterday.	She *won't leave* tomorrow.
Has she *not left* yet?	She *will leave* tomorrow.
Did she *leave* yesterday?	She *might be leaving* next week.

Verbs, as a class of words, can be divided into three major categories, according to their function within the verb phrase; we distinguish the open class of FULL VERBS (or lexical verbs) such as LEAVE (*cf* 3.2*ff*) from the closed classes of PRIMARY VERBS (BE, HAVE, and DO; *cf* 3.31*ff*) and of MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS (*will*, *might*, etc; *cf* 3.39). Of these three classes, the full verbs can act only as main verbs (*cf* 2.28), the modal auxiliaries can act only as auxiliary verbs, and the primary verbs can act either as main verbs or as auxiliary verbs.

Note [a] Some verbs (variously termed marginal modals, semi-auxiliaries, catenative verbs, etc) have a status intermediate between that of main verbs and that of auxiliary verbs. (These are discussed in 3.40 – 3.51.)
[b] SMALL CAPITALS are generally used in this chapter in citing a verb as a lexical item (*cf* 2.35) instead of as a grammatical form. We will cite the modal auxiliaries, however, in *italics*, since it is often more appropriate to regard *can* and *could* (for example) as invariable words, than as forms of the same lexical item (*cf* 4.49*ff*, where special uses of the past modal forms *could*, *might*, *would*, and *should* are discussed).

Full verbs

The morphology of regular verbs

Verb forms and the verb phrase

3.2 Regular full verbs, *eg* CALL, have four morphological forms. Irregular full verbs vary in this respect; a verb like SPEAK has five, whereas CUT has only three forms (note, however, that the primary verb BE (*cf* 3.32) has as many as eight forms).

	REGULAR VERBS		IRREGULAR VERBS		
(1) BASE FORM	*call*	*want*	*speak*	*cut*	*win*
(2) *-S* FORM	*calls*	*wants*	*speaks*	*cuts*	*wins*
(3) *-ING* PARTICIPLE	*calling*	*wanting*	*speaking*	*cutting*	*winning*
(4) PAST FORM	*called*	*wanted*	*spoke*	*cut*	*won*
(5) *-ED* PARTICIPLE	*called*	*wanted*	*spoken*	*cut*	*won*

These verb forms have different functions in finite and nonfinite verb phrases (*cf* 3.52*ff*). On this basis, the *-s* form and the past form are called FINITE, whereas the *-ing* participle and the *-ed* participle are called NONFINITE. The

BASE form (the form which has no inflection) is sometimes finite, and sometimes nonfinite (see below). In a finite verb phrase (the kind of verb phrase which normally occurs in simple sentences), only the first verb word (in bold face below) is finite:

She ***calls*** him every day.
She ***is*** *calling* him now.
She ***has*** *called* twice today.

and the subsequent verbs, if any, are nonfinite. In a nonfinite verb phrase, on the other hand, all verbs are nonfinite; *eg*:

Calling early, she found him at home.
Called early, he ate a quick breakfast.
Having been called early, he felt sleepy all day.

The difference between finite and nonfinite phrases is discussed in greater detail in 3.52*ff*. Here we confine our attention to the syntactic deployment of the verb forms of which verb phrases are composed:

(1) The BASE FORM (*call*, *speak*, *cut*, etc) occurs as (a) a FINITE form in:
  (i) the present tense in all persons and numbers except 3rd person singular (which has the *-s* form): *I/you/we/they call regularly*. (*cf* 3.54, 4.3*ff*)
  (ii) the imperative: *Call at once!* (*cf* 3.54, 11.24*ff*)
  (iii) the present subjunctive: *They demanded that she call and see them*. (*cf* 3.59–61)
  It also occurs as (b) a NONFINITE form in:
  (i) the bare infinitive: *He may call tonight*.
  (ii) the *to*-infinitive: *We want her to call*. (*cf* 3.53, 14.6*ff*)

(2) The *-S* FORM (*calls*, *speaks*, *cuts*, etc) occurs as a FINITE form in: 3rd person singular present tense: *He/She calls every day*.

(3) The *-ING* PARTICIPLE (*calling*, *speaking*, *cutting*, etc) occurs as a NONFINITE form in:
  (i) the progressive aspect following BE: *He's calling her now*. (*cf* 4.25*ff*)
  (ii) *-ing* participle clauses: *Calling early, I found her at home*. (*cf* 3.53, 14.6*ff*)

(4) The PAST FORM (*called*, *spoke*, *cut*, etc) occurs as a FINITE form in the past tense: *Someone called yesterday*. (*cf* 4.11*ff*)

(5) The *-ED* PARTICIPLE (*called*, *spoken*, *cut*, etc) occurs as a NONFINITE form in:
  (i) the perfective aspect following HAVE: *He has called twice today*. (*cf* 4.18*ff*)
  (ii) the passive voice following BE: *Her brother is called John*. (*cf* 3.63*ff*)
  (iii) *-ed* participle clauses: *Called early, he ate a quick breakfast*. (*cf* 3.53, 14.6*ff*)

As will become clearer when we discuss the structure of the verb phrase (3.52*ff*), the nonfinite forms of the verb occur not only in nonfinite verb phrases, but also in noninitial positions in finite verb phrases.

Note The *-ing* participle is sometimes called the 'present participle', and the *-ed* participle is sometimes called the 'past participle' or, with transitive verbs, the 'passive participle'. Since these terms are potentially misleading, we prefer to use terms which are descriptive only of morphological form. Note, however, that the *-ed* participle owes its name to the form this participle takes in regular verbs; some irregular verbs (*eg*: *taken*) have a more distinctive ending in *-en*, and some grammarians for this reason have preferred the term '*-en* participle'.

The morphology of regular full verbs

3.3 Morphologically, full verbs are considered under two heads: REGULAR verbs (such as CALL) and IRREGULAR verbs (such as DRINK). In both types, the *-s* form and the *-ing* participle form are almost invariably predictable from the base. Irregular verbs differ from the regular verbs, however, in that the past form and the *-ed* participle of irregular verbs cannot be predicted by general rule from the base.

3.4 Regular full verbs have only four different forms:

BASE	*call*	*like*	*try*
-ing PARTICIPLE	*calling*	*liking*	*trying*
-s FORM	*calls*	*likes*	*tries*
PAST FORM or *-ed* PARTICIPLE	*called*	*liked*	*tried*

These verbs are called regular because if we know the base form (*ie* the dictionary entry form; *cf* 2.35) of such a verb, we can predict all its other forms by rule. This is a very powerful generalization, since the vast majority of English verbs belong to the regular class. Furthermore, new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt this pattern; *eg*: *xerox* ~ *xeroxing* ~ *xeroxes* ~ *xeroxed*. As the past form and the *-ed* participle form are identical for all regular verbs, it will be convenient to refer to them both as the *-ed* form, distinguishing where necessary between the V-ed_1 (past tense) and V-ed_2 (*-ed* participle) forms.

Note [a] The process of assimilating foreign words to the regular pattern is more marked in verbs than in nouns, where foreign plurals are often kept in English, sometimes with an alternative native ending (*cf* 5.82*ff*): *antenna* ~ *antennae/antennas*.
[b] Some archaic 2nd person and 3rd person singular present-tense verb forms survive in very restricted use: chiefly in traditional liturgical language. The 2nd person forms with *thou* as subject (*cf* 6.12 Note [c]) end in *-est* /ɪst/, /est/, whereas the even rarer 3rd person forms end in *-eth* /ɪθ/, /eθ/:

(thou)	*callest*	*givest*	*hearest*
(he/she)	*calleth*	*giveth*	*heareth*

Contracted nonsyllabic endings *-st* and *-th* occur with the primary verbs HAVE and DO: *hast*, *hath*; *dost* /dʌst/, *doth* /dʌθ/. (Similar forms *saist*, *saith* /seθ/ occur with the verb SAY, which also, however, has the regular forms *sayest* and *sayeth*.) The primary verb BE, here as elsewhere, is highly irregular: it has no *-st* or *-th* forms, but it has the archaic 2nd person form *art* and an analogous past tense form *wert*: *thou art/wert*. Other verbs have *-(e)st 'thou*-forms' in the past tense: *hadst*, *didst*, *gavest*, *camest*, etc. The spelling of the *-est* forms of *see* and *lie* is irregular: *seest* /siː-ɪst/; *liest* /laɪ-ɪst/.
All the modal auxiliaries except those ending in *-t* have special '*thou*-forms': *will* ~ *wilt*, *shall* ~ *shalt*, *can* ~ *canst*, *may* ~ *mayst*, *would* ~ *wouldst*, *should* ~ *shouldst*, *could* ~ *couldst*.

The *-ing* participle and the *-s* form

3.5 The *-ing* form of both regular and irregular verbs is formed by adding *-ing* /ɪŋ/ to the base:

walk ~ *walking* *agree* ~ *agreeing* *push* ~ *pushing*
sing ~ *singing* *pass* ~ *passing* *weep* ~ *weeping*

(On the spelling of the *-ing* participle, *cf* 3.7*ff*.) The *-s* form of both regular and irregular verbs (sometimes spelled *-es*; *cf* 3.9) is also predictable from the base. It has three pronunciations /ɪz/, /z/, and /s/, which occur under the following phonological conditions:

(a) /ɪz/ after bases ending in voiced or voiceless sibilants; *eg*:

Table 3.5a

BASE			-S FORM		BASE			-S FORM	
/-s/	*pass*	~	*passes*	/-sɪz/	/-dʒ/	*budge*	~	*budges*	/-dʒɪz/
/-z/	*buzz*	~	*buzzes*	/-zɪz/	/-ʃ/	*push*	~	*pushes*	/-ʃɪz/
/-tʃ/	*catch*	~	*catches*	/-tʃɪz/	/-ʒ/	*camouflage*	~	*camouflages*	/-ʒɪz/

For these cases, the *-s* form always ends in *-es*.

(b) /z/ after bases ending in voiced sounds other than sibilants, including vowels; *eg*:

Table 3.5b

/-l/	*call*	~	*calls*	/-lz/	/-b/	*rob*	~	*robs*	/-bz/
/-iː/	*flee*	~	*flees*	/-iːz/	/-aɪ/	*try*	~	*tries*	/-aɪz/

(c) /s/ after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than sibilants, *eg*:

Table 3.5c

/-t/	*cut*	~	*cuts*	/-ts/	/-k/	*lock*	~	*locks*	/-ks/
/-p/	*hop*	~	*hops*	/-ps/	/-f/	*cough*	~	*coughs*	/-fs/

The rules on the spelling *-es* (*go/goes*), the changing of *-y* to *-i-* (*try/tries*), etc are the same as for the regular plural of nouns (*cf* 5.81).

Note [a] Apart from the three primary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO (*cf* 3.31*ff*), the only verbs which have an irregular *-s* form are *say* /seɪ/ ~ *says* /sez/, and derivatives of DO, *eg*: *outdo* /-duː/ ~ *outdoes* /-dʌz/; *overdo* /-duː/ *overdoes* /-dʌz/. In the *-s* form, SAY is irregular in pronunciation, but not in spelling. GAINSAY, historically a derivative of SAY, may have a regular or an irregular pronunciation in the *-s* form: *gainsays* /-seɪz/ or /-sez/.
[b] In some varieties of English (*eg* South African English and many varieties of AmE) the pronunciation of the syllabic ending of the *-s* form is /əz/ rather than /ɪz/. Similarly, the syllabic *-ed* form (*cf* 3.6) is pronounced in such varieties as /əd/ rather than /ɪd/.
[c] A common (especially nonstandard) pronunciation of the *-ing* inflection is /ɪn/, conventionally spelt *-in'*; *eg*: *gettin'* /ˈgetɪn/.
[d] The verb *lightning* ~ *lightnings* ~ *lightning* ~ *lightninged* is a sole exception to the rule for forming the *-ing* participle. Since the base form of the verb already ends in an *-ing* suffix, no further *-ing* is added: *It is lightning/*lightninging*. The *-ing* participle of this verb is avoided probably because of the awkwardness of this irregularity.

The past form and the *-ed* participle

3.6 Like the *-s* form, the past and the *-ed* participle forms (both termed the *-ed* form) of regular verbs have three pronunciations:

(a) /ɪd/ after bases ending in /d/ and /t/, *eg*:

pad ~ padded /-dɪd/ *pat ~ patted* /-tɪd/

(b) /d/ after bases ending in voiced sounds other than /d/, including vowels, *eg*:

buzz ~ buzzed /-zd/ *budge ~ budged* /-dʒd/
call ~ called /-ld/ *tow ~ towed* /-əʊd/

(c) /t/ after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than /t/, *eg*:

pass ~ passed /-st/ *pack ~ packed* /-kt/

Note Some exceptions to the second rule above are verbs like *dwell ~ dwelled/dwelt*, which (esp in BrE) may end in /t/ rather than /d/. The devoicing may also be reflected in an irregular spelling: *dwelt*. These verbs are classed as irregular verbs (*cf* 3.13).

The spelling of regular verb inflections

3.7 The rules in 3.5 – 6 apply to pronunciation, but certain additional rules have to be stated to account for the spellings of verbs with regular verb inflections. First, however, we note the general spelling rules:

The *-s* form is written *-s*: *look ~ looks*
The *-ing* form is written *-ing*: *look ~ looking*
The *-ed* form is written *-ed*: *look ~ looked*

These rules apply except where one of the following additional changes applies: doubling of the final consonant of the base (*cf* 3.8); deletion or addition of a final *-e* (*cf* 3.9); substitution of *-i-* for a final *-y* or vice versa (*cf* 3.10).

These additional rules are necessary in order to account for such apparent anomalies as are illustrated in the following distinctions:

{*die ~ dying ~ died*
{*dye ~ dyeing ~ dyed*

{*bar ~ barring ~ barred*
{*bare ~ baring ~ bared*

{*sing ~ singing ~ sang/sung* (*cf* 3.19)
{*singe ~ singeing ~ singed*

{*hop ~ hopping ~ hopped*
{*hope ~ hoping ~ hoped*

{*stop ~ stopping ~ stopped*
{*stoop ~ stooping ~ stooped*

{*star ~ starring ~ starred*
{*stare ~ staring ~ stared*

As we see above, final *-e* can be preserved to avoid confusion in pairs like *dying* and *dyeing* (*cf* 3.9).

Doubling of consonant before *-ing* and *-ed*

3.8 A single consonant letter at the end of the base is doubled before *-ing* and *-ed* when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelt with a single letter:

bar ~ 'barring ~ barred
beg ~ 'begging ~ begged

oc'cur ~ oc'curring ~ oc'curred
per'mit ~ per'mitting ~ per'mitted
pa'trol ~ pa'trolling ~ pa'trolled

There is normally no doubling when the preceding vowel is unstressed (*'enter ~ 'entering ~ 'entered*, *'visit ~ 'visiting ~ 'visited*) or is written with two letters (*dread ~ dreading ~ dreaded*).

With some final consonants, however, doubling occurs even when the preceding vowel is unstressed. In the following cases (a – c), doubling is normal in BrE, whereas it is an alternative and less favoured practice in AmE:

(a) Verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-l*:

'travel { *'travelling* *'travelled* ⟨BrE and AmE⟩
{ *'traveling* *'traveled* ⟨AmE only⟩

Similarly: *'cancel*, *'counsel*, *'dial*, *'model*, *'signal*, etc.

(b) Verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-m(me)*:

'program(me) *'programming* *'programmed* ⟨BrE and AmE⟩
'program *'programing* *'programed* ⟨AmE only⟩

(c) Some verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-p*:

'worship { *'worshipping* *'worshipped* ⟨BrE and AmE⟩
{ *'worshiping* *'worshiped* ⟨AmE only⟩

The verbs *handicap* and *kidnap* also follow the pattern of *worship*. But most verbs ending in *-p* after an unstressed vowel have no doubling either in BrE or in AmE: *de'velop ~ de'veloping ~ de'veloped*, *'gallop ~ 'galloping ~ 'galloped*, *'gossip ~ 'gossiping ~ 'gossiped*, etc.

(d) Verbs ending in an unstressed vowel followed by *-g*:

'humbug *'humbugging* *'humbugged*

But note ⟨AmE⟩ *'catalog ~ 'cataloging ~ 'cataloged*.

(e) In verbs ending with vowel + *-c*, the doubling of the final consonant is spelt *-ck-*:

'panic *'panicking* *'panicked*
'traffic *'trafficking* *'trafficked*

Similarly *'frolic*, *'bivouac*, etc.

(f) In certain verbs whose base ends in a vowel followed by *-s*, there is variation between *-s-* and *-ss-* when the verb suffix is added:

'bias *'biasing/'biassing* *'biased/'biassed*
bus *'busing/'bussing* *bused/bussed*
'focus *'focusing/'focussing* *'focused/'focussed*

Note [a] With verbs like PLAY (*~ playing ~ played*) and ROW (*~ rowing ~ rowed*) there is no doubling, because the *-y* and *-w* do not count as consonants in these words, but as part of the spelling of the diphthong (*-ay*, *-ow*). (On LAY, PAY, *cf* 3.10.)

[b] There is, on the other hand, doubling in words such as E'QUIP (~ *e'quipping* ~ *e'quipped*) and AC'QUIT (~ *ac'quitting* ~ *ac'quitted*), because the *u* here counts as part of the consonantal spelling *-qu-*, rather than as a vowel.
[c] The letter *-x* is never doubled, since it represents the two consonant sounds /ks/: *fix* ~ *fixing* ~ *fixed*, etc.
[d] Final silent consonants are not doubled: *crochet* /-eɪ/ ~ *crocheting* ~ *crocheted*; *hurrah* /-ɑː/ ~ *hurrahing* ~ *hurrahed*.
[e] The rules given here for doubling are in general followed also in the addition of derivational suffixes (App I.32*ff*) beginning with a vowel.
[f] The spellings **catalogged* ~ **catalogging* do not occur (see (d) above), since the BrE spellings for AmE CATALOG are *catalogue* ~ *cataloguing* ~ *catalogued*.
[g] A rare exception to (e) above is *arc* ~ *arc(k)ing* ~ *arc(k)ed*, for which the spelling without *k* is also possible.
[h] The verb BENEFIT sometimes (esp in AmE) has forms with irregular consonant doubling (*'benefitting* ~ *'benefitted*) alongside the regular *benefiting* ~ *benefited*.

Deletion of and addition of *-e*

3.9 If the base ends in a mute (unpronounced) *-e*, this *-e* is regularly dropped before the *-ing* and *-ed* inflections:

create ~ *creating* ~ *created*	*shave* ~ *shaving* ~ *shaved*
bake ~ *baking* ~ *baked*	*type* ~ *typing* ~ *typed*

Verbs with monosyllabic bases in *-ye*, *-oe*, and *-nge*, pronounced /ndʒ/, are exceptions to this rule: they do not lose the *-e* before *-ing*, but they do lose it before *-ed*:

dye ~ *dyeing* ~ *dyed*	*singe* ~ *singeing* ~ *singed*
hoe ~ *hoeing* ~ *hoed*	*tinge* ~ *tingeing* ~ *tinged*

Impinging and *infringing*, on the other hand, are regular. The final *-e* is also lost before *-ed* by verbs ending in *-ie* or *-ee*: *tie* ~ *tied*, *die* ~ *died*, *agree* ~ *agreed*.

Before the *-s* ending, on the other hand, an *-e* is added in the following cases:

(a) After the following letters, representing sibilant consonants:

-s	*pass* ~ *passes*	*-ch*	*watch* ~ *watches*
-z	*buzz* ~ *buzzes*	*-sh*	*wash* ~ *washes*
-x	*coax* ~ *coaxes*		

(b) after *-o* in GO (~ *goes*), DO (~ *does* /dʌz/), ECHO (~ *echoes*), VETO (~ *vetoes*).

Compare the spelling of regular *-s* plurals (*cf* 5.81).

Note [a] The loss of *-e* in *age* ~ *ag(e)ing* is optional.
[b] Where *-ch* represents a consonant other than the sibilant or affricate /tʃ/, the *-e* is omitted: *stomachs*.

Treatment of *-y*

3.10 In bases ending in a consonant followed by *-y*, the following changes take place:

(a) *-y* changes to *-ie-* before *-s*: *carry* ~ *carries*, *try* ~ *tries*
(b) *-y* changes to *-i* before *-ed*: *carry* ~ *carried*, *try* ~ *tried*

Similarly *dry*, *deny*, *fancy*, etc.

The *-y-* remains, however, where it follows a vowel letter: *stay* ~ *stayed*, *alloy* ~ *alloys*, etc; or where it precedes *-ing*: *carry* ~ *carrying*, *stay* ~ *staying*, etc. Two exceptions to these rules are: *pay* ~ *paid*, and *lay* ~ *laid*, in which the *y* changes to *i* after *-a-*. (On a third exception, *say* ~ *said*, *cf* 3.15.)

A different spelling change occurs in verbs whose bases end in *-ie*: DIE, LIE, TIE, VIE. In these cases, the *-ie* changes to *-y-* before *-ing* is added: *die* ~ *dying*, *lie* ~ *lying*, *tie* ~ *tying*, *vie* ~ *vying*.

Note [a] In verbs whose bases end in a vowel other than *-y* or mute *-e*, the addition of inflections involves no further change of spelling: *boo* ~ *boos* ~ *booing* ~ *booed*, *ski* ~ *skis* ~ *skiing* ~ *skied*, etc.
[b] LIE is a regular verb in the sense 'tell untruths'; on the irregular verb *lie* ~ *lay* ~ *lain*, *cf* 3.16.
[c] Like PAY and LAY are their derivatives REPAY (~ *repaid*), MISLAY (~ *mislaid*), WAYLAY (~ *waylaid*), and RE'LAY (~ *re'laid*). There is another verb 'RELAY, however, which is derived from the noun *'relay* and which has the regularly spelt *-ed* form *relayed*: thus *The floor was relaid*, but *The news was relayed far and wide*.

The morphology of irregular full verbs

3.11 Irregular full verbs are like regular verbs in that their *-s* forms and their *-ing* forms are predictable from the base (*cf* 3.2*f*). But they differ from regular verbs in that either the past inflection, or the *-ed* participle inflection, or both of these, are irregular. More precisely the major differences are:

(a) Irregular verbs either do not have the regular *-ed* inflection, or else have a variant of that inflection in which the /d/ is devoiced to /t/ (*eg*: *burn* ~ *burnt*, which occurs alongside the regular *burned*).
(b) Irregular verbs typically, but not invariably, have variation in their base vowel. The explanation of this phenomenon, called GRADATION or ABLAUT, is historical, and it is characteristic of Indo–European languages in general: *choose* ~ *chose* ~ *chosen*, *write* ~ *wrote* ~ *written*.
(c) Irregular verbs have a varying number of distinct forms. Since the *-s* form and the *-ing* form are predictable for regular and irregular verbs alike, the only forms that need be listed for irregular verbs are the base form (V), the past (V-ed_1), and the *-ed* participle (V-ed_2). These are traditionally known as the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb. Most irregular verbs have, like regular verbs, only one common form for the past and the *-ed* participle; but there is considerable variation in this respect, as the table shows:

	V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2
all three forms alike:	*cut*	*cut*	*cut*
V-ed_1 = V-ed_2:	*meet*	*met*	*met*
V = V-ed_1:	*beat*	*beat*	*beaten*
V = V-ed_2:	*come*	*came*	*come*
all three forms different:	*speak*	*spoke*	*spoken*

Note Where irregular verbs have regular inflections (as is normal in the *-s* and *-ing* forms), they follow the spelling rules for regular verbs (*cf* 3.7–10).

Irregular verb classes

3.12 The 250 or so irregular English verbs can be classified on the basis of criteria derived from the above similarities and differences. Since it is impractical to account for both pronunciation and spelling together, only pronunciation will be considered in setting up classes of irregular verbs, and for that matter in deciding whether a verb is irregular or not. The criteria of classification to be used are the following:

(a) Suffixation in V-*ed*$_1$ and/or V-*ed*$_2$, including not only the alveolar suffixes *-ed*/*-t* as in *dreamed*/*dreamt*, but also, for V-*ed*$_2$, nasal suffixes as in *shaken*, *torn*.
(b) V-*ed* identity: *ie* V-*ed*$_1$ = V-*ed*$_2$, as in *met* ~ *met*.
(c) Vowel identity, *ie* the various principal parts show no difference of base vowel.

Table 3.12 shows how these three criteria divide irregular full verbs into seven classes:

Table 3.12 Irregular verb classes

CLASS	USE OF SUFFIX	V-*ed* IDENTITY	VOWEL IDENTITY	*Example*		
				V	V-*ed*$_1$	V-*ed*$_2$
1	+	+	+	*burn*	*burned*/*burnt*	*burned*/*burnt*
2	+	±	+	*saw*	*sawed*	*sawed*/*sawn*
3	+	+	−	*bring*	*brought*	*brought*
4	+	−	−	*break*	*broke*	*broken*
5	−	+	+	*cut*	*cut*	*cut*
6	−	+	−	*strike*	*struck*	*struck*
7	−	−	−	*swim*	*swam*	*swum*

Class 1 has three pluses, which indicate that a verb like *burn* is very close to a regular verb. The only irregularity is that each verb has, or at least allows as a variant, a V-*ed* form with an irregular final consonant or consonant cluster; *eg*: *burned* has an irregular variant *burnt* /-nt/ with a voiceless suffix after a voiced sound (*cf* 3.6).

Class 2 has a past suffix in *-ed* and two alternative *-ed* participle suffixes, one alveolar (*sawed*) and the other nasal (*sawn*). All verbs have vowel identity, although some verbs also have alternative forms with vowel gradation.

Class 3 has no vowel identity; *eg*: *bring* ~ *brought*. Many of the verbs in Classes 1 and 3 manifest some differences between BrE and AmE. For instance, in a subclass of Class 1 which will be distinguished as Class 1A, AmE shows a stronger preference than BrE for the regular /d/ variants of *burned*/*burnt*, etc. But the frequency of each form varies from verb to verb, and there is no one-to-one correspondence between a spelling in *-t* and a pronunciation in /t/. Class 3 shows a similar pattern of preference for variant *-ed* forms such as *dreamed*/*dreamt* /driːmd/, /dremt/.

Class 4 has three different principal parts, usually with a nasal V-*ed*$_2$ suffix (*break* ~ *broke* ~ *broken*).

Class 5 has the same form for all principal parts (*cut* ~ *cut* ~ *cut*).

Class 6 has identity between V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$, has no suffix, but does have a change of the base vowel (*strike* ~ *struck* ~ *struck*).

Class 7 is the most irregular major class of full verbs: V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$ are different; there is no suffix, but there is change of the base vowel (*swim* ~ *swam* ~ *swum*). Particularly irregular is the exceptional verb *go* ~ *went* ~ *gone*, which has an entirely unconnected V-*ed*$_1$ form, *went*. The substitution of a different form in this way is termed SUPPLETION (*cf*: *was*/*were* as the past forms of BE, 3.32).

Although we will not further define the difference among the verbs of each class, for mnemonic reasons the verbs in the lists below will be grouped into subclasses as (A), (B), (C), etc. Parentheses, for example '(*dwelled*)' are used for less common forms, and decidedly uncommon verbs or verb forms are marked '⟨rare⟩'. '(R)' denotes the existence of a regular variant.

Note The following list contains most of the irregular verbs in present-day English, including those which are relatively rare, but is not meant to be exhaustive, particularly with regard to derivative verbs. For example, it does not include very unusual or archaic forms such as *girt* (a rare past form of *gird*); nor does it include less common derivatives such as *relend*. Some irregular *-ed* participle forms survive only in special contexts, especially in adjectival use (for example *sunken* in a *sunken road*; or *shaven* in a *recently shaven chin*). We do not note such forms where they are not used as verbs and where the verb from which they are derived is otherwise regular. Where the verb occurs in the list of irregular verbs for another reason, exceptional nonverbal forms are noted for comparison.

Irregular verbs listed in class order

Class 1

3.13 Characteristics:
The suffix is used but voicing is variable (contrast *spent* with *made*). V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$ are identical (*burned*/*burnt* ~ *burned*/*burnt*) and there is vowel identity in all parts (*build* ~ *built* ~ *built*).

	V	V-*ed*		COMMENTS
1A	burn	burnt burned	 (R)	
	dwell	dwelt (dwelled)	 (R)	
	earn	earned	(R)	(*cf* Note [b])
	learn	learnt learned	 (R)	Adj: *learned* /-ɪd/ ['scholarly']
	smell	smelt smelled	 (R)	
	spell	spelt spelled	 (R)	Also MISSPELL

	V	V-*ed*		COMMENTS
	spill	spilt spilled	(R)	
	spoil	spoilt spoiled	(R)	
1B	bend	bent		Also UNBEND. Adj: 'on *bended* knee'
	build	built		Also REBUILD
	lend	lent		
	rend	rent		⟨Rare; in restricted use⟩
	sēnd	sent		
	spend	spent		Also MISSPEND
1C	have /hæv/	had		Primary verb: *cf* 3.33; -*s* form: *has* /hæz/
	make	made		Also REMAKE, UNMAKE

Note [a] For Class 1A verbs, the irregular -*t* spelling is generally rare in AmE. In BrE, the -*t* spelling is of varying frequency, but the /t/ pronunciation is widely current.
[b] EARN belongs marginally to Class 1A, since a pronunciation in /t/ has some BrE currency.
[c] There is a tendency to associate -*t* forms in Class 1A more with V-*ed*$_2$ than with V-*ed*$_1$, and with V-*ed*$_1$ when there is least implication of duration:
He *spelt/has spelt* it like this on only one occasion.
Contrast: *It smelled delicious.*
[d] The variation between /d/ and /t/ in Classes 1 and 3 applies to verbal uses but not to adjectival uses, for which /t/ is favoured. Both BrE and AmE have, for example, *burnt toast*, *burnt umber*. Even so, /d/ may occur attributively where the meaning emphasizes the process rather than the result of the process: *burnt wood* means 'wood which looks burnt', but *burned wood* might mean a quantity of wood which has been burned as fuel.

Class 2

3.14 Characteristics:
V-*ed*$_2$ has two suffixes, one alveolar which is R and identical with V-*ed*$_1$ (*mowed*), the other nasal (*mown*). There is no change of the base vowel for V-*ed*$_1$ (*saw* ~ *sawed*).

V	V-*ed*$_1$	V-*ed*$_2$		COMMENTS
hew	hewed	hewn hewed	(R)	
mow /əʊ/	mowed	mown mowed	(R)	Adj use: 'a *new-mown* lawn'
saw	sawed	sawn sawed	(R)	⟨esp BrE⟩
sew /əʊ/	sewed	sewn sewed	(R)	

V	V-*ed*$_1$	V-*ed*$_2$		COMMENTS
shear	sheared	shorn sheared	(R)	
show	showed	shown (showed)	(R)	Sometimes spelled *shew*, *shewed*, *shewn*
sow /əʊ/	sowed	sown sowed	(R)	
strew /uː/	strewed	strewn strewed	(R)	
swell	swelled	swollen swelled	(R)	Adj use: 'a *swollen* ankle/head' Adj use: 'a *swelled* head' [metaphorical suggestion of conceit]

Note [a] As an adjective, *swollen* is generally accepted in both literal and metaphorical uses. *Swelled head* is metaphorical ⟨esp AmE⟩.
[b] To the Class 2 list may be added *prove* ~ *proved* ~ *proved/proven* and *shave* ~ *shaved* ~ *shaved/shaven*. Although these verbs are usually regular, the -*ed* participle ending in -*en* is quite common for *prove* and not unusual for *shave*. These -*en* forms are more current in AmE than in BrE. *Proven* also occurs in the Scottish legal phrase *not proven*.

Class 3

3.15 Characteristics:
The suffix is used but voicing is variable (contrast *meant*, *told*). V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$ are identical (*left* ~ *left*), and there is change of base vowel (*think* ~ *thought*).

V	V-*ed*		COMMENTS
3A /iː/ ~	/e/		
bereave	bereft bereaved	(R)	⟨Rare; restricted use⟩ Adj: '*bereft* of hope'; V-*ed*$_2$ *bereaved* usually = 'deprived of a close relative by death'
cleave	cleft cleaved	(R)	Adj: *cleft palate*; also V-*ed*$_1$ = *clove*, V-*ed*$_2$ = *cloven*. Adj: *cloven hoof*
creep	crept		
deal	dealt /e/		Also MISDEAL
dream	dreamt /e/ dreamed	(R)	⟨esp BrE⟩ ⟨esp AmE⟩
feel	felt		
flee	fled		
keep	kept		
kneel	knelt kneeled	(R)	⟨esp AmE⟩
lean	leant /e/ leaned	(R)	⟨esp BrE⟩ ⟨esp AmE⟩
leap	leapt /e/ leaped	(R)	⟨esp AmE⟩
leave	left		

V	V-*ed*	COMMENTS
mean	meant /e/	
sleep	slept	Also OVERSLEEP
sweep	swept	
weep	wept	
3B: ~ /ɔː/		
beseech	besought / beseeched (R)	⟨Rare; in restricted use⟩
bring	brought	
buy /aɪ/	bought	
catch	caught	
seek	sought	
teach	taught	
think	thought	Also RETHINK
3C: /uː/ ~ /ɒ/		
lose	lost	
3D: /e/ ~ /əʊ/		
sell	sold	
tell	told	Also FORETELL, RETELL
3E: /ɪəʳ/ ~ /ɜːʳ/		
hear	heard	Also MISHEAR
3F: /eɪ/ ~ /e/		
say	said	But -*s* form: *says* /e/. On GAINSAY, *cf* 3.5 Note [a].

Class 4

3.16 Characteristics:
V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 differ and, in practically all cases, the latter has a nasal suffix (*break* ~ *broke* ~ *broken*). There is no base vowel identity. There is a range of base vowel changes and the verbs have been ordered according to vowel patterning.

V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2	COMMENTS
4A: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 have the same vowel.			
4Aa: V-*ed* = /əʊ/			
break /eɪ/	broke	broken	Adj: 'I'm *broke*' ['without money'] ⟨informal⟩
choose /uː/	chose	chosen	
freeze /iː/	froze	frozen	Also UNFREEZE, DEEPFREEZE (also R)
speak	spoke	spoken	
steal	stole	stolen	

V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2	COMMENTS
(a)wake(n)	(a)woke	(a)woken	*cf* R (A)WAKEN. But there is some tendency to produce blends of the regular and irregular verbs, as in 'You *waked* me too early.'
weave	wove / weaved (R)	woven / weaved (R)	
4Ab: /eəʳ/ ~ /ɔːʳ/			
bear	bore	borne	'She has *borne* six children' (but: 'She was *born* in 1955'); also FORBEAR, OVERBEAR
swear	swore	sworn	Also FORSWEAR
tear	tore	torn	
wear	wore	worn	
4Ac: /aɪ/ ~ /ɪ/			
bite	bit	bitten	V-ed_2 sometimes = *bit*
chide ⟨rare⟩	chid	chidden / chid	Also R *chided*
hide	hid	hidden / (hid)	
4Ad: /e/ ~ /ɒ/			
forget	forgot	forgotten	Sometimes ⟨esp AmE⟩ V-ed_2 = *forgot*; also BEGET, with *begat* as an ⟨archaic and scriptural⟩ alternative to *begot* (V-ed_1). See also GET, Class 6F, 3.18.
tread	trod	trodden / (trod)	
4Ae: /aɪ/ ~ /eɪ/			
lie	lay	lain	['be horizontal']. Contrast LIE = 'tell a lie' (R). Sometimes confused with LAY 'put' (~ *laid* ~ *laid*)
4B: V and V-ed_2, but not V-ed_1, have the same vowel			
4Ba: V/V-ed_2 = /əʊ/			
blow	blew	blown	
grow	grew	grown	Also OUTGROW
know	knew	known	
throw	threw	thrown	Also OVERTHROW
4Bb: V/V-ed_2 = /eɪ/			
forsake	forsook	forsaken	⟨restricted use⟩
shake	shook	shaken	
take	took	taken	Also BETAKE ⟨restricted use⟩, MISTAKE, OVERTAKE, PARTAKE, UNDERTAKE

V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2	COMMENTS
4Bc: V/V-ed_2 = /ɪ/			
forbid	forbade /eɪ *or* æ/ forbad /æ/	forbidden (forbid)	*cf* BID, Class 5
give	gave	given	Also FORGIVE, MISGIVE
4Bd: V/V-ed_2 = /ɔː/			
draw	drew	drawn	Also WITHDRAW
4Be: V/V-ed_2 = /ɔː/			
fall	fell	fallen	Also BEFALL ⟨restricted use⟩
4Bf: V/V-ed_2 = /iː/			
eat	ate BrE /e/ ate AmE /eɪ/	eaten	Also OVEREAT
4Bg: V/V-ed_2 = /iː/			
see	saw	seen	Also FORESEE, OVERSEE
4Bh: V/V-ed_2 = /eɪ/			
slay	slew	slain	⟨restricted use, esp in BrE⟩
4C: all three parts have different vowels			
4Ca: /aɪ/ ~ /əʊ/ ~ /ɪ/			
drive	drove	driven	
ride	rode	ridden	Also OVERRIDE
rise	rose	risen	Also ARISE, which is ⟨rare⟩ except when metaphorical: 'The question *arose* . . .'
smite	smote	smitten	⟨Archaic⟩ except when metaphorical in V-ed_2, *eg*: '*smitten* with her charms'
stride	strode	strid stridden strode	Both *strid* and *stridden* are ⟨rare⟩; also BESTRIDE
strive	strove strived (R)	striven strived (R)	
write	wrote	written	Also REWRITE, UNDERWRITE
4Cb: /aɪ/ ~ /uː/ ~ /əʊ/			
fly	flew	flown	*cf*: *flee* ~ *fled* ~ *fled* (Class 3A)
4Cc: /uː/ ~ /ɪ/ ~ /ʌ/			
do	did	done	The -*s* form *does* has the irregular pronunciation /dʌz/. Also OUTDO, OVERDO, REDO, UNDO, etc (*cf* 3.36)

V	V-ed_1	V-ed_2	COMMENTS
4D: all three parts have the same vowel			
4D: /iː/			
beat	beat	beaten	*beat* is sometimes used as V-ed_2, esp in AmE
4E: V-ed_1 and V-ed_2 have different vowels in special alternative forms			
4E: /aɪ/			
dive	dived (R) (dove)	dived (R)	V-ed_1 *dove* is AmE only; the verb is R in standard BrE and often in AmE
shrive	shrived (R) shrove	shrived (R) shriven	⟨Rare⟩
thrive	thrived (R) (throve)	thrived (R) (thriven)	Normally R; *thriven* is ⟨archaic⟩

Note *Glide* is a regular verb in present-day English, but there are occasional occurrences of the archaic irregular past form *glode*.

Class 5

3.17 Characteristics:

All three parts V, V-ed_1, and V-ed_2 are identical. No suffix or change of the base vowel (*bet* ~ *bet* ~ *bet*).

V/V-*ed*	COMMENTS
bet	BrE also R: *betted*
bid	'make an offer (to buy)' etc. (But in the sense of 'say a greeting' or 'give an order', the forms *bid* ~ *bad(e)* ~ *bidden* may also be used in rather archaic style: 'Do as you are *bid(den)*.') Also OUTBID, UNDERBID.
burst	Also nonstandard BUST, with alternative R V-*ed* form *busted*
cast	Also BROADCAST, FORECAST, MISCAST, OVERCAST, RECAST, TELECAST (sometimes also R)
cost	COST = 'estimate the cost of' is R
cut	
fit	R ⟨in BrE⟩
hit	
hurt	
knit	Usually R: *knitted*
let	
put /ʊ/	But PUT(T) /pʌt/ in golf is R: *putted*
quit	Also R: *quitted*
rid	Also R: *ridded*
set	Also BESET, RESET, UPSET, OFFSET, INSET
shed	Also R ⟨rare⟩ = 'put in a shed'
shit	⟨Not in polite use⟩; V-ed_1 sometimes *shat*
shut	
slit	
split	
spread /e/	

V/V-*ed*	COMMENTS
sweat /e/	Also R: *sweated*
thrust	
wed	Also R: *wedded*
wet	Also R: *wetted*

Note The regular verb SHRED sometimes occurs with the Class 5 forms *shred* ~ *shred* ~ *shred*.

Class 6

3.18 Characteristics:
No suffix; V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$ are identical; change of base vowel (*win* ~ *won* ~ *won*).

V	V-*ed*	COMMENTS
6A: Mainly /iː/ ~ /e/		
bleed	bled	
breed	bred	
feed	fed	Also OVERFEED, etc
hold	held	Also BEHOLD ⟨in restricted use⟩, UPHOLD, WITHHOLD, etc
lead /iː/	led	Also MISLEAD
meet	met	
read /iː/	read /e/	Also REREAD, etc
speed	sped	Also R: *speeded*, esp of mechanisms, and always R in the phrasal verb SPEED *up*
6B: Mainly /ɪ/ ~ /ʌ/		
cling	clung	
dig	dug	
fling	flung	
hang	hung	Also OVERHANG. But HANG is also R in the sense 'put to death by hanging'
sling	slung	
slink	slunk	
spin	spun	V-*ed*$_1$ = *span* is ⟨archaic⟩
stick	stuck	
sting	stung	
strike	struck	Literal use; in metaphorical, adjectival use V-*ed*$_2$ also *stricken*: '*stricken* (*struck*) by terror'
string	strung	Also RESTRING, HAMSTRING
swing	swung	
win	won	
wring	wrung	
6C: /aɪ/ ~ /aʊ/		
bind	bound	Also REBIND, UNBIND; Adj: 'one's *bounden* duty'
find	found	
grind	ground	
wind	wound	= 'turn round'; also REWIND, UNWIND; WIND/wind/ = 'smell the presence of' etc is always R

V	V-*ed*	COMMENTS
6D: /aɪ/ ~ /ɪ/		
light	lit	Also R: *lighted*; ALIGHT and HIGHLIGHT are only R. Adj: 'a *lighted* candle'
slide	slid	
6E: /ɪ/ ~ /æ/		
sit	sat	
spit	spat	V-*ed* also = *spit* ⟨esp AmE⟩; SPIT = 'fix with a spit' is R
6F: ~ /ɒ/		
get	got	AmE also has *gotten* for V-*ed*$_2$ in certain senses of the word, *eg* 'acquire', 'cause', 'come'; thus AmE makes a distinction between *We've gotten tickets* = 'acquired' and *We've got tickets* = 'we possess'. On the related verbs FORGET and BEGET, *cf* Class 4Ad (3.16).
shine	shone /ʃɒn/ ⟨BrE⟩ /ʃəʊn/ ⟨AmE⟩	Also R when = 'polish' ⟨esp AmE⟩; also OUTSHINE
shoe /uː/	shod	Also R: *shoed*
shoot	shot	Also OVERSHOOT
6G: /aɪ/ ~ /ɔː/		
fight	fought	Also OUTFIGHT
6H: /æ/ ~ /ʊ/		
stand	stood	Also (MIS)UNDERSTAND, WITHSTAND, etc
6I: /aɪ/ ~ /əʊ/		
abide	abode	restricted use when = 'stay'; R when ABIDE *by* = 'obey', *eg*: 'He *abided by* our decision'.
6J: /iː/ ~ /əʊ/		
heave	hove	Usually R: *heaved*

Note In AmE, the normally regular verb PLEAD has an alternative Class 6A past form *pled*.

Class 7

3.19 Characteristics:
No suffix; V-*ed*$_1$ and V-*ed*$_2$ are different; change of base vowel (*began* ~ *begun*).

V	V-*ed*$_1$	V-*ed*$_2$	COMMENTS
7A: /ɪ/ ~ /æ/ ~ /ʌ/			
begin	began	begun	
drink	drank	drunk	*cf* Adj uses: 'He was *drunk*' but '*drunken* driving'
ring	{rang (rung)}	rung	Also R: *ringed* in the sense 'put a ring around'
shrink	{shrank (shrunk)}	shrunk	Adj: *shrunken*
sing	{sang (sung)}	sung	
sink	{sank (sunk)}	sunk	Adj: *sunken*
spring	sprang	sprung	V-*ed*$_1$ also *sprung* in AmE
stink	{stank (stunk)}	stunk	Has impolite connotations
swim	{swam (swum)}	swum	
7B			
come	came	come	Also BECOME, OVERCOME
run	ran	run	Also OUTRUN, OVERRUN, RERUN
7C			
go	went	gone	Also UNDERGO, FOR(E)GO (*cf* Note [b])

Note [a] In Class 7A, although the gradation series /ɪ/ ~ /æ/ ~ /ʌ/ is the one generally accepted as standard, V-*ed*$_1$ forms in /ʌ/ are commonly used (esp in AmE) and accepted. V-*ed*$_2$ forms in /æ/ also have some currency.
[b] On *been* in place of *gone*, *cf* 4.22 Note [b].

Irregular verbs (including derivatives) in alphabetical order

3.20 Since irregular verbs, if one includes prefixed and compound derivatives, make up to some extent an open and productive class, this list makes no claim to completeness. As before, rarer forms are enclosed in parentheses. Verbs in square brackets are those which are generally regular, but which have irregular spelling or irregular forms of limited currency.

In the right-hand column, reference is given to the typological classification above, which also includes relevant details of usage (AmE, BrE, archaic, pronunciation, etc).

Base (V)	Past tense (V-*ed*$_1$)	-*ed* participle (V-*ed*$_2$)	Reference
abide	abode, abided,	abode, abided	6I
arise	arose	arisen	4Ca
awake	awoke, awaked	awoken, awaked	4Aa
be	was, were	been	(*cf* 3.32)
bear	bore	borne	4Ab
beat	beat	beaten (beat)	4D
become	became	become	7B
befall	befell	befallen	4Be
beget	begot	begotten	6F
begin	began	begun	7A
behold	beheld	beheld	6A
bend	bent	bent	1B
bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved	3A
beseech	besought, beseeched	besought, beseeched	3B
beset	beset	beset	5
bestride	bestrode	bestridden, bestrid, bestrode	4Ca
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted	5
betake	betook	betaken	4Bb
bid	bad(e), bid	bade, bid, bidden	5
bind	bound	bound	6C
bite	bit	bitten, (bit)	4Ac
bleed	bled	bled	6A
blow	blew	blown	4Ba
break	broke	broken	4Aa
breed	bred	bred	6A
bring	brought	brought	3B
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast	5
build	built	built	1B
burn	burnt, burned	burnt, burned	1A
burst	burst	burst	5
bust ⟨non-standard⟩	bust, busted	bust, busted	5
buy	bought	bought	3B
cast	cast	cast	5
catch	caught	caught	3B
chide	chid, chided	chidden, chid, chided	4Ac
choose	chose	chosen	4Aa
cleave	cleft, clove, cleaved	cleft, cloven, cleaved	3A
cling	clung	clung	6B
come	came	come	7B
cost	cost	cost	5
creep	crept	crept	3A
cut	cut	cut	5
deal	dealt	dealt	3A
deepfreeze	deepfroze, -freezed	deepfrozen, -freezed	4Aa
dig	dug	dug	6B
dive	dived, ⟨AmE⟩ dove	dived	4E
do	did	done	4Cc; (*cf* 3.36)
draw	drew	drawn	4Bd
dream	dreamt, dreamed	dreamt, dreamed	3A
drink	drank	drunk	7A
drive	drove	driven	4Ca

Base (V)	Past tense (V-*ed*$_1$)	-*ed* participle (V-*ed*$_2$)	Reference
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled	1A
[earn]	[earned]	[earned]	1A
eat	ate	eaten	4Bf
fall	fell	fallen	4Be
feed	fed	fed	6A
feel	felt	felt	3A
fight	fought	fought	6G
find	found	found	6C
[fit]	[fit]	[fit]	5
flee	fled	fled	3A
fling	flung	flung	6B
fly	flew	flown	4Cb
forbear	forbore	foreborne	4Ab
forbid	forbade, forbad	forbidden, (forbid)	4Bc
forecast	forecast	forecast	5
foresee	foresaw	foreseen	4Bg
foretell	foretold	foretold	3D
forget	forgot	forgotten, (forgot)	4Ad
forgive	forgave	forgiven	4Bc
forgo	forwent	forgone	7C
forsake	forsook	forsaken	4Bb
forswear	forswore	forsworn	4Ab
freeze	froze	frozen	4Aa
[gainsay]	[gainsaid]	[gainsaid]	3F
get	got	{got / gotten ⟨AmE⟩}	6F
give	gave	given	4Bc
go	went	gone	7C
grind	ground	ground	6C
grow	grew	grown	4Ba
hamstring	hamstrung	hamstrung	6B
hang	hung, (hanged)	hung, (hanged)	6B
have	had	had	1C; (*cf* 3.33)
hear	heard	heard	3E
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove	6J
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed	2
hide	hid	hidden, (hid)	4Ac
hit	hit	hit	5
hold	held	held	6A
hurt	hurt	hurt	5
inset	inset	inset	5
keep	kept	kept	3A
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled	3A
knit	knitted, knit	knitted, knit	5
know	knew	known	4Ba
[lay]	[laid]	[laid]	(*cf* 3.10)
lead	led	led	6A
lean	leant, leaned	leant, leaned	3A
leap	leapt, leaped	leapt, leaped	3A
learn	learnt, learned	learnt, learned	1A
leave	left	left	3A

Base (V)	Past tense (V-*ed*$_1$)	-*ed* participle (V-*ed*$_2$)	Reference
lend	lent	lent	1B
let	let	let	5
lie	lay	lain	4Ae
light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted	6D
lose	lost	lost	3C
make	made	made	1C
mean	meant	meant	3A
meet	met	met	6A
miscast	miscast	miscast	5
misdeal	misdealt	misdealt	3A
misgive	misgave	misgiven	4Bc
mishear	misheard	misheard	3E
[mislay]	[mislaid]	[mislaid]	(*cf* 3.10 Note [c])
mislead	misled	misled	6A
misspell	misspelt, misspelled	misspelt, misspelled	1A
misspend	misspent	misspent	1B
mistake	mistook	mistaken	4Bb
misunderstand	misunderstood	misunderstood	6H
mow	mowed	mown, mowed	2
offset	offset	offset	5
outbid	outbid	outbid, (outbidden)	5
outdo	outdid	outdone	4Cc
outfight	outfought	outfought	6G
outgrow	outgrew	outgrown	4Ba
outrun	outran	outrun	7B
outshine	outshone	outshone	6F
overbear	overbore	overborne	4Ab
overcast	overcast	overcast	5
overcome	overcame	overcome	7B
overdo	overdid	overdone	4Cc
overeat	overate	overeaten	4Bf
overfeed	overfed	overfed	6A
overhang	overhung	overhung	6B
override	overrode	overridden	4CA
overrun	overran	overrun	7B
oversee	oversaw	overseen	4Bg
overshoot	overshot	overshot	6F
oversleep	overslept	overslept	3A
overtake	overtook	overtaken	4Bb
overthrow	overthrew	overthrown	4Ba
partake	partook	partaken	4Bb
[pay]	[paid]	[paid]	(*cf* 3.10)
[plead]	[pleaded, (pled)]	[pleaded, (pled)]	(*cf* 3.18 Note)
[prove]	[proved]	[proved, proven]	(*cf* 3.14 Note [b])
put	put	put	5
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted	5
read	read	read	6A
rebind	rebound	rebound	6C
rebuild	rebuilt	rebuilt	1B
recast	recast	recast	5

Base (V)	Past tense (V-*ed*$_1$)	-*ed* participle (V-*ed*$_2$)	Reference
redo	redid	redone	4Cc
[relay]	[relaid]	[relaid]	(*cf* 3.10 Note [c])
remake	remade	remade	1C
rend	rent	rent	1B
[repay]	[repaid]	[repaid]	(*cf* 3.10 Note [c])
reread	reread	reread	6A
rerun	reran	rerun	7B
reset	reset	reset	5
restring	restrung	restrung	6B
retell	retold	retold	3D
rethink	rethought	rethought	3B
rewind	rewound	rewound	6C
rewrite	rewrote	rewritten	4Ca
rid	rid, ridded	rid, ridded	5
ride	rode	ridden	4Ca
ring	rang, (rung)	rung	7A
rise	rose	risen	4Ca
run	ran	run	7B
saw	sawed	sawn, sawed	2
say	said	said	3F
see	saw	seen	4Bg
seek	sought	sought	3B
sell	sold	sold	3D
send	sent	sent	1B
set	set	set	5
sew	sewed	sewn, sewed	2
shake	shook	shaken	4Bb
[shave]	[shaved]	[shaved, shaven]	(*cf* 3.14 Note [b])
shear	sheared	shorn, sheared	2
shed	shed	shed	5
[shew]	[shewed]	[shewn]	2
shine	shone, shined	shone, shined	6F
shit	shit, shat	shit	5
shoe	shod, shoed	shod, shoed	6F
shoot	shot	shot	6F
show	showed	shown, (showed)	2
[shred]	[shredded, shred]	[shredded, shred]	(*cf* 3.17 Note)
shrink	shrank, (shrunk)	shrunk	7A
shrive	shrived, shrove	shrived, shriven	4E
shut	shut	shut	5
sing	sang, (sung)	sung	7A
sink	sank, (sunk)	sunk	7A
sit	sat	sat	6E
slay	slew	slain	4Bh
sleep	slept	slept	3A
slide	slid	slid	6D
sling	slung	slung	6B
slink	slunk	slunk	6B
slit	slit	slit	5
smell	smelt, smelled	smelt, smelled	1A
smite	smote	smitten	4Ca

Base (V)	Past tense (V-*ed*$_1$)	-*ed* participle (V-*ed*$_2$)	Reference
sow	sowed	sown, sowed	2
speak	spoke	spoken	4Aa
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded	6A
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled	1A
spend	spent	spent	1B
spill	spilt, spilled	spilt, spilled	1A
spin	spun, span	spun	6B
spit	spat, spit	spat, spit	6E
split	split	split	5
spoil	spoilt, spoiled	spoilt, spoiled	1A
spread	spread	spread	5
spring	sprang, (sprung)	sprung	7A
stand	stood	stood	6H
steal	stole	stolen	4Aa
stick	stuck	stuck	6B
sting	stung	stung	6B
stink	stank, (stunk)	stunk	7A
strew	strewed	strewn, strewed	2
stride	strode	stridden, strid, strode	4Ca
strike	struck	struck	6B
string	strung	strung	6B
strive	strove, strived	striven, strived	4Ca
swear	swore	sworn	4Ab
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated	5
sweep	swept	swept	3A
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled	2
swim	swam, (swum)	swum	7A
swing	swung	swung	6B
take	took	taken	4Bb
teach	taught	taught	3B
tear	tore	torn	4Ab
telecast	telecast	telecast	5
tell	told	told	3D
think	thought	thought	3B
thrive	thrived, (throve)	thrived, (thriven)	4E
throw	threw	thrown	4Ba
thrust	thrust	thrust	5
tread	trod	trodden, (trod)	4Ad
unbend	unbent	unbent	1B
unbind	unbound	unbound	6C
underbid	underbid	underbid, (underbidden)	5
undergo	underwent	undergone	7C
understand	understood	understood	6H
undertake	undertook	undertaken	4Bb
underwrite	underwrote	underwritten	4Ca
undo	undid	undone	4Cc
unfreeze	unfroze	unfrozen	4Aa
unmake	unmade	unmade	1C
unwind	unwound	unwound	6C
uphold	upheld	upheld	6A
upset	upset	upset	5
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked	4Aa
[waylay]	[waylaid]	[waylaid]	(*cf* 3.10 Note [c])

Base (V)	Past tense (V-ed_1)	-*ed* participle (V-ed_2)	Reference
wear	wore	worn	4Ab
weave	wove	woven	4Aa
wed	wedded, wed	wedded, wed	5
weep	wept	wept	3A
wet	wetted, wet	wetted, wet	5
win	won	won	6B
wind	wound	wound	6C
withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn	4Bd
withhold	withheld	withheld	6A
withstand	withstood	withstood	6H
wring	wrung	wrung	6B
write	wrote	written	4Ca

Verbs in auxiliary function

3.21 In contrast to full verbs, the verbs we will consider in the next sections are capable of functioning as AUXILIARY or 'helping' verbs (*cf* 2.27*f*). These are the PRIMARY VERBS BE, HAVE, and DO, and the MODAL VERBS *can*, *may*, *will*, *shall*, *could*, *might*, *would*, *should*, and *must*. Since they can function only as auxiliaries, the modal verbs will generally be referred to as MODAL AUXILIARIES.

The auxiliaries make different contributions to the verb phrase (*cf* 3.55*f*). Of the three primary verbs, DO is only a semantically empty syntactic component in sentence processes such as negation and interrogation (*cf* DO-support; 3.37), whereas BE contributes to aspect and voice, and HAVE contributes to aspect. The modal auxiliaries are so called because of their contribution of meanings in the area known as MODALITY (including such concepts as volition, probability, and obligation); but such verbs have a broader semantic role than this label suggests (*cf* 4.49*ff*).

Although auxiliaries have different functions in the verb phrase, they have one important syntactic function in common, *viz* their ability to act as OPERATOR when they occur as the first verb of a finite verb phrase (*cf* 2.48); as such they are used, for example, in the formation of *yes–no* questions:

Is he *asking* any questions?
Has he *been asking* any questions?
Was he *asked* any questions?
Will he *be asked* any questions?
Has he *asked* any questions?
Does he *ask* any questions?

Here the operator, or first auxiliary of the verb phrase, is isolated from the rest of the predicate no matter how complex the verb phrase is. Since BE and (sometimes, esp in BrE) HAVE also have this function as main verbs, the term operator will also be used for them in sentences like:

Is she a tall girl? *Has* he any money? ⟨BrE⟩

(The variant constructions with HAVE are discussed in 3.33–35.) The complex verb phrase of *He might have been being questioned by the police* is thus analysed, within this sentence, as shown in *Fig* 3.21:

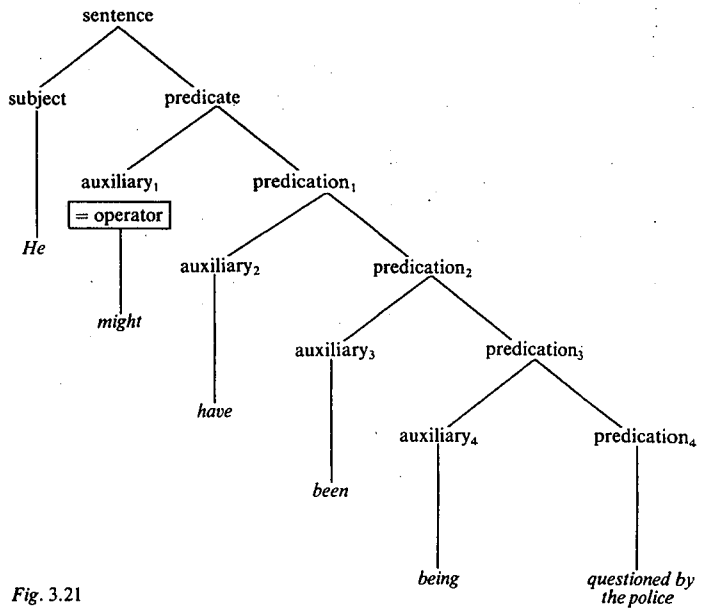

Fig. 3.21

(On the use of the terms predicate and predication in this diagram, *cf* 2.47–48.)

Many of the criteria for the syntactic function of auxiliaries have to do with their status as operators, and therefore apply also to BE and HAVE as main verbs. These are listed in (a), (c), (d), (e) below. Of the remaining criteria, (b) is morphological, (f) and (g) are syntactic and have to do with the ordering of elements in the verb phrase, and (h) is semantic.

Criteria for auxiliary verbs

(a) Operator in negation with *not*

3.22 In forming negative finite clauses, the first auxiliary is placed before the negative word *not*. Contrast:

She *can* do it. She *can*not do it.
She *saw* the play. *She *saw* not the play.

As the example shows, full verbs like SEE are distinguished from auxiliary verbs by their inability to form negation in this way.

Note [a] Whereas current English has no negative sentence such as **She saw not the play* (but *cf* Note [b]) we do have an acceptable negative sentence of the form:

He decided *not* to see the play.
I like *not* working on Fridays.

In these cases, however, negation is associated with the second, nonfinite verb phrases, *to see* and *working*, rather than with the initial finite verb phrases, *decided* and *like* (*cf* 14.7). This is obvious from the following paraphrases:

He decided that he would not see the play.
I like it not working on Fridays.

which are not synonymous with:

He did not decide that he would see the play.
I don't like it working on Fridays.

In these examples, the distinction between negation in the superordinate clause and negation in the nonfinite clause is clear; but in other cases, the semantic difference may be small or nonexistent (*cf* catenative verbs 3.49; transferred negation 14.36):

She seemed not to mind. = She didn't seem to mind.

Even here, however, the syntactic difference between the two constructions is indicated by the inability of the first negative to be contracted: **She seemn't to mind* (*cf* 3.23).

[b] Whereas **She saw not the play* was rejected above, *She saw not the play but the opera* is acceptable. The reason for this is that the negative word *not* goes with the noun phrase *the play* rather than with the verb (*cf* 13.42); *ie* the sentence can be paraphrased:

It was not the play but the opera that she saw.

A related example of the use of *not* after a full verb is the following quotation from President John F. Kennedy's Inaugural Address:

Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.

This case is parallel to the preceding one, in that there is a contrastive parallelism between the two objects of the verb *ask*, the first of which is rejected by *not*: . . . *not what your country can do for you* . . . (*but*) *what you can do for your country*. The scope of *not* here therefore includes the interrogative clause, but excludes the main verb. This example also has an air of studied archaism (*cf* Note [c]).

[c] In archaic or facetiously archaic usage we can still meet negative constructions in which *not* follows a full verb and not an operator:

Whether they succeeded I *know not*. ['I do not know']
I *care not* who knows it. ['I do not care . . .']
If I *mistake not*, you were at Yale? ['If I am not in error . . .']

[d] *Not* also follows a full verb when it acts as a pro-form for a clause (*cf* 12.28):

Jean may be late, but I hope *not*. ['. . . hope that she won't be late']

[e] Negation in subjunctive and nonfinite verb phrases does not involve the occurrence of an operator (*cf* 3.58, 14.6).

(b) Negative and verb contractions

3.23 The negative word *not* following an operator can in most cases be contracted and attached, as an enclitic particle, to the auxiliary. The resulting negative auxiliary is spelled with a final *-n't*: *isn't, hadn't, didn't, won't, couldn't*, etc. The pronunciation of the contracted auxiliary and its conditions of use are given below in later sections (3.32*ff*, 3.39). Every auxiliary except the *am* form of BE has a contracted negative form (but *cf* 3.32 Note [c]), but two of these, *mayn't* and *shan't*, are now virtually nonexistent in AmE, while in BrE *shan't* is becoming rare and *mayn't* even more so.

In addition, many operators have contracted nonnegative forms:

BE:	*am* ~ *'m*; *is* ~ *'s*; *are* ~ *'re*;
HAVE:	*have* ~ *'ve*; *has* ~ *'s*; *had* ~ *'d*;
modals:	*will* ~ *'ll*; *would* ~ *'d*.

Notice that the contractions *'s* and *'d* are ambiguous, the former representing *is* or *has* (or, occasionally, *does*; *cf* 3.36 Note), and the latter *had* or *would*. Further information on individual contractions is given in 3.33, 3.36, 3.39.

The above verb contractions were called nonnegative because they cannot combine with negative contractions to form doubly-contracted forms:

(i) She *is not* studying. (ii) She *isn't* studying.
(iii) She'*s not* studying. (iv) *She'*sn't* studying.

There are, however, two constructions (ii) and (iii) corresponding to the uncontracted negative construction in (i). In the first contracted construction (ii), the contracted negative is attached to the uncontracted operator; in the second contracted form, the contracted operator is attached to the subject, the *not* being uncontracted. Generally speaking, the variant (ii) with contracted negation is more common than the variant (iii) with contracted verb and full negation. There are, however, exceptions to this generalization in Scotland and in Northern England, where forms such as *'ll not* seem to be preferred to forms such as *won't*.

Contractions are phonologically reduced or simplified forms which are institutionalized in both speech and writing. As such, they are to be distinguished from cases of PHONOLOGICAL REDUCTION only (*eg* the reduction of /ɑːʳ/ to /əʳ/ in the pronunciation of *are*). A contracted form can undergo additional phonological reduction, and this is very commonly the case with the negative contractions, where the final /nt/ is reduced to /n/; *eg*: *haven't* /hævn/, *isn't* /ɪzn/.

Contracted forms, being enclitic to a preceding word, naturally do not occur initially, *eg* where the operator comes at the beginning of the clause, with inversion (*cf* 3.24). Further, being unstressed, they do not occur where the operator is the only verb in the verb phrase, and precedes an ellipsis (*cf* 3.26). These two circumstances are illustrated in:

{ *Will* you be in tonight?
{ **'ll* you be in tonight?

{ No, but I *will* tomorrow night.
{ *No, but I'*ll* tomorrow night.

In other positions, the contraction is favoured in informal style. The choice between uncontracted *is* /ɪz/ and contracted *'s* /z/ in spoken English has been found to be conditioned by the following variables, listed in order of importance:

First, there is significant correlation of /z/ with a preceding pronoun, or with the preceding words *there* and *here*, *eg*:

It'*s* raining. There'*s* a car in the garage. Here'*s* my bus.

whereas the uncontracted form is associated with a preceding noun, *eg*:

The car *is* in the garage.

Second, but less important, /z/ is typical of informal and /ɪz/ of formal contexts.

Third, there is some tendency for the contracted form to be more common when functioning as an auxiliary than as a main verb.

When these three factors of preference are combined the choice of form is more predictable, *ie* /ɪz/ is most likely when it is a main verb and follows a

noun in a formal context (*eg*: *Radiation is dangerous*), whereas /z/ is most likely when it is an auxiliary and follows a pronoun in an informal context (*eg*: *It's getting dark*). A similar pattern of choice is to be expected with other verb contractions.

Note [a] Although phonological reduction may result in pronunciations similar to those of orthodox contractions, such reductions are not represented in writing if they occur outside the normal conditions for contraction. For example, although the auxiliary at the beginning of *Have you eaten?* may be reduced, in speech, to /v/ (as in /vjuː ˈiːtn/), this will not be written in standard orthography **'Ve you eaten?*
[b] On the alternative constructions *usedn't to* and *didn't use(d) to*, *cf* 3.44.

(c) Inversion of subject and operator

3.24 Auxiliaries, as operators, admit inversion; *ie* the subject noun phrase and the auxiliary (the first auxiliary if there are two or more) change places, especially in interrogative clauses. Compare:

She will come. ~ Will she come?
She plans to come. ~ *Plans she to come?

As with *not*-negation (*cf* 3.22) main verbs here require the use of DO (*cf* 3.37): *Does she plan to come?*

Inversion of subject and operator occurs not only in interrogatives but also in sentences with introductory negatives or semi-negatives (*cf* 18.24):

At no time *was* the entrance *left* unguarded.

Note [a] In addition to subject–operator inversion, there is also inversion of subject and main verb, as in *Down came the rain* (*cf* 18.23).
[b] Subject–operator inversion is usual not only with *yes–no* questions, but with *wh*-questions. There are, however, one or two formulaic *wh*-questions in which the subject and main verb are inverted:
How goes it? [a greeting: 'How are you doing?']
How came you to miss the train? ['How did you come to . . .?']
What say you, Peter? ['What is your opinion?']
Where stands the Administration?
There tends to be a tone of archaism or mock-archaism in such questions.
[c] On *Used she to come?* and *Did she use(d) to come?* *cf* 3.44.

(d) Emphatic positive

3.25 Auxiliaries as operators can carry nuclear stress to mark a finite clause as positive rather than negative:

Won't you try again? Yes, I WÌLL try again. [1]

You must speak to the teacher. I HÀVE spoken to her. [2]

The function of this EMPHATIC POSITIVE use of the operator is to deny a negative which has been stated or implied. On the use of DO here in assertive contexts, *cf* 3.37, 18.16:

You DÍD speak to her? ['I thought you didn't']
You should listen to your mother. But I DÒ listen to her.

Sometimes the emphatic operator has no contrastive meaning, but is used purely for emotive force (*cf* 18.56):

I ÀM glad! I DÒ wish you would LÍsten. You HÀVE done well.

(e) Operator in reduced clauses

3.26 The reply to a question such as:

Won't you try again? Can you drive a car?

may be as indicated in [1] above:

Yes, I WÌLL try again. No. I CÀN'T drive a car.

On the other hand, a more likely reply would be the elliptical construction:

Yes, I WÌLL. No, I CÀN'T.

Auxiliaries can function as operators in a range of such reduced constructions (*cf* 12.21*f*, 12.60), where the main verb is omitted either by ellipsis or by pro-form substitution, and the clause is understood to repeat the content of an earlier clause. The nature of this type of operator function has been captured by various labels such as 'code' or 'stranding'.

Here we mention four types of reduced clause containing an operator without a main verb, of which the first two are the most important. DO is used as an 'empty' operator where the clause has no other auxiliary.

(i) *SO/NEITHER/NOR* + OPERATOR (*cf* 12.29)
Positive:
Ann will stay and so *will* BÀRbara.
Bill stayed and so *did* HÈNry.
Negative:
Ann won't stay and *neither* will BÀRbara.
Bill didn't stay, *nor* did HÈNry.

(ii) OPERATOR + *TOO/EITHER* (*cf* 12.59)
Positive:
Ann will stay late and Barbara *will* TÒO.
Bill broke his promise, and Henry *did* TÒO.
Negative:
Ann won't eat much and Barbara *won't* EÌTHer.
Bill didn't break his promise, and Henry *didn't* EÌTHer.

(iii) PREDICATION FRONTING (*cf* 18.20)
Ann SÀID she would be late, and late she *WÀS*.
Bill SÀID he would win the match, and win the match he *DÍD*.

(iv) RELATIVIZED PREDICATION (*cf* 6.34 Note [b])
Ann said she would be late, which she *was*.
Bill said he would win the match, which he *did*.

In these examples, the second auxiliary (unless it is DO) is the same as the first; but there are also reduced constructions in which the two auxiliaries may differ (*cf* 12.59, 19.45 Note):

Ann hoped that we *would* stay, but unfortunately we *couldn't*.
You *should* take a break whenever you *can*.

(f) Pre-adverb position

3.27 Frequency subjuncts, like *always* or *never*, and disjuncts, like *certainly* or *probably*, typically, but not necessarily, follow auxiliaries as operators, whereas they precede main verbs. Compare:

She {*never* / *probably*} believed his story.

She would {*never* / *probably*} believe that story.

If there is more than one auxiliary, the adverb will still generally occur after the first, *ie* after the operator:

She would *probably never* have believed his story.

The position of an adverb, however, is often variable within the verb phrase (*cf* 8.14*ff*). Compare:

She {would *probably never* have / *probably never* would have / would *probably* have *never*} believed that story.

The most important point is that such adverbs could not occur immediately after the main verb except where the main verb is BE (and therefore an operator):

*She believed *never/probably* his story.

(*Cf*: She was *never/probably* a taxpayer.)

(g) Quantifier position

3.28 Quantifiers like *all*, *both*, and *each* which modify the subject of the clause may occur after the operator as an alternative, in many instances, to the predeterminer position (*cf* 5.15*f*):

All the boys will be there. ~ The boys will *all* be there.
Both my parents are working. ~ My parents are *both* working.

These quantifiers do not, however, occur after a main verb in the same type of construction:

All our team played well. ~ *Our team played *all* well.
Each of us owns a bicycle. ~ *We own *each* a bicycle.

But if the quantifier is placed before the main verb, these sentences become acceptable:

Our team *all* played well. We *each* own a bicycle.

Note *All*, *both*, and *each* sometimes occur between subject and operator, but this is exceptional, and less acceptable than the post-operator position:
?We both were working late. ~ We were both working late.

(h) Independence of subject

3.29 Compared with most main verbs, auxiliaries are semantically independent of the subject. This is reflected in at least three ways.

First, there is a lack of semantic restrictions (*cf* 10.51) between the subject and the auxiliary verb. Contrast:

{The man / The bus} ought to be here at five.

{The man / *The bus} hopes to be here at five.

Second, there is the possibility of construction with existential *there*:

{There *used* / *There *hoped*} to be a school on the island.

Third, if other conditions are met for the active–passive correspondence (*eg* if the verb is transitive, *cf* 3.67*ff*), auxiliaries usually admit the change from one voice to the other without change of meaning:

Thousands of people will meet the president.
= The president will be met by thousands of people.

Compare the situation in which a full verb occurs as first (finite) verb:

Thousands of people hope to meet the president.
≠ The president hopes to be met by thousands of people.

These criteria for independence are, however, not infallible. For example, in some contexts some auxiliaries fail the active–passive test (*cf* 3.72), and there are also some verbs which by other criteria are not auxiliaries, but which pass this test. These verbs will be considered later (3.47*ff*) under the headings of semi-auxiliary and catenative verbs.

Additional features of modal auxiliary verbs

3.30 The criteria (a–h) discussed so far help to define auxiliaries as a functional class, but it must be remembered that all of them except (h) apply to operators in general, and therefore apply also to BE and (sometimes) HAVE as main verbs. Now we add the following morphological and syntactic criteria which apply specifically to modal auxiliary verbs, as distinct from the primary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO.

(j) Construction with the bare infinitive

Modal auxiliaries are normally followed by the infinitive, which is bare (*ie* the base form of the verb alone) except with *used* (*cf* 3.44) and (usually) *ought* (*cf* 3.43), verbs which for this reason, as well as for others, are somewhat marginal to the class of modals. Compare:

You *will* be asked questions. BUT: You *ought to* comb your hair.
They *might* have stolen it. BUT: He *used to* read for hours.

(On the marginal modal auxiliaries *dare* and *need*, *cf* 3.42.)

(k) Finite functions only

Modal auxiliaries can only occur as the first (operator) element of the verb phrase. They cannot occur in nonfinite functions, *ie* as infinitives or

participles, and as a consequence of this can occur only as first verb in the verb phrase:

MODAL VERB	PRIMARY VERB	FULL VERB
**to may*	*to have*	*to eat*
*(is) *maying*	(is) *being*	(is) *eating*
*(has) *mayed*	(has) *been*	(has) *eaten*

The primary verbs have the full range of nonfinite forms, but not all of these forms can be used in auxiliary function. For BE, all three nonfinite forms can be auxiliaries: *be, being, been*; HAVE has no *-ed* participle in auxiliary function, but only *have* and *having*. 'Dummy' auxiliary DO, like the modal auxiliaries, can only occur as an operator, and the nonfinite forms of DO, *(to) do, doing*, and *done*, are constructed only as main verbs.

(l) No 3rd person inflection
Modal auxiliaries are not inflected in the 3rd person singular of the present tense; *ie*, they have no *-s* form:

You *must* / She *must* } write. BUT: You *like* / She *likes* } to write.

In contrast, the primary verbs do have an *-s* form, but it is irregular (*cf* 3.31*ff*).

(m) Abnormal time reference
Not only the present forms, but the past forms of the modal auxiliaries can be used to refer to present and future time (often with hypothetical or tentative meaning):

I think he *may/might* retire next May.
Will/would you phone him tomorrow?

Contrast:

*I think he *retired* next May.
**Did* you *phone* him tomorrow?

Also modal auxiliaries which do not have a distinct past form (*eg*: *must, need, ought*) can be used to refer to the past in indirect speech:

I told him he *must* be home early. ['. . . had to be . . .']

Note [a] The use of past forms to refer to present and future time is also possible with full verbs, but only in some special constructions: *eg* in hypothetical *if*-clauses (*cf* 14.23, 15.35*f*):
If you *phoned* ['were to phone'] me tomorrow, I could help you straight away.
[b] In dialectal use (*eg* Scots English, Tyneside English, and Southern AmE), there are varieties of popular speech in which one modal auxiliary can follow another: *He might could come* ['He might be able to come'] etc.

The primary verbs BE, HAVE, and DO

3.31 Having discussed auxiliary verb criteria, we can now consider the special morphological and syntactic characteristics of verbs which can function as auxiliaries: first the primary, and second the modal verbs.

Semantically, the primary verbs as auxiliaries share an association with the basic grammatical verb categories of tense, aspect, and voice (*cf* 3.63, 4.2, 4.17). In this they are broadly distinguished from the modal verbs, which are associated mainly with the expression of modal meanings such as possibility, obligation, and volition (*cf* 4.42*ff*). But first, we examine these primary verbs from a formal point of view.

BE

3.32 The verb BE is a main verb (with a copular function; *cf* 2.16) in:

Ann *is* a happy girl. *Is* that building a hotel?

But BE also has two auxiliary functions: as an aspect auxiliary (Type C, 3.55):

Ann *is* learning Spanish.
The weather has *been* improving.

and as a passive auxiliary (Type D, 3.55):

Ann *was* awarded a prize.
Our team has never *been* beaten.

BE is unique in having a full set of both finite and nonfinite forms in auxiliary function; it is also unique among English verbs in having as many as eight different forms, *cf Table* 3.32 on the next page. In the nonnegative column of *Table* 3.32 the unstressed pronunciations (with vowel reduction) are given after the stressed pronunciation, where they differ.

Note [a] BE is the only verb in English to have a special form for the 1st person singular of the present (*am*) and two distinct forms of the past tense (*was, were*). In the subjunctive, however (*cf* 3.58*ff*), the form *was* does not occur.
[b] *Ain't* is a nonstandard contraction commonly used (esp in AmE) in place of *am not, is not, are not, has not*, and *have not*.
[c] There is no completely natural informal contraction of *am I not* (parallel to *isn't she* for *is she not*) in negative sentences. (On the position of *not* in negative questions, *cf* 11.7.) *Aren't I* is widely used, especially in BrE, whereas *ain't I*, usually considered nonstandard, is somewhat more current in AmE than in BrE. *Amn't I* is mainly Scottish and Irish.
[d] The following BrE example (of marginal acceptability) shows that it is possible for *aren't* to act as a contracted form of *am not* even in declarative contexts:
HÈ WÁSn't and Ì probably *aren't* NÓRmally.
Here the substitution of *aren't* seems to have resulted from a desire for parallelism with the preceding occurrence of *wasn't*.
[e] Phonologically, the contracted *'s* ending /s/ or /z/ cannot occur after a sibilant consonant. Hence *Your place is over there* cannot become in writing **Your place's over there*. Compare the conditions for the pronunciation of the *-s* form of regular verbs (*cf* 3.5), and contrast the contraction following a nonsibilant:

Your { place is /pleɪsɪz/ / seat's /siːts/ } over there.

Other conditions on the use of the contraction *'s* in place of *is* are discussed in 3.23.

Table 3.32 Forms of BE

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (*cf* Note)
base	*be* /biː/, /bɪ/		
present			
1st person singular present	*am* /æm/, /əm/ *'m* /m/	*am not,* *'m not*	(*aren't*)
3rd person singular present	*is* /ɪz/ *'s* /z/, /s/	*is not,* *'s not*	*isn't* /ˈɪzn̩t/
2nd person present, 1st and 3rd person plural present	*are* /ɑːʳ/ *'re* /əʳ/	*are not* *'re not*	*aren't* /ɑːʳnt/
past			
1st and 3rd person singular past	*was* /wɒz/, /w(ə)z/	*was not*	*wasn't* /ˈwɒzn̩t/
2nd person past 1st and 3rd person plural past	*were* /wɜːʳ/, /wəʳ/	*were not*	*weren't* /wɜːʳnt/
-ing form	*being* /ˈbiːɪŋ/	*not being*	
-ed participle	*been* /biːn/, /bɪn/	*not been*	

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

HAVE

3.33 HAVE functions both as an auxiliary and as a main verb. As an auxiliary for perfective aspect (*cf* 4.18*ff*), HAVE combines with an *-ed* participle to form complex verb phrases:

I *have* finished.
What *has* she bought?
They may *have* been eaten.

As a main verb, it normally takes a direct object, and has various meanings such as possession: *I have no money*; *They had two children*; etc (*cf* 3.34). The different forms of HAVE are shown in *Table* 3.33 opposite.

In negative constructions we have the following three variants:

I *have not* seen her. (typical of written discourse)
I *haven't* seen her. } (typical of spoken discourse)
I'*ve not* seen her. }

Of the contracted forms, the *haven't* type is generally more common than the *'ve not* type. As an *-ed* participle, *had* is restricted to use as a main verb, as in

Have you had lunch?, or to use in the HAVE *to* construction, as in *They have had to sell their car.*

Note Phonologically, the *'d* contraction cannot occur after /t/ or /d/: if we encounter the written form *'d* in such contexts (*eg*: *It'd been damaged*), this must be understood to represent the syllabic reduced form /əd/. Compare a similar restriction in 3.32 Note [e].

Table 3.33 Forms of HAVE

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (*cf* Note)
base	*have* /hæv/, /(h)əv/ *'ve* /v/	*have not* *'ve not*	*haven't* /ˈhævn̩t/
-s form	*has* /hæz/, /(h)əz/ *'s* /z/, /s/	*has not* *'s not*	*hasn't* /ˈhæzn̩t/
past	*had* /hæd/, /(h)əd/ *'d* /d/	*had not* *'d not*	*hadn't* /ˈhædn̩t/
-ing form	*having* /ˈhævɪŋ/	*not having*	
-ed participle	*had* /hæd/, /(h)əd/		

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

HAVE as main verb

3.34 When used as a main verb with stative meaning (*cf* 4.4), HAVE shows syntactic variation in that it not only combines with DO-support in forming constructions with an operator (*cf* 3.37):

We *don't have* any money. *Do* you *have* a lighter?

but also acts as an operator itself in constructions such as:

We *haven't* any money. *Have* you a lighter?

This latter construction, although it is the traditional construction in BrE, is now somewhat uncommon, particularly in the past tense: ?*Had she any news?*

There is also the informal HAVE *got* construction (*cf* 3.45), which although perfective in form is nonperfective in meaning, and is frequently preferred (esp in BrE) as an alternative to stative HAVE:

John *has* courage. = John *has got* courage.

It is particularly common in negative and interrogative clauses. To express some stative senses we can thus have three alternatives:

Possession: { (a) We *haven't* / (b) We *haven't got* / (c) We *don't have* } any butter.

Relationship: { (a) *Have* you / (b) *Have* you *got* / (c) *Do* you *have* } any brothers? { (a) No, I *haven't.* / (b) No, I *haven't.* / (c) No, I *don't.* }

Health: { (a) I *haven't* / (b) I *haven't got* / (c) I *don't have* } a headache any longer.

Of these alternatives, (a) is esp BrE ⟨more formal⟩; (b) is esp BrE ⟨informal⟩; (c) is AmE (and also common in BrE nowadays).

Note [a] A further alternative for expressing negation is of course a negative determiner or pronoun: *We have no butter* (*cf* 5.13, 6.62).
[b] On HAVE *to* compared with HAVE *got to*, *cf* 3.48.
[c] In informal English *has got*, *have got*, and *had got* may be reduced to *'s got*, *'ve got*, and *'d got*. In very informal English, *'ve got* may be further reduced to *got*:
What you *got* there? I *got* something nice for you.
In its written form, this omission of the auxiliary is nonstandard.

3.35 In dynamic senses (*cf* 4.4) such as 'receive', 'take', 'experience', and in idioms with an eventive object (*eg*: *have breakfast* = 'eat breakfast'), HAVE (in both AmE and BrE) normally has DO-support, and HAVE *got* is not possible:

A: *Does* she *have* coffee with her breakfast?
B: Yes, she *does*.
A: *Did* you *have* any difficulty getting here?
B: No, I *didn't*.
A: *Did* you *have* a good time in Japan?
B: Yes, we certainly *did*.

Other dynamic uses include HAVE in a causative sense followed by an *-ed* participle, or in a similar sense followed by a bare infinitive:

A: *Did* they *have* the house painted?
B: No, they *didn't*.
A: *Did* they *have* you paint the house?
B: Yes, they *did*.

Note [a] Note the following contrast between stative and dynamic meaning:
Had she *got* her baby at the clinic? ['Was her baby at the clinic with her?']
Did she *have* her baby at the clinic? ['Did she give birth to her baby at the clinic?']
Especially in AmE, the second sentence could have both of these meanings.
[b] Since HAVE with the DO construction is typically dynamic, in the present tense it tends to single out a habitual interpretation (*cf* 4.6). Compare:
Do you *have* bad headaches? [normally habitual: 'as a rule']
Have you *got* a bad headache? [nonhabitual: 'now, at this moment']
Have you *got* bad headaches? [This could only be addressed to more than one person in a nonhabitual sense.]

DO

3.36 DO, like BE and HAVE, can be both an auxiliary and a main verb. As an auxiliary, DO has no nonfinite forms, but only present and past forms, *cf Table* 3.36 opposite.

Note Occasionally *does* is contracted in informal style to *'s* /s/; *eg*: *What's it matter?* A more drastic kind of phonological reduction is indicated by the following (nonstandard) orthographic rendering of informal speech:
Whyncha do it yourself? ['Why don't you . . .?']

Table 3.36 Forms of DO

	NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE (*cf* Note)
base	*do* /duː/, /dʊ/, /də/	*do not*	*don't* /dəʊnt/
-s form	*does* /dʌz/, /dəz/	*does not*	*doesn't* /ˈdʌzn̩t/
past	*did* /dɪd/	*did not*	*didn't* /ˈdɪdn̩t/
-ing form (main verb only)	*doing* /ˈduːɪŋ/		
-ed participle (main verb only)	*done* /dʌn/		

NOTE The final /t/ of the negative contraction is commonly not sounded.

DO-support

3.37 The term DO-SUPPORT (or 'DO-periphrasis') applies to the use of DO as an 'empty' or 'dummy' operator (*cf* 2.49) in conditions where the construction requires an operator, but where there is no semantic reason for any other operator to be present. All uses of DO as an auxiliary come under this heading. The main ones are:

(a) In indicative clauses (*cf* 3.52) negated by *not*, where the verb is simple present or simple past:

She *doesn't* want to stay.
I *didn't* like mathematics at school.

Negative imperative clauses introduced by *Do not* or *Don't* may, with some reservation (*cf* 11.30, Note [a]), be placed in the same category.

(b) In questions and other constructions involving subject–operator inversion, where the verb is in the simple present or past tense:

Did he stay late? What *do* they say? *Does* it matter?

This category includes tag questions (*cf* 11.8*ff*) and other reduced questions where the dummy operator is not accompanied by a main verb:

He knows how to drive a car, *doesn't* he?
They didn't make any mistakes, *did* they?
I don't like him, *do* you?

It also includes inversion after an initial negative element:

Never *did* he think the book would be finished so soon.

(c) In emphatic constructions where the verb is simple present or simple past (*cf* emphatic positive constructions, 3.25):

They "*do* want you to come.
Michael "*did* say he would be here at nine, didn't he?

Here we may also include the 'persuasive imperative' introduced by *do*:

"*Do* sit down! "*Do* be quiet.
A: May I sit here? B: Yes, by all means DÒ.

(See, however, 11.30 Note [a] on the dubious status of DO as operator in this construction.)

(d) In reduced clauses, where DO acts as a dummy operator preceding ellipsis of a predication (12.60):

Mary reads books faster than I *do*. [do = 'read books']
Did you watch the game on television? No, but my brother *did*.
['. . . watch the game on television']

Note [a] There is no DO-support for negation in nonfinite clauses, where *not* precedes a full verb as main verb:
Not liking mathematics, he gave it up.
Not to go to the exhibition would be a pity.
There is also normally no DO-support for subjunctive verbs (*cf* 3.58):
It is important that this mission *not fail*.
[b] Negative words other than *not* do not require DO-support:
No one liked him.
They *never/seldom* go out.
[c] Nor is there any DO-support in questions without inversion, *ie* questions with the normal S V O/C/A order (*cf* 11.12, 11.15): *He said that? Who came first?*
[d] Auxiliaries have no DO-support, since they themselves perform the function of operators (*cf* 3.21). Thus DO does not precede other auxiliaries: **She does must come*. There is a rare exception, however, where *Do* or *Don't* precedes auxiliary BE in imperatives (*cf* 11.30 Note [a]): *Don't be drinking wine when he calls*; *Don't be frightened by that noise*.
[e] In some legal documents in archaic style, the auxiliary DO construction is used merely as an alternative to the simple present or past tense:
I, the undersigned, being of sound mind, *do* this day hereby *bequeath* . . .

DO as main verb

3.38 When used as a main verb, DO has the full range of forms, including the *-ing* participle *doing* and the *-ed* participle *done*:

What have you been *doing* today? I haven't *done* much, I'm afraid.

As a main verb, DO can combine with a pronoun object to act as a pro-predication referring to some unspecified action or actions. The pronoun object may be personal (*it*), demonstrative (*this/that*), interrogative (*what*), or indefinite (*nothing/anything*, etc):

I have been meaning to mend that radio, but I haven't *done it* yet. (*cf* 12.25)
A: I'm throwing these books away. B: Why are you *doing* THÀT?
A: *What* have they been *doing* to the road? B: Widening it.
A: *What* have you *done* with my pen? B: I've put it in the desk.
A: *What* did you *do* on holiday? B: We didn't *do anything*.
I didn't know *what* to *do*, so I *did nothing*.

See also the use of DO in pseudo-cleft sentences (18.29). DO is also used intransitively as a pro-predication (*cf* 12.22):

She didn't earn so much as she might have (*done*). ⟨esp BrE⟩

Apart from these uses as a pro-form, the main verb DO has a wide range of uses as a general-purpose agentive transitive verb, especially in informal speech:

Let's *do* the dishes – you wash and I'll dry. [1]
Who *does* your car? Fred Archer – and he *does* my neighbour's too. [2]
She's *done* some really good essays – and she always hands them in on time. [3]

DO in such sentences is often replaceable by a verb of more exact meaning; *eg* in [2] SERVICE or MAINTAIN, and in [3] WRITE. The meaning is narrowed down by the nature of the object: *eg* in *Will you do the potatoes?*, DO could mean 'peel' or 'cook', but scarcely 'polish', a meaning it might have in *Have you done the silver?*

Note There is also a resultative use of *done* meaning 'cooked': *Is the meat done?*

Modal auxiliaries

3.39 The criteria for identifying modal auxiliaries have been discussed in 3.22*ff*, and especially 3.30. Not all verbs respond to all criteria, however, and it is useful to make a distinction between central and marginal modals. We will discuss the marginal modals and other verbs of intermediate status in 3.40*ff*, and we will discuss the meanings of the modal auxiliaries later (4.49*ff*).

All that needs to be said about the form of the central modals is stated in *Table* 3.39 and the accompanying Notes. The Table gives the contracted

Table 3.39 Forms of the modal auxiliary verbs

NONNEGATIVE	UNCONTRACTED NEGATIVE	CONTRACTED NEGATIVE
can /kæn, kən/	*cannot*, (*can not*: *cf* Note [b])	*can't* /kɑːnt/ ⟨BrE⟩, /kænt/ ⟨AmE⟩
could /kʊd, kəd/	*could not*	*couldn't* /ˈkʊdn̩t/
may /meɪ/	*may not*	(*mayn't* /meɪnt/ *cf* 3.23)
might /maɪt/	*might not*	*mightn't* /ˈmaɪtn̩t/
shall /ʃæl, ʃ(ə)l/	*shall not*	(*shan't* /ʃɑːnt/ ⟨BrE⟩ *cf* 3.23)
should /ʃʊd, ʃ(ə)d/	*should not*	*shouldn't* /ˈʃʊdn̩t/, /ˈʃədn̩t/
will /wɪl/	*will not*	*won't* /wəʊnt/
'll /(ə)l/	*'ll not*	(*cf* Note [c])
would /wʊd/	*would not*	*wouldn't* /ˈwʊdn̩t/
'd /(ə)d/	*'d not*	(*cf* Note [c])
must /mʌst, məst/	*must not*	*mustn't* /ˈmʌsn̩t/

(Unstressed pronunciations with vowel reduction are placed after the stressed pronunciations. Rare forms are placed in parentheses.)

negative form, and also the pronunciation of both stressed and unstressed forms.

Semantic aspects of the negation of modal auxiliaries are examined in 10.67*f*.

Note [a] The words braced together can for some purposes be regarded as present and past forms of the same verb. But for other purposes, they behave as independent verbs (*cf* 4.59).
[b] The spelling of *can not* as two words is unusual: it occurs where main verb negation (*cf* 10.67*f*) is intended, or where special emphasis on or separation of the negative word is required; *eg*:
Can you *not* interrupt, please.
Can I *not* help you?
He says we *can* manage when we *can* certainly *not*.
[c] There are obviously no contracted forms of *'ll* and *'d* since they are themselves contractions. These forms are braced with *will* and *would* because *'ll* and *'d* can always be expanded to *will* and *would* (except, of course, when *'d* = *had*, *cf* 3.33).
[d] Regarding the frequency of the modal auxiliaries, the following findings, based on studies of the SEU, Brown and LOB corpora, are of significant interest:
(a) The frequency of individual modals varies greatly from *will* (four times per thousand in spoken BrE) to *shall* (three times per *ten* thousand words in written English). The marginal modals *ought to*, *need*, and *dare* are in their turn strikingly less frequent than *shall*.
(b) The modals as a whole are much more frequent in spoken than in written English.
(c) *Will*, *can*, and their past forms *would* and *could* are notably more frequent than other modals.
(d) Among less frequent modals, *should*, *shall*, and *ought to* are even less frequent in AmE than in BrE.

Verbs of intermediate function

3.40 In the following sections we examine verbs whose status is in some degree intermediate between auxiliaries and main verbs. These form a set of categories which may be roughly placed on a gradient between modal auxiliaries at one end, and full verbs, such as *hope*, which take a nonfinite clause as object, at the other. The extremes of the scale may therefore be represented by *I can go* and *I hope to go*, *cf Fig* 3.40a opposite.

The structural implication of this scale is that the construction (a) *I can go* contains one verb phrase, whereas the construction (f) *I hope to go* contains a finite verb phrase followed by a nonfinite one. This distinction will be further discussed in 3.57. Semantic aspects of the scale may also be noted (*cf* 4.66); many of the intermediate verbs, particularly those at the higher end of the scale, have meanings associated with aspect, tense, and modality: meanings which are primarily expressed through auxiliary verb constructions. Our principal task, however, is to distinguish these classes by formal criteria, while making any semantic observations that may be useful.

The criteria which will provide the framework for this analysis are those which were used in identifying the class of auxiliaries in 3.22*ff*. There are eight criteria for auxiliaries, and four criteria which more narrowly apply to the central modal auxiliaries. They are summarized in *Table* 3.40b opposite, together with illustratively contrasting examples.

(one verb phrase) ↑	(a) CENTRAL MODALS	*can, could, may, might, shall, should, will/'ll, would/'d, must*	(*cf* 3.39)
	(b) MARGINAL MODALS	*dare, need, ought to, used to*	(*cf* 3.41*ff*)
	(c) MODAL IDIOMS	*had better, would rather/sooner*, BE *to*, HAVE *got to*, etc	(*cf* 3.45*f*)
	(d) SEMI-AUXILIARIES	HAVE *to*, BE *about to*, BE *able to*, BE *bound to*, BE *going to*, BE *obliged to*, BE *supposed to*, BE *willing to*, etc	(*cf* 3.47*f*)
	(e) CATENATIVES	APPEAR *to*, HAPPEN *to*, SEEM *to*, GET + *-ed* participle, KEEP + *-ing* participle, etc	(*cf* 3.49)
(two verb phrases) ↓	(f) MAIN VERB + nonfinite clause	HOPE + *to*-infinitive, BEGIN + *-ing* participle, etc	(*cf* 16.38*f*)

Fig. 3.40a The auxiliary verb – main verb scale

Table 3.40b Criteria for auxiliary verbs

AUXILIARY CRITERIA (Op = operator)	AUXILIARY	MAIN VERB
(a) Op in negation	He *cannot* go.	*He *hopes not* to go. (*cf* Note)
(b) Negative contraction	*can't*	**hopen't*
(c) Op in inversion	*Can* we go?	**Hope* we to go?
(d) Emphatic positive	*Yes, I DO *can* come.	Yes, I DO *hope* to come.
(e) Op in reduced clause	I can come if you *can*.	*I hope to come if you *hope*.
(f) Position of adverb	We *can always* go early.	We *always hope* to go early.
(g) Postposition of quantifier	They *can all* come. / ?They *all can* come.	?They *hope all* to come. / They *all hope* to come.
(h) Independence of subject	Ann can do it. ~ It can be done by Ann.	He hopes to do it. / *It hopes to be done by him.
MODAL AUXILIARY CRITERIA	**MODAL AUXILIARY**	**MAIN VERB**
(j) Bare infinitive	I *can go*.	*I *hope go*.
(k) No nonfinite forms	**to can/*canning/*canned*	*to hope/hoping/hoped*
(l) No *-s* form	*She *cans* come.	She *hopes* to come.
(m) Abnormal time reference	You *could* leave this evening. [not past time]	You *hoped* to leave this evening. [past time]

NOTE *He hopes not to go* is acceptable in the sense 'He hopes that he will not go'; but this is then a case of the negation of *to go*, not of *hopes* (*cf* 3.22 Note [a]).

Marginal modals: *dare, need, ought to,* and *used to*

3.41 Given that in the above table modal auxiliaries are positive for all criteria, where main verbs like *hope* are negative, the marginal modals are verbs which closely resemble the central modal auxiliaries. It can be argued, indeed, for *dare* and *need* that these are proper modals, but that for each there is also a homomorphic verb (DARE, NEED) constructed as a main verb (*cf*, however, 3.42 Note [b]). *Ought*, too, may be treated as a central modal if speakers construct it with the bare infinitive (*cf* 3.43 Note [a]).

dare and *need*

3.42 *Dare* and *need* can be constructed either as main verbs (with *to*-infinitive and with inflected *-s*, *-ing* and past forms), or, under restricted conditions, as modal auxiliaries (with the bare infinitive and without the inflected forms).

Table 3.42

	MODAL AUXILIARY CONSTRUCTION	MAIN VERB CONSTRUCTION
Positive	—	He *needed/dared* to escape.
Negative	He *needn't/daren't* escape.	He *doesn't need/dare* to escape.
Interrogative	*Need/Dare* we escape?	*Do* we *need/dare* to escape?
Negative-interrogative	*Needn't* he escape after all? / *Dare* he *not* escape?	*Doesn't* he *need* to escape after all? / *Doesn't* he *dare* to escape?

The modal construction is restricted to nonassertive contexts (*cf* 2.53), *ie* mainly negative and interrogative sentences, whereas the main verb construction can almost always be used, and is in fact more common. The auxiliary construction with *dare* and *need* is rarer in AmE than in BrE, where it is also quite rare.

As a modal, *dare* exhibits abnormal time reference (*cf* 3.30) in that it can be used, without inflection, for past as well as present time:

The king was so hot-tempered that no one *dare* tell him the bad news.

The main verb form *dared* (*to*) might also occur here.

Note [a] 'Nonassertive contexts' are not confined to negative and interrogative clauses: they also include clauses containing semi-negative words such as *hardly* and *only*. The following examples illustrate sentences with negative import, but lacking *not*-negation:

No one dare predict the results. Standards are *lower than* they need be.

For further illustrations and discussion of this topic, *cf* 10.61.

[b] Blends between the auxiliary construction and the main verb construction occur and seem to be widely acceptable (more so in the case of *dare* than in that of *need*):

They *do* not *dare* ask for more. *Do* they *dare* ask for more?

These two examples combine the DO-support of the main verb construction with the bare infinitive of the auxiliary construction. On the hypothesis that there are two different verbs (the main verb DARE and the auxiliary verb *dare*), one would expect these to be ungrammatical; but they are not. The past tense form *dared* without DO-support may be regarded as another example of a blend, since the *-ed* past inflection is not characteristic of modal verbs:

They *dared not* carry out their threat.

Blends with *need* are usually of the type with *-s* inflection and bare infinitive: ?*One needs only reflect for a second . . .*

[c] *Dare* occurs (with nuclear stress) in the following idiomatic constructions expressing a threatening rebuke:

How DÀRE you do such a thing? Don't you DÀRE speak to me like that.

The latter example, with DO-support and a bare infinitive *speak*, is another example of a blend.

[d] In another formulaic construction, *I dare say* followed by a *that*-clause, the two verbs are often written as a single word *daresay*:

I *daresay* she is right. ['I wouldn't be surprised if . . .']

The normal sense of *dare* is lost here.

[e] As main verbs, DARE and NEED can enter into a number of different constructions (*cf* 16.26, 16.39, 16.50). Thus, NEED can take a direct object:

You *need* a haircut.

As is to be expected, NEED and DARE as main verbs have to be replaced by DO in reduced clause constructions:

She *needs* to practise and so *do* I. They *didn't dare* to attack us, *did* they?

[f] As a modal auxiliary, *need* has no tense contrast. To express past time, however, we can place *need* before the perfective aspect (*cf* 4.18*ff*): *You need not have done it*. This is then approximately equivalent to the past tense of NEED as a main verb: *You did not need to do it*. But the NEED *to* construction does not have the counterfactual implication of the *need have . . .* construction. For instance, in the following the counterfactual meaning is inappropriate, and we could not therefore replace *did not need to say* by *need not have said*:

Anne was too nervous to reply, but fortunately she *did not need to say* anything.

[g] As an auxiliary, *dare* usually fails the independence of subject criterion (h) in 3.29. There is no semantic equivalence between the active *The boy daren't contact her* and the passive *She daren't be contacted by the boy*. One meets, however, exceptions such as *This is a problem which dare not be overlooked*.

[h] Further to Note [b] above, results of elicitation experiments indicate a higher acceptance rate for blends with AmE than with BrE speakers. This can be interpreted in two opposite ways: we can argue either that blends are more common in AmE, or that *dare* and *need* are such unusual verbs in AmE in these constructions, that speakers do not react critically to blends, but rather display passive acceptance of them. The latter interpretation (which has also been advanced for blends with another marginal auxiliary, *ought to*, *cf* 3.43) is supported by frequently introduced lexical changes such as the following:

Submitted sentence: *Needn't* he go?

Proposed lexical changes: *Doesn't* he *have* to go? / *Does* he *have* to go? / *Shouldn't* he go? etc

ought to

3.43 *Ought to* /ɔːt tuː/, /ɔːt (t)ə/, has the uncontracted negative *ought not to* and the contracted negative *oughtn't to*. It normally has the *to*-infinitive (although occasionally in familiar style the bare infinitive occurs in nonassertive contexts):

You *ought to* stop smoking.
You *oughtn't to* smoke so much.
Ought you *to* smoke so much?

The *to* is also optional following *ought* in ellipsis: *Yes, I think I ought (to)*. On the meaning of *ought to*, *cf* 4.56.

Note [a] Elicitation tests on young people have shown that, for both AmE and BrE, in nonassertive contexts the *to*-less *ought* construction is widely acceptable, and for some speakers even preferable to the construction with *to* in nonassertive contexts; *eg*:

They *ought not* (*to*) *do* that sort of thing. *Ought* we (*to*) *have done* it?
Oughtn't we (*to*) *send* for the police?

In assertive contexts, however, the *to*-less form is unacceptable:

We { *ought to* / **ought* } give him another chance.

[b] Treating *ought* as a main verb with DO-support, which is usually described as a dialectal usage, proved to be the least popular alternative in a test with BrE teenage informants:

They *didn't ought to* do that sort of thing.
Did we *ought* to have done it?

However, the existence of this construction, even if it is not part of standard English, is an indicator of the marginal status of *ought to* which, like the other marginal modals, shows some tendency to pattern as a main verb. More generally, such results reflect change and uncertainty in the use of certain modals which, from a historical viewpoint, are in decline.

used to

3.44 *Used to* denotes a habit or a state that existed in the past (*cf* 4.15), and is therefore semantically not so much a modal auxiliary as an auxiliary of tense and aspect. In formal terms, however, it fits the marginal modal category.

It always takes the *to*-infinitive and only occurs in the past tense:

She *used to* attend regularly. ['was in the habit of attending . . .']
I *used to* be interested in bird-watching. ['I was formerly . . .']

It is typically pronounced /ˈjuːstuː/ or /ˈjuːstʊ/ before vowels or before an ellipsis, and /ˈjuːstə/ before consonants.

Used to occurs both as an operator and with DO-support. In the latter case the spellings *use to* and *used to* both occur, reflecting speakers' uncertainty of the status of this verb: an uncertainty, that is, as to whether it is to be treated as an invariable form, like a modal auxiliary, or as a form with an infinitive, like a full verb. The pronunciation of the verb does not allow discrimination between these possibilities. In the negative, the operator construction, which avoids this dilemma, is preferred by many in BrE:

{ He usen't to smoke. / He used not to smoke. } ⟨BrE⟩

{ He didn't use to smoke. / He didn't used to smoke. } ⟨BrE and AmE⟩

The construction *did . . . use to* is preferred to other constructions in both AmE and BrE. The spelling *did . . . used to*, however, is often regarded as nonstandard. The interrogative operator construction *used (he) to* is rare even in BrE. Tag questions also normally have DO-support; compare:

Did he use to smoke? He used to smoke, didn't he?

Note [a] *Used to* + infinitive should be distinguished from *used to* + noun phrase or *-ing* participle clause:

She is *used to* { *life* in the country. / *living* in the country. }

In this latter construction, although it has the same pronunciation as the marginal modal, *used to* is in fact a participial adjective followed by the preposition *to* ['accustomed to . . .'] (*cf* 16.69 Note [a]).

[b] A perfective form of *used to*, *had used to*, is occasionally attested.

[c] There is a tendency for speakers to avoid the problem of negating *used to* by employing the negative adverb *never*: *I never used to watch television.*

Modal idioms: *had better*, etc

3.45 This category contains the following four multi-word verbs, as well as some less common verbal constructions:

had better *would rather* HAVE *got to* BE *to*

They all begin with an auxiliary verb, and are followed by an infinitive (sometimes preceded by *to*):

We { *had* / *'d* } *better* leave soon. Yes, *we* { *had.* / *'d better.* } [1]
I*'d rather* not say anything. [2]
They*'ve got to* leave immediately. [3]
The conference *is to* take place in Athens. [4]

None of these idiomatic verbs has nonfinite forms; they cannot therefore follow other verbs in the verb phrase:

*I *will have got to* leave soon.
*The conference *has been to* take place in Athens.

In this respect they are not like main verbs. They are not, however, entirely like auxiliaries, since they do not behave as operators. It is normally the first word alone which acts as operator in (for example) negative and interrogative sentences:

Hadn't we *better* lock the door?
Would you *rather* eat in a hotel?
We *haven't got to* pay already, have we?
I *wasn't to* know that you were waiting.

However, *had better* and *would rather* have two kinds of negation. First, there is a negation in which *not* follows the whole expression:

I*'d rather not* stay here alone.
You*'d better not* lock the door.

A second type of negation, in which *not* follows the first word, is typically used in 'second instance' contexts (especially in negative questions) where an earlier statement or assumption is being challenged:

A: *Wouldn't* you *rather* live in the country?
B: No, I *would not*. I'd rather live here.

The two kinds of negation are sometimes associated with different meanings, the former being an instance of predication negation (*cf* 10.69):

Had we *better not* go? ['Would it be advisable if we didn't go?']
Hadn't we *better* go? ['I think we had better go; don't you agree?']

The contracted verb form followed by *not* is unacceptable with these two idioms:

*I'd not rather leave. *You'd not better resign.

Would rather differs from central modals and marginal modals in that it is

incapable of showing active–passive synonymy:

I'd *rather rent* the cottage. *The cottage *would rather be rented* by me.

On the other hand, HAVE *got to* and BE *to* are more like main verbs in that they have an *-s* form and normal present/past tense contrast:

The committee { *is to* meet today. / *was to* meet yesterday.

She { *has got to* leave by tomorrow. / *had got to* leave by the next day. ⟨BrE⟩

The past tense construction *had got to*, however, does not occur in AmE, and is rare in BrE, especially in questions.

Note [a] In addition to the four modal idioms illustrated above, the following sentences illustrate less common idioms which might be placed in the same category:

I *would sooner* leave the decision to you.
I *would (just) as soon* eat at home.
We *may/might (just) as well* pay at once. (*cf* 4.53 Note [e])
You *had best* forget this incident.

[b] Sometimes (particularly in AmE) the uncontracted form of *'d rather* is realized as *had rather* instead of *would rather*. Very occasionally the uncontracted form *should rather* is also encountered. These variations, and similar variations with *would sooner*, etc have presumably arisen because of the ambiguity of the contraction *'d*.

[c] *Would rather* and *would sooner* express preference ['. . . would prefer to . . .'] and may therefore be followed by a comparative construction beginning with *than*:

I'd *rather/sooner* live in the country *than* in the city.

[d] It is a sign of the 'in-between' status of modal idioms that either the whole idiom or just the first word of the idiom may be 'stranded' before ellipsis of the predication, as in [1] above, where the reply *Yes, we'd better* is an alternative to *Yes, we had*. (A third alternative is *Yes, we better had*.) With *would rather*, however, the *would* alone is usually stranded

A: *Would* you *rather* buy this one?
B: Yes, I { *would.* / *?would rather.*

[e] In informal speech, the first word of HAVE *got to* and *had better* is often completely elided, so that the pronunciation of the whole idiom is reduced to /ˈgɒtə/, /ˈbetəʳ/, thus making it resemble a single modal auxiliary. This reduction is represented in very informal written style (*eg* in fictional dialogue) by the omission of *'ve*, *'d*, etc, and sometimes by the nonstandard spelling *gotta*:

You { *got to* / *gotta* } be careful these days. They *better* go home.

[f] HAVE *got to* is not to be confused with the perfective of the catenative verb GET *to*. The latter has, in AmE, the distinctive form HAVE *gotten to* (*cf* 3.18):

We'*ve gotten to* watch more TV this year than last. ⟨AmE⟩

The meanings of the modal idioms

3.46 All four of the modal idioms discussed above have meanings classifiable as 'modal'.

(a) *Had better* has a meaning of 'advisability', similar to the obligational meaning of *ought to* and *should* (*cf* 4.56).

(b) *Would rather* has the volitional meaning 'would prefer to'.

(c) HAVE *got to* has meanings of 'obligation' and 'logical necessity' (*cf*: *must* 4.54). From the semantic point of view, it is best considered a variant of the semi-auxiliary HAVE *to*. The respects in which its meaning differs from that of HAVE *to* are considered in 3.48 and 4.54*f*.

(d) BE *to* is an idiom expressing futurity, with varied connotations of 'compulsion', 'plan', 'destiny', etc, according to context. In the past, *was to* and *were to* express futurity from the standpoint of past time orientation; in conditional clauses, the subjunctive *were to* expresses hypothetical future meaning (*cf* 15.36). The meaning of BE *to* is further discussed in 4.47*f*.

Note [a] BE *to* must not be confused with an apparently identical construction in which the copula BE is followed by a nominal or adverbial infinitive clause (*cf* 15.10*f*, 15.48):

The committee is to find a solution. [1]
The problem is to find a solution. [2]

Whereas [1] illustrates the modal idiom BE *to*, in [2], *to find a solution* is a nominal infinitive clause acting as complement of *is* (*cf*: *The problem is how to find a solution*).

[b] The future meaning of BE *to* is particularly emphasized when it is accompanied by *still* or *yet*:

The most severe weather is *yet/still* to come.

The implication here is negative: 'has not yet come'. Compare a similar use of HAVE *to*, 3.48.

Semi-auxiliaries: *be going to*, etc

3.47 The semi-auxiliaries consist of a set of verb idioms which express modal or aspectual meaning and which are introduced by one of the primary verbs HAVE and BE; *eg*:

be able to	*be bound to*	*be likely to*	*be supposed to*
be about to	*be due to*	*be meant to*	*be willing to*
be apt to	*be going to*	*be obliged to*	*have to*

The boundaries of this category are not clear: they might be extended, for example, to include the negative *be unable to*, *be unwilling to*, etc (*cf* Note [a]). We will first of all deal with the semi-auxiliaries introduced by BE.

All these constructions satisfy the first seven criteria for auxiliary verbs (*cf* 3.22*ff*), in the sense that, for example, *be going to* has *be* as an operator in negation and inversion, rather than having DO-support:

{ Ada *isn't* going to win. / *Ada *doesn't be* going to win.

{ *Is* Ada *going* to win? / **Does* Ada *be* going to win?

However, this follows from the fact that the first word of the semi-auxiliary construction is the primary verb *be*. To be strictly comparable to an auxiliary in its entirety, *be going to* would have to form its negation by adding *not* to the second or third word: **is goingn't to* or **is going ton't*. It is therefore only by special interpretation of the operator criteria (a–e) that these semi-auxiliaries can be described as auxiliary-like. They do, however, resemble auxiliaries in permitting synonymous passives and *there*-constructions in accordance with the criterion of subject-independence (*cf* 3.29):

Brazil *is going to* win the World Cup.

~ The World Cup *is going to* be won by Brazil.
Several home teams are *going to* be beaten tomorrow.
~ There *are going to* be several home teams beaten tomorrow.

Moreover, such constructions as *be going to* and *be bound to* belie their appearance in not allowing contrasts of aspect and voice. There is, for example, no nonprogressive construction corresponding to *be going to*:

*Several home teams *go to* be beaten tomorrow.

And there is no active equivalent of the superficially passive *be bound to*:

He *was bound* to be a failure. ~ *Someone *bound* him to be a failure.

This is further evidence of a resemblance to auxiliaries rather than to main verb constructions.

These constructions are, however, in one respect much closer to main verbs than are the modal idioms. They have nonfinite forms such as *been going to* and *to be bound to*, and can therefore occur in combination with preceding auxiliaries:

James *will be obliged to* resign.
We *have* always *been willing to* help.

Two or more semi-auxiliaries may indeed occur in sequence:

Someone *is going to have to* complain.
No one *is likely to be able to* recognize her.

Although there are restrictions on this kind of combination (*cf* 3.57), the occurrence of nonfinite semi-auxiliaries means that these idioms can fill slots in a modal verb paradigm where modal auxiliaries of equivalent meaning cannot occur:

We haven't {*could / been able to} solve the problem. [*can* = 'ability']

To {*can / be allowed to} speak freely is a human right. [*can* = 'permission']

Other equivalences of this kind are between *must* and *have to* (*cf* 3.48), and between *will* and *be willing to*.

Note [a] There is a gradience between a semi-auxiliary such as *be bound to* and an occurrence of the copula BE followed by an adjectival or participial construction such as *happy to* or *compelled to*. One criterion of importance here is the ability of what follows BE to stand at the beginning of a supplementive clause (*cf* 15.60*ff*):

Compelled to take stern measures, the administration lost popularity. [1]
?*Bound* to take stern measures, the administration lost popularity. [2]

By this criterion, the combinations *able to* and *willing to* are less clearly independent than their negatives *unable to* and *unwilling to*:

Unable/Unwilling to resist, Matilda agreed to betray her country. [3]
?*Able/?Willing* to resist, Matilda declined to betray her country. [4]

Of these parallel sentences, [1] and [3] are clearly acceptable, whereas [2] and [4] are more marginal. But acceptability judgments tend to vary in this area.

[b] As semi-auxiliaries, *be meant to* and *be supposed to* have meanings similar to those of *ought to* (*cf* 4.56, 4.66) and are not to be confused with homomorphic passive constructions. In the case of *be supposed to*, the semi-auxiliary is marked by a special pronunciation /... s(ə)ˈpəʊstʊ/ or /... s(ə)ˈpəʊstə/ (*cf* the special pronunciation of *used to*; 3.44).

have to

3.48 *Have to* is the only semi-auxiliary beginning with HAVE rather than BE, but its inclusion in this category is partly justified by its occurrence in the full range of nonfinite forms, a respect in which it differs from the semantically parallel *have got to* (*cf* 4.55):

I *may have to* leave early. (*I *may have got to* leave early.)
People *are having to* boil their drinking water during this emergency.
The administration *has had to* make unpopular decisions.

As these examples show, *have to* can occur in modal, perfective, and progressive constructions. It would be impossible to substitute *have got to* for *have to* in these cases.

In meaning, *have to* is similar to *must* (*cf* 4.54), and can stand in for *must* in past constructions where *must* cannot occur:

These days you *must* work hard if you want to succeed.
In those days you *had to* work hard if you wanted to succeed. } [*have to* = 'obligation']

There *must* be some solution to the problem.
There *had to* be some solution to the problem. } [*have to* = 'logical necessity']

Have to patterns either as a main verb or as an auxiliary with respect to operator constructions:

Do we *have to* get up early tomorrow? ⟨AmE and BrE⟩
Have we *to* get up early tomorrow? ⟨BrE – somewhat old-fashioned⟩

In this, it resembles other uses of HAVE as a main verb (*cf* 3.34). DO-support, however, is the only construction in AmE and the dominant one in BrE (*cf* Note [c]).

Although *have got to* has the same meanings of 'obligation' and 'logical necessity' as are expressed by *have to*, *have got to* tends not to have habitual meaning, and when combined with a verb of dynamic meaning, tends to refer to the future. There is thus a potential difference between:

Jim'*s got to check* the temperature every 12 hours. [1]
Jim *has to check* the temperature every 12 hours. [2]

Whereas [1] is likely to have the force of a directive, stipulating what Jim's duties will be in the future, [2] is more likely to indicate a habitual action ['This is what Jim's present duties consist of'].

Note [a] Both *have to* and *have got to* occur with epistemic meaning like that of *must* (*cf* 4.54) in sentences such as:

Someone {*has to / has got to*} be telling lies. You {*have to / 've got to*} be joking.

This has until recently been regarded as an AmE usage, but is now also current in BrE.

[b] In other contexts *have to* and *have got to* express a stronger meaning of 'logical necessity' which cannot be matched by the use of *must*:

There *has (got) to be* a first time for everything.

[c] Studies in BrE usage show that over 85 per cent of instances of *have to* in negative and interrogative clauses are constructed with DO. Elicitation tests have further indicated that negative constructions without DO (of the kind *I hadn't to walk more than a mile*) are less acceptable than interrogative constructions without DO (such as *Has he to answer the letter this week?*).

Catenative verb constructions

3.49 The term CATENATIVE will in practice be used to denote verbs in such constructions as *appear to, come to, fail to, get to, happen to, manage to, seem to, tend to*, and *turn out to* followed by the infinitive:

Sam { appeared / came / failed / ?got / seemed } to realize the importance of the problem. [1]

Such constructions have meanings related to aspect or modality, but are nearer to main verb constructions than are semi-auxiliaries, patterning entirely like main verbs in taking DO-support:

Sam *didn't* { *appear* / *come* } to realize the importance of the problem. [2]

Most of them do, however, resemble auxiliary constructions in satisfying the 'independence of subject' criterion (*cf* 3.29). Thus [1] has the corresponding passive [3]:

The importance of the problem { appeared / came / ?failed / *got / seemed } to be realized by Sam. [3]

This criterion, however, applies somewhat marginally to agentive verbs like *fail* and *manage*, and does not apply at all to *get*.

Unlike main verb constructions such as *expect (to)*, *want (to)*, and *attempt (to)*, catenative constructions are in no way syntactically related to transitive verb constructions in which the verb is followed by a direct object or prepositional object (*cf* 16.26*ff*, 16.38). Compare:

John { appeared / attempted } to attack the burglar. [4] [5]

But:

John { *appeared / attempted } an attack on the burglar. [6] [7]

We may also include among catenative verbs certain verbs which resemble the auxiliary BE in combining either with the *-ing* participle in progressive constructions, or with the *-ed* participle in passive constructions:

The girl { *started out* / *kept (on)* / *went on* } working.

Our team *got* beaten by the visitors.

(In BrE, *carried on* can be used as equivalent to *went on*.) These, again, should be distinguished from similar looking constructions in which a main verb is followed by a nominal *-ing* participle clause (*eg*: *The girl liked working*; *cf* 16.39) or by a participial adjective, as in the pseudo-passive (*cf* 3.77): *Our team looked beaten.*

Note [a] The term 'catenative' alludes to the ability of these verbs to be concatenated in sequences of nonfinite constructions, as in *Our team seems to manage to keep on getting beaten.* This propensity for forming chain-like structures is not, however, confined to catenative verbs, but is also characteristic of semi-auxiliaries and main verbs followed by nonfinite clauses as objects: Hence such improbable, but structurally possible sequences as:

We are going to have to enjoy seeming to like listening to his music.

[b] Some catenative verbs, like some semi-auxiliaries, are closely related to constructions with anticipatory *it* (*cf* 16.34, 16.72):

He seems to be rich. ~ It seems that he is rich.
She turned out to love horses. ~ It turned out that she loved horses.
Joan is likely to resign. ~ It is likely that Joan will resign.

Some further aspects of the gradience between modals and main verbs

3.50 Although they do not enter into the list of modal auxiliary criteria stated in 3.30*ff*, the following may be mentioned as additional characteristics of modal auxiliaries:

(a) They are either invariable, like *must*, or close to invariable, like *would*, which, although historically it is the past tense form of *will*, is from the standpoint of present-day English in many respects an independent form. Thus modals might without too much simplification be regarded as 'modal particles' which have lost their historical connection with the inflectional paradigm of verbs.

(b) From the semantic point of view, modal auxiliaries are often specialized towards the expression of certain speech acts; *eg* giving advice (*ought to, should*), making promises or threats (*will*), giving orders (*must, can*), etc (*cf* 4.49*ff*). In this respect, they give an utterance a force somewhat similar to that of a performative (*cf* 4.7) such as *I beg you . . ., I promise you . . .*, etc.

These characteristics of modals are also shared in various degrees by modal idioms, semi-auxiliaries, etc. For example, *had better* and *have got to* are more closely associated with speech acts such as giving advice and orders than is the semi-auxiliary *have to*, which is capable of undergoing variation of tense and aspect.

3.51 Adding points (a) and (b) together, we may go so far as to see in modals a tendency to develop into 'pragmatic particles'. This tendency is seen in its purest form in a construction such as *May you be happy!* (*cf* 3.60), where the

modal *may* is placed at the beginning of the sentence, and marks it as an expression of wish. On a similar footing, *let* (*cf* 11.26) in sentences such as *Let them come here* or *Let the world take notice* may be regarded as a pragmatic particle of imperative or optative mood. In other respects, however, *let* is totally unlike auxiliary verbs. In being followed by a pronoun in the objective case (*Let them* . . ., *Let us* . . ., etc) it assimilates to the pattern of complex transitive verbs. Clearly, in terms of its syntactic affinities, it is a main verb rather than an auxiliary.

Another example of a verb which is syntactically a main verb, although it behaves rather like a pragmatic particle, is the verb *want* when followed by *to* + infinitive in utterances such as:

You *want to* be careful with that saw. [1]
I *want to* tell you how much we enjoyed last night. [2]

In [1], *You want to* expresses a warning or a piece of advice; in [2] *I want to* introduces an expression of wish, which, in effect, tones down a performative verb. This pragmatic device is particularly conventionalized in informal usage, where it is pronounced /ˈwɒnə/. (Especially in AmE, a nonstandard spelling *wanna* is also current.) What makes *want to* in [1] particularly similar to a pragmatic particle is the impossibility of obtaining an equivalent meaning when the sentence is changed into the past tense or into the progressive aspect:

?You *are wanting to* be careful with that saw. [3]
You *wanted to* be careful with that saw. [4]

Sentences [3] and [4] no longer have a particular advice-giving function, and have to be interpreted simply as statements about the wishes of the hearer.

Note [a] On the other hand, the negative of *want to* can (in informal use) have a specialized advice-giving function even when combined with the progressive of the following verb:
Come on: you *don't want to* keep them all waiting.
You *don't want to* be sitting around doing nothing.
[b] A better candidate than *let* for quasi-modal status, in informal English, is the 1st person imperative marker *let's* regarded simply as an unanalysed particle pronounced /lets/ (*cf* 11.26). Here the relation to a transitive construction is no longer evident, and there is an interesting resemblance to marginal modals in the ability of *let's* to form a negation either by the postposition of *not*, or by DO-support:
Let's not be late for the game.
Don't let's be late for the game. ⟨esp BrE⟩
On *let's don't* ⟨AmE⟩, *cf* 11.28 (iv).
The particle-like status of *let's* is also supported by the existence, in familiar AmE, of the pleonastic variant *let's us* . . ., and of the construction *let's you* . . ., in which the addition of the 2nd person pronoun indicates that *'s* is no longer associated with *us*.

The structure of verb phrases

Finite verb phrases

3.52 We have seen that in one respect the structure of the verb phrase may be described in terms of auxiliaries and main verbs, the main verb normally being the sole verb in cases where the verb phrase consists of one verb only. In another way, the structure may be represented in terms of finite and nonfinite verb words. On this basis, a finite verb phrase is a verb phrase in which the first or only word is a finite verb, the rest of the verb phrase (if any) consisting of nonfinite verbs; on the other hand, a nonfinite verb phrase contains nonfinite verb forms only.

Using the description of finite and nonfinite verb forms in 3.2, we can now distinguish finite from nonfinite verb phrases as follows:

(a) Finite verb phrases can occur as the verb phrase of independent clauses (*cf* 14.6*ff*).

(b) Finite verb phrases have tense contrast, *ie* the distinction between present and past tenses (*cf* 4.3*ff*, 4.11*ff*):

He *is* a journalist now.
He *worked* as a travel agent last summer.

(c) There is person concord and number concord (*cf* 10.34*ff*) between the subject of a clause and the finite verb phrase. Concord is particularly clear with the present tense of BE:

I *am* / You *are* } here. He/She/It *is* / We/They *are* } here.

But with most full verbs overt concord is restricted to a contrast between the 3rd person singular and other persons or plural number:

He/She/Jim *reads* / I/We/You/They *read* } the paper every morning.

With modal auxiliaries there is no overt concord at all (*cf* 3.30):

I/You/She/We/They *can* play the cello.

(d) Finite verb phrases contain, as their first or only word, a finite verb form (as described in 3.2) which may be either an operator (*cf* 3.21) or a simple present or past form. DO-support (*cf* 3.37) is used in forming (for example) negative and interrogative constructions.

(e) Finite verb phrases have mood, which indicates the factual, nonfactual, or counterfactual status of the predication. In contrast to the 'unmarked' INDICATIVE mood, we distinguish the 'marked' moods IMPERATIVE (used to express commands and other directive speech acts; *cf* 11.24*ff*), and SUBJUNCTIVE (used to express a wish, recommendation, etc; *cf* 3.58*ff*). Both the imperative and the present subjunctive consist of the base form of the verb:

Please *come* here and *attend* to me.

The Council requires that every member *attend* at least one meeting per year.

The five criteria listed above lead to inconsistency, in that subjunctive and imperative verb phrases are according to criteria (a) and (e) finite, whereas according to criterion (c) they are nonfinite. This inconsistency is not, however, disturbing, but reflects the fact that the finite/nonfinite distinction may be better represented as a scale of 'FINITENESS' ranging from the indicative (or 'most finite') mood, on the one hand, to the infinitive (or 'least finite') verb phrase, on the other. The imperative and subjunctive have in some respects more in common with the infinitive (a nonfinite form which like them consists of the base form, and typically expresses nonfactual meaning). There is, indeed, a tradition of regarding the infinitive as a mood of the verb. On this basis, the gradience of 'finiteness' may be represented as follows (the symbols '+', '−', etc referring to the satisfaction or nonsatisfaction of each of the criteria listed above):

	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	
INDICATIVE	+	+	+	+	+	(Finite)
SUBJUNCTIVE	+	?	−	−	+	(Finite)
IMPERATIVE	+	−	−	?	+	(Finite)
INFINITIVE	−	−	−	−	−	(Nonfinite)

Fig. 3.52 A scale of finiteness

On the query in column (b), see the discussion of the *were*-subjunctive in 3.62. The query in column (d) reflects uncertainty as to whether DO-support occurs in imperative constructions (*cf* 3.58 on the position of *not* in the subjunctive construction, and 11.30 Note [a] on *do* with the imperative).

For the sake of clarity, we will continue to make a clear-cut distinction between finite verbs (including those in the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods) and nonfinite verbs (including the infinitive).

A clause with a finite verb phrase as its V element is called a 'finite verb clause' or, more tersely, a 'finite clause'. Similarly, a clause with a nonfinite verb as its V element is called a 'nonfinite (verb) clause' (*cf* 14.5*ff*).

Note Verb phrases introduced by modal auxiliaries are normally classified as indicative, but it is worth pointing out that not only semantically, but syntactically, they resemble imperatives and subjunctives. They lack person and number contrast and also (to some extent) tense contrast. It follows from the lack of person and number contrast that they have no overt concord with the subject.

Nonfinite verb phrases

3.53 The infinitive ((*to*) *call*), the *-ing* participle (*calling*), and the *-ed* participle (*called*) are the nonfinite forms of the verb. Hence any phrase in which one of these verb forms is the first or only word (disregarding the infinitive marker *to*) is a nonfinite verb phrase. Such phrases do not normally occur as the verb phrase of an independent clause. Compare:

FINITE VERB PHRASES	NONFINITE VERB PHRASES
He *smokes*.	*To smoke* like that must be dangerous.
Mary *is having* a smoke.	I regret having started *to smoke*.
He *must smoke* 40 a day.	The cigars *smoked* here tend to be expensive.
You *have been smoking* all day.	That was the last cigarette *to have been smoked* by me.

Simple and complex verb phrases

3.54 The finite verb phrase is SIMPLE when it consists of only one word, which may be present, past (*cf* 3.2), imperative (*cf* 11.24), or subjunctive (*cf* 3.58):

He *works* hard. He *worked* hard. *Work* harder!
It is important that he *work* hard.

Except in the 3rd person singular, the present tense of all verbs apart from BE is realized by the base form of the verb: *I/you/they work hard.*

The verb phrase is COMPLEX when it consists of two or more words, as in:

John *has worked* hard. John *should be working* hard.
Don't let's upset her. They *may have been sold.*

There are four basic types of construction in a complex verb phrase:

Type A (MODAL) consists of a modal auxiliary + the base of a verb: *eg*: *must examine.*

Type B (PERFECTIVE) consists of the auxiliary HAVE + the *-ed* participle of a verb: *eg*: *has examined.* (Traditionally the term PERFECT has been frequently used instead of PERFECTIVE.)

Type C (PROGRESSIVE) consists of the auxiliary BE + the *-ing* participle of a verb: *eg*: *is examining.*

Type D (PASSIVE) consists of the auxiliary BE + the *-ed* participle of a verb: *eg*: *is examined.*

These four basic constructions also enter into combination with each other:

AB: *may have examined*
AC: *may be examining*
AD: *may be examined*
BC: *has been examining*
BD: *has been examined*
CD: *is being examined*
ABC: *may have been examining*
ABD: *may have been examined*
ACD: *may be being examined*
BCD: *has been being examined*
ABCD: *may have been being examined*

In these strings the different constructions are 'telescoped' into one another. This means that combinations of the basic types A, B, etc form structures in which the nonfinite verb of the first construction also functions as the

auxiliary of the second, and so forth. For example, ABD (*may have been examined*) has the following structure, where *have* is shared by A and B, and *been* is shared by B and D:

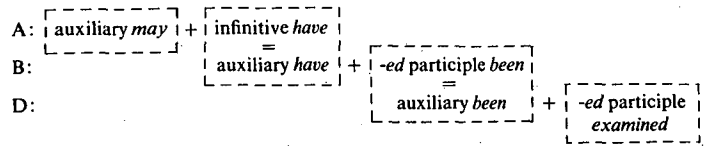

Fig. 3.54

Note *Beware* is used only in the imperative and in complex verb phrases with modal auxiliaries which have a quasi-imperative force:
Beware (of) the dog.
You must *beware* (of) what you say to her.

Simple and complex finite verb phrases

3.55 The order in which the four constructions can form combinations is indicated by the alphabetical symbols A, B, C, D, which label them. A cannot follow B, B cannot follow C or D, etc, but gaps are allowed: AC, AD, ACD, BD, etc. *Figure* 3.55 gives a graphic representation of how the finite indicative verb phrase (simple or complex) is built up in a left-to-right progression.

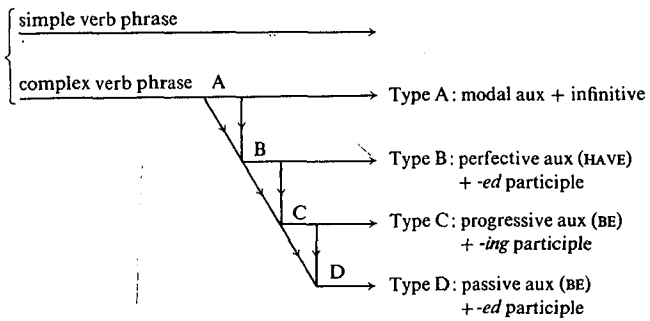

Fig. 3.55 The structure of the finite verb phrase

First comes the selection of the present or past tense of the finite verb, then the selection of none, one, two, three, or four of the complex phrase constructions as indicated by the direction of the arrows. On the whole, the more complex the verb phrase pattern is, the less commonly it occurs. Those complex phrases containing the combination CD (progressive + passive) are particularly uncommon (*cf* 3.73), but are undoubtedly acceptable as compared with sequences such as BCC (**have been being examining*) or CBD (**is having been examined*) which are not grammatical at all.

Note The rare ABCD pattern is illustrated in 2.28 Note.

Simple and complex nonfinite verb phrases

3.56 Unlike finite verb phrases, nonfinite verb phrases have no tense or mood distinctions (subject to the remarks on the gradience of finiteness in 3.52), and cannot occur in construction with a subject of a main clause. Contrast:

FINITE: He *was doing* it easily.
NONFINITE: *He *doing* it easily.

Since modal auxiliaries have no nonfinite forms (*cf* 3.30), they cannot occur in nonfinite verb phrases, and therefore the modal construction Type A is not available within such phrases. But the aspect and voice auxiliaries HAVE (Type B) and BE (Types C and D) suffer from no such restriction. If we relate the structure of the nonfinite verb phrase to that of the finite verb phrase, we can tabulate the eight possible combinations as in *Table* 3.56a:

Table 3.56a Nonfinite verb phrases

		INFINITIVES	PARTICIPLES
simple		*to examine*	*examining*
complex	B	*to have examined*	*having examined*
	C	*to be examining*	[*being*] *examining*
	D	*to be examined*	[*being*] *examined*
	BC	*to have been examining*	*having been examining*
	BD	*to have been examined*	*having been examined*
	CD	*to be being examined*	[*being*] *being examined*
	BCD	*to have been being examined* ⟨rare⟩	*having been being examined* ⟨rare⟩

Looking at the right-hand side of the *Table*, we may interpret the square brackets as follows. Whenever a phrase should theoretically begin with the auxiliary *being*, this participle is omitted. In this way, the *-ed* participle phrase *examined* is regarded as a special variant of the *-ing* participle phrase, *viz* the representative of the passive construction D. There does indeed occur a further construction *being examined*, but this is the one which combines progressive with passive meaning (CD), as in the contrast between:

the suspects *examined* by the police [not progressive]
the suspects *being examined* by the police [progressive]

(On progressive meaning in nonfinite phrases, *cf* 4.67.) Another result of the rule which omits the initial auxiliary *being* is that there are two types of nonfinite *-ing* participle phrase containing a main verb only (*examining*): one of these is progressive, and expresses the meaning characteristic of the progressive (*cf* 4.25), whereas the other is not. Contrast:

Smoking cigarettes is dangerous. [not progressive]
They caught him *smoking* cigarettes. [progressive: 'while he was smoking']

As with finite verb phrases, the combination CD is rare, and BCD is of marginal acceptability.

Note [a] The combination *being examining*, for phrase type C, is not quite impossible, as occasional examples such as the following have been attested in spontaneous conversation:

You can probably get an extension on the grounds of *being teaching*.

Being teaching here manages to draw particular attention to the progressive meaning 'on the grounds of being in the course of teaching', which the aspectually ambiguous *on the grounds of teaching* would fail to do.

[b] It may be helpful to illustrate various kinds of complex nonfinite verb phrase by means of the following sentences:

Table 3.56b

INFINITIVES	PARTICIPLES
We're glad *to have invited* you.	*Having invited* you, I expected you to come.
I'd like *to be working*.	*Being working* (*cf* Note [a])
I'd hate *to be questioned* about it.	When *questioned*, he denied everything.
I'm glad *to have been working*.	*Having been working* all day, I'm very tired.
He's said *to have been invited*.	*Having been invited*, he should have come.
I expected *to be being interviewed* then.	I saw her *being interviewed*.

Gradience between one and two verb phrases

3.57 In a single complex finite verb phrase, as already discussed, the order of constructions is limited to ABCD, and a similar restriction of nonfinite verb phrases to the order BCD has also been noted. If, however, a nonfinite verb phrase follows a finite one, as in certain types of verb complementation (*cf* 16.36*ff*), it is possible for the same construction to be repeated in each phrase:

We *had hoped*|*to have finished* by then. [perfective + perfective]
I *am hoping*|*to be seeing* her tomorrow. [progressive + progressive]

Moreover, it is possible for two constructions to occur outside their normal 'alphabetical' order so long as one construction occurs in a different verb phrase from the other:

I *was hoping*|*to have finished* by then. (C + B)
Jackson *was believed*|*to have been killed*. (D + BD)

In practice, however, most of the more complex possibilities, such as ABC + BCD, rarely if ever occur:

?They *must have been expecting*|*to have been being paid* well.

The question arises as to what structures are possible when a semi-auxiliary or a catenative verb occurs in the string of verbs. For instance, should *will have to help* in *The children will have to help us* be analysed as one verb phrase, or as two? There is no clear answer to this question, since the gradient relating auxiliary to main verb functions implies a comparable gradient between a single verb phrase analysis and a multiple verb phrase analysis.

With semi-auxiliaries it is possible to repeat the same construction in such examples as:

Sarah and I *are going to be leaving* tonight. [1]
The walls *were supposed to be repainted*. [2]

But (as noted in 3.47) *are going to* in [1] is not truly progressive, and *were supposed to* in [2] is not truly passive, because these constructions do not contrast (in the relevant sense) with a nonprogressive and an active construction respectively. In other cases where the same construction is repeated, the meaning of the construction does not require this repetition:

If you'd done that, we *would have had to have arrested* you. [3]

Such verb sequences as *would have had to have arrested*, with its vacuous repetition of the past time meaning of the perfective construction, are not uncommon, but are felt to be 'illogical' or pleonastic, because their meaning is no different from that of the same sequence without the repetition: . . . *we would have had to arrest you*. The occurrence of such constructions, however, may be a mark of the intermediate status of semi-auxiliaries, which allow some syntactic duplication of constructions, but do not appear to allow for semantic duplications. It is reasonable to suggest that in [3] *would have had to have arrested* consists syntactically of two verb phrases *would have had* and *to have arrested*, but semantically of only one.

The subjunctive mood

3.58 The subjunctive in modern English is generally an optional and stylistically somewhat marked variant of other constructions, but it is not so unimportant as is sometimes suggested. There are two forms of the subjunctive, traditionally called the present and past subjunctive, although the use of these forms relates more to mood than to tense.

Terms for the two major categories of the present subjunctive are the MANDATIVE and the FORMULAIC subjunctive (*cf* 3.59*f*). These are realized, like the imperative, by the base form of the verb. Consequently, where the clause has a plural subject, there is normally no difference between the indicative and subjunctive forms. Except with BE, where the subjunctive form *be* is distinct from the indicative forms *am*, *is*, and *are*, the subjunctive is distinctive only in the third person singular:

I insist that we *reconsider* the Council's decisions. [indicative or subjunctive] [1]
I insist that the Council *reconsider* its decisions. [subjunctive] [2]
I insist that the Council's decision(s) *be* reconsidered. [subjunctive] [3]

The past subjunctive is conveniently called the *WERE*-SUBJUNCTIVE, since it survives as a distinguishable form only in the past tense of the verb BE.

Whereas the indicative form shows a contrast between *was* (1st and 3rd person singular) and *were* (plural and 2nd person singular), the subjunctive is invariably *were*, and hence is a form distinct from the indicative only in the 1st and 3rd persons singular:

If I/he/she *was* leaving, you would have heard about it. [indicative]
If I/he/she *were* leaving, you would have heard about it. [subjunctive]

Like the imperative verb phrase (*cf* 11.24*ff*), the subjunctive verb phrase allows few morphological or syntactic variations. As [3] above shows, a passive subjunctive is a possibility for the mandative subjunctive, as well as for the formulaic and *were*-subjunctive:

God *be praised*! ⟨restricted use⟩
It would be odd if she *were awarded* the first prize.

With all verbs except BE, the verb phrase is made negative by placing *not* before the subjunctive form. In the case of *be*, *not* may be placed either before or after the verb, whereas with *were* it follows it:

It is essential that this mission *not fail*. [4]
[Contrast the indicative variant '. . . *does not fail* . . .'; *cf* 16.72.]

The Senate has decreed that such students { *be not* / *not be* } exempted from college dues.

If I { *weren't* / *were not* } your best friend, you would regret that remark.

Uses of the subjunctive

The mandative subjunctive

3.59 This, the most common use of the subjunctive, occurs in subordinate *that*-clauses, and consists of the base form of the verb only. Thus there is a lack of the regular concord of the indicative mood between subject and finite verb, and there is no backshifting of tense (*cf* 14.33*f*); *ie* the present and past variants are formally indistinguishable:

The committee { proposes / proposed } (that) Mr Day *be* elected.
I demand(ed) that the committee *reconsider* its decision.
His sole requirement is/was that the system *work*.

The mandative subjunctive is productive in that it can be used with any verb in a *that*-clause when the superordinate clause satisfies the requisite semantic condition, *viz* that the *that*-clause be introduced by an expression of demand, recommendation, proposal, resolution, intention, etc. This expression takes the form of a verb, an adjective, or a noun:

They *recommend* / It is *appropriate* / We were faced with the *demand* } that this tax *be* abolished.

The following are among those expressions which commonly introduce a *that*-clause containing the mandative subjunctive:

VERBS:	*decide, insist, move, order, prefer, request*
ADJECTIVES:	*advisable, desirable, fitting, imperative*
NOUNS:	*decision, decree, order, requirement, resolution*

Fuller lists of examples are given in 16.32, 16.72.

The mandative subjunctive is more characteristic of AmE than of BrE, where it is formal and rather legalistic in style. There are indications, however, that it is reestablishing itself in BrE, probably as a result of AmE influence. In 16.32 we present the patterns of preference in BrE and in AmE regarding the choice between the mandative subjunctive, putative *should*, and the indicative, in sentences such as:

The employees have demanded that the manager
{ *resign.* ⟨esp AmE⟩
{ *should resign.* / *resigns.* } ⟨esp BrE⟩

Note [a] As example [2] suggests, the absence of DO-support, as well as the absence of an *-s* inflection, is a criterion distinguishing the present subjunctive from the present indicative:

{ Our decision is that the school *remain* closed. [subjunctive] [1]
{ Our decision is that the school *remains* closed. [indicative] [1a]
{ They insisted that we *not eat* meat. [subjunctive] [2]
{ They insisted that we *do not eat* meat. [indicative] [2a]

Thus the subjunctive can be marked as distinct from the indicative with either a singular subject, as in [1], or a plural subject, as in [2]. This makes it reasonable to say that where the base form can be analysed either as an indicative or as a subjunctive, there is a neutralization of the two moods:

Our decision is that the schools *remain* closed. [1b]

Such a view cannot be entertained, however, with the *were*-subjunctive (*cf* 3.62).

[b] The use of the subjunctive after *insist* depends on meaning. When this verb introduces an indirect statement, the indicative is used, but when it introduces an indirect directive, the subjunctive is more likely:

She *insists* that he *is* guilty of fraud. [3]
We *insist* that he *be* admitted to hospital immediately. [4]

[c] In addition to *should* and the indicative, there are other alternatives to the mandative subjunctive, notably (with some verbs) the object with infinitive construction (*cf* 16.63):

{ We ask *that the Government be circumspect.* [5]
{ We ask the Government *to be circumspect.* [6]

[d] There is a tendency in BrE to choose the subjunctive more especially when the finite verb is BE (*eg* in the passive voice), as in [4] and [5] above.

The formulaic subjunctive

3.60 Like the mandative subjunctive, the FORMULAIC SUBJUNCTIVE consists of the base form of the verb. It is used in certain set expressions chiefly in independent clauses:

Come what may, we will go ahead with our plan.
God *save* the Queen! ['May God save the Queen']
Suffice it to say that we won. ['Let it suffice . . .']
Heaven *forbid* that I should let my own parents suffer.

Be it noted that this offer was made in good faith. ⟨formal, rather archaic⟩
Be that as it may, we have nothing to lose.

The force which the subjunctive conveys here, that of an expression of will, may also be conveyed by *let* or *may* (*cf* 3.51). The formulaic subjunctive tends to be formal and rather old-fashioned in style.

Other uses of the present subjunctive

3.61 Other contexts in which the present subjunctive can be used in subordinate clauses are noted in relevant sections of Chapters 14 and 15. They include:

(a) Clauses of condition and concession (*cf* 14.24):

(*Even*) *if* that *be* the official view, it cannot be accepted. ⟨formal⟩

(b) Clauses of condition or negative purpose introduced by *lest* or *for fear that* (*cf* 15.48):

The President must reject this proposal, *lest* it *cause* strife and violence. ⟨formal⟩

This *lest* construction is restricted to very formal usage in BrE, but is more current in AmE.

The *were*-subjunctive

3.62 The *were*-subjunctive (or past subjunctive) is hypothetical or unreal in meaning, being used in adverbial clauses introduced by such conjunctions as *if, as if, as though, though*, and in nominal clauses after verbs like *wish* and *suppose* (*cf* 14.24, 16.33). This subjunctive is limited to the one form *were*, and thus breaks the concord rule of the indicative verb BE in the 1st and 3rd person singular of the past tense. The indicative form *was* is substituted in less formal style:

If I *were/was* rich, I would buy you anything you wanted.
Tim always speaks quietly on the phone, *as though* he *were/was* telling a secret.
I *wish* the journey *were/was* over.
Just *suppose* everyone *were/was* to give up smoking and drinking.

The *were*-subjunctive may be regarded as a fossilized inflection: it is nowadays a less usual alternative to the hypothetical past indicative (*cf* 4.16). Examples of hypothetical *were* with a 2nd person or plural subject (*eg*: *you were* . . ., *they were* . . .) are therefore to be viewed as indicative, rather than as a neutralization of indicative and subjunctive.

Note [a] In the fixed phrase *as it were* ['so to speak'], however, *were* cannot be replaced by *was*; it is also normal in standard English to use *were* in the fixed phrase *If I were you*.
[b] As it is commonly supposed that the *were*-subjunctive always refers to circumstances contrary to fact, it is worth noting the occasional occurrence of a hypercorrect 'pseudo-subjunctive' *were* in contexts where the past time meaning of *was* seems to give the required interpretation:
The pilot appeared to deviate from his flight path to minimize the danger to people living in the town; but if this *were* his intention, he failed to communicate it to the control tower.
A similar anomalous use of *were* occasionally occurs in indirect questions:
It was difficult to tell whether the language *were* Semitic or Indo-European.

Active and passive voice

3.63 The term VOICE is used to describe the last major verb category to be considered in this chapter: that which distinguishes an active verb phrase (*eg*: *ate*) from a passive one (*eg*: *was eaten*). We have left this topic to the end of the chapter for two reasons: first, the passive construction, when it occurs, appears in final position in the verb phrase (*cf* Type D, 3.55), and second, voice is a category which, as we saw in 2.21, concerns not only verb phrases, but other constituents in the clause, and therefore points to connections between this chapter and sections in later chapters (esp 16.26*ff*, 18.32) where the contrast between active and passive must be reconsidered in a larger context.

Voice defined

3.64 Voice is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in either of two ways, without change in the facts reported:

The butler *murdered* the detective. [ACTIVE] [1]
~ The detective *was murdered* by the butler. [PASSIVE] [2]

As we see from [1] and [2], the active–passive relation involves two grammatical levels: the verb phrase, and the clause. In the former, a passive verb phrase (*ie* one containing a construction of Type D) contrasts with an active verb phrase, which is simply defined as one which does not contain that construction. For example:

Table 3.64

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
present:	*kisses*	~ *is kissed*
past:	*kissed*	~ *was kissed*
modal:	*may kiss*	~ *may be kissed*
perfective:	*has kissed*	~ *has been kissed*
progressive:	*is kissing*	~ *is being kissed*
modal + perfective:	*may have kissed*	~ *may have been kissed*
modal + progressive:	*may be kissing*	~ *may be being kissed*
perfective + progressive:	*has been kissing*	~ *has been being kissed*
modal + perfective + progressive:	*may have been kissing*	~ *may have been being kissed*

In the verb phrase, the difference between the two voice categories is that the passive adds a form of the auxiliary BE followed by the past participle (*-ed* participle) of the main verb.

The active–passive correspondence

3.65 In addition, at the clause level, changing from the active to the passive involves rearrangement of two clause elements, and one addition (*cf* 2.21). (a) The active subject becomes the passive AGENT; (b) the active object becomes the passive subject; and (c) the preposition *by* is introduced before the agent. The prepositional phrase (AGENT *BY*-PHRASE) of passive sentences

is generally an optional element (but *cf* 3.71). The active–passive correspondence for a monotransitive verb (*cf* 2.16) with an object (typically a noun phrase) can be seen diagrammatically as in *Fig*. 3.65:

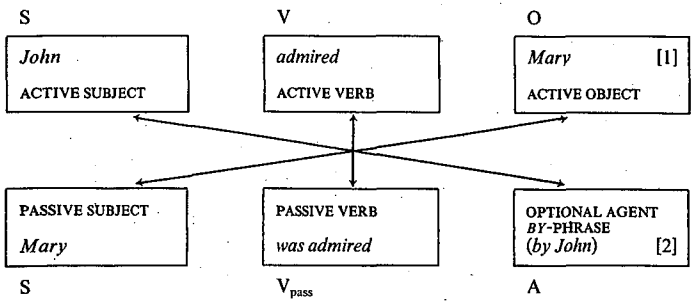

Fig 3.65 The active–passive correspondence

Alternatively, the active–passive correspondence can be expressed by this formula:

noun phrase$_1$ + active verb phrase + noun phrase$_2$
~ noun phrase$_2$ + passive verb phrase + (*by* noun phrase$_1$)

The terms 'subject' and 'object' in *Fig* 3.65 are used here, as in 2.13 and 10.7, to refer to elements with a particular structural function in the clause: *eg* the subject has concord with the verb phrase, and contains a subjective rather than objective case pronoun. Thus certain changes apart from those represented in [1] and [2] may have to take place in changing a sentence from active to passive (*cf* 3.70):

The men *respect her*. [3]
~ *She is* respected by the men. [4]

But although the corresponding active and passive sentences appear to be radically different, the relations of meaning between their elements remain the same: for example, [1] has the same truth value as [2], and [3] has the same truth value as [4]. In *John helped Mary* and *Mary was helped by John*, *John* is in both cases the 'performer of the action', even though structurally, *John* has a very different position and function in each.

Note [a] Corresponding active and passive sentences do not, however, always have the same truth value (*cf* 3.72).
[b] We distinguish terminologically the agent, as defined above (and in grammatical tradition), from the agentive, which is a semantic role (*cf* 10.19) often assumed by the subject of an active sentence or by the agent of a passive sentence (*cf* 9.50).

The passive auxiliaries: *be* and *get*

3.66 The passive auxiliary is normally *be*. Its only serious contender is *get*, which however is not, by most syntactic criteria, an auxiliary at all (*cf* 3.22*ff*).

Moreover, *get* tends to be limited to constructions without an expressed animate agent:

The cat *got run over* (by a bus). James *got beaten* last night.

Get with an animate agent is not, however, unknown:

James *got caught* (by the police).

The *get*-passive is avoided in formal style, and even in informal English it is far less frequent than the *be*-passive. Further examples are:

The house is *getting rebuilt*. [1]
Such criticisms will *get treated* with the contempt they deserve. [2]
This story eventually *got translated* into English. [3]

Get is much more common as a 'resulting copula' (*cf* 16.21*ff*) in sentences like *My mother is getting old*, and it may be best analysed as such in sentences which look superficially like passives, but which could not be expanded by an agent (*cf* 3.77):

We are *getting bogged down* in all sorts of problems. ⟨informal⟩ [4]
I have to *get dressed* before eight o'clock. [='dress'] [5]
I don't want to *get mixed up* with the police again. ⟨informal⟩ [6]
Your argument *gets* a bit *confused* here. [7]

Similarly *get bored*, *get tired*, *get* (*very*) *excited*, *get lost*, etc. *Get* is a dynamic conclusive verb (*cf* 4.33*ff*), and the participles in these sentences are stative (*eg*: *dressed* means 'in a state of wearing clothes', as in *Jane is already dressed*). Hence the meaning of such sentences is predictable if they are regarded as *SVC* sentences with *get* as main verb and the participle (with its modifiers if any) as complement, as suggested by this exchange:

A: I [S] 'm [V] completely confused [C].
B: Yes, I [S] 'm getting [V] confused [C], as well [A].

It is important, therefore, to draw a distinction between the passive sentences [1–3] and the copular sentences [4–7], which we may call PSEUDO-PASSIVE (*cf* 3.77). At the same time, there is an affinity between these sentence types, and this is evident when we consider the meaning of the *get*-passive, which, like the copular *get*, puts the emphasis on the subject rather than the agent, and on what happens to the subject as a result of the event. Compare *He got taught a lesson* ['it served him right'] with:

He $\left\{\begin{matrix} was \\ ?got \end{matrix}\right\}$ *taught* a lesson on the subjunctive (by our new teacher).

It is presumably because of the emphasis which *get* places on the subject referent's condition (usually an unfavourable condition) that the agent is less usual with a *get*-passive. This same emphasis may account in part for the fact that the *get*-passive often reflects an unfavourable attitude towards the action:

How did that window *get opened*?

typically implies 'It should have been left shut!'

Note [a] The *get*-passive provides a convenient way of avoiding the passive with *be* in cases where there is a potential confusion between the normal passive interpretation and that of the 'statal passive' (*cf* 3.77). Thus the ambiguity between stative and dynamic meaning in *The chair was broken* is eliminated in *The chair got broken*.
[b] The idiomatic expression *get started* is anomalous, in that *start* cannot be treated as a transitive verb in this context:

How soon can we *get started* on the swimming pool?

This idiom appears to be closely related to the causative use of *get*, *eg* in:

How soon can we *get* {work / ourselves} started on the pool? (*cf* 16.54)

Compare a similar pseudo-passive construction with *be* (*cf* 3.77 Note [a]).
[c] Apart from *get*, verbs in pseudo-passive sentences include *become*, *grow*, and *seem* (*cf* 16.21, 16.23).

Voice constraints

3.67 Although it is a general rule that transitive verb sentences can be either active or passive, there are a number of exceptions where the active (transitive) and passive sentences are not in systematic correspondence. We will distinguish five kinds of 'voice constraint' associated respectively with the verb (3.68*f*), the object (3.70), the agent (3.71), meaning (3.72), and frequency of use (3.73).

Verb constraints

3.68 (a) ACTIVE ONLY
There are greater restrictions on verbs occurring in the passive than on verbs occurring in the active. In addition to copular and intransitive verbs, which having no object cannot take the passive, some transitive verbs, called 'middle' verbs, do not occur at least in some senses in the passive (*cf* 10.14); for example:

They *have* a nice house.	The dress *becomes* her.
He *lacks* confidence.	John *resembles* his father.
The auditorium *holds* 5000 people.	Will this *suit* you?

All these belong to the stative class of verbs of 'being' and 'having' (*cf* 4.31). But other stative verbs, such as those of volition or attitude, can easily occur in the passive. Contrast:

The coat does not fit you. ~ *You are not fitted by the coat.
The police want him. ~ He is wanted by the police.

(b) PASSIVE ONLY
Conversely, with some verbs and verb constructions only the passive is possible (*cf* 16.50):

John was {said / reputed} to be a good teacher.

~ *They {said / reputed} him to be a good teacher.

Other examples are *be born* (with an irregular past participle), and *be drowned* (in cases where no agent is implied):

He was born in Tübingen. ~ ?His mother bore him in Tübingen.

The wanted man fell into the water and was drowned. ~ . . . and someone drowned him.

Prepositional verbs

3.69 In English, prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.5*ff*) can often occur in the passive, but not so freely as in the active. These prepositional verbs are verbal idioms consisting of a lexical verb followed by a preposition, such as *look at*. Compare the following sentences, in which [1a] and [2a] contain prepositional verbs, whereas [1b] and [2b] contain the same words in nonidiomatic use:

The engineers *went* very carefully *into* {the problem. [1a] / the tunnel. [1b]}

~ {The problem / ?*The tunnel} *was* very carefully *gone into* by the engineers.

They eventually *arrived at* {the expected result. [2a] / the splendid stadium. [2b]}

~ {The expected result / ?*The splendid stadium} was eventually *arrived at*.

In these sentences it is clear that the difference in acceptability can be stated in terms of concrete/abstract passive subjects. It is only in the abstract, figurative use that *go into*, *arrive at*, *look into*, and many other expressions accept the passive.

With some ingenuity, however, one may construct contexts where such verbal expressions will occur in the passive even where they are not used abstractly and idiomatically, especially in a coordinate construction:

This private drawer of mine has been *gone into* and rummaged so many times that it is totally disarranged.

Thus the distinction between prepositional verbs and nonidiomatic combinations of verb and preposition does not entirely determine the possibility of a passive. Rather, there is a scale of 'cohesion' between verb and preposition, which will be analysed later, in 16.12*ff*, when we come to examine prepositional verbs in more detail.

Object constraints

3.70 Transitive verbs can be followed either by phrasal or by clausal objects (*cf* 15.3*ff*, 16.30*ff*). With clauses as objects, however, the passive transformation is to a greater or lesser degree restricted in use:

(A) Noun phrase as object:
John loved *Mary*. ~ *Mary* was loved (by John).
(B) Clause as object:
(i) Finite clause:
John thought (*that*) *she was attractive*.
~ ?**That she was attractive* was thought (by John).
(ii) Nonfinite clause:
(a) infinitive:
John hoped *to meet her*. ~ **To meet her* was hoped (by John).

(b) participle:
John enjoyed *seeing her*.
~ *?*Seeing her* was enjoyed (by John).

The passive often becomes acceptable, however, particularly when the object is a finite clause, if the clausal object is extraposed and replaced by the anticipatory pronoun *it* (*cf* 16.34, 16.72*f*, 16.83, 18.33):

It was thought *that she was attractive.*
?*It* was hoped *to meet her.*

or if the subject of the object clause is made the subject of a passive superordinate clause (*cf* 16.50*f*, 18.36), as in:

She was thought *to be attractive.*

The construction with anticipatory *it* never occurs with participle clauses as subject, and is only sometimes acceptable with infinitive clauses (*cf* 16.38):

It was desired *to have the report delivered here.*

(Even then, the acceptability of this construction may be criticized on grounds of style.)

Coreference between a subject and a noun phrase object blocks the passive correspondence. This constraint occurs with (a) reflexive pronouns, (b) reciprocal pronouns, and (c) possessive pronouns when coreferential to the subject:

(a) John could see {Paul / *himself*} in the mirror.
~ {Paul / **Himself*} could be seen in the mirror.

(b) We could hardly see *each other* in the fog.
~ **Each other* could hardly be seen in the fog.

(c) The woman shook {my hand. / *her head.*}
~ {My hand / ?**Her head*} was shaken by the woman.

Note [a] The passive of the sentence with a reciprocal pronoun can be made acceptable if the pronoun is split into two parts as follows:
Each could hardly be seen by the other. (*cf* 6.31)
[b] Since reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are objective case replacements, we would in any case not expect them to take subject position in a passive sentence, or for that matter in any other sentence (*cf* 3.65).
[c] The passive is not possible for many idioms in which the verb and the object form a close unit:
The ship set sail. ~ *Sail was set.
We changed buses. ~ *Buses were changed.

Agent constraints

3.71 Unlike the active subject, the agent *by*-phrase is generally optional. In fact approximately four out of five English passive sentences have no expressed agent. This omission occurs especially when the agent is irrelevant or unknown, as in:

The Prime Minister has often *been criticized* recently.

or where the agent is left out as redundant:

Jack fought Michael last night, and Jack *was beaten.*

An agent phrase *by Michael* would clearly not be necessary or even fully acceptable in this context.

Since the agent phrase is usually left unexpressed, the identity of the agent may be irrecoverable, and it may be impossible to postulate a unique active clause corresponding to the passive one:

Order *had been restored* without bloodshed.
~ {Colonel Laval (?) / The administration (?) / The army (?)} *had restored* order without bloodshed.

Note In some sentences, the agent is not optional; *eg*:
{The music *was followed* by a short interval. [1]
{*The music *was followed.* [2]
{The rebels *were actuated* by both religious and political motives. [3]
{*The rebels *were actuated.* [4]
However, the nonoccurrence of the agentless sentences [2] and [4] may be due not so much to grammatical or lexical restriction, as to the fact that without the agent, the sentence becomes informationally vacuous. (In this connection, [2] may be contrasted with *We're being followed.*)

Meaning constraints

3.72 We cannot assume that matching active and passive sentences always have the same propositional meaning. The difference of order brought about by changing an active sentence into the passive or vice versa may well make a difference not only in emphasis (*cf* 18.3*ff*, 18.11*ff*), but also to the scope of negatives and quantifiers (*cf* 2.54*f*):

Every schoolboy *knows* one joke at least. [1]
~ One joke at least *is known* by every schoolboy. [2]

The most likely interpretation of [1] is quite different from the most likely interpretation of [2]: whereas [1] favours the reading 'Each schoolboy knows at least some joke or other', [2] favours the reading 'There is one particular joke which is known to every schoolboy'.

Moreover, a shift of modal meaning may accompany a shift of voice in verb phrases containing modal auxiliaries (*cf* 4.52):

John cannot do it.
~ It cannot be done (by John).

In the active, *can* here will normally be interpreted as expressing ability, whereas in the passive it is interpreted as expressing possibility. Even when it might be argued that *can* retains the same meaning of ability in both active and passive, a shift of meaning is detectable:

John can't be taught. ['It's impossible to teach him' OR 'He is unable to learn']
~ She can't teach John. ['She is unable to teach John']

Examples with other modal auxiliaries are:

Every one of them must be reprimanded.
['Every one of them is to blame']
~ You must reprimand every one of them.
['It's your duty to do so']

Why wouldn't Miranda ride the grey mare?
['Why did Miranda refuse?']
~ Why wouldn't the grey mare be ridden by Miranda?
['Why did the mare refuse?']

Note [a] The shift from active to passive may change the meaning not only of a modal construction, but also of the perfective aspect:

Winston Churchill has twice visited Harvard. [3]
Harvard has twice been visited by Winston Churchill. [4]

It has been claimed that the active sentence [3] can only be appropriately used in the lifetime of Churchill, since the subject of the sentence determines the interpretability of the perfective in terms of a period of time leading up to the present (*cf* 4.20). The passive sentence [4], according to this claim, could appropriately be said now, after Churchill's death, since Harvard University is still in existence. However, speakers have differing intuitions on this matter.

[b] Some difference between the meaning of an active sentence and its passive counterpart has also been noted in examples such as [5] and [6], where both subject and object of the active sentence are generic (*cf* 5.52*ff*):

Beavers build dams. ~ ?Dams are built by beavers. [5]
Excessive drinking causes high blood pressure. ~ ?High blood pressure is caused by excessive drinking. [6]

This difference, which is a difference of preferred interpretation only, arises from the fact that in subject position, a generic phrase tends to be interpreted universally, while in object or agent position, this universal meaning disappears. Thus the subject *beavers* in [5] is likely to mean approximately 'all beavers', while *dams* is likely to have a similarly generic meaning in the passive counterpart.

Frequency constraints

3.73 To the structural and semantic restrictions mentioned in the preceding sections, we may add 'frequency constraints'. There is a notable difference in the frequency with which the active and passive voices are used. The active is generally by far the more common, but there is considerable variation among individual text types. The passive has been found to be as much as ten times as frequent in one text as in another. The major stylistic factor determining frequency seems to be related to the distinction between informative and imaginative prose, rather than to a difference between spoken and written English. The passive is generally more commonly used in informative than in imaginative writing, and is notably more frequent in the objective, impersonal style of scientific articles and news reporting.

As might be expected, the passive becomes very much rarer in combinations with other complex verb constructions (*eg* Types AD, BD, CD, ACD in 3.54). This rarity is extreme in the combinations BCD or ABCD ('perfective progressive passive' and 'modal perfective progressive passive'), perhaps in part because of an avoidance of the awkwardness of the *be being* sequence:

The Conservatives *won* the election. [1]
~ The election *was won* by the Conservatives. [2]

But:

The Conservatives *have not been winning* seats lately. [3]
~ (?)Seats *have not been being won* by the Conservatives lately. ⟨rare⟩ [4]

As the passive paraphrase of [3], [4] offers no particular difficulties of interpretation. But it is likely to be replaced in actual use by the simpler construction *Seats have not been won by the Conservatives lately*, from which it differs little in meaning (*cf* 4.38, 4.40 Note [a]).

The passive gradient

3.74 The purely formal definition of the passive, *viz* that the clause contains the construction *be* (or *get*) + *-ed* participle, is very broad, and would include, for example, all the following sentences:

This violin *was made* by my father. [1]
This conclusion *is* hardly *justified* by the results. [2]
Coal *has been replaced* by oil. [3]
This difficulty *can be avoided* in several ways. [4]

We *are encouraged* to go on with the project. [5]
Leonard *was interested* in linguistics. [6]
The building *is* already *demolished*. [7]
The modern world *is getting* ['becoming'] *more highly industrialized and mechanized*. [8]

But taking account of the verb's function and meaning, we prefer to consider only those above the broken line as passive. Those below the line, [5–8], do not have a clear correspondence with an active verb phrase or active clause, and are increasingly remote from the 'ideal' passive of [1], which can be placed in direct correspondence with a unique active counterpart. The variety of relationships displayed by [1–8] may well be regarded as points on a gradient or scale running from [1] to a sentence such as [9], which is clearly to be analysed as having an adjectival complement following a copular verb:

My uncle { was / got / seemed } (very) tired. [9]

The possibility of inserting *very* confirms the adjectival status of *tired*.

Central passives

3.75 Examples [1–4] can be called 'central' or 'true' passives. Sentences [1] and [2] have a direct active–passive relation. The difference between the two is that the former has a personal, and the latter a nonpersonal agent (*cf* 9.50):

~ My father *made* this violin. [1a]
~ The results hardly *justify* this conclusion. [2a]

Sentence [3] brings some unclarity about the nature of the active counterpart. There are two possible active counterparts, depending on the interpretation of the *by*-phrase:

~ Oil *has replaced* coal. [3a′]
~ (People in many countries) *have replaced* coal by oil. [3a″]

(The supplied active subject, here and below, is given in parentheses.)

In the former case, the *by*-phrase has been interpreted as an agent phrase corresponding to the active subject, but in the latter case, the *by*-phrase has been given an instrumental interpretation (*by* = *with*). Similarly ambiguous expressions are *be confronted by/with* and *be impressed by/with*.

Sentence [4] exemplifies the most common type of passive, that which has no expressed agent ('agentless passive'), and so leaves the subject of the active counterpart undetermined.

Semi-passives

3.76 Sentences [5] and [6] represent a 'mixed' or semi-passive class whose members have both verbal and adjectival properties (*cf* 7.15*ff*). They are verb-like in having active analogues:

We are encouraged to go on with the project. [5]
~ (The results) encourage us to go on with the project. [5a]

Leonard was interested in linguistics. [6]
~ Linguistics interested Leonard. [6a]

On the other hand, their adjectival properties include the possibility of:

(a) coordinating the participle with an adjective;
(b) modifying the participle with *quite*, *rather*, *more*, etc;
(c) replacing *be* by a lexical copular verb such as *feel* or *seem*:

We *feel rather* encouraged *and content* . . .
Leonard *seemed very* interested in *and keen on* linguistics.

To these we may add the fact that [5] and [6] are stative rather than dynamic. This in itself does not exclude a passive analysis, for there are stative passives as well as dynamic passives, as is already illustrated by [2]: *This conclusion is hardly justified by the results*. It does, however, tilt the scales in favour of an adjectival analysis, since all participial adjectives have a stative meaning, whereas corresponding verbs usually do not.

In such adjectival uses of the past participle, it is rare to have a *by*-phrase expressing the agent, but blends such as the following do occur:

I feel rather let down *by his indifference*.
She seems extremely elated *by her success*.

Even *-ed* adjectives which have no corresponding active infinitive or finite verb forms may occasionally have agent *by*-phrases:

We were *unimpressed* by his attempts.
~ *His attempts *unimpressed* us.
His attempts did not impress us.

Evidently the ability to take an agent *by*-phrase cannot be regarded as diagnostic of the passive construction. (If further confirmation is needed, it will be found in noun phrases where the agent *by*-phrase occurs as postmodifier: *poems by Wordsworth*.)

There are, in fact, several prepositions which can introduce agent-like phrases; notably *about*, *at*, *over*, *to*, and *with* (*cf* 9.49*ff*, 16.69):

We were all worried *about the complication*. [10]
~ The complication worried us all. [10a]
I was a bit surprised *at her behaviour*. [11]
~ Her behaviour surprised me a bit. [11a]
You won't be bothered *with me* any more. [12]
~ I won't bother you any more. [12a]
This edition was not known *to earlier scholars*. [13]
~ Earlier scholars did not know (of) this edition. [13a]

But just as a *by*-phrase (as noted in 3.75) may cooccur, in an instrumental function, with an active subject, so these agent-like phrases may sometimes cooccur with an active subject, and so be interpreted ambiguously when in the passive:

Leonard was interested *in linguistics*.
~ (Someone) interested Leonard *in linguistics*.

There is thus no strong reason to treat such prepositional phrases, whether introduced by *by* or some other preposition, as diagnostic of the passive voice.

Note [a] Semi-passive constructions such as those of [10–13] can have a clause as complementation (*cf* 16.71):

I was surprised *that the food was so good*. [14]

In such cases, the clausal complementation can also be seen as analogous to an agent; *cf*:

~ *That the food was so good* surprised me. [14a]

[b] *Be known* (*to*) differs from other examples of the semi-passive in lacking the causative feature of *be worried* (*about*), *be surprised* (*at*), etc, and in not taking modifiers like *quite* and *rather*:

I was rather surprised at her methods.

but:

*Her methods are rather known to me.

(On the other hand, the *be known* (*to*) construction can be intensified by *well*; but the sequence *well known* can be hyphenated, and is perhaps a compound here.)

Pseudo-passives

3.77 Finally, [7] and [8] have neither an active transform nor a possibility of agent addition:

The building is already demolished. [7]
The modern world is getting more highly industrialized and mechanized. [8]

Such examples may be called 'pseudo-passives', since it is chiefly only their superficial form of verb + *-ed* participle that recommends them for consideration as passives. In terms of meaning, the active sentence corresponding to [7] is not [7a′], but [7a″]:

?*(Someone) already demolishes the building. [7a′]
(Someone) has already demolished the building. [7a″]

That is, *is demolished* denotes a resultant state: it refers, like the perfective, to a state resulting from the demolition, rather than to the act of demolition itself. Such a construction has been termed a 'statal passive'. In this connection, we note that an ambiguity is evident particularly in the past tense:

In 1972, the Democrats were defeated.

On the dynamic (central passive) reading, this means 'Someone defeated the Democrats'; on the statal (copular) reading, it means 'The Democrats were in a state of having been defeated'. The first reading can be singled out by adding the agent phrase:

In 1972, the Democrats were defeated by the Republicans.

The first (passive) reading can also be picked out if we change the verb to the progressive aspect:

In 1972, the Democrats were being defeated.

Neither of these tests apply to the statal passive construction because it is essentially copular, the verb *be* in this case being the copula rather than the passive auxiliary.

Similarly, the participles in [8] have adjectival values: compare *industrialized* with *industrial* and *mechanized* with *mechanical*, and note that these *-ed* words can be used adjectivally in phrases like *the industrialized world*. Moreover, no 'performer' can be conceived of: an *industrialized world* is simply a world that has reached a state of industrialization. Once we come to examples like this, we are firmly in the territory of *be* as a copula replaceable by other copular verbs such as *become, feel, seem, remain*, etc: *She became enraged, I felt cheated*, etc. Here the *-ed* word is a complement, and therefore adjectival.

Note [a] There is a pseudo-passive construction with intransitive verbs of motion or completion in which the participle is active rather than passive in meaning:

Why *are* all those cars *stopped* at the corner?
By the time she got there, her friend *was gone*.
I'*ll* soon *be finished* with this job.

With most intransitive verbs, this construction has been superseded by the perfective construction, which is almost synonymous. Compare *Mary has come* with the archaic *Mary is come*. The somewhat melodramatic imperative *Be gone* may be written as a single word *Begone*, and is sometimes, like *Beware* (*cf* 3.54 Note), treated as an infinitive: *I told them to begone from my sight*.

[b] A similar pseudo-passive is used with verbs of posture:

Grandfather *was sat* in the rocking chair.
I'*ve been stood* here for about ten minutes.

In this case, the construction is largely synonymous with, though less common than, the progressive construction: *was sitting, 've been standing*, etc.

[c] The 'notional passive' with an intransitive active verb, as in *The clock winds up at the back* ['can be wound up'] is discussed under word-formation (App I.54).

Summary

3.78 Summarizing the passive gradient as exemplified in 3.74, we may set up the following classes:

I Central passives
  (a) With expressed agents: [1], [2], [3]
  (b) Without expressed agents: [4]

II Semi-passives: [5], [6]

III Pseudo-passives
  (a) With 'current' copular verbs *be, feel, look*, etc: [7]
  (b) With 'resulting' copular verbs *get, become, grow*, etc: [8]
  (*cf* 16.21–23 for the terms 'current' and 'resulting'.)

Bibliographical note

For general treatments of the English verb, see Palmer (1974); Allen (1966); Joos (1964); Huddleston (1976a).

On verb inflections, see Hidalgo (1967); Quirk (1970a).

On reduced and contracted forms, see Black (1977); Brown and Millar (1980); Cheshire (1981); Jørgensen (1979); Zwicky (1970).

On tense and aspect, see Comrie (1976); Dušková (1974); Nehls (1975, 1980); Tedeschi and Zaenen (1981); also further references in the Bibliographical Note to Ch. 4.

On the progressive aspect in particular, see Adamczewski (1978); Dušková (1971b); Halliday (1980); Ljung (1980).

On auxiliaries in relation to main verbs, see Huddleston (1974, 1980); Langacker (1978); Ney (1981); Pullum and Wilson (1977); Reich (1968); Ross (1969); Twaddell (1965).

On specific verbs and special cases of auxiliary or main verb classification, see Chapin (1973); Collins (1978); Crowell (1959); Haegeman (1980); Jacobsson (1974, 1980); Quirk and Duckworth (1961); Seppänen (1977); Svartvik and Wright (1977); Tottie (1971, 1978).

On modal auxiliary verbs, see Greenbaum (1974); Kalogjera (1967); Lee (1978); Melchers (1980); Raynaud (1977); also further references in the Bibliographical Note to Ch. 4. The frequency data in 3.39 is derived from Coates (1983) and Hofland and Johansson (1982).

On the subjunctive, see Haegeman (forthcoming b); Jacobsson (1975); Turner (1980).

On the imperative, see Levin (1979); Stein (1976); also further references in the Bibliographical Note to Ch. 8.

On the passive voice, see Bennett (1980); Bolinger (1975b, 1978c); Buyssens (1979); Couper-Kuhlen (1979); Davidson (1980); Dušková (1971a, 1972); Granger (1981); Mihailovič (1967); Poldauf (1969); Stein (1979); Svartvik (1966). For frequency data, see Svartvik (1966) and Granger (1981).

Other relevant studies include Greenbaum (1977a); Jacobsson (1965); Wonder (1970).

For studies relating more particularly to meaning in the verb phrase, consult the Bibliographical Note to Ch. 4.

4 The semantics of the verb phrase

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Introduction

4.1 In this chapter we examine the semantics of the verb phrase, and in particular of the finite verb phrase. We turn our attention to the meanings associated with tense, aspect, and the modal auxiliaries, having already dealt with the morphology and syntax of these categories in 3.52–7. The chapter will conclude with some observations on the meanings of verbs on the gradient between auxiliaries and main verbs, and of nonfinite verb phrases.

It is unfortunate that the terminology used in discussing the verb phrase often tempts us to confuse distinctions of grammatical form with distinctions of meaning. This applies to terms such as 'aspect', 'perfective', 'progressive', and 'modality', which, as names for grammatical categories, also reflect their typical meanings. But preeminently it applies to the terms 'present' and 'past' used in referring to tenses of the verb. The English present tense, for instance, usually, but by no means always, signifies present time (*cf* 4.5–10). The association between present tense and present time is strong enough to make the term 'present tense' plausibly appropriate, and at the same time, potentially misleading.

Time, tense, and the verb

4.2 It is therefore wise to begin by distinguishing three different levels on which the terms 'present' and 'past' can be interpreted. First, in abstraction from any given language, time can be thought of as a line (theoretically, of infinite length) on which is located, as a continuously moving point, the present moment. Anything ahead of the present moment is in the future, and anything behind it is in the past:

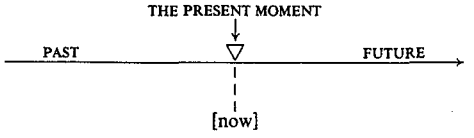

Fig 4.2a

This is an interpretation of past, present, and future on a REFERENTIAL level. But in relating this view of time to language and, more precisely, to the meaning of verbs, it is useful to reformulate the threefold distinction such that 'present' is defined in an inclusive rather than in an exclusive way: something is defined as 'present' if it has existence at the present moment, allowing for the possibility that its existence may also stretch into the past and into the future. Hence *Paris stands on the River Seine* may be correctly said to describe a 'present' state of affairs, even though this state of affairs has also obtained for numerous centuries in the past, and may well exist for an indefinite period in the future:

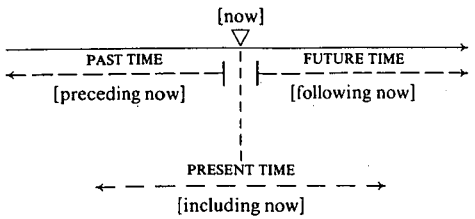

Fig 4.2b

On this second, or SEMANTIC level of interpretation, then, 'present' is the most general and unmarked category. In contrast to [1], which is a generic statement applicable to present, past, and future, [2] is a more limited statement, suggesting that the albatross, like the dodo, is extinct:

Albatrosses *are* large birds. [1]
Albatrosses *were* large birds. [2]

The author of [2] does not commit himself to the continuation of the past state of affairs it describes into the present. The same applies to sentences of more limited time span:

John spends a lot of money. [true for past, present, and future]
John spent a lot of money. [true for past only]

Note Nevertheless, a sentence like [2] does not exclude the possibility of such a continuation. It is possible to assert, without inconsistency: *Albatrosses were, are, and always will be large birds.*

The present tense as 'nonpast'

4.3 In 4.2 we distinguished past, present and future on a referential level, and also on a semantic level. It remains only to mention the familiar fact that 'present' and 'past' are also interpreted on a grammatical level, in reference to tense. Here, however, the threefold opposition is reduced to two, since morphologically English has no future form of the verb in addition to present and past forms. Some grammarians have argued for a third, 'future tense', maintaining that English realizes this tense by the use of an auxiliary verb construction (such as *will* + infinitive): but we prefer to follow those grammarians who have treated tense strictly as a category realized by verb inflection. In this grammar, then, we do not talk about the FUTURE as a formal category: what we do say is that certain grammatical constructions are capable of expressing the semantic category of FUTURE TIME (*cf* 4.41*ff*).

Some grammarians have gone further, avoiding the term 'present' in reference to tense, and preferring 'nonpast'. The terms PRESENT TENSE and PAST TENSE have this justification: that the tenses they name typically have reference to present and past time respectively:

She *is* quite well today. Yesterday she *was* sick.

But there is also some morphological justification for treating the present as the unmarked tense, since it is often realized by the base or uninflected form

of the verb (compare the present tense *I need a rest* with the past tense *I needed a rest*). There is also a semantic justification, to the extent that the present tense may be used to express not only present but future time. Contrast:

Yesterday {*is / was} Sunday. — Today is Monday. / Tomorrow is Tuesday.

Notice we can use the present tense in questioning someone about a future activity as well as about a present one:

*What are you doing yesterday? — What are you doing today? / What are you doing tomorrow?

And we can use the present form of the modal with future meaning, but not with past meaning:

*I can help you yesterday. — I can help you today. / I can help you tomorrow.

We have good reason for arguing, therefore, that the semantic triad of past, present, and future is unequally separated into past and nonpast categories for the purposes of tense. Tradition and familiarity favour the retention of the label 'present' in place of 'nonpast'. But this concession places upon us the responsibility of continually maintaining a clear distinction between present and past TENSE, on the one hand, and present and past TIME on the other.

Situation types: stative and dynamic verb senses

4.4 The semantic categories of past, present, and future apply, in fact, not so much to time, as to happenings which take place in time, and which are denoted by verbs. The point may be made in the following way:

Mary *hoped* for success.	REFERS TO	a *past hope* of Mary.
Peter *knows* a great deal.	REFERS TO	Peter's *present knowledge*.
The home team *will be defeated*.	REFERS TO	*a future defeat* of the home team.

Note that the same concept can be expressed both by a verb and by an abstract noun. Such words denote phenomena existing in time, variously called 'states', 'events', 'actions', 'processes', 'activities', etc. Regrettably there is no single generic term for such 'verb-denoted phenomena', but we shall distinguish different categories under the title of SITUATION TYPES (*cf* further 4.27*ff*).

Pursuing the analogy between nouns and verbs further, we observe that just as an abstract noun referring to an event can be singular or plural, so the corresponding verb can be 'pluralized' through the use of frequency adverbials:

A SINGLE EVENT	A PLURALITY OF EVENTS
Vesuvius *erupted* in 77 AD. = In 77 AD there was *an eruption* of Vesuvius.	The country *was invaded* many times. = There were *many invasions* of the country.

Such verbs as *erupt* and *invade* are therefore comparable to count nouns. One sign of this is that when such verbs are used with the present perfective, they cannot indicate a single unbroken state up to the present:

I *have driven* sports cars for years. [1]

This does not refer to an uninterrupted state of car-driving, but rather to a sequence of separate car-driving events. On the other hand, there are verbs like (usually) *be*, *have*, and *know* which refer to states, and which indicate an unbroken state in sentences otherwise similar to [1]:

I *have known* the Penfolds all my life. [2]

Such verbs also occur less readily with frequency adverbials:

?The chair *has* beautiful carved legs *quite frequently*. [3]

On this basis, we draw a broad distinction between DYNAMIC (count) meanings and STATIVE (noncount) meanings of verbs. It should be noted, though, that we talk of dynamic and stative *meanings*, rather than dynamic and stative *verbs*. This is because one verb may shift, in meaning, from one category to another. Contrast, for example, the stative meaning of *have* [= 'possess'] in [3] with a dynamic meaning of *have* ['eat'] in [4]:

We *have* dinner at Maxim's *quite frequently*. [4]

Having carved legs is a state, while having dinner is an event (*cf* 3.34*f*).

One of the characteristics of dynamic verb senses is that they often (but by no means always) imply agentivity (*cf* 10.19); *ie* they imply an active doer (initiator, performer) of the action concerned. Hence dynamic verb meanings can regularly occur with the imperative, but stative verb meanings cannot:

Learn how to swim. *Know how to swim.

Verbs with dynamic meanings moreover can generally occur following *do* in a pseudo-cleft sentence (*cf* 18.29*f*):

What she did was (to) *learn* Spanish.
*What she did was (to) *know* Spanish.

The dynamic/stative distinction is not clear-cut, however. When we come to study aspect (see esp 4.25*ff*) we shall need to look critically at this distinction, and to suggest various subdivisions of each category. But a coarse binary contrast is all that is required for the study of tense.

The distinction between stative and dynamic verb meanings is therefore a rough-and-ready one which will be refined later (*cf* 4.27*ff*). There are some verbs (*eg*: *stand*, *lie*; *cf* 4.32) whose meanings cannot be adequately described in terms of this dichotomy.

Note [a] In some cases, the same verb can be either dynamic (referring to an event) or stative (referring to the state resulting from that event). Hence the virtual equivalence, in some contexts, of *I've got the idea* and *I get the idea*; also of *I've forgotten* and *I forget*.
[b] *Know* can be used abnormally in the sense of 'make sure that you know' in imperatives such as:
Know this poem by heart by next week.
There is also an exceptional dynamic use of *know* in the archaic imperative *Know thyself!*

Meanings of the simple present tense with reference to present time

(a) State present

4.5 With stative verb senses, the present is used without reference to specific time: *ie*, there is no inherent limitation on the extension of the state into the past and future (unless such a limitation is indicated by adverbials or other elements of the clause). The STATE PRESENT, as we may call this category, includes general timeless statements, or so-called 'eternal truths':

Honesty *is* the best policy.
Water *consists* of hydrogen and oxygen.
Two and three *make* five.
The earth *moves* round the sun.

Whereas proverbial, scientific, or mathematical statements like these represent the extreme of temporal universality, geographical statements are equally likely to be examples of the 'timeless present':

The Nile *is* the longest river in Africa.
Peru *shares* a border with Chile.

We can also include with the state present examples such as the following, where our knowledge of the world tells us that the time span of the state is to a greater or lesser degree restricted:

Margaret *is* tall.
He *does not believe* in hard work.
She *knows* several languages.
Everyone *likes* Maurice.
This soup *tastes* delicious.
We *live* near Toronto.

Note [a] Authors often use a kind of 'timeless present' in addressing their readers about the contents of their book. In the present book, for example, we use such expressions as:
The last example *shows* that . . .
[b] Sentences such as **We live near Toronto since 1949*, in which the simple present is combined with an adverbial of duration, do not normally occur. This is because the adverbial is interpreted as defining a period of 'living' leading up to the present moment, and hence as referring to time before the present (*cf* 4.20*ff*). Therefore, even though the state referred to may well continue in the future, the present perfective rather than the present is used. Particularly in AmE, however, this requirement is sometimes relaxed, and sentences like *Since when do you read newspapers?* are quite often heard (*cf* further 14.26).

(b) Habitual present

4.6 When they are used with the simple present, dynamic verb meanings, like stative verb meanings, usually imply an inherently unrestricted time span. But in this case the verb refers to a whole sequence of events, repeated over the period in question:

We *go* to Brussels every year.
She *makes* her own dresses.
Bill *drinks* heavily.
Water *boils* at 100°C.

As the last example shows, the HABITUAL PRESENT also resembles the state present in being used for 'timeless' statements. It is a sign of the habitual present that one can easily add a frequency adverbial to specify the frequency of the repetition: *Bill drinks heavily every night*, etc. Some habitual statements,

such as *We go to Brussels*, are contextually incomplete unless such an adverbial is added. Whereas the state present always refers to something which obtains at the time of speaking, this is not necessarily, or even usually, true of the habitual present.

Note [a] Verbs of stative meaning may sometimes be used in a habitual sense when accompanied by a frequency adverbial: *She is seldom alone.*
[b] A habitual use of the present tense occurs in a 'timeless' sense in authorial address to the reader on a book's content (*cf* 4.5 Note [a]): *We turn now to the question of* . . . This may be alternatively viewed as a special case of the instantaneous present (*cf* the use of the present in demonstrations in 4.7 below).

(c) Instantaneous present

4.7 While the habitual present is the most common meaning of the simple present with a dynamic verb sense, a second possibility, the INSTANTANEOUS PRESENT, occurs where the verb refers to a single action begun and completed approximately at the moment of speech. We may thus add to the state present and habitual present, which respectively correspond to noncount and plural count nouns, a third meaning corresponding to that of singular count nouns. *Figure* 4.7 illustrates the three central uses of the simple present with reference to present time:

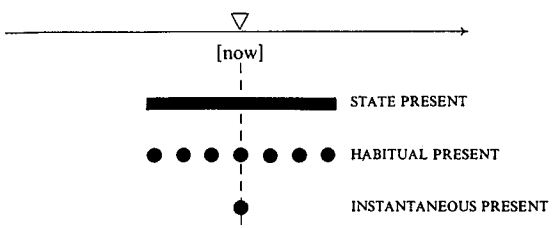

Fig 4.7

The instantaneous present, however, because it implies that the event has little or no duration, does not occur outside some rather restricted situations. Such situations include the following:

COMMENTARIES:
Black *passes* the ball to Fernandez . . . Fernandez *shoots*!
DEMONSTRATIONS AND OTHER SELF-COMMENTARIES:
I *pick* up the fruit with a skewer, *dip* it into the batter, and *lower* it into the hot fat.
I *enclose* (herewith) a form of application.
SPECIAL EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES (with initial adverbials):
Here *comes* the winner! Up you *go*. (*cf* 18.23)
PERFORMATIVES:
I *advise* you to withdraw. I *apologize*. We *thank* you for your recent inquiry.

The verb in performatives (*cf* 11.3) is often a verb of speaking (such as *request*, *advise*, *predict*) describing the speech act of which it is a part. Other

performatives such as *I resign* describe ritual acts and are accepted as the outward sign that such acts are taking place. In these cases, then, there is bound to be simultaneity between the event described and the speech event itself. In other cases, although such simultaneity does not obtain in any exact sense, there is an implication of simultaneity which gives the utterance with the instantaneous present a somewhat theatrical quality. Against the routine ordinariness of the present progressive in *Carlos is winning*, we may place the dramatic air of *Carlos wins!* which pinpoints the final and climactic moment of victory.

Note [a] In older English, the simple present was used more widely with reference to a present event which would now be described by use of the present progressive: Shakespeare's *I go, I go* may be contrasted with the present-day *I'm going*. Some relics of this archaic usage are found in one or two fixed expressions such as *How do you do?* and *How goes it?*
[b] On the closely related dramatic use of the present, *cf* 4.8, 4.10.

Special nonpresent uses of the present tense

(a) Simple present referring to the past

4.8 In the next three sections we bring together three additional uses of the simple present; these are best seen as transferred or extended interpretations of the basic meanings of 4.5–7.

The so-called historic present is characteristic of popular narrative style (*cf* also the fictional present, 4.10):

> I couldn't believe it! Just as we arrived, up *comes* Ben and *slaps* me on the back as if we'*re* life-long friends. 'Come on, old pal,' he *says*, 'Let me buy you a drink!' I'm telling you, I nearly fainted on the spot.

The historic present describes the past as if it is happening now: it conveys something of the dramatic immediacy of an eye-witness account.

A very different use of the present tense in reference to the past is that found with verbs of communication:

> The ten o'clock news *says* that there's going to be a bad storm.
> Martin *tells* me the Smiths are moving from No. 20.

Such verbs include also verbs like *understand*, *hear*, and *learn*, which refer to the receptive end of the communication process:

> I *hear* that poor Mr Simpson has gone into hospital.

These sentences would also be acceptable with the simple past or present perfective; but the implication of the present tense seems to be that although the communication event took place in the past, its result – the information communicated – is still operative. Thus:

> The Book of Genesis *speaks* of the terrible fate of Sodom and Gomorrah.

suggests that although the Book of Genesis was written thousands of years ago, it still 'speaks' to us at the present time.

The notion that the past can remain alive in the present also explains the

optional use of the present tense in sentences referring to writers, composers, artists, etc and their extant works:

In *The Brothers Karamazov*, Dostoevsky *draws/drew* his characters from sources deep in the Russian soil.
Like Rubens, Watteau *is/was* able to convey an impression of warm, living flesh by the merest whiff of colour.

Again, it is something more than a figure of speech to suggest that the author is still able to speak to us through his works. The present can even be used, without respect to any particular work, for general artistic characterizations of the author:

Brahms *is/was* the last great representative of German classicism.

But biographical details of the artist's life must normally be reported through the past tense (*cf* however Note [b]). Hence there is an interesting contrast between:

Murasaki *writes/wrote* of life in 11th century Japan.
Murasaki *wrote* in 11th century Japan.

Note [a] The simple present is usually used in newspaper headlines to report recent events: *Trade unions back merger*; *'No sell-out' says P.M.*; *Economic think-tank seeks assurances*. (On headlines, *cf* further 11.46).
[b] Two further minor uses of the historic present are (i) in photographic captions, for which, however, the *-ing* participle is an alternative form:
The Queen *arrives/arriving* for the State Opening of Parliament.
and (ii) in historical summaries or tables of dates:
1876 – Brahms *completes* his first symphony.
[c] There is variation between past and present tenses in cross-references from one part of a book to the other: *This problem is/was discussed in Chapter 1*. The choice depends on whether the book is conceived of as existing at one time, like a static object; or whether it is imagined to progress in time, as it does for the reader who begins at Chapter 1 and moves from 'earlier' to 'later' parts of the book. Other verb constructions (*eg* the perfective construction or the modal construction with *will*) may also be used to imply progression in time: *This matter has been touched on in Chapter 2, but we will return to it in Chapter 5*.

(b) Simple present referring to the future

4.9 In main clauses, this typically occurs with time-position adverbials to suggest (*cf* 4.45) that the event is unalterably fixed in advance, and is as certain as it would be, were it taking place in the present:

The plane *leaves* for Ankara at eight o'clock tonight.

In dependent clauses, the future use of the simple present is much more common, particularly in conditional and temporal clauses (*cf* 14.22):

He'll do it if you *pay* him.
I'll let you know as soon as I *hear* from her.

Note [a] The use of the simple present in directions with a 2nd person subject might be considered a case of the present tense referring to the future:
You *test* an air leak by disconnecting the delivery pipe at the carburettor and pumping the fuel into a container.
You *take* the first turning on the left past the police station, then you *cross* a bridge, and *bear* right until you *see* the Public Library.

However, these may more justly be taken as examples of the habitual present (*cf* 4.6), the *you* being interpreted impersonally, as equivalent to generic *one* (*cf* 6.21).
[b] The simple present may be used in reference to later parts of a book (*cf* 4.5 Note [a], 4.8 Note [c]) in examples such as the following:
In the next chapter we *examine* in the light of this theory recent economic developments in the Third World.

(c) Simple present in fictional narrative

4.10 There is a close connection between the historic present of (a) above, and the simple present as used in fictional narratives. The only difference is that whereas the events narrated by means of the historic present are real, those narrated by the fictional 'historic present' are imaginary:

The crowd *swarms* around the gateway, and *seethes* with delighted anticipation; excitement *grows*, as suddenly their hero *makes* his entrance . . .

This is stylistically marked in contrast to the normal convention of the past tense for story-telling. A special exception is the use of the present in stage directions:

Mallinson *enters*. The girls immediately *pretend* to be working hard. William *assumes* a businesslike air, *picks* up two folders at random, and *makes* for the door.

Here the present is used by convention, as if to represent the idea that the events of the play are being performed before our eyes as we read the script. A similar convention is used in summaries of narratives.

Meanings of the past tense with reference to past time

4.11 As most commonly used, the past tense combines two features of meaning:

(a) The event/state must have taken place in the past, with a gap between its completion and the present moment.
(b) The speaker or writer must have in mind a definite time at which the event/state took place.

The first of these conditions is most clearly exemplified by a sentence like *I stayed in Africa for several months*, where the usual implication is that I am no longer in Africa. The second condition is most explicitly shown in cooccurrence relations between the past tense and past time-position adverbials such as *last week*, *in 1932*, *several weeks ago*, *yesterday*, etc:

Freda started school { last year. [1] / in 1950. [2] }

Prices slumped { last winter. [3] / yesterday. [4] }

With such adverbials, the simple present or present perfective would be virtually ungrammatical (*cf*, however, 4.8 Note [b] and 4.23 Note [a]):

*Freda { starts / has started } school { last year. [1a] / in 1950. [2a] }

It is not necessary, however, for the past tense to be accompanied by an overt indicator of time. All that is required is that the speaker should be able to count on the hearer's assumption that he has a specific time in mind. In this respect, the past tense meaning of DEFINITE PAST time is an equivalent, in the verb phrase, of the definite article in the noun phrase. Just as with the definite article (*cf* 5.27–32), so with the verb phrase, an element of definite meaning may be recoverable from knowledge of (a) the immediate or local situation; (b) the larger situation of 'general knowledge'; (c) what has been said earlier in the same sentence or text; or (d) what comes later on in the same sentence or text.

Note A parallel may also be drawn, in terms of definite meaning, between the present and past tense, and the 'near' and 'far' reference of the demonstratives *this* and *that* (*cf* 6.40*ff*). Thus the present and past tenses can be added to other pairs of DEICTIC items (*cf* 6.43), such as *this/that*, *now/then*, and *here/there*.

Situational use of the past tense

4.12 The use of the past tense in relation to an immediate situation is illustrated by the sentence:

Did you *lock* the front door? [5]

in a domestic situation where it is known that the front door is locked at bedtime every night. In that case, [5] is more or less equivalent to *Did you lock the front door at bedtime?* (Incidentally, in [5], *the* in *the front door* is another case of situational definiteness; *cf* 5.28*ff*.)

Definiteness by virtue of the larger situation (or general knowledge; *cf* 5.29) may be invoked to explain the use of the simple past in historical or biographical statements which have specific people, places, or objects as their topics:

Byron *died* in Greece. [6]
I have a friend who *was* at school with Kissinger. [7]
This picture *was painted* by the owner's grandfather. [8]
Rome *was* not *built* in a day. [a proverb] [9]

It is a matter of general knowledge that Byron is a historical personage (and therefore that he must have died at some time or another). The past tense in [6] presupposes such common ground between speaker and hearer: it is as if the speaker had said: 'We all know that Byron died at some time or other; well, *when* he died, he died in Greece'. Similarly, [7] presupposes that most people spend a particular period at school, [8] presupposes that a picture one sees on the wall must have been painted at some time or another; and [9] presupposes that all cities (including Rome, the 'Eternal City') have to be built at some time or other.

Anaphoric and cataphoric use of the past tense

4.13 In line with the use of the term *anaphoric* with reference to the definite article (*cf* 5.30*f*), we may call the use of the past tense 'anaphoric' where the time in the past to which the reference is made is already indicated by a previous use of the past tense. In this sense, *was* is anaphoric in [10]:

Then we *entered* the city . . . the square *was* deserted . . . [10]

In other cases, a preceding use of the present perfective in the indefinite past sense (*cf* 4.20*f*) provides a peg, so to speak, on which to hang a subsequent occurrence of the past tense:

They *have decided* to close down the factory. It *took* us completely by surprise. [11]
There *have been* times when I *wished* myself safely home in bed. [12]

(In the latter sentence, the present perfective *have wished* would also be possible.) Again, this is similar to the case where the indefinite article (*cf* 5.30) prepares the way for a following coreferential definite article. In other cases, anaphoric reference is to an adverbial of time in the same clause:

Last Saturday, we *went* to the theatre.

When the adverbial follows the past tense, this may be called the *cataphoric* use of the definite past (*cf* 5.32):

We *went* to the theatre *last Saturday*.

Examples like [5–12] above show that for a verb phrase to be 'definite', the relevant time need not be specified: it matters only that the time should in principle be specifiable. This means that even very unspecific time adverbs such as *once* and *when* suffice to make the past tense appropriate:

When did she arrive? I was *once* a heavy smoker.

Finally, the use of a temporal conjunction such as *while* or *as soon as* with past reference is a sufficient condition for the use of the past tense in both main and subordinate clauses: *They left as soon as we arrived*.

Note [a] There are a few idiomatic constructions in which the element of definiteness seems to be absent from the meaning of the past tense: *eg* in comparative clauses containing the main verb *was/were*:

She's not so active *as she was*.

But here the past tense retains its other semantic feature: that the state no longer obtains; *ie*: *was* is equivalent to *used to be* (*cf* 4.15).

[b] In the following idiomatic examples, the past tense lacks both its implication of 'definiteness' and its implication of 'no longer obtaining':

I always *knew* you were my friend. [13]
Did you ever *hear* such nonsense? [14]

The past is here a colloquial alternative to the present perfective referring to a state or habit leading up to the present; *eg* [13] could be rephrased: *I've always known you to be my friend*. (In the ritual exclamation of astonishment *Well I never did!*, however, the perfective could not be substituted.) This usage is restricted to the occurrence of the past tense with *always*, *never*, or *ever*. Sentences such as [13] and [14] are to be distinguished from similar sentences containing a past time adverbial, such as: *In the past, I always thought you were my friend*. Here the regular interpretation of the past tense obtains, and so the implication is likely to be: '. . . but now I no longer think so'.

[c] On differences between AmE and BrE in the use of the simple past, *cf* 4.20 Note, 4.22 Note [a].

Event, state, and habit in the past

4.14 Having mentioned the pragmatic conditions for definiteness which are common to most examples of the past tense, we now have to distinguish three meanings of the past tense which match the three meanings of the present with reference to present time (4.5–7). For the past tense, however, it is better to place the three meanings in a different order. First we illustrate, as the most common sense, the EVENT PAST, which refers to a single definite event in the past:

The eruption of Vesuvius *destroyed* Pompeii. [1]

In [1], the dynamic verb sense of *destroyed* identifies a single event. But in [2], the verb *was* refers to a state, and is therefore an example of the STATE PAST:

Archery *was* a popular sport for the Victorians. [2]

In [3], we have an example of the HABITUAL PAST, since the verb *were held* refers to a sequence of four-yearly events:

In ancient times, the Olympic Games *were held* at Olympia in Southern Greece. [3]

We may present these three meanings, therefore, in a diagram corresponding to that used for the simple present (*Fig* 4.7):

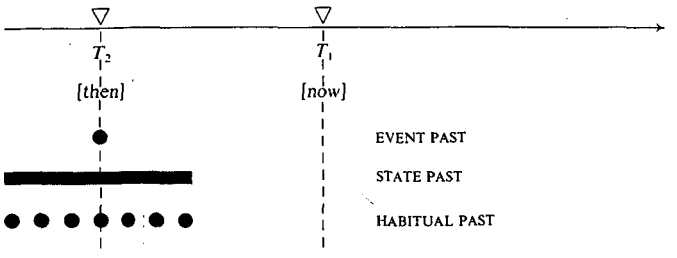

T = time of orientation

Fig 4.14

In *Fig* 4.14, the three meanings are located by reference to a definite time in the past (a SECONDARY TIME-ORIENTATION or T_2), and only indirectly by reference to the present moment (the PRIMARY TIME-ORIENTATION or T_1). The diagram shows T_2, like T_1, as a point of time having no duration; but it should be noted that T_2 can sometimes refer to an extended time period. Compare *The agreement was signed at 7 p.m.* (where T_2 is a momentary point of time) with *The agreement was signed in 1972* (where T_2 is a whole year and the actual signing is understood to take place at some unspecified point within that period).

4.15 It is easy to see why the event past is more common than the corresponding meaning of the present tense, *viz* the instantaneous present. From a vantage point in the present, we naturally see a happening in the past as a complete unit, with a beginning and an end; but it is more difficult to see a present event 'in close-up' in such a holistic way. With the past tense, there is a tendency to treat as holistic events even states of affairs persisting through an extended period, *eg*:

He *lived* and *died* in his native city of Padua.

It can thus be rather difficult, in practice, to distinguish the different meanings of the past tense. But one useful distinguishing mark is the fact that the habitual and state meanings can be paraphrased by means of *used to* (*cf* 3.44):

In those days we {*used to live* / *lived*} in the country. [4]

We {*used to get* / *got*} up at 5 a.m. every morning all through the summer. [5]

As it stands, the habitual past in [3] above in 4.14 is not formally distinguished from the event past: only general knowledge tells us that the Olympic Games were held more than once. If we wish to make sure that a sentence like [3] is given a habitual interpretation, we have to substitute the *used to* construction or else add an adverbial of frequency or duration, such as *every morning* and *all through the summer* in [5].

Another distinguishing feature is the tendency for dynamic verbs to have a sequential interpretation when they occur in textual sequence (especially in coordination):

She *addressed* and *posted* the letter. [6]
[≠ She *posted* and *addressed* the letter]
She *disliked* and *distrusted* her advisers. [7]
[= She *distrusted* and *disliked* her advisers]

In [6], the actions of addressing and posting are understood to take place in succession, while in [7] the emotions of dislike and distrust are understood to have existed side by side (*cf* 13.22*ff*).

Note Sometimes, however, two dynamic verbs in sequence are given a simultaneous interpretation, as in:

The explosion *wrecked* a car and *damaged* several shops.

Another relevant factor is that certain conjunctions, such as *before* and *after*, can overrule the normal order of temporal precedence:

Before the railroad gangs *arrived*, Dixon City {*was* / *had been*} nothing but a sleepy cattle town.

(On the alternative use of *had been* here, *cf* 4.24.)

Meanings of the past tense with reference to present and future time

4.16 Just as the simple present does not always refer to present time, so the past tense is not always confined to past time reference. There are again three special meanings to mention:

(a) In INDIRECT SPEECH (or INDIRECT THOUGHT; *cf* 14.30*ff*), the past tense in the reporting verb tends to make the verb of the subordinate clause past

tense as well. This phenomenon, known as backshift, is normally optional (*cf* 14.31), but can result in an apparently anachronistic use of the past tense for present time:

A: *Did* you *say* you have/*had* no money?
B: Yes, I'm completely broke.
A: How *did* you *know* that I am/*was* Max Wilson?
B: Well, I remembered that you are/*were* tall, and wear/*wore* glasses.

A different kind of backshift is observed when a sentence describing speech or thought in the future contains a reported speech clause referring retrospectively to the present:

My wife will be sorry that she *missed* seeing you this evening.

(b) The ATTITUDINAL PAST, used with verbs expressing volition or mental state, reflects the tentative attitude of the speaker, rather than past time. In the following pairs, both the present and past tenses refer to a present state of mind, but the latter is somewhat more polite:

Do/*Did* you want to see me now?
I wonder/*wondered* if you could help us.

(c) The HYPOTHETICAL PAST is used in certain subordinate clauses, especially *if*-clauses, and expresses what is contrary to the belief or expectation of the speaker (*cf* 14.23):

If you really *worked* hard, you would soon get promoted. [1]
It's time we all *took* a rest. [2]
I wish I *had* a memory like yours. [3]

The hypothetical past, as in [1–3], implies the nonoccurrence of some state or event in the present or future. The implication of [1], for example, is that the hearer does *not* work hard.

Note [a] The past subjunctive singular form *were* (*cf* 3.62) is often considered preferable to the past indicative form *was* in sentences such as:
He talks as if he *were*/*was* the most powerful politician in the country.
Further details are given in 14.24.
[b] The past tense forms of modal auxiliaries (*could*, *would*, etc) frequently occur with special hypothetical force, and are somewhat restricted in their application to past time. These will be considered in some detail in 4.59–64.

Perfective and progressive aspects

4.17 The term ASPECT refers to a grammatical category which reflects the way in which the verb action is *regarded* or *experienced* with respect to time. Unlike tense, aspect is not deictic (*cf* 6.43), in the sense that it is not relative to the time of utterance. For some purposes, the two aspect constructions of English,

the perfective and the progressive (*cf* 3.54), can be seen as realizing a basic contrast of aspect between the action viewed as complete (perfective), and the action viewed as incomplete, *ie* in progress (imperfective or progressive). But this is an oversimplified view, as is clear as soon as we observe that these two aspects may combine within a single verb phrase (*eg*: *I have been reading* is both perfective and progressive). In fact, aspect is so closely connected in meaning with tense, that the distinction in English grammar between tense and aspect is little more than a terminological convenience which helps us to separate in our minds two different kinds of realization: the morphological realization of tense and the syntactic realization of aspect.

We have seen (*cf* 3.54*ff*) that tense and aspect combine freely in the complex verb phrase, and so the following system of contrasts, with corresponding terminological distinctions, will form a useful starting point:

Table 4.17

SYMBOL	NAME	EXAMPLE
Type B	present perfective (simple) past perfective (simple)	*he has examined* *he had examined*
Type C	present progressive (simple) past progressive (simple)	*he is examining* *he was examining*
Type BC	present perfective progressive past perfective progressive	*he has been examining* *he had been examining*

We have already used the word 'simple' to describe a verb phrase totally unmarked for aspect (simple present, simple past). By extension, we may also, to avoid ambiguity, use the term 'simple' for verb phrases which are unmarked for one of the two aspects, as indicated in *Table* 4.17.

Note [a] It has been traditional for grammars to refer to the above set of oppositions of tense and aspect as 'compound tenses', in which they would include such categories as the 'past perfect' (or 'pluperfect') tense. This terminology, modelled on that used for inflectional languages such as Latin, can be misleading when applied to English, and for this reason we prefer to limit, as mentioned before, the term 'tense' to the morphological opposition between present and past forms of the finite verb.
[b] Because of the close connection between the perfective construction and time, the perfective is commonly termed the 'perfective tense' (or 'perfect tense').

Perfective aspect

4.18 The overlap of meaning between tense and aspect is most problematic in English in the choice that has to be made between simple past and present perfective:

simple past: John *lived* in Paris for ten years.
present perfective: John *has lived* in Paris for ten years.

Here both sentences indicate a state of affairs before the present moment, but the simple past indicates that the period of residence has come to a close, whereas the present perfective indicates that the residence has continued up to the present time (and may even continue into the future). This kind of difference, although by no means invariable, is often summarized in the statement that the present perfective signifies past time 'with current relevance'.

In order to appreciate why 'current relevance' is a common implication of the present perfective, it is as well to begin with the most general definition of the perfective aspect. In its broadest possible interpretation, the perfective indicates ANTERIOR TIME; *ie* time preceding whatever time orientation is signalled by tense or by other elements of the sentence or its context. To illustrate this definition, we take a preliminary look not only at the present perfective, but at cases where the perfective does not cooccur with the present tense:

I *have* already *met* your sister. [1]
The flight was cancelled after we *had paid* for the tickets. [2]
If you *had listened* to me, you would have avoided mistakes. [3]
By next week, they *will have completed* their contract. [4]
I *may have left* the key at the office (last night). [5]
I am/was sorry *to have missed* the concert. [6]
She regrets/regretted *having abandoned* the plan. [7]

The common factor of meaning which the perfective brings to all these examples is sketched in *Fig* 4.18:

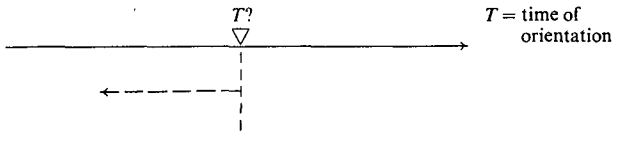

Fig 4.18 Anterior time zone

Note Perfective constructions are infrequent compared with nonperfective constructions. A corpus study of verb phrases has indicated that approximately ten per cent of finite verb phrases are perfective.

4.19 As the above figure shows, the perfective merely defines an anterior time zone (symbolized by the arrow ←—) within which the action of the verb takes place. The time of orientation (*T*?) is not fixed: with the present perfective [1], *T*? is equated with T_1, while with the past perfective, *T*? is equated with T_2 (a specifiable secondary time of orientation in the past). This is illustrated in [2] in 4.18 above, where *T*? (= T_2) refers to the time of cancelling the flight. In [3], however, the past perfective relates the event not to T_2, but to T_1, since the past tense indicates in this case not a past event, but a hypothetical event (*cf* the hypothetical past, 4.16). The conditional clause could be expanded:

If you had listened to me *before now* . . .

In [4] and [5], the infinitive perfective occurs after a modal auxiliary, and the time orientation derives not from the infinitive itself (which is tenseless), but from the modal. *Will* in [4] sets up an ancillary time orientation T_2 in the future, so that the meaning of the whole construction *will have completed* is 'past in future':

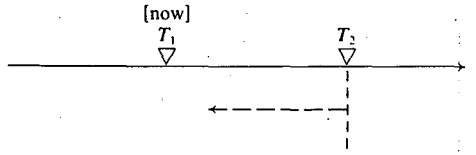

Fig 4.19 Past in future

In [5], on the other hand, the modal *may* has a present orientation, and *T*? is once again T_1. In the last two examples of 4.18, the perfective occurs in a nonfinite verb phrase, which, because it has no inherent time orientation, takes its orientation from the main verb. Hence the paraphrases below, in which the nonfinite clauses of [6] and [7] are replaced by finite subordinate clauses, require variation in the verb construction of the subordinate clause in correspondence with a similar variation in the main clause:

I ['m / was] sorry that I [*missed* / *(had) missed*] the concert. [6a]

She [regrets / regretted] that she [*abandoned* / *(had) abandoned*] the plan. [7a]

The past perfective is optional in the second variant of [6a] and [7a], for reasons explained in *Fig* 4.24b. These distinctions are neutralized when a nonfinite clause is used.

The overlap in the time-indicating functions of the past tense and the present perfective is clearly seen in the choice of paraphrasing [5] above either by the past tense [5a] or by the present perfective [5b]:

It is possible that I *left* the keys at the office (*last night*). [5a]
It is possible that I *have left* the keys at the office. [5b]

On the other hand, this example also shows that the present perfective is to some extent limited by the fact that it shares the same past time 'territory' as the simple past. If a time-position adverbial like *last night* is added to [5], then the finite verb paraphrase has to be the past tense [5a] rather than the perfective [5b]. In other words, [5c] is unacceptable:

*It is possible that I *have left* the keys at the office last night. [5c]

However, the rule of adverbial incompatibility which forbids [5c] is occasionally ignored; *cf* 4.23 Note [a] below.

Note The semantic overlap between the simple past and the present perfective gives rise to a further type of 'double marking' (*cf* 3.57, 4.24) where the perfective redundantly repeats the indication of anteriority present in the past tense: *We were glad to have seen you* can be used in a way which makes its meaning indistinguishable from that of *We were glad to see you*.

The present perfective

4.20 The examples in 4.18 have given evidence that 'past with current relevance' is not an adequate description of the meaning of the perfective aspect. Yet when we concentrate on the present perfective, there is indeed reason for such a description: the present perfective differs from the simple past in relating a past event/state to a present time orientation. Thus in situations (which are not unusual) where either the present perfective or the simple past can be appropriately used, it is generally felt that they are not interchangeable, but that the present perfective relates the action more directly to the present time. Compare:

Where did you put my purse? [1]
Where have you put my purse? [2]

The purpose of both of these questions may be to find the purse; but in [1] the speaker seems to ask the addressee to remember a past action; while in [2] the speaker apparently concentrates on the purse's present whereabouts. There are many such cases.

Leaving aside such virtual equivalences, we may now focus on the difference between the two constructions, contrasting the meanings of the simple past given in 4.14 with the following meanings of the simple present perfective:

(a) STATE LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT

That house *has been* empty for ages.
Have you *known* my sister for long?

(b) INDEFINITE EVENT(S) IN A PERIOD LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT

Have you (ever) *been* to Florence?
All our children *have had* measles.

(c) HABIT (*ie* recurrent event) IN A PERIOD LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT

Mr Terry *has sung* in this choir ever since he was a boy.
The province *has suffered* from disastrous floods throughout its history.

Of these meanings, (a) corresponds to the 'state past' use of the simple past, but differs from it in specifying that the state continues at least up to the present moment (*cf: That house was empty for ages – but now it's been sold*); (b) corresponds to the 'event past', but differs from it in that the past time in question is indefinite rather than definite (*cf: Did you go to Florence (last summer)?*); (c) corresponds to the 'habitual past', but, as with (a), the period identified must continue up to the present. Compare:

The journal *has been published* every month since 1850. [3]
The journal *was published* every month from 1850 to 1888. [4]

These three meanings may be represented in a diagram, *Fig* 4.20, which parallels that of *Figs* 4.7 and 4.14. It is normal for meanings (a) and (c) to be indicated by adverbials. A duration adverbial is virtually obligatory for both (a) and (c), and a frequency adverbial may also occur with (c), as in [3] above. Adverbials occurring with the indefinite past meaning will be mentioned in 4.22 below.

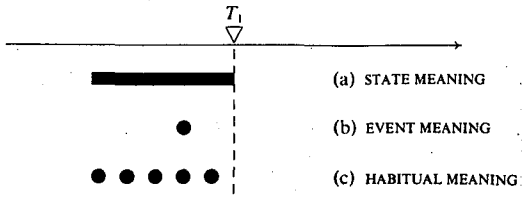

Fig 4.20 Meanings of the present perfective

Note In AmE there is a tendency to use the past tense in preference to the present perfective, especially for the indefinite past; *eg: Did you ever go to Florence?* (*cf* 4.13 Note [b], 4.22 Note [a]).

Variants of the indefinite past meaning

4.21 In reference to a single event in the past (meaning (b) above), the present perfective, particularly in BrE, is associated with three implications or connotations, each of which may or may not be applicable in a given instance. These implications are (i) that the relevant time zone leads up to the present; (ii) that the event is recent; and (iii) that the result of the action still obtains at the present time. The first of these implications is simply a restatement of what was said about the anterior time zone of the perfective in 4.18. The point to be made here is that the choice between the present perfective and the simple past is often determined by whether the speaker has in mind *an implicit time zone* which has not yet finished:

Have you seen the Javanese Art Exhibition? [yet]
Did you see the Javanese Art Exhibition? [when it was here]

The first of these implies that the Exhibition is still open; the second that the Exhibition has finished. From this concern with a period still existing at the present time, it is only a short step to the second implication often associated with the present perfective, *viz* that the event is recent. The simple present perfective is often used to report a piece of news:

Have you *heard* / *Did* you *hear* } the news? The president *has resigned*.

Because of this connotation of recency, B's reply in the following exchange must be considered absurdly inappropriate:

A: Has the postman left any letters? B: Yes, he did six months ago.

Since postmen in general deliver letters daily, the implicit time zone in this case would be no longer than a day.

4.22 The third connotation, that the result of the action still obtains, applies to dynamic conclusive verbs (*cf* 4.33–5), *ie* verbs whose meaning implies the accomplishment of a change of state:

The apples have all been eaten. [1]
My mother has recovered from her illness. [2]
Have any of the visitors arrived? [3]

The resultative connotation means, for example, that [1] implies 'There are no apples left'; that [2] implies 'My mother is now better'; and that [3] by implication asks the question 'Are any of the visitors here?'. This connotation is obviously closely connected with that of recency. Both the resultative and recency connotations can easily occur without adverbials. They do, however, underlie the tendency of the present perfective to cooccur with time adverbials such as *recently* and *just* (emphasizing recency), and with time relationship adverbials such as *already* and *yet* (*cf* 8.72):

The plane has *just* landed. [4]
I've *already* told Gillian about the party. [5]
Have the children come home *yet*? [6]

Significantly, time relationship adverbs such as *already* and *yet* can occur *either* with resultative verbs and the perfective aspect, as in [5] or [6], *or* with stative verbs referring to the results of such actions: *eg* [5] could be placed alongside *Gillian already knows about the party*, and [6] alongside *Are the children home yet?*

Note [a] In AmE, the simple past is often preferred to the present perfective for the variants of the indefinite past discussed in this section. Compare [6], for example, with *Did the children come home yet?* ⟨esp AmE⟩. Other AmE examples are: *I just came back*; *You told me already*; and without an adverb: *I'm tired – I had a long day*.
[b] The two perfective constructions for the verb *go*, namely *have gone* and *have been*, differ in that the former is resultative:
My sister has gone to Rome. [She is there now]
My sister has been to Rome. [at least once]
Thus *have gone* cannot normally be used in a habitual sense:
?My sister has gone to Rome frequently.

The use of adverbials with the simple past and the present perfective

4.23 The choice between the simple past and the present perfective is associated with time orientation, and therefore with the choice and interpretation of time adverbials. (For the classification of the relevant types of adverbials, *cf* 8.4, 8.51*ff*, 8.97*f*.) Examples are:

(a) ADVERBIALS ASSOCIATED WITH THE PAST TENSE:

I saw her { yesterday (evening). / a week ago. / earlier this week. / last Monday. } I saw her { the other day. / at four o'clock. / in the morning. / on Tuesday. }

(b) ADVERBIALS ASSOCIATED WITH THE PRESENT PERFECTIVE:

I haven't seen her { up to now. / since Monday. / since I met you. }

I haven't seen her { so far. / hitherto. ⟨formal⟩ }

(c) ADVERBIALS ASSOCIATED WITH BOTH:

I { saw / have seen } her { today. / this month. / this year. / recently. } I { saw / have seen } her { before. / this June. / once. / already. }

Group (a) contains time position adverbials which indicate a specific point or period in the past, and therefore require the past tense. In Group (b) are adverbials which designate a period leading up to the present moment, and are therefore appropriate to the present perfective. Group (c) is a mixed group of adverbials, some of which, like *this month*, designate a period which includes the present moment, while others have meanings which vary according to whether a present or past time orientation is intended. For example, *I have seen him once* contains *once* in a frequency sense ('how often'), while *I saw him once* contains *once* in a time position sense ('when').

Note [a] One quite often meets (especially in BrE) sentences in which the present perfective cooccurs with time adverbials of Group (a); *eg*:
A: Have you ever seen *Macbeth* on the stage?
B: Yes, I've seen it *ages ago*, when I was a child.
Examples such as this may be explained as performance errors, induced by B's copying the form of A's question. Such explanations may not, however, be so readily available in other cases, such as *They asked me about something I've said years ago*.
[b] With phrases like *this week* and *this month* referring to a present period of time, the choice between the two verb constructions reflects merely a difference of focus or orientation:
Did you read *Punch* this week? Have you read *Punch* this week?
But expressions such as *this March* and *this morning* may refer to a past period of time ('the March of this year', 'the morning of today') rather than to a period containing the present moment. Some speakers feel that the present perfective with such expressions implies that the period referred to is not in the past; *eg* that *I have seen her this March* can be spoken appropriately only in March, and that *I have seen her this morning* can be spoken appropriately only in the morning. Other speakers, however, do not acknowledge this restriction.

The past perfective

4.24 The past perfective usually has the meaning of 'past-in-the-past', and can be regarded as an anterior version either of the present perfective or of the simple past. Consider the following examples:

No wonder Miss Matthews' French was excellent – she *had lived* in Paris since childhood. [1]
When we bought it, the house *had been* empty for several years. [2]

These can be diagrammed as in *Fig* 4.24a, which is a special case of the general perfective diagram *Fig* 4.18:

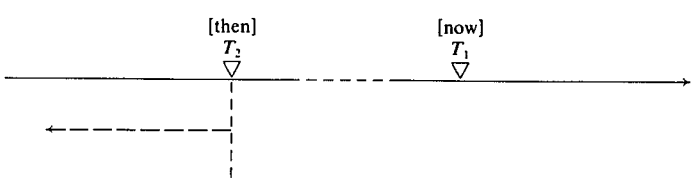

Fig 4.24a Meaning of the past perfective

More technically, the past perfective may be said to denote any event or state anterior to a time of orientation in the past. The three meanings of 'state', 'event' or 'habit' (as described in 4.14) can all occur. Whereas [1] and [2] have illustrated the 'state' meaning, [3] and [4] illustrate 'event' and 'habit' respectively:

The goalkeeper *had injured* his leg, and couldn't play. [3]
It was foolish to fire McCabe: in two seasons, he *had scored* more goals than any other player. [4]

When transposed into the 'past in the past' by means of the past perfective, the contrast between the simple past and the present perfective is neutralized:

My aunt *had lived* in Italy for four years. [5]
He *had died* in 1920, before his son was born. [6]

In [5], the four-year period could either be a period leading up to T_2, or a period which had ceased before T_2, as would be clear in:

In her youth, my aunt *had lived* in Italy for four years. That's why she spoke Italian so well.

Thus [5] could be a projection further into the past of either [7] or [8]:

My aunt *lived* in Italy for four years. [7]
My aunt *has lived* in Italy for four years. [8]

But of course, the past perfective does not have to refer to a more remote time than that referred to by the simple past. In some cases, particularly in a clause introduced by *after*, the two constructions can be more or less interchangeable:

I *ate* my lunch after Sandra *had come* back from her shopping. [9]

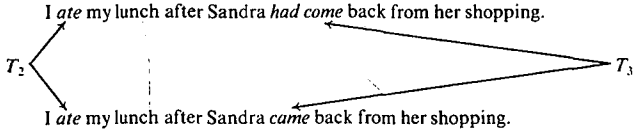

I *ate* my lunch after Sandra *came* back from her shopping. [10]

Fig 4.24b

After places the eating (T_2) after Sandra's return (which we may call T_3), so the past perfective, which places T_3 before T_2, is redundant. What difference it does make is a matter of the 'standpoint' of the speaker. In [9] the 'past in past' time T_3 is identified as being earlier than T_2 by the past perfective; but in [10] it is left to the conjunction *after* to signal this temporal relation.

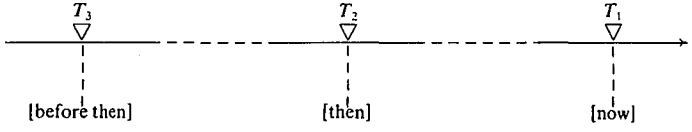

Fig 4.24c

Adverbials of time position, when used with the past perfective, can identify either T_2 or T_3. Placed initially, they often identify T_2:

When the police arrived, the thieves had run away. [11]

But in final position, the interpretation whereby the adverbial refers to T_3 is more likely:

The thieves had run away *when the police arrived*. [12]

Hence in [11], *when* is likely to be equivalent to *By the time that* . . ., but in [12] the *when* clause is likely to be an answer to the question: 'When had the thieves run away?'

Note [a] *When* in the sense of 'immediately after' behaves like *after* in sentences [9] and [10]. The following are therefore virtually synonymous:
I ate my lunch when Sandra *had come* back from her shopping.
I ate my lunch when Sandra *came* back from her shopping.
[b] There is one construction in which the past perfective clearly could not be replaced, as a means of referring to past time, by the simple past. This is an indirect speech construction, in which the past perfective indicates backshift (*cf* 14.31) into the more remote past: *I told her the parcel had not arrived.*
[c] The past perfective can also be a backshifted equivalent of the present perfective in expressions like *I hadn't noticed*; *I'm leaving – had you heard?* In these cases, a past time of orientation T_2 is implied by context.
[d] As well as past-in-past, the past perfective can be used to indicate hypothetical past (*cf* 4.19, 14.23, 15.35).

Progressive aspect

4.25 As its name suggests, the PROGRESSIVE ASPECT (also sometimes called the DURATIVE or CONTINUOUS aspect) indicates a happening IN PROGRESS at a given time. Compare:

SIMPLE PRESENT:	Joan *sings* well.	[1]
PRESENT PROGRESSIVE:	Joan *is singing* well.	[2]

These two sentences have the same tense, but different aspects. Notice the difference this makes to the meaning: *Joan sings well* refers to Joan's competence as a singer (that she has a good voice – a relatively permanent attribute); *Joan is singing well* refers to her performance on a particular occasion or during a particular season. The same formal contrast could be made for the past tense:

SIMPLE PAST:	Joan *sang* well.	[3]
PAST PROGRESSIVE:	Joan *was singing* well.	[4]

But in this case, the semantic contrast (assuming a 'past event' interpretation of [3]) is different: the simple past makes us see the event as a whole, while the past progressive makes us see it as an activity in progress. The different effect of the progressive in [1–2] and in [3–4] can be explained as follows.

The meaning of the progressive can be separated into three components, not all of which need be present in a given instance:

(a) the happening has DURATION
(b) the happening has LIMITED duration
(c) the happening is NOT NECESSARILY COMPLETE

The first two components add up to the concept of TEMPORARINESS. Thus in [2], the progressive signals that Joan's singing is a temporary rather than a permanent phenomenon; in [4], on the other hand, the progressive makes us see the event as enduring over a period, rather than as happening all at once. In [2], the progressive 'shrinks' the time span of *sings*; in [4] it 'stretches out' the time span of *sang*. This difference arises because component (a) is distinctive for single events; whereas component (b) is distinctive for states and habits. The component of incompletion (c) is distinctive chiefly in the case of certain types of dynamic verb meaning called CONCLUSIVE (*cf* 4.33–35):

I *read* a novel yesterday evening. [*ie* the whole novel]
I *was reading* a novel yesterday evening. [*ie* there is no implication that I finished the novel in the course of the evening]

Note [a] The progressive aspect is infrequent compared with the nonprogressive. A count of a large number of verb constructions has indicated that less than 5 per cent of verb phrases are progressive, whereas more than 95 per cent are nonprogressive. The same count shows that progressive forms are more frequent in conversation than in scientific discourse; also that they are marginally more frequent in conversational AmE than in conversational BrE.
[b] It may be argued that there is yet a fourth component in the meaning of the progressive: *viz* that the event described has an interrelationship or identity with another simultaneous event (*cf* 4.36 on 'temporal frames'):
Do you think he *was telling* the truth?
In this case, there is no suggestion of incompletion, but there does appear to be an unspoken implication '... when he said that'. This use of the progressive applies especially to verbs of speaking:
A: What did she mean by that?
B: I think she *was advising* you not to interfere.

State, event, and habit with the progressive

4.26 The three verb senses of state, event, and habit are differently interpreted with the progressive:

(a) STATE PROGRESSIVE
In many cases (*cf* 4.28–31) the progressive is unacceptable with stative verbs:

We *own* a house in the country.
*We *are owning* a house in the country.
*Sam's wife *was being* well-dressed.

This can be explained, in part, by the observation that stative verb meanings are inimical to the idea that some phenomenon is 'in progress'. States are 'like-parted' in that every segment of a state has the same character as any other segment: no progress is made. (Contrast *We are building a house in the country*.) Where the progressive does occur, it is felt to imply temporariness rather than permanence:

We *are living* in the country. [temporary residence]
We *live* in the country. [permanent residence]

(On the status of verbs such as *live*, *cf* 4.32).

(b) EVENT PROGRESSIVE
With event meanings (*cf* 4.33–5), the progressive conveys the idea that an event has duration, and has not yet come to an end. Contrast the instantaneous present (*cf* 4.7) meaning of [1] with the duration implied by [2] or [3]:

The referee *blows* his whistle. [1]
The referee *is blowing* his whistle. [2]
The train *was approaching*. [3]

Both [1] and [2] could be part of a radio commentary on a football match; but [1] would suggest a brief blast on the whistle, while [2] would tend to suggest a continuous or repeated blowing of the whistle. The present progressive is a more common way of referring to a present event than the simple present, because of the implication of duration that tends to accompany such events:

A: What { is Mary doing / *does Mary do } at this moment?
B: She { is watching / *watches } television.

(c) HABITUAL PROGRESSIVE
Combined with habitual meaning, the progressive implies that the repetition takes place over a limited period:

The professor *types* his own letters. [The habit is permanent.]
The professor *is typing* his own letters while his secretary is ill. [The habit is temporary.]
At that time she *was having* regular singing lessons.

Less frequently, the progressive combines with habitual meaning to suggest that every event in a sequence of events has duration/incompletion:

Whenever I see her, she'*s working* in the garden.
The Chief Secretary rises at 6.15 every morning. By 7 o'clock he has taken a light breakfast, and *is* already *reading* the morning newspapers.
Remember that when *you're taking* a rest, someone else *is* always *working*.

To have this interpretation, the clause must contain an adverbial of time position or of frequency.

Note [a] In combination with *always*, *continually*, or *forever*, the progressive loses its semantic component of 'temporariness':
Bill is { *continually* / *always* / *forever* } working late at the office. [4]
The progressive in such cases often imparts a subjective feeling of disapproval to the action described. Thus in [4], the speaker seems to suggest that working late at the office is an irritating or deplorable habit. This suggestion is stronger when the adverb *forever* is used. In other cases there may be no such derogatory implication: *A child is always learning*.

[b] With reference to the event progressive (b), a different kind of contrast with the instantaneous present is illustrated by certain verbs (*eg*: *write, enclose, send, hasten*) used with a 1st person subject in letter writing:

I {*write* / *am writing*} to inform you that. . . .

The simple present in such cases has a force similar to that of a performative (*cf* 4.7) such as *I (hereby) promise* . . ., and this analogy is indeed confirmed by the occurrence of *herewith* (an adverb similar to the *hereby* which can accompany performatives) in, *eg*: *I enclose herewith* . . . The simple present in this context is formal or official in tone, whereas the progressive is more informal, and more appropriate to a private letter.

Situation types

4.27 To explain the constraints on the use of the progressive, as well as for other purposes, it is useful to reconsider the stative/dynamic distinction of 4.4, and to subdivide verb meanings into a larger number of categories. One such subdivision is given in *Fig* 4.27, where 11 categories are recognized, and labelled *A*–*K*. It is important to note, also, that verb meanings can be separated only artificially, in this respect, from their complementations. For example, the verb *write* occurring *in vacuo* cannot be classified; for we may observe an important difference between *Jill is writing*, which designates an ongoing activity, and *Jill is writing a novel*, which designates an activity for which a goal or objective is implied (and for which the name 'accomplishment' will be used). More detailed explanation must now be given of the categories in *Fig* 4.27 opposite, and their relevance to the progressive.

Stative types *A* and *B*: qualities and states

4.28 Among stative situation types, a rough distinction may be drawn between QUALITIES (Type *A* in *Fig* 4.27) and STATES (Type *B* in *Fig* 4.27). Qualities are relatively permanent and inalienable properties of the subject referent. The primary verbs *be* and *have* are preeminently quality-introducing verbs; but they can also introduce the less permanent situation types called states. Contrast:

QUALITIES		STATES	
Mary is Canadian.	[1]	Mary is tired.	[3]
Mary has blue eyes.	[2]	Mary has a bad cold.	[4]

Normally such stative situation types do not occur with the progressive (this is especially true of qualities):

*Mary is being a Canadian.	[1a]	?*Mary is being tired.	[3a]
*Mary is having blue eyes.	[2a]	?Mary is having a bad cold.	[4a]

If sentences such as [1a–4a] do occur with the progressive, it is a sign that they have been in some sense reinterpreted as containing a dynamic predication. For example, *Peter is being awkward* signifies that 'awkwardness' is a form of behaviour or activity, not a permanent trait. If sentence [3a] were to occur, it would signify that Mary was *pretending* to be tired (*ie* indulging in a deceptive activity), rather than in a state of real lassitude.

Although verbs with stative meaning have sometimes been called 'nonprogressive', we should observe that the definition of stative verbs is not

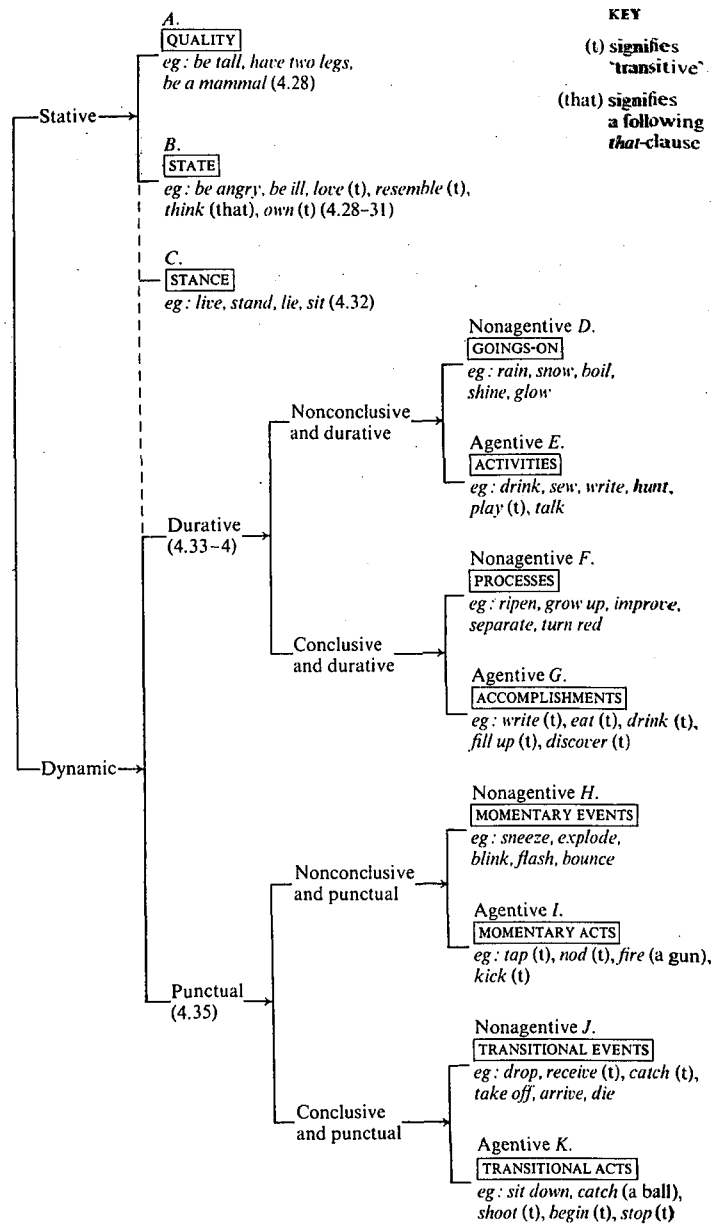

Fig 4.27 Situation types

so much that they are incompatible with the progressive, as that when they are combined with the progressive, some change of interpretation other than the addition of the 'temporary' meaning of the progressive aspect is required. This change of interpretation can usually be explained as a transfer, or reclassification of the verb as dynamic, *eg* as having a meaning of process or agentivity. The representative stative verbs *be*, *hope*, and *resemble*, are illustrated in *Table* 4.28:

Table 4.28

NORMAL NONPROGRESSIVE	NONNORMAL PROGRESSIVE	SPECIAL EFFECT OF PROGRESSIVE
The neighbours *are* friendly.	The neighbours *are being* friendly.	Suggests that 'friendliness' is a form of behaviour (perhaps insincere).
I *hope* you will come.	I *am hoping* you will come.	Makes the speaker's attitude more tentative and perhaps more polite (4.37).
Tina *resembles* her sister.	Tina *is resembling* her sister more and more.	With the comparative construction, the progressive turns the stative meaning into a process meaning (4.34).

Another characteristic of such verbs, when they are expressing states, is that they can be used in a 'temporary' sense in the simple present tense:

The manager *is* away this afternoon. [5]
The manager *works* this afternoon. [6]

For example, [5] is nonprogressive, and yet clearly refers to a limited period; in contrast, [6] cannot refer to a temporary state of affairs; instead, it has to be interpreted in a habitual sense ['The manager works this afternoon (being Tuesday) every week']. Equally, in [7]:

The music they *are playing sounds* like Mahler. [7]

the choice of the progressive with the dynamic verb *play* indicates the same limited time period as the use of the nonprogressive with the stative verb *sound*.

Note The constraints of the progressive cannot, it seems, be explained entirely in terms of meaning. Since the use of the progressive aspect has been undergoing grammatical extension over the past few hundred years, it is likely that its use is still changing at the present day, and that its description at any one time cannot be totally systematic. This would explain the difficulties faced by those attempting to account in every respect for the conditions for the use of the progressive in terms of semantic generalizations.

'Private' states

4.29 Many stative verbs denote 'private' states which can only be subjectively verified: *ie* states of mind, volition, attitude, etc. We may distinguish:

(a) INTELLECTUAL STATES (*eg*: *know*, *believe*, *think*, *wonder*, *suppose*, *imagine*, *realize*, *understand*), especially when followed by a nominal clause as object:

I { *understand* / *am understanding } that the offer has been accepted.

(b) STATES OF EMOTION OR ATTITUDE (*eg*: *intend*, *wish*, *want*, *like*, *dislike*, *disagree*, *pity*), especially when followed by clausal complementation:

She { likes / *is liking } to entertain the students.

Such verbs do, however, occur with the progressive when temporariness or tentativeness is being emphasized (*cf* 4.37), especially when the progressive is combined with the attitudinal past (*cf* 4.16):

What *were* you *wanting*?
I *was hoping* you would give me some advice.

The same applies to some verbs of Type (a) above (*eg think*).

(c) STATES OF PERCEPTION (*eg*: *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *smell*, *taste*), with which we may also place appearance as expressed by *seem* and *appear*. Perception verbs are more fully discussed in 4.30 below.

(d) STATES OF BODILY SENSATION (*eg*: *hurt*, *ache*, *tickle*, *itch*, *feel cold*). For predications belonging to this small but interesting category, the progressive and the nonprogressive are more or less interchangeable when referring to a temporary state:

My foot { *hurts.* / *is hurting.* } My back { *aches.* / *is aching.* }

Note The verb *feel* is versatile in that it can occur in all four categories above:
(a) I *feel* that the play will be a success. (c) The ground *feels* soft.
(b) We *felt* very angry. (d) She *feels* sick.
Feel can also occur as a dynamic perception verb (*cf* 4.30).

Verbs of perception

4.30 In the sphere of perception, stative meaning can be expressed in two ways: we can either place the perceiver in subject position, as in [1a–5a] below, or we can place the percept (or 'thing perceived') in subject position, as in [1b–5b]:

(i) PERCEIVER AT S

I *can see* the house. [1a]
We *could hear* singing. [2a]
I *could feel* vibrations. [3a]
Can you *smell* the soap? [4a]
I *could taste* the garlic in the soup. [5a]

(ii) PERCEPT AT S

The house *looks* empty. [1b]
The singing *sounded* far away. [2b]

The vibrations *felt* as if they could have been caused by an earthquake. [3b]
It *smells* of lavender. [4b]
The soup *tasted* strongly of garlic. [5b]

To express the state of perception with Type (i), we use the modal *can/could* followed by the verb of perception. The simple present or past would express dynamic meaning, so that the act of perception would be seen as an event with a defined beginning and endpoint. Compare:

I *heard* the bell ring. [event seen as a whole] [6]
I *could hear* the bells ringing. [perception continuing over a period] [7]

(A 'mixed-aspect' sentence *I heard the bells ringing* is also a possibility.) The present tense version of sentences like [6] is unusual:

I *hear* the bell ring! Aha, I *see* you!

Such sentences sound histrionic or playful because *hear* and *see* in this context exemplify the instantaneous present (*cf* 4.7). More acceptable examples with the simple present are sentences like *I smell something burning* and *Do you see anything moving outside?*, where emphasis is given to the suddenness of a perception.

Sentences such as [1a–5a] and [1b–5b] cannot normally occur with the progressive aspect, even though they are likely to refer to temporary rather than permanent states. This may be contrasted, however, with sentences containing the perception verbs *look* (*at*) and *listen* (*to*), which, being agentive and dynamic, describe an intentional activity, and occur quite commonly with the progressive:

A: What are you doing? B: { *I'm *seeing* / I'm *looking at* } these photographs.
{ ?*I'm *hearing* / I'm *listening to* } a new record.

The English language lacks special agentive perception verbs for the other three senses of touch, smell, and taste, so that the stative verbs *feel*, *smell*, and *taste* must do duty here, as well as for the two stative meanings:

What are you doing? { I'm *feeling* for the light switch. / I'm *smelling* the roses. / I'm *tasting* the wine, to see how sweet it is. }

In summary, then, we may display the four distinct uses of perception verbs as in *Table* 4.30.

Other verbs of similar behaviour to *see*, *hear*, etc are *perceive* and *detect*.

Note [a] *Look* in sense 'percept at S' is exceptional in occurring commonly with the progressive:
You { *look* / *are looking* } tired this evening.
There is little discernible difference between the progressive and nonprogressive variants here.
[b] Of course, there are nonperceptual uses of the verbs in *Table* 4.30. These include the use of *see* in the sense of 'meet': *I'm seeing the manager tomorrow.*

Table 4.30 Perception verbs

STATIVE		DYNAMIC	
PERCEPT AT S	PERCEIVER AT S	NONAGENTIVE	AGENTIVE
look	can/could *see*	*see*	*look (at)*
sound	can/could *hear*	*hear*	*listen (to)*
feel	can/could *feel*	*feel*	*feel*
smell	can/could *smell*	*smell*	*smell*
taste	can/could *taste*	*taste*	*taste*

[c] Note the exceptional use of *see* and *hear* with the progressive (focusing on the process of perception) in:
I need some spectacles. I'*m* not *seeing* things so well these days.
A: Did you hear a bell ring just then?
B: No. I can't hear a thing.
A: There it goes again! { I *am hearing* it now. / I *can hear* it now. }
In the following, too, the exceptional occurrence of the progressive seems to arise from perception being treated as an ongoing process: *Your soup's tasting better every day*; *My scarf is no longer smelling of lavender*. Such examples are very unusual, however.

Other states of 'being' and 'having'

4.31 The main verbs *be* and *have*, although they can both be used in dynamic senses, are the most central and characteristic of stative verbs, and can frequently be used in the paraphrasing of other stative verbs:

We *agree* with you. ~ We *are in agreement with* you.
The water *tasted* bitter. ~ The water *had* a bitter *taste*.

Apart from the 'private' verbs discussed in 4.29–30, there are other verbs which are paraphrasable in this way, and can be fittingly called 'verbs of being and having':

The box *contains* a necklace. [= 'A necklace is in the box']
The can *holds* two gallons. [= '. . . has a capacity of . . .']
Your age doesn't *matter*. [= '. . . is not important']
It *depends* on the weather. [= '. . . is dependent on . . .']
Jim *resembles* his sister. [= '. . . is like . . .']
She *belongs* to the tennis club. [= '. . . is a member of . . .']

These verbs also reveal their stative character in the above senses by their unacceptability with the progressive: **The box is containing a necklace*, etc.

Note Again, exceptional uses of these as 'process' verbs may be found; *eg*: *How much was the tank containing when you last inspected it?*

Type *C*: stance

4.32 In addition to the stative verbs noted above, there is a small but important class of verbs which express the situation type we will call STANCE, and which are intermediate between the stative and dynamic categories. The main stance verbs are *live*, *stand*, *sit* and *lie*, and they are characterized by their

ability to be used both (a) with the nonprogressive to express a permanent state, and (b) with the progressive to express a temporary state:

James *lives* in Copenhagen. [permanent residence]
James *is living* in Copenhagen. [temporary residence]

The city *lies* on the coast. [permanent position]
People *were lying* on the beach. [temporary posture]

His statue *stands* in the city square. [permanent position]
He *is standing* over there. [temporary posture]

Similar possibilities exist with the perfective aspect: the perfective progressive, as well as the simple perfective, can be used to refer to a state leading up to the present:

I have *sat* here for over two hours. [1]
I have *been sitting* here for over two hours. [2]

Speakers differ, however, in judging how to choose between the constructions of [1] and [2]. Some speakers feel that [2] suggests a more temporary state, whereas others feel there is little to choose between the two variants. There is also sometimes a feeling that [1] is different from [2] in implying that the 'sitting' is concluded at the present moment, while [2] implies that the posture may well continue into the future.

Because of its intermediate status, the stance action type illustrates an element of gradience (*cf* 2.60) in the stative/dynamic contrast. At one end of the stative/dynamic scale, as *Fig* 4.27 shows, there are acts which lack appreciable duration, such as *nod* and *arrive*; at the other end, there are permanent qualities such as *be tall*. To some extent, the stative/dynamic dichotomy is an artificial division of this continuum. We move now to the bottom part of *Fig* 4.27, in order to consider the different varieties of dynamic meaning.

Dynamic types *D–K*

4.33 Among dynamic situation types in *Fig* 4.27, we have to distinguish eight types according to three binary oppositions:

Table 4.33 Dynamic situation types

	Durative		Punctual	
Non-conclusive	*D* GOINGS-ON	*E* ACTIVITIES	*H* MOMENTARY EVENTS	*I* MOMENTARY ACTS
Conclusive	*F* PROCESSES	*G* ACCOMPLISHMENTS	*J* TRANSITIONAL EVENTS	*K* TRANSITIONAL ACTS
	Nonagentive	Agentive	Nonagentive	Agentive

The DURATIVE/PUNCTUAL distinction separates happenings which are capable of having duration from those which are not. Since durative situation types take place over a (normally limited) period of time, they characteristically combine with the progressive. Punctual situation types, on the other hand, are theoretically incompatible with the progressive aspect: they can occur with the progressive, but only through a special interpretation (*cf* 4.35).

The CONCLUSIVE/NONCONCLUSIVE contrast draws a line between those situation types which result in a change of state and those which do not. For example, it is essential to the meaning of *opened* in *She opened the door* that the door ends up in a state of being open, which is different from the state in which it started. The notions of completion and incompletion apply to the conclusive situation types, but not to the nonconclusive ones. Conclusive situation types are those which allow a resultative interpretation of the perfective aspect (*cf* 4.22), *eg*: *The weather has improved* implies that 'the weather *is now better*'.

The AGENTIVE/NONAGENTIVE contrast is illustrated by *John was thinking* and *The sun was shining*. The first is agentive, in contrast to the second, because it implies that the subject refers to an agent or 'doer' of the action. The 'doer' is typically human, and is the deliberate or self-activating initiator of the action. To some extent, the agentive/nonagentive boundary is unclear; but agentive situation types are by definition dynamic rather than stative. The substitute verb *do* (*cf* 12.26) can substitute for an agentive situation type.

All dynamic situation types can combine with the progressive aspect, but they have various implications for the interpretation of the progressive, and it is to these that we now turn.

Durative situation types

4.34 Type *D*: GOINGS-ON
These are 'activities' carried out by inanimate forces; *eg*:

It *is raining*. The wind *is blowing* hard.
Is your watch *working*? The engine *was running* smoothly.

The difference between this type and Type *E* is that Type *E* is agentive.

Type *E*: ACTIVITIES
These (in contrast with Type *G*) are typically expressed by intransitive verbs with animate subjects:

Jill was writing/working/singing/dancing/eating/sewing/swimming/ etc.

But they also occur with some (normally noncount) direct objects:

The children are playing *chess*. Norman is reading *poetry*.

and occasionally with the passive: *The approaches to the city were being watched*.

Type *F*: PROCESSES
These denote a change of state taking place over a period:

The weather is *getting* warmer.
Our economic prospects *are* now *improving*.
The sun *is ripening* our tomatoes nicely.

As with Type *G*, the progressive with this type indicates the *incompleteness* of the change.

Type *G*: ACCOMPLISHMENTS
These denote an action or activity which takes place over a period and has a goal or endpoint. Intransitive verbs placed under Type *E* 'Activities' generally become accomplishments when a direct object or an adverbial of destination is added:

Jill *is knitting* herself a sweater.
The boys *were swimming* across the estuary.

By these additions, an activity becomes a task with a defined conclusion.
But the progressive indicates, with both processes and accomplishments, that the task was not necessarily completed:

The boys *were swimming* across the estuary, but a giant wave made them turn back.
One of the boys *was drowning*, but I dived in and saved him.

(*Cf*: **One of the boys drowned, but I dived in and saved him.*)
With accomplishments, there is a significant contrast between the constructions *finish V-ing* and *stop V-ing*:

They have *finished* widening the road. [The task is complete.]
They have *stopped* widening the road. [The task is not necessarily complete, but the activity has ceased.]

Punctual situation types

4.35 Types *H* and *I*: MOMENTARY EVENTS AND ACTS
The only difference between these two types is that *H* is nonagentive:

The tops of the trees *were waving* in the wind, and the branches *were shaking* and *knocking* against the side of the house. Downstairs, a door *was banging*.

In this description, the verbs *knock* and *bang* can be said to describe momentary events (*ie* events effectively without duration) and when they are used with the progressive, we cannot make sense of them except by supposing that some repetition of the event took place. The same is true with momentary acts, expressed by verbs such as *nod* (when transitive), *fire*, and *jump*:

John *was nodding* his head.
Someone *was firing* at us.
Kirov's horse *is jumping* well.

For example, *Someone was tapping on the window* would be inappropriate if there was only one tap. In this respect, momentary event verbs may be likened to count nouns such as *germ, pea, oat, hair, lentil*, which refer to small objects, and for which the singular count use (*a germ, a hair*, etc) is exceptional in comparison with the plural or noncount use. (On the analogy between noun and verb categories, *cf* 4.4.)

Types *J* and *K*: TRANSITIONAL EVENTS AND ACTS
These differ from Types *F* and *G* in that they have little or no duration, and from Types *H* and *I* in that they involve a consequent change of state. Transitional events are nonagentive:

The train *is arriving* at platform 4.
The queen *was dying*.

Transitional acts are agentive:

I'*m stopping* the car at this garage.
It looks as if Juarez *is scoring* another goal.

Again, since the meaning of the predication effectively excludes duration, the progressive requires a special interpretation. In this case, the interpretation is likely to be anticipatory; *ie* that the progressive refers to a period LEADING UP TO the change of state: *eg*: *The Boeing 747 is taking off* refers to the accelerating of the plane preparatory to the actual take-off.

Note In other contexts, for example when the verb has a plural subject or object, a repetitive rather than anticipatory interpretation of such verb meanings is possible:
At the airport, several freight aircraft *were taking off* noisily.

Progressive aspect in relation to tense

4.36 The progressive generally has the effect of surrounding a particular event or point of time with a 'temporal frame', which can be diagrammed:

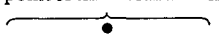

That is, within the flow of time, there is some point of orientation from which the temporary event or state described by the verb can be seen to stretch into the future and into the past. With the present progressive, the time of orientation is normally 'now', although it can also be a recurrent time or an imaginary time, in accordance with the interpretation of the habitual progressive or the historic or fictional present:

When the eight o'clock news comes on, I'*m* already *travelling* to work.
The gunfire *is growing* louder ahead of us, as suddenly a fearful hush descends upon our company.

With the past tense, again the 'temporal frame' is often implied, this time by reference to a past time of orientation T_2 (*cf* 4.11–12):

A moment later, we *were hurrying* for shelter beneath the trees.

Whereas the relationship between two simple past forms is normally one of TIME-SEQUENCE, the relationship between a past progressive and simple past form is one of TIME-INCLUSION:

When we *arrived*, Jan *made* some fresh coffee.
When we *arrived*, Jan *was making* some fresh coffee.

(*Cf* 14.27 Note [a] for exceptions.) The first example tells us that the coffee-making followed the arrival; the second, that the arrival took place during the coffee-making. The 'temporal frame', however, is not a necessary condition of the past progressive:

We *were watching* the match all afternoon.

Since the adverbial *all afternoon* here refers to a longish period, there is no implication that the match forms a 'temporal frame' around the afternoon.

Note The idea of a 'temporal frame' is related to that of 'interrelationship or identity' discussed in 4.25 Note [b]; *cf*: *If he said that, he was lying.*

Other uses of the progressive aspect

4.37 In addition to its major function of indicating temporariness, the progressive also has the following special uses:

(a) It may be used to refer to the future or to the future in the past (*cf* 4.44, 4.48):

Are you *going* to the meeting (tomorrow)?
They *were getting* married the following spring.

On the future semi-auxiliary construction *be going to* + infinitive, *cf* 4.43.

(b) It may be used with the attitudinal past tense or the present tense, to refer tentatively to a present wish or attitude:

I'*m hoping* to borrow some money.
I *was wondering* if you could help me.

Contrast these sentences with the less tentative, and potentially less polite, use of the simple present:

I *hope* to borrow some money.
I *wonder* if you can help me.

Particularly when combined with the attitudinal past tense (*cf* 4.16), such forms enable us to avoid the impoliteness which might well result from expressing one's attitude too directly, *eg* in making a request.

(c) It may be used especially following the auxiliary *will* (or *shall*) with the special implication that the action will take place 'as a matter of course' in the future (*cf* 4.46):

I'*ll be seeing* you next week.

Note The 'matter-of-course' implication of *will* (or *shall*) with the progressive is also found with other modal auxiliaries (*cf* 4.65 Note [a]), and possibly also with the past progressive in conversational contexts; *eg*: *I was talking to Ann, and she was telling me that the job is still vacant.* In contrast to the simple past *talked* and *told*, the progressive here suggests a casual chat rather than a purposeful discussion.

Perfective progressive

4.38 When the perfective and progressive aspects are combined in the same verb phrase (*eg*: *has been working*), the features of meaning associated with each of them are also combined. Nevertheless, the perfective progressive has a semantic range that is not entirely predictable from the meanings of its components.

Of the three features associated with the main meaning of the progressive (*cf* 4.25), DURATION, LIMITATION OF DURATION, and POSSIBLE INCOMPLETENESS, the first two give the perfective progressive a sense of 'temporariness', seen in these examples:

I'*ve been writing* a letter to my nephew.
How *have* you *been getting* on?
It'*s been snowing* again.

These sentences contain durative verbs which typically go with the progressive aspect, and the meaning of the construction is roughly that of TEMPORARY SITUATION LEADING UP TO THE PRESENT, comparable to the state-up-to-the-present use of the simple perfective (*cf* 4.18*ff*). With verbs such as *live*, *stand*, *lie*, etc, however, the limitation of duration is weak, and is not felt at all by some speakers:

We'*ve lived* in Europe all our lives. [1]
We'*ve been living* in Europe all our lives. [2]

Because of the lengthy time scale [2] is less likely than [1], but nevertheless [2] is by no means unacceptable.

The element of 'limited duration' makes it difficult to use the perfective progressive with punctual verbs:

He *has been starting* his car. [3]
?*He *has been starting* his book. [4]

Of these, [3] makes sense, although it reflects on the reliability of the car. On the other hand, [4] is nonsensical because it assigns duration to something which cannot have duration: the only way to make sense of it is to construe it as an ironical remark 'He has been trying/intending to start his book', in accordance with the anticipatory (*cf* 4.35) or future (*cf* 4.37) interpretation of the progressive.

4.39 The feature of possible incompleteness becomes evident when the perfective progressive is combined with accomplishment and process predications:

I've {cleaned / been cleaning} the windows.

The simple perfective here has a resultative meaning: 'The windows are now clean'. But the perfective progressive can be used even if the job is not finished:

{A: Have you cleaned the windows?
B: No, I haven't finished them yet.

{A: Have you been cleaning the windows?
B: Yes, but I haven't finished them yet.

{*I've written a novel, but I haven't finished it.
I've been writing a novel, but I haven't finished it.

Because of its resultative meaning, the simple perfective cannot be used with accomplishment verbs when the clause contains an adverbial of duration:

They'*ve been repairing* the road *for months.*
*They'*ve repaired* the road *for months.*

An exception to this, however, occurs where the duration adverbial applies to the resultant state itself or where the clause is negative (*cf* 8.57*ff*):

They'*ve gone* to Spain *for two weeks.*
They *haven't repaired* the road *for years.*

If a conclusive verb is not accompanied by an adverbial of duration, the implication is often that the effects of the happening are still visible:

You've been fighting again. ['I can tell that from your black eye']
It's been snowing. ['Look, the ground is white']
Have you been crying? ['Your eyes are red']

In such cases, the activity indicated by the verb is assumed to have recently ceased. When accompanied by an adverbial of duration, however, the meaning of the verb is assumed to be still operative up to the present, and possibly to persist in the future:

He'*s been losing* money for years (and will probably continue to do so).

We may summarize the main use of the perfective progressive as follows:

The happening (a) has (limited) duration
(b) continues up to the present or recent past
(c) need not be complete
(d) may have effects which are still apparent.

4.40 As an additional possibility, the present perfective progressive may be used in the iterative sense of TEMPORARY HABIT UP TO THE PRESENT, comparable to the habitual use of the present perfective (*cf* 4.20):

Martin *has been scoring* plenty of goals (this season).
I've *been working* on the night shift for several weeks.

Again, it is implied that the repetition of the activity described may continue into the future.

The meaning of the perfective progressive may combine with those of the past tense and of the modal verbs:

The fire *had been raging* for over a week. [1]
You *should have been looking* after the baby. [2]
By Friday, we *will have been living here* for ten years. [3]

[1] and [3] require an appropriate shift of the time of orientation from 'now' (T_1) to a point (T_2) in the past or the future. As has already been explained with reference to the simple perfective (*cf* 4.19), the perfective progressive when combined with the past tense or a modal verb loses its restriction to a period of time leading up to the point of orientation. It may thus, unlike the simple present perfective, be followed by an adverbial of time position. Contrast:

*I *have been talking* to him at the time of the murder.
I *had been talking* to him at the time of the murder.
I *must have been talking* to him at the time of the murder.

Note [a] The perfective progressive does not, however, combine freely with the passive voice. The following sentence is felt to be awkward:
The road *has been being repaired* for months.
The awkwardness of the perfective progressive passive is probably due in part to the juxtaposition of two forms of the verb *be* (*cf* 3.56). (*The road has been getting repaired for months*, for example, is more acceptable.)
[b] The perfective progressive can be ambiguous between habitual and nonhabitual readings. Such ambiguities, however, are unlikely to cause genuine misunderstanding:
I *have been cycling* to work for the last three weeks.
The nonhabitual reading, implying that the speaker has been cycling continuously for three weeks, in this case is factually absurd, but might provoke the comic response: *So why don't you get a job nearer home?*

Some means of expressing future time

4.41 Although according to the analysis we have adopted (*cf* 4.3) there is no future tense in English, it is useful at this point to consider the most important constructions for expressing future time, particularly in independent clauses (concerning dependent clauses, *cf* 14.22). Futurity, modality, and aspect are closely interrelated, and this is reflected in the fact that future time is rendered by means of modal auxiliaries, by semi-auxiliaries, or by the simple present or present progressive forms.

Will/shall + infinitive

4.42 The most common way of expressing futurity is the modal auxiliary construction with *will*, *shall*, or '*ll*:

He *will be* here in half an hour. [1]
Will you *need* any help? [2]
No doubt I'*ll see* you next week. [3]
If the crop fails there *will be* a famine. [4]

The modal verb *will* (or the contracted form '*ll*; *cf* 3.39–40) is used with future meaning with subjects of all three persons. The infrequent modal *shall* is used (especially in Southern Standard BrE) to indicate futurity, but only with a first person subject:

No doubt I *shall see* you next week. [3a]

Although *shall* and, particularly, *will* are the closest approximations to a colourless, neutral future, they do cover a range of meanings with modal colouring, from prediction to volition (*cf* 4.57*f*). A strong teaching tradition,

especially in BrE, has upheld the use of *shall* as the correct form, in preference to *will*, with a first person subject in formal style.

Predictive *will* is particularly common in the clause superordinate to conditional or temporal clauses:

You'*ll feel* better if/when you take this medicine. [5]

Even where no conditional clause is present, there is nevertheless frequently an implication that the future event or state of affairs will result from, or depend on, the fulfilment of certain future conditions which may not be specified:

Take this medicine. You'*ll feel* better in an hour or so.
How can you be sure that there *will be* a change of government at the next election?

Turning to the volitional examples, *will* and *shall* especially with the 1st and 2nd persons often express intention, *eg* in making agreements, promises, threats, etc:

How soon *will* you *announce* your decision?
We *shall ensure* that the repairs are carried out according to your wishes.

Other volitional and obligational uses are discussed in 4.57*f*.

Note With a 2nd or 3rd person subject, *will* can also express an abrupt and quasi-military command:
You *will do* as I say.
Officers *will report* for duty at 0600 hours.

Be going to + infinitive

4.43 Another construction frequently used to express futurity, especially in informal speech, is *be going to* followed by the infinitive. Its general meaning is 'future fulfilment of the present'. Looked at more carefully, the construction has two more specific meanings, of which one, FUTURE FULFILMENT OF PRESENT INTENTION, is chiefly associated with personal subjects and agentive verbs:

When *are* you *going to get* married?
Leila *is going to lend* us her camera.
I'*m going to complain* if things don't improve.

The other meaning, FUTURE RESULT OF PRESENT CAUSE, is found with both personal and nonpersonal subjects:

It'*s going to rain*. She'*s going to have* a baby.
There'*s going to be trouble*. You'*re going to get* soaked.

As these examples suggest, the association of *be going to* with the present often leads to the assumption that it indicates the proximity of the future event. Unlike *will* and *'ll*, *be going to* is not generally used in the clause superordinate to a conditional clause:

If you leave now, you'*ll* never *regret* it.
?If you leave now, you *are* never *going to regret* it.

Note However, *be going to* does occur with conditional sentences like the following:
If you're expecting a first-class hotel, you'*re going to be* disappointed. [1]
Since the time of orientation for *be going to* is the present, it is used in conditional sentences only when the causal or contingent link between the meanings of the two clauses exists at the present time. In the more usual case, this link is placed in the future, and so *will* is used instead. The special import of *be going to* in [1] can be emphasized by adding before the subject of the main clause: 'I can already tell you that . . .'

Present progressive

4.44 The present progressive can refer to a future happening anticipated in the present. Its basic meaning is: FUTURE ARISING FROM PRESENT ARRANGEMENT, PLAN, OR PROGRAMME:

The orchestra *is playing* a Mozart symphony after this.
The match *is starting* at 2.30 (tomorrow).
I'*m taking* the children to the zoo (on Saturday).

We have seen that the progressive cannot normally be used with certain stative verb types (*eg* with the verb *be*) and this restriction also applies to the use of the progressive for future time:

*Strawberries are being more expensive next week.
(*cf*: Strawberries will be more expensive next week.)

Like *be going to*, the present progressive suggests that the future happening is imminent, unless this is contradicted by a more distant time mentioned in the context. Contrast:

That does it! I'm leaving. ['Soon' is understood]
I'm leaving the university *in two years' time*. [when I've finished my studies]

Note [a] It is easy to confuse this future use of the present progressive with the anticipatory use of the present progressive with transitional events or acts (*cf* 4.35). In principle, however, the distinction is clear between a future event which is planned and imminent, and a future event for which preparations are already taking place. *I'm leaving*, for example, could be understood in either of these ways, but *The old man was dying* can only be understood in the anticipatory sense.
[b] The future use of the present progressive is limited to actions brought about by human endeavour. Hence a sentence such as **The trees are losing their leaves soon* is inappropriate, implying that a tree has control over its future. Similarly, *He's dying next week* could only refer to a planned death, *eg* an execution.

Simple present

4.45 The simple present is, after the *will/shall* construction, the next most common means of referring to future actions in English (*cf* 4.9). This future use of the simple present is frequent, however, only in dependent clauses, where it is regularly used after conditional and temporal conjunctions such as *if* and *when*, as well as in some *that*-clauses (see further 14.22):

What will you say if I *marry* the boss?
At this rate, the guests will be drunk before they *leave*.

In main clauses, the future use of the simple present may be said to represent a marked future of unusual definiteness, attributing to the future the degree of certainty one normally associates with the present and the past. It is used, for example, for statements about the calendar:

Tomorrow *is* Thursday. School *finishes* on 21st March.

Also to describe immutable events or 'fixtures', whether or not these are determined by human planning:

When *is* high tide? What time *does* the match *begin*?

The simple present, like the progressive (*cf* 4.44), is used with dynamic transitional verbs *arrive*, *come*, *leave*, etc, both constructions having the meaning of 'plan' or 'programme':

The plane { takes off / is taking off } at 20:30 tonight. [1a] [1b]

The simple present, however, stresses the predetermined nature of the happening: while [1b] could well refer to a rescheduled take-off time (as a result, say, of a delay), this interpretation of [1a] would be unlikely.

Note [a] Although the simple present is the normal type of future construction to use in conditional clauses, the future use of *will* and *be going to* in such clauses is by no means impossible:

If the crops { *are* / *will be* } *ruined* by next month's drought, we'll have to buy in extra food.

If you'*re* (*going to be*) playing tennis against Jenny, you'd better borrow my racquet.

On the differences of meaning here, *cf* 14.22.

[b] Corresponding to the future use of the simple present in adverbial clauses is the following use of the present perfective referring to the past in the future:

The winner will be declared when every competitor *has finished* the course.

Will /shall + progressive infinitive

4.46 The modal verb construction discussed in 4.42 can be used with the progressive infinitive in a way which simply combines reference to a future time with the 'temporal frame' (*cf* 4.36) associated with the progressive:

When you reach the end of the bridge, I'*ll be waiting* there to show you the way.

This calls for no special comment. There is, however, a separate use of the *will/shall* + progressive construction to denote 'FUTURE AS A MATTER OF COURSE'. The use of this combination avoids the interpretation (to which *will*, *shall*, and *be going to* are liable) of volition, intention, promise, etc:

We'*ll be flying* at 30 000 feet.

This, spoken by the pilot of an aircraft to his passengers, means '30 000 feet is the normal and expected altitude for the flight'. If, on the other hand, the pilot said:

We'*ll fly* at 30 000 feet.

the impression might be quite different: it could well be that the pilot had just decided to fly at the specified height. Because of such differences, it is often an advantage to use this complex construction in situations where the nonprogressive with *will/shall* might be lacking in tact or consideration:

When *will* you { *pay* back / *be paying* back } the money? [1] [2]

Whereas [1] may seem like a rather abrupt demand for repayment, [2] seems more tactful, since it implies that the repayment is something which will happen 'as a matter of course'. In describing future happenings in which there is no direct human involvement, however, the choice between the progressive and nonprogressive alternatives is less important:

The next train to London *will* { *arrive* / *be arriving* } at platform four.

The only difference that need be mentioned here is that the progressive construction tends to be more informal than the ordinary nonprogressive construction.

Note Verbs that do not normally take the progressive can do so after future *will/shall* in this 'matter-of-course' sense: *He'll be owning his own house next.*

Concluding comments on constructions expressing future time

4.47 The foregoing five constructions are the most important methods of referring to future time. It has been found that in BrE the simple *will/shall* construction is much the most usual, followed by the simple present construction. (But by far the majority of simple present examples with future reference occur in dependent clauses, and are syntactically conditioned.) Of the remaining three constructions, *be going to* is the most common, followed by the present progressive, and finally by the *will/shall* + progressive construction. Although this last construction is least frequent, it is quite common in conversational contexts, and appears to be becoming more common.

Among other constructions referring to the future, reference must be made to the two quasi-auxiliary constructions *be to* + infinitive (*cf* 3.45*f*) and *be about to* + infinitive (*cf* 3.47). *Be to* is quite often used to refer to a future arrangement or plan:

Their daughter *is to be* married soon.
There'*s to be* an official inquiry.

In this use, *be to* + infinitive resembles the future use of the simple present (*cf* 4.45), except that the simple present cannot normally refer to the future unless accompanied by a time adverbial or some other future-referring expression.

Be about to, on the other hand, expresses near future:

The train *is about to* leave.
I'*m about to* read your essay.

The meaning of *be about to* could be alternatively expressed by *be on the point of* + *V-ing*, or by *be going to* together with the adverb *just* (meaning 'very soon'): *I'm just going to read your essay.*

This by no means exhausts the variety of verb constructions referring to future time. Futurity is often a secondary connotation of other modals than *will/shall*: *eg* with a dynamic verb, *may* or *must* usually locates the event in the future: *The weather may improve* (*tomorrow*); *You must have dinner with us* (*sometime soon*). The same secondary connotation of futurity is found with

semi-auxiliaries such as *be sure to*, *be bound to* (*cf* 3.47), not to mention lexical verbs such as *hope* and *intend*.

While it is valuable to note differences of meaning between different future constructions, these differences should not be exaggerated. There are occasions where the choice of one construction (say *will* + infinitive) rather than another (say *be going to* + infinitive) has a scarcely perceptible effect on meaning. At the same time, there are differences of acceptability and usage which should not be ignored. Particularly, regarding the choice between *will* and *be going to*:

(a) *Will* is usually preferred to *be going to* in formal style.
(b) *Be going to* tends not to be repeated in a text referring pervasively to the future. Thus a weather forecast may run as follows:

> Tomorrow *is going to* be another cold day. There *will* be snow on high ground, and many mountain roads *will* be impassable. . . .

Note *Be to* + infinitive in referring to the future also conveys the connotations of 'requirement' and 'destiny' in examples such as:
You *are to be* back by 10 o'clock. ['. . . required to be . . .']
If he's *to succeed* in his new profession, he must try harder.
The prisoner *is to be* handed over to the civil authorities for trial.

Future time in the past

4.48 Most of the future constructions just discussed can be used in the past tense to describe something which is in the future when seen from a viewpoint in the past.

(a) MODAL VERB CONSTRUCTION with *would* ⟨rare; literary narrative style⟩
> The time was not far off when he *would* regret this decision.

(b) *BE GOING TO* + INFINITIVE (often with the sense of 'unfulfilled intention')
> You *were going to* give me your address. ['. . . but you didn't . . .']
> The police *were going to* charge her, but at last she persuaded them she was innocent.

(c) PAST PROGRESSIVE (arrangement predetermined in the past)
> I *was meeting* him in Bordeaux the next day.

(d) *BE TO* + INFINITIVE ⟨formal⟩; (i) = 'was destined to'; (ii) = 'arrangement'
> (i) He *was* eventually *to* end up in the bankruptcy court.
> (ii) The meeting *was to* be held the following week.

(e) *BE ABOUT TO* + INFINITIVE ('on the point of'; often with the sense of 'unfulfilled intention')
> He *was about to* hit me.

Of all these constructions, only (a) and (di) can be considered genuine expressions of future-in-the-past meaning, in that they alone can be understood to guarantee the fulfilment of the happening in question. For instance:

> Few could have imagined at that time that this brave young officer $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{was to be}\\ \textit{would be}\end{matrix}\right\}$ the first President of the United States of America.

This sentence implies that the young officer (George Washington) *did* eventually become president of the United States. The other constructions, however (especially (b) and (e)), favour an interpretation of nonfulfilment.

Note These future-in-the-past interpretations, whether or not they imply fulfilment, should be distinguished from those of the same constructions used in indirect speech or free indirect speech (*cf* 14.31*ff*); *eg*:
I was convinced that no one *would* interfere.
Surely no one *would* object, she thought.
He told us he *was going to* resign.
In these cases, *would* and *was going to* report what was said or thought to be the case, according to some explicit or implicit 'speaker' or 'thinker'.

Meanings of the modal verbs

4.49 Like other terms used in analysing meaning in the complex verb phrase, such as *mood* and *aspect*, MODALITY has been used in various senses. At its most general, *modality* may be defined as the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker's judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true. As with terms like *present* and *past*, this semantic definition makes only an imperfect match with the correspondingly-named formal category, that of modal auxiliary verbs. None the less, it will serve to indicate in general terms the function which these verbs perform in the language.

In the modal verbs, the constraining factors of meaning mentioned above may be divided into two types:

(a) Those such as 'permission', 'obligation', and 'volition' which involve some kind of intrinsic human control over events, and
(b) Those such as 'possibility', 'necessity', and 'prediction', which do not primarily involve human control of events, but do typically involve human judgment of what is or is not likely to happen.

These two kinds, between which there is a gradient, may be termed INTRINSIC and EXTRINSIC modality respectively. One important observation about the modals is that each one of them has both intrinsic and extrinsic uses: for example, *may* has the meaning of permission (intrinsic) and the meaning of possibility (extrinsic); *will* has the meaning of volition (intrinsic) and the meaning of prediction (extrinsic). However, there are areas of overlap and neutrality between the intrinsic and extrinsic senses of a modal: the *will* in a sentence such as *I'll see you tomorrow then* can be said to combine the meanings of volition and prediction. Another point of significance is that the modals themselves tend to have overlapping meanings, such that in some

circumstances (but not in others), they can be more or less interchangeable. *Should* and *ought to*, for example, are more or less interchangeable with the meanings of 'obligation' and 'tentative inference'. *Can* and *may* overlap to a small extent in the areas of permission and possibility, but this overlap is almost entirely confined to written or formal English, and these modals are very far from being generally in free variation.

Note In place of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* modality, other terminologies, such as *modulation* and *modality*, or *root* and *epistemic* modality, are widespread. An alternative practice, which we follow (*cf* 4.51, 4.53), is to regard the root/epistemic distinction as a subcategorization of extrinsic modality. Another term widely used for the modality of obligation and permission is *deontic*.

4.50 The above points help to show why the use of the modal verbs is one of the more problematic areas of English grammar, and one of the areas where many studies have been made. Other factors which impede easy generalization are the following:

(a) Certain modals such as *can* and *will* are extremely common, whereas others, such as *shall*, *ought to*, and *need* (*qua* auxiliary) are relatively rare (*cf* 3.39 Note).
(b) Although historically, most of the modals can be paired into past and nonpast forms (*can/could*, *may/might*, *will/would*, *shall/should*), the 'past tense' forms are only in some respects usefully classified as such from the point of view of meaning.
(c) The use of the modals varies significantly from one part of the English-speaking world to another. There are considerable differences in this respect between AmE and BrE: for example, the three verbs described as 'rare' above are in fact substantially rarer in AmE than in BrE; moreover, Scots, Irish, and Northern English varieties resemble AmE in some respects more than they resemble the 'standard' southern usage which tends to be treated as representative of BrE. Increasingly even in Southern Standard BrE the forms formerly associated with AmE are becoming the norm.

In view of such variations and complications, we can give only an outline of the semantics of the modals here. For the purposes of this outline, we consider the modal auxiliaries in groups with similar or overlapping meanings. We also relate the meanings of the central modals (*cf* 3.39), where useful, to the meanings of marginal auxiliaries such as *ought to*, *have* (*got*) *to*, and *need*. We shall give, where important, some idea of the frequency or stylistic range of a modal. We begin by treating the present and past forms (*eg*: *can* and *could*) together, and later (in 4.59–64) turn our attention to special aspects of the use of the past forms *could*, *might*, *should*, and *would*.

The modals are often associated with particular pragmatic uses, *eg* in requests, offers, etc, where the past forms tend to have implications of tentativeness or politeness. We deal with these aspects of modal usage mainly in the Notes, but *cf* also 4.63.

In the following sections (4.51–65) we concentrate primarily on the modals in declarative clauses. The negative and interrogative uses of the modals are dealt with in 10.67*f* and 11.13 respectively.

4.51

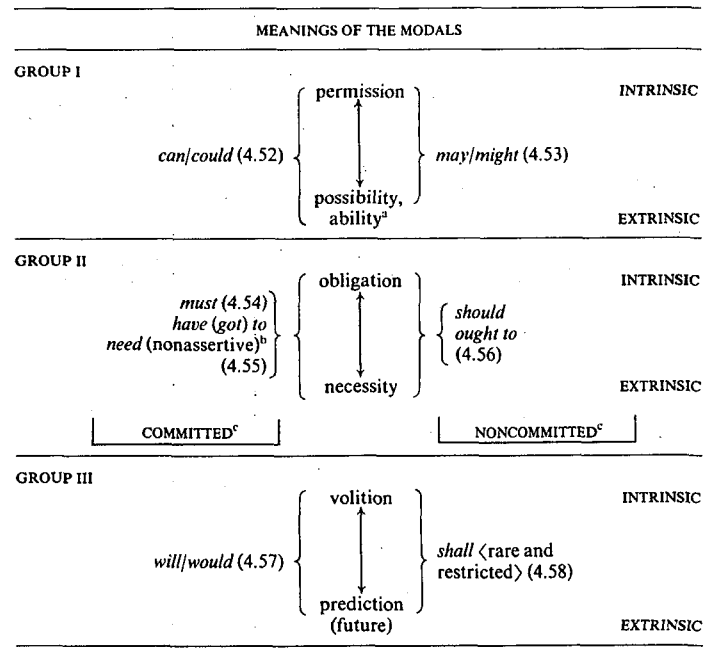

Fig 4.51

Notes to *Fig* 4.51:
[a] The 'ability' meaning of *can* is considered extrinsic, even though ability typically involves human control over an action. 'Ability' is best considered a special case of possibility (*cf* 4.52).
[b] On nonassertive restrictions in the use of *need* as an auxiliary, *cf* 3.42.
[c] The meaning of the labels 'committed' and 'noncommitted' with reference to *must*, *should*, etc is clarified in 4.54*ff* below, esp 4.56; *cf* also *Fig* 4.66.

Fig 4.51 gives a summary of the main modal meanings. The arrows separate intrinsic from corresponding extrinsic meanings, and are a reminder that the distinctions between these two are gradual rather than absolute. The *Figure* does not, however, distinguish the EPISTEMIC uses of *may*, *must* and *have* (*got*) *to* (*cf* 4.53–5); these form a clear-cut subcategory of the 'possibility' and 'necessity' meanings.

Can/could

4.52 Three major meanings of these modals may be distinguished:

(a) POSSIBILITY (especially in questions and negatives; *cf* 10.67*f*, 11.13)

Even expert drivers *can* make mistakes. [1]
Her performance was the best that *could* be hoped for. [2]
If it's raining tomorrow, the sports *can* take place indoors. [3]

In this sense, *can* is generally paraphrasable by *it is possible* followed by an infinitive clause; for example, [1] may be paraphrased:

It is possible for even expert drivers *to* make mistakes. [1a]

Sometimes, *can* indicates a future possibility; thus, for [3] an appropriate paraphrase would be: *It will be possible . . .*

(b) ABILITY

Can you remember where they live? [4]
Magda *could* speak three languages by the age of six. [5]
They say Bill *can* cook better than his wife. [6]

For the 'ability' sense, *can/could* may be paraphrased by use of the *be able to* construction, or in some cases by *be capable of* or *know how to*. However, the same meaning can also be approximately captured by the *be possible* construction; *eg*:

I *could* swim all the way across the lake.

implies:

It $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{was}\\ \textit{would be}\end{matrix}\right\}$ possible for me to swim all the way across the lake.

For this reason, the 'ability' meaning of *can/could* can be considered a special case of the 'possibility' meaning, *viz* one in which the possibility of an action is due to some skill or capability on the part of the subject referent.

(c) PERMISSION

Can we borrow these books from the library? [7]
In those days only men *could* vote in elections. [8]

In this sense, *can/could* is less formal than *may*, which has been favoured by prescriptive tradition (*cf* 4.53). (However, *might* in the sense of past permission is so rare – *cf* 4.61 Note [a] – that not even traditionalists would favour its use in [8].) It is possible to paraphrase *can* in the sense of permission by *be allowed to*:

Are we *allowed to* borrow these books from the library? [7a]

Note [a] *Can/could* [= possibility] is often used in a quasi-imperative manner, to suggest a course of action to the addressee. The instruction can be made more polite by using *could* (*cf* 4.62*f*), or by adding a conditional clause such as *if you like*:

You *can* sit here until I get back (if you like).
You children *could* help me move these chairs.

By turning the statement into a question, the speaker changes the suggestion into a rather polite request:

Can/could you (please) check these figures?

[b] *Can* [= ability] occurs in certain informal negative verb phrases, such as *cannot/can't help*, *cannot/can't stand*, and *cannot/can't bear*. The negative orientation of these phrases means that their positive counterparts cannot be used, except in semantically negative contexts; *eg* in questions with a negative bias, or in 'second instance' contexts where a contrast with the negative is implied:

How *can* you bear that noise? [implies: 'It is unbearable']
A: I *can't help* singing out of tune.
B: Well, you CÖULD *help* it: you could simply be QUIET.

[c] *Can* [= permission] is combinable with a future time adverbial (*eg*: *You can borrow my typewriter tomorrow*); but *can* [= ability] normally is not:

?*You can* pass your driving test next time you take it.

For future ability, the construction to use is *will be able to*:

You *will be able to* pass your driving test next time you take it.

except that *can* may be used in clauses, such as *if*-clauses, in which the present tense is normally used for future reference (*cf* 14.22):

If you *can* pass your driving test next month, you will be able to visit us more often during the summer.

[d] On the special stative use of *can/could* [= ability] with perception verbs (*eg*: *can see*), *cf* 4.30. There is a similar tendency to use this auxiliary with mental-state verbs such as *remember* and *understand*, as in [4] above, where *Can you remember . . .?* is scarcely distinguishable in meaning from *Do you remember . . .?*

May/might

4.53 (a) POSSIBILITY

We *may* never succeed. [It is possible that we'll never succeed] [1]
You *may* be right. [It is possible that you are right] [2]
There *might* be some complaints. [3]

As these examples suggest, the most common meaning of *may* [= possibility] is different from the possibility sense of *can*. To paraphrase *may*, we use *it is possible* followed by a *that*-clause, rather than an infinitive clause. *May* in this sense may also be paraphrased by *It may be that . . .*, or by the adverb *perhaps* or *possibly*. Thus [2] is equivalent to:

It may be that you are right. [2a]
Perhaps/possibly you are right. [2b]

This meaning of *may* is termed EPISTEMIC POSSIBILITY; *ie* it denotes the possibility of a given proposition's being or becoming true. *May* in the sense of epistemic possibility is normally stressed, and is often associated with fall-rise nuclear tone.

Might [= possibility] can be used as a (somewhat more tentative) alternative to *may* [= possibility], as in [3] (*cf* 4.63), and indeed is often preferred to *may* as a modal of epistemic possibility.

Less commonly, in formal English, *may/might* is used in the same possibility sense as *can/could*, a sense which may be distinguished by the label ROOT POSSIBILITY:

During the autumn, many rare birds *may* be observed on the rocky northern coasts of the island. [4]

May in [4] is a more formal substitute for *can*, and the whole sentence could be paraphrased *It is possible to observe . . .*

(b) PERMISSION

You *may* borrow my bicycle if you wish. [5]
Visitors *may* reclaim necessary travel expenses up to a limit of £50. [6]
Might I ask whether you are using the typewriter? [7]

As a permission auxiliary, *may* is more formal and less common than *can*, which (except in fixed phrases such as *if I may*) can be substituted for it.

However, *may* is particularly associated with permission given by the speaker. That is, a difference is sometimes felt between *You may leave when you like* [= 'I permit you . . .'] and *You can leave when you like* [= 'You are permitted . . .'], which can mean permission in a more general and impersonal sense. Not all English speakers acknowledge this distinction, however; and the prescriptive bias in favour of *may* leads to its use in official documents and notices, etc, as in [6] above, even where there is no restriction to 'speaker's permission'.

Again, *might* is used as a somewhat more tentative, and therefore polite, variant of *may* [= permission], as in [7] (*cf* 4.61). It is rare and apparently obsolescent in this usage.

Note [a] In interrogatives and in auxiliary negation, *may* in the sense of epistemic possibility is normally replaced by *can* (*cf* 10.67*f*, 11.13). Note the difference between:

She *may not* be serious. [It is possible that . . . not . . .]
She *can't* be serious. [It is not possible that . . .]

[b] There is a rare use of *may* with subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24) in volitional sentences which parallel the function of the formulaic subjunctive (*cf* 3.60):

May the best man win! [= Let the best man win!]
May he never set foot in this house again!
May God bless you! [= God bless you!]

[c] Another 'quasi-subjunctive' use of *may/might* is observed in subordinate clauses of concession or purpose:

Strange as/though it *may* seem . . . (*cf* 15.39)
Christ died, that we *might* live. (*cf* 15.48 Note [b])

Particularly in purpose clauses, this construction is formal and somewhat archaic.

[d] Related to the above use of *may* in concessive adverbial clauses, there is a tendency for main clauses containing *may* to have a concessive force preceding *but*:

We *may* have our differences from time to time, but basically we trust one another's judgment. [8]

The modal loses something of its 'possibility' sense here, as is shown by the paraphrase:

I admit that we have our differences . . . but . . .

ie the proposition expressed by the first clause of [8] is presumed to be true but (perhaps out of politeness) the modal construction is preferred to the alternative construction with the simple present.

[e] The idiomatic expression *may/might (just) as well* is typically used to make a somewhat reluctant or sardonic recommendation:

We *may as well* stay here the night (as look for a better place elsewhere). [9]
You *might as well* tell the truth (as continue to tell lies). [10]

The negative aspect of these recommendations is highlighted by the optional comparative clause, which is usually omitted. Their force could be expressed as follows:

'There's no point in looking elsewhere . . .'
'There's no point in your continuing to tell lies . . .'

Cf: *may/might/can/could well*, 8.103.

Must

4.54 (a) (LOGICAL) NECESSITY

There *must* be some mistake. [1]
You *must* be feeling tired. [2]
The Smiths *must* have a lot of money. [3]

The 'logical necessity' meaning of *must* is parallel to the use of *may* in the sense of epistemic possibility; it may, indeed, be called 'epistemic necessity',

since it implies that the speaker judges the proposition expressed by the clause to be necessarily true, or at least to have a high likelihood of being true. *Must* in this sense means that the speaker has drawn a conclusion from things already known or observed. For example, the speaker of [3] has observed the Smiths living in a large house, travelling in an expensive car, etc, and therefore draws the conclusion that they 'must' be rich. *Must* [= logical necessity] cannot normally be used in interrogative or negative clauses. The negative of *can* [= possibility] fills the gap, so that *You must be joking* ['It is necessarily the case that you are joking'] is synonymous with *You can't be serious* ['It is impossible that you are serious']. Similarly:

She *must* be asleep = She *can't* be awake.

In addition to epistemic necessity, there is a ROOT NECESSITY meaning of *must* in examples like:

To be healthy, a plant *must* receive a good supply of both sunshine and moisture. [4]

Must here can be glossed 'It is essential for . . .' or 'It is necessary for . . .'. There is, however, no implication in [4] of human control, and this distinguishes the root necessity use of *must* from its other root sense of obligation, to which we now turn.

(b) OBLIGATION *or* COMPULSION

You *must* be back by ten o'clock. ['You are obliged to be back . . .'; 'I require you to be back . . .'] [5]
We *must* all share our skills and knowledge. [6]
Productivity *must* be improved, if the nation is to be prosperous. [7]

In these examples, there is the implication, to a greater or lesser extent, that the speaker is advocating a certain form of behaviour. Thus *must*, unlike *have (got) to*, typically suggests that the speaker is exercising his authority. An apparent exception to this occurs where the subject is in the first person:

I *must* remember to write to Aunt Anna. [8]
I'm afraid I *must* go now: I promised to be home at ten. [9]

But this, we can say, is perfectly consistent with *must* [= obligation], because the meaning is one of self-admonishment, *ie* the speaker in this case exercises authority over himself, appealing to his own sense of duty, expediency, etc.

Note [a] On the use of obligating *must* in negative and interrogative clauses, *cf* 10.67*f*; 11.13.

[b] Occasionally, *must* [= logical necessity] does occur with negations:

His absence *must not* have been noticed.

This has the same meaning as *His absence can't have been noticed*. Such sentences have been regarded by many commentators as impossible, but are increasingly accepted and used, especially in AmE.

[c] There is a similarly rare occurrence of *must* [= logical necessity] in questions:

Must there be some good reason for the delay?

This assumes a positive answer, and might be glossed: 'Does there have to be some good reason . . .?'

[d] *Must* [= root necessity] has a sarcastic use in some utterances with a 2nd person subject:

If you *must* smoke, at least you could use an ashtray.
Why *must* you always be finding fault with that girl?

Need, have (got) to

4.55 The close relationship between *must* and the quasi-modals *need, have got to,* and *have to* (*cf* 3.42, 3.45, 3.48) deserves comment at this point. *Need* (constructed as an auxiliary) is used (esp in BrE) as the negative and question form of *must* in root senses:

> *Need* they make all that noise? [= '*Do* they *need/have to* make all that noise?'] ⟨esp BrE⟩
> You *needn't* worry about the test. [= 'You *don't need/have to* worry about that test'.] ⟨esp BrE⟩

As the above glosses show, however, it is possible, and indeed, more common even in BrE, to replace auxiliary *need* by *need to* or *have to* accompanied by *do*-support (*cf* 3.37).

Have (got) to can also be substituted for *must* with little or no difference of meaning. Compare the following with the parallel sentences in 4.54:

(a) (LOGICAL) NECESSITY

> There *has (got) to* be some mistake. ⟨esp AmE⟩ [1]
> To be healthy, a plant *has to* receive a good supply of both sunshine and moisture. [4]

(b) OBLIGATION OR COMPULSION

> You *have (got) to* be back by ten o'clock. [5]
> We *have* all *got to* share our skills and knowledge. [6]
> Productivity will *have to* be improved, if the nation is to be prosperous. [7]

In the logical necessity sense of [1], *have (got) to* is rather more emphatic than *must*, and is found chiefly in AmE. In the obligation sense of [5–7], *have (got) to* is often felt to be more impersonal than *must*, in that it tends to lack the implication that the speaker is in authority. This is particularly noticeable with a 1st person subject:

> I'm afraid I *have (got) to* go now. [8]

Where *must* implies 'self-obligation', *have (got) to* implies 'obligation by external forces'. Thus [8] might be used where, for example, another appointment compels the speaker to leave at a particular time.

Since *must* has no past tense form and no nonfinite forms, *have to* is used in many contexts where *must* is impossible (*cf* 3.30, 3.48), *eg* following a modal verb: *We'll have to be patient.*

Note [a] *Have to* and *have got to* are used in sarcastic utterances like those illustrated for *must* in 4.54 Note [d]:

> Do you *have to* make that noise when you eat?

There is an equivalent past tense use of *had to*:

> The rain was bad enough – but then it *had to* snow!

The author of this sentence jokingly blames the weather's perverse behaviour.

[b] Some native speakers do not recognize the distinction between 'self-obligation' (*I/we must*) and 'obligation by external forces' (*I/we have to*).

Ought to and *should*

4.56 Here we turn to another marginal auxiliary, *ought to*, and a synonymous use of *should*. Although differing from *must* and *have (got) to*, these verbs express the same basic modalities of 'necessity' and 'obligation'. Where they contrast with *must* and *have (got) to* is in not expressing the speaker's confidence in the occurrence of the event or state described. Hence [1] is nonsensical, but [2] is not:

> *Sarah {*must* / *has to*} be home by now, but she isn't. [1]
> Sarah {*should* / *ought to*} be home by now, but she isn't. [2]

(a) TENTATIVE INFERENCE

> The mountains {*should* / *ought to*} be visible from here. [3]
> These plants {*should* / *ought to*} reach maturity after five years. [4]

The term which best seems to characterize the 'noncommitted necessity' meaning of *should* and *ought to* is 'tentative inference'. That is, the speaker does not know if his statement is true, but tentatively concludes that it is true, on the basis of whatever he knows. Apart from this tentativeness, *should* and *ought to* differ from *must* in that they frequently refer to the future; *eg*:

> The job *should/ought to* be finished by next Monday.

(b) OBLIGATION

> You {*should* / *ought to*} do as he says. [5]
> The floor {*should* / *ought to*} be washed at least once a week. [6]

Like *must* [= obligation], *should* and *ought to* generally imply the speaker's authority; but unlike *must*, they do not imply that the speaker has confidence that the recommendation will be carried out. In fact, with the perfective aspect, *should* and *ought to* typically have the stronger implication that the recommendation has *not* been carried out:

> They {*should* / *ought to*} have met her at the station. [7]

The likely implication of [7] is '. . . but they didn't'. In both senses (a) and (b) *should* is more frequent than *ought to*.

Note Another difference between *should* and *ought to* (in the sense of tentative inference) and *must* is that the former modals tend to carry over from their obligational sense the suggestion that the proposition within their scope is desirable. Contrast:

> There *should* be another upturn in sales shortly.
> ?There *should* be another disaster shortly.

The second sentence is decidedly odd, suggesting that the speaker takes a favourable view of disasters.

Will/would ('ll/'d)

4.57 From the semantic point of view, as well as from the historical point of view, *'ll* and *'d* are to be regarded as contractions of *will* and *would* respectively, rather than of *shall* and *should*. To see this, we note that where *shall* and *should* are not interchangeable with *will* and *would*, the contraction does not substitute for *shall/should*, though it can for *will/would*. For instance, in [7] of 4.56 above, the contraction *They'd have met her at the station* is not possible in the sense of 'ought to'. Conversely, in:

You *will* feel better after this medicine. [1]

where *will* in the predictive sense could not be replaced by *shall*, the contraction to *'ll* is possible:

You'*ll* feel better after this medicine. [1a]

(a) PREDICTION
Under the heading of PREDICTION, three related uses of *will/would* are to be distinguished.

(a1) The common FUTURE predictive sense of *will* illustrated in [1] above has already been discussed in 4.42 and 4.46. The corresponding 'prediction in the past' sense of *would* (*cf* 4.48) is illustrated by:

I was told I *would* feel better after this medicine. [2]

(a2) The PRESENT predictive sense of *will*, which is comparatively rare, is similar in meaning to *must* in the 'logical necessity' sense:

She *will* have had her dinner by now. [3]
That'*ll* be the postman. [on hearing the doorbell ring] [4]

This meaning can be roughly paraphrased: 'It is (very) likely that . . .'

(a3) The HABITUAL predictive meaning often occurs in conditional sentences:

If litmus paper is dipped in acid, it *will* turn red.

or in timeless statements of 'predictability':

Oil *will* float on water.

In addition, it occurs in descriptions of personal habits or characteristic behaviour:

He'*ll* talk for hours, if you let him. [said of a chatterbox]
She'*ll* sit on the floor quietly all day. She'*ll* just play with her toys, and you *won't* hear a murmur from her. [of a good baby]
Every morning he *would* go for a long walk. [*ie* 'it was his custom to go . . .']

In past tense narratives, *would* in this sense is a popular means of describing habitual behaviour:

In the spring the birds *would* return to their old haunts, and the wood *would* be filled with their music . . .

This use of *would* is rather more formal than the equivalent use of *used to*, and unlike *used to*, needs to be associated with a time indicator, such as *In the spring* in the above example.

(b) VOLITION
Again, three different subsenses may be distinguished. The volitional range of *will* extends from the 'weak volition' of WILLINGNESS to the 'strong volition' of INSISTENCE. Between these two, there is the more usual volitional sense of INTENTION, which often combines with a sense of prediction (*cf* 4.42, 4.46):

(b1) INTENTION

I'*ll* write as soon as I can.
We *won't* stay longer than two hours.
The manager said he *would* phone me after lunch.

(b2) WILLINGNESS

Will/Would you help me to address these letters?
I'*ll* do it, if you like.

This meaning is common in requests and offers. On the greater politeness of *would*, *cf* 4.63.

(b3) INSISTENCE

If you '*will* go out without your overcoat, what can you expect?
She '*would* keep interrupting me.

This somewhat rare use implies wilfulness on the part of the subject referent. The auxiliary is always stressed, and cannot be contracted to *'ll* or *'d*. In this case, the past form *would* expresses past time, rather than tentativeness or politeness.

Note [a] The predictive meaning of *will* is sometimes weakened, so that it resembles the ability meaning of *can*:
That's a fine car. How fast *will* it go?
The new grandstand *will* hold ten thousand spectators.
The negative of this 'potentiality' sense of *will* seems to have something of the personificatory force of 'refusal' (*ie* the negation of willingness):
It's a good piano, but it just *won't* stay in tune.
I tried to open the door, but the key *wouldn't* turn.
It is almost as if the piano or the key had a will of its own.
[b] In requests, the sense of willingness (b2) is often expressed more tentatively and politely by the use of the past tense form *would*:
Would you please be quiet?
Cf the comparable use of *could*, 4.52 Note [a].
[c] There is an idiomatic use of *would* with nuclear stress conveying a certain feeling of exasperation at the behaviour of another:
A: Of course, Ian spoiled the whole show with his feeble jokes.
B: Oh, he WOULD (spoil the whole show).
The force is that Ian's foolish behaviour was utterly typical and predictable. There is no equivalent use of *will*.

Shall

4.58 *Shall* is in present-day English (especially in AmE) a rather rare auxiliary and only two uses, both with a 1st person subject, are generally current:

(a) PREDICTION (with 1st person subjects)
Shall is a substitute for the future use of *will* in formal style:

According to the opinion polls, I {*will* / *shall*} win quite easily.

When {*will* / *shall*} we know the results of the election?

Especially in BrE, prescriptive tradition forbids *will* as a future auxiliary with *I* or *we*, but this prescription is old-fashioned and is nowadays widely ignored.

(b) VOLITION (with 1st person subjects)
In the intentional sense, *shall* is again a formal (and traditionally prescribed) alternative to *will* after *I* or *we*:

We {*will* / *shall*} uphold the wishes of the people.

In questions containing *shall I/we*, *shall* consults the wishes of the addressee, and thus moves from a volitional towards an obligational meaning. It is suitable for making offers:

Shall I/we deliver the goods to your home address? [= Do you want me/us to . . .?] [1]

and for making suggestions about shared activities:

What *shall* we do this evening? *Shall* we go to the theatre? [2]

It is only in such questions that *shall* cannot regularly be replaced by *will*. Note that [1] illustrates the exclusive use of *we* (*cf* 6.7), while [2] illustrates the inclusive use, *ie* the use of *we* which includes reference to the addressee(s).

Note [a] The inclusive *we* following *shall* is also found in tag questions following a 1st person imperative (*cf* 11.10, 11.26 Note [a]):
Let's have dinner out tonight, *shall* we?
[b] *Shall* is in very restricted use with 2nd and 3rd person subjects as a way of expressing the *speaker's* volition, either in granting a favour:
You *shall* do just as you wish.
She *shall* get her money as soon as she has earned it.
or in giving orders:
You *shall* do exactly as I say.
He *shall* be punished if he disobeys.
In these cases *shall* is archaic and 'authoritarian' in tone.
[c] A further restricted use of *shall* with a 3rd person subject occurs in legal or quasi-legal discourse, in stipulating regulations or legal requirements. Here *shall* is close in meaning to *must*:
The vendor *shall* maintain the equipment in good repair.
Note in this connection the archaic use of *shalt* in the Biblical Ten Commandments; *eg*: *Thou shalt not kill.* (On the archaic 2nd person form *shalt*, *cf* 3.4 Note [b].)
[d] Although *should* cannot normally be regarded as a past tense form of *shall*, there are occasions when it is appropriately interpreted as such. In [3] below, *should* is a past tense equivalent of *shall* in indirect speech, and in [4], it appears to be a tentative past tense equivalent of *shall* in offers:
I felt sure that we *should* meet again. [3]
Should I type these letters for you? [4]
The use of *should* illustrated in [3] can have a flavour of preciosity.
[e] Even in 1st person questions, where *shall* has generally been recognized as normal, it is nowadays frequently replaced by more common verbal constructions. *Eg*: in [1] *shall I* could be replaced by *would you like us to* and in [2] *shall* could be replaced by *should*. Both these substitutes are typically AmE.

The past tense forms of the modals: *could, might, would,* and *should*

4.59 The uses of the past tense modals *could*, *might*, *would*, and *should* have already been illustrated in 4.52–8, but there is a need to examine the ways in which their uses differ from the corresponding nonpast modals *can*, *may*, *will*, and *shall*. Five particular uses of the past tense modals are noted in 4.60–4.

'Past time' in indirect speech

4.60 The past tense modals *could*, *might*, *would*, and *should* are used quite regularly as past tense equivalents of *can*, *may*, *will*, and *shall* in indirect speech constructions (*cf* 14.34):

You *can/may* do as you wish. [= permission]
~ She said we *could/might* do as we wished.
The king *can* do no wrong. [= ability]
~ It was seriously argued that the king *could* do no wrong.
It *may* rain later. [= possibility]
~ We were afraid that it *might* rain later.
What *can* be done? [= possibility]
~ Nobody knew what *could* be done.
The plan *will* succeed. [= prediction]
~ I felt sure that the plan *would* succeed.
Will you help me? [= volition]
~ I wondered if he *would* help me.
Shall I open the window? [in offers]
~ She asked me if she *should* open a window.

Must, together with *need* (as auxiliary), *ought to*, and *had better*, has no present/past distinction. These verbs are therefore unchanged in indirect speech constructions (*cf* 14.34), even where they refer to past time.

Note In free indirect speech (*cf* 14.35) the reporting clause is absent, so that the modal verb may occur backshifted to the past tense even in main clauses:
Could he be imagining things? (said Ahmed to himself.)

'Past time' in other constructions

4.61 Outside indirect speech contexts, the behaviour of the past tense modal forms is less predictable. *Could* and *would* act as the 'past time' equivalents of *can* and *will*; but on the whole, *might* and *should* do not act as the 'past time' equivalents of *may* and *shall* (*cf* however Note [a]).

(a) *CAN ~ COULD*

There were no rules: we *could* do just what we wanted.
[= permission]
In those days, a transatlantic voyage *could* be dangerous.
[= possibility]
Few of the tourists *could* speak English. [= ability]

(b) *WILL ~ WOULD*

Later, he *would* learn his error. [= prediction; *cf* 4.48, 4.57]
The old lady *would* sit in front of the television continuously.
[= habitual prediction; *cf* 4.57 (a3)]
We tried to borrow a boat, but no one *would* lend us one.
[= willingness]
He *would* leave the house in a muddle. [= insistence]

Outside indirect speech, however, *would* is not used in the sense of intention; hence a sentence such as *He would meet me the next day* is almost inevitably interpreted as free indirect speech.

Note [a] There is a rare and archaic use of *might* outside indirect speech in the sense 'was/were permitted to':
We *might* leave the school only at weekends.
[b] Corresponding to *must*, which cannot normally be used in reference to past time outside indirect speech or indirect thought contexts, the past tense form *had to* can be used in main clauses. Compare:
I *must* confess her latest novels bore me. ~ I *had to* confess her latest novels bored me.
[c] In contrast to the past modals *could* [= ability] and *would* [= willingness], the constructions *was/were able to* and *was/were permitted to* (*cf* 4.66) emphasize not just the potentiality, but the fulfilment of an action. For instance, *We were able/permitted to leave the camp early* typically conveys the additional message: '. . . and, moreover, we *did* leave the camp early'. Hence *was able to*, but not *could*, is acceptable in contexts implying fulfilment:
I ran after the bus, and *was able to* catch it. [1]
*I ran after the bus, and *could* catch it. [2]
In the negative, however, this contrast between potential and fulfilled action is neutralized. Hence the following are both acceptable, and mean the same:
I ran after the bus, but *wasn't able* to catch it.
I ran after the bus, but *couldn't* catch it.
[d] On the other hand, *could* and *would* may refer to habitual fulfilment:
I *could* run after a bus and catch it twenty years ago, but I can't do that now.

Hypothetical meaning

4.62 The past tense modals can be used in the hypothetical (or unreal) sense of the past tense (*cf* 4.16) in both main and subordinate clauses. Compare:

If United *can* win this game, they *may* become league champions. [1]
If United *could* win this game, they *might* become league champions. [2]

Sentence [2], unlike [1], expresses an unreal condition; *ie* it conveys the speaker's expectation that United *will not* win the game, and therefore will *not* become league champions. For past hypothetical meaning (which normally has a contrary-to-fact interpretation), we have to add the perfective aspect:

If United *could have won* that game, they *might have become* league champions. [3]

The usual implication of this is that United did *not* win the game.

All past tense modals can be used in this way, to express the hypothetical version of meanings such as ability, possibility, permission, prediction, and volition. With the epistemic possibility of *might*, however, it is the meaning

of the following predication, rather than of the modal itself, that is interpreted hypothetically. This will be evident from the following paraphrases:

They *might* have become champions.
[= It is possible that they would have become champions.]
We *could* have borrowed the money.
[= It would have been possible for us to borrow the money. (usually with the implication '. . . but we didn't')]

On the hypothetical use of *would* here, *cf* 4.64 below. In some contexts, especially when referring to the future, the 'unreal' meaning of past modals becomes weakened to something like improbability:

Not even a professional *could* do better than that.

From such instances, it is easy to understand how the hypothetical use of past modals has become adapted to express tentativeness (*cf* 4.63).

Note *Could/might* (+ perfective) are used in complaints or rebukes:
You *could/might* try to be more civilized!
You *could/might* have warned me she was coming.
The meaning here is close to the same construction with *should* [= 'ought to']: *eg*: *You should have warned us* . . . *Could* and *might* are interchangeable in this type of utterance.

Tentativeness or politeness: *could*, *might*, and *would*

4.63 Closely related to the hypothetical use above are specialized uses of *could*, *might*, and *would* in which the past tense form simply adds a note of tentativeness or politeness:

(a) TENTATIVE PERMISSION (in polite requests):

Could I see your driving licence?
I wonder if I *might* borrow some coffee?

(b) TENTATIVE VOLITION (in polite requests):

Would you lend me a dollar? [more polite than *will*, *cf* 4.57 (b2)]
I'd be grateful if someone *would* hold the door open.

(c) TENTATIVE POSSIBILITY

(I) in expressing a tentative opinion:

There *could* be something wrong with the light switch.
Of course, I *might* be wrong.

(II) in polite directives and requests (*cf* 4.52, Note [a]):

Could you (please) open the door?
You *could* answer these letters for me.

In these constructions, apart from the last-mentioned case of requests, *could* and *might* have the same meaning. In (cI), they both express the epistemic possibility associated with *may*. This is an exceptional case, in which *could* is the past tense equivalent of *may* instead of *can*.

Note There is a tendency for the difference between *may* and *might* (in a sense of tentative or hypothetical possibility) to become neutralized. Thus some speakers perceive little or no

difference of meaning between *You may be wrong* and *You might be wrong*. This neutralization occasionally extends, analogically, to contexts in which only *might* would normally be considered appropriate:

?An earlier launch of the lifeboat *may* [= might] *have averted* the tragedy. [1]

The fact that sentences such as [1] occasionally occur is a symptom of a continuing tendency to erode the distinctions between real and unreal senses of the modals.

'Mood markers': *would* and *should*

4.64 Under this last heading of 'mood markers' we consider special uses of *would* and *should* in which these modals have nothing to do with the cognate modals *will* and *shall*, but are instead used to mark the MOOD of the clause.

(a) *WOULD/SHOULD* AS A MARKER OF HYPOTHETICAL MEANING

Would (and sometimes, with a 1st person subject, *should*) may express hypothetical meaning in main clauses:

If you pressed that button, the engine *would* stop. [1]
If there were an accident, we *would/should* have to report it. [2]

Would/should + infinitive contrasts in syntactic distribution, but not in meaning, with the past tense and the *were*-subjunctive, both of which express hypothetical meaning in many subordinate clauses. Hence the following cannot be interpreted as unreal conditions (although they might, with some difficulty, be interpreted in some other way; *cf* 15.35 on open and hypothetical conditions):

?If you *pressed* that button, the engine *stopped*. [3]
?If you *would press* that button, the engine *would stop*. [4]

In [3], the hypothetical past tense is wrongly used in the main clause, whereas in [4], the *would* construction is wrongly used in the subordinate clause.

Although the conditional sentence, as in [1] and [2], is the most typical context in which hypothetical *would/should* occurs, there are many other contexts in which hypothetical *would/should* is appropriately used:

I'*d* hate to lose this pen. [5]
It *would* be impossible to estimate how many crimes went undetected last year. [6]
Don't bother to read all these papers. It *would* take too long. [7]

In such sentences, there is often an implicit *if* . . .; for example, [7] could be expanded: *It would take too long if you did* (*try to read them all*).

(b) *SHOULD* AS A MARKER OF 'PUTATIVE' MEANING

In this use (*cf* 14.25), *should* + infinitive is often equivalent to the mandative subjunctive (*cf* 3.59). In using *should*, the speaker entertains, as it were, some 'putative' world, recognizing that it may well exist or come into existence:

She insisted that we *should* stay.
It's unfair that so many people *should* lose their jobs.
Let me know if you *should* hear some more news.
Why *should* anyone object to her enjoying herself?
I can't think why he *should* have been so angry.

Putative *should* is more common in BrE than in AmE (*cf* further 16.30*ff*, 16.59, 16.70).

Note [a] Hypothetical *would* as a 'mood marker' occurs in some types of subordinate clause; *eg* in nominal clauses (except some clauses which occur with the hypothetical past tense instead of *would*, *eg* clauses introduced by imperative *suppose* or by *wish*; *cf* 16.33) and in relative clauses:

I'm afraid the journey *would* be too expensive.
The journey was a disappointment to those who *would* have preferred to travel by road.

[b] An ironic or quasi-subjunctive use of *should* is current in certain Yiddishisms, especially in AmE:

I should talk. ['I shouldn't talk!']
I should worry. ['Why should I worry?']
I should be so lucky. ['I'm unlucky.']

[c] Hypothetical *would* when followed by a verb such as *like*, *love*, or *prefer* is used to indicate a tentative desire in polite requests, offers, or invitations:

A: *Would* you *mind* taking part? B: No, I'*d love* to.
A: *Would* you *like* some tea? B: Thanks; but I'*d prefer* coffee, if there is any.

Cf the use of *would* for tentative volition, 4.63 (b).

The modals with the perfective and progressive aspects

4.65 The perfective and progressive aspects are normally excluded when the modals express 'ability' or 'permission', and also when *shall* or *will* expresses 'volition'. These aspects are freely used, however, with extrinsic modal meanings other than ability; *eg*:

'possibility'	He *may/might have* miss*ed* the train.
	She *can't/couldn't be* swimm*ing* all day.
'necessity'	He *must have* left his umbrella on the bus.
	You *must be* dream*ing*.
'prediction' etc	The guests *will/would have* arriv*ed* by that time.
	Hussein *will/would* still *be* read*ing* his paper.

(On the meaning of the perfective aspect after a modal, and in particular the possibility of paraphrasing it by means of the simple past tense, *cf* 4.18*f*.)

'Obligation' can only be expressed with the perfective or progressive when combined with *should* or *ought to*:

'obligation'	I *ought to be* work*ing* now. ['. . . but I'm not']
	You *should have* finish*ed* it. ['. . . but you haven't']
	She *shouldn't have* left him. ['. . . but she did']

As the glosses indicate, these modals, in contrast to *must*, often imply nonfulfilment of the obligation. There are also examples which do not have this counterfactual implication; *eg*:

Have you heard from Maria? She *should have* started her job on Monday.

The combination of both perfective and progressive constructions with the modals is also possible, subject to the conditions already mentioned:

You *must have been* dream*ing*.
She *could*n't *have been* swimm*ing* all day.
The guests *would have been* arriv*ing* by now.

(On the meaning of the perfective and progressive in this combination, *cf* 4.38*f*.)

Note [a] The use of *will* + progressive in the sense of 'future as a matter of course' (*cf* 4.46) is paralleled by other modals in the same construction:

Jill says she *might be* calling this afternoon. [1]

means approximately 'It is just possible that Jill will be calling. . .' In contrast to [1], *Jill says she might call this afternoon* implies that the visit will depend on Jill's decision.

[b] Note the use of *might/could* + perfective in certain colloquial speech acts:

They *could/might* have told me! [a complaint]
You *could/might* have been more careful. [a rebuke]
I *might* have KNOWN someone would upset her. [an expression of irritation]

The meanings of marginal auxiliaries

4.66 We may use the expression 'marginal auxiliaries' to apply to all four categories (marginal modals, modal idioms, semi-auxiliaries, and catenative verbs) discussed in 3.40–51. Some of these have also claimed our attention in this chapter; *eg*: *used to* (4.15), *be going to* (4.43), *ought to* (4.56). But it is worth noting how closely these verbs tend to follow the pattern of the auxiliary verbs in the kinds of meaning they convey. On the one hand, we have aspectual or time-indicating verbs such as *used to*, *be going to*, and *be about to* (4.47). On the other hand, the largest group of marginal auxiliaries are modal in their semantic function, *eg*: *had better* (3.45) and *be able to*.

The semantic groups displayed in the right-hand part of *Table* 4.66 show a remarkable similarity to those of the modal auxiliaries, as indicated in *Fig* 4.51. We use the same terminology here, to make the comparison more evident:

Table 4.66 Meanings of marginal auxiliaries

Temporal and aspectual	Modal			
	Necessity	Obligation	Possibility, Ability	Permission
Past	(Committed)	(Committed)		
used to	*need (to)* *have to* *have got to* *be bound to* *be certain to* *be sure to*	*need (to)* *have to* *have got to* *be bound to* *be certain to* *be sure to*	*be able to*	*be allowed to* *be permitted to*
Future	(Non committed)	(Non committed)	Volition	Other
be going to *be to* *be about to* *be due to* *be destined to*	*ought to* *be likely to* *be supposed to*	*ought to* *had better* *be supposed to*	*be willing to* *would rather* *would sooner* *be going to*	*dare (to)* *tend to* *be liable to* *happen to*

In *Table* 4.66, several verbal constructions occur more than once, since, like the modal verbs, their semantic ranges tend to stretch across more than one category. This is particularly true of the extrinsic/intrinsic contrast which not only applies to all modals (*cf* 4.49), but also to many of the marginal and catenative constructions. Just as *must* and *should*, for example, have both 'necessity' and 'obligation' meanings, so do the semi-auxiliaries *be bound to* and *be supposed to*:

The plan *is bound to* fail. [= 'must inevitably fail'; necessity]
You *are bound* to pay your debts. [= 'are compelled to . . .'; obligation]

Their team *is supposed to* be the best. [= 'should be'; this is the recognized view]
You *were supposed to* be here at nine. [= 'ought to have been'; obligation]

The fact that semi-auxiliaries and catenatives have nonfinite verb forms (*cf* 3.47–9) means that two or even more modal concepts can be combined in a sequence of verb phrases:

We *may have to* play it again. [possibility + obligation]
You *should be able to* find enough food. [tentative inference + ability]
She *must have been willing to* help. [necessity + volition]
The students *are going to have to be able to play* three different instruments. [prediction + necessity + ability]

It is normal, in such combinations, for an extrinsic modality to precede an intrinsic one, as the examples show.

Note The quasi-adverbial status of many semi-auxiliary or catenative verbs can be shown by paraphrases such as the following:

She *appears to* like the show. = She *apparently* likes the show.
She *is certain to* enjoy the meal. = She will *certainly* enjoy the meal.

Meaning in the nonfinite verb phrase

4.67 Our discussion of meaning in this chapter has concentrated on finite verb phrases, and in conclusion we must give some attention to nonfinite verb phrases. The same semantic distinctions apply to both finite and nonfinite verb phrases, in so far as the structural possibilities of the nonfinite verb phrase permit. We have seen, however, in 3.56 that the modal construction and the distinction between present and past tense do not apply to the nonfinite verb phrase; and in 4.18*f* that the nonfinite perfective construction has the general meaning of anteriority. Distinctions of aspect are the only ones which are expressed within the constructional possibilities of a single

nonfinite verb phrase. Even then, the full range is only possible within an infinitive phrase:

Sir Topaz appears { to be winning his race. [simple progressive]
to have won his race. [simple perfective]
to have been winning his race. [perfective progressive] }

In an *-ing* participle phrase in adverbial clauses, the perfective/nonperfective contrast is sometimes available:

Eating a hearty breakfast, } we prepared for our long journey. [1]
Having eaten a hearty breakfast, } we prepared for our long journey. [2]

From [1], we understand that the eating and the preparation took place together, while from [2], we understand that the breakfast preceded the preparation.

But the progressive/nonprogressive contrast is not normally applicable here, since *-ing* participle phrases are incapable of expressing this distinction formally (*cf* 3.56). Moreover, the *-ing* participle itself is not, in spite of its appearance, necessarily associated with the progressive:

Being an enemy of the Duke's,
Realizing he was in danger,
Having no news of his wife, } he left the court immediately. [3]

(For further discussion of the semantics of such *-ing* participle constructions, see 16.40.)

To prove this point, the *-ing* participles in [3] are all stative and incompatible with the progressive:

*He was being an enemy of the Duke's.
?*He was realizing he was in danger.
*He was having no news of his wife.

Nevertheless, there are constructions in which the *-ing* participle construction has aspect contrast with the infinitive, and is progressive in meaning (*cf* 16.52*f*):

I { saw / heard } them { *shoot* at him. / *shooting* at him. }

Whereas the infinitive *shoot* suggests a single shot, the *-ing* participle suggests a repetitive action lasting over a period of time, in accordance with the interpretation of the progressive aspect in finite verb phrases referring to momentary events (*cf* 4.35). In:

I watched them { *climb* the tower. [4]
climbing the tower. [5] }

the infinitive *climb* suggests that they reached the top of the tower, whereas the participle *climbing* connotes the potential incompleteness of the progressive.

The *-ed* participle phrase has no formal contrasts of aspect, and is therefore

the most restricted type of phrase in terms of semantic contrasts. Here again, however, there is a potential contrast with the passive *-ing* participle phrase:

I saw the tower { *climbed* by a student. [6]
being climbed by a student. [7] }

The participle *climbed* in [6] is the passive counterpart of the infinitive *climb* in [4]; it describes the climb as a completed event, whereas [7] describes it as in progress, and as possibly incomplete.

Note [a] The structural contrast between infinitive and *-ing* participle complementation occurs with categories of verb other than the perceptual verbs *see*, *hear*, etc illustrated above. In these other cases, however, there is almost no semantic contrast of aspect:

She started { to eat. / eating. } [8]

She likes { to talk. / talking. } [9]

Eating in [8] and *talking* in [9] are thus not to be classified as progressive (*cf* 16.40).

[b] With certain main verbs which imply anterior time in their complementation (*cf* 16.39), such as *admit*, *remember*, *regret*, there is no contrast of meaning between complementation by a perfective and by a nonperfective *-ing* participle phrase:

We { admitted / remembered / regretted } { *leaving* early. [10]
having left early. [11] }

In spite of the difference of construction, [10] and [11] are virtually synonymous with each other.

4.68 Although nonfinite verb phrases have no modal verbs, the meanings of the modals can be added to them through the use of semi-auxiliaries such as *have to*, *be (un)able to*, *be allowed to*, *be about to*, etc:

I am sorry to *have to* repeat this warning.
Being unable to free himself, he lay beneath the debris until rescued.
The suspects admitted *being about to* commit a crime.
Many inmates hate not *being allowed to* leave the premises.

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5 Nouns and determiners

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Types of noun phrase

5.1 The noun phrase typically functions as subject, object, and complement of clauses and as complement of prepositional phrases. Consider the different subjects in the following sentences:

The girl	is my sister.	[1]
The blonde girl		[2]
The blonde girl in blue jeans		[3]
The blonde girl wearing blue jeans		[4]
The blonde girl who is wearing blue jeans		[5]
She		[6]

Sentences [1–5] are alike in having the same noun (*girl*) as noun-phrase head (*cf* 2.28, 17.2). The noun phrase in [1] has the simplest structure, consisting of only the definite article and the head; in [2] it also has a premodifying adjective (*blonde*); in [3–5] the noun phrase has, in addition, postmodification: in [3] a prepositional phrase (*in blue jeans*); in [4] a nonfinite clause (*wearing blue jeans*); and in [5] a relative clause (*who is wearing blue jeans*). In [6] the noun phrase consists of only one word (*she*), which is one of a closed class of grammatical words called personal pronouns. Such pronouns can 'deputize' for noun phrases and hence cannot normally occur with determiners such as the definite article, premodification, or (normally) postmodification:

**the blonde she* ?*she in blue jeans*

Since noun phrases of the types illustrated in [2–5] include words and structures that will be dealt with in later chapters (adjectives, prepositional phrases, clauses), it will be convenient to reserve the treatment of 'complex' noun phrases incorporating such items until Chapter 17, which deals with the noun phrase as a whole. The present chapter will be restricted to the constituency of the 'basic' noun phrase, *ie* the classes of nouns together with articles or other closed-class determinative elements that can occur before the noun head, including predeterminers like *all*, central determiners like *these*, and postdeterminers like *last* and *few*:

all these last few days

The closed class of pronouns as in [6] is dealt with in Chapter 6.

Noun classes: count, noncount, and proper nouns

5.2 It is necessary, both for grammatical and semantic reasons, to see nouns as falling into different subclasses. That this is so can be demonstrated by taking the four nouns *Sid*, *book*, *furniture*, and *brick* and considering the extent to which it is possible for each to appear as head of the noun phrase functioning as object in the sentence *I saw* . . .: without any determiner (a); with the lightly stressed determiners *the* /ðə/ (b), *a* /ə/ (c), *some* /səm/ (d); and in the plural (e). The result of this test can be seen in *Table* 5.2:

Table 5.2 Test table for noun classes

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(2 + 3)
(a)	*Sid*	**book*	*furniture*	*brick*
(b)	**the Sid*	*the book*	*the furniture*	*the brick*
(c)	**a Sid*	*a book*	**a furniture*	*a brick*
(d)	**some Sid*	**some book*	*some furniture*	*some brick*
(e)	**Sids*	*books*	**furnitures*	*bricks*

The difference between column 1 (with only one possibility) and column 2 + 3 (with all possibilities) indicates the degree of variation between the noun classes. Nouns that behave like *Sid* in column 1 (*Confucius, Paris, Sierra Leone*, etc) are PROPER NOUNS, which will be further discussed in 5.60*ff*.

The nouns in the other columns are COMMON NOUNS, but there are important differences between them. Those which, like *book* in column 2 (*bottle, chair, forest, idea*, etc), must be seen as denoting individual countable entities and not as an undifferentiated mass, are called COUNT nouns. Nouns which, like *furniture*, conform to the pattern of column 3 (as do *bread, grass, warmth, music*, etc), must by contrast be seen as denoting an undifferentiated mass or continuum. These are called NONCOUNT nouns.

Finally we have nouns in column 2 + 3 which can be either count or noncount nouns (*eg*: *brick, cake, paper, stone*), in that we can view a noun like *brick* either as the noncount material [1], or as constituting the countable object [2]:

The house is built of *brick*. [1]
He used *bricks* to build the house. [2]

The type headed 2 + 3 may be classified grammatically in two ways: (a) either as a lexical class of noun which combines the characteristics of count nouns and noncount nouns, or (b) as two separate items, one count and the other noncount. The former mode of analysis is convenient for nouns like *brick* and *cake* with little difference in meaning between count and noncount uses. Therefore such nouns will be said to have 'dual class membership' (*cf* 5.4).

Although in sentences such as *I like music, I like Sid*, the two nouns look superficially alike in terms of article usage, we will say that *music* has ZERO ARTICLE but that *Sid* has NO ARTICLE. The label 'zero' is appropriate in the case of common nouns which have article contrast, *eg*: *music* as opposed to *the music* (*cf* 5.52*ff*) in:

I like *music* and dancing.
I think *the music* is too loud in here.

If, however, we disregard special grammatical environments like *the Sid I mean is tall* (*cf* 5.64), proper nouns have no article contrast (*Sid*/**the Sid*), and will therefore be said to have 'no article'.

Note COUNT nouns, as they are termed in this book, are by some grammarians called 'countable' nouns; similarly, our term NONCOUNT nouns corresponds to 'mass' nouns or 'uncountable' nouns in other grammars.

Concrete and abstract nouns

5.3 Cutting across the grammatical and semantic count/noncount distinction, there is a semantic division into nouns like *pig* which are CONCRETE (*ie* accessible to the senses, observable, measurable, etc) and nouns like *difficulty* which are ABSTRACT (typically nonobservable and nonmeasurable). But while abstract nouns may be count (like *remark*/*remarks*) or noncount (like *warmth*/**warmths*), there is a considerable degree of overlap between abstract and noncount (*cf* 5.58). *Figure* 5.3 shows the noun classes introduced so far.

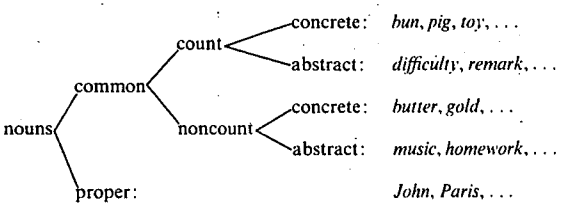

Fig 5.3 The most important noun classes

Nouns with dual class membership

5.4 The division of nouns according to countability into count nouns and noncount nouns is basic in English. Yet the language makes it possible to look upon some objects from the point of view of both count and noncount, as in the case of *cake*:

A: Would you like *a cake*? B: No, I don't like *cake*.

Such nouns may be said to have dual class membership. In other cases, *eg*: *paper*, there is no readily perceptible parallelism but a notable difference in meaning between the two nouns:

I want an evening *paper*. ['newspaper'] [1]
Wrap the parcel up in brown *paper*. ['wrapping paper'] [1a]

Note also the variation of quantifiers (*eg*: *much*/*many*) in some of the following examples of count and noncount nouns:

She was a *beauty* in her youth.	[COUNT]	[2]
She had great *beauty* in her youth.	[NONCOUNT]	[2a]
She's had many *difficulties*.	[COUNT]	[3]
She's not had much *difficulty*.	[NONCOUNT]	[3a]
He's had several odd *experiences*.	[COUNT]	[4]
He hasn't had much *experience*.	[NONCOUNT]	[4a]
There were bright *lights* and harsh *sounds*.	[COUNT]	[5]
Light travels faster than *sound*.	[NONCOUNT]	[5a]
She will give a *talk* on Chinese art.	[COUNT]	[6]
That's foolish *talk*.	[NONCOUNT]	[6a]
The *lambs* were eating quietly.	[COUNT]	[7]
There is *lamb* on the menu today.	[NONCOUNT]	[7a]

In many other cases, the type of distinction to be seen in the count noun *lamb*

(the animal, as in [7]) and the noncount noun *lamb* (the meat from the animal, as in [7a]) is achieved by separate lexical items, as in:

They raise a great many *calves*, *pigs*, and *sheep*. [8]
We eat a great deal of *veal*, *pork*, and *mutton*. [8a]

Other count/noncount pairs realized by different lexical items are the following:

a garment	~ *clothing*	*a job, a task*	~ *work* (*cf* 5.9)
a laugh	~ *laughter*	*a suitcase*	~ *luggage*
a permit	~ *permission*	*a poem*	~ *poetry*
a weapon	~ *arms* (*cf* 5.77)	*a machine*	~ *machinery*

Note also the contrast between the noncount noun *money* and the count nouns naming different units of money:

We haven't much *money* left. We've only got a few *coins*/two dollar *bills*/some pound *notes*.

Note The distinction between count nouns and noncount nouns is not fully explainable as necessarily inherent in 'real world' denotata. This is clear when we compare the words of languages closely related to English (*cf* 5.9). Rather, the justification for the count/noncount distinction is based on the grammatical characteristics of the English noun.

Reclassification

5.5 Nouns may also be shifted from one class to another by means of conversion (*cf* App I.53). Thus a noncount noun like *cheese* can be 'reclassified' as a count noun involving a semantic shift so as to denote quality partition 'kind/type/form of', *eg*:

A: What *cheeses* have you got today?
B: Well, we have Cheddar, Gorgonzola, and Danish Blue.

Similarly, a noun like *coffee*, which is normally noncount, as in [1], can be reclassified as a count noun to mean an 'appropriate unit of' as in [1a] and [1b], or a 'kind/sort/brand of' as in [1c] and [1d]:

Do you want *tea* or *coffee*? [1]
Can I have *a coffee*, please. ['a cup of coffee'] [1a]
Two coffees, please. ['two cups of coffee'] [1b]
This is *a nice coffee*. [1c]
I like *Brazilian coffees* best. [1d]

Note There is a special case of reclassification in cases like the following:
Are you *cosmetics*?
Here there is no coreference relation between subject and complement as in *Are you a teacher?* The complement represents instead a compressed form of the predication; *eg*: *Are you (selling) cosmetics?* In this use of the noun there is an implied contrast: 'cosmetics as opposed to toys, jewellery, etc in a department store'. Similarly:
Are you *103*? ['the occupant of room number 103, as opposed to 104, etc']
The contrast may also be more explicit, as in:
Are you *church* or *chapel*? ['a member of the Church of England or a nonconformist']
In these last cases we may argue that the noun has been reclassified as an adjective (*cf* App I.51), as in *They're very Oxbridge*.

Partitive constructions

Partition in respect of quality

5.6 Both count and noncount nouns can enter partitive constructions, *ie* constructions denoting a part of a whole. Such constructions express both quality partition (*eg*: *a kind of paper*) and quantity partition (*eg*: *a piece of paper*). Quality partition is expressed by a partitive count noun like *kind*, *sort*, or *type* followed by an *of*-phrase, *eg*:

SINGULAR PARTITIVES	PLURAL PARTITIVES
a new *kind of* computer	new *kinds of* computers
a delicious *sort of* bread	delicious *sorts of* bread
another *type of* research	other *types of* research

Quality partition of noncount nouns may thus be expressed either by a partitive construction or by reclassification (*cf* 5.5):

a nice kind of coffee ~ *a nice coffee*
English types of cheese ~ *English cheeses*

Note Whether we are dealing with count or noncount nouns, we can express the quality partition in the form *a* + adjective + noun, such that a sentence like the following is superficially ambiguous:
We are importing *a new Italian shirt*.
It may mean either 'a new type of' or 'a new item' (the former interpretation naturally being more likely in this case).

Partition in respect of quantity

5.7 (a) Noncount nouns
Noncount nouns are seen, as we have said, as denoting an undifferentiated mass. However, the expression of quantity and thus countability may be achieved by means of certain GENERAL PARTITIVE NOUNS, in particular *piece*, *bit*, *item*, followed by an *of*-phrase:

SINGULAR PARTITIVES	PLURAL PARTITIVES
a *piece of* cake	two *pieces of* cake
a *bit of* chalk	some *bits of* chalk
an *item of* news	several *items of* news

Quantity of noncount nouns may thus often be expressed either by partitive nouns or by reclassification (*cf* 5.5): *two lumps of sugar* = *two sugars*.

The most widely used partitive expression is *a piece of*, which can be combined with both concrete and abstract nouns, *eg*:

Concrete: *a piece of bacon/chalk/coal/land/paper*
Abstract: *a piece of advice/information/news/research/work*

Bit generally implies a small quantity: *a bit of rice/news/fun/research*. With abstract nouns, *item* is used (besides *piece*):

an item of business/information/news ['a news item']

Item is not generally used with concrete nouns: **an item of oil/cake* (BUT *an item of clothing*).

In addition to these general partitives there are some more restricted and

descriptive TYPICAL PARTITIVES which form expressions with specific concrete noncount nouns, such as the following:

an *atom/grain* of truth
a *bar* of chocolate/soap/gold/iron
a *blade* of grass
a *block* of ice/flats ⟨BrE⟩/seats [in a theatre]/shares [in a business]
a *cut* of lamb/meat; a *joint* of meat ⟨BrE⟩
a *drop* of water/oil/whisky
a *grain* of corn/rice/sand/salt
a *loaf* of bread
a *lump* of coal/lead/sugar
a *sheet* of paper/metal/ice
a *slice* of bacon/bread/cake/meat
a *speck* of dust/dirt
a *stick* of chalk/dynamite/celery/rock [a sweet] ⟨BrE⟩/candy ⟨AmE⟩
a *strip* of cloth/land/paper
a *suit* of clothing/clothes/armour

(b) Plural count nouns
Whereas the general partitive *a piece of* can be used with many of the noncount nouns (*a piece of paper/bacon/news*, etc), it cannot be used with plural count nouns (including invariably plural nouns like *cattle*; *cf* 5.76*ff*). Other partitives are used with them, *eg*:

a (large) *crowd* of people
a (huge) *flock* of birds/sheep
a (small) *herd* of cattle
a *packet* ⟨BrE⟩/*pack* ⟨esp AmE⟩ of cigarettes
a *series* of incidents/concerts/lectures
a *bunch* of flowers/keys [In informal style, *bunch* is also used about people, like 'group': *a bunch of teenagers.*]

(c) Singular count nouns
Partition can also be expressed in reference to singular count nouns, *eg*:

a *piece* of a loaf
a *branch* of a tree
a *page* of a book
a *section* of a newspaper
a *verse* of a poem

Fractional partition can also be expressed by such general quantitative items as *half, all, whole* + *of* + noun (*cf* 5.16*f*):

I'd like { *half of* / *a quarter of* / *all of* / *the whole of* / *the rest of* / *the remainder of* } that piece (of meat).

Note [a] When we modify a partitive noun sequence, the modification applies to the group as a whole: an expensive *cup of coffee* ['*The cup of coffee* cost a lot.']

But, of course, since in many cases the adjective modifying the whole group could equally apply to the second noun, we have some instances like the following where the meanings of the two phrases differ little, if at all:

a hot [*cup of tea*] = a cup of hot tea
a good [*stroke of luck*] = a stroke of good luck
a beautiful [*pair of legs*] = a pair of beautiful legs

The premodifiers (*hot*, etc) in such cases often apply more appropriately to the second noun than to the first; *ie* it is not the cup but the tea that is hot in *a hot cup of tea*. In *a nice glass of whisky*, *nice* is roughly equivalent to 'welcome' and offers only implicit comment on the quality of the liquor.

[b] Typical partitives sometimes have a negative intensifying force (*cf* 8.111):
A: Did you sleep well?
B: No, I didn't get *a wink* (of sleep).

[c] When the two partitive constructions combine, the quantity partitive is included in the scope of the quality partitive:
[*two kinds of* [*loaves of bread*]]
but not: **two loaves of kinds of bread*

Measure partitive nouns

5.8 The measure partitives relate to precise quantities denoting length, area, volume, and weight, for example (note the compulsory *of*):

Length:	a *foot* of copper wire	
	a *metre* ⟨BrE⟩/a *meter* ⟨AmE⟩/a *yard* of cloth	
	a *mile* of cable	
Area:	an *acre*/a *hectare* of land	
Volume:	a *litre* ⟨BrE⟩/a *liter* ⟨AmE⟩ of wine	
	a *pint*/a *quart* of milk	
Weight:	an *ounce* of tobacco	a *pound* of butter
	a *kilo* of apples	a *ton* of coal

Measure partitives can be either singular or plural:

{ *a/one gallon* / *two/several gallons* } of water

If count, the second noun must be plural:

{ *one kilo of* / *two kilos of* } { *apples* / **apple* }

Noncount nouns and their count equivalents

5.9 It may be noted that, apart from a tendency for concrete nouns to be count and for abstract nouns to be noncount, there is no necessary connection between the classes of nouns and the entities to which they refer. In some related languages, the nouns corresponding to *information, money, news*, and *work*, for example, are count nouns, but in English they are noncount:

He didn't give us *much information.*
Do you need *all this money*?
The news is rather bad today.
She doesn't like *hard work.*

Some noncount nouns with count equivalents are given below:

NONCOUNT NOUN	COUNT EQUIVALENT
This is important *information*.	a *piece/bit/word* of information
Have you any *news*?	a *piece*/a *bit*/an *item* of good news
a lot of *abuse*	a *term/word* of abuse
some good *advice*	a *piece/word* of good advice
warm *applause*	a *round* of applause
How's *business*?	a *piece/bit* of business
There is *evidence* that . . .	a *piece* of evidence
expensive *furniture*	a *piece*/an *article*/a *suite* of furniture
The *interest* is only 5 per cent.	a (low) *rate* of interest
What (bad/good) *luck*!	a *piece* of (bad/good) luck

Since such differences between languages can be adequately treated only in contrastive grammars, we will restrict the list below to a sample of some nouns (in addition to those mentioned earlier) which are noncount in English but correspond to count nouns in some other languages:

anger	*behaviour*	*cash*
chaos	*chess*	*conduct*
courage	*dancing*	*education*
equipment	*fun*	*harm*
homework	*hospitality*	*leisure*
moonlight	*music*	*parking*
photography	*publicity*	*refuse*
research	*resistance*	*safety*
scenery	*shopping*	*smoking*
sunshine	*traffic*	*violence*

Note [a] Some of the noncount nouns can be count nouns with special meanings, *eg*: *moneys* 'amounts of money', as can be seen in a dictionary.

[b] It can be argued that some nouns, like *weather*, are neither count (**a weather*) nor noncount (**a lot of weather*), but these nouns share features belonging to both classes. Noncount noun features include the premodified structures *a lot of good weather, some bad weather, what lovely weather*. On the other hand, count noun features include the plural *go out in all weathers, in the worst of weathers*.

[c] On the use of *fun* as adjective, *cf* 7.14 Note [c].

[d] Some noncount nouns accept the indefinite article when they are modified (*cf* 5.59), *eg*:

They are doing *a brisk business*. (NOT **a business*)

In some cases no modification seems to be required. In the following example, however, modification is in fact implied:

She has had *an education*. ['a good education']

[e] Names of languages are all noncount, *eg*:

She speaks *good English*. [~ 'a good English']

Occasionally, however, they are count, as in the partitive sense described in 5.6:

She speaks *a dialectal French*. ['a dialectal form of French']

Determinatives

5.10 When used in discourse, noun phrases refer to the linguistic or situational context. The kind of reference a particular noun phrase has depends on its DETERMINATIVE element, *ie* the item which 'determines' it. This function is typically realized by a set of closed-class items, or DETERMINERS, which occur before the noun acting as head of the noun phrase (or before its premodifiers) (*cf* 2.28*ff*). Thus we say that the noun phrase in [1] has indefinite reference, whereas the noun phrase in [2] has definite reference:

Have you seen { *a bicycle*? [1]
the bicycle? [2]

Indefinite reference is typically indicated by the indefinite article *a/an*, and definite reference is typically indicated by the definite article *the*, but, as we shall see, there are also other determiners with a similar function.

We distinguish three classes of determiners:

(I) PREDETERMINERS, *eg*: *half, all, double*;
(II) CENTRAL DETERMINERS, *eg*: the articles *the, a/an*;
(III) POSTDETERMINERS, *eg*: cardinal and ordinal numerals, *many, few*.

The three classes of determiners have been set up on the basis of their position in the noun phrase in relation to each other. Thus we do not find central determiner + predeterminer (**their all trouble*), or postdeterminer + central determiner + predeterminer (**five the all boys*), but only the order I + II + III given above: *all their trouble, all the five boys*.

We begin by discussing the articles and other central determiners (5.11–14), and then go on to predeterminers (5.15–19), and postdeterminers (5.20–25).

Central determiners

The articles

5.11 The most common and typical central determiners are the definite and indefinite articles, *the* and *a/an*, respectively. We have seen in 5.2 that different noun classes require different articles. For the two classes of common nouns, the count and noncount nouns, the distribution into number (singular/plural) and definiteness (definite/indefinite) can be stated as follows:

Table 5.11 Use of the articles with count and noncount nouns

		COUNT	NONCOUNT
SINGULAR	definite	*the book*	*the furniture*
	indefinite	*a book*	*furniture*
PLURAL	definite	*the books*	
	indefinite	*books*	

The forms of the articles depend on the initial sound of the following word.

In its unstressed (and normal) use, the definite article is always written *the* but pronounced /ðə/ before consonants and /ðɪ/ before vowels. The unstressed indefinite article is *a* /ə/ before consonants and *an* /ən/ before vowels. Note that it is the pronunciation, not the spelling, of the following word that determines their form:

the /ðə/, *a* /ə/ } *boy, usage, hole* *the* /ðɪ/, *an* /ən/ } *understanding, hour*

The use of the articles is discussed in 5.26*ff*.

Note [a] The indefinite article *a/an* can be regarded as an unstressed numeral, equivalent to stressed *one*. Compare:

a pound or two *one or two pounds*

A/an cannot cooccur with *one* (except, in limited cases, when *one* is the head of a noun phrase: *You are a one!*, *cf* 6.55 Note [b]), and may sometimes replace *one* (*cf* 5.38).

[b] There is fluctuation in the form of the indefinite article before some words that are written with initial *h*, depending on whether the *h* is pronounced or not:

a, *an* } *hotel, herb*
historical novel BUT: *a history*
habitual drunkard BUT: *a habit*

[c] The initial *h* is not pronounced in *hour* (*hourly*), *honest*, *honour* (*honourable*), *heir* (*heiress*, *heirloom*). Thus: *an hour ago*, *an honours degree*.

[d] Note words which are spelled with an initial vowel but pronounced with a consonant: *a European car*, *a UNESCO official*; and, conversely, words which are spelled with an initial consonant but pronounced with a vowel: *an MP*, *an RP accent*.

[e] The articles are stressed only for very special emphasis. Here the distinction between the pre-vowel and pre-consonant form is neutralized for the definite article:

'*the* /ðiː/ *boy, usage, understanding, hour*
'*a* /eɪ/ *boy, usage*
'*an* /æn/ *understanding, hour*

In writing, emphasis is often indicated by italics or underlining: '*the* man'.

The stressed definite article is often used to indicate excellence or superiority in some respect [1, 2], or the identity of somebody well-known [3] (*cf* 5.63):

He would be '*the* /ðiː/ man for the job. [1]
The demonstration will be '*the* /ðiː/ event this week. [2]
You don't mean '*the* /ðiː/ Professor Hart? [3]

There is some criticism of the overuse of stressed articles for expected unstressed articles, especially on radio and TV (*cf* overuse of stressed prepositions, 9.9 Note, 18.14 Note [b]).

[f] The indefinite article means 'a certain', 'a person giving his name as' (*cf*: *one* 5.63 Note [b]), in such cases as:

A Mr Johnson came to see you last night.

[g] On *a/an* in distributive expressions of frequency like *twice a day*, *cf* 5.18.

Other central determiners

5.12 The use of the articles is not the only possibility for 'determining' nouns. Instead of *a* or *the* with *book* we may have *eg*: *this/that/every/each/no book*. Like the articles, these words, and some others, are called central determiners. They form a set of closed-class items that are mutually exclusive with each other, *ie* there cannot be more than one occurring before the noun head: **a the boy* and **a some boy*. Thus, the central determiners are in a 'choice relation', *ie* they occur one instead of another. In this respect they are unlike *eg*: *all*, *many*, and *white*, which are in a 'chain relation' (*cf* 2.5), *ie* they occur one after another in the noun phrase: *all the many white houses*.

The articles have no function independent of the noun they precede. Most other determiners have the additional function of pronouns, *eg*: *some*, *that*, and *either*:

DETERMINER FUNCTION	PRONOUN FUNCTION
A: I want *some ice*.	B: Here's *some* for you.
A: What's *that thing* over there?	B: *That*'s our computer.
Either book will do.	You can have *either* (of the books).

On pronouns like *either* with or without the alternative *of*-construction, *cf* 6.48.

No and *every* are exceptional: like the articles, they cannot function independently as pronouns. They can, however, form part of compound pronouns when followed by (-)*one*, -*body*, or -*thing* (*cf* 6.45*ff*):

no one	*nobody*	*nothing*
everyone	*everybody*	*everything*

Unlike other central determiners, the articles have no lexical meaning but solely contribute definite or indefinite status to the nouns they determine. Yet the dependence is not unilateral. For example, a count noun like *boy* is, on its own, only a lexical item. To assume grammatical status, it requires an 'overt' determiner of some kind. The use of the articles will be discussed in 5.26*ff*, and the use of other central determiners in Chapter 6.

Note [a] There are two exceptions to the rule that count nouns cannot occur without a determiner. One occurs in parallel structures (*cf* 5.50):

Man or *boy*, I don't like him.

The other exceptional case is that of vocatives (*cf* 10.52*f*):

Look here, *man*!

Man is also used generically without the article (*cf* 5.54 Note).

[b] Coordinated noun-phrase heads can share a determiner placed before the first head (*cf* 13.67):

the boys and (*the*) *girls*
the radios, (*the*) *tape recorders*, and (*the*) *television sets* in this store
a knife, (*a*) *fork*, and (*a*) *spoon*

Central determiners and noun classes

5.13 We have noted in 5.2 that there are certain cooccurrence restrictions between articles and common nouns. The definite article can occur with all three noun classes (singular count, plural count, and singular noncount), but the zero and indefinite articles cannot do so. When we consider determiners as a whole, we will find that there are many more restrictions. For *no*, for example, we have all three possibilities:

no pen	*no pens*	*no music*

But there are incomplete paradigms for *this*, *either*, and *enough*:

this pen	**this pens*	*this music*
either pen	**either pens*	**either music*
**enough pen*	*enough pens*	*enough music*

5.14 The central determiners can be divided into five types with respect to their cooccurrence with the noun classes singular count (*chair*, *problem*, etc), plural count (*chairs*, *problems*, etc), and noncount nouns (*furniture*, *information*, etc).

Type	SINGULAR COUNT	PLURAL COUNT	NONCOUNT
(a)	+	+	+
(b)	−	+	+
(c)	+	−	+
(d)	−	+	−
(e)	+	−	−

Fig 5.14 Cooccurrence of central determiners and noun classes

Type (a): Determiners of singular count, plural count, and noncount nouns.

(i) The definite article *the* (*cf* 5.27*ff*):

Where do you want me to put *the chair/the chairs/the furniture*?

(ii) The possessive pronouns as determiners: *my, our, your, his, her, its, their* (*cf* 6.29):

Have you seen *my suitcase/my suitcases/my luggage*?

(iii) The relative determiners *whose* (*cf* 6.34) and *which* (*cf* 6.35 Note [c]):

The lady *whose car* you hit was furious.
Call again at 11, by *which time* the meeting should be over.

(iv) The *wh*-determiners in *-ever* (*cf* 14.20):

Vote for *whichever proposal* you think most favourable.
For *whatever reason*, don't be late again.
Whosever idea this may be, I don't like it.

(v) The interrogative determiners *what, which, whose* (*cf* 6.36*ff*):

What colour?
Which information?
Whose ideas are these?

(vi) The negative determiner *no* (*cf* 6.62):

We have *no problem/problems* with violence here.
The sign said '*No parking*'.

Type (b): Determiners of plural count nouns and noncount nouns.

(i) Zero article (*cf* 5.39*ff*):

There were *people* everywhere.
Do you want to play *chess*?

(ii) The assertive determiner *some* (unstressed: /səm/) and the nonassertive determiner *any* (*cf* 6.59*ff*):

I want *some rolls/bread*, please.
Have we got *any rolls/bread* for breakfast tomorrow?

(iii) The quantitative determiner *enough* (*cf* 6.57):

I haven't got *enough equipment/tools* to do the job.

Type (c): Determiners of singular count nouns and singular noncount nouns. The demonstrative determiners *this* and *that* (*cf* 6.40*ff*):

Have you read *this/that book*?

Type (d): Determiners of plural count nouns. The demonstrative determiners *these* and *those* (*cf* 6.40*ff*):

Have you seen *these/those plays*?

Type (e): Determiners of singular count nouns.

(i) The indefinite article *a/an* (*cf* 5.36*ff*):

Have you got *a pen*?

(ii) The universal determiners *every* and *each* (*cf* 6.51):

I want to interview *every/each student* individually.

(iii) The nonassertive determiner *either* (*cf* 6.59*ff*):

You can park on *either side*.

(iv) The negative determiner *neither* (*cf* 6.62):

Neither party accepted the arbitration proposal.

Note [a] Strongly stressed *some* can occur also with certain singular count nouns, especially temporal nouns (*cf* 6.52):
"*Some 'day* he will get his scholarship.
With the meaning 'a certain', etc, stressed *some* can also cooccur with other singular count nouns:
'*Some odd person* asked for you on the phone.
[b] Stressed *any* can occur also with singular count nouns under certain conditions (*cf* 6.61):
I will consider "*any offer/offers*. ['it doesn't matter which']
[c] *Every* is exceptional among central determiners in occasionally allowing a genitive or a possessive determiner to precede it:
His every action shows that he is a very determined young man. BUT NOT: **the/an every action*

Predeterminers

5.15 Predeterminers, which can occur before certain central determiners, include:

(i) *all, both*, and *half* (*cf* 5.16*f*):

all (*the*) girls, *both those* cars, *half an* hour

(ii) the multipliers *double, twice, three times*, etc (*cf* 5.18):

double the sum, *twice my* salary

(iii) the fractions *one-third, one-fifth*, etc (*cf* 5.19):

one-third the time

(iv) *such, what* (*cf* 7.63, 17.96):

Such a surprise!
What a fine day!

Predeterminers are mutually exclusive:

all girls, *both* girls BUT NOT: **all both* girls
half the sum, *double the* sum BUT NOT: **half double the* sum

Note The combination *all such*, as in [1], is an exception to the rule, just noted, that predeterminers are mutually exclusive:

Although every attempt is made to find suitable foster-homes for the children, it cannot be assumed that *all such* placements will be successful. [1]

The predeterminer *such*, used in this way as a pro-form (*cf* 2.44, 6.44 Note [b]), can also follow quantifiers such as *any*, *no*, and *many*, as well as cardinal numerals:

Outbreaks of small-arms fire along the frontier became more frequent in May,

{ but { *no* / hardly *any* } / and { *several* / *many* / *forty-one* } } *such* incidents were officially investigated. [2]

All, both, half

5.16 The predeterminers *all*, *both*, and *half* have restrictions on cooccurrence with determiners and noun heads. They can occur before the articles (*all the time*), possessive determiners (*all my time*, etc), demonstrative determiners (*all this time*). However, since they are themselves quantifiers, *all*, *both*, and *half* do not occur with the 'quantitative' determiners *every*, (*n*)*either*, *each*, *some*, *any*, *no*, *enough* (but *cf* 5.17 Note [a]). *Both* can occur only with plural nouns and has dual number (see below):

all (*the*) day	*all* (*the*) days	*all* (*the*) furniture
half a day	*half my* days	*half the* furniture
	both (*the*/*my*) eyes	

In addition to this predeterminer function, *all*, *both*, and *half* as pronouns can take partitive *of*-phrases, which are optional with nouns and obligatory with pronouns (*cf* '*of*-pronouns', 6.48):

all (*of*) *the* students	*all of them*/*whom*
both (*of*) *his* eyes	*both of them*/*which*
half (*of*) *the* time/cost	*half of it*/*this*

With a quantifier following, the *of*-phrase is preferred (esp in AmE):

all of the many boys

All three can be used as independent pronouns:

All/*both*/*half* passed their exams.

All and *both* (but not *half*) can occur after the head, either immediately or in the *M* adverb position (after the operator, *cf* 8.16). For *all* and *both* we have, then, the following possibilities:

All students were accepted. [1]
All the students were accepted. [2]
All of the students were accepted. [3]
The students were *all* accepted. [4]
All were accepted. [5]
All of them were accepted. [6]

They were *all* accepted. [7]
?*They all* were accepted. [8]

All is considered a pronoun in all these constructions except [1] and [2], where it is a predeterminer.

The predeterminer *both* and the central determiners *either* and *neither* are not plural proper but 'dual', *ie* they can refer to only two entities. Compared with the numeral *two*, *both* is emphatic:

{ *Both* (*the*) / *The two* } students were excellent.

For the use of these items as pronouns, *cf* 6.50 (*all*, *both*), 6.57 (*half*).

All and *whole*

5.17 The form *all* + noun with no article usually has generic reference (*cf* 5.26):

All men are created equal. [generic reference]

Contrast: *All the men* in the mine wore helmets. [specific reference]

But *all* + noun is not necessarily generic, *eg*:

I will see *all* (*the*) *students* at 11 a.m.
All (*the*) *men* must leave their coats here, but (the) women may take theirs with them.

The predeterminer *all* and the quantity partitive *whole* (*cf* 5.7) appear in parallel expressions. In *the whole of*, the definite article is obligatory. The use of *all* (*of*) (*the*) and *the whole* (*of*) is far from straightforward.

(i) *All*, *all the*, or *the whole* is used with temporal nouns, *eg*:

{ *all* (*the*) / *the whole* } day/morning/week

All of the + unit of time is rather uncommon:

?*all of the* day/hour/week

In the negated expression *I haven't seen him all day*, only the zero form is used. With indefinite reference, only *whole* can be used:

I spent { *a whole morning* / *the whole morning* } studying the script. ['full, entire']

(ii) *All the* or *the whole* is used with other count nouns that are understood to be divisible:

{ *all the* / *the whole* } family/way/story

All + noun occurs occasionally with concrete singular count nouns [1, 2], and it is less rare with contrastive stress [1a, 2a], where *book* and *banana* are treated as a divisible mass:

?I haven't read *all the* BÒOK. [1]

The monkey ate *all the baNÀna.* [2]
I haven't read *ÄLL the book.* [1a]
The monkey ate *ÀLL the banana.* [2a]

The normal constructions would be:

all of the / *the whole* } *book/banana*

Also with abstract nouns, *the whole* is often preferable to *all the*; *eg*:

the whole truth/distance/environment

(iii) With proper nouns and other nouns without the definite article, *all* (*of*) or *the whole of* is used:

all (*of*) / *the whole of* } Finland/London/next month

The use of *all* + a geographical name to denote the population is rather formal:

All Paris welcomed the General.

In less formal contexts, *The whole of Paris* . . . would be normal in denoting the population, or (more likely) referring to the city area.

(iv) With noncount nouns *all* (*of*) *the* is used:

Have you used up *all* (*of*) *the coffee*?
All (*of*) *the music* on the programme was modern.

The whole of is less preferred and *the whole* is unacceptable here.

Note [a] There is also an adverb *half* which can cooccur with noun heads, as in:
It is *half wine, half water.*
In the colloquial negation *n't half* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *half* can precede *enough* (*cf* 8.107 Note [b]):
He hasn't *half enough* money.
[b] *Both* and *half* with the *of*-construction are sometimes (especially dialectally) preceded by the definite article:
You don't know *the half of it.*
I've had enough of *the both of you.*
[c] The postposed pronoun *all* in *They were all hungry* must not be confused with *all* as an informal intensifying adverb in *He is all upset* (*cf* 7.57).
[d] For the following uses of *quite, rather, such,* and *what, cf* 7.56 Note [b], 7.63:
It was *quite a party.* It's *rather an odd story.*
Such a fine present! *What a stupid idea!*
[e] 'Restrictives' like *just, only, especially,* etc also occur before determiners:
Only the best cars are exported.
However, they have no special relation to noun phrase structure, since they can also modify verbs, adverbs, and adjectives (*cf* focusing subjuncts, 8.116*f*):

He's *just* { a boy. / feeling sick. / a little sick. / sleepy. }

The multipliers *double, twice,* etc

5.18 The second type of predeterminer includes the multipliers which occur with nouns denoting quantity:

twice { his strength / her age } *double* { the amount / their salaries }

three times { this amount / the usual cost / the sum }

Once, twice, and *three, four,* etc *times* can cooccur with the determiners *a, every, each,* and (less commonly) *per* to form 'distributive' expressions of frequency with a temporal noun as head (*cf* 8.64):

once / *twice* / *three* / *four* } *times* } { *a* / *every* / *each* / *per* } { *day* / *week* / *month* / *year* / *decade* }

Such expressions can also occur with *every* + spatial nouns:

We stopped *once every mile.*

Both with temporal and spatial nouns, *every* can be followed by a numeral in such expressions as the above:

once every three months
twice every hundred miles

The fractions *one-third, two-fifths,* etc

5.19 The fractions can also be followed by determiners. Unlike the multipliers, the fractions have the alternative *of*-construction. The indefinite article can replace *one* (*cf* 5.38):

He did it in { *one-third* / *a third* } (*of*) *the time* it took me.

Postdeterminers

5.20 Postdeterminers follow predeterminers or central determiners (if such determiners are present). But they precede any adjectives and other premodifying items (*cf* 17.2). Postdeterminers include:

(a) Cardinal numerals (*cf* 5.21): *my three children*
(b) Ordinal numerals and 'general ordinals' (*cf* 5.22): *the first day, the last month*
(c) Closed-class quantifiers (*cf* 5.23*f*): *few people*
(d) Open-class quantifiers (*cf* 5.25): *a large number of people*

(a) Cardinal numerals

5.21 *One* cooccurs with singular count nouns (*one sister*), and the other cardinal numerals (*cf* 6.63) cooccur with plural count nouns (*two, three,* etc *brothers*). In many contexts, *one* may be regarded as a stressed form of the indefinite article and may sometimes replace it (*cf* 5.19, 5.38):

I would like { *a* / *one* } photocopy of this article.

Thus, the indefinite article normally cannot cooccur with *one*, but the definite article can:

a one book
the one ['only'] book } I like best
the two books

(b) Ordinal numerals and 'general ordinals'

5.22 The ordinal numerals have a one-for-one relation with the cardinals: *first/one, second/two, third/three, fourth/four, twentieth/twenty*, etc (*cf* 6.63*f*).

The 'general ordinals' include items like *next, last, past, (an)other, additional*, and *further* ['additional'], which resemble the ordinal numerals grammatically and semantically.

Ordinals cooccur with count nouns and usually precede any cardinal numbers in the noun phrase:

the *first two* days *another three* weeks

Note [a] The general ordinals *last, past*, and *next* may precede or follow cardinals with a difference of meaning. For example: *the last two pages* would mean 'the last and penultimate page of a book', whereas *the two last pages* could mean 'the last page in each of two books'. On divided concord usage, *eg*: *The last two months is/are . . .*, *cf* 10.35 Note [b].
[b] *Another* has two functions. It can be the unstressed form of 'one other' in contrast with *the other* (definite; *cf* 6.58), as in [1]; or it can have the meaning of 'further', 'additional', 'second', in which case there is no definite form, as in [2]:

I don't like this room. I'd prefer { *another* / *the other* } *one*. [1]

We need *another two rooms* for the meeting.
['two more rooms'; *cf*: *the other two rooms* 'the two different rooms'] [2]

Note that when it is followed by a plural cardinal number, *another* takes a plural noun as head.

(c) Closed-class quantifiers

5.23 There are two small groups of closed-class quantifiers which function as postdeterminers (*cf* 6.53*ff*).

(i) *Many*, (*a*) *few*, and *several* cooccur only with plural count nouns:

There were { too *many* / only *a few* / very *few* / *several* } mistakes in your essay.

(ii) *Much* and (*a*) *little* cooccur only with noncount nouns:

She hasn't got *much* money.
She has only got (*a*) *little* money.

There are restrictions on the use of *much* with singular and *many* with plural nouns, and the corresponding open-class postdeterminers are widely used instead (*cf* 6.53). Thus *much* is typically used in a nonassertive sentence like [1]; but in an assertive sentence like [2], usually *a lot of* (chiefly in informal style), or a similar colloquial postdeterminer, is used:

We don't have *much* time. [1]

We have { *plenty of* / *a lot of* / *lots of* } time. [2]

In the case of (*a*) *few* ['a small number'] and (*a*) *little* ['a small quantity'], there is positive/negative contrast according to whether the indefinite article is used or not. When *a/an* does not precede, *few* and *little* are stressed:

He wrote { *a few* 'books. ['some, several']
'*few* 'books. ['not many']
a little 'poetry. ['some']
'*little* 'poetry. ['not much'] }

The postdeterminers (*a*) *few* and (*a*) *little* (*cf* 6.53, 6.62), the determiners *any, no*, and *some* (*cf* 5.39*f*, 6.52), and the predeterminers *all* and *both* are all quantifiers although they belong to different syntactic classes.

Note [a] *Few* and *little* may be preceded by central determiners other than *a*, *eg*: *these few days, that little money*, but we shall refer only to *a few* versus *few*, *a little* versus *little* where the distinction is clearest.
[b] *Several* can be preceded by a possessive determiner in the sense of 'separate', 'respective': *their several opinions*.
[c] *Many* and *few* can also be used predicatively in formal style (*cf* 6.53 Note [b], 6.62):
His faults were *many/few*.
Many can also function as a predeterminer with singular count nouns preceded by the indefinite article:
many a good student ⟨rather formal⟩ ['*many good* students']
[d] The quantifier *enough* is used with both count and noncount nouns:
There are (not) *enough* students.
There is (not) *enough* money.
Occasionally it follows the noun (especially noncount: *money enough*), but this use strikes many people as archaic or dialectal.

5.24 Since *a few* determines plural count nouns (*a few books*), and *a little* determines noncount nouns (*a little poetry*), neither of which noun classes cooccurs with the indefinite article, it will be clear that in these instances *a* belongs to the quantifier alone.

Few, little, much, and *many* are gradable, and also have comparative and superlative forms (*cf* 7.74*ff*):

few/fewer/fewest dollars *many/more/most* dollars
little/less/least money *much/more/most* money

There is a tendency to use *less* (instead of *fewer*) and *least* (instead of *fewest*) also with count nouns:

You've made *less* mistakes than last time.

This usage is however often condemned. *No less than* is more generally accepted:

No less than fifty people were killed in the accident.

Being gradable, *many, much, few*, and *little* can be modified by intensifying adverbs (*cf* 7.87*ff*): *too much, very few*, etc.

Note The quantifier *little* ['not much'] should be distinguished from the homonymous adjective *little*

['small'], which cooccurs with singular or plural count nouns: *a little girl, five little girls*. Thus *a little cake* is ambiguous according to whether it means 'a small cake' [*little* = adjective] or 'a small amount of cake' [*little* = postdeterminer].

(d) Open-class quantifiers

5.25 There is also a large open class of phrasal quantifiers which function semantically like the closed-class quantifiers, but most of which consist of a noun of quantity (*lot, deal, amount*, etc) followed by *of* and often preceded by the indefinite article. Some of these, including *plenty of*, can cooccur equally with noncount and plural count nouns:

The room contained { *plenty of* / *a lot of* / *lots of* } { students. / furniture. }

These quantifiers (especially *lots*) are chiefly used informally.

Others are restricted to quantifying only noncount nouns [1], or plural count nouns [2]:

The chest contained *a* { *great* / *good* / (*large*) / (*small*) } { *deal* / *quantity* / *amount* } *of* money. [1]

The hall contained *a* { (*great*) / (*large*) / (*good*) } *number of* students. [2]

As the examples suggest, it is usual for these open-class quantifiers to be modified by a quantifying adjective, the latter being obligatory in Standard English with *deal*. (On concord with open-class quantifiers, *cf* 10.43.)

Although the quantity nouns *lot, deal*, etc look like the head of a noun phrase, there are grounds for arguing that the whole expression (*a lot of, a good deal of*, etc) functions as a determiner. Notably, the verb regularly has number concord with the second noun, rather than the first, as in:

{ *Lots of food was* on the table.
{ = There *was lots of food* on the table.

Note [a] As with *less* and *least*, there is a tendency (esp in AmE) to use *amount* for the more generally acceptable *number* also with count nouns, despite objections to this usage:
There were *large amounts of tourists* on the ferry.
This hall can seat *a large amount of people*.
[b] In familiar spoken English we find a wide range of quantifiers roughly synonymous with *lots of*, *eg*:
We've got *bags of* time.
She's got { *stacks of* / *heaps of* / *loads of* } money.
They have *umpteen* jazz records.

The use of articles with common nouns

Specific and generic reference

5.26 In discussing the use of the articles, we must distinguish between specific and generic reference. Compare sentences [1] and [2]:

A lion and *two tigers* are sleeping in the cage. [1]
Tigers are dangerous animals. [2]

In [1] the reference is SPECIFIC, since we have in mind particular specimens of the class 'tiger'. But if we say [2], the reference is GENERIC, since we are thinking of the class 'tiger' without specific reference to particular tigers.

The distinctions between definite and indefinite, and between singular and plural, are important for specific reference. They tend to be less crucial for generic reference, because generic reference is used to denote the class or species generally. Consequently, the distinctions of number which apply to this or that member, or group of members, of the class are neutralized, being largely irrelevant to the generic concept. Singular or plural, definite or indefinite, can often be used without appreciable difference of meaning in generic contexts:

A German is a good musician. / *Germans* / *The Germans* } are good musicians.
A tiger / *Tigers* / *The tiger* } can be dangerous.

A fourth possibility might even be included:

The German is a good musician.

But the slight differences between these various forms, and the reasons for preferring one to another, will be considered in 5.52*ff*.

The use of articles with specific reference is summarized in *Table* 5.26:

Table 5.26 Use of the articles with specific reference

	DEFINITE		INDEFINITE	
	COUNT	NONCOUNT	COUNT	NONCOUNT
SINGULAR	*the tiger*	the furniture	*a tiger*	(some) *furniture*
PLURAL	the tigers		(some) *tigers*	

Only those choices italicized in this table are used for generic reference. At present we will concentrate on the specific use of the articles, which is much more frequent than the generic.

Specific reference: definite and indefinite

Uses of the definite article

5.27 The definite article *the* is used to mark the phrase it introduces as definite, *ie* as 'referring to something which can be identified uniquely in the contextual or general knowledge shared by speaker and hearer'. The 'something' referred

to may be any kind of noun phrase referent: a person (*the girl*), a group of people (*the firemen*), an object (*the lamp*), a group of objects (*the roses*), an abstraction (*the plan*), a group of abstractions (*the fears*), etc. Moreover, the noun determined by *the* may have pre- or postmodification, by which the 'something' identified by *the* may be more precisely specified, *eg*:

the *tall* lamp the lamp *on the table*

Given that the use of *the* relies on shared knowledge, there are several ways in which the identity of the referent may be determined or 'recovered' by the hearer, as we shall see in 5.28*ff*.

Note As elsewhere, when no distinction is necessary in this discussion of articles, 'speaker' subsumes 'writer', and 'hearer' subsumes 'reader'.

(a) Immediate situation

5.28 The term SITUATIONAL REFERENCE may be used to describe cases where the reference of *the* is derived from the extralinguistic situation. We first distinguish *the* used with reference to the IMMEDIATE situation:

The roses are very beautiful. [said in a garden]
Have you visited *the castle*? [said in a given town]
I missed both *the lectures* this morning. [said by one student to another]
Have you fed *the cat*? [said in a domestic context]
These are *the pistons*. [explaining the engine of a car]

It is, of course, possible for the speaker to misjudge the knowledge of the hearer, in which case the hearer may need to seek clarification through a *which*- or *what*-question (with the nucleus on the *wh*-item):

Have you fed *the cat*? WHICH cat?
Aren't *the red roses* lovely? WHÀT red roses?

Note In practice, since a speaker cannot always be sure of the hearer's state of knowledge, use of *the* involves a certain amount of guesswork. In fact, in some cases the assumption of shared knowledge is a palpable fiction. Notices such as *Mind the step* and *Beware of the dog*, for example, generally do not assume that the reader was previously aware of the hazards in question.

(b) Larger situation (general knowledge)

5.29 The identity of the referent may be evident from knowledge of the 'larger' situation which speaker and hearer share, *eg*:

the Prime Minister *the airlines* *the last war*

The larger situation may in fact be worldwide (*the Pope*), or be shared by all inhabitants of a country; *eg* in the United States, at a given time, virtually everyone will know which president is being referred to by the phrase *the President*. When it is as wide as this, the 'larger situation' is scarcely distinguishable from general knowledge and may extend, in extreme cases, to the whole planet or to the whole of human history. In the use of phrases like *the sun* there is the presupposition that, in our experience or fields of interest, there is only one such object. Similar examples are:

the North Pole	*the Equator*	*the earth*
the moon	*the sea*	*the sky*
the stars	*the universe*	*the cosmos*
the zenith	*the nadir*	*the Renaissance*
the Greek gods	*the Republic*	*the Church*

There is a tendency for some nominal expressions following *the* to be written with initial capitals. This is because such expressions in effect have UNIQUE DENOTATION, and in this respect resemble proper nouns (*cf* 5.60*ff*).

There is no clear dividing line between 'immediate' and 'larger' situations; instead, there is a scale of generality running from the most restricted to the least restricted sphere that can be envisaged: that of the whole universe of human knowledge.

Note [a] Singular noun phrases having unique denotation include phrases referring to classes, groups, etc of human beings such as the following (*cf* collective nouns, 5.108):

the working class *the proletariat*
the bourgeoisie *the aristocracy*

Similar plural phrases include those referring to clans, tribes, races, etc:

the Romans *the Gordon Highlanders*
the masses *the Italians*

The use of *the* in respect of the 'larger situation' overlaps with the generic use (*cf* 5.52*ff*).

[b] Contrary to normal practice, there is no article before *earth* in the following expressions (*cf* 5.41*ff*):

come back/down to *earth*
He's very down to *earth*. ['direct']
What on *earth* are you doing?

(c) Anaphoric reference: direct

5.30 The term ANAPHORIC REFERENCE is used where the uniqueness of reference of some phrase *the X* is supplied by information given earlier in the discourse (*cf* 12.6). We may distinguish two kinds of anaphora: direct and indirect. A definite noun phrase receives DIRECT anaphoric interpretation where the same noun head has already occurred in the text, and it is clear that a relation of coreference exists between the two noun phrases. (By COREFERENCE we understand a relation between the two noun phrases such that they have the same reference.) For example:

John bought a TV and *a video recorder*, but he returned *the video recorder*.

Here, as in other similar cases, there is a complementary role for the definite article and the indefinite article: the first reference to an object will ordinarily be indefinite; but once the object has been introduced into the discourse in this way, it can be treated as 'contextually known', and can thenceforward be referred to by means of the definite article.

(d) Anaphoric reference: indirect

5.31 INDIRECT ANAPHORA arises when a reference becomes part of the hearer's knowledge indirectly, not by direct mention, as in the example in 5.30, but by inference from what has already been mentioned:

John bought *a bicycle*, but when he rode it one of *the wheels* came off. [1]

The wheels of the bicycle can be taken for granted in this sentence because (a) a bicycle has already been mentioned (ANAPHORA), and (b) we know that bicycles have wheels (GENERAL KNOWLEDGE). In this way, we can see that indirect anaphora combines two kinds of 'recoverability'. Another way to look at it is to say that indirect anaphora combines anaphoric reference with cataphoric reference (*cf* 5.32); *eg* we understand *the wheels* in [1] above to be an elliptical variant of *the wheels of the bicycle*. This latter explanation does not, as we shall see, apply to all such cases.

Some further examples of indirect anaphora are the following. Once we have introduced the topic of *a farm*, we can go on to talk about *the farmer*, *the farmhouse*, *the pigs*, *the barn*, etc; once we have introduced the topic of *an orchestral concert*, we can go on to talk about *the programme*, *the audience*, *the conductor*, *the second oboe*, etc.

Consider finally these examples:

I lent Bill *a valuable book*, but when he returned it, *the cover* was filthy, and *the pages* were torn. [2]

They *got married* in grand style. *The bride* wore a long brocade dress, and *the bridesmaids* wore pink taffeta. *The organist* played superb music, and *the choir* sang magnificently. [3]

In [3] the topic of 'a wedding' is introduced by means of the verb phrase *got married* (hence *the bride*, *the bridesmaids*); there is also the presumption of a church, and hence *the organist*, *the choir*. There is thus no easy way to explain the subsequent occurrences of *the* by means of ellipsis; to do so, it would be necessary to postulate such long-winded phrases as [3a]:

the bridesmaids who accompanied the bride when she got married [3a]

(e) Cataphoric reference

5.32 By the CATAPHORIC use of *the* may be understood the use of the definite article in a context where what follows the head noun, rather than what precedes it, enables us to pinpoint the reference uniquely. 'Cataphoric' is therefore the opposite of 'anaphoric' reference. In practice, however, the cataphoric use of the definite article is limited to cases where the modification of the noun phrase restricts the reference of the noun, so that its referent is, for the purpose of the discourse, uniquely defined. Thus, the italicized postmodifiers of the following nouns justify the use of *the*:

The President *of Mexico* is to visit China. [1]

The girls *sitting over there* are my cousins. [2]

The wines { *of France* / *that France produces* } are among the best in the world. [3]

In principle, however, there is no difference between postmodification and premodification as a means of specifying reference. Compare:

the President *of Mexico* [1a]

the *Mexican* President [1b]

Sometimes the definite noun phrase can be contrasted with an equivalent indefinite phrase. In such instances, the definite article is not in fact genuinely

cataphoric but entails some degree of anaphoric reference. Compare [4] and [4a]:

The bicycle John bought has been stolen. [assumes unique reference; *cf*: *John's bicycle*] [4]

A bicycle John bought has been stolen. [*cf*: *a bicycle of John's*, *cf* 17.46] [4a]

At other times, there is no such indefinite alternative, because the whole phrase has unique denotation, like *the Equator* (*cf* 5.29):

{ the height *of Mont Blanc* / *a height *of Mont Blanc* } { the parents *of Elvis Presley* / *(some) parents *of Elvis Presley* }

Note It is not necessary to postulate that the expression [5] presupposes some unspoken preamble such as [5a] but, rather, such as [5b]:

the mud on your coat [5]

There's *some mud* on your coat. [5a]

You know there's mud on your coat. [5b]

Contrast [6] with [6a]:

How did you get *the mud* on your coat? [6]

Did you know you have { *mud* / **the mud* } on your coat? [6a]

(f) Sporadic reference

5.33 *The* is sometimes used in reference to an institution of human society. For example, in [1] there are two possible interpretations of *the theatre*:

My sister goes to *the theatre* every month. [1]

By situational reference, it may mean a particular theatre, say the Criterion Theatre, which my sister attends regularly. But a more likely meaning is that my sister does not necessarily confine her theatre-going to one building: *the theatre* refers, rather, to the theatre as an institution, so that it would be inappropriate to ask, in response to [1]: *Which theatre?* We call this the SPORADIC use of *the*, because reference is made to an institution which may be observed recurrently at various places and times.

There is a similar use of *the news*, *the radio*, *the television*, *the paper(s)*, *the press*, etc, referring to aspects of mass communication:

Did you hear *the ten o'clock news*?

What's { *in the paper(s)* / *on the radio* / *on (the) TV* } this evening?

But with *television* or *TV*, there is also the possibility that the article will be omitted (*cf* 5.45).

The concept of sporadic reference also extends to expressions referring to modern transport and communication, such as *the bus*, *the train*, *the post* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *the mail* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *the telephone*:

Mary took *the bus/the train* to London. OR: *a bus/a train*

He promised that the letters would be in *the post/the mail* this evening.

In a temporal rather than spatial sense, sporadic reference may even be taken to apply to the optional use of *the* before words referring to seasons (*eg*: *the winter*, *cf* 5.47), and to festivals, etc (*the New Year*, *cf* 5.67).

Note [a] The sporadic use of *the* is in certain instances close to the generic use of *the* (*cf* 5.55*ff*). Compare the use of *the theatre* in [1] above with the generic sense of *the theatre* ['drama as an art form'] in [2]:

She's an expert on (*the*) (*Elizabethan*) *theatre*. [2]

Similarly: *the novel*, *the ballad*, (*the*) *drama*.

[b] The contrast between situational and sporadic use is manifest in this pair of examples:

There's a vase of flowers on { *the television* (*set*). / **television*. }

There's an interesting play on (*the*) *television*.

[c] On the sporadic use of *the* in cases like *the barber's*, *cf* 5.125.

(g) The 'logical' use of *the*

5.34 We may reserve the term LOGICAL for cases where the uniqueness of the referent is to be explained not so much by knowledge of the world, as by appeal to the logical interpretation of certain words. These words are postdeterminers and adjectives whose meaning is inalienably associated with uniqueness: ordinals such as *first*; 'general ordinals' such as *next* and *last* (*cf* 5.22); also *same*, *only*, *sole*; and superlative adjectives like *best* and *largest*:

When is *the first flight* to Chicago tomorrow? [1]
This is *the only remaining copy*. [2]
Of the three newspapers we have in this city, this is *the best*. [3]

In these cases the indefinite article or the zero article would generally be absurd:

Ada and I have { *the* / **a* } *same hobby*.

We must catch { *the* / **a* } *next bus*.

Note [a] The 'logical' use of *the* is closely related to cataphoric reference. Compare [1] with [1a]:

When is *the flight that leaves first* for Chicago tomorrow? [1a]

[b] The occurrence of fixed phrases such as *a best friend* is possible in special contexts: *eg* if a child is always changing his or her best friend, one may refer to the current favourite as *a new best friend*. More freely, zero article may be used in front of fixed phrases such as:

He was *best man* ['groomsman'] at the wedding. (*cf*: He was { *the best man* / **best man* } for the job.)

He won *first prize*.

(h) The use of *the* with reference to body parts

5.35 With reference to parts of the body and following a preposition, *the* is often used instead of possessive pronouns *my*, *your*, *her*, *their* (*cf* also the indefinite article, 5.36 Note), etc:

Mary banged herself on *the forehead*.
They pulled her by *the hair*.
Everyone gave us a pat on *the back*.
Don't keep digging me in *the ribs*.

In these examples, the personal pronoun or noun referring to the 'possessor' of the body part is the object, and the body part is a prepositional complement. There are virtually synonymous clauses in which the body part is preceded by a possessive pronoun, and functions as object:

I shook { *him by the hand*. [1] / *his hand*. [1a] }

It is often possible, though sometimes unidiomatic, to use a possessive pronoun in place of *the*:

I shook *him by his hand*. [1b]
He kissed *her on her cheek*.
She patted *him on his shoulder*.

In other cases the 'possessor' phrase is subject of the clause:

My mother complains of a pain in *the/her hip*.
The wanted man has a scar on *the/his left cheek*.

Alternatively, the 'possessor' may be implied rather than stated:

The doctor diagnosed a fracture of *the collarbone*.
Many patients in the hospital suffered from a disease of *the liver*.

But such constructions are not exceptions to the general rule that *the* refers to what is uniquely identified by shared knowledge. There is no unclarity in any of these cases as to the identity of the body in question.

The restriction of this use of *the* to prepositional complements means that the possessive pronoun, rather than *the*, has to be used in such examples as:

Have you broken *your* arm? NOT: *Have you broken *the* arm?

A further restriction is that the possessive pronoun must be used if the body part does not refer to what is denoted by the direct object:

She throws the ball { *with her left hand*. [2] / ?*with the left hand*. [2a] }

One factor which could make [2a] acceptable, and indeed normal, is the interpretation 'she is left-handed'. Similarly:

She kicks the ball *with the left foot* (because she is *left-footed*).

With such an interpretation, *the* is normal, but the rule is not absolute.

Note [a] There can be a slight difference of meaning between the construction illustrated by [1] and by [1a]. The following appear to be synonymous:

They grabbed { *him by the arm*. [3] / *his arm*. [3a] }

But one can imagine a grisly context in which [3a] refers to an arm severed from the body; this context could not apply to [3].

[b] It is difficult to generalize about cases of the above constructions. Some are purely idiomatic:

She *looked me in the eye* and told me the whole story. [but not here: *looked in my eye*, although this is what a doctor will do at an examination of the eye]

Further semantic factors are the following:

(i) The use of *the* is preferred when the reference is to unpleasant conditions of the body (*eg* aches, pains, wounds):

have a cold in the head *have spies on the brain*
be red in the face *be armed to the teeth*

(ii) This use applies only to parts of the body, and cannot usually be extended to things which are worn:

They seized him by *the throat/the beard/the collar/?the jacket.*

Moreover, only those verbs which can take the personal direct object without the prepositional phrase can occur in this construction:

He kicked/hit/tapped me on *the* shin. ['He kicked *etc* my shin.' But not: *He stepped me on *the* toes; *He stepped my toes.]

[c] Outside the above conditions, *the* is sometimes used instead of possessives in a masculine style of speech:

How's *the back*? [referring to an injury]

Let's have a look at *the arm*. [This is also what a doctor, of either sex, might say to a patient.]

Related to this usage is the habit of some men of referring to their wives, or children, by *the* ⟨informal⟩:

How's *the wife*? [normally: *your wife*]

Wait till I tell *the wife* about it! [normally: *my wife*]

How are *the children/kids*?

Note also ⟨familiar⟩:

How's *the old man*? ['your husband/father']

[d] On other uses of *the* (*eg*: *the more the merrier*; *40 miles to the gallon*), *cf* 11.43.

Uses of the indefinite article

5.36 The indefinite article is notionally the 'unmarked' article in the sense that it is used (for singular count nouns) where the conditions for the use of *the* do not obtain. That is, *a/an X* will be used where the reference of *X* is not uniquely identifiable in the shared knowledge of speaker and hearer. Hence *a/an* is typically used when the referent has not been mentioned before, and is assumed to be unfamiliar to the speaker or hearer:

An intruder has stolen *a vase*. *The intruder* stole *the vase* from *a locked case*. *The case* was smashed open.

As we see from this (unusually explicit) example, the indefinite article, in contrast to the definite article, makes no assumptions about an earlier mention. But in actual usage the distinction may be less overt. For example, a conversation may begin as [1] or as [1a]:

A house on the corner is for sale. [1]
The house on the corner is for sale. [1a]

The only difference in meaning is that, in [1a], the speaker presupposes that the hearer will know which house is meant (perhaps because there is only one such house), whereas, in [1], no such assumption is implied.

Unlike the definite article, the indefinite article does not signal coreference with a preceding indefinite noun phrase. In sentence [2], the speaker does not claim that the two watches are the same (although he may be obliquely suggesting that such is the case):

Bob lost *a gold watch* yesterday, and Bill was wearing *a gold watch* this morning. [2]

But if the second *a gold watch* is changed to *the gold watch*, the claim is made that the two watches are indeed identical, and that (probably) Bill is a thief.

Note The indefinite article, like the definite article (*cf* 5.35), is sometimes used with body parts:

Sally has sprained *an ankle*. [3]
He's broken *a leg*. [4]
BUT NOT: *Roger has hurt *a nose*. [5]

A/an cannot be used unless the body has more than one of the body parts mentioned; hence [5] is absurd in implying that Roger has more than one nose. Even when the body part is not unique, the possessive pronoun is the usual choice (*cf* 5.35):

Sally has sprained *her ankle*. [3a]
He's broken *his leg*. [4a]
I've cut *my finger*.

Nonreferring uses of the indefinite article

5.37 The indefinite article is strongly associated with the complement function in a clause, or more generally with noun phrases in a copular relationship (*cf* 2.22, 10.8). Here it has a descriptive role (similar to that of predicative adjectives), rather than a referring role:

Paganini was *a* great violinist.
My daughter is training as *a* radiologist.
We found Lisbon (to be) *a* delightful city.
What *a* miserable day (it is)! (*cf* 11.31)

Whereas the indefinite article is required in the previous examples, there is vacillation in the following cases (*cf* 'unique role', 5.42):

her duties *as* (*a*) *hostess*
my appointment *as* (*a*) *lecturer*
Jung *as* (*a*) *thinker*

Sometimes *a/an* is nonreferring in a stronger sense; it may not refer to anything in reality at all:

Leonard wants to marry *a* princess who speaks five languages.

From this sentence, we cannot tell whether Leonard knows a certain princess and wants to marry her, or whether he has simply laid down exceptionally stringent qualifications for his future wife. For all we know, there may be no princess who speaks five languages in existence.

Note Although *a/an* is used for descriptive exclamations such as *What a fool* (*he is*)*!*, there is also an exclamatory use of *the* in *The fool!*, *The silly boy!*, etc. Such expressions often accompany a declarative clause, and are added as a parenthesis (intonation remaining at a low pitch):

John is getting into DÈBT, *the idiot*!
My DÀUGHter| *the little* DÁRling| has broken the TV|⟨ironic⟩

There is a related type of descriptive exclamation in which a noun phrase with *the* or zero article is followed by *that* and a subject and verb (normally *be*):

(The) fool that he is!

On the exclamatory use of pronouns (*Silly me!*, *You fool!*, etc), *cf* 6.20.

The indefinite article and the numeral *one*

5.38 The indefinite article derives historically from the unstressed form of *one*, and in present-day English there are still many contexts in which this numerical function is uppermost. Thus *one* could be substituted as a slightly emphatic equivalent of *a* in the following coordinate constructions (*cf* 5.21):

a mile or two *cf*: *one or two miles* (10.41 Note [b])
The Wrights have *two daughters and a son.*
a foot and a half of water *cf*: *one and a half feet* (5.73 Note [b])

The following are other examples in which *one* could replace *a/an*, and where the adjective *single* can add an intensifying force to the indefinite article (or *one*):

Mungo can walk forty miles *in a (single) day.*
They didn't stop talking *for a (single) moment.*
There's *not a (single) pickled onion* in the house.

A/an often occurs in this quasi-numerical sense following a negative (*cf* 10.62).

Note [a] The use of the indefinite article in a numerical or quantifying function is perhaps most obvious in its occurrence in such expressions as (*cf* 6.65):
a hundred, a dozen, a score, a thousand, a million, a million and a half ['1,500,000'], *a quarter/a twelfth of* + noun
Other uses are seen in quantifiers (*cf* 5.23*ff*, 6.53) such as *a few, a little, a great many, a large number of*, etc; also in measure phrases (*cf* 5.18) such as:
half an hour, ten dollars a day, sixty miles an hour, three times a minute, etc
[b] In addition to being a numeral, *one* also has substitute and generic functions. But in the use of the indefinite article in a generic sense (*A tiger can be dangerous*), *a/an* cannot be replaced by *one* (*cf* 6.56).

Uses of the zero article

The zero article compared with unstressed *some*

5.39 With plural count nouns and with noncount nouns, the indefinite article does not occur (*cf* 5.13*f*). The zero article is used instead:

Have you ever eaten *roasted chestnuts*?
Milk is good for you.
Do you like *folk music*?

But the plural or noncount equivalent of *a/an* is sometimes the unstressed determiner *some* /səm/. Contrast:

I've just bought { *a melon.* / *some melons.* / *some melon.* / *?melons.* } [1]

She has become *a vegetarian.*
They have become { *vegetarians.* / **some vegetarians.* } [2]

In the negative, unstressed *any* is the equivalent of *some* (but *cf* 10.59 Note [b]), so that a contrast may be observed between [3] and [4]:

I haven't bought { *any books.* / *?books.* } [3]

They haven't become { *vegetarians.* / **any vegetarians.* } [4]

The difference between the uses of zero and of *some* may be summarized as follows. Unstressed *some*, although it is sometimes considered a plural article, actually keeps its quantifying function, and indicates reference to a specifiable (though indefinite) quantity or amount. (Thus in [1], the speaker does not tell us the number of melons, but in principle the number could be found out.) The zero article, in contrast, indicates simply the category of the objects, etc referred to. So *vegetarians* in [4] names a category of persons, and the sentence simply indicates that the people referred to by *they* belong to that category.

Note The zero article may be used instead of *some*, particularly if a contrast is implied prosodically:
I've just bought *MĒLons* (but not grapes). [1a]
I haven't bought *BŌOKS* (but I've bought magazines). [3a]

5.40 Sometimes *some* and zero are both acceptable; in other cases one of them is less acceptable, or even quite unacceptable. In the following two examples, *some* would be unacceptable:

These shoes are made of *leather.* [1]
I've always preferred *coffee* to *tea.* [2]

In [1], the speaker is merely interested in the type of material of which the shoes are made: the quantity is irrelevant. In [2], the interest focuses on the two types of drink, and it is irrelevant to consider particular quantities.

In other cases, the introduction of *some* would necessitate a sharp difference in meaning, *eg*:

Joe's been chasing *women* ever since he was young. [3]

In [3], *some women* would produce the incongruous impression that Joe has been steadfastly chasing the same group of women, rather than that he is an incorrigible Don Juan.

The distinction we have to draw, then, is between the CATEGORIAL meaning of zero, and the QUANTITATIVE meaning of *some*. It can now be seen that the generic meaning of the zero article, as in *Tigers are fierce animals* (*cf* 5.26), is no more than a special variant of this categorial meaning. But it is still worth separating generic reference, where we could substitute *all tigers* with little change of effect, from the specific categorial reference of sentences like [3], where clearly there is no claim that all women have been chased by Joe (*cf* 5.56).

As has already been hinted, the choice between zero and *some* is sometimes more a matter of focus than of clear contrast of meaning. There are many situations in which either choice could be made, with only a minor alteration of the force. Compare:

Would you like (*some*) *coffee* or (*some*) *tea*? [4]
I've been writing (*some*) *letters* this morning. [5]
We have just received (*some*) *news* from Moscow. [6]

The variant without *some* will focus on the category as a whole; *eg* [4] is

asking about two kinds of drink, and [5] is concerned with a kind of activity, *viz* the activity of writing letters. But when *some* is added, the focus changes to whatever quantities of tea and coffee, or of letters, that the speaker has in mind.

The zero article with definite meaning

5.41 Apart from proper nouns, nouns take the zero article with definite meaning only in rather special circumstances, as described in 5.42*ff*.

Noun phrases in a copular relation

5.42 Unlike many other languages, English normally requires an article with a singular count noun as complement (*cf* 5.37):

Bill is { *an engineer.* / **engineer.* } Mary is { *the secretary.* / **secretary.* }

There is, however, one circumstance in which the zero article occurs in such constructions: this is where the complement (or an equivalent appositive noun phrase) names a UNIQUE ROLE or task. As the following examples show, in such cases the zero article alternates with *the*:

Maureen is (*the*) *captain of the team.* [1]
John F. Kennedy was (*the*) *President of the United States* in 1961. [2]
As (*the*) *chairman of the committee*, I declare this meeting closed. [3]
They've appointed Fred (*the*) *treasurer*, and no doubt he will soon become (*the*) *secretary*. [4]
Anne Martin, (*the*) *star of the TV series* and (*the*) *author of a well-known book on international cuisine*, has resigned from her post on the Consumer Council. [5]

The copular relation signalled by *as* (*cf* 9.48) is illustrated in [3], and the copular relation of apposition (*cf* 17.65*ff*) is illustrated in [5]. In each of these examples, it is implied that only one person holds the particular position mentioned.

Note [a] Here we may also place examples where the appositional noun phrase indicating a unique role or task is placed first:
FBI Chief J. Edgar Hoover [6]
Chelsea centre-forward Milton Smith [7]
With restrictive apposition [6, 7], the article is generally omitted, whereas in nonrestrictive apposition [7a] (*cf* 17.68), it is not:
the Chelsea centre-forward, Milton Smith [7a]
There is a gradient linking the former construction to the institutional use of titles, as in *King George, Chairman Mao, Doctor Smith*. But the use of more elaborate phrases of this kind preceding a name is characteristic of the journalistic style sometimes known as 'Timestyle', because of its association with *Time* magazine.
[b] The complement of *turn* (*cf* 16.22) is exceptional in having zero article even where there is no implication of uniqueness:
Jenny started out as a music student before she *turned linguist*. BUT: . . . before she *became a linguist*.
[c] Because a unique role is implied, the definite article is generally omitted following expressions such as *the post of, the position of*, and *the role of*:
After declining the post of *Secretary of State*, he nevertheless found himself taking on the role of *unofficial adviser to the President*.

[d] Determiners (*the, your*, etc) are frequently omitted in official forms, *eg*:
Please send the stipulated items, *viz*:
(i) *birth certificate*
(ii) *passport*
(iii) *correct fee*
Compare the omission of articles in headlines (11.45*f*).

Noun phrases with sporadic reference

5.43 We have already mentioned (*cf* 5.33) the use of *the* in noun phrases with 'sporadic' definite reference, as in *the radio, the theatre*. In other cases, however, the sporadic use has become so institutionalized that the article is not used. We distinguish, under this heading, a number of different categories of zero article usage which are 'frozen' as part of idiomatic usage.

(a) Some 'institutions' of human life and society

5.44 Certain nouns have the zero article, especially as complement of *at, in*, and *on* in quasi-locative phrases: thus someone may be *in church*, but not **in library*. We call them 'quasi-locative' because, although they appear to have locative meaning, their function is rather more abstract (*cf*: *the theatre*, 5.33). In such contexts, nouns such as *college, church*, etc do not refer to actual buildings or places, but to the institutions associated with them: to *be in prison*, for example, is to be a prisoner, not a casual visitor; to *go to sea* is to follow the occupation of a sailor; see the left-hand column below. In the right-hand column we illustrate the same nouns as used with *the* in situational or cataphoric reference:

		Compare:
be in / go to	*town*	*The* town/*the* city is very old.
	bed	lie down on *the* bed
	hospital ⟨BrE⟩	redecorate *the* hospital
	prison, jail	walk around *the* prison/*the* jail
	class ⟨esp AmE⟩	*The* class works hard.
be at / go to	*school* (*cf* 9.17)	visit *the* school
	sea	look out towards *the* sea
be in/be at *church*		admire *the* church
go to *college*		the gates of *the* college

Note [a] Other related phrases are the following, some of which show variation in the use of article:
get out of *bed*
during (the) *break/recess*
be in/return to *camp*
live on/off (the) *campus*
be on/off (the) *stage*
at (the) *court* [royal palace]; in (the) *court* [law court]; The case was settled out of *court*; take someone to *court*
come/go/leave *home*; be (at) *home*; feel at *home* (*cf* 5.51)
With *university*, the article is optional in BrE in the expressions *be at/go to* (*the*) *university*, whereas AmE requires the definite article (as also with *hospital* in AmE: 'He's in the hospital.').
[b] The article is sometimes left out also when the reference is to the building, not the institution:
I walked straight back *into/to school*.
She's *at church*, arranging flowers.
In AmE, and increasingly in BrE, the article is often omitted in expressions like:
in the center of *town*, the business part of *town*

(b) Means of transport and communication

5.45 This type is confined to zero article following *by*; but the same nouns can be used elsewhere with 'sporadic' *the* (*cf* 5.33):

			Compare:
travel, leave, come, go	by	*bicycle*	take *the* bicycle
		bus	be on *the* bus
		car	prefer *the* car
		boat	choose *the* boat
		train	take *a*/*the* train
		plane	be on *the* plane

communicate/communication by { *radio*; *telephone, telex*; *post* ⟨esp BrE⟩; *mail* ⟨esp AmE⟩; *satellite* }

Compare:

a talk on *the* radio
Jill is on *the* telephone.
put a letter in *the* post
send it through *the* mail
The satellite is replacing cable TV.

Also: *by hand* (*cf* 5.51, 9.49 Note [a]).

(c) Times of day and night

5.46 These take a zero article particularly after *at*, *by*, *after*, and *before*:

	Compare:
at dawn/daybreak	watch *the* dawn
when *day breaks*	during *the* day
at sunrise [AmE also: *at sunup*]	*The* sunrise was splendid.
at sunset [AmE also: *at sundown*]	We admired *the* sunset.
at/around noon/midnight	in *the* afternoon
at dusk/twilight	see nothing in *the* dusk
at/by night	wake up in *the* night
(by) day and night	in *the* daytime
before morning came	in/during *the* morning
Evening approached.	in *the* evening
after nightfall/dark	all through *the* night

Day/Night came; *day by day* (*cf* 5.50); *all day/night/week/year* (*long*) (*cf* 8.63 Note [b])

(d) Seasons

5.47 The article is usually, but not always, omitted when referring to seasons generally, as distinct from referring to a particular part of a particular year (*cf* temporal names, 5.67):

(The) *winter* is coming.

in (the) *spring/summer*
in (the) *autumn* ⟨esp BrE⟩ [*Fall* in AmE has the article: *in the fall*]

But with reference to a particular season, the article is included:

The spring of last year was cold.
The fall ⟨AmE⟩ / *The autumn* ⟨esp BrE⟩ } *before last* was unusually busy.

Note the difference between [1] denoting calendar time and [2] denoting seasonal climate:

The winter of 1963 was an exciting time. [1]
Winter in 1963 was not like this last winter. [2]

(e) Meals

5.48 The zero article is in general use for meals as an institution [1], but *the* can be used for meals that need to be singled out [2]:

Where are we having *dinner* tonight? [1]
The dinner after his retirement party was quite lavish. [2]

Examples of the zero article for the meal as an institution which recurs day by day:

stay for / have / before / after / at/for } { *breakfast*; *brunch, cocktails* ⟨both esp in US⟩; *tea* ⟨esp in UK⟩; *lunch, dinner*; *supper* }

Often, however, *the* and the zero article are virtually interchangeable:

That day, (*the*) *lunch* was served on the terrace.

The indefinite article is used for a particular meal:

We had *a nice dinner*, just the two of us.

(f) Illnesses

5.49 The zero article is normally used for illnesses, *eg*: *anaemia*, *appendicitis*, *diabetes*, *influenza*, *pneumonia*. But *the* is often used, in a more traditional style of speech, for some well-known infectious diseases: (*the*) *flu*, (*the*) *measles*, (*the*) *mumps*, (*the*) *chicken pox*; also (*the*) *hiccups*. On the plural form of *mumps*, etc, *cf* 5.75.

Note [a] The article cannot normally be omitted with *the/a plague*, nor with some popular, nontechnical expressions such as *the bends*, *the jitters*, *the/a bellyache* ⟨familiar⟩. Except in the fixed expression *catch cold*, the indefinite article is required with *cold*, *fever*, and *temperature*:

Our daughter had *a terrible cold* last week.
I have { *a fever*, / *a temperature*, } so I'm staying in bed today.

[b] *Headache* is always a count noun:

I have *a splitting headache* this morning.

Other nouns formed from *ache* are treated as noncount when they denote a condition:

Nuts give me *toothache*.

When they denote a single attack or pain, they are usually count in AmE and noncount in BrE:

On and off she suffers from { *a stomachache.* ⟨esp AmE⟩ / *(the) stomachache.* ⟨esp BrE⟩ }

Parallel structures

5.50 There is a tendency to omit the article, even with singular count nouns, where two nouns are placed together in a parallel structure:

arm in arm	*face to face*	*day by day*
hand in hand	*eye to eye*	*teaspoonful by teaspoonful*
mile upon mile	*back to back*	*side by side*

Sometimes the same noun is repeated after a preposition, as in the above examples; at other times, one noun is balanced against another noun of contrasting meaning:

from father to son
husband and wife
from right to left OR: *from the right to the left*
from west to east OR: *from the west to the east*
from beginning to end OR: *from the beginning to the end*

Phrases with the noun repeated typically have an adverbial function:

They talked { *face to face.* / *man to man.* } They stood { *toe to toe.* / *eyeball to eyeball.* }

It can be argued that the nouns have no article because they have largely lost their independent nominal status. We note, in support of this, that variation in the number, determination, or modification of these nouns is normally impossible:

*They talked *old man to young man.*
*They stood *toes to toes.*

Such parallel structures are, therefore, virtually idioms exemplifying 'frozen' article use.

There is one construction, however, in which the parallel structure with zero article is productive of new instances. This is where the two nouns are coordinated, and particularly where the coordination is emphasized by a correlative such as *both . . . and* or *neither . . . nor* (*cf* 13.35*ff*):

The birth took place this morning, and both *(the) mother* and *(the) child* are doing well.
They pitched camp between a small winding river and a ridge covered with brushwood; but neither *(the) river* nor *(the) brushwood* afforded the protection they needed in the event of attack.

Fixed phrases involving prepositions

5.51 In addition to adverbial phrase idioms such as *hand in hand, face to face,* there are other idioms in which nouns with a zero article occur before or after a preposition. Some of the prepositional phrases considered in 5.44*ff* (such as *at home, by hand*) fall into this category, and to them we may add further examples such as *on foot, in turn, out of step.*

Many complex prepositions (*cf* 9.11) also contain nouns without an article: *on top of, by way of,* etc; and there are also idioms in which a verb is followed by a noun with zero article and (often) by a preposition: *take advantage of, set fire to, get word of,* etc (*cf* 16.58). Such uses of nouns are fixed phrases, as can be seen in their lack of article and number contrast:

He took { *advantage* / **an advantage* / **advantages* } of the situation.

The articles in generic reference

5.52 Earlier (*cf* 5.26) it was noted that all three major forms of article (*the, a/an,* and zero) may be used generically to refer to the members of a class *in toto*:

The bull terrier makes an excellent watchdog. [1a]
A bull terrier makes an excellent watchdog. [1b]
Bull terriers make excellent watchdogs. [1c]

Of the possible combinations of the articles with singular and plural, the one which does not occur with count nouns – that of the zero article with the singular form – is the only possibility which occurs with noncount nouns:

Velvet makes an excellent curtain material. [2]

It should not, however, be assumed that the three options [1a], [1b], and [1c] are in free variation. One difference between them is that, whereas *the* [1a] keeps its generic function in nonsubject positions in the sentence, *a/an* [1b], and to a lesser extent zero [1c], tend to lose their generic function in these positions:

Nora has been studying { *the medieval mystery play.* [3a] / *a medieval mystery play.* [3b] / *medieval mystery plays.* [3c] }

Of these, only [3a] refers to mystery plays as a genre; [3b] refers to only one play; and [3c] is most likely to refer only to a subset of them. We consider other differences below.

Note *One* cannot replace *a* in the generic sense, as in [1b] (*cf* 5.38 Note [b]).

The generic use of the indefinite article

5.53 The generic use of *a/an* picks out ANY REPRESENTATIVE MEMBER OF THE CLASS. Thus *any* can be substituted for *a/an* in examples like:

The best way to learn *a language* is to live among its speakers.

Generic *a/an* is therefore restricted in that it cannot be used in attributing properties which belong to the class or species as a whole. Thus:

The tiger is / *Tigers* are } becoming almost extinct.

BUT NOT: **A tiger* is becoming almost extinct.

The generic use of the zero article

5.54 The generic use of zero article with both plural nouns and noncount nouns identifies the class considered as an UNDIFFERENTIATED WHOLE (*cf* 5.39*f*):

Cigarettes are bad for your health.
Hydrogen is lighter than *oxygen*.
Necessity is the mother of *invention*.
Research shows that it is the elderly who are the prime victims of *inflation*.
Hunger and *violence* will continue to mark the future of *mankind/humanity*.

We consider the use of the zero article with noncount abstract nouns in 5.58*f*.

Note When it has the meaning of 'the human race' rather than 'a male human being', *man* and its synonym *mankind* are used generically without the article:

This book is an attempt to trace the history of { *man*. / *mankind*.

Man meaning 'human being' (antonym: *beast*) and its plural *men* may also be used in the same way. Thus:

Man / *A man* } is a social animal.
Men have been on this planet for over a million years.

Man and *woman* meaning 'the male/female part of the human race' are now less often used in a generic sense:

Woman is the glory of all created existence. (S. Richardson)

Because of objections to the generic use of *man*, other expressions are often preferred: *humankind*, *the human race*, etc.

Parallel structures make a special case (*cf* 5.50); note that *man and woman*, *man and wife* do not refer to the human race:

Man and rabbit display remarkably similar features in mating behaviour.

But the following is unacceptable except in technical, scientific use:

**Rabbit* displays similar features to *man*.

The generic use of the definite article

With singular noun phrases

5.55 *The* is rather limited in its generic function. With singular heads, it is often formal or literary in tone, indicating THE CLASS AS REPRESENTED BY ITS TYPICAL SPECIMEN:

A great deal of illness originates in *the mind*.
No one knows precisely when *the wheel* was invented.
My colleague has written a book on *the definite article in Spanish*.
Marianne plays *the harp* very well.

As the last example shows, names of musical instruments and also dances usually take the definite article:

play the violin [but: *play baseball*], *dancing the samba*

When the noun refers to a class of human beings, the typifying connotation of generic *the* can sound inappropriate:

?*The Welshman* is a good singer. [*cf*: *Welshmen* are good singers.]
?*The doctor* is well paid. [*cf*: *Doctors* are well paid.]
?As *the child* grows, it develops a wider range of vocabulary.

It is more appropriate when used to identify the typical characteristics of a class in terms of personality, appearance, etc:

He spoke with the consummate assurance and charm of *the successful Harley Street surgeon*.

Note [a] Another determinative word sometimes used with a typifying generic force is *your* (*cf* 5.63 Note [c]):

Your average football supporter is not interested in comfort.

In contrast to *the*, this use of *your* is associated with familiar speech; but it resembles *the* in its focus on the 'typical specimen' of the class.

[b] Ambiguity may occur over the generic/specific interpretation:

A: *The president* is too powerful.
B: Which president?
A: No, I mean presidents in general.

With plural noun phrases

5.56 Generic *the* occurs with plural noun phrases in two special cases:

(a) Nationality nouns, *ie* noun phrases referring to the people of a nationality, an ethnic group, etc, *eg*: *the Chinese*, *the English* (*cf* 7.25)
(b) Phrases with an adjective head referring to a group of people, *eg*: *the unemployed* ['people who are unemployed'], *the blind*, *the rich*, etc (*cf* 7.24)

In other cases, *the* + plural noun cannot be used for generic reference. Thus the following sentences are not acceptable in a generic sense:

**The wolves* are carnivorous. ~ *Wolves* are . . .
**The hydrogen* is lighter than *the oxygen*. ~ *Hydrogen* is . . .

In scientific descriptions, however, we may find expressions like *the rodents* (referring to the whole order Rodentia).

It is arguable, in fact, that instances of (a) and (b) are not truly generic, either. Rather, they are plural phrases with unique denotation because (like *the masses*, *the fairies*, *the clergy*, *the Saints*, etc) they designate a uniquely identifiable group of people. Hence there is a marked contrast between *the* (generic plural) in [1] and *the* (generic singular) in [1a]:

The Romans defeated *the Carthaginians* in 202 BC. [1]
?*The Roman* defeated *the Carthaginian* in 202 BC. [1a]

[1] is acceptable in comparison with [1a], because *the Romans* and *the Carthaginians* refer collectively to a group of people, rather than to a typical specimen. *The Romans* is thus a generalization (like *the mathematicians*, *the teenagers*, *the birds*, etc in similar use), whereas *the Roman* implies a generic statement. Nevertheless, it will be convenient to apply the term 'generic' to both the singular and plural uses.

With nationality nouns, there is a distinction to be drawn in many cases between the generic nouns (with invariable plural) ending in *-ish*, *-sh*, or *-ch*,

and the nongeneric nouns ending in *-man* in the singular and *-men* in the plural (both forms pronounced /mən/). Compare:

The Welsh are fond of singing.	[generic]	[2a]
Welshmen are fond of singing.	[generic]	[2b]
The Welshmen are fond of singing.	[specific]	[2c]

The forms ending in *-men* are subject to the general tendency to disfavour words of masculine bias (*cf* 5.105), and if a sexually neutral expression is sought, *Welshmen* in [2b], for example, may be replaced by *Welsh people*. There is also the feminine term *Welshwomen*, etc but this type of word is rare or nonexistent in some cases, *eg*: **firewoman*, **freshwoman*.

With other nationalities, the distinction between generic and specific nationality nouns does not arise:

The Finns are fond of sport.	[generic]
Finns are fond of sport.	[generic]
The Finns I know are fond of sport.	[specific]

In the following section, we give specimens of the various kinds of words for people and nationality.

5.57 Some nationality words

NAME OF COUNTRY, ETC	ADJECTIVE	SPECIFIC REFERENCE		GENERIC REFERENCE
		SINGULAR	PLURAL	PLURAL
(i)				
China	Chinese	a Chinese [a]	Chinese	the Chinese
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese	Japanese	the Japanese
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese	Portuguese	the Portuguese
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss	Swiss	the Swiss
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese	Vietnamese	the Vietnamese
(ii)				
Iraq	Iraqi	an Iraqi	Iraqis	the Iraqis
Israel	Israeli	an Israeli	Israelis	the Israelis
Pakistan	Pakistani	a Pakistani	Pakistanis	the Pakistanis
(iii)				
Africa	African	an African	Africans	the Africans
America	American	an American	Americans	the Americans
Asia	Asian	an Asian	Asians	the Asians
Australia	Australian	an Australian	Australians	the Australians
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian	Belgians	the Belgians
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian	Brazilians	the Brazilians
Europe	European	a European	Europeans	the Europeans
Germany	German	a German [b]	Germans [b]	the Germans
Greece	Greek [c]	a Greek	Greeks	the Greeks
Hungary	Hungarian	a Hungarian	Hungarians	the Hungarians
India	Indian	an Indian	Indians	the Indians
Italy	Italian	an Italian	Italians	the Italians
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian	Norwegians	the Norwegians
Russia	Russian	a Russian	Russians	the Russians

NAME OF COUNTRY, ETC	ADJECTIVE	SPECIFIC REFERENCE		GENERIC REFERENCE
		SINGULAR	PLURAL	PLURAL
(iv)				
Argentina	Argentinian	an Argentinian	Argentinians	the Argentinians
(the) Argentine	Argentine	an Argentine	Argentines	the Argentines
(v)				
Denmark	Danish	a Dane	Danes	the Danes/Danish
Finland	Finnish	a Finn	Finns	the Finns/Finnish
Poland	Polish	a Pole	Poles	the Poles/Polish
Saudi Arabia	Saudi (Arabian)	a Saudi (Arabian)	Saudis/ Saudi Arabians	the Saudis/ Saudi Arabians
	Arab [d]	an Arab	Arabs	the Arabs
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard	Spaniards	the Spaniards/ Spanish
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede	Swedes	the Swedes/ Swedish
(vi)		*cf* Note [e]		
England	English	an Englishman	Englishmen	the English
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchmen	the French
Holland, the Netherlands	Dutch	a Dutchman	Dutchmen	the Dutch
Ireland	Irish	an Irishman	Irishmen	the Irish
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman	Welshmen	the Welsh
(vii)				
Britain	British	a Briton [f]	Britons	the British
(viii)				
Scotland	Scots [g]	a Scotsman [e]	Scotsmen	the Scots
	Scottish	a Scot	Scots	
	(Scotch)	(a Scotchman)	(Scotchmen)	(the Scotch)

Note

[a] *Chinaman* is rare in educated use.

[b] The segment *-man* in *German* is not a gender suffix (as in *Englishman*); consequently there are no **Germen* or **Gerwomen*.

[c] *Grecian* is chiefly used of Ancient Greece, and tends to refer to objects or abstractions, rather than to people: *a Grecian urn*.

[d] *Arab* is the racial and political term (*the Arab nations*, etc). *Arabic* is used of language and literature, as well as in *Arabic numerals* (as opposed to Roman numerals). *Arabia(n)* is associated with the geographical area of the Arabian peninsula (*cf*: *Saudi Arabia*).

[e] Terms such as *Englishman/Englishmen* are included here because of their ability to be used generically for the inhabitants of the country (but *cf* 5.56); there are corresponding feminine terms *Englishwoman*, etc, but these are rarely used.

[f] *Britisher* and *Brit* are colloquial variants of *Briton*. The use of *Briton* is more restricted than *Englishman*, *Scot*, and *Welshman* with specific reference. Because of the homophony of *Briton* and *Britain*, a spoken sentence beginning *eg*: '*An old Briton . . .*' is likely to be misunderstood.

[g] The inhabitants of Scotland themselves prefer *Scots* and *Scottish* to *Scotch*, which however is commonly used in such phrases as *Scotch terrier*, *Scotch whisky*, *Scotch eggs*, *Scotch pancakes*. In contrast, *Scottish* denotes nationality and geographical area, rather than type: *the Scottish universities*, *the Scottish Highlands*, *a Scottish/Scots accent*.

[h] In cases where there is a language with a name related to a nationality word, the adjective form is used for the language (*cf* 5.58 Note):
She speaks *Chinese, Norwegian, Polish, Irish*, etc.

The articles with abstract noncount nouns

5.58 Abstract nouns tend to be count or noncount according to whether they refer to unitary phenomena (such as events) on the one hand, or to states, qualities, activities, etc on the other. The following illustrate typical count abstract nouns:

meeting ~ *meetings*
arrival ~ *arrivals*
discovery ~ *discoveries*

The following are typical noncount abstract nouns (*cf* also the list in 5.9):

employment, happiness, honesty, literature, sleep

But the same abstract nouns can often switch between count and noncount use (*cf* dual class membership, 5.4):

She showed me { *much kindness.* / *many kindnesses.* }

Society must be changed by { *revolution.* / *a revolution.* }

In English, noncount abstract nouns usually have no article when used generically:

My favourite subject is *history/French/mathematics/music* . . .
Happiness is often the product of *honesty* and hard *work*.
Theory must go hand in hand with *practice*.

Normally the zero article also occurs when the noncount abstract noun is premodified:

She's studying *European history*. [1]

But when the same noun is postmodified, especially by an *of*-phrase, the definite article normally precedes it:

She's studying { **history of Europe.* [1a] / *the history of Europe.* [1b] }

We thus find typical contrasts of the following kind:

human evolution ~ *the* evolution *of man*
medieval art ~ *the* art *of the Middle Ages*
Oriental philosophy ~ *the* philosophy *of the Orient*
18th century morality ~ *the* morality *of the 18th century*

It appears that the cataphoric *the* is added in examples like [1b] because the effect of the *of*-phrase is to single out a particular subclass of the phenomenon denoted by the noun, and thereby to change a generic meaning into a specific or partitive one. In this connection, we notice a slight difference

between [1] and [1b]: whereas [1b] implies that she is studying the history of Europe as a whole, [1] allows the interpretation that she is studying only some aspects of European history or a particular college course.

The type of contrast illustrated above by [1] and [1b] can also be noted with concrete noncount nouns, and with plural nouns:

This museum specializes in { *18th century* furniture. [2] / *the* furniture *of the 18th century.* [2a] }

Alice is engaged in research on { *South American* butterflies. [3] / *the* butterflies *of South America.* [3a] }

But in these cases it is to a greater or lesser degree acceptable to omit *the*:

The museum specializes in *furniture of the 18th century.* [2b]
?Alice is engaged in research on *butterflies of South America.* [3b]

Note There are expressions in which the definite article is optional with the name of a language (*cf* 5.57 Note [h]), as in:
a word borrowed from (*the*) *French*/(*the*) *Italian*
examples from (*the*) *Sanskrit*/(*the*) *Hebrew*
The following expression is now archaic except in, for example, Irish English:
He has *the French.* [4]
The meaning of [4] is 'He knows French', to be contrasted with the regular curricular sense of [5]:
He has *French and English.* [5]

5.59 The partitive effect of the definite article in *the history of Europe* (example 5.58 [1b]) finds a parallel in the use of the indefinite article in such examples as these:

Mavis had *a good education.* [1]
My son suffers from *a strange dislike of mathematics.* ⟨ironic⟩ [2]
She played the oboe with (*a*) *remarkable sensitivity.* [3]

The indefinite article is used exceptionally here with nouns which are normally noncount. The conditions under which *a/an* occurs in such cases are unclear, but appear to include the following:

(i) the noun refers to a quality or other abstraction which is attributed to a person;
(ii) the noun is premodified and/or postmodified; and, generally speaking, the greater the amount of modification, the greater the acceptability of *a/an*.

In confirmation of (ii), notice that *a* would have to be omitted from [3] if the adjective were omitted:

She played the oboe with { **a sensitivity.* [3a] / *sensitivity.* [3b] }

However, *a* would become more acceptable than zero if the noun were modified:

She played the oboe with { (*a*) *charming sensitivity.* / *a sensitivity that delighted the critics.* }

Proper nouns

5.60 Proper nouns are basically names of specific people (*Shakespeare*), places (*Milwaukee*), months (*September*), days (*Thursday*), festivals (*Christmas*), magazines (*Vogue*), and so forth. As we saw in 5.2, proper nouns do not generally share the formal characteristics of common nouns. In particular, they lack articles, or rather article contrast:

Paris ~ **the Paris* ~ **a Paris* *The Hague* ~ **Hague* ~ **a Hague*

Within a given universe of discourse, proper nouns generally have unique denotation, and are usually written with initial capital letters (though not all nouns so written are proper nouns). Proper nouns often combine with descriptive words which we will call DESCRIPTORS, and which also begin with a capital letter, to make composite names like *Senator Morse*, *Dallas Road*. We may therefore draw a distinction between a PROPER NOUN, which is a single word, and a NAME, which may or may not consist of more than one word. A name normally functions as a single unit with respect to grammar. This means that, even if a composite name has an internal structure that is grammatically analysable (*eg* as *King's College* is analysable as genitive noun + head noun), that structure cannot normally be varied by the insertion of words, by change of inflection, etc. For example, *The Hague* has a built-in definite article, but *The* does not act as a variable determiner, nor is it capable of being followed by adjectives: **The beautiful Hague*. Equally unacceptable is **King's famous College*.

Note [a] Like other grammatical categories, the class of proper nouns has unclear boundaries. For example, a number of common nouns with unique denotation are close to proper nouns, and are sometimes spelled with a capital letter (*cf* 5.29), *eg*:
Fate, Fortune, Heaven, Hell, Nature, Paradise, Earth
Compare also, in their generic sense, *Man* and *Woman* (*cf* 5.54 Note). On another level, we might wonder whether *King's* in *King's College* is to be classed as a genitive common noun which is part of a composite name.
[b] In *The Hague Convention*, the article may be called 'conflated', since the definite article also occurs with premodifying names without built-in article: *The Paris Peace Talks*. As for loss of article in names, as in *my native Hague*, *cf* 5.72 (e).

Proper nouns behaving as common nouns

5.61 Having unique denotation, proper nouns may also be expected to lack number contrast, determination, and modification. In general they do, but there are also circumstances in which they take on the characteristics of common nouns.

(a) Number

5.62 Proper nouns normally lack number contrast. Most proper nouns are singular, and do not have a plural (*Indonesia* ~ ?*Indonesias*), or else they have a plural but no singular (*the West Indies* ~ **a West Indy*). There are, however, special circumstances in which proper nouns are reclassified as common nouns, so that they no longer have unique denotation (*cf* App I.53):

Shakespeares ['authors like Shakespeare']
Smiths ['people whose name is Smith']

Londons ['cities called or resembling London']

When a surname is made plural and preceded by the definite article, it takes on the meaning 'the family called X':

the Wilsons, the Joneses /-ɪz/, *the Prideaux* /-z/

The rules for making proper nouns plural are the same as for common nouns (*cf* 5.79*ff*: but note the rules for exceptional spellings in 5.81 III).

(b) Determination

5.63 Some types of proper nouns are customarily preceded by the definite article (*eg*: *the Andes*, *cf* 5.72), but they lack article contrast, since the article cannot normally be varied (**an Ande*, **some Andes*). If reclassified as common nouns, however, proper nouns can have their meaning varied by articles and other determiners:

a Shakespeare ['an author like Shakespeare']
his new Shakespeare ['his copy of the works of Shakespeare']

Other examples are:

I used to know *a Mary Roberts*, too. ['a person called Mary Roberts']
She is *the second Mrs White* – the first one died.
Lu Xun has been known as '*the Chinese Gorki*'.

The definite article with nuclear stress placed before a name has the special meaning of 'the well-known person/place named X' (*cf* 5.11 Note [e]):

A: I used to know John Lennon quite well.
B: Surely you can't mean THÈ /ðiː/ *John* LÉNnon?

By contrast, the indefinite article placed before a personal name can have the meaning 'a certain person called X but otherwise unknown':

A Mrs Robertson was trying to contact you this morning.

Note [a] There is a disparaging use of *that/those* in expressions like *that Mary, those Joneses*:
That Mr PHÌLLips has been on the phone again. Isn't he a NÙIsance!
But stressed *that* is not disparaging in:
Oh, you mean THÀT *Mr Phillips*. ['that particular person']
This has no such overtones in:
Who's *this Mrs* RÒBertson that phoned?
[b] The fact that the pronoun *one* can substitute for a name is strong evidence of its conversion to the status of a common noun in examples like this (*cf* 6.55):
I knew { À *John Lennon*, but not the FÀMous *one*. / ÕNE (person called) John Lennon. }
Note the nuclear stress on, and the pronunciation of, the indefinite article /eɪ/.
[c] Possessives and genitives can be used to denote close family relationships (*cf* 5.55 Note [a]):
Is *your Jennifer* still at SCHÓOL? ['your daughter Jennifer']
Did you know that *your Mrs* WHÎTE ['the one you know'] has been arrested for SHÓPlifting?
John and Mary are very anxious about *their Tom*. [*ie* their son]
Granny is delighted with *Peter's Jane*. [*eg* Peter's girlfriend]

(c) Modification

5.64 When they have the normal unique denotation, proper nouns can only be

modified by nonrestrictive modifiers, such as a nonrestrictive relative clause (*cf* 17.22*ff*) or nonrestrictive apposition (*cf* 17.68):

Dr Brown, *who lives next door*, comes from Australia.
Theseus, *a Greek hero*, killed the Minotaur.

Nonrestrictive premodifiers are limited to adjectives with emotive colouring, such as:

old Mrs Fletcher	*dear little* Eric	*poor* Charles
beautiful Spain	*historic* York	*sunny* July

In a more formal and rather stereotyped style, the adjective is placed between *the* and a personal name:

the *beautiful* Princess Diana ['Princess Diana, who is beautiful']
the *inimitable* Henry Higgins ['Henry Higgins, who is inimitable']

Proper nouns show that they can temporarily take on features of common nouns (*cf* 5.63), and accept restrictive modification of various kinds:

The Dr Brown I know comes from Australia.
The flower arrangement was done by *a Miss Phillips in Park Road.*
Do you mean *the Memphis which used to be the capital of Egypt*, or *the Memphis in Tennessee*?
I spoke to *the younger Mr Hamilton*, not *Mr Hamilton the manager.*

In such cases, a determiner (especially *the*) is usual. But in addition, cataphoric *the* with restrictive modification can have the effect of splitting up the unique referent of the proper noun into different parts or aspects. We may therefore classify this as a PARTITIVE meaning:

UNIQUE MEANING	PARTITIVE MEANING
during *Easter*	during *the Easter of that year*
in *England*	in *the England of Queen Elizabeth*
in *Denmark*	in *the Denmark of today*
Chicago	*the Chicago I like* ['the aspect of Chicago']
Shakespeare	*the young Shakespeare* ['Shakespeare when he was young']
Bradford	*the Bradford she grew up in*

Note [a] Compare the 'partitive' use of the genitive in *James Joyce's Dublin* ['the Dublin which James Joyce knew'], etc.
[b] In the names of monarchs, etc, an adjectival cognomen is placed after the proper noun, and is prefaced by *the*, *eg*: *Charles the Great, Ivan the Terrible.* This type of appellation is similar to an appositional type of name, in which the by-name is nominal: *William the Conqueror.* But in these latter cases, the article is sometimes omitted: *Richard (the) Lionheart, Richard Crookback.*
[c] On nonrestrictive premodification as in *an embarrassed Ben Miles*, etc, *cf* 17.3 Note.

Names with no article

5.65 We now turn to regular examples of names without an article. The following list summarizes the main classes of name that take no article, in accordance with the main rule (*cf* 5.60):

PERSONAL NAMES (with or without titles; *cf* 5.66)
TEMPORAL NAMES (*cf* 5.67):
(i) Festivals, religious periods, etc
(ii) Months, and days of the week
GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES (*cf* 5.68):
(i) Continents
(ii) Countries, counties, states, etc
(iii) Cities, towns, etc
(iv) Lakes
(v) Mountains
OTHER LOCATIVE NAMES consisting of proper noun + common noun descriptor (*cf* 5.69)

Personal names

5.66 Whether or not they are accompanied by titles, personal names normally have no article (*cf* apposition 17.88). The name itself may consist of:

given (first, or Christian) name alone: *Margaret, Jack*, etc
the surname (family name, or last name) alone: *Smith, Wilson*, etc
given name(s) and surname together: *Margaret Jane Smith, Jack Wilson*

In addition, one or more given names (in American usage regularly the middle one) may be reduced to initials:

M. J. Smith; *J. Wilson*; *Charles R. Maguire*

Names such as these may be prefaced by the normal title of *Mr* for a man, or *Mrs, Miss, Ms* for a woman, or a courtesy title indicating the person's status. Among the titles ascribing status are those indicating royalty (*eg*: *Queen*), rank of nobility (*eg*: *Lord*), political, clerical, or judicial office (*eg*: *President*), military rank (*eg*: *Major*), or academic or professional status (*eg*: *Doctor*). Some examples:

Mr and Mrs Johnson	*General* MacArthur
Ms Waterhouse	*Professor* Smith
Dr Brown	*Cardinal* Spellman
Private Walker	*Inspector* Harris
Captain O'Connor	*Chancellor* Brandt
Lord Nelson	*Governor* Rockefeller
Lady Churchill	*Judge* Fox

Fuller details of appositional titles are given in 17.91. On the use of titles and names as vocatives without the article, *cf* 10.53.

Note [a] *Ms*, usually pronounced /mɪz/, is now widely used as a female title which avoids making the distinction between married and unmarried (*Mrs* and *Miss*). On the plural of terms of address, *cf* 5.103.
[b] The title *Sir* is used for a knight or a baronet. It is exceptional in that it must be accompanied by the given name of the holder, but need not be accompanied by the surname. Thus *Sir Basil Spence* can be abbreviated as *Sir Basil*, but not as **Sir Spence*. With other titles, it is usually the given name that is omitted in an abbreviated version: *Ms (Julia) Waterhouse.*
[c] In naming monarchs and popes who have shared the same given name with others (*eg*: *King*

James I, Queen Elizabeth II), we normally write the appended numeral as a cardinal roman number. But in speech, this numeral is rendered as an ordinal (*cf* 6.63): *I* 'the first', *II* 'the second', *VII* 'the seventh', etc.

[d] The use of the article in the following is exceptional:

(i) imperial titles: *the Emperor Napoleon*; (*the*) *Emperor Haile Selassie*; (*the*) *Czar Alexander*; (*the*) *Archduke Ferdinand* [but: *Kaiser Wilhelm II*]

(ii) *the Lord* ['God']

(iii) (*the*) *Rev John Smith* [always *the Reverend John Smith* in the spoken form]

(iv) titles of peerage, when followed by an *of*-phrase: *the Duke of Wellington, the Countess of Derby*, etc

[e] In familiar style, kinship terms with unique reference behave like proper nouns in having no determiner, and often in beginning with a capital letter:

Where's *mother*? [also: *Mummy, Mum* ⟨BrE familiar⟩; *Mommy, Mom* ⟨AmE familiar⟩]
You'll see *Uncle* on Saturday.
Father is here. [also: *Daddy, Dad, Pop* ⟨familiar⟩]
Contrast: *My/The father* was the tallest of the family.

The following expressions are very informal, and used especially in a family environment by or to young children: (*my*) *Daddy*, (*your*) *Mom*, etc.

Temporal names

5.67 These have no article when they are used to refer to the period as a recurrent item in the calendar (*cf* sporadic reference, 5.43; seasons, 5.47):

(i) Names of festivals, religious periods, etc:

Christmas (Day)	*Independence Day*	*Easter (Sunday)*
Passover	*Good Friday*	*New Year*
New Year's Day	*New Year's Eve*	*Ramadan*

(ii) Names of months, and days of the week:

January, February, . . . *Monday, Tuesday, . . .*

However, these words behave more like common nouns when they refer to individual periods, or when they refer collectively to more than one occasion. Along with *next* and *last* + a noun, they have zero article when they are connected with a point of time implicit in the linguistic or situational context (on prepositional usage, *cf* 9.40). Contrast:

We'll leave { *on Sunday.* / *next month.* }

She left { *on the next Sunday.* / *the* { *next* / *following* } *day.* }

Days of the week also occur with the indefinite article, without reference to a particular Sunday:

He left *on a Sunday.*

Days of the week have a plural, but months of the year normally do not:

I hate *Mondays.* ?I hate *Januaries.*

Note In rather popular BrE usage (felt by some to be nonstandard), the days of the week have the definite article in cases like the following:

And *on the Thursday* she got worse. So, *on the Friday* we called the doctor. ['the Thursday, etc of the week concerned']

Geographical names

5.68 The following categories of names normally have no article, even with a premodifying adjective:

(i) Names of continents:

(*North*) *America*	(*medieval*) *Europe*	(*equatorial*) *Africa*
(*Central*) *Australia*	(*East*) *Asia*	*Antarctica*

Note that *Antarctica* refers to the continent, while *the Antarctic* refers more generally to the polar region (*cf*: *the Arctic*).

(ii) Names of countries, counties, states, etc:

(*Elizabethan*) *England*	(*West*) *Scotland*	(*industrial*) *Staffordshire*
(*modern*) *Brazil*	(*French*) *Canada*	(*northern*) *Arkansas*

Note the exceptional use of *the* for certain countries and regions, *eg*: (*the*) *Argentine* (but *Argentina*, without the article, is more common; *cf* 5.57). Other examples:

the Crimea	*the Punjab*	*the Ruhr*
the Saar	*the Sahara*	(*the*) *Sinai*
(*the*) *Sudan*	(*the*) *Ukraine*	(*the*) *Yemen*

The is sometimes used with French names, *eg*: *the Auvergne*; it is also used with plural names such as *the Everglades* (*cf* 5.72), and for names ending with a compass point:

the Near/Middle/Far East, the (Deep) South, the Midwest

(iii) Names of cities, towns, etc:

(*downtown*) *Boston*	(*central*) *Brussels*
(*ancient*) *Rome*	(*suburban*) *New York*

Note the exceptional article in *The Hague*; also the use of the article in certain districts of large cities: *the Bronx, the City, the West/East End* (*of London*).

(iv) Names of lakes (*cf* 17.89):

(*Lake*) *Ladoga*	*Lake Michigan*	*Loch Ness*
Silver Lake	*Lake Nicaragua*	*Ullswater*

Note exceptions such as *the Great Salt Lake.*

(v) Names of mountains (*cf* 17.89):

Mount Everest	*Mont Blanc*	*Ben Nevis*
(*Mount*) *Snowdon*	*Vesuvius*	*Aconcagua*

Note As the examples above show, in the names of lakes and mountains, the descriptor usually precedes rather than follows the proper noun: *Lake Michigan*, not **Michigan Lake*. There are, however, some cases in which the descriptor follows: *Pikes Peak, Bassenthwaite Lake.*

Other locative names consisting of proper noun + common noun descriptor

5.69 The structure 'proper noun + common noun descriptor (or by-name)' is typical of the names of natural features (such as forests, woods, and hills) and man-made features (such as roads, streets, squares, buildings, airports, parks, and gardens). The article is normally omitted:

Epping Forest	*Park Lane*	*Paddington Station*
Clapham Common	*Madison Avenue*	*Kennedy Airport*
Hampstead Heath	*Times Square*	*Magdalen College*
Kew Gardens	*Portland Place*	*Canterbury Cathedral*
Hyde Park	*Scotland Yard*	*Windsor Castle*
Bredon Hill	*Westminster Bridge*	*Buckingham Palace*
Piccadilly Circus	*Hampton Court*	*Fountains Abbey*

There are, however, many exceptions. For example, in London, *the Albert Hall* and *the Mansion House* are buildings, and *the Mall* and *the Strand* are streets. More general exceptions are the names of theatres, museums, etc (*cf* 5.72).

Note [a] Names of British universities where one element is a place-name can usually have two forms: *the University of London* (which is the official name) and *London University*. In names of American universities, there is a fairly regular contrast between the two types, as in *the University of California* and *California State University*. Universities named after a person have only the latter form: *Yale University*, *Brown University*, etc.

[b] *The* can exceptionally occur with *Road* in the names of some urban thoroughfares:
(*the*) *Edgware Road*, (*the*) *Old Kent Road* [but only: *Oxford Street*, *Fifth Avenue*]
Large modern intercity highways also tend to have the article:
the San Diego Freeway, *the Merrit Parkway*, *the Pennsylvania Turnpike*, *the M1* (*Motorway*)

Names with the definite article

5.70 There is a gradient between names like *Sir Walter Scott* and noun phrases which are termed DEFINITE DESCRIPTIONS, such as *the author of Waverley*. Both names and definite descriptions have (situationally) unique denotation; but one of them is grammatically 'frozen', while the other is formed according to the normal productive rules for constructing definite noun phrases. The most obvious indicator of a name is its spelling with initial capitals; while the most obvious indicator of a definite description is its initial definite article. Expressions which combine both these features, such as *the Eiffel Tower*, are neither completely name-like nor completely description-like, but somewhere between the two. We may therefore illustrate the gradient between descriptions and names roughly as follows:

(i) *the Oxford road*	→	(ii) *the Oxford Road*	→	(iii) *Oxford Road*	→	(iv) *Oxford*

Fig 5.70 The gradient between descriptions and names

(i) is a definite description ('the road to Oxford'); in (ii) that description is conventionalized to the extent that *Road* is capitalized, so that the whole makes a composite name; in (iii) the loss of the article has taken this conventionalization further. The purest example of a name is perhaps (iv), the simple proper noun *Oxford*. Although native English speakers may be able to analyse this into two elements ('ford for oxen'), such an analysis plays no part in their understanding of *Oxford* as the name of a university city.

This 'scale of institutionalization' explains why there are many exceptions to the above categories of names which lack an article, and why there is sometimes vacillation between the use and omission of the definite article. It might be better, in fact, to regard names without articles as exceptions to the more general rule that definite noun phrases are introduced by the article *the*. But an even better way of looking at this problem is simply to acknowledge that what accounts for apparent exceptions is the absence of a clear-cut boundary between names and definite descriptions. Consider the following three cases:

In 1965–1968 she attended { *York University.* / (*the*) *Hatfield Polytechnic.* / *the Paris Conservatoire.* }

The reason for using the article in the one case, and omitting it optionally or obligatorily in the other two, seems to be largely a matter of how far the name is an institutionalized name among English-speaking (and in this case particularly British) people.

In the following sections we deal with the in-between area of names preceded by the definite article. They might, indeed, be called 'descriptive names', since not only do they take the article, but they can be analysed, in terms of noun-phrase structure, into head and modifiers.

Structure of names with *the*

5.71 (i) Without modification:

the Kremlin	*the Koran*	The Guardian
the Pentagon	*the Bible*	The Times
the Knesset	*the Parthenon*	*the Dáil*

(ii) With premodification:

the Suez Canal	*the* Washington Post
the National Gallery	*the American Civil War*
the Socialist Bookshop	*the Ohio State University Press*
The Ford Foundation	*the British Broadcasting Corporation*
the English Channel	(*the BBC*)

(iii) With postmodification:

the House of Commons	*the Institute of Psychiatry*
the District of Columbia	*the Bay of Fundy*
the Cambridgeshire College of Arts	*and Technology*

Virtually all names with postmodification like those above are postmodified by an *of*-phrase, and have an obligatory *the*.

(iv) With ellipsis of elements:
The original structure of a name is sometimes unclear when one element has

been dropped and the elliptic form has become institutionalized as the full name:

the Tate (Gallery)	*the Mermaid (Theatre)*
the Atlantic (Ocean)	*the (River) Thames*
the Mediterranean (Sea)	*the Majestic (Hotel)*

Note When the article is written with a small *t*, it is not part of the name itself. Hence any modifier describing the referent follows, rather than precedes, the article: *the breathtaking Himalayas, the lower Mississippi*. In *The Hague*, however, *The* is part of the name (*cf* 5.72 e).

Classes of names typically preceded by *the*

5.72 (a) Plural names (in general), *eg*: *the Netherlands, the Midlands, the Great Lakes*, particularly including the following two categories.
(i) Groups of islands: *the Hebrides, the Shetlands, the Canaries* (or *the Canary Islands*), *the Bahamas*
(ii) Ranges of mountains or hills: *the Himalayas, the Alps, the Andes, the Rockies* (or *the Rocky Mountains*), *the Pyrenees, the Pennines*. Also nonplural names of ranges: *the Caucasus, the Sierra Nevada*. Exceptions: *Kensington Gardens, Burnham Beeches*

(b) Other geographical names:
(i) Rivers: *the Avon, the Danube, the Euphrates, the Potomac, the Rhine*. (The word *River* can sometimes be inserted after *the*: *the River Avon*, etc; but for some rivers it comes last: *the Potomac River*, etc; *cf* 17.89).
(ii) Seas and oceans: *the Pacific (Ocean), the Atlantic (Ocean), the Baltic (Sea), the Kattegat*
(iii) Canals: *the Panama Canal, the Suez Canal, the Erie Canal*
(iv) Other geographical features of coastline: *the Gulf of Mexico, the Cape of Good Hope, the Bay of Biscay, the Strait of Magellan, the Sound of Bute, (the) Bosphorus, the Isle of Man, the Isle of Wight*
Note that when there is premodification rather than postmodification in category (iv), *the* usually disappears. Thus:

the Isle of Wight BUT: *Long Island*
the Bay of Naples BUT: *Hudson Bay*

(c) Public institutions, facilities, etc:
(i) Hotels and restaurants: *the Grand (Hotel), the Waldorf Astoria*
(ii) Theatres, opera houses, cinemas, and clubs: *the Criterion (Theatre), the Globe (Theatre), the Athenaeum*
(iii) Museums, libraries, hospitals, etc: *the British Museum, the Bodleian (Library), the Middlesex Hospital*
Probably because of their origin as place-names, *Drury Lane* and *Covent Garden* are exceptions to the rule that theatres and opera houses take *the*, as in *the Metropolitan*. When the name of a public institution begins with a genitive, *the* is not used: *White's, Gaylord's (Restaurant), Brown's (Hotel), Guy's (Hospital), St John's (College)*.

(d) Ships and planes, particularly when renowned in history, *eg*: *the Victory, the Spirit of St Louis*

(e) Newspapers and periodicals: *The Economist, The New York Times, The Observer, The Providence Journal, The London Review of Books. The* is generally spelt with a capital letter in names of newspapers.
Irrespective of whether or not the article is part of the name itself, it is not used after an indefinite article or other determiner or genitive:

Have you got a *Times*? [not: *a *The Times*]
She's a *Times* reporter.
Have you seen today's *New York Times*?
Malcolm lent me his *Guardian*.

Magazines and periodicals, on the other hand, often have a zero article: *Time, Punch, English Language Teaching Journal, New Scientist, Scientific American*.

Number

Number classes

5.73 The English number system constitutes a two-term contrast: SINGULAR, which denotes 'one', and PLURAL, which denotes 'more than one'. Each noun phrase is either singular or plural, and its number is determined in general by its head, which is typically a noun. In the following sections we will concentrate on number as a property of nouns, and as a basis for their classification.

Note [a] In addition to singular and plural number, we may distinguish dual number in the case of *both, either*, and *neither* (*cf* 5.16), since they can only be used with reference to two. *Both* has plural concord (*cf* 6.50); *either* and *neither* have singular concord (*cf* 6.59*ff*).
[b] Unlike some languages where plural implies 'two or more', English makes the division after 'more than one':
one half day, one day BUT: *one and a half days, two days, one or two days*
However, the following remain singular:
a pound and a half, a day or two (*cf* 5.38), *more than one day*

5.74 We distinguish three main number classes of nouns:

(A) SINGULAR INVARIABLE NOUNS, including noncount nouns (*eg*: *music, gold*), most proper nouns (*eg*: *Thomas, the Thames*). We may also consider here abstract adjective heads, *eg*: *the mystical* (*cf* 7.26).
(B) PLURAL INVARIABLE NOUNS, *ie* nouns occurring only in the plural, *eg*: *people, scissors*. We may also consider here personal adjective heads, *eg*: *the rich* (*cf* 7.23*f*).
(C/D) VARIABLE NOUNS, *ie* nouns occurring with either singular or plural number:
The *dog is* . . .
The *dogs are* . . .

We distinguish two subclasses: (C) REGULAR, with plurals predictable from the singular (like *dog*), and (D) IRREGULAR, where the plural is not predictable (*eg*: *foot* ~ *feet*, *child* ~ *children*). In this latter group we find a large number of nouns with foreign plurals, *eg*: *criterion* ~ *criteria*, *analysis* ~ *analyses*.

Figure 5.74 provides a summary of the classification with section references to the subsequent discussion.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	NOUN CLASS	
(A) SINGULAR INVARIABLE				
noncount nouns	*gold*		(Aa)	(5.75)
abstract adjective heads	*the unreal*		(Ab)	(7.26)
proper nouns	*Henry*		(Ac)	(5.60*ff*)
(B) PLURAL INVARIABLE				
summation plurals		*scissors*	(Ba)	(5.76)
pluralia tantum in *-s*		*thanks*	(Bb)	(5.77)
unmarked plural nouns		*people*	(Bc)	(5.78)
personal adjective heads		*the rich*	(Bd)	(7.23*f*)
proper nouns		*the Alps*	(Be)	(5.62)
(C) NOUNS WITH REGULAR PLURAL	*dog*	~ *dogs*	(C)	(5.79*ff*)
(D) NOUNS WITH IRREGULAR PLURAL				
voicing and *-s* plural	*calf*	~ *calves*	(Da)	(5.83)
mutation plural	*foot*	~ *feet*	(Db)	(5.84)
-en plural	*child*	~ *children*	(Dc)	(5.85)
zero plural	*sheep*	~ *sheep*	(Dd)	(5.86*ff*)
foreign plurals	*stimulus*	~ *stimuli*	(De)	(5.93)
	larva	~ *larvae*	(Df)	(5.94)
	stratum	~ *strata*	(Dg)	(5.95)
	matrix	~ *matrices*	(Dh)	(5.96)
	thesis	~ *theses*	(Di)	(5.97)
	criterion	~ *criteria*	(Dj)	(5.98)
	bureau	~ *bureaux*	(Dk)	(5.99)
	tempo	~ *tempi*	(Dl)	(5.100)
	cherub	~ *cherubim*	(Dm)	(5.101)

Fig 5.74 Number classes

(A) Singular invariable nouns

5.75 Noncount nouns are singular and invariable, *ie* they have no plural. Some concrete noncount nouns can be reclassified as count nouns with specific meanings, for example *butters* ['kind(s) of butter'] and *a beer* ['a glass of beer'] (*cf* 5.5).

Abstract noncount nouns normally have no plural: *music*, *dirt*, *homework*, etc. But some can be reclassified as count nouns where they refer to an instance of a given abstract phenomenon: *injustices*, *regrets*, *kindnesses*, *pleasures*, etc. Many abstract nouns are equally at home in the count and noncount categories (*cf* 5.4).

Proper nouns are typically singular and invariable: *Henry*, *the Thames*, etc (*cf* 5.62).

Some noncount nouns, particularly those denoting natural phenomena, may be pluralized, *eg*:

walking through the *woods* — I have serious *doubts*/grave *fears*.
raise someone's *hopes* — Let's play on the *sands*.

Some plurals express intensity, great quantity or extent, and have a literary flavour, for example:

the *snows* of Kilimanjaro
the *sands* of the desert
sailing on the great *waters*

Note the following classes of invariable nouns ending in *-s* which take a singular verb, except where otherwise mentioned:

(i) *News* is always singular (*cf* 5.9):

Here is the *news* from the BBC. — What's the *news* today?

(ii) Nouns ending in *-ics* denoting subjects, sciences, etc are usually invariable and treated as singular, *eg*:

Mathematics is the science of quantities.

Other such nouns include:

acoustics	*economics*	*linguistics*
athletics	*ethics*	*phonetics*
classics	*gymnastics*	*physics*

Some, however, can be singular or plural, in particular when such words can denote both one's knowledge of the subject and the practical application of results:

Politics is said to be the art of the impossible. [the science of government] [1]
His *politics* are rather conservative. [political views] [1a]

In some cases, there are forms without *-s* for special uses:

Statistics is a branch of mathematics. [2]
These *statistics* show that exports are still low. [2a]
There is a surprising *statistic* in your latest report. [2b]
A new *ethic* is needed in the world today. [3]
Has the new coach found a *tactic* that works? [4]

(iii) Names of certain diseases ending in *-s* are usually treated as singular (but some speakers also accept plural), *eg*: (*German*) *measles*, *mumps*, *rickets*, *shingles*:

A: Have you ever had *measles*?
B: Yes I had { *it* / *them* } when I was a child.

(iv) The names of some games ending in *-s* have singular concord, *eg*: *billiards* (but usually: *a billiard table*), *checkers* ⟨AmE⟩, *draughts* ⟨BrE⟩, *craps*, *darts* (but: *a dartboard*), *dominoes*, *fives*, *ninepins*:

Darts is becoming very popular as a spectator sport.

(B) Plural invariable nouns

(Ba) Summation plurals

5.76 Summation plurals denote tools, instruments, and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined together:

A: How much are *those binoculars*? B: *They are* £60.

The most common summation plurals are the following:

(i) Tools and instruments:

bellows; *glasses*, *spectacles*, *binoculars*; *scales* ['a balance']; *clippers*, *forceps*, *pincers*, *scissors*, *shears*, *tongs*, *tweezers*

(ii) Articles of dress:

braces ⟨BrE⟩, *breeches*, *britches* ⟨AmE⟩, *briefs*, *flannels*, *jeans*, *knickers*, *pants*, *pajamas* ⟨AmE⟩, *pyjamas* ⟨BrE⟩, *shorts*, *slacks*, *suspenders*, *tights*, *trousers*, *trunks*

Number contrast can be achieved by means of *a pair of*. Thus *a pair of trousers* refers to one item, but *two pairs of trousers* refers to two (*cf* 5.7 Note [a]):

That's a *nice pair of slacks*.
As I'm shortsighted I always carry *two pairs of glasses*.

Plural pronoun concord is usual even with a singular determiner + *pair*:

I like { *this* / **these* } *pair*. *How much* { *are they*? / *is it*? }

Although nouns that are summation plurals require plural concord, they differ from ordinary plural nouns in that they are not generally thought of as denoting plural number. Yet usage varies. For many speakers, it is as follows (*cf* 10.43 Note [c]):

Both pairs of scissors
(?) *Both of the scissors* } need sharpening.
(?) *Both scissors*

I want { *two pairs of trousers*. / (?) *two trousers*. ⟨informal⟩ / *a pair of trousers*. / **one trouser*. / (?) *a scissors*. ⟨informal⟩ }

Many of the summation plurals can take the indefinite article, especially

with premodification: (*a*) *new clippers*, (*a*) *garden shears*, (*an*) *old-fashioned curling tongs*. Forms are commonly singular when used attributively: *a spectacle case*, *a suspender belt*, *a trouser leg*, *a pajama/pyjama top* (*cf* 17.108).

Note *Compasses* can be used in the singular (*compass*) in the sense 'instrument for drawing circles':
She drew her circle with a *compass*.
In the sense of an instrument of navigation, it is a normal count noun:
A magnetic *compass* is / Magnetic *compasses* are } necessary for navigation.

(Bb) Pluralia tantum ending in *-s*

5.77 Some 'pluralia tantum' (*ie* nouns that, in a given sense, occur only in the plural) end in *-s*, whereas others have no plural marking, *eg*: *people* (*cf* 5.78). They have plural concord, *eg*:

These damages have not yet been paid, *have they*? [*damages* = 'compensation in money imposed by law for causing loss or injury'] [1]

In many cases, pluralia tantum ending in *-s* also have singular forms, which however can be dissociated in meaning from the plural, *eg*:

That damage was repaired long ago. [*damage* = 'loss, harm'] [1a]

Other examples of pluralia tantum:

accommodations ⟨AmE⟩: living accommodations
amends: make every/all possible amends for something
annals ['a historical record of events']: in the annals of history
archives: The documents should be kept in the archives. (BUT: archive administration)
arms ['weapons']: arms aid; arms control; the arms race; take up arms; ALSO: *munitions*
arrears: He's in arrears with his payments; the arrears of work
ashes: burn to ashes; Her ashes were scattered; the ash(es) of a burned letter (BUT: cigarette ash; ashtray; Ash Wednesday)
auspices ['support']: under the auspices of
banns [of marriage]: publish the banns
bowels, *entrails*, *intestines*: the movement of the bowels; an infection of the intestines (BUT singular count: the large intestine)
brains ['the intellect']: You should use your brains. (BUT singular count is more common generally, and particularly so when the meaning is anatomical: 'The average human brain weighs 14 oz.')
clothes /kləʊ(ð)z/: warm clothes; a clothes basket (BUT: *cloths* /klɒθs/ as plural of *cloth*: a table cloth)
clubs, *diamonds*, *hearts*, *spades* [playing cards]: the ace of clubs; the jack of hearts; BUT: I've only one diamond in my hand. NOTE singular concord in: Spades is the suit. It was hearts last game.
the Commons/Lords [the House of Commons/Lords in the UK]: The Commons are discussing the new bill.
communications ['means of communicating']: communications gap; telecommunications network

congratulations: Many congratulations on your birthday!
contents: a table of contents (BUT: the silver content of a coin; the style and content of a book)
credentials: evaluate the credentials of students
customs: pay customs duty; go through customs at the airport; a customs officer
dregs: coffee dregs/grounds; the dregs of society
dues ['fee']: pay one's dues to a society; harbour dues
earnings: Her earnings are higher this year. (BUT: earning power); ALSO: *proceeds, returns, riches*
funds ['money']: for lack of funds; be short of funds (BUT: a fund ['a source of money'])
goods ['property, merchandise']: leather goods; a goods train ⟨BrE⟩ (AmE = a freight train)
grassroots ['the rank and file']: grassroots opinion/revolt/support (BUT: at grassroot level)
guts ['bowels'; ALSO 'courage' ⟨familiar⟩]: He's got the guts to do it. (BUT in premodification: a gut reaction; noncount: catgut)
heads ['front side of a coin']: Heads or tails?
heavens in the expression 'Good Heavens!' (BUT: go to heaven)
honours: an honours course/degree/list
humanities ['arts']: the humanities/arts faculty
letters ['literature']: a man of letters
lodgings: a lodgings bureau (BUT: a lodging house; a poor lodging); ALSO: *digs* ⟨BrE informal⟩: Many students move into digs instead of living on campus. ALSO: *quarters*: married quarters (BUT: the Latin quarter ['district'])
looks: He has good looks. (BUT: give somebody a hard look)
mains: turn the water off at the mains; NOTE in some phrases the *-s* is retained in premodification: mains adaptor; mains water supply
manners ['social behaviour']: Where are your manners?; manners and customs (BUT: Do it in this manner/way; I don't like his manner ['personal way of acting'])
minutes ['a record of proceedings']: the minutes of a meeting
odds: What are the odds?; be at odds with; odds and ends
outskirts: She lives on the outskirts of the city.
pains ['care, trouble']: take great pains with something; be at pains to do something
particulars ['details']: Take down the particulars of this event.
premises ['building' ⟨in official style⟩]: There is a suspect on the premises. (BUT in logic: a first premise)
regards ['good wishes']: Ann sends her regards. (BUT: win his regard ['respect'])
relations: an exercise in public relations
remains ['remainder']: the remains of the castle/the meal
savings ['money saved']: a savings bank; a savings account (BUT: a saving of £5)
spirits ['mood']: to be in good spirits (BUT: He showed a kindly spirit.)
stairs [inside a building]: a flight of stairs; downstairs (BUT: a staircase; a stairway)

steps [outside a building]: a flight of steps; on the church steps
surroundings ['environment']: These surroundings are not good for the child.
systems: a systems analyst; computer systems applications
thanks: Many thanks for . . .; All my thanks are due to you.
troops ['soldiers']: Many troops were sent overseas. (BUT: troop movement; a troop carrier; a troop of scouts)
tropics: living in the tropics (BUT: the Tropic of Cancer)
valuables: Are my valuables safe here?
wages ['weekly pay']: What are his wages? (BUT often also singular: a wage earner; a minimum wage; a good/poor/high wage; a wage freeze)
wits: live by one's wits (BUT: She has a keen wit. Her speech had wit.)
writings ['literary production' ⟨formal⟩]: His writings are not widely known.

(Bc) Unmarked plural nouns: *people, police*, etc

5.78 The following nouns have no plural marking but are used as plurals (*cf* also collective nouns like *clergy, staff*, etc, 5.108):

(i) *people*:

How *many people* are there in the world today?

People functions as the normal plural of *person*:

There was only *one person* / There were *many people* } in the room.

Persons is often used instead of *people*, especially in official style: 'a person or persons unknown'. When *people* means 'nation', it is a regular count noun:

The Japanese are *an industrious people*.
They are *a great people*.
the English-speaking *peoples*

In this sense, however, the singular form *people* is normally constructed with plural concord:

The Portuguese *people have* chosen a new President.

(ii) *Folk* is more restricted in use than *people*: *country folk, fisher folk, island folk, folk art, folk music. Folks* is used in casual style (*That's all, folks!*) and often with a possessive determiner in the sense of 'family' (*my folks*).

(iii) *police*: 'The police have caught the burglar'.

To denote individual police officers we normally use *a police officer*, or *a policeman/policewoman* with the plurals *police officers, policemen, policewomen*:

Why don't you ask *a policeman*?

In a collective sense 'the police force', only *police* can be used:

He wants to join *the police*. [NOT, in this sense, *the policemen*]

(iv) *cattle*: 'All his *cattle* were grazing in the field.'

(v) *poultry* ['farmyard birds']: 'Where are your *poultry*?'

But it is treated as singular in the sense of 'meat': '*Poultry* is harder to come by nowadays than beef'.

(vi) *livestock* ['animals kept on a farm']: 'Our *livestock* are not as numerous as they used to be.'

(vii) *vermin*: 'These vermin cause disease.'

(C) Regular plurals

5.79 Variable nouns have two forms: singular and plural. The singular is the unmarked form that is listed in dictionaries. The vast majority of nouns are variable in this way and normally the plural is fully predictable both in pronunciation and spelling by the same rules as for the *-s* inflection of verbs (*cf* 3.5, 3.7), *ie* they form the regular plural. If the plural cannot be predicted from the singular, it is an irregular plural.

The pronunciation of the regular plural

5.80 The regular *-s* plural has three different pronunciations /ɪz/, /z/, /s/ depending on the final sound of the base.

(i) /ɪz/ after bases ending in sibilants:

/s/ in *horse* ~ *horses*; *box* ~ *boxes*	/tʃ/ in *church* ~ *churches*
/z/ in *size* ~ *sizes*	/ʒ/ in *mirage* ~ *mirages*
/ʃ/ in *rush* ~ *rushes*	/dʒ/ in *language* ~ *languages*

(ii) /z/ after bases ending in vowels and voiced consonants other than sibilants: *day* ~ *days*, *bed* ~ *beds*

(iii) /s/ after bases ending in voiceless consonants other than sibilants: *bet* ~ *bets*, *month* ~ *months*

The spelling of the regular plural

5.81 The plural suffix is written *-s* after most nouns: *hat* ~ *hats*, including nouns ending in silent *-e* (*college* ~ *colleges*). There are however several exceptions to this rule:

(I) Unless the noun is written with a silent *-e*, the plural suffix is spelled *-es* after nouns ending in sibilants which are spelled *-s* (*gas* ~ *gases*), *-z* (*buzz* ~ *buzzes*), *-x* (*box* ~ *boxes*), *-ch* (*church* ~ *churches*), *-sh* (*bush* ~ *bushes*).

(II) Nouns ending in *-o* have plurals in *-os* or *-oes*.

(i) *-OS*: When *-o* is preceded by a vowel (letter or sound), the spelling is *-os*: *bamboos*, *embryos*, *folios*, *kangaroos*, *radios*, *studios*, *zoos*.

When *-o* is preceded by a consonant, the spelling is also usually *-os*: *dynamos*, *pianos*, *quartos*, *solos*. Abbreviations are included in those nouns with *-os*: *kilos* (= *kilograms*), *memos* (= *memoranda*), *photos* (= *photographs*); and ethnic nouns: *Eskimos*, *Filipinos* (but also zero, *cf* 5.88).

(ii) *-OES*: The following are among those nouns which have plurals only in *-oes*: *domino* (plural: *dominoes*); also: *echo*, *embargo*, *hero*, *potato*, *tomato*, *torpedo*, *veto*.

(iii) *-OS* or *-OES*: In some cases there is variation between *-os* and *-oes* plurals, *eg*: *archipelago* (plural: *archipelagos* or *archipelagoes*); also *banjo*, *buffalo* (*cf* 5.87), *cargo*, *grotto*, *halo*, *innuendo*, *manifesto*, *motto*, *mulatto*, *tornado*, *volcano*.

(III) Nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant change *-y* to *-i* and add *-es*: *sky* ~ *skies*; *-y* is kept after a vowel: *day* ~ *days*, except for nouns ending in *-quy* /kwiː/ (where *u* is only a spelling vowel required after *q*), which have the plural *-quies* (*soliloquy* ~ *soliloquies*). Proper nouns ending in *-y* have plurals in *-ys*: *the two Germanys*, *the little Marys*.

(IV) The final consonant is doubled in a few words, *eg*: *fez* ~ *fezzes*, *quiz* ~ *quizzes*.

(V) The apostrophe + *s* is used in some nouns of unusual form, *eg* letters: *dot your i's*; numerals: *in the 1890's* (or, increasingly, *1890s*); abbreviations: *three PhD's* (or, increasingly, *PhDs*).

Note In abbreviations, reduplication also occurs as a purely written convention, *eg*: *p* ~ *pp* [the plural = 'pages'], *l* ~ *ll* [= 'lines'], *MS* ~ *MSS* [= 'manuscripts'], *ex* ~ *exx* [= 'examples'], *c* ~ *cc* [= 'copies'], *f* ~ *ff* [= 'and following pages'].

(D) Irregular plurals

5.82 Irregular plurals are by definition unpredictable. Whereas the plural /ɪz/ in *horses*, /z/ in *dogs*, and /s/ in *cats* can be predicted from the final sound in the singular of the nouns, there is no indication in the written or spoken forms of, for example, *ox*, *sheep*, and *analysis* to suggest that their plurals are *oxen*, *sheep*, and *analyses*. The particular plurals of these nouns have to be learned as individual lexical units.

In many cases where foreign words are involved, it is of course helpful to know about pluralization in the relevant languages, particularly Latin and Greek. Thus, on the pattern of *analysis* ~ *analyses* we can construct the following plurals: *axis* ~ *axes*, *basis* ~ *bases*, *crisis* ~ *crises*, etc. But we cannot always rely on etymological criteria: unlike *larva* ~ *larvae*, for example, plurals like *areas* and *villas* do not conform to the Latin pattern (*cf* 5.94).

(Da) Voicing and *-s* plural

5.83 (i) Some nouns which, in the singular, end in the voiceless fricative /θ/ (spelled *-th*) form plurals with the corresponding voiced fricative /ð/ followed by /z/. The spelling of the plural is regular (*-ths*):

-th /θ/ ~ *-ths* /ðz/, *eg*: *path* ~ *paths*

There is considerable indeterminacy between voicing and nonvoicing in many nouns ending in *-th*. With a consonant letter before the *-th*, the pronunciation of the plural is regular /θs/:

berth ~ *berths*, *birth* ~ *births*, *length* ~ *lengths*

With a vowel before the *-th*, the plural has, again, often regular pronunciation /θs/, as with:

cloth, death, faith, heath, moth

In a few such cases, however, there are both regular and voiced plurals, *eg*:

truths /truːθs/ or /truːðz/; similarly: *oaths, sheaths, youths* (/juːθs/ ⟨esp AmE⟩), *wreaths*

(ii) Some nouns which, in the singular, end in the voiceless fricative /f/ (spelled *-f* or *-fe*) form plurals with the corresponding voiced fricative /v/ followed by /z/. The spelling of the plural is *-ves*:

-f /f/ ~ *-ves* /vz/, *eg*: *calf* ~ *calves*
-fe /f/ ~ *-ves* /vz/, *eg*: *knife* ~ *knives*

Voiced plurals, spelled *-ves* and pronounced /vz/, occur with:

calf ~ *calves*	*life* ~ *lives*	*shelf* ~ *shelves*
elf ~ *elves*	*loaf* ~ *loaves*	*thief* ~ *thieves*
half ~ *halves*	*self* ~ *selves* (*cf* 6.23)	*wife* ~ *wives*
knife ~ *knives*	*sheaf* ~ *sheaves*	*wolf* ~ *wolves*
leaf ~ *leaves*		

Both regular and voiced plurals are found with:

dwarf (plural: *dwarfs*/*dwarves*), *hoof, scarf, wharf*

Other nouns ending in *-f*(*e*) have regular plural *-f*(*e*)*s* /fs/, for example: *belief* (plural: *beliefs*), *chief, cliff, proof, roof, safe*.

(iii) One noun (*house*) ending in the voiceless fricative /s/ in the singular has the plural /zɪz/: *house* ~ *houses*.

Note [a] In BrE *bath* has the voiced plural /bɑːðz/ or /bɑːθs/ when it means 'swimming pools', but usually /bɑːθs/ when it means 'bathtubs'.
[b] *Cloverleaf* occurs with either *cloverleafs* or *cloverleaves* in the plural. Regular plurals occur in names, *eg* the Toronto icehockey team *Maple Leafs*.
[c] The painting term *still life* has a regular plural: *still lifes*.

(Db) Mutation

5.84 The plural is formed by MUTATION (a change of vowel) in the following seven nouns:

man /mæn/	~ *men* /men/	*woman* /ˈwʊmən/	~ *women* /ˈwɪmɪn/
foot /ʊ/	~ *feet* /iː/	*tooth* /uː/	~ *teeth* /iː/
goose /uː/	~ *geese* /iː/	*louse* /aʊ/	~ *lice* /aɪ/
mouse /aʊ/	~ *mice* /aɪ/		

Note [a] Compounds with unstressed *-man*, as in *Englishman* ~ *Englishmen* (*cf* App I.64), have no difference in pronunciation at all between singular and plural, since both are pronounced /mən/. Similarly: *fireman* ~ *firemen*, *postman* ~ *postmen*, etc.
[b] *German* and *mongoose* are not compounds with *man* and *goose*, and thus have regular plurals: *Germans, mongooses*. However, the irregular plural can be found also in nouns that are not 'true' compounds with *-man*; *eg*: *dragoman* ~ *dragomans* or *dragomen*.
[c] Regular plurals are normal in names, such as *Mother Gooses*, and may occur when otherwise mutational nouns have derived meanings, *eg*: *Those louses!*, *Silly gooses!* ⟨familiar use⟩.

(Dc) The *-en* plural

5.85 The *-en* /ən/ plural occurs in three nouns:

brother ~ *brethren* (with mutation as well as the *-en* ending) is limited to *brother* meaning 'fellow member of a religious society'; otherwise regular *brothers*
child ~ *children* (with vowel change /aɪ/ ~ /ɪ/ and *-r* added)
ox ~ *oxen* (In AmE, the plural *oxes* is also sometimes found.)

(Dd) Zero plural

5.86 Some nouns have the same spoken and written form in both singular and plural. Note the difference here between, on the one hand, invariable nouns, which are either singular [1] or plural [2], but not both; and, on the other hand, zero plural nouns, which can be both singular and plural [3, 3a]:

This music is too loud.	[1]
All the cattle are grazing in the field.	[2]
This sheep looks small.	[3]
All *those sheep* are ours.	[3a]

We distinguish the following types of nouns with zero plural: (I) animal names (*cf* 5.87), (II) nationality nouns (*cf* 5.88), (III) quantitative nouns (*cf* 5.89*f*), and (IV) nouns with equivocal number (*cf* 5.91).

(I) Animal names

5.87 Animal names normally have the regular plural:

cow ~ *cows, eagle* ~ *eagles, monkey* ~ *monkeys*, etc

However, many animal names have two plurals: *-s* and zero plurals, *eg*: *duck, herring*. Zero tends to be used partly by people who are especially concerned with the animals, partly when the animals are referred to in the mass as game:

Have you ever shot *duck*?
We caught only a few *fish*.

The regular plural is used to denote different individuals, species, etc:

Can you see the *ducks* on the pond?
the *fishes* of the Mediterranean

In some cases usage is variable, *eg*:

He caught five { *fish.* / *fishes.* }

The degree of variability with animal names is shown by the following examples:

(i) Regular plural, *eg*:
bird, cow, eagle, hen, hawk, monkey, rabbit
(ii) Usually regular plural:
elk, crab, duck (zero only with the wild bird)
(iii) Both regular and zero plurals:
antelope, reindeer, fish, flounder, herring, shrimp, woodcock

(iv) Usually zero plural:
bison, grouse, quail, salmon, swine (*cf* the normal word *pig* which always has regular plural)

(v) Always zero plural:
sheep, deer, cod

Note [a] *Swine* used as a word of abuse may also have a zero plural:
You swine! [about one or more persons]
He called them *swine*.
But it is occasionally used with a regular plural:
these *swines* with their big cars
[b] Some animal names, like *duck* and *goose*, refer to both game and food: *shoot/eat duck*. But in the latter case, the noun is noncount. For other animals there is a special word for the flesh of an animal considered as food, *ie*: *shoot deer* but *eat venison* (*cf* 5.4: *pig/pork*, etc).

(II) Nationality nouns

5.88 Nationality nouns ending in *-ese* also have zero plurals (*cf* 5.57):

one *Chinese* ~ five *Chinese*; similarly: *Japanese, Lebanese, Portuguese, Sinhalese, Vietnamese*, etc; also: *one Swiss* ~ *two Swiss*

Certain nationality and ethnic names are sometimes used without *-s*:

Apache(s), Bantu(s), Bedouin(s), Eskimo(s), Navaho(s)

Sioux has the same written form for singular and plural, but the pronunciation /su:/ in the singular corresponds to either /su:/ or /su:z/ in the plural.

(III) Quantitative nouns

5.89 (i) The nouns *dozen, hundred, thousand*, and *million* have zero plurals when they are premodified by another quantitative word (*cf* 6.65):

three *dozen* glasses — two *hundred* people
many *thousand* times — several *million* inhabitants

Million can take plural *-s* if no noun head follows:

They want { *a few hundred.* / *ten thousand.* / *several million(s).* }

The plural form is normally used with all four nouns when an *of*-phrase follows, with or without a preceding indefinite quantitative word:

(many) *dozens of* glasses
(many) *hundreds of* people
(several) *thousands of* spectators
(a few) *millions of* inhabitants

But the zero form is common enough:

a few *million of* us, several *hundred/thousand of* them

Note such combinations as:

tens of thousands of people
hundreds of millions of stars
hundreds (*and hundreds* (*and hundreds*)) *of* times

(ii) *Foot* denoting length and *pound* denoting weight often have zero plural, particularly when a numeral follows:

She's only { *five foot two.* / *five* { *foot* / *feet* } *tall.* / *five feet.* ⟨usually⟩ }

(iii) Also *pound* denoting currency may have zero or regular plural when a numeral follows:

This ticket costs only { *two pound(s) fifty.* / *two pounds.* }

Note The more general use of singular for plural with measure nouns is nonstandard but widely current:
It weighs *five pound.* — He's nearly *six foot.*
More widely acceptable is:
Five pound of potatoes, please.
The singular is however standard in quantitative expressions of the following type (*cf* 17.108): *a three-foot ruler.*

5.90 Other quantitative nouns (some of them rather rare) with zero plurals include the following when used with definite numbers and measurements:

brace [= 2]: 'five brace of pheasants'
gross [= 12 dozen]: 'ten gross of nails'
head [= 1]: '400 head of cattle'
horsepower, HP: 'This engine has only fifty horsepower.'
hundredweight [British weight = 112 pounds]: 'five hundredweight (of coal)'
(kilo)hertz: 'Two kilohertz equals 2000 hertz.'
p /pi:/ ['penny' ⟨informal BrE⟩]: 'The paper costs *25p* /pi:/' ['25 *pence*' ⟨more formal⟩]. *Penny* is commonly used in BrE and AmE when referring to the actual coins as distinct from the value: 'Save your pennies and watch your dollars grow.'
quid ['pound' ⟨BrE slang⟩]: 'You owe me *five quid*.' [= *five pounds*; written: *£5*]
score [= 20]: 'four *score* and ten years ago'; BUT always: 'scores (and scores) of people'
stone [British weight = 14 pounds]: 'He weighs 18 stone(s).'
yen [Japanese currency]: 'one yen, 200 yen'
yoke [= 2]: 'two yoke(s) of oxen'

(IV) Nouns with equivocal number

5.91 The following nouns can be treated as singular or plural:

barracks: { This barracks is / These barracks are } new.

Also *s*-less form: 'a barrack square'; 'an enormous barrack of a place' [informal metaphorical use]

craft in the sense of 'ship(s)' with compounds: 'one/several (air)craft/hovercraft/spacecraft' (BUT: 'arts and crafts')

crossroads: { This is a busy crossroads. / There are several crossroads here. }

data ['information, especially information organized for analysis'] (from the Latin singular *datum*, plural *data*) is usually constructed as a plural [1]. But it is often constructed also as a singular, especially in scientific contexts [1a]:

Many of *these data are* inconclusive. [1]
Much of *this data is* inconclusive. [1a]

The regular English plural *datums* is used as a reference term in surveying.

dice: 'one/two dice' (or perhaps: 'one of the dice' for the singular). *Die* in the expression 'The die is cast' is no longer recognized as being the singular of *dice*. *Die* ['engraved stamp for coining, etc'] has the regular plural *dies*.

gallows: 'one/two gallows', 'gallows humour'

headquarters: 'a large headquarters', 'Where is/are the headquarters?'

innings [as a cricket term]: 'a long innings', 'two innings' [The corresponding baseball term is regular: 'an inning/two innings']

kennels (as well as being plural of regular *kennel*) ['a collection of kennels where dogs are kept']: 'a/some famous kennels'

links: 'a fine but difficult golf links', 'We have several links here.'

means: 'a means of communication', 'use every/all means available', 'a means test'

mews ⟨BrE⟩: { This mews is / These mews are } very fashionable.

oats: 'Is/Are oats grown here?'

offspring: { Is this / Are these } your offspring?

series: { This new series is / These new series are } beginning next month.

species: { This species is / These species are } now extinct.

works ['factory, plant'] with compounds (*steelworks*, *waterworks*):

a/two large works
An enormous steelworks was / A number of steelworks were } built here in the thirties.

But *works* ['the moving parts of a machine'] is a plurale tantum, and *work* ['job'] is noncount (*cf* 5.9).

Note [a] Most of the nouns in this group are count nouns and display a semantic difference between singular and plural (eg: *one/two mews*). The exceptions are *data* and *oats*.
[b] In BrE the singular form of collective nouns may also have either a singular or a plural verb (*cf* 5.108):

Our *team* { *has* / *have* } lost again. But not a plural determiner: { **these* / *this* } *team*

Foreign plurals

5.92 Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are more common in technical usage, whereas the *-s* plural is the most natural in everyday language. Thus: *formulas* (general) ~ *formulae* (in mathematics, linguistics, etc), *antennas* (general and in electronics) ~ *antennae* (in biology).

Our aim here will be to survey systematically the main types of foreign plurals that are used in present-day English and to consider the extent to which a particular plural form is obligatory or optional. Most (but by no means all) words having a foreign plural originated in the language mentioned in the heading.

(De) Nouns from Latin ending in *-us* /əs/

5.93 The foreign plural in most cases is *-i* /aɪ/, as in *stimulus* ~ *stimuli* (also /ˈstɪmjəliː/). Other nouns with *-i* plural only: *alumnus*, *bacillus*, *locus*. The plural of *corpus* is *corpora* or *corpuses*, and the plural of *genus* /ˈdʒiːnəs/ is *genera* /ˈdʒenərə/.

Nouns with only the regular plural (*-uses*) include:

apparatus, *bonus*, *campus*, *caucus*, *census*, *chorus*, *circus*, *impetus*, *minus*, *prospectus*, *sinus*, *status*, *virus*

Nouns with both plurals include:

focus ~ *focuses* /ˈfəʊkəsɪz/, or *foci* /ˈfəʊkaɪ, ˈfəʊsaɪ/
fungus ~ *funguses* /ˈfʌŋgəsɪz/, or *fungi* /ˈfʌŋdʒaɪ, ˈfʌŋgaɪ, ˈfʌŋdʒiː, ˈfʌŋgiː/
also: *cactus*, *nucleus*, *radius*, *syllabus*, *terminus*

(Df) Nouns from Latin ending in *-a* /ə/

5.94 The foreign plural is *-ae* /iː/ as in *alumna* ~ *alumnae*. Other nouns with *-ae* plural only include: *alga*, *larva*.

Nouns with only regular plurals (*-as*) include: *area*, *arena*, *dilemma*, *diploma*, *drama*, *era*, etc.

Nouns with both plurals include: *antenna*, *formula*, *nebula*, *vertebra*.

(Dg) Nouns from Latin ending in *-um* /əm/

5.95 The foreign plural is *-a* /ə/ (in careful pronunciation, alternatively /ɑː/), as in *curriculum* ~ *curricula*. Other nouns with the *-a* plural only include: *addendum*, *bacterium*, *corrigendum*, *desideratum*, *erratum*, *ovum*.

Nouns with only the regular plural include: *album*, *chrysanthemum*, *museum*, *premium*.

Nouns which are usually regular: *forum*, *stadium*.

Nouns with both plurals: *aquarium*, *candelabrum*, *curriculum*, *maximum*, *medium*, *memorandum*, *millennium*, *minimum*, *moratorium*, *podium*, *referendum*, *spectrum*, *stratum*, *symposium*, *ultimatum*.

Note [a] *Media* is often used in the sense of 'news media' with reference to press, radio, and television, when it is sometimes treated as a singular with a regular plural *medias*:

The media is / *All the medias are* } wrong about this.

Both of these uses however are widely condemned, especially the second.
[b] *Strata* is the common plural of *stratum*. With reference to society *strata* is also sometimes used as singular:

This is *an important strata* of education in society.

But again this usage is widely criticized.
[c] On *data*, *cf* 5.91.
[d] Besides singular *candelabrum* with the plural *candelabra*, there is also singular *candelabra* with the regular plural *candelabras*.
[e] *Agenda* and *insignia* (plurals of Latin *agendum* and *insignium*) are used in English as singulars with the regular plurals *agendas* and *insignias*.

(Dh) Nouns from Latin ending in *-ex, -ix*

5.96 The foreign plural is *-ices* /ɪsiːz/ as in *index* ~ *indices*. However, *index* and *appendix* have both regular and foreign plurals. The regular form *indexes* is used for reference to parts of a book or other publication; the plural *indices* is largely used for 'indicators'. *Appendix* has either plural for reference to parts of a book; it is regular for parts of the body. Other nouns that have both regular and foreign plurals are: *apex*, *vortex*, *matrix*. Only foreign plural: *codex*.

(Di) Nouns from Greek ending in *-is* /ɪs/

5.97 The foreign plural is *-es* /iːz/, as in singular *basis* /ˈbeɪsɪs/, plural *bases* /ˈbeɪsiːz/. Other nouns which take this plural are *eg*:

analysis, axis, crisis, diagnosis, ellipsis, hypothesis, oasis, paralysis, parenthesis, synopsis, synthesis, thesis

Metropolis has the regular plural: *metropolises*.

Note *Bases* can be either the plural of *base*, *eg*: *naval bases* (pronounced /ˈbeɪsɪz/), or the plural of *basis*, *eg*: *bases of an opinion* (pronounced /ˈbeɪsiːz/). Similarly, *axes* can be the plural of *axe* or *axis*, and *ellipses* the plural of *ellipse* or *ellipsis*.

(Dj) Nouns from Greek ending in *-on*

5.98 The foreign plural is *-a*, as in *criterion* ~ *criteria*, *phenomenon* ~ *phenomena*, both of which regularly take the *-a* plural. Nouns with only regular plurals: *electron*, *neutron*, *proton*; chiefly regular: *ganglion*; both plurals: *automaton*.

Note Informally, *criteria* and *phenomena* are sometimes used as singulars, and *criterias* as plural. This usage is however widely condemned, and the objection to both these singular forms is stronger than to singular *data* (*cf* 5.91), *media* (*cf* 5.95 Note [a]), and *strata* (*cf* 5.95 Note [b]).

(Dk) Nouns from French: *bureau, corps*, etc

5.99 A few nouns ending in *-eau* and *-eu*, *eg*: *bureau* and *adieu*, may retain the French *-x* as the spelling of the plural (*bureaux*, *adieux*), beside the commoner *-s* (*bureaus*, *adieus*). In English, the plurals are however almost always pronounced as regular, *ie* /z/, irrespective of spelling. Similarly: *tableau*, *plateau*.

Some French nouns ending in *-s* or *-x* are pronounced without the final sibilant in the singular, *eg*: (*army*) *corps* /kɔːʳ/, and with a regular /z/ in the plural, with no spelling change (*corps* /kɔːʳz/): *chamois* (*leather*), *chassis*, (*faux*) *pas*, *patois*, *rendezvous*.

(Dl) Nouns from Italian ending in *-o* /əʊ/

5.100 The foreign plural is *-i* /ɪ/ as in *tempo* ~ *tempi*; only regular plural: *solo*, *soprano*; both regular and irregular plural: *virtuoso*, *libretto*, *tempo*.

Note *Confetti* (from Italian *confetto*, which is not used in English) and other Italian plurals like *macaroni*, *ravioli*, *spaghetti*, etc are usually treated as noncount nouns, and take a singular verb in English. *Graffiti* is usually treated as an invariable plural, but one also hears the singular *graffito*.

(Dm) Nouns from Hebrew: *kibbutz* ~ *kibbutzim*

5.101 The foreign plural is *-im*, as in *kibbutz* ~ *kibbutzim* beside the regular *kibbutzes*. Usually regular: *cherub*, *seraph*.

Compounds

5.102 Compound nouns, *ie* nouns which consist of more than one base (*cf* App I.57*ff*), form the plural in different ways. It is most common, particularly in informal usage, to consider the compound as a simple noun and pluralize the last element (even when it is not a noun, as in *sit-ins*).

(i) Plural in the last element (normal):
assistant director ~ assistant directors
babysitter ~ babysitters
breakdown ~ breakdowns
close-up ~ close-ups
ALSO: grown-up, take-over, sit-in, take-off (NOTE spelling in: stand-by ~ stand-bys)
gin-and-tonic ~ gin-and-tonics; SIMILARLY: forget-me-not ~ forget-me-nots, mouthful ~ mouthfuls (OR sometimes: mouthsful); SIMILARLY: bucketful, spoonful

(ii) Plural in the first element occurs especially when the compound includes a postmodifier or final particle:
notary public ~ notaries public
grant-in-aid ~ grants-in-aid
commander-in-chief ~ commanders-in-chief
man-of-war ~ men-of-war
coat-of-mail ~ coats-of-mail
passer-by ~ passers-by
The following occur with plural either in the first or last element:
attorney general ~ attorneys general (ALSO: attorney generals)
court martial ~ courts martial (ALSO: court martials)
mother-in-law ~ mothers-in-law (ALSO: mother-in-laws ⟨informal⟩)

(iii) Appositional compounds (*a woman doctor* ['The doctor is a woman']) whose first element is, or includes, *man* or *woman* pluralize both the first and the last element:

gentleman farmer ~ gentlemen farmers
manservant ~ menservants ⟨old-fashioned⟩
woman doctor ~ women doctors

But the plural is in the last element (type i) when the compound is not appositional: *woman-hater(s)* ['x hate(s) women']. Similarly: *man-eater* ~ *man-eaters*.

Forms of address

5.103 The plural of *Mr Smith*, to denote two people with that name, is *the two Mr Smiths*. *Messrs* /ˈmesəʳz/ ⟨BrE⟩ is chiefly used in the names of firms: *Messrs Smith and Brown Ltd*.

The plural of *Miss Smith* is *the Miss Smiths, eg: the two Miss Smiths. The Misses Smith* is rather formal and old-fashioned.

The plural of *Mrs* /ˈmɪsɪz/ *Smith* is *the two Mrs Smith(s)*; and, similarly, *Ms* /mɪz/ *Smith* (*cf* 5.66 Note [a]): *the two Ms Smith(s)*.

Gender

5.104 By GENDER is meant a grammatical classification of nouns, pronouns, or other words in the noun phrase, according to certain meaning-related distinctions, especially a distinction related to the sex of the referent.

In English, unlike many other related languages, nouns, determiners, and adjectives have no inflectionally-marked gender distinctions. Some 3rd person pronouns and *wh*-pronouns do, however, express natural gender distinctions:

it, which, etc	[NONPERSONAL] contrasts with the following:
who, whom, etc	[PERSONAL]
he, himself, etc	[MASCULINE, chiefly PERSONAL]
she, herself, etc	[FEMININE, chiefly PERSONAL]

Gender in English nouns may be described as 'notional' or 'covert' in contrast to the 'grammatical' or 'overt' gender of nouns in languages such as French, German, and Russian; that is, nouns are classified not inflectionally, but semantically, according to their coreferential relations with personal, reflexive, and *wh*-pronouns. We use the terms MALE and FEMALE in reference to the 'covert' gender of nouns, as distinct from the 'overt' gender of pronouns.

The patterns of pronoun coreference for singular nouns give us a set of nine gender classes as illustrated in *Fig* 5.104:

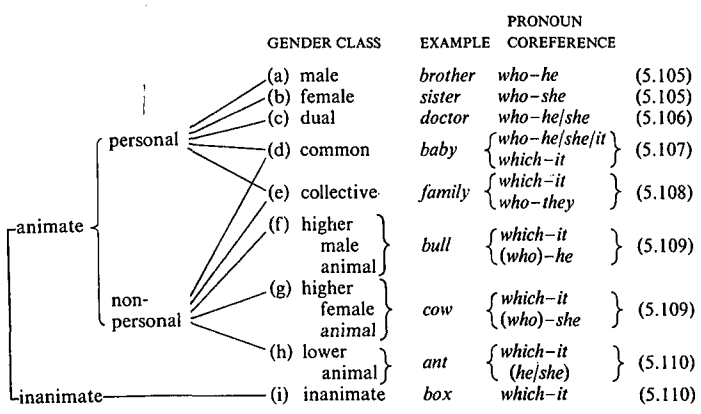

Fig 5.104 Gender classes

(a/b) Personal male/female nouns

5.105 Personal male nouns have pronoun coreference with *who–he* and female nouns with *who–she*. These nouns are of two types. Type (i) is morphologically unmarked between male and female, whereas in Type (ii) the two gender forms have a derivational relationship. The derivational suffixes are not productive, however. We cannot, except jocularly, for example, form *clerk* ~ **clerkess* on the *host* ~ *hostess* pattern (*cf* App I.33).

(i) Morphologically unmarked for gender, *eg*:

bachelor ~ *spinster*	*boy* ~ *girl*	*brother* ~ *sister*
father ~ *mother*	*king* ~ *queen*	*man* ~ *woman*
Mr ~ *Mrs, Miss, Ms*	*monk* ~ *nun*	*nephew* ~ *niece*
uncle ~ *aunt*		

(ii) Morphologically marked for gender, *eg*:

host ~ host*ess*	waiter ~ waitr*ess*
prince ~ princ*ess*	hero ~ hero*ine*
steward ~ steward*ess*	usher ~ usher*ette*
god ~ god*ess*	emperor ~ emp*ress*

In the following two pairs, it is the male noun that is marked:

bride*groom* ~ bride widow*er* ~ widow

Some male/female pairs denoting kinship have dual gender terms, for example *parent* for *father* ~ *mother* and *sibling* ⟨esp technical⟩ for *brother* ~ *sister*. Some optional female forms (*poetess, authoress*, etc) are no longer in normal use, being replaced by the dual gender forms (*poet, author*, etc).

In order to avoid sexual bias in language, attempts have been made (esp in AmE) to introduce sex-neutral forms, such as *s/he* for both *she* and *he*, *wo/man* for *woman* and *man*, *flight attendant* for *airline hostess*. The prospect of wider acceptance of *s/he* and *wo/man* is reduced by the fact that these are written forms only. Other such examples are:

supervisor *for* foreman	fisher *for* fisherman
firefighter *for* fireman	mail carrier *for* mailman
chair(person) *for* chairman	usher *for* usherette
spokesperson *for* spokesman	homemaker *for* housewife
Member of Congress *for* Congressman	

(c) Personal dual gender

5.106 This class of nouns, which has *who–he* or *she* pronoun coreference, includes, for example, the following:

artist	cook	doctor	enemy
foreigner	friend	guest	inhabitant
librarian	novelist	parent	person
professor	servant	singer	speaker
student	teacher	typist	writer

If it is felt desirable to give information on the sex of the person, a gender marker may be added, such as *male student/female student*. The dual class is

on the increase, but the expectation that a given activity is largely male or female dictates the frequent use of gender markers: thus *a nurse*, but *a male nurse*; *an engineer*, but *a woman engineer*. No rational rules can be given for whether a noun should have dual gender distinction or not. It seems, for example, quite arbitrary that *guest* and *servant* should be dual in contrast to *host* ~ *hostess* and *waiter* ~ *waitress*.

(d) Common gender

5.107 Common gender nouns are intermediate between personal and nonpersonal. The wide selection of pronouns (*who/which–he/she/it*) should not be understood to mean that all these are possible for all nouns in all contexts. A mother is not likely to refer to her baby or child as *it*, but such nonpersonal reference may well be preferred by somebody who is emotionally unrelated to the child, or wishes to generalize across sex distinctions in scientific contexts:

A *child* learns to speak the language of *its* environment.

Other nouns that belong here (chiefly when the animals are treated as pets or otherwise 'personified') include *blackbird*, *cat*, *monkey*, *rabbit*.

(e) Collective nouns

5.108 These differ from other nouns in taking as pronoun coreferents either singular *it* and relative *which* or plural *they* and relative *who* without change of number in the noun (*the army*: *it/which–they/who*; *cf* plural *the armies*: *they–which*). Consequently, the verb may be in the plural after a singular noun, though far less commonly in AmE than BrE (*cf* 10.36):

The committee { *has* met and *it has* / *have* met and *they have* } rejected the proposal.

The difference reflects a difference in point of view: the singular stresses the nonpersonal collectivity of the group, and the plural stresses the personal individuality within the group. Here are examples of collective nouns:

(i)

army	association	audience
board	cast	clan
class	club	college
commission	community	company
corporation	council	couple
crew	crowd	department
enemy	faculty ⟨AmE⟩	family
federation	firm	flock
gang	generation	government
group	herd	institute
jury	majority	minority
opposition	party	population
staff	team	university

(ii) The following usually occur in the singular only with the definite article:

the aristocracy	the bourgeoisie	the church
the clergy	the elite	the gentry
the intelligentsia	the laity	the press
the public	the rank and file	the youth (of today)

(iii) Collective proper names, *eg*:

the Commons (UK)	Parliament	the Vatican
(the) Congress (US)	the United Nations	the United States

Note [a] Just as *association*, *company*, *corporation*, *federation*, *firm*, *team*, etc are included among the collective nouns, names of commercial firms are treated in the same way:

ICI { *has* / *have* ⟨BrE⟩ } increased { *its* / *their* } sales abroad.

[b] *Church* and *youth* in (ii) also occur of course as regular count nouns, the latter denoting a young male:

The police are looking for five *youths*. ['young men']

(f/g) Higher animals

5.109 Male/female gender distinctions in animal nouns are maintained by people with a special concern (for example with pets), *eg*: *cock* and *rooster* ⟨AmE⟩ for the male (with *which–it* or *who–he* coreference) and *hen* for the female (with *which–it* or *who–she* coreference). Other examples:

buck ~ doe	bull ~ cow	dog ~ bitch	gander ~ goose
lion ~ lioness	ram ~ ewe	stallion ~ mare	tiger ~ tigress

Note In general, in nonexpert contexts there is no need to make a gender distinction, such as *dog* ~ *bitch* and *stallion* ~ *mare*. We can then use one term to cover both sexes, as in the case of *dog* and *lion*, or use a different term, *eg*: *horse* to cover both *stallion* and *mare*.

(h/i) Lower animals and inanimate nouns

5.110 Both lower animals (*eg*: *beetle*, *butterfly*, *snake*, *toad*, *tadpole*) and inanimate nouns (*eg*: *box*, *car*, *idea*) have *which* and *it* as pronouns. However, lower animals may also be viewed as higher animals. Thus we may speak of 'goldfish who swim around', 'bees who are busy', etc.

Sex differences can be indicated by a range of gender markers for any animate noun where they are felt to be relevant, *eg*: *male* ~ *female frog*. Other examples:

buck-rabbit ~ doe-rabbit	cock-pheasant ~ hen-pheasant
dog-fox ~ bitch-fox	he-goat ~ she-goat
roe-buck ~ roe-doe	

We make no claim for the categories 'higher/lower animals' to parallel the biological classification. Some animals require finer gender distinctions in the language than others. This can be attributed to a number of factors. The layman normally has no knowledge about the sex of animals like *ant*, *herring*, *snake*, *spider*; or, even if he does, it may not be a fact that he wants or needs to indicate. *He* and *she* are only likely to be used for animals with which man, 'the speaking animal', has the closest connections (in particular the domesticated animals).

Names of countries

5.111 Names of countries have different gender depending on their use.

(i) As geographical units, they are treated as class (i), *ie* inanimate:

Here is a map of France. *It's* one of the largest countries of Europe.

(ii) As political/economic units, the names of countries are often feminine, *ie* class (b) or (g):

France *has* been able to increase *her* exports by 10 per cent over the last six months.
England *is* proud of *her* poets.

(iii) In sports, the teams representing their countries can be referred to by the name of the country used as a personal collective noun, *ie* class (e) ⟨esp BrE⟩:

France {*has* / *have* ⟨BrE⟩} improved {*its* / *their* ⟨esp BrE⟩} chances of winning the cup.

In AmE there may be number variation in the pronoun (but not in the verb, which is singular) in this construction.

Note Inanimate entities, such as ships, towards which we have an intense and close personal relationship, may be referred to by personal pronouns, *eg*:
That's a lovely ship. What is *she/it* called?
In nonstandard and Australian English, there is extension of *she* references to include those of antipathy as well as affection, *eg*:
She's an absolute bastard, this truck.

Case

Common case and genitive case

5.112 We shall distinguish between two cases of nouns: the unmarked COMMON CASE (*eg*: *boy* in the singular, *boys* in the plural) and the marked GENITIVE CASE (*eg*: *boy's* in the singular, *boys'* in the plural). Case in pronouns will be discussed in 6.2*ff*; on the genitive in relation to the *of*-construction, *cf* 5.115.

Distinctions of case mark the structural and semantic function of noun phrases within sentences. It is arguable, as we shall see, that even the common/genitive distinction in present-day English is not really a case distinction, although it is a relic of a former case system comparable to that of Latin or of modern Russian (*cf* 5.123). We adhere to established terminology in this respect, but since the common case is simply the form used when the genitive is not used, our attention in the following sections will be devoted to the genitive.

The 'central', but far from the only use of the genitive, is to express possession: to this extent the term 'possessive' is fittingly applied to genitive pronouns like *his*. We may compare:

The children's toys are new. ['the toys belonging to the children']
Their toys are new. ['the toys belonging to them']

But it should be borne in mind that the label 'possessive' does not adequately apply to all uses (*cf* 5.116).

The forms of the genitive inflection

5.113 The genitive of regular nouns is realized in speech only in the singular, where it takes one of the forms /ɪz/, /z/, or /s/, following the rules for the *-s* inflection of nouns (*cf* 5.80) and verbs (*cf* 3.5). In writing, the inflection of regular nouns is realized in the singular by apostrophe + *s* (*boy's*), and in the regular plural by the apostrophe following the plural *-s* (*boys'*).

As a result, the spoken form /spaɪz/ may realize three forms of the noun *spy* as follows:

The *spies* were arrested.	[plural, common case]
The *spy's* companion was a woman.	[singular, genitive case]
The *spies'* companions were women.	[plural, genitive case]

Since the genitive adds nothing to a regular plural noun in speech, and nothing except the final apostrophe in writing, this plural genitive may be called the ZERO GENITIVE.

By contrast, some nouns with irregular plural like *child* preserve a number distinction independently of the genitive singular and genitive plural distinctions:

child ~ *child's*, *children* ~ *children's*

With such irregular plurals, as *Fig* 5.113 shows, the same genitive ending (spelled *'s*) occurs with both singular and plural nouns.

	REGULAR *-S* PLURAL		IRREGULAR PLURAL	
SPOKEN	singular	plural	singular	plural
common	/bɒɪ/		/tʃaɪld/	/ˈtʃɪldrən/
genitive	/bɒɪz/		/tʃaɪldz/	/ˈtʃɪldrənz/
WRITTEN	singular	plural	singular	plural
common	*boy*	*boys*	*child*	*children*
genitive	*boy's*	*boys'*	*child's*	*children's*

Fig 5.113 The genitive inflection with regular and irregular plurals

Note [a] In addition to representing different case forms of the noun *spy*, the pronunciation /spaɪz/ could of course also be the *-s* form of the verb, as in [1], or the noun with the contracted form of *is* [2], or *has* [3] (*cf* 3.32*f*):
He *spies* on behalf of an industrial firm. [1]
The *spy's* here. [2]
The *spy's* been cycling along the coast. [3]
[b] In postmodified noun phrases, there is a difference between the plural and the genitive endings, because the genitive ending is added to the end of the phrase, not to the end of the head noun (*cf* 'group genitives', 5.123):
The palace was *the King of Denmark's*.
They praised *the Kings of Denmark*.

The 'zero genitive'

5.114 In addition to its normal use with regular plurals such as *boys'*, the 'zero genitive' is used to avoid repetitive or awkward combinations of sounds in the following cases (*cf Fig* 5.114):

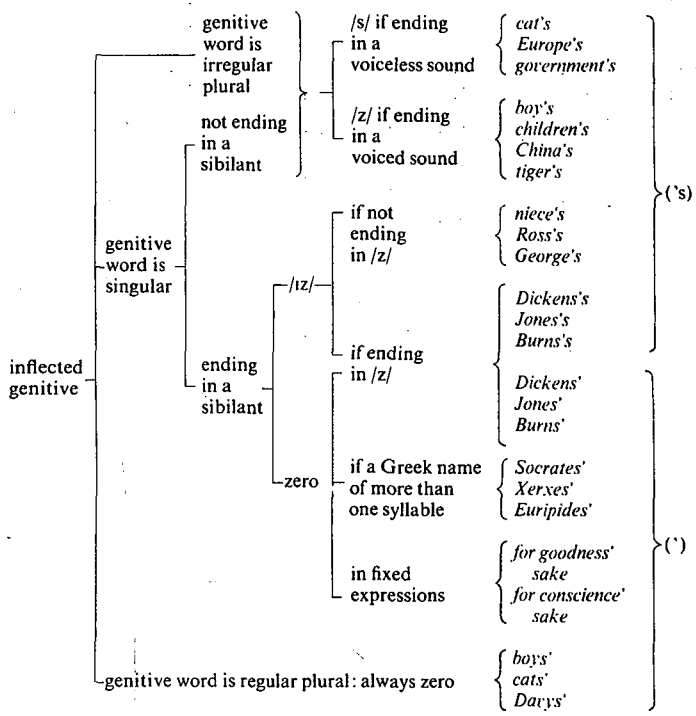

Fig 5.114 The forms of the inflected genitive

(i) with Greek names of more than one syllable which end in *-s*, as in:

Euripides' /diːz/ plays, *Xerxes'* army, *Socrates'* wife

(ii) with many other names ending in /z/ where, in speech, zero is a variant of the regular /ɪz/ genitive. There is vacillation both in the pronunciation and in the spelling of these names, but most commonly the pronunciation is /ɪz/, and the spelling is an apostrophe only. (In the following examples, the minority forms are given in parentheses.)

WRITTEN FORMS	SPOKEN FORMS
Burns' (*Burns's*) poem	/ˈbɜːʳnzɪz (bɜːʳnz)/
Dickens' (*Dickens's*) novels	/ˈdɪkɪnzɪz (ˈdɪkɪnz)/
Jones' (*Jones's*) car	/ˈdʒəʊnzɪz (dʒəʊnz)/

Names ending in other sibilants than /z/ have the regular /ɪz/ genitive: *Ross's*

/sɪz/ *theories*. However, *Jesus* and *Moses* normally have the zero form of the spoken genitive and are written *Jesus'* and *Moses'* (as well as *Jesus's* and *Moses's*).

(iii) with fixed expressions of the form *for . . . sake*, as in *for goodness' sake*, *for conscience' sake*, where the noun ends in /s/ (*cf* 5.120).

The genitive and the *of*-construction

5.115 In many instances there is a similarity of function and meaning between a noun in the genitive case and the same noun as head of a prepositional phrase with *of* (sometimes called the '*of*-genitive'). The genitive inflection of [1], where *ship's* precedes and determines the head noun *name*, corresponds to the OF-CONSTRUCTION of the prepositional phrase in [1a], where *of the ship* postmodifies the head *name*:

What is { *the ship's* name? [1]
the name *of the ship*? [1a]

In many cases, like [1] and [1a], the two forms are equivalent in meaning and are both perfectly acceptable. In other cases, either the genitive or the *of*-construction is the only appropriate choice:

John's school	BUT NOT: ?the school *of John*
the front *of the house*	BUT NOT: **the house's* front

For further discussion of the *of*-construction, and its relation to the genitive, *cf* 5.116*ff* and, in particular, 17.38*ff*, where the *of*-construction is also compared with other types of postmodification. Our purpose in this chapter is to examine the genitive as a construction in its own right, and to indicate the semantic as well as the syntactic restrictions on its use.

The use of the genitive is determined by a combination of structural and semantic conditions. We will look in turn at

(i) the meanings expressed by the relation between the genitive noun and its head noun (*cf* 5.116)
(ii) the type of noun taking the genitive (*cf* 5.117–119)
(iii) the type of noun acting as head (*cf* 5.120)

Genitive meanings

5.116 The meaning expressed by the genitive can best be shown by sentential or phrasal analogues such as we present below. For comparison, a corresponding use of the *of*-construction is given where this is acceptable.

(a) POSSESSIVE GENITIVE

my wife's father	My wife has a father.
Mrs Johnson's passport	Mrs Johnson has a passport.
the earth's gravity	The earth has (a certain) gravity.
cf the gravity *of the earth*	

(b) SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE

the boy's application	The boy applied for . . .
her parents' consent	Her parents consented.
cf the decline *of trade*	Trade declined.

(c) OBJECTIVE GENITIVE

the family's support	(. . .) supports the family.
the boy's release	(. . .) released the boy.
cf a statement *of the facts*	(. . .) stated the facts.

(d) GENITIVE OF ORIGIN

the girl's story	The girl told a story.
the general's letter	The general wrote a letter.
?*France's* wines	France produces wines.
cf the wines *of France*	

(e) DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE (*cf* 5.122)

a *women's* college	a college for women
a *summer's* day	a summer day, a day in the summer
a *doctor's* degree	a doctoral degree, a doctorate
cf the degree of *doctor*	

(f) GENITIVE OF MEASURE

ten days' absence	The absence lasted ten days.
cf an absence of *ten days*	

(g) GENITIVE OF ATTRIBUTE

the victim's courage	The victim had courage. / The victim was courageous.
the party's policy	The party has a (certain) policy.
cf the policy *of the party*	

(h) PARTITIVE GENITIVE

the baby's eyes	The baby has (blue) eyes.
the earth's surface	The earth has a (rough) surface.
cf the surface *of the earth*	

Note [a] There is a tendency for genitives to be taken as subjective, and for *of*-constructions to be taken as objective. Thus, with inadequate context, a phrase like [1] is likely to be interpreted as 'The family supports . . .', but [2] as '. . . examined the fire department' (*cf* 17.41*ff*):

the family's support [1]
the examination *of the fire department* [2]

[b] A marginal additional category, the genitive of apposition, may be mentioned: *Dublin's fair city* (*cf*: *Dublin, a fair city*). In today's usage, however, this is normally replaced by an appositive *of*-construction (*cf* 17.47, 17.89): *the city of Dublin*.

[c] On the use of the genitive to denote close family relationships (*Peter's Jane*), *cf* 5.63 Note [c].

Gender of the genitive noun

5.117 The semantic classification in 5.116 is in part arbitrary. For example, one could claim that *cow's milk* is not a genitive of origin ['milk from a cow'] but a descriptive genitive ['the kind of milk obtained from a cow'], or even a subjective genitive ['The cow provided the milk']. For this reason, meanings and sentential analogues can give only inconclusive help in choosing between the genitive and the *of*-construction.

The choice can be more securely related to the gender class of the genitive noun. Generally speaking, the genitive is favoured for classes which are

highest on the gender scale (*cf Fig* 5.104), *ie* 'personal' nouns (particularly those referring to human beings and higher animals) and collective nouns with personal gender characteristics. Relating this to 5.104, we may infer that the possessive use is especially associated with the genitive because we think of 'possession' chiefly in terms of our own species. It is possible to see the partitive genitive at the opposite pole on comparable grounds: the marginal acceptability of ?*the house's roof* matches the irrelevance of personal gender to a noun denoting something which is merely being measured or dissected.

Further factors influencing the choice of genitive are the principles of end-focus and end-weight (*cf* 17.45, 18.3*f*), which encourage the placing of more complex and communicatively more important units towards the end of the noun phrase. According to the principle of end-focus, the genitive tends to give information focus to the head noun, whereas the *of*-construction tends to give focus to the prepositional complement:

The explosion damaged *the ship's funnel*. [*funnel* in focus]
Having looked at all the funnels, she considered that the most handsome was *the funnel of the Orion*. [*the Orion* in focus]

This principle is congruent again with the preference for the *of*-construction with partitive and appositive meaning, where the genitive would result in undesirable or absurd final prominence:

**the problem's part*, **his resignation's shock*

The preference for placing complex constructions after the head accounts for the oddity of [1] (*cf* 5.123) in comparison with [1a]:

?She is *a man I met in the army's* daughter. [1]
She is the daughter *of a man I met in the army*. [1a]

And conversely, it accounts for the oddity of the *of*-construction with simple form, *eg* [2a], as compared to [2], which shows the normal preference for a possessive pronoun:

She is *his* daughter. [2]
?She is the daughter *of him*. [2a]

(On the 'post-genitive' in *a daughter of his*, *cf* 5.126.)

Note [a] The relevance of personal gender is shown also in the fact that indefinite pronouns with personal reference (*cf* 6.9), such as *someone* and *anybody*, admit the genitive inflection, while equivalent pronouns with nonpersonal reference do not: *someone's shadow*, but not **something's shadow*.

[b] Some idioms, in spite of end-focus, require a construction in which the personal pronoun is complement in a postmodifying *of*-phrase:

It will be the death *of me*.
the impudence *of him*
the cheek *of her* ['her rude behaviour'; BUT: 'I kissed her cheek.']
I don't like the taste/look/feel, etc *of it*.
For the life *of me*, I cannot remember her name, and yet my memory *of her* is still vivid.

The last example also illustrates the tendency (mentioned in 5.116 Note [a]) to use such a construction where the *of*-phrase has an objective meaning (compare: *my memory of her* 'I remember her').

The genitive in relation to noun classes

5.118 The noun classes (a–c) frequently take the genitive (*cf* 17.38*ff*):

(a) PERSONAL NAMES (*cf* 5.66):

Segovia's pupil, *George Washington's* statue

(b) PERSONAL NOUNS (*cf* 5.105):

the boy's new bicycle, *my sister-in-law's* problems

(c) ANIMAL NOUNS, in particular those denoting 'higher animals' (*cf* 5.109):

the horse's tail, *the dog's* collar

(d) COLLECTIVE NOUNS. The genitive is also used with collective nouns (*cf* 5.108) which emphasize the aspect of 'organized individuals', in particular those denoting authoritative and other organizational bodies, *eg*:

the government's economic plans	*the nation's* resources
the committee's decision	*the Company's* directors

The genitive is further used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns (e–h):

(e) GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES (*cf* 5.68), *eg*:
continents: *Europe's* future, *Australasia's* natural resources
countries: *China's* development, *the United States'* attitude
states: *Maryland's* Democratic Senator, *Rhode Island's* colonial period
cities and towns: *Hollywood's* studios, *London's* water supply
universities: *Harvard's* Department of Linguistics

(f) 'LOCATIVE NOUNS' denoting regions, institutions, heavenly bodies, etc. They can be very similar to geographical names, and are often written with initial capital letter, *eg*:

the earth's interior	*the Church's* mission
the world's economy	*the hotel's* entrance
the nation's waterways	*a country's* population
the Club's pianist	*the city's* atmosphere
the Gallery's rotunda	*the school's* history

(g) TEMPORAL NOUNS, *eg*:

the decade's events	*this year's* sales
a day's work	*today's* paper
a moment's thought	*the hockey season's* first event

(h) OTHER NOUNS 'OF SPECIAL RELEVANCE TO HUMAN ACTIVITY', *eg*:

the brain's total weight	*the game's* history
the mind's development	*science's* influence
the body's needs	*love's* spirit
my life's aim	*the play's* philosophy
in *freedom's* name	*the book's* true importance
the treaty's ratification	*the novel's* structure
duty's call	*a word's* function
the poll's results	*television's* future

Note [a] It seems that semantic relations other than possession (*cf* 5.117) place stronger restrictions on the 'personal' quality of the genitive noun than does possession itself. For example:

Table 5.118 Possessive and objective genitive with personal and nonpersonal nouns

	POSSESSIVE GENITIVE	OBJECTIVE GENITIVE
PERSONAL	*the man's* collar	*the man's* release from prison
NONPERSONAL	*the dog's* collar	?*the dog's* release from quarantine

In combination with the objective genitive, a nonpersonal noun results in a less acceptable noun phrase than does a personal noun.
[b] With temporal nouns in the plural, the apostrophe is sometimes omitted (*cf* 17.108):

several { *weeks'* / *weeks* } vacation

The genitive with superlatives and ordinals

5.119 The genitive is particularly common with locative nouns of Class (f) above when it is followed by a superlative adjective or a 'general ordinal' (*cf* 5.22) such as *only*, *first*, and *last*. The corresponding prepositional phrase in these cases is introduced by *in* rather than by *of*:

the world's best universities ~ the best universities *in the world*
this country's only university ~ the only university *in this country*
Africa's first arts festival ~ the first arts festival *in Africa*

More generally, the genitive combines with superlatives, ordinals, and 'general ordinals' to express a meaning which is independent of all the meanings listed in 5.116 above, and which can best be paraphrased by a relative clause:

Paganini's last performance
~ the last performance *that Paganini gave*
the Cabinet's greatest mistake
~ the greatest mistake *that the Cabinet made*

Noun heads with the genitive

5.120 So far, genitive constructions have been identified by reference to certain classes of the genitive noun (personal, collective, temporal, etc). There are, however, some constructions with the genitive which can best be described in terms of specific lexical noun heads.

Expressions with *edge*, *end*, *surface*, *for . . . sake* permit the alternative *of*-construction (*cf* 9.12 Note [c]):

She stood at { *the water's edge.* / *the edge of the water.* } He did it { *for charity's sake.* / *for the sake of charity.* }

Similarly: *at the river's edge*, *at his journey's end*, *for art's sake*, *the water's surface*, *for heaven's sake*.

The following expression does not permit the *of*-construction:

People don't get { *their money's worth.* / **the worth of their money.* }

Similarly: *at one's wits' end, at arm's length, within arm's reach.*

Note the stress typical of compounds (*cf* 17.104), which indicates that the following are compounds: *our 'money's ˌworth, a 'stone's ˌthrow.* Compare the relatively free syntactic constructions of, *eg*: *within/beyond/out of (her) reach.*

The grammatical status of the genitive

Genitive as determinative

5.121 Most commonly the genitive functions as a determinative (*cf* 5.10*ff*): it fills a slot in the noun phrase equivalent to a central determiner such as *the* [1]. This is so whether the genitive is a possessive pronoun (such as *her* [1a]), a single noun (such as *Jenny's* [1b]), or a noun accompanied by its own determiners and/or modifiers (such as *my daughter's* [1c]), as shown in *Fig* 5.121a:

DETERMINATIVE		HEAD	
the	(new)	desk	[1]
her	(new)	desk	[1a]
Jenny's	(new)	desk	[1b]
my daughter's	(new)	desk	[1c]

Fig 5.121a The genitive as determinative

It is obvious that in [1c], the genitive noun *daughter's* has its own determinative, *viz* the possessive pronoun *my*, which does not apply to *desk*, but to *daughter*. In other words, the genitive in this instance is not a single word, but a noun phrase in its own right. Such an analysis is even more compelling for phrases such as *many people's ambition*; *many*, requiring plural concord, must determine the plural noun *people*, rather than the singular noun *ambition*:

Many people's *ambition is* to own a house.

We therefore see the genitive construction as a noun phrase embedded as a definite determinative within another noun phrase (*cf* 2.8, 17.38 and *Fig* 5.121b):

SUPERORDINATE NOUN PHRASE		
GENITIVE NOUN PHRASE		
a horse's	hind leg	[2]
some people's	opinions	[3]
the older boys'	books	[4]
every teacher's	guide to child psychology	[5]
the Italian government's	recent decision	[6]

Fig 5.121b The structure of the superordinate noun phrase with a genitive noun phrase as determinative

That the genitive can be expanded into a phrase in this way is not surprising when we recall its equivalence to a prepositional phrase, in which *of* is followed by a noun phrase complement:

the hind leg *of* [*a horse*]	[2a]
the opinions *of* [*some people*]	[3a]
the recent decision *of* [*the Italian government*]	[6a]

One implication of the determinative function of the genitive is that the genitive phrase is normally in initial position in the superordinate noun phrase, so that any words occurring in front of the genitive noun in the phrase belong to that noun rather than to the noun which is head of the superordinate noun phrase, as in [2–6].

One exception to this, however, arises when the genitive construction follows a predeterminer such as *all, both,* or *half* (*cf* 5.16). Since the genitive fills a position equivalent to that of a central determiner, these words preceding the genitive noun may apply either to that noun or to the superordinate head noun. In [7], the predeterminer *both* applies to *parents*, but in [8] *both* can only apply to *girls'*:

both [the girl's] parents	[= both parents of the girl]	[7]
[both the girls'] mother	[= the mother of both the girls]	[8]

Note The construction with genitive or possessive pronoun with determinative function will have definite reference, *eg*:

(i) *Susan's* son (ii) *her* son

If we want the indefinite interpretation, we have to resort to the *of*-construction (*cf* 5.115):

(i) { a son *of Susan* / a son *of Susan's* (*cf* the 'post-genitive', 5.126) } (ii) a son *of hers*

Genitive as modifier

5.122 There are occasional examples where the genitive acts as a modifier rather than as a determinative. These are of the kind listed as 'descriptive genitive' in Class (e) of 5.116. They have a classifying role similar to that of noun modifiers and some adjective modifiers (*cf* 17.110):

There are several *women's universities* in Tokyo.
['several universities for women']
He wants to become a *ship's doctor* when he grows up.
['a doctor working on a ship']

There were ten { *farmer's* / *farmers'* } wives at the meeting.

Notice, in connection with the last example, that the expression *farmer's wives* does not imply polygamy: if this is a descriptive genitive, it is simply the plural of *farmer's wife*. The change to the plural genitive *farmers' wives* may, however, be preferred.

Another distinguishing mark of the descriptive genitive is the fact that any modifiers and/or determiners preceding it generally belong to the head noun, rather than to the genitive noun. The speaker who refers to *a quaint old shepherd's cottage* is passing a comment on the age and quaintness of the

cottage, not of the shepherd. Nevertheless, there are cases where the modifying genitive itself contains a modifier:

How much do *those* [*farm workers'*] *cottages* cost?
It was meant to be a PhD thesis, but to me it read like *a* [*first-year undergraduate's*] *essay*.
This china used to be regarded as [*poor man's*] *Worcester porcelain*. ['the sort of porcelain which resembled Worcester, but which a poor man could afford']

Note [a] As the examples above suggest, the descriptive genitive tends to have an idiomatic connection with the head noun. The fullest stage of lexical assimilation to the head is observed in expressions where the genitive and the head form a compound (*cf* App I.57*ff*), as in *bull's-eye* and *cat's paw* (where the meaning is metaphorical). Between these and more freely constructed expressions such as *women's college* should be placed combinations where the two words are written separately, but where the stress is placed in the first (genitive) element, as in compounds:
ˈgirl's ˌschool *ˈbird's ˌnest* *ˈcow's ˌmilk* *ˈcalves' ˌliver*
Thus *bird's nest* resembles compounds both in meaning and in stress pattern (*cf*: *foxhole*, *rabbit warren*). In many cases the first noun ends with an *s*, which can be written in three ways:
a girl's school [genitive singular]
a girls' school [genitive plural]
a girls school [common case plural]
The second variant is favoured in *an all girls' school* ['a school entirely for girls'].
[b] Modifying genitives may occasionally contain their own determiners:
my this year's examination questions ['my examination questions for this year']
By this means, the strange cooccurrence of two central determiners *my this* may take place, as in the above example.

The group genitive

5.123 The modifying genitive, however, is rare in comparison with the genitive in determinative function; and since we observed in 5.121 that the genitive construction in this latter function can be a noun phrase, not merely a single noun, it is necessary to revise the idea (with which we introduced the genitive in 5.112) that the genitive is a noun inflection. The *-s* ending is not a case ending in the sense which applies to languages such as Latin, Russian, and German. It can be more appropriately described as a 'postposed enclitic': *ie*, its function is parallel to that of a preposition, except that it is placed after the noun phrase. This view is inescapable if we take into account the so-called GROUP GENITIVE (or 'embedded genitive'), in which the genitive ending is affixed to a postmodifier:

the teacher of music's room ['the room *of the teacher of music*']

Obviously the 'possessor' in this example is the teacher, not the music; but the *'s* cannot be added to the head, as one would expect if *'s* could only be a noun inflection. Instead, it is regularly added to a prepositional postmodification which is part of a name or a compound noun phrase:

[[*the University of Minnesota*]*'s*] President
[[*the Museum of Modern Art*]*'s*] Director
[[*my son-in-law*]*'s*] prospects

Since the group genitive fits most naturally into patterns of postmodification of the noun phrase, we defer further treatment of it until 17.119.

The independent genitive

5.124 The head of the superordinate noun phrase in a genitive construction may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear. The result is the so-called INDEPENDENT GENITIVE:

My car is faster than *John's*. [= John's car] [1]
Her memory is like *an elephant's*. [= an elephant's memory] [2]
This year's mixed doubles final was much better than *last year's*. [= last year's mixed doubles final] [3]
If you can't afford a sleeping bag, why not borrow *somebody else's*? [= somebody else's sleeping bag] [4]
Mary's was the prettiest dress. [= Mary's dress] [5]
Don't touch those cards – they're *my partner's*. [= my partner's cards] [6]

As the examples show, this genitive is frequently an elliptical variant of a noun phrase in which the genitive has its usual determinative function. But note that a possessive pronoun used in this genitive construction requires the independent form (*cf* 6.29):

Hers was the prettiest dress. [5a]

Strictly, the pronoun illustrates quasi-ellipsis rather than ellipsis (for this distinction *cf* 12.40).

Note With the *of*-construction in comparable environments, a demonstrative pronoun *that/those* is normally required (*cf* 12.19):

The population of New York is greater than { *that of Chicago.* / *Chicago's.* }

The 'local genitive'

5.125 The genitive is less clearly ellipted in expressions relating to premises or establishments (sometimes called the 'LOCAL GENITIVE'):

We'll meet *at Bill's*.

Here *at Bill's* normally means 'where Bill lives', but the hearer might not know whether the appropriate head would be *house*, *apartment*, *place*, etc. It is for this reason that the term 'ellipsis' is strictly not applicable (*cf* 12.32*ff*). The reference of a genitive proper noun could also be to a restaurant, a bar, etc, as in [1]:

Let's have dinner *at Tiffany's*. [1]

By contrast, where the genitive noun is a common noun, it would only refer to the dentist's professional establishment [2], and the same applies to proper nouns referring to commercial firms [3]:

I'm going to *the dentist's*. [2]
Wendy has just been shopping in *Harrod's*/*Foyle's*/*Macy's*. [3]

This usage is normal also in relation to 'one-person' businesses, as in [4]:

I buy my meat *at* (*Mr*) *Johnson's*. [4]

The 'local genitive' is used in the following three cases:

(i) For normal residences:

She is staying *at* { *my aunt's.* / *the Johnsons'.* [BUT: *with the Johnsons*]

(ii) For institutions such as public buildings (where the genitive is usually a saint's name):

St Paul's (Cathedral), *St James's* (Palace), *Queen's* (College)

(iii) For places where business is conducted:

the barber's, the hairdresser's, the butcher's, the grocer's, W. H. Smith's, the chemist's ⟨BrE⟩, *the druggist's* ⟨AmE; usually *the drugstore*⟩

(On the 'sporadic' use of *the* here, *cf* 5.33.) The *'s* is often dropped:

at/to *the chemist* ⟨BrE⟩, *the druggist* ⟨AmE⟩, *the hairdresser, the greengrocer*

With large businesses, their complexity and in some sense plurality causes reinterpretation of the *-s* ending as a plural rather than genitive inflection (*Barclays, Harrods, Selfridges, Woolworths*). The genitive meaning – if it survives – is expressed by moving the apostrophe: *at Macys'*. This uncertainty over the status of the *-s* ending is matched by a vacillation in concord, reflecting the conflict between plurality and the idea of a business as a collective unity:

Harrods is/are very good for clothes.

In some cases, where the *-s* form cooccurs with the indefinite article, a genitive interpretation is unavoidable:

They have taken the rug to { *a cleaner's.* / *a cleaners'.* / **a cleaners.*

Note In relation to commercial firms, all three forms (*Harrod's, Harrods, Harrod*) may be found and constructed as either singular or plural (plural is esp BrE, *cf* 10.36). Thus the following variants are used in the same document:

Liberty's are the wholesalers for this country.
Liberty's is probably best known for its beautiful printed silk.
This silk, for which *Liberty are* the wholesalers in this country, . . .

It can be noted, however, that the *Harrod's* form is more likely than the *Harrods* form to be followed by a singular verb. The *Harrod* form, which has become fashionable relatively recently and still strikes many people as odd or pretentious, tends to be used only for very large enterprises. With titles of firms involving multiple names, however, the forms without *-s* are more current, especially in AmE, *eg*: *Sears Roebuck*.

The 'post-genitive'

5.126 An *of*-construction can be combined with a genitive to produce a construction known as the POST-GENITIVE (or 'double genitive'). In this construction, the independent genitive acts as prepositional complement following *of*:

some friends *of Jim's* ['some of Jim's friends']

that irritating habit *of her father's*
an invention *of Gutenberg's*
several pupils *of his*

But the independent genitive is not in this case elliptical. Rather, the post-genitive contrasts in terms of indefiniteness or unfamiliarity with the normal determinative genitive. Whereas [1] and [2] presuppose definiteness, the presupposition in [1a] and [2a] is one of indefiniteness:

Jim's friend	[1]	*a friend of Jim's*	[1a]
Joseph Haydn's pupil	[2]	*a pupil of Joseph Haydn's*	[2a]

Like the group genitive, the post-genitive belongs more closely to the subject matter of Chapter 17 than to that of this chapter. We accordingly postpone further discussion until 17.46.

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On gender, see Jacobsson (1968b); Kanekiyo (1965).

On case, see Altenberg (1982); Dahl (1971); Jahr Sørheim (1980); Svartengren (1949).

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Pronouns

Introduction

6.1 Pronouns share several characteristics, most of which are absent from nouns. Their name implies that they 'replace' nouns, but we have already seen (2.44) that this is to a great extent a misnomer. It is best to see pronouns as comprising a varied class of closed-class words with nominal function. By 'nominal' here we mean 'noun-like' or, more frequently, 'like a noun phrase'. Semantically, a pronoun may be a 'pro-form' in any of the three senses illustrated in the following example:

> Margot longed for a bicycle, and at last (C) *somebody* gave (B) *her* (A) *a brand new one*.

(A) It may substitute for some word or phrase (as *one* may substitute for a noun, and therefore be a 'pronoun' in a quite literal sense).
(B) It may signal, as personal pronouns like *her* do, that reference is being made to something which is given or known within the linguistic or situational context (*cf* 19.33*f*).
(C) It may stand for a very general concept, so that its reference includes the reference of untold more specific noun phrases: *somebody*, for example, indicates a broad class of people including *a girl*, *a man*, *a secretary*, etc.

All three pronouns in italics in the example have this in common: their meaning in itself is general and undetermined; their interpretation therefore depends to an unusual extent on what information is supplied by context.

Syntactically, most pronouns function like noun phrases rather than nouns (*cf* 5.1). They combine in only a limited way with determiners and modifiers. We can say, indeed, that most pronouns, being intrinsically either definite or indefinite, incorporate their own determiner (*cf* 5.10*ff*). Contrast:

{ *the men* / **the they* } { *a tall man* / **a tall he* }

In addition, some pronouns have morphological characteristics that nouns do not have:

(a) CASE: There is a contrast between subjective and objective cases: *I/me*, *she/her*, *who/whom*, etc (*cf* 6.2*ff*).
(b) PERSON: There is a contrast between 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons: *I/you/she*, etc (*cf* 6.6).
(c) GENDER: There are overt grammatical contrasts between (i) personal and nonpersonal gender; and between (ii) masculine and feminine gender: *he/she/it*, etc (*cf* 6.8*ff*).
(d) NUMBER: There are morphologically unrelated number forms, as in *I/we*, *he/they*, as opposed to the typical regular formation of noun plurals: *girl/girls*, etc (*cf* 6.11*f*).

These special distinctions associated with pronouns are found most notably in the class of PERSONAL PRONOUNS, which may be regarded, by reason of their frequency and their grammatical characteristics, as the most important

and central class of pronouns. Accordingly, it is to personal pronouns above all that we turn in exemplifying these characteristics. In the following sections we examine the categories of case, person, gender, and number in more detail, before proceeding to a consideration of the various classes of pronouns.

Case

Case forms

6.2 Nouns and most pronouns in English have only two case forms: COMMON case (*children, someone*) and GENITIVE case (*children's, someone's*). However, the five personal pronouns *I, we, he, she, they* and the *wh*-pronoun *who* have a further distinction between SUBJECTIVE and OBJECTIVE cases.

Table 6.2 Personal pronouns with subjective, objective, and genitive case forms

SUBJECTIVE	*I*	*we*	*you*	*he*	*she*	*it*	*they*	*who*
OBJECTIVE	*me*	*us*		*him*	*her*		*them*	*who(m)*
GENITIVE determinative independent	*my* *mine*	*our* *ours*	*your* *yours*	*his*	*her* *hers*	*its*	*their* *theirs*	*whose*

As *Table* 6.2 shows, there are additionally two genitive forms, a determinative and an independent form (*cf* 6.29), for five of the pronouns.

There is a merger (syncretism) of case forms in the following pronouns: the determinative genitive and objective forms of *she* are identical, and the subjective/objective distinction between *who* and *whom* is not always maintained (*cf* 6.35, 6.38). The personal pronouns *you* and *it* do not have distinct subjective and objective case forms (*cf* 6.14).

The genitive forms of the personal pronouns are, in accordance with grammatical tradition, called POSSESSIVE pronouns.

The use of case forms

6.3 The use of the possessive pronoun forms corresponds largely to that of the genitive of nouns (*cf* 5.112*ff*), except that the two different possessive forms, where they exist, function as determinative and independent genitives (*cf* 6.29). The latter are, in effect, 'true pronouns'.

The choice between subjective and objective cases is made on the basis of a pronoun's function in the clause. As their name implies, subjective personal pronouns function as subject and sometimes as subject complement; objective personal pronouns function as object, prepositional complement, and sometimes as subject complement.

Table 6.3 opposite shows that both subjective and objective case forms can be used as subject complement. Although the prescriptive grammar tradition stipulates the subjective case form, the objective form is normally felt to be the natural one, particularly in informal style. We shall now examine this overlapping use of case forms more carefully.

Table 6.3 Case functions of personal pronouns

FUNCTION	SUBJECTIVE CASE	OBJECTIVE CASE
subject	*He* was late.	
subject complement	It was *he*. ⟨formal⟩	It was *him*. ⟨informal⟩
object		I saw *him*.
prepositional complement		I gave it to *him*.

Subjective and objective cases

6.4 We have noticed in *Table* 6.3 a discrepancy between the use of case in formal and informal English. In the main, formal English follows the normative grammatical tradition which associates the subjective pronouns with the nominative case of pronouns in inflectional languages such as Latin, and the objective case with the oblique cases (especially accusative and dative cases) in such languages. Hence the subjective form appears not only in subject position, but in that of subject complement, and also in constructions where it can be postulated that the predicate has been ellipted, leaving a 'stranded' subject. This last, however, may have different realizations in the short response:

A: *Who* is there? B: { It's *I/me*. / (Only) *me*. / *Me* – John. } [1]

He is { more intelligent than / as intelligent as } *she* (is). [2]

But in response forms and comparative constructions, the subjective pronoun on its own, such as *she* in [2], sometimes gives a stilted impression, and it is preferable to add the operator after it: *she is*.

In contrast to the traditionally 'correct' use of the subjective form *It's I* in [1] and . . . *than/as she* in [2], informal usage favours the objective form:

A: Who's there? B: *Me*. [1a]

He is { more intelligent than / as intelligent as } *her*. [2a]

We may say that, in informal English, *as* and *than* count as prepositions (and are therefore followed by an objective pronoun as prepositional complement) instead of counting as subordinating conjunctions (*cf* 9.4, 14.12).

6.5 This purely structural explanation, however, is not the whole story. To account for the general pattern of pronoun usage in informal style, it is reasonable to say that the traditional case distinctions do not operate here any more than they do with the genitive (*cf* 5.112*ff*). Instead, there is a broad division of the finite clause into 'SUBJECT TERRITORY' (the preverbal subject position) and 'OBJECT TERRITORY' (which includes all noun-phrase positions apart from that immediately preceding the verb). In informal English, that

is, the objective pronoun is the unmarked case form, used in the absence of positive reasons for using the subjective form. It is this which accounts for the use of *me, him, them*, etc in subject complement function in conversational contexts (*It's only me, That'll be them*, etc), and for the use of *me* informally in 'absolute' functions such as those of [1a] above. Pressing the point a little further, we may say that the same idea of 'object territory' explains an often condemned tendency for speakers to use the objective case even in the subject function where a pronoun is coordinated, and therefore is separated to some extent from the following verb, either by position or by failure of concord, as in the nonstandard:

Him and Mary / *Mary and him* are going abroad for a holiday. [3]

The nonstandard usage of [3] may become even more 'reprehensible', though not the less common, if the offending pronoun also violates the rule of politeness which stipulates that 1st person pronouns should occur at the end of the coordinate construction:

Me and Mary are going abroad for a holiday. [4]

The prescriptive bias in favour of subjective forms appears to account for their hypercorrect use in coordinate noun phrases in 'object territory': *between you and I, as for John and I*, etc. Another reason is that *x and I* is felt to be a polite sequence which can remain unchanged, particularly in view of the distance between the preposition and *I*. Compare also:

Let('s) *you and I* do it!
He says he saw *John and I* last night.

These are examples of a type which is not uncommon in informal conversation.

In cleft sentences there is often felt to be unclarity about the grammatical function of a pronoun acting as 'focus' (*cf* 18.25*ff*):

It was *she* who came. [5]

It was *?she* / *?her* ⟨informal⟩ (that) John criticized. [6]

It was *her that* came. ⟨informal⟩ [7]

It's not *me who*'s proud. ⟨informal⟩ [8]

The focal pronoun has a Janus-like status, being a subject complement with respect to the preceding verb *be*, and an element of variable function with respect to the following verb.

In [5], where *she* is a complement with respect to *was* and a subject with respect to *came*, there is no conflict in formal usage, since the subjective pronoun is favoured for both functions. But in [6] there is a conflict of functions, and neither pronoun form is felt to be completely satisfactory. Since *her* is the object of *criticize*, however, the objective form is superficially more acceptable, and is preferred in informal usage. In familiar usage, the objective form is often used even where the pronoun is a subject with respect to the following verb:

It was *them* that did it.

After indefinite pronouns (*nobody, everyone, all*, etc) + *but* or *except*, usage is again divided between subjective and objective case forms (depending on whether *but* and *except* are considered conjunctions or prepositions):

nobody / everyone } { but / except } { *she* / *her*

There seems to be a tendency (at least among prescriptivists) to favour the subjective case after *but* in subject territory [9], and the objective case in object territory [10]; in [11], *I* would be considered a hypercorrect form:

Nobody but *she* can solve our problems. [9]
Nobody can solve our problems but *her*. [10]
Nobody said anything but *me*. [11]

To avoid the issue, the alternative construction with *myself* can be used (*cf* 6.27):

Nobody said anything but *myself*. [11a]

The objective form is the generally accepted form when the pronoun is in an object relation to the verb:

I want nobody but *him*. ['I want him and nobody else'] [12]

Note [a] See 10.44 Note [b] on the question of concord, as in:
It is *I who am* to blame. / It is *me who's* to blame. ⟨informal⟩
[b] The theory of 'subject territory' and 'object territory' can also be extended to deal with the peculiar distribution of *who* and *whom* (*cf* 6.35, 17.13*f*).
[c] In familiar speech, *us* may occur instead of *we* (*cf* 6.18) in expressions like:
Us girls can always take a joke.

Person

6.6 Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns have (unlike nouns) distinctions of person. The three persons may be defined as follows:

1ST PERSON PRONOUNS:
I, me, my, mine, myself
we, us, our, ours, ourselves

The reference of these pronouns includes the speaker(s)/writer(s) of the message.

2ND PERSON PRONOUNS:
you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves

The reference of these pronouns includes the addressee(s), but excludes the speaker(s)/writer(s).

3RD PERSON PRONOUNS:
he, him, his, himself
she, her, hers, herself
it, its, itself
they, them, their, theirs, themselves

The reference of these pronouns excludes both speaker(s)/writer(s) and addressee(s); *ie* 3rd person pronouns refer to 'third parties' not directly involved in the origination or reception of the utterance in which they occur.

All noun phrases (except those having 1st and 2nd person pronouns as heads) are 3rd person for purposes of concord:

The man/*He* } has just arrived.
The car/*It* }

To clarify the implications of person, we use the symbols *s*, *h*, and *o* (mnemonic aids: '*s*peaker', '*h*earer', '*o*ther') as follows:

s: the originator(s) of the message, whether speaker or writer, and whether singular or plural
h: the addressee(s) of the message, whether hearer or reader, and whether singular or plural
o: any other referent(s) excluded from the definitions of *s* and *h*

Then the meanings of the three persons can be summarized as in *Fig* 6.6:

1st person	+*s*	±*h*	±*o*
2nd person	−*s*	+*h*	±*o*
3rd person	−*s*	−*h*	+*o*

Fig 6.6 Meanings of 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person

The meanings of the singular pronouns are limited to the boxes with thick borders, while the meanings of the plural pronouns may include also the boxes with thin borders. These various possibilities are illustrated with reflexive pronouns in *Table* 6.6:

Table 6.6 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person pronouns

	s	*h*	*o*	PERSON	EXAMPLES WITH REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS
SINGULAR	+	−	−	1st	I gave *myself* up.
	−	+	−	2nd	You should be ashamed of *yourself*, Richard!
	−	−	+	3rd	Mary has hurt *herself*. / John has hurt *himself*. / The spider has hurt *itself*.
PLURAL	+	−	−	1st	We, the undersigned, pledge *ourselves* to . . .
	+	+	−	1st	We complemented *ourselves* too soon, John. ['inclusive *we*']
	+	−	+	1st	The children and I can look after *ourselves*. ['exclusive *we*']
	+	+	+	1st	You, Ann, and I are working *ourselves* to death.
	−	+	−	2nd	You ought to be ashamed of *yourselves*, children!
	−	+	+	2nd	You and John will have to cook for *yourselves*.
	−	−	+	3rd	They helped *themselves* to coffee and cakes.

6.7 The terms INCLUSIVE *we* and EXCLUSIVE *we* are sometimes used for 1st person plural pronouns which respectively include and exclude reference to the addressee. We should in addition distinguish a special type of exclusive *we* called COLLECTIVE *we* which indicates a plurality of speakers/writers, *eg* in petitions (*We, the undersigned, . . .*) or in prayers (*We thank Thee, O God, . . .*).

Unlike some languages, however, English does not make any formal distinction between 'inclusive' and 'exclusive' reference. The only circumstance in which inclusive *we* is grammatically distinct is in the 1st person imperative *Let's . . .* (*cf* 3.51 Note [b], 11.26). This contraction of *us* to *'s* (*cf* App II.9) is only possible where *us* has inclusive reference (*cf* 6.18). There is a corresponding question *shall we . . .?* in which *we* also has inclusive reference, and which may be added to the imperative as a tag question:

Let's enjoy ourselves, shall *we*?

Gender

6.8 Gender distinctions are largely restricted to 3rd person singular pronouns of the categories of personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns, as shown in *Table* 6.8:

Table 6.8 Gender distinctions in pronouns

PERSONAL GENDER	masculine	*he*	*him*	*his*		*himself*
	feminine	*she*	*her*	*her*	*hers*	*herself*
NONPERSONAL GENDER		*it*		*its*		*itself*

These gender distinctions are neutralized in the plural: *they*, *them*, etc. No pronouns other than those in *Table* 6.8 manifest a masculine/feminine contrast, but the personal/nonpersonal contrast is also found in relative pronouns (*who/whom* contrasted with *which*) and in indefinite pronouns (*somebody* contrasted with *something*, etc). The 1st and 2nd person pronouns are inevitably of personal rather than nonpersonal gender.

The choice between personal and nonpersonal gender is determined primarily by whether the reference is to a 'person', *ie* to a being felt to possess characteristics associated with a member of the human race. So defined, 'persons' are not only human beings, but may also include supernatural beings (the Deity, gods, angels, fairies, etc), and higher animals (*cf* 5.109). Exceptional uses such as *it* referring to babies and *she* referring to ships have already been noted (*cf* 5.107, 5.111 Note). The occurrence of *he* and *she* in cases of outright personification is common in informal use: *he* may refer to a computer; *she* (or, for some women, *he*) to a car. In poetry and fiction (especially children's fiction) there are virtually no limits to the kinds of object which can be personified in this way.

In the use of 3rd person singular pronouns, the absence of a pronoun of personal gender which is neutral between *he* and *she* influences the boundary between *he/she*, on the one hand, and *it* on the other. Just as a baby may be designated *it*, so a member of a nonhuman species may be designated *he* or *she* (*cf* 5.109*f*):

The robin builds *its* nest in a well-chosen position . . . and, after the eggs have hatched, the mother bird feeds *her* young there for several weeks.

As this example shows, the pronoun usage can vacillate within a single paragraph or even a single sentence.

Masculine and feminine gender

6.9 The choice between masculine and feminine pronouns is primarily based on the sex of the person (or animal) referred to:

Fred looked at *himself* in the mirror.
Freda looked at *herself* in the mirror.

Difficulties of usage arise, however, because English has no sex-neutral 3rd person singular pronoun. Consequently, the plural pronoun *they* is often used informally in defiance of strict number concord, in coreference with the indefinite pronouns *everyone, everybody*; *someone, somebody*; *anyone, anybody*; *no one, nobody* (*cf* 10.50):

Everyone thinks *they* have a right to be here. [1]
Has *anybody* brought *their* racket? [2]
No one should *pride themselves* on this result. [3]

The plural is a convenient means of avoiding the traditional use of *he* as the unmarked form when the sex is not determined (*cf*: *man*, 5.54 Note), as in the formal:

Everyone thinks *he* has a right to be here. ⟨formal⟩ [1a]

The use of the plural is also a means of avoiding the cumbersome device of coordinating masculine and feminine:

Has *anybody* brought *his or her* racket? [2a]

And the same choice may be made in referring back to a singular noun phrase with a personal noun of indeterminate gender as head:

Every student has to make up *his* own mind.
The applicant is required to sign *his* name clearly on page four of this form.

The dilemma of concord also arises with coordinate subjects and with subjects of common gender, but here resort to the evasive tactic of the plural pronoun, though common in everyday speech, is less acceptable:

Either *he or his wife* is going to have to change *their* attitude.
Not *every drug addict* can solve *their* problem so easily.

They is particularly difficult to avoid in cases like [4], and in tag questions [5] (*cf* 10.50 Note [a]):

Everybody came to the party, but *they*'ve left now. [4]
Someone died here yesterday, didn't *they*? [5]

Sexual bias in the use of pronouns

6.10 In recent decades, the use of *he, him*, etc as an 'unmarked' pronoun when the sex of the referent is undetermined has been opposed, particularly in the United States, by those campaigning against sexual bias in language. Some of the methods proposed for avoiding the unmarked masculine are illustrated in the following examples and suggested revisions (quoted from the *TESOL Quarterly* Style Sheet, Vol 13):

(a) The speaker must constantly monitor *his* listener to check that assumptions *he* is making are shared assumptions.
SUGGESTED REVISION (change to *the* and rephrase):
The speaker must constantly monitor *the* listener and check that the assumptions *the speaker is making are shared*.

(b) Very often the writer does not monitor *his* arguments very well or get *his* narrative in the right order.
SUGGESTED REVISION (change to plural):
Very often writers do not monitor *their* arguments very well or get *their* narratives in the right order.

(c) The students do almost all the interacting, the teacher taking a back seat. That is to say, *he* is not under the pressure of acting as *chairman or host*.
SUGGESTED REVISION (change to *s/he* and rephrase):
. . . That is to say, s/he is not under the pressure of acting as classroom director.

The last example illustrates the use of an invented sex-neutral pronoun *s/he*. It is uncertain how far such experimental forms as this will come into general use, especially when *s/he* is only a written form with no corresponding spoken form (unlike *Ms*; *cf* 5.66 Note [a]); and, still more seriously, there is no objective or possessive form. Generally, it is not certain how far the advocacy of nonsexist language will succeed in discouraging such usages as the unmarked masculine pronoun. What is clear is that the feminist movement in language has made many language users aware of problems of sexual bias which were overlooked by earlier generations.

Number

6.11 As already indicated (6.1 and 6.6), the personal, reflexive, and possessive pronouns have singular and plural forms which are morphologically unrelated. It is also worth noting that the plurals of the 1st and 2nd person have a more specific meaning than do those of nouns. Except when it refers to, for example, collective authorship (*cf* 6.18), *we* means 'I plus one or more other persons'; and, similarly, *you* with plural reference normally means 'you (singular) and one or more other persons, but not me'. But contrast of number is neutralized with *you*: in current standard English, only the reflexive forms *yourself* and *yourselves* preserve a distinction between singular and plural:

Harry, behave *yourself*!
Harry and Susan, behave *yourselves*!

(On archaic and nonstandard forms of the 2nd person singular and plural pronouns, *cf* 6.12 Notes [b] and [c].)

Reflexive pronouns in general show number contrast in the manner of nouns. The suffix *-self* in the singular changes, by the addition of a sibilant suffix, to *-selves* in the plural (*cf* such nouns in *-f* as *calf* ~ *calves*, 5.83):

singular	*myself*	*yourself*	*himself/herself/itself*
plural	*ourselves*	*yourselves*	*themselves*

Fig 6.11 Reflexive pronouns

There is also the rare (royal) singular form *ourself* (*cf* 6.18 Note [a]).

Pronouns belonging to other classes, such as interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns, do not in general have number contrast. Exceptions are the demonstratives *this/these* and *that/those*, and the indefinite pronoun *one* when used as a substitute. Other pronouns, like the corresponding determiners (*cf* 5.12), are invariable for number. The pronoun *both*, like the predeterminer *both*, has dual meaning, but is plural for purposes of concord.

6.12 There are formal grounds for saying that, just as the traditionally unmarked gender category is masculine, so the unmarked number category is singular. The compound indefinite pronouns *someone*, *everybody*, *nothing*, etc are singular, and have no plural counterparts (**someones*, **everybodies*, **nothings*); yet they themselves can refer to more than one entity, and be notionally plural:

A: Did you see *anyone* in the library?

B: { Yes, several people.
*No, several people.

Similarly, the substitute pronouns *any* and *none* are notionally often associated with plural number; but, according to prescriptive grammatical tradition, they are singular, and hence in formal English they are generally required to agree with a singular verb (*cf* 10.42).

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *what* are similar to *any* and *none* in that they are treated as singular for subject–verb concord, even though they may imply a plural answer:

A: *Who's* coming to the party? B: Most of our neighbours.
A: *What's* on the menu today? B: Lots of things.

Note [a] In the absence of a singular/plural distinction in the 2nd person pronoun, plural reference is sometimes indicated by lexical additions, *eg*: *you people*, *you boys*, and ⟨esp AmE⟩ *you guys*.
[b] The low-prestige plural form *youse* /juːz/ is current in Northern AmE and certain areas of Britain such as Liverpool and Glasgow. In Southern AmE, by contrast, the singular/plural distinction has been re-formed through suffixation of the originally plural form: *You-all* (*y'all* /joːl/) is widely used on all social levels in Southern AmE (always with a plural meaning by those to whom the form is native, although often misunderstood as a singular by outlanders). There is also a colloquial genitive *y'all's* /joːlz/, as in:
I really like *y'all's* new car. ['your family's new car']
[c] *You* in earlier English was a plural pronoun only, and was restricted to oblique cases. Although *you* has gained universal currency as a 2nd person pronoun which is neutral in case

and number, there is an archaic system of pronouns where other 2nd person pronouns survive in restricted situations, especially in religious language, as shown in *Table* 6.12:

Table 6.12 Archaic system of pronouns

	SUBJECTIVE	OBJECTIVE	REFLEXIVE	POSSESSIVE	
SINGULAR (*th*-forms)	*thou* /ðaʊ/	*thee* /ðiː/	*thyself*	*thy*	*thine*
PLURAL (*y*-forms)	*ye* /jiː/	*you*/(*ye*)	*yourselves*	*your*	*yours*

While we present this system of religious usage, it should be pointed out that there is a great deal of variation in current religious practice. There is a trend towards the adoption of present-day pronoun forms (*cf* verb forms, 3.4 Note [b]). For example, the traditional use of *th*-forms in Quaker usage seems to be no longer current. In some dialects of BrE, particularly in the north of England, forms deriving from the earlier singular *thou/thee* are still current also in nonreligious contexts.

Subclasses of pronouns

6.13 The class of pronouns includes a number of heterogeneous items, many of which, as we have already seen, do not share all of the above contrasts. For example, *somebody* (being 3rd person) has no corresponding 1st and 2nd person distinction, no subjective/objective contrast, and no masculine/feminine contrast. Yet it is included among our pronouns, as it incorporates its own determiner, is a closed-class item, and has the kind of generalized meaning we associate with pronouns. The point we want to make here is that the characteristics which single out the pronoun class from the noun class are not shared by all its members. *Figure* 6.13 shows the different subclasses of pronouns and gives references to sections where they are discussed:

- CENTRAL
  - personal: *I/me*, *we/us*, . . . 6.15–22
  - reflexive: *myself*, *ourselves*, . . . 6.23–28
  - possessive: *my/mine*, *our/ours*, . . . 6.29–30
- RECIPROCAL: *each other*, *one another* 6.31
- RELATIVE: the *wh*-series, *that* 6.32–35
- INTERROGATIVE: the *wh*-series 6.36–39
- DEMONSTRATIVE: *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* 6.40–44
- INDEFINITE
  - positive
    - universal
      - *all* and *both* 6.50
      - *each* and *every* 6.51
    - assertive
      - the *some* series 6.52
      - multal and paucal 6.53
      - *one* 6.54–56
      - *half*, *several*, *enough* 6.57
      - *other* and *another* 6.58
    - nonassertive: the *any* series and *either* 6.59–61
  - negative: the *no* series and *neither* 6.62

Fig 6.13 Pronoun subclasses

Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns may be called the CENTRAL PRONOUNS, since they share those features we have mentioned as being

particularly characteristic of pronouns, *viz* contrast of person, gender, and subjective/objective case. Although these central pronouns fulfil different syntactic functions, they have obvious morphological resemblances. This is also the reason why the possessives *my*, *your*, etc have been grouped with central pronouns, although such possessives, being determinative in function, cannot function alone instead of nouns, but only together with nouns (*cf* 6.29).

Central pronouns

6.14 The central pronouns have in common the distinctions of person (1st, 2nd, and 3rd), gender (masculine, feminine, and nonpersonal), and number (singular and plural) that have already been discussed. In addition, most personal pronouns have distinctions of case. The various forms of the central pronouns are displayed in *Table* 6.14:

Table 6.14 Personal, reflexive, and possessive pronouns

	PERSONAL PRONOUNS		REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS	POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS	
	subjective case	objective case		determinative function	independent function
1ST PERSON					
singular	*I*	*me*	*myself*	*my*	*mine*
plural	*we* *cf* Note [a]	*us*	*ourselves*	*our*	*ours*
2ND PERSON *cf* Note [b]					
singular	*you*	*you*	*yourself*	*your*	*yours*
plural	*you*	*you*	*yourselves*	*your*	*yours*
3RD PERSON					
singular masculine	*he*	*him*	*himself*	*his*	*his*
singular feminine	*she*	*her*	*herself*	*her*	*hers*
singular non-personal	*it*	*it*	*itself*	*its*	
plural	*they*	*them* *cf* Note [c]	*themselves*	*their*	*theirs*

Note [a] On the 'editorial *we*' and other special uses of the 1st person plural pronoun, *cf* 6.18.
[b] Apart from *you*, there are the rare and/or restricted 2nd person pronouns *thou*, *you-all*, etc (*cf* 6.12 Notes [b] and [c]).
[c] *Them* is sometimes replaced by *'em* /əm/ in familiar use, as in *Kick 'em out!*
[d] *Us* is the only pronoun that has a contracted form (*'s*) in standard English (*cf* App II.9): *Let's go*.

Personal pronouns

With specific reference

6.15 The personal pronouns usually have definite meaning, and resemble the noun phrases introduced by the definite article in that they may have situational, anaphoric, or cataphoric reference (*cf* 5.28*ff*).

The 1st person and 2nd person pronouns, when they have specific reference, are used to refer to those directly involved in the discourse situation: *viz* the speaker(s)/writer(s) and the addressee(s) (*cf* 6.6).

The 3rd person pronouns may also be used situationally, to refer to some person(s) or thing(s) whose identity can be inferred from the extralinguistic context:

Are *they* asleep? [spoken to his wife by a husband nodding his head towards the children's bedroom]
Oh, how kind of you! May I open *it* now? [said by someone receiving a present from a guest]

Much more frequently, however, the identity of the referents of 3rd person pronouns is supplied by the linguistic context. As with the definite article, we distinguish between the ANAPHORIC and the CATAPHORIC uses of a 3rd person pronoun, according to whether the element with which it corefers (the ANTECEDENT) precedes or follows it (*cf* 5.30*ff*). The more common type of textual reference is anaphoric reference:

We have *an excellent museum* here. Would you like to visit *it*? [= the museum] [1]
My brother is afraid that *he* will fail the test. [2]
The young girl stared at *Dan* and said nothing: *she* seemed offended by *his* manner, as if *he* had had the intention of hurting *her*. [3]
Dr Solway took *the student's* blood pressure that day. *He* also examined *his* lungs and heart. [4]

It will be noticed that in [4] *he* and *Dr Solway* are coreferential, and *his* and *the student's* are coreferential. We recover the appropriate antecedent by means of the content of the sentence. For example, the second sentence of [4] can be changed so as to enforce a different interpretation of the pronouns:

Dr Solway took *the student's* blood pressure that day. *He* had felt sick during the night and came for *his* help as soon as the clinic opened. [4a]

Now the content of the sentence suggests that *he* refers to *the student* and *his* to *Dr Solway*. If the use of the pronoun is felt to be ambiguous or confusing, the antecedent can be used again, or a lexical equivalent can be found:

. . . *The student* had felt sick during the night, and came for {*Dr Solway's* / *the doctor's*} help as soon as the clinic opened. [4b]

'Referring *it*'

6.16 The neuter or nonpersonal pronoun *it* ('REFERRING *it*') is used to refer not

only to inanimate objects as in example 6.15 [1] above, but also to noncount substances (such as *some soup* in [1] below), to singular abstractions (such as *the sack of Rome* in [2]), and even to singular collections of people, such as *Parliament* in [3]:

She made *some soup* and gave *it* to the children. [1]
The sack of Rome shook the whole of the Western World: in a sense, *it* was the end of the Roman Empire. [2]
Parliament's answer to all awkward problems is to establish a Royal Commission whose findings *it* can then ignore. [3]

In fact, in the personal/nonpersonal opposition, the nonpersonal gender is 'unmarked', in that for any antecedent for which *he* or *she* is inappropriate, *it* will be used instead. Hence, *it* can corefer to a whole clause or sentence, as in [4] and [5]:

A: Who said *that I was crazy*?
B: I said *it*. ['that you were crazy'] [4]
Rome was sacked by the Visigoths in 410 AD. It ['the sack of Rome'] was the end of civilization as the West had known it. [5]
Many students never improve. They get no advice and therefore keep repeating the same mistakes. It's a terrible shame. [6]

As is illustrated by [6], *it* can even corefer to a sequence of sentences.

It is the only personal pronoun which is almost always unstressed. *He* and *she*, for example, can be contrasted with one another by nuclear stress:

SHÉ earns more than HÈ does.

It, on the other hand, can only very rarely receive stress, for example when it is used as a citation form:

Is this word *ÍT*? [looking at a manuscript]

One reason why *it* is rarely stressed is that when a stressed nonpersonal pronoun is needed, *it* is supplanted by *this* or *that* (*cf* 6.40*ff*, 12.10*ff*). Thus [5a] is identical to [5], except that *this*, a stressed and slightly more emphatic proform, replaces *it*:

Rome was sacked by the Visigoths in 410 AD. 'This was the end of civilization as the West had known it. [5a]

Note There are several restricted usages with nuclear stress on *it*. For example:
Is that *ÍT*? ['Is that all you wanted me for?']
Also, with the sense of 'sex appeal', 'charisma', etc, *it* is stressed in:
She's got *ÍT*.
In children's games, stressed *it* is used to indicate whoever is next to play, in expressions like the following:
You're *ÍT*. She's *ÍT*.

'Prop *it*'

6.17 Since it is the most neutral and semantically unmarked of the personal pronouns, *it* is used as an 'empty' or 'prop' subject, especially in expressions denoting time, distance, or atmospheric conditions:

What time is *it*?	*It*'s half past five.
How far is *it* to York?	*It*'s a long way from here to Cairo.
It's warm today.	*It*'s been fine weather recently.
It's getting dark.	What day is *it* today?

This 'PROP *it*', if it has any meaning at all, refers quite generally to the time or place of the event or state in question (*cf* 10.26).

Even less meaning can be claimed for the *it* which occurs as an anticipatory subject in cleft sentences (*cf* 18.25*ff*) or in clauses with extraposition (*cf* 18.33*ff*), as in [1–3]:

Isn't *it* a shame *that they lost the game*? [1]
It must have been here *that I first met her*. [2]
I take *it* then *that you're resigning*. [3]

But here, too, it can be maintained that the pronoun is not quite void of meaning, since it arguably has cataphoric reference (forward coreference) to a clause (italicized in [1–3]) in the later part of the same sentence. One justification of this is the feeling of ellipsis in sentences such as [1a] and [2a], which are like [1] and [2] except that the antecedent of *it* has to be supplied from the linguistic context:

A: They lost the game.
B: Yes, so I hear. *Isn't it a shame?* [1a]
A: Where did you first meet her?
B: *It must have been here.* [2a]

In some cases, it is necessary to add words which do not precisely replicate those in the text, *eg*:

The bell rang, and I went to the door. *It* was Dr Long. [4]

To make full sense of sentences like [4], we have to supply, for example:

It was Dr Long (*who had rung the bell*).

Note [a] Perhaps the best case for a completely empty or 'nonreferring' *it* can be made with idioms in which *it* follows a verb and has vague implications of 'life in general', etc:
At last we've made *it*. ['achieved success']
have a hard time of *it* ['to find life difficult']
make a go of *it* ['to make a success of something']
stick *it* out ['to hold out, to persevere']
How's *it* going?
Go *it* alone.
You're in for *it*. ['You're going to be in trouble.']
[b] *It* can be used as a substitute for a predication, and especially for a characterizing complement (*cf* 10.20):
She was {*a rich woman* / *rich*} and she LÒOKED *it*. ['a rich woman', 'rich']
If there could ever be such a thing as a modest Roman, Augustus was not *ÍT*. ['not a modest Roman']
This last example is exceptional in that *it* is stressed (*cf* 6.16). Other uses of *it* as a substitute form are discussed in 12.13, 12.24*ff*.

Special uses of *we*

6.18 The 1st person plural pronoun has a number of special uses:

(a) One common use is the 'INCLUSIVE AUTHORIAL *we*' in serious writing, as in:

As *we* saw in Chapter 3, . . .

Here *we* seeks to involve the reader in a joint enterprise. Besides not having this 'intimate' appeal, *you* here would also be felt to be too informal or authoritative for discursive or scholarly writing. Compare also [1] with the more informal *let's* in [2]:

{ *We* now turn to a different problem. [1]
{ *Let's* turn now to a different problem. [2]

(b) The so-called 'EDITORIAL *we*' is still common enough in formal (especially scientific) writing by a single individual, and is prompted by a desire to avoid *I*, which may be felt to be somewhat egotistical. For instance, the writer of a scholarly article may prefer [3] to [4]:

{ As *we* showed a moment ago, . . . [3]
{ As *I* showed a moment ago, . . . [4]

('Editorial' here is not applied to the fully justified use of *we* with reference to the consensus of an editorial board or other collective body.)

(c) The 'RHETORICAL *we*' is used in the collective sense of 'the nation', 'the party', as in:

In the 19th century *we* neglected *our* poor as *we* amassed wealth. Today *we* are much more concerned with the welfare of the people as a whole.

This may be viewed as a special case of the generic use of *we* (*cf* 6.21).

(d) There is also a use of *we* in reference to the hearer (=*you*) which may occur for example when a doctor is talking to a patient:

How are *we* feeling today?

In the context, this use of *we* may be understood to be condescending, but it also has an implication of sharing the problem with 'you' in the situational context of a doctor/patient or teacher/student relation, for example. A teacher wishing to instruct without overtly claiming authority may use the 'inclusive' 1st person plural (*cf* 6.7):

Now then, let'*s* have a look at that project, shall *we*?

This can be an evasively polite equivalent of:

Now then, let *me* have a look at that project, will *you*?

(e) *We* may occasionally be used also in reference to a 3rd person (=*he, she*). For example one secretary might say to another with reference to their boss:

We're in a bad mood today.

Note [a] The virtually obsolete 'royal *we*' (=*I*) is traditionally used by a monarch, as in the following examples, both famous dicta by Queen Victoria:
We are not interested in the possibilities of defeat. *We* are not amused.
[b] In nonstandard use, plural *us* is commonly used for the singular *me*, as in:
Lend *us* a fiver.
[c] On the generic use of *we* and other personal pronouns, *cf* 6.21.

Anaphoric and cataphoric reference

6.19 Examples already given in 6.15–16 have illustrated the anaphoric use of personal pronouns. Cataphoric reference occurs less frequently, and under limited conditions. Where it does occur, anaphoric reference is also possible, so that we can equate two synonymous sentences such as [1] and [1a] in which the positions of pronoun and antecedent are reversed:

{ Before *he* joined the Navy, *Gerald* made peace with his family. [1]
{ = Before *Gerald* joined the Navy, *he* made peace with his family. [1a]

On the whole, cataphoric reference such as that in [1] is associated with formal written English. Also, it generally occurs only where the pronoun is at a lower level of structure than its antecedent (where 'level' is understood by reference to levels of branching on a tree diagram, as in 2.7 *ff*). Thus, in [2] and [3] the pronoun is a constituent in a relative clause:

Those who most deserve *it* rarely seem *to suffer defeat*. [2]
Melville well knew that to the men who sailed in *her, a whaler* was anything but a pleasure boat. [3]

And in [4], the cataphoric pronoun appears as part of the complement of an initial prepositional phrase:

On *his* arrival in the capital, *the Secretary of State* declared support for the government. [4]

When this condition of subordination is not fulfilled, there is no equivalent of the kind illustrated in [1] and [1a]:

{ *Jacqueline* thinks *she* understands me. [5]
{ ≠ *She* thinks *Jacqueline* understands me. [5a]

While *she* can easily corefer to *Jacqueline* in [5], such coreference is impossible in [5a], so that here *she* and *Jacqueline* must be understood to refer to two different people.

The conditions under which a pronoun can have coreference to another constituent can be summarized as follows. The constituent to which coreference is made must have precedence over the pronoun in one of two senses:

(i) It must precede the pronoun, or

(ii) it must have a higher position in the constituent structure (*cf* 2.7) of the sentence than the pronoun.

With cataphoric pronouns, the first condition fails, and so the second condition must obtain.

Note [a] The above summary is not without exceptions. In journalistic writing, in particular, there is occasional use of cataphoric pronouns which appear in noninferior positions:

Failure of *his* latest attempt on the world record has caused heavy financial loss to the backers of daredevil balloonist *Felix Champ*.

[b] Personal pronouns cannot make cataphoric reference to part or all of a subsequent sentence, except for debatable cases such as:

It should never have happened. *She went out and left the baby unattended.*

Here, it appears that *it* refers to the whole content of the succeeding sentence. But perhaps this is not true cataphoric reference, but a special rhetorical device, found in popular narrative, whereby the writer assumes the reader is already 'in the know' at the beginning of the story.

Modification and determination of personal pronouns

6.20 Another use of pronouns which may be called cataphoric is illustrated in:

He who hesitates is lost. ['The person who . . .'; a proverb]
She who must be obeyed. ['The woman who . . .']

Here *he* and *she* are cataphoric in that their meaning is defined by the following postmodifier, which is a restrictive relative clause (*cf* 17.13). Their function is hence parallel to that of the cataphoric definite article (*cf* 5.32). *He* or *she* followed by a relative clause belongs to a literary and somewhat archaic style. Present-day English prefers the use of the plural demonstrative in such contexts (*cf* 12.19). *They* cannot be used:

{*Those* / **They*} *who* work hard deserve some reward.

There is no similar use of cataphoric *it* for nonpersonal reference; a nominal relative clause (*cf* 15.8*f*) is used instead:

{*What* / **It that*} stands over there is a church.

In modern English, restrictive modification with personal pronouns is extremely limited. There are, however, a few types of nonrestrictive modifiers and determiners which can precede or follow a personal pronoun. These mostly accompany a 1st or 2nd person pronoun, and tend to have an emotive or rhetorical flavour:

(a) Adjectives:

Silly me!, Good old you!, Poor us! ⟨informal⟩

(b) Apposition:

we doctors, you people, us foreigners ⟨familiar⟩

(c) Relative clauses:

we who have pledged allegiance to the flag, . . . ⟨formal⟩
you, to whom I owe all my happiness, . . . ⟨formal⟩

(d) Adverbs:

you there, we here

(e) Prepositional phrases:

we of the modern age
us over here ⟨familiar⟩
you in the raincoat ⟨impolite⟩

(f) Emphatic reflexive pronouns (*cf* 6.28):

you yourself, we ourselves, he himself

Personal pronouns do not occur with determiners (**the she, *both they*), but the universal pronouns *all*, *both*, or *each* may occur after the pronoun head (*cf* 5.16, 6.50):

We all have our loyalties.
They each took a candle.
You both need help.

Note [a] The *he who* . . . and *she who* . . . constructions can in principle be varied by the substitution of other forms of personal and relative pronouns. But such variations strike the modern reader as decidedly unidiomatic:

?I dedicate this work *to him to whom it owes its conception.*

[b] Informally, *he* and *she* are converted to nouns when *he* = *male* and *she* = *female*. This accounts for the cooccurrence of the article with *he* and *she* in:

What a darling puppy! Is it *a he* or *a she*?

Generic uses of personal pronouns

6.21 Apart from the stylistically limited construction *he/she who* . . . in 6.20, a number of generic uses of personal pronouns need to be discussed and illustrated.

First, 3rd person pronouns can be used in anaphoric and cataphoric reference to generic noun phrases, in the normal way. The following example shows the generic use of *he* in coreference with a singular generic noun phrase (*cf* 5.54 Note, 6.9*f*):

Ever since *he* found a need to communicate, *man* has been the 'speaking animal'.

It is the pronoun which is used if we want to corefer to a singular generic noun phrase with zero article, whereas *they* is used if the zero article accompanies a plural:

A: Do you like *caviar*? B: I've never tasted *it*.
Music is my favourite subject. Is *it* yours?
Truffles are delicious, but *they*'re very expensive.

Second, apart from the special generic pronoun *one* (*cf* 6.56), plural pronouns of all persons can function generically with reference to 'people in general':

Science tells *us* that the earth goes round the sun. [1]
We live in an age of immense changes. [2]
You can never tell what will happen. [3]

These days *you* have to be careful with *your* money. [4]
They say it's going to snow today. [5]

Although used generically, these personal pronouns *we*, *you*, and *they* retain something of the specific meaning associated with the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons respectively. They are therefore not wholly interchangeable. Potentially, *we* and *us* in [1] and [2] have the widest meaning, because they may include reference to speaker, addressee, and 'third parties' (*cf* 6.6). The reference of 'inclusive *we*' can be progressively enlarged (as already illustrated by the 'rhetorical *we*' discussed in 6.18(c)) from those involved in the immediate speech situation to the whole human race. In this fully generic sense, a sentence with *we* as subject can be replaced by a passive sentence with unspecified agent (*cf* 3.71):

{ *We* now know that the earth is round.
{ = It is now known that the earth is round.

Generic *you*, on the other hand, is typically an informal equivalent of *one*:

You / *One* } can always tell what she's thinking.

But *you* again retains something of its 2nd person meaning: it can suggest that the speaker is appealing to the hearer's experience of life in general, or else of some specific situation, as in:

This wine makes *you* feel drowsy, doesn't it?

Sometimes, the reference is to the speaker's rather than the hearer's life or experiences:

It wasn't a bad life. *You* got up at seven, had breakfast, went for a walk . . .

Like generic *you*, generic *they* is informal, and retains something of its specific quality as a personal pronoun. Being a 3rd person pronoun, it excludes reference to the speaker and the addressee. Consequently, it tends to designate, in a sometimes disparaging way, the mysterious forces which appear to control the ordinary citizen's life: 'the authorities', 'the media', 'the government', etc:

I see *they're* raising the bus fares again. Whatever will *they* be doing next?
They don't make decent furniture nowadays.
(*cf*: *You* can't get decent furniture nowadays.)

Note The ordinary citizen's awareness of this use of *they*/*them* as a denial of personal responsibility can be seen in expressions like:
The members took up a *them* and *us* attitude to the Union.

Pronouns with coordinated antecedents

6.22 When a pronoun has as its antecedent two or more noun phrases coordinated by *and*, the pronoun itself must be plural, even if each of the noun phrases is singular:

John and Mary stole a toy from my son. *Their* mother told *them* to return *it* to *him*, but *they* said it was *theirs*.

The conditions of concord here, in fact, are the same as those which govern subject–verb concord (*cf* 10.34*ff*).

If the antecedent phrases governed by *and* contain noun phrases or pronouns of different persons, the choice of pronoun is determined by the criteria discussed in 6.6*f*. This means that there is an order of precedence whereby the 1st person outweighs the 2nd person, which in turn outweighs the 3rd person:

PERSONS IN ANTECEDENT		PERSON OF PRONOUN
1 + 2	- - - - - - - - - - →	1
1 + 3	- - - - - - - - - - →	1
2 + 3	- - - - - - - - - - →	2
1 + 2 + 3	- - - - - - - - - - →	1

Fig 6.22 Pronouns with coordinated antecedents

Examples:

We have a lot to talk about, *you and I*. [2 + 1 → 1]
Freda and I have finished *our* work. Can *we* start lunch now? [3 + 1 → 1]
You and John can stop *your* work now, if *you* like. *You* can both eat *your* lunch in the kitchen. [2 + 3 → 2]

The same order of precedence applies where three or more noun phrases are combined in the antecedent:

If *you*, *Mary*, *and I* have already finished, *we* can have lunch. [2 + 3 + 1 → 1]
You, *Mary*, *and John* will meet at the station. *You* can then go together to the party. [2 + 3 + 3 → 2]

Note [a] A somewhat different situation arises when the antecedent noun phrases do not include the person appearing in the pronoun:
If *you and John* have already finished, *we* can have lunch. [1]
Mary and John will be at the station. *You* can then go together to the party. [2]
In spite of appearances, the italicized phrases and pronouns in these examples can be understood to be partly coreferential. But this interpretation requires the implication of a third omitted conjoin; *eg*: *we* in [1] is understood to mean 'you, John, and I'.
[b] In addition to a coordinated antecedent, the 3rd person plural pronoun may also have multiple antecedents, such as *She* and *an Indian* in:
She married *an Indian*, and *they* went to live in Delhi.

Reflexive pronouns

6.23 Reflexive pronouns end with *-self* (singular) and *-selves* (plural). These suffixes are added to the determinative possessive forms for the 1st and 2nd person (a), and to the objective form for the 3rd person (b) (*cf Table* 6.14):

(a) *myself* *yourself* *ourselves* *yourselves*
(b) *himself* *herself* *itself* *themselves*

There is also an indefinite generic reflexive pronoun *oneself* (*cf* 6.56), and a very rare 'royal *we*' singular reflexive pronoun *ourself* (*cf* 6.18 Note [a]).

As the name implies, reflexive pronouns 'reflect' another nominal element of the clause or sentence, usually the subject, with which it is in a coreferential relation:

Table 6.23 Functions of reflexive pronouns

ANTECEDENT	REFLEXIVE PRONOUN	EXAMPLE	
subject	direct object	*They* helped *themselves*.	[1]
subject	indirect object	*She* allowed *herself* a rest.	[2]
subject	subject complement	*He* is not *himself* today.	[3]
subject	prep. complement	*The café* pays for *itself*.	[4]
subject	appositional phrase	*We* couldn't come *ourselves*.	[5]
		We ourselves couldn't come.	[5a]

The reflexive pronoun has two distinct uses: basic and emphatic. The basic use is illustrated by [1–4] above: here, the reflexive pronoun functions as object or complement and has the subject of its clause as its antecedent. In the emphatic use, illustrated by [5] and [5a], the pronoun is in an appositional relation to its antecedent.

Note [a] As subject complement (but not normally as object) the reflexive pronoun receives nuclear stress:

He is not himsELF. ['He does not feel well.']

There is consequently an ambiguity only in writing between the object and complement interpretations when a reflexive pronoun comes after the verb:

He FELT himself. [S V C] He felt himsELF. [S V C_s]

[b] Very occasionally a reflexive pronoun precedes the subject with which it has coreference (*cf* fronting, 18.20*ff*):

For *yourselves you* have done a great deal, but for others nothing.

It was understood that getting *herself* married to an aristocrat was *Henrietta's* first duty to her family.

In emphatic use (*cf* 6.28), front position of *myself* is common:

Myself, I feel quite happy about the plan.

Basic use

6.24 The basic reflexive pronoun takes the function of a noun phrase in the structure of the clause or phrase: it may be an object, a complement, or a prepositional complement. Since it corefers to the subject, however, the reflexive pronoun cannot itself be a subject. In this, it shows that it belongs to 'object territory' (*cf* 6.5), and has affinities with the objective personal pronoun. But it contrasts with the objective pronoun in meaning in examples such as this:

He saw {*himself* / *him*} in the mirror. [1]

In [1], *himself* is necessarily coreferential to the subject *he*, while *him* necessarily refers to some other person. We have to use the reflexive rather than the ordinary objective pronoun. The reflexive pronoun must agree with the subject in terms of gender, number, and person:

She saw {*herself* / **himself*} in the mirror.

For an object, complement, or prepositional object which is coreferential with the subject, the reflexive pronoun is obligatory.

The basic reflexive pronoun always corefers to the subject of its own clause, even though that subject may be 'understood'. For example, the implied subject of the *-ing* participle clause in [2] is *Vincent*, and *himself* is therefore the appropriate reflexive pronoun:

Freeing *himself* with a sharp knife, *Vincent* lurched towards the door. [2]

In [3], it is *John* who is understood to be the subject of the infinitive clause, and the appropriate reflexive is therefore *himself*, even though the subject of the main clause is *she*:

She asked *John* to invite {*himself.* / **herself.*} [3]

Similarly, as the implied subject of a normal 2nd person imperative is *you* (*cf* 11.25), it would be ungrammatical for such an imperative clause to contain as its object any other reflexive than a 2nd person pronoun:

Help {*yourselves*! / **ourselves*! / **themselves*!}

Note [a] In a noun phrase which is a nominalization of a clause (*cf* 17.51), the antecedent of the reflexive will be an embedded noun phrase which functions as 'subject' of the nominalization:

{*Philip's* boundless admiration of *himself* / *Your* confidence in *yourself*} is well known.

As in these examples, the antecedent is normally a subjective genitive (*cf* 5.116).

[b] When a nonfinite clause or a nominalization has an implied human subject of the most indefinite kind ('someone or other'), the reflexive *oneself* (or its informal equivalent *yourself*) may be used:

Voting for {*oneself* / *yourself*} is unethical.

Pride in {*oneself* / *yourself*} was considered a deadly sin.

[c] In informal AmE we can find uses of a personal instead of a reflexive pronoun as indirect object which is coreferential with the subject, *eg*:

He got *him* ['himself'] a new car. We're going to elect *us* a new president next year.

Obligatory reflexive pronoun as object

6.25 We may distinguish the following types of construction in which the reflexive pronoun, when coreferential with the subject, is always used in preference to the objective case pronoun:

(a) With REFLEXIVE VERBS, *ie* verbs which always require a reflexive object, such as *pride oneself on*:

She always {*prides herself* / **prides*} on her academic background.

Examples of other reflexive verbs:

absent oneself (from)	*avail oneself (of)*
demean oneself ⟨formal⟩	*ingratiate oneself (with)*
perjure oneself	

(b) With SEMI-REFLEXIVE VERBS, *ie* verbs where the reflexive pronoun may be omitted with little or no change of meaning, such as *behave (oneself)*, *shave (oneself)*:

Behave yourself / *Behave* } now!

He has to { *shave himself* / *shave* } twice a day.

Other semi-reflexive verbs are:

adjust (oneself) to	*dress (oneself)*
hide (oneself)	*identify (oneself) with*
prepare (oneself) for	*prove (oneself) (to be)*
wash (oneself)	*worry (oneself)*

(c) With NONREFLEXIVE VERBS, *ie* verbs which are transitive, but are not particularly associated with the reflexive pronoun. Compare [1] and [1a]:

Williams publicly blamed *himself* for the accident. [1]
Nobody *blamed* him for the accident. [1a]

Other such nonreflexive verbs are, for example:

accuse, admire, amuse, dislike, feed, get, hurt, persuade

It is with reflexive verbs (type a) and nonreflexive verbs (type c) that the choice between reflexive and objective pronoun, as in 6.24 [1] may be made. Compare also *dress* (semi-reflexive verb) in [2] with *get up* (nonreflexive verb) in [3] (*herself* = the mother, *her* = Jane):

Jane's mother dresses { *her* / *(herself)* } before 8 a.m. [2]

Jane's mother gets { *her* / *(herself)* } up before 8 a.m. [3]

Note [a] Many verbs can have different constructions, *eg*: *enjoy*:

I enjoyed { *myself*. ['had a good time'] / *the party*. ['took pleasure in'] / *the guests*. ['liked'] ⟨esp AmE⟩ }

In AmE this verb is also used intransitively as an imperative: *Enjoy!*, equivalent to 'Bon appétit'.
[b] *Feel* is semi-reflexive in a complex-transitive construction [4], but nonreflexive in copular use [5]:

She always *felt (herself)* { a stranger in their house. / wounded by his remarks. } [4]

She *felt* cold. [5]

[c] In complex-transitive complementation (*cf* 16.46*ff*), the coreferential item is the noun phrase that is object of the finite verb clause and subject of the nonfinite verb clause:

The hosts really want *us* to enjoy *ourselves*.
Nobody insisted on *your* sacrificing *yourself*.

Obligatory reflexive pronoun after a preposition

6.26 The following types of construction require a reflexive pronoun after the preposition, if the subject is the intended antecedent:

(a) With prepositional objects, *ie* prepositional complements which have a close connection with the preceding verb (*cf* 16.5):

Mary stood *looking at herself* in the mirror.
Do *look after yourselves*!
We did not know what to *do with ourselves*.
He *thinks* too much *of himself*.
They *take* too much *upon themselves*.

(b) With prepositional phrases following a noun which refers to a work of art, a story, etc:

Every writer's first novel is basically *a story about himself*.
Rembrandt painted *many remarkable portraits of himself*.
Do you have *a recent photograph of yourself*?

Optional reflexive pronoun

6.27 The basic reflexive pronoun is sometimes optional, in the sense that it may acceptably be replaced by the more usual ordinary objective pronoun. The *self*-forms are chosen to supply special emphasis:

(a) In some spatial prepositional phrases:

She's building a wall of Russian BOOKS *about her(self)*.
Holding her new yellow bathrobe *around her(self)* with both arms, she walked up to him.
Mason stepped back, gently closed the door *behind him(self)*, and walked down the corridor.
They left the apartment, pulling the spring lock shut *behind them(selves)*.

(b) In 'semi-emphatic' use. Here the reflexive pronoun normally receives nuclear stress. It does not have the subject as its antecedent, but is commonly used as a more emphatic equivalent of the 1st and 2nd person personal pronouns. Especially, however, when it replaces *I* and *me*, *myself* is felt by many to be a hyperurbanism, a genteel evasion of the normal personal pronoun. The reflexive pronoun in these contexts can be reasonably called 'semi-emphatic' because it can be regarded as an abbreviated version of a sequence of the personal pronoun followed by the emphatic reflexive pronoun (*you yourself*, *him himself*, etc). Thus there are three possibilities in:

Anyone but { *YOU* / *yourSELF* / *you yourSELF* } would have noticed the change.

The latter repetition of the pronoun (*you yourself*) is avoided, however, outside the subject position (*cf* 6.4*f*).

The constructions in which the 'semi-emphatic' reflexive occurs are the following:

(i) After the prepositions *like*, *than*, (*as* . . .) *as*, *but* (*for*), *except* (*for*), and *as for* (*cf* 9.7*ff*):

For someone *like me/myself*, this is a big surprise.
Except for us/ourselves, the whole village was asleep.
According to the manager, no one works *as* hard *as him(self)*.
Sandra's sister is even taller *than her(self)*.
No composer enjoyed a better family background than Mozart. *Like him(self)*, both his father and sister were remarkable musicians.
Guerrero's friends made their peace with the gang. *As for him(self)*, there was little he could do but await the inevitable bullet in his back.

(ii) When a reflexive pronoun (particularly a 1st person pronoun) is coordinated with another phrase:

They have never invited *Margaret and me/myself* to dinner.
This is a great tribute *to the Scout Movement, and to you/yourself* as its leader.

In this construction, the reflexive pronoun is not limited to 'object territory' (*cf* 6.5); it can replace a subjective pronoun:

My sister and I/myself went sailing yesterday.

Note [a] Unlike the prepositional phrases of (a) above, many prepositional phrases expressing a spatial (or temporal) relationship require the objective personal pronoun rather than the reflexive pronoun, in spite of coreference with the subject:

He looked *about him*.
She liked having her grandchildren *around her*.
Have you any money *on you*?
She had her fiancé *beside her*.
She pushed the cart *in front of her*.
They carried some food *with them*.
We have the whole day *before us*.

A possible explanation of this (historically older) use of the personal pronoun instead of the compound form in *-self* is that the personal pronoun is not normally in semantic contrast with any other pronoun, and therefore needs no emphasis:

*Have you any money *on me*?

The objective form is normally unstressed, so that the stress is thrown onto the preposition. In some cases the pronoun may in fact be omitted altogether:

Pat felt a sinking sensation *inside* (*her*).

The reflexive pronoun, on the other hand, will usually (except in the case of inherently reflexive verbs like *pride oneself*; *cf* 6.25(a)) imply a contrast between coreference to the subject and reference to something else.

[b] In the following metaphorical use of the preposition, the reflexive pronoun is required:

She was *beside* { *herself* / **her* } with rage.

(*cf*: 'She placed the attaché case *beside her*'.)

[c] For phonological reasons, sequences like *her herself* would be avoided by many speakers. Compare restrictions on verb sequences such as *be being* (3.73).

[d] In some dialects of English, especially Irish English, reflexive pronouns are common in expressions like:

Is *herself* in? ['Is the lady of the house in?']

Also in more general use we find, *eg*:

I went to see Mary and John but there was only *himself* at home.
She was, he knew, a very good secretary and always loyal to *himself*.

Emphatic use

6.28 Reflexive pronouns in emphatic use occur in apposition and have heavy

(nuclear) stress. Unlike basic reflexive pronouns, they may have positional mobility:

{ *I mysÈLF* wouldn't take any NÒTice.
I wouldn't take any NÒTice *mysÉLF*.
MysÈLF, *I* wouldn't take any NÒTice of her. }

Here the meaning of the pronoun is 'speaking personally'. In other contexts, the pronoun has a meaning better captured by the paraphrase 'X and nobody else':

Do you mean that you spoke to *the Pope himsÉLF*?
A: Who told you that Jill was leaving? B: *She hersÈLF* told me.

Sometimes there is an explicit contrast between the referent and some other thing or person:

I'd prefer *you* to do the job *yoursÈLF*, rather than to leave it to Tony.

On the positioning of the emphatic reflexive pronoun, *cf* 18.39*f*.

Note [a] Emphatic reflexives with cataphoric reference are generally literary in tone:
Himself a fervent believer, Newman was nonetheless able to sympathize with those who . . .
[b] Emphatic reflexives sometimes occur sentence-initially in rather mannered or literary uses:
Myself is thus and so, and will continue thus and so. (Bellow)
Oneself did not die; that, like the very quiddity of otherness, was for others. (Burgess)

Possessive pronouns

Determinative and independent possessives

6.29 Possessive pronouns consist traditionally of two series: the first, 'weak' set of possessive pronouns has a determinative function (*cf* 5.12*ff*), while the second, 'strong' set has an independent function as a noun phrase (*cf* 5.124):

DETERMINATIVE:	*my*	*our*	*your*	*his*	*her*	*its*	*their*
INDEPENDENT:	*mine*	*ours*	*yours*	*his*	*hers*	(*its*)	*theirs*

As the genitive forms of personal pronouns (*cf* 6.2), the possessive pronouns behave very much like the corresponding genitive noun constructions, and they have already been illustrated in that connection (*cf* 5.117*ff*).

But whereas the genitive noun does not change its form in moving from determinative to independent function, five of the possessive pronouns change by the addition of a consonant (either /n/ or /z/) to the determinative form:

my /maɪ/ → *mine* /maɪn/
your /jɔːʳ/ → *yours* /jɔːʳz/, *our* → *ours*, *her* → *hers*, *their* → *theirs*

His already ends in /z/ and therefore does not add a further sibilant; compare [1] and [1a]:

This is *MY* bike and that is *HÌS* bike. [1]
This bike is *MÍNE* and that is *HÌS*. [1a]

Its is extremely rare in independent function (but *cf* Note [a]):

*The collar is *its*.

One reason for this gap is that the pronoun *it* is very rarely stressed (*cf* 6.16), and this conflicts with the phonological status of the independent possessive, which is always stressed. Another and related reason seems to be that there is rarely semantic motivation for an independent nonpersonal possessive pronoun.

Parallel to the independent genitive, the independent possessive can occur as any of the following nominal elements: subject, object, complement, or prepositional complement. But it is particularly common in complement function. Compare:

DETERMINATIVE	INDEPENDENT
Mary's / *my daughter's* / *her* } book	The book is { *Mary's.* / *my daughter's.* / *hers.*

The independent possessive in other functions generally has a quasi-elliptical role, replacing a noun phrase with a determinative possessive:

If you need a bicycle, I'll lend you { *mine.* / *my bicycle.*

It also occurs regularly as prepositional complement in the 'post-genitive' construction described in 5.126:

I have been talking to *a friend of yours.* ['one of your friends']
A: Do you know Wagner's operas?
B: No, the only *opera of his* I've seen is 'Lohengrin'.

Note [a] Independent *its* may occasionally be found in parallel constructions, such as:
History has *ITS* lessons and fiction has *ITS*.
She knew the accident was either her husband's fault or the car's: it turned out to be not *HIS* but *ITS*.
[b] Like genitives and *of*-constructions (*cf* 5.115), constructions with possessive pronouns can be ambiguous, *eg*: *my* in *Give me back my photograph* may have at least three interpretations:
the one { I own / I took / taken of me
[c] Note the following expressions where the *of*-construction, rather than the possessive, is used:
I can't understand it { *for the life of me.* / **for my life.*
On the face of it, / **On its face,* } it seems a good idea.
I don't trust *the likes of him.*
This will be *the death of me.*

Possessives and the 'emphatic determinative *own*'

6.30 The possessive cannot be accompanied by any modifiers or determiners, except for the 'emphatic determinative *own*'. Just as the emphatic reflexive pronoun (*cf* 6.28) intensifies the meaning of a personal pronoun, so *own* intensifies the meaning of a possessive pronoun. For example, *my own* carries the force of 'mine and nobody else's' in:

This book doesn't belong to the library – it's *my own copy.*

Elsewhere *own* emphasizes coreference between the possessive and the subject of the clause:

Sam cooks *his own dinner* every evening. ['cooks dinner for himself'] [1]

But whereas the reflexive pronoun is often obligatory where coreference with the subject is intended, the addition of *own* to the possessive is optional. Thus, in [1a], *his* could corefer to Sam, but it could also refer to someone quite different:

Sam cooks *his dinner* every evening. [1a]

Similarly, [2] is ambiguous according to whether *their* corefers to *the Housing Associations* or to *people*:

The Housing Associations are encouraging *people* to buy *their* houses. [2]

But only the second interpretation, the 'reflexive' one, is possible with:

The Housing Associations are encouraging people to buy *their own* houses. [2a]

In its turn, *own* can be intensified by the adverb *very*:

Do you like this cake? It's *my very own* recipe. ['a recipe I made up myself'] [3]

The independent genitive cannot combine with *own*: **yours own*, **mine own*; instead, *own* added to the determinative possessive can serve as an independent noun phrase:

The recipe is *my (very) own.* [3a]
Floyd sometimes plays other musicians' arrangements, but *his own* are much better.

In a similar way, the combination *your own*, *her own*, etc can follow *of* in a 'post-genitive':

I'd love to have *a home of my (very) own.* ['a home which belongs to me and nobody else']
We're resigning from the firm, and starting *a business of our (very) own.*

Note [a] *Own* can also occur with a genitive noun:
You must try these cookies: it's *Jill's (very) own* recipe.
Own cannot cooccur, however, with an indefinite determiner. Compare:
Have you got { *your own* car? / a car *of your own*? / **an own* car?
[b] Unlike many other languages, English uses possessives to refer to parts of the body and personal belongings, as well as in a number of related expressions:
He stood at the door with *his* hat in *his* hand.
Mary has broken *her* leg.
Don't lose *your* balance.
They have changed *their* minds again!
The definite article is, however, required in:
She took me by *the* hand.
For a discussion of this use of *the*, *cf* 5.35.

Reciprocal pronouns

6.31 The RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS *each other* and *one another* are related to the reflexive pronouns in that they can be said to express a 'two-way reflexive relationship' (*cf* 13.46, 13.60). Yet there are important differences between reflexive and reciprocal pronouns. Compare:

REFLEXIVE PRONOUN	RECIPROCAL PRONOUN
Adam and Eve blamed *themselves*.	Adam and Eve blamed *each other*.
['Adam blamed himself, and Eve blamed herself.']	['Adam blamed Eve, and Eve blamed Adam.']

Other examples of typical functions of reciprocal pronouns:

All the children trust *one another*.
The party leaders promised to give *each other* their support.
Meg and Bill are very fond of *each other*.

Each other and *one another* are both written as word sequences, but it is better to treat them as compound pronouns rather than as combinations of two pronouns. At the same time, they correspond to the correlative use of *each . . . other* and *one . . . another* (*cf* 6.58) in sentences such as:

They *each* blamed *the other*.
The passengers disembarked *one* after *another*.

The reciprocal pronouns have the genitive forms *each other's* and *one another's*:

The students can borrow { *each other's* / *one another's* } *books*.

There is no difference in the use of the two pronouns *each other* and *one another*. Although in prescriptive tradition, *each other* is sometimes preferred for reference to two and *one another* to more than two, this distinction seems to have little foundation in usage. There is, however, a stylistic difference between the two reciprocals in that *each other* is more common in informal style and *one another* in more formal contexts.

Unlike the reflexive pronouns, the reciprocals can corefer only to plural noun phrases (or noun phrases that have a plural quality), since reciprocity presupposes more than one participant:

Bill shaved { *himself*. / **each other*. }

With verbs like *embrace*, *meet*, and *kiss*, which are reciprocal and symmetrical in character (*cf* 13.60), the reciprocal pronoun is optional:

{ Anna and Bob met *each other* in Cairo.
= Anna and Bob met in Cairo. }

With verbs which are not necessarily symmetrical, the reciprocal pronoun is required in order to express reciprocity:

{ Anna and Bob wrote letters to *each other*.
≠ Anna and Bob wrote letters. }

Each other and *one another* resemble reflexive pronouns in that they cannot be used naturally in subject position. Instead of [1], [1a] is preferred:

?The twins wanted to know what *each other* were/was doing. [1]
Each of the twins wanted to know what *the other* was doing. [1a]

There appears to be no such constraint on reciprocals as subject in nonfinite verb clauses:

The twins wanted *each other* to be present at all times.

However, the rule which excludes occurrence in subject position holds not only for independent pronominal use but also for genitival reciprocals in subject noun phrases. The reciprocals must have coreference with antecedent phrases which have some other genitive or possessive modification. Compare:

{ **Each other's letters*
?*The letters to each other*
Their letters to each other } were delivered by a servant.

Note [a] The plural genitive forms **each others'* and **one anothers'* are not used (although these forms sometimes occur as erroneous spellings of *each other's* and *one another's*).
[b] The reciprocal pronouns are rather infrequent items. In the million-word Brown corpus of printed AmE, for example, there are only 114 instances of *each other* and 45 instances of *one another*.

Relative pronouns

6.32 Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses, *eg*:

The book *which* you ordered last month has arrived. [1]

In [1], the relative pronoun *which* introduces the relative clause *which you ordered last month*. Relative pronouns differ from personal pronouns in that the element which contains or comprises the relative pronoun is always placed at the beginning of the clause, whether it is subject, complement, adverbial, postmodifier, prepositional complement, or object (as in [1]). Compare the position of *it* as object:

The book has arrived. You ordered *it* last month. [1a]

Relative pronouns resemble personal pronouns in that they have coreference to an antecedent (*cf* 6.15). In [1], the antecedent of *which* is *book*. Here, as in most relative clauses, the antecedent is the preceding part of the noun phrase in which the relative clause functions as postmodifier:

[the book [which you ordered last month]]

Unlike personal pronouns, relative pronouns have the double role of referring to the antecedent (which determines gender selection, *eg*: *who/which*) and of functioning as all of, or part of, an element in the relative clause (which determines the case form for those items that have case distinction, *eg*: *who/whom*). Further details of relative clause formation are given in 17.10*ff*.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive

6.33 The semantic relation between the clause and its antecedent may be either

restrictive or nonrestrictive, and this is the basis of an important distinction between RESTRICTIVE and NONRESTRICTIVE relative clauses.

Restrictive relative clauses are closely connected to their antecedent or head prosodically, and denote a limitation on the reference of the antecedent, *eg*:

This is not something *that would disturb me ÀNYway*.

Nonrestrictive clauses are parenthetic comments which usually describe, but do not further define, the antecedent, *eg*:

They operated like politicians| *who notoriously have no sense of humour at ÀLL*|.

The differences between restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses will be further discussed in 17.13*ff*. For the present, we only need to mention this difference in order to indicate how it affects the choice of relative pronoun, as appears in *Table* 6.33:

Table 6.33 Relative pronouns

	RESTRICTIVE		NONRESTRICTIVE	
	personal	nonpersonal	personal	nonpersonal
SUBJECTIVE CASE	*who* *that*	*which* *that*	*who*	*which*
OBJECTIVE CASE	*whom* *that* zero	*which* *that* zero	*whom*	
GENITIVE CASE	*whose*			

Wh-pronouns, *that*, and zero

6.34 Relative pronouns include two series:

(a) *wh*-pronouns: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*
(b) *that* and zero

Compare:

I'd like to see the car $\left\{\begin{matrix} \textit{which} \\ \textit{that} \\ (\quad) \end{matrix}\right\}$ you bought last week.

(Zero is indicated by '( )'.) Neither series has number or person contrast. However, the *wh*-series has gender contrast between personal *who* and nonpersonal *which*, and case contrast between subjective *who*, objective *whom*, and genitive *whose*.

As *Table* 6.33 shows, *whose* – unlike *who* and *whom* – can have personal reference (*cf* 5.117), as in [1], and also nonpersonal reference, as in [2], although there is a certain reluctance to use *whose* for nonpersonal antecedents:

The lady whose daughter you met is Mrs Brown. [1]
The house whose roof was damaged has now been repaired. [2]

Nevertheless relative clauses such as that of [2] are quite frequently attested. If a speaker or writer wishes to avoid the use of *whose* with nonpersonal reference, this can be done, often with some awkwardness, by using *of which* (*cf* 17.14):

The house $\left\{\begin{matrix} \textit{of which} \text{ the roof} \\ \text{the roof } \textit{of which} \end{matrix}\right\}$ was damaged . . . [2a]

Note [a] *Whose* cannot always be substituted for *of which* or *of whom*. When the *of*-phrase functions as an adverbial, there is no parallel with the genitive [3], but other constructions are available, *eg* [3a]:

*The poem *whose I am speaking* . . . [3]
The poem *of which I am speaking* . . . [3a]

[b] *Which* can have a personal noun phrase as its antecedent when the head is a complement with the role of characterization (*cf* 10.20 and the parallel use of *it*, 6.17 Note [b]):

They accused him of being a traitor, $\left\{\begin{matrix} \textit{which} \\ *\textit{who} \end{matrix}\right\}$ *he was*.

In restrictive relative clauses, *that* is used in a similar function:

She's not the brilliant dancer $\left\{\begin{matrix} \textit{that} \\ (\quad) \\ *\textit{who} \end{matrix}\right\}$ *she used to be*.

Compare the exclamatory construction with identificatory *that*:

Fool *that* I was! ['I was such a fool']

In none of these sentences could *who* be used.

[c] If the antecedent contains a mixture of personal and nonpersonal elements, *that* can be used as a pronoun which is 'neutral' with respect to *who* and *which*:

The generals complained that the Defence Department had not sent the extra men and equipment *that they needed*.

Who and *whom*

6.35 In many ways the opposition between *who* and *whom* does not parallel the subjective/objective distinction in the personal pronouns. *Whom* is largely restricted to formal style, and can be avoided altogether in informal style, through the use of *who*, *that*, or zero.

It seems odd that the pronoun *whom* is decidedly 'marked' in relation to *who*, while elsewhere, with *I/me*, *she/her*, etc, the objective form is the 'unmarked' choice (*cf* 6.4). The best way of accounting for this seems to be to return to the concept of 'subject territory' (*cf* 6.5), which was defined, for colloquial English, simply as the position preceding the verb, *ie* the customary position of the subject. In relative clauses, because of the fronting of the *wh*-element, this is the only position of the relative pronoun, whether it is functioning as subject, object, or some other element. Hence, in informal English, there is a tendency to avoid *whom* altogether, and to replace it by the subjective form *who*. In formal style, on the other hand, the tendency is to use *whom* in accordance with the traditional prescriptive rule that *who* is the form for subject and subject complement functions, and *whom* is the form for other functions. When the relative pronoun is object, we meet all the following possibilities:

This is a person $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{whom}\\ \textit{who}\\ \textit{that}\\ (\quad)\end{array}\right\}$ you should know.

If the relative pronoun is a prepositional complement, we meet yet a further possibility, that of the preposition followed by *whom*:

This is the person $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{to whom}\text{ you spoke.}\\ \left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{whom}\\ \textit{who}\\ \textit{that}\\ (\quad)\end{array}\right\}\text{ you spoke }\textit{to}.\end{array}\right.$

However, the further theoretical possibility does not occur, namely *who* following the preposition:

*This is the *person to who* you spoke.

The reason is that there is a stylistic incompatibility between the preposition + relative pronoun construction (*to whom*), which is rather formal, and the use of *who* rather than *whom* as prepositional complement (*who . . . to*), which is informal.

Thus the behaviour of *who* and *whom*, which would otherwise appear irregular and puzzling, can be explained in terms of the different notions of case operating in formal and in informal usage.

Note [a] The hypercorrect use of *whom* is common in examples of pushdown relative clauses (*cf* 17.63) such as this:

*The Ambassador, *whom* we hope will arrive at 10 a.m., . . .

Here the relative pronoun is the subject of *will arrive* but is felt to be in object territory in relation to *we hope* embedded in the relative clause (*cf*: *We hope that she will arrive at 10 a.m.*). On the other hand, no hypercorrection is involved in the following:

The Ambassador, *whom* we expect to arrive at 10 a.m., . . .

This is evident, again, if we compare the relative clause with a corresponding construction with a personal pronoun (*cf* 6.38 Note [b]):

We expect her to arrive at 10 a.m.

The following example represents a case where the hypercorrection has been institutionalized, and where in fact there is no alternative relative pronoun:

Here is Captain Morse than *whom* there is no braver soldier.

[b] The relative pronouns discussed above have been those used in adnominal relative clauses (*cf* 17.9). We should briefly mention here also the pronouns *what*, *whatever*, *whichever*, and *whoever*, which are used to introduce nominal relative clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*, 17.12), *eg*:

You can do *whatever you like*. ['that which you like']

[c] Very occasionally nonrestrictive relative clauses are introduced by the relative determiner *which*, rather than by a relative pronoun (*cf* 17.24):

We arrived at noon, *by which time* the demonstration was over.

Again, nominal relative clauses permit a different set of determiners: *which*, *whichever*, *whatever* (*cf* 15.8*f*), *eg*:

You should wear *whichever dress suits you best*.

Interrogative pronouns

6.36 These are formally identical with the *wh*-series of relative pronouns, but have a different function. They correspond closely to interrogative determiners (*cf* 5.14), and we shall discuss the use of both types of interrogative word together, *ie* the following items:

PRONOUN FUNCTION:	*who*	*whom*	*whose*	*what*	*which*
DETERMINATIVE FUNCTION:			*whose*	*what*	*which*

Who, *whom*, and *whose* are subjective, objective, and genitive case forms respectively, and have personal gender. The other interrogatives are not distinctive for case or gender. Note in particular that, unlike relative *which*, interrogative *which* can be used not only with nonpersonal but also with personal reference:

RELATIVE: The author $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{who}\\ *\textit{which}\end{array}\right\}$ is my favourite is . . .

INTERROGATIVE: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{Which}\\ \textit{Who}\end{array}\right\}$ is your favourite author?

In meaning, however, interrogative *who* and *which* differ, *who* being indefinite and *which* definite, as explained in 6.37.

Indefinite and definite interrogatives

6.37 There are two groups of interrogatives: those with INDEFINITE and those with DEFINITE reference.

(a) Interrogative pronouns referring to persons:

INDEFINITE: *Who* is your favourite conductor?
DEFINITE: *Which* is your favourite conductor? (Von Karajan or Stokowsky?)

(b) Interrogative pronouns not referring to persons:

INDEFINITE: *What*'s the name of this tune?
DEFINITE: *Which* do you prefer? (Classical or popular music?)

(c) Interrogative determiners with personal nouns:

INDEFINITE: *What* conductor do you like best?
DEFINITE: *Which* conductor do you like best? (Von Karajan or Stokowsky?)

(d) Interrogative determiners with nonpersonal nouns:

INDEFINITE: *What* newspaper do you read?
DEFINITE: *Which* newspaper do you read? (*The Times* or *The Guardian*?)

In these pairs, *which* implies that the choice is made from a limited number of alternatives which exist in the context of discussion. The alternatives may be made explicit (as they are by the words in parentheses in the above examples), or they may be implicit. Thus a speaker who asks the question [1] assumes that there is a definite set of dictionaries from which a choice can be made:

Which is the best English dictionary? [1]

A person looking at an old photograph may say *Which is you?*, asking for the

identification of one member of the definite set of persons in the picture. Sometimes the relevant definite set is indicated by a following *of*-phrase, as in [2]:

Which of the three girls is the oldest? [2]

Note [a] The definite meaning of *which* is reflected in the fact that the definite article could not be omitted from [2] above:
**Which of three girls . . .?*
[b] In this and in the following sections, we illustrate the interrogative pronouns by their use in direct questions. However, they can equally well occur in subordinate *wh*-interrogative clauses. Compare [3] and [3a]:
What was she wearing? I don't remember. [3]
I don't remember *what she was wearing*. [3a]
[c] The indefinite interrogatives *what*, *who*, and *whose* can be postmodified by *else* (*cf* 7.69):
What else? *Who else?*
[d] We can select *who* or *what* rather than *which* even in cases where the number of alternatives is strictly limited by the context:
Who/Which do you like best – your father or your mother?
What/Which will it be – tea or coffee?
Conversely, *which* can be used when there is no limited set of alternatives from which a choice is made:
After all, *which* American has not heard of someone who, a few days after his or her annual check-up, suffered a heart attack?

Who, whom, and *whose*

6.38 The interrogative determiners *what* and *which* can be personal or nonpersonal:

What / *Which* { *candidate* will you vote for? / *party* are you in favour of?

But the interrogative pronouns *who* and *whom* are personal only:

Who told you where I was? *Who(m)* do you admire most?

In objective use, *who* is informal and *whom* is formal. The distinction is parallel to that between *who* and *whom* as relative pronouns (*cf* 6.35). Similarly, interrogative *whom* functions like relative *whom*, except that interrogative *whom* strikes most people as even more formal than relative *whom*.

As a prepositional complement, only *whom* can normally follow the preposition, as in [1], whereas both *who* and *whom* can take initial position, as in [1a], leaving the preposition deferred at the end of the clause (*cf* 9.6):

For whom is she working? (BUT NOT: **For who* is she working?) [1]
Who(m) is she working *for*? [1a]

As the possessive form of *who*, *whose* can occur in either a determinative function, as in [2], or an independent function, as in [2a] (*cf* 5.124):

Whose jacket is this? [2]
Whose is this jacket? [2a]

But, unlike relative *whose*, interrogative *whose* cannot have nonpersonal reference. For example, we can say *That ship's funnel was damaged*, but we cannot ask a question with *whose* for which *That ship's* would be an

appropriate answer (even though ships are typically referred to as *she*; *cf* 5.111 Note):

A: *Whose* funnel was damaged? B: **That ship's*.

Note [a] *Who* has both singular and plural reference, but when neither is explicit in the linguistic context, singular concord is the unmarked term. Thus, even though several voices are heard outside, the natural question will be *Who's there?* rather than ?**Who're there?*
[b] When *who* occurs in noninitial position in clause structure (*cf* 11.19), the objective use of *who* is acceptable colloquially even after a preposition:
History is written *about who*? Who sleeps *with who*?
In contrast to these, there is a tendency towards hypercorrection in the replacement of *who* by *whom* in noninitial position:
A: Janet was at the party. B: (?)Janet *whom*?

What and *which*

6.39 *What* and *which* can also occur in prepositional complements with the preposition either in initial or in final (deferred) position; but with an initial preposition, the construction is formal and rather rare:

What are you talking *about*? [1]
On what is he lecturing? ⟨formal⟩ [1a]
Which (girl) are you talking *about*? [2]
On which of the topics is he lecturing? ⟨formal⟩ [2a]

What has a wide range of use, either as a determiner or as a pronoun, and either with personal or with nonpersonal reference:

A: *What's* your address? B: (It's) 18 Reynolds Close.
A: { *What* nationality is she? / *What* is her nationality? } B: (She's) Finnish.
A: *What* date is it? B: (It's) the 15th of March.
A: *What*'s the time? B: (It's) five o'clock.
A: *What* is he doing? B: (He's) mending the phone.
A: *What* was the concert like? B: (It was) excellent.

When it refers to a person, however, *what* as a pronoun is limited to questions about profession, role, status, etc. Contrast:

A: *What*'s her husband?
B: He's a film director. [3]
A: *Which* is her husband?
B: He's the man on the right smoking a pipe. [3a]
A: *Who* is her husband?
B: He's Paul Jones, the famous art critic. [3b]

In this last function in [3], *what* elicits an identificatory noun phrase as complement, and so it is the interrogative counterpart of relative *which* (*cf* 6.34 Note [b]) and of the personal pronoun *it* (*cf* 6.17 Note [b]) in corresponding contexts.

Note Interrogative pronouns do not accept modification or determination, except for the occurrence of intensifying postmodifiers *What ever . . .?*, *Who on earth . . .?* (*cf* 11.14 Note [b]).

Demonstrative pronouns

6.40 The demonstrative pronouns *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* exactly match the form of the four demonstrative determiners (*cf* 5.14). With the demonstratives, as with the interrogatives, we shall find it convenient to consider together the uses of the determiners and of the pronouns.

The demonstratives have number contrast in both determiners and pronouns. They also have a contrast between 'near' and 'distant' reference:

Table 6.40 Demonstrative pronouns

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
'NEAR' REFERENCE	*this* (student)	*these* (students)
'DISTANT' REFERENCE	*that* (student)	*those* (students)

Like the definite article and the personal pronouns, demonstratives have definite meaning, and therefore their reference depends on the context shared by speaker/writer and hearer/reader. Also, in the same way, their use may be considered under the headings of SITUATIONAL reference (reference to the extralinguistic situation), ANAPHORIC reference (coreference to an earlier part of the discourse), and CATAPHORIC reference (coreference to a later part of the discourse). As before, we will call the part of the text to which coreference is made the ANTECEDENT.

First, however, let us consider the purely grammatical aspects of the demonstratives.

Number and gender

6.41 The singular demonstratives *this* and *that* are used for both count and noncount meaning:

This {*room* / *water*} is too cold. *That* {*loaf* / *bread*} is stale.

Both the singular and the plural pronouns can be used as pro-forms as substitutes for a noun phrase (*cf* 12.19):

This chair is more comfortable than *that*. [= *that chair*] [1]
Those apples are sweeter than *these*. [= *these apples*] [2]

The same meaning is conveyed by the demonstrative followed by *one(s)* (*cf* 6.55):

This chair is more comfortable than *that one*. [1a]
Those apples are sweeter than *these ones*. [2a]

In addition, the pronouns can refer to some unspecified object(s):

Come and have a look at *this*. ['this thing, this substance', etc]
Have you heard *this*? ['this piece of news, this joke', etc]
Leave *that* alone! ['that thing, that machine', etc]
Can I borrow *these*? ['these books, these screwdrivers', etc]

But especially in this use, the pronouns are nonpersonal. Thus instead of [3],

which would be an insult (as if the person indicated is not human), we would have to say [3a]:

?Is she going to marry *THÂT*? [3]
Is she going to marry *THÂT man*? [3a]

Instead of [4] we would have to say [4a]:

*Come and meet *these* over here. [4]
Come and meet *these people* over here. [4a]

An exception to this is the introductory use of a demonstrative pronoun as subject of a clause; in this position the pronoun can have both personal and nonpersonal reference:

This is Mrs Jones. [introducing an acquaintance]
That's my stepmother. [pointing to a photograph]
Are *these* the students who have registered? [pointing to a list of names]
This is Sid. Is *that* Geoff? [on the telephone]

Note *That* refers to degree or measurement in contexts such as:
My brother is six feet tall, but yours must be even taller than *that*. ['taller than six feet']
In spite of appearances, therefore, such examples are not exceptions to the rule that, as a pronoun, *that* does not have personal reference (except in subject position; *cf* 12.19).

Modification and determination

6.42 The demonstrative pronouns are limited as to determination and modification. Like the demonstrative determiners (*cf* 5.14), they can be preceded by predeterminers, but the *of*-construction is often preferred:

All (*of*) *this* is mine.
Could you give me *half* (*of*) *that*?
Would you like *both* (*of*) *these*?
All (*of*) *those* are sold.

They are sometimes postmodified by place adverbials: *these over here*, etc. They can also be postmodified by restrictive relative clauses and other restrictive modifiers:

Those who try hard deserve to succeed. [1]

These watches are more expensive than *those* {*which* / *that* / ( )} *we saw in New York*. [2]

{*That which* / *What*} *upsets me most* is his manner. [3]

Of these, *those* is personal ['the people'] in [1], and nonpersonal in [2], like *that* in [3]. In fact, *that which* . . . is rare and formal, and is generally replaced by *what*.

There is no personal singular **that who* . . ., but other constructions are used instead, *eg*: *anyone who* . . ., *the person who* . . . ; *he who* . . . and *she who* . . . are archaic (*cf* 6.20).

Note [a] On the use of *that* and *those* as substitute forms ('the one, the ones'), as in the following example, *cf* 12.19:

The song by Schubert is more tuneful than *that* by Britten.

[b] The determiner *those* loses its deictic quality (*cf* 6.43) in cases like [4] where it is an emphatic equivalent of cataphoric *the* (*cf* 5.32):

Those memories which we acquire in early childhood rarely lose their vividness. [4]

Situational reference

6.43 When the demonstratives refer to the extralinguistic situation, they are often compared with other DEICTIC or 'pointing' items, which also contrast in terms of 'near' and 'distant' reference:

here ~ *there*, *now* ~ *then*, *today* ~ *yesterday/tomorrow*, etc

In the simplest cases, *this* and *that* contrast in terms of the nearness of the referent to the speaker:

This is my friend Charlie Brown. [introducing someone]
That is my friend Charlie Brown. [pointing out someone in a crowd]

The measurement of spatial proximity is a matter of psychological rather than real distance. It can easily be extended to the more abstract sphere of time:

this morning ['the morning of today']
that morning ['the morning of a day some time ago']

It can be extended to an even more abstract and subjective level of interpretation:

Have you seen *this report* on smoking?
['the one I have recently been thinking about'] [1]
Have you seen *that report* on smoking?
['the one I was looking at some time ago'] [2]

In practice, however, [1] and [2] could occur in the same situation, the only difference being the speaker's subjective concept of 'nearness'.

In reference to time, *this* is typically associated with 'what is before us', and *that* with 'what is behind us'. Hence with reference to days and months, *this Friday* or *this September* means 'the Friday/September to come' (*cf* 9.40). Also, a person about to demonstrate some skill, such as using a can opener, could say [3], but after the demonstration is finished, [4] would be more appropriate:

This is how you do it. [3]
That's how you do it. [4]

Another extension of the near/distant polarity is for *that* to imply dislike or disapproval:

Janet is coming. I hope she doesn't bring *that* husband of hers.
She's awful, *that* Mabel.

Note [a] In this connection, notice a familiar use (considered nonstandard by some speakers) of *this/these* to introduce some new thing or person into a narrative:

There were *these* three men . . .
Then I saw *this* girl . . .
I was walking home when *this* man came up to me and said . . .

Uncharacteristically *this* introduces new information here, instead of referring back to shared information, as is usual. One sign is the occurrence of *this* as a focus of a clause with existential *there* (*cf* 18.44*ff*) in a typical beginning of a joke, *eg*:

There was *this* man/place . . .

[b] On the other hand, *that/those* are used informally to 'point back' in a vague way to some shared experience:

I used to enjoy *those* enormous hotel breakfasts.
It gives you *that* great feeling of clean air and open spaces. ['the feeling we all know about']

Anaphoric and cataphoric reference

6.44 The anaphoric and cataphoric uses of the demonstratives are extensions of their situational use.

ANAPHORIC:
I hear you disliked his latest novel. I read his first novel, and *that* was boring, too.
He asked for his brown raincoat, insisting that *this* was his usual coat during the winter months.

CATAPHORIC
He told the story like *this*: 'Once upon a time . . .' [1]

The 'near' demonstratives *this/these* can have both anaphoric and cataphoric reference, while the 'distant' demonstratives *that/those* can have only anaphoric reference. The following is therefore decidedly odd (but *cf* Note [a]):

?He told the story like *that*: 'Once upon a time . . .' [1a]

The antecedent of a demonstrative may be either a noun phrase or a larger segment of discourse, *viz* a clause, sentence, or sequence of sentences. We call this larger segment a 'sentential antecedent':

They will probably win the match. *That* will please my mother.
Many years ago their wives quarrelled over some trivial matter, long forgotten. But one word led to another, and the quarrel developed into a permanent rupture between them. *That*'s why the two men never visit each other's houses.
This should interest you, if you're keen on boxing. The world heavyweight championship is going to be held in Chicago next June, so you should be able to watch it there live.

Anaphoric and cataphoric reference can also be illustrated with demonstrative determiners:

I longed to play the piano when I was a child; but in *those days* my parents could not afford an instrument.
These language options are open to our students: Spanish, French, and German.

Note [a] In very limited contexts, *eg* in expressions of indignation, *that* can be used cataphorically:

What do you think of THAT! Bob smashes up my car, and then expects me to pay for the repairs.

[b] *Such* as a pro-form is similar to the demonstratives. It can have anaphoric reference both as a pronoun and as a predeterminer:

No one in his senses would dream of taking an innocent maiden aunt (if *such* exist) to Seneca's *Medea*. It is doubtful, indeed, if *such* plays should be performed at all on the modern stage. ['. . . if *innocent maiden aunts* exist'], ['. . . if plays *such as Seneca's Medea* . . .'.] [1]

In [1], *such* occurs first as a pronoun and second as a predeterminer. In [2], *such* has a whole sentence as its antecedent, and could be replaced by *this* or *that* with virtually no change of meaning:

If officialdom makes mistakes, officialdom deserves to suffer. *Such*, at least, was Mr Boyd's opinion. [2]

The anaphoric pronoun *such* can also occur after indefinite determiners such as *all*, *few*, and *many* (*cf* 5.15 Note) in rather rare and restricted use:

Some reactions to the proposal may be hostile, but { there will surely not be *many such*. / ?we can afford to ignore *any such*. / **no such* have yet been reported. } [3]

As [3] shows, the acceptability of this construction varies according to the determiner which precedes *such*. For the unacceptable **no such*, postmodification of *none* by *such* is an acceptable alternative:

. . . but *none such* { has / have } yet been reported.

Indefinite pronouns

6.45 The remaining classes of pronouns are termed INDEFINITE: they lack the element of definiteness which is found in the personal, reflexive, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns, and to some extent also in the *wh*-pronouns. Although they are themselves indefinite, however, these pronouns can sometimes combine with elements of definite meaning, such as the definite article: *the ones*, *the few*, *the other*, etc. The indefinite pronouns are, in a logical sense, QUANTITATIVE: they have universal or partitive meaning, and correspond closely to determiners of the same or of similar form (*cf* 5.14). See *Table* 6.45 opposite for a list of the main ones.

Compound pronouns

6.46 The indefinite pronouns divide into two main categories according to their morphology and their syntactic behaviour. The COMPOUND PRONOUNS are those which are composed of two morphemes, *viz* a determiner morpheme *every-*, *some-*, *any-*, or *no-*, and a nominal morpheme *-one*, *-body*, or *-thing*. The remaining indefinite pronouns belong to a category which we shall call OF-PRONOUNS, because they can be followed by a partitive *of*-phrase: *many* (*of*), *some* (*of*), etc.

The compound pronouns in *Table* 6.46a opposite are divided into four classes (universal, assertive, nonassertive, and negative) corresponding to the four classes in *Table* 6.45.

The twelve compound pronouns are perfectly regular in their formation, the only anomalies being the spelling of *no one* as two words, and the pronunciation of *nothing* with the vowel /ʌ/ rather than /əʊ/.

The pairs of pronouns with personal reference (*eg*: *everybody*, *everyone*) are equivalent in function and meaning but the pronouns in *-one* are regarded

Table 6.45 Major indefinite pronouns and determiners

	NUMBER	FUNCTION	COUNT: personal	COUNT: nonpersonal	NONCOUNT
UNIVERSAL	singular	pronoun	*everyone* *everybody*	*everything*	(it (. . .)) *all*
			each		
		determiner	*every* *each*		*all*
	plural	pronoun	(they (. . .)) *all/both*		
		determiner	*all/both*		
ASSERTIVE	singular	pronoun	*someone* *somebody*	*something*	*some*
		determiner	*a(n)*		
	plural	pronoun and determiner	*some*		
NONASSERTIVE	singular	pronoun	*anyone* *anybody*	*anything*	*any*
		determiner	*either* *any*		
	plural	pronoun and determiner	*any*		
NEGATIVE	singular	pronoun	*no one* *nobody*	*nothing*	*none*
			none		
		pronoun and determiner	*neither*		
	plural	pronoun	*none*		
	singular or plural	determiner	*no*		

Table 6.46a Compound pronouns

	PERSONAL REFERENCE		NONPERSONAL REFERENCE
UNIVERSAL	*everybody*	*everyone*	*everything*
ASSERTIVE	*somebody*	*someone*	*something*
NONASSERTIVE	*anybody*	*anyone*	*anything*
NEGATIVE	*nobody*	*no one*	*nothing*

as more elegant than those in *-body*. All the compound pronouns are singular, and have concord with a singular verb even though notionally they may denote more than one thing or person:

Everybody / *Everyone* } over eighteen now has a vote.

I tried *everything* but *nothing* works.

Somebody / *Someone* } was telling me you've been to America.

Has { *anybody* / *anyone* } got anything to say?

There was { *nobody* / *no one* } at the office.

On the use of the plural in coreference to compound pronouns (*eg*: *Everybody has their off days*), *cf* 10.43.

Note [a] The frequencies of compound pronouns with *any-*, *every-*, and *some-* that have personal reference are as follows in the LOB and Brown corpora of printed BrE and AmE, respectively:

Table 6.46b Frequencies of compound pronouns with *any-*, *every-*, and *some-*

	BrE	AmE
anybody	32	42
anyone	141	140
everybody	33	72
everyone	106	94
somebody	27	57
someone	117	94

The table shows that, in both corpora, the compounds in *-one* are consistently more frequent than the corresponding compounds in *-body*; but also that compounds in *-body* are more frequent, and compounds in *-one* are less frequent, in AmE than in BrE.

[b] The compound pronouns are pronounced with initial stress, and are thereby minimally distinct in speech from combinations of a determiner and an independent word *body*, *one*, or *thing*. We must be careful, therefore, to distinguish pronouns from the superficially similar sequences of determiner + head: the pronoun *'no one* from *no 'one*, as in *no 'one answer* ['no single answer']; the pronoun *'everyone* from *every 'one*, as in *every 'one of the students*; and the pronoun *'everybody* ['any person'] from *every 'body*, as in *Every (human) body needs vitamins.*

6.47 The compound pronouns are the least problematic of the indefinite pronouns, since they behave in general like noun phrases of very general meaning:

everybody, *everyone* ['all people']
everything ['all things', 'all matter']

There is no pronoun corresponding to the universal singular determiner *every*. In nominal functions, the determiner combines with the pronoun *one* (with the stress pattern *every 'one* or *'every 'one*):

Every 'one of us will be present.
We played several matches against the visitors, but unfortunately lost *every 'one*.

To emphasize the all-inclusive meaning, *single* is inserted: '(We lost) *every single one*'.

Unlike *every 'one*, which has both personal and nonpersonal reference, the compound pronoun *'everyone* (with stress on the first syllable) can refer only to persons:

I want { *'everyone* / *'everybody* } to feel at home.

To the compound pronouns of personal gender we can add the singular genitive ending *'s*:

This will put *everyone's* mind at rest.
Could you borrow *anybody's* overcoat?
There's *somebody's* glove on the floor.
It was absolutely *nobody's* fault.

A postmodifier *else* can be added to the compound pronouns. Its meaning is illustrated by these paraphrases (*cf* 7.69):

everyone 'else ['every other person']
nobody 'else ['no other person']
anything 'else ['any other thing']

The genitive ending is added to *else*, and not to the pronoun itself (*cf* 'group genitive', 5.123):

I must be drinking *someone else's* coffee.
(NOT: **someone's else* coffee)
His hair is longer than *anybody else's*.
(NOT: **anybody's else*)

In addition, the compound pronoun can be postmodified freely by normal restrictive noun-phrase postmodifiers (*cf* 17.9*ff*), such as prepositional phrases and relative clauses:

somebody *I know*	something *for dinner*
everyone (*that*) *you meet*	anything *made of silver*

The compound pronouns cannot be premodified by adjectives (**new nothing*), but instead, adjectival modification is added after the pronoun (*cf* 17.57):

somebody *very tall*
nothing *new*
something *nice for dinner*
anyone *kinder and more considerate than Janice*

Of-pronouns

6.48 The remaining indefinite pronouns, here called OF-PRONOUNS (*cf Table* 6.48 over page) are distinguished by the following characteristics:

(a) They can be followed by a partitive *of*-phrase:

Some *of us* were tired and hungry.

(b) They can be used as substitutes for noun phrases or other nominal constructions:

Many children learn to read quite quickly, but *some* [= *some children*] need special instruction.

On the classification of pronouns as substitutes, *cf* 12.10*ff*.

(c) They are all (with the exception of *none*) identical in form to the corresponding determiner (*cf* 5.14).

Table 6.48 Indefinite pronouns which take the partitive *of*-construction

	COUNT		NONCOUNT
	singular	plural	singular
UNIVERSAL (6.49–51)	*all* (*of*) *each* (*of*)	*all* (*of*) *both* (*of*)	*all* (*of*)
ASSERTIVE (i) *some* (6.52)	*some* (*of*)	*some* (*of*)	*some* (*of*)
(ii) multal (6.53)		*many* (*of*) *more* (*of*) *most* (*of*)	*much* (*of*) *more* (*of*) *most* (*of*)
(iii) paucal (6.53)		*a few* (*of*) *fewer*/*less* (*of*) *fewest*/*least* (*of*)	*a little* (*of*) *less* (*of*) *least* (*of*)
(iv) *one* (6.54–56)	*one* (*of*)	(*ones*)	
NONASSERTIVE (6.59–61)	*any* (*of*) *either* (*of*)	*any* (*of*)	*any* (*of*)
NEGATIVE (6.62)	*none* (*of*) *neither* (*of*)	*none* (*of*) *few* (*of*)	*none* (*of*) *little* (*of*)

Note All the *of*-pronouns can be interpreted as substitutes; but in addition, some of them can be used without the *of*-construction to refer to people in general. The following famous quotations from earlier English illustrate this use, which today is somewhat literary and archaic:

Many are called, but *few* are chosen. [*St Matthew's Gospel*]

Some are born great, *some* achieve greatness, and *some* have greatness thrust upon them. [Shakespeare, *Twelfth Night*]

In each case the meaning can be elucidated by inserting *people*: *some* = 'some people', etc.

Universal pronouns

6.49 Our plan now is to look at each of the categories of compound pronouns and *of*-pronouns in turn, beginning with the UNIVERSAL pronouns. With each

category, we shall draw attention to parallels between pronouns and determiners.

The relation of universal pronouns to their determiners is shown in *Table* 6.49. The compound pronouns *everyone*, *everybody*, and *everything* have already been discussed (*cf* 6.46*f*).

Table 6.49 Universal pronouns

		COUNT		NONCOUNT
		personal	nonpersonal	nonpersonal
SINGULAR	pronoun	*everyone* *everybody*	*everything*	*all* (?*everything*)
		all *each*		
	determiner	*every* *each* } boy/pen		*all* ((of) the furniture)
PLURAL	pronoun and determiner	*all* *both* } ((of) the boys/pens)		

All and *both*

6.50 *All* is used with plural nouns for quantities of more than two, and *both* is used with plural nouns for quantities of two only (dual number):

The club is open to people of *both sexes* and *all nationalities*.
Both (*of*) *his parents* died young.
All (*of*) *the children* were working hard.

When *all* and *both* are followed by a determiner such as *the* (but not by the zero article: **all of boys*), there is a choice between the insertion of *of* and its omission:

All (*of*)
Both (*of*) } *the boys* want to become football players.

Technically, *all* or *both* is a pronoun when followed by *of*, and a predeterminer when followed by another determiner (*cf* 5.15*ff*).

All, unlike *both*, can also be followed by a singular count noun, as in [1], or by a noncount noun, as in [2]:

His action was condemned by *all* (*of*) *the civilized world*. [1]
All (*of*) *that money* you gave them has been spent. [2]

Before a singular count noun, however, *all* is somewhat formal, and is frequently replaced by a construction with *whole* as an adjective or noun:

The whole (*of the*) *civilized world* denounced the invasion.

Similarly, *both the boys* can be replaced by *the two boys* or *both boys*.

Unless followed by the *of*-phrase, *all* and *both* follow a personal pronoun rather than precede it:

All of us / *We all* } like Peter.

I've met { *both of them* / *them both* } before.

When *all*, *both*, and *each* (*cf* 5.16) are postposed in this way, and apply to the subject, they appear in the position of a medial adverb (*cf* 8.16). According to the rules for adverb placement, this means that they occur immediately after the subject if there is no operator [3], otherwise after the operator [4, 5]:

They { *all* / *both* } *won* their matches. [3]

We were { *all* / *both* } { fast asleep. / working. } [4]

The villages have { *all* / *both* } *been* destroyed. [5]

As [5] shows, the postposed universal pronoun may also occur after a nonpronominal noun phrase as subject. In other positions in the sentence, however, the postposed pronoun occurs immediately after its head, and the head can only be a personal pronoun:

They told { *us* / **the men* } { *all* / *both* / *each* } to wait.

Note [a] Used alone, *all* can be equivalent to *everything*:

All / *Everything* } is not lost.

In this sense, *all* can be preceded by a possessive pronoun:

He gave *his all*. ['everything he had']

[b] *All* can be premodified by degree adverbials and by modifiers of negative implication: *nearly all*, (*not*) *quite all*, *not all*, *by no means all*, etc.

[c] *Both* is intrinsically definite, and in this differs from the cardinal numeral *two*, even when it is not followed by the definite article:

Both / ?*Two of* } *her eyes* were closed. *Both* / ?*Two* } *eyes* were closed.

The statements containing *two* do not make sense when applied to an individual person, because they imply that there are more than two eyes in question. But determiner + unstressed *two* + noun can be used in:

Her two eyes were like saucers.

Compare also:

the/my/these two boys It was just *the two of us*.

Each and *every*

6.51 Words like *each*, *every*, and the compounds with *every-* can be termed DISTRIBUTIVE, because they pick out the members of a set singly, rather than considering them in the mass. They are therefore singular in number. Apart from this difference, *each* and *every* as determiners are often equivalent to *all*:

All good teachers study *their* subject carefully. [1]

Every / *Each* } good teacher studies *his* subject carefully. [1a]

(On the use of *his* in [1a], *cf* 6.9.)

All, *each*, and *every one* can also be equivalent in a pronominal function, except that *each* (unlike *every one* and *all*) can refer to just two people or things:

Several cars arrived.

{ *Each* (*one*) *of them* was mud-stained. [2]
Every one of them was mud-stained. [2a]
All of them were mud-stained. [2b] }

There is also a noticeable difference between [3] and [3a, 3b]:

All (*of*) *the girls* [3]
Each one of the girls } received a magnificent prize. [3a]
Every one of the girls [3b]

While [3] might mean that the girls shared a single prize, [3a] and [3b] both mean that there were as many prizes as girls. Note that *each* as a pronoun [4] is equivalent to *each* as a determiner followed by *one* [4a], and to *each* as a determiner followed by a noun [4b]:

Each of the states [4]
Each one of the states } has its own flag. [4a]
Each state [4b]

Note [a] The distributive use of *each* is further discussed in reference to coordination in 13.61. On concord with *each*, *cf* 10.37 Note [b].

[b] All of the quantitative pronouns have a distributive use (*cf* 10.47), as in [5]; usually the plural has the same meaning and is preferred to the singular, as in [5a]:

All the children have *their own bicycle*. [5]
All the children have *their own bicycles*. ['one bicycle for each'] [5a]

Assertive pronouns

The *some* series

6.52 The term ASSERTIVE applies to pronouns and determiners which are associated with 'assertive territory' rather than 'nonassertive territory' (*cf* 2.53*ff*). The clearest case of this distinction is to be found in the contrast between *some* and *any*, and between their corresponding compound pronouns *somebody*, *anybody*, etc (*cf* 6.46).

Some as a determiner [1, 2] and as a pronoun [1a, 2a] occurs most typically with plural and noncount nouns:

Some rolls have been eaten. [1]
Some bread has been eaten. [2]
Some (of the *rolls*) have been eaten. [1a]
Some (of the *bread*) has been eaten. [2a]

In these examples, *some* as a plural form contrasts with *one*, which is singular (*cf* 6.54*ff*):

One / **Some* } of the rolls has been eaten.

But as a determiner, *some* also occurs with singular count nouns, especially temporal nouns:

"*Some 'day*, I'll tell you a great secret. ['one day']
They've been staying in the village for '*some "time*.

With other singular nouns, *some* is less usual, and has the meaning 'a certain' or 'some . . . or other':

Did you see *some strange man* (or other) looking over the hedge?
I hear that *some rare animal* (or other) has escaped from the zoo.

The addition of *or other* underlines the indefinite or 'unknown' quality of the referent.

Some of followed by a singular count noun is used in a partitive sense:

Some of the loaf has been eaten. ['part of the loaf']

Note [a] On *some* as a substitute pronoun, *cf* 12.17*f*.
[b] *Or other* can also be added to compounds beginning with *some-*:
It's time you got *somebody or other* to help you.
[c] Especially in AmE, *some* is strongly stressed with a singular count noun in exclamatory sentences such as:
That was "*some 'meal*! ['a very good meal'] ⟨very informal⟩
[d] On unstressed *some* in comparison with zero article, *cf* 5.39*f*.

Multal and paucal quantifiers

6.53 The multal and paucal group of pronouns, with their matching postdeterminers (*cf* 5.23), are antonyms with a similar distribution. *Many* ['a large number'] contrasts with *a few* ['a small number'], and *much* ['a large amount'] contrasts with *a little* ['a small amount']:

I know { *many* / *a few* } people in Boston.

Many / *A few* } (of my friends) were there.

I have eaten { too *much* / *a little* } (of the food).

Much has been said about the cost of medicine.

Much and, to a lesser extent, *many* have acquired some nonassertive force (*cf* 10.61 Note [b]), with the result that they are rarely used, at least in informal English, without some negative or interrogative implication. Sentences like [1] are uncharacteristic of modern idiomatic English, and there is a preference for open-class quantifiers such as *a great deal* (*of*), as in [1a]:

We have endured { ?*much*. [1] / *a great deal*. [1a]

Similarly, rather than [2] with *many*, informal English shows a preference for [2a] with *plenty of* and *a lot of* (*cf* 5.25):

She has { *many* good ideas. [2] / *plenty of* / *a lot of* } good ideas. [2a]

As postdeterminer and substitute pronoun, *many* can be preceded by the definite article:

the many dangers we face

The quantifier is followed in this construction by a restrictive relative clause; the quantifier itself, however, has the meaning of a nonrestrictive modifier, so that [3] can be paraphrased as [3a]:

I am well aware of *the many dangers (that) we face*. [3]
I am well aware of the dangers we face – and there are many of them. [3a]

These quantifiers are gradable, and can be accompanied by degree adverbs such as *very, too, so, as, enough*. Notice that *quite* precedes the indefinite article in *quite a few* ['a considerable number'], but that *very* follows it in *a very few*:

A: Have you seen (*very*) *many* houses for sale?

B: { Yes, I've seen *quite a few*.
(BUT NOT: **quite many*, **quite several*)
No, I've seen *only a very few*. }

There are also comparative and superlative forms as shown in *Table* 6.53. As

Table 6.53 Comparative and superlative forms of multal and paucal quantifiers

	MULTAL		PAUCAL	
	count	noncount	count	noncount
ABSOLUTE	*many*	*much*	*a few*	*a little*
COMPARATIVE	*more*		*fewer* (*less*)	*less*
SUPERLATIVE	*most*		*fewest* (*least*)	*least*

in the case of determiner function (*cf* 5.24), there are prescriptive objections against the use of *less* and *least* with plural nouns. Yet they are widely used in informal English. Hence alongside *fewer changes* and *less noise*, the table allows for the possibility of *less changes*. Examples:

There used to be *more* women than men in the country,
but now there are { *fewer*. / *less*. }

Most of us enjoy reading.

The is optionally added to *most* in the sense 'the greatest number (of)' (*cf* 7.84):

In this constituency, the Labour Party often polls (*the*) *most votes*, and the Tory Party (*the*) *fewest/least*. But this time, the Tories had *more success than usual*.

Note [a] We keep *a few* and *a little* distinct from *few* and *little*, which are dealt with in 6.62.
[b] *Many*, like *few* (*cf* 6.62), has a predicative use ['numerous'] in formal and literary English (*cf* 5.23 Note [c]):
His sins were *many*, and his friends were *few*.
[c] The absolute forms *many/much* and *a few/a little* can precede the comparative forms *more*, *fewer*, and *less* in the comparison of different totals or amounts:

We have had { *many* {*more* / *fewer*} (*apples*) / *a few more* (*plums*) / *much less* (*rain*) } this year than last year.

One

(a) Numerical *one*

6.54 *One* in its numerical sense fits into the list of indefinite pronouns at this point; but it is a versatile word with a number of different functions, which can conveniently be considered together. Three types of pronoun *one* can be distinguished morphologically:

(a) NUMERICAL *ONE*	(b) SUBSTITUTE *ONE*	(c) GENERIC *ONE*
one	*one, ones*	*one, one's, oneself*

Fig 6.54 Three types of the pronoun *one*

The cardinal numeral *one* is, naturally enough, singular and count. It is invariable, but can occur, like other cardinals, either as a determiner or as the head of a noun phrase:

DETERMINATIVE FUNCTION	HEAD FUNCTION
(*the*) *one* / *a* } boy/pen	*one of the* boys/pens

One can be the stressed equivalent of the indefinite article (*cf* 5.38), and is also the singular equivalent of the indefinite pronoun *some* in a context like this:

I've made some cakes. Would you LIKE { *one* / *some* } (of them)?

One also occurs in contrast to *the other* or *another* in correlative constructions. *One* (or *the one*) . . . *the other* is used with reference to two:

I saw two suspicious-looking men. (*The*) *one* went this way, *the other* that.
One of his eyes is better than *the other*.

One . . . *another* or *one* . . . *the other* is used with reference to more than two:

We overtook *one* car after { *another.* / *the other.* }

I've been busy with *one* thing or *another*.

There is an adverbial use of these correlatives in the construction *one* + preposition + *another* [1] or, more usually, preposition + the reciprocal pronoun *one another* [1a], or *one* + preposition + *the other* [1b]:

They talked { *one with another.* ⟨literary⟩ [1] / *with one another.* [1a] }

She stacked the books *one on top of the other.* [1b]

Note On the use of *one* meaning 'a certain' before a name, *eg*: *one Charlie Brown*, *cf* 5.63 Note [b].

(b) Substitute *one*

6.55 The substitute pronoun *one* has the plural *ones*, and is used as a substitute for a count noun, or for an equivalent nominal expression (*cf* 12.15*f*):

A: I'm looking for a book on grammar.
B: Is this *the one* you mean? ['the book on grammar']
A: Yes, I'd like a drink, but just *a small one*. ['a small drink']
B: I thought you preferred *large ones*. ['large drinks']

Substitute *one* can be easily combined with determiners and modifiers:

those ones I like *the old one* in the kitchen

However, it is only exceptionally that *one* immediately follows the indefinite article: *a one*. *One* alone is used as a substitute for *a/an* + noun:

I'm having *a drink*. Would you like *one* too? ['a drink']

Note [a] *A one* as a numeral can occur when *one* is used as a noun:
I couldn't make out whether the number was a seven or *a one*. ['a number one']
[b] The indefinite article with *one* is also heard more widely in casual speech, as in [1], in the sense of exclamatory 'a single one'; and, as in [2], in coy nonstandard usage in the sense of 'an amusing person':
I had lots of pencils, and now I haven't got *a one*! [1]
You are *a one*! [2]

(c) Generic *one*

6.56 Generic *one* occurs chiefly in the singular and with personal gender. It has the genitive *one's* and the reflexive *oneself* (*cf* 6.23). The meaning of generic *one* is 'people in general', often with particular reference to the speaker, *eg*:

I like to dress nicely. It gives *one* confidence. [1]

The use of generic *one* is chiefly formal, and is often replaced colloquially by *you* (*cf* 6.21):

One would / *You'd* } think they would run a later bus than that! [2]

In AmE, the coreferential use of *one* (or genitive *one's* or reflexive *oneself*) is characteristically formal, *he/his/himself* being preferred in regular usage:

One must be careful about { *one's* investments. ⟨esp BrE⟩ / *his* investments. ⟨esp AmE⟩ }

However, concern over sexual bias (*cf* 6.10) has caused AmE in effect to move towards adoption of the BrE pattern. On the other hand, in both AmE and BrE the use of generic *one* has never occurred in natural informal use. In consequence, people who embark on sequences involving *one* mix the pronoun *one* with those more natural to informal use. Hence discourse in both AmE and BrE may show vacillation, *eg*:

It's difficult if *your* house gets burgled, when *one* is out late at work.

Note Generic *one* does not accept determiners or modifiers:
**The cautious one* can't be too careful, can *the one*?

Half, several, enough

6.57 A miscellaneous group of pronouns may be illustrated at this point. They all have corresponding determiners:

Half (of) *the class/children* were girls.
I've only read *half* (of) *the book*.
We had to wait for *half an hour*.
Several (of my friends) attended the conference.
I have *several books* on folklore.
I've had *enough* (of your tantrums/misbehaviour).
Tom is *enough of a sportsman* to accept defeat gladly.
There is *enough* (of the) *water* to last several weeks.

Several is always plural, and indicates a number slightly greater than *a few*. *Enough* contrasts with *too little* and *too few* (*cf* 15.73). As determiner, it usually occurs in front of the head noun, but can also (rarely) follow it:

There was { *enough* food / food *enough* } to last a whole year.

Note *Half*, normally a predeterminer, as in *half a loaf, half an hour* (*cf* 5.16), also occurs occasionally as a postdeterminer: *a half loaf, a half hour*.

Other and *another*

6.58 *Other* as a postdeterminer follows the other determiners, including quantifiers and (sometimes) numerals (*cf* 5.20*ff*):

all the *other* women	that *other* colour	several *other* trees
her *other* sister	many *other* ideas	two *other* letters

As a pronoun, it can follow the same wide range of determiners; it also occurs in a plural form *others*:

Some people complained, but *others* were more tolerant.
Where are *all the others*? ['people, books', etc]
I have one sock, but I've lost *the other* (one).

Others is used in an absolute sense in:

We should be considerate to *others*. ['other people generally']

Another, although spelt as a single word, is to be considered a fusion of the two words *an* and *other*, or alternatively as a reduced version of *one other*:

I've sold my bicycle and bought *another* (one).
I have a/one sister in New York, and *another* in Canberra.

Apart from its usual meaning, *another* also has an incremental meaning of 'a further' or 'one more':

May I borrow *another* piece of paper? ['an additional piece of paper']

In this sense, *another* can be followed by a numeral and a plural noun:

The farm already has ten cows, but they are buying *another* five (cows). ['five more cows']

Although comparatively rare with the *of*-construction, *other/others* and *another* may be classed with the *of*-pronouns. Examples of their use with this construction are:

Some members of our expedition wanted to climb to the summit, but *others of* us thought it too dangerous.
I saw *another of* those yellow butterflies yesterday.

The genitive of *another* and *other* is rare when the reference is general:

She has { **another's* / *another person's* / *somebody else's* } coat.

We are not interested in { ?*others'* / *other people's* } problems.

But with narrower reference:

Each looked after { *the other's bag*. [two people] / *the others' bags*. [several people] }

Note *Other* and *another* tend to occur as the second item in correlative combinations (*cf* 6.31, 6.54), *eg*:
some people . . . others, the one . . . the other, each . . . other, one . . . other, another.

Nonassertive pronouns

6.59 In addition to the compound pronouns *anybody, anyone*, and *anything*, there are two nonassertive *of*-pronouns *any* and *either*. With reference to the distinction (made in 2.53*ff*) between assertive and nonassertive forms, we can see that there is a parallel between assertive *some* and nonassertive *any*:

Assertive:
Pam bought *some* apples.
Nonassertive, interrogative, positive:
Did Pam buy *any* apples?

Nonassertive, interrogative, negative:
Didn't Pam buy *any* apples?
Nonassertive, negative:
Pam didn't buy *any* apples.

Besides *not*, the negative forms whose scope favours nonassertive forms include for example the following (*cf* 10.60*ff*):

(a) Words negative in form: *never, no, neither, nor*
(b) Words negative in meaning:
  (i) the adverbs and determiners *hardly, little, few, only, seldom*, etc
  (ii) the 'implied negatives' *just, before; fail, prevent; reluctant, hard, difficult*, etc; and comparisons with *too*

Compare the following assertive/nonassertive pairs of sentences:

{ Jean will *always* manage to do *something* useful.
{ Jean will *never* manage to do *anything* useful.

{ There was *a good* chance *somebody* would come.
{ There was *little* chance *anybody* would come.

{ John was *eager* to read *some* (of the) books.
{ John was { *reluctant* / *too lazy* } to read *any* (of the) books.

Some and *any* series

6.60 The main 'superficial' markers of nonassertion are negative, interrogative, and conditional clauses, but it is the underlying or basic meaning of the whole sentence which ultimately conditions the choice of the *some* or the *any* series (*cf* 10.61). For example, in sentence [1], the basic meaning is negative and nonassertive, as appears in the paraphrase [1a]:

Freud contributed more than *anyone* to the understanding of dreams. [1]
Nobody contributed as much to the understanding of dreams as Freud. [1a]

Conversely, *some* is often used in negative, interrogative, and conditional sentences, when the basic meaning is assertive ('positive orientation', *cf* 11.6):

Did { *somebody* / *anybody* } telephone last night?

The difference between these last two can be explained in terms of different presuppositions: *somebody* rather suggests that the speaker expected a telephone call, whereas *anybody* does not. In making an invitation or an offer, it is for the same reason polite to presuppose an acceptance:

Would you like *some* wine?

The following sentences illustrate further the use of the *some* series in superficially nonassertive contexts:

If *someone* were to drop a match here, the house would be on fire in two minutes.
But what if *somebody* decides to break the rules?
Will *somebody* please open the door?
Why don't you ask *some* other question?

Note The primary difference between *some* and *any* is that *some* is specific, though unspecified, while *any* is nonspecific (*cf* 10.60).

Any and *either*

6.61 *Any* is distinguished from *either* in representing a choice between three or more, while *either* limits the choice to two; thus *either*, like *both* (*cf* 6.50) and *neither* (*cf* 6.62), has dual meaning. This difference obtains whether the determiner or the pronoun is used:

I haven't written to { *any of my relatives* / *either of my parents* } about the marriage.

Can you see { *any part* of the roof? / *either end* of the tunnel? }

Any is also used for plural and noncount phrases:

Have you seen *any* (*of the*) *men* working on this site?
Don't spill *any* ((*of the*) *wine*).

On concord of verbs and pronouns with *any*, *cf* 10.42.

Any in its stressed form occurs in 'assertive territory' with the meaning 'it doesn't matter which/who/what'. This is uncommon except (a) where the clause contains a modal auxiliary (especially *will, can*, or *may*), or (b) where the noun phrase introduced by *any* contains restrictive postmodification (especially a relative clause):

He *will* eat *any* kind of vegetables.
Any dog *might* bite a child if teased.
Any offer *would* be better than this.
I advise you to accept *any* offer *you receive*.

The compound pronouns *anybody, anyone*, and *anything* are similarly used:

He *will* eat *anything*.
Anyone who tells lies is punished.

And a parallel use of *either*, where the hearer is offered a choice between two, is exemplified in:

You *can* ask *either* of us to help you.
Either of the other offers *would* be preferable to this.

The following sentences illustrate yet another superficially assertive use of *any*:

Please return *any* overdue books to the library.
We are grateful for *any* aid the public can give.

The meaning of *any* is nonassertive here in that its force is conditional: 'overdue books, if there are any'; 'aid, if any can be given'.

Note *Any* and its compounds can be intensified by the postmodifier *at all*:
Any offer *at all* would be better than this.

Negative pronouns

6.62 Corresponding to the negative determiners *no* and *neither*, the negative pronouns are the *of*-pronouns *none* and *neither*, and the compound pronouns *nobody*, *no one*, and *nothing* (*cf* 6.46). In addition, *few* and *little*, although not morphologically negative, are negative in meaning and in syntactic behaviour. Examples are:

I have received *no* urgent message(s).

None (of the students) {has / have} failed.

Neither {of the accusations / accusation} is true.

That's *none* of your business!

I said *nothing* about it.

{*Nobody* / *No one*} has sent an apology so far.

Neither differs from *no* and *none* as *either* differs from *any*: it is restricted to a set of two people or things, while *none* applies to three or more entities, and *no* to any number.

Few and *little*, as distinct from *a few* and *a little* (*cf* 6.53), are negative quantifiers corresponding to *many* and *much*:

There were *few* visitors at the exhibition. ['not many visitors']
Few of the animals will survive the winter. ['not many of the animals']
They have many supporters, while we have *few*.
There was *little* enthusiasm for the project. ['not much enthusiasm']
Little of the original building remains today. ['not much']
They have plenty of money, but we have comparatively *little*.

Few and *little* may be used attributively following *the* and also predicatively:

What we have is but *little*.	the *little* money I have left
His faults are *few*.	the *few* friends he has

In the attributive construction, *few* follows a determiner such as *the*, *those*, and *what*. The predicative construction is rather literary.

Note [a] On the choice of singular and plural concord with *no*, *neither*, *none*, etc, *cf* 10.42.
[b] The relation between the negative and the nonassertive forms, *eg* the equivalence of *I have none* and *I haven't any*, is discussed in 10.58.
[c] The negative quantifiers *few* and *little* can be intensified by *very*, *extremely*, etc:
extremely few (visitors) *very little* (food)
No, *none*, and the compound negative pronouns, on the other hand, can be intensified by the postmodifiers *at all* and *what(so)ever* (*cf* also 10.62): *none at all*, *nothing at all*, etc:
A: Did she have an excuse for being late? B: *None at all/what(so)ever.*

Numerals

Cardinal and ordinal numerals

6.63 Numerals have both open-class and closed-class characteristics (*cf* 2.42). They can function either as determinatives or as heads in the noun phrase. The numeral system of cardinals (*one*, *two*, etc) and ordinals (*first*, *second*, etc) will be clear from Table 6.63 below:

0 **nought, zero**	
1 **one**	1st **first**
2 **two**	2nd **second**
3 **three**	3rd **third**
4 **four**	4th fourth
5 **five**	5th fifth
6 **six**	6th sixth
7 **seven**	7th seventh
8 **eight**	8th eighth
9 **nine**	9th ninth
10 **ten**	10th tenth
11 **eleven**	11th eleventh
12 **twelve**	12th twelfth
13 **thirteen**	13th thirteenth
14 fourteen	14th fourteenth
15 fifteen	15th fifteenth
16 sixteen	16th sixteenth
17 seventeen	17th seventeenth
18 eighteen	18th eighteenth
19 nineteen	19th nineteenth
20 **twenty**	20th twentieth
21 twenty-one	21st twenty-first
22 twenty-two	22nd twenty-second
23 twenty-three	23rd twenty-third
24 twenty-four	24th twenty-fourth
25 twenty-five	25th twenty-fifth
26 twenty-six	26th twenty-sixth
27 twenty-seven	27th twenty-seventh
28 twenty-eight	28th twenty-eighth
29 twenty-nine	29th twenty-ninth
30 **thirty**	30th thirtieth
40 forty	40th fortieth
50 fifty	50th fiftieth
60 sixty	60th sixtieth
70 seventy	70th seventieth
80 eighty	80th eightieth
90 ninety	90th ninetieth
100 a/one **hundred**	100th (one) hundredth
101 a/one hundred and one	101st (one) hundred and first
102 a/one hundred and two	102nd (one) hundred and second
1,000 a/one **thousand**	1,000th (one) thousandth
1,001 a/one thousand (and) one	1,001st (one) thousand and first
2,000 two thousand	2,000th two thousandth
10,000 ten thousand	10,000th ten thousandth
100,000 a/one hundred thousand	100,000th (one) hundred thousandth
1,000,000 a/one **million**	1,000,000th (one) millionth

Note [a] *One thousand million* (1,000,000,000) is called *one billion* in the American system of numeration. In the UK, *billion* has traditionally been used for 1,000,000,000,000 (10^{12}), corresponding to *one trillion* in the US. However, the American usage where *billion* = 10^9 is now often used also in the UK by people who are ignorant of the double meaning of the word. It is not used by scientists, engineers, and mathematicians according to the British Standards Institution, which recommends that the use of *billion*, together with the equally ambiguous *trillion* (10^{12} or 10^{15}) and *quadrillion* (10^{15} or 10^{18}), should be avoided.
[b] The convention for separating the thousands in writing varies. In finance it is still normal to use a comma in the UK, *eg*: *£50,000*. However, since the comma is used to indicate the decimal point in most non-English-speaking countries, the comma is often avoided also in English, as it would cause confusion. In science and engineering a space is used, *eg*: *50 000*, and there are signs that this practice (which accords with the recommendation of the International Organization for Standardization) is beginning to be accepted for money as well, *eg*: *£3 982*.

6.64 The typographical distinctions in the table draw attention to the fact that cardinal numerals for *1* to *13*, and *20*, *30*, *50*, *100*, *1000*, etc are unsystematic, and have to be learned as individual items. Cardinal numerals from *14* to *99* are largely systematic, since they are formed by adding endings to the other numbers. There are two sets of such derivative numerals: *14* to *19* are formed by the ending *-teen*; *40*, *50*, *60*, *70*, *80*, *90* are formed by the ending *-ty*. Compare the series:

six ~ six'*teen* ~ 'six*ty*
seven ~ seven'*teen* ~ 'seven*ty*

Note however the spelling shift in:

four ~ *four*'teen ~ 'forty

Note also the pronunciation and spelling changes in:

five /aɪ/ ~ fi*f*'teen /ɪ/ ~ 'fi*f*ty /ɪ/

Ordinal numerals for 1 to 3 are unsystematic: *first*, *second*, *third*. The rest are formed by adding *-th* to the cardinal numerals. (But note the change in *five* ~ *fifth*.) Cardinal numerals ending in *-y* change to *-ie* before *-th*:

four ~ four*th*	fourteen ~ fourteen*th*	forty ~ forti*eth*
five ~ fif*th*	fifteen ~ fifteen*th*	fifty ~ fifti*eth*
six ~ six*th*	sixteen ~ sixteen*th*	sixty ~ sixti*eth*

Both cardinal and ordinal numerals can function like pronouns [1–4] or like postdeterminers [5–6]:

Five is an odd number. [1]
There are *nine* (of them). [2]
I was the *tenth* on the list. [3]
She was only *five*. ['five years old'] [4]
There are *57* people on board. [5]
He referred to the *Fifth* Amendment. [6]

On the appositive use in *number five*, *page nine*, etc, *cf* 17.88 Note.

The ordinals in pronominal use are usually preceded by the definite article [7], and thus resemble superlatives with ellipted heads [8]:

Today is *the fourteenth* (day) (of July). [7]
This is *the best* (runner) of them all. [8]

Note [a] Unlike the change of *-y* to *-ie(s)* in nouns (*cf* 5.81) and verbs (*cf* 3.10), the change from cardinals ending in *-y* to ordinals ending in *-ie(th)*, adds a syllable. Compare:
sixt*y* ~ the sixt*ies* /'sɪkstɪz/ ~ the sixt*ieth* /'sɪkstɪəθ/
[b] Numerals in word-form between 21 and 99 (except the multiples of ten) are hyphenated: *twenty-one*, *eighty-six*, etc (on written fractions, *cf* 6.67). Small numerals – variously taken as under 20 or under 100 – are usually spelled as words in connected writing. Even large numerals are spelled out at the beginnings of sentences.
[c] The sign *0* is frequently read as /nɔːt/, especially in BrE, where it is spelt *nought*. In AmE *zero* /'zɪərəʊ/ is more commonly used. In both varieties, *zero* is normal in scientific contexts and also for temperature:
It's five degrees below zero.
Oh /əʊ/ is most frequent in reading out large sequences such as telephone and house numbers:
Extension 5076 'five *oh* seven six'
(James Bond) 007 '*double oh* seven'
When one is not talking about number values but quantities, there is a wide range of expressions, *eg*:
Italy won 4–0. 'four *nil*', 'four (to) *nothing*' [football]
It's Georgia over Alabama, 7–0. 'seven *zip*' [AmE sports reporting]
The score is 30–0. 'thirty *love*' [racket sports]
Also expressions with the pronouns *no* and *none* are used (*cf* 6.62), *eg*:
We had five lectures last week but *none* this week.
There will be two lessons tomorrow but *no* lesson on Tuesday.
[d] Note the following informal ways of indicating approximate numbers:

some eighty people [*some* unstressed]
80-*odd* people [BUT NOT: *85-odd people]
80 people *or* {*so* / *thereabouts*}
80 *or so* people
a good eighty people ['at least 80'] } ['about eighty']

An example of approximate time:
I'll be there eight*ish*. ['about eight o'clock']

Hundred, thousand, million

6.65 With *hundred*, *thousand*, and *million*, *one* has an unstressed variant *a* (*cf* 5.38):

$100 is read as 'one (*or* a) hundred dollars'

However, only *one* can be used after another numeral [1], and usually in the low year dates [2]:

1100 is read as {'one / 'a} thousand {one / *a} hundred' [1]

169 BC is read as 'one hundred (and) sixty-nine BC' [2]

Since *one* is a numeral, it can be preceded by a determiner:

the/a/that 100 ('one hundred') metre race

Hundred, *thousand*, and *million* are used both as numerals, as in [3], and as quantity nouns with plural *-s* and followed by *of* (*cf* 5.89), as in [4] and [5]:

Ten million viewers saw the title fight on TV. [3]
Millions (*of* people) are starving. [4]
Hundreds of thousands (*of* people) are homeless. [5]

In technical contexts, *thousand* is sometimes abbreviated *k* and *million m*:

That's a job which pays *$25k*.
$25m 'twenty-five million dollars'

Dates

6.66 We always read year dates as hundreds:

in 1985 { 'nineteen eighty-five'
'nineteen hundred and eighty-five' ⟨formal⟩
*'one thousand nine hundred and eighty-five' }

in the 1600s 'sixteen hundreds'

Other examples:

in the 17th century 'seventeenth century'
in the 1980s read (but rarely written) as: 'nineteen-eighties' (*cf*: *in the early eighties*; *a woman in her* (*early/mid/late*) *thirties*; *a girl in her early/mid/late teens*)

Day and month are usually indicated thus:

7(th) February or *February 7(th)* read as 'the seventh of February', 'February the seventh', also 'February seven', or 'February seventh'

In date abbreviations, numerals are normally separated by an oblique, or a period:

7/2/82 or *7.2.82*

Both could be used for '7(th) February 1982' ⟨BrE⟩ or 'July 2(nd), 1982' ⟨AmE⟩.

Numerals in abbreviations for times of day contain a colon ⟨esp AmE⟩ or a period ⟨BrE⟩, as in:

6:30 or *6.30* 'six-thirty' or 'half past six'

Fractions

6.67 Vulgar fractions are written and read thus:

$\frac{1}{2}$	'a/one half'	$\frac{2}{3}$	'two-thirds'
$\frac{1}{3}$	'a/one third'	$\frac{7}{8}$	'seven-eighths'
$\frac{1}{4}$	'a/one quarter'	$3\frac{3}{4}$	'three and three-quarters'
$\frac{1}{5}$	'a/one fifth'	$\frac{8}{76}$	'eight over seventy-six' / 'eight seventy-sixths'

Hyphens are often used, particularly in premodification:

a *three-quarter* mile; *three(-)quarters* of a mile [*fourths* is a less common alternative to *quarters* here]

Hyphens are not used with the indefinite article: thus *one-third* but *a third*. Note the different read forms for $\frac{3}{4}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ in premodification:

a *three-quarter* majority a *two-thirds* majority

Compare:

He won the race by { *a/one hundredth* of a second. [$= \frac{1}{100}$]
a/one two hundredth of a second. [$= \frac{1}{200}$] }

He got *three hundredths* of the money. [$= \frac{3}{100}$]

The point at which integers cease and decimal fractions begin is indicated by a period (sometimes raised above the line in BrE). In decimal fractions, the whole numerals are read out in the usual way ('seventy-one', etc), but the numerals to the right of the decimal point are read out as single digits ('five three', etc):

71.53 'seventy-one point five three'
0.426 { 'zero / 'nought } point four two six'

Note South African English follows the practice in most Continental European languages of writing decimal fractions with a comma (and reading it as 'comma') instead of a period:
1,2% 'one comma two per cent'

Mathematical symbols

6.68 Small numerals are usually spelled out, as it is not usual to introduce mathematical symbols into ordinary writing; but such symbols as the following are normally flanked only by numerals, not words:

=	'equals'	+	'plus'
−	'minus'	×	'times' or 'multiplied by'
÷	'divided by'	√	'the (square) root of'

Thus:

$$(17 - \sqrt{9} + \tfrac{65}{5}) - (4 \times 3) = 15$$

would be read as 'seventeen minus the square root of nine, plus sixty-five over five, minus four times three, equals fifteen'. (Mathematical symbols make the relationships unambiguous.)

On concord in expressions like '2 and 2 is/are 4', *cf* 10.37 Note [e].

Currency statements

6.69 The dollar sign ($) and the pound sign (£) are written before the numeral but said after the numeral:

$475 'four hundred (and) seventy-five dollars'
£7.3m 'seven point three million pounds'

The abbreviations *p*, for both singular *penny* and plural *pence* (*cf* 5.90), and *¢*, for *cent(s)*, are written solid after the numeral:

87p 'eighty-seven pence' ⟨informal: /pi:/⟩
75¢ 'seventy-five cents'

In currency statements, the period is usually ignored in reading. The combinations of £ and *p* and of $ and ¢ are pronounced as follows (from most to least formal):

£8.25 { 'eight pounds twenty-five pence'
'eight pounds twenty-five'
'eight twenty-five' }

$3.40 { 'three dollars (and) forty cents'
'three dollars forty'
'three forty' }

Bibliographical note

General on pronouns: Bolinger (1977b, 1979); Dušková (1965); Jackendoff (1968); Jacobsson (1970); Langacker (1969); Lees and Klima (1963); Storms (1964).

On personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns, see Erdmann (1978); Helke (1979); Jacobsson (1968a); Seppänen (1980); Wales (1980); Wood (1955/6); on reciprocal pronouns, see Kjellmer (1982); on demonstrative pronouns, see R. Lakoff (1974).

On indefinite pronouns, see Bald (forthcoming); Bolinger (1976); Close (1976); Conrad (1979); Sahlin (1979).

On numerals, see Peters (1980); Seppänen (forthcoming b).

7 Adjectives and adverbs

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ADJECTIVES

Characteristics of the adjective

7.1 We usually cannot tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation, because the form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function. Some suffixes are indeed found only, or typically, with adjectives (*cf* App I.38*ff*), *eg*:

-able:	comfortable	*-al*:	seasonal
-ful:	playful	*-ic*:	scientific
-ish:	greyish	*-less*:	useless
-ous:	dangerous	*-y*:	dirty

However, many common adjectives have no identifying form, *eg*: *good*, *hot*, *little*, *young*, *fat*.

Nor can we identify a word as an adjective merely from its potentialities for inflection. It is true that many adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative, *eg*:

great ~ *greater* ~ *greatest*

But many do not allow inflected forms (*cf* 7.81), *eg*:

disastrous ≁ **disastrouser* ≁ **disastrousest*

Moreover, a few adverbs can be similarly inflected (*cf* 7.83), *eg*:

(He worked) *hard* ~ *harder* ~ *hardest*

Many adjectives provide the base from which adverbs are derived by means of an *-ly* suffix (*cf* 7.46, App I.41), *eg*:

adjective *great* ~ adverb *greatly*

Nevertheless, some do not allow this derivational process; for example, there is no adverb **oldly* derived from the adjective *old*. And there are a few adjectives that are themselves derived from an adjective base in this way, *eg*: *kindly*, an item functioning also as an adverb.

Four criteria for adjectives

7.2 Four features are commonly considered to be characteristic of adjectives (but *cf* 7.4 Note):

(a) They can freely occur in ATTRIBUTIVE function (*cf* 7.20), *ie* they can premodify a noun, appearing between the determiner (including zero article) and the head of a noun phrase:

an *ugly* painting, the *round* table, *dirty* linen

(b) They can freely occur in PREDICATIVE function (*cf* 7.20), *ie* they can function as subject complement, as in [1], or as object complement, as in [2], *eg*:

The painting is *ugly*. [1]
He thought the painting *ugly*. [2]

(c) They can be premodified by the intensifier *very* (*cf* 7.56), *eg*:

The children are very *happy*.

(d) They can take COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE forms (*cf* 7.75). The comparison may be by means of inflections (*-er* and *-est*), as in [3–4], or by the addition of the premodifiers *more* and *most* ('periphrastic comparison'), as in [5–6]:

The children are *happier* now. [3]
They are the *happiest* people I know. [4]
These students are *more intelligent*. [5]
They are the *most beautiful* paintings I have ever seen. [6]

Central and peripheral adjectives

7.3 However, not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives possess all of these four features. It is, for example, only in exceptional cases that *afraid* can occur attributively (feature (a) above) and *utter* can occur predicatively (feature (b)):

?**afraid* people ≁ People are *afraid*.
utter nonsense ≁ ?*That nonsense is *utter*.

Neither premodification by *very* (feature (c)), nor comparison (feature (d)), applies to, for example, *infinite* in:

God's infinite mercy ~ God's mercy is infinite.
BUT: *God's mercy is very infinite. *It's more infinite than . . .

We analyse adjectives with respect to these four features. To illustrate the types, we have selected eight words, including among them instances that are on the borderline between the adjective and adverb classes.

For testing predicative position, we use the following frame with *seem* as copular verb: '(*The*) noun *seemed*___'. Since words can belong to more than one class, we place them in the context of a sentence, so that it should be clear which use of the words is being tested (*cf Table* 7.3):

John is *hungry*. [1]
The universe is *infinite*. [2]
Susan is an *old* friend. [3]
The prisoners were *afraid*. [4]
Bob is an *utter* fool. [5]
The patient was *asleep*. [6]
The meeting is *soon*. [7]
Anna is *abroad*. [8]

Table 7.3 Criteria for establishing adjective classes

(a) = attributive use
(b) = predicative use after the copula *seem*
(c) = premodification by *very*
(d) = comparison

	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)		
[1] *hungry*	+	+	+	+	CENTRAL	ADJECTIVES
[2] *infinite*	+	+	−	−		
[3] *old*	+	−	+	+	PERIPHERAL	
[4] *afraid*	?	+	+	+		
[5] *utter*	+	−	−	−		
[6] *asleep*	−	+	−	−		
[7] *soon*	−	−	+	+	ADVERBS	
[8] *abroad*	−	−	−	−		

7.4 If we examine *Table* 7.3, we see that [1] *hungry* alone satisfies all four criteria; [2] *infinite* accepts (a) and (b); [3] *old* accepts (a), (c), (d); [4] *afraid* accepts (b), (c), (d); [5] *utter* satisfies only (a), and [6] *asleep* only (b); [7] *soon* accepts (c) and (d); while [8], finally, satisfies none of the four criteria.

Criterion (c), acceptance of premodification by *very*, and criterion (d), the ability to take comparison, have no diagnostic value in distinguishing adjectives from adverbs. These two features generally coincide for a particular word, and are determined by a semantic feature, gradability, which cuts across word classes (*cf* 7.42). Thus, as we can see in the table, the adverb *soon* is gradable, just like the central adjective *hungry*. Many adverbs are gradable, just as many adjectives are gradable. And these two word classes use the same features to realize the gradability of an item, in particular premodification by *very* and comparison (*cf* 7.74*ff*). Hence, these two features neither distinguish adjectives from adverbs, nor are they found in all adjectives.

In this book the first six words in the table (*hungry*, *infinite*, *old*, *afraid*, *utter*, *asleep*) are regarded as ADJECTIVES, whereas *soon* and *abroad*, at the bottom of the table, are assigned to the ADVERB class.

We consider the ability of functioning both attributively and predicatively to be a central feature of adjectives. Words like *hungry* and *infinite*, which satisfy both these criteria (a *and* b), are therefore called CENTRAL adjectives.

Words like *old*, *afraid*, *utter*, and *asleep*, which satisfy at least one of these first two criteria (a *or* b), are called PERIPHERAL adjectives.

Note The use of the criteria for testing adjective status of words like *infinite* is complicated by the fact that there is a prescriptive tradition forbidding the use of *very* or the comparative with intensifying adjectives like *perfect*, *absolute*, *unique* (*cf* 7.33*f*), and also with the corresponding adverbs (*perfectly*, *absolutely*, *uniquely*) (*cf* 8.106).

The adjective in relation to other word classes

7.5 We now consider some other examples of overlapping between the adjective class and other word classes. The overlapping may be due to syntactic features that are characteristic of other classes but displayed by some adjectives, or to features characteristic of the adjective class but displayed by some members of other classes. The three relevant word classes are adverbs (7.6–11), nouns (7.12–14), and participles (7.15–19).

Adjectives and adverbs

Adjective and adverb homomorphs

7.6 There is a certain overlap between the adjective and adverb classes. Compare the adjective function of premodification in the left-hand column and the adverb function of adverbial in the right-hand column:

a *rapid* car ~ drive {*rapidly* / **rapid*} [1]

a *fast* car ~ drive {**fastly* / *fast*} [2]

a *slow* car ~ drive {*slowly* / *slow*} [3]

Example [1] represents the normal case, where there is regular variation between form and function of the adverb and adjective, and where the adverb is formed by the derivational suffix *-ly* (*cf* 7.46, Type (c)).

Fast in [2] has identical form in both adjective and adverb functions. Similarly, *long* and *short*, for example, can be used as both adjective and adverb:

Did you have to wait { a *long* time? / *long*? / **longly*? } She { had *short* hair. / cut her hair { *short*. / **shortly*. } }

Whereas there is no adverb **longly*, there is an adverb *shortly*, but with a different meaning 'soon', as in *I'll be back shortly*. Adjective/adverb homomorphs are exceptional, and many such uses in adverb function occur chiefly in fixed expressions (*cf* 7.8).

7.7 In 7.6 [3], both *slow* and *slowly* function as adverb. Adjective forms like *slow* differ from the corresponding adverb forms in several ways. The adjective form, if admissible at all, is restricted to a position after the verb or (if present) the object:

He {*slowly* / **slow*} drove the car into the garage.

He drove the car {*slowly* / ?**slow*} into the garage.

In those cases where there is variation (*eg*: *drive slow* ~ *slowly*, *buy cheap* ~ *cheaply*), the adjective form and a corresponding *-ly* adverb form can be used interchangeably, with little or no semantic difference, except that some people prefer the adverb form, particularly in formal style.

In standard use, only a limited number of adverbs are formally identical to adjectives. Thus there are no acceptable sentences:

*He came back *sudden*.
*She buys her clothes *careful*.

By contrast, in nonstandard or very familiar English, the use of the adjective for the adverb form is widespread, *eg*:

Don't talk *daft*.
She pays her rent *regular*.
They played *real good*.
He spoke to John *sharp*.

However, unlike the absolute form, the comparative and superlative forms of some adjectives are common also in standard English. Compare:

?Speak *clear*. [1]
Speak *clearer*. ['more clearly'] [2]
This newsreader speaks *clearest* of all. ['most clearly'] [3]

Whereas *clear* in [1] is nonstandard for *clearly*, [2] and [3] are both acceptable standard English variants of *more clearly* and *most clearly*, respectively. Other examples:

It's *easier* said than done. ['more easily'] [4]
Ami ran (the) *slowest*. [5]
The car went *slower and slower*. [6]

(The warning 'Danger, go *slow*' is however fully acceptable also to speakers who reject 'Drive the car *slow*'.)

Example [6] with coordination illustrates a factor which helps to make the adjective form particularly acceptable. Whereas *speak clear* is nonstandard, *speak loud and clear* is fully acceptable in standard English. Other examples of coordination are the following:

lose *fair and square*
be brought up *short and sharp*
be tangled up *good and proper* ⟨nonstandard⟩

Note [a] *Cf* 7.20 for the use of adjectives expressing the result of the process denoted by the verb, *eg*: That powder washed the clothes *white*.
[b] *Cf* 7.27 for the use of adjectives as the sole realization of a verbless clause, *eg*: *Nervous*, the man opened the letter.

Adverbs without *-ly*

7.8 There are some other words which, like *fast* in 7.6, have the same form (without the *-ly* suffix) in adjective and adverb functions, *eg*:

She arrived in the *late* afternoon. [adjective]
She arrived *late* in the afternoon. [adverb]

Late also has an *-ly* form, *lately*, but with a different meaning:

Have you seen her *lately*? ['recently']

Other examples are the following (adjective uses are given first):

clean clothes; play the game *clean*; The knife cut *cleanly*.
a *close* friend; stay *close* together; He watched her *closely*.
This ring must be *dear* [⟨esp BrE⟩ 'expensive']; I paid *dear(ly)* for my mistake; She loved him *dearly*.
a *deep* breath; live *deep* in the woods; breathe *deep(ly)*
a *direct* flight; We flew *direct(ly)* to Paris; Reply to me *direct(ly)* ['direct to me']; I'll see you *directly* ['immediately'] after lunch.
a *fine* view; It works *fine*; The parsley was chopped *fine(ly)*.
a *flat* country; I'm *flat* broke ⟨informal⟩; He's *flatly* opposed to it.
a *high* building; The plane flew *high* above; They were praised *highly*.
light weapons; She travels *light*; They were *lightly* armed.
a *sharp* turn; She turned *sharp(ly)* left; She turned the car *sharply*.
The scar was an inch *wide*; The door was *wide* open; He seems to be *widely* known here.

Adjectives and adverbs in *-ly*

7.9 Some words in *-ly* can function both as adjectives and adverbs:

ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
an *early* train	We finished *early* today.
A *likely* story!	He'll very/most *likely* succeed. ⟨esp BrE⟩
a *monthly* visit	She visited him *monthly*.

Words in *-ly* like *monthly*, which denote time, can also function as time adverbs: *daily*, *fortnightly* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *hourly*, *nightly*, *quarterly*, *weekly*, and *yearly*.

When we require adverbs corresponding to *-ly* adjectives such as *friendly*, *grisly*, *kindly*, *kingly*, *lively*, *manly*, and *masterly*, we normally use an adjective construction, thus avoiding the double suffix *-lily*:

She received us *in a friendly way*.
She gave us a *friendly* welcome.
[BUT NOT: *She received us *friendlily*.]

Verbs with percept as subject (*smell*, *feel*, *look*, *sound*) have an adjective phrase as complement (*cf* 4.29*f*). But there is some uncertainty in the use of adjective and related adverb forms:

The flowers smell { *good*/**well*. / *sweet*/?*sweetly*. }

There are prescriptive objections to the adverb form for these items with *smell* in this use, and to *badly* with *feel*. With *feel* and *smell*, the adverb form is used to express intensity of feelings:

He felt { *badly* [1] / *keenly* [2] / *strongly* [3] / *deeply* [4] } about it.

It smells *strongly* of garlic.

Note [a] Note the difference in meaning between the adjective and adverb form in the following:

She feels { *bad* today. [health] [1a]
bad/badly about it. ['guilty', 'uneasy'] [1b]

The adjective *keen* has the different sense of 'enthusiastic':

He { felt / was } *keen* about/on it. [2a]

Contrast with the intensifying adverb *strongly* in [3] the physical sense of *strong* in [3a]:

He { felt / was } *strong*. [3a]

[b] The use of adverb forms after *taste* seems much less common and would be unacceptable to many speakers:

The food tastes { *good/?well.* / *marvellous/?*marvellously.* }

[c] Note the distinction in meaning between the adjectives *good* and *well* (*cf* 7.38) after *look*:

She looks *good*. [appearance]
She looks *well*. [health]

Adjectives and adverbs beginning with *a-*

7.10 Certain words beginning with *a-* (like *asleep* in 7.3*f*) have constituted a problem in classification for grammarians, some assigning them to the adjective class, and others to the adverb class. These *a*-words function predicatively, but only a few can be freely used attributively.

Only a relatively small number of adverbs can function predicatively, namely certain place adverbs, *eg*: *aboard*, *upstairs* (*cf* 8.41) and time adverbs, *eg*: *now*, *tonight* (*cf* 8.76). But even these adverbs are used predicatively only after *be*, while adjectives can be used with other copular verbs as well (*cf* 7.3*f*). Compare the different patterns with the copular *be* and *seem*:

The patient { was *asleep/hungry/abroad/there.* / seemed { *asleep/hungry*. [adjectives] / **abroad/*there*. [adverbs] }

Another difference between *a*-adjectives and *a*-adverbs is that *a*-adjectives refer to temporary states and cannot be part of the predication after verbs of motion; *a*-adverbs, on the other hand, denote direction after such verbs. Contrast:

She went { *aboard/abroad/around/away*. [adverbs] / **afraid/*alert/*asleep/*awake*. [adjectives] }

The sentences with *a*-adjectives are acceptable only if the adjectives can be interpreted not as part of the predication but as supplementive adjective clauses (*cf* 7.27*f*). For example, we might be able to interpret *He went afraid* as 'He was afraid as he went'.

Examples of some other *a*-adjectives:

ablaze	*alike*	*ashamed*	*adrift*	*aghast*
alive	*afire*	*ajar*	*alone*	*averse*
afloat	*alert*	*aloof*	*awake*	*aware*

7.11 *A*-adjectives vary as to whether they can be attributive. Most *a*-adjectives are only marginally acceptable in attributive function, unless they are premodified:

?an *afraid* look ?an *alive* eye

Aloof and *alert*, however, are fully acceptable in attributive function, *eg*:

an *aloof* character an *alert* manner

Most *a*-adjectives can occur attributively when they are modified:

a *somewhat afraid* soldier
the *fast asleep* children
a *really alive/lively* student
the *wide awake* patient

Some *a*-adjectives have parallel *a*-less forms or synonyms in attributive function:

Their ambitions are *alike*. [*cf*: They have *similar* ambitions.]
The soldier was *alone*, patrolling. [*cf*: a *lone/solitary* soldier]
The animals are *alive*. [*cf*: They are *live/living* animals.]
The woman is *afraid*. [*cf*: a *frightened* woman]
The children were *asleep*. [*cf*: the *sleeping* children]
She was not *aware* of the consequences. [*cf*: a *conscious/deliberate* action]

Some *a*-adjectives freely take premodification by *very* and comparison, *eg*: *afraid*, *alert*, *alike*, *aloof*, *ashamed*, and *awake*. Others do so marginally, *eg*: *asleep* and *awake*. *Alive to* in the sense 'aware of' can be premodified by *very* and can be compared. Some of the *a*-adjectives can also be premodified by *very much* (particularly *afraid*, *alike*, *ashamed*, *aware*), and *aware* can be premodified by (*very*) *well*, too. There is vacillation between *so/too alike* and *so much/too much alike*. Since the modifiers *much* and *well* are characteristically taken by many adverbs (*cf* 7.16 Note), these *a*-words show themselves to be particularly marginal to the adjective class.

Note [a] Adverbs which cannot be used predicatively with *seem* can occur after *seem to be* (a construction which is also available for adjectives):

They seem to be { *aboard, abroad, around*. [adverbs] / *afraid, alert, asleep*. [adjectives] }

[b] Like the adverbs in *She was downstairs/outside*, *abroad* can be a response to a question introduced by the interrogative adverb *where*:

A: Where is he? B: *Abroad*.

Other *a*-adverbs, *eg*: *around* and *away*, are less likely to be the sole response to a *where*-question, though they can supply the information requested by *where*:

A: Where is he? B: He is *around/away*.

[c] Notice the contrast between the *a*-adjective in *They looked asleep* and the *a*-adverb in *They looked away*. With *asleep*, *looked* is a copular verb, synonymous with *seemed*. With *away*, it is an intransitive verb, similar in meaning and use to *glanced*.

[d] *Alike* requires reference to coordinated noun phrases or to a plural noun phrase, a constraint identical with that for reciprocal pronouns (*cf* 6.31). Compare:

{ John and Mary / The children } are { *alike.* / *like each other.* }

[e] *Alone* can refer either to a permanent characteristic 'solitary by nature', or to a temporary feature 'without companionship'. In the former sense, it is acceptable, at least to some speakers, in constructions with *seem* and *very*:

(?) She *seemed alone*. (?) She is *very alone*.
[BUT: ?*She *seemed very alone* in the house that morning.]

Adjectives and nouns

7.12 Nouns are commonly used attributively, and are thus superficially similar to peripheral adjectives in satisfying criterion (a) (7.3*f*), *eg*:

the *bus* station, a *business* friend, *lamb* chops

However, nouns do not satisfy any of the other criteria (b, c, d) for adjective status. Compare:

(a) the *large* station	the *bus* station
(b) The station seems *large*.	*The station seems *bus*.
(c) a very *large* station	*a very *bus* station
(d) a *larger* station	*a *busser* station

Furthermore, nouns have other features which distinguish them from adjectives. Compare, for example:

I saw a *bus*.	*I saw a *large*.
The *bus* is here.	*The *large* is here.
one *bus*/two *buses*	*one *large*/two *larges*

The relation of nouns to adjectives is further discussed in 7.13*f*, and premodification by nouns in 17.104*ff*.

7.13 Some items can be both adjectives and nouns. For example, *criminal* is an adjective in that it can be used both attributively and predicatively:

a *criminal* attack
The attack seemed *criminal* to us.

But the word *criminal* can also be a count noun, since it can:

(i) take determiners:
The criminal pleaded guilty.
He is probably *a criminal*.

(ii) be inflected for number:
one criminal ~ *several criminals*

(iii) be inflected for the genitive case:
the criminal's sentence, *the criminals'* views

(iv) be premodified by an adjective:
a *violent* criminal

Of course, the attributive use of an item such as *criminal* is not a sufficient criterion for calling it an adjective. As we have seen in 7.12, nouns, as well as adjectives, can be used as premodifiers of nouns. In [1], *criminal* is undoubtedly an adjective, since there is no article or number contrast [1a, 1b]:

His attack was { *criminal.* [1]
**a/the criminal.* [1a]
**criminals.* [1b] }

Similarly, *criminal* in *a criminal attack* is also an adjective, since the phrase is

equivalent to 'a brutal attack' and not to, say, 'an attack by a criminal' (*cf* 7.14). Moreover, *criminal* is gradable in that phrase:

a *very/rather* criminal attack

It is also an adjective in *criminal law* ('law relating to crime'; *cf*: *civil law*, *commercial law*) and in both senses of *criminal lawyer* ('a lawyer specializing in criminal law' and 'a lawyer who is criminal'; *cf* 7.37).

We will therefore say that *criminal* is a homomorph (*cf* 2.38), *ie* both an adjective and a noun, and that the relationship between the adjective *criminal* and the noun *criminal* is that of conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*). Here are some other examples of conversions from adjective to noun:

ADJECTIVES	NOUNS
an *ancient* custom	She is investigating the *ancients'* conception of the universe.
a *black* student	There was only one *black* in my class.
a *classic* book	You won't find many *classics* in our library.
intellectual interests	She considers herself an *intellectual*.
a *noble* family	The king greeted his *nobles*.
a *natural* skier	He's a *natural* for the job.
a *six-year-old* boy	Our *six-year-old* is at school.

Note Items like *medical*, *physical*, and *oral* are also used without a noun head:
Have you had a *medical/physical* yet?
When is your French *oral*?
They differ, however, from the previous group in that speakers tend to feel that a noun like *examination* is implied, which is not the case with, say, *an intellectual*. On the other hand, *oral* has a plural *orals*, which is an indication of full conversion. *Medical* and *physical* do not have plurals (at least not in general use), and are therefore instances of partial conversion.

7.14 Nouns functioning attributively also possess other features which distinguish them from adjectives (*cf* 7.12). The basically nominal character of a premodifying noun, such as *garden* in *garden tools*, is shown by its correspondence to a prepositional phrase with the noun as complement: *tools for the garden*. Compare also:

the '*city* 'council ~ the council *for the city*
a '*stone* 'wall ~ a wall (made) *of stone*
'*August* 'weather ~ weather (usual) *in August*

Such a correspondence is not available for attributive adjectives:

a '*long* 'poem	a '*thick* 'wall
the '*urban* 'council	'*hot* 'weather

However, we can sometimes use a postmodifying prepositional phrase with a related noun as complement, *eg*:

a *long* poem ~ a poem *of considerable length*

As indicated, the normal (noncontrastive) stress for both groups is even stress. The stressing of noun + noun sequences and their relation to compounds and prepositional phrases are discussed in 17.104*ff*.

Like adjectives, nouns can function as subject complement after copular verbs, in particular after *be* (*cf* 2.17):

That man is *a fool*.
The noise you heard was *thunder*.
She became *a nurse*.

Some nouns can also be used within the subject complement after *seem* ⟨esp BrE⟩. These are indeed very close to adjectives:

He seems *a fool*. [= *foolish*]
Your remark seems (complete) *nonsense* to me. [= *nonsensical*]
My stay there seemed *sheer bliss*. [= *blissful*]
His friend seems very much *an Englishman*. [= very *English*]

Note however the change of premodifier in: *very much an Englishman* ~ *very English*.

The closeness is of course greatest for noncount nouns such as *nonsense* and *bliss*, since, like adjectives, they do not take number contrast. However, they can appear without an overt determiner (unlike adjectives functioning as heads of noun phrases, *cf* 7.23*ff*):

She doesn't like *nonsense*. [noncount noun]
She admires *the mystical*. [adjective as head of a noun phrase]

Some noun forms can function both attributively and predicatively, in which case we can perhaps regard them as adjectives (*cf* App I.51). They denote style or material from which things are made:

that *concrete* floor ~ That floor is *concrete*.
Worcester porcelain ~ This porcelain is *Worcester*.
those *apple* pies ~ Those pies are *apple*. ⟨informal⟩

Note [a] Attributive nouns can be coordinated with nongradable adjectives, *eg*: *weekly and morning newspapers, city and suburban houses*, but it seems that such conjoinings are normally possible only when there is an ellipted head, but not otherwise:
weekly newspapers and morning newspapers
city houses and suburban houses
*a city and pleasant house
Where both premodifiers are nouns, ellipsis need not be involved, *eg*:
a glass and concrete house ['a house made of glass and concrete']
a cheese and cucumber sandwich ['a sandwich containing cheese and cucumber']
These become ambiguous in the plural (*cf* 13.68), *eg*:
cheese and cucumber sandwiches ['each of the sandwiches contains cheese and cucumber' or 'cheese sandwiches and cucumber sandwiches']
[b] The nouns that can most easily appear as complement after *seem* are those that are gradable, that is to say the nouns that can be modified by intensifying adjectives (*cf* 7.33*f*). However, some speakers, while accepting in this function noncount nouns and singular count nouns, find plural nouns dubious:
?They seem *fools*. ?His friends seem very much *Englishmen*.
Material nouns, which are not gradable, are also dubious after *seem*:
?That floor seems *concrete*. ?Those pies seem *apple*.
[c] *Fun* is primarily a regular noncount noun: *a great deal of fun, great fun, some fun*. However, in informal usage ⟨esp AmE⟩, *fun* has been fully converted into an adjective:
The party was *fun*; *a fun person*; *a very fun party*
[d] On the use of nouns in cases like *Are you cosmetics?*, *cf* 5.5 Note.

Adjectives and participles

7.15 There are many adjectives that have the same suffixes as participles in *-ing* or *-ed* (including the variants of *-ed*). These will be called PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES:

PREDICATIVE USE	ATTRIBUTIVE USE
His views were very *surprising*.	~ his *surprising* views
The man seemed very *offended*.	~ the *offended* man

They include forms in *-ed* that have no corresponding verbs:

The results were *unexpected*.	~ the *unexpected* results
Her children must be *downhearted*.	~ her *downhearted* children
All his friends are *talented*.	~ his *talented* friends
His lung is *diseased*.	~ his *diseased* lung

When there are no corresponding verbs (**to unexpect*, **to downheart*, **to talent*, **to disease*), the forms are obviously not participles (*cf* Note below).

When there is a corresponding verb, attributively used *-ed* forms usually have a passive meaning (*cf* 17.29), *eg*:

lost property ~ property that *has been lost*

In some cases, however, the *-ed* participle is not interpreted as passive. The passive interpretation is excluded if the corresponding verb can be used only intransitively:

the *escaped* prisoner ['the prisoner who has escaped']
the *departed* guests ['the guests who have departed']

But even in other instances, the participle relates to the intransitive use of the verb; thus the passive interpretation is impossible in:

a *grown* boy ['a boy who has grown (up)']

It is unlikely in:

the *faded* curtains ['the curtains which have faded']
the *retired* manager ['the manager who has retired']

Predicative use occurs only with some of these participial adjectives:

The curtains are *faded*.
Her father is now *retired*.
Her son is *grown*. [dubious in BrE, but *full-grown* or *grown-up* is fully acceptable]
The guests are *departed*.

The last example is archaic, unlike the acceptable *the departed guests* (*cf* the reverse situation with *go*: *The guests are gone*, **the gone guests*). But contrast:

*The prisoner is *escaped*.

Sometimes there is a corresponding verb, but it has a different meaning. We can therefore have ambiguous sentences where the ambiguity depends on whether the word is a participle or a participial adjective:

ADJECTIVE:	She is (very) *calculating* (but her husband is frank).
PARTICIPLE:	She is *calculating* (our salaries). ['. . . so don't disturb her while she is doing the arithmetic.']
ADJECTIVE:	They were (very) *relieved* (to find her at home).
PARTICIPLE:	They were *relieved* (by the next group of sentries).

Notice that we can replace *be* by *seem* only with the adjectives (*cf* 3.77 on pseudo-passives):

She seems very calculating.
*She seems calculating our salaries.

Note [a] *Unexpected* corresponds to the *-ed* participle of *expect* plus the negative particle: *unexpected* ~ *not expected*. However, such *un-* + verb + *-ed* forms are not participles, since there is no verb *un-* + verb, *eg*: **unexpect* (unlike *undress*, etc). Unlike *expected*, *unexpected* can be premodified by *very*, so that the morphological change has been accompanied by a semantic/syntactic change. The situation is less clear for the morphologically negative forms *unwritten* (*eg*: *unwritten law*) and *unbroken* (*eg*: *unbroken succession*), which resemble the positive forms in not accepting *very* (but *cf* 7.16 Note and App I.21).
[b] Nouns can also have adjective derivatives in *-ed* (*cf* App I.38), *eg*: *hard-hearted*, *talented*, *four-legged*, *flat-bottomed*, *bearded*.

7.16 Often the difference between the adjective and the participle is not clear-cut (*cf* 17.98*ff*). The verbal force of the participle is explicit for the *-ing* form when a direct object is present. Hence, the following *-ing* forms are participles that constitute a verb phrase with the preceding auxiliary (*cf* 3.52*ff*):

Her views were *alarming* her audience.
You are *frightening* the children.
They are *insulting* us.

Similarly, the verbal force is explicit for the *-ed* form when a *by*-agent phrase with a personal agent (*cf* 3.63*ff*, 8.80*f*) is present, indicating the correspondence to the active form of the sentence:

The man was *offended* by the policeman.
He is *appreciated* by his students.
She was *misunderstood* by her parents.

For both participle forms, premodification by the intensifier *very* is an explicit indication that the forms have achieved adjective status:

Her views were very *alarming*.
You are very *frightening*.
The man was very *offended*.

BUT: He is { ?very / very much / highly } *appreciated*.

We might therefore expect that the presence of *very* together with an explicit indicator of verbal force would produce an unacceptable sentence. This is certainly so for the *-ing* participle form:

*His views were very *alarming* his audience.

However, with the *-ed* participle, there appears to be divided usage, with increasing acceptance of the cooccurrence of *very* with a *by*-agent phrase containing a personal agent:

?The man was very *offended* by the policeman.

In the absence of any explicit indicator, the status of the participle form is indeterminate:

The man was *offended*.

For the *-ed* form in this example, the participle interpretation focuses on the process, while the adjective interpretation focuses on the state resulting from the process. For the *-ing* form the difference is perhaps clearer. In the sentence *John is insulting*, with no object present, the participle interpretation is implausible because the verb is normally transitive. If, however, the participle interpretation is selected, then the sentence expresses that John is in the process of giving insults and we expect an object, while in the adjective interpretation, the sentence points to a characteristic of John (*cf*: *John is rude*). A participle interpretation is similarly unlikely for the following sentences:

She is *surprising*.	~ ?She *surprises*.
He is *interesting*.	~ ?He *interests*.
It is *exciting*.	~ ?It *excites*.
It is *tempting*.	~ ?It *tempts*.

Note Whereas gradable adjectives and adverbs are intensified by *very*, verbs are intensified by other intensifying adverbs such as *much* and *well* (*cf* 8.104*ff*), which themselves are often premodified by *very*, eg: *very much*, *very well*. The applicability of this criterion depends on whether the words are gradable, since (as we have seen in 7.3*f*) not all adjectives are gradable. Hence, if the corresponding verb allows (say) *very much* while the participle form disallows *very*, we have a good indication that the form in question is a participle rather than an adjective:

She loved him *very much*.
~ He was *very much* loved (by her).
~ He was loved *very much* (by her).
~ (?*)He was *very* loved.

Generally, *-ed* participle forms accepting *very* can retain *very* when they cooccur with a *by*-phrase containing a nonpersonal semi-agent (*cf* 3.76):

I'm *very disturbed* by your attitude.
We were *very pleased* by his behaviour.

Also, as we have seen, personal agents sometimes occur in this construction, as in:

?I was *very influenced* by my college professors.

7.17 The participle sometimes reaches full adjective status when it is compounded with another element:

The eggs are *boiled* hard.	~ The eggs are (very) *hard-boiled*.
It is *breaking* my heart.	~ It is (very) *heart-breaking*.
He was *bitten* (by a snake).	[*cf*: He was *frost-bitten*.]

When an adjective or adverb is the first element of the compound, as in *hard-boiled*, an intensifier such as *very* can be interpreted as related to the first element rather than to the compound as a whole.

Note Sometimes the *-ed* participle cannot be used in environments where the adjective compound is admitted. For example, the verb *speak* does not allow a personal noun such as *man* as direct object, and hence we cannot have in the passive:

*That man is *spoken*.

But we can have *well-spoken* in place of *spoken*. Compare:

That man { *speaks well.* / is *well-spoken.* } ['has a good manner of speaking']

He { *dresses well.* / is *well-dressed.* }

Similarly, the verb *behave* does not take a direct object (except the reflexive), and therefore we cannot have a passive:

*The boy was *behaved*.

But we can have an adjective compound:

The boy was *well-behaved*.

7.18 Not only participial adjectives allowing the intensifier *very*, but also stative *-ing* and *-ed* participles can be attributive (*cf* 17.98*ff*), as the following examples show:

her *crying* children	a *married* couple
a *winning* team	his *published* work
boiling water	the *captured* prisoner

Note That the sense is stative can be seen in the meaning of, for example, *a winning team*: 'a team that has won (a lot of matches lately)', *ie* 'a strong team' rather than 'a team that is winning'; *a married couple* is 'a couple who are not single'.

7.19 Some verbs have different participle forms for verbal and adjectival use (*cf* 3.13*ff*):

You have *drunk too much.*	~ *drunk(en)* driving/driver
Have you *shaved*?	~ a *clean-shaven* young man
The shirt has *shrunk.*	~ a *shrunken* shirt

Note the pronunciation /ɪd/ of the ending *-ed* in some adjectives, *eg*: *beloved* /bɪˈlʌvɪd/. Other examples:

crooked	*dogged*	*jagged*	*learned*
naked	*ragged*	*wicked*	*wretched*

The suffix of *aged* is pronounced as a separate syllable /ɪd/ when the word is predicative or is attributive of a personal noun (*The man is aged*; *an aged man* 'old'), but not, for example, in *an aged wine* or *a man aged fifty*.

Syntactic functions of adjectives

Attributive and predicative

7.20 The adjective functions as the head of an adjective phrase, with or without modification (*cf* 2.28). For the sake of simplicity, we refer to the functions of the 'adjective' when, strictly speaking, we should refer to the functions of the

'adjective phrase'. For the same reason, we generally exemplify the functions of the adjective phrase with the adjective alone.

Adjectives are attributive when they premodify the head of a noun phrase (*cf* 17.96):

a *small* garden
popular ballads

Adjectives are predicative when they function as subject complement or object complement. There is a copular relationship between subject and subject complement (*cf* 10.8):

The children are *happy*.
He seems *careless*.

Adjectives are subject complement not only to noun phrases, but also to clauses, which may be finite clauses [1, 2] or nonfinite clauses [3, 4]:

That you need a car is *obvious.*	[1]
Whether he will resign is *uncertain.*	[2]
To drive a car is *dangerous.*	[3]
Playing chess is *enjoyable.*	[4]

There is a copular relationship between direct object and object complement (*cf* 10.8):

I find him *careless*.
He made the children *happy*.

Adjectives can also be object complement to clauses:

I consider { what he did / playing so hard } *foolish.*

The adjective functioning as object complement often expresses the result of the process denoted by the verb (*cf* 16.21):

He pulled his belt *tight.*	[5]
He pushed the window *open.*	[6]
He writes his letters *large.*	[7]

The result can be stated for each sentence by using the verb *be*:

His belt is *tight.*	[5a]
The window is *open.*	[6a]
His letters are *large.*	[7a]

Note The verbs in [5–7] have a causative meaning. For example, [5] can be paraphrased:

He caused his belt to be tight by pulling it.

Some verbs used in this type of construction primarily express cause:

She made him *happy*. ['She caused him to be happy.']
The news turned his hair *white*. ['The news caused his hair to be white.']

The analogy with adverbs can be seen in the resultative effect of an adverb such as *out*. Compare [6] with [8]:

He pushed the window { *open.* [6] / *out.* [8] }

['He caused the window to be open/out by pushing it.']

Postpositive

7.21 Adjectives can sometimes be postpositive, *ie* they can immediately follow the noun or pronoun they modify. We may thus have three positions of adjectives:

PREDICATIVE:	This information is *useful*.	[1]
ATTRIBUTIVE:	*useful* information	[2]
POSTPOSITIVE:	something *useful*	[3]

A postpositive adjective (together with any complementation it may have; *cf* 7.22) can usually be regarded as a reduced relative clause:

something *that is useful* [3a]

Compound indefinite pronouns and adverbs ending in *-body*, *-one*, *-thing*, *-where* (*cf* 6.46*f*, 17.57) can be modified only postpositively:

Anyone (who is) *intelligent* can do it.
I want to try on *something* (that is) *larger*.
We're not going *anywhere very exciting*.

Of course, adjectives that can occur only attributively (*cf* 7.32*ff*) are excluded:

*something (which is) *main* *somebody (who is) *mere*

Postposition is obligatory for *proper* meaning 'as strictly defined', *eg*:

the City of London *proper*

In several institutionalized expressions (mostly in official designations), the adjective is postpositive (*cf* 17.59), *eg*:

the president *elect* ['soon to take office']	vice-chancellor *designate*
heir *apparent*	postmaster *general*
attorney *general*	court *martial*
from time *immemorial*	notary *public*
	body *politic*

Note also:

the person *opposite* [BUT: the *opposite* direction]
all of us, me *included* [BUT: *including* me]
Monday to Friday *inclusive* ⟨AmE also: Monday *through* Friday; *cf* 9.37⟩
Longman Group *Limited/Ltd* ⟨UK⟩; Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, *Incorporated/Inc* ⟨US⟩

Asia *Minor*	Poet *Laureate*
devil *incarnate*	all things *English*
the best car *going*	B *flat/sharp/major/minor*

Adjectives ending in *-able* and *-ible* can have postposition when the noun is modified by another adjective in the superlative degree (*cf* 7.74*ff*), by *only*, or by the general ordinals *last*, *next*, etc (*cf* 5.22). We thus have either attributive position or postposition in:

the best *possible* use	~ the best use *possible*
the greatest *imaginable insult*	~ the greatest insult *imaginable*

the best *available* person	~ the best person *available*
the only *suitable* actor	~ the only actor *suitable*

The deverbal suffix *-able/-ible* combines with transitive verbs to produce gradable adjectives: 'of the kind that can be V-ed' (*cf* App I.40). Some postpositive adjectives, especially those ending in *-able* or *-ible*, retain the basic meaning they have in attributive position but convey the implication that what they are denoting has only a temporary application. Thus, *the stars visible* refers to stars that are visible at a time specified or implied, while *the visible stars* more aptly refers to a category of stars that can (at appropriate times) be seen. We have a similar distinction between the temporary and the permanent in *rivers navigable* and *navigable rivers*.

Appointed, *desired*, *required*; *following*, *past*, *preceding*; and *positive* also occur in either position:

at the *appointed* time	~ at the time *appointed*
in *past* years	~ in years *past*
the *preceding* years	~ the years *preceding*
positive proof	~ proof *positive*

Postposition is usual with the set phrase *pure and simple*, as in *the answer/truth pure and simple*.

Postposition (in preference to attributive position) is usual for a few *a*-adjectives (*cf* 7.10*f*) and for the four adjectives *absent*, *present*, *concerned*, *involved* when they designate 'temporary' as opposed to 'permanent' attributes (*cf* 17.7):

The house (which is) *ablaze* is next door to mine.
The boats (which were) *afloat* were not seen by the bandits.
The men (which were) *present* were his supporters.
The people (which were) *involved* were not found.
[*cf*: *the involved people*, which designates a permanent attribute, but *cf* Note [b]]

Postposition is used with *net* and *gross* when the precise amounts are stated:

He was paid a fee of *£12 gross*, on which he had to pay £4 tax, leaving the sum of *£8 net*. [BUT: *The gross sum* was £12. *The net sum* was £8.]

Compare *total*:

The {*sum total* / *total sum*} was £12.

Note [a] The postpositive adjective, as in *the president elect* and *vice-chancellor designate*, reflects a neoclassical style based on Latin participles and much in vogue in Elizabethan times. *Cf* the normal attributive position of English participles; 17.98*ff*:
the *elected* president, the *acting* professor

[b] Attributive *present* normally has temporal meaning (*eg*: *at the present time*); but it has the same sense as postpositive *present* (*ie* the antonym of *absent*) in the fixed expression *present company excluded* (where perhaps it has been transposed from its usual position because the participle has occupied that position) and in expressions that seem to be based on it, *eg*: *excluding present company* ('if we exclude present company').

In AmE, attributive and postpositive *involved* and *concerned* may have the same sense if the head of the noun phrase is *party* or *parties*:
the *involved* party, the *concerned* parties

Adjectives with complementation

7.22 Adjectives with complementation (*cf* 16.68*ff*) normally cannot have attributive position but require postposition. Compare:

a *suitable* actor BUT NOT: *a *suitable for the part* actor

The complementation can be a prepositional phrase or a *to*-infinitive clause:

I know an actor *suitable for the part.* [1]
They have a house *larger than yours.* [2]
The boys *easiest to teach* were in my class. [3]
Students *brave enough to attempt the course* deserve to succeed. [4]

The postpositive structures can of course be regarded as reduced relative clauses:

I know an actor *who is suitable for the part.* [1a]

If the adjective is alone or merely premodified by an intensifier, postposition is not normally allowed:

*They have a house (*much*) *larger.*
*The soldiers (*rather*) *timid* approached their officer.

However, if the noun phrase is generic and indefinite, coordinated adjectives, or adjectives with some clause element added, can be postposed, though such constructions are formal and rather infrequent:

Soldiers *timid or cowardly* don't fight well. [5]
Soldiers *normally timid* don't fight well. [6]
A man *usually honest* will sometimes cheat. [7]

The more usual constructions are premodification or a relative clause:

Timid or cowardly soldiers . . . [5a]
Soldiers *who are timid or cowardly* . . . [5b]
Soldiers *who are normally timid* . . . [6a]
A man *who is usually honest* . . . [7a]

Like relative clauses, postposed adjectives may be restrictive or nonrestrictive, *eg*:

Soldiers normally timid don't fight well.
['Soldiers who are . . .'] [generic and indefinite noun head] [6]
The soldiers, normally timid, fought bravely.
['The soldiers, who were . . .'] [specific and definite noun head] [6b]

The adjective of an adjective phrase can often be attributive, leaving its complementation in postposition. Thus, equivalent to sentences [2] and [3] are the somewhat more informal sentences [2a] and [3a]:

They have a *larger* house *than yours.* [2a]
The *easiest* boys *to teach* were in my class. [3a]

An adjective modified by *enough*, *too*, or *so* can be separated from its complementation if the modified adjective is placed before the indefinite (or zero) article of the noun phrase [8, 9]:

She is *brave enough* a student *to attempt the course.* [8]
It was *too boring* a book *to read.* [9]

With *enough*, the construction is more common if the adjective is premodified by *not*, as in [8a]:

She is *not brave enough* a student *to attempt the course.* [8a]

But with *enough* and *too*, this construction seems to be possible only if the adjective phrase is part of the subject complement or object complement (compare [8] and [8b]):

**Brave enough* a student *to attempt the course* deserves to succeed. [8b]

With *so*, the construction is also possible if the adjective phrase is part of the subject or object [10]:

A man *so difficult* / *So difficult* a man } *to please* must be hard to work with. [10]

Exceptionally, certain short prepositional phrases may also premodify an adjective in attributive position:

a *by no means* irresponsible action
~ an action (which is) by no means irresponsible

Compound modifiers usually denoting measurements may have either attributive or postpositive position (note also the *foot* ~ *feet* shift):

a *5000-foot high* mountain ~ a mountain (which is) 5000 feet high

Note We find the postposition of adjectives in poetry in cases where attributive position is the norm elsewhere in the language, *eg*:
Ben Battle was *a soldier bold* . . . (Thomas Hood)

Adjectives as heads of noun phrases

7.23 Adjectives can function as heads of noun phrases, which (like all noun phrases) can be subject of the sentence, complement, object, and prepositional complement. Adjectives as noun-phrase heads, unlike nouns, do not inflect for number or for the genitive case and they usually require a definite determiner (*cf* 5.56, App I.45).

Adjectives are typically used as heads of noun phrases to refer to certain fairly well-established classes of persons, *eg*: *the brave, the weak, the maladjusted, the elderly, the underprivileged.*

There are three types of adjectives functioning as noun-phrase heads:

(a) *The innocent* are often deceived by *the unscrupulous.* (7.24)
(b) *The industrious Dutch* are admired by their neighbours. (7.25)
(c) She admires *the mystical.* (7.26)

Type (a): *the innocent*

7.24 Adjectives which can premodify personal nouns (*the young people*) can be noun-phrase heads (*the young*) with plural and generic reference denoting classes, categories, or types of people. The adjective can itself be premodified [3–5] or postmodified [6–7]:

The poor are causing the nation's leaders great concern. [1]
There is a lack of communication between *the young* and *the old*. [2]
The extremely old need a great deal of attention. [3]
The emotionally disturbed and *the physically and mentally handicapped* need the aid of society. [4]
The very wise avoid such temptations. [5]
The young in spirit enjoy life. [6]
The old who resist change can expect violence. [7]

Notice that these adjectives are restricted to generic reference and take plural concord. Hence, *the poor* cannot denote one person. (*The poor person, man, woman*, etc can have either specific or generic reference.) It is often possible to add a general word for human beings such as *people* and retain the generic reference, in which case the definite determiner is normally omitted (*eg*: *old people*), but the use of the adjective as head of the noun phrase (*eg*: *the old*) is also common. We must distinguish the noun phrases from cases of textual ellipsis (*cf* 12.33*ff*):

The young students found the course difficult, *the older* found it easy.

Here, *the older* is elliptical for *the older students*.

The adjective can itself be modified, usually by restrictive modification, *eg* [5]: *the very wise*. Inflected comparison forms of the adjective are also possible (*the wiser*). Comparative inflection and adverb modification are indications of the adjective status of these noun-phrase heads, while modification by adjectives is more typical of nouns, and modification by relative clauses is normally an indication of noun status. Avoidance of modification by adjectives is probably related to the fact that this type of adjective as noun-phrase head tends to accept only restrictive modification. Premodifying adjectives with this noun-phrase head are normally interpreted as nonrestrictive. For example, *the wretched poor* would not normally be taken as a subclass of poor people, whereas with its premodifying adverb *the wretchedly poor* would be so taken.

In *the young of London*, the prepositional phrase is postmodifying a general noun that has been ellipted:

[those who are young] [in London]

By contrast, in *the young in spirit* [6], it is clear that the adjective itself is postmodified by a prepositional phrase, since the general noun cannot be postmodified by *in spirit*: **the people in spirit who are young*. We then have the structure:

[those who are [young [in spirit]]]

Similarly, we can argue that the relative clause in [7]:

the old who resist change

is postmodifying an ellipted general noun:

the people who resist change and *who are old*

Since *people* is not the only noun we can supply (for example we could insert *persons* instead), such ellipsis must be weak ellipsis (*cf* 12.38).

The definite determiner is normally the generic definite article *the*. Note however the use of the possessive determiner in:

We will nurse *your sick*, clothe *your naked*, and feed *your hungry*.
It is the duty of the Government to care for *our poor*, *our unemployed*.

Other types are: *we rich*, *these dead*. On the other hand, the following examples with *those* are instances of postposition which can be analysed as reduced relative clauses (*cf* 7.21):

those *present* ~ those *who are present*
those *assembled* ~ those *who are assembled*

Those dead is ambiguous between 'those dead ones' (adjective as head of a noun phrase) and 'those who are dead'.

Although adjectives functioning as noun-phrase heads generally require a definite determiner, they can function as such without a determiner if they are conjoined (*cf* 5.50):

*He is acceptable to *old/young*.
He is acceptable to *both* (*the*) *old and* (*the*) *young*.

Also in some *of*-constructions:

The number of jobless/unemployed is rising.

Note [a] Adjectives functioning as heads of noun phrases should be distinguished from nouns that are converted from adjectives (*cf* 7.13), *eg*: *an editorial, two blacks*. There is a great deal of varying usage in this area, *eg*:

the world's greats	the party's faithful(s)
the undecided(s)	the retired(s)

[b] Adjectives which do not denote fairly well-established classes are less likely to be used as heads of noun phrases with generic reference, *eg*: *the agitated, the bored, the resentful, the sleepy, the dirty*. This is a norm, not a rule, as can be seen in sentences like the following:
The alert will notice my irony, *the sleepy* may not.

Type (b): *the Dutch*

7.25 Some adjectives denoting nationalities (*cf* 5.56*f*) can be noun-phrase heads:

The industrious Dutch are admired by their neighbours.
You French and we British ought to be allies.

The adjectives in question are virtually restricted to words ending in *-(i)sh* and *-ch*:

British, Cornish, Danish, English, Irish, Spanish, Turkish, Welsh; *Dutch, French*

As with type (a) in 7.24, these noun phrases normally have generic reference and take plural concord. Unlike type (a), type (b) cannot be modified by adverbs: *the very wise*, but not ?*the very English*, with generic plural reference. However, they can be modified by adjectives, which are normally nonrestrictive, *ie*:

the industrious Dutch ['the Dutch, who are industrious']

Postmodifying prepositional phrases and relative clauses can be either restrictive or nonrestrictive (*cf* 17.3*ff*):

The Irish (*who live*) *in America* retain sentimental links with Ireland.
The Dutch, for many of whom speaking English is second nature, have produced many of the greatest grammarians of the English language.

Note [a] Easily confused with adjectives denoting nationalities of type (b), but distinct from them, are ethnic names (*cf* 5.88), *eg*: *Eskimo, Navaho, Bantu*. These, however, show their nominal character by the possibility of being modified by determiners and numerals (*two Eskimo, several Navaho*) and, optionally, taking plural *-s*: *two Eskimo(s)*.
[b] Nationality adjectives are sometimes used not to refer to the nation as a whole but to some part of it, for example, teams and troops representing their country (*cf* 5.111):
The English lost against *the Welsh* in the final.
In 1796 *the French* invaded northern Italy.
[c] *You British* and *you French* can also be analysed as having *you* as head and the names of the nationalities as noun phrases in restrictive apposition (*cf* 17.88).
[d] As stated above, adjectives denoting nationalities that can be noun-phrase heads normally have generic reference. There are, however, many exceptions, *eg*: *two Boston Irish* ['Irishmen/Irishwomen'] and *the other English*, as in
?Now tell me about *the other English* at the villa, especially the one who has disappeared.

Type (c): *the mystical*

7.26 Some adjectives can function as noun-phrase heads with abstract reference. They include, in particular, superlatives, in which case we can sometimes insert a general noun like *thing* in its abstract sense:

The latest (thing/news) is that he is going to run for re-election.

Unlike types (a) and (b), type (c) adjectives functioning as noun-phrase heads take singular concord:

They ventured into *the unknown*, which was . . .
The best is yet to come.

They can be modified by adverbs:

The very best (thing) is yet to come.
He went from *the extremely sublime* to *the extremely ridiculous*.

Type (c) is restricted chiefly to certain fixed expressions. Thus, for example, *the supernatural, the exotic, the unreal* are more likely to occur than *the lovely, the foreign, the exciting*, with abstract, generic reference.

Note There are a number of set expressions in which an adjective with abstract reference is complement of a preposition (*cf* 9.1 Note [c]), *eg*:

It's *for the good* of everyone.	He enjoyed it *to the full*.
He left *for good*.	*from bad to worse*
in public/private/secret	*out of the ordinary*
in the nude/in the wild	*in the extreme*
in short	*above (the) normal*
into the open	*on the loose*
on the sly	*in common*

In many of these examples, the word-class status of the word following the preposition (or *the*) is indeterminate between adjective and noun.

Supplementive adjective clauses

7.27 Adjectives can function as the sole realization of a verbless clause (*cf* 14.9) or as the head of an adjective phrase realizing the clause:

The man, *quietly assertive*, spoke to the assembled workers. [1]
Unhappy with the result, she returned to work. [2]
Glad to accept, the boy nodded his agreement. [3]
Anxious for a quick decision, the chairman called for a vote. [4]
Long and untidy, his hair played in the breeze. [5]

As the following examples demonstrate, the supplementive adjective clause (*cf* 15.60*ff*) is mobile, though (partly to avoid ambiguity) it usually precedes or (less usually) follows the subject of the superordinate clause:

Rather nervous, the man opened the letter. [6]
The man, *rather nervous*, opened the letter. [6a]
The man opened the letter, *rather nervous*. [6b]

When it follows the subject, as in [6a], it is in some respects like a nonrestrictive relative clause (*cf* 17.22*ff*):

The man, *who was nervous*, opened the letter.

But the adjective clause suggests that the man's nervousness is related to the content of the sentence, whereas the relative clause does not necessarily convey that implication. Another difference is that the adjective clause is related to the predication as well as to the subject. Furthermore, unlike the relative clause, the adjective clause is mobile and (with the exception discussed below) its implied subject is the subject of the sentence. Thus, while we have [7], we do not have as its equivalent [7a]:

The man restrained the woman, *who was aggressive*. [7]
*The man restrained the woman, *aggressive*. [7a]

However, if the supplementive adjective clause contains additional clause constituents, it can be related to a noun phrase other than the subject of the sentence:

She glanced with disgust at the cat, { *quiet (now) in her daughter's lap.* / *now quiet.* / **quiet.* }

Compare participle clauses, where the implied subject can also be other than the subject of the sentence (*cf* 15.62):

She glanced with disgust at the cat, { *stretched out on the rug.* / *mewing plaintively.* }

Under certain conditions, and with little change of meaning, an adjective functioning as a supplementive adjective clause may be replaced by an adverb. Thus, instead of [6] we might have

Nervously, the man opened the letter. [6c]

Like the adjective, an adverb with this function (*cf* 8.92*ff*) refers to an attribute or state of the subject, though it normally does so specifically in relation to the action that he is performing. This is typically expressed by adverbs in medial position (*cf* 8.16):

The man *nervously* opened the letter. [6d]

The adjective refers to the subject without explicit reference to the action, but unless otherwise stated, the characterization is only temporary.

Note [a] An adverb can (obviously) not be substituted if there is no corresponding adverb (*cf* 7.6), *eg*: *long* in [5]:

*Longly / Untidily } his hair played in the breeze. [5a]

[b] Nor can replacement by an adverb take place if the complementation or modification of the adjective is disallowed for the adverb, *eg* [1a] **quietly assertively*, [3a] **gladly to accept*, [4a] **anxiously for a quick decision*. If *unhappy with the result* in [2] is replaced by *unhappily*, the likely meaning will be 'I'm sorry to say that . . .' (rather than 'She was unhappy'), *ie* a disjunct interpretation.

7.28 The implied subject of a supplementive adjective clause can be the whole of the superordinate clause:

Strange, it was she who initiated divorce proceedings. [1]
Most important, his report offered prospects of a great profit. [2]
More remarkable still, he is in charge of the project. [3]

For example, [1] is semantically equivalent to [1a]:

(*The fact*) *that* it was she who initiated divorce proceedings *is strange*. [1a]

These supplementive adjective clauses relate to the superordinate clause like comment clauses introduced by *what* (*cf* 15.53*ff*). For example, for [1] we have [1b]:

What is (even more) *strange*, it was she who initiated divorce proceedings. [1b]

The few adjectives that can be used for this purpose convey the attitude that what is being said is in some measure strange, *eg*: *curious*, *funny*, *odd*, *strange*, *surprising*. A few others seem possible if they are premodified by *more* or *most*, as in [2] and [3]. This type of adjective clause must precede its superordinate clause.

Note [a] A corresponding adverb can be substituted for the adjective with little or no difference in meaning, as with *strangely* for *strange* in [1] (*cf* content disjuncts in 8.127*ff*):

Strangely, it was she who initiated divorce proceedings. [1c]

The adjective, unlike the adverb, allows a *that*- or *how*-clause to follow:

Strange { that it turned out that way. [4] / how she still likes him. [5]

**Strangely*, { that it turned out that way. [4a] / how she still likes him. [5a]

This is because the adjective is elliptical for an extraposed construction (*cf* 18.33*ff*) [5b], or perhaps a pseudo-cleft construction (*cf* 18.29) [5c]:

It is strange how she still likes him. [5b]
What is strange is how she still likes him. [5c]

[b] Objections have been voiced against both *most important* (as in [2] above) and *most importantly*. Some usage books recommend the one construction, some the other.

Contingent adjective clauses

7.29 A special type of supplementive adjective clause is the contingent adjective clause, which expresses the circumstance or condition under which what is said in the superordinate clause applies. The contingent clause is elliptical (*cf* 12.31*ff*) with ellipsis of an appropriate form of *be*, and (sometimes) of the subordinator:

Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in an argument because of his inability to speak cogently. [1]
When fit, the Labrador is an excellent retriever. [2]
If wet, these shoes should never be placed too close to the heat. [3]

As with other supplementive adjective clauses (*cf* 7.27*f*), the implied subject of the contingent adjective clause is normally the subject of the superordinate clause, but the clause is not equivalent to a nonrestrictive relative clause. Unlike other supplementive adjective clauses, contingent adjective clauses often have a subordinator present. It is sometimes omitted, so that we can have [1a]:

Right or wrong, he always comes off worst . . . [1a]

When the implied subject is the subject of the superordinate clause, it is normal to put the adjective initially, as in [1–3], but it is not uncommon to put it finally in spoken English. If a subordinator is present, there is no problem in positioning the clause finally even in written English:

These shoes should never be placed too close to the heat *if wet*. [3a]

The contingent clause can also refer to the object of the superordinate clause, though only a few adjectives are available for this use:

He sells them *new*. [4]
I can't drink it *hot*. [5]
You must eat it *when fresh*. [6]

The adjective then usually comes finally and could be regarded as a complement in [4] and [5] (*cf* 10.16). A subordinator is also often present, as in [6]. As with all complements, the normal position of the adjective is final, whether it is in a copular relation to the object of an active clause [7] or to the subject of a passive clause [8]:

To make good tomato chutney, you should pick the tomatoes *green*. [7]
The tomatoes should be picked *green*. [8]
**Green* you should pick the tomatoes. [7a]
**Green* the tomatoes should be picked. [8a]

In informal spoken English, an adjective clause which refers to the object of the superordinate clause can occur initially, though the position would be avoided if ambiguity resulted, as in:

Hot, I can't drink coffee. ['When I'm hot . . .' or 'I can't drink coffee hot.'] [5a]

The adjective clause can also refer to the whole of the superordinate clause (which would be realized in the subordinate clause by the pro-form *it*). In such cases the subordinator cannot be omitted:

If (it is) *possible*, the puppy should be fed four times a day.

When (it is) *necessary*, he can be taken to the doctor.
You must come *as soon as* (it is) *possible*.

Note [a] *Cf* 14.9*ff* for further discussion of adjective clauses and other verbless clauses, as well as of nonfinite clauses that require similar treatment.
[b] Corresponding adverbs cannot replace adjectives in contingent adjective clauses. [1] is ambiguous between the more probable interpretation of the adjective clause as conditional ('Whether he is right or wrong . . .') and the other possibility that it is a noncontingent supplementive clause with the superordinate clause as its implied subject (*cf* 7.28) ('Whether it is right or wrong . . .'). In the latter interpretation, adverbs can replace the adjectives:
Whether rightly or wrongly, he always comes off worst in an argument . . . [1b]

Exclamatory adjective clauses

7.30 Adjectives (especially those that can be complement when the subject is eventive, *eg*: *That's excellent!*) can be exclamations, with or without an initial *wh*-element (*cf* 11.14*f*, 12.31*ff*):

Excellent! (How) *wonderful!* (How) *good of you!*

Such adjective phrases need not be dependent on any previous linguistic context, but may be a comment on some object or activity in the situational context.

Syntactic subclassification of adjectives

7.31 We turn now to consider the characteristics of the peripheral adjectives, those that are restricted to attributive or to predicative use (*cf* 7.3*f*). The restrictions are not always absolute, and sometimes vary with individual speakers.

Attributive only

7.32 In general, adjectives that are restricted to attributive position, or that occur predominantly in attributive position, do not characterize the referent of the noun directly. For example, *old* can be either a central adjective or an adjective restricted to attributive position. In *that old man* (the opposite of *that young man*), *old* is a central adjective, and can thus also be predicative: *That man is old*. On the other hand, in the usual sense of *an old friend of mine* ['a friend of old, a long-standing friend'], *old* is restricted to attributive position and cannot be related to *My friend is old*. In this case, *old* is the opposite of *new* ['recently acquired']. The person referred to is not being identified as old: it is his friendship that is old. Outside such well-established phrases as *old friend*, *new friend*, the contrast *old/new* requires the adjective to be stressed:

I'll take my '*old* car tonight.

Similarly, the attributive adjective in *the wrong candidate* does not refer to the wrongness of the person but to the mistake in identifying the person as a

candidate. Adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly (*that old man*, *My friend is old*) are termed INHERENT, those that do not (*an old friend of mine*) are termed NONINHERENT (*cf* 7.43, 7.73).

Note However, some noninherent adjectives occur also predicatively. In part, noninherent adjectives appear to be excluded from predicative position because of pressure from homonyms that commonly occupy that position, as with *old*. But the reasons for the restriction are not always clear. For example, both *a new student* and *a new friend* are noninherent, yet only the former can be used predicatively:
That student is *new*. *My friend is *new*.
Some of the factors that are involved in the restriction will emerge in the course of an identification of the types of adjective that are restricted to attributive position.
A few adjectives with strongly emotive value which will not be further discussed are restricted to attributive position, though the scope of the adjective clearly extends to the person referred to by the noun, *eg*: *you poor man*, *my dear lady*, *that wretched woman*. These all involve nonrestrictive modification (*cf* 17.3*ff*).

Intensifying adjectives

7.33 Some adjectives have a heightening effect on the noun they modify, or the reverse, a lowering effect. At least three semantic subclasses of intensifying adjectives can be distinguished (*cf* 8.99*ff*):

(a) emphasizers
(b) amplifiers
(c) downtoners

(a) EMPHASIZERS have a general heightening effect and are generally attributive only, *eg*:

a *true* scholar	[1]	*plain* nonsense	[7]
a *clear* failure	[2]	the *simple* truth	[8]
pure ['sheer'] fabrication	[3]	an *outright* lie	[9]
a *real* ['undoubted'] hero	[4]	*sheer* arrogance	[10]
a *certain* winner	[5]	a *sure* sign	[11]
a *definite* loss	[6]		

(b) AMPLIFIERS scale upwards from an assumed norm, and are central adjectives if they are inherent and denote a high or extreme degree:

a *complete* victory ~ The victory was *complete*.
great destruction ~ The destruction was *great*.

On the other hand, when they are noninherent, amplifiers are attributive only:

a *complete* fool ~ *The fool is *complete*.
a *firm* friend ~ *The friend is *firm*.

Complete refers to the completeness of the folly, and *firm* to the firmness of the friendship (in which sense it is asterisked here).

Amplifiers are only attributive also when they are used as emphasizers, conveying principally emphasis rather than degree. For example, *total* in *total nonsense* is an emphasizer, while in *total destruction* it is an amplifier and has a literal application ('the destruction of everything'). Hence the contrast:

total nonsense ≁ *The nonsense was *total*.
total destruction ~ The destruction was *total*.

Further examples of adjectives as amplifiers that are attributive only:

utter folly	the *absolute* limit
a *close* friend	a *complete* stranger
an *extreme* enemy	his *entire* salary
a *great* supporter	a *perfect* stranger
a *strong* opponent	*total* irresponsibility

(c) DOWNTONERS have a lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm. They are relatively few (*eg*: *slight* in *a slight effort*, *feeble* in *a feeble joke*) and can be ignored for our present purpose, since they are generally central adjectives.

7.34 Many of the intensifying adjectives in 7.33 can be related to intensifying adverbs (*cf* 8.104):

He is a *true* scholar.	~ He is *truly* a scholar.
It was a *clear* failure.	~ It was *clearly* a failure.
It is *utter* folly to do that.	~ It is *utterly* foolish to do that.

Notice that several intensifying adjectives have homonyms that can occur both attributively and predicatively. Compare:

I drank some *pure* ['clean'] water. [central adjective]
~ The water is *pure*.
That is *pure* ['sheer'] fabrication. [emphasizer]
≁ *The fabrication is *pure*.
Those are *real* flowers. [central adjective]
~ Those flowers are *real*, not artificial.
He's a *real* ['undoubted'] hero. [emphasizer]
≁ *The hero is *real*.

Examples of intensifying adjectives which can occur predicatively include:

His condemnation was *extreme*.	Their victory is *certain*.
His folly was *great*.	The earthquake was *strong*.

Note Many adjectives which can be used as intensifiers and are restricted to attributive position have severe restrictions on the nouns they modify, *eg*: *a great/big baby* ['very babyish'], *a big fool* ['very foolish']; also *a great friend* rather than *a big friend* in the sense of 'very friendly'.

Restrictive adjectives

7.35 Restrictive adjectives restrict the reference of the noun exclusively, particularly, or chiefly. Examples, within noun phrases, include:

a *certain* person	his *chief* excuse
the *principal* objection	the *exact* answer
the *same* student	the *sole* argument
the *only* occasion	the *specific* point
a *particular* child	the *very* man

Again, some of these have homonyms. For example, *certain* in *a certain person* is a restrictive (equivalent to 'a particular person'), while in *a certain winner* it is (as we saw in 7.33, example [5]) an intensifier (equivalent to 'a sure winner').

Some restrictive adjectives can be related to restrictive adverbs (*cf* 8.118):

It is the *main* reason.	~ It is *mainly* the reason.
That was the *precise* reason.	~ That was *precisely* the reason.

Note [a] Notice the use of *very* as a restrictive adjective rather than as an intensifying adverb (*cf* 7.89):
You are *the very man* I want.
The same meaning can be conveyed by restrictive adverbs outside the noun phrase (whereas *very* occurs within the noun phrase):
You are *precisely/exactly/just the man* I want.
[b] 'Universal' adjectives like *whole* (*cf* 5.17), *entire*, *full* are similar to restrictive adjectives:
The *whole* situation is ridiculous.
I'm in *entire/full* agreement with the committee.

Other adjectives related to adverbs

7.36 Some noninherent adjectives that are attributive only can be related to adverbs but do not always fall within the intensifying or restrictive types of adjectives. These noninherent adjectives (*cf* 7.43, 7.73) include:

my *former* friend	['formerly my friend']
an *old* friend	['a friend of old']
past students	['students in the past']
a *possible* friend	['possibly a friend']
the *present* king	['the king at present']
an *occasional* visitor	['occasionally a visitor']

The adverbial nature of these adjectives can be seen in their correspondences with a verb of general meaning and an adverb, *eg*:

rapid calculations	'make calculations *rapidly*'
occasional showers	'showers occur *occasionally*'

These verbs (*make*, *perform*, *act*, *occur*, *happen*, *take place*, etc) can be seen as lexical realizations of the predicational force that is inherent in the nouns. Even a noun like *friend* in *my former friend* signifies an activity, as appears in the correspondence of 'acting as a friend'. Some adjectives require implications additional to the adverbial:

the *late* president ['the person who was formerly the president (but is now dead)']

But compare:

the late bus ['the bus that leaves late (in the evening)' where *late* is a central adjective]
the *former* reason ['the reason stated formerly']

Many of these adjectives have a temporal meaning. We might include with them *acting* ['for the time being'], as in *the acting chairman*.

If the adjectives premodify agentive nouns, the latter also suggest a relationship to an associated verb (*cf* nominalization, 17.51*ff*):

a *big* eater	['someone who eats a lot']
a *clever* liar	['someone who lies cleverly']
a *hard* worker	['someone who works hard']
a *heavy* smoker	['someone who smokes heavily']
a *sound* sleeper	['someone who sleeps soundly']

Note Not all instances like *a clever liar* involve a restriction to attributive position. Possible conflict with homonyms seems a contributory factor. Thus *a clever liar* is analogous to *a clever writer, a clever student*, or *a clever detective*. In all four instances, *clever* refers to the ability of the person in respect of the reference of the noun – clever as a liar, clever as a writer, etc. However, these instances could be used predicatively, and so can antonyms of *clever*:

That writer is *clever/lazy*.
That student is *clever/weak*.
That detective is *clever/inefficient*.

Nevertheless, we normally cannot use these adjectives predicatively in the intended sense when the noun is pejorative:

a *clever* liar [≠ 'That liar is clever.']
a *bad* liar [≠ 'That liar is bad.']

On the other hand, one thief might well say of another *That thief is good*, but in that case he is not using *thief* pejoratively. *Cf*: *He is good at stealing, but bad at lying*.

Adjectives related to nouns

7.37 Some adjectives are derived from nouns by means of suffixes (*cf* App I.38*f*), *eg*:

-ar: *polar* bear	*-an*: *urban* population
-en: *earthen* pottery	*-al*: *tidal* wave
-ic: *atomic* scientist	*-ly*: *yearly* income

Many such denominal adjectives are nongradable and restricted to attributive position:

an *atomic* scientist ['a scientist specializing in the theory of atoms']
a *criminal* court ['a court dealing with crime']
a *criminal* lawyer ['a lawyer specializing in cases of crime']
a *polar* bear ['a bear living near the pole']
a *medical* school ['a school for students of medicine']
musical comedy ['comedy accompanied by music']
a *tidal* wave ['a wave produced by the tide']

The examples contain nouns with a denominal adjective referring to the activity of the agent or expressing an adverbial relation. In other uses, the same item may also be a central adjective, for example *criminal* in *a criminal lawyer* ['a lawyer who is criminal'] (*cf* 7.13).

Predicative only

7.38 Adjectives that are restricted, or virtually restricted, to predicative position (*cf* 7.3*f*) are most like verbs and adverbs. They tend to refer to a (possibly temporary) condition rather than to characterize. Perhaps the most common are those referring to the health (or lack of health) of an animate being:

He felt *ill/poorly* ⟨both esp BrE⟩/*well/faint/unwell*.

However, many people use such adjectives as attributives too, for example:

A *well* person need see a doctor only for a periodic checkup.

Note *Sick* is the exception among these 'health' adjectives in that its attributive use is very common:

the *sick* woman ['The woman is sick.']

Be sick is especially AmE corresponding to *be ill* in BrE. *Be sick* can also mean 'vomit' in both AmE and BrE, especially with a verb in the progressive or an adverbial interpretable as a goal:

She is being *sick*.
The dog was *sick* on the new carpet.

This use of *sick* is euphemistic, and *ill* is occasionally used in the same way. For comparative forms of *ill*, *cf* 7.77.

7.39 A large group of adjectives that are restricted to predicative position comprises adjectives which can take complementation:

I'm *aware of that*.
She was *glad that everything was all right*.

Other adjectives which take complementation include (*cf* 16.68*ff*):

able (*to* + infinitive)	*fond* (*of*)
afraid (*that, of, about*)	*happy* (*that, to, with, about*)
answerable (*to*)	*loath* (*to*)
averse (*to, from*)	*subject* (*to*)
conscious (*that, of*)	*tantamount* (*to*)

Some of these adjectives must take complementation (*eg*: *subject to* and *tantamount to*), and many normally do.

Many of these adjectives closely resemble verbs semantically:

He *is afraid to* do it. ['He *fears to* do it.']
They *are fond of* her. ['They *like* her.']
That *is tantamount to* an ultimatum.
['That *amounts to* an ultimatum.']

Some constructions like *be willing to* and *be able to* function like modals where the modal auxiliary paradigm is defective (*cf* 3.39*ff*). Compare:

She *can* do it.	~ She *is able to* do it.
She *could* do it.	~ She *was able to* do it.
_____	She *has been able to* do it.
_____	She *might have been able to* do it.

Some of these adjectives that are restricted to predicative position have homonyms that can occur both predicatively and attributively, *eg*:

the *conscious* patient ~ The patient is *conscious*. [= 'awake']
Cf: He is *conscious* of his faults. [= 'aware']

With some adjectives that take complementation there appears to be no semantic distinction, and we must say that they can freely occur in both positions, *eg*: *eager, indignant, surprised*.

Note [a] Most of the adjectives beginning with *a-* are predicative only (*cf* 7.10*f*). As we have seen above, several of them can take complementation, *eg*: *afraid, averse*.

[b] It is not usually possible for the adjective to be complement if the subject is indefinite, and hence the oddness of [1] (*cf* 19.70*f*) compared with [2]. An exception occurs with the generic use of the indefinite article (*cf* 5.52*f*), as in [3]:

**A street* is wide.	[1]
The street is wide.	[2]
A tiger is dangerous.	[3]

Semantic subclassification of adjectives

7.40 Some of the semantic distinctions that we are about to make have already been mentioned because they have syntactic correlates.

Three semantic scales are applicable to adjectives: STATIVE/DYNAMIC, GRADABLE/NONGRADABLE, and INHERENT/NONINHERENT. It is important to realize that we are dealing with scales rather than with a feature that is present or absent. That is to say, not all the realizations of a feature are available in each case. Furthermore, there may be idiolectal variations in the recognition of a feature or in the acceptability of its realizations.

Stative/dynamic

7.41 Adjectives are characteristically stative. Many adjectives, however, can be seen as dynamic (*cf* 2.43). In particular, most adjectives that are susceptible to subjective measurement (*cf* 7.74) are capable of being dynamic. Stative and dynamic adjectives differ syntactically in a number of ways. For example, a stative adjective such as *tall* cannot be used with the progressive aspect or with the imperative:

*He's being *tall*. *Be *tall*.

On the other hand, we can use *careful* as a dynamic adjective:

He's being *careful*. Be *careful*.

(For other differences, *cf* 3.66.) A general semantic feature of dynamic adjectives seems to be that they denote qualities that are thought to be subject to control by the possessor and hence can be restricted temporally.

Adjectives that can be used dynamically include:

abusive	adorable	ambitious
awkward	brave	calm
careful	careless	cheerful
clever	complacent	conceited
cruel	disagreeable	dull
enthusiastic	extravagant	faithful
foolish	friendly	funny
generous	gentle	good
greedy	hasty	helpful
impatient	impudent	irritable

irritating	jealous	kind
lenient	loyal	mischievous
naughty	nice	noisy
obstinate	patient	playful
reasonable	rude	sensible
serious	shy	slow
spiteful	stubborn	stupid
suspicious	tactful	talkative
thoughtful	tidy	timid
troublesome	unfaithful	unscrupulous
untidy	vain	vicious
vulgar	wicked	witty

Gradable/nongradable

7.42 Most adjectives are gradable. Gradability is manifested through comparison (*cf* 7.74*ff*):

tall	~ tall*er*	~ tall*est*
beautiful	~ *more* beautiful	~ *most* beautiful

Gradability is also manifested through modification by intensifiers, *ie* adverbs which convey the degree of intensity of the adjective:

very tall *so* beautiful *extremely* useful

Gradability applies to adverbs as well as adjectives, and hence it is considered below in relation to both classes (*cf* 7.74*ff*).

All dynamic and most stative adjectives (*eg*: *tall, old*) are gradable; some stative adjectives are not, principally denominal adjectives like *atomic scientist* and *hydrochloric acid* (*cf* 7.37), and adjectives denoting provenance, *eg*: *British* (*cf* 7.45; but *cf* the qualitative use of nationality adjectives in 7.87).

Inherent/noninherent

7.43 The distinction between inherent and noninherent adjectives has been discussed in 7.32. Most adjectives are inherent, that is to say, they characterize the referent of the noun directly. For example, the inherent adjective in *a wooden cross* applies to the referent of the object directly: a wooden cross is also a wooden object. On the other hand, in *a wooden actor* the adjective is noninherent: a wooden actor is not (presumably) a wooden man. Some other examples:

INHERENT	NONINHERENT
a *firm* handshake	a *firm* friend
a *perfect* alibi	a *perfect* stranger
a *certain* result	a *certain* winner
a *true* report	a *true* scholar

Modification of a noun by means of a noninherent adjective can be seen as an extension of the basic sense of the noun. Thus *a firm friend* is 'a friend whose friendship is firm', and *a perfect stranger* is 'a stranger who is perfectly strange'.

If the adjective is inherent, it is often possible to derive a noun from it (*cf* 17.51*ff*):

her *soft* touch ~ the *softness* of her touch

However, with a noninherent adjective no such derivation is possible. Compare:

a *firm* handshake ~ the *firmness* of the handshake
a *firm* friend ≁ *the *firmness* of the friend

a *true* report ~ the *truth* of the report
a *true* scholar ≁ *the *truth* of the scholar

There are, however, exceptions to this generalization, since we find instances like:

a *wooden* actor ~ the *woodenness* of the actor

Patterns of semantic subclassification

7.44 Gradable adjectives are either inherent, as in *a black coat*, or noninherent, as in *a new friend*. Dynamic adjectives are generally inherent, though there are exceptions; for example, *wooden* in *The actor is being wooden* is both dynamic and noninherent.

Table 7.44 gives examples of adjectives that illustrate the various possibilities with respect to the three semantic distinctions that we have been discussing.

Table 7.44 Semantic subclassification of adjectives

GRADABLE	INHERENT	STATIVE	
+	+	+	That's a *big* boat; She is a *brave* woman. [central adjectives]
+	+	−	She is being very *brave*. [dynamic use of central adjective]
+	−	+	He is a *firm* friend; He is a *wooden* actor. [peripheral adjectives: noninherent]
+	−	−	This actor is being *wooden* tonight. [dynamic use of stative adjective]
−	−	+	She is a *medical* student. [peripheral adjective: nongradable and noninherent]

Note In *a dull teacher*, the adjective *dull* is noninherent, since a dull teacher is not necessarily a dull person. However, in the following sentence *dull* is being used dynamically and is now inherent:

The teacher is being *dull*.

In this case the process of being dull is ascribed to the teacher, but the same quality is ascribed to the referent of the subject if we replace *the teacher* by another designation for the person:

That man / Mrs Jones } is being *dull*.

Ordering of adjectives in premodification

7.45 When there are two or more adjectives cooccurring in attributive position, the order of the adjectives is to a large extent determined by their semantic properties. The principles for the order of items in premodification are discussed in 17.113*ff*. Here we will only mention the major zones, or positional ranges, of adjectives in premodifying position in relation to the semantic and syntactic subclassification provided in this chapter.

In the premodification structure of the noun phrase, adjectives are placed between the determinatives (including predeterminers, central determiners, and postdeterminers) and the head of the noun phrase (*cf* 5.1*ff*). We distinguish four zones:

(I) PRECENTRAL
Here, after the determinatives, is where peripheral, nongradable adjectives are placed, in particular the intensifying adjectives (emphasizers, amplifiers, and downtoners; *cf* 7.33), *eg*: *certain, definite, sheer, complete, slight*.

(II) CENTRAL
This zone is the place of the central adjectives, *ie* the 'most adjectival items', which satisfy all four criteria for adjective status (*cf* 7.3*f*), *eg*: *hungry, ugly, funny, stupid, silent, rich, empty*.

(III) POSTCENTRAL
This zone includes participles, *eg*: *retired, sleeping*, and colour adjectives, *eg*: *red, pink*.

(IV) PREHEAD
This zone includes the 'least adjectival and the most nominal' items, such as denominal adjectives (*cf* 7.37) denoting nationality, ethnic background, *eg*: *Austrian, Midwestern*, and denominal adjectives with the meaning 'consisting of', 'involving', 'relating to', *eg*: *experimental, statistical, political, statutory*. In the prehead zone we also find nouns in attributive position (*cf* further 17.113*ff*).

On the basis of this classification, we can expect the following order:

I + II	*certain important* people
I + III	the *same restricted* income
I + IV	your *present annual* turnover
II + III	a *funny red* hat
II + IV	an *enormous tidal* wave
I + II + IV	*certain rich American* producers

ADVERBS

Characteristics of the adverb

7.46 The adverb functions as the head of an adverb phrase, with or without modification (*cf* 2.31). For the sake of simplicity, we refer to the functions of the 'adverb' when, strictly speaking, we should refer to the functions of the 'adverb phrase'. For the same reason, we generally exemplify the functions of the adverb phrase with the adverb alone.

Because of its great heterogeneity, the adverb class is the most nebulous and puzzling of the traditional word classes. Indeed, it is tempting to say simply that the adverb is an item that does not fit the definitions for other word classes. As a consequence, some grammarians have removed certain types of items from the class entirely, and established several additional classes rather than retain these as subsets within a single adverb class.

Morphologically, we can distinguish three types of adverb, of which two are closed classes (simple and compound), and one is an open class (derivational):

(a) SIMPLE adverbs, *eg*: *just*, *only*, *well*. Many simple adverbs denote position and direction, *eg*: *back*, *down*, *near*, *out*, *under* (*cf* further 8.39*ff*).

(b) COMPOUND adverbs, *eg*: *somehow*, *somewhere*, *therefore*; and ⟨the very formal⟩ *whereupon*, *hereby*, *herewith*, *whereto*

(c) DERIVATIONAL adverbs. The majority of derivational adverbs have the suffix *-ly*, by means of which new adverbs are created from adjectives (and participial adjectives):

odd ~ *oddly*
interesting ~ *interestingly*

Other, less common, derivational suffixes (*cf* App I.41) are:

-wise:	clockwise	*-ways*:	sideways
-ward(s):	northward(s)	*-style*:	cowboy-style
-fashion:	schoolboy-fashion		

Note [a] Corresponding to the prepositional phrase *towards the south* (*east*/*north*/*west*) there are the adverbs *south*, *southward*, and *southwards*, etc. The *s*-less form *southward*, etc is common, especially in printed AmE (*cf*: *towards*/*toward*, 9.17):

The window faces { *south* ⟨most common⟩ / *southwards* / *southward* ⟨esp printed AmE⟩ }

Compare other adverb expressions:

We walked { *home*/*up* ⟨most common⟩ / *homewards*/*upwards* / *homeward*/*upward* ⟨esp printed AmE⟩ }

[b] The creation of adverbs from adjectives by adding the *-ly* suffix is closely related to the dynamic quality in the adjective (*cf* 7.41). Thus we have, for example:

cheerful	~ *cheerfully*	*suspicious*	~ *suspiciously*
jealous	~ *jealously*	*reasonable*	~ *reasonably*

But we do not find *French* ↛ **Frenchly*, etc. It appears that *-ly* adverbs are not formed from typically stative adjective classes, such as adjectives denoting:

dimension:	*big*	~ **bigly*	*tall*	~ **tally*
colour:	*red*	~ **redly*	*blonde*	~ **blondely*
age:	*old*	~ **oldly*	*young*	~ **youngly*

7.47 Rules for forming open-class *-ly* adverbs from adjectives:

(a) Adjectives ending in consonant + *-le* form adverbs by replacing *-le* by *-ly*: simp*le* ~ simp*ly*. Exception: *whole* ~ *wholly*.

(b) In adjectives ending in consonant + *y*, *y* is usually replaced by *i* before *-ly*: *happy* ~ *happily*. In some cases there exist alternative spellings:

dry ~ dr*ily*/dr*yly* sly ~ sl*ily*/sl*yly*

In other cases, *-y* is kept in the adverb:

spry ~ spryly wry ~ wryly

Note the spellings: *coy* ~ *coyly* but *gay* ~ *gaily*; *due* ~ *duly*, *true* ~ *truly*.

(c) Adjectives ending in both *-ic* and *-ical* have corresponding adverbs in *-ically*:

{ economic / economical } ~ economically { tragic / tragical } ~ tragically

Exception: *public* ~ *publicly*

(d) *-ed* participles form adverbs in *-edly* with the pronunciation /ɪdlɪ/ (*cf* 7.19):

marked /mɑːʳkt/ ~ mark*edly* /ˈmɑːʳkɪdlɪ/
learned /ˈlɜːʳnɪd/ ~ learn*edly* /ˈlɜːʳnɪdlɪ/
assured /əˈʃʊəʳd/ ~ assur*edly* /əˈʃʊərɪdlɪ/

(e) Adjectives in *-ary* form adverbs in *-arily* with shift of stress, in AmE, to the antepenultimate syllable. This stress shift is now frequent also in BrE (*cf* App II.5 Note):

ˈsecon,dary { ~ ˌsecon'darily ⟨esp AmE⟩ / ~ ˈsecondarily }

ˈprimary { ~ ˌpri'marily ⟨esp AmE⟩ / ~ ˈprimarily }

Adverb as clause element

7.48 There are two types of syntactic functions that characterize the traditional adverbs, but an adverb need have only one of these:

(a) clause element adverbial:

He *quite* forgot about it.

(b) premodifier of adjective and adverb:

They are *quite* { happy. / happily married.

An adverb may function in the clause itself as adverbial, *ie* as an element distinct from subject, verb, object, and complement. As such it is usually an optional element and hence peripheral to the structure of the clause (*cf* 2.15):

Perhaps my suggestion will be accepted.
John *always* loses his pencils.
They may *well* complain about his appearance.
He has *nevertheless* refused to accept our excuse.
I spoke to her *outside*.

There are, of course, differences between the adverbials in the above sentences, most obviously the differences in their position and in their relationship to other elements of the sentence (*cf* Chapter 8).

Note [a] Certain adverbs may function as subject (*cf* 10.15 Notes [a] and [b]), *eg*:
Tomorrow will be fine. ['It will be fine tomorrow.']
[b] The adverb may itself be modified, in which case the adverb phrase as a whole functions as adverbial or premodifier:

John *nearly always* loses his pencils.	*so very* helpful
They may *very well* complain about his appearance.	*far too* often

Adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts

7.49 The functions of the adverb as the clause element adverbial are examined in Chapter 8. For the present, we merely outline the four grammatical functions that are discussed in that chapter: adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts.

ADJUNCTS and SUBJUNCTS are relatively integrated within the structure of the clause (*cf* 8.25*ff*, 8.88*ff*). Examples of adjuncts:

Slowly they walked back home.
He spoke to me about it *briefly*.

Examples of subjuncts:

We haven't *yet* finished.
Would you *kindly* wait for me.

By contrast, disjuncts and conjuncts have a more peripheral relation in the sentence. Semantically, DISJUNCTS (*cf* 8.121*ff*) express an evaluation of what is being said either with respect to the form of the communication or to its meaning. We identify disjuncts with the speaker's authority for, or comment on, the accompanying clause:

Frankly, I'm tired.
Fortunately, no one complained.
They are *probably* at home.
She *wisely* didn't attempt to apologize.

CONJUNCTS (*cf* 8.134*ff*) express the speaker's assessment of the relation between two linguistic units, *eg*:

She has bought a big house, *so* she must have a lot of money.
We have complained several times about the noise, and *yet* he does nothing about it.
All our friends are going to Paris this summer. We, *however*, are going to London.
If they open all the windows, *then* I'm leaving.
I didn't invite her. She wouldn't have come, *anyway*.

Adverb as modifier

7.50 An adverb may function as a modifier of an adjective or of another adverb. (In the examples, the modifier is indicated by italics and the modified constituent is indicated by angle brackets.) Examples of adverbs as modifiers of adjectives [1, 2, 6] and adverbs [3–5]:

They are *very* ⟨happy⟩.	[1]
It was a *remarkably* ⟨good⟩ show.	[2]
She drives *too* ⟨fast⟩.	[3]
They play *so* ⟨very⟩ well.	[4]
He gave a *far* ⟨more easily⟩ acceptable explanation.	[5]
He is ⟨stupid⟩ *enough* to do it.	[6]

In this function, the adverb generally *pre*modifies, except that *enough*, as in [6], can only *post*modify. The item being modified may itself function as a modifier. For example, the adjective *good* premodifies the noun *show* in [2], while *more easily* modifies *acceptable* in [5], and the adverb *very* premodifies the adverb *well* in [4]. In both [2] and [5], the adverb is within a noun phrase.

Adverbs functioning as modifiers of adjectives and adverbs will be further discussed in 7.56*ff*. However, not all adverbs that modify adjectives also modify adverbs (*cf* 7.60), and some adverbs may modify phrases, *viz* noun phrases and prepositional phrases. The most conspicuous example of an adverb that functions only as a modifier of adjectives and adverbs, and not as a clause element, is *very*. (For *very* as an adjective, *cf* 7.35 Note [a].)

The adverb and other word classes

7.51 We now briefly consider some examples of overlap between the adverb class and other word classes. Similarities between adverbs and adjectives have been discussed earlier (*cf* 7.6*ff*). The other relevant word classes are conjunctions, prepositions, and interjections. We also take into account certain words (other than conjunctions and some conjunct adverbs) that must be positioned initially, but these are not traditionally recognized as separate word classes.

Conjunct adverb and conjunction

7.52 A few conjunct adverbs, such as *so* and *yet*, resemble coordinators (coordinating conjunctions) both in being connectives and in having certain syntactic features (*cf* 13.11). In particular, these adverbs cannot be transposed with their clause in front of the preceding clause. Thus, the order of the following two clauses (with the conjunct adverb *so* in the second clause) is fixed:

We paid him a very large sum. *So* he kept quiet about what he saw. [1]

If we invert the order of the clauses, the relationship between the two clauses is changed, and *so* must now refer to some preceding clause:

So he kept quiet about what he saw. We paid him a very large sum. [2]

However, the conjunct adverbs differ from coordinators in that they can be preceded by a coordinator:

We paid him a very large sum, *and so* he kept quiet about what he saw. [1a]

The restriction on the order of clauses also distinguishes the conjunct adverbs from subordinators, another type of connective. For example, a clause introduced by the subordinator *because* can follow or precede the matrix clause without disturbing the relationship between the two clauses (*cf* 14.4*ff*):

{He will help us *because* we offered to pay him. [3]
{*Because* we offered to pay him, he will help us. [3a]

Adjunct adverb and conjunction

7.53 A few subordinators can be seen to be a fusion of conjunction and pro-adjunct (*cf* 15.8), in particular *when* [time], *where* [place at or place to], *how* [manner], *why* [reason].

Where and *when* introduce adverbial clauses (*cf* 15.31):

He saw them {*when* / *at the time(s) at which*} they were in Rome.

I'll go {*where* / *to the place(s) to which*} they go.

We'll go {*where* / *to the place(s) at which*} the food is good.

He'll stay {*where* / *at the place(s) at which*} it is comfortable.

Where and *when*, and to a lesser extent *why*, are also used as relatives (*cf* 17.18*ff*):

the place {*where* / *at which*} he is staying [1]

the time {*when* / *at which*} she was here [2]

Where, *when*, *why*, and *how* are all used to introduce nominal clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*):

I know {*where* / *at which place*} he is staying. [1a]

I wonder {*when* / *at which time*} she was here. [2a]

I realize {*why* / *the reason for which*} he did it. [3]

That was {*how* / *the way in which*} they treated her. [4]

These four *wh*-words are also used as interrogative pro-forms (*cf* 11.14):

{*Where* / *At what place*} is he staying? [1b]

{*When* / *At what time*} was she here? [2b]

{*Why* / *For what reason*} did he do it? [3a]

{*How* / *In what way*} did they treat her? [4a]

The function of *where*, *when*, and *how* as pro-forms for adjuncts is clearly demonstrated in the few cases where a verb requires complementation by an obligatory predication (*cf* 8.27*ff*):

*She put it. [5]
*He lived. [6]
*They treated her. [unacceptable in the sense 'behaved towards her'] [7]

These sentences become acceptable if an adjunct of the appropriate type is added:

She put it *there*. [5a]
He lived *then*. [6a]
They treated her *well*. [7a]

But complementation can also be provided by the appropriate subordinators, evidence that they are functioning as pro-adjuncts:

He found it *where* she put it. [5b]
I wonder *when* he lived. [6b]
I saw *how* they treated her. [7b]

In a sentence such as [5c], one could argue that *where* is functioning as an adjunct in both clauses, which have been made to overlap by the subordinator:

She put it *where* he could find it. [5c]

= {She put it *there*.
{*There* he could find it.

On the other hand, it is equally possible to argue that the obligatory complementation of a place adjunct is satisfied by the whole clause of place rather than by *where*. The same reasoning applies to the obligatory complementation for *treat* provided by clauses of manner and comparison (*cf* 15.22):

She treated him { *as he deserved.* / *as though he were a stranger.* }

Note Most of the other *wh*-words are pro-forms for noun phrases and can clearly function as clause elements: *who, whom, which* (*cf* 10.6 Note [e]).

Reaction signal and initiator

7.54 Apart from conjunctions and some conjunct adverbs, certain other items must be positioned initially. They are important because of their high frequency in spoken English. Some are restricted to the spoken language. These can be assigned to two small classes (*cf* 11.54*f*):

(i) 'reaction signals', *eg*: *no, yes, yeah, yep, m, hm, mhm*
(ii) 'initiators', *eg*: *well, oh, ah*; *oh well, well then, why* ⟨esp AmE⟩

Here is an example from a conversation (*cf* App II for the prosodic notation):

|*ÔH*| |*WĒLL*| of |course he'll be working with overseas ↑STÙdents|. |*well* ↑ *YÈS*| |but ↑he's WÓRKing with ↑DÌBble| |*well NÔ*| he's in the de|partment of English LÌTerature|

Adjunct and preposition

7.55 There are several different types of combinations of verbs plus particles (*cf* 16.2*ff*). If the verb is intransitive, we can recognize the particle as a prepositional adverb (*cf* 9.65*f*) functioning as adjunct, *eg*:

The men looked *on*.
She is growing *up* quickly.
The airliner has taken *off*.
The prisoner broke *down* after many hours of interrogation.

When a noun phrase follows the particle, it sometimes appears as if we have a prepositional phrase, with the particle as preposition:

He took *in* the dog. [1]

However, the adverbial nature of the particle in such phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.3*ff*) is generally shown by its mobility, its ability to follow the noun phrase:

He took the dog *in*. [1a]

Similarly:

They turned *down* the suggestion. [2]
They turned the suggestion *down*. [2a]

They turned *on* the light. [3]
They turned the light *on*. [3a]

In contrast, a preposition must be directly followed by its complement:

They took *to* John quickly. [4]
*They took John *to* quickly. [4a]

The instances we have mentioned so far are not to be confused with examples like [5] and [6]. Compare:

He walked *past*. [prepositional adverb] [5]
He walked *past the car*. [preposition] [5a]
*He walked *the car past*. [5b]

He was moving *about*. [prepositional adverb] [6]
He was moving *about the town*. [preposition] [6a]
*He was moving *the town about*. [6b]

Past in [5] and *about* in [6] are prepositional adverbs, which can be regarded as prepositions with some generalized ellipsis of the noun phrase (*cf* 9.65*f*).

Syntactic functions of adverbs

Adverb as modifier

Modifier of adjective

7.56 An adverb may premodify an adjective. Most commonly, the modifying adverb is a scaling device called an intensifier, which cooccurs with a gradable adjective. We first distinguish two sets of intensifiers: amplifiers and downtoners (for further discussion and subclassification, *cf* 8.104*ff*).

(a) AMPLIFIERS scale upwards from an assumed norm, *eg* 'a *very* funny film', as compared with 'a funny film'. Other examples:

absurdly fussy	*amazingly* calm
awfully sorry	*deeply* concerned
downright ridiculous	*entirely* free
extremely dangerous	*highly* intelligent
irretrievably lost	*perfectly* reasonable
sharply critical	*strikingly* handsome
terribly nervous	*too* bright
totally anonymous	*unbelievably* smart

(b) DOWNTONERS have a generally lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm, *eg* 'It was *almost* dark', as compared with 'It was dark'. Other examples:

a bit dull	*a little* extravagant
almost impossible	*barely* intelligible
fairly small	*hardly* noticeable
nearly dark	*pretty* rare
quite normal	*rather* late
relatively small	*somewhat* uneasy

A similar set of intensifiers is used for both adjectives and adverbs (*cf* 7.87). For intensifiers which premodify comparatives and superlatives, *cf* 7.89*f*.

Note [a] *Quite* can have two different meanings (*cf* 8.111 Note [c]), as in:
She's *quite* right. ['absolutely', 'completely', *ie* an amplifier]
That's *quite* good. ['fairly', 'rather', *ie* a downtoner; in AmE *quite* here is also used in the sense of 'very', *ie* as an amplifier]

[b] *Fairly*, *pretty*, and *rather* can all be used as intensifiers of adjectives and adverbs, *eg*:

She is {*fairly* / *pretty* / *rather*} tall. She drives {*fairly* / *pretty* / *rather*} fast.

However, these downtoners have different uses. *Fairly* is typically used to modify an adjective or adverb which denotes a desirable quality. If we feel comfortable in a warm room, we can intensify the adjective by saying *It's fairly warm in here* ['warm enough'], whereas *rather warm* implies that the room is warmer than we desire ('too warm'). We would usually say *fairly clean* but *rather dirty* to denote, respectively, a desirable and an undesirable quality.

Pretty is the most informal and strongest of the three. Like *rather*, it can be used with both favourable and unfavourable import: *pretty clean*/*dirty*. Note that *pretty*, when used as an intensifier, is normally unstressed (or weakly stressed) – unlike the adjective *pretty*:
a ˌpretty ˈdark DRÈSS ['a rather dark dress']
a ˈpretty ˈdark DRÈSS ['The dress was pretty.']

Rather differs from *pretty* and *fairly* in that it alone can intensify:

(i) a comparative or *too*-construction (*cf* the implication 'too warm' above):

{*rather* / **fairly* / **pretty*} {better / too small / too quickly}

(ii) certain noun phrases denoting adjectival qualities (*cf* 7.63 Note [b]):

{*rather* / **fairly* / **pretty*} {a pity / a fool / a crowd} BUT: {*rather* / *fairly* / *pretty*} {pitiful / foolish / crowded}

(iii) certain verbs (*cf* 8.112):
It *rather*/**fairly*/**pretty* annoys me that . . .

(iv) With other nouns, *rather* alone has variable position in relation to the indefinite article (*cf* 7.63 Note [b]):

a {*rather* / *pretty* / *fairly*} difficult task {~ *rather* / ~ **pretty* / ~ **fairly*} a difficult task

[c] In informal speech, *kind of* and *sort of* are used as downtoners for adjectives and adverbs (*cf* 8.111):
He is *sort of* clever. She spoke *kind of* proudly.

[d] The following intensifiers are typical of informal speech ⟨esp AmE⟩:
real nice | *awful* good
plain silly | *mighty* helpful

Most people prefer *really* to *real*, and *awfully* to *awful*, particularly in formal style (*cf* 7.7):
She's *really* nice. That was *awfully* good.

Especially in informal AmE, *sure* is similarly used:
That's *sure* kind of you. ['certainly']

Surely, unlike *really*, is however a disjunct (*cf* 8.127), in which function *sure* is also used in informal AmE. Note also the use of *sure* in Irish English:
Surely, she's right. [persuasive: 'you surely agree']
Sure, she's right. [AmE = agreement: 'of course']
Sure, she's right. [Irish English = asseveration: 'I assure you']

Sure and *surely* (unlike *real*, *really*, and *truly*) cannot premodify another premodifier:

She's a {*real(ly)* / *truly* / **sure(ly)*} ⟨nice⟩ girl.

Sure cannot occur after other verbs than *be*:

She's *sure* nice. ⟨esp AmE⟩ She *sure* is nice. ⟨esp AmE⟩
*She looks *sure* nice. She *sure* looks nice. ⟨esp AmE⟩

But:
He'll *sure* fail. ⟨informal⟩ He *sure* can play football. ⟨informal⟩

[e] Two informal intensifiers, *any* and *that*, are particularly associated with nonassertive contexts:
Is the team *any* different from last year? ['really very much different']
It's not (all) *that* unusual for women nowadays to join the police force, is it? ['so, very']

Outside nonassertive contexts, this usage of *that* is dialectal or nonstandard:
She's *that* clever! ['very'] I was *that* tired I couldn't walk. ['so']

[f] As downtoners of adjectives in the absolute degree, *a bit* and *a little* can only occur in predicative position and with adjectives with 'unfavourable' meaning and an implication of 'more than wanted':
The weather's *a bit* (too) hot. *The weather's *a bit* lovely.
**a bit* hot weather

[g] Some amplifiers are restricted to a small set of lexical items, *eg*:
dead tired [BUT NOT: *dead exhausted] *fast* asleep
dead drunk [BUT NOT: *dead intoxicated] *wide* awake

Nouns may also function as such restricted amplifiers:
stone cold *rock* hard *brand* new

[h] One difference between the set of downtoners *almost*, *nearly*, and *practically* (*cf* approximators, 8.111*ff*) is that only *nearly* can be used after *not*, *very*, *pretty* (*cf* 7.62):

It's {*nearly* / *almost* / *practically*} dark. BUT: It's {not / very / pretty} {*nearly* / **almost* / **practically*} dark.

7.57 As in the treatment of adjectives, it may be possible to distinguish another class of adjective modifiers called EMPHASIZERS, which add to the force (as distinct from the degree) of the adjective:

She has a *really* ⟨beautiful⟩ face. The play is ⟨very good⟩ *indeed*.
That's *just* ⟨impossible⟩. He looked *all* ⟨confused⟩.

Unlike intensifiers, emphasizers cooccur with nongradable adjectives, but the effect is often similar to that of intensifiers:

You are *certainly* welcome. ['You are *very*/*most* welcome.']

Indeed can have either pre- or postposition (*cf* 8.103 Note [a]):

The play was {*indeed* ⟨excellent⟩. / ⟨excellent⟩ *indeed*.}

Compare:

Indeed, the play was excellent.

This example shows how the function of many emphasizers is similar to that of disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*). Similarly *frankly*:

I'm *frankly* surprised at your behaviour. [emphasizer]
Frankly, I'm surprised at your behaviour. [disjunct]

Note *Too* can be a synonym of *extremely* in informal speech:
It's *too* ⟨kind⟩ of you. That's *too* ⟨true⟩.
In informal style it is also commonly used (especially in AmE) as a synonym of *very* in negative sentences:

I'm not *too* ⟨sure⟩ about that.
I'm not *too* ⟨keen⟩ on his paintings.
I don't feel *too* ⟨good⟩. ['very well']

This use of *too* is given wide extension in Australian English, where *too* is common in the sense 'absolutely' in responses:

A: He's clever. B: *Too* right, he is. ['That is absolutely true.']

Compare informal AmE usage:

A: You can't do it. B: I can *too*. ['I certainly can.']

7.58 Adjunct adverbs (*cf* 7.49, 8.25*ff*) are sometimes converted into premodifiers of adjectives. In this position they tend to retain their general meaning of manner, means, etc, though they also acquire some intensifying effect:

an *easily* ⟨debatable⟩ proposition ['a proposition that can be easily debated']
an *openly* ⟨hostile⟩ attack
his *quietly* ⟨assertive⟩ manner
a *readily* ⟨available⟩ publication

On the other hand, disjunct adverbs (*cf* 7.121*ff*) tend to become intensifiers, *eg*:

surprisingly ⟨good⟩ *unnaturally* ⟨long⟩
incredibly ⟨beautiful⟩ *unusually* ⟨easy⟩

Thus *surprisingly good* in the following sentence can be paraphrased as 'He made a speech that was good to a surprising extent':

He made a *surprisingly* ⟨good⟩ speech.

Note We need to distinguish the adverb as premodifier of an adjective from the adjunct adverb constructed with a verb participle. For example, *a surprisingly worded letter* is 'a letter that is worded in a surprising manner', since *worded* is an *-ed* participle and not an adjective. Ambiguity arises when the form can be either a participle or an adjective. Thus, *a divinely inspired work* can be either 'a work that has been inspired in a divine manner (or by God)', in which case *inspired* is verbal and *divinely* an adjunct adverb, or 'a work that is inspired to a divine extent', in which case *inspired* is adjectival and *divinely* its intensifier. *Cf* the difference in aspect and implied 'permanence'; 17.28.

7.59 Apart from intensifiers, premodifying adverbs may be 'viewpoint' subjuncts (*cf* 8.88*ff*), *eg*:

politically ⟨expedient⟩ ['expedient from a political point of view']

Similarly:

artistically ⟨justifiable⟩ *economically* ⟨weak⟩
theoretically ⟨sound⟩ *technically* ⟨possible⟩
ethically ⟨wrong⟩

Modifier of adverb

7.60 An adverb may premodify another adverb. Similar sets of intensifiers are used for adverbs and adjectives (*cf* 7.56*ff*):

I expect them *pretty* ⟨soon⟩.
I have seen *so* ⟨very⟩ many letters like that one.

They didn't injure him *that* ⟨severely⟩. ⟨informal⟩
They are smoking *very* ⟨heavily⟩.
He spoke *extremely* ⟨quickly⟩.
He played *surprisingly* ⟨well⟩.

As with adjectives (*cf* 7.50, 7.57), the only postmodifiers are *enough* and *indeed*:

He spoke ⟨clearly⟩ *enough*. ['sufficiently clearly']

Indeed usually goes with *very*:

She spoke ⟨very clearly⟩ *indeed*.
?She spoke ⟨clearly⟩ *indeed*.

Adverbs modifying other adverbs can only be intensifiers. Thus, though we have the manner modification by *quietly* in *quietly assertive*, we cannot have it in:

*He spoke *quietly* ⟨assertively⟩.

And, similarly, the modification by a viewpoint adverb (*cf* 8.89) in *theoretically sound* does not have a corresponding

*He reasoned *theoretically* ⟨soundly⟩.

Notice that this is not merely a stylistic objection to the juxtaposition of two words ending in *-ly*, since the following sentence, where *extremely* is an intensifier, is acceptable:

He reasoned *extremely* ⟨soundly⟩.

Modifier of particle, prepositional adverb, and preposition

7.61 A few intensifying adverbs, particularly *right* and *well*, can premodify particles in phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.4), as well as prepositions, or (perhaps rather) prepositional phrases (*cf* 9.64):

He knocked the man *right* ⟨out⟩.
They left her *well* ⟨behind⟩.
The nail went *right* ⟨through⟩ the wall.
He made his application *well* ⟨within⟩ the time.
Her parents are *dead* ⟨against⟩ the trip. ⟨informal⟩

Modifier of pronoun, predeterminer, and numeral

7.62 Intensifying adverbs (including downtoners) can premodify:

(a) indefinite pronouns (6.45*ff*):

Nearly ⟨everybody⟩ came to our party.

(b) predeterminers (5.15*ff*):

They recovered *roughly* ⟨half⟩ their equipment.
He received *about* ⟨double⟩ the amount he expected.
Virtually ⟨all⟩ the students participated in the discussion.

(c) cardinal numerals (6.63):

They will stay *fully* ⟨ten⟩ weeks. ['for ten full weeks']
Over/under ⟨two hundred⟩ deaths were reported.
I paid *more/less than* ⟨ten⟩ pounds for it.
They will make a charge of *up to* ⟨as much as one million⟩ yen.
As many as ⟨fifty⟩ candidates had applied for the post.

(d) Noun phrases with the indefinite article can be intensified when *a(n)* is equivalent to the unstressed cardinal *one* (5.38):

I didn't have *more than* ⟨a dollar⟩ on me. ['I had no more than . . .']
They will stay for *about* ⟨a week⟩.
Nearly/almost ⟨a thousand demonstrators⟩ attended the meeting.

More than, about, etc are here not prepositions but intensifiers as part of the noun phrase, as can be seen by the occurrence of prepositions before such items:

There's a cover charge of *more than $3*.

(e) With the ordinals and superlatives, a definite determiner is obligatory for premodification:

We counted *approximately* ⟨the first⟩ thousand votes.
She gave me *almost* ⟨the largest⟩ piece of cake.

(f) Modification can also apply to larger units, *eg*:

The acceleration fell to *less than* ⟨ten metres per second⟩.

Note [a] We might add here the premodification of *the same* by *(very) much*:
They did it in *(very) much* ⟨the same⟩ way.
[b] Some of the items that are intensifying adverbs can also function as prepositions, *eg*: *over, about* (*cf* 9.7).
[c] Both the downtoners *almost* and *practically* can intensify all indefinite pronouns, whereas *nearly* can intensify only assertive pronouns (*cf* 8.113 on downtoners with verbs). Compare:

Almost, *Practically*, *Nearly* } { everybody, all } came.

Almost, *Practically*, **Nearly* } { nobody came. / any time will do. / no compensation was given.

Modifier of noun phrase

7.63 A few intensifiers may premodify noun phrases and precede the determiner in doing so. The most common of these among adverbs are *quite* and *rather* ⟨esp BrE⟩:

We had *quite* ⟨a party⟩.
They will be here for *quite* ⟨some time⟩.
He was *quite* ⟨'some player⟩.

They were *quite* ⟨'some players⟩.
[*Quite 'some* with count nouns is informal; note the stress on '*some*.]
It was *rather* ⟨a mess⟩. ⟨esp BrE⟩

Though not adverbs but predeterminers (*cf* 5.15), *such* and *what* have a similar function (*cf* 17.96):

He is *such* ⟨a fool⟩. They are *such* ⟨fools⟩.
What ⟨a mess⟩ they made! *What* ⟨babies⟩ they are!

Note [a] Other adverbs may be interpreted as not specifically modifying the noun phrase, since they are mobile. Compare the following two examples:
He was |*really* 'some PLÀYer| ⟨informal⟩ [1]
He |*really* was 'some PLÀYer| [2]
Transposition of *really* in [1] to pre-verb position in [2] does not seem to affect the meaning, provided that the appropriate intonation pattern is given. A similar transposition of *quite* is not possible.
[b] For many people, plural noun phrases cannot be premodified by *rather*:
He is *rather a fool*. ['rather foolish'; *cf* 7.56 Note [b]]
?*They are *rather* fools.
If the noun is nongradable, *rather* cannot be used unless a gradable adjective is present, in which case *rather* is intensifying the adjective. Positions before the adjective and before the determiner are both possible, with little or no semantic difference:
*It is rather a table. [not acceptable unless in the sense '. . . a table rather than . . .']
It is { *rather a* / *a rather* } big table.
[c] For the relationship between adverbs like *only* and *also* and noun phrases, *cf* focusing subjuncts, 8.116*ff*.

7.64 With *kind of* and *sort of* there are several possible constructions in informal style:

This must be { *a sort of* joke. / *sort of a* joke. ⟨informal⟩ / *a sort of a* joke. ⟨more informal⟩ / a joke, *sort of*. ⟨most informal⟩ }

Other *of*-phrases precede the determiner, if present:

I had *a bit of* ⟨a shock⟩.
They asked *a heck of* ⟨a lot⟩. ⟨familiar⟩
They gave me *a hell of* ⟨a time⟩. ⟨familiar⟩

In familiar style, the *wh*-words as interrogatives (*cf* 11.14 Note [a]) can be postmodified by certain set prepositional phrases, *eg*:

⟨who⟩, ⟨what⟩, ⟨where⟩ } { *on earth* / (*in*) *the heck* ⟨familiar⟩ / (*in*) *the hell* ⟨familiar⟩ }

Omission of the preposition in the last two examples is preferred by some and obligatory for others.

Ever can be an intensifier. It normally occurs as a separate word and only with interrogative *wh*-words, for example:

⟨Why⟩ *ever* should she apply for such a post?

7.65 Some disjunct adverbs and conjunct adverbs occasionally appear within the noun phrase, not modifying the noun phrase but related to a modifying adjective phrase:

A cure has now been found for this *fortunately* ⟨very rare⟩ disease. ['a disease that is fortunately very rare']
He wrote an *otherwise* ⟨extremely good⟩ paper. ['a paper that was otherwise extremely good']

Similarly, subjunct adverbs expressing viewpoint (*cf* 8.89) appear after the noun phrase and relate to the premodifying adjective within the phrase:

A ⟨good⟩ paper *editorially* can also be a ⟨good⟩ paper *commercially*.

The more usual form for the sentence is:

An *editorially* ⟨good⟩ paper can also be a *commercially* ⟨good⟩ paper.

7.66 The gradable measure adjectives *deep*, *high*, *long*, *old*, *tall*, *thick*, and *wide* (*cf* 7.88) can take premodification by a noun phrase:

Susan is *ten years* ⟨old⟩. ['of age']
Peter is *five feet* ⟨tall⟩. ['in height']
They stayed up *all night* ⟨long⟩.

In support of this analysis, *ie* that it is the noun phrase and not the adjective that is the modifier, we note that the question form with *how* evokes the noun phrase as the response:

A: *How old* is Susan? B: *Ten (years)*.
A: *How tall* is Peter? B: *Five feet*.

Adverbs such as the following are also modified by noun phrases:

The lake is *two miles* ⟨across⟩. ['wide']
They live *five miles* ⟨apart⟩.
We dug *ten feet* ⟨down⟩.
The tree is *six feet* ⟨around⟩. ⟨esp AmE⟩

I met her *a week* {⟨before⟩. / ⟨earlier⟩.} ['earlier by a week']

Compare:

I met her *the week before*. ['the previous week']

In the following examples, the question is of the form '*How* + adverb + verb + noun':

How wide is the lake? [NOT: *How across . . .?]
How far apart do they live? [NOT: *How apart . . .?]
How deep did they dig? [NOT: *How down . . .?]

Note [a] *All the year round* and *the whole year round* are fixed expressions. We cannot, for example, have **all the month round* or **the whole month round*. But note: *all (the) day (long)*, *all the week (long)*, *the whole night (through)*.
[b] On *£8 net/gross*, *the sum total*, etc, *cf* 7.21.

Postmodifying adverbs

7.67 Postmodifying time adverbs appear to be limited to those denoting time position or time duration (*cf* 8.51*ff*, 17.55):

TIME:

the meeting *yesterday*	the day *before*
the meal *afterwards*	their stay *overnight*

PLACE:

the way *ahead*	your friend *here*
the direction *back*	that man *there*
his trip *abroad*	his return *home*
the sentence *below*	the players *offside*

There is no premodification possible with, for example, *home* in:

his return *home* ~ *his *home* return

In other cases, both positions are available:

the *downstairs* hall	~	the hall *downstairs*
the *backstage* noise	~	the noise *backstage*
his *home* journey	~	his journey *home*
the *above* quotation	~	the quotation *above*
the *upstairs* neighbour	~	the neighbour *upstairs*

Note Many of these postmodifying adverbs can be used predicatively with *be*, *eg*:

The noise is *backstage*.	The sentence is *below*.
The meeting was *yesterday*.	The meal was *afterwards*.

Premodifying adverbs

7.68 Only a very few adverbs premodify nouns within the noun phrase. There is, for example, *an inside job* ['a robbery done by someone connected with the place which has been robbed'], which is not the same as *a job inside*. Other examples:

an *away* game	in *after* years
inside information	the *then* chairman
an *outside* door	an *outside* line

The occasional use of other adverbs as noun premodifiers, *eg*: *the now question*, is felt as very ad hoc, although specific expressions, such as *the now generation*, appear from time to time.

Despite their similarity to peripheral adjectives like *utter* (*cf* 7.3*f*), paraphrases of words like *away* show their essential adverb force:

an *away* game ~ a game that we play *away*
the *then* chairman ~ He was chairman *at the time*.

The situation for these adverbs is similar to that for premodifying nouns, as in *garden tools*, where we analyse *garden* as a noun, not as an adjective, in view of its nominal force, as shown for example by its correspondence to a prepositional phrase with the noun as complement (*cf* 7.14, 17.104):

garden tools ~ tools *for the garden*

Else

7.69 *Else* can postmodify:

(a) compound indefinite pronouns (*cf* 6.46*f*) and compound adverbs (*cf* 7.46) in *-body*, *-one*, *-place*, *-thing*, and *-where*:

⟨Somebody⟩ *else* must have done it. ['some other person']
⟨Anybody⟩ *else* for tennis?
⟨Nothing⟩ *else* happened.
You must have left the keys {⟨somewhere⟩ *else*. / ⟨someplace⟩ *else*. ⟨esp AmE⟩} ['elsewhere']

You'll have to borrow ⟨someone⟩ *else's* car. [on the genitive, *cf* 6.47]

(b) *wh*-pronouns and *wh*-adverbs in interrogative clauses (*cf* 11.14*ff*):

⟨Who⟩ *else* would do such a thing? ['which other person']
⟨Who⟩ *else* did you meet?
⟨What⟩ *else* can we do?
⟨Where⟩ *else* have you looked?
⟨How⟩ *else* could it have happened?
⟨When⟩ *else* can we meet?

The genitive *'s* is usually placed after *else* (*cf* the group genitive, 5.123):

{*Who else's* / ?*Whose else*} fault could it be?

(c) singular *all* (= *everything*), *much*, *a great/good deal*, *a lot*, *little*:

We will take this step only if *all else* fails.
There's {*little* / *not much* / *not a great deal*} *else* we can do now.

Adverb as complement of preposition

7.70 A number of adverbs signifying place and time function as complement of a preposition. Of the place adverbs, *here* and *there* take the most prepositions, *eg*:

Come *over here*!
Do you live *near here*?
Yes, I live *over there*.
How do we get *out of here*?

Other prepositions that take *here* and *there* as complements are:

along	*around*	*down*	*from*	*in*
on	*round*	*through*	*under*	*up*

Home (which may alternatively be considered a noun; *cf* 5.51) can be the complement of *at*, *(away) from*, *close to*, *near*, *toward(s)*, *eg*:

I want to stay *at home* tonight.

The other place adverbs are restricted to the preposition *from*, *eg*:

You've got a letter *from abroad*.

Other adverbs that function as complement of *from* are:

behind	*above/below/beneath/underneath*
downstairs/upstairs	*indoors/outdoors*
inside/outside	*within/without*

The time adverbs that most commonly function as complement of a preposition are shown in the figure below.

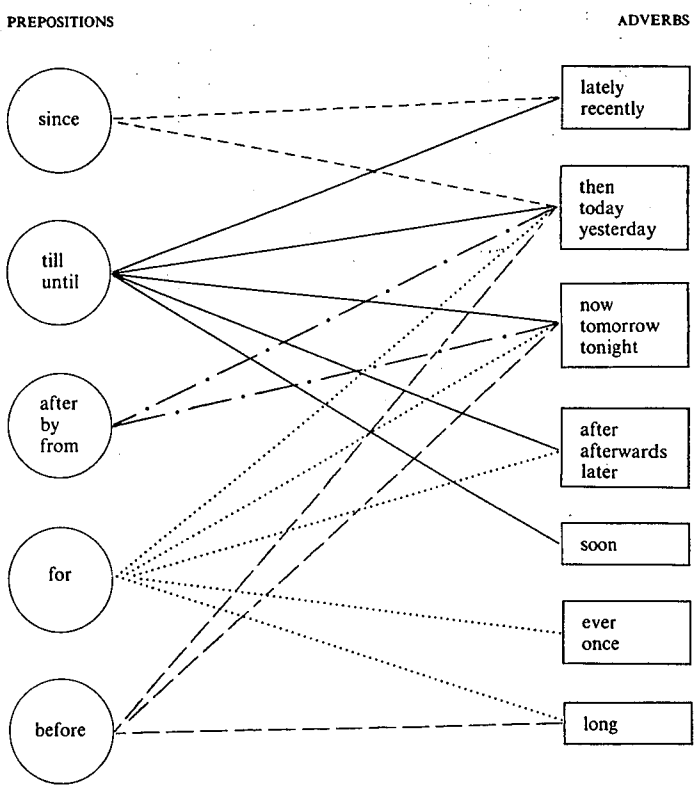

Fig 7.70 Time adverbs that most commonly function as complements of prepositions

Note [a] The preposition *of* also occurs in the phrase *of late* ['recently'].
[b] *Forever* is also written as two words: *for ever*. The expression *forever and ever* is typical of Biblical and liturgical styles of English. It is curious that analogous reduplicated phrases are virtually restricted to informal use: *for months and months*, *for years and years*.

Correspondence between adjective and adverb

7.71 We have earlier observed (7.46) that open-class adverbs are regularly, though not invariably, derived from adjectives by suffixation. There is another sense in which adjectives and adverbs are related, apart from this morphological relationship. A correspondence often exists between constructions containing adjectives and constructions containing the corresponding adverbs. The simplest illustration is with adverbs equivalent to prepositional phrases containing a noun or noun phrase that is a generic term and the corresponding adjective as premodifier:

He liked Mary *considerably*.
~ He liked Mary *to a considerable extent*.
He spoke to John *sharply*.
~ He spoke to John *in a sharp manner*.
He wrote *frequently*.
~ He wrote *on frequent occasions*.
Politically, it is a bad decision.
~ *From the political point of view*, it is a bad decision.

7.72 We have also noted some instances where either the adjective or the adverb forms appear, with little or no semantic difference (*cf* 7.6). But normally, the adjective and its corresponding adverb appear in different environments:

his *frequent* visits
~ His visits are *frequent*.
~ He visits *frequently*.
her *brilliant* explanation of the process
~ Her explanation of the process was *brilliant*.
~ She explained the process *brilliantly*.
her *incredible* beauty
~ Her beauty is *incredible*.
~ She is *incredibly* beautiful.

As the examples show, the adjective in nominalizations is equivalent to the adverb in a corresponding clause.

7.73 There are many other cases of nominalization where a construction with the adverb form seems basic to an understanding of the corresponding construction with the adjective form (*cf* 17.51*ff*):

(a) The adjective–noun sequence may imply a process or a time relationship, a corresponding clause containing an adverb:

a *hard* worker	~ somebody who works *hard*
an *eventual* loser	~ somebody who will *eventually* lose
a *frequent* visitor	~ somebody who visits *frequently*
a *heavy* eater	~ somebody who eats *heavily*
a *light* sleeper	~ somebody who sleeps *light(ly)*

We should include here cases where the agential noun lacks an agential suffix: *a former student, a clever liar*. Similarly, there are instances where the

noun normally lacks a corresponding verb, but where the reference is to the process part of the noun's meaning:

a *poor* soldier ['one who acts poorly in his role as a soldier']
a *good* mother ['one who cares well for her children']
a *faithful* friend ['a friend who acts in a faithful way']

Many of these adjectives can occur only attributively in this use. They belong to the noninherent class of adjectives (*cf* 7.43).

(b) Analogous correspondences do not have this restriction to attributive position:

He loved her *deeply*.
~ his *deep* love for her
~ His love for her was *deep*.
He writes *legibly*.
~ his *legible* writing
~ His writing is *legible*.

She answered *quickly*.
~ her *quick* answer
~ Her answer was *quick*.
Surprisingly, he decided to leave.
~ his *surprising* decision to leave
~ His decision to leave was *surprising*.

(c) The adjective may refer to an implied process associated with a concrete object:

a *fast* car ['a car that can go *fast*']
a *slow* road ['a road on which one can only drive *slowly*']
a *neat* typewriter ['a typewriter which types *neatly*']

(d) Most intensifying adjectives (*cf* 7.33*f*) can be seen as related to adverbs:

total nonsense	~ It is *totally* nonsense.
a *clear* failure	~ It is *clearly* a failure.
a *true* scholar	~ He is *truly* a scholar.
a *real* idiot	~ He is *really* an idiot.

Many of these can occur only attributively in this use.

(e) Many restrictive adjectives (*cf* 7.35) can be seen as related to adverbs:

the *main* reason ~ The reason was *mainly* that . . .
the *precise* argument { ~ The argument was *precisely* that . . . / ~ The argument was *precise*.

Note [a] We can point to differences in grammar and meaning in the interpretation of *a beautiful dancer*:
a *beautiful* dancer
~ a dancer *who is beautiful*
~ a person *who dances beautifully* ['who does a beautiful dance' or 'beautiful dances']
In the second interpretation, the adjective refers to the process part of an agential noun.
[b] Note also the relations between adjectives and adverbs in the following examples:

an *apparent* enemy	~ He is *apparently* an enemy.
a *possible* meeting	~ They will *possibly* meet.
a *slight* disagreement	~ They disagreed *slightly*.
the *current* manager	~ She is *currently* the manager.

Comparison of adjectives and adverbs

7.74 With gradable adjectives and adverbs three types of COMPARISON are possible (*cf* 7.42), *ie* comparison in relation

(a) to a higher degree
(b) to the same degree
(c) to a lower degree

The three types of comparison are expressed by the following means;

(a) Comparison in relation to a higher degree is expressed by the inflected forms in *-er* and *-est* or their periphrastic equivalents with *more* and *most*:

Anna is {*cleverer* / *more clever*} than Susan.

Anna is the {*cleverest* / *most clever*} student in the class.

(b) Comparison in relation to the same degree is expressed by *as* (or sometimes *so*) . . . *as*:

Anna is *as tall as* Bill.

Anna is not {*as* / *so*} *tall as* John.

(c) Comparison in relation to a lower degree is expressed by *less* and *least*:

This problem is *less difficult* than the previous one.
This is the *least difficult* problem of all.

For higher degree comparisons, English has a three-term inflectional contrast between ABSOLUTE, COMPARATIVE, and SUPERLATIVE forms for many adjectives and for a few adverbs, the absolute being realized by the base form of the item. This can be seen in *Table* 7.74 which also gives the parallel periphrastic constructions (*cf* comparative clauses, 15.63*ff*):

Table 7.74 Comparison of adjectives and adverbs

	ABSOLUTE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
INFLECTION			
adjective	*high*	*higher*	*highest*
adverb	*soon*	*sooner*	*soonest*
PERIPHRASIS			
adjective	*complex*	*more complex*	*most complex*
adverb	*comfortably*	*more comfortably*	*most comfortably*

Comparison of adjectives

Irregular forms of comparison

7.75 A small group of highly frequent adjectives have comparative and superlative forms with stems which are different from the base:

good	~ *better*	~ *best*
bad	~ *worse*	~ *worst*
far	{~ *further* / ~ *farther*}	~ *furthest* / ~ *farthest*

The two sets *farther/farthest* and *further/furthest*, which are both adjectives and adverbs, are used interchangeably by many speakers to express both physical and abstract relations. In fact, however, the use of *farther* and *farthest* is chiefly restricted to expressions of physical distance, and, in all senses, *further* and *furthest* are the usual forms found:

Nothing could be *further* from the truth.
My house is *furthest* from the station.

Note The most common uses of *further* are not as comparative form of *far* but in the sense of 'more', 'additional', 'later':
That's a *further* reason for deciding now. [BUT NOT: **a far reason*]
Any *further* questions?
The school will be closed until *further* notice.
We intend to stay for a *further* two months.

Comparison of *old*

7.76 *Old* is regularly inflected as *older* ~ *oldest*. In attributive position, particularly when referring to the order of birth of members of a family, the irregular forms *elder* ~ *eldest* are normally substituted (especially in BrE):

My *elder/older* sister is an artist.
His *eldest/oldest* son is still at school.

However, *elder* is not a true comparative in that it cannot be followed by *than*:

My brother is three years {*older* / **elder*} *than me*.

Note [a] There is a special use of *elder* in, for example, *William Pitt the elder*, *the elder Pitt*. In the honorific expression *elder statesman*, *elder* has no comparative meaning, and there is no corresponding use of *old* or *oldest*.
[b] *Elder* and *eldest* require personal reference:
This viola is the *older/*elder*.

Comparison of *good*, *well*, and *ill*

7.77 *Well* ['in good health'] and *ill* ['in bad health' ⟨esp BrE⟩, *cf* 7.38] are inflected like *good* and *bad*, respectively, for the comparative: *He feels better/worse*. *He is better* is ambiguous between (a) 'He is well again' and (b) 'He is less ill'. In the first use (a), we can have intensifiers expressing absolute degree:

He is *completely better*.

In the second use (b), we can have expressions with a comparative sense:

He is {*a little* / *a bit* / *somewhat*} *better*.

There is no superlative *best* in the health sense: **He is best. He is worse* corresponds to the second use (b), *ie* = 'less well'. There is no positive periphrastic comparison corresponding to the negative comparison *less well*:

*He is *more well* today. [= 'better' in its second use]

He is less well denotes that his state of health is not as bad as would be suggested by *worse*.

Compounds with *good*, *well*, and *ill* + participle can have either form of comparison (*cf* 7.83b):

good-looking { ~ *better-looking* ~ *best-looking*
~ *more good-looking* ~ *most good-looking* }

Comparison of *little* and *small*

7.78 *Little* shares the comparative forms with *small*, *ie*: *smaller* and *smallest*, as an adjective modifying count nouns:

Anna is only a { *little* / *small* } child.

She is *smaller* than Susan.
She is the *smallest* child in her playgroup.

Lesser is used attributively in the sense of 'less important':

to *a lesser degree/extent*
lesser men than Churchill

Least in the sense of 'slightest' is common with abstract nouns in nonassertive contexts:

She did it without *the least/smallest hesitation*.
I haven't *the least idea*.

Least can also be the head of a noun phrase (*cf* 7.26):

That is *the least we can do*.

Note [a] *Littler* and *littlest* occur occasionally, typically in familiar use:
She is my *littlest* child.
Have you read the Christmas story called 'The *Littlest* Angel'?
The black dress was *littler* and subtler than volumes of *Vogue* could imply.
[b] *Lesser* also denotes 'of smaller size': *the Lesser Antilles* [in contrast to *the Greater Antilles*].

Changes in spelling

7.79 With adjectives taking the regular inflections, certain changes in spelling or pronunciation may be introduced in the base of the adjective when the suffixes are added.

(a) A single consonant at the end of the base is doubled before *-er* and *-est* when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter (*cf* the spelling of verb forms, 3.8):

big	~ *bigger*	~ *biggest*
sad	~ *sadder*	~ *saddest*

But contrast:

neat	~ *neater*	~ *neatest*
thick	~ *thicker*	~ *thickest*

There is a variant spelling in:

cruel { ~ *crueller* ~ *cruellest*
~ *crueler* ~ *cruelest* ⟨esp AmE⟩ }

(b) In bases ending in a consonant followed by *-y*, *y* changes to *-i* before *-er* and *-est*:

angry	~ *angrier*	~ *angriest*
early	~ *earlier*	~ *earliest*

(c) If the base ends in a mute (unpronounced) *-e*, this *e* is dropped before the inflection:

pure	~ *purer*	~ *purest*
brave	~ *braver*	~ *bravest*

The same applies if the base ends in *-ee*:

free ~ *freer* ~ *freest* /ˈfriːɪst/

Changes in pronunciation

7.80 (a) A disyllabic base ending in /l̩/ normally loses its second syllable before the inflection:

simple /sɪmpl̩/ ~ /ˈsɪmpləʳ/ ~ /ˈsɪmplɪst/
humble /hʌmbl̩/ ~ /ˈhʌmbləʳ/ ~ /ˈhʌmblɪst/

(b) Even for speakers that do not give consonantal value to a final *r* in spelling, the /r/ is pronounced before the inflection:

rare /reəʳ/ ~ /ˈreərəʳ/ ~ /ˈreərɪst/

(c) Final *ng* /ŋ/ in the absolute forms *long*, *strong*, and *young* is pronounced /ŋg/ before the inflection:

long /lɒŋ/ ~ /ˈlɒŋgəʳ/ ~ /ˈlɒŋgɪst/

Choice between inflectional and periphrastic comparison

7.81 The choice between inflectional and periphrastic comparison is largely determined by the length of the adjective.

(a) Monosyllabic adjectives normally form their comparison by inflection:

low ~ *lower* ~ *lowest*

Real, *right*, *wrong*, and the preposition *like* (*cf* 9.4) take only periphrastic forms:

She is { *more like* / **liker* } her grandmother.

However, most other monosyllabic adjectives can take either inflectional or periphrastic comparison.

(b) Many disyllabic adjectives can also take inflections, though they have the alternative of the periphrastic forms:

Her children are { *politer/more polite.* / *(the) politest/(the) most polite.* }

Disyllabic adjectives that can most readily take inflected forms are those ending in an unstressed vowel, /ḷ/ or /ər/, *eg*:

-y:	early, easy, funny, happy, noisy, wealthy, pretty
-ow:	mellow, narrow, shallow
-le:	able, feeble, gentle, noble, simple
-er, *-ure*:	clever, mature, obscure

(c) Trisyllabic or longer adjectives can only take periphrastic forms:

beautiful
~ *more beautiful* [BUT NOT: **beautifuller*]
~ *the most beautiful* [BUT NOT: **beautifullest*]

Adjectives with the negative *un*-prefix, such as *unhappy* and *untidy*, are exceptions:

~ *unhappier* ~ *unhappiest* ~ *untidier* ~ *untidiest*

(d) Participle forms which are used as adjectives regularly take only periphrastic forms:

interesting	~ *more interesting*	~ *most interesting*
wounded	~ *more wounded*	~ *most wounded*
worn	~ *more worn*	~ *most worn*

Note [a] Within the first group of (b), we may distinguish between adjectives ending in *-ly* and other adjectives ending only in *-y*. For *-ly* adjectives (*cf* 7.9), comparison with periphrasis is common, *eg* with *friendly*, *likely*, *lonely*, and *lively*:

lively { ~ *livelier* ~ *liveliest* / ~ *more lively* ~ *most lively* }

However, among other adjectives ending only in *-y*, inflectional comparison is favoured, *eg*:

easy ~ *easier* ~ *easiest*

[b] Among adjectives ending in *-er*, *eager* and *proper* can take only periphrastic comparison. In addition, the following disyllabic adjectives can occur with inflectional forms (as well as periphrastic forms, which seem to be gaining ground): *quiet*, *common*, *solid*, *cruel*, *wicked*, *polite*, *pleasant*, *handsome*.

7.82 Most adjectives that are inflected for comparison can also take the periphrastic forms with *more* and *most*. With *more*, they seem to do so more easily when they are predicative and are followed by a *than*-clause:

John is *more mad* than Bob is.
It would be difficult to find a man *more brave* than he is.
He is *more wealthy* than I thought.

Periphrastic forms are, however, uncommon with a number of monosyllabic adjectives (including those listed in 7.75 as forming their comparison irregularly):

bad	*big*	*black*	*clean*
fair [colour]	*far*	*fast*	*good*
great	*hard*	*high*	*low*
old	*quick*	*small*	*thick*
thin	*tight*	*wide*	*young*

Note [a] There seem to be fewer restrictions on using the periphrastic forms with adjectives in the comparative construction formed with the correlative *the . . . the* (*cf* 15.51):

The { *more old* / *older* } we are, the { *more wise* / *wiser* } we become. [BUT NOT: **a more old man*]

Good and *bad*, however, require nonperiphrastic forms (*better*, *worse*) even here.

[b] The suffix *-most* is used to express the highest degree in *her innermost feelings*. Also: *foremost*, *hindmost*, *outermost*, *uppermost*. These words are sometimes used also as adverbs: *They did their utmost*.

[c] A study of adjectives at the Survey of English Usage gives the following statistics:

(i) The comparative is, on average, more frequent than the superlative.
(ii) Only 25 per cent of the comparatives, as against 52 per cent of the superlatives, are accompanied by an explicit basis of comparison (*cf* 7.86).
(iii) *-er* is more frequent than *more*, which is more frequent than *less*; *-est* is more frequent than *most*, which is far more frequent than *least*.
(iv) Many of the occurrences of *-er/-est* adjectives represent a small number of relatively frequent adjectives. The following distribution is probably typical also for a larger corpus ('types' = different lexical items; 'tokens' = total number of instances):

Table 7.82 Frequencies of comparative forms

	-er/-est	*more/most*	*less/least*	TOTAL
TYPES	56	246	42	344
TOKENS	553	345	49	947

Comparison of adverbs

7.83 For a small number of adverbs, the inflected forms used for comparison are the same as those for adjectives. As with adjectives, there is a small group with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems. The comparative and superlative inflections are identical with those for the corresponding adjectives *good*, *bad*, and *far* (*cf* 7.75), and the quantifiers *much* and *little* (*cf* 5.23):

badly	~ *worse*	~ *worst*
well	~ *better*	~ *best*
little	~ *less* (*lesser*)	~ *least*
far	{ ~ *further* / ~ *farther* }	~ *furthest* / ~ *farthest*
much	~ *more*	~ *most*

(a) *Worse* as the comparative of *badly* is used in *eg*:

He behaves even *worse* than his brother.

With *need* and *want*, however, the periphrastic form is required in BrE:

I really need that job *more badly* than you. [AmE also: *worse*]

Here *badly* is not a process adverb, as also indicated by position:

I *badly* need that job. *He *badly* behaves.

In nonstandard use, one may find *iller/badder* ~ *baddest*. In very formal English, *ill* is synonymous with *badly* (*cf*: *ill-behaved*):

He behaved *ill* towards his parents.

(b) Compounds of *well* and *ill* + participle have both types of comparison (*cf* 7.77):

well-behaved	~ *better-behaved*	~ *best-behaved*
	~ *more well-behaved*	~ *most well-behaved*

The forms *better-* ~ *best-behaved* are more formal than *more* ~ *most well-behaved*. Compare *best-known* which is preferred to *most well-known*.

(c) *Lesser* is sometimes used in comparison to a lower degree: *lesser-known*, in the same way as *less well-known*. There is also a lower degree comparative *less well* [= *worse*], as in

He reads *less well* than she does.

Less well here indicates that his reading is not as bad as *worse* does (*cf* 7.77). There is no corresponding higher degree comparative **more well* = *better*.

(d) On the forms *farther/further* ~ *farthest/furthest*, *cf* 7.75, 8.48.

(e) Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives (*cf* 7.9) take inflections: *fast*, *hard*, *late*, *long*, *quick*. They follow the same spelling and phonological rules as for adjectives, *eg*: *early* ~ *earlier* ~ *earliest*:

You have to work *harder/faster/longer*.

The *-er* ~ *-est* inflections cannot be added to open-class adverbs ending in *-ly*:

quickly	~ *more quickly*	~ *most quickly*
	~ **quicklier*	~ **quickliest*

When *earlier* is synonymous with *before* (*that*) or *previously*, and when *later* is synonymous with *after* (*that*), they are not comparatives of the adverbs *early* and *late* (*cf* 8.55 Note [a]).

(f) *Soon*, which has no corresponding adjective, is frequently used in the comparative (*sooner*). Some find the superlative (*soonest*) unacceptable, or at least very informal, but it seems perfectly acceptable as a premodifier of certain adjectives, *eg*:

the *soonest* possible date, the *soonest* available time

It is also used in the proverb 'Least said, *soonest* mended', and in telexes and telegrams:

Send prices *soonest*. ['as soon as possible']

(g) Similarly, *often* has the comparative forms *oftener* and *oftenest*, although they are less commonly used than the comparative *more often* and, in particular, the superlative *most often*.

(h) Sometimes the comparative *-er* form of the adjective can function as the comparative of the *-ly* adverb:

That's *easier* said than done. [= 'more easily']
Speak *clearer*! [= 'more clearly']

The use of the comparative is generally considered less objectionable than the use of the adjective instead of the adverb in the absolute form (*cf* 7.7):

?Speak *clear*! [= Speak *clearly*!]

(i) Comparative adverbs are involved in modal idioms (*cf* 3.45*f*):

I *had/'d better* go now.
You *had best* forget all about the whole thing.
I *would/'d sooner* stay at home tonight.
He *would/had/'d rather* not commit himself. [There is of course no absolute form of *rather* in present-day English.]

Article usage with comparatives and superlatives

7.84 In general, the comparative and the superlative express comparison between two sets. In the following examples [1, 2], the comparative is used to compare Jane with the others. There is no article with a *than*-construction, as in [1]:

Jane is *cleverer* than all the other girls in the class. [1]

With the superlative, Jane is included in the group and compared with all the others. The definite article is used with an *of*-phrase following, as in [2]:

Jane is *the cleverest* of all the students in the class. [2]

The superlative is often used for a comparison between two persons, items, etc [3], though this is avoided in careful usage where the comparative [3a] is preferred:

He is *the youngest* (of the two brothers). [3]
He is *the younger* (of the two brothers). [3a]

If the superlative is used attributively, the definite article (or other definite determiner) is required, as in [4] and [5]:

Anna is { *the* / *their* } *youngest* child. / **youngest* child. } [4]

Della is { *the most efficient* publisher in the office. / *our most efficient* publisher. / **most efficient* publisher. } [5]

But if the adjective is not attributive, *the* is optional:

Anna is (*the*) *youngest* (of all). [4a]
Della is (*the*) *most efficient* (of all). [5a]

Without a definite determiner, the construction with *most* is always ambiguous between superlative and intensifier interpretation when the adjective is evaluative:

Della is *most efficient*. ['the most efficient of all' or 'extremely efficient'] [5b]

With the indefinite or zero article, *most* is always interpreted as an intensifier:

She is *a most efficient* publisher.
They are *most efficient* publishers. } ['extremely'] [5c]

When *most* functions as an intensifier, there is of course no parallel construction with the inflected form:

You are very helpful and { *most kind.* / **kindest.* }

I find this whole situation puzzling and { *most odd.* / **oddest.* }

There is a tendency to use *most* with a preceding definite article to express intensification:

Isn't she *the most beautiful woman*? ['an extremely beautiful woman', *ie* = *a most beautiful woman*]

The inflectional superlative is occasionally used in the same way, *eg*:

Lucille wears *the oddest clothes*, my dear.

Other expressions of comparison

7.85 In addition to the normal expression of comparison mentioned, there are some other, related expressions. Some Latin comparatives, *eg*: *senior* and *major*, retain their comparative force:

A is *senior* to B.

However, they are not true comparatives in English, since they cannot be used in comparative constructions with *than* as explicit basis of comparison (*cf* 7.86):

A is { *older* / **senior* } *than* B.

Such Latin comparatives may be called IMPLICIT. (Another term that occurs is 'absolute'.) Implicit comparatives include the following:

A is *senior* to B. ['of higher rank', 'older than'; *cf*: *a senior minister*; *senior citizens* 'old people', 'old age pensioners']
B is *junior* to A. ['of lower rank', 'younger than'; *cf*: *a junior minister*]
inferior management ['inadequate' rather than 'less good'; *cf*: X is *inferior* to Y.]

superior quality [a 'good' rather than 'better' quality; *cf*: Y is *superior* to X.]
a *prior* claim over X ['previous', 'more important'; *cf*: *prior to* 'earlier than']
the *major* political parties ['larger' or 'rather large']
a *minor* point ['less important' or 'quite unimportant']
anterior and *posterior* positions [technical terms in biology: 'near(er) the head' and 'near(er) the tail']

A more or less 'absolute' comparative may occasionally be found also with other adjectives, as in:

an *older* man ['rather old'], the *better* hotels, *finer* restaurants

Repeated and coordinated comparatives, as in the following examples, indicate gradual increase:

She is getting *better and better*. ['increasingly better']
They are becoming *more and more difficult*.

Too in the sense 'more than enough' might also be mentioned here:

It's *too long*. ['longer than it should be']
He speaks *too quickly*. ['more quickly than he should speak']

Enough (postpositive) and *sufficiently* (attributive) express sufficient degree:

The message is { clear *enough.* / *sufficiently* clear. } ['as clear as is necessary']

Note [a] Grading is a semantic process which may be expressed not only by means of comparison of adjectives and adverbs, but also by means of verbs that denote grading. We can distinguish three types of verb corresponding to the three types of comparison (*cf* 7.74):
(i) Verbs expressing comparison in relation to a higher degree, *eg*:
Demand *exceeds* supply. ['is greater than']
(ii) Verbs expressing comparison in relation to the same degree, *eg*:
The length of this boat *equals* the width of that boat. ['This boat *is as long as* that boat is wide.']
(iii) Verbs expressing comparison in relation to a lower degree, *eg*:
This action *diminishes* the possibilities of an early settlement of the dispute. ['makes the possibilities smaller']
Other such verbs containing a comparative element include the following:
increase, intensify, exaggerate, maximize, lengthen, enlarge, amplify; lessen, curtail, lower, abridge, impair, minimize, decline
[b] *More* and *most* have other uses in which they are not equivalent to the comparison inflections (*cf* 8.105). Notice the paraphrases in the following two uses of *more*:
He is *more than happy* about it. ['He is happy about it to a degree that is not adequately expressed by the word *happy*.']
He is *more good than bad*. ['It is more accurate to say that he is good than that he is bad.']
She is *more keen than wise*. ['She is keen rather than wise.']
The inflected form cannot be substituted in this function (*cf* 15.69*f*):
*He is *better* than bad. ?*She is *keener* than wise.
But compare:
It's *worse* than useless. He is *worse* than bad.
[c] *Upper* and *lower* have no comparative force in *upper case* ['capital letters'] and *the lower leg* ['the bottom part of the leg']. They are not comparatives of *up* and *low*, since we cannot say **up case*, **the low leg*, etc. A similar pair is *outer* and *inner*, *eg* in *an inner meaning*.

Basis of comparison

7.86 We can make the basis of comparison explicit. The most common ways of doing so include correlative constructions introduced by *than* (correlative to *-er*, *more*, *less*) and by *as* (correlative to *so*, *as*; on comparative clauses, *cf* further 15.63*ff*):

John is { *politer* / *more polite* / *less polite* } *than Bob (is).* [1]

John behaves { *more* / *less* } *politely than Bob (does).* [1a]

The basis of comparison to the same degree is *as* and, in nonassertive contexts, also *so* (both having the correlative *as*):

John is { *as polite* / *not* { *so* / *as* } *polite* } *as Bob (is).* [2]

John { behaves *as politely* / does *not* behave { *so* / *as* } *politely* } *as Bob (does).* [2a]

Bases of comparison to a higher or lower degree may also be expressed in other ways, as illustrated below in (a–e).

(a) A restrictive relative clause (full or ellipted):

John is the best player { *(I've ever seen)* / *(we have)* / *(they have)* / *(there is)* / *(that plays)* } *on the team.* [3]

(b) An *of*-phrase (not derivable from a relative clause):

{ John is the more polite *of the (two) boys.* [4]
{ *Of the (two) boys*, John behaves the more politely. [4a]

{ John is the most polite *of the (three) boys.* [5]
{ *Of the (three) boys*, John behaves the most politely. [5a]

The prepositional phrases can be either final, as in [4] and [5], or initial, as in [4a] and [5a]. Final position is more frequent, especially when the construction contains an adjective. Note the obligatory presence of *the* before *more* and *most* (*cf* 7.84).

(c) The noun (or its replacement *one*) which the adjective premodifies:

John is the more stupid { *boy.* / *one.* } ⟨formal⟩

[more commonly: John is more stupid than the other boy.]

John is the most stupid { *boy.* / *one.* }

(d) A determiner with definite reference. With comparatives, either the definite article or demonstrative determiner (*cf* 5.14) is possible:

{ *The* / *That* } taller boy is John.

Unlike comparatives, however, superlatives cannot normally cooccur with demonstrative determiners:

{ *The* / *My* / **That* } youngest daughter is a dentist.

(e) A genitive construction or possessive determiner:

John is { *Mary's* / *her* } older/oldest brother.

Note Some basis of comparison may be implicit in the use of the absolute form of the adjective, and in such cases the basis of comparison can also be made explicit (*cf*: *for*, 9.62):
He is tall *for a child (of) his age.* [*ie* 'taller than normal']

Intensification

Restrictions on intensification

7.87 The types of intensifiers modifying adjectives and adverbs have been mentioned earlier (*cf* 7.56*ff*). Here we are concerned with restrictions on their use analogous to those for comparison. In general, amplifiers and comparatives are allowed by the same range of adjectives and adverbs, *ie* those that are gradable. The range for emphasizers and those downtoners not expressing degree (*eg*: *virtually*) is much wider, as we can see from their cooccurrence with a nongradable adjective such as *nonChristian*:

He is { *definitely* / *virtually* / **more* / **very* } nonChristian.

There are also restrictions on the use of particular intensifiers, and these can sometimes be stated in semantic terms:

most { *happy* [subjective; 'extremely happy'] / ?*tall* [objective] }

utterly { *wrong* [negative evaluation] / ?*right* [positive evaluation] }

perfectly { *natural* [positive evaluation] / ?*unnatural* [negative evaluation] }

Amplifiers and comparatives are available for adjectives that refer to a quality that is thought of as having values on a scale. Thus, in *John is English*,

the adjective *English* does not allow amplifiers or comparatives if it refers to John's nationality, which is not a quality of John's. However, if the adjective refers qualitatively to the way he behaves or to his racial background, they are admitted:

John is { *very English.* / *more English than* the English. }

She is { *thoroughly* / *three quarters* } *Irish.*

Similarly, *original* in the sense of 'not copied' cannot normally be intensified or compared, as in *the original manuscript*, where it does not refer to a quality and there can be only one original manuscript. On the other hand, if *original* refers to the quality of the work, meaning 'of a new type', it may be intensified or compared: *a more original book*. We may compare the two uses with those of the corresponding adverb:

She always writes { *originally.* ['in an original manner'] / *very originally.* }

She came from Cleveland { *originally.* ['in the first place'] / **very originally.* }

In the last example, *originally* is a respect adjunct (*cf* 8.85) and cannot be intensified or compared.

Note [a] There are exceptions to the cooccurrence of a particular intensifier with a semantic class of adjective. For example, though *utterly* tends to cooccur with 'negative' adjectives, *utterly reliable* and *utterly delightful* are common.
[b] With reference to the use of *original*, we note that the following sentence has two possible meanings:
This is *the more original* manuscript.
It can mean either 'This manuscript was written with more originality' or 'This manuscript is closer to the original'.

The unmarked term in 'measure' expressions

7.88 When we want to state the age of a person, we will normally use the expression *x years old*, for example:

Mr Jespersen is 75 *years old.*

We will not say (except jokingly, as a compliment):

*Mr Jespersen is 75 *years young.*

However, the choice of adjective here has nothing to do with the number of years, and we would use the same expression for somebody very young, *eg*:

His granddaughter is two years { *old.* / **young.* }

Similarly:

The water is two metres { *deep.* / **shallow.* } Susan is only five feet { *tall.* / **short.* }

'Measure' adjectives like *old*, *deep*, and *tall* cover a scale of measurement. Such adjectives have two terms for the opposite ranges of the scale (*old/young*, *deep/shallow*, *tall/short*), but use the upper range as the 'unmarked' term in measure expressions (*old*, *deep*, *tall*). The 'measure' adjectives which are used in this way, preceded by a noun phrase of measure, include the following set with the marked term given in parenthesis:

deep (*shallow*)	*high* (*low*)	*long* (*short*)	*old* (*young*)
tall (*short*)	*thick* (*thin*)	*wide* (*narrow*)	

This set of 'measure' adjectives is used in the same way in *how*-questions and, again, the use of the unmarked term does not assume that only the upper range is applicable:

A: *How old* is your daughter? ['What is her age?']
B: She is *ten years old.* ['Her age is ten years.']

There are also adjectives outside the set listed above which are used in *how*-questions, in the same way as the 'measure' adjectives. Thus, if we want to know the size of something, we would normally use *big* or *large*, rather than *small* or *little*, *eg*:

How big is your computer?

Similarly, we use *bright* rather than *dim*, *strong* rather than *weak*, *heavy* rather than *light*, etc:

How strong is the engine of this car?
How accurate is your digital watch?

However, such adjectives are used in this way only in *how*-questions, not with noun phrases of measure:

A: *How heavy* is your suitcase? B: *It is only *20 kilos heavy.*

Some adverbs also use an unmarked term in *how*-questions. They include the italicized words in the following examples:

A: How *much* does she like him?	B: She likes him a lot.
A: How *often* did they complain?	B: Every day after school.
A: How *quickly* does he do his homework?	B: Usually in less than an hour.
A: How *far* did you drive today?	B: Over 200 miles.

Compare the following expressions of distance:

A: *How* { *far* / **near* } is it to the village?

B:
- The village is only *five miles* { **far.* / *away.* }
- It's { *a long way* / **long* } to the village. [assertive]
- It's { *not far* / *not a long way* } to the village. [nonassertive]

Compare time expressions:

A: *How long* did the concert last?

B: { Only 40 minutes. / It was only 40 minutes { *long.* / **short.* }

Note [a] If we use the marked term, as in *How young is John?*, we are asking a question that presupposes that the relevant norm is towards the lower end of the scale, *ie* that John is young, whereas the unmarked term in *How old is John?* does not presuppose that John is old. Notice that neither term is neutral in exclamations:

How young he is! ['He is extremely young!']
How old he is! ['He is extremely old!']

[b] We use neither the marked nor the unmarked term of a measure adjective in:

*He is *five pounds* { *heavy.* / *light.* }

The following constructions are however normal with the unmarked term:

A: *How heavy* is he?
B: He is { *five pounds too heavy.* / *too heavy by five pounds.* / *five pounds heavier than* John is. }

But, in specific contexts, either of two pairs of adjectives like *heavy/light*, *long/short* can be considered unmarked. The choice of term is determined by our point of orientation. When we want to relate a javelin throw to a specific purpose (to win, qualify, etc), we may say:

His last javelin throw was *a few inches short.*

Short here is not the antonym of *long*, and there is no implication that it was a short throw. Compare an example like the following:

How *high/low* is the water level now?

Here, the item selected (particularly the marked *high*) suggests the expectation that the level is getting higher and lower, respectively.

[c] In the case of 'nonliteral' measure items, *far* is also unmarked, as in:

How *far* do you agree with the proposal?

[d] *Full* and *empty* can be used equally, although *How full?* is commoner than *How empty?*:
half full, half empty, three-quarters full, three-quarters empty

Premodification of comparatives

7.89 Adjectives and adverbs in the absolute degree can be premodified by intensifiers like *very*, *quite*, *so*, etc (*cf* 7.56*ff*):

The job was *very* { *easy.* / *difficult.* }

She writes *very* { *well.* / *easily.* }

Comparatives of both adjectives and adverbs, whether inflected or periphrastic, can be premodified by amplifiers, such as *much* or *very much*:

The job was (*very*) *much* { *easier* / *more difficult* } than I thought.

She writes (*very*) *much* { *better* / *more easily* } than she used to.

Note the restriction on premodification of adjectives and adverbs in the absolute and comparative degrees:

That's { *very* / **much* } *good.* She works { *very* / **much* } *hard.*

That's { *much* / **very* } *better.* She works { *much* / **very* } *harder.*

Other intensifiers (and intensifying noun phrases) that are common with comparatives include the following:

somewhat easier
rather better

a lot / *lots* ⟨informal⟩ } shorter

a great / *a good* } *deal* / *a good bit* ⟨informal⟩ } more/less difficult

a hell of a lot / *a heck of a lot* / *a damn sight* } better ⟨very familiar⟩

Some intensifiers can be repeated for emphasis:

very very good ['extremely good']
very very . . . much sooner
much much . . . more careful
far far . . . more carefully
so so . . . much better [repeated *so* in BrE only]
so very very . . . much better

Generally, however, the repetition is permissible only if the repeated items come first or follow *so*:

so very very . . . much better
**very much much* . . . better

Repetition of intensifiers is a type of coordination that is always asyndetic (*cf* 13.102): **very and very good.*

Only *much* and *far* are used as intensifiers of premodifying adjectives. Compare:

That was a { *much* / *far* / **great deal* } *easier* job.

~ That job was { *much* / *far* / *a great deal* } *easier.*

Much can be premodified by *so*, *very*, and *that*:

(*so*) (*very*) / *that* } *much* easier

Premodification of superlatives

7.90 The nonperiphrastic superlative may be premodified by the intensifier *very*:

They arrived only at *the very last* moment.
She put on *her very best* dress.

When *very* premodifies the superlative, a determiner is obligatory (*cf* 7.84):

Anna is { *(the) youngest.*
the very youngest.
**very youngest.* }

The periphrastic superlative is not premodified by the intensifier *very* (**the very most successful candidate*) but by other expressions, *eg*:

the most successful candidate *of all*
the most remarkable election *ever*
far (and away) / *by far* } the best solution

Note the different positions of intensifiers in:

It was { *(by) far* the best (film) / the best (film) { *by far* / **far* / **far and away* } } that I've seen for a long time.

Bibliographical note

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On comparison and intensification, see Bolinger (1967b, 1972a); Bresnan (1973); Campbell and Wales (1969); Coates (1971); Fries (1977); Gnutzmann (1974); Gnutzmann et al (1973); Lees (1961); Rusiecki (1985); Wood (1959).

8 The semantics and grammar of adverbials

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Introduction

8.1 The adverbial element (A) differs considerably from the other elements of clause structure (S, V, O, C), as we have already seen in 2.15. Differences in the following respects are especially notable:

(i) range of semantic roles;
(ii) propensity for multiple occurrence in the same clause;
(iii) range of realization forms;
(iv) range of possible positions in the clause;
(v) distinctive grammatical functions;
(vi) flexibility for use in information processing (*cf* 18.3*ff*) and in displaying textual connections (*cf* 19.53*ff*).

Since to some extent these variables are independent of each other, we shall outline each of (i) to (iv) separately. But since it is the grammatical aspects that concern us, we shall reserve most of the description and discussion of adverbials, in all their respects, for treatment under (v), 8.24*ff*. In any case, although the variables are indeed to some extent independent, they are also to a large extent interdependent. It is because there are different grammatical functions (v) as well as different semantic roles (i) that we can have more than one A-element in a clause (ii). It is because there is a range of possible positions for the A-element (iv) that this element lends itself to information processing (vi). Certain realization forms (iii) are especially associated with certain grammatical functions (v) and with certain positions in the clause (iv). We shall frequently be drawing attention to interactions like these. In particular, it must be stressed that a given semantic role (*eg* time) is not tied to a single grammatical function; time, for example, is expressed by both adjuncts and subjuncts.

We make a sharp and principled distinction in this book according as an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, or other unit functions outside a clause element (*ie* is grammatically separate from it) or inside a clause element (*ie* is grammatically a part of it). Thus the units *very beautifully*, *in the garage*, and *really* are adverbials in [1], [2], and [3] respectively, but are not adverbials in [4], [5], and [6], where they operate grammatically as part of phrases which as a whole realize other elements, O in [4] and [5], C in [6]:

The girl was dressed *very beautifully*. [1]
I keep a spare bicycle *in the garage*. [2]
She *really* is an intelligent child. [3]
I saw a *very beautifully* dressed girl. [4]
I keep the bicycle *in the garage* well oiled. [5]
She is a *really* intelligent child. [6]

(See further 8.24.)

Note Of the clause elements S, V, O, C, A, the A-element is the next most frequent after S and V. The vast majority of clauses, dependent or independent, contain at least one adverbial, and in the Survey of English Usage corpus there are on average 15 adverbials in every 100 running words of material, spoken and written alike.

Outline of semantic roles

8.2 We shall distinguish seven main categories of semantic role, in most cases with further subdivisions as shown in the table below. We begin with the category SPACE, since the expression of other categories is often achieved in terms of figurative extension of spatial relations.

SPACE	*position*, *direction*	with interrelated subdivisions, *goal* ['to'] and *source* ['from']
	distance	
TIME	*position*, *duration*	with interrelated subdivisions *forward span* ['until'] and *backward span* ['since']
	frequency	
	relationship	
PROCESS	*manner*	
	means	
	instrument	
	agentive	
RESPECT		
CONTINGENCY	*cause*	
	reason	
	purpose	
	result	
	condition	
	concession	
MODALITY	*emphasis*	
	approximation	
	restriction	
DEGREE	*amplification*	
	diminution	
	measure	

Detailed discussion of these categories will be reserved for the sections dealing with the expression given them by the various classes of adverbials, 8.39*ff*. But since to some considerable extent the same semantic roles are performed by quite different grammatical classes of adverbial, we provide in 8.3–10 a preliminary discussion and illustration of the semantic categories listed above.

Space

8.3 We can readily distinguish five semantic relations expressed by adverbials in relation to physical SPACE, including the ordinary senses of 'place', a term we shall also use when this is convenient. First, there is POSITION, normally associated with verbs referring to stasis:

He lay *on his bed*.

But they can occur also with verbs referring to motion:

They are strolling *in the park*.

Secondly, we have DIRECTION, which may refer to directional path without locational specification, as in:

They drove *westwards*.

Or it can refer to direction along with a locational specification, as in:

She walked *down the hill*.
Their house faces *towards the sea*.

Thirdly, involving a positional aspect of direction, we can distinguish GOAL, as in:

She walked (down the hill) *to the bus stop*.

The interrelationship of the three is shown by the fact that, in particular contexts and with particular verbs, they can all be readily elicited by questions with *Where*:

Where was he lying? *On his bed*. [position]
Where was she walking? *In the park*. [position]
Where was she walking? *Down the hill*. [direction]
Where was she walking? *To the bus stop*. [goal]

But with the latter two, there are alternative question forms that are more role-specific:

Which way was she walking? [direction]
Where was she walking *to*? [goal]

A question with a more general verb as in 'Where was she going?' would be entirely open as to direction or goal use.

Fourthly, again involving direction and position, we have the obverse of goal in SOURCE; for example:

She walked (down the hill) *from the school*.

Questions concerning source would usually be expressed through a more general verb of motion than *walk*, especially one that is oriented to the speaker, and the 'source' preposition (*eg*: *from*) would have to be expressed:

Where was she coming *from*?

(On the grounds for seeing direction, goal, and source as involving the same basic *grammatical* category, see 8.46).

Finally, there is spatial measure, expressed as DISTANCE:

They had travelled *a long way*.
She had driven *(for) fifty kilometres*.
He hadn't gone *far*.

Such adverbials are elicited by *How far . . .?*

One further semantic factor should be mentioned. Sentences which superficially differ only in so far as one has a position adverbial and the other a direction, goal, or source adverbial are found on closer inspection to involve a considerable difference in the meaning of the verb concerned, triggered by the different prepositions:

He is travelling in Yorkshire. [1]
He is travelling to Leeds (*or* from Halifax). [2]

Sentence [1] seems to give equal weight to what he is doing (travelling) and where he is doing it (in Yorkshire), whereas sentence [2] seems to give weight only to the direction: 'Where is he travelling to/from?' 'Where is he going (to)?' 'Where is he coming from?' This is confirmed both by the plausibility of the paraphrases (*go*, *come*) and by the absence of an acceptable question:

*What is he doing from Halifax? Travelling?

beside:

What is he doing in Yorkshire? Travelling?

This suggests that, in addition to the semantic distinctions, the position adverbial is different from the others grammatically as well (*cf* 8.44*ff*).

Note In some very formal and stylistically mannered usage, we find the otherwise archaic *wh-* forms *whither* (direction and goal) and *whence* (source).

Time

8.4 Temporal relations are especially dependent for their expression upon figurative extension of locative items such as *in* and *at* (*cf* 9.34). As with space, several subroles can be distinguished, some of them closely analogous to those of space.

First, there is time seen as a fixed POSITION on a temporal scale: time as stasis – the time *when* an action took place or the time to which a state applies. For example:

She drove to Chicago *on Sunday*. He was there *last week*.

The relation is elicited by *when* and is often referred to as 'time *when*':

When did she drive to Chicago? *On Sunday*.

Secondly, DURATION. Since time is conceived as being linear and unidimensional, the analogy of spatial direction makes little impact on the conceptualization of time. But the concept of measure is as important to the consideration of time as it is to space, and temporal measure is seen as duration. Linking duration to specific positions on the linear time scale, we have the concept of SPAN, itself subdivided to correspond to the only rudimentary analogue to spatial direction that is conceptualized with respect to time, the FORWARD SPAN ['until, up to a specified point of time': *cf* spatial 'goal'] and the BACKWARD SPAN ['since, from a specified point of time': *cf* spatial 'source'].

FORWARD SPAN extends from the point of time to which the speaker and hearer are oriented, forward to some point which is 'future' in relation to the orientation point. For example:

I shall be staying here *till next week*.
Washington delayed his counter-attack *until the following spring*.

The converse of this, BACKWARD SPAN, indicates the stretch of time back from the speaker–hearer orientation point. For example:

I've been staying here *since last week*.
Washington's attack that spring was his first action *since the previous September*.

Then there are more general expressions of duration, without necessary relation to a particular point of orientation. For example:

I am staying *(for) three weeks*.

Here the reference of the adverbial may extend both into the past and into the future from the time point of utterance; equally, it may refer to a three-week period at some unspecified time in the future, just as in the following example it can refer to an unspecified period in the past:

I stayed *(for) three weeks*.

The elicitation of duration as well as forward and backward span is usually achieved by the same question form, *How long . . .?* But for future and past extent, alternative forms are generally available, such as *Till when . . . ?* and *Since when . . . ?* respectively.

Thirdly, we have expressions of FREQUENCY, elicited by *How often . . . ?* For example:

A: *How often* do you go to the theatre?
B: Well, I like to go *frequently*, but in fact I've been only *three times* this year.

The two adverbials in the answer draw attention to the fact that frequency is a complex notion (as is 'direction' in its interaction with 'goal'), and we shall explore it in more detail in 8.64*ff* below.

Fourthly, there is the expression of RELATIONSHIP between one time and another, again a complex notion, and in this case with no role-specific question form. For example:

I was already writing my novel in 1980 and I'm afraid it is *still* in progress.
He had visited his mother *already* when I saw him yesterday.

Process

8.5 Here it is possible to distinguish four subclasses: MANNER (*casually, with deference, carefully, slowly, like John, just as John does*, etc); MEANS (*by bus, in mathematics, through insight*, etc); INSTRUMENT (*with a fork, using a dictionary, by means of interrogation*, etc); AGENTIVE (*by John*, with passive; corresponding to *John* as subject, with active). Since the last three subclasses seem to overlap, it is necessary to demonstrate their independence by a cooccurrence test (*cf* 8.11*f*), and it may well be that the distinction tends to be made in actual language use only when such cooccurrence obtains. Consider the four adverbials in each of the following sentences:

The student was *politely* [A_1] assessed *by the teacher* [A_2], *impressionistically* [A_3] *by means of an interview* [A_4].
The patient was *carefully* [A_1] treated *by the nurse* [A_2] *medically* [A_3] *with a well-tried drug* [A4].

In each sentence, A_1 is manner, A_2 agent, A_3 means, and A_4 instrument. But although the distinction may seem especially close only between means and instrument, it should be noted that manner is not necessarily always distinguished clearly from them. In principle, the distinction is clear enough: manner is relatively subjective and hence gradable (*cf* 7.4): *quite politely, very carefully*; means and instrument are objective and hence nongradable: **very surgically*. But consider the following sentence:

The teacher assessed the student *impressionistically*.

Here we may be unsure whether the adverbial means 'in a quite impressionistic manner', 'subjectively', or 'by means of an impression-forming technique'. And even if the means sense seemed to be endorsed by cooccurrence with an 'instrument' adverbial, cooccurrence with a manner adverbial like *casually* would interact semantically (*cf* 8.80) so as to make *impressionistically* equivocal between means and manner:

He *casually* [A_1] assessed the student *impressionistically* [A_2] *by interviewing him* [A_3].

Again, we are very dependent on the wider context in interpreting a sentence such as:

She did it *legally*.

The adverbial here may be manner (*quite legally, not illegally*), means (*by invoking the law*), instrument (*with legal arguments*), or – as in 8.6 – respect (*in respect of law*). See further 8.85.

Respect

8.6 This is a much broader and more abstract semantic category than time and place. We are here concerned with the use of an adverbial to identify a relevant point of reference in respect of which the clause concerned derives its truth value. For example:

So far as travelling facilities are concerned, we have obviously made a popular decision; but *with respect to the date*, many people are expressing dissatisfaction.
She helped him a little *with his book*.
She talked learnedly *about Kant*.
He has always been frightened *of earwigs*.
They are advising me *legally*. [where the adverbial does not mean 'lawfully, not illegally' (*cf* 8.5), but 'on points of law, with respect to law']

As we see from this last example, the respect role is often expressed by means of an adverbial form which could be used equally to express a different semantic relation. Moreover, the respect role may interact with another clause element such that it is expressed in the verb. Such interaction can be seen especially perhaps with adverbials basically relating to place. For example, the sentence:

He is working *in a (nearby) factory*.

seems concerned with *where* he is working, and the adverbial expresses the

locative relation: there is a specific factory in mind. But equally, without the option of including an indication (such as *nearby*) that a specific factory is in mind, the adverbial in the following could rather serve to answer the question 'What is he doing?' than 'Where is he working?':

He is working *in a factory*.

If the adverbial does indeed answer *What?* rather than *Where?* it is being predicated of a respect relationship: 'So far as his work is concerned, it is in a factory', 'He is a factory worker'.

There are analogous interactions with time, process, result, and degree adverbials as well as with the quasi-object (especially cognate object) that occurs with certain verbs. Compare:

She died a peaceful death.
[She died *peacefully*; *As for her death*, it was peaceful]
They split their sides *laughing*.
He's busy *writing*.

Contingency

8.7 The chief semantic relations in this important class of adverbials are:

(i)	CAUSE	She died *of cancer*.
		She helped the stranger *out of a sense of duty*.
(ii)	REASON	He bought the book *because of his interest in metaphysics*.
(iii)	PURPOSE	He bought the book *so as to study metaphysics*.
(iv)	RESULT	He read the book carefully, *so he acquired some knowledge of metaphysics*.
(v)	CONDITION	*If he reads the book carefully*, he will acquire some knowledge of metaphysics.
(vi)	CONCESSION	*Though he didn't read the book*, he acquired some knowledge of metaphysics.

In contrast to cause, which is concerned with causation and motivation seen as established with some objectivity, reason involves a relatively personal and subjective assessment. As well as between these and the means adverbials of 8.5 (the adverbial in 'She got the job *through her experience*' could be seen as means or as cause), it will be apparent that there are close ties between these six adverbial types. Whether we perceive an adverbial as reason or purpose depends in large measure upon point of view. Thus the adverbial in:

He bought the book (*so as*) *to study metaphysics*.

can be seen as indicating his purpose in buying the book and equally his reason for buying it. So too, result is closely related to purpose in frequently (though not necessarily) indicating the fulfilment of a purpose (*cf* 8.86). Condition is linked to result in indicating the circumstances in which the result would be achieved. Concession, in turn, can be seen as an 'inverted' condition – indicating circumstances in which a result would ensue irrespective of the content of the concessive clause. But concession can also be seen as a 'blocked' or inoperative cause; compare:

Because of his enthusiasm, he won.	[cause]
In spite of his enthusiasm, he didn't win.	[concession]
Through his lack of enthusiasm, he didn't win.	[cause]
Despite his lack of enthusiasm, he won.	[concession]

Note There is a detailed consideration of contingency relationships including subcategories such as motivation in 15.30*ff*.

Modality

8.8 The truth value or force of a sentence such as:

She has been enthusiastic about her work.

can be enhanced or diminished by adverbials. On the one hand, there can be EMPHASIS on the positive or negative poles of the statement:

She has *certainly* been enthusiastic about her work.
She has*n't* been enthusiastic *at all* about her work.

On the other hand, the middle ground between these poles can be indicated by APPROXIMATION, which may take various guises:

She has *probably* been enthusiastic about her work.
She has *not* {*really* / *exactly*} been enthusiastic about her work.
She has *hardly* been enthusiastic about her work.
Cf also 'I've *almost* finished painting the bathroom.'

Approximation can include comment on the form of or authority for the statement:

She has *allegedly* been enthusiastic . . .
She has been, *if I may say so*, enthusiastic . . .
She has been, *as she puts it*, enthusiastic . . .

A third aspect of modality is RESTRICTION, especially with a view to directing focus upon a particular part of the statement:

She has been enthusiastic *only* about her WÒRK.
She ALÒNE has been enthusiastic . . .

The negative particle *not* (*n't*) serves the function of denying truth value and it must therefore be viewed as being central to the semantic role, modality. But although *not* (*n't*) has been traditionally regarded as an adverb, it does not realize an adverbial as defined in this book; rather, it is seen as a particle functioning in clause negation (*cf* 2.43, 10.54*ff*).

Degree

8.9 Though often similar to modality adverbials in their semantic effect, degree adverbials are concerned with the assessment of gradable constituents in relation to an imaginary scale. One of the subroles is AMPLIFICATION, which is concerned with asserting a generalized high degree; and another is its opposite, DIMINUTION. For example:

I *badly* want a drink.
She is *increasingly* adding to her work load. } [amplification]
He doesn*'t* like playing squash (*very*) *much*.
She helped him *a little* with his book. } [diminution]

Thirdly, there is the expression of MEASURE, without implication that the degree is notably high or low:

He likes playing squash *more than his sister does*.
She had worked *sufficiently* that day.

Degree is sometimes blended with time relations (frequency or duration); *eg* 'He doesn't play squash (*very*) *much*'.

Note Adverbial expressions of modality and degree, as well as the interrelation between them, will be examined in detail in the treatment of subjuncts, 8.99*ff*.

8.10 We have noted from time to time certain affinities between the semantic categories. It is doubtless because of these affinities that the same items such as prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions can be used for different semantic relations. Thus *for* can indicate purpose (*He did it for money*), cause (*What did you do it for?*), and respect (*The doctor treated me for pleurisy*). Likewise *if* can be both conditional and concessive (*Come tomorrow if possible*; *He is lazy if intelligent*), and *still* often blends concessive with temporal implications:

Still, you should have visited them. [concession only]
There is *still* work to do. ['at the present time']
There is *still* work to do. ['despite the amount already done']

In 'He plays squash *a great deal*', degree and frequency are both involved (*cf* 8.9); again, *never* is both temporal (*cf* 8.4) and modal (*cf* 8.8). The interrelation of the semantic categories and the ease with which we see the same adverbial expressing one or another (or more than one simultaneously) is not, of course, a weakness but rather one of the great sources of the adverbial's communicative strength.

But although the same item can express different meanings, and although the different meanings shade one with another, there are good grounds for asserting the validity of the semantic distinctions we are making. We shall look presently (8.11, *cf* also 8.149) at the argument based upon cooccurrence, but we may note here that some semantic relations are so deeply entrenched, so well institutionalized, and so individually perceptible as to have special question forms to elicit them. Thus the *yes–no* question corresponds to the modality function:

A: (Are you going?) B: Yes/No/Probably/Never!

So too the question forms with *when*, (*for*) *how long*, *where*, *which way* (direction), *how*, *in which way* (process), *why* are directed to eliciting responses realizing some of the principal semantic relations that we have distinguished. (But *cf* 8.79*f*.)

Note [a] In pointing out the semantic overlap with certain conjunctions and prepositions, we must nonetheless note that prepositional phrases and (especially) finite clauses are considerably more explicit and consistent with respect to their *general* semantic functions than are adverbs, whose form (notably *-ly*) conveys little and whose semantic role is typically particular, being determined largely by the lexical meaning of the individual item.

[b] Adverbial semantics can be seen not only in respect of question forms but also with deictic pro-forms (*cf* 12.1*ff*). On this basis, one might conclude that space, time, and process are central, in that simplex pro-forms exist: *there*, *then*, *thus*, and *so* (*cf* 2.43*f*). The first two are fairly discrete and precise (*cf* also *here* and *now*). But *thus* and *so* are broader and more vague, overlapping, and subject to style restrictions (commoner expressions are *like this*, *like that*). For example:

He spoke *in the big hall* assuming that more people would hear him *there*.
He spoke *at 9.00 p.m.*, assuming that more people would be free *then*.
He spoke *in great detail* assuming that, if he explained matters *thus*, his words would have a more lasting effect.

Deictic pro-forms for other semantic relations are either morphologically complex words (*therefore*, *thereby*) or prepositional or noun phrases (*that way*, *by such means*, *for this purpose*, etc). All these forms reflect the fact that the relationships concerned are not as unequivocally discrete semantically as those that have been expressed by a single morpheme.

On the specific semantic functions of conjuncts, see 8.136*ff*.

Multiple occurrence

8.11 Despite the considerable overlapping of the semantic roles and the affinities we can see between them, those that we have distinguished can be given discrete grammatical expression. The basis of establishing separate categories of clause element is their potentiality for acceptable cooccurrence in the same clause. In consequence, our need to have two types of O-element is testified by the cooccurrence of direct and indirect object in such a sentence as:

They gave *their leader* [O_i] *strong support* [O_d]. [1]

In a directly comparable way, we must recognize several types of A-element and these different types clearly correspond in part to the various semantic roles that we have been considering. For example:

He *still* [A_1] *often* [A_2] works *on Sundays* [A_3] *for hours on end* [A_4]. [2]

where A_1 expresses time relationship, A_2 time frequency, A_3 time position, and A_4 time duration (*cf* 8.4).

Types of A-element are much more numerous than types of O and C, and they are much less dependent upon the clause concerned containing items of a specific class (such as ditransitive verbs). But in principle the grounds on which we establish the A types that we shall treat as grammatically distinct in 8.24*ff* are precisely analogous to those on which we distinguish O_i and O_d. That is, we note their propensity to cooccur in noncoordinate and nonappositive structures without tautology, contradiction, or unacceptability. This plainly applies to the cooccurrence of the four A-elements in example [2] above, though all of them concern *time*. Consider a further example, containing adverbials with a greater range of semantic roles:

Next Tuesday [A_1] I shall *probably* [A_2] visit her mother *in London* [A_3] *briefly* [A_4] *to see if she's feeling better* [A_5], *unless she telephones me before that* [A_6].

That these six adverbials are each expressing a different relation is shown not merely by their acceptable cooccurrence in the example sentence, but by

testing the unacceptability of treating any pair as either coordinate or appositive:

*I shall visit her mother *in London* [A_3] and *to see if she's feeling better* [A_5].
*I shall *probably* [A_2] *ie briefly* [A_4] visit her mother.

While it is on such essentially *grammatical* grounds as cooccurrence and position in clause structure that we establish classes of adverbials, we shall give the classes so established the labels plausibly suggested by their *semantic* roles.

8.12 At the same time, it must be noted that the affinities that we have discussed (*cf* 8.10) between some of the semantic roles frequently allow adverbials to interact with each other and with the other clause elements in a way and to a degree that is fairly rare with the relatively discrete types of O (O_i, O_d) and C (C_s, C_o). Thus (*cf* 8.6):

Martin is working *in the garden.*

This could be interpreted as indicating the place where Martin is working *or* indicating the type of work he is doing ('gardening'). Let us now add a further adverbial:

Martin is working *in the garden* [A_1] *on his sermon* [A_2].
Martin is working *in the garden* [A_1] *on his roses* [A_2].

We have now made clear the first and second interpretation respectively. Compare also the following pair of sentences:

He spoke *about Shakespeare.*
He spoke *about Shakespeare* [A_1] *sneeringly* [A_2].

Note that while the first might be paraphrased as 'The subject of his discourse was Shakespeare', a paraphrase of the second would be more like 'He had a contemptuous attitude to Shakespeare'. Consider now the sentence:

Mr Ahmed *proudly* accepted the award.

This might imply something like 'Mr Ahmed was proud to receive the award', or equally that he gave the appearance of pride in his manner as he received it. On the other hand, compare:

Proudly, Mr Ahmed accepted the award.
Mr Ahmed accepted the award *proudly.*

The variant orders here will influence us in favour of the first and second interpretation respectively.

Finally, as an example of interaction, consider the two sentences:

Frank *seldom* worked.
Frank worked *in his bedroom.*

Each is very different from:

Frank *seldom* worked *in his bedroom.*

In this connection, *cf* 2.54–5 on focus and scope.

Realization

8.13 The A-element can be realized by a great variety of linguistic structures:

Adverb phrase (*cf* 2.28) with closed-class (*cf* 2.36) adverb as head:
She telephoned *(just) then.*

Adverb phrase with open-class adverb (*cf* 7.47) as head:
She telephoned *(very) recently.*

Noun phrase (*cf* 17.1*ff*):
She telephoned *last week.*

Prepositional phrase (*cf* 9.1*ff*):
She telephoned *in the evening.*

Verbless clause (*cf* 14.10):
She telephoned *though obviously ill.*

Nonfinite clause (*cf* 14.7*ff*):
She telephoned *while waiting for the plane.*
She telephoned *hoping for a job.*
She telephoned *to ask for an interview.*
She telephoned *angered at the delay.*

Finite clause (*cf* 14.6):
She telephoned *after she had seen the announcement.*

We shall draw attention from time to time to the considerable degree of correspondence between the form of realization on the one hand, and semantic, positional, and grammatical properties on the other hand. Thus, for example, noun phrases as A chiefly realize A time position (*cf* 8.4); conditional adverbials are chiefly realized by finite clauses; an A occurring between S and V is likely to be one realized by an adverb phrase.

The different types of adverbial realization are textually distributed with widely different frequencies. In a fairly large sample of the Survey of English Usage corpus, where we examined approximately equal quantities of written material and impromptu spoken material, the distribution was found to be as presented in the table below. In the total of 75 000 words (40 000 words of transcribed impromptu speech and 35 000 words of written English), there were nearly 11 000 adverbials (*cf* 8.23):

Total number of adverbials	10981
Realization types:	
Prepositional phrases	4456
Closed-class items	3915
Open-class adverbs and adverb phrases	1063
Finite clauses	977
Nonfinite and verbless clauses	346
Noun phrases	224

The distribution between the two broad categories of material, impromptu speech on the one hand and written English on the other, was as follows, expressing this distribution as an average per text of the SEU corpus, where a 'text' is a homogeneous stretch of material, 5000 running words in extent:

	Speech	*Writing*
Total number of adverbials	712	753
Realization types:		
Prepositional phrases	258	336
Closed-class items	278	246
Open-class adverbs and adverb phrases	76	66
Finite clauses	70	60
Nonfinite and verbless clauses	12	33
Noun phrases	18	12

It is worth drawing attention to some salient features in these figures:

(i) There are two forms in which the vast majority of A-elements are expressed: prepositional phrases on the one hand, and the (usually short) closed-class items such as *well, still, of course*, on the other hand.

(ii) Spoken and written materials do not greatly differ either in the gross occurrence of A-elements or in the distribution of realization types.

(iii) But while speech has a higher proportion of noun phrases as A (1:1.5), written material has a higher proportion of prepositional phrases (1:1.3) and nonfinite/verbless clauses (1:2.75). This last point is unsurprising, given the fact that the numerically strongest subtype is the *-ing* participle clause, as in:

Finishing her work early, Margaret decided to go for a swim.

(iv) Less expected perhaps is the higher proportion of finite clauses as A in spoken material (1:1.2). This runs counter to the widespread belief that the frequency of 'subordinate clauses' (typically adverbial clauses with finite verbs) is a good indication of relative 'syntactic complexity', and that impromptu speech is less complex syntactically than written English.

There are important differences between speech and writing that do not emerge from these broad statistics, and we shall explore these and other details of textual distribution at appropriate points below.

Position

8.14 There is a sharp difference between A and other elements in the relative freedom with which A can be put in different positions in a sentence. The following examples illustrate this freedom, and we add the positional notation which will be explored in 8.15*ff*:

By then the book must have been placed on the shelf.	*I*
The book *by then* must have been placed on the shelf.	*iM*
The book must *by then* have been placed on the shelf.	*M*
The book must have *by then* been placed on the shelf.	*mM*
The book must have been *by then* placed on the shelf.	*eM*
The book must have been placed *by then* on the shelf.	*iE*
The book must have been placed on the shelf *by then*.	*E*

Some of these positions are less likely than others for the A in this sentence, but none is unacceptable. Of course, the availability of different positions does not imply that the choice of position makes no difference to the meaning of the sentence. The selection of one position rather than another is influenced by several factors, but chief among them is the information structure of the sentence, and the relation of adverbials to information structure will require special attention both in this chapter and in Chapter 18. But not all A-elements have the same range of possible positions. The type of realization (*cf* 8.13) has a strong influence on where an adverbial is placed (in general, single-word adverb phrases are most mobile and finite clauses least), and of even greater influence are the semantic typology outlined in 8.2*ff* and the grammatical typology on which we shall concentrate in this chapter (8.24*ff*).

Initial

8.15 INITIAL position (symbol *I*) is that preceding any other clause element. In effect, this generally means the position immediately before S, as in:

Suddenly, the driver started the engine.

But in direct questions (*cf* 11.4*ff*), it is the position immediately before the operator or *wh*-element:

Seriously, do you believe in ghosts?
Anyhow, since when has she been ill?

On the other hand, in subordinate or coordinated clauses, it is the position following the conjunction:

(I had scarcely got into the taxi) when *suddenly* the driver started the engine.
(Are you afraid of the dark,) and, *to be blunt*, do you believe in ghosts?
(I know you are very charitable,) but, *seriously*, how can he be innocent?

If a clause has two *I* adverbials, it is of interest to note the order, I_1 and I_2 (*cf* 8.150*f*):

Anyhow [I_1], *by then* [I_2] she was very ill.

Most types of adverbial realization can occur at *I* and the same is broadly true of the different semantic roles as well. Among the exceptions, degree adverbials are unlikely at *I*. With respect to grammatical functions (*cf* 8.24*ff*), *I* is associated with those adverbials that can readily constitute the ground, theme (*cf* 18.8*ff*), or 'scene-setting' for what follows. It is thus particularly appropriate for sentence adverbials (*cf* 8.36), disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*), and conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*). Semantically, *I* has a strong association with expressions of time.

Note [a] In the Survey of English Usage sample (*cf* 8.13, 8.23), there was found to be a striking contrast within the dominant realization type, prepositional phrases. Twenty-six per cent of all *I*-placed prepositional phrases were temporal where only four per cent were spatial. By contrast, of all *E*-placed prepositional phrases fourteen per cent were temporal, thirty-one per cent spatial.
[b] On adverbials in nonfinite and subjectless finite clauses, *cf* 8.20 Note [b].

Medial

8.16 MEDIAL position (symbol *M*) can be preliminarily described as that between S and V:

The driver *suddenly* started the engine. [1]

The soprano *really* delighted her audience. [2]
They *seriously* considered him for the post. [3]

But when the V-element is realized by a verb phrase involving an operator, we see that this first approximation to a definition of *M* is inadequate. In the following variants of [1], [2], and [3], any native speaker would feel that the adverbials are still in the same position:

The driver has *suddenly* started the engine. [1a]
The soprano had *really* delighted her audience. [2a]
They are *seriously* considering him for the post. [3a]

In consequence, we must refine the definition and say that *M* is the position immediately after the subject *and* (*where there is one*) *the operator*. This formulation will provide for interrogative sentences:

Did the driver *suddenly* start the engine? [1b]
Had the soprano *really* delighted her audience? [2b]
Why are they *seriously* considering him for the post? [3b]

It will also provide for imperative sentences:

Don't *suddenly* start the engine!
Do *seriously* consider him for the post!

In view of these examples, we see that an 'initial' adverbial in an imperative such as:

Never / *Carefully* } remove the cover.

must properly be regarded as 'medial'; *cf* 'We *never* remove the cover', *'*Never* we remove the cover'. One further complication can be seen in comparing the following examples with [2], [2a] and [2b]:

The soprano was *really* at her best tonight.
The soprano hasn't *really* been at her best for weeks.
Was the soprano *really* at her best tonight?
Has the soprano *really* been at her best recently?

We recognize that *really* seems to be in the 'same' position in all cases. The description of *M* must therefore be further clarified to accommodate the fact that, in this grammar, we treat BE as an operator even when it is the sole realization of V. So also HAVE, in those dialects of English that would not introduce *got* in [5] and [7]; *cf* 3.34*f*. Thus:

She has *really* a different approach to the subject. [4]
She has *really* (got) a different approach to the subject. [5]
She has *really* had a different approach to the subject. [6]
Has she *really* (got) a different approach to the subject? [7]

Note The claim that the position is the same (i) between operator and main verb as in [8], and (ii) between finite form of BE and complement as in [9] is strikingly confirmed by the fact that when the following was read aloud, it was perceived as [8] by some hearers, and as [9] by others:

The expression on her face was *seldom* { discussed. [main verb] [8] / disgust. [complement] [9]

8.17 By reason of its being between two closely associated constituent elements, S and V, or between two constituent parts of the phrase realizing V (operator and main verb), the *M* position tends to determine the type of A realization. Only for a heavily special effect would a clause or lengthy prepositional phrase be placed at *M* (and it would then be clearly marked off by commas in writing, or by prosody in speech):

You have, *though you may say it was accidental*, ruined this man's chances of a happy life.
She had not, *despite years of anxious endeavour*, succeeded in living down that initial mistake.

In more general use, the adverbials at *M* are for the most part rather short adverb phrases, especially solitary adverbs – and for these (as the tables in 8.23 show) *M* is a numerically dominant position. Semantically, *M* is especially associated with modality and degree, such that adverbials tend to take on a tinge of these even when they purport to be expressing other relations ('time', 'space', 'respect', 'means', for instance). Thus:

I have *at all times* indicated my willingness.
He has *nowhere* stated this explicitly.
I have not, *by word or deed*, betrayed your trust.

Grammatically, *M* is freely used for focusing and intensifying subjuncts (*cf* 8.88*ff*), and fairly freely for optional predication adjuncts (*cf* 8.24, 8.34), as well as for some disjuncts (*eg*: *obviously*; *cf* 8.121*ff*) and conjuncts (*eg*: *also*; *cf* 8.134*ff*).

Variants of medial

8.18 Consider again an example given earlier:

The driver *suddenly* started the engine.

This sentence conceals the fact that *M* position is the one immediately after an operator (*cf* 8.16), just as it obscures the fact that there are three exceptional variants of *M*, each with its domain of contrast with *M* and with each other. Compare:

She *really* delighted her audience. [1]
She *completely* delighted her audience. [2]

She had *really* delighted her audience. [1a]
She had *completely* delighted her audience. [2a]

She *really* had delighted her audience. [1b]
*She *completely* had delighted her audience. [2b]

In running through this set, we recognize when we come to [2b] that *completely* was at *M* in [2], though this neutralized a distinction that emerges with [1b]. By contrast, we equally recognize that [1] is ambiguous as between *M*, distinguished in [1a], and a position in [1b] that we may regard as a fronted medial or INITIAL MEDIAL position, symbol *iM*. This may be defined as the position between the subject and the operator.

There are several possible paraphrases of [1b], but one of them might be

stated thus: 'I wish to emphasize the fact that she had delighted her audience.' A comparable paraphrase of [1a] might be: 'I wish to emphasize the degree of delight she gave her audience'. There is not in fact much substantial difference *semantically* between these two, however much difference there may be *grammatically* between the intensifier (*cf* 8.104*ff*) in [1a], and the disjunct (*cf* 8.121*ff*) in [1b]. Where the predication is negative, however, the semantic distinction is clear:

She hadn't *really* delighted her audience. [*M*]
She *really* hadn't delighted her audience. [*iM*]

In consequence we find that while many disjuncts are freely placed at *M* (and less commonly at *iM*) in positive sentences, they must be at *iM* in negative ones:

They can *probably* find their way here. [*M*]
(?)They *probably* can find their way here. [*iM*]

*They can't *probably* find their way here. [*M*]
They *probably* can't find their way here. [*iM*]

He was *probably* unhappy. [*M*]
He *probably* wasn't unhappy. [*iM*]

We thus see that *iM* can be used when it is necessary to exclude the adverbial from the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64) and when there is prosodic focus on the following item:

I have *frankly* been seriously ÌNterested.
I *frankly* haven't been seriously ÌNterested.
I *frankly* HÀVE been seriously interested.

Note One notable use of *iM* occurs when the focused verb is BE; for example:
Well, you *never* WÈRE fond of work! That's where she *usually* ìs at this time of day.

8.19 Let us now consider the following example:

They *seriously* considered him for the post. [1]

Here we understand the meaning to be 'His suitability for the post was given serious consideration'. It is now clear that such an adverbial (apparently at *M*, but there is no operator) occupies a position that neutralizes both of what we have seen (*cf* 8.16) as the valid conditions of *M*. Thus it is not distinct from *M*:

They have *seriously* considered him for the post. [2]

Nor is it distinct from *iM*, which would be disallowed for *seriously* if the sentence had the meaning given above:

They *seriously* have considered him for the post. [3]

If, however, we expand the verb phrase to *will have considered*, we find that example [2] has also neutralized a contrast, since although *seriously* seems in [2] to be at *M*, the expanded form of [4] shows that the true *M* position will not yield the interpretation we have given to [1]:

They will *seriously* have considered him for the post. [4]

If, however, we place the adverbial immediately before *considered*, we have the required meaning:

They will have *seriously* considered him for the post. [5]

We now see that what is common to the sentences [1], [2], and [5] is that the adverbial is immediately before the main verb of the verb phrase in each case. This is the END MEDIAL position (symbol *eM*). It is associated with degree and manner adverbials (from a semantic viewpoint), with optional predication adjuncts (from a grammatical viewpoint), and with realizations by adverb phrases or prepositional phrases:

The room must have been *quite carefully* searched by the police.
My answer may have *to some extent* displeased them.

8.20 There is yet a further variant of *M*. It is to be found only rarely, and this is in part because it depends upon the occurrence of a verb phrase with three or more auxiliaries (*cf* 3.21*ff*):

They must have *often* been listening at the door.
The car may have *sometimes* been being used without permission.
The car may have been *indeed* being used without permission.

Adverbials that occur at the places occupied by *often*, *sometimes*, and *indeed* in these examples are said to be at MEDIAL MEDIAL position (symbol *mM*), and we see the validity of making this distinction by comparing the following:

*This bridge may have *badly* been designed by Brunel.

This bridge may have {*actually* / *partly*} been designed by Brunel.

But even the emphasizers and intensifiers that can, as we see, appear at *mM* would more usually be placed elsewhere, the emphasizer *actually* at *M* and the downtoner *partly* at *eM*:

This bridge may *actually* have been designed by Brunel.
This bridge may have been *partly* designed by Brunel.

It is unusual but not actually ungrammatical to have adverbials at *iM*, *M*, *mM*, and *eM* in the same clause, though the resultant sentence would be regarded as grossly unacceptable from a stylistic point of view, as in:

The new law *certainly* may *possibly* have *indeed* been *badly* formulated.
[= 'It is certainly true that what I say now is possible: the new law may indeed have been badly formulated']

Note [a] Since, as we have seen, a simple verb phrase neutralizes the distinction between *M* and *iM*, and a verb phrase consisting only of an operator and the main verb neutralizes the distinction between *M*, *mM*, and *eM*, the variants of *M* must be ignored in describing the position of most adverbials, reference usually being made only to *M*.
[b] With nonfinite clauses and finite clauses where the subject or the subject and an auxiliary are absent, it is still of course possible to distinguish *M* position and sometimes also variants of *M*. For example:

Being *often* in Paris, I enjoy . . . [*M*]
Having *carefully* studied the problem, he . . . [*M*]
To have been (*so*) *thoroughly* beaten by John was . . . [*eM*]
I had met her and may have *already* been influenced by her. [*mM*]

On the other hand, *iM* can be indistinguishable from *I*; consider:

I had met her and *already* had come to like her.

Here we cannot tell whether a fuller version of the second conjoin would have had the subject before or after the adverbial:

. . . and I *already* had come to like her.
. . . and *already* I had come to like her.

Indeed it is often impossible to distinguish *M* or any of its variants from *I*; for example:

I had been introduced to her and *already* influenced by her. [?*I*, ?*iM*, ?*M*, ?*eM*]
Already influenced by her, I had lost my former objectivity.

In such cases, it is best to acknowledge the neutralization of positional contrast by regarding the adverbials as at *I*/*M*, *ie* initial *or* medial position.

The 'split infinitive'

8.21 Quite strong stylistic objections are made to adverbials at (*e*)*M* when this position involves their being placed between *to* and the infinitive (the so-called 'split infinitive' construction), as in:

She ought to *seriously* consider her position. [1]
For me to *suddenly* resign my job is unthinkable. [2]
He wasn't able to *even* move his fingers. [3]

It should be noted that if the verb phrase is made perfective or if a modal not involving *to* is used in these examples, the adverbial remains immediately before the main verb:

She ought to have *seriously* considered her position. [1a]
She should *seriously* consider her position. [1b]
For me to have *suddenly* resigned . . . [2a]
He couldn't *even* move his fingers. [3a]

Since the position of the adverbials in [1a–3a] is perfectly acceptable and natural, it is easy to see why the closely parallel [1–3] should seem equally natural – however guiltily – despite generations of disapproval by teachers and stylists.

In comparing *ought to* in [1] and *should* in [1b], we might also note that there are several auxiliary sequences providing phonological evidence, matched by evidence from informal spellings, that the *to* has a closer link with the preceding than with the following word (*cf* 3.44*ff*):

used to	/ˈjuːstə/
have to	/ˈhæftə/
(have) got to, gotta	/ˈgɒtə, -də, -rə/
(be) going to, gonna	/ˈgənə/

In consequence, it would sound intolerably awkward to insert an adverbial before the *to*:

?*You have (got) *really* to be here early.

Again, where there is ellipsis of the predication, both with such sequences and more widely with verbs taking *to*-clause complementation (*cf* 16.38, 16.41, 16.50*ff*, 16.63), retention of *to* shows the leftward binding which encourages a split infinitive elsewhere:

A: Did you ever visit her after she had retired?
B: { I used to *sometimes*, but not recently.
{ I intended to *often enough*, but seldom managed to.
(Compare: ?I used *sometimes* to, but . . .
?I intended *often enough* to, but . . .)

Nonetheless, the widespread prejudice against split infinitives must not be underestimated, especially with respect to formal writing, and indeed there is no feature of usage on which critical native reaction more frequently focuses. In consequence, it is by no means unusual to detect awkward and unidiomatic usage that clearly results from conscious avoidance:

They are *regularly* to attend all classes that have been arranged for the present semester.
Troops continue *heavily* to outnumber the normal residents in the area.
She was forced *apologetically* to interpose a question at this point.

In this last example, avoidance has produced ambiguity, since one cannot tell whether it was 'she' who was apologetic or those who 'forced' her. Consider similarly:

She has tried *consciously* to stop worrying about her career.

Here we cannot decide whether it was her trying that was conscious or whether she wished the stopping to be conscious. On the other hand, with an alternative avoidance:

She has tried to stop *consciously* worrying . . .

we do not know whether the sentence refers to 'a conscious stop' or to 'a conscious worry'. If the former were intended, defiance of the prejudice against the split infinitive would at least make the meaning clear:

She has tried to *consciously* stop worrying . . .

Compare also:

His hardest decision was to *not* allow the children to go to summer camp.

It will be noted that if the *not* had preceded the *to* in the last example it would have been difficult, even in speech, to prevent misinterpretation as 'To allow the children to go to summer camp was not his hardest decision.'

Split infinitives are commonest with subjuncts of 'narrow orientation' (*cf* 8.92*ff*) and hence perhaps especially where the infinitive is a 'gradable' verb. The subjuncts would not of course be those that most usually appear at *iM* or at *E* (*cf* 8.24) such as *too* or *as well*. Some further examples will illustrate these points:

Your task is to *really* understand your students' problems.
I do TRŶ to underSTÁND – to *TRŬly* understand.
We tended to *rather* sit back and wait for developments.

People who are in genuine need ought to have priority; but to *so* organize the service is administratively difficult.
To *further* prolong discussion beyond the present meeting would be very undesirable.
To *even* reprimand a member of staff, it is important to ensure that the agreed procedure is strictly followed.

Colloquially, the split infinitive is frequently associated with a following focus, as in:

Well, you ought to *at least* TRŸ.
As soon as I get the word, I'm going to *really* HÙRRy.

Such preparation for focus may be expletive, as in:

I told them to *darned well* think for themSÈLVES.

Compare 8.100, App I.16 Note [d]. More generally the focus is intensified by superlatives or other expressions of real or implied comparison:

She was the first person to *ever* live in that house.
My grandson was the latest person to *either* discuss this with me or even allude to it.
She would be the last person to *even* THÌNK of plagiarizing.
No one invited me to *so much as* have a glass of water.
He is now reluctant to *so much as* SPÈAK to her.

Note In a Survey of English Usage text of circa 1980 involving four educated British adults (three women and one man) in a professional psychiatric discussion lasting three-quarters of an hour, there were nineteen 'split infinitives':

. . . to *actually* V . . .	7×	
. . . to *not* V . . .	3×	
. . . to *sort of* V . . .	2×	
. . . to *simply* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *openly* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *suddenly* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *emotionally* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *perhaps* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *always* V . . .	1×	
. . . to *all* V . . .	1×	['. . . it's going to *all* ruin things.']

End position

8.22 END POSITION (symbol *E*) is the position in the clause following all obligatory elements; it is also the position of the obligatory adverbial when this follows the other obligatory elements. For example:

The light was fading *rapidly*.	[after *SV*]
Dr Blackett is *in Tokyo*.	[A in *SVA*]
She was digging a trench *in the garden*.	[after *SVO*]
He gives his car a wash *every week*.	[after *SVOO*]
They became teachers *in the end*.	[after *SVC*]
He put the vase in the cabinet *without a word*.	[A in *SVOA*]

It is by no means rare to find more than one adverbial in this position:

She kept writing letters *feverishly* [A_1] *in her study* [A_2] *all afternoon* [A_3].

In such a case, all three of the adverbials are said to be at *E*, though of course their order relative to each other is of considerable significance (*cf* 8.150*f*).

The tendency for such *optional* adverbials to follow all *obligatory* elements can be readily ignored, however, in certain circumstances. Putting an adverbial at a subtype of *E* is found convenient when end-focus (especially associated with end-weight; *cf* 18.9) makes preferable an obligatory element in clause-final position despite the presence of an adverbial. This is called INITIAL END position (symbol *iE*); for example:

She kept writing *in feverish rage* long, violent letters of complaint.
[S + V + A + O]

This position seems least disturbing of normal order when an adverbial comes between a direct object and obligatory adverbial, as in:

She placed the book *offhandedly* on the table.

In some cases *iE* is essential if clarity is to be achieved. Consider:

She herself interviewed *with hurtful disdain* the student I had turned down.

If we compare this with a version putting the same adverbial at *E*, we shall see that there is little chance that a reader would make the same interpretation:

She herself interviewed the student I had turned down *with hurtful disdain*.

As we might expect from these examples, *iE* is especially necessary when the last obligatory element is a clause, since otherwise the adverbial would seem to be an element in the subordinate clause. Compare:

He urged her dismissal *secretly*. [1]

Here it is clear that it was the urging that was done secretly.

He urged that she be dismissed *secretly*. [2]

But here, retention of *E* for the adverbial implies that it is the dismissing that is to be done secretly. To combine the meaning of [1] with the construction of [2], we must move the adverbial to *iE* or *M*:

He urged *secretly* that she be dismissed.
He *secretly* urged that she be dismissed.

Compare also:

He said *suddenly* that he had earlier lost his temper.
He hoped *fervently* to be applauded.

in contrast to:

He said that he had earlier lost his temper *suddenly*.
He hoped to be applauded *fervently*.

It should be noted, of course, that in these examples the choice is not merely

between *E* and *iE*, but between either of these and *M*:

He *secretly* urged . . .
He *suddenly* said . . .
He *fervently* hoped . . .

But there is one important type of adverbial where the *M* option is not available. The adverbials in phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.3*f*, 16.16) may be placed at *iE* except when the O_d is a pronoun:

She waved *away* the offer of help.
She waved it *away*.
*She waved *away* it.

Most semantic roles can be expressed at *E*, though this is rarely true of modality; there is a particularly strong association of *E* with spatial expression: *cf* 8.15 Note [a]. Grammatically, *E* is the position for obligatory adjuncts unless there is an optional adjunct, in which case it would usually be this that appeared at *E*. As for realization, *E* is used for prepositional phrases and clauses rather than short adverb phrases.

Note With prepositional verbs, where we have the option (*cf* 16.13*ff*) of regarding them as transitive or intransitive (*cf* 8.24), as in:

He + looked at + the picture. [*SVO*]
He + looked + at the picture. [*SVA*]

it is best for present purposes to adopt the second of these but to regard the A-phrase as obligatory. This will account for native reaction to the apparent 'preposing' of an adverbial at *iE*, as well as accounting for the ease of tolerating discontinuity between the verb and its associated preposition. Hence:

He paid for the book *immediately*. [*E*]
She looked at the picture *in astonishment*. [*E*]
He paid *immediately* for the book. [*iE*]
She looked *in astonishment* at the picture. [*iE*]

Contrast with *SVO* interpretation the impossibility of *iE*:

*She looked at *in astonishment* the picture.

Positional norms

8.23 Although semantic and grammatical roles have a crucial influence on the position of A in a clause, the overwhelming majority of adverbials occur at *E*. There is however considerable variation, and there is a direct correlation in most cases between the semantic/grammatical category on the one hand and the realization form on the other. It is therefore of interest to study the distribution of some major realization types in relation to their position. We present below an analysis based on the Survey of English Usage corpus of which numerical data were given in 8.13, but now without the rather heterogeneous category of nonfinite and verbless clauses. In *Table* 8.23, the right-hand part of each line shows the *percentage* of each realization type at each of the positions distinguished in 8.14*ff*.

As with the general distribution of realization types (*cf* 8.13), so with the positions adopted, there is little difference between the norms of spoken and written English. The biggest difference is with noun phrases, and since this is numerically the smallest of the types, this difference is of little statistical importance. What is of greater moment is the difference between prepositional phrases and closed-class items which together constituted three-quarters of the many thousands of adverbials in the SEU sample. The lower proportion of closed-class (and open-class) adverbs at *E* doubtless reflects their relative lack of 'weight' (*cf* 18.9), while the higher proportion of closed-class items at *I* reflects the tendency to begin sentences with one of a small number of short conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*) such as *then*, *now*, *yet*, and above all (in speech) *well*. The twenty-five per cent of closed-class items at *M* constitutes no less than nine per cent of all adverbials in the sample and this draws attention to the numerical importance of 'narrow orientation' subjuncts like *really* (*cf* 8.96*ff*).

Table 8.23

		I	*iM*	*M*	*m/eM*	*iE*	*E*
Whole SEU sample	10635						
Prep phrases	4456	9.5	1	1.5	0	9	79
Closed-class items	3915	25	1	25	1	6	42
Open-class adverbs	1063	16	3	42	2	6	31
Finite clauses	977	31	1	1	0	1	66
Noun phrases	224	16	0	5	1	4	74
Spoken material	5599						
Prep phrases	2063	6	0	1	0	8	85
Closed-class items	2226	29	1	22	1	4	43
Open-class adverbs	608	17.5	5	38	1.5	5	33
Finite clauses	559	30	1	1	0	2	66
Noun phrases	143	10	0	7	1	2	80
Written material	5040						
Prep phrases	2351	12	1	2	0	10	75
Closed-class items	1722	20	1	29	1	9	40
Open-class adverbs	462	15	1.5	47	1.5	7	28
Finite clauses	421	32	2	1	0	1	64
Noun phrases	84	26	0	2	0	6	66

Grammatical functions

8.24 Since the purpose of this book is to describe present-day English from the viewpoint of grammar, it is on the grammatical functions that we shall concentrate in our discussion of adverbials. There are four broad categories of grammatical function: ADJUNCT, SUBJUNCT, DISJUNCT, and CONJUNCT. We shall deal in turn with each of these and their subcategories, as set out in *Fig* 8.24 below.

When adverbs, prepositional phrases, and other structures are functioning as part of an element in the sentence structure, they cannot of course be regarded as 'adverbials' in terms of the sentence in question (*cf* 8.1):

Her *beautifully* manicured nails plucked at the harp strings. [1]
The man *in the corner* seems to be ill. [2]
She answered in a *quietly* assertive way. [3]

Though you may leave *when ready*, you are asked not to disturb other candidates. [4]

In [1], *beautifully* is functioning as part of the noun phrase realizing the subject; contrast [1a]:

She had manicured her nails *beautifully*. [1a]

where the same item is functioning as A. In [2], *in the corner* is likewise part of the noun phrase that is subject in the example; contrast [2a]:

The man was *in the corner*. [2a]

In [3], *quietly* is functioning within a prepositional phrase which as a whole constitutes the adverbial of the sentence; contrast [3a]:

She asserted her answer *quietly*. [3a]

In [4], *when ready* functions as an adverbial within a finite clause which itself constitutes the adverbial in the sentence as a whole; compare [4a]:

You may leave *when ready* if you wish. [4a]

Here, the same verbless clause is functioning as one of two adverbials within a sentence.

But although the structures operating within elements in [1–4] are functionally quite distinct from the same items functioning as A in [1a–4a], the distinction is not always so clear. Out of context, there may be ambiguity, as with *in the next house* in:

I could hear *the man in the next house*. [part of a noun phrase]
(perhaps continuing: 'singing to his children, as he often does')
I heard the man *in the next house*.[predication adjunct, *cf* 8.27]
(≠ '*In the next house* I heard the man', but rather perhaps continuing: 'but he ran out at the back as I approached')
I heard the man *in the next house*. [sentence adjunct, *cf* 8.36]
(~ '*In the next house*, I heard the man', and perhaps continuing: 'but I could no longer hear him when I left it and walked round outside')

In these examples, *in the next house* must be understood as one or other of the three possibilities; there is no grammatical or semantic blurring. With other examples, there may be multiple analyses. One can justify treating:

He approved of the idea.

as having a predication adjunct *of the idea* or as comprising a prepositional verb *approved of* with a noun phrase as object *the idea* (*cf* 16.13*ff*). Equally, one can justify treating alike the two sentences:

He couldn't bring the changes *into effect*.
He couldn't bring the changes *about*.

with the italicized portions regarded as obligatory predicational adjuncts. From other points of view, it is preferable to regard *bring about* as a phrasal verb (*cf* 16.3*f*, 16.13*ff*), since this analysis captures syntactic features that would otherwise be ignored.

But there are uses of adverbs and adverb phrases where the status depends on neither ambiguity nor multiple analysis. The adverb *today* in the following example seems to be part of the subject noun phrase:

The |pace of 'life toDÁY| is |proving 'too FÀST|

Yet on the one hand there seems to be little difference beyond the nuances of emphasis in versions of the sentence in which *today* is certainly functioning as the A-element:

ToDÁY the pace of 'life is 'proving 'too FÀST
The pace of 'life is toDĂY proving 'too FÀST
The pace of 'life is 'proving 'too FÀST toDÁY

And on the other hand the position of *today* in the original version is not one that excludes the occurrence of A; *cf*:

Mr Jones toDĂY must be heartbroken. [A at *iM*]

Consider also the following textual example:

A raw recruit to the police service at the beginning of this century was expected to be little more than physically fit and mindlessly obedient.

Thus punctuated, it appears as though the whole sequence before *was expected* is the subject; but it is perfectly possible that *at the beginning of this century* is an A at *iM*. Compare:

At the beginning of this century, a raw recruit to the police service was expected to be . . .

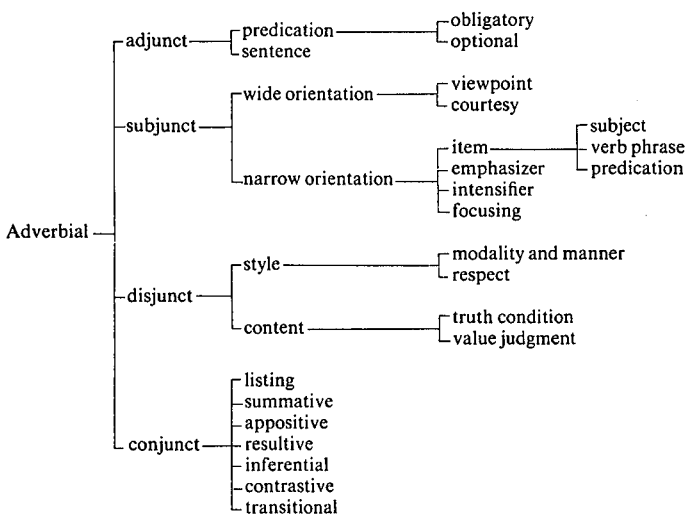

Fig 8.24

Adjuncts

8.25 Although in sentence schemata we designate as A realizations of adverbials in all four of the grammatical categories, it is only the adjuncts that closely resemble other sentence elements such as S, C, and O. Like them, for example, and unlike the other adverbials, an adjunct can be the focus of a cleft sentence (*cf* 18.26):

Hilda helped Tony because of his injury.
It was *Hilda* that helped Tony because of his injury. [S]
It was *Tony* that Hilda helped because of his injury. [O]
It was *because of his injury* that Hilda helped Tony. [A]

The parallels extend also to contrast in alternative interrogation or negation:

Did *Hilda* help Tony or did *Bill* help him? [S]
Hilda didn't help *Tony* but she helped *Wendy*. [O]
Did Hilda help Tony *because of his injury* or (did she help him) *to please her mother*?
Hilda didn't help Tony *because of his injury* but (she helped him) *to please her mother*. [A]

The same applies to potentiality for being the focus of focusing subjuncts (*cf* 8.116):

Only *Hilda* helped Tony . . . [S]
Hilda only helped *Tony* . . . [= 'Hilda helped only *Tony* . . .'] [O]
Hilda only helped Tony *because of his injury*.
[= 'Hilda helped Tony only *because of his injury*'] [A]

Moreover, irrespective of their position in a clause, adjuncts come within the scope of predication ellipsis or pro-forms (*cf* 12.29*f*, 12.59*f*), exactly like other post-operator elements. In consequence, the following pairs of examples are synonymous:

In 1981 [A], Grace *became a teacher* [C] and so did Hamish.
Grace *became a teacher* [C] *in 1981* [A] and Hamish *became a teacher* [C] *in 1981* [A].

Fred *carefully* [A] *cleaned his teeth* [O] but Jonathan didn't. / not.
Fred *carefully* [A] *cleaned his teeth* [O] but Jonathan didn't *carefully* [A] *clean his teeth*. [O]

Peter will *pay back the loan* [O] *when he gets paid* [A] and Bob may too.
Peter will *pay back the loan* [O] *when he gets paid* [A] and Bob may *pay back the loan* [O] *when he gets paid* [A] too.

Finally, like S, O, and C, adjuncts can be elicited by question forms. Compare:

Who became a teacher? (*Grace* [S])
What did Grace become? (*A teacher* [C])
Who(m) did Hilda help? (*Tony* [O])

Why did Hilda help Tony? (*Because of his injury* [A])

Cf also *When*, *Where*, *How*, and periphrastic question forms *How long*, *How well*, etc.

Note Some subjuncts (*cf* 8.89, 8.105) can also be elicited by periphrastic question forms; for example, *In what way* (viewpoint), *How much* or *To what extent* (amplifier). On the other hand, some process adverbials that are otherwise adjunct-like are resistant to being focus in a cleft sentence. Here as elsewhere in grammar, we recognize that a neat division is rare and gradience endemic.

Subcategories of adjunct

8.26 Although the characteristics outlined in 8.25 broadly hold for all adjuncts, there are three distinct types ranging in 'centrality' (*cf* 2.13) from the obligatory predication adjunct (which resembles an object both in the necessity of its presence for verb complementation (*cf* 16.1*ff*) and in its relative fixity of position) to the sentence adjunct, whose presence is never grammatically essential and which can be moved between *E* and *I* positions with relatively little consequence for its stylistic or semantic effect.

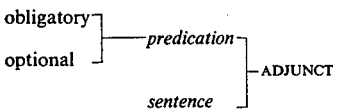

Fig 8.26

Obligatory predication adjuncts

8.27 If we compare sentences with *love* and *live* as V, we see that in each case a post-V element is required for complementation:

*He loved.
*He lived.

Beside:

He loved *Joan*. [O_d]
He lived *in Chicago*. [A_{oblig}]

The close and sequential relation of V O and V A in these sentences is demonstrated by their requiring similarly exceptional rhetorical circumstances for O and A fronting:

Joan he loved and *Joan* he always HÀD loved.
In Chicago he lived and *in Chicago* he always HÀD lived.

(*Cf* 18.20.) But the obligatory adjunct differs from the object in more readily permitting interruption between the V and itself:

?He loved at that time *Joan*.
He lived at that time *in Chicago*.

But if the A_{oblig} is a particle, interruption is usually impossible:

*She woke in bed *up*. (*Cf* 8.33).

8.28 In fact, the number of verbs having sufficient semantic weight in themselves to require no further complementation is quite small. At one extreme, we have the class of copular verbs (*cf* 16.21*ff*) like BE and *turn* which, as their designation indicates, must link one element (the S) to another (the C or A_{oblig}):

She was *a teacher*. [C]
She was *in a hurry*. [A]
The chrysalis slowly turned *green*. [C]
The chrysalis slowly turned *into a butterfly*. [A]

At the other extreme, we have intransitive verbs like *disappear* or *apologize* which fairly freely occur without complementation:

The rabbit disappeared.
John apologized.

Even in these examples, however, there would be considerable dependence on a context which in fact provided the unexpressed adjunct:

The rabbit *suddenly* disappeared.
The rabbit disappeared *behind a bush*.
John apologized *to his host*.
John apologized *for being late*.

Still more so, between the extremes of BE and *apologize*, adjunct-less intransitive clauses are rare, and we must note that the addition of an adjunct reduces the semantic weight and 'communicative dynamism' (*cf* 18.3) of the verb. Compare:

The Queen arrived. [*ie* the arrival is all important]
The Queen arrived *in a blue gown*. [*ie* her dress is more important than the arrival]
The Queen arrived *in a blue car*.

This is particularly noticeable in the case of certain verbs of broad meaning in respect of posture or motion: *sit, stand, come, go* (*cf* 16.24). These can take an obligatory adjunct of respect (*cf* 8.6) in the form of an *-ing* clause, with consequent weakening of the primary meaning of the main verb (*cf* 3.49):

He stood *waiting* (*patiently*).
She sat *reading* (*to the children*).
They went *hurrying* (*breathlessly*).
She came *running* (*in great haste*).

Such examples are, of course, superficially ambiguous. Prosodic adjustment can give fuller lexical meaning to the finite verb, at the same time transferring the *-ing* clauses from obligatory to optional adverbial status:

He STÒOD |waiting PÀTiently|
She sat with her CHÌLDren|RÈADing to them|

8.29 The nonfinite clause as obligatory adjunct in examples like 'He stood waiting' may be compared with the effect that perfective or progressive aspect has in conferring a plausible completeness of predication:

(?)He stood.
He stood waiting.
(?)She hitchhiked.
She was hitchhiking.
(?)They went.
They have gone.

Indeed, the progressive seems clearly able to combine the expression of a verbal inflection and of an obligatory adjunct of respect:

She was hitchhiking (to London).
She was (engaged in the activity of) hitchhiking.

Compare also:

She is teaching.

This last may refer either to current activity ('She is teaching in the next room at this moment') or to membership of a profession ('She is teaching for a living', 'She is in teaching', 'She is a teacher'), reminding us that historically the aspectual value seems to have been added to an original adverbial function (*cf* 'He's gone *a-hunting*', a dialectal or archaic form, derived historically from a prepositional phrase) which is still not entirely superseded.

8.30 A similar phenomenon to that observed with 'He stood waiting' is the obligatory adjunct with *come* and *go* in the form of an infinitive clause:

She'll come *to see you* (*about it*).
I went *to visit my mother*.

Again the lexical force of the main verb is reduced and the adjunct, while having the form common in the semantic role of purpose, is predominantly concerned with the respect role. This applies even more obviously to the obligatory adjunct following *try*:

He must try *to do better* (*next time*).
[≠ . . . 'so as to do better', 'in order to do better']

These adjuncts are noteworthy in that the semantic relation is alternatively realized by coordinated clauses, especially in rather informal usage (*cf* 13.98*f*, on pseudo-coordination):

She'll come *and see you* (*about it*).
I went *and visited my mother*.
He must try *and do better* (*next time*).

Note [a] When the coordinated clause is finite, the sense of the preceding verb is tilted towards its full lexical meaning. Compare:
I'll go *and visit my mother*.
I went and visited my mother.
I went and I visited my mother.
It is only in the first of these that the coordinated part has the resemblance to obligatory adjunct. With *try*, no finite verb coordination is possible:
Did he try *and see you*?
*Yes, he tried *and saw me*.

[b] Since *go, sit, try*, etc with infinitive clauses as obligatory adjunct seem to subordinate their lexical meaning to the verb in the adjunct, it is of interest to compare them with auxiliary verbs. *Cf* the treatment of *be going to* as a semi-auxiliary (3.47*f*).

8.31 Closely analogous to the obligatory adjunct, again frequently with the semantic role of respect (*cf* 8.6), are the structures in complementation of adjectives (*cf* 16.68*ff*). In some instances, without such complementation, the adjectives cannot constitute a predication:

*She is fond.	BESIDE	She is fond *of books*.
*This is tantamount.	BESIDE	This is tantamount *to an insult*.
?He is likely.	BESIDE	He is likely *to succeed*.

In others, the adjective has a different or at any rate much greater semantic weight when it is without complementation, serving more of an auxiliary role (*cf* 8.30 Note [b]) when complementation is present. Compare:

They are anxious.	~ They are anxious *to see you*. (*cf* 'They want to see you.')
They are (very) able.	~ They are able *to fly helicopters*. (*cf* 'They can fly helicopters.')
He is capable.	~ He is capable *of resigning over this*. (*cf* 'He may well resign.')
She is keen.	~ She is keen *on fishing*.
He is good.	~ He is good *at mathematics*.

Note As with the verbs with reduced meaning when accompanied by obligatory adjuncts (*cf* 8.28), some of the adjectives in informal usage take complementation in the form of a coordinate structure:

The room is good *and warm*.
He's nice *and generous*.

As with the verbs, too, the adjective requiring complementation can take on a subordinate role, as though it were a modification of what follows rather than being complemented by it. We may note that the following pairs are closely synonymous:

{The coffee is *nice and* hot. / The coffee is *nicely* hot.} {He got *good and* angry. ⟨esp AmE⟩ / He got *very* angry.}

(*Cf* pseudo-coordination, 13.98*f*)

8.32 In 8.27 obligatory adjuncts were compared with direct objects, and in 8.28 we considered intransitive verbs which appeared to have a different or somewhat weakened meaning when they were complemented by an adjunct. Both these factors come together in the consideration of prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.5*ff*, 16.13*ff*). Compare:

He went outside and *looked*; the evening sky was both radiant and peaceful. He came back in thoughtfully.

Here *looked* is fully intransitive and could be replaced by *gazed*. On the other hand, in:

He looked at the picture.

we seem to have as interdependent a tripartite sentence as we do in:

He lived *in Chicago*.

As with the latter, we may regard the prepositional phrase *at the picture* as an obligatory adjunct; *cf*:

It was *at the picture* that he looked.

But equally we may regard *look at* as a transitive verb, with *the picture* as O_d; *cf*:

It was the picture that he looked at.
The picture was looked at in admiration by him and several other visitors.

Note On the descriptive reasons for having multiple analyses for the same linguistic phenomenon, *cf* 2.61.

8.33 Just as prepositional verbs may be regarded either as transitive with obligatory O_d or as intransitive with obligatory adjunct, so sequences like *put away* can be regarded as potentially discontinuous transitive (phrasal) verbs:

She *put* the money *away*.
She *put away* the money.

or as simple transitive verbs requiring both an O_d and an obligatory adverbial (amplifier subjunct; *cf* 8.105). The former is convenient when we are considering the cooccurrence of closed-class particles (such as *away*) with verb items, as in 16.2*ff*. The latter is convenient when the verb item is accompanied by a wide range of phrases describable in terms suited to adverbial abstractions, as in this chapter. Thus we consider the italicized portion of the following sentences as obligatory predication adjuncts:

She put the money *into her purse*. (*cf* *She put the money.)
She put the money (*entirely*) *out of her mind*.
She placed *before me* a curiously ornate vase.

So also, while the adverb particle in the sentence:

He *stared* me *out*.

will be treated as part of a phrasal verb, the sentence:

He looked me (*straight*) *in the eye*.

is regarded as having an obligatory adjunct, susceptible of modification, as is shown by the parenthesized *straight*. The same verbs can occur, with a considerable difference in meaning according as they require or do not require an obligatory adjunct:

My father kept me.	['supported me financially']
My father kept me *in bed*.	['made me stay']
They have a cottage.	['own']
They have a cottage *for sale*.	['are selling']

(*Cf* the discussion of clause patterns, 10.1*ff*.)

Finally, just as we saw that copular verbs could have either C_s or an obligatory A (8.28), so there are a few verbs that can have either C_o or an obligatory A:

She made him *happy*. [C_o]
She made him *into a braver man*. [A]
He keeps his car *clean*. [C_o]
He keeps his car *in the street*. [A]

Optional predication adjuncts

8.34 Although it is often clear when an adjunct is obligatory, this is not always so. We noted in 8.28 that the mere addition of an adjunct after an intransitive verb reduced the verb's semantic weight. Nonetheless, it can be seen that the relation between S and V in:

The Queen arrived. [1]

is not radically altered when an A is added as in:

The Queen arrived *in a blue gown*. [2]

To the extent that [1] can obviously occur without the adjunct as in [2], or any other adjunct, while at the same time the relation between S and V in [2] is not at variance with the relation between the same S and V in [1], we can say that the adjunct in [2] is optional. Compare also further intransitive items where the optional status of A is indicated by parentheses:

The rabbit vanished (*behind a bush*).
She disappeared (*with the purse*).
The instrument has been tested { (*by a technician*). / (*electronically*). }
They are emigrating (*to South America*).
He protested (*vigorously*).

The optional status of adjuncts in *SVO* clauses can similarly be tested by observing that the relations (*eg* between V and O) remain constant irrespective of the presence or absence of the adjunct:

He defended his client (*with vigour*).
I found the letter (*in the kitchen*).
John forced open the door (*by means of a lever*).
They sent off the parcel (*to Australia*).
Grip the handle (*tightly*).
She kissed her mother (*on the cheek*).

Note Verbs that can be both monotransitive (16.25*ff*) and complex-transitive (16.43*ff*) enter into constructions of superficial similarity which are in fact very different. Compare:
She found him on the floor. [3]
[= 'He was on the floor when she found him.']
[≠ 'She found that he was on the floor.']
She found him of little help. [4]
[≠ 'He was of little help when she found him.']
[= 'She found that he was of little help.']
With *She found him in a coma*, the structure might parallel that in either [3] or [4].

Position of predication adjuncts

8.35 All predication adjuncts, obligatory and optional alike, are normally placed

at *E*, as in most of the examples presented in 8.25–34. They may however be advanced to *iE* if an O or C is lengthy and complex or requires prosodic focus. Such positioning characterizes written rather than spoken usage, and it reflects some care in sentence planning.

With an obligatory adjunct at *iE*:

She keeps *in the garden* some of the most lovable little rabbits you ever saw.
They want to bring *into force* a new regulation about passengers in buses.
She made *into a braver man* the unfortunate and terrified victim of terrorism.

With an optional adjunct at *iE*:

I found *in the kitchen* the letter I thought I had burnt.
She kissed *on the cheek* her tearful and trembling mother.

We saw in 8.27 an example of exceptional fronting to *I* of an obligatory adjunct. Such fronting would be equally exceptional with most optional predication adjuncts, and although an accompanying subject–operator inversion is now largely confined to formal or emotive style, its continued existence demonstrates the severity of the dislocation. *Cf*:

By no properly qualified technician has this instrument ever been adequately tested.
In no circumstances must this door be left open.

With discontinuity:

So vigorously did he protest *that the authorities reconsidered his case*.

Note Negative adjuncts such as *in no circumstances* might be said to be obligatory since the meaning is different when they are omitted:
You should *in no circumstances* leave the door unlocked.
[≠ 'You should leave the door unlocked.']
Contrast:
You should not, *in any circumstances*, leave the door unlocked.
Here the adjunct can of course be omitted without serious change of meaning. Significantly in this connection, it is chiefly the negative adjuncts that can be fronted. Compare:
In no circumstances should you leave the door unlocked.
?*By several qualified technicians* was the instrument tested.
(*Cf* 10.65, 18.24.)

Sentence adjuncts

8.36 The most obvious way in which sentence adjuncts mark themselves off from predication adjuncts is by their relative freedom to occur at *I* position as well as *E*. In this way they demonstrate what we can intuitively feel: that they relate to the sentence as a whole rather than solely or predominantly to the V and post-V elements. Thus *on the cheek* and *on the platform* both possess the adjunct characteristics presented in 8.25:

She kissed her mother *on the cheek*. [1]
She kissed her mother *on the platform*. [2]

But the relative centrality (*cf* 2.13) of the adjunct in [1] as compared with the

more peripheral orbit of that in [2] is shown by the awkwardness of:

?*On the cheek*, she kissed her mother. [1a]

as compared with:

On the platform, she kissed her mother. [2a]

If we combine fronting as in [1a] and [2a] with a truth-focusing paraphrase, the difference is brought out more sharply, though even [2b] is rather unidiomatic:

**On the cheek*, {it is a fact / the fact is} that she kissed her mother. [1b]

On the platform, {it is a fact / the fact is} that she kissed her mother. [2b]

If we combine the adjuncts of [1] and [2] at *E*, the adjunct in [1] would normally precede that in [2]; in other words, we expect the sentence adjunct *on the platform* to be located further from the centre of the clause (*cf* 2.13) than the predication adjunct *on the cheek*:

{She kissed her mother *on the cheek* [A_1] *on the platform* [A_2].
On the platform, she kissed her mother *on the cheek*.}

?*{She kissed her mother *on the platform* [A_2] *on the cheek* [A_1].
On the cheek, she kissed her mother *on the platform*.}

A further indication of the relatively peripheral status of the sentence adjunct is that it can be separated from the rest of the clause by a comma (and analogously occupy a separate tone unit in speech). Contrast the fronting of a predication adjunct (which requires a context of special motivation; *cf* 18.21) with a quite normally *I*-placed sentence adjunct:

In Chicago he LÍVED (and *in Chicago* . . .)
In ChicĂGO| he studied metaPHŶsics|
**In Chicago*, he lived.
In Chicago, he studied metaphysics.

We should note also that an *I*-placed sentence adjunct has the potentiality to relate to the *whole* sentence, even where the sentence comprises two coordinate clauses, while the same *E*-placed adjunct will normally be interpreted as predicational and hence related only to the clause in which it is placed. Compare:

He travelled a great deal and eventually settled down *in Australia*.
In Australia, he travelled a great deal and eventually settled down.

(*Cf* 18.20–25).

Subject- and object-related

8.37 If we compare the identical adjuncts in the following sentences, we detect an obvious difference in their relations:

I found the letter *in the kitchen*. [1]
I typed the letter *in the kitchen*. [2]

Both [1] and [2] respond to the question 'Where did you . . . ?', just as both can be framed in a cleft sentence 'It was *in the kitchen* that I found/typed the letter'. Again, both can be paraphrased in terms of 'I was *in the kitchen* when I . . ..' But whereas [1] can be paraphrased as 'The letter was *in the kitchen* when I found it,' [2] cannot be paraphrased as 'The letter was *in the kitchen* when I typed it.' This test helps us to see that in [2] *in the kitchen* is a sentence adjunct, but it also helps us to see that example [1] is ambiguous as to whether the adjunct is more object-related ('The letter was in the kitchen') or more subject-related ('I was in the kitchen'). If we now reorder these examples:

In the kitchen, I found the letter. [1a]
In the kitchen, I typed the letter. [2a]

we seem to have done more than foreground the adjuncts to make them the informational point of departure for what follows (*cf* 18.21). We have in addition skewed the relations of the adjunct in [1a] to make the hearer predisposed to interpret it as subject-related ('I searched the kitchen and found the letter there') whereas in [1] the predisposition was to interpret it as object-related ('I went into the kitchen and there was the letter').

A strictly analogous skewing between a presumed object-related interpretation and a presumed subject-related one occurs on moving the adjuncts from *E* to *I* in such sentences as the following:

{She saw my brother *in the garden*.
[probably ~ 'My brother was in the garden']
In the garden, she saw my brother.
[probably ~ 'She was in the garden']}

{I heard a noise *in the bathroom*.
[probably ~ 'The noise was in the bathroom']
In the bathroom, I heard a noise.
[probably ~ 'I was in the bathroom']}

Compare subject orientation of space adjuncts (8.49), of time adjuncts (8.76), of process adjuncts (8.78), and the subjuncts of 8.92. Cases of subject–object skewing are clearly analogous to complex transitivity (*cf* 16.43*ff*). *Cf* also:

We foresaw a disaster *in June*.
[probably ~ 'We foresaw that it was in June that there would be a disaster']
In June, we foresaw a disaster.
[probably ~ 'It was in June that we foresaw that there would be a disaster']

8.38 We have noted that sentence adjuncts are more peripheral to the structure of the sentence in which they function than are predication adjuncts. The relatively peripheral character is shown positionally in the fact both that sentence adjuncts will normally follow predication adjuncts at *E* and that they can more readily be placed at *I*:

She had lived *in poverty* [$A_{pred.oblig}$] *for thirty years* [$A_{sentence}$].
I had found the letter *in the kitchen* [$A_{pred.opt}$] *by searching carefully* [$A_{sentence}$].

For thirty years, she had lived *in poverty*.
By searching carefully, I had found the letter *in the kitchen*.

By contrast, the predication adjuncts in these examples could be placed at *I* only with a striking disruption of normal expectations.

But a further indication of the greater mobility of sentence adjuncts is that – in contrast to predication adjuncts – they can usually appear at *M* without giving any impression of radical word-order dislocation:

She had *for thirty years* lived *in poverty*.
?*She had *in poverty* lived *for thirty years*.
I had *by searching carefully* found the letter *in the kitchen*.
(?)I had – *in the kitchen* – found the letter *by searching carefully*.

Where sentence adjuncts are moved from *E*, however, their 'scene-setting' role for the sentence is often pointed by punctuation and is in speech regularly marked by terminating the adjunct with a tone-unit break:

For thirty YÉARS| she had lived in PÒverty|
I HĀD| by searching CĂREfully| found the letter in the KÌTchen|

GRAMMATICAL REALIZATION OF SEMANTIC ROLES

Adjuncts of space

8.39 We saw in 8.2 that five semantic subroles were to be distinguished within the category of space. Where a verb (*eg*: *be*, *live*, *put*) takes an obligatory predication adjunct, this is in almost all cases concerned with POSITION or DIRECTION:

They are *on the Continent*. He kept it *in the safe*.
She lives *in a cottage*. He put it *on(to) the table*.

When a spatial predication adjunct is optional, on the other hand, it is less likely to express position than DIRECTION (including GOAL and SOURCE):

The children were running very fast { *towards the park.* / *to the swings.* / *from the school.* }

The DISTANCE relation is given two kinds of expression, SPECIFIC and GENERAL. The former is expressed solely by predication adjuncts, and these have only noun-phrase realization:

They ran *two miles* in ten minutes.
We climbed *a further thousand feet* before dusk.

General distance can also be realized by noun phrases, in which case the adjuncts are again predicational:

We hurried *a few miles* and then rested.
They had travelled *a long way* and were exhausted.

But prepositional phrases can also be used, and in this form the adjuncts can be predicational or sentential:

We hurried *for a few miles* and then rested.
For the next two miles, the road had a very poor surface, making speed impossible.

Distance phrases can be treated as singular despite their 'internal' plurality: '*another/a further* two miles'. But *cf* Note.

Position and source adjuncts readily assume a sentential role, especially when there is a direction or goal adjunct in the same clause:

People move to a new house quite frequently *in America*.
(*cf*: *In America*, people move to a new house quite frequently.)
Mary went to Brussels *from London*.
(*cf*: *From London*, Mary went to Brussels.
?*To Brussels, Mary went *from London*.)

To a limited extent, position adjuncts can be realized by noun phrases:

Which side of the street does she live? She lives *this side*.
Whichever district you live, try to do some walking every day.
*We lived *this street* at one time.

Direction adjuncts involving a general reference item (especially *way*) are often realized as noun phrases introduced by *which*, *this*, *that*:

He went *that way*.
Come *this way* please.
Which direction did she run?

Cf also ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩ 'My hair was blowing *every which way*' [*ie* 'in every direction'].

Note Noun phrases expressing specific distance are often treated as O_d rather than A, thus permitting passivization (*cf* 16.4*ff*, 16.27*ff*):
They ran *the distance* in record time. *The distance* was run in record time.
There can be vacillation over concord: 'The remaining ten metres was/were completed in record time.'

Realization

8.40 Apart from the use of noun phrases for some predication adjuncts of distance (*cf* 8.39), space adjuncts are most commonly in the form of prepositional phrases, thus conveying with a given noun phrase (*the road*, *the house*, *the room*, . . .) the spatial discriminations set out in 9.16*ff* (*at*, *in*, *on*, . . .). Where the lexical form of the head noun is unimportant but where the location needs to be specified in detail, a postmodified noun phrase can be used, as in:

I saw Joan at the { *office* / *place* } { *at which* / *where* } *her father works.*

But a head noun that is of little semantic weight (as *place* above) would more usually be omitted and the whole adjunct expressed with only the *where*-clause:

I saw Joan *where her father works.*

Clausal realization is especially convenient where the actual location is indefinite:

They must go { *where* / *wherever* } *we send them.*

So too with abbreviated clause forms:

Keep the keys { *where* / *wherever* } *convenient.*

Position in relation to animates (especially persons) may be expressed by prepositional phrases introduced by *with*:

A: Where is Mildred?

B: { She is (staying) *with her brother.* / She is *with the horse that was injured last week.* / She is *with the vet* but I don't know exactly where. }

Such answers to *where* are obviously relative to the position (known or unknown) of the entity mentioned; contrast 'She is *at her brother's*' (*cf* 5.124). In consequence, *with*-phrases establish little more than a conjunction with the person or animal named and they are often used as almost equivalent to conjoins with *and*:

Mildred is with her brother, discussing the horse's injury.
Mildred, with her brother, is discussing the . . .
Mildred along with her brother is/are discussing the . . . [*cf* 10.40]
Mildred and her brother are discussing the . . .

8.41 But in addition to the spatial pro-forms, *here* and *there* (*cf* 7.67), there are numerous common adverbs realizing spatial relations. Some of the following are atrophied prepositional phrases (*eg*: *overseas*), some can themselves be used prepositionally as well as adverbially (*cf* 9.5). Most can be used for both position and direction:

aboard, about, above, abroad, across, ahead, aloft, alongside, anywhere, around, ashore, astern, away, back, behind, below, beneath, between, beyond, down, downhill, downstairs, downstream, downwind, east, eastward(s) and other directions with the suffix *-ward* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *-wards* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *elsewhere, everywhere, far, here, hereabouts, home, in, indoors, inland, inshore, inside, locally, near, nearby, north, nowhere, off, offshore, on, opposite, out, outdoors, outside, overboard, overhead, overland, overseas, somewhere, south, there, thereabouts, through, throughout, under, underfoot, underground, underneath, up, uphill, upstairs, upstream, west, within*

Some items denote direction but not position:

after, along, aside, before, by, downward(s), forward(s), inward(s), left, outward(s), over, past, right, round, sideways, skyward(s), upward(s)

Note [a] The compass points used for both position and direction can be compounded; *eg*: *northwest, east-northeast.*

[b] There are some nautical terms used for both position and direction that are normally part of a technical vocabulary, but are found in literature dealing with the sea; *eg*: *aft, larboard* ⟨now rare⟩, *port, starboard.*
[c] For *here, above,* and *below* as signals in discourse reference, *cf* 19.46*f*.
[d] Several of the closed-class adverbs listed here can be regarded as abbreviated prepositional phrases. *Cf* 'He looked *outside* (*the house*)'.

Cooccurrence restrictions

8.42 Direction adjuncts of both goal and source can normally be used only with verbs of motion or with other verbs used dynamically (*cf* 4.33*ff*) that allow a directional meaning:

I think you should now turn *left*. ['to the left']
He jumped *over the fence.*
He kicked the ball *into the goal.*
She was whispering softly *into the microphone.*
He came *from America* last week.
It jumped *out of the cage.*

With very general directions, however, we find cooccurrence even with verbs used statively:

They { live / are living } *to the south of us.*
My house faces / My car is facing } *toward(s) the park.*
This road is *to the north.*
Our course was *due south.*

Some direction adjuncts can also be used with the copular verb BE when they have a resultative meaning, indicating the state of having reached the goal (*cf* 9.7, 9.46):

They are *past* by now. ['have gone past']
The men will be *along* soon. ['will have arrived']
We will soon be *over the border*. ['have crossed over the border']
I've never been *to London*. ['never visited London']

On the other hand, position and distance adjuncts can be used with all verbs, including those in stative use (*cf* 4.27*ff*):

stative { I heard about it *in London.* / I have the key *here.* / He lives *a long way from here.* / The ground seems very soft *locally.* }

dynamic { They're staying *in a nearby hotel.* / Was she swimming *near the boat*? / He's travelling *further* this year. }

Position adjuncts can also be used with the copular verb BE:

It's much warmer { *inland.* / *where we now live.* }

Indeed, they frequently occur as the obligatory element with BE clauses, though not with copular verbs other than BE:

The birthday party is *in the next room.*
All our men are *abroad.*
The meeting will be *upstairs.*
The house you want is *on the other side of the street.*
*They will become *in Paris.*

The progressive is of course excluded:

*Charles is being *in the next room.*

Contrast (*cf* 3.76):

Charles is being boisterous (*in the next room*).

Spatial adjuncts can equally be obligatory adjuncts with verbs other than BE:

We don't live *here.*
I'll get *below.*
You should set that dish *in the middle.*
I'll put the kettle *on the stove.*
They keep their car *further from the house* now.

Note [a] Informally, *seem* and *appear* permit spatial adjuncts as sole complementation, especially those relating to distance or with general rather than specific reference:
They seem *further away* now.
?The children seem *upstairs*, to judge from the noise.
Note that 'She seems *at home*' could be freely used but only in the sense 'at ease', without spatial reference.
[b] Figurative use of basically spatial items is of course common with time adjuncts (*cf* 8.51*ff* below). On the nonspatial use of adverbial particles, as in 'The light is *on*', 'The car blew *up*', 'Drink *up* your milk, darling', *cf* 16.2*ff*.

Potential ambiguity

8.43 Given that the same items can be used in quite different semantic roles with the same verbs, it is easy for ambiguity to arise. *Cf*:

Did you drive the car *near the police station*?
The dog is not allowed to run *outside.*
The baby was crawling *upstairs.*

Each of the italicized adjuncts could be intended or interpreted as either directional ['towards the police station', etc] or positional ['in the vicinity of the police station', etc]. In the former sense, the adjunct would be predicational, in the latter sentential and hence susceptible (in declarative sentences) of being placed at *I*, removing ambiguity; *eg*:

Outside, the dog is not allowed to run.

In speech, the sentential (*ie* positional) interpretation could also be conveyed prosodically, without moving the adjunct from *E*:

The dog is not allowed to RÙN| outsÍDE|

As predicational adjunct, however, the ambiguity can be removed only by rephrasing; *eg* (assuming that this is appropriate in the context):

The dog is not allowed to run *out* (*into the garden*).

Position and direction adjuncts in the same clause

8.44 Position and direction (or goal) adjuncts can cooccur, with the position adjunct normally following the other adjunct in *E*, for the reasons given in 8.39:

The children are running *around upstairs.*
He fell *overboard near the shore.*

With two prepositional phrases, there is often a superficial ambiguity in the status of the second phrase, which might be either an adverbial of the clause or a postmodifier of the noun head in the first phrase:

Some of the children are walking *to the lake in the park.*
['They are walking to the lake and are walking in the park' or 'They are walking to the lake which is in the park']
Middle-class people move *to a new house in the suburbs* every few years.
['They move to a new house every few years; they do this in the suburbs' or 'They move every few years to a new suburban house']

The position adjunct can be put in *I* position to avoid giving it end-focus (*cf* 18.3*f*): '*In the park*, the children are feeding the ducks.' Where the final phrase is a positional sentence adjunct, we can avoid ambiguity by placing it at *I*:

In the park some of the children are walking *to the lake.*
In the suburbs, middle-class people move *to a new house* every few years.

Depending on the structure of the sentence, there are other ways of avoiding such ambiguities; *eg*:

Some of the children are *in the park* and are walking *to the lake.*

Hierarchical relationship

8.45 It often happens that two spatial adjuncts enter into a contextual relation of hierarchy. This can occur where both adjuncts are of the same semantic class but of different grammatical functions (the one being a sentence adjunct, the other a predication adjunct). For example, with two position adjuncts:

Many people eat *in restaurants in London.*

The order here satisfies both the grammatical requirement (that the sentence adjunct be more peripheral than the predication one) and the logical requirement (that the smaller location be stated before the larger in which it is placed). But if the sentence adjunct is expressed with an adverb indicating that it is relatively 'given' (*cf* 18.8*ff*), the order may be reversed:

Many people eat $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{here}\\ \textit{there}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *in restaurants.*

Just as on grammatical grounds, it can only be the sentence adjunct that can

appear at *I* ('*In London*, many people . . .'), so also on logical grounds, the lower member in the hierarchy cannot dominate the higher:

**In restaurants*, many people eat *in London*.

Source adjuncts can also cooccur with goal or direction adjuncts in a hierarchical relationship:

We came *to London from Rome*.
We went *from Rome to London*.

These examples illustrate the normal order of the adjuncts, which is of course directly related to the semantics of the respective verbs, *come* (with orientation to goal) and *go* (with orientation to source, the point of departure). Nonetheless, in each case it is the source adjunct that alone is sentential and hence susceptible of positioning at *I*:

From Rome we {came / went} *to London*.

Unless overridden by the pressure of orientation (as with *come*), the two adjuncts will be ordered with respect to the sequence of events referred to (thus source before goal), but if one is relatively 'given' (*cf* 18.8) and therefore expressed by a closed-class adverb, this will normally precede the other adjunct. Compare:

They flew *over* (*the city*) *towards the border*.
They flew *west over the city*.

Coordination

8.46 Two adjuncts can be coordinated if they are of the same grammatical function and semantic class; *eg* position adjuncts:

Soldiers were on guard *inside* and *outside*.
We can wait for you *here* or *in the car*.

Equally with direction adjuncts:

They went *up the hill* and *towards the station*.
They ran *across the field* and *past the farmhouse*.

But a position and a direction or goal adjunct normally cannot be coordinated. Hence in:

The baby was crawling *upstairs* and *into his parents' bedroom*.

upstairs can be interpreted only as a direction adjunct (*cf* 8.43), since it is coordinated with a prepositional phrase that cannot have a positional function.

On the other hand, source and direction adjuncts admit coordination:

They were hurrying *from the capital* and *towards the border*.

But directional path and specific goal cannot normally be coordinated without an additional adverbial such as *on* or *eventually*:

We walked *up the hill* and so (*on*) *to the station*.

Contrast:

I drove *up Gower Street* and *into the College*.

Positions of space adjuncts

8.47 Irrespective of grammatical function or semantic role, space adjuncts favour *E*:

position { I'll meet you *downstairs*. / We're eating *in the kitchen*. / You'll find the sugar *where the coffee is*.
source { We moved the furniture *out of the room*. / They travelled slowly *from Hong Kong*.
direction { I'll go *downstairs*. / They shouldn't be going *south*.
goal { She hadn't yet moved *to Liverpool*. / I'll go downstairs *to the kitchen*.
distance { By dawn, we had come *a long way*. / Try to fly *the whole distance*.

Position adjuncts, particularly prepositional phrases, often appear in *I*. They may be put there to create a 'scene-setting' (*cf* 8.15), or to avoid end-focus (*cf* 18.11), or to avoid ambiguity (*cf* 8.43), or to avoid a clustering of adjuncts at *E*, though it is often impossible to isolate any one reason. *Cf*:

On the tree there were some very large oranges.
Outside children were jumping and skipping.
In the nursery the children were playing happily but noisily.
On the stage men were fighting, and *in the body of the hall* women were screaming.

The expressions *Here* . . . BE and *There* . . . BE with a personal pronoun as subject, and the verb in the simple present or (with *there*) past, are commonly used to draw attention to the presence of somebody or something:

Here it is, just where I left it.
There she is, by the phone box.
There they were, cold and miserable.

Source adjuncts can also be in *I* position and occasionally (though with more impression of disturbing the normal sequence of elements) in *M*:

From Liverpool, you can't often get international flights.
You could, *from Manchester*, get a plane to Amsterdam.

Speakers sometimes put position adjuncts in *M* and more rarely (and only with short items) in *iM*:

Life is *everywhere* so frustrating.
We are *here* enjoying a different kind of existence.
The poor had not *in this country* been left destitute.
As you proceed east along the side aisle, you *there* may notice a very curious statue.

Direction and goal adjuncts cannot usually be in *M*:

They are {(to) there* / *into the kitchen*} moving some new furniture.

But they can take the position between verb and object (*iE*), especially if the object phrase is long:

They moved *into the kitchen* every stick of furniture they possessed.

Occasionally, however, some direction adjuncts occupy *I*. As predication adjuncts, they have a dramatic impact and a rhetorical flavour in that position; normally the verb is in the simple present or simple past:

Down they flew.
Away he goes.
On they marched.

If the subject is not a personal pronoun but a noun (with therefore a greater information value) or indefinite pronoun, subject–verb inversion is normal when a predication adjunct is in *I* (*cf* 18.23). This applies to intransitive verbs (**In the doorway saw me my brother*) without auxiliaries (**Up the hill has been climbing my brother*). Examples:

Down flew the jets.
Away goes my chance of winning!
Ah, *here* comes somebody – at last!
Along the road rolled the wagons.
Over the bridge marched the soldiers.
Ahead sat an old man.
Below is a restaurant.
In the doorway stood my brother.
On the very top of the hill lives a hermit.

On the presence of *there* (as in: 'Below, *there* is a restaurant'), *cf* 18.50.

Here . . . BE and *There* . . . BE with the verb in the simple present (or – with *there* – the past) are common in speech:

Here are the tools. ~ *Here* they are.
There's your brother, over by the bar. ~ *There* he is . . .
I turned the corner and *there* were my parents! ~ . . . *there* they were!

Direction adjuncts are put in *I* virtually only in literary English and in children's literature (stories, poems, and nursery rhymes). A few exceptions occur in informal speech, mainly with *go*, *come* and (more restrictedly) *get*; where the subject is *you*, such sentences often have imperative force:

{*Up* (*the hill*) / *Down* (*the stairs*) / *In* (*the bath*) / *Out* (*of the water*) / *Off* (*the table*) / *Over* (*the fence*) / *On* (*the horse*) / *Under* (*the bridge*)} you {come. / go.}

{*On* / *Under* / *Round*} you go. *There* they {go. / come.} *Here* {I / we} go. *Here* he comes.

Note [a] Particles in phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.3*ff*) cannot be in *I*:
**Down* the car broke. **Up* cracked the soldier.
[b] There are some idiomatic expressions with *here* and *there*:
{↑*Here* / ↑*There*} you ARE [= 'This is for you']
HERE we ARE [= 'We've arrived at the expected goal']
↓There you ARE [= 'That supports or proves what I've said']
[c] For *here* as time indicator, *cf* 19.36. For the use of *here* in discourse reference, *cf* 19.47.

Syntactic features of space adjuncts

8.48 As predication adjuncts, direction and goal adverbials are normally the focus of negation in a negative sentence. They therefore normally do not precede clause negation:

Across the park he walked, hand in hand with his elder daughter.

but:

**Across the park* he didn't walk . . .
**Towards the fort* the soldiers did not march.

On the other hand, as sentence adjuncts, those of position can readily precede clausal negation:

Indoors, we could not hear ourselves speak.
Nearby, the farmyard animals hadn't even begun to stir.

Most space adjuncts, including prepositional phrases, accept intensification (*cf* 7.87*ff*, 9.5); this can involve combining measure indicators with adverbials in other semantic roles:

They drove (*due*) *east*.
They climbed (*straight*) *to the top*.
He went (*right*) *into the house*.
She was sitting (*right*) *at the door*.
He turned (*sharp*) *left*.
He went (*a long way*) *up* (*the mountain*).
They are staying (*far*) *inland*.

A type of clause comparison can be achieved by the use of {*further* / *farther*} . . . *than*:

They are {*further* / *farther*} {*ahead* / *downstream*} *than we are*.
He went {*further* / *farther*} {*up the mountain* / *through the wood*} *than I did*.

Many space adjuncts accept questioning with *How far*:

How far {*across* / *away*} are they?

while *here* and *there* accept questioning with *How near* instead:

How near {*here* / *to us*} are they?

The following are among the space adverbs that do not allow premodification by *far*:

here, *there*; the compounds in *-where*; *about*, *around*, *between*, *hereabouts*, *locally*, *opposite*, *throughout*

But *cf* the common expression *few and far between*, meaning 'rare': 'Trains on a Sunday are few and far between.'

Note Two space adjuncts are inflected for comparison, *near* (*nearer*, *-est*) and *far* (*further*, *-est*, *farther*, *-est*), and can be the focus of clause comparison. These can be premodified by *very* and by other premodifiers of degree. (But ?**very nearby*.)

Position adjuncts in relation to subject and object

8.49 Position adjuncts normally indicate the place of the referent of the subject and (if there is one) of the object; usually the place is the same for both referents:

I met John *on a bus*. [This implies that John and I were on the bus]

But sometimes the places can be different, as we saw in 8.37; in such cases, the adjunct is predicational:

I saw John *on a bus*. [This implies that John was on the bus but it does not imply equally that I was on the bus]

With certain verbs, the reference of an adjunct in *E* or *iE* is always to the place of the object, and normally that will differ from the place of the subject (*cf* 8.75 Note [a] for an analogous point with time adjuncts). These verbs denote 'owning' or 'placing':

I {*have* / *keep* / *put* / *park* / *shelter*} my car *in a garage*.

With certain verbs, position adjuncts are resultative and are like object-related adjuncts (resembling indeed complex-transitive complementation; *cf* 16.43*ff*):

I want *my car* [O] *in the garage* [A]. [*Cf* 'My car will be *in the garage*']
I expect *a leak* [O] *in that pipe* [A]. [*Cf* 'A leak may occur *in that pipe*']

The verbs are verbs of arranging, saying, expecting, or wanting, where the predication has future reference. Not all such constructions allow an expansion simply by BE, but they usually have an analogue with a *that*-clause:

I expected *a riot* [O] *in the city* [A]. ['there to be a riot *in the city*']
They are threatening *a riot* [O] *somewhere* [A]. ['that there will be a riot *somewhere*']

He suggested *a picnic* [O] *on the island* [A]. ['that a picnic be arranged *on the island*']
They are planning *a meeting* [O] *at my house* [A]. ['that a meeting should be held *at my house*']

In some cases, another verb (such as *have*) rather than BE may be implied (as in the last example above: 'planning *to hold* a meeting'). *Cf*:

They offered *a barbecue* [O] *nearby* [A]. ['to have a barbecue *nearby*']
I like *my dinner* [O] *in the kitchen* [A]. ['to have my dinner *in the kitchen*']
She enjoys *tea* [O] *on the lawn* [A]. ['having tea . . .']
The doctor advised *a few days* [O] *off work* [A]. ['advised taking . . .']

In all such cases, the position adjunct is restricted to *E* and can sometimes be interpreted as a noun-phrase postmodifier:

He suggested a picnic *on the island*. ~ *A picnic on the island* was suggested.

The position adjunct may sometimes refer to the object in a contingency relationship:

We ought to condemn *such activities* [O] *here* [A].
I only like *barbecues* [O] *by the sea* [A]. [≠ 'By the sea, I only like barbecues'; *cf* 8.117]

These can be paraphrased by clauses with *if* or *when*: *such activities if they take place here*; *barbecues when they are held outdoors*. These adjuncts are also restricted to *E*, and again they can be interpreted as part of a noun phrase ('*Such activities here* ought to be condemned').

If any such adjunct is intended to be sentential, it has to be in *I* for the distinction to be clear:

At my house, they are planning a meeting.
Here we ought to condemn such activities.

Direction adjuncts as commands

8.50 Certain direction adjuncts can be used as brusque or very familiar directives, with an implied verb of motion (*cf* 11.42):

Waterloo, please. [for 'Drive me to Waterloo, please'], *Out(side)!*, *In(side)!*, *(Over) Here!*, *(Over) There!*, *(Right) Back!*, *Down!*, *Off!*, *Up!*, *Under!*, *Left!*, *Right!*, *Away with him!* ['Take him away'], *Upstairs with you!* ['Go upstairs'], *Out with it!* ['Tell me about it'], *Out of the house!*, *To bed!*

Note [a] Some other adjuncts can also be used as directives, *eg*: *Quickly!*, *Slowly!*, *Carefully!*
[b] Expressions like *Well, we'll to bed* and *I must away* are sometimes used in BrE with an implied verb of motion ('I must go away'); they have an archaic or dialectical flavour. But the following is wholly current:
After being treated at the hospital for shock, Mr Toyota was allowed *home*.
The adverbial here is equivalent to *to go home*; in the active, the verb of motion would be explicit:
They allowed Mr Toyota {*to go home*. / ?*home*.}

Adjuncts of time

8.51 Obligatory predication adjuncts of time occur in BE clauses where the subject refers to an event (*cf* 10.10, 10.25):

The wedding was *on Thursday*.
The concert is *from seven till nine*.
Guided tours are *twice a day*.

Just as *live* in the sense 'reside' has an obligatory space adjunct, so in the sense 'be alive' it has an obligatory time adjunct:

Chaucer lived *in the fourteenth century*.

Verbs such as *last* take obligatory time adjuncts of duration:

The concert lasts *two hours*.
My mother-in-law is staying *for three weeks*.

Time adjuncts are readily predicational when a verb lacks other complementation:

The guests arrived *in the early evening*.
I waited *till 4.30*.
She is coming *this afternoon*.

But when there is alternative complementation, most types of time adjunct just as readily assume a sentential function:

I waited patiently enough for an interview *till 4.30*.
Till 4.30, I waited patiently enough for an interview.
She is coming for a tutorial *this afternoon*.

In many cases, moving a sentential adjunct from *E* to *I* has no effect on interpreting the scope of negation:

She isn't coming for a tutorial *this afternoon*. [1]
This afternoon, she isn't coming for a tutorial. [1a]

We didn't speak to each other { *during the entire afternoon.* / *the whole day.* } [2]

{ *During the entire afternoon,* / *The whole day,* } we didn't speak to each other. [2a]

Realization

8.52 No other type of adjunct has such a wide range of grammatical realizations available as has the adjunct of time. Especially notable is the use of noun phrases and prepositional phrases. The noun phrase occurs for position, duration, and frequency:

We were in France *last year*.
They lived *(for) several years* in Italy.
She writes an article or a review *every month*.

The conditions for noun-phrase realization, however, vary according to the semantic type. So far as time position is concerned, the noun phrases frequently have determiners:

She met him { *that afternoon.* / *the following afternoon.* / **the afternoon.* / *in the afternoon.* }

They put on the play { *last month.* / *a month ago.* / ?**a month I well remember.* }

What time did he get there?

It is to be noted that, although a preposition can sometimes be inserted ('*At what time* did he get there?'), it often cannot; this is especially so before *next* or *last*. Compare:

We hoped to see Veronica { *on Monday.* / *Monday.* ⟨AmE⟩ / *next Monday.* / *last Monday.* / *on the following Monday.* / **on next*/**on last Monday.* / *on Monday next/last.* }

A pinpointed time position cannot usually be realized by a noun phrase:

He arrived this morning *at ten-fifteen*.

But the prepositions are sometimes omitted, especially in AmE or informally:

?He arrived *ten-fifteen*.

It would seem that noun-phrase realizations typically imply a span and correspond to adjuncts introduced by *on*, *in the course of*, or *during*. Indeed it is with duration adjuncts that we have greatest freedom to use noun phrases, though for the most part they can be regarded as abbreviated prepositional phrases and can be made more explicit and rather more formal by the introduction of *for*:

They stayed *(for) a while*.
They lived *(for) several years* in Italy.

With or without *for*, time units can be postposed by *round* (with years) or *through*, especially when the reference is habitual:

The Stewarts now stay in Italy { *the whole summer through.* / *the whole winter long.* / *the whole year round.* / *all the year round.* }

Without a numeral or other quantifier, the *for* can often not be omitted:

?*He put up *the night* at a hotel.

But:

He stayed *the night* (at a hotel).
['He put up *that night* at a hotel' has a time position adjunct]

Nor can the prepositionless adjunct comfortably occur in *I*:

?*Some time*, / *For some time*, } he waited anxiously at the hospital.
[In '*Which afternoon* did he wait patiently?' the adjunct refers to time position]

As frequency adjuncts, noun phrases are virtually limited to '*every/each* + N', where N is a unit of time (*hour*, *day*, *year*, etc), or 'X + *times*' where X is a quantifier or numeral (*several*, *four*, etc):

He takes risks { *every day*. / **in every day*. / **on every day*. / (*in*) *every period*. / (*in*) *every lecture*. / (*in*) *every game*. }

She visited me { *four times*. / **on four times*. / ?**four occasions*. / *on four occasions*. }

Note also the use of plurals without determiner:

She went to the theatre { *Saturdays*. [= 'every Saturday'] / ?*Saturday*. ⟨BrE⟩ / *Saturday*. ⟨AmE⟩ } [= 'on Saturday']

They work *nights/days*. [= 'they do night work/day work']
They worked *days* on the production before they were satisfied.
[= 'for several days']

8.53 As implied in discussing the limitations on noun-phrase realizations, time adjuncts much more usually take the form of prepositional phrases. The prepositions concerned have the values described in 9.33*ff*, and these are flexible and various enough to express all the semantic roles set out in 8.4. For example:

Time position:	He visited her { *on Monday*. / *in the evening*. / *at night*. }
Forward span:	She is staying *till Thursday*.
Backward span:	The house has been empty *since the war*.
Duration:	They worked steadily *for two hours*.
Frequency:	There are no lectures *on Saturdays*.
	He practises the piano *at every opportunity*.
Relationship:	I had confidence in her *up to that time*.

It should be noted, however, that this last semantic role is only inadequately expressed by prepositional phrases (*cf* 8.72 below).

Several of the prepositions used in the above examples can also function as conjunctions. We thus have a range of finite and nonfinite clause realizations of time adjuncts (*cf* 14.14):

She is staying *till she feels better*.
The house has been empty *since the war ended*.
The wall has been like this *since being damaged by a bomb*.

Above all, there are *when*-clauses. These express time position, as in:

I bought the car *when I received my first salary*.

but also other relations, such as duration:

She can write only *when the baby is asleep*. [= '*while*. . .']

Indefinite frequency is commonly realized by clauses introduced by *when(ever)*:

They come here *when(ever) they feel like it*.
Do your breathing exercises *when(ever) possible*.

Vaguer expression of time relation is often achieved by conjunctionless nonfinite and verbless clauses:

Travelling on the Continent, I get the impression of a greater affluence there. [frequency, 'whenever']
Travelling home last night, I suddenly had a bright idea.
[position, 'when'; or duration, 'while']
I eventually had a chance to read her letter, *quietly alone at last*.
[position, 'when']

8.54 But the shortest and frequently the most convenient realization of time adjuncts is the adverb. There is a wide range of these items, formally falling into two classes, closed-class adverbs and open-class adverbs. Semantically, the closed-class items can be subdivided into three sets. There are those like *then*, *before*, *since* which are essentially anaphoric, referring to a time contextually 'given' ('at that time', 'before that time', 'since that time'). Then there are those like *now*, *today*, *tomorrow*, *yesterday* that refer to very specific points of time. Finally there are those like *often*, *always*, *seldom* which are general and conveniently vague in their reference.

By contrast, the open-class adverbs are lexically specific and therefore idiosyncratic. They are for the most part *-ly* formations on adjective bases (*subsequently*, *eventually*, *immediately*, etc) or – to express frequency – on noun bases (*hourly*, *monthly*, etc). *Cf* App I.41.

We shall look at some of the commoner adverbs used as time adjuncts as we examine the expression of each major semantic role in turn.

Time-position adjuncts

8.55 Just as position in space may be as narrowly located as a pinpoint or as broadly as a continent, so position in time may be equally variable, and, in the case of prepositional-phrase adjuncts, the preposition's quasi-figurative

use helps to distinguish the narrowness or broadness of the time 'location' (*cf* 9.34*ff*):

She arrived *at nine-fifteen*. He lived *in the fourteenth century*.

In these two examples, of course, the verbs also endorse the narrowness and broadness respectively. But a time position adjunct may be broad yet cooccur with a verb that rules out a broad time span:

He was born *in the fourteenth century*.
She arrived *on Monday*.

The adjuncts here refer to a span of time within which, at some *point* of time, the events took place.

But whether narrow or broad, position adjuncts typically serve as a response to a potential *when* question (and they can be referred to as 'time-*when*' adjuncts):

A: When did she arrive? B: { *Quite recently.* / *Last night.* / *At five o'clock.* / *While you were at the library.* }

When in its various uses (*cf* 7.53) is in effect partly a pro-form for the time adjuncts in this class. For *then* as a pro-form for these time adjuncts, *cf* 19.55. Note that *now* can also be used with reference to the past:

They had been courting for two years and he *now* felt she knew his worst faults.

Time-position adjuncts can be divided into two sets, largely determined by two modes of orientation (*cf* 4.18*ff*):

(a) those denoting a point or period of time, especially 'before';
(b) those which in addition imply attention to another period of time, especially 'after'.

Though the distinction is often negligible, it helps to explain cooccurrence as in 'She went there *again* (a) *afterwards* (b)'.

Common adverbs realizing adjuncts in these two groups include:

Group (a):
again ['on a subsequent occasion'], *early* ['at an early time'], *late* ['at a late time'], *now* ['at this time'], *sometime* ['at an unspecified time'], *nowadays* ['at the present time'], *presently* ['at the present time' ⟨esp AmE⟩], *simultaneously* ['at the same time'], *immediately*, *instantly*, *then* ['at that time']; *today*, *tomorrow*, *tonight*, *yesterday*.

For example:

They lived in London for the first few years of their marriage and were *then* very happy.
Come and see us *again*.
I was in New York *last year* and am *now* living in Baltimore.
Frank *immediately* hurried away to find a doctor.
Nowadays, Patricia cycles to work.

Does he want us to be here *early tonight*?
The meeting starts *tomorrow at eight o'clock, after we've had dinner*.
I was awarded my Bachelor of Arts degree *in 1980*.
I suggest that we see him *tomorrow night* or at the very latest *on Sunday*.
I'll tell you all the news *when I get back home*.

Note that the *when*-clause in:

Tell me *when you're ready*.

may be a noun-clause object or a time adjunct, the latter equivalent to:

Tell me *as soon as you're ready*.

By contrast, the *when*-clause in:

Tell me *when you'll be ready*.

can only be object ['Tell me *the time at which you'll be ready*'].

Group (b):
afterwards, *before*, *earlier* ['before'], *eventually* ['in the end'], *finally* ['in the end'], *first* ['before all else', 'before that', 'at first'], *formerly*, *initially* ['in the beginning', 'at first'], *last* ['after all else', 'in the end'], *lately* ['a short time ago'], *later* ['afterwards'], *momentarily* ['in a moment' ⟨AmE⟩], *next* ['after that'], *once* ['at some time in the past'], *originally* ['in the beginning', 'at first'], *previously* ['before'], *presently* ['soon'], *recently* ['a short time ago'], *shortly* ['soon'], *since* ['after that'], *soon*, *subsequently*, *then* ['after that'].

For example:

He's going to the barber but will be back here *later*.
I went into my room and *soon afterwards* started to work.
I haven't got any time at the moment but I'll see you *shortly*.
She *once* owned a dog.
Take a hot drink and *then* go to bed.
Originally, that building was a school.
He *recently* had an accident.
A preliminary investigation seemed to indicate that he was implicated in the fraud, but a fuller investigation has *since* proved beyond all doubt that he was innocent.
I left the factory *before the strike*.
Will you be there *after lunch*?
He owed me a lot of money and wouldn't pay me back until I got my lawyer to write to him. He has paid me back in full *since then*.
The appointment was made *a month ago*. } (*cf* 9.35, 9.66)
I wrote to him about it *a (good) while back*. }
She left him *after he struck her*.
The Prime Minister announced her resignation *before the votes were counted fully*.

There is a difference in the use of *once* according as the meaning is [1] 'on one single occasion' or [2] 'at a certain but unspecified time in the past'. Thus:

I *once* bought a fur hat. (*I *once* bought this fur hat) [1]
I *once* visited this city. [2]

If the reference is future, *sometime* is used instead of *once*:

I'll buy a fur hat *sometime*. [1a]
I'll visit this city (again) *sometime*. [2a]

The prepositional-phrase variant, *at some time*, is less vague and suggests a particular occasion; here *some 'time* (two words) is a noun phrase, in contrast to the adverb *'sometime* (**at 'sometime*) which is written and accented as a single word.

Most time-position adjuncts in Group (a) normally occur at *E*, but (as sentence adjuncts) *nowadays* and *presently* commonly occur at *I*; and *immediately* is common at *M*. Those in Group (b) commonly occur at *I* or *M*. The *iM* position is open to most of Group (b) and to *now*, *nowadays*, and *then* in Group (a).

Note [a] *Earlier* (*on*) and *later* (*on*) are synonymous with *before* (*that*), *beforehand*, and *after* (*that*), *afterwards* respectively:

He remembered the many insults that he had *earlier* experienced.
He handed in his resignation, and *later* (*on*) regretted his hasty action.

They are not the comparatives of *early* and *late* respectively and we cannot substitute (*more*) *early* and (*more*) *late* for them:

*He remembered the many insults that he had (*more*) *early* experienced.
*He handed in his resignation and (*more*) *late* regretted his hasty action.

The true comparatives of *early* and *late* (but only with *-er* forms) are exemplified in:

We are eating {*late* / *later*} today. Today we'll be leaving home {*early*. / *earlier*.

[b] *Presently* is synonymous with *soon*, *in a short time* where there is a modal auxiliary or (for some) when the verb is in the past:

They {will *presently* call on him. [= 'in a short time from *now*'] / *presently* called on him. [= 'in a short time from *then*']

Some find the latter use of *presently* unacceptable. On the other hand, when the verb is in the present, it is synonymous with *at present* and occurs especially in AmE:

They {are *presently* in London. / are *presently* calling on him.

[c] *After*, *before*, and *since* are prepositions (*cf* 9.38) and conjunctions (*cf* 14.12) as well as adverbs. When used as adverbs, they could be regarded as prepositions in abbreviated prepositional phrases, though *after* as an adverb is not as common as its synonym *afterwards*, which cannot function as a preposition:

A preliminary investigation seemed to indicate . . ., but a fuller investigation has *since* (*that time*) proved . . .
He has been unhappy for a long time, but I've never seen him so unhappy *before* (*this time*).
The meeting is at six. I'm leaving now, but I'll see you *after* (*the meeting*)/*afterwards*.

[d] Some adjuncts seem to be a blend of time position with manner, reason, or space (*cf* 8.81):

He told them *secretly* of his intention to resign. ['in a covert manner', 'when they were by themselves']
They criticized him *publicly*. ['in a public place', 'when they were in public']

(In 'Mary hid it *secretly*' the adverb may connote both 'in a secret manner' and 'in a secret place').

They visited him *on their way to the country*. ['*where* they were going', '*when* they were going']
{*As soon as the light went off*, / *When the light didn't go off*,} he sounded the alarm. ['Because . . . he immediately . . .']

[e] For the use of many Group (b) adjuncts for time relationship, *cf* 8.72; on their correlative use as conjuncts, *cf* 8.145.

[f] Time position in the future can be expressed as in [3] by prepositional phrases introduced by *for*, or as in [4] by clauses or prepositional phrases introduced by *until* or *till* (*cf* 8.58); for example:

We have invited her *for 8 p.m.* [3]
She will not leave {*until 8 p.m.* / *till her brother gets there.*} [4]

8.56 Time-position adjuncts can be in a hierarchical relationship:

They were here *late* [A_1] *last night* [A_2].
I'll see you *at nine* [A_1] *on Monday* [A_2].
I spoke to her *earlier* [A_1] *today* [A_2].
We'll meet *tonight* [A_1] *after the show* [A_2].

The order of the adjuncts at *E* depends in part on information focus (*cf* 18.9*ff*), but the tendency is for the superordinate adjunct (the one denoting the more extended period) to come last. However, as in the last example above, the order may be reversed if the other adjunct is longer, nonetheless preserving the essential partitive relation between the two. Compare also:

I was in New York *last year* [A_1] *before the first snow fell* [A_2].
They became drunk *today* [A_1] *within a very short time* [A_2].

So far, however, we have looked at hierarchically related adjuncts which are both predication adjuncts. If the superordinate item is a sentence adjunct, it can appear in *I*, and the relation is no longer so essentially partitive, as can be seen from the parenthesized additions in the following:

Last night they were here *late* (again).
On Monday I'll see you *at nine* (as usual).

Adjuncts of span and duration

8.57 In contrast to the adjuncts which relate to time conceived as a fixed point or static span, there are three types of adjunct which relate to time as a linear dimension (*cf* 4.2*ff*, 4.23). Two of these have an orientation to the speaker's 'now' (that is, the time of primary concern to the speaker/writer within a given context), the one referring to a span in the past, the other to one in the future:

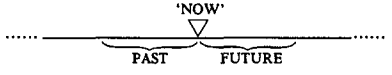

Fig 8.57

Thirdly, there are the adjuncts of more general temporal measure, requiring no orientation to a particular 'now'. In view of the similarity of purpose, it is not surprising that some of the same forms serve for all three types of adjunct.

Forward span

8.58 The key items in realizing adjuncts of forward span are *until* and *till* introducing either clauses or prepositional phrases. In the Survey of English

I shall be in Chicago { *all (next) week.* / *the whole month.* / *(part of) next year.* }

Consider, finally, the following dispositions of forward-span reference, taking the 'now' of speaker's concern as 6 o'clock:

I'm *not* ready *yet*; the work will take me { *another half hour.* / *till 6.30.* }

I think I'll be ready *by 6.30.*
I won*'t* keep you waiting *beyond 6.30.*

Note [a] Forward-span adjuncts can be evoked by means of questions with *Until when . . .*, *Till when . . .*, *How long . . . (for)*. Postposition of *till* is awkward and of *until* almost unacceptable:
?*When* are you working *till*? ?**When* are you working *until*?
[b] Noun phrases can be ambiguous between time position and forward span:
He'll be staying here *next month*. [EITHER 'he will arrive *next month* and stay for an unspecified time' OR 'he will be staying here *for* the whole of next month']
That is, the adjunct could be forward span but would normally be interpreted as time position. On the other hand, the prepositional-phrase variant can refer only to forward span:
He'll be staying here *for the next month.*
But phrases with *during* are ambiguous within the forward span itself:
He'll be staying here *during the next month.*
The adjunct here could either mean 'for some period falling within the month' or 'for the whole of the month'.
[c] For forward span, there are nonfinite *-ed* clauses with *until* and *till*, but not *-ing* clauses:
I shall stay here *until ordered to move.* ?I shall stay here *until getting further instructions.*
Cf also the idioms *until further notice* [= 'until you hear further'], where *notice* cannot be replaced by (for example) *information*; and *in future* [⟨BrE⟩ 'from now onwards'], as opposed to *in the future* which as well as being available for span [= 'in future'] is more usually used for time position ['at some time in the future'].

Backward span

8.60 The key item in realizing adjuncts of backward span is *since* introducing either a prepositional phrase or a clause, or used alone as an adverbial (by ellipsis):

She has not lived in America *since her graduation from high school.*
She has been trying to make a living as a writer *since her first novel was published.*
I spent some time in the National Gallery last year but I haven't been there *since.*

In the Survey of English Usage corpus, instances as conjunction (excluding causal use) and as preposition are roughly equal in number, but adverbial use accounts for only about 15 per cent of occurrences.

Backward span is elicited by such questions as *How long have you . . .*, *How long is it since you . . .*, *When . . .*, or *Since when . . .* (not **When . . . since*: *cf* 8.59 Note [a]). For example:

A: { *When* did you start giving the orders? / *Since when* have you been giving the orders? }

B: *Since I was made foreman.*

Regularly with perfective aspect in the clause of which the *since*-element is A, the span indicated by the adjunct reaches up to the 'now' of primary concern to the speaker (which may of course be 'then' if it is a past time that is of primary concern):

He has worked in the same office *since (he came here) in 1980.*

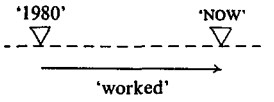

Fig 8.60a

When I came to know him in 1982, he had worked in the same office *since 1980.*

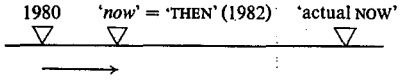

Fig 8.60b

The speaker can show that he thinks the span is long by using the intensifier *ever*: 'worked there *ever* since 1980', '. . . *ever* since he came here'.

Both *since*- and *for*-adjuncts specify a span of time, but *since* marks in addition the starting point. If the clause with a *for*-adjunct has its verb in the perfective, the span extends to the 'now', and the hearer is able to count back and calculate the initial point in the span:

He has worked in the same office *for two years.*

But, unlike adjuncts with *since* (*cf* 8.61), *for*-adjuncts do not require the perfective in the clause in which they function as A, and the time span may therefore be 'unlocated' in the past, the hearer knowing only that the span does not extend to 'now':

Mary was writing that play *for three years.*

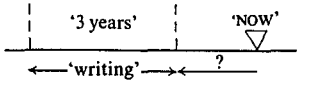

Fig 8.60c

Such backward-span adjuncts can be expressed without *for* if they are placed not at *E* but at *eM* and if the verb has progressive form:

Mary was *three years* writing that play.
Mary has been *three years* writing that play.
*He has *two years* worked in the same office.

Note [a] Noun phrases of the form *this/these* + *last/past* + N can express backward span:
A: How long have you worked here?

B: { *This past year.*
Only this last month.
This/These past three years. }

Without *past* or *last* such quantified noun phrases are somewhat archaic:

He has worked on the play *these two years.*

[b] A noun phrase that would indicate time position with past or perfective will indicate backward span with the progressive (*cf* 4.25*ff*):

I visited my mother *this morning*. [position]
I have visited my mother *this morning*. [position]
I have been visiting my mother *this morning*. [span]

8.61 The time span indicated by *during-*, *since-* and *while*-adjuncts may correspond either to a continuous state or activity, as in:

He has been sleeping *since two o'clock.*

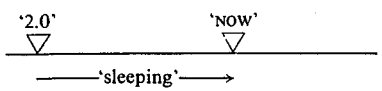

Fig 8.61a

or to a period within which one or more discrete actions took place, as in:

She has got married *since you saw her in June.*

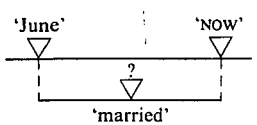

Fig 8.61b

Within the adjunct too it is possible to be specifying a continuous activity through the time span, as in:

Since they have lived in London, they have been increasingly happy. [= 'during that time'] [1]

Alternatively, we may refer to a period dating from a discrete event, as in:

Since they went to live in London, they have been increasingly happy. [= 'from that point in time'] [2]

There is thus a contrast between [1] and [3]:

Since they lived in London, they have been increasingly happy. [3]

This is because, while the span involved is the same, [1] defines their living in London as coterminous with that span (*ie* as still being true 'now', which is as far as the speaker can commit himself), but [3] makes no claim on how long they lived in London beyond the entailment that they no longer live there 'now':

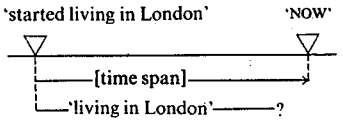

Fig 8.61c

On the other hand, if the verb in the *since* clause is not one of continuous activity (like *live*), a nonperfective carries no such entailment as [3]. Consider the following set:

He's been getting bad headaches { *since he has been in the army.* [4]
since he joined the army. [5]
since he was in the army. [6] }

In [4] he must still be in the army 'now'; in [6] he cannot be still in the army; in [5] he may or may not be still in the army.

Note [a] Adjuncts with *since* are to be viewed as prepositional phrases with nonfinite *-ing* clauses as complement (*cf* 8.59 Note [c], 14.20):

He's been getting bad headaches { *since having been in the army.* [4a]
since joining the army. [5a]
since being in the army. [6a] }

In [4a], an unusual form, it would be implied that he was no longer in the army: contrast [4]. In [5a], it would be implied that he was still in the army: contrast [5]. In [6a], he might or might not be still in the army: contrast [6]. It should be noted that (despite its form) *having been* in [4a] is not an expression of aspect but of tense, *-ing* + *-ed* being the only means of expressing past with nonfinites (*cf* 4.55, 4.66). We therefore expect the *since*-clause in [4a] to mean 'Since he *was* in the army'. With nonfinite *-ed* clauses, the rare instances of *since*-adverbials would be causal, not temporal: 'I will not, *since so bitterly criticized*, continue in office any longer' (*cf* 8.124). Note that in 'The minister, *since returned*, has refused to comment', *since* is an adverb used here as a time adjunct in the nonfinite clause: 'who has returned *since*', *ie* 'subsequently'.

[b] Apparent exceptions to the requirement of a perfective verb occur when a phrase or clause introduced by *since* correlates with a superlative or ordinal:

Yesterday was the hottest day since I came to live here.
Joan came to work in her car last week for (only) the second time since October.

Such *since*-constructions are best regarded as postmodifications in noun-phrase structure and not as adjuncts. More substantial exceptions occur in AmE, especially where the clause in which the *since*-adjunct operates refers to the present; and increasingly, these exceptions apply to BrE as well (*cf* 14.26):

It *is* ages since she was (last) here. [NB '. . . since she's been here', '. . . *since she's been last here']
It *is* a long time since I saw him.
Since the accident { she *walks* with a limp.
she *can* no longer be left alone. }
I'*m* doing well since I bought those oil shares.
Things *are* much worse since you left.
Since I came to college, I *realize* how little I knew.

But in AmE we also have:

Since I last saw you, my mother *died*.
Since when *did* you own a word processor?
I *was* here since before 8 a.m.

[c] Indefinite or long backward span can be expressed by *for ages* or ⟨esp AmE⟩ *in ages*:

She hasn't been here { *for* / *in* } *ages.*

8.62 Other adverbials for indicating backward span include *up to* (date or time), *till/until* (date or time), *so far*, *subsequently*, *recently*, *lately*, *in all* (*N's*) *life*, *from*, correlatively *from* (time) . . . *to* (time), *before*. For example:

I worked in America { *up to 1979.* / *till/until 1979.* }

She has not finished her novel *so far*.
We moved to Chicago in 1980 and have lived there *subsequently*.

I have not been sleeping well { *recently.* / *lately.* }

He hadn't seen such a disaster *in all his life*.
He taught at Yale *from 1975*.
[contrast 'He *has* taught . . . *since* . . .']

They were on vacation { *from June to September.* / *from June through September.* [⟨AmE⟩ *cf* 8.59] }

I have never written a play *before*.

Adverbs such as *subsequently*, *recently*, *lately* would of course refer to time position if the V-element were not marked for perfective aspect. The same is true for *before*, though informally (and especially in AmE) this item can express backward span with the simple past in nonassertive clauses:

She never kissed a man *before*. Did you (ever) see her *before*?

In nonassertive clauses also, we have (*for*) *long* expressing backward span:

How long did you work there? They didn't wait (*for*) *long*.

Cf also forward span:

These shoes probably won't last { *long.* / *for long.* }

Duration

8.63 Just as several of the items discussed in 8.58*ff* can be used for both forward and backward span, so several of them can also be used to express measures of time that are not specifically confined to future or past. For example:

She writes *for an hour* every day.
It takes me *only ten minutes* to clean my car.
They spend *ages* just sitting in the garden.
Toshiko works *far into the night* at her thesis.
I have some time off *during the week*.

Certain adverbs are used for general measures of time: for example, *always*, *briefly*, *indefinitely*, *momentarily* ['for a moment'], *permanently*, *temporarily*. When used with the present perfective, the otherwise time-position adverbs *lately* and *recently* are used for duration:

His visits used to be rare, but { *lately* / *recently* } he has been here quite a lot.

Time-duration adjuncts are sometimes elicited by questions with *How long* . . . and are normally placed at *E* or *iE*. Single-word adverb realizations, however, would be unusual at *E* and are commonly at *M*:

She is *temporarily* working in a different building.

Note [a] With some verbs, noun phrases as expressions of time duration can be treated as direct objects (*cf* 8.39 Note). For example:

The committee { took (up) / spent } *an hour* on mere preliminaries.

An hour was { taken (up) / spent } on mere preliminaries.

[b] In expressions of duration, the intensified prepositional sequences *all through*, *all round* (but not the synonymous *right through*, *right round*) can be discontinuous:

He now sleeps *all night through*. [='right through the night']
She works there *all year round*. [='right round the year']

Cf also *all* (*day* etc) *long*; in BrE, *the* may precede the time noun: *all the day long*, *all the night through*, etc.

[c] Uninflected and unmodified *long* is normally a nonassertive form and positioned at *E*; this applies also to *very long*. Thus:

?The monsoon lasts *long*. [*cf* The monsoon lasts *a long time*]
The monsoon doesn't last *long*.
Does the monsoon last *long*?
?The journey took *very long*. [*cf* The journey took *a very long time*]

When inflected or modified other than by *very*, the item *long* can be either nonassertive or assertive and is also positioned at *E*:

The monsoon lasts { *longer.* / *too long.* }

The journey took *long enough for everyone to get to know each other*.

Uninflected *long* can be an assertive form when it cooccurs with the perfective and is then usually positioned at *M*. The verbs involved seem to be mainly verbs of belief or assumption, attitudinal verbs, and some verbs of speaking:

I have *long* thought of retiring at the age of 55. He has *long* admired my style of writing.
The merits of the scheme will be *long* discussed.

Long behaves like *much* and *far* in many respects (*cf* 8.104–7).

Time-frequency adjuncts

8.64 Frequency can sometimes be conceived in absolute terms without concern for the period of time over which the recurrence in question took place. For example:

A: *How many times* did you ring the bell? B: *Twice*.

More usually, however, we are concerned with frequency with respect to a specified or implied span of time. In other words, a frequency that responds to 'How often?'. Thus:

A: *How often* do you wash your car?
B: *Pretty rarely/Infrequently/Not very often.*
Monthly/Weekly.
Once a week.
Every Sunday.
From time to time.
As often as I can.
Whenever it gets very dirty.

Of course, even questions of the form 'How many times?' would not usually be satisfactorily answered with a simple numerical value that took no account

of 'the rate of occurrences per unit of time'. That is, a question such as:

How many times have you had a driving accident?

is likely to be answered with reference to a period:

Four times, { over the past dozen years. / in the course of twenty years' driving experience. }

That is, the respondent would reasonably conclude that the questioner was less interested in the absolute total than in that total related to the time span within which accidents could have occurred. Indeed the questioner might have framed his question as:

How often { have you had / do you have } driving accidents?

Again, we may be concerned not with numerical indications of frequency but with more general or impressionistic frequency, as in [II] below. Here, the type of recurrence in which we are interested depends both on the semantics of the verb and also on its aspect. Compare:

She *usually* smiles. [recurrent activity; *eg* 'When she sees me . . .']
She is *usually* smiling. [continuous activity; *eg* 'Whenever one sees her . . .']

Apart from nonnumerical expressions of frequency (such as *whenever*-clauses) and some prepositional phrase patterns, time adjuncts of frequency are mostly realized by noun phrases or by adverbs. We can look in more detail at realizations in considering the semantic subclasses of frequency adjuncts. There are two major subclasses:

(I) those naming explicitly the times by which the frequency is measured: DEFINITE FREQUENCY;
(II) those not doing so: INDEFINITE FREQUENCY.

Each of these subclasses can in turn be subdivided:

(I) DEFINITE FREQUENCY

(A) PERIOD FREQUENCY
hourly, *daily*, *nightly*, *weekly*, *fortnightly* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *monthly*, *quarterly*, *annually*, *yearly*, *biannually* ['twice a year'], *biennially* ['every two years'], *semi-annually*, *twice a week/month*, etc, (n) *times a week/month*, etc, *every* (n) *week(s)/month(s)*, etc, *every other week/month*, etc ['on alternative weeks/months, etc']

For example:

Committee meetings take place *weekly*. [=once a week]
I shall be in my office *every other day*. [=on alternate days]
Each summer I spend my vacation in Bermuda.
Take three pills *twice a DAY*.

Phrases of the form *per n* are occasionally used with reference to periodic money payments:

If so desired, rent can be paid *per week* instead of *per month*.

(B) OCCASION FREQUENCY
once ['one time only'], *twice*; *thrice* ⟨archaic⟩; otherwise noun phrases or prepositional phrases, *eg*: *a time or two*, *three times*, *on five occasions*

For example:

Veronica has been to Singapore (*only*) *ONCE*.
Bob phoned *twice* today.
I visit England *three times a year*.
I perform operations *three days each week*.
On (the) average, I see them *once every three weeks*.

8.65 (II) INDEFINITE FREQUENCY

(C) USUAL OCCURRENCE
commonly, *customarily*, *generally*, *habitually*, *invariably*, *normally*, *ordinarily*, *usually*

For example:

He *generally* leaves home at seven.
Does Jenny *usually* stay up so late?
We *normally* go to bed before midnight.
As a rule it's very quiet here during the day.
For the most part, we play tennis on Sunday morning.

(D) CONTINUOUS/CONTINUAL/UNIVERSAL FREQUENCY
always, *constantly*, *continually*, *continuously*, *incessantly*, *permanently*, *perpetually*

For example:

Does she *always* dress well?
He is *continually* complaining about the noise.
He *incessantly* asks for more money.
They are *perpetually* in debt.

(E) HIGH FREQUENCY
frequently, *often*; *regularly*, *repeatedly*

For example:

I have *often* told them to relax more.
They *regularly* take their dog for a walk in the evening.
Have you been drunk *many times*?
He leaves the door unlocked *time after time*.
They explained *again and again* that they couldn't help it, but she didn't believe them.

(F) LOW FREQUENCY
infrequently, *irregularly*, (*very*) *little*, *occasionally*, *periodically* ['from time to time'], *rarely*, *seldom*, *never*

For example:

We are *occasionally* invited to their house for a party.
We (*very*) *seldom* see our elder son these days.
I have driven *a few times*.

She visits us *once in a while*.
You should phone them *now and again*. ['occasionally']
Do you visit your parents *from time to time*? ['occasionally']

We play cards { *on and off.* / *off and on.* } ['occasionally' ⟨informal⟩]

I have been in his office *on several occasions*.

Most time frequency adjuncts are normally positioned at *E*. However, those realized by adverbs and referring to indefinite frequency (Groups (C–F)) are normally positioned at *M*, while those realized by prepositional phrases and denoting usual occurrence (Group (C)) are normally positioned at *I*:

Mary has *sometimes/often* acted in Shakespeare plays.
On most days, I begin work at 8 a.m.

Adjuncts in some groups (especially in (C), (E), and (F)) can be inside or outside the scope of negation, and this coincides with their potentiality to appear at *iM*. Compare:

The students should { *normally* / *occasionally* } be given homework. [1]

The students should be given homework { *normally.* / *occasionally.* } [2]

The students { *normally* / *occasionally* } should not be given homework. [1a]

{ *Normally,* / *Occasionally,* } the students should not be given homework. [2a]

(*Cf* 8.67*f*)

Note The adverb *once*, especially at *M*, also functions as a time position adjunct, 'at one time, on one occasion, at some time or other' (but *at once* means 'immediately'). Informally the corresponding noun phrase is likewise used for time position ('He came to see me one time and complained about his job'), as also when modified by *more*:

If you say that { *one more time* / *once more* }, I'm leaving.

8.66 Adjuncts of definite frequency in Group (A) denote the period of time by which the frequency is measured and are normally sentence adjuncts. Those in (B) express the measurement in number of times (*cf* 5.18) and are normally predication adjuncts. Items from each group can cooccur, normally with the item from (B) coming first:

You should take the medicine *twice* (B) *daily* (A). [= 'twice a day']

Those in (A) can also cooccur with each other in a hierarchical relationship:

She felt his pulse { *hourly* (A) *each day* (A). / *each hour* (A) *daily* (A). / *daily* (A) *every couple of hours* (A). }

The order of the adjuncts in *E* depends in part on information focus or end-weight (*cf* 18.9*ff*), but only the one denoting the longer period can occur in *I* (*cf* 8.45, 8.56):

[*Each day* / *Daily*] she felt his pulse [*hourly.* / *each hour.*]

* [*Hourly* / *Each hour*] she felt his pulse [*each day.* / *daily.*]

Cooccurrence of the adverb forms, however, is odd for stylistic reasons even if the one denoting the longer period is in *I*:

?*She felt his pulse *hourly daily*.
?*Daily* she felt his pulse *hourly*.

Those in (B) can likewise cooccur with each other in a hierarchical relationship, where the subordinate adjunct denotes the number of times for each of the times denoted by the superordinate adjunct, which assumes sentence-adjunct function. The verb must be one referring to a momentary event (*cf* 4.33, 4.35), such as *beat* 'to overcome (someone) in a contest'.

I beat him *twice on two occasions*. ['I won two contests on each of two occasions']

As in this example, the superordinate adjunct tends to follow the subordinate adjunct, but it can be in *I* position:

On two occasions I beat him *twice*.
?*Twice* I beat him *on two occasions*.

While the adverb and the noun phrases *X times* are ambiguous between superordinate and subordinate function in such a hierarchy, the prepositional phrases *on X occasions* are unambiguously superordinate. Adjuncts in (B) can often be the response to the question *How many times?* The question is used to elicit the adjunct when only one item from (B) is involved, but it can also elicit the subordinate or superordinate adjunct when two items from (B) are involved:

A: How many times did you beat him?
B: *Twice*.

A: How many times did you beat him on the two occasions?
B: *Twice*.

A: How many times did you beat him twice?

B: { *On two occasions.* / *Twice.* }

Adjuncts of definite frequency can also cooccur with items from each of the subclasses of adjuncts of indefinite frequency:

You should { *normally* (C) / *always* (D) / *regularly* (E) / (*only*) *occasionally* (F) } take the medicine *twice* (B) *daily* (A).

Note In the hierarchical relationship, repetition of the same adverb is avoided for stylistic reasons (*cf* 8.149):

?I beat him at chess *twice twice*. [*ie* there were two games on each of two occasions]
?*Twice* I beat him at chess *twice*.

8.67 Adjuncts of indefinite frequency in Group (C) denote usual occurrence. They differ from those of (especially) Group (D) in that they can precede the clausal negative, in which case they express that it is normal for something *not* to occur:

Generally,
Normally, } he doesn't take medicine.
Usually,

They differ from those in (E) and (F) that can precede negation in that it is a contradiction to assert both that it is usual for something to occur and also that it is usual for it not to occur:

[**Generally,* / **Normally,* / **Usually,*] he doesn't take medicine, but [*generally,* / *normally,* / *usually,*] he does (take medicine).

On the other hand, those in (E) and (F) that precede negation express a high or low frequency. Here, we encounter a phenomenon that parallels multal and paucal items in noun-phrase quantifiers: 'Many arrows have hit the target but many have not' (*cf* 6.53, 8.71). Thus, it is not contradictory to assert that it is frequent (or infrequent) for something to occur and at the same time that it is frequent (or infrequent) for it not to occur:

[*Often* / *Occasionally*] he doesn't take medicine, but [*often* / *occasionally*] he does (take medicine).

We can see from this example that *often* does not necessarily imply the majority of times, and the same is true for *frequently*. However, those in (C), like *generally*, do imply the majority of times. Items in (C) not entailing exhaustiveness can obviously (unlike *invariably*, *habitually*) allow for exceptions. We can therefore say, for example:

Generally,
Normally, } he doesn't take medicine, but *sometimes* he does (take medicine).
Usually,

Note [a] *Invariably* (commonly used in the sense 'usually') and *habitually* are the only ones in Group (C) that deny the possibility of exceptions:

**Invariably*, he doesn't take medicine, but *sometimes* he does (take medicine).

[b] *Generally speaking* and (occasionally) *normally speaking* are used as frequency disjuncts corresponding to the adjuncts *generally* and *normally* respectively (*cf* 8.125 Note [a]).

[c] The commonest frequency adverbials are in some ways more like time subjuncts (*cf* 8.98) than adjuncts:

She *usually* saw her patients in the mornings.
*It was *usually* that she saw her patients in the mornings.
It was *usually in the mornings* that she saw her patients.

Compare:

She used to see her patients *in the mornings*.
It was *in the mornings* that she used to see her patients.

8.68 Frequency adjuncts like *usually* in (C) as well as *often* and *frequently* in (E) can be the focus of negation:

He doesn't { *ŬSually* / *ŎFten* / *FRĔquently* } speak from notes.

But for those in (C), apart from 'exhaustive' items like *invariably*, there is as a general rule no logical difference resulting from whether the adjunct is within the scope of negation or not (*cf* 10.64*ff*). Somebody agreeing with a previous speaker could remove a frequency adjunct of (C) from the scope of negation:

A: He doesn't *ŭSually* speak from notes.
B: That's true. He *usually* DÒESn't (speak from notes).

To take the paraphrases of *usually*, there is no logical difference between the two sentences:

It's usual for him *not* to speak from notes.
It's not usual for him to speak from notes.

On the other hand, there is a logical difference between positioning *often* or *frequently* within the scope of negation and positioning them outside it. Where, as we saw in 8.67, we can say:

Often he doesn't take medicine, but *often* he does.

we cannot say:

*He doesn't *ŏFten* take medicine, but *often* he does (take medicine).

This is because, when *often* or *frequently* come within the scope of negation, we deny the frequency, and we obviously cannot then assert it.

If frequency adjuncts in (C) cooccur with duration adjuncts (*cf* 8.63), there can be a difference according to whether one of the adjuncts is or is not to be understood as within the scope of negation:

ŭSually he doesn't sleep for two days at a time.
['The usual thing is for him to go without sleep for two days at a time' or 'It is not usual for him to go to sleep for two days at a time']
He doesn't *ŭSually* sleep for two days at a time.
['It's rare for him to sleep for as long as two days at a time' or 'For two days at a time it is quite usual for him to go without sleep']

The same distinction applies for *often* and *frequently*.

Most frequency adjuncts can be the focus of a cleft sentence, particularly if they are modified or are in a negative or interrogative focal clause:

(?)It's *very frequently* that he loses money.
It's *not often* that I have a chance to speak to him.
Is it *often* that she drives alone?

For some speakers, the same is possible when the *that*-clause is negative:

It's *all too frequently* that people don't offer to help.
Is it *very often* that she doesn't speak to him?

It isn't *very often* that she doesn't speak to him.
It's *not often* that he doesn't help.

Rarely and *seldom* of Group (F) can sometimes be the focus of a cleft sentence, even unmodified, denoting negative frequency ('not often'):

It's {*rarely* / *seldom*} {that he loses any money. / that people don't offer to help.}

8.69 Indefinite-frequency adjuncts can cooccur in a hierarchical relationship (*cf* 8.45, 8.56, 8.66):

Normally (C), committee meetings are held *infrequently* (F).
Usually (C), he *constantly* (D) complains of headaches when he is assigned a responsible task.
They *seldom* (F) put on plays *again and again* (E).
I have *often* (E) telephoned him *a few times* (F) on the same day.

Some adjuncts even in the same group can cooccur where the verb is momentary (*cf* 4.33, 4.35) and we are thus able to distinguish between 'repeated action' and 'number of occasions' (*cf* 8.64):

They have *often* (E) pressed his bell *repeatedly* (E) without getting an answer.

Contrast:

?They have *often* (E) beaten him *frequently* (E).

Nonassertive *ever* ['at any time'] is sometimes used to intensify the negative forms *rarely*, *seldom* in (F), and it is especially common with the corresponding subjuncts (*cf* 8.98), though its use with *never* is considered nonstandard by some speakers:

(?)I *seldom ever* play squash now.

(Contrast the fully acceptable 'seldom if ever', which is not an intensified *seldom* but offers an alternative to it).

(?)I *never ever* go there.

Note Compare the following:

He {*always* / *never*} collects the groceries *on Tuesday*.

We could mean *either* that he collects (or never collects) them on Tuesday, *or* that whenever he collects them it is always (or never) on Tuesday.

8.70 Whereas frequency adjuncts in (C), such as *usually*, can precede negation (*cf* 8.67), those in (D) normally cannot:

?*He {*always* / *constantly*} doesn't pay his debts on time.

*He {*continually* / *incessantly*} didn't drink whisky.

Instead we use *never*, *not . . . ever*, or *not . . . at all*:

He {*never* pays / *doesn't ever* pay} his debts on time.

He *didn't* drink whisky *at all*.

Note, however, in ironic 'second instance' use:

A: Sorry; I haven't enough money.

B: You {*ALWAYS* / *perPETually*} haven't enough money.

Adjuncts in (E), such as *frequently* and *repeatedly*, denote a high frequency and those in (F), such as *occasionally* and *never*, denote a low or zero frequency.

When the negative forms in (F), *rarely* and *seldom*, are in *I* position, they cause subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24), such usage being literary or oratorical in tone:

Seldom had I seen such confusion.

Note [a] The following items in (E) and (F) do not normally precede negation: (E) *regularly* (*cf* 'He *regularly* doesn't agree' beside the more usual 'He *regularly* disagrees'); (F) *infrequently*, *irregularly*, and other negative forms, including *seldom* and *rarely*.
[b] *Regularly* can denote high frequency as well as 'at regular intervals'.

Time-frequency adjuncts and quantifiers

8.71 If the subject is generic (*cf* 5.26*ff*), many adjuncts of indefinite frequency, particularly when positioned at *I* or *M*, are equivalent to quantitative determiners (*cf* 5.14, 5.16) or pronouns (*cf* 6.45*ff*) in the noun phrase realizing the subject. For example, in:

Students play squash *often*. ['on many occasions']

often is included in the predication and refers to the frequency of the games of squash. However, the effect of either of the versions with sentence adjuncts:

{*Often* students / Students *often*} play squash. ['it often happens that . . .']

is very similar to:

Many students play squash.

Other examples where there is often loose equivalence:

Good novels are *always* worth buying.
~ *All* good novels are worth buying.
Policemen are *usually* unarmed in Britain.
~ *Most* policemen are unarmed in Britain.
Universities *often* have linguistics departments.
~ *Many* universities have linguistics departments.
A dog is *sometimes* a dangerous animal.
~ *Some* dogs are dangerous animals.

Students *occasionally* fail this course.
~ *A few* students fail this course.
Englishmen *rarely* talk to strangers in trains.
~ *Few* Englishmen talk to strangers in trains.
Officers {*almost never* / *very seldom*} get drunk while on duty.
~ *Almost no* officers get drunk while on duty.

If the direct object is generic, the adjunct may be roughly equivalent to a predeterminer or quantifier in the noun phrase realizing this direct object:

Our university *always* welcomes well-motivated students.
~ Our university welcomes *all* well-motivated students.
The most highly trained soldiers *often* guard government buildings.
~ The most highly trained soldiers guard *many* government buildings.
A good listener *seldom* makes enemies.
~ A good listener makes *few* enemies.

Note At least two of the above sentences have alternative interpretations to those given above:
Policemen are *usually* unarmed in Britain.
~ It is usual for policemen to be unarmed in Britain, but they are sometimes armed.
Englishmen *rarely* talk to strangers in trains.
~ On rare occasions Englishmen talk to strangers in trains.

Time-relationship adjuncts

8.72 Time adjuncts expressing a relationship between two time positions that are both being considered in an utterance are realized by forms that serve more than one function. In consequence, most of them have already been considered under other headings. There are three chief subclasses:

Group (a):

Many of these denote temporal sequence and are also used for time position (*cf* 8.55):
afterwards, before, eventually, finally, first, later, next, originally, previously, subsequently, then

For example:

Did she *first* see him when he was a child?
I've been considering what to do since he *last* discussed his problems with me.
She broke her leg *for the first time* while she was skiing in Switzerland.
These techniques were *originally* used in the Second World War.
It wasn't until the end of the party that I was *finally* introduced to her.

Group (b):

Many of these imply something of the concessive relation (*cf* 8.7):
(even) by that time, (even) before that time, (even) up to that time

For example:

We hadn't eaten *(even) by that time.*

Even now, we don't know where we are going to live.
I have *so far* bought two shirts and a pair of shoes.
They have finished their work *by now*.

Group (c):

Here the tendency is to compare one time with another:
again, once more, afresh

For example:

I feel better *again*.
Millicent is revising her book *once more*.
The carpet is still dirty so you'd better scrub it *afresh*.

Note On *already, still*, and the time relationships (notably Groups (b) and (c)) that are chiefly expressed by subjuncts, *cf* 8.97.

Relative positions of time adjuncts

8.73 In the preceding sections we have specified, as the occasion arose, the normal positions of time adjuncts in the various subclasses. We now take a summary glance at the relative positions of adjuncts from the three major subclasses that can cooccur at *E* position: time position (*cf* 8.55), time duration (*cf* 8.63), and time frequency (*cf* 8.64). These tend to occur in the order:

time duration [d] – time frequency [f] – time position [p]

The following sentences exemplify the normal order (but *cf* 8.87):

I was there *for a short while* [d] *every day or so* [f] *in January* [p].
He played for us *very frequently* [f] *last year* [p].
I'm paying my rent *monthly* [f] *this year* [p].
Our electricity was cut off *briefly* [d] *today* [p].
We'll discuss the matter *during lunch* [d] *tomorrow afternoon* [p].
He'll be staying here *for the summer* [d] *every year* [f].
He does exercises *for several hours* [d] *every weekend* [f].

Coordination

8.74 Time adjuncts in the same subclass can be coordinated:

TIME POSITION
today and tomorrow
now or later
before or after
in 1990 and (in) 1991
when we were there and afterwards

eg I'll be working *today and tomorrow*.

TIME DURATION
permanently or temporarily
during the summer and (during the) winter
for the week or (for the) month
(for) three weeks or (for) longer

eg She'll be staying here *for three weeks or longer*.

Usage corpus of (largely) British English, *until* occurs twice as often as *till*, and is used approximately equally as conjunction and as preposition, and equally too in spoken and written materials. On the other hand, *till* occurs chiefly in spoken texts, and is predominantly a preposition. For example:

They will live in Chicago *until William finishes his thesis.*
She will be working *till nine o'clock.*

Forward-span adjuncts are usually sentential, though they can be predicational especially in association with verbs which make their use virtually obligatory:

The performance lasted { *until the actors were exhausted.* / *until 2 a.m.* }

Phrases and clauses with *until/till* interact with verb semantics. A positive clause requires a verb of durative (*ie* nonmomentary) meaning and the span extends up to the reference of the time adjunct. Thus:

He waited *until I returned.*

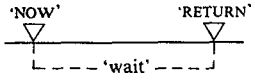

Fig 8.58a

With negative clauses and a verb of durative meaning, the span will also extend from the speaker's 'now', though not of course (by reason of the negative) up to the reference of the time adjunct:

He didn't wait *until I returned.*

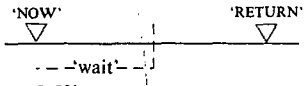

Fig 8.58b

On the other hand, with negative clauses and a verb of momentary meaning (*cf* 4.33, 4.35) the span denoted by the time adjunct marks the extent of the nonoccurrence of the momentary action:

He didn't arrive *until I returned.*

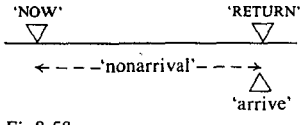

Fig 8.58c

The sentence can thus be referentially equivalent to 'He delayed his arrival until my return', though this of course implies a contingency relation and is thus not precisely a rhetorical equivalent. *Cf* also:

He did not arrive *before I returned.*
He arrived *when I returned.*

So also, 'She slept *till nine*' implies 'She *stopped* sleeping at nine', whereas 'She didn't sleep *till nine*' implies 'She *started* sleeping at nine'.

8.59 Other modes of realizing forward span involve the use of *up to, over, for, before, by, by the time* (*that*). For example:

We'll be there *up to midday*; then we'll be out for lunch.
Can you stay *over the weekend*?
Can you stay *for a month*?
I have to leave *before midday.*
I have to leave *by midday.*
I shall be away { *by the time* (*that*) *the clock strikes twelve.* / *by that time.* }

The phrase *in time* can be used both in the sense of 'by the due time' and also in the sense of 'eventually':

He wants to leave at midday but he doesn't think I shall be ready *in time.* [= 'by that time']
She's promised to finish the painting *in time* but she can't say when. [= 'in the course of time']

(Contrast *on time*, which refers to time position, '*at* the time required')

Prepositional phrases with *to* function like those with *until/till* provided they are correlated with *from*-phrases (expressed or implied: *cf* 9.37) marking the beginning of the time span:

She will be working from May { *to September.* / *till September.* }

Neither phrase makes clear whether September is within or beyond the span, but in AmE we have complete clarification, as in:

She will be working from May { *through August.* / *through September.* }
[*ie* until the end of the month named]

where BrE achieves such precision only with more periphrastic expressions such as *to the beginning of, to the end of.* Noncorrelative phrases with *through* occur in both AmE and BrE:

She will be working *through September.* [*ie* 'for the whole month of September' or 'from now until the end of September']

Noun-phrase realizations of forward-span adjuncts involve quantifiers as in:

Would you like to stay with us { *a few days?* / *a day or so?* }

TIME FREQUENCY
once or twice
often and regularly
each day and (each) night
every Tuesday and (every) Thursday
a few times or many (times)

eg You should take exercise *often and regularly*.

Note *Now and then* and *now and again* are common coordinated expressions used for time frequency ('from time to time', 'occasionally'). Similarly, *again and again* and *over and over* are used to denote frequent repetition and not just one or two repetitions.

Time adjuncts and time reference

8.75 Time adjuncts play a part in specifying the time reference of the verb. Thus, it is the adjuncts that determine that the time reference in:

He is playing *now*.

is present, whereas in:

He is playing *tomorrow*.

it is future. Because of their temporal significance, some time adjuncts cannot cooccur with particular forms of the verb. Thus, *tomorrow* does not cooccur with the simple past:

*He played *tomorrow*.

and *yesterday* does not cooccur with the modal auxiliaries (unless they refer to past time, including their occurrence in a dependent clause with back-shift; *cf* 14.31):

*He {may / will / should} play *yesterday*.

By contrast, *cf*:

We couldn't leave town yesterday. ['We *were* not able . . .']
He may have played *yesterday*.
I told him he should play *yesterday*.

(*Cf* 4.11*ff*)

Note [a] An apparent exception to the need for harmony between tense and adjunct is with verbs of saying, arranging, expecting, or wanting where the object is concerned with a future event (*cf* 8.49, 8.76). In such cases, though the expressed verb is in the past (*ie* the past for the speaker), there may be a time adjunct with future reference (though this may already be past for the hearer), since the adjunct's reference is the object:

He called for a meeting *next week*. ['He called for a meeting to be held next week', where *next week* referred to future at the time when 'He called']
She wanted the book *tomorrow*. ['She wanted to have the book tomorrow']
They predicted a crisis *next month*. ['They predicted that there would be a crisis next month']

There can also be an adjunct with past reference that relates to the verb in the past (*cf* 8.76):

As far back as March, they predicted a crisis *in a month's time*. [*ie* 'Their prediction of a crisis next month was made as far back as March'; but here the sentence is equivocal as to whether the crisis was to come a month after the prediction or a month after the speaker of the sentence tells us about it]

Cf also 'They predicted a crisis *last month*', which could mean 'They predicted a crisis in what is now "last month".'

[b] Where an adjunct is functioning within a dependent clause, it need not of course have any relation to the tense of the verb in the main clause, though where the dependent clause is nonfinite there may appear to be a time-reference contradiction:

We arranged (yesterday) to go *tomorrow*.

With *forget*, we can have complementation with *-ing* informally, provided (i) there is a time-position adjunct referring to the past, and (ii) the action of the dependent clause was fulfilled:

I forgot meeting her *in 1980*. [*ie* 'I met her, but the meeting subsequently escaped my memory']

Contrast:

I forgot to meet her *in 1980*. [*ie* 'I did not meet her because I forgot that I had arranged to do so']

Condition (i) may be relaxed if the nonfinite verb phrase is perfective. Thus 'I forgot having met her' need have no past-time adjunct (*cf* 16.38*ff*).

Time adjuncts as subject- and object-related

8.76 Time adjuncts can cooccur with all verbs including BE:

It's much warmer {*now*. / *when the wind drops*.}

Many of them can also be used as subject-related adjuncts with BE when the subject is an eventive noun (*cf* 10.25):

TIME POSITION
The meeting will be *tomorrow*. [*ie* 'will take place']
Lunch will be *in ten minutes*.
I hope coffee is *soon*.

TIME DURATION
I'm afraid the noise will be *for the whole summer*. ['it will last for . . .']
The show is *from nine till twelve*.

TIME FREQUENCY
Interviews are *every hour*.
Guided tours around the museum are *twice a day*.
The next appointments will be *when the doctor returns from vacation*.

The verb BE in such cases (rather informal) is often equivalent to *take place*, and so:

The opera will be *tonight*.

is interpreted as 'The performance of the opera will take place tonight'.

The progressive is of course excluded when time adjuncts are used as subject-related adjuncts with BE (*cf* 8.42):

*Interviews are being *every hour*.

Contrast:

Interviews are {*taking place* / *being held*} *every hour*.

Some adverbials of time cannot be subject-related adjuncts; this applies, for

example, to frequency adjuncts in (C), *eg*: *as a rule*, and in (D), *eg*: *always* (*cf* 8.64*f*).

We saw that with certain verbs the reference of the space adjunct may be to the place of the object rather than to that of the subject (*cf* 8.49). Similarly, the reference of the time adjunct may also be concerned with the object. We can sometimes express the relationship by a sentence in which the object of the original sentence is subject and the time adjunct is subject-related with BE. The effect is that of the predication with complex-transitive verbs (*cf* 16.43*ff*). There are two types of such references to the object:

(i) Where the verbs denote the placing or movement of the object, and a cooccurring space adjunct indicates the relevant resulting place, a time adjunct denotes duration; for example:

They threw him in prison *for life*. ['He will be in prison for life']
He's moving the family into a hotel *temporarily*. ['The family will be in a hotel temporarily']
We're sending her to London *for the summer*. ['She will be in London for the summer']
They left the car in the street *for an hour*. ['The car was in the street for an hour']

(ii) Where the verbs refer to saying, arranging, expecting, or wanting and the object has future reference, the time adjunct denotes time position, time duration, or time frequency; for example:

TIME POSITION
He expected the guests *next week*. ['that the guests would be here next week']
They arranged the meeting *for later today*. ['that the meeting would be held later today']
He set the alarm *for seven o'clock*. ['so that the alarm would go off at seven o'clock']

TIME DURATION
He predicts a state of tension *for a long time*. ['that there will be a state of tension for a long time']
They offered us the house *for the summer*. ['(their offer was) that we could use the house for the summer', 'the offer of the house was for the summer']

TIME FREQUENCY
They promised her a party *every Saturday night*. ['that she would have a party every Saturday night']
I suggest an informal discussion *occasionally*. ['that there should be an informal discussion occasionally']

Note Where the time adjunct can also refer to the action of the verb, there may be ambiguity. For example, the sentence:

They promised her a party *every Saturday night*.

can also mean that the promise was made every Saturday night. If the adjunct is moved from *E* position, interpretation of it as such a sentence adjunct would be the natural one:

Every Saturday night they promised her a party.

Syntactic features of time adjuncts

8.77 Most time adjuncts have syntactic characteristics that are general to adjuncts. However, time-frequency adjuncts in 8.65 (C), *eg*: *usually*, *as a rule*, allow only the following: they can be the focus of a question, they can be the focus of negation, and they can come within the scope of predication pro-forms or predication ellipsis.

Most time adverbs cannot be premodified by *very* or take analogous modification (such as *so* . . ., *however*. . ., *more* . . . *than*). Time adjuncts allowing such modifications are;

TIME POSITION: *early*, *late*, *recently*
TIME DURATION: *long*, *briefly*, *recently*
TIME FREQUENCY: *commonly* (C), *constantly* (D), *incessantly* (D), *often*, *frequently* (E); several in Group (F): *infrequently*, *irregularly*, *little*, *occasionally*, *rarely*, *seldom*

Some adverbs that cannot be premodified by *very* can be premodified by other intensifiers; for example:

(very) much
somewhat
a((very) long) while
a lot ⟨informal⟩
} { *later* ['afterwards']
before
earlier ['before']

Others in the same semantic group do not easily allow at least some of these intensifiers:

*(very) much
?somewhat
?a lot
?a little
} *previously*

*(very) much
*somewhat
?*a lot
?*a little
} *subsequently*

*very
(?)quite
} *usually* [but fully acceptable: *very unusually*]

But *cf* time subjuncts, 8.97*f*.

Note [a] With respect to ability to be focused by a cleft sentence, by *only*, or by *also*, some general statements can be made for frequency adjuncts in 8.65 (D), *eg*: *constantly*, (E), *eg*: *often*, and (F), *eg*: *occasionally*. None of the three groups allow focusing by *also*, (D) and (E) cannot be focused by *only*, and (D) cannot be focused by a cleft sentence. There are also individual differences within the groups and acceptability in a cleft sentence is often improved if the item is modified or the focal clause is interrogative or negative.

[b] *Again*, *last*, and *instantly* cannot be the focus of *only* or of a cleft sentence, and except *again*, none of them can be the focus of *also*.

[c] Naturally, time adjuncts with past reference cannot cooccur with imperatives. It is less obvious that time frequency adjuncts in subclass (C) (*cf* 8.65) do not idiomatically cooccur with imperatives, especially at *E*; they are more acceptable at *I*. For example:

?Stay in this hotel *usually*, when you're in London!
Normally cut the grass every week, please.

Moreover, although imperatives cooccur with adjuncts meaning 'now, immediately', near paraphrases implying a longer extent of present time seem odd with imperatives, unless these are negative:

Buy new clothes { *now.* / *immediately.* / *this moment.* } ?Buy new clothes *at the present time.*

[but fully acceptable: 'Don't buy new clothes *at the present time*']

Process adjuncts

Realization

8.78 All four semantic types of process adjunct (*cf* 8.5) can be realized by prepositional phrases:

She uttered the words *with cold deliberation*. [manner]
She spoke *from notes*. [means]
The speech was made audible *with an amplifying system*. [instrument]
It was heard *by millions*. [agentive]

Manner and means adjuncts can be realized by noun phrases though these are usually expandable to constitute prepositional phrases, so as to make it natural to regard the noun phrase as having an omitted preposition:

They were walking *single file* through the wood. ['*in* single file']
I'd like to send this parcel *air mail*. ['*by* air mail']

Manner adjuncts especially, and those of means and instrument to some extent, are also realized by adverb phrases:

He glanced at her (*very*) *lovingly*. [manner]
Some patients ask to be treated *homoeopathically*. [means, 'by homoeopathic medicine']
She was examining a fossil *microscopically*. [instrument, 'with a microscope']

Finally, manner adjuncts can be expressed by clauses (*cf* 15.17*ff*), though the forms concerned strongly imply comparison as distinct from a direct reference to manner or mode of action:

I try to cook vegetables *as the Chinese do*. ['in the Chinese way']

All process adjuncts are normally predicational. When fronted, the adverbial concerned tends to become a subject-oriented subjunct (*cf* 8.92), no longer corresponding to an inquiry 'How . . .?', 'In what way . . .?' Compare:

She replied to the listeners' questions *obligingly/courteously*. ['in an obliging/courteous manner']

Obligingly, / *Courteously*, } she replied to the listeners' questions.

['She was obliging/courteous enough to reply . . .' Less claim is made that her *replies* were obliging or courteous]

Adjuncts of means or instrument, however, can be sentence adjuncts, especially when their reference is specific rather than generic and when there is adequate alternative complementation in the clause. Compare:

He chopped the parsley *with a knife*. [predication adjunct]
With a knife like that, you couldn't cut through this salami. [sentence adjunct]

Note [a] Although noun phrases as process adjuncts can be regarded as elliptical prepositional phrases (as with space adjuncts, 'jump (*over*) *a fence*'), they are apprehended in part as direct objects by virtue of their noun-phrase form. Hence, they may have a corresponding passive. Compare:

He's travelling *a different route* to Minneapolis ['*by* a different route', which is spatial ('along . . .') as well as process].
It is a route that has not been travelled before by car.
Has this particular route been travelled before?

[b] On common pro-forms for process adjuncts (*eg*: (*in*) *that way*, *like that*, *thus*, etc), *cf* 19.47. The form *thus* is largely formal, and as well as being a process adjunct pro-form it operates as a conjunct. In the latter role it tends to be at *M* and the reference is anaphoric; in the former it tends to be at *E*, especially if the reference is cataphoric:

She *thus* addressed herself to their problems. [='As you see from what has preceded': conjunct]
She addressed herself to their problems *thus*. [='in the following way': process adjunct]

(*Cf* 8.144).

Manner adjuncts

8.79 EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF MANNER ADJUNCTS:

She spoke to him *coldly*.
They sprayed tear gas *indiscriminately* on the protesters.
They were *categorically* told that no more oil would come from the wreck.
My little boy loves dressing up *cowboy-style*.
They are deluded if they think *otherwise*.
His influence showed itself *more obviously* in the choice of the furniture and curtains.
They began arguing *loudly*.
He failed to question the witness *thoroughly*.
She repaired the house *like an expert*.
He spoke *in a way that reminded me of his father*.
They played the game (*in*) *a different way*.
She dances (*in*) *the same way as I do*.
They cook ((*in*) *the*) *French style*.
He always writes *in a carefree manner*.
You should write *as I tell you to*.

Noun phrases with *way*, *manner*, and *style* as head tend to have the definite article:

She cooks chicken { *the way I like.* / *in* { *the* / *a* } *way I like.* }

An adverb manner adjunct can usually be paraphrased by *in a . . . manner* or *in a . . . way* with its adjective base in the vacant position. Where an adverb form exists, it is usually preferred over such a corresponding cognate prepositional phrase with *manner* or *way*. Hence:

He always writes *carelessly*.

is more usual than:

He always writes *in a careless* { *manner.* / *way.* }

But the latter, periphrastic form is preferred where the adjunct requires modification. Successive *-ly* adverbs are avoided, partly for stylistic reasons

and partly because a sequence of adverbs leads one to expect the first to be a modifier of the second (as in 'He runs incredibly carelessly'). Thus, for the former reason, we would not say:

?He always writes *deliberately carelessly*. [but rather: 'in a deliberately careless way']

and for the latter reason, we would tend to avoid:

He spoke *stupidly frequently*. [but rather 'He *frequently* spoke *stupidly*'; if we meant 'He spoke *with stupid frequency*', this would again be preferable to the succession of adverbs]

Other examples of adverbs replaced by alternative forms of cognate adjunct:

He prayed { *fervently.* / *with profound but dignified fervour.* }

She spoke { *animatedly.* / *with (a) youthful animation.* }

(*Cf* 5.58).

In careful usage, clausal adjuncts with *as* are sharply distinguished from semantically equivalent phrasal adjuncts with *like*:

Please try to write { *as I do.* / *like me.* }

But informally (and especially in AmE), *like* is often used as a conjunction and one has:

Please try to write *like I do.*

Adverbs as manner adjuncts can sometimes serve as the response to a *How*-question:

A: *How* was your little boy dressed up that so amused the policeman?
B: Oh, *cowboy-style.*

But other units as manner adjuncts can more easily serve as responses:

A: *How* does she dance? B: *The same way as I do.*
A: *How* should I write to him? B: *As a friend would write.*
A: *How* do they prefer to cook? B: *In the French style.*

It should be noted however that *How*-questions usually elicit means or instrument adjuncts (*cf* 8.80):

A: *How* did he clean his room? B: { ?**Carefully.* / *With a vacuum cleaner.* }

It is because *how* is only rarely expected to elicit a manner adjunct that we can have a joke like the following where the reply evades in supposed innocence a difficult question:

Teacher: Now, Henry, how does a quartz watch work?
Henry: Oh, marvellously!

Note On the formation of manner adverbs, *cf* App I.41.

Means, instrument, and agent adjuncts

8.80 EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF MEANS ADJUNCTS:

These linguistic units were separated *intonationally.*
He decided to treat the patient *surgically.*
I go to school *by car.*

(On the use of the zero article in such examples as the last, *cf* 5.45.)

He gained entry into the building *by means of a bribe to the guard.*
You can best influence them *by your own example.*
You can stop the machine *by pressing this button.*
We are travelling to Washington *(by) first class.*
Fly *Air India/by Air India/with Air India.*

EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF INSTRUMENT ADJUNCTS:

He examined the specimen *microscopically.* [= 'with a microscope']
You can cut the bread *with that knife/*by that knife.*
He was killed *with a bullet.*

EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF AGENTIVE ADJUNCTS:

He was killed *by a terrorist/*with a terrorist.*
The royal wedding was seen *by millions* on television.
Her speech could not be heard *by those sitting at the back.*

On the distinction between means and instrument, *cf* 8.5.

Most of the adverbs that can realize means and instrument adjuncts can also function as manner adjuncts; in consequence, there is some danger of misunderstanding, as with:

He examined the specimen *microscopically.*

Since the instrumental meaning ('with a microscope') would entail the manner meaning ('in great detail'), and since the latter might involve the former, it is not easy to ensure that the addressee understands the precisely intended adjunct. Unless it has been previously established in the context, it may be necessary to ensure clarity by expressing instrumentality by a prepositional phrase, and manner by implementing the gradability which manner (but not instrument) permits: '. . . quite microscopically'.

The examples of instrument and agent adjuncts illustrate the point of intersection between these categories. When accompanying the passive, instrument can often be expressed by *with* + NP or *by* + NP (the latter reflecting a corresponding active, as in *A bullet killed him*) but the agentive adjunct cannot be expressed by *with* + NP. See further 3.65f.

Means adjuncts are generally elicited by *how*-questions, instrument by *how* or *what . . . with*:

Means:

A: *How* are you flying to Europe?
B: *(By) British Airways.*

Instrument:

How shall we prop the door open?
What shall we prop the door open *with*?

Agent adjuncts can be elicited by *who/what* + active or (less usually, except in a context where the passive has already been used) by *who(m)/what* + passive + *by* or *by whom/what* + passive:

A: Who killed him?
B: He seems to have been killed *by a terrorist*.
A: You say she was cheated: { who (was she cheated) by? / by whom (was she cheated)? ⟨formal⟩
B: (*By*) *her own brother*, apparently.

Semantic blends

8.81 Some adjuncts express a blend of manner with some other relation:

(i) MANNER WITH RESULT, AND SOMETIMES INTENSIFICATION

She fixed it *perfectly*. ['in such a way that it was perfect' – manner and result]
He grows chrysanthemums *marvellously*. ['in such a way that the results are good' – manner and result]
The soldiers wounded him *badly*. ['in such a way and to such an extent that it resulted in his being in a bad condition' – manner, intensifier, and result]

(ii) MANNER WITH TIME DURATION

He's walking *slowly*. ['in a way that will prolong the time']
He stopped the car *suddenly*. / She gave me an answer *rapidly*. } ['in such a way that it took a very short time']
They broke the news to him *gradually*. ['in such a way that it was spread over a period of time']

Such items are likely to be solely time adjuncts when they appear in *I* or *M* positions:

Suddenly, he stopped the car. / *Suddenly* I felt free again. / *Suddenly*, it was night. } ['In an instant, . . .']
She *rapidly* gave me an answer. ['She soon . . .']
My brother *quickly* came to despise his school. ['soon']
We *gradually* appreciated his contribution to society. ['We gradually came to appreciate']

Noun phrases and prepositional phrases that seem at first sight to be equivalent to adverbs may be less flexible than the adverbs in this respect:

All of a sudden, I felt free again. ['it suddenly happened']
?He stopped the car *all of a sudden*. [queried in the sense 'in a way that took a very short time']
It is now going *at a fast rate*. ['very quickly']
**At a fast rate*, / *Very quickly*, } my brother came to despise his school.

We note that *very quickly* here means 'in a short space of time', a meaning that cannot be attributed to 'at a fast rate'.

(iii) AGENT WITH RESPECT OR SPACE

Their house was destroyed *by/in an earthquake*.
She couldn't be heard *by/in the back rows of the auditorium*.

The *in*-variant in each case makes possible a lack of direct agency: 'in floods consequent upon the earthquake', 'by a test microphone in the (empty) back rows' (*cf* also 8.80).

Note There are some adverbials with semantic blending where the 'process' admixture is rather vague but where manner, means, space, and respect seem to be involved:
He announced the agreement *publicly*. [in part = 'by means of a public statement', in part = 'openly'; *cf* also *secretly*, *privately*, and 8.55 Note [d]]
They approved the contract *generally* [or *in general*], but objected to a few clauses.
She directed the work *personally* [or *in person*].
'It's empty,' he announced *superfluously*.
These proposals come *strangely* from someone in his position.
He bought it *cheaply*.
In the last example, *cheaply* is regarded by some as a hypercorrection and is often replaced by the adjective form *cheap* (*cf* 7.9).

Cooccurrence restrictions on process adjuncts

8.82 Adverbials that function only as process adjuncts cannot cooccur with verbs in stative use:

He likes them / He owns it } **skilfully*. / **awkwardly*.

Nor can process adjuncts be used as adverbials with copular verbs:

He is a teacher / They seem happy / She looks angry } **skilfully*. / **awkwardly*.

Of course, if the meaning is 'deliberate imitation', the verb's use is nonstative, and we then have fully acceptable sentences like 'She looks angry *skilfully*'.

The different types of process adjunct can cooccur with each other; for example:

He *frugally* travelled *economy* (*class*). [manner + means]
He travels *economy* (*class*) *by air* but *first* (*class*) *by train*. [means + instrument]
She was *accidentally* struck *with a racket by her partner*. [manner + instrument + agent]

Syntactic features of process adjuncts

8.83 Process adjuncts can be contrasted with one another in alternative interrogation and negation and can come within the scope of predication pro-forms or predication ellipsis. They can be the focus of *also* and of *only*. Normally, when manner adjuncts are realized by adverbs, they cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence (*cf* 8.25), but their acceptability is increased if they are modified or if the focal clause is interrogative or negative:

*It was *categorically* that they were told that no more oil would come from the wreck.

?Was it *categorically* that they were told that no more oil would come from the wreck?
?It's *in the French style* that they cook.
It isn't *in the French style* that they cook.
??It was {*violently* / *loudly*} that they argued.
(?)It was *so very* {*violently* / *loudly*} that they argued.
It was *with the utmost care/precision/caution* that the last girder was laid in place.

On the other hand, means, instrument, and agent adjuncts can readily become the focus of a cleft sentence, even as realized by single adverbs (though less idiomatically in these circumstances):

It was *with a bullet* that he was killed.
It was *by a terrorist* that he was killed.
It was *intonationally* that these linguistic units were separated.
It was *surgically* that he treated the patient.

Adverbs that are manner adjuncts can be the focus of clause comparison (as in 'She writes more clearly than I do') and can be premodified by *however*, *how*, and *so* (as in 'How cautiously he drives'). Adverbs expressing means or instrument do not allow these features, since they cannot of course be modified at all, derived as they are from nongradable adjectives (*cf* App I.41).

Positions of process adjuncts

8.84 Process adjuncts are usually placed at *E*, since they usually receive the information focus. Indeed, no other position is likely if the process adjunct is obligatory for the verb:

{ They live *frugally*.
{ *They *frugally* live.

{ They treated his friend *badly*.
{ *They *badly* treated his friend.

Since the passive is often used when the need is felt to focus attention on the verb, process adjuncts are commonly placed in *eM* rather than in *E* when the verb is in the passive:

Discussions have been *tentatively* begun (and it is hoped that they will be fruitful).
Tear gas was *indiscriminately* sprayed on the protesters.

Contrast also:

{ He put the point *well*.
{ *He *well* put the point. [but *cf* 'As he *well* knows']

{ The point was put *well*.
{ The point was *well* put.

However, *eM* is odd for means and instrument adverbials even in the passive, presumably because they have a higher priority for information focus than does the accompanying verb:

?These linguistic units should be *intonationally* separated.
?The specimen was *microscopically* examined. ['with a microscope']

The latter example would not of course be queried if the adjunct were manner [='meticulously'].

On process adverbials at *I*, *cf* 8.78.

Adjuncts of respect

8.85 Just as we saw that respect as a semantic category (*cf* 8.6) was parasitic on associated categories, so respect adjuncts show their parasitic character in being realized formally by expressions whose primary function is to realize other classes of adjunct. The point is illustrated by *formally* in the preceding sentence. Compare:

They are realized *formally*. [respect: 'so far as form is concerned']
He greeted the bishop *formally*. [manner: 'in a way that respected proprieties of form']

Not surprisingly in view of this, there is no category-specific question form that elicits adjuncts of respect. Besides nongradable adverbs, various types of prepositional phrase are used for respect adjuncts, some of them lexically specific (for example, *with reference to N*, *in/with respect to N*, *on the matter of N*), others based upon spatial phrases, especially those relating to 'position' and 'source':

She's advising them { *legally.* / *on legal issues.* / *with respect to law.* / *from a legal standpoint.* / *about matters of law.* }

Adjectives take complements of respect with phrases introduced by such common and polysemous prepositions as *of*, *at*, *on*:

They are { fond/frightened . . . *of cats.* / good/skilled . . . *at drawing.* / keen/adamant . . . *on moral standards.* }

(*Cf* 9.57, 16.68*ff*).

Adjuncts of respect are normally predicational (and hence tend to be placed at *E*), but it should be noted that respect is often expressed by means of subjuncts and disjuncts; *cf* 8.88, 8.124.

Note [a] Some verbs may take O_d or an adjunct of respect with little difference in meaning:

Having seen this sample, you may {judge / judge of} the remainder.

['assess or form an opinion about']

[b] Rather formal titles of essays and the like may comprise prepositional phrases relating to respect:

Of dreams and their significance. ⟨archaic⟩
On (the question of) Disarmament.
In Pursuit of Happiness.

Adjuncts of contingency

8.86 Of the contingency relationships that are expressed by adjuncts (as distinct from disjuncts: *cf* 8.132), reason and the semantic correlate purpose are outstanding. Significantly, the same question forms are used to elicit either of these adjunct types:

A: { *Why* did he do it? / *What* did he do it *for*? } B: { *Because he was angry*. [reason] / *To relieve his anger*. [purpose] }

It is rare to find either reason or purpose adjuncts realized by adverbs (but see Note [a] below). Prepositional phrases introduced by *because of*, *on account of*, etc are common for cause adjuncts; for example:

She returned home early *because of his insistence*.
They want a better job *on account of their high mortgage payments*.
He did it *for his son*.
They've both stopped smoking *for fear of heart disease*.
She performed a recital *out of charity*.
There were several deaths *from malnutrition*.

Prepositional phrases expressing purpose adjuncts are chiefly introduced by *for*, indicating the relation not only to reason but to goal (*ie* space):

How many actors will you need *for this production*?
He set a trap *for the intruding fox*.
She's applying *for a better job*.
They attacked the police *as a protest*.

Clauses also realize these types of adjunct. For cause, there are finite clauses introduced by *because* (*cf* 15.21) and (especially informally) nonfinite clauses introduced by *with*:

She returned home early *because he insisted*.
With him being so bad-tempered, I was reluctant to tell him of the car accident.

The latter are resistant to adjunct criteria, and are more usually realized as disjuncts; *cf* 8.132. For purpose (*cf* 15.48), the commonest type of clause is the nonfinite (infinitive) type, as in:

They need a bigger apartment *to accommodate their elderly parents*.
She has gone alone to her room *so as to study for her exams*.
In order to stop the machine, press the red button.
The police stopped the traffic *for me to get across the street*.

Finite clauses are more formal:

The chairman hurried the meeting *in order that it might end before dark*.
One member had been suggesting an adjournment of the meeting *so that matters need not be hastened*.

But the finite purpose clause introduced by *so* alone is rather informal:

He's getting a new car *so he can impress his mother-in-law*.

By contrast, the clause introduced by *that* alone is exceptionally formal:

He died *that others might live*.

Equally formal (as well as rather archaic) is the negative purpose clause with *lest*:

The animals must be destroyed *lest the disease (should) spread*.

(*Cf* 3.61). In BrE, there is an informal alternative:

The animals must be destroyed *in case the disease spreads*.

On the mood in finite purpose clauses, *cf* 15.48. One further contingency relation is expressed by the adjunct, and that is concession when realized by prepositional phrases introduced by *in spite of* and *despite*. For example:

He won the race { *in spite of* / *despite* } *his injured leg*.

Except where they are obligatory (as in *He lived for his work*), adjuncts of cause, purpose, and concession tend to be sentential rather than predicational. Moreover, though more commonly at *E*, this is largely a matter of where information focus is required. They can equally well be placed at *I* and even (though less usually) at *M*:

On account of their high mortgage payments, they want a better job.
One member had, *so that matters need not be hastened*, been suggesting an adjournment of the meeting.

Note [a] In the following sentences the adverbs could be regarded as purpose adjuncts:
They were *symbolically* burying a new car in protest against pollution. ['for symbolic purposes']
The teacher addressed the students by their first names *experimentally*. ['for experimental purposes']
[b] Clauses of cause or reason introduced by *since* and *as* are disjuncts: *cf* 8.124, 8.132.

Relative positions of adjuncts

8.87 In the relevant sections, we have given indications of the norms of position in respect of each class of adjunct. We turn now to consider the positions of adjunct classes in respect of each other. Two general principles can be stated, applying to relative order whether within a class or between classes:

(i) The relative order, especially of sentence adjuncts, can be changed to suit the demands of information focus; *cf* 18.9*ff*.
(ii) Shorter adjuncts tend to precede longer ones, and in practice this often means that adverbs precede noun phrases, which precede prepositional phrases, which precede nonfinite clauses, which precede finite clauses.

Subject to these general principles, where adjuncts cluster in *E* position, the normal order is:

respect – process – space – time – contingency

It would be highly unusual to find all such five at *E* (or indeed all such five in the same clause), but for the purposes of exemplification we might offer the improbable and stylistically objectional (*cf* 8.20):

> John was working *on his hobby* [respect] *with the new shears* [process] *in the rose garden* [place] *for the whole of his day off* [time] *to complete the season's pruning* [contingency].

The same point could be made more acceptably (but at greater length) by forming a series of sentences, each with any two of these adjuncts.

Adjuncts that can occur at *I* are usually those that *either* have relatively little information value in the context (*eg* in reflecting what can be taken for granted) *or* are relatively inclusive or 'scene-setting' in their semantic role (*eg* an adjunct of time). Thus:

> *That whole morning*, he devoted himself to his roses.

Not only is the adjunct at *I* one of time, but the anaphoric *that* indicates that the period concerned has already been mentioned. It is unusual to have more than one adjunct at *I* except where one is realized by a pro-form (especially *then*), but they would tend to be in the reverse order to that observed at *E*. In practice, this usually means:

space – time *or* process – time

For example:

> *In America* [A_1], *after the election* [A_2], trade began to improve.
> *Slowly* [A_1] *during this period* [A_2] people were becoming more prosperous.

Subjuncts

8.88 We apply the term SUBJUNCTS to adverbials which have, to a greater or lesser degree, a subordinate role (see below) in comparison with other clause elements. This is made manifest by the fact that they cannot usually be treated grammatically in any of the four ways stated in 8.25 as being applicable to adjuncts. Let us consider the matter in respect of two very different subjuncts, *visually* as in [1] and *fairly* as in [2]:

> This play presents *visually* a sharp challenge to a discerning audience. [1]
> He *fairly* SPRÀNG at her with his questions. ⟨esp BrE⟩ [2]

Notice that for the subjunct reading we must understand *visually* as operating in the semantic role of respect (*cf* 8.6), 'as a visual experience'. The same adverb in a different sentence might be grammatically an adjunct, operating in the semantic role of process (means, *cf* 8.5), 'with his eyes (alone)':

> He studied the play *visually* (but scarcely listened to a word). [3]

Likewise we must understand the subjunct *fairly* in [2] as having the semantic role of modality (*cf* 8.8), 'it is no exaggeration to say', though the same adverb can also be grammatically an adjunct in the semantic role of process (manner, *cf* 8.5), 'in a just and impartial way':

> He questioned her (*quite*) *fairly*. [4]

If we now attempt the processes of 8.25 with [1] and [2], we either move away from the subjunct to the adjunct reading or produce an incomprehensible sequence:

> It is *visually* that this play achieves a sharp challenge . . .
> Does this play achieve a sharp challenge . . . *visually* or . . . ?
> This play achieves *only visually* a sharp challenge . . .
> How did this play achieve a sharp challenge . . . ?
> [Perhaps, however, 'From what point of view . . . ?]
> *It was *fairly* that he sprang at her . . .
> *Did he spring at her *fairly* or . . . ?
> *He *only fairly* sprang at her . . .
> *[*How* did he spring at her . . . ?] **Fairly*.

The 'subordinate role' to which we referred at the beginning of this section may apply to the whole clause in which the subjunct operates: this is what appears as 'wide orientation' in *Fig* 8.88. Alternatively, the subjunct may be subordinated to an individual clause element (usually the S) or even to an item forming part of a clause element (the V): this is what appears as 'narrow orientation' in *Fig* 8.88, where the relationships of the subjunct class are shown in some detail.

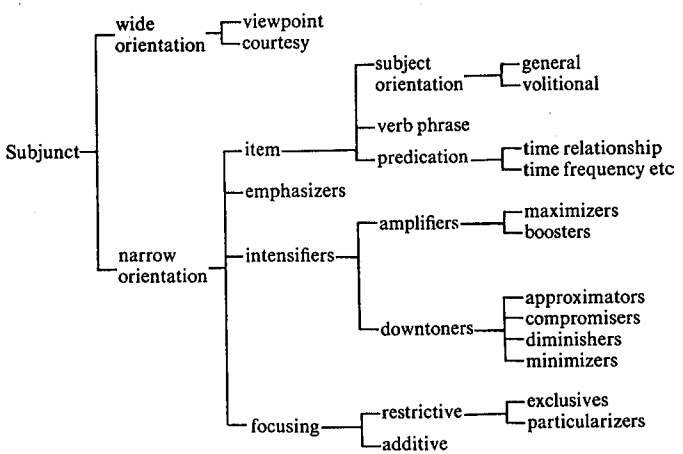

Fig 8.88

It is doubtless easier to appreciate the subordinateness of the role in relation to the subjuncts of narrow orientation. Some paraphrases for those

of wide orientation (such as 'from a visual point of view') seem rather to raise the items so as to be superordinate to the other sentence elements; and they can even seem to have the scope of disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*). In fact, however, even subjuncts of wide orientation typically relate specifically to an individual element or even to a constituent of an element, and alternative paraphrases can demonstrate this:

Visually, a film should present experience of a kind not assimilable by the ears alone.
~ A film should be a *visual* presentation of experience . . .
Economically, a nation can be bankrupt while still flourishing *intellectually*.
~ An *economically* bankrupt nation may still be an *intellectually* flourishing one.

Wide orientation

Viewpoint subjuncts

8.89 Viewpoint subjuncts can be roughly paraphrased by 'if we consider what we are saying from an [adjective] point of view' or 'if we consider what we are saying from the point of view of [noun phrase]'.

Adverbs realizing viewpoint subjuncts are most commonly derived from adjectives by the addition of an *-ly* suffix. Examples are:

Architecturally, it is a magnificent conception.
Morally, *politically*, and *economically*, it is urgent that the government should act more effectively on aid to developing countries.
Geographically, *ethnically*, and *linguistically*, these islands are closer to the mainland than to their neighbouring islands.
To tap a private telephone line is not *technically* a very difficult operation.
It could have been a serious defeat, not only *militarily* but *psychologically* and *politically*.

Viewpoint subjuncts can also be formed from nouns by the addition of the suffix *-wise* (especially in AmE), though these are considered informal:

Program-wise, the new thing on TV last night was the first part of a new Galsworthy dramatization.
Weatherwise, we are going to have a bad time this winter.

All *-ly* adverbs realizing viewpoint subjuncts have a corresponding participle clause with *speaking* that is also a viewpoint subjunct, *eg*: *visually* ~ *visually speaking*, and a corresponding prepositional phrase with the frame *from a* [adjective] *point of view* that also has the same function, *eg*: *morally* ~ *from a moral point of view*. Other examples of viewpoint subjuncts include:

Many of these people have suffered, *economically speaking*, because of their political affiliations.
He has done better *from a personal point of view* than any other executive in the firm.
They behave *with respect to their morals* as they always have done.

As far as mathematics is concerned, he was a complete failure.
Looked at politically, it was not an easy problem.
If we consider the financial position, the country is going to have a bad year.

Viewpoint subjuncts, whatever their structure, tend to be put in *I* position. As distinct from when they are used as process adjuncts, adverbs functioning as viewpoint subjuncts are nongradable. Hence they do not accept clause comparison or the modification possible for many adjuncts (*cf* 8.88):

**Very economically* (*speaking*), these people have suffered a great deal.

Note [a] The corresponding clause with *speaking* resembles one of the correspondences for speech-related disjuncts (*cf* 8.124). However, the other correspondences for such disjuncts do not constitute correspondences for viewpoint subjuncts. For example, *to speak morally* (*ie* 'not immorally') does not correspond to the viewpoint subjuncts *morally* and *morally speaking* (*ie* 'from the standpoint of morals').
[b] Most viewpoint subjuncts in *-wise* are written without hyphens as single words, unless they are in 'nonce' usage; *cf* App I.41.

Courtesy subjuncts

8.90 Courtesy subjuncts are chiefly realized by a small group of adverbs used in rather formulaic expressions of politeness and propriety. The most common are exemplified below:

He *kindly* offered me a ride.
We *cordially* invite you to our party.
She announced that she will *graciously* consent to our request.
Take a seat *please*.
Will you *kindly* address a few words to the new students? [*ie* 'be kind enough to . . .']

(On the comparably formulaic use of adjectives, *cf* 17.97.) This is clearly distinct from the normal adjunct of manner, as in:

She spoke *kindly* to the new students.
He offered me a ride *kindly*. ['He offered me a ride and he did so *kindly*']

Needless to say, however, it would be expected that if the subject was kind in undertaking an action he would perform the action in a kind manner as well. Greater distinction in role can be seen with such courtesy subjuncts in requests with question form:

Will you *kindly* take your seats?

Here the meaning can only be 'Will you be so kind (*ie* agreeable) as to take your seats?' (since one could hardly *sit* in a kind manner). So too in asking:

Will she *graciously* consent to his request?

one is asking if she will be gracious and not if she will do something in a gracious fashion.

The commonest courtesy subjunct, *please*, is irregular in form and irregular also in not having a corresponding adjunct function: no function, that is, other than this present formulaic one (*cf* 8.91).

Courtesy subjuncts differ from adjuncts having the same form in that they are restricted to (*e*)*M* position except in imperative clauses, where the two that are commonest in such utterances differ from each other. With *kindly*, *I* is then obligatory (but *cf* 8.20 Note [b]):

Kindly leave the room. *Kindly* don't make a noise.
*Leave the room, *kindly*. *Don't *kindly* make a noise.

With *please*, *I* is usual but *eM* is possible for some speakers; *iE* is by no means unusual, and *E* is quite common:

Please leave the room.
Leave the room, *please*.
Please don't make a noise.
(?)Don't *please* make a noise.
Write on this form, *please*, your full address.
Don't make a noise, *please*.

Courtesy subjuncts require the active subject or the passive agent (whether present or implied) to be of personal reference. When courtesy subjuncts appear in questions, the questions constitute a request. There are therefore restrictions on the person of the subject in questions; it is normally first for *cordially*, *humbly*; and second or third for *kindly* and *graciously*. Consider the following rather ceremonious examples:

May we *cordially* invite you to our party?
May I *humbly* offer my apologies?
Will you *kindly* take a seat?
Will you *graciously* consent to our request?
Will passengers *kindly* refrain from smoking?

Please, however, allows all persons:

May I *please* explain my reasons?

Could {you / Mr Brandt} *please* move to one side?

Both *kindly* and *cordially* (but not *please*) commonly cooccur with the passive in formally official usage:

Passengers are *kindly* requested to refrain from smoking.
Members of the public are *cordially* invited to submit their views on the project.

8.91 Courtesy subjuncts do not usually carry a nucleus or occupy a separate tone unit:

Kindly help yourSÈLF|
?*KÌNDly help yourself|
*KÍNDly| help yourSÈLF|

A form such as:

KÌNDly be quiet|

would suggest both irritation and a repetition of a more normally uttered request. Again, however, *please* is exceptional, and this subjunct frequently has a tone unit to itself, especially in final position with a rising tone. There is a discourse contrast between the following:

Help yourSÈLF please|
Help yourSÈLF|PLÉASE|

The former is more casual, the speaker taking for granted the courtesy subjunct; in the latter, the speaker seeks more deliberately (as perhaps with people he does not know so well) to emphasize the courtesy. But as the sole carrier of intonation nucleus, the courtesy disjunct conveys not merely emphasis but some urgency, insistence, or annoyance:

PLÈASE be quiet| Be quiet PLÈASE|

Kindly and *please* are the only courtesy subjuncts to appear freely with imperatives, though *graciously* occasionally does so too (in very ceremonious usage):

Graciously accept this gift from your admirers.

Indeed, unlike the other courtesy subjuncts, *please* is generally confined to imperatives or to sentences constituting a request or containing a reported one:

Will you *please* leave the room? ⟨rather coldly formal⟩
You will *please* leave the room. ⟨admonitory⟩
I wonder whether you would mind leaving the room *please*. ⟨polite⟩
I asked him whether he would *please* leave the room.
*He *please* left the room.
A box of matches, *please*.
May I *please* have my book back?

Please and (to a lesser extent) *kindly* are very commonly used to tone down the abruptness of a command.

With the exception of *please*, courtesy subjuncts can be modified by *very*. However, *kindly* cannot usually be so modified in questions and requests (whether or not these are grammatically imperatives). Compare:

He *very kindly* offered me a seat.
**Very kindly* take a seat.
?Will you *very kindly* take a seat?
Kindly take a seat.
?You will *very kindly* leave the room.

The queried examples above are perhaps possible when they are said in a tone of exasperation.

With *please* must be contrasted the courtesy formula *thank you* and its more informal variant *thanks* (the form with subject, *I must thank you for . . .*, *I thank you*, is capable of being a main clause but as such the latter is used as a courtesy marker only facetiously). These are normally at *E* (except as disjuncts of the form *thanks to X*, which can be at *I*, *M*, or *E*; *cf* 8.127*ff*), unless they are operating as verbless clauses (*cf* 15.58*ff*). In either case they

normally carry a nucleus. For example:

A: Let me show you the WÀY|

B: Oh I can manage aLÒNE| { THÁNKS| / THÁNK you|

Though normally opposites, *please* and *thank you* can be alternative ways of responding gratefully (normally to something that is being accepted):

A: Will you have another glass?

B: { (Oh) YÈS, { PLÉASE| / THÁNKS/THÁNK you| — [a falling tone on *please*, *thanks*, and *thank you* (often without *yes*) would show added enthusiasm]

(Oh) NÒ, { *please| / THÁNKS/THÁNK you| — [*No THÀNKS* or *No THÀNK you* would be so emphatic as to sound rude]

But while the response *please* alone can pass for 'yes please', *thanks/thank you* cannot be used alone to mean 'no thank you'.

Note [a] The subjunct *please* is sharply different from the other items discussed above because of course it still retains some connection with the impersonal verb phrase ('it pleases N') from which it is historically derived and which is reflected in more formal expansions:

Come this way, *if you please*. [where *you* is historically the object]

I shall now call my last witness, *if it please your Lordship*. ⟨BrE: law court usage⟩

In this latter example, the third person 'your Lordship' is of course a very formal and largely archaic way of indicating respect for a person addressed. But true 3rd-person involvement with *please* still occurs as a brief prayer in fervent wishes:

The war will be over soon, *please God*. [= 'if it pleases God [to end the war]']

[b] English differs from several other languages (such as German and Russian) in not using the same courtesy subjunct to accompany both requests and acknowledgements of thanks. For the latter in English, we have *not at all*, *don't mention it*, *you're welcome* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *(it's) my pleasure*, and some variants of these. Thus:

A: Here is the book you lost.

B: Oh thank you very much.

A: { *Please. / Not at all.

Again unlike many other languages, English lacks an institutionalized courtesy item for use in offering. It is difficult to make *HÈRE you ÁRE* sound courteous, and impossible to make it sound formal.

[c] Compare also the adverbs used in epistolary formulas:

Yours followed by *faithfully*, *sincerely*, *truly*, or *ever* ⟨esp BrE⟩

Cordially, *Sincerely*, *Truly* followed by *yours* ⟨esp AmE⟩

We also find *Yours* alone as well as (especially in informal use) *Sincerely* or *Affectionately* without *Yours*.

Narrow orientation

Item subjuncts

Subject-orientation

8.92 We saw in 8.88 that a subjunct might be in a sense subordinate to an element in clause structure or even to a constituent of the phrase or clause realizing an element. These subjuncts we call ITEM subjuncts.

If we move a sentence adjunct from *E* position to *I* or *M*, we can do more than allow another element to be highlighted by end-focus (*cf* 18.9). We may appear to narrow the application of the adverbial from the sentence as a whole so that it now seems to have a special relation with the subject. This is particularly true with process adverbials of the manner subclass (*cf* 8.5). Compare [1] where *casually* is such an adverbial, functioning as a sentence adjunct, with [2] where the function has been narrowed to subjunct status:

Leslie greeted the stranger *casually*. ['in a casual offhand manner', his *greeting* was casual] [1]

Casually, Leslie greeted the stranger. ['Leslie was casual, offhand, when he greeted the stranger'] [2]

That the relations of the adverbial in [1] and [2] are different is demonstrated not merely by the plausibility of the different glosses but by the fact that we can retain the item at *I* and also include a sentence adjunct of the same semantic value as that in [1] (though paraphrasing it, to avoid unwanted stylistic complications) without undue tautology:

Casually, Leslie greeted the stranger *in an offhand way*. [3]

Of course, such a combination as in [3] is unusual for the simple reason that to some extent [2] presupposes [1] and [1] presupposes [2]: it is natural for us to expect that in making a casual greeting the person doing so was casual. But it is by no means necessary for the two to go together.

A more convincing demonstration that the adverbials in [1] and [2] function differently, therefore, is provided if we polarize them semantically and show that we do so without seeming to be contradictory. If we imagine Leslie doing an action while studiously trying to show that he feels otherwise than his action implies, we have:

Carefully, Leslie greeted the stranger { *casually.* / *in an offhand way.* } [4]

To assume subject-orientation, an adverbial must be derived from an adjective that can be predicated of the subject concerned. Thus, there is subject-orientation in [2]:

Casually, Leslie greeted . . .

This is because it is possible to say:

Leslie was *casual*.

But consider the following, with adverbs such as *unintentionally* or *accidentally*:

Accidentally, Bernadette dropped the plate.

Here the adverbial remains a sentence adjunct and it is impossible to parallel [3] or [4], as in:

**Accidentally*, Bernadette dropped the plate *on purpose*. [5]

This is because it is impossible to say:

*Bernadette was *accidental*.

The apparent intention behind [5] is of course perfectly possible to express with a contingency adjunct:

As though accidentally, Bernadette dropped the plate *on purpose*.

There is, indeed, a stereotyped joke in which the two adverbs are juxtaposed: 'I suppose you did that *accidentally on purpose*.'

Note If we experiment in the manner of 8.25 with many subject-oriented subjuncts, we find that in doing so we have to understand them as adjuncts. For example:

It was *casually* that Leslie greeted the stranger.
Did Leslie greet the stranger *casually* or . . . ?

Furthermore some subjuncts, like *casually* in [2], can be outside the scope of negation while manner adjuncts cannot. Thus it makes perfectly good sense to say both of the following:

Casually, Leslie greeted the stranger.
Casually, Leslie didn't greet the stranger.

This last would not mean that he did not greet the stranger casually, but rather that he was so casual in his behaviour that he did not bother to make a greeting. But we cannot say both of the following, because *slowly* is an adjunct:

Slowly, the nun walked up the hill.
**Slowly*, the nun didn't walk up the hill.

8.93 Subject-orientation thus effects a characterization of the referent of the subject with respect to the process or state denoted by the verb. Most of the subjuncts concerned are manner adverbials, and all are either adverbs or prepositional phrases. Two groups can be distinguished: [A] a general group, and [B] a volitional group.

Group [A]: GENERAL GROUP

Group [A] appears to be an open class; for example:

Resentfully, the workers have stood by their leaders.
['The workers have stood by their leaders and were resentful about it' or – in context – '. . . but were nonetheless resentful']
With great pride, he accepted the award. ['He was very proud to accept . . .']
For once, they have *frankly* admitted their mistakes. ['For once they have been frank and admitted their mistakes']
Manfully, they insisted that the situation was not too bad. ['It was manful of them to insist . . .']
She has *consistently* overruled the lawyer's objections. ['She has been consistent in overruling . . .']
Bitterly, he buried his children. ['He was bitter when he . . .']
Sadly, she wandered through the library. ['She was sad when she . . .']
With great unease, they elected him as their leader. ['They were very uneasy when they . . .']

Group [B]: VOLITIONAL GROUP

Common volitional subject-oriented adverbials include:
deliberately, *(un)intentionally*, *purposely*, *reluctantly*, *voluntarily*, *wilfully*, *(un)willingly*, *without intention*, *on purpose*, *with reluctance*; for example:

Intentionally, they said nothing to him about the matter.
['It was their intention not to . . .']
On purpose, he left his proposals vague. ['It was his purpose to . . .']
With great reluctance, she called the police to arrest her guest.
['Though she was very reluctant to do so, she called the police . . .']

8.94 Many of these subjuncts, particularly those in Group [A], show their relationship to the subject by the paraphrase they allow, in which their adjective base is in predicative relationship to the subject (*cf* 8.92). For example, we must provide a different paraphrase for the subject subjunct *bitterly* as compared with the same item as manner adjunct or booster intensifier:

Bitterly, he buried his children. ['He was bitter when he . . .']
He spoke *bitterly* about the treatment he received. ['He spoke in a bitter way . . .']
He *bitterly* regretted their departue. ['He very much regretted . . .']

But similarly, with an example from Group [B]:

She refrained *deliberately* from joining the party. ['She was quite deliberate in refraining . . .']
She spoke slowly and *deliberately*. ['in a deliberate manner']

The volitional subjuncts differ from the others in several respects:

(I) Volitional subjuncts have in common that they express the subject's intention or willingness, or the reverse.

(II) Volitional subjuncts can often occur with copular verbs if (i) the adjective as complement is being used dynamically, or (ii) if the noun-phrase complement implies activity, or (iii) if there is a space adjunct:

He is being foolish *intentionally*.
He is being a nuisance *deliberately*.
He was in London *reluctantly* for his daughter's wedding.

Contrast:

*He is $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{wealthy}\\ \text{foolish}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *intentionally*.

*He is an adult *deliberately*.

On the other hand, subjuncts in the general class, Group [A], cannot cooccur with intensive verbs:

*He was in London *proudly*.
**Sadly*, he is being foolish. [asterisked as subject-oriented subjunct: 'He is sad when he is . . .'; the sentence is fully acceptable if *sadly* is a content disjunct: *cf* 8.129]

(III) Volitional subjuncts can more easily appear before clause negation than the general subjuncts (*cf* 8.92 Note):

He *purposely* didn't write to me about it.

Deliberately, they didn't send him the money.
?*Proudly*, he didn't write to them about it.
?*Resentfully*, they didn't send him the money.

Subject subjuncts cannot cooccur with a nonpersonal subject in an intransitive or active-voice clause:

**Consistently*, the water kept boiling.
**Reluctantly*, the avalanche destroyed the chalet.

However, in the passive form it is the agent (whether present or not) that must not be nonpersonal:

The chalet was *reluctantly* destroyed { (by the developers). / *(by the avalanche).

The lawyer's objections were *consistently* overruled.

The presence or implication of a personal agent does not in itself ensure acceptability of a subject subjunct. For example, the sentence:

?*The house was *resentfully* built last year.

is odd, presumably because building a house takes too long for resentment to be maintained. Contrast:

The house was *resentfully* sold last year.

Passive sentences with personal subject and agent leave an adverbial equivocal:

John was *willingly* sent to friends for the summer (by his mother).
[either 'John was willing' or 'his mother was willing']

Contrast:

The parcel of valuables was *willingly* sent to the charity organizers.
[only 'the sender was willing']

Nonetheless, even where a personal agent is well understood, subject subjuncts are often regarded as awkward with the passive. Although the following textual example in a recent book would be widely acceptable, it was criticized by a reviewer, presumably because with the agentless passive the adverbial could not easily be linked with a subject ('Someone *foolishly* destroyed the letters') and hence invited interpretation as an implausible manner adjunct:

The letters were *foolishly* destroyed.

Note [a] The analogy of regarding adjectives and clauses as restrictive or nonrestrictive (*cf* 17.3*ff*) provides another way of looking at the distinction between process adjuncts and subject subjuncts. The subjunct in, for example:
Bitterly, he buried his children.
can be paraphrased as in the italicized part below:
He buried his children *and I tell you that he was bitter when he did so.*
The nonrestrictive relative clause can similarly be paraphrased by a coordinate clause:
Alan, *who is my teacher*, has joined the army. ['Alan has joined the army and I tell you that he is my teacher']

[b] The volitional subject subjuncts are similar to purpose adverbials both semantically and in their grammar, resembling as they do purpose disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*). *Cf* also the subject-oriented disjuncts such as *foolishly* and *wisely* (8.129).

8.95 Subjuncts in Group [A] of 8.93 tend not to precede clause negation:

**Sadly*, she didn't wander through the library. [asterisked in the sense 'She was sad when she . . .']
?*With great unease*, they didn't elect him as leader.

Similarly, subject subjuncts in Group [A] tend for the most part not to precede a negative subject:

**With great unease*, nobody elected him as leader.

However, if we can interpret the negated sentence as conveying the meaning of a volitional action, we can sometimes add a subject subjunct of Group [A]. For example, in comparing the following:

?**Proudly*, he didn't accept the award.
Proudly, he wouldn't accept the award.

we note that, while the former is odd, the latter is acceptable, because 'wouldn't accept' means 'refused', and a refusal can be done with pride.

The volitional subjuncts allow alternative interrogation (*cf* 8.25), though with a decided shift towards adjunct interpretation (*cf* 8.92 Note):

Did he leave his proposals vague *on purpose* or did he do so *unintentionally*?

Subjuncts from both groups can come within the scope of predication proforms or ellipsis:

She has *consistently* overruled the lawyer's objections and *so has* her colleague (consistently overruled the lawyer's objections). [*ie* 'They were both consistent in overruling . . .']
He *deliberately* misled us and *so did* she (deliberately mislead us).

Subject subjuncts often cannot cooccur with imperatives:

**Uneasily* elect him as your leader. **Sadly* tell them about it.

It should be noted that, in such cases, it is equally odd to say:

*Elect him as your leader *and be uneasy when you do so.*
*Tell them about it *and be sad when you do so.*

(If *be* is interpreted as equivalent to *seem* or *pretend to be*, the sentences become acceptable, of course.)

On the other hand, we can have:

Gladly reveal what you know.
With full confidence in your success, make your views known to them.

just as we can have:

Reveal what you know *and be glad when you do so.*

Make your views known to them *and have full confidence in your success when you do so*.

Subject subjuncts, like process adjuncts, do not seem to be acceptable before an emphatic auxiliary:

**Proudly* he DID accept the award.
**On purpose*, he DID leave the proposals vague.

In this respect they can be contrasted with the otherwise somewhat similar subject disjuncts such as *wisely* and *rightly* (*cf* 8.129, 8.94 Note [b]):

Wisely, he DID accept the award.
Rightly, he DID leave the proposals vague.

Subject subjuncts tend to occur in *I* and *M* positions, but can appear at *E* where an adjunct interpretation is excluded, as in:

He was in London *reluctantly*.

Verb-phrase and predication subjuncts

8.96 In 8.1, attention was drawn to the distinction between grammatical units functioning as clause element A and the same units functioning as a *part* of a clause element. The distinction is not, however, always self-evident. Between [1], where *really* is part of C, and both [2] and [3], where *really* is not, the distinction is clear enough; but it is not easy to establish whether [4] is more like [1] or more like [2] in this respect:

She is a *really* intelligent child. [1]
She is *really* an intelligent child. [2]
She *really* is intelligent. [3]
She is *really* intelligent. [4]

Semantically, there is little to choose between regarding *really* in [4] as part of C or as a separate subjunct; nor are there convincing grammatical grounds, since (for example) it is possible for some people to front a subjunct plus C just as it is possible for everyone to front an adverbially modified C:

Really intelligent, she is! *Really* an intelligent child, she is!

But while it is significant to see the relational similarities, we shall take the position here that if, as in [4], an adverb can be interpreted as part of a structure realizing a clause element, it is not to be regarded as falling within the purview of this chapter – any more than *very beautifully* in 'a very beautifully dressed girl' or *in the garage* in 'The car in the garage is Joan's'. By contrast, *really* in [2] is a predication subjunct.

The V-element has to be treated differently from S, O, C, and A in that subjuncts must be seen both as A and as simultaneously functioning within V. We can illustrate this by contrasting two sentences with a superficially similar beginning:

Freda is $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{able.}\\ \text{an able speaker.}\end{array}\right\}$ [5]

SVC: 'Freda is (a) competent (speaker)'

Freda is able to address the meeting. [6]

SVO: 'Freda can address it'

In each case, we can introduce adverbs before *able*. But whereas in [5] they relate to the regular accretion of phrase structure within an element, in [6] they function as subjuncts, affecting the modality of the V-element. It will be noticed that some adverbs acceptable in the one are significantly disallowed in the other:

$$\left[\begin{array}{l}\text{Freda is}\\ \text{Freda is a}\end{array}\right]\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{very}\\ \text{really}\\ \text{quite}\\ \text{?perfectly}\\ \text{*well}\\ \text{*totally}\end{array}\right\}\left[\begin{array}{l}\text{able.}\\ \text{able speaker.}\end{array}\right] \quad [5a]$$

$$\text{Freda is}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{*very}\\ \text{really}\\ \text{quite}\\ \text{perfectly}\\ \text{well}\\ \text{totally}\end{array}\right\}\text{able to address the meeting.} \quad [6a]$$

Subjuncts in some verb phrases have become so institutionalized as to cause the whole sequence to be regarded as a separate unit. On modal idioms, *cf* 3.45*f*. Compare:

I would go ~ I would $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{rather}\\ \textit{sooner}\end{array}\right\}$ go.

I had *better* see a doctor.

This last example is especially clear because there is no '*I had see a doctor'.

Analogously, the subjuncts in phrasal verbs are sometimes thoroughly incorporated as part of an idiomatic whole. Contrast:

He drank (*up*) the rest of the milk.
He made *up* the rest of the story.

(*Cf* 16.3*f*)

Time-relationship subjuncts

8.97 The items to consider here are especially *already*, *still*, and *yet*, corresponding in semantic force to the time relationship adjuncts of Group (b) in 8.72. Positionally, *already* and *still* normally occur in *M*, and *yet* in *M* or *E*. These three adverbs differ from each other in usage with respect to negation and other sentence processes normally requiring nonassertives (*cf* 10.57*ff*). *Yet* is usually a nonassertive form, but it can occur in assertive verb phrases comprising modals or semi-auxiliaries (*cf* 3.21, 3.47*f*):

The first snowdrops are *yet* to appear.
I have *yet* to find out what he wants.
We may *yet* see her elected to the Senate.

Yet can be used as an assertive form also when it is closer in meaning to *still* ['even now']:

{I can see him *yet*. / I can *still* see him.} {There's plenty of time *yet*. / There's *still* plenty of time.}

Still can precede negation, but normally cannot lie within the scope of clause negation (*cf* 10.54*ff*) except in questions. On the other hand, *already* cannot come within the scope of clause negation except in questions, and it normally cannot precede negation. The possibilities for the three adverbs in declarative, negative, and interrogative sentences are given below, where the paraphrases or suggestions for context indicate semantic similarities and differences between the adverbs. Note also the cooccurrence of perfective aspect in three of the five sets.

DECLARATIVE POSITIVE

I *already* like him. ['I have by this time come to like him']
*I *yet* like him.
I *still* like him. ['I continue to like him']

DECLARATIVE NEGATIVE (adverb preceding negation)

*I *already* haven't spoken to him.
*I *yet* haven't spoken to him.
I *still* haven't spoken to him. ['I haven't spoken to him so far', implying 'even after all this time']

DECLARATIVE NEGATIVE (adverb following negation)

*He can't *already* drive.
He can't {drive *yet* / *yet* drive}. ['He can't drive up to this time' implying 'even after all this time']
?He can't *still* drive. ['He can't continue to drive' or 'Surely it is not true that he can still drive?']

INTERROGATIVE POSITIVE

Have you *already* seen him? [expecting that you have or implying that you have done so earlier than expected]
Have you seen him *yet*? ['by now': *even yet* would imply 'after all this time', balancing *already* in the previous example; thus 'I've kept asking you to see him for weeks: have you seen him *even yet*?']
Do you *still* see him? ['Do you continue to see him?']

INTERROGATIVE NEGATIVE

Haven't you seen him *already*? ['Surely you have seen him by now?']
Haven't you seen him *yet*? ['Surely you should have seen him by now?']
Don't you *still* see him? ['Surely you continue to see him?' *ie* expecting that you do]

On the nonassertives *any more* and *any longer* and the negatives *no more*, *no longer* as time-relation subjuncts, consider the following examples:

{Do you see him *any more*/*any longer*? / Do you *any longer*/**any more* see him?} [expecting that you do not]

I see him *no more*/*no longer*. ⟨formal⟩
I do not see him *any more*/*any longer*.

Note [a] The difference between *already* and *yet* in questions is that *already* expects an affirmative answer whereas *yet* leaves open whether the answer is negative or positive (*cf* 11.6*ff*), except in 'conducive' (negative) questions such as 'Haven't you seen him *yet*?'

[b] *Yet* and *still* come close in meaning in modal verb phrases:

I have *yet* to meet him. [1]
We may *yet* see her elected to the Senate. [2]
I have *still* to meet him. [1a]
We may *still* see her elected to the Senate. [2a]

Both of the sentences [1] and [1a] mean 'It remains for me to meet him', but the examples with *still* both carry the implication of an objective that is likely to be fulfilled.

[c] *Still*, *yet*, and *already* often blend concessive and temporal meanings. For example, in:

It's 11.30 p.m. and he's {*still* at work. / at work *yet*. ⟨esp dialectal⟩}
It's 5.30 a.m. but he's *already* at work.

The effect of *still* and *yet* is to express not only the continuance of the action but also to suggest that the continuance is surprising ('He's continuing even so to work'). So too, *already* expresses both the time relation ('by now') and some surprise at its realization. See also the concessive conjunct *still* (8.137).

[d] The subjunct *still* can be endorsed by *yet* at *E*, as in:

She's *still* there (even) YÈT. [but not the converse: '*She's *yet* there *still*']

Sometimes *as yet* is a more formal variant of *yet*:

I have not *as yet* decided to accept the appointment.

In other situations, *yet* and *as yet* have a quite distinct distribution:

I have {*yet* / ?**as yet*} to meet him.
Hasn't she arrived {*yet*? / ?**as yet*?}
As yet, he was only a minor official. [≠ 'Yet, he was . . .']

[e] Informally in AmE (especially in the Mid-West), *yet* at *E* can occur in assertive clauses, especially of an exclamatory kind and with *yet* having something of the function of a focusing subjunct; *cf* 8.116. For example:

Ah, so you've bought new SLIPPERS *yet*!
Everyone else turned discreetly away, but not John: John just had to turn and look *yet*!

Again in some varieties of AmE there is an exclamatory use of *any more*, with various meanings: '(even) yet; (even) now; more and more; would you believe it?' Frequently this usage amounts to little more than an expression of surprise:

Did you say 'encephalate'? What's that supposed to mean *any more*?' [approximately: 'What *on earth* does that mean?']
They're dancing in the street *any more*!
She's looking better and better *any more*!

Other time subjuncts

8.98 As well as being used for focusing and intensification (*cf* 8.116*ff*, 8.104*ff*) but in close relation to such uses, *just* (always at *M*) can express time position. With the perfective or progressive, it can mean either 'at this/that precise moment' or 'very recently':

He's *just* stopped talking.
I'm *just* finishing an article on the subject.
When I saw her, she had *just* come back.

In informal AmE, this is true also with the simple past ('Where's John?' 'He *just* went out'). More generally with the simple past, *just* means 'recently',

and with the future or present progressive it means 'very soon', in both cases frequently in association with more specific time adverbials:

She *just* spoke to me about it (a moment or so ago).
He's *just* coming (in a moment or so).

On *just* as a downtoner (diminisher), *cf* 8.111.

The combination *just now* is used at *E* for either 'very recently' or 'very soon':

I saw her *just now*. I'm / I'll be } seeing her *just now*.

(Contrast *just* + *then, right* + *now/then*, 8.116.)

Time duration is expressed (by implication) in the use of some intensifiers such as *enough*:

Have you talked to him *enough* now? ['sufficiently *long*']
We played cards *a little* last night. ['for a *short* time']
I hate having to wait *a lot* at the bank. ['a *long* time']

But it is time frequency that especially involves the use of subjuncts. For example:

She { doesn't *ever* come / *never* comes / *hardly ever* comes } to see me.
[*Cf* informally *never ever*: 'They *never ever* clean their windows'.]
They are *forever* complaining.
I am *ever* open to new ideas. ⟨formal⟩ [*always* would be more usual, and *ever* is normally nonassertive; *cf* 10.60]
I have { *rarely* / *seldom* } reviewed a more dishonest book.
They should *sometimes* give their dog a bath.

Several intensifiers (*cf* 8.104*ff*) are also used for time frequency, as in:

I used to play squash *very often* but now I don't play *much/a lot/a great deal*.
... but now I *barely/hardly/scarcely* play (*at all*).
... but now I { *hardly* / *scarcely* } *ever* play.
... and I *still* play *a little/a bit*.

Positional norms are as illustrated, but *sometimes* may also occur at *I* or *E*; *rarely* and *seldom* at *I* would usually require subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24) and at *E* would normally be rather heavily modified:

I play squash *very seldom indeed*.

Note [a] Several of these subjuncts have some of the character of adjuncts, especially when premodified or focused:
It is *very seldom* that I write poetry these days.
It was *only just now* that I remembered our appointment.
?It is *only a little* that we play bridge.

[b] In very informal use, *hardly* can be at *E* without prosodic weight:
(She used to write a lot but now) she doesn't write at ALL *hardly*. [more usual: 'she *hardly* writes at all']
There is also an informal double negative as in: 'You *can't hardly* move in this office'. [more acceptably: 'You can *hardly* move ...']

Emphasizers

8.99 There is a range of subjuncts concerned with expressing the semantic role of *modality* (*cf* 8.8) which have a reinforcing effect on the truth value of the clause or part of the clause to which they apply. In adding to the force (as distinct from the degree) of a constituent, emphasizers do not require that the constituent concerned should be gradable. When, however, the constituent emphasized is indeed gradable, the adverbial takes on the force of an intensifier (*cf* 8.104). Compare the use of *really* in the following:

He *really* may have injured innocent people. [1]
He may *really* have injured innocent people. [2]
He may have *really* injured innocent people. [3]

In [1] and [2] we have a pure emphasizer and we might paraphrase as follows:

It is *really* possible that he has injured ... [1a]
It is possible that it is *really* true that he has injured ... [2a]

With [3], however, the implication is of a high degree of injury as well as the assertion of certainty; *ie* both [3a] and [3b]:

It is possible that he has *really* [*ie* actually, indeed, certainly] injured ... [3a]
It is possible that he has *really* [*ie* seriously, to a severe extent] injured innocent people. [3b]

Note The typical emphasizer *really* illustrates both the structural equivocation discussed in 8.96 and also the inherent nature of the subjunct in being subordinated semantically to another unit in the clause (*cf* 8.88, 8.25). Thus individual speakers will vacillate as to how the emphasis may be grammatically realized, as in:

He's in a real corner.	He's really in a corner.	(?) He's in really a corner.
He's in real difficulties.	He's really in difficulties.	

8.100 Common emphasizers include:

(a) *actually, certainly, clearly, definitely, indeed, obviously, plainly, really, surely, for certain, for sure, of course*
(b) *frankly, honestly, literally, simply, fairly* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *just*

Group (a) consists mainly of items that can also function as disjuncts expressing the comment that what is being said is true (*cf* 8.127). Group (b) consists mainly of items that can also function as disjuncts conveying the speaker's assertion that his words are the unvarnished truth (*cf* 8.124). Since it is normally expected that a person intends his hearer to accept what he says as true, the addition of the comment or assertion in no way alters but merely emphasizes the truth of the communication. When these emphasizers

are positioned next to a part of the communication, without being separated intonationally or by punctuation, their effect is often to emphasize that part alone, though there may be ambivalence as to whether the emphasis is on the part or on the whole.

Examples of the use of emphasizers:

She *plainly* likes the dress.
I *honestly* don't know what he wanted.
I can't *really* believe him.
He *actually* sat next to her.
I *just* can't understand it.
They will *surely* object to his intervention.
They *literally* tore his argument to pieces. [*cf* 8.126]
They *obviously* don't want it.
He *fairly* jumped for joy. ⟨esp BrE⟩
I *simply* don't believe it.
They will warn us *for sure*.

With Group (a) should be considered responses to requests:

A: Please get me the file on Robert Schultz.
B: CÈRtainly
SÙRE ⟨esp AmE informal⟩
SÙREly ⟨esp AmE⟩
All RÍGHT
RÌGHT
ÒK
WÌLL DÓ ⟨BrE informal⟩
Very GÓOD

A: Are you willing to help her?
B: (Yes) CÈRtainly
SÙRE ⟨esp AmE informal⟩
SÙREly ⟨esp AmE⟩
Yes inDÈED
Yes YÉS
ÒK
RÌGHT ⟨esp AmE⟩
All RÍGHT [implies lack of enthusiasm]
HÄRDly
No inDÈED
Certainly NÒT
(No) NÒ

Only a few of these responses, of course, correspond directly to subjuncts in full clauses; *eg* 'I *certainly* will', 'I will *indeed*', 'I *sure* will'. It is especially with Group (a) that we should associate the asseveratives of very informal speech. Consider the following rather angry exchange:

A: You altered the clock.
B: I didn't! I *never even* touched it.
A: You DÌD.

As well as this last response we might find:

You did *sò*. ⟨informal, esp by children⟩
You *certainly* DÌD.
You *darned well* DÌD. ⟨very informal⟩

Cf also the following, all very informal:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Who}\\\text{What}\\\text{Where}\\\text{Why}\\\text{How}\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{the hell}\\\text{the blazes}\\\text{on earth}\\\text{in heaven}\\\text{in (the) hell}\end{array}\right\}[+\text{ question }+]\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{for goodness' sake}\\\text{for pity's sake}\end{array}\right\}?$$

For example:

Why on earth did you alter the CLÒCK *for goodness' sake*?

Other types of utterance with subjunct asseveratives include the very informal:

I told them to *darned well* go. [*cf* 8.21]

I told them to get their car $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{the hell}\\\textit{to hell}\end{array}\right\}$ out of my drive.

Note [a] For some speakers, *plain* can informally function as a subjunct ('He's *plain* dishonest'), but more usually the informal version would be *just plain*, as in 'He's just plain dishÒNest' (*Cf* 8.96).
[b] The subjunct *sure* in 'I *sure* will' ⟨esp AmE⟩ is to be distinguished from the two adjectival uses:
I am *sure* of winning. ['I feel confident that I shall win']
I am *sure* to win. ['There is widespread confidence that I shall win']
[c] In Group (a), *for certain* and *for sure* cannot function as disjuncts of comment (among other things, they are only rarely positioned initially) but are obviously related to *certainly* and *surely* respectively in their emphasizer uses. In Group (b), *fairly* ⟨esp BrE⟩ and *just* cannot function as speaker's authority disjuncts. However, *fairly* can be related to the set of such disjuncts *to be fair*, *to put it fairly*, etc, for which there happens to be no corresponding adverb, while an association can be seen between *simply* in *Simply tell him he's wrong*, disjunct; *I am speaking simply*, process adjunct, 'in a simple manner'; *I simply say*, restrictive focusing subjunct (*cf* 8.116*ff*), 'merely', 'only', 'just'; and *just* in *I just say*, restrictive subjunct.
[d] On the use of *literally*, *cf* 8.126.

Cooccurrence restrictions on emphasizers

8.101 While emphasizers in Group (a) seem to be free to cooccur with any verb or predication, those in Group (b) tend to be limited. For example, *fairly* ⟨esp BrE⟩ and *absolutely* require some suggestion of exaggeration in the predication:

In her anger, she $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{fairly}\ \langle\text{esp BrE}\rangle\\\textit{absolutely}\end{array}\right\}$ screamed at him.

*In her anger, she $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{fairly}\ \langle\text{esp BrE}\rangle\\\textit{absolutely}\end{array}\right\}$ spoke to him.

On the other hand, *honestly* tends to cooccur with verbs expressing attitude or cognition:

They *honestly* admire her courage.

He *honestly* believes their accusation.
?*In her anger, she *honestly* screamed at him. [≠ disjunct (*cf* Note) as in 'I am honestly telling you . . .']

When some emphasizers are used with gradable verbs they may also have a scaling effect akin to that of boosters (*cf* 8.105):

He *really* likes her. ['He likes her very much']
I *indeed* appreciate your help. ['I *greatly* appreciate your help']
He *definitely* impressed them. ['He impressed them *greatly*']

But unlike the boosters, these have of course a reinforcing and emphatic effect with nongradable verbs too:

He *really* was there. We *definitely* saw it.
She *indeed* sat next to them.

Other emphasizers tend to have a scaling effect more readily with gradable words that are adjectives and nouns (*cf* 7.4):

She is *certainly* intelligent. ['She is *very* intelligent']
I was *frankly* appalled at his attitude. ['I was *absolutely* appalled']
He's *obviously* a fool. ['He's a *big* fool']
He's *clearly* a dangerous man. ['He's a *very* dangerous man']

The scaling effect of *really* and *indeed* is more obvious with adjectives:

It was *really* funny.
He's dangerous *indeed*. [mannered without a correlating *very*: 'very dangerous *indeed*']

Speakers may vary in the extent to which they feel that all or some of these emphasizers have a scaling effect.

Note If *honestly* is used as in '*Honestly*, she screamed at him', the adverbial is a disjunct (*cf* 8.124), asserting the speaker's good faith in making the statement rather than emphasizing the particular choice of words in the predication. A move to *I* would likewise change the relationship in respect of several other items illustrated in the examples (*eg*: *frankly*); so too would a move to *E*, where the disjunct would require a separate intonation nucleus: 'She SCRÈAMED at him FRÁNKly', 'She SCRÈAMED at him[HÒNestly].'

Syntactic features of emphasizers

8.102 Most emphasizers normally precede the item they emphasize (*iM*, *M*, *eM* positions in respect of verb phrases, *cf* 8.14*ff*), and *for certain* and *for sure* are exceptional in being at *E*. As subjuncts, emphasizers differ from adjuncts in several ways. They cannot be contrasted with one another in alternative interrogation or alternative negation; they cannot be the focus of focusing subjuncts or of a cleft sentence, nor (in the case of the adverbs) can they be the focus of clause comparison or be premodified by *however*, *how*, or *so*. Many can, however, come within the scope of predication pro-forms or ellipsis; for example:

Joan will {*certainly* / *surely*} object and so will Mary.
[= 'it is equally *certain*/*sure* that Mary will object']

As several of the examples in 8.100 show, most emphasizers can precede a negated verb phrase, except for *fairly* ⟨esp BrE⟩:

They *fairly* danced for joy at the news. ⟨esp BrE⟩
*They *fairly* didn't dance for joy at the news.

Several items tend to cooccur with clausal negation and precede the verb phrase in such a case, in particular *honestly*, *just*, *simply*.

Five emphasizers can lie within the scope of clause negation, and the last two listed are normally thus, since they are placed at *E*:

actually, *definitely*, *really*, *for certain*, *for sure*

All of them can become the focus of negation:

I don't *RĚALLY* know him.
He didn't *ĂCTually* sit next to her.
They don't *DĚFinitely* want it.
They don't know *for CĚRtain*.
I can't tell you *for SŬRE*.

Since *actually*, *definitely*, and *really* can also lie outside the scope of clause negation, we have a contrast between the two possibilities, the scope of negation being marked by the horizontal bracket (*cf* 10.64):

I really don't know him. ['The real truth is that I don't know him', *ie* 'I don't know him *at all*']
I don't really know him. ['It's not the real truth that I know him', *ie* 'I don't know him *well*']
He actually didn't sit next to her. ['The actual fact is that he didn't sit next to her']
He didn't actually sit next to her. ['It's not an actual fact that he sat next to her']
They definitely don't want it. ['It's definite that they don't want it']
They don't definitely want it. ['It's not definite that they want it']

All the emphasizers except *certainly* and *surely* (and for most speakers *fairly* too) can appear in a question; compare:

Do they {**certainly* / **surely* / *definitely* / *really*} want him to be elected?

In general, the emphasizers do not appear with imperatives, but some people use *actually*, *definitely*, and *really* with imperatives:

Don't *actually* hate him for it – it wasn't really his fault.
Definitely buy one now.
Make an effort this time; but *really* make an effort.

Note The informal phrase *all right* can be a process adjunct (*cf* 8.79) as in 'Did she manage to find the place *all right*?'; a content disjunct (*cf* 8.127*ff*) as in 'All RIGHT, she's a good STÙDent' (*ie* 'I grant you'); and also an emphasizer subjunct as in:
She's a good STÙDent, all RIGHT, ['She's certainly a good student']

The subjunct may relate to a specific element, as to the time adjunct in:

She won't worry unless you hurt yourself. THÈN she'll worry all RÍGHT.

[= 'Then {CÈRtainly / inDÈED} she'll worry']

8.103 The emphasizers either cannot be modified or are unlikely to be modified; an exception is *definitely*, which is sometimes premodified by *quite* or *very*.

Certain emphasizers not listed in 8.100 appear in restricted environments:

(i) *Always* when preceded by *can* or *could* must be in a positive declarative clause:

You can *always* sleep on the FLÓOR. ['You can certainly . . .']

The possibility of adding to this sentence an adverbial referring to a specific future time such as *tonight* or *just for one night* rules out the temporal meaning of *always*. By contrast, if the clause is negative, the temporal meaning alone is activated and the item is no longer a subjunct:

You can't *ÀLways* sleep on the FLÓOR.

[= 'You can't sleep on the floor *on all occasions*']

(ii) Unmodified *well* when preceded by *can, could, may*, or *might* must be in a positive declarative clause; the effect is to imply probability where the auxiliary alone connoted only possibility:

It {*may* / *might* / *can* / *could*} *well* be true that he beat her. [= 'It may indeed . . .' or even 'It is quite likely to be true . . .']

Note also with fronting (*cf* 18.20):

She hopes they will respond gratefully {{and / as} *well* they *may*. / which they *may well* do.}

This would imply 'should', and (especially with *as*) there would be little difference in meaning if the example ended '. . . as *well* they *ought/should*' – although, without fronting, *well* does not thus cooccur with *ought* or *should*:

*He {*should* / *ought*} *well* . . .

With some verbs, there are other restrictions on the auxiliaries admitted:

He {*may* / *might* / ?**can* / *could*} *well* attend the meeting instead of me.

['He may surely . . .', 'He can very easily . . .']

On the other hand, intensified by *very*, the subjunct usage has no such restriction to positive clauses or to certain verbs:

He {*can* / *can't*} *very well* attend the meeting.

['He surely can . . .', 'He surely can't . . .', 'He can't very easily . . .']

(iii) *Necessarily* is an emphasizer when preceded by *must*:

A school teacher who wishes to be honest *must necessarily* prepare her lessons. ['must inevitably']

Otherwise, *necessarily* is an adjunct of contingency which tends to cooccur with the clausal negative particle:

That doesn't {*necessarily* follow. / follow *necessarily*.} ['That doesn't follow inevitably']

(iv) *Needs* ⟨rare, literary⟩ has to be preceded or followed by *must* in a positive declarative or interrogative clause:

That *must needs* be their intention. ['must inevitably']

Note [a] *Indeed* can be postposed:

I appreciate your help *inDÈED*. ⟨rather formal or old-fashioned⟩

This is more common with adjectives (particularly if they are modified by another intensifier) and nouns with indefinite article:

He was very happy *inDÈED*.
It was a sacrifice *inDÈED*.
She became a much abler doctor *inDÈED*.

In some of these examples, *indeed* is functioning as an intensifier: 'very happy indeed'.

Contrast, with *indeed* as conjunct:

He was very HÀPpy, inDÉED. (*or* . . . HÀPpy, indeed.)
She became a much abler DÒCtor, inDÉED. (*or* . . ., indeed.)
It was a SÀCrifice, inDÉED. (*or* . . ., indeed.)

[b] *Readily, easily, with ease*, and *comfortably* (especially when in *M* position) come close to being emphasizers. *Easily* tends to cooccur with the modal auxiliaries. For example:

They *readily* admitted their guilt.
They might *easily* have been arrested. [*cf* 'might *well* . . .']
We will *comfortably* finish on time.

Contrast these with the manner adjunct *easily* and the manner/result adjunct *comfortably* in:

He answers questions *readily*. ['in a ready and cooperative way']
Are you sitting *comfortably*? ['in such a way that you are comfortable']

Intensifiers

8.104 The intensifier subjuncts are broadly concerned with the semantic category of DEGREE (*cf* 8.9). It should be noted that the term 'intensifier' does not refer only to means whereby an *increase* in intensification is expressed. Rather, an intensifying subjunct indicates a point on an abstractly conceived intensity scale; and the point indicated may be relatively low or relatively high. The scale is seen as applying to a predicate or to some part of a predicate, such as the predication, the verb phrase, or even an item within the verb phrase (*cf* 8.96). The verbs in question are largely expressive of attitude.

It is useful to distinguish two subsets of intensifiers:

(I) AMPLIFIERS { Maximizers (*eg*: *completely*) / Boosters (*eg*: *very much*) }

(II) DOWNTONERS
- Approximators (*eg*: *almost*)
- Compromisers (*eg*: *more or less*)
- Diminishers (*eg*: *partly*)
- Minimizers (*eg*: *hardly*)

Amplifiers scale upwards from an assumed norm; downtoners have a lowering effect, usually scaling downwards from an assumed norm. Such scaling requires that the item or unit to which the intensifier applies is gradable. The subtypes provide nothing more than a rough guide to semantic distinctions, because (i) the varying effects of intensifiers represent a semantic gradient, which is obscured by a clear-cut division into classes; (ii) some intensifiers are sometimes used for different effects; and (iii) speakers vary in their use of intensifiers.

Intensification is realized for the most part by adverbs, but occasionally also by noun phrases and prepositional phrases.

Note [a] On the relation between 'fully approve' and 'full approval' etc, *cf* App I.71 Note [b]. For intensifying adjectives, *cf* 7.33*f*. For modifying adverbs as intensifiers, *cf* 7.87*ff*.
[b] For gradability with reference to adjectives and adverbs, *cf* 7.4.

Amplifiers

8.105 Amplifiers scale upwards. They are divided into (a) MAXIMIZERS, which can denote the upper extreme of the scale, and (b) BOOSTERS, which denote a high degree, a high point on the scale. Both subsets, but especially boosters, form open classes, and new expressions are frequently created to replace older ones whose impact follows the trend of hyperbole in rapidly growing ineffectual.

Most amplifiers can be contrasted in alternative negation with *to some extent*, and this propensity is a semantic test for their inclusion in the class of amplifiers:

He didn't ignore my request *completely*, but he did ignore it *to some extent*.
They don't admire his music *greatly*, but they do admire it *to some extent*.

By contrast, emphasizers (*cf* 8.99*ff*) cannot be so used:

*He didn't *really* ignore my request, but he did ignore it *to some extent*.
*They don't *definitely* admire his music, but they do admire it to *some extent*.

Common amplifiers, within the two subclasses (*cf* 8.104), include:

(a) MAXIMIZERS
absolutely, *altogether*, *completely*, *entirely*, *extremely*, *fully*, *perfectly*, *quite* (contrast compromiser use, 8.111), *thoroughly*, *totally*, *utterly*; *in all respects*; the intensifying use of *most* (*cf* 7.87). For example:

They *fully* appreciate our problems.
They *thoroughly* disapprove of his methods.

They *totally* believed in the leader's integrity.
He has *completely* ignored my request.
I can *perfectly* see why you are anxious about it.
She *entirely* agrees with you.
We *utterly* deplore his tactics.
I enjoyed the play *extremely*.
I must *absolutely* refuse to listen to your grumbling.
She will *altogether* reject such views.
I *quite* forgot about her birthday.
He paid for the damage *fully*.
She hasn't closed the door *completely*.
I *most* appreciate your kindness.

(b) BOOSTERS
badly, *bitterly*, *deeply*, *enormously*, *far*, *greatly*, *heartily*, *highly*, *intensely*, *much*, *severely*, *so*, *strongly*, *terribly*, *violently*, *well*; *a great deal*, *a good deal*, *a lot*, *by far*; exclamatory *how*; the intensifying use of *more* (*cf* 7.85 Note [b])

Cf also *actively* (engaged in), *hard* (at work), 'working hard', where '(She's) at work' would connote spatial position.

For example:

They *greatly* admire his music.
I need a drink *badly*,
They like her *very much*.
They resent him *deeply*.
He must have *bitterly* regretted his mistake many times.
I *much* prefer the old methods.
I *so* wanted to see her. ['I wanted to see her very much']
His results will have *far* exceeded his expectations.
We all know him *well*.
They annoy me *a great deal*.
We miss our old friends *a lot*. ⟨informal⟩
How they suffered! ['How very much they suffered!']
I used to concentrate on Brahms but now I *more* enjoy Beethoven.

The distinction between maximizers and boosters is not a hard and fast one. In particular, when maximizers are in *M* position they often express a very high degree, whereas when they are in *E* position they are more likely to convey their absolute meaning of extreme degree. For example, many speakers may see very little difference in force between the maximizer *utterly* and the booster *violently* when these are in *M* position:

They {*utterly* / *violently*} detested him.

Speakers vary in the extent to which they give a seriously hyperbolic reading to the maximizer. The tendency to use the maximizer for merely a high degree is especially great for attitudinal verbs such as *detest*.

Note In somewhat old-fashioned informal BrE, *rather* functions as an exclamatory booster: 'Did you enjoy the party?' '*RÄther*!' (sometimes '*RaTHÉR*').

Modification and comparison of maximizers

8.106 If the maximizers are interpreted as expressing the absolute extreme on a scale, they cannot themselves be modified or compared for degree. Modification and comparison cannot apply to prepositional phrases or to most adverbs that do not end in *-ly* (*altogether, quite, most*). With the other adverbs there is considerable variation in usage, with the semantic class of verb as a further variable. We exemplify the variation by taking the first nine sentences in 8.105 that illustrate the use of maximizers as tested for modification and comparison. Let us consider four possibilities:

(i) premodification of the maximizer by *how*, introducing a question or exclamation, *eg*:

How thoroughly do they disapprove of his methods?
How utterly we deplore his tactics!

(ii) premodification of the maximizer by *however* to form the opening of a dependent adverbial clause, *eg*:

However totally they believed in the leader's integrity, they were prepared to examine his actions dispassionately.

(iii) the maximizer as the focus of clause comparison, *eg*:

He ignored my request *more completely than she did.*

(iv) premodification of the maximizer by *very*, *eg*:

They *very fully* appreciate our problems.

Table 8.106a Modification and comparison of maximizers

	(i) *how*	(ii) *however*	(iii) *more than*	(iv) *very*
fully	+	+	+	+
thoroughly	+	+	+	+
totally	+	+	+	?
completely	+	+	+	?
perfectly	+	+	?	?
entirely	+	+	?	–
utterly	+	+	–	–
extremely	?	?	–	–
absolutely	–	–	–	–

Table 8.106a gives the results of the testing. As can be seen from the results, it is possible to use *fully* and *thoroughly* to denote a very high point on the scale, but only *absolutely* is felt to be absolute, marking the absolute extreme of intensification and hence not susceptible itself of modification. The queries in the *Table* indicate an area of divided usage. There is a prescriptive tradition forbidding the use of *very* or the comparative with *completely* and *perfectly*, as well as with their respective adjective forms.

Note Indeed, similar restrictions on modification and comparison apply to the adjective bases of these adverbs, though they are not identical. *Table* 8.106b lists these adjective bases and shows the results of tests on them for modification by *more* and by *very*. Modification by *how* and *however* coincides with that by *more*.

Table 8.106b Modification and comparison of adjective bases of maximizers

	more	*very*
full	+	+
thorough	+	+
total	?	–
complete	?	?
perfect	?	?
entire	–	–
utter	?	–
extreme	?	?
absolute	?	–

The queries represent in part divided usage. But the acceptability of the modifiers with these intensifying adjectives (*cf* 7.33*f*) also depends on the noun. If the noun is abstract and derived from a verb, it seems more acceptable to modify the adjective by *more* or *very*. Contrast:

I have never seen a more complete { *investigation.* / ?*fool.* }
He has a very perfect { ?*understanding* of the problem. / ?**right* to do what he likes. }

The item may also occur as other than an intensifying adjective and there need not then be any problem of modification:

She expressed *very extreme* views.
Her views on the subject are *more extreme* than mine. } [*extreme* = 'not moderate']

Cooccurrence restrictions on amplifiers

8.107 Certain amplifiers tend to cooccur predominantly with certain verbs; for example:

I *entirely* + agree
We *badly* + need, want
I *completely* + forget [*cf* also, informally, 'I *clean* forgot!']
They *greatly* + admire, enjoy

In some cases, the amplifiers cooccur with a semantic class of verbs, for example *greatly* with verbs having a favourable implication and *utterly* with verbs having an unfavourable implication. Some intensifiers, such as *deeply*, tend to occur with attitudinal verbs (*cf* 8.101):

They wounded him *deeply*. [would usually refer to emotional wounding]
They wounded him *badly*. [would usually refer to physical wounding]

Even when there is an item-class selectivity, the amplifier may not cooccur with all the items in the class. We have:

deeply + hate, dislike, admire, love, value, regret

but not:

**deeply* + like, prefer, favour

Further investigation may also show that semantically-definable classes of

amplifiers tend to cooccur with semantically-definable classes of verbs.

But the situation can be even more complicated. Sometimes there are syntactic conditions for certain types of lexical cooccurrence. *Much* is largely used in nonassertives, unless premodified:

*She likes him *much*.

She likes him { *very* / *so* / *too* } *much*.

I don't *much* care for Max Bruch.

Do you like him *much*? / I don't like him *much*. } [though 'very much' would be more usual]

Yet with some verbs, unpremodified *much* can be used, but only in *M* position:

We *much* { prefer his offer. / admire your technique. / appreciate your invitation. / regret the inconvenience. }

*We { prefer his offer / admire your technique / appreciate your invitation / regret the inconvenience } *much*. [where 'very much' would be fully acceptable]

Note [a] *Very much* is another example of where it is possible to select the gradable sense of a verb. While:

They missed her.

is ambiguous between the 'emotive' sense ('feel sorry or unhappy at the loss or absence of') and the sense of 'arriving too late for', the addition of *very much* allows only the emotive sense:

They *very much* missed her.

They missed her *very much*.

Where the emotive sense would not be normal, *very much* cannot be added:

*They got up late, and so they { *very much* missed the bus. / missed the bus *very much*. }

Compare also:

He *very much* expected trouble at the meeting.

?*He *very much* expected a 14 bus but it turned out to be a 73.

She *very much* appears to be in trouble.

?*She *very much* appears in public.

[b] The colloquial *n't half* ⟨esp BrE⟩ tends to cooccur with predications already implying high or low intensification:

She does*n't half* swear. ['She swears a great deal']

It's *not half* cold today.

It has*n't half* been cold today.

As well as being an amplifier, this phrase can be used (noncolloquially and more literally) as a downtoner; compare:

I'm not HÀLF 'satisfied. ['I am only partially satisfied']

I'm not †half SÀTisfied. ['I am highly satisfied'] } ⟨informal, esp dialectal⟩

Your new suit isn't half BÀD. ['I like it']

8.108 Amplifiers cooccur only with gradable verbs, and when adverbial items of the same form cooccur with nongradable verbs they do not function as amplifiers, but as quantifiers, duratives, or frequentatives (*cf* 8.115), or as process adjuncts (*cf* 8.78*ff*):

She drinks milk *a lot*. ['often']

He will judge us *severely*. ['in a severe manner']

However, a nongradable verb can become gradable when the focus is on the result of the process rather than on the process itself. For example, if the perfective particle *up* is added to *drink* or the perfective aspect of the verb is used, the focus is on the result, and an amplifier such as *completely* can cooccur with *drink*:

He drank up his beer *completely*.

He has *completely* drunk his beer.

Similarly, while *judge* is nongradable, *misjudge* is gradable, since *misjudge* is concerned with the result of the judging and is also susceptible of an evaluative meaning:

*He { *very much* / *badly* } judged the situation.

He { *very much* / *badly* } misjudged the situation.

And if *badly* is used with *judge*, it is interpreted as a process adjunct (perhaps expressing a blend of process with result) and must be put in *E* position:

He judged the situation *badly*. ['in a way that was bad and with bad results']

Note [a] The perfective particles with certain verbs function as amplifying subjuncts (*cf* also 8.33):

He drank (*up*) his beer.

[b] The gradable/nongradable distinction (*cf* 7.4) between *judge* and *misjudge* is found in other morphologically-related verbs:

NONGRADABLE	GRADABLE
calculate	miscalculate
estimate	overestimate, underestimate
rate	overrate, underrate
represent	misrepresent
behave	misbehave
manage	mismanage

Positions of amplifiers

8.109 *M* and *E* positions are open to most adverbs that are amplifiers; noun phrases and prepositional phrases are restricted to *E* position. In positive declarative clauses, *M* position is favoured for both boosters and maximizers when we want to express a scaling upwards, but *E* position is preferred for maximizers when we want to denote the absolute upper extreme of the scale. Hence, the effect of the maximizer *completely* in *M* position in:

He *completely* denied it.

is close to that of the booster *strongly* or the emphasizer *really*, which can have a scaling effect similar to that of boosters (*cf* 8.101):

He $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{strongly}\\ \textit{really}\end{matrix}\right\}$ denied it.

On the other hand, when *completely* is in *E* position:

He denied it *completely*.

the intention seems to be closer to:

He denied it *in every respect*.

Where the absolute meaning is expected, some people find only *E* position acceptable:

?He *completely* dissected the animal.
?They *completely* divided up the money.
He dissected the animal *completely*. ['into all the prescribed parts']
They divided up the money *completely*. ['the whole of the money']

We can also contrast the probable interpretations of *violently* in the two positions shown in:

They *violently* attacked him.
They attacked him *violently*.

In *M* position, *violently* is likely to be interpreted as a booster ['strongly'] and *attacked* will then be equivalent to 'condemned', a verbal assault. On the other hand, when *violently* is in *E* position, we are likely to interpret it literally ['with violence'] as a manner process adjunct (*cf* 8.79), with *attacked* now referring to physical assault.

In negative, interrogative, and imperative clauses, *E* position is normal in all cases.

Note [a] The subjuncts *extremely*, *most*, and (when no comparative clause follows) *more* are usually in *E* position. Exclamatory *how*, of course, appears only at *I*.
[b] Some boosters (including *well*) occasionally appear in *iM* position, usually (but not necessarily) when they are themselves intensified or before an emphatic auxiliary and especially when the utterances follow an associated statement; these subjuncts might thus be seen as subject-oriented (*cf* 8.92):
A: I'd prefer to see them tomorrow.
B: And I| very MUCH| would prefer to see them tomorrow.
Cf also:
I *so* did want to meet them.
I *well* can understand your problem.
For some speakers, *iM* position is common for *very much* in *very much would like*, though others find it odd:
?I *very much* would like to speak to you sometime today.
In all these examples, *M* would be far more usual as in: 'I would *very much* prefer . . .', 'I did *so* want . . .' etc.

Syntactic features of amplifiers

8.110 Amplifiers can be contrasted with other intensifiers in alternative interrogation and negation, and they can come within the scope of predication proforms or ellipsis. On the other hand, they cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence:

*It was *completely* that he ignored your request.

But for some people, they can be the focus of a cleft sentence if they are modified or if the focal clause is interrogative or negative (*cf* 8.113, 8.83):

?Was it *completely* that he ignored your request?
?I know that it wasn't *entirely* that he agreed with us.
?I wonder how *fully* it was that they appreciated your problems.

Most boosters accept comparison and modification, but maximizers vary in this respect (*cf* 8.106).

Amplifiers do not usually serve as a response to a *How*-question, though they can if the verb in the question has to do with general evaluation:

*How do they admire his music? (They admire it) $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{Very much.}\\ \textit{Greatly.}\end{matrix}\right.$

How do you like it? (I like it) $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{Very much.}\\ \textit{?Greatly.}\end{matrix}\right.$

They can often be evoked by *How much*:

How much do they admire his music? (They admire it) *Greatly*.

Note Other question forms eliciting amplifiers are *To what extent . . . ? How far (do you think . . .)? What do you think of . . .?*

Downtoners

8.111 Downtoners have a generally lowering effect on the force of the verb or predication and many of them apply a scale to gradable verbs. They can be divided into four groups (*cf* 8.104):

(a) APPROXIMATORS serve to express an approximation to the force of the verb, while indicating that the verb concerned expresses more than is relevant.
(b) COMPROMISERS have only a slight lowering effect and tend, as with (a), to call in question the appropriateness of the verb concerned.
(c) DIMINISHERS scale downwards and roughly mean 'to a small extent'.
(d) MINIMIZERS are negative maximizers, '(not) to any extent'.

Groups (a) and (b) should be compared with disjuncts of metalinguistic comment, *cf* 8.126.

The four groups represent semantic distinctions among downtoners, both in the force of downtoning and in combining this aspect with questioning the expression in (a) and (b) as distinct from a simpler grading of intensity in (c) and (d). But the assignment of individual downtoners to particular groups would vary from speaker to speaker.

Common downtoners include:

(a) APPROXIMATORS
almost, *nearly*, *practically* ⟨informal⟩, *virtually*, *as good as* ⟨informal⟩, *all but*
For example:

I *almost* resigned.
He *virtually* dictated the terms of the settlement.
They *practically* forced him to resign.
They *as good as* ruined the school.
She *all but* kissed us.

(b) COMPROMISERS
kind of ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩
sort of ⟨informal⟩
quite [contrast maximizer use with nongradables, *cf* 8.105]
rather
enough, sufficiently, more or less

For example:
I *kind of* like him. ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩ [on positioning of *kind of*, *cf* 7.64]
As he was walking along, he *sort of* stumbled and seemed ill. ⟨informal⟩
I *quite* enjoyed the party, but I've been to better ones. ⟨esp BrE⟩
I'm sure you'll like her *enough* to invite her to your party.
He *more or less* resented their interference.

(c) DIMINISHERS
These may be divided as between (i) the EXPRESSION diminishers which seek to express only part of the potential force of the item concerned, and (ii) the ATTITUDE diminishers which seek to imply that the force of the item concerned is limited. With (ii) should be compared the restrictive subjuncts (*cf* 8.116).

(i) *mildly, partially, partly, quite, slightly, somewhat; in part, in some respects, to some extent; a bit, a little, least (of all)*
(ii) *only, merely, simply; just* ⟨informal⟩, *but* ⟨formal and rather archaic⟩

For example:
(i) The incident *somewhat* influenced his actions in later life.
We know them *slightly*.
I *partly* agree with you.
They have always *mildly* disliked him.
I can admire his courage *to some extent*.
(ii) I was *only* joking.
It was *merely* a matter of finance.
She'll *just* be out for a few minutes.
It seems *but* yesterday.

(d) MINIMIZERS
negatives: *barely, hardly, little, scarcely*;
nonassertives: *in the least, in the slightest, at all, a bit*

For example:
She *scarcely* knows me.
I didn't enjoy it *in the least*.
He *little* realizes what trouble he has caused.
They don't support her *at all*.

I don't like his attitude *a bit*.
We don't mind *in the slightest*.

There are several noun phrases that can be minimizers only in negative clauses *eg*:

I didn't sleep *a wink* last night.
I don't owe you *a thing*. } ⟨informal⟩

Cf 10.62 for other examples.

Note [a] For the distinction between *little* and *a little*, *cf* 5.23*f*.
[b] Some speakers use *kind of* and *sort of* as approximators with nongradable verbs:
He *sort of* smiled at us. ['You could almost say he smiled at us']
He *kind of* grunted. ['You could almost say he grunted']
When they are used as approximators, we can say (*cf* 8.112):
He *sort of* smiled at us, but in fact it was more like a sneer.
For other speakers, they are always nearer to *more or less* than to *almost*. Both uses are very informal and *kind of* is especially common in AmE. Somewhat more informally still, these items can be at *E*: 'I'm puzzled, *sort of*'.
[c] As well as being a maximizer (*cf* 8.105), especially with units that are either nongradable or are seen as being at the end of the scale (*quite perfect*), we see that *quite*, apparently contradictorily, has two further roles, whether used as a modifier (*cf* 7.56, 7.63) or as an adverbial. As compromiser, it is usually stressed only lightly; as diminisher, it is heavily stressed or actually made nuclear; with verbs, the usage is especially BrE. For example:
The book is quite GÒOD. [compromiser or amplifier]
It seems that they quite LÌKE her. [compromiser]
The book is QUÍTE GÓOD.
It seems that they QUÍTE LÍKE her. } [diminisher: *cf* 18.17]
There is however considerable variation idiolectically. Note that with negatives, only the maximizer use is found: 'She didn't *quite* approve'.

8.112 Approximators differ from most other downtoners in that they imply a denial of the truth value of what is denoted by the verb. Hence we can say, with the approximator *almost*:

I *almost* resigned (but in fact I didn't resign).

But we cannot deny in this way the truth value of what is said when we use most other downtoners:

*I *kind of* like him (but in fact I don't like him).
*We know them *slightly* (but in fact we don't know them).

The minimizers differ from other downtoners in providing a modification towards a version that is more strictly true rather than a denial of the truth value of what has been said:

She { *scarcely* / *hardly* } knows me (– in fact she doesn't know me).

I can *barely* understand him (– in fact I can't understand him).
He *little* realizes the trouble he has caused (– in fact he doesn't realize it).

In each case, the second clause turns the partial denial in the first clause into admitting a full denial.

Compromisers reach out towards an assumed norm but at the same time reduce the force of the verb. Consider the following:

I *kind of* like him. ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩
I *rather* like him. ⟨esp BrE⟩

In saying either of these, we do not deny liking him. But we seem to be rather deprecating and grudging: 'I might go as far as to say I like him'.

The difference between diminishers and minimizers is not the nearness to the bottom of the scale, though most minimizers are indeed near the bottom. They are distinguished in their behaviour with respect to negation. The effect of negation is to deny the truth value of what is denoted by the verb:

They didn't praise him *in the SLÌGHTest*. ['They didn't praise him']
We don't like it *a BÌT*. ['We don't like it']

Diminishers are not usually the focus of negation, but when they are, the effect is to push the scaling towards the top. For example, with fall-rise nuclei:

They didn't praise him *SLǏGHTly*. ['They praised him a lot']
We don't like it *a LǏTtle*. ['We like it a lot']

Four of the minimizers – *barely*, *hardly*, *little*, *scarcely* – form a subgroup. They are themselves negative (*cf* 10.59, 10.64) and cannot be negated. On the rare occasions when they are positioned initially, there is subject–operator inversion. Of these four, *hardly*, *scarcely*, and *barely* can cooccur with nonassertives or with minimizers like *a thing*:

They {*scarcely* / *hardly* / *barely*} need {it *at all*. / *a thing*.}

I *scarcely* slept *a wink*.

For some people, the cooccurrence of these nonassertives or minimizers is marginally acceptable with *barely*.

Certain minimizers not listed above appear in restricted environments (*cf* 8.103):

(i) *possibly* and *conceivably*, when they operate upon *can* or *could* in nonassertive clauses:

They *can't possibly* leave now. ['They can't under any circumstances leave now']
Can he *conceivably* want to see me? ['Is it possible to imagine that he wants . . . ?']

This use of *possibly* and *conceivably* is to be distinguished from their use as disjuncts (*cf* 8.127). Contrast:

They can't *possibly* leave now. [minimizer]
They *possibly* can't leave now. [disjunct – 'It's possible that they can't leave now']

(ii) *never* is a negative minimizer in:

You will *never* catch the train tonight. ['You will not under any circumstances catch the train tonight']

The presence of an adverbial referring to a specific future time such as *tonight* rules out the temporal meaning of *never* (*cf*: *always* in 8.103). In nonassertive clauses *ever* (with some retention of temporal meaning) can replace *never* as minimizer; this is common, for instance, in rhetorical questions:

Will they (*n*)*ever* stop talking? Won't they *ever* learn?
(*Won't they *never* learn?)
I wondered if the train would (*n*)*ever* arrive.

Note Informally, in some AmE, we have *like to* as an approximator, especially in past-tense environments:
When he saw all the blood, he *like to* fainted. ['he nearly fainted']
Cf in more widespread informal use: 'They *damn near* killed themselves in that accident.'

Syntactic features of downtoners

8.113 Some downtoners can lie within the scope of clause interrogation and negation, but not the compromisers *kind of*, *sort of*, *rather*, *more or less*; the minimizer negatives; or most approximators. The focus of clause negation can be on the compromiser *quite*, the diminishers, and the approximators *almost* and *nearly*, but only when the negation is a denial of a previous assertion. For example:

A: He almost crashed his car.
B: He didn't ǍLmost crash| He CRÀSHED|

Contrast in alternative interrogation or negation seems possible only for the compromisers *enough* and *sufficiently*, for the diminishers, and for the approximators *almost* and *nearly*.

Downtoners come within the scope of predication pro-forms and of ellipsis. Some downtoners can be focused by *only*; these include all the diminishers of subset (ci) in 8.111 (excluding *least*), and the minimizers *barely* and *a bit*. The same downtoners can be the focus of a cleft sentence under the same conditions as for amplifiers (*cf* 8.110). None of the downtoners can be the focus of *also*. Only diminisher adverbs and the minimizer *little* can be the focus of clause comparison or be premodified.

A few downtoners can precede a negative verb phrase:

I *almost* didn't meet him.
She *kind of* wasn't listening.
He *sort of* didn't want to say anything about it.
} ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩

Many downtoners can serve as the response to a question introduced by *how much*, etc (*cf* 8.110 Note). These include *enough* (but only a few of the compromisers), the nonassertive minimizers (unless preceded by *not*), and none of the approximators.

On a use of *rather* as a booster, *cf* 8.105 Note.

Positions of downtoners

8.114 Most downtoners favour *eM* position and some are restricted to it:

quite, rather, as good as, all but

Thus:

He must have been *rather* in a difficulty.
She may have *as good as* finished the painting by now. ⟨informal⟩
She had *all but* finished the painting when the burglary took place.
*She may *all but* have finished . . .

Others tend to be restricted either to *M* or *iM*:

barely, hardly, scarcely, practically, virtually

For example:

He could *hardly* be described as an expert.
She will *virtually* have finished by the time they arrive.
She *scarcely* has had any sleep. [less usual than 'has *scarcely* had']

On the other hand, *iM* is unacceptable to many people:

?He *hardly* could be described as an expert.
?She *virtually* will have finished by the time they arrive.

A few downtoners are restricted to *M* in a positive clause, but can be at *iM* in a negative one (*cf* 8.113):

kind of, sort of, almost, nearly

A few others favour *E* position:

a bit, at all

or are largely restricted to *E*:

enough, a little, and the emphatic "*one bit*

For example:

She didn't like the play {"*one* / *a*} BIT.
I will try and help them *a little*.

On the other hand, a few diminishers can be placed at *I*:

partly, in part, in some respects, to some extent

Intensifier items as quantifiers, frequentatives, duratives

8.115 Many items that are intensifiers are also used to denote a measure of quantity or of duration or of frequency in time (*cf* 8.98). These intensifiers include:

most of the minimizers;
the compromisers *enough, sufficiently*;
the boosters *much, a lot* ⟨informal⟩, *a good deal, a great deal*;
the diminishers *a bit* ⟨informal⟩, *a little, least, somewhat, to some extent*.

We can therefore contrast several uses of, for example, *a lot*:

I like them *a lot*. ['to a great extent' – booster intensifier]

I paid him *a lot* for his work. ['a large amount' – quantifier]
I see him *a lot*. ['often' – frequency]
I slept *a lot* last night. ['a long time' – duration]

In all of these uses, *a lot* can be evoked as an answer to the question *how much?* But in addition the frequency subjunct can be a response to a *how often* question ('How often do you see him?'), and the duration subjunct to a *how long* question ('How long did you sleep last night?').

There can be ambiguities as a result of more than one of these uses being allowed in a given instance:

He doesn't drink *very much*. ['a very large amount' – quantifier; or 'very often' – frequency]
She suffered *very little*. ['to a small extent' – diminisher intensifier; or 'rarely' – frequency]
They *scarcely* listened to him. ['to a minimal extent' – minimizer intensifier; or 'rarely' – frequency]
Did the singers please you *enough* last night? ['to a sufficient extent' – booster intensifier; or 'sufficiently often' – frequency; or 'for a sufficiently long time' – duration]

Some of the quantifiers must be regarded as direct objects rather than as subjuncts, because they can be made the subject of the passive form of the sentence:

The new owner paid him *a lot* for his work. ~ *A lot* was paid him (by the new owner) for his work.
The students have eaten *enough*. ~ *Enough* has been eaten (by the students).
An ex-mayor wrote *a bit* about conditions in the city. ~ *A bit* was written (by an ex-mayor) about conditions in the city.

Others cannot be made subject:

After their walk, the two friends ate and drank *somewhat*.
~ **After their walk, somewhat* was eaten and drunk (by the two friends).

Those that can be made subject can also be evoked by a *what* question and they can take the position normally occupied by the head of a noun phrase with postmodification by a prepositional phrase; they may be regarded as pronouns like *all* (*cf* 6.50):

In fact, {very little / enough / a lot / a bit / a good deal} of the work has been successfully completed.

Note [a] For the relationship between quantitatives and frequency subjuncts, *cf* 8.71.
[b] Many intensifiers, particularly boosters, can also function as process adjuncts (*cf* 8.78*ff*):
He *bitterly* regretted his mistake. [booster intensifier]
He spoke *bitterly* about the way he had been treated. ['in a bitter manner' – manner process adjunct]
Cf also 8.81 for the possibility of a blend of intensifier with process adjunct.

Focusing subjuncts

8.116 Focusing subjuncts can draw attention to a part of a sentence as wide as the predication or as narrow as a single constituent of an element (such as a premodifying adjective in a noun phrase as subject, or an auxiliary within a verb phrase). They are realized by a fairly limited set of items, mostly adverbs, but including also some prepositional phrases. Functionally, there are two main subdivisions, RESTRICTIVES and ADDITIVES.

RESTRICTIVE subjuncts indicate that the utterance concerned is true in respect of the part focused. There are two subsets:

(a) EXCLUSIVES restrict the application of the utterance *exclusively* to the part focused:

alone, exactly, exclusively, just, merely, only, precisely, purely, simply, solely

(b) PARTICULARIZERS restrict the application of the utterance *predominantly* to the part focused:

chiefly, especially, largely, mainly, mostly, notably, particularly, primarily, principally, specifically; at least, in particular

ADDITIVE subjuncts indicate that the utterance concerned is *additionally* true in respect of the part focused:

again, also, either, equally, even, further, likewise, neither, nor, similarly, too; as well, in addition

Examples of the use of focusing subjuncts (with the part that is focused placed in angle brackets):

I was *simply* ⟨taking my dog for a walk⟩.
We judge them *purely* ⟨on the final examination⟩.
You can get a B grade *just* ⟨for that answer⟩.
At least ⟨ten workers⟩ reported sick yesterday.
⟨The girls⟩ *especially* objected to his manners.
⟨The workers,⟩ *in particular*, are dissatisfied with the government.
Even ⟨Bob⟩ was there.
We bought ⟨some beer⟩ *as well*.
She *merely* forgot to give her husband ⟨a kiss⟩.
He favours *particularly* ⟨the young women⟩.
She is charming *only* to her ⟨wealthy⟩ clients.

Where a focusing subjunct precedes the item focused (immediately or otherwise), it is usually associated with an intonation nucleus on the item concerned. Where this item is lengthy (*eg* a predication), the intonation nucleus will be in the unmarked final position; *cf* 18.4*ff*. For example:

I was *simply* ⟨taking my dog for a WÀLK⟩.

Where the focused item is a prepositional or noun phrase, the intonation nucleus will be on the last stressed syllable of the phrase; *eg*:

Even ⟨some of her FRÌENDS⟩ criticized her.

Where the focused item is part of a phrase, the intonation nucleus will be on the stressed or only syllable of the phrase:

She is charming *only* to her ⟨WÈALTHY⟩ clients.

On the other hand, if the focusing subjunct follows the item focused, it is the subjunct that receives the associated intonation nucleus:

⟨The girls⟩ *eSPÈCially* objected to his manners.

Contrast:

The girls *especially* objected to ⟨his MÀNners⟩.

The item selected for being focused is generally 'new' information (*cf* 18.8).

Note [a] The clausal negative particle *not* could be regarded as a negative restrictive subjunct, excluding the part of the clause that is focused. For clausal negation, *cf* 10.54*ff*. The phrasal use of *not* is frequently correlated (*cf* 13.33) with *but* when it is used as a focusing subjunct:
He had seen *not* her ⟨YÒUNGer⟩ brother *but* her ⟨ÈLDer⟩ one.
[b] Among the exclusive restrictive subjuncts, *but* has a minor role. As well as its archaic (but also current dialect) use for focusing an *E*-placed element (?*I saw but William; I saw William but once*), it appears at *M* after modal auxiliaries, especially *can*. For example:
When I asked if she thought she would win, she replied 'Well, I can *but* try.'

Position and focus

8.117 Whether restrictives or additives, focusing subjuncts are most frequently placed at *M* unless the item focused is the subject, a part of the subject, or an auxiliary verb. But with the subjunct at *M*, one has the choice of focusing the main verb, another part of the predication, or the whole predication. Compare the following, first with the restrictive *only*, second with the additive *also*:

John could *only* ⟨SÈE⟩ his wife from the doorway. [1]
[*eg* he could not talk to her]
John could *only* see ⟨his WÌFE⟩ from the doorway. [2]
[*eg* he could not see her brother]
John could *only* see his wife ⟨from the DÒORway⟩. [3]
[*eg* he could not see her from further inside the room]
John could *also* ⟨SÈE⟩ his wife from the doorway. [4]
[*eg* as well as being able to hear her]
John could *also* see ⟨his WÌFE⟩ from the doorway. [5]
[*eg* as well as her brother]
John could *also* see his wife ⟨from the DÒORway⟩. [6]
[*eg* as well as from further inside the room]

Perhaps because the clear discrimination made by intonation leaves no room for ambiguity, no objection is made on stylistic grounds to any of these examples in speech. When it comes to writing down such sentences within the normal conventions of English punctuation, however, we see at once that the identification of the focused item is quite uncertain:

John could only see his wife from the doorway. [1], [2], or [3]
John could also see his wife from the doorway. [4], [5], or [6]

Notice that if *not, never, hardly* were to replace *only* and *also*, the same degree of indeterminacy would obtain, though of course – given the norms of English

sentence intonation – we would most naturally assume a reading like [3] or [6]; *cf* 18.3*ff*. In any event, written sentences do not occur in isolation any more than spoken sentences do, and if the context made a reading like [1], [4] or [2], [5] appropriate, we would unhesitatingly read the sentences accordingly. Nonetheless, the prescriptive grammatical tradition has left a strong prejudice against placing *only* at *M* for readings [2] and [3]; instead many would insist that the 'correct' form would be:

John could see only his wife from the doorway. [= 2]
John could see his wife only from the doorway. [= 3]

Illogically, no comparable objection is made to *also* at *M*; nor of course would it be conceivable to object to *hardly*, *never*, or *not* at *M*, since although precisely the same range of possibilities exists as to the item focused, these subjuncts and *not* do not have the range of possible positions to adopt.

Thus not only would the following sentence be most naturally understood as having the subjuncts focusing upon the final time adjunct, but in most cases the subjunct could not for this purpose be moved to a position immediately preceding or following the focused adverbial:

You could { *also* / *always* / *even* / *hardly* / *never* / *not* / *only* } leave her car at the airport for a month.

Cf You could leave her car at the airport *only* for a month.
You could leave her car at the airport for a month *only*.
but *You could leave her car at the airport *hardly* for a month.

The parallelism between *not* and *only*, both grammatical and semantic, is in fact endorsed by placing *only* at *M*, despite the continuing aversion. There are occasions when it has been found useful to express a kind of correlation between *not* and *only* as in the following regulatory example:

Students are advised that they can *only* attempt examinations after their full programme of study. They can*not* attempt examinations, for example, after completing two out of three prescribed courses.

At the same time, there are undoubtedly cases where the normal *M* position for *only* (and other subjuncts) leaves a sentence unnecessarily difficult to interpret, especially in writing:

The body of the church could *only* at that time be lit by candles.

This example in the Survey of English Usage corpus has the added complication of a time adjunct at *M* which seems on first reading to be the focus of *only*, though scrutiny of the context suggests that the writer's intention was in fact *only . . . by candles*.

Note [a] About half the examples of *only* in the Survey of English Usage corpus are at *M* with the focused item at *E*.

[b] When the focus of *only* is a time or space adjunct, two interpretations are possible, 'at [time/place] and nowhere else' or with the modality sense present in diminisher downtoners:

John *only* phoned Mary ⟨an hour ago⟩.
[either 'at no other time' or 'as recently as an hour ago']
John *only* lives ⟨in Islington⟩.
[either 'nowhere else' or 'as close as Islington' or 'in as humble a place as Islington']

[c] Consider the following sentence:

He's only thinking about marrying a fellow doctor.

This could conceivably express four different meanings:

He's *only* ⟨THÌNKing⟩ about . . . [7]
[*ie* nothing has yet been decided]
He's *only* thinking about ⟨marrying a fellow DÒCtor⟩. [8]
[*ie* he is thinking of nothing else these days]
He's *only* thinking about marrying ⟨a fellow DÒCtor⟩ [9]
[*ie* he would not consider a wife in any other profession]
The situation is *only* [*ie*: *merely*] that ⟨he's thinking about marrying a fellow DÒCtor⟩. [10]
[*ie* you musn't imagine, for example, that he is worried about a difficult patient]

In [10], we have as it were 'advanced' the subjunct from a 'preceding' (but unspoken) clause; *cf* informal utterances like 'Go on – you're *only* jealous', which can be glossed as '*It is merely* the case that you're jealous'. Compare also the clause relations implied by disjuncts: 'He was *frankly* rude' ~ '*I tell you frankly* that he was rude' (*cf* 8.121*f*). In [9], by contrast, we have 'retracted' the subjunct from the clause in which it semantically operates and placed it in a preceding clause. This phenomenon commonly occurs also with *ever*, as in:

I can't *ever* recall that I told you about it.
[= I can't recall that I *ever* told you about it]
I don't *ever* remember seeing her here.
[= I don't remember *ever* seeing her here]

But *cf* also a newspaper example:

Hopes of finding the body were *virtually* said to be nil.

In this case, the context showed that this was intended to be understood as 'Hopes of finding the body were said to be *virtually* nil'. Such leftward movement of an item has a significant relation to transferred negation (*cf* 14.36). *Cf* also 'She didn't so much as say that she'd ever LÒVED him.'

Positions of restrictive subjuncts

8.118 Most restrictive subjuncts can either precede or follow the item on which they are focused, provided this is a complete clause element, though it is more usual for them to precede. *Just*, *merely*, *purely*, and *simply* must normally precede the focused part and precede it immediately; *ie* they can be at *M* only when the whole predication is focused, but they can also readily appear at *iE*. Thus:

You can { **just* / **merely* / **purely* / **simply* } get a B grade ⟨for that answer⟩.

You can get a B grade { *just* / *merely* / *purely* / *simply* } ⟨for that answer⟩.

Compare:

I had { *just* / *merely* / *simply* } ⟨typed a letter to a friend on his typewriter⟩.

The subjunct *alone* normally must follow the focused item:

You can get a B grade ⟨for that answer⟩ *alone*.

and hence *alone* as a restrictive subjunct does not occur in *I* position:

**Alone* ⟨ten workers⟩ reported sick yesterday.

though the virtually synonymous *only* can take either position:

Only ⟨ten workers⟩ / ⟨Ten workers⟩ *only* } reported sick yesterday.

When the item focused is part of a clause element, the restrictive subjunct must usually precede:

He *only* ⟨MÀY⟩ come – I didn't say he would.

I { *only* saw / saw *only* } his ⟨ÈLDer⟩ brother – not the younger one.

though in speech (not in writing) a part of a noun phrase like the foregoing could have the restrictive following:

I saw his ⟨ELDer⟩ brother *only*.

Contrast:

I saw ⟨his elder brother⟩ *ÒNly*.

where the whole noun phrase is focused.

Note [a] *In particular* favours a position after the focused part.
[b] *Exactly* commonly focuses on *wh*-items, and *precisely* does so too, but less commonly; this can mean that the focused part is discontinuous:
Exactly ⟨who⟩ is asking for me?
⟨What⟩ *exactly* ⟨do you mean⟩?
I know *exactly* ⟨where to find him⟩.
Otherwise, *exactly* does not precede the subject unless it focuses on a noun phrase with a quantifier, fraction, multiplier, or cardinal numeral:
Exactly ⟨ten people⟩ were present.
Just also focuses on *wh*-interrogatives, but can only precede them:
Just ⟨why do you want it⟩?
Just can also focus on *exactly* and *precisely*:
Just ⟨*exactly*⟩ ⟨what do you expect⟩?
or on a *wh*-item also focused by *exactly* or *precisely*:
Just ⟨⟨who⟩ *exactly*⟩ ⟨are you⟩?
Just ⟨⟨where⟩ *precisely*⟩ ⟨do you want to go⟩?
It will be noticed that both discontinuity and embedding are involved in these examples.
[c] The restrictives *just*, *merely*, *simply* can freely appear in front of imperative sentences:
You don't have to be present. { *Just* / *Merely* / *Simply* } ⟨send a letter of explanation⟩.
[d] When focusing noun phrases, *only* and *alone* are to some extent treated as though they formed part of the noun phrases concerned. *Cf*:
Only two persons / Two persons *alone* } witnessed the accident.
~The accident was witnessed by { *only* two persons. / two persons *alone*.

Positions of additive subjuncts

8.119 The following additives normally precede (either at *M* or immediately) a focused part if this is the whole or part of the predication; but they may follow the focused part, then carrying an intonation nucleus; and if the focused part is subject, they must follow it. *Even* is exceptional in possibly preceding the subject and in not taking a nucleus if it follows the focused part. The items are:

again, also, equally, even, similarly, in addition

Compare:

I've noticed the fox in my garden and

John has { *also* / *even* / *similarly* / *in addition* } seen it ⟨near his back DÒOR⟩.

John has seen it { *also* / *even* / *similarly* / *in addition* } ⟨near his back DÒOR⟩.

John has seen it ⟨near his back DÓOR⟩ { *ÀLSO.* / *SÌMilarly.* / *in adDÌTion.* }

John has seen it ⟨near his back DÒOR⟩ *even.* ⟨informal⟩

⟨John⟩ { *ÀLSO* / *SÌMilarly* / *in adDÌTion* } has seen it.

even ⟨JÒHN⟩ has seen it.

The subjuncts *too* and *as well* normally follow the focused part and do not appear at *M*:

... John has seen it ⟨near his back DÓOR⟩ { *TÒO.* / *as WÈLL.* }

In rather 'prepared' usage, these may precede the focused part:

She has invited { *TÓO* / *as WÉLL* } ⟨some of her own FÀMily⟩.

In speech, especially informally, the additives can be at *E* and still focus even on the subject:

... ⟨JÒHN⟩ has seen it { *TÒO.* / *even.* ⟨informal⟩ / *in adDÌTion.* }

Neither and *nor* must precede the focused part, and when they are at *I*, there is subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24):

His father wouldn't give the money $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{and}\\ \textit{but}\end{array}\right\}\textit{neither}\\ \textit{nor}\\ \left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{?and}\\ \textit{?but}\end{array}\right\}\textit{nor}\end{array}\right\}$ would he ⟨LÈND⟩ it.

For some speakers *nor* is treated as a coordinating conjunction, and it cannot therefore be preceded by a conjunction.

Neither and *nor* can also be correlative as additive subjuncts:

He had *neither* seen ⟨the FÍLM⟩ *nor* (*even*) read ⟨the BÒOK⟩.

She $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{had } \textit{neither} \text{ read}\\ \text{had read } \textit{neither}\end{array}\right\}$ ⟨the BÓOK⟩ *nor* ⟨the revÌEWS⟩.

Neither ⟨SHÉ⟩ *nor* ⟨HÈ⟩ had read the book.

The subjunct *further* is placed at *M* whether it focuses upon the whole predication or only a part of it:

She had studied metaphysics and she had *further* ⟨taken a degree in linguistics⟩.

He has argued the case on behalf of John and has *further* argued it on behalf of John's ⟨BRÒTHer⟩.

Note [a] Additives are often positionally tied, such that 'As well as/along with X, Y admires Z' means 'X and Y admire Z'. If the order were switched (perhaps to achieve focus on X; *cf* 18.3), 'Y admires Z, as well as/along with X', this would be interpreted as 'Y admires Z and X'.

[b] The additive *also* can be used like *only* when focusing upon a part of a noun phrase (*cf* 8.118):
I *also* saw his ⟨ÈLDer⟩ brother. ~ I saw his ⟨ÈLDer⟩ brother *ÀLso*.

[c] A further additive, *besides*, is less frequent:
. . . I saw his ⟨ÈLDer⟩ brother, *besÌDES*.

Syntactic features of focusing subjuncts

8.120 Focusing subjuncts cannot normally focus upon other focusing subjuncts (on *just*, however, *cf* 8.118 Note [b]). They cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence or of clause comparison, nor can they be premodified by *however*, *how*, or *so* (*cf* 8.25). While some focusing subjuncts can come within the scope of both interrogation and negation and be the focus of both question and negation, it is not usually possible to frame alternative interrogation or negation with focusing subjuncts.

Other syntactic features applying to focusing subjuncts include the fact that they cannot be modified (**very only*, **extremely also*). Moreover, most of them cannot be coordinated: **just and exactly*, **equally and likewise*. But we have one cliché coordination:

He is making the suggestion *purely and simply* ⟨for your benefit⟩.

Focusing subjuncts are the focus of the question in:

Did she see him *only* ⟨once⟩?

Will they release ⟨the major⟩ *as well*?

and of negation in:

They won't punish *merely* ⟨John⟩.

They won't release ⟨the major⟩ *as well*.

But most additive subjuncts cannot be the focus of negation. Indeed, *too* cannot even be within the scope of negation, while *neither* and *nor* themselves effect the negation. An example of alternative interrogation with a restrictive subjunct:

Did she see him *only* ⟨once⟩ or did she see him *MÒRE than* ⟨once⟩?

And with a different type of contrastive interrogative:

Did she invite *merely* ⟨girls⟩ or did she invite *also* ⟨BÒYS⟩?

Alternative interrogation does not seem plausible with most additive subjuncts, and alternative negation seems implausible with both types of focusing subjuncts.

Certain restrictives can be the focus of an initial *not* with consequent subject–operator inversion. Besides the normal:

He *not only* ⟨protested⟩: he (*also*) ⟨refused to pay his taxes⟩.

we can also have:

Not only did he ⟨protest⟩: he (*also*) ⟨refused to pay his taxes⟩.

(On *not only . . . but*, *cf* 13.42.)

Restrictives allowing this subject–operator inversion are:

not + *just*, *merely*, *only*, *simply*

of which *not only* and *not merely* do so most commonly. The construction implies a correlative construction, with (*but*) *also* as common correlatives in the second clause. *Not only* can appear initially in such a sequence without subject–operator inversion when the focus is on the subject:

Not only ⟨HÈ⟩ protested: several others joined in.

Focusing subjuncts can appear in a construction resembling a cleft sentence:

It was $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{only}\\ \textit{particularly}\\ \textit{also}\\ \textit{even}\end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{⟨John⟩ who protested.}\\ \text{⟨on Thursdays⟩ that he visited her.}\end{array}\right.$

We should distinguish this construction from a similar one which is different in being correlative:

It was *not* that ⟨John protÈSTed⟩; it was *rather* that ⟨he was RÙDE⟩.

In this example, the subjuncts are functioning within the superordinate clause to which the *that*-clause is complement. Restrictives, additives, and some disjuncts (*eg*: *possibly*, *probably*) commonly occur in such a correlative structure. Other examples:

It's *partly* that ⟨he's good-looking⟩; it's *partly* that ⟨he's clever⟩.

It's *not* that ⟨they object to him⟩; it's *more probably* that ⟨they have no interest in him⟩.

It's *not* just that ⟨she's young⟩; it's {*surely* / *more*} that ⟨she's inexperienced⟩.

Note [a] *Exactly* and *precisely* are used as comment utterances on a previous declarative sentence:

A: That was the day she was referring to.

B: {*Exactly.* / *Precisely.* / *Right.* ⟨esp AmE⟩}

But these seem to be related to some implied sentence such as 'That was *exactly/precisely* the day' or 'You are *exactly/precisely right*'. *Quite* ['I quite agree'] is used in the same way in BrE. *Right* is used, especially in AmE, to express agreement, and is more common than *exactly* or *precisely*; but it cannot be related like these to focusing subjunct use. Especially in BrE, *quite* ['I quite agree'] commonly expresses agreement with something said by another speaker, whether the preceding clause is positive or negative (*cf* 8.130 Note [c]):

A: She should (not) have told you!

B: QUITE.

[b] Like *not only*, but without a corresponding correlative, *not even* can focus upon the subject:

Not even ⟨HE⟩ protested.

Disjuncts

8.121 Like subjuncts, the adverbials that we call DISJUNCTS are grammatically distinct from adjuncts in terms of the features set out in 8.25. Consider in this connection the adverbials in the following sentences:

Sadly, the storm destroyed the entire tobacco crop. [1]
Your son is not, *in all frankness*, succeeding in his present job. [2]
Since she ran out of money, she had to defer buying a new car. [3]

We note, first of all, that it is not the *form* of these adverbials that makes them different from adjuncts or even from subjuncts:

Dr Fox sat *sadly* in her room. [4]
The arrested man answered *in all frankness* the rather awkward personal questions. [5]
She has been living in great hardship *since she ran out of money*. [6]

Nor yet is it the *positions* in which the adverbials are placed in [1], [2], and [3]. We could move the adverbials to *I* in [4] and [6]; we could move *in all frankness* to *M* in [5]; we would leave their grammatical relations broadly unchanged and still sharply different from the grammatical relations of the adverbials in [1], [2], and [3]. The adverbials in [4], [5], and [6] can be made the focus of a cleft sentence; can be the basis of contrast in alternative interrogation or negation; can be focused by focusing subjuncts; and can come within the scope of predication pro-forms or ellipsis. These propensities

are those of their adjunct status (*cf* 8.25). But the adverbials in [1], [2], and [3] cannot, without producing absurdity or requiring a different interpretation, undergo any of these processes:

*Did the storm destroy the crop *sadly* or . . .?
*It is *in all frankness* that your son is not succeeding . . .
*It is *since she ran out of money* that she had to defer buying a new car.
[asterisked except as a time adjunct of backward span, whereas in [3] the adverbial concerns not time but *reason*]

Similar observations hold true for subjuncts, as we saw in 8.88, but it should not be thought on that account that disjuncts are especially akin to subjuncts. Rather, we have a three-fold distinction that can be set out informally as follows:

ADJUNCTS are similar in the weight and balance of their sentence role to other sentence elements such as subject and object.

SUBJUNCTS have in general a lesser role than the other sentence elements; they have for example less independence both semantically and grammatically and in some respects are subordinate to one or other of the sentence elements.

DISJUNCTS, by the same analogy, have a superior role as compared with the sentence elements; they are syntactically more detached and in some respects 'superordinate', in that they seem to have a scope that extends over the sentence as a whole.

We shall now scrutinize the general semantic roles of disjuncts in order to understand why they appear to have such a grammatical function in relation to the clauses in which they operate.

8.122 It is very difficult to make a wholly objective utterance, and almost everything we say or write conveys the impress of our attitude. Thus, a sentence such as

Mr Forster neglects his children. [1]

entails assumptions about the 'authority' on which the statement is made. It is unlikely that the speaker has heard Mr Forster say, 'I neglect my children', but if this were the source of authority, the speaker would have been more likely to make the sentence:

Mr Forster says (that) he neglects his children. [2]

This might well imply that the speaker cannot himself confirm it:

Mr Forster says (that) he neglects his children (*though I've seen no evidence of this*). [3]

If, indeed, he had such evidence, the sentence would be likely to be different again, both in the statement of the authority and the implication of the speaker's own view:

Mr Forster admits (that) he neglects his children (*as I myself have suspected*). [4]

By contrast with [2] and [4], the 'unattributed' sentence [1] is likely to mean and to be interpreted as meaning:

> From things I have heard and seen, I claim it to be a fair and true assessment that *Mr Forster neglects his children.* [5]

It need hardly be pointed out that such detailed specificity is rarely made explicit, though it is worth noting that in a court of law it would be by no means unusual for the speaker of [1] to be obliged either to expand it to [5] or at least to acknowledge that by his [1] he intended to mean neither more nor less than [5].

But even in ordinary speech and writing, it is not uncommon to find some overt indication of authority accompanying the bald statement [1], such as:

> I think / I gather / It seems (that) Mr Forster neglects his children.
> I tell you . . .
> I tell you *frankly* . . .
> I tell you *privately* . . .
> I put it to you *crudely* . . .
> I say, *if you will allow me* (*to do so*), that . . . [6]

Each of the italicized sections in the various alternate forms of [6] is an adverbial in a clause which has the speaker as subject and *Mr Forster neglects his children* as its object. Thus:

I	tell	you	*frankly*	that Mr Forster neglects his children. [7]
S	V	O_i	*A*	O_d

But even the degree of overt authority in [7] can be abbreviated:

> *Frankly*, Mr Forster neglects his children. [8]

It is where sentences like [8] have the same meaning as [7], that we speak of the adverbials as disjuncts, and it can now be seen why such adverbials have in some sense a superordinate role in relation to the sentences in which they function.

Note [a] Not all disjuncts can be so straightforwardly related to adverbials in superordinate clauses. For example, the disjunct in:

Presumably, Alison has bought a new car.

cannot be related to:

*I tell you *presumably* that Alison . . .

But plausible paraphrases will nonetheless place 'Alison has bought a new car' as a clause functioning as an element in a superordinate clause, *eg*:

I presume that Alison has bought a new car.
That Alison has bought a new car *is widely presumed.*
It *is widely presumed* that Alison has bought a new car.

It is a matter of interesting speculation to account for the processes by which we can express the meaning of these finite verb phrases in terms of verbless adverbials.

[b] Many conjuncts also correspond to a construction containing a verb of speaking; *cf* 8.138.

[c] Note the following examples of formal stereotyped expressions of authority:

I hereby declare that I shall . . .
Stop – *in the name of the law.*
No flowers *by request.*

8.123 Disjuncts can be divided into two main classes: STYLE disjuncts (by far the smaller class) and CONTENT disjuncts. Style disjuncts convey the speaker's comment on the style and form of what he is saying, defining in some way under what conditions he is speaking as the 'authority' for the utterance. Content disjuncts (also known as attitudinal disjuncts) make observations on the actual content of the utterance and its truth conditions. These two classes and their subclasses are displayed in *Fig* 8.123.

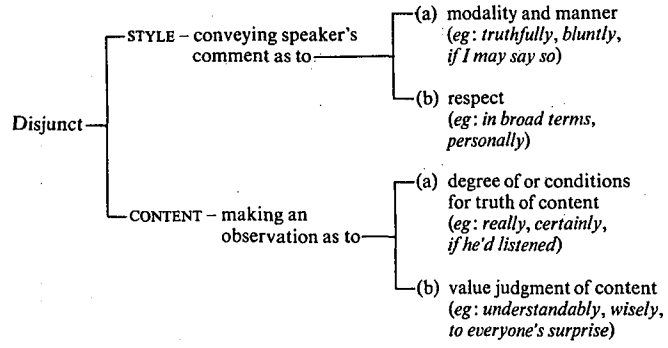

Fig 8.123

Style disjuncts

8.124 The relationship between a style disjunct and the clause to which it is attached can often be expressed (as we explained in 8.122) by a clause in which the same formal item as the style disjunct is a process adjunct (*cf* 8.78*ff*), with a verb of speaking, the subject of which is 'I'. Thus, *frankly* in:

> *Frankly*, I am tired.

is equivalent to *I tell you frankly* or *I say frankly*. If the clause is a question, the disjunct may be ambiguous:

> *Frankly*, is he tired?

In this example, the adverbial may correspond to *I ask you frankly* or to the more probable *Tell me frankly*. Often the disjunct is quite overt about the verb of speaking and the adverbial may take the form of a finite clause:

> *If I may say so without offence*, your writing is immature.

In thus drawing attention not only to what is said but to how it is being said, the style disjunct is often an implicit comment on language itself (*cf* 8.126). Adverbs commonly used as style disjuncts include:

Type (a): Modality and Manner

> *candidly, flatly, honestly, seriously, strictly, truly, truthfully; confidentially, privately; approximately, bluntly, briefly, broadly, crudely, frankly, generally, roughly, simply*

For example:

Briefly, there is nothing more I can do about it.
I don't want the money, *confidentially*.
Very seriously, do you intend to resign?
You ask me what he wants. *Quite simply*, he wants to move to a better climate.

Style disjuncts of Type (a) are also realized by prepositional phrases and by clauses. For example:

In short, he is mad but happy.
Putting it bluntly, he has little market value.
As a rough approximation, you can expect a group of fifteen.
There were twelve people present, *to be precise*.

Type (b): Respect

figuratively, generally, literally, metaphorically, personally, strictly

For example:

She was *strictly* out of order in adjourning the meeting at that point.
Generally, the rainy season has already begun by September.
Personally, I find the music too arid.

Frequently, however, respect disjuncts are realized by longer phrases or by clauses, thus making more explicit the respect in which a comment is being 'hedged':

Generally speaking, the rainy season has already begun by September.
Strictly speaking she was out of order.
Speaking purely for myself, I find the music too arid.
Mildred seemed to enjoy the concert, { *to judge from her remarks.* / *from what her brother told me.* / *since her brother told me himself.* }
It was not a very difficult job to persuade him to go, *if you understand me.*
{ *If I may say so,* / *With respect,* } none of you are competent to make the legal judgment required.

Because-clauses can also be style disjuncts of this type (and as such they must be placed at *E*):

He was drunk, *because he had to support himself on a friend's arm.*

In this type of usage (*cf* 15.21), *if* and *since*-clauses (normally *content* disjuncts) occur commonly as style disjuncts; these may occur at *I*, *M*, or *E*. Note, however, the prosody:

If you ask MÈ, he was DRÙNK.
He was DRÙNK, *if you ask* { *MÈ.* / *MÉ.* }
Since you 'want to KNÓW, I saw him with your sìster.

I saw him with your sìster, *since you 'want to KNÓW*.

When a speaker wishes to emphasize that he or she alone is the authority, a style disjunct may be reinforced by another, even though a listener may find the cooccurrence objectionably tautologous (or obtrusively egotistical):

((*Speaking*) *for*) *mySÉLF*, I find the work here quite PLÈASant, PÉRsonally.

It will be noted that *-self* disjuncts in their truncated form can be identical with appositives (*cf* 17.65*ff*):

I mysÉLF find the work here quite PLÈASant.

(*Cf* 8.125 Note [b]).

Note [a] Informally, a somewhat indignant use of an *if*-disjunct not uncommonly occurs on its own, leaving the situational context to make obvious what the unspoken statement would have been. Note the exaggerated emphasis on *if*:

"*IF you don't MÍND* { (that is my seat). / (your umbrella is in my way). }

The *if*-clause is understood as short for something like 'If you don't mind my saying so/my pointing this out'.

Another stereotyped expression of indignation by means of an *if*-disjunct occurs when we call attention, for example, to the words used by someone else (*cf* 8.126):

She said I was ↑CHÌLDish, *if you please.*

[b] Use of the disjunct *personally* normally requires that the subject of the clause is the authority for it:

Personally I regard this music as boring.
Fred said that *personally he* found concentration increasingly difficult.
?**Personally, Fred* finds concentration increasingly difficult.

8.125 Corresponding to some adverbs as style disjuncts, a series of longer disjuncts may be used, often involving the same item or its lexical base. For example, in place of *frankly* in:

Frankly, he hasn't a chance.

we could have:

prepositional phrase: *in all frankness*
infinitive clause: *to be frank, to speak frankly, to put it frankly*
-ing clause: *frankly speaking, putting it frankly*
-ed clause: *put frankly*
finite clause: *if I may be frank, if I can speak frankly, if I can put it frankly*

Not every style disjunct will allow so full a range. Thus, we have *in all fairness* but not the disjunct *fairly*; *in short* but not *shortly*. Conversely, we have *flatly* but not *flatly speaking*.

But for almost all of the adverbs listed in 8.124, corresponding participle constructions with *speaking* are available as style disjuncts; *eg*: *frankly* ~ *frankly speaking*, *seriously* ~ *seriously speaking*. Many have infinitive clauses of the form *to be* plus the base adjective, *eg*: *bluntly* ~ *to be blunt*, *personally* ~ *to be personal*. Those allowing such infinitive clauses have a corresponding finite clause with *if*; for example: *if I may be blunt, if I may be personal.*

Note [a] The order of adjunct and verb in the disjunct participle construction with *speaking* is more or less stereotyped. *Speaking frankly* is far less likely than *frankly speaking*. On the other hand, *speaking generally* is the participle construction equivalent to the adverb style disjunct *generally*, as in:

The committee interviewed several writers and publishers. *Generally*, the writers were against censorship.

The style disjunct use of *generally* (with its corresponding prepositional phrase *in general*) is to be distinguished from the time adjunct use of the same word *generally*, synonymous with *normally* or *usually* (*cf* 8.66, 8.67 Note [b]). Perhaps because the time adjunct has an alternative form in the corresponding participle clause *generally speaking*, it is the inverted form *speaking generally* that is used as the expanded form of the disjunct.

[b] The style disjunct *personally* is to be distinguished from the intensifier *personally* that is synonymous with the appropriate reflexive form of the pronoun:

I {*personally* / *myself*} have never been to New York.

These are both to be distinguished from the adjunct *personally* that is synonymous with *in person*:

He signed the document *personally*.

[c] *Truly* has been included among style disjuncts. It corresponds to *I tell you truly* and also, in many environments, to *It is true* (*that*), the latter type of correspondence being common to many content disjuncts (*cf* 8.128). However, unlike such content disjuncts but like other style disjuncts, it can appear before a question:

I think he has no right to be there. *Truly*, what is your opinion?

Truly here can be replaced neither by *It is true* nor *Is it true*; it is perhaps to be seen as an abbreviation of *Tell me truly*.

Metalinguistic comment

8.126 Overt reference to the linguistic medium, such as in the selection or coining of an appropriate expression, is not of course peculiar to adverbials (*cf* App I.15):

Let us call this concept 'pre-impressionist'.
The only word for it is *banal*.
The look on his face was what I would call, not *baleful*, but *bileful*.

Nonetheless, adverbials lend themselves very conveniently to incorporating metalinguistic comment into a sentence whose purpose is not itself merely metalinguistic. There is, for instance, a subclass of conjuncts ('reformulatory', *cf* 8.141) whose chief function this is. But the style disjunct lends itself peculiarly well to such a role:

Hawkins was not, *strictly speaking*, a traitor.

In this sentence, we should notice that we are concerned both with the issue of whether or not Hawkins was a traitor and also with the issue of whether the word 'traitor' is a fitting term to express his behaviour.

Other disjuncts commonly used as 'hedges' in this way are illustrated by:

They have not, *so to say*, 'combined' their resources; / They have not 'combined' their resources, *exactly*; } *rather* they have agreed to make some joint decisions.

(In this example, the reformulatory conjunct *rather* appears; *cf* above)

He has an idea, a hypothesis, *if you will*, that you may find interesting.
You ought to seize this opportunity, *if I may so put it*, with more grace than you are showing.

Cf also *so to speak*, *if you like*, *to quote X*, *as X puts it*, *in the immortal words of X*.

Frequently, however, metalinguistic comment is inextricably mixed up with expression of degree. The compromiser subjuncts *kind of* and *sort of* play a similar role; as do approximators (*cf* 8.104*ff*). Consider, for example, the subjunct usage in:

They have an idea, {*almost* a theory. / a theory, *almost*.}
She *just about* alienated her audience on that occasion.

It is not easy here to know whether we are to understand the latter as meaning *almost but not entirely alienated* or as *what I might almost call 'alienated'*, and we have no reason to believe that the originator of the sentence was making a distinction between these. So too when we are told that:

He {*almost* / *virtually* / *very nearly*} STÒLE the money.

we cannot be sure whether it means that he came close to stealing it or acted in such a way that it could almost be called 'stealing'. In consequence, some comment adverbials like *actually*, *frankly*, and others come to be used as subjuncts (emphasizers), *cf* 8.100*ff*. This is especially true of *literally*, as in:

The police *literally* left no square inch unexamined.
It was a tiny room – *literally* a 'one-man' office.
I could *literally* feel the earth shaking.
The car *literally* somersaulted off the road.

It would seem that the speaker wishes to emphasize the extraordinary nature of what he is describing – 'Believe it or not!' –, as well as to draw attention to the hyperbolic language used to describe it. The insertion of *literally* seems often to acknowledge that people tend to use the expression concerned (*somersault*, *earth shaking*) as merely figurative or exaggeratedly colourful whereas in the present instance the word is to be taken in its literal meaning. But in careless and informal speech, and even indeed in writing, the adverb comes to be used in ways that are 'literally' absurd:

She *literally* FLÈW out of the room.
I *literally* split my SÌDES laughing.

Note [a] On the same page of a recent novel, a policeman is described as parking his vehicle thus:

He literally threw his car into the last available space.

And in tackling a hoodlum:

He literally threw the man down from the stage.

A few pages further on, some criminals on motorcycles 'were, literally, using their machines as weapons'. In the second and third instance, the use of *literally* seems justified if hyperbolic; in the first it is absurd.

[b] With the comment adverbials, we can focus on individual items in the verb phrase (*cf* 8.96) as well as on the main verb or predication. Compare:

I *actually*/*frankly*/*literally* HÀD to crawl through the fence.
I had *actually*/*frankly*/*literally* to CRÀWL through the fence.
[. . . to *actually*/*frankly*/*literally* CRÀWL . . .; *cf* 8.21]

In the former, it is the obligation that has to be understood as literally and seriously expressed; in the latter, it is the act of crawling.
[c] In colloquial style, some predications are conventionally used in a nonliteral way, and this is frequently indicated by intonationally highlighting the verb:

The boy was ÀSKing for trouble. ['. . . was *virtually* asking . . .']
They went out of their WÀY to be helpful. ['went *as it were* out of . . .']

Content disjuncts

8.127 The speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying is of two principal kinds, which can in turn be subdivided.

Type (a): Degree of truth

These disjuncts present a comment on the truth value of what is said, expressing the extent to which, and the conditions under which, the speaker believes that what he is saying is true. Here belong the great classes of hypothetical clauses on which closely reasoned discourse depends. Disjuncts realized by concessive, conditional, reason, and other adverbial clauses will be given special attention in 15.32, and we shall concentrate here on shorter realizations, particularly by adverbs. Indeed, adverbs falling in Type (a) constitute what is virtually a closed class, and most items will be cited below. There are three main groups.

Group (i) These express conviction, either as a direct claim (*eg*: *undeniably*) or as an appeal to general perception (*eg*: *evidently*):

admittedly, *assuredly* ⟨rare, formal⟩, *avowedly* ⟨formal⟩, *certainly*, *decidedly* ⟨rare, formal⟩, *definitely*, *incontestably* ⟨rare, formal⟩, *incontrovertibly* ⟨formal⟩, *indeed*, *indisputably* ⟨formal⟩, *indubitably* ⟨formal⟩, *surely*, *unarguably* ⟨formal⟩, *undeniably*, *undoubtedly*, *unquestionably*; *clearly*, *evidently*, *manifestly* ⟨formal⟩, *obviously*, *patently* ⟨formal⟩, *plainly*

Group (ii) These express some degree of doubt:

allegedly, *arguably*, *apparently*, *conceivably*, *doubtless*, *likely* ⟨informal⟩, *maybe* ⟨informal⟩, *most likely*, *perhaps*, *possibly*, *presumably*, *purportedly* ⟨formal⟩, *quite likely*, *reportedly*, *reputedly* ⟨formal⟩, *seemingly* ⟨formal⟩, *supposedly*, *very likely*

Such items as *perhaps* and *by any chance* politely reduce the impact and urgency of questions and conditions, or convey an apologetic tone:

Is Mary at home, { *perhaps*? / *by any chance*?
If Mary is (*perhaps*) at liberty, I could see her for a moment (*perhaps*).
Mary is not free for a moment, *by any chance*?

Cf the similar effect by alternative means in:

Is Mary at home, { I wonder? / would you (happen to) know?
Mary is not free for a moment, I suppose?

Group (iii) These state the sense in which the speaker judges what he says to be true or false. There is often a reference to the 'reality' or lack of 'reality' in what is said. Some assert the reality of what is said:

actually, *really*, *factually* ⟨rare, formal⟩

Several express a contrast with reality:

only apparently, *formally*, *hypothetically*, *ideally*, *nominally*, *officially*, *ostensibly* ⟨formal⟩, *outwardly*, *superficially*, *technically*, *theoretically*

A few claim that what is being said is true in principle:

basically, *essentially*, *fundamentally*

The distinction is often a fine one between content disjuncts and viewpoint subjuncts (*cf* 8.89), particularly when the same formal item is involved:

Technically, our task is to recycle the waste products. [disjunct]
Technically, recycling the waste products will be easy. [subjunct; *cf* 'Recycling . . . will be technically easy']

Some further examples of Type (a) disjuncts:

Mr Hasegawa seemed to enjoy the concert, *although Wagner is not one of his favourite composers.*
Since she had no time to have the car fixed, Mildred telephoned for a taxi.
The proposal would have been accepted *if the manager had been more tactful.*

Type (b): Value judgment

Disjuncts of this type convey some evaluation of or attitude towards what is said. As with Type (a), we concentrate on realization by adverbs and some of the more common items are listed below. Those with a participle base (*cf* App I.2) in *-ing* (*eg*: *surprisingly*) are the most productive class of adverbs as content disjuncts. There are two main groups.

Group (i) These express a judgment on what is being said as a whole and they normally apply the same judgment simultaneously to the subject of the clause. For example:

Rightly, Mrs Jensen consulted her lawyer. [She was right and her action was right]

With some, as in this example, judgment is passed on whether what is said is right or wrong:

correctly, *incorrectly*, *justly*, *unjustly*, *rightly*, *wrongly*

With others, judgment is passed on the wisdom or manner of what is described:

artfully, *cleverly*, *cunningly*, *foolishly*, *prudently*, *reasonably*, *sensibly*, *shrewdly*, *unreasonably*, *wisely*, *unwisely*

Group (ii) With these, the judgment carries no implication that it applies to the subject of the clause. For example:

Remarkably, Mrs Jensen consulted her lawyer. [Her action was

remarkable; the speaker is not suggesting that Mrs Jensen was remarkable]

As with this example, some items judge what is said to be strange or unexpected (and items listed are frequently followed by *enough*):

amazingly, *astonishingly*, *curiously*, *funnily* ⟨BrE⟩, *incredibly*, *ironically*, *oddly*, *remarkably*, *strangely*, *suspiciously*, *unexpectedly*

With other adverbs, what is said is judged to be appropriate or expected:

appropriately, *inevitably*, *naturally*, *not unnaturally*, *predictably*, *understandably*

What is said is judged to cause satisfaction or the reverse:

annoyingly, *delightfully*, *disappointingly*, *disturbingly*, *pleasingly*, *refreshingly*, *regrettably*

What is said is judged to be fortunate or unfortunate:

fortunately, *unfortunately*, *happily* ⟨formal⟩, *unhappily* ⟨formal⟩, *luckily*, *unluckily*, *sadly* ⟨formal⟩, *tragically*

Other judgments:

amusingly, *conveniently*, *hopefully* (*cf* 8.129 Note [b]), *mercifully*, *preferably*, *significantly*, *thankfully*

Some examples of Type (b) disjuncts:

Certainly, he had very little reason to fear their competition.
Obviously, nobody expected us to be here today.
Really, the public does not have much choice in the matter.
Understandably, we were all extremely annoyed when we received the letter.
He is *wisely* staying at home today.

As well as by adverbs, content disjuncts of Type (b) are realized by prepositional phrases and clauses (*cf* 9.57*f*, 15.20*f*). For example:

To my regret, he did not accept our offer.
They arrived, *to our surprise*, before we did.
With justice, they have assumed their place among the nation's heroes.
To the great admiration of all the onlookers, he plunged into the water and rescued the struggling child.
On paper, she ought to have won, but *in fact* she lost.
Of course, nobody imagines that he will repay what he borrowed.
It was *no doubt* clever of him to offer his resignation at that point in the proceedings.
To be sure, we have heard many such promises before.
They are not going to buy the house, *which is not surprising in view of its exorbitant price*.
Even more important, she has control over the finances of the party.
What is even more remarkable, he manages to inspire confidence in the most suspicious people.

The use of *more* in the last two examples shows how content disjuncts can be adapted to conjunct use (*cf* 8.137).

Note [a] Several adverbs with *-ed* participle bases imply that the view not only of the speaker but of others is being quoted: *allegedly*, *reportedly*, *reputedly*, *supposedly*. Among common formulas by which the speaker identifies such an authority, however, the following two may be mentioned: *According to* (*Mary*, *the Government*, *the morning paper* . . .), and *By* (*their*, *her*, *his*, *Mary's*, *the Government's* . . .) *own admission*.
[b] *Doubtless* is not synonymous with 'without doubt'. Like *no doubt*, it in fact implies some doubt and is synonymous with 'very probably'. *Undoubtedly*, on the other hand, expresses conviction. *Apparently* is for most speakers equivalent to 'it appears' or 'it seems', and these do not express certainty. However, some speakers equate *apparently* with 'it is evident'. Prosody and phrasal form combine to make a distinction in the degree of commitment to a statement of authority:

The fire had already started, { to my KNÓWledge. [some doubt] / to my certain KNÓWledge. [no doubt] }

[c] *Admittedly* and *certainly* imply concession as well as certainty. Concession applies still more strongly to two disjuncts which take the form of nonfinite clauses:

That SÁID, / *Having SÁID THÁT*, } I have to agree that there are great difficulties.

Although the latter normally obeys the subject-attachment rule (*cf* 15.58*f*), the disjunct has become so stereotyped that one often finds examples like:

Having said that, the economy seems unlikely to show marked improvement for some time.

[d] Just as the verb *see* can be used for both visual and mental perception (*cf*: *I see* ['understand'] *what you mean*), so adverbs as disjuncts can be used for both types of perception. In:

Obviously, he doesn't want us to help him.

the speaker's conviction may well be based on what the person has said rather than anything that has been perceived visually. On the other hand, in:

Obviously, he is in very poor health.

it may be based largely on the person's appearance.
[e] Style disjuncts such as *truthfully* and *honestly* (*cf* 8.124) and content disjuncts such as *certainly* and *definitely* alike express conviction about what is said. But the style disjuncts assert that the speaker is saying something sincerely, while the content disjuncts assert the truth of what is said.

8.128 We have seen that adverbs as style disjuncts correspond to a clause with a verb of speaking (*cf* 8.122). Many adverbs as content disjuncts, though not all, also correspond to other structures. The set of correspondences presented below for adverbs of one or other type applies only to adverbs of the type concerned, and even so not necessarily to all the items of that particular type. For example, many adverbs of content Type (a), such as *evidently*, have the following correspondences:

Evidently, he doesn't object.
It is evident (*that*) he doesn't object.
That he doesn't object *is evident*.

But these correspondences do not apply, for example, to *perhaps*. To avoid repetition, we use only the variants with extraposition and anticipatory *it* (*cf* 18.33). Hence, we give the correspondence for *evidently* in Type (a) as simply:

It is evident that he doesn't object.

The semantic distinction between adverbs of Type (a) (*eg*: *admittedly*, *clearly*) and Type (b) (*eg*: *fortunately*, *wisely*) is reflected in the fact that it is possible to use putative *should* (*cf* 4.64, 14.25, 16.70*ff*) in the correspondences of Type (b). If *should* is inserted in correspondences of Type (a), it conveys obligation (*cf* 4.56*ff*) and alters the meaning of the sentence radically, since this group is concerned with the factual basis of what is asserted or questioned:

Type (a)

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Certainly,} \\ \textit{Clearly,} \end{bmatrix}$ she consults her lawyer regularly.

= It is $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{certain} \\ \textit{clear} \end{bmatrix}$ that she consults her lawyer regularly.

but:

≠ It is $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{certain} \\ \textit{clear} \end{bmatrix}$ *that* she *should* consult her lawyer regularly.

[this would mean 'She *ought to* consult her lawyer regularly']

By contrast, putative *should* enters the Type (b) correspondences, since here we are concerned with the expression of an opinion:

Type (b)

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Fortunately,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ she consults her lawyer regularly.

= It is $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{fortunate} \\ \textit{wise} \end{bmatrix}$ that she $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{consult(s)} \\ \text{should consult} \end{Bmatrix}$ her lawyer regularly.

Most of the adverbs of Type (b) allow also a correspondence with an infinitive clause (commonly a replacement for a *that*-clause with putative *should*; *cf* 15.48*f*):

Foolishly, Bill declined the invitation.
= It was *foolish* of Bill to decline the invitation.

But this is not possible with adverbs of Type (a):

$\begin{Bmatrix} \textit{Certainly,} \\ \textit{Admittedly,} \end{Bmatrix}$ John declined the invitation.

*It was $\begin{Bmatrix} \textit{certain} \\ \textit{admitted} \end{Bmatrix}$ of John to decline the invitation.

Note [a] *Assuredly* and *decidedly* are roughly synonymous with *surely* and *undoubtedly* respectively. They do not correspond to such structures as:

It is $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{assured} \\ \text{decided} \end{Bmatrix}$ that . . .

$\begin{Bmatrix} \text{I am} \\ \text{One has} \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{assured} \\ \text{decided} \end{Bmatrix}$ that . . .

Surely is commonly used to challenge the addressee and implies disbelief or disagreement as to previously expressed assumptions, as well as the self-evident plausibility of what is being said.
[b] *Naturally* and the equivalent understatement, *not unnaturally*, are paraphrasable by 'as might have been expected' or 'of course'. They do not correspond to *it is natural* or *it is not unnatural*.

8.129 The semantic distinction between the groups (i) (*eg*: *rightly*, *wisely*) and (ii) (*eg*: *surprisingly*, *understandably*) of Type (b) in 8.127 is reflected in the fact

that only in (i) is it normal to have a correspondence in which the judgment is predicated of the subject. Thus:

Group (bii)

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Surprisingly,} \\ \textit{Understandably,} \end{bmatrix}$ John returned the money.

≠ *John was $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{surprising} \\ \textit{understandable} \end{bmatrix}$ to return the money.

But:

Group (bi)

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Rightly,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ John returned the money.

= John was $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{right} \\ \textit{wise} \end{bmatrix}$ to return the money.

(Compare the discussion of subject orientation with subjuncts: especially 8.94.) The predication automatically applies to the subject in an active sentence and to the agent in a passive sentence, whether the latter is present or recoverable or indefinite (*cf* 3.63*ff*). Hence, we can still set up these correspondences for items in Group (bi) in the following instances:

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Rightly,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ the money was returned by John.

= John was $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{right} \\ \textit{wise} \end{bmatrix}$ to return the money.

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Rightly,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ the money was returned.

= (Someone) was $\begin{bmatrix} \textit{right} \\ \textit{wise} \end{bmatrix}$ to return the money.

These adverbs can be used wherever a personal agent is implied, though it may not always be possible to state the correspondences as systematically as in the above instances:

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Rightly,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ the meeting ended early today.

= X $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{was} \\ \text{were} \end{Bmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} \textit{right} \\ \textit{wise} \end{Bmatrix}$ to end the meeting early today.

Here 'X' cannot be specified or identified but obviously cannot be the subject of the earlier sentence, *the meeting*.

$\begin{bmatrix} \textit{Rightly,} \\ \textit{Wisely,} \end{bmatrix}$ the book costs only five dollars.

= X $\begin{Bmatrix} \text{was} \\ \text{were} \end{Bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \textit{right} \\ \textit{wise} \end{bmatrix}$ to fix the price of the book at only five dollars.

Again, the former sentence makes it impossible to identify a subject for the latter. Contrast:

[*Rightly*, / *Wisely*,] Bill's car is in a garage overnight throughout the winter.

= Bill is [*right* / *wise*] to keep his car in a garage overnight throughout the winter.

Since some adverbs in content Type (b) allow correspondence with a personal subject (usually, however, not the speaker as an individual but as a representative of what can be taken as a general view), it is useful to distinguish a FACTIVE type from a PERSONAL type:

FACTIVE:

Understandably, James refuses to speak.
That James refuses to speak is understandable.
It is understandable that James refuses to speak.
≠ {I understand / One understands} that James refuses to speak.
[but rather: 'One understands why James refuses to speak'; *cf*: '**Understandably*, the weather was appalling']

PERSONAL:

{*Regrettably*, / *Sadly*,} James refuses to speak.
That James refuses to speak is {regrettable. / sad.}
It is {regrettable / sad} that James refuses to speak.
= {I regret/One regrets / I am sad/One is sad} that James refuses to speak.
[*Cf*: *Regrettably*, the weather was appalling]

Within the personal type, however, there is a subset for which the first two of the above paraphrases cannot occur:

{*Happily* / *Thankfully*,} James refuses to speak.
≠ *That James refuses to speak is {happy. / thankful.}
*It is {happy / thankful} that James refuses to speak.

but rather:

= {I am / One is} {happy / thankful} that James refuses to speak.

With most of the personal type, it is possible to add *to say* in the paraphrases:

I regret (I am sad/happy, etc) *to say* that James . . .

We note, however, that beside 'Hopefully, the weather is improving', we have no '*I am hopeful to say that the weather is improving'.

Note [a] In '*Sadly*, I resigned the chairmanship', the adverbial may be close in meaning to a subject-oriented adjunct or subjunct (*cf* 8.78, 8.93); thus 'I was sad to resign', 'I was sad when I resigned'. But the meaning may be that corresponding to a style disjunct ('Sad to say, I resigned') or to a content disjunct: 'One is sad (People are sad, It is sad news *for you*) that I resigned'.
[b] Stylistic objections are raised to the use of the personal type of disjunct above, notably *thankfully* and above all *hopefully*. Strength of feeling concerning *hopefully* may be attributable in part to its lack of total fit with the others, as noted above ('*I am hopeful to say'). Since, however, the 'general view' in *hopefully* is usefully distinguished thereby from the purely individual viewpoint in *I hope*, the disjunct has considerable convenience, as can be seen in the following textual example from an administrator's note put before a committee:

My assistant has arranged for the matter to be considered by an ad hoc working party, and *hopefully* a proposal will be ready in time for our next meeting. *I hope* this approach will be acceptable to members.

The two italicized parts are not identical in force and could not in fact be interchanged; the former ventures to express a general hope, attributed by the writer to the committee as a whole, or even a general assessment of probability ('It is likely that a proposal . . .'); the latter expresses the writer's personal hope that his action will be approved.

Syntactic features of disjuncts

8.130 Clausal realizations of content disjuncts occur fairly freely with questions:

If it stops raining, may we go out and play in the wood?
(*What is*) *even more interesting*, did you hear her reply to that second question?

When realized by adverbs, however, most content disjuncts cannot appear in any position in a direct or indirect question (*cf* Note [a]):

*Does he *fortunately* know about it?
*He asked whether, *fortunately*, they knew anything about it.

On the other hand, most style disjuncts can be freely used in direct and indirect questions, even initially:

Frankly, does he know about it?
They want to know whether, *strictly speaking*, they're trespassing.

But *cf*:

**Personally*, is she very clever?

Most content disjuncts cannot appear with imperatives:

**Fortunately*, don't tell him.

(But *cf*: '*Perhaps* tell him now.')

On the other hand, some style disjuncts (including most of 8.124 Type (a)) can do so, even in *I* position:

Seriously, go and see her about it.
Frankly, don't tell him.

While disjuncts can appear at almost any place in clause structure, the normal position for most disjuncts is *I*. However, some content disjuncts of

Type (ai), *eg*: *probably*, *possibly*, and all of Type (bi), *eg*: *rightly*, *wisely*, normally occur at *M*, and often at *iM*. Note also the potentiality of *eM*:

You would have $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{probably}\\ \textit{certainly}\end{matrix}\right\}$ missed the plane.

If the clause is negative, *iM* would be more usual though *M* is perfectly possible with the same meaning:

I *frankly* don't know.
I don't *frankly* know.

If prosodic focus is on the operator, *iM* would be usual:

I *frankly* WÀS annoyed.

Disjuncts can appear (though often with some awkwardness) in dependent finite clauses:

He was a man who, *unaccountably*, had few friends.
What, *interestingly enough*, pleased them most was her enthusiasm.
Though he was *quite rightly* dismissed, he was given six months' salary.

Note [a] Certain content disjuncts of Type (ai) expressing some doubt (*eg*: *perhaps*, *possibly*, *conceivably*) are marginally acceptable in direct and indirect questions, but not at *I* position. *Cf* 'Can you *possibly/perhaps* see her now?' Some of Type (aiii) are acceptable in questions perhaps even initially, *eg*: *basically*, *essentially*, *fundamentally*, *ideally*.
[b] It seems that content disjuncts can appear within a clause that is loosely attached to a question:
Did they refuse the first offer, expecting, *naturally*, a better offer?
[c] Some content disjuncts can be responses to questions or can be used as a comment on a previous utterance, usually accompanied by *yes* or *no*:
A: They have returned to San Francisco.
B: *Very wisely*. ['They were very wise to do so']
A: They won't be coming back.
B: *Unfortunately*, no. ['It's unfortunate that they won't]
A few style disjuncts (*honestly*, *literally*, *seriously*, *truly*, *truthfully*) are used as verbless questions:
A: I'm going to resign.
B: *Seriously*? ['Were you speaking seriously when you said that?']
The content disjunct *really* is commonly used in this way:
A: I'm going to resign.
B: *Really*? ['Is that so?']
A particular intonation contour is not obligatory, but certain adverbials have a characteristic intonation when used as responses; for example, following 'I hear you may soon be emigrating', someone might reply with one of the following (*cf* 8.120 Note [a]):

CÊRtainly	QUITE ⟨BrE⟩	Yes, inDÈED	AbsoLÙTEly
Well, PÕSsibly	Quite SÒ ⟨BrE⟩	RÄTHer ⟨esp old-fashioned BrE⟩	HÄRDly

(*Cf* App II.11*ff*).

8.131 Most disjuncts can be modified. Common premodifiers are *very* and *quite*. For some content disjuncts of Type (bii), the postmodifier *enough* is common, particularly for those evaluating the communication as odd (*bizarrely*, *curiously*, *eerily*, *funnily*, *oddly*, *strangely*):

Oddly enough, he hasn't said anything about it.

Several content disjuncts can be premodified by *not*, in particular *surprisingly*, and some with negative prefixes (*unexpectedly*, *unreasonably*, *unusually*, *unwisely*):

Not surprisingly, he protested strongly about it.
Not unreasonably, she refused him.

Other common premodifiers include (in intensifier use) *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*:

More personally, I have to tell you that my wife is pregnant.
Less strangely, he has been avoiding me lately; and (*even*) *less strangely still*, he has not given me a phone call.
More amusingly than wisely, he kept on insisting on his right to speak.
Most unexpectedly, Toshiko had to return to Japan before her studentship had expired.

Note [a] Content disjuncts with *-ed* participle bases (*eg*: *undoubtedly*, *allegedly*) cannot usually be modified; *cf* however *most assuredly*, *most decidedly*, *most unexpectedly*.
[b] *Enough* as a modifier of disjuncts does not so much intensify as draw attention to the meaning of the item. Thus, *oddly enough* is paraphrasable by 'odd though it may seem'.
[c] Negation of the disjunct can cooccur with clause negation:
Not surprisingly, they were *not* happy with their results.

8.132 When the semantic relations of condition, concession, reason, and result are realized by clauses, the adverbials concerned are normally content disjuncts. For example:

Unless you have a valid passport, I cannot book your ticket.
Although John is so hard up, he refuses to look for a better-paid job.
Since she remained adamant in her diagnosis, her fellow doctors considered the case afresh.
He went on arguing in a nasty tone, *so that in the end I lost my patience*.

Along with result disjuncts, we may consider the somewhat vaguer 'outcome' disjuncts, often realized by nonfinite (*to*) clauses (*cf* 15.25):

Mary drove all the way to Maine, (*only*) *to find that her friends had moved to Florida*.

Contrast the superficially similar purpose adjunct:

Mary drove all the way to Maine (*only*) *to visit some friends*.
~ It was (*only*) *to visit some friends* that Mary drove all the way to Maine.

As distinct from *because*-clauses, which indicate a cause or reason so essential that they are integrated into the sentence as adjuncts, nontemporal *since*-clauses have a looser relation, more resembling nonrestrictive relative clauses, and they function grammatically as disjuncts:

It is *because you are lazy* that you lost your job.
~ *It is *since you are lazy* that you lost your job.

On *if*-, *since*-, and *because*-clauses as style disjuncts, *cf* 8.124.

A contingency relationship can be expressed by a content disjunct in the form of a verbless or nonfinite clause introduced by *with*(*out*):

With friends like that, who needs enemies?
With the audience making so much noise, I couldn't hear the opening of the concerto.
Without some indication of her approval, we shouldn't make up our minds on this occasion.

8.133 A specification of range can be added for content disjuncts of Type (bii) in 8.127, normally a prepositional phrase introduced by *for*:

Luckily for Herbert, the gun was not loaded. ['Herbert was lucky that . . .']

For Herbert specifies that *luckily* is not to be generalized, but applies specifically to Herbert. Specification can also be made by *from X's point of view*, or *from the point of view of X*:

Understandably enough from her point of view, Susan does not want the news to reach her family before she tells them herself.

An equivalent effect is obtained in prepositional phrases as content disjuncts, where the range is specified by the genitive or *of*-construction. Compare:

Annoyingly for *Jack*,
To *Jack*'s annoyance,
To the annoyance *of Jack*, } his brother was late arriving.

Cf also: *to my regret, to her displeasure, to their disappointment, to John's surprise, to the delight of all present*. Adverbs of Type (bii) with participle base in *-ing* (*eg*: *annoyingly*) generally have a corresponding prepositional phrase in this form. The prepositional phrases are indeed more commonly used than the adverbs. We can achieve the same effect by sentential relative clauses (*cf* 15.57, 17.9), *eg*: *which annoyed Jack* or *which I regret*; or by comment clauses (*cf* 15.53*ff*), *eg*: *what delighted all present* or *what disappoints them*.

Note [a] *Surprisingly* and its synonyms can take a *for*-specification only if it refers to a noun or pronoun coreferential with a noun phrase later in the clause; even so, such examples as the following are unusual:

Surprisingly for him [*ie* for John], the altitude affected John adversely.
Surprisingly for him [*ie* for John], John failed the exam.
**Surprisingly for his father*, John failed the exam.

Contrast the last sentence with

Annoyingly for his father, John failed the exam.

Whereas *surprisingly for him* means others are surprised about him, *annoyingly for his father* means his father is annoyed.

This distinction does not apply to the corresponding prepositional phrases. *To my surprise* is equivalent to 'I am (or 'was') surprised'.

[b] Corresponding sentential relative clauses can be found for content disjuncts in all groups having corresponding clauses of the form '*it is* adj *that* . . .' except Type (ai):

Certainly,
Obviously,
Understandably,
Wisely, } Mrs Macdonald didn't want to have anything to do with them.

Mrs Macdonald didn't want to have anything to do with them,

which was { **certain*.
(*painfully*) *obvious*.
understandable.
wise. }

On the other hand, all have corresponding comment clauses, though often a modifier such as *very* or *more* is required. Hence, we can have:

What was even { *wiser*,
more certain,
more obvious, } he didn't speak at the meeting.

[c] Adverbs of content Type (bii) that express an opinion as to whether what is said is fortunate or not (*eg*: *fortunately, luckily*) allow the interpretation that the referent of the subject is fortunate or otherwise. But this is not an essential implication of their use. For example:

Fortunately, Bill keeps his car in a garage overnight during the winter.

does not necessarily mean that Bill is fortunate, though out of context this sentence conveys that implication strongly. But we can add to the sentence in such a way as to make it clear that it is someone else that is fortunate:

Fortunately, Bill keeps his car in a garage overnight during the winter. Susan was therefore able to start the car very easily when she needed to borrow it in a hurry early this morning.

From this context, it is clear that it is Susan who is fortunate. Compare also:

Fortunately for me, ['I am fortunate that'] Bill keeps his car in a garage overnight during the winter.

In contrast, adverbs of Type (bi), such as *rightly* or *wisely*, do not allow *for* prepositional phrases specifying the range of the adverb.

Conjuncts

8.134 Like subjuncts and disjuncts, the adverbials that we call CONJUNCTS are grammatically distinct from adjuncts in terms of the features set out in 8.25. Consider *nonetheless* in the following example:

She may be unable to attend the meeting. You should *nonetheless* send her the agenda.

The adverbial cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence; cannot be the basis of contrast in alternative interrogation or negation; cannot be focused by subjuncts; and cannot come within the scope of predication pro-forms or ellipsis. Compare:

. . . **It is nonetheless* that you should send her the agenda.
. . . *Should you send her the agenda *nonetheless* or *therefore*?
. . . *You should *only* ⟨*nonetheLÈSS*⟩ send her the agenda.

Conjuncts are more like disjuncts than adjuncts in having a relatively detached and 'superordinate' role as compared with other clause elements. But they are unlike disjuncts in not typically filling the semantic roles characteristic of adjuncts. Conjuncts, as part of their even greater distinctness from the closely interrelated clause elements such as S, C, and O, often have semantic roles that are conjunct-specific. That is, they have the function of conjoining independent units rather than one of contributing another facet of information to a single integrated unit (*cf* 8.136).

Thus, in considering conjuncts, we find it necessary to look beyond the particular grammatical unit in which they appear. Whereas, in the case of disjuncts, we related them to the speaker's 'authority' for (or the speaker's

comment on) the accompanying clause, we relate conjuncts to the speaker's comment in one quite specific respect: his assessment of how he views the connection between two linguistic units. The units concerned may be very large or very small: sentences, paragraphs, or even larger parts of a text at one extreme (*cf* 19.86); at the other extreme, they may be constituents of a phrase realizing a single clause element. For example:

The candidate is a fine teacher, a broadcaster of some experience, and a respected drama critic. *In addition*, she has written a successful novel. [1]

The candidate has written a successful, lengthy, popular, and *in addition* highly original novel. [2]

As in [2], it is common for a conjunct to have a focusing role along with the conjoining one, especially when it is conjoining relatively small units. In this way, the extreme of conjoining words within a phrase can be taken one stage further: to conjoining constituents of a word:

The patient was carefully observed in the pre- and *likewise* ⟨PÒST⟩-operative phase of treatment.

Like disjuncts, such conjuncts can often be seen as equivalent to adverbials in clauses having the speaker as subject:

. . . a respected drama critic. I tell you *in addition* that she has written . . . [1a]

Some conjuncts include a pronominal reference to the unit which is to be related:

in addition to *this* (*ie* what I have mentioned)
first of *all* (*ie* of what I shall list)
best of *all* (*ie* of what I have listed)
for all *that* (*ie* what I have said)

In the case of the informal conjunct *though*, we seem to have an abbreviation of a concessive clause (*cf* 8.145). Thus with:

I'm afraid he doesn't eat much these days – but he looks pretty fit, *though*.

we are expected to understand something like the clausal disjunct (*cf* 8.143):

. . . pretty fit, *though I have said that he doesn't eat much.*

Note Disjuncts and conjuncts are sometimes called 'sentence adverbials' by grammarians on the double ground that they can concern a sentence as a whole (rather than a particular part of a sentence such as the predication) and – in the case of conjuncts – can relate one sentence to another. We do not follow this convention, partly because the double motivation involves two quite separate considerations; partly because other adverbials (our 'sentence adjuncts', *cf* 8.36) also relate to the sentence as a whole; partly because both disjuncts and conjuncts can also relate to quite specific units within sentences, as in:

I object to his hearty and, {*frankly*, / *above all*,} crude behaviour.

A further reason is that conjuncts can relate units much larger than sentences: *nonetheless* at the beginning of a paragraph or section of a text will indicate a conjoining contrast with the whole preceding paragraph or section.

8.135 Although we have said (*cf* 8.134) that conjuncts indicate how the speaker 'views the connection between two linguistic units', such an indication does not conversely entail the use of a conjunct. The semantic role of expressing a relation between two units can frequently be fulfilled by an adjunct. Compare the following (where a pronoun, as frequently, functions as a linking device):

It was snowing, *and in spite of this* Mona went cycling.

The adverbial here which conjoins and indicates a concessive relation is an adjunct, as we see from its propensity to be focused in a cleft sentence:

. . . and it was *in spite of this* that Mona went cycling.

By contrast, in:

It was snowing, and *nonetheless* Mona went cycling.

the same conjoining function with the same concessive relation is fulfilled grammatically by a conjunct:

*. . . and it was *nonetheless* that Mona went cycling.

Conjuncts thus *both* indicate the relation *and* are demonstrably outside the syntactically integrated clause structure which admits adjuncts.

Moreover, there is one significant respect in which we must relax the semantic characteristic concerning the conjoining of linguistic units. It is possible for conjuncts to be used as discourse-initial items. Thus speech may actually begin, in the following way, given a particular context of situation:

So you're LÈAVing, *then*!

Both *so* and *then* are conjunctive comments of an inferential nature, but in this example the speaker's inference is based on extralinguistic evidence, which has been treated just as though the person addressed had been heard to say 'Well, I'll see you tomorrow' or even merely 'Now, where's my coat?'

Discourse-initiating items can be less easy to account for plausibly, but it seems significant that such items are usually those that have a well-established conjunctive role in mid-discourse use. Consider the following as each being the first words in a discourse; they would normally occupy a separate tone unit, with a falling nucleus, though solitary initial *well* may be exceptional in having a rising nucleus or none at all:

Well, how are you this morning?
Why then ⟨esp AmE⟩, how shall we spend the evening?
Well now, I wonder if I could begin by asking you a few questions.
{*Right* (*then*), / *OK now* ⟨esp AmE, informal⟩,} how many of you know each other?
Now, the subject of my talk is . . . [≠ 'The subject of my talk now, *ie* at this moment']

Compare some of the same expressions occurring *between* linguistic units:

You didn't feel so good yesterday; *well*, how are you this morning?
I've been looking forward to this meeting for months; *why then*, how shall we spend the evening?

Thank you for welcoming me here; *now* the subject of my talk is . . .

It would seem that, in discourse-initial use, these items seek to enforce by implication some continuity with what *might* have gone before. Silence is difficult to break without some such convention.

Note Items like *well, oh, ah* have conventional values in discourse that are related to subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. On *well cf* 19.54; this typically prefaces a part of discourse which, though having perhaps something in common with what has gone before, introduces a difference of some sort. In consequence, it is convenient as a frequent discourse initiator.

The semantics of conjuncts

8.136 Much more than with disjuncts, the conjunct function entails a conjunct-specific set of semantic relations. They are connected with, but are frequently rather remote from, the adverbial relation we must assume in the speaker-related clause to which they correspond. It is necessary, therefore, to set out the conjunctive meanings concerned, although we shall return to them in 19.53*ff* where they can be seen in the wider context of inter-sentence relations and discourse structure.

We can distinguish seven conjunctive roles, in some cases with fairly clear subdivisions; see *Fig* 8.136.

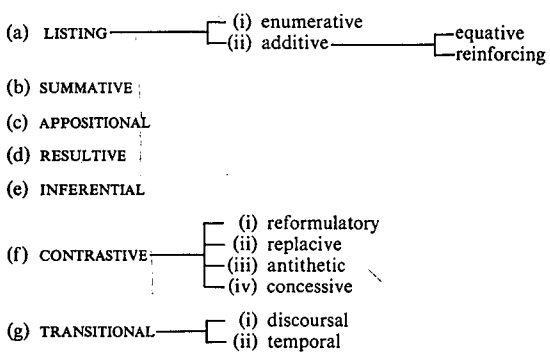

Fig 8.136

8.137 Some of the common conjuncts are listed below according to their role classes and subclasses. Except for enumerative conjuncts (which are an open class), all adverb realizations are given, as well as some frequently occurring prepositional phrases and noun phrases.

(a) LISTING

(i) ENUMERATIVE
first, second, third . . .
first(ly), secondly, thirdly . . .
one, two, three . . . ⟨esp in learned and technical use⟩
a, b, c . . . ⟨esp in learned and technical use⟩
in the first place, in the second place . . .

first of all
second of all ⟨AmE⟩
on the one hand . . . on the other hand [*cf* (f iii)]
for one thing . . . (and) for another (thing)
for a start ⟨informal⟩
to begin with, to start with
next, then
to conclude
finally, last, lastly, last of all

(ii) ADDITIVE

EQUATIVE
correspondingly ⟨formal⟩, *equally, likewise, similarly, in the same way, by the same token*

REINFORCING
again ⟨formal⟩, *also, further* ⟨formal⟩, *furthermore* ⟨formal⟩, *more* ⟨rare, formal⟩, *moreover, in particular, then* ⟨informal, esp spoken⟩, *too* ⟨rare, AmE⟩, *what is more, in addition, above all*; and the following informal expressions: *on top of it all, to top it (all), to cap it (all)*

(b) SUMMATIVE
altogether, overall, then, therefore, thus ⟨formal⟩, *(all) in all*; and the following largely formal expressions: *in conclusion, in sum, to conclude, to sum up, to summarize*

(c) APPOSITIVE
namely (often abbreviated as *viz* in formal written English), *thus, in other words, for example* (often abbreviated to *eg* or *e.g.* in written English and sometimes spoken as /ˌiːˈdʒiː/), *for instance, that is* (often abbreviated to *ie* or *i.e.* in specialized written English and sometimes spoken as /ˌaɪˈiː/), *that is to say, specifically*; *cf* 17.73.

(d) RESULTIVE
accordingly, consequently, hence ⟨formal⟩, *now, so* ⟨informal⟩, *therefore, thus* ⟨formal⟩; *as a consequence, in consequence, as a result, of course*; *cf* also *somehow* ['for some reason or other']

(e) INFERENTIAL
else, otherwise, then;
in other words
in that case

(f) CONTRASTIVE

(i) REFORMULATORY
better, rather, more accurately, more precisely; *alias, alternatively, in other words*

(ii) REPLACIVE
again, alternatively, rather
better, worse;
on the other hand

(iii) ANTITHETIC
contrariwise ⟨formal⟩, *conversely* ⟨formal⟩
instead [blend of antithetic with replacive]
oppositely ⟨rare⟩, *then*;
on the contrary, in contrast, by contrast, by way of contrast, in comparison, by comparison, by way of comparison, (on the one hand . . .) on the other hand

(iv) CONCESSIVE
anyhow ⟨informal⟩, *anyway* ⟨informal⟩, *anyways* ⟨AmE informal⟩, *besides* [blend of reinforcing with concessive], *else, however, nevertheless, nonetheless* ⟨formal⟩ [also written *none the less*], *notwithstanding* ⟨formal⟩, *only* ⟨informal⟩, *still, though, yet, in 'any case, in 'any event* ⟨formal⟩, *at 'any rate, at 'all events, for 'all that, in spite of that, in spite of it all, after all, at the same 'time, on the other hand, all the same, admittedly, of course, still and all* ⟨informal AmE⟩; *that said*

(g) TRANSITIONAL

(i) DISCOURSAL
incidentally, now ⟨informal⟩
by the way
by the by(e) ⟨not commonly used⟩

(ii) TEMPORAL
meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile; note also the set: *originally, subsequently, eventually*

8.138 LISTING (role a) is of course a basic language function and we have structures of coordination for this purpose (*cf* 2.9), involving above all the conjunction *and*:

I did this *and* I did this *and* . . . I saw John *and* Mary *and* . . .

Conjuncts are used to give a particular structure or orientation to a list. At its simplest, the structure shows order by having items performing an ENUMERATIVE function:

First the economy is beginning to recover, and *second(ly)* unemployment figures have not increased this month.

The relation of such items to adjuncts in the speaker's assessment of what he is saying can be seen in paraphrases:

I tell you first that the economy . . . and *I tell you secondly* that unemployment figures . . .

The enumerative function does more than merely assign numerical labels to the items listed: it connotes relative priority and endows the list with an integral structure, having a beginning and an end. The idea of an integral relation is especially conferred by the ADDITIVE conjuncts. By the use of the EQUATIVE subtype, we indicate that an item has a similar force to a preceding one:

She has high responsibilities and, *equally*, a high salary.

We might regard the conjunct here as a fragment of a speaker's comment in which the adverb functions as an adjunct: perhaps 'I assess (or rate) this *equally*'.

The REINFORCING subtype of additive conjunct typically assesses an item as adding greater weight to a preceding one:

He has the opportunity, the motivation, and *above all* the courage to do it.

Here again we might postulate the conjunct as related to some such comment as 'I rate this *above all that I have said*.'

Note [a] The *-ly* forms of ordinal numerals are chiefly used as conjuncts. Contrast:
He arrived *first* (**firstly*) and she arrived *second*. [adjuncts]
First(ly), he is my friend, and *secondly* he is in desperate need. [conjuncts]
Ordinals as conjuncts occur with or without *-ly*, but for many people *firstly* is objectionable. Note that *first* (also *initially, originally*) can also have a subjunct use, especially when associated with such verbs as *invent* and *discover*. Thus:
Hormones were *first* identified by Starling at University College London. [1]
The statement would be a different one if instead of the subjunct we had *first* as a conjunct:
First, hormones were identified by Starling at University College London. [2]
Nor of course does [1] permit us either to replace *first* by *firstly* or to predict a further sentence:
Hormones were *secondly* identified by . . .
[b] Conjuncts like *more* and *something else* must remind us that these truncated speaker-assessments are not necessarily related to adjuncts but (as in these instances) are more plausibly seen as objects: '(I will say) more'.
[c] The cardinal and ordinal numerals may be represented in writing by their symbols in the various systems:
1, 2, 3, . . . I, II, III, . . . i, ii, iii, . . .
Similarly, the alphabetic letters may be represented either as minuscules ('lower case', *a, b, c, . . .*) or as majuscules ('upper case' or 'capitals', *A, B, C, . . .*). These different systems allow the writer to choose a hierarchy of listings and sublistings. In general, no clear conventions have been established for which sets of symbols are to be subordinate to other sets, and the writer is therefore free to choose a hierarchy of sets for his own purpose. One would of course observe consistency and rationale; one would not subordinate capitals to lower-case letters, for example.
[d] *Too* as reinforcing conjunct ⟨rare, AmE⟩ occupies *I* position:
She's had her novel published this year; but TŌO, she's written some interesting articles on acupuncture.

8.139 SUMMATIVE (role b) and APPOSITIVE (role c) conjuncts have this much in common: they precede an item which is to be looked at in relation to all the items that have gone before. SUMMATIVE conjuncts introduce an item that embraces the preceding ones:

He lost his watch, his car broke down, and he got a letter of complaint from a customer: *all in all*, he had a bad day.

APPOSITIVE conjuncts are concerned rather to express the content of the preceding item or items in other terms (*cf* 17.65):

She has some assistance – *for instance*, a secretary.

Where the apposition applies to more than one preceding item there is usually a summative implication:

They took with them some chocolate, cans of beer and fruit juice, a flask of coffee, a pack of sandwiches: *in other words*, enough refreshments.

By contrast, when the apposition itself consists of several items, the conjunct has the effect of specifying a list:

They took refreshments – *that is*, sandwiches, coffee, beer, fruit juice, and chocolate.

8.140 RESULTIVE (role d) and INFERENTIAL (role e) conjuncts again have something in common with each other, as well as with additive, summative, and appositional conjuncts. The more structured a list of items is, the more the final item will tend to be a conclusion in more ways than one: a mere termination, a reinforcement, a summary, a result, and a basis for further inference. This is reflected in the fact that the same conjuncts are listed under several heads. RESULTIVE *of course* and *so* are illustrated in:

She arrived late, gave answers in an offhand manner, and *of course* displeased the interviewing panel.
He was irritable, unjust, unreliable, and *so* became increasingly unpopular.

Result can be tentatively expressed by a coordinate clause with a vague reason item, *somehow* (*cf* Note):

I argued that it wasn't my fault and *somehow* they let me go.

INFERENTIAL conjuncts indicate a conclusion based on logic and supposition:

You haven't answered my question; *in other words*, you disapprove of my proposal.

Especially in formal usage, an *if*-clause can be followed by a correlating inferential *then* ('If this is agreed, *then* we may proceed . . .'). See further, 8.144*f*.

But the conjunct *then* is especially used in an inferential response to another speaker (*cf* also 8.135):

A: Give my regards to John. B: *Then* you're not coming with me?

Note *Somehow* has been included among conjuncts because it fits the criteria for the class (*cf* 8.134), and it is mentioned in the context of resultive conjuncts because it is often close to them semantically: 'and so, in some way that I don't fully understand'. It differs from all other conjuncts in not indicating a relationship between its clause and what precedes; in this respect it resembles a reason disjunct:

Somehow I don't trust him. ['for some reason or other']

Somehow is in fact used when the reason is not made explicit in the preceding context. In contrast, pure resultive conjuncts (*eg*: *therefore* ['for that reason']) require the reason or cause to be given in the preceding context. Hence the clause to which they are attached states the result or consequence.

8.141 CONTRASTIVE conjuncts (role f) present either contrastive words or contrastive matter in relation to what has preceded. The former type is obviously close to the appositive and differs in seeking less to add another formulation ('in other words') than to replace what has been said by a different formulation ('in other words'). Compare:

He was exceedingly inebriated – hopelessly drunk, *in other words*. [appositive]

She has applied for a transfer – she is tired of her present job, *in other words*. [reformulatory]

Such REFORMULATORY conjuncts are, therefore, frequently preceded by *or*:

He invited several friends, or *better*, several people that he THOUGHT were friends. [*ie* 'it would be better if I were to say']

Similarly, *rather* ['I should rather say'].

The item *alias* precedes proper nouns; for example:

He went to Constantinople, *alias* Istanbul.
She married Eric Blair, *alias* George Orwell.

With REPLACIVE conjuncts, contrastive matter may again be prefaced by *or*. The speaker withdraws an item, not to express it better but to replace it by a more important one. Examples of the REPLACIVE conjuncts:

He was opposed by his mother or, *rather*, by BOTH his parents.
Please suit yourself. You can move in at once; (or) *again*, you may prefer to do so next week.

But an item may be contrasted with a preceding one by introducing a direct antithesis; this is effected by means of ANTITHETIC conjuncts, as in:

You promise to help me; *then* you let me down!
He expected to be happy but *instead* he felt miserable.

One item in this group is often used as part of a correlation: *on the one hand . . . on the other* (*hand*).

Where one unit is seen as unexpected in the light of the other, we have the use of CONCESSIVE conjuncts, as in:

She didn't get the award after all. *Still*, her results were very good.
He had worked hard but *all the same* he failed the exam.

Concessive *of course* makes a conjoin resemble a subordinate clause: '*Of course* he's a bit lazy; all the same I'd like to give him the job'. (*Cf* 'Although he's a bit lazy, I'd like to give him the job all the same.')

Note An example of the antithetic conjunct *oppositely* ⟨rare⟩:

Any normal person is depressed when given proper cause for depression. *Oppositely*, normal people become very excited when, for example, they have won a big prize.

8.142 TRANSITIONAL conjuncts (role g) serve to shift attention to another topic or to a temporally related event. We refer to the former as DISCOURSAL:

I want to tell you about my trip, but, *by the way*, how is your mother?

Among the other discoursal conjuncts, note that *now* has a function as discourse-initial; *cf* 8.135. Such conjuncts do not necessarily seek to change the subject of the discourse; they are frequently used merely to indicate a rather adventitious relation:

She is studying physics, astronomy, and, *incidentally*, meteorology.

This last is intended to mean not 'She is studying meteorology as a minor and incidental component of her work' but 'I regard it as an incidental fact worth passing on to you'. Often, however, *incidentally* is used as a polite way of changing the subject; in this usage, it resembles 'by the way' and is *incidental* to what has preceded only to the extent that something has been said that reminds the speaker of the other topic.

TEMPORAL transition similarly seeks to indicate a move away from the normal sequence in narrative:

> He saved a great deal of money but *in the meantime* his house deteriorated badly.

The speaker here is not, of course, concerned to report on two simultaneous happenings but to relate them (in this case, ironically: the money in the bank should have been used to repair the house).

Correspondences to other structures

8.143 We may now look more closely at the way conjuncts correspond to other structures. Almost all, indeed, are like style disjuncts in that the correspondence incorporates a verb of speaking and usually the subject is the speaker (*cf* 8.122). The conjunct is normally represented lexically in the correspondence by a cognate adverbial. We therefore consider the correspondences according to the class of the adjunct or other adverbial concerned.

(i) TIME AND SPACE ADJUNCTS AND SUBJUNCTS

The succession in time or space conveyed by the adverbial is converted into the logical succession of discourse when there is the implication of a verb of speaking. The corresponding clause has as its subject the speaker, but it is sometimes possible to envisage an indefinite pronoun instead (*eg* indefinite *one*, *we*, or *you*). The correspondence can usually be given the form:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{One}\ [\text{etc}]\ \textit{can}\\ \textit{I will}\end{array}\right\}\ \textit{say} + \text{adverbial}$$

We can include here most listing conjuncts (role a in 8.136), the conjuncts *now* and *then* (whatever their subclass), and a few conjuncts scattered through other subclasses; *eg*: *by the way*, *yet*, *still*, *after all*, *at the same time*. Examples:

> There are two things that the Government can do: *First* ['I will say' + *first*], it can cut spending on defence; *second* ['I will say' + *second*], it can reduce the number of civil servants.
> If astronauts have landed on the moon, *then* ['one can say' + *then*] there is no reason why they can't land on Venus.

(ii) PROCESS ADJUNCTS

The same types of correspondence can be established here. The conjuncts involved are scattered through the various subclasses of conjuncts. Examples:

> *Incidentally* ['I tell you' + *incidentally*], he didn't want the book.
> *To conclude* ['I tell you' + (*in order*) *to conclude*], it was a great success.

(iii) ADDITIVE SUBJUNCTS

Here, too, the correspondence incorporates a verb of speaking and usually

the subject is the speaker. We can include here the additive conjuncts (role a(ii) in 8.136). Examples:

> Most of us see no reason why capital punishment should not be abolished. *Further* ['I will *further* say'], the arguments in favour of corporal punishment seem trivial to most of us.
> The acts of a parish council must be confirmed by the parish meeting. *Likewise* ['I will *likewise* tell you'] decisions of a parish meeting must be confirmed by a referendum of all the electors in the parish.

The additive subjuncts (*cf* 8.116) can themselves often function also as time, space, or process adjuncts.

Miscellaneous correspondences that can be postulated for other conjuncts:

(iv) The enumerative conjuncts (role a(i) in 8.136) that are cardinal numerals and alphabetic letters:

$$\text{'I will say'} + \begin{cases}\textit{one, two}, \ldots\\ \textit{a, b}, \ldots\end{cases}$$

(v) The conjunct *only* ⟨informal⟩; role f(iv):

> I intended to read the book, *only* ['I would *only* say'] I felt too tired.

(vi) The conjunct *rather*, role f(ii):

> What unites the party is the absence of a policy. Or *rather* ['I should *rather* say'], there is a policy but it has not been properly formulated.

(vii) Reformulatory *better*, role f(i); in the example given for *rather* in (vi) above, *rather* could be replaced by *better* in the sense 'It would be *better* for me to say'.

(viii) Replacive conjuncts *better* and *worse*, role f(ii):

> You can write to him about it. *Better still* ['It would be *better still* to say'], write to his father.

(ix) Concessive conjunct *however*, role f(iv):

> He didn't like the food. *However* ['*However* true that may be'], he didn't complain about it.

(x) The conjunct *though* in role f(iv) is related to the conjunction *though* (*cf* 8.134). Often it is an informal equivalent to an abbreviated subordinate clause with the conjunction *though* as subordinator:

> His food is rather a problem. He looks fit, *though*.

The sentence is interpreted as:

> His food is rather a problem. He looks fit, *though* his food is rather a problem.

The implied subordinate clause need not be identical with the content of a previous clause:

> Singapore must now be one of the most enviably prosperous cities in

the world. There is no reason, *though*, to suppose that the people of Singapore would want to spend as much money on defence as Britain used to spend.

The implied subordinate clause represented by the conjunct could be something like '*though* the people of Singapore might agree that it needed defending'.

Note [a] For some conjuncts, it is difficult to find a correspondence with a cognate adverbial homonymous adjunct; *eg*: *so, otherwise, at any rate*. With others, there is no direct correspondence at all; *eg*: *furthermore, moreover, namely, nevertheless, meanwhile*. But some of these are compounds with an element that functions as an additive or other subjunct; *eg*: *furthermore, moreover, nevertheless*.

[b] The concessive conjunct *though* is a marginal case. We have earlier pointed out that *though* is often equivalent to a subordinate clause with the subordinator *though* (*cf* 8.134). The problem arises when *though* is in *I* position (not to be interpreted as conjunct) and meaning is preserved if it is transposed elsewhere in the clause. In such cases, there is normally a major pause or punctuation mark between the two clauses. For example:

He is poor – *though* he is satisfied with his condition.

is equivalent to:

He is poor. He is satisfied with his condition, *though*. ⟨more informal⟩

In speech, a special kind of intonation is required for such a clause, normally a falling-rising nuclear tone:

He is PÒOR| – *though* he is SĂTisfied with his condition|

Notice that the sentences are not equivalent to:

Though he is satisfied with his condition, he is poor.

but to:

Though he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.

Compare replacements with although:

He is poor. He is satisfied with his condition, *though*.

$$= \begin{cases} \text{He is PÒOR| – } \textit{although} \text{ he is SĂTisfied with his condition|} \\ \textit{Although} \text{ he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.} \end{cases}$$

But unlike *though*, *although* is not a conjunct, and it cannot be transposed elsewhere in the clause:

He is poor. *He is satisfied with his condition, *although*.

Final *though*- and *although*-clauses can imply some claim of the speaker, *eg*:

$$\text{He is poor – [I maintain that this is true]} \begin{Bmatrix} \textit{although} \\ \textit{though} \end{Bmatrix} \text{he is satisfied with his condition.}$$

Cf end-placed *because*-clauses as disjuncts of reason (8.132).

Cooccurrence and position of conjuncts

8.144 As we have seen in the examples given in 8.138*ff*, conjuncts frequently cooccur with (and frequently immediately follow) conjunctions: *and so, or else, but instead*. The effect of the conjuncts is often, indeed, to give a more explicit orientation to such basic conjunctions as *and, or*, and *but*, and they can be thus used without tautology. What is more, conjuncts of different classes can cooccur without necessarily being tautologous, contradictory, or ungrammatical (though often, as in the following, at the cost of being stylistically objectionable):

And so [resultive] *all in all* [summative] you think that despite her ill health she has *nonetheless* [concessive] made a good impression at the interview.

So [resultive] you think *nonetheless* [concessive] she'll get the job *in other words* [inferential plus appositional].

We can even have a conjunct cooccur with one or more from the same class and achieve the effect of emphatic endorsement rather than of tautology; but again the following is stylistically very undesirable:

$$\text{But } \textit{yet, even so}\text{, she has} \begin{cases} \textit{nevertheless} \text{ done well.} \\ \text{done well, } \textit{all the same.} \end{cases}$$

While emphasis by such means is more characteristic of loose informal talk than formal writing, the converse holds for a related type of endorsement. This is the introduction of a conjunct in a main clause correlating with a conjunction introducing a preceding subordinate clause. For the most part, this belongs to a rather mannered and formal style of writing:

When war actually came, *then* (and only then) the country started rearming.

Because Jennifer foresaw this well in advance, she *therefore* had the necessary time to take preventive action.

But such correlation can freely occur in more ordinary discourse:

If you knew this all along, *then* you could have told me.

Even though you thought I knew, you could have told me *in any case*.

While I'm out, you can *meantime* do the dishes.

Seeing that he had no chance of winning, he *consequently* pretended he wasn't trying.

See further, 8.145.

Disregarding an introductory coordinating conjunction, *I* is the normal position for conjuncts and many are virtually restricted to it, notably *again, besides, yet, still*, (*what is*) *more, so, else, hence*. But as our examples have shown, *M* is quite normal for several of the conjuncts that could not be misinterpreted in this position: *however, nevertheless, in other words, on the contrary*, etc. At *E*, we often find *in other words*, the informal *anyhow, anyway*, and (especially) *though*. Conjuncts at *I* are often followed by a comma, and those at *E* are often preceded by one; such a comma is used especially when the conjunct would have a separate intonation nucleus in speech or when it might be misinterpreted as an adjunct. For example:

Where did she GÒ| *THÉN*| [inferential conjunct: 'in that case'; 'So where did she go?']

Where did she go *THÈN*| [time adjunct: 'after that']

At *M*, *thus* and *therefore* differ in that the former does not follow a negative, where there is no such constraint on *therefore*; *cf*:

$$\text{Rationalization will } \textit{thus} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{not} \\ \text{never} \end{Bmatrix} \text{be without difficulties.}$$

$$?^{*}\text{Rationalization will} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{not} \\ \text{never} \end{Bmatrix} \textit{thus} \text{ be without difficulties.}$$

$$\text{Rationalization will} \begin{Bmatrix} \textit{therefore} \begin{Bmatrix} \text{not} \\ \text{never} \end{Bmatrix} \\ \begin{Bmatrix} \text{not} \\ \text{never} \end{Bmatrix} \textit{therefore} \end{Bmatrix} \text{be without difficulties.}$$

Note [a] Informally, *so* and *but* can be at *E* in Irish English, and *but* can be at *E* in Australian English: 'He has gone, *so*' (where *so* means roughly 'I gather'), 'I didn't do it, *but*' (where *but* means 'all the same').
[b] Despite their potentiality for cooccurrence, conjuncts cannot usually be coordinated. Enumerative conjuncts provide some stereotyped exceptions: *First and foremost*, *Last but not least*, *(Sixth)ly and finally*.
[c] *So*, *yet*, *only*, and *else* are distinguished by the punctuation convention that allows them to be separated from the previous clause by a comma where other conjuncts would require a more major mark of punctuation (*cf* App III.6*ff*, III.12*f*, III.17). However, *else* is normally preceded by the coordinator *or*.
So, *yet*, and *else* usually occur without intonation or punctuation separation from what follows. However, when *so* signals a general inference from the previous linguistic context and might be paraphrased by 'it follows from what we have said', it is often marked by punctuation and intonation:
So, you think you know best. ⟨informal⟩
For *so* and *yet* in relation to coordinators, *cf* 13.18*f*.

Conjuncts as correlatives

8.145 As we saw in 8.144, some conjuncts can correlate with the subordinator of a preceding clause to reinforce the logical relationship between the parts of a sentence. This is because a similar logical relationship is effected by both the subordinator and the conjunct. The difference is that whereas a subordinate clause may often either precede or follow its superordinate clause, a conjunct must always operate anaphorically (*cf* 5.30). For example, the following sentences are similar in meaning (*cf* 8.143):

Though (he is) poor, he is satisfied with his situation. [1]
He is poor, *yet* (he is) satisfied with his situation. [2]

The major difference is that [2] states his poverty as a fact, whereas in [1] his poverty is presupposed as a given assumption (*cf* 18.8). It is when we combine both subordinator and conjunct in one sentence that we have correlation:

Though he is poor, *yet* he is satisfied with his situation.

Indeed, with concessives we can endorse the concession by having more than one concessive conjunct in the second clause (*cf* 8.144, 13.20, 13.33*ff*), though this is stylistically undesirable:

Though he is poor, *yet* he is *nevertheless* satisfied with his situation.

The conjuncts that endorse particular subordinators by correlation are shown below. It should be noted, however, that it is less usual to endorse cause and time subordinators than condition and concession subordinators.

In sharp contrast to the objectionable redundancy to which attention was drawn in 8.144, formal correlation contributes both to stylistic elegance (through rhetorical balance; *cf* 19.18) and to textual clarity (especially where the two parts to be connected are long and complex).

Examples of correlatives:

CONDITION:	if	then
CONCESSION:	although (even) though while whilst ⟨esp BrE⟩ granted (that) even if	yet still however nevertheless nonetheless notwithstanding anyway / anyhow ⟨esp informal⟩
CAUSE:	because seeing (that)	therefore hence ⟨unusual⟩ accordingly consequently
TIME:	while	meanwhile meantime

Note [a] The two instances of *while* listed above are different. *While* in the concessive list of subordinators is synonymous with the subordinator *though*, and the other *while* is equivalent to 'during the time that'. There is a further pair of time correlatives, sometimes used admonitorily: '*When* you've done your homework, *then* you'll get your pocket money.'
[b] Certain other expressions with concessive force may correlate with a concessive conjunct; for example, *true*, *clearly*, or *certainly*, *cf* 19.56.

Conjunctions with conjuncts

8.146 A clause containing a conjunct may be linked to a preceding clause by one of the coordinators (*and*, *or*, *but*; *cf* 8.144), but not all conjuncts cooccur with all coordinators. The following conjuncts seem to be limited to the coordinators indicated:

and so

but: *however* (?), *then* [antithetic], *though*

or: *else*, *again* [replacive]

and / *but*: *besides*, *then (again)* [antithetic], *still*, *yet*, *nevertheless*

One of these conjuncts – *though* – cannot follow the conjunction immediately (*cf* 8.143, Note [b]), and the same is true for *however* with many speakers. The reasons are different. When at *I*, *though* is used as a subordinator and the conjunct's nearest place to *I* is *M*. In the case of *however*, many people feel the sequence *but however* to be tautologous. Indeed, some speakers object to the cooccurrence of *but* and *however* even when they are not in immediate sequence. Compare:

John doesn't look very happy { *but* Mary seems all right, *though*. / *but* Mary, *though*, seems all right.

(?)You can phone the doctor if you like, *but* I very much doubt, *however*, whether you will get him to come out on a Saturday night.

You can phone the doctor if you like. *However*, I very much doubt whether you will get him to come out on a Saturday night.

On the other hand, we cannot have:

*John doesn't look very happy, *but though* Mary seems all right.

For many speakers the following would also be unacceptable:

*You can phone the doctor if you like, *but however*, I very much doubt whether you will get him to come out on a Saturday night.

So, *only*, *yet*, replacive *again*, and antithetic *then* cannot be preceded by subordinators.

Note The concessive conjunct *only* ⟨informal⟩ is a marginal case. Some speakers allow the coordinator *but* to precede it:

?I intended to go, *but only* I didn't feel well.

For those who do not allow *but* to precede *only*, the latter item has a status similar to that of the subordinators causal *for* and resultive *so that* (*cf* 13.8*ff*). Some speakers can begin a question with *only*:

I'd like to come with you; *only*, would I be all right in these clothes?

Other syntactic features of conjuncts

8.147 Except chiefly for *only* and *somehow*, conjuncts can occur in questions. They can do so with similar range of position to that obtaining in declarative sentences:

Anyway, do you know the answer?
So will you be going?
Did he, *in other words*, cheat his employer?

The same is broadly true for indirect questions:

He asked whether they would *nonetheless* remain.

But conjuncts restricted to *I* are excluded:

*He asked whether *so* they would stay.

Unlike most disjuncts, most conjuncts occur freely in imperative sentences:

All the same, try to explain it.
Don't try, *what's more*, to justify yourself.

There are severe constraints on the gradability of conjuncts (as distinct again from disjuncts):

*Very incidentally, . . . *Accordingly enough, . . .

But we find *better still*, *even worse*, and several conjuncts can be intensified by *quite*:

I hoped he would go early but, *quite on the contrary*, he stayed till midnight.
And, *quite by the way*, how is your sister?

Conjuncts can indicate relations between two clauses even where one is subordinate to the other:

I will see him tonight because he will *otherwise* feel hurt. [*cf* I will see him tonight; *otherwise* he will feel hurt]

Where such a subordinate clause can be initial in the sentence, the conjunct – despite its normally anaphoric reference (*cf* 5.30) – may maintain its relating function:

Because he will *otherwise* feel hurt, I will see him tonight.

This is, however, exceptional. Normally, a conjunct in an *I*-placed subordinate clause will relate that clause not to the following matrix clause but to a clause in a preceding sentence:

I can explain it orally. If, *however*, you insist, I will put it in writing.

Transposing the *if*-clause here, we would put the conjunct into the matrix clause to show its constant relation to what has preceded:

I can explain it orally. I will, *however*, put it in writing, if you insist.

Adverbials in conspectus

8.148 We have seen repeatedly that the same item can operate in radically different grammatical functions. Normally, the semantic function is constant, as we may illustrate with the process (manner) adverb *frankly*:

He admitted his mistakes *frankly*.	[1]
He *frankly* admitted his mistakes.	[2]
Frankly, he was contemptuous of the pardon.	[3]
His *frankly* admitted mistakes were pardoned.	[4]
His *frankly* extraordinary attitude dismayed his friends.	[5]

In [1] we have a sentence adjunct (*cf* 8.36), in [2] a subjunct with subject orientation (*cf* 8.92), in [3] a disjunct (*cf* 8.121). In [4] and [5] we have noun phrases incorporating adverbs that can be related to an adjunct and a disjunct respectively.

With some adverbials, notably the closed-class items, there can be a considerable range of meanings according as the grammatical function shifts: for example, *then* as an adjunct concerned with time, and as a conjunct concerned with enumeration, reinforcement, summation, inference, or

antithesis; again, *so* can be an intensifying subjunct, a process adjunct pro-form, and a conjunct. But even with such items, a central core of meaning remains constant: 'in that event' is close enough to 'at that time' to justify the use of *then* for both; with *so*, we are never far from the meaning 'in that way'.

It is such facts as these that justified the basic separation of semantic roles (*cf* 8.22*ff*) and grammatical functions (*cf* 8.24*ff*), but they also have a bearing on cooccurrence and position.

Constraints on cooccurrence

8.149 It was argued in 8.11 that the grounds for distinguishing different classes of adverbial were basically the same as those for distinguishing two different types of object or complement. To this extent, therefore, we are committed to the principle that one (and only one) member of any one class of adverbial can cooccur in a clause with a member of any other class. But we have already drawn attention to infringement of this principle both ways. On the one hand, we have seen more than one member of the same class operating in a sentence without tautology or contradiction:

I'll meet you *downtown* [A-S1] *at the drugstore* [A-S2] *on Monday* [A-T1] *at five* [A-T2]. [where S and T refer to space and time respectively] [1]
We travelled *from Paris* [A1] *to Cologne* [A2] *via Liège* [A3]. [2]
Yet [A1] he succeeded *nevertheless* [A2]. [3]

In [1] we have two space (position) adjuncts and two time (position) adjuncts; in both cases we would account for the cooccurrence by invoking the principle of hierarchical relationship (*cf* 8.45). So also the source, goal, and path adjuncts of space in [2]. In [3] we have two conjuncts of the same concessive subclass and we may invoke the principle of semantic endorsement and reinforcement (*cf* 8.144).

On the other hand, we found that cooccurrence of quite distinct types of adverbial was often precluded: space–direction with space–position, for example, where the verb in the clause connoted stasis (*cf* 8.42). There are other grounds for the preclusion of cooccurrence. For example, although disjuncts and subjuncts with subject orientation are in sharply distinct classes, their cooccurrence in the same clause requires the hierarchically superior disjunct to be placed earlier than the subjunct.

Frankly, they have *deliberately* been keeping him without news.

With the converse order, they cannot cooccur:

**Deliberately*, they have *frankly* been keeping him without news.

Nor does it seem easy to have a style disjunct and a content disjunct in the same clause:

(?)*Wisely*, they have – *to be blunt* – kept him uninformed.

More generally, there are severe constraints on the same formal item appearing more than once in a clause, even when it is realizing distinct grammatical roles. This stylistic restriction is doubtless influenced by our

unavoidable awareness of a common meaning despite the grammatical difference, and hence a correspondingly unavoidable feeling that there is tautology. Compare the following versions of the 'same' sentence:

Obviously [disjunct], Ned can see *perfectly*. [predication adjunct]
Obviously, Ned can see *clearly*.
Clearly, Ned can see *perfectly*.
?*Clearly*, Ned can see *clearly*.

Note Avoiding double occurrence of the same formal item is of course general and has nothing specifically to do with adverbs or indeed with items having related meanings. One is embarrassed (or amused) to hear:
I like most animals but I can't bear bears.
(*Cf* also 4.67, 13.78, 13.101, 17.61).

Relative positions of adverbials

8.150 Style affects also the positioning of adverbials, just as do other interacting factors: realizational, grammatical, and semantic.

Juxtaposition of *-ly* items is widely held to be stylistically objectionable. Thus, while the following is perfectly acceptable:

In the end it is probable that John alone will be chosen.

a paraphrase like the following would not be:

?**Finally probably only* John will be chosen.

(There is little or no objection to *-ly* sequences if the first is an intensifier: 'She drove *extremely slowly*.') Similarity of form in other respects also militates against juxtaposition: thus while 'I kissed her *on the cheek*' [predication adjunct] and 'I kissed her *on the plane*' [sentence adjunct] are equally acceptable, 'I kissed her *on the cheek on the plane*' would be avoided.

It is partly on stylistic grounds that other realizational factors come into play. Since clause-final position is associated with prosodic and semantic 'weight' (*cf* 18.9), it is usually desirable to put adverbials realized by relatively long structures (such as clauses) at the end and have them preceded by adverbials whose realization is shorter (adverb or prepositional phrases); *cf* 8.87. Thus:

He studied them *carefully* [A process] *that night* [A time].

but:

He studied them *that night* [A time] *with the kind of care his wife had suggested* [A process].

In this instance, as frequently, such an order is determined in the interests not only of end-weight but of simple clarity: if *that night* were to follow the A process in the last example, it would seem to be functioning as an adjunct in the clause whose subject is *his wife*.

The notion of centre and periphery (*cf* 2.12) also has an important bearing on the relative position of adverbials. Thus if a predication adjunct and a

sentence adjunct are required in one clause, the former would normally precede the latter in thus preempting a more central place:

He used to keep them *in his garage* [predication A] *in America* [sentence A]. [1]
He cut the string *with his penknife* [predication A] *with great care* [sentence A]. [2]

If as in [1] there is danger of ambiguity, or if there is stylistic objection to having two adverbials of similar structure in juxtaposition, then the more peripheral adverbial is moved to *I*:

In America, he used to keep them *in his garage*. [1a]
With great care he cut the string *with his penknife*. [2a]

Cooccurring adjuncts of the same grammatical class, subject to the stylistic and realizational factors already mentioned, will have their sequence determined by semantics and will normally appear in the order:

process – space – time

For example:

He worked *quietly* [process] *at home* [space].
He worked *at home* [space] *that day* [time].
The plane arrived *uneventfully* [process] *at Honolulu* [space] *by midnight* [time].

Thus within the same class of adjuncts, those concerned with time are seen to be relatively peripheral and this explains the ease with which they can be moved to *I*:

By midnight, the plane arrived *uneventfully at Honolulu*.

8.151 But if it is reasonable from one viewpoint to regard both *E* and *I* as appropriate locations for peripheral adverbials, it must be recognized

(i) that *E* and *I* are in no way to be equated in their communicative effect; and
(ii) that 'peripheral' implies different things for different types of adverbial.

On (i) we shall have more to say in Chapter 18, but for the present we should note that *E* and *I*, so far from being similar, are polarized in some respects – notably in that *E* usually indicates a climax to which all that has preceded contributes, while *I* usually indicates a general premise or background of which the hearer/reader needs to be aware as we proceed to communicate the real stuff of our message. This means that space as well as time adjuncts can be naturally placed at *I* when realized by pro-forms, since these reflect information that is 'given' (*cf* 18.8). Compare:

Hot and flustered, the two Congressmen anxiously arrived *at the airport*; *there* [space] they waited *all morning* [time].
The two Congressmen arrived *at midday*; *then* [time] they had been told the plane would be landing.

So far as (ii) is concerned, we need to note that for some adverbials

peripheralness depends less on their grammatical relations than on their propensity (as we have noted with time adverbials in 8.150) to act as 'background', whereas with other adverbials – notably disjuncts and conjuncts – peripheralness depends on their grammatical relation to another clause whose subject is the speaker. On the face of it, we might expect the latter to be more peripheral than the former, and hence to be placed still closer to the sentential 'rim'. At *E* our expectations seem to be supported. This is not a position frequently occupied by disjuncts or conjuncts, and of course we would not normally want to cluster adverbials in a single position, preferring to put one at *I*, one at *M*, and a third at *E*. But if we had to juxtapose adverbials of different classes, we would be inclined to do so at *E* in the order:

adjunct – conjunct – disjunct

Awkward and implausible as are the following examples, they are comprehensible and unambiguous:

The old lady declined to see me *last night* [Ad], *however* [Con], *unfortunately* [Dis].
My assistant will be away again *tomorrow* [Ad], *what's more* [Con], *probably* [Dis].

At *I*, however, a corresponding attempt to move from 'rim' to 'centre' would be frustrated in more than one respect. A matching peripheralness order would give us:

Unfortunately [Dis], *however* [Con], *last night* [Ad] the old lady declined to see me.
Probably [Dis], *what's more* [Con], *tomorrow* [Ad] my assistant will be away again.

But first, the triple juxtaposition would be even more stylistically clumsy as well as being a little obscure from the viewpoint of information structuring. Secondly, there can be confusion as to whether both disjunct and conjunct are independently related to the following clause or whether the disjunct and conjunct are themselves related as though to mean 'There is the additional probability'. Thirdly, an adjunct at *I* has greater propensity to be the ground for the sentence that follows than has a speaker's comment, and it is thus liable to displace a disjunct or conjunct from *I*. Put differently, disjuncts and conjuncts easily preserve their *grammatical* peripheralness even when located at *M*:

Last night [Ad], she was *clearly* [Dis] unable to remember anything.
In America [Ad], he had *moreover* [Con] kept chickens in his garage.
Until recently [Ad], she was *in other words* [Con] obliged to fend entirely for herself.

8.152 Another factor conditioning the placement of adverbials is similar to the subject-attachment rule (*cf* 'unattached participle': 15.59) and hence affects especially those adverbials that have a close if elliptically expressed relation to a particular element of clause structure. Compare:

?In search of a new house, the evening papers turned out to be of little use to Patricia and her husband.
To Patricia and her husband, in search of a new house, the evening papers turned out to be of little use.

The misplacement of adverbials is particularly serious where the result happens to be a perfectly acceptable and comprehensible sentence, but not with the meaning that was intended. An example from an official letter:

Entirely in the spirit of protective support, could I suggest you pass on an appropriate comment to the personnel concerned?

Enquiry showed that the writer had not intended a suggestion that might protect and support either her or the addressee: she was suggesting that the addressee extend his 'protective support' to the 'personnel concerned'.

As in this example, misplacement often occurs where the originator is actually taking some care to achieve a certain balance in a fairly complicated sentence. The following example (from a newspaper review) is another illustration of this:

Along with Aristotle, Shaw, and William Golding, Bob Dixon finds it impossible to approve writers like Leon Garfield, in my view one of the best children's authors.

Although the syntax suggests quite otherwise, what the reviewer apparently intended was:

Bob Dixon finds it impossible to approve writers like Leon Garfield, along with Aristotle, Shaw, and William Golding. Yet in my view, Garfield is one of the best children's authors.

It is easy to understand why the writer would have found this version less satisfying than his own, which seeks to achieve a fine irony by fronting the list of great writers who are apparently dismissed by Dixon. By this fronting, moreover, it was apparently the writer's hope to append his own opinion neatly, economically, and even climactically after the first (and by this device, the only) mention of Garfield.

Realization and role

8.153 It was pointed out in 8.13 that adverbials could have widely differing types of realization, and we have seen that broadly speaking a particular semantic role or grammatical function does not determine a particular type of realization structure. This seems true of the sentence adjuncts relating to time (position) in the following:

He spoke to me { *then.* / *recently.* / *on a recent occasion.* / *when last Thursday's meeting was over.* }

In other words, for the most part, the choice of realization type is a direct function of the degree of specificity required, and the foregoing examples have ranged from a purely anaphoric reference (*then*), indicating a time which the speaker can assume has been adequately specified elsewhere, to a precise indication of a particular point on a particular day.

But we have seen evidence of a direct tie between realization and role such that (for instance) adjuncts of process (manner) are normally realized by an adverb phrase with an adjective-derived (*-ly*) adverb as head (*cf* 8.78), while adjuncts relating to space (position) are usually realized by prepositional phrases (*cf* 8.40).

There is a still more general relation between role and realization to which attention has been given only implicitly. We have noted that, the longer the adverbial, the more weight of information it rather obviously carries.

The corollary of this is that the adverb phrase (the more especially when this, in turn, is realized by an unmodified adverb) is relatively low in information content and that the adverbial roles that are most frequently so realized are presented to the hearer/reader as a rather minor contribution to the content of a sentence. This assessment we clearly endorse when we choose to place an adverbial at *M*:

John has *recently* been offered promotion.

Bibliographical note

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9 Prepositions and prepositional phrases

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Introduction

Syntactic functions of prepositional phrases

9.1 In the most general terms, a preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal *wh*-clause, or a nominal *-ing* clause:

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE	
PREPOSITION	COMPLEMENT
on	the table
from	what he said
by	signing a peace treaty
in terms of	money
at variance with	the official reports

Fig 9.1 Examples of prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases have the following syntactic functions:

(I) POSTMODIFIER in a noun phrase (*cf* 17.37*ff*):
The people *on the bus* were singing.

(II) ADVERBIAL
(a) Adjunct (*cf* 8.24*ff*):
The people were singing *on the bus*.
In the afternoon, we went *to Boston*.
(b) Subjunct (*cf* 8.88*ff*):
From a personal point of view, I find this a good solution to the problem.
(c) Disjunct (*cf* 8.121*ff*):
In all fairness, she did try to phone the police.
(d) Conjunct (*cf* 8.134*ff*):
On the other hand, he made no attempt to help her.

(III) COMPLEMENTATION
(a) Complementation of a verb (*cf* 9.60*ff*; also prepositional verbs, 16.3*ff*):
We were looking *at his awful paintings*.
(b) Complementation of an adjective (*cf* 9.60*ff*, 16.68*ff*):
I'm sorry *for his parents*.

As complementation of a verb or an adjective, the preposition is more closely related to the preceding word (*look at, sorry for*), which determines its choice, than to the prepositional complement.

The positions and functions of prepositional phrases as adverbial are discussed in Chapter 8. The functions of prepositional phrases as modifiers in noun phrases are further dealt with in 17.37*ff*.

Note [a] Like adverbs (*cf* 7.46*ff*), prepositional phrases may occasionally take a nominal function, for example as subject of a clause (*cf* 10.15):

A: When are we going to have the next meeting?

B: { *On Tuesday* / *In March* / *During the vacation* / *Between 6 and 7* } { will be fine. / suits me. / is what we decided. / may be convenient. }

Such nominal uses can be viewed as related to sentences that have been restructured so as to leave only the adverbial prepositional phrase:

(The proposal that we meet) *on Tuesday* . . .
(To meet) *in March* . . .
(Meeting) *during the vacation* . . .

The preposition can be omitted under the same conditions as stated in 9.40*ff*:

{ *Tuesday* / **6 and 7* } suits me.

With the preposition omitted, however, there is ambiguity (*cf* 10.15 Note [b]), as in:

Tuesday will be fine. { 'Meeting on Tuesday / 'The weather on Tuesday } will be fine.'

[b] In addition to the functions of prepositional phrases mentioned in this chapter, we have a quasi-adjectival function as complement (*cf* 10.11), *eg*:

This machine is (very) *out of date*.
This dress seems *out of fashion*.

The adjectival nature of these prepositional phrases is evident from:

(i) their semantic similarity to adjectives, *eg*:
out-of-date ['obsolete'; *cf*: an *out-of-date* machine, 17.111]
(ii) their possibility of being coordinated with, or appositional to, adjectives, *eg*:
They're happy and *in good health*.
an old and *out-of-order* telephone
(iii) their use as complementation also for copular verbs other than *be* (*cf* 16.23), *eg*:
They seem *in good health*. ['healthy']

[c] Exceptionally (mainly in fixed phrases), an adverb or an adjective may function as prepositional complement (*cf* 7.26 Note):

at last	*at least*	*at once*	*at worst*	*before long*
by far	*in brief*	*in there*	*since when*	*until now*

[d] Prepositional phrases can themselves act as prepositional complements, so that two prepositions may occur in sequence:

He picked up the gun { *from under* the table. / *from behind* the counter.

We didn't meet *until after* the show.
Food has been scarce *since before* the war.
The weather has been fine *except in* the north.

[e] Some prepositions form a correlative construction with a conjunction or another preposition, *eg*:

between Boston *and* New York *from* six *to* seven

[f] The function of verb complementation (IIIa above) may alternatively be regarded as adverbial (*cf* 16.5).

A definition of 'preposition'

9.2 There are several points of similarity between prepositions and other word classes and constructions in English grammar, in particular conjunctions and adverbs, but also participles and adjectives. Before discussing the marginal cases, it will be useful to try to define central prepositions.

CENTRAL prepositions in English can be defined negatively with three criteria. They *cannot* have as a complement:

(i) a *that*-clause

(ii) an infinitive clause
(iii) a subjective case form of a personal pronoun:

He was surprised { **at (that) she noticed him.* [1] / **at to see her.* [2] / **at she.* [3]

That-clauses and infinitive clauses, although they frequently have a nominal function in other respects (*cf* 15.4), do not occur as prepositional complements in English. Alternations between the presence and absence of a preposition are observed in cases like the following:

He was surprised { *that she noticed him.* [1a] / *to see her.* [2a] / *at her.* [3a] / *at her attitude.* / *at what he saw.* }

They convinced him { *of the need for more troops.* / *of how many troops they needed.* / { *that* / **of that* } *they needed more troops.* / { *to* / **of to* } *send for more troops.* }

Such alternations show that the preposition that normally cooccurs with certain verbs and adjectives is omitted before a *that*-clause or infinitive clause. Further examples of verbs and adjectives which can have either prepositions or *that*-clauses are (*cf* 16.3*ff*, 16.68*ff*):

ask (*for*)	inform (*of*)	be bad (*at*)	be sorry (*about*)
decide (*on*)	tell (*of*/*about*)	be aware (*of*)	be interested (*in*)

When omission of the preposition is impossible, some construction other than a *that*-clause or infinitive clause must be used, *eg*:

I'm looking forward *to* { *the meeting with you.* [noun phrase] / *meeting you.* [-*ing* clause] / *what you will say.* [*wh*-clause] }

That-clauses can often become in effect prepositional complements through the use of an appositive construction with a 'general' noun such as *fact* (*cf* 17.26), often resulting in a rather clumsy expression:

They convinced him of *the fact that* they needed more troops.

Note The preposition preceding a *wh*-clause is optional in certain circumstances (*cf* 16.35, 16.73):
I wasn't certain (*of*) *what to do*.

Prepositions, conjunctions, and verbs

9.3 Both prepositions and conjunctions have a relating or connecting function. Compare:

the day { *when she arrived* [*when* = conjunction] / *of her arrival* [*of* = preposition] }

In certain cases, the same items can function both as prepositions and conjunctions, *eg*: *after*, *as*, *before*, *since*, *until*:

the day { *before she arrived* [*before* = conjunction]
before her arrival [*before* = preposition] }

One distinguishing criterion between the two word classes is that prepositions introduce complements which are nominal or nominalized, whereas the corresponding conjunctions (subordinators) introduce a subordinate clause (*cf* 14.11*ff*).

The situation is however complicated in the case of nonfinite clauses, since *-ing* clauses are permitted after a preposition in English (*cf* 14.6*ff*):

On arriving she took a taxi.

Compare *after*, which can be used either as a conjunction or a preposition, with on the one hand *when*, which can only be a conjunction, and on the other *by*, which can only be a preposition:

Table 9.3 Constructions after prepositions and conjunctions

	when = conjunction only	*after* = conjunction or preposition	*by* = preposition only
(a) + FINITE CLAUSE	*when she spoke*	*after she spoke*	**by she spoke*
(b) + NONFINITE CLAUSE	*when speaking*	*after speaking*	*by speaking*
(c) + NOUN PHRASE	**when her speech*	*after her speech*	*by her speech*

Some *-ing* and *-ed* participial forms can function both as marginal prepositions (*cf* 9.8), as nonfinite verb forms, and as conjunctions, *eg*: *considering* and *given*:

PREPOSITIONS:

Considering his age, he has made excellent progress in his studies. ['If one considers his age . . .', 'In view of his age . . .']

Given the present conditions, I think she's done rather well. ['If one takes into account . . .']

PARTICIPLES:

Considering the conditions in the office, she thought it wise not to apply for the job. ['When she considered the conditions . . .']

Given the chance, I'd do it again. ['If I were given the chance . . .']

CONJUNCTIONS:

Considering that he is rather young, his parents have advised him not to apply.

Given that this work was produced under particularly difficult circumstances, the result is better than could be expected.

Other *-ing* and *-ed* forms that can be used as conjunctions are *seeing* (*that*) and *provided* (*that*) (*cf* 14.12).

Note [a] *Instead of* may be classified as a marginal preposition. It fulfils the third criterion for a preposition (*cf* 9.2) in requiring the oblique case form:

I propose you *instead of* { *me.* / **I.* }

It fails the first criterion since it can have an infinitive clause as complement:

It must be so frightful to have to put things on in order to look better, *instead of to strip things off*. (Margaret Drabble, *A Summer Bird-Cage*)

Although *instead of* + infinitive has been attested in good written English, many would here prefer: '. . . *instead of stripping* . . .' (which, however, would spoil the parallelism with *to put* that may have motivated the use of *to strip* here).

Instead of also introduces a finite *as*-clause, thus violating also the second criterion:

He pictures people as he sees them *instead of as they are*.

[b] *On account of* is also used in familiar style as a conjunction, especially in AmE, violating the first condition in 9.2:

I was sitting over there wishing I could write, *on account of* I've thought up what I think's a pretty good spy story. (Kurt Vonnegut, Jr, *Mother Night*).

The directly corresponding standard English construction *on account of my having thought up* is generally clumsy and unidiomatic in the colloquial style here; *because* or *seeing* (*that*) would be the common alternative constructions.

[c] Combinations such as *except that*, *save that*, *but that* [= *except that*], and *in that*, which introduce finite clauses, are complex subordinators, not preposition + *that* (*cf* 14.12).

Functions of *than* and *like*

9.4 The gradience between prepositions and conjunctions also appears in comparative constructions (*cf* 15.63*ff*), such as:

He's bigger *than* { *I am.* [1a] / *I.* [1b] / *me.* [1c] }

With the definition of preposition given in 9.2, *than* is a conjunction in [1a] and [1b], and a preposition in [1c]. However, the choice between [1b] and [1c] is a well-known prescriptive issue in traditional grammar, and it may be argued that *than* is both a conjunction in [1a] and a preposition in [1c], and that *than I* in [1b] is not a reduction of [1a] *than I am* but a hypercorrect variant of [1c] *than me*.

As and *like* are two other items which have functions that are difficult to classify in terms of traditional word classes. The following examples with *like* illustrate the need for a gradient rather than a discrete form of classification:

She looks rather *like* { *me.* / **I.* } [2]

Like { *me,* / **I,* } she's a blonde. [3]

She's a teacher, just *like you and* { *me.* / ?**I.* } [4]

No one can write *like* { *her.* / **she.* } [5]

(?)She can't write *like she used to*. [6]

Like in [2] is adjective-like in accepting the intensifier *very* and comparison (*cf* 7.2):

She looks more *like me*. ['She resembles me more.'] [2a]

In [3], the prepositional use of *like* has a quasi-coordinative function (*cf*: *with, along with*; 10.40):

She's a blonde, and so am I. [3a]

In [4], the hypercorrect subjective form is avoided by many, although it occurs commonly enough when not immediately preceded by *like*. Compare:

She's a teacher { **like I and you.* / *?like you and I.* } [4a]

In [5], the meaning of *like* is similar to that in adverbial clauses 'in the same manner as (she does)', 'as well as (she does)', but the normal form is the objective *like her*; **like she* is generally considered unacceptable.

In [6], *like* introduces a finite clause with obligatory subjective pronoun form (*like she used to*), and thus functions as a conjunction. This use of *like* instead of *as* is widely criticized but common in informal style, especially in AmE. The situation is similar with *like* in clauses of comparison, such as [7]:

(?)He treats me *like I was his sister*. [7]

Here, many would prefer *as if* or *as though*, since *like* is widely regarded as nonstandard in this function. By contrast, out of hypercorrectness, *as* is sometimes used instead of *like* even as a preposition where a useful distinction should be kept between them (*cf* 9.48), as in:

He spoke { *as a leader of mankind*. ['in the capacity of'] / *like a leader of mankind*. ['in the manner of'] }

Note Another group of items with fuzzy borders between word classes includes *but, except*, and *besides* (*cf* 9.58).

Prepositions and adverbs

9.5 Prepositions are items which are often formally identical with and semantically similar to adverbs. Compare the following pairs:

{ She looked *up the hill*. [1]
{ She looked *up the word*. [1a]

{ She walked *across the street*. [2]
{ She walked *across*. [2a]

Both *up* in [1] and *across* in [2] are prepositions with prepositional complement (*up the hill, across the street*). However, in [1a], *up* is an ADVERB PARTICLE in a phrasal verb *look up* with, for example, positional mobility. Compare:

She *looked* the word *up*. [1b]
*She *walked* the street *across*. [2b]

Phrasal verbs are discussed in 16.3*f*. *Across* in [2a] with the complement omitted is called a PREPOSITIONAL ADVERB (*cf* 9.65*f*).

The distinction between preposition and adverb is not clear in expressions like the following:

He is *near to* (being) mad. ['nearly']
This seems *next to* impossible. ['almost']
Close to 200 people came. ['almost']
She is *far from* (being) weak. ['anything but']

The simple preposition *near* and the complex prepositions *near to* and *close to* (all locative; *cf* 9.20) satisfy all three criteria for prepositions. At the same time, they have certain affinities with adjectives and adverbs. *Near* (*to*) and *close to* are the only prepositions which have both comparison and intensification:

She sat { (very) *near* (*to*) / (quite) *close to* / (much) { *nearer* (*to*) / *closer to* } / *nearest* (*to*) / *next to* / *closest to* } me.

About is an adverb in the following use:

She is *about* forty. [3]

That the function is adverbial appears from the possibility of omission [3a], substitution by adverbs [3b], and postposition [3c]:

She is (*about*) forty. [3a]

She is { *about* / *roughly* / *approximately* } forty. [3b]

She is FÓRty { *about*. ⟨informal⟩ / *approximately*. } [3c]

Note Some phrases consisting of preposition + noun have become fixed and function as closed-class adverbs (*cf* 7.46), *eg*: *of course* ['naturally'], *in fact* ['actually']. Sometimes the combination is spelled as a single word: *indeed, instead*.

Deferred prepositions

9.6 Normally a preposition must be followed by its complement, but there are some circumstances in which this does not happen.

In the following three cases the DEFERMENT of the preposition is obligatory.

(a) Passive constructions with a prepositional verb where the subject corresponds to the prepositional complement in the active (*cf* 3.69, 16.14):

Has *the room* been paid *for*?
~ Has X paid *for the room*?
~ *Has *for the room* been paid?

She was sought *after* by all the leading impresarios of the day. [also in premodification: 'a much *sought-after* singer']
He was not paid attention *to*.

(b) Infinitive clauses with thematization of the prepositional complement (*cf* 18.36):

He's impossible to work *with*.

(c) *-ing* clauses with thematization:

He's worth listening *to*.

With interrogative and relative pronouns as prepositional complement, there are often alternative positions available: one formal with the preposition in its normal place before the complement [1, 2], the other informal with the preposition deferred to final position [1a, 2a]:

WH-QUESTIONS (*cf* 11.14*ff*, 16.15):

At which house did you leave the car? ⟨formal⟩ [1]
Which house did you leave the car *at*? [1a]

Usually (*cf* 11.14 Note [e]):

Where did you leave your car? [1b]

RELATIVE CLAUSES (*cf* 17.16):

The old house *about which* I was telling you is empty. ⟨formal⟩ [2]
The old house (*which*) I was telling you *about* is empty. [2a]

A prejudice against such deferred (or 'stranded') prepositions [1a, 2a] remains in formal English which, for direct or indirect questions and for relative clauses, offers the alternative of an initial preposition [1, 2]. The alternative construction is often felt, however, to be stilted and awkward, especially in speech. In some cases, such as the following, the deferred preposition has no preposed alternative:

What did she look *like*?
What I'm convinced *of* is that the world's population will grow to an unforeseen extent.
All she could talk *about* was her dog.

In general, it is the most common and the short prepositions which can be deferred, in particular spatial prepositions (9.15*ff*), compare:

He left his coat *in the car*.

~... the car *in which* he left his coat / (*that*) he left his coat *in* [3]

He left politics *because of the election results*.

~... the election results *because of which* he left politics / *(*that*) he left politics *because of* [4]

The plane was destroyed *through the pilot's carelessness*.

~... the pilot's carelessness *through which* the plane was destroyed / *(*that*) the plane was destroyed *through* [5]

Simple and complex prepositions

Simple prepositions

9.7 Most of the common English prepositions, such as *at*, *in*, and *for*, are SIMPLE, *ie* they consist of one word. Other prepositions, consisting of more than one word, are called COMPLEX (*cf* 9.10*ff*). The following is a list of the most common simple prepositions. In view of the different stress patterns (*cf* 9.9), they have been divided into mono- and polysyllabic. References are given to sections in this chapter where the uses of the prepositions are discussed.

(a) Monosyllabic prepositions

as	Basis of comparison 7.86; Role 9.4, 48
at	Space 9.15*ff*; Time position 9.34; Goal, target 9.46; Stimulus 9.51; Standard 9.62; Reaction 9.63
but	Exception 9.58
by	Space 9.20; Time 9.34, 39; Means and instrument 9.49; Agentive 9.50; Stimulus 9.51; Reaction 9.63
down	Movement 9.26, 32; Orientation 9.27
for	Duration 9.36, 38, 42; Cause, etc 9.44; Purpose, intended destination 9.45; Recipient 9.46; Support 9.53; Standard 9.62
from	Space 9.15*ff*; Orientation 9.27; Resultative 9.28; Originator 9.32; Duration 9.37; Cause, etc 9.44; Source, origin 9.47; Substance 9.61
in	Space 9.15*ff*, 32; Time position 9.34; Measurement into the future 9.35
like	Manner 9.4, 48
near (*to*)	(also comparative and superlative: *nearer* (*to*), *nearest* (*to*)) Space 9.20
of	Cause, means 9.49 Note [b]; various relations 9.54*f*; Subject matter 9.60; Material 9.61
off	Space 9.15*ff*
on	(*cf*: *upon*) Space 9.15*ff*, 32; Time position 9.34; Target 9.46 Note [b]; Means and instrument 9.49 Note [a]; Respect 9.57; Subject matter 9.60
out	⟨esp AmE⟩ Negative position 9.18 Note
past	Passage 9.25; Orientation 9.27; Resultative 9.28, 32
per	Distributive frequency 5.18, *cf* 8.64
pro	(see Note [a])
qua	(see Note [a])
re	Respect 9.57, (see Note [a])
round	⟨esp BrE⟩ Space 9.22; Movement 9.26; Orientation 9.27
sans	(see Note [a])
since	Time 9.38
than	Basis of comparison 9.4, 7.85
through	⟨in informal AmE also spelt *thru*⟩ Relative position 9.22; Passage 9.25; Orientation 9.27; Pervasive 9.29; Perseverance 9.32; Duration 9.36*f*; Intermediacy 9.50
till	(*cf*: *until*) Duration 9.37*f*
to	Space 9.15*ff*; Movement 9.26; Recipient 9.32; Duration 9.37; Reaction 9.63

up	Movement 9.26, 32; Orientation 9.27
via	(see Note [a])
with	Space 9.20; Pervasive 9.29; Manner 9.48; Means and instrument 9.49*f*; Accompaniment 9.52; Support and opposition 9.53; 'Having' 9.55; Ingredient 9.61

(b) Polysyllabic prepositions

a'bout	Space 9.22; Respect 9.57; Subject matter 9.60
a'bove	Relative position 9.19, 32
a'cross	Relative position 9.22; Passage 9.25, 28; Movement 9.26; Orientation 9.27
'after	Relative position 9.19; Time 9.38
a'gainst	Position 9.17 Note [b]; Opposition 9.53
a'long	Movement 9.26; Orientation 9.27; Pervasive 9.29 (also *a'longside*)
a'mid(st)	⟨formal⟩ Space 9.21, 32
a'mong(st)	⟨*amongst* esp BrE⟩ Space 9.21; Relation 9.32
'anti	(see Note [a])
a'round	⟨esp AmE for some uses⟩ Space 9.22; Movement 9.26; Orientation 9.27; Pervasive 9.29
a'top	⟨esp AmE; literary⟩ Relative position, *cf* 9.19
be'fore	Relative position 9.19; Time 9.38
be'hind	Relative position 9.19; Relative destination 9.23; Passage 9.24
be'low	Relative position 9.19, 32
be'neath	⟨formal⟩ Relative position 9.19, 32
be'side	Space 9.20
be'sides	Addition 9.20, 58
be'tween	Space 9.21; Relation 9.32; Time 9.39
be'yond	Orientation 9.27, 32; Exception 9.58
'circa	(see Note [a])
de'spite	Concession 9.56
'during	Time position 9.34; Duration 9.36
ex'cept	Exception 9.58
in'side	Space 9.15 Note [a], 9.55 Note
'into	Space 9.15*ff*; Movement 9.26, 32
ˌnotwith'standing	⟨formal⟩ Concession 9.56
'onto	Space 9.15*ff*
'opposite	Space 9.20
out'side	Space 9.15 Note [a], 9.55 Note
'over	Survey of different senses 9.30; Relative position 9.19; Relative destination 9.23; Passage 9.24; Movement 9.26; Orientation 9.27; Resultative 9.28; Pervasive 9.29; 'more than' 9.32 Note [a]; Duration 9.36; Subject matter 9.60
'pace	(see Note [a])
'pending	Duration 9.38 Note [b]
through'out	Pervasive 9.29; Duration 9.36

to'ward(s)	⟨*to'ward* esp AmE⟩ Movement 9.17, 26
'under	Relative position 9.19; Relative destination 9.23; Passage 9.24; Subjection, etc 9.32; 'less than' 9.32 Note [a]
ˌunder'neath	⟨formal⟩ Relative position 9.19; Relative destination 9.23; Passage 9.24
un'like	Manner 9.48
un'til	Duration 9.37*f*
u'pon	⟨formal⟩ (see *on* above)
'versus	(see Note [a])
'vis-à-'vis	(see Note [a])
with'in	Space 9.15 Note [a], 9.55 Note
with'out	Means and instrument 9.49*f*; Accompaniment 9.52; 'Having' 9.55

Note [a] Some of the prepositions listed above are restricted in terms of frequency, style, or usage. The following are foreign borrowings that are restricted to certain contexts, usually formal or technical. Those that have not yet been fully anglicized are often italicized in print.
Latin origin: *anti, circa, pace, pro, qua, re, versus* [abbreviated *v* ⟨BrE⟩, *vs* ⟨AmE⟩], *via*
French origin: *sans, vis-à-vis*
[b] The prepositions *agin* and *anent* are rare and stylistically restricted; *agin* is common in Scots and so is *outwith* /ˈaʊtˌwɪθ/ ['except', 'outside']. Also ⟨BrE dialectal⟩: *while* ['till'].
[c] In poetic style, the reduced forms *'tween* and *'twixt* ['between'] may occur.
[d] *'Unto* ['to'] is archaic and biblical.
[e] As indicated in the lists above, there are differences between AmE and BrE in the use of some prepositions. One such example is *toward/towards* (*cf* 7.46 Note [a]).

Marginal prepositions

9.8 In addition to the prepositions listed in 9.7, there are some words which behave in many ways like prepositions, although they also have affinities with other word classes such as verbs or adjectives (*cf* 9.3*f*), *eg*:

Granted his obsequious manner, I still think he's ambitious enough to do the job.
He gave Mary all *bar* ['except'] three of the sketches.
Two gold-hilted swords, each *worth* £10,000, were sold at Sotheby's last Monday.

Here is a list of some marginal prepositions with verbal affinities:

bar, 'barring, ex'cepting, ex'cluding; save ⟨formal⟩ (Exception 9.58)
con'cerning ⟨formal⟩, *con'sidering* (*cf* 9.3, 57), *re'garding, re'specting, 'touching* ⟨formal or literary⟩ (Respect 9.57)
'failing, 'wanting
'following, 'pending ⟨formal⟩ (Time 9.38 Note [b])
'given, 'granted, in'cluding (*cf* 17.73)

Less, minus, plus, times, and *over* form a special group in their use with numerals (*cf* 6.68), *eg*:

6 + 2 is read as 'six plus two'.

In informal style, *minus* and *plus* can also occur in nonnumerical contexts:

I hope he comes *minus* his wife. ['without']
She's had mumps *plus* measles. ['and']

Plus can even be used as a conjunction (*cf* 13.5 Note [b]):

You can get what you want, *plus* you can save money. ⟨esp AmE⟩ ['and in addition', 'also']

Stressing of simple prepositions

9.9 As regards stress, simple prepositions can be divided into two groups:

(a) Prepositions which have no reduced form in their pronunciation (*cf* App II.9), *eg*: *like, round, since, through*. For example:
A: What's its SHÀPE *like* /laɪk/? B: It's *like* /laɪk/ a SÀUsage.

(b) Prepositions which have reduced forms, *eg*: *from* /frɒm, frəm, frm/ and where the choice of phonetic form varies according to function. For example:
A: Where's he *FRÒM* /frɒm/? B: He's *from* /frəm/ New JÈRsey.

Monosyllabic prepositions are normally unstressed; polysyllabic prepositions are normally stressed. However, stressed monosyllabic prepositions are by no means uncommon, especially in coordination:

Trains both ˈ*to* and ˈ*from* London are late this morning.
. . . government ˈ*of* the people, ˈ*by* the people, and ˈ*for* the people

Stressing of prepositions also occurs in repeated patterns where the stress shifts from a 'given' item to a 'new' item (*cf* 19.25), as in:

A: Why don't you borrow the book from the LÌbrary?
B: It's not ÌN the library.

Yet stressing takes place not only in such contrastive use, but also in some other cases where the prepositional complement is unstressed or is the 'tail' of the tone unit (*cf* App II.15), *eg*:

Where are you *FRÒM*? He's *PÀST* it.
They took it *ÒFF* him. What's it *FÒR*?
What *ÒF* it?

The stress shift from the complement of the preposition, as in [1], to the preposition, as in [2], is clearly conditioned by the desire to avoid stressing the pronoun *it* (*cf* 6.16):

There's nothing { *to this STÒry.* [1]
TÒ it. [2] }

Special stress patterns are used for special effects. Note the different meanings according to whether the preposition *by* is stressed or not in:

She wants to have a book { *BY her.* ['near herself'; place] ⟨esp BrE⟩
by HÈR. ['written by'; agentive; *cf* 9.50] }

Note also the different meanings of *for* with varying stress in the following set:

Our vote is *FÒR* /ˈfɔːʳ/ *the students.* ['in favour of the students']
The exams are *for* /fəʳ/ *the STÙdents.* ['are designed for the students to take']

Note Stressing monosyllabic prepositions has become rather fashionable, although some people regard it as annoyingly affected. Public speakers and radio commentators tend to stress monosyllabic prepositions where weak forms are expected. Speakers may stress them when searching for the appropriate complement, *eg*:
FRÒM . . . /əhː/ . . . the Palace GÀTES . . . the Royal carriage proceeds . . .
However, some speakers do it when there is no such motivation, *eg*:
ˈÒN this record| Benny plays beautiful VÌBES|

Complex prepositions

Two-word sequences

9.10 Complex prepositions may be subdivided into two- and three-word sequences.

In two-word sequences, the first word (which usually is relatively stressed) is an adverb, adjective, or conjunction, and the second word a simple preposition (usually *for, from, of, to*, or *with*). For example:

Except for Margaret, everybody was in favour of the idea.
We had to leave early *because of* the bad weather.
I sat *next to* an old lady on the train.

Here is a list of some two-word prepositions:

ˈ*up against*	ˈ*as per*
ˈ*as for* (9.57) *exˈcept for* (9.58)	ˈ*but for* (9.59)
aˈpart from (9.58) *aˈway from* (9.15*ff*)	*aˈside from* ⟨esp AmE⟩ (9.58) ˈ*as from*
aˈhead of ˈ*back of* ⟨informal AmE⟩ (9.11 Note) *exˈclusive of* *inˈstead of* ˈ*off of* ⟨informal AmE⟩ *outˈside of* ˈ*upwards of*	ˈ*as of* *beˈcause of* (9.44) *deˈvoid of* *inˈside of* *irreˈspective of* (9.57 Note) ˈ*out of* (9.15*ff*, 28, 32, 61) *reˈgardless of* (9.57 Note) ˈ*void of*
acˈcording to (9.57, 63) ˈ*close to* (9.20) ˈ*due to* ˈ*next to* (9.20) ˈ*owing to* *preˈparatory to* ˈ*prior to* ˈ*subsequent to* ˈ*up to* (9.37)	ˈ*as to* (9.57) ˈ*contrary to* ˈ*near(er) (to)* (9.20) ˈ*on to* [*cf*: ˈ*onto*] (9.7, 15 Note [b]) *preˈliminary to* ˈ*previous to* *purˈsuant to* ⟨formal⟩ ˈ*thanks to*
aˈlong with	*toˈgether with*

Note As with simple prepositions (*cf* 9.7 Note [a]), there are also complex prepositions of French origin which have not yet been fully anglicized and are often italicized in print, *eg*: *à la* (*cf* 17.60 Note) and *apropos* (*of*) ['with regard to'] (*cf* 9.57).

Three-word sequences

9.11 The most numerous category of complex prepositions is the type consisting of three words, as in:

Prep1 + Noun + Prep2: *in view of* the election [1]

Other examples:

In terms of money, her loss was small.
Two men were interviewed at Bow Street Police Station *in connection with* a theft from an Oxford Street store.
How many delegates are *in favour of* this motion?
His biography of Eisenhower is in many places *at variance with* the official reports.
In line with latest trends in fashion, many dress designers have been sacrificing elegance to audacity.

With three-word sequences we also include complex prepositions where the noun is preceded by a definite or indefinite article:

in the light of / *as a result of* } the election [1a]

Complex prepositions may be subdivided according to which prepositions function as Prep1 and Prep2, *eg*:

in + noun + *of*:

in aid of	*in back of*
in behalf of ⟨AmE⟩	*in case of*
in charge of	*in consequence of*
in (the) face of	*in favour of*
in front of (9.19)	*in (the) light of*
in lieu of	*in need of*
in place of	*in (the) process of*
in quest of	*in respect of*
in search of	*in spite of* (9.56)
in view of	

in + noun + *with*:

in accordance with (9.63 Note)	*in common with*
in comparison with	*in compliance with*
in conformity with	*in contact with*
in line with	

by + noun + *of*:

by dint of	*by means of*
by virtue of	*by way of*

on + noun + *of*:

on account of (9.44)	*on behalf of*
on (the) ground(s) of	*on the matter of* (9.57)
on pain of	*on the part of*
on the strength of	*on top of* (9.19)

Other types:

as far as (9.17)	*at variance with*
at the expense of	*at the hands of*
for (the) sake of	*for/from want of*
in exchange for	*in return for*
in addition to (9.58)	*in relation to*
with/in regard to (9.57)	*with/in reference to* (9.57)
with/in respect to (9.57)	*with the exception of* (9.58)

Note Some complex prepositions consisting of three-word sequences tend to be shortened to two-word sequences in casual speech, *eg*: *(in) back of*, *(by) way of*, *(by) means of*, *(on) pain of*, *(for) sake of*, *(in) spite of*:
Spite of this, I think we should go right ahead.
Let's do this *sake of* consistency.

Gradience between complex prepositions and free noun-phrase sequences

9.12 In the strictest definition, a complex preposition is a sequence that is indivisible both in terms of syntax and in terms of meaning. However, there is no absolute distinction between complex prepositions and constructions which can be varied, abbreviated, and extended according to the normal rules of syntax. Rather, there is a scale of 'cohesiveness' running from a sequence which behaves in every way like a simple preposition, *eg*: *in spite of (the weather)*, to one which behaves in every way like a set of grammatically separate units, *eg*: *on the shelf by (the door)*. Nine indicators of syntactic separateness are listed below.

(a) Prep2 can be varied:
on the shelf at (the door) [but not: **in spite for*, etc]

(b) The noun can be varied as between singular and plural:
on the shelves by (the door) [but not: **in spites of*]

(c) The noun can be varied in respect of determiners:
on a/the shelf by; *on shelves by (the door)* [but not: **in a/the spite of*]

(d) Prep1 can be varied:
under the shelf by (the door) [but not: **for spite of*]

(e) Prep + complement can be replaced by a possessive pronoun (*cf* Note [c] below):
on the surface of the table ~ *on its surface*
[but: *in spite of the result* ~ **in its spite*]

(f) Prep2 + complement can be omitted:
on the shelf [but not: **in spite*]

(g) Prep2 + complement can be replaced by a demonstrative:
on that shelf [but not: **in that spite*]

(h) The noun can be replaced by nouns of related meaning:
on the ledge by (*the door*) [but not: **in malice of*]

(i) The noun can be freely premodified by adjectives:
on the low shelf by (*the door*) [but not: **in evident spite of*]

In all these respects, *in spite of* 'qualifies' as a complex preposition, whereas *on the shelf by* does not. To these syntactic criteria of cohesiveness, a lexical criterion may be added: unlike syntactic constructions, the complex preposition *in spite of* has a synonymous simple preposition *despite*.

As examples of sequences which lie between these two poles, we may take *in quest of*, *in search of*, *in comparison with*, and *in defence of*, as showing progressively less of the character of a preposition and more of the character of a free syntactic construction.

In quest of is slightly less cohesive than *in spite of* in that it has property (h) (*cf*: *in search of*).

In comparison with goes further, in that it has property (d) (*cf*: *by/through comparison with*), as well as properties (f) (*cf*: *in comparison*) and (h) (*cf*: *in common with*). *In defence of* goes yet further, having four of the properties of a free construction, *viz* (c) *in the defence of*, (e) *in her defence*, (h) *in support of*, and (i) *in keen/stubborn/bold defence of*.

On the other hand, all these types might reasonably be considered 'complex prepositions', in that they have more in common with *in spite of* than with *on the shelf by*.

Note [a] The cohesiveness of complex prepositions (as compared with free constructions) should be related to complex subordinators like *in that*, *in order that*, *as long as* (*cf* 14.12*ff*), and to phrasal lexicalization (*cf* App I.9*ff*).
[b] Legal English is notable for complex prepositions, the following being among those found mainly in legalistic or bureaucratic usage: *in case of*, *in default of*, *in lieu of*, *in pursuance of*, *in respect of*, *on pain of*.
[c] Some complex prepositions ending in *of* have an alternative genitive construction (*cf* (e) above and 5.120), *eg*:
for the sake of the people ~ for the people's sake
on behalf of Jim ~ on Jim's behalf
at the expense of Susan ~ at Susan's expense
[d] Occasionally there appear variants of complex prepositional sequences, *eg*: *in light of* for the regularly used *in the light of*, and the rather idiosyncratic *for dint of* (obviously based on *by dint of*) in the following example from Norman Mailer, *Marilyn*:
. . . unable to put down a word *for dint of* listening to her . . . ['because he was listening']

Boundary between simple and complex prepositions

9.13 The boundary between simple and complex prepositions is also an uncertain one. Orthographic separation is the easiest test to apply, but anomalies such as writing *into* as one word but *out of* as two, and *instead of* as two words but *in lieu of* as three, merely emphasize the arbitrariness of the distinction between one and more than one word in writing.

A test that can be applied to many cases is that a preposition when simple is identical in form to its corresponding prepositional adverb (*cf* 9.65*f*), *eg*: *by* in:

{She stood *by the door*.
{She walked *by*.

A complex preposition, on the other hand, loses its final element when transferred to the function of adverb (*cf* 9.66):

She put the skis {*on top of the car*.
{*on top*.

Note In colloquial AmE use, *on top* occurs also as a preposition (*on top the car*), perhaps just by syncope of /ə/ to which *of* is reduced.

Prepositional meanings

9.14 As we said in 9.1, a preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement. Of the various types of relational meaning, those of SPACE and TIME are easiest to describe systematically. Other relationships such as INSTRUMENT and CAUSE may also be recognized, although it is difficult to describe prepositional meanings systematically in terms of such labels. Some prepositional uses may be elucidated best by seeing a preposition as related to a clause, *eg*:

the man *with the red beard* ['the man who has the red beard'; *cf* 9.55, 17.37]
my knowledge *of Hindi* ['I know Hindi'; *cf* 17.41]

We shall relate semantic categories to their most usual syntactic functions, but one semantic category often has more than one syntactic function (*cf* 9.1). For example, prepositional phrases of place can postmodify in nominalizations (*cf* 17.51*ff*), as in [1], as well as in their more usual adverbial function [2]:

his departure *from Paris* [1]
He departed *from Paris*. [2]

In the survey of prepositional meanings, to which most of this chapter is devoted, space and time relations will be dealt with first, and will be followed by a more cursory exemplification of other relations such as 'cause', 'goal', and 'origin'. So varied are prepositional meanings that no more than a presentation of the most notable semantic similarities and contrasts can be attempted here.

Prepositions denoting spatial relations

Dimension

9.15 When we use a preposition to indicate space, we do so in relation to the dimensional properties, whether subjectively or objectively conceived, of the location concerned. Consider *at* in example [1]:

My car is *at the cottage*. [1]

Here the use of *at* treats *cottage* as a dimensionless location, a mere POINT in relation to which the position of the car can be indicated. This is dimension-type 0. Compare *on* in [2]:

Our cottage is *on that road.* [2]

In [2], the road is viewed as a LINE ['along that road'], *ie* dimension-type 1. But *on* can also be used to denote an area, as in [3] and [4]:

There is some ice *on that road.* [3]
There is a new roof *on the cottage.* [4]

In [3] and [4], the road and the cottage are viewed as two-dimensional areas, *ie* as SURFACES.

Finally, compare *in*, as in [5]:

There are only two beds *in the cottage.* [5]

In [5], the cottage is viewed as the three-dimensional object which in reality it is. *In* is also capable of being used with objects which are essentially two-dimensional, as in [6]:

The cows are *in the field.* [6]

Here *field* is conceived of as an enclosed space (contrast: 'We walked on the beach'). *In* therefore belongs to dimension-type 2 or 3. *Figure* 9.15 below sets out the dimensional orientation of the chief prepositions of space:

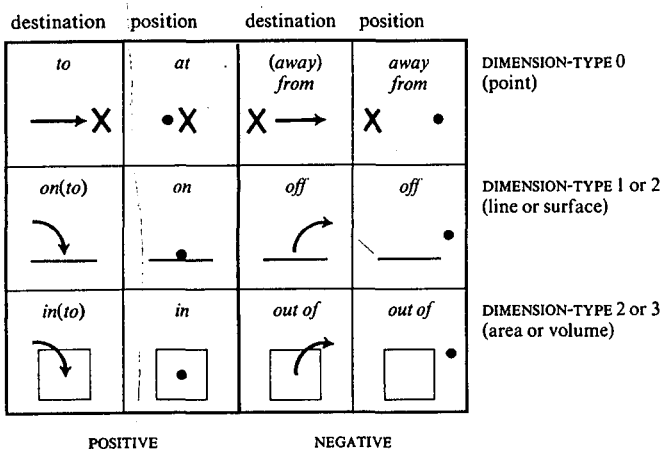

Fig 9.15 Space and dimension

Note [a] Some of the prepositions in the above figure can be replaced by other prepositions with the same meaning. *Upon* is a formal equivalent of *on* where a surface is referred to, or is the basis of, the metaphor concerned. When used metaphorically in archaic expressions, *upon* is obligatory: *upon/*on my word, upon/*on my soul*, etc. In some cases, *inside* and *within* can substitute for *in*, and *outside* for *out of*, but only *within* (not *in*) can be used in the following expressions: *within shooting distance, within these four walls.*

[b] *Onto* is sometimes spelled as two words, especially in BrE:

She jumped {*onto* / *on to*} the horse.

I think you're {*onto* / *on to*} something there. ⟨informal⟩

The particle *on* + the preposition *to* are always written as two words:

From Lancaster we *went on to* York. ['continued to']

[c] *Into* is obligatory in fixed metaphorical expressions like *get into trouble, get into debt* (*cf* 9.32).

Positive position and destination: *at, to, on, onto, in, into*

9.16 Prepositional phrases of place are typically either adjuncts (relating an event or state of affairs to a location) or postmodifiers (relating some 'object' to a location).

Between the notions of simple position (or static location) and destination (movement with respect to an intended location) a cause-and-effect relationship obtains:

DESTINATION	POSITION
Ann went *to* Oxford.	AS A RESULT: Ann was *at* Oxford.
Ann climbed *onto* the roof.	AS A RESULT: Ann was *on* the roof.
Ann dived *into* the water.	AS A RESULT: Ann was *in* the water.

A prepositional phrase of 'position' can accompany most verbs, although this meaning is particularly associated with verbs of stative meaning (*cf* 2.43, 4.28*ff*), such as *be, stand, live*, etc. The meaning of 'destination' generally (but by no means always, *cf* 9.24*ff*) accompanies a verb of dynamic 'motional' meaning, such as *go, move, fly*, etc.

In many cases (especially in colloquial English), *on* and *in* may be used for both position and destination when *onto* and *into* make an unnecessary emphasis on the combination of destination + dimension:

She fell *on* the floor.
He put his hands *in* his pockets.

Note There are various restrictions, especially in BrE, on the interchangeability of *on* with *onto* and *in* with *into*: most verbs of motion such as *walk, slide, swim* require *onto* and *into* for destinational meaning. Note the difference between:

Don't run *in the school.* ['when you are inside the building']
Don't run *into the school.* [*ie* from outside it]

Causative verbs such as *place, stand, lay, sit*, on the other hand, usually permit combinations both with and without *to, onto*, and *into*:

She put the typewriter case *on(to) the top shelf* and the key *in(to) the drawer.*

But there appear to be some restrictions:

The mother sat the baby {*on* / *?onto*} *the chair.*

9.17 Here are some more examples of each dimension-type.

Dimension-type 0:
at the bus stop
at the North Pole
at the end of the road

Dimension-type 1 and 2:

line: The city is situated { *on the River Thames.* / *on the boundary.* / *on the coast.* }

surface: A notice was pasted { *on the wall.* / *on the ceiling.* / *on my back.* }

Dimension-type 2 and 3:

area:	volume:
in the world	*in a box*
in the village	*in the bathroom*
in a park	*in the cathedral*

The contrast between *on* ['surface'] and *in* ['area'] has various implications according to context, as these examples show:

The frost made patterns *on the window*. [*window* = glass surface]
A face appeared *in the window/mirror*. [*window/mirror* = framed area]
The players were practising *on the field*. [*field* = surface for sports]
Cows were grazing *in the field*. [*field* = enclosed area of land]
She was sitting { *on the grass.* [surface, *ie* the grass is short] / *in the grass.* [volume, *ie* the grass is long] }

In is used for sizeable territories such as:

continents, countries:	*in Asia, in China*
provinces, counties:	*in British Columbia, in Cheshire*
city districts:	*in Brooklyn, in Hampstead*

But for towns, villages, etc, either *at* or *in* is appropriate, according to point of view: *at/in Stratford-upon-Avon*. A very large city (such as New York, London, or Tokyo) is generally treated as an area:

He works *in London*, but lives *in the country*.

But even a large city may be treated as a point on the map if global distances are in mind:

Our plane refuelled *at London* on its way from New York to Moscow.

Note the following difference between *at* and *in*:

She's { *at Oxford.* ['She's a student at Oxford University.'] / *in Oxford.* ['She's staying, etc in the City of Oxford.'] }

With buildings also, both *at* and *in* can be used. The difference here is that *at* refers to a building in its institutional or functional aspect, whereas *in* refers to it as a three-dimensional structure:

Ann works { *at* / *in* } *a publishing house.*

With *school*, we can find the following three constructions:

Sid is { *at school.* [1] / *in school.* [2] / *in the school.* [3] }

The meaning 'enrolled in' is expressed by [1] in BrE and by [2] in AmE; the meaning 'at the place, not at home' is expressed by [1] or [2] in BrE, and by [1] in AmE; the meaning 'within the building' is expressed by [3] in both BrE and AmE. On the zero article with *school*, *cf* 5.44.

To denotes completive movement in the direction of a place, as in:

The Smiths drove *to Edinburgh*. [suggests actual arrival]

Towards expresses movement without the idea of completion (*cf* 9.26; on the choice of the *-ward/-wards* forms, *cf* 7.46 Note [a]):

They drove *towards Edinburgh*.

Compare *to*, with progressive aspect, and *set out for*, neither of which express the idea of completion:

They were driving *to Edinburgh*.
They set out *for Edinburgh*.

As far as stresses the length of the journey (space only, not time):

They drove *as far as Edinburgh*.

With the perfective aspect, *to* may also be used in a way which appears to make it interchangeable with *at* or *in*:

Ann has been { *to/at Oxford.* ['as a student'] / *to/in Oxford.* ['as a visitor'] }

This occurrence of *been* followed by *to*, however, is a result of the substitution of the *-ed* participle of *be* for the *-ed* participle of *go* (*gone*) in order to convey the resultative sense of *go* (*cf* 4.22 Note [b]).

Note [a] When a place is being regarded as a destination rather than a position, it is more natural to see it vaguely as a geographical point than as an area. Hence the more frequent use of *to* than of *into* in reference to countries, etc:
The gypsies *came to England* in the fifteenth century. [Contrast: The gypsies *were in England*.]
[b] *Against* is commonly used as a preposition of simple position or destination in the sense 'touching the side surface of':
He's leaning *against the wall*.
[c] Additional uses of *on* as a preposition of position:
Humpty Dumpty sat *on the wall*. ['on top of']
There are still apples *on* the tree. ['hanging from']
We may see these as extending the basic meaning of *on* to include the most obvious static relationship of contiguity between a smaller and a larger object.
[d] Prepositions denoting position (not destination) are used with the verb *arrive* and the noun *arrival*:
She arrived / on her arrival { *in London/Kenya/British Columbia* / *at the shop/bus stop/seaside* }

Source or negative position: *away from, off, out of*

9.18 There is a cause-and-effect relation with negative destination and position parallel to that of positive destination and position:

Ann *drove (away) from* home. ~ Ann *is away from* home.
The book *fell off* the shelf. ~ The book *is off* the shelf.
Tom *got out of* the water. ~ Tom *is out of* the water.

The negative prepositions *away from*, *off*, and *out of* may be defined simply by adding the word *not* to the corresponding positive preposition: *away from* ['not at'], *off* ['not on'], *out of* ['not in'].

Note In AmE, *out* is more commonly used than *out of* in such an expression as:

She looked { *out the window*. ⟨AmE and informal BrE⟩ / *out of the window*. ⟨BrE or AmE⟩ }

In this usage, there needs to be a reference to an opening or aperture:

The children gathered some bluebells before they went { *out of* / **out* } *the wood* and returned home.

Relative position: *over*, *under*, etc

9.19 Apart from simple position, prepositions may express the RELATIVE POSITION of two objects or groups of objects. *Above*, *over*, *on top of*, *under*, *underneath*, *beneath*, and *below* express relative position vertically, whereas *in front of*, *before*, *behind*, and *after* represent it horizontally. *Figure* 9.19 depicts the relations expressed by *above X*, *behind X*, etc.

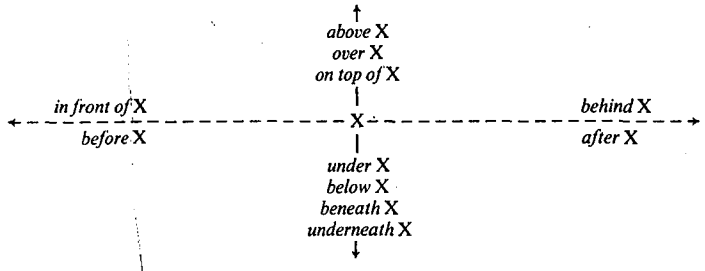

Fig 9.19 Vertical and horizontal direction

The antonyms *above* and *below*, *over* and *under*, *in front of* and *behind* are converse opposites:

{ The picture is *above* the mantelpiece.
= The mantelpiece is *below* the picture. }

{ The bus is *in front of* the car.
= The car is *behind* the bus. }

Over and *under* as place prepositions are roughly synonymous with *above* and *below*, respectively. The main differences are that *over* and *under* tend to indicate a direct vertical relationship or spatial proximity, while *above* and *below* may indicate simply 'on a higher/lower level than':

The castle stands on a hill { *above* / *?over* } *the valley*.

Keep this blanket { *over* / **above* } *you*.

The doctor and the policeman were leaning { *over* / **above* } the body when we arrived.

Underneath and *beneath* ⟨formal⟩ are less common substitutes for *under*. *Underneath*, like *on top of*, generally indicates a contiguous relation:

The police found the stolen money *under/underneath* the carpet.
We placed the skis *on top of* the car.

The following prepositional adverbs (*cf* 9.65*f*) or fixed phrases correspond to the prepositions of position:

PREPOSITIONAL ADVERBS	PREPOSITIONS
overhead	*over*
underneath ⟨formal⟩	*under*, *underneath* ⟨formal⟩
in front	*in front of*
on top	*on top of* (*cf* 9.13)
above	*above*
below	*below*
behind	*behind*
beneath ⟨formal⟩	*beneath* ⟨formal⟩

Example:

Would you like to sit { *in front*? [Prepositional adverb] / *in front of* us? [Preposition] }

Note [a] The actual use of the prepositions relating to relative position varies considerably. The frequencies for the bottom vertical set in *Fig* 9.19 are as follows in the LOB and Brown printed corpora (note the similar frequencies in BrE and AmE):

Table 9.19 Frequencies of *under*, *below*, *beneath*, and *underneath*

	Total	⟨BrE⟩	⟨AmE⟩
under	1352	645	707
below	295	150	145
beneath	117	60	57
underneath	22	11	11

[b] *Beneath* is obligatory in fixed metaphorical expressions like *beneath her dignity*, *beneath contempt* (*cf* 9.32).

Space: *by*, *beside*, *with*, *near (to)*, *close to*, *opposite*

9.20 Other prepositions denoting space are *by*, *beside*, and *with*:

He was standing *by/beside the door*. ['at the side of']
I left the keys *with my wallet*. ['in the same place as']

Beside is usually a locative and *besides* a nonlocative preposition:

Beside Mary there stood a young man. ['at the side of']
Besides Mary there were several other students in the hall. ['in addition to']

However, the preposition *beside* is often used, especially in AmE, to mean 'in comparison with', 'apart from'. Unlike *beside*, *besides* may also be an adverb meaning 'in addition' (*cf* 8.137, 9.58):

She is intelligent. *Besides*, she is good-looking.

As a locative preposition, the simple preposition *near* meaning *close to* can be replaced by the complex preposition *near to*:

She was sitting {*near (to)* / *close to*} me.

Near (to) and *close to* are the only prepositions which inflect for comparison (*cf* 9.5). Unlike the absolute form, *nearer* and *nearest* usually require *to*. *Next* always does so:

She was sitting {*nearer (to)/nearest (to)/next to* me. / *closer to/closest to* me.}

Opposite means 'facing' and has optional *to*:

Her house is *opposite (to)* mine.

Space: *between, among, amongst, amid, amidst*

9.21 *Between* relates the position of an object to a definite or exclusive set of discrete objects, whereas *among* relates to nondiscrete objects. Thus:

The house stands {*between* two farms. / *among* farms.}

Switzerland lies {*between* / **among*} France, Germany, Austria, and Italy.

{He likes getting *among* people. ['likes mixing with'] / I saw Bill standing (*in*) *between* Mrs Bradbury and the hostess.}

Amid and *amidst* (which are both formal) mean 'in the midst of' and, like *among*, can apply to an indefinite number of entities:

The deserted house stood *amid* snow-covered fir trees. ⟨formal⟩

Note [a] The frequencies in the LOB and Brown corpora of printed English indicate that some of the prepositions in 9.21 are rare; in the case of *amongst* there is also a clear difference in usage between AmE and BrE. See *Table* 9.21, which, however, includes all uses, not just spatial.

Table 9.21 Frequencies of *between, among(st)*, and *amid(st)*

	Total	⟨BrE⟩	⟨AmE⟩
between	1597	867	730
among	683	313	370
amongst	49	45	4
amid	23	9	14
amidst	8	5	3

[b] It is common, but not accepted by all speakers, to say *between each house* instead of *between each house and the next*.

Space: *around, round, about*

9.22 *Around* and *round* refer to surrounding position or to motion:

We were sitting *(a)round the campfire*.
The spaceship is travelling *(a)round the globe*.

About and *around* often have a vaguer meaning of 'in the area of' or 'in various positions in':

The guests were standing *about/around the room*.
There are very few taxis *about/around here*.

In AmE, *about* is rarer and more formal in this sense than *around*. In general, BrE often tends to use *about* or *round* where AmE uses *around*.

Relative position can also be expressed by prepositions which usually denote passage or path (*cf* 9.25*f*), *eg*:

The tree lay *across the road*.
The road runs *through the tunnel*.

Note The frequencies of *around* and *round* in the LOB and Brown corpora of printed English are as follows (all uses):

Table 9.22 Frequencies of *around* and *round*

	Total	⟨BrE⟩	⟨AmE⟩
around	806	245	561
round	410	336	74

Relative destination: *over, under, behind*, etc

9.23 As well as relative position, the prepositions listed in 9.19*ff* (but not, generally, *above* and *below*) can express RELATIVE DESTINATION:

He threw a blanket *over her*.
The bush was the only conceivable hiding place, so I dashed *behind it*.
When it started to rain, we all went *underneath the trees*.

This use is distinct from that denoting 'PASSAGE over, under, behind', etc (*cf* 9.24).

Passage: *over, under, behind*, etc

9.24 With verbs of motion, prepositions may express the idea of PASSAGE (*ie* movement towards and then away from a place), as well as destination. With the prepositions listed in 9.19*ff*, this occurs in sentences like [1–3]:

He jumped *over a ditch*. [1]
Someone ran *behind the goalposts*. [2]
The ball rolled *underneath the table*. [3]

In sentences such as [2] and [3], there is an ambiguity. In [3], we can supply either the meaning of 'passage' (= 'the ball passed under the table on the way

to some other destination') or the meaning of 'destination' (= 'the ball rolled under the table and stayed there').

Note A triple ambiguity may in fact arise with the above sentences, or more clearly with:
A mouse scuttled *behind the curtain.*
This sentence may be interpreted not only in the senses of 'passage' and 'destination', but also (less plausibly) in the static sense, implying that the mouse stayed (scuttling back and forth) behind the curtain all the time.

Passage: *across, through, past*

9.25 The sense of 'passage' is the primary locative meaning attached to *across* (dimension-type 1 or 2), *through* (dimension-type 2 or 3) and *past* (the 'passage' equivalent to *by* which may also, however, be substituted for *past* in a 'passage' sense). Note the parallel between *across* and *on*, *through* and *in* in *Fig* 9.25:

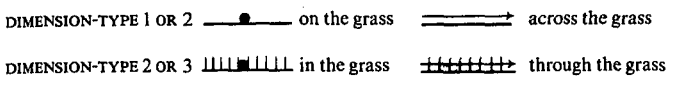

Fig 9.25 *On* and *across*, *in* and *through*

The upper pair treat the grass as a surface, and therefore suggest short grass; the lower pair, by treating the grass as a volume, suggest that it has height as well as length and breadth – that is, that the grass is long. There is a meaning of *over* corresponding to *across* in this sense:

The ball rolled {*over* / *across*} *the lawn.*

Movement with reference to a directional path: *up, down, along, across*, etc

9.26 *Up, down, along, across* (in a slightly different sense from that of 9.25) and *(a)round*, with verbs of motion, make up a group of prepositions expressing movement with reference to an axis or directional path, as illustrated in *Figs* 9.26a and 9.26b:

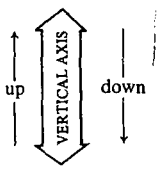

Fig 9.26a *up* and *down*

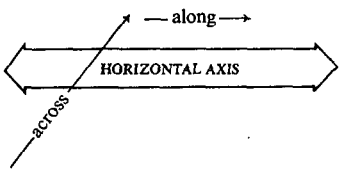

Fig 9.26b *along* and *across*

Up and *down* contrast in terms of vertical direction, *eg*:

We walked *up the hill* and *down the other side.*

But *up* and *down* are also used idiomatically in reference to a horizontal axis:

I walked *up and down the platform.*

She went {*up/down the road.* / *up/down the coast.*}

Up and *down* here express the notion of 'along', and need not have any vertical implications (*cf* 19.32).

Along denotes 'from one end towards the other' or 'in a line parallel with', *eg*:

We walked *along the streets*, just looking at people.
I took my dog for a walk *along the river.*

Along contrasts with *across* ['from one side to another'] in terms of a horizontal axis:

Be careful when you walk *across a street.*

With *(a)round*, the directional path is an angle or a curve:

We ran *(a)round the corner.*

Towards indicates both 'real' and 'implied' motion, 'in the direction of':

We walked *towards the old farmhouse.*
The window faces *towards the south.*

The concept of 'implied' motion also accounts for the use of other prepositions, *eg*: *to, over*, and *into*:

Is this the bus *to Oxford*?
She glanced *over her shoulder.*
He spoke *into the microphone.*

Note On the adverbs (*walk*) *home/homeward(s)*, etc corresponding to some prepositional phrases above, *cf* 7.46.

Orientation: *beyond, over, past, up, across*, etc

9.27 Most prepositions which express relative destination, passage, and movement with reference to a directional path (*cf* 9.26) can be used in a static sense of orientation. This brings in a third factor apart from the two things being spatially related: *viz* a POINT OF ORIENTATION, at which (in reality or imagination) the speaker is standing.

Beyond ['on the far side of'] is a preposition whose primary meaning is one of orientation. *Over, past, across*, and *through* combine the meaning of 'beyond' with more specific information about dimension, as described in 9.26:

They live *across the moors.* [*ie* 'from here']

The village is {*past the bus stop.* / *through the wood.*}

Up, down, along, across, and *(a)round* are used orientationally with reference to an axis in:

the shop *down the road* ['towards the bottom end of . . .']

Her office is { *up the stairs.* ['at (OR towards) the top of . . .'; = *upstairs*] / *down the stairs.* ['at (OR towards) the bottom of . . .'; = *downstairs*] }

There's a hotel *across/along* the road. ['on the other side/towards the other end of . . .']

We live just *(a)round the corner.*

We can, if we like, specify the viewpoint by using a *from*-phrase:

He lives up/down/along/across the road *from me.*

Resultative meaning: *from, out of, over, past*, etc

9.28 Prepositions which have the meaning of motion, as in [1], can usually have also a static resultative meaning when combined with *be*, indicating 'the state of having reached the destination', as in [2] (*cf* 8.42):

The horses *jumped over the fence.* [1]
The horses *are over the fence.* ['have now jumped over'] [2]

Out of context, resultative meaning is not always distinguishable from other static meanings. Its presence, however, is often signalled by certain adverbs (*already, just, at last, (not) yet*, etc). Resultative meaning is characteristically found with negative prepositions *from, out of*, etc, or with prepositions of 'passage' such as *across, through*, and *past*:

At last we are *out of the forest.* [3]
When you're *past the next obstacle*, you can relax. [4]

Pervasive meaning: *over, throughout, with*, etc

9.29 *Over* (dimension-type 1 or 2) and *through* (dimension-type 2 or 3), especially when preceded by *all*, have pervasive meaning (either static or motional):

That child was running *(all) over the flower borders.*

Throughout meaning *(all) through* is the only preposition whose primary meaning is 'pervasive':

Chaos reigned *(all) through the house.*
The epidemic has spread *throughout the country.*

Occasionally the 'axis' type prepositions of 9.26 are also used in a pervasive sense:

There were crowds *(all) along the route.*
They put flowers *(all) around the statue.*

With also has pervasive meaning in expressions such as the following:

The ground was *covered with* snow.
The garden was *buzzing with* bees.

Similarly: *loaded with, paved with, surrounded with, dotted with*, etc.

Eight senses of *over*

9.30 Let us now see how one preposition (*over*) may be used in some different senses:

POSITION (9.19):	A lamp hung *over the door.*
DESTINATION (9.23):	They threw a blanket *over her.*
PASSAGE (9.24):	They climbed *over the wall.*
ORIENTATION (9.27):	They live *over the road.* ['on the far side of']
RESULTATIVE (9.28):	At last we were *over the crest of the hill.*
PERVASIVE [STATIC] (9.29):	Leaves lay thick (all) *over the ground.*
PERVASIVE [MOTION] (9.29):	They splashed water (all) *over me.*
ACCOMPANYING CIRCUMSTANCES:	We discussed it *over a glass of wine.*

Verbs incorporating prepositional meaning

9.31 When a verb contains, within its own meaning, the meaning of a following preposition, it is often possible to omit the preposition. The verb then becomes transitive, and the prepositional complement becomes a direct, locative object (*cf* 10.27). The following examples have mainly spatial meaning, but other examples are included to show that this process is not restricted to spatial uses of prepositions:

roam (about/around) the city	*ponder (on)* a question
pass (by) a house	*turn (round)* a corner
flee (from) the country	*attain (to)* a position
cross (over) a street	*climb (up)* a mountain
jump/leap (over) a fence	*pierce (through)* the defences

In many cases there is a difference in meaning between the two constructions. The construction with preposition draws attention to the process, whereas the direct object construction has perfective meaning, indicating that the objective is achieved. Compare:

{ Let's *swim across the river.*
She was the first woman to *swim the Channel.* }

Metaphorical or abstract use of place prepositions

9.32 Many place prepositions have abstract meanings which are clearly related, through metaphorical connection, to their locative uses. Very often prepositions so used keep the groupings (in terms of similarity or contrast of meaning) that they have when used in a literal reference to place. This is often true for example of temporal usage (*cf* 9.33*ff*).

One may perceive a stage-by-stage extension of metaphorical usage in such a series as (a) to (d):

(a) *in shallow water* [purely literal]
(b) *in deep water* [also metaphorical: 'in trouble']
(c) *in difficulties* [The noun is not metaphorical, but the preposition is.]
(d) *in a tough spot* ['in a difficult situation'; The preposition is analogous to that of (c), but another locative metaphor is introduced by the noun. The result is a phrase that could not occur in a literal sense, because *spot* would then require *at* or *on* (dimension-type 0).]

Examples in relation to the literal meanings are the following:

in/out of; *amid, amidst* ⟨both formal and rare⟩ (*cf* 9.21 Note [a])
position → state, condition:
to be *in/out of* danger — to keep *out of* trouble
to be *in/out of* office — to be *out of* a job
to be *in* difficulties — *amidst* many troubles

enclosure → abstract inclusion:
in books/plays — *in/out of* the race
in a group/party

into/out of
destination → abstract condition or circumstance:
He got *into* difficulties/trouble/debt/a fight.
Can you get me *out of* this mess?

in/on
position → membership, participation:
in the army
on the board/committee/project

above/below/beneath
vertical direction → abstract level:
to be *above/below* someone on a list
above/below [not: **beneath*] one's income
Such behaviour is *beneath* [not: **below*] him.
He's *above* [not: **over*] such behaviour.
above (the) average
above suspicion

under
vertical direction → subjection, subordination; process:
under suspicion/orders/compulsion
He has a hundred people working *under* him.
The bridge is *under* construction.

up/down
movement on vertical axis → movement on list or scale:
move *up/down* the scale
climb *up/down* the social ladder

from/to
starting point/destination → originator/recipient:
a letter/present *from* Browning *to* his wife (*cf* 9.46*f*)

beyond/past/over
resultative meaning; physical → abstract:

beyond / *past* { belief / endurance / hope / recovery

We are *over* the worst.

between/among/amongst (*cf* 9.21 Note [a])
relative position → abstract relation between participants:
a fight/match *between* X and Y
We quarrel/agree *among* ourselves.
relationship/contrast/affinity *between* two things

through
passage → perseverance, endurance:
She came *through* the ordeal. — We put him *through* his paces.
We are *through* the worst.

Note [a] *Over* and *under* act as 'intensifying prepositions' with the meanings 'more than' and 'less than' in expressions of measure (*cf* intensifiers in 7.87*ff*):

The car was travelling (*at*) { *over* / *under* } *sixty miles per hour.*

Cf: *overage*; *overconfident* ['overly confident']

For denoting temperature, *above* and *below* are also used:

The temperature is { *above/over* / *below/under* } 30°.

But with zero degrees only: *above/below zero.*

[b] A few prepositions (chiefly *in* and *out of*) can operate in an apparently converse relationship. For example:
The horse is *in foal.* ['There is a foal in the horse's womb.']
The office is *out of envelopes.* ['There are no envelopes in the office.']
We are *in luck/out of luck.*

[c] The infinitive marker *to* may be viewed as related to the spatial preposition *to* through metaphorical connection. Compare the series:

John went

to the pool.	[Direction: 'Where did he go?']
to the pool for a swim.	[Direction + purpose: 'Why did he go to the pool?']
for a swim in the pool.	[Purpose + location]
for a swim.	[Purpose: 'Why did he go there?']
to swim.	['Metaphorical connection' of infinitive marker (in *to*-infinitive clause)]
swimming.	[Nonfinite verb clause]

Prepositions denoting time

9.33 A prepositional phrase of time usually occurs as adjunct (*He came on Friday*), postmodifier (*the party on Friday*), or predication adjunct (*That was on Friday*); but it can occasionally be itself the complement of a temporal preposition (*cf* 9.1 Note [d]):

a voice *from out of the past*

The temporal uses of prepositions frequently suggest metaphorical extensions from the sphere of place similar to the metaphorical extensions discussed in 9.32.

Time position: *at, on, in, by*

9.34 *At, on,* and *in* as prepositions of 'time position' are to some extent parallel to the same items as positive prepositions of position (*cf* 9.16), although in the time sphere there are only two 'dimension-types', *viz* 'point of time' and 'period of time' (*cf* 8.51*ff*).

At is used for points of time (chiefly clock-time [1]) and also, idiomatically, for holiday periods [2]:

at ten o'clock, at 6.30 p.m., at noon [1]
at the weekend ⟨BrE; but in AmE: *on the weekend*⟩, *at Christmas, at Easter* [2]

The reference is to the season of Christmas/Easter, not the day itself. *At* can be used for periods when conceived of as points of time, as in:

at the/that time, at breakfast time, at night

On is used for referring to days as periods of time:

on Monday, on the following day, on May (the) first, on New Year's Day

Also in the expression:

Trains leave the station *on the hour.* ['hourly', *ie* 1 o'clock, 2 o'clock, etc]

In or, less commonly, *during* is used for periods longer or shorter than a day:

in the evening	*in summer*
in August	*during Holy Week*
in 1969	*in the eighteenth century*
in the months that followed	

On Monday morning, on Saturday afternoon, on the following evening, etc illustrate an exceptional use of *on* with a complement referring to a PART of a day, rather than a WHOLE day. This use also extends to other cases where the time segment is a part of a day which is actually mentioned: *on the morning of 1 June*, etc. But with phrases like *early morning* and *late afternoon* it is normal to use *in*: *in the late afternoon.*

When we want to refer to a period of the night we use *in*. Compare:

I woke up several times *in the night.*
At night I usually have the window open. ['during the night'; as opposed to *in the evening, in the day*]

By occurs in the idioms *by day* and *by night*, which replace *during the day/the night* with some activities such as travelling:

We preferred travelling { *by night.* / *during the night.* }

We stayed up *during the night.*

Measurement into the future: *in*

9.35 To denote measurement from the present time, the postposed adverb *ago* is used for a span back to a point of time in the past, and *in* for a similar span ahead into the future (*cf* 8.58*f*):

We met *three months ago.* [1]

We'll meet { *in three months' time.* [2] / *(in) three months from now.* [3] }

The construction in [2–3] is only acceptable with the meaning of 'at the end of a period of three months starting from now'. In measuring forwards from a point of time in the past, only the following construction is normal:

He finished the job { *in three months.* ['in the space of three months from when he started it'] [4] / ?*(in) three months from then.* [5] / **in three months' time.* [6] }

Duration: *for, during, over, (all) through, throughout*

9.36 Phrases of duration answer the question *How long?* Duration is usually expressed by *for*. Compare duration and time-position:

A: How long did you camp in Scotland?
B: We camped there *for the summer.* ['all through, from the beginning to the end of the summer']
A: When did you camp in Scotland?
B: We camped there *in the summer.* ['at some time during the summer']

The duration phrase *for the summer* indicates that the stop lasted AS LONG AS the summer period; the time-*when* phrase *in the summer* indicates that the stop was INCLUDED in the summer period. *During the summer* could be used here with the same meaning as *in*, although *during* usually suggests duration:

We managed to stay awake *during the whole meeting.*

Without such durative markers as *stay* and *whole*, *during* refers to a point or period WITHIN DURATION rather than duration itself:

She spoke *during the meeting.*

During our { *stay* in / *visit* to } Japan we met several old friends.

For is also used in idiomatic phrases like *forever, for good* ['forever'], *for years (and years).*

Over, (all) through, and *throughout* have a durational meaning parallel to their pervasive meaning in reference to place (*cf* 9.29):

We camped there *over the holiday/over Christmas/over the weekend/over the Sabbath/over night.*
We camped there *through(out) the summer.*

Over normally accompanies noun phrases denoting special occasions (such as holidays and festivals), and so generally refers to a shorter period of time than *through(out)*. Since Saturday and Sunday are 'special' compared with other days of the week, we have *over Saturday and Sunday* whereas ?*over Wednesday* is not generally used. Expressions like *over the last three years, over the last generation* seem to have become increasingly common.

Note *For* has different meanings in the following two sentences:
I've done that *for years.* [1]
I've *not* done that *for years.* [2]
In the positive [1], the action is included in the *for* time span, *ie* included duration. In the

negative [2], on the other hand, the action is excluded from the *for* time span, *ie* excluded duration ('It's years since I've done that', 'I haven't done that in years'). Note that, here, *in* ⟨esp AmE⟩ can be used only in negative sentences:

I { *haven't* / **have* } done that *in years*.

Duration: *from . . . to, until, up to*

9.37 *From . . . to* (or *till*) is another pair of prepositions whose locative meaning is transferred to duration. The AmE alternative expression (*from*) . . . *through* avoids the ambiguity as to whether the period mentioned second is included in the total span of time (*cf*: *between . . . and*, 9.39; *cf* also 'forward span'; 8.58*f*):

We camped there (*from*) *June through September*. ⟨AmE⟩
['up to and including September']

We camped there *from June* { *to* / *till* } *September*.

['up to (?and including) September']

But with *from* absent, only *until*, *till*, *up to* (but not always simple *to*), and *through* ⟨AmE⟩ can be used:

We camped there { *until* / *till* / *up to* / *through* ⟨AmE⟩ / **to* } *September*.

On the other hand, *to* can be used alongside *till* in:

You can *stay to/till the end of September*.
The meeting can be *postponed to/till September*.
There are only *a few days to/till September*.
I have only *a few years to/till retirement*.

From and *up to* are used to denote, respectively, starting and ending points of a period. *Up to* normally specifies that the longer period does not include the period named in the prepositional complement:

From 1982 (onwards) the rules were changed.
We worked *up to Christmas* (but not over Christmas).

Informally, *until* and *till* are also sometimes preceded by *up*:

I worked (*up*) { *until* / *till* / *to* } *last week*.

Till and *until* can only cooccur with durative verbs, *ie* verbs that denote a period of time (such as *camp* and *work*). Contrast:

My girlfriend { worked / *arrived } there *till Christmas*.

The situation for *until* and *till* is thus the reverse of that for *by* denoting an end point, which cooccurs only with momentary verbs (*cf* 9.39):

She { *worked / arrived } *by Christmas*.

In negative contexts, *until* and *till* are acceptable with both durational and momentary verbs, as for example:

She didn't arrive there *till Christmas*.

The two meanings of *till* and *until* are, however, different with positive and negative predications. With positive predications, *till* and *until* specify a terminal point ('up to'), whereas, with negative predications, they specify a starting point ('before'):

We slept *until midnight*. ['We stopped sleeping then.']
We didn't sleep *until midnight*. ['We started sleeping then.']

Before, after, since, till, until

9.38 These words are conjunctions as well as prepositions (*cf* 14.12*ff*). As prepositions, they occur almost exclusively as prepositions of time, and are followed by either

(a) a temporal noun phrase (*after next week*);
(b) a subjectless *-ing* clause (*since leaving school*); or
(c) a noun phrase with a deverbal noun (*cf* App I.34*f*) or some other noun phrase interpreted as equivalent to a clause:

before the war ['before the war started or took place']
till/until the fall of Rome ['until Rome fell']
since electricity ['since electricity was invented']

To express the stretch of time (after the starting point denoted by *since*) we use *for* (*cf* 9.36):

We have lived in New York { *since 1980*. / *for 4 years*. }

We lived in Chicago *for 15 years*.

For verb forms with *since*-clauses, *cf* 14.26.

Before and *after* indicate relations between two times or events and have opposite meanings (*cf* 9.19, 9.35*ff*):

{ *The meeting* will take place *after the ceremony*.
= *The ceremony* will take place *before the meeting*.

Note [a] As a preposition, *until* is more frequent than *till* (*cf* 8.58).
[b] *Pending* is used in formal, especially legal style:
The decision must wait *pending his trial*. ['until']
Pending negotiations, the two parties should stop further action. ['during and till the end of']
Thus *pending* can also include a sense of 'during'.

Between . . . and, by

9.39 *Between . . . and* is used for periods identified by their starting and ending points but, in contrast to *from . . . to* (*cf* 9.37), does not refer to the whole time span:

We'll probably arrive some time *between 5 and 6 o'clock*.
I'll phone you *between lunch and dinner*.

Between X and Y can include *X* and *Y*, as in:

I'll ring *between Thursday and Saturday*.

This expression does not mean that the call will be on Friday, but could also be Thursday or Saturday. Thus *between . . . and* here means 'about', *ie* 'some time on Thursday, Friday, or Saturday'. *Between* is further required to indicate intervals between similar objects or events which occur repeatedly:

between meals/dances/acts/classes

By refers to the time at which the result of an event is in existence:

Your papers are to be handed in *by next week*. ['not later than']
She should be back *by now* (but I'm not sure).

By specifies an end point. *Already*, *still*, *yet*, and *any more* are related in meaning:

By the time we'd walked five miles, he was already exhausted.

Contrast:

By that time he was already exhausted. ['He was then exhausted.']
Until then he was not exhausted. ['Before then he was not exhausted.']

Thus *by*-phrases do not cooccur with durative verbs (*cf* 9.37):

The troops remained there { *until* / **by* } *midnight*.

Note As with prepositions of place (*cf* 9.32), prepositions and prepositional adverbs of time can have metaphorical uses, *eg* in viewing life as a journey:
At birth . . . *from* the age of two . . . reaching the age of 16, he left school days *behind*, and adulthood was *in front of* him . . . *all through* middle age . . . *up to* 1945.

Absence of preposition in point in time expressions

9.40 In many cases, a preposition of time is absent, so that the time adverbial takes the form of a noun phrase instead of a prepositional phrase.

Prepositions of time-*when* are always absent immediately before the deictic words *last*, *next*, *this*, *that*, and before the quantitative words *some* and *every*:

I saw her { *last Thursday*. / **on last Thursday*. }
I'll mention it *next time* I see her.
This year, plums are more plentiful than *last*.
Some day you'll regret this decision.
Every summer she returns to her childhood home.

Also nouns which have 'last', 'next', or 'this' as an element of their meaning lack prepositions:

I saw her { *today*. / *yesterday* (*morning*). } I'll see her *tomorrow* (*evening*).

The prepositions which are absent in point in time expressions seem to be restricted to *at*, *on*, *in*; *before* and *since*, for example, are obligatory:

I'll see you { *on Monday*. / *Monday*. } =
I'll see you { *before Monday*. / *Monday*. } ≠
I haven't seen her *since last week*.

The preposition is usually optional with deictic phrases referring to times at more than one remove from the present, such as:

(*on*) *Monday week*
(*on*) *the day before yesterday*
{ *in the January* before last ⟨BrE⟩ / *the January* before last ⟨AmE and BrE⟩ }

The preposition is also optional in phrases which identify a time before or after a given time in the past or future:

(*in*) *the previous spring* ['the spring before the time in question']
{ (*at*) ⟨BrE⟩ / (*on*) ⟨AmE⟩ } *the following weekend*
(*on*) *the next day*

Thus, there are alternatives in cases like the following:

We met { *on the following day*. / *the following day*. } We met { *on that day*. / *that day*. }

On the whole, the sentence without the preposition tends to be more informal and more usual.

Postmodified nondeictic phrases containing *the* often have the preposition in BrE whereas it is optional in AmE:

We met { *on the day* / *the day* } *of the conference*.
We met { *in the spring* / *the spring* ⟨esp AmE⟩ } *of 1983*.

But without postmodification, the preposition is always obligatory:

We met *in the spring*. ≠ We met *the spring*.

The preposition is usually present in phrases like the following when the word order (*next Sunday*, *last January*) is inverted ⟨in BrE⟩:

(*on*) *Sunday next* (*in*) *January last*

Note Within a given week, if we refer to the name of the day that is yet to follow, the expression *next x-day* (*eg*: *next Friday*) will be used by some to mean 'x-day of the same week', by others 'x-day of the week to follow'. On the other hand, *this x-day* (*eg*: *this Friday*) will always mean 'x-day of the present week'. The same applies to months of the year, as in *next September* and *this September*.

Absence of preposition in frequency expressions

9.41 There is no preposition in frequency phrases like:

Every Sunday we usually go for a walk.

Without a frequency indication such as *every*, the preposition is optional, and nouns denoting weekdays may be either singular or plural. The construction without a preposition is informal in style ⟨esp AmE⟩:

On Sunday(s)
Sunday(s) } we usually go for a walk.
**On every Sunday*

Three times a week
**At three times a week* } we play darts.

But other frequency constructions always require the preposition:

with + adjective + *frequency*:	*with regular frequency*
at + adjective + *intervals*:	*at irregular intervals*
on + adjective + *occasions*:	*on specific occasions*
from time to time:	We saw each other *from time to time*.
at a/the rate of + noun:	*at the rate of $20 an hour*
between/at + *each* + singular noun, or *all* + plural noun:	He had dropped the habit of drinking coffee *at all hours*.

Absence of preposition in duration expressions

9.42 *For* refers to a stretch of time. The preposition is often absent in phrases of duration with a verb used with stative meaning:

We stayed there (*for*) *three months*.
The snowy weather lasted (*for*) *the whole time* we were there.
(*For*) *a lot of the time* we just lay on the beach.

The preposition is obligatorily absent in phrases which begin with *all*, such as *all* (*the*) *week*, *all day*. But compare the synonymous *whole* (*cf* 5.17):

We stayed there { *all* (*the*) *week*. / (*for*) *the whole week*. / **for all week*. }

I haven't seen her *all day*.

However, the preposition is obligatory with dynamic verbs where the action of the verb is clearly not continuously coextensive with the period specified. Compare:

I lived there { *for three years*. / *three years*. }

I taught her { *for three years*. / ?**three years*. }

Similarly:

I haven't spoken to her { *for three months*. / **three months*. }

The preposition is also required in initial position in the clause:

{ *For 600 years*, the cross lay undisturbed. / The cross lay undisturbed (*for*) *600 years*. }

Similarly, when they occur initially, the preposition is usually required in *for*-phrases: *for ages*, *for days*, *for years*, etc. However, coordination in the time expression improves acceptability. Compare:

For years
(?)*Years and years* } we have all been expecting this event.
?*Years*

Ranges of meaning other than place and time

9.43 We now survey the more important prepositional usages apart from those of place and time. Fields of prepositional meaning are notoriously difficult to classify, and in some cases it is better to think of a range or spectrum of meaning, first as a single category, then as broken up into separate overlapping sections. First, therefore, we deal with two important spectra which may be referred to, for brevity, as CAUSE/PURPOSE and MEANS/AGENTIVE. In part, our reason for putting various meanings under a single heading is that some of them have, as a linking element, association with particular prepositions and *wh*-words: *for* and *why* and *how* in the case of cause/purpose, and *with* and *how* in the case of means/agentive. Here are the two ranges with an illustration of each meaning:

THE CAUSE/PURPOSE SPECTRUM (9.44–47)

Cause (9.44):	She lost her job *because of her age*.
Reason (9.44):	He was fined *for drunken driving*.
Motive (9.44):	She did it *out of kindness*.
Purpose (9.45):	Everyone ran *for shelter*.
Destination (9.45):	I'm leaving *for Seattle*.
Target (9.46):	This novel is aimed *at a young audience*.

THE MEANS/AGENTIVE SPECTRUM (9.48–51)

Manner (9.48):	She performed the operation *with great skill*.
Means (9.49):	They left *by plane*.
Instrument (9.49):	She tried to open the lock *with a knife*.
Agentive (9.50):	They were noticed *by no one*.
Stimulus (9.51):	I'm astonished *at your reaction*.

The cause/purpose spectrum

Cause, reason, motive: *because of*, *on account of*, *for*, *from*, etc

9.44 At one end of the cause/purpose spectrum, we have prepositions expressing either the material cause or the psychological cause (motive) for a happening. Phrases of cause, reason, and motive answer the question *Why* . . . ? Some examples:

We had to drive slowly *because of the heavy rain*.
On account of his wide experience, he was made chairman.

The survivors were weak *from exposure and lack of food.*
Some support charities *out of duty*, some *out of a sense of guilt.*
I hid the money, *for fear of what my parents would say.*
The plane was destroyed *through the pilot's carelessness.*

On account of is a more formal alternative to *because of* as an expression of cause or reason. *Out of* and *for* are mainly restricted to the expression of motive, *ie* psychological cause: *out of gratitude/kindness*, etc.

For is found with a relatively small number of expressions, *eg*:

for fear/love/joy/sorrow

He offered to fix my sink *for* { *nothing.* ⟨informal⟩ / *free.* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩ }

Purpose, intended destination: *for*

9.45 *For* is used to express PURPOSE in the following examples:

He'll do anything *for money.*
Everyone ran *for shelter.*
For the journey, they packed three large picnic baskets of food.

In this use of *for*, there is a corresponding paraphrase with a clause (*in order*) *to* (*cf* 15.48):

for money = *in order to gain* money
for shelter = *in order to reach* shelter

To express INTENDED DESTINATION, *for* is used with verbs such as *run*, *start*, *head*, *leave*, and *set out*. For example:

He *set out for London.*

With *to*-phrases, the assumption is that the destination will be reached. Compare:

He { *went to* / *left for* } *London.* Is this *the train* { *to* / *for* } *London*?

Phrases of purpose or destination answer the questions *Why . . . ?*, *What . . . for?*, *Where . . . for?*, or *Who . . . for?* They occur as postmodifiers [1], as well as adjuncts [2], and complements in copular clauses [3–4]:

The scenery *for the play* is splendid. [1]
She came *for the play.* [2]
This present is *for you.* [3]
This machine is *for washing dishes.* [4]

Note Note the difference in meaning between *for fun* and *in fun*:
He did it *for fun.* ['with the object of getting amusement']
He said it *in fun.* ['jokingly', 'in jest']

Recipient, goal, target: *for*, *to*, *at*

9.46 When *for* is followed by noun phrases denoting persons or animals, the meaning is rather one of INTENDED RECIPIENT:

He laid a trap *for his enemies.* [1]
She made a beautiful doll *for her daughter.* [2]
He cooked a dinner *for her.* [3]

Denoting intended recipient (her daughter may or may not have actually received the doll), the *for*-phrase can often be equated with an indirect object (*cf* 10.7, 16.56):

She made *her daughter* a beautiful doll. [2a]
He cooked *her* a dinner. [3a]

In contrast to the notion of intended recipient expressed by *for*, the preposition *to* expresses ACTUAL RECIPIENT in sentences such as:

She gave a beautiful doll *to her daughter.*

Here again, there is often a relationship with the indirect object construction:

I { gave / lent / sold } the book *to my friend.* ~ I { gave / lent / sold } *my friend* the book.

But not, for example:

I delivered the book *to my friend.* ~ *I delivered *my friend* the book.

At, in combinations such as *aim at* (where the prepositional phrase is complementary to the verb), expresses INTENDED GOAL or TARGET:

After *aiming* carefully *at* the bird, he missed it completely. [4]
A vicious dog was *snapping at* her ankles. [5]
She *smiled at* me. [6]

As sentence [4] shows, the intended goal need not be achieved. A contrast in many cases (*kick at*, *charge at*, *bite at*, *catch at*, *shoot at*, *chew at*) may be drawn between this use of *at*, in which some idea of 'aim' is implied, and the direct object construction, which indicates attainment of the goal or consummation of the action as planned. *She shot at him* means something very different from *She shot him*: to the first one could add 'but missed him', whereas one could not to the second. In other cases, where the verb is intransitive, *to* must be used if the attainment of the goal is to be stressed:

She ran *at me.* [denotes hostility: 'attacked']
She ran *to me.* [denotes movement to a goal]

Similarly: *point at/to*, *throw at/to*

Note [a] There is a comparable difference between *at* and *to* when combined with verbs of speaking such as *roar*, *bellow*, *shout*, *mutter*, *growl*. Sentence [7] suggests that I am being treated merely as a target (*eg* of abuse), while [8] implies that the shouter is communicating with me, *ie* that I am the recipient of the message:
He *shouted at me.* [7]
He *shouted to me.* [8]
At here usually suggests hostility. Similarly, *laugh at* indicates hostility [9], unless the object is something intended to provoke laughter, such as a joke [10]:
They *first laughed at us.* [9]
They *laughed heartily at* our jokes. [10]

[b] With *work* + target the preposition is *on* in AmE but either *on* or *at* in BrE:

She is *working* {*on* / *at* ⟨BrE only⟩} her new play.

Source, origin: *from*

9.47 The converse of *to* ['goal'] is *from* ['source'] (*cf* 18.31 Note):

Bill lent the book *to me*. ~ I borrowed the book *from Bill*.

From is also used with reference to 'place of origin':

He comes *from Scotland/Glasgow*. ['He is a Scot/a Glaswegian.']

This type of prepositional phrase occurs not only as an adjunct, but also as a complement in copular clauses [1] and as a postmodifier [2]:

I'm *from Madrid*. [1]
This is a friend of mine *from London*. [2]

The means/agentive spectrum

Manner: *in . . . manner, like, with*

9.48 Manner can be expressed by *in . . . manner* and *with*. For example:

The job was done *in a workmanlike manner*.
We were received *with the utmost courtesy*.

With transitive or intransitive verbs, *like* can have the meaning of 'in a manner resembling'; with copular verbs, its meaning is purely that of 'resemblance':

The army swept through the city *like a pestilence*.
Life is *like a dream*.

This meaning of 'resemblance' is common with disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*) in sentences whose main verb may be noncopular. Contrast:

Bill writes poetry *like his* BRÒTHER. ['in a manner resembling that of his brother's poetry']

{*Like his* BRÒTHER, Bill writes PÒETRY. / Bill writes PŎETRY, *like his* BRÒTHER.} [resemblance]

The last pair of examples show that the difference in meaning is not entirely a matter of ordering.

Unlike is used with the meaning of negative resemblance 'not like':

{*Unlike his brother* (who writes poetry), Bill writes science fiction. / Bill writes science fiction, *unlike his brother* (who writes poetry).}

As distinct from *like*, the preposition and conjunction *as* refers to actual role (*cf* 9.4):

She spoke {*like a* LÀWYER. ['in a manner resembling'] / *as a* LÀWYER. ['in that capacity'] / *as a* LÀWYER *does*. ['in that manner']}

There is frequently commutability between manner phrases and manner adverbs: *with courtesy* ~ *courteously*. Manner phrases and manner adverbs can both sometimes be evoked by the question *How . . . ?*, especially if the sense of 'means' is excluded by the context or the meaning of the verb:

A: How did she speak? B: She spoke {*competently*. / *with great skill*.}

BUT: A: How did you travel? B: {*By air*. / **Comfortably*.}

Means and instrument: *by, with, without*

9.49 Phrases of means and instrument answer the question *How . . . ? By* can express the meaning 'by means of' (note the omission of the article; *cf* 5.45):

I usually go to work *by bus/train/car/boat*. [mode of transport]
Communication took place *by letter/telex/radio/post* ⟨BrE⟩/*mail* ⟨AmE⟩. [means of communication]
The thief must have entered and left the house *by* (= *through*) *the back door*.
By working the pumps, we kept the ship afloat for another 40 hours.

With, on the other hand, expresses instrumental meaning (*cf* 9.50):

Someone had broken the window *with a stone*. [1]
He caught the ball *with his left hand*. [2]

There is a correspondence between sentences [1–2] (which normally require a human subject and a direct object) and sentences [1a–2a] containing the verb *use* + a phrase with (*in order*) *to* + infinitive:

Someone had used *a stone* to break the window. [1a]
He used *his left hand* to catch the ball. [2a]

There is also an alternative construction in which the noun phrase denoting the instrument becomes the subject (on 'instrumental' subjects, *cf* 10.21):

A stone had broken the window. [1b]
His left hand caught the ball. [2b]

For most senses of *with*, including that of instrument, *without* expresses the equivalent negative meaning:

I drew it *without* (*using*) *a ruler*. ['I did not draw it with a ruler.']

Note [a] Mode of transport is expressed by *on* as well as *by*: *on the bus/the train/a ship/a plane*. These are not purely locative phrases – location in such cases would be expressed by *in* rather than *on* (*cf* 9.16*f*) – but rather indicate a condition of being 'in transit'. Compare sentences [3–6]:

I go to work *on the bus*. [3]
I go to work *by bus*. [4]
I met Peter *on the bus*. [5]
*I met Peter *by bus*. [6]

Sentence [3] is a less common alternative to [4]; but although one can say [5], one cannot say [6]. Absence of the article is normal with the unmodified noun phrase after *by*, but not obligatory:

It's easier to go to town *by the bus* (rather than *by the train*).

On is used instead of *by* in the phrases *on foot*, *on horseback*. Notice the absence of the article in these phrases, as well as in *by bus*, etc (*cf* 5.45). Modification of the noun phrase is not allowed after *by* unless a determiner is added:

by { *the last bus* / *the 2 o'clock bus* / **last bus* }

[b] *Of* is used with the verb *die* in *He died of hunger*, etc. This meaning is poised between 'cause' and 'means': on the one hand, one speaks of the 'cause of death' (*cf: He died from exposure*); on the other hand, this type of phrase would be evoked by the question *How did he die?* (or *What did he die of?*) rather than *Why did he die?*

Instrument and agentive: *with, by*

9.50 In 9.49 we had the following example [1], where *with* expresses the meaning of INSTRUMENT:

Someone had broken the window *with a stone*. [1]

We saw that [1] has correspondences with sentences [1a] and [1b]:

Someone used a stone to break the window. [1a]
A stone had broken the window. [1b]

Sentence [1] is also related to the passive sentence [1c]:

The window had been broken with a stone *by someone*. [1c]

In the passive sentence, the AGENTIVE is expressed with a *by*-phrase (*cf* 3.65): *by someone*. However, in most passive sentences, the agent *by*-phrase is actually omitted, as in [1d]:

The window had been broken *with a stone*. [1d]

In a passive sentence like [1c], the *by*-agent has the agentive role (*cf* 10.19), corresponding to the agentive role of the subject in an active sentence [1]. The agentive is the initiating cause and typically animate, usually personal, as also in:

{ *A passing stranger* observed us. [2]
{ We were observed *by a passing stranger*. [2a]

However, we may also find inanimate *by*-phrases, as in [3a]:

{ *Frost* has ruined the crops. [3]
{ The crops have been ruined *by frost*. [3a]

In cases like [1d], the instrument can also be expressed with a *by*-phrase:

The window had been broken *by a stone*. [1e]

Either of the sentences [1d] and [1e] could describe the same incident, but there can be a difference in meaning, as appears more clearly in the following two sentences:

My car had been damaged { *by the branch of a tree.* [4] / *with the branch of a tree.* [4a] }

By in [4] would exclude a human agency: a storm may have caused the branch to cause the damage. By contrast, *with* in [4a] would exclude the natural cause and would suggest that human agents had used the branch broken from a tree to inflict the damage.

We thus make a distinction between AGENTIVE, *ie* the animate being instigating or causing the happening denoted by the verb, and the INSTRUMENT, *ie* the entity (generally inanimate) which an agentive uses to perform or instigate a process. Both agentive and instrument may be said to denote the semantic role of AGENCY.

The *by*-phrase also occurs as a postmodifier to denote authorship (*cf* 17.46 Note [c]):

a picture *by Degas* ['painted by Degas'] [5]
a novel *by Tolstoy* ['written by Tolstoy'] [6]
a five-year-old horse *by Willwin out of Lady Barle* [parentage of a horse] [7]

Through implies intermediacy in:

They are related *through their grandmother*.
The presidents had to communicate *through an interpreter*.
through Jesus Christ Our Lord [used as a formula at the end of a prayer]

Note [a] One reason why we distinguish 'instrument' and 'agentive' is that they cannot be coordinated, or collapsed, by coordination, into a single prepositional phrase (*cf* 13.40):

*He was killed *by a man and (by) an arrow*.

If however different processes are involved, coordination is possible, though with an effect similar to that of zeugma (*cf* 13.87):

The area was ravaged *by floods and by guerilla forces*.

[b] Outside the passive clause proper, agentive and instrumental *by*-phrases can occur after *-ed* participial adjectives with passive meaning (*cf* 3.74*ff*):

I was very *alarmed by the news* he brought. [8]
The child was *unwanted by its parents*. [9]
His services to the community have not gone *unnoticed by those who have benefited*. [10]

The intensifier *very* in [8], the prefix *un-* in [9] and [10], and the copular use of *go* in [10] (*cf* 16.21) are indicators of the adjectival status of the participle (7.15*ff*).

[c] The *by*-phrase may indicate either 'means' or 'instrument' in a sentence such as:

The news was confirmed by a telegram. [either 'Someone confirmed it by means of a telegram' or 'A telegram confirmed it']

Since the instrumental sense is tied to a passive clause, only the 'means' interpretation is possible in an active clause:

The news came *by (a) telegram*.

Stimulus: *at*

9.51 The relation between an emotion and its stimulus (normally an abstract stimulus) can often be expressed by *at* or by the instrumental *by* (*cf* 9.50):

I was alarmed { *at* / *by* } *his behaviour*. [1]

Both of these can be treated as passive equivalents of:

His behaviour alarmed me. [1a]

The noun phrase following *at* may be treated as a semi-agent. Further exemplification of this use of *at* is given in 9.63 and 16.69.

The idea of 'stimulus' is sometimes expressed by other prepositions, in place of *at*, which function as semi-agents (*cf* 3.76):

I'm *worried about* this. ['This worries me.']
He's *interested in* history. ['History interests him.']
His plans were *known to* everyone. ['Everyone knew his plans.']

Note In BrE, *with* rather than *at* is used when the stimulus is a person or object rather than an event:
I was *furious with* John.
I was *delighted with* the present.
But in AmE, *at* is quite usual:
I was *furious/angry/livid/mad at* Christine.
With abstract nouns, *at* is equally acceptable in BrE and AmE:
I was *furious at* Christine's behaviour.
At has a common alternative in *about*: *annoyed at/about, pleased at/about*, etc. (*Cf* further examples in 16.69.)

Accompaniment: *with*

9.52 Especially when followed by an animate complement, *with* has the meaning 'in company with' or 'together with' (comitative function):

I'm so glad you're coming *with us*. [1]
Jack, *(together) with several of his noisy friends*, was drinking till after 2 in the morning. [2]

In [2], the *with*-phrase serves a function very close to coordination with *and*. Note however that, unlike *and*, *with* has a singular verb (*cf* 13.103):

Jack and several of his noisy friends *were* . . . [2a]

An example of a phrase of accompaniment occurring as postmodifier is:

Curry *with rice* is my favourite dish.

In this sense, as in most other senses (but *cf* 9.53), *without* is the negative of *with* (*ie* 'unaccompanied by'):

You never see him *without his dog*.
She was *without her children*.
Without you, I'm not going.

With is also used to express 'accompanying circumstances', as in [3], and to introduce a subject (*cf* 9.55, 14.15*ff*), as in [4]:

With all the noise, she was finding it hard to concentrate. [3]
It all started *with John('s) being late* for dinner. [4]

In both these uses, *with* implies cause: [3] 'Because of all the noise . . .'; [4] 'It all started as a result of John('s) being late . . .'.

Support and opposition: *for, with, against*

9.53 *For* conveys the idea of support ['in favour of'] and *with* that of solidarity or movement in sympathy:

Are you *for or against the plan*? ['Do you support or oppose the plan?']
Remember that every one of us is *with you*. ['on your side']

In this use, there is no negative *without* contrasting with *with*. The contrary idea of opposition is conveyed by *against*:

It is prudent to go *with* rather than *against the tide of public opinion*.
the movement *against nuclear arms* ['anti-nuclear'; *cf* prefixes of attitude, App I.25]

However, *with* conveys the idea of opposition between people in *fight with, quarrel with, argue with*, etc. Compare:

He's always *arguing* { *with* his sister. / *against* nuclear power. }

The verb *fight* is used with the preposition *with* to denote opposition in *fight with somebody*, which can mean *fight somebody* (*cf* 9.31) or *fight against somebody*; however, *with* in *fight with X against Y* denotes support ['on X's side']. But there is no prepositional form in: *fight a bad cause, fight an illness*. *Play* can be constructed in two ways, as in:

I played { *(a game of) chess with Sam.* / *Sam at chess.* }

Other prepositional meanings

Various relations indicated by *of*

9.54 The most common preposition, *of*, occurs chiefly as a postmodifier in noun phrases in a function similar to that of the genitive (*cf* 5.115*ff*), *eg*:

the gravity *of the earth* ~ *the earth's* gravity

The correspondence between the genitive and the *of*-construction is most conveniently discussed in the chapter dealing with the noun phrase (17.38*ff*).

However, postmodifying *of*-phrases also have a wide range of other uses (*cf* 5.6*ff*), *eg*:

(a) part of the city	[partition]
a kind of wood	[quality]
a lot of people	[quantity]

Here are some more examples with *of*-phrases:

the courage *of the man* ['the courage that the man shows']
a typewriter *of my father's* ['a typewriter that my father has']
the envy *of the world* ['the envy that the world feels']
the trial *of the conspirators* ['the trial that the conspirators face']
the virtue *of thrift* ['the virtue that consists in thrift']
a flock *of sheep* ['a flock that is made up of sheep']
a glass *of water* ['a glass that contains water']
seven *of my friends* ['seven from among my friends']
people *of the Middle Ages* ['people who lived in the Middle Ages']
the house *of my dreams* ['the house which I see in my dreams']
the College *of Surgeons* ['the college to which surgeons belong']
a boat *of fibreglass* ['a boat made of fibreglass']

'Having': *of, with, without*

9.55 The meaning of [1] is related to all the noun phrases [1a–d]:

The man has courage.	[1]
the man having courage	[1a]
the man's courage	[1b]
the courage of the man	[1c]
a man of courage	[1d]

Both [1c] and [1d] have postmodifying *of*-phrases. They differ in that the head of [1c] (*the courage*) is the notional object, whereas the head of [1d] (*the man*) is the notional subject. In the latter type of construction, *of* is limited to the expression of abstract attributes, as in:

a pianist *of great talent* ['a very talented pianist']
a performance *of distinction* ['a distinguished performance']

The notion of 'having' is more generally expressed by *with*, especially with concrete attributes:

a man *with a red nose* ['who has a red nose'; 'a red-nosed man']
an industrialist *with a house on the Costa Brava* ['who has a house . . .']
a woman *with a large family*
a box *with a carved lid*

Compare the following constructions: [2] can have either *of* or *with*, but only *with* is generally accepted in [3]:

a woman $\left\{\begin{matrix}of\\with\end{matrix}\right\}$ *with strong feelings* [abstract] [2]

a woman $\left\{\begin{matrix}?of\\with\end{matrix}\right\}$ *strong hands* [concrete] [3]

The negative of *with* is *without* (*cf* 9.52):

a play *without any faults* ['a play with no faults']
women *without children* ['childless women']
the house *without a porch* ['. . . which has no porch']

The correspondence between phrases with *with* or *without* and relative clauses with *have* applies also to *have*-existential sentences (*cf* 18.54):

the girl *who has a boyfriend in the navy*
~ the girl *with a boyfriend in the navy*

With and *without* can also introduce a nonfinite or verbless clause as postmodifier in a noun phrase:

the factory *with its smoking chimney*
a room *with its door open*

Furthermore, they can introduce finite and verbless clauses as adverbial:

He wandered in *without shoes or socks on.*
With so many essays to write, I won't have time to go out tonight.

The fuller clausal equivalent is a participial adverbial clause expressing contingency (*cf* 15.46):

Having so many essays to write, I won't have time to go out tonight.

Since *with* and *without* in these functions introduce clauses, they are subordinators, not prepositions. The nonfinite clause may also be a *to*-infinitive. Compare:

$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{With Mary being away}\\\textit{With no one to talk to}\\\textit{With Mary away}\\\textit{With the house empty}\\\textit{Without anyone to talk to}\end{matrix}\right\}$ John felt miserable.

In this construction, *with* and *without* require a noun phrase (not necessarily a subject):

**With being away* . . .

This is a further indication that they function here not as prepositions but as subordinators (*cf* 14.15). Prepositions can have *-ing* clauses but not *to*-infinitive clauses as complement (*cf* 9.2):

$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{On arriving}\\\textit{*On to arrive}\end{matrix}\right\}$ Mary took a taxi.

The clause-introducing function of *with* and *without* is similar to that of *for* in cases like the following (*cf* 14.6):

I bought a car *for Mary to drive to work in.*

At the same time, we must recognize a relationship between their uses as conjunction and preposition. Compare:

With Mary I always feel happy.
Without Mary I always feel miserable.
I bought a car *for Mary* (so that she could drive to work in it).

Note In this group, *without* has two meanings: (a) 'not with' and (b) 'outside':

(a) They work both *with and without assistance* from me.

(b) They operate both $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{within and without}\\\textit{inside and outside}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *the organization.*

Note, however, that there is an imbalance in that *without* in the second sense can be used only when coordinated with *within*:

(a) They work $\left\{\begin{matrix}with\\without\end{matrix}\right\}$ *assistance* from me.

(b) They operate $\left\{\begin{matrix}within\\?*without\end{matrix}\right\}$ *the organization.*

Concession: *in spite of, despite, for all, with all*, etc

9.56 *In spite of* is a general-purpose preposition of concession; *despite* is rather more formal:

I admire him, *in spite of his faults.*

Despite strong pressure from the government, the unions have refused to order a return to work.

With all and *for all* 'despite' are more colloquial and rather restricted in their use:

With / *For* } *all his boasting and ostentatious training*, he was knocked out in the first round.

In concessive use, *all* must be present after both prepositions: *with all* and *for all*. In causal use, *all* is optional: *with* or *with all*. Compare:

With all / *For all* } this noise I managed to get some sleep. [concessive: 'in spite of']

With all / *With* } this noise, I couldn't sleep. [causal: 'because of']

Notwithstanding ['in spite of'] is formal and rather legalistic in style, particularly when postposed:

Thomas Carlyle, { *notwithstanding his tedious rhetoric,* / *his tedious rhetoric notwithstanding,* } is a master of the sublime in prose style.

Compare the adverbial use of *notwithstanding*, as in:

Notwithstanding, the case must be prosecuted. ['notwithstanding any conditions']

Respect: *with reference to, with regard to, as for*, etc

9.57 Some of the prepositions denoting respect are used in rather formal contexts, typically business letters, *eg*:

With reference to [less usual: *In reference to*] *your letter/request/enquiry of April 29th*, I confirm my Directors' agreement to advance a further sum of £2000. ⟨formal⟩

With regard to the date of delivery . . . [less usual: *In regard to* or *Re* /riː/; typically introducing a secondary or tertiary topic in such a letter]

Re functions like *with regard to* but is more common in notes than in formal letters, *eg*:

Re your idea of extending the canteen . . .

Other prepositions within the same general area of meaning are *regarding, with respect to, in respect of, respecting, on the matter of, about, concerning, as to* (*cf* subject matter, 9.60).

As to functions like *with regard to, as regards*, etc:

As to the question you raise in your last letter, I think that . . .

As to is also used in the sense of *according to*, *eg*: *correct as to size and colour*.

As for, on the other hand, introduces a topic transition, so it cannot normally occur at the beginning of a discourse. It has the meaning of 'returning to the question of', and is less formal than the other complex prepositions denoting respect:

We had a delightful weekend in the country. *As for the traffic*, we had no difficulty.

There is a predisposition for initial *as for* to indicate a contemptuous attitude:

As for his book, I suppose you've read the reviews!

There are a number of marginal prepositions that have affinities with verbs which belong here: *concerning, regarding*, and *touching* ⟨formal⟩ (*cf* 9.8), *eg*:

Concerning the recent proposal by the chairperson, I suggest we . . .

Considering is used like *in view of* ['taking into consideration'], often 'if one takes into account the rather surprising fact that':

Considering the job situation, there were surprisingly few applications this year.

Prepositional phrases as adverbials denoting respect are chiefly used as disjuncts or conjuncts. Most of them can also function as postmodifiers in noun phrases:

Has the candidate expressed *an opinion* { *on* / *about* / *concerning* / *with regard to* } legal abortion?

We await *your decision as to whether* these repairs are to be carried out immediately.

Note The use of *irregardless* (*of*) for *regardless* (*of*) is widespread, especially in AmE, but is considered nonstandard by most people. It appears to be the result of a confusion between *regardless* and *irrespective*, or perhaps a choice of a double negative (*ir* + *less*) which is felt to be suitably emphatic.

Exception and addition

9.58 The most common prepositions denoting exception are: *except for, with the exception of, apart from, aside from* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *except, excepting, excluding, but*, and *save* ⟨formal⟩. When used in adverbials, prepositions denoting EXCEPTION function primarily as disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*):

We had a pleasant time, *except for the weather*.

With the exception of James, none of us had any money.

The worst period of my life, { *apart from the war,* / *aside from the war* ⟨esp AmE⟩, } was when I was out of work.

Except and *excepting* function normally, and *but* exclusively, in postmodifying phrases:

All { *but* / *except(ing)* } *the captain* were rescued.

Finally we had packed everything {*but* / *except*} *the typewriter.*

Any time *but now*. ['any other time']

Thus *but* cannot occur initially as a preposition:

{**But* / *Except for*} me, everyone was tired.

The prepositional phrase, in such constructions, is often separated from its noun head, and postposed to the end of the clause (*cf* discontinuous noun phrases, 18.39):

Everyone but me was tired. ~ *Everyone* was tired *but me*.

Further, the noun phrase with *but*-modification must contain a determiner or indefinite pronoun of absolute meaning (positive or negative): *no, all, any, every, each, nobody, anywhere, everything*, etc or an interrogative *wh*-word (*who?, where?*, etc). Hence one may say *all but one*, but not, *eg*: **some but one*, or **many but one*. Other examples:

This car is *anything but* slow.
We've bought *everything but* milk.
Who should turn up *but* our old friend Tom.

Bar and *barring* are rarer substitutes for *except* and *excepting*:

This is the most versatile microcomputer on the market, *bar none*.
Barring accidents, we'll be there on time.

Beyond is sometimes used in nonassertive contexts in the sense of *except* (*for*):

Beyond the press release, there are no further comments.
He didn't help, *beyond showing a mild interest*.

ADDITION can be expressed by the prepositions *besides, as well as*, and *in addition to*. For example:

There were three people present {*besides* / *in addition to*} *the committee.*

As well as learning to swim he has been taking Spanish lessons this summer.

Compare the difference in meaning between *except* and *but* (both denoting exception), on the one hand, and *besides* (denoting addition), on the other, in the following examples:

Everyone passed {*except* / *but*} *Richard*. ['Richard did not pass but everyone else did.']

Everyone passed *besides Richard*. ['Everyone passed, in addition to Richard.']

In the negative, the difference is cancelled out, so that the following two sentences are synonymous:

No one passed {*except* / *besides*} *Richard.*

Note [a] *But* as a preposition has to be distinguished from *but* as a conjunction (*cf* 13.5*ff*). Both the resemblance and the contrast between the two functions are brought out in:

Everyone had a good time *but* John. [preposition = 'with the exception of', 'except for']

The students had a good time {*but not* John. / *but* John *did not*.} [conjunction]

However, there is often indeterminacy between the preposition and conjunction status of *except* and *but*, as can be seen in the variability of constructions such as:

He does everything in the house {*except* / *but*} {*put* / *putting*} *the children to bed.*

[b] As we have seen above, prepositions of exception and addition quite often have a prepositional phrase or clause as complement (*cf* 9.1 Note [d]):

except in the southeast
apart from when I last spoke to you
except for what I ordered
in addition to being a fine colleague

[c] The combination *all but* is used colloquially as an intensifier:

He *all but* ['very nearly'] strangled me.
Cf: She is *but* ['only'] a child. [where *but* is a restrictive subjunct, *cf* 8.116 Note [b]]

Negative condition: *but for*

9.59 *But for* is not used in the sense of exception, but rather that of 'negative condition':

But for Gordon, we would have lost the match. ['If it hadn't been for Gordon . . .', 'If Gordon hadn't played as he did . . .', etc]

Many people use *except for* in the same way as *but for* to denote negative condition. However, *except for* normally denotes exception (*cf* 9.58). Note the difference in meaning between the following two sentences:

Except for John they {would all have died. ['If it hadn't been for John . . .'] / all died. ['With the exception of John . . .']}

Prepositional phrases used chiefly in complementation of verbs and adjectives

Subject matter: *about, on*

9.60 With the meaning 'on the subject of', 'concerning', *about* and *on* can combine with a considerable range of verbs and adjectives (*cf* 16.28, 16.69), *eg*:

She is *lecturing* {*about* / *on*} new techniques of management.

He *told me* {*about* / **on*} his adventures.

Other examples:

ABOUT/ON	ABOUT
argue about/on	*find out about*
be knowledgeable about/on	*hear about*
communicate about/on	*inform* (someone) *about*
confer about/on	*learn about*
hold forth about/on	*keep quiet about*
preach about/on	*quarrel about*
speak about/on	*read about*
write about/on	*teach* (someone) *about*

On is chiefly reserved for deliberate, formal linguistic communication (public speaking, lecturing, writing, etc), and is therefore inappropriate for verbs like *chat* or *quarrel*. Thus [1] would suggest she was making a formal speech ['gave a lecture on'], whereas [2] could refer equally to an informal conversation or casual allusion:

She *spoke* { *on butterflies.* [1]
about butterflies. [2] }

This difference of meaning occurs also with postmodifying phrases where *on* and *about* mean 'on the subject of':

a book about/on butterflies	*a story about* a princess
a talk about/on antiques	*ignorance about* sex
a discussion about/on drugs	*the facts about* nuclear power
a word about/on the garden	*a fuss about* nothing

Prepositional phrases introduced by both *about* and *on* may function as obligatory predication adjuncts with the verb *be*:

This book *is* { *on* / *about* } *stamps.*

A less usual, and more formal, alternative to *about* and *on* is *concerning* (*cf* 9.57): *a dispute concerning land rights.*

Over is also used to denote 'on the subject of', 'in connection with':

They *quarrelled over money.*
It's no use *crying over spilt milk.*

Of is a somewhat rarer and more literary alternative to *about* in *tell, speak, talk, inform . . . of*, etc. Both *about* and *of* are frequently used with *think*, but with a difference of meaning:

He *thought* { *about the problem.* ['He pondered/considered the problem.']
of the problem. ['He brought the problem to his mind.'] }

Of can also be used in variation with *about* in noun phrases (*cf* above), as in:

a story of a princess *ignorance of* sex *the facts of* nuclear power

Material, ingredient: *with, of, out of*; substance: *from*

9.61 With verbs of 'making', *with* indicates an ingredient; *of* and *out of* signify the material or constituency of the whole thing; and *from* indicates a substance from which something is derived:

This cake is *made with* lots of eggs. ['Eggs are an important ingredient.']
He *made* the frame (*out*) *of* wood. ['Wood was the only material.']
Beer is *made from* hops.

With also enters into such pervasive expressions as *paved with brick, filled with water, loaded with hay* (*cf* 9.29).

Of (used with nouns denoting 'material') is found in a postmodifying function as well as in adverbials:

a bracelet of solid gold ['made out of', 'a solid gold bracelet']
a table of polished oak ['made/consisting of polished oak', 'a polished oak table']

It may also be used metaphorically:

a man of steel
a heart of stone [*cf* 'a woman of/with strong feelings', 9.55]

Standard: *for, at*

9.62 A comparative adjective must be related, explicitly or implicitly, to a basis of comparison (*cf* 7.86). Thus we cannot say [1], without some such implicit relation:

This boy is bigger. [1]

Similarly, a gradable adjective without the comparative form implies some standard or norm; *big* in [2] means something different from *big* in [3]:

This elephant is big. [2]
This cat is big. [3]

The reason is that 'big for an elephant' presupposes a larger scale, and a larger norm, than 'big for a cat'.

We can make the norm explicit by a *for*-phrase [4–5]:

He's not bad *for a youngster.* ['considering that he is a youngster'] [4]
That dog is long-legged *for a terrier.* [5]

A further way in which one may specify the meaning of a gradable adjective or noun is to use *at* to indicate the respect in which the adjective is appropriate to the subject (*cf* 16.69), as in [6–7]:

He's *good/clever/brilliant/an expert at organizing things.* [6]
He's *bad/better/terrible/no good at games.* [7]

The use of *for* and *at* is not restricted to adjectival complementation: these prepositions occur also in a number of other grammatical roles, as the following examples show:

I'm a complete dunce *at mathematics.*
She's getting on very well *at her job.*
For an Englishman, he speaks foreign languages remarkably well.
It's a dreadfully expensive toy *for what it is.*

Reaction: *at, to*

9.63 Consider these three sentences:

Their rejection of the offer *surprised* me. [1]
I was *surprised by* their rejection of the offer. [1a]
I was *surprised at* their rejection of the offer. [1b]

Sentence [1] presents, by means of a straightforward subject–verb–object construction, the relationship between an event, an emotional reaction, and the person who undergoes the reaction. The same relationship can be expressed by the passive [1a] (*cf* 3.63*ff*), or, alternatively, by the passive with the preposition *at* replacing the agentive preposition *by* [1b]. Here *at* (as we saw in 9.51) signals the relation between the emotive reaction and its stimulus. *Surprised* in this context is a participial adjective (note that it can be preceded by *very*; *cf* 7.15), and it is with such adjectival forms that *at* ['stimulus'] characteristically combines (*cf* 3.76, 16.69):

alarmed at *disgusted at*
amused at *delighted at*

Less commonly, verbs and nonparticipial adjectives have this construction:

laugh/stare/gaze/glance/aim/rejoice . . . at
be angry/glad . . . at

Another way to state the same idea is to let the main clause represent the event acting as a 'stimulus', and to let the REACTION be expressed by the preposition *to* followed by an abstract noun of emotion, *eg*: *to my regret, to my annoyance, to my relief, to my surprise, to my horror, to my delight*:

To my regret, they rejected the offer.

To my regret in this context is a content disjunct, comparable with adverbs such as *regrettably* (*cf* 8.127).

The reaction can also be expressed by *to* + personal pronoun or a phrase with *to* + possessive pronoun + *mind*, *in* + possessive pronoun + *opinion*, etc, to identify the person reacting:

To me, / *To my mind*, / *In my opinion*, } their rejection was a surprise.

In this sense, *to* is not limited to emotive reactions but applies equally to intellectual or perceptual responses:

To a mind based in common sense, his ideas are utterly absurd.
It looked *to me* like a vast chasm.

However, in this last case the *to*-phrase is not a disjunct, but an adjunct.

According to is used to identify not so much a reaction to, as an interpretation of, events. It is used chiefly for a 3rd person (*cf* 8.127 Note [a]):

To him/you/me / *According to* him/?you/??me } this is quite unexpected.

Note This use of *according to* should be distinguished from the different sense of *in accordance/agreement/conformity with*:

in accordance with / *according to* } the new regulations

Modification of prepositional phrases

9.64 Prepositional meanings (particularly of time and place) are subject to modification as regards degree and measure, and prepositions may therefore (like many adjectives and adverbs) be preceded by intensifiers (*cf* 7.61). For example:

I left it *just* ⟨inside⟩ the garage. ['a little way']
He had wandered *right* ⟨off⟩ the path. ['completely']
Now their footsteps could be heard *directly* ⟨above⟩ my head.
I got up *just/soon* ⟨after⟩ ten.
There was rubbish *all* ⟨over⟩ the place.
They followed *close* ⟨behind⟩ me.
This cake mix comes *straight* ⟨out of⟩ the packet.
The dog was lying *right* ⟨in the middle of⟩ the floor.

There is doubt in such cases as to whether the intensifier should be treated as applying to the whole prepositional phrase, or to the preposition alone. In the examples above, however, the intensifiers can modify the prepositional adverbs: *right in the middle*, etc.

Prepositions and prepositional adverbs

9.65 A prepositional adverb is a particle which is formally identical to or related to a preposition, and which often behaves like a preposition with ellipted complement:

A car drove { *past the door*. [*past* is a preposition] / *past*. [*past* is a prepositional adverb]

Thus a prepositional adverb shares the form, but not the syntactic status, of a preposition. It is capable of standing alone as an adjunct, conjunct, postmodifer, etc without the addition of a prepositional complement:

Despite the fine weather, we stayed *in* all day.
Besides, I don't feel like a walk just now.
The day *before*, I had spoken to her in the office.

Prepositional adverbs normally receive stress, whereas simple prepositions (especially monosyllables, *cf* 9.9) normally do not. In each of the following pairs, *in* is a stressed adverb in the first and an unstressed preposition in the second example:

She stayed *IN*.	[1]
She stayed *in the HOUSE*.	[1a]
He thrust *IN* his HAND.	[2]
He swam *in the LAKE*.	[2a]
Which prisoner did they march *IN*?	[3]
Which uniform did they MARCH *in*?	[3a]

Both prepositions and adverbs commonly appear in idiomatic combinations with a preceding verb, *eg*: *make for*, *make up*, *make up for*. Here, however, we shall pay attention only to their meaning and syntactic behaviour as individual items, idiomatic usage being a concern of the dictionary rather than of the grammar. Phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs, *ie* combinations of verb + adverb and verb + preposition which behave syntactically or semantically as a single unit, are discussed in 16.2*ff*.

Note The relation between prepositional adverbs and prepositional phrases [4] may be compared to that between intransitive and transitive use of certain verbs [5] (*cf* 16.19):

She *stayed in* (the house).	[4]
She *ate* (breakfast).	[5]

9.66 (a) The following list includes some prepositional adverbs related to simple prepositions (*cf* 9.7), as in:

Why didn't you come { *before* 7 o'clock? / *before*?

a'board	*a'bout*	*a'bove*
a'cross	*'after*	*a'long*
a'longside	*a'round*	*be'fore*
be'hind	*be'low*	*be'neath*
be'sides	*be'tween*	*be'yond*
by	*down*	*in*
in'side	*near* (*'nearer*, *'nearest*)	*off*
on	*'opposite*	*out'side*
'over	*past*	*round*
since	*through*	*through'out*
'under	*under'neath*	*up*
with'in	*with'out*	

All, with the exception of *without* and the conjunct *besides*, are primarily adjuncts of time or space.

(b) The following list includes some prepositional adverbs that are related to complex (two-word) prepositions (*cf* 9.10), as in:

Paul wants to go to the Zoo { *instead of* going to a museum. / *instead*.

a'head	*a'way*	*back*
close	*east*, etc	*'eastward(s)*, etc
in'stead	*out*	*over'head*
to'gether		

(c) The following list includes some prepositional adverbs related to complex (three-word) prepositions (*cf* 9.11), as in:

Why don't you put the trunk { *on top of* the car? / *on top*?

at variance	*in addition*	*in aid*
in case	*in charge*	*in common*
in comparison	*in context*	*in exchange*
in favour	*in front*	*in lieu*
in line	*in need*	*in relation*
in return	*on top*	

Most of the common prepositions listed in 9.7*ff* can also act as prepositional adverbs, for example:

Position (9.16):	Is your sister *in*? – No, she's *out/away*.
Destination (9.16):	She went *out/away/in*.
Passage (9.24):	The dog jumped *over/through*.
Path (9.26):	Move *along*.
	She came *round* to see me.
Orientation (9.27):	The man (who sat) *opposite* kept looking at her.
Resultative (9.28):	The price of oil is *up* again today.
Pervasive (9.29):	There were lots of people *around*.

Prepositional phrases and prepositional adverbs can be seen as the extremes on a scale with a stepwise reduction in explicitness as we proceed from [1] to [5]. In the sentence pattern 'They are all . . .' we can have:

in (great) *favour of the proposal*	[1]
(greatly) *in favour of the proposal*	[2]
(greatly) *in favour of it*	[3]
(greatly) *in its favour*	[4]
(greatly) *in favour*	[5]

We have in [1] a free syntactic noun phrase with *favour* as head which admits adjectival premodification; in [2] a complex preposition *in favour of* with *the proposal* as complement; in [3] the pronominal substitute for the nominal complement in [2]; in [4] a possessive determiner *its*; and in [5] the prepositional adverb *in favour*, which relies for its interpretation on previous mention in the linguistic or situational context. The reduction in [4] (premodification) as compared with [2] and [3] (postmodification) is dealt with in connection with the noun phrase. The step from [4] to [5] is one step beyond premodification structure.

Note [a] *For* and *against* are used as prepositional adverbs only in phrases such as *votes for and against*.
[b] *To* is used as a prepositional adverb in *set 'to* (*and finish*), *turn 'to* (*and help*), and in a few idioms such as (*walk*) *to and fro*. Compare the prepositional phrase in *walk to and from work*.

[c] There is no prepositional adverb corresponding to *contrary to* (*cf* 9.10). But note the similar use of the reduced expression *to the contrary*.

His vote was { *contrary to mine.* / *to the contrary.* }

Compare also the conjunct adverbial (8.137):

On the contrary, / *To the contrary* ⟨AmE⟩, } what I said was this year, not next.

Bibliographical note

A general analytical bibliography of prepositions can be found in Guimier (1981).

Theoretical treatments of the roles of prepositions are provided by Bennett (1975); Bugarski (1969); Fillmore (1969); Rosenbaum (1967a); Vestergaard (1977).

Studies of other aspects of English prepositions can be found, for example, in Christophersen (1979); Hill (1968); Jacobsson (1977a); Lee (1969); Leech (1969a); Lindkvist (1950, 1972, 1976, 1978); Poutsma (1926–29), Part II.2; Quirk and Mulholland (1964); Sørensen (1979a, 1979b); Turner (1972); Zandvoort and Doodkorte (1962).

Frequencies have been taken from Hofland and Johansson (1982).

10 The simple sentence

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Clause patterns

Simple and multiple sentences

10.1 Sentences are either SIMPLE or MULTIPLE. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause. A multiple sentence contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. Multiple sentences are either COMPOUND or COMPLEX. In a compound sentence the immediate constituents are two or more COORDINATE clauses. In a complex sentence one or more of its elements, such as direct object or adverbial, are realized by a SUBORDINATE clause (*cf* further 14.1*ff*).

Elements such as subject and verb are constituents of sentences and also of clauses within sentences. We shall speak of CLAUSES and CLAUSE STRUCTURE whenever what we say applies both to sentences and to the clauses of which sentences are composed. Thus a complex sentence with one subordinate clause can be analysed twice over, once for the sentence as a whole and once for the subordinate clause included within the sentence:

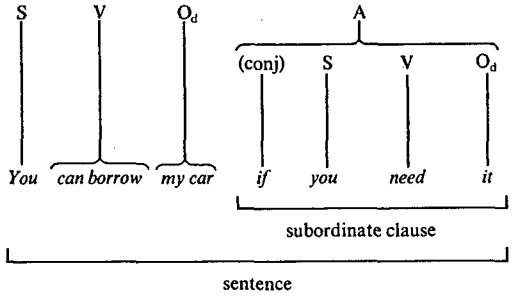

Fig 10.1 Sentence and clause elements

In the present chapter we are primarily concerned with simple sentences. Discussion of coordinate clauses is deferred to Chapter 13 and of subordinate clauses to Chapters 14 and 15. The present chapter is further restricted to aspects of the simple sentence chiefly involving the elements subject, verb, object, and complement. The adverbial, as a clause element that is generally more detachable and more mobile than the others, receives detailed consideration in Chapter 8.

Note [a] We use the term 'simple sentence' for an independent clause that does not have another clause functioning as one of its elements. Thus, [1] is a complex sentence in which *if you need it* functions as an adverbial:

You can borrow my car *if you need it*. [1]

However, a simple sentence may have a clause functioning within a phrase. In that case the complexity is at the level of the phrase, not at the level of the sentence or clause. Thus [2] is a simple sentence:

You can borrow the car *that belongs to my sister*. [2]

In [2] the relative clause *that belongs to my sister* is a postmodifier within the complex noun phrase constituting the object element *the car that belongs to my sister*. Clauses functioning as modification of noun phrases are discussed in Chapter 17. Clauses functioning in the complementation of adjective phrases are discussed in Chapter 16.

The term 'simple sentence' is frequently used elsewhere, but not in this book, for an independent clause that does not contain another clause, regardless of whether the contained clause is an immediate constituent of the sentence or not. In some grammars, nonfinite constructions (which have a nonfinite verb as their verb element) are considered phrases rather than clauses. We treat such constructions as clauses because they can be analysed into clause elements (*cf* 14.5). Nonfinite clauses themselves are intrinsically subordinate and therefore do not constitute simple sentences in the canonical forms (but *cf* 11.41).

[b] A simple sentence is not necessarily simple in a nontechnical sense. For example, a simple sentence may be very complicated because its phrases are complex:

> On the recommendation of the committee, the temporary chairman, who had previous experience of the medical issues concerned, made the decision that no further experiments on living animals should be conducted in circumstances that might lead to unfavourable press publicity.

Other factors apart from the complexity of phrases are mentioned in 14.2.

Clause structures

10.2 We now turn to a further consideration of the clause structures outlined in 2.13*ff*. We there distinguished five functional categories of clause constituents, three of which were further subcategorized.

subject	(S)
verb	(V)
object	(O)– direct object (O_d)
	– indirect object (O_i)
complement	(C)– subject complement (C_s)
	– object complement (C_o)
adverbial	(A)– subject-related (A_s)
	– object-related (A_o)

By eliminating optional adverbials, we established seven major clause types, based on the permissible combinations of the seven functional categories, the clause elements. *Table* 10.2 opposite exemplifies the major clause types in their normal order in a simple declarative sentence, the canonical form of the sentence.

The clause types are determined by the verb class to which the full verbs within the verb constituent belong. Different verb classes require different complementation (O_d, O_i, C_s, C_o, A) to complete the meaning of the verb, or (in the case of *SV*, where the verb is intransitive) no complementation.

Multiple class membership of verbs

10.3 It must be borne in mind that a given verb can belong, in its various senses, to a number of different classes (*cf* App I.54), and hence enter into a number of different clause types. The verb *get* is a particularly versatile one, being excluded only from Type *SV* (and even then not universally; *cf* Note):

SVO	He'll get a surprise.
SVC	He's getting angry.
SVA	He got through the window.
SVOO	He got her a splendid present.
SVOC	He got his shoes and socks wet.
SVOA	He got himself into trouble.

Table 10.2 Major clause types

Type	S(ubject)	V(erb)	O(bject)(s)	C(omplement)	A(dverbial)
SV	*The sun*	intransitive *is shining*			
SVO	*That lecture*	monotransitive *bored*	direct object *me*		
SVC	*Your dinner*	copular *seems*		subject complement *ready*	
SVA	*My office*	copular *is*			subject-related adverbial *in the next building*
SVOO	*I*	ditransitive *must send*	indirect object *my parents*		
			direct object *an anniversary card*		
SVOC	*Most students*	complex-transitive *have found*	direct object *her*	object complement *reasonably helpful*	
SVOA	*You*	complex-transitive *can put*	direct object *the dish*		object-related adverbial *on the table*

Note One minor clause type is the bare existential sentence (18.44*ff*): *There is no need for apologies*; *there must have been some misunderstanding*.

Through the multiple class membership of verbs, ambiguities can arise: *I found her an entertaining partner*, like *She called him her favourite waiter*, could be interpreted either as belonging to the *SVOC* or *SVOO* types.

The complementation of verbs receives detailed treatment in Chapter 16.

Note In informal (especially dialectal) AmE, *get* is used even as an intransitive verb (= 'leave at once') in Type *SV*: *She told him to get.*

Verb complementation

10.4 The elements, O_d, C_s, C_o, and A in the patterns exemplified in 10.2 and 10.3 are obligatory elements of clause structure in that they are required for the complementation of the verb. Given the use of a particular verb in a particular sentence, the sentence is incomplete if one of these elements is omitted, *eg*: **Your dinner seems* (type *SVC*) and **You can put the dish* (type *SVOA*) are unacceptable. In some cases, however, a direct object or an object complement could from one point of view be considered grammatically optional:

They're eating. [S V] ~ *cf* They're eating lunch. [S V O]
We elected her. [S V O] ~ *cf* We elected her our delegate. [S V O C]
He's teaching. [S V] ~ *cf* He's teaching chemistry. [S V O]
He's teaching them chemistry. [S V O O]

We regard these as cases of conversion, whereby a word such as *eat* is transferred from the transitive to the intransitive category. Thus, *They're eating* is an instance of type *SV* rather than of *SVO* (with optional deletion of the object). We adopt this approach because there is to a greater or lesser extent a shift in meaning.

To justify treating object omission as a matter of conversion, we may notice that it applies to some transitive verbs but not to others:

They're hunting deer. ~ They're hunting.
They're chasing cats. ~ *They're chasing.

Also, one can find nonce object omissions, which again points to a word-formation process rather than a syntactic process. Thus (*)*John is licking today* is a highly improbable sentence for which one could (as with all nonce-formations) find a plausible use if one tried hard enough (*eg* a situation in which two people are alternatively employed in licking and sticking stamps on letters). Conversions from one verb category to another, including from transitive to intransitive verbs, are exemplified in App I.54.

A similar approach may be made to instances where the indirect object is omissible:

She gives expensive presents. [S V O_d]
cf She gives her friends expensive presents. [S V O_i O_d]

But here the case for conversion is not so strong, and one may regard the indirect object with many verbs as an optional element similar in status to an optional adverbial.

We should in principle distinguish different types of omission of objects, though the distinction may be blurred in particular instances:

(1) A specific object is recoverable from the preceding linguistic context:

A: Show me your essay. B: I'll *show* you later.
Let's do the dishes. I'll *wash* and you *dry*.

In such instances the verb may be analysed as genuinely transitive with ellipsis of the direct object.

(2) A specific object is understood from the situational context:

Keep off [sign on grass] *Shake* well before use.
Watch! Don't *touch*.
The tie doesn't *fit*.

(3) A specific reflexive object is understood when the verb allows such an object (*cf* 6.25):

I'm *shaving*. They're *dressing*.

Some verbs allow omission of either a reflexive or a nonreflexive object: *She's washing* (*herself* or *the clothes*).

(4) A nonspecific object is semantically entailed (*cf* 16.19):

Are you *eating* again? Do you *drink*?
He *teaches*. I don't want to catch you *smoking* again.
They can't *spell*. I can't come now, because I'm *cleaning*.
I don't want to *read*.

The range of understood nonspecific objects is restricted with some verbs when they are used intransitively. For example, *Do you drink?* refers to the drinking of alcoholic drinks, *I'm cleaning* refers to domestic cleaning and not (say) to cleaning teeth or cleaning a pipe, and *to catch you smoking again* normally excludes (say) smoking fish. In other instances, the intransitive verb may lack the causative meaning of the transitive verb: Contrast *He walked* and *He walked the dog* (*cf* 10.22).

Note In some instances the omission of a sentence element radically changes the sense of the verb. Contrast the use of the verb *find* and *run* in these examples:
I have found her reasonably helpful. [S V O C] I have found her. [S V O]
He is running a business. [S V O] He is running. [S V]

Syntactic functions of clause elements

10.5 A partial characterization of the clause elements based on formal criteria is given in 2.24. Formal criteria usually suffice to identify the verb element within a clausal context, since the verb element is always realized by a verb phrase. We have also noted its syntactic importance in determining what other elements may or must occur in the clause (*cf* 10.3*f*). We now give further consideration to the other clause elements.

Distinctions between the elements – and between types within the elements – are based on (i) forms (noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, finite clause, etc), (ii) position, (iii) syntactic function other than positional potentialities, and (iv) semantic role. It is primarily on the basis of (iii) and (iv) that a distinction is made between O_d and O_i, C_s and C_o. The following sentences contain final phrases that are identical in form and position:

{They told the mayor. / They admired the mayor.} {They told his life story. / They admired his life story.}

But the identity stops there. While the process of admiring the mayor is parallel to that of admiring his life story, telling the mayor involves something very different from telling his life story. The difference is confirmed by coordination:

They admired the mayor and his life story.
*They told the mayor and his life story.

Equally, if we attempt to introduce apposition, we can contrast:

They admired the mayor, *ie* his life story.
*They told the mayor, *ie* his life story.

In other words, *the mayor* and *his life story* are realizations of the same type of O with *admire* but are realizations of different types of O with *tell*. Consequently, we cannot have:

*They admired the mayor his life story.

But we can have:

They told the mayor his life story.

Hence it is necessary (for this last sentence) to distinguish O_i (*the mayor*) from O_d (*his life story*).

Note If the verb is in the simple present, it may be indistinguishable from a noun in a sentence in block language (*cf* 11.45), where determiners are commonly omitted:
Mail leaves tomorrow. ['Mail the leaves tomorrow.' *or* 'The mail leaves tomorrow.']

Subject

10.6 Of the clause elements other than the verb, the subject is the most important in that (except for the verb) it is the element that is most often present. It is also the element for which we can find the greatest number of characteristic features. In characterizing the subject and the other clause elements, we identify the four types of distinction listed in 10.5. Because of its conspicuousness we treat position separately from other syntactic functions.

(a) FORM
The subject is normally a noun phrase (*cf* Chapters 5, 6, and 17) or a nominal clause (*cf* 15.3*ff*).

(b) POSITION
The subject normally occurs before the verb in declarative clauses, and after the operator in *yes–no* interrogative clauses (*cf* 11.5*ff*):

Everbody [S] *has left* [V] for the day.
Has [op] *everybody* [S] left for the day?

In *wh*-interrogative clauses, subject–operator inversion also occurs except where the *wh*-element is itself the subject:

What *have* [op] *you* [S] seen today?
What [S] *has* [op] kept you so long?

(c) SYNTACTIC FUNCTION
(i) A subject is obligatory in finite clauses except in imperative clauses, where it is normally absent but implied (*cf* 11.24*ff*).
(ii) In finite clauses the subject determines the number and person, where relevant, of the verb (*cf* 10.34*ff*):

Nancy [S] *knows* [V] my parents. [singular number concord]
Nancy and David [S] *know* [V] my parents. [plural number concord]
I [S] *am* [V] your new colleague. [singular number and 1st person concord]

(iii) The subject normally determines number of the subject complement when that is a noun phrase (*cf* 10.46):

Caroline [S] is *my sister* [C].
Caroline and Vanessa [S] are *my sisters* [C].

(iv) The subject determines the number and, where relevant, the person and gender of the reflexive pronoun as direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or prepositional complement (*cf* 6.23, 10.48, 10.50). The same concord relation generally applies when the emphatic genitive *my own*, etc is used (*cf* 6.30):

I [S] shaved *myself* [O] with *my own* razor.
He [S] shaved *himself* [O] with *his own* razor.

(v) The subject requires the subjective form for pronouns that have distinctive case forms (*cf* 6.4):

I [S] like him.
He [S] likes me.

(vi) There is a systematic correspondence between active and passive clauses in that the direct or indirect object of an active clause becomes the subject of a passive clause while the subject of the active clause is either omitted or made the complement in a *by*-agent phrase (*cf* 16.26):

My son [S] has prepared *lunch* [O] today. [active]
~ *Lunch* [S] has been prepared by *my son* today. [passive]

(vii) The subject is repeated in a tag question by a pronoun form (*cf* 11.8*ff*):

The milk is sour, isn't *it*?

(viii) The implied subject of a subjectless nonfinite or verbless clause is normally identical with the subject of the superordinate clause:

Susan telephoned *before coming over*. ['. . . before Susan came over']

(d) SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

(i) The subject is typically the theme (or topic) of the clause (*cf* 18.9*ff*).

(ii) It typically refers to information that is regarded by the speaker as given (*cf* 18.8*ff*).

(iii) In a clause that is not passive, the subject is agentive if the agentive role is expressed in the clause (*cf* 10.33).

Note [a] For adverbial forms functioning as subject, *cf* 10.15. On adjectives functioning as heads of noun phrases (*the young*), *cf* 7.23*ff*.

[b] For declarative clauses with subject–operator or subject–verb inversion, *cf* 10.58*f*, 15.36, 18.22*ff*.

[c] For the question of *there* as a subject in existential sentences, *cf* 18.46.

[d] The implied subject of a postmodifying participle clause is the head of the noun phrase:

I haven't yet seen *the friends staying with you.*

['The friends are staying with you.']

These are *the flowers given to us by our children.*

['The flowers were given to us by our children.']

[e] The identity of the subject can be tested in an independent declarative clause through a *wh*-question with *who* or *what*. The subject is the element that can be replaced in its normal position by the *wh*-item:

Joan [S] wants a piece of cake. ~ *Who* [S] wants a piece of cake?

The bright light [S] is disturbing Percy. ~ *What* [S] is disturbing Percy?

Other clause elements require fronting and subject–operator inversion:

Joan wants *a piece of cake* [O]. *What* [O] does Joan want?

Object: direct and indirect

10.7 Direct and indirect objects have some characteristics in common, and this fact justifies their sharing the term *object*:

(a) FORM

Like the subject, the object is normally a noun phrase or a nominal clause. There are constraints on the types of nominal clauses that can be indirect object: generally, only nominal relative clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*).

(b) POSITION

The object normally follows the subject and verb (but *cf* 10.58*f*, 11.14*f*, 18.20). If both objects are present, the indirect object normally comes before the direct object (but *cf* 18.38):

I gave *him* [O_i] *my address* [O_d].

(c) SYNTACTIC FUNCTION

(i) The object function requires the objective form for pronouns that have distinctive case forms:

They amuse *me* [O_d]. They gave *me* [O_i] some chocolate.
I amuse *them* [O_d]. I gave *them* [O_i] some chocolate.

(ii) If an object is coreferential with the subject, it usually requires a reflexive pronoun which agrees with the subject in person and, where

relevant, in number and gender. Similar agreement is required for an emphatic genitive (*my own*, etc) within the object (*cf* 6.30):

You [S] can please *yourself* [O_d].
I [S] have given *myself* [O_i] a treat.
They [S] type *their own letters* [O_d].

(iii) The object of an active clause may generally become the subject of the corresponding passive clause (but *cf* Note [c] below, 16.27):

We have finished *the work* [O_d]. ~ *The work* [S] has been finished.

If both objects are present, it is often possible to make either the subject in a corresponding passive clause:

We sent *Jack* [O_i] *a copy of the letter* [O_d].
~ *Jack* [S] was sent *a copy of the letter* [O_d]. [1]
~ *A copy of the letter* [S] was sent *Jack* [O_i]. [2]

But [1] is far more common than [2]. Instead of the retained indirect object in [2], the prepositional paraphrase is more usual:

A copy of the letter was sent *to Jack*. [2a]

(iv) The indirect object generally corresponds to a prepositional phrase, which is generally placed after the direct object:

I'll send *Charles* another copy. ~ I'll send another copy *to Charles*.
Pour *me* a drink. ~ Pour a drink *for me*.

(v) The indirect object can generally be omitted without affecting the semantic relations between the other elements:

David saved *me* a seat. ~ David saved a seat. ~ David saved me.

Hence, if there is only one object present, it is generally the direct object. But with a few verbs that are normally ditransitive, the indirect object may be retained while the direct object is omitted. In that case the only object present is the indirect object:

Bob is teaching *the older children.*
You can pay *me* instead.

(d) SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

(i) The direct object typically refers to an entity that is affected by the action denoted in the clause (*cf* 10.19, but *cf* also 10.27*ff*):

Norman smashed *a window in his father's car.*

(ii) The indirect object typically refers to an animate being that is the recipient of the action (*cf* 10.19, but *cf* also 10.32).

Note [a] We do not, as some do, apply the term 'indirect object' to the corresponding prepositional phrases (*eg*: *for me* in *Pour a drink for me*), though we use the term 'prepositional object' for the complement in such phrases (*cf* 16.56, 16.60). Some apply the term 'direct object' to an indirect object if it is the only object (*eg*: *you* in *I'll show you* or *his children* in *He's teaching his children*). Others again apply the term 'object' exclusively to the first (or only) object.

[b] Speakers vary in their acceptance of *wh*-questions in which the *wh*-interrogative pronoun replaces an indirect object. The corresponding prepositional phrase is fully acceptable:

?*Who* did the detective show his badge?
~ *Who* did the detective show his badge *to*?
~ *To whom* did the detective show his badge? ⟨formal⟩

Similar variation applies to relative clauses:

?The person I sent the book has not acknowledged receiving it.
~The person I sent the book *to* has not acknowledged receiving it.
~The person *to whom* I sent the book has not acknowledged receiving it. ⟨formal⟩

It also applies to retained indirect objects in passive clauses:

?No reply has been given *me*.
~No reply has been given *to me*.

Retained indirect objects are generally restricted to pronouns.

All three constructions have been exemplified by indirect objects with corresponding prepositional phrases introduced by *to*. The constructions are less acceptable with other correspondences (*eg*: *for*-phrases) or no correspondences.

[c] In instances where the passive is inapplicable because the object is a clause, we can test for the presence of an object by adding a coordinate clause with a pro-form and making the second clause passive.

I asked whether he was there and his parents asked *that* too.
~ *That* was asked by his parents.

[d] The identity of the direct object can be tested in an independent declarative clause through a *wh*-question with *who* or *what*; fronting of the *wh*-item and subject–operator inversion are required:

The buzzer signals *the end of the game* [O_d].
~ *What* [O_d] *does* [op] *the buzzer* [S] signal?

On the difficulty of applying this test to the indirect object, *cf* Note [b] above.

Complement: subject and object

10.8 Both complements are in a copular relationship with another clause element. The subject complement relates to the subject, and the verb is copular (*cf* 16.21*ff*):

My glass is *empty*. [1]
Their daughter has become *an accountant*. [2]

The object complement relates to the direct object:

We find them *very pleasant*. [3]
Carol made Joshua and Peter *her assistants*. [4]

The implied relationship between the object and the object complement can be expressed by means of a corresponding *SVC* sentence with a copular verb, *be* if the object complement is a current attribute and *become* if it is a resulting attribute (*cf* 10.20):

They are *very pleasant*. [3a]
Joshua and Peter became *her assistants*. [4a]

(a) FORM

The complement is normally a noun phrase or an adjective phrase, but it may also be a nominal clause (*cf* 15.4*ff*). It is a defining characteristic of complements, in contrast to objects, that they may be adjective phrases.

(b) POSITION

The subject complement normally follows the subject and the verb. The object complement normally follows the direct object. (But *cf* 11.15, 11.31, 18.20*ff*, 18.37).

(c) SYNTACTIC FUNCTION

(i) If it is a noun phrase, the subject complement normally has concord of number with the subject, and the object complement normally has concord of number with the direct object (but *cf* 10.46). Contrast [2] and [4].

(ii) If it is a reflexive pronoun, the subject complement has concord of number, person and, where relevant, gender with the subject:

She is not *herself* today.

(iii) Unlike the object, the complement cannot become the subject of a corresponding passive clause. There is no corresponding passive clause for the *SVC* type. With the *SVOC* type, the direct object can of course be made the subject of a passive clause:

His friends call him *Ted*. [*Ted* is C_o] [5]
~He is called *Ted* by his friends. [*Ted* is C_s] [5a]

The object complement becomes the subject complement in the passive clause.

(iv) The complement can be questioned, but there is no one general way of doing so (*cf* 11.5 Note [e], 11.15 Note [i]).

(v) If the subject complement is a pronoun, there is a distinction between subjective and objective forms; the subjective form is more prevalent in formal use (especially in AmE):

This is *he*. ⟨formal⟩ That's *him*.

(d) SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

The complement typically identifies or characterizes the referent of the clause element to which it is related (*cf* 10.20).

Note [a] With some verbs, object complements can be omitted (*cf* 16.44*ff*):

We appointed her *our delegate to the convention*. ~We appointed her.
They have named their baby *Roger*. ~They have named their baby.

[b] The object complement cannot be the normal reflexive pronoun, but it can have a corresponding form with *self*/*selves*:

I prefer George *his normal self*. I did not find them *their usual selves*.

Adverbial

10.9 Adverbials are the most diverse of the clause elements, and we therefore distinguish several major types (*cf* Chapter 8, 15.17*ff*).

(a) FORM

The adverbial is normally an adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, or adverbial clause. It may also be a noun phrase (*cf* 8.13).

(b) POSITION

In general, the adverbial is capable of occurring in more than one position in the clause. Constraints on its mobility depend on the type and form of the adverbial. The adverbial in the *SVA* type normally follows the subject and

verb, and the adverbial in the *SVOA* type normally follows the direct object (*cf* 10.10, also 8.27). Other predication adjuncts (*cf* 8.34*f*, 15.22) normally appear at the end of the clause.

(c) SYNTACTIC FUNCTION

(i) Except for the obligatory adverbial in the *SVA* and *SVOA* types (*cf* 10.10), adverbials are optional: they may be added to or removed from the clause without affecting its acceptability and without affecting the relations of structure and meaning in the rest of the clause.

(ii) Other syntactic potentialities depend crucially on the type of adverbial. At the most general level, the adverbial may be characterized negatively: it does not have the syntactic features listed for the other clause elements (*cf* 10.6*ff*).

(d) SEMANTIC PROPERTIES

The adverbial refers to the circumstances of the situation (adjunct and subjunct), comments on the form or content of the clause (disjunct), or provides a link between clauses (conjunct). A more specific semantic characterization relates to the semantic subtypes of adverbials (*cf* Chapter 8 and 15.24*ff*).

Note The term 'adjunct' is sometimes applied by others to all types of adverbial.

Obligatory adverbials: subject-related and object-related adverbials

10.10 Obligatory adverbials are a subclass of predication adjuncts (*cf* 8.27) that belong to the *SVA* and *SVOA* types. Inasmuch as they are obligatory, they are central elements of the clause (*cf* 2.13), part of the clause nucleus. They may be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, or adverbial clauses. In 10.11 we suggest that some obligatory adverb phrases and prepositional phrases may be analysed as complements, belonging to the *SVC* and *SVOC* types.

Obligatory adverbials are commonly required as complementation for the verb BE in the *SVA* type, but they are also found as complementation for other verbs. The adverbials in this type are subject-related. Many are space adjuncts that designate the position of the referent of the subject:

Your children are *outside*.
Our car isn't *in the garage*.
We are now living *in a small village*.
The plane's *off the ground*.
Dorothy is remaining *at Oxford*.
Sam is staying *at a nearby motel*.
Your scarf is lying *on the floor*.
The road begins *in Denver*.

Some express other types of space relations:

We got *off the train*.
We all got *into my car*.
I stole *into her room*.
All roads lead *to Rome*.
The lawn goes *all the way around the house*.
The hills extend *from here into the next county*.

Others express metaphorical extensions of space relations:

They're *into yoga*. ['are keen on yoga'] ⟨informal⟩
We got *into a heated argument*.
He's *off cigarettes*.

Time adjuncts commonly cooccur with an eventive subject (*cf* 10.25):

Their holiday extended *through the summer*.
The next meeting is *on Monday*.
The last performance was *at eight o'clock*.
The play lasts *for three hours*.

On the conditions for omitting the prepositions in the last three examples, *cf* 9.40*ff*.

We briefly exemplify other semantic types of obligatory adverbials in the SVA_s type:

The two eggs are *for you*.	[recipient, 9.46]
The drinks are *for the journey*.	[purpose, 9.45]
If fruit prices are higher this year, it's *because of the bad harvest*.	[reason, 9.44]
Transport to the mainland is *by ferry*.	[means, 9.49]
Entrance was *by special invitation only*.	[means]
Payment is *by cash only*.	[means]
Melvin's main interest is *in sport*.	[stimulus, 9.51]
Jack and Nora are *with me*.	[accompaniment, 9.52]
The painting was *by an unknown artist*.	[agent, 9.50]
How much is this jacket? It's *£60*.	[measure, 8.9]

The connection of subject-related adverbial with subject is parallel to that of subject complement with subject:

Ronald is *off cigarettes*. [S V A_s]
Ann is *happy*. [S V C_s]

Similarly, the connection of object-related adverbial to direct object parallels that of object complement with direct object:

We kept Ronald *off cigarettes*. [S V O_d A_o]
We kept Ann *happy*. [S V O_d C_o]

Here are examples of object-related adverbials:

I put the kettle *on the stove*. ['The kettle is now on the stove.']
They are placing the blame *on us*.
I'm keeping most of my money *in the bank*.
I stuck the wallet *in the drawer*.
He set the typewriter *on the table*.
You should have your hands *on the wheel*.
He directed his speech *at the workers*.
She wants the payment *in dollars*.

Like optional adverbials of the same semantic types, most obligatory adverbials can be questioned with *wh*-interrogative adverbials such as *where*,

when, how long, why. The exceptions include the metaphorical extensions of space relations, but also the semantic relations of recipient, means, agent, stimulus, and accompaniment.

Note [a] In certain instances, a verb of motion is implied before the obligatory adverbials:
She asked them *in*. Truth will *out*. I let the cat *out*.
I'll show you *out*. I want you *inside*.
The construction with the intransitive verb is common in some varieties of colloquial AmE and Scottish English, especially with *want*:
The dog wants *out*. I want *off* at Sixth Street.
[b] The obligatory manner adverbial with *behave* in *He's behaving badly* is related to the subject, though we do not have a corresponding sentence with the copula (**He is badly*) because of the adverb form. We similarly lack corresponding sentences when the prepositional phrase begins with directional *into*, as in *We all got into my car*, though we have the metaphorical informal *They're into yoga*. Compare also the metaphorical *They're on to his machinations* ['aware of'].
[c] The obligatory manner adverbial in *They treated him badly* seems to be related both to the subject ('They are behaving badly.') and to the object ('He is in a bad way.').

Gradience and multiple analysis

Prepositional phrases and adverbs as complement

10.11 Some clause structures and clause elements can be analysed in more than one way. In this and the following sections we examine instances that are best treated through gradience and multiple analysis (*cf* 2.60*f*).

The distinction between obligatory adjunct and complement is not clear-cut for all prepositional phrases. Some prepositional phrases are semantically similar to adjective or noun phrases functioning as complement:

They were *out of breath*. ~ They were breathless.
That is *of no importance*. ~ That is unimportant.
He is *under suspicion*. ~ He is a suspect.
She is *in good health*. ~ She is healthy.
They are not *at ease*. ~ They are not relaxed.

More importantly, such prepositional phrases can be coordinated with, or placed in apposition with, adjective phrases that undoubtedly function as complement:

She is young and *in good health*.
They were *out of breath* and extremely tired.
They are not *at ease, ie* not relaxed.

Furthermore, unlike clear instances of obligatory adjuncts, they can be used as complementation for copular verbs other than BE, a characteristic of adjective phrases functioning as subject complement:

They appear *out of breath*.
That seems *of no importance*.
She feels *in good health*.

Here are other examples of prepositional phrases functioning as subject complement:

They are *in love*.
We're *over the worst*.
The demonstration got *out of hand*.
He feels *at home*.
That child seems *in trouble*.
I don't feel *up to it*.
The house seems *in good condition*.
He sounds *in great danger*.

We similarly find prepositional phrases functioning as object complement:

They put me *at my ease*. ['I'm at my ease.']
I don't consider myself *at risk*.
He didn't feel himself *at home*.
She didn't want me *in any danger*.
He imagined himself *on the point of death*.
I found him *in trouble*.

Some adverbs can also be complements:

The milk seems *off*. ['sour'] ⟨informal⟩
The performance is *over*.
In technology we are *ahead*.
I am *behind* in my rent.
The television is still *on*.
He imagined himself *ahead*.
I declare this meeting *over*.
They let us *off*.

The adverbs and prepositional phrases that function as complement are metaphorically related to space adverbials. Unlike the latter, however, they cannot be questioned by adverbial *where*. Contrast in this respect:

A: Where are they? B: { They're *out of town*. / *They're *out of breath*. }

On the other hand, *how* may be used in some instances to question these complements, as it is for adjective phrases functioning as complement:

A: How does she feel? B: { She feels *very happy*. / She feels *in good health*. }

Note [a] Speakers may vary in particular instances as to whether a copular verb other than BE is acceptable; for example, in *I'm on time* (*cf: I'm early*) or *You're on your own* (*cf: You're alone*). Contrast: (?)*I seem on time* and, with *look* as a copular verb, (?)*You look on your own*.
[b] *Off* in *The milk is off* has moved into the adjective class for those who accept its premodification by *very*.
[c] There may be semantic differences between prepositional phrases and parallel adjective phrases. For example, *She is healthy* suggests a more permanent condition than *She is in good health*.

Particles and clause types

10.12 We have so far considered the verb element as realized only by a verb phrase.

That assumption requires us to analyse [1] as SVA, with *looked* as verb and *into the recent complaints* as adverbial:

The board looked into the recent complaints. [1]

But there are also grounds for analysing *looked into* as the verb, parallel to *investigated* in:

The board investigated the recent complaints. [2]

In that case *the recent complaints* would be direct object in both [1] and [2]. One of the reasons for the alternative analysis is the possibility of making *the recent complaints* the subject of a corresponding passive clause:

The recent complaints were looked into by the board. [1a]

Another is that *the recent complaints* can be questioned by a *what*-question, whereas *into the recent complaints* cannot be so questioned:

What did the board look into?
*What did the board look?

This alternative analysis views combinations of verbs and particles (whether the particles are prepositions or adverbs) as multi-word verbs. Examples can be found for six of the seven major clause types, the exception being type *SVOA*. We here give an example of each type, with the verb element (sometimes discontinuous) indicated in italics:

(1) *SV*	The soldiers *gave in*.
(2) *SVO*	Randolph is *paying for* the meal.
(3) *SVC*	It *turned out* a huge success.
(4) *SVA*	We are *putting up* at a motel.
(5) *SVOO*	They *spoke to* us *about* the problem.
	They *provided* her *with* everything she needed.
(6) *SVOC*	They *looked on* me *as* their role model.
	They *mistook* him *for* the new supervisor.

For this alternative analysis, *cf* 16.2*ff*.

Note [a] A similar multi-word analysis can be posited for verb-plus-adjective combinations (*make clear, cut short*) and for combinations of verb plus noun phrase plus preposition (*make fun of, put a stop to*) (*cf* 16.17, 16.58). Compare also *take a look at, give a jump* (10.30).
[b] Some particles provide obligatory complementation for the verb in the *SV* type, in that the verb otherwise cannot be used intransitively (*make up, give in*). Others are required for the *SVO* type (*look at, listen to*). Similarly, while *consider* can be used with or without the particle *as* in the *SVOC* type – *I consider them* (*as*) *acquaintances* – other verbs require a particle for this type, *eg: regard as, mistake for*. In a pattern with close analogies (*cf* 16.56*f*), a few verbs in the *SVOO* type have alternatives in which one of the objects requires a particle: *She blamed us for the failure, She blamed the failure on us.*
[c] In a sentence such as *I won't put up with such nonsense*, the multi-word verb is *put up with* and is monotransitive under this analysis, *such nonsense* being a direct object. In *They put the mistake down to my inexperience*, the analysis is less clear. We might consider the multi-word verb to be *put down to*, in which case the verb is ditransitive with two objects. We can support that analysis by noting that *wh*-pronominal questions apply for both noun phrases: *What do they put down to my inexperience?*; *What do they put the mistake down to?* On the other hand, only the first noun phrase can be made subject of a corresponding passive: *The mistake was put down to my inexperience*. Furthermore, the indirect object in a ditransitive construction normally has personal reference, the exceptions occurring only when it takes an affected role (*cf* 10.32), but here neither noun phrase is personal. If we still wish to treat *put down to* as a multi-word verb, we must consider both noun phrases as direct objects; we should perhaps do the same for *They ascribed the mistake to my inexperience, ascribe to* being the multi-word verb, since both noun phrases here too may be questioned by *what*.

Extent and measure phrases: object or adverbial

10.13 Noun phrases of measure after certain verbs denoting measure and phrases of extent in space are indeterminate between direct object and adverbial:

EXTENT	MEASURE
He ran *a mile*.	It costs *ten dollars*.
I hobbled *a few feet*.	In length it measures *seven feet*.
She jumped *ten feet*.	It weighed *almost a ton*.

Both types do not generally permit the passive, but we occasionally find the extent phrase as passive subject in a generic sentence:

A mile can't be run in two minutes.

Both types allow adverbial questions:

How far did he run? *How much* does it cost?

But the measure phrases can also be questioned by *what*:

What does it cost?

The adverbial question indicates that the structure is SVA. On the other hand, the pronominal question and the possibility of passivization are indications that the structure is SVO. One further difference between the two types is that the measure phrases are obligatory complementation.

Note [a] If the phrases other than those of extent follow motion verbs, passivization is generally possible and the phrases can only be questioned by *what*; the structure is therefore SVO (*cf* 10.27):
The French team climbed *the mountain*. ~The mountain was climbed by the French team.
In some cases, passivization is possible only if the agentive *by*-phrase is absent:
Once that corner was turned, the road was easy to drive on.
[b] The indeterminacy applies also to some clauses in the *SVOO* pattern which allow both the *What* and *How much* questions, though they also allow the passive:
She charged me *twenty dollars*. I paid her *three pounds*.
In *I bet him a large sum that the horse would win*, we have either three objects (the first of which is O_i) or two objects and an adverbial (*a large sum*).

Middle verbs

10.14 A small group of apparently transitive verbs, the most common of which is *have*, normally occur only in the active. They are all stative relational verbs, and therefore normally do not occur in the progressive (but *cf* Note [c]):

Jack doesn't *possess* a life insurance policy. [*A life insurance policy isn't possessed by Jack.]

They *have* a small house.
Dennis *lacks* confidence.
Will this course *suit* them?
This dress doesn't *become* you.
The coat doesn't *fit* me.
Five times six *equals* thirty.

Because of their other characteristics (*cf* 10.7) these could be considered transitive verbs complemented by a direct object. Notice, for example, that the noun phrase following the verb requires the objective form in pronouns that have that form. On the other hand, the verbs are sometimes treated as a special class termed MIDDLE VERBS. The final element may then be assigned a general term such as VERB COMPLEMENT. The same analysis may be extended to clauses that contain obligatory measure phrases (*cf* 10.13).

Note [a] For most speakers, *resemble* is a middle verb; for some it can occur in the passive:
(?)Geoffrey is resembled by his eldest child.
[b] *Strike. . . as* in *She struck me as happy* and *consist of* in *The group consists of ten men and eight women* cannot occur in the passive, and therefore may also be considered middle verbs.
[c] *Marry* is a middle verb in the sense 'enter into a marriage', but it is dynamic and can therefore occur in the progressive:
My sister *is marrying* Ron.
Marry in the senses 'give in marriage' (more usually *marry off*) or 'perform the marriage ceremony for' is a transitive verb occurring in the passive:
David and Judith *are marrying off* their eldest son next week.
Father Brown *will be marrying* Ron and Joan.

Adverbial forms as subject

10.15 The subject is normally realized by a noun phrase or a nominal clause. In certain restricted contexts (all informal) prepositional phrases, adverbs, and adverbial clauses – all of which normally realize the adverbial element in the clause – function as subject. Two conditions allow this use of adverbials:

(i) the adverbial is a fragment of an understood clause (*cf* 15.16), or
(ii) the sentence can be related to one with prop *it* (*cf* 10.26):

Slowly is exactly how he speaks. ['Speaking slowly is exactly how . . .']
Out on the lake will be splendid. ['A trip out on the lake will be splendid']
Whenever you are ready will be fine. ['It will be fine whenever . . .'; *cf*: *Sunday will be fine*, 10.26]
Will *after the show* be soon enough?
Because Sally wants to leave doesn't mean that we have to.

Note [a] An adverb may be subject in the stereotyped construction with the predicate *does it*:
Carefully, *Slowly*, *Gently* } *does it.*
Easy may be subject in this construction too; although it has the same form as the adjective, it is presumably an adverb in this stereotyped construction. Compare *easy* in other stereotyped constructions: *Easy come, easy go*; *Take it easy*; *Go easy on . . .*
In this construction we cannot substitute a prepositional phrase (**With great care does it*) or change the form of the verb (**Carefully did it*).
[b] *Today*, *yesterday*, etc regularly function as subject. But these are on the gradient from adverb to noun. Clauses such as *Today will be fine* illustrate blurring of nominal and adverbial functions.

The sentence is ambiguous between 'Today, the time you stipulated, will be a suitable time' and 'The weather will be fine today'.

Subject complement or verbless clause

10.16 There is a gradient relating the functional categories of complement and adverbial. The copula at its purest, *ie* a verb having merely a linking function, is the verb BE. Other copular verbs combine pure linking function with other meanings. For example, *become* has a resultative meaning, *grow* (*He grew angry*) usually adds a notion of gradual change, and *look* (*She looked happy*) adds a notion of inference from appearance.

The element following the verb is clearly a complement if the verb can acceptably be replaced by *be* with the final element retaining its sense and if the verb cannot be intransitive. Thus *very quiet* in *He became very quiet* is a complement because we can have *He was very quiet* and we cannot have **He became*. The final element is a complement also when the verb cannot be intransitive in the same sense. Thus *very quiet* in *He grew very quiet* is a complement, since we cannot have *He grew* in the same sense.

At the other extreme of the gradient, the final element is a verbless clause with adverbial status where the independence of the construction is marked by intonation or punctuation:

He waited, *anxious for a reply*. ['He waited', 'He was anxious for a reply.']
She was standing, *a picture of innocence*.

Here, we can substitute *be*, but the verb retains its full sense without the final element. The adverbial status of the final element is shown by the possibility of omitting it without affecting the acceptability of the sentence. Adverbial status is confirmed when the element can readily be fronted:

Anxious for a reply, he waited.

Along the gradient from that extreme, we find similar instances without intonation or punctuation separation:

He died *a poor man*. ['He was a poor man when he died.']
They married *young*.
He came in *drunk*.
They parted *good friends*.

Further along the gradient we find greater collocational restrictions between the final element and the verb, *ie* fewer adjective or noun phrases can provide complementation for the verb, showing a closer connection between the final element and the verb. The first set readily allows omission of the final element without affecting the meaning of the verb:

The fire is burning *low*.
The sun shone *bright*.
He blushed *scarlet*.
The door banged *shut*.

In the second set, complementation of the verb is more usually required in the same sense:

The weather is continuing *mild*.
They are pleading *guilty*.
This detergent washes *whiter*.

We come next to instances where the verb cannot be intransitive, at least in the same sense. These are more clearly copular verbs, with the final element as subject complement. Some verbs are restricted in the complements they allow, restricted either syntactically (to adjective phrases only or to noun phrases only) or collocationally (to a relatively few lexical items) or in both respects:

Jane will make *a good doctor*.
The children are going *hungry*.
They turned *conservative*.
Bob's explanation doesn't ring *true*.
Your hands feel *cold*.
The room smells *musty*.
Mary fell *silent*.
Dan's hair is wearing *thin*.
The well ran *dry*.

Some verbs are somewhat less restricted, though noun phrases are less usual in AmE:

She seemed *the right choice*. [also: *She seemed to be the right choice*.]
Max appears *upset*. [also: *Max appears to be upset*.]
Nora looked *sober*.

The verbs *become* and *remain* are closest to the pure copula in that they impose no restrictions on the choice of the complement.

Note [a] In this section we are concerned with adjective and noun phrases functioning as complement or as adverbial. The distinction between adjective and adverb is discussed in 7.6*ff*.
[b] In some idiomatic collocations the final element may be considered a complement even though we cannot readily replace the verb with BE and retain a similar sense-relationship; for example, *His jokes fell flat*.
[c] Verbless adverbial clauses realized solely by adjective phrases can follow subject complements (type *SVC*):

They are happier *free*. He will be no use *dead*.

They can also follow other clause types:

We took a swim *naked*. } [type *SVO*]
She ran the business *single-handed*. } [type *SVO*]
She gave us our coffee *black*. [type *SVOO*]
He came home *miserable*. [type *SVA*]
They sent him home *sober*. [type *SVOA*]

While the implied subject of the verbless clause is usually the subject of the superordinate clause, it can also be the direct object, as two of these sentences demonstrate ('Our coffee was black', 'He was sober').
[d] The verbless clause can often be preposed, a further indication of its adverbial status (*cf* further 15.58*ff*).

He drove the damaged car home *completely undismayed*.
~ *Completely undismayed*, he drove the damaged car home.

[e] In the rare pattern SVO_iC_s, we have a combination of optional indirect object with subject complement: *He made her a good husband* ['He was a good husband for her.'].

Order of clause elements

10.17 The order of the clause elements is relatively fixed, in general following the sequence in the designation of the clause types (*SVC*, *SVOO*, etc). But a number of factors may interfere with the order:

(a) Optional adverbials may intervene between the elements in the clause pattern. Although most multi-word adverbials occur finally, certain types of adverbials realized by adverbs or short prepositional phrases regularly occur medially (*cf* 8.23); and initial position is typical for conjuncts:

Does it *often* rain in London?
You have *perhaps* heard the story before.
They may *in fact* be at home now.
On the other hand, we aren't going either.
In any case, why should I make the first move?

(b) The basic order is that of the canonical declarative clause. But the order may be affected by variations in the syntactic form of the clause:

(i) In *yes–no* questions, the operator precedes the subject (*cf* 11.5):

Have [op] *you* [S] heard from Roger?

(*cf* 12.49*f* for elliptical questions such as *You seen Roger?*)

(ii) In *wh*-questions, the questioned part (the *wh*-interrogative or the whole phrase of which it is a constituent) and the operator precede the subject, if the questioned part is not identical with the subject (*cf* 11.14*ff*):

What [O_d] *did* [op] *they* [S] tell you?
Where [A] *are* [op] *you* [S] staying?

(iii) In relative clauses, the relative word or the whole phrase of which it is a constituent precedes the subject if it is not itself the subject (*cf* 17.10*ff*):

I know the food *that* [O_d] *they* [S] like.
Can you please show me the room *where* [A] *the lecture* [S] is being held?
This is the friend *about whom* [A] *you* [S] have heard so much.

Contrast, with the relative item as subject:

Let me introduce you to someone *who* [S] has been wanting to meet you for a long time.

(iv) In exclamative sentences, the *what*- or *how*-phrase precedes the subject, except in the rare instances where the *what*-phrase is identical with the subject (*cf* 11.31*f*):

What a good time [O_d] *we* [S] had! *How polite* [C_s] *they* [S] are!

(v) Second-person imperative sentences normally have no expressed subject (*cf* 11.24*ff*):

Show [V] *me* [O_i] *your paper* [O_d] *now* [A].

(c) Considerations of informational highlighting and emphasis may prompt the movement of elements from their normal position, usually to initial or final position (*cf* 18.20*ff*):

That question [O_d] I won't answer. *In* [A] you go.
Sheila wants to leave, and so does *Henry* [S]. Here comes *Ethel* [S].

(d) A longer element in the predication, particularly if it is a clause, tends to be placed after a shorter element (*cf* 18.37*f*):

The discovery has made *possible* [C_o] *new techniques for brain surgery* [O_d].
She told *him* [O_i] *calmly* [A] *what she thought of him* [O_d].

(e) It is stylistically preferable for the part following the verb to be longer than the part preceding it (*cf* 18.39):

A petition [S] was circulated [V] *asking for a longer lunch break* [S].

In this example the subject is *a petition asking for a longer lunch break*, but the postmodifier of *a petition* is placed after the verb.

Note [a] A study of part of the Brown Corpus revealed that in 9 out of 10 cases the subject was immediately followed by the verb in clauses containing both S and V, and the verb was immediately followed by the direct object in clauses containing both V and O_d.
[b] For the alternative BrE order in which the direct object precedes the indirect object (*eg: She gave it me*), *cf* 18.38 Note [a].

Semantic roles of clause elements

Participants

10.18 In terms of meaning, every clause describes a situation in which a number of participants are involved. By PARTICIPANTS we understand entities realized by noun phrases, whether such entities are concrete or abstract. Thus, we have three participants in:

John found *a good spot* for *the magnolia tree*.

The sentence *The child tore my book* contains a verb describing the nature of the action, a subject denoting an agentive participant (the agent or doer of the action), and a direct object denoting an affected participant.

Clause elements denote semantic roles in the situation apart from the participants. Thus, the verb – or the copular verb in combination with a complement – is the primary device for distinguishing situation types as stative or dynamic and as subtypes of these two types (*cf* 4.27*ff* and the summary in *Fig* 4.27). The subject complement and the object complement denote attributes of the subject and direct object respectively. Adverbials denote such circumstances of the situation as time, place, and manner of action, express the speaker's evaluation of the situation, or provide logical connections across clauses or sentences.

Analysis of participant roles has not achieved a general consensus, nor has it fully explored all distinctions. Our description must therefore be considered tentative.

Note [a] The term CASE is often used for participant roles. This semantic use of the term is to be distinguished from its use as a grammatical category realized (usually through inflections) in varying forms of nouns and pronouns (*cf* 5.112*ff*, 6.1*ff*).
[b] We do not deal in this chapter with the semantics of adverbials or of subordinate clauses in general. See Chapter 9 for prepositional phrases, Chapter 8 for adverbials, and Chapters 14 and 15 for subordinate clauses.

Agentive, affected, and recipient roles

10.19 The most typical semantic role of a subject in a clause that has a direct object is that of the AGENTIVE participant: that is, the animate being instigating or causing the happening denoted by the verb:

Margaret is mowing the grass.

The most typical role of the direct object is that of the AFFECTED participant: a participant (animate or inanimate) which does not cause the happening denoted by the verb, but is directly involved in some other way:

Many MPs criticized *the Prime Minister*.
James sold *his digital watch* yesterday.

The most typical role of the indirect object is that of the RECIPIENT participant: *ie* of the animate being that is passively implicated by the happening or state:

I've found *you* a place. We paid *them* the money.

Note [a] Other terms used for AFFECTED are PATIENT and OBJECTIVE. Another term for RECIPIENT is DATIVE.
[b] Some distinguish a benefactive or beneficiary role ('intended recipient') from the recipient role:
I've found *you* a place. She made *her son* a scarf.
The benefactive indirect object is paraphrasable by a *for*-phrase:
I've found a place *for you*. She made a scarf *for her son*.
The two roles can cooccur in the same clause if the benefactive role is expressed by a *for*-phrase:
She gave *me* a scarf *for her son*.
[c] Although *I've found a place for the magnolia tree* and *I've found a place for Mrs Jones* appear to be equivalent utterances, only the second can be transformed into a clause with indirect object: *I've found Mrs Jones a place*, not ?*I've found the magnolia tree a place*. This is because the magnolia tree is not animate and therefore does not qualify for the recipient role (*cf* also 8.32).

Attribute

10.20 The typical semantic role of a subject complement and an object complement is that of ATTRIBUTE. We can distinguish two subtypes of role for the attribute: identification and characterization:

IDENTIFICATION:
Kevin is *my brother*.
Brenda became *their accountant*.
His response to the reprimand seemed *a major reason for his dismissal*.
Henry's room is *the one next to mine*.

CHARACTERIZATION:

Dwight is *an honest man.* The soup is *too hot.*
Martha was *a good student.* Daniel remains *helpful.*
The operation seemed *a success.*

Three syntactic features are associated with this semantic distinction:

(a) Only identification attributes normally allow reversal of subject and complement without affecting the semantic relations in the clause, if the copula is BE:

Kevin is *my brother.* ~ *My brother* is Kevin.

If the copula is other than BE we can test for reversal by substituting BE.

(b) Only characterization attributes can also be realized by adjective phrases.

(c) Identification attributes are normally associated with definite noun phrases. Noun phrases used as characterization attributes are normally indefinite.

The same semantic distinction applies to object complements. The subject–complement reversal cannot take place, but we can test for its possibility by forming a clause from the object and the complement.

I made Maurice *my assistant.*
~ Maurice is *my assistant.*
~ *My assistant* is Maurice.

IDENTIFICATION:

They called their daughter *Edna.*
She considers Susan *her role model.*
We made John *our representative.*

CHARACTERIZATION:

The teacher called their daughter *a good student.*
I consider the operation *a success.*
She made them *comfortable.*

We can further subdivide attributes into current or existing attributes (normally with verbs used statively) and resulting attributes, resulting from the event described by the verb (with verbs used dynamically) (*cf* 16.21*f*). Here are examples of the distinction for both subject and object complements:

CURRENT ATTRIBUTE:

He's *my brother.* She remained *silent.*
He seems *unhappy.* I want my food *hot.*
We lay *quiet.* I prefer my coffee *black.*
We felt *cold.* They consider me *their closest friend.*

RESULTING ATTRIBUTE:

We became *restless.* They elected him *president.*
He turned *traitor.* The heat turned the milk *sour.*
He felt *ill.* He drives me *mad.*
She'll make *a good worker.*

Note [a] If the identification attribute is a noun phrase with an optionally omitted determiner, subject–complement reversal cannot occur:
Joan is *president of the company.*
Contrast:
Joan is *the president of the company.* ~ *The president of the company* is Joan.
[b] A subject complement may be realized by a genitive noun phrase:
That writing must be *Tom's.* [subjective genitive] [1]
That newspaper is *mine.* [possessive genitive] [2]
The idea was *Kathy's.* [genitive of attribute] [3]
The phrases express various genitive meanings (*cf* 5.116). In [1] the complement has the agentive role (*cf: That writing must be by Tom*), in [2] and [3] the role of recipient (*cf: That newspaper belongs to me*; *Kathy had that idea*).
[c] The notion of characterization extends to various measure and extent phrases:
Now she is *thirteen (years old).* The paperback is *three dollars.*
He is *six foot (tall).* The envelope is *one ounce.*
Similar to these are expressions that denote time or period:
It's *five o'clock.* I'm *your age.* The house is *seventeenth century.* ['seventeenth-century style']

Subject as external causer, instrument, and affected

10.21 We now turn to the roles of the subject, apart from its typical role as agentive (*cf* 10.19).

The subject sometimes has the role of EXTERNAL CAUSER; that is, it expresses the unwitting (generally inanimate) cause of an event:

The avalanche destroyed several houses. *The electric shock* killed him.

It may also have the role of INSTRUMENT; that is, the entity (generally inanimate) which an agent uses to perform an action or instigate a process:

A stone broke his glasses.
A car knocked them down.
The computer has solved the problem.

With intransitive verbs, the subject also frequently has the AFFECTED role elsewhere typical of the direct object:

Jack fell down (accidentally). *The pencil* was lying on the table.

The term 'affected' has been extended generally to subjects of copular verbs:

The pencil was on the table.

But we can make some further distinctions within the affected role for subjects according to whether the subject complement as attribute identifies or characterizes (*cf* 10.20). Thus, the subject is IDENTIFIED in [1] and CHARACTERIZED in [2]:

Kevin is my brother. [1]
Martha was a good student. [2]

The assignment of the affected role to the subject of an intransitive verb seems clearest when there is a corresponding transitive verb with which the same noun phrase is a direct object in the affected role:

I am frying *the fish.* [O_d as affected] [3]
The fish is frying. [S as affected] [3a]

We can also make [3] passive:

The fish is being fried. [S as affected] [3b]

But there is a difference between [3a] and [3b]: [3a] focuses on the process, without implying (as in the passive) human agency. In being given the subject function, *the fish* acquires a status that appears to assign it some responsibility for the process. Hence, there is greater constraint on what can appear as subject in the intransitive construction than in the corresponding passive construction. Contrast:

We raised *an alarm*.
~ *An alarm* was raised.
~ **An alarm* rose.

In certain intransitive constructions, an adverbial is generally required:

Her books translate *well*. The sheets washed *easily*.
The sentence reads *clearly*. My teapot pours *without spilling*.
My shirts have dried *very quickly*.

The adverbial imputes a characteristic to the referent of the subject ('Her books are of the type that are good in translation'). The construction therefore does not correspond to a transitive construction. For example, *Tom translates her books well* imputes the characteristic to Tom and not to the books ('He is a good translator of her books'). The same imputation applies even when an adverbial, though usual, may be omitted. Thus *My books sell well* implies that the selling well is not being necessarily ascribed to the effect of an agent of the selling.

In some cases the *SV* clause may diverge from a corresponding SVO_d clause when an optional adverbial is added if an agent is required only for the initiation of the action:

The water is boiling *vigorously*.
≠ Someone is boiling the water *vigorously*.
The water has been boiling *for five minutes*.
≠ Someone has been boiling the water *for five minutes*.

The boundary between agentive and affected subjects depends on whether an element of causation or volition is present. Some verbs allow both interpretations: *Suddenly he jumped* might suggest an involuntary action (*eg* after being stung by a wasp) or a deliberate one. A purpose adverbial (*eg: in order to attract attention*) or a volitional adverbial (*eg: deliberately, on purpose*) can be added only to the agentive type. The subject must be agentive in, for example, *Jack fell down on purpose*.

One of the reasons for distinguishing the roles is that we generally cannot coordinate subjects with different roles. We can say *The gamekeeper wounded him* (agentive subject) and *A gun wounded him* (instrumental subject), but not **The gamekeeper and a gun wounded him*. Coordination is possible if two events are involved, as in the combination of external causer and agentive in *Hurricanes and marauding bands devastated the region* (*at different times*). On the other hand, when an instrument or external causer is the subject of a transitive verb it acquires metaphorically some notion of agency. We can

therefore occasionally find combinations where the same event seems to be involved: *Clumsy musicians and poor instruments* (*together*) *spoiled the performance of the symphony*.

Note [a] The role of external causer has also been termed 'force'.
[b] The tendency towards a metaphorical perception of agentiveness in nonagentive subjects, as used in everyday language, is conspicuous in examples such as *Guns kill; Matches start fires; A car drove by; The door refused to open*.
[c] A different analysis allows more than one role for one element and allows for the repetition of the same role in one clause. In one such analysis, the external causer and affected roles can be combined with the agentive role. Here are examples of such an analysis:
Hurricanes [external causer] devastated the region [affected].
Marauding bands [agentive/external causer] devastated the region [affected].
The soldiers [agentive/external causer] paraded.
The warden [agentive/external causer] paraded the prisoners [agentive/affected].
Where two agentives cooccur in the same clause, the first has sometimes been distinguished as the 'initiator' of the action.
[d] The situation described with an agentive subject may be the result of an implied action: *She blew a fuse* ['She did something which caused a fuse to blow.'], *He burnt the food*.
[e] Animate subjects of copular verbs followed by an emotive complement might be assigned the role of 'experiencer':
The workers are angry. He is unhappy.
The same applies to animate subjects of certain transitive verbs used in nonvolitional sense:
I've hurt my knee. ['My knee is hurt.']
Here *I* is experiencer and *my knee* affected.
[f] In *The kettle's boiling*, the affected subject is related by metonymy to *The water's boiling*.

10.22 There is sometimes a regular relation, in terms of clause function, between transitive verbs expressing CAUSATIVE meaning and corresponding intransitive verbs or adjectives. In the first three groups below, the subject may be agent, external causer, or instrument; in the last group, it is agent.

(i)	*SVO*	*SV*
	Tom is cooking the dinner.	The dinner is cooking.
	Geoffrey/The wind/My key opened the door.	The door opened.
	Brenda is improving her writing.	Her writing is improving.
(ii)	*SVO*	*SV*
	Someone raised an arm.	An arm rose.
	The frost has killed the flowers.	The flowers have died.
	My axe has felled that tree.	That tree has fallen.
(iii)	*SVO*	*SVC*
	They have dimmed the lights.	The lights became dim.
	The sun (almost) blinded him.	He (almost) went blind.
	His manner angered me.	I got angry.
(iv)	*SVO*	*SV*
	The sergeant paraded the company.	The company paraded.
	I am exercising my dog.	My dog is exercising.

While in many cases (Group (i)) the identical verb performs both transitive and intransitive roles without a change of form, in other cases (Group (ii)) the intransitive verb has to be replaced by another verb, which may resemble

it in spelling and pronunciation. In Group (iii), an adjective X is matched by a causative verb (of the same, or slightly different, form) with the meaning to 'cause to be X'. Group (iv), on the other hand, shows that the subject of an intransitive verb may itself be agentive, in which case the switch to a causative construction may entail changing the role of the subject to affected. Thus, *He paraded the soldiers* does not necessarily imply any volition on the part of the soldiers; rather, it suggests the opposite.

In Groups (i–ii) the intransitive subject of the *SV* type generally has the affected role. In the sentence *The dinner is cooking*, however, *the dinner* is resultant, as in the object of *Tom is cooking the dinner* (*cf* 10.28). Other examples of resultant subject:

The cake is baking. *A new type of camera* is developing.

Note There are some triplets showing a combination of the relations in Groups (i) and (ii); *eg*: *open* (adjective); *open* (intransitive verb) [='become open']; *open* (transitive verb) [='cause to be open'].

Recipient subject

10.23 The subject may have a recipient role with verbs such as *have, own, possess, benefit (from)*, as is indicated by the following relation:

Mr Smith has given his son a radio. [So now his son has a radio.]

The perceptual verbs *see* and *hear* also require a recipient subject, in contrast to *look at* and *listen to*, which are agentive. The other perceptual verbs *taste, smell,* and *feel* have both an agentive meaning corresponding to *look at* and a recipient meaning corresponding to *see*:

Foolishly, he tasted the soup. [1]
*Foolishly, he tasted the pepper in the soup. [1a]

The adverb *foolishly* requires the agentive; hence [1a], which can only be understood in a nonagentive manner, does not make sense. *The soup* in [2] has the affected role, just as in [1]:

The soup tasted good. [2]

Verbs indicating cognition or emotion may also require a recipient subject:

I thought you were mistaken. [*cf*: It seemed to me you were mistaken.]
I liked the play. [*cf*: The play pleased me/gave me pleasure.]

Normally, recipient subjects go with verbs used statively (*cf* 4.28*ff*). Some of them (notably *have* and *possess*) have no passive form (*cf* 10.14): *They have a beautiful house*, but not **A beautiful house is had by them.*

Note [a] A passive form of HAVE occasionally occurs in idioms: *A good time was had by all*; *Have you ever been had?* ⟨informal⟩ [=tricked; also with sexual meaning]. *Possess* has a passive in *He was possessed by the fear that she would leave him.*
[b] Alternatively, subjects with perceptual, cognitive, and emotive verbs might be assigned the role of 'experiencer' (*cf* 10.21 Note [e]).

Positioner subject

10.24 The subject may have the role of POSITIONER with intransitive stance verbs (*cf* 4.23) such as *sit, stand, lie, live* ['dwell'], *stay, remain*, and with transitive

verbs related to stance verbs such as *carry, hold, keep, wear*. The transitive verbs are causative and the direct objects that follow them have an affected role. In this positioner role the participant is in control, but the situation is not resultative in that no change is indicated in the positioner during the period in which the situation lasts:

I have lived in London most of my life. *The hijacker* was holding a revolver.
They are staying at a motel. *He* kept himself upright.
My friend is sitting in a chair near the door.

Contrast the role of subjects in these two sentences:

Your sister [positioner] is lying on the bed. [stance]
Your book [affected] is lying on the bed. [state]

Note [a] As with the agentive type, a purpose adverbial (*to rest*) or a volitional adverbial (*reluctantly*) can be added to the positioner type.
[b] *Sit down* is a punctual verb. *Sit* may also be an action verb when it is used in the same sense as *sit down*, in which case the subject is agentive.
[c] Contrast the three uses of *hold* in these sentences:
Carol was holding a passenger's arm. [1]
They were holding the passengers against their will. [2]
Do *you* hold a British passport? [3]
In [1] *hold* ['keep in grasp'] is a transitive verb related to stance verbs and *Carol* is positioner; in [2], *hold* ['detain'] is an activity verb and *they* is agentive; and in [3] *hold* ['have'] is a verb denoting relation and *you* is recipient (*cf* 10.23). In *Mary held a New Zealand passport*, *hold* is ambiguous between the meanings in [1] and [3] and therefore *Mary* may be either positioner or recipient.

Locative, temporal, and eventive subjects

10.25 The subject may have the LOCATIVE role of designating the place of the state or action, or the TEMPORAL role of designating its time:

Los Angeles is foggy. ['It's foggy in Los Angeles.']
My tent sleeps four people. ['Four people can sleep in my tent.']
This path is swarming with ants. ['Ants are swarming all over this path.']
This jar contains coffee. ['There's coffee in this jar.']
Yesterday was a holiday. ['It was a holiday yesterday.']

Verbs following locative subjects normally have no passive or progressive form:

The bag holds seven pounds.
~ *Seven pounds are held by the bag.
~ *The bag is holding seven pounds.

An important role of the subject is EVENTIVE. The noun at the head of the noun phrase is commonly deverbal (*cf* App. I.47) or a nominalization (*cf* 17.51):

The match is tomorrow.
The Norman invasion took place in 1066.
The explosion caused many casualties.

The dispute over the inheritance lasted a decade.
There has been *an accident*.

Prop *it* subject

10.26 There are clauses in which no participant is required. In such cases, the subject function may be assumed by the 'prop' word *it* (*cf* 6.17), which has little or no semantic content.

Prop *it* mainly occurs in clauses signifying (a) time, (b) atmospheric conditions, and (c) distance:

(a) *time*

It's ten o'clock precisely.
It's very late.
It's our wedding anniversary next month.
It's already midnight.
It's Sunday tomorrow.

(b) *atmospheric conditions*

It's too windy in Chicago.
It's very hot in here.
Is it raining?
It's getting dark.
It was sunny yesterday.
It's freezing outside.

(c) *distance*

It's not very far to York.
It's a long way to Denver.
It's just one more stop to Toronto.
It's only a hundred miles from here to Philadelphia.

In many cases a clause with prop *it* subject corresponds to a clause in which a locative or temporal phrase is the subject (*cf* 10.25). The correspondence applies for the (a) set when the subject complement refers to a period of time and an adverbial is present that is a noun phrase:

It's Sunday tomorrow. [1]
~Tomorrow is Sunday. [1a]

Sentences [1] and [1a] differ from the seemingly analogous [2] and [2a]:

It's our wedding anniversary next month. [2]
~Next month is our wedding anniversary. [2a]

The difference is clearer for [1a] and [2a]. In [1a] *tomorrow* is identified as *Sunday*, the latter having the function of subject complement and the role of identifying attribute. In [2a], on the other hand, *next month* appears to be a fronted adverbial with consequent subject–verb inversion ('Our wedding anniversary takes place next month', *cf*: *Our wedding anniversary is in January*. ~ *In January is our wedding anniversary*.)

With one type of exception, the correspondence also applies for the (b) set when an adverbial is present that is a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase containing a noun phrase:

It's too windy in Chicago. ~ Chicago is too windy.
It was sunny yesterday. ~ Yesterday was sunny.

The exception is when the verb is not a copula (for example, *rain* or *snow*):

It's raining in Manchester. ~ *Manchester is raining.

The correspondence generally applies for the (c) set:

It's not far to York.
~York is not far.
It's only a hundred miles from here to Philadelphia.
~Philadelphia is only a hundred miles from here.

The (c) set readily allows prepositional phrases as subject (*cf* 10.15):

To York is not very far.
From here to Philadelphia is only a hundred miles.

Note [a] Prop *it* has also been termed 'ambient' *it*, in accordance with the view that it has some generalized reference to the environment in a given context. Thus, we can use *it* for a more restricted environment in *It's too muddy to walk*. In clauses of time and weather the environment may be general and unspecified, but it may be specified by a locative or temporal phrase, as in *It was very chilly in my bedroom* or in some of the examples given above. Another term for prop *it* is 'expletive' *it*, the term indicating the view that this *it* merely fills a syntactic gap (that of subject) and is otherwise meaningless.
[b] On other uses of *it* as a personal pronoun, *cf* 6.15*f*. The prop subject *it* here should be distinguished from the anticipatory *it* of sentences like *It was a great pleasure to see you again* (*cf* 18.33*ff*), where *it* has cataphoric reference to a postponed clausal subject (*To see you again was a great pleasure*).

Locative object

10.27 We turn now to roles of the direct object. The most typical role of the direct object, that of the affected participant, has been mentioned in 10.19. The direct object may have a LOCATIVE role with such verbs as *walk*, *swim*, *pass*, *jump*, *turn*, *leave*, *reach*, *surround*, *cross*, *climb* (*cf* further examples in 9.31):

We walked *the streets*. ['We walked *through* the streets.']
She swam *the river*. ['She swam *across* the river.']
He passed *a cyclist*. ['He passed *by* a cyclist.']
The horse jumped *the fence*. ['The horse jumped *over* the fence.']

Superficially, these objects may seem to be adverbials with an omitted preposition (*cf*: *We stayed three days*, 9.40*ff*). In most cases their status as objects is clear, however, from their ability to assume subject role in a corresponding passive clause, *eg*: *The fence was jumped by the horse*.

Note [a] We should include here locative objects after such verbs as *occupy* and *inhabit*, where no preposition can be inserted:
We occupy *a spacious apartment*.
They had inhabited *the island* for over a century.
BrE may have a locative object after *visit*:
They are visiting *Amsterdam*.
AmE, on the other hand, restricts the direct object to personal reference, and requires *visit in* for places. In informal AmE, *visit with* is used in the meaning 'chat with':
I was *visiting with* Carol yesterday outside the bank.
[b] A related category of object consists of phrases of extent (*He ran a mile*; *cf* 10.13).

Resultant object

10.28 A RESULTANT object is an object whose referent exists only by virtue of the activity indicated by the verb:

Baird invented *television*. They are designing *a new car*.
John has painted *a new picture*. She made *a fire*.
I'm writing *a letter*. I baked *a cake*.

With an agentive subject and an affected object, one may always capture part of the meaning of a clause (*eg*: *X destroyed Y*) by saying 'X did something to Y'; but this does not apply to a resultant object: *Baird invented television* does not imply 'Baird did something to television'. Contrast the affected object in *I'm digging the ground* with the resultant object in *I'm digging a hole*.

In one type of resultant object, the activity recreates the referent:

She acted *the part of Ophelia*. They are playing *the Egmont Overture*.

Note [a] Other terms for the resultant object are 'object of result' and 'effected object'.
[b] We should distinguish between *I baked a cake*, where *a cake* is resultant, and *I baked some potatoes*, where *some potatoes* is affected. Contrast similarly:
She cooked *a meal*. [resultant]
She cooked *some carrots*. [affected]
He's frying *an omelet*. [resultant]
He's frying *an egg*. [affected]
[c] In some cases it may be unclear whether the activity creates or recreates the referent:
Janet told me *a joke*.

Cognate object

10.29 A COGNATE object is similar to a resultant object in that it refers to an event indicated by the verb:

Chris will sing *a song* for us. She lived *a good life*.
They fought *a clean fight*. He breathed *his last breath*.
He died *a miserable death*.

In this type of object, the noun head is semantically and often morphologically related to the verb. The object can therefore not be considered a participant. Its semantic function is to repeat, wholly or partially, the meaning of the verb. Most cognate objects tend to convey a rather orotund style.

The noun is generally modified. The verb and the object are then equivalent to the verb and a corresponding adverbial:

They fought *a clean fight*. They fought *cleanly*.

Note [a] The object of *ran a race* might also be classed as a cognate object, although it is like a locative object in being replaceable by a prepositional phrase: *ran in a race*.
[b] There are rare cases in which it is the meaning of the subject that is presupposed by the verb: *The frost froze hard*, *Day dawned*, *The wind is blowing*.

Eventive object

10.30 A frequent type of object generally takes the form of a deverbal noun preceded by a common verb of general meaning, such as *do*, *give*, *have*, *make*, *take*. This EVENTIVE object (*cf* 10.25) is semantically an extension of the verb and bears the major part of the meaning. Compare:

They *are arguing*. [verb only]
They *are having an argument*. [verb + eventive object]

The more frequent eventive object can sometimes be related to a cognate object in that it substitutes for the major lexical meaning of the verb whereas the cognate object repeats the lexical meaning. Compare:

They *fought for a long time*. [verb + adverbial]
They *fought a long fight*. [verb + cognate object]
They *had a long fight*. [verb + eventive object]

The construction with the eventive object provides greater weight than the corresponding *SV* type, especially if there are no optional adverbials, and is often preferred to the *SV* construction in informal English.

Some noun heads in eventive objects are not derived from verbs. For example there is no verb *effort*, although *an effort* is eventive in *I'm making an effort*, and whereas *work* in *He did some work* is deverbal, there is no related verb for *homework* in *He did some homework*; other examples: *have a game*, *have a haircut*, *make fun* (*of*), *make peace* (*with*), (*cf*: *make war* (*on*)). In some instances, the verb is not normally used intransitively: *I made a mistake/an attempt/a correction*. In other instances, the combination clearly does not have the same meaning as the verb alone, *eg*: *make love* (*to*), *take trouble* (*over*), *make a difference*. In a few instances, the combination has (or may have) a passive meaning, particularly with *have*:

I had a fright. ['I was frightened.']
The baby's having a bath. ['The baby is being bathed.']
I'll have a shampoo, if I may. ['I want my hair to be shampooed.']
He took offence at my remarks. ['He was offended by my remarks.']

Here are some common collocations of verb and eventive object where the noun heads in the object are derived from verbs:

DO a dance, a dive, a drawing, a left/right turn, a report, a sketch, a somersault, a translation, some work

Verbal nouns are commonly used as objects, *eg*:

some cleaning, some drawing, some knitting, some painting, some repairing, some sewing, some thinking, some writing

GET a glance (at), a look (at), a shot at ⟨informal⟩, a view (of)

GIVE advice, an answer, a cheer, consideration (to), a cough, a cry, a definition, a description, encouragement, an explanation, help (to), a kick, a kiss, a laugh, a nod, permission, a push, a reply, a sigh, a smile, a wash, a wave

HAVE an argument, a bash ⟨informal⟩, a bath, a bite ⟨informal⟩, a chat ⟨informal⟩, a dream, a drink, an effect, a fight, a guess ⟨esp BrE⟩, a holiday ⟨esp BrE⟩, an influence (on/over), a lie down ⟨informal BrE⟩, a look (at), a meeting, a nap ⟨informal⟩, a quarrel, a rest, a seat, a shave, a shower, a sleep, a smoke, a swim, a talk, a taste, a walk, a wash

MAKE an accusation (against), an agreement (with), allowances (for), an attack (on), a bargain (with), a call (on), a choice, a comment, a contribution (to), a copy (of), a criticism (of), a decision, a discovery (that), an escape, a fuss, a guess, (an) inquiry (into/of), an impression (on), an improvement (on), an investigation (into/of), a note (of), an objection (to), an observation (that), an offer (that), a payment, a promise (that), a proposal (that), a recommendation (that), a reduction in, a reference to, a report (on), a request (that/for), a start, a suggestion, a turn, use of

OFFER an apology, one's resignation, a suggestion

PAY attention (to), a call (on), a visit (to)

PUT emphasis on, an end to, a question to, a stop to

TAKE a bath, a bite ⟨informal⟩, a breath, care (of), a dislike to, a dive, a drink, a glance (at), a guess, a look (at), a nap, (a) note (of), notice (of), offence (at), a photograph (of), pity (on), a rest, a risk, a seat, a shower, a shave, a sleep, a smoke, a swim, a vacation ⟨esp AmE⟩, a walk, a wash

It will be noticed that several noun phrases collocate with both *have* and *take*. In such cases, *have* is the typical British verb and *take* is the typical American verb.

Most of the subjects in clauses with an eventive object are agentive. But some are recipient (or experiencer, 10.21 Note [e]): *Bill got a view of the candidate, I had a wonderful dream, Sally took an instant dislike to the new tenant.* Others are affected: *Saul took a fall, The team has taken a beating, At the sudden noise Bob gave a jump.* The verbs *do, make, offer, pay,* and *put* always take agentive subjects.

Note [a] *Have* can more easily take an affected subject than *take*: *The baby's having a bath* (also in AmE), generally not ?**The baby's taking a bath. Do* and *make* overlap in the eventive objects they can take, but only *do* takes *-ing* verbal nouns.
[b] The verbs *vacation* ⟨esp AmE⟩ and *holiday* ⟨esp BrE⟩ are less usual than the expanded constructions.
[c] Contrast:
She gave a shriek. [an involuntary shriek]
She had a good shriek. [voluntary and for own enjoyment]
She did a (good) shriek. [a performance before an audience]

Instrumental object

10.31 The object may occasionally be instrumental (*cf* 10.21):

We employ *a computer* for our calculations.
She is playing *the piano*.
He nodded *his head*.

Note Occasionally the notion of instrument is incorporated into the verb:
He *headed* the ball into the goal. ['He hit the ball with his head . . .']
He *kicked* the ball into the goal. ['He hit the ball with his foot . . .']
This applies to *nod*, too: *his head* in the example in the text would be implied if omitted.

Affected indirect object

10.32 The indirect object normally takes the role of recipient (*cf* 10.19, and Note [c] below). It occasionally takes an affected role with a few of the verbs that combine with an eventive object (*cf* 10.30). The most common verb in the latter construction is *give*:

She gave *me* a push. ['She pushed me.']
I gave *Helen* a nudge. ['I nudged Helen.']
We gave *the baby* a bath. ['We bathed the baby.']
I should give *the car* a wash. ['I should wash the car.']
Give *the car* a push. ['Push the car.']
Judith paid *me* a visit. ['Judith visited me.']
Derek owes *us* a treat. ['It's Derek's turn to treat us.']

The indirect object has the same role as the affected direct object in the paraphrases. Unlike the recipient indirect object, the affected indirect object is not normally paraphrasable by a prepositional phrase:

I gave *Helen* a nudge.
~ ?I gave a nudge *to Helen*.

The reason is that this type of construction is intended to focus on the nominal equivalent of the verb (*nudge* in this example) and therefore the direct object should receive end-focus (*cf* 18.3*f*).

Note [a] In this use, *give* may be compared with *get, have,* and *receive* in a parallel passive sense: *I got a surprise, The car has had a polish, I received a shock.* There is also an interesting equivalence of *They gave* (or *shot*) *each other glances* and *They exchanged glances* ['They glanced at each other.'].
[b] We should include here metaphorical uses of other verbs, where paraphrases indicate that the indirect object has an affected role: *I taught him a lesson* [roughly 'I disciplined him.'].
[c] The indirect object has the role of 'comitative' ['together with'] or perhaps 'opposition' in this example:
I played *Sam* a game of chess. ['I played a game of chess with/against Sam.']

Summary

10.33 As a summary, we present in *Table* 10.33 over page the chief semantic functions for each clause type, with example sentences. Although, as the table shows, the semantic functions of the elements (particularly S and O_d) are quite varied, there are certain clear restrictions, such as that the object cannot be agentive; a subject (except in the passive) cannot be resultative; an indirect object normally has only two functions – those of affected and recipient. The following system of priorities generally obtains:

If there is an agentive, external causer, or positioner, it is S; if not,
If there is an instrument, it is S; if not,
If there is an affected, it is S; if not,
If there is a temporal, locative, or eventive, it may be S; if not,
The prop word *it* is S.

Naturally, in passive clauses the role of the direct or indirect object is assigned to the subject.

Table 10.33 Semantic roles

Type	S	O_i	O_d	C_s	C_o	A	*Example*
SVC	aff			attrib			*She's happy.*
	agent			attrib			*He turned traitor.*
	loc			attrib			*The Sahara is hot.*
	temp			attrib			*Last night was warm.*
	event			attrib			*The show was interesting.*
	it			attrib			*It's windy.*
SVA	aff					loc	*He was at school.*
	agent					loc	*She got into the car.*
	pos					loc	*He is lying on the floor.*
	event					temp	*The meeting is at eight.*
SV	agent						*He was working.*
	pos						*She is standing.*
	aff						*The curtains disappeared.*
	ext						*The wind is blowing.*
	it						*It's raining.*
SVO	agent		aff				*He threw the ball.*
	ext		aff				*Lightning struck the house.*
	pos		aff				*He is holding a knife.*
	instr		aff				*The stone broke the window.*
	recip		aff				*She has a car.*
	agent		recip				*We paid the bus driver.*
	instr		recip				*The will benefits us all.*
	agent		loc				*They climbed the mountain.*
	loc		aff				*The bus seats thirty.*
	agent		cog				*They fought a clean fight.*
	agent		result				*I wrote a letter.*
	agent		event				*They had an argument.*
	agent		instr				*He nodded his head.*
SVOC	agent		aff		attrib		*He declared her the winner.*
	ext		aff		attrib		*The sun turned it yellow.*
	instr		aff		attrib		*The revolver made him afraid.*
	recip		aff		attrib		*I found it strange.*
SVOA	agent		aff			loc	*He placed it on the shelf.*
	ext		aff			loc	*The storm drove the ship ashore.*
	instr		aff			loc	*A car knocked it down.*
	recip		aff			loc	*I prefer them on toast.*
SVOO	agent	recip	aff				*I bought her a gift.*
	agent	aff	event				*She gave the door a kick.*
	agent	recip	result				*She knitted me a sweater.*

KEY: aff(ected), agent(ive), attrib(ute), cog(nate), event(ive), ext(ernal causer), instr(ument), (prop) *it*, loc(ative), pos(itioner), recip(ient), result(ant), temp(oral)

Subject–verb concord

General rule

10.34 CONCORD (also termed 'agreement') can be defined as the relationship between two grammatical units such that one of them displays a particular feature (*eg* plurality) that accords with a displayed (or semantically implicit) feature in the other. The most important type of concord in English is concord of 3rd person number between subject and verb. The normally observed rule is very simple:

A singular subject requires a singular verb:

My daughter *watches* television after supper. [singular subject + singular verb]

A plural subject requires a plural verb:

My daughters *watch* television after supper. [plural subject + plural verb]

When the subject is realized by a noun phrase, the phrase counts as singular if its head is singular:

The CHANGE *in male attitudes* is most obvious in industry.
The CHANGES *in male attitude* are most obvious in industry.

Finite and nonfinite clauses generally count as singular:

How you got there *does*n't concern me.
To treat them as hostages *is* criminal.
Smoking cigarettes *is* dangerous to your health.

Prepositional phrases and adverbs functioning as subject (*cf* 10.15) also count as singular:

In the evenings *is* best for me. Slowly *does* it!

An apparent exception for clauses is the nominal relative clause. Nominal relative clauses are on the continuum from clause to noun phrase (*cf* 15.8*f*). For the purpose of concord, their number depends on the interpretation of the number of the *wh*-element. With the determiners *what* and *whatever*, the concord depends on the number of the determined noun. Contrast [3] and [4] below:

What were supposed to be new proposals *were* in fact modifications of earlier ones. [1]
What was once a palace *is* now a pile of rubble. [2]
Whatever book a *Times* reviewer praises *sells* well. [3]
What ideas he has *are* his wife's. [4]

A verb counts as singular if the first verb in a finite verb phrase has a singular form:

My son *has* / My sons *have* } no intention of spending a vacation with me.

A letter *has* / Two letters *have* } *been sent* to every applicant.

The application of the general rule is restricted in several general respects:

(1) Except for the verb BE, the verb shows a distinction of number only in the 3rd person present. Hence, the verb generally does not show concord in the past:

My daughter / My daughters } *watched* television after supper.

The verb BE displays concord also in the 3rd person past:

My daughter *was* watching television in my bedroom.
My daughters *were* watching television in my bedroom.

(2) Number concord is displayed only in the indicative. Nonfinite verbs, imperatives, and subjunctives make no number distinctions.

(3) Modal auxiliaries (*cf* 3.39*ff*) make no number distinctions:

My daughter / My daughters } *may* watch television after supper.

Note [a] It is possible to generalize the rule of concord to 'A subject which is not clearly semantically plural requires a singular verb'; that is, to treat singular as the unmarked form, to be used in neutral circumstances, where no positive indication of plurality is present. This would explain, in addition to clausal subjects, the tendency in informal speech for *is/was* to follow the pseudo-subject *there* in existential sentences such as *There's hundreds of people on the waiting list* (*cf* 18.44*ff*). Similarly, interrogative *who* and *what* as subjects normally take a singular verb even when the speaker has reason to believe that more than one person or entity is involved: *Who is making all that noise?* However, a plural verb may be used if other words in the sentence indicate that a plural subject is expected in the answer (*Who have not received their passes?*).

On the other hand, the principle of proximity (*cf* 10.35) effects a change from singular to plural more often than the reverse, perhaps because the plural is the form that is morphologically unmarked.

[b] Apparent exceptions to the concord rule arise with singular nouns ending with the *-s* of the plural inflection (*measles, billiards, mathematics*, etc, *cf* 5.75), or conversely plural nouns lacking the inflection (*cattle, people, clergy*, etc, *cf* 5.78):

Measles *is* sometimes serious. Our people *are* complaining.

[c] Plural phrases (including coordinate phrases) count as singular if they are used as names, titles, quotations, etc (*cf* further 17.90):

Crime and Punishment is perhaps the best constructed of Dostoyevsky's novels, but *The Brothers Karamazov* is undoubtedly his masterpiece.
'The Cedars' has a huge garden.
'Senior citizens' means, in common parlance, people over sixty.

Such noun phrases can be regarded as appositive structures with an implied singular head: *the book 'Crime and Punishment', the expression 'senior citizens'*. The titles of some works that are collections of stories, etc, may be counted as either singular or plural:

The Canterbury Tales { *exists* / *exist* } in many manuscripts.

[d] On the treatment of *data, media, criteria*, and *phenomena* as singular nouns, *cf* 5.91, 5.98 Note.

[e] Zero plural nouns (*cf* 5.86) do not display number. Hence, when they are subject and the verb is a modal or simple past, number differences manifest themselves only covertly through pronoun reference (*cf* covert gender, 5.104):

The sheep jumped over the fence, didn't { *it*? / *they*? }

[f] It is a peculiarity of English that *-s* is the regular inflection for singular in the verb but for plural in the noun.

Principles of grammatical concord, notional concord, and proximity

10.35 The rule that the verb matches its subject in number may be called the principle of GRAMMATICAL CONCORD. Difficulties over concord arise through occasional conflict between this and two other principles: the principle of NOTIONAL CONCORD and the principle of PROXIMITY.

Notional concord is agreement of verb with subject according to the notion of number rather than with the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that notion. In British English, for example, collective nouns such as *government* are often treated as notionally plural:

The government *have* broken all *their* promises. ⟨BrE⟩

In this example, the plural notion is signalled not only by the plural verb *have*, but also by the pronoun *their*.

The principle of proximity, also termed 'attraction', denotes agreement of the verb with a closely preceding noun phrase in preference to agreement with the head of the noun phrase that functions as subject:

?*No one* except his own supporters *agree* with him.

The preceding plural noun *supporters* has influenced the choice of the plural verb *agree*, although the subject *No one except his own supporters* is grammatically singular, since the head *no one* is singular. On the other hand, the proximity principle is here reinforced by notional concord ('Only his own supporters agree with him'), making the sentence somewhat more acceptable than if the proximity principle alone applied. The choice of the verb may also be influenced by preceding coordinated noun phrases, even if they are singular:

?*A good *knowledge* of English, Russian, and French *are* required for this position.

Conflict between grammatical concord and attraction through proximity tends to increase with the distance between the noun phrase head of the subject and the verb, for example when the postmodifier is lengthy or when an adverbial or a parenthesis intervenes between the subject and the verb. Proximity concord occurs mainly in unplanned discourse. In writing it will be corrected to grammatical concord if it is noticed.

The three principles and their interaction will be illustrated below in three areas where concord causes some problems: where the subject contains (a) a collective noun head; (b) coordination; and (c) an indefinite expression.

English speakers are often uncertain about the rules of concord. Prescriptive teaching has insisted rather rigidly on grammatical concord, with the result that people often experience a conflict between this rule and the rule of notional concord, which tends to prevail over it. When the proximity principle is followed in defiance of the other principles, the result is likely to be condemned as an error.

Note [a] The principle of notional concord accounts for the common use of a singular with subjects that are plural noun phrases of quantity or measure. The entity expressed by the noun phrase is viewed as a single unit:

Ten dollars *is* all I have left. ['That amount is . . .']
Fifteen years *represents* a long period of his life. ['That period is . . .']
Two miles *is* as far as they can walk. ['That distance is . . .']
Two thirds of the area *is* under water. ['That area is . . .']
Cf: Sixty people means a huge party. ['That number of people means . . .']

[b] We also find a type of number concord at the phrase level in that certain determiners agree in number with their noun heads *that idea, those ideas.* There are apparent exceptions with measure noun phrases:

that five *dollars* (also: *those* five dollars) — *every* few *miles*
this last two *weeks* (also: *these* last two weeks) — *each* ten *ounces*
another two *days* — *another* five *per cent*
a happy three *months*

A few and *a good many* function as units:
a good many friends — a few days

[c] Grammatical concord is usually obeyed for *more than* and *many a*, though it may conflict with notional concord:

More than a thousand inhabitants *have* signed the petition. [1]
More than one member *has* protested against the proposal. [2]
Many a member *has* protested against the proposal. [3]

Although the subject is notionally plural in [2] and [3], the singular is preferred because *member* is analysed as head of the noun phrase. Contrast:

More members than one / Many members } *have* protested against the proposal.

Collective nouns and notional concord

10.36 Singular collective nouns may be notionally plural. In BrE the verb may be either singular or plural:

The audience *were* enjoying every minute of it. [1]
The public *are* tired of demonstrations. [2]
England *have* won the cup. [3]
Our Planning Committee *have* considered your request. [4]

The choice between singular or plural verbs depends in BrE on whether the group is being considered as a single undivided body, or as a collection of individuals. Thus, in BrE plural is more likely in [1] than singular, because attention is directed at the individual reactions of members of the audience. On the other hand, the singular is more likely in these sentences:

The audience *was* enormous. [1a]
The public *consists* of you and me. [2a]
The crowd *has* been dispersed. [5]

In contrast to [1a], *The audience were enormous* might be interpreted to refer to an audience of enormous people. On the whole, the plural is more popular in speech, whereas in the more inhibited medium of writing the singular is probably preferred. It is generally safer in BrE to use the singular verb where there is doubt, in obedience to grammatical concord.

AmE generally treats singular collective nouns as singular. Terms for the government and for sports teams are nearly always treated as singular in AmE, but other terms may (less commonly than in BrE) take plural verbs:

The administration *has* announced its plans for stimulating the economy.
America *has* won the cup.
The public *has* a right to know. [also in AmE: The public *have* a right to know.]

But, as in BrE, plural pronouns are often used in AmE to refer to singular collective nouns:

The committee *has* not yet decided how *they* should react to the Governor's letter.

Note [a] If the collective noun subject occurs in the plural, the verb is of course plural in both BrE and AmE: *The various committees are now meeting to discuss your proposal.*
[b] When a noun referring to a collection of people has plural concord, the pronouns for which it is antecedent tend to be *who/whom/they/them* rather than *which/it*. Compare:
a family *who quarrel* amongst *themselves*
a family *which dates* back to the Norman Conquest
[c] *Couple* in the sense of two persons normally has a plural verb even in AmE: *The couple are happily married.* When it denotes a unit, the singular verb is used: *Each couple was asked to complete a form.*

Coordinated subject

Coordination with *and*

10.37 When a subject consists of two or more noun phrases (or clauses) coordinated by *and*, a distinction has to be made between coordination and coordinative apposition (*cf* 10.39).

Coordination comprises cases that correspond to fuller coordinate forms. A plural verb is used even if each conjoin is singular:

Tom and Alice *are* now ready. ['Tom is now ready and Alice is now ready.']
What I say and what I think *are* my own affair. ['What I say is my own affair and what I think is my own affair'; but *cf*: *What I say and do is my own affair*, 10.38]

A plural verb is similarly required in asyndetic coordination (without a coordinator):

His camera, his radio, his money *were* confiscated by the customs officials.

Conjoins expressing a mutual relationship (*cf* 13.60), even though they can only indirectly be treated as reductions of clauses in this way, also take a plural verb:

Your problem and mine *are* similar. ['Your problem is similar to mine and mine is similar to yours.']
What I say and do *are* two different things. ['What I say is one thing and what I do is another thing.']

Note [a] If a singular noun phrase is followed by *etc* and similar abbreviatory expressions (*and so on, and so forth*), a plural verb is normal:
The size etc *are* less important for our purposes.
[b] Preposed *each* or *every* has a distributive effect and requires a singular verb:
Every adult and every child *was* holding a flag.
Each senator and congressman *was* allocated two seats.
Contrast:
Each of them *has* signed the petition. — They *have* each signed the petition.

[c] The coordination markers *respective* and *respectively* (*cf* 13.62*f*) occur in coordination, but not in coordinative apposition.
[d] The principle of notional concord explains:
The hammer and sickle *was* flying from the flagpole.
Danish bacon and eggs *makes* a good solid English breakfast.
The Bat and Ball *sells* good beer.
Despite the coordination, the subject names a single flag, a single meal, and a single pub respectively. Contrast:
Danish bacon and eggs *sell* very well in London.
[e] Arithmetical sums may be used with a singular or plural verb:

Two and two $\left\{\begin{matrix} is \\ are \end{matrix}\right\}$ four.

So also *Ten times five is* (or *are*) *fifty*; *Two fives make* (or *makes*) *ten*. But *Two fives are ten*; *Ten minus two is eight*; *Ten into fifty is five*.

Coordination within a singular subject

10.38 A singular noncount noun head may be premodified by phrases coordinated by *and*. As subject, the resulting noun phrase may imply two (or more) separate sentences, and may then be legitimately followed by a plural verb:

American and Dutch beer *are* (both) much lighter than British beer.
['American beer is . . . and Dutch beer is . . .']
White and brown sugar *are* (equally) acceptable for this recipe.

But a singular verb is often used in this context, and is required when the phrases are postmodifying:

Beer from America and Holland *is* much lighter than British beer.

When the subject is a nominal relative clause, coordination reduction allows some variation in number interpretation:

What I say and do *are* my own affair. ['What I say is . . . and what I do . . .'; *cf* 10.37]
What I say and do *is* my own affair. ['That which I say and do . . .']

A generic noun phrase with a singular count head requires a plural verb when the head is premodified and the premodification contains coordination by *and*:

The short-term and (the) long-term loan *are* handled very differently by the bank.
A first-language and (a) second-language learner *share* some strategies in their acquisition of the language.

These noun phrases are notionally plural ('short-term and long-term loans'; 'first-language and second-language learners').

Coordinative apposition

10.39 With the less common COORDINATIVE APPOSITION, no reduction is implied, since each of the coordinated units has the same reference. Hence, a singular verb is required if each noun phrase is singular:

This temple of ugliness and memorial to Victorian bad taste *was* erected in the main street of the city.

The two opening noun phrases here both refer to one entity (a statue). The following example, however, could have either a singular or plural verb, depending on the meaning:

His aged servant and the subsequent editor of his collected papers $\left\{\begin{matrix} was \\ were \end{matrix}\right\}$ with him at his deathbed.

Singular *was* is used if the servant and the editor are the same person, and plural *were* if they are two different people.

Some latitude is allowed in the interpretation of abstract nouns:

Your fairness and impartiality $\left\{\begin{matrix} has \\ have \end{matrix}\right\}$ been much appreciated.

Her calmness and confidence $\left\{\begin{matrix} is \\ are \end{matrix}\right\}$ astonishing.

Law and order $\left\{\begin{matrix} has \\ have \end{matrix}\right\}$ been established.

Invoking the principle of notional concord, we may use either singular or plural, depending on whether qualities are seen as separate or as a complex unity.

Note [a] The correlatives *both . . . and . . .* (*cf* 13.35) mark coordination in subject noun phrases: *Both her calmness and her confidence are astonishing*. With subject complements they mark coordinative apposition: *She is both secretary and treasurer*. Contrast:
Both my wife and my secretary *were* there. [two persons]
She *was* both my wife and my secretary. [one person]
[b] Noun phrases are usually apposed without a coordinator. If they are subject, a singular verb is of course required if the noun phrases themselves are singular:
This temple of ugliness, a memorial to Victorian bad taste, *was* erected in the main street of the city.
[c] A repeated determiner biases the choice to plural:
Your fairness and your impartiality *have* been much appreciated.

Quasi-coordination

10.40 Subject noun phrases may be linked by quasi-coordinators (*cf* 13.103), *ie* prepositions (such as *along with*, *rather than*, and *as well as*) that are semantically similar to coordinators. Grammatical concord requires a singular verb if the first noun phrase is singular:

The captain, as well as the other players, *was* tired.
One speaker after another *was* complaining about the lack of adequate sanitation.

Occasionally the principle of notional concord (sometimes combined with the proximity principle) prompts the plural, especially in loosely expressed speech:

?One man with his wife, both looking very anxious, *were* pleading with a guard to let them through.
?The President, together with his advisors, *are* preparing a statement on the crisis.

If an adverbial is attached to a second noun phrase linked to the first noun phrase by *and*, the construction is considered parenthetic, and grammatical concord similarly requires the verb to agree in number with the first noun phrase:

A writer, and sometimes an artist, *is* invited to address the society.
The ambassador – and perhaps his wife too – *is* likely to be present.

The same grammatical rule applies when the second phrase is negative, whether or not linked by *and*, though here the principle of notional concord reinforces the use of the singular:

The Prime Minister, (and) not the monarch, *decides* government policy.

Coordination with *or* and *nor*

10.41 The rules are different for subject phrases or clauses which are coordinated with (*either* . . .) *or*:

Either the Mayor or her deputy { *is* / **are* } bound to come. [1]

What I say or what I think { *is* / **are* } no business of yours. [2]

Either the strikers or the bosses { **has* / *have* } misunderstood the claim. [3]

Either your brakes or your eyesight { *is* / ?*are* } at fault. [4]

Either your eyesight or your brakes { *are* / ?*is* } at fault. [5]

All these involve nonappositional coordination. Grammatical concord is clear when each member of the coordination has the same number: when they are both singular (as in [1] and [2]), the verb is singular; when they are both plural (as in [3]), the verb is plural. A dilemma arises when one member is singular and the other plural (as in [4] and [5]). Notionally, *or* is disjunctive, so that each member is separately related to the verb rather than the two members being considered one unit, as when the coordinator is additive *and*. Since the dilemma is not clearly resolvable by the principles of grammatical concord or notional concord, recourse is generally had to the principle of proximity: whichever phrase comes last determines the number of the verb, as in [4] and [5].

Where the disjunctive force is weak and *or* approaches the meaning of *and*, the plural verb is sometimes found with singular subject phrases, especially in informal usage:

Jogging or swimming { *is* / ?*are* } supposed to be good for the heart.

When *or* is used for coordinative apposition (*cf* 10.39), grammatical concord requires the number of the verb to agree with the first appositive if the two appositives differ in number:

The hero, or main protagonist, *is* Major Coleman.
The hawks, or bellicose officials, *are* in the ascendancy.
Gobbledygook, or the circumlocutions of bureaucratic language, *is* intentionally difficult to understand.
The circumlocutions of bureaucratic language, or gobbledygook, *are* intentionally difficult to understand.

The rules for the negative correlatives *neither* . . . *nor* are the same as for *either* . . . *or* in formal usage. In less formal usage, they are treated more like *and* for concord. Thus, [6] is more natural in speech than [7]:

Neither he nor his wife *have* arrived. [6]
Neither he nor his wife *has* arrived. [7]

This preference is probably connected with the use of the plural verb with *neither* as a determiner or pronoun (*cf* 10.42), but it may also reflect notional concord in that logically 'neither X nor Y' can be interpreted as a union of negatives: 'both (not-X) and (not-Y)'.

If the number alternatives for the verb are both felt to be awkward, speakers may avoid making a choice by postposing the second noun phrase or sometimes by substituting a modal auxiliary (*cf* 10.44):

Either your brakes are at fault *or your eyesight is*.
He hasn't arrived, *nor has his wife*.
Either your brakes or your eyesight *may* be at fault.

Note [a] The coordinating correlatives *not* . . . *but* and *not only/just/merely* . . . *but* (*also/even*) behave like *or* with respect to number concord:
Not only he but his wife *has* arrived.
Not (only) one but all of us *were* invited.
Not just the students but even their teacher *is* enjoying the film.
Where the noun phrases differ in number, the principle of proximity determines the concord.
[b] The mixed expressions *one or two* and *between one and two* follow the principle of proximity in having plural concord:
One or two reasons *were* suggested.
Similarly *one and* plus a fraction or percentage has plural concord, since the notion of plural applies not to at least two but to more than one:
One and a half years *have* passed since we last met.
The selection of the plural is reinforced also by the principle of proximity. But note:
A year and a half *has* passed.
The conjoint phrase is treated like 'a period of a year and a half', though the singular verb may be reinforced by the immediately preceding *a half*.

Indefinite expressions as subject

10.42 Another area of ambivalence for subject–verb number concord is that of indefinite expressions of amount or quantity, especially with the determiners and with the pronouns *no*, *none*, *all*, *some*, *any*, and fractions such as *half*. They have both count and noncount uses.

With noncount nouns (present or implied), the verb is of course singular:

So far no money *has* been spent on repairs.
None (of the money) *has* been spent on repairs.
Some cement *has* arrived.
Some (of the cement) *has* arrived.

With plural count nouns (present or implied) the verb is plural:

No people of that name *live* here.
Some books *have* been placed on the shelves.

Some / Hardly any / All / Half } (of the books) *have* been placed on the shelves.

None with plural count nouns is in divided usage:

None (of the books) { *has* / *have* } been placed on the shelves.

Prescriptive grammars have tended to insist on the singular verb, but notional concord invites a plural verb, which tends to be more frequently used and is generally accepted even in formal usage. With *either* and *neither* the singular is generally used:

The two guests have arrived, { and either / but neither } *is* welcome.

But a plural verb sometimes occurs in informal usage when *either* or (particularly) *neither* is followed by a prepositional phrase with a plural complement, both because of notional concord and because of the proximity rule:

Either / *Neither* } of them *are* welcome. ['Both are (not) welcome.'] ⟨informal⟩

The plural is even more favoured in such constructions with *none*:

None of them *have* been placed on the shelves.

10.43 The proximity principle may lead to plural concord even with indefinites such as *each*, *every*, *everybody*, *anybody*, and *nobody* (or indefinite phrases such as *every one*, *any one*), which are otherwise unambivalently singular:

Nobody, not even the teachers, { *was* / ?*were* } listening.

Every member of the vast crowd of 50 000 people { *was* / ?*were* } pleased to see him.

Although these sentences might well be uttered in casual speech, or inadvertently written down, most people would probably regard them as ungrammatical, because they flatly contradict grammatical concord.

Other, more acceptable, instances arise with expressions involving kind and number. The number choice in the verb is usually influenced by notional concord:

These / Those } { sort / kind / type } of parties *are* dangerous. ⟨informal⟩ [1]

A (large) number of people *have* applied for the job. [2]
The majority *are* Moslems. [3]
Lots of the stuff *is* going to waste. ⟨informal⟩ [4]

[1] illustrates an idiomatic anomaly: there is a discrepancy in number between the noun and the determiner *those*, as well as with the verb. Rephrasing can avoid the anomaly:

Those kinds of parties *are* / That kind of party *is* / Parties of that kind *are* } dangerous.

[2] and [3] show seemingly singular phrases being treated as plural; notionally they are equivalent to *many* and *most*. Use of the singular in these sentences would be considered pedantic in [2], and unacceptable in [3] because of the plural complement (*cf* the pedantic but acceptable *The majority agrees with me*). The opposite phenomenon, attraction to the singular, is observed in [4] where *lots of* is treated as if equivalent to singular *plenty of* and *much of*; but the singular is also influenced by the proximity of singular *stuff*. Contrast:

Lots of people *are* coming to our party.

Notional concord ('many people') is reinforced by the proximity of plural *people*.

Note [a] For the analysis of quantifiers like *a number of*, *cf* 5.25.
[b] Determiners other than *those* or *these* are found in plural concord with the nouns in [1], *eg*: *some*, *any*. Like *a (large) number of* in [2] are locutions such as *a lot of*, *a (whole) set of*, *a spate of*, *plenty of*; analogous to *the* (or *a*) *majority* in [3] is *the* (or *a*) *minority*, and to *lots* in [4] are many other informal quantifiers, such as *loads of*, *heaps of*.
[c] The proximity principle may be extended to mean that concord is determined by whatever immediately precedes the verb, the position of the subject (which normally determines concord). The principle can then explain a singular verb in cases of inversion or of an adverbial quasi-subject: ?*Where's the scissors?*; ?*Here's John and Mary*; ?*There's several bags missing*. As what precedes the subject here is not marked for plural (*cf* 10.34 Note [a]), the singular verb follows by attraction. The occasional use of the singular verb in instances such as ?**Is the scissors on the table?* and ?**Has my glasses* ['spectacles'] *been found?* may be explained by a combination of two factors: these summation plurals (*cf* 5.76) are notionally singular, though morphologically and syntactically plural; since the verb precedes the subject, the influence of the subject on number is somewhat reduced. Compare the greater unacceptability of **My glasses has been found*. All these are colloquial examples; in formal English plural forms of the verb would be substituted.
[d] If a relative clause follows a noun phrase containing *one of* plus a plural noun phrase, there is often a choice as to whether the verb in the relative clause should agree in number with *one* or with the plural noun phrase:
He's one of those students who never *get(s)* a piece of work done on time.
The choice of singular or plural can depend on whether attention is directed to the generality or to the uniqueness. Compare:
Charlatanry is one of the many words in English that *are* of French origin.
[=Of the many words in English that *are* of French origin, *charlatanry* is one.]
Charlatanry is one of the common vices that *is* particularly contemptible.
[=Of the common vices, charlatanry is one that *is* particularly contemptible.]

Concord of person

10.44 In addition to 3rd person number concord with the subject, the verb in the present tense may have person concord (*cf* 3.2, 3.52) with the subject – 1st

and 3rd person concord with BE and only 3rd person concord with other verbs:

I *am* your friend. [1st PERSON SINGULAR CONCORD]

He *is* your friend.
He *knows* you. } [3rd PERSON SINGULAR CONCORD]

Are is the unmarked form for the present of BE with persons other than 1st and 3rd singular; in all other verbs the base form is used in the present for persons other than the 3rd singular. Only the past of BE has further distinctions:

I *was* your friend.
He *was* your friend. } [1st and 3rd PERSON SINGULAR CONCORD]

The unmarked past form of BE – *were* – is used with the 2nd person singular and all the plural persons. Like number concord, person concord applies only to the indicative; the subjunctive has one form for all persons.

A coordinate subject with *and* as coordinator requires a plural verb. Person concord does not apply, since there are no person distinctions in the plural (*You and I know the answer*; *She and I are in charge*). If the coordinator is *or*, *either . . . or*, or *neither . . . nor*, in accordance with the principle of proximity the last noun phrase determines the person of the verb:

Neither you, nor I, nor anyone else *knows* the answer.
Either my wife or I *am* going.

Because of the awkwardness of this choice, a speaker may avoid it by using a modal auxiliary which is invariable for person (*eg*: *Either my wife or I will be going*) or by postposing the last noun phrase (*eg*: *Either my wife is going or I am*) (*cf* 10.41).

Note [a] In archaic English, there is also concord of 2nd person singular pronouns and verbs in the present and past (*cf* 6.14 Note [c]) *Thou, Lord, hast redeemed us*; *Thou didst hear my prayer*. (*Cf* 3.4 Note [b] for archaic 2nd and 3rd person forms of verbs.)
[b] In relative clauses and cleft sentences, a relative pronoun subject is usually followed by a verb in agreement with its antecedent: *It is I who am to blame*, *It is Kay who is in command*, *It is they who are complaining*. But 3rd person concord prevails in informal English where the objective case pronoun *me* is used: *It's me who's to blame*. Similarly, 3rd person singular may be used in informal English in these constructions when the pronoun *you* has singular reference: *It's you who's to blame*.
In the archaic *Our Father, which art in Heaven*, agreement is with the 2nd person status of the vocative *Our Father*, *ie*: *Our Father, thou which art in heaven*. Contrast a modern version *Our Father, who is in Heaven* ['he who is in Heaven'].

Summary

10.45 We suggest that the following generalizations apply to the system of subject–verb concord in English.

(a) The principle of GRAMMATICAL CONCORD tends to be followed in formal usage and has the sanction of teaching and editorial tradition.
(b) The principle of NOTIONAL CONCORD is most natural to colloquial English.
(c) The principle of PROXIMITY, despite its minor decisive role in cases where the other two provide no guidance, is generally felt to lack validity on its own, and has more of an auxiliary role in supporting notional concord in colloquial speech.

Grammatical and notional concord generally work in harmony together. It is only occasionally that these principles are in conflict.

Other types of concord

Subject–complement and object–complement concord

10.46 Between subject and subject complement and between direct object and object complement, there is usually concord of number (but not of person):

My child is an angel. I consider my child an angel.
My children are angels. I consider my children angels.

This type of concord arises naturally from the semantic role of the two complements (*cf* 10.20). There are, however, exceptions:

My only hope for the future is my children. [also *are*] [1]
More nurses is the next item on the agenda. [also *are*] [2]
Their principal crop is potatoes. [3]
That man is nuts. ⟨slang⟩ ['insane'] [4]
Good manners are a rarity these days. [also *is*] [5]
The younger children are a problem. [6]
The next few bars are pure Tchaikovsky. [also *is*] [7]
Dogs are good company. [8]

The complement in [1] seems condensed, with perhaps an implied preposition: *My only hope for the future is in my children*. The subject of [2] may similarly be analysed as condensed (something like 'the question of more nurses') or may perhaps be treated as a title (*cf* 10.34 Note [c]). In [3] the subject complement is a generic noun phrase, which might equally be singular: *Their principal crop is the potato*. Sentences [4–8] contain a subject complement which, although nominal in form, has a characterizing function closer to that of an adjective. There is often no singular/plural contrast; for example, we do not have **The houses are bricks*, only *The houses are brick*.

Note [a] The complements in [1], [2], and [3] are identifying (*cf* 10.20), as is shown by the potentiality for subject–complement reversal: *My children are my only hope for the future*; *The next item on the agenda is more nurses*; *Potatoes are their principal crop*.
[b] Pseudo-cleft constructions with a fronted object *what* may have a plural subject complement (*cf* 10.34):
What we need most *is* books.
But *what* is ambivalent in number, often interpreted as equivalent to either 'the thing that' or 'the things that', so that we also find a plural verb in concord with the subject *what*-clause:
What we need most *are* books.
Some prescriptive teaching requires the singular both for the verb within the *what* clause and for the verb that is in concord with the clause:
What *is* needed most *is* books.

We also find a singular verb when the *what*-clause is subject complement, but there are objections to this infringement of the concord rule:

?*Books *is* { what we need most. / what is needed most.

[c] If the subject is singular there is no subject–complement concord with the idioms *be all ears, be all elbows, be all fingers and thumbs*. For example: *I'm all ears* ['I'm listening with all my attention.'].

Distributive number

10.47 The distributive plural is used in a plural noun phrase to refer to a set of entities matched individually with individual entities in another set:

Have you all brought your *cameras*? ['Each has a camera.']
Hand in your *papers* next Monday. ['Each has to hand in one paper.']

While the distributive plural is the norm, the distributive singular may also be used to focus on individual instances. We therefore often have a number choice:

The students raised their *hand(s)*.
Some children have { understanding *fathers*. / *an* understanding *father*.
We all have { good *appetites*. / *a* good *appetite*.
Pronouns agree with their *antecedent(s)*.
Their { *noses need* / *nose needs* } to be wiped.
The exercise was not good for their *back(s)*.

The singular is sometimes obligatory or preferable with idioms and metaphors:

We are *keeping an open mind*. [?*open minds*]
They *vented their spleen on him*. [**their spleens*]
They can't *put their finger on* what's wrong. [**their fingers*]

The distributive singular is sometimes used to avoid ambiguity:

Students were asked to name their favourite *sport*.

The singular makes it clear that only one sport was to be named. Similarly:

Children must be accompanied by *a parent*.

Pronoun reference

10.48 Agreement between a pronoun and its antecedent (*cf* 12.8*ff*) should probably be considered coreference rather than grammatical concord, but it is appropriate to treat the phenomenon here.

Concord of number, person, and gender is necessary between subject on the one hand, and object or complement on the other hand, if the second element is a reflexive pronoun (*cf* 6.23*ff*):

He injured *himself* in both legs.
She bought *herself* a raincoat.
I haven't been *myself* for weeks. ['I haven't felt well.']

The same concord relation holds when the reflexive pronoun occurs in other functions (*eg* as prepositional complement), or when the emphatic genitive *his own*, etc is used:

She's making a sweater for *herself*.
I wrote to them about *myself*.
They're ruining *their own* chances.

For coreference relations of the type exemplified by *Everybody . . . their*, *cf* 10.50.

Note [a] In BrE, collective noun subjects permit, as one might expect, plural concord: *The navy congratulated themselves on, if not a victory, at least an avoidance of defeat*. In both BrE and AmE, plural reflexives often follow the indefinite pronouns (*cf* 10.50): *Everybody behaved themselves*; some, however, avoid the construction.
[b] The concord relation may be with an element other than the subject, notably an object:
I wrote to *my brother* about *himself*. I drove *them in their own car*.

10.49 This type of concord may extend beyond clause boundaries. Thus the relative pronouns *who*, *whom*, and *which* agree with their antecedent in the superordinate clause in gender, the first two being personal, and the last nonpersonal:

Here's the hammer *which* I borrowed yesterday.
That's the man *who(m)* I saw talking to your parents.

Whose is used with either personal or nonpersonal antecedents:

The man *whose* wallet he stole. The house *whose* rafters were burned.

There is a feeling, however, that *whose* is more appropriate to personal antecedents, presumably because of its morphological relationship to *who* and *whom*, and some speakers feel uneasy about its use with nonpersonal antecedents.

Personal and possessive pronouns in the 1st and 3rd persons agree with their antecedents in number. Those in the 3rd person singular (*he, she, it*) also agree with their antecedents in gender:

Tom hurt *his* foot. [1]
Beatrice knows that *she* is late. [2]
The books were too heavy, so I left *them*. [3]

The violation of concord in the case of nonreflexive pronouns does not lead (as it does in the case of reflexive pronouns) to an unacceptable sentence, but to a different interpretation. One may compare [1] with [4]:

Tom hurt *her* foot. [4]

In [4] the pronoun must refer to someone else, someone mentioned or known from the situational context. Of course, in both [1] and [2] the pronoun may also refer to somebody other than the subject.

Note In phrases denoting body parts and close personal belongings (*cf* 5.35), possessive pronouns refer back to the subject where some languages prefer the definite article:
John shook *his* head. *She* dirtied *her* shoes.
So also in [1], if the reference is to the subject.

10.50 The pronoun *they* is commonly used as a 3rd person singular pronoun that is neutral between masculine and feminine. It is a convenient means of avoiding the dilemma of whether to use the *he* or *she* form. At one time restricted to informal usage, it is now increasingly accepted even in formal usage, especially in AmE. (On sexual bias in pronoun usage, *cf* 6.10.)

Rather than use *he* in the unmarked sense or the clumsy *he or she*, many prefer to seek gender impartiality by using a plural form where possible in reference to the indefinite pronouns *everyone*, *everybody*, *someone*, *somebody*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *no one*, *nobody*:

Everyone thinks *they* have the answer. [1]
Has *anybody* brought *their* camera? [2]
No one could have blamed *themselves* for that. [3]

A similar use of the plural occurs with coordinate subjects referring to both sexes, as in [4], and with a singular noun phrase subject having a personal noun of indeterminate gender as head, as in [5]:

Either he or she is going to have to change *their* attitude. [4]
Every student has to hand in *their* paper today. [5]

In formal English, the tendency has been to use *he* as the unmarked form when the gender is not determined. The formal equivalent of [1], though increasingly ignored now, is therefore:

Everyone thinks *he* has the answer. [1a]

A more cumbersome alternative is the conjoining of both masculine and feminine pronouns:

Every student has to hand in *his or her* paper today. [5a]

This device is particularly clumsy if the pronouns have to be repeated:

If *a student* does not hand in *his or her* paper today, *he or she* will not be allowed to continue the course. [5b]

One way of avoiding the dilemma is to make the subject plural:

All students have to hand in *their* paper today. [5c]

Similar methods can usually be employed for the indefinite pronouns too:

All of them think *they* have the answer. [1b]
Have *any of you* brought *your* camera? [2a]

For [4] the only alternative in formal English is to rephrase the sentence:

Either he is going to have to change *his* attitude or *she hers*. [4a]

The indefinite pronoun *one* is followed in formal usage by the same pronoun for subsequent references:

One should choose *one's* friends carefully. [6]

But AmE may also use the masculine pronoun:

One should choose *his* friends carefully. [6a]

In accordance with the tendency to avoid the use of the masculine pronoun to subsume both male and female references we may expect that AmE will increasingly replace indefinite *one* with indefinite *we*, *you*, or *they*, as appropriate:

We should choose *our* friends carefully. [6b]

We have noted (*cf* 10.36) that, especially in BrE, singular collective nouns have plural subject–verb concord in cases where the speaker thinks of the group as made up of separate individuals. The same principle extends to pronoun concord:

The government *are* cutting *their* losses. ⟨BrE⟩ [7]
The government *is* cutting *its* losses. [8]

Although there is no number contrast in relative pronouns, the number distinction can be reflected in the choice of personal *who* (*ie* the group thought of as a set of individuals) as opposed to nonpersonal *which* (*ie* the group as an indivisible abstraction). Thus corresponding to [7] and [8], we may have:

the government, *who are* cutting *their* losses ⟨BrE⟩ [7a]
the government, *which is* cutting *its* losses [8a]

Hybrid forms are rare, and seem odd:

?the government, *who is* cutting its/their losses
?the government, *which are* cutting its/their losses

Note [a] Informally, with indefinite pronoun subjects, *they* is commonly used in subsequent tag questions: *Everybody is leaving, aren't they?*, *Nobody is leaving, are they?*
[b] For introductory *it*, *that*, and *this*, *cf* 6.17. Examples:
Somebody opened the door. *It* was David.
Hello! *This* is Susan. Is *that* Geoffrey? ⟨on phone⟩

Semantic restrictions

10.51 Apart from concord, there are other ways in which the choice of one clause element may affect the choice of another:

The *men* scattered.
not *The *man* scattered.
The police contingent dispersed the *rioters*.
not *The police contingent dispersed the *rioter*.
John and Mary collided.
not {*John / *The *car*} collided.
but John collided with Mary.
The *workers* assembled.
not *The *worker* assembled.

Each of the above pairs shows how a particular verb requires a particular type of subject or object: *collide* requires a plural subject, a collective singular subject (*The team collided*), or a prepositional phrase entailing notional plurality with the subject (*I collided with her*); *scatter*, *disperse*, and *assemble* require a plural affected participant – *ie* a plural subject or a collective singular subject (*The crowd scattered*) when used intransitively, or a plural or collective object when used transitively (*The police contingent dispersed the rioters/the mob*).

Rules of this kind differ from rules of concord in that they do not involve two elements sharing the same feature, but one element projecting on to another a feature which is necessary for its meaningful use. That it is 'plurality' as a semantic feature rather than as a strictly grammatical feature that is in question here is shown by the possibility of substituting a collective singular for the plural noun.

Other features commonly entering into such semantic restrictions include:

'concrete' vs 'abstract': { The glass contains water. / *The glass contains kindness.

'animate' vs 'inanimate': { A pedestrian saw me. / *A lampshade saw me.

'human' vs 'nonhuman': { Finally we got married. / *Finally the snakes got married.

These restrictions are frequently violated in poetry and in other imaginative uses of languages. The incongruity, in such cases, indicates that the speaker intends us to make sense of his words at some deeper level, *eg* by metaphorical interpretation. In poetry, *leaves* may *dance*, *stars* may *bless*, *fears* may *lurk* or *linger*, and *a look* may *contain kindness*.

Semantic restrictions apply not only to verbs, but also to other word classes, notably adjectives and prepositions. The oddity of **The music is too green* is explained by the requirement that *green* should be in a copular relationship with a concrete noun (unless the noun is a superordinate term as in *The colour (I like best) is green* or unless *green* has the metaphorical sense 'immature'). The oddity of **They ran until the town* is accounted for by a rule that *until* requires a prepositional complement or a clause with temporal meaning (*They ran until six*; *They ran until it was dark*).

Note [a] Semantic requirements of the types that have been exemplified have sometimes been called 'selectional restrictions'.

[b] Semantic restrictions apply of course within phrases and not just between clause elements: **those married snakes*, **the green music*.

[c] There are semantic restrictions that apply to particular lexical items. For example, the two verbs *eat* and *feed*, used intransitively, tend to require personal and nonpersonal subjects respectively; whereas *Janet and Joe are eating* implies that Janet and Joe are persons, *Janet and Joe are feeding* implies that they are animals. Similarly, *elder* (unlike *older*) requires a personal subject or head noun: *Carol is the elder*, but not **This building is the elder*. To take a very different example, many speakers do not accept that *unique* can be modified by an intensifier or comparative: ?*Her play is very unique*.

[d] There are also restrictions that hold between lexical items. Both *want* and *wish* may be intensified (for example, by *very much*), but we can say *I badly wanted to see them* and not **I badly wished to see them*. Such restrictions have been termed 'collocational restrictions'.

Vocatives

10.52 A vocative is an optional element, usually a noun phrase, denoting the one or more persons to whom the sentence is addressed. It is either a CALL, drawing the attention of the person or persons addressed, singling them out from others in hearing, as in [1], or an ADDRESS, expressing the speaker's relationship or attitude to the person or persons addressed, as in [2] and [3]:

JÒHN, DÌNner's ready. [voc S V C_s] [1]
And THÀT, my FRÍENDS, concludes my SPÈECH. [voc S V O_d] [2]
My BÀCK is aching, DÓCtor. [S V voc] [3]

Sentences [1–3] show that a vocative may take initial, medial, or final position in the sentence; in its optionality and freedom of position, it is more like an adverbial (or, more precisely, like a disjunct; *cf* 8.121*ff*) than any other element of clause structure.

Intonationally, the vocative is set off from the rest of the clause either by constituting a separate tone unit or by forming the tail of a tone unit (*cf* App II.15). The most characteristic intonations are shown above: fall–rise for an initial vocative functioning as a call, and otherwise rise; rise for a vocative functioning as an address (*cf* also Note [b]).

Note [a] When *you* precedes the vocative, the distinction between a vocative and an appositive may be neutralized in writing, though not in speech:
You, Robert, will have to work harder.
I have been looking for you, my friend.

[b] There are forms of address that are general in character and therefore have low informational value. They form the tail of a tone unit when they are medial as well as when they are final. Such addresses rarely occur initially:
I shall send you a CÀRD, sir, when the suit is RÈADY.
We mustn't be LÀTE, dear, MÙST we?
Don't be SÌLLY, darling.

Forms of vocatives

10.53 Vocatives may be:

(a) Names: first name, last name, full name, with or without a title, or a nickname or pet name: *David*, *Caldwell*, *Sarah Peterson*, *Mrs Johnson*, *Dr Turner*, *Ginger*

(b) Standard appellatives, usually without modification:

(i) terms for family relationships (sometimes with initial capitals): *mother*, *father*, *son*, *uncle*, *aunt*, *grandfather*, *grandmother*; or more familiar forms like *mom(my)* ⟨AmE⟩, *mum(my)* ⟨BrE⟩, *dad(dy)*, *auntie*, *granny*, *grandma*, *grandpa*.

(ii) titles of respect (sometimes with initial capitals for *your*): *madam*, *ma'am* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *sir*, *my Lord*, *your Honour*, *your Excellency*, *your Majesty*, *your Ladyship*.

(iii) markers of status (sometimes with initial capitals even for those not so marked here): *Mr President*, *Prime Minister*, *Father* [for priest], *Sister* [for a nun], *Bishop*, *professor*, *doctor*, *general*, *major*, *vicar*.

(c) Terms for occupations: *waiter, driver, cabbie* ⟨informal⟩, *barmaid* ⟨BrE⟩, *bartender* ⟨AmE⟩, *attendant, conductor, nurse, officer* [for a member of the police force].

(d) Epithets (noun or adjective phrases) expressing an evaluation:

(i) favourable (some also preceded by *my*): (*my*) *darling*, (*my*) *dear*, (*my*) *dearest*, (*my*) *love*, *honey* ⟨esp AmE⟩, (*my*) *friend*, *handsome*, *beautiful*, (*my*) *sweetie-pie* ⟨esp AmE⟩.

(ii) unfavourable (also preceded by *you* in noun phrases); *bastard*, *coward*, *fatty*, *idiot*, *imbecile*, *liar*, *pig*, *rotter* ⟨BrE⟩, *skinny*, *slowcoach* ⟨BrE⟩, *slowpoke* ⟨AmE⟩, *stupid*, *swine*.

(e) General nouns, but which are often used in more specialized senses: *brother*, *buddy* ⟨AmE⟩, *girl*, *guys*, *lady*, *ladies and gentlemen*; *man*, *mate* ⟨BrE⟩, *partner* ⟨AmE⟩, *son*. Except for *ladies and gentlemen*, these are usually familiar and considered impolite when addressed to persons with whom one is not familiar. *Boy* is avoided in the US because of its racial connotations.

(f) The personal pronoun *you* (*You, why haven't you finished yet?*); it is markedly impolite. An indefinite pronoun; *eg*: *Get me a pen, somebody* is abrupt.

(g) Nominal clauses (very occasionally): *Whoever said that*, (*come out here*). Other examples: *whoever you are, what's your name*.

(h) Items from (a), (d), (e), and (f) may be expanded by the addition of modifiers or appositive elements of various kinds:

(a) *my dear Mrs Johnson*; *young David*
(d) *my very dearest*; *my old friend*; *you silly bastard*; *you filthy liar*
(e) *old man, young man*; *old boy* ⟨BrE⟩; *old chap* ⟨BrE⟩; *old fellow* ⟨BrE⟩; *my dear fellow* ⟨BrE⟩
(f) *you over there*; *you with the red hair*. Less impolite and more jocular in tone are appositives like *you boys, you people, you chaps* ⟨BrE⟩, *you* (*young*) *fellows*. *You-all* ⟨Southern AmE⟩ and *you guys* ⟨esp AmE⟩ are not impolite.

Items in (bi) and (bii), unless the terms have unique reference (as in *mother* or *Mr President*), may be combined with names in (a): *Uncle David, grandma Peterson, Professor Johnson*.

Terms for occupations in (c) differ from markers of status (biii), which also denote occupations, in that occupation terms are normally used as vocatives only when the person addressed is functioning in that role, whereas status markers may be used at all times. For example, we may address a person as *professor* or *doctor* when we do not have a professional relationship with that person, but we only address a person as *waiter* or *nurse* in situations when we are interacting with the person in that particular role.

Some vocatives are listed in more than one set. For example, *son* in (bi) is used by a parent, but in (e) it is used by a superior who is not a parent. Similarly, *father* in (bi) is a kinship term, but in (biii) it is a status marker. Moreover, some items in (di) may express a varying degree of evaluation: *love* may be used between intimates, but in BrE it may be used generally for strangers by a female bus conductor; and *bastard* may also convey the speaker's admiration for the addressee's ingenuity.

In addressing somebody one knows by name, last name preceded by title (*Mr Jones, Miss Smith, Mrs Brown, Dr Robinson*) is a politely formal manner of address, while first name (*John, Mary*) indicates friendly familiarity. It is now much easier to be 'on Christian name terms' ⟨BrE⟩ or 'on a first name basis' ⟨esp AmE⟩ than formerly; address by family name alone (which used to indicate male comradeship, as in *Holmes* and *Watson*) is rarely heard today, except in special situations (armed forces, school).

Vocatives addressed to strangers are not neutral, since they always express some relationship or attitude. Their effect and frequency also vary considerably in AmE and BrE. For example, *miss, ma'am, mister*, and *sir* are used far more extensively in AmE as vocatives addressed to strangers; *mister* is considered nonstandard in BrE, and *miss* is unacceptable to some, while *sir* is much more formal in BrE than in AmE. Professional vocatives are also used sparingly nowadays, mainly *Doctor, Father, Vicar, Counsellor* ⟨AmE⟩. In most neutral interchange with strangers, no vocative is used, nor is one felt to be necessary. To gain the attention of strangers, speakers often rely on *Excuse me* or *I beg your pardon* ⟨AmE⟩ rather than a vocative. *Hey* is often used for the same purpose, but it is impolite when addressed to strangers.

Most vocatives that are realized by unmodified common nouns – except for the family relationship terms in (bi) – are syntactically different from the same nouns in other functions in that they do not require a determiner. Hence we can use *dear* as a vocative in *Come here, dear*. But we cannot of course say **Dear came here*. Adjectives such as *handsome*, and *stupid* cannot be used in such contexts either.

Note It is conventional to place a salutation above the body of the letter. The salutation, which is on a line of its own, is generally introduced by *Dear*;

Dear Ruth Dear Dr Brown Dear Madam Dear Sir

When the sex of the addressee is unknown, it is customary in business letters to use *Dear Sir or Madam*. When the family name of a woman is known but her marital status is unknown or is considered to be irrelevant, many use *Ms* (*Dear Ms Wright*), but women differ strongly on whether they wish to be addressed, or referred to, by *Ms* (*cf* 5.66 Note [a]). When there is doubt over who should be the addressee, it is customary to write *To whom it may concern* ⟨formal⟩. *Dear* is often omitted in informal notes. Occasionally it is omitted in very formal letters addressed to a large number of people (*Friends*; *Gentlemen*).

Negation

Types of negation

10.54 We distinguish three types of negation:

(a) CLAUSE NEGATION, through which the whole clause is syntactically treated as negative (*cf* 10.55*ff*, 10.67*f*);
(b) LOCAL NEGATION, in which one constituent (not necessarily a clause element) is negated (*cf* 10.66);
(c) PREDICATION NEGATION, a minor type applying only after certain auxiliaries, in which the predication is negated (*cf* 10.69).

Note [a] This chapter deals only with negation as a syntactic process within the clause. On affixal negation, *cf* App I.21. In certain contexts, clauses with affixal negation are approximately synonymous with clauses negated by the clause negator *not* (*eg: That is not true* ~ *That is untrue*).
[b] For negative questions, *cf* 11.7*f*, 11.17; for negative directives, *cf* 11.28. Transferred negation is treated in 14.36.
[c] The difference between positive and negative has been termed a difference in POLARITY.

Clause negation

Clause negation through verb negation

10.55 A simple positive sentence (or a positive finite clause within a complex sentence) is negated by inserting the clause negator *not* between the operator and the predication (*cf* 2.48):

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
I have finished.	I have not finished.
The children are playing.	The children are not playing.
They have been told.	They have not been told.
He may be working.	He may not be working.

The operator here (as for questions) is the first auxiliary verb of a complex verb phrase, or either BE or (especially in BrE) stative HAVE (*cf* Note [a]) as the verb in a simple verb phrase. Thus the negation of *They are noisy* is *They are not noisy*, and one negation (especially BrE) of *He has enough money* is *He has not enough money*.

If an operator is not present in the positive sentence, the dummy (or substitute) auxiliary DO is introduced. Like modal auxiliaries, it is followed by the bare infinitive:

She works hard.	She does not work hard.
They know you.	They do not know you.
I paid the porter.	I did not pay the porter.

Except in formal English, the negator more usually occurs also in the enclitic contracted form *n't*:

I haven't finished.	They don't know you.
The children aren't playing.	I didn't pay the porter.

Contracted negative forms of auxiliaries are listed in 3.32*f*, 3.36, 3.39.

The uncontracted form is of course required when the nucleus is on the negator for emphasis: *I did* NÔT *say that.*

Note [a] The dynamic main verb *have* requires DO as operator:

We didn't have a party last week.	~*We hadn't a party last week.
They don't have an argument every day.	~*They haven't an argument every day.
I didn't have a look at your material.	~*I hadn't a look at your material.

The stative main verb *have* usually has DO as operator, though (especially in BrE) it does not need to. In BrE especially, *got* is often added in informal style:

He has enough money { He doesn't have enough money. ⟨esp AmE⟩ / He hasn't (got) enough money. ⟨esp BrE⟩ }

For the distinction between dynamic and stative verbs, *cf* 4.4, 4.27*ff*.
[b] For the restricted occurrence of certain negative forms, especially *mayn't*, *cf* 3.23.

[c] If the verb is subjunctive, the negator is positioned immediately before the verb, but without an operator:

It is important that he not stay beyond the end of the month.
I requested that they not interrupt me.

This use of the subjunctive is more common in AmE. In BrE putative *should* (*cf* 4.64, 14.25) or (to a lesser extent) the indicative are more likely with the consequent normal negation with the operator:

It is important that he { shouldn't / doesn't } stay beyond the end of the month.

I requested that they { shouldn't / (?)didn't } interrupt me.

[d] For examples such as *If I mistake not*, *cf* 3.22 Note [c].
[e] Some positive clauses are likely to be negated only in denials of previous statements:

A: He is { sure / bound } to succeed. B: No, he { Isn't / is NÔT } { sure / bound } to succeed.

Contracted forms of negator and auxiliaries

10.56 If the operator can be contracted to a form enclitic to the subject, there are two possibilities for contraction in negative clauses (though neither is used in formal English)—negator contraction and auxiliary contraction:

Jane isn't responsible.	Jane's not responsible.
We aren't ready.	We're not ready.
He wouldn't notice anything.	He'd not notice anything.
She won't object.	She'll not object.
They haven't caught him.	They've not caught him.

For the factors determining the choice between negator and auxiliary contraction, *cf* 3.23.

Note There is no standard negator contraction to parallel *I'm not ready*. For the status of *ain't*, *cf* 3.22 Note [b].

Syntactic features of clause negation

10.57 Certain syntactic features differentiate negative clauses from positive clauses:

(i) They are followed by positive checking tag questions (*cf* 11.8*ff*):

She doesn't work hard, *does* she?
[*cf*: She works hard, *doesn't* she?]

(ii) They are followed by negative tag clauses, with additive meaning:

I haven't finished, { and *neither* / *nor* } have you.

[*cf*: I've finished and *so* have you.]

Like positive clauses, however, they may be followed by positive tag clauses that do not have subject–operator inversion:

Ĭ haven't finished, but ˈyou HÀVE.
[*cf*: Ĭ've finished, and ˈYÒU *have* TÒO.]

On *neither* and *nor*, *cf* 13.36.

(iii) In discourse, they are followed by negative agreement responses:

A: He doesn't know Russian. B: NÒ, he DÒESn't.
[*cf*: A: He knows Russian. B: YÈS, he DÒES.]

(iv) They are followed by nonassertive items (*cf* 10.60):

A: He won't notice *any* change in you.
B: She won't notice *any* change in you, *either*.
[*cf*: She'll notice *some* change in you, *too*.]

(v) They do not cooccur with items that have positive orientation (*cf* 10.62):

*It isn't *pretty* late. [*cf*: It's *pretty* late.]

Features (i–iii) apply only to independent declarative clauses, whereas features (iv–v) apply also to subordinate finite and nonfinite clauses. Features (iv–v) do not differentiate negative from positive clauses in other nonassertive contexts, particularly questions and conditionals (*cf* further 10.60 Note.):

Don't you want {*something* / *anything*} to eat?
Isn't it *pretty* late?
If you *ever* want my advice, don't hesitate to ask for it.
If you see her *at all*, give her my best wishes.

Note [a] Features (iv–v) do not apply to denials of positive statements previously stated or implied:

A: I understand she showed him {*some* / **any*} photographs.

B: No, she DIDn't (show him {*some* / *any*} photographs).

[b] Like (ii) are tags with *either* or (in suitable contexts) *not even*:
I haven't finished, and you haven't *either*.
[*cf*: I have finished, and you have *too*.]
The baby couldn't walk, *not even* crawl.

[c] There are other features in discourse, apart from (iii), that differentiate negative from positive sentences; for example, disagreement responses:
He doesn't know Russian. – Oh yes, he DÒES.
He knows Russian. – Oh no, he DÒESn't.

Clause negation other than through verb negation

Words negative in form and meaning

10.58 Clausal negation may be accomplished by negating a clause element other than the verb with *no* or *not*, or by using a negative word such as *none* or *never*. We then sometimes have a choice between verb negation and negation of some other element (*cf* also 10.60):

VERB NEGATION	NEGATION OF OTHER ELEMENT
That was *not* an accident.	That was *no* accident.
He is *not* a friend of yours.	He is *no* friend of yours.
She is*n't* any different.	She is *no* different.
An honest man would *not* lie.	*No* honest man would lie.
Dogs are *not* permitted here.	*No* dogs are permitted here.
She is*n't* a fool.	She is *no* fool.
I do*n't* see any clouds.	I see *no* clouds.
He would*n't* say a word.	He would say *not* a word.
We did*n't* leave one bottle behind.	We left *not* one bottle behind.
They are *not* staying with us any longer.	They are *no* longer staying with us.
I wo*n't* make that mistake ever again.	I will *never* make that mistake again.

If the negated subject is not generic (in contrast to the subject in *No honest man would lie*), there is no corresponding negation with an operator:

Not one guest arrived late.	None of us were ready.
Neither of them wanted to stay.	Not many people came to the party.
No one listens to me.	

Where negation with an operator is also possible, it has a different meaning because the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64) is different. For example, *Many people did not come to the party* implies the absence of many people, whereas *Not many people came to the party* implies the presence of few people. In other instances, negation with an operator is not possible because a nonassertive form would be required to replace the negated subject, but it cannot precede *not* in the sentence *No one listens to me* ~ **Anyone doesn't listen to me*.

In formal style, the negative element may be moved out of its usual position to the initial position, in which case subject–operator inversion is often required (but *cf* 10.66 for some initial negative adverbials that do not require inversion):

Not a word would he say.
Not a moment did she waste.
Not one bottle did we leave behind.
No longer are they staying with us.
Never will I make that mistake again.
Under no circumstances will she return here.
Not until yesterday did he change his mind.
To no one will they admit their guilt.

All the examples in this section have clausal negation, as shown by their acceptance of the criteria listed in 10.57; for example they require the positive tag question:

No dogs are permitted here, *are they*?
Under no circumstances will she return here, *will she*?

They also require nonassertives:

Neither of us has *ever* had a university education.

Negation with *no* may have different implications than verb negation with *not*. While *He is not a teacher* denotes that his occupation is not teaching, *He is no teacher* indicates that he lacks the skills needed for teaching. The

determiner *no* converts the usually nongradable noun into a gradable noun that characterizes the person. Contrast *I'm not a youngster* ['I'm not young.'] with *I'm no youngster* ['I'm quite old'; *cf* the idiom *I'm no chicken*], *She's not a fool* with *She's no fool* ['She's very intelligent.'], and *They didn't pay any tax this year* with *They paid no tax this year* ['They certainly should have done so.'], *He's not a diplomat* with *He's no diplomat* ['He's not diplomatic.']. A straightforward negation is *She isn't a politician*, but *She is no politician* evaluates her role and introduces gradability (*cf*: *She is no politician by any stretch of the imagination*).

Except for a few fixed phrases (*no good, no different*), the adverb *no* modifies adjectives only when they are comparatives (by inflection or by periphrasis): *no worse, no tastier, no better behaved, no more awkward, no less intelligent.* (Compare the positive with *the*: *He is the worse for it.*) For *no* as a modifier in local negation, *cf* 10.66.

Note [a] If an initial negative adverbial does not cause subject–operator inversion, the negation is not clausal but local (*cf* 10.66). Notice the negative tag question in such instances:

Not long ago, they lived in Montreal, didn't they?
Not surprisingly, he is on a diet, isn't he?

There is no inversion with negative conjuncts (*eg*: *nevertheless*; *no doubt*) and negative disjuncts (*eg*: *not unreasonably*; *not to my surprise*).

[b] *Not yet* does not occur initially in a finite clause: **Not yet have I seen him.* The combination can occur initially in nonfinite or verbless clauses, where there is a neutralization of *I* and *M* positions (*cf* 8.20 Note [b]):

Not yet having received her visa, she was unable to make arrangements for the tour.
Not yet sixteen, he has never been to an X-rated movie.

[c] Some speakers position *no more* initially, with subject–operator inversion, as a response in discourse following a negative sentence:

A: I don't play tennis.
B: *No more* do I. ['Indeed, I don't either.']

The usual equivalent responses are *Neither do I* or *Nor do I*. In a BrE construction that some find archaic or dialectal, *no more* also occurs initially without subject–operator inversion:

A: I thought you didn't play tennis.
B: *No more* I did, until this year.

Words negative in meaning but not in form

10.59 There are several adverbs and determiners which are negative in meaning but not in form. They include:

seldom, rarely
scarcely, hardly, barely
little, few (in contrast to the positive *a little* and *a few*)

These can effect clause negation: for example they are followed by nonassertive forms, and sentences in which they appear generally require a positive tag question:

I seldom get *any* sleep.
Hardly *anyone* wants the job.
Few changes have *ever* taken so many people by surprise.
I can barely speak to *any* of my colleagues.
They scarcely seem to care, *do they*?
They hardly have *any* friends, *do they*?

As with other initial negative adverbials (*cf* 10.58), the adverbs normally cause subject–operator inversion when they are positioned initially as adverbials or as modifiers within an adverbial in literary and oratorical style:

Rarely does crime pay so well as many people think.
Scarcely ever has the British nation suffered so much obloquy.
Little did I expect such enthusiasm from so many.

As well as the determiners, the adverbs *scarcely, hardly*, and *barely* function within a noun phrase subject, effecting clause negation:

Scarcely any wine has yet arrived, *has it*?
Barely any arms were accumulated before the war.
Little help can be expected from Peter.
Hardly fifty people were in the vast hall.

Only is to some extent negative. When it focuses on a subject noun phrase, the latter is followed by nonassertive items:

Only two of us had any experience in sailing.

And when it focuses on a fronted initial element other than the subject, it may occasionally (but need not) take subject–operator inversion:

Only his mother will he obey.
Only on Sundays do they eat with their children.

Contrast:

Only his mother he will obey. ['It's only his mother that he will obey.']

Verbs, adjectives, and prepositions with negative meaning may be followed by nonassertive items, particularly *any* and its compounds:

He *denies* I *ever* told him.
I *forgot* to ask for *any* change. [also: *some change*; The meaning would then be 'I wanted some change, but forgot to ask for it.']
She avoided *ever* speaking to us.
We are *unaware* of *any* hostility.
They were *unwilling ever* to accept our help.
I'm *against* going out *anywhere* tonight. [also: *somewhere*]
They decided to leave *without* telling *any* of their friends. [also: *some of their friends*]

Nonassertive items also follow implied negation:

Take it before he says *anything*. ['. . . so that he doesn't say anything'; also: *something*]

Note [a] *Rarely* may be positive when placed initially, in which case it does not cause subject–operator inversion:

Rarely, crime pays well. ['On rare occasions, crime pays well.']

[b] The noun phrase on which *only* focuses may contain an assertive item, but not a nonassertive item:

Only { *some* / **any* } *of us* had any experience in sailing.

Contrast:

Scarcely / *Hardly* / ?*Barely* } { *some* / *any* } *of us* had any experience in sailing.

[c] Informally, *hardly* and (to a lesser extent) *scarcely* sometimes cooccur with the clause negator, although there are prescriptive objections to this usage on the grounds that these adverbs are negative in themselves. The most common combinations are *can't hardly* and *couldn't hardly*:

?I can't hardly see the words.

[d] Speakers vary in the extent to which they accept negative tag questions following these negative words. The tag questions seem most acceptable when positioned close to the end of the sentence:

He sees his parents rarely, *doesn't he*?

Hardly seems most resistant to a negative tag question:

?*He was hardly audible, *wasn't he*?

[e] *Just* is the positive adverb that is closest semantically to these negative adverbs. Compare *hardly* and *just* in these sentences:

{ He *hardly* slept a wink.
{ He *just* slept a little.

{ I could *hardly* see her.
{ I could *just* see her.

{ She had *hardly* arrived when the orchestra started.
{ She had *just* arrived when the orchestra started.

Nonassertive items and negative items

10.60 As has already been pointed out (*cf* 10.57*ff*), clause negation is frequently followed (not necessarily directly) by one or more nonassertive items. Common nonassertives are listed below in the third column, and the corresponding assertive and negative items are given in parallel columns. (On nonassertive pronouns, *cf* further 6.59*ff*).

SYNTACTIC CLASS	ASSERTIVE	NONASSERTIVE	NEGATIVE
(1) determiner	*some*	*any*	*no*
(2) determiner	(*either one or the other*)	*either*	*neither*
(3) pronoun	*some*	*any*	*none*
(4) pronoun	(*one or the other*)	*either*	*neither*
(5) pronoun	*something*	*anything*	*nothing*
(6) pronoun	*somebody*	*anybody*	*nobody*
(7) pronoun	*someone*	*anyone*	*no one*
(8) process adverb	*somehow*	(*in any way*)	(*in no way*)
(9) place adverb	*somewhere*	*anywhere*	*nowhere*
	someplace	*anyplace*	*no place*
	⟨informal AmE⟩	⟨informal AmE⟩	⟨informal AmE⟩
(10) time adverb	*sometime(s)*	*ever*	*never*
	always	*anytime*	
		⟨informal AmE⟩	
(11) time adverb	*already*	*yet*	—
(12) time adverb	*still*	*any more*	*no more*
		any longer	*no longer*
(13) degree adverbial	(*to some extent*)	*at all*	—
(14) degree adverbial	*somewhat*	*any* (*the*)	*no*, (*none the*) (*cf* [14] below)
(15) additive adverbial	*as well, too*	*either*	(*cf* Note [a])

The combination of *not* with a nonassertive form can be replaced, in most instances, by the negative word in the right-hand column; there are consequently two negative equivalents of each positive sentence:

[1] We've had some lunch. ~ { We haven't had any lunch. / We've had no lunch.

[2] He saw one man or the other. ~ { He didn't see either man. / He saw neither man. ⟨unusual⟩

[3] We've had some. ~ { We haven't had any. / We've had none.

[4] He saw one or other of the men. ~ { He didn't see either of the men. / He saw neither of the men.

[5] I've bought something for you. ~ { I haven't bought anything for you. / I've bought nothing for you.

[6] I was speaking to somebody. ~ { I wasn't speaking to anybody. / I was speaking to nobody.

[7] I was speaking to someone. ~ { I wasn't speaking to anyone. / I was speaking to no one.

[8] They'll finish it somehow. ~ { They won't in any way finish it. / They won't finish it at all. / They will in no way finish it.

[9] He'll meet us somewhere. ~ { He won't meet us anywhere. / He'll meet us nowhere. (*cf* Note [b])

[10] He sometimes [or *always*] visits us. ~ { He doesn't ever visit us. / He never visits us.

[11] They've arrived already. ~ They haven't arrived yet.

[12] He's still at school. ~ { He's not at school any { longer. / more. / He's no longer at school.

[13] I can help (to some extent). ~ I can't help at all.

[14] I'm (somewhat) wiser now. ~ { I'm not any (the) wiser now. / I'm { no / none the } wiser now.

[15] Her mother's coming, too. ~ Her mother's not coming either.

In all cases (except possibly that of *never*), the combination of *not* (*-n't*) and the nonassertive word is more colloquial and idiomatic than the negative variant. The absence of a negative word for *yet*, *at all*, and *either* means that there is only one negative version in examples 11, 13, and 15 (but *cf* Note [a]).

Assertive items may follow a negative if they fall outside the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64).

The primary difference between *some* and *any* (and between the *some-* and *any-* compounds) is that *some* is specific, though unspecified, while *any* is nonspecific. That is, *some* implies an amount or number that is known to the

speaker. This difference tends to correlate with the difference between positive and negative contexts:

I have *some money* on me. [a specific, though unspecified amount of money]
I don't have *any money* on me. [an unspecified, and also nonspecific amount of money; no limit on the amount is assumed]

Note [a] It is not quite true to say that there is no negative word corresponding to the adverb *either*; *neither* and *nor* both occur as negative additive subjuncts, but only in an initial position with negative inversion:
He couldn't speak, (and) *neither* could he walk.
He couldn't speak, *nor* could he walk.
He couldn't speak, and he couldn't walk *either*.
He couldn't speak or walk *either*.
All these sentences mean the same, but the first two are somewhat literary in tone, while the last two are decidedly colloquial.
[b] *Nowhere* is more usual when a modal auxiliary is present. Compare *I can find it nowhere* with the unusual *I found it nowhere* and *I've found it nowhere*. But *cf* the usual *It's nowhere to be found* ['It can't be found anywhere.'].

Nonassertive contexts

10.61 Apart from negative contexts, nonassertive items appear in a number of other contexts. They include:

(i) *Yes–no* questions that expect a negative response or are neutral in expectation (11.6*f*):
Do you know any of the teachers here?

(ii) *wh*-questions (11.14*ff*):
Who has ever read the play?

(iii) putative *should*-clauses (14.25):
It's odd that he should ever notice it.

(iv) conditional clauses (15.33*ff*):
If anyone ever says that, pretend not to hear.

(v) comparative clauses (10.63*ff*):
I have more stamps than I've *yet* shown you.

(vi) restrictive relative clauses modifying generic noun phrases, where the clauses have conditional meaning:
Students who have any complaints should raise their hands.
['If students have any complaints, they should raise their hands.']
All that he has ever said confirms my suspicions of his motives.

(vii) after words that are morphologically negative or that have negative import:
It's *unlikely* that she has ever been to Scotland.
You still have time *before* you have any need to register.
['You don't have any need to register now.']
He's *too* old to play any rigorous games.
['He doesn't play any rigorous games.']

They can *prevent* any demonstrations.
I *fail* to see any force in your arguments.
I'm *reluctant* to give her any advice.
It's *hard* to do any work under these conditions.

Note [a] Some verbs (sometimes in combination with certain modal auxiliaries) tend to occur in negative or other nonassertive contexts:

I {*can't* / *couldn't*} {*bear* / *stand* / *abide*} that type of music. [*cf* ?*I can bear that type of music.*]
They don*'t mind* waiting. [*cf*: **They minded waiting.*]
I would*n't care* to be in his shoes.
My parents did*n't budge* from their first offer.
I won*'t let on* what I saw.

On the other hand, *would rather* cannot be negated in a declarative sentence (*cf* 3.45):
I'd rather have an apple. [*cf*: ~ *I wouldn't rather have an apple*; acceptable only as a denial sentence]
Would(n't) you rather have an apple?

The lexical verb can be negated: *I'd rather not tell you about it.*
When used as modal auxiliaries, *need* ⟨esp BrE as a modal⟩ and *dare* are restricted to nonassertive contexts. Stereotyped *I daresay* is an exception.
[b] *Much*, *many*, and *far* tend to be restricted to nonassertive contexts when unmodified:
I don't like them (very) *much*.
I don't have (very) *much* money.
We didn't see (very) *many* on our last visit.
They don't live (very) *far* from us.
On the other hand, other items that are semantically similar tend to be restricted to assertive contexts:

I like them {*a great deal.* / *a little.*} We saw {*a good many* / *a great many* / *a few*} on our last visit.

Contrast:

They {live / don't live} {*very far* / *too far* / *a long way*} from us.

Temporal *long* and *very long* tend to be restricted to assertive contexts:
I can't stay (*very*) *long*.
Contrast:

I can('t) stay {*longer.* / *a long time.*}

Negative intensification

10.62 There are various ways of giving emotive intensification to a negative, some examples of which are given here. Nonassertive expressions of extent besides *at all* include:

by any means	*in any way*
in the slightest	*a bit* ⟨informal⟩
in the least	

Negative determiners and pronouns are given emphasis by *at all*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*:

I found nothing at all the matter with him.
You have no excuse whatever.

Never is repeated for emphasis, or else combined with an intensifying phrase such as *in (all) my life*:

I'll never, never go there again.
I've never in all my life seen such a crowd.

Never itself may serve for some as an emphatic informal negative in denials:

(?)I never stayed there last night. ['I certainly didn't stay there last night.']

The combinations *not one* and *not a (single)* are emphatic alternatives to *no* as a countable determiner (*cf* 10.58):

Not a word came from her lips. We left not a single bottle behind.

Other emotively coloured expressions include:

He didn't give me *a thing*. ⟨informal⟩
I don't care *a damn* whether we win or lose. ⟨familiar⟩
She didn't say *a word* about it. ⟨informal⟩
No way will I accept such an offer. ⟨familiar⟩

Some expressions are formed in combination with specific verbs:

He won't *lift a finger* to help you. I won't *drink a drop*.
I didn't *sleep a wink*. He didn't *move a muscle*.
She didn't *bat an eye(lid)*. We didn't *see a soul*.
They won't *budge an inch*.

On the other hand, the intensifiers *quite*, *pretty*, and *rather* are assertive:

They drive $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{quite}\\ \textit{pretty}\\ \textit{rather}\end{matrix}\right\}$ fast.

Contrast the unacceptability (except in denial sentences) of:

*They do*n't* drive $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{quite}\\ \textit{pretty}\\ \textit{rather}\end{matrix}\right\}$ fast.

Similarly, *far* as intensifier of comparatives is assertive:

The food was *far* better than I expected.
*The food was*n't far* better than I expected.

Other assertive intensifiers include *no end (of)*, which intensifies noun phrases as well as verbs:

She praised the play *no end*. It was *no end* of a mess.

For assertive *rather* in *would rather*, *cf* 10.61 Note [a], and for assertive *much*, *cf* 10.61 Note [b].

Note [a] *To speak of* is an informal nonassertive downtoner (8.111*ff*):
They haven't any money, *to speak of*.
[b] *Quite* is acceptable in a negative sentence when it modifies a phrase with the postmodifier *enough*:
They don't drive *quite* fast *enough*. It wasn't *quite* long *enough*.
[c] In informal style, *too* may be synonymous with *very*; hence, there may be a shift of meaning in negation or when *too* modifies words with negative meaning:
They drive *too* fast. ['They drive faster than they should'; 'They don't drive slowly enough.']
They don't drive *too* fast. ['They don't drive very fast'; the sentence can also be a denial of the positive statement.]
That's *too* bad. ['That's very bad.']
[d] *Could care less* ⟨esp AmE⟩ is sometimes used in the same sense as *couldn't care less*, but there are prescriptive objections to the locution.
[e] *Ever* is sometimes used as an intensifier in combination with *never*: *I'll never ever stay with them again*.

More than one nonassertive item

10.63 If a clause is negative, it is usually negative throughout, or at least until the beginning of a final adjunct (*cf* 10.64). Nonassertive items must normally be used after the negative element in place of *every* assertive item that would have occurred in the corresponding positive clause:

I've never travelled *anywhere* by air *yet*.
I haven't *ever* been on *any* of the big liners, *either*.
No one has *ever* said *anything* to *either* of us.
Not many of the refugees have *anywhere* to live *yet*.

Notice that negative items (normally only one) must always precede the nonassertive items, as in this series of corresponding clauses:

I *don't* give *any* pocket money to *any* of my children at *any* time.
I give *no* pocket money to *any* of my children at *any* time.
I give pocket money to *none* of my children at *any* time.
I give pocket money to my children at *no* time.

The further the negative word is postposted, the more questionable the sentence is, because the sentence is at first perceived as positive and then has to be reinterpreted as negative.

Note In nonstandard English, a negative item can be used wherever in standard English a nonassertive item follows a negative:
STANDARD: No one *ever* said *anything* to *anybody*.
NONSTANDARD: No one *never* said *nothing* to *nobody*.
Such double or multiple negatives are condemned by prescriptive grammatical tradition (*cf* further 10.70).

Scope of negation

10.64 A negative item may be said to govern (or determine the occurrence of) a nonassertive only if the latter is within the SCOPE of the negative, *ie* within the stretch of language over which the negative item has a semantic influence. The scope of the negation normally extends from the negative item itself to the end of the clause, but it need not include an end-placed adverbial. In a clause with the clause negator *not* or a negative word such as *never* or *hardly* in the same position after the operator, adverbials occurring before the negative normally lie outside the scope. There is thus a contrast between:

She definitely didn't speak to him.

['It's definite that she didn't speak to him.']

She didn't definitely speak to him.

['It's not definite that she spoke to him.']

(The scope is marked by the horizontal brackets.)

When an adjunct is final, it may or may not lie outside the scope:

I wasn't LĬstening all the TÌME. [1]

I wasn't listening all the TĬME. [2]

The difference of scope, which is here marked by intonation, reflects an important difference of meaning: [1] means 'For the whole time, I wasn't listening', whereas [2] means 'It is not true that I was listening all the time'. If an assertive form is used in the adjunct, the adjunct must lie outside the scope; therefore [3] and [4] below parallel [1] and [2]:

I didn't listen to some of the speakers. [3]

['There were some of the speakers that I didn't listen to.']

I didn't listen to any of the speakers. [4]

['There were not any speakers that I listened to.']

Disjuncts and conjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*) always lie outside the scope of clause negation, whatever their position:

She doesn't know him, unfortunately.

She doesn't know him, however.

The scope can sometimes extend into a subordinate clause:

She didn't know I would come to her *whenever she needed any advice.*

I wouldn't like you *to disturb anyone.*

Note When a negative adverbial is positioned initially, the subject and operator follow the negative item. In that case, the subject may have a nonassertive form:

Never have *any of them* been interested in music.

Very occasionally, the scope of negation may extend to an adjunct that has been fronted from its normal position, in which case a nonassertive may occur in the adjunct (without subject–operator inversion):

To any of those speakers I wouldn't listen. ⟨rare⟩

A more common fronting (with subject–operator inversion) is:

To none of those speakers would I listen.

The normal form is:

I wouldn't listen *to any of those speakers.*

Focus of negation

10.65 We need to identify not only the scope, but also the FOCUS of negation. A special or contrastive nuclear stress falling on a particular part of the clause indicates that the contrast of meaning implicit in the negation is located at that spot, and also that the rest of the clause can be understood in a positive sense. To distinguish the parts that are to be understood negatively and positively, we need to refine our notion of scope to allow for DISCONTINUOUS SCOPE and also to allow for the part preceding the negative item to come within the scope of negation. Different placements of the focus distinguish the following sentences. The parts that are not within the scope are understood positively:

I didn't take Joan to swim in the PÒOL today. – I forgot to do so.

I didn't take JŎAN to swim in the pool today. – It was Mary.

I didn't take Joan to SWĬM in the pool today – just to see it.

I didn't take Joan to swim in the PŎOL today. – I took her to the seaside.

I didn't take Joan to swim in the pool toDĂY. – It was last week that I did so.

Ĭ didn't take Joan to swim in the pool today. – It was my brother who took her.

The positive implications can be made explicit by alternative negation:

I don't like CŎFfee, but I do like TÈA.

I don't mind the NŎISE, but I do mind the HÈAT.

or by focused negation:

It's not CŎFfee that I like (, but tea).

It's not the NŎISE that I mind (, but the heat).

Scope and focus are interrelated such that the scope must include the focus. From this it follows that one way of signalling the extent of the scope is by the position of the focus. Indeed, since the scope of the negation is often not otherwise clearly signalled, we can indicate it by where we place the information focus. One example of this is when the scope of the negation is atypically extended to include a subordinate clause, with a contrastive fall-rise to emphasize this:

I didn't leave HÓME because I was afraid of my FÀTHer. [1]

[= Because I was afraid of my father, I didn't leave home.]

I didn't leave home because I was afraid of my FĂTHer. [2]

[= I left home, but it wasn't because I was afraid of my father.]

With more usual intonation, [1] allots a separate tone unit to each clause, and so places the *because*-clause outside the scope of the negative. (This interpretation can also be singled out by a comma in writing.) But [2] extends a single tone unit over both, and places a contrastive fall + rise on *father*. The effect of this is to place negative focus on the *because*-clause, so that the main clause is understood positively. Variable scope applies also to the *when*-clauses in [3] and [4]:

She didn't come to SÉE him when he ÀSKED. [3]

[= When he asked, she didn't come to see him.]

She didn't come to see him when he ĂSKED. [4]

[= She came to see him, but not at the time he asked her to come to see him.]

In [3] the *when*-clause is an adverbial of the sentence, whereas in [4] it is an adverbial of the preceding infinitive clause.

Intonation may be crucial also in marking whether or not the subject is the focus of negation, a distinction that may be needed in subjects containing one of the universal items *all* or *every*:

All the children didn't SLÈEP. ['All the children failed to sleep.'] [5]

ĂLL the children didn't sleep. ['Not all the children slept.'] [6]

[6] has contrastive (fall + rise) information focus. The construction of [5] is unusual; more common is the paraphrase with a negative subject: *None of the children slept*.

Note [a] In denial sentences the clause negator may have the focus, since the rest of the clause has already been asserted or implied:

I did NÒT offer her some chocolates. ['It is not true that I offered her some chocolates.']

The same effect is achieved by focus on a negative operator:

I DÌDn't offer her some chocolates.

or some other negative word:

I NÈver offered her some chocolates.

NÒbody offered her some chocolates.

[b] When the focus is on a gradable item, the effect is usually to indicate less than the norm:

The room isn't LĂRGE, but it will do.

But the context may indicate the reverse:

The room isn't (just) LĂRGE, it's enormous.

Local negation

10.66 Local negation negates a word or phrase, without making the clause negative (*cf* 10.57). A common type is exemplified in [1]:

She's a not unattractive woman, { in some ways. / *in any respect. } [1]

In [1] *not* negates *unattractive* but not the whole clause, as we can see from the inadmissibility of the nonassertive item *any*. Contrast the clausal negation in [2], where the tag question is positive:

She's not an attractive woman / She isn't an attractive woman } in any respect, is she? [2]

The effect of *not* in [1] is merely to reverse the already negative force of the following expression. Such double negative phrases are devices of understatement, *She is a not entirely unintelligent woman* meaning 'She is a fairly intelligent woman'; similarly, *He's not a too sympathetic doctor* means 'He's a rather unsympathetic doctor'. The double negative phrases require a gradable adjective or adverb as head, the negation indicating a point between the two extremes of the gradable scale; for [1] the point is somewhere between *unattractive* and *attractive*. Here are other examples of double negative phrases:

They made some *not unintelligent observations*. [3]
They are paying a *not inconsiderable amount* in rent. [4]
The announcement was followed by a *not unexpected silence*. [5]
I visit them *not infrequently*. [6]
He writes *not inelegantly*. [7]

Each of these sentences corresponds to a positive sentence in which the double negative is replaced by a downtoner (*cf* 8.111*ff*). Thus, [3] may be paraphrased by *They made some fairly intelligent observations* and [4] by *They are paying a rather considerable amount in rent*. We may similarly paraphrase the double negative phrases in the other three sentences by positive phrases with downtoners: *a somewhat expected silence* [5], *fairly frequently* [6], *rather elegantly* [7].

Some content disjuncts (*cf* 8.127*ff*), those either having a negative prefix or conveying unexpectedness, may be negated:

Not unnaturally, we rejected their complaint. [8]
Not surprisingly, they missed the train. [9]

Not unnaturally in [8] is a double negative phrase, and the effect of the negation is to understate ('as was rather expected'), as in the double negative phrases in [1–7]. In [9], *not* simply negates *surprisingly* ('that's not surprising').

In another type of local negation, *not* modifies a degree adverb, which in turn modifies a positive gradable adjective or adverb:

They own two *not very fierce dogs*. ['rather docile'] [10]
I saw a *not too sympathetic report* about you. ['rather unsympathetic'] [11]
I visit them *not very often*. [12]
Janet arrived *not much earlier* than Bob. [13]
Derek drives *not as well* as expected. [14]

Sentences [12–14], with the gradable adverbs, correspond to negative sentences; for example, [12] corresponds to *I don't visit them very often*, though

[12] exhibits local negation, not clause negation. On the other hand, sentences [10] and [11] do not correspond to negative sentences, because the adjective phrases are not clause elements, but are embedded in noun phrases that are elements. The adjective phrases correspond to an antonymous adjective modified by a downtoner: 'rather tame dogs' [10], 'a somewhat unsympathetic report' [11].

Not may also modify adverbial expressions of extent in distance or time:

They live *not far* from us. [15]
I saw Dave *not long ago*. ['fairly recently'] [16]
We were there *not many years* after the war. ['just a few years'] [17]

Since the modified phrase is a clause element in [15], the sentence corresponds to a negative sentence ('They don't live far away from us.').

The quantifiers *a few* and *a little* may be negated by *not* and the quantifier *little* by *no*:

They have *not a few eccentrics* in their family.
I sensed *not a little hostility* in his manner.
They displayed *no little interest* in her progress. ⟨formal⟩

These negative quantifiers have the clear force of understatement. A similar effect is conveyed by the comparatives *more*, *less*, and *fewer* when they are negated by either *not* or *no*:

You may take *no more* than an hour's break for lunch.
They'll pay you *not less* than ten dollars an hour.
I have been able to collect *no fewer* than sixty signatures for the petition.

No is somewhat more emphatic than *not* in these contexts.

Prepositional phrases may also be negated, whether as adjuncts or as postmodifiers in noun phrases, by a negative word within the complement:

He was decorated *by none other than the President*.
I'll give it to you *for nothing*.
We cleared the table *in no time*.
She replied *with not a moment's hesitation*.
[*cf*: *without a moment's hesitation*]
The brothers set out on their hike *with never a worry in the world*.
Our house has one wall *with no windows*.
It was a decision *of no consequence*.

An unusual type of local negation appears in noun phrases that express a compressed predication:

No news is good news.
['Receiving no news is good news.']
The company promised no victimization.
['The company promised that there would be no victimization.']
Something is better than nothing.
['Having something is better than having nothing.']
The children want nothing but television.
['The children want to do nothing but watch television.']

In local negation, an initial negative adverbial does not cause subject–operator inversion (*cf* 10.58*f*). We may therefore contrast local negation in the [a] sentences below with clause negation in the [b] sentences. The [a] sentences are distinctly less usual:

In no time we cleared the table.
['We cleared the table within a short time.'] [18a]
At no time was war as imminent as now.
['War wasn't as imminent as now at any previous time.'] [18b]

Not even ten years ago you could see such a film.
['You could see such a film as recently as ten years ago.'] [19a]
Not even ten years ago could you see such a film.
['You couldn't see such a film even ten years ago.'] [19b]

(Even) with no coaching he will pass the exam.
['He will pass the exam (even) without coaching.'] [20a]
With no coaching will he pass the exam.
['Whatever coaching is provided will not enable him to pass the exam.] [20b]

The paraphrases show that semantically the [a] sentences are positive and the [b] sentences are negative. The [a] sentences take a negative tag question (*In no time we cleared the table, didn't we?*) whereas the [b] sentences take a positive tag question (*At no time was war as imminent as now, was it?*)

It is convenient to refer briefly here to the uses of the negative response word *no*. The selection of *no* is determined by whether it negates the implied or given statement:

A: I didn't do too good a job today. B: No, you DÌDn't. [21]
A: I did a good job today. B: No you DĬDn't. [22]

Notice that the use of *no* is not determined by the speaker's disagreement with a previous speaker's statement, since in [21], unlike [22], speaker B agrees with speaker A. Contrast:

A: I didn't do too good a job today. B: Yes, you DĬD. [23]
A: I did a good job today. B: Yes, you DÌD. [24]

Yes is used in [23] even though speaker B disagrees with speaker A. The same principle applies to responses to *yes–no* questions:

A: Is it raining? B: { Yes (, it ĭs). / No (, it ìsn't). }

But since the *yes–no* question typically asks for a response on the truth value of the corresponding statement ('Is it or is it not true that it's raining?'), the responses coincide with an assertion (*yes*) or a denial (*no*) of its truth value.

Note [a] Local negation also occurs in correlation with *but* when *not* is positioned before a clause element (*cf* 13.42):
They want not your pity but your help.
[*cf* clause negation: They don't want your pity but your help.]

You should pay attention not to what they say but to what they do.
I saw not ŌNE official, but THRÈE.

A tone unit boundary is normal before *not*.

[b] *They argued about nothing* is ambiguous between clause and local negation: 'They didn't argue about anything' or 'They argued, but the argument was about nothing (of significance)'.

[c] For *not* as a pro-form for a negative direct object clause (as in *I believe not, I hope not, I guess not*), *cf* 12.28.

Negation of modal auxiliaries

Present forms of modals

10.67 The scope of negation may or may not include the meaning of the modal auxiliaries. We therefore distinguish between AUXILIARY NEGATION and MAIN VERB NEGATION. The contrast is shown in the two following sentences with *may not*, where the paraphrases indicate the scope of negation:

AUXILIARY NEGATION

You may not smoke in here. ['You are not allowed to smoke in here.']

MAIN VERB NEGATION

They may not like the party.

['It is possible that they do not like the party.']

We give examples below of the modal auxiliaries, according to whether the scope of negation usually includes the auxiliary or excludes it. The senses of the modal auxiliaries are discussed in 4.49*ff*.

AUXILIARY NEGATION

may not [= 'permission']

You may not go swimming. ['You are not allowed . . .']

cannot, can't [in all senses]

You can't be serious. ['It is not possible that . . .']

You can't go swimming. ['You are not allowed to . . .']

He can't ride a bicycle. ['He is not able to . . .']

need not, needn't ⟨both esp BrE⟩

You needn't pay that fine. ['You are not obliged to . . .']

It needn't always be my fault. ['It is not necessary that . . .']

dare not, daren't

I daren't quarrel with them.

['I haven't got the courage to quarrel with them.']

MAIN VERB NEGATION

may not [= 'possibility']

They may not bother to come if it's wet.

['It is possible that they will not bother to come . . .']

shall not, shan't ⟨all senses; esp BrE; *shan't* rare even in BrE⟩

Don't worry. You shan't lose your reward.

['I'll make sure that you don't lose your reward.']

I shan't know you when you return. ['I predict that I will not know . . .']

must not, mustn't ['obligation']

You mustn't keep us waiting.

['It is essential that you don't keep us waiting']

ought not, oughtn't [both senses; for *ought* with the bare infinitive, *cf* 3.43 Note [a]]

You oughtn't to keep us waiting. ['obligation']

He oughtn't to be long. ['tentative inference']

The distinction between auxiliary and main negation is neutralized for *will* in all its senses, as the paraphrases below indicate:

Don't worry. I won't interfere. ['I don't intend to interfere'; 'I intend not to interfere.']
He won't do what he's told. ['He refuses to do what he's told'; 'He insists on not doing what he's told.']
They won't have arrived yet. ['It's not probable that they've arrived yet'; 'I predict that they haven't arrived yet.']

The auxiliary negation of *must* in the logical necessity sense is usually achieved through *can't*:

They *must* be telling lies. ['It is certain that they are telling lies.']
~ They *can't* be telling lies. ['It's not possible that they are telling lies.']

But *must not* and *mustn't* occur in this sense occasionally in AmE and, still more occasionally, in BrE. This use (instead of *can't*) seems to be gaining favour. A less emphatic negation of *must* in the same sense may be achieved with *needn't* and *don't have to* ⟨esp AmE⟩, both of which have the epistemic meanings of 'not necessary' and 'not obliged to':

It must be hot now in Florida.
~ It {doesn't have to / needn't} be hot in Florida now.
['It's not certain that it is hot in Florida now' or 'It's not necessarily the case that it is hot in Florida now.']

The auxiliary negation of *must* in the obligation sense is *needn't* or *don't have to*:

A: Must we pack now?
B: No, we {don't have to / needn't} pack till tomorrow.
['It is not necessary for us to pack till tomorrow'; 'We are not obliged to pack till tomorrow.']

Because of the diametric opposition of meaning between 'permission' and 'obligation', an odd-seeming equivalence exists between *may not* ['not permitted to'] and *mustn't* ['obliged not to']:

You mustn't go swimming today.
= You may not go swimming today.

In the possibility sense, *cannot* and *can't*, which take auxiliary negation, contrast with *may not*, which takes main verb negation:

She can't be serious. ['It's not possible that she's serious.']

She may not be serious. ['It's possible that she's not serious.']

Past forms of modals

10.68 The past tense negative auxiliaries (*mightn't, couldn't, wouldn't, shouldn't*) follow the same negative pattern as their present tense equivalents (but *cf* 4.61*ff*):

AUXILIARY NEGATION
could not, couldn't [in all senses]

She couldn't be SĚRious. ['It is not possible . . . , is it?']

We couldn't smoke in the restaurant. ['We were not allowed to . . .']

He couldn't drive a car. ['He was not able to . . .']

MAIN VERB NEGATION
might not, mightn't

They might not be telling lies. ['It is possible that they are not . . .']

should not, shouldn't [all senses]

You shouldn't say anything. ['You are advised not to say anything.']

We shouldn't be long. ['According to my information, we won't be long'.]

They shouldn't be there yet. ['It is probable that they are not there yet.']

As is the case with *will* (*cf* 10.67), the distinction between auxiliary and main verb negation is neutralized for *would* in all senses:

He wouldn't carry the baby. ['refused to carry' or 'insisted on not carrying']
He usually wouldn't drive to work. ['was not in the habit of driving' or 'was in the habit of not driving']
That wouldn't be the doorbell. ['It's not probable that it's the doorbell' or 'I predict that it's not the doorbell.']

The past tense negative auxiliaries display contrasts in the scope of negation similar to those for the present tense form. *Could not* and *couldn't* contrast with *might not* and *mightn't*:

She couldn't be serious. ['It's not possible that she is serious' or 'She was not able to be serious.']
She might not be serious. ['It's possible that she is not serious.']

Similar contrasts are found between *shouldn't*, on the one hand, and *couldn't, needn't*, and *don't have to*, on the other hand:

It shouldn't be hot in Florida now. ['It's likely that it's not hot in Florida now.']
It couldn't be hot in Florida now. ['It's not possible that it's hot in Florida now.']

It {needn't / doesn't have to} be hot in Florida now.
['It's not certain that it's hot in Florida now.']

Note [a] *Might* and *might not* in the permission sense are rare, occurring chiefly in polite questions:
Might I (not) have a word with you?
I wonder whether I might (not) have a word with you.
[b] The marginal modal auxiliary *need* forms its past equivalent with *have* ⟨esp BrE⟩:
You needn't have paid that fine. ['You didn't need to pay . . . ⟨BrE and AmE⟩]

The marginal modal auxiliary *dare* has a past form *dared* ⟨esp BrE⟩:
I dared not quarrel with them.

Negation with *do* and the bare infinitive is usual both for the present and the past:
I {don't / didn't} dare quarrel with them.

The lexical verbs are more commonly used: *didn't need to, didn't dare to* (*cf* 3.40*ff* for a more detailed discussion).

Predication negation

10.69 Very rarely, PREDICATION NEGATION occurs in the context of denials and permission. In predication negation, a modal auxiliary is used with a different scope of negation than is normal for that auxiliary. With a special emphatic pause before *not*, one might say:

They may 'not go swimming. ['They are allowed not to go swimming.']

You can (simply) 'not obey the order. ['It's possible for you not to obey the order.']

In such instances of main verb negation, the clause is not negated (*cf* 10.57), since we can say (though it is unusual to do so):

A: They don't want to go swimming.
B: I suppose so. OK, let's agree that they may 'not go swimming.
A: YÈS, they MÀY.
You can 'not obey the order, can't you?

On the other hand, this predication negation differs from local negation (*cf* 10.66) in that it can extend over several clause elements beginning with the main verb.

Predication negation may also be followed by nonassertive forms:

You could 'not attend any of the meetings. ['It's possible for you not to attend any of the meetings.']

Because both kinds of negation may occur with the same auxiliary, acceptable instances of two negators in the same clause sometimes arise:

I can't 'not obey her. ['It's not possible for me not to obey her', 'I have to obey her.']
You can't 'not admire him. ['It's not possible for you not to admire him', 'You have to admire him.']

More natural ways of expressing a corresponding negation would be:

I can't help obeying her.
I can't help but obey her. ['The only thing I can do is to obey her.']

You can't help admiring him.
You can't (help) but admire him.

On the subjunct use of *but*, *cf* 8.111.

Occasionally, two negators may be used with auxiliaries other than modals:

She didn't 'not like them. ['She didn't dislike them.']
They don't often 'not remember her birthday.
['They don't often fail to remember her birthday.']
He hasn't ever 'not understood a lecture.
['He hasn't ever failed to understand a lecture.']

Double negation

10.70 As we have seen in 10.69, two negatives occasionally occur in the same clause. Our example there involved a combination of auxiliary and main verb negation, but other combinations occur:

Not many people have nowhere to live. ['Most people have somewhere to live.']
No one has nothing to offer to society. ['Everyone has something to offer to society.']
Nobody has nothing to eat. ['Everyone has something to eat.']

Not all imperatives have no subject. ['Some imperatives have a subject.']
Never before had none of the committee members supported the mayor.
['Some of the committee members had always supported the mayor before.']
None of us have never told lies. ['All of us have told lies at some time.']

These sentences are somewhat similar to the double negative of logic: each negative has its separate value, and it is possible to find paraphrases, like those just given, which cancel out each negative, leaving an entirely positive sentence in meaning. Syntactically, however, the sentences are negative; for example, they require positive tag questions (*cf* 11.8*ff*):

Not all imperatives have no subject, *do they*?

The double negation in standard English is very different from the double or multiple negation in nonstandard English, where the additional negatives are used in place of nonassertive words in standard English (*cf* 10.63 Note). The additional negatives in nonstandard English do not cancel out previous negatives.

Bibliographical note

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11 Sentence types and discourse functions

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Sentence types

Formal classification

11.1 In Chapter 10 we described the simple sentence primarily in terms of declarative sentences. We now turn to the other major types of sentences. These are more easily described in relation to the declarative, since to describe them we require additional rules; for example, we need rules for the insertion of DO as operator in many *yes–no* interrogatives, for the initial positioning of the *wh*-element in *wh*-interrogatives and in exclamatives, and for the presence or (generally) absence of a normally obligatory subject in imperatives.

Simple sentences may be divided into four major syntactic types differentiated by their form. Their use correlates largely with different discourse functions (*cf* 11.2).

(I) DECLARATIVES are sentences in which the subject is present and generally precedes the verb:

Pauline gave Tom a digital watch for his birthday.

On exceptional declaratives not containing a subject *cf* 12.46*ff*.

(II) INTERROGATIVES are sentences which are formally marked in one of two ways:

(i) *yes–no* interrogatives: the operator is placed in front of the subject:

Did Pauline give Tom a digital watch for his birthday?

(ii) *wh*-interrogatives: the interrogative *wh*-element is positioned initially:

What did Pauline give Tom for his birthday?

(III) IMPERATIVES are sentences which normally have no overt grammatical subject, and whose verb has the base form (*cf* 3.2):

Give me a digital watch for my birthday.

(IV) EXCLAMATIVES are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by *what* or *how*, usually with subject–verb order (*cf* 11.31*f*):

What a fine watch he received for his birthday!

There are also some minor sentence types, which will be considered in 11.38*ff*.

Note [a] For (II) above, the operator need not be placed immediately in front of the subject (*cf* 11.7).
[b] For dependent interrogatives, *cf* 15.5*f*; for dependent exclamatives, *cf* 15.7; for correspondences in indirect speech, *cf* 14.33.

Discourse functions

11.2 Associated with these four sentence types are four classes of discourse functions:

(a) STATEMENTS are primarily used to convey information.

(b) QUESTIONS are primarily used to seek information on a specific point (*cf* 11.4*ff*).
(c) DIRECTIVES are primarily used to instruct somebody to do something (*cf* 11.24*ff*).
(d) EXCLAMATIONS are primarily used for expressing the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something (*cf* 11.31*f*).

Direct association between syntactic class and semantic class is the norm, but the two classes do not always match, as the following sentences illustrate:

Pauline gave Tom a digital WÁTCH? [1]
What do ì care? [2]
I'd 'love a cup of TĚA. [3]
Isn't Christine CLÈver! [4]

[1] is a declarative question (*cf* 11.12); it is syntactically declarative but semantically a question. On the other hand, the rhetorical question (*cf* 11.23) in [2] is syntactically an interrogative but semantically a statement ('I certainly don't care'). In [3] the declarative is semantically a directive suggesting that the hearer bring the speaker a cup of tea. Finally, [4] is syntactically interrogative but semantically an exclamation; contrast *How clever Christine is!*, which is syntactically exclamative as well as semantically an exclamation.

Note A traditional term for directive is 'command', but that has a more restricted meaning in this book, *cf* 11.29.

Illocutionary acts

11.3 The four semantic classes of discourse functions constitute a closed class of sentence categories that distinguish discourse functions at the most general level. But we can make many more refined distinctions. For example, a statement can be used to make an assertion [1], to make a prediction [2], or to offer an apology [3]:

Engineers are building massive hydroelectric projects in China. [1]
It's going to rain any minute now. [2]
I'm sorry about the delay. [3]

Assertion, prediction, and apology are pragmatic categories that indicate how the semantic classes of sentences are used in actual utterances.

Utterances of sentences are SPEECH ACTS, *ie* acts of verbal behaviour (spoken or written). When a person performs a speech act, that person at one and the same time utters a particular utterance, namely a LOCUTIONARY ACT. We use ILLOCUTIONARY ACT to refer to a speech act identified with reference to the communication intention of the hearer. The intended effect of an illocutionary act is its ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE. Occasionally, the speaker explicitly refers to the illocutionary act being performed by using a PERFORMATIVE VERB:

I *apologize* for my remarks.
Your presence at the meeting is *requested*.

I *promise* you a bicycle for your birthday.
Smoking in this compartment is *forbidden*.

But generally, performative verbs are not present in speech acts.

Illocutionary acts are typically associated with particular semantic classes of sentences – for example, inquiry with questions; and requests, commands, and invitations with directives – though statements are related to a very large range of illocutionary acts. But semantic and pragmatic classes are not always directly associated, any more than semantic classes and syntactic types (*cf* 11.2). Sentences from one semantic class are very often used to express an illocutionary act typically associated with sentences from a different semantic class. In such instances, the sentence retains its normal semantic status but is at the same time indirectly used to perform another type of illocutionary act. Here are some examples of such INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS:

I think you'd better leave at once. [request by statement]
Dinner is ready. [request to come to eat by statement]
Could you please make less noise? [request by question]
Do you happen to have a pencil? [request to be given a pencil by question]
Tell me what you want. [inquiry by directive]
I'd like to know the name of your last employer. [inquiry by statement]
Do you want another cup? [offer by question]
Remember that I'm always ready to help. [offer by directive]
Why don't you take an aspirin? [advice by question]
I'd sell your car if I were you. [advice by statement]

The illocutionary force of an utterance is dependent on the context, and a particular utterance may have different illocutionary force in different contexts. For example, the sentence *My husband will be back soon* may be intended, among other possibilities, as a promise, a threat, or a warning. Furthermore, the categorization of illocutionary acts might suggest discrete distinctions that we often cannot make. Thus *Why don't you take an aspirin?* is indeterminate, in the same context, between advice and recommendation, and *Would you like to come outside and sit in the sun?* is poised between invitation and suggestion.

Note [a] Some performative verbs may be required or may be usual in ritual or legal situations:
I sentence you to one year's imprisonment. I name this ship Dreadnought.
The possible insertion of *hereby* is an indication of the performative use of the verb:
I hereby name this ship Dreadnought.
The same verb may be used in sentences which merely report the performative speech act:
She named that ship Dreadnought.
[b] One type of indirect speech act involves HEDGED PERFORMATIVES, which refer to the performance of a speech act indirectly, even though a performative verb is present:
I *must apologize* for my behaviour.
I *can swear* that I locked the door.
I *would like to thank* you for your hospitality.
I *am happy to inform* you that you have passed the examination.
For example, in *I must apologize for my behaviour* the sentence merely refers to an obligation to perform an apology, but the implication is that the acceptance of the obligation is equivalent to the performance.

[c] The indirectness of a speech act is commonly due to tact on the part of the speaker, who leaves it to the hearer to make the appropriate inferences. Thus, *It's cold in here* may indirectly convey a request to close a window or door or to turn on a heater, or it may indirectly convey a suggestion for those present to move elsewhere. The hearer is given a choice of responses. Similarly, *Your tie is not straight* allows the hearer to draw inferences, and is therefore more polite than *Straighten your tie.*

Questions

Major classes

11.4 Questions can be divided into three major classes according to the type of reply they expect:

(1) Those that expect affirmation or negation, as in *Have you finished the book?*, are YES–NO questions (*cf* 11.5*ff*);
(2) Those that typically expect a reply from an open range of replies, as in *What is your name?* or *How old are you?* are WH- questions (*cf* 11.14*ff*);
(3) Those that expect as the reply one of two or more options presented in the question, as in *Would you like to go for a* WÁLK *or stay at* HÒME*?*, are ALTERNATIVE questions (*cf* 11.20*f*).

Logically well-formed replies, responses that conform with expectations, are a subset of pragmatically appropriate answers. Many answers that are apparently irrelevant become relevant in terms of the implicatures they convey:

A: Have you seen my chocolates?
B: Well, the children were in your room this morning.

It is therefore possible for a question to be answered by another question:

A: Are you going to watch television again?
B: What else is there to do?
A: Is that your baby?
B: What do YÒU think? [sarcastic: 'Of course it's my baby.']

Any utterance of a question that has the illocutionary force of an inquiry may be answered by *I don't know* or *I'm not sure*, or by a refusal to answer, *eg*: *It's none of your business* ⟨impolite⟩, or by an evasion, *eg*: *Good question*, or by a challenge to a presupposition of the question, *eg*: *Do you like Joan Parker? – I don't know any Joan Parker.*

Questions primarily have the illocutionary force of inquiries. But they are often used as directives conveying requests, offers, invitations, and advice (*cf* 11.3, 11.16*f*). For exclamatory and rhetorical questions, *cf* 11.22*f*.

Note [a] Affirmation and negation may be conveyed by words or expressions other than *yes* or *no*, *eg*: *certainly*; *of course*; *not at all*; *never*. *Yes–no* questions may also be answered by replies that lie somewhere along the affirmation–negation scale, *eg*: *probably*; *perhaps*; *It appears so*; *to some extent*; *occasionally*; *very often*.

[b] An answer may be truthful and yet misleading:
A: Did you enjoy the play?
B: No.
B's answer is truthful even if B has not seen the play, but it is misleading in that both the question and the answer imply that B had seen the play.
[c] While questions generally imply that the speaker does not know the answer, they are also used in certain contexts where the speaker knows the answer but wants to know whether the hearer also knows it. Examples of such contexts are written examinations, exercises in textbooks, and questioning by teachers, parents, and interviewers to test the hearer's knowledge.

Yes–no questions

Form of *yes–no* questions

11.5 *Yes–no* questions are usually formed by placing the operator before the subject and giving the sentence a rising intonation:

The boat has LÈFT.	~ Has the boat LÉFT?
Ann is writing a PÀPer.	~ Is Ann writing a PÁPer?
Our team was BÈATen.	~ Was our team BÉATen?
He could have broken his LÈG.	~ Could he have broken his LÉG?
She'll be waiting outSÌDE.	~ Will she be waiting outSÍDE?

If there is no item in the verb phrase that can function as operator, DO is introduced, as with negation (*cf* 10.55):

They live in Sydney.	~ Do they live in Sydney?
Her efforts proved successful.	~ Did her efforts prove successful?
He likes driving.	~ Does he like driving?

Again as with negation, main verb BE functions as operator; in BrE main verb HAVE often acts as operator, but informally HAVE ... *got* is more common:

Patrick was late. ~ Was Patrick late?

She has a cold. ~ { Does she have a cold? ⟨esp AmE⟩ / Has she (got) a cold? ⟨esp BrE⟩ }

Note [a] Obviously, 1st and 2nd person pronouns are exchanged for one another when a question is converted into an equivalent statement in a logically well-formed reply:
Have *I* met you before? ~ Yes, *you* have.
Do *you* like this climate? ~ Yes, *I* do.
[b] Declarative questions (*cf* 11.12) are exceptional in not requiring subject–operator inversion.
[c] Rising intonation is the norm for *yes–no* questions, but falling intonation occurs quite frequently. In a collection of *yes–no* questions taken from the files of the Survey of English Usage, chiefly in surreptitiously recorded unscripted spoken material, 430 questions ended in a rise and 290 in a fall. Further analysis showed that *yes–no* questions with the modal operators *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, and *would* tended to have almost as many falling tones as rising tones.
[d] By placing the nuclear stress in a particular part of a *yes–no* question, we are able to focus the interrogation on a particular item of information which, unlike the rest of the sentence, is assumed to be unknown (*cf* focus of negation, 10.65). Thus the focus falls in different places in the following otherwise identical questions:
Was he a famous actor in THÓSE days?
['I know he was once a famous actor – but was it then or later?']

Was he a FÁMous actor in those days?
['I know he was an actor in those days – but was he a famous one?']
[e] *Yes–no* questions have also been called POLAR QUESTIONS (*cf* 10.54 Note [c]).

Positive *yes–no* questions

11.6 Like negative statements, *yes–no* questions may contain nonassertive forms such as *any* and *ever* (*cf* 10.60). The question containing such forms is generally neutral, with no bias in expectation towards a positive or negative response.

STATEMENT	QUESTION
Someone called last night.	Did *anyone* call last night?
The boat has left *already*.	Has the boat left *yet*?
I live *somewhere* near Dover.	Do you live *anywhere* near Dover?
I suppose *some* of the class will ask *some* boring questions.	Do you suppose *any* of the class will ask *any* boring questions?

But questions may be CONDUCIVE, *ie* they may indicate that the speaker is predisposed to the kind of answer he has wanted or expected. Thus, a positive question may be presented in a form which is biased towards a positive answer. It has positive orientation, for example, if it uses assertive forms rather than the usual nonassertive forms:

Did *someone* call last night? ['Is it true that someone called last night?']
Has the boat left *already*?
Do you live *somewhere* near Dover?

A positive question may also have negative orientation. Notice the effect of *really* in:

Do you *really* want to leave now? ['Surely you don't want to.']

A question that is not conducive, *ie* that has no bias for eliciting a positive or negative response, can be said to have NEUTRAL POLARITY.

Note Assertive forms in offers such as *Would you like some cake?* make the offer more polite, because of the assumption of a positive reply.

Negative *yes–no* questions

11.7 Negative questions are always conducive. Negative orientation is found in questions which contain a negative form of one kind or another:

Don't you believe me?	Have they never invited you home?
Aren't you joining us this evening?	Has nobody called?
Hasn't he told you what to do?	

Negative orientation is complicated by an element of surprise or disbelief. The implication is that the speaker had originally hoped for a positive response, but new evidence now suggests that the response will be negative. Thus, *Hasn't he told you what to do?* means 'Surely he has told you what to do, hasn't he? I would have thought that he had told you.' Here there is a combining of a positive and a negative attitude, which one may distinguish as the OLD EXPECTATION (positive) and NEW EXPECTATION (negative). Because

the old expectation tends to be identified with the speaker's hopes or wishes, negatively orientated questions often express disappointment or annoyance:

Can't you drive straight? ['I'd have thought you'd be able to, but apparently you can't.']
Aren't you ashamed of yourself? ['You ought to be, but it appears you're not.']

Notice the nonassertive items in the next two examples of negative orientation:

Hasn't the boat left *yet*? ['I'd hoped it would have left by now, but it seems it hasn't.']
Didn't he recognize you *either*? ['I'd thought he would, but it seems he didn't.']

If a negative question has assertive items, it is biased towards positive orientation:

Didn't *someone* call last night?	Didn't he recognize you *too*?
Hasn't the boat left *already*?	

Such questions are similar in effect to type (i) tag questions (*cf* 11.8), or alternatively to statements showing disbelief: 'Surely someone called last night!'

The position of the negative particle varies according to whether the full or enclitic negative particle is used; *n't* precedes the subject, whereas *not* generally follows it:

Did*n't* they warn you?	Have*n't* they left?
Did they *not* warn you?	Have they *not* left?

The construction with *not* after the subject is generally considered rather formal, and therefore the enclitic is usually preferred in spoken English. The formal alternative is particularly unlikely if the subject is lengthy. Both orders obey the general rule of subject–operator inversion, but since enclitic *n't* is fused with the operator into one grammatical word, it necessarily moves with the operator in subject–operator inversion.

Some speakers accept a third construction, also rather formal, in which the full particle is in the same position as the enclitic:

Is *not* history a social science?

This construction is especially likely in formal contexts where the subject is lengthy:

Does *not* everything we see about us testify to the power of Divine Providence?

The construction is an apparent exception to the regular placement of the subject immediately after the operator, but in print it may merely represent the printed equivalent of the attached enclitic. Focusing subjuncts (*cf* 8.116*ff*) can also appear between operator and subject, and their presence makes a preceding full particle more likely in formal contexts:

Did *not* even a single student come to the lecture?

Note [a] If the subject is or contains a quantifier, there is a difference in meaning according to whether the negative particle precedes or follows the subject:

Does*n't* anyone know the answer? ['Surely someone knows the answer.']

Does anyone *not* know the answer? ['Is there anyone who does not know the answer?']

[b] Negative exclamatory questions are discussed in 11.22, and negative rhetorical questions in 11.23.

[c] Although a negative subject of a statement cannot be replaced by *not* + nonassertive form (*cf* 10.58), the same restriction does not apply to negative questions, where the subject follows the clause negator *not*. Two question forms therefore correspond to the single positive form *No one believes me*: *Does no one believe me?* and *Doesn't anyone believe me?*

[d] Negative questions sometimes occur as elliptical responses. The negative question affirms the speaker's agreement with what another speaker has just said:

A: Her performance in *Rigoletto* was outstanding. B: Yes, wàsn't it?

Compare a fuller response in which the tag question might also have a falling tone:

Yes it was, wàsn't it?

The positive question as response here (*wàs* it?) would suggest that the speaker was not present at the performance and therefore cannot express an opinion. The positive question is also used to express disagreement, often ironically:

A: Isn't it a lovely day? B: ís it?

Tag questions

11.8 Maximum conduciveness is expressed by a further type of *yes–no* question which conveys positive or negative orientation – a tag question appended to a statement:

The boat hasn't left, *has it*?
Joan recognized you, *didn't she*?

The general rules for forming the most common types of tag question are:

(a) The tag question consists of operator and subject in that order (enclitic *n't*, if present, is attached to the operator, *cf* 11.7): *is he?*, *didn't she?*, *can't I?*, *will you?*. In formal English the negative particle is placed after the pronoun: *did they not?*, *is she not?* That position is usual in informal English in Northern BrE dialects.

(b) The operator is generally the same as the operator of the preceding statement (*cf* Note [c] below):

I *haven't* seen you before, *have* I?

If the statement has no operator, the dummy auxiliary DO is used, as for *yes–no* questions in general (*cf* 11.5):

She knows you, *doesn't* she?

(c) The subject of the tag must be a pronoun which either repeats, or is in coreference with, the subject of the statement, agreeing with it in number, person, and gender.

(d) If the statement is positive, the tag is generally negative, and vice versa (but *cf* 11.9).

(e) The nuclear tone of the tag occurs on the auxiliary, and is either rising or falling.

Four main types of tag question emerge from the observance of these rules. (The formula + Ŝ – Ť represents a positive statement with falling nuclear tone followed by a negative tag with rising tone. The other formulae are similarly explicable.)

POSITIVE + NEGATIVE

RISING TONE	FALLING TONE
(i) + Ŝ – Ť	(iii) + Ŝ – Ṫ
He likes his JÒB, DÓESn't he?	He likes his JÒB, DÒESn't he?

NEGATIVE + POSITIVE

RISING TONE	FALLING TONE
(ii) – Ŝ + Ť	(iv) – Ŝ + Ṫ
He doesn't like his JÒB, DÓES he?	He doesn't like his JÒB, DÒES he?

The meanings of these sentences, like their forms, involve a statement and a question; each of them, that is, asserts something, then invites the listener's response to it. Sentence (i), for example, can be rendered 'I assume he likes his job; am I right?', (ii) means the opposite: 'I assume he doesn't like his job; am I right?' (*cf* also 11.11). Clearly these sentences have a positive and a negative orientation respectively. A similar contrast exists between (iii) and (iv). But it is important, again, to separate two factors: an ASSUMPTION (expressed by the statement) and an EXPECTATION (expressed by the question). On this principle, we may distinguish the four types as:

(i)	Positive assumption	+ neutral expectation	+ Ŝ – Ť
(ii)	Negative assumption	+ neutral expectation	– Ŝ + Ť
(iii)	Positive assumption	+ positive expectation	+ Ŝ – Ṫ
(iv)	Negative assumption	+ negative expectation	– Ŝ – Ṫ

The tag with a rising tone invites verification, expecting the hearer to decide the truth of the proposition in the statement. The tag with the falling tone, on the other hand, invites confirmation of the statement, and has the force of an exclamation rather than a genuine question. In this respect, types (iii) and (iv) are like (though not as emphatic as) exclamatory *yes–no* questions with a falling tone (*cf* 11.22). Compare, for example, *Isn't it wonderful wÈAther!* with *It's wonderful wÈAther, ìsn't it?* and *Wasn't she ÀNgry!* with *She was ÀNgry, wàsn't she?*

Note [a] The tag normally mirrors the subject and auxiliary of the main clause of a complex sentence. There are exceptions, however, with verbs like *suppose* when they are introduced by a 1st person subject and followed by a *that*-clause:

I suppose you're not serious, are you? [*not* *I suppose you're not serious, don't I?]

A further stage of irregularity is introduced in cases of transferred negation (*cf* 14.36): *I don't suppose he's serious, is he?* Here, the subject of the tag is taken from the *that*-clause, but the absence of negation from the tag is explained with reference to the negative particle of the main clause, which applies *semantically* to the *that*-clause, since *I don't suppose he's serious* is equivalent to *I suppose he isn't serious*.

[b] If the sentence is long, the tag question is occasionally inserted in the middle, but between constituents:

It's true, *isn't it*, that you're thinking of giving up your job?

[c] The negative tag question following a positive statement with modal auxiliary *may* poses a problem because the abbreviated form *mayn't* is rare (virtually not found in AmE). There is no obvious solution for the tag question, though some speakers will substitute *mightn't* or *can't*, or – when the reference is future – *won't*:

?I may inspect the books, { mightn't I? / can't I?

?They may be here next week, { mightn't they? / won't they?

The unabbreviated form is fully acceptable, but limited to formal usage:
I may inspect the books, may I not?
They may be here next week, may they not?
In a tag question following a statement with *used to*, the operator is *did*:

They used to write to you, { didn't they? / did they not?

They { usedn't ⟨esp BrE⟩ (*cf* 3.44) / used not / didn't use ⟨esp AmE⟩ } to write to you, did they?

Shouldn't is sometimes substituted for *oughtn't* as an abbreviated form:

We ought to go now, { shouldn't we? / oughtn't we?

(On *aren't I*, *cf* 3.32).
[d] When the focus of a positive sentence is on a gradable unit, a negative tag question with a falling tone can be used as a response utterance to express agreement:
A: Their daughter is very clever.
B: (Yes,) ìsn't she? ['I agree']
Otherwise, the tag response with a rising tone expresses surprise, the tag being in constant polarity with the preceding statement:
A: Their daughter isn't very clever.
B: ísn't she? ['I thought she was.']
A: They're moving to New York.
B: ÁRE they? ['I didn't know that.']
A: They aren't moving to New York.
B: ÁREN't they? ['I thought they were.']

11.9 There is a further, less common, type of tag question in which both statement and question are positive:

Your car is outsìDE, ís it?
You've had an ÀCcident, HÁVE you?

The tag typically has a rising tone, and the statement is characteristically preceded by *oh* or *so*, indicating the speaker's arrival at a conclusion by inference, or by recalling what has already been said. The tone may sometimes be one of sarcastic suspicion:

So THÀT's your little, game, ís it?

We may therefore add a fifth, less usual, type of tag question to the earlier four types:

POSITIVE + POSITIVE
RISING TONE
(v) + Ŝ + T̂
So he likes his JÒB, DÓES he?

The tag of this type sometimes has no nucleus, but is part of the preceding tone unit. Its effect may be scolding (*Oh, you've had another accident, have you?*), sarcastic (*So that's your game, is it?*), or sarcastically contradictory (*So your car is outside, is it?*).

Note Logically we should expect an equivalent sixth type in which both statement and tag are negative:
NEGATIVE + NEGATIVE
RISING TONE
(vi) – Ŝ – T̂
So he doesn't like his JÒB, DÓESn't he?
This type, however, has not been clearly attested in actual use.

Tag questions with imperatives and exclamatives

11.10 Tag questions can be appended also to imperative sentences (*cf* 11.24*ff*), where they invite the listener's consent. For positive imperatives, types (i), (iii), and (v) are available. The auxiliary in the tag is usually *won't* for the negative and *will* for the positive, and the subject is usually *you*:

(i) Open the DÒOR, WÓN'T you?
(iii) Open the DÒOR, WÒN'T you?
(v) Open the DÒOR, WÍLL you?

Type (i) tag is least insistent, and type (v) tag is most insistent. Other auxiliaries and subjects also occur:

Open the door, can't you?
Hand me a knife, won't somebody?
Turn on the light, will somebody or other?
Save us a seat, can one of you?
Have another one, why don't you?

Negative imperatives are less commonly followed by tag questions. The only type that seems possible is *will you?* in type (iv), with a falling tone on the tag:

(iv) Don't make a NÒISE, WÌLL you?

The tag is a persuasive softener of the imperative. However, if the *will you?* is nonnuclear, it increases the peremptoriness of the directive.
First person plural imperatives (*cf* 11.26) may take *shall we?* as a tag question:

Let's play another game, / Let's not discuss it now, } shall we?

Type (iii) tag and the (only occasionally used) type (i) tag are appended to exclamatives (*cf* 11.31*f*). The tag questions invite the hearer's agreement:

(iii) How THÌN she is, ìsn't she?
(i) What a beautiful PÀINTing it is, ísn't it? ['Or don't you agree?']

The tag may also be appended to abbreviated verbless exclamations:

What a beautiful painting, isn't it?
How odd, isn't it?

Note The imperatives and the tag may be positive and have falling tones, but the sentence is then very peremptory and is considered ill-mannered:
Open the DÒOR, WÌLL you?

Invariant tag questions

11.11 Several other tag questions inviting the listener's response may be appended to statements and exclamations. They have the same form whether the statement is positive or negative, and take a rising tone:

They {forgot / didn't forget} to attend the lecture, {*am I right?* / *isn't that so?* / *don't you think?* / *wouldn't you say?*}

She passed the exam, / She didn't pass the exam, } {right? ⟨informal⟩ / eh? /eɪ/ ⟨casual, may be impolite⟩}

Again the falling tone is more insistent than the rising tone.

Note Comment clauses (such as *you know* and *I hope*, *cf* 15.54) may in general be considered invariant tags, though they are usually not questions.

Declarative questions

11.12 Not all *yes–no* questions have subject–operator inversion. The declarative question is a type of question which is identical in form to a declarative, except for the final rising question intonation. It is rather casual in tone:

You've got the EXPLÓSive?
They've spoken to the AMBÁSsador, of course?
You realize what the RÍSKS are?
Boris will be THÉRE, I suppose?
He didn't finish the RÁCE?

Declarative questions are conducive (*cf* 11.6), and resemble tag questions with a rising tone in that they invite the hearer's verification. Positive questions have positive orientation (*cf* 11.6), and can therefore accept only assertive forms (*cf* 10.60*f*):

He wants something to eat?
Somebody is with you?

When followed by a comment clause, the declarative may have a fall:

You realize what the RÌSKS are, I {GÁther. / HÓPE. / TRÚST.}

Negative questions have negative orientation, and nonassertive forms may be used following the negative:

You didn't get anything to eat?
You want nothing to eat yet?
Nobody ever stays at your place?

Note [a] A second interrogative use of the statement construction is for echo questions (*cf* 11.34*ff*).
[b] A tag question may be added to a declarative question:
You've got the EXPLÔSive, HÁVE you?
In that case the declarative usually has a falling tone.

***Yes–no* questions with modal auxiliaries**

11.13 The formation of *yes–no* questions with modal auxiliaries is subject to certain limitations and shifts of meaning. (For the negation of modal auxiliaries, *cf* 10.67*f*). The modals of permission (*may* ⟨esp BrE⟩, and *can*) and of obligation (*must* ⟨esp BrE⟩, and *have to*) generally involve the speaker's authority in statements and the hearer's authority in questions:

A: {May / Can} I leave now? ['Will *you* permit me . . .']

B: Yes, you {may / can}. ['*I* will permit you . . .']

A: {Must I / Do I have to} leave now? ['Are *you* telling me . . .']

B: Yes, you {must / have to}. ['*I* am telling you . . .']

This means that the question form anticipates the form appropriate for the answer.

A similar switch from hearer to speaker takes place with *shall* [volition], which (esp in BrE) involves the speaker's will in statements, but the hearer's will in questions:

You shall suffer for this! [rare; '*I* intend to make you suffer . . .!']
Shall I switch off the television? ['Do *you* want me to . . .?']

Shall is rare with *you* as subject, and generally infrequent in AmE, except for inviting or requesting agreement (*Shall we eat now?*). It is unlike the other modals in two respects. First, its use in questions is virtually restricted to first person subjects. Secondly, its declarative use is not symmetrical with its interrogative use; hence, *shall* is not repeated in the response to a question with *shall*. The expected response after *shall I* and exclusive *shall we* is agreement, and may be a 2nd person imperative. After inclusive *shall we* it is a 1st person imperative:

A: Shall we carry your suitcases? ['Would you like us to . . .?']
B: Yes, please do (so).
A: Shall we have dinner? ['Would you like us (including you) to . . .?']
B: Yes, let's.

May in the possibility sense is not often used in questions:

May we be doing him an injustice?

Can or (more commonly in AmE) *could* replaces it:

A: {Can / Could} they have missed the bus?

B: Yes, they {may have. / might have.}

The hypothetical uses (*cf* 4.62) of the auxiliaries *might* [permission], *would* [volition], and *could* [volition] require special treatment, since in *yes–no*

questions these past forms are regularly used for politeness. If modal auxiliaries are retained, the present forms are generally substituted for *might* and *would* in responses, and the present form is usual for *could*:

A: Might I call you by your first name?
B: Yes, you may. [1]
A: Would you pay for me?
B: Yes, I will. [2]
A: Could I see you for a moment?
B: Yes, you can. [Also *may* ⟨esp BrE⟩, and less usually, *could*] [3]

A more common response for [1–3] would be (*Yes,*) *of course*. Other responses might be (*Yes,*) *please do* for [1] and *I'll be glad to* for [2]. The questions have the polite past forms appropriate to their illocutionary force as requests.

Need (esp in BrE) is used as a nonassertive modal auxiliary, although (esp in AmE) the main verb *need* (*cf* 3.41*f*) and *do have to* are common substitutes:

Need they leave now? ⟨esp BrE⟩

Do they {need to / have to} leave now?

But the corresponding positive forms are *must*, *have to*, or the main verb *need*:

Yes, they {must. / have to. / need to.}

On the other hand, *must* in the necessity sense has positive orientation:

Why must it always rain when we want to have a picnic?

(On this last example, *cf* the discussion of rhetorical questions in 11.23.) Notice the assertive *always* after *must*, in contrast to the possible nonassertive *ever* after *need*:

Must it always happen this way?
Need it ever [*also*: always] happen this way?

Dare is occasionally used as a nonassertive modal auxiliary, especially in BrE. Common substitutes are the main verb *dare* and (esp in AmE) the blend construction with *dare* (DO and the bare infinitive, *cf* 3.42):

Do you dare to cast aspersions on my character?
Dare I suggest a compromise between your two positions? ⟨esp BrE⟩
Do we dare tell them the truth? ⟨esp AmE⟩

Negative responses may repeat the same verbs, but positive forms require the main verb *dare*:

Yes, they dared to complain.

Note As with the negative, *ought* may occur either with the *to*-infinitive or with the bare infinitive (*cf* 3.43).

Wh-questions

Form of *wh*-questions

11.14 *Wh*-questions are formed with the aid of one of the following simple interrogative words (or *wh*-words):

who/whom/whose, what, which, when, where, how, why

Unlike *yes–no* questions, *wh*-questions generally have falling intonation. As a rule,

(i) the *wh*-element (*ie* the clause element containing the *wh*-word) comes first in the sentence (apart from some conjuncts, such as *on the other hand*);
(ii) the *wh*-word itself takes first position in the *wh*-element.

The only exception to the second principle occurs when the *wh*-word is within a prepositional complement. Here English provides a choice between two constructions, one being formal. In formal style, the preposition precedes the complement, whereas otherwise the complement comes first and the preposition is deferred to the end of the sentence:

On what did you base your prediction? ⟨formal⟩
What did you base your prediction *on*?

We may perhaps express this difference more neatly by saying that neutral style generally requires that the *wh*-word comes first, but formal English requires that the *wh*-element as a whole comes first.

Note [a] *Wh*-questions are also called INFORMATION QUESTIONS.
[b] The *wh*-words are sometimes modified (except in formal style) by the intensifier *ever*, which emphasizes the bafflement or emotional involvement of the speaker. Usually they are spelled as two separate words, and *why ever* is invariably spelled so. They are thereby distinguished from the subordinating *wh*-words *whenever, whoever, however*, etc.

Why ever didn't he tell me? How ever did you find the key?
What ever are you doing? Who ever would want such a magazine?

Various other ways exist of intensifying the emotive effect of a *wh*-question:

Who *on earth* opened my letter? ⟨informal⟩
Who *the hell* are you? ⟨casual⟩
What *in heaven's name* do you think you're doing? ⟨casual⟩

[c] In a collection of 858 *wh*-questions from the files of the Survey of English Usage, chiefly in surreptitiously recorded spoken unscripted material, 775 had falling intonation.
[d] On factors affecting the choice between *who* and *whom*, *cf* 6.35, 6.38, 7.14*ff*.
[e] The construction with a preposition in final position (*cf* 9.6) is less desirable when the preposition is remote from its complement or when it is syntactically bound closer to the complement than to the verb. Awkward sentences like *What time did you tell him to meet us at?* are generally avoided. A sentence like that would be replaced by *At what time did you tell him to meet us?* in formal style or, more generally, by *When did you tell him to meet us?* or prepositionless *What time did you tell him to meet us?* The awkwardness reaches comic proportions when several final particles cooccur: *What did you bring this book to be read out of up for?*

The prepositions *since* and *during* occur only at the beginning of the question: *Since when do I have to explain my actions to you?, During which years were you living in Germany? Until* is also usually placed initially, although *till* can be regularly deferred: ?*When are you staying until?, When are you staying till?* (*cf* also 11.15 Note [a]).
[f] There are occasional declarative *wh*-questions, where the *wh*-element remains in the position normal in declaratives for that item. They are associated with interviews and interrogations:

A: So you boarded the train *where*? B: At Los Angeles.
A: And you got off *at what station*? B: At San Diego.

These declarative *wh*-questions are to be distinguished from echo questions (*cf* 11.34*ff*).

Functions of *wh*-element

11.15 The following sentences exemplify the various clause functions in which the *wh*-element operates:

Who ever opened my LÈTter? [*wh*-element: S]	[1]
Which books have you LÈNT him? [*wh*-element: O_d]	[2]
Whose beautiful anTÌQUES are these? [*wh*-element: C_s]	[3]
How wide did they make the BÒOKcase? [*wh*-element: C_o]	[4]
When will you be proMÒTed? [*wh*-element: A]	[5]
Where shall I put the GLÀSSes? [*wh*-element: A]	[6]
Why are they always comPLÀINing? [*wh*-element: A]	[7]
How did you MÈND it? [*wh*-element: A]	[8]
How much does he CÀRE? [*wh*-element: A]	[9]
How long have you been WÀITing? [*wh*-element: A]	[10]
How often do you visit New YÒRK? [*wh*-element: A]	[11]

We see above that normal statement order of elements is altered in *wh*-questions not only by the initial placing of the *wh*-element, but by the inversion of subject and operator in all cases except when the *wh*-element is subject, where the rule that the *wh*-element takes initial position applies, overriding the rule of inversion.

Subject–operator inversion is the same in its application to *wh*-questions as in its application to *yes–no* questions; if there is no operator in the equivalent statement, DO is introduced as operator in the question. The main verb BE and (occasionally, esp in BrE) HAVE act as operator: *Where is she?, What kind of car have they?*

Note [a] Adjuncts of instrument, reason, and purpose are normally questioned by the prepositional constructions:

What shall I mend it *with*? *What* did you do that *for*?

Although the latter could be replaced by *Why did you do that?*, it has no alternative with a preposed preposition: **For what did you do that?* In this respect it is like informal questions with BE followed by a final preposition: *What was it like?* (but not **Like what was it?*); *What was it in?* (but not **In what was it?*).

[b] Abbreviated questions consisting of a *wh*-word and a final preposition (which in this construction regularly bears nuclear stress), *eg*: *What FÒR?, Where FRÒM/TÒ?, What WÌTH?, Who WÌTH/BÝ?*, are as popular in informal speech as questions consisting of the *wh*-word only: *Where?, Why?, Who?* There is a common abbreviated negative question *Why NÒT?* (*cf* 11.17), and an informal abbreviated reason question (esp in AmE) *How CÒME?* (*cf* also 11.40 Note [a]).

[c] Although there is no *wh*-word for the verb, the content of the predication can be questioned by *what* as the object of the generalized agentive verb *do* or as subject of the generalized event verb *happen*:

A: What are you doing? B: I'm reading.
A: What have you done with my book? B: I've hidden it.
A: What's happening? B: It's snowing.

[d] Many speakers do not accept an indirect object as *wh*-element: ?*Who(m) did you give the present?* They use the equivalent prepositional complement construction instead: *Who(m) did you give the present to?* or (in formal style) *To whom did you give the present?* Some speakers, however, find the construction acceptable if there is no ambiguity as to which object is direct and which indirect. (There is ambiguity in **Who did you show your daughter?*)

[e] In *wh*-questions of the *SVC* pattern, it is possible to distinguish between noun phrases as S and C by signals of case and concord, where these apply: *Which is me?* (*wh*-element as S – said, for example, when looking at a photograph) contrasts with *Which am I?* (*wh*-element as C). *Whose* in the *SVC* sentence pattern must be C: *Whose is that book?*

The potential response may also indicate the clause elements:

A: Who was Hamlet? B: My brother was.
[*Who* is S, identifying a character in a play]
A: Who was Augustus? B: Augustus was a Roman Emperor.
[*Who* is C, referring to identity]
A: What was your brother? B: He was Hamlet.
[*What* is C, characterizing a role in a play, *cf* 6.39]

Notice the ambiguity of *Who* in the following:

A: Who is the captain?
B: My brother is. [*Who* is S]
B: The captain is my brother. [*Who* is C]

[f] *Why* ⟨esp AmE⟩ and *what* are used in informal speech as introductory words to express surprise, both with questions and with statements:

Why, what did she say? What, is the bus here already?
Why, they won't object. What, he couldn't have passed.

Why is also used informally after conditional clauses, especially in AmE. It is a more emphatic conjunct than *then* (*cf* 8.135):

If HÉ doesn't want to press charges, why YÒU should.

[g] For irregular *wh*-questions – such as those beginning with *how come, how about*, and *what about* – *cf* 11.40.

[h] *How goes it?* is a surviving common example of a *wh*-question that lacks the usual operator and inversion (*cf*: *How did it go?*).

[i] Interrogative *how* has various senses. Notice the ambiguity of *How does it work?*, where *how* may refer to process or effect. *How* is also used as a *wh*-word for a complement as current attribute (*cf* 10.20):

A: How is she? B: Fine. [evaluation of health or some other aspect]
A: How was the book? B: Excellent. [evaluative]

For *how* in the nonhealth evaluative sense, *What . . . like?* is available as an informal synonym (*cf* Note [a] above). *How, how much, how far*, and *to what extent* are used with gradable verbs as intensifying *wh*-elements: *How did you like her?, How much do you miss him?, How far do they agree with us?, To what extent would you trust them?*

Positive *wh*-questions

11.16 A *wh*-question may generally be matched with a statement called its presupposition. This is a statement which, in place of the *wh*-element, contains an indefinite expression such as *somebody*. The presupposed statement, which is assumed to be true by whoever uses the question, preserves of course normal statement ordering. Hence, if we list the presuppositions corresponding to some of questions [1–11] in 11.15, we can clarify the syntactic ordering of *wh*-questions in relation to statements:

PRESUPPOSITIONS

Someone opened my letter.	[1a]
You have lent him *some of the books*.	[2a]
You will be promoted *sometime*.	[5a]
You mended it *somehow*.	[8a]
You visit New York *sometimes*.	[11a]

Modifying *what* and *which* (*cf* 6.39) have different presuppositions:

What composer(s) do you like best?
~ You like *some composer(s)* best.
Which composer(s) do you like best?
~ You like $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{some}\\ \textit{one}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *of the composers* best.

In some cases there is no sensible presupposition:

How does he feel? ~ *He feels somehow or other.
Where was she born? ~ She was born somewhere.
What time is it? ~ It's some time or other.
How should I know?
Why should I?

As the above examples indicate, a positive *wh*-question may generally be matched with a positive presupposition. There may, however, be no presupposition if nonassertive items (*cf* 10.60) are present:

When will we *ever* win *any* prizes?
What help have they *ever* given us?
Who has *any* money?

The questions are conducive, having a negative orientation. Questions introduced by *Why do you* have a positive presupposition, but a negative orientation when they have the illocutionary force of directives:

Why do you bother to reply? ['You are replying but shouldn't bother to reply.']
Why do you make so much fuss? ['You are making a lot of fuss but shouldn't make so much fuss.']

As a directive, it cannot have a past form. Thus *Why did you bother to reply?* is an inquiry, not a directive, though the overtone is still negative.

The abbreviated form with the bare infinitive is always a directive:

Why bother to reply?
Why make so much fuss?

Note On rhetorical *wh*-questions, *cf* 11.23.

Negative *wh*-questions

11.17 *Wh*-questions can also be negative:

Who hasn't had any coffee? [1]
Why didn't you tell me? [2]
When shouldn't I call? [3]
Which books don't you want? [4]
Where didn't you clean? [5]
How long haven't you heard from them? [6]
How often didn't he pay his rent? [7]

The presuppositions can be listed just as for positive questions (*cf* 11.16):

Somebody hasn't had any coffee. [1a]
You didn't tell me *for some reason.* [2a]
I shouldn't call *at some time.* [3a]
You don't want *some books.* [4a]
You didn't clean *in some place.* [5a]
You haven't heard from them *for some time.* [6a]
He didn't pay his rent *a number of times.* [7a]

In [1a–7a] the presupposed particular unknown is outside the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64). Thus [4a] may be paraphrased by 'There are some books that you don't want'.

Questions beginning with *Why don't you* and the abbreviated *Why not* are commonly used as directives (*cf* 11.16). The directives are invitations or (more commonly in AmE) suggestions or instructions:

Why don't you shave?
Why don't you clean your teeth?
Why don't you come for a meal one day next week?
Why don't you make yourself an egg?
Why don't you revise this paper?
Why not ignore their remarks?
Why not go by train?

Why don't you conveys advice, but it frequently has a critical and irritable tone, since it is used when the hearer has not performed or is not performing the recommended activity:

Why don't you take sleeping tablets? ['Anyone else would.']
Why don't you see a doctor?

Why don't you, unlike *Why not*, may also be used as an inquiry. Like the inquiry, the directive allows nonassertive items (*Why don't you ever write?*), but unlike the inquiry, the directive does not allow a past form of the verb (*Why didn't you write?*). On the other hand, the directive takes the operator *do* before *be*: *Why don't you be quieter?* (*cf* the inquiry *Why aren't you quieter?*). In these syntactic features, directives beginning with *Why don't you* and *Why not* resemble imperative sentences, which normally have the illocutionary force of directives.

Especially in AmE, *Why don't I* is used for offers (*Why don't I give you a hand?*), or *Why don't we* for offers (*Why don't we give you a hand?*) or suggestions (*Why don't we have a rest now?*).

Pushdown *wh*-element

11.18 In 11.15, the *wh*-element was shown to operate in various clause functions. But it can also operate indirectly in the main clause, as part of another clause element. We call the *wh*-element in such cases a PUSHDOWN element. Here are instances in which the *wh*-element is a pushdown element, the presuppositions being given in parentheses.

(I) *wh*-element as prepositional complement within a noun phrase:
(i) the prepositional phrase as adjunct:

{ *What side of the road* was he driving on?
{ On *what side of the road* was he driving? ⟨formal⟩
[He was driving on *one side of the road.*]

(ii) the prepositional phrase as modifier of a noun phrase:

{ *Which country* is Caracas the capital of? ⟨informal⟩
{ Of *which country* is Caracas the capital?
[Caracas is the capital of *some country.*]

(II) *wh*-element as element in a nominal *that*-clause or a *to*-infinitive or *-ing* clause; the clause functions as direct object in the main clause:

How long did he tell you (that) he waited?
[He told you (that) he waited *for some length of time*.]
What would you like me to buy?
[You would like me to buy *something*.]
What kinds of novels do you enjoy reading?
[You enjoy reading *some kinds of novels*.]

(III) *wh*-element as prepositional complement within a noun phrase, the noun phrase in turn functioning as element in a nominal clause – a combination of (I) and (II):

Who did the textbook say (that) Queen Elizabeth was the daughter of? ⟨informal⟩
[The textbook said that Queen Elizabeth was the daughter of some person]

(IV) *wh*-element as element (or part of an element) in a clause that is complementation to an adjective:

{ *What* is he ready to confess to?
{ To *what* is he ready to confess? ⟨formal⟩
[He is ready to confess to *something*.]
How much is she ready to pay? [She is ready to pay *something*.]

Note [a] There are limits to what can be a pushdown *wh*-element. Among the exclusions are:
(i) the complement of a prepositional phrase functioning as disjunct (*to my regret*) or conjunct (*on the contrary*), *cf* 8.121*ff*.
(ii) the complement of many prepositional phrases functioning as adjunct, when the complement refers to a specific time (*Monday*), place (*Denver*), or process (*great firmness*). The complement can, however, often be questioned by a *wh*-element with a general noun (*What day did you meet on?*, *What city did you go to?*, *In what manner did you speak to them?*)
(iii) an element in a relative clause or an adverbial clause.
(iv) an element in a nominal interrogative or nominal relative clause. This restriction is sometimes relaxed for nominal interrogative clauses in unscripted speech, particularly for *yes–no* interrogative clauses introduced by *whether* and functioning as direct object; a pronoun is inserted in the subordinate clause if the preposed *wh*-element functions as subject in the subordinate clause. These are felt to be deviant, but they are sometimes used because there is no obvious alternative:
?*Which exam* did you ask whether he would pass?
?*Who else* did you notice whether *they* passed the exam?
(v) an element in a coordinated phrase or clause.
[b] In complex sentences a pushdown *wh*-element may be ambiguous, functioning either in the main clause or in a subordinate clause:
When did she promise to meet him?
When may refer to the time of promising or to the time of meeting.

More than one *wh*-element

11.19 Ordinary questions can have more than one *wh*-element (for echo questions, *cf* 11.34*ff*):

I heard that Sylvia and Jane accused their husbands of various misdeeds, but *who* accused *whom* of *what*?
Which present did you give to *whom*?

If one of the *wh*-elements is subject, it must be initial:

Who said *what* to *whom*?

Otherwise, there is a choice as to which *wh*-element is fronted, so that the same question may be put in more than one way. Consider the presupposition:

You have hidden something somewhere.

We can move from it to either of these questions:

What have you hidden *where*? *Where* have you hidden *what*?

Generally, only one *wh*-element is fronted, but adverbial *wh*-elements may be coordinated:

When and where did they meet? *How and why* did it happen?

Alternatively, the second coordinated *wh*-element may be appended (*cf* 13.94):

When did they meet, and *where*?

If only one *wh*-element is adverbial and the other is direct object, only appended coordination is fully acceptable:

What does she teach, *and where*? *Who* did he hit, and *why*?
?*What and where* does she teach? ?*Who and why* did he hit?

Note Declarative *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.14 Note [f]) may rarely also have more than one *wh*-element:
Well now, you say your wife is a teacher. She teaches *what where*?

Alternative questions

11.20 There are two types of alternative questions. The first resembles a *yes–no* question, and the second a *wh*-question:

Would you like CHÓcolate, vaNÍLla, or STRÀWberry (ice cream)? [1]
Which ice cream would you LÌKE? CHÓcolate, vaNÍLla or STRÀWberry? [2]

The first type differs from a *yes–no* question only in intonation; instead of the final rising tone, it contains a separate nucleus for each alternative: a rise occurs on each item in the list, except the last, on which there is a fall, indicating that the list is complete. The difference of intonation between alternative and *yes–no* questions is important, in that ignoring it can lead to misunderstanding – as the contrast between these replies indicates:

alternative: A: Shall we go by BÚS or TRÀIN? B: By BÙS.
yes–no: A: Shall we go by bus or TRÁIN? B: No, let's take the CÀR.

The second type of alternative question is really a compound of two separate questions: a *wh*-question followed by an elliptical alternative question. Thus [2] might be taken as a reduced version of:

Which ice cream would you LÌKE? Would you like CHÓcolate, vaNÍLla, or STRÀWberry?

An alternative question presupposes the truth of only one of the propositions:

Are you a DÉMOCRAT or a REPÙBLICAN?
[You are either a Democrat or a Republican.]
Do you want SHÉRBET, YÓGHURT, or FRÙIT?
[You are being given a choice of only one of the three.]

A *yes–no* question presupposes that one of two mutually exclusive possibilities is true:

Are you RÉADY?

Converting a *yes–no* question into an alternative question introduces this tautology into the presupposition:

ÁRE you ready or ÀREN'T you ready?
[Either you are ready or you are not ready.]

The second conjoin may be reduced to *or not*:

ÁRE you ready or NÒT?

The tautology gives a petulant tone to the question and explains why such questions are not normal.

Note [a] An alternative question corresponding to a *yes–no* question is distinctly odd in certain sentences; for example, if the question has the illocutionary force of an invitation or a request:
?Would you have some more coffee or not?
?Will you open the door please or not?
There is no tautology if there is a nontrivial alternative:

Will you open the door please, or { should I? / would you rather not?

[b] The second part of the *wh*-alternative question may be considered a kind of appositive to the *wh*-element:

Who / *Which of them* } do you like best, *Tom or Derek*?

11.21 The structure of alternative *yes–no* questions follows the pattern of coordination (*cf* 13.43*ff*), the ellipted forms generally being preferred, where they are possible:

Did ÍTALY win the World Cup or did BRAZÌL win the World Cup?
Did ÍTALY win the World Cup or did BRAZÌL?
Did ÍTALY win the World Cup or BRAZÌL?

Often the remaining part of a second or subsequent alternative question is fronted to the appropriate position in the first question:

Did ÍTALY or BRAZÌL win the World Cup?

This type of fronting is also possible for the vacuous negative alternative:

Are you CÓMing or ÀREN'T you (coming)?
ÁRE you or ÀREN'T you coming?

There is no fronted version of *Are you coming or not?* (**Are you or not coming?*) because fronting would violate the requirement of structure equivalence of conjoins (*cf* 13.49).

Minor types of questions

Exclamatory questions

11.22 The exclamatory question is interrogative in structure, but has the illocutionary force of an exclamatory assertion. Typically it is a negative *yes–no* question with a final falling instead of rising tone:

Hasn't she GRÒWN!
Wasn't it a marvellous CÒNcert!

These invite the hearer's agreement to something on which the speaker has strong feelings. The meaning, contrary to the appearance of the literal wording, is vigorously positive.

A positive *yes–no* question, also with a falling tone, is another (but less common) way of expressing a strong positive conviction:

'Am 'I HÙNGry! 'Did 'he look anNÒYED! 'Has 'she GRÒWN!

Both operator and subject usually receive emphatic stress. In written English an exclamation mark is usual at the end of the sentence for both kinds of exclamatory question.

The falling tone for negative and positive exclamatory questions has an effect similar to, but more emphatic than, the falling tone in tag questions (*cf* 11.8).

It seems odd that pairs of sentences which contrast in positive–negative polarity should have roughly the same effect: *Has she grown! Hasn't she grown!* There is, however, a slight difference: the negative question has, as a feature of its meaning, an appeal for the listener's confirmation; the positive question, on the other hand, implies that the positive response is self-evident, and would therefore be more appropriate where the listener's agreement would normally not be solicited, as in *Am I hungry!* (The experience reported here is of course not shared by the listener.) In situations where both the negative and the positive questions are possible, the difference is roughly represented by these paraphrases:

Wasn't it a marvellous CÒNcert! = 'What a marvellous CÒNcert it was!'
Has she GRÒWN! = 'She HÀS grown!'

Exclamatory questions do not admit nonassertives: *Hasn't she yet grown?* is an inquiry. Negative exclamatory questions must take enclitic *n't*; *Has she not grown?* is an inquiry, not an exclamation.

Note In AmE an exclamatory question can be pronounced with a rising tone:
Wasn't the concert terRÍfic?
But in this case, the expectation of a response is stronger.

Rhetorical questions

11.23 The rhetorical question is interrogative in structure, but has the force of a strong assertion. It generally does not expect an answer.

A positive rhetorical *yes–no* question is like a strong negative assertion, while a negative question is like a strong positive one.

POSITIVE:

Is that a reason for desPÁIR? ['Surely that is not a reason . . .']
Can anyone doubt the WÍSdom of this action? ['Surely no one can doubt . . .']

NEGATIVE:

Isn't the answer ÓBvious? ['Surely the answer is obvious.']
Haven't you got anything better to DÓ? ['Surely you have something better to do.']

Unlike exclamatory questions, these rhetorical questions have the normal rising intonation of a *yes–no* question, and are distinguished chiefly by the range of pitch movement.

There are also rhetorical *wh*-questions. The positive question is equivalent to a statement in which the *wh*-element is replaced by a negative element:

Who KNÔWS/CÂRES? ['Nobody knows/cares' *or* 'I don't know/care.']
What DÎFference does it make? ['It makes no difference.']
How should î know? ['There is no reason why I should know.']
What SHÔULD I say? ['There is nothing that I should say.']
What makes YÔU think you can do better? ['Nothing should make you think you can do better.']
How can î help it? ['There is no reason why I can help it.']

Nonassertives may occur:

What has HÊ ever done for you?
Who has any MÔNey to spare these days?

The less common negative question is equivalent to a statement in which the *wh*-element is replaced by a positive element:

Who DÔESn't know? ['Everybody knows.']
How CÔULDn't you remember? ['You certainly should have remembered.']

Wh-questions generally have a rise–fall tone, less commonly a simple falling tone.

Rhetorical questions may also be responses to previous questions:

A: Do you want to eat? B: Do I look HÚNgry?

Note Some questions, termed RATIOCINATIVE QUESTIONS, are self-addressed. They are like rhetorical questions in not expecting an answer from others:
Let me see. Should I take the car or go by bus?
But the speaker may answer such a question:
What do I want to ÊAT? Well, a roll will do.

Directives

Directives without a subject

11.24 Directives typically take the form of an imperative sentence, which differs from a declarative sentence in that:

(i) it generally has no subject, but *cf* 11.25;

(ii) it has either a main verb in the base form or (less commonly) an auxiliary in the base form followed by the appropriate form of the main verb.

Otherwise, the clause patterns of imperative sentences show the same range and ordering of elements as declaratives (*cf* 10.2):

(*S*) *V*: Jump.
(*S*) *VO*: Open the door.
(*S*) *VC*: Be reasonable.
(*S*) *VA*: Get inside.
(*S*) *VOO*: Tell me the truth.
(*S*) *VOC*: Consider yourself lucky.
(*S*) *VOA*: Put the flowers on the table.

The imperative verb lacks tense distinction and does not allow modal auxiliaries. The progressive form is rare, and the perfective even rarer:

Be listening to this station the same time tomorrow night.
Be doing your homework when your parents arrive home.
Start the book and have finished it before you go to bed. (*cf* Note [a])

Passives with *be* occur chiefly in negative directives, where they generally have the meaning 'Don't allow yourself to be . . .':

Don't be deceived by his looks. Don't be made to look foolish.
Don't be bullied into signing. Don't be told what to do.

They are less common in positive directives:

Be guided by what I say.
Be reassured by me.
Hire a Rolls Royce and be driven around by a uniformed chauffeur.

What might be treated as passives occur with *get* (*cf* 3.66 on the *get*-passive):

Get washed. Get transferred. Get known.
Get dressed. Get weighed. Get introduced.
Don't get misled by their promises.
Get lost. ['go away' ⟨informal⟩]
Don't get dressed yet.

Imperatives are restricted to predications that allow a dynamic interpretation, hence the incongruity of **Need a car*, **Be old*, **Sound louder*. Many predications that are stative with respect to disallowing the progressive (*cf* 4.27*ff*) are easily available with a dynamic interpretation for imperatives: *Forgive us*, *Love your enemies*, *Owe nobody anything*, *Be early*, *Be glad that you*

escaped without injury, Don't be a stranger, Be a pilot, Know the poem by heart by the next lesson.

Imperatives refer to a situation in the immediate or more remote future and are therefore incompatible with time adverbials that refer to a time period in the past or that have habitual reference: **Come yesterday*, **Usually drive your car*. Imperatives also do not cooccur with comment disjuncts (*cf* 8.127), since these disjuncts comment on propositions (*cf* the same constraint with questions): **Unfortunately, pay your rent now*. On tag questions with imperatives, *cf* 11.10.

Note [a] The rare perfective construction *Have finished it before you go to bed* is to be contrasted with the common causative complex-transitive *Have it finished before you go to bed*, where *have* is an active imperative and *finished* is a simple passive in the dependent clause; *cf*: *Get it finished before you go to bed*. The two sentences, however, are closely similar in meaning. The idiomatic *Have done with it* is presumably to be analysed as having a perfective imperative verb.
[b] The perfective passive may very occasionally be found with past time reference in a private prayer referring to information not yet known to the speaker: ?*Please, dad, don't have been in that plane.*
[c] For reported imperatives in indirect speech, *cf* 14.33.
[d] *Be seated* and *be prepared* are examples of pseudo-passives (*cf* 3.77).

Directives with a subject

11.25 It is intuitively clear that the meaning of a directive implies that the omitted subject is the 2nd person pronoun *you*. The implication can be demonstrated by the occurrence of *you* as subject of a following tag question (*Be quiet, will you?*), by the occurrence of only *yourself* or *yourselves* as the reflexive (*Behave yourself* or *Behave yourselves*, not **Behave myself*, etc), and by the occurrence of only the emphatic possessive *your own* (*Use your own comb*, not **Use her own comb*, etc).

There is, however, a type of directive in which the stressed subject *you* is added. *You* may be noncontrastive and admonitory:

'You be QÙIet!
'You 'mind your own BÙSiness, and 'leave this to MÈ!
'You 'show me what to DÒ.
'You 'take the BÒOK.

They frequently express strong irritation or (as in the last two examples) merely insistence. On the other hand, noncontrastive *you* may be persuasive:

I know you can do it if you try hard enough. 'You 'show me what you can DÒ.

You may also be contrastive in the sense of addressee-distinguishing, singling out one person or one set of persons. The identity of the persons may be made clear by a vocative or by some gesture such as pointing:

Don't tell MÊ to be quiet. YÒU be quiet!
Here! YÒU take the book!
'You take THÍS chair, and I'll take THÀT one.

Vocative *you*, as opposed to imperative subject *you*, is very impolite:

YÒU| 'come HÈRE|

Third person subjects are also possible:

Somebody open this door.
Everybody shut their eyes.
Parents with children go to the front.
Nobody move.
Men in the front row take one step forward.

It is easy to confuse the subject, in these commands, with a vocative noun phrase (*cf* 10.52*f*). But whereas the subject always precedes the verb, the vocative is an element that can occur in final and medial, as well as initial, positions in the sentence. Another difference is that the vocative, when initially placed, has a separate tone unit (typically fall–rise); the subject merely receives ordinary word stress:

VOCATIVE: MĂRY, play on MÌ side.
Play on MÌ side, MÁRY.
SUBJECT: 'Mary play on MÌ side.

The distinctness of vocative and imperative subject is confirmed by the possibility of their cooccurrence:

JÒHN, 'you listen to MÈ!

Note [a] Apart from *will you?*, other tag questions heard with an imperative are *would you?, could you?, can you?, won't you?, can't you?, wouldn't you?, couldn't you?* Also the familiar *wh*-question *why don't you?* is sometimes appended: *Take a rest, why don't you?*
[b] Directives with 3rd person subjects take either 2nd or 3rd person pronouns in the tag question: *Somebody open this door, will you?/will they?*
[c] There is similar uncertainty about the person of a reflexive pronoun after a 3rd person subject: *Everyone behave yourselves* and *Everyone behave themselves* both seem acceptable. (On the use of a plural substitute pronoun for *everyone*, *cf* 10.43.) With a vocative, in contrast, only the 2nd person reflexive, in agreement with the understood subject, is allowable: *Behave yourselves, everybody.*
[d] Another confusion easily made is that between a directive with *you* as subject and a statement with *you* as subject as used, for example, in giving street directions: *You go up there until you reach the bridge, then you turn right* ... It is the unstressed subject of the statement that distinguishes it formally from the directive, since the subject of a directive is always stressed, even if a pronoun: '*You go up there*. Needless to say, the admonitory tone of the directive would be quite unsuitable in giving street directions. (The negative *don't you* is less peremptory.)

Directives with *let*

11.26 First person imperatives can be formed by preposing the verb *let* followed by a subject in the objective case (*cf* 3.51):

Let us all work hard.
Let me think what to do next.
Let me see now. Do I have any money on me?

(*Cf* also ratiocinative questions, 11.23 Note). The same applies to 3rd person subjects:

Let no one think that a teacher's life is easy.
Let each man decide for himself.
If anyone shrinks from this action, *let him* speak now.

Except for the *let me* type, these are generally rather archaic and elevated in tone. A colloquial alternative to *let us*, however, is the common abbreviated form *let's*:

Let's have a party.
Let's enjoy ourselves.

In very colloquial English, *let's* is sometimes used for a 1st person singular imperative as well: *Let's give you a hand.* There are no 2nd person imperatives with *let*: **Let you have a look.*

Note [a] This type of imperative, in which *let* is no more than an introductory particle, should be kept separate from the ordinary 2nd person imperative of *let* as a transitive verb. That they are distinct is shown by the fact that *Let us go* in the sense 'Permit us to go' cannot be abbreviated to *Let's go*. Furthermore, the full verb *let* is followed by a tag question with *you* as subject (*Let us go, will you?*), whereas the 1st person imperative is followed by a tag question with *we* as subject (*Let's go, shall we?*). In *Let's don't forget* ⟨esp AmE⟩, the particle is institutionalized (*cf* 3.51 Note [b]).
[b] *Let's have a look* can refer to the speaker alone. Compare *Give us a hand to get the car started*, where *us* can also refer merely to the speaker.

Summary of forms of imperatives

11.27 We can now summarize the structural types of imperative:

		1st PERSON	2nd PERSON	3rd PERSON
without subject		—	(i) Open the door.	—
with subject	without *let*	—	(ii) You open the door.	(iii) Someone open the door.
	with *let*	(iv) Let me open the door. Let's open the door.	—	(v) Let someone open the door.

By far the most common type is the subjectless 2nd person imperative (class (i)).

Negative imperatives

11.28 To negate the first three classes of imperative, one simply adds an initial *Don't* or *Do not*, replacing assertive by nonassertive items where necessary:

(i) { Open the door.
Consider, my friends, that all is lost.

~ { *Don't* open the door.
Do not, my friends, consider that all is lost. ⟨formal⟩

(ii) You open the door. ~ { *Don't you* open the door.
You don't open the door. ⟨less common⟩

(iii) Someone open the door. ~ { *Don't anyone* open the door.
No one open the door.

First person imperatives, on the other hand, are generally negated by the insertion of *not* after the pronoun following *let*:

(iv) { *Let's not* say anything about it.
Let us not say anything about it.
(iv) *Let me not* believe such accusations. ⟨formal, rare⟩

Informally, however, the negation with *Don't* is frequently heard:

(iv) *Don't let's* say anything about it. ⟨esp BrE⟩
(iv) *Let's don't* say anything about it. ⟨esp AmE⟩
(iv) *Don't let me* disturb you. ⟨esp BrE⟩

Third person imperatives with *let* are negated by *not* after *let* or (more informally) by an initial *don't*:

(v) *Let not anyone* fool himself that he can get away with it. ⟨formal, rare⟩
[Also: *Let no one* fool himself that he can get away with it.]
(v) *Don't let anyone* fool himself that he can get away with it.

The distinction that we have noted (*cf* 11.25) between contrastive and noncontrastive *you* in positive directives applies also to negative directives:

Don't ˈˈYŎU say anything. [contrastive]
Don't ˈyou say ˋanything. [noncontrastive]

Note [a] The more formal full particle *do not* cannot replace *don't* in classes (ii) and (iii), though it can in classes (i), (iv) and (v).
[b] Negative directives are seldom followed by tags. The only operators that seem possible are the positive auxiliaries *will* and *can*: *Don't make a noise, will you?/ can you?* The tag has a falling tone.

Illocutionary force of imperatives

11.29 Imperative sentences are used for a wide range of illocutionary acts. It is not, however, always possible to make precise distinctions because the illocutionary force depends on the relative authority of speaker and hearer and on the relative benefits of the action to each. Here are some examples of sentences that may be used for different illocutionary acts, but we should be aware that illocutionary force depends in most cases on the situational context. (For verbless directives, *cf* 11.42, 11.53.)

ORDER, COMMAND
Fire! [*fire* as verb] Make your bed at once.

PROHIBITION
Don't touch.

REQUEST
Shut the door, please.

PLEA
Help!

ADVICE, RECOMMENDATION
Take an aspirin for your headache.
Lock the door before you go to bed.

WARNING
Look out! Be careful! Mind your head!

SUGGESTION
Ask me about it again next month.
Let's have a party.

INSTRUCTION
Take the first street on the left.

INVITATION
Make yourself at home. Come in and sit down.

OFFER
Have a cigarette.

GRANTING PERMISSION
Help yourself.

GOOD WISHES
Enjoy your meal. Have a good time.

IMPRECATION
Go to hell!

INCREDULOUS REJECTION
Oh, come now. ['You don't really mean that.']

SELF-DELIBERATION
Let me see now. ('Should I go straight home?')

Note [a] Imperative clauses joined by *and* or *or* to a following clause may have a conditional implication (*cf* 13.25, 13.30). The illocutionary force of the construction varies:

REQUEST
Sit next to Joan and she'll explain what you have to do.

PROMISE
Finish your homework and I'll give you some ice cream.
Don't make any noise and I'll take you inside.

THREAT
Make a move and I'll shoot.
Don't make a move or I'll shoot.
[These two sentences convey the same meaning, but the positive imperative carries a stronger expectation of the hearer's readiness to move.]

WARNING
Join the committee and you'll regret the waste of time.
Don't eat so much or you'll be sorry.

In *Give him enough rope and he'll hang himself*, the sentence is close to being a pure conditional construction. For verbless directives of this type, *cf* 11.53 Note.

[b] Instructional imperatives are often used in writing:
Take one tablespoonful three times a day after meals.
Remove the bolt from the handle socket and slide the cord retainer into the slot at the back of the handle socket.

Written instructions are often in abbreviated form (*cf* 11.48).

[c] *Please* and (to a lesser extent) *kindly* (*cf* 8.90*f*) may be added to imperative sentences with the illocutionary force of a request to convey greater overt politeness: *Please eat up your dinner*; *Kindly move to the next seat*. Requests are often expressed by questions and statements, *eg*: *Will you shut the door, please?*, *Would you mind shutting the door?*, *Could you shut the door for me?*, *I wonder whether you would mind shutting the door*. Questions that convey indirect requests need not have a question mark (*cf* App III.23 Note [b]).

Do with positive imperatives

11.30 A positive imperative can be made more persuasive or insistent (esp in BrE) by adding *do* (with a nuclear tone) before the verb. *Do* reinforces the positive sense of the imperative. For many people this persuasive use of *do* seems more typical of female than male speech:

DÒ have some more tea. DÒ let's go for a walk.

This use of *do* applies only to classes (i) and (iv), and we therefore do not have **Do you have some more tea.*

Note [a] *Do*, like *don't* and *let's*, acts as an introductory imperative marker, and is not identical with the emphatic *do* of statements (*cf* 18.56). To see this, notice that neither *do* nor *don't* in imperatives fulfils the strict conditions of *do*-support (*cf* 3.37); they are not introduced to make good the lack of an operator, but indeed are added to the front of an operator if one is present: *Do be seated*; *Don't be silly*. (Contrast the unacceptability of **He does be silly*.) This peculiarity of imperative *do* is also found in the quasi-imperative *Why don't you* construction: *Why don't you be more careful?*

[b] *Do*, *don't*, *let's*, and *let's not* are used in isolation as elliptical directives:

A: Should I open the door? B: { Yes, do. / No, don't.

A: Should we watch the game? B: { Yes, let's. / No, let's not.

Exclamatives

11.31 Exclamatives as a formal category of sentence are restricted to the type of exclamatory utterance introduced by *what* or *how*. For exclamatory questions, *cf* 11.22.

Exclamatives resemble *wh*-questions in requiring the initial placement of an exclamatory *wh*-element. The syntactic order is therefore upset to the extent that the *wh*-element (which may be object, complement, or adverbial as well as subject) may be taken from its usual (statement) position and put into a position of initial prominence. On the other hand, in contrast to *wh*-questions, there is generally no subject–operator inversion:

wh-element as subject:
What an enormous crowd came! [S V – the rarest type] [1]

wh-element as object:
What a time we've had today! [O_d S V A] [2]

wh-element as complement:
How delightful her manners are! [C_s S V] [3]

wh-element as adverbial:

How I used to hate geography! [A S V O_d] [4a]
What a long time we've been waiting! [A S V] [4b]
How quickly you eat! [A S V] [4c]

In addition, the *wh*-element, like the *wh*-element of the *wh*-question, can act as prepositional complement:

What a mess we're in!

It can occur even as a pushdown element of an indirect statement (again like the interrogative *wh*-element, *cf* 11.18):

How foolish you must have thought I was!

It is possible (but again rare) for the prepositional phrase as a whole to occur initially as *wh*-element:

In what poverty these people live!
For how many years did I live in that dreamworld of fantasies and false hopes!

This latter example and the following sentences illustrate the occasional inversion of subject and operator in literary English, particularly with a preposed adverbial, subject complement, or direct object:

How often have I bitterly regretted that day!
How strange is his appearance!
What magnificent characters does she present in her latest novel!

Inversion is preferred with negative *rarely*:

How rarely do I see you! ⟨rare and rhetorical⟩

For tag questions with exclamatives, *cf* 11.10.

11.32 Only two *wh*-words can be used to form the *wh*-element in exclamatory sentences: *what* as predeterminer in a noun phrase, *cf* [1], [2], and [4b] in 11.31; and *how* as intensifier of an adjective, adverb, or clause, *cf* [3], [4a], and [4c] respectively in 11.31. The limitation to these functions is not surprising when one realizes that the *wh*-word indicates an extreme position on some scale of value, and therefore can only appear at points in the sentence where an expression of degree is possible. Exactly the same functions are fulfilled (especially in some women's speech) by the emphatic degree items *such* (as a determiner) and *so* (as an intensifier) in statements and questions (*cf* 18.57):

We've had *such* a time. Why did they tease you *so?*
Her manners are *so* delightful.

Exclamatives are very frequently indeed reduced by ellipsis to the single *wh*-element: *What a terrible wind!, How encouraging!*

Note [a] *How* is like *so* (in exclamatory utterances) in that when it is an intensifier, it cannot modify an adjective which itself has a premodifying function. Instead of:

*a *how/so* noisy party

We must prepose *how noisy* or use *what* or *such* as intensifiers of the noun phrase:

how noisy a party
what/such a noisy party.

[b] The generalized exclamatory *and how* ⟨esp AmE⟩ is used informally to refer to a previous statement or question by the same or another speaker:

He can argue, and how! ['How he can argue!']
A: We had a cold winter last year. B: And how!

Echo utterances

11.33 Echo utterances are utterances which repeat as a whole or in part what has been said by another speaker. They may take the form of any utterance or partial utterance in the language, but in their discourse function they are either questions (*cf* 11.34*ff*) or exclamations (*cf* 11.37). Echo questions are either recapitulatory (*cf* 11.34*f*) or explicatory (*cf* 11.36).

Recapitulatory echo questions

11.34 A recapitulatory echo question is simply a question which repeats part or all of a message, as a way of having its content confirmed. The simplest type is a *yes–no* question which merely repeats, with rising intonation, what has just been said:

A: I didn't like that meal. B: You didn't LÍKE it?
A: The Browns are emigrating. B: Émigrating?
A: Switch the light off, please. B: Switch the LÍGHT off?

To make the meaning explicit, one could prefix to each of these questions the words 'Did you say . . .?' Sometimes, indeed the invariant tag clause (*did*) *you say?* is added: *Switch the LÍGHT off, did you say?* (*cf* 11.11).

There is also a *wh*-echo question which indicates, by the *wh*-word, which part of the previous utterance the speaker did not hear or understand:

A: It cost five dollars. B: HÓW much did it cost?
A: He's a dermatologist. B: WHÁT is he?
A: We're leaving him here. B: WHÁT are you doing with him?

In this case '. . . *did you say?*' could be supplied immediately after the *wh*-element: *HÓW much did you say it cost?* These *wh*-echo questions, as we see above, have a characteristic intonation pattern: a rising intonation with the nucleus on the *wh*-word itself.

In the examples above, the *wh*-element is fronted as in normal *wh*-questions and inversion takes place according to the regular rule for *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.14*f*). In a variant type of *wh*-echo question, the statement order is retained:

A: I'll pay for it. B: You'll WHÁT?
A: I saw Ted Dawson today. B: You saw WHÓ?

The order where no fronting takes place is obligatory for directives:

A: Switch the light off. B: Switch WHÁT off?

What and *who* are not restricted in echo questions to their normal functions, but may replace a single noun or an adjective phrase. There is a declining acceptability the further one gets away from the normal functions of *who* and *what*:

A: His son is a macroengineer.
B: His son is a WHÁT?
A: She always wears a quizzical expression.
B: She always wears a WHÁT expression?

Furthermore, *what* may be made plural:

A: Astronomers have discovered some more black holes.
B: They've discovered some more WHÁTS?

It may even replace a verb:

A: She sat there and ratiocinated.
B: She sat there and WHÁTted?

Although recapitulatory echo questions are ostensibly requests for the repetition of information, they frequently have other functions, such as to express irony, incredulity, or merely to fill in a conversational gap. They are familiar, or even impolite, in implication unless accompanied by an apology:

Sorry, WHÁT was his job?

Note [a] The generalized recapitulatory *wh*-question *WHÁT did you say?* is sometimes truncated to the monosyllable *WHÁT*? (impolite except among friends), just as the alternative formula *I beg your pardon?* can be reduced simply to *Pardon?* Other abbreviated requests for repetition are *Pardon me?* ⟨AmE⟩, *Excuse me?* ⟨AmE⟩, and *Sorry?* ⟨BrE⟩.
[b] *What?* on its own can also express general incredulity:
A: I paid £1000 for that picture. B: WHÁT? You must be mad.

Questions about questions

11.35 Since an echo question can refer back to any type of utterance, a special case of it is a question about a question, sometimes called a question raised to the second power:

A: Have you borrowed my PÉN? B: (Have I) borrowed your PÉN?

This is a *yes–no* question about a *yes–no* question. In addition, there are three further types:

Yes–no question about *wh*-question:

A: What do you think of the picture?
B: What do I THÍNK of it? ['Did you say what do I think of it?']

Wh-question about *yes–no* question:

A: Have you ever been to Valladolid?
B: (Have I ever been) WHÉRE?

Wh-question about *wh*-question:

A: How did you enjoy the carnival?
B: How did I enjoy WHÁT?

Explicatory echo questions

11.36 The second main category of echo question is the explicatory echo question, which asks for the clarification, rather than the repetition, of something just said. It is always a *wh*-question, and is identical to the recapitulatory *wh*-question, except for the substitution of a falling tone for the rising tone on the *wh*-word:

A: Take a look at this! B: Take a look at WHÀT?
A: He's missed the bus again. B: WHÒ's missed the bus?
A: Oh dear, I've lost the letter. B: WHÌCH letter have you lost?

The last example could be paraphrased 'Which letter do you mean – [rather than 'did you say'] – you have lost?' The *wh*-word replaces some definite item of information meaning (*eg* a personal pronoun) that needs clarification in the context.

Note [a] There are abbreviated forms of these as of other *wh*-echo questions – A: *Look over there!* B: *WHÈRE?* The general explicatory echo question *WHÀT* may also be noted. Its meaning is roughly 'What do you want?' – A: *John!* B: *WHÀT?*
[b] An explicatory echo question may follow an incomplete question:
A: How did you enjoy the er er . . .?
B: How did I enjoy the WHÀT?

Echo exclamations

11.37 The echo exclamation, like the echo question, repeats part or all of a preceding utterance; but in contrast to the rising tone of the echo question, it is characterized by a rise–fall (or high fall) tone. The form of the utterance to be repeated may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, or even exclamative:

A: I'm going to London for a holiday.
B: *To LÔNdon!* That's not my idea of a rest.
A: Have you been to Paris?
B: *Been to PÂris!* I'll say I have!
A: Open the door, please.
B: *Open the DÔOR*! Do you take me for a doorman?
A: What a beautiful day!
B: *What a beautiful DÂY*! You must be joking.
A: He must be the only applicant.
B: *Must be the ÔNly applicant!* That can't be true.

Such exclamations, expressing astonishment at what has been said, are very similar in role to the incredulous type of echo question. Indeed, the repetitions italicized above could be spoken either with an exclamatory falling nucleus, or with the rising tone of the echo question.

Either in the echo question or the echo exclamation, one could repeat the earlier utterance with varying degrees of completeness. Thus, rather than *To*

London! in the first example, one could have said *You're going to London!*, *Going to London!*, or simply *London!* Some irregular subject–predicate constructions in which the finite verb is omitted are produced in these exchanges:

A: I hear you're a linguist.
{B: I a linguist! ⟨formal⟩
{B: Me a linguist!

A: Ted's going to write the music.
B: Ted write the music? What a splendid idea!

Irregular sentences

11.38 Some sentences do not conform to the regular patterns of clause structures (*cf* 10.2) or to the variations of those structures in the major syntactic classes (*cf* 11.1). It is not possible to make precise distinctions, but we can mention several ways in which sentences are IRREGULAR:

(a) They contain forms not found in regular sentence structures, for example the subjunctive in the main clause of *Long live the Queen* (*cf* 11.39).
(b) They are marked as subordinate, for example by the subordinator *if* in *If only I had been there!* (*cf* 11.41).
(c) They are FRAGMENTARY, lacking constituents that are normally obligatory. The ellipsis may be recoverable from the linguistic form of the sentence (*cf* 12.46*ff*), for example the omission of the subject *I* and the verb *am* in:

Sorry to hear about your father.

Or it may be recoverable from the preceding linguistic context, as in B's reply in the following exchange:

A: When can I see you?
B: Tomorrow morning. ['*You can see me* tomorrow morning?']

On ellipsis, *cf* Chapter 12.

There are other instances where it is less convincing to postulate ellipsis and we shall not attempt to do so. We consider such instances to be NONSENTENCES, since we cannot analyse them with confidence in terms of clause elements. For example, we would not want to suggest that the sign *Exit* is elliptical for *This is the exit*, and that therefore *Exit* is a subject complement, though defective because it lacks a determiner such as *the*. We would not want to do so because it is equally possible to say that the sign stands for (among other possibilities) *The exit is here* (where *The exit* is subject). Other cases are more arguable; for example, *A good idea!* might reasonably be considered to be a subject complement, because of the tag question that we could add to it: *A good idea, isn't it?*

Irregular sentences may occur also as independent clauses in a compound sentence. For example:

Not BÀD, *that* JÓKE, but I've heard better.
A: Are you coming with us?
B: *Of course*, and so is Daniel.

Some irregular types are commonly used as parts of sentences, for example *Please God* as in:

Please God, there hasn't been an accident.

In the sections that follow we generally group irregular sentences by their form, but it is sometimes convenient to treat together certain features that are characteristic of a variety of the language. We deal separately (*cf* 11.54) with common formulae, most of them nonsentences, used for stereotyped communicative situations.

Sentences with optative subjunctive

11.39 One type of irregular sentence contains the optative subjunctive, used to express a wish (*cf* 3.51). The optative subjunctive survives in a few expressions of a fairly fixed type. It is combined with subject–verb inversion in:

Far ***be*** *it from me* to spoil the fun. *So* ***be*** *it.*
Suffice *it to say* we lost. *So* ***help*** *me God.*
Long ***live*** the Republic!

It is found without inversion in:

God ***save*** the Queen!
{God / The Lord / Heaven} {*bless* you! / *forbid*! / *help* us!}
The devil *take* you. ⟨archaic⟩

A less archaic formula (also with subject–verb inversion) for expressing wishes, usually blessings, is *may* + subject + predication:

May the best man win! May you always be happy!
May all your troubles be small! May you break your neck!

Another archaic formula is *would* (*to God*) followed by a *that*-clause with past forms of verbs:

Would (to God) that I'd never heard of him!

Irregular *wh*-questions

11.40 There are several types of irregular *wh*-questions, which occur mainly in conversation:

(i) *How about* and *what about* are generally followed by noun phrases or *-ing* clauses. They are principally used as directives:

How about another kiss?
What about following us in your car?

But they are also used as inquiries:

How about your parents? Are they well?

(ii) *How come* is used in informal speech (esp in AmE) to introduce reason questions:

How come you're so late? ['How does it come about (that) you're so late?']

The stereotyped *how come* is followed by a clause that follows the normal subject–verb order.

(iii) An irregular *why*-question is formed without subject or auxiliary: *why* (+ *not*) + predication, the verb being the base form. It is used as a directive (*cf* 11.16*f*):

Why (not) listen to him? ['Why should(n't)/do(n't)/did(n't) you listen to him?']

(iv) There is a verbless *why*-question, which is used as an inquiry. The questions correspond to existential sentences (*cf* 18.44*ff*):

Why no classes today? ~ Why are there no classes today?
Why all the noise? ~ Why is there all the noise?

(v) *Wh*-questions (except for *why*-questions) without a subject and with a *to*-infinitive as the verb are occasionally found as inquiries:

What to do next? ['What should I/we do next?']
Who to see?
Which way to go?

(vi) Dependent finite *wh*-interrogative clauses are used as directive headings in written English for suggestions:

How you can make your fortune
Where you should eat in Los Angeles

A dependent *why*-clause is used as a statement heading:

Why you should have a medical examination once a year

(vii) Dependent infinitive *wh*-clauses of the same form as those in (v) are more commonly used than the finite clauses in (vi) as directive headings:

What to do in an emergency ['What one should do in an emergency.']
Where to go for help ['Where one can go for help']
Who to phone after office hours
When to send in your application
How to mend a puncture
How to learn a foreign language

(viii) *What if* and *how if* introduce questions used as inquiries:

What if it rains? ['What happens if it rains?']

The questions are also used as directives:

What if you join us for lunch? [invitation]
What if you don't join us for lunch just this once? [suggestion]

What if and (occasionally, esp in BrE) *What though* may have the meaning 'What does it matter if . . .?':

What if they ÂRE illiterate? What though they ÂRE filthy?

Note [a] *What about it?*, *What of it?*, and *So what?* are used as responses to question the significance of what has been said by another speaker ('*What difference does it make?*'). *How about that?* is used (esp in AmE) to express surprise combined with approval or disapproval:
A: Fred and Pam have just got married. B: Well, how about that?
[b] On verbless exclamatory sentences such as *How very thoughtful!* and *What a good idea!* *cf* 7.30.

Subordinate clauses as irregular sentences

11.41 Apart from the subordinate *wh*-clauses discussed in 11.40, several other kinds of clauses that are subordinate in form are used as irregular sentences. They generally have the illocutionary force of exclamations, the omission of the matrix clause (*cf* 14.4) being mimetic of speechless amazement.

(i) *That*-clauses generally contain the putative *should* that may accompany expressions of surprise (*cf* 14.25). They typically convey disapproval or regret:

That he should have left without asking me!
That you could ever want to marry such a man!
That it should come to this!
That I should live to see such ingratitude!

But they may also convey approval or relief:

That all your friends should be so sympathetic!

These sentences are distinctly more formal than the infinitive sentences in (ii) below.

(ii) *To*-infinitive clauses convey kinds of illocutionary force similar to those for *that*-clauses. A common type begins with *To think* (*that*), and is very similar in its illocutionary force to the *that*-clauses in (i), though less formal:

To think that she could be so ruthless!
To think that I was once a millionaire!
To think that they would turn me down!
To think that he should be so mean!
To think that you might have been killed!

The implied subject in such sentences is the first person pronoun (*cf* Note [b] below). When the infinitive clause begins with some other verb than *think*, its subject is understood from an introductory subject (*cf* 18.58) or vocative, or it may be apparent from the previous context:

That brother of yours, to be so uncouth!
You fool, to forget your wedding anniversary!
You're going to be in trouble. To say something like that!

(iii) Infinitive clauses introduced by *oh* express an exclamatory wish. The style is poetic or archaic, except when jocular:

Oh to be in England! ['I wish I were in England.']
Oh to be free! ['I wish I were free.']

(iv) Negative *if*-clauses, usually preceded by *well* or *why*, are used to express surprise:

Well, if it isn't the manager himself! ['It is indeed the manager himself!']
Why, if it isn't Susan! ['It is indeed Susan!']

(v) Subordinate clauses beginning *if only* and containing the form of the verb appropriate to conditional clauses (*cf* 15.36) also express an exclamatory wish:

If only I'd listened to my parents! ['I wish I had listened to my parents.']
If only he were not so timid!
If only I could make them understand my point of view!

A similar construction has *only*, *just*, or *but* before the main verb:

If I'd *only* listened to my parents!
If I could *just* make them understand my point of view!
If I could *but* explain!

(vi) Subordinate clauses beginning with *supposing* may have the same force as *What if* (*cf* 11.40) or, indeed, of the imperative *suppose*:

Supposing I don't see her. [inquiry: 'What would happen if I . . .?']
Supposing you come with us. [invitation]
Supposing they ARE poor? ['What does it matter if they . . .?'] ⟨impatience or scepticism⟩

Note [a] Verbless clauses consisting of *Oh for* followed by a noun phrase also express an exclamatory wish. Like the analogous infinitive clauses, they are poetic or archaic unless used jocularly:
Oh for a drink! Oh for another glimpse of her!
On the other hand, the stereotyped exclamation *Oh for . . . 's sake* expresses impatience or anger:
Oh, for heaven's sake! ⟨casual⟩ Oh, for Christ's sake! ⟨familiar⟩
In AmE, *for heaven's sake* and *for goodness' sake* are used by some speakers to express surprise.
Exclamatory *Now for . . .* is used to express gratified anticipation that something wished for is indeed available immediately:
Now for a good hot bath!
[b] Infinitive clauses introduced by *To think* (*that*) may be interpreted as something like *It surprises me to think . . .* or *It surprises one to think . . .*, though the fuller forms are not exclamatory.
[c] Stereotyped *Not to worry!* is an informal friendly directive ('Don't worry!'). It is often self-addressed.

Adverbials as directives

11.42 Adverbials may have the illocutionary force of commands. Generally a verb of motion is implied:

Forward!	On your feet!	Faster!
Left, right!	At the double!	To the left!
At ease!	Inside!	That way!

Two adverbials may be combined:

Full speed ahead! Back to work!

Or a noun phrase subject and an adverbial:

Everybody inside! All aboard! Citizens to the left!

The implied verb of motion may be causative, the noun phrase being a direct object:

Backs to the wall!	['Put your backs to the wall!']
Hands up!	Shoulders back!
Heads up!	Eyes down!
Hands on heads!	Thumbs up!

One kind of verbless command is constructed with an adverbial followed by a *with*-phrase:

On with the show! ['Begin or continue the show.']
Off with his head! ['Cut off his head!']
Off with your jacket! ['Take off your jacket!']
Out with it! [set expression: 'Tell me about it.']

Constructions with *up* and *down* are generally used to express approval and disapproval respectively:

Up with democracy! Down with racism!

Note [a] In two stereotyped verbless sentences a verb of motion is implied after the auxiliary:
Murder will out. ['Murder will come out'; 'Murder will become known']
Truth will out.
[b] Occasionally adjective phrases functioning as subject complement may be directives:
Careful! ['Be careful!'], Quiet!

Aphoristic sentences

11.43 The aphoristic sentence structure is found in many proverbs. The common structural feature is the balancing of two equivalent constructions against each other:

(i)	The more, the merrier. The less said, the better.	The sooner, the better.
(ii)	Least said, soonest mended. Nothing ventured, nothing gained. Once bitten, twice shy.	Easy come, easy go. Here today, gone tomorrow. First come, first served.
(iii)	Spare the rod, and spoil the child. Love me, love my dog.	Marry in haste, repent at leisure. Waste not, want not.
(iv)	More haste, less speed. No work, no money. Like father, like son.	In for a penny, in for a pound. Out of sight, out of mind. So far, so good.

All are to some extent anomalous. Items in set (i) appear to be elliptical. Thus, the first example may be considered elliptical (depending on the context) for something like *The more there are of us, the merrier we are*, a pattern which, although still on the aphoristic model, is more productive than those of any of the other sets. This pattern is dealt with under proportional clauses (*cf* 15.51).

In (ii) the verb is nonfinite; the first part is semantically subordinate (mostly conditional). In (iii) the verbs may be analysed as imperatives, the two clauses being in a conditional relationship similar to that in the regular structure exemplified in *Spare the rod, and you (will) spoil the child* (*cf* 13.25). In (iv) both parts are verbless.

Note [a] A single verbless comparative clause introduced by *the* may occur as a response:
A: I didn't call her. B: The more fool you!
It may be further reduced by the omission of *the*: *More fool you!* Similarly, *The more haste, the less speed* is equivalent to the form found in the saying *More haste, less speed.*
[b] Other sayings of anomalous form:
Better late than never. First things first.
No sooner said than done. Handsome is as handsome does.
In the last example, the adjective *handsome* is used in both positions as if it were a noun.
[c] New formations on the model of *No . . . no . . .* are occasionally produced:
No dinner, no dessert. ['If you don't eat your dinner, I won't give you any dessert.']
No homework, no TV.

Subject-plus-complement constructions

11.44 Several types of verbless sentences or clauses, most of them existential, have the basic structure of subject and subject complement, or of complement alone.

(i) In one colloquial type, the subject is appended like a noun-phrase tag (*cf* 18.59):

Not BÀD, that SÁLmon.
ÒDD sort, those NÉIGHbours of yours.
Just our LÙCK, SÙE finding out.

(ii) A verbless clause consisting of subject and subject complement (in that order) may be linked by *and* to a preceding clause with regular clause structure. Various logical relationships may be expressed:

How could you be so spiteful and her your best friend? ['. . . seeing that she is your best friend?']
You could have left before the speeches, and nobody the wiser.
[conditional relationship: '. . . and if you had done so, nobody would have been the wiser.']

Less commonly, the subjective case is used for a subject pronoun:

They left without a word, and he so sensitive. ['. . . though he was so sensitive.']

(iii) A more colloquial pattern contains an existential verbless clause consisting of complement alone. The clause is a comment on the preceding clause, and is linked to it by *and*:

They are thick as thieves, and no mistake.
['They are thick as thieves, and that is no mistake.']
She left him, and a good thing too. ['. . ., and it's a good thing too']
He finally begged for help, and no wonder.

(iv) A literary and somewhat archaic type of verbless rhetorical *wh*-question (*cf* 11.23) is followed by *but* in the second clause. The *wh*-clause consists of subject followed by subject complement or of subject complement alone. The sentence, also existential, expresses a comparative relationship:

What belief so foolish but some will embrace it?
['There is no belief so foolish but that there will be some who will embrace it.']
Who so honest but some will doubt his integrity?
['There is none so honest but that there will be some who will doubt his integrity.']

(v) Another version of the rhetorical *wh*-question, but less formal, contains a comparative:

What better than a hot shower? Who more fitting than you?

Note A stereotyped subject–complement sentence occurs in *All clear*. Similar stereotyped sentences, but with an adverbial instead of a complement, are *All in good time* and *All over* ['It's finished'].

Block language

11.45 Block language appears in such functions as labels, titles, newspaper headlines, headings, notices, and advertisements. Simple block language messages are most often nonsentences, consisting of a noun or noun phrase or nominal clause in isolation; no verb is needed, because all else necessary to the understanding of the message is furnished by the context. Here are some examples:

Entrance	50 mph limit
No entry	No dogs without leash
National Forecast	Danger: falling rocks
English Department	The New York Times
Fresh Today	Pure Lemon Juice
For Sale	All the News That's Fit to Print

A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language
The First Luxury Bound Collector's Edition of Agatha Christie's Work to be Available in This Country

Some forms of block language have recognizable clause structures. Those forms deviate from regular clause structures in omitting closed-class items of low information value, such as the finite forms of the verb BE and the articles, and other words that may be understood from the context.

Newspaper headlines

11.46 Newspaper headlines commonly contain block language because of pressure on space. They can generally be analysed in terms of clause structure, though

frequently scrutiny of the text below a headline obliges us to reinterpret the structure.

FILM STAR MARRIES EX-PRIEST [S V O_d]
OIL SPILL THREAT DECREASING [S V]
PRESIDENT CALLS FOR CALM [S V A]
SHARE PRICES NOW HIGHER THAN EVER [S A C_s]
STUDY LINKS DEATHS TO CROWDING IN PRISONS [S V O_d A]
THREE JOCKEYS HURT [S V]
CAMP HELPS ADULTS REDISCOVER WILDS [S V O_d C_o]

The regular structure of the last two examples, for instance, would be *Three jockeys are hurt* and *The camp helps adults rediscover the wilds.*

In addition to those mentioned for block language in 11.45, certain other syntactic features are characteristic of newspaper headlines:

(i) The simple present is used instead of the present perfective, which in other styles (for example in conversation) would be normal for recent news:

MEAT PRICES RISE AGAIN ['Meat prices have risen again.']

(ii) *To* is commonly used to express the future or a predicted arrangement (*cf*: *be to*, 3.45*f*):

SENATOR TO SEEK REELECTION ['The Senator is to seek reelection.']

(iii) Asyndeton (*cf* 13.1) is more common:

WOMAN CLAIMS DRUG CAUSED CANCER, SUES ['A woman has claimed that a drug had caused her cancer, and she has sued somebody.']
UTILITY POLE FALLS, KILLS PHONE COMPANY WORKER ['A utility pole has fallen and has killed a phone company worker.']

(iv) Verbs that are generally transitive are used intransitively:

BRITISH VICTORY SURPRISES ['The British victory has surprised (?) experts.']

Note [a] The use of past *caused* in the headline *WOMAN CLAIMS DRUG CAUSED CANCER, SUES* follows the normal backshift rule in indirect speech (*cf* 14.31). Substitution of present *causes* changes the time reference of the verb to habitual.
[b] The example in (iv) is structurally ambiguous. In addition to the interpretation given above, which presupposes a noun phrase as subject with *surprises*, *surprises* may be a noun head of the noun phrase that comprises the whole of the title.

Personal letters, cables, diaries

11.47 Block language is common on postcards, where space is restricted, and is also often used in informal personal notes. The first person pronoun and perhaps also an obvious auxiliary are often omitted:

Sorry about Jane. ['I'm sorry about the news about Jane.']
Wish you were here. ['I wish you were here.']
Having wonderful time. ['I'm having a wonderful time.']
Weather marvellous. ['The weather is marvellous.']
Know who I saw? ['Do you know who I saw?']

Elliptical sentences like the last example are also common in informal conversation (*cf* 11.49).

The language tends to be even more abbreviated in cables. The sender is likely to omit whatever can be understood by the receiver from a knowledge of the situation:

NO MONEY SEND HUNDRED ['I have no money. Send me a hundred dollars.']
NEGOTIATIONS PROGRESSING RETURNING END JULY STOP LETTER FOLLOWING ['The negotiations are progressing well. I am returning at the end of July. A letter will follow this cable.']
MANUSCRIPT RECEIVED CHANGES ACCEPTED PRINTING JANUARY ['Your manuscript has been received and your corrections have been accepted. Printing of the book will take place in January.']

The language used in diaries is also abbreviated:

Got up at 6, phoned Bill. Bill said he was ill, so had to cancel meeting. Went to office instead. Worked till 12 on government contract.

Note [a] *STOP* is used in cables in place of punctuation to indicate the ends of sentences if there is a danger of ambiguity.
[b] Notes taken from lectures, books, or articles are likely to be abbreviated, the form and extent of the abbreviation varying with the individual writer.
[c] The increasing use of telex instead of cable has rendered the extreme condensed form of cable language less common.

Abbreviated sentences in instructional writing

11.48 Abbreviated structures are typical of instructional writing, such as technical manuals, consumer leaflets on assembling or using products, instructional labels on products, and recipes. As in newspaper headlines, articles are often omitted. It is characteristic of this style to omit direct objects that can be understood from the context.

Tighten to hold bracket snugly against wall, but without excessive tightening of screws.
Disconnect cleaner from electrical outlet before replacing belt.
Add one can of cold water to the contents of this can. Heat to boiling point. Allow to simmer a few minutes and serve.
When mixing is finished, turn mixer off, unplug cord from outlet and eject beaters.
Cook to golden brown.
Beat egg lightly with fork.
Keep away from heat.
Just heat and serve.
Lay flat.

Occasionally the subject is omitted:

Makes four servings, ½ cupful each
Contains whiteners and brighteners

Note [a] Ostensive identification indicates that a direct object has been omitted and that it refers to the article on which the sentence is written:

Refrigerate after opening [1]
Keep cool [2]
Keep out of reach of children [3]
Stand upright [4]

Out of context, sentences [1–4] would be interpreted to refer to the addressee's keeping cool, etc. [b] Spoken demonstrations, for example of cooking, sometimes adopt these characteristics of instructional writing.

Abbreviated sentences in informal conversation

11.49 Initial words in a sentence are frequently omitted in informal conversation:

Don't know where they are. ['*I* don't . . .']
Want another cup? ['*Do you* . . .?']
Lost something? ['*Have you* . . .?']
Serves them right! ['*It* serves . . .']
Good to see you again. ['*It's* good . . .']
Anything wrong? ['*Is* anything . . .?']
Hot? ['*Are you (feeling)* . . .?']

The pronouns and auxiliaries to be understood are partially cued by the words that begin the sentence and in case of ambiguity are dependent on the situational context. For example, *Hot?* could be interpreted as either *Are you hot?* or *Is it hot?*

For further discussion of such sentences in conversation, *cf* 12.46*ff*.

Abbreviated sentences in broadcast commentaries

11.50 Commentaries on radio and television often contain abbreviated sentences, usually with the omission of *there is, it is,* or a form of the verb BE:

The first lap is over. Five more to come.
Sport, and we have the latest from Wimbledon.
Another batsman out.
Two players wounded.
And now a band of the marines.
And again the sound of bugles.

Elliptical sentences in dialogue

11.51 In conversation and in written dialogue, it is common to find ellipsis in sentences that respond to, comment on, or question previous sentences spoken by another speaker. The ellipsis is interpreted from a preceding sentence; it avoids repetition so as to focus on the new material. The resultant fragmentary sentences can be analysed for clause functions through a reconstruction, based on preceding sentences, of the full forms:

A: Is your daughter at home?
B: Probably. [A – She is *probably* at home.]
A: Who sent you?
B: The manager. [S – *The manager* sent me.]
A: I'm leaving.
B: Why? [A – *Why* are you leaving?]
A: I can't play baseball.
B: I know. [S V – *I know* you can't play baseball.]

A: Nobody's here.
B: Obviously. [A – *Obviously*, nobody's here.]
A: When will you leave?
B: With luck, on Tuesday. [A A – *With luck* I'll leave *on Tuesday*.]

Elliptical sentences without change of speaker

11.52 Fragmentary elliptical sentences may also occur without change of speaker or writer. In writing, they appear especially in certain styles of fiction and advertising:

Two strange figures approached. *Martians!*
Janet felt uncomfortable. Yes, *very uncomfortable.*
It has a very distinctive taste. *Crisp and fresh.*
Designed in Sweden, this teak desk is a terrific buy. *Shown with our exceptionally priced desk chair.*

Note These fragmentary sentences are to be distinguished from the sentence fragments that are merely the result of a punctuation device to indicate a dramatic pause for emphasis. They are also common in fiction and advertising:
He was drunk. *And penniless.*
We have all kinds of contemporary furniture. *For every room in the house.*

Nonsentences

11.53 Nonsentences, usually but not exclusively noun phrases, occur frequently in speech, mostly in informal conversation. We can do no more than give some examples with their illocutionary force. (An optional vocative can frequently be added.)

(i) Exclamatory noun phrases modified by a restrictive relative clause (in most instances with the zero relative) generally express disapproval:

The clothes she wears! [*cf*: What clothes she wears!]
The things they get up to!
The way he complained about the food!
The fuss they made!

(ii) Also expressing scornful disapproval are exclamatory phrases consisting of a noun phrase, generally a pronoun, followed by *and* and another noun phrase with a matching possessive pronoun:

You and your statistics! ['I deplore the way you so frequently resort to statistics.']
Him and his malicious gossip!
Pat and her childish hobbies!

The subjective case is less commonly used for the first pronoun: *He and his malicious gossip!*

(iii) Exclamatory prepositional phrases beginning with *Of all* express strong disapproval:

Of all the impudence! Of all the stupid things to say!

(iv) Exclamatory noun or adjective phrases may express approval or disapproval:

Charming couple!	Dirty place!	Stupid!
Excellent meal!	Very interesting!	Poor thing!
(A) good idea!	Disgusting!	Big baby! ['What a helpless person you are!']

Notice that articles are often omitted.

If the phrase is directed at the person addressed, it may be prefaced by *you*; *eg*: *You angel!* ['You're an angel!'], *You poor thing!, You idiot!* To express a more familiar – and more affectionate – relationship *my* is used; *eg*: *My poor baby!, My silly boy!*

(v) Noun phrases may have the force of commands or requests. Where appropriate, an adverbial such as *please* may accompany the noun phrase:

Attention!	Patience!	A pound of butter, please.
Action stations!	Lights!	Another coffee, if you don't mind.
Taxi!	Phone!	
Your turn.	Just a drop more!	The letter, please.
Scalpel!	My hat, please!	The door!
Scissors, somebody!	Next slide, please.	

In some instances, the interpretation depends on the situational context. For example, *The door!* might mean 'Shut the door!', 'Watch the door!', 'Open the door!', or even 'Leave the room!' For other verbless commands, *cf* 11.42.

(vi) Noun phrases may have the force of offers or invitations, particularly when they are spoken with rising intonation:

Cigarette?	My apartment?
More coffee, anyone?	Another round?

Again the interpretation may depend on the situational context. Alternative questions may have the same force: *TÉA or CÒFfee?, My PLÁCE or YÒURS?*

(vii) Noun and adjective phrases with rising intonation may have the force of inquiries. They may function as *yes–no* questions:

New hat?	Good flight?	Boring?
Your book?	Any luck, Ron?	Tasty?
Next slide?	False alarm?	

In place of these questions, it is possible to use a noun phrase followed by a tag question, *eg*: *Too hot, are you?, New hat, is it?, Good flight, was it?.*

They may also function as alternative questions:

YÓUR car or your MÒTHer's? HÓT or CÒLD?

or as an inquiry having the force of *wh*-questions:

Your NÁME? ['Your name is . . .?'] Your ÁGE? Your RÁNK? Your occuPÁtion?

These can be analysed as corresponding to (for example) *What is your name?, Tell me your name, Could you tell me your name?*

(viii) Noun phrases may make assertions, conveying information:

False alarm	No news
No luck	That way ['They went that way.']

Business call ['The phone call was a business call.']

(ix) Exclamatory noun phrases may convey a warning:

Fire! [noun] The police! Timber! Avalanche!

(x) Exclamatory negative noun phrases may convey a prohibition:

No smoking! No more noise! No pushing!

(xi) Noun phrases (with possible expansions) may merely convey sociability:

Nice day again. Good weather we're having. Lovely evening.

(xii) Exclamatory noun phrases may be self-addressed, expressing the hearer's alarm or frustration after a period of forgetfulness:

The cake! ['I should have taken the cake out of the oven.']
My husband's birthday! ['I've forgotten my husband's birthday.']
My interview!

(xiii) Vocatives (*cf* 10.52*f*) are used alone for a variety of purposes: for example, to summon, to rebuke, to question whether the person addressed is present, or to remind of an order or a request.

(xiv) Names or noun phrases referring to persons are used in verbless introductions, generally with a vocative:

Ladies and gentlemen, the next president of the United States of Amèrica! ['I present the next president . . .!']
My mother and FÁther, SÙsan. ['These are my . . .']
DÁD – John TÒbin, a good friend of mine. ['Dad, let me introduce . . .']

Two or more persons may be introduced to each other, gestures perhaps indicating the different persons:

JÓAN, my SÍster – JÒHN, a good FRÌEND of mine

Other examples of verbless sentences appear in the list of formulae (*cf* 11.54).

Note Verbless clauses appear as the first clause in coordinated constructions that express a conditional relationship (*cf* 11.29 Note [a], 13.25).

(a) The construction may have the force of a directive:
One more step and I'll shoot. [*cf*: Take one step more and I'll shoot.]
Twenty pounds and you can have the radio. [*cf*: Give me twenty pounds and you can have the radio.]
Another drink or I'll die of thirst. [*cf*: Give me another drink or I'll die of thirst.]

A stereotyped sentence has verbless clauses in both parts:
Your money or your life! [*cf*: Give me your money or I'll take your life.]
Trick or treat!⟨AmE⟩ ['Give me a treat or I'll play a trick on you.']
(b) The construction may have the force of a statement:
A minute more and we would have missed the train.
['If we had arrived a minute later, we would have missed the train']
Another such storm and the river would have overflowed its banks.
A few more feet and you would have gone over the cliff.
Notice the use of *would have*, typical in conditional sentences (*cf* 15.36).

Formulae

11.54 Most formulae used for stereotyped communication situations are grammatically irregular. Only in a very limited way can they be analysed into clause elements. In the following list, we give a few examples of the major types:

GREETINGS: Good morning, Good afternoon, Good evening ⟨all formal⟩; Hello; Hi ⟨familiar⟩
FAREWELLS: Goodbye, Good night, All the best ⟨informal⟩, Cheers, Cheerio ⟨BrE, familiar⟩, See you ⟨familiar⟩, Bye(-bye) ⟨familiar⟩, So long ⟨familiar⟩
INTRODUCTIONS: How do you do? ⟨formal⟩, How are you?, Glad to meet you, Hi ⟨familiar⟩
REACTION SIGNALS:
(a) *assent, agreement*: Yes, Yeah /je/; All right, OK ⟨informal⟩ Certainly, Absolutely, Right, Exactly, Quite ⟨BrE⟩, Sure ⟨esp AmE⟩
(b) *denial, disagreement*: No, Certainly not, Definitely not, Not at all, Not likely
THANKS: Thank you (very much), Thanks (very much), Many thanks, Ta ⟨BrE slang⟩, Thanks a lot, Cheers ⟨familiar BrE⟩
TOASTS: Good health ⟨formal⟩, Your good health ⟨formal⟩, Cheers ⟨familiar⟩, Here's to you, Here's to the future, Here's to your new job
SEASONAL GREETINGS: Merry Christmas, Happy New Year, Happy Birthday, Many happy returns (of your birthday), Happy Anniversary
ALARM CALLS: Help! Fire!
WARNINGS: Mind, (Be) careful!, Watch out!, Watch it! ⟨familiar⟩
APOLOGIES: (I'm) sorry, (I beg your) pardon ⟨formal⟩, My mistake
RESPONSES TO APOLOGIES: That's OK ⟨informal⟩, Don't mention it, No matter ⟨formal⟩, Never mind, No hard feelings ⟨informal⟩
CONGRATULATIONS: Congratulations, Well done, Right on ⟨AmE slang⟩
EXPRESSIONS OF ANGER OR DISMISSAL (familiar; graded in order from expressions of dismissal to taboo curses): Beat it ⟨esp AmE⟩, Get lost, Blast you ⟨BrE⟩, Damn you, Go to hell, Bugger off ⟨BrE⟩, Fuck off, Fuck you
EXPLETIVES (familiar; likewise graded in order of increasing strength): My Gosh, (By) Golly, (Good) Heavens, Doggone (it) ⟨AmE⟩, Darn (it), Heck, Blast (it) ⟨BrE⟩, Good Lord, (Good) God, Christ Almighty, Oh hell, Damn (it), Bugger (it) ⟨esp BrE⟩, Shit, Fuck (it)
MISCELLANEOUS EXCLAMATIONS: Shame ⟨familiar⟩, Encore, Hear, hear, Over my dead body ⟨familiar⟩, Nothing doing ⟨informal⟩, Big deal ⟨familiar, ironic⟩, Oh dear, Goal, Checkmate

Note *That's OK* ⟨informal⟩, *Don't mention it*, *You're welcome* ⟨esp AmE⟩, and *No problem* ⟨esp AmE⟩ are also used as responses to thanks.

Most of the formulae allow for little or no change in their form. The greeting formula (appropriate to a first meeting) *How do you do?* has a regular clause structure, but in the formulaic sense the verb cannot be made past (**How did you do?*), the subject cannot be changed from *you* (**How do they do?*), the sentence cannot be subordinated as an indirect question (**They asked him how he did.*) or answered in equivalent statement form (**I do very well*). The appropriate response to the greeting is the repetition *How do you do*?

Some imprecations are imperative in form, but they do not have the structural potentialities of imperatives. For instance, there are no negative forms **Don't blast you*, **Don't bugger it*, and an indefinite object, such as *some students*, is not possible: **Blast some students!* Similarly, the formulaic *Don't mention it* cannot be made positive (**Mention it*).

Interjections

11.55 Interjections are purely emotive words which do not enter into syntactic relations. Some of them have phonological features which lie outside the regular system of the language. *Whew*, for instance, contains a bilabial fricative [Φɪu], [Φː]; *tut-tut* consists of a series of alveolar clicks, [ɪɪ]. What we produce below are the spelling conventions for a wide range of sounds. Secondary pronunciations are derived from the spelling conventions (*cf* Note [c] below). In addition, many interjections may be associated with nonsystematic features such as extra lengthening and wide pitch range.

Ah (satisfaction, recognition, etc); *Aha* (jubilant satisfaction, recognition); *Ahem*, [əʔəm] (mild call for attention); *Boo* (disapproval, usually for a speaker at gathering; also surprise noise); *Eh?* [eɪ] (impolite request for repetition, but *cf* 11.11); *Hey* (call for attention); *Mm* (casual 'yes'); *Oh* (surprise); *Oho* (jubilant surprise); *Ooh* (pleasure or pain); *Oops* (mild apology, shock, or dismay), *Ouch* [aʊtʃ], *Ow* [aʊ] (pain); *Pooh* (mild disapproval or impatience); *Sh* [ʃ] (request for silence or moderation of noise); *Tut-tut* [ɪɪ] (mild regret, disapproval); *Ugh* [ʌx] (disgust); *Uh-huh*, also *Uh-uh* (agreement or disagreement); *Wow* (great surprise)

Note [a] The above is not intended as a complete list. Some interjections are less frequent, *eg*: *Yippee* (excitement, delight), *Psst* [ps] (call for attention, with request for silence). The archaic interjection *Alas* (sorrow) may be encountered in literature.
[b] Interjections are sometimes used to initiate utterances: *Oh, what a nuisance*; *Ah, that's perfect*.
[c] There are also some spelling pronunciations: [ʌg] for *ugh*; [tʌt tʌt] for *tut-tut*, often with an ironic tone; [həʊ həʊ] and [hɑː hɑː], both representing laughter, are always ironic.

Bibliographical note

On speech acts see Austin (1962); Cole and Morgan (1975); Leech (1980), esp Chapter 4, and (1983); Lyons (1977); Searle (1969, 1979).

On questions see Huddleston (1971) Chapter 2; Hudson (1975b); Malone (1967); Pope (1976); Stockwell et al (1973) Chapter 9; on tag questions Bald (1979), Cattell (1973), Millar and Brown (1979); on alternative questions Bolinger (1957, 1978a); on more than one *wh*-element Bolinger (1978b); on negative questions Kontra (1980).

On directives see Bolinger (1967c), and (1977a) Chapters 8 & 9; Downes (1977); Stein (1976); Stockwell et al (1973), Chapter 10; Thorne (1966); on stative verbs in directives Mańczak (1979).

On anomalous utterances see Bowman (1966); Leech (1963); Morgan (1973); Straumann (1935); Yanofsky (1978).

12 Pro-forms and ellipsis

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Introduction

12.1 The preceding chapters have been concerned with the basic structures of English sentences. We turn in this and the following chapters to the ways in which these basic constituent structures can undergo elaboration (or expansion) and reduction (or abbreviation). In 2.9–10 SUBORDINATION and COORDINATION were introduced as two principles whereby the structure of a simple sentence can enter into a more complex structure. In the case of subordination, one clause is embedded in another, while in the case of coordination, one clause, or part of a clause, is combined with another constituent of equivalent status in the structure of the sentence. In principle, both these processes, if they are used iteratively, allow a limitless complexity of grammatical structure.

In contrast to subordination and coordination, REDUCTION (*cf* 2.52) is a grammatical principle whereby the structure of a sentence is abbreviated, avoiding redundancy of expression. We have so far (*cf* 2.51–2) recognized two kinds of reduction, the use of PRO-FORMS, and ELLIPSIS:

MEANS OF STRUCTURE REDUCTION	MEANS OF STRUCTURE EXPANSION
Pro-forms (12.8–30)	Coordination (Chapter 13)
Ellipsis (12.31–70)	Subordination (Chapters 14 and 15)

These devices of expansion and abbreviation will now be more thoroughly investigated; but it will be convenient to divide the whole topic into three, concentrating in this chapter on reduction, turning in the next chapter to coordination, and leaving until Chapters 14 and 15 the detailed study of subordination.

Reduction and coordination

12.2 There is good reason, apart from convenience, for dealing with reduction and coordination in neighbouring chapters. When we coordinate two or more units, we duplicate the same kind of structure; for example, Clause + Clause; Noun Phrase + Noun Phrase + Noun Phrase. This kind of duplication does not normally occur without a parallelism of meaning or function between the conjoins. Such parallelism, in turn, implies an overlap of content and structure. For example, two clauses which apparently have no connection of meaning, like those of [1], are not likely to be juxtaposed or coordinated:

Pushkin was Russia's greatest poet.
Special terms are available for senior citizens. } [1]

But more commonly juxtaposed are sentences like [2], which share some common ground:

Pushkin was Russia's greatest poet.
Tolstoy was Russia's greatest novelist. } [2]

This common ground, moreover, often shows itself in the sharing of a common structure; *eg* each sentence of [2] has the structure *SVC*. It shows itself further in the repetition of the words themselves: thus both sentences of [2] contain the word sequence *was Russia's greatest*. This sharing of common lexical content is a typical condition under which the reduced alternative is chosen. Not only can [2] be expressed as a single unreduced sentence by the device of coordination:

Pushkin was Russia's greatest poet, and Tolstoy was Russia's greatest novelist. [2a]

It can also be reduced to a more compact form by, for example, the combination of ellipsis of the second verb with the pro-form *her*:

Pushkin was Russia's greatest poet, and Tolstoy her greatest novelist. [2b]

So close is the association between coordination and ellipsis that we cannot very well understand the one phenomenon without understanding the other (*cf* further 13.44*ff*).

Reduction as a syntactic phenomenon

12.3 Although reduction may in general be regarded in semantic or pragmatic terms as a means of avoiding redundancy of expression, what kinds of reduction are permitted is largely a matter of syntax. English permits, for example, no reduction of the form of [1], whereby the repetition of all three words *was Russia's greatest* is avoided:

*Pushkin was Russia's greatest poet, and Tolstoy novelist. [1]

One of the major tasks of this chapter will be to explain the conditions for ellipsis and the use of pro-forms, whereby, for instance, 12.2 [2b] is grammatical and [1] above is not. Such an explanation must give an account, also, of the different degrees and types of reduction which may be available to the language user as synonymous alternatives. For example, [2a–f] are reduced alternatives to [2]:

The girls swam faster than it was EXPÈCTED that the girls would swim. [2]
The girls swam faster than it was EXPÈCTED that they would swim. [2a]
The girls swam faster than it was EXPÈCTED that they would do. ⟨BrE⟩ [2b]
The girls swam faster than it was EXPÈCTED that they would. [2c]
The girls swam faster than it was EXPÈCTED they would. [2d]
The girls swam faster than was EXPÈCTED. [2e]
The girls swam faster than EXPÈCTED. [2f]

Motivation for reduction

12.4 Such synonymous possibilities as are illustrated in 12.3 [2a–f] are not equally acceptable. Whatever grounds there may be in any given case for expressing oneself with maximum explicitness, there are generally strong preferences

for the most economical variant, *viz* the one which exhibits the greatest degree of reduction. Other things being equal, language users will follow the maxim 'reduce as much as possible'. This generally means preferring ellipsis to the use of pro-forms, where there is a choice between them. Thus [2c] is slightly more economical than, and to that extent preferable to, [2b]; similarly the ellipsis allowed in [1a] below is slightly more economical than the use of pro-forms in [1b]:

She might sing tonight, but I don't think she will (sing tonight). [1a]
She might sing tonight, but I don't think she will *do so*. [1b]

Such preference for reduction is not merely a preference for economy: it can also contribute to clarity, by reducing items which are shared as 'given information', so that attention will be focused on fresh material, or 'new information' (*cf* 18.8), as in the dialogue below:

A: Have you spoken to Bob? B: $_{\Delta}$ Not yet $_{\Delta}$. [2]

From here on we use, when convenient, the convention of marking ellipsis by the symbol $_{\Delta}$. Although the full, unreduced version of a sentence is often stylistically unfavoured, we shall also, from time to time, follow the practice, already introduced in [1a], of showing optionally ellipted words in parentheses:

A: Have you spoken to Bob? B: (I have) Not yet (spoken to Bob).

We have mentioned above a maxim 'reduce as much as possible'; but it should be added that reduction is avoided, at least in careful written style, where it would lead to ambiguity or some other kind of difficulty for the interpreter:

After Her Royal Highness had named the ship, *she* slid smoothly and gracefully down the slipway, hitting the water with barely a splash. [3]
In the course of the play, Atreus kills his wife Aerope, Aegisthus his uncle Atreus, and Pelopia herself. [4]
Only my cousin, the housekeeper, and Mrs Baldwin were in the house at the time of the burglary. [5]

Ill-advised reduction can have various effects; *eg* the amusement caused by [3], where *the ship* is clearly the intended antecedent of *she* (*cf* 5.111 Note); and the confusion or puzzlement which is likely to be a reader's first reaction to [4], where the double ellipsis of the verb *kills* adds to the comprehension problems caused by the Greek names. Further, sentence [5] exhibits ambiguity, since it is not clear whether *the housekeeper* is coordinated or appositive. This ambiguity could be avoided by using a relative clause instead of apposition (*my cousin, who is the housekeeper*), or by inserting an additional *and* (*my cousin and the housekeeper* . . .; *cf* 13.17).

Note Unreduced forms are used for rhetorical effect in cases of 'expressive repetition'; *cf* 19.23. In addition, repetition may sometimes be avoided by the substitution of coreferential expressions (*cf* 19.49), such as the coreferential noun phrase *the teacher* in:

Peter Sand denied he ever neglected his students: *the teacher* claimed that the school administration had a grudge against him.

Coordination and reduction as cohesive devices

12.5 There is a further reason, apart from the fact that coordination often involves ellipsis, for including reduction and coordination in neighbouring chapters. The two processes of reduction and coordination, although dissimilar in that one expands whereas the other contracts structure, actually have related functions, in that they provide cohesion in discourse (*cf* 19.11, 19.44*ff*, 19.57). When we examine how a sequence of sentences can be combined to form a spoken or written text, the two devices which most pervasively mark the connections between one idea and another are, on the one hand, the overt linkage of conjunctions and conjuncts, and, on the other hand, the covert linkage of coreference and substitution which exists by virtue of pro-forms and ellipsis. The phenomena we shall be discussing in this chapter can be illustrated not only through connections *within* sentences, but through connections *between* them, as in 12.4 [2]. Nevertheless, our treatment of coordination and reduction in this chapter will be largely confined to single sentences. The role of coordination and reduction in intersentence connection will be taken up in Chapter 19.

Recoverability

12.6 One aspect of reduction as a cohesive device in texts is the fact that the full form of what has been reduced is generally RECOVERABLE FROM CONTEXT. The relevant 'context' is often the linguistic context: *ie* a neighbouring part of the text; but (as noted in 5.28–31) there are other sources from which what has been reduced can be recovered. We shall first mention the most important type of recoverability from the grammatical point of view:

(i) TEXTUAL RECOVERABILITY: the full form is recoverable from a neighbouring part of the text.

To this we add two lesser kinds of recoverability, which do not contribute directly to cohesion of text:

(ii) SITUATIONAL RECOVERABILITY: the full form is recoverable from the extralinguistic situation.

(iii) STRUCTURAL RECOVERABILITY: the full form is recoverable not through knowledge of context, but simply through knowledge of grammatical structure.

A reduced form such as the pronoun *she* may be said to presuppose knowledge on the part of the hearer, as well as of the speaker, of its intended referent. We can recover the identity of the referent either from the situation outside language [1], or from the linguistic context [2–3], *ie* from information given in the discourse itself:

Is *she* badly hurt? [1]
The poor girl did not complain, although *she* was badly hurt. [2]
Although *she* was badly hurt, *the poor girl* did not complain. [3]

One can imagine someone saying [1] on arriving at the scene of an accident in which a girl has been struck by a car. It would be evident from the situation, without further elaboration, which person was meant by *she*. In [2] and [3], on the other hand, the identity of 'she' is given by the linguistic

context. We recognize two kinds of textual recoverability: [2] is an example of the ANAPHORIC use of the pronoun and [3] is an example of the CATAPHORIC use (*cf* 6.19). We should, moreover, make the same point here as in Chapters 5 and 6: textual recoverability is best regarded as a special case of situational recoverability; *ie* the information given elsewhere in the text is, for the purpose of the discourse, the explicit part of the situational knowledge which is available to addresser and addressee. It is natural, then, that anaphoric reference (reference to some antecedent which has already been mentioned) should be much more common than cataphoric reference (reference to some 'antecedent' to be mentioned later). Although the term ANTECEDENT (*cf* 2.44) literally means 'going before', we apply it, as others have done, to items which follow the pro-form or ellipsis, as well as items which precede it.

The third kind of recoverability, structural recoverability, is illustrated by the optional omission of the conjunction *that* in:

It is strange (*that*) nobody heard the noise. [4]

Since the word *that* is uniquely recoverable in [4], it is reasonable to include it under the heading of ellipsis. But in this case, contextual information is irrelevant: the optionality of *that* is purely a matter of grammatical structure (*cf* 15.4).

12.7 Recoverability is crucial to the use of pro-forms. Pro-forms such as personal pronouns have very unspecific meanings; *eg*: *she* means simply 'the female person we know about', *it* 'the thing we know about', etc. Therefore it is necessary, for the interpretation of these words, to have information from which we can uniquely predict their intended referents. This information is usually found in a preceding or following part of the text, but it may also be found in the situation. The task of interpretation is the same for pronouns such as *he*, *she*, *it* as for definite noun phrases such as *the old lady* (*cf* 5.28*ff*), except that since the meaning of a 3rd person pronoun is less specific, there is consequently more dependence on context. In the case of 1st and 2nd person pronouns, on the other hand, the referents are usually easily recoverable from the situation.

Essentially the same distinctions apply to ellipsis. The normal understanding of the term ELLIPSIS is that words are omitted where understanding can be achieved without word repetition, as in:

She might *sing tonight*, but I don't think that she will (sing tonight). [1]

This is a case of textual recoverability, specifically of ANAPHORIC ELLIPSIS, since the antecedent occurs earlier in the text. The other possibility, that of CATAPHORIC ELLIPSIS, is illustrated in:

If you want (me to (buy the tickets)), I'll *buy the tickets*. [2]

(On the omission or retention of *to* in such cases, *cf* 12.64.) As with pro-forms, however, the redundancy need not relate to words implied by the linguistic context. The words may be obvious from the situation. For example, a host may invite a guest to eat a sandwich with the words: *Like one?* In this case, the sentence may be regarded as an elliptical variant of *Would you like one?* (*cf* 12.49).

Pro-form substitution

The difference between coreference and substitution

12.8 The bond between a pro-form and its antecedent may be of two different kinds: COREFERENCE and SUBSTITUTION. These relationships are in principle quite distinct, but in practice they overlap, as will be seen in 12.9.

Coreference, as the name implies, means the bond of 'cross-reference' between two items or expressions which refer to the same thing or set of things. It is, as we have seen, a typical function of personal pronouns such as *she* and *they*, as well as a common function of definite noun phrases containing *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* (*cf* 5.30*f*, 6.44). In this chapter, however, we shall be more concerned with the relation of substitution than with that of coreference.

Substitution, as its name suggests, is a relation between pro-form and antecedent whereby the pro-form can be understood to have 'replaced' a repeated occurrence of the antecedent. A major test of substitution, therefore, is whether the antecedent can be copied, without change of meaning, into the position taken by its pro-form substitute. For example *one* substitutes for *a first prize* in [1], as the equivalence of [1], grammatically and semantically, with [1a] shows:

Bill got *a first prize* this year, and I got *one* last year. [1]
Bill got *a first prize* this year, and I got *a first prize* last year. [1a]

It is clear that the pronoun *one* is grammatically and semantically equivalent to *a first prize* in [1], but it is also clear that it does not refer to the same prize as does *a first prize*. In other words, the substitution relation between a pro-form and its antecedent is not necessarily a relation of coreference.

Conversely, a relation of coreference between two items is not necessarily a relation of replaceability:

Two players injured *themselves* during the match. [2]

In [2], the two phrases in italics are coreferential, in that the set of persons denoted by *two players* is the same set of persons as that denoted by *themselves*. We could not, however, replace *themselves* by *two players* without a change of meaning:

Two players injured *two players* during the match. [2a]

(In other cases of coreference, on the other hand, such replacement is possible; *cf* 12.9.)

Substitution does not imply an exact copying of an expression. When the repeated expression is restored in the position of the substitute, it may differ morphologically from the antecedent:

This *coat* is more expensive than the $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{ones}\\ \textit{coats}\end{matrix}\right\}$ I saw in the market.

In this respect, substitution is analogous to what we later call standard ellipsis (*cf* 12.38).

Note On the other hand, substitution brings with it the requirement that the repeated expression have

the same meaning in both of its occurrences. Thus it would be impossible, except in joking, to substitute *one* for the repetitive occurrence of *a nail* in [3]:

≠ { I hurt my *nail* while hammering *a nail* into the wall. [3]
I hurt my *nail* while hammering *one* into the wall. [3a]

Characteristics of substitution

12.9 Although there are points at which coreference and substitution overlap, we should in general treat them as distinct kinds of cohesive relation. The main characteristics which distinguish substitution from coreference are:

(i) As already shown by examples 12.8 [1] and [1a], a substitute pro-form can be replaced by the antecedent without unacceptability on structural grounds and without change of meaning. This, of course, is subject to structurally predictable variation, as mentioned in 12.8.

(ii) A substitute pro-form (*eg*: *one*, *ones*, *some*) can be either definite or indefinite, while a coreferential pro-form (*eg*: *he*, *she*, *they*) is always definite.

(iii) Coreferential pro-forms are always pronouns or pronoun-related adverbs (*eg*: *there*, *then*; *cf* 12.10*f*), but substitute pro-forms may be outside the pronoun category (*eg* the substitute verb *do*).

(iv) A substitute pro-form is normally highly dependent on its linguistic context for interpretation; *eg* it is difficult to make sense out of context of:

I've never met *one*. Did you *do any*?
Agnes said *so*. I hope *not*.

Coreferential pro-forms, on the other hand, can be placed on a scale of text-dependence in this sense. Pronouns such as *he* and *she* tend to be highly dependent on linguistic context, whereas other words (such as *the*, *this*, and *that*) often point to something which is known or observed in the situational context.

While these distinctions will be illustrated in the following sections, it is as well to begin with a commonly arising example of the difficulty of distinguishing between these two relations:

George was the best runner in our school, and so everyone expected that *he* would win the prize. [1]

This is a straightforward case of coreference by personal pronouns: unless the context suggests another antecedent, it will generally be understood that *George* and *he* refer to the same person. But in this case, unlike 12.8 [2], the substitution of the antecedent for the pronoun will normally leave the meaning of the sentence unchanged:

George was the best runner in our school, and so everyone expected that *George* would win the prize. [1a]

In fact, the distinction between coreference and substitution as specified in criterion (i) above becomes indistinct wherever both the pro-form and the antecedent are definite. For this reason, it is important to consider the whole set of criteria (i–iv) above, rather than to rely on the first criterion only.

Note Even so, it is sometimes argued that the failure to reduce a noun phrase to a pronoun, as in [1a], invites a different interpretation from that of the reduced equivalent [1]. It is argued, that is, that the two *Johns* in *John thinks John will win* are not coreferential, and that therefore *John thinks John will win* and *John thinks he will win* have different meanings, only the latter involving coreference. More realistically, however, we can admit that both these sentences are ambiguous in that they may or may not be interpreted as containing coreference. For example, the two *Johns* in *John thinks John will win* may be coreferential, if the use of a pro-form is avoided for some special rhetorical effect, such as the irony of: *John's greatest admirer is John*.

Lists of pro-forms

12.10 In illustrating criteria (i–iv) in 12.9, we may take it that criterion (i) has been, and will continue to be, exemplified without the need for any further discussion. Criterion (ii), that of definiteness, can best be explained by a listing of the main pro-forms in each category:

LIST 1: PRO-FORMS USED FOR COREFERENCE

(a) PERSONAL PRONOUNS (6.15*ff*) such as *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*; *her*, *them*
(b) REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS (6.23*ff*) such as *myself*, *himself*, *themselves*
(c) POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS (6.29*f*) such as *my*, *his*, *her*; *mine*, *hers*, *theirs*
(d) DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (6.40*ff*) *this*, *that*; *these*, *those*
(e) DEFINITE ADVERBS of time (8.51*ff*) *then*; and of place (8.39*ff*) *here*, *there*
(f) the DEFINITE PRONOUN AND PREDETERMINER *such* (6.44 Note [b]).

LIST 2: PRO-FORMS USED FOR SUBSTITUTION

(a) INDEFINITE PRONOUNS (6.45*ff*) *one(s)*, *some*, *any*, *none*, *either*, *neither*, *few/fewer/fewest*, *many/more/most*, (*a*)*little/less/least*, *much/more/most*, *several*, *enough*, *each*, *all*, *half*, *both*, *other(s)*, *another*. These are indefinite (quantitative) pronouns of the kind which enters into the *of*-construction (6.48).
(b) DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS (6.40*ff*) *that*, *those*
(c) PRO-PREDICATE and PRO-PREDICATION *do* (12.21*ff*)
(d) PRO-COMPLEMENT, PRO-PREDICATION, and PRO-CLAUSE *so* (12.27*ff*)
(e) PRONOUN and PRO-COMPLEMENT *the same*, *likewise*, *similarly* (12.20)
(f) ADVERBS of process (8.78*ff*) *so*, *thus*; and of degree or intensity (8.104*ff*) *so*, *that*.

From these lists, it is evident that pro-forms used in coreference are all items of definite, rather than of indefinite meaning. A large proportion of the items in the list of substitute forms, however, are indefinite.

Many of the pronouns which occur in List 1 are functionally parallel to noun phrases introduced by definite determiners, such as *the bag*, *this time*, *those new boots*. Coreference is a general feature of definite noun phrases, as has already been made clear in Chapters 5 and 6 (*cf* 5.30*f*, 6.19, 6.44), and as will be further discussed in 19.44*ff*.

List 2 includes *do* only as a main verb. The auxiliary *do*, and parallel 'stranded' modal auxiliaries, are sometimes analysed as substitute forms in examples such as:

A: [*Did* / *Will*] you leave early? [1]

B: Yes of COURSE we [*did* / *will*]. [2]

In fact, we will not analyse such auxiliaries in terms of substitution, but rather in terms of ellipsis; for further discussion of this point, *cf* 12.60.

The items in List 3 consist of more than one pro-form, in some cases bringing together aspects of coreference and substitution:

LIST 3: COMPLEX PRO-FORMS *which are substitutes for* PREDICATES *or* PREDICATIONS
do so, do it, do (just) that, do the same, do likewise (12.23*ff*)

Note *That* and *those* are exceptional in occurring in both List 1 and List 2. They can obviously be coreferential. On the use of these items as substitute forms, *cf* 12.19.

Adverbs with a coreferential or substitute function

12.11 Criterion (iii) in 12.9 makes the point that coreference is primarily a characteristic of pronouns. Yet in List 1, not only pronouns but adverbs occur. This apparent anomaly will now be explained. The concept of *reference* involves the naming of some object or set of objects in the world, and this referential function is characteristically performed by noun phrases. Pronouns, which have a noun-phrase-like character, are therefore the primary instruments of coreference. On the other hand, substitution can in principle apply to any type of constituent:

Please *sign your name* if you haven't already *done so*.

Here *done so* acts as a substitute for the predication *signed your name*.

However, the adverbs (e) and the predeterminer *such* (f) which appear in List 1 belong here because they contain definiteness as part of their meaning, and can be easily paraphrased by means of noun phrases: *then* can often be paraphrased by 'at/after that time', *here* and *there* by 'at this/that place', and the predeterminer *such* (as in *such a day*) can similarly be paraphrased by 'like this' or 'like that'. These items are typical of coreferential pro-forms in that they lend themselves to situational as well as to anaphoric or cataphoric interpretation.

The coreferential use of these items is illustrated in the following:

One morning the captain invited us to the bridge. He told us *then* about his secret orders. [1]
Between London and Oxford there is *a famous inn called the George and Dragon. Here* we stopped for lunch. [2]

With the above examples, as with previous examples of coreference, the pro-form cannot be replaced by the antecedent without some change of reference. For example, if we replace *then* by *one morning* in [1], it is not clear whether the morning mentioned in the first sentence is the same as the one mentioned in the second sentence. On the other hand, such replacement would be possible in [3], where both pro-form and antecedent are definite:

If you look *in the top drawer*, you'll probably find it *there*. [3]

The adverbs in List 2, however, are best classified as substitutes:

Professor Sands was *attending to one of the routine laboratory tasks*. While he was *thus/so* engaged, however, he observed that one of the rats was behaving oddly. ⟨formal⟩ [4]
To the Greeks, Pan was *a herdsman god, half-man, half-goat*; and he is *thus/so* represented in their sculpture. ⟨formal⟩ [5]
Though Bairstow designed the car to exceed *400 miles per hour*, few people believed that it would go {*so* fast. / *that* fast. ⟨formal⟩} [6]

(*cf* further 7.89, 19.50.)

Here, although paraphrase with such phrases as 'in that manner' or 'to that extent' is possible, the meaning is more abstract than in the case of *here, then*, etc. For example, [5] is paraphrased by:

To the Greeks, Pan was *a herdsman god, half-man, half-goat*; and he is represented *as a herdsman god, half-man, half-goat* in their sculpture. [5a]

Even though the repetition in [5a] maintains synonymy with [5], the italicized phrases in [5a] contain indefinite rather than definite noun phrases. We may therefore regard these adverbial uses of *so* and *thus* as instances of substitution rather than of coreference.

At the two poles of coreference and substitution the distinctiveness of these two cohesive relations is clear, but it is in the adverb category in particular that there tends to be a middle ground of overlap, as indicated in *Fig* 12.11.

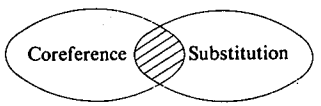

Fig 12.11 Pro-form–Antecedent Relations

Anaphoric, cataphoric, and situational use of substitution

12.12 Criterion (iv) of 12.9 is that the substitute pro-form almost always requires textual recoverability, whereas this is not generally true of coreferential pro-forms. For example, the forms *this* and *that* frequently have extralinguistic reference, as in *Is this/that my plate?* The same is true, less frequently, of 3rd person pronouns such as *he, she*, and *it* (*cf* 6.15, 12.6). On the other hand, substitutes such as the pronoun *one* and the pro-predication *do so* normally require an antecedent. The relation with the antecedent may be anaphoric, as in [1], or, occasionally, cataphoric, as in [2]:

There's *a clean towel* in the cupboard, if you need *one*. [1]
If you need *one*, there's *a clean towel* in the cupboard. [2]

Even with substitute forms, however, situational reference cannot be entirely excluded. Examples such as *Would you like one?* may be heard, where the meaning of *one* is only recoverable from the situation (*eg* where the speaker is carrying a bowl of peaches, so that *one* is interpreted as synonymous with *a peach*).

Note The conditions governing the cataphoric use of substitute forms are the same as those governing the cataphoric use of personal pronouns (*cf* 6.19) or of ellipsis (*cf* 12.45).

Cross-reference of *it, this, that,* and *so* to clauses and sentences

12.13 We turn now to a further respect in which coreference and substitution are sometimes difficult to distinguish. In both kinds of cross-reference, there can be a lack of correspondence in the grammatical status of the pro-form and its antecedent. This is clearly illustrated in the following examples, where the pronouns *it*, *this*, and *that* refer respectively to a clause, a sentence, and a sequence of sentences (*cf* further 19.44*ff*):

If you don't study for the examination, you'll regret *it*. [*ie*: you'll regret not studying for the examination] [1]

A: *She's expecting twins*. B: How do you know THAT? [2]

After many weeks of rain the dam burst. Millions of gallons of water plunged into the valley, and villages were swept away in the flood. In a short time, thousands of square miles of low-lying ground were covered with water. This was a disaster on a scale which no one had foreseen. *It* led to loss of life, and widespread damage to livestock and crops. [3]

Similarly, *so* as a substitute pro-form can substitute for a whole clause or sentence:

A: *The Finance Minister has resigned.*
B: Who said *so*? [*ie*: Who said that the Finance Minister has resigned?] [4]

The difference between *it/this/that* and *so* in this connection is discussed in 12.28. For the kinds of cross-referential relation illustrated here, the term 'pro-clause' is appropriate.

The present section shows that, in the case of substitution, it is necessary to distinguish three different grammatical expressions: (i) the substitute item itself; (ii) the expression which it replaces, and which in turn could replace it; and (iii) the antecedent which supplies the textual recoverability condition for the substitution. This may be illustrated with reference to [4] above:

(i) The substitute pro-form: *so*
(ii) the expression it replaces (a clause): *that the Finance Minister has resigned*
(iii) the antecedent (a sentence): *The Finance Minister has resigned.*

When a substitute form is referred to as a 'pro-*X*', *X* identifies the item for which the pro-form substitutes, and not necessarily the antecedent.

Substitution for noun phrases and their constituents

12.14 Substitute pro-forms will be considered in the following order:

Pro-forms replacing noun phrases and their constituents (12.15–20)
Pro-forms replacing clauses and their constituents (12.21–30)

We begin with noun phrases. Parentheses will be used to indicate the possibility of ellipsis where both substitution and ellipsis are possible.

One as substitute form

12.15 There are two substitute pro-forms *one*: one has the plural *some*, and the other has the plural *ones*. Both are invariably unstressed, and are thereby distinguished from the numeral *one* (*cf* 6.54). Both types of *one* are restricted to substitution for phrases with count nouns as heads.

(i) *one/some* is a substitute for an indefinite noun phrase:

A: Can you give me *a few nails*? I need *one*.
B: I'll get you *some* soon.

Compare:

I need { *a nail.* / *one.* } I need { *some nails.* / *some.* }

The antecedent of *one*, however, may be definite:

The clean towels are in the drawer – if you need *one*. [= 'a clean towel']

Note Only stress distinguishes the numeral *one* from the substitute pronoun *one* in contexts such as the following:

Have you any postage stamps? I only want to { borrow ÓNE. [numeral] [1] / BÓRrow one. [pronoun] [2] }

In [1] *one* is a reduced version of *one stamp* (in contrast to *two*, *three*, etc). In [2], *one* is a reduced version of *a stamp*, and the nucleus on *borrow* implies the contrast 'I want you merely to lend me a stamp, not to give me one'.

12.16 (ii) *one/ones* has as its antecedent a noun phrase head with or without one or more modifiers. We call this unit a NOMINAL EXPRESSION: it acts as a single constituent for purposes of substitution and ellipsis (*cf* 13.75):

A: Have you any *knives*? I need a sharp *one*.
B: I can get you several very sharp *ones*, but this is the best (*one*) I have.

Unlike *he*, *it*, etc which stand for noun phrases, *one/ones* is more literally a 'pro-noun'.

In the above example, *one* substitutes twice for *knife*, and *ones* for *knives*. In all three instances *one/ones* is a substitute for a single word – the noun head. In other cases *one* may substitute for a nominal expression including premodification, as well as a head:

If you want to buy an *electric heater*, you may be interested

in this {*electric heater* / *one*} in the window. [1]

or for head + postmodifier:

I wish I'd bought a few *jars of honey*. Did you notice

the {*jars of honey* / *ones*} they were selling by the roadside? [2]

or for premodifier + head + postmodifier:

He goes about interviewing *retired sailors who served in the pre-1914 navy*. The *one* that he met in Devon last week was a fascinating storyteller.

One as a pro-form for a noun phrase is not accompanied by determiners or modification, whereas *one* as a pro-form for a nominal expression must have an overt determiner or modifier. The former *one* can be regarded as a merger of the latter *one* with a preceding indefinite article: *a* + *one*. This simplifying assumption has two advantages: (a) it explains why **a one* does not occur (but *cf* 6.55 Note); and (b) it reduces the two homomorphic forms *one* (i) and *one* (ii) to a single substitute form.

For noncount nouns, the noun phrase substitute is *some*:

Shall I pass the *butter*? Or have you got {**one* / *some*} already?

Note Ellipsis can be used instead of substitution both for count and noncount nouns:
Which mustard would you prefer? English or French $_\Delta$?
Which heater(s) do you use? Electric or gas $_\Delta$?

Some, none, etc as substitute forms

12.17 The indefinite or quantifier pronouns *some, none, any, few/fewer/fewest, many/more/most, little/less/least, much, several, enough, each, either, neither, all, both, half* can all act as substitutes for noun phrases introduced by the corresponding determiners (*cf* 5.10*ff*). For example:

Can you give me {a few *nails*? / a little *oil*?} I NÈED *some*. [= some nails/oil] [1]

When the *children* entered, *each* [= each child] was given a small present. [2]

Some *equipment* has been damaged, but *none* [= no equipment] has been lost. [3]

I'd like some *more coloured paper*, if you HĂVE *any*. [= any more coloured paper] [4]

Both the aircraft's *engines* had been hit, and *neither* [= neither engine] could be relied upon to bring us safely home. [5]

John and I went looking for *mushrooms*. He found *a few* [= a few mushrooms], I found *several* [= several mushrooms], and we soon had *enough* [= enough mushrooms] for breakfast. [6]

I asked for a dozen *tickets*, but they couldn't spare *many*. [= many tickets] [7]

This year we produced more *coal*, but we sold LÈSS. [= less coal] [8]

This year we produced more *coal*, but we didn't SÈLL SO MÚCH. [= so much coal] [9]

His sons go to the same school as he did, and *all* [= all his sons] want to become doctors. [10]

With some quantifiers, the substitute may be preceded by another word, which determines or modifies it:

I asked for a dozen tickets, but they couldn't

SPÀRE {*as/so* many as THÁT. / ˈ*that* MÁny. ⟨rather informal⟩}

John found a few mushrooms, and I found *several* MÒRE.

In *that many*, the adverb *that* modifies the pronoun *many*; and in *several more*, the determiner *several* determines the pronoun *more*. (*That many* is sometimes regarded as 'bad English', *so many* being preferred.)

With some other quantifiers, *neither, either*, and *both*, it is reasonable to regard the substitute pronoun as replacing a phrase beginning with a corresponding correlative conjunction:

Proust and James are great novelists, but I like Tolstoy better than ÈITHER. [= either Proust or James]

Proust and James are great novelists, but *neither* [= neither Proust nor James] is easy to read.

12.18 It is difficult to tell, in these cases, whether the pronoun is to be considered an example of substitution or ellipsis. *None* is the only quantifier pronoun whose form is different from that of its corresponding determiner (*no*). In all other cases, the pronoun and the determiner (or coordinator) are homomorphic (*cf* 2.38), and it seems reasonable to treat the construction as one of ellipsis rather than of substitution. For example:

I'd like *some more coloured paper*, if you HĂVE *any* $_\Delta$.

However, we shall propose to deal with cases like this as 'virtual ellipsis' (*cf* 12.40), *ie* as cases of a substitution of *X* for *Y*, where *Y* contains a homomorph of *X*. There is particular justification for this in the case of *some*, since *some* as a determiner can be reduced to an unstressed form /səm/ or /sm/, whereas the pronoun *some* cannot.

Note [a] Accepting this analysis will still, however, lead to uncertainty as to whether a reduction is to be treated as substitution or ellipsis. This is because many examples will accept a different type of analysis, if the antecedent is a definite noun phrase. Compare 12.17 [1–3], for example, with:
Can you give me a few of *these nails?* I NÈED *some* (of these nails). [1a]
When *the children* entered, *each* (of the children) was given a small present. [2a]
Some of *the equipment* has been damaged, but *none* (of the equipment) has been lost. [3a]
The problem of classification is highlighted by [3] and [3a]: it is clear that the sentence as analysed in [3] is a case of substitution, where *none* substitutes for *no equipment*, and it is equally clear that the sentence as analysed in [3a] is a case of ellipsis. These two types of reduction are so

similar, however, that ellipsis has sometimes been considered a kind of substitution, *viz* 'substitution by zero'. In this light, the problem of distinguishing between substitution and ellipsis may seem a mere technicality. But it is a technicality which, as will be shown in this chapter, is important in enabling us to make generalizations about grammatical reduction.

[b] A further uncertain case is that of an antecedent consisting of coordinated proper names:

Manjit and Sherif applied for a scholarship. *Each* was able to present excellent references.

Each here can be treated as an elliptical variant of *Each of Manjit and Sherif*, but in other cases such an analysis would mean postulating a source sentence of limited acceptability:

John, Bob, and Susan were at the party last night.

All (?of John, Bob, and Susan) are good dancers.

[c] There are restrictions of countability and number on the use of the indefinite pronouns we have been considering. Some are count, some noncount, some singular, etc. The details are given in 6.48.

[d] On problems of concord involving some of these pronouns, *cf* 10.42*f*.

That and *those* as substitute forms

12.19 As demonstrative pronouns, *that* and *those* can function not only as coreferential pro-forms (*cf* 6.44) but as substitute pro-forms. In this latter function, they are always followed by restrictive postmodification, and are equivalent to *the one* and *the ones* respectively:

Towards the end of his life, Schubert wrote two remarkable *trios*: *that* [= the trio] in B flat, and *that* [= the trio] in E flat. ⟨formal⟩

The *paintings* of Gauguin's Tahiti period are more famous than *those* [= the ones] he painted in France.

That can also be used as a substitute with a noncount noun, where *the one* could not be used:

The victim's own blood was of a different blood group from *that* [= the blood] found on the floor.

But whereas *that* is less restricted than *those* in this respect, it is more restricted in that it cannot have a personal antecedent:

The blonde girl I saw was older than {the one / *that} you were dancing with.

The blonde girls I saw were older than {the ones / those} you were dancing with.

It follows that the combination **that who* . . . is unacceptable, whereas *those who* is perfectly acceptable. Another restriction on *that* as a substitute is that it cannot normally precede a zero relative clause:

The [problem / problems] confronting us today [is / are] not dissimilar

from [that which / those (which)] the nation confronted in the 1930s.

Perhaps this restriction is due to a potential confusion of the demonstrative *that* with the relative *that*. This use of *that* is decidedly formal, and tends to be restricted to written English. *Those*, on the other hand, is only slightly formal.

Note [a] Once again, the distinction between substitution and ellipsis, while important in principle, is difficult to draw in practice. Although the above cases of *that* and *those* can only be analysed as substitutes (for insertion of the relevant head noun would not produce an appropriate noun phrase), there are other, similar instances for which the postulation of an ellipted noun or nominal expression would yield a reasonable analysis:

The *topic* of cellular physiology is regrettably among *those*$_\Delta$ which lie outside the compass of this book.

The possibility of inserting *topics* after *those*, and thereby analysing this as an instance of ellipsis, has to be accepted in the stylistic context of formal written English, since in this variety of the language *that* and *those* are used as 'strengthened' equivalents of cataphoric *the* (*cf* 5.32). There is little difference between *the* and *those* in the following sentence, except that *those* is more emphatic:

Cellular physiology is regrettably among *the*/*those* topics which lie outside the compass of this book.

[b] A further restriction on *that* as a substitute form is that it rarely combines with the relative pronoun *that*; the combination *those that*, on the other hand, is acceptable:

[More modern methods / A more modern method] of horticulture [have / has] replaced [those that / ?that that / the one that]

prevailed at the time of the College's foundation.

Note, in this connection, other instances of avoiding repetition where one item fully or partially echoes a preceding one which has a different function (*cf* 3.5 Note [d], 4.40 Note [a]).

The same as substitute form

12.20 *The same* can be a substitute for a noun phrase:

A: Can I have *a cup of black coffee with sugar*, please?
B: Give me *the same*, please.

It can sometimes also be a substitute for an adjective phrase or prepositional phrase acting as a complement expressing a current attribute (*cf* 10.20):

Yesterday I felt *under the weather*, and today I feel *the same*.

The soup smells *delicious*, and the turkey smells *the same*.

A further function of *the same* is as substitute for a nominal clause, especially after *say*:

A: (I say) Oxford is likely to win the next boat race.
B: I say *the same*. [= that Oxford is likely to win the next boat race, too]

In both these latter functions, *the same* partially overlaps with *so* (*cf* 12.29); in a similar way, *do the same* overlaps with *do so* (*cf* 12.23).

In all substitute uses, however, *the same* rather perversely implies that the two events being referred to by the antecedent and by the substitute are *not* the same event. For example, *the same* could not replace *so* in the following sentence:

Tom *phoned for the doctor*, but didn't tell his mother he had *done so*.

But *the same* could replace *so* in the following:

Tom *phoned for the doctor*, but didn't realize that his mother had just *done so*.

As illustrated in this example, there is an additive element of meaning in *the same*, which is not present in otherwise equivalent substitute forms.

Consequently, *Give me the same, please* can be roughly paraphrased *Give me one too please*; *Joan said the same* can be paraphrased *Joan said so too*, and *The same goes for me* can be paraphrased *That goes for me, too. The same* implies a comparison between two objects or events.

Note [a] But *the same* was formerly used coreferentially without any implication of comparison: *I invited Dr Jones to see me, and was visited by the same* [= him] *at 3 p.m.* This use is now rare and possibly nonstandard. It is associated with legal or bureaucratic jargon:

I recovered the weapon and delivered (*the*) *same* to the sergeant.

The variant in which *the* is omitted is felt to be especially objectionable.

[b] The use of *the same* as a noun phrase substitute should be distinguished from its use with a following ellipsis:

A: Is that a new bicycle?
B: No, it's *the same* (one) as (I had) before.

In such constructions, where identity of reference is implied, the addition of the pro-form *one* is preferred. Ellipsis is felt to be less acceptable particularly when a postmodifying clause follows:

A: We're staying at the Excelsior Hotel.
B: ?Is that the same *as/that you stayed in last summer*?

Substitution for clauses and clause constituents

The verb *do* in substitution and ellipsis

12.21 When we turn from the noun phrase to substitutive processes in the clause, the units to which primary attention must be given are the predicate and the predication. The two most important and versatile items to consider in this connection are the pro-predicate or pro-predication *do*, and the pro-clause, pro-complement, or pro-adverbial *so*.

A careful distinction must be made, however, between *do* as an auxiliary verb with the status of dummy operator, and *do* as a main verb (*cf* 3.36*ff*). It is in the latter function that *do* is a substitute form.

As an auxiliary, on the other hand, *do* is structurally parallel to other operators:

Martin drives a car, and his sister does $_{\Delta}$, TÒO.
Martin can drive a car, and his sister can $_{\Delta}$, TÒO.

In such cases, we will talk of ellipsis of the predication, rather than of substitution for the predicate. Further discussion and exemplification will be given in 12.60.

In the following sections 12.22–6, on the other hand, we examine the substitute role of *do* as a main verb. In this role, it is necessary to distinguish a transitive use of *do* from an intransitive one. There is also a problematic function of *do* in the expression *do so*: this is problematic in the sense that it is difficult to determine (partly because of variation between BrE and AmE) whether *do* is in this case transitive or intransitive (*cf* 12.26 Note).

Do as main verb

Do as intransitive verb

12.22 In BrE many allow the possibility of adding after the operator an optional *do* as an intransitive substitute verb. This can take place only rarely after *do* as an operator (a), but is more common after a modal (b), or after perfective *have* (c):

(a) Bob says he is going to join the Labour Party. It will be interesting to see whether he DÒES (*do*).
(b) The Americans are reducing their defence expenditure this year. I wonder if the RÙSsians will (*do*) TÒO.
A: Will you be attending the meeting this evening?
B: I MĂY (*do*).
(c) I didn't touch the television set; but PĚRCy might have (*done*).

As the last example shows, this *do* form can also occur after a sequence of auxiliaries.

The intransitive substitute *do* must be distinguished both from the transitive substitute verb (*cf* 12.25) and from the general-purpose activity verb *do* (as in *Have you done the dishes?* *cf* 3.38).

Note [a] In some Northern varieties of BrE, it is also possible for the *-ing* form of the substitute verb *do* to be used after progressive *be*:

A: Why don't you sit quietly? B: I ÀM (*doing*). [= sitting quietly]

[b] This use of *do* does not occur in nonfinite clauses:

A: Peter hunts rabbits. B: *Yes, he wanted me *to do*, too.

Similarly, because this use of *do* is intransitive, it cannot occur in a passive construction.

The combination *do so*

12.23 The combination of pro-forms *do so*, seen as a unit, acts as a substitute for a predicate or predication, and contains the main verb *do*, rather than the operator *do*. We therefore find that the combination occurs not only in the finite form of *does so*, *do so*, and *did so*, but also in nonfinite forms following a modal, *be*, or *have*, or in infinitive and *-ing* participle clauses. (Unlike the intransitive *do* of 12.22, the *do* in *do so* is usually stressed, and the *so* is always unstressed.) Examples representative of these various contexts are:

They planned to reach the top of the mountain, but nobody knows if they *did* (*so*). [= reached the top of the mountain] [1]
You can take the train back to Madrid, but I shouldn't (*do* (*so*)) until tomorrow morning. [= take the train back to Madrid] [2]
The American team will have to think of some new tactics, and are probably *doing so* at this very minute. [= thinking of some new tactics] [3]
Would you mind feeding the dog, if you haven't already (*done* (*so*))? [= fed the dog] [4]
As no one else has succeeded in solving the mystery, I shall attempt to (*do so*) myself. [= solve the mystery] [5]
As no one else has succeeded in *doing so*, I shall attempt to solve the mystery myself. [= solving the mystery] [6]

The *do so* construction is somewhat formal, and in general there is an alternative ellipsis of the predication (*cf* 12.59) which is preferred in informal use, and which is indicated by the brackets in the above examples. In [2] and [4], also, the use of a main verb *do* without *so* is possible (as described in 12.22) in BrE.

There are some cases where the elliptical alternative is not possible (*eg* in the *-ing* participle clause of [6]), and other cases where the elliptical alternative is avoided, (*eg* in [3]), perhaps because ellipsis of the predication would leave the meaning unclear, especially when the ellipsis is medial (*cf* 12.62).

?The American team will have *to think of some new tactics*, and are probably $_\Delta$ at this very minute. [3a]

Note [a] There is one further major instance of the construction in which *do so* occurs: *do so* may follow another occurrence of *do*, this time as operator:

They planned to reach the top of the mountain, but nobody knows if they DID ((do) so). [= reach the top of the mountain]

The repetition of *do* here, however, is felt to be awkward, and tends to be avoided. Again, the option with *do* but without *so* is associated with BrE.

[b] The combination *doing so*, whether in finite progressive constructions, or in *-ing* participle clauses, can be inverted to *so doing*:

Roberts was rounding up the cattle. When asked why he was *so doing*, he replied: 'Orders are orders.'

The rescue crew attempted to land a helicopter on the platform; but the fire and the fierce wind prevented them from *so doing*.

[c] There is a similar inversion (rare and formal) of *do* and *so* in a *to*-infinitive construction:

Newspapers should not include editorial comment in their news columns.

{*To 'do so* / *'So to 'do*} is to betray the confidence of their readers.

When it is fronted in this way, *so* receives stress. Another variant of the same construction involves placement of *so* between *to* and *do*: *to 'so 'do*. This is particularly rare, perhaps because of the prescriptive objection to a 'split infinitive' (*cf* 8.21).

Comparison of *do so* with *do it* and *do that*

12.24 The predication-substitute *do so* is similar to two other combinations, *do it* and *do that*. All three can be used in:

A: Rover is *scratching the door*.

B: Yes, he always {*'does so* / *'does it* / *does 'that*} when he wants attention.

Mr Brown goes to the hospital for treatment every week:

in fact, he has been {*'doing so* / *'doing it* / *'doing 'that*} ever since I have known him.

On more careful inspection, however, these expressions are used somewhat differently.

Do that and *do it* are combinations of the transitive main verb *do* (*cf* 3.38) with the demonstrative *that* and the pronoun *it*. As such, they combine the substitute function of *do* with the coreferential function of *it/that*.

In the following, a subtle difference between these and the *do so* construction is highlighted:

Martin is painting his house. I'm told he *does it* every four years. [1]

Martin is painting his house. I'm told this is merely because his neighbour *did so* last year. [2]

Although *do it* and *do so* could be interchanged in these examples, the use of *do it* is favoured in [1] because the same action (the painting of Martin's house) is being described on both occasions; while the use of *do so* is favoured in [2] because it is merely the same general *type* of action (painting of houses) that is being described.

Do it and *do that*, on the other hand, differ in that *do that* gives more prominence to the object (*that*), which often receives nuclear stress, and is treated to some extent as new or contrastive information (*cf* 18.8). The *it* of *do it*, on the other hand, is always unstressed:

Is Connie still trying to light the stove? She should have DÒNE *it* by NÓW. [3]

Are you trying to light the stove with a match? I wouldn't *do THĂT* [4]

In [3] the nature of the task described by *done it* is entirely given, and so the focus of information comes upon the completive implication of *done*. But in [4] the nature of the task itself is a cause of surprise, and so emphasis falls on *that*.

Note In addition, *do that* and *do it* differ for some speakers to some extent in meaning, in that *do it* substitutes for a narrower set of predications, those which convey volition on the part of the subject:

A: When you chop off a chicken's head and it's already dead, it still *kicks a few times*.
B: Why does it *do* THÀT? [B: *Why does it DÒ it?]

But *do it* is acceptable where the reason is not asked:

A: When you chop off a chicken's head and it's already dead, it still *kicks a few times*.
B: I wonder how it DÒES it.

The *do it* pro-forms appear to be acceptable only where *kick* implies agency on the part of the chicken. In the last example, B talks as if the chicken were still alive and had control over its movements.

12.25 Both *do it* and *do that* are straightforward verb + direct object constructions, and are parallel to other constructions in which a pro-form acts as object of the pro-verb *do*:

What is she *doing*? She's *making some coffee*.
What I *did* next was (*to*) *open the window*. (*cf* 18.29*f*)
She asked me to make some coffee, *which I did*. (*cf* 15.57)

It is possible for *it* or *that* to become the subject of the corresponding passive clause:

A: Have you noticed that the front wheel is buckled?
B: *That was done* ages ago.

For *do so*, however, there is no corresponding passive **So was done ages ago*. The *do it/that* constructions are also typical of the use of *do* as a transitive

verb. In general, transitive *do* is (i) dynamic and (ii) agentive; *ie* it refers to some action that is performed or voluntarily initiated by the referent of the subject (*cf* 4.33*ff*, 4.4). It is hence abnormal (in spite of the case described in 12.24 Note) for *do* as a transitive main verb to be associated with stative predications, or with involuntary process predications, as in:

A: They think he is mad.
B: *WÈ *do it* TÒO. [1]

A: He owns a Cadillac.
B: *Yes, his BRÒTHer does {that / THÁT} TÒO. [2]

(Here as elsewhere, however, *do* as operator is acceptable: *Yes, his brother does, too.*)

With regard to *do so*, there is divided usage. Some speakers, particularly in AmE, treat the *do* in *do so* as agentive and therefore find replies such as those in [1] and [2] odd, even if *do so* is substituted for *do it/that*. Attitudinal verbs are doubtfully acceptable with *do so*:

?*A: Peter *likes work.*
B: I think BÒB *does* (*so*) TÒO.
?*A: She will hate the way he goes on about his prizes.
B: PÈTer will do (so) TÒO.
?*A: David might have wanted his food now.
B: MÀRy might have done (so) TÒO.

Again, *do* as operator or as an intransitive main verb (in BrE) is acceptable in these examples. Other verbs in this class seem to allow the substitutions in BrE, but they are odd to varying degrees in AmE:

A: They think he is mad.
B: WÈ {do / ?do so} TÒO.
A: I can smell perfume.
B: ?I can do so TÒO.
A: Bob might have heard the strange noises.
B: (?) He might WÈLL have *done so.*

However, even in the least acceptable of such examples, *do so* is more acceptable than *do it* and *do that* would be. Contrast:

All the children resemble their mother's relations more closely than they do their father's. They are thought to *do* {*so* / **it/that*} on account of the genetic effects of this curious kinship system.

Note *Do the same, do likewise, do similarly* are alternatives to *do that* when a comparison is involved. Just as *the same* cannot normally refer to the identical thing referred to by its antecedent (*cf* 12.20), so *do the same* cannot refer to the identical event. It not only is a substitute, but also has the additive meaning of *too*:

I'll contribute ten dollars, if you'll *do the same* [= do so, too].

The above observations on *do the same* also apply to *do likewise* and *do similarly*.

Do as substitute verb: a summary

12.26 By way of summary, we may now give the following list of uses of *do*. To avoid confusion, it is important to distinguish *do* functioning as an operator (where it is not a substitute, but a dummy operator) and *do* functioning as a main verb. The major criterion for distinguishing these two is that the main verb *do* has nonfinite forms (*doing* and *done*) as well as finite forms (*do, does, did*).

DO AS:	FOLLOWED BY:	SUBSTITUTING FOR:	RESTRICTIONS
operator *do*	–	–	not a substitute but used with quasi-ellipsis (12.60)
main verb *do* (intransitive)	–	predication	BrE only (12.22)
main verb *do* (transitive? *cf* Note)	+ *so*	predication	in AmE, and to some extent in BrE, dynamic meaning only (12.23*ff*)
main verb *do* (transitive)	+ *that*	predication	dynamic meaning only (12.24*f*)
main verb *do* (transitive)	+ *it*	predication	dynamic agentive meaning only (12.24*f*)

Note Whereas the *do* preceding *it/that* is clearly transitive, the status of *do* preceding *so* is not so clear. This reflects the uncertain nature of the *do so* construction both grammatically and to some extent semantically. What kind of word is *so*? If it is a pronoun, then it functions as direct object, like *it/that*, and the *do* preceding it is transitive, and has dynamic meaning. This analysis seems to accord with the facts of usage in AmE fairly well, but not with those in BrE, where there is, to complicate matters, an intransitive main verb (*cf* 12.22) pro-form which is not restricted to dynamic meaning. Perhaps it is association with this *do* which accounts for the less restricted use of *do so* in BrE. These observations suggest that *so* is more of an adverb than a pronoun, as would be supported by the paraphrase of *do so* as *behave in that way*. A similar conclusion is supported by the absence of a passive construction **so was done* . . . It seems safest, all in all, to treat this word as a unique substitute form which does not easily fit into any of the word classes. Further uses of this anomalous word will now be examined.

So as pro-form

So as complement substitute

12.27 *So* is a versatile pro-form. Apart from its use as an adverb (*cf* 7.89, 12.10), it can substitute for an adjective, an adjective phrase, or a noun phrase functioning as complement:

Prices at present are reasonably *stable*, and will probably remain *so*.
If he's *a criminal*, it's his parents who have made him *so*.
Brett's work is not yet *consistent in style and quality*, but will no doubt become *so*.

On the other hand, *so* cannot easily be retained following *be*, the usual form of reduction here being ellipsis, or (informally) the substitutes *like that* or *that way*. Compare:

The plants are healthy enough now, but I wonder how long they will { *be* (?*so*). / *remain so*. }

La Gioconda is *so called* because of her enigmatic smile.
Prices at present are *reasonably stable*, and will probably stay *that way*.

The combinations *more so* and *less so* substitute for a comparative adjective expression:

Although the poor girl was *exhausted*, she was less *so* than we feared.
The weather was *hot* in Cairo, but at Luxor it was even more *so*.

Other combinations of this kind are *too much so* and *so much so*:

The weather was *hot* in Cairo – so much *so*, that we stayed indoors all day.

Note [a] *So* as pro-complement can also appear in initial position in the clause:
We hoped that the programme would be a success, and *so* it turned out.
[b] Following the verb *be* in sentences such as *That is so*, *so* is not a substitute form, but a synonym for *true* or *the case*. Other comparable examples are:
It may be *so*. This must be *so*, because . . .
It is perhaps this construction that occurs with subject–verb inversion in the literary archaisms *So be it* and *Be it so*.
[c] *Otherwise* can be a negative counterpart of *so* as pro-complement:
They promised that the vessel would be in good condition [and / but] we found it [*so.* / *otherwise.*]

So and *not* as substitutes for *that*-clauses

12.28 A more frequent use of *so* is as a pro-clause substituting for a *that*-clause as direct object. The antecedent is often an entire sentence:

Oxford is likely to win the next boat race. All my friends say *so*. [= . . . that Oxford will win the next boat race]
Jack hasn't found a job yet. He told me *so* yesterday. [= . . . that he hasn't found a job yet]

This use of *so* applies both to reported speech (*cf* 14.30*ff*) and to reported beliefs or assumptions:

Many people believe that the international situation will deteriorate.
My father thinks *so*, but I believe *not*.

As this example shows, the negative substitute equivalent to *so* in this construction is *not*. Unlike *so*, however, the substitute *not* usually receives nuclear stress:

A: *Has the news reached home yet?*
{ B: I'm AFRĂID SO. / B: I'm afraid NÒT. }

Apart from the adjective *afraid*, this use of *not* is restricted mainly to verbs of belief or assumption, while the corresponding use of *so* is also found in some verbs of saying such as *say* and *tell*. Verbs that commonly allow both *so* and *not* (*cf* 16.31–2) include:

appear	expect	hope	presume	seem	suspect
believe	guess	imagine	reckon	suppose	think

In this list, *appear* and *seem* occur with an initial anticipatory *it* (*cf* 16.34, 18.33*ff*): *it appears so/not*, *it seems so/not*.

The pro-form *not* is occasionally used with the verbs *say* and *tell*, but the use of the positive pro-form *so* is much more frequent with such verbs of saying. With other verbs and adjectives, such as *know* and (*be*) *sure*, neither of these forms can normally be used, but the whole *that*-clause can be ellipted (*I know*; *I am sure*; *cf* 12.65), or else the pronoun *it* can be used: *I know it* ⟨AmE⟩; *I am sure of it*. For other examples of ellipsis in place of *so* (*eg*: *Who says? I agree*) *cf* 12.65.

So as a pro-clause occasionally occurs in initial position, with or without subject inversion:

A: Oxford will win the boat race; at least, *so* all my Oxford FRĬENDS say.
B: { And *so* say most of the SPÒRTS writers, TÒO. / *So* most of the SPÒRTS writers say, TÒO. }

When the subject is a pronoun, however, no inversion is possible:

A: Most people are backing the Oxford crew.
B: *So* I believe; but that doesn't mean they'll win. [**So* believe I]

The fronting of *so* does not occur with *afraid* (**So I'm afraid*), and occurs only marginally with certain verbs (?*So I guess*; ?*So we are hoping*). On the other hand, *So it appears* and *So it seems* are common expressions.

Note [a] The idiomatic clause *so they say* (where *they* refers to 'people in general'; *cf* 6.21) is often added to the end of a sentence, and has a status similar to that of a final comment clause (*cf* 15.55 Note [a]):
The town hall is going to be REBÙILT, so they SÁY.
[b] With verbs taking transferred negation (*eg*: *think*, *suppose*; *cf* 14.36), the use of *not* as a clause substitute is rather formal, and is often replaced by the use of *so* preceded by negation in the main clause:
I don't think so. (~ I think not.)
I don't suppose so. (~ I suppose not.)
I don't believe so. (~ I believe not.)
This construction with *so* is especially common when *I* is subject. With verbs not taking transferred negation, this alternative construction is not possible:
I don't hope so. ≠ I hope not.
[c] There is sometimes a contrast between *so* and *it/that* as pro-forms following verbs such as *believe* and *say*:
{ I [can't / don't] believe [it / that]. [on receiving a piece of news; NOT *I can't believe so] / I really believe so. [confirming an opinion] }
(A: Come in!)
B: { Who 'says *so*? [= Who gives permission?] / Who said '*that*? [= Who said 'Come in'?] }
In such cases *it/that* refers to an actual utterance, while *so* refers to the content of an utterance. Compare the similar contrast between *do so* and *do it/that* (*cf* 12.24*f*).
[d] Exceptional combinations of a verb with the substitute *so* or *not* occasionally occur. For example, *I know so* is sometimes acceptable if it is used contrastively in a 'second instance' utterance:
A: Do you think Tom will succeed?
B: I don't THĬNK so, I KNÒW so!

Equally, a verb such as *claim* or *tell* may occur exceptionally with *not* as substitute when the context demands contrastive emphasis:

I thought they had agreed to write an indemnity into the contract. But THÈY CLÁIM NÒT.

Initial *so*

12.29 Three constructions with initial *so* have already been noted: the one in which *so* precedes *do* in nonfinite clauses (*eg*: *in so doing*, *cf* 12.23 Notes *b* and *c*), the one in which *so* is a pro-complement (*cf* 12.27), and the one in which *so* is a *that*-clause substitute (*cf* 12.28). But here we need to consider particularly two superficially similar constructions in which stressed 'so precedes a subject and operator:

So + op + S CONSTRUCTION WITH SUBJECT–OPERATOR INVERSION

YŎU asked him to leave, and 'so did ì. [= I asked him to leave, too]
The corn is ripening, and 'so are the ÀPPles. [= the apples are ripening too]
You've spilled coffee on the table, and 'so have ì. [= and I've spilled coffee on the table, too]

So + S + op CONSTRUCTION WITHOUT SUBJECT–OPERATOR INVERSION

You asked me to leave, and 'so I DÌD. [= and I DÌD leave]
A: It's starting to snow. B: 'So it ìs!
A: You've spilled coffee on your dress. B: Oh dear, 'so I HÀVE.

In the former construction (*So* + op + S) *so* is not a pro-form at all, but an additive adverb, equivalent in meaning to *too* or *also* (*cf* 8.116). Notice, in confirmation of this, that the construction is elliptical, and that the missing predication can be supplied (*cf* 12.21):

YŎU asked him to leave, and 'so did WÈ (ask him to leave). [1]

In fact, the nonelliptical variant in [1] is rarely used, because it involves needless repetition. But the fact that it is possible implies that the connection between the clause *so did we* and its antecedent clause is made by ellipsis, rather than by a substitute form. A further pointer to this conclusion is that *so* in this construction is precisely parallel to the negative additive adverbs *neither* and *nor*, which similarly take subject–operator inversion (*cf* 13.36*ff*):

The corn isn't ripening, and *neither/nor* are the apples (ripening).

It is possible to apply a rule whereby *So* + op + S is changed into S + op, *too* (without change of meaning) for all clauses of this pattern.

Note [a] In spite of the parallel with the negative constructions *Neither/Nor* + op + S, *So* + op + S is occasionally used (in very informal style) with a negative operator, and in this case it refers back to a negative clause:
A: My sister can't drive a car.
B: *So can't a lot of other people*, but that doesn't prevent them from trying.
[= Neither can . . .]
The simpler construction of ?**So don't I* or ?**So can't she*, on the other hand, would be extremely unlikely as an alternative to *Neither do I* or *Neither can she*.
[b] Although we have described *so* in this construction as an additive adverb, it actually has the value of a conjunct, and may be compared with *so* as a resultive conjunct (*cf* 8.140).

So as pro-predication

12.30 For the second construction with initial *so*, that without subject–operator inversion, the possibility of supplying an ellipted predication is extremely doubtful:

A: You've spilled coffee on your dress.
B: ?*Oh dear, 'so I HÀVE spilled coffee on my dress.

and therefore it seems more reasonable to consider *so* in this construction to be not an adverb, but rather a predication substitute, equivalent to the *so* in *do so*. There is therefore little difference, except for the inversion, between:

I told Bob to eat up his dinner, and 'so he DÌD. [= indeed he DID]
I told Bob to eat up his dinner, and he DÌD so.

The only change of meaning brought about by the initial *so* here is an emphasis which might otherwise be conveyed by *indeed* or *in fact*. In replies, *So* + S + op expresses surprised confirmation of what the previous speaker has asserted:

A: It's past midnight. B: [looks at watch] 'So it ìs!

Note [a] In some varieties of popular speech, for example in dialects of Scotland and Northern England, *that* is used as a predication substitute rather like *so*, both in the initial and final positions:
A: He'll regret what he said. B: 'That he WÌLL.
A: Have you been working here long? B: I 'have THÀT.
When in final position, *that* carries the nucleus. The meaning of this construction is stronger than that of the *so* construction, and tends to be one of emphatic confirmation or agreement.
[b] In some regional varieties, particularly Irish English, a clause of the construction *so* + S + op (pronounced at a low pitch) can be added to a statement as a comment clause, by way of general emphasis:
He spoils those children to DÈATH, so he does.
[c] In another restricted variety of speech, the pro-form *so* is given nuclear emphasis:
A: They didn't hurt her. B: They did sò.
[d] Yet another regionally restricted variant is the use of *nor* as a negative pro-predicate with inversion (corresponding to the positive *so*) in:
A: I couldn't do anything for her.
B: *Nor* you CÒULD – but you might have got someone else to help.
[e] On the initial intensifier *so* in constructions like *So angry was she* . . ., *cf* 15.74 Note [b], 18.24 Note [a].

Ellipsis

The nature of ellipsis

12.31 Ellipsis may be more strictly described as 'grammatical omission', in contrast to other kinds of omission in language. There is, for example, the phonological loss (aphaeresis) of a syllable in the familiar form of *because* (often spelled *'cos*). In word formation (*cf* App I.74), the clipping of words (*eg*: *flu* from *influenza*) may well be regarded as a process of this kind: the omission is

describable in terms of phonological units (syllables) rather than in terms of morphological units (morphemes) or grammatical units (words). There is also, arguably, semantic omission. In:

Frankly, he is very stupid.

The disjunct *frankly* implies a comment by the speaker on the way he is speaking (*cf* 8.124*f*). But there is no one set of missing words that can be supplied. We can expand *frankly* to (among many forms) *I am speaking frankly when I say* . . . or *If I may put it frankly I would tell you* . . . Similarly, in:

He's drunk, because I saw him staggering. [1]

there is an implicit meaning (*cf* 15.21) that might be expressed by:

He's drunk, *and I claim this* because I saw him staggering. [2]

But equally we can express this understood meaning in other forms, such as *and I know, and I am sure of it, and I am convinced of it, and the proof is that* . . . In such cases it is difficult to pin down in exact words what has been omitted, so it is more appropriate to describe this phenomenon as SEMANTIC IMPLICATION rather than as ellipsis.

Criteria for ellipsis

12.32 To distinguish ellipsis from other kinds of omission, it is important to emphasise the principle of VERBATIM RECOVERABILITY that applies to ellipsis; that is, the actual word(s) whose meaning is understood or implied must be recoverable. Even so, like those of so many other grammatical categories, the boundaries of ellipsis are unclear, and it is best to recognize different degrees of 'strength' in the identification of examples of ellipsis. To be ellipsis in the strictest sense, an example must satisfy all the criteria specified in 12.33–6.

(a) The ellipted words are precisely recoverable

12.33 This means that in a context where no ambiguity of reference arises, there is no doubt as to what words are to be supplied:

She can't *sing* tonight, so she won't $_{\Delta}$. [1]

Examples like this contain an ellipsis that presupposes words in a previous part of the same sentence. It is clear that in [1] it is the word *sing* that has been ellipted. But by 'precisely recoverable' we do not necessarily mean 'unambiguously recoverable'. Consider the following:

If he works hard, I won't have to $_{\Delta}$. [2]

In one context, the assumption will be made that *work hard* is ellipted at the end of the sentence; but in another context, this assumption can prove false:

A: You ought to speak to James about his laziness.
B: If he works hard, I won't have to (speak to James about his laziness).

There are also cases of simultaneous ambiguity, such as:

The suspect admits stealing a car from a garage, but he can't remember which $_{\Delta}$.

where *which* could mean either 'which car' or 'which garage'.

This ambiguity of anaphora is parallel to the ambiguity of pronoun anaphora noted in 12.4 [3] above. In saying that with ellipsis the omitted words are precisely recoverable, we do not mean to exclude from ellipsis such cases of genuine ambiguity. Rather, we exclude indeterminate cases like 12.31 [1] above, where there is no clear-cut choice between one verbalization and another.

Note Verbation recovery does not necessarily mean that the items replaced are morphologically identical to the items constituting the antecedent; *cf* 12.36 below.

(b) The elliptical construction is grammatically 'defective'

12.34 Typically, ellipsis is postulated in order to explain why some normally obligatory element of a grammatical sentence is lacking. If such 'gaps' did not occur, there would be no obvious grammatical motive for invoking the concept of ellipsis in the first place. For example, in 12.33 [1] above, the auxiliary *won't* occurs without a following main verb (*cf* 2.27). Similarly, in [2] the infinitive marker *to* occurs without the infinitive verb which it normally introduces. While we might agree that such cases involve some structural 'gap', however, there are many other cases for which this is less clear. Would we decide, *eg*, that [3] below is deficient if the optional infinitive clause is omitted?

Visit me tomorrow, if you wish (to visit me tomorrow). [3]

This depends on whether we accept as 'normal' the occurrence of *wish* as an intransitive verb. Here, as in many other cases, the recognition of a structural 'deficiency' depends on a prior descriptive decision of grammar. The merits of each case must be argued on the basis of available evidence (*cf* for example 10.3 on intransitive and transitive verbs).

Some structures are clearly in some sense 'defective' but do not match the condition of precise recoverability. *Thanks*, for example, can act as a complete utterance, but lacking a clause structure, it does not fulfil the normal requirements of sentencehood (*cf* 11.38). It is not clear, however, what missing elements are left unexpressed. We could expand *Thanks* in various ways, for example:

I owe you my *thanks*. I give you *thanks*.

Thanks is therefore not properly elliptical according to criterion (a) (12.33). Rather, it resembles examples like *Hello* in that it has a formulaic status, and cannot be readily analysed according to any productive grammatical pattern (for further examples *cf* 11.54). This suggests that the criterion of structural 'deficiency' cannot be usefully applied in isolation from that of precise recoverability.

Another kind of grammatical 'deficiency' which is not included in the category of ellipsis is illustrated by some postmodifying clauses:

Her hair is not so black *as it was*. [black] [4]
Mrs Trent is very charming *to speak to*. [Mrs Trent] [5]

For the completion both of the sense and of the grammatical complementation of the verb in the subordinate clauses of [4] and [5], it would be necessary to add the words in square brackets. But if we add these words, [4] and [5] become ungrammatical. This brings us to criterion (c).

(c) The insertion of the missing words results in a grammatical sentence (with the same meaning as the original sentence)

12.35 This third condition of ellipsis is met by all the examples we have so far considered except for [4] and [5] of 12.34. But it distinguishes between the following comparative constructions:

He always wakes up earlier than *I*. ⟨formal⟩ [1]
He always wakes up earlier than *me*. ⟨informal⟩ [2]

To [1] could be added the ellipted words *wake up*, but not to [2]:

He always wakes up earlier *than I wake up*. [3]
*He always wakes up earlier *than me wake up*. [4]

This difference means that [1] is a more definite example of ellipsis than [2], and indeed partly explains why prescriptive teaching has favoured [1] as the 'more correct' form (*cf* 15.67). Another contrast in terms of this criterion is provided by participial clauses (*cf* 4.67, 14.19, 15.58) such as:

While (I was) eating my lunch, I heard a loud noise. [5]
(*Since I was) Knowing no French, I could not express my thanks. [6]

The insertion is not possible in [6] because *know* belongs to a category of verbs of stative meaning which lack progressive forms: **I am knowing French* (*cf* 4.4). Thus while [5] can by this criterion be classified as ellipsis, [6] is not.

The bracketed part of criterion (c) above – '*with the same meaning as the original sentence*' – is needed because there is always the assumption that whatever is 'understood' through ellipsis is part of the meaning of the elliptical sentence. In fact, without the proviso of synonymy between the full and ellipted forms of the sentence, there would be no way of confining the concept of ellipsis within reasonable limits. This proviso excludes from ellipsis such cases as the following, in which the insertion leads to a grammatical sentence, but the meaning is slightly altered:

The poor (people) need more help. [7]

Noun phrases such as *the poor* presuppose, for their interpretation, some such general noun as *people*; but if we add such a noun, as in [7], the noun phrase changes its generic meaning into a specific meaning (*cf* 5.26, 5.52–9). Generic meaning requires that we delete the article: *Poor people need more help*.

Note The following observation lends some confirmation to the argument for not treating *the poor* as having an ellipted noun:
The poor in spirit need more help.
*The poor people in spirit need more help.
The people poor in spirit need more help.

Where *poor* is postmodified, but not otherwise, the noun *people* must be inserted before the adjective if the result is to be a grammatical sentence. A different form of ellipsis must therefore be posited according to whether a phrase like *in spirit* is added or not:
the poor $_\Delta$
The $_\Delta$ poor in spirit
But there is yet a further complication: with prepositional phrases that can be analysed as reduced relative clauses, the general noun can appear only after the adjective:
The poor (people) in the ghettos need more help.
While *in spirit* postmodifies *poor*, *in the ghettos* postmodifies *poor* (*people*).
Since no consistent account of ellipsis can be given for this construction, it is just as well that our analysis regards it as nonelliptical.

(d) The missing word(s) are textually recoverable, and
(e) are present in the text in exactly the same form

12.36 Of these two related criteria, the latter is dependent on the former. It may be held that textual recoverability is the surest guarantee of ellipsis, since without it, there is usually room for disagreement on what particular word or expression has been ellipted. To return to an example similar to that of *Like one?* in 12.7: it would be difficult to insist, for a situation in which a guest is offered peanuts with the words *Like some?* that it is *peanuts* that is ellipted after *some* rather than (say) *nuts* or *of these peanuts*. However, within the textually recoverable category there is an even stronger criterion, which distinguishes [1] from [2]:

She might *sing tonight*, but I don't think she will (sing tonight). [1]
She rarely *sings*, so I don't think she will (sing) tonight. [2]

The ellipted expression in [1] is an exact copy of the antecedent (*sing tonight*), while in [2] the ellipted verb is morphologically different from its antecedent. Criterion (e) might be trivially subsumed under that of (c) if we simply noted the ungrammaticality of the following:

*She rarely *sings*, so I don't think she will *sings* tonight. [2a]

But it is important to recognize that [1] and [2] illustrate what, for most grammatical purposes, is the same kind of ellipsis: it remains true, in particular, that the ellipsis of *sing* is 'precisely recoverable' in the sense of 12.33. It is only in some cases (*eg* some types of coordination; *cf* 12.68) that criterion (e) is significant. Compare these superficially similar cases of coordination:

The club always has *paid its way*, and always will (pay its way). [3]
?The club always has (paid its way) and always will *pay its way*. [4]

Both these sentences violate the 'exact match' criterion (e), in that different forms of the verb *pay* are required in the two clauses. But whereas the ellipsis of [3] is widely treated as quite acceptable, that of [4] is widely regarded as incorrect (*cf* 13.88). A similar pair of examples is:

This is one of the oldest buildings in town, if not (actually) the oldest $_\Delta$. [5]
?This is one of the oldest $_\Delta$, if not the oldest, building(s) in town. [6]

Hence the technicalities of ellipsis, which we have been exploring in 12.33–6, are not *mere* technicalities, but have importance in enabling us to make

different generalizations about what kinds of reduction are possible in English grammar.

Note [a] In [6], both the singular *building* and the plural *buildings* would be open to stylistic criticism, but *buildings* would be the more acceptable alternative.
[b] The disfavoured types of ellipsis illustrated in [4] and [6] are liable to occur, but will generally be avoided in careful spoken and written use.

Ellipsis defined in terms of gradience

12.37 In view of the variable application of the above criteria (a–e) for ellipsis, it is reasonable to use the term 'ellipsis' in a way which acknowledges different degrees of strictness in its interpretation. *Table* 12.37 illustrates that the kinds of omission discussed above show various kinds of family resemblance to one another, and may be loosely ranged on a gradient extending from the strictest form of ellipsis (1) to semantic implication (9):

Table 12.37 Criteria for ellipsis

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	
+	+	+	+	+	(1) I'm happy if you are (happy).
+	+	+	+	−	(2) She sings better than I can (sing).
+	?	−	+	(+)	(3) She works harder than him (*works).
+	+	+	−	0	(4) (I am) Glad to see you.
−	+	+	+	−	(5) {(Since he was) / (Being)} Angry, he stalked out.
+	?	+	−	0	(6) I believe (that) you are wrong.
−	+	+	−	0	(7) The man (that/who/whom) I saw was half asleep.
−	?	+	−	0	(8) Houses (that/which are) owned by Mr Smith . . .
−	−	+	−	0	(9) The door opened and (then/after that/. . .) Mary entered.

Criteria
(a) The missing expression is precisely recoverable.
(b) The elliptical construction is 'defective'.
(c) The insertion of the missing expression results in a grammatical sentence with the same meaning as the elliptical sentence.
(d) The missing expression is recoverable from the neighbouring text (rather than from the structural or situational context).
(e) The missing expression is an exact copy of the antecedent.

KEY
+ The criterion is satisfied.
− The criterion is not satisfied.
? There is doubt about the criterion's satisfaction.
(+) With the required grammatical change, the criterion would apply.
0 The criterion is not applicable.

Types of ellipsis

12.38 To show how the criteria operate with respect to the specimen constructions (1–9), we add a few comments on each example, and also introduce the terms which will be used where necessary to describe the various subcategories or marginal categories of ellipsis.

(1) This is STRICT ELLIPSIS, to which all five criteria apply, and which is applicable mainly to coordination (*cf* 13.44*ff*).
(2) This is STANDARD ELLIPSIS, to which only the 'exact copy' criterion need not apply (we cannot expand the sentence to **She sings better than I can sings*, since only the infinitive may follow *can*). We shall use the term 'standard ellipsis' in cases where criterion (e), that the ellipted word(s) be an exact copy of the antecedent, is not required, but may well be incidentally satisfied as a result of constraints of constituent structure. For example, we may say that *She sings better than I can* (**sings*) and *She can sing better than I can* (*sing*) both exemplify standard ellipsis, and that the latter also happens to exemplify strict ellipsis. Standard ellipsis applies to those cases studied under the heading of 'general ellipsis' in 12.53–65.
(3) This is less strict than example (2), because the full form of the sentence cannot be recovered without changing the objective pronoun *him* to *he*. It is preferable to treat this as a case of substitution rather than ellipsis, and we shall call it QUASI-ELLIPSIS (*cf* 12.40).
(4) As an example of SITUATIONAL ELLIPSIS, this does not satisfy criteria (d) and (e) (*cf* 12.46*ff*).
(5) This example falls short of the criterion of unique recoverability (a), because various conjunctions, or alternatively a nonfinite verb, could be inserted: *Since he was angry, As he was angry, Being angry*, etc: (On verbless clauses such as (5), *cf* 14.9, 15.61.)
(6) Being structurally recoverable (*cf* 12.6), this may be termed STRUCTURAL ELLIPSIS.
(7) This might similarly be regarded as structural ellipsis; however, it does not quite match up to the 'precise recoverability' criterion, since an alternative relative pronoun, *who* or *whom*, could have been used.
(8) This is a nonfinite clause (*cf* 14.6*ff*) which can be analysed as a reduced version of a finite relative clause, with ellipsis of the relative pronoun and the verb *be*. Like (7), however, this example just falls short of standard ellipsis by criterion (a), since an alternative relative pronoun, *which*, could have been inserted.
(9) This example illustrates the endpoint of the ellipsis gradient, and indeed is more fittingly classified not as ellipsis at all, but as a case of SEMANTIC IMPLICATION (*cf* 12.31). Although the concept of sequence in time (expressed by *then*) is understood in the sentence *The door opened and Mary entered*, we cannot easily maintain that this is ellipsis, for there is no reasonable way of choosing between different adverbials conveying roughly the same concept: *then, after, afterwards, after that, thereupon*, etc.

Because the boundaries of ellipsis cannot be easily defined, we shall use the term quite generally for grammatical reduction through omission. For cases

like (5), (7), and (8), where the choice of what to insert, although not unique, is restricted to a small number of grammatical alternatives, the term WEAK ELLIPSIS may be used.

Note The 'fuzziness' of the concept of ellipsis goes with an unclarity, in many cases, as to the acceptability of certain types of ellipsis (*cf* for example, 13.88–9).

Ellipsis and substitution

12.39 One consequence of the gradience of ellipsis is that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between ellipsis and the use of pro-forms as substitutes. The phenomenon of pro-form substitution (*cf* 12.8–30) closely parallels ellipsis, in that a pro-form may be regarded as a replacement for a unique expression:

Our house is quite different from *theirs*. [*ie* their house] [1]
Many buildings were damaged, but *none* [*ie* no building] was destroyed. [2]

In these examples, however, the substitute pro-form is morphologically related to one of the replaced items. If we had chosen *his* rather than *theirs* in [1], and *few* rather than *none* in [2], the result would seem to fit the criteria of strict ellipsis:

Our house is quite different from *his* (*house*). [3]
Many buildings were damaged, but *few* (*buildings*) were destroyed. [4]

The reason for this technical difference between [1] and [3] is that *he* is exceptional as a personal pronoun in that it has the same genitive form in the determinative and head functions (*his*/*his*), in contrast to *my*/*mine*, *your*/*yours*, etc. Thus the choice between substitution and ellipsis seems to rest at this point merely on an irregularity of English pronoun morphology: the neutralization of *his* and *his*. (A similar point can be made about *few* and *few* in [4].) But there is another way of looking at this demarcation problem: a case can be made, despite appearances, for treating [3] as substitution.

The argument is that *his* [determinative] and *his* [head] are different words, in the sense that they are different grammatical forms which happen to be homomorphic (*cf* 2.38). On this basis, we may distinguish them as his_1 and his_2, and maintain that the contraction of [3] by the omission of *house* amounts to the substitution of his_2 for his_1 *house*, just as that of [1] amounts to a substitution of *theirs* for *their house*. A similar analysis may be made of [4], involving the substitution of few_2 [pronoun] for few_1 [determiner] *people*.

Quasi-ellipsis and virtual ellipsis

12.40 According to the argument in 12.39, we subsume under substitution:

(a) Examples such as *theirs* for *their house* [1] and *none* for *no person* [2], where the substitute form is a grammatical variant of the word or construction which appears in the replaced expression (we may call this QUASI-ELLIPSIS).
(b) Examples such as *his* for *his house* in [3] and *few* for *few people* in [4], where the substitute form is a homomorph of a grammatical form in the replaced expression (we may call this VIRTUAL ELLIPSIS).

Quasi-ellipsis may reasonably include not only cases such as *their*/*theirs*, in which there is a replacement by a different morphological form of the same lexical item, but also cases such as the DO-support construction, where the unstressed dummy operator fills the position of a 'stranded' operator (*cf* 3.26, 12.60):

SHĚ understands the problem better than HÈ does. [5]

Compare the modal auxiliary as operator in:

SHĚ would understand the problem better than HÈ would. [6]

It is possible to regard *understand the problem* as ellipted in [6], but it would not be possible to regard *understand(s) the problem* as ellipted in the parallel case of [5]:

SHĚ understands the problem better
than HÈ {*does understand / *does understands} the problem.

We may, however, view [5] as a case of quasi-ellipsis, in which the DO-support construction occurs as a regular variant of the present or past tense verb construction in circumstances (such as that of operator 'stranding') where the grammar of English requires an operator (*cf* further 12.60).

Whether quasi-ellipsis or virtual ellipsis are to be treated as cases of ellipsis or as cases of substitution is a matter of definition. We classify them technically as substitution, but at the same time, their labels are a reminder of the close interconnection between substitution and ellipsis.

Note [a] In other cases, the operator DO is followed by standard ellipsis (*cf* 12.60).
[b] Certain pronouns which exemplify quasi-ellipsis and virtual ellipsis in [1–4] above (*none*, *his*, *few*) would in other contexts provide instances of standard ellipsis. For example:
Many *of the buildings* were damaged, but *none*/*few* $_\Delta$ were destroyed.
Here we can postulate a straightforward ellipsis of the prepositional phrase *of the buildings*, since in both the elliptical and the antecedent constructions the quantifier is a pronoun. Such an explanation could not have worked for [2] and [4], however, because to match the antecedent, the noun phrase in its unreduced form would have to contain a pronoun in the determinative position, and would thereby become ungrammatical:
*Many buildings were damaged, but *none*/few_2 *buildings* were destroyed.
Hence for these sentences, explanation in terms of quasi- and virtual ellipsis is required.
An attempt to analyse [2] and [4] as standard ellipsis of *of the buildings* would come to grief because *of* would have to be added and *the* would add a meaning of definiteness not warranted by the antecedent. Once this addition of meaning were allowed, it would be impossible to adhere to the requirement of unique recoverability, since the ellipted expression could as easily be *of those buildings* or *of these buildings*, etc, instead of *of the buildings*.

The classification of ellipsis

12.41 In examining instances of ellipsis, we find it necessary to distinguish three major factors: (a) RECOVERABILITY TYPE; (b) FUNCTIONAL TYPE; and (c) FORMAL TYPE. Unless all three of these factors are taken into account, it is impossible to say exactly how and where ellipsis can take place.

Recoverability type

12.42 We have already made the relevant distinctions in 12.6*f*:

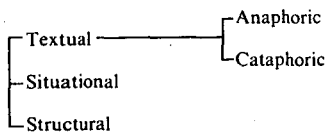

Fig 12.42

Functional type

12.43 When examining instances of textual ellipsis, whether anaphoric or cataphoric, it is often necessary to consider the relation of the antecedent construction to the elliptical construction within the larger construction of which they are both a part. For example, ellipsis in coordinate and comparative constructions is in some respects freer than in other kinds of construction, and merits separate treatment. Notice, in this connection, the difference between [1–2] and [3]:

Mary can beat Ann and $_\Delta$ Phyllis easily. [1]
[*ie* Mary can beat Ann easily and *Mary can beat* Phyllis easily.]
Mary can beat Ann more easily than $_\Delta$ Phyllis. [2]
[*ie* Mary can beat Ann more easily than *Mary can beat* Phyllis.]
*Mary can beat Ann if $_\Delta$ Phyllis easily. [3]
[*ie* Mary can beat Ann easily if *Mary can beat* Phyllis easily.]

In the second coordinate clause of [1] and the comparative clause of [2], it is possible to omit the subject and verb if these repeat the subject and verb of the other clause. But the parallel ellipsis cannot be carried out within the subordinate *if*-clause of [3].

Similarly, ellipsis is relatively free in response forms in dialogue (*cf* 11.51*ff*).

A: Whom can Mary beat most easily?
B: (Mary can beat) Phyllis (most easily).

Here, as in [1] and [2], the subject and verb *Mary can beat* may be ellipted.

The freer categories of ellipsis illustrated are possible only in certain constructions. On such grounds, we distinguish between GENERAL ELLIPSIS, where the functional relation between the elliptical and antecedent constructions is not important, and SPECIAL ELLIPSIS, where the possibilities of omission are closely determined by the relation (*eg* a coordinative or comparative relation) between these two constructions. In the present chapter

we shall confine ourselves chiefly to general ellipsis, since special ellipsis is more appropriately handled in the chapters dealing with special relations such as coordination or comparison.

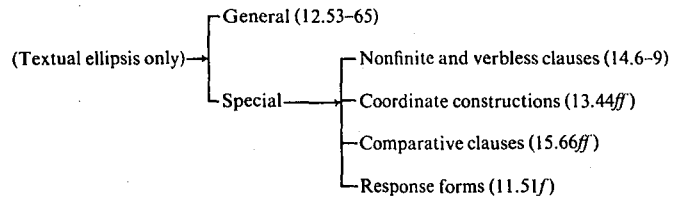

Fig 12.43 Functional types of ellipsis

Formal type

12.44 Formally speaking, elliptical constructions divide into three main categories. We shall distinguish INITIAL ellipsis, where initial elements are ellipted, from FINAL ELLIPSIS, where final elements are ellipted. For example, in [1] the *if*-clause is an example of initial ellipsis ('ellipsis on the left'), whereas in [2] the comparative clause is an example of final ellipsis ('ellipsis on the right'):

He will come later, if (*he comes*) *at all*. [1]
I have eaten more than *you* (*have eaten*). [2]

The conjunction *if*, because of its peripheral introductory role (*cf* 13.54), may be disregarded in judging an example like [1] as initial ellipsis. There is also a category of MEDIAL ellipsis, where only medial elements of a unit are omitted. But often it is better to argue that 'medial ellipsis' is a structural illusion which results from looking at too large a constituent in the sentence. If we examine conditions of ellipsis more carefully, medial ellipsis can often be treated as a special case of either initial or final ellipsis.

For example, within the clause it is often convenient to represent initial and final ellipsis as follows:

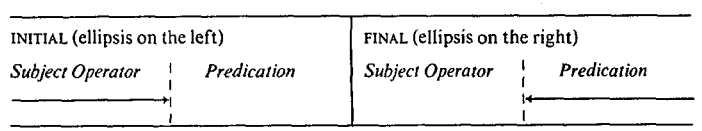

Fig 12.44a

That is, initial ellipsis applies to the subject and operator, and final ellipsis applies to the predication. But this scheme applies primarily to the more central elements of the clause. The more peripheral elements (*cf* 2.13) such as introductory conjunctions and optional adverbials are in general less essential features of the clause; and conversely, under ellipsis, it is these elements which are permitted to occur when others do not:

I know we have not yet *set the record straight*, but we will $_\Delta$ (some day). [3]

Just as in [1] the conjunction remains as a clause introducer, so in [3] the adverbial *some day* remains when the rest of the clause after the operator is omitted. Note that by contrast, the object or object complement in [3] could not be retained except as part of the whole predication:

*. . . but we will $_\Delta$ the record straight some day.
*. . . but we will $_\Delta$ straight some day.

It may therefore be proposed that optional elements such as optional adverbials do not enter into the process of ellipsis:

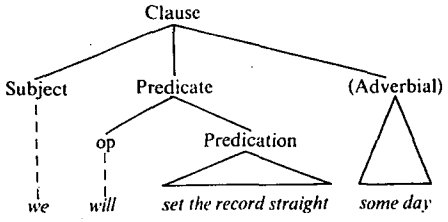

Fig 12.44b

On this basis, the ellipsis in [3] will be classified as final rather than medial.

Ellipsis which is definitely medial is also found, but in rather restricted circumstances (it will be discussed, with reference to coordination, under the heading of GAPPING in 13.92*f*). In general, final ellipsis predominates over both initial and medial ellipsis. It is a general condition that final optional elements (adverbials or postmodifiers) may be retained under conditions where final ellipsis operates. To conclude this general consideration of categories of ellipsis, we summarize the types mentioned in 12.41–4 in *Fig* 12.44c:

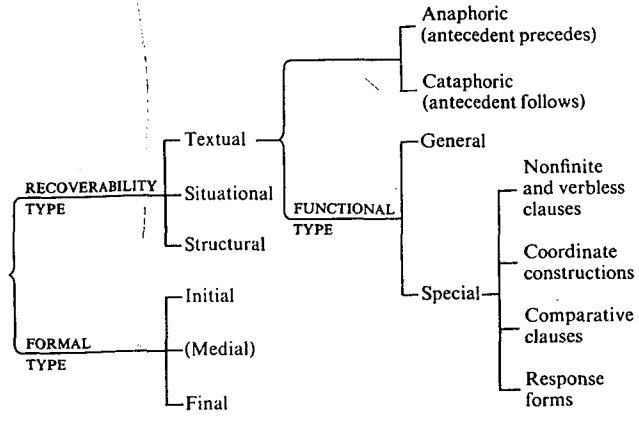

Fig 12.44c Main categories of ellipsis

Categories of ellipsis: recoverability

Anaphoric and cataphoric ellipsis

12.45 Returning to the recoverability types of ellipsis (*cf* 12.42), we begin with textual ellipsis, and the distinction between ANAPHORIC and CATAPHORIC reference (*cf* 12.6). Just as final ellipsis is the dominant formal type of ellipsis, so anaphoric ellipsis is the dominant type of textual ellipsis. In fact, ellipsis is governed in this respect by the same restrictions as pronoun reference (*cf* 6.19): the antecedent must normally have 'precedence' over the elliptical construction, by taking either an earlier position in the sentence, or a higher position (where 'higher' refers to a higher position in the tree diagram specifying the constituent structure of the sentence). Typically, cataphoric ellipsis occurs in a clause which is subordinate in relation to the clause in which the antecedent occurs.

If you want me to $_\Delta$, I'll *lend you my pen.*
We try, *whenever we can* $_\Delta$, to *leave a window open.*
Those *who prefer (to)* $_\Delta$ can *stay indoors.*
Don't ask me *why* $_\Delta$, but *the stone has been moved.*

(Both the elliptical clause and the antecedent expression are italicized in these examples.)

Note [a] It is difficult to specify the limits of acceptability for cataphoric ellipsis. Some kinds of ellipsis (including many cases of what we call general ellipsis) are acceptable if anaphoric, but only marginally so if cataphoric. For example, ellipsis of a noun head after an adjective:

I'll buy the red *wine* if you'll buy the white $_\Delta$.
?If you'll buy the white $_\Delta$, I'll buy the red *wine.*

The following valedictory sentence regularly used by a humorous broadcaster (John Ebdon, BBC Radio Four) illustrates the stylistically marked effect that often results from cataphoric ellipsis:

If you have been $_\Delta$, thanks for *listening.*

[b] However, when two noun phrases are in a parallel relationship similar to that of coordination, cataphoric ellipsis of the head (and postmodifiers) of the first phrase is quite usual: *I can't tell real* $_\Delta$ *from imitation jewellery; the change from a feudal* $_\Delta$ *to a democratic way of life.* This type of ellipsis appears to be modelled on a similar type of ellipsis in coordinated noun phrases; *eg: real or imitation jewellery* (*cf* 13.79).

Situational ellipsis

12.46 We have already seen that some types of ellipsis are not dependent on the linguistic context for their interpretation. In such cases, the interpretation may depend on knowledge of a precise extralinguistic context. For example, *Get it?* in one situation might be understood to mean the same as *Did you get it?* (*eg* 'Did you get the letter/shopping/etc?'), and in another situation *Do you get it?* (*ie* 'Do you understand?'). Similarly, *Told you so* might be expanded in one context to *I told you so*, and in another to *We told you so.* In still other contexts, the exact words ellipted might be unclear. The term SITUATIONAL ELLIPSIS can apply to such cases of weak ellipsis, and also to other cases where it happens to be quite clear what has been omitted; *eg* only *it* can be the ellipted subject in *Looks like rain.*

Situational ellipsis is sometimes final; for example, the weakly recoverable ellipsis *How could you* $_\Delta$ *?* said as a rebuke to someone who has just committed

some situationally known folly. But more typically, situational ellipsis is initial, especially taking the form of omission of subject and/or operator; *eg*: (*Do you*) *Want something?* In such cases, which are restricted to familiar (generally spoken) English, the ellipted words are those that normally occur before the onset of a tone unit (*cf* App II.11), and hence have weak stress and low pitch. It may therefore be more appropriate to ascribe the omission to subaudible utterance or some other reductive process on the phonological, rather than on the grammatical level (*cf* Note [b] below).

In what follows, declarative sentences are treated separately from *yes–no* questions, since the operator is obligatory in the full form of *yes–no* questions.

Note [a] Imperative sentences without a subject (*eg*: *Sit down*) cannot be considered comparable to declarative and interrogative sentences with initial ellipsis. The implied subject of the imperative verb is *you* (*cf* 11.24), but absence of the subject is the norm with imperatives, and where the imperative subject *you* does occur (*cf* 11.25), it receives stress; *eg*: '*You sit down*. These factors, together with the fact that it is not restricted to familiar style, distinguish the subjectless imperative from the types of situational ellipsis we are now considering.

[b] The explanation of situational ellipsis in terms of phonological reduction is favoured by the occurrence, in recorded speech, of 'phrasal aphaeresis' in such examples as:

'k you. /kjʊ/ [= Thank you]
's it matter? /ˌsɪt/ [= What does it matter?]
'd you rather . . . ? /djʊ/ [= Would you rather?]
's anyone there? /ˈzenɪ/ [= Is anyone there?]
's all right. /sɔːl/ [= It's all right]

It is difficult to say whether the missing syllables are lost because their utterance is subaudible, or because of more abstract phonological processes. In other cases, however, it is less realistic to talk in terms of subaudibility, since more than one syllable is lost:

△Your name?
△Two loaves of white bread, please.

Whatever the correct explanation of such initial ellipsis may be, it seems unquestionable (a) that the omissions are at least in part phonologically determined; and (b) that habits of rendering such omissions in writing (*eg* in popular fiction) have helped to conventionalize them in the form of omission of certain unstressed words.

Ellipsis in declarative sentences

(a) Ellipsis of subject alone

12.47 Either no auxiliary is available for ellipsis (*eg*: △*Serves you right*) or one is included in the sentence (*eg*: △*Can't see*). The element ellipted can be:

(i) the 1st person pronoun, normally *I*:

△Beg your pardon. △Told you so.
△Wonder what they're doing. △Hope he's there.
△Don't know what to say. △Think I'll go now.

Most of the verbs in such elliptical constructions can take a clause as object.

(ii) the 2nd person pronoun:

△Turned out all right? △Had a good time, did you?
△Want a drink? △Want a drink, do you?

The 2nd person pronoun is ellipted, as the examples on the left show, in declarative questions (*cf* 11.12). It is ellipted in statements only if a tag question is added. (*Want a drink?* can also be interpreted as an ordinary *yes–no* question with *Do you* ellipted, *cf* 12.49).

(iii) the 3rd person pronouns *he, she, they*:

(*He/She*) Doesn't look too well.

(*He/She/They*) Can't play at all.

(iv) *it*:

△Serves you right. △Looks like rain.
△Doesn't matter. △Must be hot in Panama.

The *it* ellipted from the two examples on the left is related to the anticipatory *it* (*cf* 18.33) found in sentences with extraposition, as in *It serves you right that you fell*. In the sentences on the right, *it* is the 'prop' subject in sentences like *It is cold* (*cf* 10.26). These ellipted sentences could refer directly, however, to an action in the situational context; for example *Serves you right* might be said to a child immediately after a fall, if the child had been warned not to act in a dangerous way. On the other hand, *it* may be used in reference to something identified in the situation:

△Seems full. △Makes too much noise.

And some other expressions may be interpreted out of context as having ellipsis of either type of *it*:

△Sounds fine to me. △Won't be any use.

(v) *there*:

△Ought to be some coffee in the pot.
△Must be somebody waiting for you.
△May be some children outside.
△Appears to be a big crowd in the hall.

This is the existential subject *there* (*cf* 18.44*ff*), as distinct from the 'true subject' following the verb. The elliptical construction is unlikely to contain the modal *will*, but *won't* is common:

(There) Won't be anything left for supper.

Note In category (i) above, (*I*) *bet you* . . . is sometimes rendered nonstandardly in writing as *Betcha* . . .; *eg*: *Betcha don't know what this is!*

(b) Ellipsis of subject plus operator

12.48 If the main verb BE is ellipted, the elliptical sentence begins with what would be a subject complement in the full form:

(i) the 1st person pronoun (particularly *I*) plus BE:

(I'm) Sorry I couldn't be there.
(I'm/We're) Afraid not.

We alone cannot be ellipted, *eg*: **Are afraid not*. For many speakers, the same applies to the singular pronoun *I*: for them *Afraid not* is acceptable, but not **Am afraid not*.

(ii) *it* plus *is*:

△Good to see you.	△Odd he won't help us.
△No wonder she's late.	△(A) Shame he's late.
△No use worrying.	△Not that I mind.

The ellipted *it* here is generally the anticipatory *it* just mentioned in 12.47. The last example *Not that I mind*, however, exemplifies the empty 'prop word' *it*.

(iii) the 1st person pronoun followed by an operator other than *be*:

(I'll) See you later.	(We've) Got to go now.

Note [a] In familiar style the common elliptical phrases (*I've*) *got to* and (*I'm*) *going to* have acquired semi-institutionalized nonstandard spellings *gotta* and *gonna* respectively: *Gotta go now*; *Gonna go now* (*cf* 3.47*f*).
[b] *Had* is commonly ellipted in spoken English in the semi-auxiliary *had better* (*cf* 3.45*f*): *You better try it again*. It is also possible to ellipt the subject: *Better try it again*.
[c] There is also the possibility of medial omission of the operator alone in *You gotta be careful, I gonna do what I like*, where the nonstandard written form, including the omission, reflects phonological processes of reduction, as in Notes [a] and [b].

Ellipsis in interrogative sentences

(a) Ellipsis of subject plus operator

12.49 If the subject and a main verb BE are omitted in a *yes–no* question, the resulting elliptical sentence begins with a subject complement or an adjunct:

(Are you) Happy?	(Are you) In trouble?
(Are you) Afraid of him?	(Is it) Hot?
(Are you) Hot?	(Are they) Torn?

Why can't he get up? (Is he) Too weak?
(Is there) Anyone in?
(Is there) Any coffee left?

If the operator is auxiliary BE, HAVE, or DO, the elliptical sentence may begin with a nonfinite main verb, sometimes preceded by an adverbial:

(Do you) Want some?	(Are you) Looking for anybody?
(Have you) Got any chocolate?	(Have you) Ever seen one of these?

In such questions, the ellipted subject is generally *you*, but other interpretations would be possible in context; *eg*: (*Are they*) *Happy?* (*Is she*) *In trouble?*

Note [a] *Wanna*, as a nonstandard spelling of *want to* (especially in AmE), occurs in such sentences as *Wanna have a go?* with subject + operator ellipsis (*cf* 12.48 Note [c]).
[b] Some questions in category (a) above could alternatively be classified as declarative questions (*cf* 11.12) with ellipsis of the subject only. For example, *Want some?* could be a reduced version of *You want some?* rather than of *Do you want some?*

(b) Ellipsis of operator alone

12.50 There are also elliptical *yes–no* questions in which, although the operator is omitted, the subject is pronounced. This will be the case if, for any reason, the subject receives stress:

(Is) 'Anything the matter?	(Does) 'Anybody need a lift?
(Are) 'You hungry?	(Has) 'Joanna done her homework?
(Is) 'That you, Shirley?	(Is) 'Nothing coming?
	(Would) 'You rather I waited?

The examples on the left illustrate the omission of BE as main verb, while those on the right show the omission of an auxiliary.

Note [a] There are also comparable sentences in which the subject is partially ellipted:
Why isn't he here today? (Is his) 'Car still not working?
Here the determiner of the subject noun phrase is ellipted, while the head is realized.
[b] There is occasionally medial omission of the operator in *wh*-questions: *Where you going? What you want?* (*cf* 12.48 Notes [b] and [c]). This is characteristic of casual speech, but is often felt to be nonstandard in its written form. *You* in such questions is readily reduced to /jə/, and additional phonological simplification and assimilation following *What* can result in an affricated pronunciation represented in nonstandard spellings such as *Whatcha*; *Wotcher*.

Other cases of situational ellipsis

12.51 There are several other variants of the familiar initial type of situational ellipsis illustrated in 12.47–50. However, these further examples are less productive, and tend to occur only in idiomatic expressions:

(a) Ellipsis of an article:
(The) Trouble is there's nothing we can do about it.
(The) Fact is I don't know what to do.
(A) Friend of mine told me about it.

The omission of the indefinite article is common in the construction '*a*(*n*) + noun phrase + *of* prepositional phrase', as in (*a*) *friend of mine*. The omission of *a*/*an* or *the* may also combine with other ellipses:

(It is a) Pity he won't help.
(It is a) Shame they won't be there.
(Is the) Television not working?

(b) Ellipsis of a preposition:
(Of) Course he's there.

Such cases as these provide further evidence that initial situational ellipsis is a phonological, rather than a grammatical process. It is clear that in cases like *Pity he won't help* or *Car still not working?* (*cf* 12.50 Note [a]) the ellipsis cuts across the boundaries of grammatical constituents, and is terminated by the first stressed syllable of the fully-realized sentence. The truncation of *of course* to *course* is prevalent for the same reason. Such omissions relate to the fact that the ellipted syllables have a low information value within the situation.

Note There are also cases where the initial syllable of a word is omitted:
(I am a-)Fraid I won't be there.
The aphaeretic spelling *'Fraid*, in this particular case, is semi-institutionalized. A less common case is *'Deed* in *'Deed I do* (for *Indeed*). On the other hand, the analogous spelling of *because* as *'cause* or *'cos* ⟨BrE⟩ probably does not belong to the same category. This truncation, although also restricted to familiar style, is not necessarily found at the beginning of a sentence:
He did it 'cause he wanted to.

A parallel, though less common, example is the spelling of *except* as *'cept*. These cases of aphaeresis, together with the many examples of word clipping in English (*eg*: (*tele*)*phone*, *photo*(*graph*), (*in*)*flu*(*enza*)), belong more to the lexical processes of word-formation than to grammar (*cf* App I.74).

Structural ellipsis

12.52 There is no clear dividing line between situational ellipsis and structural ellipsis (*cf* 12.6), where the ellipted word(s) can be identified purely on the basis of grammatical knowledge. Without entering into arguments on this score, we can illustrate structural ellipsis by citing the zero conjunction *that* (*cf* 15.4) in [1], and the ellipted prepositions (*cf* 9.40*ff*) in [2] and [3]:

I believe (that) you are mistaken. [1]
The Club meets (on) Monday evenings. ⟨familiar⟩ [2]
We're staying there (for) another three weeks. ⟨informal⟩ [3]

Further examples are provided by the common omission of determiners, pronouns, operators, and other closed-class words in block language (*cf* 11.45*ff*); *eg* in headlines, book titles, notices; also in lecture notes, diaries, telegrams, etc:

US heading for new slump. [*ie*: *The* US *is* heading for *a* new slump.]

Such structural ellipsis is confined to written style, and contrasts with the initial situational ellipsis characteristic of familiar spoken English, and discussed in 12.47*ff*. Both styles of ellipsis function as devices of economy, through the omission of items of little informational value. In the written elliptical styles known as 'headlinese' and 'telegraphese', however, closed-class items are often suppressed not only in initial position but also in the middle of sentences.

Categories of ellipsis: function

General ellipsis

12.53 General textual ellipsis is typically (i) final and (ii) anaphoric, and it is on such regular cases that we concentrate in the following sections. We find it convenient to distinguish three major formal categories: (a) elliptical noun phrases, (b) elliptical clauses, and (c) other elliptical constructions.

Elliptical noun phrases

12.54 Elliptical noun phrases (except in coordinate noun phrases) result from final ellipsis. This means that postmodifiers (if any) and heads tend to be ellipted:

My own camera, like *Peter's* $_\Delta$, is Japanese. [1]
He had to admit that *Sarah's drawings* were as good as *his own* $_\Delta$. [2]
You can't tax *one set of people* without taxing *the other* $_\Delta$. [3]
The first expedition to the Antarctic was quickly followed by *another two* $_\Delta$. [4]

Tomorrow's meeting will have to be *our first* $_\Delta$ and *our last* $_\Delta$. [5]
Although Helen is *the oldest girl in the class*, Julie is *the tallest* $_\Delta$. [6]

In these examples, the second noun phrase in italics is noteworthy in that its head is a word that elsewhere normally acts as a premodifier. In [1] the head is a genitive noun; in [2] and [3] it is a postdeterminer; in [4] it is a cardinal numeral; in [5] it is an ordinal numeral; and in [6] it is a superlative adjective.

Noun phrase ellipsis, like clause ellipsis (*cf* 12.59*ff*), involves some degree of parallelism between the elliptical construction and the antecedent. By virtue of this, some item(s) in the elliptical construction can be said to REPUDIATE, or semantically cancel out, some item(s) in the antecedent. Thus *the tallest* in [6] may be said to repudiate *the oldest*. This term is especially appropriate where the two constructions are in a contrastive relationship.

The shift of function from modifier to head in these examples is to be explained by the obvious fact that an 'understood' noun has been ellipted; *eg*: the noun *camera* in [1] and the noun *meeting* (twice) in [5]. In some examples, *viz* [3–6], postmodifiers are also ellipted; *eg*: *set of people* is ellipted in [3] and *girl in the class* in [6]. There is considerable variety in the structural relation between the elliptical noun phrase and its antecedent noun phrase. This variability is the hallmark of what we have termed *general ellipsis*.

Note [a] Although the reduced genitive constructions *Peter's* [1] and *his own* [2] are examples of ellipsis, similar constructions with a possessive pronoun as head (*eg*: *his*, *hers*) are treated as virtual ellipsis or quasi-ellipsis (*cf* 12.40), and therefore, strictly speaking, as substitution.
[b] Examples of genitives or possessive pronouns functioning as heads, but without an antecedent, may sometimes be treated as situational ellipsis. For example:
Let's go round to *Mona and Fred's* $_\Delta$ tonight.
It's about time you went to the *barber's* $_\Delta$. (*cf* 5.125)
[c] Cataphoric ellipsis of the head occurs somewhat exceptionally in examples such as: *Her first* $_\Delta$ *was bad enough, but this second husband is an absolute bore.*

Adjectives and nouns as heads

12.55 Not all premodifying elements can readily act as heads of elliptical noun phrases. Comparative adjectives, and (even more so) absolute adjectives (*cf* 7.74) are restricted in this function. The following, however, are acceptable:

Helen is *the older girl*, but Julie is *the taller* $_\Delta$.
This recipe requires *plain flour*, not *self-raising* $_\Delta$.
We've put *some chocolate* aside for you: six bars of *plain* $_\Delta$ and six $_\Delta$ of *fruit and nut* $_\Delta$.

For reasons which are not totally clear, these are much more acceptable than examples such as:

?**Those plastic containers* will last longer than *those wooden* $_\Delta$.
?*As the centuries went by, *the devout monks* were replaced by *more worldly* $_\Delta$.

Even less acceptable is ellipsis of the head of a noun phrase when preceded by the indefinite article and another modifier:

*We turned off *the* (*main*) *road* on to *a quieter* $_\Delta$. [1]
**This* (*previously unprotected*) *species* is now classified as *an endangered* $_\Delta$. [2]

As [1] and [2] show, the existence of a parallelism between the 'stranded' modifier and a modifier in the antecedent noun phrase plays little role in the acceptability of the ellipsis. In this, general ellipsis of the noun phrase differs from ellipsis associated with coordination (*cf* 13.64*ff*). Noun modifiers (*cf* 17.104*ff*), which are normally closely associated with the head noun, can rarely act as head of an elliptical phrase. Different degrees of acceptability are illustrated in:

Do you prefer *silver rings* to *gold* $_\Delta$? [3]
(?)The recipe requires *wine vinegar*, not *malt* $_\Delta$. [4]
*One tends to look after *personal books* better than *library* $_\Delta$. [5]

This limitation may be partly due to the ambiguity which arises, in the case of a noun head, as to whether the noun phrase is elliptical or not. Thus in [4], *malt* might be taken to refer simply to malt, rather than to malt vinegar. But more generally, there appears to be a principle that the closer a modifier is linked, by position and meaning, to its head, the less acceptable is the ellipsis of the head without the modifier.

Note [a] As observed in 12.35, we do not always regard noun phrases with adjectives as head as cases of ellipsis; *eg*: *the rich*, *the French*, *the absurd* are not elliptical.
[b] Similarly, we do not count cases like these as ellipsis:
I'd like a pint of *bitter*. [= *bitter beer*]
This apple is *my favourite*. [= *my favourite apple*]
In spite of appearances, *bitter* and *favourite* here are not adjectives, but nouns derived from adjectives by conversion (*cf* App I.48). We note, in support of this, that such words can be inflected for plural number, like count nouns: *Two bitters, please! These apples are my favourites.*
[c] Cataphoric ellipsis with adjectives (*eg*: *You should never mix old* $_\Delta$ *with new wine*) in contrast to anaphoric ellipsis, requires a parallelism between the adjectives:
?*Never mix *old* $_\Delta$ with *chilled* wine.
Such ellipsis (as already noted in 12.45 Note [b]) shows a close connection with coordination.

Ellipsis of modifiers

12.56 The dominance of final ellipsis in the noun phrase means that ellipsis will tend to take place according to the following order of precedence:

Determinative(s) | Premodifier(s) | Head | Postmodifier(s)

Thus we find:

(a) ellipsis of postmodifier(s) alone:

Stan spent PART *of his winnings*, and *the rest* $_\Delta$ he saved.
If you need any *of that firewood*, I can give you *plenty* $_\Delta$.

Since postmodifiers are in general optional, it is difficult to recognize ellipsis in this position. The postmodifiers most readily omitted (as in the above examples) are partitive *of*-phrases.

(b) ellipsis of head + postmodifier(s) as in [3], [4], and [6] in 12.54 above:

The SECOND *novel she wrote* was very different from the FIRST $_\Delta$.

(c) ellipsis of premodifier(s) + head + postmodifier(s):

The SECOND *historical novel she wrote* was very different from the FIRST $_\Delta$.

Here it is understood that the whole expression *historical novel she wrote* is ellipted, including the premodifying adjective.

As postmodifiers are optional in any antecedent noun phrase, we may also find cases of final ellipsis which correspond to (b) and (c), except that no postmodifier is ellipted.

(d) ellipsis of head alone, as in [1], [2], and [5] in 12.54:

Her SECOND *novel* was very different from her FIRST $_\Delta$.

(e) ellipsis of premodifier(s) + head:

Liebknecht's *best pentathlon performance* is well ahead of *Lessing's* $_\Delta$.

Note [a] Although ellipsis of type (a) is limited because of potential ambiguity, the meaning of an elliptical rather than a nonelliptical construction can be singled out by the contrastive use of intonation, as already indicated in examples above. In the following case, the contrastive nucleus on *novel* is obligatory if the elliptical interpretation is intended:
Hardy's NOVELS *about Wessex* are better known than his POEMS $_\Delta$.
Compare the nonelliptical interpretation of:
Hardy's novels about WESSEX are better known than his POEMS.
[b] In appearance, type (b) above may be indistinguishable from type (c), and type (d) from type (e). The following are thus ambiguous, according to whether we read the italicized premodifier(s) as part of the meaning of the elliptical noun phrase or not:
The last *two* stanzas of the poem imitate *the first* ((*two*) stanza(s) of the poem).
My uncle built a *little wooden* house next to *my father's* (((*little*) *wooden*) house).

The nonoccurrence of initial general ellipsis

12.57 As one would expect with final ellipsis, it is possible to omit postmodifiers alone, as in type (a) above, but not (in general ellipsis) to omit premodifiers without omitting the head. If initial ellipsis of premodifiers were permitted, we should expect that the second occurrence of *Wessex* or *digital* could be ellipted in:

Hardy's *Wessex* novels are better known than his *Wessex* poems.
Digital wristwatches are as cheap as *digital* alarm clocks.

However, if *Wessex* or *digital* is omitted, the meaning of the sentence is different:

Hardy's Wessex novels are better known than *his poems*. [1]
Digital wristwatches are as cheap as *alarm clocks*. [2]

We may contrast this with the initial ellipsis of *Wessex* and *digital* which can occur in noun phrases in coordination (*cf* 13.67):

Hardy is best known for *his Wessex novels and poems*. [3]
This shop specializes in *digital wristwatches and alarm clocks*. [4]

Sentences [3] and [4] are ambiguous according to whether the adjective is understood to modify the second conjoin of the noun phrase. But no such ambiguity occurs in [1] and [2]. The contrast between general ellipsis, which

is final, and the initial ellipsis which can occur in coordinate constructions is clearly illustrated by these two examples.

It also follows that ellipsis of every part of a noun phrase except for postmodifier(s) is impossible in general ellipsis:

*Joan prefers the trios of Mozart, while I prefer $_\Delta$ of Haydn.

(Contrast the acceptability of *Joan prefers Mozart's trios, while I prefer Haydn's* $_\Delta$.)

Here, as often elsewhere, ellipsis is in complementary distribution with substitute forms: the sentence above becomes grammatical if we insert the substitute head *those* before *of Haydn* (*cf* 12.19). In addition there is, of course, the option of replacing the final prepositional phrase by a genitive:

Joan prefers the trios of Mozart, while I prefer Haydn's.

Medial ellipsis

12.58 However, like clauses (*cf* 12.44), noun phrases can occur with medial ellipsis. This arises if an optional postmodifier is retained while the head of the phrase is ellipted:

They claim that *Danish butter* is *the finest* $_\Delta$ (*in the world*).
That letter was *the last* $_\Delta$ (*I ever received from her*).
A bird in the hand is worth *two* $_\Delta$ (*in the bush*). [a proverb]

In other cases of medial ellipsis, one or more modifiers, as well as the head, may be ellipted:

His recent *performance of Macbeth* is *the best* $_\Delta$ *he has ever done.* [1]
That *new thick plastic rope* that they sell is stronger than *any other* $_\Delta$ *you can get.* [2]

Once again, the elliptical phrase in [1] and [2] is ambiguous, according to whether the italicized modifiers are assumed to be an implicit part of the elliptical phrase. In fact, the ambiguity may be multiple. In [2], *any other you can get* might be regarded as an elliptical variant of any of the following:

any other rope you can get
any other plastic rope you can get
any other thick plastic rope you can get
any other new thick plastic rope you can get

To avoid such ambiguity, one has to repeat the words of the antecedent rather than ellipt them.

Elliptical clauses

Ellipsis of the predication in finite clauses

12.59 General ellipsis in the finite clause is similar to general ellipsis in the noun phrase, in that the dominant type of ellipsis is final. Typically, the clause is divided into two parts: subject and operator (which remain), and predication (which is ellipted). In terms of V, O, C, and A (*cf* 2.12*ff*), the constituency of the ellipted predication can be varied. For example:

SUBJECT COMPLEMENT only (the verb BE being the operator):
I'm *happy* if you are $_\Delta$.

SUBJECT COMPLEMENT + ADVERBIAL:
If they're not *ready by lunchtime*, they ought to be $_\Delta$.

ADVERBIAL only:
His father was *at Oxford* when Harold Wilson was $_\Delta$.

NONFINITE PART OF VERB only:
Tom will be *playing*, but I don't think Martin will (be) $_\Delta$.
I'll *do* what I can $_\Delta$.

NONFINITE PART OF VERB + ADVERBIAL:
When Shirley *resigns from the committee*, I'm sure that a number of other people will $_\Delta$.

NONFINITE PART OF VERB + OBJECT + ADVERBIAL:
Who is *cooking dinner today*? John is $_\Delta$.

All these, and many other possibilities, are summed up in the generalization that predications can be ellipted.

Note [a] Other possibilities, however, do not occur. Thus the lexical verb cannot remain 'stranded' preceding the ellipsis of an object, complement, or adverbial:
*I'll open *an account* if you'll open $_\Delta$.
*He always becomes *tired* faster than anyone else becomes $_\Delta$.
*As soon as the one aircraft had taken *off*, the other one took $_\Delta$.
Nor can an auxiliary alone be ellipted, nor an entire verb phrase:
*Susan *was* happy because Alice $_\Delta$ miserable.
*Tom *will* play the guitar if Mary $_\Delta$ sing.
[b] On the other hand, in special constructions such as the zero relative clause (*cf* 14.20, 17.14), the object can be ellipted: *the girl* (*whom*) *I met*. This, however, is structural rather than textual ellipsis.
[c] An auxiliary in its reduced form cannot precede ellipsis:
*Ned is as keen on boxing as $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{I am}\\ \text{*I'm}\end{matrix}\right\}$ $_\Delta$ (on football).

DO as 'stranded' operator

12.60 Ellipsis of the predication is one of the constructions of English which require DO-support. That is, if the clause in its unreduced form has no operator, to create the conditions for omission of the predication it is necessary to introduce the dummy operator DO:

Sam kicked the ball harder than Dennis $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{did.}\\ \textit{kicked the ball.}\end{matrix}\right.$

This is strictly, however, not ellipsis, but quasi-ellipsis (*cf* 12.40), since the insertion of the omitted predication after *did* would result in an unacceptable sentence:

*Sam kicked the ball harder than Dennis *did kick the ball.* [1]

[1] is unacceptable because DO occurs in a context where the dummy operator cannot occur. But there are other constructions (*eg* clause negation, subject–

operator inversion, emphatic operator constructions) in which the operator would occur for independent reasons, and in these cases DO fulfils the conditions of standard ellipsis of the predication:

Rupert wanted to attend the bullfight, although his wife *didn't* (want to attend the bullfight). [2]
I don't like living in the country. *Do* you (like living in the country)? [3]
A: Does she like playing with dolls?
B: Yes, she *DÒES* (like playing with dolls). [4]

In [4], where DO has nuclear stress, the conditions for ellipsis are met even in a positive declarative sentence, since DO is used as an emphatic operator in the equivalent unreduced form.

Note It has been argued, contrary to the view presented here, that (like *do*) *can*, *would*, *have*, etc are substitute forms (*ie* pro-predicates) when they are 'stranded' operators.

Ellipsis of the predicate

12.61 Ellipsis of the predicate means in general that the only part of the clause to remain is the subject. This type of ellipsis is not widespread: it comes under the heading of special ellipsis, and occurs only in certain special constructions, such as comparative, coordinate, and response constructions:

Nigel *finished the exam* at the same time as George $_\Delta$. [1]
Nigel *finished the exam* first, then George $_\Delta$. [2]
A: Who *finished the exam first*? B: George $_\Delta$. [3]

The restricted distribution of this kind of ellipsis is evident if we compare [1] with [4]:

*I finished the exam when George $_\Delta$. [4]
I finished the exam when George *did*. [5]

In the comparative clause [1], the whole predicate can be ellipted, but this is not possible in the adverbial clause in [4]. To make [4] grammatical, we have to add the dummy operator *did*, as in [5].

Note [a] When the 'stranded' subject of the elliptical clause is a pronoun, in informal use an objective form of the pronoun is preferred (for further discussion *cf* 6.4). Thus *George* in [1–3] could be replaced by either *I* ⟨formal⟩ or *me* ⟨informal⟩. The use of the objective form is, however, traditionally regarded as an error. Structurally, *as me* replacing *as George* at the end of [1] would be classified as a prepositional phrase (*cf* 15.67).
[b] The statement that it is impossible to ellipt the whole predicate of an adverbial clause appears to be contradicted by the following:

Nigel finished the exam $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{after}\\ \text{before}\end{matrix}\right\}$ George finished the exam. [6]

Nigel finished the exam $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{after}\\ \text{before}\end{matrix}\right\}$ George. [7]

The acceptability of [7], in contrast to [4], appears to be due to the fact that unlike *when*, the words *after* and *before* are prepositions, as well as conjunctions (*cf* 9.38). Strictly, therefore, *after/before George* in [7] may be described not as an elliptical clause, but as a prepositional phrase with *George* as its complement. In support of this analysis, note that a subjective pronoun in the position of *George* is unacceptable:

*Nigel finished the exam $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{after}\\ \text{before}\end{matrix}\right\}$ I.

It is striking, however, that despite this difference of analysis, [7] is interpreted as if it were an elliptical variant of [6].

Medial ellipsis

12.62 As noted earlier (*cf* 12.44), an optional adverbial can easily be added after an ellipted predication, so that the ellipsis becomes apparently medial rather than final:

When Shirley *resigns from the committee*, I'm sure that a number of other people will $_\Delta$, (too).
There are more *hungry people in the world* today than there were $_\Delta$ (in 1900).

This last example shows how an adverbial in the elliptical clause can REPUDIATE (*cf* 12.54), or cancel the meaning of, one in the antecedent clause. In this case, where one adverbial of time (*in 1900*) repudiates another (*today*), the ellipsis is genuinely medial. In the same category we may place the following, where only the lexical verb is omitted:

I'll gladly *pay* for the hotel, if you will $_\Delta$ for the food.

Since *for the hotel* is in this case repudiated by *for the food*, the only part of the antecedent clause that is recovered by ellipsis is the verb *pay*.

Medial quasi-ellipsis also occurs with auxiliary DO. The dummy operator can be followed by an adverbial (for example an adjunct of time or space) repudiating a similar adverbial in the antecedent clause:

We paid more for the tickets THĬS year than we
$\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{did LÀST year.}\\ \text{have in PRÈvious years.}\end{matrix}\right.$
A: Did Sato take the plane to TÓKyo today?
B: NÓ, I don't think he DÌD. But his WĬFE did to ŏsaka.

In the last example, *will* could replace *did*: there is no difference, in respect of such repudiatory constructions, between DO and other auxiliaries.

Unlike adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*) are excluded from the antecedent when they occur after a 'stranded' operator. We can contrast in this respect the adjunct *usually* with the disjunct *wisely*:

A: Does Bob usually walk to work?
B: No, but his SĬster *does*. [= usually walks to work]
A: Bob wisely walks to work, doesn't he?
B: Well, at least he CLĂIMS he *does*. [= walks to work]

Similarly, a 'stranded' operator such as *do* or *have* excludes from the antecedent other, contrasting auxiliaries:

Not many people could have *enjoyed that trip* as much as your mother *did*.

In this example, *did* is interpreted to mean 'enjoyed that trip' rather than 'could have enjoyed that trip'.

Note There is also a less usual form of repudiatory medial ellipsis, in which the predication is omitted except for an object. Such ellipsis is of variable acceptability:

(?)I'll gladly *lend him* the clothing, if you will $_\Delta$ the money.

She was examining the pictures while I was $_\Delta$ the sculptures.

(*Cf* gapping, 13.92*f*).

Ellipsis in *wh*-clauses

12.63 A more thorough-going reduction of a clause by ellipsis involves ellipsis of the whole clause, or the whole clause except for an introductory word. One such clause is a *wh*-clause which is reduced, by ellipsis, to the *wh*-word alone. In such circumstances, the stranded *wh*-word normally receives nuclear stress:

Somebody had hidden my notebook, but I don't know WHÒ/WHÝ/WHÈRE $_\Delta$.

Have you ever wanted *to start a successful business*? This book tells you HÒW $_\Delta$.

This type of ellipsis is restricted to *wh*-interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5). It does not apply to the relative type of nominal *wh*-clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*), nor to clauses introduced by *if* or *whether* (*cf* 15.6):

*Somebody *has hidden my notebook*, and I'll punish whoever $_\Delta$.

*They say *the treasure was buried*, but no one is sure whether $_\Delta$ or not.

The elliptical *wh*-question is found not only in dependent, but also in independent interrogative clauses (*cf* 11.14):

A: We're bound to *win the prize some day*.

B: Yes, but WHÈN $_\Delta$?

There is also a reduced negative *wh*-question, but this occurs only with *why* and with *wh*-infinitive clauses (*cf* 15.5):

Why NŎT? I don't KNÒW *why* not.

I don't want *to accept*, but I don't know *how not* (*to*).

Note [a] Elliptical *wh*-questions are discussed further in 11.15 Note [b].

[b] The following are idiomatic examples of informal elliptical *wh*-interrogative clauses, in which the ellipsis is situational: *I'll tell you what*; *Say when*. Their meanings, roughly, are: 'I'll tell you what we can/should do'; and 'Say when you have enough to drink in your glass' (said by the person serving a drink). *I'll tell you what* can be ellipted still further, by initial ellipsis (*cf* 12.44), to *Tell you what*:

(I'll) Tell you what – let's meet again when all the results are in.

Ellipsis in *to*-infinitive clauses

12.64 Like the elliptical *wh*-clause just described, the elliptical *to*-infinitive clause normally consists of just one word: in this case, the introductory unstressed particle *to*. Since *to* is unstressed, the nucleus of the tone unit normally falls on the preceding verb or noun:

You can *borrow my pen*, if you WÁNT to $_\Delta$. [1]

You will *speak to* who(m)ever I TÈLL you to $_\Delta$. [2]

Somebody ought to *help*. Shall I ask PÉter to $_\Delta$? [3]

A 'stranded' *to* also occurs as a result of ellipsis following the marginal modals *ought to* and *used to*, and following semi-auxiliary constructions such as *be able to*, *be going to*, *have to*, and *be supposed to* (*cf* 3.47):

We don't *save* as much money these days as we $\begin{cases}\text{used to } _\Delta.\\ \text{ought (to) } _\Delta.\end{cases}$

I won't *disturb you again* unless I have to $_\Delta$.

As with *to*-infinitive clauses in general, these abbreviated clauses are made negative by placing *not* before *to*:

She borrowed my pen, although I told her NŎT to.

Both the elliptical dependent *wh*-clause and the elliptical *to*-infinitive clause are normally restricted to a function of complementation (*cf* 16.35*ff*). For example, in [1] *to* is the complementation of *like*; in [2], *to* is part of the complementation of *want*; and in [3] *to* is part of the complementation of *ask*. It is for this reason that it is rare to find ellipsis of these types in nonfinal position in the sentence. However, it is possible for *to* to be followed by medial ellipsis with a final optional adverbial:

The committee did not *discuss your proposal*, but it hopes to $_\Delta$ (next month). [4]

Note Whether or not *to* is in a final position in the clause, if it is followed by an ellipsis it is normally pronounced in an unreduced form /tuː/ or /tʊ/ rather than as a fully reduced or weak form /tə/. In this respect it resembles auxiliary verbs, which also remain unreduced in these circumstances (*cf* 12.59 Note [c]). Compare the unacceptability of:

*The committee did not discuss your proposal, but $\begin{cases}\text{they'}ll\text{ next month.}\\ \text{they hope /tə/ next month.}\end{cases}$

In very informal AmE, however, reduction of *to* to /tə/ occurs finally in examples like:

Well, I don't *wanna*. So there!

Ellipsis of an entire clause

12.65 One stage further, in clause ellipsis, is the ellipsis of an entire clause, including introductory words, if any. This total clause ellipsis is limited, obviously enough, to dependent clauses, and mainly to *to*-infinitive clauses. It is also limited to clauses acting as complementation of other clauses. For example, the *to* in 12.64 [1] and [3] can be ellipted, so that no trace remains of the infinitive clause:

You can borrow my pen, if you WÁNT $_\Delta$. [1a]

Somebody ought to help. Shall I ask PÉter $_\Delta$? [3a]

Normally the word whose complementation clause is ellipted is either a verb of saying or thinking, such as *ask*, *know*, *wish*, or an adjective such as *eager*, *sure*, and *willing*. Contrast:

Whole *to*-infinitive clause omissible	*To* not omissible
I was *willing* (to (come)).	I would *hate* you to (see this).
She *begged* us (to (help)).	I would *love* you to (stay).
They *forced* him (to (recant)).	He *advised* us to (leave).

Other clauses which may be ellipted are some *-ing* clauses, some *that*-clauses, and some *wh*-clauses:

If *I am going too fast*, { please warn me (that I am going too fast). / please stop me (going too fast).

I asked *when she was leaving*, and she said she didn't know △.

It may be argued, however, that precise recovery of an ellipted clause cannot be insisted on here; and that therefore this is a case of weak ellipsis only.

Note [a] Certain subordinate clauses with an ellipted infinitive clause, such as *if you like*, are formulaic, and resemble comment clauses (*cf* 15.53). One sign of their idiomatic status is an inability to be expanded by the addition of *to*: instead of *if you like to*, speakers would say *If you'd like to*. Conversely, *if you'd like to* cannot normally be reduced to *if you'd like*.
[b] There is some variation between AmE and BrE in the use of ellipsis or a pro-form in colloquial sentences such as *I know* and *I suppose so* (*cf* 12.28). For example, possible variants in AmE, but not in BrE, are *I know it* and *I suppose*.
[c] There can be total clause ellipsis in comparative constructions (*eg*: *He's older than I thought*) and in dialogue (*eg*: *I know*; *Who told you?* and *Why do you ask?*) *cf* 15.65*f*.

Special types of ellipsis

12.66 We now turn from general ellipsis to the special types of ellipsis (*cf* 12.43) which are defined by a particular structural relation between the elliptical construction and the antecedent construction. Unlike general ellipsis, all cases of special ellipsis allow initial ellipsis.

In nonfinite and verbless clauses

12.67 Since these will be discussed fully in Chapter 14 (14.6–9), it is sufficient to note that typically nonfinite and verbless clauses lack both subject and operator, and that their relation to their main clause can be explained if we postulate, in many cases, an ellipsis of these elements, the identity of the subject being recoverable from the main clause. (The ellipsis may be either anaphoric or cataphoric.) The clearest cases of such ellipsis are adverbial clauses such as the following (*cf* 14.18*f*, 15.34, 15.39):

NONFINITE CLAUSES:
Although (he was) exhausted by the climb, he continued his journey.
Dogs will learn fast if (they are) working in reasonable conditions.

VERBLESS CLAUSES:
While (she was) *at Oxford*, she was active in the dramatic society.
Though (he was) *already middle-aged*, he took a swim every morning.
Whether (it is) *right or wrong*, the government always wins the argument.

In coordination

12.68 When clauses are coordinated by *and*, *or*, or *but*, a second clause or other noninitial clause is often reduced by general ellipsis, the antecedent being a parallel construction in the preceding clause:

I told him to *go home*, but he wouldn't △. [1]

But there is also a special kind of ellipsis associated with coordination. Coordination is essentially a relation between two or more structurally parallel units, which may be whole clauses or sentences, but which are often smaller units such as noun phrases or predications:

Margaret is [selling her bicycle] and △ [buying a car]. [2]
She has bought [a green dress] and △ [a silver necklace]. [3]

There is no structural reason for postulating ellipsis in such cases. Instead we recognize that units may be coordinated in conjoint units which function, as far as clause structure is concerned, in the same way as one of their conjoins (*cf* 2.10). However, from a semantic point of view, [2] and [3] are generally equivalent to [2a] and [3a] respectively:

Margaret is selling her bicycle and Margaret is buying a car. [2a]
She has bought a green dress and she has bought a silver necklace. [3a]

For this reason, it may be claimed that coordination allows both initial ellipsis, as in [2] and [3], and final ellipsis, as in [1]. In one respect, however, coordination is more restrictive than general ellipsis: coordination normally requires strict ellipsis rather than standard ellipsis (*cf* 12.37–8). Hence the following are usually regarded as ungrammatical (although they occur readily enough in the casual unconsidered use of language):

?*The city always has △ and will *be proud of its achievements*. [4]
?*The product is as good △ or even better *than its competitors*. [5]

For further discussion, *cf* 13.44*f*, 13.88.

In comparative clauses

12.69 Like coordinate constructions, comparative constructions show a parallelism between one structure and another, and hence lend themselves to ellipsis. Although comparative clauses will be described later (*cf* 15.63*ff*) it is to be noted here that, as in coordination, so in comparative clauses, both final and initial ellipsis is allowed. Hence the ambiguity illustrated by:

My uncle loved that dog more than his family (loved that dog).
My uncle loved that dog more than (my uncle loved) his family.

The resemblance between coordination and comparison accounts for the existence of quasi-coordinators such as *rather than*, which share in the characteristics of both (*cf* 13.103). There is, however, a major difference between coordination and comparison: in the latter case the ellipsis–antecedent relation obtains between a subordinate clause and a matrix clause, rather than between two constructions of the same level of constituent structure.

In appended clauses

12.70 An appended clause can be regarded as an elliptical clause (usually parenthetical or an afterthought) for which the whole or part of the preceding or interrupted clause constitutes the antecedent:

I caught the train – just. [1]
He told them (presumably with his tongue in his cheek) how he came to be late. [2]

These two sentences presuppose that two separate assertions are being made. The usual form for [1] is *I (only) just caught the train*, so to explain the unusual word order of [1] we suppose it to be an elliptical version of:

I caught the train – I just caught the train.

Compare:

I caught the train, but $_\Delta$ only just $_\Delta$.

The same sort of analysis applies if the items added as an afterthought are in their normal order:

The train arrived – on time, for a change.

Whereas in these examples the whole of the initial clause acts as an antecedent for the elliptical parenthesis or afterthought, another kind of appended clause repudiates part of the original clause, so that only part (the part italicized below) acts as an antecedent:

They are meant to wound, perhaps $_\Delta$ to kill.
He is playful, $_\Delta$ even mischievous.
Her performance will be judged by her superiors – and even more importantly – $_\Delta$ by her colleagues.

On the related construction of appended coordination, *cf* 13.94.

Note [a] A clause involving quantifiers interestingly illustrates how the appended clause sometimes has to be interpreted as repudiating part of the preceding clause:
They visit many schools, sometimes in an official car.
This does not mean the same as:
They sometimes visit many schools in an official car.
Rather, it presupposes two assertions:

{They visit many schools. [3]
{They sometimes visit schools in an official car. [4]

The second assertion [4] does not imply that they visit many schools.
[b] Appended clauses consisting of an adverbial only are closely related to nonrestrictive adverbials (*cf* 15.23):
I only met him once – at your place. [5]
In [5], *at your place* is nonrestrictive ('I only met him once – and that was at your place'), in contrast to *I only met him once at your place* ('but I've met him many times elsewhere').
[c] An appended clause sometimes contains a repetition of some part of the antecedent clause:
I found their behaviour odd – very odd, in fact.
[d] Appended clauses resemble some types of apposition (*cf* 17.65*ff*), in which there is a duplication of an element structurally and semantically parallel to an element of the preceding clause:
We – that is to say, John and I – intend to resign.
You could have given them to a charity – to Oxfam, for example.
He tried to make treaties with the Indians: first with the Sioux, and then with the Cheyenne.

Bibliographical note

On reduction generally, see Allerton (1975); Halliday and Hasan (1976).

On pro-forms and substitutes, see Allen (1961); Bolinger (1977b); Bouton (1969); Crymes (1968); G. Lakoff (1970a).

On ellipsis, see Greenbaum and Meyer (1982); Gunter (1963); Karlsen (1959); Kypriotaki (1970).

For further references see the Bibliographical notes for Chs. 13 & 19.

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Syndetic and asyndetic coordination

13.1 The term COORDINATION is used by some grammarians for both syndetic (or linked) coordination, and asyndetic (or unlinked) coordination. The difference between the two constructions is that syndetic coordination is marked by overt signals of coordination (*and*, *or*, *but*), whereas asyndetic coordination is not overtly marked. Sentence [1a] exemplifies syndetic coordination, with *and* as explicit marker, while [1b] exemplifies asyndetic coordination, with *and* omitted:

Slowly and stealthily, he crept towards his victim. [1a]
Slowly, stealthily, he crept towards his victim. [1b]

Linking words which explicitly indicate coordination are termed COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS, or (more simply) COORDINATORS. Not all juxtaposed words, phrases, or clauses are manifestations of asyndetic coordination. The possibility of inserting the coordinator *and* with little alteration of meaning is evidence that a construction is one of asyndetic coordination. It is this that distinguishes [1b] from other types of construction, for example the appended clauses of 12.70.

Syndetic coordination is the more usual form, and we shall therefore generally exemplify coordination with a coordinator present. Asyndetic coordination is usually stylistically marked. It is used for dramatic intensification, as in [1b], or to suggest an open-ended list:

Mrs Varley sold sweets, chocolate, toffee apples – anything a child could desire.

In asyndetic coordination, the conjoins are generally separated by a tone-unit boundary in speech, or by a punctuation stop in writing. In the spoken form, the conjoins are typically marked by a parallelism in the tone of the nucleus; for example:

SLÒWly, STÈALTHily . . . *or*: SLÓWly, STÉALTHily . . .

Note In the present chapter we restrict our attention to coordination within the sentence. Coordination as a link between sentences is discussed in 19.57*ff*.

Coordination and subordination

13.2 Explicit indicators of subordination are termed SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS or SUBORDINATORS. (They are more fully discussed in 14.11*ff*.) Both coordination and subordination (*cf* 14.1–4) involve the linking of units of the same rank; but in coordination the units are constituents at the same level of constituent structure, whereas in subordination they form a hierarchy, the subordinate unit being a constituent of the superordinate unit (*cf* 14.2*f* for the relevant tree diagrams). Coordination and subordination are special cases of two types of syntactic arrangement traditionally known as PARATAXIS ('equal arrangement') and HYPOTAXIS ('underneath arrangement'). Thus, to take an example within a phrase (*cf* 17.116), in *his first and best novel*, the coordinate adjective phrase *first and best* functions as a premodifier of *novel*, and in that phrase *first* and *best* are equal constituents. On the other hand, in *his first successful novel*, the adjective *first* does not modify *novel* directly; it modifies *successful novel*, and *successful* in turn modifies *novel*. Thus there is a hierarchy in relationships, and *first* and *successful* are in a hypotactic rather than a paratactic relation.

The opposition between coordination and subordination, and that between parataxis and hypotaxis, are often treated as equivalent. But we may distinguish them as follows. Parataxis applies not only to coordinate constructions, but to other cases where two units of equivalent status are juxtaposed: for example, an appended clause as discussed in 12.70 is in a paratactic relation to the clause preceding it; and a tag question is in a paratactic relation to the statement preceding it. But in neither of these cases could we insert an overt coordinator. Similarly, there are other hypotactic relations (such as the embedding of one phrase in another, *cf* 2.8), quite apart from the relation between a subordinate clause and the clause of which it is a part.

Semantic differences between coordination and subordination

13.3 A major difference between coordination and subordination of clauses is that the information in a subordinate clause is often placed in the background with respect to the superordinate clause (*cf* 19.60). Thus the syntactic inequality of subordination tends to bring with it a semantic inequality which is realized by syntactic hierarchization, as well as by position. This is particularly noticeable in the case of certain adverbial clauses, which present information as if it is presupposed as given (*cf* 18.8) rather than asserted as new:

He has quarrelled with the chairman *and* has resigned. [1a]
Since he quarrelled with the chairman, he has resigned. [1b]

He tried hard, *but* he failed. [2a]
Although he tried hard, he failed. [2b]
He tried hard, *although* he failed. [2c]

The cause–result relationship between the two events is expressed by a coordinator in [1a] and by a subordinator in [1b]; the semantic difference, however, is that in [1b] the hearer is assumed to know about the quarrel already. A similar observation applies to the concessive relationship expressed by *but* in [2a] and *although* in [2b] and [2c].

A third means of expressing the same relationship is a linking sentence adverbial, or conjunct (*cf* 8.134*ff*), such as *yet*:

He tried hard, *yet* he failed. [2d]

Unlike the other two words, however, *yet* can be preceded by a coordinator:

He tried hard, and *yet* he failed. [2e]

Despite its appearance, therefore, [2d], in contrast to [2e], illustrates asyndetic coordination (but *cf* further 13.11).

13.4 It is sometimes said that an important difference between coordination and subordination is that only in the former case can the relation between the two linguistic units be reversed without a change of meaning; *ie* (in symbolic terms):

A + conjunction + B = B + conjunction + A

This is no more than a half-truth. It is true that the order can be reversed in certain cases of coordination:

{ Mary studies at a university *and* John works at a factory.
= John works at a factory *and* Mary studies at a university.

But this potentiality is dependent on many factors, only one of which is the relationship of meaning between the coordinated units. Some of these factors are syntactic, others are a matter of semantic or pragmatic asymmetry (*cf* 13.22–7). For example, the following are obviously not synonymous:

He died *and* he was buried in the cemetery.
He was buried in the cemetery *and* he died.

Note When two coordinated units are placed in sequence, the second unit gains focal prominence from its position (*cf* 18.3*ff*). This prominence in terms of information focus also attaches to the final element in a subordination relation, but in the latter case the positional highlighting is combined with a highlighting based on the formal inequality of subordination.

Coordinators

Coordinators identified

13.5 We regard these conjunctions as clearly coordinators: *and*, *or*, and *but*. *And* and *or* are central coordinators, but *but* differs from them in some respects. On the gradient between 'pure' coordinators and 'pure' subordinators are *for* and *so that* (meaning in this chapter, unless otherwise stated, 'with the result that'). There is also a gradient relating coordinators to conjuncts: for example, *yet* and *so* are two words which we shall classify as conjuncts, but which nevertheless resemble coordinators in some respects. *Nor* is not a clear case of a coordinator, since for many speakers it can be preceded by another coordinator (a potentiality not available to the central cases *and*, *or*, and *but*, as we shall see). *Nor* also contains a negative feature, which introduces some syntactic differences (*cf* 13.36*ff*).

Both, *either*, and *neither* are used as the first item in a correlative pair with *and*, *or*, and *nor* respectively. These anticipatory words are optional endorsements of the coordination, and are obviously closely related to the corresponding determiners *both*, *either*, and *neither* (*cf* 5.12*ff*). Such ENDORSING ITEMS are not in themselves coordinators, since, like *nor*, they can be preceded by a central coordinator (*and* or *or*).

Note [a] We class the conjunctions *for* and *so that* as subordinators in this book; but *cf* below 13.8, 13.10.
[b] Another coordinator in marginal use is *plus*:
Mainframe computers are becoming less expensive, *plus* the best software is available for desktops which of course are cheaper still.
Thus used, *plus* is normally stressed, and is an emphatic alternative to *and* in an additive sense (*cf* 13.27).

Syntactic features of coordinators

13.6 In 13.3 we showed how the same semantic linking function could be performed not only by coordinators, but by subordinators and conjuncts:

He tried hard, *but* he failed.
He tried hard, *although* he failed.
He tried hard, *yet* he failed.

Since all three of these word classes can in a general sense be termed LINKERS, it is important to understand the syntactic basis of the distinctions between them, and at the same time to appreciate that these distinctions are gradient (*cf* 2.60) rather than clear-cut.

We shall therefore examine six features which apply to the central coordinators, *and* and *or*. For each feature, we note whether it is applicable not only to *and* and *or*, but also to items which resemble them. At this stage we restrict ourselves mainly to central coordinators as CLAUSE LINKERS.

(a) Clause coordinators are restricted to clause-initial position

13.7 *And*, *or*, and *but* are restricted to initial position in the clause:

John plays the guitar, *and* his sister plays the piano.
*John plays the guitar; his sister *and* plays the piano.

This is generally true of both coordinators and subordinators, but it is not true of most conjuncts:

John plays the guitar; his sister, *moreover*, plays the piano.

Note [a] There are two or three subordinators which are exceptional in that they can occur noninitially (*cf* 15.39):
Though he is poor, he is happy. Poor *though* he is, he is happy.
[b] In colloquial Australian English (*cf* 1.26) *but* can occur in noninitial position; this indicates that in this variety, it resembles conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*).

(b) Coordinated clauses are sequentially fixed

13.8 Clauses beginning with *and*, *or*, and *but* are sequentially fixed in relation to the previous clause, and therefore cannot be transposed without producing unacceptable sentences, or at least changing the relationship between the clauses:

They are living in England, *or* they are spending a vacation there.
**Or* they are spending a vacation there, they are living in England.

This is true for coordinators and conjuncts, but not for most subordinators. Contrast the unacceptability of [1a], containing the conjunct *nevertheless*, with the acceptability of [1b], containing the subordinator *although*:

**Nevertheless* John gave it away, Mary wanted it. [1a]
Although Mary wanted it, John gave it away. [1b]

In this respect, however, the subordinators *for* and *so that* resemble coordinators. Contrast:

**For* he was unhappy, he asked to be transferred.
Because he was unhappy, he asked to be transferred.

and the resultative *so that* in [2] with the purposive *so that* (*cf* 15.48*f*) in [3]:

**So that* we arrived home late, the rush hour traffic delayed us. [2]
So that he could buy a car, he sold his stamp collection. [3]

13.9 Related to the fixed position of the coordinate clause is the fact that when clauses are linked by the coordinators *and, or,* and *but* (also by *for* and *so that*), a pronoun in the first clause cannot normally have cataphoric reference to a noun phrase in the second clause. For example, *she* in [1a] and [1b] does not corefer to *my mother*:

She felt ill, and *my mother* said nothing. [1a]
She felt ill, but *my mother* said nothing. [1b]

On the other hand, a pronoun can (but need not) have cataphoric reference when it occurs in an initial subordinate clause (*cf* 6.19):

Although *she* felt ill, *my mother* said nothing. [1c]

But the most common position for a subordinate clause is final, in which case a coreferring pronoun will be anaphoric:

My mother said nothing, although *she* felt ill. [1d]

Again, as with cataphoric reference, the antecedent must be in the superordinate clause:

She said nothing, although *my mother* felt ill. [2]

In [2], *She* cannot cataphorically refer to *my mother*.

Note There are both apparent and real exceptions to the rule that a pronoun cannot have cataphoric reference to an element in a following coordinate clause. Consider:

No one who met *her* on social occasions could imagine a harsh word passing *her* lips – but *Liz Pettigrew* was notorious for speaking her mind on matters of business. [3]

The two occurrences of *her* in the first clause appear to corefer cataphorically to *Liz Pettigrew*; but this sentence would normally occur in a context in which Liz was already being discussed. These pronouns could then be explained as anaphorically coreferring to part of an earlier sentence. Exceptionally, however, a sentence such as [3] could occur without preceding anaphoric reference – *eg* at the beginning of a novel.

(c) Coordinators are not preceded by a conjunction

13.10 *And* and *or* do not allow another conjunction to precede them. This is also true for *but, for,* and *so that* (of which the latter two will be treated as subordinators; *cf* 13.18*f*). On the other hand, subordinators as well as conjuncts can usually be preceded by conjunctions:

He was unhappy about it, *and yet* he did as he was told.

In [1] and [2] two subordinate clauses are linked by *and*, which precedes the second subordinator *because* and the second subordinator *so that* (with purposive meaning):

He asked to be transferred, *because* he was unhappy *and because* he saw no prospect of promotion. [1]
She saved money *so that* she could buy a house, *and so that* her pension would be supplemented by a reasonable income after retirement. [2]

In contrast, the conjunctions *but, for,* and resultative *so that* (*cf* 15.49) cannot be preceded by *and* in this way:

*He was unhappy about it, *and but* he did what he was told.
*He asked to be transferred, *for* he was unhappy *and for* he saw no possibility of promotion.
*We paid her immediately, *so* (*that*) she left contented *and so* (*that*) everyone was satisfied.

Note A subordinate clause cannot normally be coordinated with a superordinate clause; but this is what appears to happen in the following case:

She wouldn't do it – *and (all) because I didn't ask her in person.*

The explanation of this example, however, is that the coordinated construction in italics is an elliptical appended clause (*cf* 12.70), the *because* clause being subordinated to this appended clause, rather than to the initial clause *She wouldn't do it*.

13.11 In initial position, some conjunct adverbs resemble coordinators in that they commonly occur with asyndetic coordination, and therefore provide a link similar to coordination:

I told her to go home, *yet* she refused to move. [*cf*: *but* she refused . . .]
The rain fell, *so* we all went home. [*cf*: *and* we all . . .]
Tom doesn't drink, *neither* does he use bad language.
The car turned suddenly, *then* screeched to a halt.

The ease with which the coordinator is omitted in these cases suggests that not only the possibility of adding a coordinator, but the probability of its being omitted should be considered a factor in comparing the behaviour of linkers. One way of explaining the unexpected likelihood of asyndeton in such cases is to postulate an optional merger of the coordinator *and* with the adverb; *eg*: *and* + *yet* merge into *yet*; *and* + *so* merge as *so*. This is a more convincing analysis where, as in all the examples except *then* above, the adverb is immobile in initial position. Other adverbs which behave similarly are *nor* (*cf* 13.18), *otherwise, neither, only* (as a conjunct), and *hence*.

On the use of comma punctuation with this set of adverbs, *cf* App III.6.

(d) Coordinators can link clause constituents

13.12 *And* and *or* may link constituents smaller than a clause; for example, they may link predicates, thus in effect allowing ellipsis of a second or subsequent subject (on the treatment of ellipsis in such cases, *cf* 13.44*ff*, 13.52*f*):

[I may see you tomorrow] *or* [I may phone later in the day].
I [may see you tomorrow] *or* ∆ [may phone later in the day].

Less frequently, this feature also applies to *but*:

The Polish athletes [have succeeded today], *but* $_\Delta$ [may not repeat their success tomorrow].

However, it does not apply to *for* and *so that*:

*He [did not want it], *for* $_\Delta$ [was obstinate].
*He [did not spend very much], *so that* $_\Delta$ [could afford a trip abroad].

Nor does it apply to other conjunctions or to most conjuncts. But this construction seems to be acceptable with the conjunct *yet* and (to a lesser extent, at least in informal spoken English) with the conjunct *so* and the time adverb *then* (meaning 'after that'):

They didn't like it, *yet* (they) said nothing.
They were tired, *so* (they) left early.
They went home, *then* (they) went straight to bed.

13.13 A subordinator, on the other hand, does not allow ellipsis of the subject even when its clause is linked by a coordinator:

*She didn't say anything about it *because* he was new and *because* looked unwell. [1]

If the second subordinator of [1] is omitted, ellipsis is possible:

She didn't say anything about it *because* he was new and (he) looked unwell. [1a]

This is allowed, being a regular case of coordination of predicates (*cf* 13.52), whereas that of [1] is an ungrammatical type of ellipsis (*cf* 12.44). For the same reason, ellipsis is possible preceding or following a conjunct (such as *nevertheless*) if the ellipted subject is itself preceded by a coordinator:

He went to bed early, but $\left\{\begin{matrix} {}_\Delta\ \textit{nevertheless} \\ \textit{nevertheless}\ {}_\Delta \end{matrix}\right\}$ felt tired.

(e) Coordinators can link subordinate clauses

13.14 As well as linking two main clauses, *and* and *or*, as we saw in 13.10 [1] above, can link subordinate clauses:

He asked to be transferred, *because* he was unhappy, (*because*) he saw no prospect of promotion, *and* (*because*) conditions were far better at the other office. [1]
I wonder *whether* you should go and see her *or whether* it is better to write to her. [2]

Usually, as in [1], the second and any subsequent subordinators may be omitted. Such linking is not possible for conjuncts or for the other conjunctions except *but*. *But*, however, is restricted to linking a maximum of two clauses (*cf* 13.16):

She said *that* John would take them by car *but* (*that*) they might be late. [3]

Even so, *but* can link only certain types of subordinate clauses:

(a) *That*-clauses (*cf* 15.4) as in [3] above; only with *that*-clauses can the second subordinator, the one following *but*, be omitted.
(b) Temporal adverbial clauses:

I spoke to him *after* the conference was over, *but before* he started work.

(c) Clauses introduced by the same conjunctions, such as *in order that*, *so that*, and *because*, or by the same *wh*-words. In such cases the first part of the sentence has to be negative, so that it contrasts with the positive meaning of the part which follows *but* (*cf* 13.42):

She didn't see who MĚT the ambassador, *but* who took him aWÀY.
He didn't save in order to go to school, *but* in order to buy a car.

13.15 *But* cannot link most other subordinate clauses, because such clauses normally lie outside the scope of negation (*cf* 2.55, 10.64*f*), and so cannot contrast with the negative implication of the first conjoin:

?They won't help you *if* you pay them, *but if* you promise to help them in return.
*They didn't stay *although* they were happy, *but although* they were bored.

An example with *if*-clauses, such as the one above, is marginally acceptable in a context which enables it to be interpreted as a reformulation of what someone has said or implied. Moreover, if the negation is outside the verb phrase, *but* can more easily link adjunct and subjunct clauses, including such *if*-clauses as:

It might have turned out all right, *not if* he had been more forceful *but if* he had been more tactful.

On further aspects of the *not* . . . *but* construction, *cf* 13.42.

(f) Coordinators can link more than two clauses

13.16 *And* and *or* can link more than two clauses, and the construction may then be called one of MULTIPLE COORDINATION. All but the final instance of these two conjunctions can be omitted. Thus:

The battery may be disconnected, the connection may be loose, *or* the bulb may be faulty. [1]

is interpreted as:

The battery may be disconnected, *or* the connection may be loose, *or* the bulb may be faulty. [2]

In this respect, *and* and *or* differ from subordinators and conjuncts. They differ even from *but*, since *but* semantically speaking can only link two conjoins at the same level. While it is possible (though unusual) to construct a sentence such as:

John played football, Mary played tennis, *but* Alice stayed at home. [3]

such a sentence is interpreted as if the first two clauses had been linked by *and*:

John played football, *and* Mary played tennis, *but* Alice stayed at home. [4]

An indefinite number of clauses can be linked by *and* or *or*. But there is another way in which more than two elements can be combined by coordination: one set of coordinate clauses may become the conjoin of a higher-level coordinate construction. This is indeed what happens in [4], where the coordination by *but* is at a higher level than the coordination by *and*. The constituent structure can be conveniently shown by bracketing: [[A] *and* [B]] *but* [C]. When two different coordinators occur, like this, in the same complex construction, structural ambiguities are liable to arise. The ambiguity can be demonstrated by different bracketings. For example, in the following sentences, [A], [B], and [C] represent three clauses:

[A] I'll pay for the meal *and* [B] you pay for the taxi, *or* [C] perhaps I'll pay for both. [5]

The relationship between the clauses can be represented as follows:

[[A] *and* [B]] *or* [C].

On the other hand, the sentence:

[A] His parents live in New York *and* [B] he writes to them from time to time *or* [C] (he) phones them. [6]

can be represented by a bracketing in which [B] and [C] make up a single conjoin of *and*:

[A] *and* [[B] *or* [C]].

The contrast between [5] and [6] can be also represented by tree diagrams:

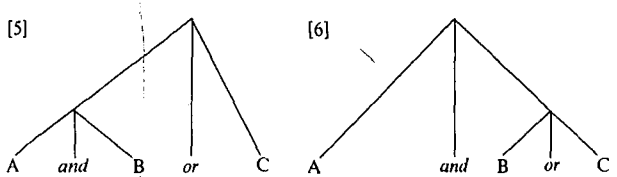

Fig 13.16

Note Punctuation is often used to make clear which is the major constituent structure boundary in mixed multiple coordinate constructions such as [5] and [6]. Thus, the potential ambiguity of the above two constructions can be eliminated by placing a comma before the main coordinator:
[[A] *and* [B]], *or* [C]; [A], *and* [[B] *or* [C]].
A similar distinction can be made prosodically, by placing a tone-unit boundary before the major coordinator, and using additional forms of prosodic emphasis if required.

Polysyndetic coordination

13.17 When a construction with *and* or *or* has more than two conjoins, the ellipsis of all but the last coordinator is customary. Hence 13.16 [1] above, rather than [2], illustrates the usual pattern. In this way, the insertion of the coordinator between two conjoins signals that the last conjoin is about to be added. But where a coordinator occurs between each pair of conjoins, *eg* in [A] *and* [B] *and* [C], the construction is traditionally termed POLYSYNDETON:

The wind roared, *and* the lightning flashed, *and* the sky was suddenly as dark as night. [7]

Polysyndetic coordination thus contrasts both with asyndetic coordination and with ordinary syndetic coordination (*cf* 13.1). Since it transgresses the principle 'reduce where possible' (*cf* 12.4), polysyndeton tends to be reserved for stylistically marked effects; for example, in [7] above it is used to emphasize a dramatic sequence of events, and in 13.16 [2] it suggests (in contrast to [1]) that the list of three possibilities may not be complete.

Note On the use of a punctuation mark as a separator of nonfinal conjoins of multiple coordinate constructions, *cf* App III.7–9.

Coordination–subordination gradient

13.18 *Table* 13.18 displays the gradient from the central coordinators *and* and *or* to subordinators like *if* and *because*, with *but*, *for*, and *so that* on the gradient. The conjuncts *yet*, *so*, and *nor* are added to the *Table*, because, as we have seen, they in some respects resemble coordinators. The six features of *and* and *or* noted in 13.7–17 have provided six criteria used in constructing the matrix. If an item satisfies a criterion, this is indicated by a '+' in the relevant cell. If it fails to satisfy the criterion, '–' is entered. The combination '±' takes care of cases, explained in the previous discussion, where the item satisfies the criterion only under certain conditions. The six criteria to be applied to each item are:

(a) It is immobile in front of its clause.
(b) A clause beginning with it is sequentially fixed in relation to the previous clause, and hence cannot be moved to a position in front of that clause.
(c) It does not allow a conjunction to precede it.
(d) It links not only clauses, but predicates and other clause constituents.
(e) It can link subordinate clauses.
(f) It can link more than two clauses, and when it does so all but the final instance of the linking item can be omitted.

Table 13.18 Coordination–conjunct–subordination gradients

		(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)
coordinators	*and, or*	+	+	+	+	+	+
	but	+	+	+	+	±	–
conjuncts	*yet, so, nor*	+	+	×	+	–	–
	however, therefore	–	+	–	–	–	–
subordinators	*for, so that*	+	+	+	–	–	–
	if, because	+	±	–	–	–	–

The cross '×' in column (c) records the fact, already noted in 13.11, that words like *yet*, *so*, and *nor*, although they allow a preceding coordinator, also allow the omission of the coordinator more readily than other conjuncts. In other words, they favour asyndeton, and to that extent resemble coordinators with respect to column (c) as much as they resemble conjuncts.

Note [a] When *because* introduces a disjunct clause (*cf* 8.124, 15.21), it resembles *for* and *so that*, in that the clause which it introduces cannot be moved to initial position in the sentence:

She PAID for the book, *because* I SAW her. ≠ *Because* I saw her, she paid for the book.

This explains the '±' in column (b).

[b] For many speakers, especially in AmE, *nor* cannot be preceded by a coordinator. In BrE, the combination *but nor* is somewhat more acceptable than *and nor*.

13.19 Although *Table* 13.18 demonstrates the absence of a clear divide between coordinators and other linking items, we can justify the traditional inclusion of *but* among the coordinators and the exclusion of *for* and *so that* or *yet* and *so* by pointing to two facts which distinguish *but* from these words: (i) it behaves like a coordinator with respect to subject ellipsis (*cf* 13.12 and criterion (d) above), and (ii) it resembles coordinators in its ability to link two clauses subordinate to the same main clause (criterion (e)). The latter potentiality, in particular, reflects its status as a coordinator, in that it links constituents at the same level. By the same criteria, *for* and *so that* are shown to be subordinators rather than coordinators; and yet they are more coordinator-like than the more typical subordinators *if* and *because*. Similarly, *yet*, *so*, *neither*, and *nor* are best treated as conjuncts which are nevertheless more coordinator-like than more typical conjuncts such as *however* and *therefore*. These words which share some of the distinguishing features of coordinators may be called SEMI-COORDINATORS (*cf* also QUASI-COORDINATORS, 13.103).

Coordination of clauses and of lesser constituents

13.20 In the above comparisons, we have assumed in general that the units to be linked are clauses. This has meant ignoring (except with reference to criterion (d)) an important distinguishing characteristic of coordinators: that they can be used to link elements which are parts of clauses, rather than whole clauses. Thus the conjoins in the following examples are adjectives acting respectively as subject complement and premodifier:

The weather will be *cold and cloudy*.
~ *cold and cloudy* weather
The weather will be *rainy or changeable*.
~ *rainy or changeable* weather
The weather will be *warm but windy*.
~ *warm but windy* weather

Here again, however, we note that linking words which are not coordinators nevertheless resemble coordinators. Certain concessive subordinators and conjuncts, in particular, are capable of replacing *but* in the above types of construction:

Tim's *squat yet ferocious* bulldog could be heard growling on the patio.
I immediately recognized Sarah's *bold if barely legible* handwriting.
Martin was inclined to boast about his *rich though disreputable* ancestors.

(On the concessive use of *if* here, *cf* 15.40.)

These concessive items can link not only adjectives, but other clause constituents, such as adverbials:

The admiral walked clumsily, { *yet* / *if* / *though* } with dignity.

Similarly, *nor*, in its capacity as a correlative conjunction after *neither* (*cf* 13.37), can link constituents such as adjectives or adverbials:

They were *neither able nor willing* to provide the necessary capital.

The gradience and overlap between coordinators, subordinators, and conjuncts has not, therefore, been exhausted by *Table* 13.18.

13.21 We shall note such in-between cases as they arise; but even with coordination, it is sensible to begin with the conjoining of clauses as the most basic construction. This is because in many cases (but by no means all; *cf* 13.45–6) the coordinating of smaller units may be elucidated as an elliptical reduction of clause coordination. For example, the coordinating of predications as in:

Sam has *trimmed the hedge* and *mowed the lawn*.

can be analysed as an elliptical coordination of clauses in which the initial subject and operator are repeated:

Sam has *trimmed the hedge*, and Sam has *mowed the lawn*.

Similarly, the following sentence with verb-phrase coordination:

I *washed and ironed* the clothes.

can be seen as a reduced version of:

I *washed* the clothes and I *ironed* the clothes.

In this analysis, we can treat ellipsis as a relation of SYSTEMATIC CORRESPONDENCE in the sense of 2.20, rather than attempting to explain it as a process of deriving the reduced construction from the fuller one. Nevertheless, it will be helpful to concentrate largely on clause coordination in the following sections, 13.22–32, therefore confining our attention to COMPOUND SENTENCES as defined in 14.2. It should be noted, however, that the semantic relations to be discussed apply to coordination of clause constituents, as well as of entire clauses.

The use of coordinators

The uses of *and*

13.22 *And* is the coordinator which has the most general meaning and use. The only restriction on the use of *and* as coordinator is the pragmatic one that the clauses should have sufficient in common to justify their combination. Thus the following is odd simply because it would be difficult to find any connection between the content of the clauses:

> The youngsters went off to a dance *and* the equator is equidistant from the two poles.

In logical terms, *and* merely conveys (for declarative clauses) that if the whole sentence is true, then each of its conjoined clauses is true. But the pragmatic implications of the combination vary, according to our presuppositions and knowledge of the world. The relation connoted by the link between the two or more conjoins can generally be made explicit by the addition of an adverbial. By using the term 'connotation', we intend to indicate that the relations of meaning between conjoins are not hard and fast: they vary in strength, and more than one can coexist in the same occurrence of *and*. For each connotation that we exemplify in the following sections, we insert (wherever possible) an adverbial that would make the relationship explicit (*cf* 19.20). For simplicity, we illustrate the connotation with sentences containing just two clauses.

Of the eight types of connotation, in only three – (c), (f), (g) – can the sequence of clauses perhaps be reversed without changing the relationship between the clauses. Even in these cases, the sequence is rarely random.

Note Thus the general principle of communicative dynamism (*cf* 18.3*ff*) determines that when two units are coordinated, the second is placed in focus against the background of the first.

13.23 (a) The second clause is a CONSEQUENCE or RESULT of the first; *ie*, the first conjoin presents the circumstances (frequently the circumstantial background) enabling the event described in the second conjoin to take place. This entails that the order of the clauses also reflects chronological sequence:

> He heard an explosion *and* he (*therefore*) phoned the police.

(b) The second clause is chronologically SEQUENT to the first, but without any implication of a cause–result relationship:

> I washed the dishes *and* (*then*) I dried them.

In (a) and (b), the verb of each clause is normally dynamic rather than stative.

Note [a] There can obviously be no implication of chronological sequence if the clauses are given in a sequence contrary to chronological order. Thus, if the second clause is tense-marked to indicate that its content is prior chronologically, coordination of the two clauses is unacceptable in the intended meaning:

?I dried the dishes *and* I had washed them.

This also applies when there is the additional implication of a cause–result relationship:

?He phoned the police *and* he had heard an explosion.

Such sequences, however, can be quite acceptable without linking by *and*:

He phoned the police; he had heard an explosion.

As such examples show, parataxis differs from coordination in allowing a relation between two clauses whereby the second gives the REASON or EXPLANATION for the event described in the first:

Bader's car dropped out of the race: the engine was overheating.

[b] The association of *and* with chronological sequence does not rule out the possibility that the two clauses linked by *and* refer to simultaneous events or states; *eg*:

Mother was reading *and* (at the same time) I was having a bath.

In this case, where the relation of meaning is ADDITIVE (*cf* 13.27), there would be no difference of meaning if the clauses were placed in the opposite order:

I was having a bath *and* mother was reading.

13.24 (c) The second clause introduces a CONTRAST:

> Robert is secretive *and* (*in contrast*) David is candid.

(d) The second clause is felt to be surprising in view of the first, so that the first clause has a CONCESSIVE force:

> She tried hard *and* (*yet*) she failed.

In both (c) and (d), *and* could be replaced by *but*.

13.25 (e) The first clause is a CONDITION of the second:

> Give me some money *and* (*then*) I'll help you escape. [1]
> Let's give him some money *and* (*then*) he won't tell anybody what we did. [2]

The implication of the first sentence is shown by the paraphrase:

> Give me some money. If you give me some money (*then*) I'll help you escape.

This illustrates a pattern which is usual with the conditional use of *and*: the first clause is a directive and the second clause describes the consequence which will ensue if the directive is obeyed. It is not necessary, however, for the first clause to be in the imperative mood, or for the second clause to contain *will* or *shall*. One idiomatic pattern consists of two imperatives:

> Go by air, *and* save time. [3]
> Join the navy *and* see the world. [4]

Another pattern is illustrated by the following:

> One more word from you, *and* I phone the police. [5]

Here the first clause is verbless, and the second illustrates the dramatically 'instantaneous' use of the present tense (*cf* 4.7).

Like the corresponding conditional use of *or* (*cf* 13.30), this use of *and* is associated with certain directive speech acts, such as promises (*eg* [1]) and threats (*eg* [5]).

Note [a] Since it is normal for the first clause to retain some directive force, there is no exact paraphrase relation between (say) [1] above and the following sentence with an *if*-clause:

If you give me some money, I'll help you escape.

On the other hand, there is a proverbial type of sentence in which the imperative clause lacks a directive meaning, and where the conditional sentence with *if* would offer a suitable paraphrase:

Ask me no questions, *and* I'll tell you no lies.

Give a dog a bad name, *and* he'll live up to it. [= 'If you give . . .']

[b] A quasi-conditional use of *and* in prohibitions is illustrated in the slogan: *Don't drink and drive* [= 'If you drink, don't drive']; *cf* 13.48.

13.26 (f) The second clause makes a point SIMILAR to the first:

A trade agreement should be no problem, *and* (*similarly*) a cultural exchange could be easily arranged.

13.27 (g) The second clause is a 'pure' ADDITION to the first, the only requirement being that the two statements are congruent in meaning:

He has long hair *and* (*also*) he often wears jeans.

(h) Similar to (g) is a sentence in which the second clause adds an appended COMMENT on or EXPLANATION of the first:

They disliked John – *and* that's not surprising in view of his behaviour.

There's only one thing to do now – *and* that's to apologize.

A sentential relative clause, *eg*: . . . *which is not surprising* . . . (*cf* 15.57), can replace the second clause here.

Note In type (h), if the first clause is long, the second is sometimes inserted parenthetically within it. Such parenthetical coordination gives the impression of being an *ad hoc* or unplanned interpolation:

Many students at our university – *and* it is difficult to explain this – reject the proposed reforms in university administration.

For a different kind of interpolated coordination, *cf* 13.95*ff*.

The uses of *or*

13.28 *Or* introduces an alternative. Logically, in contrast to *and* (*cf* 13.22) it conveys the meaning (with declarative clauses) that if one of the individual conjoins is true, then the whole sentence is true. But as with *and*, there is the pragmatic requirement that the contents of the two clauses should have sufficient in common to justify their juxtaposition as alternatives. Typically *or* is EXCLUSIVE; that is, it excludes the possibility that both conjoins are true, or are to be fulfilled:

You can sleep on the couch in the lounge *or* you can go to a hotel.

The person who makes the above suggestion does not expect the hearer to reply 'Thanks, I'll do both'. But even when both alternatives are clearly possible, as in:

You can boil yourself an egg *or* (*else*) you can make some sandwiches.

or is normally interpreted as exclusive. The meaning of *or* in such cases can be strengthened by the conjunct *else* or *alternatively*.

There can also occur, however, an INCLUSIVE interpretation of *or*, where it is implied that both conjoins may be true. This inclusive meaning is clearly

signalled where a third clause is added to make it explicit, as in the following example:

You can boil an egg, (*or*) you can make some sandwiches, *or* you can do both.

In written varieties of the language where precision is required (*eg* in official instructions), the third possibility can be explicitly included by the combination of coordinators *and/or*:

If the appliance is defective, write directly to the manufacturer *and/or* complain to your local consumer protection service.

Note The exclusive meaning of *or* acquires a specialized use in alternative questions (*cf* 11.20*f*), in alternative interrogative clauses introduced by *whether* or *if* (*cf* 15.6), and in alternative conditional-concessive clauses (*cf* 15.41).

13.29 The alternative expressed by *or* may also be a restatement or a CORRECTIVE to what is said in the first conjoin:

They are enjoying themselves, *or* {(*at least*) / (*rather*)} they APPEAR to be enjoying themselves.

In such cases the second conjoin is, or purports to be, added as an afterthought. Such constructions are discussed under the heading of INTERPOLATED COORDINATION in 13.95*ff*.

13.30 In addition to introducing alternatives as indicated above, *or* may imply a NEGATIVE CONDITION. Thus in:

Give me some money *or* (*else*) I'll shoot.

the implication can be paraphrased by the negative conditional clause:

Give me some money. *If you don't give me some money* I'll shoot.

The conditional use of *or* is thus the negative analogue of the conditional use of *and* (*cf* 13.25). Unlike *and*, however, *or* typically follows a negative imperative clause:

Don't be too long, *or* you'll miss the bus.

In this case, the most appropriate paraphrase with an *if*-clause is positive instead of negative:

. . . if you are too long, you'll miss the bus.

Another difference between conditional *and* and conditional *or* is that the latter can readily occur after declarative, as well as imperative clauses:

They (must have) liked the apartment, *or* they wouldn't have stayed so long. [1]

Here *or* may be viewed as the negative counterpart of *because* used as an inferential disjunct (*cf* 15.21):

They (must have) liked the apartment, *because* they stayed there the whole summer. [1a]

The implication of *or* in [1] can be emphasized by adding the conjunct *else* (*cf* 8.137, 8.144, 8.146): . . . *or else they wouldn't have stayed so long*. *Or* can also be replaced by the conjunct *otherwise*: . . . *otherwise they wouldn't have stayed so long*.

The negative conditional *or* and the conditional *and* described in 13.25 are contrastingly related in meaning, as can be seen from the virtual synonymy of:

Make a move, *and* I'll shoot!
Don't make a move, *or* I'll shoot!

Note As with conditional *and*, the first conjoin with conditional *or* may be a verbless clause: *Your money or I shoot*. There is even the possibility that both conjoins are verbless: *Your money or your life* [= 'Give me your money, or I'll take your life'] (*cf* 11.53 Note).

And in relation to *or*

13.31 Because *and* and *or* contrast with one another in meaning, *or* following a negative is in some respects equivalent to *and*. Thus:

He doesn't have long hair *or* wear jeans. [1]

is logically equivalent to the combination of two negative statements '*He doesn't have long hair* AND *He doesn't wear jeans*'. Conversely:

He doesn't (*both*) have long hair *and* wear jeans. [2]

is logically equivalent to the inclusive disjunction of two negative statements: 'EITHER *He doesn't have long hair* OR *He doesn't wear jeans* (*or both*)'. The reversal of meaning arises because in [1] and [2], the coordinator is within the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64).

Hence *or* tends to replace *and* in contexts which we have called NONASSERTIVE (*cf* 2.53), and more generally in subordinate positions in the sentence:

Soldiers who mutinied *or* deserted were punished by death.
[= 'Soldiers who mutinied were punished by death, *and* soldiers who deserted were punished by death.']
If we complain *or* demand compensation, nothing happens.
[= 'If we complain nothing happens, *and* if we demand compensation nothing happens.']
He is good at painting with watercolours *or* with oil paints.

The same replacement takes place following *can*, *may*, and other expressions of permission or possibility:

You can go swimming *or* simply sit on the beach.
Permission has been granted for the play to be performed in public *or* private theatres.

In this last sentence, *and* could be substituted for *or* without effective change of meaning.

The use of *but*

13.32 *But* expresses a contrast which could usually be alternatively expressed by *and* followed by *yet*. The contrast may be in the unexpectedness of what is said in the second conjoin in view of the content of the first conjoin:

John is poor, *but* he is happy. ['. . . *and yet* he is happy']

This sentence implies that his happiness is unexpected in view of his poverty. The unexpectedness depends on our presuppositions and our experience of the world. It would be reasonable to say:

John is rich, *but* he is happy.

if we considered wealth a source of misery.

The contrast expressed by *but* may also be a repudiation in positive terms of what has been said or implied by negation in the first conjoin (*cf* 13.42):

Jane did *not* waste her time before the exam, *but* studied hard every evening. [1]

In such cases the force of *but* can be emphasized by the conjunct *rather* or *on the contrary* (*cf* 8.137):

I am *not* objecting to his morals, *but rather* to his manners. [2]

With this meaning, *but* normally does not link two clauses, but two smaller constituents; for example, the conjoins are two predicates in [1] and two prepositional phrases in [2]. The conjoins cannot be regarded as formed simply by ellipsis from two full clauses, since the *not* in the first clause conjoin is repudiated in the second. Thus the expansion of [2] into two full clauses must be as follows:

I am *not* objecting to his morals, *but* (*rather*) I am objecting to his manners.

Correlatives

13.33 To reinforce or clarify the conjoining function of *and*, it is frequently possible to place the word *both* in front of the first conjoin:

He has met (*both*) her mother *and* her father.

Similarly, *either* can be placed in front of the first conjoin to reinforce *or*, and there is a further correlative pair *neither* . . . *nor*:

He has met (*either*) her mother *or* her father.
He has met *neither* her mother *nor* her father.

This last construction is equivalent to:

He has*n't* met *either* her mother *or* her father.

where *either* and *or* are within the scope of negation (*cf* 13.31).

These pairs *both* . . . *and*, *either* . . . *or*, and *neither* . . . *nor* are termed CORRELATIVES, composed of an endorsing item (*cf* 13.5) and a coordinator. We may add to them two correlatives with *but*: *not* . . . *but* and *not only* . . . *but* (*cf* 13.42). Attention will first be given to *either* . . . *or* as the most straightforward correlative pair.

Note [a] On correlative subordinators such as *if* . . . *then*, *whether* . . . *or*, *cf* 14.13.
[b] On the 'misplacing' of the endorsing item, *cf* 13.40.

Either . . . or

13.34 *Either* . . . *or* emphasizes the EXCLUSIVE meaning of *or* (*cf* 13.28):

Either the room is too small *or* the piano is too large.

The conjoins may be complete clauses, as above, or else smaller constituents which are often related by ellipsis to complete clauses:

You may *either* [stand up] *or* [sit down].
Either [Sylvia] *or* [her sister] will be staying with us.

These sentences illustrate coordinated predications and coordinated subjects respectively.

Both . . . and

13.35 *Both* . . . *and* emphasizes the ADDITIVE meaning of *and* (*cf* 13.27). It separates the conjoins and puts them on the same footing, thereby dissociating the conjoins from the *consequential* or *sequent* relation (*cf* 13.23) that might otherwise be implied. Contrast:

David loves Joan *and* (therefore) wants to marry her.
David *both* loves Joan *and* wants to marry her.

Both . . . *and* also singles out the segregatory meaning of *and* (*cf* 13.59–63) rather than the combinatory use. Note the difference between:

David and Joan got divorced. [*ie* 'from each other']
Both David and Joan got divorced. ['so now they can get married']

At first sight, *both* . . . *and* appears to stand in the same relationship to *and* as *either* . . . *or* does to *or*. But in fact, *both* . . . *and* is not admissible where the conjoins are full finite clauses. There must be some kind of ellipsis. Hence, while we can have:

Mary washed the dishes *and* Peter dried them.

we cannot have:

**Both* Mary washed the dishes *and* Peter dried them.

On the other hand, *both* can be inserted if the conjoins are predicates or predications:

Mary *both* washed the dishes *and* dried them.
This new machine will *both* accelerate the copying process *and* improve the quality of reproduction.

or if the conjoins are phrases:

Both Mary *and* Peter washed the dishes.
The regulations are *both* very precise *and* very detailed.

Note *Both* . . . *and* can be awkward when they coordinate subordinate (finite or nonfinite) clauses, especially when those clauses have an overt subject:
We want someone *both* who is able *and* whom we can trust.
They have asked *both* for the floor to be repolished *and* for the lighting to be improved.
The second of these sentences is less objectionable than the first.

Nor, neither

13.36 *Nor* and *neither* can be used as negative additive adverbs (*cf* 8.116) without being a correlative pair. They generally presuppose that a previous clause is negative either explicitly, as in [1], or implicitly, as in [2] and [3]:

He did *not* receive any assistance from the authorities *nor* did he believe their assurance that action would soon be taken. ⟨rather formal⟩ [1]
Many people are *only* dimly aware of the ways in which the environment can be protected. *Nor* have governments made sufficient efforts to educate them. ⟨formal⟩ [2]
All the students were obviously very *miserable*. *Nor* were the teachers satisfied with the conditions at the school. ⟨formal⟩ [3]

Notice that *nor* in these examples is not the equivalent of *or* plus *not*, as might be thought from its morphological composition. Rather, it is nearer to being the equivalent of *and* plus *not* (*cf* 13.31). Thus:

They *never* forgave him for the insult, *nor* could he rid himself of feelings of guilt for having spoken that way. ⟨formal⟩ [4]

has much the same meaning as the more informal:

They *never* forgave him for the insult, *and* he could *not* rid himself of feelings of guilt for having spoken that way *either*. [4a]

In all the sentences [1–4], *neither* can replace *nor* without change of meaning. For many speakers (*cf* 13.18 Note [b]) both *neither* and *nor* can be linked to preceding sentences by *and* or *but*:

They never forgave him for the insult, $\left\{\begin{matrix}(and)\\(but)\end{matrix}\right\}\left\{\begin{matrix}neither\\nor\end{matrix}\right\}$ could he rid himself of the feelings of guilt for having spoken in that way. [4b]

This possibility excludes them from the class of central coordinators (*cf* 13.10, 13.19). Moreover, as the above examples show, *neither* and *nor* require subject–operator inversion when they introduce a clause, a feature which they share with negative adjuncts such as *never* and *nowhere* when they occur initially (*cf* 18.24).

On the other hand, by the criteria of meaning (*and* + *not*), of immobility, and susceptibility to asyndetic use (*cf* 13.11), *neither* and *nor* show themselves to be among that class of linking adverbs which most resemble coordinators.

Note In a formal and elevated style *nor* can be used where there is no negative implication at all in the first clause:

This unique product carries a brand name that represents an entire country; *nor* is this an accident. [= 'and this is no accident']

The correlatives *neither . . . nor*

13.37 When *neither . . . nor* constitutes a correlative pair, on the other hand, *nor* functions as a central coordinator, like *and* and *or*, and *neither* as an endorsing item, like *both* and *either*. For example, the coordinated predicates of:

David *loves Joan* and *wants to marry her*.

can be negated either by adding the negator *not* in each predicate:

David does*n't* love Joan, *and* (*so*) does*n't* want to marry her. [1]

or by substituting the correlatives *neither . . . nor*:

David *neither* loves Joan, *nor* wants to marry her. [2]

Whereas [1], however, tends to connote a consequential relation between the clauses, the correlatives in [2] emphasize that the negation applies to both conjoins. Correlative *neither* is mobile, its position reflecting the scope of negation (*cf* 10.63):

Sam *neither* [has long hair], *nor* [wears jeans].
Mary was *neither* [happy] *nor* [sad].
Neither [Peter] *nor* [his wife] wanted the responsibility.

The same restriction applies to *neither . . . nor* as to *both . . . and* (*cf* 13.35); these correlatives cannot be used to negate whole clauses, as in:

**Neither* Peter wanted the responsibility, *nor* his wife did.

Note The correlative *neither . . . nor*, being the negative counterpart of *both . . . and*, conveys a correspondingly additive meaning. Thus the use of *and* for other than additive purpose (*eg* to express a contrast or a condition; *cf* 13.24–5) has no parallel in *neither . . . nor*.

A 'mixed' construction with *neither . . . nor*

13.38 In 13.36–7 we have discussed *neither* and *nor* first as additive adverbs and second as correlative coordinators. These two grammatical roles are in principle quite distinct, but in practice are often superficially similar. It is not surprising that there exists a 'mixed' construction, in which *neither* and *nor* behave like additive adverbs, but are at the same time correlative, and have the 'segregatory' meaning associated with *both . . . and* (*cf* 13.59*ff*):

Sam *neither* has long hair, *nor* does he wear jeans.
Mary was *neither* happy, *nor* was she sad.
?Peter *neither* wanted the responsibility, *nor* did his wife.
They have *neither* replied to my letters, *nor* have they answered my telephone calls.

Here, *neither* appears in a medial adverbial position in the first clause, and *nor* appears in initial position in the second clause, followed by subject–operator inversion. The meaning of this construction is the same as that of the corresponding construction with correlative coordination (*cf* 13.37). But the units which follow them in each clause are not equivalent, as one would expect them to be if this were a construction of coordination. This is clear when square brackets are inserted in the examples above, enclosing putative conjoins:

Sam *neither* [has long hair], *nor* [does he wear jeans].

Careful users of the language may indeed prefer to recast such a sentence in accordance with the principles outlined in 13.40:

Sam *neither* [has long hair], *nor* [wears jeans].

Restrictions on correlatives

13.39 According to a didactic tradition, the use of correlative coordinators is unacceptable when there are three or more conjoins:

?We are *both* willing, able, *and* ready to carry out the survey. [1]
?*Either* the Minister, *or* the Under-secretary, *or* the Permanent Secretary will attend the meeting. [2]
?Tompkins has *neither* the personality, the energy, *nor* the experience to win this election. [3]

(This restriction is felt especially strongly in the case of *both*.) *Both*, *either*, and *neither* (like *whether*; *cf* 15.6) are all historically associated with dual constructions, and these words have dual meaning when they occur as determiners in noun phrases (*cf* 6.50, 6.61, 6.62). The parallel between examples such as the following suggests that the initial word in [4] is in fact a determiner just as it is in [5]:

Both {her mother *and* her father / her parents} are alive. [4] [5]

But *both* cannot be classed as a determiner in sentences where the conjoins are not noun phrases:

He is a well-known writer *both* in Britain *and* on the Continent.

It is perhaps understandable, then, that the use of correlatives with more than two conjoins is judged if anything a more obvious stylistic 'fault' in [6], where the conjoins are noun phrases, than in [1], where they are not:

?**Both* her mother, her father, *and* her brother are still alive. [6]

Although commonly stigmatized, multiple correlatives such as [1–3] can add clarity to constructions whose complexity might otherwise cause confusion. For this reason, such constructions are sometimes used even in careful written English, *eg* in the rubric of an examination paper:

Candidates are required to answer EITHER Question 1 OR Question 2 OR Questions 3 and 4.

13.40 Grammatical tradition also holds that correlative coordinators should introduce constituents of equivalent function and status. (This reflects a general constraint that the conjoins of a coordinate construction must be equivalent; *cf* 13.88.) Hence in written English [1a] is preferred to [1b], and [2a] to [2b]:

?Evelyn is *either* [stupid], *or* [pretends that she is]. [1a]
Either [Evelyn is stupid], *or* [she pretends that she is]. [1b]

?I admire *both* [the drawings of Rembrandt] *and* [of Rubens]. [2a]
I admire *both* [the drawings of Rembrandt] *and* [those of Rubens]. [2b]

The bracketed portions of the above sentences are the conjoins which are marked off by the correlatives. The conjoins are comparable units in [1b] (where they are whole clauses) and [2b] (where they are noun phrases), but not in [1a] and [2a].

With *both* . . . *and* and *either* . . . *or*, the constraint that the conjoins delimited by the correlatives should be constituents of the same kind of status is frequently violated in speech, but is generally observed in careful written English. With *neither* . . . *nor*, as we saw in 13.37*f*, the constraint is more frequently ignored, because there is a tendency to treat *nor* as an adverb (with subject–operator inversion; *cf* 18.24) rather than as a coordinator.

13.41 A further restriction on correlatives is that the first correlative word *both*, *either*, etc can occur only at a point which is the beginning of a phrase. Hence in the following examples, the [a] sentence is acceptable, whereas the [b] sentence is not:

The building is *both* [very old] *and* [very decrepit]. [1a]
*The building is very *both* [old] *and* [decrepit]. [1b]

The car's disappointing performance is due to *either* [faulty steering] *or* [faulty suspension]. [2a]
*The car's disappointing performance is due to faulty *either* [steering] *or* [suspension]. [2b]

(Again the conjoins are marked by square brackets.) The unacceptable feature of [1b] and [2b] is the placement of the initial coordinator between the modifier and the head, rather than at the beginning of the phrase. To avoid this, we can place (as in [1a] and [2a]) the coordinator in front of the modifier, and repeat the modifier in the second conjoin. This restriction means that the ambiguity of *old men and women* (*cf* 13.67) cannot occur with a correlative such as *both* . . . *and*.

Not (only) . . . but

13.42 The negator *not/n't* or the combination *not/n't only* may be correlative with a following *but*:

He did*n't* come to help, *but* to hinder us.
They *not only* broke into his office and stole his books, *but* (they) (*also*) tore up his manuscripts.

The repudiatory meaning of *not/n't* . . . *but* has already been noted (*cf* 13.32). The meaning of *not only* . . . *but* is essentially additive, like that of *both* . . . *and*: it distinguishes rather than equates the conjoins, forcing us to look at the first conjoin as 'given' ground. But with *not only* . . . *but* the emphasis is greater, suggesting that the content of the first clause is surprising, and that that of the second clause, often reinforced by an adverb such as *also* or *even*, is still more surprising. What particularly makes these combinations resemble correlatives is the option of moving the negative particle out of its normal position following the operator, so as to mark the parallelism between the two conjoins:

Not [Henry], *but* [his wife] is the owner. [1]
He came *not* [to help], *but* [to hinder us]. [2]
Not only [did they break into his office and steal his books], *but* [they also tore up his manuscripts]. [3]

The more dramatic effect achieved by positioning *not only* initially, with subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24), is illustrated by [3], where the two conjoins are entire clauses.

Note [a] The *not* . . . *but* . . . construction frequently occurs in a cleft sentence (*cf* 18.26*ff*): *It isn't the players, but the supporters, that are responsible for football hooliganism.*
[b] The correlatives (*just*) *as* . . . *so*, which have an emphatic effect similar to that of *not only* . . . *but* (*also*), are correlative subordinators rather than correlative coordinators (*cf* 14.13):
Just as they must put aside their prejudices, *so* we must be prepared to accept their good faith.
Cf also the correlatives *rather* . . . *than* and *not so much* . . . *as* (13.103, 15.52).
[c] Once *not* is moved out of its post-operator position, as in [1–3] above, it cannot of course occur in its enclitic form.
[d] There is a type of repudiatory coordination *and not* . . . in which the relation between the clauses is the reverse of that of *not* . . . *but* described above: *He came to help, and not to hinder us.* In this type, where the negative occurs in the second conjoin, a repudiatory force can also be expressed asyndetically, by omitting the coordinator: *He came to help, not to hinder us.*

Coordination of clause constituents

13.43 Although we regarded the clause as the most appropriate unit to start with in considering the use of coordinators (*cf* 13.20), the exemplification of correlatives in 13.33–42 has shown that the conjoins of a coordinate construction in many instances are, and in some instances have to be, smaller than a clause. In the following sections we deal in detail with single clauses or clause constituents which may be coordinated by means of *and*, *or*, or *but*. We will call this usual kind of coordination SIMPLE COORDINATION, and will distinguish it from less straightforward and less common types of coordination, *viz* COMPLEX COORDINATION or coordination of groups of constituents (*cf* 13.90–93), and APPENDED COORDINATION (*cf* 13.94). For the purpose of simple

coordination, a conjoin may be any constituent such as a predicate, a predication, a phrase, or a word. The important point, however, is that the conjoins of each construction are parallel to one another in meaning, function, and also (generally) in form (*cf* 2.12).

Ellipsis and simple coordination

13.44 There are two different ways of examining simple coordination of clause constituents. On the one hand, we may examine a construction as an elliptical version of clause coordination, noting what elements are ellipted; and on the other hand, we may examine the construction in terms of the conjoins themselves – *viz* the elements which are left intact. These two different approaches are reflected in different principles of analysis. For example, the coordinate construction in:

They have already [finished their work] and $_{\Delta}$ [gone home]. [1]

can be viewed as a clause coordination in which a subject, operator, and adverbial have been ellipted; or it can be viewed as a single clause containing two coordinate predications. For simple coordination (though less so for other kinds of coordination) there are advantages in adopting the latter method as the major one (*cf* especially 13.47, 13.60). Thus in [1] we shall be interested in the fact that the conjoins (marked here, and in subsequent examples, by square brackets) are predications, and less interested in what elements have been omitted at the point marked by the symbol $_{\Delta}$.

Note We regard ellipsis as a relation of systematic correspondence (*cf* 2.20) between sentences. We therefore do not consider the explanations of [1] in terms of ellipsis and in terms of coordination of clause constituents as in competition with one another. Rather, they are complementary accounts: one focusing on sentence structure, and the other on intersentential relations (*cf* 2.20, 2.46).

Limits of ellipsis

13.45 Not all cases of coordination can be explained in terms of ellipsis. Although [1] in 13.44 could be expanded into:

They have already finished their work and *they have already gone home*. [1a]

a similar expansion could not be attempted for such cases as:

Many young wives [go to work] *and* [put their children in a playgroup]. [2]
I have never grown [apples] *or* [pears]. [3]
The national flag of Japan is [red] *and* [white]. [4]
[My sister] *and* [her husband] live in Texas. [5]
[Your house] *and* [mine] are similar (to each other). [6]

In the first place, [2] cannot be seen as an elliptical version of:

Many young wives go to work, and many young wives put their children in a playgroup. [7]

since [2] has a different meaning from [7]. The same applies if we try to expand [3] to:

I have never grown apples or I have never grown pears. [8]

The lack of synonymy, in these two examples, can be explained in terms of scope (*cf* 2.55*ff*): the scope of the quantifier *many* includes *and* in [2] but not in [7]; similarly, the scope of the negative word *never* includes *or* in [3] but not in [8].

It is for a semantic reason, too, that [4] cannot be regarded as a reduction of the self-contradictory sentence:

*The national flag of Japan is red, and the national flag of Japan is white. [9]

On the other hand, it is grammatical concord that prevents the expansion of [5] into:

*My sister live in Texas and her husband live in Texas. [10]

13.46 The last example in 13.45 is a reminder that two or more singular noun phrases, when coordinated by *and*, become plural, and therefore require concord with a plural verb (*cf* 10.37). With [6] in 13.45 above, the difficulty of the explanation of coordination by ellipsis is compounded: not only does grammatical concord fail in the unelliptical version [6a], but also the reciprocal pronoun *each other* cannot make sense in the absence of a plural noun phrase:

*Your house are similar (to each other), and mine are similar (to each other). [6a]

This nonsensical sentence also illustrates the more general point that, in addition to *each other*, there is a whole range of expressions (*be similar*, *be different*, *be the same*, *be in love*, *play chess*, *get married*, etc) which, when predicated of a noun phrase coordinated by *and*, can be interpreted in a reciprocal or symmetric manner (*cf* 13.60):

Margot and Dennis are in love. [11]

Thus in one obvious interpretation, [11] expresses a mutual relation ('. . . in love with each other') which is not suggested by the sentence:

Margot is in love and Dennis is in love. [12]

We return to such differences under the heading of combinatory and segregatory coordination (*cf* 13.59–63), but for the present we simply note the problems of concord, meaning, and scope that arise when a general attempt is made to interpret constituent coordination in terms of ellipsis.

Semantic implications of constituent coordination

13.47 These observations, and others, may be looked at from the opposite point of view – as evidence in favour of regarding simple coordination as what it appears to be on the surface – *viz* as a formation of a compound unit which is functionally analogous to each of its conjoined members. To understand the verb phrase coordination of *Peter washed and dried the dishes*, for example, we do not have to postulate a rather complex ellipsis of the object in the first clause and the subject in the second:

Peter washed (the dishes) *and* (Peter) dried the dishes.

but instead can treat *washed and dried* in [1] below as a verb element functionally comparable to *washed* in [2] and *dried* in [3]:

Subject	Verb	Object	
Peter	*washed and dried*	the dishes	[1]
Peter	*washed*	the dishes	[2]
Peter	*dried*	the dishes	[3]

This analysis is strengthened by the fact that in [1] *washed and dried* is typically interpreted as a single combined activity (*What are you doing to the dishes? I'm washing and drying them*), rather than as two separate activities.

A further example, this time of verb-words coordinated to form a single verb phrase of complex construction, shows the same principle at work at a lower level in the hierarchy of grammatical units:

Adam is *checking* and *revising* his manuscript. [4]

There is, in other words, a close correspondence between the structural aspect of coordination and the semantic aspect which accompanies it. This matching of meaning to form applies more strikingly in cases where the difference of meaning between clause coordination and constituent coordination is more obvious, as in questions with coordinated predications:

Did Peter [tell lies] *and* [hurt his friends]?

This is a single question about two events in combination; but:

[Did Peter tell lies], *and* [did he hurt his friends]?

is interpreted as two separate questions. Similarly:

Did John [break the window] *but* [refuse to pay for it]?

is a single question about John's past behaviour, which may be answered *yes* or *no*. But in this case a corresponding example of clause coordination would be impossible, because there is no intelligible way in which *but* can serve as a link between two questions:

*Did John break the window, *but* did he refuse to pay for it?

This difference may be explained in terms of the scope of interrogation (*cf* 2.55).

Note In similar questions containing *or*, there is an ambiguity, signalled by intonation, between interpretation as an ordinary *yes–no* question and as an alternative question (*cf* 11.20–21):

Did you [play football] *or* [go for a WÀLK]?

Did you [play FÓOTball] *or* [go for a WÀLK]?

Only in the latter case can the sentence be expanded into a coordination of two complete clauses:

[Did you play FÓOTball] *or* [did you go for a WÀLK]?

13.48 There is a similar implication of combined process when the two conjoined predications are within the scope of negation (*cf* 13.45). For example:

John DÌDn't [break the window] *but* [refuse to pay for it]. [1]

This is a denial of the statement:

John [broke the window] *but* [refused to pay for it]. [2]

As a negation of a combined process, [1] could evoke the retort *Yes, he did*. On the other hand, two separate processes are expressed by the clause and predicate coordinations of [3] and [4], and the scope of negation in the first conjoin does not extend to the second conjoin:

John did*n't* break the window, *but* he offered to pay for it. [3]

John did*n't* break the window, *but* he refused to pay for it. [4]

[= 'The claim is *not* that John broke the window, *but* that he refused to pay for its repair.']

Clearly [4] cannot be regarded as a semantically-equivalent unreduced version of [1].

There is a similar effect of negation in the slogan *Don't drink and drive*, the force of which is not to forbid either activity, but only to forbid both in combination. This directive therefore has a different meaning from the more severe prohibition: *Don't drink and don't drive*.

13.49 There is no doubt that ellipsis is important to the understanding of coordination, particularly with respect to meaning and style. But in the first instance, there is more to be gained from a purely structural view of coordination. This means that we regard coordination as a type of linkage whereby the resulting CONJOINT construction is equivalent, structurally speaking, to each of its members. For example, a noun phrase may act as subject of a clause; and likewise, a coordinated construction (or CONJOINT NOUN PHRASE) whose conjoins are noun phrases may also act as subject. Equally, if an adjective may act as head of an adjective phrase, then a coordinated construction whose conjoins are adjectives may also act as head of an adjective phrase. In more formulaic terms:

If [A], [B], . . . are conjoins of the conjoint construction X, then any structural function which may be taken individually by [A] or [B] or . . . may also be taken by X.

This generalization applies to all cases of simple coordination, and after slight extension will also apply to other cases of coordination.

Note [a] The generalization above should not be understood to deny that the privilege of occurrence of X may be different from those of [A], [B], . . . with regard to concord; *eg* [A] may be singular, and X may be plural, as in [*John*] *and* [*Mary*] *are friends* (*cf* 13.46).

[b] Apart from coordination, there are other types of construction for which the whole construction has the same privilege of occurrence as its members; *eg* some types of apposition (*cf* 17.65*f*):

We have been invited to meet *the Principal, Mrs Joyce*.

Types of simple coordination

Coordination of clauses

13.50 We have already illustrated the coordination of complete independent clauses:

[The winter had come at last], *and* [snow lay thick on the ground].
[Who are you], *and* [where do you live]?
[Have a look at the engine], *but* [don't take it to pieces].

Dependent clauses may also be coordinated, so long as they belong to the same function class:

If you pass the examination and (*if*) *no one else applies*, you are bound to get the job.
[COORDINATE ADVERBIAL CLAUSES] [1]

The Minister believes *that the economy is improving*, and (*that*) *unemployment will soon decrease.*
[COORDINATE NOMINAL *THAT*-CLAUSES] [2]

I didn't know *who she was*, or *what she wanted.*
[COORDINATE NOMINAL *WH*-CLAUSES] [3]

Someone *who knows the area*, but *whose home is outside it*, is more likely to be a successful representative.
[COORDINATE RELATIVE CLAUSES] [4]

In [1–2], the repetition of the introductory subordinator could be avoided by ellipsis of the second subordinator. However, against the principle of 'reduce where possible' must be set the opposite tendency to avoid ellipsis where it leads to ambiguity. It is more likely that the second *if* would be omitted in [1] than the second *that* in [2], because in [2] the sentence would be ambiguous, the second conjoin . . . *and unemployment will soon decrease* being interpretable as a main clause.

Nonfinite dependent clauses (*cf* 14.6–8) may also be coordinated:

I've asked him *to come this evening*, or (*to*) *phone us tomorrow.*
[COORDINATE *TO*-INFINITIVE CLAUSES] [5]

Samantha is fond of *working at night* and *getting up late in the morning.*
[COORDINATE *-ING* PARTICIPLE CLAUSES] [6]

All the villagers helped to rebuild the houses *damaged by the storm* or *washed away by the floods.*
[COORDINATE *-ED* PARTICIPLE CLAUSES] [7]

Again, if the initial subordinating word (such as the *to* in [5]) is common to both clauses, it may be omitted in the second and subsequent occurrences. A final category to be illustrated is that of coordinate verbless clauses (*cf* 14.9, 15.60):

With George ill and (*with*) *the children at home*, Jenny is finding life very difficult.

13.51 As noted earlier (*cf* 13.47, 13.49), the members of coordinate constructions tend to be parallel both in their structure and in their meaning. It is therefore quite usual for coordinate subordinate clauses to belong to the same semantic as well as functional category, or to share the same subordinator (as in [1–2]). Conversely, it is unusual for adverbial clauses to be coordinated if they belong to different categories, such as those of time and place (*cf* 8.2*ff*). The following are therefore unusual:

In order that you may submit a claim without delay and *because you did not receive the form we sent earlier*, I suggest that you write again giving the fullest details.
The book will be dispatched *as soon as the payment is received* and *unless the order is cancelled.*
When the pale sun rose briefly over the horizon, and *wherever they looked*, the desert of ice seemed to stretch out to infinity.

A preferred construction in the last case would be one in which the two clauses functioned as adverbials of the same clause, but in different positions, and without being coordinated:

When the pale sun rose briefly over the horizon, the desert of ice seemed to stretch out to infinity *wherever they looked.*

On the other hand *wh*-clauses introduced by different *wh*-words, such as those of 13.50 [3], can be coordinated with relative ease.

It is scarcely acceptable for different types of nonfinite clause to be coordinated, or for finite dependent clauses to be coordinated with nonfinite clauses, even where there is a strong semantic affinity between the two clauses. Occasional examples such as the following occur:

The empress, *nearing her death* and *surrounded by doctors and necromancers*, was no longer in control of her ministers.
The curfew bell rang at sunset every evening, *to warn the citizens that it was time for bed*, and *so that secret defensive measures could be taken by the army.*

But it seems impossible, for example, to coordinate a nominal infinitive with an *-ing* clause:

*George likes *going to the races* and *to bet on the horses.*

Nor is it normal to coordinate a postmodifying relative clause with a postmodifying nonfinite clause:

?Charles was longing to talk to the girl *sitting in the corner* and *who had smiled at him.*

Instead of such hybrid coordinations, means have to be found to preserve equivalence of both the form and function of the conjoins:

Charles was longing to talk to the girl *who was sitting in the corner* and *who had smiled at him.*

or else we have to juxtapose the modifiers without coordination, thus including the first modifier in the scope of the second:

Charles was longing to talk to the girl *sitting in the corner who had smiled at him*. (= [[the girl sitting in the corner] who had smiled at him])

Note [a] When clauses are conjoined, the noninitial conjoins often contain general ellipsis of the kinds dealt with in 12.59–65:
[Bob seemed angry], *and* [Eva certainly was $_\Delta$].
[Mary's parents did their best to protect her], *but* [[she wished that they wouldn't $_\Delta$], *and* [finally she asked them not to $_\Delta$]].
This does not affect the status of the conjoins as clauses (*cf* also appended coordination, 13.94).
[b] On the coordination of subordinators (*if and when*, *when and where*, etc) *cf* 13.83.

Coordination of predicates

13.52 In coordination of predicates (*cf* 2.47), which is very common, the conjoined predicates may be described as sharing the same subject:

Peter *ate the fruit* and *drank the beer*. [1]
I *send you my very best wishes*, and *look forward to our next meeting*. [2]
Margaret *is ill*, but *will soon recover*. [3]

The predicates may, of course, have varied structures in terms of clause elements. For example, [1] and [2] have structures which can be represented as follows:

[1]: S [V O] and [V O] [2]: S [V O_i O_d] and [V A A]

Such sentences may be seen as elliptical alternatives to coordinated clauses, for example:

Peter ate the fruit, and *Peter/he drank the beer*. [1a]

But, on the whole, repetition of the subject is avoided where possible. In other cases (*cf* 13.45*f*), no elliptical explanation of the sentence is possible:

Two young men ate the fruit and (also) drank the beer. [4]
[≠ Two young men ate the fruit, and two young men drank the beer]

This is because for coordination of two predicates to take place, the subject of the one predicate must be coreferential with the subject of the other. Thus [4] is synonymous with the sentence which differs from it only in that a coreferential *they* is inserted before the second verb:

Two young men ate the fruit and *they* (also) drank the beer. [4a]

Note [a] It is common to insert a comma (or other punctuation) before the coordinator in conjoined clauses, but it is much less common to insert a comma before the coordinator in conjoined predicates. Hence [1] above is written with no comma, whereas in [1a] the comma is inserted. (The commas inserted in [2] and [3] are optional; *cf* App III.7.) This characteristic difference is one sign of the greater cohesiveness of the coordinated predicate: something which accords with the view that the major constituent boundary in such cases is between the subject and a conjoint predicate, rather than between the end of one clause and the beginning of another. Putting it more simply, we may say that in [1a] there are two clauses, while in [1] there is one clause with a conjoint predicate; this is shown in *Fig* 13.52 opposite. This constituent-structure account of predicate coordination does not, of course, prevent the postulation of ellipsis where criteria (*cf* 12.32–38) of ellipsis apply; *cf* 13.44 Note.
[b] The distinction between coordinate predicates and other coordinate constructions is sometimes neutralized. In the coordination of imperative clauses, *eg*: *Sit down and listen to this*,

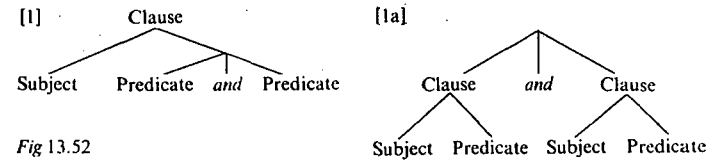

Fig 13.52

where there is no overt subject, this construction could be equally described as a coordination either of clauses or of predicates. (Contrast the imperative with a subject: *You sit down and listen* (*to this*) is likely to be one clause with coordinate predicates, whereas *Sit down and just you listen* (*to this*) has to be two coordinate clauses.) In *Mary skipped and jumped*, on the other hand, there is a different type of neutralization: this example could be analysed as containing two conjoined predicates, *skipped* and *jumped*, or alternatively as containing a single predicate (*skipped and jumped*) within which two verb phrases are conjoined. Yet a third possibility is that *skipped and jumped* is a single verb phrase, within which the main verbs are conjoined. Similar alternative analyses arise with coordination in relation to the scope of adverbials (*cf* 13.54–5).

Coordination of predications

13.53 Coordination of predications (*cf* 2.48), as of predicates, is very common, and often involves ellipsis. Consider the following examples:

Most people will have *read the book* or *seen the film*. [1]
They should have *washed the dishes*, *dried them*, and *put them in the cupboard*. [2]
You must *take the course* and *pass the examination*. [3]
They were *married in 1960*, but *divorced in 1970*. [4]
Are you *working* or *on holiday*? [5]
Why couldn't she *have finished work late* and *still be travelling home*? [6]

In all cases it is possible to regard the auxiliary or auxiliaries preceding the predication as ellipted. Thus [1], although we cannot regard it as equivalent to two coordinated clauses, can be regarded as an ellipted version of predicate coordination:

Most people will have read the book or ((will) have) seen the film. [1a]

As with predicate coordination itself, however, the most reduced form of the sentence will tend to be preferred; hence the omission of *will have* will be preferred in [1a]. As [2] shows, more than one auxiliary can be ellipted in the second and subsequent conjoins; and as [6] shows, it is also possible (though rare) for the coordinated predications to contain auxiliaries. What is not possible, however, is the omission of a repeated operator combined with the realization of a repeated or coreferential subject:

**You* must take the course and *you* $_\Delta$ pass the examination.
*Are *you* working or $_\Delta$ *you* on holiday?

This would no longer be a case of simple coordination, since the conjoins would consist of two separate constituents which are not coconstituents of a larger constituent: *viz* subject and predication (*cf* 13.90*f*).

Note [a] For the same reason, it is not possible for the second of two repeated auxiliaries to be ellipted without the ellipsis of the first:
*Most people will have read the book or will seen the film.

[b] As with coordinate clauses, so with coordinate predicates and predications, general ellipsis (*cf* 12.43) often occurs in a second or subsequent conjoin of the construction. In the following, for example, the head of the object noun phrase is ellipted in the second predication:

We wanted fried fish, but were unfortunately given boiled $_\Delta$.

And in the following, medial ellipsis (*cf* 12.62) occurs in the second conjoin:

My brother is using his car this morning, and will be $_\Delta$ again this afternoon.

Coordination and the scope of adverbials

13.54 In the types of coordination we have discussed, adverbials, as more peripheral elements of the clause (*cf* 2.13), often stand outside the structure of coordination:

Yesterday [the sun was very warm] and [the ice melted]. [1]

Although this example can reasonably be called coordination of clauses, the initial adverbial actually stands outside the two conjoins, and its meaning applies simultaneously to both of them. The structure of this sentence may be represented: A [S V C] + [S V]. Just as in 13.45 and 13.47 we noted that coordination could take place within the scope of interrogation and negation, so here we may say that the two conjoins are within the scope of the adverbial *yesterday*. The role of *yesterday* in [1] is therefore rather different from that which it has in the following:

[*Yesterday* the sun was very warm] and [*during the morning* the ice melted]. [2]

[*Yesterday* the sun was very warm] and [the ice has melted]. [3]

In [2], the appearance of an adverbial of the same semantic class in the second clause limits the scope of the first adverbial. In [3], for reasons of tense and aspect (*cf* 4.23), *yesterday* cannot apply to the second clause, and so it is restricted to the first conjoin. The formulae for these two examples are:

[2]: [A S V C] + [A S V] [3]: [A S V C] + [S V]

There is good reason for saying that in a clause with an initial adverbial, as in *Yesterday the sun was very warm*, the whole of the clause including and following the subject is in the scope of the adverbial. This is partly on semantic grounds, and partly on grounds of punctuation and prosody: it is notable that if a prosodic or punctuation boundary occurs in such a clause, it will normally be located between the adverbial and the rest of the clause. The remainder of the clause, which thereby becomes a constituent in its own right (rather than a sequence of subject and predicate), may be termed the KERNEL of the clause. The type of coordination illustrated by [1] is classified as a coordination of two clause kernels. It is less common for a coordinate construction to come within the scope of a final adverbial; *eg* the analysis of:

The train arrived and we met our guests on time. [4]

would be [S V] + [S V O A] (where *on time* applies only to the second clause), rather than [S V] + [S V O] A.

Note The second interpretation of [4] could be obtained, however, if the sentence were a case of interpolated coordination (*cf* 13.95–7), with intonational or punctuational separation of the second conjoin:

The train ARRÍVED, and we met our GÚESTS, on TÍME.

13.55 It is more usual, however, for a coordinate construction to be within the scope of adverbials where the conjoins are predicates or predications; *eg*:

Unfortunately we [missed the train] and [had to wait six hours]. [1]

The guests were [walking], [talking], and [drinking wine] *in the garden*. [2]

In [1], an example of predicate coordination, both the missing of the train and the long wait are regarded as *unfortunate*; and in [2], an example of predication coordination, all three activities are assumed to take place *in the garden*. (There is another possible interpretation of [2], however, whereby only the wine-drinking takes place in the garden.)

In the following more complex example of predicate coordination, the coordination takes place within the scope of three adverbials; one in initial, one in medial, and one in final position:

In those days they *often* used to [shoot the birds], [bring them home], [cook them] and [eat them] *on a single day*. [3]

Although the scope of the adverbial *on a single day* is ambiguous here, perhaps the more likely interpretation is the one in which it applies to all four actions, as shown by the square brackets. But it is clear that the initial time adverbial has within its scope the whole of the rest of the sentence, and that *often* includes within its scope the whole of the predicate which follows it. Therefore a representation of the more likely interpretation of this sentence, with square brackets marking scope relations as well as the individual conjoins, is as follows:

In those days they [often used to [[shoot the birds,] [bring them home,] [cook them] and [eat them] on a single day]].

For an example of this complexity, it is obvious that no postulated elliptical conjoins could lead to a plausible correspondence with clause coordination:

?In those days they often used to shoot the birds on a single day,
in those days they often used to bring them home on a single day,
in those days they often used to cook them on a single day, *and*
in those days they often used to eat them on a single day.

Coordination of noun phrases and their constituents

Noun phrase coordination

13.56 In all positions where a noun phrase occurs (*eg* as subject, object, complement) there is also the possibility of a conjunction of two or more noun phrases, making up a CONJOINT noun phrase (*cf* 2.10, 13.49):

[Some of the staff], *and* [all of the students,] have voted for these changes. [SUBJECT]

On this farm, they keep [cows,] [sheep,] [pigs,] *and* [a few chickens.] [OBJECT]

Lucy Godwin is [a well-known broadcaster] *and* [winner of the Novelist of the Year Award for 1978]. [SUBJECT COMPLEMENT]

The plan was opposed by [Frederick,] [Mary,] *and* [me]. [PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEMENT]

Jane plays three instruments: [the piano,] [the viola,] *and* [the French horn]. [NOUN PHRASES IN APPOSITION]

These examples show how the conjoined noun phrases may be simple or complex, and may have a noun or a pronoun as their head. In fact, the structural possibilities of the conjoins are the same as for individual noun phrases (*cf* 2.25). One of the implications of this is that noun phrases in coordination may contain general ellipsis of the kinds discussed in 12.54–58. The first conjoin will often contain the antecedent for ellipsis in subsequent conjoins:

Which do you prefer: [the red *dress*,] [the green $_\Delta$,] *or* [the white $_\Delta$]?
It's [the longest *single-span bridge* in this country,] *and* [the second longest $_\Delta$ in the world].
That must be *either* [John's *writing*] *or* [Bridget's $_\Delta$].
There's little to choose between [that *method*] *and* [the other $_\Delta$].

Note [a] When one of the conjoins is a personal pronoun, it is considered polite to follow the order of placing 2nd person pronouns first, and (more importantly) 1st person pronouns last: *Jill and I* (not *I and Jill*); *you and Jill*, (not *Jill and you*), *you, Jill, or me* (not *me, you, or Jill*), etc.
[b] A complication arises if any of the coordinated noun phrases exemplified above is accompanied by one or more adverbials; *eg*:

Jane plays three instruments: the piano, the viola, and { *occasionally,* / *now and then,* / *last but not least,* } the French horn.

We can then no longer, strictly speaking, talk of noun phrase coordination; rather, this falls into a category of *complex coordination* to be discussed in 13.90*ff*.

But as a noun phrase coordinator

13.57 The use of *but* as a coordinator between noun phrases is restricted. *But* is seldom used in subject position, except where it has a repudiatory force following *not*, or an additive force following *not only*:

Not only [the students,] *but* [some of the staff] have voted for these changes.
We were disappointed to learn that *not* [a thousand,] *nor* [a hundred,] *but* [a mere twenty-three] had turned up for the inaugural meeting.

Even with these constructions, however, a nonsubject position is much more usual:

They applauded *not* the players *but* the referee.

Coordination of noun phrases by *but* in a nonsubject position is also liable to occur when *but* is followed by the adverb *only*, or by the clause substitute *not* (*cf* 12.28):

On this farm, they keep [[cows] and [sheep,]] *but* [*only* a few chickens]. [1]
[The plan was opposed by Frederick], *but* [*not* Maria]. [2]

Strictly, this last example is again a case of clause coordination, not noun phrase coordination. Elsewhere, *but* is frequently inappropriate as a phrase coordinator:

*On this farm, they keep cows *but* sheep, *and* only a few chickens.

When the conjoint noun phrase follows a preposition, as in [2], it is often stylistically preferable, for reasons of parallelism and clarity, to repeat the preposition, thereby replacing a conjoint noun phrase by a conjoint prepositional phrase, as in [3]:

The plan was opposed *not* [by Frederick] *but* [by Maria]. [3]

Note Another reason for repeating the preposition in [3] is the oddity of placing *not* between a preposition and its complement: ?*The plan was opposed by not Frederick but Maria.*

Multiple coordination of noun phrases

13.58 In noun phrase coordination, as in clause coordination (*cf* 13.16*f*), we have seen that it is possible to form constructions which are of more than two conjoins:

She asked me to buy [four oranges,] [a pound of plums,] *and* [a melon].

Asyndetic coordination (*cf* 13.1) of more than two noun phrases is also possible:

We had no friends, no family, no material resources.

and noun phrases may have polysyndetic coordination (with more than one coordinator; *cf* 13.17):

She asked me to buy [four oranges,] *and* [a pound of plums,] *and* [a melon].

There may also be, as in clause coordination, more than one level of coordination:

She asked me to buy [four oranges,] *and* [[one large melon] *or* [two small ones]].

Combinatory and segregatory coordination of noun phrases

13.59 When phrases linked by *and* function in the clause, they may express COMBINATORY or SEGREGATORY meaning. Combinatory coordination is coordination for which it is inappropriate to provide a paraphrase in terms of coordinated clauses; this is because the conjoins function 'in combination' with respect to the rest of the clause. When phrase coordination is segregatory, on the other hand, we can paraphrase it by clause coordination. The distinction applies to various kinds of coordinate construction, but is clearest with noun phrases. For example:

[John] *and* [Mary] make a pleasant couple.
[≠ *John makes a pleasant couple, and Mary makes a pleasant couple]
[John] *and* [Mary] know the answer.
[= John knows the answer, and Mary knows the answer]

Many conjoint noun phrases are ambiguous between a combinatory and a segregatory interpretation:

[John] *and* [Mary] won a prize.

This may mean either (a) that John and Mary each won a prize, or (b) that the prize was awarded jointly to them both. Reading (b), however, is preferred unless the insertion of *each* makes it clear that reading (a) is intended. (On the related topic of distributive number, *cf* 10.47.)

13.60 We may distinguish three kinds of combinatory meaning:

(a) JOINT PARTICIPATION
The conjoins are interpreted as jointly constituting a single participant (*cf* 10.18*ff*) in the process or relationship described by the clause. The sentence:

John and Mary played tennis against *Susan and Bill.* [1]

may refer to a single combined process, *viz* a game of doubles, as shown in *Fig* 13.60a; but the same sentence might also have a segregatory interpretation, referring to four games of singles as shown in *Fig* 13.60b.

A further segregatory interpretation involving two singles games, as represented in *Fig* 13.60c, is the one that would be selected if the adverb *respectively* were added to [1] (*cf* 13.63):

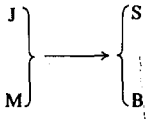

Fig 13.60a

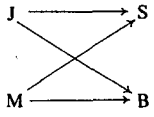

Fig 13.60b

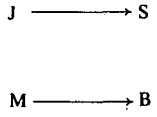

Fig 13.60c

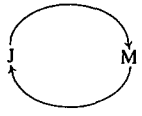

Fig 13.60d

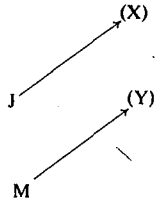

Fig 13.60e

KEY
J John
M Mary
S Susan
B Bill
X, Y } other players

(b) MUTUAL PARTICIPATION
The conjoins are interpreted as entering into a symmetric or reciprocal relation to each other, as indicated in *Fig* 13.60d. This is one interpretation of:

John and Mary played tennis.

But this sentence also allows a segregatory interpretation 'John and Mary each played tennis (with somebody)' as suggested by *Fig* 13.60e. The symmetric interpretation can be made explicit by adding or substituting some expression containing *each other* or *one another.*

Further examples of mutual participation are:

Peter and Bob separated.
Paula and her brother look alike.
Mary and Paul are just good friends.
John and Peter have different tastes.

Note the use of the plural nouns in complement position to indicate reciprocity:

Mary and Susan are sisters/cousins/colleagues (of each other).

The corresponding singular complement cannot be used with reciprocal meaning: ?*Mary is a cousin and Susan is a cousin.* But with the segregatory meaning of *Mary and Susan are teachers,* the corresponding conjoined singular constructions make an acceptable paraphrase: *Mary is a teacher and Susan is a teacher.* The same meaning of mutual participation occurs with three or more conjoins: *Smith, Brown, and Robinson became partners.*

(c) UNITARY PARTICIPATION
In some cases the conjoins are so closely linked in meaning that they participate in the meaning of the clause as if they referred to a single object. The whole phrase may behave as a singular noun phrase for purposes of concord (*cf* 10.37*ff*):

Law and order is a primary concern of the new administration.

Other examples are *fish and chips, a ball and chain, bread and butter, the Stars and Stripes,* and titles and names such as *Fathers and Sons* (a novel by Turgenev) and *the Fox and Hounds* (a public house). It is a characteristic of such unitary phrases that the order of the conjoins cannot be varied, and that no determiner precedes the second conjoin (*cf* 13.67).

Note [a] The distinction between combinatory and segregatory meaning applies not only to conjoint noun phrases, but to plural noun phrases in general. Thus the combinatory meanings of:

They are married. *The three girls* look alike.
We haven't met before. He painted the cars in *two colours.*

contrast with the segregatory meanings of *They are feverish*; *The three girls have a cold.*
[b] A special case of mutual participation is the use of *and* as a noun phrase coordinator following *between* (*cf* 9.39).

Indicators of segregatory meaning

13.61 Certain markers explicitly indicate that the coordination is segregatory:

both (. . . *and*)	*neither* . . . *nor*	*respectively* ⟨formal⟩
each	*respective* ⟨formal⟩	*apiece* ⟨rather rare⟩

While *John and Mary have won a prize* is ambiguous, we are left in no doubt that two prizes were won in:

John and Mary have *each* won a prize.
John and Mary have won a prize *each.*
Both John and Mary have won a prize.
John and Mary have *both* won a prize.

However, because of the distributive meaning of *each* (*cf* 6.51), there is a potential difference of meaning between [1] and [2]:

John and Mary have *each* won prizes. [1]
John and Mary have *both* won prizes. [2]

Both permits the distributive interpretation of *prizes* which occurs in [1] (= *John has won prizes and Mary has won prizes*), but also permits the nondistributive interpretation whereby *prizes* might refer to one prize won by John and another prize won by Mary.

Corresponding to the positive correlative *both* . . . *and* is the negative correlative *neither* . . . *nor*, which likewise has segregatory force:

John *and* Mary did*n't* win a prize. [3]
Neither John *nor* Mary won a prize. [4]

Whereas [3] is ambiguous, [4] is unambiguously segregatory, making it clear that two prize-winnings were involved. *Or* following a negative (*cf* 13.31) has a similar effect, seen in the contrast between the combinatory/segregatory ambiguity of [5] and the segregatory meaning of [6]:

He wouldn't lend his books to *Tom and Alice*. [5]
He wouldn't lend his books to *Tom or Alice*. [6]

Note [a] *Apiece*, a less common adverb which marks segregatory meaning, is normally placed finally after a direct object:
John and Mary have won a prize *apiece*.
It is restricted to clauses with an object, to which it gives the distributive interpretation of *each*.
[b] The ambiguity observed in [2] above remains when the coordinate subject is replaced by a plural noun phrase: *My children have both won prizes*. (*Cf* 13.66 Note [d] and 10.47 on distributive number.)

Respective

13.62 The adjective *respective* premodifies a plural noun phrase, *eg* as object, to indicate segregatory interpretation of a preceding conjoint noun phrase. In this function, it is normally preceded by a plural possessive pronoun:

Jill and Ben visited their uncles.

This could mean:

(a) Jill visited her uncle(s) and Ben visited his uncle(s).
(b) Jill and Ben together visited the uncles they have in common.
(c) Jill and Ben together visited Jill's uncle(s) and also Ben's.

On the other hand:

Jill and Ben visited their *respective* uncles.

can only mean (a). The use of *respective* does not, however, help us distinguish the number of uncles, since *respective* cannot be used with a singular noun-phrase head:

*Jill and Ben visited their respective uncle.

The related noun phrases do not have to be in a subject–object relationship:

We interviewed *the Director and the Producer* in their *respective* offices.
Mary and Susan went to their *respective* homes.

They can even be in different clauses or sentences:

Bob and his best friend have had some serious trouble at school lately. Their *respective* parents are going to see the principal about the complaints.

Note Like other markers of segregatory meaning, *respective* can be used analogously with preceding plural noun phrases: *The boys visited their respective uncles*.

Respectively

13.63 The adverb *respectively* is used to indicate segregatory meaning, and also tells us which constituents go with which when there are two parallel coordinate constructions. For example, if there are two sets of conjoins [A] *and* [B] . . . [C] *and* [D], *respectively* makes it clear that [A] goes with [C], and [B] goes with [D]. It can be added to the front or end of the second coordinate construction. Some illustrations follow:

John, Peter, *and* Robert play football, basketball, *and* baseball *respectively*.
[= John plays football, Peter plays basketball, and Robert plays baseball]
Arnold *and* his son were *respectively* the greatest educator *and* the greatest critic of the Victorian age.
[= Arnold was the greatest educator of the Victorian age, and his son was the greatest critic of the Victorian age]
Smith *and* Jones are going to Paris *and* to Amsterdam *respectively*.

The *respectively* construction is generally limited to formal discourse. In other contexts it smacks of pedantry.

Coordination of parts of noun phrases

13.64 When coordination takes place *within* a single noun phrase, it is often possible to postulate ellipsis from a full form in which coordination takes place *between* noun phrases:

They sell [manual] *and* [electric] typewriters. [1]
Your [son] *and* [daughter] look so much alike. [2]

These may be expanded respectively to:

They sell [manual typewriters] *and* [electric typewriters]. [1a]
[Your son] *and* [your daughter] look so much alike. [2a]

There is a further type of coordination within the noun phrase which allows no ellipsis at all. Thus [3] is not usually paraphrasable by [3a], or [4] by [4a]:

They made [salmon] *and* [cucumber] sandwiches. [3]
≠ They made [salmon sandwiches] *and* [cucumber sandwiches]. [3a]

[Spacious] *and* [well-furnished] apartments to let. [4]
≠ [Spacious apartments] *and* [well-furnished apartments] to let. [4a]

Here again, there is a distinction to be made, with *and*, between COMBINATORY and SEGREGATORY coordination. Combinatory coordination is associated with nonelliptical interpretation, and segregatory with ellipsis or quasi-ellipsis (*cf* 12.40). In the combinatory interpretation illustrated most clearly by [3], the conjoins act semantically 'in combination' with respect to the rest of the sentence. In the segregatory interpretation illustrated by [1], however, the parts of the noun phrase, and even of the clause, which are outside the conjoins can be regarded as the antecedents of an ellipsis or quasi-ellipsis, so that the noun phrase can be paraphrased by means of a coordination of noun phrases and ultimately of clauses. A test of segregatory coordination is whether the endorsing word *both* can be inserted before the first conjoin (*cf* 13.35): [1] means *They sell both manual and electric typewriters*, but [3] does not normally mean *They made both salmon and cucumber sandwiches*.

Note For some cases, it is possible to postulate yet a further stage of ellipsis, and to expand the conjoint noun phrase into a conjoint clause:

[They sell manual typewriters] *and* [they sell electric typewriters]. [1b]

But such an analysis leads to results which are both nonsensical and ungrammatical for other examples:

*[Their son look alike] *and* [their daughter look alike]. [2b]

13.65 As can be seen from the comparison of 13.64 [1] and [3] above, the combinatory/segregatory distinction may be made at various levels for the same construction. For example, the italicized phrase in:

Those are *the shelves for books on* [*skills*,] [*trades*,] *and* [*hobbies*].

permits a combinatory interpretation of *skills, trades, and hobbies* whereby each of the books in the whole set is assumed to deal with all three subjects; but if we assume a segregatory interpretation at this level (*ie*, 'books on skills, books on trades, and books on hobbies'), there is still another level at which the combinatory interpretation is possible: *viz* the shelves in question could each contain a mixture of the three types of book. In contrast, a segregatory interpretation on this level would mean that each shelf is reserved for one kind of book [= 'shelves for books on skills, shelves for books on trades, and shelves for books on hobbies']. In this way coordination creates possibilities of multiple ambiguity, and in general, the further down the tree of constituent structure the coordination occurs, the greater are the opportunities for ambiguity, in the manner indicated by *Fig* 13.65:

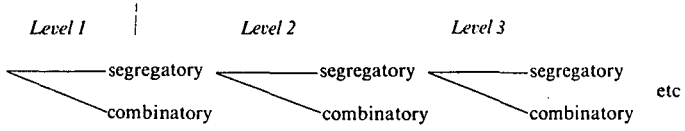

Fig 13.65

To avoid confusion, then, it is best to use the terms 'combinatory' and 'segregatory' in respect to a given contrast of interpretation, rather than with more general reference to a grammatical construction.

Coordination and number

13.66 Essentially the question of whether a given noun phrase (simple or conjoint) is singular or plural depends on whether it refers to one or more than one member of a class of denotata. (For special problems of concord, *cf* 10.37*ff*.) For instance, two noun phrases, even when both are singular, form a plural conjoint phrase when they are coordinated by *and*:

[Jane *is* well] *and* [Susan *is* well]. BUT: [Jane] *and* [Susan] *are* well.

Similarly with more complex noun phrases:

[The King of Denmark] *and* [the Queen of Denmark] *have* arrived. [1]

The plural *have* is appropriate in [1], because the subject refers to more than one person. The same is true when the determiner and modifier are ellipted, so that *King* and *Queen* are coordinated within a single noun phrase:

The [King] *and* [Queen] of Denmark *have* arrived. [1a]

If on the other hand the modifiers are coordinated, the noun head changes from singular to plural, thus indicating the plurality of the whole expression:

The Presidents [of Greece] *and* [of Austria] *were* present at the ceremony.
(= '[the President of Greece] *and* [the President of Austria]')

If the head, in such a case, is noncount, it cannot change to the plural, and there arises the oddity of a singular noun acting as head of a plural noun phrase (*cf* 10.38):

[Indian] *and* [Chinese] tea *smell* totally different from each other.

(The plural *teas* would also be possible here, but would have the slightly different meaning of 'kinds of tea'.) Another example is:

[Red] *and* [white] cabbage *are* (both) useful ingredients for a salad.

(Here the plural *cabbages* would be ludicrous, suggesting that each salad should contain whole cabbages; while the singular *is* would suggest that the variety of cabbage in question is particoloured red and white.)

Note [a] An apparent exception which proves the rule is the case of coordinative apposition (*cf* 10.39), where two singular count noun phrases are placed in apposition to form a *singular* noun phrase:

[Tom's father] *and* [Suzanne's uncle] is waiting for you.

The only possible interpretation of this is that Tom's father and Suzanne's uncle are the same person. A similar conclusion must be drawn when two singular nouns are coordinated as heads of a singular noun phrase:

The [owner] *and* [editor] of the *Daily Post* was a member of the club.

[b] On the singular or plural number of noun phrases containing coordination by *or*, *cf* 10.41.

[c] There is uncertainty over number where the *many a* construction (*cf* 5.23 Note [c]) is followed by singular heads conjoined by *and*:

Many a boy *and* girl $\left\{\begin{matrix}?are\\?is\end{matrix}\right\}$ left homeless.

[d] A further uncertainty arises when a noun is postmodified by a prepositional phrase, the complement of which contains coordinated nouns or noun phrases with segregatory meaning: *in the case(s) of France and Germany*; *at the back(s) of the stores and offices*. Normally the singular will indicate combinatory meaning (*eg*: *at the back of the stores and offices* will suggest that the stores and offices comprise a single building or block of buildings). But where the singular is to

some degree a 'frozen' part of a complex preposition (*cf* 9.11), the plural would not be acceptable: **in cases of fire and theft*; **on the parts of all concerned*. Yet even in idioms of this kind the ability to pluralize is exercised in other constructions (*cf* 10.47):

We must all play $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{a part}\\ \text{our}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{part}\\ \text{parts}\end{array}\right.\end{array}\right\}$ in achieving victory.

Coordinated noun heads

13.67 It is evident from what has been said in 13.64*f* that various ambiguities arise when the constituents of noun phrases are coordinated.

When coordinated heads are preceded by a determiner, the usual interpretation is that the determiner applies to each of the conjoins:

a [knife] and [fork]	(= *a* knife and *a* fork)
the [head] and [shoulders]	(= *the* head and *the* shoulders)
his [wife] and [child]	(= *his* wife and *his* child)

(On the interpretation of quantifiers such as *many* in *many girls and boys*, *cf* 13.76.)

A similar analysis in terms of segregatory coordination (*cf* 13.59) usually applies when the coordinated heads are preceded or followed by modifiers:

old [men] and [women] (= [old men] and [old women])
some [cows,] [pigs,] and [sheep] from our farm (= some cows from our farm, some pigs from our farm, and some sheep from our farm)

But then there is also the possibility of interpreting these phrases as conjoint noun phrases:

[Old men] and [women] were left to organize the community.
At the market were [some cows,] [pigs,] and [sheep from our farm].

If the determiner is not repeated in the noninitial conjoins, however, an ellipsis of the determiner is normally assumed:

the [boys] and [girls] staying at the hostel (= [the boys staying at the hostel] and [the girls staying at the hostel])

Coordinated premodifiers

13.68 If modifiers are coordinated, there may again be ambiguity according to whether the construction is understood to be segregatory. Thus:

He specializes in selling [old] and [valuable] books.

may mean 'books which are old and valuable' (combinatory meaning) or 'old books and valuable books' (segregatory meaning). Only the segregatory meaning is possible when the coordinated modifiers denote mutually exclusive properties:

old and *new* furniture *one-pound* and *two-pound* jars

Exceptions to this are colour adjectives (as in *red, white, and blue flags*), which allow the combinatory sense of 'partly one colour, partly another'. On the other hand, only the combinatory interpretation is available if the head is a singular count noun:

He is a *dishonest* and *lazy* student.

Another sign of combinatory meaning is the possibility of replacing *and* by asyndetic coordination:

He's a disHÓNest, LÁzy STÙdent.
They sell *old, battered* furniture.

This is not normally acceptable with segregatory meaning:

?*They sell *old, new* furniture.

In fact, for a combinatory interpretation of modifiers, asyndetic coordination is generally preferred to syndetic coordination. Again, however, colour adjectives are exceptional: *and* in such expressions as *a red and green uniform* cannot be omitted, even though the meaning is combinatory.

The endorsing item *both* placed at the beginning of a noun phrase identifies coordination of premodifiers as segregatory:

both young *and* old people [= *both* young people *and* old people]

But when the adjectives are placed in a predicative position, the converse applies, and the combinatory interpretation is selected:

*Men who were *both* young *and* old were invited.
Students who are *both* honest *and* clever always succeed.

Note [a] If the adjective phrase is postpositive (7.21), *both* . . . *and* is possible with either type of meaning, but the segregatory meaning is often marked by pitch movement, as indicated below:
Men *both* ↑ old *and* ↓ young were invited.
Students *both* honest *and* clever always succeed.
[b] With a series of adjectives, the final *and* is occasionally omitted even with segregatory meaning:
Old, young, wise, foolish, tall, (*and*) short men were invited without distinction.
[c] Occasionally a noun modifier is coordinated with an adjective modifier, as in *country and western music*.
[d] With *or* and *either* . . . *or*, the segregatory interpretation of premodifiers occurs even with singular heads; *eg*: *It's a Georgian or Regency sofa*.

Coordinated postmodifiers

13.69 Coordinated postmodifiers, like coordinated premodifiers, afford the possibility of either a segregatory or a combinatory interpretation of *and*. The following is likely to have a combinatory interpretation:

The bus for the Houses of Parliament *and* (for) Westminster Abbey leaves from this point.

But if the phrase is in the plural, an ambiguity results:

the buses for the Houses of Parliament *and* (for) Westminster Abbey

This could in theory mean either: 'the buses which go both to the Houses of Parliament and to Westminster Abbey' or 'the bus(es) for the Houses of Parliament and the bus(es) for Westminster Abbey'. The singular head *bus* does not allow the second segregatory interpretation with *and*.

The second preposition in examples such as these may be readily omitted,

so that the coordination becomes one of prepositional complements rather than of prepositional phrases. But then a combinatory meaning is favoured; whereas if the preposition is repeated, a segregatory meaning is more probable. Hence these are likely to have different interpretations:

Elsa Graham's books on [reptiles] and [amphibians]
(probably combinatory)
Elsa Graham's books [on reptiles] and [on amphibians]
(almost certainly segregatory).

Note Here again (*cf* 13.68 Note [d]), the segregatory interpretation is possible with a singular head and with *or* as coordinator:
You have to take *a bus for the Houses of Parliament or for Westminster Abbey.*

Further ambiguities of coordination in the noun phrase

13.70 If a phrase containing modifiers coordinated by *and* has a singular count noun head, only one interpretation, the combinatory one, is possible. But if it has a plural head, there are four possible segregatory interpretations for a noun phrase containing two conjoins:

the meetings on Monday and on Tuesday
[= 'the meeting on Monday and the meeting on Tuesday'
OR 'the meetings on Monday and the meeting on Tuesday'
OR 'the meeting on Monday and the meetings on Tuesday'
OR 'the meetings on Monday and the meetings on Tuesday']

Every time an extra conjoin is added (as in *the meetings on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday*) the number of interpretations is doubled. The ambiguities can be avoided, if desired, by the use of the nonelliptical equivalents.

In addition, this phrase allows a combinatory interpretation: *viz* that the meetings, or some of the meetings, lasted for both days. The combinatory interpretation would, however, be more likely if the second preposition were ellipted: *the meetings on Monday and Tuesday.*

A similar set of readings is possible for:

bills for gas and (for) electricity
the taxes on earned and (on) unearned income

Since *tax* is sometimes a noncount noun, it is also possible to read the segregatory readings into the corresponding singular phrase: *the tax on earned and (on) unearned income.*

Note The following example shows how the segregatory reading of *tax on earned and unearned income* can be associated with the mutual participation (*cf* 13.60 Note [b]) of *between*:
There is no difference *between the tax on earned and* [= *'that on'*] *unearned income.*
Although the occurrence of a singular noun phrase as complement of *between* seems irregular, this sentence is in fact constructed regularly according to the principles outlined in preceding sections.

Coordination of determiners and numerals

13.71 The coordination of determiners is comparatively rare. The following are possible, but are unidiomatic: *this or other books, these and those chairs, a few or many students*, and there is a preference for a synonymous construction with conjoint noun phrases, such as *this book and that (one), a few students or many*, where the second conjoin is a noun phrase reduced by substitution or ellipsis. Comparative forms are more easily coordinated:

Would you prefer MÓRE or LÈSS sugar?
[= '. . . more sugar or less sugar?']

but even here the equivalent noun-phrase coordination, with reduction of the second conjoin by standard ellipsis, may be preferred:

Would you prefer MÓRE sugar or LÈSS $_{\Delta}$?

There are some instances of idioms in which determiners are coordinated; *eg* the redundant and emphatic conjoining of *each* and *every* in:

The secret was kept by *each and every* one of us.

Cardinal numerals are frequently coordinated with *or*, but here again there is an idiomatic function. *Five or six* means, for example, 'approximately in the range of five and six'; *ten or twenty* means 'a number in the region of 10 or 20'; and the most frequently-occurring coordination of this type, *one or two*, has the special idiomatic sense 'a small number'. This approximative use of numerals does not apply when the correlative *either . . . or* is used:

I am inviting *one or two* students to a party.

does not mean the same as:

I am inviting *either one or two* students to a party.

Note [a] Occasionally a postdeterminer such as *few* or *many* may be coordinated with an adjective: *his few but intelligent remarks.* Note also the idiom *few and far between.*
[b] The coordination of a singular with a plural determinative leads to an anomaly of concord: logically, the head of the noun phrase could be either singular or plural. The difficulty is resolved (*cf* 10.41) by making the head agree with the last conjoin: *one or two students* (NOT **one or two student*); *this and other arguments* (NOT **this and other argument*).
[c] Mention should be made of the rarity and *ad hoc* quality of coordinations of the definite and indefinite articles: *She is the (or a) professor in the department*; *He may be a, or even the, Vice-Chairman of the party.* Such coordination takes place only with *or*, and the unreduced pronunciations of the articles (/eɪ/ and /ðiː/) are normally required.

Coordination of genitives

13.72 Like determiners, genitives, when used in determinative function, are not often coordinated, and there is some uneasiness about the appropriate construction to use. A coordination of genitives such as *John's and Mary's children* resembles a coordination of modifiers in that it may be interpreted in either a combinatory or a segregatory fashion:

combinatory meaning:	'the children who are joint offspring of John and Mary'	(A)
segregatory meanings:	'John's child and Mary's child'	(B)
	OR 'John's children and Mary's child'	(C)
	OR 'John's child and Mary's children'	(D)
	OR 'John's children and Mary's children'	(E)

And as in the case of postmodifiers, a further ellipsis is common if the combinatory meaning is intended. The following can be given only reading (A) above:

[John] and [Mary]'s children (*cf* the children of John and Mary)

Here the *'s* is outside the coordinate construction, and is added to the whole conjoint noun phrase *John and Mary*. In this, it resembles the *'s* of group genitives (*cf* 5.123), which is a suffix to a phrase rather than to a single word.

Note The group genitive construction of *John and Mary's children* is characteristic of informal speech. In formal English, this construction is sometimes felt to be incorrect, and the construction of *the children of John and Mary* or (less commonly) *John's and Mary's children* might be preferred instead. The latter construction, however, is forced and awkward, especially if the conjoins are strongly associated with one another: ?*Laurel's and Hardy's hilarious screen comedies.*

Coordination of possessive pronouns

13.73 Another problem of usage arises over the coordination of possessive pronouns. Two alternative constructions are the following:

(a) [POSSESSIVE] + [POSSESSIVE] + . . . HEAD
eg: *your and my problems*; *their and our students*

(b) [POSSESSIVE + . . . HEAD . . .] + [POSSESSIVE]
eg: *your problems and mine*; *their students and ours*

In (a) both possessives have a determinative function, while in (b) the second possessive pronoun has an independent function (*cf* 6.29*f*), so that strictly this is a conjoining of noun phrases rather than of possessives. Construction (b) is often preferred to construction (a), which can seem to be awkward. All these constructions, however, suggest a segregatory interpretation, and if a combinatory meaning is intended, a periphrasis may be preferred; *eg*: *her and my policy/policies* may be replaced by *the policy/policies which she and I share*. Yet another construction is sometimes encountered, but is not fully acceptable:

(c) [POSSESSIVE] + [POSSESSIVE + . . . HEAD . . .]
eg: ?*yours and my problems*; ?*theirs and our students*

This differs from (a) in that the first conjoin is an independent possessive pronoun such as *yours*, or *hers*, and differs from (b) in that the order of the conjoins is reversed. Of course, in many situations the awkwardness of this coordination of pronouns can be avoided by an inclusive use of *our* or *your*: *our problems*, etc.

Note [a] The polite order of conjoined personal pronouns (*cf* 13.56 Note [a]) may be applied to possessive pronouns, as well as to pronouns in the subjective or objective case: *your, his, and my reports*; *your and my books*; etc.
[b] The difference between constructions (b) and (c) above is neutralized in the case of *his*, since there is no contrast in this pronoun between the determinative and independent form of the possessive pronoun: *his and my favourite drink*.

Coordination of genitives with possessive pronouns

13.74 Three constructions corresponding to (a–c) above are also available when mixed coordinations of genitives and possessives are required. Here again, some uneasiness is felt in the choice of construction. For (a) and (b), there are variant orders: the possessive may precede the genitive, or vice versa:

(a) {[GENITIVE] + [POSSESSIVE] . . . + HEAD
{[POSSESSIVE] + [GENITIVE] . . . + HEAD
eg: ?*my husband's and my names*; ?*your and your wife's bank account*

This construction is rarely used, and is felt to be awkward.

(b) {[GENITIVE + . . . HEAD . . .] + [POSSESSIVE]
{[POSSESSIVE + . . . HEAD] . . . + [GENITIVE]
eg: *my husband's name and mine*; *your bank account and your husband's*

This construction is less awkward than (a), but is clearly associated with segregatory coordination. Thus *your bank account and your husband's* could not normally refer to a joint bank account shared by husband and wife. Also, since (b) is technically a coordination of noun phrases rather than of determinatives, this construction does not permit a 'segregatory singular' interpretation of a plural noun as head. For instance, *Jack's and my dogs* could mean 'Jack's dog and my dog'; but *Jack's dogs and mine* would tend to imply that Jack has more than one dog.

A construction corresponding to (c) in 13.73, where the independent possessive pronoun (*cf* 6.29) precedes the genitive, is a further possibility, which however has limited acceptability:

(c) [POSSESSIVE] + [GENITIVE] . . . + HEAD]
?*yours and your husband's bank account*

Note There is yet one further option, which corresponds to the construction of *John and Mary's children* (*cf* 13.72), and which resembles it in being associated with informal style and combinatory meaning: *you and your husband's bank account*. This will often be felt to be unacceptable where the first conjoin is a noun, or a phrase with a noun head, or a pronoun in the subjective case: ?*they and their friends' surprise*; ?*John and her book*. The use of an objective pronoun for the first conjoin is also possible, but is nonstandard: ?*me and my husband's bank account*.

Other elliptical coordinations within the noun phrase

13.75 We have already noted (*cf* 13.67) that when heads of noun phrases are conjoined, the determiner is often ellipted, resulting in a coordination at word level rather than at phrase level, with two nouns sharing a single determiner:

a [boy] or $_{\Delta}$ [girl]
that [butter] and $_{\Delta}$ [milk]
the [house] and $_{\Delta}$ [gardens]
my [father] and $_{\Delta}$ [mother]

The same kind of ellipsis may be observed when the determiner is accompanied by one or more modifiers:

those delicious [pies] and $_{\Delta}$ [pastries]

Yet another kind of ellipsis takes place when one or more modifiers are included in the conjoins. The units thus coordinated are neither words nor

phrases, but the intermediate units we earlier called NOMINAL EXPRESSIONS (*cf* 12.16):

those [mince pies] and [Danish pastries]
those delicious [mince pies] and [Danish pastries]
those delicious [mince pies] and [Danish pastries] that you bought

In such constructions, the limits of the conjoins are variable, and this leads to ambiguity. *My elder brother and sister*, for example, may be interpreted as *my elder* [*brother*] *and* [*sister*] (= 'my elder brother and my elder sister'), or as *my* [*elder brother*] and [*sister*] (= 'my elder brother and my sister'). Of these two interpretations, the former is preferred, for the latter meaning would be singled out by the repetition of *my* before *sister*. The following illustrates a similar but more complex kind of ambiguity of construction:

The Municipal Art Gallery is famous for *its still life paintings and drawings by Van Gogh.*

Four interpretations are possible:

(a) its still life [paintings] and [drawings] by Van Gogh
(b) its [still life paintings] and [drawings] by Van Gogh
(c) its [still life paintings] and [drawings by Van Gogh]
(d) its still life [paintings] and [drawings by Van Gogh]

Other things being equal, an interpretation which preserves a parallelism between the conjoins will be preferred to one which does not. On this ground, (a) and (c) are more likely readings of the above example than (b) and (d); reading (b) is quite possible, however, because of the close association between *still life* and *paintings*.

Scope of quantifiers and numerals in the noun phrase

13.76 In 13.45 we studied the way in which quantifiers within the clause include coordinate constructions in their scope. A similar phenomenon occurs in the noun phrase, when quantifying determiners or numerals include within their scope the coordination of nominal expressions such as those discussed in 13.75 above. In such cases, the noun phrase cannot be expanded in the regular fashion, by repetition of the determinative item:

They have *no* books *or* magazines for sale.
[= *no* books *and no* magazines . . .]
[≠ *no* books *or no* magazines . . .] (*cf* 13.31)
They're going to plant several flowering trees or shrubs.
[≠ *several* flowering trees *or several* flowering shrubs]
There are ten boys and girls in the playgroup.

In the last example, *ten* may or may not include *boys and girls* in its scope. Hence it is possible that this phrase refers to a group of children adding up to a total of ten, rather than to a group of ten boys and ten girls. The former interpretation is not always selected, however, since *ten husbands and wives* or *ten knives and forks* would invite the contrary reading 'ten of the one and ten of the other'. This is because a husband and wife, or a knife and fork, form a unit in a way in which a boy and a girl do not.

Coordination of other constituents

13.77 All the main variations of construction we have noted in connection with clauses and noun phrases are also found in verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. The central coordinators *and* and *or*, and to a lesser extent *but*, are used as linkers. In the cases of *and* and *or*, there may be more than two conjoins in a given construction. Coordination is asyndetic, syndetic, or polysyndetic. When *and* is the coordinator, there is a further choice between combinatory and segregatory readings. Some representative examples of other phrases are given below.

Coordination of verbs and verb phrases

13.78 Verb phrase coordination is illustrated in:

Heinrich Schmidt [*was born,*] [*lived,*] *and* [*died*] in the city of Vienna. [1]
Good cooking [*can disguise,*] *but* [*cannot improve,*] the quality of the ingredients. [2]
Yesterday we [*bought*] *and* [*sold*] ten paintings. [3]

The implication of chronological sequence which is found in clause coordination (*cf* 13.23) is also found, if the main verb has dynamic meaning, in verb phrase coordination. We may contrast, in this respect, the stative verb meanings of *She knows and admires your work* and the dynamic verb meanings of *George repaired and sold the car*.

Coordination of main verbs, with shared auxiliary verb(s), is common:

I have *washed* and *dried* the dishes.
The guests were *sitting* or *lounging* around in the front room.
Quite a large number of people might have been *killed* or *injured* by the explosion.

Coordination of auxiliary verbs is less common and somewhat formal:

The country *can* and *must* recover from its present crisis.
Staffordshire pottery always *was*, *is*, and *will be* prized by collectors.

It is perhaps less rare when the auxiliaries are conjoined by *or*:

He *may*, or (certainly) *should*, resign.

But coordination then has the character of an interpolation (*cf* 13.95*ff*).

Note When two dynamic verbs of opposite meaning are conjoined, especially when combined with the progressive, the meaning of the construction is often iterative (*cf* 13.101): *He lay there opening and shutting his eyes* [*ie* repeatedly]; *Visitors came and went throughout the summer.*

Coordination of adjectives and adjective phrases

13.79 Adjective phrases are coordinated in:

The journey was *long* and *extremely arduous.*
Our team is *very fit*, *very keen*, and *ready to face the strongest competition in the world.*

In the following, there is a coordination of adjective heads:

I'm feeling *younger* and *healthier* than I have felt for years.

But in the following, there is an ambiguity, according to whether the premodifier belongs to the first conjoin or to both conjoins:

The souvenirs they bought were *very cheap and gaudy*.

It is unclear whether the analysis should be:

[*very cheap*] *and* [*gaudy*] OR *very* [*cheap*] *and* [*gaudy*]

But the second reading, in which the premodifier applies to the whole sequence, is preferred. A change in the order of the words will eliminate the ambiguity:

The souvenirs they bought were [*gaudy*] *and* [*very cheap*].

Adjectives can be coordinated either in predicative position, as above, or in attributive position:

His *clear and forceful* delivery impressed his audience. [1]

In attributive position (*cf* 13.68), the coordinator *and* is often omitted:

His *clear, forceful* delivery impressed his audience. [2]

The asyndetic construction in [2] is combinatory, and is associated with nonrestrictive modification (*cf* 17.95). It also suggests, more than the syndetic one, that the two epithets are meant to contribute to the same general effect: *ie* '. . . clear and, I may go so far as to say, forceful'. The syndetic construction of [1], on the other hand, has the additional possibility of a segregatory interpretation if the head noun is plural or noncount:

old and dilapidated buildings wet and windy weather

These phrases, in contrast to those of [1] and [2], are ambiguous.

Coordination of adverbs and adverb phrases

13.80 Coordinated adverbs and adverb phrases are normally of the same semantic class (*eg* of time, of place, of manner):

She made the announcement *quietly but quite confidently*.
The Governor never arrives *earlier or later* than the time of an appointment.
The piston moved *up and down* with increasing speed.
I have only spoken to her *once or twice*.

In this last example, *once or twice* is likely to have the vague meaning 'a few times', comparable to the use of *one or two* as discussed in 13.71. The rarer case of coordination, in which the adverbs or adverb phrases are of different semantic classes, is illustrated by:

He complained *strenuously and often*.
They met *somewhere and sometime*, but I have forgotten *how or why*.

Coordination of prepositions and prepositional phrases

13.81 The following illustrate coordination of prepositional phrases:

He spoke *for the first motion* but *against the second motion*.
John complained both *to Mary* and *to Peter*.
They are going *to France, to Germany*, or *to Switzerland*.
The talks held *in 1951, in 1952*, and *in 1955* met with only limited success.

If the two or more prepositions are identical, all but the first preposition can be ellipted; *eg*: *to Mary and Peter*; *in 1951 and 1952* (but a combinatory meaning is then allowed; *cf* 13.70). Further possibilities are the ellipsis of part of the prepositional complement in the first or subsequent conjoin (the former, cataphoric option being more formal):

He spoke *for the first* $_\Delta$ but *against the second motion*.
He spoke *for the first motion* but *against the second* $_\Delta$.

or the ellipsis of the prepositional complement altogether, in which case the construction is simply one of coordinated prepositions:

He climbed *up* and *over* the wall.
[= He climbed *up the wall* and *over the wall*]
Did you speak *for* or *against* the motion?
Do you like your coffee *with* or *without* milk?

Note Also possible is a construction synonymous with the above in which ellipsis occurs in the second conjoin:

Did you speak *for the motion* or *against* $_\Delta$?
Do you like your coffee *with milk* or *without* $_\Delta$?

These appear to resemble cases where a prepositional adverb replaces a prepositional phrase (*cf* 9.65–6); but in fact they belong to a different category, because they occur with words (*without* and *against*) which cannot normally be used as prepositional adverbs. We must therefore describe these as unusual cases of ellipsis in which a preposition appears without its prepositional complement. This analysis may be further extended to cases like *Asparagus is expensive out of season and in*, where, although *in* may be a prepositional adverb, in this instance it is obviously a preposition parallel to *out of*. The effect of placing *in* at the end, with ellipsis, in this way is to give it the emphasis associated with end focus (*cf* 18.9*ff*).

Mixed coordination of adverbials

13.82 The general principle governing the coordination of phrases and words is that the conjoins must belong to the same category, formally, functionally, and semantically. Sometimes, however, the normal formal parallelism is not maintained, so that there is coordination of different adverbial categories. In the following, adverb phrases are coordinated with prepositional phrases, and noun phrases with adverbial clauses. In each case, however, a close semantic parallel between the conjoins is maintained:

The enemy attacked *quickly* and *with great force*.
You can wash them *manually* or *by using a machine*.
They can call *this week* or *whenever you wish*.
I prefer the sentences *below* and *on the next page*.

Coordination of subordinators

13.83 If two subordinate clauses are identical except for their conjunctions, one of the clauses can be omitted, normally the first, so that coordination takes place between the conjunctions:

I am prepared to meet them *when* and *where* they like.
[= . . . *when* they like and *where* they like]
They will be arriving either *before* or *after* the show begins.

Note [a] On the formulaic coordination *if and only if*, *cf* 15.35 Note [i].
[b] *If and when* is a stereotyped expression weakening the expectation (conveyed by *when* alone) that the condition in the clause will be realized:
If and when he buys a car, I'll try to persuade him to buy the insurance from me.
With *if and when* ellipsis may be disregarded, since *if and when* has become a unit. Other institutionalized conjoinings of conjunctions are: *as and when*; *unless and until*.

Coordination of interrogative words and relative pronouns

13.84 Coordination can also take place between other clause-introducing words, such as interrogative words, whether they introduce an independent or a dependent clause (*cf* 11.14*f*):

I am determined to find out *who* or *what* caused this uproar.
How and *why* did you break into my room?

A coordination of *wh*-words is not possible if the *wh*-words function as different elements of structure. For example, it is impossible to coordinate a subject *who* with an adverbial *why*:

**Who* and *why* broke into my room?

But such a sentence becomes grammatical if the second *wh*-word is appended to the clause:

Who broke into my room, and *why*?

This is because the appended *why?* counts as an elliptical clause (*cf* 12.63) (= 'why did they break into my room?'), and so the structural equivalence between the first conjoin and the second is restored.

The same principle of structural and functional equivalence prevents coordination of relative pronouns, but the coordination of prepositional phrases containing a relative pronoun is quite common at the beginning of relative clauses:

I want to know *by whom* and *for whom* it was ordered.

Additional constraints on coordination

Restrictions on coordination of word-parts

13.85 The minimal unit which can normally be coordinated is the word. There are, however, occasional exceptions to this limitation. Some derivational prefixes which tend to be contrasted and which tend to be loosely attached to their base can be conjoined; *eg: ante-* (or *pre-*) *and post-natal*; *pro- and anti-establishment*; *sub- and super-human*. Tightly-attached prefixes do not permit such coordination: **im- and ex-ports*.

Similarly, constituents of a compound can sometimes be coordinated, with ellipsis of the other constituent; *eg*: *factory- and office-workers*, *sons- and daughters-in-law*, *hand-made and -packed*, *out- and in-patients*, *psycho- and sociolinguistics*. Once again, these constituents are loosely attached, and we do not find linking in more cohesive compounds such as *toothache* and *headache*: **tooth- and headaches*.

Order of conjoins in word and phrase coordination

13.86 Apart from semantic factors such as chronological sequence (*cf* 13.23) the order of conjoins in word and phrase coordination is relatively free. The order of conjoined words can, however, be influenced by a tendency for the longer word to come second (perhaps a variant of the end-weight principle; *cf* 18.9). This is particularly noticeable in so-called BINOMIALS, *ie* relatively fixed conjoint phrases having two members; *eg*: *big and ugly*, *cup and saucer*. One principle at work here appears to be a principle of rhythmic regularity: *eg* the dactylic rhythm of *'ladies and 'gentleman*, and the trochaic rhythm of *'men and 'women*, are preferable to the less balanced rhythm of **'gentlemen and 'ladies* and **'women and 'men*. It has also been argued that semantic factors play a role; *eg* that other things being equal, the first position is given to the semantically salient or culturally dominant member, as in *father and son*, *gold and silver*, *great and small*, *this and that*. Phonological constraints have also been suggested: that low vowels come after high ones; that back vowels come after front ones, etc. Whatever the constraints may be, they lead to stereotyped coordinations where the conjoins are virtually in an irreversible order; *eg*: *odds and ends*, *bread and butter*, *law and order*, *by hook or by crook*, *through thick and thin*; *knife, fork, and spoon*.

Note [a] Arguably 'cultural dominance' can be extended to include the traditional sexual bias (*cf* 6.10) shown in the tendency to place male terms before female ones in cases like *men and women*, *boys and girls*, (*if*) *he or she* (*wishes*). This tendency is reversed in *mother and father* (where cultural dominance works in the opposite direction) and in *ladies and gentlemen* (influenced by the courtesy convention of 'ladies first').
[b] On the ordering of *you and I*, etc, *cf* 13.56 Note [a].

'ill-assorted' coordination: (a) semantic

13.87 The requirement that the conjoins match one another in form, function, and meaning is observed with varying degrees of strictness. The following are apparently examples of a semantic violation of the constraint, but nevertheless such constructions can be used for humorous or rhetorical effect:

She made up *her mind* and then *her face*.
I drove home in *a hurry* and *a borrowed car*.

Such examples can be expanded, by supplying ellipted elements, into grammatical sentences; *eg*:

She made up her mind and then she made up her face.

But it is clear from this that the ellipsis is based on an incongruous association of two homonymous idioms, *make up* (*one's mind*) and *make up* (*one's face*). It is to such examples of semantically ill-assorted coordination that the traditional term ZEUGMA is applied.

'ill-assorted' coordination: (b) grammatical

13.88 A different kind of 'ill-assorted' coordination is illustrated by the following:

We have washed, dried, and put the dishes away. [1]
By giving the police a pay rise, the Minister hopes to strengthen and make the force more efficient. [2]

There is no difficulty in understanding such sentences; this time the anomaly is a matter of structure. They contain a false parallel, in that *away* in [1] and *more efficient* [2] are structurally outside the coordinate construction, and yet semantically apply only to the last conjoin. Sentence [1] ought to be a reduced form of:

*We have washed the dishes away, we have dried the dishes away, and we have put the dishes away.

but clearly this does not make sense. Such sentences are likely to occur in the impromptu use of language, but will be 'corrected' in the more considered and especially in the written use of language; [1], for example, can be changed to:

We have [washed,] [dried,] and [put away] the dishes. [1a]

(On the ordering of the verb *put* and the adverb *away* here, *cf* 16.4*ff*.) The term 'corrected' above has been advisedly enclosed in quotation marks, since it is not clear how far such examples are to be regarded as sentences which are ungrammatical in a descriptive sense, or as acceptable sentences stigmatized merely because of prescriptive tradition. Other instances of a similar kind are:

The spy [was in his forties,] [of average build,] *and* [spoke with a slightly foreign accent]. [3]
Had the queen [lived five years longer] *or* [had given birth to an heir], the subsequent history of the nation would have been very different. [4]
Either [the children did not know what had happened], *or* [were trying to protect their parents]. [5]
?Our ancient city [has], *and* [always will], be proud of its achievements. [6]
I am fond *both* [of dogs] *and* [cats]. [7]

The anomalous structure of such sentences can be discovered by expanding each coordination construction to a postulated unreduced version, *ie* by repeating before or after each conjoin the parts of the sentence which lie outside the coordinate construction. The result will be an unacceptable sentence in each case. By way of illustration, the unreduced versions of [3] and [7] are:

*The spy was in his forties, the spy of average build, and the spy spoke with a slightly foreign accent. [3a]
*I am fond of dogs and I am fond cats. [7a]

The expansion in example [7a] is based on the principle that correlatives such as *both* . . . *and* mark the beginning of each conjoin. In fact, *both* cannot introduce clause coordination (*cf* 13.35), and would therefore be omitted from an unreduced sentence such as [7a].

Note Grammatically ill-assorted coordination can also occur at the morphological level:
The reader is invited to try the experiment for *his or herself* before reading on.
The problem with this example is revealed if we expand the first conjoin to *hisself* (which is not grammatical in standard English) by assuming, as the construction seems to require, an ellipsis of *-self*. Compare a related difficulty of coordinated possessive pronouns in 13.73.

'ill-assorted coordination': (c) lexical

13.89 A third type of 'ill-assorted' coordination is illustrated by the following:

He was *ashamed* and *alarmed at* the vengeful attitude of the War Cabinet.

Here the speaker confuses the prepositions of the two combinations *ashamed of* and *alarmed at*. The cause of the false parallel in this case is lexical, in the specific combinations of adjective and preposition (*cf* 16.69), rather than grammatical. Such confusions, which are not unusual, can be remedied by an insertion of the appropriate first preposition: *He was ashamed of and alarmed at* . . .

Less common types of coordination

Complex coordination

13.90 Up to this point we have been concerned with simple coordination: that is, the coordination of single grammatical constituents such as clauses, predications, phrases, and words. We turn now to three less regular and less common types of coordination, *viz* complex coordination, appended coordination, and interpolated coordination: these types of coordination may be seen as related, by ellipsis, to the coordination of clauses.

We apply the term COMPLEX COORDINATION to coordinate constructions of which the conjoins are combinations of units, rather than single units. In the clause, for example, it is possible not merely to coordinate objects or to coordinate complements; but also to coordinate one combination of object and complement with another combination of object and complement.

13.91 Our first examples illustrate coordination of contiguous combinations of elements in final position in the clause. (We reserve noncontiguous cases until 13.92.)

(i) INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT
We gave [William a book on stamps], and [Mary a book on painting].

(ii) OBJECT + OBJECT COMPLEMENT
Jack painted [the kitchen white] and [the living room blue].

(iii) OBJECT + ADVERBIAL
You should serve [the coffee in a mug] and [the lemonade in a glass].

(iv) ADVERBIAL + ADVERBIAL
Paula is flying [to Madrid tonight] and [to Athens next week].

Such coordination usually establishes a strong parallelism between the conjoins, and for this reason it tends to be associated with a premeditated, written style of English, rather than with informal conversation.

But there is another type of complex coordination where there is no strong parallelism. In this type, the conjoins are unequal because one conjoin contains one or more adverbials where the other does not:

I found the music [unexciting] and – [frankly – discordant].
He wears [smart clothes], and [sometimes a yachting cap at weekends].

Such examples are more likely to occur in informal speech.

Gapping

13.92 The phenomenon known as GAPPING occurs when a second or subsequent conjoin of a complex coordination contains a medial ellipsis. This happens whenever the elements being coordinated are noncontiguous elements in the clause. For example:

(i) SUBJECT + OBJECT
[One girl has written a poem], and [the other $_\Delta$ a short story].

(ii) SUBJECT + ADVERBIAL(S)
[Smith completed the course in thirty-five minutes], and [Johnson $_\Delta$ in thirty-seven].

(iii) SUBJECT + COMPLEMENT
[Jane has looked more healthy], and [Maurice $_\Delta$ more relaxed], since their holiday.

There is normally prosodic separation of the conjoins, and in addition, the 'gap' or medial ellipsis is often marked by the end of a tone unit:

Maggie ordered a banana SPLÍT| *and* MŸra| an ice-cream SÙNdae.|

Coordination with gapping is apparently more difficult to decode and comprehend than coordination without gapping. An indication of this is that nongapped interpretations are preferred to gapped interpretations in cases where a sentence permits both kinds of interpretation. In a sentence such as [1], for example, the interpretation indicated by [1a] will be chosen in preference to that of [1b]:

Barbara gave Sue a magnolia and Ada a camellia. [1]
[= Barbara gave Sue a magnolia and Barbara gave Ada a camellia] [1a]
[≠ Barbara gave Sue a magnolia and Ada gave Sue a camellia] [1b]

Note [a] An additional, rather rare, kind of gapping is that in which the conjoins consist of a subject followed by a predication (the finite verb being ellipted):
John can clean the shed *and* Sidney $_\Delta$ feed the chickens.
The fortress had been attacked *and* its commander $_\Delta$ killed.

[b] The first element of a gapped coordination is normally the subject of the clause; but exceptions to this occur with fronting (*cf* 18.20), if the first element is an object or an adverbial, and the subject is ellipted:
The towns they attacked with tanks, *and* the villages $_\Delta$ with aeroplanes.
To God he committed his soul, *and* to the fire $_\Delta$ his body.
[c] Coordinations of nonfinal sequences of clause elements, *eg* subject + verb, will be viewed not as complex coordination, but as interpolated coordination (*cf* 13.95).

13.93 For a construction to count as an acceptable gapping, it is necessary that each conjoin consist of a sequence of units at the same level of structure: *viz* at the level of clause structure. It is not possible, for instance, for each conjoin to consist of a verb phrase together with the first word (a preposition) of a prepositional phrase. Thus:

Roberts won in 1979 and Dingwall in 1980.

is grammatical, but not:

*Roberts won in 1979 and Dingwall 1980.

Note This applies even to clauses where the verb and the preposition form a 'prepositional verb' (*cf* 16.5*ff*), and where the prepositional complement resembles a direct object. Although the preposition in such cases appears to be more closely related to the verb than to its complement, the ellipsis of the preposition is not permissible:
*I looked at Agnes, and she me.
Contrast:
I saw Agnes, and she me.

Appended coordination

13.94 There is a loose kind of coordination in which the second conjoin is appended to the clause in which the first conjoin occurs (*cf* appended clauses, 12.70). In fact, it is preferable to regard all such cases as clause coordination with ellipsis:

John writes extremely well – and SÀLly, TOÒ. [1]
My mother plays badminton, and sometimes even tennis. [2]
He got a bike for his birthday, and a book and a fountain pen. [3]
His left hook could fell the champion, and indeed any other boxer in his class. [4]

Unlike complex coordination, this type of coordination is characteristic of informal speech. We could argue that [1a] is a case of noun phrase coordination, and is a variant of [1] without a discontinuous subject:

John and Sally write extremely well. [1a]

But this does not account for the singular verb in [1], and it is more realistic to classify such a construction as a coordination of clauses in which the second conjoin, which is elliptical, is added as an afterthought. This latter description also accords better with examples like [2] in which the appended subject is accompanied by an adverbial. In [2] it is the object of an elliptical clause which is appended, rather than a subject.

With *and*, appended coordination has the air of a makeshift improvisation, sometimes accompanied by rhetorical emphasis (as in [4]). But with *or* and

but, it is more likely to occur in careful and/or written types of language:

I am not sure whether JÂNE wrote the letter, or SÀLly. [5]
PĚTer plays football, but not JÒHN. [6]

In [5] the alternative interrogative clause (*cf* 15.6) allows the possibility of a postponed conjoin. The same applies to direct alternative questions, and alternative conditional–concessive clauses (*cf* 11.20*f*, 15.41). In [6] the repudiatory use of *but* (*cf* 13.32, 13.42 Note [d]) allows a postponed negative conjoin. These are special constructions in which appended coordination occurs freely.

Interpolated coordination

13.95 Another less regular type of coordination may be called INTERPOLATED, because one of the conjoins behaves as if it is inserted, as a parenthesis, in the middle of the clause. Once again, the coordination can be regarded as an elliptical reduction of clause coordination, and in some cases there is a direct parallel between interpolated coordination and clause coordination with general ellipsis in the second conjoin:

He is, {or WÁS at any rate, / or at least he WÁS,} a major composer. [1]

He is a major composer, or at least he WÀS $_{\Delta}$. [1a]

Similarly, appended coordination such as that of [1] of 13.94 can be reordered so as to produce an example of interpolated coordination:

John – and Sally, too – writes extremely well. [2]

If we attempt to analyse [2] as having a coordinated subject, we have to deal with the curiosity of a plural subject with a singular verb; but if we treat it as a case of interpolated coordination, we accept that the subject–verb concord will be unaffected by interpolated elements.

Note The coordination of the definite and indefinite articles (*cf* 13.71 Note [c]) may be treated as a case of interpolated coordination.

13.96 Two main distinguishing marks of interpolated coordination are these:

(a) The second conjoin is normally separated by prosody (in speech) or punctuation (in writing) from the rest of the clause, and thereby shows itself to be syntactically dislocated.
(b) There is no requirement that the interpolation acting as second or subsequent conjoin should constitute a grammatical unit, or even a sequence of grammatical units of the same rank. For example, the second conjoin in [1a] in 13.95 is *at least he was* [A S V], whereas in [3] below the second conjoin consists of an adverbial *at least*, a main verb *believes*, and the first part of a subordinate clause *that he is*:
He is, *or at least believes that he is*, a major composer. [3]
He may be, *and (certainly) believes that he is*, a major composer. [3a]

This sequence of words has no autonomy as a grammatical unit, and does not

match the grammatical form of the first conjoin, *is*. But with interpolated coordination this does not matter: the only important requirement is that the second conjoin (or interpolation) be capable of replacing the first conjoin, so that the result of the substitution is a grammatical sentence. This condition, which is less exacting than that which applies to simple coordination (*cf* 13.43, 13.49, 13.88) is fulfilled in 13.95 [1a] and 13.96 [3]:

{*He is* a major composer. / *At least he was* a major composer.} (*cf* [1a])

{He *is* a major composer. / He *at least believes that he is* a major composer.} (*cf* [3])

Like complex coordination, interpolated coordination is a device of restricted use, normally associated with the premeditated, primarily written, use of English. Further examples are:

The folk music of his native Romania [inspired], and [provided the thematic material for], his greatest work.
She [can], and [probably will,] beat the world record.
Sam [often thought about,] but [never revisited,] the haunts of his childhood.
In these days, few people [learn,] or [indeed see any point in learning,] the languages of Homer and Virgil.

Stylistically, such interpolated coordination is often awkward, and is best avoided if a more straightforward construction can produce the same meaning and effect. Thus instead of the first sentence above one could write:

The folk music of his native Romania inspired his greatest work, and provided the thematic material for it.

Note Interpolated coordination may be distinguished from PARENTHETICAL COORDINATION, where an unreduced coordinate clause is inserted parenthetically within another clause:
They asked Bill Judd – and he's one of the best managers in the country – if he would take over the team next season.
Compare also PARENTHETICAL PARATAXIS, where the parenthetically included clause is completely independent of the other clause:
Enterprising businessmen sell earthworms (they are one of the best soil conditioners) in hundreds of retail stores across the United States and Canada.

13.97 Some types of coordination which, on purely formal grounds, belong with complex coordination seem to belong with interpolated coordination in terms of prosody and style. These are coordinations where the conjoins consist of a sequence of nonfinal clause elements:

(i) SUBJECT + VERB
[Richard admires], but [Margaret despises], the ballyhoo of modern advertising.

(ii) ADVERBIAL + VERB
Gregory Peck [always was], and [always will be], her favourite Hollywood star.

(iii) VERB + OBJECT (when the object is not at the end of the clause)
Mrs Symes [gave a thousand dollars], and [promised several thousand more], to the fund for disabled athletes.

To see that these have the character of interpolated coordination, we note firstly the strength of the intonation boundaries enclosing the second conjoin:

Gregory Peck always WÁS| and always WĬLL be| her favourite Hollywood STÀR|

and secondly, the ease with which these examples could be changed by inserting or subtracting words from either conjoin. For example, if we add or subtract adverbials from one or the other conjoin in the above example, this is only a superficial variation within the basically versatile pattern of interpolated coordination:

Gregory Peck {was, / always was,} and (no doubt) always will be, her favourite Hollywood star.

Idiomatic and expressive uses of coordination

Pseudo-coordination: *try and come*, etc

13.98 When they precede *and*, members of a small class of verbs or predications have an idiomatic function which is similar to the function of catenative constructions (*cf* 3.49) and which will be termed PSEUDO-COORDINATION. The clearest example is *try*:

I'll try *and* come tomorrow.

This is roughly equivalent to *I'll try to come tomorrow*, but is more informal in style. Further:

They sat *and* talked about the good old times.

is similar in meaning to *They sat talking about the good old times*. Pseudo-coordination belongs to informal style, and many examples have a derogatory connotation:

Don't just stand there *and* grin. [= stand there grinning]
He went *and* complained about us.
They've gone *and* upset her again.
Run *and* tell him to come here at once.
Why did you go *and* do a silly thing like that?

Like *try* in being followed by a *to*-infinitive in the corresponding regular form are *stop*, *go*, *come*, *hurry up*, and *run*. Like *sit* are *stand* and (positional) *lie*.

This quasi-auxiliary use of *try* appears to be limited to the base form of the verb. Contrast the acceptability of:

Try *and* see him tomorrow.
He may try *and* see us tomorrow.
They try *and* see us every day.

with the unacceptability of:

*He tried *and* saw us yesterday.
*She has tried *and* spoken to him.
*He tries *and* sees us every day.

Instead of coordination, in such cases, we have to use the *to*-infinitive; *eg*:

He tried to see us every day.

Note [a] Of the two *-ed* participle forms of *go* (*cf* 3.19 Note [b]) both *gone* and *been* occur in pseudo-coordination in BrE, but only *gone* occurs in pseudo-coordination in AmE:
They've *gone* and spilled wine on the floor. ⟨BrE and AmE⟩
They've *been* and spilled wine on the floor. ⟨BrE⟩
The normal meaning of *go* is lost in these sentences. There is no aspectual difference between them, of the kind normally associated with *gone* and *been* (*cf* 4.22 Note [b]), and both usages are informal and derogatory. BrE has a humorous usage in which both *been* and *gone* are conjoined with a third verb: *Look what you've been and gone and done.*
[b] In familiar speech we also find the idiom:
He {*up* / *upped*} and hit me. She {*up* / *upped*} and left him.

Pseudo-coordination: *nice and warm*, etc

13.99 Again in informal speech, there is a special use of some commendatory adjectives as first conjoin of a coordination by *and*. The most common adjective of this type is *nice*:

This room is *nice and warm*. [= 'warm to just the right degree']

The semantic role of the first adjective is more like that of an intensifier than that of an adjective, hence this, too, may be regarded as *pseudo-coordination*. Other examples include:

His speech was *nice and short*.
It was *lovely and cool* in there. [= 'comfortably cool']

Some speakers (esp in AmE) use *good* in the same way:

The road is *good and long*.

even where the adjectival form following *and* is used as an adverb:

I hit him *good and hard*. She drove *good and fast*.

Note [a] In attributive rather than predicative function, adjectives of the kind just illustrated commonly occur without *and* (*cf* 17.114):
It's a *lovely warm* day. He made a *nice short* speech. It was a *good long* way to the corner.
[b] A comparable construction is the stereotyped use of the conjoined adverbs *well and truly* as in:
Some of the guests were *well and truly* drunk.

The intensifying use of coordination

13.100 There are a number of circumstances in which a word or phrase is coordinated with itself. With comparative forms of adjectives, adverbs, and determiners, the effect is to express a continuing increase in degree. The comparative forms *more* and *less*, or else the inflected forms in *-er*, are often coordinated in this way:

She felt *more and more* angry.
She felt *angrier and angrier.* } [= She felt increasingly angry.]

The car went *more and more* slowly.
The car went *slower and slower.* } [= The car went increasingly slowly.]

Coordination of this kind with more than two conjoins also occasionally occurs:

The noise got *louder and louder and louder*, until it sounded as if a whirlwind had entered the house.

Asyndetic coordination is rare, but not impossible here: *The noise got louder, louder, louder . . .*

The iterative or continuative use of coordination

13.101 Another kind of expressive repetition with *and* conveys the idea of a repeated or continuing process. This iterative use of coordination may be found with verbs:

He *talked and talked and talked.* [= He talked for a very long time.]
They *knocked and knocked.* [= They knocked repeatedly.]

both with and without the conjunction:

They kept *talking, talking, talking* all night long.

It also occurs with adverbs, especially with *again* and the prepositional adverbs *over, on, around, up, down*, etc:

I've said it *again and again* [= repeatedly], but she still takes no notice.
He kept repeating the name *over and over.*
She talked *on and on and on.* [= continuously]
The balloon went *up and up* into the sky. [= continuously upwards]

Again, asyndetic coordination can be used for special dramatic emphasis:

The balloon went *up, up, up*, until it was a tiny speck in the sky.

A similar effect of iteration or alternating movement is sometimes achieved by coordinating contrasting prepositions or prepositional adverbs: *on and off, off and on, in and out, up and down, backwards and forwards*, etc:

Jill and Eric have been seeing one another *off and on* for the last five years. [= intermittently]
We watched the mother bird going *in and out* of the nest [= repeatedly in and out] trying to satisfy the appetite of the hungry fledglings.

The combination of this type of coordination with the repetitive coordination above produces a more vivid and emphatic effect:

The soldiers marched *up and down, up and down* to the music of the band.

The repetitive types of coordination mentioned in this and the preceding sections, and especially the last type, are particularly characteristic of popular narrative style.

Other expressive uses of coordination

13.102 The coordination of identical items also occurs with nouns. The effect, if the noun is repeated once, may be to suggest that different types, especially good and bad, can be distinguished:

There are *teachers and teachers.* [roughly: 'good and bad teachers']
You can find *doctors and doctors.* [roughly: 'good and bad doctors']

But if the noun is repeated more than once, the effect is to suggest a large number or quantity:

We saw *dogs and dogs and dogs* all over the place.
There was nothing but *rain, rain, rain* from one week to the next.

Somewhat similar to these last examples is the intensifying effect of repetition of attributive adjectives and of degree intensifiers:

an *old, old* man [= 'a very old man']
very, very, very good [= 'extremely good']

But this type of coordination is always asyndetic.

In informal speech, the coordination of a noun phrase with . . . *or so* is used to express approximation. The noun phrase is normally a phrase of measurement. Compare the following with the coordination of numerals (*cf* 13.71):

I liked { the year or {two / so} I spent there.
*the man or {two / so} I saw there. }

The limitations become clear with additional examples; thus although we can speak of:

a dollar or so to spend
a pound or so of butter
a glass {of beer or so / or so of beer}

we cannot speak of **a chair or so*, **a child or so*, and still less of **the chair or so*, though '*another* chair or so' is acceptable. Hence the head nouns preceding the *or so* approximation must be units of measurement (*year, pound*) or items contextually rendered units of measurement (*another N*). It may be worth mentioning that 'a glass of beer or so' has the structure:

a [glass [of beer]] or so.

Note [a] The stereotyped coordination in *out and out* has an intensifying effect in premodification of nouns:

He's an *out and out* liar. [= an utter, thoroughgoing liar]

Out-and-out is often hyphenated.

[b] In informal speech, expressions like *yes, no, well, OK, all right* are often repeated for emphasis (*cf* 18.58 on repetition).

Quasi-coordinators

13.103 In addition to the semi-coordinators *nor, so,* and *yet* mentioned in 13.19, there are several linking items which we may call QUASI-COORDINATORS, because they behave sometimes like coordinators, and at other times like subordinators or prepositions. The most prominent of them are clearly related to comparative forms (*cf* 15.63*ff*):

as well as, as much as, rather than, more than

Others are *if not, not to say,* and the correlative *not so much . . . as.*

In the following examples, the quasi-coordinators do not introduce clauses or noun phrases, and resemble coordinators in that they link 'conjoins' of varying grammatical constituency:

He [publishes] *as well as* [prints] his own books.
The speech was addressed [to the employers] *as much as* [to the strikers].
It was [how well] *more than* [how loud] she sang that impressed me.
He is [to be pitied] *rather than* [to be disliked].

Her manner was [unwelcoming] { *if not* / *not to say* } [downright rude].

His latest play is *not so much* [a farce] *as* [a burlesque tragedy].

In other sentences, however, they clearly have a prepositional or subordinating role, and have the mobility of adverbials, in that they can be placed in initial or final position (*cf* 15.52):

{ *As well as printing the books,* he publishes them.
{ He publishes the books, *as well as printing them.*

{ *Rather than cause trouble,* I'm going to forget the whole affair.
{ I'm going to forget the whole affair, *rather than cause trouble.*

Another reason for not treating these items as fully coordinative is that in subject position, they normally do not bring about plural concord if the first noun phrase is singular:

John, *as much as his brothers,* was responsible for the loss.

In this they resemble prepositions such as *with, in addition to,* and *after* more than coordinators like *and*; compare:

John, *with his brothers,* was responsible for the loss.
One senator *after another* has protested against the ban.

Compare, however, interpolated coordination (*cf* 13.95), where there can be a similar lack of plural concord, even with *and*. These observations remind us that coordination is related by gradience to subordination (*cf* 13.18*f*), and suggest that just as semi-coordinators such as *for* and *so that* are placed on the scale between coordinators and subordinators, so quasi-coordinators such as *as well as* may be regarded as taking their place on a scale between coordinators and prepositions.

Note [a] Nonrestrictive relative clauses have also been considered semantically equivalent to coordinated clauses. Such a classification seems particularly appropriate in the case of sentential relative clauses (*cf* 15.57), where the relative clause has the rest of the superordinate clause as its antecedent:

Pam didn't go to the show, *which is a pity.* ['. . . and that is a pity']

[b] Less common examples of quasi-coordinators are *still less* and its informal synonym *let alone*:

I've not even read the first chapter, { *still less* / *let alone* } finished the book.

To these may be added the infinitive construction *not to mention,* which is, however, more restricted in that it requires a following noun phrase:

He wrote twenty novels, *not to mention* six thick volumes of verse.

[c] The parallels between interpolated coordination ([1] *cf* 13.95*f*), quasi-coordination ([3]), prepositional phrases ([2]), and adverbial clauses ([4] *cf* 15.17*ff*) is illustrated in the following:

The next meeting, { *and* / *like* } *the one after it,* will be very important. [1]
The next meeting, *as well as the one last month,* will be very important. [3]
The next meeting will be very important, *as was the one last month.* [4]

Whereas [5] is unacceptable because of the requirement that conjoins should be mutually substitutable, [6] is acceptable because of the status of *like* as a preposition:

*The next meeting, *and the one last month,* will be very important. [5]
The next meeting, *like the one last month,* will be very important. [6]

Abbreviations for coordination

13.104 The tags *and so on, and so forth,* and *et cetera* (Latin = 'and others', abbreviated in writing as *etc*) are abbreviatory devices which are added to a coordinated list, to indicate that the list has not been exhaustively given:

He packed his clothes, his books, his papers, *etc.*

And so on and *and so forth* (and their combination *and so on and so forth*) are

used in the same way, but are restricted to informal use, and tend to occur after coordinated clauses rather than coordinated phrases. A less common phrase of the same kind is *and the like*.

Note [a] Another abbreviatory device used in a similar way to *etc* is the Latin *et al* (in full *et alii/aliae/alia* = 'and others'), which indicates incompletion of a list of names. It is most common in legal documents and in scholarly writing or lecturing, in the latter case to avoid repeating a list of coauthors:

J C Brown *et al.*

[b] Mention should also be made of the learned abbreviation *et seq* (Latin *et sequens*) meaning 'and the following (page)'. This sometimes has a plural form with letter reduplication *et seqq*, paralleling the use of reduplication of (final) letters to indicate plurality in other abbreviations such as *ff*, *MSS*, *pp* (*cf* 5.81 Note).

[c] The abbreviation *iff* in logical and mathematical discourse means '*if* and only if'.

Bibliographical note

General studies of coordination include: Dik (1968); Dougherty (1970–71); Gleitman (1965); Schachter (1977); Stockwell et al (1973), Ch. 6.

On coordination in relation to subordination and other kinds of connectivity, see Greenbaum (1969b, 1980); Halliday and Hasan (1976); Huddleston (1965); Talmy (1978).

On the coordinator *but*, see Greenbaum (1969a); R. Lakoff (1971).

On coordination in relation to ellipsis/reduction, see Greenbaum and Meyer (1982); Harries-Delisle (1978); Meyer (1979); Sanders (1977).

On gapping, see Hudson (1976b); Jackendoff (1971); Koutsoudas (1971); Kuno (1976a).

On ordering of coordinated elements, see Bolinger (1965); Malkiel (1959).

Among other studies of coordination are Ardery (1979); Hudson (1970); Lakoff and Peters (1969); Sørensen (1979a).

14 The complex sentence

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Coordination and subordination

14.1 In Chapters 10 and 11 we studied the simple sentence, a sentence consisting of a single clause in which each of its elements (subject, object, adverbial, etc) is realized by a subclausal unit – a phrase. The multiple sentence, on the other hand, consists of more than one clause. One of the two major devices for linking clauses within the same sentence is coordination, which we discussed in Chapter 13. We there distinguished coordination from the other major device, subordination (*cf* 13.2*ff*). In this chapter we examine the complex sentence, a sentence in which one of the elements is realized by a subordinate clause. Here we discuss the structural types of subordinate clauses, the formal indicators of subordination, and the choices affecting the verb phrases of subordinate clauses.

Compound and complex sentences

14.2 The major types of multiple sentences are the compound and the complex sentence. A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses; the clauses of a compound sentence provide classic instances of a paratactic relationship (*cf* 13.2), that is they have equivalent function, as diagrammatically indicated in *Fig* 14.2a overpage. The two main clauses in the Figure are equal constituents of the sentence, and are linked by the coordinator *but*.

A complex sentence is like a simple sentence in that it consists of only one main clause, but unlike a simple sentence it has one or more SUBORDINATE clauses functioning as an element of the sentence. Subordination is an asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship (*cf* 13.2), that is they form a hierarchy in which the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole – an adverbial in the example diagrammed in *Fig* 14.2b overpage.

Subordination is not the only factor that enters into either the length or the complexity of sentences, when 'complexity' is understood in a nontechnical sense. Phrases may be complex in the degree of their modification; the vocabulary may be obscure; because of their compression, nominalizations (*cf* 17.51*ff*) may be more difficult to understand than corresponding subordinate clauses; the coherence of the sentence as a whole may be difficult to understand; the content of the sentence may presuppose knowledge that is not generally available.

With respect to its function, a subordinate clause may be viewed as downgraded to a subclausal unit, such as a prepositional phrase:

> Although I admire her reasoning, I reject her conclusions.
> ['Despite my admiration for her reasoning, I reject her conclusions']

Both the subordinate clause and the prepositional phrase in the paraphrase are functioning as adverbials within their sentence.

A clause that is not subordinate to another clause is an INDEPENDENT clause. Hence the two main clauses in *Fig* 14.2a and the main clause (identical with the sentence) in *Fig* 14.2b are independent clauses.

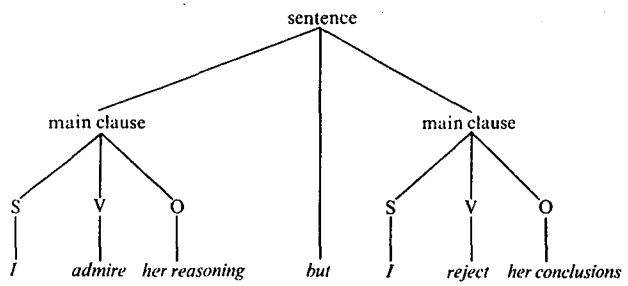

Fig 14.2a Compound sentence: coordination

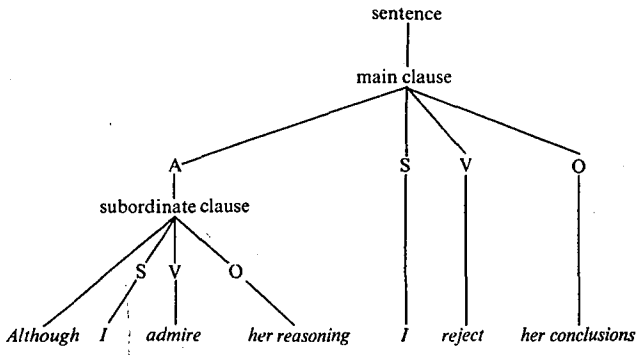

Fig 14.2b Complex sentence: subordination

Note [a] Main clauses have also been called 'principal clauses' or (less commonly) 'head clauses'.
[b] Subordinate clauses (sometimes abbreviated to 'sub-clauses') have also been called 'dependent', 'embedded', 'included', 'constituent', and 'syntactically bound' clauses.
[c] Some grammarians have extended the term *sentence* to cover what we have termed *clause*.
[d] Main clauses are generally also independent clauses. But if a coordinated main clause when it is isolated from the rest of the sentence is unacceptable as a simple sentence, it is not an independent clause. For example, the second clause below is structurally deficient as a simple sentence because of the ellipsis, the acceptability of the clause depending on its relationship to the first clause:

The plot was exciting and *the characterization plausible.*

Subordinate and superordinate clauses

14.3 *Figures* 14.2a and 14.2b present uncomplicated examples involving just two clauses. In *Fig* 14.2b the two clauses in the complex sentence are the subordinate clause and the SUPERORDINATE clause, of which the subordinate clause is a constituent; the superordinate clause is therefore also the main clause. But a clause may enter into more than one relationship; it may be subordinate to one clause and superordinate to another, as indicated in *Fig* 14.3a opposite.

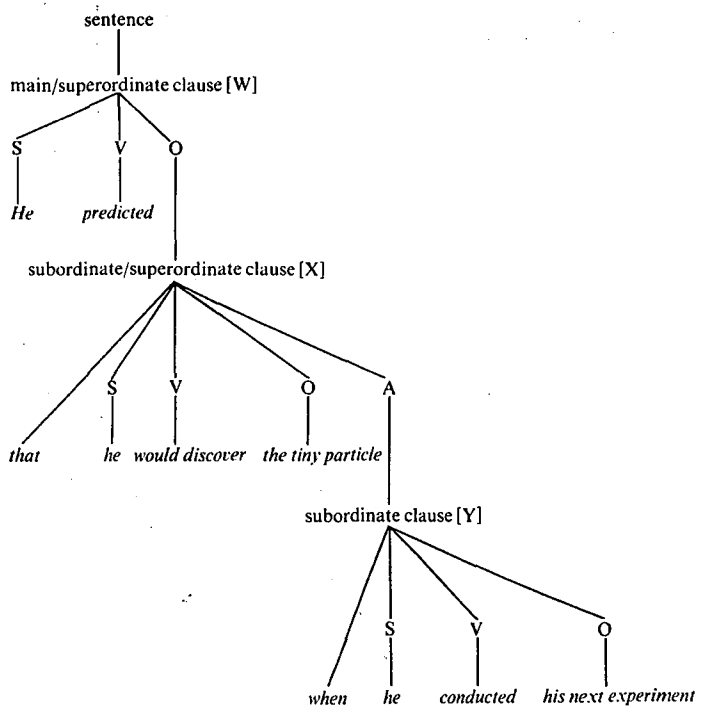

Fig 14.3a Superordinate and subordinate clauses

Clause [W] is superordinate to clause [X], which is in turn superordinate to clause [Y]. Conversely, clause [Y] is subordinate to clause [X], which is in turn subordinate to clause [W]. Clause [X] is therefore both superordinate to clause [Y] and subordinate to clause [W]. The relationships may be further clarified by labelled bracketing:

W- X-
(He predicted [that he would discover the tiny particle

Y- -Y-X-W
{when he conducted his next experiment}])

In each instance the subordinate clause is included in its superordinate clause: [X] functions as object in [W], while [Y] functions as adverbial in [X].

The device of subordination enables us to construct a multiple hierarchy of clauses, one within the other, sometimes resulting in extremely involved sentences (*cf* 14.37*ff*). Further complexity and structural variability are provided by the interrelation of subordination and coordination. Each main clause in a compound sentence may include one or more subordinate clauses,

each of which may in turn include subordinate clauses. An example, by no means unusually complicated, appears in *Fig* 14.3b, where the labelling has been abbreviated:

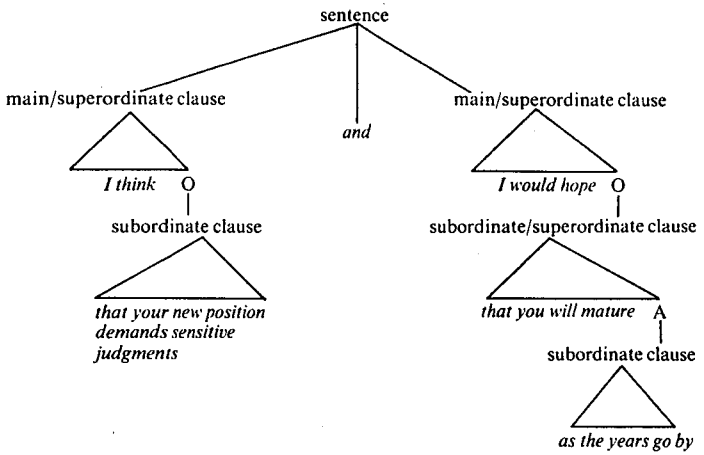

Fig 14.3b Compound sentence with subordinate clauses

Similarly, coordination may occur at any level. In *Fig* 14.3c the two subordinate clauses of the complex sentence are coordinated:

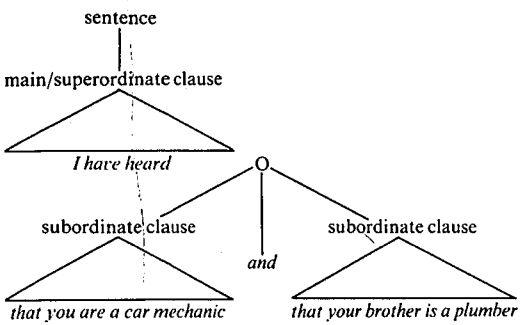

Fig 14.3c Complex sentence with coordinated clauses

A subordinate clause may function not only as a clause element of a superordinate clause but also as a constituent of a phrase, for example as a relative clause postmodifying a noun phrase:

The school *which my children attend* is within walking distance.

We consider such noun phrases to be complex, but we do not consider a sentence with a complex noun phrase to be a complex sentence merely on the grounds that it contains a complex phrase (*cf* 10.1 Note [a]).

Subordinate and matrix clauses

14.4 We have pointed out that a subordinate clause is a part of its superordinate clause, functioning as one of its elements. Thus, we can match clauses with phrases or words in the same function, direct object in [1] and adverbial in [2]:

We noticed { that they were nervous. / their nervousness. } [1]

One matures { as the years go by. / eventually. } [2]

We have no more reason to designate *We noticed* and *One matures* as clauses in their own right when they are followed by subordinate clauses than when they are followed by phrases or words. For both alternatives in [1] and [2] the clause that begins the sentence concludes the sentence.

Nevertheless, we find many occasions in this chapter, particularly in discussing adverbial clauses, when it is useful to distinguish between a subordinate clause and the rest of the superordinate clause of which it is part. When we have needed to do so, we have used the term MATRIX clause to designate the superordinate clause minus its subordinate clause. For example, we have referred to the situation described in the matrix clause as contingent on that of the subordinate conditional clause (*cf* 15.35):

I'll lend you some money if you don't have any money on you. [3]

The matrix clause *I'll lend you some money* conveys an offer that is consequent on the fulfilment of the condition expressed in the subordinate clause *if you don't have any money on you*. Similarly, we have referred to the matrix clause in discussing the time reference of adverbial clauses of time. For example, subordinators such as *before* and *until* indicate that the situation described in the matrix clause occurred before or led up to that in the subordinate clause (*cf* 15.27).

We illustrate in *Fig* 14.4 what we have termed a matrix clause.

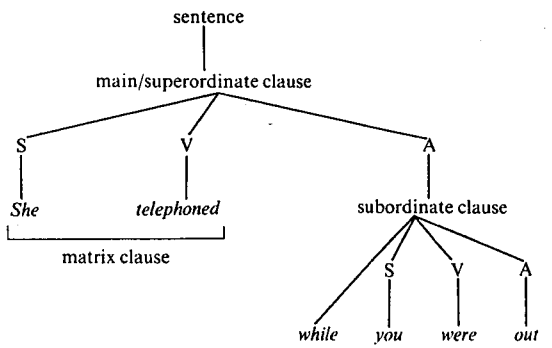

Fig 14.4 Matrix and subordinate clause

Note Some have used the term 'main clause' for what we term matrix clause.

Finite, nonfinite, and verbless clauses

14.5 We recognize three main structural types of clauses:

FINITE CLAUSE: a clause whose verb element is finite (such as *takes, took, can work, has worked, is writing, was written*; *cf* 3.52*ff*), *eg*:

I can't go out with you *because I am studying this evening*.

NONFINITE CLAUSE: a clause whose verb element is nonfinite (such as *to work, having worked, taken*; *cf* 3.53), *eg*:

Knowing my temper, I didn't reply.

VERBLESS CLAUSE: a clause that does not have a verb element, but is nevertheless capable of being analysed into clause elements, *eg*:

Although always helpful, he was not much liked.

We recognize nonfinite and verbless structures as clauses because we can analyse their internal structure into the same functional elements that we distinguish in finite clauses. Consider, for example, the analysis of the nonfinite clause in:

Knowing [V] *my temper* [O_d], I didn't reply.

The analysis depends on the analogy with the corresponding finite clause:

I [S] *know* [V] *my temper* [O_d].

Similarly, the verbless clause *although always helpful* in:

Although [conj] *always* [A] *helpful* [C_s], he was not much liked.

It is analysed as in the corresponding finite clause:

Although [conj] *he* [S] *was* [V] *always* [A] *helpful* [C_s], he was not much liked.

One structural type of clause may be embedded within another:

Too nervous to reply after other speakers had praised her devotion to duty, Margaret indicated that she would speak later. [1]

The italicized subordinate clause in [1] is a verbless clause that contains a subordinate nonfinite clause (beginning *to reply*) that in turn contains a subordinate finite clause (beginning *after other speakers*).

Note We recognize a structure as a clause only when it is describable in terms of clausal rather than phrasal structure. Hence the subject in [2] is considered a noun phrase because it has the structure of a noun phrase with *conquest* as its head:

William's conquest of England brought about a change in the status of the English language. [2]

Compare *William's conquests of other countries*, where the head of the phrase shows that it can take the number contrast that is characteristic of most nouns. On the other hand, the phrase structure of *William's conquest of England* is related to clause structure (*William conquered England*) through nominalization (*cf* 17.51*ff*). Both the clause and the phrase can be described semantically as a sequence of agentive, activity, and affected, but semantic grounds are not sufficient for syntactic analysis. Only the clause do we analyse syntactically as a sequence of subject, verb, and object. For example, consider *part-time teaching* in:

I enjoy *part-time teaching*.

It has the structure of a noun phrase with *teaching* as head and *part-time* as premodifier. Contrast *teaching undergraduates* in:

I enjoy *teaching undergraduates*.

It has the structure of a clause (as in *I teach undergraduates*) with *teaching* as verb and *undergraduates* as object. On the other hand, there is structural ambiguity in:

I enjoy *teaching*.

Teaching may be a noun phrase with only a head or a clause with only a verb (*cf* 15.13).

Nonfinite clauses

14.6 The nonfinite clause may be with or without a subject. The classes of nonfinite verb phrase (*cf* 3.53) serve to distinguish four structural classes of nonfinite verb clauses:

(i) TO-INFINITIVE
without subject: The best thing would be *to tell everybody*.
with subject: The best thing would be *for you to tell everybody*.

The infinitive clause with *to* plus a subject is found characteristically in constructions with anticipatory *it* (*cf* 18.33*ff*), *for* being used to introduce the subject: *It would be better for you to tell everybody*.

(ii) BARE INFINITIVE
without subject: All I did was *hit him on the head*.
with subject: *Rather than you do the job*, I'd prefer to finish it myself.

The bare infinitive is found characteristically in pseudo-cleft sentences (*cf* 18.29*f*), where the infinitival *to* is optional:

What they did was (*to*) *dig a shallow channel around the tent*.

(iii) -ING PARTICIPLE
without subject: *Leaving the room*, he tripped over the mat.
with subject: *Her aunt having left the room*, I asked Ann for some personal help.

When the subject of *-ing* clauses is expressed, it is often introduced by a preposition (*cf* 14.19 Note [b]):

With the audience turning restive, the chairman curtailed his long introduction.

On the question of genitive subjects, *cf* 15.12.

(iv) -ED PARTICIPLE
without subject: *Covered with confusion*, they apologized abjectly.
with subject: *The discussion completed*, the chairman adjourned the meeting for half an hour.

Categories (i) and (iii) are used most frequently; category (ii) is relatively rare.

Except for the *-ed* clause, which is inherently passive (*cf* 14.7), all types of nonfinite clauses have both active and passive forms, for example:

It would be possible *for my son to drive you to the airport.*
~ It would be possible *for you to be driven to the airport by my son.*
Rather than *Michael guarantee the loan*, it can be done by his father.
~ Rather than *the loan be guaranteed by Michael*, it can be done by his father.
The parents having paid for the damaged window, the police were not called.
~ *The damaged window having been paid for by the parents*, the police were not called.

Progressive and perfective forms may function in the verb phrase of nonfinite clauses, though the nonfinite verb paradigm is somewhat defective (*cf* 3.56). But modal auxiliaries are excluded, since they have neither infinitives nor participles.

In negative nonfinite clauses, the negative particle is generally positioned before the verb or the *to* of the infinitive:

It's his fault for *not* doing anything about it.
The wisest policy is (for us) *not* to interfere.

Adverbs and brief prepositional phrases that intervene between *not* and the verb in finite clauses may also come between *not* and the verb:

It's his fault for *not ever* doing anything about it.

When *not* is inserted, there is often some aspectual marking:

The purse *not having* been found, } we went to the police.
The purse *not yet* found, }

On the split infinitive, *cf* 8.21.

14.7 The normal range of clause types (*cf* 10.2) is available for most nonfinite clauses, as in this set of *to*-infinitive clauses:

SV I expect *them to come.*
SVO They wanted *us to learn economics.*
SVC Joe supposed *the stranger to be friendly.*
SVA It's great *for everybody to be here.*
SVOO It's best *for you to give him a call.*
SVOC Paul prefers *me to make the difference clear.*
SVOA He got *her to put the car in the garage.*

The subject of nonfinite clauses, however, is commonly absent.

Because it is generally both syntactically and semantically passive, the *-ed* participle clause is restricted to the four types of passive clauses. In [1] the subordinator *when* introduces the *-ed* clause:

$(S)V_{pass}$ ~ active *SVO*
When questioned, she denied being a member of the group. [1]

$(S)V_{pass}C$ ~ active *SVOC*
Considered works of art, they were admitted into the country without customs duties. [2]
$(S)V_{pass}A$ ~ active *SVOA*
Kept in the refrigerator, the drug should remain effective for at least three months. [3]
$(S)V_{pass}O$ ~ active *SVOO*
Allowed unusual privileges, the prisoner seemed to enjoy his captivity. [4]

14.8 Because nonfinite clauses lack tense markers and modal auxiliaries and frequently lack a subject and a subordinating conjunction, they are valuable as a means of syntactic compression. Certain kinds of nonfinite clause are particularly favoured in written prose, where the writer has the leisure to revise for compactness. We recover meanings associated with tense, aspect, and mood from the sentential context. We can also normally see a correspondence with a finite clause with a form of the verb BE and a pronoun subject having the same reference as a noun or pronoun in the same sentence (*cf* 15.58*ff*). For examples 14.7 [1–4], one might make the following insertions:

When (she was) *questioned*, she denied being a member of the group. [1a]
(Since/Because/As they were) *considered works of art*, they were admitted into the country without customs duties. [2a]
(If it is) *kept in the refrigerator*, the drug should remain effective for at least three months. [3a]
(Since/After he was) *allowed unusual privileges*, the prisoner seemed to enjoy his captivity. [4a]

On the other hand, [5] shows how the advantage of compactness must be balanced against the danger of ambiguity; for the absence of a subject leaves doubt as to which nearby nominal element is notionally the subject:

We met you (*when you?/we? were*) leaving the room. [5]

With infinitive clauses, a corresponding finite clause also enables one to identify an understood subject:

I asked *to go.* ~ I asked *if I could go.*
I asked *him to go.* ~ I asked *if he would go.*

When no referential link with a nominal can be discovered in the linguistic context, an indefinite subject may be inferred, or else the 'I' of the speaker:

To be an administrator is to have the worst job in the world. ['For a person to be . . .']
The prospects are not very good, *to be candid.* ['. . . if I am to be candid']

Contrast:

It's hard work *to be a student.* [indefinite subject; *cf* 10.42*f*]
It's hard work, *to be honest.* [*I* as subject; *cf* 8.125]

Verbless clauses

14.9 Verbless clauses take syntactic compression one stage further than nonfinite clauses and like them are also commonly subjectless. Once again (*cf* 14.8), it is often possible to postulate a missing form of the verb BE and to recover the subject, when omitted, from the context:

Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in argument. ['whether *he is* right or wrong']
One should avoid taking a trip abroad in August *where possible*. ['where *it is* possible']

Verbless clauses can also sometimes be treated as reductions of nonfinite clauses:

Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor. ['*Being* too nervous to reply . . .']

(Here the verbless clause itself contains a subordinate nonfinite clause, *to reply*.)

When the subject is present, only the verb has to be recovered, though it is not always possible to insert it without juxtaposing the clause (*cf* [2] below):

73 people have been drowned in the area, *many of them children*. ['many of them being children'] [1]
There he stood, *a tray in each hand*. ['a tray was in each hand'] [2]

The subject is often introduced by *with* (*cf* 14.15):

With the children at school, we can't take our vacations when we want to. [3]

Since it is usually possible to interpret the clause as having an omitted BE, the verbless clause is limited to the two clause-types *SVC* and *SVA*, with or without a subordinator (*sub*):

She looked at him expectantly, *her eyes full of excitement and curiosity*. [S (V) C] [4]
I do not wish to describe his assertions, *some of them offensive*. [S (V) C] [5]
He looked remarkably well, *his skin clear and smooth*. [S (V) C] [6]
Though somewhat edgy, she said she would stay a little longer. sub [S (V) C] [7]
We can meet again tomorrow, *if necessary*. sub [S (V) C] [8]
Mavis sat in the front seat, *her hands in her lap*. [S (V) A] [9]
While at college, he was a prominent member of the dramatic society. sub [(S V) A] [10]

It is also possible in [9] to view the understood verb as HAVE ('having her hands in her lap', *cf* 'with her hands in her lap'), in which case the structure is [(S V) O A].

Optional adverbials may also be added, either initially or finally:

'Thank you very much,' said Raymond, *ever mindful of his manners*. [(S V) $A_{frequency}$ C_s]

Loath to reply for fear of offending her parents, she strode out of the room. [(S V) C_s A_{reason}]
Though now frail, they were quite capable of looking after themselves. sub [(S V) A_{time} C_s]

When the verbless clause is reduced to its minimum of a single complement or adverbial, it may not be easy to distinguish it from an appositive construction (*cf* 17.65*ff*), a nonrestrictive postmodifier (*cf* 17.48*f*), or an adverbial which is a direct constituent of the main clause. The initial prepositional phrase below is an adverbial of the sentence:

Of humble parentage, he began his working life in a shoe factory.

It might be regarded as an adverbial realized by a verbless clause consisting of just a complement, because its analysis is directly parallel to nominal or verbless clauses like:

A man of humble parentage, . . . ~Born of humble parentage, . . .

Similarly, if the final noun phrase below had been placed next to the subject we would have recognized it as full apposition:

The river lay in its crescent loop entirely without movement, *an artifice of green-black liquescent marble*.

As it is, we could regard it as a verbless clause functioning as an adverbial. Indeed, many instances of partial apposition with noun phrases (*cf* 17.66) could be equally regarded as verbless clauses, *eg*:

Judge Clement Turpin, *now a federal appeals court judge*, is being considered for appointment to the US Supreme Court.

Formal indicators of subordination

14.10 Subordination is generally marked by a signal in the subordinate clause. The signal may be of various kinds:

(i) The clause is initiated by a subordinating conjunction (14.11*ff*).
(ii) The clause is initiated by a *wh*-element (14.20).
(iii) Initial elements in the clause are inverted (14.20).
(iv) The presence of certain verb forms in finite clauses is determined by the type of subordinate clause (14.21*ff*).
(v) The verb element of the clause is either nonfinite or absent (14.20).

More than one subordination signal may cooccur in the same subordinate clause. For example, a nonfinite or verbless clause may be introduced by a subordinating conjunction (*cf* 14.15*ff*).

Note [a] The verb form in the superordinate clause may also be affected by the type of subordinate clause. The clearest example is in the hypothetical condition relationship (*cf* 15.36).
[b] For nonfinite and verbless clauses that are not part of a superordinate clause, *cf* 11.40*f*.

Subordinators

14.11 SUBORDINATORS (or more fully SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS) are the most important formal device of subordination, particularly for finite clauses. Like prepositions, which they resemble in having a relating function, subordinators forming the core of the class consist of a single word, but there is a larger range of complex subordinators which function, to varying degrees, like a single conjunction. In addition, there is a small class of correlative subordinators, which combine two markers of subordination, one being a subordinator.

Subordinators may be restricted to particular types of clauses, as the following sections show.

Subordinators for finite clauses

14.12 Most subordinators may introduce finite clauses. Here is a list of those subordinators. They are divided into simple, complex, and correlative subordinators. The correlative subordinators are listed and discussed in 14.13.

SIMPLE SUBORDINATORS

after, although, as, because, before, directly ⟨informal, esp BrE⟩, *if, immediately* ⟨informal, esp BrE⟩, *lest* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *like* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩, *once, since, that, though, till, unless, until, when(ever), where(ever), whereas, whereupon, while, whilst* ⟨a minority alternative to *while*, esp BrE⟩

COMPLEX SUBORDINATORS

ending with *that*:

but that, in that, in order that, insofar that ⟨formal, rare⟩, *in the event that, save that* ⟨literary⟩, *such that*

ending with optional *that*:

(a) participle form:

assuming, considering, excepting, given, granted, granting, provided, providing, seeing, supposing } (*that*)

(b) others:

except, for all, now, so } (*that*)

ending with *as*:

according as, as far as, as long as, as soon as, forasmuch as ⟨formal⟩, *inasmuch as* ⟨formal⟩, *insofar as, insomuch as* ⟨formal⟩

Others:

as if, as though, in case

Note [a] The distinction in form between the simple and complex subordinators is in part orthographic, since some of the simple subordinators are internally (that is morphologically) complex. But their orthographical unity points to the central place of the simple subordinators in the system.

[b] In addition, the following archaic subordinators still have a limited currency: *albeit, whence, whereat, wherefore, whither*.

[c] Many of the subordinators indicate more than one logical relationship. The relationships are discussed in subsequent sections of this chapter.

[d] The omission of an optional *that* in the complex subordinators tends to lower the level of formality. On the other hand, the inclusion of *that* may avoid ambiguity (*cf* 14.41).

[e] *About* and *without* are used as subordinators for finite clauses in informal style, but are not generally considered acceptable:

?She explained to us *about there's nothing for teenagers to do in the village*.

?We can't even read in our bedroom *without one of the children comes barging in wanting something*.

They are among recent examples of a continuing trend to use prepositions also as subordinators. *On account (of)* ⟨esp AmE⟩, another recent example, has achieved somewhat greater acceptability in informal style:

I can't come now *on account (of) I have to look after my baby brother*.

[f] *But that* is a subordinator in the sense 'except (that)':

She would have ignored Edward *but that* she knew he would have complained to her sister.

Occasionally *that* is omitted:

It never rains *but* it pours.

Except is used without *that* in the sense 'unless' (*cf* 15.34):

I wouldn't be here *except* I had to.

But *that* is often added when *except* has the sense 'only' (*cf* 15.44):

I'd lend you my car *except (that)* I may need it later this afternoon.

[g] The temporal subordinators, interrogative *whether* and *if*, and conditional *if* can alone serve as truncated subordinate clauses functioning as exclamation tags:

A: Brian will attend the class { if / when } it suits him.

B: (Ah, yes) { IF! / WHEN! }

Virtually any conjunction can function alone as an echo question:

A: I'll let you know *if* there are going to be refreshments.

B: IF? But surely you promised you would arrange it.

A: We're arriving in New York *after* you leave.

B: AFTER? But I was hoping to see you there.

Correlative subordinators

14.13 The correlative subordinators are divided into five sets, listed below. The second correlative endorses the meaning of the first. For correlative coordinators, *cf* 13.33*ff*.

CORRELATIVE SUBORDINATORS

(a)	*as*	. . . *so*
(b)	*as*, *so*, *such*	. . . *as*
	so, *such*	. . . (*that*)
	less, *more* (/-*er*)	. . . *than*
	no sooner	. . . *than, when* ⟨informal⟩
	barely, *hardly*, *scarcely*	. . . *when, than* ⟨informal⟩
(c)	*the*	. . . *the*
(d)	*whether*, *if*	. . . *or*

(e) subordinator plus optional conjunct

although, *even if*, *(even) though*, *while*	. . . *yet*, *nevertheless*, etc
if, *once*, *since* [reason], *unless*	. . . *then*, *in that case*
because, *seeing (that)*	. . . *therefore*

The (a) set consists of the unique proportional correlative *as* . . . *so* (*cf* 15.51), also typical of formal and deliberative style. The conjunct emphasizes the relationship indicated by the initial subordinator:

> *As* the strength of the defenders failed, *so* the courage of the attackers grew.

The omission of *so* tends to give a temporal interpretation ('all the while that') to the subordinator *as*.

The (b) set contains comparative correlatives (*cf* 15.63*ff*). In this set the subordinate clause is positioned finally. The first element functions as degree modifier in the superordinate clause, while the second is a subordinator introducing the final subordinate clause:

> I was { *more* ashamed / angrier } *than* I have ever been.
> He had *no sooner* arrived *than* he asked for food.

The (c) set consists of the unique pair of proportional correlatives *the* . . . *the* (*cf* 15.51):

> *The* harder they worked, *the* hungrier they became.
> ['As they worked harder, so they became hungrier.']

If the order of the two clauses is reversed, the meaning relationship is changed (*cf* Note [d] below):

> *The* hungrier they became, *the* harder they worked.
> ['As they became hungrier, so they worked harder.']

The (d) set contains the *whether* . . . *or* correlatives used in two different types of subordinate clauses: alternative interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.6) and alternative conditional-concessive clauses (*cf* 15.41). In the interrogative construction the *or*-clause is optional:

> They didn't tell me *whether* I should write to the manager (*or whether* I should see him personally).

In the conditional-concessive construction, on the other hand, the *or*-clause is obligatory. In both instances, the correlative *or* coordinates two subordinate clauses (*cf* the *either* . . . *or* correlative, 13.33*f*), unlike the previous sets, where only one correlative is attached to the subordinate clause. *Or* is also an optional correlative in the alternative interrogative clause introduced by *if* (*cf* 15.6).

The (e) set combines a subordinator in an initial subordinate adverbial clause with an optional conjunct (*cf* 8.134*ff*) in the superordinate clause. The conjunct emphasizes the relationship indicated by the subordinator:

> *Though* the workers were unhappy with some aspects of the proposed new contract, *nevertheless* they overwhelmingly voted in favour of it.
> [CONCESSIVE CLAUSE; *cf* 15.39*ff*]
> *If* this year's harvest is good, *then* they will not need to import wheat.
> [CONDITIONAL CLAUSE; *cf* 15.33*ff*]
> *Because* you have not replied to my formal letter of May 1, I am *therefore* withdrawing my offer.
> [REASON CLAUSE; *cf* 15.45*ff*]

Some writers avoid the conjunct as redundant in these examples. Its insertion is more usual in an insistently persuasive argument or in a formal and deliberative style of writing, especially if the initial subordinate clause is lengthy and the relationship then needs to be recalled. The effect is to balance the two parts of the system, an effect akin to parallelism (*cf* 19.7), and to remind the reader or hearer of the force of the argument.

Note [a] The range of correlative subordinators can be extended somewhat in literary style to include, for example, *where* . . . *there* and *when* . . . *then*:

> *When* her imagination was stirred, *then* there descended upon her a frenzy to inscribe her thoughts.

[b] The following occur with subject–operator inversion (*cf* 18.24) in the first clause:

no sooner . . . *than* *barely/hardly/scarcely* . . *when/before*

There is traditional objection to the use of *when* as correlative with *no sooner* and to the use of *than* as correlative with the three negative adverbs.

[c] Since subordinate adverbial clauses are usually in *E* position, the correlative in sets (a), (b), and (c) can be seen as providing the condition for the clause to be in *I* position and subsequently endorsing the force of the clause.

[d] *The* may be used in two ways to introduce a final subordinate clause without a preceding initial correlative *the*. In the first use, it correlates with a comparative in the superordinate clause, the construction then belonging to set (c):

> They became (*the*) hungrier *the* harder they worked.

The construction is equivalent in meaning to the correlative *the* . . . *the* construction:

> *The* harder they worked, *the* hungrier they became.
> [*cf* *Harder they worked, hungrier they became.]

The equivalence provides an argument for suggesting that the first clause is semantically subordinate, as in sets (a) and (b).

In the second use, *the* is noncorrelative. It combines with a comparative, chiefly to introduce a final subordinate clause of purpose, especially a *to*-infinitive clause:

> They moved to the front, *the* better to hear the speaker.

Less formally:

> They moved to the front in order to hear the speaker better.

In formal style, the purpose clause may be initial:

> *The more* easily to induce witnesses to testify, we are conducting our hearings in private.

Marginal subordinators

14.14 As with complex prepositions (*cf* 9.10*ff*), it is difficult to distinguish categorically between complex subordinators and free syntactic constructions. Several marginal types require discussion.

Type 1 consists of a habitual combination of a subordinator with a preceding or following adverb; for example *even if* and *if only*. We regard these as subordinators because the meaning of the subordinator is affected by the presence of the adverb. In contrast, combinations such as *only if* and *just as* consist of a premodifier preceding a subordinator.

Type 2 consists of noun phrases that commonly function as temporal adverbials; for example, *the moment* (*that*) and *every time* (*that*). We consider these to be more like free syntactic constructions than like complex subordinators. The relationship between *the moment* and the following clause, for example, can be explained as the head of a noun phrase modified by a restrictive relative clause, the noun phrase functioning as adverbial of time. Compare:

I recognized him *that moment*. I recognized him *the moment I saw him*.

The phrase permits the range of structural variations that one would expect from that analysis. For example:

at / *from* } (*just*) *the* { *first* / *next* / *last* / *precise* / *very* } { *moment* / *instant* / *minute* / *time* } { *that* / *when* } I saw him, I recognized him.

Other examples of such free constructions include *during the period when*, *until such time as*, *since the days that*.

Type 3 consists of prepositional phrases ending in *the fact that*. They express relationships of reason or concession. Because they can be replaced more concisely by a simple conjunction, they are considered to be stylistically clumsy. Examples include:

because of the fact that
due to the fact that
on account of the fact that
in (the) light of the fact that } ['because']

in spite of the fact that
regardless of the fact that } ['although']

These allow some variation of the preposition and considerable variation of the head of the noun phrase. Compare:

In spite of { *the fact* / *the news* / *your report* / *my belief* } that they were sick, I went to visit them.

Only *in spite of the fact that* can be replaced by a simple conjunction (*eg: although*), yet it is clear that all the phrases have a similar function. We should therefore regard them as prepositional phrases followed by a clause in apposition to the noun-phrase complement.

Type 4 consists of participle forms such as *supposing* (*that*) and *provided* (*that*). The participles form a gradient. Some retain certain properties characteristic of verbs, while those that are most like simple conjunctions have lost all such properties. Thus, like other participles, *supposing* and *assuming* can be expanded by adverbials:

supposing / assuming } { for the sake of argument / as a result of your advice } that

But such expansion is not permitted for some of the other participle forms:

*seeing / *provided } { for the sake of argument / as a result of your advice } that

On the other hand, like many verbs, *seeing* and *considering* can be followed by conjunctions other than *that*:

Seeing / Considering } *how* he reacted . . .

But most important of all, the conjunctional *seeing*, *provided*, *providing*, and *given* are now distinct from the participles in meaning and in not requiring subject identification (*cf* 15.58*f*), so that they cannot be viewed as the verb in a participle clause.

Note [a] The premodifier in the free constructions of type 1 may be focusing (*cf* 8.116), as in *even when* and *only if*; intensifying (*cf* 8.104), as in *ever since* and *just as* (in the similarity sense); or specifying further the time relationship, as in *just when* and *a few days before*.
[b] There are other conjunction-like prepositional phrases similar to those in type 3, but not ending in *the fact that*; for example, *in the event that*, *on the grounds that*, *in the sense that*.

Subordinators for nonfinite and verbless clauses

14.15 Nonfinite and verbless clauses are subordinate by virtue of the absence of a finite verb as the verb element of the clause. They are, however, sometimes introduced by a subordinator, which generally signals the clause to be adverbial.

The structural classes of clauses vary in the subordinators that they admit. However, all the classes except for that of the bare infinitive clauses may be introduced by the subordinators *with* and *without*. A noun phrase (not necessarily the subject) is required after the subordinator:

Without you to consult, I would be completely lost.
With the mortgage paid, they could afford to go abroad for their vacation.
Don't walk around *with your shirt hanging out*.
With you as my friend, I don't need enemies.

Note *Rather than* is found with all types of clauses, including finite clauses, but it is generally best treated as a quasi-coordinator (*cf* 13.103), with matching forms in the clauses (but *cf* 4.19 Note [c]):

They were *screaming* rather than *singing*. She *telephoned* rather than *wrote*.
He wanted *to sunbathe* rather than (*to*) *swim*.

The part after *rather than* refers to an earlier assumption that is rejected; *rather than* is here equivalent to 'and not'.

Subordinators for bare infinitive clauses

14.16 Bare infinitive clauses are limited to the two synonymous subordinators *rather than* and *sooner than* (*cf* 14.15 Note for the function of *rather than* as

quasi-coordinator). The matrix clauses express the subject's preference (*cf* 15.52):

He paid the fine *rather than appeal to a higher court*.
Sooner than wait for a reply to your letter, I would telephone her.

The bare infinitive clause occasionally takes a subject:

Rather than ROBERT *drive in his present state*, I'd prefer to drive him home myself.

Note [a] In contrast to the constraints on the quasi-coordinator *rather than*, when clauses are introduced by the subordinators *rather than* and *sooner than* the verb forms do not need to match and the subordinate clause may be initial as well as final.
[b] If *would* or *should* is in the matrix clause, *rather* and *sooner* may be moved into that clause when the subordinate clause is final:
He would *rather* pay the fine *than appeal to a higher court*.
Such sentences have an obvious resemblance to comparative constructions and admit various comparative adverbs:

He would *more* { *readily* / *willingly* / *cheerfully* } pay the fine *than appeal to a higher court*.

Subordinators for *to*-infinitive clauses

14.17 *To*-infinitive clauses may be introduced by several subordinators: *as if*, *as though*, *for*, *in order*, *so as*, *whether* . . . (*or*), *with*, and *without*. *For* in this function is restricted to infinitive clauses with their own subject, and indeed is often obligatory (*cf* 15.10):

It would be an absurd idea *for them to move to another house at this stage of their careers*.

Since *for* may be combined with the subordinator *in order to*, it seems to be a device for introducing the subject rather than to be a true subordinator:

In order for you to be eligible for a student grant, your parents must receive less than a stipulated annual income.

Whether (with or without correlative *or*) introduces a subordinate interrogative clause:

I don't know *whether to put on the air-conditioning today*.

In the absence of a subject in the subordinate clause, the subject is understood as identical with that of the matrix clause.

Subordinators for *-ed* clauses and verbless clauses

14.18 Clauses with an *-ed* participle and verbless clauses may be introduced by some subordinators that are also used for finite clauses (*cf* 14.12):

although, *as* [manner], *as if*, *as soon as*, *as though*, *even if*, *if*, *once*, *though*, *unless*, *until* [only *-ed* participle clauses], *when*(*ever*), *where*(*ver*), *whether* . . . *or* [conditional-concessive], *while*, *whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩

These clauses can be related to finite clauses for which the subject and the verb BE are supplied (*cf* 14.9):

When taken according to the directions, the drug has no side effects. ['When the drug is taken . . .'] [1]
Although not yet six months old, she was able to walk without support. ['Although she was not yet . . .'] [2]
Unless told otherwise, be here every night. ['Unless you are told . . .'; *you* is implied subject of the imperative superordinate clause] [3]
If necessary, he will take notes for you. ['If his taking notes is necessary, . . .'] [4]

The subject of the subordinate clause must generally be understood as identical with that of the matrix clause, but for verbless clauses such as *if necessary* and *where possible* it may refer to the matrix clause as a whole, as in example [4].

Note [a] The *if*-clauses may be used for hypothetical conditions (*cf* 14.19 Note [a], 15.35):
The milk would not turn sour *if boiled*. ['if it were boiled']
I would have typed your manuscript for you *if necessary*. ['if it had been necessary to do so']
[b] There is a stereotyped construction in which the *-ed* participle follows *no sooner than*:
(It was) no sooner said *than done*.

Subordinators for *-ing* clauses

14.19 Clauses with an *-ing* participle may be introduced by any of the subordinators for *-ed* participle clauses (*cf* 14.18), except that the subordinators *where*, *wherever*, *as* [manner], and *as soon as* are excluded (*cf* Note [a] below):

although, *as if*, *as though*, *even if*, *if*, *once*, *though*, *unless*, *until*, *when*(*ever*), *whether* . . . *or* [conditional-concessive], *while*, *whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩

Unlike *-ed* participle and verbless clauses, however, these *-ing* participle clauses cannot be regarded as strictly elliptical clauses, since the *-ing* participle does not necessarily represent a progressive form in the equivalent finite clause. The *-ing* participle neutralizes that aspectual distinction:

When returning merchandise, be sure to bring your receipt. ['When you return . . .' *or* 'When you are returning . . .']

The nonequivalence of the *-ing* participle in these clauses with the finite progressive is most conspicuous when the progressive aspect is ruled out, as with the perfective or a verb used statively (*cf* 4.27*ff*):

Once having left the premises, you must buy another ticket to reenter. ['Once you have left . . .']
Though understanding no Spanish, she was able to communicate with the other students. ['Though she understood no Spanish, . . .']

Note [a] *-ing* clauses introduced by *if*, *even if*, and *unless* are restricted to open conditions (*cf* 15.35), in which they are roughly equivalent to 'in cases where'. Even so, *if* sounds somewhat stilted:
If coming by car, take the A10 and turn off at the A414.
Even if and *unless* are relatively more acceptable in such contexts:

{ *Even if* / *Unless* } *receiving visitors*, patients must observe normal hospital rules.

[b] *After*, *before*, and *since* (subordinators with finite clauses) differ from subordinators such as *when* or *while* in that they are followed by *-ing* clauses but not by *-ed* clauses or verbless clauses:

He took a shower { *before* / *after* } *returning home*. [1]

Since moving here, I have felt more relaxed. [2]

These three also differ from the subordinators listed above in 14.19 in that they allow a subject in the *-ing* clause:

Since my coming here, life has become more comfortable for my parents. [3]

The differences suggest that *after*, *before*, and *since* are better classed with prepositions such as *on* and *through* (both of which permit a subject in the *-ing* clause) rather than with subordinators:

He took a shower *on returning home*. [1a]

Through my moving here, life has become more comfortable for my parents. [3a]

[c] Like *as well as* and *instead of*, *rather than* is a preposition, not a quasi-coordinator (*cf* 13.103), when it is followed by an *-ing* participle clause that does not match the verb in the matrix clause (*cf* 14.15 Note):

Their actions precipitated the war *rather than averting it*.

As well as visiting Niagara Falls, we spent a day in Toronto.

He intends to go as he is, *instead of changing into his best clothes*.

Other indicators of subordination

14.20 We now turn to other indicators of subordination apart from subordinators.

(i) *Wh*-elements are initial markers of subordination in subordinate interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5*f*) and subordinate exclamative clauses (*cf* 15.7), in *wh*-relative clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*, 17.9*ff*), and in conditional-concessive clauses (*cf* 15.41*f*). The subordinating *wh*-words are:

who, *whom*, *whose*, *which*
when, *where*, *what*, *why*, *how*
whoever, *whomever* ⟨rare⟩, *whichever*
wherever, *whenever*, *whatever*, *however*
whosoever, *whomsoever*, *wheresoever*, *whatsoever*, *howsoever* ⟨all rare; legal and religious⟩

(ii) The relative pronoun *that*, which can often replace *wh*-pronouns, is a subordination marker in restrictive relative clauses (*cf* 17.9*ff*):

The style *that we are examining in this exhibition* was an unusual one.

The relative pronoun is to be distinguished from the subordinator *that*, which does not operate as an element in the subordinate clause.

(iii) Subject–operator inversion is a marker of subordination in some conditional, similarity, and comparative clauses (*cf* 15.36, 15.50 Note, 15.74). It is typical of a literary and elevated style of persuasion. The operators that permit the inversion are *had*, *were*, *should*, and (less commonly) *could* and *might*:

Had I been less forthright, I would have acquired more support.

Were she here, she would support the motion.

Inversion of a different kind – the fronting of the whole or part of the predication – may occur with the subordinators *as*, *though*, and *that* (*cf* 15.39, 15.47):

Eloquent though she was, she could not persuade them.

(iv) The absence of a finite verb is itself an indicator of subordination, since nonfinite and verbless clauses are necessarily subordinate:

Denying any interest in politics, she claimed that she wished to continue in forensic medicine.

There are only two types of subordinate clauses that have no clear indicator of subordination within them:

(a) Nominal *that*-clauses allow the omission of *that* in certain contexts (*cf* 15.4), but they may be said to be recognizable as subordinate through the potentiality for the insertion of *that*:

I suppose *I can use your phone*.
~ I suppose *that I can use your phone*.

Compare also the omissibility of relative *that*, 17.13*ff*.

(b) Some comment clauses (*cf* 15.54) have no overt mark of subordination, but – as with the zero relative clauses mentioned in (a) – they generally lack an obligatory verb complementation:

I have no alternative, *I suppose*.
It could be worse, *you know*.
= *You know*, it could be worse.
≠ *You know* (that) it could be worse.

The verb phrase in subordinate clauses

14.21 In general the rules for the uses of forms and categories of the verb phrase – such as tenses, aspects, and modal auxiliaries – apply both to subordinate and independent clauses. Nevertheless, there are cases in which choices affecting the verb phrase of a subordinate clause are determined by the particular type of subordinate clause it belongs to. With temporal *since*-clauses, on the other hand, it is the choice of verb phrase in the matrix clause that is more obviously affected.

Such determinations constitute a signal of subordination additional to other signals, such as initial subordinators. They are a particularly conspicuous signal when the verb phrase in the subordinate clause prevents that clause from constituting an independent sentence, even with the omission of the subordinator, as in (*Though*) *he be the President himself*. Less obviously, the meaning of the verb phrase would be different in an independent clause, as in (*When*) *the game ends*.

Note Dependency relations of this kind are not necessarily found in disjunct clauses, particularly style disjunct clauses (*cf* 15.21), where verb choices are primarily dependent on the circumstances of the speech act. Contrast, for example, the matching tenses in [1], where the *since*-clause is an adjunct, with the absence of matching in [2], where the *since*-clause is a style disjunct:

Since they really *wanted* to know, they *conducted* their own investigation. [1]

Since you really *want* to know, they *conducted* their own investigation. [2]

The present tense in adverbial and nominal clauses

14.22 The simple present is commonly used in preference to the auxiliary *will* or (in BrE, optionally with *I* and *we*) *shall* in certain types of adverbial clauses to express future meaning (*cf* also 14.26):

When / After / Before / As / If / As soon as / Once } he *arrives*, the band will play the National Anthem.

Even if tomorrow's match *is* cancelled, Lancashire will still be at the top of the league.
He'll come in case he's wanted.
While I *am* away, the children will look after the house.
Whether or not they *win* this battle, they won't win the war.
Whatever they *say*, I won't pay.
Wherever she *goes*, I'll go.

The subordinators involved belong to the temporal, conditional, and conditional-concessive categories (*cf* 15.25, 15.34, 15.41*f*). Temporal *since*, however, is excluded (*cf* 15.26).

Clauses of similarity (*cf* 15.50) and proportion (*cf* 15.51) may also have the simple present to express future meaning:

Next time I'll do as he *says*.
The harder you *exercise*, the better you'll feel.

Nominal *that*- and *wh*-clauses tend to contain the simple present when the matrix clause (as well as the subordinate clause) refers to the future; but when the matrix clause refers to the present, *will* is likely to be used in the subordinate clause. Contrast:

In a few minutes I'll ask him what he *wants* tomorrow.
The question is what he *will want* tomorrow.

However, there are exceptional verb constructions like *hope*, *bet*, *see* (*to it*), *take care*, *be careful*, and (both in the imperative) *suppose* and *assume*, after which the simple present is often or (for *take care* and *be careful*) regularly used:

I hope that the parcel *comes* in time. [also *will come*]
Suppose he *loses* his way.
Let's assume our opponents *win* the election. [also *will win*]
I'll see that nobody *disturbs* you. [also *will disturb*]
Take care that she *doesn't* fall.

Will and *won't* occur in adverbial clauses, particularly in *if*-clauses, in certain uses. In general, the difference between the simple present and the modal is that the simple present refers to an assumed future actual situation whereas the modal refers to the assumed predictability of a situation or of situations. More specifically, *will* and *won't* are commonly used:

(i) where the modals have a volitional meaning:

If you'*ll help* us, we can finish early. ['are willing to'] [1]
If you *won't help* us, all our plans will be ruined. ['refuse to'] [2]
If he'*ll pay*, I'll go with him. [3]
If you'*ll use* it, you can have it. [4]

The use of the simple present in [1–4] would suppress the volitional meaning. In [5] the volitional meaning is metaphorically transferred to inanimate objects:

If your car *won't start*, call me any time and I'll help. ['refuses to'] [5]

(ii) where the modals express timeless and habitual prediction:

If drugs *will cure* him, this drug should do the job. [6]
If sugar *will dissolve* in a hot liquid, this chemical will do so too. [7]

Will can be replaced by *can* in [6] and [7]. In both sentences, the conditional clause does not refer to a specific actual situation.

(iii) where the modals express the present predictability of the occurrence or nonoccurrence of a future situation:

If you *won't arrive* before six, I can't meet you. ['If you won't be arriving before six'] [8]
If the game *won't be finished* until ten, I'll spend the night at your place. ['If the game is not going to be finished until ten'] [9]
If the water *will rise* above this level, then we must warn everybody in the neighbourhood. ['If the water is going to rise above this level, then we must now plan to warn everybody in the neighbourhood'] [10]
If she *won't be* here before midnight, there's no need to rush. [11]
If we definitely *won't win*, why should we bother to play? ['If we definitely aren't going to win, . . .'] [12]

The simple form is less usual in [8–12] than the progressive.

In [8–12] the matrix clause expresses the present consequence of the present predictability. In [8–9] the consequence is a present decision to take a future action, while in [10–12] it is a present decision that affects present action.

The modal can be replaced by the simple present in [8–9], but with a different implication. Contrast [8] with [8a]:

If you *don't* arrive before six, I can't meet you. ['in the event of your arrival after six'] [8a]

The situation in the conditional clause of [8a] is viewed as possibly occurring. In [10] replacement of the modal by the simple present yields the implausible sentence [10a]:

If the water *rises* above this level, then we must warn everybody. [*cf* 'when the water rises above this level, if it does so'] [10a]

Replacement of the modal by the simple present in [11] and [12] produces uninterpretable sentences.

Note [a] The simple present may be used for future reference in relative clauses that together with their antecedent express similar relationships to those expressed in the adverbial clauses:
I'll speak to her the first opportunity *I have*.
And similarly in appositive *that*-clauses modifying an appropriate noun phrase head:
We'll be there tomorrow on the assumption that it *doesn't rain*.
[b] The simple present in a conditional clause may refer to a state in present time:
If you *like* it, I'll give it to you.
For dynamic situation types, the present progressive is used to refer to present time:
If she's *working*, I won't interrupt her.

The hypothetical past and past perfective

14.23 The verbs in hypothetical conditional clauses are backshifted, the past tense form being used for present and future time reference and the past perfective form for past time reference (*cf* 15.36). When these forms have such hypothetical implications we term them HYPOTHETICAL PAST and HYPOTHETICAL PAST PERFECTIVE. The general rule for verbs in both clauses of hypothetical conditions may be expressed thus:

Table 14.23 Verbs in hypothetical conditions

	conditional clause	matrix clause
present and future reference	HYPOTHETICAL PAST	PAST MODAL
past reference	HYPOTHETICAL PAST PERFECTIVE	PAST PERFECTIVE MODAL

The modal most commonly used in the matrix clause is *would*. It is used to express the hypothetical implication, without necessarily any other modal implications:

If she {*tried* / *were to try*} harder next time, she *would pass* the examination.
[future reference: 'but I expect she won't try harder']
If they *were* alive, they *would be* moving around.
[present reference: 'but I assume they are not alive']
If they *had invited* him to the conference, he *would have attended*.
[past reference: 'but they didn't invite him']

As the bracketed implications indicate, the hypothetical meaning is more absolute in the past, and amounts to an implied rejection of the condition; whereas with present and future reference the meaning may be merely one of negative expectation or assumption, the positive not being ruled out completely. Depending on the lexical verb, the progressive might be necessary to convey present reference, as is indeed the case for *try*:

If she *were trying* harder, her parents *would*n't be so anxious.

When modal auxiliaries are used in hypothetical conditional clauses they combine with past and past perfective. In the matrix clause they replace

would, since two modal auxiliaries cannot cooccur. Modals in hypothetical conditions, apart from hypothetical *would*, are *would* in other uses, *could*, *might*, and *should*:

If they *would help* us, we *could finish* early. [volitional *would*, 'would be willing to']
If we had enough money, we *could* buy a typewriter.
If you *could type*, you *might save* a lot of time.
I *might have married* her if she *would have agreed*.
If they had asked me, I *would have had to speak*. [*have to* as substitute for *must*, which lacks a past form]
If he had apologized, you *should have done* so too. [obligational *should*]

Some BrE speakers maintain a distinction between *would* and *should* in the matrix clause parallel to that between *will* and *shall* (*cf* 4.42):

If I had been at home last night, I *should have heard* the noise.

Hypothetical past or past perfective are obligatory in certain other constructions that have hypothetical meaning:

It's time you *were* in bed.
I wish this bus *went* to the university.
If only I *had listened* to my parents!

They are optional with other constructions that also have hypothetical meaning (on the subjunctive *were*, *cf* 14.24):

He acts as if he *knew* you.
It's not as though we *were* poor.
Suppose we *told* her the truth.
Imagine your child *played* truant.
I'd rather we *had* dinner now.

Generally a negative inference can be drawn, which is more strongly negative with the hypothetical past perfective. Thus *If only I had listened to my parents* implies 'I did not listen to my parents', and *He acts as if he knew you* implies the expectation 'He doesn't know you'. In *I'd rather we had dinner now*, the hypothetical past may express tentative politeness rather than hypothetical meaning.

Note [a] The hypothetical past is also used after an archaic *Would that*, which expresses a wish:
Would that everyone *treated* me as considerately.
[b] Restrictive relative clauses modifying generic noun phrases (*cf* 15.34 Note [i]) and their matrix clauses take the same forms as hypothetical conditionals if they refer to a hypothetical situation:
Any person who *had behaved* in that way *would have been dismissed*.
[c] We have shown that the rules for past reference in a hypothetical condition require a past perfective in the conditional clause and a past perfective modal, generally *would have*, in the matrix clause:
If I *had* seen her, I *would have* told her.
The operators are frequently contracted in informal style:
If I'*d* seen her, I'*d have* told her.
In informal speech, the *have* in the second phrase is frequently reduced to /əv/ or /ə/, so that *I would have* may be rendered /aɪdə/. Informal AmE speech may have matching modals in both clauses:
If I'*d have* seen her, I'*d have* told her.

The first part of both clauses may then be rendered /aɪdə/. The contraction for the operator in the conditional clause is sometimes misinterpreted as replacing *had* rather than *would*, giving rise to an error that is found in uneducated writing and its fictional representation:

If I *hadda* seen her, I *woulda* told her.

The nonstandard spelling *I'da* is similarly found as a representation of /aɪdə/, and *of* is a frequent misspelling of *have* when *have* follows a modal.

[d] In informal AmE the hypothetical past is sometimes used for past reference in place of the hypothetical past perfective:

If they *invited* her to the conference, she would have attended.

[e] Ambiguities are occasionally found between open and hypothetical conditions (*cf* 15.35), since open conditions take the full range of verb forms:

If he *found* a patient listener, he *would pour* out his troubles.

This sentence may be a hypothetical condition referring to the future ('I don't think he'll find a patient listener') or an open condition referring to the past (*would* having a habitual meaning).

[f] In subordinate clauses following *I wish* (*that*), the hypothetical past may be replaced by hypothetical *would* or by a *to*-infinitive:

I wish { she *visited* / she *would visit* / her *to visit* } me more often.

The present and past subjunctive

14.24 The present subjunctive (*cf* 3.58*ff*) is used very occasionally in formal style in open conditional clauses (*cf* 15.33 Note [d], 15.36) and in concessive clauses (*cf* 15.41 Note [b], 15.42 Note [b]):

If any person *be* found guilty, he shall have the right of appeal.
Whatever *be* the reasons for their action, we cannot tolerate such disloyalty.
Whether she *be* right or wrong, she will have my unswerving support.

More usually, the simple present indicative is used.

Clauses of concession (*cf* 15.39*ff*) and purpose (*cf* 15.48) may also very occasionally in formal style contain a present subjunctive (esp in AmE) to express putative rather than factual meaning (*cf* 14.25):

Though he *be* the President himself, he shall hear us.
They removed the prisoner in order that he *not disturb* the proceedings any further.

The more usual verb forms for the *though*-clause are the simple present indicative or putative *should* followed by the infinitive. Clauses of purpose require modal auxiliaries, and therefore only the *should*-construction is a possible alternative.

The present subjunctive is also used in *that*-clauses (esp in AmE) after verbs, adjectives, or nouns that express a necessity, plan, or intention for the future:

Congress has voted that the present law *be* maintained. [1]

We insisted that { he / they } *leave* at once. [2]

They expressed the wish that { she / I } *accept* the award. [3]

It is essential that a meeting *be* convened this week. [4]

Notice that this mandative subjunctive (*cf* 3.59) is used even when the matrix verb is past (*cf* 14.25 Note [c]). If the matrix verb is present, the distinction between subjunctive and indicative is neutralized except in the third person singular or if the verb is *be*. In BrE, putative *should* with the infinitive is far more common. In both AmE and BrE, indicative forms are also occasionally used in this construction; for example, *left* in [2] and *is* in [4].

In general, the present subjunctive occurs more frequently in AmE than in BrE; in BrE it occurs chiefly in formal style.

The past (or *were*-) subjunctive (*cf* 3.62), which is a form distinct from the past indicative only in the first and third person singular forms of *be*, is used in formal style in hypothetical conditional clauses and in other constructions with hypothetical meaning exemplified in 14.23:

I wish she *were* not married. [5]
If only I *were* not so nervous. [6]
If she *were* here, she would speak on my behalf. [7]
The stuffed dog barked as if it *were* a real one. [8]
Suppose he *were* lost. [9]
I'd rather I *were* in bed. [10]

In nonformal styles, hypothetical past or indicative forms replace subjunctive *were*:

I wish she *was* not married. [5a]
If only I *was* not so nervous. [6a]
If she *was* here, she would speak on my behalf. [7a]
The stuffed dog barked as if it *was* a real one. [8a]
Suppose he { *was* / *is* } lost, what would you do? [9a]
I'd rather I *was* in bed. [10a]

The present indicative is a possible alternative after *as if* and *as though* when the reference is to present time (*eg*: 'The stuffed dog *barks* as if it *is* a real one') and after imperatives *suppose* and *imagine*.

Note [a] The use of the present subjunctive seems to be increasing in BrE in *that*-clauses. There is a greater use of the subjunctive than the indicative if the agentive (perhaps implied) in the *that*-clause is shown to be willing to perform the action. Contrast:

The committee was impressed by the candidate, but recommended that she *reapply* when she had been awarded her PhD.
He was *very reluctant* to leave, but I recommended that he *went*.

But in both instances the usual form for BrE is the *should*-construction, here *should go*.

[b] The *were*-subjunctive cannot replace the hypothetical past in constructions introduced by *It's time* (*that*), *eg*: *It's time I was in bed*.

[c] *May* and *might* are alternatives, also in formal style, to the present subjunctive in purpose clauses (*cf* 15.48), in concessive clauses with *though*, *even though*, and *even if* (*cf* 15.39*ff*), and in conditional-concessive clauses (*cf* 15.41*f*):

Poor though you *might* be, you cannot live all your life on charity.
Let us fight on, that the light of justice and freedom *may* not die in our land.
Whatever *may* be the justification for their actions, we cannot tolerate such disloyalty.

But there may be a difference in meaning between the subjunctive and the modal auxiliaries. In the last example, the subjunctive does not cast doubt on the factuality of its clause; that is, *Whatever be the justification for their actions* presupposes that there is justification, whereas the sentence with *may* allows the possibility that there is no justification.

[d] Present subjunctive *come* is used in a temporal clause (generally initial) without a subordinator:

Come winter, we'll have to pay a good deal more for vegetables and fruit. ['When winter comes, . . .']

Putative *should*

14.25 The modal auxiliary *should* is used extensively (esp in BrE, *cf* 14.24) in *that*-clauses to convey the notion of a 'putative' situation, which is recognized as possibly existing or coming into existence. Contrast:

I'm surprised that he *should feel* lonely. [1]
I'm surprised that he *feels* lonely. [2]

While [1] questions the loneliness, [2] accepts it as true. Here, as often, the difference is mainly one of nuance, since the factual bias of the matrix clause overrides the doubt otherwise implicit in the *should*-construction. On the other hand, the nonfactuality is clearer in these examples:

It's unthinkable that they *should deny* my request.
I prefer that she *should drive*.
I'm anxious that I *shouldn't be* in the way.
They've arranged that I *should absent* myself for part of the committee meeting.
I can understand their eagerness that you *should be* the main speaker.
It worries me that their children *should travel* alone.

The nonfactual bias of the *should*-construction emerges most clearly in instances where the construction is close in meaning to a conditional *if*-clause:

It's a pity *that* they *should be* so obstinate.
It's a pity *if* they *are* so obstinate.

In a further stage of remoteness, the conditional clause has putative *should*:

It's a pity *if* they *should be* so obstinate. ['It would be a pity if they turned out to be so obstinate']

Putative *should* is used in *that*-clauses when the matrix clauses contain verbs, adjectives, or nouns that convey an emotional reaction or that express a necessity, plan, or intention for the future. In the latter case, a *that*-clause with *should* is frequently replaceable by an infinitive clause:

I prefer *her to drive*.
They've arranged *for me to absent myself for part of the committee meeting*.

It is also frequently replaced (esp in AmE) by a present subjunctive (*cf* 14.24):

I prefer that she *drive*. [3]
We insisted that the meeting *be* adjourned. [4]
It was intended that you *be* the candidate. [5]

Indicative forms are occasionally used in BrE instead for [3] and [4].

A past verb in the matrix clause does not necessarily affect the form of *should* in the subordinate clause, even though the subordinate clause refers to a past situation:

I *was surprised* that *he should feel* lonely when he was in California.

But it is also possible to use a perfective form:

I *was surprised* that he *should have felt* lonely when he was in California.

Note [a] *Should* is also used in a subject *that*-clause when the matrix clause contains such verbs as *show, indicate, prove, demonstrate, require*, and *demand*:

That they *should refuse* to sign the petition required great courage.
It shows how considerate she is that she *should drive* you all the way to the airport.

[b] Putative *should* also occurs in some idiomatic questions and exclamations:

How *should* I know?
That he *should* dare speak in that tone of voice to me! [*cf* 11.41]
Who *should* come in but my youngest sister!

[c] The use of the present subjunctive or putative *should* in the subordinate clause evokes clearly the suasive meanings (*cf* 16.32) of the matrix verbs *insist* and *suggest*:

I *insisted* ['required'] that he {*change* / *should change*} his clothes. [6]

I *insisted* ['asserted'] that he *changed* his clothes. [7]

She *suggested* ['recommended'] that I {*be* / *should be*} responsible for the arrangements [8]

She *suggested* ['said tentatively'] that I *am* responsible for the arrangements. [9]

While [6] and [8] are unambiguously suasive, [7] and [9] may also be suasive for those who use the indicative even after suasive verbs.

The putative and obligational meanings of *should* sometimes merge:

The report recommended that education for the over-sixteens *should* be improved. ['. . . that education for the over-sixteens *be* improved' *or* '. . . that education for the over-sixteens *ought to be* improved']

[d] Similar to putative *should* is the tentative *should* used in open conditions with *if*-clauses (*cf* 15.36):

If she *should be* interested, I'll phone her.

It is also used in somewhat literary style, with inversion:

Should she *be* interested, I'll phone her.

The perfective with temporal clauses

The perfective with temporal *since*-clauses

14.26 A temporal *since*-clause generally requires the present perfective in the matrix clause when the whole construction refers to a stretch of time up to (and potentially including) the present:

I *have lost* ten pounds since I started swimming. [1]
Since leaving home, Larry *has written* to his parents just once. [2]

The perfective is also required when the clause contains a prepositional phrase introduced by *since* or the prepositional adverb *since*, just as it is required for certain other prepositional phrases and adverbs (*cf* 4.23):

Scholars *have been writing* English grammars since the sixteenth century.
They called to see us three years ago, but I *haven't seen* them since.

In informal AmE, and increasingly in informal BrE, nonperfective forms are commonly used in matrix clauses with *since*-clauses and in clauses with preposition or adverb *since*:

I *lost* ten pounds since I started swimming. ⟨informal⟩ [1a]
Since leaving home, Larry *wrote* to his parents just once. ⟨informal⟩ [2a]

There are some exceptions to the general rule for matrix clauses. In most cases, both perfective and nonperfective forms are possible.

(i) Verbs used statively (*cf* 4.28*ff*) – particularly *be* and *seem* – may take nonperfective forms when the predication is durative:

It'*s* OK since I had it fixed.
Things *are* different since you've gone.
Since Pat left, it *seems* dull here.
I'*m feeling* much better since I had an operation.

In all these instances, perfective forms may also be used, *eg*: *Things have been different since you've gone.*

The most common pattern that falls under this exception is *It* + BE + a time expression, in which the verb may be in the simple present or simple past, or have the *will*-future. Nonperfective forms are normal here:

It'*s* ten years since they were last here.
How long *is* it since you last spoke to them?
It *was* ages since they last paid their bills on time.
Next Tuesday it *will be* six years since I became an American citizen.

Other verbs, particularly *seem*, also fit into this pattern:

It *seems* a long time since we last met.
It *feels* like ages since I was last here.

Perfective forms may also be used here too, *eg*: *It's been ten years since they were last here*; *It had been ages since they last paid their bills on time*; *Next Tuesday it will have been six years since I became an American citizen.*

(ii) Modal auxiliaries, particularly *can* and *could*, or semi-auxiliaries occur in the matrix clause in nonperfective forms. *Ever* is usual here:

(Ever) since my teeth were pulled out I *can't* eat anything solid. [3]
I *have to* use crutches (ever) since I had a car accident. [4]
They *won't* smoke (ever) since they saw a film on lung cancer. [*won't* ≠ 'refuse to'] [5]

The modals cannot be used here in perfective forms, but perfective forms are available for semi-auxiliaries or equivalent lexical verbs:

(Ever) since my teeth were pulled out *I haven't been able to* eat anything solid. [3a]
I *have had to* use crutches (ever) since I had a car accident. [4a]
They *have* {refused to / decided not to} smoke (ever) since they saw a film on lung cancer. [5a]

Perfective modals may be used when the matrix clause refers to a situation in the past:

Since he *left* home, Larry *may have written* to his parents just once.

(iii) The simple present or the present progressive is sometimes used in the matrix clause when that clause has habitual reference:

(Ever) since we bought that car we *go* camping every weekend.
I'*m doing* well since I invested in the money market.

When the whole period under consideration is distanced in past time, the past perfective is generally used in the matrix clause:

Since the country had achieved independence, it *had revised* its constitution twice. [6]
Ever since they had joined the organization, they *must have had* little time for leisure activities. [7]

The past perfective may be replaced by the simple past, *eg*:

Since the country achieved independence, it *revised* its constitution twice. [6a]

When the period in the matrix clause refers to a future situation, a modal perfective (generally *will have*) is used in the matrix clause:

If the promotion is confirmed, you *will have been* promoted three times since you joined the company.
By tomorrow Daniel *will have been* in bed for a week since he caught the flu.
Their car *should* soon *have run* 100,000 miles since they bought it second-hand.

When the period in the matrix clause refers to a future time in the past, *ie* a future from the viewpoint of a past period (*cf* 4.48), a past modal perfective (generally *would have*) is used in the matrix clause. The construction is rare:

A: By next Sunday Harry will have completed 1200 miles since he started his walk.
B: At that rate, he *would have covered* 1000 miles by last Sunday.

We now consider the verb in the *since*-clause. When the whole construction refers to a stretch of time up to (and potentially including) the present, the general rule for the temporal *since*-clause is that the simple past is used when the clause refers to a point of time marking the beginning of the situation referred to in the matrix clause and the present perfective is used when the clause refers to a period of time lasting to the present:

POINT OF TIME

She has been talking since she *was* one year old.
Since I *started* swimming, I have lost five pounds.
Since I *saw* her last, she has dyed her hair.
Derek hasn't stopped talking since he *arrived*.

Similarly:

By tomorrow Daniel will have been in bed for a week since he *caught* the flu.

PERIOD OF TIME

Max has been tense since he'*s been taking* drugs.
Since I *have been* here, I haven't left my seat.
Since I'*ve known* Caroline, she has been interested in athletics.
I've had a dog ever since I'*ve owned* a house.
I've gone to concerts ever since I'*ve lived* in Edinburgh.

Similarly:

By next year Mary will have written her second book since she'*s been* at this university.

The present perfective may also be used in the pattern *It* + BE + time expression, when there is no explicit indication of point of time, such as *last*: *It's been a long time since I've seen Gerald* (*cf*: *I haven't seen Gerald for a long time*). The present perfective is similarly used occasionally for other *since*-clauses that refer to a point of time, *eg*: *I've been lonely since you've left*.

When the whole period is placed in past time, the past perfective or the simple past is used in the *since*-clause (*cf* backshift, 14.31). The past perfective corresponds to a past of the simple past or a past of the present perfective. It tends to be used more commonly for periods of time, corresponding to the use of the present perfective in the constructions previously discussed:

Since the country (*had*) *achieved* independence, it (had) revised its constitution twice.
Since he {*had known* / *knew*} her, she {had been / was} a journalist.

Similarly:

By last Sunday he would have covered 1000 miles since he (*had*) *started* his walk.

Note [a] The nonperfective forms *can remember* and *could remember* are used in *since*-clauses to indicate the span over which personal memory extends:
My parents have spent their summer vacations in France ever since I *can remember*.
Ever since she *could remember*, the winters in her home town had been severe.
Ever is commonly used with this collocation.
[b] When we say that the construction refers to a stretch of time up to the present, we mean that the situation occurred within a period of time leading towards, but not necessarily up to, the moment of utterance:
I've read ten books since I left college (but I haven't read any books in the last couple of months).
Since we've owned a car we've gone camping every year except last year (and I'm afraid we're going to have to miss this year again).
On the anterior time zone, *cf* 4.18*f*.

The perfective with other temporal clauses

14.27 When an *after*-clause refers to a past event, the verb may be in the past perfective, though it is more commonly in the simple past:

We ate our meal after we {*returned* / *had returned*} from the game. [1]

If a construction with a *when*-clause refers to a sequence of two past events, the clause allows the same choice:

We ate our meal when we {*returned* / *had returned*} from the game. [2]

All four forms of these sentences are acceptable, and mean roughly the same. The only difference is that *when* and the simple past (probably the most popular choice) suggests that the one event follows immediately on the other in sequence.

There may, however, be a contrast if the subordinator is *when* and the predication in the subordinate clause is durative rather than punctual (*cf* 4.33*ff*):

They walked out when I {*gave* / *had given*} the lecture. [3]

The variant with the simple past would normally mean 'as soon as I started giving the lecture' or 'during the time I was giving the lecture', whereas that with the past perfective means 'after the lecture was over'.

If the sequence of events is habitual, the verb in the *after*- or *when*-clause may be in the present perfective, though it is more commonly in the simple present:

Every day we eat our main meal {after / when} we {*return* / *have returned*} from the game. [4]

Again, there may be a contrast when the predication is durative:

The audience claps when she {*sings*. / *has sung*.} [5]

The differences in the interpretations of the *when*-clauses in [4] and [5] parallel those for the *when*-clauses in [2] and [3] respectively.

The present perfective is sometimes used in both clauses of a temporal construction to imply the repetitiveness of the situation:

In the past, when(ever) I'*ve visited* London, I'*ve seen* them.
My usual practice is that as soon as I'*ve taken* a shower, I'*ve eaten* breakfast.

The use of the present perfective rather than the simple present suggests that the situation may not apply in the future (for example, that I'm no longer going to visit London).

The present perfective is common in temporal as well as conditional clauses for a future event that precedes the future event referred to in the matrix clause (*cf* 14.22):

When I'*ve read* the chapter, I'll put the kettle on. [6]
When they'*ve scored* their next goal, we'll go home. [7]
As soon as I'*ve retired*, I'll buy a cottage in the country. [8]
After they *have left*, we can smoke. [9]
If I'*ve written* the paper before Monday, I'll call you. [10]

A common alternative for [7–10] is the simple present, which is excluded from [6] because the *when*-clause is durative. A less common alternative, permitted also for [6], is *will* or (in BrE optionally with *I* or *we*) *shall* plus the perfective, *eg*: *When I'll have read the chapter, I'll put the kettle on.*

The use of the past perfective in *before*-constructions requires special consideration. These four sentences seem to be equivalent in meaning:

I *saw* him before he *saw* me. [11]
I *had seen* him before he *saw* me. [12]
I *saw* him before he *had seen* me. [13]
I *had seen* him before he *had seen* me. [14]

Sentence [13] appears to be paradoxical in that the second in the succession of events is marked with the past perfective, contrary to what we have noted above in *after*- and *when*-clauses. The explanation (*cf* 15.27) is that the *before*-clause in [13], and perhaps also in [14], may be nonfactual; that is to say, the event in the *before*-clause may not have taken place ('He did not get a chance to see me, because I evaded him').

Note [a] If the verb phrase in the matrix clause is progressive, or contains a verb used statively, *when* generally indicates simultaneity, rather than successivity, of the events:
When Paul returned home, his children *were using* the computer.
We *were* asleep when Norma telephoned.
However, *when* may sometimes have the meaning of 'after' even if the verb is used statively:
When I returned home, I *heard* my children playing in my bedroom.
I *didn't know* what to do when they left.
When always indicates simultaneity when the conditions apply to both clauses:
Pamela *was* always popular when she *was* at school.
The sun *was* shining when we *were playing*.
They *were working* when I *was* there.
[b] *Whenever* requires the verbs in the matrix and subordinate clauses to be matched in both tense and aspect. Hence if *whenever* replaced *when* in [2] and [3] above, both verbs would be in the simple past, and in [4] and [5] both would be in the simple present.

Reporting the language of others

14.28 There are several modes in which other people's language may be reported. The most explicit modes are introduced by a REPORTING CLAUSE referring to the speaker and the act of communication in speech or writing (*Caroline said*; *Caroline wrote*), and perhaps also to the person or persons spoken to (*Caroline told us*), to the manner of speaking (*Caroline said hesitantly*), or to the circumstances of the speech act (*Caroline replied*; *Caroline explained*; *Caroline said while washing her hair*).

If a reporting clause introduces the report of the communication, the REPORTED CLAUSE (which refers to the utterance itself) may take the form of

DIRECT SPEECH (*cf* 14.29) or INDIRECT SPEECH (*cf* 14.30*ff*). Direct speech purports to give the exact words that someone (who may be the reporter) utters or has uttered in speech or in writing. Indirect speech, on the other hand, conveys in the words of a subsequent reporter what has been said or written by the original speaker or writer (who again may be the same person as the reporter). Contrast the direct speech in [1] with the indirect speech in [1a]:

David said to me after the meeting, 'In my opinion, the arguments in favour of radical changes in the curriculum are not convincing.' [1]
David said to me after the meeting that in his opinion the arguments in favour of radical changes in the curriculum were not convincing. [1a]

Two secondary modes related to the primary modes of reporting are FREE INDIRECT SPEECH and FREE DIRECT SPEECH. In both these secondary modes there is no reporting clause; the act of communication is signalled by, for example, shifts in the tense forms of verbs (*cf* 14.35).

The report may be a representation of mental activity (internal communication), which by its nature is unspoken. Thus, [2] and [2a] contain direct speech and indirect speech respectively:

'Should I tell them now,' I thought to myself, 'or should I wait until they're in a better mood?' [2]
He asked himself whether he should tell them then or wait until they were in a better mood. [2a]

Obviously, this type of direct or indirect speech normally involves a report of the supposed mental activity of the speaker of the reporting clause. The notable exception is in prose or verse fiction, where by convention the narrator is often assumed to have access to the thoughts and feelings of the characters.

Indirect speech frequently involves paraphrase or summary, and therefore the hearer or reader cannot uniquely recover the original speech or writing. The original utterance of [1] might well be reported as in [1b]:

David told me after the meeting that he remained opposed to any radical changes in the curriculum. [1b]

Indeed, the act of communication may not be indicated at all:

I saw David after the meeting. It's a pity that he remains opposed to any radical changes in the curriculum. [1c]

While [1b] is indirect speech, although a paraphrase of the original, [1c] does not have the recognizable form of a reported communication, and is irrelevant to the present discussion.

Note [a] Direct speech is also termed 'oratio recta', and indirect speech is also termed 'oratio obliqua' and 'reported speech'. Free indirect speech is also known by the German term *erlebte Rede* and by the French term *style indirect libre*.
[b] For the omission of reporting clauses with direct speech in certain written styles, *cf* 14.29.

Direct speech

14.29 Direct speech is usually signalled by being enclosed in quotation marks (*cf* App III.21):

The President said, 'A failure by Congress to approve new taxes will lead to larger budget deficits, higher interest rates, and higher unemployment.' [1]

The reporting clause may occur before, within, or after the direct speech. Medial position is very frequent. When the reporting clause is positioned medially or finally, subject–verb inversion may occur if the verb is in the simple present or simple past:

'I wonder,' { *John said* / *he said* / *said John* }, 'whether I can borrow your bicycle.' [2]

'The radio is too loud,' { *Elizabeth complained.* / *she complained.* / *complained Elizabeth.* } [3]

Inversion is most common when the verb is *said*, the subject is not a pronoun, and the reporting clause is medial, as in [2]. It is unusual and archaic, however, when the subject of the reporting clause is a pronoun, even when the verb is *said* (*eg*: *said he*).

Direct speech may extend over many sentences. The reporting clause is then usually positioned within the first sentence.

Reporting clauses are often omitted, however, in the representation of conversation in fiction writing when the identity of the speakers is obvious from the context; quotation marks are sometimes omitted too. Reporting clauses and quotation marks are regularly omitted in written plays, in formal reports of meetings, and in some types of headlines; instead the name of the speaker (usually in capitals or italics and followed by a colon or period) prefaces the direct speech.

The structural relationship between the reporting clause and the direct speech poses some analytical problems. In some respects the direct speech functions as a subordinate clause:

Dorothy said, '*My mother's on the phone.*' [4]

In [4] the direct speech seems to be a direct object. We can ask a *what*-question and elicit the direct speech as a response:

A: What did Dorothy actually say?
B: 'My mother's on the phone.' [5]

We can make it the subject complement in a pseudo-cleft construction (*cf* 18.29*f*):

What Dorothy said was '*My mother's on the phone.*' [6]

Furthermore, in both [4] and [6] the structure is defective without the direct speech, which obligatorily complements *said* in [4] and *was* in [6]. Compare also:

The words that Dorothy actually used were 'My mother's on the phone.'

Here *were* requires complementation by a subject complement. Then, the direct speech may be appositive to a unit that is clearly a part or the whole of the direct object:

Dorothy used *the following* words: '*My mother's on the phone.*'

Finally, coordination with a following clause suggests that the reporting clause is an obligatory part of the first clause, in that coordination would otherwise not be possible:

'The radio is too loud,' *Elizabeth complained*, and she then stalked back to her room.

On the other hand, we can view the reporting clause as subordinate, functioning as an adverbial. Thus, like most adverbials it can be positioned variously and can – at least sometimes – be omitted. Both syntactically and semantically, it resembles the most important type of comment clause (*cf* 15.54). Compare the reporting clause in [7a] with the comment clause in [7b] and the adverb in [7c]:

'Generals,' *they alleged*, 'never retire; they merely fade away.' [7a]
Generals, *it is alleged*, never retire; they merely fade away. [7b]
Generals, *allegedly*, never retire; they merely fade away. [7c]

Moreover, the direct speech clause behaves like a main clause in that it can, for example, be a question or a directive:

Dorothy said, 'Is my mother on the phone?' [8]
Dorothy said, 'Tell my mother I'll be over soon.' [9]

But, of course, the reporting clause behaves likewise:

Did you really say to Ronald, 'You're my best friend'? [10]
Tell Richard, 'You're my best friend.' [11]

Finally, we may note the usual punctuation separation of the reporting clause (though this is not necessarily reflected intonationally), which suggests another parallel with comment clauses and many other adverbials. Indeed, if the direct speech clause is analysed as an object, this is the only construction where the subject and verb are separated from the object by a comma (*cf* App III.9, App III.21). Contrast the punctuation of [11] for direct speech with that of [11a] for indirect speech:

Tell Richard (that) he's my best friend. [11a]

It is best to recognize that there is a gradient from direct speech that is clearly independent to direct speech that is clearly integrated into the clause structure. At the most independent extreme we have direct speech without a reporting clause. Next along the gradient are instances where the reporting clause is medial or final and it exhibits subject–verb inversion:

'I wonder', *said John*, 'whether I can borrow your bicycle.'

Here there are severe restrictions on the form of the verb, and pronouns are

generally excluded as subject. Further along the gradient are instances where the reporting clause is medial or final but without subject–verb inversion. Notice that the reporting clause is restricted also here to some extent in that it cannot readily be a question or a directive, a restriction that applies also when there is subject–verb inversion. There follow sentences like [4], where the reporting clause is initial and suffers from fewer restrictions. Most integrated are the partial quotations, as in this version of [1]:

The President said that a failure by Congress to approve new taxes would lead to 'larger budget deficits, higher interest rates, and higher unemployment.' [1a]

Here we have a mixture of indirect and direct speech, the direct speech being only a part of a clause, and the reporting clause being implicit: '. . . would lead to what he said were larger budget deficits, higher interest rates, and higher unemployment'.

Here are some reporting verbs of speaking or thinking that are frequently used with direct speech, the most common of which is *say*:

add	*comment*	*object*	*say*
admit	*conclude*	*observe*	*shout (out)*
announce	*confess*	*order*	*state*
answer	*cry (out)*	*promise*	*tell*
argue	*declare*	*protest*	*think*
assert	*exclaim*	*recall*	*urge*
ask	*explain*	*remark*	*warn*
beg	*insist*	*repeat*	*whisper*
boast	*maintain*	*reply*	*wonder*
claim	*note*	*report*	*write*

In addition, there are numerous other verbs indicating the manner of speaking that are occasionally used with direct speech; for example, *falter, mumble, murmur, mutter, snap, sneer, sob.*

Note [a] Pronunciation and other speech features may be imitated in a spoken rendering of direct speech. In writing it may be indicated by irregular spelling or, to a limited extent, by italics or underlining. In both media, the reporting clause may have indications of the manner of speaking (*Tom lisped, Jacqueline whispered, Charles hinted darkly, John said casually*). Such indications are common in some fiction writing.

[b] In conversation, *says you, says he*, etc (with the invariant *-s*) are sometimes used in casual style as an impolite retort meaning 'That's what *you* say', 'That's what *he* says', etc:

A: I'm going to win this game. B: *Says you!*

In old-fashioned speech, the nonstandard inversion *says I* sometimes occurs. The historic present (*cf* 4.8) is occasionally used in spoken narrative.

[c] In journalistic writing, a reporting clause with inversion sometimes occurs even in initial position: *Declared tall, nineteen-year-old Napier: 'The show will go on'.*

[d] Unlike indirect speech, direct speech may acceptably contain grammatical errors or even be in another language if it purports to give a record of the communication of another person:

He said, 'I know not well English.'

[e] It is common in newspaper reporting to omit quotation marks in what appears to be direct speech, as exemplified in the first sentence in the following:

New horses *will* strengthen the breed, Mr Steiner claimed. He said the newcomers *would* arrive after the epidemic was halted.

The second sentence switches to indirect speech, as indicated by the tense backshifts (*cf* 14.31).

Indirect speech

14.30 Typically, indirect speech is used to report statements, and takes the form of a nominal *that*-clause (*cf* 15.4):

Neighbours said *that as a teenager he had earned his pocket money by delivering newspapers.* [1]

In [1] the indirect speech is a direct object, but in [2] it is an extraposed subject and in [3] a subject complement:

It was said *that as a teenager Max had earned his pocket money by delivering newspapers.* [2]

What neighbours said was *that as a teenager he had earned his pocket money by delivering newspapers.* [3]

Reporting verbs that are used with indirect speech include those listed as frequently used with direct speech (*cf* 14.29). Lists of verbs of speaking and thinking used with indirect speech may be found in 16.31. Among the common verbs are *believe, feel, imagine, know, mention, realize, recognize, suppose.*

We have observed earlier (*cf* 14.28) that a reporter using indirect speech may paraphrase or summarize; changes may be made from the original wording without affecting the essential truth of the report. For example, the original wording may be as in [4]:

'My first task today,' said the teacher, 'will be to examine current views on the motivations for armed conflicts.' [4]

The indirect speech in [4a] approximates as closely as possible in that mode to the original wording:

The teacher said that his first task that day was to examine current views on the motivations for armed conflicts. [4a]

The hearer or reader, however, cannot be sure how close the indirect speech of [4a] is to the original wording, since [4a] could legitimately report the wording in [4b] instead:

'What I want to do now,' said the teacher, 'is to look at contemporary theories of the causes of wars.' [4b]

If, however, the report had been conveyed by [4c], there is no clear correspondence with the reported clause in direct speech:

The teacher announced his intention of discussing the causes of wars. [4c]

When the report is conveyed through indirect speech as in [4a], we can specify the changes in wording that are required because the situation of the utterance by the reporter may differ in certain respects from that of the utterance by the original speaker. The differences affect the use of deictic features of the language, those features that relate to the time and place of the utterance and to the persons referred to in the utterance. They include:

(i) tense forms of the verb
(ii) other time references, *eg*: *yesterday, now, last week, next Monday*

(iii) place references, *eg*: *here*, *there*
(iv) personal pronouns
(v) the demonstratives *this* and *these*

Changes in tense forms are discussed in 14.31 and the other changes in 14.32. Further changes may be required to identify references in the original utterance that may not be known to the person receiving the report, for example the identity of persons or things referred to by pronouns.

Note As with other *that*-clauses, the conjunction *that* is frequently omitted from the reported clause in less formal indirect speech.

Backshift in indirect speech

14.31 The reporting verb may be in the present tense for communications in recent past time, as in [1] and [2]:

Joan *tells* me she's going to the airport in an hour's time. [1]
She *says* she *was* too busy to join us last night. [2]

The present tense is also used for reports attributed to famous works or authors which have present validity, as in [3] and [4]:

The Bible says there's no end to the writing of books. [3]
Chaucer somewhere writes that love is blind. [4]

The choice of verb form in the reported clause depends on the time reference of the verb. Thus, the verbs in [1], [3], and [4] exemplify the state present (*cf* 4.5), while *was* in [2] refers to a time previous to the time of reporting as well as to the time of the original utterance.

Verbs of cognition may also be used in the reporting clause in the present tense:

I *know* they *don't* care.
Sylvia *thinks* Paul *went* to Lancaster last night.

When the time reference of the original utterance (or mental activity) no longer applies at the time that the utterance (or mental activity) is reported, it is often necessary to change the tense forms of the verbs. Such a change of verb forms in indirect speech is termed BACKSHIFT. The resulting relationship of verb forms in the reporting and reported clauses is known as the SEQUENCE OF TENSES (*cf* 19.39). The changes can be illustrated best if we postulate an exact correspondence for the reporting clauses of direct and indirect speech.

DIRECT SPEECH	BACKSHIFTED IN INDIRECT SPEECH
(i) present	~ past
(ii) past	~ past or past perfective
(iii) present perfective (iv) past perfective	~ past perfective

Thus, if the present deictic references in the direct speech become past deictic references in the indirect speech, there is a corresponding shift of

verb forms into the past, or if necessary into the past perfective. Examples of each part of the rule are:

'I *am being paid* by the hour,' she said.
~ She said she *was being paid* by the hour. [5]
'The exhibition finished last week,' explained Ann.
~ Ann explained that the exhibition {*finished* / *had finished*} the preceding week. [6]
'I'*ve been waiting* over an hour for you,' she told him.
~ She told him that she *had been waiting* over an hour for him. [7]
'I *had studied* French for four years at school,' I said.
~ I said that I *had studied* French for four years at school. [8]

The choice in [6] represents the usual choice of a simple past in place of a past perfective when the context makes the relative time references clear, in this instance by the use of *the preceding week*. There is no change in [8] because the past perfective already expresses 'past in the past' and no further backshift to 'past in the past in the past' can be expressed. As [5] and [7] illustrate, the rule is not affected by combinations of the simple and perfective forms with progressive and passive forms.

Backshift is optional when the time-reference of the original utterance is valid at the time of the reported utterance, *cf* [5], [7], and [8]. Thus, the shift is obligatory in [9], but optional in [10]:

'I *am* a citizen, not of Athens, but of the world,' said Socrates.
~ Socrates said that he *was* a citizen, not of Athens, but of the world. [9]
'Nothing *can* harm a good man,' said Socrates.
~ Socrates said that nothing {*could* / *can*} harm a good man. [10]

Since the statement by Socrates in [9] deals with what is now past, it has to be reported by application of the backshift rule. The statement in [10], on the other hand, is a universal rule which, if it was true for Socrates' lifetime, should also be true today; the backshift rule is therefore optional.

Here are other examples where present forms may be retained in indirect speech:

Their teacher had told them that the earth *moves* around the sun. [11]
Sam told me last night that he *is* now an American citizen. [12]
I heard her say that she *is* studying Business Administration. [13]
A Yale professor has said that the Brooklyn Bridge *is* the most majestic embodiment of the American experience of the road. [14]
They thought that prison conditions *have* improved. [15]
I didn't know that our meeting *is* next Tuesday. [16]
She said that they *are* being discriminated against. [17]
The waiter told me that lunch *is* now being served. [18]

In all these sentences, past forms may also be used, by optional application of the backshift rule. Sentence [11] has the simple present in its timeless use, whereas the verbs in the subsequent sentences have a limited time-reference.

The appropriateness of the present forms in [12–18] therefore depends on their reference at the time of the reported utterance. For example, if at that time Sam had changed his citizenship, or if his citizenship was then in doubt, an appropriate form of [12] would be, for example:

Sam told me in 1970 that he *was then* an American citizen. [12a]

Similarly, if a long time had elapsed between the original utterance reported in [15] or if there was doubt as to its present validity, the past perfective would be used:

They thought that prison conditions *had* improved. [15a]

Again, if [18] were reporting what the waiter had said not five minutes ago but five days ago it would have read:

The waiter told me that lunch *was* then being served. [18a]

Note [a] If the indirect speech itself contains a subordinate clause, then the verb of that subordinate clause may be in the present tense because of current validity even though both the main verb of the sentence and the superordinate verb are in the past:

They *reminded* us that they *had* frequently *denied* that the drug *has* any therapeutic value.
She *thought* she *had told* me that breakfast *is served* between seven and ten.

[b] Backshift from simple past to past perfective is necessary when the simple past in the indirect speech may be misinterpreted as representing a simple present:

She said, 'I *was married* (, but my husband died last year).'
~ She said that she *had been married*.

Contrast, where there is no possibility of misinterpretation:

She said, 'I was married in church.'
~ She said that she {*was married* / *had been married*} in church.

[c] Backshift is normal if the proposition in the indirect speech is considered to be false:

The ancients *thought* that the sun *moved* around the earth, but from the time of Galileo it *was known* that the reverse *is* true.

[d] When *can't* or *couldn't* is combined with *say* or *tell* in a reporting clause, one meaning of the combination is roughly the same as *don't know* or *didn't know*:

I *can't* {say / tell you} where she *is*. ['I don't know']
They *couldn't* {say / tell me} who *called*. ['They didn't know']

[e] Since the simple past in indirect speech may represent either the simple past or the simple present of direct speech, it may give rise to ambiguity where both interpretations are plausible:

A: She told me the game *started* at seven.
B: {It *didn't*. / It *doesn't*.}

Other changes in indirect speech

14.32 If the identities of the person speaking and the person addressed are not identical in the situations of the original and reported utterances, the personal pronouns need to be changed. PRONOUN SHIFT requires the shift of 1st and 2nd person pronouns to 3rd person pronouns or to nouns, when the persons referred to in the original utterance are absent in the reported utterance:

'*I*'ll behave *myself*,' he promised.
~ He promised that *he*'d behave *himself*.

'*I* like *your* tie,' she told John.
~ She told John that *she* liked *his* tie.
'*You* know *my* family,' she said.
~ She told *him* [or *Tom*, for example] that *he* knew *her* family.
'*You* are too noisy,' Pamela told them.
~ Pamela told *them* that *they* were too noisy.

1st and 2nd person pronouns are used as appropriate to the reporting situation:

'*You* should be ashamed of *yourself*,' she told me.
~ She told me that *I* should be ashamed of *myself*.
'*I* am *your* friend, *Bob*,' he said to me.
~ He said to me that *he* was *my* friend.

Similarly, in reporting to Margaret a statement about herself:

'*Margaret* is very clever,' Tom said to *me*.
~ Tom told me that *you* are very clever.
'*Margaret* is in *my* class,' I said to him.
~ I told him that *you* were in *my* class.

We mention briefly other shifts that may be necessary. If the time relationship between time references in the indirect speech and the time of the utterance has changed between the original utterance and the reported utterance, it is necessary to make adjustments. Time references are changed variously according to the time of the reported utterance: for example, *yesterday* to *the day before yesterday*, *last Monday*, or *June 10*; *now* to *then*; *next Monday* to *last Monday* or *Monday two weeks ago*. If the places of the utterances are different, place references are changed accordingly: for example, *here* to *there*, or (if the reference is to the place of the reporting utterance) *there* to *here*, or the places may need to be specified by name. Demonstratives are also changed if the relative distancing has changed: *this* and *these* to *that* and *those*, but again the reverse if there is greater proximity at the time of the reported utterance.

Indirect statements, questions, exclamations, and directives

14.33 Our examples have so far been of indirect statements; but all the main sentence types (questions, exclamations, directives, as well as statements) may be converted into indirect speech. The constructions are as follows:

INDIRECT STATEMENT:	*that*-clause (15.4)
INDIRECT QUESTION:	dependent *wh*-clause (15.5*f*)
INDIRECT EXCLAMATION:	dependent *wh*-clause (15.7)
INDIRECT DIRECTIVE:	{*that*-clause (15.10*f*) / *to*-infinitive clause (without subject) (15.10*f*)}

Here are examples of the last three categories:

'Are you ready yet?' asked Joan. [YES–NO QUESTION]
~ Joan asked (me) *whether I was ready yet*.
'When will the plane leave?' I wondered. [WH-QUESTION]
~ I wondered *when the plane would leave*.

'Are you satisfied or not?' I asked her. [ALTERNATIVE QUESTION]
~ I asked her *whether or not she was satisfied.*
'What a brave boy you are!' Margaret told him. [EXCLAMATION]
~ Margaret told him *what a brave boy he was.*
'Tidy up the room at once,' I said to Tom. [DIRECTIVE]
~ I insisted *that Tom* { *tidy* ⟨esp AmE⟩ / *should tidy* ⟨esp BrE⟩ } *up the room at once.*
~ I told Tom *to tidy up the room.*
'Have another apple,' Carol suggested (to me). [DIRECTIVE]
~ Carol suggested *that I* { *have* ⟨esp AmE⟩ / *should have* ⟨esp BrE⟩ } *another apple.*
~ Carol asked me *to have another apple.*

All the types of changes outlined in 14.31*f* apply to questions and exclamations as well as statements. With directives, there is no tense backshift in the verb forms exemplified above: mandative subjunctive, putative *should*, *to*-infinitive (*cf* 14.24*f*).

Directives in fact involve the summary type from which it is not possible to reconstruct the exact words of the direct speech.

If the *to*-infinitive construction is used for an indirect directive, the reporting clause normally requires an indirect object or a prepositional object:

'Eat your food up,' she begged him.
~ She begged him to eat his food up.
'Sit down,' I snapped at him.
~ I snapped at him to sit down.
'Don't say anything,' he whispered to her.
~ He whispered to her not to say anything.

Note [a] If the subject of the infinitive is not present in an indirect directive, it is understood to be identical with the indirect object or prepositional object when it is present:
She told me *to call again tomorrow.* ['that I should call again tomorrow']
I whispered to them *to be quiet.* ['that they should be quiet']
The subject may be introduced by *for*, especially in AmE, except when the reporting verb is ditransitive *tell*:
She said *for us to sit down.* I shouted *for them to clear the way.*
If the verb is *say* and the *for*-construction is not used, the subject is understood from the situational context:
She said *to sit down.*
[b] Echo questions occasionally occur in indirect speech:
A: Are you going home? B: Am I going home? A: Yes, that's what I asked.
The second sentence might appear in indirect speech as *I asked if you asked if I was going home.* There are, however, no indirect constructions for echo exclamations.

The subjunctive and modal auxiliaries in indirect speech

14.34 There is no indirect speech construction for the optative subjunctive (*cf* 11.39), but when it is used to express a wish the construction with *may* (with a possible backshift to *might*) is sometimes a near-equivalent:

'God *bless* America!' she said.
~ She expressed the wish that God *might bless* America.

There is no backshift for the mandative subjunctive (*cf* 3.59):

'We insisted that he *leave* at once,' she said.
~ She said that they (had) insisted that he *leave* at once.

The past subjunctive (*cf* 14.24) or hypothetical past (*cf* 14.23) is backshifted to hypothetical past perfective if there is a change in time reference:

'If he *were* here, he would vote for the motion,' she said.
~ She said that if he *had been* there, he would have voted for the motion.
'If she *stayed* another day, he would drive her home,' he said.
~ He told me the following week that if she *had stayed* another day, he would have driven her home.

Backshift is optional if the proposition in the indirect speech is still valid:

'If I *were* in New York, I *would* visit the current exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum,' he said.
~ He said that if he [*were* / *had been*] in New York, he [*would visit* / *would have visited*] the current exhibition at the Metropolitan Museum.

If there is a change in time-reference, a modal auxiliary is backshifted from present tense forms to past tense forms even if the past tense forms do not normally indicate past time in direct speech:

'You *may* be able to answer this question,' he told her.
~ He told her that she *might* be able to answer that question.
'I *won't* pay another penny,' I said.
~ I said that I *wouldn't* pay another penny.

If a modal auxiliary in the direct speech is already in the past tense form, then the same form remains in the indirect speech:

'You *shouldn't* smoke in the bedroom,' he told them.
~ He told them that they *shouldn't* smoke in the bedroom.
'We *could* be wrong,' I told them.
~ I told them that we *could* be wrong.
'I *could* speak Spanish when I was young,' I said.
~ I said that I *could* speak Spanish when I was young.
'When I was in college I *would* study till two or three in the morning,' she recalled.
~ She recalled that when she { *was* / *had been* } in college she *would* study till two or three in the morning.

In the last two examples (with *could* and *would*), the modal auxiliaries have past time reference in the direct speech, and therefore backshift entails changing to the perfective.

Several modal auxiliaries or marginal modals have only one form: *must*, *ought to*, *need*, and *had better*. That form remains in indirect speech:

'You *must be* hungry,' he said.
~ He said that they *must be* hungry.
'You *had better* not say anything about this,' he warned me.
~ He warned me that I *had better* not say anything about that.

In its obligational sense, however, the past of *must* may be replaced by *had to* in indirect speech:

'You *must* be in by ten tonight,' his parents told him.
~ His parents told him that he {*must* / *had to*} be in by ten that night.

As always, backshift (where possible) is optional if the proposition in the indirect speech is valid at the time of utterance:

'Persistence *can* overcome all obstacles,' she said.
~ She said that persistence {*can* / *could*} overcome all obstacles.

Note [a] If they are followed by a perfective infinitive, modal auxiliaries in the reporting clause are counted, for purposes of backshift, as past tense forms:
'What *are* you doing?' I ought to have asked.
~ I *ought to have asked* what he *was* doing.
[b] Backshift normally occurs in the subordinate clause after an attitudinal past used for politeness (*cf* 4.16):
What did you say your name {*is*? / *was*?}
I wondered if you *would* lend me some flour.
We were hoping you *would* stay with us.
There is no implication in these examples of past time reference.

Free indirect speech and free direct speech

14.35 FREE INDIRECT SPEECH is used extensively to report speech or (particularly in fiction) the stream of thought. It is basically a form of indirect speech, but (a) the reporting clause is omitted (except when retained as a parenthetical clause, as in direct speech), and (b) the potentialities of direct-speech sentence structure are retained (for example, direct questions and exclamations, vocatives, tag questions, and interjections). It is therefore only the backshift of the verb, together with equivalent shifts in personal pronouns, demonstratives, and time and place references, that signals the fact that the words are being reported, rather than being in direct speech. The italicized verbs below are backshifted to the past tense:

So that *was* their plan, *was* it? He well *knew* their tricks, and *would show* them a thing or two before he *was* finished. Thank goodness he *had* been alerted, and that there *were* still a few honest people in the world!

FREE DIRECT SPEECH is also used in fiction writing to represent a person's stream of thought. It is basically a form of direct speech, but it is merged with the narration without any overt indication by a reporting clause of a switch to speech. It is distinguished from the past time reference of the narration by its use of present-tense forms. In the following examples the parts in free direct speech are italicized:

I sat on the grass staring at the passers-by. Everybody seemed in a hurry. *Why can't I have something to rush to?*
A fly kept buzzing around, occasionally trying to settle on me. I brushed it off. It came back. *Keep calm! Wait until it feels safe. There! Got it.* On my hand was a disgusting flattened fly, oozing blood. I wiped my hand on the grass. *Now I can relax.*

We understand these as if there were quotation marks around the free direct speech.

Note For direct speech with a medial reporting clause but without quotation marks, *cf* 14.29 Note [e].

Transferred negation

14.36 TRANSFERRED NEGATION, particularly common in informal style, is the transfer of the negative from a subordinate clause (generally a *that*-clause), where semantically it belongs, to the matrix clause. For example, *I don't think it's a good idea* can have two meanings, one in which the negation applies to the matrix clause, and one in which it applies through transferred negation to the subordinate clause ('I think it isn't a good idea'). It is the difficulty of distinguishing the first meaning from the second that in part accounts for the transfer. Another explanatory factor is that generally the focus is on the content of the subordinate clause, which is pragmatically more important: the meaning of the sentence approximates to 'It's probably not a good idea'. The first meaning, however, becomes prominent if the focus is on *think*: *I don't THINK it's a good idea; I KNOW it is.* In this context, transferred negation does not take place. Because of the presence of the two meanings of the matrix clause, the negative force of the transferred negation in *I don't think it's a good idea* is weaker for the subordinate clause than in the less common *I think it isn't a good idea*, where the negative is actually present in the clause.

The matrix verbs that allow transferred negation fall into several semantic groups:

(a) OPINION: *anticipate, be supposed to, believe, calculate, expect, figure* ⟨informal AmE⟩, *imagine, reckon* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩, *suppose, think*

I don't believe I've met you before. ['I believe I haven't met you before']
She didn't imagine that we would say anything. ['She imagined we wouldn't say anything']
He didn't expect to win. ['He expected not to win']

(b) PERCEPTION: *appear, seem; feel as if, look as if, sound as if* [these three verbs are also used informally, especially in AmE, with *like* in place of *as if*]

It doesn't seem that we can get our money back. ['It seems that we can't get our money back']
The baby doesn't appear to be awake. ['The baby appears not to be awake']
It doesn't look like it's going to rain. ['It looks like it isn't going to rain']

Transferred negation is an unclear phenomenon: intuitions may differ as to whether and to what degree two sentences with differently placed negatives are synonymous. Consider, for example, negative sentences with *likely* and *probable*:

It isn't {likely / probable} that oil prices will fall this year. [1]

It is not clear to what extent [1] is synonymous with [2]:

It's {likely / probable} that oil prices won't fall this year. [2]

A lack of synonymy becomes evident if the adjectives are intensified:

It isn't very {likely / probable} that oil prices will fall this year. [1a]

It's very {likely / probable} that oil prices won't fall this year. [2a]

Not all verbs in the same semantic field allow transferred negation. For example, *assume*, *presume*, and *surmise*, though similar to some of the verbs listed in (a) above, do not generally allow the transfer (*cf* Note [e]). The following two sentences, for example, are not equivalent in meaning:

I didn't assume that he knew me.
I assumed that he didn't know me.

The addition of modal auxiliaries or adverbials in the matrix clause may prevent transferred negation with verbs that otherwise allow it:

I can't believe that they are married.
You mustn't think he's stupid.
I wouldn't have imagined that Sandra would be here.
I didn't ever suppose they were happy.
It just didn't seem that it would rain.

Note [a] Transferred negation has also been termed 'negative raising' and 'negative transportation'.
[b] *Wish* allows transferred negation in infinitive clauses, but not in finite clauses:
I don't wish to be rude. ['I wish not to be rude']
[c] *Say* allows transferred negation if it is used with some modal auxiliaries (principally *wouldn't* and *couldn't*):
I wouldn't say I trust them. ['I would say that I don't trust them']
[d] In *can't seem* and *couldn't seem*, the meaning of the modal auxiliary is also transferred:
They can't seem to concentrate. ['They seem not to be able to concentrate']
[e] Verbs like *assume* sometimes allow transferred negation:
I don't assume it need happen under those circumstances.
I don't presume it would be in your best interest to acknowledge the insulting remarks.

[f] Many of the matrix verbs that allow transferred negation appear also in comment clauses (*cf* 15.54). In comment clauses they do not permit the transfer of negation:
My parents won't say anything about it, I think.
It won't rain today, I (don't) believe.
They don't care, I (don't) suppose.
But verbs not otherwise allowing the transfer also appear in comment clauses, *eg*: *know*, *see*.
[g] The subordinate clause is under the scope of negation (*cf* 10.64) and therefore accepts nonassertive items (*cf* 10.60*f*):
They didn't think I'd *ever* met you before.
I don't suppose you've paid for it *yet*.
But this feature applies to subordinate clauses when transferred negation does not apply:
They didn't know I'd *ever* met you before.
When the subject of the matrix clause is *I*, the tag question corresponds with the subordinate clause:
I don't imagine he CÀRES, *DÒES he*? [~ I imagine he doesn't CÀRE, *DÒES he*?]
I don't think she knows FRÈNCH, DÒES *she*? [~ I think she doesn't know FRÈNCH, *DÒES she*?]
The use of the positive tag question with a falling tone is another indication that the subordinate clause is under the scope of negation. But again this feature is not limited to transferred negation:
I'm not sure he CÀRES, *DÒES he*?

Sentence complexity and comprehensibility

Combining subordination devices within a sentence

14.37 For simplicity of illustration, most of our examples in this chapter have been of sentences with just one subordinate clause. We now give some examples that illustrate how several devices of subordination can be combined in sentences. The sentences are fairly brief and not unduly complicated. All of them consist of one main clause, and none of the subordinate clauses are coordinated.

A B C
[They point out [that India has not had the luxury, [as the United States
C D E
did,] of [finding a fresh, virgin land at its disposal at the moment [when its
EDBA
modern development began.]]]]
(*The New York Times*, August 16, 1982, 1.4) [1]

AB B
[[To keep dirt roads even marginally useful,] barrier gates are swung shut
C C D
[when drops begin to fall,] [lest the roads become churned into
DA
impassability.]]
('Paraguay' by Gordon Young, *National Geographic*, August 1982, p. 259) [2]

A B C
[He was irritated at [Edwin taking [what seemed to him like an unfair
CB D E E
advantage]], [though [where the advantage lay] he could not have
DA
said.]]
(*Quartet in Autumn* by Barbara Pym, Perennial Library, 1980, Harper & Row, p. 95; first published 1977) [3]

A B B C
[In Kowloon he hired a car from the biggest outfit [he could find], [using
D E E
the escape passport and driving licence [because marginally [he thought]
F FDCA
the false name was safer [if only by an hour.]]]]
(*The Honourable Schoolboy* by John Le Carré, Bantam Books 1978, p. 462; first published 1977) [4]

A B
[A House-Senate conference committee agreed today [to preserve a feature
C D
of the tax code [that allows businesses [to deduct the cost of certain meals
DCB E F
]]] [as it moved toward final agreement on a bill [to raise taxes by $98.9
FEA
billion over three years.]]]
(*The New York Times*, August 16, 1982, 1.1) [5]

One of the factors which determine the order in which the constituent clauses of a sentence are arranged is the principle of RESOLUTION, the principle that states that the final clause should be the point of maximum emphasis (*cf* communicative dynamism, 18.3). In reading aloud, the resolutory effect of the final clause is often pointed by intonation. A typical reading of [1] would put rising or falling-rising tones on all points of information focus (18.9*ff*) except the last:

. . . ÓUT . . . LÚXury . . . STÀTES DÍD . . . disPÓSal . . . beGÀN

As rising and falling-rising tones have implications of nonfinality, the effect of this pattern is to build up a continuing sense of anticipation, which is at last resolved by the finality of the falling tone. This principle of resolution is the counterpart, on the sentence level, of the principle of end-focus (*cf* 18.3*f*) in the tone unit.

The principle of resolution is illustrated effectively in sentences [1–4]. It is infringed, however, in [5], since the *as*-clause is peripheral: *meals*, indeed, would probably receive a falling tone, although it is not the last point of information focus. This sentence was the first in this particular news item, and perhaps its arrangement accords with the journalistic practice (in contravention of the resolution principle) of presenting the most important information at the very beginning of the lead sentence. Nevertheless, the sentence would read more smoothly if the *as*-clause were positioned initially.

Note [a] The letters in sentences [1–5] serve to keep track of the bracketing. They do not always indicate a superordinate–subordinate relationship. For example, in sentence [2], clauses [B], [C], and [D] are all adverbials that are immediately subordinate to the complex sentence [A].
[b] The principle of resolution, along with the intonation pattern associated with it, is generally applicable only to restrictive adjunct clauses (*cf* 15.23). It does not apply to other syntactic types of adverbial clauses.

Positions of subordinate clauses

14.38 Subordinate clauses may be positioned initially, medially, or at the end of their superordinate clause (*cf* 8.14*ff* for adverbial positions). Initial position and end position are here taken to be the very beginning and the very end of the superordinate clause, except that a subordinate clause cannot of course precede the conjunction (if present) of the superordinate clause. For example, the *if*-clause in the following sentence is in *I* position in the superordinate *that*-clause:

I suspect that *if it rains* we won't go.

We visually represent the three arrangements in *Fig* 14.38a. The triangle marked 'M' represents the matrix clause and the triangle marked 'S' represents the subordinate clause.

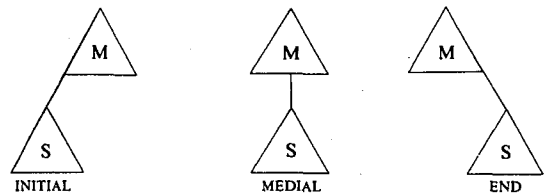

Fig 14.38a Placement of subordinate clauses

The lower clause is the subordinate clause, and its relative position in the superordinate clause (the combination of matrix and subordinate clauses) is indicated by the point from which the line leading to the lower triangle branches downward. Initial clauses are said to be LEFT-BRANCHING, medial clauses NESTING, and final clauses RIGHT-BRANCHING.

Examples of these three arrangements:

INITIAL: *When you're ready*, we'll go to my parents' place.
MEDIAL: We'll go, *when you're ready*, to my parents' place.
END: We'll go to my parents' place *when you're ready*.

We can now diagram in *Fig* 14.38b overpage the relative positions of the subordinate clauses in the five sentences in 14.37. If a subordinate clause is not an immediate constituent of its superordinate clause, we have inserted the triangle representing it within that for the superordinate clause; for example in [1], clause [D] is a complement of the preposition *of* and clause [E] is a postmodifier of *the moment*.

Clauses that are constituents of phrases almost always occur at the end of the phrases. If we consider the clauses that are immediate constituents of their superordinate clauses in [1–5], we see that most of the triangles in *Fig* 14.38b are right-branching. It is, in fact, a dominant tendency of syntactic

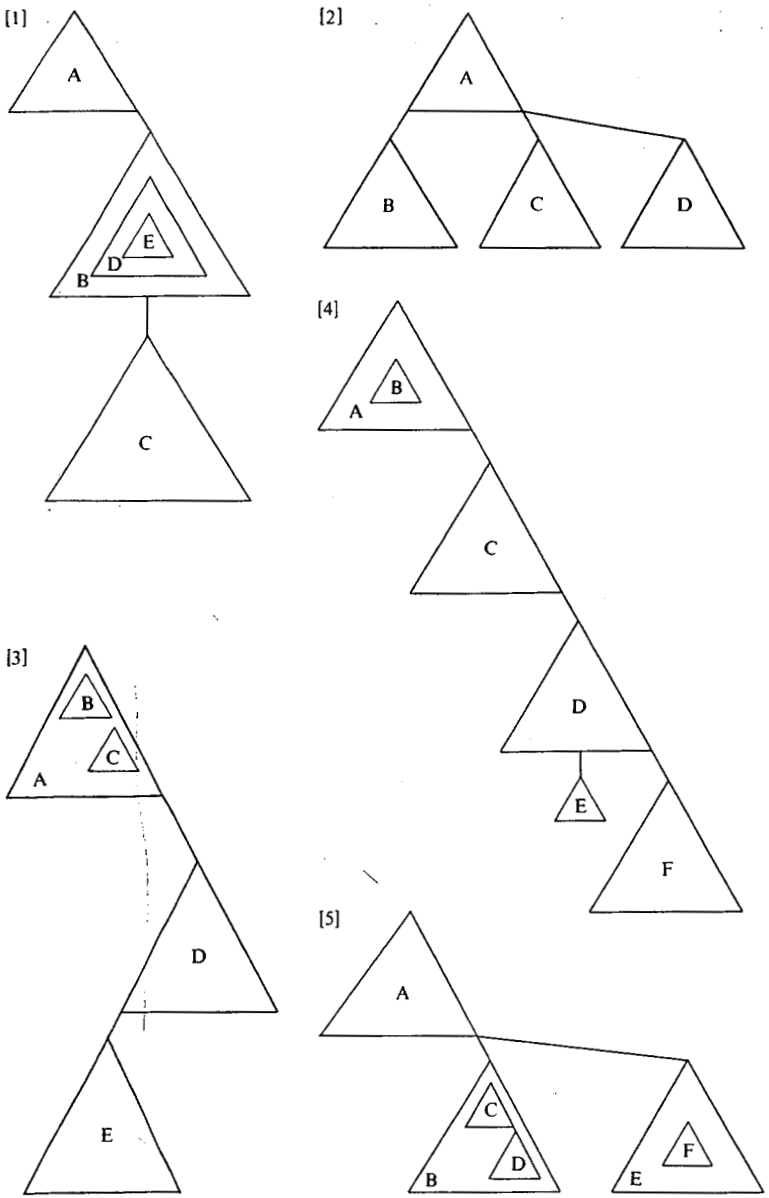

Fig 14.38b Structures of sentences 14.37 [1 - 5]

structure that the greatest depth of subordination is reached in the final part of the sentence.

14.39 Right-branching clauses are the easiest to comprehend. Considerable left-branching is possible in the noun phrase, as illustrated in the following genitive construction, although comprehension becomes more difficult as the complexity of left-branching increases:

12345 5 4 3 2 1
[[[[[Tom's] sister's] husband's] mother's] house]

But in clause structure, left-branching tends to be limited to two degrees of embedding:

1 2 3 4 4 3
[He said [that [if [when you've finished] you'd close the door] he'd be
21
very grateful.]] [1]

In [1] the *when*-clause is initial in the *if*-clause, and the *if*-clause in turn is initial in the *that*-clause. However this extent of embedding becomes extremely awkward and indeed incomprehensible if the clauses are positioned initially in the sentence, where the length and complexity of the clauses contravenes the principle of end-weight (*cf* 18.9):

* *That if when you've finished you'd close the door he'd be very grateful* was obvious to everyone present. [1a]

In initial position in the sentence, one degree of left-branching is possible, though still awkward:

12 3 3 2 1
[[That [if you could] you would help me] is of small comfort] [2]

We can reduce the awkwardness of [2] through extraposition of the subject (*cf* 18.33*ff*), thereby converting left-branching into right-branching:

1 2 3 321
[It is of small comfort [that you would help me [if you could]]] [2a]

Extraposition is usual, and the resulting sentence [2a] is much more acceptable than [2]. The change from [2] to [2a] brought about by extraposition is visually presented in *Fig* 14.39.

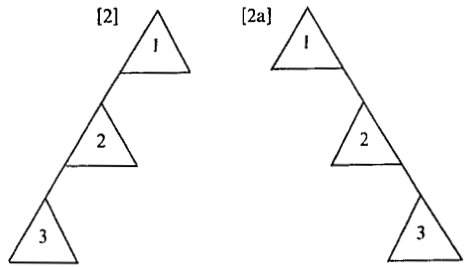

Fig 14.39 Structure of sentences [2] and [2a]

Nesting (medial branching) causes the most awkwardness, if the nested clause is long and is itself complex:

> Vanessa, whose brother Jim likes to tell at great length how he used to play tennis with famous movie stars when he lived in Los Angeles, is my best friend. [3]

Although the subordinate clauses within this nested relative clause are all right-branching, the nesting of just the one superordinate relative clause is sufficient to reduce the acceptability of the sentence. Contrast [3] with [3a], where by a switch of subject and subject complement the relative clause becomes right-branching, resulting in a much more acceptable sentence:

> My best friend is Vanessa, whose brother Jim likes to tell at great length how he used to play tennis with famous movie stars when he lived in Los Angeles. [3a]

There is a further factor contributing to the awkwardness of [3]: it violates the principle of end-weight. At the sentence level, this principle requires that the part of the sentence following the verb should be as long as, and preferably longer than, the part that precedes the verb.

Posing particular difficulties for comprehension is SELF-EMBEDDING, the medial subordination of one constituent within another constituent of the same kind. While the sentence (found in a well-known nursery story) *This is the . . . rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built* is tolerable and easily intelligible regardless of the number of relative clauses, the self-embedded alternative:

> ?* This is the house [that the malt [that the rat ate] lay in]
> (1 2 2 1)

is extremely awkward and not easy to understand, even though there is only one layer of self-embedding. We need add only a second layer of self-embedding to render the sentence completely baffling:

> * This is the house [that the malt [that the rat [that the cat killed] ate] lay in]
> (1 2 3 3 2 1)

The various arrangements of subordinate clauses, therefore, do not just concern stylistic options and their relative merits, but also the more basic question of what constitutes a possible English sentence.

Note Despite the overall tendency towards final subordination, certain types of adverbial clauses favour initial position. They include conjuncts (*cf* 15.18), subjuncts (*cf* 15.19), most style disjuncts (*cf* 15.21), and sentence adjuncts (*cf* 15.22). Moreover, adverbial correlative constructions with a correlative adverbial in the second clause (*cf* 14.13) not merely favour but require initial placement of the subordinate clause.

Subordination versus coordination

14.40 Coordination is the kind of link most used for optimum ease of comprehension. At the same time the link, especially with *and*, is vague in that it leaves the specific logical relationships to the inference of the speaker (*cf* 13.22*ff*).

In the following examples we seek to demonstrate correspondences between coordination and subordination, while preserving the information ordering. This ordering, however, has the effect of suggesting an initial positioning of subordinate clauses that is more frequent than usual.

SUBORD: Reaching for the phone, he asked for the operator. [1]
COORD: He reached for the phone and (then) asked for the operator. [1a]

SUBORD: Although admission was free, few people attended the lecture. [2]
COORD: Admission was free, but (nevertheless) few people attended the lecture. [2a]

SUBORD: If you push the door hard, it will open. [3]
COORD: Push the door hard, and (then) it will open. [3a]

SUBORD: Unless you give it back to me, I'll tell your mother. [4]
COORD: Give it back to me or (else) I'll tell your mother. [4a]

SUBORD: Over fifty demonstrators were arrested, some of them women. [5]
COORD: Over fifty demonstrators were arrested, and some of them were women. [5a]

SUBORD: When the ship arrived at Naples, the sailors were given shore leave for twelve hours. [6]
COORD: The ship arrived at Naples, and the sailors were (then) given shore leave for twelve hours. [6a]

SUBORD: I lent my bicycle to Robert, who lent it to David. [7]
COORD: I lent my bicycle to Robert, and he (then) lent it to David. [7a]

SUBORD: Whereas the Northeast and the Midwest are rapidly losing population, the Sun Belt states are receiving more people than they can cope with. [8]
COORD: The Northeast and the Midwest are rapidly losing population, and/but (at the same time) the Sun Belt states are receiving more people than they can cope with. [8a]

SUBORD: Mortimer exploded a firecracker during the lesson, as a result of which he was suspended from school for a week. [9]
COORD: Mortimer exploded a firecracker during the lesson, and as a result of that he was suspended from school for a week. [9a]

SUBORD: Discovered almost by accident, this substance has revolutionized medicine. [10]
COORD: This substance was discovered almost by accident, and it has (since) revolutionized medicine. [10a]

SUBORD: As Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others. [11]
COORD: Jane was the eldest, and (so) she looked after the others. [11a]

The conditional uses of *and* and *or* exemplified in [3a] and [4a] are rarely encountered in written English. On the other hand, the adverbial participle clauses in [1] and [10] (*cf* 15.58*ff*) are rarely encountered in spoken English.

Parataxis without a coordinator (*cf* 13.2) is also a common substitute for subordination. The clauses may be punctuated as separate sentences or they may be separated by semicolons or (in restricted circumstances, *cf* App III.6) by commas within the same orthographic sentence. The three examples are based on the last three pairs above:

Mortimer exploded a firecracker during the lesson; as a result he was suspended from school for a week. [9b]
This substance was discovered almost by accident. It has since revolutionized medicine. [10b]
Jane was the eldest, so she looked after the others. [11b]

Structural ambiguity

14.41 Ambiguities may arise in complex sentences when two interpretations are plausible. If a complex sentence contains two final subordinate clauses, as in [1], the last subordinate clause may be interpreted as subordinate (a) to the sentence as a whole or (b) to the preceding subordinate clause. The two paraphrases are given in [1a] and [1b] respectively.

I'll let you know whether I'll need you here when the doctor arrives. [1]
When the doctor arrives, I'll let you know whether I'll need you here. [1a]
I'll let you know whether, when the doctor arrives, I'll need you here. [1b]

The two structures are shown in *Fig* 14.41a.

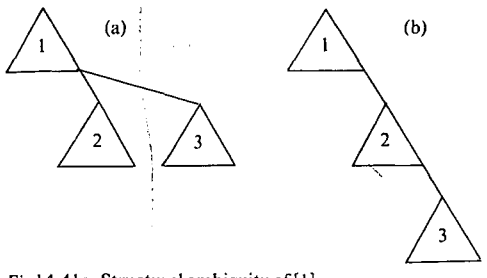

Fig 14.41a Structural ambiguity of [1]

If the (a) interpretation is intended, the last subordinate clause should be preposed, as in the paraphrase in [1a], since generally a final subordinate clause is interpreted as subordinate to the immediately preceding clause. But the final placement in [1] for the (a) interpretation is not uncommon. In conversation, any misinterpretation can be immediately corrected, but in writing the misplacement in [1] for the (a) interpretation is a stylistic error. The same ambiguities may occur with phrases as well as clauses:

Doris watched her children doing their homework *for a short time*.
I remembered having told Tom *soon afterwards*.

A similar ambiguity occasionally arises with two coordinated clauses followed or preceded by a subordinate clause:

John reported to me and I informed Bob that everything was ready. [2]
If Mary has recovered from the flu she is in the supermarket and the children are at a play centre. [3]

The interpretation of the sentences depends on whether the subordinate clause belongs (a) to both main clauses or (b) to only one of them. Punctuation (and in speech, intonation) can distinguish the two interpretations of [2]:

John reported to me, and I informed Bob, that everything was ready. [2a]
John reported to me, and I informed Bob that everything was ready. [2b]

For the [2a] interpretation of [3], separation by punctuation or intonation of only the subordinate clause may be sufficient:

If Mary has recovered from the flu, she is in the supermarket and the children are at a play centre. [3a]

A clearer alternative is to subordinate the second clause:

If Mary has recovered from the flu, she is in the supermarket while the children are at a play centre. [3a′]

For the (b) interpretation, the main clauses may be switched:

The children are at a play centre and, if she has recovered from the flu, Mary is in the supermarket. [3b]

Alternatively, the subordinate clause may be placed at the end of the first main clause:

Mary is in the supermarket, if she has recovered from the flu, and the children are at a play centre. [3b′]

Yet a further type of ambiguity involves a final coordinated clause which follows a subordinate clause. The ambiguity depends on whether the final clause (a) is a main clause or (b) is coordinated with the preceding subordinate clause:

I know (that) he's cheating and I can't do anything about it. [4]

If a relation of coordination is represented as △△, then the two interpretations of [4] can be represented as in *Fig* 14.41b.

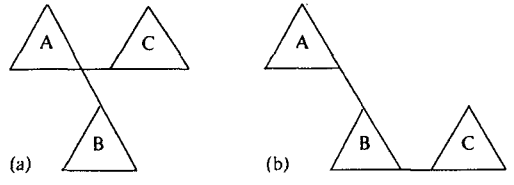

Fig 14.41b Structural ambiguity of [4]

To make it clear that interpretation (b) is intended, we could insert *that* at the beginning of the final clause as well as at the beginning of the first subordinate clause:

I know that he's cheating and that I can't do anything about it. [4b]

If we do not change the wording of [4] there is no sure way of insisting on interpretation (a), but the major syntactic break after *cheating* can be indicated at that point by a semicolon, or by a tone unit boundary and a pause. A clearer alternative requires in addition the omission of *and*:

I know that he's cheating; (however) I can't do anything about it. [4a]

In our discussion of structural ambiguity we have considered five devices that can be used to avoid ambiguity:

(1) changing the order of the clauses, as in [1a] [1b], [3b], [3b′]
(2) using punctuation to mark the major (*ie* least embedded) clause boundary, as in [2a], [2b], [3a]
(3) using intonation, if necessary endorsed by pause, to mark the major clause boundary, as in [2a], [2b], [3a]
(4) supplying ellipted elements, as in [4b]
(5) changing the structural relationship of the clause, *eg* from coordinate to subordinate, as in [3a′], or from coordinate to paratactic without a coordinator, as in [4a].

Bibliographical note

On the terminology for sentence and clause, see Greenbaum (1980).

On the complex sentence and subordination in general see Haegeman (1985); Hudson (1971); Nakajima (1982); Smaby (1974). On nonfinite and verbless clauses beginning with a subordinator, see Bäcklund (1984).

On the overlap of conjunction and preposition, see Jacobsson (1977a); Matthews (1981), esp 174–81.

On the choice of verb in subordinate clauses, see Palmer (1974; 1979), both *passim*. On more specialized topics, see Close (1980); Haegeman (forthcoming b); Johansson (1979); Quirk (1981). The last three cite evidence from elicitation experiments or from corpus analysis on the preferences for the mandative subjunctive, the *should*-construction, and the indicative.

On backshift in indirect speech, see Palmer (1974; 1979), both *passim*.

On transferred negation, see Cattell (1973); Horn (1978b); Lakoff (1969); Lindholm (1969).

On sentence complexity and comprehensibility, see Chomsky (1965), especially *pp* 10–14; Huddleston (1965); Rosenbaum (1967b); Williams (1979); Yngve (1961).

15 Syntactic and semantic functions of subordinate clauses

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Syntactic functions of subordinate clauses

15.1 Subordinate clauses may function as subject, object, complement, or adverbial in a superordinate clause:

subject: *That we need a larger computer* has become obvious.

direct object: He doesn't know *whether to send a gift.*

indirect object: You can tell *whoever is waiting* that I'll be back in ten minutes.

subject complement: One likely result of the postponement is *that the cost of constructing the college will be very much higher.*

object complement: I know her *to be reliable.*

adverbial: *When you see them,* give them my best wishes.

In addition, subordinate clauses may function within these elements, *eg:*

postmodifier in noun phrase: (Few of the immigrants retained) the customs *that they had brought with them.*

prepositional complement: (It depends) on *what we decide.*

adjectival complementation: (We are) happy *to see you.*

Note There are constraints on the functioning of clauses as indirect objects or as object complements. Among the finite clauses, only nominal relative clauses function as indirect object (but *cf* 15.4 Note [a]) or as object complement.

Functional classes of subordinate clauses

15.2 On the basis of their potential functions, we distinguish several major categories of subordinate clauses: NOMINAL, ADVERBIAL, RELATIVE, and COMPARATIVE. The functional classification resembles to some extent that of subclausal units such as noun phrases and adverbs.

NOMINAL CLAUSES have functions that approximate to those of noun phrases: subject, object, complement, appositive, and prepositional complement. Every nominal clause may function in some or all of these functions. Unlike noun phrases, however, nominal clauses may also function as adjective complementation without a preposition (*cf* 16.70):

I'm not sure *that I can remember the exact details.*

The privilege of occurrence of nominal clauses is more limited than that of noun phrases because semantically the clauses are normally abstract; *ie* they refer to such abstractions as events, facts, dates, and ideas rather than to perceptible objects. The one exception to this generalization is the nominal relative clause (*cf* 15.8 *f*), which may refer to objects (including persons) and which has some of the properties of a noun phrase consisting of head and postmodifying relative clause, the head and relative pronoun coalescing to form a single *wh*-element. Compare the equivalent sentences:

What pleases one party infuriates the other.
That which pleases one party infuriates the other. ⟨formal⟩

Since indirect objects normally refer to persons, we can see why the nominal relative clause is the only type of clause that can normally function as an indirect object. Nominal clauses that are involved in the complementation of verbs and adjectives are examined in detail in Chapter 16.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES (*cf* 15.17*ff*) function mainly as adjuncts or disjuncts (*cf* 15.20*f*). In those functions they are like adverb phrases, but in their potentiality for greater explicitness, they are more often like prepositional phrases:

We left *after the speeches ended.*
We left *after the end of the speeches.*
We left *afterwards.*

RELATIVE CLAUSES generally function as restrictive or nonrestrictive modifiers of noun phrases and are therefore functionally parallel to attributive adjectives. Compare:

a man *who is lonely* ~ a *lonely* man

But they are positioned like postmodifying prepositional phrases:

tourists *who come from Italy* ~ tourists *from Italy*

These adnominal relative clauses are discussed in detail in Chapter 17, the chapter concerned with noun phrases. Two types of relative clauses, however, are discussed in this chapter: the nominal relative clause (15.8*f*) and the sentential relative clause (15.57). The status of the nominal relative clause is indeed equivocal between noun phrase and nominal clause, but its resemblance to nominal clauses proper is sufficient to justify its treatment together with them. The sentential relative clause does not function as a modifier of a noun phrase; its relative item refers anaphorically to a unit larger than a phrase, usually to a clause but sometimes even to a series of sentences. The inclusion of the sentential relative clause in this chapter is warranted by its resemblance in certain respects to adverbial clauses.

COMPARATIVE CLAUSES (*cf* 15.63*ff*) resemble adjectives and adverbs in their modifying functions:

He's not *as* clever a man *as I thought.*
I love you *more* deeply *than I can say.*

Semantically, the comparative clauses together with their correlative element (*eg*: *more, as, -er*) are equivalent to degree adverbs.

Nominal clauses

15.3 Nominal clauses (clauses approximating in function to noun phrases) fall into six major categories:

that-clauses, or subordinate declarative clauses (15.4)
subordinate interrogative clauses (15.5*f*)

subordinate exclamative clauses (15.7)
nominal relative clauses (15.8*f*)
to-infinitive clauses (15.10*f*)
-ing clauses (15.12*ff*)

Nominal clauses may take *it* or *that* as pro-forms:

I know *that you mean well*, but THEY don't know *it*.
How a book sells depends on the author, but *it* also depends on the publisher.
I hope *to see you tomorrow*, but *that* depends on the weather.
Collecting stamps was her hobby, but she has given *that* up.

That-clauses

15.4 Nominal *that*-clauses may function as:

subject: *That the invading troops have been withdrawn* has not affected our government's trade sanctions.

direct object: I noticed *that he spoke English with an Australian accent.*

subject complement: My assumption is *that interest rates will soon fall.*

appositive: Your criticism, *that no account has been taken of psychological factors*, is fully justified.

adjectival complementation: We are glad *that you are able to join us on our wedding anniversary.*

They may not, however, function as object complement or (but *cf* 9.2) as prepositional complement.

When the *that*-clause is direct object or complement, the conjunction *that* is frequently omitted except in formal use, leaving a zero *that*-clause:

I know *it's late.*

It is similarly omitted frequently when a subject *that*-clause (with anticipatory *it*) is extraposed (*cf* 18.33*ff*):

It's a pity *you don't know Russian.*

But otherwise *that* cannot be omitted in a subject clause, since without the subordinate marker the clause would be initially misinterpreted as a main clause:

**You don't know Russian* is a pity.

Subject *that*-clauses are usually extraposed. Extraposition is particularly preferred when the superordinate clause is interrogative or passive:

Is *it* possible *that they can't afford to rent that apartment*?
It was thought *that the cease-fire still held.*

If the superordinate clause is exclamatory, extraposition is obligatory:

How strange *it* is *that the children are so quiet*!

Object *that*-clauses are normally extraposed when they cooccur with an object complement:

Their daughter's success makes *it* very likely *that she will return to California*.

Note [a] A nominal *that*-clause functioning as indirect object is marginally acceptable and rare:
They would not give *that she passed her examination with distinction* any consideration in determining her salary.

[b] The zero *that*-clause is particularly common when the clause is brief and uncomplicated. Retention of *that* is necessary under certain conditions other than when the clause is an unextraposed subject:
(i) to clarify whether an adverbial belongs to the matrix clause or the *that*-clause:
They told us once again *that the situation was serious*.
They told us *that once again the situation was serious*.
(ii) to prevent a coordinated *that*-clause from being misinterpreted as a coordinated main clause (*cf* 14.41):
I realise that I'm in charge and *that everybody accepts my leadership*.
~ I realize that I'm in charge, and everybody accepts my leadership.
(iii) when the object *that*-clause is fronted (as with an initial subject clause):
That she ever said such a thing I simply don't believe.
(iv) when a clause or a long phrase intervenes between the verb and the *that*-clause:
We decided, in view of his special circumstances, *that we would admit him for a probationary period*.

[c] Like most other nominal clauses, nominal *that*-clauses cannot be object complements, but alternative *to*-infinitive constructions are available with some verbs (*cf* 16.50*f*):
*I thought his argument *that we should pay*.
~ I thought his argument *to be that we should pay*.
Also a finite construction:
~ I thought (*that*) *his argument was* (*that*) *we should pay*.

[d] If the subject of the *that*-clause is a pushdown *wh*-element (*cf* 11.18) and is therefore moved to the front of the superordinate clause, the subordinator *that* must be omitted, perhaps to prevent *that* being initially misinterpreted as subject of the following verb:
Who did she hope would be the winner? [1]
**Who* did she hope *that* would be the winner? [1a]
They pointed out the damage *which* they supposed had been done by last night's storm. [2]
*They pointed out the damage *which* they supposed *that* had been done by last night's storm. [2a]
Contrast [1b] with [1] and [1a]:
Who did she hope (*that*) *that* would be? [1b]
In [1b], the second *that* is indeed the subject of the *that*-clause; *who* is the subject complement and therefore the subordinator *that* may be optionally retained, the presence of a subject *that* before the verb preventing misinterpretation.
Here are several other examples of optional *that* when the *wh*-element is not the subject and hence a subject appears before the verb in the *that*-clause:
Who do you expect (*that*) *they* have chosen?
She told me *how* she thought (*that*) the machine worked.
They mentioned the name of the men (*who*) they knew (*that*) you had spoken to.

Wh-interrogative clauses

15.5 Subordinate *wh*-interrogative clauses occur in the whole range of functions available to the nominal *that*-clause (*cf* 15.4) and in addition may function as prepositional complement:

subject: *How the book will sell* depends on the reviewers.

direct object: I can't imagine *what they want with your address*.

subject complement: The problem is *who will water my plants when I am away*.

appositive: Your original question, *why he did not report it to the police earlier*, has not yet been answered.

adjectival complementation: I'm not sure *which she prefers*.

prepositional complement: They did not consult us on *whose names should be put forward*.

These subordinate clauses resemble *wh*-questions semantically (*cf* 11.14 *ff*) in that they leave a gap of unknown information, represented by the *wh*-element. Contrast the known information expressed in the *that*-clause with the unknown information in the *wh*-clause:

I know (*that*) *Caroline* will be there.
Do you know *who* will be there?
I'm sure (*that*) *Ted* has paid.
I'm not sure *who* has paid.

The type of subordinate *wh*-interrogative clause that most closely resembles *wh*-questions is the indirect *wh*-question (*cf* 14.33):

She asked me *who would look after the baby*.

Compare the direct question:

She asked me, 'Who will look after the baby?'

But we can claim a chain of resemblance from the request for an answer to a question (as in the indirect question) through uncertainty about the answer (as in *I'm not sure who will look after the baby*), certainty about the answer (*It's obvious who will look after the baby*), expressions of other mental states or processes about the answer (*I found out who will look after the baby, It's irrelevant who will look after the baby*), and informing about the answer (*I told you who would look after the baby*). In all instances a question is explicitly or implicitly raised, a question focused on the *wh*-element.

There are also grammatical similarities to independent *wh*-questions:

(i) the *wh*-element is placed first in its clause, as in all the examples in this section. If the *wh*-element is a prepositional phrase, we have the same choices as for the *wh*-element in *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.14, and Note [a] below):

I asked them *on what* they based their predictions. ⟨formal⟩
I asked them *what* they based their predictions *on*.

(ii) The *wh*-elements have the same range of functions as the *wh*-elements in *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.15).

(iii) Although the subordinate clause usually does not have subject–operator inversion, such inversion may occur, particularly when the clause functions as complement and the superordinate verb is BE or when it functions as appositive:

The problem is *who can we get to replace her*.

Your original question, *why did he not report it to the police earlier*, has not yet been answered.

Furthermore, the superordinate predications that allow *wh*-clauses will generally also allow *yes–no* interrogative clauses:

Whether the book will sell depends on the reviewers.
I'm not sure *whether she prefers coffee.*
They did not consult us on *whether our names should be put forward.*

An infinitive *wh*-clause can be formed with all *wh*-words, though instances with *why* are rare:

I don't know *what to say.* ['. . . what I should say.']
You must explain to them *how to start the motor.*
['. . . how one/they should start the motor.']
I never know *who to speak to.* ['. . . who one/I should speak to.']
I'm wondering *where to put my coat.* ['. . . where I should put my coat.']
I'm wondering *why to go at all.* ['. . . why I should go at all.']

The infinitive clause has an obligational sense.

Note [a] As with *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.15 Note [a]), the final preposition following BE in certain informal questions must be deferred:
I can imagine *what it is like.* [**like what it is*]
I'm not sure *who it's for.* [**for whom it is*]
The preposition is generally deferred in:
I can't understand *what you did that for.* [**for what you did that*]
[b] In literary style, subject–verb inversion occasionally occurs when the *wh*-element is the subject complement or an obligatory adverbial, particularly if the subject is lengthy:
She told us *how strong was her motivation to engage in research.*
It took me some time to discover in which village stood the memorial to our fallen comrades.
In addition subject–operator inversion is common in Irish English and dialectally:
Whenever I see her, she asks *when will I be visiting her mother.*
[c] Prepositions are optionally omitted before *wh*-clauses:
We have solved the problem (*of*) *who was at fault.*
I'm not sure (*about*) *what to do.*
[d] There may be more than one *wh*-element in the clause:
I don't know *who* wants *what.*
Compare the multiple *wh*-elements in *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.19).
[e] The case distinction in formal contexts between subjective *who* and objective *whom* depends on the function of the *wh*-word in its clause:
I do not know *who wants you.*
I do not know { *who you want.* / *whom you want.* ⟨formal⟩ }
The distinction applies regardless of a governing preposition in the superordinate clause, since the complement of the preposition is the whole clause, not the *wh*-word:
It depends on *who wants you.*
It depends on { *who you want.* / *whom you want.* ⟨formal⟩ }
Nevertheless, the preceding preposition sometimes influences speakers to use objective *whom* as a hypercorrection even when it has the function of subject in the *wh*-clause. Except in formal contexts, *who* is used for all functions.
What we have said in this Note applies equally to the case distinction between subjective *whoever* and formal objective *whomever* in nominal relative clauses.
[f] Some noun phrases correspond semantically to subordinate *wh*-clauses, in contexts where such clauses are also appropriate:

He explained the way to the park. ['. . . how to get to the park.'] [1]
We found out the time it takes to get there. ['. . . how long it takes to get there.'] [2]
I don't know the { culprit. ['. . . who the culprit is'.] / person you want. } [3]
She asked the reason for the delay. ['. . . why there was a delay.'] [4]
Example [3] can also mean 'I am not acquainted with the culprit/the person you want'.

Yes–no and alternative interrogative clauses

15.6 Subordinate *yes–no* interrogative clauses (*cf* 11.5*ff*) and subordinate alternative interrogative clauses (*cf* 11.20*f*) occur in the whole range of functions available to subordinate *wh*-interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5), and may include infinitive clauses. The *yes–no* clause is introduced by the subordinators *whether* or *if*:

Do you know *whether the banks are open*?
I wonder *if you can help me.*

The alternative clauses are formed with the correlatives *whether . . . or* or *if . . . or*:

I can't find out [*whether* / *if*] *the flight has been deLÁYED or*
[*whether* / *if*] *it has been CÀNcelled.* [1]

If, as in [1], the second unit is a full clause, the subordinator is repeated. It is not repeated in [2–4], where the second unit is an abbreviated form:

They didn't say *whether it will RÁIN or be SÙNny.* [2]
I asked them *if they wanted MÉAT or FÌSH.* [3]
I don't care *if they JÓIN us or NÔT.* [4]

The abbreviated forms parallel those for independent alternative *yes–no* questions (*cf* 11.21). Repetition is optional with *to*-infinitive clauses:

He didn't tell us *whether to wait for him or* (*whether*) *to go on without him.*

But the subordinator is not repeated if the second clause is abbreviated by the omission of the infinitival *to*:

He didn't tell us *whether to wait for him or go on without him.*

Whether-clauses pose alternatives more obviously than *if*-clauses, which can be ambiguous between this construction and that of conditional clauses. *Whether*-clauses, unlike *if*-clauses, may be used where there is little resemblance to an indirect question:

It's irrelevant { *whether* / ?*if* } *she's under sixteen.*

You have to justify { *whether* / **if* } *your journey is really necessary.*

If tends to be more frequent than *whether* in informal style for *yes–no* clauses.

On the other hand, *if* is more restricted syntactically than *whether*. It must occur as complementation of verbs and adjectives, in consequence of which it is excluded from certain contexts:

(i) *If* cannot introduce a subject clause unless the clause is extraposed:

Whether she likes the present / **If she likes the present* } is not clear to me.

It's not clear to me { *whether* / *if* } *she likes the present.*

(ii) *If* cannot introduce a subject complement clause:

My main problem right now is *whether I should ask for another loan.*
?*My main problem right now is *if I should ask for another loan.*

(iii) The *if*-clause cannot be the complement of a preposition:

It all depends on *whether they will support us.*
?*It all depends on *if they will support us.*

(iv) The *if*-clause cannot be an appositive:

You have yet to answer my question, *whether I can count on your vote.*
?*You have yet to answer my question, *if I can count on your vote.*

In addition:

(v) *If* cannot introduce a *to*-infinitive clause:

I don't know *whether to see my doctor today.*
*I don't know *if to see my doctor today.*

(vi) *If* cannot be followed directly by *or not*:

He didn't say *whether or not he'll be staying here.*
*He didn't say *if or not he'll be staying here.*

But *or not* can be postposed:

He didn't say *if he'll be staying here or not.*

Note [a] There is a close connection between conditional *if* and interrogative *if*; both convey doubt about the truth value of the clause. Compare:
If she wants you, (then) she will say so.
Does she want you? (Then) she will say so.
Where ambiguity may arise, intonation or punctuation separation may sometimes be necessary to distinguish the interrogative from the conditional clause:
interrogative [SVO_iO_d]:
I'll tell you later *if I can find the time.* [*if* = *whether*]
conditional [SVO_iA]:
I'll tell you later, *if I can find the time.* ['If I can find the time, I'll tell you later.']
[b] As with *either* (*cf* 13.39*ff*), *whether* or *if* can be used for more than two choices, despite a tradition of binary association (*cf* 15.41 Note [d]):
I don't care *whether* you do your homework *or* play outside *or* go to bed.
[c] On *whether*- and *if*-clauses as complementation of verbs such as *doubt*, *cf* 16.73.
[d] There is some prescriptive objection to *or not* as redundant.

Exclamative clauses

15.7 Subordinate exclamative clauses generally function as extraposed subject, direct object, or prepositional complement:

extraposed subject: It's incredible *how fast she can run.* ['It's incredible that she can run so fast.']

direct object: I remember *what a good time I had at your party.* ['I remember that I had such a good time at your party.']

prepositional complement: I read an account of *what an impression you had made.* ['I read an account that you had made an excellent (*or* a terrible) impression.']

As in independent exclamative clauses (*cf* 11.31*f*), the exclamative element is formed with *what* as predeterminer in a noun phrase and *how* as intensifier of an adjective, adverb, or clause; the exclamative element is positioned initially regardless of its normal position in a declarative clause.

Subordinate exclamative clauses generally have the same form as subordinate interrogative clauses introduced by *what* or *how* (*cf* 15.5). However, in exclamative clauses *what* is a predeterminer (preceding the indefinite article), while in interrogative clauses *what* is either a central determiner or a pronoun. Thus [1] with predeterminer *what* is unambiguously exclamative, while [2] with central determiner *what* and [3] with pronoun *what* are unambiguously interrogative:

They didn't know *what a crime he had committed.*
['. . . the terrible crime he had committed.'; *cf*: *What a crime he had committed!*] [1]

They didn't know *what crime he had committed.*
['. . . the identity of the crime he had committed.'; *cf*: *What crime had he committed?*] [2]

They didn't know *what the crime was.*
['. . . the identity of the crime'; *cf*: *What was the crime?*] [3]

The distinction between predeterminer and central determiner *what* is neutralized for noncount nouns (*what foolishness*) and plural nouns (*what crimes*).

If the superordinate clause has a predication appropriate for both types of clauses and the *wh*-words are *how* or *what* with a noncount or plural noun, the subordinate clause may be ambiguous:

You can't imagine *what difficulties I have with my children.*
exclamatory interpretation: You can't imagine the great difficulties I have with my children.
interrogative interpretation: You can't imagine the kinds of difficulty I have with my children.

I told her *how late she was.*
exclamatory interpretation: I told her she was very late.
interrogative interpretation: I told her the extent to which she was late.

We all saw *how strange a look she gave him.*

exclamatory interpretation: We all saw that she gave him an extremely strange look.

interrogative interpretation: We all saw the extent to which the look she gave him was strange.

Nominal relative clauses

15.8 Nominal relative clauses resemble *wh*-interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5) in that they are also introduced by a *wh*-element. Indeed, a major reason for including nominal relative clauses in this chapter is that it is often difficult to distinguish them from the interrogative clauses.

On the other hand, in some respects nominal relative clauses are more like noun phrases, since they can be concrete as well as abstract and can refer even to persons. In fact, we can paraphrase them by noun phrases containing a noun head with general reference that is modified by a relative clause:

Whoever did that should admit it frankly.
['The person who did that . . .']
I took *what they offered me.*
[' . . . the thing(s) that they offered me.']
Macy's is *where I buy my clothes.*
[' . . . the place where I buy my clothes.']

Compare also the paraphrase when the *wh*-element is a determiner:

I took *what books she gave me.* [' . . . the books that she gave me.']

Furthermore, nominal relative clauses share with noun phrases a wider range of functions than are available to other nominal clauses (see below). In addition, like noun phrases, they may display number concord with the verb of the sentence (*cf* 10.34). Contrast for example:

Whatever book you see is yours to take.
Whatever books I have in the house are borrowed from the public library.

The nominal relative clause is basically a noun phrase modified by an adnominal relative clause (*cf* 17.9*ff*), except that its *wh*-element is merged with its antecedent (the phrase to which the *wh*-element refers). In that respect the nominal relative clause is more self-contained than the adnominal relative clause and can function as an element in a superordinate clause. Compare the nominal relative clause in [1] with the noun phrase in [1a]:

I eat *what I like.* [1]
I eat *that which I like.* ⟨formal⟩ [1a]

In [1a], which has approximately the same meaning as [1], the antecedent of the adnominal relative clause is *that.*

The *wh*-item may be a pronoun, such as *what* in [2], a determiner, such as *what* in [3], or an adverb, such as *where* in [4]:

She tasted *what* I bought. [2]
She saw *what food* I bought. [3]
Here is *where* I bought the food. [4]

On the *wh*-items that function as nominal relatives, *cf* 6.35 Note [b].

The *wh*-element may function within the nominal relative clause as subject, direct object, subject complement, object complement, adverbial, or prepositional complement:

subject: *What* happened (upset him).
(They welcomed) *whatever visitors* came their way.

direct object: *What* he saw (upset him).
(She took) *what* she needed.

subject complement: *What* she became in later life (distressed her friends).
(I'm happy with) *what* I am.

object complement: (That's) *what* she calls her sister.

adverbial: *Where* she went (was Manchester).
(Now is) *when* I need you.

prepositional complement: (I'll show you) *what* you can open the bottle with.

There are some restrictions on the use of the *wh*-element:

(a) The determiner *what* is only marginally acceptable when the *wh*-element is subject. Contrast [5] with [5a]:

?(They gladly accepted) *what money* came their way.
[*wh*-element as S] [5]
(They gladly accepted) *what money* people gave to them.
[*wh*-element as O_d] [5a]

Contrast [5] also with [5b], where the determiner *whatever* is fully acceptable:

(They gladly accepted) *whatever money* came their way. [5b]

(b) *Which, whom,* and *who* (in its nonspecific meaning, *cf* 15.9) are restricted to cooccurrence with a small semantic class of verbs (*choose, like, please, want, wish*):

She can marry { *whom(ever) she pleases.* ⟨formal⟩ / *who(ever) she pleases.* }
[' . . . anyone that/who/whom she pleases.']
You can take *which(ever) you like.*
[' . . . any (that) you like.']

In this environment, the three relatives have a nonspecific meaning (*cf* 15.9).

(c) *Who* in its specific meaning (*cf* 15.9) is most frequently found in a clause functioning as subject complement, particularly after *that's*:

You're not *who I thought you were.* [' . . . the person I thought you were.']
So that's *who he's working for.*
I'm *who you're looking for.*

How and *why* are generally restricted to the same environment (*cf* also Note [b] below):

That's *how she works*. [' . . . the way (that) she works.']
That's *how long it takes*. [' . . . the length of time (that) it takes.']
This is *how big it was*. [' . . . the size (that) it was.']
That's *why I don't go there anymore*. [' . . . the reason (that) I don't go there anymore.']

Nominal relative clauses have the same range of functions as noun phrases. In addition to the functions available generally to nominal clauses, they can function as indirect object and object complement:

subject: *What I want* is a cup of hot cocoa.

direct object: You should see *whoever deals with complaints*.

indirect object: He gave *whoever asked for it* a copy of his latest paper.

subject complement: April is *when the lilacs bloom*.

object complement: You can call me *what(ever) you like*.

appositive: I'll pay you the whole debt: *what I originally borrowed and what I owe you in interest*.

prepositional complement: You should vote for *which(ever) candidate you think best*.

Like noun phrases, nominal relative clauses require prepositions in adjective complementation:

He's aware *of* { *what I write.* / *the books I write.* }

Contrast the optionality of the preposition with *wh*-interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5 Note [c]).

To-infinitive clauses may be nominal relative clauses, but they seem to be restricted to the functions of subject complement and prepositional complement:

subject complement: That's *where to go for your next vacation*. [' . . . the place to go . . .']

prepositional complement: The book is *on how to use a computer*. [' . . . the way to use . . .']

Excluded as relatives in *to*-infinitive clauses are all the *-ever* compounds and *which, why*, and the determiner *what*. The pronominal relatives *who(m)* and *what* do not function as subject within the infinitive clause, but otherwise have the same range of functions as in the finite clauses:

direct object: Here's *what to eat*. [' . . . the thing to eat.']

indirect object: That's *who(m) to ask*. [' . . . the person to ask.']

subject complement: That's *who to be*. [' . . . the role to be.']

object complement: Here's *what to call your dog*. [' . . . the name to call your dog.']

adverbial: This is *where to be*. [' . . . the place to be.']

prepositional complement: This is *what to season the rice with*. [' . . . the spice to season the rice with.']

Note [a] Nominal relative clauses have also been called 'independent' or 'free' relative clauses.
[b] *Why* is sometimes used in a pseudo-cleft sentence with a correlative *because* in the superordinate clause (*cf* 15.46 Note [h]):
Why we left early was because we were tired.
[c] There may be occasional ambiguity between a nominal relative clause and a universal conditional-concessive clause (*cf* 15.42):
Come here, *whoever you are*.
relative interpretation: Come here, you (I don't know your name).
concessive interpretation: Come here, no matter who you are.
[d] On the choice between subjective *whoever* and formal objective *whomever*, *cf* 15.5 Note [e].
[e] When a verb can be used transitively or intransitively, there may be ambiguity with time or place adverbials both with nominal relative clauses and corresponding noun phrases with relative clauses:
She remembered { *when she saw me.* / *the time she saw me.* } [direct object or time adverbial]

15.9 The *wh*-element may express either a SPECIFIC meaning (generally indicated by the absence of the *-ever* suffix) or a NONSPECIFIC meaning (generally indicated by the presence of the *-ever* suffix):

SPECIFIC:

I took *what was on the kitchen table*. [' . . . that which was on the kitchen table.'] [1]
May is *when she takes her last examination*. [' . . . the time when she takes her last examination.'] [2]

NONSPECIFIC:

Whoever breaks this law deserves a fine. ['Anyone who breaks this law . . .'] [3]
I'll send *whatever is necessary*. [' . . . anything that is necessary.'] [4]

As the paraphrases indicate, the *wh*-element in [1] and [2] is specific, while in [3] and [4] it is nonspecific. The contrast is highlighted in:

Quality is *what counts most*. [' . . . is that which counts most.']
Quality is *whatever counts most*. [' . . . is anything that counts most.']

The first sentence, with specific *what*, is a pseudo-cleft sentence (*cf* 18.29*f*) corresponding to *Quality counts most* ['Quality is supremely important.']; the second sentence, with nonspecific *whatever*, purports to define *quality*. The two meanings parallel those conveyed by specific *some* (and its compounds) and nonspecific *any* (and its compounds); *cf* 6.59*ff*.

There are problems in some instances in distinguishing nominal relative clauses from *wh*-interrogative clauses. They differ syntactically in several respects:

(a) While an interrogative clause as subject must take a singular verb, a nominal relative clause may take either a singular or a plural verb, depending on the meaning of the *wh*-element:

What money I have *is* yours. ['The money (that) I have is yours.']
What possessions I have *are* yours. ['The possessions (that) I have are yours.']
What were left behind *were* five empty bottles. ['The things (that) were left behind *were* five empty bottles.']

For the number choice, *cf* 10.34, 10.38. As we have suggested earlier (*cf* 15.8), the number variation is indicative of the gradience between the *wh*-element of a nominal relative clause and a noun phrase.

(b) While an interrogative clause allows a choice in the placement of the preposition in a *wh*-element (*cf* 15.5), a nominal relative clause requires the *wh*-word to be placed first and the preposition to be deferred:

They ate *what they paid for*.
~ *They ate *for what they paid*.
(*cf*: They ate the things *for which they paid*. [adnominal relative clause])
Whoever they lend the money to must be trustworthy.
(*cf*: *Anybody to whom they lend the money* must be trustworthy)
Make sure you include in the examination paper *whatever questions they didn't know the answers to last time*.
[pushdown nominal relative clause, *cf* 11.18]

(c) *Who, whom,* and *which* are common in interrogative clauses, but in nominal relative clauses they are restricted to cooccurrence with a small semantic class of verbs (*choose, like, please, want, wish*); *cf* 15.8.

(d) The compound forms in *-ever* are used in nominal relative clauses, but not in interrogative clauses. Thus while *They asked me what I didn't know* is ambiguous (see below), *They asked me whatever I didn't know* is unambiguously relative ('They asked me those things that I didn't know.') (*cf* Note [c]).

(e) Unlike in interrogative clauses, determiner *what* in nominal relative clauses has a paucal meaning:

What friends she has are out of the country.
['The few friends she has are out of the country.']
He collected *what information he could find*.
['He collected the little information he could find.']

In this function, *what* can be followed by only the paucal quantifiers *few* and *little* (*what few friends, what little information*) and not by the multal quantifiers *many* and *much* or by cardinal numerals. For some speakers the determiner *whatever* does not necessarily have a paucal meaning. Like *what* it cannot be followed by numerals or the multal quantifiers, but for some speakers it cannot be followed by the paucal quantifiers either.

The semantic distinction between the interrogative *wh*-clause and the nominal relative clause is easier to exemplify than to define. The interrogative clause contains a gap of unknown information, expressed by the *wh*-element, and its superordinate clause expresses some concern with the closing of that gap, with supplying the missing information. The nominal relative clause does not contain a gap in information, and therefore the superordinate clause is not concerned with the closing of that gap. The information may indeed be known to both speaker and hearer, as in *I took what was on the kitchen table*. Since only the nominal relative clause can be concrete, when semantic restrictions indicate that the clause is a physical object, the clause is unambiguously relative: *I sent them what they needed*. In other instances the clause may be ambiguous:

Do you remember *when we got lost*?
relative interpretation: Do you remember the occasion, the time we got lost?
interrogative interpretation: Do you remember when it was we got lost?
['When did we get lost? Do you remember?']
They asked me *what I knew*.
relative interpretation: They asked me things that I knew.
interrogative interpretation: They asked me, 'What do you know?'
What she wrote was a mystery.
relative interpretation: She wrote a mystery story.
interrogative interpretation: I don't know what she wrote.

Note [a] The nonspecific meaning of the *wh*-element often implies plurality of persons, things, or situations:
Write to *who(m)ever* you want. ['any persons']
Give me back *whatever* you took from my desk. ['the various objects']
He was happy with *whatever* she did. ['any actions']
The specific meaning leaves the number undetermined, except through context:
I took in *what* I found outside the door. ['the thing' or 'the things']
[b] Nonspecific *who* is occasionally found in nominal relative clauses that are not functioning as subject complement:
Who should run the business is me. [clause as S]
I've found *who you were looking for*. [clause as O_d]
[c] We distinguish the compound *wh*-words in *-ever* (*eg*: *whoever, whatever*) from the informal intensifying combinations that are normally spelled as two words (*eg*: *who ever, what ever*), which occasionally occur in subordinate interrogative clauses: *I can't imagine who ever would marry him* ['. . . who on earth . . .'] (*cf* 11.14 Note [b]).

To-infinitive clauses

15.10 Nominal *to*-infinitive clauses may function as:

subject: *To be neutral in this conflict* is out of the question.
direct object: He likes *to relax*.
subject complement: The best excuse is *to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning*.
appositive: Your ambition, *to become a farmer*, requires the energy and perseverance that you so obviously have.
adjectival complementation: I'm very eager *to meet her*.

The presence of a subject in a *to*-infinitive clause normally requires the presence of a preceding *for*. When the subject is a pronoun that distinguishes subjective and objective cases, it is in the objective case:

For your country to be neutral in this conflict is out of the question.
For us to take part in the discussion would be a conflict of interest.
I'm very eager *for them to meet her*.

When the clause is a direct object, however, *for* is generally absent before the subject:

He likes *everyone to relax*.

But, especially in AmE, certain verbs of wanting and their antonyms allow an optional *for* in the object clause (*cf* 16.41):

He didn't like *me to be alone at night.*
He didn't like *for me to be alone at night.* ⟨AmE only⟩

Prepositional verbs with *for* and adjectives complemented by a prepositional phrase with *for* allow *for* to have the additional function of introducing a *to*-infinitive clause with a subject:

I am waiting *for her to say something.* (*cf*: I am waiting for her reply.)
She must be impatient *for me to be appointed.* (*cf*: She must be impatient for my appointment.)

As with *that*-clauses (*cf* 15.4), extraposition is more usual for subject clauses:

It's important (*for us*) *to agree on our position before the meeting.*

Object clauses are obligatorily extraposed when they cooccur with an object complement:

I think *it* wiser (*for me*) *to leave at once.*
They consider *it* their duty *to speak to his parents.*

For other types of nominal *to*-infinitive clauses, see also the sections dealing with *wh*-interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.5), *yes–no* and alternative interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.6), and nominal relative clauses (*cf* 15.8*f*).

Note [a] When the infinitive clause is not functioning as direct object, *for* is generally available. Contrast:
Every employee in my company would prefer *for me to retire now.* ⟨AmE only⟩
For me to retire now would be preferred by every employee in my company.
For is obligatorily omitted, however, in certain constructions where the focus is on the subject of the infinitive clause. Thus, *for* is optional in the sentence
He didn't like *for me to be alone at night.* ⟨AmE only⟩
But the cleft sentence focusing on the subject of the clause is:
It was *me* he didn't like to be alone at night.
And thematic fronting of the subject (*cf* 18.20*f*) produces:
Me he didn't like to be alone at night.
Similarly, *for* is omitted in a question focusing on the subject:
Who(m) didn't he like to be alone at night?
On the other hand, in a pseudo-cleft sentence that focuses on the whole infinitive clause *for* may be retained, and is indeed more usual even in BrE:
What he didn't like was (*for*) *me to be alone at night.*
[b] Some AmE speakers also use *for* with the subject in an object clause following *want*:
He wants *for me to go with him.*
[c] Where the subject of the infinitive clause can be made passive in the superordinate clause, the construction is complex transitive complementation of the superordinate verb (*cf* 16.50*f*):
They considered *her to be the best candidate.*
~She was considered *to be the best candidate.*
By analogy with *They considered her the best candidate, to be the best candidate* may be analysed as object complement of *her.*
[d] For sentences such as *It was clever of her to stay away, cf* 16.75*ff*. For *with* and *without, cf* 14.15.

15.11 The nominal *to*-infinitive clause often indicates that the proposition it expresses is viewed as a possibility or a proposal rather than something

already fulfilled (*cf*: *-ing* clauses, 15.12). The infinitive clause is then closest semantically to a *that*-clause with putative *should* (*cf* 14.25):

It's natural *for them to be together.* [1]
It's natural *that they should be together.* [1a]

This putative feature of the infinitive clause may often be paraphrased by a conditional clause:

I prefer *them to stay with us.* [2]
I prefer it *if they stay with us.* [2a]
It would be unwise *for you to marry him.* [3]
It would be unwise *if you were to marry him.* [3a]

On the other hand, the infinitive clause may also refer to an actual fact. Thus [1] can also be paraphrased by [1b]:

It's natural *that they are together.* [1b]

Indeed, the infinitive clause may refer clearly to a proposition that is assumed to be true or (through the use of perfective *have*) to a situation that is assumed to have already occurred:

They found *him to be mentally competent to stand trial.*
I'm happy *to have met you.*

The subject and the subject complement may both be *to*-infinitive clauses, in which case the second clause expresses a characterization of the first:

To be human is *to err.* ['If one is human, one will err.']
To be a member of the Space Club is *to belong to one of the most exclusive clubs in the world.*

-ing clauses

15.12 Nominal *-ing* clauses (or more fully, nominal *-ing* participle clauses) may function as:

subject: *Watching television* keeps them out of mischief.
direct object: He enjoys *playing practical jokes.*
subject complement: Her first job had been *selling computers.*
appositive: His current research, *investigating attitudes to racial stereotypes*, takes up most of his time.
adjectival complementation: They are busy *preparing a barbecue.*
prepositional complement: I'm responsible for *drawing up the budget.*

If the *-ing* clause has a subject, the item realizing the subject may be in the genitive case or otherwise in the objective case (for pronouns having a distinctive objective case) or common case (for all other noun phrases). In general, the genitive is preferred if the item is a pronoun, the noun phrase has personal reference, and the style is formal (*cf* 16.42):

I intend to voice my objections to *their* receiving an invitation to our meeting. [1]

Contrast the preference for the common case in [2], where the item is a nonpersonal noun phrase and not a pronoun and the style is not formal:

I didn't know about *the weather* being so awful in this area. [2]

Traditional stipulation of the genitive case is based on the assumption that the *-ing* form in such clauses is a verbal noun (*cf* 17.52*ff*). That assumption is incorrect, as we can see from the direct object (*an invitation to our meeting*) that follows the *-ing* form in [1], which demonstrates that the *-ing* form has the force of a verb. On the other hand, the use in [1] of the genitive (which is a determiner in noun phrases) itself provides the *-ing* form with a nominal characteristic (*cf* also 15.13.)

The genitive is avoided when the noun phrase is lengthy and requires a group genitive (*cf* 17.119):

Do you remember *the students and teachers protesting against the new rule*?

On the other hand, the genitive case is preferred when the item is initial in the sentence:

My forgetting her name was embarrassing.

Some are troubled by the choice of case here. In some instances, an acceptable alternative is a *that*-clause, which is normally extraposed:

It was embarrassing *that I forgot her name.*

Unlike subject *that*-clauses (*cf* 15.4) and *to*-infinitive clauses (*cf* 15.10), subject *-ing* clauses are not normally extraposed. The superordinate clause can be interrogative or passive without the extraposition:

Will *our saving energy* reduce the budget deficit?
Postponing the proposed legislation is being considered by the subcommittee.

Note [a] Nominal *-ing* clauses are sometimes called 'gerundive' or 'gerundival clauses'. Their verb is commonly called a 'gerund'.
[b] For monotransitive and complex-transitive complementation with *-ing* clauses, *cf* 16.39, 16.42. For adjectives that allow complementation by an *-ing* clause, *cf* 16.83.
[c] The prepositional status of *worth* (*cf* 9.6) is confirmed by the fact that it can govern a noun phrase, a nominal *-ing* clause with a genitive subject, and a nominal relative clause (but not a *that*-clause or a *to*-infinitive clause):

San Francisco is worth { *frequent visits.* / *your visiting frequently.* }

The bicycle is not worth *what you paid for it.*
[d] The *-ing* form in the *-ing* clause occasionally takes determinatives other than the genitive:
I'm tired of *all that feeding the animals every day.*
This smoking your pipe on every possible occasion will ruin your health.
On *no* and *any* as determiners in this construction, *cf* 15.14.

15.13 A nominal *-ing* clause may refer to a fact or an action:

fact: *Your driving a car to New York in your condition* disturbs me greatly. [1]
action: *Your driving a car to New York* took longer than I expected. [2]

When an *-ing* form occurs alone or preceded just by a genitive noun phrase, the construction is syntactically ambiguous between an *-ing* clause and a noun phrase with a verbal noun in *-ing* as its head (*cf* 17.52*ff*):

My hobby is *swimming.* [3]
I hate *lying.* [4]
They liked *our singing.* [5]

Our singing in [5] can refer either to the action of singing or to the mode of singing. Without further expansion by an object or an adverbial, the genitive biases towards a mode interpretation. In contrast, the objective in [5a] allows only an action interpretation:

They liked us singing (while they worked). [5a]

Since the *-ing* clauses in [1] and [2] do not allow a mode interpretation, it appears that this interpretation belongs to the noun phrase structure rather than to the clause structure. Similarly, when we expand [5] by adding an object and thereby making the *-ing* construction unambiguously a clause, the mode interpretation is no longer available. In [5b] the *-ing* clause refers to an action:

They liked *our singing folk songs.* [5b]

Conversely, where only the mode interpretation is available, we may assume that the construction is a noun phrase:

Your driving has improved considerably since I last saw you. [6]

Contrast also [7] and [8], distinguished only by the position of *fast*:

I warned him against *fast driving.* [7]
I warned him against *driving fast.* [8]

In [7] *fast* is an adjective premodifying the noun *driving*, which is the head of the noun phrase. In [8] the adverb *fast* is an adverbial in the *-ing* clause *driving fast*. Compare the analogous contrasting pair in [7a] and [8a]:

I warned him against *careless driving.* [7a]
I warned him against *driving carelessly.* [8a]

When the *-ing* form is alone and is the direct object, as in [4], two interpretations of the implied subject are often possible. Thus, *I hate lying* may mean 'I hate it when I lie', linking the action specifically to the subject of the superordinate clause, or it may generalize ('I hate it when people lie'). When the *-ing* construction contains a direct object or an adverbial and is therefore unambiguously clausal, the usual interpretation is that there is an implicit link to the superordinate subject:

I hate telling lies. ['I hate it when I tell lies.']
They enjoy singing while playing the guitar. ['They enjoy it when they sing while playing the guitar.']

But this restriction is not absolute. It does not apply after verbs of speaking, where the generic interpretation holds:

She condemned *attacking defenceless citizens*.
['. . . that people attack defenceless citizens.']
They recommend *not paying taxes*. ['. . . that people not pay taxes.']

In other instances, the implied subject of the *-ing* clause may be taken from the context of the sentence:

Writing that letter was *his* downfall. [He wrote that letter]
Driving in heavy traffic makes *me* nervous. [I drive in heavy traffic]

But it may also be drawn from the previous linguistic context or even from the situational context:

Borrowing such a large sum was a big mistake.

And some sentences may allow a generic interpretation:

Borrowing large sums is a big mistake.

Note [a] An *-ing* form may also be a concrete noun (*cf* the discussion in 17.54).
[b] In *That was a plan of his friend's devising*, the *-ing* form is an *-ing* nominalization (*cf* 17.51*ff*). Compare *His friend devised the plan*.
[c] On the distinction between *They liked our singing* and *They liked us to sing*, *cf* 16.40, 16.42.

15.14 An *-ing* clause may be the subject of a bare existential clause (*cf* 18.47), in which case it normally appears in nonassertive contexts (*cf* 10.61). As with the *-ing* clause that has a genitive as its subject (*cf* 15.12), this construction is anomalous because the *-ing* form is preceded by a determiner, generally *no* but less commonly *any*:

There's *no mistaking that voice*. ['One could not mistake that voice.'] [1]
There was *no lighting fireworks that day*. ['One could not have lit fireworks that day.'] [2]
There isn't *any telling what they will do*. ['One could not tell what they will do.'] [3]
There must be *no standing beyond the yellow line*. ['One must not stand beyond the yellow line.'] [4]

If the *-ing* construction contains a direct object, it is generally paraphrasable with modal auxiliaries, as in [1–3]. In [4], where the construction lacks an object, a modal auxiliary is present in the sentence. Abbreviated forms with just the negative *-ing* clauses generally have the force of a prohibition:

No smoking. No parking here. No playing loud music.

The nonmodal interpretation is occasionally found, usually in certain fixed expressions:

There was *no turning the other cheek*. ['No one turned the other cheek.']

It is encouraged by the *-ing* nominalization (*cf* 17.51*ff*):

There was *no shooting of prisoners*. ['No one shot prisoners.']

If there is no direct object or *of*-construction, the *-ing* construction is ambiguous between the *-ing* clause and the *-ing* nominalization:

There was no smoking in the corridors.
(i) 'Smoking was not allowed in the corridors.'
(ii) 'No one smoked in the corridors.'

Note [a] Only the *-ing* nominalization occurs in the positive:
There was *shooting of prisoners*. ['They shot prisoners.']
There was *smoking in the corridors*. ['They smoked in the corridors.']
[b] The following sentence is triply ambiguous:
There's no writing on the blackboard today.
(i) *-ing* clause with modal interpretation:
'We can't write on the blackboard today (because we have no chalk).'
(ii) nominalization with nonmodal interpretation:
'We're not going to write on the blackboard today (because there's going to be an exam).'
(iii) deverbal noun:
'There's nothing written on the blackboard today.'

Bare infinitive clauses

15.15 The nominal bare infinitive clause (without *to*) is severely limited in its functions. It may be the subject complement or (rarely) subject in a pseudo-cleft sentence (*cf* 18.29*ff*):

subject complement: What the plan does is *ensure a fair pension for all*.
subject: *Mow the lawn* was what I did this afternoon. ⟨rare and informal⟩

It may also be the subject or subject complement of a variant of the pseudo-cleft sentence, where a noun phrase of general reference replaces *what*:

Turn off the tap was all I did.
The best thing you can do now is *write her an apology*.

The *to* of the infinitive is obligatorily absent when the infinitive clause is subject in these constructions, but it is optionally present when the clause is subject complement:

What they must do is (*to*) *propose an amendment to the resolution*.
The thing you should do is (*to*) *show them your diploma*.

The bare infinitive requires the substitute verb DO in the other subordinate clause. Contrast the obligatory *to* in [1] with the optional *to* in [2]:

All I wanted was *to help him*. [1]
All I wanted to *do* was (*to*) *help him*. [2]

A bare infinitive clause may function as object complement with a relatively few superordinate verbs (*cf* 16.52):

They made *her pay for the damage*.

Finally, the bare infinitive clause may follow prepositions of exception (*cf* 9.58):

She did everything but *make her bed*.

Verbless clauses

15.16 The nominal verbless clause is a more debatable category than the other nominal clauses. The category seems to be required to account for constructions which, although superficially noun phrases, have some of the semantic and structural characteristics of clauses:

A friend in need is *a friend indeed*. [proverb] [1]
Wall-to-wall carpets in every room is their dream. [2]
Are *bicycles* wise *in heavy traffic*? [3]

These may be paraphrased by nominal nonfinite existential clauses (*cf* 18.44*ff*):

To be a friend in need is *to be a friend indeed*. [1a]
Having wall-to-wall carpets in every room is their dream. [2a]
Is *it* wise *to have bicycles in heavy traffic*? [*or*: '. . . for there to be bicycles in heavy traffic?'] [3a]

Various syntactic features differentiate these constructions from noun phrases:

(i) The prepositional phrases in [1] and [2] are not of the kind that postmodify the head in a noun phrase. *A friend in need* as a noun phrase, for example, would mean 'a friend who is in need', whereas [1] means '(to be) a friend when another is in need' (*ie* 'Friendship in a time of need is indeed friendship').

(ii) The verb in [2] is singular, which would be difficult to explain if the subject were a plural noun phrase.

(iii) Semantic restrictions (*cf* 10.51) would make it anomalous to combine the noun-phrase head *bicycles* as subject with the attributive or predicative adjective *wise* (**wise bicycles*; **The bicycles are wise*). In the paraphrase [3a], *wise* complements the infinitive clause *to have bicycles in heavy traffic*. The proximity principle (*cf* 10.35) may account for the plural verb. The structure *SVC*, on the other hand, biases the syntax of the sentence towards clausal grammar and the consequent singular number concord (*cf* 10.15):

Bicycles in heavy traffic *is* sheer madness.

Syntactic functions of adverbial clauses

15.17 In Chapter 8 we distinguished four broad categories of syntactic functions for adverbials: adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts. Adverbial clauses, however, function mainly as adjuncts and disjuncts.

In the next two sections we briefly consider adverbial clauses functioning as conjuncts and subjuncts. They will not be treated further in this chapter.

Conjuncts

15.18 The syntactic status of conjuncts is discussed in 8.134*ff*. They are peripheral to the clause to which they are attached. Only a few adverbial clauses function as conjuncts. They are stereotyped or virtually stereotyped, and can be comprehensively listed.

One finite clause type, the nominal relative clause (*cf* 15.8*ff*), functions as a reinforcing conjunct:

What is more,
What is most worrying, } . . .
What interests me more,

In addition, *that is* (*to say*) is an apposition marker.

A number of *to*-infinitive clauses function as listing or summative conjuncts:

to begin (*with*), *to cap it* (*all*) ⟨informal⟩, *to conclude*, *to continue*, *to recap* ⟨informal⟩, *to recapitulate*, *to start* (*with*), *to summarize*, *to sum up*

These allow a direct object or prepositional complement, *eg*: *to summarize the argument so far*; *to begin our discussion*. In addition, there are two *to*-infinitive clauses which require a prepositional complement:

to return to [*eg*] my earlier discussion
to turn to [*eg*] the next point

All of these *to*-infinitive clauses have corresponding *-ing* clauses, but most of them require complementation of the verb. Only a few can be used without complementation: *capping it all*, *continuing*, *recapitulating*, *recapping* ⟨informal⟩, *summarizing*, *summing up*.

Note The nonfinite conjuncts imply as subject the *I* (or authorial *we*) of the speaker. In this respect, they resemble style disjuncts (*cf* 8.124) such as *to put it bluntly* and *frankly speaking*. Indeed, they could alternatively be analysed as style disjuncts.

Subjuncts

15.19 The syntactic status of subjuncts is discussed in 8.116. Subjuncts are generally not realized by clauses, the exception being viewpoint subjuncts.

Both finite and nonfinite (participle) clauses function as viewpoint subjuncts. The verbs in the clauses constitute a restricted semantic set, principally *be concerned* and *go* (only in the finite clauses *as far as* . . . and *so far as* . . .), *consider*, *look at*, *view*:

As far as the economy { *is concerned*, / *goes*, } the next six months are critical.

If we look at it from an historical point of view, they have little claim on the territory.

Looking at it objectively, / *Viewed objectively*, } he is definitely at fault.

Note As with the conjunct clause (*cf* 15.18 Note), the *-ing* clause as viewpoint subjunct implies as subject the *I* of the speaker. On the other hand, the subject of the *-ed* clause is implicitly the matrix clause itself. Compare the anaphoric reference of the pronoun *it* in the corresponding *if*-clause: *If it is viewed objectively, he is definitely at fault*.

Adjuncts and disjuncts

15.20 Adjuncts and disjuncts tend to differ semantically in that adjuncts denote circumstances of the situation in the matrix clause, whereas disjuncts comment on the style or form of what is said in the matrix clause (style disjuncts) or on its content (content or attitudinal disjuncts). The primary difference is that they differ syntactically in that disjuncts are peripheral to the clause to which they are attached.

The syntactic difference does not manifest itself in differences in form or position. For example, finite clauses that function as adjuncts and disjuncts may share the same subordinator, and in both functions the clauses may be positioned initially or finally. The peripheral status of disjuncts is indicated mainly negatively: they do not allow a number of syntactic processes to apply to them that are allowed by adjuncts, processes that reflect a measure of integration within the superordinate clause.

In this section we consider the differences between adjunct and disjunct clauses. Below we exemplify the contrasts between adjunct clauses in the [a] sentences and content disjunct clauses in the [b] sentences:

temporal *since* [a] and reason *since* [b]:

I have been relaxing *since the children went away on vacation.* [a]
He took his coat, *since it was raining.* [b]

temporal *while* [a] and concessive *while* [b]:

He looked after my dog *while I was on vacation.* [a]
My brother lives in Manchester, *while my sister lives in Glasgow.* [b]

purpose *so that* [a] and result *so that* [b]:

They took a plane *so that they could get there early.* [a]
We know her well, *so that we can speak to her on your behalf.* [b]

conditional *if* [a] and conditional *unless* [b]:

They'll send it to you *if you ask them politely.* [a]
I'll get lost *unless I can find my compass.* [b]

temporal *as* [a] and reason *as* [b]:

The policeman stopped them *as they were about to enter.* [a]
I went to the bank, *as I had run out of cash.* [b]

The syntactic difference between adjunct and content disjunct clauses will be illustrated by two finite clauses, an adjunct *because*-clause and a disjunct *since*-clause. Both are incorporated within the same superordinate clause, and both are clauses of reason:

He likes them because they are always helpful. [1a]
He likes them, since they are always helpful. [1b]

Both can be positioned initially, although the adjunct clause is more usual finally:

Because they are always helpful, he (really) likes them. [2a]
Since they are always helpful, he (really) likes them. [2b]

The syntactic differences between the two types of clauses mainly involve focusing devices:

(i) Only the adjunct clause can be the focus of a cleft sentence:

It's because they are always helpful that he likes them. [3a]
*It's since they are always helpful that he likes them. [3b]

(ii) Only the adjunct clause can be the focus of a variant of the pseudo-cleft sentence:

The reason he likes them is because they are always helpful. [4a]
*The reason he likes them is since they are always helpful. [4b]

(iii) Only the adjunct clause can be the focus of a question, as we can test with alternative interrogation:

Does he like them because they are always helpful or because they never complain? [5a]
*Does he like them since they are always helpful or since they never complain? [5b]

(iv) Only the adjunct clause can be the focus of negation, as we can test with alternative negation:

He didn't like them because they are always helpful but because they never complain. [6a]
*He didn't like them since they are always helpful but since they never complain. [6b]

Contrast similarly:

He liked them, not because they are always helpful but because they never complain. [7a]
*He liked them, not since they are always helpful but since they never complain. [7b]

(v) Only the adjunct clause can be focused by focusing subjuncts (*cf* 8.116*ff*) such as *only*, *just*, *simply*, and *mainly*:

He likes them only because they are always helpful. [8a]
*He likes them, only since they are always helpful. [8b]

Contrast also:

Only because they are always helpful does he like them. [9a]
*Only since they are always helpful does he like them. [9b]

(vi) Only the adjunct clause can be the response to a *wh*-question formed from the matrix clause:

Why does he like them? Because they are always helpful. [10a]
*Why does he like them? Since they are always helpful. [10b]

Here are some further examples of content disjunct clauses (*cf* 8.127):

He brought me a cup of coffee *although I had asked for tea.*
William has poor eyesight, *whereas Sharon has poor hearing.*
You can return to a normal diet *now that you have lost enough weight.*

I'll take you for a ride *provided that your parents give you permission.*
He paid for a seat, *when he could have entered free.* [concessive *when*]
They ridiculed him *until she felt obliged to come to his aid.* [result *until*]
They will starve *before they will surrender unconditionally.* [negative result *before*]

In final position, content disjunct clauses tend more commonly than adjunct clauses to be separated from their matrix clauses by intonation or punctuation, though punctuation usage varies. Such separation is particularly common when the subordinator of a disjunct clause is frequently used as the subordinator of an adjunct clause, a condition that applies to reason *since* and *as*, concessive *while*, and result *so that*. In initial position, all adverbial clauses, regardless of form or function, are separated by intonation and (usually) by punctuation from their matrix clause.

Style disjuncts and content disjuncts

15.21 The syntactic differences enumerated in 15.20 apply equally to style disjuncts and content disjuncts. Style disjuncts are distinguished semantically in that they generally imply a verb of speaking and the subject *I*. The style disjuncts implicitly refer to the circumstances of the speech act, while the content disjuncts refer to the content of the matrix clause. The style disjuncts are therefore more peripheral to their superordinate clause than are the content disjuncts.

Here are some contrasts between either adjuncts or content disjuncts [a], and style disjuncts [b]:

adjunct *because* [a] and style disjunct *because* [b]:

We have no electricity, *because there's a power failure.* [a]
I have nothing in my bank account, *because I checked this morning.* [b]

adjunct *if* [a] and style disjunct *if* [b]:

We'll take along Sharon, *if she's ready.* [a]
We can do with some more butter, *if you're in the kitchen.* [b]

content disjunct *since* [a] and style disjunct *since* [b]:

Since you know Latin, you should be able to translate the inscription. [a]
What does the word mean, *since you're so clever?* [b]

content disjunct *though* [a] and style disjunct *though* [b]:

She enjoys driving, *though she doesn't like to drive in heavy traffic.* [a]
He deserved the promotion, *though it's not my place to say so.* [b]

We exemplify the semantic and syntactic differences by two finite clauses, a content disjunct *although*-clause and a style disjunct *since*-clause:

Elizabeth enjoyed last night's concert *although part of the programme included Wagner.* [1a]
Elizabeth enjoyed last night's concert, *since her brother told me so.* [1b]

The concession in [1a] refers to the content of the matrix clause, but the reason in [1b] refers to the speaker's motivation for the assertion ('I tell you this since her brother told me so'). The more peripheral status of the style disjunct is shown in its greater independence with respect to pro-forms. Thus, the style disjunct more readily allows the repetition of a noun phrase, whereas the content disjunct normally requires pronoun substitution:

Elizabeth enjoyed last night's concert *although the programme was not entirely to* {*?Elizabeth's* / *her*} *taste.* [2a]

Elizabeth enjoyed last night's concert, *since* {*Elizabeth's* / *her*} *brother told me so.* [2b]

Style disjuncts realized by clauses are always separated from the matrix clause by intonation and punctuation.

Here are some further examples of style disjuncts:

While we're on the subject, why didn't you send your children to a public school?
If you will allow me to say so, your attitude is equally racist.
The latest unemployment figures are encouraging, *as it were.*
Before you leave, where can I reach you?
Since you don't seem to know, all further negotiations have been suspended.
Before you say anything, you have the right to be silent.
I'm in charge here, *in case you don't know.*
If you're so clever, what's the answer?
Speaking of the devil, here comes my nephew.
Stated bluntly, I have legal control over their estate.

Note [a] The same form of clause can be a style disjunct in a statement and an adjunct when it is a response to a question. Style disjuncts can be the response to a question if the implied superordinate clause is made explicit. Compare the adjunct clause in [3], [3a], and [4a] with the style disjunct clause in [4]:

We have no electricity, *because there was a power failure.* [3]
~A: *Why* do you have no electricity?
B: *Because there was a power failure.* [3a]
I have no money in my bank account, *because I checked this morning.* [4]
~A: *Why do you say that* you have no money in your bank account?
B: *Because I checked this morning.* [4a]

The sentence relating to the question–response set in [5a] is [5], which (like [5a]) contains an adjunct *because*-clause; the question asks for some verification of the claim in the matrix clause in [5]:

I know that I have no money in my bank account, *because I checked this morning.* [5]
~A: *How do you know that* you have no money in your bank account?
B: *Because I checked this morning.* [5a]

Notice that the adjunct *because*-clauses in [3] and [5] can be positioned initially, but not the *because*-clause in [4], *cf* Note [c] below.

[b] In [6] the *because*-clause is an adjunct, while in [7] it is a style disjunct:

He likes them because they are always helpful. [6]
He likes them, because his wife told me so. [7]

Since two clauses with different syntactic functions cannot be coordinated, the two *because*-clauses cannot be coordinated:

*He likes them because they are helpful and because his wife told me so.

They can cooccur in the same sentence, though the juxtaposition is stylistically clumsy in written

English. The disjunct clause is then positioned peripherally:

?He likes them because they are helpful, because his wife told me so.

[c] The style disjunct *because*-clause is exceptional in that it must follow the matrix clause:

I have nothing in my bank account, *because I checked this morning.*

**Because I checked this morning,* I have nothing in my bank account.

Contrast:

I'm up to my ears in debt, *since you ask me.*

Since you ask me, I'm up to my ears in debt.

[d] We have noted the analogies between clauses functioning as conjuncts (*cf* 15.18 Note) and viewpoint subjuncts (*cf* 15.19 Note), on the one hand, and style disjuncts, on the other hand. With respect to their integration within their superordinate clause, conjuncts are most like style disjuncts. Viewpoint subjuncts are closer to content disjuncts, as shown by the test involving repetition of a noun phrase:

As far as { *?Germany's* / *its* } economy is concerned, Germany shows signs of improvement.

[e] The style disjunct *as it were* ['as if it were so'] is roughly synonymous with *so to speak*.

Predication and sentence adjuncts

15.22 For adjunct clauses, a major distinction can be made between PREDICATION ADJUNCTS and SENTENCE ADJUNCTS. Predication adjuncts can in turn be divided into obligatory and optional adjuncts (*cf* 8.26*ff*). All obligatory adjuncts are predication adjuncts.

Predication adjunct clauses are normally positioned finally; fronting of a predication adjunct exceptionally occurs for rhetorical purposes. Obligatory adjunct clauses resemble direct objects and subject complements in providing complementation to the verb. Sentence adjunct clauses are more mobile than predication adjunct clauses: they may appear initially as well as finally, and occasionally even medially.

Obligatory adjunct clauses (*cf* 10.10) may provide complementation for the verb BE in the *SVA* type:

Your coat is *where you left it.*
Dinner will be *when everybody has arrived.*
The traffic jam was *because there was an accident.* ⟨informal⟩
The water is *in case you feel faint.* ⟨informal⟩
The purpose of the inquiry was *so that all complaints would be made public.*

And they may provide complementation for other verbs in the *SVA* type:

The water will last *until you return.*
My grandparents lived *before television was invented.*
He looks *as if he's tired.*
Jane looks *as if she doesn't know me.*
You may live *wherever you like.*
They are coming *to see us next week.*

They may also function as the adverbial in the *SVOA* type:

I put it *where I found it.*
He treated them *as if they were young children.* ['He behaved to them . . .']
They wanted the money *where it would earn the highest interest rates.*

Even when they are optional, direction adjuncts (*cf* 15.31) depend on the semantic category of verbs with which they cooccur – verbs denoting direction:

They moved *where the climate was milder.*
Throw it *where you wish.*

Similarity adjuncts (*cf* 15.50) are a blend of similarity with manner when they cooccur with verbs used dynamically:

She walks *exactly as her mother used to.*

Pronounce the word { *as I do.* / *like I do.* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩ }

Likewise, comparison clauses (*cf* 15.50) are a blend of comparison with manner when they cooccur with verbs used dynamically:

He talks *as if he has a hot potato in his mouth.*
She is running *as if her life depended on it.*
Calvin laughed *as though he really understood the joke.*
They talk *like they know what they're doing.* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩

Other optional predication adjuncts relate solely or predominantly to the verb complementation rather than to the matrix clause as a whole. The most common are position adjuncts:

I found the book *where you said it would be.* ['The book was where you said it would be.']
She hit him *where it hurts.* ['She hit him in that part of him where it hurts.']

Sentence adjunct clauses are not dependent on the predication and are therefore more mobile. The examples that follow are placed in initial position to show their ready acceptability in that position; these types of adjunct clauses could just as easily (and most would more usually) be at *E*.

Before I could sit down, she offered me a cup of tea.
When he saw us, he smiled.
To emphasize her point, she invited me to visit her village.
Because it is near Madrid, tourists come for the day.
If they achieve independence, conditions will improve.
As we ran toward the beach, it started to rain.
Whenever I come here, the hotels have new owners.
Where he stood, he could see sand dunes stretching for miles.
While she was in school, she became friendly with a boy whom she later married.

Note The subordinate clause in *He treated them as if they were young children* is an obligatory adjunct only if *treated* has the meaning 'behaved toward' in which case *treated* requires to be complemented by a manner adjunct. If *treated* is interpreted as 'gave medical treatment to' or 'gave a treat (*or* treats) to', the *as if*-clause is an optional predication adjunct.

Restrictive and nonrestrictive adverbial clauses

15.23 Some linguists have attempted to apply the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive modification in noun phrases (*cf* 17.3) to adverbials,

thereby distinguishing between RESTRICTIVE and NONRESTRICTIVE adverbial clauses. The semantic analogy with modification in the noun phrase is that the restrictive adverbial restricts the situation in the matrix clause to the circumstances described by the adverbial. The nonrestrictive adverbial, on the other hand, makes a separate assertion, supplying additional information.

The restrictive/nonrestrictive distinction overlaps with some of the distinctions that we have made earlier. All disjunct clauses have been earlier characterized as peripheral because they do not give circumstantial information about the situation in the matrix clause (*cf* 15.20); they are therefore necessarily nonrestrictive. The same applies to the limited range of conjunct clauses (*cf* 15.18) and subjunct clauses (*cf* 15.19). On the other hand, obligatory adjunct clauses must be restrictive, since they are required to complete the description of the situation in the matrix clause. The restrictive/nonrestrictive distinction therefore applies only to optional adjunct clauses.

Perhaps the clearest parallel to a nonrestrictive adjunct clause is the type that has been characterized as an appended clause, a type of clause that is usually parenthetic or an afterthought (*cf* 12.70):

Susan sees her father – *when her mother insists on it.* [1]

Utterance of the sentence in [1] conveys two separate assertions: Susan sees her father; she does so when her mother insists on it. On the other hand, the *when*-clause in [2] is normally interpreted as restricting the circumstances in which Susan sees her father (Susan sees her father only on those occasions):

Susan sees her father *when he comes to London.* [2]

The nonrestrictive clause is marked by intonation separation whether it follows or precedes its matrix clause. Punctuation practice is less consistent. In particular, punctuation may be omitted when the nonrestrictive clause is preposed. But, in fact, punctuation is a redundant signal when the nonrestrictive clause is preposed, since a preposed clause is always nonrestrictive. Thus, both [1a] and [2a] are nonrestrictive:

When her mother insists on it, Susan sees her father. [1a]
When her father comes to London, Susan sees him. [2a]

The semantic difference between restrictive and nonrestrictive adjunct clauses manifests itself when the matrix clause contains a focusing device. Nonrestrictive clauses cannot be the focus of such devices, and in this respect are syntactically similar to disjuncts (*cf* 15.20). For example, the focus of the negation can be on the restrictive *when*-clause in [2b], but not on the nonrestrictive clause in [1b]:

Susan doesn't see her father *when he comes to LÓNdon.*
['Susan sees her father, not when he comes to London, but at other times.'] [2b]
Susan doesn't see her FÀther – *when she can aVÒID it.*
['Susan doesn't see her father – the times she does are when she can't avoid it.'] [1b]

Notice that if the *when*-clause in [2b] is preposed, it is outside the scope of negation:

When her father comes to London, Susan doesn't see him. [2c]

The semantic difference is even sharper for *because*-clauses. Contrast the restrictive clause in [3a] with the nonrestrictive clauses in [3b] and [3c]:

Raven didn't leave the party early *because CĂROl was there.* [3a]
['Raven left the party early, not because Carol was there, but for some other reason.']
Raven didn't leave the party ÉARly, *because CÀROl was there.* [3b]
['Raven didn't leave the party early, and the reason he didn't was that Carol was there.']
Because CĂROl was there, Raven didn't leave the party EÀRly. [3c]
[= [3b]]

We can now distinguish three *because*-clauses: restrictive adjunct [4a], nonrestrictive adjunct [4b], and style disjunct [4c]:

Raven didn't leave the party early *because CĂROl was there.* [4a]
Raven didn't leave the party EÁRly, *because CÀROl was there.* [4b]
Raven didn't leave the party EÁRly, *because I CHÈCKED.* [4c]

Similarly, we can distinguish four *while*-clauses: predication (and restrictive) adjunct [5a], sentence (and nonrestrictive) adjunct [5b], content disjunct [5c], and style disjunct [5d]:

I didn't send my children to a boarding school *while I was in ÍNdia.* [5a]
While I was in India, I didn't send my children to a boarding school. [5b]
My children enjoy jazz, *while I prefer classical music.* [5c]
While we're on the subject, I prefer classical music. [5d]

Semantic roles of adverbial clauses

15.24 We now turn to the semantic roles of adverbial clauses. The roles may be related to those for adverbials in general (*cf* Chapter 8) and for prepositional phrases in particular (*cf* 9.144*ff*).

For each semantic set, we first discuss finite clauses and then turn to nonfinite and verbless clauses introduced by a subordinator or (in some instances) a preposition (*cf* 15.25*ff*). We then consider separately nonfinite and verbless adverbial clauses that do not begin with a subordinator or preposition (*cf* 15.58*ff*). We conclude by discussing the verb phrase in those cases where the choice of form is linked to particular types of subordinate clauses.

Semantic analysis of adverbial clauses is complicated by the fact that many subordinators introduce clauses with different meanings; for example a *since*-clause may be temporal or causal. Furthermore, some clauses combine meanings, for example time with purpose or result (*cf* 15.48*f*); in such cases, we treat the clauses under sections that deal with what appears to be their primary meaning.

Clauses of time

Subordinators and structural types of clauses

15.25 Adverbial finite clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: *after, as, before, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *now (that), as long as, so long as, as soon as, immediately* ⟨informal, esp BrE⟩, *directly* ⟨informal, esp BrE⟩:

Buy your ticket *as soon as you reach the station.*
When I last saw you, you lived in Washington.
My family, *once they saw the mood I was in*, left me completely alone.
Drop by *whenever you get the chance.*
All applications, *when they are received before the deadline*, are dealt with promptly.
While I was asleep, I dreamed about you.
We came in *just as it started to rain.*
As I drove away, I saw them waving goodbye.
Wait *until you're called.*
Since I saw her last, she has dyed her hair.
I'll give you an answer *immediately I've finished reading your file.* ⟨esp BrE⟩

Adverbial *-ing* clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: *once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst*:

He wrote his greatest novel *while working on a freighter.*
Be careful *when crossing streets.*
Once having made a promise, you should keep it.

In addition, they are introduced by the prepositions *after, before, on,* and *since* (*cf* 14.19 Note [b]):

They washed their hands *before eating.*
Since coming here life has been much more pleasant.
I took a bath *after working in the garden all day.*
On becoming a member, you will receive a membership card and a badge. ['When you become a member, . . .']

Some speakers find *until* only marginally acceptable with *-ing* clauses:

?*Until meeting your parents*, I had no idea that you were annoyed with me.
?I'll wait here *until hearing from you again.*

Adverbial *-ed* clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators that are also used with finite clauses: *as soon as, once, till, until, when, whenever, whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩:

Spinach is delicious *when eaten raw.*
The dog stayed at the entrance *until told to come in.*
Once seen, that painting will never be forgotten.
He slept *while stretched out on the floor.*
Whenever known, such facts should be reported.

As soon as is only occasionally possible as a subordinator for *-ed* clauses:

The documents will be returned *as soon as* { *completed.* / *signed.* / *required.* }

Verbless clauses of time are introduced by the same subordinators as *-ed* clauses: *as soon as, once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩:

When in difficulty, consult the manual.
Complete your work *as soon as possible.*
While in Rome, be sure to see the Colosseum.

Clauses with *as soon as* seem to be limited to a few adjectives that are used predicatively with nominal clauses and convey the modal meanings of possibility or necessity, principally *available, feasible, necessary, possible*. The implied subject of the verbless clause is *it*, referring to the matrix clause ('as soon as it is possible'). The same implication is common, though not required, for the other subordinators.

Some speakers find *until* and *till* only marginally acceptable with verbless clauses:

?Margaret stayed with her parents *until well.*
?Sam watched TV *until too tired to do so any more.*

They seem acceptable in instructional language:

Beat the mixture *until fluffy.*
File the edges *until smooth.*

To-infinitive clauses without a subordinator or a subject may have temporal function, expressing the outcome of the situation:

I rushed to the door, *only to discover that it was locked and barred.*
He left, *never to return.*
I awoke one morning *to find the house in an uproar.*
She turned around, *to find the car gone.*
The curtains parted, *to reveal a market scene.*
He survived the disgrace, *to become a respected citizen.*
Leech rose above the University College defence *to bullet the header a fraction over from a free kick.*

These clauses are restricted to final position, suggesting an analogy between them and result clauses (*cf* 15.49), which they resemble in meaning. The sentences can usually be paraphrased by reversing the relationship of subordination (*cf* 15.28 Note [a]), and using a *when-* or *after*-clause:

When I awoke one morning, I found the house in an uproar.
After he survived the disgrace, he became a respected citizen.

With durative verbs in the matrix clause, the construction expresses duration of time together with outcome:

She lived *to be 100.* ['She reached 100 years of age.']
You'll live *to regret it.* ['You'll eventually regret it.']
The show went on *to become a great success.* ['The show eventually became a great success.']
He lingered on *to see his daughter's wedding.*
She grew up *to be a successful actress.*

Some of the verbs in this type of construction have become catenatives (*cf* 3.49): *grow to, come to, turn out to*.

Finally, *-ing* clauses without a subordinator or a subject may also express time relationship:

Returning to my village after thirty years, I met an old schoolteacher. ['When/After I returned . . .']

The stranger, *having discarded his jacket*, moved threateningly toward me. [' . . . after he had discarded . . .']

Adverbial clauses of time are adjuncts. Since they are commonly sentence adjuncts (*cf* 15.22), they often appear initially and occasionally medially, as the examples in this section indicate.

Note [a] Noun phrases (sometimes introduced by a preposition) modified by a relative clause may have a semantic role similar to adverbial clauses of time (*cf* 14.14):

Every time (that) the telephone rings, he gets nervous.
Remain in your seats *until such time as you are told that you can leave*.
By the time the alarm went off, I was awake.
They made me feel at home *the moment I arrived*.
Things have changed a great deal *since the last time you were here*. (*cf*: since you were here last time)
Throughout the period I was in London, it rained heavily.

These noun phrases and prepositional phrases are adverbials of time, though not adverbial clauses.

[b] The correlatives *no sooner . . . than* (*cf* 14.13 Note [b]) express time relationship:

The meeting had no sooner started / No sooner had the meeting started } than there was an uproar.

The meaning is similar to that of an *as soon as* clause, but it additionally expresses surprise. Syntactically, the *no sooner* clause is the matrix clause.

Time relationships

15.26 An adverbial clause of time relates the time of the situation denoted in its clause to the time of the situation denoted in the matrix clause. The time of the matrix clause may be previous to, subsequent to, or simultaneous with, the time of the adverbial clause. The situations in the clauses may be viewed as occurring once or as recurring. The time relationship may additionally convey duration and the relative proximity in time of the two situations.

Some of these time relationships are expressed not only by the choice of subordinator, but also by other devices in the two clauses: tense and aspect, the semantic category of the verbs, adverbs and prepositional phrases of time, and adjectives and nouns expressing time (*cf* 19.35). Temporal relationships between clauses may be implied by their semantic relationships in juxtaposed or coordinated clauses (*cf* 13.22*ff*). Here we are concerned mainly with the temporal subordinators.

Time before

15.27 *Until*, *till*, and *before* indicate that the situation in the matrix clause occurred before or leading up to the situation in the subordinate clause. *Till* is used in the same way as *until*, but is far less frequent as a subordinator. *Until* marks the time up to which the situation in the matrix clause applies:

I disliked Maurice *until I got to know him*.
The children were noisy *until told to be quiet*.

The matrix clause must be durative, the duration lasting to the time indicated by the *until*-clause. A negative clause is always durative, even though the corresponding positive clause is not durative (*cf* 8.58), since the absence of the event extends throughout the indicated period:

I didn't start my meal *until Adam arrived*.
*I started my meal *until Adam arrived*.

Before also marks the time from which the situation in the matrix clause applies, but the matrix clause need not be durative:

I started my meal *before Adam arrived*.

The situation in *until*-clauses is generally presupposed to be true, but that is not always so for *before*-clauses. Nonfactual *before*-clauses may imply preference, as in [1], or implausibility, as in [2]:

He'll beg for food *before he'll ask his parents for money*. ['He won't ask his parents for money'; 'He would rather beg for food than ask his parents for money.'] [1]
Pigs will fly *before he'll become a mathematician*. ['He'll never become a mathematician.'] [2]

Or the situation in the matrix clause may prevent that in the *before*-clause from taking place:

He died *before writing a will*.
Sally stopped Ted *before he had a chance to reply*. (*cf* 14.27)

Some *before*-clauses may be interpreted as either factual or nonfactual:

I sent a donation *before I was asked to*.

Before-clauses may imply purpose (*cf* 15.48) and result (*cf* 15.49) as well as time:

I had to put my complaint in writing *before they would take any action*. [' . . . so that they would take some action and with the result that they took action'; also 'They wouldn't take any action until I put my complaint in writing.']

Until-clauses may imply result as well as time:

She massaged her leg *until it stopped hurting*. [' . . .with the result that it stopped hurting.']

The *until*-clause expresses the result of the activity described in the matrix clause.

When the matrix clause is imperative, the sentence with a *before*-clause may imply a conditional relationship as well as time:

Go *before I call the police*. ['Go! If you don't go, I'll call the police.']

Compare the coordinate constructions implying the same relationship:

Go *or I'll call the police.* Go *and I won't call the police.*

Nonassertive items (*cf* 10.60) can appear in *before*-clauses, perhaps because *before*-clauses, like conditional clauses (*cf* 15.33*ff*), inherently relate to matters unfulfilled in respect of the matrix clause:

I spoke to them *before I ever heard any gossip about them.*
['At the time I spoke to them I had not heard any gossip about them']

Contrast:

*I spoke to them *after I had ever heard any gossip about them.*

Before may be modified to indicate relative proximity of time (*cf*: *after*, 15.29) by a range of modifiers, *eg*: *just, right, immediately, sometime, a long time, many days*:

I took the examination *a year before my brother did.*

Until is restricted to the modifiers *just* and *right*.

Note [a] Constructions with *before* and *after* are not necessarily converses. If we designate the first situation as 'X' and the second as 'Y', then in the factual use of *before*:
X *before* Y = X happened before Y happened.
On the other hand, the *after* construction has two interpretations:
Y *after* X = (i) Y happened after X happened. [converse]
(ii) Y continued to happen after X began to happen. [not converse]
If Y is nondurative, the two constructions are converses:
I shaved [X] *before* I went to the party [Y]. [3]
= I went to the party [Y] *after* I shaved [X]. [4]
However, if Y is durative, the two constructions need not mean the same:
I knew Cathy [X] *before* she practised medicine [Y]. [5]
≠ Cathy practised medicine [Y] *after* I knew her [X]. [6]
Sentence [6] allows the possibility that Cathy practised medicine even before I knew her.
Nonfactual *before*-clauses rule out an equivalent *after*-clause:
Sally stopped Ted [X] *before* he had a chance to reply [Y]. [7]
≠ Ted had a chance to reply [Y] *after* Sally stopped him [X]. [8]
Sentence [7] implies that Ted did not have a chance to reply.
When the *after*-clause implies cause, there is no equivalent *before*-clause:
After Norma spoke, she received a standing ovation.
≠ Norma spoke *before* she received a standing ovation.
[b] When both matrix and subordinate clause differ only in their subjects, a prepositional phrase corresponds to the *before*- or *after*-clause:

Janet left $\left\{\begin{matrix}before\\after\end{matrix}\right\}$ I $\left\{\begin{matrix}left.\\did.\end{matrix}\right\}$ [9]

= Janet left $\left\{\begin{matrix}before\\after\end{matrix}\right\}$ *me.* [10]

Notice the use of the objective case in [10]. In some contexts there may be ambiguity between temporal and positional *before*:
They should stand up *before* me. ['before I do' *or* 'in front of me'] [11]
Positional *before* is used infrequently.
[c] Similar to the subordinators are prepositional phrases with *until, till*, and *before* followed by noun phrases modified by relative clauses, *eg*: *till the moment (that), before the time (that)*, *cf* 15.25 Note [a]. But the *before*-phrases cannot be used in place of nonfactual *before*-clauses.

[d] *Until*-clauses, like *before*-clauses, may express a combination of time, purpose, and result. Contrast:

Larry polished the table until $\left\{\begin{matrix}he\\you\end{matrix}\right\}$ could see his face in it.

If the subject of the matrix clause and the *until*-clause are here coreferential (for example *Larry* and *he*), all three meanings are combined. If they are not coreferential, the *until*-clause conveys only time and result.

Same time

15.28 Several subordinators indicate the simultaneity of the situations in the matrix and subordinate clauses, or at least an overlap in time of the two situations: *as, as long as, so long as, while, whilst. When, whenever*, and *now* (*that*) may have the same function.

As, as long as, so long as, while, and *whilst* always denote simultaneity when they are used as temporal conjunctions. Temporal clauses introduced by the last four of these subordinators are duration adverbials.

As denotes merely simultaneity of two situations:

Just as she was about to speak, she was handed a note.
As it grew dark, we could hear the hum of mosquitoes.

For *as long as* and *so long as*, both clauses must be durative. Generally, these subordinators imply that the situations begin and end at the same time:

As long as I live here, I do it my way.
He'll continue working *so long as he has the strength.*

They emphasize more strongly than the other subordinators both simultaneity and duration. *While* and the less frequent *whilst* require that their clause must be durative, but the matrix clause need not be:

They arrived *while I was sunbathing.*
He cut himself *while shaving.*

Whenever is primarily used to introduce a frequency adverbial, denoting that the situation is repeated. It may also imply that the two situations overlap in time if at least one of the clauses is durative:

It rains *whenever we're camping.* ['. . . at any time we're camping.']
She visits her parents *whenever possible.*

Like *whenever, when* may imply simultaneity if one of the clauses is durative:

When I dream I see angels running up and down a ladder.
Be careful *when crossing streets.*

When may also imply repetitiveness, in which case it is synonymous with *whenever*:

When I read I like to be alone.

As long as and *so long as* may imply condition ('provided that') as well as time:

I'm happy *as long as my children are.*

Now that combines reason with temporal meaning, in present or past time. It may be used to indicate simultaneity:

We are happy *now that everybody is present.*
Now that she could drive, she felt independent.

Note [a] A type of *when*-clause, obligatory at *E* position, represents climactic information in narrative:
The last man was emerging from the escape tunnel *when a distant shout signalled its discovery by the guards.* [1]
I was playing the piano, *when there was a knock at the door.* [2]
I was watching the television, *when suddenly the lights went out.* [3]
The more important information is given in the subordinate clauses, which indicate that an event happened within a period referred to in the matrix clause. Notice that the matrix verb is in the progressive and that the *when*-clause is positioned finally. The effect is to provide a dramatic and emphatic climax. The *when*-clause is nonrestrictive (*cf* 15.23), and is usually separated by intonation and punctuation from the matrix clause.
[b] Certain noun and prepositional phrases combine with relative clauses to convey a meaning similar to that of these subordinators, *cf* 15.25 Note [a]. They include *every time* (*that*), *as often as*, *at the very moment* (*that*), *during the period* (*that*), *throughout the time* (*that*).

Time after

15.29 Several subordinators indicate a sequence in which the situation in the matrix clause occurs after that in the subordinate clause: *after*, *as soon as*, *directly* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *immediately* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *once*, *since*, *when*, *whenever*. *Now* (*that*) may have the same function.

As soon as, *immediately*, *directly*, and *once* add the notion of proximity in time of the two situations:

As soon as I left, I burst out laughing.
We'll eat *once I finish preparing the meal.*

Immediately and *directly* particularly emphasize proximity:

She returned *immediately she heard the good news.*

A similar effect is obtained by adding appropriate modifiers to *after* and *as soon as*, *eg*: *immediately after*, *just as soon as*.

After merely marks the sequence of the clauses. Modifications (*cf*: *before*, 15.27) may indicate relative proximity, *eg*: *just*, *right*, *immediately*, *moments*, *some time*, *a long time*, *soon*, *three days*, *a year*:

Come over *right after you've finished working.*
I went to sleep *soon after hearing the news.* [*after* as preposition]

Unlike the proximity subordinators, *after* allows the possibility that the situation in the matrix clause applied before the event:

He was still tired (*even*) *after he had had eight hours of sleep.*
*He was still tired *immediately he had had eight hours of sleep.*

Since marks the beginning of the period after which the situation in the matrix clause applies (*cf* 8.60*f*, 14.26):

He feels much more relaxed *since he left school.* [1]
Since returning home, Carol has been working in her parents' business. [*since* as preposition] [2]

Since I last saw you, I have given birth to a beautiful daughter. [3]
They had not read any books *since they left school.* [4]

The period marked by *since* may extend to the moment of utterance, as in examples [1–3], or to the past time of narration, as in [4]. But *since* does not rule out an extension beyond the period. The matrix clause may be durative, as in [1], [2], and [4], in which case we can premodify *since* by *ever* and ask a *How long?* question to elicit the *since*-clause. On the other hand, it may be nondurative, as in [3]. The matrix clause (*it* followed by BE) may merely specify the time period:

It has been two years *since I last saw you.* ['I last saw you two years ago.']

The period, however, may be left vague:

It's been {a long time / ages} *since you were here.*

When and *whenever* may indicate a sequence when the two clauses are nondurative:

She was shocked *when she heard his story.* [5]
When(*ever*) *I cry*, my eyes get puffy. [6]
I drink coke *when*(*ever*) *I feel sick.* [7]

Now (*that*) does not have that restriction, but it combines circumstantial (*cf* 15.45) with temporal meaning:

Now that they've moved, we won't see them very often.

The sequential meaning of *after*, *when*, and *whenever* may induce an implication of cause, as in [5] and the following:

He felt better *after he had a short nap.*
I hit him back *when he hit me.*
My heart leaps *whenever I see you.*

When, *whenever*, and *once* may combine time with condition, as in [7] and the following:

{*When* / *Whenever* / *Once*} *I make up my mind to do something*, I do it immediately.

When and *whenever* may also combine time, cause, and condition, as in [6].

When may imply concession as well as time. Like *whereas* (*cf* 15.43), it requires antithesis between two situations, but additionally has the meaning 'in that same situation' or 'in those same situations':

They were gossiping, *when they should have been working.*
['. . ., whereas they should have been working.']
She cleans the house by herself, *when she could easily have asked her children to help her.*

In this use, the *when*-clause is nonrestrictive and is usually in final position.

Note [a] The preposition *until* may introduce *after*-clauses:
Don't leave until *after I've spoken to you*.
[b] Several prepositions may combine with relative *when*, which is not to be confused with the subordinator: *by*, *since* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *till*, *until*:
Two years ago I bought a packet of your razor blades, *since when* I have used no others. ['since which time']
They settled in Seattle, *by when* she had obtained a master's degree in economics. ['by which time']
These constructions are sentential relative clauses (*cf* 15.57).
[c] Proximity may also be conveyed by phrases such as *the (very) moment that* and *from the minute (that)* followed by a relative clause, *cf* 15.25 Note [a]. Other phrases that combine with relative clauses to convey a meaning similar to that of subordinators in this section include *from the very first time (that)*, *by the time (that)*, *since the days (when)*.
[d] See 15.25 for *to*-infinitive clauses that blend time with outcome.

Clauses of contingency

15.30 The meaning of several subordinators that primarily express time, place, or condition may be neutralized in certain contexts to convey a more abstract notion of recurrent or habitual contingency: *when*, *whenever*, *once*; *where*, *wherever*; *if*. The subordinators may then be paraphrased by such prepositional phrases as 'in cases when' or 'in circumstances where':

When(ever) / *Where(ever)* / *If* / *Once* { *there's smoke*, there's fire. / *children are involved*, divorces are particularly unpleasant. / *known*, such facts have been reported. } [1]

When(ever) / *Where(ever)* / *If* { *necessary*, send up a flare. / *in doubt*, see me. / *possible*, you should test all moving parts. } [2]

When(ever) / *Where(ever)* / *Once* / *If* { *conscious of an infringement of his rights*, he always protested to the manager. } [3]

She always wrote an encouraging remark, *even* { *when* / *where* / *if* } *the essay paper was poor*. [4]

Once, *whenever*, and *wherever* cannot be focused by focusing adverbs such as *even*, and are therefore excluded from [4].

Nonfinite and verbless clauses without a subordinator may also express recurrent contingency:

Driving at high speed, one may well miss direction signs.
The sentence is ambiguous, *taken out of context*.
Fresh from the oven, rolls are delicious.

We can supply the subordinator *when* for these clauses, and *if* for the *-ed* and verbless clauses.

The correlative construction with *the*-clauses (*cf* 15.51) sometimes expresses a meaning similar to that of a contingent relationship, the first *the*-clause roughly corresponding to a *when*-clause or an *if*-clause:

The harder he worked, the happier he felt.
When he worked harder, he felt happier.

Clauses of place

15.31 Adverbial clauses of place are introduced mainly by *where* or *wherever*. *Where* is specific and *wherever* nonspecific (*cf* 15.9). The clause may indicate position [1] or direction [2]:

Where the fire had been, we saw nothing but blackened ruins. [1]
They went *wherever they could find work*. ['to any place where'] [2]

The meaning of place merges with the general contingency meaning 'in cases where' (*cf* 15.30) in the following:

He put colons *where(ver) he should have put semicolons*.

Where-clauses may combine the meanings of place and contrast:

Where I saw only wilderness, they saw abundant signs of life.

Notice that the contrast subordinator *whereas*, which can replace *where* above, is a compound with *where* as one of its members.

Several temporal subordinators may have primarily a place meaning in descriptions of scenes, when the scenes are described dynamically in terms of movement from one place to another:

Take the right fork *when the road splits into two*.
The river continues winding *until it reaches a large lake*.
The building becomes narrower *as it rises higher*.
The road stops *just after it goes under a bridge*.
Once the mountains rise above the snow line, vegetation is sparse.

Note [a] *Where* and *wherever* also introduce *-ed* and verbless clauses (*where grown*, *wherever necessary*), but the clauses then convey the general contingency meaning.
[b] The same place relationship may also be expressed by prepositional phrases with relative clause postmodification (*at the place that . . .*, *in the direction where . . .*) or with a *where*- or *wherever*-clause as complement (*toward(s) where . . .*, *to wherever . . .*).
[c] The archaic forms *whence* ['from where'] and *whither* ['to where'] are occasionally found, particularly in religious language.

Clauses of condition, concession, and contrast

Overlap of semantic roles

15.32 We have seen that some clauses of time and place may express a general notion of a contingency relationship between the situations described in the subordinate and matrix clauses, a relationship also conveyed by conditional *if*-clauses (*cf* 15.30). We have also noted that some temporal clauses may imply relationships of condition (*cf* 15.27*ff*) and concession (*cf* 15.29), and that some clauses of place may imply contrast (*cf* 15.31). We now further note that many subordinators and conjuncts expressing those three logical

relationships of condition, concession, and contrast may otherwise convey meanings of time and place, as in the examples in *Fig* 15.32.

	subordinators	conjuncts
conditional	*as long as, in the event that*	*then, in that case*
concessive	*whereas, while*	*besides, yet*
contrastive	*whereas, while*	*on the other hand, instead*

Fig 15.32 Subordinators and conjuncts with overlapping roles

There is also considerable overlap in adverbial clauses that express condition, concession, and contrast. Conditional clauses (*cf* 15.33*ff*) convey that the situation in the matrix clause is contingent on that in the subordinate clause:

If the weather is fine, (*then*) we'll have a barbecue.

Clauses of contrast (*cf* 15.43) merely convey a contrast between two situations:

Whereas the US has immense mineral wealth, Japan (*in contrast*) has comparatively little.

Concessive clauses (*cf* 15.39*ff*) may also imply a contrast, but their main role is to imply that the situation in the matrix clause is unexpected in the light of that in the concessive clause:

Although admission was free, (*nevertheless*) few people attended the lecture.

The parenthesized items illustrate the different conjuncts that optionally correlate with the three clauses (*cf* 14.13).

The overlap between the three roles is highlighted by the overlapping use of subordinators: for example, *if* introduces all three types of clauses and *whereas* both contrast and concessive clauses. Furthermore, *even if* expresses both the contingent dependence of one situation upon another and the unexpected nature of this dependence:

Even if they offered to pay, I wouldn't accept any money from them.

All three types of clauses tend to assume initial position in the superordinate clause.

Conditional clauses

Direct and indirect condition

15.33 The central uses of conditional clauses express a DIRECT CONDITION: they convey that the situation in the matrix clause is directly contingent on that of the conditional clause. Put another way, the truth of the proposition in the matrix clause is a consequence of the fulfilment of the condition in the conditional clause. Here is an example:

If you put the baby down, she'll scream. [1]

In uttering [1] the speaker intends the hearer to understand that the truth of the prediction 'she'll scream' depends on the fulfilment of the condition of 'your putting the baby down'. The hearer also in practice infers the converse:

If you don't put the baby down, she won't scream.

However, the speaker may cancel this implication by hedging (expressing some uncertainty, *cf* 8.124, 8.126):

If you put the baby down, she'll scream. But she may scream anyway.

More peripheral uses of conditional clauses express an INDIRECT CONDITION. The condition is not related to the situation in the matrix clause. Consider [2]:

She's far too considerate, *if I may say so*. [2]

In uttering [2], the speaker does not intend the truth of the assertion 'She's far too considerate' to be dependent on obtaining permission from the hearer. Rather, the condition is dependent on the implicit speech act of the utterance: 'I'm telling you, if I may, that she's far too considerate'. In conventional politeness, the speaker is making the utterance of the assertion dependent on obtaining permission from the hearer, though the fulfilment of that condition is conventionally taken for granted. Here is another example:

She and I are just good friends, *if you understand me*.

The speaker warns the hearer that the correct interpretation of the utterance 'She and I are just good friends' depends on the hearer understanding what the speaker means by the utterance: 'I'm telling you that on the assumption that you understand me correctly'.

In direct conditions, the *if*-clause is an adjunct (*cf* 15.20*ff*); in indirect conditions, it is a style disjunct (*cf* 15.21).

Subordinators and structural types of clauses

15.34 The two simple subordinators for conditional clauses are *if* and *unless*. The most common and most versatile of the conditional subordinators is *if*; we therefore generally employ it in the sections that follow to illustrate the different uses of conditional clauses. The negative subordinator *unless* is the next most common. Other conditional subordinators are:

as long as, so long as, assuming (*that*), *given* (*that*) ⟨formal⟩, *in case, in the event that, just so* (*that*) ⟨informal⟩, *on condition* (*that*), *provided* (*that*), *providing* (*that*), *supposing* (*that*)

General recurrent contingency is expressed by *once, when, whenever, where*, and *wherever* (*cf* 15.30). In addition, several subordinators combine condition with time: *before* (*cf* 15.27), *as long as, so long as, when, whenever, once* (*cf* 15.28). *Except that* and conjunctive *only* combine exception with condition (*cf* 15.44).

All these subordinators are used with finite clauses:

If you want some more, you should ask me.
Unless the strike has been called off, there will be no trains tomorrow.

He doesn't mind inconveniencing others *just so he's comfortable.* ⟨informal⟩
She may go, *as long as he goes with her.*
You may leave the apartment at any time, *provided that you give a month's notice or pay an additional month's rent.*
In case you want me, I'll be in my office till lunchtime.
Given that $x = y$, then $n(x + a) = n(y + a)$ must also be true. ⟨in formal argumentation⟩
Assuming that the movie starts at eight, shouldn't we be leaving now?
Supposing they won the raffle, what would they do with an extra car?

Of the subordinators that are specifically conditional, only *if* and *unless* introduce nonfinite clauses (mainly *-ed* participle clauses) and verbless clauses. They are marginally acceptable in *-ing* participle clauses (*cf* 14.19 Note [a]):

The grass will grow more quickly *if watered regularly.*
Unless otherwise instructed, you should leave by the back exit.
If wet, the pipe won't give you a good smoke.
It has little taste, *unless hot.*

Here belong the positive and negative conditional pro-clauses *if so* and *if not.* The implied subject is the matrix clause itself (or part of it) in some verbless *if*-clauses, including the common *if possible* and *if necessary*:

Marion wants me to type the letter *if possible.*
['if it is possible for me to type the letter']
I can discuss the matter with you now, *if necessary.*
['if it is necessary to discuss the matter with you now']

Nonfinite and verbless clauses with *with* or *without* as subordinator may express a conditional relationship:

Without me to supplement your income, you wouldn't be able to manage.
With them on our side, we are secure.

Cf 15.36 for finite conditional clauses without a subordinator but with subject–operator inversion:

Had Mark been in charge, it wouldn't have happened.

Note [a] The traditional terms PROTASIS for subordinate clause and APODOSIS for matrix clause are especially used for conditional relationships.
[b] *Unless*, *except* ⟨informal AmE⟩, and archaic *save* also combine exception with condition, *cf* 15.35 Note [f]:

I'm not going $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{unless}\\ \textit{except}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *you go with me.*

[c] Conditional relationships are also implied in certain kinds of clauses coordinated by *and* and *or* (*cf* 13.25, 13.30) and in paratactic constructions such as *waste not, want not* (*cf* 11.43).
[d] Among some common stereotyped conditional expressions without subordinators are:
(a) absolute clauses (*cf* 15.58; and 9.58 for expressions such as *barring bad weather*):

$\left.\begin{matrix}\text{time}\\ \text{weather}\end{matrix}\right\}$ permitting God willing

Cf: for the time being

(b) subjectless clauses with a subjunctive verb:
come to that ['if it comes to that', 'if I may add to that']
please God ['if it pleases God']
[e] *Cf* 11.41 for *if*-clauses as sentences.
[f] Contingency relationships may also be expressed by various complex prepositions, *eg*:

on the $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{assumption}\\ \textit{supposition}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *that* *in case of* $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{fire}\\ \text{a fire breaking out}\end{matrix}\right.$
on condition that
with the $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{proviso}\\ \textit{stipulation}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *that* *in the event of* $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{an accident}\\ \text{an accident occurring}\end{matrix}\right.$

[g] Infinitive clauses sometimes combine condition with other contingency relations (*cf* 15.73) such as purpose or reason:
You must be STRONG *to lift that weight.* ['. . . in order to lift that weight', '. . . because you were able to lift that weight', '. . . if you were able to lift that weight']
You'd be a fool *not to take the scholarship.* ['if you didn't . . .']
To be considered for admission, you must make a formal application. ['If you are to be considered . . .', 'In order to be considered . . .']
[h] *Cf* 15.6 Note [a] for the relationship between conditional *if* and interrogative *if.*
[i] Restrictive relative clauses modifying generic noun phrases (*cf* 5.26) may be paraphrased by means of a conditional clause:
People who want security shouldn't take a job in commerce. ['*If people want security*, they shouldn't take a job in commerce']
The same sometimes applies to other restrictive modifiers with generic noun phrases:
Careless drivers cause accidents. ['*If drivers are careless*, they cause accidents']
Cars manufactured abroad are less expensive. ['*If cars are manufactured abroad*, they are less expensive']

Direct condition

Open and hypothetical condition

15.35 A direct condition may be either an OPEN CONDITION or a HYPOTHETICAL CONDITION. Open conditions are neutral: they leave unresolved the question of the fulfilment or nonfulfilment of the condition, and hence also the truth of the proposition expressed by the matrix clause:

If Colin is in London, he is undoubtedly staying at the Hilton.

The sentence leaves unresolved whether Colin is in London, and hence it leaves unresolved whether he is staying at the Hilton.

A hypothetical condition, on the other hand, conveys the speaker's belief that the condition will not be fulfilled (for future conditions), is not fulfilled (for present conditions), or was not fulfilled (for past conditions), and hence the probable or certain falsity of the proposition expressed by the matrix clause:

If he changed his opinions, he'd be a more likeable person. [1]
They would be here with us *if they had the time.* [2]
If you had listened to me, you wouldn't have made so many mistakes. [3]

The conditional clauses in these sentences convey the following implications:

He very probably won't change his opinions. [1a]
They presumably don't have the time. [2a]
You certainly didn't listen to me. [3a]

The precise formulation of the speaker's belief depends on the time reference of the conditional clause. For future reference as in [1], the condition is

contrary to expectation; for present reference as in [2], it is contrary to assumption; for past reference as in [3], it is contrary to fact. *If* is the main subordinator used in hypothetical conditions.

The distinction between open and hypothetical conditions is important grammatically because the verbs in hypothetical conditions are backshifted (*cf* backshifting in indirect speech, 14.31).

	conditional clause	matrix clause
present and future reference	PAST *If I were younger,*	PAST MODAL *I would study Classical Greek.*
past reference	PAST PERFECTIVE *If I had seen you,*	PAST PERFECTIVE MODAL *I would have invited you home.*

Fig 15.35 Verb forms with hypothetical conditions

On the verb forms, *cf* further 14.23.

Conditional clauses – particularly clauses introduced by *if*, *in case*, and *in the event that* – are like questions in that questions are generally either neutral in their expectations of an answer or biased toward a negative response (*cf* 11.6*f*). Therefore, like questions, they tend to admit nonassertive forms (*cf* 10.60*f*):

In the event that he is *at all* interested, I'll speak to him.
If you *ever* touch me again, I'll scream.
If you had *ever* listened to *any* of my lectures, you would have known the answer.
She's taking a stick with her in case she has *any* trouble on the way.

Nonassertive items also appear in indirect conditions (*cf* 15.38):

They're going steady, if it's of *any* interest to you. ['I don't know if it's of any interest to you.']
I'll be in my office all DÀY, in case you have *any* PRÓBlem *at all*. ['I'm telling you this in case you have any problem at all.']

Most subordinators are not used, or rarely used, in hypothetical conditions. Their clauses tend to contain assertive forms:

I won't phone you, unless *something* unforeseen happens.

Second-instance *if*-clauses may have assertive forms:

A: I've got *something* to tell you later.
B: Well, if you've got *something* to tell me, tell me now.

Note [a] Open conditions have also been termed 'real', 'factual', and 'neutral' conditions. Hypothetical conditions have also been termed 'closed', 'unreal', 'rejected', 'nonfactual', 'counterfactual', and 'marked' conditions.
[b] *If and when* is sometimes used for future open conditions.
[c] *If only* is an intensified equivalent of *if*, typically used in hypothetical clauses to express what the speaker wishes would happen, would be happening, or would have happened:
If only you would help me next week, I would not be so nervous.

If only they were here now, we would be able to celebrate their wedding anniversary.
If only somebody had told us, we could have warned you.
When positive, the conditional clause generally contains assertive forms, and nearly always precedes the matrix clause. The clause is sometimes used on its own as a hypothetical wish (*cf* 11.41): *If only I hadn't lost it!* The combination *only if* is quite different: *if* is restricted by the focusing *only*.
[d] *Given* (*that*) and *assuming* (*that*) are used for open conditions which the speaker assumes were, are, or will be fulfilled, and from which a proposition is deduced. A clause introduced by *granted* (*that*) is also used as a premise for a deduction, but usually implies a previous statement on which the premise is based. *If* may be used in the same way: *If you were there* (*and you say you were*), *you must have seen her*; and so also in *if*-clauses with clausal pro-forms: *if so*, *if not*, *if that's true*, *if that's the case*, and (with nonassertives) *if anything*, *if at all*. *Given* (*that*) and *granted* (*that*) tend to be used in formal written style, particularly in argumentation.
[e] *As long as* and *so long as* are less formal than the semantically similar but formal *provided* (*that*) and *providing* (*that*). *Just so* (*that*) tends to appear in informal conversation. They all mean 'if and only if'.
[f] *Unless* introduces a negative condition; the *unless*-clause is usually roughly similar to a negative *if*-clause. With *unless* there is a greater focus on the conditions as an exception ('only if . . . not'). There are therefore contexts in which the *unless*-clause cannot occur:

I'll feel much happier { *if he doesn't come with us.* / **unless he comes with us.* }

{ *If you hadn't studied hard,* / **Unless you had studied hard,* } you'd have failed the exam.

[g] *In case* (*cf* also 15.46) is used for open conditions, normally with future reference ('if it should happen that'):
I'll let you know *in case they come by here.*
In formal AmE it also has the meaning 'on condition that':
The verb is plural (*only*/*just*) *in case the subject is plural.*
[h] *In the event* (*that*) can generally replace *if* in open conditions. Because of its greater length, it is regarded as stylistically clumsy.
[i] The form *if and only if* is used in mathematics and formal logic to introduce a necessary and sufficient condition on the truth of the matrix clause. It is sometimes abbreviated *iff*.

The verb phrase in the conditional clause

15.36 The present subjunctive is sometimes used for open conditions in conditional clauses, instead of the normal present tense:

If any vehicle *be* found parked on these premises without written permission, it shall be towed away at the expense of the vehicle's owner.

This use is mainly confined to very formal, legal, or quasi-legal contexts.

Two ways of expressing future hypothetical conditions are occasionally used in formal contexts. They have overtones of tentativeness:

(i) *was to* or *were to* followed by the infinitive:

If it { *was* / *were* } *to* rain, the ropes would snap. They're far too tight. [1]

(ii) *should* followed by the infinitive (*cf* putative *should* 14.25):

If a serious crisis *should* arise, the public would have to be informed of its full implications. [2]

In [1] *were* is the singular past subjunctive form of *be* and not the simple past form, *were* being used in the past subjunctive for the singular as well as

the plural (*cf* 3.62). As [1] illustrates, both the past subjunctive and the past indicative forms are possible for hypothetical conditions, the subjunctive being preferred by many, especially in formal written English:

If John {*was* / *were*} here, we would soon learn the truth.

The idiom *if I . . . you* by convention usually contains the subjunctive *were*, though *was* also occurs frequently.

We may signal the conditional relationship, without using a subordinator, by subject–operator inversion. The most common use of this inversion in conditional clauses is with the operator *had*:

Had I known, I would have written before. ['If I had known, . . .']

For the negative, *not* is placed before the lexical verb, the enclitic *n't* not being possible:

Had I not seen it with my own eyes, I would not have believed it.

Inversion may also occur in a somewhat literary style with subjunctive *were* and tentative *should*:

Were it to reveal its secrets, that house would collapse in shame.
Were she in charge, she would do things differently.
Should you change your mind, no one would blame you.
Should she be interested, I'll phone her.

More rarely, the operator may be *could* or *might*:

{*Might* / *Could*} *I but see my native land*, I would die a happy man.

For this construction, these two operators require an adverb such as *but* or *just* before the lexical verb.

On the choice of verbs in both the conditional and the matrix clause, *cf* 14.23.

Rhetorical conditional clauses

15.37 Rhetorical conditional clauses give the appearance of expressing an open condition, but (like rhetorical questions, *cf* 11.23) they actually make a strong assertion. There are two types of rhetorical *if*-clauses, one in which the assertion is derived from the conditional clause and the other in which it is derived from the matrix clause.

(a) If the proposition in the matrix clause is patently absurd, the proposition in the conditional clause is shown to be false:

If they're Irish, I'm the Pope. ['Since I'm obviously not the Pope, they're certainly not Irish.']
If you believe that, you'll believe anything. ['You certainly can't believe that.']
If she doesn't get first prize, she's no daughter of yours. ['She certainly will get first prize.']

(b) If the proposition in the conditional clause is patently true, the proposition in the matrix clause is shown to be true. This type is used with measure expressions with the implication of at least the measure stated in the conditional clause. The *if*-clause is positioned finally:

He's ninety *if he's a day*. ['If you'll agree that he's at least a day old, perhaps you'll take my word that he's ninety.']
The package weighed ten pounds *if it weighed an ounce*. ['The package certainly weighed ten pounds.']
The painting must be worth a thousand dollars *if it's worth a cent*. ['The painting must certainly be worth a thousand dollars.']

Note The matrix clause in type (a) has some fixed expressions which state patent falsehoods, with some variation in the person of the subject, such as *I'll eat my hat* and *He's a Dutchman*:

If Dave's younger than me, I'll eat my hat. ['Dave's certainly not younger than me.']

More stereotyped, because restricted to an *I*-subject, are *I'll be* (or *I'm*) *damned* and *I'll be* (or *I'm*) *hanged*, both familiar in style:

{I'll be / I'm} damned *if I apologize*. ['I'll certainly not apologize.']

As a result, these can stand alone as expressions of amazement, *eg*: *Well, I'll be damned*. Taboo expressions also occur in the matrix clause with rhetorical conditional clauses (*eg*: *Fuck me if I'm going to lift a finger to help them*).

Compare also the stereotyped patterns in *She's nothing if not tough* ['She's certainly tough.'] and *He's nothing if not cruel* ['He's certainly cruel.'].

Indirect condition

15.38 Indirect conditions are open conditions (*cf* 15.35) that are dependent on an implicit speech act of the utterance (*cf* 11.3), and are therefore style disjuncts (*cf* 15.21). They are mainly realized by *if*-clauses. We can distinguish several classes of style disjuncts:

(a) The conditional clause is a conventional expression of politeness which makes the speaker's utterance seemingly dependent on the permission of the hearer (*cf* 8.124*f*):

If you don't mind my saying so, your slip is showing. ['If you don't mind my saying so, I'm telling you that . . .']
If I may be quite frank with you, I don't approve of any concessions to ignorance.

Other examples include:

if I may say so (*without contradiction*), *if I may put it bluntly*, *if I may be personal*, *if you can be serious for just this once*, *if you can keep a secret*, *if we can be practical for a moment*, *if I may put the matter as simply as possible*, *if I may interrupt*, *if I may change the subject*

(b) The conditional clause is a metalinguistic comment (*cf* 8.126) which hedges the wording of the utterance, either suggesting that the wording is not quite precise or that it should not be misunderstood in some sense not intended by the speaker. It explicitly or implicitly calls for the hearer's agreement:

His style is florid, *if that's the right word*. ['I'm not sure that *florid* is the right word.'] [1]
The Big Bang Theory of the origin of the universe bears a startling resemblance to the description of creation in Genesis, *if one may put it so*. ['I'm not sure that one may phrase the resemblance in that way.'] [2]
She is resigning, *if you know what I mean*. [Perhaps: 'You are to interpret that to mean that she has been asked to resign.'] [3]

In [1] and [2] the speaker is uncertain of the correctness of the wording. In [3] the speaker is uncertain whether the hearer will interpret the wording correctly and therefore warns the hearer to interpret it in the intended way. Other examples include:

if I may put it so, if that's the correct term, if that's the word for it, if you see what I mean, if I may phrase it delicately/loosely/crudely/figuratively, if you will ⟨formal⟩, *if you like*

Although the clauses with *I* indicate explicitly the speaker's uncertainty, clauses such as *if I may put it so* may be used to convey a warning more indirectly.

(c) The conditional clause expresses uncertainty about the extralinguistic knowledge required for a correct interpretation of the utterance. The uncertainty may be the speaker's or the hearer's:

I met your girl friend Caroline last night, *if Caroline is your girl friend*. [4]
Chomsky's views cannot be reconciled with Piaget's, *if I understand both correctly*. [5]
The war was started by the other side, *if you remember your history lessons*. [6]
Einstein's theory of gravitation is based on a mathematical concept, *if you've not forgotten already*. ⟨ironical⟩ [7]

The conditional clauses in [4] and [5] hedge about the speaker's own knowledge, whereas those in [6] and [7] hedge about the hearer's knowledge. The possible clauses for this type are open-ended, particularly for those expressing the speaker's uncertainty. Other examples include:

if I'm correct, if I understand you correctly, if we can believe the experts, in case you don't remember, if you remember, if you know what I'm referring to, in case you don't know

(d) The conditional clause expresses the condition under which the speaker makes the utterance:

If you're going my way, I need a lift back. ['If you're going my way, will you please give me a lift back.'] [8]
In case he ever asks you, I don't know you. ['In case he ever asks you, tell him that I don't know you.'] [9]
If you want to borrow a shoebrush, there's one in the bathroom. ['If you want . . . use the one in the bathroom.'] [10]

Where did your parents go, *if you know*? ['If you know, tell me . . .'] [11]

Notice that the utterance of [8] and [9] has the illocutionary force of indirect requests, [10] of an indirect offer, and [11] of a direct question. The conditional clause expresses uncertainty. If the speaker is certain of the fulfilment of the condition, a *since*-clause is used instead:

Since you're going my way, I need a lift back. [8a]

For all four types the uncertainty of the condition provides a tentativeness which adds politeness to utterances.

Note Apart from *if*, other subordinators used to introduce indirect conditions are *in case* (*that*), *assuming* (*that*), *in the event* (*that*), and *supposing* (*that*).

Clauses of concession

Subordinators and structural types of clauses

15.39 Clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by *although* or its more informal variant *though*. Other subordinators used with concessive clauses are:

if, even if, even though, when, whereas ⟨formal⟩, *while*, and *whilst* ⟨esp BrE⟩.

Cf also below the exceptional concessive uses of *as* and *that* ⟨BrE⟩.

Although he had just joined the company, he was treated exactly like all the other employees.
No goals were scored, *though it was an exciting game*.
While I don't want to make a fuss, I feel I must protest at your interference.
Whereas the amendment is enthusiastically supported by a large majority in the Senate, its fate is doubtful in the House.
She paid *when she could have entered free*.
He borrowed my mower *even though I told him not to*.

Except for *when* and *whereas*, the concessive subordinators may introduce *-ing*, *-ed*, and verbless clauses:

While not wanting to seem obstinate, I insisted on a definite reply.
Even though given every opportunity, they would not cooperate with us.
Though well over eighty, he can walk faster than I can.

The same types of clauses may also express concession without a subordinator though they then generally require a correlative conjunct to make the relationship clear:

Not wanting to give offence, they did so *all the same*.
Trained in karate, he *nevertheless* used a gun to defend himself.
Aware of the dangers to American citizens during the crisis, she *still* insisted on staying with the others.

Like conditional clauses (*cf* 15.36), concessive clauses sometimes have unusual syntactic orderings when the subordinator is *as* or *though*. In a rather formal style, the predication in the concessive clause may be fronted:

Genius though she was, she was quite unassuming.

Fail though I did, I would not abandon my goal.
Naked as I was, I braved the storm. ['Even though I was naked, . . .']
Change your mind as you will, you will gain no additional support. ['Even though you change your mind, . . .']

The ordering is optional for *though*, but obligatory for *as*, which would not be concessive if placed initially (but *cf* Note [d] below).

That is also used concessively with the same obligatory ordering as *as*, but in AmE only a noun phrase functioning as subject complement can be fronted:

Fool that he was, he managed to evade his pursuers. ['Even though he was a fool, . . .']

The noun phrase has the role of a characterizing attribute (*cf* 10.20). On the other hand, in BrE an adjective phrase functioning as subject complement can also be fronted:

Poor that they were, they gave money to charity. ⟨BrE⟩ ['Even though they were poor, . . .']

For a similar reordering of *as* and *that* in circumstantial clauses, *cf* 15.47.

Note [a] Concession may also be expressed by several prepositional phrases followed by a relative clause:

despite
in spite of
irrespective of } the fact (that)
regardless of
notwithstanding

Because of their greater length than the subordinators, they are considered stylistically clumsy.
[b] For *though* as a conjunct of concession, *cf* 8.137.
[c] In concessive clauses such as *greatly though I admire her* and *much as I would like to help*, only the adverb is in the obligatory initial position. This type is limited to the subordinators *though* and *as*.
[d] The noninitial placement of concessive *as* is perhaps to be related to *as . . . as* in the following example of an infrequent type of concessive clause:
As widespread as the effects may be, the Midwest still bears the brunt of the recession. ['Even though the effects may be widespread, . . .']
The noninitial *as* may therefore be regarded as a correlative to an omitted initial *as*. See also the similar omission of the initial comparative *as* (*cf* 15.71).

Concessive relationships

15.40 Concessive clauses indicate that the situation in the matrix clause is contrary to expectation in the light of what is said in the concessive clause. In consequence of the mutuality, it is often purely a matter of choice which clause is made subordinate:

No goals were scored, *although it was an exciting game*.
It was an exciting game, *although no goals were scored*.

Often they also imply contrast between the situations described by the two clauses.

Although and the more informal *though* are the most versatile of the subordinators, since they may in fact relate clauses in which the situations are similar:

Although Sam had told the children a bedtime story, June told them one too (*anyway*).

While and *whilst* are more restricted, but they may relate clauses in which the contrast is muted, the concessive relationship arising from a contrary expectation:

While he has many friends, Peter is (*nevertheless*) often lonely.
While I admit I did it, (*nevertheless*) I didn't intend to.

Whereas is the most restricted of the four subordinators, requiring antithesis between two situations:

Whereas it would be naive to maintain that inflation is no longer of concern, (*nevertheless*) all the economic indicators suggest that the money supply can now be safely increased.

Even though and *even when* are more emphatic forms of *though* and *when*, the modifying *even* also expressing unexpectedness. *Even if*, on the other hand, combines the concessive force of *even* with the conditional force of *if*; hence the semantic contrast between [1] and [2]:

Even though you dislike ancient monuments, Warwick Castle is worth a visit. [1]
Even if you dislike ancient monuments, Warwick Castle is worth a visit. [2]

Whereas the *even though* clause in [1] presupposes 'you dislike ancient monuments', the *even if* clause in [2] leaves open whether that is so or not. The presupposition of [1] can be cancelled by adding modal *may* or a hedging adverbial such as *perhaps*.

If by itself may be used concessively:

If he's poor, he's (*at least*) honest. ['He may be poor, yet he's at least honest.'] [3]
If he's poor, he's (*also*) honest. ['He is poor, yet he's also honest.'] [3a]

In [3] it is paraphrased as synonymous with *even if* and in [3a] with *even though*. These two different uses of concessive *if* are frequently realized in abbreviated verbless clauses:

It's possible, *if difficult*. ['It may be difficult.']
My car is as clean as yours, *if not cleaner*. ['It may be cleaner.']
He spoke ungraciously, *if not rudely*. ['He may have spoken rudely.']
They were in good health, *if somewhat fatter than desirable*. ['They were somewhat fatter than desirable.']
Her salary was good, *if not up to her expectations*. ['Her salary was not up to her expectations.']

Note On *when* with concessive implications, *cf* 15.29.

Alternative conditional-concessive clauses

15.41 The overlap between condition and concession, already noted with *even if* (*cf* 15.40), is particularly marked in the two types of adverbial clauses termed

ALTERNATIVE CONDITIONAL-CONCESSIVE and UNIVERSAL CONDITIONAL-CONCESSIVE.

The correlative sequence *whether . . . or (whether)* is an alternative condition in that logically it combines the conditional meaning of *if* with the disjunctive meaning of *either . . . or* (*cf* also Note [a]). It is thus a means of coordinating two subordinate clauses. If the second unit is a full clause, *whether* may be repeated, as in [1]; *cf* 15.6:

Whether Martin pays for the broken vase or (whether) he replaces it with a new vase, I'm not inviting HIM again. [1]
You will have to face the publicity, *whether you want to or not*. [2]
Whether or not he finds a job, he's getting married. [3]

The concessive meaning emerges from the unexpected implication that the same situation applies under two contrasting conditions. Thus, [3] may be paraphrased 'Even if he finds a job or even if he doesn't find a job, he's getting married.' On alternative orderings for [2] and [3], *cf* Note [a].

The longer and more emphatic constructions *It doesn't matter whether* (initial only) and *No matter whether* can also be used to introduce clauses that are alternative conditional-concessive (*cf* 15.42).

You will have to face the publicity, *no matter whether you want to or not*. [2a]

It doesn't matter whether or not he finds a job, he's getting married. [3a]

The same subordinators also introduce nonfinite and verbless clauses:

Sarah is always intense, *whether working or playing*. [4]
Whether trained or not, Marilyn is doing an excellent job. [5]
No matter whether right or wrong, your son needs all the support you can give him right now. [6]

The subordinator may be omitted, but the clause is then normally initial:

Working or playing, Sarah is always intense. [4a]
Trained or not, Marilyn is doing an excellent job. [5a]

There are also verbless clauses introduced by *with*, which is then correlated with *without*:

We'll buy the house, *with a bank loan or without one*. [7]
With or without a bank loan, we'll buy the house. [7a]

The same meaning may be conveyed merely by the coordinated noun phrases if the second is negated by the determiner *no*:

We'll buy the house, *bank loan or no bank loan*. [8]

This construction is also available when the implied verb is *be* rather than *have*:

I have to go to work, *rain or no rain*. [9]
['. . . whether or not there *is* rain.']

A further reduction is possible, though less common, by the omission of the second noun phrase. The reduced clause is then usually placed initially:

Bank loan or no, we'll buy the house. [10]

In all the types exemplified by [7–10], the verbless clause may be either initial or final. In the types exemplified by [8–10], the indefinite article is omitted in the parallel structure before count nouns such as *bank loan*.

Note [a] We may see a relationship also with alternative interrogative clauses (*cf* 15.6). Compare [1] above with:
I don't know whether Martin will pay for the broken vase or whether he will replace it. I'm not inviting him again anyway.
The subordinate clause in [2] can be reordered as *whether or not you want to* and that in [3] as *whether he finds a job or not*. *Cf* alternative questions, 11.20*f*.
[b] Occasionally alternative conditional-concessive meaning is expressed by a finite clause without a subordinator, in which the verb is subjunctive (*cf* 15.34 Note [d], 15.42 Note [b]):
Rain or shine, we're having our party outside today. ['Whether it rains or shines, . . .']
Compare : (*Come*) *wind or rain* ['Whether wind or rain comes.']. A rarer and somewhat literary construction involves the use of subjunctive *be*:
(*Be he*) *friend or foe*, the law regards him as a criminal. ['Whether he is (*or* be) friend or foe, . . .']
[c] The alternative in the second clause may be parallel to only part of the first clause. Thus, the finite clause corresponding to [6] is:
No matter whether he's right or wrong, . . .
and a slightly amended version of [5] might be:
Whether trained as a nurse or as a radiologist . . .
[d] As with *either* (*cf* 13.39*ff*), some speakers allow more than two choices (*cf* 15.6 Note [b]):
Whether you do your homework *or* play *or* watch television, you must not disturb me.
[e] Like *no matter whether* are *regardless of whether* and *irrespective of whether* (*cf* 15.39 Note [a]):
Regardless of whether or not he finds a job, he's getting married.

Universal conditional-concessive clauses

15.42 The contrast between alternative clauses and universal clauses is parallel to that between alternative questions (*cf* 11.20*f*) and *wh*-questions (*cf* 11.14*ff*) or to that between their corresponding dependent clauses (*cf* 15.5*f*). The alternative conditional-concessive clause gives a choice between two (or occasionally more, *cf* 15.41 Note [d]) stated conditions, normally in sharp opposition, whereas the universal conditional-concessive clause indicates a free choice from any number of conditions. Compare:

Whether I shout at them or plead with them, I can't keep them quiet. [two stated alternatives] [1]
Whatever I say to them, I can't keep them quiet. [any number of choices] [2]

The concessive implication in [2] comes through the inference that, for example, I can't keep them quiet *even if* I promise them a treat.

The alternative clauses are introduced by the *wh*-words that are compounded with *-ever* and by the longer constructions *It doesn't matter* (initial only) and *No matter* (*cf* 15.41) followed by *wh*-elements. The clauses share with other *wh*-clauses the initial placement of the *wh*-element, and the consequent shift of that element (unless it is the subject) from its normal syntactic order:

Stand perfectly still, *wherever you are*. [A S V]
However much advice you give him, he does exactly what he wants. [O_dS V O_i]

Don't let them in, *whoever they are*. [C_s S V]

There is a subtle semantic difference between the universal clauses and the apparently identical time and place clauses beginning *whenever* and *wherever*. The contrast can be shown in a sentence such as:

Wherever you live, you can keep a horse.

The locative meaning is 'You can keep a horse at any place where you may live' (*cf* specific locative *where*: *You can keep a horse where you live*). The conditional-concessive meaning (more applicable to a city-dweller) is 'It doesn't matter where you live, you can keep a horse (and the horse need not be in the same place as you live)'.

Note [a] The verb *be* can be omitted from a universal clause if the subject of an *SVC* clause is an abstract noun phrase:
Whatever your problems (*are/may be*), they can't be worse than mine.
However great the pitfalls (*are/may be*), we must do our best to succeed.
[b] Occasionally the universal meaning is expressed by a finite clause without a subordinator, in which case the verb is subjunctive and is initial (*cf* 10.34 Note [d], 15.41 Note [b]): *Come what may* ['Whatever may happen.'], *Be that as it may* ['However that may be.'].

Clauses of contrast

15.43 Clauses of contrast are introduced by several of the subordinators that introduce concessive clauses (*cf* 15.39): *whereas*, *while*, and *whilst*. Indeed, there is often a mixture of contrast and concession. The contrastive meaning may be emphasized by correlative antithetic conjuncts such as *in contrast* and *by contrast* when the contrastive clause is initial:

Mr Larson teaches physics, *while Mr Corby teaches chemistry*.
I ignore them, *whereas my husband is always worried about what they think of us*.

The three subordinators are interchangeable, except that the less common *whilst* is found especially in BrE.

Clauses of contrast are very similar to clauses coordinated by *but*. This is particularly so when the contrastive clause is final. When the contrastive clause is initial, it is viewed as containing the subordinate information, the point of departure for the contrast.

Clauses of exception

15.44 Clauses of exception are introduced by several subordinators: *but that* ⟨formal⟩, *except* (*that*); less frequently *excepting* (*that*) and *save that* ⟨formal⟩. Several of the subordinators also blend exception with condition. *Except* (*that*), *excepting* (*that*), and *save that* have very similar uses, apart from the stylistic restriction on *save that*:

I would pay you now, *except I don't have any money on me*.
No memorial remains for the brave who fell on that battlefield, *save that they will leave their image for ever in the hearts and minds of their grateful countrymen*. ⟨formal⟩

But that, like the preposition *but*, requires that the matrix clause precede it and be negative:

Nothing would satisfy the child *but that I place her on my lap*. ⟨formal⟩ [1]

More usually an infinitive clause would be used:

Nothing would satisfy the child *but for me to place her on my lap*. [1a]

In stereotyped sentences, *but* alone may occur:

It never rains *but it pours*.

Only, restricted to informal style, also expresses the meaning of exception (*cf* Note [a] below):

I would've asked you, *only my mother told me not to*.

Unless combines condition with exception ('except if'), hence the negative meaning; *provided* (*that*) and its synonyms are the positive equivalent.

For prepositions of exception that introduce bare infinitive and *to*-infinitive clauses, *cf* 9.58.

Note [a] *Only* is a borderline case between conjunct and conjunction. It is unclear whether a coordinating conjunction (for example, *but*) can be inserted between the clauses; if it can, it has one of the defining characteristics of the class of conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*), but if it cannot, its syntactic status is similar to *for*, which is on the gradient between coordinator and subordinator (*cf* 13.18*f*). It may be paraphrased 'The only thing is'.
[b] *Except* (*that*), *excepting* (*that*), and *save that* can usually be replaced by the coordinating conjunction *but*. They can also usually be replaced by longer, and hence stylistically clumsy, prepositional phrases followed by relative clauses, *eg*: *except for/apart from the fact* (*that*). Contexts excluding replacement by the conjunction and the prepositional phrases are where *but that* is admissible.
[c] AmE prefers the present subjunctive for the verb in the subordinate clause in [1], while BrE prefers putative *should* (*cf* 14.24*f*).

Reason clauses

Direct and indirect reason relationships

15.45 We subsume under clauses of REASON several types of subordinate clauses that convey basic similarities of relationship to their matrix clauses. For all types there is generally a temporal sequence such that the situation in the subordinate clause precedes in time that of the matrix clause. As the paraphrases indicate, the word *reason* is a superordinate term available for all types:

(a) Cause and effect: the construction expresses the perception of an inherent objective connection in the real world:

The flowers are growing so well *because I sprayed them*. ['The cause for the flowers growing so well is that I sprayed them' *or* 'The reason that the flowers are growing so well is that I sprayed them.']
He's thin *because he doesn't eat enough*.

(b) Reason and consequence: the construction expresses the speaker's inference of a connection:

She watered the flowers *because they were dry*. ['The reason that she watered the flowers was that they were dry.']
Since she's my friend, she must have put in a good word for me.

(c) Motivation and result: the construction expresses the intention of an animate being that has a subsequent result:

I watered the flowers *because my parents told me to do so*. ['My motivation for watering the flowers was that my parents told me to do so' *or* 'The reason that I watered the flowers was that my parents told me to do so.']
You'll help me *because you're my friend*.

Agency and intention are always involved in motivation.

(d) Circumstances and consequence: the circumstantial clause combines reason with a condition that is assumed to be fulfilled or about to be fulfilled, the construction expressing a relationship between a premise in the subordinate clause and the conclusion in the matrix clause:

Since the weather has improved, the game will be held as planned. ['In view of the fact that the weather has improved, the game will be held as planned' *or* 'The reason that the game will be held as planned is that the weather has improved.']
Seeing that it is only three, we should be able to finish this before we leave today.

The examples we have given so far express a DIRECT REASON relationship between the reason clause and the matrix clause. More peripheral uses of reason clauses express an INDIRECT REASON. The reason is not related to the situation in the matrix clause but is a motivation for the implicit speech act of the utterance:

Percy is in Washington, *for he phoned me from there*. ['Since he phoned from there, I can tell you that Percy is in Washington.']
As you're in charge, where are the files on the new project? ['As you're in charge, I'm asking you . . .?']
Vanessa is your favourite aunt, *because your parents told me so*. ['Since your parents told me so, I can say that Vanessa is your favourite aunt.']
As long as you're here, why don't we discuss our plans?
Since you seem to know them, why don't you introduce me to them? ['Since you seem to know them, I ask you to introduce me to them.']

Since and *because* are the most common subordinators for indirect cause. Clauses expressing an indirect cause are style disjuncts, *cf* 15.21.

Subordinators and structural types of clauses

15.46 Reason clauses are most commonly introduced by the subordinators *because* (also *'cause*) and *since*. Other subordinators are *as* and (in somewhat formal style) *for*:

I lent him the money *because he needed it*.
As Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others.
Since we live near the sea, we often go sailing.
Much has been written about psychic phenomena, *for they pose fascinating problems that have yet to be resolved*.

In case combines reason with contingency ('because it may happen that'):

Take your umbrella *in case it rains*. ['Take your umbrella because it *may* rain', '. . . because of *the possibility* that it will rain.']
You should write a will *in case something happens to you abroad*.

Circumstantial clauses (*cf* 15.45) are introduced by the simple subordinators *because*, *since*, and *as* and by several complex subordinators: *seeing* (*that*); *as long as*; *inasmuch as* ⟨formal⟩:

Seeing that it seems as if it will rain soon, we had better leave now.
As long as you're here, we might as well talk about your last game.
It is doubtful whether research proposals by Freud himself would have been approved by reviewers, *inasmuch as he was not affiliated to any academic institution*. ⟨formal⟩

Clauses introduced by *with* may also be circumstantial:

With the exams coming next week, I have no time for a social life.
With so many children to support, they both have to work full time.

Cf also circumstantial *now* (*that*), 15.28.
In that ⟨formal⟩ combines reason with point of view:

The evidence is invalid *in that it was obtained through illegal means*. ['The evidence is invalid in this respect: it was obtained through illegal means.'] ⟨formal⟩

When *while* introduces a style disjunct, it blends time and reason:

While you're in the kitchen, bring me another drink.

Clauses without a subordinator may imply the meanings discussed in this section:

Knowing their tastes, she was able to bring a gift that they would like.
Constructed according to my specifications, the building was able to withstand the earthquake.
Assured of your support, he would not compromise.

It is a testimony of the close and obvious connection between reason and temporal sequence that *as* and *since* are conjunctions of time as well as of cause. This dual function can give rise to ambiguity:

As he was standing near the door, he could hear the conversation in the kitchen. ['Since he was standing near the door . . .' *or* 'While he was standing near the door . . .']

Note [a] A number of prepositional phrases are used to introduce reason relationships, but they are often considered to be stylistically clumsy because of their greater length:

because of
by virtue of
in (the) light of
in view of
on account of
owing to
due to
} the fact (that)

For prescriptive objections to the use of *due to* as a preposition, *cf* 15.59 Note [d]. For the use of *on account of* as a subordinator in informal style (esp AmE), *cf* 14.12 Note [e].

[b] Infinitive clauses may convey a meaning similar to that of reason *in that*:

He's foolish *to make such a fuss*. ['. . . in that he makes such a fuss.']

They may also blend reason with condition, *cf* 15.34 Note [g].

[c] The stereotyped clause *come to think of it*, with no subordinator and with a verb in the base form is similar to *now that I come to think of it*:

Come to think of it, shouldn't you write to her?

[d] The reason/contingency meaning of *in case* easily merges into a negative purpose meaning (*cf* 15.35 Note [g], 15.48). Compare:

Write a will *in case you die*. ['. . . because you may die.']

Write a will *in case you die without providing for your family*. ['. . .because you may die without providing for your family', 'in order that you do not die without providing for your family']

[e] Circumstantial *what with* refers to one or more given circumstances of an unspecified set, whereas circumstantial *with* implies only one:

What with the prices (being) so high, (and (with) my wife being out of work), I can't afford a new refrigerator.

Notice that it is possible to add informal *and all* if a coordinated *and (with)* . . . is not present:

What with Carol (being) out of work and all, we didn't send any Christmas cards this year.

There is a stereotyped phrasal analogue:

What with one thing and another, I couldn't sleep last night.

[f] *As* followed by a noun phrase may correspond to a finite clause:

As I'm your mother,
As your mother,
} I'll decide.

But the restriction to noun phrases suggests that *as* is here a preposition.

[g] An adjunct *because*-clause, but not a style disjunct *because*-clause, corresponds to a prepositional phrase introduced by *because of*:

The flowers are growing well { *because I fertilized them.* / *because of my fertilizing them.* }

[h] A *because*-clause is sometimes used informally as equivalent to a *that*-clause:

(Just) because I object to his promotion doesn't mean that I'm vindictive. ['The (mere) fact that I object . . .'] [1]

There are prescriptive objections to this use. Alternatives are:

My objection
My objecting
} to his promotion doesn't mean that I'm vindictive. [1a]

I can't be accused of being vindictive (just) because I object to his promotion. [1b]

There are also prescriptive objections against the alleged redundancy in the informal use of a *because*-clause that correlates with a previous *why* or *the reason (that)*:

Why
The reason (that)
} they didn't go to see the house is *because* they prefer to live in an apartment. [2]

Similar objections apply to the use of *the reason why* in place of *the reason (that)*. The fully acceptable alternative to [2] would replace *because* by *that*.

15.47 Most subordinators used for direct cause introduce content disjuncts, but *because*, *in case*, and *in that* introduce adjuncts (*cf* 15.20).

Adjunct *because*-clauses tend to be in *I* position, while style disjunct *because*-clauses are always at *E. For*, which is close to coordinator status, is always at *E. Table* 15.47 draws on an analysis of British English based on a

100 000-word sample from both the London–Lund corpus (which contains most of the SEU spoken texts) and the LOB written corpus to provide figures for the positions of clauses introduced by the major reason subordinators.

Table 15.47 Distribution of reason clauses in samples from the written LOB corpus and the spoken London–Lund corpus

	LL	LOB	Total
as	7	19	26
initial	2	9	11
final	5	10	15
because (cos)	355	70	425
initial	4	8	12
medial	4	2	6
final	347	60	407
for (all final)	0	64	64
since	5	33	38
initial	2	12	14
medial	1	0	1
final	2	21	23

When *as* is a circumstantial subordinator, the predication may optionally be fronted:

Writing hurriedly as she was, she didn't notice the spelling errors.
Tired as they were, they went to bed as soon as they came back.

That may be a circumstantial subordinator, when the subject complement is obligatorily fronted:

Clumsy idiot that he was, Michael completely ruined the dinner.

Cf 15.39 for a similar fronting with concessive clauses.

Clauses of purpose

15.48 Clauses of purpose, which are adjuncts, are more often infinitival than finite:

To open the carton, pull this tab.
I left early *to catch the train*.
My publisher sent it *for me to comment on (it)*.

More explicit subordinators of purpose are *in order to* ⟨formal⟩ and *so as to*:

They left the door open (*in order*) *for me to hear the baby*.
Students should take notes (*so as*) *to make revision easier*.
The committee agreed to adjourn (*in order*) *to reconsider the matter when fuller information became available*.

Finite clauses of purpose are introduced by *so that* or (less commonly and more informally) by *so*, and (more formally) by *in order that*:

The school closes earlier *so (that) the children can get home before dark.*
The jury and the witnesses were removed from the court *in order that they might not hear the arguments of the lawyers on the prosecution's motion for an adjournment.*

These finite clauses, which are putative (*cf* 15.49), require one of these modal auxiliaries: *can, could, may, might, should, would.*

Negative purpose is expressed in the infinitive clauses by *so as not to* and *in order not to*:

Turn the volume down *so as not to wake the baby.*
I ignored the remark *in order not to prolong the dispute.*

In finite clauses it is expressed by *in order that . . . not*, but also by specific subordinators: *for fear (that)* ⟨formal⟩, *in case* ⟨BrE⟩, or the very formal *lest*:

They left early *for fear (that) they would meet him.* [1]
They evacuated the building *in case the wall collapsed.* [2]

For fear (that) conveys also the meaning of apprehension and requires a modal auxiliary, but *in case* need not have a modal auxiliary. In [2] there is an implicit negative purpose 'in order that, if the wall collapsed, they would not be affected.' Archaic *lest* tends to have a modal auxiliary or (esp in AmE) the present subjunctive:

Earthen mounds were being hastily erected *lest an attack* { *should be* / *be* ⟨esp AmE⟩ } *launched that night.*

Note [a] The implied subject of an infinitive clause may be the object (indirect or direct) of the superordinate clause:
I lent Paul a dollar *to get home.* ['. . . (for Paul) to get home.']
The purpose infinitive clause can be fronted when the implied subject is the subject of the superordinate clause:
To get home, I had to borrow money from Paul.
[b] As a subordinator for finite clauses of purpose, *that* is archaic:
The jury and witnesses were removed from the court *that they might not hear the arguments of the lawyers.*
Should not hear ⟨esp BrE⟩ and *not hear* ⟨esp AmE⟩ could also be used instead of *might not hear.*
[c] Purpose may be expressed by an *if*-clause containing the semi-auxiliaries *be to* or *be going to*:
If I'm to be there on time, I must leave at once.

Clauses of result

15.49 Clauses of result are introduced by the subordinators *so that* ⟨formal⟩ and *so*. These clauses overlap with those of purpose both in meaning and in subordinators. The chief semantic difference is that result clauses are factual rather than putative: both express result, but in the result clause the result is achieved, whereas in the purpose clause it is yet to be achieved – it is a desired or aimed-at result. Hence finite clauses of result do not require a modal auxiliary:

We paid him immediately, *so (that) he left contented.* [result] [1]
We paid him immediately *so (that) he would leave contented.* [purpose] [2]

As we see from these examples, *so* and *so that* express both purpose and result, but *so that* is more commonly used for purpose and *so* for result. When *that* is omitted in the result clause, the conjunction *so* is indistinguishable from the conjunct *so* in asyndetic coordination. If *and* is inserted, *so* is unambiguously the conjunct:

We paid him immediately, *and so* he left contented. [1a]

Result clauses differ syntactically from purpose clauses, in that result clauses are disjuncts whereas purpose clauses are adjuncts (*cf* 15.20). Furthermore, result clauses can only appear finally. Unlike the purpose clause, the result clause introduced by *so (that)* is separated by comma punctuation.

The result relation is the converse of that of motivation (*cf* 15.45). Consider the following sentence:

I took no notice of him, *so he flew into a rage.*

Its meaning can be expressed by reversing the matrix and subordinate clauses and using a conjunction such as *because*:

He flew into a rage *because I took no notice of him.*

That may introduce a final clause with resultative meaning in interrogative sentences:

What have I done, *that you should insult me*?

In one type of comparative clause, the clause expresses result. This type (*cf* 15.74) has the correlatives *so . . . (that)* or *such . . . (that)*, in which *so* and *such* are intensifiers:

Her parents gave her *so* many toys *(that) she couldn't possibly play with them all.* [*cf* Note [b]] [3]
She is *such* a good lecturer *(that) all her courses are full.* [4]

Such that ⟨formal⟩ combines result with manner:

The two halves of the human brain behave independently, *such that each half can be taught opposite solutions to simple problems.* ['. . . in a way that has the result that . . .']

Note [a] *Cf* 15.25 for *to*-infinitive clauses that blend the meanings of time and outcome.
[b] If *that* is omitted in [3] and [4] above, an intonation break is normal at that place. If *so* intensifies a verb it may appear at the end of the clause, and an intonation break (or in writing, a comma) is normal after *so*:
They wanted it *so, (that) they agreed to pay more than the normal price.* [*so* = 'so much']
Compare the result clause with the complex subordinator *so that*:
They wanted it, *so (that) they agreed to pay more than the normal price.*
In formal style, *so* may be a manner adverb rather than an intensifier, in which case *that* must be retained:
They *so* arranged the seating *that all had a clear view of the stage.* [*so* = 'in such a way'] ⟨formal⟩
Again, *so* may be postposed:
They arranged the seating *so, that all had a clear view of the stage.* ⟨formal⟩
[c] In interrogative and negative sentences, *that* may introduce a result clause that is related to the correlative *so . . . that* comparative clause exemplified in [3] and [4] above, except that the intensifier *so* is omitted. The style is formal and archaic:
Do you know her intimately, *that you presume to address her in such a casual manner*?

(Compare: *Do you know her so intimately that . . .*)
They are not destitute *that they need your help.*
In the negative sentence, the result clause is counterfactual ('they do not need your help').

Clauses of similarity and comparison

15.50 Adjunct clauses of similarity are predication adjuncts (*cf* 15.22). They are introduced by *as* and *like* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩. *As* and *like* are commonly premodified by *just* and *exactly*:

She cooks a turkey (*just*) *as her mother did.* ['. . . in a way that is similar to the way that . . .'] [1]
Please do it (*exactly*) *as I said.* [2]
?Say the word (*exactly*) *like I did.* ⟨esp informal AmE⟩ [*cf* Note [b]] [3]
It was (*just*) *as I imagined.* ['. . . similar to what I imagined.'] [4]

When the verb is dynamic, as in [1–3], similarity is combined with manner. The clause in [4], on the other hand, expresses pure similarity.

If the *as*-clause is placed initially, as in [5], correlative *so* introduces the matrix clause in formal literary style:

(*Just*) *as a moth is attracted by a light, so* he was fascinated by her. [5]

The clause then expresses an analogy.

Adjunct clauses of comparison are also predication adjuncts. They are introduced by *as if, as though,* and *like* ⟨informal, esp AmE⟩. As with similarity clauses, when the verb is dynamic they also convey a manner meaning. If the comparison is factual, the verb in the comparison follows the normal rules for temporal reference:

He looks *as if he's getting better.*

If the comparison is hypothetical (implying lack of reality), a subjunctive or hypothetical past may be used as an alternative (*cf* 14.23*f*):

She treats me *as if* { *I'm* / *I was* / *I were* } *a stranger.*

He talks *as if* { *he has* / *he had* } *a potato in his mouth.*

She treated me *as though* { *I was* / *I were* / *I had been* } *a stranger.*

The subordinators *as, as if,* and *as though* introduce nonfinite and verbless clauses:

Fill in the application form *as instructed.*
He bent down *as if tightening his shoe laces.*
You should discuss the company with him *as though unaware that you were being considered for a job.*

As if and *as though* may also introduce *to*-infinitive clauses:

She winked at me *as if to say that I shouldn't say anything.*

Note [a] An *as*-clause that blends manner with similarity may allow subject–operator inversion if the clause consists only of the subject and the operator:
His conducting of the third movement shows the subtlety of his interpretation, *as does his earlier recording of the Mass in C.*
The present owner is a keen art collector, *as were several of her ancestors.*
[b] There are prescriptive objections to the use of *like* as a subordinating manner or comparison conjunction, but it is commonly used as such in informal style, especially in AmE. It is more acceptable when it expresses pure similarity, as does the preposition *like*, though it still tends to be confined to informal style:
It was (*just*) *like I imagined.* ⟨informal⟩ [4a]
Compare the casual:
?It was (*just*) *like what I imagined.* ⟨casual⟩ [4b]
[c] Adverbial clauses of comparison are not to be confused with the comparative clauses in 15.63*ff*.

Clauses of proportion

15.51 Proportional clauses involve a kind of comparison. They express a proportionality or equivalence of tendency or degree between two situations. They may be introduced by *as*, with or without correlative *so* ⟨formal⟩, or by the fronted correlative *the . . . the* followed by comparative forms:

As he grew disheartened, (*so*) his work deteriorated.
As the lane got narrower, (*so*) the overhanging branches made it more difficult for us to keep sight of our quarry.
The more she thought about it, *the less* she liked it.
The harder he worked, *the happier* he felt.

The fronting of the comparative elements results in the kind of syntactic ordering found in relative and *wh*-interrogative clauses:

The later you arrive [A S V], the better the food is [C_s S V].
The more you tell him [O_d S V O_i], the less notice he takes [O_d S V].

On the correlative *the*-clauses, *cf* further 14.13 and (as expressing a contingency meaning) 15.30.

Note [a] Correlative clauses of proportion are found in some aphoristic sentences such as *The more, the merrier* (*cf* 11.43).
[b] The subordinators *insofar as, inasmuch as* ⟨formal⟩, and *insofar that* ⟨formal, rare⟩ introduce adjunct clauses of extent or degree:
We agreed with the lecturer *only insofar as she condemned the government's domestic policies.* ['. . . only to the extent that . . .']
Corresponding prepositions are *to the extent that* and *to the degree that.*

Clauses of preference

15.52 Clauses of preference are mainly introduced by the subordinators *rather than* and *sooner than*, with the bare infinitive as the verb of the clause:

Rather than go there by air, I'd take the slowest train. ['I'd prefer to take the slowest train.'] [1]
They'll fight to the finish *sooner than surrender.* ['They prefer to fight to the finish.'] [2]

The combination *'d rather* [= *would rather* or *had rather*] is a modal idiom (*cf* 3.45*f*). Corresponding to [1] is [1a]:

I'd rather take the slowest train *than go there by air.* [1a]

The subordinate clause may very occasionally have its own subject:

Rather than you say anything, I would speak to the manager myself. ['I'd prefer to speak to the manager myself.'] [3]

A rare and formal finite clause of preference occurs with putative *should* (*cf* 14.25):

Rather than she should feel lonely, her friends arranged to take her with them on the trip. [4]

The subordinate clause expresses the rejected alternative. That negative meaning allows it to contain nonassertive items (*cf* 10.60), as in [3] and [5]:

Rather than *ever* admit that he has *any* pain *at all*, he'll suffer for weeks. [5]

The matrix clause expresses an implied conditional meaning ('if there's a choice'), and therefore the matrix verb tends to contain a modal auxiliary.

Note [a] On *rather than* as a quasi-coordinator, *cf* 14.15 Note, and as a preposition with *-ing* clauses, *cf* 14.19 Note [c].
[b] The preference construction extends the notion of priority in time to the notion of priority in choice. It is therefore not surprising that temporal expressions other than *sooner* are used to convey preference: notably the subordinator *before*, but also such comparative adverbs as *quicker, faster, more readily*, plus *than*. Both clauses take modal auxiliaries:
He'd sit alone in the dark *before he'd watch television*. ['He prefers to sit alone in the dark.']
She'll use the telephone *before she'll put pen to paper*.
They would volunteer their own work *more readily than they would contribute money*.
I'd buy a typewriter *faster than I'd buy a television set*.
In earlier periods of English, *rather* also had temporal meaning.

Comment clauses

15.53 Comment clauses are parenthetical disjuncts. They may occur initially, finally, or medially, and thus generally have a separate tone unit:

KĬNGston, |*as you probably KNÓW*,| is the capital of JaMÀIca |

Comment clauses are either content disjuncts that express the speakers' comments on the content of the matrix clause, or style disjuncts that convey the speakers' views on the way they are speaking (*cf* 15.20*f*). Here we consider forms of these clauses that we have not discussed in the previous sections on the semantic roles of adverbial clauses.

We distinguish the following types:

(i) like the matrix clause of a main clause:
There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job.

(ii) like an adverbial finite clause (introduced by *as*):
I'm working the night shift, *as you know*.

(iii) like a nominal relative clause:
What was more upsetting, we lost all our luggage.

(iv) *to*-infinitive clause as style disjunct:
I'm not sure what to do, *to be honest*.

(v) *-ing* clause as style disjunct:
I doubt, *speaking as a layman*, whether television is the right medium for that story.

(vi) *-ed* clause as style disjunct:
Stated bluntly, he had no chance of winning.

In each category, there are idiomatic or cliché expressions: *you see, as I say, what's more to the point, to be fair, generally speaking, put bluntly*. Similarly, in each category there is at least some freedom to coin new expressions.

Comment clauses, many of which are characteristic of spoken English, are generally marked prosodically by increased speed and lowered volume.

15.54 Type (i) comment clauses, which are the most important, generally contain a transitive verb or adjective which elsewhere requires a nominal *that*-clause as object (*cf* 15.4). We can therefore see a correspondence between sentences containing such clauses and sentences containing indirect statements:

There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job. [1]
I believe that there were no other applicants for that job. [2]

To convert a sentence with a *that*-clause such as [2] into a sentence such as [1], we have to reverse the relationship of subordination between the two clauses, making the *that*-clause into the matrix clause, at the same time omitting the subordinator *that*, and making the matrix clause into the comment clause. Because of this reversal of syntactic roles, the two sentences [1] and [2] are not exact paraphrases; but the relationship between them illuminates the function of the comment clause. Furthermore, the verb in the comment clause may have only one of the meanings possible for the verb in the matrix clause. Verbs like *believe* and *think* may have a more definitive meaning or may merely hedge (express a tentative meaning); but only the hedging meaning is present in comment clauses. The possible difference is highlighted in the contrast between [3] and [4], and between [5] and [6]:

I believe that there is a God.
['I assert the belief that there is a God' or 'There may be a God.'] [3]
There is a God, *I believe*. ['There may be a God.'] [4]
You know that it belongs to me. ['You know that'] [5]
It belongs to me, *you know*. ['I want you to know that'] [6]

Since the *that* of an object *that*-clause is normally deletable (*cf* 15.4), only the intonation (reflected by comma separation in writing) distinguishes an initial comment clause from an initial matrix clause:

You KNÓW,| |I think you're WRÒNG|. } [*You know* is a comment clause]
You know, I |think you're WRÒNG|. }
You |know (that) I think you're WRÒNG|. [*You know* is a matrix clause]

Comment clauses resemble main clauses in that they contain at least a

subject and a verb and are not introduced by a subordinator. However, they are not independent clauses, since they are defective syntactically: the verb or adjective lacks its normally obligatory complementation.

Many type (i) clauses are stereotyped, *eg*: *I believe*, *you know*. Outside this group, however, clauses can be fairly freely constructed, permitting variations of subject, tense, and aspect, or additions of adjuncts, etc:

The Indian railways (*my uncle was telling me some time ago*) have always made a profit.

Type (i) comment clauses that are stereotyped may have various semantic functions:

(a) They hedge, *ie* they express the speaker's tentativeness over the truth value of the matrix clause. Commonly, the subject is *I* and the verb is in the simple present, but the subject may be an indefinite *one* or *they* or (usually with a passive verb) *it* and the verb may (for example) have a modal auxiliary or be in the present perfective. Here are some examples:

I believe, I guess, I think, I expect, I feel, I hear, I presume, I assume, I understand, I suppose, I consider, I suspect, I'm told, I have read, I have heard, I have heard tell, I can see, I may assume, I daresay, I venture to say, one hears, they tell me, they allege, they say, it is said, it is reported, it is claimed, it is rumoured, it has been claimed, it seems, it appears

The comment clause may be negative (with *I* as subject) if the matrix clause is negative:

They aren't at home, *I don't believe*.

The matched negative expresses greater tentativeness than the positive. The verbs that commonly allow the negative are *believe*, *expect*, *suppose*, *think*.

Some comment clauses are added to questions:

What's he DÒing, *I WÓNder*?
Are they to get aWÀY with it, *I ÁSK myself*?

(b) They express the speaker's certainty. Commonly, the subject is *I* and the verb is in the simple present. Here are some examples:

I know, I claim, I see, I remember, I agree, I admit, I'm sure, I'm convinced; I have no doubt; it's true, it transpires; there's no doubt; I must say, I must admit, I must tell you, I have to say

Certainty may also be expressed by negation of a verb that expresses rejection or lack of certainty, *eg*: *I don't deny, I don't doubt*.

(c) They express the speaker's emotional attitude towards the content of the matrix clause. Again, usually the subject is *I* and the verb is in the simple present. Some are followed by a *to*-infinitive verb of speaking. Here are some examples:

I'm glad to say, I'm happy to say, I'm pleased to say, I'm delighted to say, I'm happy to tell you; I hope, I wish, I fear, I regret, I'm afraid; I regret to say, I'm sorry to say; it pains me to tell you, it grieves me to say

Interjections such as *God knows* and *Heaven knows*, which express the speaker's lack of comprehension, perhaps belong here because they also imply an emotive attitude.

(d) They are used to claim the hearer's attention. Some also call for the hearer's agreement. At the same time, they express the speaker's informality and warmth toward the hearer. The subject is usually *you* or the implied *you* of the imperative. Here are some examples:

you know, you see, you realize; you can see, you may know, you may have heard, you must admit; mind you, mark you; it may interest you to know

Negative questions generally call for the hearer's agreement, *eg*: *wouldn't you say?, don't you think?, don't you agree?, can't you see?, don't you know?* They are attached to declarative sentences:

It's ethically wrong, *wouldn't you say*?

Positive questions generally call for the hearer's attention. They are attached to interrogative sentences:

What's she doing, *do you think*?
Is the heating on, *do you suppose*?

Note [a] The reporting clauses for direct speech (*cf* 14.29) are related to the semantic roles (a) and (b) of type (i) comment clauses, and may be considered an additional semantic category within type (i):

'It's time we went,' *I said*.

Like the other comment clauses, their verbs also normally require complementation.

[b] Tag questions (*cf* 11.8*ff*) are related to the semantic role (d) of type (i) comment clauses, and may also be considered comment clauses:

They're in a great hurry, *aren't they*?

They may alternatively be analysed as related to the matrix clause by parataxis (*cf* 13.2) rather than by subordination, parataxis being a relationship that might be postulated for all type (i) comment clauses.

[c] Although comment clauses are syntactically dependent in that their verbs lack the required complementation, some clauses identical in form to comment clauses may be used as independent utterances in responses:

A: Will you be leaving tonight? B: *I daresay*.
A: Your tie is undone. B: *I know*.

Other such responses require a clausal pro-form as complementation, *eg*: *I think so*.

[d] Notice the difference between [7] and [8]:

But is this RÍGHT, { *I WÓNder*? / *I wonder*? } [7]

But is this RÍGHT, *I WÒNder*? [8]

Where [7] expresses reservation, [8] expresses decided disagreement. The falling tone, as with tag questions, invites confirmation.

[e] In an informal use, *I don't think* is attached to a positive sentence to indicate that the sentence is being used ironically:

That's a MÀSterpiece, *I don't think*.

I don't think has tail intonation (*cf* App II.15).

[f] Notice that some comment clauses in subtype (b) may have a concessive force, *eg*: *It's true, I must say, I admit, I must admit*.

15.55 Type (ii) comment clauses, which are next in importance, are introduced by *as*. *As* serves one of two syntactic functions in these clauses: as a relative or as a subordinator.

In its relative function, *as* introduces a type of sentential relative clause that may precede or be inserted in its antecedent, in this case the clause or sentence to which it is attached. In its mobility, this *as*-clause is intermediate between the relative and adverbial constructions. Like the sentential relative *which* (*cf* 15.57), *as* may function as a relative pronoun:

She is extremely popular among students, *as is common knowledge*. (*cf*: *which is common knowledge*)
I live a long way from work, *as you know*. (*cf*: *which you know*)

Other examples of clauses with relative *as*: *as everybody knows, as you may remember, as you say, as I can see, as I have said, as I'm told, as you may have heard*.

As a subordinator, *as* introduces a clearly adverbial clause, and the sentential antecedent is replaced by *it*. It is roughly synonymous with *insofar as* ['to the extent that']:

He is the best candidate, *as it seems*. ['. . . insofar as it seems that he is the best candidate.']

Other examples of clauses with subordinator *as*: *as it appears, as it happens, as it transpired, as it may interest you to know, as I see it, as I interpret it*.

The two types of construction often merge, providing a choice whether or not to insert *it*. Thus, some of the examples with subordinator *as* allow an optional *it* when they are extended: *as (it) seems likely, as (it) often happens*. Other examples with optional *it*: *as (it) was pointed out, as (it) was said earlier, as I remember (it), as I understand (it)*.

As (it) appears from her essay, she has read widely in Romantic literature.

Type (i) comment clauses can often be converted to type (ii) comment clauses by the addition of *as*:

The Indian railways, ((*as*) *my uncle was telling me some time ago*), have always made a profit.

But the addition changes the meaning. The type (ii) clause is affirmative, implying the truth of the matrix clause, whereas the type (i) clause is neutral. The difference may be clearer with another pair of sentences:

GĚORGE, *as you SÁID*, is a LÌar (*but I don't believe it).
GĚORGE, *you said*, is a LÌar (but I don't believe it).

The affirmation of truth value is even more striking when the *as*-clause comes first:

As you said, George is a liar.

Many of the stereotyped type (i) clauses become unacceptable if *as* is added (**as I see*, **as I daresay*) or change their meaning radically (*as you know*).

Note [a] The clausal pro-form *so* may be used in parenthetical clauses that correspond to type (i) in their meaning, although they resemble type (ii) in their form: *so he says, so I understand, so it seems, so I believe*. The semantic resemblance to type (i) comment clauses lies in their neutrality as to the truth value of the matrix clause.

[b] There are a few negative stereotyped comment clauses with *you* as subject, but they require a modal auxiliary, usually *may, might, will*, or *would*; *eg*: *as you may not remember, as you won't have heard, as you might not realize*.

[c] Relative *as* may have the function of subject in its clause, but only if the operator is *be* or another copular verb:

She has married again, *as* { *was/seemed natural.* / *was expected.* / **delighted us.* }

Contrast with the sentential relative:
She has married again, *which delighted us*.
This condition does not apply to the merged constructions where a subject *it* is optionally omitted:
She has married again, *as (it) often happens*.
There appears to be the additional requirement that the *as*-clause must be semantically congruent with its matrix clause:

She has married again, { **as was unexpected.* / *which was unexpected.* / **as was disgraceful.* / *which was disgraceful.* }

This requirement suggests that relative *as* retains some reason implication that is normal for *as* when it is a conjunction of reason.

15.56 The other types of comment clauses can be dealt with more briefly.

Type (iii) comment clauses are nominal relative clauses introduced by *what* (*cf* 15.8*f*):

What's more surprising, he didn't inform his parents. [1]

The *what*-clause must be initial. As with type (ii) (*cf* 15.55), sentences containing them correspond to sentences in which the relationship of subordination between the two clauses is reversed. For example, [1] corresponds to [2]:

It's more surprising (that) he didn't inform his parents. [2]

It also corresponds to a sentential relative clause (*cf* 15.57) as in [3], except that a sentential relative clause must be final:

He didn't inform his parents, *which is more surprising*. [3]

It further corresponds to a sentence in which the nominal relative clause is subject and linked to the subject complement by the verb *be*, as in [4]:

What's more surprising is (that) he didn't inform his parents. [4]

Other examples of type (iii) comment clauses: *what's more serious, what's most significant of all, what's very strange, what annoys me*.

Types (iv), (v), and (vi) of the comment clauses are style disjuncts (*cf* 15.21). They are nonfinite clauses, differentiated by form. We give some examples of stereotyped clauses for each type.

Examples of type (iv) comment clauses, which have a *to*-infinitive: *to be honest, to be fair, to be frank, to be precise, to be truthful, to be serious for a moment, to speak candidly, to put it briefly*.

Examples of type (v) comment clauses, which have an *-ing* clause: *broadly speaking, loosely speaking, roughly speaking, figuratively speaking, speaking frankly, speaking generally, speaking personally, putting it mildly, putting it crudely.*

Examples of type (vi) comment clauses, which have an *-ed* clause: *put in another way, rephrased, worded plainly, stated quite simply.*

Sentential relative clauses

15.57 Closely related to comment clauses of type (ii) (*as you know, cf* 15.55) and type (iii) (*what's more surprising, cf* 15.56) are SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSES. Unlike adnominal relative clauses, which have a noun phrase as antecedent, the sentential relative clause refers back to the predicate or predication of a clause, [1] and [2], or to a whole clause or sentence, [3] and [4], or even to a series of sentences [5]:

They say he *plays truant, which he doesn't.* [1]
He *walks for an hour each morning, which would bore me.* [2]

Relative clauses such as in [1] are used to affirm (if positive) or deny (if negative) an assertion or thought ascribed to others.

Things then improved, *which surprises me.* [3]
Colin married my sister and I married his brother, *which makes Colin and me double in-laws.* [4]

In [3] the antecedent matrix clause is a single clause and in [4] it is two conjoined clauses. But one might equally imagine a storyteller coming to the end of the story with the words:

– *which is how the kangaroo came to have a pouch.* [5]

Here *which* could refer back to the whole length of the story.

Sentential relative clauses parallel nonrestrictive postmodifying clauses in noun phrases in that they are separated by intonation or punctuation from their antecedent. They are commonly introduced by the relative word *which.* In [1–5] *which* is a relative pronoun, but it may also be a relative determiner of general abstract nouns such as *fact, case, event,* or *situation,* or more specific verbal nouns such as *failure* or *claim.* The noun phrases, which may be prepositional complements, represent the antecedent:

The plane may be several hours late, *in which case there's no point in our waiting.* [6]
They are said to have taught chimpanzees to use human language, *which claim has been disputed by some scholars.* ⟨formal⟩ [7]

The rather formal construction in [7] is more commonly replaced by a noun phrase with a postmodifying relative clause, as in [8]:

They are said to have taught chimpanzees to use human language, *a claim which has been disputed by some scholars.* [8]
The prosecutor charged him with lying, *an allegation which he vehemently denied.* [9]

In [8] and [9] the noun phrase, including the postmodifier, is in apposition to the predication of the matrix clause. The determiner *which* may be found with prepositions other than *in* (exemplified in [6]):

They were under water for several hours, *from which experience they emerged unharmed.*
The last speaker assured the audience that the party would win the election, *on which optimistic note* the meeting ended.

Furthermore, the pronoun *which* may be a prepositional complement:

Mortimer exploded a firecracker during a lesson, *as a result of which he was suspended from school for a week.*
Her brother snatched the letter away, *at which she was furious.*

In a rather formal style, the pronoun *which* may be the object of a nonfinite verb:

There was a sudden increase in the readership of Sunday papers, *after noticing which several editors changed their policy.*
Profits had to be increased, *to achieve which object became the main occupation of business executives.*

Two special types of appositional clauses should be noted here, because they provide common alternatives to sentential relative clauses. Both types contain a noun head modified by an adnominal relative clause:

(a) RESUMPTIVE clauses repeat as the noun head a word or a morphological variant of a word:

She expressed her *belief* in the economic recovery of the country, *a belief that was well founded.*
The President *announced* that he would run for a second term, *an announcement that was acclaimed by most members of his party.*

(b) SUMMATIVE clauses provide as the noun head a word that summarizes the matrix clause:

Norman may be pretending to be sick to avoid going to school, *a possibility that we cannot ignore.*

Relative words other than *which* are used to introduce sentential relative clauses. *Whereupon* ['after which', 'in consequence of which'] and *whence* ['from which', 'in consequence of which'] are formal:

At the annual meeting, the parishioners severely criticized the minister, *whereupon he resigned.*
The army has been mobilized, *whence we may deduce that an invasion is imminent.*

The combinations *since when* ['since which time' ⟨esp BrE⟩], *until when, from*

when, and *by when* are also used as sentential relatives:

She joined the editorial staff of a local newspaper, *since when she has contributed to various monthlies.* ⟨esp BrE⟩

The status of the sentential relative clause is somewhat anomalous. Semantically it is similar to comment clauses that are content disjuncts; compare *which surprises me* in [3] above with the comment clause *what surprises me*. However, the *which*-clause cannot be initial, while the *what*-clause must be. On the other hand, it is similar to other nonrestrictive relative clauses in that it follows its antecedent and in that it can be most nearly paraphrased by a coordinate clause in which the *wh*-word is replaced by a demonstrative such as *that*; for example the relative clause in [4] can be replaced by *and that makes Colin and me double in-laws*, and the one in [6] by *and in that case there's no point in our waiting*.

Note [a] There are several archaic compounds with *where-* that introduce sentential relative clauses. They have the meaning 'in consequence of which' or 'after which': *whereafter, whereat, wherefore, wherewith.*
[b] The sentential relative clause is closest to the continuative nonrestrictive relative clause such as:
Tom lent the book to Sue, who lent it to Pat, who returned it to Tom. ['. . . and she lent it to Pat, and she returned it to Tom.']
[c] Although the sentential relative clause is generally fixed in final position, it is occasionally found in medial position in informal conversation:
Marvin and Terry – *which is something I'll never understand* – were quarrelling within a month of their marriage and were separated within three months.

Nonfinite and verbless adverbial clauses

The attachment rule for identifying the subject

15.58 In our discussion of the grammatical functions and semantic roles of adverbial clauses, we have frequently cited examples of nonfinite and verbless clauses. We conclude our discussion of adverbial clauses with a consideration of matters that particularly affect nonfinite and verbless clauses.

Nonfinite and verbless adverbial clauses that have an overt subject but are not introduced by a subordinator and are not the complement of a preposition are ABSOLUTE clauses, so termed because they are not explicitly bound to the matrix clause syntactically. Absolute clauses may be *-ing*, *-ed*, or verbless clauses, but not infinitive clauses:

No further discussion arising, the meeting was brought to a close. [1]
Lunch finished, the guests retired to the lounge. [2]
Christmas then only days away, the family was pent up with excitement. [3]

Apart from a few stereotyped phrases (*cf* Note [b] below), absolute clauses are formal and infrequent.

When a subject is not present in a nonfinite or verbless clause, the normal ATTACHMENT RULE for identifying the subject is that it is assumed to be identical in reference to the subject of the superordinate clause:

The oranges, *when (they are) ripe*, are picked and sorted mechanically. [4]

In *-ed* and verbless clauses with a subordinator such as [4], an ellipsis of the subject and operator may be postulated. In other cases, a paraphrase by a finite clause reveals that the subordinate clause subject is identical with the superordinate clause subject. The attachment rule is commonly given for participle clauses, but it applies equally to infinitive and verbless clauses:

Persuaded by our optimism, he gladly contributed time and money to the scheme. ['Since he was persuaded . . .']
Driving home after work, I accidentally went through a red light. ['While I was driving home after work . . .']
Confident of the justice of their cause, they agreed to put their case before an arbitration panel. ['Since they were confident . . .']
To climb the rock face, we had to take various precautions. ['So that we could climb . . .']

Note [a] As we see from the examples above, tense, aspect, and mood are also inferred in nonfinite and verbless clauses from the sentential context, *cf* 14.8.
[b] Stereotyped absolute clauses include *present company excepted, all told, weather/time permitting, God willing.*

Unattached nonfinite and verbless clauses

15.59 It is considered to be an error when the understood subject of the clause is not identifiable with the subject of the matrix clause, and perhaps does not appear in the sentence at all:

?*Driving to Chicago that night*, a sudden thought struck me. [1]
?*Since leaving her*, life has seemed pointless. [2]
?*Walking down the boardwalk*, a tall building came into view. [3]

In these examples the implied subject of the clauses is presumably *I*, but *I* does not occur as the subject of the matrix clauses. If we wish to keep the nonfinite clauses as they are, we rephrase the matrix clauses to introduce *I* as subject; for example:

Driving to Chicago that night, I was struck by a sudden thought. [1a]
Since leaving her, I have felt that life seemed pointless. [2a]
Walking down the boardwalk, I saw a tall building. [3a]

Clauses involved in this type of error, as in [1–3], are UNATTACHED clauses. Here are some further examples of unattached clauses:

?*After serving on several committees*, the association elected her their secretary-treasurer.
?*Friend of statesmen and patron of the arts*, many honours were bestowed on him.
?*While in a hospital near the school*, her teachers visited her regularly.

?*To see the procession*, I put the child on my shoulders.
?*Being the eldest*, the responsibility fell particularly on my shoulders.
?*Although the latest model*, they didn't like the car.
?*Advised to study anthropology*, his choice was psychology instead.
?*An author of considerable distinction*, people flocked to her public lecture.

The same error may occur when an *-ing* clause is the complement of a preposition:

?*On reaching the summit*, the view delighted us all.

As with [1–3], we can interpret correctly the implied subject in these sentences, but these unattached clauses are frowned upon. Such clauses are totally unacceptable if the sentence provides no means for identifying the implied subject:

**Reading the evening paper*, a dog started barking.
**Using these techniques*, a wheel fell off.
**A result of the rise in prices*, our economy is suffering.

Sometimes the error suggests an absurd interpretation:

**Opening the cupboard*, a skeleton fell out.
**Grilled on charcoal*, everyone enjoyed the fish they caught.
**Having eaten our lunch*, the steamboat departed.

The attachment rule does not apply, or at least is relaxed, in certain cases:

(a) The clause is a style disjunct (*cf* 15.21), in which case the implied subject is the subject of the implied clause of speaking, normally *I*:

Putting it mildly, you have caused us some inconvenience.
His moral principles, *to be frank*, begin and end with his own interests.
To say the least, their techniques are old-fashioned.

(b) The implied subject is the whole of the matrix clause:

I'll help you *if necessary*. ['. . . if it is necessary.']
Unknown to his closest advisers, he had secretly negotiated with an enemy emissary. ['It was unknown to his closest advisers that . . .']
The siren sounded, *indicating that the air raid was over*. ['. . . which indicated that . . .']

(c) If the implied subject is an indefinite pronoun or prop *it* (*cf* 10.26), the construction is considered less objectionable:

When dining in the restaurant, a jacket and tie are required. ['When one dines . . .']
Being Christmas, the government offices were closed. ['Since it was . . .']

To-infinitive clauses are normal in this use:

To borrow books from this library, it is necessary to register as a member of the library. ['For one to borrow . . .']

(d) In formal scientific writing, the construction has become institutionalized

where the implied subject is to be identified with the *I*, *we*, and *you* of the writer(s) or reader(s):

When treating patients with language retardation and deviation of language development, the therapy consists, in part, of discussions of the patient's problems with parents and teachers, with subsequent language teaching carried out by them.
To check on the reliability of the first experiment, the experiment was replicated with a second set of subjects.

Note [a] The error of unattached clauses has traditionally been discussed in connection with participle clauses, particularly *-ing* clauses. Other traditional terms for the error are 'unattached', 'unrelated', 'pendant', and 'dangling' participle.
[b] The acceptability of unattached clauses perhaps varies according to how easily the particular hearer or reader can perceive the implied subject. Participle forms that are lexicalized as conjunctions or prepositions are of course exempt from the attachment rule:
Provided that a film entertains, few people care about its merits.
Considering its cost, this machine is not worth buying.
[c] *As*-phrases are sometimes placed initially when they are related to an element in final position or to no element at all. They then resemble unattached clauses:
?*As a protection against inflation*, we must seek increasingly to diversify our investments.
?*As a professor of political science*, it has been interesting to spend a year in Germany.
[Presumably: '. . . I have found it interesting . . .']
[d] *Due to* is generally accepted as a complex preposition synonymous with *owing to*. Some speakers, however, consider that *due* functions as an adjective in that collocation and therefore object to its use in [4] as an infringement of the attachment rule for verbless clauses:
?*Due to bad weather*, classes have been cancelled today. [4]
For those who object to [4], [4a] provides an acceptable alternative:
Cancellation of classes today is *due to bad weather*. [4a]

Supplementive clauses

15.60 When adverbial participle clauses and adverbial verbless clauses are not introduced by a subordinator, there may be considerable indeterminacy as to the semantic relationship to be inferred. Infinitive clauses, although they exhibit a number of semantic relationships, present no particular problem in this respect, but *cf* 17.31*f*.

In their indeterminacy, adverbial participle and verbless clauses resemble the versatile relationships expressed by nonrestrictive relative clauses (*cf* 17.23) and the connective function of the coordinator *and* (*cf* 13.22*ff*). They are all capable of assuming, according to context, a more precise role:

Jason, *told of his son's accident*, immediately phoned the hospital. [1]
Jason, *who was told of his son's accident*, immediately phoned the hospital. [2]
Jason was told of his son's accident, *and he immediately phoned the hospital*. [3]

For all three sentences, although the mode of clause connection does not make this explicit, we infer a temporal sequence of events. On the other hand, in the next three sentences we infer that the logical connection between the clauses is primarily one of reason, although there is also a temporal sequence:

John, *knowing that his wife was expecting a baby*, started to take a course on baby care. [4]

John, *who knew that his wife was expecting a baby*, started to take a course on baby care. [5]
John knew that his wife was expecting a baby *and he started to take a course on baby care*. [6]

In [7] the connection is one of reason without temporal sequence:

Julia, *being a nun*, spent much of her life in prayer and meditation. [7]

Sentences [1], [2], [4], [5], and [7] all contain subordinate clauses, but only [1], [4], and [7] are adverbial clauses, since they can be positioned initially, medially, and (except for [1]) finally.

Adverbial participle and verbless clauses without a subordinator are SUPPLEMENTIVE CLAUSES; like nonrestrictive relative clauses and clauses in an *and*-coordination, they do not signal specific logical relationships, but such relationships are generally clear from the context. Subjectless supplementive clauses, *ie* those that (unlike supplementive absolute clauses, *cf* 15.58) do not have their own overt subject, resemble nonrestrictive relative clauses in another respect: the implied subject in the supplementive clause provides a link with the matrix clause rather as the relative pronoun provides a link in postmodifying relative clauses. The formal inexplicitness of supplementive clauses allows considerable flexibility in what we may wish them to convey. According to context, we may wish to imply temporal, conditional, causal, concessive, or circumstantial relationship. In short, the supplementive clause implies an accompanying circumstance to the situation described in the matrix clause. For the reader or hearer, the actual nature of the accompanying circumstance has to be inferred from the context. Here are some illustrations of process adverbials:

Using a sharp axe, Gilbert fought his way into the building. ['By using a sharp axe, . . .']
Marilyn crawled through the narrow tunnel, *hands in front*.
We spoke *face to face*.
They stood silently, *their eyes fixed on the horizon*.
Elizabeth dived in *head first*.
They strolled through the park *with their arms intertwined*.

Note [a] Clauses introduced by *with* and *without* often convey little more than a vague notion of accompanying circumstance:
With tears of joy in her eyes, she saw her daughter married.
Without anyone noticing, I slipped out of the room.
[b] In *-ing* clauses, verbs used dynamically tend to suggest a temporal link, and stative verbs a causal link:
Reaching the river, we pitched camp for the night. ['When we reached the river, . . .']
Being a farmer, he is suspicious of all governmental interference. ['Since he is a farmer, . . .']

Subjectless supplementive clauses

15.61 The formal characteristics of subjectless supplementive clauses are:

(a) They are participle or verbless clauses.

(b) Their most typical positions in the superordinate clause are initial, final, and immediately after their antecedent, *ie* the noun phrase in the superordinate clause which is identical with their implied subject.

The position immediately after the antecedent poses the most difficulties for analysis. When subjectless supplementive clauses occur in that position, they may be indistinguishable from postmodifying participle clauses or (in the case of verbless clauses) from noun phrases in apposition. Thus the two constructions may merge in that it is impossible (and semantically unimportant) to decide whether the participle clause in [1] is to be regarded as functionally equivalent to the nonrestrictive relative clause in [1a]:

This substance, *discovered almost by accident*, has revolutionized medicine. [1]
This substance, *which was discovered almost by accident*, has revolutionized medicine. [1a]

Alternatively, it may be equivalent to a subjectless supplementive clause:

Discovered almost by accident, this substance has revolutionized medicine.

There are, however, two types which in general may be unambiguously labelled supplementive:

(a) *-ing* clauses containing auxiliary verbs or the verb *be*:

The children, *having eaten their fill*, were allowed to leave the table.
The old man, *being of sane mind*, dictated and signed his will.

Such *-ing* clauses generally cannot be postmodifiers of noun phrases.

(b) verbless adjective clauses:

Lawson, *implacable*, contented himself with a glare of defiance.

Adjective clauses can, however, be nonrestrictive postmodifiers of noun phrases in certain circumstances:

(i) if the clause is lengthy and contains weighty information:

We took Joe, *unable to stand because of weakness*, to the nearest hospital.
I met Betty, *angry with me as always*, at the luncheon.

Contrast:

*We took Joe, *weak*, to the nearest hospital.
*I met Betty, *angry*, at the luncheon.

(ii) if the adjective can be object complement in the complementation of the superordinate verb:

I found George, *unconscious*, a few hours later.

Contrast:

*I treated George, *unconscious*, at the hospital.

In initial position, the clauses are unambiguously subjectless supplementive clauses. For supplementive clauses in final position, *cf* 15.62.

Supplementive clauses in final position

15.62 In spite of their resemblance to nonrestrictive relative clauses, supplementive clauses need not be separated from their matrix clause intonationally when they occur in final position. The following are therefore alternative renderings of the same sentence, differing only in that [1] has two focuses of information, whereas [2] has only one:

The manager APPRÒACHED us, SMÌLing. [1]
The manager approached us SMÌLing. [2]

One result of the alternative shown in [2] is the possible neutralization of the formal difference between nonfinite clauses functioning as supplementive clauses and those functioning as complementation of the verb. Thus [3] is ambiguous:

I saw Pam going home. [3]

On one interpretation (that of the supplementive clause), *I* is the implied subject of *going home*, whereas on the other (that of verb complementation), *Pam* is the overt subject.

Another result of the lack of intonation is illustrated in [4] and [5]. When the *-ing* participle immediately follows certain finite verbs with existential meaning, the latter seem close to being aspectual catenatives (*cf* 3.49):

Frank *sat reading* the newspaper. [4]
Edith *came running* towards us. [5]

Further, a sentence such as [6] is ambiguous in more than one way:

I caught the boy *waiting for my daughter*. [6]

In addition to the two possible structures of [3], this may be interpreted as having a third structure, in which the nonfinite clause is a postmodifying clause:

'I caught the boy while I was waiting for my daughter.' [supplementive clause]
'I caught the boy in the act of waiting for my daughter.' [verb complementation]
'I caught the boy who was waiting for my daughter.' [postmodification]

On the analogy of [2], we may identify the final adjective phrases of the following examples (where there is no intonational separation) as verbless supplementive clauses:

The manager approached us *full of apologies*. [7]
He drove the damaged car home *undismayed*. [8]

In each, the adjective phrase is in a copular relationship with the subject of the sentence, and is thus distinct from an object complement, which would be in a copular relationship with the direct object. Furthermore, an object complement could not normally be placed in initial position, whereas that position is perfectly natural for [7] and [8]:

Full of apologies, the manager approached us. [7a]
Undismayed, he drove the damaged car home. [8a]

Adjective phrases in final position that cannot be preposed are generally nonrestrictive postmodifiers of the preceding noun phrases (*cf* 15.61 for medial nonrestrictive postmodifiers), even though they are separated intonationally from the rest of the sentence:

The cows contentedly chewed the grass, *green and succulent after the rain*. ['which was green and succulent . . .']
The drill quickly penetrated the layer of rock, *loose and crumbly with years of weathering*.

Noun phrases in final position that cannot be preposed are generally appositives of the preceding noun phrases:

Shirley sent us a gift, *a box of chocolates*.

There is a gradient relating the functional categories of subject complement and restrictive adjunct (*cf* 15.23) realized by a verbless supplementive clause. We therefore find sentences in which the final phrases cannot be preposed (at least without changing the meaning), because they are on the gradient towards subject complement status:

They ended the season *bottom of the league*.
He came out of prison *a changed man*.
He began life *a Protestant*.
She emerged from the conflict *victorious*.

Note Prepositional phrases that may be construed as subject complement can also be viewed on the gradient between adverbial and complement (*cf* 10.11):
They ended the season *at the bottom of the league*.
He began life *as a Protestant*.
She emerged from the conflict *with a clear victory*.

Comparative clauses

15.63 In a comparative construction, a proposition expressed in the matrix clause is compared with a proposition expressed in the subordinate clause with respect to some STANDARD OF COMPARISON:

Jane is as healthy *as her sister* (*is*). [1]

The standard of comparison in [1] is health.

Broadly conceived, comparison includes comparisons of EQUIVALENCE (*cf* 15.71), as in [1], and comparisons of SUFFICIENCY and EXCESS (*cf* 15.72*ff*), as in [2] and [3]:

Don is *sensitive enough to understand your feelings*. [2]
Marilyn was *too polite to say anything about my clothes*. [3]

More narrowly considered, however, comparison concerns a standard measurable in terms of degree that is expressed by means of the correlative sequence *more*, *less*, or other comparative forms (*cf* 7.74*ff*) in the matrix clause, together with *than* in the subordinate clause. Such comparisons are COMPARISONS OF NONEQUIVALENCE:

Jane is { *more healthy* / *healthier* / *less healthy* } *than her sister* (*is*). [4]

The clause element in the matrix clause which specifies the standard of comparison (health in [1] and [4]) is the COMPARATIVE ELEMENT (abbreviated in our further discussion to 'comp-element'), in [1] and [4] *as healthy*, *more healthy*, *healthier*, *less healthy*. The BASIS OF COMPARISON is given in the COMPARATIVE CLAUSE, the correlative subordinate clause; it is Jane's sister in [1] and [4]. The basis of comparison need not be overtly expressed, but it is then implied from the context.

Comparative clauses of nonequivalence, equivalence, and excess may include nonassertive forms (*cf* 10.60):

They pleased me more than they can *in any way* imagine.
You have as much right to vote as you *ever* had.
I am too young to remember *any* of the events during the last war.

Note An alternative term for equivalence is 'equality'. Other terms for nonequivalence are 'inequality' and 'differentiation'.

The comp-element

15.64 We may imagine the semantics of the comparative construction arising from the answers [1a] and [1b], and [2a] and [2b] to the *how*-questions posed in [1] and [2]:

How old is Mary (compared with Jane)? [1]
How old is Jane (compared with Mary)? [2]
Mary is *older* than Jane (is). [1a]
Mary is *younger* than Jane (is). [1b]
Jane is *younger* than Mary (is). [2a]
Jane is *older* than Mary (is). [2b]

Of the four answers, [1a] and [2a] are synonymous, being converses of each other; and similarly [1b] and [2b]. Less frequently, comparison is expressed through *less*, which indicates a tendency to the negative pole of the standard of comparison:

Mary is *less old* than Jane (is). [1c]
Mary is *less young* than Jane (is). [1d]

Again, paraphrase relationships hold: [1c] is synonymous with [1b] and [2b], and [1d] with [1a] and [2a]. Sentences like [1d], in which the marked member of the pair of adjectives (*cf* 7.88) is combined with *less*, are rare. Sentences like [1c] are not common when the adjective is inflected for comparison rather than taking periphrastic *more*.

With other adjectives comparison with *less* is common enough when there is not an established pair of antonymous adjectives or when an available antonym sounds offensive:

Caroline is *less perceptive* than Rosemary (is). [3]
Violet is *less sophisticated* than Felice (is). [4]

Or a comparison of equivalence in the negative is substituted (*cf* 15.71):

Caroline is *not as/so perceptive* as Rosemary (is). [3a]
Violet is *not as/so sophisticated as* Felice (is). [4a]

Both types of comparison seem clearer than *more* with a negative adjective:

Caroline is *more imperceptive* than Rosemary (is). [3b]
Violet is *more unsophisticated* than Felice (is). [4b]

In the comparative constructions in [1a–1d], the comp-element (italicized) together with *than* forms a hinge by which the two *wh*-elements of the questions [1] and [2] could be said to be combined. This coalescence accounts for the appearance of defective structure in the comparative clause. For example, in [1a] the comparative clause *than Jane* (*is*) contains (optionally) a form of the verb *be*, but not a complement or adjunct such as the verb *be* normally requires for complementation. Some grammarians have postulated an omitted repetition of the standard of comparison in the comparative clause: *Mary is older than Jane is* (*old*). But we do not follow this analysis. In the first place, the full form suggests that Jane is old and Mary even older. And obviously this is not necessarily the case for the comparative construction: both Mary and Jane may be babies. The standard of comparison involves a scale without commitment to absolute values. Furthermore, a comparative clause element corresponding to the comp-element in the matrix clause can occur only when the standards of comparison in the two clauses are different, two scales then being compared: *Mary is cleverer than Jane is pretty*. Further structural gaps arise through the optional ellipsis of other elements in the comparative clause, as discussed in 15.66*ff*.

More and the inflectional variant in *-er* are the typical COMPARATIVE ITEMS within comp-elements. We therefore use them to exemplify comparative constructions in the sections that follow.

Note [a] Constructions with *more . . . than* and *less . . . than* do not necessarily introduce comparative clauses. There is a type of nonclausal comparison in which *than* is followed by an explicit standard or yardstick of comparison, normally a noun phrase of measure, or a noun phrase implying degree:

I weigh *more than 200 pounds*.
It goes *faster than 100 miles per hour*.
The strike was nothing *less than a national catastrophe*.

Here *than* is best considered a preposition, and the phrase which follows it a prepositional complement, since there is no possibility of expanding the *than*-phrase into a clause:

*It goes *faster than 100 miles per hour goes*.

[b] There is a second type of *more . . . than* construction not introducing a comparative clause. This is the quasi-coordinative type of construction illustrated by:

{ I was *more* angry *than frightened*. / I was angry *more than frightened*. } ['It is more true to say that I was . . .']

A distinguishing characteristic of this construction is the nonoccurrence of the suffixal form of comparison:

*I was angrier than frightened.

[c] The negative comparative clauses *more often than not* and *more likely than not*, with the pro-clause *not*, are idioms that occur quite frequently:

He was found out *more often than not*. ['More often than he was not found out.']
She was satisfied with her job *more likely than not*.

It is sometimes preposed:

More likely than not, she was satisfied with her job.

Otherwise negative comparative clauses are rare, because we have little occasion to use them.

Clause functions of the comp-element

15.65 Like the *wh*-element of a *wh*-question (*cf* 11.15), the comp-element of a comparative construction can be any of the clause elements, apart from the verb:

S: *More people* use this brand than (use) any other window-cleaning fluid.
O_d: She knows *more history* than most people (know).
My grandparents gave me *more money* than my parents (did).
O_i: That toy has given *more children* happiness than any other (toy) (has).
C_s: Lionel is *more relaxed* than he used to be.
C_o: She thinks her children *more obedient* than (they were) last year.
A: You've been working *much harder* than I (have).
Ann treats the children *more harshly* than George (does).

The comp-element may also be a prepositional complement:

She's applied for *more jobs* than Joyce (has (applied for)).

Like *wh*-elements of various kinds (*cf* 11.18), the comp-element may represent a pushdown element within a nominal *that*-clause subordinate to the comparative clause:

Derek caught *more fish* than I expected ((that) he would (catch)).
She is *better* than she thinks ((that) she is).
I felt *more miserable* than I can say ((that) I felt).

or within a subordinate *to*-infinitive clause:

You arrived *earlier* than (it was) necessary (for you to arrive).

Ellipsis in comparative clauses

15.66 Ellipsis of a part of the comparative clause is likely to occur when that part is a repetition of something in the matrix clause. Since it is normal for the two clauses to be closely parallel both in structure and content, ellipsis is the rule rather than the exception in comparative constructions. However, there is no necessary parallelism between the matrix and comparative clauses; the comparative clause, so long as it overlaps with the content of the matrix clause in respect of the comp-element, can be of independent structure. Thus we may take two *how*-questions of disparate clause types (*SV* and *SVO*) in [1] and [2] and use them to construct the comparative construction in [3]:

How quickly does he speak? [1]

How quickly can his secretary take dictation? [2]
He speaks more quickly than his secretary can take dictation. [3]

The most characteristic type of comparative clause, on the other hand, is one which imitates the structure of the matrix clause, and repeats its whole content except for one element, the differing elements providing the contrast. This type of clause, as we see below, allows optional ellipsis and optional substitutions by pronouns and by pro-predication:

James and Susan often go to plays but
(i) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan enjoys the theatre.
(ii) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan enjoys it.
(iii) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan does.
(iv) James enjoys the theatre more than Susan.
(v) James enjoys the theatre more.

Ellipsis of the object generally cannot take place unless the main verb too is ellipted, as in (iii) and (iv), where there is a choice between the retention of an operator and its omission:

*James enjoys the theatre more than Susan enjoys.

But if the object is the comp-element itself, then in addition to (i–v) the verb alone may be retained:

James knows more about the theatre than Susan *knows*.

Compare also the corresponding pseudo-cleft construction:

What James knows about the theatre is more than Susan knows.

The subject is omitted in the comparative clause below:

You spent more money *than was intended to be spent*.

The omission suggests that *than* is functioning like a relative pronoun. Compare:

You spent the money *that was intended*.

Cf also *as is common knowledge*, 15.55.

Note [a] Infinitive clauses with a pushdown element (*cf* 11.18) can be ellipted fully or alternatively only the infinitive verb and what follows it can be ellipted, leaving a stranded *to* (*cf* 12.64):

She enjoyed it much more than I expected (her to (enjoy it)).
They did more than we made them (do).

The verb *be* alone, however, cannot be so easily ellipted in this context:

She was more beautiful than I imagined her *to be*.
[also: than I imagined *or* than I imagined her]
They wanted to be more playful than I let them *be*.

[b] *Different than* is a widely acceptable (esp AmE) sequence when a clause (particularly an elliptical clause) follows:

Schools are different than they used to be.
They are playing in a very different way than (they played) before.

There are, however, widespread objections to *different than* when only a noun phrase follows, on the grounds that *than* is inappropriate in contexts where it can be viewed as a preposition:

?Films are very different than plays.

Different from is the preferred form. *Cf* further 16.74.

Ambiguity through ellipsis

15.67 When normal ellipsis is taken to its fullest extent, we are often left with no more than the subject or object of the comparative clause:

I speak Greek better than *you* (speak Greek).
The photographs disappointed my parents more than (they disappointed) *me*.

Ambiguity can arise as to whether a remaining noun phrase is subject or object:

He loves his dog more than his children.

The above example could mean either [1] '. . . than his children love his dog' or [2] '. . . than he loves his children'. If *his children* is replaced by a pronoun, formal English makes the distinction:

He loves his dog more than *they*. [1]
He loves his dog more than *them*. [2]

In other styles, however, the objective case *them* is used for both [1] and [2]. Prescriptive grammar requires the subjective case in [1], both on grammatical grounds (that *they* is the subject of the elliptical clause) and on grounds of clarity, since it preserves a useful distinction that can occasionally avoid potential ambiguity. On the other hand, we may account for the use of the objective pronoun for [1] in other styles by pointing out that as *than* in this construction may be considered a preposition (*cf* 15.64 Note [a]), the pronoun falls within object territory (*cf* 6.5). Since both forms can be criticized (on account of stiffness on the one hand, and 'bad grammar' on the other), and since in any event we cannot be sure that the objective case in [2] represents choice in formal style and is therefore unambiguous, we may wish to evade a choice by expanding the clause (*than they do*; *than he does them*).

Multiple and partial contrasts

15.68 If the two clauses in a comparison differed solely in the comp-element (**I hear it more clearly than I hear it*), the comparison would of course be nonsensical; therefore, a contrast of at least one variable is required between the two clauses. While the single-variable comparison is the most common type, more than one clause element can be contrasted. For example, there are two contrasts in:

James[1] knows more about *films*[2] than *Susan*[1] does about *music*[2].

Even three-variable and four-variable comparisons are possible:

Walter[1] *played*[2] *the piano*[3] more skilfully than *his brother*[1] *conducted*[2] *the orchestra*[3].

Walter[1] *played*[2] *the piano*[3] more often in *Chicago*[4] than *his brother*[1] *conducted*[2] *concerts*[3] in *the rest of the States*[4].

On the other hand, the contrast may affect only part of a clause element. For example, the verbs may be lexically identical and differ only in tense or in the addition of a modal auxiliary. In such cases it is normal to omit the rest of the comparative clause after the auxiliary:

I hear it more clearly than I *did*. ['than I used to hear it']
I get up later than I *should*. ['than I should get up']

If the contrast lies only in tense, it may be expressed in the comparative clause solely by an adverbial:

She'll enjoy it more than (she enjoyed it) last year.

This provides the basis for the total ellipsis of the subordinate clause in examples like:

You are slimmer (than you were).
You're looking better (than you were (looking)).

The only contrast may be in the modality expressed in the main clause or through a pushdown comp-element in the comparative clause (*cf* 15.65):

He's a greater painter than people suppose (he is).
She thinks she's fatter than she (really) is.

The comp-element itself may contain a partial contrast without the pushdown device:

She is a *better psychologist* than ((she is) a) *pathologist*.
The house is *much taller* than it is *wide*.

When the contrast involves two points on the same scale, one higher than the other, the part following *than* cannot be expanded into a clause. *Than* is then functioning as a preposition in a nonclausal comparison (*cf* 15.64 Note [a]):

It's hotter than just warm. (*cf* It's hotter than 90°.)
He's taller than tall.
She's wiser than merely clever.
She became prettier than just middling pretty.
We drove farther than (beyond) Chicago.
They fought harder than that.
We have to build it stronger than this.

When the contrasts are not on precisely the same semantic scale, the construction is comparative and can be expanded:

He's more shrewd than (he is) clever.

(*He's more shrewd than clever* can also be the quasi-coordinative type, 'He's shrewd rather than clever', *cf* 15.64 Note [b]).

It is perhaps the existence of this nonclausal comparison of degree that makes it necessary to repeat the subject and verb in sentences such as *The house is much taller that it is wide*, since **The house is much taller than wide* would suggest the absurdity of a semantic overlap between *tall* and *wide*. The

quasi-coordinative type, however, allows semantic disparity: *It's a big house, but more tall than wide* ['tall rather than wide'].

Note [a] There is a restriction on the partial contrast in the verb element. It is acceptable to say:

I stared at her more often than I { *should (have).* / *should have done.* ⟨BrE⟩

But it is odd to use the simple present or future *shall/will* alone as the partial contrast in the comparative clause:

*I liked her better than I *do.*
*Tom saw Betty more often than he *will.*

We need to add a temporal adverbial to point the contrast:

I liked her better than I *do now.*
Tom saw Betty more often than he *will in the future.*

[b] Analogous to the nonclausal comparison exemplified in *It's hotter than just warm* is another type of nonclausal comparison expressed by *more than* followed by one of a range of syntactic units:

I am *more than happy* to hear that.
He *more than complained*; he threw the whole book of rules at me.
They were *more than slightly wounded.*
She behaved *more than fairly* to him.

Semantically, *more than* expresses a higher degree, but it also conveys a comment on the inadequacy of the linguistic expression. For example, the last sentence could be rephrased '*Fairly* is an inadequate word to describe the way she behaved to him'.

[c] The contrast between the two clauses is, exceptionally, positive versus negative in the idioms *more often than not* and *more likely than not* (*cf* 15.64 Note [c]).

[d] There are two other contexts in which the comparative clause is omitted. One is where there is anaphoric reference to an implied or actual preceding clause or sentence:

I caught the bus from town; but Harry came home even *later.* [*ie* 'later than I came home']

The other is where the reference is to the extralinguistic situation:

You should have come home *earlier.* [*ie* 'earlier than you did']

Functions of comparative *more*

15.69 The comparative item (which, for present purposes, we identify with the word *more*) may have seven different functions within the comp-element:

(i) determinative (*cf* 5.10*ff*):
Isabelle has *more books* than her brother (has).
(ii) head of a noun phrase:
More (of my friends) are in New York than (are) here.
(iii) subjunct (*cf* 8.88*ff*):
I agree with you *more* than ((I agree) with) Robert.
(iv) modifier of an adjective head:
The article was *more objective* than I expected (it would be).
(v) modifier of a premodifying adjective:
It was a *more heated discussion* than we thought it would be.
(vi) modifier of an adverb:
The time passed *more quickly* than (it passed) last year.
(vii) modifier of a premodifying adverb:
I am *more severely handicapped* than you (are).

In each of the above examples, the whole comp-element is in italics. It will be noticed that in some cases *more* can constitute the whole of the comp-element. *More* is a determiner in (i), a pronoun in (ii), and an adverb in all the others.

In functions (i) and (ii), *more* refers to quantity and can be replaced in count contexts by *a greater number of*, as in the first two sentences above, and in noncount contexts by *a greater amount of.*

Function types (iv) and (v) have to be distinguished because of the semantic implications of (v). Consider:

There are more intelligent monkeys than Herbert. [1]

In [1] we normally imply that Herbert is a monkey of a certain level of intelligence (*cf*: *How intelligent a monkey is Herbert?*). That is, by placing the comparative adjective before the noun, we imply that the noun is part of the comp-element and therefore is also implied in the comparative clause. On the other hand, by placing the comparative adjective after the noun, we readily admit the more plausible interpretation that Herbert is a man:

There are monkeys more intelligent than Herbert.

This difference of meaning accounts for the insult implied in:

I've never met a more intelligent monkey than our Chairman.

The same distinction applies to the difference between (vi) and (vii):

I've never seen a dog more obviously friendly than your cat.
*I've never seen a more obviously friendly dog than your cat.

This last sentence is semantically unacceptable because it implies that the dog is a cat.

The normal position for the adjective phrase is shown in the example for (v), but it can also be preposed [2], or (less usually) postposed [2a]:

It was *more heated* a discussion than we thought it would be. [2]
It was a discussion *more lively* than we thought it would be. [2a]

The adverb phrase in (vii) can also be postposed:

I am handicapped *more severely* than you (are).

Note [a] In its determinative function in (i) or as modifier of an adjective in (iv), *more* is the comparative of the quantifiers *many* or *much.* Thus, *more expensive clothes* is ambiguous in:

Morton has more expensive clothes than I have.

In one interpretation *more* modifies *expensive*, the adjective phrase then being comparative; in the other interpretation *more* determines the noun phrase ('a greater quantity of expensive clothes').

[b] The modifying sequences *more of a* . . . and *less of a* . . . occur with gradable singular or noncount noun heads:

He's more of a fool than I thought (he was).
It was less of a success than I imagined (it would be).

Cf the *how*-question, *How much of a fool is he?* ['To what an extent is he (in your view) a fool?']

[c] The comparative items *more*, *-er*, and *less* cannot be used in a definite noun phrase in the comparative construction:

*Sally has *the* better radio than Daniel (has).

Contrast:

Sally has *the* better radio (of the two).

In certain contexts we can use *compared with* or *relative to* instead:

The superior reception of Sally's radio accounts for *its* higher price tag *compared with* that for Daniel's radio.

Contrast:
Sally's radio has a higher price tag than Daniel's (radio) (has).
[d] The determiner *other* is used as a comparative item:
I don't have any *other cups* than those ((that/which) I have) in the sink.
It can be (less usually) postposed:
I don't have *cups other* than those ((that/which) I have) in the sink.

15.70 When *more* is a determinative or a head of a noun phrase – functions (i) and (ii) in 15.69 – the unit *no more* (. . .) *than* is synonymous with *only as many* (. . .) *as* in countable contexts or with *only as much* (. . .) *as* in noncountable contexts:

Paul has no more friends than I have. [' . . . only as many as . . .']
I have no more money than you have. [' . . . only as much as . . .']
Ted got no more (of the votes) than he needed. [' . . . only as many as . . .']
She said no more than we expected. [' . . . only as much as . . .']

But when *more* is an adverb (or its inflectional variant *-er* is used), as in the other function types in 15.69, *no more . . . than* has special implications. Consider:

Rachel is no more courageous than Saul (is).

The sentence implies that both Rachel and Saul are not courageous ('Rachel is not courageous, any more than Saul is courageous'). Here are some further examples:

Tom is no more athletic than he ever was. ['Tom is not athletic, any more than he ever was athletic.']
I can no more apologize than I could kneel to them.
I would no more think of hitting a student than I would a policeman.

No more . . . than has the same meaning when *more* modifies a gradable noun:

She is no more a fool than you (are). ['She is not a fool, any more than you are', 'She is not more foolish . . .']
They are no more scholars than my baby (is). ['They are no more scholarly . . .']

The rhetorical effect of the construction is not so much to make a comparison as to intensify the negation. That effect is most obvious when the comparison is absurd (*cf* rhetorical *if*-clauses, 15.37):

He's no more your friend than I'm your mother.

Not any more (. . .) *than* is an emphatic variant of *no more . . . than*:

Paul hasn't any more friends than I have. ['only as many as . . .']
Rachel isn't any more courageous than Saul (is). ['Rachel isn't courageous, any more than . . .']

Not more . . . than, on the other hand, is different from both *no more . . . than* and *not any more . . . than* when *more* is an adverb or modifies a gradable noun:

Rachel is not more courageous than Saul (is).

This last sentence allows for the possibility that Rachel is less courageous than Saul. It may also be merely a denial sentence in response to *Rachel is more courageous than Saul* (*is*).

Similar distinctions apply to *no less* (. . .) *than, not any less* (. . .) *than*, and *not less* (. . .) *than*, except that the double negative is less common and as a consequence the distinctions are somewhat blurred.

Comparisons of equivalence: *as . . . as*

15.71 Broadening our discussion of comparison, we take into account not only comparisons of nonequivalence (lack of equivalence on some scale) such as those expressed by *more* and *less*, but also comparisons based on other relationships. One such relationship is that of equivalence, expressed principally by the correlatives *as . . . as*.

The *as . . . as* construction is grammatically parallel to the *more . . . than* construction, except that the *as*-paradigm lacks the determinative, pronoun, and subjunct functions of *more*; these gaps are filled by *as many* (count) and *as much* (noncount). We can therefore parallel the functions of *more* listed in 15.69, substituting *as many* and *as much* where necessary:

(i) determinative: Isabelle has *as many books* as her brother (has).
(ii) head of a noun phrase: *As many of my friends* are in New York as (are) here.
(iii) subjunct: I agree with you *as much* as ((I agree) with) Robert.
(iv) modifier of an adjective head: The article was *as objective* as I expected (it would be).
(v) modifier of a premodifying adjective: It was *as lively a discussion* as we thought it would be.
(vi) modifier of an adverb: The time passed *as quickly* as (it passed) last year.
(vii) modifier of a premodifying adverb: I am *as severely handicapped* as you (are).

The reason for differentiating (iv) and (v) and also (vi) and (vii) are the same as in the *more . . . than* construction (*cf* 15.69). Contrast *I've never seen a dog as friendly as your cat* with the unacceptable **I've never seen as friendly a dog as your cat*.

Notice that the adjective phrase precedes the determiner in (v). The phrase can also be postposed (*cf* 15.69):

It was a discussion *as lively as* we thought it would be.

The adverb phrase in (vii) can also be postposed:

I am handicapped *as severely as* you (are).

There are parallels between a positive *as . . . as* sentence and negative *more . . . than* and *less . . . than* sentences:

Caesar was *as* ruthless *as* Attila. [1]
Attila was *not more* ruthless *than* Caesar. [2]
Caesar was *not less* ruthless *than* Attila. [3]

But they are not exactly synonymous, since [2] allows the possibility that Attila was less ruthless and [3] that he was more ruthless. Similar parallels exist between a negative *as . . . as* sentence and positive *more . . . than* and *less . . . than* sentences, but the negative *as . . . as* sentence (*eg*: *Caesar was not as ruthless as Attila*) encourages the interpretation of *less . . . than*, though a heavy stress on the first *as* allows the interpretation of *more . . . than* (*eg*: *Caesar was not as ruthless as Attila*; *indeed, he was more ruthless*).

In negative superordinate clauses, *as . . . as* can be replaced by *so . . . as*, especially when there is total or considerable omission in the subordinate clause:

He's not as naughty as he was.
He's not so naughty as he was.
He's not so naughty (now).

Some prefer to use *so . . . as* with negative clauses. But for some people *so* tends to carry the absurd implication of a possibility that is then negated, and they therefore find it odd to say:

(?)Her baby is not so old as I thought.

The reason is that for them the sentence implies that a baby can be old. In other words, an unmarked term *old* (*cf* 7.88) cannot be used in this context to cover the whole scale.

The first *as* in the *as . . . as* construction is sometimes omitted in two contexts: (a) after a copular verb; (b) where a copular verb is implied.

(a) The omission of *as* tends to occur particularly in more informal style, especially if only a noun phrase follows. The single *as* provides a less emphatic comparison and is closer to *like* when *as* is followed by a noun phrase:

They were good *as* gold while you were away.
At the sight, she turned pale *as* a ghost.
You look pretty *as* ever.

In informal speech the subject complement may be fronted as in [4], or it may be initial because the subject and copula are ellipted, as in [5]:

White *as* snow, it was. [4]
Proud *as* ever, isn't he? [5]

(b) In a rather literary style, the first *as* may be omitted in verbless and subjectless supplementive clauses:

Lawson, *implacable as ever*, contented himself with a glare of defiance. [6]
Cautious as the rest of her family, she would not give an immediate reply to my question. [7]
He climbed over the wall and dropped onto the ground on the other side, *agile as a cat*. [8]

The addition of a verb (where that is possible) would convert the clause into a finite concessive or circumstantial clause with fronting of the subject complement (*cf* 15.39, 15.47):

Cautious as the rest of the family was, she seemed willing to give an immediate reply to my question.

Note [a] Count *as many* (. . .) *as* and noncount *as much* (. . .) *as* are equivalent to *more* (. . .) *than* when they are premodified by a *times*-phrase:

= { *Five times as many people* came to the demonstration *as* (did) last time.
Five times more people came to the demonstration *than* (did) last time. }

= { I paid *three times as much* for the meal *as* they did.
I paid *three times more* for the meal *than* they did. }

Other lexical comparatives can also be used:

= { The Gross National Product is *four times as much/high as* (it was) a decade ago.
The Gross National Product is *four times more/higher than* (it was) a decade ago. }

Twice is used with *as many as* or *as much as* rather than with *more*.

Fractions are also used in the *as many* (. . .) *as* and *as much* (. . .) *as* constructions:

We have *a third as many students* in our class *as* we had last term. ['a third of the number']
I paid *half as much* for the meal *as* they did. ['half the price']

When *again* is added, the meaning is equivalent to *more* (. . .) *than*:

= { Houses cost *a third as much again* this year *as* they did five years ago.
['The price is one third higher.']
Houses cost *one third more* this year *than* they did five years ago.
['Houses cost a third more.'] }

= { There were *a third as many arrests again* for assault this year *as* there were last year.
There were *a third more arrests* for assault this year *than* there were last year. }

But there is uncertainty and divided usage with the constructions when *again* is added. Some speakers find percentages odd in these constructions:

They cost { *50 per cent as much* / *?50 per cent as much again* } as last year.

[b] The construction analogous to *more of a . . . than* (*cf* 15.69 Note [b]) is *as much of . . . as*:

It was *as much of a success as* I had imagined it would be.
He's *as much of a fool as* I thought (he was).

Analogous to *less of a . . . than* is *as little of a . . . as*:

It was *as little of a success as* I had imagined it would be.

There are no such constructions for plural nouns.

[c] *As . . . as* is used like *more . . . than* and *less . . . than* in a nonclausal comparison containing an explicit standard of comparison after the second *as* (*cf* 15.64 Note [a]):

The car goes as fast as 100 miles an hour.
A reliable quartz watch can cost as little as ten dollars.
He drinks as many as three bottles of milk a day.
Our factory consumes as much as 500 tons of solid fuel per week.

Comparisons of sufficiency and excess

15.72 Comparative clauses of sufficiency and excess combine the notions of sufficiency or excess with the notions of purpose (*cf* 15.48) or result (*cf* 15.49). They differ from comparative clauses of nonequivalence and equivalence (*cf* 15.63*ff*) in that they do not match the matrix clause in terms of identical and contrasting elements, and therefore they do not lend themselves to ellipsis. Their structure is relatively independent of the structure of the matrix clause.

Enough* and *too

15.73 One type of comparative construction contains a word or phrase expressing the notion of sufficiency or excess followed by a *to*-infinitive clause of purpose, result, or condition (*cf* 15.34 Note [g]). The most common word for sufficiency is *enough* (as adverb, determiner, or pronoun) and the most common word for excess is the adverb *too*. Here are some examples of this type of comparison:

You're old *enough to look after yourself*. ['. . . so that you can look after yourself.']
I'm *much too* tired *to go out*. ['. . . with the result that I won't go out.']
Your teacher was *excessively* generous *to give you an A*. ['. . . if he gave you an A.']
They must be *pretty* cruel *to do that*. ['. . . if they do that.']
They worked *enough to be hungry*.
He protested *too much to be sincere*.
This coat is just the *right* length *to fit you*.
There was *enough* food *to feed an army*.
She knows *enough* about the topic *to explain it to you*.
Four thousand dollars is an *excessive* amount *to charge even for a luxury cruise like this*.
There isn't *sufficient* milk *to give everybody some*.

Paraphrase pairs may be constructed with antonymous items, in which one sentence is positive and the other negative; one sentence has *enough* or one of its synonyms, and the other *too* or one of its synonyms:

= { They're rich enough to own a car.
They're not too poor to own a car. }

= { The book is sufficiently simple to understand. ⟨formal⟩
The book is not excessively difficult to understand. ⟨formal⟩ }

If the context allows, the infinitive clause may be omitted. *Sufficient(ly)* and *excessive(ly)* are more formal synonyms of *enough* and *too*.

The negative force of *too* is shown in the use of nonassertive forms (*cf* 10.60*f*). Contrast:

She's *old enough* to do *some* work. ['She is old enough so that she can do some work.']
She's *too old* to do *any* work. ['She is so old that she can't do any work.']

Here are further examples of *too* followed by nonassertive forms:

He's *too weak* to help you *at all*.
She's *too polite* to *ever* say *anything* like that.

The infinitive clause may also contain a subject:

It moves too quickly *for most people to see* (*it*).
The television in the apartment above was loud enough *for us to hear* (*it*).
My ambitions are modest enough *for me to fulfil* (*them*).
He was old enough *for us to talk to* (*him*) *seriously*.

Her parents are sufficiently generous *for her to take a long vacation abroad at their expense*.

As the first four of these examples indicate, a direct object or the object of a prepositional verb in a *to*-infinitive clause may be omitted or retained if it substitutes for the superordinate subject. When there is no subject in the infinitive clause, it is identified with the superordinate subject or with an indefinite subject:

She writes quickly enough *to finish the paper on time*. ['for her to finish the paper on time']
The knife is sharp enough *to carve the turkey*. ['for it to carve the turkey']

And there may be ambiguity as to which identification to make:

She was too young *to date*. ['. . . to date others' or 'for others to date her']

When the subject of the superordinate clause is agentive (*cf* 10.19), it may be redundantly repeated:

She writes quickly enough *for her to finish the paper on time*.
She's too polite *for her to ever say anything like that*.

A: Will John lend me money?
B: John's much too mean *for HIM to lend you money*.

That optional redundancy (sometimes justifiable for emphasis) parallels the optional redundancy that we have just observed for a direct object or prepositional object. The infinitive may be passive in form:

The writing is too faint *to be read*.

In that case the implied subject is identical with the superordinate subject and it is either the implied agent known from the situational context or previous linguistic context or it is indefinite ('to be read by *anyone*'). But the infinitive may be active without a subject or object (*cf* Note [b]):

The writing is too faint *to read*. ['for anyone to read']
The food is good enough *to eat*.

When neither subject nor object is expressed in the infinitive clause, ambiguity is possible with verbs that may be used transitively.

She is friendly enough [(for others) / (for her)] to help [(her). / (others).]

The lamb is too hot [(for us) / (for it)] to eat [(it). / (anything).]

He is too good a person [(for others) / (for him)] to swindle [(him). / (others).]

As we see from the last example, when an adjective phrase modified by *too* in turn modifies a singular count noun, the phrase precedes the indefinite article (*cf* 15.71: *as lively a discussion as . . .*). There is no plural or noncount equivalent for this construction. Instead, we have to postpose the adjective phrase: *It's food too good to throw away*; *They are persons too good to swindle*.

The same problem does not arise with *enough*, which is usually a postmodifier; but *enough* usually premodifies when it is a determinative: *We have enough money to last.*

Note [a] There is a threefold ambiguity in *It's too hot to eat*. Two of the meanings have been illustrated above: *The lamb is too hot (for it to eat (anything))* and *The lamb is too hot (for us/me/anyone) to eat (it)*. In the third meaning *it* is the prop-*it* used as a subject to refer to the weather. Both a subject and a direct object can then be supplied: *It is too hot (for anyone) to eat (anything)*.
[b] Traditionally, grammarians have regarded the infinitive clause in *The writing is too faint to read* as having a passive meaning ('to be read'), but we analyse it as having an unexpressed subject and object ('for anyone to read the writing').
[c] The constructions *enough of a* . . . and *too much of a* . . . should be compared with those mentioned in 15.69 Note [b] and 15.71 Note [b] (*eg*: *more of a* . . . *than* and *as much of a* . . . *as*):
He's enough of a coward to do that.
That's too much of a bother to think about.
Cf also: *He was fool enough to go out without a coat.*

So . . . (*that*) and *such* . . . (*that*)

15.74 The pairs of correlatives *so* . . . (*that*) and *such* . . . (*that*) also introduce constructions that combine the notion of sufficiency or excess with the notion of result. The adverb *so* premodifies an adjective or adverb, whereas the predeterminer *such* precedes a noun phrase. The adjective premodified by *so* may itself premodify the head of a noun phrase. For both *so* and *such*, the noun phrase may have either the indefinite article or the zero article. *So* precedes the indefinite article together with the adjective it premodifies, but *such* (whose noun phrase need not have an adjective) does so alone.

I'm *so* happy to hear your good news *that* I could kiss you.
They walked *so* quickly *that* I couldn't catch up.
So few (people) came to the meeting *that* it was adjourned.
The children had *so* good a time *that* they wouldn't leave.
The soldiers encountered *such* (great) resistance *that* they retreated.
The apartment has *such* a (beautiful) view *that* I intend to rent it.

The correlative *that* is sometimes omitted in informal style:

He polished the floor *so hard you could see your face in it.*

There is a close correspondence between *so* . . . *that* and *such* . . . *that* constructions, when the *that*-clause is negative, and constructions with *too* and an infinitive clause:

It's *so* good a movie *that* we mustn't miss it.
~ It's *too* good a movie *to* miss.
It was *such* a pleasant day *that* I didn't want to go to school.
~ It was *too* pleasant a day *to* go to school.

There may also be a close correspondence between on the one hand *so* . . . *that* and *such* . . . *that* constructions, when the *that*-clause is positive, and on the other hand constructions with *enough* and an infinitive clause:

It flies *so* fast *that* it can beat the speed record.
~ It flies fast *enough to* beat the speed record.
I had *such* a bad headache *that* I needed two aspirins.
~ I had a bad *enough* headache *to* need two aspirins.

But the correspondence often does not obtain, since *so* and *such* are not used with adjectives and adverbs in their unmarked sense (*cf* 7.88); they indicate a high degree. Thus, the *enough*-construction cannot replace the *so* . . . *that* and *such* . . . *that* constructions in the following contexts:

The lion was *so tame that* the lionkeeper could enter its cage. [1]
The lion was *tame enough* for the lionkeeper *to* enter its cage. [2]
It was *such a clear* introductory lecture *that* we decided to take the course. [3]
It was a *clear enough* introductory lecture for us *to* decide to take the course. [4]

While [1] asserts that the lion was very tame, [2] does not; and similarly [3] asserts that the lecture was very clear but [4] does not.

So expresses a high degree when used alone with a verb, and *such* does the same when its noun phrase does not contain an adjective premodifier:

I *so* enjoyed it *that* I'm determined to go again.
['I so much enjoyed it . . .']
There was *such* a crowd *that* we couldn't see a thing.
['There was such a large crowd . . .']

Compare exclamatory *how* and *what*: *How I enjoyed it!*, *What a crowd there was!* In a more formal variant, *so* and *such* may be positioned before correlative *that*; an intonation break (or in writing, a comma) is normal before *that*:

I enjoyed it *so, that* I'm determined to go again.
The crowd was *such, that* we couldn't see a thing.

Such can be positioned here only if the sentence is rephrased to make it follow a copular verb. It also differs here from *so* in that it identifies ('of that type') and does not intensify (*cf* also 15.49 Note [b]).

In another variant, found in informal style, the *that*-clause is positioned first, but *that* is omitted:

I couldn't keep my eyes open, I was *so* tired. [5]

The first clause is semantically and intonationally subordinate, but it is preferable to regard the construction as paratactic. Compare:

I was *so* tired, *I couldn't keep my eyes open.* [5a]

In a more formal variation of [5] the element containing *so* is fronted; subject–operator inversion is usual:

He had no need to make speeches, *so impregnable was his position.* [6]
She was exhausted by four, *so hard had she worked.* [7]

Another informal variant (with regional restriction) of [5] substitutes intensifier *that* for *so*:

I was *that* tired *I couldn't keep my eyes open.* [5b]

But intensifier *that* is more common without the correlative clause:

Why should you be (all) *that* tired in the morning? [8]

Note [a] In a formal and somewhat archaic usage, the subordinate clause in a *such . . . as* construction is finite:

They were fed *such* sumptuous fare *as kings dream of.*

The paraphrase of *such . . . as* by 'of a kind which' suggests that these clauses are relative rather than comparative. Less restricted is *so . . . as* with the infinitive:

His temper was *so* violent *as to make even his closest companions fear him.*

[b] In formal (especially literary) style, the comp-element is sometimes fronted, accompanied by subject–operator inversion:

To such lengths did she go in rehearsal that two actors walked out.

[c] In philosophical exposition, *such that* is often used, *such* here being identifying:

If there is a four-sided figure *such that* three of its angles are 90°, the remaining angle will also be 90°.

Syntactic function of comparative clauses

15.75 There are two major analyses for the syntactic function of the comparative clause in comparisons of nonequivalence (*more/-er/less* (. . .) *than*) and of equivalence (*as . . . as*). One traditional analysis is presupposed in our use of the term comp-element – the comp-element on its own is a clause element and the comparative clause is an adverbial:

S V C_s A
John is more intelligent than Bill is.

One argument in favour of this analysis is that in inflected comparative adjectives or adverbs (*eg*: *longer, faster*) the comp-element is morphologically one word. But morphological and syntactic units do not necessarily coincide; otherwise, for example, we would need to give different syntactic analyses to *she's not* and *she isn't*. Closer parallels might be the syntactic function of the genitive inflection in the group genitive (*eg*: *the President of Mexico's daughter, cf* 17.119) and of the inflections in the structure of the verb phrase that exhibit morphological discontinuities to express aspectual and voice categories (*eg*: the discontinuous combination of *be* and *-ing* to express progressive aspect in *She's running*).

An alternative, and better, analysis is to regard the comparative clause together with the preceding comparative item (including instances where that item is the inflection *-er*) as a degree modifier, even though it is commonly a discontinuous modifier:

John is *more* intelligent *than Bill* (*is*).
Susan spoke longer *than I expected* (*she would* (*speak*)).
There was *less* noise *than* (*there was*) *yesterday.*
Helen is *as* energetic *as Tom* (*is*).

The comparative clause then provides complementation for the comparative *more* or the inflection *-er*. The modifier is sometimes postposed, and is then continuous:

John is intelligent, $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{more (so) than}\\ \textit{as much (so) as}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *Bill* (*is*).

This construction is possible even for an adjective or adverb that is normally inflected, but in that case *more* replaces the inflection:

John looks good, *more* (*so*) *than Ted* (*does*).

In this second analysis, neither the comp-element nor the comparative clause are clause elements. See *Figs* 15.75a and 15.75b:

structure of sentence:

S V C_s
John is more intelligent than Bill is

structure of C_s:

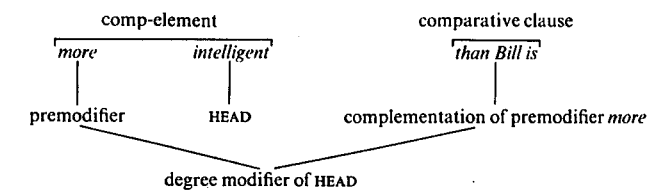

Fig 15.75a Comparative construction with *more*

structure of sentence:

S V C_s
Mary is younger than Tom is

structure of C_s:

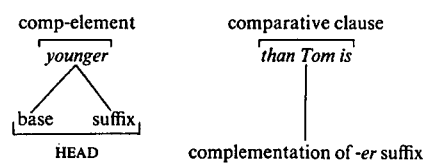

Fig 15.75b Comparative constructon with *-er* suffix

The comparative clause is usually separated from the comp-element when the comp-element is the subject:

More fatal accidents occur in the home *than on the roads.*

But such a separation of premodification and noun head from postmodification is not unusual when a long noun phrase is subject (*cf* 18.39*f*):

$\left[\begin{matrix}\textit{More}\\ \textit{Many}\end{matrix}\right]$ *difficult questions* were posed $\left[\begin{matrix}\textit{than}\\ \textit{that}\end{matrix}\right]$ *were convincingly answered by the panel of experts.*

On the other hand, in comparisons of sufficiency and excess (*cf* 15.72*ff*) the comparative clauses are more appropriately analysed as adverbials, since those clauses can properly be identified with adverbial clauses of purpose or result (*cf* 15.48*f*). Their restriction to final position is easily explained:

adverbial clauses of result are always positioned finally; adverbial clauses of purpose, though normally mobile, are restricted to final position in these comparative constructions because they are linked to a first correlative (*eg*: *as, too*).

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On comment clauses, see Emonds (1973); Lakoff, G. (1974); Mittwoch (1979).

On clauses introduced by *instead of* or *rather than*, see Dietrich and Napoli (1982); Jacobsson (1977a); Thompson (1972).

On adverbial *-ing* clauses, see Greenbaum (1973b).

On comparative clauses, see especially Huddleston (1971), Chapter 6. See also Hale (1970); Huddleston (1967); Jørgensen (1980); Lees (1961); Mittwoch (1974); Rivara (1975); Smith (1961).

16 Complementation of verbs and adjectives

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Introduction

16.1 In 2.32 we defined COMPLEMENTATION as 'part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies'. In this chapter, we examine the ways in which lexical verbs and adjectives determine, in this way, the grammatical patterns that follow them. We began this task in 2.19, where verbs were classified into various types (transitive, intransitive, copular, etc) according to their complementation. Now we must go further, and examine patterns of greater variety. But before doing so, we must analyse the phenomenon of multi-word verbs, a topic of peculiar importance in English. This study will occupy the first seventeen sections of the chapter, as a necessary prelude to the study of verb complementation.

Multi-word verbs

Verb–particle combinations

16.2 The main category of multi-word verbs consists of such combinations as *drink up*, *dispose of*, and *get away with*, which we will study under the headings of PHRASAL VERB, PREPOSITIONAL VERB, and PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERB respectively. However, these combinations are considered multi-word verbs only where they behave as a single unit.

Since the verb has been considered a class of word (*cf* 2.35), it may seem a contradiction to speak of 'multi-word verbs'. The term 'word' is frequently used, however, not only for a morphologically defined word class, but also for an item which acts as a single word lexically or syntactically (*cf* 9.10*ff* on complex prepositions). It is this extended sense of 'verb' as a 'unit which behaves to some extent either lexically or syntactically as a single verb' that we use in labels such as 'prepositional verb'. Thus in the sentence:

We *disposed of* the problem.

the word *disposed* remains morphologically a verb, being the item which has variable inflection (*dispose/disposes/disposed*, etc); but the sequence *disposed of* also functions in various ways as a single unit, such that for some purposes the sentence can be reasonably divided into:

[We] [disposed of] [the problem].

rather than into:

[We] [disposed] [of the problem].

The words which follow the lexical verb in expressions like *drink up*, *dispose of*, and *get away with* are morphologically invariable, and will be given the neutral designation PARTICLES. They actually belong to two distinct but overlapping categories, that of prepositions and that of spatial adverbs (though such adverbs are not necessarily used with spatial meaning). The term 'particle' will therefore apply to such words as these (see the fuller lists in 9.7 and 9.66), when they follow and are closely associated with verbs.

PARTICLES

(A) *against*, *among*, *as*, *at*, *beside*, *for*, *from*, *into*, *like*, *of*, *onto*, *upon*, *with*, etc.
(B) *about*, *above*, *across*, *after*, *along*, *around*, *by*, *down*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *out* ⟨AmE⟩, *over*, *past*, *round*, *through*, *under*, *up*, etc.
(C) *aback*, *ahead*, *apart*, *aside*, *astray*, *away*, *back*, *forward(s)*, *home*, *in front*, *on top*, *out* ⟨BrE⟩, *together*, etc.
(On *out* as a preposition, *cf* 9.18 Note.)

Those grouped in list (A) are prepositions only; those in (C) are spatial adverbs only (unless they form part of a complex preposition, as in *out of*); and those in (B) can be either prepositions or spatial adverbs, and in the latter function are known as 'prepositional adverbs' (*cf* 9.65*f*). List (C) includes adverbs like *away* and *on top*, which correspond to complex prepositions such as *away from* and *on top of* and so are also known as prepositional adverbs (*cf* 9.66). Thus we include particles which form the first element of a complex preposition:

Come *along* (*with* us/me). They moved *out* (*of* the house).

The most obvious difference between the prepositions and the spatial adverbs is that where prepositions require a following noun phrase as a prepositional complement, there is no such requirement for adverbs (*cf*, however, the phenomenon of deferred prepositions, 9.6). Hence Classes (A), (B), and (C) can be distinguished as follows:

	PREPOSITIONAL CONSTRUCTION	ADVERBIAL CONSTRUCTION
(A)	The dog went *for me*.	*The dog went *for*.
(B)	Jack fell *down the hill*.	Jack fell *down*.
(C)	*We must not look *back the past*.	We must not look *back*.

Particles of Class (B) are the only ones which are acceptable in both constructions.

Not all multi-word verbs consist of lexical verbs followed by particles. We shall illustrate other types, such as those of *take pride in*, *cut short*, *see fit*, or *put paid to*, in 16.7–8 and 16.17.

Note [a] Although the inflection of a multi-word verb is regularly attached to the lexical verb, the occurrence of 'slips of the tongue' such as the following (noted during a radio interview) deserves attention:

*The editor must do precisely as he *see fits*.

This anomalous shift of the inflection from the verb to the adjective testifies to a tendency for speakers to perceive the multi-word verb as a single grammatical unit.

[b] On the exceptional use of some Class (A) words as adverbs (*eg*: *to*), *cf* 9.66 Notes [a] and [b].

[c] The lexical verbs occurring in multi-word verbs are frequently the most common lexical verbs, and are typically associated with physical movement or state: *eg*: *come*, *fall*, *get*, *give*, *go*, *keep*, *make*, *put*, and *take*. At the other extreme, however, are words which occur as verbs only when combined with particles, *eg*: *beaver* in *beaver away*, *egg* in *egg on*, and *eke* in *eke out*:

She *egged* him *on*. *She *egged* (him).

Note also that some normally intransitive verbs can become transitive when combined with a particle, and that conversely some normally transitive verbs can become intransitive when combined with a particle:

They are *living* it *down*. *They are *living* it.
The plane *took off*. *The plane *took*.

Phrasal, prepositional, and phrasal–prepositional verbs

Type I (intransitive) phrasal verbs

16.3 Our procedure in 16.3–9 will be to illustrate the main categories of multi-word verbs, before the criteria for certain distinctions are considered more carefully in 16.11–16. One common type of multi-word verb is the *Type I* or intransitive phrasal verb consisting of a verb plus an adverb particle, as exemplified in:

The plane has just *touched down*.	Did he *catch on*?
He is *playing around*.	The prisoner finally *broke down*.
I hope you'll *get by*.	She *turned up* unexpectedly.
How are you *getting on*?	When will they *give in*?
The plane has now *taken off*.	The tank *blew up*.

Such phrasal verbs are usually informal. The particles above come from Class (B) in 16.2, but similar examples can be given with particles from Class (C):

One of my papers has *gone astray*.
The news made him *reel back*.
The favourite *romped home*.
The two girls have *fallen out*. [= 'quarrelled']

The particle functions like a predication adjunct (*cf* 8.26*ff*), and usually cannot be separated from its lexical verb:

?*The news made him *reel* distractedly *back*.

Although some of these are more idiomatic and cohesive than others, we will draw a distinction between such phrasal verbs, on the one hand, and FREE COMBINATIONS in which the verb and the adverb have distinct meanings on the other. In phrasal verbs like *give in* ['surrender'], *catch on* ['understand'], and *blow up* ['explode'], the meaning of the combination manifestly cannot be predicted from the meanings of verb and particle in isolation. But in free combinations the verb acts as a normal intransitive verb, and the adverb has its own meaning. For example:

He walked *past*. [= 'past the object/place']
I waded *across*. [= 'across the river/water/etc']

Past and *across* here are adverbs (*cf* 9.65, 16.4 Note [d]), but their function is equivalent to that of a prepositional phrase of direction. The separability of verb and adverb in terms of meaning is shown by possible substitutions: for *wade* in *wade across*, for example, we could substitute *walk*, *run*, *swim*, *jump*, *fly*, etc; and for *across* we could substitute *in*, *through*, *over*, *up*, *down*, etc. In other cases, the particle may have an intensifying or aspectual force, as in *liven up*, *go on*, or *chatter away*.

There are also syntactic signs of cohesion. In free combinations, it is often possible to place a modifying adverb *right* (or sometimes *straight*) between the adverb particle and the verb:

Go *right/straight* on. Drink *right* up. Walk *straight* in.

This insertion is to differing extents unacceptable with phrasal verbs:

?The prisoner broke *right* down.
*She turned *right* up at last.

Another sign of a free combination is the possibility of placing the adverb before the verb with subject–verb inversion (or without inversion where the subject is a pronoun):

Out came the sun.
Up you *come*.
On we *drove* into the night.

But with phrasal verbs this is not possible:

**Up blew* the tank.
**Up* it *blew*. ['exploded']
**Out* he *passed*. ['fainted']

However, in this as in other criteria, there is an unclear boundary between phrasal verbs and free combinations. With *They chattered away* the inversion is very marginally acceptable: ?**Away they chattered*. Some examples are more acceptable if the particle is reduplicated according to the pattern of iterative coordination (*cf* 13.101):

On and *on* he *went* about his wife and family.

And where the phrasal verb makes metaphorical use of spatial adverbs, inversion seems quite acceptable:

Down came the prices, and *up went* the sales.
There was a gust of wind, and *out went* the light.

We examine the boundary between multi-word verbs and free combinations more generally in 16.12.

Type II (transitive) phrasal verbs

16.4 Many phrasal verbs may take a direct object, and may therefore be described as transitive. However, to simplify comparison with prepositional verbs, we will call them *Type II* phrasal verbs, as contrasted with Type I (or intransitive) phrasal verbs. Examples are:

We will *set up* a new unit.	He can't *live down* his past.
Shall I *put away* the dishes?	I can't *make out* what he means.
Find out if they are coming.	We *pushed home* our advantage.
She's *bringing up* two children.	She *looked up* her friends.
Someone *turned on* the light.	I've *handed in* my registration.
They have *called off* the strike.	They may have *blown up* the bridge.

Examples here and in 16.3 show that some combinations, such as *give in* and *blow up*, can be either Type I or Type II. In some cases, *eg*: *give in*, there is a substantial difference in meaning, and in others, *eg*: *blow up*, there is not (*cf* App I.18).

With most Type II phrasal verbs, as with free combinations of the same pattern, the particle can either precede or follow the direct object:

They *turned on* the light. They *turned* the light *on*.

Bearing in mind the adverbial status of the particle, we would indeed expect the latter order (S V O A) to be the more usual, even though it means a separation of the particle from its verb. When the object is a personal pronoun, the S V O A order is in fact the only one allowable:

*They *switched on* it. They *switched* it *on*.

The particle tends to precede the object if the object is long, or if the intention is that the object should receive end-focus (*cf* 18.3*f*).

As before, phrasal verbs have to be distinguished lexically from free syntactic combinations of verb and prepositional adverb. Contrast:

She *took in* the box.	['brought inside']	[FREE COMBINATION]
She *took in* her parents.	['deceived']	[PHRASAL VERB]

The verb and particle in *put out the cat*, for instance, preserve their separate meanings in that combination, as well as in a wide range of comparable combinations: *put* + *down/outside/away/aside*; *take/turn/bring/push/send/drag* + *out*. A highly idiomatic expression like *put off* ['postpone'] has no such variants at all, for the two words *put* and *off* are fused into a unit which allows for no substitution for the individual elements. Once again, there are unclear cases between these two extremes: some substitutions, but a limited number only, can be made in a 'semi-idiomatic' example such as *Turn out the light*:

$$\text{Let's}\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{turn}\\ \textit{switch}\\ \textit{put}\end{matrix}\right\}\text{it}\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{on.}\\ \textit{off.}\\ \textit{down.}\\ \textit{up.}\end{matrix}\right.$$

With Type II phrasal verbs, there is no sensitive method of testing cohesion by placing the particle before the subject (*cf* 16.3), as this construction is scarcely possible even with free combinations: ?**Out he took a gun*. The other test of independence, insertion of an adverb before the particle, can however be used:

The pilot *jerked* the lever *right back*.
The dancer *threw* her hands *wildly about* above her head.

(Again, *right* is an intensifier of the particle, rather than an adverbial in itself.) Contrast the phrasal verb ?**They put the meeting hurriedly off*. Where there is an ambiguity between idiomatic and nonidiomatic interpretations of the same combination, insertion of an adverb will select the nonidiomatic one. Thus [1], unlike [2], can mean 'She reared the girls':

She *brought* the girls *up*. [1]
She *brought* the girls *right up*. [2]

But [2] can only have a spatial meaning 'She caused the girls to come up (the stairs, etc)'.

Like transitive verbs in general, Type II phrasal verbs can normally be turned into the passive without stylistic awkwardness (but *cf* Note [c]):

Aunt Ada *brought up* Roy. ~ Roy was *brought up* by Aunt Ada.

Note [a] Some Type II phrasal verbs do not easily allow the possibility of placing the particle after the object (unless the object is a pronoun):

They had *given up* hope. ~ ?They had *given* hope *up*.
They *laid down* their arms. ~ ?They *laid* their arms *down*.

This fixing of the S V A O order tends to occur, as the above examples illustrate, where there is a strong idiomatic bond (frequently matching a change from literal to metaphorical) between the phrasal verb and the object. In addition, the particle cannot normally be placed after a clausal object, such as an *-ing* clause, even when the clause is short:

She *gave up* trying. ~ *She *gave* trying *up*.

[b] Conversely, some phrasal verbs do not easily allow the placement of the particle before the object. In some cases the S V A O order is probably avoided because of ambiguity:

Get that parcel *off* right away! ~ *Get off* that parcel right away!

Here the transitive phrasal verb *get . . . off* can be confused with the intransitive verb *get* followed by the preposition *off*. This latter construction occurs, for example, in *Get off that stool – it's just been painted!* but would suggest an inappropriate meaning in the above sentence. Other reasons for avoiding the S V A O order include coordination of particles:

I *switched* the light *on and off*. ~ ?I *switched on and off* the light.

Also, as in [a] above, the order tends to be fixed by idiomatic convention:

$$\text{I was}\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{crying}\text{ my eyes }\textit{out.}\\ \textit{laughing}\text{ my head }\textit{off.}\\ \textit{sobbing}\text{ my heart }\textit{out.}\end{matrix}\right. \qquad \text{*I was}\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{crying out}\text{ my eyes.}\\ \textit{laughing off}\text{ my head.}\\ \textit{sobbing out}\text{ my heart.}\end{matrix}\right.$$

In these cases of conventionalized hyperbole, the S V A O order is impossible.

[c] Another restriction on phrasal verbs is that some of them do not have a passive. These are principally combinations for which the object is idiomatically limited to a particular noun or pronoun:

The train *picked up* speed. ~ *?Speed was *picked up* (by the train).
Jill and her boss don't *hit* it *off*. ~ *It is not *hit off* (by Jill and her boss).
['are not good friends']

[d] As in intransitive combinations, so in transitive verb–adverb combinations the adverb may be semantically equivalent to a reduced prepositional phrase, from which the complement has been omitted:

They *pulled* the cart *along*. ['*along* the road, etc']
Move the furniture *out*. ['*out* of the house, etc']

These are clearly free combinations, not phrasal verbs.

[e] Expressions like *be fed up, be run down* appear to be passive phrasal verbs without a corresponding active:

I *was fed up* with the noise. ~ *The noise *fed me up*.

Yet these are not true passives, but rather 'pseudo-passives' (*cf* 3.77), as we see from their ability to combine with an intensifier such as *thoroughly*, and a copular verb such as *look*:

He *looked thoroughly* fed up.

and also by the impossibility of an agent *by*-phrase:

*I was fed up *by the noise*.

Type I prepositional verbs

16.5 Here, as in 16.3, we use *Type I* as a label for multi-word verbs without a direct object. A prepositional verb consists of a lexical verb followed by a preposition with which it is semantically and/or syntactically associated. The preposition, as is to be expected, precedes its complement:

Look at these pictures.	Can you *cope with* the work?
I don't *care for* Jane's parties.	I *approve of* their action.
We must *go into* the problem.	His eyes *lighted upon* the jewel.

In these examples, the lexical verb is followed by a particle which is unequivocally a preposition (*ie* from Class (A) in 16.2).

In using the term PREPOSITIONAL VERB we indicate that we regard the

second noun phrase in a sentence like [1] as the complement of the preposition *at* and not as the direct object of a verb *look at*:

Many people looked at *the pictures*. [1]

This is despite the fact that the passive is frequently possible (with some stylistic awkwardness) as in [1a]:

The picture was *looked at* by many people. [1a]

The intransitive interpretation, on the other hand, is justified (for example) by the potentiality of adverbial insertion:

Many people looked *disdainfully* at the picture.

where insertion between V and O_d is usually avoided:

*?Many people examined disdainfully the picture.

The noun phrase following the preposition in such constructions is termed a PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT.

There are therefore two complementary analyses of a sentence like *She looked after* ['tended'] *her son*:

ANALYSIS 1:	S	V		A
	She	*looked*	*after*	*her son*
ANALYSIS 2:	S	V		O

The former analysis is the one we follow if we call this kind of construction intransitive. Analysis 2, on the other hand, highlights the resemblance between *She looked after her son* and *She tended her son*. By naming this category of prepositional verbs 'Type I', we avoid the unclarity which results from the use of 'intransitive' or 'transitive' in this connection. The above analyses are discussed further in 16.13–15.

Note Whereas a sequence of verb and preposition like *live at* is a purely nonidiomatic free combination, in prepositional verbs like *look at*, *look for*, etc the verb word has a literal use, but has a fixed association with the preposition. These cases may, in their turn, be distinguished from other prepositional verbs, *eg*: *go into* ['investigate'] where both words form a semantically idiomatic (often metaphorical) unit (*cf* 16.12 for a further exploration of these categories and their relation to a scale of idiomaticity).

Prepositional verbs contrasted with phrasal verbs

16.6 We must now briefly attend to another distinction between similar-looking constructions. The following exemplify Type I prepositional verbs which contain particles of Class (B) in 16.2, and are therefore capable of confusion with Type II phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.4):

She *called on* her friends.	You should *invest in* property.
We *saw through* his imposture.	She *came by* a fortune.
I've *come across* a problem.	The car *ran over* a bump.

These are distinguished from almost all Type II phrasal verbs by the inability of the particle to be moved to a position after the following noun phrase:

(1) She *called on* her friends. ~ *She *called* her friends *on*.
[*cf*: (2) She *switched on* the light. ~ She *switched* the light *on*.]
(1a) She *came by* a fortune. ~ *She *came* a fortune *by*. ['acquired']
[*cf*: (2a) She *put by* a fortune. ~ She *put* a fortune *by*. ['kept']]

Similarly, the order of particle and pronoun is different:

(1b) She *called on* them. NOT *She *called* them *on*.
(2b) She *switched* it *on*. NOT *She *switched on* it.

Another criterion is stress. Both constructions generally permit the corresponding passive, but in the Type II phrasal verb (2), a higher degree of stress (including nuclear stress when the particle is in final position) usually falls on the adverb particle. In the prepositional verb (1), on the other hand, the stress normally occurs on the lexical verb preceding the particle:

(1c) He 'called on the dean. ~ The dean was CÀLLED on.
(2c) She *switched* 'on the light. ~ The light was *switched* ÒN.

The same contrast of stress is observed in other constructions with a postponed particle, *eg* relative clauses:

(1d) the fortune (that) he CÀME *by*.
(2d) the fortune (that) he *put* BÝ.

Compare also:

(1e) This is a dangerous road to GÈT over. (*also* . . . to get òver)
(2e) It's a loss she will never get òver.

However, the 'stress test' is not entirely reliable, as polysyllabic prepositions like *across*, *over*, and *without* usually receive stress, and other factors such as contrastive focus may affect the positioning of the nucleus:

I could have done withòUT that PRÉsent.
~ That's a present I could have done withòUT.
She will never get òver it.
~ It is a loss that she will never get òver.

We shall return to these distinctions in 16.16.

Note [a] It is not unusual for the same sequence of verb + particle to function either as a phrasal verb or as a prepositional verb:
He 'turned 'on his suppòRTers. [phrasal verb: 'He excited them'] [1]
He 'turned on his suppòRTers. [prepositional verb: 'He attacked them'] [2]
A reduced version of [1] would be *He 'turned them 'on*, while the correspondingly reduced version of [2] would be *He 'turned on them*.
[b] A special case of the above homonymy occurs where the phrasal and prepositional verbs are not only identical in form, but similar in meaning. Examples are *run through*, *run over*, and *look over*. Thus:
The car *ran* him *over*. The car *ran over* him.
These have virtually the same meaning, but the former (the phrasal verb) is reserved for the description of driving accidents, in which the object refers to a casualty.
The car *ran 'over* a BÙMP.
therefore has no corresponding phrasal verb construction:
*The car *ran* a 'bump *òver*.

Type II prepositional verbs

16.7 The Type I/Type II opposition applies not only to phrasal, but to prepositional verbs:

	TYPE I (without O_d)	TYPE II (with O_d)
PHRASAL VERB	Please *drink up*.	Please *drink* it *up*.
PREPOSITIONAL VERB	He *invested in* property.	He *invested* his money *in* property.

Type II prepositional verbs are followed by two noun phrases, normally separated by the preposition: the former is the direct object, the latter the prepositional object. Three subtypes may be distinguished; the italicized words indicate that the idiom has a different grammatical status in each case, as will be explained.

TYPE IIa

The gang *robbed* her *of* her necklace.
He *deprived* the peasants *of* their land.
They *plied* the young man *with* food.
Please *confine* your remarks *to* the matter under discussion.
This clothing will *protect* you *from* the worst weather.
Jenny *thanked* us *for* the present.
May I *remind* you *of* our agreement?
They have *provided* the child *with* a good education.

TYPE IIb

They have *made a* (terrible) *mess of* the house.
Did you *make* (any) *allowance for* inflation?
Mary *took* (good) *care of* the children.

TYPE IIc

Suddenly we *caught sight of* the lifeboat.
Give way to traffic on the major road.
I have *lost touch with* most of the family.

The first and most numerous type has a passive of the regular kind, the direct object becoming subject of the passive verb phrase:

She was *robbed of* her necklace (by the gang).
The peasants were *deprived of* their land.
The young man was *plied with* food.

With Type IIb, there are two possible passives: the regular passive in which the direct object becomes subject (labelled (1) below), and a less acceptable passive construction in which the prepositional object becomes subject (labelled (2) below):

{(1) *A* (terrible) *mess* has been *made of* the house.
(2) (?)The house has been *made a* (terrible) *mess of*.

{(1) Has (any) *allowance* been *made for* inflation?
(2) ?Has inflation been *made allowance for?*

{(1) (Good) *care* was *taken of* the children.
(2) The children were *taken* (good) *care of*.

In Type IIc, on the other hand, the only acceptable passive is the irregular passive in which the prepositional object becomes subject:

The lifeboat was suddenly *caught sight of*.
?Traffic on the major road should always be *given way to*.
(?)Most of the family has been *lost touch with*.

Note [a] For completeness, mention must be made of a fourth type of transitive prepositional verb which has no passive whatsoever; an idiomatic type in which the direct object is a reflexive pronoun (*cf* 3.70):
He *prided himself on* his craftsmanship.
**Himself* was *prided on* his craftsmanship.
[b] In the interests of end-focus or end-weight (*cf* 18.9), it is sometimes acceptable to place an elaborate direct object after the prepositional object. Contrast:
He had been known to *reduce* movie-stars *to* tears.
He had been known to *reduce to* tears some of the most seasoned and idolized movie-stars in Hollywood.

16.8 To a great extent, membership of Types IIa–IIc above depends on the idiomatic status of the prepositional verb.

In *Type IIa* the lexical verb and the preposition, although normally separated by the object, form an idiomatic combination. Here as elsewhere, the idiomatic 'cohesion' of the two may be of variable strength. Verbs such as *accuse* N *of* and *thank* N *for* (where 'N' symbolizes the direct object noun phrase) are not idiomatic in the sense that applies to phrasal verbs like *put* N *off*, for the lexical verb is used in its primary literal meaning. We may nevertheless speak of the verb GOVERNING the preposition, in the sense that the preposition is selected by reason of the verb, rather than by independent semantic choice. Thus despite similarity of meaning, different prepositions are selected with *accuse* and *blame*, *viz*: *of* and *for* respectively.

I *accused* him { *of* the crime. / *for the crime. } I *blamed* him { *of the crime. / *for* the crime. }

In less idiomatic cases, the verbs group themselves into restricted sets such as *rob* N *of*, *cheat* N *of*, and *deprive* N *of*, where *of* to some extent carries its own privative force.

In a further subcategorization of Type IIa we need to recognize that the prepositional phrase is optional in some cases, but not in others:

They { *cheated* / *deprived* } the boy *of* his savings. They { *cheated* / **deprived* } the boy.

In yet another sub-type, the prepositional object forms part of the idiom: *lick* N *into shape* ⟨informal⟩; *lull* N *to sleep*; *put* N *to rights*; etc.

In *Type IIb* as well as the verb word and the preposition, the head noun of the direct object forms part of the idiom:

make a *mess* of	take *notice* of	lose *hope* of
pay *attention* to	take *advantage* of	make *mention* of

But the object is still variable to some extent: *eg* an open-class adjective or a determiner can be added:

make a *horrible* mess of	take *some* notice of
pay *careful* attention to	take *unfair* advantage of
lose *all* hope of	make *occasional* mention of

To this extent, the idiomatic bond is weakened, and it is easier, especially when the object contains a modifier or determiner, to separate the object from the rest of the construction by the regular passive transformation:

Some notice was taken . . . *Careful attention* was paid . . .

In *Type IIc* the direct object is more firmly welded in its idiomatic position, so that its separation by means of the regular passive construction is awkward if not impossible: ?**Sight was caught of the lifeboat*. The object is typically invariable, and cannot easily be augmented by an adjective or a determiner: *cross swords with, give rise to, keep pace with, keep tabs on*, etc. Hence the dubious acceptability of ?**cross violent swords with*, ?**keep fast pace with*, ?**keep watchful tabs on*, etc. Other combinations of this kind are far more acceptable, however: *keep close tabs on, give sudden rise to*.

Phrasal–prepositional verbs

16.9 There is a further major category of multi-word verbs which will be called PHRASAL–PREPOSITIONAL verbs, because they contain, in addition to the lexical verb, both an adverb and a preposition as particles. These combinations are largely restricted to informal English:

We are all *looking forward to* your party on Saturday.
He had to *put up with* a lot of teasing at school.
Why don't you *look in on* Mrs Johnson on your way back?
He thinks he can *get away with* everything.

A common sign of idiomatic status here, as with other categories, is the existence of a one-word paraphrase:

put up with = 'tolerate' *look in on* = 'visit'

The prepositional passive with such verbs is not too common, and is liable to sound cumbersome. Examples such as the following, however, are normal and acceptable:

These tantrums could not be *put up with* any longer.	['tolerated']
The death penalty has been recently *done away with*.	['abolished']
Such problems must be squarely *faced up to*.	['confronted']
They were *looked down on* by their neighbours.	['despised']

In addition to the Type I phrasal–prepositional verbs already illustrated, there are also Type II ones requiring a direct object:

fob N *off with* ⟨esp BrE⟩	*put* N *down to*	*take* N *out on*
fix N *up* (*with*)	*let* N *in on*	*put* N *up to*

(where 'N' again identifies the object noun phrase). Examples:

Don't *take* it *out on* me! ['vent your anger']
The manager *fobbed* me *off with* a cheap camera. ⟨esp BrE⟩
We *put* our success *down to* hard work. ['attribute to']
I'll *let* you *in on* a secret.

Only the regular passive occurs with these:

I was *fobbed off with* a cheap camera. ⟨esp BrE⟩
Our success can be *put down to* careful planning.
Are you *fixed up with* a job yet?

Note There are two equivalent phrasal–prepositional verbs in which the two noun phrases following the verb exchange roles:

= { He *fobbed* a cheap camera *off on* the unsuspecting tourist.
He *fobbed* the unsuspecting tourist *off with* a cheap camera. }

A summary of types of multi-word verb

16.10 We have now reached a point where it will be useful to summarize the various categories described in 16.3–9. The picture which emerges in *Table* 16.10 is a symmetrical one, with three binary contrasts, expressed in the formula:

verb ± direct object ± adverb ± preposition

Table 16.10 Principal types of multi-word verbs

		Lexical Verb	Direct Object	Particles: Adverb	Particles: Preposition	+ Prepositional Object
1 (free combination)	(A)	*come*	—	*in*	—	—
Type I PHRASAL VERB	(B)	*crop*	—	*up*	—	—
2 (free combination)	(A)	*send*	someone	*away*	—	—
Type II PHRASAL VERB	(B)	*turn*	someone	*down*	—	—
3 (free combination)	(A)	*come*	—	—	*with*	+ me
Type I PREPOSITIONAL VERB	(B)	*come*	—	—	*across*	+ a problem
4 (free combination)	(A)	*receive*	something	—	*from*	+ me
Type II PREPOSITIONAL VERB	(B)	*take*	someone	—	*for*	+ a fool
5 (free combination)	(A)	*run*	—	*away*	*with*	+ it
Type I PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERB	(B)	*come*	—	*up*	*with*	+ an answer
6 (free combination)	(A)	*send*	someone	*out*	*into*	+ the world
Type II PHRASAL-PREPOSITIONAL VERB	(B)	*put*	someone	*up*	*for*	+ election

[a] Examples (A) and (B) of each type illustrate respectively nonidiomatic and idiomatic variants. Thus (A) is a free combination, whereas (B) is a multi-word verb.
[b] The italicized words are those which make up the idiom or lexical unit.

Some semantic and syntactic distinctions

16.11 It will also be useful to analyse in a systematic manner three distinctions which underlie *Table* 16.10, and which have been found problematic by those dealing with this aspect of English grammar. The three distinctions, which have been touched on in preceding sections, are:

idiomatic versus *nonidiomatic* status (16.12)
prepositional verbs versus *free combinations of verb + prepositional phrase* (16.13–15)
phrasal versus *prepositional* verbs (16.16)

The first two of these are gradient rather than clear-cut.

Semantic criteria for idiomatic status

16.12 (A) The semantic unity of multi-word verbs can often be manifested in replacement by a single-word verb; *eg*: *visit* for *call for*, *summon* for *call up*, *omit* for *leave out*, *tolerate* for *put up with*. This criterion, however, is not always reliable. First, there are multi-word verbs, like *get away with* and *run out of*, which do not have one-word paraphrases. Second, there are nonidiomatic combinations, such as *go across* (= *cross*), *go past* (= *pass*), and *sail around* (= *circumnavigate*) which do have such paraphrases.

(B) The fact that the meaning of an idiom is not predictable from the meanings of its parts can be verified by noting that the meaning of the verb or particle in the combination does not remain constant when other parts of the idiom undergo substitution. This criterion leads us to recognize three main categories:

(i) Free, nonidiomatic constructions, where the individual meanings of the components are apparent from their constancy in possible substitutions:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{bring}\\ \textit{take}\\ \ldots\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{in}\\ \textit{out}\\ \ldots\end{array}\right. \qquad \left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{walk}\\ \textit{run}\\ \ldots\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{up}\\ \textit{down}\\ \ldots\end{array}\right.$$

(ii) 'Semi-idiomatic' constructions which are variable but in a more limited way. The relation between the verb and particle is similar to that between a stem and an affix in word formation (*cf* App I.5), in that the substitution of one verb for another, or one particle for another, is constrained by limited productivity. In phrasal verbs like *find out* ['discover'], *cut up* ['cut into pieces'] and *slacken off* ['reduce pace/energy'] the verb word keeps its meaning, whereas the meaning of the particle is less easy to isolate. In contrast, it is the particle which establishes a family resemblance in the following groups:

'persistent action'		'completion'	
chatter *away*	fire *away*	drink *up*	break *up*
work *away*	beaver *away* ⟨BrE⟩	finish *up*	use *up*

'aimless behaviour'		'endurance'	
play *around*	mess *around*	draw *out*	eke *out*
fool *around*	wait *around*	last *out*	hold *out*

Completion can also be signalled by *out*, as in *find out*, *point out*, *seek out*, *figure out*, *work out*, etc.

(iii) 'Highly idiomatic' constructions such as *bring up* ['rear'], *come by* ['acquire'], *turn up* ['make an appearance']. These are thoroughly idiomatic in that there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: *bring up/down*; *come by/past/through*; *turn up/down*; etc.

Putting a verb in the third category does not necessarily mean, however, that its meaning is completely opaque. We can see a metaphorical appropriateness in *bring up* for 'educate', and this is only one of many idiomatic verbs containing metaphors fairly clearly derived from their literal locative interpretations: *gloss over* (a difficulty); *hand down* (an heirloom), *piece together* (a story), etc. For our purposes it will be convenient in general to treat classes (II) and (III) as multi-word verbs.

Syntactic criteria for prepositional verbs

16.13 In distinguishing prepositional verbs such as *call on* ['visit'] in *He called on the dean* from other sequences of verb + preposition such as *called before* in *He called before lunch* (*cf* 16.5), the semantic criteria of idiomaticity must be supplemented by syntactic criteria.

We are chiefly concerned here with Type I verbs, whether these are prepositional verbs like *call on*, or phrasal–prepositional verbs such as *put up with*. How are we to choose between the two analyses of 16.5, that of SVO (with a prepositional object) and that of SVA (or in the case of phrasal–prepositional verbs, SVAA)? First, there are good reasons for arguing that even an idiomatic case like *He called on the dean* contains a phrase boundary between the verb and the particle:

(A) The whole prepositional phrase may be fronted, *eg* in questions:

On whom did he call?

(B) An adverb can be inserted between the verb and the particle:

He *called* unexpectedly *on the dean*.

(C) The prepositional phrase can be isolated in other constructions; *eg* (optionally) in responses, in coordinate constructions, or in comparative constructions:

$$A:\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{On whom did he call?}\\ \text{Who(m) did he call on?}\end{array}\right\} \quad B: (\textit{On})\ \textit{his mother}.$$

Did he call on the dean or (*on*) *his friend*?
He calls on the dean more often than (*on*) *his friend*.

We do not reject the SVA analysis, therefore, but rather we offer the SVO analysis as, to varying degrees, a suitable alternative.

The prepositional passive

16.14 We will accept the possibility of turning the prepositional complement into the subject of a passive sentence (*cf* 3.64) as one criterion favouring the SVO analysis. This construction, which leaves the preposition DEFERRED ('stranded') in its post-verbal position, will be called the PREPOSITIONAL PASSIVE. Contrast:

The dean *was called on.* *Lunch *was called after.*
The war *was put up with.* *Andy *was gone out with.*

Notice that ambiguous combinations like *arrive at* take the passive only when the preposition is part of an idiom:

We arrived at a station. ~ *A station was arrived at.
We arrived at a conclusion. ~ A conclusion was arrived at.

Combinations of verb and prepositional phrase which are awkward in brief sentences can, however, become more tolerable with an enlarged context:

?*This office has *been called/phoned from.*
This office has *been called/phoned from* so many times that it was natural to assume that it was the source of the latest call.

Here are some more usual cases of the prepositional passive, where the passive verb is a Type I prepositional verb:

Though something very different from ordinary forest management *is called for*, the trees in the parks do need the forester's skilled consideration.
This matter will have to *be dealt with* immediately.
Other possibilities *are talked of* by many of our colleagues.
If a woman with a university degree rejects a career for marriage, her education is not to *be thought of* as thrown away unless we count the family arena of no importance.

Other prepositional passives are:

be asked for	*be done for*	*be shouted at*
be believed in	*be hoped for*	*be stared at*
be talked to	*be done away with*	*be sent away for*

However, the passive is also quite acceptable with prepositions which have a locative meaning, and which on other grounds (*eg* the *wh*-question criterion of 16.15) must be judged as introducing a prepositional phrase of place:

They must have *played on* this field last week. [1a]
~ This field must have *been played on* last week. [1b]
Visitors are not to *sit on* these Louis XV chairs. [2a]
~ These Louis XV chairs are not to *be sat on.* [2b]
Primitive men once *lived in* these caves. [3a]
~ These caves *were* once *lived in* by primitive men. [3b]

We cannot, therefore, invariably regard the prepositional passive as a marker of a prepositional verb. Rather, the passive is primarily an indicator of the fact that the prepositional complement is being treated as an *affected* participant in the clause (*cf* 10.19, 10.21). For example, in [1b] and [2b] above, the function of the passive is not merely to obtain end focus, but to imply that the subject of the passive clause refers to an object affected by the (unspecified) agent's action. The acceptability of the passive is thus accounted for in terms of clause participant roles (10.18*ff*), as well as in terms of convention or idiomatic status. Both factors play a role in making the passive select the abstract metaphorical meaning in:

They went into the tunnel. ~ *The tunnel was gone into.
They went into the problem. ~ The problem was gone into.

We may, in fact, recognize a strong association between these factors, and therefore between prepositional passives and prepositional verbs.

Note The prepositional passive is paralleled by a similar prepositional use in *-ed* participle clauses:
The shop *broken into* last week has now been reopened.
'Prepositional participles' can also be converted into adjectives: *the hoped-for arrival of the relief force*; *the much-talked-about visit of the Pope*. There are also 'pseudo-passive' (*cf* 3.77) occurrences of prepositional verbs, as in *I was feeling got at* ⟨informal⟩. The hyphen, in predicative position, is generally omitted.

The criterion of question forms

16.15 The second criterion for prepositional verbs is the formation of *wh*-questions with the pronouns *who(m)* and *what* (for personal and nonpersonal prepositional objects respectively), rather than with adverbial question forms such as *where, when, how,* or *why*:

John called on her. ~ *Who(m)* did John call on?
John looked for it. ~ *What* did John look for?

Contrast:

John called from the office. ~ *Where* did John call from?
John called after lunch. ~ *When* did John call?

Once again, the criterion is not clear-cut. There is firstly considerable overlap between the two question types: *She died of pneumonia* could be an answer either to the question *How did she die?* or (more usually) to the question *What did she die of?* Secondly, there are many types of prepositional phrases which are classified as adjuncts (*cf* 8.13, 9.14 – 53) but which regularly correspond with questions in *who(m)* or *what*. These are classes of adjunct for which English lacks an interrogative adverb, such as adjuncts of accompaniment:

A: { With whom did Peter go fishing? [1a]
Who(m) did Peter go fishing with? [1b]
B: ((He went fishing) with) his brother. [2]

The *with*-phrase in [2] can only be questioned by the interrogative pronoun *who(m)* in [1a] and [1b]; and yet the mobility and optionality of the *with*-phrase, as shown in [3], are signs of its adverbial status:

Peter (, with his brother,) went fishing. [3]

Since none of the criteria for prepositional or phrasal-prepositional verbs are

compelling, it is best to think of the boundary of these categories as a scale, such as that depicted in *Fig* 16.15:

V_{pass}	Q_{pro}	No Q_{adv}		
+	+	+	The police have *asked for* details.	[4]
+	+	−	The queen *slept in* this bed.	[5]
−	+	+	White wine *goes with* poultry.	[6]
−	+	−	She *died of* pneumonia.	[7]
−	−	+	His job also *comes into* the picture.	[8]
−	−	−	She *left before* noon.	[9]

V_{pass} = passive Q_{pro} = pronoun *wh*-word Q_{adv} = adverb *wh*-word

Fig 16.15

Of these, [4] is a clear case of a prepositional verb, while [5] and [6] are marginally in that class. The matrix is so arranged that the larger the number of pluses, the stronger the characteristics of the prepositional verb. For this reason, the *wh*-adverb criterion is expressed in a negative form, *ie* a plus in this column means 'the prepositional verb CANNOT be the answer to a *wh*-adverb'. *Ask for* in [4] is thus the combination which most clearly meets the requirements of the SVO analysis, and *left before* in [9], being least like a prepositional verb, is to be analysed with equal clarity as:

She [S] left [V] before noon [A].

It is perhaps surprising that [8], with its idiomatic character, scores so low on the prepositional verb scale. This is because in this sentence not only the verb and particle (*come into*) but also the object (*the picture*) is part of the idiom, a factor which inhibits the passive and interrogative transforms of the sentence.

An additional criterion for prepositional verbs is our unwillingness to have the preposition cut off from the lexical verb by fronting the whole prepositional phrase in (*eg*) *wh*-questions and relative clauses (*cf* 11.14*ff*, 17.9*ff*):

A: ?**After whom* did she look? } B: She looked after Jim.
A: *Who(m)* did she look *after*?

A: *With whom* did she agree? } B: She agreed with Jim.
A: *Who(m)* did she agree *with*?

Similarly *What did she wish for?* is fully acceptable, but not ?*For what did she wish?* By this test, *look after* and *wish for* come closer to the ideal prepositional verb than does *agree with*.

Note In addition to the mentioned *wh*-pronouns *who(m)* and *what*, there are other question forms with the determiners *what* and *which*; *eg* [5] could answer the question:
Which bed did the queen sleep in?
This alternative construction is ignored for the purposes of the above matrix.

Criteria for distinguishing phrasal and prepositional verbs

16.16 The question here is not one of gradience, but of how to distinguish two superficially like constructions, that of a Type I prepositional verb like *call on* in *He called on the dean*, and that of a Type II phrasal verb such as *call up* in *He called up the dean* (*cf* 16.6).

The differences are both syntactic and phonological:

(a) The particle of a phrasal verb can stand either before or after the noun phrase following the verb, but that of the prepositional verb must (unless deferred) precede the noun phrase.
(b) When the noun phrase following the verb is a personal pronoun, the pronoun precedes the particle in the case of a phrasal verb, but follows the particle in the case of a prepositional verb.
(c) An adverb (functioning as adjunct) can often be inserted between verb and particle in prepositional verbs, but not in phrasal verbs.
(d) The particle of the phrasal verb cannot precede a relative pronoun at the beginning of a relative clause.
(e) Similarly, the particle of a phrasal verb cannot precede the interrogative word at the beginning of a *wh*-question.
(f) The particle of a phrasal verb is normally stressed (*cf* 16.6), and in final position normally bears the nuclear tone, whereas the particle of a prepositional verb is normally unstressed and has the 'tail' of the nuclear tone which falls on the lexical verb (*cf* App II.15).

These criteria are displayed in *Table* 16.16:

Table 16.16 Diagnostic frames for phrasal and prepositional verbs

	TYPE I PREPOSITIONAL VERB	TYPE II PHRASAL VERB
	call on = 'visit'	*call up* = 'summon'
(a)	They *called on* the dean. ~ *They *called* the dean *on*.	They *called up* the dean. ~ They *called* the dean *up*.
(b)	They *called on* him. ~ *They *called* him *on*.	They *called* him *up*. ~ *They *called up* him.
(c)	They *called* angrily *on* the dean.	*They *called* angrily *up* the dean.
(d)	the man *on* whom they *called*	*the man *up* whom they *called*
(e)	*On* which man did they *call*?	**Up* which man did they *call*?
(f)	Which man did they CALL *on*?	Which man did they *call* UP?

Other multi-word verb constructions

16.17 Apart from the types of multi-word verb summarized in *Table* 16.10, some other idiomatic verb constructions may be briefly noted.

(a) VERB–ADJECTIVE COMBINATIONS
These are similar to phrasal verbs. Compare:

Meg *put* the cloth *straight*. Meg *put* the cat *out*.

Like phrasal verbs, verb–adjective combinations form cohesive units; but unlike phrasal verbs, some of them allow comparative modification:

John didn't put { the cloth as straight / *the cat as out } as Meg.

They may be either copular (clause pattern *SVC*), or complex transitive (clause pattern *SVOC*):

SVC: *break even, plead guilty, lie low*
SVOC: *cut* N *short, work* N *loose, rub* N *dry*

Sometimes the idiom contains additional elements, such as an infinitive (*play hard to get*) or a preposition (*ride roughshod over . . .*).

(The 'N' above indicates a direct object in the case of transitive examples.)

(b) VERB–VERB COMBINATIONS
In these idiomatic constructions (*cf* 3.49–51, 16.52), the second verb is nonfinite, and may be either an infinitive:

make do with, make (N) *do, let* (N) *go, let* (N) *be*

or a participle, with or without a following preposition:

put paid to, get rid of, have done with
leave N *standing, send* N *packing, knock* N *flying, get going*

(c) VERBS GOVERNING TWO PREPOSITIONS
These are a further variant on prepositional verbs:

It *developed from* a small club *into* a mass organization in three years.

Similarly: *struggle with* N *for* N, *compete with* N *for* N, *apply to* N *for* N, *talk to* N *about* N. Normally either one or both prepositional phrases can be omitted; *eg*:

It *developed into* a mass organization in three years.

Note To end this survey of verb idioms and their grammatical characteristics, mention may be made of rare patterns such as *make sure/certain* followed by a *that*-clause; *see fit* followed by a *to*-infinitive; and verb + noun combinations such as *turn turtle* and *turn traitor*.

Verbs in relation to verb complementation

16.18 In 16.20–67 we survey types of verb complementation, before turning to adjective complementation (16.68–83), and (more briefly) to noun complementation (16.84–5). Many verbs are versatile enough to allow several complementation types (*cf* the discussion, for example, of *get* in 10.3). It is therefore likely to be misleading to talk of 'intransitive verbs', 'monotransitive verbs', 'complex transitive verbs', etc. Rather, it is often better to say that verbs have 'monotransitive use', 'monotransitive complementation', etc. Although one verb may belong to a number of different complementation types, it is usually possible to observe a common ground of meaning in the various uses.

For each type of complementation, we give a list of verbs belonging to that pattern. No claim of completeness is made for these lists: when the membership of a type is small, a fairly exhaustive list of verbs is given, whereas when the membership is very large (as in the case of intransitive verbs, or monotransitive verbs with a noun phrase object), we can give only a sample of common verbs. In any case, it should be borne in mind that the list of verbs conforming to a given pattern is difficult to specify exactly: there are many differences between one variety of English and another in respect of individual verbs, and many cases of marginal acceptability.

Note The term 'valency' (or 'valence') is sometimes used, instead of complementation, for the way in which a verb determines the kinds and number of elements that can accompany it in the clause. Valency, however, includes the subject of the clause, which is excluded (unless extraposed) from complementation.

Verbs in intransitive function

16.19 Where no complementation occurs, the verb is said to have an INTRANSITIVE use. Three types of verb may be mentioned in this category:

(I) 'PURE' INTRANSITIVE VERBS, which do not take an object at all (or at least do so only very rarely):

John has *arrived*. Your views do not *matter*.

Examples:

appear	*die*	*fall*	*happen*	*rise*
come	*digress*	*go*	*lie*	*wait*

(II) VERBS WHICH CAN ALSO BE TRANSITIVE WITH THE SAME MEANING, and without a change in the subject–verb relationship. Informally, such verbs can be described as having an 'understood object' (*cf* App I.54):

He *smokes* (a pipe). I am *reading* (a book).

But in some cases the intransitive verb acquires a more specific meaning, so that a particular kind of object is 'understood'; *eg*: *John drinks heavily* ['drinks alcohol'].

Examples:

approach	*drive*	*help*	*pass*	*win*
drink	*enter*	*leave*	*play*	*write*

(III) VERBS WHICH CAN ALSO BE TRANSITIVE, but where the semantic connection between subject and verb is different in the two cases; *eg* the intransitive use has an affected participant as subject (*cf* 10.21*f*), whereas the transitive use has an agentive as subject (*cf* App I.54):

The door *opened* slowly. *cf*: Mary *opened* the door.
The car *stopped*. *cf*: He *stopped* the car.

Examples:

begin	*close*	*increase*	*turn*	*walk*
change	*drop*	*move*	*unite*	*work*

Type (III) also includes intransitive verbs with MUTUAL PARTICIPATION (*cf* 13.60), as in:

I have *met* you. ~ We have *met*.
The bus *collided with* the car. ~ The bus and car *collided*.

Intransitive verbs are numerous, particularly in categories (II) and (III).

Note [a] The following are examples of intransitive (*ie* Type I) phrasal verbs (*cf* 16.3):

fall out ['quarrel']	*make off* ['escape']	*pass away* ['die']
blow over [of a storm, etc]	*fall back* ['retreat']	*catch on* ['understand']
come off ['succeed']	*make up* ['end a quarrel']	*pull up* ['stop']
look up ['improve']	*fall through* ['fail']	*crop up* ['occur']
come out ['bloom']	*pass out* ['faint']	*opt out* [of a choice]
come to ['become conscious']	*fall off* ['decline']	

Further examples are to be found in 16.3.

[b] Category (I) includes the intransitive verbs *lie* and *rise*, which are sometimes confused by native speakers with their transitive counterparts *lay* and *raise*, because of their formal similarity. A similar correspondence exists between *fall* (intransitive) and *fell* (transitive); *eg*: *They felled a tree.*

Types of verb complementation

16.20 There are four main types of complementation to consider:

[A] Copular, *eg*: *John is only a boy.*
[B] Monotransitive, *eg*: *I have caught a big fish.*
[C] Complex transitive, *eg*: *She called him a hero.*
[D] Ditransitive, *eg*: *He gave Mary a doll.*

Although these complementation types have already been generally discussed in 2.16 and elsewhere, it is necessary now to list the verbs of each type in more detail, paying particular attention to the active–passive relation (*cf* 3.69*ff*). In this survey, we shall also list variants on the above patterns; for example, cases where the verb is followed by a finite or nonfinite clause. Such variants will be distinguished by numbers: [A1], [B2], etc. The various sub-types of complementation under these headings are illustrated in *Table* 16.20.

In addition, we shall use where necessary the suffixes 'ph' (for phrasal verbs), 'pr' (for prepositional verbs), and 'ph-pr' (for phrasal–prepositional verbs). For example, [B4ph-pr] will refer to a class of phrasal–prepositional verbs taking a *wh*-clause as prepositional object (*eg*: *find out about whether* . . .). It is not always necessary to recognize such detailed classifications, but it is useful to be able to do so when the occasion arises. Two points may be noted about complementation of multi-word verbs. First, a phrasal verb cannot normally be interrupted by a clause as object:

He left off *driving a car*. ~ *He left *driving a car* off.

Second, a Type I prepositional or phrasal–prepositional verb is appropriately classified, for the purposes of complementation, as monotransitive, since the prepositional object is analogous (*eg* with respect to the active–passive relation) to a direct object (*cf* 16.14). In general, multi-word verbs behave like other verbs of the same general type, and we will make a point of mentioning them or listing them separately only when they are numerous or where there is something special to be noted about them.

(Note: in *Table* 16.20, +S = 'with subject'; −S = 'without subject'.)

Table 16.20 Verb complementation types

Variants	Example	Section
COPULAR (Types *SVC* and *SVA*)		
[A1] Adjectival C_s	*The girl seemed restless.*	(16.21)
[A2] Nominal C_s	*William is my friend.*	(16.22)
[A3] Adverbial complementation	*The kitchen is downstairs.*	(16.24)
MONOTRANSITIVE (Type *SVO*)		
[B1] Noun phrase as O (with passive)	*Tom caught the ball.*	(16.26)
[B2] Noun phrase as O (without passive)	*Paul lacks confidence.*	(16.27)
[B3] *That*-clause as O	*I think that we have met.*	(16.30)
[B4] *Wh*-clause as O	*Can you guess what she said?*	(16.35)
[B5] *Wh*-infinitive as O	*I learned how to sail a boat.*	(16.37)
[B6] *To*-infinitive (−S) as O	*We've decided to move house.*	(16.38)
[B7] *-Ing* clause (−S) as O	*She enjoys playing squash.*	(16.39)
[B8] *To*-infinitive (+S) as O	*They want us to help.*	(16.41)
[B9] *-Ing* clause (+S) as O	*I hate the children quarrelling.*	(16.42)
COMPLEX TRANSITIVE (Types *SVOC* and *SVOA*)		
[C1] Adjectival C_o	*That music drives me mad.*	(16.44)
[C2] Nominal C_o	*They named the ship 'Zeus'.*	(16.46)
[C3] O + adverbial	*I left the key at home.*	(16.48)
[C4] O + *to*-infinitive	*They knew him to be a spy.*	(16.50)
[C5] O + bare infinitive	*I saw her leave the room.*	(16.52)
[C6] O + *-ing* clause	*I heard someone shouting.*	(16.53)
[C7] O + *-ed* clause	*I got the watch repaired.*	(16.54)
DITRANSITIVE (Type *SVOO*)		
[D1] Noun phrases as O_i & O_d	*They offered her some food.*	(16.55)
[D2] With prepositional O	*Please say something to us.*	(16.56)
[D3] O_i + *that*-clause	*They told me that I was ill.*	(16.59)
[D4] O_i + *wh*-clause	*He asked me what time it was.*	(16.61)
[D5] O_i + *wh*-infinitive clause	*Mary showed us what to do.*	(16.62)
[D6] O_i + *to*-infinitive	*I advised Mark to see a doctor.*	(16.63)

Within the sub-types [A1], [A2], etc it is sometimes valuable to distinguish additional semantic sub-types, for which the roman numerals (i), (ii), etc will be used. Other distinguishing marks applied to verbs in the following sections will be explained where they occur.

Copular complementation

[A1] Adjective phrase as subject complement

16.21 A verb is said to have COPULAR complementation when it is followed by a subject complement (C_s) or a predication adjunct (*cf* 2.16, 2.22, 8.26*ff*), and when this element cannot be dropped without changing the meaning of the verb. The verb in such a clause is a COPULAR (or linking) verb, and is equivalent in function to the principal copula, the verb *be*. Copular verbs fall into two main classes, according to whether the subject complement has the role of CURRENT ATTRIBUTE or of RESULTING ATTRIBUTE (*cf* 10.20). This

distinction corresponds to that between CURRENT copulas and RESULTING copulas (*cf* conclusive verbs, 4.35). Normally, current copulas are stative (*cf* 4.28*ff*), and cannot cooccur with the progressive aspect.

The distinction is illustrated below with an adjectival complement, the first kind of complementation we will consider:

CURRENT: The girl *seemed* very restless.
RESULTING: The girl *became* very restless.

The following is a fairly full list of verbs regularly used in this pattern, together with typical adjectival complements:

CURRENT	RESULTING
(i) *be* (friendly) [*N*]	(iv) *become* (older) [*N*]
(ii) *appear* (happy) [*N*]	*come* (true)
feel (annoyed) [*N*]	*end up* (happy) [*N*]
look (pretty) [*N*]	*get* (ready)
seem (very restless) [*N*]	*go* (sour)
smell (sweet)	*grow* (tired)
sound (surprised) [*N*]	*prove* (rather useful) [*N*]
taste (bitter)	*turn* (cold) [*N*]
(iii) *remain* (uncertain) [*N*]	*turn out* (fortunate) [*N*]
keep (silent)	*wind up* (drunk) [*N*] ⟨informal⟩
stay (motionless) [*N*]	

End up, *turn out*, and *wind up* are copular phrasal verbs. The verbs marked [*N*] in the list also occur with a noun phrase complement (though not all with the same freedom or acceptability; *cf* 16.22). The roman numerals in the list identify semantic groups which are discussed in 16.24 below.

In addition to the copular verbs above, there are verbs which have this function with severe restrictions on the words occurring in the complement (*cf* 10.16). The restriction may be a lexical restriction to certain idiomatic verb–adjective sequences such as *rest assured* (*cf* 16.17), or it may be a semantic restriction (*eg* the meaning of *blush* restricts the adjective to a subset of colour words: *blush scarlet*, but not **blush green*). Some examples are given below, with typical adjective complements:

CURRENT	RESULTING
(v) *burn* (low)	(vi) *blush* (bright red)
lie (flat)	*fall* (silent)
loom (large)	*fall down* (dead)
play (rough) [*N*]	*freeze* (solid)
plead (innocent)	*run* (wild)
rest (assured)	*slam* (shut)
stand (firm) [*N*]	*spring* (open)
stand up (straight)	*wax* (eloquent) ⟨archaic⟩

Many of these verbs resemble intransitive verbs, the complement being added almost as an optional specifier.

Note [a] *Go* is current in *go hungry/naked*, but is normally resulting elsewhere, as in *go* [= 'become'] *sour/red/wild/mad*.

[b] *Die* as in *He died young/poor*, etc does not fit easily into either of the categories listed. The verb *die* itself is conclusive, but the complement which follows it refers to a current attribute. The meaning is: 'He was young/poor, etc at the time of his death'.

[A2] Noun phrase as subject complement

16.22 Again, the verb *be* is the principal copula used in this pattern:

William *is* my friend. Oslo *seems* a pleasant city.

The verbs marked [*N*] in 16.21 can be used with noun phrase complements, as well as with adjective phrase complements. The following list of such verbs is fairly full. However, it should be noted that especially in American English, there is a tendency to avoid this construction with certain verbs. Instead, both AmE and BrE prefer an infinitive construction (Type [B6] in 16.38 below) with *to be* following the finite verb:

It appears the only solution. ~ It appears *to be* the only solution.

There is also, especially in informal AmE, a tendency to prefer a construction in which a copular verb is followed by *like* (*cf* 16.24 Note [a]):

It seems *like* the only solution.

CURRENT	RESULTING
(i) *be* (my friend)	(iv) *become* (an expert)
(ii) *appear*[1] (the only solution)	*end up* (her slave)
feel[1] (a fool)	*prove*[1] (his equal)
look[1] (a fine day)	*turn* (traitor)
seem (a genius)	*turn out* (a success/disaster)
sound[1] (a reasonable idea)	*wind up* (a millionaire) ⟨informal⟩
(iii) *remain* (good friends)	

The classes (i–iv) match those in 16.21. (On the omission of the article in the complement in *become president*, etc, *cf* 5.42.) The superscript '1' indicates that such verbs do not often occur in this pattern but (particularly in AmE) are preferred in the construction with *to be* or *like* (see above).

Note [a] With a noun phrase complement, *feel* has the meaning 'have the sensation of being . . .'; but with an adjective complement, it has not only this meaning (as in *She felt ill*), but also the meaning of 'cause a sensation . . .', as in *The table felt rough* (*cf* 4.29*f*).
[b] The noun phrase following *act as*, *count as*, *pose as*, *pass for* and similar combinations is in a copular relation with the subject, and these combinations may be reasonably described as 'copular prepositional verbs' on the analogy of intransitive and transitive prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.5–7; also 16.47). Corresponding to these constructions with current meaning are resulting copular prepositional verbs such as *change into*, *grow into*, and *turn into*, with the general meaning of 'become'. Note the near-synonymy of *He turned traitor* and *He turned into a traitor*.
[c] Some verbs occur more marginally in the above patterns; *eg*: *stay* in *They stayed good friends*. *Turn* as in *turn traitor* is formulaic, and is more or less restricted to a small number of combinations.
[d] One or two verbs such as *make* and *part* can appear with a noun phrase complement, but not with an adjective phrase complement:
They *parted* the best of friends.
They *make* a charming couple.
(In a sentence like *They parted friendly once more*, *friendly once more* would be not a complement, but a verbless clause; *cf* 10.16, 14.9.)

Semantic notes on copular verbs

16.23 The main verb *be* is the most central copular verb, and the most neutral in meaning. It is also overwhelmingly the most common. Although it generally has current and stative meaning, notice should be taken of its use also in reference to events and activities:

There *was* a roar as the ball bounced off the goalpost.
You'*re being* very helpful. (*cf* 4.31)

In some cases, *be* is close in meaning to *become*:

Ann will *be* a qualified nurse next year.
Cora *was* angry when she heard about the accident.

As the lists in 16.21–2 show, copular verbs apart from *be* fall into three classes. First, there is the division between current and resulting verbs; then the current verbs divide further into 'verbs of *seeming*' (ii) (including *seem*, *appear*, and the perception verbs *look*, *sound*, etc), and 'verbs of *remaining*' (iii) such as *remain*, *stay*, and *keep*. The resulting verbs (iv) are in the main 'verbs of *becoming*', but their meanings differ in detail, as we shall now briefly show.

Become is a process verb (*cf* 4.34), placing emphasis on the duration of the change, whereas *get* places more emphasis on the agency behind the event or on the result of the change: *Get ready!* but not **Become ready! Go* and *turn* tend to refer to changes which happen in spite of human agency, and therefore are often used for deteriorations: *go mad*; *go wild*; *go sour*; *go stale*; *turn livid*; *turn white* [of hair]; *turn sour*. *Turn* more especially seems to apply to natural changes from one state to its opposite: *turn green/brown* [of leaves]; *turn fine/cold* [of weather]; *turn ripe* ⟨BrE⟩. *Grow* is also associated with natural changes, especially with gradual changes (*grow old*, *grow tall*), and is likely to occur with comparative adjectives as in *grow cooler*, *grow more content*. In many cases, more than one verb can occur with the same adjective, and it is difficult to give precise conditions for selecting one rather than another.

Note *Come* is very restricted as a copular verb, but it makes an interesting contrast with *go* in examples like *go wrong/come right*. The association of *go* with deterioration (*go rotten*, etc) is complemented by the association of *come* with improvement in *come true*, etc. These associations may be connected with the positive and negative direction (from the speaker's viewpoint) of *come* and *go* as verbs of motion.

[A3] Complementation by an adjunct

16.24 The principal copula that allows an adverbial as complementation is once again *be*. The complementing adverbials, termed predication adjuncts in this function, are mainly space adjuncts (*cf* 8.3, 8.39*ff*):

The children are *at the zoo*. The kitchen is *downstairs*.

but time adjuncts too are common with an eventive subject (*cf* 8.76):

The party will be *at nine*. The outing is *tomorrow*.

and other types of predication adjunct are grammatical (for further examples *cf* 10.10).

Get and *keep* are two more copular verbs which occur specifically with place adjuncts (or adjuncts metaphorically related to these):

At last we got *home*. Get *off that chair*!
They kept *out of trouble*. How did you get *here*?

Be, *get*, and *keep* are clearly copular verbs in this function because of their inability to occur without the adjunct: **The children are*; **At last we got*; **They kept*. More marginally, other verbs such as *live*, *come*, *go*, *remain*, *stay*, *stand*, *lie* belong to this category (*cf* 8.27). These also occur as intransitive verbs with roughly the same locative (or abstract locative) meaning, but are in many contexts felt to be incomplete unless some complementation is added:

My aunt *lives* in Shropshire.
?*My aunt *lives*.

The need for the verb to be followed by some complementation is perhaps strongest in pure locative statements such as *Cannes lies on the French Riviera*. Whereas verbs like *live* and *lie* show the resemblance of adverbial complementation to the 'zero complementation' of intransitive verbs, verbs like *remain*, *stay*, *come*, *go*, *turn*, and *grow* show its similarity to copular complementation by adjective phrases. The parallel is brought out by pairs such as:

{He turned *red*. / He turned *into a monster*.} {She grew *tall*. / She grew *into a fine woman*.}

However, for our purposes it will be preferable to treat sequences such as *turn into* and *grow into* as copular prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.22 Note [b]).

Note [a] The verbs of 'seeming' (*cf* 16.23) *seem*, *appear*, *look*, *sound*, *feel*, *smell*, and *taste* are complemented by an adverbial clause beginning *as if* (or less frequently *as though*) in sentences such as the following:

Jill *looked as if* she had seen a ghost.
It *seems as if* the weather is improving.

(In a similar meaning, *appear* and *seem* can also be followed by a *that*-clause; *cf* 16.34.) An alternative construction is one in which the *as if* clause is replaced by a phrase introduced by *like*:

That music *sounds like* Mozart. [*ie* 'like the music of Mozart']
Bill *looks* (just) *like* his father.

After the same verbs, one also frequently hears clauses introduced by *like*, but these are often regarded as nonstandard: *It seems like the weather is improving*.

[b] There is also a curious idiomatic use of *feel like* (*cf* 16.22 Note [a]) meaning 'want':

I *feel like* a cup of coffee.

Arguably, this is not copular; it belongs rather to the category of monotransitive prepositional verbs [B1pr] (*cf* 16.28).

[c] More exceptional cases of verbs with adverbial complementation are:

(i) *behave* followed by an adverbial of manner:

He *behaved* {well. / like a prisoner of conscience.}

(However, *behave* can also occur intransitively or reflexively as in: *Why don't you behave (yourself)?*)

(ii) *last* and *take* followed by an adverbial of measure (duration):

The haymaking {*took* / *lasted* (for)} a week.

In the case of *take* the duration adverbial is obligatory, since the verb entails the completion of the task. In the case of *last*, the adverbial is omissible in such examples as: *The hot weather won't last.*

Monotransitive complementation

16.25 Verbs used in monotransitive function require a direct object, which may be a noun phrase, a finite clause, or a nonfinite clause. In addition to these categories the verb may be a Type I prepositional verb (*cf* 16.5) or phrasal–prepositional verb (*cf* 16.9), which for our present purposes will be treated as analogous to a verb with a direct object. We will begin by considering the straightforward case of verbs with a noun phrase as direct object, and then continue with variants of this basic pattern.

Complementation by a noun phrase as direct object

[B1] With the passive

16.26 Direct objects are typically noun phrases which may become the subject of a corresponding passive clause:

Tom *caught* the ball. ~ The ball *was caught* (by Tom).

(On the limitations of the passive transformation, *cf* 3.67*ff*.) Common examples of monotransitive verbs allowing the passive are:

begin	*desire*	*get*	*love*	*pass*	*support*
believe	*do*	*hear*	*make*	*produce*	*take*
bite	*doubt*	*help*	*marry*	*receive*	*use*
bring	*end*	*hold*	*mean*	*remember*	*visit*
call	*enjoy*	*keep*	*meet*	*require*	*want*
carry	*expect*	*know*	*mind*	*say*	*wash*
close	*feel*	*lead*	*move*	*see*	*waste*
cut	*find*	*like*	*need*	*start*	*watch*
describe	*follow*	*lose*	*obtain*	*study*	*win*

Some of these verbs, such as *end* and *move*, belong to types which can be either intransitive or transitive (*cf* 16.19). Something of the range of monotransitive verbs can be seen by dividing them into semantic groups according to the kinds of subject and object that they take:

(i) Typically animate subject + typically concrete object:

Professor Dobbs *won* the prize.
~ The prize *was won* (by Professor Dobbs).

carry	*cover*	*examine*	*see*	*throw*	*win*
clean	*eat*	*lower*	*stop*	*watch*	*write*

(ii) Typically animate subject + either concrete or abstract object:

Everybody *understood* the problem.
~ The problem *was understood* (by everybody).

abolish	*define*	*explain*	*invent*	*report*	*utter*
cover	*discuss*	*forget*	*lose*	*rule*	*win*

(iii) Typically animate subject + typically animate object:

Mrs Wood *liked* the new neighbours.
~ The new neighbours *were liked* (by Mrs Wood).

admire	*despise*	*hug*	*kiss*	*reject*	*ridicule*
beat	*flatter*	*kill*	*meet*	*respect*	*support*

(iv) Typically concrete or abstract subject + animate object:

The news *shocked* our family.
~ Our family *was shocked* (by the news).

affect	*bother*	*fascinate*	*incense*	*satisfy*	*trouble*
appal	*deceive*	*grieve*	*please*	*surprise*	*upset*

Note The following is a sample of monotransitive (or Type II) phrasal verbs [B1ph] with typical objects. Further examples are illustrated in 16.4.

back up ['support' someone]	*let down* ['disappoint' someone]
blow down (a tree)	*make up* (a story)
break off (negotiations)	*pass over* (a question)
bring about (a change)	*put across* (an idea)
burn down (a house)	*put off* (an appointment)
draw up (a contract)	*tell off* ['rebuke' someone]
fill out (a form)	*turn off* (the light)
knock down (someone)	*win over* ['convince' someone]

These, like the verbs in (i–iv) above, can be used in the passive voice.

[B2] Without the passive

16.27 A few stative monotransitive verbs, the most common of which is *have*, normally do not allow a passive transformation:

They *have* a nice house. ~ *A nice house *is had* (by them).

These so-called MIDDLE VERBS, including *have*, *lack*, *fit*, *suit*, and *resemble*, are discussed in detail in 10.14.

Note A related type of verb is found in expressions of measure such as *cost ten dollars*; *weigh 20 kilos*; but these can equally well be analysed as having an obligatory adjunct as complementation, since *How much . . .?* is an alternative question to *What . . .?* in eliciting this kind of expression as a reply:

A: *What* / A: *How much* } does it { cost? / weigh? } B: *Ten dollars.* / B: *Twenty kilos.*

Variants of monotransitive complementation

Complementation by noun phrase as prepositional object

[B1pr] Prepositional verbs

16.28 Although verbs such as *look at* have been classified as 'Type I prepositional verbs' (those without a direct object; *cf* 16.5), in the analysis of complementation they fit more happily with monotransitive rather than intransitive verbs. This is partly because of the resemblance of the prepositional object to a direct object, *eg* in accepting a passive voice (*cf* 16.14), though usually with some awkwardness of style:

The management *paid for* his air fares.
~ His air fares *were paid for* by the management.

But also when a prepositional verb is followed by a *that*-clause or a *to*-infinitive clause, the preposition disappears, and the prepositional object merges with the direct object of the monotransitive pattern. Compare the following two series, (A) with a prepositional verb and (B) with an ordinary monotransitive verb:

(A) They *agreed* { *on* the meeting. / *on* it. / *on* meeting each other. / *on* when to meet. / (that) they would meet. / to meet each other. }

(B) They *remembered* { the meeting. / it. / meeting each other. / when to meet. / (that) they had met. / to meet each other. }

Yet the preposition omitted before a *that*-clause can reappear in the corresponding passive: *That they should meet was agreed* (*on*), even in extraposition (*cf* 18.33*ff*), where the preposition immediately follows the passive verb phrase:

It was *agreed* (*on*) eventually that they should meet.

Examples of Type I prepositional verbs are:

account for	*concentrate on*	*look after/at/on/to*
add to	*conform to*	*object to*
adjust to	*consent to*	*part with*
admit to	*contribute to*	*pay for*
agree with/on/to	*deal with*	*pray for*
aim at/for	*decide on*	*preach about/on*
allow for	*dwell (up)on*	*provide for*
apply for	*enlarge (up)on*	*quarrel about/with*
argue about	*hear about/of*	*read about*
arrange for	*hint at*	*refer to*
ask for	*hope for*	*rejoice at*
attend to	*insist on*	*rely on*
believe in	*interfere with*	*resort to*
call for/(up)on	*learn about*	*run for*
care for	*lecture about/on*	*speak about/on*
comment on	*listen to*	*take to*
complain about	*live on*	*think about/of*
conceive of	*long for*	*wish for*

Note [a] When *to* precedes an infinitive, it is an infinitive marker (as in *forget to meet her*) and not a preposition; when it precedes an *-ing* participle, however, it is a preposition (as in *She consented to getting engaged*). Other examples of *to* in a prepositional verb preceding an *-ing* clause are:

He *admitted to* doing his bit. I *confess to* telling a lie.
This *amounts to* doing nothing. She *took to* playing golf.

[b] Prepositions may combine with *that* to form complex subordinators such as *in that*, *save that*, *except that* (*cf* 14.12).

[c] In general, choice of preposition is the same for morphologically related verbs and nouns: *refer to* ~ *reference to*; *believe in* ~ *belief in*, etc. There are exceptions, however: *hope* as a verb is followed by *for*, while the corresponding noun construction has *of*: *He hopes for success*, but *His hope of success*.

[B1ph-pr] Phrasal–prepositional verbs

16.29 Type I PHRASAL–PREPOSITIONAL VERBS also take a prepositional object. As we saw in 16.9, such verbs can, like prepositional verbs, occur in the passive (*eg*: *She dealt with the problem* ~ *The problem was dealt with*); but many of them are awkward, in fact barely acceptable, in this construction: ?**The discussion was walked out on* (*by the principal negotiator*). In the sample list below, the verbs marked [P] are among those that can fairly readily occur in the passive:

break in on (someone's conversation)	*keep away from* ['avoid']
catch up on (my reading)	*keep up with* (the Joneses)
catch up with ['overtake']	*look down on* ['despise'] [P]
check up on ['investigate'] [P]	*look forward to* ['anticipate with pleasure'] [P]
come down with (a cold)	*look out for* ['watch for']
cut down on (expenses)	*look up to* ['respect'] [P]
do away with ['abolish'] [P]	*put up with* ['tolerate'] [P]
face up to ['confront'] [P]	*run away with*
get away with (a crime)	*stand up for* ['defend']
get down to (serious talk)	*turn out for* (a meeting)

Phrasal–prepositional verbs are rather informal, and many of them have idiomatic metaphorical meanings which are difficult or impossible to paraphrase (*eg*: *run away with*).

Complementation by a finite clause

[B3] *That*-clause as object

16.30 The conjunction in *that*-clauses which function as object may be zero, as in *I hope he arrives soon*; but when the clause is made passive, the *that* cannot be deleted, and thus obeys the same rules as other *that*-clauses as subject (*cf* 15.4). The normal passive analogue has *it* and extraposition, *that* being again optional:

Everybody hoped (that) she would sing.
~ { That she would sing was hoped by everybody. ⟨stilted⟩ / *She would sing was hoped by everybody. / It was hoped by everybody (that) she would sing. }

That-clauses have one of three types of verb phrase, depending on the 'governing' verb in the matrix clause:

(A) indicative verb: I suppose that he { *is coming* alone. / *will be coming* alone. / *will come* alone. / *has come* alone. }

(B) putative *should*: I regret that he *should be* so stubborn.

(C) subjunctive verb: I request that she *go* alone.

(A) with the indicative is the most usual type. The putative *should* type (*cf* 14.25) (B) is more common in BrE than AmE, and (C) the mandative subjunctive (*cf* 3.58–9) is more common in AmE than in BrE. In BrE the subjunctive is felt to be formal, and is found typically in official styles of writing. Corresponding to these three constructions, it is necessary to recognize only two main categories of superordinate verbs. *Type (i)* may be called FACTUAL, since it goes with the indicative verb (A), and introduces what one might generally describe as factual or propositional information. *Type (ii)* may be described as SUASIVE; such verbs imply intentions to bring about some change in the future, whether or not these are verbally formulated as commands, suggestions, etc. Suasive verbs can be followed in the *that*-clause by all three constructions (A–C), but the indicative (A) construction is restricted, and is not generally accepted in AmE.

There are two minor categories, *Type (iii)* emotive verbs (*cf* 4.29, 10.23) and *Type (iv)* hypothesis verbs, which are dealt with in 16.33. These types are displayed in *Fig* 16.30:

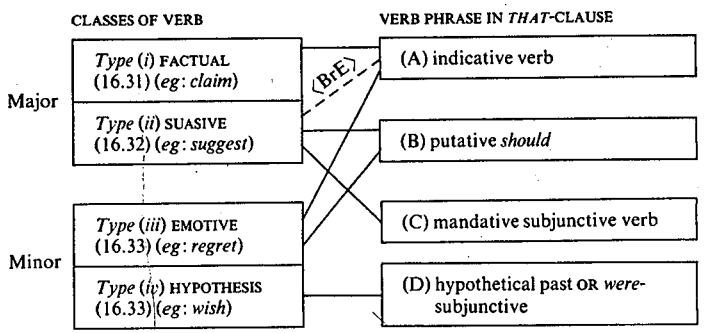

Fig 16.30 Monotransitive verbs with a *that*-clause as complementation (Class [B3])

Note In terms of the speech act classes of 11.2, *Type (i)* (factual) verbs are associated with the expression of speech acts concerned with STATEMENTS, while *Type (ii)* (suasive) verbs are associated with DIRECTIVES.

Type (i): Factual verbs

16.31 We may subdivide factual verbs into 'PUBLIC' and 'PRIVATE' types. The former consists of speech act verbs introducing indirect statements:

They *agree/admit/claim* that she was misled.

The superscripts 1–5 in the lists below are to be interpreted as follows:

1: The verb also occurs in the active with a *to*-infinitive directly following: *He promised to come* (*cf* 16.38).
2: The verb also occurs with a following noun phrase followed by a *to*-infinitive: *They supposed her to be dead* (*cf* 16.50).
3: The verb is also a member of the suasive group below, in 16.32.
4: The pro-form *so* can stand in place of the *that*-clause (*cf* 12.28); *eg*: *I think so*.
5: *Say* occurs with an infinitive, as in *She said to come before ten* in the directive sense of 'She told us to come before ten'.

Examples:

acknowledge[2]	*boast*	*declare*[2]	*mention*	*report*[2]
add	*certify*[2]	*deny*[2]	*object*	*retort*
admit[2]	*claim*[1]	*disclose*	*predict*[4]	*say*[2,4,5]
affirm[2]	*comment*	*exclaim*	*proclaim*[2]	*state*[2,4]
agree[1,3]	*complain*	*explain*[2]	*promise*[1,2,4]	*submit*
allege[2]	*concede*[3]	*forecast*	*pronounce*[2]	*suggest*[3]
announce[2]	*confess*[2]	*foretell*	*prophesy*	*swear*
argue	*confide*	*guarantee*[1,2]	*protest*	*testify*[2]
assert	*confirm*[2]	*hint*	*remark*	*vow*[1]
bet	*contend*	*insist*[3]	*repeat*	*warn*[2]
	convey	*maintain*[4]	*reply*	*write*

The 'PRIVATE' type of factual verb expresses intellectual states such as belief and intellectual acts such as discovery. These states and acts are 'private' in the sense that they are not observable: a person may be observed to *assert that God exists*, but not to *believe that God exists*. Belief is in this sense 'private'. Examples of such verbs are:

accept	*doubt*	*imagine*[2,4]	*realize*
anticipate	*dream*	*imply*	*reason*
ascertain	*ensure*[3]	*indicate*[4]	*recall*
assume[2,4]	*establish*	*infer*[4]	*reckon*[1,4]
believe[2,4]	*estimate*[2]	*insure*	*recognize*[2]
calculate	*expect*[1,2,4]	*judge*[2]	*reflect*
check	*fancy*[2]	*know*[2]	*remember*
conclude	*fear*[1,4]	*learn*[1]	*reveal*[2]
conjecture	*feel*[2]	*mean*[1,2]	*see*
consider[2]	*find*[2]	*note*[2]	*sense*
decide[1,3]	*foresee*	*notice*[2,4]	*show*[2]
deduce	*forget*[1]	*observe*[2]	*signify*
deem[2]	*gather*[4]	*perceive*[2,4]	*suppose*[2,4]
demonstrate	*guess*[4]	*presume*[2,4]	*suspect*[2,4]
determine[1,3]	*hear*[4]	*presuppose*[2]	*think*[2,4]
discern	*hold*	*pretend*[1]	*understand*[2,4]
discover[2]	*hope*[1,4]	*prove*[2]	

Many of these verbs, especially the 'public' verbs, are also used for introducing direct speech; *eg*:

'Perhaps it's time to leave', *suggested* Tim.

For detailed discussion of this use of verbs of speaking and thinking, *cf* 14.30*ff*.

Note [a] Not included in the first list above are verbs expressing manner of utterance, such as *mumble*, *mutter*, *shout*, *whimper*, *whisper*, and *yell*. These can introduce direct speech quotations (*eg*: 'I am ill', *she muttered*), but they can also introduce indirect or reported speech by means of a *that*-clause: *She muttered that she was ill*. The list of such verbs is large, and some verbs occur more easily with *that*-clauses than others do.
[b] All the following phrasal verbs belonging to this 'factual' category are 'public' verbs: *chime in*, *let on*, *let out*, *make out*, *point out*, *report back*:
Tim *pointed out* that the train was often late.
In this construction, the particle has to precede the *that*-clause.
[c] Among the 'private verbs', *see*, *suppose*, and *assume* can be used with a *that*-clause in which the present tense refers to future time (*cf* 14.23):
See (to it) that they get something to eat.
See here means 'make sure'.
[d] *Doubt*, being a verb of negative meaning, is typically followed by *whether/if* (*cf* 15.6, 16.35). But more especially when it is in a nonassertive context, *doubt* occurs with a *that*-clause:
I don't doubt (*but*) *that* they'll accept at once.
Note that in this construction, *doubt* is sometimes followed by *but*. *Doubt* cannot be followed by an alternative *wh*-clause (*cf* 15.6):
*I doubt whether or not they'll accept.

Type (ii): Suasive verbs

16.32 These verbs can be followed by a *that*-clause either with putative *should* (*cf* 14.25) or with the mandative subjunctive. A third possibility, a *that*-clause with an indicative verb, is largely restricted to BrE:

People are demanding that she { *should leave* / *leave* / *leaves* ⟨esp BrE⟩ } the company. [1]

It is more difficult, in the case of suasive verbs, to make a subdivision between 'PUBLIC' and 'PRIVATE' verbs: for this reason, we present the verbs below in a single list. Nevertheless, generally it is useful to see a distinction between the 'public' verbs which describe indirect directives (such as *request*; *cf* 14.33), and the 'private' verbs which describe states of volition or desire, such as *intend*:

agree[1]	*demand*[1]	*intend*[1,2]	*recommend*[2]
allow[2]	*desire*[1,2]	*move*[4]	*request*[1,2]
arrange[1]	*determine*[1]	*ordain*[2,4]	*require*
ask[1,2]	*enjoin*[2]	*order*[2]	*resolve*[1]
beg[1,2]	*ensure*	*pledge*[1,2]	*rule*
command[2]	*entreat*[2]	*pray*[1,2,4]	*stipulate*
concede	*grant*	*prefer*[1,2,4]	*suggest*[2,4]
decide[1]	*insist*	*pronounce*[2]	*urge*[2]
decree[4]	*instruct*[2]	*propose*[1,2]	*vote*[1,2]

The superscripts 1, 2 and 4 have the same meaning as in 16.31 above. The choice between the three constructions in the *that*-clause in [1] above varies between AmE and BrE. For detailed discussion of these preferences, *cf* 14.25.

It will be noted that the noun phrase + infinitive construction (*cf* 16.50) is a common alternative to the *that*-clause for suasive verbs:

They intended { the news *to be* suppressed. / that the news (*should*) *be* suppressed. ⟨more formal⟩ }

With some verbs, such as *allow*, the infinitive construction is by far the more usual.

Other types of verb with *that*-clause complementation

Type (iii): Emotive verbs

16.33 This consists of a small group of verbs such as *regret*, *marvel*, *rejoice*, and *wonder*, which can occur with (A) the indicative or (B) the putative *should* construction, but not with the mandative subjunctive construction:

I regret that she { *worries* about it. / *should worry* about it. / **worry* about it. }

Semantically, this group belongs with adjectival constructions such as *be sorry*, *be anxious* (*cf* 16.71).

Type (iv): Hypothesis verbs

The two verbs *wish* and (in the imperative) *suppose* may be followed by a *that*-clause containing a verb in the hypothetical past or the *were*-subjunctive: *I wish* (*that*) *she were here*; *She wished she hadn't spent the money*; *Suppose* (*that*) *one of us died*. *Cf* 14.24 on the use of tense and mood following these verbs, which may also occur in a number of other patterns. In particular, for other uses of *wish*, *cf* 16.38, 16.41, 16.44, 16.46, 16.57.

The modal idiom *would rather* (or its contraction *'d rather*) (*cf* 3.46) is a third example of a hypothesis verb:

I'*d rather* you didn't mention the price.
Many residents *would rather* that the bus service were subsidized.

Complementation by an extraposed subject *that*-clause

16.34 The *that*-clause in examples like *It seems that you are mistaken* is not an object of the verb, but rather an extraposed subject. Nevertheless, it resembles other *that*-clauses we have been examining (a) in having a deletable *that*, and (b) in being semantically associated with the preceding verb. Moreover, no nonextraposed *that*-clause is possible in this case (**That you are mistaken seems*), and so it seems appropriate to include this with *that*-clause complementation. The main verbs occurring in this pattern form two groups of synonyms: (i) *seem* and *appear*; and (ii) *chance*, *happen*, and *transpire*:

It *appears* that Frank lost his temper.
It *happened* that the weather was exceptionally cold.

The phrasal verbs *come about* [= 'happen'] and *turn out* [= 'transpire'] also belong here. *Appear* and *seem* can be followed by the pro-form *so*: *It seems/appears so*. The adverb *so* sometimes occurs before *happen* or one of its synonyms: *It so happens/happened that* . . . .

Note [a] A related construction with extraposed object (*cf* 18.35) occurs in the following transitive phrasal verbs:
let (*it*) *out*; *noise* (*it*) *about/abroad*; *put* (*it*) *about*; *rub* (*it*) *in*:
Jack *let* (*it*) *out* [= 'divulged'] that the animal had been stolen.

The *it* which occurs as preparatory object is in this case optional, although the omission is not usual. In the comparable construction *take it that*, the *it* is obligatory: *I take it that you are enjoying yourselves.*
[b] Compare the complementation of *seem, appear*, etc by an *as if* clause (*cf* 16.24 Note [a]).
[c] On the related constructions *It strikes me that . . . , It occurs/seems to me that . . . , cf* 16.59 Note, 16.60 Note.

[B4] *Wh*-clause as object

16.35 Many of the verbs which take a *that*-clause as object can also take a *wh*-interrogative clause (*cf* 15.5*ff*):

I asked her to *confirm* whether the flight had been booked.
Can you *confirm* which flight we are taking?
They haven't yet *confirmed* how much the flight costs.

Notice that in all three illustrative sentences above, *confirm* occurs in what may be described as a nonassertive context (*cf* 2.53). The use of the *wh*-interrogative clause (which generally implies lack of knowledge on the part of the speaker) is particularly common where the superordinate clause is interrogative or negative. On the other hand, there are some verbs which themselves express uncertainty, such as *ask* and *wonder*: these occur with the *wh*-clause without this nonassertive constraint. Examples of verbs taking the *wh*-interrogative clause are:

anticipate [NA]	*doubt*	*note* [NA][3]
argue [NA][2]	*enquire*[2,3]	*notice* [NA][3]
arrange [NA][3]	*establish*[3]	*observe* [NA][3]
ascertain[3]	*explain*[3]	*perceive* [NA][3]
ask[2,3]	*express*	*point out* [NA]
beware[2]	*fathom* [NA]	*ponder*[3]
calculate [NA][3]	*find out*[2,3]	*predict* [NA]
care [NA][1,2]	*forget*[3]	*prove*
check[2,3]	*guess*	*realize* [NA]
choose[3]	*hear* [NA][2]	*record* [NA]
confirm [NA]	*imagine* [NA][3]	*reflect*[2]
consider [NA][3]	*indicate* [NA][3]	*remember* [NA][3]
decide[2,3]	*inquire*[2,3]	*say* [NA][3]
demonstrate[3]	*judge*[3]	*see* [NA][3]
depend[2]	*know* [NA][3]	*show*[3]
disclose	*learn* [NA][3]	*tell* [NA][1,3]
discover[3]	*make out* [NA]	*think* [NA][3]
discuss[3]	*mind* [NA][1]	*wonder*[3]

The symbol [NA] after a verb indicates that this complementation is particularly likely to occur in a nonassertive context. The superscripts 1–3 are interpreted as follows:

1: This verb is part of a negative or predominantly negative construction when combined with the *wh*-interrogative clause: *not care*; *not mind*; *can't fathom*; *can't tell*.
2: The verb is basically a prepositional verb, and has a preposition which may be optionally added (see below).

3: The verb can also occur with a following *wh*-infinitive clause (*cf* 16.37); *eg*: *I didn't know what to say.*

The preposition of a prepositional verb is optionally omitted before a *wh*-clause, and hence it is convenient to include in the above list verbs for which the *wh*-clause is basically a prepositional object. For example:

I *inquired* (*about*) whether the tickets were ready.
They haven't yet *decided* (*on*) which flight they will take.

For the corresponding passive, again, the preposition is optional, whether or not the nominal clause is in extraposition:

Which flight they will take has not yet been *decided* (*on*).
It has not yet been *decided* (*on*) which flight they will take.

Sometimes there is a slight difference of meaning if the preposition is included; contrast:

She *asked* what he wanted.
≠ She *asked about* what he wanted.

Whereas *ask* introduces the question which the speaker actually asked and for which she requires an answer, *ask about* does not indicate what the question might have been. Other prepositional verbs in this class are: *argue* (*about*); *beware* (*of*) (*cf* 3.54 Note); *not care* (*about*); *check* (*on*); *depend* (*on*); *hear* (*about*); *reflect* (*on*). There is also the phrasal–prepositional verb *find out* (*about*).

Note A few verbs are followed by a *wh*-exclamative clause (indirect exclamation; *cf* 10.104) beginning with *what* or *how*: *I realized what a fool I had been*; *I know how busy you are*. These clauses are difficult to distinguish from *wh*-interrogative clauses. Other verbs in the pattern include *exclaim, express, marvel, reflect, think*.

Complementation by a nonfinite clause

Nonfinite clauses in complementation

16.36 When a nonfinite clause follows the verb it is often difficult to separate three of the major types of complementation which we distinguished in 2.16. This is especially true if a noun phrase intervenes between the superordinate verb and the verb of the nonfinite construction:

They like *the children to visit them.* [1]
They supposed *the children to be guilty.* [2]
They asked *the children to bring some food.* [3]

On the face of it, all three of these sentences conform to the same pattern (verb + noun phrase + *to*-infinitive . . .). But there are reasons for classifying them differently:

[1] exemplifies MONOTRANSITIVE complementation (16.38*ff*)
(*cf*: *They like the children's visits – SVO*)
[2] exemplifies COMPLEX TRANSITIVE complementation (16.43*ff*)
(*cf*: *They supposed the children guilty – SVOC*)

[3] exemplifies DITRANSITIVE complementation (16.55*ff*)
(*cf*: *They asked the children a question – SVOO*)

We will return in 16.64*ff* to differences between examples such as these. At present, since we are dealing with monotransitive complementation, we are concerned only with the type illustrated by [1]. In nominal function, only two kinds of nonfinite clause normally occur: the *to*-infinitive clause and the *-ing* participle clause. Hence nonfinite clauses functioning as object can be distinguished, for the present purposes, in terms of the categories in *Table* 16.36:

Table 16.36 Nonfinite clauses as object

	Without subject	With subject
to-infinitive	[B6] Jack hates *to miss the train.*	[B8] Jack hates *her to miss the train.*
-ing participle	[B7] Jack hates *missing the train.*	[B9] Jack hates *her missing the train.*

In *Table* 16.36, the italicized parts are analysed as nonfinite clauses acting as direct object. The status of the infinitive clause and its subject in pattern [B8] is discussed in 16.41. Later, in 16.66, we consider the arguments for considering *her* an object in the [B8] and [B9] examples.

The following criteria confirm that the italicized portion of [B6–B9] is basically a nonfinite clause as direct object:

(A) The nonfinite clause can be replaced by a pronoun *it* coreferring to a clause, or by a noun phrase nominalizing the meaning of a clause: *Everyone likes it*; *He likes her frequent visits.*

(B) The nonfinite clause can be made the focus of a pseudo-cleft sentence (*cf* 18.29):

What everyone likes (best) is *to talk to her.* [B6]
What everyone likes (best) is *talking to her.* [B7]
What he likes (best) is *for her to call often.* [B8]

In this version of [B8], as the infinitive clause is now in complement position, the introductory *for* has to make its appearance.

(C) For [B8] the introductory *for* itself, where it appears, is a marker of the construction as a nonfinite clause.

(D) Correspondingly, for [B9], a subject pronoun in the objective case can often be replaced, in formal style, by a possessive pronoun (*cf* 14.6):

He doesn't like *me/my coming often.*

This is what one would expect (*cf* 15.12) given that *me* and *my* can both be subjects of an *-ing* clause.

Not all verbs that we consider direct objects satisfy all these criteria. Nevertheless, it is on this basis that the verbs listed below are included in the classes [B6–B9].

[B5] *Wh*-infinitive clause as object

16.37 It is as well to begin the survey of nonfinite clauses as objects with clauses which happen to be immediately related to those dealt with in 16.35. These are *wh*-infinitive clauses (*cf* 15.5):

He learned *how to sail a boat* as a small boy.
You must not forget *when to keep your mouth shut.*
I couldn't decide (on) *which bicycle to buy.*

The last example illustrates the occurrence of the optional preposition with prepositional verbs, as already observed with finite clauses of the same type. The corresponding passive pattern also occurs:

The Curies discovered *how to isolate radioactive elements.*
~ *How to isolate radioactive elements* was discovered by the Curies.

The passive with extraposition (*cf* 16.30, 16.35) is also sometimes possible:

Early in the present century, it was discovered *how to isolate radioactive elements.*

The verbs marked '3' in the list in 16.35 above provide a sample of verbs occurring with the *wh*-infinitive clause as object.

Note Many verbs which introduce *wh*-infinitive clauses rarely if ever introduce *yes–no* interrogative clauses (introduced by *whether*) of the same type: *I have forgotten how to swim* but not **I have forgotten whether to swim.* Among such verbs are *demonstrate, discover*, and *explain.* Nevertheless in unusual contexts such sentences can be found:
I have forgotten *whether to unfreeze this food before cooking it.*

[B6] Subjectless infinitive clause as direct object

16.38 When a subjectless infinitive clause is direct object, the 'understood' subject of the infinitive clause is always the same as the subject of the superordinate clause. Verbs taking this kind of complementation are listed below, subdivided into semantic categories:

(i) *dread* [B7, B8]
hate [B7, B8]
like [B7, B8]
loathe [B7, B8]
love [B7, B8]
prefer [B7, B8]

(ii) *begin* [B7]
cease [B7]
commence [B7]
continue [B7]
start [B7]

(iii) *forget* [B7]
remember [B7]
regret [B7]

(iv) *choose* [B7]
hope
intend [B7, B8]
mean [B7, B8]
need [B7]
plan [B7]
propose [B7]
want [B7, B8]
wish [B8]

(v) *deign*
disdain [B7]
help [B7, B8]
scorn [B7]
venture [B7]

(vi) *ask*
beg
decline
demand
offer
promise
refuse
swear
undertake
vow

(vii) *affect*
claim
profess [B7]

(viii) *afford* [B7]
attempt [B7]
contrive
endeavour
fail
learn
manage
neglect
omit
try [B7]

The symbols to the right of some verbs indicate that these verbs also occur with the subjectless *-ing* clause (Type [B7]) or with the infinitive clause with a subject (Type [B8]). From the latter group, however, verbs such as *ask* are excluded, because the construction of sentences like *He asked me to help* is ditransitive (*cf* 16.63) rather than monotransitive.

We now add a list of prepositional verbs belonging to the same pattern [B6pr]. The preposition is omitted before the infinitive clause object (*cf* 9.2), but is present where the prepositional object is a noun phrase or, for that matter, an *-ing* clause. Compare:

She didn't *bother* { *about* the baby. [B1pr]
about feeding the baby. [B7pr]
to feed the baby. [B6pr] }

In the following list, the verbs are placed in semantic groupings corresponding to some of those above (apart from an additional miscellaneous group (ix)), and the omitted preposition is placed in square brackets:

(i) *long* [*for*] [B8]
ache [*for*]
aim [*for*] [B8]
aspire [*to*]
burn [*for*]
burst [*for*]
(*not*) *care* [*for*]
clamour [*for*] [B8]
itch [*for*] [B8]
yearn [*for*] [B8]

(iii) *bother* [*about*] [B7, B8]
condescend [*to*]
delight [*in*] [B7]
hesitate [*about*] [B7]

(vi) *agree* [*to/on/about*] [B8]
assent [*to*]
consent [*to*]

(vii) *pretend* [*to*]

(viii) *strive* [*for*]
seek [*for*]

(ix) *arrange* [*for*] [B7, B8]
decide [*on*] [B7]
resolve [*on*] [B7]
prepare [*for*] [B7]
serve [*for*] [B7]

Examples:

Martin *longed* to leave home.
They *sought* to make amends.
I would *hesitate* to interfere.
We've *decided* to move to a new house.

Note [a] We distinguish the verbs of Type [B6] from catenative verbs (*cf* 3.49) of 'seeming' and 'occurrence' preceding infinitive clauses which are not direct objects, but which relate semantically to a *that*-clause as subject: *He appears to like the show* ~ *That he likes the show appears* [*true*]. The verbs in this class correlate closely with those occurring with obligatory extraposition of the subject (*cf* 16.34) *appear, seem, chance, happen, turn out*:

It *appeared/chanced* that the children were asleep.
~ The children *appeared/chanced* to be asleep.

[b] Another group of verbs which are closely associated with a following infinitive but which do not belong to Type [B6] includes *hasten, conspire*, and *set out*:

I hastened *to reassure her*.
They conspired *to murder Caesar*.
He set out *to conquer the world*.

The *to*-infinitive here, however, has a resultative meaning which makes the construction resemble on the one hand that of a catenative verb, and on the other hand that of an intransitive verb followed by an adjunct. With *pay* and (to a lesser extent) *wait*, the adjunct status is more obvious, as is clear from the possibility of fronting the infinitive clause:

You have to pay *to go in*.
~ (*In order*) *to go in*, you have to pay.
He waited *to see her*.
~ ?(*In order*) *to see her*, he waited.

Similarly, unlike *begin* + infinitive, the infinitive following *stop* is purposive; contrast:

She [S] began [V] to eat lunch [O].
BUT: She [S] stopped [V] to eat lunch [A].

On the other hand, these two verbs have matching uses in complementation Type [B7]:

She { began / stopped } eating lunch.

[B7] Subjectless *-ing* participle clause as object

16.39 Again, with this type of complementation, the subject of the nonfinite verb is usually identical with the subject of the preceding verb:

I love *listening to music*.
The accused denied *having met the witness*.
['The accused denied *that he/she had met the witness*']

This rule accounts for the restriction that when the participle is followed by a reflexive pronoun, the pronoun normally has to agree (in number, person, and gender) with the subject of the superordinate clause:

[She / He] enjoys singing to [*herself.* / *himself.*]

But with one small group of verbs (marked '2' in the list below) it is not the understood subject of the participle, but its understood object that is identified with the subject of the superordinate clause. In such cases, therefore, the participle construction matches in meaning the passive of the corresponding infinitive construction [B6]:

Your shoes *need* { mending. / to be mended. } That door *needs* { painting. / to be painted. }

(The above use of *need* is often replaced, in dialectally restricted usage, by an equivalent use of *want*.)

For an additional group of verbs (marked '3' in the list below), the subject of the participle is indefinite, and is independent of the subject of the preceding verb. For example, in *He recommended introducing a wealth tax*, it is clear that the person *recommending* the tax is likely to be different from the person(s) who would be responsible for *introducing* it. The meaning of this sentence is equivalent to that of *He recommended the introduction of a wealth tax*.

In the following list of verbs in the pattern of [B7], Types (i) and (ii) correspond to Type [B6(i)] ('emotive') and Type [B6(ii)] ('aspectual'). The verbs grouped under (iii) are however in this case a miscellany, since further semantic grouping is difficult.

(i)	*(can't) bear*[1]	*(not) fancy*[1]	*miss*[1]
	begrudge[1]	*hate*[1]	*regret*[1,4]
	detest[1]	*like*[1]	*relish*[1]
	dislike[1]	*loathe*[1]	*resent*[1]
	dread[1]	*love*[1]	*(can't) stand*[1]
	enjoy	*(not) mind*[1]	
(ii)	*cease*	*quit*	*start*[1]
	commence	*resume*	*stop*[1]
	continue		
(iii)	*admit*[4]	*forget*[1,3,4]	*recommend*[1,3]
	avoid	*(can't) help*[1]	*remember*[1,3,4]
	confess[4]	*imagine*[1]	*repent*
	consider	*involve*[1,3]	*require*[2]
	deny[4]	*justify*[1,3]	*risk*[1,3]
	deserve[2]	*need*[1,2]	*save*[1,3]
	discourage[1,3]	*permit*[1,3]	*try*[5]
	envisage[1,3]	*propose*	*want*[1,] ⟨dialectal[2]⟩
	escape	*recall*[1,3,4]	

The verbs of Type (i) preceded by a negative (such as *can't bear*) have a built-in negative bias, so that they cannot occur in straightforward assertive contexts:

Cora *doesn't mind* waiting. ?*Cora *minds* waiting.

They can, however, occur in nonassertive contexts:

Do you *mind* waiting?
How *can* anyone *bear* wearing clothes like that?

and also in 'second instance' contexts, *ie* where the construction refers back to a nonassertive occurrence of the same construction earlier in the discourse:

A: I [*can't stand* / *don't fancy*] working with that girl.
B: Well, I'm afraid you'll HAVE to [*stand* it. / *fancy* working with her.]

Superscripts in the above lists are interpreted as follows:

1: The verb also occurs in pattern [B9], *ie* with a subject preceding the participle (*cf* 16.42).
2: The participle has a 'passive' interpretation (see above).
3: The participle has 'independent' interpretation; *ie* the subject of the participle clause is not necessarily coreferential with the subject of the preceding verb, and may have indefinite meaning.
4: The participle may occur with a perfective construction:

I admit *having seen* it. [1]

But with such verbs, the nonperfective construction can also be used with past meaning. Thus [1] is synonymous with [2]:

I admit *seeing* it. [2]

This paraphrase relation, however, exists mainly with verbs of dynamic meaning; contrast verbs of stative meaning:

I admit knowing him.
≠ I admit having known him.

5: On the construction with *try*, *cf* 16.40.

Examples of prepositional verbs belonging to this class ([B7pr]) are:

bank on[1]	*decide on*	*play at*	*see about*[1]
count on[1]	*delight in*[1]	*resort to*	*shrink from*

Examples of phrasal verbs ([B7ph]) are:

break off *give up* *leave off* *put off* *take up*

Examples of [B7ph-pr] are:

do away with *get around to* *go in for* *look forward to*

The following sentences illustrate these patterns:

We *counted on* getting there early. [B7pr]
I've *taken up* playing tennis. [B7ph]
Jim is *looking forward to* having the house to himself. [B7ph-pr]

It is important to notice that the *to* in *get around to*, *look forward to*, and *resort to* is not an infinitive marker, but a preposition. Hence *I am looking forward to seeing you* is grammatical, but not **I am looking forward to see you.*

Note [a] The superscript '1' in the above lists is not added to verbs like *stop*, although a noun phrase can be inserted between the participle and the preceding verb in such cases:
They stopped (her) working all night.
This is because the construction containing the extra noun phrase (*her* in the above example) is arguably complex transitive (*cf* 16.53) rather than monotransitive (as is evident from the marginally acceptable passive ?*She was stopped working all night*).
[b] Also we exclude from the above lists catenative verbs such as *go* in *We went running* and *get* in *Get moving!* (*cf* 3.49).

Choice between the infinitive and participle constructions ([B6] and [B7])

16.40 Where both constructions [B6] and [B7] are admitted, there is usually felt to be a difference of aspect or mood which influences the choice. As a rule, the infinitive gives a sense of mere 'potentiality' for action, as in *She hoped to learn French*, while the participle gives a sense of the actual 'performance' of the action itself, as in *She enjoyed learning French*. In the case of *try*, the double meaning is particularly clear:

Sheila tried { *to bribe* the jailor. [1]
bribing the jailor. [2] }

[1] implies that Sheila attempted an act of bribery, but did not manage it; [2] implies that she actually did bribe the jailor, but without (necessarily) achieving what she wanted. With other verbs, the difference is more subtle, and may be overruled or neutralized by the meaning of the verb of the main clause. For example, the negative meaning of *avoid* and *escape* cancels out the sense of 'performance' in *He escaped/avoided being branded as a traitor*.

Let us consider more carefully three classes of verb which take both constructions:

(i) EMOTIVE VERBS (see Type (i) in the lists in 16.38 and 16.39). With the verbs which take both constructions (*dread*, *hate*, *like*, *loathe*, *love*, and *prefer*) the bias of the infinitive towards 'potentiality' tends to favour its use in hypothetical and nonfactual contexts; *eg*:

Would you *like* { *to see* / ?**seeing* } my stamp collection?

I *hate* { *to seem* / ?*seeming* } rude, but you're blocking the view.

On the other hand, the participial construction is favoured where the speaker is referring to something which definitely happens or has happened:

Brian *loathed* { ?*to live* / *living* } in the country.

(But with *would loathe*, the infinitive is just as acceptable as the *-ing* participle.)

Here *to live* implies that Brian could exercise choice about where to live, whereas *living* presupposes that he actually did live in the country, and probably had no choice in the matter. But in other contexts there is little appreciable difference between the two constructions:

Do you *prefer* [to cook / cooking] for yourself, or [to eat / eating] in a restaurant?

(ii) ASPECTUAL VERBS of beginning, continuing, and ending also in many cases take both constructions:

Lucy *started/continued/ceased* { *to write* / *writing* } while in hospital.

In such examples as this, there is no observable difference of meaning between the constructions. But in other cases, a contrast between 'potentiality' and 'performance' may influence the choice:

He *started* { *to speak*, but stopped because she objected. / *speaking*, and kept on for more than an hour. }

The association of the *-ing* participle with the progressive aspect may also influence a preference for the participle where multiple activities are involved:

He *began* { *to open* all the cupboards. / *opening* all the cupboards. }

Here *opening* is more appropriate than *to open*. While some verbs in this group (*begin*, *continue*, *cease*, *start*), allow both constructions, others (*finish*, *stop*) allow only the participle construction. (*Go on* and *keep* (*on*) may be classified as catenative verbs (*cf* 3.49); on *finish/stop* followed by the infinitive, *cf* 16.38 Note [b].)

(iii) RETROSPECTIVE VERBS. For three verbs *forget*, *remember*, and *regret*, the 'potentiality'/'performance' distinction becomes extended into the past so that there is a temporal (as well as in part modal) difference between the two constructions. The infinitive construction indicates that the action or event takes place after (and as a result of) the mental process denoted by the verb has begun, while the reverse is true for the participle construction, which refers to a preceding event or occasion coming to mind at the time indicated by the main verb:

{ I *remembered* to fill out the form. ['I remembered that I was to fill out the form and then did so']
I *remembered* filling out the form. ['I remembered that I had filled out the form'] }

{ I *forgot* to go to the bank. ['I forgot that I was to go to the bank, and therefore did not do so']
I *forgot* (*about*) going to the bank. [rare without *about*; 'I forgot that I went to the bank' or '. . . that I should have gone . . .'] }

{ I *regret* to tell you that John stole it. ['I regret that I am about to tell you that John stole it']
I *regret* telling you that John stole it. ['I regret that I told you that John stole it' or '. . . that I am now telling you . . .'] }

[B8] Complementation by *to*-infinitive clause (with subject)

16.41 The verbs in this group (as distinct from the apparently similar 'object + infinitive' construction; *cf* 16.50) are restricted to a small number chiefly denoting (not) liking or wanting: (*can't*) *bear*, *desire*, *hate*, *like*, *love*, *prefer*, *want*, and *wish*:

They don't *like* the house to be left empty.
I wouldn't *want* you to lose your way.

After these verbs, the noun phrase preceding the infinitive cannot be made the subject of a passive main clause: **The house isn't liked to be left empty* (*by them*).

There is moreover an alternative construction (chiefly restricted to AmE) in which the noun phrase is preceded by *for* which marks it as the subject of an infinitive clause, rather than as object of the main clause:

Jack prefers *for* his wife to drive the truck. ⟨esp AmE⟩

These two observations point in the direction of a monotransitive analysis of such verbs.

In the following, however, *for* has a different status and must occur in both AmE and BrE:

They arranged *for* Mary to come at once.

In this case the construction is that of a prepositional verb *arrange for* ([B8pr]), the infinitive clause acting as prepositional object. Other examples

where *for* occurs as part of a prepositional verb are: *ask for, call for, ache for, aim for, burn for, burst for, care for, clamour for, crave for, hope for, itch for, long for, plan for, prepare for, wait for, yearn for*:

We were all *aching/burning/bursting for* the performance to begin.
They *planned for* the mayor to arrive on the following day.

For some of the verbs in these clauses, the *that*-clause with *should* ([B3(ii)]) is an alternative form of complementation:

They planned that the mayor *should arrive* on the following day.

A further reason in favour of a monotransitive analysis of verbs of Type [B8pr] is the possibility (in some cases) of a passive, with or without extraposition:

For the administration to resign so quickly was not called for.
It had been arranged for the food to be served indoors.

Note [a] Some [B8pr] verbs, such as *arrange for, plan for,* and *prepare for,* also have a [B2] construction in which they are followed by a direct object. Compare: *Have you arranged the meeting? Have you arranged for the meeting?* Compare also *She asked for the children to leave* and *She asked the children to leave.*
[b] *Desire, expect,* and *intend,* although they fit into this category with respect to introductory *for* and the extraposed passive, also accept the passive of the 'raised object' which applies to [C4] (*cf* 16.50). Thus *expect,* for example, permits two associated passives:
It was not expected for the administration to resign.
The administration was not expected to resign.
The former of these, however, is felt to be awkward and of marginal acceptability. On such conflicts of classification *cf* 16.64*ff*.

[B9] Complementation by *-ing* participle clause (with subject)

16.42 Verbs which accept this pattern comprise a considerable subset of those verbs accepting the subjectless *-ing* clause as object: they include the verbs marked '1' in the list of 16.39. The genitive form of the subject is an option in formal English (*cf* 15.12), but is often felt to be awkward or stilted:

I dislike *him/his driving my car.*
We look forward to *you/your becoming our neighbour.*

In some cases, particularly when the subject of the participle is not a pronoun and does not have personal reference, the genitive option is rare:

Peter stopped the { *vehicle* / ?*vehicle's* } crashing into the fence.

The genitive is also rare with a pronoun with nonpersonal reference:

I look forward to { *it* / ?*its* } getting warmer in spring.

The verbs of negative meaning *stop, prevent,* and *prohibit* have a related ditransitive construction (*cf* 16.56*f*) in which the preposition *from* precedes the *-ing* clause as second object:

They tried to *prevent* the plane *from* landing on the runway.

Thus the *from* is optional.

In the very few cases where we have a choice between an *-ing* participle and a *to*-infinitive construction there is usually felt to be a difference of aspect or mood such as that described in 16.40:

I *hate* the children *to quarrel* [. . . they're ordinarily such good friends]. [1]
I *hate* the children *quarrelling* [. . . all the time]. [2]

[1] focuses on the children's 'potential' for quarrelling; [2] emphasizes their 'performance' – the point being that they do quarrel, rather often in fact. An aspectual difference is uppermost in:

I *hate* the clock { *chiming* (. . . all night long). / *to chime* (. . . just when I'm going to sleep). }

The infinitive suggests a single chime, while the participle suggests continual chiming (*cf* 4.35, 4.67*f*).

Note Verbs of the 'observational' type, *eg*: *notice* in *I noticed him writing a letter,* do not belong in this group, and are dealt with in 16.53. For such verbs, the genitive is not a possible alternative: **I noticed his writing a letter.*

Complex transitive complementation

16.43 In 2.16 we applied the term COMPLEX TRANSITIVE to verbs in the patterns *SVOC* and *SVOA*. In this chapter we extend the term to other clause patterns in which an object is followed by another element which is not an object (*eg* a nonfinite clause). A distinguishing characteristic of complex transitive complementation is that the two elements following the verb (*eg* object and object complement) are notionally equated with the subject and predication respectively of a nominal clause. For example:

MONOTRANSITIVE: She presumed *that her father was dead.* [1]
COMPLEX TRANSITIVE: { She presumed *her father to be dead.* [2] / She presumed *her father dead.* [3] }

In [3], *her father* (O) and *dead* (C) are equivalent in meaning to a separate clause, *viz* the *that*-clause in [1]. This relationship remains where the object complement is expanded into an infinitive clause, as in [2]. Yet *her father to be dead,* in spite of its clause-like meaning and appearance, does not act syntactically as a single constituent, as is evident in the passive, where the O is separated from its complement:

Her father was presumed (by her) *to be dead.*

This divisibility into two elements of a semantically clausal construction following the verb is the defining property of complex transitive complementation.

We begin with three already familiar patterns of complex transitive complementation: those corresponding to [A1–A3] (*cf* 16.21–4).

Note On the similarities between complex transitive and ditransitive complementation, see 16.66*ff*.

[C1] Adjective phrase as object complement

16.44 The *SVOC* pattern (*cf* 2.16) in which the object complement is an adjective phrase is found with verbs which, like copular verbs, may be divided into CURRENT and RESULTING types:

You should *keep* the cabbage *fresh*. [1]
That music *drives* me *mad*. [2]

The verb *keep* in [1] introduces the current attribute *fresh*, while the verb *drive* in [2] introduces the resulting attribute *mad*. These two verbs therefore exemplify the two main categories of complex transitive complementation in this pattern. The current verbs (*cf* 16.21*ff*) are usually stative, and the resulting verbs are always dynamic. Further examples of each type are:

CURRENT

(i) *hold* [C2]
keep [C2]
leave [C2]

(ii) *call* [C2]
confess [B3, C2, C4]
profess [B3, C2, C4]
pronounce [B3, C2, C4]
report [B3, C4]

(iii) *like*
prefer [B3]
want
wish [B3, C2, C4]

(iv) *believe* [B3, C2, C4]
consider [B3, C2, C4]
deem [B3, C2, C4]
find [B3, C2, C4]
hold [B3, C4]
imagine [B3, C2, C4]
judge [B3, C2, C4]
presume [B3, C2, C4]
rate [C2, C4]
reckon [B3, C2, C4]
suppose [B3, C2, C4]
think [B3, C2, C4]

RESULTING

(v) *drive* [C4]
get [C4]
make [C2, C4]
prove [B3, C2, C4]
render [C4]
send
turn

(vi) *certify* [B3, C2, C4]
declare [B3, C2, C4]
proclaim [B3, C2, C4]

Type (i) is a category of current verbs of general meaning; Type (ii) consists of factual speech act verbs (*cf* 16.31); Type (iii) of volitional verbs; Type (iv) of verbs of intellectual state; Type (v) of general resulting verbs; and Type (vi) of resulting verbs referring to speech acts which have the performative force of declarations. (*Hold* occurs twice in the above list: as a general verb [Type (i), as in *She held her head high*]; and as an intellectual state verb [Type (iv), as in *I hold you responsible*]). The symbols added after some verbs indicate other related complementation types to which those verbs belong:

[B3] The verb can also be used monotransitively (*cf* Note [a]) with a *that*-clause.
[C2] The verb can also occur with a noun phrase as object complement.
[C4] The verb can also occur with an object + infinitive construction.

Examples:

The secretary *left* all the letters *unopened*. (i)
The doctors *pronounced* her condition *utterly hopeless*. (ii)
I *want* my coffee *stronger than this*. (iii)
We've always *found* the assistants *very friendly*. (iv)
The long walk *made* us all *hungry*. (v)
They have *declared* the house *unfit for habitation*. (vi)

Note that the adjectival complement may contain modifiers and adjectival complementation (*cf* 16.68–83). A passive construction in which the direct object becomes subject is also an important criterion:

All the letters *were left unopened* (by the secretary). (i)
Her condition *was pronounced utterly hopeless* (by the doctors). (ii)

Note [a] There is sometimes a meaning difference between the object complement construction and the corresponding *that*-clause [B3] or object + infinitive [C4] construction:
I imagined myself severely ill. [3]
≠ I imagined myself to be severely ill. [4]
Sentence [3] suggests that the speaker is indulging in a flight of fancy; sentence [4] suggests that the speaker is deluding himself (*eg* that he is a hypochondriac). A difference is also to be observed between [5] and [6]:
They *got* him angry. [5]
≠ They *got* him *to be* angry. [6]
where [5] suggests 'made him angry in spite of himself', and [6] suggests 'persuaded him to be angry'. (Yet a third meaning is represented by *Don't get me wrong* ['Don't misunderstand me'].)
Two further contrasts are:
We *found* the children undernourished. ['We encountered them in that condition'] [7]
≠ We *found* the children *to be* undernourished. ['Our examination revealed their condition'] [8]
and:
He *declared* the meeting official. [9]
He *declared* the meeting *to be* official. [10]
where [9] has a performative and resultative force ('The meeting became official as a result of his announcement') not regularly present in [10].
[b] *Have* in sentences such as *We have two employees sick* is not a member of the [C1] category, but belongs to a special *have*-existential construction to be discussed, with existential sentences in general, in 18.51. Since it has no passive, this clause construction lacks one criterial feature of complex transitive constructions: **Two employees are had sick*.
[c] There is a variant order in which the object complement precedes the object; *eg*: *He thought desirable most of the women in the room* (*cf* 18.37). This order tends to occur when the object is a long noun phrase.

16.45 In addition to the verbs listed in 16.44 above, there are many verbs which belong more peripherally to Type [C1]. Their membership is more peripheral in one or both of the following respects: (a) They occur only in restricted sequences such as *rub . . . dry* (*cf* 16.17); (b) They can occur in the [B1] monotransitive construction without appreciable change of meaning; *ie*, the object complement is optional, and resembles an optional adverbial. In the following typical collocations, the object noun phrase is symbolized by N:

CURRENT	RESULTING
bring (a child) *up healthy*[1]	*boil* (an egg) *soft*[1]
buy N *cheap*[1]	*crop* (hair) *short*[1]
return (a letter) *unopened*[1]	*freeze* N *hard*[1]
serve (food) *hot/cold*[1]	*paint* N *red/blue/ . . .*[1]
sell N *cheap/new*[1]	*roll* N *flat*
	sweep (the floor) *clean*[1]
	colour N *blue/yellow/ . . .*[1]
	dye N *pink/green/ . . .*[1]
	knock (someone) *senseless*
	polish N *smooth*[1]
	scrape N *clean*[1]
	swing (a door) *open*

For those combinations marked '1', the object complement could be easily omitted without a change in the basic sense of the verb.

Among resulting attributes, the adjectives *open*, *loose*, *free*, and *clean* are particularly common: *push* N *open*, *shake* N *loose*, *set* N *free*, *wipe* N *clean*.

The collocations *make sure* and *make certain* are peculiar in that the object is a *that*-clause and always follows the adjectival complement:

Please *make sure/certain* that you enclose your birth certificate.

There is no passive **be made sure/certain* . . . With other collocations, the *that*-clause object is postponed by extraposition (*cf* 18.35):

He *found* it *strange* that no one else had arrived.
I *think* it *very odd* that she left without saying goodbye.
The emperor *pronounced* it *illegal* for landlords to enfranchise their tenants.

Extraposition is optional with *make* N *clear*, and therefore the preparatory *it* may be omitted: *She made (it) clear that we were regarded as trespassers.*

Note [a] Some collocations require the object to be a reflexive pronoun: *I laughed myself sick*; *They roared themselves hoarse*. Here the object complement cannot be omitted: **I laughed myself.*
[b] The resultative pattern illustrated in this section is quite productive, and occurs with rare or newly-converted verbs such as *sellotape* and *scotchtape*: *sellotape* N *flat* ⟨BrE⟩; *scotchtape* N *flat* ⟨AmE⟩. Similarly:
I've *deepfrozen* the bread solid.

[C2] Noun phrase as object complement

16.46 Most of the verbs listed in 16.44 can occur also with a noun phrase complement. In addition, there are a few verbs which occur with a noun phrase, but not with an adjective phrase, as complement, *eg*: *appoint*. These verbs, marked '1' in the list below, can also occur with the object + infinitive construction:

The queen *appointed* William Cecil (to be) her personal secretary.

The list is subdivided into categories corresponding to those in 16.44:

(i) *hold*[2]
keep[2]
leave[2]
(ii) *call*
confess
profess
pronounce
(iii) *wish*
(iv) *believe*
consider[2]
deem
esteem[1,2,3]
find
imagine[2]
judge[2]
presume
rate[2]
reckon[2]
suppose
think
(v) *appoint*[1,2,3]
choose[1,2,3]
elect[1,2,3]
make
prove
vote[1]
(vi) *baptize*[1,3]
certify[2,3]
christen[1,3]
crown[1,2,3]
declare
proclaim
name[1,2,3]

The superscript '2' indicates that the *as*-construction (*cf* 16.47) is also possible. The superscript '3' indicates that the verb is also monotransitive, and that the verb retains the same meaning when the object complement is omitted. Hence *She appointed him secretary* implies that *she appointed him*. Examples of each sub-type follow. With *profess* and *wish*, which are used to illustrate sub-types (ii) and (iii) respectively, a reflexive pronoun as object is normal.

She *held* her niece (a) captive for several years. (i)
The prince *professed* himself a supporter of free speech. (ii)
I have often *wished* myself a millionaire. (iii)
Charles does not *esteem* him a trustworthy adviser. (iv)
The committee has *elected* you its chairman. (v)
Her parents *named* her Sophia after her grandmother. (vi)

Some verbs in this pattern are unlikely to occur in the active; *eg*: *think*, *believe*, *reckon*. The following are examples of the passive construction:

Her niece *was held* (a) captive for several years. (i)
She *was named* Sophia after her grandmother. (vi)

As with Type [C1], the object may be a clause postponed by extraposition:

We have made *it* a condition *that the new agreement be signed by all the original signatories.*
He has proved *it* a fallacy *that old age brings wisdom.*

Note [a] The zero article occurs optionally with *captive* and *prisoner* as object complements, as in (i) above: *She held her niece (a) captive. Hold . . . captive/prisoner* and *keep . . . captive/prisoner* are unusual in that the omitted article is indefinite rather than definite. Examples of the zero article with definite meaning (*cf* 5.42) are:
Edgar was judged overall *winner*.
They appointed Sue *captain* of the athletics team.
[b] The object + infinitive construction with *to be*, as with Type [C1], is not always equivalent to the pattern with a phrasal object complement. For example, *name* can be used with *to be* only if the following noun phrase designates a future role or status:
Her parents named her (**to be*) Gladys.
The selectors named her (*to be*) a member of the touring team.
As can be used with *name* only on the same condition as applies to *to be*: **Her parents named her as Gladys* (*cf* 16.47 below).
[c] The copular relation can obtain not only between the object and complement as in [1], but also between subject and complement as in [2]:

She made him a good husband. (SVO_dC_o) [1]
She made him a good wife. (SVO_iC_o) [2]

[1] has the passive analogue *He was made a good husband*; but in the entirely different construction of [2], where the copular relation is between *she* and *a good wife*, no passive is possible. The meaning is: 'She was a good wife to him'. A prepositional verb of this same unusual pattern is *strike . . . as* in, for example:

He *struck* me *as* a brilliant strategist.

where *a brilliant strategist* is subject complement.

[C1pr] and [C2pr] Object complement following prepositional verb

16.47 The preposition *as* designates a copular relation, particularly in specifying a role or status associated with the direct object: *The church condemned the relic as a fraud*. Following a complex transitive verb and a direct object, the prepositional complement of *as* functions semantically as an attribute, and may be termed a 'prepositional object complement' in the same way as the noun phrase following a transitive prepositional verb is called a prepositional object:

We considered him { a genius. [C2] / as a genius. [C2pr] / to be a genius. [C4] }

~ He was considered { (as) a genius. / to be a genius. }

Consider as, like *regard as*, *class as*, etc, therefore exemplifies yet another type of prepositional verb: one that is followed by a prepositional object complement rather than a prepositional object.

Occasionally the preposition *for* occurs in this copular function, instead of *as*:

He took these words *as* evidence. He took me *for* a fool.

In the following list, for verbs in column (i) the preposition is optional, where for verbs in column (ii) the preposition is obligatory:

(i)	(ii)
appoint (as)[1]	*accept as*
choose (as)	*acknowledge as*
consider (as)	*characterize as*
count (as)	*class as*
deem (as)	*define as*
esteem (as)[1]	*describe as*
rate (as)	*intend as*[1]
reckon (as)	*mistake for*
report (as)	*regard as*
elect (as)[1]	*see as*
certify (as)	*take as/for*
crown (as)[1]	*treat as*
make (into)[1]	*use as*
proclaim (as)	

Most verbs in [C1pr] and [C2pr] can also introduce an adjective phrase in the function of prepositional object complement:

The experts *rated* his paintings (*as*) *poor but representative of their class*.
They *classed* Jane *as partially sighted*.
The media *described* the situation *as hopeless*.
~ The situation was *described as hopeless*.

Verbs not allowing this construction are marked '1' in the above lists. The construction is exceptional in allowing an adjective phrase to occur after a preposition. A more orthodox construction is obtained by adding the word *being* before the adjective phrase, and thereby converting the prepositional complement into a nominal *-ing* clause:

The media described the situation *as being hopeless*.

Note [a] *Count as* and *rate as* can also occur in an analogous *as*-construction without the object, as 'prepositional' copular verbs; *eg*: *This counts/rates as a notable success* (*cf* 16.22 Note [b]).
[b] Although *as* is classed as a preposition in the above pattern, it in some ways resembles the conjunction *as* which introduces clauses of comparison (*cf* 15.71). Consider the following curious examples, in which *as* introduces on the one hand a clause and on the other hand a noun phrase in an appositional relation to the clause:
Report me *as I am – a superannuated don*.
He described her *as he found her, a liar*.

[C3] Complementation by object and adjunct

16.48 Our next category, Type [C3], consists of verbs which occur in the *SVOA* pattern (*cf* 2.16), *ie* verbs which have as their complementation an object followed by a predication adjunct. The most characteristic adjuncts to occur in this pattern are prepositional phrases of space, and more particularly of direction; *eg*:

I slipped the key *into the lock*. [1]
He stood my argument *on its head*. [2]
Take your hands *out of your pockets*. [3]

The passive is illustrated by:

The key was slipped *into the lock*. [1a]

Sentence [2] exemplifies the abstract or metaphorical use of such verbs and adjuncts. Many of the verbs which fit into this pattern are causative verbs of motion: *put*, *get*, *stand*, *set*, *sit*, *lay*, *place*, *send*, *bring*, *take*, *lead*, *drive*, etc. The class is open-ended, since verbs normally without causative meaning can be adapted to this function; *eg*: *show*, *see*, *elbow*, etc in:

The attendant *showed* us to our seats. ['conducted us . . .']
May I *see* you home? ['escort you . . .']
He *elbowed* and *bribed* his way to fame.
They *talked* me into it. ['persuaded me . . .']

Other verbs are associated with space position adjuncts rather than direction adjuncts:

They *left* the papers *at my office*.
Always *keep* your eyes *on the road* when driving.

The attackers *caught* us *off our guard*.
He *wished* them *at the bottom of the sea*.

Again, the spatial meaning of the adjunct may be understood in some abstract or metaphorical sense, as in the third example above.

Adjuncts of other semantic types are less common, but instances are the adjunct of manner following *treat*:

Her parents *treated* her { *badly*. / *as if she were a baby*. / *as/like a small child*. }

and the optional adjunct of duration following *last*:

This money will have to *last* you (*(for) six months*).

Note [a] *Treat* has a different meaning when the adjunct is omitted:
Her parents *treated* her. [= 'did something pleasant for her']
[b] Superficially similar to the above pattern is that illustrated by *remind* and *furnish* followed by an object and a prepositional phrase:
She *reminds* me *of my sister*.
They *furnished* all the passengers *with life jackets*.
These however are classed as transitive prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.7–8), and will be dealt with in 16.56*f* below. The difference between these prepositional verbs and verbs of complementation Type [C3] is that in the former case the lexical verb governs a particular preposition, *remind . . . of*, *furnish . . . with*. (Alternative prepositional constructions are sometimes available, however: *provide . . . with*, *provide . . . for*.)

Variants of complex transitive complementation

16.49 We now examine variants of complex transitive complementation in which the direct object is followed by a nonfinite clause acting as predication adjunct. All four kinds of nonfinite construction (*cf* 14.6–8) are possible:

[C4] *to*-infinitive: They knew him *to be a spy*.	[C6] *-ing* participle: I caught Ann *reading my diary*.
[C5] bare infinitive: I heard someone *slam the door*.	[C7] *-ed* participle: We saw him *beaten by the World Heavyweight Champion*.

The nonfinite clause in these patterns (in italics in the above table) has no subject itself, but its implied subject is always the preceding noun phrase, which is object of the superordinate clause. This noun phrase, which if a personal pronoun is in the objective case, is commonly termed a RAISED OBJECT (*cf* further 16.64*ff*): semantically, it has the role of subject of the nonfinite verb; but syntactically it is 'raised' from the nonfinite clause to function as object of the superordinate verb. Hence in general, this noun phrase (in italics in the table below) can become subject of the corresponding passive. (The passive of [C5] normally requires substitution of a *to*-infinitive for a bare infinitive; the passive of [C7] is of marginal currency; *cf* 16.54 Note [a].)

[C4] *He* was known to be a spy.	[C6] *Ann* was caught reading my diary.
[C5] *Someone* was heard to slam the door.	[C7] *He* was seen executed by a firing squad.

On the face of it, the patterns [C4] and [C6] are indistinguishable from the monotransitive patterns [B8] (*eg*: *She hates the train to be late*) and [B9] (*eg*: *She hates the train being late*), in which the nonfinite clause has a subject of its own. The ability of the noun phrase preceding the nonfinite verb to become subject of a passive is, however, an important distinction between them (see further 16.51 and 16.53).

Note These patterns [C4] and [C6] are distinguished from corresponding patterns in which the nonfinite clause is an adverbial by the fact that the implied subject of the nonfinite verb is O rather than S. Note the ambiguity of:
She left him *to finish the job*. She left him *holding the baby*.

[C4] Object + *to*-infinitive complementation

16.50 The verbs in this group are rather numerous, and may be subdivided, semantically, into the following categories:

(i) *announce*, *declare*, *proclaim*, *pronounce*, *report*, *repute* [esp P], *rumour* [P only], *say* [P only], *tip* ⟨esp BrE⟩

(ii) *assume*, *believe*, *conceive* ⟨formal⟩, *consider*, *expect*, *feel*, *find*, *imagine*, *know*, *presume*, *reckon*, *see* [P only], *suppose*, *take*, *think* [esp P], *understand*

(iii) *intend*, *mean*

(iv) *appoint*, *elect*, *name*, *vote*

(v) *cause*, *drive*, *force*, *get* [no P], *lead*, *prompt*

(vi) *allow*, *authorize*, *compel*, *constrain*, *enable*, *entitle*, *equip*, *fit*, *oblige*, *permit*, *require*

(vii) *assist*, *bother*, *bribe*, *condemn*, *dare*, *defy*, *encourage*, *help*, *induce*, *inspire*, *press*, *summon*

[P = Passive]

Types (i) and (ii) correspond to the factual verbs of category [B3] discussed in 16.31: the nonfinite construction following these verbs can often be replaced by a *that*-clause with an indicative verb. Compare:

The police reported that the traffic was heavy. [B3]
= The police reported the traffic to be heavy. ⟨formal⟩ [C4]

John believed that the stranger was a policeman. [B3]
= John believed the stranger to be a policeman. ⟨formal⟩ [C4]

With factual verbs such as these, the nonfinite clause normally contains the verb *be* or some other verb of stative meaning. Especially when the nonfinite main verb is other than *be*, the finite clause (of pattern [B3]) is preferred to the infinitive one, except that the infinitive construction provides a convenient passive form:

The traffic was reported to be heavy.
The stranger was believed to be a policeman.

Some verbs in this construction have no *that*-clause equivalent:

They tipped him to be the next president. ⟨esp BrE⟩
~ He was tipped to be the next president.
(*They tipped that he would be the next president.)

Some verbs (marked [P only] in the list above) occur only in the passive version of this construction:

The field marshal *was said* to be planning a new strategy.
(*Someone *said* the field marshal to be planning a new strategy.)

Other verbs (marked [esp P]) occur chiefly in the passive:

The Broadway production *was thought* to have made Max's fortune.
(?Newsmen *thought* the Broadway production to have made Max's fortune.)

Of the two classes of factual verbs, Type (i) consists of public verbs (*cf* 16.31) referring to a speech act, and Type (ii) consists of private verbs expressing belief, etc.

16.51 Of the remaining semantic types, Type (iii) consists of verbs of intention (on *intend* itself *cf* 16.41 Note [b]); Types (iv) and (v) consist of causative verbs, where the infinitive clause identifies the resultant state (Type (iv) verbs also belong to class [C1]); Type (vi) consists of verbs with a modal character, expressing such concepts as enablement, permission, and compulsion; and Type (vii) consists of a variety of verbs of 'influencing' between which a common factor appears to be that the nonfinite clause has a purposive meaning. Examples are:

(iii) They *intended* Mary to sing an aria.
(~ Mary *was intended* to sing an aria.)
(iv) The meeting *elected* Mr Martin to be the next treasurer.
(~ Mr Martin *was elected* to be the next treasurer.)

(v) This optimistic forecast *led* the administration to promise tax cuts.
(~ The administration was *led* (by this optimistic forecast) to promise tax cuts.)
(vi) My contract *allows* me to take one month's leave.
(~ I *am allowed* to take one month's leave.)
(vii) Our teachers *encouraged* us to think for ourselves.
(~ We *were encouraged* to think for ourselves.)

In Type (iv), the infinitive main verb is normally *be*, and can be omitted: *They appointed her* (*to be*) *the social secretary*. This type overlaps with Type (v), 16.46.

Note [a] There are a number of multi-word verbs in this category: [C4pr]: *count on . . . to . . .*; *depend on . . . to . . .*; *rely on . . . to . . .*; [C4ph]: *make . . . out to . . .*; [C4ph-pr]: *keep on at . . . to . . .* (which has no passive). Examples are:
I am *depending on* you to give us your full support.
They *made* him *out* to be a monster of depravity.
Why do you *keep on at* me to work harder?
[b] Some passives of pattern [C4] (*eg*: *be allowed*, *be supposed*) have a semi-auxiliary (*cf* 3.47*f*) interpretation in which they lose their connection with the corresponding active construction, especially as regards agency.

[C5] Object + bare infinitive complementation

16.52 This pattern occurs with a relatively small number of verbs:

(i)	(ii)		(iii)
have	*feel*	*overhear* [P?]	*help* [P?]
let	*hear* [P]	*see* [P]	*know* [P]
make [P]	*notice* [P?]	*watch*	
	observe [P]		

Type (i) consists of verbs of coercive meaning; Type (ii) has perceptual verbs of seeing and hearing; and Type (iii) is a residual class of two verbs which are optionally followed by a *to*-infinitive. The marker [P] indicates that the passive (normally with a *to*-infinitive) is possible; [P?] indicates that the passive is of doubtful or limited acceptability.

(i) You shouldn't *let* your family *interfere with our plans*.
We must *make* the public *take notice of us*.
(~ The public must *be made to take notice of us*.)
(ii) Did you *notice* anyone *leave the house*?
The crowd *saw* Gray *score two magnificent goals*.
(~ Gray was *seen to score two magnificent goals*.)
(iii) Sarah *helped* us (to) *edit the script*.
I have *known* John (to) *give better speeches than that*.
(~ John has been *known to give better speeches than that*.)

Know followed by the bare infinitive is confined mainly to BrE, and to the perfective aspect: *have known*. *Let* in group (i) is in other constructions classified as similar to an auxiliary (*cf* 3.51). *Let* has an apparent passive in combination with such verbs as *let go* and *let fall*, but these are best regarded as fixed expressions, in which *let* has an auxiliary or particle-like function:

They *let* the prisoner *go home*. ~ ?The prisoner was *let go home*.

Note that this apparent passive has the bare infinitive, in contrast, for example, to *make*, which has to have the *to*-infinitive in the passive:

They *made* him *understand*. ~ He was *made to understand*.

A third verb in group (i) is *have*, which (like *have* in monotransitive constructions) does not occur in the passive:

They *had* me *repeat the message*. ~ *I was *had* (to) *repeat the message*.

Note [a] The formulaic nature of *let him go* and similar expressions is illustrated by variants such as [1–3], which cannot be fitted into any regular complementation pattern:

They *let* { *go* the rope. [1]
the rope *go*. [2]
go of the rope. [3] }

[b] Of the two constructions with *help*, that with *to* is more common in BrE, and that without *to* is more common in AmE.

[c] A rare verb in category (i) is the now rather archaic *bid*, with a *to*-infinitive complementation in the passive:

They *bid/bade* me *sit down*. ~ I was *bidden to sit down*.

[C6] Object + *-ing* participle complementation

16.53 The verbs in category [C6] consist of verbs of perception (Type (i)), verbs of encounter (Type (ii)), and two verbs of coercive meaning (Type (iii)):

(i) *feel* [C5]	*see* [C5]	(ii) *catch*	(iii) *have*
hear [C5]	*smell*	*discover*	*get*
notice [C5]	*spot*	*find*	
observe [C5]	*spy*	*leave*	
overhear [C5]	*watch* [C5]		
perceive			

Perception verbs marked [C5] occur also with the bare infinitive pattern [C5]. With such verbs there is an aspect difference between [C5] and [C6], as described in 4.61*f*:

Tim watched Bill *mend/mending* the lamp.

The bare infinitive, having nonprogressive meaning, implies that Bill did the whole job while Tim was watching; the *-ing* clause, with progressive meaning, has no such implication.

This complementation pattern differs from that of [B9], not only in its progressive aspect, but also in that the noun phrase following the superordinate verb cannot take the genitive (or possessive) form (*cf* 16.42):

I saw *him* lying on the beach ~ *I saw *his* lying on the beach.

Another difference from pattern [B9] is that the *-ing* predication can normally be omitted without radically altering the meaning:

I saw him lying on the beach. [entails: *I saw him*]

Contrast:

I hate my friends leaving early. [does not entail: *I hate my friends*]

The passive with this pattern is regular:

We could *hear* the rain *splashing on the roof*.
~ The rain could *be heard splashing on the roof*.
A teacher *caught* them *smoking in the playground*.
~ They *were caught smoking in the playground* (by a teacher).

Prepositional verbs with this type of complementation ([C6pr]) include *come across*, *come upon*, *listen to*, and *look at*: *Look at those children climbing the wall*. But these [C6pr] prepositional verbs have no prepositional passive:

The guards had been { *seen* / *spotted* / ?*watched* / **looked at* } searching the building.

Have in this construction (*cf* 18.51*ff*) also has no passive, in keeping with its use in other constructions:

She *had* us working day after day.
*We *were had* working day after day.

Note *Feel* occurs especially with a reflexive pronoun object: *She felt herself falling in love*.

[C7] Object + *-ed* participle complementation

16.54 We can distinguish three small groups of verbs complemented by a raised object followed by an *-ed* participle clause:

(i) CAUSATIVE verbs: *get*, *have*
She *got/had* the watch repaired immediately.
(ii) VOLITIONAL verbs: *want*, *need*, *like*
I *want/need* this watch repaired immediately.
(iii) PERCEPTUAL verbs: *see*, *hear*, *feel* (oneself), *watch*
Someone must have *seen/heard* the car stolen.

A fourth group is peripheral to this construction:

(iv) Verbs for which the *-ed* participle describes a resulting state: *find*, *discover*, *leave*
They *found/discovered/left* him worn out by travel and exertion.

In this construction, as in that of [C6], *have* can have either an agentive causative meaning, or a stative meaning. Hence *The guard patrol had two men shot* is ambiguous, meaning either 'The patrol caused two men to be shot', or 'The patrol suffered the loss of two men by shooting'. The latter meaning is that of the *have*-existential construction (*cf* 18.51*ff*). In general, this complementation type is semantically equivalent to one with an infinitive form of the verb *be*. Thus in Type (ii), *I would like my room cleaned* is synonymous with *I would like my room to be cleaned*; in Type (iii), *He saw the team beaten* is synonymous with *He saw the team be beaten*.

Note [a] There is no passive for most verbs in pattern [C7], and at best the passive is dubious: ?*The car must have been seen stolen*. The acceptability of the passive with Type (iv) is exceptional:

The car was found abandoned. This is, indeed, an indication that Type (iv) may not belong here so much as with the object complement construction [C1], the participle construction being adjectival (*cf*: *an abandoned car*).
[b] In addition to the two meanings of *have* + object + *-ed* participle above, a third meaning results if the *-ed* clause is analysed as a postmodifier of the object; *eg*: *She had a book* (*which was*) *stolen from the library.*

Ditransitive complementation

[D1] Noun phrases as both indirect and direct object

16.55 Ditransitive complementation in its basic form involves two object noun phrases: an indirect object, which is normally animate and positioned first, and a direct object, which is normally concrete. The two noun phrases differ from those of [C2] in not being in a copular relationship:

He *gave* the girl a doll
S V O_i O_d

The difference between this and complex transitive complementation is seen in:

SVOC: He found her a loyal friend.
(~ She was a loyal friend)
SVOO: He found her an apartment.
(~ The apartment was for her)

The characteristics of indirect objects in contrast to direct objects are fully discussed in 10.7.

Some ditransitive verbs have two passive analogues, which we shall distinguish as 'first' and 'second':

The girl was given a doll. [FIRST PASSIVE]
A doll was given the girl. [SECOND PASSIVE]

Of these two, the first passive, in which the indirect object becomes subject, is the more common. The prepositional paraphrase is more usual, as an alternative, than the second passive: *A doll was given to the girl.* (For a list of verbs of Type [D1], *cf* 16.57 below.)

[D2] Object and prepositional object

16.56 In the ditransitive category, prepositional verbs form an important group with its own sub-divisions, and may therefore be given a separate category number [D2]. These verbs are those we have called Type II prepositional verbs (*cf* 16.7–8). Alongside the ordinary indirect object pattern, two main prepositional patterns may be distinguished:

Indirect object + direct object. [D1]
Direct object + prepositional object. [D2a]
Indirect object + prepositional object. [D2b]

The indirect object is normally animate, and is the recipient or beneficiary of the process described by the verb (*cf* 10.19). Unlike ditransitive verbs of category [D1] (*eg*: *give*), ditransitive verbs with prepositional objects normally have only one passive:

We addressed our remarks to the children. [D2a]
~ Our remarks were addressed to the children.
(*The children were addressed our remarks (to))

We reminded him of the agreement. [D2b]
~ He was reminded of the agreement.
(*The agreement was reminded him (of))

Some verbs have all three possibilities of construction in the active; many have two; for others there is only one possibility (in some cases the alternatives are not identical but very similar in meaning):

tell	[D1 + 2a + 2b]	Mary *told* only John the secret. Mary *told* the secret only *to* John. Mary *told* only John *about* the secret.	[D1] [D2a] [D2b]
offer	[D1 + 2a]	John *offered* Mary some help. John *offered* some help *to* Mary	[D1] [D2a]
envy	[D1 + 2b]	She *envied* John his success. She *envied* John *for* his success.	[D1] [D2b]
wish	[D1]	They *wished* him good luck.	[D1]
blame	[D2a + 2b]	Helen *blamed* the divorce *on* John. Helen *blamed* John *for* the divorce.	[D2a] [D2b]
say	[D2a]	Why didn't anybody *say* this *to* me?	[D2a]
warn	[D2b]	Mary *warned* John *of* the dangers.	[D2b]

The different constructional possibilities of certain verbs provide a means of achieving different focus (*cf* 18.37*f*). Compare the following pairs of sentences as pronounced with unmarked (end) focus:

{ Mary blamed the broken vase on JÒHN.
{ Mary blamed John for the broken VÀSE.
(*Cf*: John was blamed . . . by MÀRY.)

{ The government supplied blankets for the HÒMEless.
{ The government supplied the homeless with BLÀNKets.
(*Cf*: Blankets were supplied . . . by the GÒVernment.)

Note [a] The above constructions are presented in the most typical syntactic ordering, but postponement of the direct or indirect object may take place in contexts where end-focus or end-weight is required (*cf* 18.37); *eg*: *John offered to Mary the help that she needed.*
[b] Additional prepositional verb patterns should be briefly mentioned. There is, for example, the double-prepositional-verb pattern noted in 16.17(c):

I am *applying to* the hospital *for* a job.
There is a further possibility that two prepositional objects may follow a direct object:
We are *paying* $100 *to* the garage *for* the repairs.

Verbs of complementation types [D1] and [D2]

16.57 The following list gives some of the verbs that occur in Types [D1], [D2a], [D2b], organized according to the cross-classifications of 16.56 above. We are interested here only in synonymous or nearly synonymous constructions, in which the same participant roles (*cf* 10.18*ff*) occur. Hence many possible prepositional verbs are ignored. *Pay for*, for example, is ignored because it introduces a further participant (the commodity bought) not included in *pay* (*with*) and *pay* (*to*).

Table 16.57

	Type [D1]	Type [D2a]	Type [D2b]
EXAMPLE	*serve* (Jack scampi)	*serve* (scampi) *to* (Jack)	*serve* (Jack) *with* (scampi)
[D1 + 2a + 2b]	*pay*	*pay to*	*pay with*
	provide ⟨AmE⟩	*provide for*	*provide with*
	serve	*serve to*	*serve with*
	tell	*tell to*	*tell about*
[D1 + 2a] (i)	*bring*	*bring to*	
	deny	*deny to*	
	give	*give to*	
	grant	*grant to*	
	hand	*hand to*	
	leave	*leave to/for*	
	lend	*lend to*	
	offer	*offer to*	
	owe	*owe to*	
	promise	*promise to*	
	read	*read to*	
	send	*send to*	
	show	*show to*	
	teach	*teach to*	
	throw	*throw to*	
(ii)	*do*	*do for*	
	find	*find for*	
	make	*make for*	
	order	*order for*	
	reserve	*reserve for*	
	save	*save for*	
	spare	*spare for*	
(iii)	*ask*	*ask of*	

[D1 + 2b]	*envy*		*envy for*
	excuse		*excuse for*
	forgive		*forgive for*
[D1]	*allow*		
	charge		
	fine		
	refuse		
	wish		
[D2a + 2b]		*blame on*	*blame for*
		supply for/to	*supply with*
[D2a]		*address to*	
		announce to	
		communicate to	
		explain to	
		say to	
[D2b]			*advise about*
			punish for
			etc

The membership of [D2b] is numerous. Here are further examples, arranged by prepositions:

thank for	*convince of*	*rob of*	*refer to*
prevent from	*deprive of*	*suspect of*	*sentence to*
protect from	*inform of*	*warn of*	*subject to*
interest in	*persuade of*	*congratulate on*	*treat to*
accuse of	*relieve of*	*confine to*	*charge with*
convict of	*remind of*	*introduce to*	*compare with*

Note that reflexive verbs (*cf* 6.25) sometimes occur with a prepositional object; *eg*: *We pride ourselves on the service we offer*. Some of the verbs above (such as *compare with*) can have two inanimate objects.

In *Table* 16.57, we have distinguished, under [D1 + 2a], verbs taking *to* as their preposition from those taking *for*; *eg*:

(i) She sent Paul a present. ~ She sent a present *to* Paul.
(ii) She made Paul a meal. ~ She made a meal *for* Paul.

Occasionally, a preposition other than *to* and *for* occurs in this function:

(iii) She asked Paul a favour. ~ She asked a favour *of* Paul.

16.58 Distinct from [D2a] and [D2b] above is a kind of prepositional verb which has already been discussed in 16.7–8; a verb for which the direct object forms part of an idiomatic unit with the verb and the preposition. The syntactic properties of this type, which we label [D2c], have already been dealt with, and it is enough here to list a further sample of such idioms:

catch sight of	*make allowance for*[1]	*put a stop to*
give place to	*make fun of*	*set fire to*
give way to	*make a fuss over/about*[1]	*take account of*[1]
keep pace with	*make room for*	*take advantage of*[1]
lose sight of	*make use of*[1]	*take care of*[1]
lose touch with	*pay attention to*[1]	*take note of*[1]
lose track of	*put an end to*	*take notice of*[1]

Those marked with a raised '1' can take not only a prepositional passive (*cf* 16.7–8) but also can easily take a passive for which the idiomatically-fixed direct object becomes subject; *eg*: (*Some*) *allowance was made for loss of earnings*; (*Little*) *notice was taken of this event*. Other verbs can take the passive, but with greater difficulty; with these examples, as with prepositional verbs in general, idiomatic cohesion is a matter of gradience.

Variants of ditransitive complementation

[D3] Indirect object + *that*-clause object

16.59 Corresponding to monotransitive verbs of Type [B3] (*cf* 16.30) are ditransitive verbs for which the direct object is a *that*-clause:

John *convinced* me (that) he was right.
~ I *was convinced* (by John) (that) he was right.

The second passive is unacceptable when the direct object is a clause: **That he was right was convinced me*. Thus the first passive (*cf* 16.55) above is the only passive that can occur with this pattern. With some verbs, such as *convince* above, it is impossible to delete the noun phrase object:

*John convinced (that) he was right.

With other verbs, such as *show*, the indirect object is optional:

The professor of mathematics showed me that Pythagoras was mistaken.
~ The professor of mathematics showed that Pythagoras was mistaken.

Ditransitive verbs followed by a *that*-clause may be divided into a subtype introducing an indirect statement, and a subtype introducing an indirect directive (*cf* 14.33). In the indirect statement, the *that*-clause contains an indicative verb; in the indirect directive the verb may be indicative or subjunctive, and often contains putative *should* or another modal verb (*cf* 16.32 for the distribution of these options):

INDIRECT STATEMENT:
May I *inform* you *that your order is ready for collection*?

INDIRECT DIRECTIVE:
She *petitioned* the king *that her father* {*might be* / *should be* / *be*} *pardoned*.

In the following list, Type (i) verbs introduce indirect statements, and Type (ii) verbs introduce indirect directives. The indirect directive construction is

rare and formal in comparison with the similar infinitive construction (*cf* 16.63):

?I begged her that she {would / should} help. ⟨formal⟩
I begged her to help. ⟨more usual⟩

For those verbs marked 'O' the indirect object is obligatory; for those marked '(O)', the indirect object is optional; for those marked '((O))' the indirect object is not only optional, but unusual:

(i) *advise* (O)	*remind* O	(ii) *ask*[3] ((O))
assure O	*satisfy* O	*beg*[3] (O)
bet (O)	*show*[3] (O)	*charge* (O)
convince O	*teach*[3] (O)	*command* ((O))
forewarn (O)	*tell* O	*instruct* ((O))
inform O	*wager* (O)	*order* ((O))
notify[3] O	*warn* (O)	*petition*[3] (O)
persuade[1] O	*write*[2,3] (O)	*tell* O
promise[3] (O)		

The superscripts are interpreted as follows:

1: *Persuade* in the sense of 'convince' belongs to Type (i); but it may also be used in a Type (ii) sense of 'persuade someone to do something'.
2: *Write* is found with an indirect object + *that*-clause especially in AmE.
3: With verbs so marked, the indirect object can be replaced by a prepositional object (*cf* 16.60).

Note Superficially similar to the [D3] pattern is the 'impersonal' construction *it strikes/struck me* (*that*) . . . , as in:
It strikes me this work is for his own amusement.
But here the *that*-clause (as in 16.34) is the extraposed subject of the verb. Compare: *He strikes me as* . . . (*cf* 16.46 Note [c]) and *It occurs to me that* . . . (*cf* 16.34 Note [c]).

[D3pr] Prepositional object + *that*-clause object

16.60 The verbs marked '3' in the above list can be optionally followed by a preposition, thus forming a category similar to [D2a] in 16.56:

He *promised* ((*to*) *me*) that the debt would be repaid.

For most verbs of [D3] which permit a prepositional object, the preposition is *to*:

He *wrote to* me . . . He *reported to me* that . . . etc

Exceptions are *ask* and *beg*, which (in somewhat formal usage) are followed by the preposition *of*:

I *ask/beg* of you that you will keep this secret. ⟨formal⟩

There is, in addition, a group of verbs which were classified in 16.31–32 as monotransitive, but which optionally allow the preposition *to* preceding a prepositional object. These may be distinguished as Type [D3pr], and subdivided into sub-types (i) and (ii), as in the parallel description of [B3] verbs:

Joan *mentioned* (*to* me) that her father was sick. [Type (i)]
Dr Day *recommended* (*to* her) that the treatment be continued. [Type (ii)]

For example:

(i) *acknowledge*	*declare*	*remark*	(ii) *propose*
admit	*explain*	*report*	*recommend*
announce	*mention*	*say*	*suggest*
complain	*point out*	*signal*	
confess	*prove*	*state*	

As before, Type (i) verbs introduce indirect statements, and the less numerous Type (ii) verbs introduce indirect directives. As before, too, some exceptional verbs take a preposition other than *to*:

She demanded *of* me that . . . She agreed *with* me that . . . etc

Unlike the nonprepositional verbs of [D3], these prepositional verbs allow the *that*-clause to become subject of a corresponding passive clause, an option which is more acceptable with extraposition:

That several ministers are resigning has been *admitted to* our correspondent.
~ It has been *admitted to* our correspondent that several ministers are resigning.
It has been *shown to* us all that Miss Jones was innocent.

Without the preposition, *ie* with an ordinary indirect object, such sentences are at best marginally grammatical: ?**It has been shown us all that Miss Jones was innocent.*

Note The constructions of *It appears/happens/occurs/seems to me that* . . . superficially appear to belong to the pattern [D3pr], but in fact these contain monotransitive verbs with an extraposed *that*-clause as subject:
It *occurred/seemed to me* that he was lying.
Cf similar patterns with extraposition in 16.34, 16.59 Note.

[D4] Indirect object + finite *wh*-clause object

16.61 This pattern of complementation is primarily found with the verb *ask*, which introduces a reported question:

John *asked* me what time the meeting would end.
~ I was *asked* (by John) what time the meeting would end.

Also used with this pattern are verbs which take an indirect object followed by a *that*-clause (Type (i) of [D3]), but for these the *wh*-clause tends to be limited to nonassertive contexts (*cf* 16.35). Compare:

George didn't *tell* them that the train was late. [1]
George didn't *tell* them whether the train was late. [2]

The difference of meaning between the *that*- and *whether*-constructions can be stated in terms of presupposition. Sentence [1] typically implies that the train was late, while [2] is noncommittal on the matter. [D4] verbs can also introduce other question words such as *where* and *how*:

Jim was reluctant to *inform* us (*of*) where he got the money.
Would you *remind* me (*about*) how we start the engine?

A preposition may always be placed before the *wh*-clause. In the above cases, the preposition is optional, but in the case of verbs like *enquire of* (Type [D4pr]) the preposition is obligatory: *I enquired of the clerk which documents were needed*. The complex preposition *as to* can be rather generally used for introducing the *wh*-clause; *eg*: *I enquired . . . as to which documents were needed.*

[D5] Indirect object + *wh*-infinitive clause object

16.62 This is yet another complementation pattern (comparable with [B5], 16.37) which may be taken by some verbs listed under [D3] in 16.59:

advise ask instruct remind show teach tell warn

The instructor *taught* us *how to land safely*.
~ We were *taught* (by the instructor) *how to land safely*.
They *advised* him *what to wear in the tropics*.
Please *remind* me *where to meet you after lunch*.

The equivalent prepositional verb pattern [D5pr] is illustrated by *suggest to*, *recommend to*:

Could you please *suggest to* the visitors *which museums to visit*?

Here, as in the [D4] type, a prepositional phrase introduced by *as to* can be used:

Helen *advised us* (*as to*) how to maintain the machine.

[D6] Indirect object + *to*-infinitive clause object

16.63 We have seen that the [D3] pattern may be used to introduce indirect statements, and that the [D4] pattern may be used to introduce indirect questions. Now we turn to the verbs of class [D6], which introduce indirect directives (*cf* 14.33):

I *told/advised/persuaded* Mark to see a doctor. [1]
~ Mark was *told/advised/persuaded* to see a doctor. [2]

This complementation category looks like those of [B8] and [C5], in that the verb is followed by a noun phrase and an infinitive construction. But the [D6] pattern differs from these in that the noun phrase following the verb is an indirect object, as will be clarified in 16.66 below. As with other verbs introducing indirect speech, the subject refers to the speaker of some speech act, and the indirect object refers to the addressee. Like [D3] verbs, [D6] verbs form only the first passive exemplified in [2] above: we do not find **To see a doctor was told Mark*. The following verbs belong to this class:

advise	*command*	*entreat*	*instruct*	*remind*	*teach*
ask	*counsel*	*exhort*	*invite*[1]	*request*[1]	*tell*
beg	*detail*[1]	*forbid*	*order*	*recommend*	*urge*
beseech	*direct*	*implore*	*persuade*		
challenge[1]	*enjoin*[1]	*incite*[1]	*pray*[1]		

Those verbs marked with a raised '1' do not have the equivalent construction with a *that*-clause containing a modal or a subjunctive verb (Types [B3(ii)], [D3(ii)]). Contrast:

They {*begged* / *invited*} her to stay another week.

They {*begged* / **invited*} (her) that she would stay another week.

The alternative *that*-clause construction, however, is more formal, especially when the indirect object is present.

Note [a] The verb *promise*, when it occurs with this kind of complementation, is exceptional in that the understood subject of the infinitive is identified with the subject rather than with the object of the main clause:

Sam promised me to get some food.

{= Sam promised me that *he* would get some food.
{≠ Sam promised me that *I* would get some food.

The present pattern [D6] is, however, less common with *promise* than the [B6] pattern without the indirect object: *Sam promised to get some food.*

[b] Only *order* can be followed by a passive infinitive: *He ordered them to be imprisoned/released.*

Multiple analysis and gradience in verb complementation

16.64 Before we leave verb classification, it is important to reflect on the problems of dividing verbs into complementation types. The major division of complementation patterns into copular [A], monotransitive [B], complex transitive [C], and ditransitive [D] categories (introduced in 2.16) has been extended with little difficulty to include patterns in which the verb's complementation includes finite and nonfinite clauses. This is the basis for the classification of verbs into types in 16.20–63 above. But unavoidably, our aim of presenting a clear classification has obscured some problems of gradience and multiple analysis (*cf* 2.60*ff*), and to illustrate these we return to three superficially identical structures already discussed in 16.36. These are now illustrated with three new examples, each of which conforms to the pattern N_1 *V* N_2 *to V* N_3, (where *N* = noun phrase, and *V* = verb phrase):

Table 16.64a

	N_1	*V*	N_2	*to V*	N_3	
[B8]	S	V	O			
	We	*like*	all parents	to visit	the school	[1]
[C4]	S	V	O	C_o		
	They	*expected*	James	to win	the race	[2]
[D6]	S	V	O_i	O_d		
	We	*asked*	the students	to attend	a lecture	[3]

Each of these sentences consists of the sequence N_1 *V* N_2 *to V* N_3, and yet we have analysed them respectively as monotransitive (S V O), complex transitive (S V O C_o), and ditransitive (S V O_i O_d). A different analysis, in some ways more revealing, would recognize an overlap between two competing descriptions of the intermediate noun phrase N_2. There is little doubt that in [1] this is to be analysed as subject of the infinitive clause (*cf* 16.36); whereas in [3] there are equally strong reasons for regarding N_2 as (indirect) object of the main clause (*cf* 16.66):

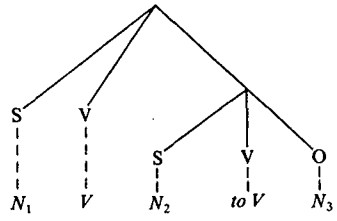

Fig 16.64b Sentence [1]

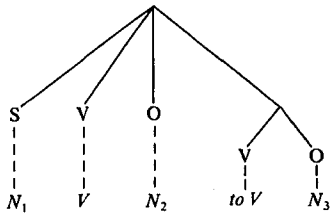

Fig 16.64c Sentence [3]

Sentence [2], however, partakes of both these descriptions. From the semantic point of view, it requires the analysis of *Fig* 16.64b (*cf*: *They expected* [*that James would win the race*]). But from the structural point of view, the analysis in *Fig* 16.64c is more appropriate, reflecting N_2's ability to become subject of the passive sentence: *James was expected to win the race*. We might reasonably say that in [2], N_2 behaves like an object (O_d rather than O_i) in relation to the first verb, but like a subject in relation to the second, infinitive verb. The term RAISED OBJECT, applied in 16.49*ff* to the intermediate noun phrase of patterns [C4 – C7], incorporates yet another way of recognizing this double analysis, by envisaging a process whereby the subject of the infinitive becomes the object of the preceding finite verb. This raised object will be symbolized, in what follows, S/O.

16.65 Given that the double analysis above provides some insight into clauses containing nonfinite complementation, we could take such an analysis further, and apply it to all complex transitive patterns, including the more straightforward *SVOC* and *SVOA* patterns of [C1 – C3]:

I consider {that John is a good driver. [B3]
{John to be a good driver. [C4]
{*John a good driver*. [C2]

The parallelism of meaning and phrasal relations demonstrated in these three sentences recommends an analysis in which the complementation of pattern [C2], *John a good driver*, would be regarded as a clause in its own right: *ie* as a verbless clause consisting of S = *John* and C_s = *a good driver*, without an intervening V. This description would not, however, displace the by now familiar S V O_d C_o analysis, but would rather be seen as an alternative way of looking at the same construction.

Gradience

16.66 The technique of multiple analysis still leaves some subtleties unexposed. What this technique has suggested is that there are the following three categories corresponding to [1–3] in 16.64:

$N_2 = S$:	We like *all parents* to visit the school.	[1]
$N_2 = S/O$:	They expected *James* to win the race.	[2]
$N_2 = O$:	We asked *the students* to attend a lecture.	[3]

But more than three categories can be appropriately distinguished if we recognize [1] and [3] as end-points of a gradient, with [2] at some point on the scale between them. This area of grammar affords a good example of gradience.

At the monotransitive end of the scale, [1] can be characterized by a number of criteria which suggest that N_2 *to* VN_3 (*all parents to visit the school*) constitutes the direct object of an *SVO* pattern:

(a) It can be replaced by a pronoun referring to the clause or noun phrase nominalizing it: *We like it*; *We like all parents' visits*.
(b) It can be an answer to a *what*-question:
A: What do you like best?
B: We like all parents to visit the school.
(c) In some dialects, it can be preceded by the infinitive clause introducer *for*: *We like (it) for all parents to visit the school.*
(d) It can easily (when preceded by *for*) be the focus of a pseudo-cleft sentence: *What we like (best) is for all parents to visit the school.*
(e) When the sequence N_2 *to* VN_3 is turned into the passive form N_3 *to be* Ved_2 *by* N_2, there is no change of meaning:
We like all parents to visit the school.
= We like the school to be visited by all parents.
(f) In a reduced construction the infinitive marker *to* remains: *We like them* does not have the same meaning as *We like them to.*

At the other, ditransitive end of the scale, a contrasting set of criteria characterize [3], and support the analysis of N_2 (*the students*) as an indirect object and *to* VN_3, (*to attend a lecture*) as a clausal direct object:

(a′) *to* VN_3 can be replaced by a pronoun, a noun phrase, or a finite clause, with N_2 still functioning as indirect object:

We asked the students { *something.* / *a question.* / *what they wanted.* }

(b′) *to* VN_3 can be the answer to a *wh*-question, while N_2 functions as indirect object:
A: What did you ask the students?
B: We asked them to attend a lecture.
(c′) When the sequence N_2 *to* VN_3 is turned into the passive sequence N_3 *to be* Ved_2 *by* N_2, the meaning is always changed:
They asked the students to attend a lecture.
≠ *They asked a lecture to be attended by the students.
(In this case, indeed, the passive transform results in an absurdity.)

(d′) *to* VN_3 can marginally become the focus of a pseudo-cleft sentence: ?*What they asked the students was to attend a lecture.* (Contrast the decidedly unacceptable **What we like the parents is to visit the school.*)
(e′) N_2, which like O_i in general is usually 'personal', can be detached from its place after the first V to become subject of a corresponding passive sentence: *The students were asked to attend a lecture.*
(f′) In a reduced construction, the infinitive marker *to* can be omitted: *We asked them*; *We persuaded them*; etc.

Note [a] With some ditransitive verbs, criterion (a′) has to be interpreted as the replacement of the infinitive clause by a preposition and prepositional object (*cf* 16.56–8):
They *reminded* him *of his responsibilities.*
One man *challenged* the other *to a duel.*
[b] Criterion (d′) is less reliable than the others, since the pseudo-cleft sentence is unacceptable for many verbs. But a pseudo-cleft sentence in which the indirect object is replaced by a prepositional object tends to be more grammatical: *What they asked of the students was to attend a lecture.* (The alternative construction with the substitute verb *do*, which also occurs with [1], is always more acceptable: *What they asked the students to do was to attend a lecture.*)

16.67 To give a simplified illustration of the analysis of gradience in the sequence N_1 VN_2 *to* VN_3, we now take a subset of the criteria listed above, and apply them to a range of verbs on the gradient connecting [1] and [3] of 16.66.

CRITERIA ↓ / VERB CLASSES →	(1) *ask, tell,* etc	(2) *elect, allow,* etc	(3) *intend, expect,* etc	(4) *want, like,* etc
(a′) *to* VN_3 can be replaced by a finite clause	+	−	−	−
(c′) change of meaning in passive of N_2 *to* VN_3	+	+	−	−
(e′) N_2 can become subject of passive	+	+	+	−

Fig 16.67 A complementation gradient

The matrix uses only three criteria, and thereby distinguishes only four categories. This is sufficient to indicate the principle, however, that the three categories [B8], [C4], and [D6] of our taxonomy could be broken down into a finer spectrum of categories between which the differences are small. In effect, *Fig* 16.67 distinguishes two subcategories of [C4]: one (including *elect* and *allow*) which is closer to the ditransitive type, and one (including *intend* and *expect*) closer to the monotransitive type. *Elect* and *allow* respond to criterion (c′):

They *elected* Miss Coe to succeed the present secretary.
≠ *They *elected* the present secretary to be succeeded by Miss Coe.
We don't *allow* residents to entertain visitors.
≠ We don't *allow* visitors to be entertained by residents.

while *intend* and *expect* do not:

They *intended* the students to see the professor.
= They *intended* the professor to be seen by the students.
They *expect* the students to enjoy the classes.
= They *expect* the classes to be enjoyed by the students.

Note For verbs in group (3), the voice of the infinitive clause and the voice of the main clause may be independently varied, with the result that a sentence like *They expected the students to enjoy the classes* has three corresponding passives with the same meaning:

= { They expected the classes *to be enjoyed* by the students.
The students *were expected* to enjoy the classes.
The classes *were expected to be enjoyed* by the students. }

The last example has a passive verb phrase in both the superordinate clause and the infinitive clause.

Adjective complementation

16.68 Categories of complementation in adjective phrases (*cf* 2.28, 7.21–2) are similar in variety to those of verb complementation. We distinguish [E1–E5] as follows:

[E1] Complementation by a prepositional phrase
[E2] Complementation by a *that*-clause
[E3] Complementation by a *wh*-clause
[E4] Complementation by a *than*-clause
[E5] Complementation by a *to*-infinitive clause
[E6] Complementation by an *-ing* participle clause

These complementation patterns can occur after an adjective (and its modifiers, if any) in various syntactic functions. For example:

The violin is (*rather*) *difficult to play*.
(adjective phrase as C_s)
Mary found the violin (*rather*) *difficult to play*.
(adjective phrase as C_o)
The violin is an instrument (*rather*) *difficult to play*.
(adjective phrase as postmodifier)

The only position in which an adjective cannot normally be followed by its complementation is the premodifying position in a noun phrase: **a keen child on chess*. But here, too, with certain constructions (Types [E5(i)] and [E5(v)]) the complementation can follow discontinuously after the head noun: *The violin is a difficult instrument to play* (*cf* discontinuity with comparative constructions, 15.75). For illustrative purposes, we will confine examples in the following sections to the subject complement function. The lists, like the verb lists in 16.20–63, will be selective.

Note There is a considerable parallel, as the categories [E1–E5] above demonstrate, between patterns associated with adjectives and those associated with monotransitive verbs. The chief difference is that adjectives cannot be followed by a noun phrase object. To bring out the parallel further, we could describe adjectives exemplified in 16.69 below (*averse to*, *conscious of*, etc) as 'prepositional adjectives' comparable with prepositional verbs. We could moreover identify 'phrasal adjectives' (derived from participial forms of phrasal verbs) such as *run down* ('exhausted, depressed') and 'phrasal–prepositional adjectives' such as *fed up* (*with*). These latter variants, however, are rare enough to be disregarded in the following lists.

[E1] Adjective complementation by a prepositional phrase

16.69 Like prepositional verbs, adjectives often form a lexical unit with a following preposition: *good at*, *fond of*, *opposed to*, etc. The lexical bond is strongest with adjectives for which, in a given sense, the complementation is obligatory: *Max is averse to games* ~ **Max is averse*. Such adjectives are marked '1' in the following lists.

The lists make a distinction between participial (*cf* 7.15–19) and nonparticipial adjectives. The difference between participial adjectives and the *-ed* participle of the passive construction is discussed in 3.75–77. These lists provide only a small sample of the adjectives accompanying the prepositions concerned. In particular, it is often possible for the same adjective to go with two or more prepositions, as in *angry about*, *angry at* and *angry with*.

ABOUT: He was very *worried about* her reaction. (*cf* 9.60)

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL	
angry	*knowledgeable*	*aggrieved*	*frightened*
glad	*mad*	*annoyed*	*pleased*
happy	*reasonable*	*delighted*	*worried*

AT: She was *bad at* mathematics. (*cf* 9.62)

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL	
angry	*good*	*alarmed*	*disgusted*
brilliant	*hopeless*	*amused*	*pleased*
clever	*terrible*	*delighted*	*puzzled*

FROM: The village is *remote from* the bustle of city life. (*cf* 9.18, 9.47)

different *distant* *distinct* *free* *remote*

OF: She was *aware of* his difficulties.

NONPARTICIPIAL			PARTICIPIAL
afraid	*conscious*[1]	*glad*	*convinced*
ashamed	*empty*	*proud*[1]	*scared*
capable	*fond*[1]	*short*[1]	*tired*
certain	*full*	*worthy*	

ON/UPON: Their plan was *based on* cooperation.

NONPARTICIPIAL			PARTICIPIAL	
contingent[1]	*intent*[1]	*reliant*[1]	*based*[1]	*set*[1]
dependent	*keen*	*severe*	*bent*[1]	

TO: All capital gains are *subject to* taxation.

NONPARTICIPIAL			PARTICIPIAL	
answerable	*close*	*liable*[1]	*accustomed*[1]	*inclined*[1]
averse[1]	*due*[1]	*similar*	*allied*[1]	*opposed*[1]

WITH: This plan is not *compatible with* our principles.

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL	
angry	*happy*	*annoyed*	*drunk*
busy	*impatient*	*bored*	*enchanted*
comfortable	*incompatible*[1]	*concerned*	*obsessed*
compatible[1]	*sick*	*delighted*	*occupied*
content	*uneasy*	*depressed*	*overcome*
familiar		*disappointed*	*pleased*
friendly		*disgusted*	*satisfied*
furious		*dismayed*	*taken*[1]
		distressed	

Note [a] In general, choice of preposition remains the same after morphologically related verbs, adjectives, and nouns: *different from, differ from, difference from*. But this correspondence is not always to be relied on: contrast *full of* with *filled with*; *proud of* with *pride in*.
[b] Other prepositions which less commonly enter into *adjective + preposition* idioms include *for* and *towards*: *grateful for, sorry for, inclined towards*.
[c] *Used* followed by the preposition *to*, a more informal synonym of *accustomed (to)*, is participial in spelling, but has the special pronunciation /ˈjuːstə/. Unlike *accustomed*, however, *used* does not occur with a following infinitive (*cf* 16.79). This adjectival *used to*, in spite of identity of spelling and pronunciation, is quite distinct from *used to* as a marginal modal (*cf* 3.44). Contrast:
I'm *used to* hard work. I *used to* work hard.
[d] In the past, prescriptive objections have been made to the use of *to* rather than *from* after *averse* and *different*. However, *to* is the normal preposition to follow *averse*, and *different to* is quite widely used (esp in BrE) as an alternative to *different from*. On *different than*, *cf* 15.66 Note, 16.74.
[e] *With* can be omitted after *(in)compatible* if the subject is plural, *cf* 'mutual participation', 13.60:
*Carl is incompatible. BUT: Carl and Eva are incompatible.

[E2] Adjective complementation by a *that*-clause

16.70 Like *that*-clauses following a verb, *that*-clauses following an adjective may have:

(A) indicative verb: I am *sure* (that) he *is* here now.
(B) subjunctive verb: They were *insistent* (that) we *be* ready. ⟨formal⟩
(C) putative *should*: I'm *sorry* (that) he *should have* left. ⟨formal⟩

The uses of the mandative subjunctive and of putative *should* have been discussed in 3.59 and 14.25 respectively. Putative *should* often occurs after expressions of emotion (sorrow, joy, displeasure, surprise, wonder, etc), and is often accompanied by intensifying expressions such as *so, such, like this/that, ever*, or *at all*. The indicative *that*-clause, on the other hand, refers to an established fact. The following pairs illustrate choices of construction:

I am *surprised* { (that) you *didn't call* the doctor before.
(that) anyone of your intelligence *should swallow* a lie like that. }

With some adjectives (those in category [E2b(ii)], 16.72) the *should*-clause can be paraphrased by an infinitive clause with a subject:

It was *natural* for him to go to London after the war.
= It was *natural* that he should go to London after the war.

That-clauses cannot be preceded by prepositions. Hence adjectives which are constructed with prepositions before noun phrases ([E1]) drop the preposition before a *that*-clause (*cf* 16.28). Compare the following:

I am *convinced* { *of* his innocence. [E1]
(*that*) he is innocent. [E2] }

Many *that*-clauses following an adjective are actually subjects postponed by extraposition (*cf* 18.33):

It is lucky (*that*) *you came*. ~ *That you came* is lucky.

These are listed separately in 16.72.

[E2a] Adjectives with experiencer (*cf* 10.23 Note) as subject

16.71 (i) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS INDICATIVE VERB ONLY (*cf* Note [a] below)
These adjectives express degrees of certainty or confidence: *aware, certain, confident, sure*:

We were *confident* that Karen *was* still alive.

(ii) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS PUTATIVE *SHOULD*, OR SUBJUNCTIVE VERB (or marginally also an indicative verb)
The three principal adjectives in this class are *anxious, eager*, and *willing*:

Are you *willing* that { he *should be* permitted to resign?
he *be* permitted to resign?
?he *is* permitted to resign? }

(On the distribution of these three alternatives, *cf* 16.30.)

(iii) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS INDICATIVE VERB OR PUTATIVE *SHOULD*
These adjectives express emotions:

I'm so *thankful* that nobody *was* hurt.
Were you *surprised* that Ray *should win* the prize?

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL		
afraid	*hopeful*	*alarmed*	*depressed*	*horrified*
angry	*proud*	*amazed*	*disappointed*	*irritated*
glad	*sad*	*amused*	*distressed*	*pleased*
grateful	*sorry*	*annoyed*	*disturbed*	*shocked*
happy	*thankful*	*astonished*	*frightened*	*upset*

There is a tendency to prefer the putative *should* construction in nonassertive contexts, or where the adjective has negative or unfavourable associations.

Note [a] The restriction of Type (i) above to 'indicative verbs only' is meant to allow for the use of modal auxiliaries, including *should* in a nonputative sense; *eg*: *I am aware that I should* [= 'ought to'] *have joined long ago*.
[b] *Afraid* is unique among adjectives in that it accepts the pronoun *so* (and its negative equivalent *not*) as a *that*-clause substitute (*cf* 16.31): *I'm afraid so/not*.

[E2b] Adjectives with anticipatory *it* as subject

16.72 The *that*-clause in this construction is an extraposed subject. Three types are again distinguished, matching those in 16.71.

(i) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS INDICATIVE VERB ONLY (*cf* 16.71 Note [a])
These adjectives have to do with truth or knowledge:

It is *true* that she never *comes* on time.

apparent	*evident*	*likely*	*possible*	*untrue*
certain	*implicit*	*obvious*	*true*	*well-known*
clear	*indubitable*	*plain*	*unlikely*	

(ii) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS PUTATIVE *SHOULD*, OR SUBJUNCTIVE VERB (or marginally, also, an indicative verb)
These adjectives express concepts concerned with modality or volition:

It is essential that the ban { *should be* lifted tomorrow. / *be* lifted tomorrow. / (?) *is* lifted tomorrow. }

appropriate	*essential*	*important*	*necessary*	*vital*
compulsory	*fitting*	*impossible*	*obligatory*	
crucial	*imperative*	*improper*	*proper*	

Various deverbal adjectives ending in *-able* also belong to this group, *eg*: *advisable, desirable, preferable*.

(iii) *THAT*-CLAUSE HAS INDICATIVE VERB OR PUTATIVE *SHOULD*
This group consists mainly of emotive adjectives, and includes a large number of participial adjectives ending in *-ing*:

It is { *strange* / *upsetting* } that { she *is* so late. / she *should be* so late. }

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL	
awkward	*logical*	*alarming*	*perplexing*
curious	*odd*	*annoying*	*pleasing*
disastrous	*peculiar*	*depressing*	*shocking*
dreadful	*sad*	*disappointing*	*surprising*
extraordinary	*silly*	*embarrassing*	
fortunate	*tragic*	*frightening*	
irrational	*unfortunate*	*irritating*	

Various *-able/-ible* adjectives also belong to this group: *admirable, commendable, deplorable, despicable, incomprehensible, inconceivable, lamentable, remarkable, understandable, unjustifiable*, etc.

Note [a] Although the pro-forms *so* and *not* cannot be used after these [E2b] adjectives (*cf* 16.71 Note [b]), there is a possibility of replacing the adjective + *so/not* by a related adverb + *so/not*:

A: It is *apparent* that she lives/doesn't live here. { B: Yes, *obviously/fortunately* so. / B: No, *evidently/sadly* not. }

[b] When an adjective of Type (iii) above occurs after a modal verb construction, the *that*-clause is commonly replaced by an *if*-clause. If the modal verb in the main clause is hypothetical (*eg*: *would*), the verb in the *if*-clause is placed in the hypothetical past. Compare:

{ It *is* sad *that* you *have* to leave. / It *will be* sad *if* you *have* to leave. / It *would be* sad *if* you *had* to leave. }

[E3] Adjective complementation by a *wh*-clause

16.73 As with *that*-clauses, we have to distinguish those adjectives ([E3a]) which are predicated of an experiencer (normally a person) as subject, and those ([E3b]) which go with anticipatory *it*. In the latter case, the *wh*-clause is an extraposed subject. Examples are:

[E3a] I was *unsure* { (of) / (about) } { what I should say. [1] / whether the problem was solved. [2] }

[E3b] It was *unclear* what they would do. [3]

Type [E3a] consists of adjectives which are constructed with prepositions, and which therefore belong also to Type [E1]. The preposition is sometimes omitted before the *wh*-clause (*cf* 15.5 Note [c]). In Type [E3b], on the other hand, no preposition can be inserted: **It was unclear of/about what they would do*. Also no infinitive *wh*-clause is possible (*cf* 16.37): *It is unsure where to go* is unacceptable unless *it* refers to some animate being (such as a mouse), and is consequently not interpreted in terms of extraposition.

Returning to Type [E3a], we note that in some cases the adjective takes a *wh*-clause in assertive contexts: *eg*: *careful* (*about*), *doubtful* (*as to*), *fussy* (*about*), *puzzled* (*as to*), *unclear* (*about*), *uncertain* (*of*), *undecided* (*about*), *unsure* (*of*), *unaware* (*of*):

John is *careful* (*about*) what he does with his money.

Most of these adjectives are intrinsically negative in meaning. In other cases, although elsewhere it is associated with an indicative *that*-clause [E2a(i)], the adjective tends to occur with a *wh*-clause in nonassertive contexts (*cf* 16.35), *eg*: *aware, certain, clear, sure*:

Are you *sure* (*of*) how much the machine costs?
I wasn't altogether *clear* (*about*) what we had to do.

A similar division may be made among adjectives of the anticipatory-*it* type ([E3b]). Those which intrinsically express doubt, and therefore take this structure even in assertive contexts, include *doubtful, uncertain, unclear, unsure*, and *unknown*. Those normally occurring with an indicative *that*-clause (*ie* Type [E2b(i)]) include *apparent, certain, obvious*, and *plain*. They can take a *wh*-clause in nonassertive contexts. Each type is illustrated in:

It was *unclear* whether an amendment would be accepted.
It was not *obvious* how far the westernization process would go.

After adjectives of Type [E3a] there may also occur an infinitive *wh*-clause: *I was uncertain (of) what to do*. This is preferable to the finite clause in cases illustrated by [1–3] above, since the subject can remain unexpressed in the reduced nonfinite version.

[E4] Adjective complementation by a *than*-clause

16.74 There is an unusual construction in which a noncomparative adjective is followed by a comparative *than*-clause as complementation. *Different* is the only adjective which fits into this pattern, and even then there is a tradition which regards the use of *than* here as improper. There is, however, no felicitous alternative to the *different than* construction in examples such as:

She's quite a *different* girl *than she was five years ago*. [1]

The various stylistic variants of, and alternatives to, the *than*-clause after *different* are examined in 15.66 Note [b]. When the clause is reduced to a noun phrase, it becomes possible to use *from* as an alternative to *than*:

The unions are taking a very different attitude {*than* / *from*} the employers.

When the noun phrase following *than/from* cannot be derived by ellipsis from a clause, *than* is decidedly less acceptable than *from*:

The main languages of southern India are totally different in origin {*from* / ?**than*} those of the northern part of the country.

Note [a] On *different from* and *different to*, *cf* 16.69 Note [d].
[b] It is also possible for a *than*-clause to be used after the adverb *differently*:
In the west of the country, they pronounce their vowels quite *differently than (they do) in the east*.
The same prescriptive objections are made to *differently than* as to *different than*.

[E5] Adjective complementation by a *to*-infinitive clause

16.75 We distinguish seven kinds of construction in which an adjective is followed by a *to*-infinitive clause. They are exemplified in the following sentences, which are superficially alike:

(i) Bob is *splendid* to wait.
(ii) Bob is *slow* to react.
(iii) Bob is *sorry* to hear it.
(iv) Bob is *hesitant* to agree with you.
(v) Bob is *hard* to convince.
(vi) The food is *ready* to eat.
(vii) It is *important* to be accurate.

In Types (i–iv) the subject of the main clause (*Bob*) is also the subject of the infinitive clause. We can therefore always have a direct object in the infinitive clause if its verb is transitive. For example, if we replace intransitive *wait* by transitive *build* in (i), we can have: *Bob is splendid to build this house.*

For Types (v–vii), on the other hand, the subject of the infinitive is unspecified, although the context often makes clear which subject is intended.

In these types it is possible to insert a subject preceded by *for*; *eg* in Type (vi): *The food is ready (for the children) to eat.*

Note Infinitive complementation following adjectives modified by *too* and *enough* is discussed elsewhere, in 15.73.

[E5(i)] *Bob is splendid to wait*

16.76 Type (i) has an analogue in a construction involving extraposition (*cf* 18.33): *It is splendid of Bob to wait*. This type of construction also permits a head noun between the adjective and the infinitive:

Bob must be *a splendid craftsman* {to build / to have built} this house.

As this example shows, the infinitive may be perfective. We may also compare constructions in which an evaluative noun with its determiner replaces the adjective:

You're {*foolish* / *a fool*} to spend so much.
You're {*wonderful* / *an angel*} to wait for me.

Adjectives in this group are evaluative of human behaviour. They include:

careful *crazy* *mad* *silly* *wise*
careless *greedy* *nice* *unwise* *wrong*

These adjectives can also occur with anticipatory *it* and an *of*-phrase as additional complementation (*cf* 16.82):

It was *foolish* of you to spend so much.

[E5(ii)] *Bob is slow to react*

16.77 In Type (ii), the sentence corresponds to one in which the adjective becomes an adverb, while the infinitive becomes the finite verb:

Bob is *slow* to react. ~ Bob reacts *slowly*.

In another analogue, the adjective is followed by *in* and an *-ing* participle: *Bob is slow in reacting*. The infinitive verb phrase must be simple: for example, unlike the infinitive phrase in [E5(i)], it cannot be perfective: **Bob is slow to have reacted*. Other adjectives in this small group are *quick* and *prompt*.

Note There is also a partial adverbial analogue (*cf* 8.127*ff*) for Type (i), but in Type (i), unlike Type (ii), the perfective infinitive, and even the *get*-passive (*cf* 3.66) can be used:
Joan was wise to resign. ~ Joan wisely resigned.
{Joan was careless to get beaten. ~ Joan carelessly got beaten.
Joan is careless to have got beaten.

[E5(iii)] *Bob is sorry to hear it*

16.78 In Type (iii), the head of the adjective phrase is an emotive adjective (commonly a participial adjective), and the infinitive clause expresses causation:

I'm sorry to have kept you waiting. ['I'm sorry because I have kept you waiting']
I was *excited* to be there. [~ 'To be there *excited* me']

Adjectives in this group correspond closely to the adjectives followed by a *that*-clause in 16.71 (Type [E2a(iii)]):

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL		
afraid	*happy*	*annoyed*	*disgusted*	*overwhelmed*
angry	*impatient*	*astonished*	*dissatisfied*	*perturbed*
ashamed	*indignant*	*bored*	*embarrassed*	*puzzled*
content	*jubilant*	*concerned*	*fascinated*	*relieved*
furious	*thankful*	*delighted*	*frightened*	*surprised*
glad		*depressed*	*interested*	*worried*
		disappointed	*overjoyed*	

[E5(iv)] *Bob is hesitant to agree with you*

16.79 In Type (iv), the head of the adjective phrase expresses volitional meaning, or a modal meaning such as ability, possibility, or liability. Examples are:

NONPARTICIPIAL		PARTICIPIAL
able	*keen*	*determined*
anxious	*liable*	*disposed*
apt	*likely* [E2b]	*fated* [E2b]
certain [E2b]	*loath*	*inclined*
curious	*powerless*	*poised*
due	*prone*	*prepared*
eager	*ready* [E5]	*(all) set*
eligible	*reluctant*	*unqualified*
fit [E5]	*sure* [E2b]	
free [E5]	*unable*	
greedy	*welcome*	
hesitant	*willing*	
impotent	*worthy*	

The adjectives marked [E2b] occur with a corresponding construction with extraposition of a *that*-clause:

Jill is *likely* to attend.
~ It is *likely* that Jill will attend.

Those marked [E5] are capable of occurring with an infinitive construction of 'passive' meaning, *ie* with an indefinite implied subject and a coreferential implied object:

They are not fit *to eat*. = They are not fit *to be eaten*.

Some of the most common adjectives in this list have a tendency to coalesce with the preceding copula to form a semi-auxiliary verb (*cf* 3.47): *be able to*, *be willing to*, *be sure to*. In addition to modal and volitional adjectives, some adjectives of aspectual meaning, such as *accustomed* and *wont* may be placed here:

We are *accustomed* to take tea on the terrace. ⟨formal⟩
He was *wont* to leave the office at 5 p.m. ⟨formal, archaic⟩

[E5(v)] *Bob is hard to convince*

16.80 In Type (v), the subject of the sentence is identified with the unexpressed object of the infinitive clause, which must therefore have a transitive verb; hence the unacceptable **Bob is hard to arrive*. There is an analogous construction in which the adjective is complement to an infinitive clause acting as (extraposed) subject (*cf* 18.36):

Bob is *hard* to convince. { ~ To convince Bob is *hard*. / ~ It is *hard* to convince Bob. }

Adjectives so used refer to degrees of ease or comfort, and include:

awkward	*hard*	*tough* ⟨informal⟩
convenient	*impossible*	*tricky* ⟨informal⟩
difficult	*nice* ⟨informal⟩	*unpleasant*
easy	*pleasant*	

Unless there is ellipsis, we cannot omit the infinitive clause, and so there is no semantic implication between (say) *The bread was hard to bake* and *The bread was hard*. Unlike the preceding types, Type (v) permits *for* + subject to be inserted at the beginning of the infinitive clause: *Those darts are tricky (for a beginner) to use*. Where the infinitive has no overt subject, its implicit subject is understood to have an indefinite meaning:

Jack is easy to fool. = Jack is easy *for anyone* to fool.

Note With some adjectives in this group, such as *nice* or *unpleasant*, the entailment relation between *be* + adjective *to* V and *be* + adjective is less easy to avoid; *eg*: *Jenny is nice to know* implies that *Jenny is nice*.

[E5(vi)] *The food is ready to eat*

16.81 Again, in this type the subject of the main clause is identified with the object of the infinitive clause. But unlike Type (v), Type (vi) has no analogous construction with an infinitive clause subject:

The food is ready to eat. ~ *To eat the food is ready.

Also, we can generally (a) omit the infinitive clause, or (b) substitute a passive infinitive clause without change of meaning:

Are these cups available (to use)?
= Are these cups available (to be used)?

Some adjectives of this type, such as *available*, *fit*, *free*, *ready*, and *sufficient*, belong additionally to Type (iv), so that a sentence like *The lamb is ready to eat* is ambiguous, in one sense (the most accessible) being equivalent to the passive *The lamb is ready to be eaten*. Then there is a wider set of adjectives which often occur without complementation at all:

The air is *frosty* (to breathe).
Its fur is *soft* (to touch).

In both Type (v) and Type (vi), the subject of the main clause can be equated with the prepositional object of the infinitive clause, so that the infinitive clause ends with a deferred preposition:

She is pleasant *to talk to*. (~ It is pleasant to talk to her.)
This paper is terribly flimsy *to write on*.
Is the cloth sufficient *to make a dress out of*?

In Type (vi), as well as in Type (v), *for* + subject may be inserted before the infinitive verb: *Are these books free (for visitors) to borrow?* [= 'Are these books available . . . to borrow?'].

[E5(vii)] *It is important to be accurate*

16.82 We saw in 16.72 that a *that*-clause following an adjective may prove to be a subject postponed by extraposition (*cf* 18.33). A *to*-infinitive clause following an adjective may have the same source:

It is *essential* to spray the trees every year.
~ To spray the trees every year is *essential*.

The infinitive clause can also be introduced by *for* + subject:

It is *vital* (for the children) to be properly clad.
It will be *strange* (for us) to be living alone.

Adjectives of Types (ii) and (iii) in 16.72 ([E2b]) may have this construction: *important, fortunate, lucky, surprising*, etc. *Possible* also belongs to this group.

An additional group of adjectives occurring after anticipatory *it* are those adjectives (chiefly naming evaluative attributes of persons) which occur in pattern [E5(i)] (*cf* 16.76). The adjective in this group is often followed by an *of*-phrase identifying the person(s) being discussed:

It was *wrong* (of him) to tell lies. It is *nice* of you to phone.

[E6] Adjective complementation by an *-ing* participle clause

16.83 A number of sub-types of this pattern may be mentioned.

(i) *Busy* is followed by an *-ing* participle clause without subject:

Margery is *busy* writing letters.

(ii) *Worth* and *worthwhile*, on the other hand, occur both with and without subject:

It is scarcely *worth(while)* (*you/your*) going home.

Here *worth(while)* follows preparatory *it*, and the participle clause is an extraposed subject (*cf* 18.34). Other adjectives of this pattern are *pointless* and *useless* (*It's pointless buying so much food*), and adjectives of Type [E2b(iii)] (*cf* 16.72) also sometimes have this complementation: *absurd, awkward, fortunate, annoying*, etc.

(iii) Elsewhere *worth* and *worthwhile* accompany an *-ing* participle clause without subject, but with a passive meaning, comparable to that of the infinitive clause in pattern [E5(v)] (*cf* 16.80):

The cartons are *worth(while)* saving.
(~ It's *worth(while)* saving the cartons).

(iv) There is a variant construction in which a preposition occurs between the adjective and the participle clause. In some cases the preposition is optional (*cf* (i) above):

I'm *busy* (*with*) getting the house redecorated.
We're *fortunate* (*in*) having Aunt Mary as a baby-sitter.

In other cases, the preposition is obligatory:

We are *used to* not having a car (*cf* 16.69 Note [c]).
I'm *hopeless at* keeping the garden tidy.
She's not *capable of* looking after herself.

Note [a] The adjectival constructions in (ii) above may be compared, in some cases, with nominal constructions of equivalent meaning:
It's *no good/use* telling him anything.
There's *no point* (in) telling him anything.
Such constructions are introduced either by anticipatory *it* (*cf* 18.33) or by existential *there* (*cf* 18.45). AmE also has *There's no use telling him anything*.
[b] *Worthwhile* is sometimes spelled as two words. The vacillation between the spellings *worthwhile* and *worth while* reflects an unclarity about the status of this sequence, which may alternatively be regarded as the preposition *worth* (*cf* 9.6) followed by a noun. Compare:

It's not *worth* your *while* staying. It's not {*worth while* / *worthwhile*} (your) staying.

Complementation of abstract nouns

16.84 In this concluding section we will show, as a connecting link between this chapter and the next, how the patterns of complementation described for verbs and adjectives in 16.20–83 are also to be found with abstract nouns which are morphologically related to those verbs and adjectives. (*Cf* nominalization, 17.51*ff*, and appositional constructions, 17.26, 17.35.) For example, the noun *likelihood* is derived from, and semantically related to, the adjective *likely*. It is therefore not surprising that a construction associated with the adjective is found with the corresponding noun:

It is *likely* that Joan will get married. [1]

~ {The *likelihood* is that Joan will get married. [2]
the *likelihood* that Joan will get married [3]}

But the assumption of correspondence cannot be automatic, for it may fail in both directions:

Joan is *likely* to get married.
~ *Joan's *likelihood* to get married
*It is *likely* of Joan's getting married.
~ the *likelihood* of Joan's getting married

In the following section, we illustrate how many of these patterns can be matched with corresponding patterns of noun complementation. Some fairly regular changes, it will be observed, take place in the conversion from the verb or adjective patterns to their nominalizations (*cf* 17.51*ff*). For instance, a preposition must be inserted between a head noun and an immediately following noun phrase or adjective. The list begins with monotransitive patterns, because there are no nominalized forms of copular verb complementation. (Many of the noun complementation patterns, particularly in categories [C] and [D], are stylistically awkward.)

16.85 *Table* 16.85 Verb/adjective and noun complementation compared

	VERB/ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTATION	NOUN COMPLEMENTATION
[B1]	He *examined* the room.	his *examination* of the room
[B2]	Paul *lacks* confidence.	Paul's *lack* of confidence
[B2pr]	They *rely* on her.	their *reliance* on her
[B3]	I *predict* that it'll rain.	my *prediction* that it'll rain
[B4]	I *doubt* whether he will win.	my *doubt* (about) whether he will win
[B5]	We *enquired* (about) where to go.	our *enquiry* (about) where to go
[B6]	She *refused* to answer.	her *refusal* to answer
[B7]	He *denied* having taken it.	?his *denial* of having taken it (*cf*: his denial of the theft)
[B8]	X *needs* us to work harder.	the *need* for us to work harder
[B9]	She *resented* his/him losing.	her *resentment* of his/him losing
[C1pr]	They *elected* Joe (as) leader.	their *election* of Joe as leader
[C2pr]	X *certified* Max (as) insane.	the *certification* of Max as insane
[C3]	X *expelled* Sue from school.	the *expulsion* of Sue from school
[C4]	They *chose* Jim to be boss.	their *choice* of Jim to be boss
[C7]	We *got* her elected.	*our *getting* of her elected
[D1]	I *paid* him five pounds.	my *payment* to him of five pounds
[D2]	It *protected* Rio from attack.	the *protection* of Rio from attack
[D3]	X *warned* us that it would snow.	the *warning* to us that it would snow
[D3pr]	He *admitted* to me that he told lies.	his *admission* to me that he told lies
[D4]	X *reminded* us (of) who he was.	X's *reminder* to us of who he was
[D5]	X *advised us* (on) what to do.	the *advice* to us on what to do
[D6]	She *invited* me to stay.	her *invitation* to me to stay
[E1]	I was *impatient* with Freda.	my *impatience* with Freda
[E2]	It was *certain* that we would lose.	the *certainty* that we would lose
[E3]	I was *careful* (*over*) what to say.	my *care over* what to say
[E5]	Sam was *quick* to reply.	Sam's *quickness* to reply
[E6]	I was *lucky* meeting you.	my *luck* in meeting you

These structures with abstract nouns will be studied further in the next chapter.

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17 The noun phrase

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Introduction

The indefinitely complex noun phrase

17.1 Just as the sentence may be indefinitely complex, so may the noun phrase. This must be so, since sentences themselves can be reshaped so as to come within noun-phrase structure. For example, the following sentences [1a–e], simple and complex, can become one simple sentence [2] with a very complex noun phrase as subject:

The girl is Mary Smith. [1a]
The girl is tall. [1b]
The girl was standing in the corner. [1c]
You waved to the girl when you entered. [1d]
The girl became angry because you knocked over her glass. [1e]
The tall girl standing in the corner who became angry because you knocked over her glass after you waved to her when you entered is Mary Smith. [2]

Moreover, starting from [2], we could reconstruct any of the sentences listed in [1a–e] – and in fact we could not understand the noun-phrase subject (printed in italics) of [2], unless we recognized its constituent parts as they are set out in [1a–e].

Yet [2] has introduced many changes. We have, for example, suppressed all or part of the verbs in [1c] and [1d]; we have put *tall*, which is complement in [1b], as a modifier before the noun *girl*; we have replaced *the girl* of [1e] by *who*.

After describing determinatives and nouns in Chapter 5, the purpose of the present chapter is to state the conditions governing the making of noun phrases by processes such as those indicated above.

Noun-phrase constituents

17.2 In describing noun phrases we need to distinguish the following constituent parts:

(A) The HEAD, around which (for the most part) the other constituents cluster and which dictates concord with other parts of the sentence:

[The tall *girl* standing in the corner] is my sister.
[The tall *girls* standing in the corner] are my sisters.
[The tall *girl* in the corner $\left\{\begin{matrix} who \\ *which \end{matrix}\right\}$ has a blue sweater] is my sister.
I saw the tall girl in [the *corner* $\left\{\begin{matrix} which \\ *who \end{matrix}\right\}$ was full of people].

(B) The DETERMINATIVE, which includes

(a) predeterminers, *ie* all items which can precede any central determiner (including zero article) in a noun phrase, *eg*: *all, both, double* (*cf* 5.15*ff*):

all the furniture *both* those musicians

(b) central determiners, including those items listed in 5.11*ff*, *eg* the articles, *this, some*:

some new office furniture all *those* fine musicians

(c) postdeterminers, which follow central determiners but precede premodifiers, *eg* adjectives. Postdeterminers include *eg* numerals, *many, few, several* (*cf* 5.20*ff*):

the *many* new offices the *few* survivors

(C) The PREMODIFICATION, which comprises all the items placed before the head other than determinatives, notably adjectives (or, rather, adjective phrases, *cf* 7.20) and nouns:

some furniture
some *expensive* furniture
some *very expensive* furniture
some *very expensive office* furniture
some *very very expensive office* furniture

(D) The POSTMODIFICATION, comprising all the items placed after the head, notably:

prepositional phrases:	the car *outside the station*
nonfinite clauses:	the car *standing outside the station*
relative clauses:	the car *that stood outside the station*
complementation (*cf* 15.63*ff*):	a bigger car *than that*

Restrictive and nonrestrictive modification

17.3 Modification can be restrictive or nonrestrictive. The modification is RESTRICTIVE when the reference of the head is a member of a class which can be identified only through the modification that has been supplied. The girl in example [2] in 17.1 is only identifiable as Mary Smith provided we understand that it is the particular girl who is tall, who was standing in the corner, and who became angry. Such modification would not have been actually necessary unless there had been other girls present, tall but not in the corner, or in the corner but not tall, or who had not become angry. Restrictiveness, then, indicates a limitation on the possible reference of the head.

Alternatively, the referent of a noun phrase may be viewed as unique or as a member of a class that has been independently identified (for example in the preceding context). Any modification given to such a head is additional information which is not essential for identification, and we call it NONRESTRICTIVE. For example, the relative clause *who is in the corner* in [1] is nonrestrictive:

Mary Smith, *who is in the corner*, wants to meet you. [1]

By reason of being designated by a proper name, Mary Smith's identity is independent of whether or not she is in the corner (though the information on her present location may be useful enough). If a man says [2], the daughter is identified as being one out of two daughters in the family and also as younger than the other daughter:

Come and meet my *younger* daughter. [2]

[2] is thus an example of restrictive premodification. If, on the other hand, a

man (in a monogamous society) says [3], the premodifier *beautiful* is understood as nonrestrictive:

Come and meet my *beautiful* wife. [3]

Another example:

I don't want him to put his *ugly* nose into my house again. [4]

Sentences [1], [3], and [4] are inevitably nonrestrictive since – being treated as unique – *Mary Smith, wife,* and *nose*, in these sentences will not admit restriction. But almost any head that can be restrictively modified is also susceptible of nonrestrictive modification, *eg*:

The tall girl, *who is a dentist*, is Mary Smith. [5]

Here the only information offered to identify the girl as Mary Smith is the allusion to her tallness; the mention of her work as a dentist is not offered as an aid to identification but for additional interest.

Other nouns which have nonrestrictive postmodification include those with generic reference:

The giant panda, *which is to be found in the remote parts of China*, lives exclusively on bamboo shoots.

Note In popular narrative style, there is a nonrestrictive use of premodifying adjective in cases like the following (*cf* cleft sentences, 18.26 Note [b]):

Reporters hounded an *embarrassed* Ben Miles over his TV gaffe last week and in reply to one questioner the *unhappy* Miles made things still worse by . . .

17.4 The fact that nonrestrictive relative clauses are not essential for identification enables us in [1] and [1a] to make different parts of the sentence into a relative clause:

My brother, *who is an engineer*, lives in America. [1]
My brother, *who lives in America*, is an engineer. [1a]

Semantic equivalence is still preserved in [1] and [1a] (although there is a difference in focus). A nonrestrictive relative clause may resemble an adverbial clause (*cf* simultaneous meaning, 15.28), *eg*:

My brother, *who has lived in America for over 30 years*, can still speak Italian. [2]

In [2], the relative clause is grammatically optional, like any other nonrestrictive item, but semantically obligatory as the correlate of *still* in the superordinate clause. The relative clause here can be paraphrased as an adverbial clause [2a], with initial position (unlike the relative clause) [2b], or as an adverbial prepositional phrase [2c]:

My brother can still speak Italian, *although he has lived in America for over 30 years*. [2a]
Although he has lived in America for over 30 years, my brother can still speak Italian. [2b]
After over 30 years in America, my brother can still speak Italian. [2c]

The predications of the two clauses [2a] and [2b] are contrastive.

Nonrestrictive relative clauses may also imply other adverbial functions, such as cause ('because he had been very helpful', 'for being very helpful') in [3]:

Ann thanked her teacher, *who had been very helpful*. [3]

By contrast, restrictive relative clauses with general antecedents (*cf* 17.21) express conditional relationship, *eg*:

Students *who work hard* pass their exams. ['If students work hard, they pass their exams.']

17.5 Proper nouns cannot have restrictive modification when they have the normal unique denotation. However, when the proper noun temporarily takes on features of a common noun, restrictive modification is possible (*cf* 5.64):

the Springfield that is in Illinois [1]
the Johnson who wrote the dictionary [2]

Nor are restrictive relative clauses possible with nonnominal antecedents (*cf* 'sentential relative clauses', 17.9):

He likes dogs, which surprises me. [3]

Nonassertive heads cannot have nonrestrictive modification:

*I won't see {*any person*, *anyone*,} who has not made an appointment. [4]

By contrast, nonrestrictive modification is possible with assertive heads:

Someone, who sounded like your mother, called to say she wanted to see you. [5]

Nonspecific determiners like *any, all,* and *every* usually have only restrictive modification:

**Every book*, which is written to deceive the reader, should be banned. [6]
**All the students*, who had failed the test, wanted to try again. [7]

However we may occasionally find nonrestrictive as well as restrictive modification, as in:

All the students, who had returned from their vacation, wanted to take the exam. [8]

But positional variation of *all* is possible only with a nonrestrictive clause (*cf* 5.16, 6.50):

The students, who had all (*of them*) returned from their vacation, failed the test. [7a]
**The students who had all* (*of them*) failed the test wanted to try again. [8a]

17.6 We shall draw attention to the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive in the description of the modification types later on, but two general points may be of value now.

First, modification at its 'most restrictive' tends to come after the head:

Any person *who wishes to see me* must make an appointment.

By contrast, our decision to use an item as a premodifier (such as nonrestrictive *silly* in *a silly fool*) often reflects our wish that it be taken for granted and not be interpreted as a specific identifier.

Secondly, restrictive modification tends to be given more prosodic emphasis than the head, since there is a built-in contrast, as in (*cf* examples in 17.3):

Susan is my *ÈLDER* daughter.
John is my *LÀZY* son.

Nonrestrictive modification, on the other hand, tends to be unstressed in prehead position:

my *beautiful* WÌFE

In post-head position, its 'parenthetic' relation is endorsed by being given a separate tone unit (frequently with reduced prominence and narrow pitch range); or, in writing, by being enclosed by commas (*cf* 17.22).

Temporary and permanent modification

17.7 There is a second dichotomy that has some affinities with the distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive but rather more with the contrast of nonprogressive and progressive in predication (*cf* 4.25*ff*), or permanent and temporary in agential nouns (*cf* App I.34*f*). Modification in noun-phrase structure may also be seen as permanent or temporary (*cf* 7.21), such that items placed in premodification position are typically given the status of PERMANENT or, at any rate, characteristic features. Although this does not mean that postmodification position is committed to either temporariness or permanence, those adjectives which have to be predicative have a notably TEMPORARY reference. Thus [1] would be understood as [1a]:

the *courteous* man [1]
the man *who is courteous*
[*ie* 'normally and not merely at this moment'] [1a]

In contrast, [2] would be understood as having reference only to a specific time, and this corresponds to the nonoccurrence of [2a]:

The man is *ready*. [2]
*the *ready* man [2a]

(On the relevance of the distinction in determiners between indefinite and definite, *cf* 5.26*ff*.) On this basis, we see that timidity and fear are contrasted in part according as the first is seen as permanent [3], the second as temporary [4]:

a man *who is timid* ~ a *timid* man [3]
a man *who is afraid* ≁ *an *afraid* man [4]

Just as some modifiers are too strongly identified with temporary status to appear in prehead position, so there can be modification constrained to prehead position because it indicates permanent status. Thus the toe which is characteristically (and permanently) big in relation to the rest is called *the big toe*, and we cannot say of it **The toe is big* without destroying this permanent characteristic and making the expression seem to refer only (for example) to a temporary swelling. Compare also *the original* ['first, earliest'] *version* beside *His work is quite original* ['of a new type'], which would permit adverbial indication of time span (*now, always*, etc; *cf* 7.87).

The explicitness of postmodification

17.8 In general, premodification is to be interpreted (and, most frequently, can only be interpreted) in terms of postmodification and its greater explicitness. That is, *some tall college girls* will be interpreted as 'some girls who are tall and who are (studying) at a college'. The premodified noun phrase [1] may include, for example, all of the relations which are explicit in the postmodified noun phrases [1a–e]:

an *oil* man [1]
a man *who sells oil* [1a]
a man *who delivers oil* [1b]
a man *who produces oil* [1c]
a man *who investigates oil* [1d]
a man *who advocates the use of oil* [1e]

What normally happens, as in the case of *big toe* (in 17.7) and *oil man* [1], is that ambiguity does not arise since one sense is selected in a specific context (*cf* lexicalization, App I.9*ff*). Thus, for example, the question 'Will the oil man call today?' will normally carry only one interpretation in any given context.

Explicitness in postmodification varies considerably, however. It is greater in the finite relative clause [2] than in the nonfinite *-ing* clause [2a], from which the explicit tense (*is*?/*was*?) is absent, though this in turn is more explicit than the prepositional phrase [2b], from which the verb indicating a specific posture is absent:

the girl *who was standing in the corner* [2]
the girl *standing in the corner* [2a]
the girl *in the corner* [2b]

Reduction in explicitness in the noun phrase is closely related to the linguistic and situational context. There is, typically, a progression from 'more explicit' to 'less explicit' in a discourse. One instance of such sequential and gradual reduction from sentence [3], via relative clause [3a], via prepositional phrase [3b], to pro-form [3c], can be seen in Anthony Burgess's novel *Inside Mr Enderby*. When flying to Rome, the main character of the novel is warned by an American passenger:

'Your ticket does not entitle you to undisputed monopolization of the john.' [*ie* the lavatory] [3]

The fellow passenger who issued this warning is subsequently referred to as:

the American who had ousted Enderby from the john [3a]

to be further reduced to:

the American from the john [3b]

and finally:

an American, not *the john one*, poised his camera to shoot [3c]

The order of presentation in this chapter will be from most explicit to least explicit. We therefore start with the most explicit type of noun-phrase modification, *ie* postmodification by finite clause.

Postmodification by finite clauses

Types of postmodifying finite clauses

17.9 We distinguish two major types of finite clauses as noun-phrase postmodifiers, RELATIVE clauses [1] and APPOSITIVE clauses [2]:

The news *that appeared in the papers this morning* was well received. [1]
The news *that the team had won* calls for a celebration. [2]

Although superficially similar, the difference between these two types of finite clause becomes apparent, for example if we try to replace *that* by *which* in the two examples:

The news *which appeared in the papers this morning* was well received. [1a]
*The news *which the team had won* calls for a celebration. [2a]

Thus *that* is not replaceable by a *wh*-pronoun in appositive clauses, as it is in relative clauses. More significantly from a general point of view, *that* in [2] has no function as clause element within the *that*-clause, as it has in relative clause structure. Thus in [1], the relative pronoun is subject; in [1b] it is object:

The news *which we saw in the papers this morning* was well received. [1b]

Appositive clauses will be further discussed in 17.26*f*. The type of relative clause represented by [1] is called an ADNOMINAL relative clause, and will be discussed below.

In addition to adnominal relative clauses, we distinguish NOMINAL relative clauses, as in [3], and SENTENTIAL relative clauses, as in [4]:

What surprises me is that they are fond of snakes and lizards. [3]
They are fond of snakes and lizards, *which surprises me*. [4]

Nominal relative clauses are unique among relative clauses in that they 'contain' their antecedents. They are discussed, with other nominal dependent clauses, in 15.8*f*.

In sentential relative clauses, the antecedent is not nominal but clausal, *ie* in [4] the whole clause *They are fond of snakes and lizards* is postmodified by *which surprises me*. That this is so can be seen in the choice of singular verb concord (*surprises*). The sentential relative clause has affinities with, on the one hand, nominal relative clauses, and, on the other hand, with coordinate clauses (*cf* 13.50*f*):

They are fond of snakes and lizards, *and that surprises me*. [4a]

The adnominal relative clause is the central type of relative clause, and, unless indicated otherwise, 'relative clause' here means 'adnominal relative clause'. Within such relative clauses we make a distinction between restrictive [5] and nonrestrictive [6] (*cf* 17.3*ff*):

Snakes *which are poisonous* should be avoided. [5]
Rattlesnakes, *which are poisonous*, should be avoided. [6]

Among those two types, the restrictive is the more common, and will be treated before the nonrestrictive.

Characteristics of relative clauses

17.10 Part of the explicitness of relative clauses lies in the specifying power of the relative pronoun. It may be capable of

(i) showing concord with its antecedent, *ie* the preceding part of the noun phrase of which the relative clause is a postmodifier [external relation];

and

(ii) indicating its function within the relative clause either as an element of clause structure (S, O, C, A), or as a constituent of an element in the relative clause [internal relation].

Gender concord

17.11 Concord is on the basis of a two-term 'gender' system, personal and nonpersonal (*cf* 5.105*ff*, 6.8*f*), and applies only to the *wh*-series:

Joan, *who* . . .	London, *which* . . .
the boy/people *who* . . .	the fox/animals *which* . . .
the human being *who* . . .	the human body *which* . . .
the fairy *who* . . .	the unicorn *which* . . .

It will be seen from these examples that 'personality' is ascribed basically to human beings but extends to creatures in the supernatural world (angels, elves, etc) which are thought of as having human characteristics such as speech. Pet animals can be regarded as 'personal' (at least by their owners; *cf* 5.109*f*):

Rover, *who* was barking, frightened the children.

On the other hand, human babies can be regarded (though rarely perhaps by their parents) as not having developed personality:

This is the baby *which* needs inoculation.

Though ships may take the personal pronoun *she*, the relative pronoun is regularly nonpersonal (*cf* 5.111 Note):

Is {*it* / *she*} *the ship which* is due to leave for a Caribbean cruise tomorrow?

Collective nouns (*cf* 5.108) are normally treated as personal when they have plural concord (esp in BrE), and as nonpersonal when they have singular concord:

The committee {*who were* / *which was*} responsible for this decision . . .

The gender contrast is neutralized when the *wh*-series is replaced by *that* or a zero relative:

She must be *the nicest person that* ever lived.
That must be *the nicest thing that* ever happened.

With coordinated antecedents of mixed gender, the choice of relative pronoun may create a problem. It does not arise when zero relative is possible or when *that* is chosen, *eg*:

the people and things {she likes most / *that* amuse her most}

With *wh*-pronouns, the principle of proximity seems to be favoured (*cf* 10.35):

the people and things *which* / the things and people *who* } amuse her most

Which can have a personal noun as its antecedent when the relative is a complement with the semantic role of characterization attribute (*cf* 10.20):

He imagined himself to be an artist, *which* he was not.

Note [a] Other nonhuman creatures besides pets may take *who* even in sentences where this involves an apparent clash with the neuter pronoun *it*; thus, from a recent work of nonfiction:
the chameleon *who* changes *its* colours
This is less likely however when the relative pronoun is object in its clause, as we see from the following examples on two successive pages of a work on zoology:
the black rhinoceroses *who* live in the park
the white rhinoceros *which* we saw in the wilds outside the park
On the factors involved in this difference, *cf* 17.16.
[b] It so happens that, in familiar speech, the word *character* can be used in the sense of 'person', and the word *personality* can be used for somebody who has achieved notoriety. In consequence, we may have not only [1] and [2] but also [1a] and [2a]:
Charles has a fine character *which* he inherits from his father. [1]
Smith has a strange personality *which* repels many people. [2]
Charles is a strange character *who* dislikes parties. ⟨familiar⟩ [1a]
Smith is now a famous personality *who* is often interviewed on television. [2a]

17.12 The nominal relative clause is common with definite nonpersonal reference (though with a different pronoun from that used in adnominal relative clauses; *cf* 15.8*f*, 6.35 Note [b]): *what, whatever, whichever*.

What is most highly valued in the tribe is valour. [1]

This is *what I can't understand*. [2]
She'll do *whatever you say*. [3]
Choose *whichever you like best*. [4]

In the case of definite personal reference, the only pronoun is *whoever*:

{**Who* / *Whoever*} helped me has gone. [5]

A personal pronoun + a relative pronoun, on the other hand, is possible only in archaic or very formal contexts:

He who made this possible deserves our gratitude. [6]

It is more acceptable if *he* has generic reference, as in [7], which however also sounds archaic:

He who helps the handicapped deserves our support. [7]

The normal expressions are [7a] and [7b]:

{*Anyone* / *Anybody*} *who* helps the handicapped deserves our support. [7a]
Those who help the handicapped deserve our support. [7b]

Replacement is impossible with plural **they who/which*, and also with singular **it which*:

{*What* / **It which*} I can't understand is this: . . . [2a]

That is acceptable with *which* only in very formal style:

That which is most highly valued in the tribe is valour. [1a]

Note In relation to **it which* . . ., there is a similar constraint on postmodification by some other structures:
?He in the corner is my new boss. [8]
**It in the corner* is an antique. [8a]
Postmodification following *you* is possible in informal and peremptory vocatives (*cf* 10.53):
You in the corner, stop chattering! [8b]

Restrictive relative clauses

17.13 The choice of relative pronoun is dependent, in particular, on the following three factors:

(a) the relation of the relative clause to its antecedent: restrictive [1] or nonrestrictive [2], *eg*:
The woman *who is approaching us* seems to be somebody I know. [1]
The Bible, *which has been retranslated*, remains a bestseller. [2]

(b) the gender type of the antecedent: personal [3] or nonpersonal [4] (*cf* 17.11*f*), *eg*:
the person *who* I was visiting [3]
the book *which* I was reading [4]

(c) the function of the relative pronoun as subject, object, complement, or adverbial (including its role as prepositional complement) or as a constituent of an element in the relative clause, *ie* as a determiner (*in whose house*; *cf* 17.14).

In the following discussion of choice of relative pronoun, we will first make a division into restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses, and then consider other factors, such as medial or final position of the relative clause in relation to the superordinate clause, and length of the relative clause.

The set of relative pronouns has been given in 6.32*ff*. It is in the nonrestrictive relative clauses that the most explicit forms of relative pronoun, *ie* the *wh*-series (*who, whom, which, whose*) are typically used (*cf* 17.22). In restrictive clauses, frequent use is made of the *wh*-pronouns and also *that* or 'zero' relative. *That* differs from the *wh*-series:

(a) in not having gender marking and thus being independent of the personal or nonpersonal character of the antecedent;
(b) in not having an objective form (like *who*/*whom*);
(c) in not having a genitive (like *whose* of *who* and *which*), thus not being able to function as a constituent of an element in the relative clause.

17.14 In restrictive relative clauses, the pronouns given in the survey below are used. When we indicate a parenthesized relative pronoun, it means that there is the option between *that*-relative and 'zero':

This is the book (*that*) I bought at the sale.

When we use parentheses only '( )', this is to indicate 'zero':

This is the book ( ) I bought at the sale.

S, O, C, A in the survey below means that the relative pronoun functions respectively as subject, object, complement, and adverbial (or complement in a prepositional phrase functioning as adverbial) in the relative clause with personal and nonpersonal antecedents:

S: They are delighted with { the person { *who* / *that* / *( ) } has been appointed. / the book { *which* / *that* / *( ) } has just appeared. }

O: They are delighted with { the person { *who(m)* / *that* / ( ) } we have appointed. / the book { *which* / *that* / ( ) } she has written. }

C: She is the perfect accountant { *which* / **who* / **that* } her predecessor was not.

C: This is not the type of modern house { *which* / **that* / *( ) } my own is.

A: He is the policeman { *at whom* the burglar fired the gun. / *who(m)* / *that* / ( ) } the burglar fired the gun *at*.

A: She arrived the day { *on which* I was ill. / *that* / ( ) } I was ill (*on*).

A: I make cakes the way { *in which* / *that* / ( ) } my mother made them.

With a personal antecedent, the relative pronoun can show the distinction between *who* and *whom*, depending on its role as subject of the relative clause, or as object, or as prepositional complement:

the person	*who* spoke to him	[subject]	[1]
	to whom he spoke	[prepositional complement]	[2]
	who(m) he spoke *to*	[prepositional complement]	[2a]
	who(m) he met	[object]	[3]

When the governing preposition precedes its complement, as in the rather formal [2], the choice of *whom* is obligatory. When it does not, as in [2a], or when the relative pronoun is the object of the verb, as in [3], there is some choice between *who* or *whom*: the latter is preferred in formal English, the former is preferred in informal use, where however the zero form is by far the most common.

If the pronoun is a possessive determiner of the noun phrase, the form is *whose*:

The woman *whose daughter* you met is Mrs Brown. ['The woman is Mrs Brown; you met her daughter.'] [4]
The house *whose roof* was damaged has now been repaired. ['The house has now been repaired; its roof was damaged.'] [5]

In cases like [5] where the antecedent is nonpersonal, there is some tendency to avoid the use of *whose* (presumably because many regard it as the genitive only of the personal *who*), but avoidance involves stylistic difficulty. There is the stiffly formal and cumbersome *of which*:

The house *the roof of which* was damaged . . . [5a]

Other variants are clumsy or unacceptable in standard English:

?The house *that* they damaged *the roof of* . . . [5b]
*The house *that the roof* was damaged *of* . . . [5c]

Satisfactory alternatives can however be found, such as [5d], or even [5e]:

The house *that had its roof damaged* . . . [5d]
The house *with the damaged roof* . . . [5e]

In any case, in some fields of discourse such as mathematics, no evasion is felt to be necessary:

Let ABC be a triangle *whose sides* are of unequal length. [6]

The *of which* construction is sometimes placed before its head (like *whose*). Thus we have [7] besides the more usual [7a] and [7b]:

The investigation { *of which the results* will soon be published . . . [7]
the results of which will soon be published . . . [7a]
whose results will soon be published . . . [7b] }

Relative pronoun as subject and object

17.15 When the antecedent is personal and the pronoun is the subject of the relative clause, *who* is favoured, irrespective of the style and the occasion; thus [1] rather than [1a], though there is nothing wrong or odd about the latter:

People *who* live in new houses . . . [1]
People *that* live in new houses . . . [1a]

Zero cannot replace the subject in a relative clause such as [2] and [3]:

*The table ( ) stands in the corner has a broken leg. [2]
*The man ( ) stands over there I know. [3]

However, constructions are encountered that are arguably exceptions; for example, in very informal speech where the antecedent is an indefinite pronoun:

?Anybody ( ) does that ought to be locked up. [4]

The reason for putting a question mark in [4] is, first, that it is of doubtful acceptability; secondly, that many speakers would condemn it as slovenly; thirdly, that it may result from the subaudibility of a relative pronoun *who* or *that* and thus not strictly be zero at all.

A commoner type of example is to be found in existential and cleft sentences (*cf* 18.44*ff*, 18.25*ff*):

There's a table ( ) stands in the corner. [5]
It's Simon ( ) did it. [6]

Sentences [5] and [6] would again be very colloquial, and the use of *that* or a *wh*-item would be regarded as more acceptable:

There's a table { *that* / *which* } stands in the corner. [5a]

It was Simon { *that* / *who* } did it. [6a]

However, there are good reasons for distinguishing such *that*/*which*-clauses from adnominal relative clauses. The obligatory nature of such portions of existential or cleft sentences would argue against our equating them with postmodifications in noun-phrase structure (*cf* 18.48).

That as subject and *that* or zero as object are preferred to *which* when the antecedent is nonpersonal *all, anything, everything, nothing, little*, or *much*:

All / Anything / Everything } { *that* strikes you as odd . . .
(*that*) you find odd . . . }

There was *little that* ['not much that'] interested him at the motor show.
Much that ['much of what'] has been said tonight will soon be forgotten.

When the antecedent is modified by a superlative or by one of the post-determiners *first, last, next, only*, the relative pronoun as subject is usually *that*, and, as object, *that* or zero rather than *which* or *who*(*m*) (*cf* 5.22):

She must be one of the most remarkable women *that ever* lived.

They eat the finest food { *that* is available.
(*that*) money can buy. }

In such sentences, an alternative to a postmodifying copular relative clause with an adjective as complement is pre- or postposition of the adjective (*cf* 7.21):

They eat the finest { *available food.*
food available. }

Note [a] The pronunciation of *that* as a relative pronoun is generally reduced to /ðət/, whereas the demonstrative *that* (*cf* 6.40) has the full form /ðæt/.
[b] One reason why zero relative subject is unacceptable may be related to perception. In example [2], it is only when encountering the verb *has* (the seventh word in the sentence) that the reader/hearer can interpret this sequence as a relative construction, instead of an expected *SVA* structure ending with *corner*, as in [2a]:
The table stands in the corner. [2a]
Compare the situation with the acceptable zero construction of nonsubject function in [2b], where it is clear on reaching *you* (the third word) that *you* begins a new construction:
The table you see standing in the corner has a broken leg. [2b]

Relative pronoun as object and prepositional complement

17.16 With the antecedent still personal but with the pronoun now object of a verb or prepositional complement, there is a much stronger preference for *that* or zero, perhaps to avoid the choice between *who* and *whom*. Thus [1] rather than [1a]:

People (*that*) I { visit . . . / speak to . . . } [1]

People *who*(*m*) I { visit . . . / speak to . . . } [1a]

Again, there is nothing actually wrong about [1a]; but *whom* here would seem pedantic to many people, while *who* as object in relative clauses is informal and tends to be regarded as incorrect. Since, therefore, neither *who* nor *whom* is wholly satisfactory, *that* (and particularly zero) is frequently used despite a personal antecedent.

Avoidance of *whom* may not be the only factor influencing *that* as object with personal antecedent. Grammatical objects are more likely to be nonpersonal, or to carry nonpersonal implication, than subjects.

There are several other factors influencing the selection of a pronoun that is object or prepositional complement in the relative clause, especially when the antecedent is nonpersonal. One is the proximity of the relative clause to the head of the antecedent phrase; another is the degree of complexity of the subject of the antecedent phrase.

When complex phrases or clauses intervene between the antecedent head and the relative pronoun, *which* is generally preferable to *that* and very much preferable to zero:

I have [[*interests* outside my immediate work and its problems] *which* I find satisfying].

When the antecedent of the relative clause is no more complex than determiner + head, *that* is by many preferred to *which* and zero:

I'll take you to [the building [*that* all elderly university teachers prefer]].

On the other hand, when the subject of the relative clause is a personal pronoun, zero is preferred to either *which* or *that*, especially if the relative clause itself is fairly short and simple:

Who's drunk [the milk [( ) I bought]]?

Finally, other things being equal, more informal discourse will tend to have a preference for zero. In the following example from an informal conversation, the zero construction could not appropriately have been replaced by any of the other relative pronouns that are available in the system (*who*, *whom*, *that*):

You learn a lot about [authors [you didn't know too much about to start with]].

Relative pronoun as adverbial

17.17 When the relative pronoun is the complement of a preposition (and, together with the preposition functioning as A), some choice exists in placing a preposition which has a *wh*-pronoun as its complement. No such choice exists with *that*, where postposition with deferred preposition represents the sole pattern:

the lady { *towards whom* the dog ran / *who(m)* / *that* / ( ) } the dog ran *towards*

the table { *under which* the boy crawled / *which* / *that* / ( ) } the boy crawled *under*

The choice of relative clause structure involves stylistic distinctions. In general, it is certainly true that *wh*-pronouns with initial preposition are used predominantly in formal English:

The person *to whom* any complaints should be addressed is . . . [1]

Initial prepositions are normally avoided in more informal use, where they would be felt to be stilted or pompous. A deferred preposition is more generally used with prepositional verbs:

That's the book ( ) he's been looking *for*. [2]

But many prepositions (especially those dealing with temporal and other abstract relations) cannot easily be deferred (*cf* 9.6):

?That was the meeting (*that*) I kept falling asleep *during*. [3]

One might find [3a], but in familiar speech an adverbial relative with *when* or *where* (*cf* 17.18) would be preferred to *during which*:

That was the meeting *during which* I kept falling asleep. [3a]

Prepositions expressing spatial relations allow a deferred preposition even when the preposition is complex:

This is the house he stood *in front of*. [4]

However, clarity of expression would often influence us in the direction of a construction otherwise regarded as formal if a final preposition leads to clumsiness. Consider the following sentence:

It was in a book that a former teacher of mine thought of at one time presenting me with some quotations from. [5]

Hearing or reading it, we may successively have to reject the interpretations, first, that the former teacher thought of the book; second, that the teacher thought of presenting me with the book, before the belated *from* enables us to achieve the correct interpretation ('. . . *from which* a former teacher . . .').

A deferred preposition may be the only natural choice when there is coordination of one prepositional and one nonprepositional construction in the relative clause. Thus instead of the clumsy [6], zero relative and a deferred preposition would be far more natural, as in [6a]:

You should restrict yourself to words *with which* you are familiar and *which* you can use confidently. [6]

You should restrict yourself to words ( ) you are familiar *with* and can use confidently. [6a]

But note that [6a] requires subject ellipsis, since coordination with zero relatives is not fully acceptable:

?You should restrict yourself to words ( ) you are familiar *with* and ( ) you can use confidently. [6b]

17.18 In adverbial expressions of place, time, and cause, there is a wide range of choice in addition to what was stated in 17.17 for the relative pronoun as adverbial. The preposition + pronoun can be replaced by special adverbs (*cf* 7.53), *eg*:

That's *the place* { *in which* / *where* } she was born. [1]

That was *the period* { *during which* / *when* } she lived here. [2]

That's *the reason* { ?*for which* / *why* } she spoke. [3]

Note that *for which* in [3] has limited acceptability.

However, there are considerable and complicated restrictions on these *wh*-forms which operate in relative clauses expressing place, time, and cause. Many speakers find their use along with the corresponding antecedent somewhat tautologous – especially the type *the reason why* – and prefer the *wh*-clause without antecedent, *ie* a nominal relative clause (*cf* 15.8*f*):

Is this *where* she was born? [1a]
That was *when* she lived here. [2a]
That's *why* she spoke. [3a]

There is no relative *how* parallel to *where, when*, and *why* to express manner with an antecedent noun [4], but only [4a]:

*That's *the way how* she spoke. [4]

That's { *how* / *the way (that)* } she spoke. [4a]

The following patterns can be distinguished for time expressions in a sentence such as '. . . was Thursday'.

Pattern 1: antecedent + preposition + *wh*-pronoun:
the day on which she arrived

Pattern 2: antecedent + *wh*-pronoun + deferred preposition:
the day which she arrived *on*

Pattern 3: antecedent + *that* + deferred preposition:
the day that she arrived *on*

Pattern 4: antecedent + zero relative + deferred preposition:
the day she arrived *on*

Pattern 5: antecedent + *wh*-adverb:
the day when she arrived

Pattern 6: antecedent + zero relative + zero preposition:
the day she arrived

Pattern 7: antecedent + *that* + zero preposition:
the day that she arrived

Pattern 8: *wh*-clause without antecedent (*ie* a nominal relative clause, *cf* 15.8*f*):
when she arrived

17.19 There are also restrictions on the antecedent nouns. With relative clauses where the antecedent denotes cause or reason, *reason* is virtually the only possible antecedent; where the antecedents denote place and time, the most generic nouns (*place, period, time*, etc) also seem to be preferred. Thus pattern 5 is acceptable:

the office *where* he works

However, many would prefer alternative expressions (patterns 1, 2, 3, 4, where pattern 1 is most formal and pattern 4 least formal):

the office { *at which* he works [pattern 1] / *which* he works *at* [pattern 2] / *that* he works *at* [pattern 3] / ( ) *he works at* [pattern 4] }

the day { *on which* she was born [pattern 1] / *which* she was born *on* [pattern 2] / *that* she was born *on* [pattern 3] / ( ) *she was born on* [pattern 4] }

Place adjuncts in relative clauses admit of two further patterns: one with *where* and omission of the preposition (pattern 5), the other with the deferred preposition *at* (pattern 9):

the place { *where* she works [pattern 5] / ?*where* she works *at* [pattern 9] }

Pattern 5 is acceptable, whereas pattern 9 is of doubtful acceptability. It requires a fairly specific antecedent, *eg*:

the government building where she works *at*

With a general antecedent, such as *place*, we may find the following patterns, which however are not acceptable to all speakers:

(?)That's *the place* { *she stays* when she's in London. [1] / *she works.* [2] / *she studies.* [3] }

However, a final *at* (pattern 4) would be fully acceptable, at least in familiar usage:

That's *the place* { *she stays at* when she's in London. [1a] / *she works at.* [2a] / *she studies at.* [3a] }

With a generalized antecedent such as *way*, expressing direction, we usually have zero rather than *that*:

Was that *the way she went*? ['Was that where she went?']

17.20 In expressions of time, omission of the preposition is usual whether the pronoun is *that* or zero:

What's *the time* { (*that*) she normally arrives (*at*)? / *when* she normally arrives? / **when* she normally arrives *at*? }

What was *the day* (*that*) she left (*on*)?

When (less frequently and more formally) the pronoun is *which*, however, the preposition must be expressed in all three instances, and it would be usual to make it precede the pronoun (pattern 1):

5.30 is *the time at which* she normally arrives.
I don't remember *the day on which* she left.
He worked for the whole three months *during which* he lived there.

With expressions of manner and reason, the zero construction is usual (occasionally *that*), and there is no preposition (patterns 6 and 7):

That's *the way* (*that*) he did it. ['That's how he did it.'] [4]
Is this *the reason* (*that*) they came? ['Is this why they came?'] [5]

In more formal style, we might find pattern 1:

That's *the way in which* he did it. [4a]

The rare use of *for which* after *reason* strikes most people as clumsy and unnatural, while *the reason why* seems tautologous; there is general preference for zero [5a] or a nominal relative clause [5b]:

Is that { *the reason* they came? [5a] / *why* they came? [5b] }

However, after other nouns which express adverbial-related meanings similar to *reason* and *way*, no *that* or zero construction without preposition is possible. Thus not [6] and [7] but only [6a] and [7a]:

{ *This is *the style* he wrote it. [6] / This is *the style* he wrote it *in*. [6a] }

{ *Is this *the* { *cause* / *motive* } she came? [7] / Is this { *the cause of* / *motive for* } her coming? [7a] }

There is a tendency to favour *when* or *where* if the antecedent is already the complement of a prepositional phrase, *ie* [8] rather than [8a] (to avoid repetition of the preposition):

He died *on the day* { *when* his son arrived. [8] / *on which* his son arrived. [8a] }

Occasionally plural antecedents can be met with, as in:

It would be wise to leave doctors *ways* ( ) they could add personal touches to their treatment.

Note Constructions with time nouns + zero relative clause (*eg*: *The moment you do something* . . .) may be ambiguous up to a certain point in the sentence, in that the noun phrase can be either adverbial, as in [9], or subject, as in [10]:

The moment ( ) *you do something they disagree with* they are at your throat . . . [9]
The moment ( ) *you realize the importance of animal psychology* will be embarrassing to you. [10]

Type [9] is normal; type [10] seems to be rare when, as here, the subject is 'heavy', but compare [11]:

The day she arrived at the congress was sunny. [11]

Telescoped relative clauses

17.21 The distinction between restrictive and nonrestrictive is valuable, but we should be prepared to view it as a gradient rather than as a dichotomy between two homogeneous categories. One type of relative construction which demonstrates the need for this approach can be illustrated by the following example of TELESCOPED relative construction:

All this I gave up for *the mother who needed me*. [1]

In [1], *mother* may be seen as having an appositional relation to a noun phrase whose head is a general noun such as *person*, accompanied by a relative clause as postmodifier:

All this I gave up for *a person who needed me*, ie *my mother*. [1a]

Another example:

This book is about *a Bloomsbury I simply don't recognize*. ['about a place I simply don't recognize; but I ought to recognize because I know Bloomsbury and the book says it is Bloomsbury'] [2]

Nonrestrictive relative clauses

17.22 In nonrestrictive relative clauses, the most explicit forms of relative pronouns, *ie* the *wh*-series, are typically used. The relative pronoun can be subject, object, complement, or adverbial. Here is a survey of the different forms for personal and nonpersonal antecedents:

S: I spoke to Dr Spolsky, { *who* / **that* / *( ) } was unwilling to give further details.

S: This excellent book, { *which* / ?**that* / *( ) } has only just been reviewed, was published a year ago.

O: I spoke to Dr Spolsky, { *whom* / ?*who* / **that* / *( ) } I met after the inquest.

O: This excellent book, { *which* / ?**that* / *( ) } Freda has only just received for review, was published a year ago.

C: Anna is a vegetarian, { *which* / **who* / **that* / **( )* } no one else is in our family.

C: She wants low-calorie food, { *which* / **that* / **( )* } this vegetable curry certainly is.

A: This is a new type of word processor,
{ *about which* there has been so much publicity. / *which* / **that* / **( )* } there has been so much publicity *about*.

As can be seen, the choice of pronouns is restricted to *who(m)* and *which*. Nonsubject *who* is thought by many to be more objectionable in nonrestrictive than in restrictive clauses (*cf* 17.14). Zero cannot occur, and *that* is very rare.

With nonrestrictive relative clauses, we usually have a tone unit boundary, often accompanied by a pause, before the relative clause; and, often, a repetition at the end of the relative clause of the nuclear tone of the tone unit preceding the relative clause. In writing, nonrestrictive relationship is usually marked off by commas (*cf* App III.19). Compare:

WRITTEN: Then he met Mary, *who invited him to a party*.
SPOKEN: Then he |met MÀRy| – *who in|vited him to a PÀRty*|

By contrast, with restrictive relative clauses, there is usually no tone unit boundary or pause before the relative clause; nor in writing is the relative clause separated by a comma from what precedes. Compare:

WRITTEN: That's the girl (*that*) *he met at the party*.
SPOKEN: |That's the girl (*that*) *he met at the PÀRty*|

It must be emphasized that these are typical rather than obligatory prosodic features. The following example is exceptional in having a prosodic boundary before the relative clause though it is unquestionably restrictive:

but in the |LÒNG RÚN| – |these are FÒRces| that will |ÙLtimately| – |win suppÒRT| from the ma|jority of the people in this CÒUNtry|

17.23 Nonrestrictive relationship is often semantically very similar to coordination, with or without conjunction (*cf* 13.1*ff*), or adverbial subordination (*cf* 15.17*ff*). Both types are indicated by paraphrases in the following examples:

Then he met Mary { , *who* invited him to a party. [1] / , *and she* invited him to a party. [1a] / ; she invited *him* to a party. [1b] }

Here is John Smith { , *who(m)* I mentioned the other day. [2] / ; I mentioned *him* the other day. [2a] / , *who(m)* I talked *about* the other day. [2b] / ; I talked about *him* the other day. [2c] }

He got lost on Snowdon { , *which* was enveloped in fog. [3] / ; *it* was enveloped in fog. [3a] / , *when it* was enveloped in fog. [3b] }

She read a paper on lampreys { , *which* she has studied. [4] / ; she has studied *them*. [4a] / , *which* she has done research *on*. [4b] / , *on which* she has done research. [4c] / ; she has done research on *them*. [4d] }

My brother, *who* has lived in America since boyhood, can still speak fluent Italian. [5]

My brother can still speak fluent Italian, *and he* has lived in America since boyhood. [5a]

My brother can still speak Italian *although he* has lived in America since boyhood. [5b]

Note A nonrestrictive interpretation is occasionally introduced by *that* when a premodifier or determiner would make a restrictive clause absurd, but when *which*, on the other hand, might imply too parenthetic a relation:

I looked at *Mary's sad face, that* I had once so passionately loved. [6]

In [6] we seem to have an elliptical form of an appositive expression:

I looked at *Mary's sad face, a face that* I had once so passionately loved. [6a]

Here the appositive *a face* justifies the restrictive clause that follows.

Usually the use of nonrestrictive *that* shows that a writer has muddled what he has wanted to set down, as in the following example from a serious article:

One of the most important recent developments in neutral hydrogen studies of our Galaxy has been the discovery of high velocities in the centre and in regions away from the plane, *that* I have mentioned.

Despite the comma – and the corresponding prosodic separation if this is read aloud (a separation that is essential if *plane* were not to be thought the antecedent head) – it seems likely that the writer originally wanted the relative clause to be restrictive, as it could readily have been if placed earlier:

. . . has been *the discovery that* I have mentioned of high velocities . . .

However, this position of the relative clause violates the rule that prepositional phrases precede relative clauses as postmodifiers, producing a rhetorically unacceptable sentence (*cf* 18.39*f*).

17.24 Where the relative pronoun is a determinative in a noun phrase, there is again less choice than in restrictive clauses. Expressions with *which* tend to be uncommon except in formally precise writing. The preposition usually precedes *which*, and explicitness often extends to completion of the prepositional phrase by a general noun, locative or temporal, as the case may be (making *which* a relative determiner, *cf* 5.14):

In 1960 he came to London, *in which city* he has lived ever since. [1]

He came in 1960, { *at which time* / *in which year* } there was . . . [2]

More commonly, we find *where* or *when* instead of the *which* expression:

. . . to London, *where* . . . [1a]
. . . in 1960, *when* . . . [2a]

This is a point at which there is little distinction between adnominal relative

clauses and adverbial clauses of place and time in complex sentence structure (*cf* 15.25*ff*).

Note the possible variations in word order with *of*-pronouns (*some, each, all, both*, etc; *cf* 6.48*ff*):

There are two schools here, { *both of which* / *of which both* } are good.

There are several schools here, { *all/some of which* I can recommend. / *of which* I can recommend *all/some*. }

For *both* there is also the possibility of the order *which are both good* (but hardly ?**which I can all recommend*).

Note also the use of the construction with *of*-pronouns when they modify the complement of a preposition:

The hospital admitted several patients that month,
{ *for all of whom* chemotherapy was the appropriate treatment.
**of whom* chemotherapy was the appropriate treatment *for all*.
**whom* chemotherapy was the appropriate treatment *for all of*. }

Relative pronoun as complement

17.25 When the relative pronoun functions as nonprepositional complement in the relative clause, the choice is limited to *which* for both personal and nonpersonal antecedents, in both restrictive clauses (*cf* 17.14) and nonrestrictive clauses (*cf* 17.22):

He is a teetotaller, *which* I am not.
This is a powerful car, *which* my last car was not.

Appositive clauses

17.26 The remaining type of finite verb clause that plays a part in postmodification is the appositive (*cf* 17.35, 17.65*ff*). This resembles the restrictive relative clause in being capable of introduction by the unstressed *that* /ðət/:

She objected to *the fact that a reply had not been sent earlier*. [restrictive appositive clause]

The appositive clause differs from the relative clause in that

(i) the particle *that* is not an element in the clause structure (functioning as subject, object, etc, as it must in a relative clause) but a conjunction, as is the case in nominal *that*-clauses generally;

(ii) the nonrestrictive appositive clause has the same introductory item as the restrictive, *ie*: *that* (*cf* 17.33):

She rejected *their excuses*, even this last one, *that* investigations had taken several weeks. [nonrestrictive]

(iii) the head of the noun phrase must be a general abstract noun such as *fact, idea, proposition, reply, remark, answer*, and the like (*cf* 16.84):

The fact that he wrote a letter to her suggests that he knew her. [1]
The belief that no one is infallible is well-founded. [2]

I agree with *the old saying that absence makes the heart grow fonder*. [3]
He heard *the news that his team had won*. [4]

As with apposition generally (*cf* 17.65*ff*), we can link the apposed units with *be* (where the copula typically has nuclear prominence):

The |fact *is*| that he |wrote a LÈTter to her| [1a]
The belief *is* that no one is infallible. [2a]
The old saying *is* that absence makes the heart grow fonder. [3a]
The news *was* that his team had won. [4a]

We should also note that nouns like *belief* with *that*-clauses correspond to verbs with object clauses (*cf* 16.30*ff*):

He *believes that no one is infallible*. [2b]

With both restrictive and nonrestrictive appositive clauses, an antecedent noun is often a nominalization (*cf* 17.51*ff*):

The police reported that the drugs had been found. [5]
The police report that the drugs had been found (appeared in the press yesterday). [5a]

These restrictive examples have the definite article before the head noun. This is normal, but by no means invariable (except with a few nouns referring to certainty, especially *fact*):

A message that he would be late arrived by special delivery. [6]
The union will resist *any proposal that Mr Johnson should be dismissed*. [7]
Stories that the house was haunted angered the owner. [8]

Plural heads, as in [8], are also rare with appositive postmodification, and are usually regarded as unacceptable with *belief, fact, possibility*, etc. We may contrast [9] with the perfectly acceptable plural head with relative clause postmodification [9a]:

?Her mother was worried at *the possibilities that her daughter was lazy and (that she) disliked school*. [9]
The possibilities that she was now offered seemed very attractive. [9a]

However, we occasionally find examples of plural nouns with appositive postmodification, such as *facts* in the following:

The reason probably lies in *the facts that* the Intelligence Service is rather despised, *that* the individual members change rapidly and are therefore inexperienced, and *that* they feel bound to put their own special interests first.

We have seen in 16.70 that certain verbs with *that*-clauses have a construction with putative *should* or with a mandative subjunctive, *eg*:

They *recommended that she (should) be promoted*. [10]

When such verbs are nominalized (*cf* 17.51*ff*), the object clause becomes an appositive clause, retaining the putative *should* or the mandative subjunctive:

There was *a recommendation that she (should) be promoted.* [10a]

The nominalized verb may be separated from the appositive clause under the conditions for discontinuous noun phrases (*cf* 17.122, 18.39):

The suggestion that the new rule (should) be adopted came from the chairman. [11]
The suggestion came from the chairman *that the new rule (should) be adopted.* [11a]

17.27 Despite the limited number of noun head types that may be postmodified by an appositive clause, the superficial similarity to relative clause postmodification can sometimes cause momentary difficulty. Total ambiguity, however, is rare since so many factors of selection have to be involved before anything like [1] can occur:

A report *that he stole* was ultimately sent to the police. [1]

The two interpretations ('he stole a report' or 'the report was that he stole') depend upon the possibility that *a report* can be a physical object or an abstraction (that is, nominalizing the verb *report*); upon *steal* being permissibly transitive or intransitive; and several other factors: *made* in place of *sent*, for example, would prevent the ambiguity (though it might not prevent the hearer or reader from having temporary difficulty).

Nonrestrictive appositive clauses like [2] can less easily resemble relative clauses since, irrespective of nonrestrictiveness, they still involve the particle *that*, in sharp contrast with nonrestrictive relative clauses:

This last fact, (namely) that *that* is obligatory, should be easy to remember. [2]

In illustrating the previous point, example [2] also illustrates the next point, (namely) that appositive indicators *namely* or *viz* can be optionally introduced in the nonrestrictive appositions, as can *that is* (*to say*) or *ie* (*cf* 17.73). It also illustrates the fact that with this type of clause, the antecedent head noun may be freely premodified by adjectives and with a choice of determiners. It will be recalled that, with restrictive appositives, *the* was obligatory before *fact*, and it may now be added that the only adjectives admissible would be nonrestrictive in scope (*cf* 17.3*ff*). Contrast [3], where the restrictive clause permits only the nonrestrictive adjective, with [3a], where the nonrestrictive clause permits a restrictive adjective:

The ugly fact that he was holding a gun indicated his guilt. [3]
The more relevant fact, that the gun had not been fired, was curiously ignored. [3a]

Note The nonrestrictive apposition may be closely related to a nonrestrictive relative clause (*cf* appositive *wh*-interrogative clauses, 15.5). Compare:

His last request, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{which was}\\ \textit{(ie)}\\ \textit{(viz)}\end{array}\right\}$ that his wife should come and visit him, was never granted.

Postmodification by nonfinite clauses

Postmodification by *-ing* participle clauses

17.28 Postmodification of the noun phrase is possible with all three of the nonfinite clause types: *-ing* participle, *-ed* participle, and infinitive clauses. The correspondence between *-ing* clauses and relative clauses is limited to those relative clauses in which the relative pronoun is subject:

The person *who* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{will write}\\ \textit{will be writing}\\ \textit{writes}\\ \textit{is writing}\\ \textit{wrote}\\ \textit{was writing}\end{array}\right\}$ *reports* is my colleague. [1]

The person *writing reports* is my colleague. [1a]

The nonfinite clause *writing reports* in [1a] may be interpreted, according to the context, as equivalent to one of the more explicit versions in [1]. Other examples of postmodifying *-ing* clauses:

The dog *barking next door* sounded like a terrier. ['which *was barking* next door']
A tile *falling from a roof* shattered into fragments at his feet. ['which *fell* from a roof']
You should look for a man *carrying a large umbrella.* ['who *will be carrying* a large umbrella']

It must be emphasized that *-ing* forms in postmodifying clauses should not be seen as abbreviated progressive forms in relative clauses. Stative verbs, for instance, which cannot have the progressive in the finite verb phrase, can appear in participial form (*cf* 4.4, 14.19):

This is a liquid with a taste *resembling* that of soapy water. ['which resembles'; *not*: '*which is resembling'] [2]
It was a mixture *consisting* of oil and vinegar. ['that consisted of'; *not*: '*that was consisting of'] [3]

In all instances, the antecedent head corresponds to the implicit subject of the nonfinite clause. There is no nonfinite postmodifier, therefore, corresponding directly to the relative clause in [1b], without recourse to the passive [1c]:

Reports *that my colleague is writing* will be discussed tomorrow. [1b]
Reports *being written by my colleague* will be discussed tomorrow. [1c]

There are sharp constraints upon aspect expression in the participle clauses used in postmodification. We have just noted that *resembling* in [2] (*a taste resembling that of soapy water*) obviously could not represent the progressive, and the neutralization of the aspectual contrast can further be seen in [4] in contrast with [4a]:

the man $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{who works}\\ \textit{who is working}\end{array}\right\}$ behind the desk [4]

the man { *working* / *being working } behind the desk [4a]

On the loss of this aspectual distinction in nonfinite verb phrases, *cf* 3.56. Similarly the perfective aspect cannot usually be expressed in the nonfinite clause. Compare [5] and [5a]:

The man *who has won the race* is my brother. [5]
?*The man *having won the race* is my brother. [5a]

However, in a structure with an indefinite noun phrase as head, as in [6], perfective aspect is more acceptable:

?Any person or persons *having witnessed the attack* is under suspicion. [6]

The tense to be attributed to the *-ing* clause will usually be that of the finite clause in which the noun phrase occurs, especially if the noun phrase is object:

Do you know *the man talking to my sister*? ['who is talking to my sister']
Did you know *the man talking to my sister*? ['who was talking to my sister']

The tense of the nonfinite clause can also be inferred from the context:

The man sitting next to her (now) was speaking on the radio (last night). ['who is sitting'] [7]

In a sentence like [7], the tense of the *-ing* clause would be assumed to be the present tense [8], unless the context suggests otherwise, as in [8a]:

the man sitting next { *to her* ['who is sitting'] [8] / *to her* on that occasion ['who was sitting'] [8a] }

In [9], the past tense *was* indicates the tense of *being questioned* and does not mean that he was no longer my brother, *ie* [9] = [9a]:

The man *being questioned* by the police *was* my brother. [9]
The man *that was* (*being*) *questioned* by the police *is* my brother. [9a]

Note In some cases, *-ing* participles occur in frozen expressions with no relative clause alternative, *eg*: *for the time being* (*not*: '*for the time that is').

Postmodification by *-ed* participle clauses

17.29 As with *-ing* clauses, there is correspondence only with relative clauses that have the relative pronoun as subject. The nonfinite *-ed* participle clause in [1] can be related to the finite relative clauses in [1a]:

The car (*being*) *repaired* by that mechanic . . . [1]
The car *that* { *will be repaired* / *is* (*being*) *repaired* / *was* (*being*) *repaired* } by that mechanic . . . [1a]

The *-ed* participle clause [1] will be interpreted, according to the context, as equivalent to one of the finite clauses in [1a]. Thus:

The car { *being repaired* by that mechanic now . . . / *repaired* by that mechanic when it breaks down . . . / *repaired* by that mechanic before he left . . . }

Other examples:

A report *written by my colleague* appeared last week. ['that *was/has been* written . . .'] [2]
Any coins *found on this site* must be handed to the police. ['that *are found* . . .' or, more precisely, 'that *may be found* . . .'] [3]

The antecedent is always identical with the implied subject of the *-ed* postmodifying clause, as it is with the *-ing* construction. Also, postmodifying *-ed* and *-ing* participle clauses are both usually restrictive (but *cf* 17.34*f*). However, in the case of the *-ed* construction, the participle concerned is as firmly linked with the passive voice as that in the *-ing* construction is linked with the active. Since *-ed* participles can never be passive with intransitive verbs, there is no *-ed* postmodifier [4a] corresponding exactly to the relative clause in [4]:

The train *which has arrived at platform 1* is from York. [4]
?*The train *arrived at platform 1* is from York. [4a]

Exceptions occur where the *-ed* participle is preceded by certain adverbs, as in:

The train *recently arrived at platform 1* is from York. [4b]
A man *just* { *gone to India* / *come from the meeting* } told me about it. [5]

This phenomenon is related to our ability also to premodify nouns with participles which, unless themselves premodified, can only postmodify.

There are constraints on aspectual expression in *-ed* postmodifying clauses, though they are not identical with those for *-ing* clauses. Unlike *-ing* clauses, *-ed* clauses can indicate progressive aspect. A progressive contrast is possible, as in [6a], which reflects the aspectual contrast in [6]:

The food *which* { *was/has been eaten* / *is being eaten* } was meant for tomorrow. [6]
The food { *eaten* / *being eaten* } was meant for tomorrow. [6a]

As with *-ing* clauses, there is usually no perfective aspect in *-ed* clauses:

The food *which has been eaten* }
?*The food *having been eaten* } was meant for tomorrow. [6b]

Postmodification by infinitive clauses

17.30 Unlike *-ing* and *-ed* clauses, infinitive clauses as postmodifiers in noun phrases allow correspondences with relative clauses where the relative pronoun can be not only subject, but also object or adverbial and, to a limited extent, complement:

S: The man *to help you* is Mr Johnson. ['who can help you'] [1]
O: The man (*for you*) *to see* is Mr Johnson. ['who(m) you should see'] [2]
C: The thing (*for you*) *to be* these days is a systems analyst. ['the thing that people will try to be these days is a systems analyst'; *cf* pseudo-cleft sentences 18.29*ff*] [3]
A: The time (*for you*) *to go* is July. ['at which you should go'] [4]
A: The place (*for you*) *to stay* is the university guest house. ['where you should stay'] [5]

Unlike [1], [2] can have an optional subject of the infinitive clause introduced by *for* (*cf* 14.6*f*). Without such a subject, the infinitive clause in [2] could be understood, according to context, as '(The man) that *you/he/everyone*, etc should see'.

Similarly, in [3–5] the subject of the infinitive may also be omitted. A less common and more formal alternative is then to introduce the relative pronoun and retain the infinitive clause:

The time *at which to go* is . . . [4a]
The place *at which to stay* is . . . [5a]
A good place *at which to eat* is the pub round the corner. [6]

Compare also the formal [7] beside the informal [7b] (note that the preposition cannot be deferred in [7a]; nor can *in* be kept in [7c]):

the way { *in which to do it* [7]; **which to do it in* [7a]; *to do it* [7b]; **to do it in* [7c] }

Alternatively, we might have fully explicit relative clause constructions with preposition + relative pronoun, or adverbial relative (without preposition; *cf* 17.18*f*):

The time { *at which* / *when* } *everyone should go* is July. [4b]

The place { *at which* / *where* } *you should stay* is the university guest house. [5b]

A good place { *at which* / *where* } *anyone can eat* is the pub round the corner. [6a]

As stated above, there is no *-ing* or *-ed* clause as postmodifier which allows correspondences with relative clauses where the pronoun is adverbial. Compare the syntactic flexibility and the possibility of different degrees of reduction in infinitive clauses compared with *-ing* clauses:

the place { *at which* { **staying* / *to stay* / *you should stay* } / (for you) *to stay* (at) }

She is not a person { *on whom* { **relying.* / *to rely.* / *one can rely.* } / (for one) *to rely on.* }

This is a good instrument { *with which* { **measuring* / *to measure* / *they measure* } / (for them) *to measure* vibration *with.* } vibration.

17.31 Under certain conditions, functional ambiguity may arise, as when the subject is not expressed by *for* . . . *to* and the verb can be used both intransitively and transitively. In the latter case there are no semantic restrictions to exclude the antecedent from being interpreted as either subject or object. Consider sentence [1]:

He is the best man *to choose.* [1]

It can then mean either [1a], *ie* subject interpretation and no equivalent finite relative clause possible, or [1b], *ie* object interpretation and with a corresponding finite relative clause alternative:

He is the best man { *to do the choosing.* / *to make the choice.* } [1a]
He is the best man { *that we* (etc) *can choose.* / *for us* (etc) *to choose.* / *to be chosen* (*by us*, etc). } [1b]

As the examples have now shown, it is by no means only tense that has to be inferred in the infinitive clause. Mood is a far more variable factor, and the range accounted for in the adverbial infinitive clause is available also for noun-phrase postmodification (*cf* also [2–4] below and 17.32), *eg*:

The time *to arrive* is . . . ['at which you *should* arrive']

With infinitive clauses, aspect is also less restrained than with other nonfinite clauses:

The man { *to meet* / *to be meeting* / *to have met* } is Wilson.

The postmodifying infinitive clause can be active or passive:

He is the best man { *to choose.* / *to be chosen.* }

Beside the active examples already given, we may consider the following passives, which also further illustrate the variety of implicit tense and modality:

The case *to be investigated tomorrow* . . . ['that will, *or* is to, be investigated'] [2]
The animals *to be found in Kenya* . . . ['that can be, *or* are, found'] [3]

The procedure *to be followed* . . . ['that must, *or* should, *or* will, be followed'] [4]

In some cases, only active infinitives postmodifying clauses are natural, *eg* [5]; in some, only passive [6]:

I've got letters *to write* tonight. [5]
?I've got letters *to be written* tonight.

The animals *to be found* in Kenya . . . [6]
?The animals *to find* in Kenya . . .

In other cases, either active or passive infinitives seem equally possible with no or little change of meaning:

Give me a list of the people { *to invite.* / *to be invited.* } [7]

The procedure { *to follow* / *to be followed* } is this: . . . [8]

The best thing { *to do* / *to be done* } is as follows: . . . [9]

This is true also for the existential sentence pattern *there* + *be* + noun phrase + *to*-infinitive clause which is allied to relative clauses (*cf* 18.44*ff*):

There are letters { *to write.* / *to be written.* } [10]

There is no time { *to lose.* / *to be lost.* } [11]

There is no passive equivalent if *for* is used to introduce a subject:

The man { *to consult* / *to be consulted* } is Mr Johnson. [12]

The man { *for you to consult* / **for you to be consulted* } is Mr Johnson. [13]

Nor does a passive always sound plausible when the head is a quantifier:

We have { *a lot to do.* / ?*a lot to be done.* } [14]

We have { *plenty to eat.* / ?*plenty to be eaten.* } [15]

We have { *a large number of pages* { *to write.* / (?)*to be written.* } } [16]

With a *there*-construction there is no voice restriction:

There is { a lot { (*for everybody*) *to do.* / *to be done* (*by everybody*). } / plenty { *to do.* / *to be done.* } }

17.32 Postmodifying *to*-infinitive clauses can have either a modal or a nonmodal sense, but the modal interpretation seems to be normal, as indicated by most of the examples given so far. If the antecedent corresponds to the object of the infinitive, the modal interpretation is the only possible one:

The thing *to do* is . . . ['The thing we should do is . . .': *not* = 'The thing we do is . . .' *or* 'The thing we are going to do is . . .']

If the antecedent corresponds to the subject of the infinitive, the interpretation may be nonmodal, particularly if the antecedent has a 'restrictive' marker such as *last* and the infinitive is equivalent to a relative clause:

They were the *last* guests *to arrive.* ['They were the last guests who arrived.']

Such 'restrictive' markers include adjectives in the superlative degree, general ordinals (*next, last, only*), *first*, or other ordinal numeral (*cf* 5.22).

Blurred relationships in postmodification

17.33 The sharply reduced explicitness in the *-ing, -ed*, and infinitive clauses allows us to blur or neutralize the distinction between noun-phrase postmodification and certain other types of construction. It is interesting, for example, that native English speakers confronted by sentence [1] are likely to agree that they see little or no difference in meaning between [1] and either of [1a–b]:

I noticed { *a man hidden* behind the bushes. [1] / *a man who was hidden* behind the bushes. [1a] / *that a man was hidden* behind the bushes. [1b] }

So also with two other sentences of obviously different structure:

He was warned by { *the fact that a light flashed repeatedly.* [2] / *a light that flashed repeatedly.* [3] }

Grammatical rules for nominalization (*cf* 17.51*ff*) can readily provide for the relation of [2] to [4] and for the relation of both [2] and [3] to [5]:

He was warned by { *the repeated flashing of a light.* [4] / *a light flashing repeatedly.* [5] }

Sentence [5] can be a variant of the rarer form with genitive noun (*a light's*) corresponding to the subject of [2] (*cf* 15.12). The fact that [4] and [5] are virtually indistinguishable semantically means that, despite our ability to relate [4] grammatically to [2] rather than to [3], it is pointless to speculate on whether [5] is to be grammatically related primarily to [2] or to [3].

The infinitive clause occurs in similar merged constructions, but with additional possibilities. Example [6] is broadly unambiguous:

She expects somebody *to repair the TV set.* [6]

However, it can be related to more than merely noun-phrase postmodification [7]:

She expects somebody *who will repair the TV set.* [7]

It can also be related to a complementation type described in 16.30*ff*, the nonfinite clause corresponding to a finite clause:

She expects *that somebody will repair the TV set*. [8]

There are relations also with two possible adverbial purpose clauses [9] and [10]:

She expects somebody *in order that he will repair the TV set*. [9]
She expects somebody *in order that she can repair the TV set (with his help)*. [10]

However, both [9] and [10] should be seen as rather cumbersome circumlocutions of the natural expression in [6]. Another and more natural alternative to [10] would be [11]:

She expects somebody *to help her repair the TV set*. [11]

It is doubtless convenient to have a structural type like [6] that has such flexibility. For example, the possibility of postmodifying the head (*somebody*) is crucially important if we wish to expand such a sentence into the more explicit form [7] rather than [9]. Example [6a], with a proper noun as head, rules out a nonrestrictive clause [7a] as an analogue to [7]:

She expects *Jonathan to repair the TV set*. [6a]
*She expects *Jonathan who will repair the TV set*. [7a]

So also, we can reduce [12] to the nonfinite form [12a] without perceptible change or loss of meaning:

She has somebody { *who checks the TV set regularly*. [12]
(to) check the TV set regularly. [12a] }

However, we must not assume that any sentence of the form [13], and still less of the form [14], can have the nonfinite clause expanded as a relative:

She has *X to do Y*. [13]
She has *X do Y*. [14]

Nonrestrictive postmodification by nonfinite clauses

17.34 Nonrestrictive postmodification can also be achieved with nonfinite clauses:

The apple tree, *swaying gently in the breeze*, was a reminder of old times. ['which was swaying gently in the breeze . . .'] [1]
The substance, *discovered almost by accident*, has revolutionized medicine. ['which was discovered almost by accident . . .'] [2]
This scholar, *to be found daily in the British Museum*, has devoted his life to the history of science. ['who can be found daily in the British Museum . . .'] [3]

As with restrictive nonfinite clauses (*cf* 17.28*ff*), nonrestrictive *-ing* and *-ed* clauses only correspond to relative clauses where the relative pronoun is subject. But also infinitive clauses have this constraint when they are nonrestrictive:

*This scholar, *to find* . . .
*This place, *to stay* . . .

Nonrestrictive nonfinite clauses can be moved to initial position without change of meaning:

Discovered almost by accident, the substance has revolutionized medicine. [2a]

But this mobility in fact implies that nonfinite nonrestrictive clauses are equivocal between adnominal and adverbial role. Thus, the nonfinite clause in sentence [4] could be a reduction of a relative clause [4a], but equally of a causal clause [4b], or a temporal one [4c]:

The man, *wearing such dark glasses*, obviously could not see clearly. [4]
The man, { *who was wearing* . . . [4a]
because he was wearing . . . [4b]
whenever he wore . . . [4c] }

So too, we can make the relative clause in [5] nonfinite:

The cost, *which includes meals*, is 290 francs. [5]

However, we must then recognize that the result, *including meals*, may be regarded by a reader or hearer as a reduction of a conditional clause, 'if we include meals', or *including* may be regarded as a preposition (*cf* 9.8).

Note [a] The range of semantic possibilities and the mobility to initial position (before the noun phrase) of nonrestrictive nonfinite clauses make such clauses equivocal between noun modifiers and adverbials (*cf* 8.150*ff*).
[b] Compare the discussion in this section with that of finite nonrestrictive clauses in 17.22*ff* and supplementive clauses in 15.60*ff*.

Appositive postmodification by infinitive and *-ing* clauses

17.35 Appositive postmodification by nonfinite clause occurs with infinitive and *-ing* clauses; *-ed* clauses cannot enter into appositive postmodification. Appositive postmodification is fairly common by means of infinitive clauses. A restrictive example like [1] would correspond to the finite *that people (should) give blood*, though such a use of the subjunctive or of putative *should* (*cf* 4.64, 16.70*ff*) is uncommon:

The appeal *to give blood* received strong support. [1]

There are also nonrestrictive examples, *eg* [2]:

This last appeal, *to come and visit him*, was never sent. [2]

A common feature of infinitive clauses, applying to restrictive and nonrestrictive alike, is that they leave the subject of the infinitive clause to be inferred from the context (as in [1] and [2]), unless there is a prepositionally introduced subject, as in [1a] and [2a]:

The appeal { *to us* / *for us* } to give blood received strong support. [1a]

This last appeal { *to us,* / *, for us* } to come and visit him, was never sent. [2a]

The *-ing* clause functions as appositive postmodification in examples like [3–5]:

I'm looking for a job *driving cars*. ['a job as a driver'] [3]
We can offer you a career *counselling delinquents*. [4]
There is plenty of work (for us) *shovelling snow*. [5]

The typical postmodifying function of *-ing* clauses is as complement of a preposition (*the job of driving cars, the problem of learning English*; 17.37*ff*).

In appositive structures, *-ing* clauses have prepositions which are absent in the corresponding finite clauses:

the hope { *of winning* / *that X will win* } ~ X hopes *that X will win*.

Constructions with *to*-infinitive or *of*-phrase

17.36 Appositive postmodification by means of an infinitive clause [1] may have no corresponding finite clause as apposition [1b], but instead an alternative construction with a prepositional phrase [1a]:

He lost *the ability* { *to use his hands.* [1] / *of using his hands.* [1a] / **that he could use his hands.* [1b] }

Similarly:

Any attempt { *to leave early* / *at leaving early* / **that one should leave early* } is against regulations.

However, the choice between *to* + infinitive clause and preposition (usually *of*) + *-ing* clause as noun postmodification is also strictly limited. We may distinguish three main types of construction:

(a) *To*-infinitive only:
Anna has *the will* { *to win.* / **of winning.* }

(b) Either *to*-infinitive or *of* + *-ing*:
Their chance { *to go* / *of going* } abroad was lost.

(c) *Of* + *ing* only:
She found *the risk* { **to lose* / *of losing* } money too great.

Type (a) with *to*-infinitive is found chiefly after nouns which have intrinsic uses (*cf* 4.49), *ie* those nouns which express modal meanings that involve human control over events, *eg*:

agreement	*decision*	*determination*
disinclination	*inclination*	*invitation*
proposal	*readiness*	*refusal*
resolution	*(un)willingness*	*will*

We may distinguish two types: one where the constituent expressing modality and the following verb share the implied subject. Compare:

Anna { wants to / 'will [stressed] / is willing to } do the job.

~ Anna's *willingness* { *to do* / **of doing* } the job

A second type is found after nouns where the constituent expressing modality and the following verb have different subjects (irrespective of whether or not the infinitive has an expressed subject), as in:

Her father permitted her to do the job.

~ her father's *permission (for her)* { *to do* / **of doing* } the job

The subject may be implicit or explicit (introduced by *for*) in cases like the following (where there is an open choice of subject):

Here's *an invitation* { *(for me)* / *(for her)* } *to visit* the motor show.

Type (c) with *of* + *-ing* clause seems to occur chiefly after nouns expressing extrinsic modality, *ie* after nouns whose meanings do not primarily involve human control of the action itself, but typically involve human judgment, *eg*: *hope, possibility, prospect, risk*. Compare (on the choice of genitive *Anna's*, *cf* 15.12):

It is probable that Anna will do the job.

~ *the probability* { *of (Anna('s)) doing* / **for Anna to do* } the job

Other examples:

The team is running *the risk of (us/our) losing* another game.
There is actually no *hope of (them/their) winning* the war.

In type (b) there is variation between the two kinds of construction, but certain nouns tend to have predominantly postmodification by *to*-infinitive, such as:

chance	*freedom*	*need*
obligation	*opportunity*	*plan*
power		

The following are examples of nouns that have predominantly *of* + *-ing* construction:

aim	*impossibility*	*intention*
necessity	*possibility*	*responsibility*

One reason for the choice among the two alternatives may be found in the contrast between root and epistemic possibility (*cf* 4.49), as in:

The possibility for man to coexist with man is slight.
[*cf*: 'It is possible for man to coexist . . .' with subject introduced by *for*; root possibility]

The possibility of (them/their) coexisting is slight.
[*cf*: 'It is possible that . . .'; epistemic possibility]

The construction with *to*-infinitive is especially suitable for cases where the subject of the infinitive is expressed:

Such schemes leave { *the worker some freedom* / *some freedom for the worker* } *to regulate* the relationship between effort and reward.

The construction with *of* + *-ing* clause is especially convenient when no expressed subject is present or implicit (generalizing function):

The freedom of holding an opinion and expressing it is a human right.

Postmodification by prepositional phrases

Relation to more explicit modifiers

17.37 In addition to reduction of sentences into noun phrases (*cf* 17.1) by means of postmodification by finite and nonfinite clauses, we have the further possibility of reduction of postmodification by prepositional phrases, as in the last item of the following series:

The car was standing outside the station.
the car *which was standing outside the station*
the car *standing outside the station*
the car *outside the station*

A prepositional phrase (*cf* 9.1*ff*) is by far the commonest type of postmodification in English: it is three or four times more frequent than either finite or nonfinite clausal postmodification. The full range of prepositions is involved, including complex prepositions (*eg*: *on board* in [4] and *in case of* in [5]; *cf* 9.10*ff*):

the road *to Lincoln* [1]
this book *on grammar* [2]
a man *from the electricity company* [3]
passengers *on board the ship* [4]
action *in case of fire* [5]
the meaning *of this sentence* [6]
the house *beyond the church* [7]
two years *before the war* [8]
a delay *pending further inquiry* [9]
a tree *by a stream* [10]

It is natural to relate such prepositional postmodifiers as (*the car*) *outside the station* to *be*-sentences ('The car is outside the station'), though in some instances the phrase seems to correspond with more than merely the finite

verb *be*. For example, we presumably need to regard [11] as related to a somewhat fuller predication [11a]:

the university *as a political forum* [11]
The university is acting/regarded as a political forum. [11a]

Again, although there is no problem with [12], the interpretation is not so straightforward for [13], where an additional component has to be understood [13a]:

The present *for John* costs a great deal. ['The present is for John.'] [12]
The man *for the job* is John. [13]
The man is right/best for the job. [13a]

This is seen still more clearly in [14], which is a more explicit form of sentence [13]:

The *right* man *for the job* is John. [14]

Just as we do not wish to postulate [13b] in relation to [13], so we do not wish to postulate [14a] in relation to [14]:

*The man is for the job. [13b]
*The right man is for the job. [14a]

This problem will be seen in its more general context when we discuss *discontinuous modification* (*cf* 17.122).

The preposition *with* is another that we cannot fully account for unless we consider more than *be*-sentences; that is to say, these are adequate to explain [15], and even the idiomatic (and old-fashioned) [16]:

The woman *with the child* is Joan. ['The woman *is* with the child.'] [15]
The woman *with child* is Joan. ['The woman is with child, *ie* pregnant.'] [16]

But, in general, this is true only where *with* can be glossed as 'accompanied by'. No such gloss is possible in [17–18]:

the man *with a red beard* [17]
the girl *with a funny hat* [18]

Here we need to connect the prepositional phrase with a *have*-sentence: 'The man *has a red beard*', and hence with a relative clause: 'the man *who has a red beard*' (*cf* 9.55). The commonest preposition in noun-phrase postmodification, *of*, has a close correspondence to *have*-sentences (*cf* 17.38).

Note Among the prepositions used in postmodification, we should mention *like* (*cf* 9.4) which has the two senses of 'resembling in appearance' in [19] and 'resemblance in character' in [20]:
The man *like John* is over there. [19]
A man *like John* would never do that. [20]

The choice between the *of*-construction and the genitive construction

17.38 In many cases there is a regular correspondence between an *of*-phrase and the genitive (*cf* 5.115). Compare:

The ship has a funnel. It is red.
~ The ship has a red funnel.
~ *The ship's funnel* is red. [genitive construction]
~ *The funnel of the ship* is red. [*of*-construction]

The GENITIVE CONSTRUCTION consists of two noun phrases: one a noun phrase marked for the genitive case by inflection; the other a succeeding and superordinate noun phrase unmarked for case in which the genitive noun phrase is embedded with a determinative function (*cf* 5.121). 'Determinative' function means that the genitive noun phrase functions like a definite determiner: it plays a role in the superordinate noun phrase equivalent to that of a determiner such as *the* or *our* (*cf* 5.11*ff*):

the
our } population
the city's

In the *OF*-CONSTRUCTION, which is often equivalent in meaning to the genitive construction, the superordinate noun phrase precedes a noun phrase introduced by *of*. The genitive phrase and the *of*-phrase thus occur in different order in the two constructions:

{[[*the city's*] population] [N1*'s* N2]
{[the population [*of the city*]] [N2 *of* N1]

In each construction, the two noun phrases may be expanded by modifiers, *eg*:

{[[the large city's] growing population]
{[the growing population [of the large city]]

However, the grammatical status of the genitive noun phrase is different from that of the *of*-phrase in that the former has the function of a definite determinative, whereas the second has the function of a postmodifier with the superordinate noun phrase either definite or indefinite. Thus, [1] shows direct correspondence with [1a]; [2] corresponds to [2a]; [3] has no correspondence with a genitive construction:

the funnel of the ship	[1]	~ the ship's funnel	[1a]
the funnel of a ship	[2]	~ a ship's funnel	[2a]
a funnel of the ship	[3]		

More distinctions can be made in post- than premodification generally, and this, as we can see here, is true also for the *of*-construction.

The only type of genitive where indefinite reference is permitted is the 'post-genitive', where the genitive and *of*-constructions are combined (*cf* 17.46):

a friend *of my brother's*

Note that the function of the genitive is not determinative in two uses: descriptive genitive, *eg*: *a girl's school* (*cf* 5.122, 17.110) and genitive of measure, *eg*: *an hour's delay* (*cf* 5.116).

We will now discuss other factors which influence the choice of construction:

(a) Lexical factors (17.39)
(b) Relational factors (17.40)
(c) Objective and subjective relation (17.41–43)
(d) Syntactic factors (17.44)
(e) Communicative factors (17.45)

(a) Lexical factors

17.39 As we have seen in 5.117, the genitive is favoured by those gender classes which are highest on the gender scale, in particular where N1 is a personal name, a personal noun, and a noun with personal characteristics, *ie* animal nouns and collective nouns:

Ann's car	≠	*the car *of Ann*
the lady's car	≠	*?the car *of the lady*
the dog's collar	≠	?the collar *of the dog*
the family's car	≠	?the car *of the family*

With inanimate, in particular concrete, nouns, the *of*-construction is normally required:

the roof *of this house* ≠ ?**this house's* roof

There is, however, a group of inanimate nouns which permit the genitive, especially geographical nouns and nouns denoting location and time (*cf* 5.118), *eg*:

China's population	~ the population *of China*
the world's economy	~ the economy *of the world*
last year's profit	~ the profit *for last year*

What has been said so far about lexical factors relates to gender in the determinative noun (N1). Specific lexical noun heads (N2) like *edge*, *length*, etc also influence the choice of construction (*cf* 5.120). The 'personal connection' of the genitive can be seen in a scale like the following where, without previous mention, N2 nouns that have the closest relation to the people of the country are most likely to be acceptable in the genitive:

*China's *map*	the *map* of China
?China's *climate*	the *climate* of China
(?)China's *roads*	the *roads* of China
China's *economy*	*the economy* of China

Note Whereas *the car of the lady* is unacceptable when unmodified, it becomes acceptable when there is postmodification of the whole noun phrase, or part of it (*cf* 17.44). Compare:

He crashed into { *?*the car of the lady.*
the car of the lady in front of him.
the car of the girl he hoped to marry.

(b) Relational factors

17.40 The relation between the two nouns, as described by means of sentential and phrasal analogues in 5.116, is a powerful conditioning factor in the choice of

construction. In particular, partitive constructions of the quantitative and qualitative types never have a genitive variant:

a glass *of water* ≠ *a *water's* glass
this kind *of research* ≠ *this *research's* kind

(c) Objective and subjective relation

17.41 The variable 'direction' of predications which correspond to noun phrases postmodified by *of* contributes greatly to the complexity of these expressions and has a bearing on the correspondence with the genitive. If we look at it in this way, we have left-to-right predication in the following:

the imprisonment of the murderer
~ (Someone) imprisoned the murderer. [1]
a woman of courage
~ The woman has courage. [2]

We have right-to-left predication in:

the arrival of the train / the train's arrival } ~ The train arrived. [3]
the funnel of the ship ~ The ship has a funnel. [4]

With the left-to-right examples [1] and [2], it seems reasonable to assume a verb–object relationship; similarly, the right-to-left examples [3] and [4] show a subject–verb relationship. These relations are more obvious in [1] and [3], where the heads are deverbal nouns, than in [2] and [4], where the predicational relationship is covert or implicit. When the genitive or *of*-construction has the relation in [1], we shall call it OBJECTIVE; when the relationship is like that in [3], we shall call it SUBJECTIVE.

With the objective relation, use of a premodifying genitive 'object' is rather uncommon and unnatural, as compared with the *of*-phrase, except where the head is a deverbal noun. Thus:

the imprisonment of the murderer ~ the murderer's imprisonment

But there is no *'s* genitive corresponding to the following:

a woman of courage [but not: **courage's woman*]
~ The woman has courage.
the love of power [but not: **power's love*]
~ (Someone) loves power.
reminiscences of the war [but not: **the war's reminiscences*]
~ (*Someone*) *remembers the war.*
men of science [but not: **science's men*]
~ Men (study) science.

17.42 By contrast, full correspondence between the subjective *of*-phrase and the genitive is common with most types of head, irrespective of whether the subject–predicate relation is overt or not:

the arrival of the train
~ the train's arrival [1]

the activity of the students
~ the students' activity ['The students are active.'] [2]
the *War Requiem* of/by Britten
~ Britten's *War Requiem* ['Britten composed the *War Requiem*.'] [3]

This is easy enough to understand in relation to [2] and [3], where the 'subject' is the type of noun ('animate, especially personal') that readily admits the genitive (*cf* 5.117*f*). For [1] and other such examples, the *of*-phrase may acquire, by implication, some properties of animateness through the very fact that the noun in question has a subject function.

Nevertheless, there are some subject constructions where replacement by genitive is impossible. For example:

the joy of his return [*but not*: *his return's joy] ['His return gives joy.'] [4]
an angel of a girl [*but not*: *the/*a girl's angel] ['The girl is an angel.'; *cf* 17.47] [5]

This constraint is marked by other restricted and special features in these examples, not least the property 'indefiniteness' in respect of the head noun, which is relevant also in:

an opera of Verdi's ['Verdi composed this opera – and others'] [6]

Here, however, there is no blocking of a direct correspondence with the genitive (*one of Verdi's operas*). We shall return to this example in 17.46.

17.43 Broadly speaking, the objective relation is usually expressed with the *of*-construction, and the subjective relation with either the *of*-construction or the genitive. Where the implicit verb is intransitive, *eg*: *arrive* in *the arrival of the train*, there can be no difficulty in interpreting the *of*-phrase as subjective. But problems can arise where the verb is one that can be used either transitively or intransitively, *eg*: *shoot*, as in *the shooting of the rebels*. The ambiguity in such phrases ('X shoots the rebels' or 'The rebels were shooting') is usually resolved by the context. The following sentence in a newspaper, however, is ambiguous:

The reminiscences of the Prime Minister were very amusing. [1]

The report did not explain whether it was the Prime Minister who had been reminiscing or whether someone had been reminiscing *about* the Prime Minister.

But in general it seems that, where an *of*-phrase can be interpreted as objective, it will be so interpreted unless there is a counter-indication. Thus [2] and [3] will tend primarily to suggest that someone is examining the fireman or scrutinizing the tenants:

the examination of the fireman [2]
the scrutiny of the tenants [3]

However, the converse would be perfectly reasonable, and indeed preferable with certain lexical items, as in [4]:

the examination of the experts [4]

Correspondingly, the genitive construction will probably be interpreted as subjective in the absence of a counter-indication, as in [2a] and [3a]:

the fireman's examination [2a]
the tenants' scrutiny [3a]

But a lexical counter-indication very easily swings interpretation in the other direction, as in [5]:

the student's examination [5]

A clear indication of the relationships in the genitive construction is achieved by adding a prepositional phrase beginning with *of* (after a construction of subjective relationship) and one beginning with *by* (after a construction of objective relationship). Such postmodifiers overrule any lexical pressure in the direction of a particular interpretation:

the man's examination of the student	[S V O]	[6]
the man's examination by the doctor	[O V S]	[6a]
the tenants' scrutiny of the landlord	[S V O]	[7]
the tenants' scrutiny by the landlord	[O V S]	[7a]

Here, we are dealing with transitive 'verbs' which can tolerate deletion of their objects more easily than other verbs. The verb *possess* would scarcely yield a noun phrase in which the subject could be expressed without the object:

?*The man's possession* worried me. [8]
?*The possession of the man* worried me. [8a]

If we knew (from the context) that *the man* was subject, we would be inclined to ask 'What does he possess?' as a condition of trying to assimilate either of these sentences. Contrast:

The pills came into *the possession of some children*. ['Some children possess pills.'] [9]
Some children came into *possession of the pills*. [9a]

English-speakers would be inclined not to interpret the italicized portion of [9] as a noun phrase because there would not be a sentence having it as subject and preserving the subject-relation in the *of*-phrase:

*The possession of some children would be dangerous.

The analogous portion of [9a] would be more readily regarded as a unit with noun-phrase structure:

Possession of the pills would be dangerous.

In both [9] and [9a], however, (*the*) *possession* seems to enter into construction with *came* (*into*) rather than with the subsequent part of each sentence: compare the construction *take a rest* and the phrasal verb type *take advantage of* (*cf* 16.58).

The subjective relation is indicated by the article (*the charge/control of*) in the following *of*-construction [10], which has a genitive alternative [10a]:

The children are in $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \textit{the} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{charge}\\ \textit{control}\end{array}\right\} \textit{of John.} \\ \textit{John's} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{charge.}\\ \textit{control.}\end{array}\right\} \end{array}\right.$ [10] [10a]

The objective relation, however, cannot be expressed by the genitive without change of word order [11a], and the *of*-construction requires the complex preposition *in charge of* without article [11]:

The children are *in* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{charge}\\ \textit{control}\end{array}\right\}$ *of John.* [11]

~ John is in the *children's* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{charge.}\\ \textit{control.}\end{array}\right\}$ [11a]

Note In nouns with regular plural, the formal distinction in writing between the genitive plural (*boys'*), the genitive singular (*boy's*), and also the common gender plural (*boys*) does not exist in the pronunciation /bɔɪz/ (*cf* 5.113). In order to preclude ambiguity, the use of the genitive of nouns with regular plural tends to be avoided in speech, unless the number appears from the context (*the two boys' teacher*, etc). However, there is no problem with irregular plurals: *the children's teacher*.

(d) Syntactic factors

17.44 We have said that noun phrases may be indefinitely complex (*cf* 17.1). Since both the genitive and *of*-construction consist of two noun phrases each of which, at least theoretically, admits indefinite expansion, the minimal structures [1] and [1a] may be expanded to, for example, [2] and [2a]:

his daughter's arrival [1]
~ the arrival of his daughter [1a]
his 19-year-old daughter's arrival from Hamburg [2]
~ the arrival from Hamburg of his 19-year-old daughter [2a]

There are some types of expansion of noun-phrase heads that are of particular interest to the present discussion: left-branching structure by premodification, and right-branching structure by postmodification, apposition, and coordination (*cf* 17.121*f*).

Heavy restrictive postmodification of the head of the noun phrase constrains the choice of the *of*-construction, *eg*:

the arrival of a friend which had been expected for several weeks [3]

In such cases, the postmodification of the head is likely to be understood as nonrestrictive:

the arrival of a friend, which . . .

With restrictive modification, the genitive is compulsory or greatly preferred, in order to avoid awkwardness, discontinuity, or ambiguity:

a friend's arrival which had been expected for several weeks [3a]

The choice of construction is the converse when the other noun phrase is postmodified, in which case the *of*-construction is the natural choice:

the arrival of a friend who had been studying for a year at a German university [4]
*a friend's arrival who had been studying for a year at a German university [4a]

Such 'split genitives' as in [4a] are not acceptable. In some cases, the 'group genitive' can be used, in which the genitive marker is affixed to the last item of the postmodification, in particular prepositional phrases (*cf* 17.119), as in [5]:

the King of Spain's armada [5]
*the King's of Spain armada [5a]

Genitives after postmodification by finite clause, as in [6], would not be normally acceptable, but could well occur and be understood in a colloquial context:

*?the lady I met in the shop's hat [6]

The same principles that have been illustrated for postmodification also hold for other heavy right-branching structures like apposition and coordination. Thus, when the determinative noun head is coordinate [7] or has appositive expansion [8], the genitive construction is often impossible:

the arrival of his daughter and his German friend
?*his daughter's and his German friend's arrival } [7]

the arrival of his daughter, a student of German
*his daughter's, a student of German, arrival } [8]

(e) Communicative factors

17.45 The choice between the genitive and the *of*-construction is also conditioned by the linear organization of utterances in discourse, in particular factors (such as end-focus and end-weight, *cf* 18.3*f*) that encourage the placing of more complex and communicatively more important constituents towards the end of the superordinate noun phrase. The genitive (N1'*s* N2) is generally favoured when N2 has a higher communicative value than does N1 (example [1]), whereas the *of*-construction (N2 *of* N1) is preferred when the thematic distribution is the reverse (example [2]):

The speaker said that, among the global problems that face us now, the chief one is *the world's economy*. [*economy* is in focus] [1]
He went on to say, however, that in order to succeed we must first tackle *the economy of the industrialized nations*, which is the basis for *the sound economy of the world*. [*world* is in focus] [2]

We have seen that there are a number of factors which, singly or in combination, influence the choice of the *of*-construction. The most severe constraints on variation seem to be (i) the lexical constraint imposed by the choice of inanimate, especially concrete, noun (N1); and (ii) the use of the construction to express an objective relation. In both these cases, the *of*-construction is obligatory or widely preferred.

The 'post-genitive'

17.46 We may return now to example [6] in 17.42 and consider the peculiarities of this 'post-genitive' usage (*cf* 5.126). It will be observed that the postmodifier must be definite and human:

an opera *of Verdi's* BUT NOT: *an opera *of a composer's*
an opera *of my friend's* BUT NOT: *a funnel *of the ship's*

There are conditions that also affect the head of the whole noun phrase. The head must be essentially indefinite: that is, the head must be seen as one of an unspecified number of items attributed to the postmodifier. Thus [1–3] but not [4]:

A friend of the doctor's has arrived. [1]
A daughter of Mrs Brown's has arrived. [2]
Any daughter of Mrs Brown's is welcome. [3]
**The daughter* of Mrs Brown's has arrived. [4]

As a consequence of the condition that the head must be indefinite, the head cannot be a proper noun (*cf* 5.60*ff*). Thus while we have [5], we cannot have [6] and [7]:

Mrs Brown's Mary [5]
*Mary of Mrs Brown [6]
*Mary of Mrs Brown's [7]

The post-genitive thus involves a partitive as one of its components. The two constructions *a friend of his father's* and *one of his father's friends* are usually identical in meaning. One difference, however, is that the former construction may be used whether *his father* had one or more friends, whereas the latter necessarily entails more than one friend. Thus:

Mrs Brown's daughter [8]
Mrs Brown's daughter Mary [9]
Mary, (the) daughter of Mrs Brown [10]
Mary, a daughter of Mrs Brown's [11]

[8] implies 'sole daughter', whereas [9] and [10] carry no such implication; [11] entails 'not sole daughter'.

Since there is only one composition called the *War Requiem* by Britten, we have [12] but not [13] or [14]:

The *War Requiem* of/by Britten (is a splendid work.) [12]
*The *War Requiem* of Britten's [13]
*One of Britten's *War Requiems* [14]

Yet, we are able, in apparent defiance of this statement, to use demonstratives as follows:

that wife of mine [15]
this *War Requiem* of Britten's [16]

In these instances, which always presuppose familiarity, the demonstratives are not being used in a directly defining role; rather, one might think of them as allowing us to see *wife* and *War Requiem* as appositional, as members of a

class of objects: 'This instance of Britten's works, namely, *War Requiem*'. Even where more than one object exists corresponding to the noun, the postgenitive phrase preceded by *this* should be regarded as having a generic partitive, *eg*:

this hand of mine [17]

Example [17] should be interpreted not as 'this one of my (two) hands' but rather as 'this part of my body that I call "hand"'.

Note [a] So too, when *a daughter of Mrs Brown's* [11] is already established in the linguistic context, we could refer to *the/that daughter of Mrs Brown's (that I mentioned)*.
[b] The use of *this* and *that* in such constructions parallels their use elsewhere, the former directing immediate and often sympathetic attention, the latter often having a negative or even contemptuous ring: *that son of yours* (*cf* 6.41).
[c] Note the different meanings in the following set (*cf* 9.50, 17.54):
a painting *of my sister's* ['done by my sister' *or* 'belonging to my sister']
a painting *of my sister* ['representing my sister']
a painting *by my sister* ['done by my sister']
a painting *of my sister by my brother* ['representing my sister and done by my brother']
Compare also:
He's *a student of Jespersen*. ['one who studies Jespersen's writings']
He was *a student of Jespersen's*. ['one who studied under Jespersen']
[d] In earlier English, an appositional structure was obvious in such a variant of *this hand of mine* as *this my hand*. It is a variant still occasionally used with oratorical tone:
Today, sadly, there is no room for humour in *this our country*. ['this country of ours']

Apposition with *of*-phrases

17.47 Some noun phrases have a prepositional phrase component, *eg*: *the city of Rome*, which is not a regular postmodifier, as in *the people of Rome* (*cf* 17.37). Such expressions are relatable to *be*-sentences whose subjects are put into *of*-phrases, when an indefinite complement is made definite:

Rome is a city.
~ The city (that I mean) is Rome.
~ the city *of Rome*

Similarly we might postulate such a relation as the following (*cf* 17.26*f*):

The team's victory was (announced as) news.
~ The news was the team's victory.
~ the news *of the team's victory*

We have here a basis for the prepositional postmodification which corresponds directly to the clausal appositive (on *the team* versus the *team's*, *cf* 15.12):

the news { that the team had won / *of the team('s) having won* }

Because of the obvious relation between, for example, *The city is Rome* and *the city of Rome*, it is common to regard such noun phrases as simply nominalizations of *be*-sentences in which the implied subject has become the head of the noun phrase.

A special case of prepositional apposition is offered by singular count nouns where the *of*-phrase is subjective (*cf* 17.41*ff*), *eg*:

the fool of a policeman [1]
an angel of a girl [2]
this jewel of an island [3]

This structure consisting of determiner + noun (N2) + *of* + indefinite article + noun (N1) is not a regular prepositional postmodification, since N1 is notionally the head, as can be seen in the paraphrases:

The policeman is a fool. [note the AmE informal variant *some fool policeman*] [1a]
The girl is an angel. [2a]
This island is a jewel. [3a]

The whole part N2 + *of* + *a* corresponds to an adjective:

the *foolish* policeman [1b]
an *angelic* girl [2b]
this *jewel-like* island [3b]

The natural segmentation is reflected in variant spellings, as in the familiar AmE expression *a hell of a guy* (nonstandard spelling: *a hellwa guy*).

In this construction, the determiner of N1 must be the indefinite article, but there is no such constraint on the determiner of N2:

{ *a* / *the* / *this* / *that* } *fool of* { *a policeman* / **the policeman* / **policeman* }

Also, N2 must be singular:

?**those fools* of policemen

The possessive determiner actually notionally determines N1, not N2:

her brute of a *brother* ['Her brother was a brute.']

Both N2 and N1 can be premodified:

a *little mothy wisp* of a man
this *gigantic earthquake* of a piece of music
a *dreadful ragbag* of *a British musical*
this *crescent-shaped jewel* of *a South Sea island*

Restrictive and nonrestrictive prepositional postmodification

17.48 Prepositional phrases may be restrictive or nonrestrictive in both appositional and nonappositional functions:

The course on English grammar starts tomorrow.
[nonappositional, restrictive] [1]
This course, on English grammar, starts tomorrow.
[nonappositional, nonrestrictive] [1a]
The question of student grants was discussed yesterday.
[appositional, restrictive] [2]
This question, of student grants, was discussed yesterday.
[appositional, nonrestrictive] [2a]

But we must mention some limitations: [1a] and [2a] are rare and rather awkward. Nonrestrictive appositives could equally have no preposition, as with:

This question, student grants, was discussed yesterday. [2b]

On the other hand, the noun phrase in [3] is ambiguous:

the issue of student grants [3]

It can either have appositional or nonappositional meaning. In the latter sense [objective *of*: 'Someone issued student grants'], nonrestrictive function would be rare and unnatural, plainly suggesting a parenthetic afterthought:

?*The issue, of student grants*, was slow because there were so many applicants.

Similarly:

One man, of around forty years, was convicted of bigamy.
?*A party, of children*, entered the theatre.
?*The end, of the world*, is at hand.

An appositional interpretation is impossible when the postmodification is clearly restrictive:

**The man, of property*, was Soames Forsyte.

Nonrestrictive, nonappositive modification is more usual with other prepositions than *of*:

This textbook, by a colleague of mine, will be out shortly.
The passage, from a famous speech by Churchill, has become proverbial.

By contrast, complex prepositions (*cf* 9.10*f*) seem to lend themselves less readily to restrictive postmodification:

His resignation, *on account of a bribery scandal*, was deeply regretted.
?His resignation *on account of a bribery scandal* was deeply regretted.

Position and varied functional relationship

17.49 As with nonfinite postmodifiers when nonrestrictive, so with prepositional phrases: the nonrestrictive function merges with adverbial expressions (*cf* 8.44). Compare [1] and [1a]:

The children {*behind the fence* / *on the bus*} jeered at the soldiers. [1]

The children, {*behind the fence* / *on the bus*}, jeered at the soldiers. [1a]

Example [1] means 'Those children who were . . .'; example [1a] may mean 'The children, who (by the way) were . . .' or 'The children, now that they were (safely . . .)' (*cf* similar vacillation in nonfinite clauses, 17.34*f*). It is rather this latter implication that becomes uppermost if the prepositional phrase is moved into initial position, as in [1b]:

{*Behind the fence,* / *On the bus,*} the children jeered at the soldiers. [1b]

Again, the prepositional phrase in [2] is poised between interpretation as nonrestrictive postmodifier and as adverbial:

Money, *in aid of the refugees*, was collected from the students and staff. [2]

In the former interpretation, the money collected was in aid of the refugees, and in the latter, the act of collecting money was in aid of the refugees, since in this case the adverbial modifies the whole predication just as it would in initial position:

In aid of the refugees, money was collected . . . [2a]

Despite the similarity in meaning in the examples discussed here, we do indeed have different constructions and not merely the additional possibility of placing a prepositional postmodifier in front of the noun-phrase head. This becomes clear when it is shown that, unless a given phrase can be an adjunct, it cannot be moved from its postmodifying position. For example, the restrictive postmodification in *this leap right across the fissure* can be made nonrestrictive:

This leap, *right across the fissure*, was shown on television. [3]

But as the phrase cannot be adjunct in this sentence, it cannot be made initial [3a]:

**Right across the fissure*, this leap was shown on television. [3a]

17.50 The restriction on initial position naturally applies also to the *of*-postmodifiers that are almost solely restrictive:

**Of children*, a party entered the theatre. [1]

But there is an apparent exception with partitive expressions. Thus beside [2] we may thematically prepose the *of*-phrase with no obvious difference in meaning [2a]:

Only a few *of the ten reviewers* praised his play. [2]
Of the ten reviewers, only a few praised his play. [2a]

This example is misleading, however, in giving the impression that the initially placed phrase of [2a] is identical with the postmodifying phrase of [2]. They are not identical, as can be seen when we substitute zero article; this is acceptable when the phrase is in initial position, as in [3] and [4], but not in postmodification, as in [3a] and [4a]:

Of ten reviewers, only a few praised his play. [3]
Of fourteen women, ten were highly critical of the proposal. [4]
?*Only a few *of ten reviewers* praised his play. [3a]
?*Ten *of fourteen women* were single. [4a]

The fact that [4a] becomes acceptable if the postmodifying phrase is introduced by *out of* (as in *Ten out of fourteen women*, where the phrase can

also be initial) confirms that the initially placed *of*-phrase is functionally different, although semantically similar to the postmodifying phrase.

In other words, we should regard the initial prepositional phrase in such examples as [3] and [4] as adverbial and not as displaced postmodification; indeed, *as for* and *as to* phrases, when denoting respect (*cf* 9.57), must always be initial. Perhaps better, we should see the initial phrase in [3] as directly related to an existential statement [3b] (*cf* 18.44*ff*):

Of ten reviewers that there were, / There were ten reviewers, but } only a few praised his play. [3b]

Nominalization

17.51 We should not exaggerate the difference between (a) the prepositional phrase as adverbial and (b) the prepositional phrase as postmodifier (*cf* 17.37*ff*). The second of these should rather be regarded as a special instance of the first, depending for its interpretation on our ability to relate it to a sentence in which it is adjunct. In [1], for instance, both the prepositional phrases are introduced as adjuncts:

In the morning, a quarrel broke out *over pay*. [1]

If now we wish to refer again to the quarrel, we may do so in relation to either of these adjuncts, which now become postmodifiers:

The quarrel *in the morning* ruined their friendship. [1a]
The quarrel *over pay* was the reason for his resignation. [1b]

The relation of postmodifier to adjunct may be even clearer if, instead of [1], we take a sentence like [1c]:

In the morning, they quarrelled *over pay*. [1c]

In [1c], *quarrel* does not occur as a noun but as a verb, to which we also relate [1a] and [1b], but in this case through the process of word formation called conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*). Conversion should be distinguished from nominalization.

A noun phrase such as *the quarrel over pay* in [1b] which has a systematic correspondence with a clause structure will be termed a NOMINALIZATION. The noun head of such a phrase is normally related morphologically to a verb [2], or to an adjective [3] (*ie* a deverbal or deadjectival noun, *cf* App I.34*ff*):

his *refusal* to help ~ He *refuses* to help. [2]
the *truth* of her statement ~ Her statement is *true*. [3]

But the correspondence may also sometimes be based on a concrete noun and a denominal abstract noun:

her *friendship* for Chopin ~ She was a *friend* of Chopin. [4]

By describing such phrases as having a systematic correspondence with a clause structure, we do not wish to imply that for every clause there is a corresponding noun phrase; the correspondence is best seen as obtaining in a less regular fashion, and as depending on whether, for example, there is a suitable nominal lexicalization of the verb's meaning (*cf* App I.8*ff*). The claim is, however, that we can match elements of the noun phrase (head, modifiers, determinatives) with elements of clause structure, considered semantically in terms of the verb and its associated participant roles (*cf* 10.18*ff*) of agentive, affected, etc.

We can also distinguish, in the case of deverbal noun heads, between active and passive nominalization patterns:

the critics' hostile *reception* of the play
~ The critics *received* the play in a hostile manner.
[subjective, *cf* 17.41*ff*] [5]
the play's hostile *reception* by the critics
~ The play *was received* in a hostile manner by the critics.
[objective, *cf* 17.41*ff*] [6]

17.52 The term nominalization may apply not only to noun phrases with an abstract noun head, as in [5] and [6] in 17.51, but also to concrete noun phrases with an agential noun head (*cf* 7.73), as in:

She is a good *writer*. ~ She *writes* well. [1]
He is a clever *liar*. ~ He *lies* cleverly. [2]

The relation between a nominalization and a corresponding clause structure can be more or less explicit, according to how far the nominalization specifies, through modifiers and determinatives, the nominal or adverbial elements of a corresponding clause. In this respect we may compare [3] with [3a–f]:

The reviewers criticized his play in a hostile manner. [3]
the reviewers' hostile criticizing of his play [3a]
the reviewers' hostile criticism of his play [3b]
the reviewers' criticism of his play [3c]
the reviewers' criticism [3d]
their criticism [3e]
the criticism [3f]

These noun phrases are ordered from most explicit [3a] to least explicit [3f], but each of them could occupy the function of a nominalization as prepositional complement in the following:

Lanzarotti was disappointed by . . .

The extreme of inexplicitness is reached with an abstract or agential noun standing on its own as a noun phrase:

Criticism is always helpful. [3g]

Some verbs have no corresponding deverbal noun: for example, corresponding to *lie* ['tell untruths'] there is no deverbal abstract noun, although

there is the agential noun *liar*. In such cases, however, we can usually make use of a verbal noun ending with *-ing* (*cf* App I.35):

Lying is all too common.
His firing of William was a mistake.
(Contrast: *His dismissal* of William was a mistake.)

Some such *-ing* nouns can also be used in the plural:

The number of reported *sightings* of UFOs since 1980 is relatively small.

17.53 Verbal and deverbal nouns differ in their acceptance of modification by prepositional phrases. Compare the following:

their arriving *for a month*	[1a]
?the(ir) arrival *for a month*	[1b]
their behaving *with courtesy*	[2a]
?the(ir) behaviour *with courtesy*	[2b]
their acting *in a nasty manner*	[3a]
*the(ir) action *in a nasty manner*	[3b]
their contributing *out of kindness*	[4a]
*the(ir) contribution *out of kindness*	[4b]

It appears that adjuncts relating to duration, manner, or cause are awkward or inadmissible as postmodifiers. Deverbal nouns (especially from punctual verbs like *arrive*; *cf* 4.33) might be described as mere records of an action having taken place rather than as descriptions of the action itself. Thus the postmodifiers are the adjuncts that can occur in sentences like the following:

They arrived *on Thursday*. [5]
The arrival took place *on Thursday*. [6]

Contrast:

They arrived for *a month*. [5a]
*The arrival took place *for a month*. [6a]

The gradience from deverbal nouns via verbal nouns to participles

17.54 As well as distinguishing between deverbal nouns like *quarrel, arrival, behaviour, action,* and *contribution* (*cf* App I.35) and the corresponding verbal nouns in *-ing* (*quarrelling, arriving*, etc), we need to recognize a complex gradience, as in the following example, from the pure count noun in [1], *some paintings of Brown's*, to the purely participial form in a finite verb phrase in [14], 'Brown *is painting* his daughter':

some paintings of Brown's [[a] 'some paintings that Brown owns'; or [b] 'some paintings painted by Brown'] [1]
Brown's paintings of his daughter [[a] 'paintings depicting his daughter and painted by him'; or [b] 'paintings depicting his daughter and painted by someone else but owned by him'] [2]

The painting of Brown is as skilful as that of Gainsborough. [[a] 'Brown's mode of painting'; or [b] 'Brown's action of painting'] [3]
Brown's deft painting of his daughter is a delight to watch. ['It is a delight to watch while Brown deftly paints his daughter.'] [4]
Brown's deftly painting his daughter is a delight to watch. [= [3b] or [4] in meaning] [5]
I dislike *Brown's painting his daughter*. ['I dislike either [a] the fact or [b] the way that Brown does it.'] [6]
I dislike *Brown painting his daughter* (when she ought to be at school). [= [6a]] [7]
I watched *Brown painting his daughter*. [[a] 'I watched Brown as he painted'; or [b] 'I watched the process of Brown('s) painting his daughter.'] [8]
Brown deftly painting his daughter is a delight to watch. [= [3b] or [4]; *cf* 14.6*ff*] [9]
Painting his daughter, Brown noticed that his hand was shaking. ['while he was painting'; *cf* 5.12*ff*] [10]
Brown painting his daughter that day, I decided to go for a walk. ['since Brown was painting'; *cf* 5.12*ff*] [11]
The man painting the girl is Brown. ['who is painting'; *cf* 17.28] [12]
The silently painting man is Brown. ['who is silently painting'; *cf* 17.98*f*] [13]
Brown *is painting* his daughter. [*cf* 4.25*ff*] [14]

In [1] and [2] we have the DEVERBAL NOUN *paintings* with a plural ending. It could be replaced by *pictures* or *photos*; it is thus a perfectly regular concrete count noun, related only to the verb *paint* by word formation.

In [3] and [4] *painting* is also a noun, as can be seen by the definite article in [3], and in [4] not only by the genitive construction but also by the adjective premodifier *deft* (as compared with the adverb *deftly* in [5]). Yet *painting* here could not be replaced by *picture* or *photo*, but only by abstract nouns like *representation, portrayal, portraiture, depiction*, etc. Thus *painting* in [3] and [4] is an abstract noncount noun of the kind that can be formed from verbs by adding *-ing* and inserting *of* before the noun phrase that corresponds to the subject if the object is not expressed (*cf* 17.41):

the painting of Brown ~ Brown paints.
the writing of Smith ~ Smith writes.

This construction can also occur before the noun phrase that corresponds to the object, if this is expressed:

their polishing of the furniture ~ They polish the furniture.
the writing of novels (by Smith) ~ Smith writes novels.

Forms like *painting* in [3] and [4] are VERBAL NOUNS (*cf* 17.51, App I.3 Note).

In [5] and [6], the genitive *Brown's* is used, but in place of the adjective *deft* in [4] we have the adverb *deftly* in [5]; in place of the *of*-phrase *of his daughter* (in [4]), we have in [5] and [6] the noun phrase *his daughter* directly following *painting*, exactly as does the object of a finite verb phrase in [14]. Traditionally this mixture of nominal and verbal characteristics in the *-ing* form has been

given the name 'gerund', while the uses of *painting* in [7–14] have been distinguished as those of the '(present) participle'.

Note [a] Where no premodifier appears, genitive or otherwise, the traditional view held *painting* to be 'gerund', as in [15], where the item is in a structure functioning nominally (in this case as subject); but it was considered a participle if the same structure functioned adverbially, as in [16]:

Painting a child is difficult. [15]
Painting a child that morning, I quite forgot the time. [16]

However, no analogous categorial distinction was made between *to paint* in [17] and [18]:

To paint a child is difficult. [17]
To paint a child, I bought a new canvas. [18]

Here the tradition was content to regard *to paint* as an 'infinitive' in both.

For reasons that will now be plain, we do not find it useful to distinguish a gerund from a participle, but terminologically class all the *-ing* items in [5–14] as PARTICIPLES. In [5–12], the participle is in each case the nonfinite verb of a nonfinite clause, in [13] a premodifier, and in [14] the head of a finite verb phrase. By avoiding the binary distinction of gerund and participle, we seek to represent more satisfactorily the complexity of the different participial expressions as we move along the gradient to the 'most verbal' end at [14].

One indication of the complexity of the *-ing* form is that what others have called the gerund carries in English both nonmodal meanings, as in [19], and modal meanings, as in [20]:

There was *no shouting, no merry-making, no waving of flags*. ['No shouting, merry-making, or waving of flags took place.'] [19]
There was *no mistaking that scream*. ['No one could mistake that scream.'] [20]

Thus in [19] the *-ing* form corresponds to the Latin gerund, but in [20] to the Latin gerundive which, unlike the gerund, typically manifests a modal meaning such as possibility or contingency. This lack of correspondence between the English gerund and the traditional use of the term can be advanced as a further reason for rejecting the term gerund in English.

Furthermore, there is potential ambiguity not only along the modal/nonmodal dimension but also along the (traditional) gerund/deverbal-noun dimension (*cf* 15.14 Note [b]). For example, sentence [21] can be interpreted in three ways [21a, b, c]:

There's *no writing* on the blackboard today. [21]

as a modal 'gerund' [21a]:

'We can't write on the blackboard today (because we have no chalk).' [21a]

as a nonmodal 'gerund' [21b]:

'We are not going to write on the blackboard today (since all our work is going to be oral).' [21b]

as a nonmodal deverbal noun [21c]:

'There's nothing written on the blackboard today (because we haven't used this classroom).' [21c]

The sense of [21c] is doubtless more expected than either [21a] or [21b].

[b] One expects the name in [3] to be that of an artist of some reputation if the *of*-construction is to be used; otherwise the genitive would be more natural to convey this meaning:

Jack's painting is nearly as good as his wife's.

[c] There is an aspectual difference between verbal nouns, which tend to denote activity that is in process, and abstract deverbal nouns, which denote completed activity (*cf* App I.35 Note).

Minor types of postmodification

Postmodification by adverb phrase

17.55 Some typical examples of postmodification by adverb phrases (*cf* 7.67) are the following:

The road back is dense with traffic. [1]
The way out was hard to find. [2]
The people behind were talking all the time. [3]

In [1], we recognize some such paraphrase as '*The road* which leads *back* to London' from which everything except an important adjunct has to be understood from the context. Similarly, for [2]: '*The way* which leads *out* of the auditorium'; and for [3]: '*The people* who were sitting *behind*'. In some cases, the postmodifying item could be regarded alternatively as a preposition with omitted complement: '*The people* who were sitting *behind* us'.

There are indeed a few cases where a prepositional interpretation is forced on us (*cf* 9.53), *eg*:

The votes for far outnumber those *against*. [4]

In [4], the related explicit structure has no alternative to the prepositional phrase:

The votes are *for the motion*.

But since most examples can be explained as adverbial and few as prepositional, it seems best to regard the few that must be prepositional as being modelled upon the adverbial ones.

As indicated in 7.67 (where more examples are given), adverbs which postmodify nouns signify time or place. In some phrases, the adverb can be used either as a pre- or postmodifier:

his *homeward* journey ~ his journey *homeward*

Some noun phrases of measure, denoting size, age, etc, can also be postposed:

A man *the size of a giant* came up to me.
Somebody *her age* shouldn't do such strenuous exercises.

Note *O'clock* is an adverb optionally added after numbers from 1 to 12 to denote time of day:

What time was the accident?
– At 10 (o'clock) in the morning/at night.
– At 12 (o'clock) noon/midnight.

O'clock is not used together with *a.m.* ['before midday'] or *p.m.* ['after midday']:

9 o'clock in the morning [= 9 a.m.]
9 o'clock in the evening [= 9 p.m.]

O'clock is used only in mentioning the exact hour, not the hour and a particular number of minutes:

at 7 o'clock, at 7 a.m./p.m.; at 7.15 a.m./p.m. BUT NOT: *at 7.15 o'clock, *at 15 past 7 o'clock

Postposed adjectives

17.56 Postposed adjectives (*cf* 7.21) can be divided into three main types, depending on whether the postposition is required by:

(a) the head of the noun phrase (*cf* 17.57), *eg*:

I want to try *something different* [as opposed to *a different approach*] [1]

(b) the postmodification or complementation of the adjective (*cf* 17.58), *eg*:

a play popular in the 1890s [as opposed to *a popular play*] [2]

(c) the particular noun adjective combination (*cf* 17.59), *eg*:

the heir apparent [as opposed to *the apparent reason, the rich heir*] [3]

Types (a) and (b) are central constructions and can be seen as reductions of relative clauses:

something (that is) different [1a]
a play (that was) popular in the 1890s [2a]

Type (c) is restricted to idiomatic phrases.

Type (a): *somebody bigger*

17.57 This type includes noun-phrase heads consisting of indefinite pronouns in *-body, -one, -thing*, and the adverb *-where*, plus one or two *wh*-forms (*what else, who next*, etc), which can only be modified postpositively (*cf* 7.69):

Anybody younger would have done better.

However, we cannot postpose with indefinites every modifying item that can be preposed with ordinary noun heads. While we have both *a tall girl* and *an office girl*, we have *somebody tall* but not **somebody office* (*cf* 7.12).

Even adjectives need generally to be 'permanent' and hence eligible for attributive use (*cf* 17.7); thus *somebody timid* rather than ?*somebody afraid*.

Note [a] We not infrequently come upon noun phrases which defy the conditions described; for example, beside the regular *something nasty* we have:

That nasty something has reappeared.

In such instances (which are almost always familiar, playful, or ironic), the head items are not being used as compound indefinite pronouns (*cf* 6.45*ff*) but as nouns. The motivation for the deviation will vary from one example to another, but a possible explanation for the example just provided would find ready parallels. We might paraphrase it thus: 'You mentioned seeing *something nasty*; well, the thing you called "something" has reappeared'.

[b] The type of postmodification consisting of pronoun in *-thing* + adjective has an alternative construction with *a* + adjective + *thing* as head:

Something nasty / *A nasty thing* } happened to me on the way to work this morning.

Some nasty things has the somewhat different sense of 'certain nasty things'. There is no **some things nasty*.

There is a possibility of using *one* (but not *body*) as a head in this way:

I'd like { *someone young* / *a young one* / *somebody young* / **a young body* } for the job.

Any young body ['anybody young'] is dialectal.

Type (b): *a mistake typical of beginners*

17.58 This type includes adjective phrases which are heavy in relation to the head, usually by having a prepositional phrase or a nonfinite verb phrase as complement. Whereas we have only the normal order in [1], postposition is required in [2]:

a *typical* mistake [1]
a mistake *typical of beginners* [2]

Thus English accepts neither [2a] (unless used ad hoc and specially marked by hyphens: 'That could be described as *a typical-of-beginners mistake*') nor [2b]:

*a typical of beginners mistake [2a]
*an of beginners typical mistake [2b]

With coordinated adjectives, either pre- or postposition is possible:

{ a *both typical and common* mistake [3]
{ a mistake *both typical and common* [3a]

When a head is nonrestrictively modified by a coordinate string of adjectives, it is common to postpose them:

A man, *timid and hesitant*, approached the official. [4]

However, the potential mobility of the string allows it to be detached from the noun phrase altogether (*cf* 7.27, 17.49) and shows it to be an adverbial rather than part of the noun phrase:

{ *Timid and hesitant*, a man approached the official. [4a]
{ A man approached the official, *timid and hesitant*. [4b]

Even a restrictively modifying adjective can be postposed if it is itself modified (by an adjunct, not by the intensifier *very*; *cf* 7.87*ff*):

A man always timid is unfit for this task. [but not: **A man very timid . . .*] [4c]

This construction is particularly common where the modification expresses a 'temporary' attribute (*cf* 17.7). Thus beside the dubiousness of ?*somebody afraid* (*cf* 17.49), complementation of the adjective (*somebody afraid of the dark*) results in complete acceptability. Comparison involving nouns of different gender classes requires postposition of the adjective as in [5]:

a man *taller than Mary* } [5]
~ **a taller* man *than Mary* }

Where the nouns are of the same class, postposition is optional (*cf* 17.122):

a man *taller than John* } [6]
~ a *taller* man *than John* }

Type (c): *the president elect*

17.59 This type of postposed adjective consists chiefly of the sprinkling of fixed noun-plus-adjective phrases (modelled on French) like *the president elect, heir apparent, blood royal* (*cf* further examples in 7.21). These are of little importance in themselves, being infrequently used (though our ability to form names like *Hotel Majestic* suggests that they are more than mere fossils), and it is likely that native speakers feel them to be very similar to compound nouns. Unlike the adjectives in free combinations, these postposed adjectives cannot be modified:

**The president newly elect*
The president newly elected } will take office next Monday.
The newly elected president
**The heir still apparent* was being well educated.
?She had *blood wholly royal* in her veins.

With a quantifier we can say 'A lot of royal blood flowed in the French revolution', but not '*A lot of blood royal . . .'. In some cases, a sequence has obviously been reanalysed as premodifier plus head; this can be seen in the plural *court-martials* (alongside *courts-martial*; *cf* 5.102):

No *court-martials* are held on Christmas Day.

Postposed 'mode' qualifier: *Lobster Newburg*

17.60 There is another French model of postposition in English that we may call postposed 'mode' qualifier, as in *Lobster Newburg*. Though virtually confined to cuisine (rather than mere cooking), it is moderately productive within these limits, perhaps especially in AmE. In BrE one finds *veal paprika* and many others, but there is some resistance to this type of postposition with other than French lexical items, as in *pâté maison, sole bonne femme*. Nevertheless (perhaps partly because, in examples like the latter, the French and English head nouns are identical), the language has become receptive to hybrids like *poached salmon mayonnaise, English scallops provencal*.

Note The prepositional phrase involving *à la* (*cf* 9.10 Note) is a related phenomenon. It appears in culinary formations like *chicken à la king*, but is very general in informal or facetious use to designate style, 'in the manner of':
Another play à la Stoppard has appeared, though I forgot who wrote it.

Multiple postmodification

17.61 Multiple modification arises through any or all of the following three conditions (a, b, c):

(a) More than one modification is applicable to a single head. Thus the two sentences [1] and [2] can be brought together as [3]:

the man *in the corner* [1]
the man *talking to John* [2]
the man *in the corner* { *talking to John* / (?) *and talking to John* } [3]

The second postmodifier (*talking to John*) modifies the whole of the preceding complex noun phrase:

[[the man [in the corner]] talking to John]

The usual type of construction is with no conjunction. But, without a conjunction, there is ambiguity (though often with little difference in meaning in practice) between a coordinated relation of the postmodifiers as in *Fig* 17.61a and a hierarchical relation as in *Fig* 17.61b.

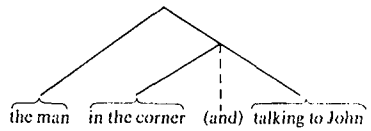

Fig 17.61a

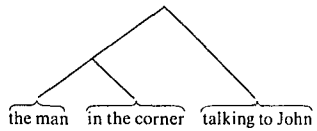

Fig 17.61b

(b) A modification is applicable to more than one head. Thus [4] can be brought together by multiple-head rules which permit the determiner to apply to both heads (*cf* 13.67) as [5]:

the man in the corner *and* the woman in the corner [4]
[the [man and woman] [in [the corner]]] [5]

(c) By bringing together the types of structure elucidated in (a) and (b), we can produce complexes such as [6]:

the man and woman in the corner talking to John [6]

The head of a modifying phrase may itself be further modified. We have already seen numerous examples of where such further modification is achieved by means of an adverb; we are here concerned with catenations like [9] from the linking of [7] and [8]:

the man in the corner [7]
the corner nearest the door [8]
[the man [in [the corner [nearest the door]]]] [9]

By bringing (a), (b), and (c) together, we form [10]:

[the [man and woman] [in [the corner [nearest the door]]] [talking to John]] [10]

Although the last postmodifier in this example (the nonfinite clause *talking to John*) is rather far removed from the head, ambiguity is impossible: the door could not be talking to John. Nevertheless, many users of English would prefer to use a finite relative clause here (. . . *who are talking to John*), no doubt in response to a desire for maximal explicitness at a point which is relatively distant from the head.

Probably more is involved than a need for explicitness: repetition of

identical items (*eg* a sequence of prepositional phrases or relative clauses) is perhaps as objectionable in a lengthy postmodification as is the danger of losing the thread. Objections to the following sentence are obvious:

?He was [the man [who wrote the letter [which Mary found in the house [which she rented from the man [who knew her uncle]]]]].

Ambiguity and constraints on multiple postmodification

17.62 The instances of multiple modification so far considered have raised problems of style but hardly of actual ambiguity or structural unacceptability. Frequently, however, careful ordering of constituents in a noun phrase is essential to communicate one's intention. To take an example, the following pair [1] and [2] differ in meaning and are not mere stylistic variants:

the man *in black talking to the girl* [1]
the man *talking to the girl in black* [2]

One of the reasons for preferring the *of*-phrase to the genitive is to avoid discontinuity (with unwanted grotesque ambiguity, *cf* 17.44); thus [3] but not [4]:

the ears of the man in the deckchair [3]
**the man's ears* in the deckchair [4]

Pushdown elements

17.63 A special type of multiple postmodification that requires careful ordering occurs when the modifying clause becomes itself embedded in a clause ('pushdown relative clause'; *cf* 11.18, 15.4 Note [d]). Consider the following series:

John will send you a memo. [1]
Pat hopes (that) John will send you a memo. [2]
I will read the memo (which) Pat hopes (that) John will send you. [3]

In [3], the relative pronoun *which* is object in the relative clause *which . . . John will send you*. When, however, a relative pronoun is subject under analogous conditions, the conjunction *that*, which remained optional in [3], is obligatorily absent in [3a]:

A memo will be sent to you. [1a]
Pat hopes (that) a memo will be sent to you. [2a]
I will read the memo (which) Pat { hopes will / *hopes that will } be sent to you. [3a]

Since verbs in nominal clauses may be nonfinite or absent, variations in structure can be very considerable. Related to [4–6] we have the noun phrases [4a–6a]:

We thought { (*that*) the boy was honest. [4] / *the boy to be honest*. ⟨rather rare⟩ [5] / *the boy honest*. [6] }

the boy (*that*) we thought { *was honest* [4a] / *to be honest* [5a] / *honest* [6a] }

Nonfinite and verbless postmodification is less acceptable when the adjective is 'temporary' (*cf* 17.7):

The boy (*that*) we thought { *was ready* [4b] / ?*to be ready* [5b] / ?*ready* [6b] } is not, after all.

Clause embedding in postmodification can sometimes result in anacoluthon through the insertion of the personal pronoun, especially in speech (*cf* 11.14*ff* on *wh*-questions):

?*I'm going to a party *that* I don't know when *it* will end. [7]
?*The computer *which* you said you would teach me how *it* works has now arrived. [8]
?*There is in this country a trend *which* I don't know how strong *it* is towards a disintegration of the traditional party system. [9]

The relative clauses in [7–9] are deviant since they introduce a double pronominalization of the antecedent (*that* or *which, it*), but avoidance of the deviance involves rather radical reorganization, *eg*:

I'm going to a party { which will end I don't know when. [7a] / and I don't know when it will end. [7b] }

The computer { which you said you would teach me how to use has now arrived. [8a] / the operation of which you said you would teach me has now arrived. [8b] }

There is in this country a trend { which I don't know the strength of . . . [9a] / of which I don't know the strength . . . [9b] / whose strength I don't know . . . [9c] }

Note [a] There is no problem, of course, if the clauses concerned are made paratactic:
I'm going to a party; I don't know when it will end. [7c]
The computer has arrived; you said you would teach me how it works. [8c]
There is in this country a trend towards a disintegration of the traditional party system; I don't know how strong it is. [9d]

[b] Confusion of the finite with the nonfinite forms of embedded clause produces hypercorrect deviant sentences (*cf* 6.35 Note [a]) like [10]:
*That is the man *whom we thought was not coming*. (*Cf*: That is the man *whom we thought to be difficult*.) [10]

Relative clauses may be complicated more than we have illustrated so far, though one tends to avoid multiple embeddings with successive 'pushdown' clauses:
?I have read *the book which you thought I had asked John whether he would lend me*. [11]

In [12], the use of *whom* may seem odd:
. . . this Lady Macbeth is fumbered with such an alarming husband whom Harold Carter plays . . . on the brink of madness. [12]

The reason may be that the actor actually plays the *part* of the husband. However, the following construction [12a] may have been consciously avoided as being awkward and too heavy (and hardly necessary anyway):
. . . an alarming husband { *whose part* / *which part* } *Harold Carter plays* . . . [12a]

[c] There are also signs that relative clauses, by involving transposition of lexical items, weaken the ties between lexical items and their appropriate complement-forming prepositions. Even reputable newspapers will occasionally print sentences like [13]:

The authorities, against whom increasing numbers of refugees are fleeing across the sea, have not changed their policy. [13]

Although the oddity of the construction may well pass unnoticed by journalist and reader alike, neither would have accepted the verb + preposition sequence in [13a]:

*The refugees are fleeing against the authorities. [13a]

17.64 Even with simpler examples and more careful ordering, we may find clarity and acceptable grammar difficult to maintain in multiple modification. An example:

She recalled the smiles of delight on all the faces. [1]

A noun phrase based on sentence [1] and having *smiles* as its head may be ambiguous in one ordering (Was it the smiles or the faces that she recalled?):

the smiles of delight on all the faces that she recalled [1a]

Another ordering [1b] may be grammatically awkward, since it introduces discontinuity (*cf* 17.122) to avoid ambiguity:

?the smiles that she recalled of delight on all the faces [1b]

When we go on from this same sentence to attempt a noun phrase which has *faces* or *delight* as head, the problems increase:

?all the faces that she recalled the smiles of delight on [1c]

One solution to this problem is to replace the relative clause by a construction with preposition + *-ing* participle clause (although the subject then has to be merely implicit):

On recalling the smiles of delight on all the faces (she was reminded of birthday parties in her own childhood). [1d]

Note The objection in [1c] is not merely to the final preposition (*cf* 17.16), as is shown by the awkwardness also of [1e]:

?all the faces on which she recalled the smiles of delight [1e]

Noun phrases with *delight* as head are no less problematic:

?the delight that she recalled the smiles of on all the faces [1f]
*the delight of which she recalled the smiles on all the faces [1g]
*the delight on all the faces that she recalled the smiles of [1h]
*delight on all the faces {of which she recalled the smiles / whose smiles she recalled} [1i]

All these examples, however, involve discontinuous structures, which will be discussed in 17.122 and 18.39.

Apposition

The nature of apposition

17.65 In 17.26 we looked at appositive postmodification by *that*-clauses, in 17.35 at appositive nonfinite clauses, and in 17.47 at appositive prepositional phrases. We now consider the nature of apposition itself. Apposition is primarily, and typically, a relation between noun phrases, and this is the reason for treating apposition in this chapter.

For linguistic units to be APPOSITIVES, *ie* in apposition, they must normally be identical in reference. Thus in [1], *Anna* and *my best friend* are coreferential, and similarly, in [2], *Paul Jones* and *the distinguished art critic* refer to the same person:

Anna, my best friend, was here last night. [1]
Paul Jones, the distinguished art critic, died in his sleep last night. [2]

Alternatively, the reference of one must be included in the reference of the other, *eg* [3], where *a neighbour* is identified as *Fred Brick*:

A neighbour, Fred Brick, is on the telephone. [3]

The relationship denoted by apposition is therefore analogous to a copular relationship (*cf* 2.16):

Paul Jones was *the distinguished art critic*. [2a]
Fred Brick is *a neighbour*. [3a]

Such examples of apposition may be compared with nonrestrictive postmodification, in particular nonrestrictive relative clauses:

Anna, *who is my best friend*, was here last night. [1a]

The noun phrase *my best friend* in [1] may be considered to be a reduction of the relative clause in [1a]. Indeed, some grammarians have included nonrestrictive relative clauses among appositives. Presumably this assignment is motivated

(a) by the frequent possibility of expanding a second appositive into a relative clause;

(b) by the loose attachment of the nonrestrictive relative clause to the sentence; and

(c) by the requirement for coreference between the *wh*-word in the clause and an antecedent noun phrase.

However, in this grammar we make a distinction between a noun phrase with its relative clause and apposition, the latter being primarily a relation between two noun phrases. One reason for this is that, unlike relative clauses where a relative pronoun is an element or constituent in the clause (*cf* 17.10), apposition has no such item. The similarity between nonrestrictive relative clauses and apposition is in fact limited to relative clauses of the *SVC* type that have a noun phrase as complement, as in [1a]. There is no appositional construction [4a] parallel to clauses like [4] (*cf* 17.22):

Here is a letter from John, *who wants a job in London*. [4]
*Here is a letter from John, *a job in London*. [4a]

Thus, apposition differs from relative clauses in that it involves the linking of units of the same rank.

Apposition resembles coordination (*cf* 13.1*ff*) in that not only do coordinate constructions also involve the linking of units of the same rank, but the

central coordinators *and* and *or* may themselves occasionally be used as explicit markers of apposition (*cf* 13.22*ff*).

Full and partial apposition

17.66 Grammarians vary in the freedom with which they apply the term 'apposition' even in the quite specific sense adopted here. Some have restricted it more narrowly to cases where the following conditions are met:

(i) Each of the appositives can be separately omitted without affecting the acceptability of the sentence.
(ii) Each fulfils the same syntactic function in the resultant sentences.
(iii) It can be assumed that there is no difference between the original sentence and either of the resultant sentences in extralinguistic reference.

For example, by omitting each appositive in turn from [1] we obtain the two sentences [1a] and [1b]:

A neighbour, Fred Brick, is on the telephone. [1]
A neighbour is on the telephone. [1a]
Fred Brick is on the telephone. [1b]

The apposition in [1] meets the three conditions:

(i) The resultant sentences are acceptable.
(ii) Both noun phrases are subject of their sentence.
(iii) Since *Fred Brick* and *a neighbour* are coreferential in [1], we can assume the reference of the two resultant sentences to be the same.

Apposition meeting these three conditions we term FULL APPOSITION.

On the other hand, we cannot exclude consideration of sequences which resemble such full apposition but nonetheless do not meet these three conditions entirely. If condition (i) alone is unfulfilled, the difference from full apposition is comparatively trivial. For example, from [2] only the second appositive can be omitted, as in [2a]:

An unusual present was given to him for his birthday, *a book on ethics*. [2]
An unusual present was given to him for his birthday. [2a]

Omission of the first appositive results in an unacceptable sentence [2b], unless we reposition it initially [2c]:

*Was given to him for his birthday, *a book on ethics*. [2b]
A book on ethics was given to him for his birthday. [2c]

The type of partial apposition where the position of the appositive is the sole difference might be considered 'discontinuous full apposition'.

Condition (ii) is not met in [3]:

Norman Jones, at one time a law student, wrote several best-sellers. [3]

Norman Jones is subject in [3a], but *at one time a law student* cannot be subject in [3b]:

Norman Jones wrote several best-sellers. [3a]
At one time a law student wrote several best-sellers. [3b]

However, the prepositional phrase may precede the subject in adverbial function with the same meaning as [3]:

At one time a law student, Jones/he wrote . . . [3c]

The pair [3] and [3c] illustrate the general feature of grammar that a paraphrase relation often obtains between structures that are viewed as grammatically different.

Finally, condition (iii) is not met in [4]:

The reason he gave, that he didn't notice the car till too late, is unsatisfactory. [4]

We can omit each of the appositives in turn, and each fulfils the function of subject in the resultant sentences:

The reason he gave is unsatisfactory. [4a]
That he didn't notice the car till too late is unsatisfactory. [4b]

However, [4b] is different from both [4] and [4a] since it does not assert that a particular reason is unsatisfactory but that a particular fact is unsatisfactory:

(*The fact*) *that he didn't notice the car till too late* is unsatisfactory.

To designate the structures in [2], [3], and [4], we use the general term PARTIAL APPOSITION.

Note Coreferential relationships where the units fulfil distinctly different syntactic functions are not considered to be appositional, *eg*:
John washed *himself*. [subject + object of pronoun, *cf* 6.23*ff*]
Jane likes *her* own car best. [subject + determiner, *cf* 5.10*ff*]
Susan does whatever *she* wants. [subject + subject of embedded clause, *cf* 14.4*ff*]

Strict and weak apposition

17.67 The appositives may belong to the same general syntactic class (*eg* the central type noun phrase + noun phrase), as in [1]:

Football, his only interest in life, has brought him many friends. [1]

In such a case we term the construction STRICT APPOSITION.

On the other hand, appositives from different syntactic classes are said to be in WEAK APPOSITION (*cf* 17.92), for example, noun phrase + *-ing*-clause in [2]:

His only interest in life, playing football, has brought him many friends. [2]

Nonrestrictive and restrictive apposition

17.68 Apposition may be NONRESTRICTIVE or RESTRICTIVE (*cf* 17.3*ff*). So far, all our examples have shown nonrestrictive apposition. The appositives in nonrestrictive apposition are in separate information units (*cf* 18.3*ff*). This fact is indicated, in speech, by their inclusion in separate tone units (*cf* App II.16*ff*);

in writing, by their separation by commas or heavier punctuation. For example, the apposition is nonrestrictive in [1] but restrictive in [1a]:

Mr Campbell, a lawyer, was here last night. [1]
Mr Campbell the lawyer was here last night. [*ie* Mr Campbell the lawyer as opposed to any other Mr Campbell we know] [1a]

In nonrestrictive apposition, the two appositive units contribute relatively independent information, with the first appositive acting as the DEFINED expression, and the second appositive having a DEFINING role ('the definer'). The defining role is reflected in the fact that the second appositive is marked as parenthetic by punctuation [2] or intonation [2a]:

The President of the company, Mrs Louise Parsons, gave a press conference after the board meeting. [2]
The |PRĚsident of the company| |Mrs Louise PĂRsons| |gave a press conference after the BÒARD meeting| [2a]

In [2] and [2a], *the President of the company* is the defined and *Mrs Louise Parsons* the defining expression. On the other hand, in [2b], the roles are reversed:

Mrs Louise Parsons, the President of the company, gave a press conference after the board meeting. [2b]

In [2b], *Mrs Louise Parsons* is the defined expression, and *the President of the company* the defining expression, the latter constituting a separate information unit.

Note [a] The first (*ie* defined) appositive determines concord:

Land, brains, wealth, technology – in other words *everything we need* – $\left\{\begin{matrix} are \\ *is \end{matrix}\right\}$ plentiful in our country.

Everything we need – land, brains, wealth, technology – $\left\{\begin{matrix} is \\ *are \end{matrix}\right\}$ plentiful in our country.

[b] A defining appositive is not the same as a tag exclamation (*cf* 18.59 Note [a]). An aside such as *the utter fool* in [3] is an irregular insertion and can come anywhere in the sentence:

John (*the utter fool*) insisted on staying with them. [3]

Compare an interpolation such as in [3a]:

John (*can you believe it?*) insisted on staying with them. [3a]

The difference between the two constructions is highlighted in the ambiguity of [4]:

Richard (*the villain*) forced his sister into marriage. [4]

In one interpretation, *the villain* is intended as a critical term, 'the bad character in the play', and is appositive to *Richard*; in the other interpretation, it is an evaluative comment synonymous with 'the wicked man', and is an exclamatory aside. The two interpretations can be distinguished intonationally:

Apposition:
|RĪCHard| the |VĪLlain| |forced his sister into MÀRriage| [4a]

Exclamatory aside:
|RĪCHard the VĪLlain| |forced his sister into MÀRriage| [4b]

The aside in [4b], as well as being in the same tone unit as *Richard*, is also marked by a lowering of its pitch relative to that of the rest of the sentence.

[c] The most common type of separator used in delimiting a nonrestrictive apposition in writing is the comma; but dashes or parentheses are also used (as they are for other types of parenthetic items, *cf* App III.16*ff*):

Only *one person* $\left\{\begin{matrix} \text{, Susan Long,} \\ \text{– Susan Long –} \\ \text{(Susan Long)} \end{matrix}\right\}$ voted against me.

Defined/defining relationships

17.69 When apposition is full apposition (*cf* 17.66), it may not be clear which of the appositives is the defining one:

My friend Anna was here last night. [full + strict] [1]
The question whether to confess or not troubled the girl. [full + weak] [2]

In partial restrictive apposition, on the other hand, one of the appositives is definer of the other. In [3], the definer is *financial expert*:

Next Saturday, *financial expert Tom Timber* will begin writing a weekly column on the national economy. [partial + strict] [3]

(On the stylistic aspect of this example, *cf* 17.88.) Similarly, in [4], the definer is *that he couldn't see the car*:

The explanation that he couldn't see the car is unsatisfactory. [partial + weak] [4]

The syntactically subordinate role of one of the appositives is clear with partial apposition, since only the definer can be omitted (*cf* 17.66).

Combinations of appositional types

17.70 The three types of distinction we have made apply in combination, as illustrated below:

APPOSITION	*full*	[either omissible]
	partial	[only one omissible]
	strict	[same syntactic class]
	weak	[different syntactic class]
	nonrestrictive	[different information unit]
	restrictive	[same information unit]

(i) FULL, STRICT, NONRESTRICTIVE
Paul Jones, the distinguished art critic, died in his sleep last night.

(ii) FULL, WEAK, NONRESTRICTIVE
Playing football, his only interest in life, has brought him many friends.

(iii) FULL, STRICT, RESTRICTIVE
My friend Anna was here last night.

(iv) FULL, WEAK, RESTRICTIVE
The question whether to confess or not troubled the girl.

(v) PARTIAL, STRICT, NONRESTRICTIVE
An unusual present was given to him for his birthday, *a book on ethics*.

(vi) PARTIAL, WEAK, NONRESTRICTIVE
His explanation, that he couldn't see the car, is unsatisfactory.

(vii) PARTIAL, STRICT, RESTRICTIVE
Next Saturday, *financial expert Tom Timber* will begin writing a weekly column on the national economy. [typical of journalistic style]

(viii) PARTIAL, WEAK, RESTRICTIVE
His claim that he couldn't see the car was unconvincing.

More than two units in apposition

17.71 Though we have found it convenient to exemplify apposition with merely two appositives, there may occasionally be more than two units in apposition at the same level, as in [1]:

They returned to *their birthplace, their place of residence, the country of which they were citizens.* [1]

In [1], there seems to be no reason for combining any two of the noun phrases as one unit in the appositional relationship. On the other hand, we often find cases in which two or more noun phrases function as one appositive:

She had *a splendid vacation: a Mediterranean cruise and a trip to the Bahamas.* [2]

In this case, the coordinated noun phrases are together appositional to the general term *a splendid vacation* in relation to which *a Mediterranean cruise* and *a trip to the Bahamas* are the particulars. But the units functioning as a single appositive need not be coordinated by *and*:

We have *everything we need: land, brains, wealth,* (and) *technology.* [3]

In [3], the second appositive is an asyndetic series of juxtaposed units which, taken together, are included under the general first appositional unit *everything we need*. There is yet another possibility: a hierarchy of appositional relationships, as indicated here by bracketing:

We now find [*a new type of student*: [*the revolutionary* – [*the radical bent on changing the system and the anarchist bent on destroying it*]]]. [4]

A new type of student is the first appositive, while all that follows it in the sentence constitutes the second appositive. But within the second appositive there is further apposition: *the revolutionary* is the first appositive, while what follows in the sentence is appositive to it.

Ambiguity between apposition and other constructions

17.72 In 17.68 we noted the use of intonation and punctuation separation for the appositive in nonrestrictive apposition. Where the lexical items and syntactic construction allow for potential ambiguity, intonation or punctuation separation may or may not resolve the ambiguity. The pair of noun phrases in [1] is interpreted as indirect object and direct object, respectively, synonymous with [1a]:

They sent *Joan a waitress from the hotel.* [1]
They sent *a waitress from the hotel to Joan.* [1a]

On the other hand, the pair in [2] is interpreted as direct object and object complement, respectively, synonymous with [2a]:

They considered *Miss Hartley a very good teacher.* [2]
They considered *Miss Hartley to be a very good teacher.* [2a]

However, if the second noun phrase in each sentence is separated from what precedes by a tone unit boundary in spoken English or by a comma in written English, then the interpretation is weighted in favour of taking the first noun phrase as direct object with the second noun phrase in apposition to it:

They sent *Joan, a waitress from the hotel.*
['They sent Joan (who was a waitress from the hotel).'] [1b]
They considered *Miss Hartley, a very good teacher.*
['They considered Miss Hartley (who was a very good teacher).'] [2b]

Explicit indicators of apposition

17.73 Numerous expressions are available for explicitly indicating nonrestrictive apposition. They can be inserted between appositives, for example *namely* in [1]:

How can a solution be found to the current disease of contemporary society, *namely* the international economic crisis? [1]

If we add an explicit indicator of apposition such as *namely, that is, ie,* we do not regard this as changing full apposition into partial apposition, even though the presence of the indicator may affect the ability of the construction to meet the conditions for full apposition (*cf* 17.66).

The indicators express certain semantic relationships between the appositives, and therefore cannot be used for all cases of apposition. Some, however, have the same semantic function, though they may be associated with different varieties of the language. Common indicators are listed below, those marking the same, or similar, relationship being grouped together (*cf* 8.137):

that is to say, that is, ie ⟨formal and written⟩
namely, viz ⟨formal and written⟩
to wit ⟨formal, esp legal⟩
in other words
or, or rather, or better
and
as follows
for example, for instance, eg ⟨formal and written⟩, *say, including, included, such as*
especially, particularly, in particular, notably, chiefly, mainly, mostly
of

Some of these indicators either precede or (less commonly) follow the second a positive: *that is, that is to say, for example, for instance, in particular, in other words*:

Dickens's most productive period, { *that is* (*to say*) the 1840s, / the 1840s, *that is* (*to say*), } was a time when public demand for fiction was growing at a tremendous rate.

But other indicators can only precede the second appositive: *namely, and, or, or rather, or better, as follows, including, such as, of*; and the abbreviated forms *ie, viz, eg*. *Included* can only follow the second appositive (*cf* 9.8):

Many people, { *including* my sister, / my sister *included*, } won't forgive him for that.

The scale of strict nonrestrictive apposition

17.74 In addition to the relationships we have subsumed so far under our definition of apposition, we recognize a semantic scale running from equivalence (*ie* 'most appositive') to loose and unequal relationship ('least appositive'), such as exemplification. These semantic relationships are illustrated in *Fig* 17.74:

'most appositive' ↑
(A) EQUIVALENCE (17.75–80)
(Ai) appellation: *that is* (*to say*) (17.76)
(Aii) identification: *namely* (17.77–78)
(Aiii) designation: *that is to say* (17.79)
(Aiv) reformulation: *in other words* (17.80)
(B) ATTRIBUTION [= nonrestrictive relative clause] (17.81–84)
(C) INCLUSION (17.85–87)
(Ci) exemplification: *for example, say* (17.86)
(Cii) particularization: *especially* (17.87)
↓ 'least appositive'

Fig 17.74 A scale of semantic relationships in strict nonrestrictive noun-phrase apposition

Of the three major semantic types (equivalence, attribution, and inclusion), inclusion is the most peripheral to the concept of apposition, in that this construction alone requires an indicator, such as *particularly* in [3]. Compare:

My best friend, (that is to say) *Anna*, was here last night. [1]
The house, (which is) *an imposing building*, dominates the street. [2]
The children liked *the animals*, particularly *the monkeys*. [3]

On the other hand, equivalence is the only type that allows either order of the appositives, as in [1] and [1a]:

Anna, that is to say *my best friend*, . . . [1a]
**An imposing building*, which is *the house*, dominates the street. [2a]
*The children liked *the monkeys*, particularly *the animals*. [3a]

Thus, in terms of these two criteria, the scale from 'most to least appositive' is in the order equivalence → attribution → inclusion.

Appositive-like relations exist also between other units than noun phrases, such as clauses [4], predications [5], and adjectives [6]:

Although she was reluctant, although she felt an understandable hesitation, she eventually agreed. [4]
They had *summoned help – called the police and fire brigade*. [5]
She is *better, very much better*, than she used to be. [6]

However, to talk about apposition of units other than noun phrases makes the concept of apposition too weak. Such apposition-like constructions will be treated as exceptional.

(A) Equivalence

17.75 Appositives in an equivalence relationship allow the insertion of *that is* (*to say*) and, less commonly, of *in other words*. As *Fig* 17.74 shows, there are four

types of equivalence relationship: appellation, identification, designation, and reformulation. The types can be partly differentiated by the different optional indicators they admit.

(Ai) Appellation

17.76 With APPELLATION, *ie* a 'naming relation', both appositional noun phrases are definite, and the second is typically a proper noun. The second appositive is more specific than the first, and hence the use of *namely*, an indicator that introduces a more specific appositive. *Or* is less commonly used than the other indicators, *that is* (*to say*) and *in other words*:

The company commander, that is to say *Captain Madison*, assembled his men and announced their mission. [1]
My best friend, in other words *Anna*, was here last night. [2]
My best friend was here last night – *Anna*. [3]

Sentence [3] is an example of partial apposition.

There is a one-to-one correspondence between the references of the two appositives with appellation. The second appositive can be replaced by a corresponding relative clause:

The *company commander, who is Captain Madison*, assembled his men and announced their mission. [1a]

(Aii) Identification

17.77 With IDENTIFICATION, the first appositive is typically an indefinite noun phrase and the second appositive is more specific. Hence the optional relator *namely* may be inserted. If we make the first appositive of [1] in 17.76 indefinite, we now have identification:

A company commander, (namely) *Captain Madison*, assembled his men and announced their mission. [1b]

In [1b] there is no longer a one-to-one correspondence, as there was with [1]. The second appositive identifies what is referred to in the first appositive. A similar relationship obtains if the first appositive is, or contains, a pro-form coreferring to the second appositive:

We – that is to say *John and I* – intend to resign. [2]
She still enjoys *such books*: *science fiction, detective stories, historical novels*. [3]
We have *everything we need*: *land, brains, wealth, technology*. [4]

In partial apposition, the second appositive may be preceded by a colon as a graphological indicator of identification, as in [3], [4], and [5]:

An unusual present was given to him for his birthday: *a book on ethics*. [5]

Note There are other grammatical constructions which are somewhat similar to apposition in meaning. Compare examples [3] and [4] with, respectively, the correlative *such . . . as* in [3a] and the complex preposition in [4a]:

She still enjoys *such* books *as* science fiction . . . [3a]
We have everything we need *in the way of* land, brains, . . . [4a]

Postponed and anticipated identification

17.78 As a special subtype of identification, we might consider the phenomenon of 'postponed' and 'anticipated' identification.

Postponed identification involves placing a pro-form earlier in the sentence while the noun phrase to which it refers is placed finally as an amplificatory tag (*cf* 18.59). This construction, which is sometimes termed 'right dislocation', is restricted to informal spoken English, where it is very common:

He's a complete idiot, *that brother of yours*. [1]

Such utterances are usually spoken with divided focus (*cf* 18.17), with a rise on the 'tag' confirming its 'given' status:

It |went on far too LÒNG| |*your GÁME*| [2]

In informal spoken English we also have the reverse process, 'anticipated identification' (also called 'left dislocation'), where a noun phrase is positioned initially and a reinforcing pronoun stands 'proxy' for it in the relevant position in the sentence:

Your friend John, I saw *him* here last night. [3]
That play, *it* was terrible. [4]

Note [a] In even more informal style, the operator is sometimes included with postponed identification (*cf* 18.58):
It went on far too long, *your game did*. [2a]
In some dialects, there may be inversion when the verb is *be*:
He's a complete idiot, {*John is.* / *is John.*} [1a]
[b] In the following sentences, postponed identification in [5] contrasts in intonation and article usage with apposition in [6], where the definite article may be zero:
He's |had a lot of bad LÙCK| the |new mecHÁNic| [5]
He's |had a lot of bad LÙCK (the) poor man| [6]

(Aiii) Designation

17.79 DESIGNATION is the converse of appellation and identification. The second appositive is less specific than the first, and hence the optional insertions cannot include the indicator *namely*. Both appositives are commonly definite noun phrases:

Captain Madison, (that is to say) *the company commander*, assembled his men and announced their mission. [1]
Anna, (that is to say) *my best friend*, was here last night. [2]
Land, brains, wealth, technology – in other words *everything we need* – are plentiful in our country. [3]
He sent ahead *the sergeant*, in other words *the most experienced scout in the company*. [4]

Replacement of the second appositive by a corresponding relative clause is possible:

He sent ahead *the sergeant, who was the most experienced scout in the company*. [4a]

Designation may also include matching indefinite noun phrases:

We are using *Sirius – a new microcomputer with a large memory*. [5]

Examples of partial apposition:

Anna was here last night, *my best friend*. [2a]
Have *some Harveys* with your Christmas *the most distinguished sherries you can buy*. [6]

(Aiv) Reformulation

17.80 REFORMULATION is a rewording in the second (defining) appositive of the lexical content of the first (defined) appositive. Four groups of reformulation may be distinguished:

(a) Reformulation based on linguistic knowledge
(b) Reformulation based on factual knowledge
(c) More precise formulation
(d) Revision

(a) Reformulation based on linguistic knowledge
In reformulation based on linguistic knowledge, the defining appositive is a synonymous expression:

This is what is sometimes referred to as *an intentional terminological inexactitude*, in other words *a lie*. [1]
Sound units of the language, technically *phonemes*, are usually surrounded by slant lines: /p/. [2]
You should have consulted *an ophthalmologist*, that is (to say) *an eye doctor*. [3]

A synonymous word or phrase may replace the first formulation in order to avoid misinterpretation or provide a more familiar or a more technical term. In addition to the markers it shares with other types of reformulation (in particular *or*), this type admits a large range of expressions that specifically mark linguistic reformulation (*cf* 8.89, 8.137), *eg*:

(more) simply	*in more difficult language*
in simple(r) words	*in scientific terminology*
in simple(r) terms	*in more technical terms*
put (more) simply	*technically (speaking)*
to put it (more) simply	*in words of one syllable*

Partial apposition involving linguistic reformulation includes translations from foreign languages: "*savoir* ('know' in English)".

(b) Reformulation based on factual knowledge
In this group, the reformulation is based less on linguistic knowledge than on knowledge about the external world:

Fred – or *Ginger* as he is usually called – . . . [4]
The Nordic countries, or *Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden*, . . . [5]
The United States of America, or *America* for short, . . . [6]

The distinction between linguistic and factual knowledge is not absolute as, for example, in:

Alligator pears, or *avocados* as they are usually called, . . . [7]

It can be argued that it is our knowledge of the external world that is responsible for our awareness of the greater frequency of the synonymous *avocados* in [7].

Reformulation can also be negative, *ie* the modifying appositive is not a synonymous expression:

You should have consulted *an ophthalmologist, not* (that is) *an optician*, for your eyes. [3a]

Without context, such a sentence as the following is potentially ambiguous in writing:

Anna Wilson, not my best friend, voted against me. [8]

It either has a negative appositive meaning, 'Anna Wilson, who happens not to be my best friend, . . .' or a denial sense (*cf* 10.66): 'It was Anna Wilson who voted against me, not the other person'.

(c) More precise formulation

This type conveys a more precise reformulation, or a correction in the defining appositive of what was said in the first appositive:

They started going to *the church, the Catholic Church*. [9]

But the intention may be rhetorical (as indeed in [9]) to provide a climactic effect by repetition and expansion of the first noun phrase:

You could cut the atmosphere with *a knife, a blunt knife* at that. [10]

At that attached to the end of the modifying appositive in [10] is an explicit marker of rhetorical intention. When it is present, *and* can be inserted (*cf* appended coordination, 13.94; coordinative apposition, 10.39):

You could cut the atmosphere with *a knife*, and *a blunt knife* at that. [10a]

Perhaps under this type of reformulation we should include other instances of more precise formulation, some of which do not involve repetition but which have a constraining and antithetical force:

this and *just this*
the women and *only the women*
then and *not before*
these and *these alone*
those and *no others*

(d) Revision

Under this heading we may include the form of 'editing' or 'self-correction' that is typical of impromptu spoken English where execution and planning, at least to some extent, take place simultaneously. Such editing is of course not limited to noun phrases. We may distinguish some different types:

'Reference editing' by the use of *that is* (*to say*) as in:

His party controls *London, Greater London* that is to say. [11]

This type is very similar to the previous one in [9], in providing more precise information. It is used when the speaker wants to achieve greater accuracy and precision.

'Nuance editing' by the use of *or rather* before a substituted expression, as in:

She puts such *vitality* (or rather *virility*) into her play. [12]

'Mistake editing' by the use of *I mean* in order to correct a phonological or semantic mistake (which is common enough in impromptu speech), *eg*:

The thirst thing, I mean *the first thing* to remember is that . . . [13]
Then you add *the peaches* – I mean, *the apricots* . . . [14]

'Claim editing' by the use of *well* when a speaker wants to modify a claim he finds excessive, *eg*:

All families, well (at least) *those who can afford to*, will be going away for their holiday. [15]

(B) Attribution

17.81 Attribution involves predication rather than equivalence, and the equivalence indicators *that is* (*to say*) and *in other words* are not admitted. On the other hand, we can replace the defining appositive by a corresponding nonrestrictive relative clause. The defining appositive is commonly an indefinite noun phrase:

Captain Madison, a company commander, assembled his men and announced their mission.
The house, an imposing building, dominates the street.
Ron Pall, a blatant liar, claimed that he had won first prize.

But the defining appositive can also be definite, with cataphoric *the* introducing a definite description (*cf* 5.32):

He introduced me to *the young woman, the heir to a fortune*.
Many students, the cream of the school, died in the war.
'I don't know what I would have done if I had seen him', exclaimed *Mary, the prey of violent and obscure emotions*.

Defining appositive with article omitted

17.82 In a type of partial apposition expressing attribution (particularly a unique role), an article (definite or indefinite) is absent from the defining appositive (*cf* 5.42):

Mary Cordwell, 25-year-old singer on television shows, is being invited to the reception. [1]

The omission of the article is optional in the defining appositive which may be seen as a reduced relative clause:

Robinson, (who is) (*the*) *leader of the Democratic group on the committee*, refused to answer questions. [2]

Note [a] The omission of the article is one of the devices used in headlines, where a sentence such as [2a] would not be unusual:
Democratic leader refuses to answer questions. [2a]

[b] If the defining appositive is short enough, it can be preposed in restrictive apposition (*cf* 17.68, 17.88):

Democratic leader Robinson refused to answer questions. [2b]
25-year-old television singer Mary Cordwell is being invited to the reception. [1a]

This usage is generally associated with the journalistic style of magazines, especially in AmE. It is to be distinguished from cases where the first element is an official title, *eg*: *Vice-President Durney*, though, here too, their use is commoner in AmE than BrE; thus *Secretary of State Smith* (but hardly *Foreign Secretary Brown*).

The relation of apposition to verbless adverbial clause

17.83 An adverbial (*then*, *obviously*, *also*, *normally*, etc) that is an element in a verbless clause may occur with the defining appositive:

Norman Jones, *then a student*, wrote several best-sellers.
Your brother, *obviously an expert on English grammar*, is highly praised in the book I'm reading.
They elected as chairman Edna Jones, *also a Cambridge graduate*.
Jones and Peters, *both of unknown address*, were charged with the murder of Williamson.
At the entrance there are two pillars, *one on each side*.

A somewhat different construction is where the defining appositive is a verbless clause comprising the structure subject + complement:

The two men, *one a Norwegian and the other a Dane*, were awarded medals. [1]

In each case, the participle *being* can be inserted between the two internal constituents of the defining appositive:

The two men, *one (being) a Norwegian and the other (being) a Dane* . . . [1a]

They can also be seen as reduced relative clauses:

The two men, *one (of whom was) a Norwegian and the other (of whom was) a Dane*, . . . [1b]

Defining appositive with adverbial

17.84 An attribution appositive is to be distinguished from a verbless adverbial clause. Verbless adverbial clauses (*cf* 14.9) often occur initially and are characteristically interpreted as concessive or causal:

An even-tempered man, Paul nevertheless became extremely angry when he heard what had happened. [1]
The heir to a fortune, her friend did not care about passing examinations. [2]

The verbless clause in [1] is interpreted as concessive: 'Though he was an even-tempered man'. (Notice that *nevertheless* refers back to the content of the initial clause: 'in spite of his being an even-tempered man'.) The verbless clause in [2], on the other hand, is interpreted as causal: 'Since she was the heir to a fortune'. These constructions differ from identification apposition (*cf* 17.77) in that, when they occur initially, the second noun phrase is the subject of the sentence, and is not marked off from the predicate by intonation or punctuation separation.

However, the verbless adverbial clause can occur after the subject and is then, like apposition, marked off by intonation or punctuation:

Her friend, the heir to a fortune, did not care about passing examinations. [2a]
Bob Rand, a notorious burglar, found it easy to force open the lock. [3]

In such cases, the lexical content of the sentence suggests the more probable interpretation. For example in [4], *a blatant liar* can be interpreted as a (verbless) adverbial causal clause, since it is reasonable to ascribe the expulsion to Pall's being a blatant liar:

Ron Pall, a blatant liar, was expelled from the group. [4]

In [4a], on the other hand, *a blatant liar* would normally be understood as a case of apposition:

Ron Pall, a blatant liar, used to be in my class at school. [4a]

In [4a], there is no motivation for assuming that Pall's presence in the class had anything to do with his being a blatant liar. If, however, the order of the appositives were reversed [4b], one would assume that there is such a causal or explanatory intention:

A blatant liar, Ron Pall, used to be in my class at school. [4b]

(C) Inclusion

17.85 Inclusion applies to cases of apposition where the reference of the first (defined) appositive is not identical with that of the second (defining), but rather includes it. The inclusion relationship applies only to partial apposition since the omission of the first appositive brings about a radical semantic change.

There are two types of inclusion: (i) exemplification, and (ii) particularization. Exemplification need not be indicated by explicit relators, while particularization must have them (*cf* 8.116).

(Ci) Exemplification

17.86 In EXEMPLIFICATION, the second appositive exemplifies the reference of the more general term in the first appositive:

They visited *several cities*, for example *Rome and Athens*.
His excuses, such as *the breakdown of his car*, never seemed plausible.
Many people, including *my sister*, won't forgive him for that.

The explicit indicators of exemplification apposition are those in the group headed by *for example* in 17.73.

Sometimes there may be ambiguity between exemplification and identification (*cf* 17.77) if no indicator is present:

Famous men – Henry James, Gandhi, Saul Bellow – have visited this university.

Presumably the men referred to in the second appositive are not the only famous men to visit the university, but are mentioned as examples of such visitors (*ie* the list of names is open-ended, and is usually marked as such in speech by rising intonation; *cf* asyndetic coordination, 13.1). On the other hand, it is not impossible for the relationship to be interpreted as one of identification (*ie* the list is closed, which is indicated by falling tone). If one of the indicators for identification *namely*, *that is* (*to say*), *in other words*, all of which are optional – is inserted, the apposition must be an instance of identification; if the indicators *for example*, *for instance*, *eg*, *say*, or *including* are inserted (which is the norm), then we have an unambiguous case of exemplification.

Note We should perhaps include here instances like the following, where a numeral or quantifier in the second appositive indicates the inclusion:

The two men, one a Dane, were awarded medals.
The soldiers, some drunk, started fighting each other.
Several sailors, one looking like someone I know, stepped up to the bar.

(Cii) Particularization

17.87 PARTICULARIZATION is the marked form of inclusion and requires an explicit indicator which shows that the particularization has been chosen because it is in some way prominent:

The book contains *some fascinating passages*, notably *an account of their trip to North Africa*.
The children liked *the animals*, particularly *the monkeys*.
We want to invite *a number of friends*, especially *Joan and Betty*.

Other indicators of particularization are *in particular*, *chiefly*, *mainly*, and *mostly*.

Strict restrictive apposition

17.88 There are three types of strict restrictive apposition of noun phrases.

In type (a), the first appositive is preceded by a definite determiner (and possibly premodifier) and is more general than the second appositive:

that famous critic Paul Jones	the number three
the soprano Janet Baker	the year 2000
the novel 'Great Expectations'	your brother George

The type *friend Anna* usually implies criticism:

Our friend Anna here doesn't think so, however.

Type (b) is the reverse of (a), *ie* the second appositive is preceded by the determiner *the*, and is more general than the first:

Paul Jones the critic	Thompson the plumber
Janet Baker the soprano	Wright the lawyer

Type (c) is like (a) but with omission of the determiner (*cf* 17.76, 17.82 Note [b]); the examples in the right-hand column are especially AmE:

Brother George	Soprano Janet Baker ⟨esp AmE⟩
Farmer Brown	Lawyer Wright ⟨esp AmE⟩

Type (a) is the most common. Type (c), with omission of the determiner, produces partial apposition, with the first appositive becoming premodifier and resembling a title (*Lord Nelson*, *Mrs Johnson*, etc; *cf* 5.66). Generally, such reduction of the first appositive occurs only when the second is the name of a person. Hence we do not find **novel 'Great Expectations'* or **year 2000*.

Pronouns followed by noun phrases, such as *you girls* (*cf* 10.53), *you British* (*cf* 7.25 Note [c]), and *we men*, can also be analysed as restrictive apposition.

Note Determiners are regularly omitted in proper noun use, as is observed not only in personal and geographical names, but also in, *eg*:

Operation Abolition, Hurricane Edna, Mission Impossible

Postposed numerals and letters perhaps imply the ellipsis of the words *number* or *letter*:

line (number) 12	room (number) 10A
equation (number) 4	Ward (letter) C

If that is so, the phrases contain appositional constructions, with the number or letter being in apposition to the ellipted word *number* or *letter*, *eg*: *number 10A* ~ *The number is 10A*. We also find premodifying numbers and letters, particularly on signs like *No 2 Platform*, *G Block*. The following constructions are fully acceptable in onomastic use:

Number 3, No 3, ⟨esp AmE⟩ # 3
Ch(apter) 6, Class 2b, Fig(ure) B, Section 10, Table 8, Type A

There is no type (a) with a definite determiner possible in the following use:

Are you in { *Number 103*? [NOT: *the number 103] / *Room 103*? [NOT: *the room 103] }

Geographical names

17.89 Geographical names (*cf* 5.68) merit separate treatment because the proper noun is often preceded or followed by a descriptor (*cf* 5.60) which has an appositive function. Certain names of individual mountains and lakes take *Mount* and *Lake*, respectively, as a title, *ie* type (c) (*cf* 17.88):

Mount Everest	Lake Michigan
Mount Vesuvius	Lake Windermere

We do not prefix them with a determiner. Most other geographical names take a determiner, the general term being preceded by the proper noun as premodifier:

the Atlantic Ocean	the Rocky Mountains
the Mediterranean Sea	the Nile Valley

Some rivers allow either strict apposition type (a) or premodification (*cf* 5.72):

the (River) Rhine/Thames/Seine/Rhône/Nile

New-world rivers have the proper noun before the descriptor:

the { Ohio / Mississippi / Potomac } (River)

In names of some districts and a few cities and villages, there is no article and the descriptor comes second. These examples of the 'name first'

construction are especially common and in North America have a restrictive implication, *ie*: *New York City* is distinguished from, for example, *New York State*:

New York City	Milwaukee County
Quebec Province	Dulwich Village

In a name like *Kansas City*, *City* is in fact part of the name and can hardly be omitted. In other cases both orders are possible: *County Cork* or *Cork County* (and other Irish counties).

Instead of type (a) of strict restrictive apposition, the two appositives are more commonly linked by *of*, in which case there is no implication of restrictiveness, for the names of months and for the names of villages, cities, districts, counties, and regions:

the Borough of Camden	the State of Guatemala
the City of Westminster	the Island of Cyprus
the State of Washington	the Continent of Australia

In some cases we have a choice between the forms exemplified in *Washington State* (as distinct from *Washington, D.C.*) and *the State of Washington*. But, in many cases, the former option is not available:

the City of London [*not* *London City]
the District of Columbia [*not*: *Columbia District]
the month of December [*not*: *December month]
the Continent of Africa *or* the African Continent [*not*: *Africa Continent]
the Republic of France *or* the French Republic [*not*: *France Republic]

Note Books of the Bible normally have the *of*-construction:
the book of Genesis the book of Job
For other uses of the appositive indicator *of*, *cf* 17.47*ff*.

Citations

17.90 An important use of type (a) of restrictive apposition (*cf* 17.68) is found with citations and titles of books, films, etc:

the term 'heavy water'
the expression 'do your own thing'

The first appositive is often absent:

(The word) *if* is a conjunction.
(The noun) *men* is an irregular plural in English.
I'm reading (the novel) *Crime and Punishment*.
(The verb) *hiss* expresses by its very sound the meaning it conveys.
The book and the papers is a coordinated noun phrase.

We may assume a weak form of ellipsis (*cf* 12.38) in such cases, an ellipsis of some general phrase such as *the expression* or *the citation form*, or of an appropriate term in the case of titles, such as *the book, the film, the play*. Notice the singular number concord with *men* and *the book and the papers* (*cf* 10.34 Note [c]), which can be explained if we assume the ellipsis of a singular first appositive.

Appositives with names of persons

17.91 With names, type (b) of restrictive apposition (*cf* 17.88) is restricted to cases where the first appositive is the name of a person and the second is the designation of an occupation, relationship, etc: *Bill Johnston the architect*.

In type (c) of restrictive apposition, the first appositive is used as if it were a title in *Architect Johnston* ⟨esp journalistic AmE⟩. This use should be compared with institutionalized titles (*cf* 5.66):

President Kennedy	Judge Harris ⟨esp AmE⟩
Dr Smith	Vice-president Johnson ⟨esp AmE⟩

With appositives, a preposed determiner is normal (type a), along with type (c):

the critic Paul Jones the architect Bill Johnston

But a determiner is not used with titles like *queen* and *professor* unless the noun phrases are modified:

(the present) Queen Elizabeth
(the sprightly) Professor Brown
(the) Mr Porter (who lives next door to you)

With appositives, postposition with *the* (type b), as in *Paul Jones the critic*, is more common than pre-position without *the* (type c), as in *critic Paul Jones* (*cf* 17.88).

Brown the farmer is perhaps on the borderline in this respect. Since we have *my brother George*, and hence *George my brother*, *the* in **George the brother* and analogous constructions with family relationships are ruled out, unless *the* is cataphoric: *George, the brother of James*.

Pre-position is normal for titles, and those phrases that are nearest to being exclusively titles do not allow postposition at all: *Sir John Cartwright*, *Mr Porter*.

We can now show the gradience from apposition in *critic Paul Jones* to full title in *Mr Porter* with the following examples:

(1)	(2)	(3)
critic Paul Jones ⟨esp journalistic AmE⟩	Farmer Brown	Brother George
the critic Paul Jones	the farmer Brown	my brother George
Paul Jones the critic	Brown the farmer	?the brother George
the critic	the farmer	*George the brother
*critic [vocative]	*farmer [vocative]	the brother
		brother [vocative]

(4)	(5)	(6)
Professor Brown	Dr Smith [nonmedical]	Mr Porter
*the professor Brown	*the doctor Smith	*the Mr Porter
?Brown the professor	*Smith the doctor	*Porter the mister
the professor	*the doctor	*the mister
Professor [vocative]	Doctor [vocative]	mister [vocative; in nonstandard usage]

Note [a] Most appositive descriptors and titles can be used with a determiner and without the proper noun:

the farmer, the judge, the President, the doctor [when used for a medical practitioner]

But *sir* and *mister* are not used in this way: **the sir*. *The mister* occurs as nonstandard use 'my husband'; *cf the missus* ['my (or your) wife']. *The Lord* (with a capital *L*) refers to God. On the use of initial capital letter for appositive titles, *cf* App III.29.

[b] Most titles can be used as vocatives (*cf* 10.52*f*) and so can some appositives such as *Farmer* and *Brother*. The title *Miss* is used in the vocative ⟨esp AmE and familiar or nonstandard BrE⟩, but otherwise is generally followed by a name. The accompanying name must be the last name (*eg*: *Miss Jones* and not *Miss Alice*), except in archaic or minority use ⟨especially southern AmE and old-fashioned BrE⟩.

On the other hand, *sir* when used as a title is followed by the first or full name: *Sir John* (*Spencer*) and not **Sir Spencer* (*cf* 5.66 Note [b]). The vocative *sir* (*This way, sir!*) is not an abbreviated form of the title found in *Sir John* but the general polite vocative for address to all adult males. The vocative *mister* occurs only in nonstandard use: *You come here, mister*.

The appositive *Esq* ['Esquire'] is used in BrE, but virtually only in writing (chiefly in addressing letters), and is postposed to a name consisting of a family name with either a first name or initials:

John Porter, Esq *or* J. Porter, Esq

This is a more formal alternative to:

Mr John Porter *or* Mr J. Porter *or* Mr Porter

Mr and *Esq* are not combined: **Mr J. Porter, Esq*. *Esq* cannot occur with surname alone (**Smith, Esq*) nor can it cooccur with other titles (**Sir Sidney Marx, Esq*).

[c] In certain titles, the proper noun is followed by an article and adjective (*cf* 5.64 Note [b]): *Catherine* (*the Great*); or numeral: *Henry VIII* ['the eighth']. In such designations there is occasionally a reordering with the modification preposed:

Pitt the Younger *or* the Younger Pitt

Weak apposition

17.92 In weak apposition, the appositives come from different syntactic classes (*cf* 17.67). The optional indicator *namely* may be used if the second appositive is more specific, which is the case when the second appositive is a clause (finite or nonfinite). Normally the noun phrase comes first, as in these instances of full apposition:

She has *a problem*: namely *should she charge them for the damage or should she forget about it*?
Their solution, namely *to appoint a committee*, is deplorable.

But the clause, particularly if it is a nonfinite clause, can come first:

For them to pay him a commission – his own suggestion – seemed an acceptable idea.

However, it would be more natural to have a relative clause: 'a commission, which was his suggestion . . .'. The second appositive, whether a noun phrase or a clause, can indeed be regarded as a reduced relative clause:

She enjoyed { *her job*, (which was) *teaching English*.
teaching English, (which was) *her job*. }

Again, when the first appositive is a nonfinite clause, the relative clause construction would be preferable: '. . . teaching English, which was her job'.

In partial weak apposition between noun phrase and clause, the noun phrase appears first:

His explanation, that is to say *that he couldn't see the car*, is unsatisfactory.

He gave them *the news*: namely *that the troops would be leaving*.

The first appositive cannot be omitted without producing an unacceptable sentence (*cf* 17.66). *That is* (*to say*) and *namely* are the (optional) indicators for this type of apposition. The clause can be regarded as a reduced relative clause.

The first appositive may be part of the clause:

If the government had known what was going to happen, *it* would not *have increased credit facilities – a move that accelerated inflation*.

Apposition with general nouns

17.93 Restrictive apposition is common with such general nouns as *the fact, the view, the question, your duty*:

The fact that she wouldn't betray her friends is very much to her credit. [1]
I don't agree with *the view that there is no advantage in being patient*. [2]
The question whether to confess or not troubled her. [3]
Your duty to report the accident takes precedence over everything else. [4]

Finite appositive clauses like [1–2] are further discussed in 17.26*f*, infinitive clauses like [3–4] in 17.35.

With participle clauses, and sometimes with *wh*-clauses, *of* is used as an indicator (*cf* 17.47):

The thought of playing against them arouses all my aggressive instincts.
He didn't accept *the idea of working while he was studying*.
Her account of what she had done that year did not satisfy her colleagues.

Premodification

Types of premodifying item

17.94 In addition to determinatives that cooccur with the head of a noun phrase (*cf* 5.10*ff*), lexical and grammatical items of a wide range and indefinite complexity and interrelationship can precede a noun head to form a noun phrase whose modification is generally less explicit than that of postmodification (*cf* 17.8). A relationship has already been inferred between the predicative adjective (*The girl is tall*) and premodification (*the tall girl*), and in 17.3*ff* it was shown that such premodification can be restrictive or nonrestrictive.

The major types of premodifying items are the following (the head indicated by angle brackets):

(a) ADJECTIVE (17.96–97):

We also met her *delightful* ⟨family⟩. ['Her family is delightful.']

(b) PARTICIPLE (17.98–103):

They never found the *missing* ⟨report⟩. ['The report was missing.']
Have you reported the *stolen* ⟨car⟩? ['The car has been stolen.']

(c) NOUN (17.104–109):

I hate *city* ⟨traffic⟩. ['traffic in the city']

In addition, there are some minor, *ie* less frequent and less productive, types of premodification:

(d) GENITIVE (17.110):

I visited his *fisherman's* ⟨cottage⟩. ['The cottage belongs to a fisherman' or 'belonged to a fisherman' or 'resembles the cottage of a fisherman.']

(e) ADVERB AND OTHER PHRASES (17.111):

We have *round-the-clock* ⟨service⟩. ['The service is round the clock, *ie* all day and night.']

(f) SENTENCE (17.112):

She has asked *I don't know how many* ⟨people⟩ to the party. ['I don't know how many people she has asked to the party.']

Restrictive and nonrestrictive premodification

17.95 Before looking in more detail at the major types of premodification, there are two generalizations to be made about the restrictive/nonrestrictive and temporary/permanent distinctions.

Although there are few formal cues as to whether a premodification is restrictive or not, it may be noted that, by their improvised nature itself, types (e) and (f) tend to be restrictive and to be given more prosodic prominence (*cf* App II.2*ff*) than the head of the noun phrase. Now, it is a general rule that, where there is no postmodification, it is the head of a noun phrase that is given prosodic prominence. Although restrictive premodifiers need not affect this rule, it is interesting to note that where prominence is given to a premodifier (as it normally is to a postmodifier), the item concerned must be restrictive. Compare [1] and [2]:

my ugly NÒSE [1]
*my ÙGly nose [2]

The noun phrase [1] is not nonsensical, but [2] normally is, unless in the special context of, for example, drawing attention to someone else's unkind allusion. In this connection it should be noted that, although proper names do not normally need restrictive modification (*cf* 17.3*ff*), they can have it when a distinction is being made between more entities bearing the same name:

Do you mean *the KenTÚCKY Richmond or the VirGÌNia* { *Richmond*? / *one*?

Typically, nouns and adjectives are stative, and verbs are dynamic (*cf* 2.43).

It follows that, as modifiers, most adjectives and nouns describe permanent characteristics while most participles describe temporary ones. Since, as we saw in 17.7, prehead position in the noun phrase is strongly associated with relatively permanent characteristics, it further follows that premodification by participles is frequently subject to constraint but that premodification by adjectives and nouns is rarely so.

Premodification by adjectives

17.96 A premodifying adjective (or, more strictly, a premodifying adjective phrase; *cf* 7.20), especially when it is the first item after the determinative, can itself be premodified, as in [1], in the same way as it can in predicative position, as in [1a]:

Her family is [*really* [*quite* [*unbelievably*]]] ⟨delightful⟩. [1]
her [*really* [*quite* [*unbelievably*]]] ⟨delightful⟩ family [1a]

Some intensifiers tend however to be avoided with premodifying adjectives. Thus the predicative phrase in [2] would seem a little gushy in premodification [2a]:

her daughter who is *so beautiful* [2]
her *so beautiful* daughter [2a]

With indefinite determiners, including zero, *so* would be replaced by *such*. Thus, in place of *so* in postmodification, as in [3] and [4], we can have *such* in premodification [3a] and [4a]:

{ a daughter who is *so beautiful* [3]
{ BUT: *such a beautiful* daughter [3a]

{ daughters who are *so beautiful* [4]
{ BUT: *such beautiful* daughters [4a]

However, in rather formal contexts, *so* plus adjective can be placed before the indefinite article [3b]:

so beautiful a daughter [3b]

There is resistance also to transferring clause negation to a structure of premodification, which is possible only in limited circumstances (usually *not* plus intensifier or negative affix); thus [5] and [6] allow the formation of [5a] and [6a]:

His behaviour was *not* { *very courteous.* [5]
{ *unpleasant.* [6]

~ his *not* { *very courteous* behaviour [5a]
{ *unpleasant* behaviour [6a]

This gives a slight impression of improvisation (note that replacing *his* by *the* in [5a] and [6a] makes the noun phrase slightly less acceptable). Thus many might prefer to reformulate by lexicalization (*cf* App I.8*ff*), *ie* replacing the free, analytic negation *not* by an affixal negation (*cf* App I.21), as in [5b], or by selecting a positive instead of two negatives [6b]:

his *rather discourteous* behaviour [5b]
his *quite pleasant* behaviour [6b]

However, we have now changed the meaning in the direction of making the behaviour less courteous and more pleasant, respectively.

Nonpredicative adjectives

17.97 There are a few peripheral adjectives that cannot be used in premodification, and, conversely, some that cannot be predicative. Both types are discussed in 7.20*ff*, and here we will only give some further illustrations of adjectives which are restricted to attributive position.

First, consider the small group (*cf* 7.33*ff*) exemplified as follows:

the *mere* mention BUT NOT: *The mention is *mere*.
the *only* trouble BUT NOT: *The trouble is *only*.

These adjectives behave irregularly also in not allowing intensification by *very*, though some will allow superlative use:

The *merest* word was enough to upset him.

Most of them are clearly related to adverb intensifiers:

The mention was *merely* of . . .
It was *utterly* disgraceful.

Some items in this class, however, have homonyms that are central adjectives (*cf* 7.3). Compare:

This is *pure* nonsense. [peripheral adjective]
The air is (very) *pure*. [central adjective]

Secondly, there is a group posing a special problem in that they are related to nouns (*cf* 7.12*ff*). While adjectives normally refer to quality or to resemblance with substance, some refer to the possessing of substance (*cf* 7.37). Thus *poetic* can mean 'having the qualities of poetry' or 'consisting of poetry'; in the latter sense, it cannot be predicative or be intensified or graded:

this very *poetic* image ~ This image is very poetic.

his *poetic* output { ~ his output of *poetry*
≁ *His output is (very) *poetic*.

Another example:

her rather *nasal* pronunciation ~ Her pronunciation is rather *nasal*.

the *nasal* cavity { ~ the cavity *of the nose*
≁ *The cavity is (rather) *nasal*.

Predicative usage with *nasal*, *oral*, *poetic*, etc is however possible in specialized contexts:

His output is exclusively *poetic*. ['consists . . . of poetry']

Other conditions of nonpredicability (at any rate, without introducing some difference of connotation) are to be seen in formulaic expressions, *eg*:

'*grateful* thanks' [but not: *'His thanks are *grateful*'; *cf* 8.90*f* on courtesy subjuncts]. Similarly: *humble* (*apologies*), *kind* (*regards*).

We should also mention items which fall both outside the closed-class postdeterminers discussed in 5.20*ff* and also outside the class of adjectives as normally understood. Numerals, for example, cannot be freely predicated: beside *the twenty men*, the predicative *The men are twenty* would normally mean that they were *aged* twenty. (However, 'How many are you?' 'We are three', 'We are five', etc is a possible, if unusual, sequence for the normal 'There are three of us.') Again, absolute comparatives (*cf* 7.85) like *latter* (*the latter question*) and *upper* (*the upper storeys*) must be in premodification position.

Predication of the adjective is blocked when the noun head is agential and the adjective refers to the activity (*cf* 7.36; 'noninherent adjectives', 7.43):

He works *hard*. { ~ He is a *hard* worker.
≁ The worker is *hard*.

Where the noun can only refer to activity, there is of course no difficulty:

his *good* writing ~ His writing is *good*.

Compare also *an old friend*: 'He has been a friend for a long time' cannot be turned into *that friend of mine is old*, which only refers to the friend's age.

Note Special contexts create their own usage where the general rules of the language may be waived. Someone addicted to the game of bridge, for example, may well ask: 'Good, now we are four, so let's start' without running the risk of being understood as referring to age.

Premodification by *-ing* participles

17.98 The possibility of modification by a present participle depends on the potentiality of the participle to indicate a permanent or characteristic feature. To a lesser extent, gradability (especially as indicated through intensification by *very*) is involved. Sentence [1] shows *interesting* as fully adjectival (*cf* 7.2, 7.15*ff*), despite the direct relation to the verb *interest* [2]:

She has a very *interesting* mind. [1]
Her mind *interests* me very much. [2]

But an item can be a premodifier and yet disallow *very*:

a *roaring* bull [BUT NOT: *very roaring]

And the converse can be true, *viz* a participle will have limited acceptability unless accompanied by an intensifier such as *very*:

He was a very { *reassuring* / *shocked* / *surprised* } person.

?He was a { *reassuring* / *shocked* / *surprised* } person.

This last example will illustrate the crucial significance of the 'permanence'

characteristic; such participles can freely premodify nouns such as *look* and *smile*:

He greeted me with a very { *reassuring* / *shocked* / *surprised* } expression.

The man himself cannot have shock or surprise attributed permanently to him (though *cf*: *shell-shocked*), but a particular look can of course be permanently associated with such a value. So too we may speak of *a smiling face* more often than of *a smiling person*. It is thus necessary to realize that we are not here concerned with particular participles so much as with their contextual meaning. *A wandering minstrel* is one habitually given to wandering, but if we saw a man wandering down the street, we could not say [3] but only [4]:

*Who is the *wandering* man? [3]
Who is the man *wandering* down the street? [4]

Again, someone who told good stories could be *a (very) entertaining person* but one would not say this of someone who happened at the moment of speaking to be entertaining his friends with a good story.

Note The tendency towards permanence in the interpretation of premodifying participles is also seen in the nonprogressive interpretation of the participle in *eg*: *a working man*, *ie* 'one who does especially manual work', or 'one who works, especially manually'.

17.99 The indefinite article favours the habitual or permanent, the definite article the specific or temporary (*cf* 5.26). Thus some people find [1] strange, especially in BrE:

?The *approaching* train is from Liverpool. [1]

On the other hand, [2] is fully acceptable:

He was frightened by an *approaching* train. [2]

Here, we are concerned perhaps with what is characteristic in 'approaching trains'. Similarly, some find [3] odd, compared with [4]:

?The *barking* dog is my neighbour's. [3]
I was wakened by a *barking* dog. [4]

On the other hand, after an indefinite head has been postmodified by an *-ing* clause, the *-ing* participle can premodify the same head with the definite article (*cf* the similar conditions for noun premodification, 17.104):

a proposal *offending* many members
the *offending* proposal

In addition, the definite article may be used generically and hence evoke the same generality and permanence as the indefinite article:

The *beginning* student should be given every encouragement.
['beginners in general', not = 'a particular beginner']

This last example represents what may be a current trend in journalism and

in technical writing (especially in the social sciences) to admit *-ing* participles rather more freely in premodification: *the developing countries*, *the (partially) hearing child*, *a continuing commitment*, *an ongoing concern*, *a voting member*.

Premodification by *-ed* participles

17.100 Much of what has been said of *-ing* participles (*cf* 17.98*f*) applies to *-ed* participles also, but there are additional issues. In the first place, the *-ed* participle can be active or passive but, as with postmodification (*cf* 17.29), the active is rarely used in premodification. Contrast:

the immigrant who has *arrived*
BUT NOT: *the *arrived* immigrant

The following are exceptional:

the *vanished* treasure ['the treasure which has vanished']
a *retired* teacher
reduced/fallen/increased prices; *risen* costs ⟨in the technical language of economics⟩

Premodification is somewhat more common when an active participle is modified by an adverb:

the *newly-arrived* immigrant ['the immigrant who has arrived recently']
our *recently-departed* friend ['our friend who has departed recently']
a *well-read* woman ['a woman who has read a lot']
a *soft-spoken* person ['a person who speaks softly']
?a *recently-arisen* problem ['a problem which has arisen recently']

Within the passive, we must distinguish the passive which refers to process from the passive which refers to state (*cf* 'statal passive', 3.77). A statal example:

some *complicated* machinery
~ The machinery is *complicated*.
~ The machinery was *complicated* by the designer.

With the statal type belong also *born* and some uses of *hidden*, *married*, *troubled*, *darkened*, etc, but in premodification they must either have 'permanent' reference or be modified by an adverb:

a *born* musician ['a natural musician'], a *newly-born* child
a *married* man, *married* life

The carefully hidden spy illustrates the general contrast between *-ing* and *-ed* participles. They are similar in postmodification:

The spy, carefully *hidden* in the bushes, } kept watch on the house.
The spy, carefully *hiding* in the bushes, }

But the *-ing* participle, unlike the *-ed* participle, resists premodification: **the carefully-hiding spy*.

Note With the acceptability of *a recently-arrived plane* beside **an arrived plane*, compare *a brown-eyed girl* beside **an eyed girl* (*cf* 17.102).

17.101 Most *-ed* participles have passive meaning, and only a few will easily admit the permanent reference that will permit premodifying use. We may contrast the participle of the stative verb in [1] with that of the dynamic verb in [2]:

The wanted man was last seen in Cambridge.
[the man goes on being wanted by the police] [1]
**The found purse* was returned to its owner.
[the purse was found at a particular moment] [2]

But *a lost purse* is acceptable, because, although a purse is no longer regarded as 'found' after it has been retrieved, a purse will be regarded as 'lost' throughout the period of its disappearance. This aspectual relation corresponds to that of the perfective of conclusive verbs (*cf* 4.33), as can be seen in the possible paraphrase: *a lost purse* ['a purse that has been lost']. Other examples:

the *defeated* army, a *damaged* car, a *broken* vase

Contrast:

a *wanted* man ['a man who is wanted by the police']

But not, except in special contexts, such as second instances (*cf* 17.109), which we must ignore here:

*a *sold* car *a *built* house
*the *mentioned* article *a *described* man

Exceptions to the general rule suggest that the semantic and aspectual factors are more complicated than we have indicated. For example, although a sum of money can go on being needed, one does not normally say *?the needed money*; although a car is stolen at a moment of time, one can speak of *the stolen car* ['the car that has been stolen'].

The premodifying participle usually characterizes a type rather than an instance: *a muttered reply* is a type of reply, and *a drawn sword* describes a typical posture. With *an organized tour* we may perhaps explain the premodification through the continuing and professional nature of the organization (*ie* 'a package tour', as distinct from a tour privately organized on a specific occasion); or perhaps we should supply an omitted adverb 'an (officially *or* specially) organized tour', since we must remember that all of the starred participial phrases become acceptable when modified by adverbs (on the tendency, esp in BrE, to hyphenate such premodifiers, *cf* App III.4*f*):

a *recently* sold car a *well-built* house
the *above-mentioned* article a *carefully described* man

17.102 Modifiers in *-ed* may be directly denominal and not participles at all (*cf* App I.38):

a *bearded* man ['a man with a beard', 'a man who has a beard']
the *vaulted* roof ['a roof with vaults']
a *wooded* hillside ['a hillside covered with woods']

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17.101 Most *-ed* participles have passive meaning, and only a few will easily admit the permanent reference that will permit premodifying use. We may contrast the participle of the stative verb in [1] with that of the dynamic verb in [2]:

The wanted man was last seen in Cambridge.
[the man goes on being wanted by the police] [1]
**The found purse* was returned to its owner.
[the purse was found at a particular moment] [2]

But *a lost purse* is acceptable, because, although a purse is no longer regarded as 'found' after it has been retrieved, a purse will be regarded as 'lost' throughout the period of its disappearance. This aspectual relation corresponds to that of the perfective of conclusive verbs (*cf* 4.33), as can be seen in the possible paraphrase: *a lost purse* ['a purse that has been lost']. Other examples:

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Exceptions to the general rule suggest that the semantic and aspectual factors are more complicated than we have indicated. For example, although a sum of money can go on being needed, one does not normally say ?*the needed money*; although a car is stolen at a moment of time, one can speak of *the stolen car* ['the car that has been stolen'].

The premodifying participle usually characterizes a type rather than an instance: *a muttered reply* is a type of reply, and *a drawn sword* describes a typical posture. With *an organized tour* we may perhaps explain the premodification through the continuing and professional nature of the organization (*ie* 'a package tour', as distinct from a tour privately organized on a specific occasion); or perhaps we should supply an omitted adverb 'an (officially *or* specially) organized tour', since we must remember that all of the starred participial phrases become acceptable when modified by adverbs (on the tendency, esp in BrE, to hyphenate such premodifiers, *cf* App III.4*f*):

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the *above-mentioned* article a *carefully described* man

17.102 Modifiers in *-ed* may be directly denominal and not participles at all (*cf* App I.38):

a *bearded* man ['a man with a beard', 'a man who has a beard']
the *vaulted* roof ['a roof with vaults']
a *wooded* hillside ['a hillside covered with woods']

But constraints occur: while we have *a powerful engine*, and *a leggy spider*, we do not have

*a *powered* engine BUT: a *diesel-powered* engine
*a *legged* spider BUT: a *long-legged* spider

These constraints on unmodified *-ed* forms can be explained by the simple but communicatively relevant principle that what one says should carry useful, nontrivial information. Thus all engines will produce power and all spiders have legs. However, *-ed* denominals which provide new information, *an engine powered by diesel*, *a spider with long legs*, etc, become fully acceptable.

By the same principle, both the unmodified *a bearded man* and the modified *a white-bearded man* are acceptable, since not all men have beards and even fewer have white ones. A common feature of acceptable *-ed* adjectives is that they express the notion of 'inalienable possession', *ie* they are normally thought to be permanent attributes (*cf*: *I've lost my car*, but not normally: **I've lost my beard*). Those which express alienable possession, *eg*: **a carred man* ['a man with a car'], **a two-carred man* ['a man with two cars'], are not acceptable and productive formations.

It finally remains to explain the acceptability of adjectives not ending in *-ed*, but in *eg*: *-ful*, *-y*, *-ous*, *-ic*, *-ish*. Such formations express an unusual degree, amount, etc:

a *powerful* engine ['an engine with unusual power']
a *hairy* caterpillar ['a caterpillar with an unusual amount of hair']
a *leggy* spider ['a spider with unusually long legs']
a *pimply* face ['a face with an unusually large number of pimples']

Thus this type obeys the same principle that we invoked for *a bearded man* as well as *a diesel-powered engine*: to carry useful, nontrivial information.

Intransitive verbs rarely yield premodifying *-ed* participles (*cf*: **an arrived plane*, 17.100 Note).

17.103 If the *-ed* participle has a *by*-agent or other prepositional construction, only postmodification is possible (*cf* adjective complementation, 16.69). Thus we have 'the *defeated* army', but:

the army *defeated by the enemy* [NOT: *the by the enemy defeated army]
the army *defeated for lack of ammunition* [NOT: *the for lack of ammunition defeated army]

However, some unmodified *-ed* participles in fixed expressions have postposition (*cf* 7.21):

the amount *demanded/asked* the earliest inventions *known*
for services *rendered* money well *spent*

Prepositional verbs normally follow the head:

the sum *agreed upon*
the pages *referred to*
an event *unheard of* [but also: 'an *unheard-of* event']

Some *-ed* participles have pre- or postmodifying position with different meanings, *eg*:

the people *concerned* ['the people in question']	a *concerned* expression ['worried, anxious']
the students *involved* ['the students in question']	an *involved* question ['complicated']
jobs *wanted* ['jobs wanted by individuals']	*wanted* persons ['persons wanted by the police']

Premodification by nouns

17.104 Noun premodifiers are often so closely associated with the head as to be regarded as compounded with it, as indicated by the stress on the premodifying noun instead of the head:

his ˈ*life* story a ˈ*dish* cloth a ˈ*Sussex* man

On the other hand, we say:

an ˌ*iron* ˈrod ˌ*life* imˈprisonment a ˌ*Sussex* ˈvillage

The conditions under which the different stress patterns are adopted are by no means wholly clear, but are connected with the degree to which a sequence is 'institutionalized' as a lexical item, *ie* a compound (*cf* App I.57*ff*).

In most cases, premodifying nouns correspond to postmodification with prepositional phrases:

his *life* story	~ the story *of his life*
a *dish* cloth [NB singular]	~ a cloth *for dishes*
a *Sussex* man	~ a man *from Sussex*
an *iron* rod	~ a rod *of iron*
life imprisonment	~ imprisonment *for life*
a *Sussex* village	~ a village *in Sussex*
a *gift* tax [NB singular]	~ a tax *on gifts*

In accordance with the general tendency noted earlier (*cf* 17.8), the premodifying structure has reduced explicitness in relation to the postmodifying structure, and if the relationships between the nouns become unclear or unpredictable, premodification is unacceptable. This becomes apparent if examples [1–10] in 17.37 with the range of prepositions involved in prepositional phrase postmodification are tested for noun premodification:

the road *to Lincoln*	[1]	~ the *Lincoln* road	[1a]
this book *on grammar*	[2]	~ this *grammar* book	[2a]
a man *from the electricity company*	[3]	~ ?an *electricity company man*	[3a]
passengers *on board the ship*	[4]	~ ?*ship* passengers	[4a]
action *in case of fire*	[5]	~ ?*fire* action	[5a]
the meaning of this *sentence*	[6]	~ ?this *sentence* meaning	[6a]

the house *beyond the church*	[7]	≁ the *church* house	[7a]
two years *before the war*	[8]	≁ two *war* years	[8a]
a delay *pending further inquiry*	[9]	≁ a *further inquiry* delay	[9a]
a tree *by a stream*	[10]	≁ *a *stream* tree	[10a]

In this set, only [1a] and [2a] are fully possible premodification alternatives to postmodification by prepositional phrase; [3a], [4a], [5a], and [6a] have an unusual ring about them as equivalents of [3], [4], [5], and [6] respectively; [7a], [8a], and [9a] do not carry the respective meanings of [7], [8], and [9]; [10a] is unacceptable.

As observed in connection with premodifying nouns in the plural (*cf* 17.109), a phrase like [3a] is somewhat more likely to be used in second instances, *ie* after the explicit relationship has been fully clarified:

A: Today *a man from the electricity company* called.
B: Oh, so what did *the electricity company man* say?

Also, [3a] might conceivably be used in technical jargon where explicit relations need not be indicated or in headline language where the explanation follows.

Note An example similar to [7a] whose interpretation was indeed tried legally is the following:
Dock work is arduous.
It should be interpreted as 'work in or on the docks', not as 'work near the docks'. A British Court of Appeal upheld the above linguistic statement, and *The Times* law report had the following headline in consequence:
Work near docks is not dock work.

17.105 One noteworthy constraint against using nouns from postmodifying phrases as premodifiers is the relative impermanence of the modification in question. Thus [1] will readily yield [1a]:

The table in the corner was laid for dinner. [1]
The corner table . . . [1a]

But we cannot do the same with [2]:

The man in the corner spoke to me. [2]
**The corner man* . . . [2a]

However, this is not a property of the lexical item (in this instance, *corner*) but of the semantic relation. Premodification confers relative permanence, and because a table is not free to move of itself, we can premodify *table* but not *man* by *corner*.

Conversely, not all noun premodifiers have prepositional phrase analogues, *eg*:

consumer goods	≁ goods *of the consumer*
a *welfare* state	≁ a state *of welfare*

There is also an analogous relation between some types of premodification and coordination:

The plane is *both a fighter and a bomber*.
~ *a fighter-ˈbomber*

Bernard Miles was *both actor and producer.*
~ *the actor-producer* Bernard Miles

Similarly between premodification and apposition:

Smith is *a sergeant.* ~ *Sergeant* 'Smith
My friend is *a girl.* ~ my *girl*friend

However, the kind of apposition found in titles is severely restricted by convention and style (*cf* 5.66, 17.91).

In some cases, both constructions are acceptable but have different meaning, *eg*:

a glass *of wine* ['a glass containing wine']
a *wine* glass ['a glass for wine']

a box *of matches* ['a box containing matches']
a *matchbox* ['a box made to hold matches']

17.106 The main types of prepositional paraphrase of noun + noun combinations, including both free syntactic phrases and compounds, are the following, arranged according to semantic relations.

Source–result: a ˌ*metal* 'sheet ~ a sheet *of metal*

Part–whole: ˌ*clay* 'soil ~ soil *with clay*

Place: a ˌ*top* 'drawer 'a drawer *at the top*'
a ˌ*garden* 'fence ~ a fence *round the garden*

Time: a ˌ*morning* 'train ~ a train *in the morning*
a ˌ*night* 'sky ~ a sky *at night*

Whole–part: a ˌ*board* 'member ~ a member *of the board*

With the following class we are closer to lexical compounds, thus the main stress on the first element. (The combinations above could equally occur with the main stress on the first element in other semantic relations.):

'*seafood* ['food from the sea']
a '*fireplace* ['a place for fire']
a '*bullet head* ['a head like a bullet']

It should be emphasized that the semantic relations illustrated in this section indicate no clear boundary between noun phrases and noun + noun compounds (*cf* App I.57*ff*). Stress on the first element is usually indicative of compounding, *eg*: '*fireplace* but ˌ*top* '*drawer*. Conversely, the possibility of substituting *one* for the second constituent indicates that the first is a premodifier in a noun phrase:

She wants an oak table but I'd prefer *a teak one.*
BUT NOT: *That's not an oak tree but *an elm one.*

17.107 In most cases, the constructions with both prepositional postmodification and with premodification are available, but the change from postmodification to premodification may have consequences other than a possible loss in explicitness. One such consequence is loss of the definite article, as in:

officials *in the Pentagon* ~ *Pentagon* officials

The use of articles is identical in the following:

a sheet *of metal* ~ a *metal* sheet

But it differs in:

life in *a* village ~ village life
the shooting of tigers ~ tiger shooting

Another consequence is the use of a prefix in premodification corresponding to the preposition in postmodification (*cf* App I.21*ff*):

demonstrations *against the war* ~ *anti-war* demonstrations
the period *after the war* ~ the *postwar* period

Plural attributive nouns

17.108 Attributive nouns are normally number-neutral. As a further illustration of the principle that postmodification is relatively explicit as compared with premodification, nouns which are plural in postmodification are singular (number-neutral) in premodification:

a chair with *arms* ~ an *arm*chair
decay of *teeth* ~ *tooth* decay
the picking of *hops* ~ *hop*-picking

A hyphen before the singular form is normal in expressions denoting age, time, weight, size, etc of the following type:

a girl (who is) ten *years* old ~ a ten-*year*-old girl
a pause lasting three *seconds* ~ a three-*second* pause
inflation amounting to two *digits* ~ two-*digit* inflation
an agreement between *four* powers ~ a four-*power* agreement
a bill worth ten *dollars* ~ a ten-*dollar* bill

However, in quantitative expressions of the following type there is possible variation (*cf* 5.118 Note [b]):

a ten *day* absence [singular]
a ten-*day* absence [hyphen + singular]
a ten *days* absence [plural]
a ten *days*' absence [genitive plural]

The use of singular holds even for some nouns that otherwise have no singular form (*cf* 5.76):

a sharpener *for scissors* ~ a '*scissor* sharpener
a press *for trousers* ~ a '*trouser* press

However, the plural attributive construction is on the increase, particularly in BrE where it is more common than in AmE, *eg*:

careers guidance
a *grants* committee

a new *systems* analyst
an *appointments* officer
the policy and *resources* working party

The choice of premodifying nouns in the plural rather than the singular may be attributed to a number of factors, but predominantly to the fact that an entity has been institutionalized in plural form. Since the plural attributive construction is relatively rare in AmE, the statements in the following section apply, for the most, only to BrE.

17.109 (i) 'Exclusive plurals'
One difference between *branch supervisor* and *branches supervisor* is that the singular is more vague and may be interpreted as 'supervisor of a branch or branches', whereas the plural can be interpreted only as 'supervisor of several branches' and thus excludes the ambiguity of number. The semantic distinction seems to be institutionalized in *career girl* 'a girl who puts advancement in her profession before other things' and *careers girl* 'a girl who has had several careers' or (more usually) 'a girl who deals with careers'. Such 'exclusive plurals' tend to occur with collective nouns and names of institutions as heads, and the stress tends to be on the premodifying plural:

parks department
courses committee
examinations board
the heavy *chemicals* industry
Scotland Yard's Obscene *Publications* Squad
Chesterfield *Hospitals* Management Committee
the British Museum *Prints* and *Drawings* Gallery

Highly institutionalized plurals are always retained, in particular when the singular form might lead to ambiguity:

an *Arts* degree ['a degree in the humanities', as opposed to *an art degree* 'a degree in fine art']

Pluralia tantum (*cf* 5.77) retain their plural since they have no singular:

a *customs* officer ~ a *custom* officer
a *goods* train ~ a *good* train

(ii) Plural denoting variety
There is a tendency for more generic terms to be plural and more specific terms to be singular:

soft 'drinks manu,facturer [*drinks* = 'kinds of drink';
BUT: 'car manu,facturer]
enter'tainments ,guide [*entertainments* = 'kinds of entertainment';
BUT: 'theatre ,guide]
surgical app'liances manu,facturer [*appliances* = 'kinds of appliance';
BUT: 'baby ,carriage manu,facturer]

(iii) 'Temporary institutionalization'
As we have seen, in most cases there is variation available between premodification by noun and postmodification by prepositional phrase, with certain syntactic and semantic constraints. When such variation is freely available, the choice may be seen as conditioned by the explicit/inexplicit distinction or simply by a desire for stylistic variation. However, it should also be seen in terms of communicative factors, as in the case of the variation between the genitive and the *of*-construction (*cf* 17.38*ff*). In a book on linguistics we may find the italicized part of [1] resumed later, as a 'second instance', in the discussion by [1a] (*cf* 17.8):

The idea of levels has been a major issue for a long time. [1]
the levels idea [1a]

A special instance of 'temporary institutionalization' is the use of plurals in headlines. A topical issue will cause the plural to be retained in premodification when it is associated with a widely discussed public issue. If there is controversy over the wearing of crash helmets by motorcyclists, this can become referred to in the media as *the helmets issue*. In this way, during the internationally discussed crisis of President Nixon's administration concerning tape-recordings, we became habituated to read expressions such as:

the *tapes* issue — the Watergate *tapes* affair
the *tapes* compromise — the White House *tapes* mystery

The frequent use of attributive structure in newspaper headlines, *eg*: *jobs cut* for 'cut in jobs', would seem to contradict the given/new principle (*cf* 18.8). Other examples:

PHONES ORDER — HEADACHE PROBLEM
PRIORITY PROJECT — NUMEROUS WAR OFFICE STAFF RESIGNATIONS

The flouting of the given/new principle may be explained not only as a striving for brevity in a headline with limited space but also as 'premeditated inversion' of the given/new sequence in order to arouse the reader's interest in going on to read the fully explicit text of the news item.

Premodification by genitive

17.110 The illustration of the genitive as premodifier with restrictive function in 17.94 was the following example:

I visited *his fisherman's cottage*. [1]

The meaning is 'The cottage belongs/belonged to a fisherman' or 'resembles/resembled the cottage of a fisherman'. It should be noticed that if we had used another noun in the genitive, *eg*: *his friend's cottage*, we would have moved from nonrestrictive to restrictive function and, above all, changed the relationship of the constituents from premodification to determinative. The difference in structure is clearly brought out if further premodifying items are added:

I visited { *his old fisherman's cottage*. [1a]
his old friend's cottage. [1b] }

The structures can be seen in a tree diagram (*Fig* 17.110):

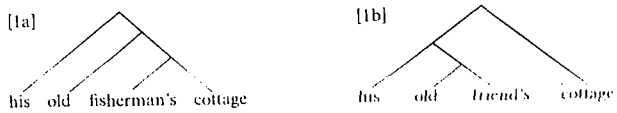

Fig 17.110

Thus, in [1a], *old* modifies *fisherman's cottage*, whereas, in [1b], *old* modifies the determinative genitive head *friend's*. In [1a], no item can intervene between *fisherman's* and *cottage* and the premodifying genitive may be replaced by, for example, a noun (*cf* 17.104*ff*): *his old country cottage*. In [1b], the head of the superordinate noun phrase (*cf* 5.121*f*) can be further modified in the usual way:

his old friend's *delightful but crumbling* cottage

Example [1b] is, then, a fully syntactic structure of the type discussed in 5.112*ff* and 17.38*ff* where the genitive has a determinative function; in [1a], on the other hand, the genitive acts as a descriptive premodifier (*cf* 5.122), and is related to the use of the genitive in compounds, such as *bull's-eye*.

Premodification by adverb and other phrases

17.111 Another minor type of premodification is the adverb phrase, as in:

She travelled to many *far-away* places. ['The places are far away.']
I have this strange *under-the-weather* feeling. ['I feel under the weather.']

There is a medley of other premodifying phrases, some of which are common expressions, *eg*:

round-the-clock service
an *up-to-date* timetable
a *tongue-in-cheek* remark

Apart from a few institutionalized examples such as *an away match* ['the match is being played away from the home ground', in contrast with *a home match*], the flexibility of this type of premodification tends to be exploited only colloquially, and most examples have (and seem deliberately to have) a flavour of originality, convention-flouting, and provisional or nonce awkwardness:

their *day-after-day* complaints
her *too-simple-to-be-true* dress
a *come-and-fight-me* attitude

Examples like the following are more fully lexicalized, and may be regarded as cases of conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*):

She's wearing a *with-it* dress.
That is the *in* thing at present.

Premodification by sentence

17.112 What was said of adverb phrases applies at least equally to premodification by a sentence:

(?)I visited his *what-do-you-call-it* cottage [*cf*: What do you call it when a cottage has walls made from overlapping pieces of timber? Clapboard.]

A few institutionalized examples retain a colloquial or slang flavour: *a whodunit story* is one about crime, and the nonstandard grammar and spelling are preserved as part of the ironic slang. *Do-it-yourself* as in *a do-it-yourself job* has become so often used as to pass out of the area of slang (and sometimes be reduced ⟨esp in BrE⟩ to *DIY*).

Somewhat more widely acceptable are noun phrases which can be interpreted either as having a sentence as premodifier or as being object (usually of *know*) in an embedded nominal clause:

He asked { *I don't know* HÒW *many* people. [1]
I don't KNÒW *how many* people. [1a]

With either intonation, the meaning is 'He asked a relatively large number of people, though I don't know precisely how many'. The meaning is somewhat different if the sentence is reordered, enforcing a different grammatical structure:

I don't know *how many people he asked*. ['I don't know the number of people he asked.']

For the most part, however, sentence premodifiers have an air of the outrageous and improvised. Part of a political leader's election campaign was described by a journalist as

today's meet the people (*if they can find you*) tour

Far more remarkable is the following quotation from a literary comment in which the sentence premodification itself has highly irregular and sophisticated punctuation to convey highly irregular coordination devices:

His other comments ignore . . . the obvious fallacies inherent in the '*But the poem* (*play, novel*) *was meant to be tedious/pretentious/pointless*' line of critical argument.

Relative sequence of premodifiers

17.113 When a head has more than one premodifier, there arises the question of relative order; why either [1] or [1a]?:

a *thin dark* face [1]
a *dark thin* face [1a]

But why only [2] and not [2a]?:

a *cardboard detergent* carton [2]
*a *detergent cardboard* carton [2a]

The problem becomes even more acute with longer strings of premodifiers.

Although there is, theoretically, no grammatical upper limit to the number of premodifiers, it is unusual to find more than three or four. Premodification is an area of English grammar where there is considerable variation among the varieties of the language. To a large extent, such variation, as well as the existence of an upper limit, can be given a psycholinguistic explanation. For example, a technical manual, written exclusively for space research scientists, may have very long and complex structures of premodification, as in:

Apollo Block II fuel cell voltage current VI characteristics

Nothing comparable is likely to be used by the same scientist in a casual coffee-break chat where new topics will turn up unexpectedly and where concentration and perhaps audibility are low. There is indeed evidence of a higher proportion of three-or-more item sequences in written than in spoken English.

A sequence such as [3] may be unlikely. Yet, unlike [3a], it will be recognized as acceptable by a native speaker:

all the many other small inconspicuous carved jade idols [3]
*other the all jade carved inconspicuous small many idols [3a]

In order to describe the rules for the relative order of premodifiers, it will be helpful to divide the territory between DET (the determinative) and HEAD (the head) into four premodification zones (I, II, III, IV), for example:

DET	I	II	III	IV	HEAD
this	*first*	*important*	*long*	*French*	*novel*

Precentral, central, postcentral, and prehead position

17.114 The four zones are largely correlated with the semantic classes discussed in 7.45.

(I) Zone I: PRECENTRAL
In the precentral zone we find peripheral nongradable adjectives (*cf* 7.42), in particular intensifying adjectives (*cf* 7.33*f*):

(i) emphasizers, *eg*: *certain, definite, plain, pure, sheer*
(ii) amplifiers, *eg*: *absolute, entire, extreme, perfect, total*
(iii) downtoners, *eg*: *feeble, slight*

(II) Zone II: CENTRAL
The central zone includes the central, gradable adjectives, *ie* the 'most adjectival items', which satisfy all four criteria of adjectival status (*cf* 7.3*f*), *eg*: *big, funny, intelligent, keen, powerful, slow, thick*. Central adjectives admit intensifiers (*a very cold day*), comparison (*It's colder than yesterday*), and alternative predicative position (*Last summer was very cold*). Their function is to describe or characterize and, consequently, they often form contrastive pairs like *big/small, good/bad, hot/cold*. They are typically inherent (*cf* 7.43) and include both nonderived adjectives (like those just mentioned) and derived adjectives, which are either deverbal (like *interesting, interested, hesitant*) or denominal (like *angry, rainy, peaceful*).

This morphological classification has a bearing on the internal structure of the zone of central adjectives in that the usual order is NONDERIVED + DEVERBAL + DENOMINAL:

a *tall attractive* woman
this *green hilly* slope
a *satisfied sleepy* look

Within the class of nonderived adjectives, the order is largely arbitrary, but adjectives denoting SIZE, LENGTH, and HEIGHT normally precede other nonderived adjectives. Thus we usually prefer:

a small round table to *a round small table*;
long straight hair to *straight long hair*; and
a tall angry man to *an angry tall man*

Among adjectives in zone II, we may further distinguish a group of emotive, evaluative, or subjective adjectives (*lovely, nice, wonderful, terrible, horrible, nasty*, etc), which usually precede other central adjectives. Thus we prefer *beautiful long hair* to *long beautiful hair*. Such emotionally tinged adjectives often have an adverbial, subordinated relation as indicated by their notional similarity with adverbs:

beautiful warm weather ~ *beautifully warm* weather

The statements made about the relative order of zone II premodifiers should however be understood to be tendencies rather than absolute rules.

The relation of premodifiers in 'unbroken' sequences, *ie* without commas or coordinators, tends to be one of hypotaxis (*cf* 17.116).

(III) Zone III: POSTCENTRAL
This zone includes, in particular, participles and colour adjectives, *eg*:

a *retired* colonel — a *working* theory
a *deserted* village — *blue* skies

(IV) Zone IV: PREHEAD
This zone includes the 'least adjectival and most nominal' premodifiers:

(i) Adjectives with a proper noun basis denoting nationality (*cf* 5.57), provenance, and style: *American, Gothic*

(ii) Other denominal adjectives with a relation to nouns (*cf* 7.37), often with the meaning 'consisting of', 'involving', or 'relating to': *annual, economic, medical, social, political, rural*

(iii) Nouns: *tourist* (attraction), *Yorkshire* (women), *college* (student)

Adjectives in zone IV are normally not central but peripheral adjectives, *ie* they do not generally admit intensifiers, comparison, or predicative position:

all those *medical* examinations for military service
*all those *very medical* examinations
*The examinations are *more medical than* . . .

Similarly, *political* and *rural* in the following uses will normally be interpreted as nongradable adjectives (*cf* 7.42):

all the *political* parties of this country
the backward *rural* areas in the north

When items from the same group cooccur, there is a tendency for those modifiers which denote place and time to take precedence:

local economic interests
the *annual linguistic* meeting

Premodifiers in the prehead zone cannot usually be coordinated:

the *local waterboard* authorities
*the *local and waterboard* authorities

Premodifying nouns, which are normally placed immediately before the head of the noun phrase, may form a compound or quasi-compound with the head, as is suggested in the compound stress pattern on the first item as in *'telephone call*, *'fireplace*. This is where noun-phrase structure impinges upon compounding (*cf* 17.104*ff*, App I.57*ff*), with two nouns forming a new conceptual unit.

In some cases there is little or no difference in meaning between denominal adjectives and nouns as premodifiers:

a *Liverpudlian* accent	~ a *Liverpool* accent
an *icy* patch	~ an *ice* patch
a *glamorous* girl	~ a *glamour* girl
a *beautiful* spot	~ a *beauty* spot
a *grassy* strip	~ a *grass* strip

One general distinctive feature is that the information provided by the adjective is felt to be temporary or subjective, whereas that provided by the noun premodifier is permanent, or objective, *ie* has a 'classifying' function.

Some examples of sequences of premodifiers are given in *Table* 17.114.

Table 17.114 Examples of sequences of premodifiers

	PREMODIFIERS				
DETERMINATIVE	Zone I: PRECENTRAL	Zone II: CENTRAL	Zone III: POSTCENTRAL	Zone IV: PREHEAD	HEAD
					attractions
				tourist	attractions
				London tourist	attractions
		splendid		African tourist	attractions
our	numerous	splendid		African tourist	attractions
all this			costly	social	security
a	certain		grey	church	tower
these			crumbling grey	Gothic church	towers
some		intricate	old interlocking	Chinese	designs
all the		small	carved	Chinese jade	idols
both the	major			Danish political	parties

General principle for the order of premodifiers

17.115 In part, the preferences seem clearly to correspond to the 'natural' order of recursive qualification. Thus [1] would be more usual than [1a]:

the two *typical large* country houses [1]
the two *large typical* country houses [1a]

In order to be typical, country houses must be large; but it would scarcely be true that, in order to be large, they must be typical. This is factual, not linguistic, information. The preferred order in the two noun phrases in [1] and [1a] thus reflects reality in showing that the speaker had been obliged to specify the houses as country houses and the country houses as large, before it became meaningful to specify the large country houses as typical. Again, the preferred orders *beautiful long hair* and *long straight hair* perhaps reflect the nonlinguistic world: length of hair may be a condition of its being adjudged beautiful, and the straightness of hair would tend to be a condition of its seeming long.

Attempts to explain preferences of premodifier ordering have invoked rhythm (*eg* short items before longer ones); common items before rare ones; restrictive before nonrestrictive. We suggest one principle accounting for all premodifiers: a subjective/objective polarity. That is, modifiers relating to properties which are (relatively) inherent in the head of the noun phrase, visually observable, and objectively recognizable or assessible, will tend to be placed nearer to the head and be preceded by modifiers concerned with what is relatively a matter of opinion, imposed on the head by the observer, not visually observed, and only subjectively assessible.

One need hardly add that, with criteria that are themselves so subjective, there is plenty of room for difference of opinion. The writers and speakers will naturally arrange premodification semantically, *ie* according to their communicative intentions. However, there is no total freedom.

Note Though there are many exceptions and few firm constraints, it seems that, to some extent, the order of premodifying adjectives is the inverse of predicative order:

beautiful long hair ~ hair that is *long and beautiful*
long straight hair ~ hair that is *straight and long*

With this we may compare the adverbial + object + head order in premodification with the inverse order of clause elements:

a *gas cigarette* lighter ~ It lights *cigarettes by gas*.

Also adjunct + subject + head:

Euston train arrivals ~ The *trains* arrive *at Euston*.

Similarly, the sequence of modifiers with subjective and objective genitive (*cf* 17.41*ff*) where, although inversion is not always involved, the same principle of ordered clustering in relation to the head is maintained:

the men's examination of the student ~ The men examined the student.
the men's examination by the doctor ~ The men were examined by the doctor.
the examination of them by him ~ They were examined by him.

Hypotactic relations and order of premodifiers

17.116 Different hypotactic relations of premodifiers will upset the normal order described in 17.113*ff*. Thus while *dirty British books* could be understood as books that had become grimy, *British dirty books* could only mean books that 'consisted of' or 'were characterized by' dirt (*ie* obscenity).

When two nouns premodify, one which corresponds to the head as object to verb will follow one relating to material, means, instrument, space, or any comparable adverbial relation:

a *detergent carton and a cardboard* carton
~ *a cardboard detergent* carton ['The carton contains detergent.']
≁ *a *detergent cardboard* carton [*'The carton contains cardboard.']

my *ciga'rette* lighter and my ˈ*gas* lighter
~ my ˌ*gas ciga'rette* lighter
≁ *my *cigarette gas* lighter

a *city bread* delivery
≁ *a *bread city* delivery

a *diesel passenger* train
≁ ?a *passenger diesel* train

a *jet freight* aircraft
≁ ?a *freight jet* aircraft

Where an adverbial + verb sequence has prior institutionalized status, as with *pressure cooker*, this unit may be premodified by an object such as *vegetable*:

a vegetable pressure cooker ['which cooks vegetables by pressure']

Multiple adjective/noun premodification

17.117 The noun premodifier can be itself premodified by either an adjective or a noun and, if the latter, this can in turn be recursively premodified:

office furniture → { *expensive office* furniture / *tax office* furniture

income tax office furniture

overseas income tax office furniture

Fig 17.117a

It should be noted, however, that if we introduce an adjective in this last noun phrase, already clumsy and improbable, the adjective has to come immediately after the determiner and would normally be interpreted as relating directly to the head *furniture*:

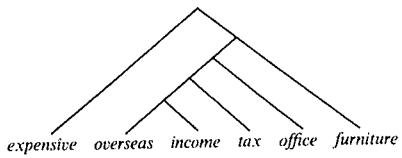

Fig 17.117b

However, such straightforward left-to-right ordering of premodifiers is not common. Compare the structure of the following two examples from a newspaper:

the [[[*food price*] *rise*] [*warning system*]] 'a system for warning against rises in the price of food'
the [*voluntary* [[*price rise*] [*warning system*]]] 'a system which is voluntary for warning against rises in prices'

The two examples look superficially alike but are in fact radically different in noun-phrase structure. The identical positioning of *food* and *voluntary* must not obscure the fact that the former modifies *price* and the latter *system*.

However, there is potential ambiguity with multiple noun modification. Consider:

a new giant size cardboard detergent carton

where size does not premodify *cardboard* and *cardboard* does not premodify *detergent* but where the linear structure is rather as in:

a [new [giant size] [cardboard [detergent carton]]]

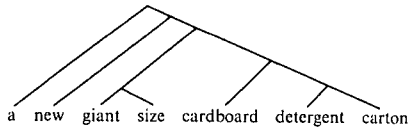

Fig 17.117c

Such an example is not, of course, obscure. Indeed, it is generally the case that obscurity in premodification exists only for the hearer or reader who is unfamiliar with the subject concerned and who is not therefore equipped to tolerate the radical reduction in explicitness that premodification entails.

Take even a fairly simple example like the following:

He had *some French onion soup*.

If we are unfamiliar with this type of soup, there is nothing about the grammatical, orthographic, or prosodic form that will tell us whether it is soup made from French onions, or French soup made from onions, or onion soup made in the French manner.

17.118 There are other special types of multiple premodification that should be mentioned. A friendship between a boy and a girl becomes:

a *boy and girl* friendship

A committee dealing with appointments and promotions can readily be described as (on the plural, *cf* 17.108*f*):

the *appointments and promotions* committee

A committee whose business is the allocation of finance can be:

the *allocation of finance* committee

A noun phrase in which there is noun premodification can be given the denominal affix which puts it into the 'consisting of' class of adjectives (*cf* 7.37, 17.114) while retaining the noun premodifier; hence, from *party politics* we have:

a *party political* broadcast

Similarly, a noun phrase having a denominal adjective may itself take a denominal affix to become a premodifier in a noun phrase. For example, beside *cerebral palsy* ['palsy of the cerebrum'], we have *cerebral palsied children* which has the following structure:

[[[*cerebral palsi*]*ed*] *children*] NOT: *[cerebral [palsied children]]

We see two types of modification with modified modifier in [1] and [2]. The premodifying adjective *delightful* is itself premodified by the adverb phrase *really quite unbelievably*:

his *really quite unbelievably delightful* cottage [1]

In [2], the genitive premodifier *women's* is itself premodified by *these chic*, and the whole genitive phrase could premodify another genitive:

[[[these [*chic women's*]] *employer's*] clothing] [2]

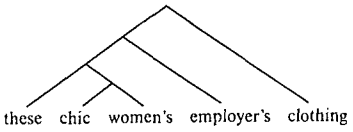

Fig 17.118

Although there is no theoretical limit to such sequences of genitives, there seems to be a practical limit of two – anything more being stylistically objectionable, comic, and difficult to comprehend:

?these *chic women's employer's wife's* clothing

Note With a singular genitive there may be ambiguity, in that *chic* may modify *woman's* [3] or *clothing* [3a]:

this [[*chic woman's*] *clothing*] [3]
this [*chic* [*woman's clothing*]] [3a]

The 'group genitive'

17.119 One important type of multiple premodification is the 'group genitive' (*cf* 5.123):

someone else's car	*The Wife of Bath's* Tale
Elizabeth the Second's heir	*a man of distinction's* influence

While the affixing to a noun of the genitive inflection and the plural inflection follows similar rules for regular nouns in general, the rules for the two inflections are different if the noun is postmodified (*cf Fig* 17.119):

singular	*the teacher*	*the teacher's (room)*
	the teacher of music	*the teacher of music's (room)*
plural	*the teachers*	*the teachers' (room)*
	the teachers of music	*the teachers of music's (room)*

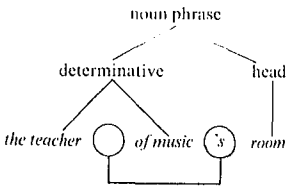

Fig 17.119

Other examples involve coordinations:

an *hour and a half's* discussion
a *week or so's* sunshine

The group genitive is not normally acceptable when the postmodification is a clause, though in colloquial use one sometimes hears examples like:

Old man what-do-you-call-him's house has just been sold.
?Have you seen *that man standing at the corner's hat*?
?Someone has stolen *a man I know's car*.

In normal use, especially in writing, such genitives would be replaced by *of*-constructions:

Have you seen *the hat of that man standing at the corner*?
Someone has stolen *the car of a man I know*.

The group genitive is tolerable even with prepositional phrases provided it encourages no unwanted interpretation. Thus [1] might pass muster:

the *man in the car's* ears [1]

But [2] would obviously be avoided if the meaning 'the ears of the man with the cat' was intended:

the *man with the cat's* ears [2]

Multiple heads

17.120 Modification may apply to more than one head (*cf* 13.68):

the new table
the new chairs } ~ *the new table and chairs*

The multiple head thus produced (*table and chairs*) can now be subject to recursive modification or coordination:

the beautiful new table and chairs
the new (but) ugly table and chairs

The reduced explicitness naturally makes ambiguity possible. Since we can coordinate two noun phrases only one of which is premodified, the resulting string will suggest that the modifier applies to both heads if it comes first:

He writes *long papers.* / He writes *books.* } ~ He writes *long papers and books.*

In these circumstances, we may disambiguate by reordering, by introducing separate determiners, etc:

He writes *books and long papers.*
He writes *some long papers and some books.*
He writes *long papers* { *as well as* / *and also* } *books.*

Noun phrases with separate premodification can however be jointly premodified, as in:

books and long papers ~ *excellent books and long papers*

Spoken with one tone unit, this noun phrase can be interpreted as having the structure of *Fig* 17.120:

[excellent [[books] and [long PÀPERS]]]

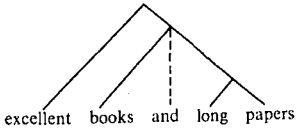

Fig 17.120

This interpretation would be almost inescapable if a determiner such as *some* preceded *excellent*. It follows that if we wish to coordinate noun phrases both of which are premodified, we must introduce either prosodic or punctuation separators, or separate determiners, if maximal clarity is required:

excellent books, and long papers
some excellent books and some long papers

Alternatively, the order can be reversed:

long papers and excellent books

Special relations between heads and modifiers

Some problems of coordination

17.121 Coordination provides some points of interest in relation to multiple modification. Consider the phrase [1]:

children *who have speech that is impaired* [1]

This can be reduced to [1a] or [1b]:

children *who have impaired speech* [1a]
children *with impaired speech* [1b]

The normal premodified form (*cf* App I.38) is then [1c]:

speech-impaired children [1c]

But if the impairment is in *speech and language* (a conventional conjoining recognized in speech therapy), the premodification form becomes:

speech and language impaired children [1d]

The hyphen is omitted after *language* since this would entail one after *speech* as well, a type of ellipsis indication reserved for rather stiff and technical writing (*cf* App III.5 Note [b]):

speech- and language-impaired children [1e]

Ellipsis provides difficulties in noun phrases involving comparison also. The following is unobjectionable:

an *equally serious or more serious* situation [2]

The sequence becomes objectionable when postmodifying complementation is added [2a]:

?an *equally serious or more serious* situation *than before* [2a]

The phrase [2a] wrongly suggests that we have a possible sequence (*cf* 17.122):

*an *equally serious* situation *than before* [2b]

A somewhat similar difficulty arises through coordination and rather careless ellipsis, as in [3]:

?the similarity of his houses in New York and Connecticut [3]

A more fully explicit form without ellipsis will help to show what has gone wrong:

the similarity of his house[1] in New York *to his house*[2] *in* Connecticut [3a]

The rules for ellipsis (*cf* 12.31*ff*) have to distinguish between identity of lexical item and identity of reference: if we have only the first without the second, there are constraints on ellipsis. Such constraints are not sufficient, however, to block ellipses like the following which retain complete acceptability:

more than one lecturer *some* book *or other* *one or two* books

Discontinuity between head and modifier

17.122 It is not uncommon for the noun phrase to be interrupted by other items of clause structure. Note, for instance, the placing of the time adjunct between the head and postmodifier in the following noun phrase:

I met *a man* this morning *carrying a heavy parcel.*

Although there is nothing wrong with this structure, to avoid discontinuity, the adverbial can be moved to initial position:

This morning I met *a man carrying a heavy parcel.*

Further examples of discontinuities in noun-phrase structure are presented in 18.39*f*, together with some discussion of the consequences for information processing.

Noun-phrase modifiers which have their own complementation can often occupy alternative positions. The structure is either continuous (noun head + adjective with complement) or discontinuous (adjective + noun head + adjective complement). We can distinguish the following types of complement:

(a) Adjective with a prepositional phrase as complement (*cf* 17.58):

facilities *comparable* / *comparable* facilities } *to ours*

(b) Adjective with an infinitive clause as complement (*cf* 16.75*ff*):

a plan *difficult* / a *difficult* plan } *to carry out*

(c) Adjective in comparative degree with a comparative clause as complement (*cf* 15.63*ff*):

a person *more qualified* / a *more* qualified person } *than anybody else*
a plan *better* / a *better* plan } *than the previous one*
in a time *shorter* / in a *shorter* time } *than five microseconds*

With the following types it should be noted that alternative adjective position also entails change, compared with types (a–c), in the position of the indefinite article, such that it always immediately precedes the noun head.

(d) *As* + adjective + *as* with comparative clause:

a fact *as strange as* / *as strange* a fact *as* } anything you've ever heard of

(e) *So* + adjective + *that*- or *as to*-clause:

an idea *so odd* / *so odd* an idea } { that you won't believe it / as to be unbelievable

(f) *Too* + adjective + infinitive clause:

an accusation *too serious* / *too serious* an accusation } to be left unanswered

In some of these examples, the variation is not stylistically free; for example, in relation to (a), many would prefer (at least in a more formal context) the continuous order [1] to the discontinuous [1a]:

{ facilities *comparable to ours* [1]
{ *comparable* facilities *to ours* [1a]

The prepositional phrases and other structures function here as complements to adjectives, not as modifiers of noun-phrase heads, as in *new roads to London*. Thus we have *roads to London* but not **facilities to ours*.

Compare now the following pairs:

{ the *handsome* man that she kissed [2]
{ the *first* man that she kissed [2a]

{ an *extraordinary* discovery that I made [3]
{ an *early* discovery that I made [3a]

{ The *most recent* play I know well is *Bedroom Farce*. [4]
{ The *most recent* play I've seen is *Hamlet*. [4a]

The superficial resemblance within each pair must not prevent us from seeing that, in each case, the second member has an adverbial relation in what is a plausible corresponding sentence:

the man was the { *first* / **handsome* } that she kissed

a discovery that I made { *early* / **extraordinary*

The play I { 've seen / *know } *most recently* is *Hamlet*.

Note Comparatives of adjectives with comparative clause complements like [5] and [6] can have as ad hoc 'compounds' the normally postponed comparative constructions in [5a] and [6a] (*cf* 17.111; regarding the use of hyphenation, *cf* App I.17):

Her salary is *higher than average*. [5]
His car looks *worse than ever*. [6]
her *higher-than-average* salary [5a]
his *worse-than-ever-looking* car [6a]

Note that with a copular verb other than *be* [6a], the verb is included in the premodification. But:

*her *higher-than-average-being* salary [6b]

Conclusion

Reduced explicitness and increased economy structure

17.123 The noun phrase, then, is potentially very complex indeed. It is hoped that by now enough has been said to give some clear indication of the relationship that exists between types of noun-phrase structure and the forms of

predication to which they appear to have an essential if often indirect correspondence. By means of the structures that have been developed in the noun phrase, we can take an indefinitely wide range of grammatical and semantic data which have either been previously established in the discourse or which can be assumed as knowledge held in common between speaker/writer and hearer/reader, and then express them, or refer to them, with greatly reduced explicitness, and consequently increased economy. To illustrate the degree of complexity that occurs quite readily in English prose, here are three examples:

At the mouth of the respiratory tube is *a series of velar tentacles, corresponding exactly in position to those of amphioxus, and serving to separate the mouth and oesophagus from the respiratory tube while the lamprey is feeding.* [1]

It was *the beginning of an operation in which the power of the Holy Spirit was fulfilled in the person and words and actions of a human character, Jesus of Nazareth.* [2]

Subsequent work by Huisgen (1951) and Hey, Stuart-Webb and Williams (1951, 1952) on the dependence of the rate of rearrangement on both the aryl and acyl groups of the acylarylnitrosamine, and on the catalysis of the reaction by bases such as piperidine, has led to *the formulation of the rearrangement as an intramolecular process, as indicated in equation (6), involving nucleophilic attack, by an internal S_N2 mechanicism, of the oxygen of the . . . nitrosyl group on the carbonyl carbon atom.* [3]

In the italicized noun phrase of [1], we are expected to understand that the tentacles form a series and that they correspond to the tentacles found in the species amphioxus. More interestingly, we are expected to relate the tentacles to the velum without prejudice as to whether they are appended to it (a partitive relationship) or actually constitute it (an appositive relationship), on which distinction some biologists would not wish to commit themselves.

Types of noun-phrase structure in relation to variety

17.124 It must be emphasized that anything approaching full exploitation of the potentiality existing in noun-phrase structure is relatively rare and relatively confined to specific fields of discourse. A sample of some 17 000 noun phrases in the Survey of English Usage files yielded the striking contrasts that are summarized in *Table* 17.124.

'Simple' is here defined as nouns without modification, *ie* simple noun phrases (*eg*: *John, she, the man*). In view of their numerical and distributional importance, pronouns and names are distinguished as a subclass of 'simple'. 'Complex' embraces all other noun phrases, but a subclass is distinguished comprising those having multiple modification (more than merely a single adjective premodifier or prepositional phrase postmodifier). *Table* 17.124 shows that:

(a) Less than one-third of the 17 000 noun phrases in the sample are 'complex', even within these modest limits of 'complexity'.

Table 17.124 Noun-phrase structure and distribution

		TOTAL	SIMPLE NOUN PHRASES		COMPLEX NOUN PHRASES	
			All	Names and pronouns	All	Multiple modification
Whole sample	subject	7898 46.6%	6749 39.8%	5821 34.3%	1149 6.8%	456 2.7%
	not subject	9063 53.4%	4753 28.0%	2193 13.0%	4310 25.4%	1777 10.5%
	total	16961 100%	11502 67.8%	8014 47.2%	5459 32.2%	2233 13.2%
Informal speech	subject	2984	2064	1941	148	62
	not subject	2220	1169	677	811	327
Fiction	subject	4466	2220	1943	211	92
	not subject	3991	1682	754	1121	434
Serious talk	subject	3693	1745	1478	343	127
	not subject	3602	1273	599	1238	492
Scientific writing	subject	1831	720	459	447	175
	not subject	2456	629	163	1140	524

(b) Less than one-eighth have multiple modification.

(c) Nearly one-half of the sample consists of pronouns or names.

(d) The majority of simple noun phrases – and the overwhelming majority of names and pronouns – are subjects of clauses or sentences, but only rather less than a quarter of complex noun phrases are subjects.

(e) When the whole sample is broken down into four types of text, one such type ('serious talk and writing') very closely follows the pattern of distribution for the sample as a whole.

(f) In respect of these particular noun-phrase parameters, prose fiction and informal spoken English agree closely and are sharply distinct from the other two varieties represented in the sample; they have a much higher proportion of simple to complex and a much stronger association of simple with subject, and complex with nonsubject, than the other varieties.

(g) Scientific writing differs greatly from the other varieties in having a distinctly higher proportion of noun phrases with complexity (and multiple complexity); a distinctly lower proportion of names and pronouns among its simple noun phrases; and the weakest association of simple with subject and complex with nonsubject.

A survey of prepositional phrases highlighted a difference between speech and writing. In a corpus of half a million words, prepositional phrases were found to be considerably more frequent in written than in spoken material, respectively about 140 and 100 phrases per 1000 words. Also, in written texts, 40 per cent of the prepositional phrases functioned as postmodification in noun phrases, as compared with only 33 per cent in speech.

Even such coarse-grained comparisons as these make clear how sensitive is the noun phrase as an index of style and how responsive it can be to the basic purpose and subject matter in varying types of discourse.

Bibliographical note

On relative clauses and other types of postmodification, see Aissen (1972); Bresnan and Grimshaw (1978); Downing (1978); Elsness (1982); Hartvigson (1979); Huddleston (1971); Jacobson (1983); Jacobsson (1963, 1970); Karlsen (1965); Kjellmer (1975a); Michiels (1975, 1977); Olofsson (1981); van Roey (1969); Roggero (1967); Romaine (1980); Rydén (1970, 1974); Schachter (1973); Sears (1972); Taglicht (1972, 1977); Weisler (1980); Young (1980).

On premodification, see Abberton (1977); Bache (1978); Bolinger (1967a); Coates (1977); Dierickx (1970); Fries (1970); Johansson (1980); Levi (1978); Martin and Ferb (1973); Mutt (1967); Pennanen (1980); Sampson (1980); Sørensen (1980); Warren (1978); Wyler (1979).

On modification in relation to function, see Aarts (1971); Fries (1972); Williams (1979); on special relations between heads and modifiers, see Aarts and Aarts (1982); Christophersen (1974), Seppänen (1978).

On nominalization, see Chomsky (1972); Colen (1984); Downing (1977); Fraser (1970); Kjellmer (1980); Lees (1960a); Vendler (1968); Webster (1977); Wonder (1970).

On the genitive and *of*-construction, see Altenberg (1980, 1982); Dahl (1971); Jahr Sørheim (1980).

On apposition, see Austin (1980); Du Bois (1974); Haugen (1953); Hockett (1955); Lee (1952).

18 Theme, focus, and information processing

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Introduction

18.1 In earlier chapters, we have examined the construction of sentences in terms of the way in which units (such as subject, verb, and predication) are brought together to form grammatical sequences, and we have treated the order of such units in terms of positional norms. We shall now look upon the construction of a sentence from the viewpoint of constructing a message: segmenting the material into effective prosodic units and ordering the parts so as to achieve the desired result. This means studying the devices by which we lead our hearer/reader to recognize unmistakably the piece of information that we see as the highpoint of our message, at the same time providing enough additional material to ensure that the message is complete. If the message is heard, the highpoint will be marked in utterance by prosodic prominence; but even if the message is written and is silently read by the recipient, the writer must still ensure that the reader will identify the highpoint by being able to give it an internal or 'imagined' prosodic prominence. Intonation and other prosodic features are therefore essential in the processing and receiving of information, whether written or spoken, and we shall be constantly referring to the phonological distinctions described in Appendix II.

But lexical choice and grammatical organization have an important role. Consider these examples:

Will the new law help old people? [1]
The road will ultimately be repaired. [2]
I'll visit them occasionally. [3]
The honeymoon couple returned to Edinburgh in bright sunshine today. [4]

In the following variants, the truth value is unchanged, but the presentation is very different:

In your view, will the new law give old people the help they need? [1a]
It will be some time before the road is repaired. [2a]
I don't think I can do more than pay them an occasional visit. [3a]
It was bright sunny weather that welcomed the honeymoon couple back to Edinburgh today. [4a]

It is not merely that the variants are more verbose. In each case, an introduction has been provided which puts the utterance in a communicative context, as in [1a] and [3a], or which highlights an aspect of the utterance that is communicatively effective, as in [2a] and the journalistic [4a]. Moreover, care has been taken in [1a], [3a], and [4a] to make the ending an appropriate climax. But before we consider other modes of information processing we must look closely at the fundamental role of intonation and other aspects of prosody.

Prosodic aspects

18.2 Let us imagine that we know the answer to the question 'When shall we know what Mary is going to do?' Our reply might take the form:

She will de|cide 'next WÈEK|

The theme (*cf* 18.9), which in this sentence is the subject *she*, would be uttered without emphasis, since it functions as a mere cue that the speaker is cooperating in making a reply which has the expected subject with a known identity. The verb phrase *will decide* is given somewhat more prominence, since although it is semantically congruent with the form of the question, it is by no means wholly predictable in deflecting attention from 'our' knowledge to Mary's decision. If, for example, the question had been 'When will Mary decide?', the reply might have been:

She will do so |next WÈEK|

The verb phrase in this case would have little more prominence than the subject. But the main prominence is given to the time adjunct, *next week*, and this prominence is conveyed by the intonation nucleus on the head noun *week*.

Such prosodic data do not concern speech alone. If we had received the inquiry in writing and had scribbled the reply on paper also, 'She will decide next week' would have been given the prosodic values of our spoken response as the receiver glanced at the written message. And if the receiver were to read it aloud to a friend, it would normally be read with these prosodic values. If this were not so, our message might be distorted or replaced by some other that we had not intended, such as:

She will de|CÌDE next week|

Information and communicative dynamism

18.3 COMMUNICATIVE DYNAMISM refers to the variation in communicative value as between different parts of an utterance. The subject, verb, and adjunct in:

She will de|cide 'next WÈEK|

were described in 18.2 as being uttered with sequentially increasing prominence, with the S conveying least information, the V rather more (for the reasons stated), and the A conveying most – as is natural since it conveys (or implies that it conveys) the information sought by the *wh*-element of the question 'When (shall we know what Mary is going to do)?' A TONE UNIT is defined in Appendix II.13 as a stretch of speech containing one intonation nucleus, and since each such nucleus serves to highlight a piece of information, it follows that a tone unit is coextensive with an INFORMATION UNIT.

But although an information unit highlights one item, this does not mean that the rest of the unit is devoid of information. As in the present example, the 'communicative dynamism' can range from very low (corresponding to weak stress, as with the subject *she*), through medium (corresponding to nonnuclear stress, as with the verb phrase, *will decide*), to very strong stress (corresponding to intonation nucleus, as with the adverbial, *next week*). And, again as in this example, it is common – though by no means necessary – for the range of such communicative dynamism to increase from low to high in accordance with the linear progression of the information unit. To put it another (and better) way, it is common to process the information in a message so as to achieve a linear presentation from low to high information value (*cf* 19.12). We shall refer to this as the principle of END-FOCUS.

18.4 Though there is a one-for-one correspondence between tone unit and information unit, the correspondence is less direct between prosodic prominence and information value. Prominence by stress or intonation is realized on a *syllable*, a unit that has no necessary correlation with meaning, let alone information value. This is the case with the stress on *-cide* in:

She will de|cide 'next WÈEK|

The effect of prosodic prominence is to draw attention to the semantic unit within which the prominent syllable occurs (in this case the verb phrase *will decide*) and hence to give that unit information prominence. So also with the information climax in this example. The noun phrase, *next week*, which realizes the adverbial, would have the main stress on the head, *week*. It is therefore this syllable which carries the nuclear tone, though of course it is not the item *week* itself which is informationally prominent but the whole adverbial *next week*. Compare the parallel distribution of information in the following examples, noting the relation between the prosodically prominent *syllables* and the informationally prominent *semantic units*:

He will de|liver it on TÙEsday|
He should have re|plied to my LÈTter|

If, on the other hand, *my letter* had already been established in the context, it would no longer be appropriate to make the prepositional phrase informationally prominent. Instead, the nucleus would probably occur on *replied* and the adverbial might be lightened and abbreviated by pronominalization:

He should have re|PLÌED { to my 'letter| / to it| }

It is such circumstances that lead some to define end focus in terms of the (stressed syllable of the) last open-class lexical item of the last clause element (but *cf* 18.12 Note [a]).

Note In all the examples so far, the 'semantic units' identified by prosodically prominent syllables have also been grammatical units (V, A), but the broader term 'semantic unit' is necessary as a reminder that the informationally prominent unit need not be a syntactic element:

It was |neither an AŬTOcratic| nor en|tirely a DÈMOcratic government|

(See further 18.15.)

Tone units and grammar

18.5 Every sentence has at least one tone/information unit, and it is usual for such a unit to be coextensive with a grammatical unit. Sometimes this is the sentence itself, as in the example we have been considering:

She will de|cide 'next WÈEK|

But far more commonly, the tone unit corresponds to a grammatical unit within a sentence. This may be:

(a) An initially placed optional adjunct (*cf* 8.36), other than closed-class items:

|After my ÍLLness| I |went to FRÀNCE|

contrast:

|Then I went to FRÀNCE|

(b) An initially or finally placed disjunct or conjunct, especially when realized by a polysyllabic item:

|FRĂNKly| it has been dis|GRÀCEful|
More|ŏver| the |chairman may not be WÌLLing|
It was dis|GRÀCEful| |FRÁNKly|

(c) An initially placed vocative:

|JÓHN| are you |all RÍGHT|
|DÒCtor| I'm |very ÀNXious|

A vocative in end position will also occupy a separate tone unit if it is given a rising nucleus, whether for politeness or to single out the addressee more specifically (*cf* App II.15), following a different type of nucleus:

I'm |much BÈTter| |DÓCtor|
But I |don't think you're RÎGHT| |MÁRy|

Contrast:

Are you |all RÍGHT 'John|
I'm |very ÀNXious 'Doctor|

(d) The subject, if this element is realized by a clause or a long noun phrase, especially one with postmodification (*cf* 17.1*ff*, 17.61):

|What we WÁNT| is |plenty of RÀIN|
The |tall 'lady by the DÓOR| |spoke to JÒHN|

Contrast:

|John 'spoke to the 'tall 'lady by the DÒOR|

(e) A fronted object or complement (*cf* 18.20*ff*):

Her |WRĬTing| I |find uninTÈLligible|

(f) The coordinate clauses in a compound sentence, especially when the clauses have different subjects:

She |won the RÁCE| and he was de|LÌGHTed|
They |WÁLKED| they |SWÁM| they |played GÒLF|

Contrast coordinated predicates and predications (*cf* 13.52*f*):

He |went out and 'slammed the DÒOR|
I have |seen them and 'offered my HÈLP|

On the segmentation of tone units, *cf* App II.18.

18.6 It will be noticed that, in each of the cases mentioned in 18.5, the remainder of the sentence is both a tone unit and a grammatical unit: the predicate in (d), a well-formed clause in (a), (b), (c), and (f). An untidier situation, with no one-to-one relation between tone units and major grammatical units, occurs when such items as those specified in (a), (b), and (c) are placed medially. The items concerned may then continue to be given prominence by an intonation nucleus, but – especially in conversational English – the resultant division of the sentence into tone units will not correspond to the grammatical units that we find it useful to distinguish in this book. Thus:

(a′) A sentence with medially placed optional adjunct:

You |should by NŎW| be |earning your LÌving|

(b′) A sentence with medially placed disjunct or conjunct:

It has |FRĂNKly| been dis|GRÀCEful|
The |chairman 'may moreóver| |not be WÌLLing|

(c′) A sentence with medially placed vocative:

You |should 'really JÓHN| be |earning your LÌving|

A further common circumstance in which tone units and sentence constituents do not completely coincide is where a noun-phrase postmodification takes the form of a nonrestrictive clause or appositional structure. For example:

The |JapaNĚSE| whose |industry is THRĬving| are de|servedly PRÒSperous|
I ad|mire the JapaNÈSE| whose |industry is THRÌving|
|Harriet SMĬTH| our |new RepresĚNtative| |comes from AlaBÀma|
|Let me 'introduce you to 'Harriet SMÌTH| our |new RepresÈNtative|

Contrast (*cf* 18.5 (d)):

The |Japa'nese who 'live in TŏKyo| can |see Ka'buki 'theatre RÈGularly|

18.7 The generalizations made in 18.5–6 provide only guidelines: no rigid rule can be made about the relation of grammatical to tone units or about the precise points at which tone units will form their divisions. Since tone units constitute information units, they are by their very nature variable stretches of language, readily adjustable to the demands of emphasis, grammatical complexity, speed of utterance, and other factors. For example, a sentence having a clausal object will generally form one tone unit, so long as all the elements are relatively short and simple. But if (i) we wish to highlight certain parts, or (ii) the length of the constituents goes beyond a certain point (very roughly, five or six words), the sentence will be split into two or more tone/information units:

The |man 'said we could 'park HÈRE|
The |man SĂID| we could |park HÈRE|
The |man assÙRED us| that we could |park our CÁR| |here 'opposite the hoTÈL|

There are extreme cases where every single word can constitute a tone unit; thus, in emphatic irritation, we might say:

|HÉ| |SÁID| |WÉ| |CÒULD|

Note In a corpus of speech, it has been found that 80 per cent of all tone units had between one and seven words, with a median of five words.

Given and new information

18.8 When we construct a message, it is a courtesy to the receiver, as well as a convenience for ourselves, to provide the point of the message with enough context for this point to be both clearly identified and unambiguously understood, as well as being placed in a normal linguistic framework. To return to the question at the beginning of 18.2:

When shall we know what Mary is going to do?

The answer might have been:

We'll know *next week*.

Here the unitalicized portion replicates material from the question; so far as the receiver is concerned, it is entirely GIVEN. But as well as providing assurance that the answer is indeed attending to the question, it serves as a convenient introduction to the actual point of the message, the NEW information conveyed by *next week*. Of course, in this instance, the message would have been adequately comprehensible if it had been confined to the new information alone:

Next week.

But in 18.2, the answer we considered was:

She will decide *next week*.

The italicized portion again presents the main point of the message and the entirely new information, but the introduction is less obviously and directly 'given'. Nonetheless, it serves as the necessary background and by contrast with the 'new' information it is relatively 'given'. The subject *she* and the futurity expressed by *will* are indeed entirely given, and in replacing *we* and *know* by *she* and *decide* (with consequently increased communicative dynamism; *cf* 18.3) we oblige the receiver to infer that if, as we might expect, we learn of her decision when it is made, the new information – in the context of this specific given information – constitutes an adequate answer to the question.

Note [a] The subsidiary half of the complex fall-plus-rise nucleus (*cf* 18.17, App II.15) represents 'semi-given' information: *eg: Pass me my CÒAT, FRÉD* (where Fred is assumed to be present, although he has not been actually mentioned). Compare also *I went to FRÀNCE in nineteen FÍFty* with *I went to FRÀNCE last WÉEK* ⟨esp BrE⟩ where 'last week' is not far from our minds, being recent history, and therefore need not bear the whole weight of new information. In AmE, *last week* in this sentence is likely to be treated as given information, and to receive no nuclear prominence at all:

I went to FRÀNCE last week.

[b] The notion of 'given' and 'new' isolates the two poles of least and most communicative dynamism (*cf* 18.3), such as *Joan* and *indigestible* in:

Joan finds seafood indigestible.

The item *seafood* is intermediate, but for the hearer who knows that Joan avoids seafood, it is towards the 'given' pole, while for the hearer who knows that Joan suffers from indigestion, it may be nearer the 'new' pole. If the hearer, on the other hand, is obliged to ask 'Who is Joan?', the speaker knows that he has misjudged even what he assumed to be 'most given'.

Compare also:

Have you |been to the BÀCON exhibition| or |don't you LIKE that kind of painting|

In the second clause *that kind of painting* is presented as 'given', the speaker assuming that it will be known both which Bacon is meant and also the kind of work he did. Needless to say, a hearer is often in the position of needing to absorb the hint that has been presented as though it were unnecessary.

Theme and focus

18.9 There is commonly a one-to-one relation between 'given' in contrast to 'new' information on the one hand, and theme in contrast to focus on the other. THEME is the name we give to the initial part of any structure when we consider it from an informational point of view. When it occurs in its expected or 'unmarked' form (but *cf* 18.19), its direct relation to given information can be seen informally as announcing that the starting point of the message is established and agreed. In this sense, the definite article is thematic in relation to a noun phrase such as *the lecturer* in announcing that the identity has been established; but, comparably, in the noun phrase *the lecturer's name*, it is the genitive premodifier *the lecturer's* that is thematic. More usually, however, we apply the term 'theme' to the first element of a clause, such as the subject in *The lecturer's name wasn't announced*. Consider now these three examples as 'messages' in isolation:

The lecturer.
The lecturer's name.
The lecturer's name wasn't announced.

We should note a significant prosodic similarity between the italicized theme and the remainder of each structure. The theme's relative lack of stress mimes its status as 'given' and therefore in no need of emphasis. By contrast, the unitalicized portions are given greater prosodic prominence and it would be on these that the intonation nucleus would be placed if they were uttered as messages:

(Who led the discussion?) The |LÈCTurer|
(What did she want to know?) The |lecturer's NÀME|
(Didn't she know who was lecturing?) The |lecturer's 'name wasn't anNÒUNCED|

In other words, the new information in each case is the 'focus' of the message, and just as we saw in 18.8 that it seemed natural to place the new information after providing a context of given information, so we can regard focus (identified prosodically as we have explained in 18.4) as most neutrally and normally placed at the end of the information unit.

Since the new information often needs to be stated more fully than the given (that is, with a longer, 'heavier' structure), it is not unexpected that an

organization principle which may be called END-WEIGHT comes into operation along with the principle of end-focus. The principle of end-weight can be seen operating in the following examples:

She visited him that very day.
She visited her best friend that very day.
She visited that very day an elderly and much beloved friend.

Even had the speaker/writer preferred to put the focus on the time adjunct and to locate this adjunct in its unmarked final position, the weight of the object noun phrase in the last example makes it preferable to have the adjunct at *iE* (*cf* 8.22). An even more preferred position might have been *I*: '*That very day*, she visited . . .'

Note In contrast to 'given' and 'new', which are *contextually* established and to that extent 'extralinguistic', 'theme' and 'focus' are linguistically defined, in terms of position and prosody respectively. With 'theme' there is an inviting alternative contrast, 'rheme', and the latter term (favoured by many linguists) will be used from time to time, especially in its adjectival form, 'rhematic', since it provides a convenient way of referring to degrees of communicative dynamism. Some linguists use the distinction 'topic'/'comment' for our 'theme'/'focus' or 'theme'/'rheme' (and sometimes for our 'given'/'new'). Others speak of given information as 'old', 'shared', or 'presupposed' information.

18.10 Although it is easy to see that the focus is in some obvious sense the most relevant part of a message, we must not underrate the theme, which is certainly the next most relevant. In clause structure, initial position is important for thematic presentation, and in this way it may be chosen for a wide range of items:

(a) Subject in a statement:
He and I have studied the instructions.

(b) Subject in a directive:
You study the instructions!

(c) Operator in a *yes–no* question:
Is she studying the instructions?

(d) *Wh*-element in a *wh*-question:
What is she studying?

(e) A verb item in a directive:
Study the instructions!
Let's study the instructions!
Do study the instructions!

(f) Adverbial (but *cf* 18.19) in a statement or directive:
Yet she studied the instructions.
Usually she studies the instructions.
Please study the instructions!

(g) Conjunction:
. . . *although* she studied the instructions.

All the examples are concerned with a single issue, 'studying the instructions', with the focus on the object phrase prosodically identified by an intonation nucleus on the stressed syllable of the noun head in this phrase, which we leave unmarked as to nucleus so that it may be clear that no specific type of nuclear tone is demanded:

. . . the INSTRUCTIONS|

But the theme varies widely from example to example and in each case plays a semantically crucial part in stipulating, from the outset, a governing condition for the entire clause that follows. This may be an indication of the clause's structure (*eg* interrogative); or its structural relationship (*eg* subordinate); or it may indicate a semantic relation (*eg* concession).

The theme type (a), however, differs from the others in being given significantly less prosodic prominence. This reflects the fact that the subject of a clause or sentence (and especially a pronominal subject) is likely to be contextually 'given' information and hence to carry least communicative dynamism. It is doubtless also an acknowledgment that the declarative sentence with initial subject is grammatically the least 'marked' type of clause.

The noticeably greater prominence given to the thematic items in (b–g), therefore, appropriately gives notice that a clause is *not* beginning in the least marked form. The necessity for such a distinction can readily be seen with (b):

|You 'study the INSTRÙCTIONS|

If we removed from *you* the stress implied by the 'onset' (*cf* App *II.13*), the utterance would be interpreted as a straightforward declarative, just as it would be in the following:

I notice that every time you set the alarm, you study the instructions. Is this because you keep forgetting them?

Where, as in (b–g), themes are significant enough to be given prominence at the tone unit's 'onset', they can be referred to as ONSET THEMES.

Note Onset theme should not be confused with 'marked theme', *cf* 18.19, though the distinction is ultimately gradient rather than absolute.

The relation between focus and new information

18.11 The focus indicates where the new information lies, and the intonation nucleus (which in turn signals the focus) occurs on the last appropriate syllable as determined by the prosodic rule outlined in 18.4.

It is necessary to state the correspondence in this rather broad and general way, since the new information can be anything from a syllable to a whole clause. If the nucleus falls on the last stressed syllable of the clause (according to the unmarked end-focus principle), the new element could, for example, be the entire clause, or the last element (*eg* complement) of the clause, or the predication of the clause. In the following sentence, we mark the extent of the new information for three possible uses of the same sentence:

Whole clause is 'new':

NEW

(What's on today?) We're going to the RÀCes. [1]

Predication is 'new':

NEW

(What are we doing today?) We're going to the RÀCes. [2]

Final adverbial is 'new':

NEW

(Where are we going today?) We're going to the RÀCes. [3]

The sentence as heard (and the same would of course apply to writing: *cf* 18.2) is neutral as to the three possible stretches of new information indicated by our marking, since the focus is at the same point in each case. Only the parenthesized questions (more broadly put, our knowledge of the context) provide the clue as to how much of the information is assumed as 'given' and how much is thus new.

When the nucleus occurs on a syllable earlier than that predicted by the principle of end-focus, however, no such openness of interpretation is possible:

NEW

(Who's going to the races?) WÈ'RE going to the races. [4]

(Have you decided whether you're going to the races?)

NEW

Yes, we ÀRE going to the races. [5]

This is an instance of 'marked' focus, to which we now turn.

Note [a] In conversation, where the sentences [2–5] were replies to the corresponding questions, it would be common of course for ellipsis (*cf* 19.44*f*) to permit only the new information to be uttered; *cf* 18.8. For example, in place of [2], [3], [4], and [5] we could have:

Going to the RÀCes. [2a]
To the RÀCes. [3a]
WÈ are. [4a]
We ÀRE. [5a]

[b] The contrast in the following is worth remarking:

Among those present were the Mayor and { (MIS(IZ)) Martin. [6] / (MIS(IZ)) MÀRtin. [7] }

In [7] the Mayor is accompanied by a woman having a different surname from his; in [6] the woman – his wife or daughter, perhaps – has the same surname as the Mayor and the speaker implies that the hearer knows already what this is.

[c] In examples like the following (especially with respect to items of personal wear), the final phrase is normally treated as given, being added only for informal clarification:

She's buying a SCÀRF for herself.

Contrast:

She's buying her mother a birthday present but she's also buying a SCÁRF for herSÈLF.

Marked focus

18.12 The principle of end-focus entails that we can confidently predict that a reader will interpret *blue* as the focal item in the written sentence:

I am painting my living room blue.

In other words, we are confident that he would read it aloud as:

I am |painting my 'living room BLÙE| [1]

with an increasing degree of communicative dynamism from *painting* to *blue*. But as we have just seen in 18.11, *all* of the information in this sentence may be new, and when we reflect upon the sentence we must realize that in fact no part is necessarily more obvious or predictable than another. This means that it is perfectly possible to make the sentence informationally appropriate with the intonation nucleus (and hence the information focus) elsewhere:

I am |painting my LÌving room 'blue| [2]
I am |painting MÝ 'living room 'blue| [3]
I am PÀINting my 'living room 'blue| [4]
I |ÀM 'painting my 'living room 'blue| [5]
|Ì am 'painting my 'living room 'blue| [6]

It is when we move the focus from its predictable position as in [1] to another position as in [2–6] that we speak of MARKED FOCUS.

The condition for marked focus arises when special emphasis is required. Frequently this special emphasis is needed for the purposes of contrast or correction. Thus it would be easy to imagine [2] as following someone else's remark:

I am |painting my 'bathroom BLÙE|

or question:

|Are you 'painting your 'kitchen BLÚE|

Equally, [3] might follow on from:

|John is 'painting his 'living room BLÙE|

or:

|Are you 'painting 'John's 'living room BLÚE|

Again, [4] might follow on from:

I've |changed my 'mind about PĂPering|

So, too, [5] might be a response to:

|Weren't you in'tending to 'paint your 'living room BLÚE|

And [6] might follow on from:

|So 'John is 'painting your 'living room BLÙE|

But contrast, in the sense of replacing one presumed item by another, is not the only occasion for the special emphasis of marked focus. More generally, it is a matter of adjusting the focus according to what is presupposed in a

given utterance; *cf* 18.8 Note [a]. The simple supply of required information may call for marked focus if the item supplying the information does not occur in the unmarked end position. This was the case with example [4] in 18.11:

|WÈ'RE going to the 'races|

It could also be the case in [6] above if this was in response to a *wh*-question:

|Who's 'painting your 'living room BLÙE|

Note [a] Not all apparently open-class items at *E* are in end-focus. With the written version of the following sentence, we could not be confident about the assigning of the rhematic nucleus:

I am painting my living room at present.

Despite the fact that *present* can be an open-class lexical item (*cf* 18.4), there are good grounds for seeing unmarked focus as follows:

I am |painting my LÌving room at present|

This is because the adverbial *at present* need have little more role than merely to endorse the present tense of the verb phrase.

[b] Since in reading we assign end-focus unless the context makes it unambiguously clear that the focus should be elsewhere, other devices than prosody are usefully invoked where end-focus would produce a misreading. For example, the cleft-sentence structure; *cf* 18.26. But for some instances of marked focus, as in [3], [4], and [5], considerable reworking is required. Thus in place of [3], we might have a written version:

The living room I am *painting* blue is {my own. / mine.} [3a]

[c] Examples [3], [5], and [6] above illustrate the fact that, although focus is normally expected to fall on an open-class lexical item, exceptions can readily be made where a closed-class item requires special emphasis for contrastive or other purposes (*cf* 18.14). Even the articles may be thus focused:

Are you |talking about THÉ 'Mrs 'Reagan| (or only someone else of the same name)?

A: Did you |see the po'liceman concÉRNED|

B: Well I |saw Ǎ po'liceman| [pronounced /eɪ/]

Compare also:

|YÒU should worry| [= This shouldn't worry YÓU|]

18.13 In certain circumstances, it is quite normal to have the focus on a noun phrase as subject of a clause, in violation of the end-focus principle. This is frequently because, with the subject concerned, the predicate is relatively predictable and thus has lower communicative dynamism. More broadly, it reflects the fact that nouns generally convey more information than verbs. It is significant that the phenomenon in question is especially associated with intransitives, where (if English structure permitted it freely) we might expect the element order *VS*. Compare:

The |TÈLephone's 'ringing|
The |SÙN is 'shining|
The |KÈTtle's 'boiling|
A |VìSitor called|
|Has your SÍster 'come 'home|

Predictability is easy to see with the first two examples, but it is arguable analogously that, in a domestic context, the most obvious thing to announce about kettles is that they are boiling; a visitor cannot visit without 'calling' at one's house; and what more predictable for a caller, interested in a person, than to ask whether she is at home? Contrast:

|Has your 'sister 'gone ÓUT|

But it is not only this extreme degree of predictability that makes a predicate carry less communicative dynamism. Consider the following sentences:

The |KÈTtle is 'missing|
The |TÈLephone is 'out of 'order|

There seem in fact to be several possible factors that lead us to identify by focus a subject as more important than the predicate. First, the subject must be a known and named individual (*John, The President*) or else an entity or activity that has great generality or whose existence is well known (*A visitor, The kettle*). Second, the predicate denotes typically a very general or commonly associated activity (especially one that presents a starkly positive/negative choice), such as the act of appearing/disappearing; or it denotes demise or other misfortune, again of a general nature. Some examples:

The |BÈLL is 'ringing|	*contrast*:	The |bell is GLÌTtering|
		My |ears are RÌNGing|
|JÒHN has ar'rived|	*contrast*:	|John has FÌNished|
The |PRÈSident has 'died|	*contrast*:	|Someone has DÌED|
My |CÒAT is 'torn|	*contrast*:	My |coat is FÀWN|
|MÀRy is 'ill a'gain|	*contrast*:	|Mary is PRÈGnant again|
A |WÀSP has 'settled on you|	*contrast*:	A |wasp has 'settled on your BÀCK|
The |BÀby's 'crying|	*contrast*:	The |baby's SMÌLing|

Emphasis may be given to an initial noun phrase (or indeed to any nonfinal item) by interposing a parenthesis with its own tone unit:

|This in SHÓRT| is |why I reFÙSED|

The device is comparably valuable in writing, where this conjunct would be separately punctuated and thus allow *This* to have more weight than it otherwise would:

This, in short, is why I refused.

Although we have associated this phenomenon with noun phrases as *subject*, it arises more broadly with noun phrases in construction with succeeding verb phrases:

Joan has a PLÀNE to 'catch|
We have various PRÒBlems to 'solve|
. . . STÙDents to 'teach|
. . . QUÈSTions to 'answer|
. . . FÌGures to 'add 'up|

By contrast, where it is less congruent with or less predictably associated with the noun phrase, it is the verb phrase that might be focused:

. . . students to repriMÀND|
. . . texts to compÙTerize|

Similarly, within a noun phrase, if the head is more general and carries less semantic weight and specificity than the premodifier, it is the latter that may sometimes be focused:

She's a |BRÌLliant 'person|
(*contrast*: She's a |brilliant DÒCtor|)

Again, where the noun-phrase object is of general reference, focus may be moved forward on to the head of the verb phrase:

You should |always 'try to ÈELP { a 'chap| / a 'fellow| / a 'guy|

(*contrast*: You should |always 'try to 'help a poLÌCEman|)

Compare also noun phrases of mere expletive or evaluative force:

I've been CHÈATed by the dirty scoundrel.
She's given me a new TÌE, the 'little 'darling.

18.14 The instances of marked focus in 18.12 involved putting the focus earlier than where it would occur in unmarked focus. But there are two further types, (a) and (b), to be considered:

(a) First, the focus can be moved to a point subsequent to its expected position. This is sometimes because the unmarked focus is misleading, as it might be in:

|What 'firm is your BRÒTHer with|
|Who's the NÒvel by|
I re|fused to GÒ with him|

If there were any danger that the hearer might take these as emphatic (for example, *your brother* in contrast to *your sister* or *your father*; *the novel* in contrast to *the review*; *go* in contrast to *stay talking*), the questions would be put with marked focus upon the prepositions:

|What 'firm is your 'brother WÌTH|
|Who's the 'novel BY|
I re|fused to go WÌTH him|

Similarly, we may have:

I |saw your 'sister WÌTH him|

In an exchange like the following:

A: So what did you SÀY?
B: There was nothing TÒ say.

it may seem vacuous to highlight the mere infinitive marker (*cf* 9.9). But on the one hand, *say* is given and would thus be an inappropriate bearer of a nucleus; on the other hand, there is a positive reason for placing the nucleus on the only part of this verb phrase which represents the modality. Compare an alternative version of B's response:

There was nothing that I CÒULD say.

Similarly, an example from a broadcast interview:

We must make clear our position TÒ the government.

The placing of the nucleus on *to* was doubtless motivated by the fact that, in the linguistic context, *our position*, *the government*, and *make clear* were already given.

Marked focus on such closed-class items may alternatively occur when we want them to have special contrastive emphasis:

|Who are you 'working FÒR| [*ie* not *with*]

Something similar can occur with the particle in phrasal verbs, since, although such items normally carry a degree of stress not associated with prepositions, they may constitute either an unmarked focus or a contrastive one. Beside:

He's |chasing the cattle ÌN|

we may have:

(Instead of chasing the cattle out) he's |chasing the cattle ÌN|

Some further examples of marked focus:

He was |speaking to MÈ| (*not you*)
So we |bought THÌS 'house| (*instead of that one*)
I |told you to put them ÒN the 'bed| (*not under it*)
|Put your 'hat ÒN| (*it's raining*)
|Hand your 'ticket ÌN| (*you're not allowed to keep it*)

In view of what was said in 18.12 Note [a], it would similarly be a case of marked focus if we gave special emphasis to the adverbial in:

I am |painting my 'living room at PRÈSent|

(b) Secondly, we can have contrastive focus at precisely the point of unmarked focus. Thus:

I am |painting my 'living room BLÙE| (*or* . . . "↑ BLÙE|)

may connote in the context special emphasis ('Of all colours', 'Though it's the one I dislike most', or 'You are wrong in thinking that I'm painting it yellow'). In speech, such marked focus may be realized with additional stress or wider range of nucleus (*cf* App II.20). In writing, the comparable effect can often be conveyed only by expansion or rather elaborate paraphrase, but sometimes typographical devices are invoked, especially italics. In S J Perelman's *Last Laugh* (1981), we find the following piece of dialogue:

'Was that how you became a rustler?'
'A rustler?' I repeated. 'Not a rustler, Miss Cronjager – a *wrestler*.'

The word that requires marked contrastive focus for corrective purposes comes at the point where unmarked focus would occur. Perelman presumably expects the reader to imagine a realization in which the first repetition is

uttered with a wider pitch range than where it occurs in Miss Cronjager's question, with special prosodic marking also of the second repetition and of the word that is to replace it:

Was |that how you became a RÚstler|
A |RÚstler| . . . |Not a RŬstler| . . . a [a]|WRÈstler|

Note [a] Radio and television announcers in both America and Britain are often accused of overusing marked focus on closed-class items (*cf* 19.34 Note).
[b] Where marked focus is required on a preposition, it is sometimes possible to achieve the required meaning with end focus by using a paraphrase. Thus beside:
. . . apart from his LÀZiness|
we may have:
. . . APÀRT from his 'laziness|
or:
. . . his 'laziness APÀRT|
Compare also (in formal use, *cf* 9.56):
. . . notwithSTÀNDing his 'laziness| . . . his 'laziness notwithSTÀNDing|
With the adverbial particle in phrasal verbs the same result is achieved merely by movement:
He's |bringing 'in the CÀSes| He's |bringing the 'cases ÌN|
This helps to explain why such particles are in final position when the object is a personal pronoun (*cf* 16.2*ff*) or is a noun phrase of very general meaning:
He's |bringing them ÌN|
He's |bringing the thing ÌN|
(?*He's |bringing 'in the THÌNG|)
(*cf* *She's |bringing 'up the MÀTter|)
Compare also:
They've |found a 'nice APÀRTment to 'live in|
They've |found a 'nice 'place to LÌVE|

18.15 Just as marked focus frequently involves putting emphasis on an unexpected part of a phrase ('. . . ÒN the bed'), so also it may involve unexpected emphasis on part of a proper noun, a compound, or even an ordinary word. Whereas normally we put the main stress on a person's family name and not the first name:

Dylan THÒMas

marked focus may reverse this, often but not exclusively with a view to making a correction:

But I |said DÝLan 'Thomas was 'born in 1914| – |not ÉDward Thomas|
|Some 'readers pre'fer ÈMily 'Brontë| while |others 'favour CHÀRlotte ('Brontë)| but is there |anyone who 'still 'reads ÁNNE ('Brontë)|

Conversely, compound nouns with normal first-element stress (*cf* App II.7) can switch to second-element stress with marked focus:

I |just 'wanted a 'couple of PÌCTure hooks| and he |started 'showing me some 'picture BÒOKS|

So also beside the normal:

He's an in|SÙRance 'agent|

we may find ourselves needing to say, 'Oh no, I'm sorry' and to correct ourselves with:

He's |not an in'surance ÁGent| He's an in|surance BRÒKer|

Equally, beside the normal:

It's a |chicken SÀNDwich|

we could have:

This is a |CHÌCKen 'sandwich| and I'd pre|fer a CHÊESE 'sandwich|

As for marked focus altering the accentuation within a word, we had an example in 18.4 Note (*cf* also App II.10 on contrastive stress). This phenomenon is perhaps most familiar with negative prefixes, but it occurs with other word elements also:

(Happy?) I |thought she 'looked ÙNhappy|
(Agreeable?) I |thought he 'seemed DÌsagreeable|
It |didn't discÓURage me| I |actually 'felt ÈNcouraged|
She |suddenly changed the subject from ĚMigration| to |ÌMmigration|

Focus on the operator

18.16 One type of marked focus that deserves separate treatment is focusing on the operator, which often has the particular function of signalling contrast between positive and negative meaning:

(A: Why haven't you had a bath?) B: I |HÀVE had a 'bath|
(A: Look for your shoes.) B: I |AM̀ looking for them|
She |PRŐMised| so she| MÙST 'take him 'with her|
They've ac|cepted the ÒFfer| they |really HÀVE|

When the operator is positive, the meaning is 'Yes in contrast to No'; when the operator is negative, the meaning is contrastive in the opposite direction:

So you |HÀVEn't lost it| ['You thought you had']

It is not surprising that focus on the operator has this function, when we consider that the operator (in *yes–no* questions and in negatives) is the item most concerned in signalling the positive/negative polarity. Also, we may notice that the operator emphasizes positiveness or negativeness when it bears the focus (as it normally does) in elliptical replies:

(A: Have you seen my books?) B: |No, I HÀVEn't|
(A: Would you like black coffee?) B: |Yes, I WÒULD|
(A: Does this bell work?) B: |Yes, it DÒES|

This last example leads us on to the most significant point about focus on the operator, which is that when the finite verb phrase is in the simple present or past tense, and so would not otherwise have an auxiliary verb to function as operator, the 'dummy' operator DO is introduced to bear the nuclear stress. This, then, is a further example of DO-support (*cf* 3.37):

So you |DÌD go to the concert this 'evening|
[*ie* 'I thought you might, but . . .']
But I |DÒ think you're a 'good 'cook| [*ie* '. . . even if you imagine I don't']

With a rise or fall-rise as intonation nucleus, focus on auxiliaries indicating

past or future often draws contrastive attention to the tense or aspect rather than to the positive/negative polarity:

He |owns -- or DĬD own| a |Rolls RÒYCE|
We've |sold ÒUT| but we |WĬLL be 'getting 'some|
It |HÀS been| and |still ÌS| a |difficult TÌME|

Similarly, the nucleus on auxiliaries such as *may, ought to,* and *could* often signals a contrast between the supposed real state of affairs, and a state of affairs thought desirable or likely:

The o|pinion 'polls MĂY be 'right| [*ie* 'but I suspect they're not']
My |purse ŎUGHT to be 'here| [*ie* 'but it probably isn't']
She |CŎULD drive you there| [*ie* 'but I don't think she has time']

But in courtesy enquiries about health and wellbeing, where there are in effect no information-bearing lexical items, focus on the operator carries no special emphasis:

How |ÀRE you 'these 'days|
Well, how |ÀRE you 'now, 'Mr 'Brown|

With focus on the subject or the adverbial, some emphasis (as, for example, contrast) can be implied:

|How are YÒU 'these 'days| |How are you NÒW|

Thus we would not find:

. . . *'these DÀYS . . . *THÈSE 'days

If normally unstressed operators receive stress (especially nuclear stress), the effect is often to add exclamatory emphasis to the whole sentence:

That WÌLL be nice!
What ÁRE you DÒing?
We HÀVE enjoyed ourselves!

As noted above, DO-support is introduced where there would otherwise be no operator to bear the emphatic stress:

|You DÒ look a 'wreck|

Note On emotive emphasis, *cf* further 18.55*f*; on marked theme, with focus on the operator (as in *Stupid though he is*), *cf* 18.19.

Divided focus

18.17 It sometimes happens that we want to put nuclear focus upon *two items in* an information unit. An intonation pattern particularly associated with this in BrE is the fall-plus-rise contour (*cf* App II.17; see also 8.111 Note [c]). Compare the following:

He's |fairly CLÈVer| [1]
He's |FÀIRly CLÉVer| [2]

The implications differ in two ways. Semantically, [1] implies a positive estimate, though cautiously worded, while [2] is relatively grudging and *disparaging, calling in question the estimate of cleverness. Informationally,* [1] is compatible with answering a general inquiry about the person ('What do you think of Alec?'), while [2] implies that the question of his cleverness has already been raised ('Alec is clever, isn't he?'). Where such DIVIDED FOCUS is realized by fall-plus-rise, therefore, the item carrying the rise is made subsidiary to the other focused item, accepts that it represents information that is to some extent 'given', but (compatible with the rise) calls its status in question. Again, compare the following possible responses to the same inquiry, 'Alec is clever, isn't he?'

I |THÌNK so| [3]
I |THÌNK { SÓ | he ÍS } | [4]

Compare also:

I'm |SÙRE he is|

In [4] we have a strong note of reservation as compared with the relative confidence of [3]. The subsidiary item need not however carry such a reservation. Often it acts as merely confirmatory of 'given' status or confers a 'given' status where there happens to be no contextual warrant:

|William WÒRDSworth is my 'favourite 'English PÓet|

(which may be replying to the question 'Who is your favourite English poet?' or correcting a contrary statement 'I understand that John Keats is your favourite . . .').

|MÀNy 'people are disbe'lievers at the 'present TÍME|

In this example, the final adjunct is merely confirmatory of the tense in *are* and has no necessary connotation that the present time has been referred to; treating it with divided focus seems especially BrE; in AmE it would often be unmarked intonationally. Frequently indeed, the second focus conveys little more than courtesy, especially to one who has not been recently addressed in a particular discourse. Thus it is used with final vocatives and formulaic disjuncts:

|What's the TÌME, JÓHN| At|TÈNtion, PLÉASE|

In contrast to the fall-plus-rise, the rise-plus-fall contour is used to mark a divided focus where the first of the two focused items is made subsidiary to the second:

|HÉ is 'happy when SHÈ 'is| |She is HÁPpy but 'he ÌSN'T|

We can compare the two types of divided focus:

I |went to FRÀNCE in 'nineteen ÉIGHTy| [5]
I |went to FRÁNCE in 'nineteen ÈIGHTy| [6]

[5] suggests a context in which there is discussion of what I had done in 1980, this part therefore being relatively given; [6] suggests one in which the

discussion concerns when I went to France, the rise again coinciding with the relatively given, but this time preceding the relatively new instead of following it. It might be said that À B̌ is informationally equivalent to B̌ À (or B̌ À). Thus, in corrective response to 'I bet you enjoyed yourself in Spain in 1980', we might find either [5] or:

In |nineteen ÉIGHTy I went to FRÀNCE|

Note The prepositional highlighting mentioned in 18.14 frequently occurs with the pattern of divided focus discussed above:

. . . but ÌN the NÓRTH |there'll be |further SNÒW|

Sometimes the first of the two focused items seems to be focused for no better reason than to slow up delivery, perhaps while the speaker is deciding exactly what to say:

. . . and the 'attitude TÒ (er) 'these PÉOPle| is ap|PÀLLing|

But more generally the fall in such divided focus serves the purpose of making the whole phrase (and not of course merely the closed-class item) emphatic:

(He has written a book on African folklore, and he will be reading) 'extracts FRÒM his BÓOK (in the broadcast this evening).

(She hoped profoundly that they could enjoy a quiet dinner) and in'deed BÝ the Évening (the quarrel had been forgotten).

The emphasis may, of course, be actually contrastive:

(They thought the weather would be better in the south) but 'actually ÌN the SÓUTH (the snow and ice were more severe).

Compare also:

The |flight is 'now ex'pected TÒ dePÁRT| in |one HÒUR|

An alternative ('. . . 'now exPÈCTed to dePÁRT') would tend to call in question the likelihood, where the relatively irregular prosodic focus on the preposition makes the departure seem more certain (*cf* 19.34 Note).

Concatenated focus

18.18 We saw in 18.17 that the rise in a rise-plus-fall divided focus sequence prepares us (with relatively 'given' material) for the fall that is to follow – on new material. It is in fact very common for a rise to function as preparatory for a climactic falling nucleus:

They |came 'last SÚNday| and they are |staying for a MÒNTH|

The phenomenon is particularly common with divided focus of the fall-plus-rise type:

I'm |not seeking BÙRGlary insÚRance| but |FÌRE insurance|

Compare also the following pairs:

They |captured 'three of our SÒLDiers|
They |captured THRÈE of ÓUR 'soldiers| and |we 'captured 'four of THÈIRS|

She ar|rived with her HÙsband|
She ar|rived WÌTH her HÚsband| but with|out the CHÌLDren|

Where a rise or fall-rise gives a general indication that a relevant fall is to follow, a fall-rise draws particular attention to an item that is actually to be contrasted:

Al|though 'G-'minor is a 'common 'key for MŎZart| in |BĚETHoven| it's |rather RÀRE|

Such anticipatory contrast may involve several focused items:

|DŸLan 'Thomas| was |born in 'nineteen-fourTĚEN| in |SWÀNsea| but |HŬGH 'Thomas| was |born in 'eighteen-'eighty THRĚE| in |ÀNglesey|

But the contrast in such a concatenation may be anaphoric rather than anticipatory. This is the case with the fall-rise focus on *it* in the following playful exchange recorded between two friends. Notice also the repetition of the cliché 'one of God's little creatures', but without information focus when it is 'given', the point forcefully conveyed by the focus on *also*:

A: |Stop at'tacking that WÀSP| It's |one of 'God's 'little CRÈAtures|
B: But |I am ÀLSO 'one of 'God's 'little 'creatures| and |ÍT |was at|tacking MÈ|

Marked theme

18.19 The two communicatively significant parts of an information unit, the theme and the focus, are typically as distinct as they can be: one is the point of initiation, and the other the point of completion. The theme of an information unit, coming first, is more often 'given' information than any other part of it. Yet the two can coincide; for instance, when, as marked focus, the nucleus falls on the subject of a statement:

(Who gave you that magazine?) |BÌLL gave it to me| [1]

This is the extreme form of MARKED THEME, and we can compare [2] which has an unmarked theme (*He*) and minimum prosodic prominence:

He |gave me a magazÌNE| [2]

We use the term 'marked theme' to designate a theme which is given at least as much prosodic marking as that entailed by being at the point of 'onset' (*cf* App II.11) in a tone unit.

Clearly, theme and focus will always coincide in one-word utterances, whether these are replies, questions, or military commands. For example:

|CÓFFee| |THÀNKS|

Even so, many such short units have an initial portion that can be used as thematic preparation. A striking instance of this is found in the military order, 'Attention!' The word is typically uttered with considerable drawl on the first two syllables, and while the onset appears at the point of normal stress, in military use it is the final syllable that is given word stress and the climactic nuclear focus:

at|ten – TÌON|

But between the extremes of a theme carrying no stress, as in:

She's |coming toNÌGHT|

and a theme coinciding with marked focus, as in:

|SHÈ's 'coming to'night|

there is a wide range of prosodic weight that can be assigned to the theme. One such point in this range we have referred to as 'onset theme' in 18.10 (*cf* also App II.13):

. . . al|though she's 'coming toNÌGHT|
|Yet she's coming toNÌGHT|
The |doctor is 'coming toNÌGHT|

We perceive the theme as carrying greater prosodic weight when it is an item that is not (like subject or conjunction, for example) normally at initial position in a clause (*cf* 8.14*f*). Consider the following exchange:

A: Are you |going to in'vite JÓHN| B: Oh |John I've al'ready invÌted|

In B's response, *John* is a marked theme and the term will be used for any such fronted item whether or not it carries (as such items commonly do) a marked focus (*cf* further 18.20; on fronting with amplificatory tags, see 18.59 Note [c]).

The value of marked theme in information processing can be seen in comparing the following, where [3–5] have *SVC* order but [6] has *CSV*:

|John is LÀZy| (but I think he will help me) [3]
Al|though 'John is LĂZy| (I think he will help me) [4]
Al|though 'John is LÁZy| . . . [5]
|Lazy though John ís| . . . [6]

In [3], *lazy* is new information; there is no assumption on the speaker's part that the listener knows. In [4], the fall-rise on *lazy* also implies that the information is new; the rise part of the complex nucleus is conditioned by the dependent status of the clause of which this is the focus. In [5] however, the simple rise on *lazy* is compatible both with the dependence of the clause concerned and the implication that the hearer already shares the speaker's view of John. In [6], making *lazy* a marked theme entirely implies the givenness of the information and additionally enables the speaker to focus upon the operator (*cf* 18.16) with consequent emphasis on its positive polarity (*cf* 15.39*ff*). A further example: 'Serious as has become the food shortage, worse news is to follow'; this embodies inversion of subject and verb (*cf* 18.22*f*).

Common short adverbials in initial position are often given the minimum (onset) thematic marking:

|Then he LÈFT|

Longer and semantically weightier adverbials at *I* will be somewhat more heavily marked themes:

"|Suddenly he LÈFT|

or they may actually be raised to the status of bearing a nuclear focus:

|SŬDdenly| he |LÈFT|

Finally, we should note that marked theme can be used to draw attention to contrasting pairs, and this often involves separate tone units:

|VĚRdi| [1] is |splendid in his WĂY| [2] but |MŎZart's operas| [3] I re|gard as 'pure perFÈCTion| [4]

Notice the prosodic concord of the fall-rises at [1] and [3]; the one at [2] is anticipatory of the fall at [4] (*cf* 18.18).

Note [a] We are concerned, here as elsewhere, with the subjective perception of prosodic weight rather than what might be measured instrumentally. In the two following examples, the theme *Miami* would probably be given the same prosodic weight objectively:

(Have you considered a holiday in Miami?)
|Miami BÒRES me| [7]
|Miami I've BÈEN to| [8]

In recognizing *Miami* in [8] as marked theme, therefore, we are noting not only its prosodic prominence but its prominence by reason of its unusual position in the clause concerned (*cf* 18.20).

[b] Fronting of a relatively given predication in concessive clauses can be further seen in structures that have no directly corresponding form without fronting:

Criticize him as we may, he has some excellent qualities.
Genius as you may be, you have no right to be rude to your teachers.

A similar analysis might apply to:

Say what you will of them, . . .

(See 15.39*ff*.) Further examples of marked theme: 'French he's quite good at', 'Now he tells me!', 'Tea I can drink at any time of day', 'Hope is all I CAN do'.

Grammatical aspects

Fronting

18.20 Fronting is the term we apply to the achievement of marked theme by moving into initial position an item which is otherwise unusual there. As we saw in 18.19, such a fronted item is frequently an entire sentence element. The reason for fronting may be to echo thematically what has been contextually given:

(You should take up swimming for relaxation)
|RelaxÀtion you 'call it|

Alternatively, the item fronted may be the one contextually most demanded:

|WÌLson his NÁME is|
An |utter FÔOL she 'made me 'feel|
|Really 'good MÈALS they 'serve at that hoTÉL|

It is as if the thematic element is the first thing that strikes the speaker, and the rest is added as an afterthought. The possible insertion of a comma in written English suggests that the nonthematic part is almost an amplificatory tag in status (*cf* 18.59): *Wilson, his name is.*

The foregoing have a distinctly informal flavour, but fronting is in no way confined to colloquial speech. It is very common both in speech and in conventional written material, often serving the function of so arranging clause order that end-focus falls on the most important part of the message as well as providing direct linkage with what has preceded:

That much the jury had thoroughly appreciated.
Most of these problems a computer could take in its stride.
This latter topic we have examined in Chapter 3 and need not reconsider.
To this list may be added ten further items of importance.

The definite items *that*, *this*, and *these* in these examples suggest that the marked theme in such cases most often expresses given information. It is common to find *-ing* participles fronted in similar information-processing circumstances:

Sitting at her desk in deep concentration was my sister Flora. She looked as though she had spent a sleepless night.

(*Cf* subject-verb and subject-operator inversion, 18.23*f*.)

Note [a] A fronted item, like a fronted pushdown *wh*-element (*cf* 11.14*ff*), is sometimes an element from a subordinate clause:

Everything – or nearly everything – that the Labour movement exists to stop the Tories from doing Labour will be asked to support the Cabinet in doing.

The whole of the italicized part of this example is the object of a nonfinite clause, itself a prepositional object within an infinitive clause within the main clause.

[b] Exceptionally, a part rather than the whole of a clause element may be fronted. *Yes–no* questions, for instance (as we have seen in 18.10), have part of the verb phrase only as their thematic component. In the following case, a prepositional phrase equivalent to a postmodifier of the subject complement (but *cf* 17.49*f*) acts as theme: *'Of all the early examples of science fiction*, the fantastic stories of Jules Verne are the most remarkable.'

[c] Sentences containing direct speech quotations seem to provide an example of a construction in which thematic fronting of the direct object is exceptionally easy (*cf* 18.23):

I said: 'That's a pity.' ~ 'That's a pity', I said.

But one may propose an alternative analysis, in which the reporting subject and verb (here *I said*) constitute a dependent comment clause (*cf* 15.53*ff*) rather than the subject and verb of the sentence. This analysis is urged by the possibility of placing them in the middle of the direct speech, as a parenthesis: '*That,' I said, 'is a pity.'*

18.21 A more striking type of fronting is found in the heightened language of rather mannered rhetoric, including the strenuous colourfulness of journalistic writing. It is frequently employed to point a parallelism between two parts of a clause or between two related but contrasting parts of neighbouring clauses. The fronted parts may be prosodically marked as marked theme or marked focus, the latter typically with divided focus (*cf* 18.17), and they may be grammatically any of a wide range of units:

(a) Direct object or prepositional complement:

His face not many { admired, / were enamoured of, } while *his character* still fewer could praise.

(b) Subject complement or object complement:

Traitor he has become and *traitor* we shall call him.

(c) Predication adjunct:

Defiantly they have spoken but *submissively* they will accept my terms.
He might agree under pressure: *willingly* he never would.
In London I was born and *in London* I shall die.

(d) Predication:

They have promised to finish the work, and *finish it* they will.

With predications and predication adjuncts in front position, we often find subjective–verb inversion (*cf* 18.23) if the subject is other than a personal pronoun:

Into the stifling smoke we plunged. [A S V]
Into the stifling smoke plunged the desperate mother. [V S]

In examples like the following, common in journalism, the fronting of the predication seems largely determined in fact by the desire to give end-focus to the subject, at the same time using (as is normal) the early part of the sentence to 'set the scene':

Addressing the demonstration was a quite elderly woman.
Shot by nationalist guerrillas were two entirely innocent tourists.

Even the cleft sentence, itself a grammatical focus device (*cf* 18.25*ff*), is subject to fronting:

They hoped that Herbert Frost would be elected and Frost indeed it was that topped the poll.

Note Parallelism in fronting often corresponds to contrastive focus in speech. For example:
I was BÓRN in London and I shall DÌE in London.

Inversion

18.22 As we have just seen, the fronting of an element is often associated with INVERSION. We distinguish two types, consisting respectively in the reversal of SUBJECT and VERB and the reversal of SUBJECT and OPERATOR.

Since the verb BE as a copula can be simultaneously regarded as verb and operator, we have a choice of regarding its placement before the subject as an instance either of subject–verb or subject–operator inversion. As the examples in 18.23 and 18.24 show, the decision is made according to whether BE, in the given construction, is commutable with another main verb or with another operator.

Subject–verb inversion

18.23 The clause patterns *SVC* and *SVA* (*cf* 10.1*ff*) have their obligatory third element in large measure because the V is commonly of itself so lacking in communicative dynamism:

SVC: Her oval face was especially remarkable. [1]
SVC: The sound of the bell grew faint. [2]
SVA: His beloved body lies in a distant grave. [3]

In consequence, where information processing makes it desirable to front the third element concerned, the result would tend to be bathetic or misleading if normal order were preserved with the SV, suggesting that a nuclear focus be placed, inappropriately, on the verb (*cf* 18.13):

CSV: ? Especially remarkable her oval face was. [1a]
CSV: ? Faint the sound of the bell grew. [2a]
ASV: (?)In a distant grave his beloved body lies. [3a]

If these were not to be dismissed as merely bad style, we would tend to read [1a] as equivalent to '. . . certainly was'; [2a] as 'growing louder, though nonetheless faint'; [3a] as 'being in prone posture' (rather than, say, foetally curved). In consequence, such fronting naturally carries with it the inversion that puts S in final position, and indeed it is to achieve end focus on the S that the fronting is generally undertaken:

CVS: Especially remarkable was her oval face. [1b]
CVS: Faint grew the sound of the bell. [2b]
AVS: In a distant grave lies his beloved body. [3b]

These particular examples have a rather mannered tone (poetic in the case of [2b] and [3b]), but the phenomenon is common enough in ordinary informal speech:

Here's the milkman.
Here comes my brother.
And there at last was the book I'd been looking for.
(The jets caused a great gust of wind and) off flew their hats.
Down came the rain.
Up went the flag.

In these instances with *here/there + be*, indeed, it is not simply a matter of stylistic choice: there is a sharp difference of meaning from the alternatives with SVA order. Although we must distinguish these from existential *there* (*cf* 18.45), there is in fact a close similarity. In contrast to ASV, the SVA order invites us not merely to put the nuclear focus upon the A but to see these adjuncts as referring to specific places. Compare:

{ Here's the milkman – he's come at last.
{ The milkman is here – at the door: shall I get two pints?
{ There's the book I want – I've been looking for it all week.
{ The book is there – by the typewriter.

Further examples which are less common in ordinary speech but yet which equally seem less rhetorically unnatural than [1b], [2b], and [3b]:

There at the summit stood the castle in all its medieval splendour.
By 'strategy' is meant the basic planning of the whole operation.
Away ran the terrified boy.
Slowly out of its hangar rolled the gigantic aircraft.
Equally inexplicable was his behaviour to close friends.

Subject–verb inversion (as distinct from subject–operator inversion; *cf* 18.24) with fronted object is chiefly limited to the reporting clauses where the object represents direct speech (including speech that is 'thought') and usually where the subject is not a personal pronoun:

'Please go away' said one child. 'And don't come back', pleaded another.
'Whatever shall I do now?' wondered Fred, remembering – too late – the appointment he had missed.

This is something of a literary convention, and in ordinary speech, VS would usually be replaced by SV (*cf* also 18.20 Note [c] and 14.20, 14.29). With the verb *say*, it is possible to have OSV where the O is the substitute *so*, though this is felt by some to be archaic:

So say the rest of us.

More important are CVS, AVS, where the C and A make comparative reference to something that has preceded:

His answer was a disgrace; *equally regrettable* was his departure immediately afterwards.
Her face was stony and *even stonier* was the tone of her voice.
A year ago, two crashes occurred at the corner, and *more recently* has come the news of a third.

Note [a] Subject–verb inversions occur with simple present and past tense verbs (contrast *Here comes my brother* with **Here is coming my brother*), and with certain verbs of stance (*be, stand, lie*, etc) or with very general verbs of motion (*come, go, fall*, etc).
[b] Subject–verb inversion does not usually take place in a clause with a personal pronoun alone as subject; hence corresponding to some of the examples above we would have *Here he is, Here he comes, Away he ran*, rather than **Here is he*, etc. But with contrast of subject, note:
There was *she*, on the tennis court, while *I* had to work.
Here am *I*, ill in bed, and *you* don't seem to care.
[c] There is inversion with a pronoun subject followed by post-modification in archaic English: *Happy is he who is reconciled with his lot*. There is an analogous inversion with verbless clauses: *Unlucky the man who hates his work*.

Subject–operator inversion

18.24 In addition to the inversion in questions, there are four common circumstances in which the operator precedes the subject.

(a) First we have elliptical clauses with initial *so* or the corresponding negatives *neither* or *nor* (*cf* 12.10, 12.17, 12.29):

John saw the accident and so did Mary. [*cf* . . . and Mary did (so), too.]

John didn't see the accident and { neither / ?nor } did Mary. [*cf*: . . . *and* Mary didn't, either]

She was angry and so was I.
She wasn't angry and neither was I.
He would love to go and so would she.
She must come and so must you.
He might fail and so might she.

But inversion is less common with certain modal auxiliaries (notably *may, might, ought*), and alternative substitute expressions with normal order are preferred:

She might be ill and he might (be) too.

Initial *so* in elliptical clauses may be followed by normal order when focus is required on the operator rather than the subject, though *so* is then liable to be mistaken for a conjunct (*cf* 8.134*ff*):

(You asked me to leave) and |so I DÌD| [undoubtedly conjunct in: 'and so I |DÌD|']

Compare also the subjunct *so* in:

(He wanted to leave) and |so did I|

More formally '(He wanted to leave,) as did I'; *cf* (c) below.

(b) Secondly, we have S-op inversion where a phrase of negative form or meaning is fronted (*cf* 10.58*f*):

Least of all is it in our interest to open negotiations now.
At no time must this door be left unlocked.

Contrast:

At certain times this door may be left unlocked.
*At certain times may this door be left unlocked.

Further examples:

He refused to apologize. Nor would he offer any explanation.
Scarcely had he started speaking when heckling broke out.
(*contrast*: He had scarcely started speaking when heckling broke out.)
Only in this way / In this way alone } is it possible to explain their actions.

As well as with adverbials, we may have inversion also with object phrases of negative form or meaning:

Not a single book had he read that month.
Only one more point will I make.

(c) Thirdly, we have S-op inversion in comparative clauses when the S is not a personal pronoun:

Oil costs less than would atomic energy.
(*cf*: Oil costs less than it did ~ *. . . did it)
I spend more than do my friends.
She looks forward, as does her secretary, to the completion of the building.

With *as*, inversion is possible with a pronoun subject, especially if there is no correlative *as*:

(?) She was as delighted with the suggestion as was he.
They go to concerts frequently, as do I.

(d) Finally, S-op inversion occurs in subordinate clauses of condition and concession (*cf* 15.33*ff*), especially in rather formal usage:

Were she alive today, she would grieve at the changes.
Were we to withdraw our support, they would be justifiably indignant.
Had I known, I would have gone to her.
Should you change your plans, please let me know.
Even had the building been open, we would not have entered.

It is to be noted that with negative clauses of this form we do not find contraction:

Were she not so handicapped, we would take her to the Alps.
(*Cf*: *Weren't she so handicapped . . .)

Note [a] With examples like the following, the inversion involves the main verb rather than the operator:
So absurd was his manner that everyone stared.
This is shown by the fact that a whole verb phrase could replace *was*:
So absurd *had been* his manner that everyone stared.
Yet S-op inversion can also occur here: 'So absurd *did* his manner *seem* . . .'. In older English in any event, S-op inversion occurred without a preceding negative and some instances continue to be used in very formal style:
He invested the money – and bitterly did he come to regret it.
Often had she intended to speak of this.
In addition, there are a few examples in more common use but where the inverted expression is frozen and idiomatic:
Far be it from me to condemn him in any way.
This example of course has a negative implication, as is shown by the nonassertive form of the final adverbial.
[b] If an initial negative item is the vehicle for only a local negation (*cf* 10.66), no S-op inversion is possible. Thus, with the sentence adjunct (*cf* 8.36) in:
Not without reason, Charles had flown into a rage.
[= 'He had flown into a rage and it was not without reason']
Contrast, with predication adjunct (*cf* 8.27):
Not without reason had Charles flown into a rage.
[= 'He hadn't flown into a rage without reason']
Analogously:
Very rarely, Mary received letters from her brother.
[= 'She received letters, but very rarely']
Very rarely did Mary receive letters from her brother.
[= 'She didn't receive letters very often']
[c] For many speakers (especially in AmE), the subjunct *nor* cannot follow *and* or *but*, though fewer object to its following the latter:
(?) We could not hear the soprano, but nor could some friends who were nearer the front.
The item *nor* (*cf* 13.40) usually follows a clause that is negative in form or meaning, but in very formal usage this restriction does not obtain:
Veronica Taubman's oration was magnificent. Nor could anyone fail to be impressed by both her learning and her wit.

Cleft and pseudo-cleft sentences

18.25 In 18.20, we looked at examples of fronting where no other grammatical change was involved beyond the movement of the fronted item. For example, the direct object in:

His callousness I shall ignore. [1]

This might occur in a discussion of the bases on which the speaker proposes to criticize an opponent.

We now turn to devices for giving prominence to such an item as in [1] by more elaborate grammatical means, involving the division of the sentence into two clauses, each with its own verb:

It is his callousness that I shall ignore. [2]
What I shall ignore is his callousness. [3]
The thing I shall ignore is his callousness. [4]
His callousness is something I shall ignore. [5]

By reason of the division, these constructions have been called 'cleft sentences', though we shall distinguish the CLEFT SENTENCE proper, as in [2], from the PSEUDO-CLEFT sentence represented most typically by [3]. Although they are syntactically more complex than sentences with mere fronting, cleft sentences are in general less rhetorically obtrusive. It should not be thought, however, that they are merely stylistic variants. Each of the five examples, [1–5], carries distinct implications, especially in relation to given and new.

Cleft sentences

18.26 Of the four construction types [2–5] in 18.25, *it is* [2] that is the most flexible in what it will permit to be fronted. Moreover, its form, comprising the subject pronoun *it* as an empty theme, followed by the verb *be*, makes it natural to achieve focus on the item that follows: in effect, end-focus within an *SVC* clause:

It is his CÀLlousness.

For this reason, while very common in spoken English, the construction is particularly convenient in writing, since it provides unerring guidance to the reader in silently assigning appropriate prosody. But the cleft sentence does not of itself indicate what the appropriate prosody is. Essentially, the cleft sentence indicates divided focus (*cf* 18.17), and which of the two focused items is dominant (*ie* new) will depend on the context.

A: You should |criticize his CÀLlousness|
B: |No, *it* is his CĂLlousness| that I shall ig|NÒRE|
[*callousness* given, *ignore* new]
A: You should ig|nore his disHÒNesty|
B: |No, it is his CÀLlousness that I shall igNÓRE|
[*callousness* new, *ignore* given]

Note [a] Despite the obvious similarities between the *that*-clauses in cleft sentences and the nominal *that*-clauses of 15.3*ff*, the two are quite distinct (*cf* 18.28).
[b] Objection is sometimes made to the habit (especially perhaps in BrE radio and television news) of using the cleft sentence structure with an item that might be less obtrusive with simple fronting. Thus, in place of the following, where a time adjunct is made thematic, not because it is given, but merely as scene-setting to the weightier information that is to come:
Late last night a group of terrorists attacked an army post.
we might hear in a news broadcast:
It was late last NIGHT that a group of terrorists . . .
This conveys unwarrantably the impression that the fact of the attack was known to the hearer but not the time at which it had taken place. The habit can be defended in that an adjunct (especially of time or place) is a fitting scene-setting and that it is this function that the cleft structure emphasizes. There is a comparable stylistic cliché to be found in conventional narrative. In place of a straightforward sentence such as:
When Harry returned that night, he found that his wife was very troubled.
a rather mannered form of writing might have (*cf* 17.3 Note):
It was a very troubled wife that greeted Harry on his return that night.
[c] Subject pronouns other than *it* sometimes occur:
(No,) *that* was the DÔCtor I was speaking to.
Those are my FÈET you're treading on.
He was a real GÈNius that invented this.
In each of these, we could find divided focus (*cf* 18.17), with a rising tone on *speaking*, *treading*, and *this*.

18.27 The flexibility of the cleft sentence device can be seen in the ease with which different parts can be highlighted. Consider the sentence:

John wore a white suit at the dance last night.

From this, four cleft sentences can be derived. In the following, we shall assume that the aim in each case is to make the second focus subsidiary as relatively 'given':

S as focus:

It was |JÒHN {who / that} wore a 'white 'suit at the DÁNCE 'last 'night|

O_d as focus:

It was a |white SÙIT (that) 'John 'wore at the DÁNCE 'last 'night|

A_{time} as focus:

It was |last NÌGHT (that) 'John 'wore a 'white 'suit at the DÁNCE|

$A_{position}$ as focus:

{It was at the |DÀNCE that 'John 'wore a 'white SÚIT 'last 'night|
{It was the |DÀNCE (that) 'John 'wore a 'white SÚIT at 'last 'night|
⟨*informal*⟩

Two other clause elements can marginally act as the initial focus of a cleft sentence:

O_i as focus:

?It's *me* (that) he gave the book.

But more usually O_i would be replaced by a prepositional phrase:

It's *me* he gave the book *to*.
It's *to me* that he gave the book.

C_o as focus:

It's *dark green* that we've painted the kitchen.

There are severe restrictions (except informally in Irish English) on the use of C_s in this function, especially with the verb *be* at the end of the second clause and especially when C_s is realized by an adjective phrase:

?It's a *genius* that he is.
?It's *a lecturer* that I am now.
?It's *very tall* you are.

But, without these restrictions, C_s can be acceptable:

It was *a doctor* that he eventually became.

The V element does not occur at all as focus, just as it does not occur as a *wh*-element (*cf* 2.50):

*It's *wore* that John a white suit at the dance.

Informally, we sometimes find a predication fronted in a cleft sentence, the

V element made nonfinite and then subsequently replaced by *do* in the second clause; examples like the following are regarded, however, as stylistically awkward (again except in informal Irish English):

?It was *teach English in a school* that he did at that time.
?It was *teaching English in a school* that he was doing at that time.
?Is it *spying on us* he is?

Note [a] If the initial focal item is a personal pronoun, it may informally be in the objective case even though it is in fact a subject (of the *that*-clause) and the usage is hence widely condemned:

It was { they / she / ?her / ?them } that gave the signal.

Compare with fronting within the matrix clause: 'She it was that gave the signal'.
[b] Though the verb form in the first clause of a cleft sentence is usually simple present or past, forms with modals are perfectly possible:
It *may be* his father that you're thinking of.
It *would have been* at that time that he went to live in Wisconsin.
Decision between present and past, however, is somewhat complicated. Where the verb of the second clause is present, that of the first will be present:
It is novels that Miss Williams enjoys reading.
*It was novels that Miss Williams enjoys reading.
Cf: Was it novels that you said Miss Williams enjoys reading?
Where the second verb is past, the first can always be past:
It was novels that Miss Williams enjoyed as a pastime.
It was as a pastime that Miss Williams enjoyed reading novels.
But the first verb may be in the present where the persons concerned are still living or the objects concerned still familiar in the participants' experience:
It is Miss Williams that enjoyed reading novels as a pastime.
It is these very novels that Miss Williams enjoyed reading as a pasttime.
*It is as a pastime that Miss Williams enjoyed reading novels.
[c] The cleft sentence structure can be used in questions, exclamations, and subordinate clauses; we italicize the first focal item:
Was it *for this* that we suffered and toiled?
Who was it who interviewed you?
What a glorious bonfire it was you made!
He told me that it was *because he was ill* that they decided to return.
[d] It should be clear that in singling out an item for highlighting in the cleft sentence, strong presuppositions are entailed. Thus beside 'Bill didn't come to the party', we can have:
It was Bill that didn't come to the party. [1]
It wasn't Bill that came to the party. [2]
In [1], it is suggested that a memory search is trying to identify a missing guest, while [2] is concerned with converse reflections on who had in fact been present.

18.28 The second clause in a cleft sentence is obviously similar in structure to a restrictive relative clause; and yet (as we shall see below) there are considerable differences. Examples above show that pronouns used in relative clauses (*who, that,* 'zero' pronoun) are also used to introduce cleft sentences. Also suggestive of the relative clause is the fronting of the pronoun; moreover, as in relative clauses, the pronoun can be fronted from a position in a prepositional phrase, or from a pushdown (*cf* 11.18) position in a noun clause as object:

It's *the girl* that I was complaining about. [*ie* not the boy]

It's *next week's match* that he's hoping to attend. [*ie* not this week's]
It's *this watch* I said I would let you have. [*ie* not that]

There are differences from relative clauses, however, in that the *wh*-forms are rare in cleft sentences in comparison with *that* and zero. Although *whose* is allowed in cleft sentences (*It's Uncle Bill whose address I lost*), *whom* and *which* are only marginally possible, and it is virtually impossible to use *whom* or *which* preceded by a preposition. Thus:

It was the dog to which I gave the water.

can be read only as a sentence containing a postmodifying relative clause (compare *She was the woman to whom I gave the water*), and not as a cleft sentence. Characteristic intonation is also different:

It was the DÒG I gave the WÁTer to| [cleft sentence]
{ It / That } was *the dog I gave the WÀTer to*| [*SVC* sentence, the C being the italicized noun phrase incorporating a relative clause]

A further difference between the postmodifying relative clause and the clause following the first focused element in cleft sentences is the ability of the latter to have as its antecedent (*ie* the first focused element) not only an element realized by a noun phrase but an adjunct realized by a clause or prepositional phrase:

It was *because he was ill* (that) we decided to return.
It was *in Sèptember* (that) I first noticed it.

Indeed, such a construction, where there is no noun-phrase antecedent, makes inappropriate the use of the term 'pronoun' for the linking word *that*. It is noteworthy that a *wh*-relative pronoun cannot be used in cleft sentences where the focused element is an adjunct, and where consequently *that* does not have a strict 'pronominal' status:

*It was because he was ill *which* we decided to return.

Note Mention might be made of two further contrasts between relative clauses and the type of 'annex' clause that occurs in cleft sentences. One is the possibility, in familiar English, of omitting *that* as subject in a cleft sentence, but not as subject of a relative clause:
It was the President himself *spoke to me*.
The other is that cleft sentences may have a proper noun as a focus element, whereas restrictive relative clauses cannot have a proper noun as an antecedent. Thus *It's Chelsea (that) he lives in* is unambiguously a cleft sentence.

Pseudo-cleft sentences

18.29 The pseudo-cleft sentence is another device whereby, like the cleft sentence proper, the construction can make explicit the division between given and new parts of the communication. It is essentially an *SVC* sentence with a nominal relative clause as subject or complement (*cf* 15.8*f*). It thus differs from the ordinary cleft sentence in being completely accountable in terms of the categories of main clause and subordinate clause discussed in Chapter 10 (and *cf* 18.26, Note [a]). The following are virtually synonymous, assuming focus upon *rest*:

It's a good rest that you need most.
A good rest is what you need most.

The pseudo-cleft sentence occurs more typically, however, with the *wh*-clause as subject, since it can thus present a climax in the complement:

What you need most is a good rest.

It is less restricted than the cleft sentence (but *cf* 18.30) in one respect, since, through use of the substitute verb *do*, it more freely permits marked focus to fall on the predication:

What he's done is (to) spoil the whole thing.
What John did to his suit was (to) ruin it.
What I'm going to do to him is (to) teach him a lesson.

In each of these, we would have an anticipatory focus on the *do* item, the main focus coming at normal end-focus position. Thus: '. . . DÓNE . . . THÌNG'. The complement of these sentences is normally in the form of an infinitive clause (with or without *to*). When the verb in the *wh*-clause has progressive aspect, however, the complement (except in the case of *be going to*) matches it with an *-ing* clause (*cf* 18.27):

What *I'm doing* is *teaching him a lesson.*

The constraints are the same as for the pro-predicational *do*; *cf* 12.21. Occasionally, such matching of the two verbs is extended to verbs in the perfective aspect, which can have as their counterpart an *-ed* clause:

(?) What he'*s done* is *spoilt the whole thing.*

This last type is, however, of doubtful acceptability, and instances of it may indeed be interpreted as ellipted forms of an alternative construction involving apposition:

What he's done is ((this): he's) spoilt the whole thing.

18.30 In some respects, the pseudo-cleft sentence is more limited than the cleft sentence proper. It is indeed only with *what*-clauses that we can make a direct comparison (or choice) between the two constructions. Clauses with *who, where,* and *when* are sometimes acceptable, but mainly when the *wh*-clause is subject complement:

Here is *where the accident took place.*
(In) Autumn is *when the countryside is most beautiful.*
(?) The police chief was *who I meant.*

Clauses introduced by *whose, why,* and *how* do not easily enter into the pseudo-cleft sentence construction at all:

* With a Scottish accent is how he talked.
?* Why we decided to return was because he was ill.

To compensate for these restrictions, there are numerous 'paraphrases' of the pseudo-cleft construction involving noun phrases of general reference in place of the *wh*-item. Thus beside the cleft:

It must have been *the manager* that *spoke to you.*

we have a noun phrase in place of the pseudo-cleft:

The person who spoke to you must have been the manager.

So also:

Somebody I particularly like is John.
The way you should go is via Cheltenham.
The way we make a cake is by following mother's recipe.
The reason we decided to return was {that / because ⟨informal⟩} he was ill.
The place (where) the accident happened is here.
The time when the countryside is most beautiful is (in) autumn.
The hour at which she must make her decision was fast approaching.

Compare:

The hour was fast approaching *at which she must make her decision.*

See further 18.39.

Note [a] The device of general antecedent is also found where a corresponding pseudo-cleft is fully available:
{The thing / What} I like about Joan is her sense of humour.

[b] The cleft and pseudo-cleft types can cooccur. For example:
What it was you asked for was a ticket to Brighton. Did you mean Birmingham?

Postponement

18.31 It will be clear from the examples in the foregoing sections that one important communicative difference between the two types of cleft construction is that while the cleft sentence with *it* is often used to put the main focus near the front of the sentence, the pseudo-cleft is chiefly used to postpone the focus to end position. In this respect it is often in competition with the passive (*cf* 18.32):

The manufacturers tested the device.

Focus is placed on the noun phrase *the manufacturers* by means of the passive in [1] and by means of the pseudo-cleft in [2]:

The device was tested by the manufacturers. [1]
The people who tested the device were the manufacturers. [2]

It should be noted that [2] presupposes that the hearer knows that testing has taken place; with [1] this is not so.

Given the importance of end focus (*cf* 18.3), it is not surprising that English has numerous resources to enable us to phrase a sentence in such a way as to ensure the distribution of information according to our wishes. There are, for example, lexical and grammatical devices which reverse the order of roles:

An uncle, three cousins, and two brothers *benefited from* the will.
The will *benefited* an uncle, three cousins, and two brothers.
An unidentified blue liquid *was in* the bottle.
The bottle *contained* an unidentified blue liquid.
A red sports car was *behind* the bus.
The bus was *in front of* a red sports car.

The items or sequences in italics are converses; *ie* they express the same meaning, but with a reversal of the order of participants. The second sentence in each pair will be generally preferable, since the element with the 'definite' meaning, containing given information, would normally not take end-focus.

Note A special case of converseness is the relation of reciprocity expressed by certain terms such as *similar to, different from, near (to), far from, opposite, married to*, where reversing the order of the participants preserves the essential meaning without any other change in the construction:
My house is opposite the hotel. = The hotel is opposite my house.
A more complex relation of converseness is illustrated by:
The dealer *sold* the car *to* my friend.
My friend *bought* the car *from* the dealer.
Compare also *rent to/rent from, lend (to)/borrow from, give (to)/receive from*.

Voice and postponement

18.32 With transitive clauses, the passive voice provides a convenient way of postponing the agentive subject by turning it into the agent in a passive construction (*cf* 3.63*ff*). We thus reverse the active order of the agentive and affected elements (*cf* 10.19) where the agentive requires end focus:

A: Who makes these tablemats?

B: They are made by my sister-in-law.

A preference for end-focus (in this instance, coinciding with end-weight) can even override an aversion to passive constructions that are in themselves rather awkward (*cf* 16.14):

The regulations *were taken advantage of* by all the tramps and down-and-outs in the country.

A finite clause as subject is also readily avoided by switching from the active to the passive voice:

That he was prepared to go to such lengths astounded me.
I was astounded *that he was prepared to go to such lengths*.

It was pointed out in 18.27 that the V element cannot be focused in the cleft-sentence construction. Where such focus is desirable with an intransitive verb, end-focus is easily achieved; with a transitive verb, it can be achieved by the use of the passive, provided that the agent can be ignored as either given or otherwise dispensable (*cf* 3.71). Thus in place of:

But our |scientists 'finally SÒLVED 'all 'these 'problems|

we can have, ignoring the noun phrase *our scientists*:

But |all 'these 'problems were 'finally SÒLVED|

The passive can also ensure a smooth crescendo of communicative dynamism with ditransitive verbs by making the indirect object thematic. Thus, after 'Marion performed well for the judges', we might hear:

They a|warded her the PRÌZE|

But both *they* and *her* are obviously 'given' and there is thus a break in the crescendo of new information between the subsidiary *awarded* and the focal *prize*. Such a break is avoided in the alternative passive, now ignoring the active subject *they*:

She was a|warded the PRÌZE|

Note [a] It should be noted that the principle of end-focus applies just as much to the ordering of clauses within a sentence as to the ordering of elements within a clause. The principle of end-focus also has its analogue at sentence level in the principle of RESOLUTION (*cf* 14.37).
[b] The passive of *have* is rarely used, but when it occurs, the verb has a transitive meaning usually absent from the active. Compare:
(People) have little satisfaction from pop music.
with the following examples which combine existential *there* (*cf* 18.45) with the passive:
There's little satisfaction to be had from pop music.
I wanted to buy sherry but there was none to be had.
[c] Together with the phenomenon of discontinuous noun phrases (*cf* 18.39), the following textual example uses the passive to enable *no mention* to be thematized and *the police* to be focused (at some cost in possible misunderstanding of the written form of the sentence):
No mention is made in the report *of the police*.
[= They make no mention of the police in the report.]

Extraposition

Extraposition of a clausal subject

18.33 Postponement which involves the replacement of the postponed element by a substitute form is termed EXTRAPOSITION. It operates almost exclusively on subordinate nominal clauses. The most important type of extraposition is that of a clausal subject – *ie* a subject realized by a finite or nonfinite clause. The subject is moved to the end of the sentence, and the normal subject position is filled by the anticipatory pronoun *it*. The resulting sentence thus contains two subjects, which we may identify as the POSTPONED SUBJECT (the one which is notionally the subject of the sentence) and the ANTICIPATORY SUBJECT (*it*). A simple rule for deriving a sentence with subject extraposition from one of more orthodox ordering is:

subject + predicate ~ *it* + predicate + subject

Thus:

To hear him say that + surprised me ~ It + surprised me + to hear him say that

But it is worth emphasizing that for clausal subjects (though *cf* 18.34) the postponed position is more usual than the canonical position before the verb (*cf* 10.26). Examples are:

Type *SVC*: It is a pleasure *to teach her*.
Type *SVA*: It was on the news *that income tax is to be lowered*.
Type *SV*: It doesn't matter *what you do*.
Type *SVO*: It surprised me *to hear him say that*.
Type *SVOC*: It makes her happy *to see others enjoying themselves*.
Type SV_{pass}: It is said *that she slipped arsenic into his tea*. [*cf* Note [a]]
Type SV_{pass} *C*: It was considered impossible *for anyone to escape*.

Note [a] For certain constructions which have all the appearance of clausal extraposition (*It seems/appears/happened/chanced/*etc), the corresponding nonextraposed version does not occur. For example, there is no sentence * *That everything is fine seems* to correspond with *It seems that everything is fine*, nor do we find * *That she slipped arsenic into his tea is said*. In such cases, we may say that the extraposition is obligatory. With *be*, this type of extraposition is used for expressions of possibility and (especially) for reflective questions:

It may be that she no longer trusts you.
Could it be that you left the keys in your office?

Other characteristics of the verbs entering into this category are presented in 18.36.

[b] Clauses with extraposed subject must be distinguished from superficially similar clauses in which *it* is a personal pronoun or empty 'prop' subject: *It's good to eat* (*ie* 'This (fish, etc) is good to eat'); *It's lovely weather to go fishing* (*cf* 10.32*f*).

[c] *If*- and *when*-clauses behave very much like extraposed subjects in sentences like:

It would be a pity if we missed the show.
[*cf* It is a pity that we missed the show]
It'll be a great day when you win the sweepstake.

It is doubtful in each case, however, whether the clause could act as subject, although it could act as initial adverbial clause: *If we missed the show, it would be a pity* (*cf* 10.9*ff*). On balance, therefore, these appear to be adverbials rather than extraposed subjects. Contrast: *For us to miss the show would be a pity ~ It would be a pity for us to miss the show*.

[d] Another marginal case is the 'phrasal extraposition' of *It's two hundred miles from Boston to New York*, where the prepositional phrase sequence, if fronted, could act either as subject or as adverbial: *From Boston to New York (it) is two hundred miles*.
Compare also: *It's Wednesday today; Today (it) is Wednesday* (*cf* 10.15).

[e] While the extraposed clause can only rarely be a nominal relative in type *SV*, it is even rarer with *SVC*: *Whoever said that was wrong* but * *It was wrong whoever said that*. In examples like *It's a mystery why she did it/how he does it*, the *wh*-clauses are best regarded as indirect interrogatives; *cf* 14.33.

[f] The *it* used in extraposition is called 'anticipatory *it*' because of its pronominal correspondence to a later item. But informationally, this *it* is similar in effect to prop *it* (*cf* 6.17), as in '*It* started to rain' which likewise enables us to end the clause at a focal point. Contrast *Rain was starting*. Compare also *It was snowing* beside *Snow was falling*.

Extraposition of *-ing* clauses

18.34 Although we mentioned (18.33) that extraposition is usual for clausal subjects, there is an exception with *-ing* clauses which occur very naturally in ordinary subject position:

Teaching her to drive turned out to be quite enjoyable.
Getting the equipment loaded was easy.

Extraposition of *-ing* clauses is in fact uncommon outside informal speech. Compare:

It was easy *getting the equipment loaded*.

Some common informal examples are:

It's no use *telling him that*.
It wouldn't be any good *trying to catch the bus*.

The *-ing* clause often shows itself incompletely adapted to the extraposition construction, notably by being resistant to bearing the main information focus. Rather than:

It's |fun being a HÒSTESS|

we hear:

It's |FÙN being a HÓSTESS|

with main focus on the first element of the predicate. In writing, this example could well be punctuated as:

It's fun, being a hostess.

We might conclude from this that the participial clause has just as much affinity with a noun-phrase tag (*cf* 18.59; *eg*: *He's a friend of mine, that man*) as with a genuine extraposed subject.

Extraposition of a clausal object

18.35 When the object is an *-ing* clause in *SVOC* and *SVOA* clause types, it can undergo extraposition; when it is a *to*-infinitive clause or a *that*-clause, it must do so:

SVOC:
You must find *it* exciting *working here*.
Cf: You must find *working here* exciting.
Working here is exciting.
I made *it* my objective *to settle the matter*.
Cf: *I made *to settle the matter* my prime objective.
To settle the matter was my prime objective.
Contrast: I made *settling the matter* my prime objective.
*I made *it* my prime objective *settling the matter*.

SVOA:
I owe *it* to you *that the jury acquitted me*.
Cf: *I owe *that the jury acquitted me* to you.
Contrast: I owe *my acquittal* to you. [with corresponding nominalization]
Something put *it* into his head *that she was a spy*.
Cf: *Something put *that she was a spy* into his head.
Something put *the idea of her being a spy* into his head.

The construction type *She's a pleasure to teach*

18.36 Where the extraposed clause of 18.33 is of type *SVC* and comprises an object or prepositional complement, the noun phrase concerned can sometimes be fronted to become the theme in place of *it*. For example:

To teach Elizabeth is a pleasure.
~ It is a pleasure to teach Elizabeth. (*cf* 18.33)
~ Elizabeth is a pleasure to teach.

Compare also:

It's impossible to deal with him. ~ He's impossible to deal with.
It's easy/difficult to beat them. ~ They're easy/difficult to beat.
It's fun (for us) to be with Margaret. ~ Margaret is fun (for us) to be with.

This thematic fronting does not apply to all constructions of the same kind. For instance, with:

$$\text{It's}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{rare}\\ \text{odd}\end{matrix}\right\}\text{to}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{find}\\ \text{lose}\end{matrix}\right\}\text{them.}$$

there is no corresponding:

$$\text{*They are}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{rare}\\ \text{odd}\end{matrix}\right\}\text{to}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{find}\\ \text{lose}\end{matrix}\right\}.$$

(See further 16.72*f*)

There is a similar construction for *be sure, be certain, seem, appear, be said, be known*, etc, except that in these cases the corresponding construction with anticipatory *it* requires a *that*-clause, not a *to*-infinitive clause, and except also that it is the *subject* of the extraposed clause that is fronted:

It's certain that we'll forget the address. ~ We're certain to forget the address.
It seems that you've made a mistake. ~ You seem to have made a mistake.
It is known that he's a coward. ~ He's known to be a coward.

Note [a] A combination of the movement explained in 18.33–34 permits a valuable range of sentence forms adjusting the development of communicative dynamism and the assignment of end-focus as desired. Thus along with the canonical *SVC* sentence:

To |play 'Mozart on 'this vio'lin is deLIGHTful|

we have three further possibilities. First, with ordinary *it* extraposition:

It is de|lightful to 'play 'Mozart on 'this vioLIN|

Secondly, with thematization of the object *Mozart* in the extraposed clause, we emphasize even more the properties of the violin:

|Mozart is de'lightful to 'play on 'this vioLIN|

Thirdly, with thematization of the prepositional complement, we switch attention to the properties of Mozart's music:

|This vio'lin is de'lightful to 'play MOZart 'on|

The shifting relations of the adjective can perhaps be seen more clearly in the following:

This |jug is DIFficult to pour CREAM out of|
|Cream is DIFficult to pour out of this JUG|

The former implies difficulties with the jug (perhaps its spout is too narrow); the latter implies difficulties with cream (perhaps it is too thick).

[b] We must make a clear distinction between the type of thematic fronting discussed here (where the item assumes maximally 'given' status) and the fronting discussed in 18.20*f*, where the item retains its nonsubject status grammatically and is given greater rhetorical emphasis. Contrast the following pairs:

|Mozart is de'lightful to play on this vioLIN|
|MOZart| it is de|lightful to play on this vioLIN|

E|lizabeth is a 'pleasure to TEACH|
E|LIZabeth| it is a |pleasure to TEACH|

A slighter but somewhat corresponding difference occurs between:

In the garden there is a sundial. In the garden is a sundial.

See 18.23, 18.45*ff*.

[c] With *be certain, be sure*, a personal subject can be followed by either a *to*-infinitive clause or an *-ing* clause, but there is a crucial difference in meaning:

$$\text{Janet is}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{certain}\\ \text{sure}\end{matrix}\right\}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{to be put on the committee. [The speaker is confident]}\\ \text{of being put on the committee. [Janet is confident]}\end{matrix}\right.$$

[d] The construction type 'She is a pleasure to teach' has been called 'Tough Movement' by reason of canonical (if rather informal) examples involving the adjective *tough*, as in *He's a tough man to argue with*.

Postponement of object in *SVOC* and *SVOA* clauses

18.37 When the object is a long and complex phrase, final placement for end-focus or end-weight is possible in *SVOC* and *SVOA* clause types. This does not involve an *it*-substitution.

(a) Shift from SVO_dC_o order to SVC_oO_d order:

They pronounced guilty *every one of the accused*.
He had called an idiot *the man on whose judgment he now had to rely*.

(b) Shift from SVO_dA to $SVAO_d$:

I confessed to him *all my worst defects*.
We heard from his own lips *the story of how he had been stranded for days without food*.
She dragged (right) in(side) *the two heavy boxes of chemicals*.
We cannot set (totally) aside *a whole system of rules devised by Congress itself*.

The fact that we are disturbing the normal order in such clauses is indicated by a tendency to adopt a different intonation pattern. Thus the movement forward of the C or A is usually accompanied by the assignment to it of a marked (subsidiary) focus (*cf* 18.17):

He had |called an IDiot his 'best FRIEND|
She |pulled to 'one SIDE the 'heavy CURtain|

Compare:

He had |called his 'best 'friend an IDiot|
She |pulled the 'heavy 'curtain to 'one SIDE|

Note The sentence *He had called an idiot his best friend* need not of course involve movement; with unaltered SVOC we would understand that an idiot was his best friend.

Objects and paraphrases

18.38 In ditransitive complementation (*cf* 16.55*ff*), the indirect object precedes the direct object:

She |gave {her 'brother / him} a SÌGnet 'ring| [1]

Thus whether or not the O_i is pronominalized, the implication is that it carries less communicative dynamism (is relatively 'given') as compared with the O_d. Where the converse is true, the O_i is replaced by a prepositional phrase and placed after O_d:

She |gave a 'signet ring to her BRÒTHer| [2]

But there is a third possibility; the prepositional paraphrase of the O_i can itself precede the O_d:

She |gave to her BRÓTHer a SÌGnet 'ring| [3]

Note that we cannot have: **She gave (to) her brother it* (*cf* 10.7). The O_d in [3] has the same rhematic force as in [1] but the O_i has been replaced by a form that raises its communicative dynamism above that of the O_i in [1] though still below that of the paraphrase in [2].

Consider now the special type of ditransitive construction we find with eventive objects (*cf* 10.30):

We paid them a VÌsit. [4]
He gave Helen a NÙDGE. [5]

Here we have a device which is convenient when our communicative requirement is to put focal emphasis on the activity rather than on a human participant. Contrast:

We paid a visit to some old FRÌENDS. [4a]
?He gave a nudge to HÈLen. [5a]

But as we can see from the doubtful acceptability of [5a], it may be preferable not to use the eventive object construction at all when it is a human participant that is needed in end-focus:

We visited some old FRÌENDS. [4b]
He nudged HÈLen. [5b]

(See further 18.43).

Note [a] Where both O_d and O_i are pronouns, it would be usual to replace the latter by a *to*-phrase:
She GÀVE it to him.
She gave it to HÌM.
Alternatively, we could have:
She GÀVE him it.
She GÀVE it him. } ⟨only BrE⟩
She gave it HÌM. }
but not:
*She gave HÌM it.
*She gave ÌT him.
[b] On the divided focus in example [3], compare the similar phenomenon in 18.37 accompanied by unusual positioning.

Discontinuous noun phrases

18.39 Sometimes only part of an element is postponed. The most commonly affected part is the postmodification of a noun phrase, and the units most readily postponed are nominal (in this case appositive) clauses (*cf* 17.122 and also 18.33*f*):

A rumour circulated widely *that he was secretly engaged to the Marchioness.* (*Cf*: '*A rumour that he was secretly engaged to the Marchioness* circulated widely.')
The problem then arose *(of) what contribution the public should pay.* (*Cf*: '*The problem (of) what contribution the public should pay* then arose.')

However, other postmodifying clauses, and even phrases, can be so postponed:

The time had come *to decorate the house for Christmas.*
That loaf was stale *that you sold me.*
A steering committee had been formed, *consisting of Messrs Ogawa, Schultz, and Robinson.*

The postponement in each case results in a 'discontinuous' noun phrase (*cf* 17.122) which is italicized in the examples. Discontinuity often results, too, from the postponement of postmodifying phrases of exception (*cf* 9.58):

All of us were frightened {*but* / *except*} *the captain.*

As well as subject, the discontinuous noun phrase can be a complement or object:

What business is it of *yours*? (*Cf* 'What business of yours is it?')
We heard *the story* from his own lips *of how he was stranded for days without food.*
I met *a man* this morning *carrying an injured child.*

But we may speak analogously of internal discontinuities: that is, where there is movement of parts of a noun phrase to achieve end-focus, without actual insertion of elements that do not form part of the noun phrase as a whole. Compare the following 'normal' example:

The discovery of new building materials in the course of this century (has revolutionized architecture).

Compare SVOA: 'They discovered the new materials this century'. In fact, the unedited example was as follows:

Architecture has been revolutionized by *the discovery in the course of this century of new building materials.*

This corresponds to SVAO: 'They discovered this century the new materials'. In 18.37, an agential phrase of our own was internally discontinuous:

. . . is usually accompanied by *the assignment* to it *of a marked . . . focus.*

In such cases, as with the illustrative examples of 18.37–38, the item which

has in effect been fronted (*to it* in this example) is frequently given marked focus:

. . . by the as|signment TŌ it| of a |marked . . . FÓCus|

Let us take one final example to illustrate the flexibility offered by nominalization in providing, through 'internal discontinuities', a varied ordering of constituents to suit specific informational goals. Bearing in mind the constraints on permuting the sequence of sentence elements, we indicate the greater freedom within the noun phrase by putting in quotation marks the analogies between sentence elements and the noun-phrase constituents. It will be seen that we can give end focus to constituents corresponding to all four of the elements in an *SVOA* sentence:

Lovell discovered the new star in 1960.		SVOA
Lovell's discovery of the new star in 1960 . . .	~	'SVOA'
The discovery by Lovell in 1960 of the new star . . .	~	'VSAO'
The discovery of the new star in 1960 by Lovell . . .	~	'VOAS'
(?) Lovell's 1960 new star discovery . . .	~	'SAOV'

18.40 Whether we are reordering the constituents within a noun phrase or interrupting them to insert another sentence element, there appear to be two major motivations:

(a) The one is to achieve a stylistically well-balanced sentence in accordance with the norms of English structure; in particular to achieve END-WEIGHT. For example, it would be usual to avoid forming a sentence with a long subject and a short predicate. Thus we would prefer [1], with discontinuity, to [2], without discontinuity:

The story is told *of her phenomenal success in Australia.* [1]
(?) *The story of her phenomenal success in Australia* is told. [2]

(b) The other is to achieve an information climax with END-FOCUS. For example:

She rapidly spotted *the book* right on my desk *that I had been desperately searching for all morning.* [3]

Not merely would the adjunct be more interruptive of the syntax if it followed the verb immediately (. . . *spotted right on my desk the book* . . .), but the ordering found in [3] matches in a highly satisfying way the mounting communicative flow:

She rapidly spotted the book.
It was right there on my desk.
Yet I had been desperately searching for it all morning.

At the thematic end we have the rapidity of finding the book; at the rhematic end the long duration of the search; in the transition – the point of noun-phrase discontinuity – we have the ironic juxtaposition of the book and the desk.

In most of the examples given in 18.39, of course, the two factors (a) and (b) coincide, as indeed they do in [1] and [3] above. With another type of noun phrase, however, it is clearly to give end-focus rather than end-weight that the postponement takes place. This is the noun phrase with an emphatic reflexive pronoun (*himself*, etc) in apposition:

The driver himSÈLF told me. ~ The driver told me himSÈLF.
Did you yourSÉLF paint the portrait? ~ Did you paint the portrait yourSÉLF?

As the emphatic reflexive pronoun frequently bears nuclear stress, the postponement is necessary if the sentence is to have end-focus. Such postponement is possible, however, only if the noun phrase in apposition with the pronoun is the subject:

I showed Ian the letter *myself.*
*I showed *Ian* the letter *himself.*
(But *cf*: 'I showed *Ian himself* the letter')

Note With some other cases of pronominal apposition, we may prefer to postpone the second element to a position immediately following the operator rather than to the end of the sentence. This is especially true with *all, both, each* (*cf* 6.50). For example:
The advisers had *all* been carefully selected.
We also find:
My sisters don't *either of them* eat enough.
They are *none of them* very enthusiastic. } ⟨informal⟩

Correlative items in comparative sentences

18.41 Some degree of discontinuity is the rule rather than the exception in sentences containing comparative clauses, though where the comp-element (*cf* 15.63*ff*) is a degree adverbial, examples without discontinuity are fairly easy to find. For example:

He has worked for the handicapped *more than any other politician* (*has*).
He has worked *more* for the handicapped *than any other politician* (*has*).

Comparisons involving noun phrases as heads are rare without discontinuity and are frequently punctuated to indicate that they are regarded as ad hoc compounds (*cf* App I.59):

He is earning higher-than-average wages.

In such cases, verb ellipsis is obligatory; compare:

He is earning higher wages than (are) average.

There is thus a minimum 'discontinuity' that we should take as the norm, with the correlative item following the head of the comp-element phrase (though we regard these as complementation structures: *cf* 2.32):

She had *more* money *than her father (had)* by the time she was thirty.
He is *more* skilled *than his brother (is)* in matters of finance.
They visit her *more* frequently *than they used to* now that she's ill.
He was *too* hot *to do his work* despite the air-conditioner.

But if nuclear focus were required on the correlative item, it could be moved to final position in each case even though the discontinuity would now normally require separation into different tone units:

She had |more 'money by the 'time she was THÍRTY| than her |FÀTHER (had)|
He is |more 'skilled in 'matters of FÍNance| than his |BRÒTHER (is)|
They |visit her 'more 'frequently 'now that she's ILL| than they |ÚSED to|
He was |too 'hot desPÌTE the AIR-con'ditioner| to |do his WÒRK|

Other discontinuities

18.42 Some adjectives that take complementation (*cf* 7.22, 16.68*ff*) can simultaneously function as premodifiers. Compare:

This result is { *different from yours.* / *similar to hers.* }

This is a { *different* result *from yours.* / *similar* result *to hers.* }

In cases like these last, discontinuity is felt to be quite normal and the position is similar to that of the correlative item in comparative sentences (*cf* 18.41). So also:

She works in the *opposite* room *to this.*
It is a *timid* dog *with strangers.*

Despite superficial similarity with prepositional phrases postmodifying a head, there is rarely danger of ambiguity:

I was told by a man in the office.

The possible difference here ('*A man* told me *in the office*' or '*A man in the office* told me') is unlikely to give rise to communicational difficulties, but the following example is more seriously ambiguous:

They made an embarrassing protest to the authorities.

In such instances, revision is essential to make it clear which of the two possible meanings is intended:

They made a protest that was embarrassing to the authorities. [1]
[*ie* 'Their protest embarrassed the authorities']
They made a protest to the authorities that was embarrassing. [2]
[*ie* 'They protested to the authorities in a way that was (generally) embarrassing']

If the meaning of [2] is intended but with the end focus on *the authorities* as in [1], further revision is necessary. Perhaps:

They embarrassed everyone by making a protest to the authorities. [2a]

Within the adjective complementation itself, discontinuity is possible, especially by the insertion of degree adverbials:

They were *fond* to some extent *of Brecht's early work.*
It was *different* in many respects *from what she had expected.*

A similar type of discontinuity can occur within prepositional phrases:

He worked hard, *without* for the most part *any reward.*

Note In addition, of course, we have the prepositional phrase discontinuities of the type:
Which group shall we put him *in*?
Although we do not speak of discontinuity in the verb phrase, there is often comparable informational motivation in the insertion of adverbials at *M*; *cf* 8.16. Doubtless the wish to avoid a 'split infinitive' (*cf* 8.21) is a wish to avoid a perceived discontinuity. Yet in writing, it is often convenient to use an adverbial along with the emphatic operator. For example:
They *did* indeed *find* a solution.
The interposing of *indeed* here justifies the emphatic *did* (*cf* the discussion of inserting *in short*, 18.13), achieving an effect comparable to the use of prosody alone in speech:
They |DID find a solution|

Structural compensation

18.43 A major preoccupation in the phenomena we have been considering in 18.31*ff* has been the achievement of end-weight – whether phrasal, clausal, or sentential. The very nature of theme and focus, given and new information, leads to the expectation that the thematic item (typically the subject) will be shorter than the focal item (typically a part of the predicate). Given, moreover, that the V element is not normally expected to carry the maximum communicative dynamism in a sentence (*cf* 18.3), we develop the expectation that V will be at a transition point between a thematic low communicative dynamism and a focal high:

|Jill will de'cide next WEEK|
The |boy 'broke the WINdow|
My |friend be'came ÀNgry|

All this has the effect of making the simplest realization of the *SV* clause type sound oddly incomplete:

|Mary SÀNG| My |friend CÒOKED|

In consequence, this type of *SV* realization is rather rare and it would be more usual to find an optional predication adjunct (*cf* 8.34):

Mary sang for hours. My friend cooked enthusiastically.

At the very least, we would make intransitive verbs bipartite, an auxiliary serving as a transition between theme and focus:

|Mary was SÌNGing| My |friend would CÒOK|

Such rephrasing is obviously context-dependent; it is not often, for example, that a verb phrase might equally well be progressive or nonprogressive. Other means have therefore had to be devised for 'stretching' the predicate into a multi-word structure. One of the most generally serviceable (though it tends to be rather informal in tone) is to replace the intransitive verb by a transitive one of very general meaning, taking as its eventive object a nominalization of the intransitive item (*cf* 10.30, 17.51*ff*). The general verbs *do, make, give, have, take* are widely used in this construction, though the choice is strictly limited in any individual case (**She took a shriek*, **She did a shriek* – unless the latter is in the sense 'She *acted*/

performed a shriek', as on the request of the producer). Consider the following pairs:

My friend { cooks. / cooked.	{ He ate. / He had a meal.
My friend { does some cooking. / did the cooking.	{ She replied. / She made a reply.
{ Mary shrieked. / Mary gave a shriek.	{ They strolled. / They took a stroll.
{ I bathed. / I had a bath. ['I took a bath' ⟨esp AmE⟩]	

So also *solve* ~ *find a solution, agree* ~ *reach* (or *come to*) *an agreement, apply* ~ *submit an application, suggest* ~ *offer* (or *make*) *a suggestion, permit* ~ *grant* (or *give*) *permission, attend* ~ *pay attention*, etc (*cf* also 10.28, 18.38).

Existential sentences

18.44 We have seen in 18.8–9 that the organization of sentences in terms of theme and focus generally presumes that a sentence begins with reference to 'given' information and proceeds to provide 'new' information. But there are many occasions when we must make statements whose content does not fall neatly into these two categories:

A |car is 'blocking my WÀY| [1]
|Many 'students are in fi'nancial TRÒUBle| [2]
|Quite a 'few 'species of 'animals are in 'danger of extÌNCtion| [3]

Let us assume that the originator of these sentences has in each case put the focus where it was wanted. Nonetheless a certain awkwardness is sensed where the recipient is expected to interpret a theme as entirely new and unconnected with anything previously introduced. It is in these circumstances that it is convenient to have devices for providing some kind of dummy theme which will enable the originator to indicate the 'new' status of a whole clause, including its subject. Thus in place of [1], we might have:

There is / I have } { a |car blocking / a |CĂR| |blocking } my WÀY| [1a]

Likewise, in place of [2] and [3]:

There are / We have / One finds } { |many STÚdents| in fi|nancial TRÒUBle| / |quite a 'few 'species of ÁNimals| in |danger of extÌNCtion| } [2a] [3a]

In serving to bring the existence of an entire proposition (such as those in [1], [2], and [3] to the attention of the hearer, the resultant constructions are known as 'existential sentences', by far the commonest being the type introduced by unstressed *there*, accompanied by the simple present or past of *be*.

Note [a] Many other constructions than those illustrated above are invoked to serve the same purpose; for example, *it* with the proposition as extraposed subject (*cf* 18.33):

It is a fact that / It has to be said that } many students are in financial trouble.

Alternatively again, the proposition can be made a clausal object:

One finds that / We must recognize that / I have to say that } many students are in financial trouble.

[b] Block language (*cf* 11.45*ff*) often consists of verbless sentences that can be regarded as existential:

DANGER!
MEN AT WORK OVERHEAD

Note that there are two types of negative directives and slogans:

No way out / No exit / No through way } = 'There *is* . . .'
No arrest without warrant / No reduction in wages / No discrimination } = 'There *must be* . . .'

[c] Sentences with entirely 'new' themes seem to be less awkward if combined with discontinuous postmodification of the noun phrase (*cf* 18.39), thus placing the focus of new information at the end. Compare:

{ ?*A bird* is in that tree. / *A bird* is in that tree *which I've never seen around here before.*
{ ?*An idea* is in his head. / *An idea* is in his head *that the rest of us are against him.*

Existential *there*

Correspondence with basic clause patterns

18.45 There is a regular correspondence between existential sentences with *there* + *be* and clauses of equivalent meaning as specified in terms of the basic clause patterns (*cf* 10.1*ff*), provided that the clause concerned

(i) has an indefinite subject (but *cf* Note [a]); and
(ii) has a form of the verb *be* in its verb phrase.

Allowing for these two requirements, we may relate basic clauses to existential forms by means of a general rule:

subject + (auxiliaries) + *be* + predication
~ *there* + (auxiliaries) + *be* + subject + predication

The subject of the original clause may be called the 'notional' subject of the *there*-sentence, so as to distinguish it from *there* itself, which for most purposes is the 'grammatical' subject (*cf* 18.46). Examples of the seven clause types along with the existential correspondences are given below:

Type *SVC*
Something must be wrong. ~ There must be something wrong.

Type *SVA*
Was anyone in the vicinity? ~ Was there anyone in the vicinity?

Type *SV*
No one was waiting. ~ There was no one waiting.

Type *SVO*
Plenty of people are getting promotion.
~ There are plenty of people getting promotion.

Type *SVOC*
Two bulldozers have been knocking the place flat.
~ There have been two bulldozers knocking the place flat.

Type *SVOA*
A girl is putting the kettle on. ~ There's a girl putting the kettle on.

Type *SVOO*
Something is causing my friend distress.
~ There's something causing my friend distress.

Passive versions of the correspondences are also to be noted:

Type SV_{pass}
A whole box has been stolen. ~ There has been a whole box stolen.

Type $SV_{pass}C$
No shops will be left open. ~ There'll be no shops left open.

The notional subject can be postponed (*cf* 18.31) if it is required to have focal prominence:

There was in the vicinity a helpful doctor.
There'll be left open no single well-stocked shop.

Especially in informal usage, there is an existential sentence with an *-ed* clause following the noun phrase:

There's a parcel come for you.
There's a book gone from my desk.
There's a tree fallen across our driveway.
There's a new history of Indonesia published.

Note [a] The rule that existential sentences should have an indefinite noun phrase as 'notional subject' prevents us from constructing sentences like **There's the money in the box* from *The money is in the box*. This limitation can be waived, however, where the definite noun phrase conveys new information, in answers to existential questions (actual or implied), such that the answer provides a specific (and hence definite) instance:
A: Have we any loose cash in the house?
B: Well, there's the money in the box over there.
A: Is there anyone coming to dinner?
B: Yes, there's Harry and there's also Mrs Jones.
Compare also: 'There are *several animals* commonly depicted in heraldry; for instance, there is *the lion*'.

Also acceptable is the definite *the* which is determined by the absolute superlative (*cf* 7.84), as in:
There's the oddest-looking man standing at the front door.
This corresponds to an indefinite article in the following alternative sentence:
There's *a* man of *the oddest appearance* standing at the front door.
[b] Where *be* is part of a semi-auxiliary construction, there are restrictions with existential *there*:
A man is to fix it tomorrow. + There is a man to fix it tomorrow.
A man is bound to arrive soon. ~ *There is a man bound to arrive soon
A man is going to help me. ~ ?There is a man going to help me.
But:
A man is bound to be here soon. ~ There *is bound to be* a man here soon.
A man is going to be with her. ~ There *is going to be* a man with her.
[c] Noun phrases introduced by the 'universal' terms *all* or *every* are not so easily made 'notional subjects' of existential sentences (?**There was everyone in the room*) as other types of indefinite expression. They act as such mostly in 'second instance' answers to existential questions:
A: What is there to be afraid of?
B: There's ëverything to be afraid of!
Negative universals are fully acceptable: 'There's nothing to worry about.'
[d] Existential *there* occurs freely in dependent clauses:
Let me know if there's anyone waiting.
[e] In *SVC*-related sentences, the C cannot usually denote a permanent property:
There were several students ill.
But:
?*There were several students tall.
[f] Some frozen existential clauses exist without *there*; for example ⟨informal⟩:
Time wÁs when I'd have tackled it. [= 'There was (once) a time . . .']

The status of existential *there* as subject

18.46 The *there* of existential sentences differs from *there* as an introductory adverb in lacking stress, in carrying none of the locative meaning of the place-adjunct *there*, and in behaving in most ways like the subject of the clause, doubtless reflecting the structural dislocation from the basic clause types:

(i) It often determines concord, governing a singular form of the verb (*cf* 10.34*ff*) even when the following 'notional subject' is plural:
There's some people in the waiting room. ⟨informal⟩
occurs alongside:
There are some people in the waiting room.

(ii) It can act as subject in *yes–no* and tag questions:
Is there any more soup? There's nothing wrong, *is there*?

(iii) It can act as subject in infinitive and *-ing* clauses:
I don't want *there to be any misunderstanding*.
He was disappointed at *there being so little to do*.
There having been trouble over this in the past, I want to treat the matter cautiously.

Note [a] The absence of locative meaning is indicated by the acceptability of the existential sentence with *here* cooccurring with introductory *there*:
There's a screwdriver here.
By contrast, adjunct *there* with inversion (*cf* 18.23), as in 'There's the girl', would be contradictory with an added *here*:
*There's the screwdriver here! (*But cf* |"THÈRE'S the SCRÉWdriver| – |Right "HÈRE|
[b] Existential *there* can be fronted in association with the type of *to*-clause discussed in 18.36:

It {appears / is certain} that there is something wrong with the engine.
~ There {appears / is certain} to be something wrong with the engine.

In such sentences, the catenative verb (*cf* 3.49) often agrees with the notional subject in number:

There {happens / happen} to be {only one apple / only two apples} left.

But often informally, 'There happens to be only two apples left.'

'Bare' existential sentences

18.47 Apart from sentences related to basic clause types in the manner described in 18.45, we have to consider various other types of sentence introduced by existential *there*. Among them is the 'bare' existential (sometimes called 'ontological') sentence, which simply postulates the existence of some entity or entities. It has a simple clause structure *there* + *be* + indefinite noun phrase:

There was a moment's silence.
There's nothing to do.
There was a sudden noise.
There are numerous species of edible fungi.
Undoubtedly, there is a God. ['God exists']
Is there any other business? [as spoken by the chairman at the end of a meeting]
There must be a more direct route.

Such sentences are perhaps to be explained as cases in which the final element is omitted as understood:

There is a God (in the Universe). [*ie* now as always]
Is there any other business (for the committee at this meeting)?
There must be a more direct route (than the one we're discussing).

Other sentences superficially like these are certainly to be so explained. For example, the sentence *There'll be trouble*, occurring on its own, implies a definite context: 'There'll be trouble at the match/at the party', etc. Alternatively, it seems significant that many textual examples of 'bare' existentials comprise complexities that provide for the required double prominence. Compare such paraphrases of foregoing examples as:

Edible fungi exist in numerous species.
There was |sìLence for a 'moment|

In 'There have always been wars', we have an *SVA* existential, though the A-element (*always*) is at *M* (*cf* 8.16); compare 'There have been wars *in all periods of history*'.

Existential sentences with relative and infinitive clauses

18.48 A more important additional type of existential sentence is that which consists of *there* + *be* + noun phrase + relative clause, and which resembles the cleft sentence (*cf* 18.25, example [2]) in its rhetorical motivation. Such sentences can be related to sentences of orthodox clause types without the

two restrictions mentioned in 18.45: the verb need not be a form of the verb *be*, and although there must be an indefinite element, it need not be subject:

Something keeps upsetting him. (*Cf* 'Something is repeatedly upsetting him')
~ There's something (that) keeps upsetting him. [1]
I'd like you to meet some people.
~ There's some people (that) I'd like you to meet. [2]

It is interesting that the relative pronoun *that* in the 'annex' clause of [1] can be omitted (especially in informal usage) even when it is subject of the relative clause; something not permissible according to the normal rule for relative clause formation (*cf* 17.15):

There's a man lives in China. ~ *I know a man lives in China.

This omissibility is a sign of the special status within the main clause of the annex clause here, as in cleft sentences (*cf* 18.28 Note).

As with cleft sentences, we can have different tenses in the two parts of the sentence. Compare:

There were some paintings that were admired by everyone.
There are some planets that were discovered by the ancients.

The existential-with-relative construction is particularly common as a means of emphasizing a negative (*cf* Note below):

There's *nothing* I can do about it. (~ nothing *that/which* I can do)
There was *no way* they could persuade her to try again. (~ no way *in which* they . . .)

Compare, without this construction, 'They could persuade her *in no way* to try again.'

Again, as with cleft sentences, we can negate either part:

There was a student who didn't pass the exam. [= one failed]
There wasn't a student who passed the exam. [= all failed]

But we can also negate both parts:

There wasn't a student who didn't pass the exam. [= all passed]

One may also mention a common existential sentence pattern *there* + *be* + noun phrase + *to* + infinitive clause, which is problematic to the extent that it cannot be directly related to the basic clause types of 10.1*ff*:

There was no one for us to talk to.
There's (always) plenty of housework to do.

Such infinitive clauses are allied to relative clauses (*cf* 17.9*ff*), as we see on comparing:

At last there was something to write home about.

with the ⟨stiffly formal⟩ relative clause construction:

At last there was something about which to write home.

This type of existential sentence sometimes has a definite noun phrase as notional subject (*cf* 18.45, Note [a]):

There's the man next door to consider.

Note Also there is a restricted idiomatic construction consisting of *there* + *be* + negative + *-ing* clause:
There's no telling what he'll do. There isn't any getting away from it.
On the peculiarities of this construction, *cf* 15.14.

Existential sentences with verbs other than *be*

18.49 The existential sentence has been described as 'presentative', in serving to bring something on to the discoursal stage deserving our attention. This seems especially true of a rather less common, more literary type of existential clause in which *there* is followed by a verb other than *be*:

There rose in his imagination grand visions of a world empire.
There exist a number of similar medieval crosses in different parts of the country.
There may come a time when the Western Nations will be less fortunate.
Not long after this, there occurred a sudden revolution in public taste.

This construction, which may be related to other sentence forms by the simple correspondence S + V ~ *there* + V + S (where S is usually indefinite), is equivalent in effect and style to subject–verb inversion after an initial adverbial (*cf* 18.23). Indeed, in all *there*-existential sentences, *there* can be regarded as a 'dummy element', which, placed before the subject and verb, provides the necessary condition for inversion to take place. Grammatically, *there* is a subject, as we saw in 18.46 above and as we see again here with the operator inversion that takes place when the statement pattern is turned into a question, *eg*: *Will there come a time . . .? Did there occur a sudden revolution . . .?*

But the present construction requires some expansion of the rule given above. In the first place, the verb must be intransitive (exceptions are idiomatic or dubious; *cf* Note [a]), and of fairly general presentative meaning: verbs of motion (*arrive, enter, pass, come*, etc), of inception (*emerge, spring up*, etc), and of stance (*live, remain, stand, lie*, etc); but *cf* 18.50. In the second place, while 'ontological' or 'bare' existentials are commoner with these verbs than with *be* (*eg*: *There sprang up a wild gale*), the normal sentence pattern concerned is *SVA* and the existential rule might be restated as follows (treating *sprang up* as a single verb unit and not as V + A):

$$S + V + A \sim \begin{cases} \textit{there} + V + S + A & [1] \\ \textit{there} + V + A + S & [2] \\ A + \textit{there} + V + S & [3] \end{cases}$$

For example:

There sprang up a wild gale that night. [1]
There sprang up that night a wild gale. [2]
That night there sprang up a wild gale. [3]

Where the S is postponed (*cf* 18.31) as in [2], there is less constraint for the S to be indefinite, doubtless because the postponement itself implies the 'newness' of the item concerned:

There came to his mind her beautiful and intelligent face.

If however the transitive verb is one that forms a V + N multi-word verb (*cf* 16.58), such sequences are fully acceptable:

There *took place* an elaborate ceremony in honour of the visiting dignitaries.

Note [a] Transitive verbs in existential sentences are rare but would follow pattern [2] above in having the S in end position:
?There struck me a sudden idea. (*Cf* *There struck me a tall man.)
(?) There then addressed the meeting the new leader of the party.
In view of the constraints upon transitive verbs, it is perhaps better to regard examples with passives as being special cases of *be* existentials (*cf* 18.45). Thus with the passive of:
The mayor presented a gold medal (to the winner).
we can have:
There was a gold medal presented (to the winner) by the mayor.
Less commonly:
There was presented (to the winner) by the mayor a gold medal.
So also with progressive forms:
A dozen hungry people were standing in the rain.
There were a dozen hungry people standing in the rain.
Less commonly:
There were standing in the rain a dozen hungry people.
[b] Examples like 'There's a parcel come' and 'There's a new history of Indonesia published' (*cf* 18.45) should not be regarded as an existential division of the verb phrase as in 18.49 Note, since without the *there*-construction we would have 'A parcel *has* come' (not '*is* come') and 'A new history *has been* published' (rather than '*is* published'). *There* can provide further anomalies with perfectives, both passive and active:
There's a new grammar been written. [*A new grammar is been written.]
There's a visitor been waiting to see you. [*A visitor is been waiting to see you.]
Although we cannot expand *is* to *has* (?*'There has a visitor been waiting'), examples like these are doubtless facilitated by the fact that *'s* is a contraction for *has* as well as *is* (and occasionally *does*: 'What's it matter?'; *cf* 3.36). Acceptability is reduced when *'s* is replaced by *are* and (still more) by *was* or *were*:
There are three visitors (?been) waiting to see you.
There was a new grammar (*been) published recently.

Existential sentences with initial space adjuncts

18.50 We should now consider the type [3] ordering of 18.49:

A + *there* + V + S

For example:

That night there sprang up a wild gale.

Let us look at an example that pairs a verb of stance with the usual existential verb *be*:

In the garden there $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{was}\\ \text{stood}\end{matrix}\right\}$ a sundial. [1]

Since the place adverbial, *In the garden*, provides in itself the condition enabling us to position the subject after the verb (*cf* 18.23), there is no grammatical requirement for *there* to be present:

In the garden $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{was}\\ \text{stood}\end{matrix}\right\}$ a sundial. [2]

It should be noted that the range of verb-phrase forms with this type of ordering is considerably wider than was specified in 18.49. Compare:

Into the room (there) had staggered a total stranger.
?There had staggered into the room a total stranger.
?*There had staggered a total stranger into the room.

We see from these examples that the wider choice of verb coincides with the choice between the presence or absence of *there*. In considering examples [1] and [2] above, we find that, despite the close similarity in meaning, the absence of *there* as in [2] is preferred when the final noun phrase is relatively concrete and specific, its occurrence relatively expected. We may say that the verb in [1] tends to connote '*chanced* (to be)', '*happened* (to stand)', while the noun phrase in [2] tends to connote 'a *certain* (sundial)'. Significantly, indeed, there is much less constraint upon indefiniteness in [2]:

In the garden lay $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{Joan}\\ \textit{his father}\\ \textit{the old lady}\end{matrix}\right\}$ (fast asleep).

Table 18.50 shows the distribution of existential sentences in a large sample of SEU material. They are all of the type under consideration here; that is:

A + (*there*) + V + S

and they are analysed in terms of three variables:

(i) whether the verb is *be* or not *be* (*ie: stand, lie, appear*, etc);

(ii) whether *there* is present as in example [1] or absent as in example [2];

(iii) whether the subject noun phrase is indefinite or definite.

Table 18.50

	Indefinite		Definite	
	be	not *be*	*be*	not *be*
+ *there*	160	23	28	7
– *there*	137	56	179	29

Among the interesting facts revealed by the figures, the most striking is doubtless the converse distribution (160:137, but 28:179) as between indefinite and definite with *be*, showing the greater tendency to omit *there* where the noun phrase is definite. It would seem that whereas the *AVS* construction without *there* is motivated by the wish to achieve end-focus, the *there*-construction has the more general 'presentative' function; *cf* 18.49.

The *have*-existential device

18.51 Corresponding to the type of existential sentence introduced in 18.45 (*there* + *be* + S + predication), there is a type in which the thematic position is not occupied by a mere 'dummy' element but is filled by a noun-phrase subject preceding the verb *have* (or, especially in BrE, *have got*):

The porter has a taxi ready.
[*Cf: There is a taxi ready*; *A taxi is ready*. – Type *SVC*]
He had several friends in China.
[*Cf: There were several friends (of his) in China*; *Several friends (of his) were in China*. – Type *SVA*]
I have two buttons missing (on my jacket).
My jacket has two buttons missing.
[*Cf: There are two buttons missing*; *Two buttons are missing*. – Type *SV*]
They had a few supporters helping them.
[*Cf: There were a few supporters helping them*; *A few supporters were helping them*. – Type *SVO*]

As we show above, these clauses can be related to (and imply) some of the basic clause types; thus, for example, *The porter has a taxi ready* implies *A taxi is ready* [*SVC*].

But the correspondence with basic clause types is by no means as straightforward as it is with *there*-existentials. In the first place, an extra participant is introduced as theme (*The porter, He, I, They*, in the examples above). This is not merely absent from the corresponding basic clause but cannot usually be inferred from it. Consequently, in formulating the correspondence between *have*-existentials and the basic *SVC* type, we might postulate:

$$\mathrm{NP}^1 + \textit{be} + \mathrm{C}\,(\mathrm{NP}^1) \sim \mathrm{NP}^2 + \textit{have} + \mathrm{NP}^1 + \mathrm{C}\,(\mathrm{NP}^1)$$

But while we are able to predict the tense of *have* (since it must correspond to that of *be*), we have no way of precisely predicting the NP^2 and usually no way of even imprecisely doing so:

$$\text{A taxi}\left[\begin{matrix}\text{is}\\ \\ \text{was}\end{matrix}\right]\text{ready.} \sim \mathrm{NP}^2\left[\begin{matrix}\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{have}\\ \text{has}\end{matrix}\right\}\\ \\ \text{had}\end{matrix}\right]\text{a taxi ready.}$$

Indeed, beyond saying that NP^2 will refer to a subject having considerable involvement in the existential proposition, we cannot specify what that involvement will be. Thus in:

The porter has a taxi ready.

there is a strong implication that the NP^2 has an *agentive* role, whereas in:

You have a taxi ready.

it is just as strongly implied that the NP^2 has a *recipient* or at any rate an

affected role (*cf* 10.19). Calling it 'affected' seems to state the involvement with a degree of generality that satisfactorily accounts for most cases. Compare:

{A valuable watch was stolen. [SV_{pass}]
{*My friend* had a valuable watch stolen.

Note the possibility of other relationships:

{There are several oak trees in the garden.
{*They* have several oak trees in the garden.

Note [a] With a passive basic clause type, the verb generally has dynamic rather than stative (perfective) meaning: *My friend had his watch stolen* relates to *His watch was stolen* in the sense of 'Someone stole his watch' rather than of 'Someone had stolen his watch'.
[b] In a further *have*-construction (especially, but not necessarily, with the passive: *cf: He had us all addressing envelopes*), the subject of *have* gives up its 'recipient' role for one of indirect agency: *He had all his enemies imprisoned* is most likely to mean 'He caused all his enemies to be imprisoned'. In thus involving specification of agency, this *have*-construction is more remote from the corresponding basic clause (*His enemies were imprisoned*) than the other examples we have been considering. Compare analogous causatives and agentives:

{John is in prison. {The engine was repaired.
{(They) put John in prison. {(They) got the engine repaired.

18.52 But although we cannot in general predict from the basic clause the reference of the NP[2] in *have*-existentials (and still less its form – *John, He, My brother*, etc), the reference is often implied by nonexistential variants. For example:

{Two of *my* buttons are missing. [*SV*]
{*I* have two buttons missing.

{A brother of *his* was working in Chicago.
{*He* had a brother working in Chicago.

In some cases, reference (though not of course form) is not merely implied but actually specified in the nonexistential variant:

{A few supporters were helping {*Mary and Alice.* / *the three boys.* / *them.*} [*SVO*]

{{*Mary and Alice* / *The three boys* / *They*} had a few supporters helping *them.*

{John was working for *Mary.* [*SVA*]
{*Mary* had John working for *her.*

{Many apples were still on *the trees.*
{*The trees* still had many apples on *them.*

Again, where a basic clause type is extended to indicate recipient or other participant role, the reference concerned may then be anticipated in the subject of *have*. For example:

A taxi is ready *for you.* [*SVC*]
A valuable watch was stolen *from him.* [SV_{pass}]

beside:

You have a taxi ready for *you.*
{*John* / *He*} had a valuable watch stolen from *him.*

But the reference to a participant may be misleading, since the subject of *have* may be agentive:

They have a taxi ready for *you.*

Where the reference is the same, of course, pronoun identification works in the usual direction (*cf* 10.48*ff*); thus:

John had a valuable watch stolen from *him.*
≠ *He* had a valuable watch stolen from *John.*

Finally, it should be noted that in *have*-existentials, the 'notional subject' (*ie* the subject of the corresponding basic clause type) can freely be definite:

John's eldest son is helping him.
John has *his eldest son* helping him. [assuming *has* as existential and not causative: *cf* 16.52*ff*]

By contrast:

*There is {*John's* / *his*} *eldest son* helping him.

This would require a special context, such as 18.45 Note [a], to make it acceptable.

Have-existential sentences with relative and nonfinite clauses

18.53 Corresponding to *there*-sentences of the same character (*cf* 18.48), the following illustrate *have*-sentences containing relative and infinitive clauses:

I've something I've been meaning to say to you.
He has a great deal to be thankful for.
(*Cf* There is a great deal for him to be thankful for.)
(?) They have a visitor come to see them. [= A visitor has come to see them]
She has a guest staying with her. [= A guest is staying with her]

Compare also with passive nonfinite clauses (*cf* 18.52):

He had a book stolen. [= A book was stolen from him]
She has had some poems published. [= Some poems (of hers) have been published]

In all these instances, the subject of *have* could be 'affected', but in some it could equally be agentive (*cf* 16.54, 18.51):

She has had some poems published. [= She has caused some poems (of her own *or* by someone else) to be published]

As with *have*-existentials in general, the subject of *have* may be totally unpredictable from the corresponding basic clause type or *there*-existential:

{There is a great deal for John to do.
{*Mary* has a great deal for John to do.

Nonfinite and verbless existential clauses

18.54 Consider again finite-verb clauses of basic type and their corresponding existentials:

A taxi was soon available and Dr Lowe was able to catch the train.
There was soon a taxi available and Dr Lowe was able to catch the train.
Dr Lowe soon had a taxi available and was able to catch the train.

Corresponding to these finite clauses, nonfinite clauses can be formed, again existential as well as nonexistential:

A taxi being soon available,
There soon being a taxi available, } Dr Lowe was able to catch the train.
Soon having a taxi available,

In this last case, the subject of the nonfinite clause would be identical with that of the main clause; if the subject is different, it can be supplied – at least in rather formal English:

The porter soon having a taxi available, Dr Lowe was able to catch the train.

There are also corresponding verbless clauses, especially introduced by *with* or its corresponding negative *without* (*cf* 9.49), and these prepositions may also occur in nonfinite clauses:

With a taxi soon available, Dr Lowe was able to catch the train.
Without a taxi soon enough available, Dr Lowe was unable to catch the train.
With a taxi speedily summoned, . . .
With a taxi already waiting, . . .

A further type of verbless existential clause is illustrated in 18.44 Note [b].

Emotive emphasis

18.55 Apart from the emphasis given by information focusing, the language provides means of giving a unit purely emotive emphasis. We have noted, in various sections of the grammar, a number of features of this type. They include exclamations (*cf* 11.31*f*), the persuasive *do* in imperatives (*cf* 11.30), interjections (*cf* 11.55), expletives and intensifiers (*cf* 7.87*ff*, 8.104*ff*), including the general clause emphasizers such as *actually*, *really*, and *indeed*. A thorough study of emotive expressions would involve examining figures of speech such as simile, hyperbole, and irony. Here we confine ourselves to two devices which fall squarely within the province of grammar.

Emphatic operators

18.56 We are here concerned with the difference between pairs like the following:

{I'm |SÒRry| / I |ÀM 'sorry|} [1]

{You |look PÀLE this 'morning| / You |DÒ 'look 'pale this 'morning|} [2]

{|Mary will be PLÈASED| / |Mary WÌLL be 'pleased|} [3]

{He |PRŎMised to 'go| / He |did PRŎMise to 'go|} [4]

{I |TÒLD you| / I |did TÈLL you|} [5]

The second utterance in each case resembles prosodically the operator-stressed items discussed in 18.16. But as we see with [4] and [5], the operator, though emphasized, need not carry the nuclear force. More importantly, they all differ from the majority of those in 18.16 in not necessarily being contrastive. For example, in:

|Mary WÌLL be 'pleased|

the speaker is not here implying that someone has suggested that she will *not* be pleased. Rather, the speaker (in a style that is sometimes felt to be rather gushing and extravagant) is conveying enthusiasm: a personal conviction about the truth of what is predicated. But the emotion conveyed need not be enthusiasm: in [1] it is concern, in [2] sympathy, in [5] something like reproach or petulance. It is in this last connection that the *will/would* of 'insistence' (*cf* 4.57) is regularly stressed:

|John WÌLL 'keep| inter|RÙPting|
I |WÒULD go and make a 'MÉSS of it|

Note [a] While it is obviously necessary to stress the difference between emotive and contrastive emphasis, we saw in 18.16 that not all operator-focusing was contrastive. Moreover, some similarity in principle needs to be seen between emotive emphasis and the distribution of given and new information. For example, in [3] above, the emotive emphasis on *will* implies that *pleased* is relatively given: we can take the fact of her being pleased for granted and attend instead to expressing a degree of enthusiasm about it.

[b] Further intensification, if desired, can be achieved by placing an emphasizer such as *really* or *certainly* in front of the operator, or *indeed* after it: *It really does taste nice. It does indeed taste nice.* Such adverbials are especially helpful in writing since they draw attention to the need to supply operator-stress; *cf* 18.42 Note.

[c] Despite its similar emotive connotations, the 'persuasive' *do* in imperatives (*cf* 11.30) is again distinct from the above use of *do*. The imperative *do* does not obey the rule of *do*-support: one can say *Do be quiet!* in imperatives, but there is no corresponding statement **He DÒES be quiet!*

Noncorrelative *so* and *such*

18.57 In familiar speech of a style that strikes many people as extravagantly emphatic, the determiner *such* and the adverb *so* are stressed so as to give exclamatory force to a statement, question, or directive. In this usage, there is no accompanying correlative clause or phrase (*cf* 15.49):

She was |wearing 'such a lovely DRÈSS|
I'm |so afraid they'll get LÒST|
|Why are you 'such a BÀby|
|Don't upSÈT yourself 'so|

In consequence, *so* and *such* become equivalent to *how* and *what* in exclamations (*cf* 11.31*f*):

{They were so cross!
{How cross they were!
{They're such delightful children!
{What delightful children they are!

But *so* and *such* can also occur, as the earlier examples show, in questions and directives. Additional emotive emphasis is achieved by assigning a nucleus to *so* or *such*:

I'm |SÒ PLÉASED|

Note Other words of strong emotive import may take a nuclear tone for special emotive force:
I |WISH you'd LÍsten|
I |love that MŬSic| *or* I |LÒVE| that |MŬSic|
I'm |TÈRRibly SÓRry|

Reinforcement

Repetition and 'proxy' pronouns

18.58 Reinforcement is a feature of colloquial style whereby some item is repeated (either completely or by pronoun substitution) for purposes of emphasis, focus, or thematic arrangement. Its simplest form is merely the reiteration (with heavy stressing) of a word or phrase for emphasis or clarity:

It's *far, far* too expensive. (*Cf* 7.89)
I agree with *every word* you've said – *every single word.*

In very loose and informal speech, a reinforcing or recapitulatory pronoun is sometimes inserted within a clause where it stands 'proxy' for an initial noun phrase:

This man I was telling you about – well, *he* used to live next door to me.
The book I lent you – have you finished *it* yet?

It will be noticed that in each case a complete noun phrase is disjoined from the grammar of the sentence, its role (as subject and object respectively) being grammatically performed by subsequent pronouns. But in being thus fronted, as marked themes (*cf* 18.19), the disjoined noun phrases clearly set out the 'point of departure' for the utterance as a whole. It is not uncommon for long noun phrases which are nonfocal to be thus treated in familiar speech, a convenience alike to hearer (in receiving an early statement of a complex item) and speaker (in not having to incorporate such an item in the grammatical organization of his utterance).

Note This phenomenon, along with that in 18.59, is sometimes termed 'left- and right-dislocation'; *cf* 17.78.

Amplificatory tags

18.59 In contrast to the fronting of items to be subsequently reinforced pronominally (as in 18.58), an amplificatory phrase may be informally added after the completion of a clause structure which contains a coreferential pronoun:

They're all the same, *these politicians.*
I wouldn't trust *him* for a moment, *your brother-in-law.*

Such utterances are usually spoken with divided focus (*cf* 18.17), with a rise on the 'tag' confirming its relatively 'given' status:

They're |all the SÀME, these politÍcians|
I |wouldn't trust him for a MÒment, your BRÓTHer-in-law|

The tag can be inserted parenthetically, as well as placed finally:

He's got a good future, your brother, if he perseveres.

An even more informal type of tag comprises a subject and operator:

That was a lark, *that was*!
He likes a drink now and then, *Jim does.*

In some dialects of English (especially Northern BrE), the operator may precede the subject:

She's a lovely girl, *is Ann.*

Postposed nonfinite clauses, of the kind discussed in 18.35, sometimes closely resemble amplificatory tags; contrast:

It was tough getting the job finished on time.
[|tough. . . . . TÌME|]
It was tough, getting beaten in the last match.
[|TÒUGH|/. . . . . MATCH|]

Note [a] The amplificatory tag should not be confused with either vocatives (*cf* 10.52*f*) or what may be called 'tag exclamations', such as *He ran away from SCHÒOL, the idiot* (*cf* 17.68 Note [b]). Both these constructions are distinguished from it intonationally, in that they may form the 'tail' of a preceding nucleus, instead of having their own (usually rising) nucleus. The intonation marks the following as usually tag and vocative respectively:
He's a |good CHÀP JÒHN|
He's a |good CHÀP 'John|

The exclamatory tag is further distinguished by being capable of (i) referring back to a noun phrase other than a pronoun:

That brother of mine ran away from school, the idiot.

and (ii) occurring initially as well as finally:

The idiot, he ran away from school.

The exclamatory tag is usually evaluative and the noun is very general in meaning; when premodified by an adjective, there may be zero article. We may thus contrast:

He's had a lot of bad LÙCK, { (the) poor man| / { the new / *new } CÁREtaker| }

[b] Expletives (in the broadest sense) provide a common mode of amplification in extremely informal speech, serving as a rhetorical transition between theme and *an emotionally coloured* focus:

He's a |silly ìDiot|
They ||lost their 'darned WÀY|
His |work is 'bloody ÀWf'ul|
I |told them to 'darned 'well LÌsten|

Compare tmesis (App I.76 Note [c]) where the inserted amplification is usually made just prior to the point of main emphasis:

fan'tastic ~ fan-'flaming-ˢtastic

In 'She lost her darned way', it is not of course the final noun phrase as such that calls for expletive comment. The whole utterance is emotionally coloured, and in extreme cases such colouring (especially in exasperation) is expressed at additional points in the sentence structure:

These *blasted* people have *darned well* lost their *stupid* way!

Alternatively the 'scope' of the colouring as well as the colouring itself can be expressed by prosodic means, 'She's lost her way' being uttered with an exceptional intensity or other marking (*cf* App II.1*ff*).

Expletives also amplify the theme in *wh*-questions:

Who / What / Where / When / Why / How } { on earth / in heaven / (in) the hell / the blazes / in the world / in God's name } + *op, etc*

[c] In responses of a rejoinder kind, we find a combination of fronting (*cf* 18.20*f*) with amplificatory tagging:

A: Have I arranged to see anyone this afternoon?
B: Well, Mrs BLÀKE, you HÁVE. [~ 'You have arranged to see Mrs Blake']
A: Do you write poetry?
B: SÒMEtimes I DÓ. [~ '*I write poetry sometimes*']

Where such replies are negative, both parts are negated, though responses in this form are then restricted to rather informal usage:

A: Have I made this clear to you all?
B: Not to MÈ, you HÁVEN't. [~ 'To the others perhaps, but not to me']
A: May I go in?
B: Not YÈT, you CÁN'T. [~ 'You can't go in yet']

It will be noticed that the use of fall-plus-rise, putting the fall on the most salient part, the rise on the partly 'given', corresponds to the general use described in 18.17.

Bibliographical note

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19 From sentence to text

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General: the notion of 'text'

19.1 Throughout this book, two interrelated acts of imagination have been demanded of the reader.

First, we have expected that examples, though inevitably appearing before the reader only in print, would be not only read but 'heard'. We have constantly stressed the primacy of speech, both in *mass* terms (the fact that far more language occurs in speech than in writing) and – much more significantly – in *linguistic* terms (the fact that the written form must evoke the oral form, just as though we heard the words read aloud). And we have sought to bring this home to the user of the book by repeated if clumsy reference to 'speaker/writer' and 'reader/hearer'.

Second, we have expected that examples would be placed in a suitable context. Thus, although we have presented forms and constructions as though they were fully explicated within isolated sentences, we have been aware that it would not have been possible to understand the presentation unless every structure and every exemplificatory sentence had been placed by or for the reader in an imagined context. Indeed we have made our awareness explicit in a large number of cases by providing cues to the type of context in which a given form was to be appropriately used and plausibly understood.

19.2 In the present chapter, we work in a converse way. We take TEXTS as our starting point and examine the language comprising them. In other words, we bring together all the grammatical processes already described but we do so now with a view to discussing their role in both the interpretation of a text and in the construction of a text. And we shall pay considerable attention to lexical and other features of textual structure in order to show that, important as is the role of grammar, many factors other than grammar are involved.

Moreover, as we are using the term, a text – unlike a sentence – is not a grammatical unit but rather a semantic and even a pragmatic one. A text is a stretch of language which seems appropriately coherent in actual use. That is, the text 'coheres' in its real-world context, semantically and pragmatically, and it is also internally or linguistically coherent. For this latter facet, the term 'cohesive' has been applied, referring to the actual forms of linguistic linkage.

A text may be spoken (as are the vast majority) or it may be in writing. It may be the product of a single speaker (as with an announcement on an airport public-address system) or of several speakers engaged in conversation. Textual structure relates to the concerns of this book – the grammar of English – by virtue of the fact that texts are realized in grammatical units. But the grammatical units occurring in a text are often very different from the corresponding grammatical units as they are described in terms of the English grammatical system. Consider for example, as part of a text, the response:

Me, too!

Among the possible texts in which this might occur, we could suggest:

'This noise is giving me a headache'
'Me, too!' [1]

'I wish I had a drink'
'Me, too!' [2]

'My feet are aching'
?'Me, too!' [3]

but not:

'Would you like a drink?'
*'Me, too!' [4]

or:

'It's starting to rain'
*'Me, too!' [5]

In [1] the second speaker makes his response on the basis of a relatively straightforward elliptical form of what he has just heard (*cf* 12.1*ff*, 12.31*ff*, 12.46*ff*, 13.44*ff*):

(This noise is giving) *me* (a headache), *too*!

With [2], what is superficially the same response involves pronoun-replacement (*cf* 6.14*ff*, 10.48*ff*, 12.8*ff*):

I (wish I had a drink), *too*!

Only the respective *textual* structure as a whole can determine the *grammatical* structure in terms of which *Me, too* is being used. The role of the response in [3] is clear enough semantically ('My feet are also aching'), but grammatically its relation to what has preceded is vague and uncertain; though it might occur in familiar speech, many people would find it textually ill-formed.

But by contrast with [1], [2], and [3], the response 'Me, too' in [4] and [5] is a non sequitur textually and equally impossible to relate to a plausible structure in the grammatical system.

Context and the one-sentence text

19.3 It is natural to think of a text as being realized in a string of several sentences: that it is connected sentences that constitute a text. But in fact a text may be wholly realized in a single sentence, and if we consider such an example we shall see the significance of the point made in 19.2 that a text was not so much a grammatical as a semantic or pragmatic unit. Even a single word can be a text that is 'appropriately coherent in actual use' (*cf* 19.2): a road sign bearing the word DANGER, for example, as compared with one that read SINCERITY.

Imagine receiving a note bearing only the words:

Roger's finished the thesis!

The same text might of course be spoken: someone comes into the room and withdraws again having said only:

|Roger's finished the THÈSis|

The grammatical properties of the sentence realizing this text and necessary for our understanding of it have been described in earlier chapters. The perfective *has finished* is understood (in contrast, for example, with *will finish*); the determiner *the* (in contrast to *a* or *his*); the singular *thesis*; the intonation nucleus on *thesis* (and not, for example, on *Roger*); the whole being declarative (and not interrogative, *Has Roger . . .?*), etc. But as realizing a text, there is much more here. The text depends upon our knowing Roger (and knowing him as *Roger* and not as *Mr Taylor*), on knowing what a thesis is, on knowing about this particular thesis (a different text might have had *a thesis on aeronautics*). Less obviously, perhaps, the text depends on our knowing what *finishing* involves: Roger may have been writing his own thesis, typing (or binding) one for someone else, or completing his work as an examiner of the thesis. As well as conveying all this, the text will mean more to us. It is another instance of Roger's speedy efficiency, perhaps (as though the text had included the adverbial *already*). Or it conveys relief after an intolerably lengthy period (as though the text had included the adverbial *at last*). Or it may be a signal that Roger is now free to indulge (let us say) in a game of tennis.

These are all covert connections (that is, they are given no actual expression), but according as the situation determines, the piece of text could be expanded by some such comment as one of the following:

That's Roger TÀYLor, I suppose.
Aha – so aeronautics takes a big step forward!
Gosh – that was quick!
And about time too!
Oh, good: he can take on Frieda at the end of this set.

19.4 All of these additions have one thing in common: they each show a plausible interpretation of the original short text. They also form a close connection with it and with the wider context which determines the satisfactory coherence of the text. Clearly, not all of the interpretations involve grammar: the lexical meaning of *thesis*, for example, or the use of the text as an announcement that a game of tennis can start. But in the connections that texts manifest, it is equally clear that grammar plays a considerable role and it is on this connective potential of grammar that we shall be concentrating in this chapter. And 'potential' is a key word, since (as we have already seen) connection may be covert as well as overt.

Asyndetic connection

19.5 Just as a text realized by a single sentence has a complex of covert connections with its context, so any two neighbouring sentences will be perceived as being connected. Mere juxtaposition (parataxis rather than asyndeton) is an icon of connectedness, even where the juxtaposed parts have no grammatical or lexical feature in common:

Go and visit your father; it's New Year's Day.
It's New Year's Day. Go and visit your father.

The perceived connection here is the same, whichever sentence comes first, just as we will connect a child seen in the park with an adult, whether the

child is running ahead or trailing behind. So too, the text in 19.3 might have been expanded as:

Roger's finished the thesis! Caroline arrived from New York last week.

These two sentences are grammatically asyndetic and quite unrelated. But as a text or as part of a text, they are connected, and – if the text is successful – the connection will be clear to the reader/hearer: Caroline's relation to Roger will already be known and doubtless also the connection between the thesis work and Caroline's arrival. Even if we are merely 'eavesdroppers' on this text, we find ourselves speculating on possible connections. Perhaps Caroline brought with her the last piece of material that Roger required for completing the thesis; perhaps Caroline's arrival spurred him on to completion; perhaps the connection with Caroline's arrival is merely that she brought the news. Any of these connections is fully compatible with the grammar of the two sentences but none is made linguistically overt. This would remain true if the two sentences were in converse order:

Caroline arrived from New York last week. Roger's finished the thesis!

Such sentences in text can be said to be truly asyndetic (*cf* 13.1), in allowing connection by *and*, should we so wish.

Note [a] It is tempting to draw an analogy between asyndetic connection and our familiarity with a situation such that overt expression can be curtailed. In 19.3, we noted that 'Roger's finished the thesis' might have covertly conveyed *at last*. If this interpretation is the correct one, then:

Roger's finished the thesis! [1]
Roger's finished the thesis at last! [2]
After ten long years, Roger's finished the thesis at last! [3]

can be seen as synonymous but with decreasing degrees of 'asyndeton' with the context. In [1], the reference to duration is totally covert; in [2] it is overt but imprecise; in [3] it is still more overt with the specification of the length of time that is held to justify *at last*. We shall have occasion to use this extended sense of asyndeton in examining the grammatical potential of sentences in texts (for example, in relation to the absence of necessarily invoked performatives; *cf* 19.64).

[b] Some scholars use the term 'parataxis' for clauses without formal linkage; others would call this '*asyndetic* parataxis', applying the unrestricted term to all clause relations that are not *hypotactic* (*ie* involving subordination). On our own use of these terms, *cf* 13.1*f*.

19.6 Consider now a variation on the two-sentence text given in 19.5:

Roger's finished the thesis! Caroline has gone out to the supermarket.

Although these sentences are asyndetic in the sense of 13.1, there is a slight but significant grammatical relation. The verb phrase is perfective in each case and while this does not enjoin a particular interpretation, it certainly helps to suggest a range of possible close connections: what Caroline has done seems to match in some way what Roger has done. The completion of the thesis has perhaps released her to go out on an errand; or it has caused her to go and buy celebratory wine.

Structural parallelism

19.7 Indeed, although they might formally be regarded as asyndetic (and they are

certainly paratactic), neighbouring sentences that share grammatical features of tense, aspect, clause structure, or word order give a strong impression of being connected thereby. Such grammatical parallelism is often endorsed lexically. Consider the relatively abstract frame, now illustrating both coordination and subordination:

The ___ was Ved in ___ {and/while / but/whereas} the ___ was Ved in ___

and compare the following where the blanks are filled:

The baseball game was cancelled in New Haven
{and/while the hockey match was postponed in Hartford. [1]
{but/whereas the hockey match was (duly) played in Hartford. [2]

(where New Haven and Hartford are related as well-known cities in Connecticut).

The parallelism between sentences is more transparent, and hence the connection between the sentences is more strongly indicated, if the word order is not the normal one. The effect of fronting an element in such cases is to point to a contrast between the sentences. Indeed, in [3] the unusual order of the first sentence makes us expect a similar and related one to follow (*cf* 18.20):

My paintings the visitors admired. *My sculptures* they disliked. [3]
In New York it is hot and humid during the summer. *In Los Angeles* it is hot and dry. [4]
From the ceiling hung a huge lamp. *Along the wall* were pikes. [5]

The direct objects and the space adjuncts in [3] and [4] respectively are in initial position instead of their normal final position. In [5] the nonnormal position is accompanied by subject–verb inversion. When constituents are fronted, then we can infer a connection between the sentences even where there is little or no other structural similarity:

Proudly, the captain hoisted the flag. *Softly*, a bugle sounded. [6]

Moreover, only an apparent similarity in structure is sufficient to suggest parallelism between sentences:

My paintings the visitors admired. *My sculptures* irritated them. [7]

Our impression of a link between the two initial noun phrases in [7] is given impetus by the fronted position of the direct object *my paintings* in the first sentence and the expectation that we are encountering a similar inversion when we reach *my sculptures*, though in fact the former is direct object and the latter is subject, in its normal position. The impression of a link between the two initial noun phrases is reinforced by the internal structure of the two phrases and the lexical set to which both *painting* and *sculpture* belong. The two sentences are further linked by a semantic parallelism, realized syntactically in two ways: a person has a feeling towards an object, an object arouses a feeling in a person. They are also linked, of course, by the use of the pro-form *them* in the second sentence which replaces *the visitors* in the first sentence.

Connection by sequence

19.8 Sentences with grammatical features in common, such as the same subject or the same tense, often imply temporal and causal connection. In other words, where we saw juxtaposition in 19.5 as iconic of mere connection, we now see it as iconic of connected sequence. As the two real-world events, a policeman holding up his hand and a car coming to a standstill, follow each other in time, so asyndetic narration of these events will preserve this sequence:

The policeman held up his hand. The car stopped.
[≠ The car stopped. The policeman held up his hand.]

This is well illustrated in the text attributed to Julius Caesar after his Pontic triumph:

I came. I saw. I conquered.

Even without the lexical meanings of the verbs, the sequence suggests:

I did something.
And then (in consequence; *cf* 13.23) I did something else.
And then (in further consequence) I did something else.

Moreover, given that (as we shall see) triadic sequences have special implications, the third of the above suggests not merely 'in further consequence' but 'as a still further and climactic consequence'. Yet the text could not work as a text unless the lexical meanings of the verbs were known; these not merely confirm the consequential structure but make the particular sequence of paratactic sentences obligatory. Compare the relative difficulty of seeing the following as a coherent text:

I conquered. I came. I saw.

On the other hand, even with formal asyndeton, if we alter grammatical features such as tense, we can then switch the order of sentences so that it is no longer iconic and no longer asyndetic in the sense of 13.1 (since *and*-connection is impossible). They are now merely paratactic:

The car stopped. The policeman *had held* up his hand.

We here achieve paratactically the sequence freedom that is readily possible syndetically:

The car stopped $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{after}\\ \text{because}\end{matrix}\right\}$ the policeman held up his hand.

19.9 We have spoken of texts realized by one or more *sentences*. But just as we saw that it made no necessary substantial and inherent difference to a text when it was expanded by an adverbial (*cf* 19.5 Note [a]), so it makes little difference whether a text is punctuated as three sentences or one:

I came, I saw, I conquered.

Of course, a close relation between the parts is still more clearly implied when commas separate the first two and a period appears only after the third, and it is worth noting that a spoken form of this text (irrespective of punctuation) would normally show the 'dependent' status of the first two by rising nuclei in contrast to a fall on the third:

I CÁME| I SÁW| I CÒNquered.

(*Cf* further 19.25)

19.10 We have seen (*cf* 19.5, 19.7) that asyndetic connection has the effect of making the structure of a text extremely dependent upon the sequence of sentences realizing it. There are obviously no grammatical constraints upon the order of:

Roger's finished the thesis! Caroline arrived from New York last week.

as compared with:

Caroline arrived from New York last week. Roger's finished the thesis!

This being so, we must scrutinize the actual sequence all the more carefully to find a textual reason for the particular juxtaposition we encounter. In fact, the absence of grammatical constraints seems quite rare, to judge from both the spoken and written material of the Survey of English Usage. More commonly, the order necessary for the presentation of the text is enjoined by grammatical factors such as the sequence of pronouns in relation to antecedents:

Roger's finished the thesis. *His* wife arrived from New York last week.

The appearance of *his* here doubly provides a formal link between the two sentences in showing that Roger has a relation to both, and in confirming their particular sequence. (Contrast *Roger's wife arrived from New York last week. He's finished the thesis.* Here the pronominalization is again in the second sentence but the two sentences are reversed in sequence.)

Syndetic connection

19.11 Another way of indicating both the relevance of sequence and the closeness of textual connection is to introduce an overt connecting item, most frequently the coordinator *and* (*cf* 13.5*ff*):

Roger's finished the thesis and Caroline arrived from New York last week.

But although *and* is the most neutral and semantically uncommitted of connecting items, it will be noticed that some of the options for interpreting the text (*cf* 19.5) are now precluded. Even the 'eavesdropper' who knows nothing of Roger and Caroline may now interpret the two parts as having a temporal sequence matching the textual sequence: perhaps Caroline has waited for the thesis to be completed before leaving New York. This may be brought out more clearly with an alternative set of examples:

The rain has stopped. She's gone for a walk. [1]
The rain has stopped and she's gone for a walk. [2]
She's gone for a walk. The rain has stopped. [3]

?She's gone for a walk and the rain has stopped. [4]

The dubious textual coherence of the [4] version makes clear that, with syndetic connection, sequence is likely to be crucial. In contrast, the coherence of [1], [2], and [3] is beyond question and in interpretation they are closely similar, even though [3] reverses the sequence (concluding with a reason, where [1] and [2] conclude with a consequence). Compare also:

The student was late for the lecture. He missed his train.
The student missed his train and he was late for the lecture.

Note [a] With *and* connecting two sentences, the relation is made to seem less close. Thus, if [4] above were punctuated as two separate sentences, we could delete the query since the effect would be more like [3]. The *and* in [4] could perhaps connote 'by the way' (*cf* 19.29), though in this case we might expect something to follow the second sentence:

She's gone for a walk. And the rain has stopped (so she'll really enjoy being out).

[b] Clauses with reciprocal pronouns (*cf* 6.31) as objects are very similar in meaning to coordinate clauses, but where the former suggest simultaneous actions, the latter is conducive to an interpretation involving sequence. Compare:

Geoff and Sue { greeted / spoke to / saw / kissed } each other.

Geoff [greeted / spoke to / saw / kissed] Sue and Sue [greeted / spoke to / saw / kissed] Geoff.

Thematic connection

19.12 In 19.3 we examined a text where the connections were extra-textual: our knowledge of Roger and the thesis in which he was involved. But although all texts necessarily have extra-textual connections (none would otherwise be understood), it is normal for them to generate internal connections as well. The basic way of doing this is by proceeding sequentially from the known ('given') to the unknown ('new'), thus forming a chain in which what was unknown becomes the known as a point of departure towards a further unknown item. We have already seen this process in Chapter 18, in relation to end focus. Consider now the following four-part text (truncated and idealized), which we may imagine being spoken over the public address system of a big organization:

|*Here* is an 'urgent MÈSSage| *It* is for |visiting salesman Herbert BLÀCK|
Will |*Mr Black* please contact the third floor SÙPervisor| *She* will be
|waiting for him at the inQUÌRy desk|

A further example:

|*Mary* invited me to her BÌRTHday party| *It* was |held in a West End
hoTÈL| *where I* |*met her* PÀRents| The |*father* is a retired DÈNtist|

It will be noticed that each part ends with a prosodic climax (as do the vast majority of clauses in the SEU spoken corpus), and begins with a thematic unit, shown in italics, the whole text having in consequence a rhythmic prosodic pattern that can be diagrammed thus to represent the sequence of crescendi:

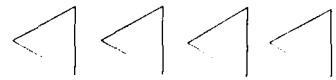

Fig 19.12

It is easy to see how this mirrors the increase in what is sometimes called the 'communicative dynamism' (*cf* 18.3) of each successive part. Irrespective of whether or not they are explicitly linked, the parts are linked thematically in that the 'rheme' (*cf* 18.9 Note) introduced in the first part, *an urgent message*, is pronominalized as *it* (*cf* 6.14*ff*) to become the 'theme' (*cf* 18.9) of the second. Compare also *Herbert Black* and *him* (via *Mr Black*), *the supervisor* and *She*.

19.13 But thematic connection is often by no means as linearly straightforward as it is in these examples. The interpretation of text depends upon the recipient's common sense and his knowledge acquired independently of the text, as we saw in 19.3. Grammar has potential in establishing plausible interpretations, but it is not required to provide unequivocal cues. Compare the two following texts in both of which there is thematic connection by pronominalization but where the pairing of pronouns and referents is sharply different:

Mr Fraser[1] sent for the doctor[2]; he[1] listened anxiously for his[2]
arrival; he[1] asked him[2] to examine his[1] throat. [1]
Mr Fraser[1] sent for the doctor[2]; he[2] diagnosed his[1] complaint;
he[1] soon felt better. [2]

The thematic connections are linked inextricably with the lexical items that are in turn linked to the situational context. Thus *he* and *his* in the second part of [1], while following one of the grammatical patterns of pronoun coreference, are identified with their respective referents through our knowing that the person that sends for someone will be the one to listen for his arrival. Again, in [2] the order of antecedent-pronoun sequence is one of those grammatically permissible: *he* in the second part refers to the last-mentioned noun phrase in the first part. But the actual interpretation relates this grammatical possibility to the extra-linguistic probability that the diagnosis will be carried out by the doctor and not by Mr Fraser.

In the following example, *they* is thematic in both the alternative concluding parts, but identification depends on lexical congruence with the verb of which *they* is subject:

The police[1] prohibited the strikers[2] from demonstrating because

{ they[1] anticipated / they[2] advocated } violence.

Other types of thematic connection involve the fronting of adverbials or other elements more normally associated with end position:

After rejecting the advice of the specialist at the hospital, Mr Fraser
sent for the local doctor. *In him* he had the deepest confidence.
Mr Fraser sent for a different doctor. *His usual one* he no longer trusted.

Note Commonly, a plural pronoun will refer back to antecedents each introduced as singular:
Mr Fraser[1] sent for the doctor[2] and *they*[1+2] discussed *his*[1] complaint for nearly an hour.

Rhematic connection

19.14 Compare the two following texts:

Jan lives in Holland and he writes poetry. [1]
Caroline arrived on Tuesday and Roger finished the thesis on Friday. [2]

In both there is syndetic linkage, giving a superficial similarity to the cohesion in the two examples, but informationally the types of connection are very different. In [1] there is the thematic connection that we have considered in 19.12; we need see no connection between the rhemes here (*in Holland* and *poetry*): it is enough that Jan has a relation to both. In [2] on the other hand there is no *textual* connection between the two themes, Caroline and Roger: the parts are firmly connected through the rhemes. This is achieved syntactically (two adjuncts, *on Tuesday* and *on Friday*), in form (both adjuncts involving items from the lexical *x-day* series), and in meaning (both indicating time *when*). There is also a more generally pervading cohesion through parallelism of form; *cf* 19.7. In speech, the connection would be endorsed by prosodic contrast or parallelism through the nuclei on *Tues-* and *Fri-* with perhaps a wider pitch range (*cf* App II.20) on the latter:

|Caroline arrived on TÚEsday| and |Roger finished the thesis on ↑FRÌday|
. . . : TŬEsday . . .
. . . TÙEsday . . .

An example of rhematic connection with pronominalization:

|Experts admire THÌS picture| but the |general public prefer THÀT (one)|

Textual orientation

19.15 In 19.1 we spoke of the need for every text to have a context. In particular we need an orientation in respect of *place*, *time*, *factuality*, and *participant relations*. Let us assume that a lecturer's opening words to an audience were as follows:

In this week's talk, I would like us to examine why some people allege a decline in religious faith.

The basic place and time orientation of the decline in religious faith is entirely covert, but the lecturer knows that his listeners will automatically relate this unlocated, undated decline to their own *here* and *now*. Individuals will naturally vary as to the broadness or narrowness with which they conceive *here* and *now*: this city, this part of the country, this country, here in the world as a whole; now in this present year, this decade, this century. But they will not normally exclude their narrowest concept of 'here' while embracing a wider one, and they will not exclude the present year while embracing the present century.

The same opening sentence could have begun a lecture that was part of a series on eighteenth-century France. In that case, the covert orientation would have been equally automatic and equally essential, but with a *there* and *then* which would have located and dated the alleged decline, while at the same time giving this location and dating an orientation with respect to the (similar or contrasting) *here* and *now* of the audience.

19.16 The example in 19.15 has a bearing upon participant relations in two respects. First, the speaker's personal and functional relation to his audience: he calls his activity a *talk* rather than a *lecture* or *address*, and with polite diffidence (*I would like*) invites his listeners to join him in an inquiry (*I would like us to examine*: *cf* 6.7, 6.18). A more distant lecturer–audience relation would have been set up with:

In this week's lecture, I shall explain why . . .

In either case he feels it relevant to specify the function of his text: *cf* 'Here is an urgent message', 19.12. Secondly, we have the speaker's relation to the rhematic *a decline in religious faith*: he does not commit himself to claiming a decline ('some people' might, but certainly need not, include the speaker) and indeed he hints at the insecurity of the claim by using the verb *allege*. Note the different relation he would have communicated between himself and his subject if he had said he would:

. . . examine why it is believed that there is a decline in religious faith.
or: . . . examine why there is, as we all believe, a decline . . .
or: . . . examine why there is a decline . . .

Basic relational structures

19.17 A text may have one (or more) of an indefinitely large number of purposes: description, persuasion, narrative, etc. Some of these correlate closely with particular connective devices and presentational styles, as we note throughout this book from time to time. Textual functions are too numerous, too fluid, and too interlocking for us to attempt separate treatment in terms of textual form. But irrespective of the various purposes and general intentions of a text, there are a few relationships within texts that constantly recur, which involve particular connective devices, and which are therefore useful to bear in mind as we consider the devices themselves. They can be seen as basic relational structures:

(a) general and particular
(b) progression
(c) compatibility

(a) It is common for a text to proceed from a general point to a particular:

Working in wood calls for great manual skill. The ordinary saw itself is not easy to handle. [1]

But we may equally proceed in the reverse direction:

The ordinary household saw is not easy to use. In fact, any sort of woodwork calls for great manual skill. [1a]

In conversational texts, the second part will often be supplied by another speaker who thus 'cooperates' in forming the text:

A: I must go and do some shopping.
B: Well, don't forget to buy a newspaper. } [general to particular] [2]

A: This chair is a bit wobbly.
B: Well, none of the furniture is very good. } [particular to general] [3]

(b) Whether we are giving instructions, telling a story, or conducting an argument, we are concerned to present the parts of our text so as to show the temporal or inferential relation of one to another:

Get ready: set: go. [4]
While Oscar was asleep, Mrs Pugh was sewing. [5]
This must be the way. I remember that house on the corner. [6]

Some dialogue examples:

A: My shoes are leaking.
B: So you'll be getting them repaired, I suppose. [7]
A: I spoke to Veronica on the phone last night.
B: And? [8]

Conversational explanations often include verbal encouragement such as *you see*, or *if you follow me*, or the like.

(c) Again, irrespective of the type of text, interpretation depends on recognizing whether or not parts are compatible with each other. The relation may be one of *matching*, as in:

The ordinary saw is not easy to use; a plane demands years of practice. [1b]
A: That climb up the mountain was marvellous.
B: The view from the top was glorious, too. [9]

Or the relation may be one of *contrast*:

The ordinary hand drill is not easy to use; this electric type is something any novice can handle. [1c]

Reluctance or inability to recognize compatibility is often expressed by another speaker's interjection beginning 'Sorry, what about . . .' or 'Well, I'm not sure . . .'. We may distinguish 'Sorry!' and 'Sorry?':

SŎRry|

'Sorry!' indicates as here conviction about counter-compatibility. By contrast, 'Sorry?' as in:

SÓRry|

is a request for repetition or explanation, perhaps implying serious doubts about the compatibility between the parts of a text, or merely indicating that something was inaudible.

Likewise, a speaker may help to demonstrate compatibility between one part and another by an explanation or example beginning:

You KNÓW|

or by urging a hearer to acknowledge the compatibility with such an explanation or example preceded by:

YÒU KNÓW|

Discourse strategies

19.18 Relational structures can be realized by a number of discourse designs or strategies that have been well described within the rhetorical tradition since ancient times. Some of the most outstanding may be seen in terms of the following metaphors:

(i) step
(ii) chain
(iii) stack
(iv) balance

(i) The simplest type of exposition is a 'step by step' procedure. It is one that has an obvious appropriateness for instructional material but it is normal also in description, narrative, or argument. The strategy is adequately illustrated by many of the short examples of text already given, but compare also:

The 100-metre race was run immediately after lunch. This was followed by the 400-metre relay. After a brief interlude with an acrobatic display, spectators spread around the track to watch the first cycling event.

Informal spoken narrative of 'step' design often involves repetitious coordination with conjuncts such as *then* or *next*: 'and then . . . and then . . . next there was . . .'

(ii) The chain resembles the step procedure in going from point to point, but whereas in a stepped text it is part of the technique to assure the hearer/reader in advance that the course is unidirectional and the goal planned, with the chain it is equally part of the technique to let it appear that though there are definite links (*cf* 19.11), the direction may curve, the course double back, and the ultimate point be unpredictable. The chain strategy is thus well suited to reflective or exploratory discourse:

Hamlet poignantly represents the indecisions that plague us all. Not that indecision is the worst of our ills. In some ways decisiveness can be more damaging. Many people have decided on their courses of action too rapidly, with disastrous results. Othello is a representative of this tendency, though here we have other factors to consider such as jealousy and the evil influence of a supposed friend. Friendship in itself, of course . . .

Like the step format, the chain is often characteristic of informal speech, where the varied and uncertain progression is acknowledged by sections beginning 'But of course', 'By the way', and the like.

The 'chain' type of structure, while technically well-formed (*eg* in thematic

connection) characterizes desultory informal talk where one topic leads aimlessly to another. It is ridiculed in the following passage from Gilbert Sorrentino's *Mulligan Stew* (1980) where a character is musing on the reason for the late arrival of the police. He imagines their route blocked by a landslide so that they are forced to take the old road running beside the river:

> The narrow bridges, slats missing, are considered by the natives hereabouts to be dangerous, fit only for carefree boys to fish off. They rarely catch any fish, according to Old Cash at the general store. What crackers he has!

While each transition is linguistically explicable, the text wanders helplessly away from the central question of the journey by the police.

(iii) As with the step technique, the stack has a predetermined unity, but instead of a linear progression we have something more like a vertical structure, with a sound foundation (often called the *topic* sentence), an accumulation of 'layers', finally capped by a neat 'roof', securely 'roped down' to the foundations. For example:

> There is something very unsatisfactory about the maxim 'Honesty is the best policy'. It seems to equate virtue with profit, yet our common experience denies this. We could all cite instances of where an honest and virtuous action has brought disappointment and even ruin. We could equally point to people who have behaved with gross dishonesty and have become successful, powerful, wealthy. In any case it is surely rather immoral to incite people to honourable behaviour by seeming to promise reward. Honesty, if it requires a motive, must be valued for reasons other than 'policy'.

Carefully constructed stacks are frequently recommended for *paragraphing* and they cannot be expected in informal conversation, though we often try to impose such a structure by ending a description or argument with a part beginning with a summative conjunct (*cf* 8.137) such as *All in all* . . . or *In short* . . . Alternatively, the conclusion may be an exclamation like:

> What fun it all was! So that's JÒHN for you!

(iv) Like the chain, the balance strategy is particularly suited to reflective and exploratory discourse, but it resembles the stack in the care with which the parts are put together. Plus and minus, hot and cold, are set one beside the other so that the text seems to anticipate objections and crosscurrents raised in the mind of the reader/hearer. In the following example, the balance technique is used within a dominant stack procedure:

> For a spring break, Cumbria is hard to beat. There is of course a strong risk of bad weather during the early months of the year. On the other hand, the early tourist is rewarded by empty roads and the feeling that he has the countryside to himself. Not all the hotels are open, it is true, and you may be obliged to drive on to the next village. But this is well offset by the welcome that awaits you in a guest house where you may turn out to be the only resident. Early visitors to Cumbria rarely regret their initiative.

Balancing is common enough in ordinary conversation, using pointers like 'on the one hand . . . but on the other hand', but ambitious attempts at balance often seem over-formal or even pompous. Informally, a balancing reservation is often introduced by 'Mind you':

I love Cumbria { . Mind YÓU, I don't like the weather!
– not the weather, mind YÓU!

Connective devices

19.19 The relation between parts of a text is achieved by connective features that fall into four categories:

(a) pragmatic and semantic implication
(b) lexical linkage
(c) prosody and punctuation
(d) grammatical devices

Naturally, in a book on grammar, we shall be concentrating on (d), but grammatical devices need to be seen in the context of (a–c) from which they can never in practice be entirely separated. All four types of connective device not merely interact intimately but operate simultaneously. In principle, however, they can usefully be distinguished and we proceed here to examine each in isolation.

(a) Pragmatic and semantic implication

19.20 Consider the following sequence as constituting the beginning of a discourse:

> Have you seen the paper? There's been a plane crash.

Interpretation depends on the institution of the (daily) *newspaper*, on the assumption that most of us regularly see some newspaper or other, and on our referring to it – irrespective of the particular newspaper we may have – as 'the paper' (*cf* 5.28). The connection between the two sentences depends in turn (i) on the convention that a question implies that there is something of special interest to which the speaker wants to draw attention, and (ii) on the plausibility that the following statement summarizes a news item that the speaker has read in the paper. On the other hand, if the second part had continued as:

> . . . which has been completely ignored.

the implication would have been quite different: the speaker's announcement of the plane crash was not derived from the newspaper at all.

We may see the chain-like process of implication more clearly in a further example:

Mr Costello drove to London to take part in an antinuclear demonstration. [1]

As a complete text, this implies of course that Mr Costello did in fact take part in the demonstration and we would be unsurprised if the text continued:

He felt he had done something for peace. [2]

But in fact the continuation might well have been:

On the way, his wife suggested they go to the flower show instead. [2a]

This does not in itself frustrate our interpretation of [1]: it remains plausible, but we now recognize that whereas the direction adjunct (*to London*) in association with the past tense (*drove*) combine to entail in themselves actual arrival (contrast *was driving to London* or *set out for London*), the purpose adjunct in [1] (*to take part in . . .*) merely opens a possibility. He *intended* to take part in the demonstration and the fulfilment of this intention is implied only if nothing is said to the contrary.

Equally, [2a] merely opens an alternative possibility, and in view of this being given expression we are more cautious about assuming the fulfilment of either possibility now before us. With such a further continuation as the following, we conclude that the second possibility was fulfilled, the first tacitly excluded:

There were some of the loveliest chrysanthemums they had ever seen. [3]

But if, instead, [2a] were followed by:

But Mr Costello insisted. [3a]

there would be the implication (but nothing more) that our first interpretation of [1] was sustained. On the other hand, if the continuation were:

In the end, they went window shopping in Regent Street. [3b]

we would know, that neither of the possibilities that had been opened up was actually fulfilled, though both had been equally justified by the grammar and our knowledge of the language. With [3b], furthermore, we find an implication of the discussion and vacillation which led the couple to reject both the original intention [1] and the counter-proposal [2a] – a lengthy process of debate implied by the conjunct *in the end* [3b], at once enumerative, temporal, and summative (*cf* 8.136*f*).

(b) Lexical linkage

19.21 Contrast the following pairs of sentences:

Steve and Deborah are both doctors. She is a New Zealander. [1]
Steve and Deborah are both doctors. She is a surgeon. [2]

In both texts there is thematic connection (*she*; *cf* 19.12), but in [2] there is rhematic connection as well (*cf* 19.14), and this is achieved lexically. The lexical items *doctor* and *surgeon* belong to the same semantic set, the former

being a superordinate term (hypernym) embracing *surgeon*, *pediatrician*, *gynecologist*, etc. Sometimes, lexical linkage is formally overt, as in:

Bill is an old *friend* of mine, but he shouldn't assume that *friendship* excuses rudeness. [3]

But more usually it involves, as in [2], semantic and pragmatic knowledge, not least a familiarity with words and allusions only covertly connected. Consider the relation in the following between *oven* and *baking* on the one hand, and between *fruit*, *Bramley's Seedlings*, and *apple* on the other:

Of all common fruit, Bramley's Seedlings are particularly suitable for baking. After only a short time in the oven, this apple becomes a light fluffy mass. [4]

As always (*cf* 19.19), there are relevant grammatical features as well: the demonstrative *this* links the generic singular *apple* with *Bramley's Seedlings* as though the latter were a singular generic noun phrase, *the* (or *a*) *Bramley's Seedling*.

In the following programme note heard on the radio, pragmatic and lexical linkage are combined in a tactful use of elegant variation which prompts interpretation while avoiding insult to the hearer's assumed knowledge and interpretive skill:

The zoological sequence is called *Cortège d'Orphée*, the music of Orpheus being so attractive that wild animals would follow him. [5]

The adjective *zoological* is related to the noun phrase (*wild*) *animals* in the next clause, while Poulenc's title *Cortège d'Orphée* is 'explained' by linking *sequence*, *attractive*, and *follow* as helpful glosses (like *Orpheus* beside the less familiar *Orphée*) on the French word *cortège*.

Note Lexical linkage involving the shared knowledge of allusion is illustrated in the following piece of dialogue from William Ash's novel *Incorporated* (1980):

'But life itself is like that. No man is an –'
'That's right,' interrupting her while he filled her wine glass. 'We're all isthmuses, and since I can still say "isthmuses", you obviously need a drink'.

The word *island* is so well known in the John Donne quotation that it is left unspoken, but we depend on it for the modified image involving the narrow connection between people expressed by the word *isthmus*. (The repetition of *isthmuses* does not in this case have lexical but phonological relevance, the wittiness of the switch in reference being further endorsed by the switch from the speaker's evident sobriety to the unsupported evidence that his woman companion is equivalently sober.)

Lexicon, shared knowledge, and grammar

19.22 We see, then, that discourse makes considerable use of words having quite general reference in relation to words denoting particularity (*cf* 19.17):

Some *animals* can be trained to use *tableware*. We have probably all seen a *chimpanzee* eating with a *spoon* or drinking from a *cup*. [1]
My *spaniel* was once a keen helper when I went *rabbit shooting*, but I suppose all *dogs* lose their *hunting* ardour as they get older. [2]

But lexical linkage can work through opposition and exclusion as well as through similarity and inclusion. Contrasts may be lexically realized by

reference to *waking* and *sleeping*, *requesting* (*eg*: *beg*) and *granting* (*eg*: *allow*), and in the context of childhood an important opposition exists between *school* and *home*. In the following example, *discrimination* is hypernymic with reference to sex, race, and religion, but the particular items included are related through mutual exclusion:

> There has come to be increasing awareness of discrimination as a worldwide problem. Women have protested that they continue to have fewer rights than men. Blacks are conscious that their white neighbours get better jobs. Protestants in one community feel the odds are against them, while Catholics have a comparable feeling in another, as do Jews in yet another. [3]

As we also saw in 19.21, lexical links may be established not by our knowledge of the language but by additional information fed in by the speaker/writer. Such linkage can provide a chain-like course through a text (*cf* 19.18):

> The Senate last week refused to confirm the nomination of *Judge Robert Palmer*. The *Judge* is a *Californian* with a sound reputation and enjoying state-wide support. The defeat of the *Californian*, well remembered in *Hollywood studios*, is seen as a rebuke to the President. He is known to have given the *ex-actor* a good deal of personal encouragement. [4]

Linkage of a superficially similar kind may depend on the general knowledge of the hearer/reader to fulfil its role:

> In the 1960s the *Beatles* seemed a tightly knit group. The *quartet* developed a style of popular music that was not merely original but which was a product of their close relationship. Yet within a few years, the *Liverpool lads* had gone their separate ways. [5]

If the author had felt less confident about his audience's previously acquired knowledge, he could have prepared for the italicized links in the second and third sentences with an alternative opening such as:

> In the 1960s, the *four Merseyside* Beatles seemed . . . [5a]

Compare also:

> His opening remarks were directed to *flattering his audience by telling them how honoured he was to address such a distinguished gathering*. As he had expected, *this flattery* guaranteed him an attentive and appreciative hearing. [6]

The nominalization *this flattery* not only links with the same lexical base *flatter(ing)* in the preceding sentence: it provides a thematic connection (*cf* 19.12) by acting as a substitute for the whole nonfinite clause that is italicized in the preceding sentence. As such, it in fact requires no specific lexical linkage at all, as we see in the following alternative version:

> In his opening remarks, he *told his audience how honoured he was to address such a distinguished gathering*. As he had expected, *this flattery* . . . [6a]

A combination of lexical meaning, word-formation, and such syntactic processes as nominalization is a valuable resource in textual structure and we return to it in 19.72*ff*.

Lexical recurrence

19.23 Lexical linkage by recurrence of form is generally avoided since lexical items can easily seem obtrusive. The second speaker's remark in the following draws ironic attention to the overuse of one word:

> A: There was a delightful party at my office for the boss's fiftieth birthday. What I found particularly delightful were the speeches. They were delightfully witty.
> B: It all sounds a bit *too* delightful for my taste. [1]

On the other hand, a great deal of lexical recurrence is tolerated in legal language where misinterpretation is of more serious concern than adverse stylistic criticism. The following is from a current domestic insurance policy:

> If at the time of any loss, destruction, or damage arising under this Policy there is any other insurance covering such loss, destruction, or damage, the Company shall not be liable for more than its ratable proportion of such loss, destruction, or damage. [2]

In ordinary language, we would expect the second use of *loss, destruction, or damage* to be replaced by some such hypernym as *misfortunes* (*cf* 19.21) and the third to be pronominalized (*them*). But even in language that is being used in a less specialized way, repetition is common enough to convey emphasis. A tone of impatience in rejecting an accusation is noticeable in the following exchange:

> A: |Why weren't you kinder to your sìster|
> B: |But I WÀS kind to my sister| I |gave PRÈSents to my sister| I |introduced FRÌENDS to my sister| I |washed CLÒTHES for my sister| [3]

This example is presented in prosodic form to show the way in which the four repetitions of *my sister* have no nucleus, being treated as 'given' (*cf* 18.8), just as it would be if it had been replaced pronominally, *(to) her*. Repetition in ordinary discourse also occurs to indicate the repetition, extent, or confirmation of a phenomenon (*cf* 13.78, 13.101):

> The only remedy is work, work, work. [4]
> Everywhere I looked, there were children, children. [5]
> She screamed and screamed for hours. [6]
> She is very, very intelligent. [7]
> A lovely, lovely chrysanthemum. [8]

Note Not only do we tend to avoid lexical repetition in dialogue but an attempt is often made to replace an item by one of heightened meaning, rather than by a mere synonym. This again illustrates 'cooperation' in dialogue texts. For example, note the way emphatic agreement and assertion are expressed in [9] and [10] respectively:

> A: Isn't it a *lovely* day? B: *Gorgeous*! [9]
> A: Are you *sure* you've got the key? B: *Positive*! [10]

General hypernyms

19.24 Many lexical items are used hypernymically rather in the manner of pronouns and other substitutes. They thus have a quasi-grammatical function, as can be seen in the italicized examples in the following:

The mayor's procession is very colourful and attracts many tourists and other spectators. The *event* always *occurs* on a Saturday. [1]

Thousands were out of work; there was hunger, anger, and unrest. The *situation* required careful handling. [2]

The *thing* that amused me most was her remark about her brother's swimming. [3]

The candidate decided to support the building of another atomic power station. This is what the party leader had *done* at the previous election. But it turned out to be an unpopular *issue*. [4]

Compare also *field*, *set-up*, *problem*, *subject*, *matter*, and such verbs as *happen*, *take place*.

Note Being more obtrusive than closed-class items such as pronouns, demonstratives, and the pro-verb *do* etc, such hypernyms are liable to attract criticism when overused. This is particularly so of nouns like *issue*, *position*, *situation*, when premodified. Critics often feel (with some justification) that 'the weather situation', 'a strike situation', 'the women's lib issue', 'the Northern Ireland problem' mean little more than *the weather*, *a strike*, *women's lib*, and *Northern Ireland*. But if we consider the following comment in a radio broadcast:

In view *of the weather situation*, many flights are being postponed. [5]

we see that the italicized phrase means much more than 'the weather' (*ie* what the weather actually is). It includes far more general allusion to the probabilities, the forecasts, the implications that have been set forth in an earlier part of the text.

Nonetheless, some uses of common hypernyms are avoidable clichés and are justified – if at all – only as a form of hackneyed 'elegant variation':

Mabel told me with evident pride that she was pregnant again. *The happy event* will take place in March. [6]

(c) Prosody and punctuation

19.25 Consider the written sequence:

I smiled at the supervisor and she greeted me. [1]

It would be possible to utter this with two sharply different prosodic realizations reflecting different interpretations and different bases of linkage:

. . . and she GRÈETed me [1a]
. . . and SHĚ greeted MĚ [1b]

In [1a], there is lexical contrast between the two parts; a verbal greeting is indicated: something actually heard in contrast to the silent smile in the first part of the text. In [1b], *greeted* is merely a lexical variant of *smiled*: the smile was a greeting and there was a similar silent greeting in response. This is prosodically indicated by *greeted* having no intonational prominence; it is 'given' informationally (*cf* 18.8), whereas in [1a] *greeted* is contrastive and 'new', as is indicated by the intonational nucleus. In [1b] what is new is neither the participants nor the verbal action but only the reciprocation; the roles are reversed and hence the subject and object pronouns are intonationally

highlighted. But the endings of both [1a] and [1b] are equally dependent in their different ways on the preceding parts to which they are linked.

While there is a direct relation between speech *and writing*, as also (broadly) between prosodic features of speech and the punctuation devices of writing, the former must be given precedence in each case. In fact, as we see from [1] above, it is impossible to understand a written text until we assign to it a prosody – whether we take it in silently or read it aloud.

Since such prosodic features as stress, rhythm, and intonation have to do with information processing (*cf* 18.2–19, App II), and since the linkage between the parts of a text reflects the buildup of information (*cf* 19.12), it follows that prosody is a vitally important factor in textual coherence.

Note An example follows which shows the interaction of prosody with lexical linkage and which also demonstrates implication of a connection between meaning and linguistic form (alliteration and prosodic as well as grammatical shape: *grandest*, *greatest*):

It has been said that Schubert's Ninth Symphony is his Eroica. As in Beethoven's master work, we seem to hear the artist at his grandest if not greatest. [2]

The text depends of course on our knowing that the Eroica is a composition by Beethoven, and it consequently requires us to recognize a relation that may be represented as follows:

as Ninth *is to* Schubert *so is* Eroica *to* Beethoven

The phrase *master work* is thus 'given' (*cf* 18.8) and is a replacement for *Eroica* (elegant variation and hypernymic; *cf* 19.24); as such, this phrase must be downgraded prosodically, the premodifier (*Beethoven's*) taking a nucleus to show the link with Eroica and the contrast with Schubert:

. . . is his ERÒica. As in BĚETHOven's master work . . . [2a]

The lexical independence of prosody

19.26 The central place of prosodic features is emphasized throughout this book, and in the present chapter they are best illustrated along with the grammatical features they accompany. But we should note that prosodic variables are to some extent quite independent of the particular words used – and indeed no actual words need be used.

It is a characteristic of even the most one-sided dialogue that the speaker expects a prosodic response, even if it is realized with oral support that does not include institutional 'words':

A: So I told him that it was none of his business and that I would do as I pleased.
B: |M̀| [1]

A: After all, it's not as if I still owed him money.
B: |Ḿ| [2]

A: I repaid him that money I borrowed – well, nearly all of it, so I'm no longer under any obligation to him.
B: |M̌| [3]

In [1], B is assuring A with his falling tone that he follows (and perhaps agrees with) what A is saying. In [2], however, the rising tone indicates surprise or a question or some form of challenge; it is apparently enough to divert A from his thread of discourse to tell B about the loan repayment. In [3], B's fall-rise indicates understanding, but with only qualified assent, and A's next utterance might well go further into the morality of the position as he sees it. All three of B's contributions are textually important and in some

circumstances their absence would bring the discourse to a halt: A would be puzzled, or he might be offended, at B's silence. On the telephone, he would have interrupted himself to ask 'Are you still there?' or 'Can you hear me all right?'

19.27 Irrespective of response-dependence (and in radio discourse, no response is usually possible), a speaker prosodically empathizes with the hearer in numerous ways. Pauses are helpfully introduced after completing a significant information unit; this indicates the end of what may be called a prosodic 'paragraph', and such a termination will be marked by being given a specially long curve to an intonation nucleus (usually a fall). Or a pause may be introduced immediately before a lexical item which the speaker feels may be unfamiliar or which he wishes to be heard clearly:

> The library has hundreds of extremely valuable books including several [*pause*] incuNÀBula. [1]

By contrast he may tactfully increase the tempo over parts of his discourse that he expects will be particularly familiar or which he modestly wishes to be treated as rather unimportant. As with B in [3] of 19.26, a speaker will use a fall-rise to hint at reservation and uncertainty, so that a contrast would be heard with the all-embracing summative conjunct (*cf* 8.139) in:

> On the WHÓLE| my childhood was a happy one. [2]
> On the WHŎLE| my childhood was a happy one. [3]

In [2] we have a confident statement, in [3] it is hedged with some doubt. A rising tone will especially be heard however to indicate clearly that something is to follow: a main clause, a further item in a list, and the like. It will also be used in direct appeals for the listener's cooperation and understanding, in such cases the rise being rather narrow (*cf* App II.15) and each appeal having lower prominence (*cf* App II.9) than the surrounding text.

For example:

> I had no idea where she had gone, you |SÉE| – and I could hardly wait there all night, |M̀| [4]

One final general point may be made. We saw in 19.26 that prosodic features could be used without actual words. In a similar way, prosody enables us to dispense with words that would be necessary for clarity in a written version of the same text. The two following utterances are obviously very different:

> And so it's just possible that she's ill. [5]
> And so she may be actually ill. [6]

A single string of fewer words could convey the difference by assigning different prosody:

> And so she MĂY be ill| [5a]
> And so she may be ÌLL| [6a]

Punctuation

The paragraph

19.28 Although in this book we repeatedly emphasize the primacy of speech over writing, and of prosody over punctuation, we have to recognize that many types of text take shape first on paper and have their normal realization in graphic form. Punctuation thus has a greater interest for the study of texts than for linguistics as a whole, where it can be generally looked upon as a surrogate and a rather inadequate substitute for the range of phonologically realized prosodic features at our disposal.

In considering the grammatical system of English, we think in terms of such units as sentence, clause, and phrase. We noted earlier (*cf* 19.9) that from a textual viewpoint, however, such distinctions are not particularly relevant: the difference between sentence and clause, for example. What is more significant is that there are textual units that cannot be recognized at all in grammar, and only the smallest of them can be recognized prosodically as units. Written texts may be in volumes, parts, chapters, sections; and few are so short as not to comprise more than one paragraph (itself a unit only uncertainly matched in prosodic terms). And this is to ignore such well-established genres of literary texts as the epic poem, the lyric, the play, the short story, the novel. Anthony Powell's novel, *Dance to the Music of Time*, comprises twelve volumes, each of which can itself be read as a complete novel.

We shall shortly come to consider sub-paragraph textual units, but first we should note that the decision as to where to impose paragraph boundaries is by no means self-evident or unequivocal. Yet a paragraph has on the one hand a relatively strong sense of internal coherence and on the other a relatively loose linkage with the textual material before and after it. Consider the following fragment of text:

> . . . and that was how I came to have some weeks observing the behaviour of their eight-year-old son. He broke eggs on the carpet. He twisted his kitten's tail till it mewed in anguish. He put garbage in his parents' bed and burned holes in his sister's clothes. (i) He was extraordinarily [*adjective*]. (ii) His parents intended to send him to a special school . . .

According to the adjective we supply at the bracketed segment, we can see that either (i) or (ii) could be a fitting place to begin a new paragraph.

If the adjective is *wicked*, *naughty*, *ill-behaved*, we might well start a new paragraph at (ii). The preceding part would have had a stack-like structure (*cf* 19.18) and the sentence 'He was extraordinarily ill-behaved' would fittingly round it off with a rather self-evident conclusion.

If, on the other hand, the adjective is *intelligent*, *gifted*, *musical*, or some other item not suggested by the account of his behaviour, then (i) would be a fitting – one might say essential – point at which to begin a new paragraph. This would reveal a totally different aspect of the boy and the text might go on to describe the special school at which his intelligence or other positive gifts could be suitably developed.

The sentence

19.29 In an analogous way, the decision to divide a paragraph into orthographic sentences depends on how the writer wishes these smaller sections of his text to be seen in relation to each other: intimately linked as though naturally indissociable (no punctuation); closely associated but separate (comma or semicolon, according to degree); relatively separate (pointed as independent sentences). Compare the different implications of the following:

I saw Miriam and Walter. [1]
I saw Miriam, and Walter. [2]
I saw Miriam – and Walter! [3]
I saw Miriam. And Walter. [4]

In [1], the normal and expected form, it seems to be suggested that Miriam and Walter are a couple who regularly appear together. This is not so in [2–4], where the punctuation may carry various implications according to the larger context. In [2], the two persons are being listed; in [3], the sight of Walter in addition to Miriam is given special and dramatic significance; in [4], the second person seems to be mentioned as an afterthought. But the suggested motivations for [3] and [4] might be expressed by either of the punctuation forms according to the taste of the writer or his belief in their communicative impact on the reader. Since (as we see in App III) punctuation is subject to fairly rigorous convention, many writers hesitate to show individuality, originality, or rhetorical effects by this means. Instead they will select grammatical constructions and carefully selected lexical items which they hope may achieve effects that in speech would be without difficulty indicated by prosodic features. In any event, aural realization cannot be disregarded. Even the silent reading of a typically paper-originating text (such as a legal document) demands the assignment of speech prosodies as an aid to understanding. The careful writer does not forget this, and punctuation choices are made (along with grammatical and lexical ones) in the hope of providing the reader with the cues necessary for assigning the prosody that the writer would himself have used in uttering his text aloud.

But as readers we have an obligation too. In listening to a spoken text, we automatically respond to the prosodic features that help to mould its structure. When we read, we have to create those prosodic features from the visual print. Stumbling as we read is a common experience: the further context then tells us of an earlier misinterpretation and we have to go back and reread a portion of the text, redistributing our imagined internal stresses and nuclei. Sometimes the fault is in the ineptness of the writer, but often it lies in our lack of sympathetic alertness to the textual structure in front of us.

Note Novelists and poets are more often prepared than other writers to be unconventional in their punctuation and hence to make their text easier to interpret prosodically. Consider the following passage from Peter Straub's *Ghost Story* (1979). A woman is announcing to a lover that she is returning to her husband (Ricky):

I think it is time I retired into respectability. And. If you cannot see that Ricky has four or five times your significance, then you are deluding yourself. [5]

The one-word sentence *And* functions as a heavy additive conjunct (*cf* 8.138; perhaps equivalent to *moreover* in a formal style). It is only by making it a sentence that the writer is able to ensure that we read it in the way it would have sounded in speech:

. . . into respectabiLity|| |ÄND| If |you 'cannot sEE| . . . [5a]

(d) Grammatical devices

19.30 We shall deal with some of the many relevant aspects of grammar in textual structure under the following main heads:

(i) Place and time relators
(ii) Tense, aspect, and narrative structure
(iii) Determiners, pro-forms, and ellipsis
(iv) Discourse reference
(v) The textual role of adverbials
(vi) Coordination and subordination
(vii) The part played by questions
(viii) Participant involvement
(ix) Information processing

Place and time relators

19.31 In 19.15 we stressed that textual structure requires firm orientation in respect to place and time. Let us assume that an acquaintance tells us:

Long ago, I lived in the Far East. My father worked at a naval base. I went back to look at our old home soon after the Navy had withdrawn. [1]

In addition to the *here* and *now* of the speaker and hearer, one other location in space and two other 'locations' in time are mentioned; and the speech participants relate themselves to these locations:

Fig 19.31

Taking A as 'here and now', this involves imagining a remote place where, for a relatively long time span in the past 'D', there had existed a naval base. Within that period, for a shorter but equally unspecified stretch of time 'B', the speaker had lived there. And between the times B and A, there is a time 'C' (narratively represented as without duration) when the speaker went back to the Far East but when the naval base no longer functioned.

In even so simple a narrative text, we should note the adequacy of the space and time references in providing the orientation, and yet the imprecision of these references: no actual locations that one could point to on a map, no actual dates. Note also the implicit relation to *here* and *now*: the 'Far East' is *far* only from (say) Britain, and is *east* only in relation to somewhere in the west; the time is 'long ago' only in relation to 'now' – it was itself 'now' when the speaker lived in the Far East.

Place relators

19.32 It is from the linguistic signs for spatial reference that we derive expressions for the most abstract relations such as time (*cf* 4.2*ff*, 8.75). Yet although physical location is essential for orientation in discourse, grammatical correlates to physical location are relatively meagre. Shifts or distinctions within space tend to be expressed by location-specific lexical items or even proper nouns (place-names, for example). Note the heavy dependence on lexical items in the following familiar spatial distinctions, where the relatively grammatical (*ie* generalizable) items are italicized:

within my apartment – *through* the hall – *into* the kitchen – *inside* the bedroom – *part of* the bedroom ceiling
Hampstead – *out of* the underground station – *up* Heath Street – *beyond* White Stone Pond – *to* Jack Straw's Castle
New York – going *upstate* – *along* the Hudson – *near* the Catskills – *from* Poughkeepsie – *all the way past* Kingston

Nonetheless, as we saw in 8.39*ff*, certain spatial relations are firmly linked to grammatical expressions which are heavily exploited in textual structure. Thus an opening question or statement will normally involve reference to location in space (as well as in time):

Where are you going tonight? [1]
It's ages since I was *over there*. [2]
On Tuesday evening, I was *at the front door* talking to a caller. Suddenly we heard a crash and two cars collided *just opposite*. We hurried *across* to see if we could help. One driver was scrambling *out*, bleeding profusely, and my visitor helped him *over* to the pavement. Then *along* came some people, running *up the street*. I dashed *back in* and phoned for help. When I went *out* again, the other driver was trying to move his car *down the road* a little and *in to the side*. [3]

In all three examples, spatial reference is essential, as well as orientation to the participants' *here* (*cf* 19.31): *where* in [1] entails a *here* from which to set out; *over there* in [2] entails 'in contrast to here'. But let us look more closely at the part played by spatial reference in [3], both in respect to orientation and to the structure of the narrative.

Even totally out of context, the institutionalized phrase *at the front door* would be understood as referring to the main entrance of the speaker's home, whether this was a house or a small apartment. Likewise, *just opposite* is at once understood as *just opposite* to where the speaker and his visitor were standing. A road is implied by the car crash and in this context *across* means 'across the intervening space (of footpath and street)'. The *back in* signifies a return across this intervening space and *into* the speaker's home. The two instances of *out* are of sharply different reference: the first refers implicitly to emergence from the car, the second to re-emergence from the speaker's home (thus correlating with the earlier *back in*). The contrasting phrases *up (the street)* and *down (the road)* are interesting in making spatial reference not necessarily in terms of relative elevation (though this is not excluded). The immediate contrast is in terms of orientation again: *up* indicating an approach towards the speaker (and his home), *down* indicating the converse (*cf* 9.24). The cluster of spatial references provides a continuous set of coordinates in relation to a base (the speaker's home, though this is merely a pragmatic implication) as well as a coherent account of the movements involved in the narrative.

Note In a text where it was known that a physical slope was involved, *up/down (the street)* would be used with respect to this absolute and objective physical feature, and it would outweigh personal orientation. The latter could then be expressed by alternative means: 'She *went (away)* up the street'; 'They *came* down the street'. Contrast also: 'They hurried *up* Fifth Avenue' (*ie* away from 'downtown' Manhattan); 'They sauntered *down* Fifth Avenue' (*ie* towards downtown Manhattan); 'They walked *along* Fifth Avenue' (neutral as to direction).

Elliptical, lexical, and grammatical indicators

19.33 Where place relators operate in text structure, ellipsis is often involved (*cf* 12.47*ff*):

He examined the car. The *front* was slightly damaged. [1]
The building was heavily guarded by police. The windows {on the *top storey* / at the *top*} were covered with boards. [2]

The ellipted items in [1] and [2] are *of the car* and *of the building* respectively. Often the ellipted items are not in the previous context, but are understood from the situational context (either accompanying the communication or established by the communication):

The traffic lights eventually changed. He walked *across* quickly. [3]

Across here implies *the road* or some similar noun phrase (*cf* 9.66, 19.32).

A few place adverbs do not involve ellipsis: *here*, *there*, *elsewhere*, the relative *where*, and (in formal contexts) *hence*, *thence*, *hither*, and *thither*. They are pro-forms:

The school laboratory reeked of ammonia. *Here*, during the first week of the term, an unusual experiment was conducted. [4]
All my friends have been to Paris at least once. I am going *there* next summer for the first time. [5]

Here in [4] is a substitute for *in the school laboratory* and *there* in [5] for *to Paris*.

Note [a] *Elsewhere* differs from the other substitutes in indicating that the places under consideration are other than those previously mentioned.
[b] In sentences like *Stand there* and *Here it is*, the pro-forms may refer directly to the situational contexts without any linguistic mention of location; *cf* 19.34.

19.34 Place relators often comprise two components. Most commonly these are a dimension or direction indicator plus a location indicator (*cf* 9.13*ff*). The latter is usually an open-class noun (or proper noun), but its locational use is often institutionalized, making the whole expression quasi-grammatical. Examples:

at the window	in town
on the ceiling	off work
in the air	on board
at the seaside	on the way

Another common type of pairing is a distance indicator plus a dimension indicator; for example:

(not) far / further / farther + { in / out / off / away / from }

nearer + { in / to + Noun Phrase }

high(er) + up

low(er) + down

close + { by / to + Noun Phrase }

But note, in relation to the last example listed, that marine usage permits the absence of the noun phrase complement:

I shouted to attract her attention and she brought the boat *close to* so that I was able to jump on. [1]

Also in marine usage are *on board*, *aboard*, and *ashore* (though the first is also used of aircraft):

Are you coming { *on board* / *aboard* } or are you staying *ashore*? [2]

The partially antonymous *home* and *abroad* are exceptional (with *ashore* for example) in combining the dimension and locational factors:

After being *out* for a couple of hours, I'm now { going / staying } *home* for the evening. [reference to personal residence] [3]

After { living / being / going } *abroad*, I like to { come / be } *home* for a year or so. [reference to native *country*] [4]

In addition to their use as pro-forms, *here* and *there* can have purely situational reference, with orientation to the speaker:

I'm glad to welcome you *here* and I'd like to introduce two friends who are sitting (over) *there*. [5]

Note Locational connections in relation to coherence are not merely a necessary feature of individual texts. It is customary in newspapers to group the otherwise separate news-item texts on a regional basis. So too in radio broadcasts, a place relator may serve to give some kind of coherence to otherwise unrelated stories. There has developed a curious (and to many an objectionable) practice of drawing attention to the connection by giving prominence to a normally unstressed preposition. For example:

I |put it TÒ the 'President| [6]

There'll be some |black 'ice ÒN 'some 'roads| [7]

The practice is criticized in such instances for being vacuous at best, misleading at worst (in suggesting a contrastive denial: 'not just NĚAR some roads but ÒN some roads'), but it is sometimes defended as conferring a liveliness and informality. What seems to be true, at any rate, is that where a prepositional phrase has to carry the information focus, a focus on the prepositional complement may often imply unwanted emphasis or contrast. The complement may for example be contextually 'given' (*cf* an infinitive example, 9.9). In such instances, movement of the focus to the preposition may be preferable, especially if – as in the instances above – no contrast is plausible. Furthermore, we should compare:

The car was at the corner. [8]

The car was at *or near the corner*. [8a]

Trains to the city are delayed. [9]

Trains to and from the city are delayed [9a]

Here in [8a] and [9a] both the prepositions carry some emphasis.

An example from broadcast news:

They are worried that another strike could break out in the United States similar *to the one that affected Canada's economy so seriously two years ago.*

ÌN CÁNada news is coming in of a plane accident near Toronto. The aircraft, a privately owned four-seater . . . [10]

The textual justification is that a main focus on *Canada* would be misleading since *Canada* is in some sense already 'given'. As explained above, this accounts for the prosodic highlighting of minor (especially closed-class) grammatical items more generally. For example:

Marion wants to read the book, so you should give it TÒ Marion. [11]

Here the speaker has chosen not to pronominalize the second use of *Marion*, but the focus cannot be placed on the name since it has already been given. At the same time, the speaker has chosen wisely not to move the focus to the next preceding lexical item *give* since emphasis on this word might be understood as conferring the literal sense of 'make a gift'. A focus is needed, and we are left with no other option than *to* (*cf* also 18.14).

Time relators

19.35 Like space, time has its lexically specific and labelled 'areas' and 'locations'. Along with open-class nouns, some of them – like places – are treated as proper nouns: *century*, *decade*, *year*, *1985*, *January*, *week*, *day*, *Thursday*, *evening*, etc. Again like units of space, these nouns have an institutionalized and hence quasi-grammatical use. Specifically, in addition to being used as subjects and objects in clause structure, they are used in (and indeed as) adverbials and they thus lend themselves to the connections and transitions of textual structure:

I've been working on this problem *all year* and I must find a solution *before January* when I'm due to go abroad *for a month or so*. [1]

Nouns of more general meaning are still more firmly harnessed for grammatical use:

I've been working *a long time*. [2]

I'm going abroad *for a while*. [3]

She hasn't visited me *for ages*. [4]

In addition, therefore, to closed-class items like *afterwards*, we take account here of numerous open-class words which, though with clear lexical meaning, are largely used in the constant process of keeping track of the many and complex references that are necessary in coherent text. Since time passes irrespective of location (which need not change), temporal cues to periods, and to references *before*, *after*, *within*, and *during* these periods, are more inherently essential than locational cues.

Once a time reference has been established, certain temporal adjectives and adverbs may order subsequent information in relation to the time

reference. Three major divisions of time relationship may be set up, and examples will be given of adjectives and adverbials that signal the relationships:

(i) Temporal ordering previous to
(ii) Temporal ordering simultaneous with } a given time reference
(iii) Temporal ordering subsequent to

On all three, *cf* further 8.51*ff*, 8.97*f*, 8.134*ff*.

Temporal ordering

19.36 (i) Temporal ordering previous to a given time reference:

ADJECTIVES

earlier, former, preceding, previous, prior

For example:

He handed in a good essay. His *previous* essays were all poor. [1]

The implication of *previous* is 'previous to the good essay just mentioned'.

ADVERBIALS

already, as yet, before, beforehand, earlier, first, formerly, hitherto ⟨formal⟩, *previously, so far, yet*; and phrases with pro-forms: *before that, before this, before now, before then, by now, by then, until now, until then, up to now, up to then*

For example:

I shall explain to you what happened. But *first* I must give you a cup of tea. [2]

First is to be interpreted here as 'before I explain to you what happened'. Compare also '*On the eve* (of the celebration)' [= 'on the day before'].

(ii) Temporal ordering simultaneous with a given time reference;

ADJECTIVES

coexisting ⟨formal⟩, *coinciding* ⟨formal⟩, *concurrent* ⟨formal⟩, *contemporary, contemporaneous* ⟨formal⟩, *simultaneous*

For example:

The death of the President was reported this afternoon on Cairo radio. A *simultaneous* announcement was broadcast from Baghdad. [3]

Simultaneous means 'simultaneous with the report of the death of the President on Cairo radio'.

ADVERBIALS

at this point, concurrently ⟨formal⟩, *contemporaneously* ⟨formal⟩, *here, in the interim* ⟨formal⟩, *meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, now, presently, simultaneously, then, throughout*, and the relative *when*

For example:

Several of the conspirators have been arrested but their leader is as yet unknown. *Meanwhile* the police are continuing their investigation into the political sympathies of the group. [4]

Meanwhile means 'from the time of the arrests up to the present'.

Note [a] The use of *presently* for time relationship (ii), with the meaning 'now', 'at present', is very common in AmE. In BrE, *presently* is more commonly synonymous with *soon*.
[b] An example of *here* as time indicator:
I've now been lecturing for over an hour. I'll stop *here* since you all look tired. [5]

19.37 (iii) Temporal ordering subsequent to a given time reference:

ADJECTIVES

ensuing ⟨formal⟩, *following, later, next, subsequent* ⟨formal⟩, *succeeding* ⟨formal⟩, *supervening* ⟨formal⟩

For example:

I left him at 10 p.m. and he was almost asleep. But at some *later* hour he must have lit a cigarette. [1]

Here *later* might mean 11 p.m., but equally 4 a.m., a time otherwise called 'the *early* hours of the morning'.

ADVERBIALS

after, afterwards, (all) at once, finally, immediately, last, later, next, since, subsequently ⟨formal⟩, *suddenly, then*; and the phrases *after that, after this, on the morrow* ['the day after']

For example:

The manager went to a board meeting this morning. He was *then* due to catch a train to London. [2]

Then here means 'after the board meeting'. The temporal adverb *again* could be accommodated in this category. It is equivalent to 'another time', *ie* a time additional to one previously mentioned:

He told her what he thought of her. He didn't speak to her *again*. [3]

Words with temporal significance do not always have a connective function. Often the time reference is not explicitly mentioned in preceding sentences. Thus, if somebody says:

Mr Johnson's *previous* wife died last year. [4]

there need not have been any prior mention of the subsequent or present wife. The fact that Mr Johnson had been married before may be assumed as known to the hearer.

Note [a] *Anew* and *afresh* are synonyms of *again* and *once more*, but are rare and formal.
[b] Several compound adverbs that can be classed in (iii) are found only in certain formal varieties of contemporary English: *henceforth, henceforward, hereupon, thenceforward, thereafter, thereupon, whereupon*.

19.38 The ordinals constitute a temporal series of adjectives *first, second, third* . . . with *next* as a substitute for any of the middle terms when moving up the series, and *final* or *last* as a substitute for the term marking the end of the series. There is a corresponding series of conjuncts with *first* (also *at first* and, less commonly, *firstly*) as the beginning of the set; *secondly*, etc; *next, then, later, afterwards*, as interchangeable middle terms; and *finally, lastly*, or *eventually* as markers of the end of the set (*cf* general ordinals, 4.22).

Tense, aspect, and narrative structure

19.39 The many lexical and grammatical items we have been considering in 19.35*ff* provide fine distinctions in time relationships. But, as a further indication of the importance of time in language, all finite clauses (and many nonfinite ones) carry a discrete indication of tense and aspect. Although the contrasts involved are severely limited in comparison with adverbial distinctions, they contribute to the textual cohesion and progression, and of course they cannot be absent. Compare the different implications in the second part of what follows:

She told me all about the operation on her hip.
It seemed to have been a success. [1]
It seems to have been a success. [2]

In [1], in accordance with our expectations with respect to sequence of tenses and backshift (*cf* 14.31), the past ties the second part to the first, as though both parts derive their authority from the woman concerned: '*It seemed to her* . . .'; that is, '*She* was of the opinion that the operation had been successful'. The possibility of repudiation is therefore open: 'Unfortunately, this is not so'. In [2], by contrast, the present disjoins the second part and implies an orientation to the 'I' narrator: 'It seems *to me* . . .', '*I* am of the opinion . . .'

Alternation of past and present in this way is a regular mode of switching reference from the 'then' of the narrative reference to the 'now' of both the narrator and the hearer or reader (some items like parenthetic *you see* being confined to this 'now'):

As a child, I lived in Singapore. It's very hot there, you *know*, and I never owned an overcoat. I *remember* being puzzled at picture books showing European children wrapped up in heavy coats and scarves. I *believe* I thought it all as exotic as children here *think* about spacemen's clothing, you *see*. [3]

Consider now the instances of past tense in this text: *lived, owned, thought*. Not merely are these verbs morphologically identical: the text actually represents the past as being referentially identical. All the verbs refer back to a stretch of time during which these things were true:

Fig 19.39

19.40 But past tenses need refer neither to the same time nor to stretches of time. With verbs which connote discrete actions, a narrative string of past tenses will be interpreted as referring to a sequence of events iconically represented by the sequence of verbs. For example:

Do you want to hear about my adventures last Thursday? I *got up* at six, *had* some coffee, *kissed* my wife goodbye, and *set off* for Rome. I *took* a taxi and then the underground, *arrived* at Heathrow, *started* to check in my case, *patted* my pocket and *found* – no ticket, no passport. *Picked up* my case, *caught* the underground, *got* another taxi, *arrived* at my front door, *rushed in*, and of course *gave* my poor wife the shock of her life. [1]

We now have a very different diagram:

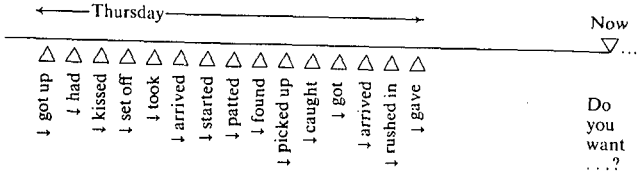

Fig 19.40

Note [a] While a sequence of past tenses implies sequential events if the lexical meaning of the verb makes this plausible as in [2], a sequence of past verbs with progressive aspect (*cf* 4.25*ff*) can imply simultaneity, as in [3]:

René raged with anger. Janet went out for the evening. [2]
René was raging with anger. Janet was going out for the evening. [3]

[b] Use of the past perfective can enable us to reverse the order of sentences in a text (*cf* 4.24). Note the way in which 'Time One' [T_1] precedes T_2 in [4] where T_2 precedes T_1 in [5]:

There was a sudden violent noise outside [T_1]. John telephoned the police [T_2]. [4]
John telephoned the police [T_2]. There had been a sudden violent noise outside [T_1]. [5]

Tense complexity in narrative

19.41 More usually, however, texts comprise much greater time-reference complexity than the examples in 19.39*f* show. They will have a mixture of state verbs and discrete-action verbs; the narrative will weave backwards and forwards, a mixture of tenses and aspects, of finite and nonfinite clauses enabling the narrator to depart from the linear sequence of historical order so as both to vary the presentation and to achieve different (*eg* dramatic) effects:

I was reading Chaucer's *Troilus* the other night, and it suddenly occurred to me to wonder what Chaucer {expects / expected} us to make of the fact that Criseyde {has / had} been widowed whereas Troilus {has / had} never even been in love. Surely this is significant, yet I had never thought of it before. [1]

Here we have the additional complication of a narrative about a narrative within a narrative:

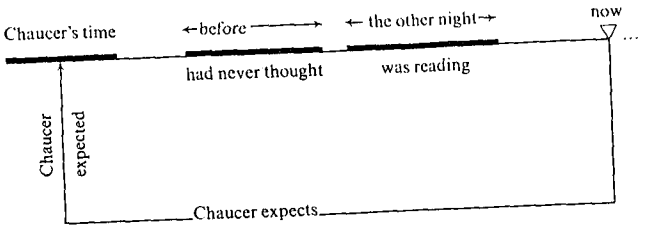

Fig 19.41a

The account of the narrator's reading and reflection is itself of some complexity: within a period in the past, a durative activity (*reading*) is represented as being interrupted by a sudden thought. But the thought had significance not merely at the time of thinking it nor merely during the rest of the reading period; it is represented as being permanently significant. The appeal to the hearer ('Surely . . .') does not connote that *is* refers only to the *now* of the speaker and hearer; there is no room for some such adverbial as *at present*:

*Surely this is *at present* significant.

The narrator is here using the present tense of timeless reference (*cf* 4.2*ff*). It is the potentiality for such a use of the present that made us give the two possibilities, 'Chaucer expects' and 'Chaucer expected'. The latter takes the historical view: a comment on the poet as he wrote in the fourteenth century. The former treats the Chaucer canon as timeless, permanently existing.

An analogous choice exists in referring to the fictional narrative of Chaucer's poem:

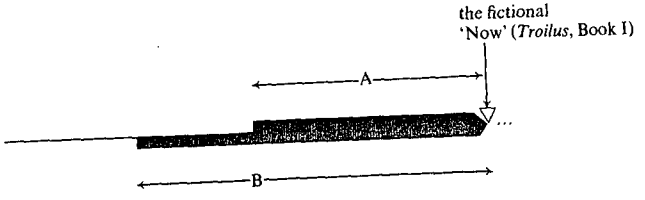

Fig 19.41b

'A' represents the (unknown) period during which Criseyde has been a widow when the poem begins; 'B' represents the longer period (in effect, Troilus's whole life) during which Troilus has never been in love. It will be noticed that in this commentary we have adopted the 'timeless' view of the fiction ('when the poem *begins*, Criseyde *has been* a widow for some time'). In the original example [1], the past variant was also given, implying a retelling of the story ('When Troilus first *saw* Criseyde, she *had been* a widow for some time').

Special uses of present and past

19.42 We have seen that the present tense can cooccur in textual structure with two distinct types of time references: ordinary 'state present' and universal 'state present' ('timeless'; *cf* 4.5):

> I *think* she had undergone an operation before I met her. [1]
> Troilus *is* totally fancy-free until he *sees* Criseyde. [2]

A third type of present, 'habitual' (*cf* 4.6), is common in ordinary narrative, and it can readily coóccur with past tenses:

> I had forgotten that they *dine* very early and I arrived at an awkward moment for both them and me. [3]

But there is a further use of the present tense: the so-called 'historic present' (*cf* 4.8). As well as occurring in rather mannered and formal prose of an old-fashioned tone, it is common in colloquial spoken narrative, especially at points of particular excitement. The time reference is unequivocally past. For example:

> It was on the Merritt Parkway just south of New Haven. I was driving along, half asleep, my mind miles away, and suddenly there was a screeching of brakes and I catch sight of a car that had been overtaking me apparently. Well, he doesn't. He pulls in behind me instead, and it's then that I notice a police car parked on the side. [4]

Note In nonstandard speech, the reporting verb in narrative is often in the historic present:
> 'Where did you put my coat?' he says. 'I never touched it,' I says. [5]

19.43 As well as being able to use the present tense to refer to the past, we can conversely use the past to refer to a narrator's 'now', exploiting that form of backshift that is referred to as free direct and indirect speech (*cf* 14.28, 14.35). Textual cohesion and congruity of reference are maintained by careful consistency of tense and aspect usage, present replaced by past, past by past perfective, even in the prolonged absence of reminders to the hearer/reader in the form of reporting verbs ('He reflected . . .', 'She said . . .'). In the following example, an entire paragraph coheres in this way, but the end of the preceding paragraph is quoted with the reporting verb (*recalled*) as a cue. The past with this verb is the normal past used by any narrator for the story that is being told and which is necessarily in the past for both narrator and hearer/reader. From this point onwards, however, the past refers to the recreated 'present' of the character whose reflections are recalled: they are reasonably referred to as occurring 'now' (the final word of the introductory paragraph), in a sentence which we reconstruct for ourselves as 'Well, what *does* it work out to *now*?'

> . . . He recalled vaguely that they had talked at one point in terms of debits and credits. Well, what did it work out to now?
>
> Credits? Well, there was all that money in Switzerland. And Devon, of course, but he felt he was wearing her down with his moping. Would she stick it out with him? Debits? He was an accomplice to one murder; the near victim of an assassination; indirectly responsible, probably, for other deaths. Worse still, it had all turned out exactly opposite to the way he had expected. The crooks and fools were in solider than ever. Which meant that he had in a way betrayed his country, if – as he most surely had done – helping to perpetuate the very monsters he had sought to extinguish was a betrayal. Not that he'd be tried or convicted for it; the country was fat and happy. The payment of the check had only been postponed; nothing had really changed. So much for deep thinking; so much for crusades.
>
> (M. M. Thomas, *Green Monday*, 1980) [1]

It will be noticed that the novelist emphasizes the impression of actual present-tense self-communion by colloquial style, as for instance in the one-word questions which serve to provide a continuity to the reflections.

Now let us consider this text rewritten as *current* rather than *reported* self-communion:

> I *recall* vaguely that we *talked* at one point in terms of debits and credits. Well, what *does* it *work* out to now?
>
> Credits? Well, there's . . . Devon, of course, but I *feel* I'*m wearing* her down with my moping. *Will* she *stick* it out with me? Debits? I'*m* an accomplice to one murder . . . Worse still, it *has* all *turned* out exactly opposite to the way I *expected*. The crooks and fools *are* in solider than ever. Which *means* that I *have* . . . *betrayed* my country, if – as I most surely *have done* – helping to perpetuate the very monsters I (*have*) *sought* to extinguish *is* a betrayal. Not that I'*ll be tried* or *convicted* for it; the country *is* fat and happy. The payment . . . *has* only *been postponed*; nothing *has* really *changed* . . . [1a]

We notice that, while simple past becomes simple present, and past progressive becomes present progressive (line 3 of [1a]), the past perfective corresponds in two cases to the past, in five to the present perfective. In one further instance, line 9 of [1a], the correspondence is debatable. The text is, in fact, typical in showing the tendency of present perfective to cooccur in discourse with present rather than past tense forms.

Determiners, pro-forms, and ellipsis

19.44 Let us consider the following independent sentences:

> An argument over unilateral disarmament broke out between them. [1]
>
> An argument over unilateral disarmament finally put an end to their friendship. [2]

If we wished to make these sentences into a textual whole, there would be numerous possibilities, even keeping the first part unchanged:

> . . . between them. {The / This / That} argument finally put an end to their friendship. [3]
>
> . . . between them. {The / This / That} {dispute / controversy} finally put . . . [4]
>
> . . . between them. {The / This / That} {issue / matter / affair} finally put . . . [5]
>
> . . . between them an argument that finally put . . . [6]
>
> . . . between them, which finally put . . . [7]
>
> . . . between them, and {this / that} finally put . . . [8]
>
> . . . between them, and it finally put . . . [9]
>
> . . . between them and finally put an end to their friendship. [10]

All these versions have two things in common. They abbreviate the second part and they connect it with the first part. These two features are in principle independent. Abbreviation need not be connective: we can use ellipsis merely to suppress what can be taken for granted, as for instance in greetings (*cf* 12.46*ff*):

> Nice day! [*cf* It's a nice day, isn't it!] [11]
>
> Off to work? [*cf* Are you going off to work?] [12]

Nor need connection involve abbreviation:

> The argument was long and the argument was bitter.

Nonetheless, connection is commonly accompanied by abbreviation, and we can even say that it is in part actually *achieved* by abbreviation. In [3–10], for example, the coherence of the two parts is indicated by the fact that all the devices serve to show identity of reference between the subjects of the two verbs: *broke* (*out*) and *put*.

In some ways the most straightforward is [6], where a simple and direct shortening of the first subject phrase is used appositively; *cf* 17.65*ff*. There is something similar in [3], where reduction retains the original head-word of the noun phrase *argument*, but here the coreference with the preceding subject is indicated not by apposition but by the anaphoric determiners *the*, *this*, or *that*; *cf* 6.13. In [4] and [5] coreference is again carried by deixis, but in [4] the original noun phrase is not merely abbreviated but its head-word is replaced by a semantic paraphrase; *cf* 19.21*f* on lexical linkage. In [5], on the other hand, the head-word is replaced not by a semantic paraphrase but by a quasi-pronominal noun of very general meaning; *cf* 19.22. In [8], anaphoric deixis again points to the coreference, as in [4] and [5], but this time with the head-word replaced by zero; the demonstrative *this* or *that* is used pronominally; *cf* 6.40*ff*. In [9], the vaguest possible pronoun (*it*) is used, while

in [7] a relative pronoun replaces the earlier noun-phrase subject (*cf* 17.15). Finally, in [10], there is total omission of the second subject (*cf* 13.12*f*).

All eight of [3–10] provide satisfactory coherence of the two parts. It is perhaps closest in [10], but only at the cost of muting the separate significance of the second part – in contrast to [3] and [4], for example, which insist on our considering the *beginning* of the argument on the one hand as well as its *result* on the other hand.

As we have indicated above by means of the cross-references, all of these devices are described elsewhere in the book in terms of grammatical rule. Here we have needed to add only some notes from a textual point of view.

Note Neither pronouns nor appositive noun phrases are restricted to referring back to preceding noun phrases. Consider the possibility that the first of the original sentences had been:

They argued bitterly over unilateral disarmament. [1a]

In this event, the determiners and pronouns in the latter part of the combined text variants would have had sentential reference, and all would have been acceptable with the exception of version [10].

Limitations on pro-forms

19.45 What is grammatically tolerable has to be mediated by what is textually tolerable. Consider the following use of *do so* as a pro-form (*cf* 12.23*ff*):

There was a certain beautiful girl who occasionally walked past our house. Whenever she *did so*, my brother would tease me. [1]

If we expand upon the first sentence, *did so* is less appropriate:

There was a certain beautiful girl who occasionally walked past our house. Nothing particularly surprising in itself. We lived on a pretty lane, lined with rather attractive gardens. Yet whenever she *did so* . . . [1a]

Such relative remoteness of the relevant predication requires that we find a weightier substitute than *do so* and one that can more readily establish the backward link, even if our alternative is no more precise semantically than:

. . . [Yet whenever] *this occurred* . . . [1a′]

(*Cf* 19.24). Again, where textual material puts identification of an antecedent even momentarily in doubt, a pro-form will be avoided – however 'grammatical' – and an alternative means of expression found. Consider the vagueness of the following hyperbole, contrasting one who is always very late for a flight with one who is always very early:

YŎU chase the plane down the RŬNway. "Ĭ get to the airport while it is being BŬILT. [2]

In place of *it* (which might refer to *the plane*, *the runway*, or *the airport*), a fuller anaphoric expression would have been clearer if less satisfactory in reducing the wit:

. . . while {*the machine* / *the place*} is being BŬILT. [2a]

It is often indeed a desire for witty brevity that leads to the use of over-economical reductions. In a printed book review, after commenting on Swift's saying about 'the nation's representers' that 'I would hang them if I could', the writer went on:

The thing is said because he knows he can't: Swift doesn't 'mean it', though he doesn't not mean it either. The old bards apparently both meant it and *could*. [3]

The ellipsis after *can't* is clear: 'hang them'. The writer intends to echo this in the final *could* which he italicizes in the hope of taking us back to the quotation from Swift. But at that distance the ellipsis is unsatisfactorily vague.

Note In the following anecdote, the impact and wit are primarily achieved by the ellipsis, but in part also by the satisfying order adopted (*cf* 19.68) in the achievement of climax by means of a triadic structure (*cf* 19.8):

Prisoner: As God is my judge, I am not guilty.
Judge: He ĭsn't; I ĂM; you ÀRE!

It is not uncommon to find rhetorical effectiveness resting on such manipulation of the most ordinary grammatical items. Note the way in which *one* and *no* are contrasted in a speech by a British politician:

We have to learn to be ŎNE nation or we shall become NŌ nation.

Discourse reference

19.46 There are numerous signals marking the identity between what is being said and what has been said before. The grammar of anaphoric and cataphoric substitution has been presented in 12.13*ff*. We concentrate here on devices that have a special value in referring less to concrete entities than to constituents or aspects of discourse itself. The signals can be divided into two groups, distinguished by the type of unit they refer to:

(a) sentence or clause reference signals
(b) noun-phrase reference signals

Many of them are adapted from their primary function of denoting temporal or spatial succession, *eg*: *former*, *above*, *here*, *the following*. Some signal both sentence/clause reference and noun-phrase reference.

Clausal reference

19.47 Common signals for sentence or clause reference include:

anaphoric and cataphoric: *here*, *it*, *this*
anaphoric only: *that*, *the foregoing* ⟨formal⟩
cataphoric only: *as follows*, *the following*, *thus*

Anaphoric examples:

Many years ago their wives quarrelled over some trivial matter, now long forgotten. But one word led to another and the quarrel developed into a permanent rupture between them. *That's* why the two men never visit each other's houses. [1]

Many students never improve. They get no advice and therefore they keep repeating the same mistakes. *It's* a terrible shame. [2]

Students want to be shown connections between facts instead of spending their time memorizing dates and formulas. Reflecting *this*, the university is moving away from large survey courses and breaking down academic fences in order to show subjects relating to one another. [3]

Cataphoric examples:

This should interest you, if you're still keen on boxing. The world heavyweight championship is going to be held in Chicago next June, so you should be able to watch it live. [4]

Here is the news. A diplomat was kidnapped last night in London . . . [radio announcement] [5]

It never should have happened. He went out and left the baby unattended. [6]

My arguments are *as follows* . . . [7]

In some instances, we can replace the reference signal by a corresponding *that*-clause. For example, *that* in [1] could be said to refer to a *that*-clause which corresponds to the immediately preceding clause:

. . . That the quarrel developed into a permanent rupture between them is why the two men . . . [1a]

In [2], on the other hand, *it* could be said to stand for the whole of the two preceding sentences. With cataphoric signals, the substitution might be inordinately long in practice. Certainly, *here* in [5] could refer forward to a following discourse of indeterminate length.

The pro-form may refer back to most, rather than all, of the sentence or clause:

They will probably win the match. *That* will please my brother. [8]

The more likely interpretation of *that* is *their winning the match* with the omission of auxiliary and disjunct but *that they will probably win the match* is also a possible interpretation.

Above and *below* are used for discourse reference to refer to units of varying length, and even to illustrations:

. . . the arguments given *below* [perhaps referring to several sentences]
. . . the question mentioned *above*
. . . the picture *above*
The diagrams *below* illustrate . . .

They need not refer to a unit of discourse which precedes immediately or which follows immediately. The furthest possible distance in the discourse between the unit referred to, on the one hand, and *above* or *below*, on the other hand, cannot be determined.

The above but not **the below* can be used as a noun phrase:

The above illustrates what we mean by . . .

Note [a] The nonrestrictive relative clause with a previous clause or sentence as the antecedent of introductory *which* (*cf* 17.9) is sometimes made into a separate orthographic sentence in some

self-consciously 'lively' forms of writing. *Which* is then an anaphoric signal equivalent to *and that*:

She's borrowed a history book. Which suggests her teacher is having some influence *on her*. [9]

[b] In some (especially disapproving or ironic) contexts, *that* can be used cataphorically:

I like *THAT*. Bob smashes up my car and then expects me to pay for the repairs. [10]
That's a thing I dislike – people whispering during a concert. [11]
THAT'S what I like to SEE: a chap who enjoys his work. [12]

Otherwise, *that* is used anaphorically. It could of course be argued that [10–12] are illustrative of anaphoric use: *that* referring 'back' to something situationally presented as well as 'forward' to a linguistic description of it.

[c] *In informal spoken English, what can have cataphoric reference when it is the direct object* of *know* in a question, or *guess* in a directive, or *tell* in a statement:

(Do you) Know WHÁT? / Guess WHÁT. } He won't pay up. [13]
(I'll) Tell you WHÁT: I've forgotten the keys! [14]

[d] In written texts, discourse reference can be made to page numbers, section numbers, or chapters. *In some texts, provision is made to take note of line numbers. Such reference may be* to preceding or following material, and although we are writing, we usually use verbs of speaking:

As was *said* in Chapter Four, . . .
We will *speak* of this in Chapter Nine . . .

Less specific reference is made in terms of *above* (or *earlier*) and *below* (or *later* in the text), and some spoken material of a formal kind, such as lectures, make similar use of *above* and *below*.

[e] In legal English *the said, the (a)forementioned*, and *the a'foresaid* are used for anaphoric reference, the last two both as a premodifier ('the aforementioned provisions') and as a noun phrase. *In the latter function, they would normally refer to a previous noun phrase with personal* reference.

Formulaic utterance

19.48 While deictic reference and ellipted matter must, from a grammatical viewpoint, be recoverable (*cf* 12.6*f*), discourse permits a good deal of vagueness. This seems to be actively cultivated in propaganda and other persuasive material, but it is especially common in informal conversation, not least in the semi-formulaic responses to expressions of thanks, apology, inquiry, and the like. Consider how difficult it would be to specify the precise reference or the exact ellipsis in the following responses:

A: Thank you very much.
B: Not at all. / Not a bit. / Don't mention it. / You're WÉLcome. ⟨esp AmE⟩ } [1]

A: I'm terribly sorry.
B: Not at all. / Not a bit. / It's nothing. } [2]

A: I wonder if you'd mind coming and taking some dictation?
B: { Of course / Surely ⟨esp AmE⟩ / ÒK / RÌGHT Ó / WÌLL DÓ } ⟨esp BrE⟩ } ⟨informal⟩ }, Mrs Stewart. [3]

A: Would you mind my asking if you've ever taken drugs, Mr Hoover?
B: Absolutely NÒT. [4]
A: You wouldn't know a fortune-teller around here, I suppose?
B: { TRŶ me. [5]
Try MÈ. [6] }

In [5] the implication is that B knows one ('Try asking if I know one'); in [6], B is saying that he himself can tell fortunes. In [4], only the context could clarify whether B is saying that he 'absolutely (does) not (mind)', or that it is 'absolutely not' true that he has taken drugs. In [3], the formulaic response *Will do!* is a conventional way of saying 'I *will do* as you request', and B has interpreted (correctly, of course) A's polite inquiry as a request. In [1] and [2], the reference of *it*, in *Don't mention it*, *It's nothing*, is doubtless anaphoric in some way. But in the first line of [7], *it* is cataphoric if almost equally vague in its reference; the initial imperative is little more than an informal attention-requesting signal, a more severe form of which includes a cataphoric *here*:

A: By the way, Cynthia. It's awful of me, I know. But would you be able to look after my dog while I'm away next week?
B: (Now look) (Here), this is the third time you've left me with your dog. [7]

Within sentence sequences that are strictly alike from a grammatical point of view, a discourse pronoun can have sharply different reference:

She hoped he would not mention her unfortunate marriage.

{ It / This / That } would be very { CÒURTeous of him. [8]
CÒURTeous of him in a WÁY, of course. [8a] }

In [8], the reference is to the predication including the negative ('His not mentioning the marriage would be courteous'). In [8a], the reference excludes the negative ('His mentioning the marriage would be courteous'). It is only the pragmatic implications of the hedging adverbial *in a way* and the concessive *of course* that lead us to this interpretation.

Note An interesting use of cataphoric *it* in textual structure is in the cleft sentence device (*cf* 18.26*ff*):
It was at 9.15 this morning that the government proclaimed a state of emergency. [9]
It was on their way from the airport that Gillian dropped the bombshell. In carefully casual tones, she asked him if he would agree to a divorce. [10]
In [9], it is unlikely that the narrator wishes to highlight the time adjunct: rather, the textual device is pointing to the climax at the end of the sentence. In [10], the same applies, but with a double cataphora: *the bombshell* which ends the first sentence is climactically explained in the sentence that follows.

Noun-phrase reference

19.49 Certain determiners are used to signal that a noun phrase is referentially equivalent to a previous noun phrase (*cf* 5.27*ff*, 12.14*ff*):

the this – these that – those

Such noun phrases may be discourse abstractions, and the heads may either be identical as in [1] or nominalizations that add lexical variation (*cf* 19.22), as in [2]:

She set up a hypothesis that chemotherapy destroyed the will to live as well as the unwanted cells. *This hypothesis* attracted the attention of . . . [1]
Deconstructionism holds that knowledge about literature is strictly unattainable . . . *This doctrine* is puzzling in several respects. [2]

It is not always certain, however, when such a reference is to a previous noun phrase or is a nominalization of a wider, clausally expressed proposition. The text from which [2] is quoted is a case in point. As presented in the abbreviated form of [2], *doctrine* seems to refer back unambiguously to *deconstructionism* and be a lexical variant of it. But in the original, there are several lines where we have indicated the curtailment, and these include the following:

We must therefore abandon the old-fashioned quest to discover what a given author was trying to communicate. [2a]

The reference of *this doctrine* must therefore include, not merely the specific abstract *deconstructionism*, but the speculated consequence which the author went on to state. A fuller version might therefore read:

This doctrine *of deconstructionism and the need to abandon the old-fashioned quest* . . . is puzzling in several respects. [2b]

When *such* is used, the intention is often to indicate disapproval (which may be sympathetic):

We visited the Browns yesterday and heard their complaints about the condition of the house they live in. I never heard such a sorry tale. [3]
. . . such a rigmarole. [3a]
. . . of such wretchedness. [3b]

In [3] and [3a], the reference is primarily to the *complaints*, [3a] lexically indicating impatience rather than sympathy; in [3b] the reference is rather to the *condition*, with an implication of the speaker's sympathy.

Use of *the former* and *the latter* is largely confined to (rather formal) noun-phrase reference:

We heard their complaints that no one came to visit them and also that their roof was leaking. I helped them over *the latter* [*ie* the complaint about the roof] and promised to let some friends know about *the former* [*ie* the complaint about loneliness]. [4]

For broader reference, both phrases might be expanded to include a noun head:

They were upset that no one came to visit them and also that their roof was leaking. I helped them over *the latter problem* and promised to let some friends know about *the former complaint*. [5]

19.50 *So* and *that* can have anaphoric reference when they are intensifiers premodifying an adjective (*that* so used is informal and often criticized):

There were two thousand people in the theatre. I didn't expect it to be {*so* / *that*} full. [1]

I had a terrible headache yesterday and had to take some aspirins. I'm not feeling {*so* / *that*} bad today. [2]

We took them to a circus and then to a zoo and gave them lots of ice cream and chocolate. They haven't had {*so* / *that*} good a time for years. [3]

Such is used more commonly than *so* or *that* when (as in this last example) the adjective accompanies a noun phrase, but *such* is followed by normal noun-phrase order:

. . . They haven't had *such a good time* for years. [3a]

Note the different implications when *this*, *that*, and *so* are used as intensifiers. Compare:

I didn't expect it to be { *this full*. [= as full as it *is now*] / *that full*. [= as full as it *was then*] } ⟨informal⟩ / *so full*. [neutral in time implication] [1a]

Personal pronouns

19.51 As explained in 6.7, 6.18, *we* has several possible noun-phrase references. In discourse, we are concerned chiefly with the 'inclusive' *we* (*cf* 4.58, as with the subject of the present sentence), and with the 'exclusive' *we* as in:

Will you stay here while *we* go for a policeman? [1]

In formal writing, and frequently indeed in the present book, *we* 'inclusive' and *we* 'exclusive' can cooccur. The former cooccurs with verbs implying shared knowledge (*understand*, *see*, *appreciate*, etc), the latter with verbs of communication (*say*, *state*, *write*, etc). It would be possible to use both in the same sentence, though this would usually be avoided:

We see now why *we* expressed reservations earlier. [2]

In [2], the second *we* is exclusive, the first inclusive or even (as often) indefinite and roughly equivalent to the more formal *one* or the *reader*.

The indefinite use of *you* and the *you* of direct 2nd person address (*cf* 6.2*ff*) can also cooccur. In [3], the first *you* is indefinite, the second makes direct address:

In fourteenth-century England, *you* had a very poor chance of being taught to read, *you* see. [3]

Unlike the two uses of *we*, however, *you* is rather rare in formal writing and the indefinite use is virtually excluded. The same applies to the indefinite use of *they*; in formal styles, *they* in [4] would refer only to the council authorities, where informally it is more plausible with indefinite reference:

I intend to ask the council authorities why *they* are digging up the road again. [4]

In place of the informal indefinite *you*, there is *one*, but it can be used only sparingly without making a piece of writing (or even more so a spoken utterance) sound intolerably pompous. This is perhaps especially constraining in BrE, which lacks in general the facility (now in any case frowned on for social reasons) of replacing *one* by *he* in second and subsequent use:

One cannot control *one*'s temper easily if *one* is discussing a matter over which *one* has feelings of guilt or great personal involvement. ⟨esp BrE⟩ [5]

Here, we could have in AmE: *One* . . . *his* . . . *he* . . . *he* . . . Other indefinite pronouns such as *anyone*, *everybody* can be followed by *he* in both AmE and BrE, but this is vulnerable to the objection of seeming to have a male orientation, while the use of *they* to refer back to these indefinites is open to the objection of seeming ungrammatical in the switch from singular to plural. It is therefore largely confined to spoken (especially informal) usage (*cf* also 19.64).

Note There is a further and rare use of *one*, perhaps to avoid the egocentricity of 'I':
A: Did you enjoy your school days?
B: Well, one can hardly remember; it's all so long ago. [6]

Comparison

19.52 Signals of comparison and contrast play a frequent part in providing textual coherence. Most can be regarded as involving ellipsis (*cf* 12.1*ff*, 12.31*ff*).

The most obvious comparison signal is found in adjectives and adverbs, whether in the inflected forms or in the periphrastic forms with *more*, *most*, *as*, *less*, *least* (*cf* 7.74*ff*). If the basis of comparison (*cf* 15.63) is not made explicit in the clause, it must be inferred from the previous context:

John took four hours to reach London. Bill, on the other hand, was driving *more slowly*. [1]
Mary used to listen to records most of the time. Sally was a *more enthusiastic* student. [2]
There were ten boys in the group. Bob was by far the *best*. [3]
Barbara dances beautifully. Jack dances *no less well*. [4]
Gwen always hands in a well-constructed and intelligent paper. I'm afraid Joan doesn't expend *as* much effort and time on her papers. [5]

We can demonstrate the anaphoric reference by supplying the basis of comparison:

. . . more slowly *than John* (*drove*). [1a]
. . . a more enthusiastic student *than Mary* (*was*). [2a]
. . . the best (*of the ten boys*) (*in the group*). [3a]

. . . no less well *than Barbara* (*dances*). [4a]
. . . as much effort and time on her papers *as Gwen* (*expends on her papers*). [5a]

On comparative clauses, *cf* 15.63*ff*.

So too with expressions of similarity or difference; these may involve the use of equative and antithetic conjuncts (*cf* 8.137*ff*). For example:

Mrs White was the victim of a confidence trick. Bill was tricked

{*very differently.* / *in the same way.*} [6]

Tom gets ten dollars a week for pocket money. Bob receives a *similar* amount. [7]
Mrs Hayakawa complained that the roof leaked and the windows fitted badly, so that the place was freezing cold. Her husband complained *likewise*. [8]
Tom behaved himself at the party. However, the *other* boy had to be sent home. [9]
John didn't like the car. He asked to see a *different* one. [10]

We can display the basis of similarity or difference:

. . . very differently *from the way in which Mrs White was* (*tricked*). } [6a]
. . . in the same way *as Mrs White* (*was* (*tricked*)).
. . . an amount similar *to what Tom receives*. [7a]
. . . complained *about the same things as Mrs Hayakawa* (*complained about*). [8a]
. . . the boy other *than Tom* . . . [9a]
. . . see one different *from the car he didn't like*. [10a]

Certain lexical items are used in a quasi-grammatical way to express identity, similarity, dissimilarity, and difference. Expressions involving *respective*(*ly*), *mutual*(*ly*), *converse*(*ly*), *opposite* (*-ly* is rare), etc effect considerable neatness and economy in discourse:

Brahms and Verdi wrote orchestral and operatic music, *respectively*. [11]
The chairman and the guest speaker expressed their *mutual* admiration. [12]
Mary told Harry that she never wanted to see him again. He *reciprocated*, but with even greater bitterness. [13]
I thought that Oregon had a greater rainfall than British Columbia, but Caroline says *the opposite*. [14]

The textual role of adverbials

19.53 In 19.48 we saw in example [8a] the communicative impact of the inserted adverbials *in a way* and *of course*. While the basic functions of adverbials are fully expounded in Chapter 8, we need here to emphasize their dual role in textual structure: interpreting the text to the hearer/reader (*eg* in encouraging a particular attitude), and expressing the relevant connection between one part of a text and another. The former is achieved primarily by subjuncts and disjuncts (*cf* 8.88*ff*), the latter by conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*). Consider the following:

My dog is fourteen {months / years} old and ▲ he is very frisky. [1]

Given the appropriate general knowledge, the choice of *months* or *years* will determine the aptness of adverbials that might be inserted at the insertion sign: *of course* or *naturally* on the one hand; *yet*, *still*, *surprisingly enough* on the other. A further example:

My next-door neighbour {is an entomologist. / is a travelling salesman. / works for an oil company.} ▲ He knows more about treating mosquito bites than anyone I've ever met. [2]

The second sentence of [2] might be preceded by *Not surprisingly*, but this would seem appropriate only if we knew what an entomologist was, or if we connected travelling salesmen or oil executives with experience of mosquito-ridden areas. Preceding the second sentence with *All the same* or *Nonetheless* would obviously have very different implications.

But the postulated insertions in [1] and [2] would serve not only to nudge the hearer in the direction of adopting a particular attitude or to let the hearer know something of the speaker's attitude: they would also indicate the nature of the connection between the two parts of each text. Without the adverbials, each text is presented as offering two pieces of information; in this spirit, the second parts might have read respectively:

. . . and he sleeps in the kitchen. [1a]
. . . He got married last week to a former girlfriend of mine. [2a]

In other words, the connection is thematic only, in the sense of 19.12. With the adverbials inserted, the second part of each text is shown to be (as the original versions might chance to be *interpreted* as being) specifically related to the preceding rheme, either as a natural consequence or as a surprising paradox.

Note Since *of course* can hint at incongruity (concession) instead of expressing congruity, [1] might still be a well-formed text as:

My dog is fourteen years old and of course he is very frisky (still) (, though I think he's beginning to show his age). [1b]

This use of *of course* commonly expresses superficial agreement with what has preceded while at the same time hinting at a more fundamental disagreement. For example:

The chairman is of course absolutely right to draw attention to the error in my presentation. On the other hand, I wonder whether he is not using this lapse of mine to prevent discussion of the serious issue involved. [3]

Other adverbials that can convey such implications include *admittedly*, *certainly*, *doubtless*, *undeniably*, *undoubtedly*. Of these, *doubtless* is particularly barbed.

19.54 Responses in dialogue often begin with an adverbial which indicates the direction of transition between what has just been said and what is about to be said. On transitional conjuncts, *cf* 8.137, 8.142.

A: That man speaks extremely good English.

B: {[1] Well, / [2] Yet,} he comes from a village in Mongolia.

In one sense, the content of B's response is identical whether it begins as [1] or [2]. It presents an additional fact about the man, and without the adverbial, B's response would have only a thematic link with A's statement. With either of the adverbials inserted, however, B is making a significant comment not merely on the man but on the propensity of villagers in Mongolia to speak good English. If he begins with *Well*, he implies that it is an established fact (*Well, of course!*) that Mongolian villages provide excellent bases for learning English. If he begins with *Yet*, he implies that the man's good command of English was *despite* his Mongolian upbringing.

Note [a] The use of *well* is itself context-dependent, however. It would be perfectly plausible to use *well* in [1] as a very different transition (*Well, now!*) so as to connote 'Well, I'll tell you something surprising: he actually comes from a village in Mongolia'. Such an antithetic-concessive transition (*cf* 8.141) is implicit in the frequent note of reservation struck by the use of *well*. Consider a converse exchange of remarks on the same subject:

A: That man is from Mongolia.

B: {[1a] Well, / [2a] Yet,} he speaks extremely good English.

Here, both [1a] and [2a] would connote 'Despite that . . .'. There is in fact no one-word adverbial to express the relationship of the original [1] at [1a]; we would have to resort to a fully clausal expression, as in:

{So that explains why / Now I understand why} he speaks . . .

[b] Elliptical responses (*cf* 19.48) often contain an obligatory connective; for example (where in [4] intonation enables us to dispense with the use of an adverbial):

A: {Have a good weekend! / How nice to see you again!} [3]

B: {You *TOO*! / *AND* YOU!} [4]

Adverbials as structural indicators

19.55 The basic relational structures briefly outlined in 19.17 depend rather heavily on adverbial pointers, especially when any great degree of complexity is involved.

(a) *General to particular*: Any of the following would usefully assist the relationship at the insert mark in the accompanying example:

for example
thus
even
indeed

For example:

Many of the audience became openly hostile. ▲ My uncle wrote a letter to the management next day. [1]

(b) *Progression*: According as the progression is locational, temporal, or logical, adverbials both help to indicate the direction and mark the successive stages. For example:

First, boil the rice in well-salted water; drain it *immediately*. *Next*, warm the lightly buttered base of a small pie dish. You may *now* put the rice in the dish. *Then* add the cheese, tomato and onion. The pie is *at last* ready to be put in the oven. [2]

(c) *Compatibility*: It is frequently important to mark the match or mismatch between two parts of a text. Consider the presence or absence of (for example) *so too* in the following:

The ordinary saw is not easy to use. ▲ A plane demands years of careful practice. [3]

Similarly, a contrastive conjunct (*cf* 8.141) such as *on the other hand* in a variant of this example:

The ordinary saw is not easy to use. ▲ A hammer is something that any novice can handle. [3a]

19.56 The different discourse strategies (*cf* 19.18) will likewise call for different adverbial indicators. The 'step' technique is simplest, following as it does a progressive relation (*cf* 19.17). With the 'chain', however, it is particularly helpful to point to the existence and direction of transitions in the structure. Thus the illustrative text of 19.18 (ii) might have begun (though using adverbial linkage more densely than is usual or desirable):

Hamlet poignantly represents the indecisions that plague us all. *Admittedly*, indecision is not the worst of our ills. *Indeed*, in some ways decisiveness can be more damaging. *At any rate* many people have come to grief that way . . . [1]

In a text of 'stack'-like structure, the 'layers' may call for enumeration (*first, at the outset, fundamentally*: *secondly, next*, . . .; *still more importantly* . . .), but it is especially desirable to draw the hearer's attention to what is to be regarded as the most crucial point: *thus, all in all, finally, last but by no means least* (though this alliterative conjunct is too hackneyed for a resounding climax), *in conclusion*, and many others.

The balance strategy, like the chain, requires adverbial pointers both to assist the sense of rhetorical balance and to ensure that the author's presuppositions match those of his audience. For example, in place of the travel illustration in 19.18 (iv), we might begin another like this:

I am always thrilled at the prospect of having a mid-winter break in Switzerland. ▲ Frequently, the weather is quite warm . . . [2]

It might not be at all clear whether the second sentence of [2] contributed to the pleasure (vision of deckchairs) or was a counterbalancing unwelcome aspect (poor weather for skiing); in other words, we have left inadequate indication of compatibility (*cf* 19.17). For the balance strategy, we need to insert at the marked place some such indicator as *granted, admittedly, true, of*

course, *even so*, etc. Most frequently the balanced movement is indicated by the items *on the one hand*, *on the other (hand)*, but there is usually a goal resembling that of the stack and so demanding a final summative such as *all in all* (*cf* 8.139).

Coordination and subordination

19.57 In 19.5*ff*, we pointed out that two utterances gave the impression of being textually related, even when juxtaposed without any formal indicator of connection. Asyndetic relation of this kind, moreover, raises the expectation that the second utterance followed the first as an iconic representation of being sequential in time or consequential in reasoning – and often both, as in:

He ate too much for dinner. He was ill the next day. [1]

A simple coordination (*cf* 13.43*ff*) of the two not only links them more firmly (since more formally); it can also enable us to show that a third utterance in the sequence is less closely linked to the second than the second is to the first; and, further, that the first and second form a sub-unity which as a whole has a relation to the third:

He ate too much for dinner and he was ill the next day. He decided to be less greedy in future. [2]

But since a result or conclusion seems in some sense more important than the factors leading to the result or conclusion, it is natural to seek a linguistic emblem of this hierarchical relation by subordinating one part to the other instead of coordinating the one with the other:

Because he ate too much for dinner, he was ill the next day. [3]

In [3], we have not merely made the first part of [1] the explicit reason for the second (*Because*), we have grammatically expressed the connection by making a totally new unit where the second part is the main clause of a complex sentence in which the original first part is reduced to the role of adjunct (*cf* 8.25*ff*).

19.58 English has four monosyllabic connective items which semantically belong together as constituting a symmetry of two related subsystems:

and : what precedes is congruent (*cf* 13.22*ff*)
but : what precedes is incongruent (*cf* 13.32)
so : what follows is a consequence
for : what follows is a reason (*ie* what precedes is a consequence)

For example (*cf* 19.11):

The rain has stopped, *and* she's gone for a walk. [1]
The rain hasn't stopped, *but* she's gone for a walk. [2]
The rain has stopped, *so* she's gone for a walk. [3]
She's gone for a walk, *for* the rain has stopped. [4]

This last is rather unnatural where the conjoins are so short. In any case, the

symmetry is imperfect in several respects. In [1], [2], and [4], we have conjunctions (**and but*, **and for*; but *cf* 13.8*ff* on *for*). In [3], we have a conjunct (*and so*); *cf* 13.18*f*, 8.137*ff*. Moreover, *and* and *but* are distributionally distinct, *and* demanding in some respects greater structural similarity between the coordinated parts. Compare:

?*The rain has stopped *and* let's go for a walk. [5]
The rain hasn't stopped *but* let's go for a walk. [6]

In this respect, although we normally think of *and* and *but* as closely related converses, the converse of *but* is in fact *so*:

The rain has stopped (and) *so* let's go for a walk.

Thirdly and (from the viewpoint of text cohesion) most significantly, the symmetry is imperfect in that *for* is a much less frequently used connective than the other three. In other words, textual structure is resistant to stating a consequence in advance of the condition. In the event of this order being desirable, it is more usual to make the condition structurally subordinate to (rather than coordinate with) the consequence:

She's gone for a walk, { { because / since } the rain has stopped. / the rain having (at last) stopped. } [7]

Even so, the prior condition would often be stated first:

Since the rain has stopped, she's gone for a walk. [8]

Note [a] There is a further asymmetry in the fact that *and* can subsume the role of *but* (*cf* 13.24), though the converse does not hold:
He's sixty-two *and* he plays squash like a twenty-year old.
[b] Whereas *and* and *or* can be used to conjoin a sequence of several clauses, *but* and *for* can conjoin only two (*cf* 13.8*f*, 13.18*f*).

Pairs and triads

19.59 One of the ways in which coordination is exploited in textual structure is to assist the desire for parallelism and balance (*cf* 19.7). For example:

These terrorists have destroyed their own credibility. They resisted arrest and then they gave themselves up. They went on a hunger strike and then they started taking food. Some of them claim that they are all nationalists and some of them claim that they are all opposed to nationalism. [1]

We note that the last three sentences in [1], each with clauses coordinated by *and*, form a triad (*cf* 19.8), a rhetorical pattern that seems to be especially attractive. Coordination achieves the seemingly impossible task of giving three units equal status and yet of making the third climactic; for example:

She cleaned the room, (she) made a birthday cake, and (she) finished preparing a lecture. [2]

But the climax of the third part may be expressing a point which is strongly counter-consequential and concessive:

She works ten hours a day in the clinic, she spends ages *helping* him with his thesis, and he calls her lazy! [3]

The balanced units, whether in pairs or threes, may of course be coordinated *subordinate* clauses:

Because you're tired, because you're lonely, and because you're depressed, I want to insist on your coming to stay with us for a week or so. [4]

Subordinate coordination, however, is especially associated with alternatives rather than accretions. For this reason, pairing is very common since this gives the convenient impression of a total or very general polarization:

He doesn't know whether his wife is unhappy because the baby died or whether she's just no longer in love with him. [5]
When you're lonely or when you're unhappy for other reasons, listening to music can be a great consolation. [6]

Questions too can be linked to form a satisfyingly coherent sequence:

Did he jump or was he pushed? [7]
Will they arrive on time, will they listen carefully, and will they enjoy our performance? [8]

Of course, in ordinary unambitious writing and in familiar speech, coordination is used without striving for the balanced effects on which we have been concentrating in this section. But the momentum and implications of sequence, the relative cohesion of explicit coordination, and the contrasting entailments of the chief coordinating conjunctions are inherent in even the least self-conscious discourse.

Note Informal conversation is characterized by an overtly uncompleted pairing, especially through unfinished *but*-coordinations. These often occur where one speaker is effectively inviting another participant to speak. It can give a pleasantly apologetic and self-effacing tone:

A: My wife's not been feeling too well. She's seen the doctor, though, and he's told her it's nothing serious. But (er) [*trails off into silence*]
B: I'm sorry to hear about this. [9]

A voiced hesitation ('er') frequently follows such a use of *but*. A's speech might equally have ended: 'But I don't know . . .' or 'But don't let's talk about our little problems' or 'But how's the book going?' These all have in common: '*But*: let's change the subject'.

Contrasting coordination and subordination

19.60 In several of the examples provided in 19.59, coordination has been used along with subordination. This is in fact textually representative. Although from the viewpoint of grammar these two types of clause relation are thought of as alternatives, and although coordination is a far more frequently occurring form of cohesive device, it is normal to find both types in any text of a few lines (or a few seconds) in extent. It is particularly rare to find a text with subordination but without coordination.

It is the flexible use of both devices that endows a text with variety of expression on the one hand and with a well-ordered presentation of information on the other. The combination also enables one to achieve a high degree of complexity within a single, unified whole. For example:

Although I know it's a bit late to call, seeing your light still on and needing to get your advice if you'd be willing to help me, I parked the car as soon as I could find a place and ventured to come straight up without ringing the bell because, believe me, I didn't want to add waking your baby to the other inconveniences I'm causing you. [1]

Taking nonfinite as well as finite clauses into account, there are nearly twenty clauses in this example, which, without any pretensions to elegance, is grammatically well-formed as well as being textually coherent. And although it is often thought that a single sentence of such complexity belongs only to the most formal styles of written English, the example [1] is in fact only slightly edited from the transcribed form of an actual spoken utterance in informal conversation. Again, it is sometimes put as a generalization that nonfinite clauses are characteristic of formal texts, finite clauses of less formal ones. There is some truth in this so far as *-ing* adverbial clauses are concerned, especially those with subject, and especially passive clauses with subject:

The rain having (at last) stopped, she's gone for a walk. [2]
The play now having been reviewed, no one can ignore it. [3]
Having now seen the play myself, I agree that it is rather weak. [4]

Contrast:

Since the rain has stopped, she's gone for a walk [2a]
Now that the play has been reviewed, no one can ignore it. [3a]
Now that I have seen the play myself, I agree that it is rather weak. [4a]

But it is not true for nominal *-ing* clauses, and the following:

Finding you at home is a great surprise. [5]
He didn't mind *waiting for them in the rain*. [6]

are decidedly less formal than:

That I (should) find you at home is a great surprise. [5a]
He didn't mind *that he waited [was waiting, had to wait] for them in the rain*. [6a]

Indeed, with *to*-infinitive clauses, the general statement could profitably be reversed: the finite verb correspondences (to the extent that they exist) are almost always more formal in tone. For example:

To close the doors, just press the green button. [7]
In order that you may close the doors, merely press the green button. [7a]

Note [a] There are exceptions to the exclusive formality even of nonfinite passive clauses with subject. In the most commonplace of discourse, a concessive disjunct like the following (*cf* 8.127 Note [c]) is frequent enough to be criticized as hackneyed:

We've got to help the poorer nations with their economic and health problems. But *that (having been) said*, it's reasonable to expect them to meet us half way – with military bases, for example. [8]

[b] The interaction of coordination and subordination is seen also in the fact that while it is the latter that contributes most to tight coherence of grammatical (and hence of textual) structure, as well as to verbal economy (particularly through the use of nonfinite clauses), it is coordination that permits far more drastic economies of ellipsis (*cf* 12.1*ff*, 12.31*ff*). Compare:

I had been getting hungry and my wife ∧ *anxious.*
I had been getting anxious because my wife ∧ hungry. } [∧ = had been getting]

She was ill the next day and ∧ *had to call a doctor.*
She was ill the next day when ∧ was particularly busy. } [∧ = she]

This is not of course to ignore elliptical forms of subordinate clauses such as *If any*, *When in doubt*, *Though anxious*, which can be used initially as well as later in a sentence; *cf* 14.18.

[c] Subordination usually (though by no means invariably) indicates grammatically the subordinate *informational* status of the part so expressed. Similarly, when *and* is replaced by *like* or *as well as* in conjoining phrases (*cf* 13.103), the effect is usually to downgrade the following item, implying that it has 'given' status. Among the clausal exceptions are the clauses expressing outcome or result (*cf* 15.25, 15.27): for example, the journalistic use of infinitive clauses:

Sunderland played an energetic game, to win four-two.
[= and they won . . .]

The part played by questions

19.61 There is a sense in which it is true to say 'I can't tell you anything till you've asked me something'. In other words, what we choose to talk about depends crucially on what we think our hearer does not know and wants to know. Even conversations in which a participant keenly wishes to talk and inform (rather than listen and be informed) will frequently begin with a question. For example, as a conversation-initial gambit:

Have you heard about Mr Malloy? [1]

The questioner will be alert to the reply in two quite separate respects: whether his companion has heard about Mr Malloy, and whether he seems to *want* to hear. Only if the questioner is satisfied on both counts, will he launch forth – and even so the tactful conversationalist will begin with a careful lack of dogmatism:

Well, apparently, if I got it right, Malloy was on his way home on Friday, when . . . [1a]

Moreover, without prompting by questions in the course of his account ('What was the weather like?' 'When did you hear this?' 'Why didn't Rita Malloy . . .?'), the speaker would soon falter – again, for fear that he had lost his companion's interest or in doubt as to which aspects of the narrative to develop and which to ignore.

Even in the absence of questions from a companion, a speaker will insert them for himself. In written materials, the author is naturally constrained to do so. This is partly in the interests of information processing (*cf* 19.66*ff* below), that is, providing a focus closely similar to that attained by the pseudo-cleft (*cf* 18.29*f*). Compare:

What was he doing? He was trying to change a fuse. [2]
What was he doing but trying to change a fuse. [2a]
What he was doing was trying to change a fuse. [2b]

But in part the inserted question is to enliven and dramatize a narrative by supplying a query which the speaker thinks must be in his companion's mind – or which he thinks ought to be:

And that son of hers continues to be a big worry. And how do I know? She was in tears the other day – with a photo of him in her hand. She didn't think I saw the photo but I did. [3]

A question in discourse is often directed less to the hearer than to the speaker, though in seeming to reflect the speaker's self-questioning as to how he should proceed, the question equally directs the hearer's mind both to this point and to the tentativeness and spontaneity with which it is being made. For example:

The horses seemed strangely disturbed as we groomed them that morning. *How shall I put it?* It was as though they were aware that Mary and I had quarrelled. [4]

The book will be out in a couple of months. There's been some problem over the binding and this has been aggravated by shipping difficulties in Hong Kong where they've had this acrimonious seamen's strike. What a lot of unrest there is in the world, when you come to think of it. *But where was I?* When the book is finally published, I'm going to have a little party to celebrate. *And what was the other thing I wanted to tell you?* Oh yes . . . [5]

Note [a] Consider the part played by questions in the representation of internal reflection quoted in 19.43.

[b] Questions in dialogue are frequently uttered merely to elicit matter that was imperfectly heard or understood (*cf* 19.17):

HÚH? / WHÁT? } ⟨very informal⟩

WHÁT's that? / SÓRry? } ⟨informal⟩

I beg your PÀRdon?

Given the appropriate context, any of these question forms could equally express strong surprise at what has just been said; in effect, they are used to inquire both 'What did you say?' and 'What do you mean?' (By contrast, the question 'What's THÀT?' seeks elucidation about a specific item – and 'Who's THÀT?' about a specific person – just mentioned.)

Questions as directives

19.62 Questions, direct and indirect, have an important role in discourse as polite equivalents of requests. On entering someone's room, a visitor will begin with such a question even if he is a fairly close friend:

Are you free for a minute or two?
Is this an awkward moment to see you about something?
Am I disturbing you?
Got a second? ⟨informal⟩
I wonder whether you could help me.

These opening gambits would preface discourse itself. But question forms may equally preface physical action by the speaker or seek it from the hearer:

Would you mind if I closed the window?
Would you excuse me a moment? I must find a telephone.
Do you think you could lock the door when you leave?
Why don't you come and have dinner with me tonight?

The fact that such questions are not semantically interrogative is shown by

the fact that they can be coordinated (especially in AmE) with statements and combine a request with an expression of intention:

Why don't I go on ahead and you (can) come when you're ready?
Why don't you get a taxi and I'll be out in a minute?

In the conventional language of formal meetings, procedure is often couched in elaborately interrogative structures, each widely recognized as a formula disguising a statement:

Could I ask through you, Mr Chairman, whether the Secretary is thinking of the occasion under discussion?
[~ 'The Secretary has muddled the dates']
But may we not ask ourselves whether this is an appropriate time to raise taxes?
[~ 'I am opposed to raising taxes now']
I wonder if we might now turn to the next item.
[~ 'The present discussion is closed']
Am I {alone / right} in thinking the motion is out of order?

Rhetorical questions

19.63 The rhetorical question has in common with the formulaic questions discussed in 19.62 the fact that the answer is a foregone conclusion:

She said she had been too ill to come to work that day, and certainly she sounded pretty groggy on the phone. Anyway, who was I to argue? [1]
[= 'I wasn't in a position to doubt her word']
The prisoners were grumbling about their cold cells and several claimed they weren't getting enough to eat. But what could I do? [2]
[= 'I could do nothing']
Do I have to tell you everything? You're a fully qualified architect and these things should be at your fingertips! [3]

As we see from these examples, especially [3], the rhetorical question is by no means confined to the highly wrought prose of formal speeches of persuasion that we may think of in connection with 'rhetoric'. Rather, the tag question so common in the most informal speech is strictly similar to the rhetorical question in its communicative effect, since it essentially seeks confirmation of what the speaker has explicitly assumed (by the preceding declarative) to be agreed truth:

It's a glorious day, *isn't it*? [4]
Joan Sutherland was the best coloratura singer of her generation, *wasn't she*? [5]

Compare:

When have we had a better coloratura singer than Joan Sutherland? [5a]

Such a use of tags occurs in very informal speech (especially BrE and chiefly nonstandard) where the hearer cannot possibly be expected to know the answer or to take it for granted, but where the speaker seeks by such use of the question form to imply that the answer ought to be self-evident. These tags have a falling tone on the operator:

Well, I couldn't hear the phone, could I? It's in the next room and the door was shut. Besides, I was fast asleep, wasn't I? But I can't expect you to think of things from my angle, can I? [6]

Note Although *yes–no* questions are theoretically open to either response, it is striking that they normally occur when the speaker plainly expects 'yes'.

Participant involvement

19.64 Whether this is made explicit or not, every text is addressed *by* someone ('I') *to* someone else ('you'). In many cases, the relation of both participants is indeed explicit:

I tell *you* it's true! [1]

But equally both can be merely implicit:

Good luck! [= '*I* wish *you* good luck'] [2]

In very formal communications, where the precise identity of the addressee is unknown and where the originator is making the communication on behalf of an organization, the participants may be referred to in the 3rd person:

The management regret(s) any inconvenience to *clients* during repair work to the premises. [3]

In a similar tone and often for similar reasons, mention of one or both of the participants is avoided altogether:

The management regrets any inconvenience during repair work to the premises. [3a]
Any inconvenience to *clients* is regretted during . . . [3b]
Any inconvenience is regretted during . . . [3c]

In some texts, both participants are referred to simultaneously by means of the inclusive *we* (*cf* 6.7):

So now *we* know why there was no traffic coming towards *us* on this road. Well, since the road is obviously blocked, *we*'ll have to turn back and find a side road somewhere. *We*'ll manage somehow. [4]

(*Cf* 19.51)

But in many texts, the addressee is unmentioned and the speaker or writer leaves it implicit as to who is the authority for the communication. This is natural enough in face-to-face speech where the source is obvious; so too in a personal letter or even in a printed text which is accompanied by the author's name:

Julian is going to Detroit next week. In fact, if he likes it and finds a job, he may decide to stay there. His wife, of course, comes from that part of Michigan. [5]

We notice, however, that in the use of the adverbial *of course* the speaker/writer is appealing to the addressee's shared knowledge (just as he might, with *clearly*, *obviously*, *of course*, etc, to the addressee's shared opinion). Nor would it be unusual in such a text for the author to make explicit his relation to the information conveyed:

Julian, *I gather*, is going to Detroit next week. In fact, if he likes it and finds a job, *he tells me* that he may decide . . . [5a]

Even in a signed letter, some amplification of identity may be necessary if the writer is unknown to (or may have been forgotten by) the addressee, or if it is otherwise necessary to specify his role:

As a Camden resident and also as a qualified accountant, I write to inform you of an error in the recently published expenditure figures of your Council . . . [6]

You may not remember me, but I hope you will allow me to congratulate you on your marriage. It must give all of your former colleagues like me great pleasure to know of your happiness . . . [7]

Not so much as your father, but as man to man, I do implore you to be more considerate . . . [8]

So too in speech (and *cf* 19.77 Note):

I am employed by a detective agency. I wonder if you could help me in some inquiries I am making about a person who used to be a neighbour of yours. [9]

On the telephone, identification of both speaker and addressee usually prefaces discourse:

Hello. Is that Peter? Marjorie here. What? Oh sorry! – Marjorie Wong, your wife's assistant. Is Valerie there? [10]

Hello. Am I speaking to the Controller? This is the Works Department. We are having to cut off your electricity supply for an hour or so, but if the interruption becomes very inconvenient will you please phone me, Ram Patel, on extension 2018. [11]

In this last example, personal identification is given only incidentally (at the end), since the caller is primarily phoning not as an individual but as an institution ('the Works Department').

The addressee may equally need to have his role specified in the particular context: *you* may be friend, wife, mother, doctor, neighbour, according to who is in communication and on what occasion:

I wonder if I can ask you – as a friend rather than as my doctor – if you think I ought to give up smoking. I know that you discourage your children – but is this as a mother or as a doctor or because you know it affects your husband's breathing? [12]

I am writing to you in your capacity as a volunteer helper at the South Boston Youth Center. You will have noticed . . . [13]

Note [a] Identification and authority are made heavily explicit in legal documents. For example:
I, the undersigned, being of sound mind, do this day hereby bequeath . . .
[b] Examples [10] and [11] illustrate the normal telephone use of *this/here* for the speaker, *that/there* for the hearer. Perhaps because of the unfavourable values associated with *that* (*cf* 5.63 Note [a]), there is some tendency to address the unseen hearer with the question 'Is this X?'

Speaker/hearer contact

19.65 But in addition to establishing identity of participants and to indicating authority for content, textual structure tends to be punctuated by periodic references to both participants. The hearer is addressed by name, not for clarity but out of courtesy and friendliness. The speaker may repeatedly refer to himself, often successfully giving thereby an impression of courtesy and modesty rather than of egocentricity:

I'd like you to know . . . I think . . . I hear . . . I seem to remember . . . it occurs to me . . . I mean . . . [1]

A communication from a body or organization may self-refer similarly:

Your union officials suggest . . . we acknowledge . . . we claim . . . we hope . . . [2]

Direct allusions and appeals to the addressee are especially characteristic of speech, informally with interspersed comment clauses *you see*, *you know*, *get it?*, *do you follow me?*, *yes? right?*; more formally *as you well know*, *as you may know*, *if I make myself clear* (*to you*), *if you will pardon the allusion*. In familiar speech, such asides may be excessive. For example:

I was just turning into Regent Street, *right*? And *you know* that Italian restaurant, Rachel. Well, *you see* I was trying to see if it was open, and *would you believe it*, coming out was Martha Goldberg. *You remember her*, Rachel, she used to work with me, *yes*? Well, *as you can imagine*, I pulled in and tried to attract her attention. She has remarried, *you know*. [3]

At this point, *if you will allow me*, I shall revert, ladies and gentlemen, to the aspect of the theory that I was explaining a few minutes ago. *As I am sure you will recall*, the central interest of the double helix . . . [4]

Addressee-involvement obviously serves two related functions, often distinguished by intonation. On the one hand, the speaker wants assurance that the addressee is following the communication in all its detail and allusion; in this spirit the involvement is essentially interrogative (*cf* 19.61) and the inserted items have a rising nucleus:

YÉS
you KNÓW
SÉE } [5]

On the other hand, they are assurances to the addressee that he is not being

underestimated and that it is highly probable that he knows the facts already; the speaker is recalling them as much for the clarification of his own mind as anything else. In this spirit, the inserts have a falling nucleus or are uttered with low prominence carrying no nucleus at all:

|she has reMÀRried you know| [6]

Confidence in shared knowledge not uncommonly permits the total replacement of an item of information by a heavily prominent *you know* with fall-plus-rise (*cf* 19.59 Note, on uncompleted *but*-conjoins):

I'd like to help him in any way I could, but YÒU KNÓW – [7]
[*ie* '. . . but there are notorious reasons for my not doing so, and these you know well']

A notable use of the 'shared knowledge' indicator, *you know* or *you see*, is where a participant breaks into discourse with a response or possibly a contrasting viewpoint (note the use of *well*; and *cf* 19.54):

A: Are you going to Warburton's?
B: Well *you see* I no longer work there. [8]

Again:

A: I find his explanation of relativity absolutely baffling. Isn't he an incredibly bad lecturer?
B: Well, *you know*, you missed the lecture before last and I think it was pretty crucial. [9]

The emphatic use of *you know* can serve as a connective within a continuous text:

I just couldn't bear going all the way to that place yet again. |YÒU KNÓW| my |LÉGS were aching| the |CRÓWDS were thicker than ever| and I had a |HÈADache| [10]

Individuals differ in the extent to which they intersperse terms of address in discourse. In letters, they are used almost solely in the initial salutation: *Dear Mr Robinson*, *Dear Fred*; though between intimates, items like *darling* commonly accompany sentences throughout, as they would do in the corresponding speech. Letters to strangers can freely begin *Dear Sir* (less freely *Dear Madam*), and in formal style they may end *I remain, Sir, yours faithfully*. A general letter may begin *Gentlemen* (rather than ?*Dear Gentlemen*) or *Dear Sirs*, or *Ladies and Gentlemen*. On differences between AmE and BrE, *cf* App III.11.

In speech, it is normal to address a group as *Ladies and Gentlemen*; a group of men as *Gentlemen* (or, in military and analogous usage, as *Men*, though this would hardly be text-initial). At a formally constituted meeting, it is equally normal for individuals to be addressed as *Sir*, to or from the chair, less comfortably as *Madam*. But in chance encounters with strangers, severe constraints are felt over terms of address, especially in BrE. A request such as *I wonder if you could direct me to Pitt Street?* would in AmE (and especially in Southern AmE) be accompanied very widely by *Sir* or *Ma'am*, irrespective of the speaker's sex or an adult addressee's age. In BrE, *Sir* would be rather

rare, and would be used chiefly by younger men addressing older men; it would almost never be used by women. *Madam*, though the only fully acceptable form of address to a woman, is felt to be inappropriate in most informal circumstances (though it is used in addressing customers, clients, etc). In general, women can use neither *Sir* nor *Madam* except where the speaker is in a recognizably serving role, though women students occasionally so address a teacher.

A younger woman is sometimes addressed by men as *Miss*, but this is widely regarded as nonstandard or felt to be demeaning to the person addressed. In nonstandard use, *Lady*, *Mister*, and *Missus* occur freely in men's speech; and *lady* also has an ironic use which is not uneducated but informal (and addressed to a woman who is *not* a stranger):

Oh, you can't use that argument, lady. [11]

Man is also used to acquaintances (especially in AmE), but more familiarly than the foregoing use of *lady*. The use of *woman* in address is informal and usually impolite.

Note [a] Just as a speaker involves the addressee with insertions like *right*, *you know*, so the addressee reassures the speaker with similar short comments: *Oh I see*, *Yes I know*, *Right*.
[b] Although the inserts for involvement and authority are most frequently uttered with little prosodic prominence, *you know* is not alone in having a stressed variant. There is, for example, a triumphant or retributive *you see*, as in (uttered with a wide range of pitch, in contrast to that normal in comment clauses):

So I was RIGHT| you "SÉE|. [12]

Compare also:

She has reMÀRried { I think / I THÍNK } [13]

In [13] the first variant is little more than a conventional reluctance to seem dogmatic, but the second is meant to express serious reservations about the truth of what has preceded.
[c] Tag questions are much used to facilitate participant involvement, and it is notable that they are commonly placed well in advance of end position (*cf* 10.57*ff*, 11.7*ff*). For example:

She hadn't at that time, *had she*, been fully recognized as a serious writer?

Information processing

19.66 It is appropriate to treat this aspect of grammatical organization last since, being more centrally significant than any other, information processing has already to no small degree been seen as the motivation behind other specific features of grammar discussed elsewhere. It is paramount in the use of coordination and subordination (*cf* 19.57*ff*), and it was specifically mentioned in the treatment of questions (*cf* 19.61). Consider a sequence like the following:

Our economic troubles continue to resist solution. We have tried subsidizing our weaker industries. We have experimented with import controls. We have on occasion resorted to the drastic device of devaluation. To no avail. *How then are we to proceed?* The answer lies in higher productivity and better products. [1]

The italicized question is pivotal in this text. It contains the conjunct *then* with anaphoric reference: the remedies already tried, which have been of 'no

avail', are put behind us. The question both points forward (and this is lexically matched by 'The answer' which follows) and prepares us for a climactic alternative strategy. A similar anticipation of the information focus would have been:

. . . To no avail. *The way forward* is to seek higher . . . [1a]

The essence of such anticipation is to indicate in general terms what is to follow (we are going to 'proceed', there is a 'way forward') and hence both to prepare the hearer/reader and to arouse his interest. Note the comparable function of the italicized *where*-clause in the next example:

Robert Adam was in many respects typical of British architects of the eighteenth century. Like Inigo Jones and Lord Burlington, he drew eagerly on the inspiration both of the Renaissance and of Antiquity. He shared the enthusiasm of his contemporaries for collecting classical marbles. He was far from being alone in undertaking venturesome travel in the Mediterranean and in gazing with wonder at vase fragments and at sundrenched monuments. He was quintessentially a member of the Neo-classical movement. *Where he stands apart* is in his refusal to regard Antiquity as inviolable. It was an inspiration for new work, not a model for imitation. [2]

The major part of the paragraph is illustrative of the claim that Adam was typical of his time. The writer has one piece of counter-evidence, and he could have expressed this by the mere use of adversative *but*:

. . . a member of the Neo-classical movement. But he refused to regard . . . [2a]

This would have made the point for an alert reader, though the exceptional feature would have been expressed rather tamely. The fact that we had come to an exception could have been more insistently expressed for the less alert reader by a further alternative:

. . . a member of the Neo-classical movement. But there is one respect in which he stands apart: he refused to regard . . . [2b]

The writer might, however, have arrived at a compromise between [2b] and [2], as follows:

. . . a member of the Neo-classical movement. But he stands apart in his refusal to regard . . . [2c]

We should note that, informationally, this is a subtle improvement over [2b] in seeming to assume (by the nominalization, *his refusal*) a significant item of shared knowledge. The writer credits his reader with being aware that Adam had this degree of creative independence. In fact, the original version [2] shows the writer going one better than this. He not merely achieves the objective of warning the reader that we have come to one respect in which Adam 'stands apart'; use of the pseudo-cleft enables him also to imply that the reader was well-informed enough to know that there was such a standing apart (as well as that Adam did not 'regard Antiquity as inviolable'), and

that in consequence we have now simply arrived at the point of restating it. In presenting what may well be new information as though it were given (*cf* 18.8), the writer treats his reader with flattering respect as well as enabling himself to make the main point with great force and economy.

19.67 The highlighting of the main information is associated with intonation nucleus. As explained in 18.2*ff*, speech enables us to do this independently of the grammatical structure. Guiding a reader to assign focus is more difficult, and Chapter 18 explores a range of grammatical devices that can be exploited. One such device is ellipsis. By omitting as much as is grammatically and semantically tolerable, the writer limits the reader's choice and thus guides his decision. Compare the following:

She felt trapped and frustrated. Whatever she said might so easily be misinterpreted. An idea crossed her mind, only . . . [1]

In reading this text, one might plausibly assign a prosody as follows:

An i|dea crossed her MÍND| only . . . [1a]

In other words, we have given ourselves the expectation (congruent with the preceding sentence) that the text might continue:

. . . only to be rejected the next minute. [1b]

But let us suppose the writer had intended it to be read as:

An i|DÈA crossed her mind| only . . . [1c]

with the text continuing:

. . . only just in time. [1d]

The reader's momentary error could have been avoided in several ways. The risk that the third sentence of [1] was continuing the implication of the second would not have arisen if a thematic adverbial (*Suddenly . . .*, *Then . . .*) had implied a radical change. A nucleus would have been placed on *idea* if a rewording had placed this word at the end:

She had an idea. [1e]

But it might still have been given the wrong nucleus by a reader expecting a continuation like [1b]. With a more radical rewriting, we might have had a successful but highly elliptical verbless sentence, imperfectly suggesting the syntax but infallibly both conveying the semantics and pointing to the information focus:

She felt trapped and frustrated. Whatever she said might so easily be misinterpreted. Suddenly – an idea! Only just in time. [1′]

Not merely would a reader unhesitatingly reconstruct this prosodically as:

. . . |Suddenly – an i↑DÈA| . . . [1″]

but he would react to the dramatic expression of the pivotal point between the woman's difficulties and the beginning of their possible resolution.

One further example. Imagine an argument conducted by correspondence.

A has written to B saying that a certain problem had nothing to do with her. B replies:

> Let me set out the case as I see it and try to show you that the problem has something to do with you. [2]

A will probably read the last phrase as:

> . . . the |problem has something to do with YOU| [2a]

whereas the words are in fact a paraphrase of a remark in A's own letter: they are 'given' information; all that is new is the positive (assertion) in place of A's original negative (denial). B has thus meant it to be read as:

> . . . the |problem HÀS something to do with you| [2b]

The required shift away from the normal (but here unwanted) end focus could have been achieved in the first place by some such device as emphatic *do* or an inserted subjunct (or both), thus drawing attention to the new polarity:

> . . . the problem does (indeed) have something to do with you. [2′]

which A would promptly have read with the required prosody:

> . . . the |problem { does inDÈED / DÒES } have something to do with you| [2″]

Information and sequence

19.68 Much of what we have been saying about the processing of information, not only here but in Chapter 18 and elsewhere in this book, concerns sequence. The order of presentation is clearly vital, whether we are concerned with premodifying adjectives, a group of noun phrases, a pair of independent clauses, a sequence comprising a matrix clause and a subordinate clause, or of course the elements within a single clause. We have choices such as:

> { an intricate and arduous task [1a]
> an arduous and intricate task [1b] }

> { the cold night and the difficult journey [2a]
> the difficult journey and the cold night [2b] }

> { They cheered and they sang. [3a]
> They sang and they cheered. [3b] }

> { I saw the broken window when I arrived home. [4a]
> When I arrived home, I saw the broken window. [4b] }

> { Our memories of past crises were being added to our uncertainties for the future. [5a]
> To our uncertainties for the future were being added our memories of past crises. [5b] }

More is involved here than sequence, of course. As well as deciding on a pair (or longer set) of units, we have to decide on the actual choice of lexical items. Are they to be near-synonyms or are they to be in sharp contrast? In either case, should they prosodically resemble each other (*eg* by alliterating, having the same number of syllables, the same stress pattern; *eg*: *arduous* and *intricate*), or should they differ in these respects (*eg*: *tough* and *intricate*)? Formal similarity often conveys a sense both of euphony and of a harmony between substance and meaning; formal dissimilarity, on the other hand, can convey a sense of richness and variety. Considerations of euphony enter also into the question of sequencing, but for the most part, both in the selection of items and in their placement, we are concerned with 'the right words in the right place'.

Whatever is placed first will seem relatively introductory and 'scene-setting'. Clearly, *preparing* our hearer or reader for what is to follow is of the greatest importance if the following part is to have the proper impact. The converse of this is that whatever is placed last will be expected to be relatively consequential, of greater importance, and possibly climactic. So in choosing between [1a] and [1b], our decision may depend on whether we wish to convey that the task was arduous *because* it was intricate; intricate and *above all* arduous; arduous in *being* intricate; arduous and *furthermore* intricate. In choosing between [3a] and [3b], we may wish to imply one or other chronological sequence: that they did one thing before the other. But if the two actions are but different aspects of the same celebratory behaviour, we have decisions to make on similar principles to those concerning us in [1a] and [1b], [2a] and [2b]. With [4a] and [4b], however, the order will probably be contextually determined: one or other, the arrival or the seeing, will be relatively 'given' (that is, the hearer/reader will already have been told or led to expect that the subject is going home or that a window has been broken), and whichever is in consequence the relatively 'new' item will be placed in final position if a feeble anticlimactic 'tail' is to be avoided. So again with [5a] and [5b]: the former will be preferred if the preceding part of the text has been dealing with 'past crises' and the intention is to go on to some discussion of the future; if the converse holds, [5b] will be selected.

We shall draw attention to sequencing and other modes of effectively presenting information in the annotated specimens that now follow.

Note Some matters of sequence are determined by courtesy, convention, or idiom. In formal circumstances, women are named in address before men, and the speaker is mentioned last:

> Ladies and gentlemen! It gives me great pleasure . . .
> Harry and I were dismayed.

In 3rd person mention, however, sequence can freely depend upon the speaker's decision:

> { Joan and Peter / Peter and Joan } will be coming. I saw lots of { boys and girls. / girls and boys. }

On the other hand, we have a conventional mention of males first in *(the) men and women, he and she, Mr and Mrs (Jones)*. Numerous other sequences are idiomatically fixed (as in *give and take, pots and pans, knife and fork, (Please pass the) salt and pepper, (Do you take) milk and sugar?*) Doubtless these have become fixed historically in response to the operation of prosodic or semantic pressures. Principles like 'Short before long' and 'General setting before specific object' combine happily in the journal title *Homes and Gardens* (*ie* private gardens - not public or zoological). *Cf* on binomials, 13.86.

The scrutiny of an example

19.69 We now present a fictional memoir, which will be analysed fairly closely in terms of textual structure as described in the earlier parts of this chapter.

As a child, one of my sisters was endlessly troubled by bad
dreams and she could never be persuaded that they meant nothing.
Boylike, of course, I was very scornful of this. On one occasion
her screams awoke the whole house and so far as I can remember none of us
had any more sleep that night. She sobbed; she was inconsolable; 5
she could not be induced even to tell us what she had been dreaming.
It had obviously been a nightmare. And a much worse one than the
poor child usually suffered. By breakfast time, she seemed so ill
that my parents decided she should stay home. Yet this upset her
still more. It was then that she was coaxed into telling us what had 10
frightened her.

A school friend had a little kitten and because this boy's parents
were out at work all day, the teacher used to allow him to bring his
pet to school and the caretaker used to look after it until the
day's classes ended and the children went home again. In my sister's 15
dream some Fearsome Creature with huge jaws was threatening the
kitten's life and only she had the power to save it. So although as
an added terror the Monster had some terrifying power over her too,
she begged to be allowed to go to school as usual. Reluctantly my
parents gave in but they insisted that since she was still scared and 20
weepy I accompany her all the way.

I was very glad I did. Near the school we came upon another tearful
youngster, her friend, frightened and harassed by a rather vicious
dog that was jumping up and trying to molest the kitten in the lad's arms.
I managed to chase it away with my sister's help and all was well. 25
But, as you can imagine, she was more convinced than ever that dreams
gave a dire glimpse of the future. And, secretly, I was no longer
so sure she was wrong.

Text 19.69

The passage has both overall unity and a comprehensible 'natural' progression from part to part within it. Yet many of the parts are juxtaposed asyndetically (19.5); *cf* lines 5–6. Syndetic connection (19.11) is in fact less common, but *cf* lines 2 and 4. Thematic connection (19.12) occurs in lines 5, 6, 9, and elsewhere (in lines 5–6 with a triadic set; *cf* 19.8). There is a striking instance of rhematic connection (19.14) in line 17 where the rheme *threatening the kitten's life* is matched by *save it* in the next clause. Textual orientation (*cf* 19.15) is shown in the dating of the narrative as a whole ('*As a child*, one of

my sisters . . .', line 1) in the early life of the narrator who is male (*boylike*, line 3) and its location in the family's home community; the narrator relates to his hearer/reader (*cf* 19.64) both through direct involvement (*as you can imagine*, line 26) and by drawing attention to his own fallible authority for the narrative (*so far as I can remember*, line 4). Not least, the example illustrates the extent to which the text depends on the knowledge of culture and language shared by narrator and hearer/reader (*cf* 19.20). The whole has the structure identified as progression (19.17); it is realized by the *step* strategy (19.18) but achieves a stack-like unity.

We shall now look at the passage in some detail, taking each of the four categories of 19.19 in turn. We shall try to show that every feature, whether minute or relatively extensive, quite local or quite pervasive, contributes to every other feature: endorsing and enhancing the textual structure.

Pragmatics and semantics

19.70 Consider first the implications in the clause sequence: *the teacher used to allow him to bring his pet to school and the caretaker used to look after it* (lines 13*f*). The definite determiner in *his pet* is of course anaphoric (*cf* 6.15), grammatically determined by *a little kitten* earlier in the sentence. But this is not true of the definite articles in *the teacher* and *the caretaker*, which are in turn different from each other. The latter depends on our 'knowledge of the world': that a school has a person (designated *caretaker* in BrE) performing duties that justify the situational *the* (*cf* 5.28) in the noun phrase *the caretaker*. If, in place of this, the clause had had *the lieutenant* or *the waiter*, our world view would not have sustained a situational interpretation of *the*, and we would probably have guessed at anaphora and scanned backward (in vain) for earlier mention of a person who might be so described. With *the teacher*, the case is different again, because we assume that any school has *several* teachers: situational interpretation in this case depends upon our knowledge that one particular teacher has special responsibility for a particular group of children, and for each member *the teacher* concerned is so designated.

Consider now the function of *even* in line 6. This is a focusing subjunct with additive-concessive meaning (*cf* 8.116*ff*), and in the present instance the item on which it focuses (the nonfinite clause *to tell us* . . .) is itself within the scope of the negative focusing item *not*. So much from grammar. But our interpretation depends on our judgment of what is implied by the asyndetic sequence in which *even* appears. The clauses *She sobbed; she was inconsolable; she could not be induced even to* . . . are not only thematically linked but also seem to form a series of statements closely similar semantically, and reaching a climax in the third. The *even* thus appropriately presents an added measure of the child's misery. But the series can be seen rather differently: a narrative sequence in temporal order. The child sobbed. Her parents tried to console her, but in vain. They then tried to persuade her to tell them about the dream – and *even* this less ambitious aim was frustrated. There are further possibilities, still fully compatible with our understanding of the grammar. The implication may be that they could not persuade her to talk *even though* she was normally very keen to tell the family what she had been dreaming.

19.71 One further part of the narrative is worth examining in the present

connection. The adjunct *on one occasion* (line 3) is temporal but very elastic in reference. Compare:

On one occasion as I was having breakfast . . .
On one occasion when I was sunbathing . . .
On one occasion as I was going to bed . . .

It carries no necessary reference to a particular time, yet in line 3 we immediately understand it *in part* as 'one night' because dreaming entails sleep and the normal time to be asleep is at night. So the further time adjunct *that night* in the coordinate clause (line 5) is purely confirmatory and *that* is anaphoric. But in fact our chain of pragmatic reasoning has enabled us to make a still more precise interpretation of the phrase *on one occasion*. Although a child may scream on any occasion (and surely more often during waking hours), in the present context we do not need to be told that her screams were occasioned by a dream. We have automatically interpreted the adjunct as 'On one occasion *when she was being troubled by just such a bad dream*', taking the phrase to be thematic with reference to the rheme of the very first finite clause of the narrative.

Lexical features

19.72 When we want to sustain a reference between one part of a text and another, we usually resort to pro-forms (*cf* 12.1*ff*), but this is not always possible. We find the noun phrase *my parents* in line 9 and again in line 20. Clearly, the second reference could not be achieved by *they*, since the pronoun's antecedent would be too remote for correct identification. In any case, replacing lexical items by pro-forms is not always desirable: it may often be better to repeat the lexical item or to use another that is semantically appropriate. This is one of the means by which a text can be given added unity and coherence. The text under consideration concerns family life, with special reference to childhood, and more especially to the dreaming to which one little girl is prone. These matters are reflected in lexical sets as follows:

family: *parents, child, girl, boy, sister, home, house, breakfast* (perhaps also *coax, allow*)
childhood: *child, girl, boy, lad, youngster, school, class, teacher, friend, kitten, pet* (perhaps also *sob, scream, beg, fear* etc; *monster*)
dreaming: *dream* (four times), *nightmare, sleep, night*

But this is to consider subject matter; the plot connects childhood and dreaming in terms of horror, and again this is endorsed by clusters of lexical items:

scream, sob, inconsolable, suffer, ill, upset, bad, trouble; fearsome, frighten, terror, dire, vicious, monster, power, harass, molest

Most of the items in these sets have the semantic complementarity that confers an enrichment by lexical linkage, since we have not repetition so much as a wide selection from associated sets. But a valuable aspect of lexical distribution in texts is that items may be hierarchic as well as linear. A nightmare is hyponymic to (*ie* included within) the class of dreams; conversely, *child* is hypernymic to *boy* and *girl*.

These words, with their modest degree of repetition, do not of course entail the particular subject matter, still less the course of the narrative. The same lexical distribution might occur in a text concerned with a murder trial or even mountaineering. As with the potentiality of grammatical devices (*cf* 19.5*f*), it is the *compatibility* of the lexical items that matters, not so much evoking or endowing as confirming a textual coherence.

In any event there are limitations on actual repetition. Although there are exceptions (see below), we normally avoid repeated use of the same lexical item within short spans of text, especially in writing, since the effect can be unpleasant and clumsy. The required lexical reference and linkage can be achieved by the use of words that have the requisite closeness in meaning. This not merely has the negative advantage of avoiding monotony: it can enrich the text by presenting additional semantic facets. In line 12, a new character is introduced, *a school friend*, who is referred to in the next clause as *this boy*. The lexical items are complementary in the information they give us: a boy need not be a school friend; a school friend need not be a boy. Again, the *kitten* of line 12 is called *his pet* in line 14: very little meaning is added here, but we find it appropriate that it is in recognizing that the kitten is the boy's pet animal that the teacher permits him to bring it to school. Compare also the complementarity of *persuaded* (line 2), *induced* (line 6), and *coaxed* (line 10). From the examples of lexical linkage that have been cited, it will have become clear that the linkage transcends the syntactic function of the lexical items concerned. The same lexical item is present in *bad dreams* and *had been dreaming* (lines 2 and 6), in *to school* and *school friend* (lines 14 and 12), in *child* and *children* (lines 1 and 15), in *bad* and *worse* (lines 1 and 7), indeed even in *terror* and *terrifying* (line 18), to cite only examples from *Text* 19.69. Further, given that linkage operates through items of related meaning, we have comparable links between *sobbed* (line 5), *weepy* (line 21), and *tearful* (line 22). It is on these grounds that we are able to adduce a lexical contrast between waking and sleeping, though in the text this is realized by the noun *sleep* and the past-tense verb *awoke* (lines 5 and 4).

The text contains the clause *she was inconsolable* (line 5). This might have been related to a preceding clause (which is indeed perhaps implied), thus involving such a cross-grammatical linkage:

My parents tried to *console* her but she was inconsolable.

More indirectly, but with an overtness not present in the text:

My parents *cuddled* her and put her favourite teddy bear in her arms to *comfort* her, but she was *inconsolable*.

Now, there is an obvious semantic connection between *cuddling*, *comforting*, and *consoling*, but the predication *inconsolable* does more than conform to the linkage of a particular semantic chain: we understand it as an abbreviation of and substitute for something like '(She was) not consoled by the parental cuddling or by the comforting presence of the teddy bear'.

From punctuation to prosody

19.73 Our text is divided into paragraphs which in turn are divided into orthographic sentences, normally coinciding with the grammatical units of

the same name, but not necessarily so. Note the sentence in lines 7–8 which consists of only a noun phrase. Sentences are divided into parts that may be marked punctuationally in various ways · semicolons, colons, commas, dashes. Although the semicolon normally terminates a clause, the generalization is insecure and there are still fewer correlations between grammatical units and the textual units bounded by the other punctuation marks (*cf* App III.15).

The points at which a writer chooses to begin new paragraphs will vary from text to text and from writer to writer (*cf* 19.28). Each paragraph will have in some sense a self-contained unity, it is true. Thus the first paragraph of our sample text deals with the family commotion caused by the dream; the second with the content of the dream; the third with the event that parallels the dream. But the point at which a paragraph comes to an end has by no means a sense of finality; in our text, indeed, the first paragraph ends in a way that frustrates the reader's hopes and expectations. Equally, a new paragraph need in no way herald a new topic; in our text, the third paragraph begins with a sentence that has exceptionally close linkage with the final sentence of the preceding paragraph, and many writers might well have preferred to postpone the new paragraph accordingly:

> . . . insisted that since she was still scared and weepy I accompany her all the way, and I was very glad I did.
>
> Near the school we came upon another tearful youngster . . .

Nonetheless, the actual points chosen to terminate the paragraphs are by no means casual, still less arbitrary. The writer has doubtless felt that the first sentence of his second paragraph has more connection with the sentences that follow than with those that have preceded. Moreover, having to inject some background material, its textual discreteness is displayed more readily by beginning a new paragraph at that point. But even if no background material had been needed and the next sentence after line 11 had begun:

> Some Fearsome Creature with huge jaws was . . .

the writer might still have felt it appropriate to begin a new paragraph, as though enforcing an expected pause after lines 10–11.

So too, beginning the third paragraph with *I was very glad I did* is readily justifiable. Not only does the alternative version suggested above entail a very long and rather clumsy end to the preceding paragraph, but again the typographic break at the point made in the original is textually superior in several ways. The gladness belongs to the content of the third paragraph and not the second: contrast an alternative wording, *I was perfectly happy to agree* which would more readily have belonged to the second paragraph. Moreover, this third paragraph is to be concerned as much with a change in the narrator's views as with the dog episode; and as the paragraph is to end with *I* as subject, it is fitting that it should so begin also. In addition, as with the division between the first and second paragraphs, this is a suitable point for a suspense-enhancing break.

The sentence units

19.74 As with paragraphs, so with sentences: their limits are determined by the

author in accordance with his idea of the text's shape. There are two fairly striking indications of this in the present text. Lines 5–6 (*She sobbed . . . had been dreaming*) could have been three sentences and the writer made it one. Lines 7–8 (*It had obviously . . . usually suffered*) could have been one sentence (as grammatically it has to be understood) and the writer made it two. But again as with the paragraphs, the decision made on the sentence division is readily interpreted as purposeful. In putting a period after *a nightmare* in line 7, the writer gives more weight to this noun phrase and obliges us to consider the full significance of the word 'nightmare': the reader will not pass over it lightly, treating it merely as a vague hyperbole. The effect on the *And*-sentence that follows is equally great: again the separation forces us to treat it separately and to read it as though in fuller form: '*Moreover*, it was a much worse nightmare than . . .'.

The converse process of punctuating three possible 'sentences' as one in lines 5–6 is justified on several grounds. The three parts constitute a single unit, developing the *screams* (line 4) and the reason for there being no more sleep that night. Grouping as a single sentence also brings out the triadic structure (*cf* 19.8) which would have been blurred if they had been punctuated as separate sentences, depending only on the common subject *she* to distinguish the triad from the next following sentence. On the other hand, if the three parts had been separated by commas instead of semicolons (*cf* App III.6*ff*), too great a homogeneity would have been imposed.

Consider now the two finite clauses in the text that are introduced by *but*. The first (line 20) runs straight on without even a comma; the second (line 26) begins a new sentence. In the first case, the two clauses have the same subject and this justifies a closer textual relation to some extent. But a probably stronger factor is the psychological one: the writer is able to imply that the 'giving in' is directly conditional upon the child being accompanied to school. By contrast, in the second case (line 26), not merely are the subjects of the two clauses different but the concessive link between them is more oblique (*cf* 19.80).

While only one sentence is divided into units with semicolons, the comma occurs rather frequently. In general, its use is unremarkable, indeed conventional (*cf* App III.6*ff*), but in one or two instances both its presence and its absence are of some interest. Despite their similarity in form, position, and function (in being subject-oriented), *Reluctantly* in line 19 and *secretly* in line 27 have different relations with their contexts (*cf* 19.80), and this is endorsed by the punctuation used. But it would be false to suggest that there must be convincing textual reasons behind every punctuational distinction: though possessing considerable discriminatory potential, the comma is especially prone to careless and inconsistent use. For example, there seems no good reason for the absence of a comma after some of the initial adverbials, such as the one in lines 15–16. But the same is not true for the commas after *But* (line 26) and *And* (line 27); justified by the parenthetic comment clauses, the commas conveniently emphasize the converse effect of these two conjunctions, encouraging a pause or even a nuclear focus in reading. *Cf* 19.29 Note.

One minor point that must undoubtedly be deliberate is the use of initial capitals for *Fearsome Creature* and *Monster* (lines 16 and 18). Bearing in

mind the conventions in this respect (*cf* App III.29), we must suppose that the writer's intention is to imply the unique, extra-generic nature of the creature in the dream: unique enough to merit the capitals suggestive of proper names. There is also, no doubt, the ironic suggestion of the grotesque importance the creature assumed in the child's mind.

Prosodic realization

19.75 From time to time in this book and especially in this chapter, we have used such clumsy expressions as 'speaker/writer' for the originator and 'hearer/reader' for the receiver of a text. The inelegance is perhaps justified if it has helped to keep both oral and written realizations of language in mind. We shall later look at texts that originated (and had their sole existence) in speech, and at others that originated (and have their main existence) on paper. But regardless of their origin, it is vital to understand that aural reception is rarely if ever to be disregarded. We must insist afresh that even silent reading of a typically paper-originating text (such as an insurance document) demands the silent assignment of speech prosodies as an aid to understanding. It is only on rare occasions that a punctuational device has no spoken analogue; initial capitals, as with *Fearsome Creature*, are perhaps among the exceptions, though even these could doubtless be expressed by ironic emphasis in speech. The careful writer makes his punctuation choices in the hope of giving his reader the cues necessary to assign the prosody that the writer would himself have used. For example, the use of semicolons in line 5 will induce us to read this as a triad and yet with more staccato separation of the members than if commas had been used. In other words, we are expected to impose some such prosody as this:

She |SÓBbed| she was |inconsÓLable| she |could not be in'duced
'even to 'tell us 'what she had been DRÈAMing| [1]

But cues to the most appropriate realization come not only or even chiefly from punctuation. They come pervasively from all aspects of lexical and grammatical selection and disposition. It will be our recognition of the semantics that will cause us to assign a narrower range of intonation (*cf* App II.20) on *secretly* in line 27 than on *Reluctantly* in line 19, in some way ironically miming the confidentiality of the confession that follows. Consider also the role played by the selection of and position assigned to the focusing subjuncts *only* in line 17 and *too* in line 18 (*cf* 8.116*ff*). We unhesitatingly realize the units concerned thus:

{and |only SHĚ| had the |power to SÀVE it| [2]
{the |Monster had 'some 'terrifying 'power over HÈR| |TÒO| [3]

Without the focusing subjuncts, we would not expect either pronoun to have a nucleus; replacement of noun phrases by pronouns normally connotes, indeed, that these repeated references need little or no prominence:

{and she had the |power to SÀVE it| [2a]
{the |Monster had 'some 'terrifying PÒWer over her| [3a]

If the author had been telling the story orally instead of writing it, he could have dispensed with the focusing items, or positioned them differently, or

selected different ones; he would nonetheless have achieved the desired effect by putting nuclear focus where he wanted it. Thus:

{and |SHÉ| had the |power to SÀVE it| [2b]
{and |she aLÕNE| had the |power to SÀVE it| [2c]
{the |Monster had 'some 'terrifying 'power over HÈR| [3b]
{the |Monster 'also had 'some 'terrifying 'power over HÈR| [3c]

Features of grammar

Determiners and connective reference

19.76 In our consideration of the text so far, it has been rather artificial to remain silent on grammatical devices, because it is so clear that they inescapably interact with all the other linkage features. To cite just one example: in 19.72, we noted the lexical relation between *a school friend* and *this boy* (line 12). But in fact the lexical link in this instance is significantly preceded by grammatical deixis (*this*) and the whole is embedded in the noun phrase *this boy's parents*. We see the relevance of these grammatical points when we note the relative prosodic weight assigned to the three constituents:

'this ,boy's "parents

The noun-phrase structure assigns greatest prominence to the head, rightly, since this is the new information feature (*cf* 19.84); least is assigned to *boy*, which thus conveys the impression of being a lexical repetition, having the role of merely indicating the friend's sex; *this* is intermediate in weight as being the effective carrier both of connection between the two noun phrases and of contrast between the two sets of parents and between the two friends, 'my sister' and 'the boy'. Different grammatical choices with the same lexical items would achieve very different results:

the parents of this boy
the parents of the boy
the boy's parents
a boy's parents

In several instances, demonstratives, definite articles, and possessives have anaphoric reference to noun phrases previously introduced with indefinites. Thus *the poor child* of lines 7–8 links back to *a child* in line 1; *my sister* of line 15 and elsewhere links back to *one of my sisters* [= *a sister of mine*] in line 1. Other instances: *a little kitten* ~ *his pet* ~ *the kitten* ~ *the kitten* (lines 12–24); *a school friend* ~ *this boy* (line 12); *some Fearsome Creature* ~ *the Monster* (lines 16–18); *another tearful youngster* ~ *her friend* (lines 22–23). The treatment of *dream(s)* is different in a way that is interestingly significant for the structure of the whole text. The subject is introduced with a plural noun phrase but indefinite as one would expect: *bad dreams* (lines 1–2). From that indefinite plurality we focus upon one specific dream, first mentioned in nominal form in line 7, again indefinite as we would expect: *a nightmare*. The

next time it is mentioned in nominal form, it is of course made definite: *my sister's dream* (lines 15–16). The narrative ends with placing this back again in the whole class of indefinite *dreams* (line 26), which forms an effective link back to lines 1–2, thus conveying the 'stacklike unity' to which we alluded in 19.70.

But there are other exceptions to the simple indefinite–definite progression. Reference has already been made (*cf* 19.70) to the situational use of *the* in *the teacher* and *the caretaker* (lines 13 and 14). Compare also *the day's classes*, line 15. A situational usage independent of a specific culture occurs with *the future* in line 27, and it is only through the semantic link with *never . . . meant nothing* (line 2) and *more convinced than ever* (line 26) that the phrase has a connective role.

Definiteness in several noun phrases is achieved by possessives, *eg*: *my parents* (line 9); *the kitten's life* (line 17); *the lad's arms* (line 24); and here again we are concerned with situational reference: we need look for no previous mention of *parents*, *life*, or *arms* since everyone can be expected to have them. But the possessives themselves of course perform a connective role: '*my* parents' with the '*I*' narrator; '*this boy's* parents' (line 12), '*the lad's* arms' with 'another tearful *youngster*' (line 23). In *her friend* (line 23), however, we have both types of connection: *(her) friend* ~ *a school friend* (line 12) and *her (friend)* ~ *my sister* (line 15).

With deverbal nouns, definiteness with possessives works in yet another way. The phrases *her screams* (line 4) and *my sister's help* (line 25) are not determined by earlier references to *screams* or *help*. We seem to be expected to understand covert existentials like '(There were screams from my sister and) *her screams . . .*', '(There was help from my sister and) *my sister's help . . .*' Alternatively, the definiteness may be interpreted as cataphoric with the nominalizations: '*the* screams *of my sister*', '*the* help *of my sister*'. There is an unquestionable cataphoric *the* in *the power to save it* (line 17). In two instances, definiteness is carried by demonstratives: *that night* (line 5) and *this boy* (line 12). Both are anaphoric and the latter is completely straightforward: *this boy* refers back to *a school friend*, and the use of *this* rather than *the* is merely to distinguish *this*, the more recently mentioned child, from the more central figure, *my sister*. The phrase *that night* (line 5) is more complicated. In the first place, the anaphoric reference is by no means explicit (*one occasion*, line 3); *cf* the discussion in 19.71. In the second place, the adjunct phrase admits no simple contrast (**the night*) and replacement of *that* would entail further alteration (*the whole night*, *for the night*). Yet the use of *that* as distinct from *the* is justified by the remoteness in time of the occasion in question from the 'now' of the narration.

Note Definiteness in *the whole house* (line 4) and *the children* (line 15) has clearly anaphoric effect, but through semantic implication: *cf* 19.71. Lines 1–4 imply a family household justifying *the . . . house*; *the children* are anticipated by *my sister* and *a school friend* as well as being implied by the school's existence.

Pro-forms and connective reference

19.77 First and second person pronouns differ from third in not normally having antecedent noun phrases (*cf* 12.47*ff*). *I* and *you* operate in most texts as they do in everyday conversation in being the most direct form of connection

between speaker and hearer. But in the text being analysed the *I* is complicated in having a double reference – the adult narrator, overt only in the second sentence, and himself at an earlier period: himself as brother and son in a family (*my sister*, *my parents*, passim; *none of us*, line 4); himself as actor in the story he is narrating. Though for the most part the roles of narrator and actor are simply distinct, it is not always clear when reference is to the one rather than to the other, and inevitably, this equivocation is caught up in tense. Thus it never emerges (and is irrelevant to the story) whether *one of my sisters* in line 1 implies 'I *have* sisters' or 'I *had* sisters'. Nor is it entirely clear (*cf Fig* 19.78) whether the concluding 'I was no longer' applies only to the *I* actor (*ie* to the period HC) or whether it also applies to the *I* narrator (*ie* to the period HA). The use of *Boylike* in line 3 is partly to distinguish the two age-values of *I* (as well as to establish the sex). It should be noted in passing that a diachronic/synchronic complexity with *I* arises whether a text is fictional or factual.

Most of the other pronouns in the text are straightforwardly anaphoric, but the more striking are the *she/her* references which (from *one of my sisters*, line 1) form a strong thread that binds the entire text. Other anaphoric references:

bad dreams . . . they	(line 2)
this boy . . . him . . . his	(lines 12*ff*)
his pet . . . it	(line 14)
the kitten's life . . . it	(line 17)
my parents . . . they	(line 20)
a rather vicious dog . . . it	(lines 23–25)

With others the antecedent is less obvious. The *us* of line 4 connects with the singular noun phrase *the whole house* earlier in the sentence, where (as object of *awoke*) this is not the ordinary inanimate but a collective in which *house* means 'household', the semantic plurality being endorsed by *whole*. The 1st person involvement in the pronoun *us* is justified by *my* in line 1; its plurality by the implied conjunction of *I*, *one of my sisters*, and (a little later, as we expect) *my parents*.

The antecedent of *this* in line 9 is not a noun phrase at all but the clause *my parents decided she should stay home* (*cf* 19.47), while the *it* that begins the next sentence is that special cataphoric use that enables us to make an item (in this case the time adjunct *then*) rhematic in the first part of the cleft sentence (*cf* 18.26*ff*). Another instance of *it* is less clear: *It had obviously been a nightmare* (line 7). Superficially, it might be anaphoric to the interrogative *what* in the preceding indirect question. Compare:

A: *What* have you got there?
B: I don't know the proper name for *it*, but I think *it* is called an ammeter.

But that would imply the scarcely acceptable 'She had been dreaming a nightmare'. Perhaps we have something more like the prop *it* of 'It's snowing', 'Isn't it cold?' Alternatively, the antecedent might be the whole clause *what she had been dreaming*, covertly nominalized as *the dream*, and this is perhaps the best interpretation, though there is the more remote possibility that the

reference of *it* is much more general: 'the cause of all her trouble, the screams and the sobbing'. In this interpretation, we would see *it* as cataphoric in an incomplete cleft sentence:

It had obviously been a nightmare *that had upset her*.

There are three other types of pro-form to consider in this text. In line 7, *one* stands for and replaces the noun which is head of the preceding noun phrase *a nightmare*. Another instance of *one* (line 1), together with its negative *none* (line 4), is more complex. Both forms are equivocal between their numerical and partitive indefinite-pronominal functions. Compare:

one of my sisters ~ two of my sisters
none of us ~ one of us ~ two of us

beside:

one of my sisters ~ a sister of mine
none of us ~ some of us

But it is in their partitive function that they play a connective role in the text, *one* anticipating *she* in line 2, *none* in a parallel but inverse way connecting with the preceding reference to *the whole house* (line 4).

The second type to mention is the predication pro-form *did* in line 22, connecting with the end of the preceding paragraph by replacing the predication *accompany her all the way*.

Thirdly, there is a rather similar use of some correlative expressions. A comp-element (*cf* 15.63*ff*) is usually followed by complementation introduced by *as* or *than*; there is an example in lines 7–8: *a much worse one than the poor child usually suffered*. But the complementation may be left implicit (*cf* 19.52). For example, in lines 9–10 we have *this upset her still more*, and just as *this* is a pro-form for the preceding clause, so *still more* requires us to understand something like *than her nightmare had done*. Again, in the final sentence the *so* has a totally ellipted correlative (*as I had been*) which has its connections right at the beginning of the narrative where *I was very scornful* connotes 'I was sure that dreams had no significance'.

Note A striking instance of *I* being used with reference to an individual at different periods is essential to the structure of Dan Jacobson's novel *The Rape of Tamar* (1970) where *I* is both the narrator, aware of contemporary addressees (*you*), but necessarily aware also – as the ghost of King David's nephew thousands of years earlier – of a temporal, locational, and cultural gulf separating the *I* whose memoirs are the point of the novel. On the references to time, *cf* 19.78; note also '*this* part of the world' and *cf* 19.31. Addressing the present-day reader:

> . . . allow me to introduce myself. My name is Yonadab.
> Not a common name nowadays; at least in this part of the world. But some of you, a few of you, will have heard of me . . . As I was saying, I am (or was) Yonadab . . .

Tense and narrative structure

19.78 The narrator is *I*, giving a ready-made orientation (*cf* 19.15) to the hearer/reader, and a presumed identity with the 'here' and 'now'. Note *so far as I can remember* in line 4 and *as you can imagine* in line 26, where the present tenses relate precisely to this here and now shared by the narrator and his

hearer/reader. But the narrative as a whole of course relates temporally to the past and the narrative 'stage' is set for this in the opening sentence: *was*, *could*, *meant* are endorsed by the opening adverbial *as a child* which carries the implication that the sister is no longer a child; that the event is in the past but within living memory (at least the narrator's). Within this past, the narrative focuses upon a very short time span of perhaps nine hours and the general progression is straightforward: from the beginning of the period (*awoke*) to the end of the incident with the dog (*managed to chase it away*). But when we look at the text more closely we find considerable complexity, with several points and periods of time involved and some switches in the temporal order. The time structure can be represented as in *Fig* 19.78.

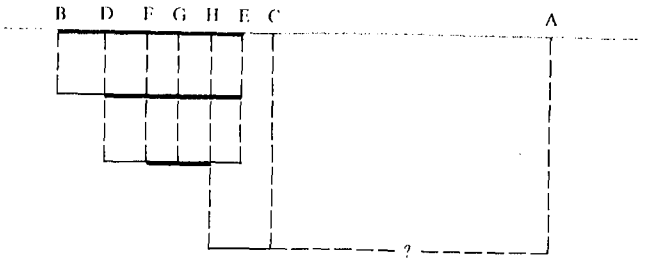

Fig 19.78

The *point A* is the 'now' shared by narrator and audience (*so far as I can remember*, line 4, applies to this point). The *period B* to *C* covers the sister's childhood and (so far as this text is concerned) is coterminous with her troubled dreams: the period of *was . . . troubled* and *could never be persuaded* (lines 1 and 2). The text implies at first that it was coterminous too with *I was very scornful* (line 3), but the point of the final sentence is to challenge this. Within *B* to *C*, another relevant stretch of time is involved: *D* to *E* covers the period when the school friend took his kitten with him every day (lines 12 to 15). It is within this sub-stretch *D* to *E* that the main events of the narrative take place, and we are predominantly involved in the *period* from *F* to *H*: from *F*, when the girl's screams awoke the family (line 4), to *H*, when the dog was chased off (line 25). And, unlike *BC* and *DE*, *FH* is less treated as a stretch of time than as a series of point-to-point events, with some emphasis upon *point G*, breakfast time.

Yet we manage to understand the different types of time reference in terms of largely undifferentiated past-tense verb forms. This applies even to the passage when the narrator interrupts events at *G* to supply background information (lines 12–15) relating to the *DE* period which will be essential to our understanding of the dream: *had* and *were* (lines 12, 13) refer to a span and *went* (line 15) to an iterative series, all sharply different from *upset* and *was coaxed* (lines 9 and 10).

Moreover, when the content of the dream is narrated, the past tenses in *was threatening*, *had* (lines 16*f*) relate not to *G* but to an earlier point, namely

just before *F*. The only exceptions to the undifferentiated past are significant. The past perfective is used in line 6 (*had been dreaming*) and line 10 (*had frightened*). Both are in indirect questions and obey the rules for backshift (*cf* 14.31) to distinguish between the time reference of the superordinate verbs (post-*F* and *G* respectively) and that of the subordinate verbs (both pre-*F*). Replacing past perfectives by past tenses here would have made it seem that the girl *was dreaming* at the same time as she *could not be induced*, and that something *was frightening* her at the same time as she *was coaxed*.

One final point of interest. In the penultimate sentence, the past tenses refer clearly to point *H* in the narrative; but those in the final sentence refer to a span that begins at *H* and stretches to *C* or possibly even to *A*. It is perhaps significant that at the point where the time reference of the past tenses is switched, the narrator interposes the clause *as you can imagine* (line 26), not merely reestablishing the link with the here and now of *A* but helping to imply that the remaining past tenses connect the end of the adventure (*H*) with the present time.

The part played by marked aspect and voice

19.79 (a) ASPECT: The main uses of progressive aspect that form striking links relate to the dream ('what she *had been dreaming*', line 6); to the monster in the dream which '*was threatening* the kitten's life' (line 16); and to the corresponding dog next day which '*was jumping up and trying* to molest the kitten' (line 24). These progressive forms not merely link with each other but form a textual contrast with the accompanying punctual verbs which are aspectually unmarked; for example, *awoke* (line 4); *begged* (line 19); *gave in* and *insisted* (line 20); *came upon* (line 22); *managed* (line 25).

The occurrence of marked habitual aspect, though slighter, is also significant. At the point where the narrator has to interrupt the account of temporally sequential events to give necessary background information (lines 12–15), we have to be aware that the past tenses now have a different value; *cf* 19.78. The two verb phrases most relevant to the plot in this sentence are therefore marked for aspect and at the same time thus linked together: 'the teacher *used to allow her to bring* her pet to school and the caretaker *used to look after* it'.

(b) VOICE: Both morphologically and distributionally, the passive is the marked voice in relation to the active, and in consequence our attention is drawn to its use. There is a striking density of passives in this text. Their role in information processing in specific clauses and sentences will be the concern of 19.83. Our interest here is the part they play in the text as a whole. They are clearly associated with 'my sister' who is repeatedly the subject of passive verb phrases and indeed in almost no instance is she the subject of a transitive verb in the active voice. At the outset, we are told that she 'was troubled', that she 'could never be persuaded'. In the middle she was begging 'to be allowed'. At the end she 'was more convinced than ever', and the lowness of *convinced* on the passive gradient (towards adjectival status: *cf* 3.74*ff*; note also *scared*, line 20; *inconsolable*, line 5) does not diminish the strength of this final link in the continuous presentation of an 'affected' victim. Line 4 is interesting confirmation of this. If the narrator had said that

'She awoke the whole house with her screams', this might have implied an unwanted agentiveness: so it was *her screams* that awoke the house.

Note The adjective *inconsolable* is passive not only in meaning (*cf* App 1.40) but in being juxtaposed and contrasted (*even*) with a formal passive in the next clause.

The cohesive role of adverbials

19.80 As we would expect in a narrative involving a sequence of events, time adverbials have a considerable role. In line 3, the sentence adjunct *on one occasion* (*cf* 8.36, 8.55) picks out the significant period for this text from the general time span (*BC* in *Fig* 19.78) in which this period is located; it is thus linked to but contrasted with *endlessly* and *never* in the preceding sentence. In turn it looks forward to the corresponding time-position adjunct, *that night* (line 5, *cf* 8.55). *By breakfast time* in line 8 takes us to the next temporal point to be distinguished, and in line 10 (still within the span (*cf* 8.57) covered by breakfast time) the adjunct *then* links back across an intervening sentence to the point at which the parents made the decision about staying home. For the rest, the progress of the narrative is managed without time adverbials, but it should be noted that the place adjunct *near the school* (line 22) is effectively temporal as well, marking the change of both place and time after the breakfast scene. In a similar way, within the background intermission of lines 12–15, the direction adjuncts (*cf* 8.39*ff*) *to school* and *home* look back to the time-duration adjunct *all day*, marking beginning and ending points (the *until* clauses of lines 14*f*) of the 'all day' span.

The course of the narrative depends in fact as much on place-sequences as on time-sequences. There are two polar locations, home and school, and references to these are frequent: (*stay*) *home* (line 9); (*bring . . .*) *to school* (line 14); (*went*) *home* (line 15); (*go*) *to school* (line 19); *Near the school* (line 22). Between these last two adjuncts, we find *all the way* (line 21), which elliptically links both: 'all the way (to school)' and '(on the way) near the school'.

Adverbial linkage is by no means limited to time and space. The second sentence begins with an adverbial verbless clause of respect (8.85; realized by the adjective *boylike*) which is obviously linked to the comparable item that begins the text, *As a child*, yet in balanced contrast to it: according to traditional stereotypes, a girl is easily frightened, a boy is not. The focusing subjunct (*cf* 8.116*ff*) *even* in line 6 links this clause with the previous one: 'not merely could she not be consoled, she could not *even* be induced . . .' Another focusing subjunct, *only* in line 17, both helps linkage with the preceding clause and also underlines the contrast between them. There is a further contrast with the following clause that is again pointed by a focusing subjunct, *too* in line 18. The concessive conjunct (*cf* 8.136*ff*) *Yet* in line 9 again provides a close link with what has immediately preceded, as does the inferential conjunct *So* in line 17. The additive conjunct *as an added terror* (line 18) links the *although*-clause back to the fearsome threat of line 16 as well as itself being lexically linked – rather obtrusively – to the object in the *although*-clause. The disjunct *obviously* (*cf* 8.121*ff*) in line 7 is interestingly equivocal in its relations (*cf* the discussion of the clause concerned; 19.77). It invites connection with the hearer/reader ('You will think it obvious'), as well as working as a disjunct with respect to the participants in the narrative

('we thought it obvious'). But it has an additional, textual function, in working as an inferential-summative conjunct with reference to the seriousness implied in the previous sequence of clauses: 'So, obviously, it must have been a nightmare'.

Although it is natural to think of adverbials at *I* position in a clause (*cf* 8.14*f*) as having a linking role with what has preceded, and thus being thematic (*cf*: *In my sister's dream* in line 15, *Near the school* in line 22), there are two interesting exceptions in this text. The two subject-oriented adverbials (*cf* 8.92*ff*), *Reluctantly* in line 19 and *secretly* in line 27, are in a sense counter-conjoining and they derive their adversative, concessive force in part through thus interrupting what would otherwise be a natural and logical sequence:

> The child begged to be allowed: the parents gave in.
> She was more convinced than ever: and I no longer disagreed.

But in each case where we have now entered colons, there is a caveat in the actual text. In the first case, *Reluctantly* (*ie*: '*although* with reluctance') constitutes a link, not with the preceding clause but with the reasons for parental anxiety which were presented in lines 4*ff* and which led to the decision of line 9, now to be reversed in the clause that follows *Reluctantly*. In the second case, *secretly* takes us right back to line 3: the reversal of the narrator's view of dreams has to be seen not only as a consequence of the sequence of events but as a reproach for his earlier scorn: *secretly* is an ironic parallel to *boylike* positionally, and invites us to see an (*although*) *secretly* as occasioned by a 'boylike' fear of losing face. The irony was in fact anticipated by the disjunct *of course* in line 3. This last example already illustrates the way in which adverbials can help shape a text's general structure. More directly in this connection, however, we have the adverbials relating to the consistency of the child's predicament throughout the whole *BC* period (*cf* 19.78) in which the narrative is placed. The text begins with the girl being '*endlessly* troubled' and '*never* . . . persuaded'. It ends with her being 'more convinced than *ever*', and it is the narrator who is *no longer* the same. Between these two points, several adverbials sustain the theme of continuity in addition to their immediate contextual role: *usually* (line 8), *still more* (line 10), *as an added terror* (line 18), *as usual* (line 19), *still scared* (line 20).

Coordinate and subordinate clauses

19.81 The text comprises nearly fifty finite clauses, approximately half of which are independent. We begin with such an independent clause, and – disregarding this one, since by definition it cannot be linked to a preceding one – thereafter a majority of the independent clauses follow other clauses paratactically. The minority of independent clauses formally linked to preceding clauses (seven by *and*, two by *but*) thus present some contrast with the general pattern, and it is worth considering this briefly. As we saw in 19.5, asyndeton is open and uncommitted: there may be a quite intimate connection, and the very openness can fuel our expectations of more to come; for example, lines 5–6:

> She sobbed; she was inconsolable; . . .

On the other hand, the following part may be merely paratactic, comprising what is virtually a new topic. Compare the clause that begins line 12, or the sequence in line 22:

> I was very glad I did. Near the school we came upon . . .

By contrast, coordination with *and* or *but* is relatively committed, implying a very close connection, consequential in the case of *and*, contrastive in the case of *but*. Moreover, especially with *and*, we have the converse of asyndeton's openness in that there is an implied *completeness* with the *and*-member; it is of some interest that in a list of three or more items, all but the last will usually be uttered asyndetically, whereas the last is preceded by *and* (*cf* 13.1, 13.22*ff*, App III.11). These considerations are relevant in a straightforward way to the coordinated units linked by *and* in lines 4, 12, 14, 17, 25, and with specially striking force in line 27. But we need go no further than the opening sentence in the text (lines 1–2). The parts are not merely made to seem relevantly connected: they seem to have a completeness and finality about them – and this is then borne out by the text as a whole. Equally rightly, the sentence beginning '*Boylike* . . .' (line 3) underscores the boy's detachment from his sister's troubles by being asyndetic.

The justification for the close but antithetic linkage in line 20 is obvious, but it is interesting to see how *but* endorses the *Reluctantly* with which the first member begins and is endorsed by the *since*-clause that follows. The need for *but* is just as clear in line 26. Despite the fact that *all was well* and the kitten was safe (which might have justified 'And therefore she was less afraid of dreams thereafter'), we are invited to reflect that the dog's attack has mirrored the attack by the dream monster so closely that the event has actually confirmed the child's fear of dreams. (It is to be noted that the initial *But* of line 26 is followed by significant address to the hearer/reader: *as you can imagine*.)

The fact that about half of the finite clauses in the text are subordinate might suggest that, unlike coordinate clauses, subordinate ones are so common as to call no attention to themselves. But we must distinguish subordination where the grammar gives us little or no choice from subordination available for deliberate selection. In the first category, we have clauses in verb complementation (*cf* 16.30*ff*), and there are more of these (seven) than of any other type of finite subordinate clause in the text: for example, *that they meant nothing* (line 2), *what she had been dreaming* (line 6). In the second category, we have primarily the five adverbial clauses, and we shall now look at some of these to note the effect that choice has had. In lines 8–9, there is the sequence:

> . . . she seemed so ill that my parents decided she should stay at home.

Several alternatives were available. The two clauses could have been independent and asyndetic:

> . . . she seemed (very) ill; my parents decided . . .

independent and coordinated:

> . . . she seemed (very) ill and my parents decided . . .

independent but with an explicit conjunct:

> . . . she seemed (very) ill; in consequence, my parents decided . . .

It requires very little consideration to conclude that all of these alternative versions cause an undesirable severance between the two parts which are interdependently connected, just as the original version makes them seem. Moreover, this original version has another advantage: it alone injects the correlation between the degree of the illness and the decision to keep the girl from school.

19.82 Let us now look at the concessive adverbial clause in lines 17–18:

> . . . only she had the power to save it. So although as an added terror the Monster had some terrifying power over her too, she begged to be allowed to go to school as usual.

Alternatives avoiding subordination are possible:

(i) . . . only she had the power to save it. So she begged to be allowed to go to school as usual. Yet as an added terror the Monster had some terrifying power over her too.

(ii) . . . only she had the power to save it. Yet as an added terror the Monster had some terrifying power over her too. Nonetheless, she begged to be allowed to go to school as usual.

The (ii) alternative is multiply unsatisfactory; it necessarily involves two concessive conjuncts, though the second cannot escape seeming like a desperate evasion of the obvious repetition, *yet*; and this version loses the resultative conjunct *so* which formed a logical link in the original. The (i) alternative is somewhat better than (ii), but in postponing the clause that has concessive meaning, the decisiveness of the original is lost and there is perhaps even an implication that the girl had second thoughts after begging to go to school. The original not merely avoids the defects of both (i) and (ii), but by interrupting the *so*-constituent and interposing the *although*-clause, it manages to capture the balancing of pro and con that preceded the girl's decisive and brave request.

Similar arguments hold for the use and position of the *since*-clause in lines 20–21. If it had been placed after, instead of within, the *that*-clause, the reason for the parents' insistence might have seemed relatively incidental.

The choice of a nonfinite clause in line 23 is also of interest. A different version with an independent clause might have seemed attractive in making the sequence less lengthy and clumsy:

> Near the school we came upon another tearful youngster, her friend. He was being frightened and harassed by a rather vicious dog that was jumping up . . .

But this has the disadvantage of forcing a separation between the encounter with the boy and an account of what was happening to him. The version in the text is superior in that the use of the nonfinite clause (as a nonrestrictive postmodifier in a noun phrase of which *youngster* is head) has the effect of the narrator and his sister seeing the friend and the dog's attack as a single complex unit.

Information structure

19.83 Many of the features that we have been considering seem to have been selected by the narrator in order to place the semantic and prosodic climax of clauses where they would be most effective. Usually this has meant end focus (*cf* 18.11) in clauses, in the manner outlined in 19.12. One interesting instance of this is in line 7:

> It had |obviously been a NIGHTmare|

Here, end focus on what is undoubtedly a rhetorically satisfying item has been achieved even at the expense of a rather vague use of the subject pronoun *it* (*cf* 19.77).

In 19.79, it was noted that the above-average use of the passive had the effect of drawing attention to the 'affected' status of the central character. But undoubtedly the passive has a much stronger role in information processing. In the opening sentence, there are two textually important noun phrases, both of them indefinite: *one of my sisters* and *bad dreams*. In principle, either could have been thematic and either rhematic: both are equally 'new' and both are very much the concern of the narrative as a whole in that the narrator wishes us to know more about the little girl as well as to consider the nature of dreams. But he rightly makes *one of my sisters* thematic (anyone may have sisters; bad dreams are more newsworthy), and his choice of phrasing, in contrast to *a sister of mine*, has the effect of implying that the hearer/reader already knew he had sisters. Though this choice of theme causes the selection of the relatively marked voice, the passive has the advantage not only of reaching an informational climax with *bad dreams* but of setting the tone from the outset in respect of the girl as 'affected'. In this instance, the passive has focused attention on the agent. Elsewhere, the passive has enabled the narrator to compress information by leaving the agency unspecified; *eg* lines 2, 6, 10. But although the narrator clearly finds the passive useful, there are equally noteworthy examples of its absence. In line 9, we have

> Yet this upset her still more.

The subject of the immediately preceding clause is *she* and it would have been easy to have retained *she* as the next subject:

> Yet she was still more upset by this.

But informationally this is inferior, ending as it does with a 'given' item (*this*) where the original ends with the degree adverbial, intensified by *still*.

19.84 Care in organizing information can also be seen in noun-phrase structures (*cf* 17.2*ff*). In several instances, we have genitive premodifiers which provide needed information but which allow prosodic focus upon the head:

> this boy's parents (line 12)
> the day's classes (line 15)
> my sister's dream (line 15)
> the kitten's life (line 17)
> my sister's help (line 25)

Alternatives with postmodification (as in *the parents of this boy*; *classes for the day*; *the life of the kitten*) might have caused the focus to shift to the final item as in:

the 'life of the "kitten

or at best have meant the focus being followed by anticlimactic afterthought:

the "life of the 'kitten

A noteworthy resource in disposing information units is the use of initial 'scene-setting' adverbials (*cf* 8.15), as in:

As a child . . . (line 1)
On one occasion . . . (line 3)
By breakfast time . . . (line 8)
In my sister's dream . . . (line 15)
Reluctantly . . . (line 19)
Near the school . . . (line 22)

The information in such phrases is of sufficient weight to require an intonation nucleus, but as clause-initial the nucleus will normally be realized by a rise or fall-rise (*cf* App II.15*f*), thus both creating an expectation and forward-looking momentum, and also subordinating the information of these phrases to that of the clause rhemes that follow:

|As a CHÍLD| . . . by 'bad DRÈAMS|

One sentence beginning with such an adverbial merits further attention. After *Near the school* in line 22, we have a verb phrase with notably low semantic content; (*we*) *came upon* is little more than a presentative device (*cf* 18.49) to introduce the focal point of the sentence: the friend in the course of being attacked. For reasons explored in 19.82, this focal point is presented as a single complex noun phrase with nonrestrictive postmodification. The postmodification itself makes use of a (nonfinite) passive, enabling rhematic weight to be given to the dog and at the same time structurally freeing this part of the nonfinite clause to accept its own postmodification in the form of a relative clause (*that was jumping* . . .).

Even our rather lengthy account of textual features (*cf* 19.70*ff*) has ignored several significant factors, such as modality (*should stay*, line 9; *accompany*, line 21; etc), and the connective role of adjectives such as *worse* in line 7, *added* in line 18. This very incompleteness of treatment, however, is a reminder of the indefinite complexity to be found in textual structure. We trust that the description offered and the points made will have demonstrated both this complexity and also the way in which grammatical features complement each other in conferring textual unity and in achieving a satisfying presentation.

Note The intensifier *still* functions in the text as a focusing subjunct ('even'). The part played in highlighting information by means of focusing items should be noted elsewhere in the text too: *even* (line 6); *only* (line 17); *too* (line 18).

Further illustrative texts

A personal letter

19.85 The following is the text of a handwritten letter from a middle-aged man to express thanks for hospitality. We reproduce the punctuation, capitalization etc, and we represent in italic what was underlined in the original.

Dear Phyllis and Bob
You really are the most marvellous of people. And
the most charming of *hosts*. And the most enviable
of *families*.
Since of course envy is prominent among the 5
Deadly Seven, you severely jeopardize my
immortal soul every time you admit me
to that unbelievably delightful family circle
of yours. On the other hand, the Faust in me
fully recognizes that your parties do wonders 10
for my *body*!
So, my sincerest thanks for yet another
generous helping of good company, good
talk, good drink, and good food. And may
the New Year smile on your blessedly 15
beautiful clan.
Yours ever
Jack

Note [a] The text depends upon two allusions: one to the Catholic Christian concept of there being Seven Deadly Sins, the other to the story of Faust who sold his soul to the Devil in return for temporal gain.
[b] The triadic structure of the first paragraph is made to seem spontaneous as well as weighty by the separate sentences and repeated coordinators, but the underlining of *hosts* and *families* as subsets of 'people' shows that the triad derives in fact from a bifurcation of the first part.
[c] There is a lexical link to the second paragraph, turning upon *enviable* (lightly used as a courteous compliment) and *envy* (ironically serious), the transition indicated by the concessive force of the conjunct *of course* in line 5; the second paragraph then moves from the joking mention of *soul* to *body*, ironically underlined as the more relevant in the context of good entertainment.
[d] The conjunct *so* (made weightier by the comma) links the second and third paragraph, returning to the main point of the first and of the letter as a whole. The expression 'generous helping' (line 13) is appropriate since it implies its normal use ('a generous helping of food'), justifying *food* being the last and climactic item in the coordinate string that follows.
[e] The phrase *your parties* (line 10) is a discourse reference (*cf* 19.46*ff*) to 'every time . . . circle of yours' (lines 7–9).
[f] The sequence in line 1 is conventional; *clan* in line 16 is a lexical variant on *family* (lines 3, 8), preceded by an alliterative premodifying phrase.
[g] The absence of punctuation at the opening and conclusion is informal and idiosyncratic.

Some paragraphs on food

19.86 This excerpt of a chapter on olives is from a book on cuisine written by a middle-aged woman for the nonspecialized family reader.

Before the war olives were imported in casks in the brine in which they were cured, and then packed on arrival into jars, which made them expensive. But the enormous increase during the last few years in the number of delicatessen shops throughout the country, and of delicatessen departments even in orthodox grocers' shops and supermarkets, means that nowadays we buy the larger part of our olive imports loose, which makes them much cheaper, usually about half the price.

You can buy olives of every shape and size like this big green ones with a bite to them; little ones stuffed with pimento or anchovy, hazelnuts or onion; smooth, shiny, bitter black olives, and the crinkly, soft, fleshy ones; olives large and small, pointed or round, olives of every shade of green, brown, purple and black, and in flavour mild, sharp – or downright bitter like the special, and expensive, cracked olives from Cyprus.

In fact, the only olives you can't buy loose are the exquisite and expensive little *kalamata* olives from Greece, which are packed in oil and vinegar after curing, sharply incised down one side to allow this marinade to penetrate. These, considered by olive fanciers to be the finest of all, are only to be found in cans.

(Margaret Costa *Margaret Costa's Four Seasons Cookery Book* London: Sphere 1972)

Note [a] There is a three-fold temporal transition in the first paragraph: the thematic adjunct *Before the war* (line 1), the durational postmodifier *during . . . years* (line 3), and then – matching line 1 – an *I*-placed *nowadays* in line 6. The main contrast in time is indicated by the *But*-sentence.
[b] There are two relative clauses with discourse reference (*cf* 19.46*ff*), lines 1–2 and 7.
[c] Whereas the first sentence has a very short subject (*olives*, line 1), the second has an exceptionally long one, *the . . . increase . . . supermarkets* (lines 3–5).
[d] The second paragraph is linked to the first by *like this* (line 8) which relates to *loose* (line 6), the third to the second by the contrast between *you can't buy loose* (line 15) and *You can buy (loose)* in line 8.
[e] A number of passives occur, describing the fact but conveniently ignoring the agent: *cf* lines 1, 2, 9, 16, 17, 19; there is one instance where the agent is expressed (line 18) and where the passive allows this to be highlighted as well as permitting the clause to be nonfinite. Contrast 'These, which olive fanciers consider to be . . .'
[f] Participant involvement is expressed by the inclusive *we* (line 6) and rather informally by *you* (lines 8 and 15) which is probably addressed to the reader rather than being the still more informal indefinite (= 'one').
[g] Punctuation has an informal touch as well; the dash in line 8 heralds the long appositive list that takes up the rest of the paragraph, and another within this list preceding the climactic third of a triad of properties (line 13).
[h] The lexical item *olive* is used repeatedly, as a deliberate emblem of the profusion which is the subject matter of the second paragraph. Variety is provided (and indeed it is variety of olives that is being described), not only by the choice of lexical items describing the olives but by the varied syntax – notably the switch from premodifying triads of lines 10*f* to the postmodifying pairs in lines 11*f*.
[i] In lines 17–18, *this marinade* is interesting in being anaphoric, hypernymic (*cf* 19.24), yet tactfully informative: the reader is in effect told that 'oil and vinegar function as a marinade'.

From a formal speech

19.87 The remaining samples are from unscripted spoken texts filed in the Survey of English Usage archive. The transcription has been simplified and the material slightly abbreviated and edited (*eg* by omitting hesitation noises and syllable repetition) in order to make the excerpts more quickly and easily assimilable. We begin with the opening of an after-dinner speech (SEU S.11.2) to a large and distinguished gathering by the head of an institution (a man of about 60). Though prepared (in the sense that the content in general terms was thought out in advance), the speech was unscripted.

It's a |very CÚRious speech I've got to make|
I re|member last YÈAR| |when I SPÓKE on this
occÁsion| |SÀYing| that it was |really
a ↑very sig↑NĬFicant 'year this| because
it was the |year in which I didn't really have
to 'talk about "FÌNance| – we |had got
a de'velopment PRŎgramme| which had |come
aLÓNG| with the |whole idea of implementing
the Todd Report on medical educÁtion| and
de|velopments had occÚRRED| which |meant that
we were going to have a large scale BŬILDing
programme| in the |CÓLlege| – |which at that
TĬME| and |those PRÌCES| would have |been
five and a half MÍLlion| |to seven and a half
million PÒUNDS| – – |WÉLL| of |CÒURSE|
– |things have turned out very DÌFferently| it's
| been a CÙRious academic year up to date| – the
|first TÉRM| |that is to say in
MÍChaelmas| |ÓNwards| un|til NovÉMber| we |spent
our TÍME| |having CÀREfully prepÁRED| |all during
the SŬMmer| – – |in getting aGRÉEment| a|bout "↑how we
were going to "↑use the devÈLopment MÓNey| |which we'd
been GĬVen| |by the GÒVernment| *m* |to ↑increase student
NÚMbers| to de"|velop in various di↑RĒCTions| – *m* |that was
what we did in the "↑FÌRST term| the |SÈCond TÉRM| of
|course we spent our ↑WHŎLE time| |making plans for
*q*con"↑TRÀCTion|*q* – be|cause of course the whole economic
CLÌmate| |had *f* totally ↑CHÀNGED|*f*

m . . . m: spoken with narrow pitch range
q . . . q: spoken breathily
f . . . f: spoken loudly

Note [a] Among the prosodic points of interest, attention might be drawn to the higher proportion of tone units ending with a rise (two dozen) than of those ending with a fall (one dozen). This is in sharp contrast to the two informal conversations of 19.88–9 (and to linguistic usage in general, where falling nuclei are more than twice as frequent as all other types added together; *cf* App II.17). The high ratio of rises is partly a function of personal style and partly a function of the style determined by the occasion: the need to make one's voice carry in a large company, the need to give the impression of inviting the audience's interest (*cf*: *well*, line 15) and of not seeming dogmatic. In part, however, the distribution reflects the general rhetorical structure of the 'prosodic paragraph'. Up to line 15, the speaker is talking about the assumptions on which past planning had been based; from line 16, we are told of the way in which the assumptions proved baseless; things have turned out *differently* (line 16) because the economy had *changed*

(line 28), and the two quoted items significantly have falling nuclei. In this connection, note that the initial tone unit has a rising nucleus on *curious*; in line 17, we are reminded of this opening by the use again of *curious*, again carrying a nucleus despite its nonfinal and indeed premodifying status; but this time the nucleus is a fall. But even the second part, dealing with the change of fortunes, again postpones the critical conclusion by interposing a section on preparations (lines 18–24) that turned out to be wasted. And within the individual sections of each part, the pattern is to have a sequence of rises and fall-rises followed by a definitive fall. Note such falls at *finance* (line 6), *pounds* (15), *government* (23), *first* (25), *contraction* (27).

[b] We have mentioned in [a] that the prosody in part reflects the oratorical occasion. The style in question is commonly characterized by rather frequent and heavy nuclei, giving a distinctly deliberative impression to the succession of phrases: *cf* lines 19–20. The occasional unexpected nucleus is to be similarly explained: *spoke* (line 2), *saying* (3), *given* (23), above all *government* (23), for example. The level nucleus (on *directions*, line 24) is also characteristic of public speaking: it suggests an indefinitely long list, though in fact only one specific item is mentioned (the increase in student numbers).

[c] There is an interesting use of prosody to link and to contrast the three noun phrases with *term* as head (lines 18 and 25): in the formal reminder of the enumerative series, *cf* lines 23–26 in 19.90 where the prosodic contrast is similar. Note, however, the booster on *first* (25) and at other emotionally emphatic points (lines 4 and 26, for example).

[d] While the prosody is redolent of public speaking, the grammar seems to be almost self-consciously informal: the modal *got* (line 1) and perhaps especially the postposed appositive and identificatory *this* in line 4 (*cf* 18.59). The fact that the appositive is used offhandedly and not as genuinely emphatic, still less contrastive, is shown by its having less stress than the preceding noun head *year*. Compare:

He's an |odd CHÀP| |JÓHN| not a |bit like his BRŎTHer|

Informality is shown also by subjunct and conjunct usage (*really*, lines 3, 5; *well*, line 15; *of course*, lines 15, 25*f*, 27). A certain vagueness in syntactic relationship results from grammatical informality being used with the somewhat exaggerated prosody of oratory. Thus in line 6, *we had got* is merely existential, *come along* (lines 7*f*) is again existential (but also resultative), *the whole idea* (line 8) is an informal quantifier of purpose; in consequence, a short paraphrase of lines 6–9 might be 'The purpose of our development programme was to implement the Todd Report'; we might expect this to have two nuclei, one at *development programme*, the other at *Todd Report*, the only two informationally important points.

There is some vagueness too in the complementation of *we spent our time* (lines 19–20) by reason of two interposed tone units, though the prolonged silent hesitation (– –) in line 21 warns us of the point at which complementation begins (*in getting agreement*).

Conversation among friends

19.88 A is a man, B a woman; both aged between 25 and 30 (SEU: S.2.13). The material is entirely unscripted and spontaneous.

A: |he's quite a good GÙY| and |I'm on quite good
TÈRMS with him|
B: |YÊAH|
A: and I'm |sure I can DŎ him| for a |couple of weeks
of unlicensed LÉAVE| 5
B: I |THÌNK| |most people coming back off CÓURSes| |CÀN|
A: |M̀| |SÓ| I |should be able to get at least THRĚE
weeks|
B: |M̀| |M̀| – |WÊLL| we could |have aNÔTHer
'holiday| 10
A: |M̀|
B: because |I shall have two weeks left| |TÔO|
A: I |rather fancy going down the LÒIRE| – |year after NÈXT|
B: |year after NÉXT|

A: |no NÈXT year| – |NÈXT year| – |YÈS| – for a |WÈEK| 15
B: [*speaking to a third person present* | |Kevin's a great PLÀNner|
he |has to have everything done in great DÉtail| be|fore
he'll emBÂRK on anything| |you SÉE| |hence his
absolute "↑HÒRror| when |we got ready to go to FRÂNCE|
and I |suddenly RÈALized| that in |all our great 20
PLÀNning| |I had taken down my little tin BÓX| to
my |MÙMmy| to |look ÂFTer| and I'd |PÀCKED it|
|all full of all GÒOdies| that |we couldn't leave
behind in the FLÀT| in|cluding the car ↑LÒGbook|
so we |had to make a SPĚcial "|and the ÀUTOroute| 25
so we |had to make a SPĚcial TRIP| |down to
↑ÈPsom| to col|lect the bloody THÌNG| when we were |off
on our way to ↑FRÀNCE|

Note [a] In view of what was said in 19.64*f*, we draw attention to B's confirmatory *yeah* (line 3), *m* (9), A's *m* (11). By contrast, A's rise on *m* (7) is relatively interrogative ('Is that what you think?'), as is B's more sharply questioning repetition in line 14, answered by A correcting himself at once. A's third tone unit in line 15 (*yes*) is partly a final confirmation that B was right to question him, partly an indication that what follows can resume the interrupted statement: 'I rather fancy going down the Loire (next year) for a week'. In line 18, B involves a third participant with *you see*. Conveying excitement helps to involve another participant, and we note the boosters at *horror* (19), *Epsom* (27), *France* (28); this last being in ironic parallel to *Epsom*.

[b] Informality is shown by lexical items (*guy* in line 1, *do* in 4, *Mummy* in 22, *goodies* in 23, *bloody* in 27, etc), by grammatical features like omission of article (*year after next*, 13), zero subordinator in nominal clauses (4, 6 – but with *that* in line 20 where *realized . . . I had taken* is interrupted by an adverbial).

[c] Among other aspects of informality are the clear signs of unworried spontaneity. For example, the repeated *all* in line 23, resulting in a loose phrasing that the speaker might have intended to be 'all full of the goodies' or 'full of all the goodies'. Again, the anacoluthon in line 25 necessitated by B's remembering to mention the autoroute document which in turn makes her recapitulate the interrupted clause in line 26.

[d] The downtoners (*quite* twice in line 1, *rather* 13) and intensifying items (*great* 16, *absolute* 19, *bloody* 27) characterize conversation that is both informal and intimate. Note that *great* (*planner*) in 16 means 'enthusiastic' but *great* (*detail*) in 17 means 'minute'; *great planning* in 20*f* is an ironic lexical link with line 16 but this time uses *great* more in the sense of 'large-scale'. The expectation that an intimate companion sympathetically makes the semantic shifts enables a speaker to dispense with the search for the *mot juste*.

Telephone conversation

19.89 A and B are husband and wife respectively, both aged between 60 and 65 (SEU: S.7.2d). As in 19.88, the material is entirely unscripted and spontaneous.

B: |LÌsten| |Mother's CLÒCK| is |running ↑quarter
of an hour SLŎW| I've |slightly moved it to a faster
posĬtion| but |how do I move the HÀNDS| does
|that FĂCE| |spring ŎFF|
A: |NÒ| |NÒ| you |look on the BÂCK| 5
B: the |three little brown SCRĚW things|
A: |no NÒ| if |you just |which clock do you
MÈAN| the e|LÈCtric one|
B: the e|LÈCtric| |YÉAH|

A : |WÈLL| you |unHÓOK it| 10
B : |YÉS| I've |done THÁT| and I've |moved it to
slightly to a ↑fast posÍTion|
A : to a "|FÀST position|
B : |YÉS| because it's *q*"|LÒSing*g* a quarter of an HÓUR|
A : |YÈAH| |but ↑if you want to "↑RĚGulate it| 15
B : |I've ↑↑RÈGulated it| *m* I |want to 'move the
q"HÀNDS|*mq*
A : |well there's a "↑KNÒB| I |can't sort of remember
exĂCTly| but it's
B : |Is there a knob| 20
A : |WÈLL| there's |obviously "↑SÒME means of
DÓing it| you |don't have to take the FRŎNT off|
B : |ÔH| I |haven't been able to loCÀTE the KNÓB|
|òk| I'll |have a closer LÒOK|

q . . . *q*: falsetto
m . . . *m*: spoken with 'spiky' rhythm

Note [a] Prosody is used to make *Mother's clock* in line 1 both new (as though it were predicative) and also the subject of a sentence. B uses a high booster in line 16 to justify the lexical repetition in the context of A's apparent obtuseness. Note also the boosters at *if* (15), *knob* (18), *some* (21). Excited emphasis is conveyed also by falsetto voice in lines 14 and 17, and by an impatiently 'spiky' rhythm in 16*f*. 'New' and 'given' are clearly polarized by prosody in lines 18 and 20: in the former *knob* has a nucleus, in the latter it has not.
[b] Informal approximations are expressed in *things* (6) ['things like screws'], *sort of . . . exactly* (18*f*), *just* (7). Other aspects of informality include the transitivity of *does that face spring off?* (3*f*), meaning 'Is one supposed to be able to make the face spring off?'; the anacoluthon in line 7 as A wonders if he has the right clock in mind; A's repetition of the prepositional phrase (13), with shift of nucleus to show his uncomprehending surprise; the equivocal use of *you* (5, 10, 22) between reference to B and indefinite reference (in line 7, the first *you* is equivocal, the second obviously refers to B). B's *How do I move the hands* exemplifies a use of *I* which is comparably equivocal between 1st person and indefinite (*cf* 6.2*ff*) as well as an informal obligational modality (*cf* 4.49). The question is equivalent to 'How is one to move the hands?'
[c] A begins with *well* three times: the first and second (lines 10 and 18) indicate that he has understood and is beginning a confident reply, but the former is made more deliberate and attention-seeking by occupying a tone unit; the third (21) is almost the converse, 'I don't care WHÀT you say' and its forceful dismissiveness is emphasized by its having a separate tone unit.
[d] B's peremptory-sounding imperative *Listen* (line 1) is used between friends as an indication that the speaker has something interesting or urgent to say; it is not accompanied by *please* in this usage.

Leaving a recorded message

19.90 A and B are conscious of being strangers to the person who will eventually listen to the recorded message; C seems to be very familiar with the office he is telephoning. All the speakers are men, ranging in age between 30 and 50 (SEU: S.9.3), and it is likely that their messages are prepared, perhaps with written notes on what they intend to say.

A : my |NÁME| is |GRÀNGE| |g r a n g É| |ÁND|
I'm |speaking from ↑National GÀS Board| we've |got
a de↑VÈLopment department| in |HÀRlow| the
|telephone NŪMber| is |two four SĚven| – |two

four double FÓUR| |and my enQUÌRy| con|cerns 5
the ↑Greek word for ↑SCÌENCE| – |this is a QÙESTion| that
|we have been asked HĚRE| |none of us in this room
being Greek SCHÒlars| |know the ↑ÀNswer|

B : my |name is WadDÉLL| |Wadash SCHÓOL| I |want to
contact Mister ↑VĬALing| – I will |phone a↑GÁIN| between 10
|two ↑TÉN| *m* and |two "↑TWĚNty|*m* – if I |fail to get him
THÉN| I'll |phone aGÁIN|*m*' |just after three forty "↑FIVE|*m*'
|if it's unlikely that Mister Vialing will be "↑THĚRE| but could
|leave a MÉSsage| could |he "↑ÈIther| |PHÒNE| |WÁDash|
– |DÓUBle| |nine four one TWŐ| which is the |SCHŎOL 15
number| |or in the ↑ÉVEning| |double seven two nine
ĚIGHT| – a|GÀIN| a |Wadash NÚMber| which is my
|PĚRsonal number| and . . .

m . . . *m*: speaker uses a very precise articulation
m' . . . *m*': spoken in a regular rhythm

C : |this is SÌMon *m* Lessin SPÉAKing |*m* |good MÓRNing|
|TÓ you| I |have a number of QUÉRies| of |different KĬNDS| 20
to |which I would ↑very much like the ÁNswer| |if you could
GĬVE it 'to me| |over the TĚLephone| |late this MÒRNing| –
|first of ÁLL| |some ↑small aca↑DÈMic QUÉRies| – –
| is the SPĚLLing| – |on the TÍTLE| |I u c i l í| |or
is it l u ↑Ĉ |i |l DÔUBLE i| – |that is the FÌRST point| 25
– |NŌW| the |SĚcond one| |Is| |I would ↑like to have
the PÀGE RÉFerence| |from ↑LÀsky's| |History 'of
Greek LĬTerature| |where he ↑talks about a character
called *m*↑ĂRiston| *m* . . .

m . . . *m*: speaker articulates slowly

Note [a] The peculiar features of a medium in which there can be no reaction from the addressee are the main reason for the relative formality and careful articulation in these samples as compared with those in 19.87–89. This is less obvious in the case of C who apparently knows from experience the degree of clarity attained by the machine and who doubtless knows the actual person who will listen to the recording in due course. But even C seems to avoid using contracted forms (*I have* in 20, *I would* in 21 and 26, *that is* in 25), and we notice the uncolloquial syntax of line 21. A is especially cautious in speech, and it is doubtless this that leads him to make a tone unit of his introductory subject *my name*. With *my enquiry* (line 5), compare what was said about *Mother's clock* in 19.89 Note [a].
[b] In both A's and B's messages telephone numbers are given: the prosodic phrasing in the former is usual with the widespread seven-digit phone numbers. Both speakers follow the common British habit of reading a sequence like '22' as 'double 2', '222' as '2 double 2'.
[c] A's message ends with a syntactically muddled construction, involving a blend:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text{Not being Greek scholars, none of us know(s) . . .}\\ \text{None of us being Greek scholars, we do not know . . .}\end{array}\right\}\ (cf\ 15.58ff)$$

There is confusion of a more pragmatic kind in B's recording. Presumably the *message* (line 14) is to the effect that Mr Vialing should telephone B (lines 15*ff*), but this is a message *for* Mr Vialing, not one that B wishes Vialing to 'leave' for B. Even C seems to find the medium uncongenial and one might suspect that there is some confusion in his prosody. For example, the treatment of *to you* in line 20 is odd both in occupying a separate tone unit and in having a nucleus (especially, perhaps, a rising one) on the preposition. Again, putting a nucleus on the

first name (19), when the surname is also given, would normally suggest that there might be confusion with someone else of the same surname. Alternatively, we might suspect that 'Lessin' was added as an afterthought: perhaps it would turn out that it was not his usual colleague who would listen to the recording. (In fact, inspection of other recordings by the same speaker showed that it was a personal idiosyncrasy, frequently recurring.)

[d] The use of demonstratives and locative pro-forms is normal in telephoning: *this* and *here* referring to the speaker and his location (*cf* lines 7, 19), *that* and *there* to the addressee and his location (*cf* line 13, though it happens that our excerpts include no instance of *that*). But *cf* 19.64 Note [b].

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Introduction

Grammar and lexicology

1.1 Both grammar and lexicology involve us in an indefinitely large number of superficially different units. In the case of grammar these are phrases, clauses, and sentences; in the case of lexicology the units are words, or more precisely (since some of the units comprise more than one word) *lexical items*. It is typical of grammar to make general and abstract statements about the units concerned, showing a common construction despite the formal differences. It is typical of lexicology to make specific statements about individual units. In consequence, while the grammar of a language is best handled in chapters devoted to different types of construction, it is normal to deal with the lexicon of a language in an alphabetic dictionary, each entry devoted to a different lexical item.

But there is an area in which grammar and lexicology share a common ground: where generalizations, as in grammar, are appropriate; but where the idiosyncrasies of individual units are also described. This area is word-formation. There are regularities of a similar nature in grammar and word-formation, and there are cases in which the two sets of regularities are directly connected. Consider the following (and *cf* 17.51*ff*):

[A]	[B]	
She *delegated* the work *speedily*.	Her *delegation* of the work was *speedy*.	[1]
He *communicated* the message *efficiently*.	His *communication* of the message was *efficient*.	[2]
They *fumigated* the house *thoroughly*.	Their *fumigation* of the house was *thorough*.	[3]

First the vertical dimension. The two columns exemplify the regularities of grammar, [A] with its three S V O A structures, [B] with its three S V C structures with S realized in each by a noun phrase having a genitive determiner and an *of*-phrase postmodifier. But the columns also illustrate the regularities of word-formation; in [A] the three verbs in *-ate* and the adverbs in *-ly*; in [B] the three nouns in *-ation*.

Next, the horizontal dimension. To grammar is referable the correspondence between *she* and *her* in [1], *he* and *his* in [2], *they* and *their* in [3], and the fact that we have adverbs in [A] but adjectives in [B]. But to word-formation are referable the form of the correspondence between the transitive *-ate* verbs in [A] and the abstract *-ation* nouns in [B], as well as the form of the correspondence between the adjectives in [B] and the adverbs in [A].

In proceeding to lengthen the columns, however, we would soon find that the regularities of word-formation are more limited in application than those of grammar:

She *used* the money *well*.	Her *use* of the money was *good*.
She *used up* the money *fast*.	Her *using up* of the money was *fast*.
He *rearranged* the furniture *with difficulty*.	His *rearrangement* of the furniture was *difficult*.

They *dismissed* his objections *in a hostile manner*. — Their *dismissal* of his objections was *hostile*.

These examples remind us that the products of word-formation are subject to the idiosyncrasies inherent in the lexicon, whereas the rules of grammar are far broader, transcending the individualities and unpredictabilities of the lexical items which the grammatical rules manipulate. Thus grammar can actually *predict* the basic synonymy of [4], [5], and [6]:

John gave Peter the money. [4]
John gave the money to Peter. [5]
The money was given to Peter by John. [6]

But only our knowledge of individual lexical items enables us to equate [7] and [8] with [4–6], as well as with each other:

John donated the money to Peter. [7]
Peter received the money from John. [8]

Again, grammar will predict the antonymy of [9] and [10] but not that of [9] and [11]:

Mary felt happy. [9]
Mary didn't feel happy. [10]
Mary felt miserable. [11]

In studying word-formation, we seek to transcend the individuality of items that is typical of the lexicon as a whole and set out the very widespread regularities that make the constitution and grammatical distribution of one word similar to those of another.

The constituents of word-formation

I.2 To the native speaker, many words have an obvious internal structure. With *blackbird* and *monkey-like*, we can see that each word comprises parts that occur elsewhere in the language with the same meaning (*blackboard* and *ladylike*, for example). We shall refer to such items as COMPLEX words, in contrast to those words – long or short – which to the native speaker have to be learnt as arbitrarily contrived units, with no recognizable parts: *cat* or *rhinoceros*.

Superficially, a complex word like *depolarization* looks like a simple linear string of items:

de + pol(e) + ar + iz(e) + ation

consisting of the WORD *pole* with AFFIXES which may precede (PREFIXES) or follow (SUFFIXES). But some complex words are not analysable into words plus affixes:

jealous = jeal- + -ous
pious = pi- + -ous
(*contrast* desirous = desire + -ous)

To capture what is common to *pole*, *desire*, *jeal-* and *pi-*, therefore, we obviously cannot use 'word' and we shall speak instead of STEM (*cf* 2.4). We

can then say that the stems *desire* and *jeal-* combine with the affix *-ous* to yield the adjectives. But a further distinction is necessary, as this is inadequate when we want to describe *depolarization*, since if we said that the affixes *de-*, *-ar-*, *-ize*, and *-ation* are combined with the stem, this might imply that *de-* can combine with *pole* or *polar* to yield the words **depole*, **depolar*. In fact, it is with the verb *polarize* or the deverbal noun *polarization* that *de-* can combine. We need to distinguish a unit that may be neither STEM nor WORD but of which we can say that it is with this unit that a particular affix is combined. We shall call this unit the BASE.

We can now make analogous statements like the following:

jealous = base *jeal-* + affix *-ous*
[the base here is identical with the stem, but neither is a word in English]
polarize = base *polar* + affix *-ize*
depolarize = affix *de-* + base *polarize*
[the base here is not identical with the stem in either case, the stem being *pole*; but both the bases and the stem are English words]
(be)spectacled ['wearing spectacles'] = base *spectacle-* + affix *-ed*
[here the base is identical with the stem, but although the word *spectacle* exists in English it is only the stem of the plural *spectacles* that constitutes the base in *spectacled*.]

The STEM is thus the form of a word stripped of all affixes that are recognizable as such in English; *eg*: *man*, *person*, *apply*, *abattoir*, *rhinoceros*. But with a large number of words there can be debate as to what the stem is in this sense. If *abattoir* is a stem, despite the existence in English of *reservoir* (with an identical ending, both words referring to physical constructions), how should we regard *reservoir* itself? Should we regard it as having a stem identical with the word *reserve*? Again, should we relate *reserve*, *preserve*, *deserve* as having a common stem, perhaps seeing this as identical with the verb *serve*?

Various arguments come into play: etymological, semantic, even phonological. We note, for instance, that the *s* in *reserve* is pronounced /z/, where that in *serve* is pronounced /s/. The more indications there are of the remoteness of connection between one word and another, as perceived by the native speaker, the more we must be influenced to regard polysyllabic words like *reservoir* and *reserve*, *deceive* and *conceive* as individual stems. The obverse is actual productivity (*cf* App I.13): where, beside *depolarize*, we find new words being currently created such as *decompress* and *deregulate*, the *de-* element having a similar relation in each, we know that we are not dealing with isolated polysyllabic stems but with complex words.

Note [a] Reference has been made to 'the native speaker', but native speakers themselves vary widely in their apprehension of stems and affixes. To the layman, *rhinoplasty* ['plastic surgery of the nose'] is as unanalysable as *rhinoceros*, but not to the medical scientist. Recent coinages by philosophers (*illocutionary*, *perlocutionary*) show that, for some speakers of English, an affix like *per-* is readily enough seen as manipulable in a formation and that *locutionary* is a base in such words.

[b] As we saw in 2.3*ff*, in some linguistic descriptions the minimal unit in morphology and word-formation is called 'morpheme', with the further distinctions 'inflectional morpheme' (*eg* plural

-s), 'free morpheme' or 'minimal free form' (*eg*: *pole*), 'bound morpheme' (*eg*: *un-*, *jeal-*), with the latter necessarily further subdivided between 'affixal morpheme' (*eg*: *un-*) and 'stem morpheme' (or 'root' or 'lexical morpheme', *eg*: *jeal-*). What we are calling BASE might in this framework be termed 'base morpheme'. It should be noted that linguists differ in their terminology for these distinctions, some reversing our use of STEM and BASE, others using 'root' for what in this book is called 'stem'.

Word-formation processes

I.3 There are four main types of word-formation, the first two of which can be referred to as 'affixation':

[A] PREFIXATION: putting a prefix in front of the base, sometimes with, but more usually without, a change of word class; *eg*: *pre* + *determine* (*cf* App I.20*ff*).

[B] SUFFIXATION: putting a suffix after the base, sometimes without, but more usually with, a change of word class; *eg*: *friend* + *less* (*cf* App I.31*ff*).

[C] CONVERSION: assigning the base to a different word class with no change of form; *eg*: (*we shall*) *carpet* (*the room*) – verb from noun (*cf* App I.43*ff*).

[D] COMPOUNDING: adding one base to another, such that usually the one placed in front in some sense subcategorizes the one that follows; *eg*: *blackbird*, *armchair*, *bottle-feed* (*cf* App I.57*ff*); but contrast, for example, 'bahuvrihi' compounds (*cf* App I.67) such as *heavyweight*.

Showing some similarities with [A] and [D], but fitting neatly into neither, is derivation by COMBINING FORMS such as *psycho-*, *Anglo-*, *socio-*, *vice-*. These have the semantic characteristics of the first constituent in a compound but they resemble prefixes in mostly (*cf* App I.32, App I.66) being obligatorily initial, in having little or no currency as separate words, and in not normally being the stressed part of a COMPLEX WORD (*psycho-'therapy*), by which we mean not merely polysyllabic words but words comprising constituents that are recognizable as such to native speakers.

Constituents in complex words are sometimes identical in form with bases but yet resemble affixes in certain respects so that it is not always easy to justify regarding the resultant words as compounds. For example, *input*, *output*, *sit-in* (n), *drop-out* (n), *childlike* have components formally and functionally resembling separate items in corresponding phrases ('they put the data in', 'he dropped out of college', 'he is like a child') that make them like compounds. On the other hand, the items *in-*, *-like*, etc, have the type of wide distribution and nonlexical character that is typical of affixes. Given the historical fact that *-like* is cognate with the indisputably affixal *-ly* and the synchronic fact that *-ful* (with spelling difference) is closer in function to the adjective *full* in *cupful* (*cf*: *a full cup*) than in *eventful* (different in sound as well), it seems clear that the distinction is gradient rather than absolute. A certain amount of arbitrary assignment is therefore inevitable in the descriptive tables that constitute the body of this Appendix.

This is borne out by another borderline example, *-man*, as in *policeman*. Though the spelling suggests identity with the base *man*, the pronunciation suggests otherwise: /mən/ (contrast /mæn/ in *ice-man*, *ape-man*, which seem more obviously to be compounds). Moreover, despite etymology, spelling,

and inflection, *-man* (*-men*) in *woman* can no longer be regarded as even affixal: *woman* is itself a base. Yet, in response to sociopolitical pressures in recent years, we have come to recognize *-man* in *policeman*, *chairman*, etc (but not in *woman* itself) as effectively the base *man* and hence challenged for replacement by the sex-neutral *-person* (*cf* App I.64, 5.105).

Word-formation processes, as we saw already in App I.1, involve formal and semantic analogy. A pattern or paradigm of similar items becomes established, and to this pattern new coinings conform. On the basis of *psychotherapy* and *physiotherapy*, we could have a newly derived word *x-otherapy* which would mean 'treatment by means of *x*', where *x* would be filled by the name of the new treatment. DERIVATION, often used by linguists to mean only formation by the addition of affixes, is used in this book to embrace all the processes by which a new formation comes into existence, but clearly those that follow recognizable patterns are central to our concern as they are central to word-formation itself.

In numerous cases, word-formation rules (especially in suffixation) apply only to items of specific derivation. We shall find it convenient, therefore, to speak of DENOMINAL, DEVERBAL etc, so that DEVERBAL (nouns) will mean '(nouns) derived from verbs'. The term DEVERBAL applied to nouns is not synonymous with the term VERBAL NOUN which we use only for the 'gerund' class of nouns in *-ing* (*cf* further 17.52*ff*). On the distinction between inflectional and derivational suffixes, *cf* App I.31 Note.

I.4 We saw in 17.157 that the overt arrangement of a noun phrase having more than two constituents may express two quite different structures:

a local cookery class
either = a [[local cookery] class] [1]
or = a [local [cookery class]] [2]

In [1] we are concerned with teaching about regional cuisine; in [2] with a cookery class taking place nearby. Since it is bases and not stems that enter into word-formation, whether by affixation or compounding, and since the bases themselves may have been produced by affixation or compounding, the linear form of a complex word may conceal alternative structures similar to those in [1] and [2]. Contrast (*an*) *ex-film star* and (*a*) *silent-film star*:

[ex-[film star]] 'a former star in films'
[[silent-film] star] 'a star in silent films'

Again, in the sentence 'The robber was *unmasked*', the final word may have one of two quite different structures:

[un[[mask]ed]]

ie 'he was not wearing a mask', negative *un-* (*cf* App I.21), with noun *mask* + *-ed* (*cf* App I.38); or

[[unmask]ed]

ie 'someone removed his mask', privative *un-* (*cf* App I.22), in the verb *unmask*, with *-ed* participle.

Word-formation rules

I.5 A rule of word-formation usually differs from a syntactic rule in one important respect: it is of limited productivity, in the sense that not all words which result from the application of the rule are acceptable; they are freely acceptable only when they have gained an institutional currency in the language. Thus there is a line to be drawn between 'actual English words' (*eg*: *sandstone*, *unwise*) and 'potential English words' (*eg*: (*)*lemonstone*, (*)*unexcellent*), both of these being distinct from 'non-English' words like **selfishless* which, because it shows the suffix *-less* added to an adjective rather than to a noun, does not even obey the rules of word-formation.

Rules of word-formation are therefore at the intersection of the historical and contemporary (synchronic) study of the language, providing a constant set of 'models' from which new words, ephemeral or permanent, are created from day to day. Yet on a larger scale, the rules themselves (like grammatical rules) undergo change: affixes and compounding processes can become productive or lose their productivity; can increase or decrease their range of meaning or grammatical applicability. In line with aims elsewhere in the book, we concentrate in this Appendix on productive or on marginally productive rules of word-formation, leaving aside 'dead' processes, even though they may have a fossilized existence in a number of words in the language. For example, the Old English affix *-th*, no longer used to form new words, survives in such nouns as *warmth*, *length*, *depth*, *width*, *breadth* (*cf*: *warm*, *long*, *deep*, *wide*, *broad*). A corollary of this approach is that the historical study of a word is irrelevant to its status as an illustration of present-day rules: the fact that the word *unripe* has existed in the English language since Anglo-Saxon times does not prevent us from using it as an example of a regular process of word-formation still available in the language.

Note [a] New formations, invented casually for a particular occasion (as in 'She needs guidance, and the poor child is as *guidanceless* as she is parentless') are normally comprehensible, but are used at a certain cost to acceptability. They are often referred to as NONCE FORMATIONS and are liable to be criticized if too many are used. *Cf* also the jocular *coolth* on the pattern of *warmth*.
[b] History provides quite a number of examples where a derived form has preceded the word from which (formally speaking) it is derived. Thus *editor* entered the language before *edit*, *lazy* before *laze*, and *television* before *televize*. The process by which the shorter word is created by the deletion of a supposed affix is known as BACK-FORMATION, since it reverses the normal trend of word-formation, which is to add rather than to subtract constituents. 'Back-formation' so described is a purely historical concept, however, of little relevance to the contemporary study of word-formation. To the present-day speaker of English, the relationship between *laze* and *lazy* need be no different from that between *sleep* and *sleepy*, *choose* and *choosy*, etc.

Borrowing and neo-classical formations

I.6 A second restriction of this account is that it takes only passing notice of word-formation according to Latin and Greek, rather than English models. From the Renaissance to the early twentieth century, English word-formation, like English (or for that matter European) architecture, was dominated by neo-classicism. The vocabulary was augmented by borrowing and adaptation of Latin and Greek words, or, as time went on, by the formation of words in English-speaking countries according to the Latin and Greek models. The habit of neo-classical formation still flourishes in certain

learned areas of vocabulary, particularly in the natural sciences. However, English has adapted to her own purposes a large number of Latin and Greek word elements, and these, being productive in the 'common core' of the language, we must take into account. Moreover, some purely neo-classical affixes (*-ic*, *-ous*, etc) are so common that it would be perverse to exclude them from any account of English word-formation.

So great indeed has been the foreign or neo-classical influence on the English language, that the majority of prefixes (as distinct from suffixes) in the language are of Latin, Greek, or French origin. To give an illustration of the difference between native and neo-classical formation: *com-* (*col-/con-/cor-/co-*) is a Latin prefix in *collect*, *communication*, *conduct*, *coagulate*; but *co-*, one of its variants, has been appropriated by the English language and has developed a function of its own in such words as *co-author*, *co-chairman*, *co-education*. For our purposes, therefore, *co-* is an English rather than a classical or neo-classical prefix.

The 'ready-made' and the 'made to measure'

I.7 The words that we have just been considering come to us 'ready-made'. But this does not apply merely to words adopted from other languages: it is typical of the lexicon as a whole and underlines the distinction between lexicology and grammar to which attention was drawn in App I.1.

In principle, and to a large extent in practice, the language user works on the assumption that every sentence encountered is entirely new, created and assembled specially for the occasion. By contrast, we expect every *lexical item* we hear or read to be already 'institutionalized' (*cf* App I.5) and to have been selected from an existing stock of words, complete with its form and meaning.

We encounter widespread exceptions to both these generalizations. There are countless sentences that must have occurred before, even in the experience of a particular individual:

> I'm feeling tired this morning.
> How is your cold now?
> She's gone out to see a patient.

But no one would seriously suggest that the next time we want to say such things, we recall and re-use these sentences in the form previously heard. There are more convincing exceptions, however. There are formulaic utterances, 'pre-fabricated' in entirety ('How do you do?' 'Pleased to meet you!'), and proverbs ('Too many cooks spoil the broth'); *cf* II.54. There are ready-made parts of utterances ('Many thanks for . . .', 'Far be it from me to . . .', 'How come . . .?', 'If only . . .', 'By no stretch of the imagination . . .'). Note also the many idiomatic phrases and collocations like 'eat . . . out of house and home' or '(They're) home and dry' (informal BrE, meaning 'They've achieved their goal'). We interlard our discourse with snatches of familiar texts: 'a foregone conclusion', 'seven days shalt thou labour' (*cf* App I.8 Note). In such cases, there is no question of our re-forming the phrases anew each time we use them. But numerous as these are, we must recognize that they are exceptional in a quite fundamental sense. In the lexicon, the converse is true. We encounter lexical items that we are content to believe

the user has invented; for example, *sploopsing* in Jack Kerouac's 'I come sploopsing to a no-good end'. But we find this striking in large measure precisely because it is exceptional; we do not expect words to have been specially coined for the occasion. It is in fact a common occurrence for someone to apologize for having coined a word ('what I may be allowed to call . . .') or even for using a word that we cannot be expected to know ('what some people have called . . .').

At the same time there is a paradox. While we expect every sentence to be newly formed for the occasion, we expect to understand it without difficulty, in the sense of perfectly apprehending its structure. A question like 'What does this sentence mean?' is apt to be an ironic criticism of the person who spoke or wrote it. But although we correspondingly expect every lexical item to have been taken from an existing stock, we by no means expect automatically to understand it or even recognize it. A question like 'What does this word mean?' is therefore commonplace, implying no criticism of anyone. We go through life learning new words continually. Sometimes (and rather rarely) they are as lacking in general currency as Kerouac's *sploopsing* (and we depend on the context to guess its meaning) or as the word *googol* in the following:

> There are probably more than a googol germs on the outside of this one cherry.

With the former we may rely on the context to help us guess the meaning, but with the latter we must have recourse to a dictionary or a mathematician if we are to learn that it refers to the numerical value *ten* raised to the power of one hundred. But usually, the new lexical experience has something familiar about it. The word may be a metaphorical extension of an item we know in a different sense ('You're not on my *wavelength*') or it may be imported from another but familiar language ('She struck me as *soignée*') or it may be composed of familiar items. When Coleridge in 1820 used the word *mammonolatry*, he knew that this would be understood in relation to *mammon* in the same way as the already long-established *idolatry* was understood in relation to *idol*. Subsequent coinages like *bardolatry* are formed with the same confidence of being understood on this analogical basis:

> worship of mammon [= wealth] as though it were an idol
> worship of the bard [= Shakespeare] as though he were an idol

Note The word *idolatry* is a compression of *idol* and *-olatry*, not unlike the blends of App I.76.

I.8 It is in its dependence upon analogies of this kind that the formation of words like *mammonolatry* somewhat resembles grammar or at any rate constitutes a grey area between the full generalizations of grammar and the specific idiosyncrasies of the lexicon. The difference (and hence the idiosyncrasy of the lexicon) lies in two factors: first, the relatively rare and special circumstances in which vocabulary construction takes place ('lexicalization', *cf* App I.9); second, the range of formation devices available and the constraints upon our using them ('productivity', *cf* App I.13). Consideration of both these factors throws into relief a third factor: every word-formation (or any other mode of lexical change) is a step in the historical development

of the language. Something has come into existence which did not exist before. Where the utterance of a new sentence (and we have argued that, for the purposes of grammatical description, we can regard virtually every sentence as newly formed) entails no change in the language, the utterance of a new word raises the possibility that an addition has been made to the total means of expression available in the language. Thus while a synchronic description of grammar or phonology is perfectly possible (even though historical allusions may be convenient in the description), a description of word-formation must of its nature be diachronic. The one is providing a blueprint as to how all new sentences will be freely constructed; the other providing a historical record (however short-term) of the formations that have taken place and venturing, on the basis of this, a tentative prediction of the lines along which further formations may take place in the future.

One indication of the diachronic orientation in word-formation can be seen in considering again the example *mammonolatry*. In grammar, a structural description is neutral as to the meanings that the structure can convey, whether or not the same words may be involved. Take the type *SVO*, for example, in:

> John worshipped mammon.
> John despised mammon.
> John lit the gas.

But every new formation of the form 'x-olatry', despite ability to paraphrase it as 'the worship of x', will carry with it the memory of similar constructions (such as *idolatry*), so that (for example) *wife-olatry* would mean 'having the same kind of misplaced devotion for one's wife as pagans are said to have for idols'.

Note As we have already shown in App I.7, phrases and sentences can also be stored up as additional expressive resources; *eg*:

> For only with such achievement could John expect the world to 'make a beaten path to his door', *as Emerson put it*.

Neither the quotation marks nor the authority need have been inserted, and many people's language is interlarded with re-used phrases and sentences in this way, where they have been found to be particularly memorable, effective, or merely a lazy convenience: 'Last but not least, and to make a long story short (if you'll pardon the clichés), it was Marjorie who helped me find my present job.'

Lexicalization

I.9 However new and unfamiliar it is, an entity, activity, or quality can be stated and described in sentences:

> Let us convert our railways from having steam-engines to using engines powered by $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{diesel oil.}\\ \text{electricity.}\end{array}\right\}$ [1]

The nub of this suggestion might then be expressed by means of nominalization such as:

> The use of $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{diesel-powered}\\ \text{electrically-powered}\end{array}\right\}$ engines (is being investigated). [2]

This already presupposes some discussion of and familiarization with the notion. But as the proposal becomes more widely accepted as viable, such a nominalization will seem too clumsy on the one hand and too under-committed on the other. At this stage, we will not be surprised to find the notion institutionalized by means of (as it happened) the word:

Dieselization / Electrification } (is feasible). [3]

We can now conveniently marshal arguments for and against *dieselization* or *electrification*, discuss how much it will cost to *dieselize* or *electrify* suburban trains, and whether the new locomotives might co-exist for a time with *undieselized* or *unelectrified* services. We have now LEXICALIZED a notion that could previously be discussed only in sentences and periphrases which varied from person to person. In lay terms, we now 'have a *word* for it'.

But the precise form of the lexicalizations [3] could not have been predicted. When it became possible to split atomic nuclei (and the consequent lexicalization, *nuclear fission*, came into use), there was some vacillation and even public debate as to the most appropriate adjective to lexicalize the property of a substance in being capable of undergoing such fission. Competing forms included *fissible*, *fissile*, and *fissionable*. It turned out that two lexicalizations were necessary; one for the general capability, the other for the capability in consequence of slow neutron impact; physicists are apt to use *fissionable* for the former and *fissile* for the latter. In more extreme cases, the unpredictability of a lexicalization is even more obvious: for example, Kerouac's attempt to sum up the demise of a soft and flabby entity (for which the word *crash* was thus inappropriate) as *sploopse*; or the lexicalization by the mathematician Kasner of a particular numerical value as *googol*.

The other noteworthy point about such lexicalizations as [3] is that their meaning is not recoverable from the form. In this way, as in the unpredictability just discussed, it is sharply distinguished from the expressions in [1] and [2]. We can surmise that *dieselization* and *electrification* refer to inceptive action concerning diesel oil and electricity respectively, but there is nothing in the words as such that takes us much beyond that. With *fissile* and *fissionable*, it is inevitable from the discussion above that not merely do they not proclaim that they are inherently concerned with *nuclear* fission; it is impossible to tell from their form what their precise meaning may be, even when we are told that nuclear fission is involved.

This is no more than we should expect if we reflect upon the concentration of presupposition that is packed into a lexicalization by the time it is successfully institutionalized. The coinage *racism* (*cf* App I.32) reflects in two syllables the conscience and the agonized sensibilities of a whole generation.

Note Many coinages, however, seem on the face of it to be so transparent that – at least when we know their meaning – it would not occur to us to call their formation unpredictable. This is perhaps especially true of blends (*cf* App I.76). Yet when Wayne Oates coined *workaholic* around 1970, he apparently saw himself obliged to explain that the word was 'to describe those people so involved in their work that it interferes with their health, personal happiness, social functioning, and interpersonal relationships'. Oates felt it necessary to go further and hint at the reason for giving the coinage this particular form by referring to '*addiction* to work'.

I.10 Of the two negative points just made about lexicalization, unrecoverability is far more endemic than unpredictability. Given the finite resources for lexicalization and the fact that some resources are more productive than others (*cf* App I.13), there are various highly likely ways in which a lexicalization will be realized, and it is on these that we concentrate in this Appendix. Thus in the lexicalization of concepts that can be given nominal properties, it is very common to adopt a strategy based on noun-phrase structure. Compare:

Some paper is shiny.
Paper that is shiny is difficult to write on.
Please don't buy me *shiny paper*.

We may postulate the way this strategy works in lexicalization:

[A] Oil comes from various sources, including vegetable matter. Such oil has functions and properties important for us and not shared with oil from other sources (*eg* mineral or animal matter). It is therefore worth distinguishing:

This oil is from a vegetable source.
Oil from vegetable sources is healthy for cooking.
Vegetable oil . . . [1]

[B] The engines of cars require oil; it has to be a special oil (*eg* from mineral sources, and of particular viscosity etc); since cars are relevant to our daily lives, such oil is worth distinguishing:

This oil is for engines.
Oil for engines is expensive.
Engine oil . . . [2]

But if such noun-phrase type premodification is so common in lexicalization as to challenge our earlier statement about predictability, it can readily be seen by comparing [1] and [2] that our statement stands concerning unrecoverability. Both [1] and [2] are of similar semantic and formal structure, but it is only by learning each as an idiosyncratic item that we can know that [1] 'means' oil *from* vegetables, [2] oil *for* engines. There is nothing inherently absurd about oil *for* vegetables, or oil *from* engines.

The latter point gains force in considering the lexicalizations that have in BrE clustered round *lighter* 'that which lights things' (itself a straightforward *-er* agential noun, based on the verb *to light*, *cf* App I.34). On the one hand, we have *fire-lighter* 'something that helps one to light fires'; on the other hand, *petrol-lighter*, 'something that helps one to light (tobacco) by means of petrol'. But two independent lexicalizations give us *gas-lighter*: the one like *fire-lighter*, 'something that helps one to light the gas'; the other like *petrol-lighter*, 'something that helps one to light (tobacco) by means of gas'.

I.11 The idiosyncrasy of lexicalization needs to be borne in mind when one is considering, for example, conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*). When beside the noun *paper* there comes into use a verb *paper*, this is sometimes loosely referred to as the conversion of the noun into a verb. But this is not so. What normally happens (as in this instance) is the lexicalization of an action that is related

to *one specific sense* of the noun, the sense concerned being selected on purely pragmatic grounds. Consider four of the senses of *paper* as a noun:

material in thin sheets made from wood or cloth [1]
a newspaper [2]
a piece of writing for specialists [3]
wallpaper [4]

The transitive verb 'formed' from this noun by conversion (*cf* App I.49) relates only to [4]:

John has papered the bedroom.

There would be nothing inherently absurd in derivatives from other senses, such as [2]:

(*)The Hearst organization has papered most of the mid-West.
['has supplied most of the mid-West with its papers']

or [3]:

(*)I'm papering part of my research in a specialist journal.
['publishing a paper on part of my research']

The position is simply that the social need for derivatives from the other senses seems not to have been felt and in consequence no lexicalization of the actions concerned has taken place.

By contrast, beside the noun *paint* ['liquid colouring matter'], two verb senses have been separately lexicalized:

Frank paints other people's windows but ignores his own.
['decorates with paint'] [5]
Frank paints other people's children but ignores his own.
['makes pictures with paint'] [6]

To each of these lexicalized actions the agential noun *painter* could equally relate:

Frank is a painter.

This example illustrates further the idiosyncratic nature of the lexicon. *A painter* could be predicated of Frank in [6] even if his normal occupation was as a car salesman and he painted only in his spare time, as a hobby. It could not be predicated of Frank in [5] unless house-painting was his regular paid work. We must contrast with these institutionalized uses of *painter* the affixation of agential *-er* (*cf* App I.34) in the environment 'The X-er of Y' which is simply a regular nominalization of '(NP) X-ed Y': in other words, a grammatical correspondence with no necessary lexicalization. Compare:

Augustus John was a painter of portraits. He was a well-known London *painter*.
Augustus John was a flouter of conventions. He was a well-known London **flouter*.

Note [a] Like *a painter* in [6], *a golfer*, *an angler*, or *a tennis-player* could also earn a living as a baker or a cleaner. But a librarian who bakes her own cakes, cleans her own room, and plays the violin will not normally be called *a baker*, *a cleaner*, or *a violinist*.

[b] The words *paint* and *paper* can, as we have seen, function as both noun and verb. Since as nouns both are concrete, and the verbs could be glossed as 'apply N', it is likely that native speakers feel that the verb is derived from the noun. In actual fact, this is true for *paper*, but false for *paint*, which was a verb for centuries before a nominal sense was lexicalized from it. The extent to which awareness of the 'direction' of derivation is relevant in language use is a matter of dispute, though the notion of 'back-formation' (*cf* App I.5 Note [b]) appeals directly to directionality. What is beyond dispute is the relevance of recognizing that a lexical relation exists; *cf* App I.2, and also App I.14 on 'analysability'.

I.12 As we have seen, conversion shows lexicalization having specific sense-orientation, in that only a particular sense of a word may be converted to another word class. But lexicalization also shows considerable item-orientation. Thus a conversion will apply to a specific formal item and not to any otherwise relevant synonym:

He offered her a {*cup* / *mug*} of coffee.

He *cupped* / (*)He *mugged* } his hands and drank from the stream.

Compare also:

He has a {*carpet* / *rug*} in his bedroom.

He has {*carpeted* / (*)*rugged*} his bedroom.

It is noteworthy that, in both these examples, it is the lexical item of more general meaning that has lent itself to conversion.

Again, while the verb *burst* can be replaced by *bust* ⟨nonstandard in BrE⟩, the converse is not true where *bust* is a (slang or very informal) lexicalization corresponding broadly to 'bankrupt':

Don't keep *bursting* in!
Don't keep *busting* in! ⟨nonstandard⟩
The firm has gone *bust*. ⟨slang⟩
*The firm has gone *burst*.

The point is further made by another slang lexicalization where *bust* refers to sudden intervention (especially by the police) and where the detachment from *burst* is additionally marked by regularization of the morphology:

The police {*burst* / **bursted*} into the room.

The police *busted* him for possessing drugs. ⟨slang⟩

Similarly, the verb *break* has two *-ed* participles, *broken*, and a largely nonstandard *broke*. But the latter is widely used adjectivally in the sense 'bankrupt', and though informal it is in educated use, even heard occasionally in broadcast news.

A comparable phenomenon of where two words are produced from one original is noticeable with 'back-formations' (*cf* App I.71). Despite the well-established correspondence between the verb *destroy* and the noun *destruction*,

the lexicalization of the concept *self-destruction* has led to the emergence of a new corresponding verb, as in:

The party is determined not to *self-destruct* on this issue.

Note that shortenings characteristically express in a specific form specific lexicalizations. Thus *lib* and *co-op* are not shortenings of *liberation* and *co-operative* respectively, as we see from

He advocated the **lib* of the prisoners.
She was very **co-op* and helpful.

but of (*women's/gay*) *liberation movement* and *co-operative* (*business organization*) respectively. Similarly, *exam* is a clipping of *examination* only in the sense of 'an (academic) test'.

Note Not all lexicalization falls within the tradition of 'word-formation' study that we follow here. It excludes, for example, lexicalization by adoption of items from other languages (such as *kung fu*). It also excludes metaphorical extension of meaning. Thus the compound *headache* is regarded as a word-formation phenomenon only in respect of its bringing together the two items *head* and *ache* to lexicalize a common type of physical pain. But when we find the same compound being used to lexicalize 'a nagging anxiety' (as in 'The financial situation is the President's biggest headache'), this is regarded as outside word-formation. Nor is the lexicalization of 'best method of access' as *key* regarded as a word-formation from the concrete instrument sense ('A good degree is the key to success'), though the use of one part of speech as another – without change of lexical meaning – does indeed fall within word-formation ('He cheats' – 'He is a cheat'). Equally, we shall follow here the tradition of ignoring what one might call *phrasal lexicalization*, as when the sentence:

I was *on the carpet* again yesterday.

can be used in the literal sense and also in the sense 'My superior disciplined me' – though it is this latter sense (not permitting 'I was on the new brown carpet again yesterday'), that has led to the verb lexicalization as in:

I was *carpeted* again yesterday. (*Cf* App 1.49)

We should add one further word on the limits within which we are operating in this Appendix. The formation of complex prepositions (*in aid of*), complex subordinators (*in the event that*), and phrasal and prepositional verbs (*give up, see to*) is treated as a grammatical phenomenon (*cf* 9.10*ff*, 16.3*f*, 16.5*ff*), though without ignoring the lexicalization aspect. The decision to treat such phenomena thus and not in this Appendix is in part a result of taking the WORD (defined in terms of an integrity that resists interruption of its parts) as the unit of lexicology and hence the sole remit of Appendix I. Phrasal lexical items consist of more than one word and although they have the semantic and often the grammatical integrity of words (*cf*: 'She mustn't *lose sight of* them' ~ 'They mustn't be *lost sight of*'), some degree of separateness continues to be recognized ('They *lost* at one time *sight of* their main goals'). Such phrases show many signs, however, of COALESCENCE, both orthographic (*instead of* beside *in place of*, *indeed* beside *in fact*) and semantic; *cf* also *because*, *altogether*. This illustrates the gradience between grammar and lexicon, including a gradience in lexicalization; *cf* 2.35 and the distinction there made between lexical items and grammatical words. On the one hand, *lose sight of* can be viewed as a single lexical item; on the other hand, it comprises three grammatical words, one of them (*lose*) with some morphological variation.

Even without the inherent difficulties presented by gradience and even without the present unsatisfactory state of word-formation studies, it would be impossible in this Appendix to cover the entire field of lexical creativity. Rather, as is appropriate in a grammar, we concentrate on those aspects that most resemble the regularities of grammar and are most closely interrelated with them.

Productivity

I.13 Any description of word-formation in the context of present-day grammar

should obviously be concerned with processes of word-formation that are productive at the present time. The fact that words have resulted from the past operation of word-formation processes is in itself irrelevant from a synchronic, monolingual point of view. Thus the word *gospel* cannot be seen as a modern English word-formation, though formed in earlier English from the words *good* and *spell* (in the obsolete sense 'news'). Nor, as an English word, can *abattoir*: though its constitution is clear enough in French, where the verb *abattre* exists as well as the common affix *-oir*. Nor, as an English word, can *karate* be seen as a 'formation', though in Japanese it is clearly a junction of *kara* 'empty' and *te* 'hand'. On the other hand, words like *ice-cream*, *conceptualize*, *psychosomatic*, *workaholic*, *motel*, and *bionic* have all been formed within English sufficiently recently as to be representative of currently productive processes. The native speaker operates daily in the implicit knowledge that the meaning of most adjectives can be negated by prefixing *un-* and that most adjectives will permit the formation of abstract nouns by suffixing *-ness*.

But the distinction between productive and nonproductive is by no means straightforward. In the first place, there are severe constraints of a sociolinguistic kind that inhibit any individual's freedom to make new words (*cf* App I.7*f*, I.15). Secondly, there are linguistic constraints. These may be phonological. When Kasner invited his child to invent a word for 10^{100}, it is unlikely that *sfoogol* would have been suggested in view of the rarity of /sf/ as an initial cluster; *mroogol* would have been unthinkable. Alternatively, linguistic constraint may be syntagmatic. A 'machine for transporting dodos' might be lexicalized as a *dodo-car* but not as a *car-dodo*; the absence of dodos might be lexicalized as *dodofree* or *dodoless* ('This part of Arkansas is . . .') but not as *freedodo* or *lessdodo*. Other linguistic constraints inhibit *untall* or *dishappy* or *thinkledge* (despite *knowledge*), or *carefreedom* (despite the existence of *carefree* and *freedom*). Thirdly, there are pragmatic constraints. We do not have *doorleg* (beside *doorknob*) because doors do not have legs. We do not have *legchair* (beside *armchair*) for the opposite reason: that it is normal for chairs to have legs (though many are designed without legs).

Obviously, pragmatic constraints are a primary bar to lexicalization, but even this statement is not as simple as it may seem. We have no word *snow-cream* (beside *ice-cream*), but that is hardly because there is 'no such thing'. Both from a linguistic and a pragmatic viewpoint, *snow-cream* is as possible and satisfactory as *ice-cream*; there are indeed fluffy varieties of ice-cream that resemble snow more than ice. Given the social urge to make a particular distinction, lexicalization can be seen as operating to some degree independently from the real-world constraints of pragmatics.

There is thus in word-formation no simple parallel to the use and non-use of the starred form in grammar. At best, we may assign a star to forms that are in some sense 'impossible':

*mroogol [on phonological grounds]
*fulgrace-dis [on syntagmatic grounds: *dis-* can only prefix]
*emptyless [on semantic and grammatical grounds: *-less* cannot be added to adjectives]
?*thinkledge [*-ledge* is obsolete]

We can then distinguish these from words which for one reason or another are very unlikely to be formed in the course of using processes that are both familiar and currently active:

(*)doorleg [pragmatically excluded in present world]
(*)meep [a possible but unused word]
(*)snow-cream [a possible but unused compound]
(*)untall [unused perhaps because alternatively lexicalized]
(*)psychophilatelic [unused because psychological aspects of stamp collecting have not called for lexicalization]

Finally, we have items that are in actual use like *motel, ice-cream, bionic*.

But the absence of an asterisk can only mean that the item concerned has been formed; it carries none of the implications of the unstarred sentence that we are invited to produce further items for ourselves on this pattern. Conversely, given the idiosyncrasies of lexicalization and the word-formation that may be used in response, the stars and parenthesized asterisks can do little more than assign degrees of improbability as to the form that new words may take.

Note [a] Certain processes and affixes have spurts of productivity at certain periods; *eg*: *mini-* in the 1960s, *-gate* (as in *cattlegate, oilgate, Muldergate*, but all modelled on *Watergate*), following the White House crisis in the 1970s; *cf* App I.76. Others are especially productive in certain activities: *eg* initialisms in civil administration, acronyms in computer science, etc. Even a dormant affix like *-hood* can come into restricted use, as in *sentencehood*.
[b] Word-formation was responsible for roughly half of the 6000 new words recorded by Merriam in the dozen years following the publication of the 1961 *Third International Dictionary*, about two-fifths of these by affixation, about three-fifths by compounding.

I.14 From the viewpoint of productivity, therefore, the ordinary user of English who is neither a poet nor an experimental scientist must be seen as having a fairly passive role in word-formation – whereas in grammar he has conversely a wholly active role. He *must* construct new sentences: he need not construct new words (and he lays himself open to criticism when he does so, neologism being an aspect of language use most open to prescriptive censure). But this does not mean that word-formation is of no practical concern or interest to the ordinary user of the language. If we are only rarely called on to construct words, we are prone to analyse them and are inclined to expect that complex items are composed of a relatively small number of basic ones. This is indeed one respect in which we seem to regard words somewhat analogously to the way we regard phrases and clauses. That is not to say that we expect complex words to be self-explanatory. We cannot from their names identify or define ice-cream or a blackbird, but once we have experience of the entities concerned, we understand why they are so called: the words seem well-motivated. So, too, when we know the meaning of *selfish* and *selfishness, lordly* and *lordliness*, they make sense in relation to *self* and *lord*, even though we might not have predicted the meanings of *selfish* and *lordly* from their composition. Indeed, it is likely that a sound general awareness of the specificity and idiosyncrasy of lexicalization helps to inhibit us from coining (for example) *doctorly* and *doctorliness* by analogy with *lordly* and *lordliness*. We note, however, that literary theory in the 1980s gave some currency to *writerly* and *readerly* (adjectives).

The phenomenon of 'popular' (or 'folk') etymology testifies to the ordinary person's concern for analysability. For example, *salt-cellar* seems a clear example of an attempt to make sense of the word *salier*, adopted from the French. Even though its meaning was known, the opaqueness of the form seems to have led to a reasoning something like this: 'The object is a container for salt; a cellar is a place for storing things, so this must be what people mean when they use this strange word "salier"; the thing is a *salt-cellar*.'

With the inevitable changes in language over time (*eg* the phonological change that now distinguishes *holy* from the first part of *holiday*), analysability of long-established words is reduced. If the language has adopted large numbers of words from other languages (as English has from French, Latin, and Greek), analysability is further impaired. Compare the English *rhinoceros* with German *Nashorn* 'nose-horn', or the English *rhododendron* with German *Alpenrose*. Nonetheless, our propensity to analyse enables us to recognize and interpret recurrent parts of words even where other parts are not in themselves recognizable as meaningful. Thus in:

*inter*mitt*ent*

we can link the first part with *international, interaction*, etc, and the *-ent* is recognizable as a possible adjective marker as in *different, innocent, prurient*, even if *-mit(t)-* remains totally opaque (since of course there is no reason why the ordinary user of English should connect this with the first syllable in *mission* or *missive*). So also with:

*dis*par*ity*

the negative force of *dis-* and the largely abstract noun marker *-ity* can be recognized even if *-par-* remains opaque. With:

*bishop*ric

we of course see a connection with *bishop* even though the suffix *-ric* is obsolete. In some instances like *knowledge* (the suffix of which again is obsolete), it is the spelling alone that permits partial analysis. The word *gumption* is marked as a probably abstract noun by its ending; *postpone* and *precede* link up with other *post-* and *pre-* words such that both their meaning and pattern of distribution are recognizable though *-pone* and *-cede* are isolates (divorced from *position* and *-cession* respectively).

We may conclude these considerations of lexicalization and productivity by recalling what we have said about the degree to which new formations are predictable in form, with meanings that are recoverable (*cf* App I.10*f*). It will have emerged from the examples discussed that, rather than speak of interpretability, it is more relevant to look at a formation from the viewpoint of motivatedness. When we become acquainted with a new word, we can often judge it, with hindsight as it were, as obviously well-motivated in its formation: *workaholic* is an example. But sometimes the motivation may seem entirely opaque, and *googol* is an example. There are more formations of the former kind than of the latter, no doubt fortunately, since they carry an in-built mnemonic as to their meaning.

Note The degree to which, independently of foreign language knowledge, the native speaker of English is able to analyse words and word-constituents of ultimately cognate form, is uncertain

and a matter for psycholinguistic research. Some common examples are *people* and *popul(ar)*; *(trans)mit* and *(trans)mission*; *(pro)cede* and *(pro)cession*; *(con)demn* and *damn(ation)*; *col(laborate)* and *com(panion)*; *re(ject)*, *re(view)*, and *re(apply)*. Despite its spelling, a *cupboard* does not concern *cups* and *boards*, and it does not sound as if it does: /kabəd/. What is beyond question is that most of the affixes in productive use are ultimately from languages other than English, and that these adopted and neo-classical constituents can be regarded as fairly well assimilated by English speakers as a whole. This extends even to some evidence of an aversion to 'hybrid' formations like **workious* beside *laborious*. Compare our habit of adopting appropriate foreign-derived prosody (*'legal*, *le'gality* beside *'lawful*, *'lawfulness*), and this even where hybrids occur: *'Milton*, *'Miltonish*, but *Mil'tonic*, *cf* App II.3*ff*. Among the hybrids over which there was at one time strong protest, we may mention *amoral*, *bureaucracy*, *cablegram*, *pacifist*, and *speedometer*.

Individual creativity

I.15 It follows from what we have been saying that we must exercise caution when we speak of 'rules' in word-formation. The idiosyncrasies of lexicalization and the inherent restraint upon making up new words remove the predictive and permissive implications that the notion of 'rules' conveys. In word-formation study we are involved rather in describing an accretion of individual historical events and making generalizations about them to show the extent of recurrent patterning that exists.

But there are some exceptions to the largely passive role of the individual in the word-formation process. These are of two broad kinds.

[A] First, there are cases where no semantic lexicalization is required, but merely some formal reorganization which leaves the semantics of the base unchanged. This is preeminently true of nominalizations. Thus instead of saying 'We ought to be able to *punish* whoever *scribbled* this foul message', we might say:

> The *scribbler* of this foul message should be *punished*.
> The *scribbling* of this foul message should be *punishable*.

Again, instead of saying 'They borrowed my typewriter', one may venture upon a nonce-formation as in:

> They left me *typewriterless*.

(Contrast *penniless* which does not mean 'without pennies' but lexicalizes 'destitute, without money or other comparable resources'.) Other affixes (*cf* App I.13) that can also be used fairly freely include *un-*, *dis-*, *-ful*, *-ize*, *-able* ('Is this shirt *drippable-dry/drip-dryable*?' beside the simpler *drip-dry*), *pseudo-*, *mini-* ('I only want a *mini-loaf*'), *non-*, *-ness*, adjectival *-ish* and *-y* (both especially in the sense 'somewhat'), and several devices to form diminutives and the like, such as *-let*, *-y*, and ⟨esp AustralE⟩ *-o*; *cf* App I.77. We may convert one part of speech to another without affix with similar freedom, especially nouns to verbs ('You can *'envelope* these letters now'), or verbs to nouns ('I'll have a *sit* for a few minutes'). We do not mean to imply that any given example would in actual historical fact be getting used for the first time, but rather that so far as the user is concerned the formation or conversion was his own.

[B] Secondly, as we saw in App I.7, there is the limited freedom to create new formations in order to satisfy by lexicalization a terminological need which may be as ad hoc and temporary as the formation concerned. Nonce-formations of this kind are often preceded by an explicit indication of the coinage to come (which may simultaneously function as an apology for thus interfering with the implicitly-held finite state of the lexicon): 'what one might call', 'and I shall refer to this as'. The commonest process of word-formation of this kind is compounding (*cf* App I.57*ff*). If we imagine a scientist describing a condition arising through weightlessness that may resemble the effect of alcohol, he may say 'I shall call this *space-inebriation*'. An international gathering discusses a special form of radio communication between ships or between ships and ports, and starts referring to this as *sea-speak*. Or compounding may coincide with abbreviation: a conference on communication between divers in off-shore oil exploration may speak of *subcom* (for 'submarine communication'), and the scientist who has coined *space-inebriation* may rapidly turn this into *SI* once he is assured that this will be understood by his audience. In the 1970s, *mediagenic* was used in a US journal to describe the qualities required of a presidential aide. It connoted broadly 'likely to promote good relations with press, radio, and TV', and it was obviously a blend involving the established *photogenic*. On the other hand, when a scientist at about the same time coined the term *supragenic*, the second part was the adjectival form of the noun *gene*, and the formation referred to heredity above the level of the gene. It hardly needs to be said that the vast majority of such new formations remain uninstitutionalized attempts at lexicalization.

Note Although commercial brand names (like the names of places and persons) are obviously beyond the scope of this Appendix (except where they achieve currency as common nouns; *cf* App I.53), it should be noted that they display vigorous creativity, involving several of the processes to be studied below (especially perhaps combining-forms, blending, and the use of neo-classical affixes). Inasmuch as these are aimed at international markets, they bear witness to the widespread use of these processes and affixes in other languages.

I.16 The two broad areas of individual creativity distinguished in App I.15 differ not only linguistically (in the forms and types of word-formation concerned) but in situational context. [B] implies a rather formal, serious, intellectual, or at any rate utilitarian setting. By contrast, [A] implies a rather informal, familiar, light-hearted setting. There seem indeed to be notable socio-linguistic correlates to the degrees of individual lexical creativity, such that on either side of a large conventional mass of people (on whom the constraints against creativity are most strongly felt), there are two areas in which such creativity is relatively frequent. On the one side, there is the world of new technology, learning, and research, where the coining of new terminology is almost endemic, and to a certain degree essential: *eg*: *maglev* (from 'magnetic levitation') in transport research; *paracharmonium* and *psi particle* in charm-theory physics. On the other side, there is the exuberance of slang talk between familiar (and especially young) friends: *lech* ['to lust after'], *knee-jerk* ['one who acts automatically'], *bird farm* ['aircraft carrier'], *mind-blowing* ['overwhelming'], *trendy* ['fashionable']. Many such lexicalizations are phrasal: *freak out* ['to undergo intense experience'], *do (one's) thing* ['to follow personal inclinations'], *get it together* ['to organize oneself'], *spaced out* ['drugged']. They include rather formal examples, such as *in the context of* ['as regards']. The willingness to be unconventional is sharply illustrated by

the habit of splitting words in very familiar speech so as to insert (usually taboo) asseveratives: *absoballylutely*; *cf* App I.76 Note [c].

But in the last analysis, individual creativity depends less on the social context than on the particular individual. We vary enormously in our desire (and in our ability) to be lexically innovative.

Note [a] To a modest degree, creativity is going on continually, sometimes acknowledged, sometimes unnoticed. In a recent book on literary history, the author apologized for coining the word *canonical* in the sense of 'relating to the (authorial) canon'. It is noteworthy that he did not apologize (nor did he need to) for the ways in which he then proceeded to use it. These uses included: *canonical research* 'research towards identifying the canon', *canonical arguments* 'arguments about the extent of the canon', *canonical plays* 'plays that are recognized to be within the canon'.

[b] Though constraints on deviation from norms in phonology, grammar, and style are commonly acknowledged in the form of public rebuke and ridicule, this is nowhere more pointed than in cases of excessive lexical neologism. An American statesman was severely criticized in both the American and British press in 1981 for what was thought an unacceptable degree of conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*), and *The Guardian* even devoted a leader to satirizing his usage. This included: 'He techniqued a new way to vocabulary his thoughts so as to uncertain anybody listening.'

[c] Our ability to operate correspondences between agential nouns in *-er* and abstract nouns in *-ing* from verbs, to make adverbs by adding *-ly* to adjectives (or, esp in AmE, *-wise* to nouns), to make ordinals by adding *-th* to cardinal numerals (even abstract ones as with 'to the *nth* degree') obviously resembles our comparable ability to make grammatical inflections like plural and past. For this reason, some theorists would regard such phenomena as being outside word-formation and as being rather a part of inflectional grammar. They would see a parallel between the 'formation' of the noun *driver* from *drive* and the 'formation' of the adjective *careful* from *carefully* in:

She *drives carefully*.
~She is a *careful driver*.

Such a theoretical stance has far-reaching implications. For instance, just as *medical* in the phrase 'a medical student' is a nonpredicable adjective formed by derivation with the suffix *-al*, some would argue that *physics* in 'a physics student' is a nonpredicable adjective formed by conversion. One might adduce as parallels such informal adverbial uses of adjective forms as in 'Drive *slow*' (*cf* App I.46 Note). The controversial concept of a 'zero' suffix (*cf* App I.43 Note [a]) reflects just such an attempt to see conversion as parallel to the use of affixes such as *-al* and *-ly*.

[d] In connection with forms like *absoballylutely*, it is worth pointing out that the interposed intensifier in Eliza Doolittle's famous exclamation 'Not bloody likely' in Shaw's *Pygmalion* is in effect a similar phenomenon. It was not the *likeliness* that she was asseverating but the '*not-likeliness*'; *cf*: *not in any way likely*; the intensifier was inserted, however, before the stressed syllable in the same way as explained in App. I.76 Note [c]. The informal *Not likely!* is a further instance of a phrase having the status of a single lexical item; *cf* App I.12 Note.

Spelling and hyphenation

I.17 When suffixes are added to a base, spelling changes may occur, many of them parallel to those involved in inflection (*cf* 3.7*ff*, 5.11, 7.79). Thus:

y ~ *i*: *friendly* ~ *friendliness*, *happy* ~ *happily* (*cf* 7.46*f*, 7.80*f*, App I.41)
doubling: *red* ~ *reddish* (*cf* also *-c* ~ *-ck-*: *panic* ~ *panicky*)
-e loss: *cause* ~ *causation*
simplification: *full* ~ *fully* (=*full* + *ly*)

There are also foreign-derived assimilations *in-/im-/il-/ir-*, *con-/com-/col-*; *cf* App I.21. Although affixes are normally joined to bases without hyphens, hyphens may be used where the formation seems relatively unestablished;

where the affix (such as *-wise*, *non-*, *post-*) seems to be somewhat word-like (*construction-wise*, *ultra-reactionary*); in new formations with such prefixes as *co-*, *de-*, *re-*; or – especially in BrE – to prevent a double occurrence of a vowel (*re-emphasize*); *cf* App III.3*ff*.

With compounds, the constituents are often written as separate words when the collocation seems relatively unestablished:

(He has some) 'writing paper.

As the sequence of items becomes more established, it may be hyphenated (especially in BrE) as an intermediate stage before being written solid:

tax-exemption
bloodtest

Where the first constituent is a combining form, however (*cf* App I.66), hyphenation is the first step (again especially in BrE) rather than the second, since there is no stage at which the first component can be written as a separate word (but see Note):

(Her interests are more) lexico-semantic.

Hyphenation is used also to mark sequences as ad hoc 'compounds' for typographical clarity (*cf* App III.4). There was an example of this in App I.4, *a silent-film star*. So also, beside 'He collects foreign stamps':

He is a foreign-stamp collector.

to distinguish this from a foreign collector of stamps; again,

his higher-than-average wages

but 'His wages were higher than average'. Idioms are often hyphenated irrespective of their position in a sentence. Thus not only 'a *root-and-branch* revision', but 'The revision will be quite *root-and-branch*'. Hyphens are used for clarity where a sequence becomes the base for suffixation. Thus, while we may write without hyphens:

She has *short sight*.
He is *colour blind*.
They are both *old maids*.

hyphens are preferred in:

She is *short-sighted*.
He is affected by *colour-blindness*.
They are rather *old-maidish*.

Prefixation raises a different problem, since with new formations or ill-established ones the prefix would itself be hyphenated; and (except in premodifying phrases like *higher-than-average wages*) we avoid introducing more than one hyphen into a compound. Thus when we prefix *ex-* in:

He is an *army officer*.

we have, despite the implication of incorrect constitution,

He is an *ex-army officer*.

rather than a sequence of hyphens as in 'an *ex-army-officer*'. The elements *non-*, *vice-*, *mini-* and a few others are sometimes written as separate words: 'the new *vice consul*'.

Relations between phrase and complex word

I.18 We have noted earlier that we treat the formation of phrasal verbs, complex prepositions, and other types of word sequence, as a grammatical phenomenon, and therefore as falling outside word-formation (*cf* App I.12 Note). Informal spellings like *alright* for *all right*, *gonna* for *going to*, the uncertain division of *in so far* and *in as much*, the choice between *instead of him* and *in his stead* indicate the gradience that exists between words and phrases. When a phrasal verb is converted to another part of speech, the particle is sometimes treated like a prefix (*cf*: *income* 'earnings'):

They *spread out* their arms.
Their *outspread* arms . . .

His behaviour *put* her *off*. ['disconcerted', ⟨informal⟩]
She felt rather *offput* at his behaviour. ⟨BrE, very informal⟩
She found his behaviour *offputting*.

We are *taking in* more students this year.
Our *intake* will be four thousand.

Money is not *flowing in* fast enough;
inflow was better last year.

The rain *poured down* for hours,
and this *downpour* delayed us.

In other cases, the particle is treated like a suffix:

The plane *took off* at noon.
Take-off was at noon.

Phrases also readily become complex words with suffixation:

He could not *get at* the window.
The window was *unget-at-able*. ⟨informal⟩

The shirt will *drip dry*.
The shirt is *drip-dryable*. ⟨BrE, informal⟩

In such cases the suffix can be used as though it were an infix:

The window was unget*table*-at.
The shirt is dripp*able*-dry. ⟨BrE⟩ } ⟨informal and 'nonce'⟩

I was merely passing by.
I was merely a passer-by.

Note The 'infix' of *passer-by* is paralleled in grammar by such plurals as *consuls-general* (and indeed the plural of *passer-by* itself: *passers-by*) and the alternative pattern *unget-at-able* by 'group genitives' like *a man of honour's influence*, *Elizabeth the Second's heir*. The overlap of word and phrase can be further seen in ordinals like 'one hundred and sixty-seven*th*' and the pseudo-coordinations in *try and come*, *come and see* (*cf* 13.98), where there is resistance to separate inflection (**tried and came*; ?*is coming and seeing*). Yet occasional (presumably accidental) utterances like 'He must do as he *see fits*' are heard in conversation. Unease and vacillation seem to lie behind the (jokingly nonstandard) agential nouns as in 'Will you wash up? I'm sure you're a good *washer-upper*'; *cf* also *usher-inner*, *walker-onner*.

Phonological consequences of word-formation

I.19 In the detailed description that follows, attention will be drawn to points of stress and pronunciation associated with particular affixes and processes. A series like:

'photograph	/'fəʊtəɡrɑːf/
photo'graphic	/ˌfəʊtə'ɡræfɪk/
pho'tography	/fə'tɒɡrəfɪ/

illustrates the considerable stress variation (with consequent differences of vowel pronunciation) that accompanies the use of originally foreign affixes (*cf* App II.5). But vowel values can alter even where the stress remains constant:

'nation /neɪ-/
'national /næ-/

Prefixes and suffixes are usually unstressed in relation to the semantically weightier parts of words (*cf* App II.3*ff*), but:

[A] a few suffixes (*eg*: *-'ette*) assume primary stress; and

[B] prefixes have secondary stress if:
[i] they are disyllabic (*eg*: *ˌinter-*), or
[ii] the base begins with an unstressed syllable (*eg*: *ˌunat'tractive*), or
[iii] they are 'new' uses of 'old' items (*eg*: *ˌpre-*, *ˌre-*).

We shall draw attention to individual exceptions, but one general exception may be noted here. While many verbs have primary stress on the stem, as in:

She con'trasted her childhood with his.

the stress is moved on to the prefix when they are converted into nouns (*cf* App I.56, App II.6):

There is a 'contrast in meaning in the two uses of *painter*.

Moreover, noun compounds characteristically shift the stress to the first constituent where the corresponding phrase or clause has the primary stress on the second:

The ˌsun is 'rising.
The 'sunˌrise is . . .
This ˌblack 'bird [*phrase*] is a 'blackˌbird. [*compound*; *cf* App II.7]

Affixation

I.20 Although for ease of access to the information we shall present each set of affixes in alphabetical order, it should be noted that this obscures two important points. The first is that, within each set, it is usual that some affixes

have far more frequent productive use than others. The second is that there are often significant relations between affixes: especially antonymy, as with *pre-* and *post-*, *-ful* and *-less*.

So that the relation between competing and contrasting affixes can be better understood, we shall use broad semantic categories as the basis of presentation, offsetting by means of cross-reference the inevitable disadvantages of this approach in oversimplifying the description. The semantic basis means, of course, that items having a single form (*eg*: *un-*, or *sub-*) but distinct semantic or grammatical functions will be given two or more separate entries. Only the chief affixes in productive use will be dealt with (subject to the words of caution in App I.13*ff*), but from time to time it will be convenient to make notes of comparison with rarer or nonproductive items. Where the item normally carries secondary or primary stress, the head form is marked accordingly (*eg*: ˌNON-, ˈMINI-), and exceptions are noted in the main body of the entry. Pronunciation is given where it is thought necessary.

Note Though most prefixes cannot occur as independent words, they can on occasion be detached to permit coordination, as in *pre- and post-hysterectomy*; *cf* 13.85.

Prefixation

Negative prefixes

I.21 ˌA- (/eɪ/ or /æ/), AN- (especially before vowels), 'lacking in', 'lack of', combines with adjectives, as in *amoral*, *asexual*, *anhydrous*, and is found in some nouns (*eg*: *anarchy*). Chiefly used in learned and scientific lexicon. Some items have the main stress on the prefix: ˈ*anarchy*, ˈ*atheist* /eɪ/, ˈ*atrophied* /æ/.

DIS- (*cf* App I.22) 'not', 'the converse of', combines with open-class items including verbs: *eg*: *disobey*, *disloyal(ly)*, *disorder* (n), *disuse* (n), *disunity*, *discontent* (n).

IN- (and variants IL- before /l/, IM- before labials, IR- before /r/) 'not', 'the converse of', combines with adjectives of French and Latin origin, and is less common than *un-*; *eg*: *incomplete*. *Cf* also the noun *inattention*.

ˌNON- 'not', combines (usually hyphenated) with nouns, adjectives, and open-class adverbs: *eg*: *non-smoker*; *non-perishable*; *non-trivially*.

UN- 'not', 'the converse of' (but *cf* App I.22), combines fairly freely with adjectives and participles; *eg*: *unfair*, *unwise*, *unforgettable*; *unassuming*, *unexpected*.

Note [a] Of these prefixes, *un-* is by far the most productive, and it typically involves less lexicalization than the other prefixes. With adjectives, *un-* can usually replace *in-* or *dis-* for ad hoc use, but with semantic consequences. Thus *unrepairable*, *unreplaceable*, *unmovable*, etc are more absolute and more literally related to the respective bases than *irreparable*, *irreplaceable*, *immovable* etc. Converse replacement is not usually possible (**infaithful*, **dishappy*; *cf* App I.14 Note). It is noteworthy that several negative lexicalizations with *in-* and its variants have either no direct relation to the nonnegative base (*infirm* ~ *firm*, *infamous* ~ *famous*) or no nonnegative base at all (**ept*, **ert*). *Cf* also **couth*.

[b] *Non-* differs from *un-* in frequently expressing a binary contrast (without gradability) rather than the opposite end of a scale: *eg*: *non-scientific* (?**rather non-scientific*) as distinct from (*rather*) *unscientific*; *non-American* beside *unAmerican*.

[c] Because of the possibility of confusion with negative *in-*, the nonproductive *in-* of *inflammable* (*cf*: *ingredient*) tends now to be avoided and this word is increasingly replaced by *flammable*, with a negative *non-flammable*. The following press report (*Observer*, 9 July 1978) illustrates how easily the terms are confounded: 'BR switched from highly *flammable* to *inflammable* but slow-smouldering material . . . They rightly discarded the highly *flammable* materials and went for those which were *non-flammable* with a low combustion point.' The writer appears to be using *non-flammable* and *inflammable* as synonymous.

[d] The assimilation variants of *in-* are to some extent paralleled with *un-* (*eg*:[ʌm'plezənt]) and other affixes, but with *un-* and most others, these variants are not established in such a way as to be reflected in spelling.

[e] *Un-* often confers lexicalized acceptability on a participial or other deverbal adjective form: contrast **a heeded problem* with *an unheeded problem*, **a speakable condition* with *an unspeakable condition*. As compared with clausal negation, an *un-* item tends to connote 'frustrating the potential of the base'; *eg*:

The building { wasn't occupied. / was *unoccupied*.

[f] *Non-person* illustrates a pejorative and ironic type of noun-formation which has shown some productivity in recent years. The meaning here is 'a person who is not (*ie* does not count as) a person', 'a person of no consequence'; *cf* also *non-event*.

[g] Other prefixes apart from those above have negative implications: notably, the reversative prefixes discussed below (*cf* App I.22), and the prefixes of opposition, *anti-* and *counter-*, discussed in App I.25.

Reversative or privative prefixes

I.22 DE- (/diː/) [i] 'reversing the action', combines fairly freely with (especially denominal) verbs and deverbal nouns; *eg*: *decentralize*, *defrost*, *desegregate*, *de-escalate*, *denationalization*;

[ii] 'depriving of', combines fairly freely with verbs and deverbal nouns (*eg*: *decapitate*, *deforestation*), including one or two items already connoting deprivation (*eg*: *denude*, *defraud*).

DIS- (*cf* App I.21) [i] 'reversing the action', combines fairly freely with verbs; *eg*: *disconnect*, *disinfect*, *disown*; in some cases with privative force, as in *dishearten*, *dispossess*;

[ii] 'lacking', combines limitedly with denominal adjectives; *eg*: *disinterested*; *discoloured* (also verb *discolour*) refers to unwelcome change of colour.

UN- (*cf* App I.21) [i] 'reversing the action', combines fairly freely with verbs; *eg*: *undo*, *untie*, *unzip*, *unpack*, *unwrap*;

[ii] 'depriving of', 'releasing from', 'degrading', combines limitedly with nouns, turning them into verbs; thus *unseat*, *unhorse*, *unmask*, *unman*.

Note Both *de-* (pronounced /dɪ/) and *dis-* occur also in words that already had the prefixes when adopted into English; in such cases they frequently have no meaning analysable by ordinary users of English. *Eg*: *depend*, *discern*.

Pejorative prefixes

I.23 ˌMAL- 'badly', 'bad', combines with verbs, participles, adjectives, and abstract nouns; *eg*: *maltreat*, *malformed*, *malodorous*, *malfunction*, *malnutrition*.

MIS- 'wrongly', 'astray', combines with verbs, participles, and abstract nouns; *eg*: *miscalculate*, *mishear*, *misfire*, *misinform*, *mislead(ing)*; *misconduct* (n).

ˌPSEUDO- 'false', 'imitation', combines freely with nouns and adjectives, *eg*: *pseudo-Christianity*, *pseudo-classicism*, *pseudo-intellectual* (n or adj); *pseudo-scientific*.

Note [a] Verbs prefixed by *mal-* and *mis-* tend to be gradable; *cf* 'He very much miscalculated the time required' beside '?He very much calculated . . .'
[b] Both in form and in degree of independent lexical meaning, *pseudo-* resembles the combining forms (*cf* App I.66), as is further suggested by the existence of the informal abbreviation *pseud* ⟨BrE⟩, *cf* App I.74.
[c] For other prefixes with pejorative overtones, see NON- (App I.21 Note [f]); ARCH-, OVER-, UNDER-, and HYPER- (App I.24).

Prefixes of degree or size

I.24 ˌARCH- 'supreme', 'most', combines freely with nouns, chiefly with human reference (*eg*: *archduke*, *archbishop*), and usually with pejorative effect (*eg*: *arch-enemy*, *arch-fascist*, *arch-hypocrite*): note the hyphens with these relatively ad hoc items; *archangel* is an isolated case, with pronunciation /ɑːk/ and normally with the prefix stressed.

ˌCO- 'joint(ly)', 'on equal footing', combines freely with nouns and verbs: *co-education*, *co-heir*, *co-pilot*; *co-religionist*, *cohabit*, *cooperate* ⟨also *co-operate* BrE⟩, *co-opt*, *coordinate*, *coexist*. In some nouns, the prefix is stressed: *ˈco-driver*.

ˌHYPER- 'extreme' (sometimes pejorative, 'too'), combines freely with adjectives: *hypersensitive*, *hypercritical*, *hyperactive*.

ˈMINI- 'little', combines freely (and especially informally) with nouns: *mini-market*, *mini-skirt*, *mini-cab*; a rather contrived contrast is possible with *ˈmaxi-* 'large' (*maxi-length*) and less commonly *ˈmidi-* 'medium'. In ad hoc collocations, the stress is often on the base: 'They started a *mini(-)ˈfactory*.'

ˌOUT- (*cf* App I.26) 'surpassing', combines freely with nouns and intransitive verbs to form transitive verbs: *outnumber*, *outclass*, *outdistance*, *outgrow*, *outrun*, *outlive*.

ˌOVER- 'excessive' (hence pejorative), combines freely with verbs and adjectives; *overeat*, *overestimate*, *overreact*, *overplay*, *oversimplify*, *overwork*; *overconfident*, *overdressed*. In more locative senses, 'from above', it combines fairly freely with verbs (*overflow*, *overshadow*); *cf* App I.26 Note [b].

ˌSUB- 'below' (but *cf* also App I.26 Notes [a] and [b]), combines with adjectives: *subconscious*, *subnormal*.

ˌSUPER- 'more than', 'very special' (but *cf* also App I.26), combines freely with adjectives (*eg*: *supernatural*, *supersensitive*) and nouns (with prefix stressed, *ˈsupermarket*, *ˈsuperman*, etc); 'on top', 'hierarchically superior', combines less freely with verbs (*super-impose*) and nouns (*ˈsuperstructure*).

ˈSUR- 'over and above', combines with nouns and takes the stress: *ˈsurcharge*, *ˈsurtax*.

ˌULTRA- 'extreme', 'beyond', combines freely with adjectives (hyperboles like *ultra-modern*, *ultra-conservative*; technical items like *ultrasonic*, *ultraviolet*); and with nouns in technical usage, sometimes with the prefix stressed (*ultramicroscopic*, *ˈultrasound*, *ultracentrifuge*).

ˌUNDER- (*cf* App I.26 Note [b]) 'too little', combines freely with verbs and *-ed* participles (*undercharge*, *underestimate*, *underplay*; *underprivileged*, *underprovided*), and corresponding nouns (*underprovision*); with the meaning 'subordinate', it combines less commonly with nouns (*eg*: *undermanager*).

Note [a] Several of these prefixes were already incorporated into words before they were adopted and in such cases they are frequently unanalysable semantically (*superficial*, *survey*, *subject*, *ultramarine*, etc), as is sometimes shown by stressing that ignores the structure of the prefix (*suˈperfluous*, *hyˈperbole*).
[b] *Supervisor* and *overseer* seem to reflect their respective origins (neo-classical and native) by acquiring associations with nonmanual and manual work respectively; like *overseer* is *foreman*.
[c] *Con-* (also *col-* and the original *com-*) has limited productivity in senses similar to those of *co-*: *conurbation*, *collateral*, *compatriot*; but it chiefly occurs in words already incorporating it before they were adopted into English.
[d] Implying 'minutely small', we have *ˈmicro-* in *microcomputer*, *microchip*, *microparticle*, *microfilm* etc; the antonymous prefix *ˈmacro-* is also used.

Prefixes of orientation and attitude

I.25 ˌANTI- (/æntɪ/ also /æntaɪ/ AmE) 'against', combines freely with denominal adjectives (*anti-social*, *anti-clerical*, *anti-clockwise*), and nouns (mainly to form premodifying adjectives; *the anti-war campaign*), as in *anti-missile*, *anti-war*.

ˌCONTRA- 'opposite', 'contrasting', combines with nouns, verbs, and denominal adjectives: *contradistinction*, *contraindicate*, *contrafactual*; with stress on the prefix, *ˈcontraflow*, noun, used of traffic.

ˌCOUNTER- 'against', 'in opposition to', combines with verbs, abstract nouns, and denominal adjectives: *counter-espionage*, *counter-clockwise*; but often with main stress on the prefix: *ˈcounteract* (also *counterˈact*); *ˈcounter-revolution*, *ˈcountersink* (verb).

ˌPRO- (/prəʊ/) [i] 'for', 'on the side of', combines freely with denominal adjectives and nouns (mainly to form premodifying adjectives), *eg*: *pro-communist*, *pro-American*, *pro-student*.
[ii] 'on behalf of', 'deputizing for', combines fairly freely with nouns, *eg*: *pro-consul*, *pro-provost*.

Note [a] *Anti-* (antonym, *pro-*) suggests simply an attitude of opposition, while *counter-* suggests action in opposition to or in response to a previous action. A *counterattack* can take place only if there has already been an *attack*.
[b] In *ˈantibody* (exceptional in having initial stress), *cf* German *Antikörper*, *-body* does not have the ordinary sense of human or animate body, but rather the more technical sense of 'object' as in *foreign bodies*.
[c] Where (as in the many adopted words like *provide*) *pro-* is not analysed as a prefix, it is usually unstressed, /prə/.

Locative prefixes

I.26 These, like spatial prepositions (*cf* 9.14*ff*), may extend their meaning metaphorically to abstract spheres.

ˈFORE- (*cf* also App I.27) 'front part of', 'front', combines fairly freely with nouns such as *ˈforearm*, *ˈforeshore*, *ˈforeground*; *ˈforeleg*, *ˈforename*.

ˌINTER- 'between', 'among', combines freely with denominal adjectives, verbs, and nouns; *eg*: *international*, *interlinear*, *inter-continental*, *intertwine* (v), *intermarry*, *interweave*. With nouns, the product is chiefly used in premodification: (the) *inter-war* (years), (an) *inter-school* (event), but *cf* also (with initial stress) *ˈinterplay* (n).

ˌSUB- (*cf* also App I.24) 'under', combines fairly freely with adjectives, verbs, and nouns; *eg*: *subnormal*; *sublet*, *subdivide*, *subconˈtract*, *subsection* (ˌ· ˈ· · or ˈ· ˌ· ·), *ˈsubˌway*.

ˈSUPER- (*cf* also App I.24) 'above' combines rather infrequently with nouns *eg*: *ˈsuperstructure*, *ˈsuperscript*.

ˌTRANS- 'across', 'from one place to another', combines freely with denominal adjectives and with verbs. *Eg*: *transatlantic*, *trans-Siberian*; *transplant*, *transship*; with initial stress where it was already present in adopted nouns: *ˈtransport*.

[a] In limited use we have *ˈin-* and *ˈout-* as in *inhouse* (adverb), *outhouse* and *outstation* (nouns).
[b] In nominalization of verbs along with their accompanying particles, the locative particles are frequently prefixed and stressed: *ˈoverflow*, *ˈover,seer*, *ˈoutlook*, *ˈoutput*, *ˈoutset*, *ˈunderpass*, *ˈinput*, *ˈthroughput*.
[c] On the same prefixes already present in adopted words (*intermittent*, *translate*, etc), *cf* App I.24 Note [a].
[d] *Cf* also *ˌextra-* 'outside' and *ˌintra-* 'within' which combine with adjectives in rather formal and technical use: *extra-territorial*, *intra-uterine*; these prefixes are sometimes pronounced with second syllable /ɑː/. The former is more productive: *extramural*, *extraterrestrial*, *extrasolar*, *extralinguistic*. The meaning is 'outside/inside the *N* from which the adjective is derived'.

Prefixes of time and order

I.27 ˌEX- 'former', combines freely with (chiefly) human nouns, *eg*: *ex-president*, *ex-serviceman*, *ex-husband*. *Cf* the more general use of *ex-* in borrowed words with totally unstressed *ex-* (*expect*) and with voicing before a vowel (*examine* /gz/).

ˌFORE- 'before', combines fairly freely with verbs and nouns, *eg*: *foretell*, *forewarn*, *foreshadow*; *foreknowledge* (ˈ·ˌ·· for some speakers), *ˈforeplay*, *ˈforetaste*.

ˌPOST- (/pəʊst/) 'after', combines freely with nouns (mainly as premodifiers) and denominal adjectives; *eg*: *post-war*, *post-election*; *post-classical*. *Cf* borrowed words: *postpone*, etc. Attributively there is often a stress switch (as with *pre-*, below): *ˈpost,war* (euphoria).

ˌPRE- (/priː/) 'before', 'in advance', combines freely with nouns (mainly as premodifiers) and denominal adjectives, *eg*: *pre-war*, *pre-school* (children), *pre-19th century*, *pre-marital*. More rarely, it combines with verbs, such as *pre-heat*, *pre-cook*. The more learned competing prefix *ante-* 'before' is found almost entirely in borrowed and neo-classical words (*antediluvian*, *antenatal*, etc). *Cf* unstressed /prɪ/ in borrowed words: *prevent*, etc. When *pre*-items are attributive, there is often a stress switch, as in *ˈpre-ˌwar* (prices) (*cf* Note [a]).

ˌRE- (/riː/) 'again', 'back', combines freely with verbs and deverbal nouns such as *rebuild*, *reclaim*, *re-use*, *recycle*, *re-evaluate*; *re-analysis*. Occasionally, it combines with an adjective to yield a verb: *renew* (*cf* Note [b] below).

Note [a] Besides *pre-* there is, as we have seen, a more formal and rarer prefix *ante-* as in *antenatal*; even in technical use, its rarity is doubtless encouraged by the danger of confusion (in speech) with *anti-*.
[b] Several of these prefixes were already part of words in their adopted forms: *eg*: *prevent*, *postpone*, *expect*, *reliere*, etc; usually /ɪ/, but /e/ in *represent* (*cf* App I.24 Note [a]). In speech, the clearer enunciation of the productive prefixes (through secondary stress) usually makes them distinct, but in writing, ambiguity is possible between *recover* (/rɪ/) *my cushion* ['get it back again'] and *re(-)cover* (/riː/) *my cushion* ['put a new cover on it']. In writing, a hyphen is usefully introduced after the productive prefix to make the distinction clear.

Neo-classical items

Number prefixes

I.28 Items that are originally Greek or Latin are widely used as the first constituent in a range of expressions dealing with numerical values. It is arguable that at least some should be treated as combining forms, *ie* as the first constituent in the class of compounds dealt with in App I.66; *cf* the native analogues: *single-sex* (*schools*), *double-barrelled*, *three-sided*. But since some arbitrariness is involved in any case, we opt for treatment as prefixes, not least because unlike constituents entering into compounds – they are a regularly recurring and relatively closed set, with semantic affinities between them. The following combine fairly freely, especially in specialized terminology, with nouns and denominal adjectives:

BI-, DI- 'two', as in *ˈbi,plane*, *ˈbicycle*, *ˈbiped*, *ˌbiˈlateral*, *ˌbiˈfocal*, *ˌbiˈlingual*; *ˌdiˈchotomy*, *ˈdiode*, *diˈoxide*, *ˈdigraph*, *diˈvalent*.

POLY-, MULTI- 'many', as in *ˈpolyglot*, *ˈpolygon*, *poˈlygamy*, *ˌpolyˈandry*, *poˈlysemy*, *ˌpolyˈtechnic*; *multi-* items are used chiefly in premodification: *ˌmulti-ˈstorey* (*building*), *ˈmulti,form*, *ˌmulti-ˈlateral*, *ˌmultiˈracial*, *ˌmulti-ˈpurpose*.

SEMI-, DEMI- (less productive, HEMI-: chiefly scientific), 'half' as in *ˈsemi,circle*, *ˈsemi,vowel*, *ˈsemi,quaver* (music), *ˌsemi-deˈtached*, *ˌsemi-ˈconscious*, *ˌsemi-autoˈmatic*; *ˈdemi,god*, *ˈdemi,john*, *ˌdemiˈsemiquaver*, *ˈdemi,tasse*; *ˈhemi,sphere*, *ˌhemiˈalgia*, *ˌhemiˈmorphic*.

TRI- 'three', as in *ˈtripod*, *ˈtricycle*, *ˈtrima,ran*, *ˌtriˈmester*, *ˌtriˈpartite*, *ˌtriˈnomial*.

UNI-, MONO- 'one', as in *ˈunisex*, *ˈunivalve*, *ˌuniˈlateral*, *ˌunidiˈrectional*; *ˈmonorail*, *ˈmonoplane*, *moˈnogamy*, *ˈmonolith*, *ˈmonologue*, *ˌmonosyˈlabic*.

Note [a] *Mono-* is contracted in items like *ˌmoˈnoxide*; note also the insertion of *n* in *ˌbiˈnaural*. *Bi-* with units of time (*ˌbiˈmonthly*, *ˌbiˈweekly*) can be used both to mean 'every two (units)' or 'twice each (unit)'. A somewhat arbitrary distinction exists between *ˌbiˈennial* 'every two years' and *ˌbiˈannual* 'twice each year', but this is ill-established and many people recognize no such distinction. Not surprisingly, alternative expressions are often used: 'two-yearly conferences' *vs* 'twice-yearly conferences'.
[b] The *-(t)et* ending in *quartet* has a native analogue, *-some*, as in *ˈtwo,some*, *ˈfour-,some*, 'a party of two, four'; *cf* also adjectival and adverbial *-fold*, as in *three-fold* ['three times'] etc.
[c] Higher numbers than three are less frequently involved: *ˌquadriˈlateral*, *ˈpent,angle*, *ˌsexˈagonal*, *ˌseptuageˈnarian*, *ˌoeˈtagonal*, etc. Note also sets like *ˌduˈet*, (*ˈtrio*), *ˌquarˈtet*, *ˌquinˈtet*, *ˌsexˈtet* etc. *Du(o)-* occurs also in *ˌduˈopoly*, *ˈduo,tone*, etc.

Miscellaneous neo-classical prefixes

I.29 As was noted in App I.28, it is possible to regard such items as combining-forms (*cf* App I.66), effecting compounds; compare *self* in *self-denial*, *deputy* in *deputy-director*, *under* in *under-secretary*, etc.

ˌAUTO- 'self', combines freely with nouns and adjectives; *eg*: *autosuggestion*, *autobiography*, *automation*, *ˈautocrat*.

ˌEXTRA- 'exceptionally', combines freely if informally with adjectives; sometimes written as a separate word: 'She was *extra affectionate* that day.'

ˌNEO- 'new', 'revived', combines with nouns and adjectives, especially with reference to political, artistic, etc movements: *neo-classicism*, *neo-Gothic*, *neo-Nazi*.

ˌPALEO- (also -ÆO-) 'old', chiefly in learned words like *paleography*, *paleolithic*.

ˌPAN- 'all', 'world-wide', combines especially with nouns and premodifying denominal adjectives with reference to world-wide or continent-wide activities; *eg*: *pan-African*, *pan-Anglican*, *pan-American*.

ˌPROTO- 'first', 'original', combines with nouns and adjectives such as *Proto-Germanic*, *ˈproto,type*.

ˈTELE- 'distant', combines chiefly with classical bases to form nouns: *ˈtelescope*, *ˈtelegram*, *ˈtelephone*; new items are largely concerned with electronic communication: *ˌteleˈvision* (or ˈ··, ··), *ˌtelecommuniˈcations*; *cf* Blends, App I.76.

ˌVICE- 'deputy', combines freely with nouns, as in *vice-chairman*, *vice-admiral*, *vice-president*; *cf* also *ˈviceroy*.

Conversion prefixes

I.30 The following prefixes, with limited productivity in chiefly literary use, differ from those in other sections in having little discrete semantic value, their chief function being to effect a conversion (*cf* App I.43*ff*) of the base from one word class to another. In this respect they resemble suffixes, and, as the examples show, sometimes accompany suffixes in their conversion role. They are unstressed.

A- (/ə/) combines chiefly with verbs to yield predicative adjectives (*cf* 5.11); *asleep*, *astride*, *awash*, *atremble*, *aglow*, *aloud*. The meaning is similar to that of the progressive; *cf* 'Her cheeks were aglow' ~ 'Her cheeks were glowing'.

BE- [i] functions along with *-ed* (*cf* App I.38) to turn noun bases into adjectives with somewhat more intensified force ('wearing or surrounded by') than is suggested by *-ed* alone: *bewigged*, *bespectacled*, *befogged*, *bedewed*;
[ii] intensifies the force of verbs: *bedazzle*, *bestir*;
[iii] combines with nouns to yield transitive verbs: *bewitch*, *bedevil*, *befriend*. Most such *be-* items have a pejorative or facetious tone.

EN-, EM- before /p/, /b/, combines chiefly with nouns to yield verbs ('to put into', 'to provide with'): *enmesh*, *empower*, *endanger*, *enflame*, *entrain*; *embitter*.

Note In several *be-* words, change of meaning has made relations with the base obscure: *eg*: *belabour*, *beguile*, *benighted*; moreover, compared with *beleaguer* ['besiege'], the base *leaguer* ['encamp'] is a rarely used word.

Suffixation

General

I.31 As with prefixes, we shall concentrate on those suffixes that are in commonest productive use, but where our treatment of prefixes was on a generally *semantic* basis, our treatment of suffixes is on a generally *grammatical* basis. This is because, while prefixes primarily effect a semantic modification of the base (but *cf* App I.30), suffixes have by contrast only a small semantic role, their primary function being to change the grammatical function (for example the word class) of the base; but *cf* Note below.

Thus, although suffixes are by no means uniquely associated with a

particular word class, it is convenient to group them according to the word class that results when they are added to a base. We therefore speak of NOUN SUFFIXES, VERB SUFFIXES, etc. But, in addition, since particular suffixes are frequently associated with attachment to bases of particular word classes, it is also convenient to speak of them as DENOMINAL SUFFIXES, DE-ADJECTIVAL SUFFIXES, etc. For example, *-ness* is a 'de-adjectival noun suffix' in that it forms nouns from adjectives such as *kind* or *gracious*. It is useful to extend this concept further and to speak of the derived words themselves as DENOMINAL, DEVERBAL, etc: *graciousness* is a 'de-adjectival' formation.

The complications that we noted with prefixes, especially in the mixture of native and foreign, productive and nonproductive, are paralleled with suffixes, but in some ways they are more serious. It is true that, while we cannot semantically link the *pre-* of unitary adoptions like *prefer* with the productive *pre-* in *pre-heat*, the grammatical function of (for example, *-((a)t)ion* is recognizable as a noun ending whether or not English possesses a separate base (*nation*, *duration*, *ovation*, *portion*). It is true also that, in contrast with the variability of stress in prefixation, a suffix is more often an unstressed addition to a base. But unlike prefixation, suffixation with originally foreign items is often accompanied by stress shifts and sound changes determined by the foreign language concerned. Thus even where the spelling of the base remains constant, the stress differences in sets like the following involve sharply different vowel sounds; for example, in BrE, the *graph* element in the following is pronounced /ɑː/, /ə/, and /æ/ respectively (*cf* App I.19):

ˈphotograph ~ phoˈtography ~ photoˈgraphic

Spelling as well as sound is affected in many sets; *eg*:

invade ~ invasion; persuade ~ persuasion, etc
permit ~ permission; admit ~ admission, etc
ˈdrama ~ draˈmatic, etc
able ~ aˈbility, etc
inˈfer ~ ˈinference ~ infeˈrential, etc

A further problem is that while productive prefixes can generally combine with bases of any origin, some of the originally foreign suffixes require originally foreign bases, and there has traditionally been some inhibition about forming 'hybrids'. This has resulted in pairs of (for example) nouns and denominal adjectives that are formally distinct:

mind ~ mental (*mindal)
nose ~ nasal (*nosal)
mouth ~ oral (*mouthal)

Note If suffixes had no more than a grammatical role, they would be like grammatical inflexions and have no place in word-formation. This indeed is how some linguists treat the adverb suffix *-ly*, and the line is not always clear. With *-ing*, it should be noted that, as well as appearing in lexicalized derivatives, it is also used in entirely predictable nominalizations; *cf* 17.51*ff*. Nouns in *-ing* are the 'verbal nouns' of 17.52*ff* (contrast 'deverbal' nouns):

He merely flouted the petty regulations.
~ His mere *flouting* of the petty regulations . . .

The situation is similar with agential *-er*, since for every verb (with a few exceptions such as copulas like *be*, *have*, *become*), a syntactic frame exists in which an *-er* form is predictable:

He merely flouted the petty regulations.

~ He was a mere *flouter* of petty regulations.

We have treated *-er* as a noun suffix because lexicalization is necessary before an *-er* formation (*cf* App I.34) can be used outside such a frame (**He is a flouter*). Although we have 'They *watch/see/look at* television a good deal', it is *view* that has become the base for the lexicalized *viewer* as in '*Viewers* will have noticed . . .'. Note that although *bird-watcher* is thoroughly institutionalized, we do not say '(*) *Watchers* may have noticed robins nesting in . . .'

It is significant that the fully and solely *grammatical* endings (like those for number, tense, comparison) always follow and cannot precede the *derivational* suffixes with which word-formation is concerned. This mirrors the way in which derivational affixes are part of the internal relations of a lexico-semantic unit, whereas inflections are concerned *with the relations* between this unit and the rest of the sentence or other grammatical construction. Exceptions ('two *spoonsful*', 'two *consuls-general*) attest to the general truth of this by their infrequency, by our tendency to move such 'infixed' inflexions ('two *spoonfuls*', 'two *consul-generals*', but **passer-bys*), and by the normal deletion of plural *-s* in the first element of compounds ('*a trouser-leg*', '*trouser-seam*'); but *cf* 17.108. Note also (*home*)*ward journey*, App I.41.

Noun suffixes

Denominal nouns: Abstract

I.32 Noun bases become largely noncount abstract, or aggregate nouns of status or activity, by means of the following suffixes:

-AGE (/ɪdʒ/) (*cf* App I.35) 'measure of', 'collection of', as in *baggage, frontage, mileage*.

-DOM, as in *officialdom*; this suffix, again not very productive, tends to convey pejorative overtones (though not perhaps in *stardom* and not in the old-established *kingdom*, which – in contrast to *kingship* – is concrete and countable).

-ERY, -RY (especially after /l/ and /t/):
[i] 'the condition or behaviour associated with', as in *drudgery, slavery, devilry* (also *deviltry*); often used in ironic nonce-formation: *nitwittery, take-over-biddery, day-trippery*, etc. There is some use of adjective bases: *bravery*;
[ii] 'location of', as in *nursery, rookery, refinery, bakery, nunnery*; these are used as concrete count aggregate nouns, and verb bases can be involved; there are occasional nonce-formations: *eatery* 'canteen';
[iii] noncount concrete aggregate nouns are rather freely formed, such as *machinery, rocketry, gadgetry*.

-FUL (/fʊl/, contrast App I.38), 'the amount contained in', as in *spoonful, glassful*, etc; such freely formed nouns approach concreteness in meaning and are count; *cf* App I.31.

-HOOD, as in *boyhood, brotherhood, widowhood*; only mildly productive, though items like *sentencehood* can achieve limited currency; the base is occasionally an adjective, as in *falsehood*, which is both count and noncount.

-ING (*cf* also App I.35): [i] noncount concrete aggregates are fairly freely formed, such as *tubing, panelling, matting, carpeting*, all with reference to the material of which the base is made;
[ii] 'activity connected with', as in *cricketing, farming, blackberrying*. Such nouns, abstract and noncount, are fairly freely made (*cf* 15.13*f*, 17.53*f*).

-ISM 'doctrine of', 'practice of', as in *Calvinism, idealism, impressionism, fanaticism, absenteeism, racism*. The items concerning religion, politics, philosophy, and art usually have a corresponding item in *-ist* to denote adherents or practitioners: *cf* App I.37.

-'OCRACY 'government by', as in *de'mocracy, aris'tocracy, meri'tocracy*; they can be count and have corresponding personal nouns, *'democrat*, etc. They might be seen as combining-form compounds; *cf* App I.66.

-SHIP, as in *friendship, membership, dictatorship, professorship*; most items with this limitedly productive suffix can also be count and some have an adjective base (as in *hardship*); *lecturership* is less common than the irregular *lectureship*.

Note [a] With *-ery* [ii], compare the ultimate cognates *-teria* (largely in commercial coinages, such as *cafeteria, washeteria*), *-(at)orium* (as in *auditorium*, but also commercially used as in *lubritorium*), and *-(t)ory* (as in *dormitory*).
[b] The suffix *-er* can also effect abstract nouns in the sense of 'instance, process of V': 'The two firms are arranging a *merger*.'

Denominal nouns: Concrete

I.33 In contrast with those in App I.32, the following noun suffixes combine with noun bases to yield concrete and individualizing items over a rather wide semantic range. Only *-er* is freely productive. Note that some items (rarely for suffixes) become the stressed syllable in the derived word: *-eer, -ette* invariably.

-'EER 'skilled in', 'engaged in', as in *pamphleteer, profiteer, racketeer*; often pejorative (especially where this is suggested by the base), but not in *mountaineer, auctioneer, engineer*.

-ER (contrast App I.34), 'having as dominant characteristic', 'denizen of', as in *teenager, north-wester* (of wind), *three-wheeler, villager, Londoner*; in tone, this resembles the 'familiarity markers' of App I.77. In *cooker, roaster, boiler* ['cooking apple', 'boiling fowl' etc], the base seems to be a verb; but *cf*: *-ing* [ii] in App I.32.

-ESS as in *waitress, actress, lioness, manageress, stewardess, hostess* (the last four sometimes have stress on the suffix); adds feminine marking to animate nouns; sometimes the vowel of the preceding unstressed agential suffix is elided: *cf*: *wait* (at table) ~ *waiter, waitress*; *cf* also Note [a], and 5.105.

-'ETTE [i] 'compact', fairly productive, as in *kitchenette, dinerette*;
[ii] 'imitation', as in *flannelette, leatherette*; formerly common in commercial coinages;
[iii] a feminine marker, as in *suffragette, usherette*; *cf* Note [a].

-LET 'small', 'unimportant', as in *booklet, leaflet, piglet, starlet*.

-LING 'minor', 'offspring of', as in *princeling, duckling*; other bases beside nouns are involved, as in *hireling, underling*. Where the referent is human, the formation is somewhat contemptuous.

-STER 'involved in', as in *trickster, gangster, gamester*; usually pejorative, but not in *roadster* (style of vehicle).

Note [a] Changing attitudes to women and to sex discrimination have much reduced the use of *-ess, -ette*, and compounds in *woman-, girl-*. Surviving usage would refer to the designation of an

activity (*hostess*, *stewardess*) rather than to the sex of the person performing it; thus the same woman might say 'I am an actress' and 'I am a bad actor'. Since there are roles that must be filled by women, *actress* is tolerated where *authoress* and *poetess* have no such justification and are now in consequence rarely used. For other but related social reasons, *Jewess* and *negress* are little used. Note that in 'The *master/mistress* of the house' different roles are involved; teachers referred to as *form-master*, *form-mistress* ⟨chiefly BrE⟩ are however in the same role. The use of *master* for role irrespective of sex is to be found in:

She is giving *master* classes (**mistress*-) in piano.
She is now a *master* in the art of dodging work
She has now *mastered* the art of etching.
She now has *mastery* of the whole matter.

[b] Formations like *policeman*, *chairperson*, are treated as compounds; *cf* App I.13, I.61.
[c] With *-let*, *-ling*, *cf* familiarity markers, App I.77.

Deverbal nouns

I.34 The following suffixes combine with verb bases to produce concrete count nouns, largely of personal reference; *-er* is particularly productive.

-ANT, a chiefly formal agential, as in *inhabitant*, *contestant*, *informant*; it often corresponds to verbs in *-ate*: *participate* ~ *participant*, *lubricate* ~ *lubricant*. As the last example shows, reference may be nonpersonal.

-'EE 'one who is object of the verb', as in *appoin'tee*, *pa'yee*; in some cases, as with *-ant*, it may replace the verb ending *-ate*: *nomi'nee*. There are examples without verb base or 'object' meaning: *absen'tee*, *refu'gee*. Stressing is exceptional in *em'ployee*.

-ER, -OR (contrast App I.33), forms agential nouns (*cf* 17.51*ff* on nominalization), as in *singer* ['one who sings (especially) professionally'], *writer*, *driver*, *employer*, etc; used informally also with phrasal verbs (*washer-up*, *chucker-out*) and with object-verb compounds and some comparable compounds (*window-cleaner*, *high-flier*). Agentials may also be nonpersonal: *silencer*, *computer*, *thriller*. With neo-classical bases, the suffix is often spelled *-or* (*accelerator*, *incubator*; *supervisor*, *survivor*; *actor*); so too in cases where there is no free base (*author*, *doctor*, etc).

I.35 The following suffixes combine with verb bases to produce largely abstract nouns, nominalizations of the action expressed by the base:

-AGE (/ɪdʒ/) (*cf* App I.32), 'action of', 'instance of', abstract and usually noncount, as in *breakage*, *coverage*, *drainage*, *leverage*, *shrinkage*, *wastage*.

-AL 'the action or result of', chiefly count, as in *refusal*, *revival*, *dismissal*, *upheaval*.

-'ATION [i] 'the process or state of', normally used as noncount, as in *explo'ration*, *star'vation*, *ratifi'cation*, *victimi'zation*;
[ii] 'the product of', 'the institution produced by', aggregate count nouns, as in *foun'dation*, *organi'zation*. This suffix freely combines with verb bases in *-ize*, *-ify*, *-ate*, with stress shift where necessary (*cf*: *'justify*, *'educate*). Pronunciation and stress suggest that analogous endings already present in adopted nouns (often paired with adopted verbs: *de'cide* ~ *de'cision*, etc) are analysed as related even though they are not productive.

-ING (contrast App I.32 and the verbal noun, 17.52*ff*), concrete count nouns referring to what results from the action of the base, as in *building*, *opening*, *filling* (in tooth); some are obligatory plurals: *earnings*, *savings*, *shavings*. Occasionally the formations are noncount: *stuffing*, *clothing*. The abstract count items *christening*, *wedding* refer rather to the occasion of the base verb's activity.

-MENT (/mənt/) 'the result of', as in *arrangement* (count), *amazement*, *puzzlement*, *embodiment*; in some cases the formation is concrete (*eg*: *equipment*, noncount), and *management* can be both abstract noncount and concrete aggregate count.

Note The glosses cannot capture the aspectual essence of the nominalizations in *-ation*, *-ment*, etc in contrast to those in the *-ing* verbal noun. Note the gradience presented in 17.54. The word-formations described in this section are relatively remote from the conduct of the action itself, and even at their 'most verbal' refer rather to the action as a whole event, including its completion. Compare:

His *exploring* of the mountain is taking a long time.
His *exploration* of the mountain took/will take three weeks.

De-adjectival nouns

I.36 There are two very common suffixes by means of which abstract (and normally noncount) nouns are formed from adjective bases:

-ITY, especially associated with adjectives of neo-classical or French origin, with stress shift wherever necessary, to place the stress on the last syllable before the suffix as in *e'lastic* ~ *ela'sticity*, *'rapid* ~ *ra'pidity*; further examples: *'sanity*, *'falsity*, *di'versity*, *ba'nality*. The vowel of the stressed syllable is often changed from long to short: *eg*: *ver'bose* /əʊ/ ~ *ver'bosity* /ɒ/. The suffix is freely productive, especially with adjectives in *-able* (*respecta'bility*), *-al* (*actu'ality*) and *-ar* (*regu'larity*). But there are examples in which the affix was already present when the word was adopted: *eg*: *eternity*, *humility*; these lack a direct adjective base in English (*cf* also App I.39 Note [a]).

-NESS, fairly freely added to any type of adjective, as in *meanness*, *happiness*, *usefulness*, *kindness*, *selfishness*, *unexpectedness*, *stoutheartedness*, *accurateness*, *falseness*. Items (including phrases) in common premodifying or predicative use can equally take the suffix: *up-to-dateness*.

Note [a] Both suffixes occur also in 'frozen' items in which no base is identifiable (*levity*, *business*, /'bɪznɪs/).
[b] These two suffixes resemble *in-* and *un-* both in their predominant association with foreign and native bases respectively, and in the tendency for *-ity* and *in-* to be especially associated with greater lexicalization, *-ness* and *un-* with direct reference to the adjective bases in ad hoc formations. Compare *pompousness* and *pomposity*: it is even possible to imagine an occasion when the ad hoc *unflexibleness* would be used rather than the institutionalized *inflexibility*. *Musicality* will tend to refer to technical properties in a piece of *music* (the base tending to be nongradable); *musicalness* to the degree to which the gradable quality *musical* obtains. Formations in *-ness* also exist beside other de-adjectival formations: *normalness* ~ *nor'mality* ~ *normalcy* ⟨esp AmE⟩; *(un)justness* ~ *(in)justice*; *accurateness* ~ *accuracy*; *ineptness* ~ *ineptitude*; *infiniteness* ~ *infinitude* ~ *infinity*. The need for a *-ness* formation is clearer where the lexicalized item has developed a meaning relatively remote from the ordinary meaning of the adjective base; *eg*: *sensible* ~ *sensibility* ~ *sensibleness*. In any event, the *-ness* items are less lexicalized and can be conveniently used to refer directly to the adjective:

There is nothing particularly odd about him; he's perfectly normal, and in fact it's his very *normalness* that makes him seem boring.

Noun/adjective suffixes

I.37 A number of suffixes yield items that can be used both as nouns and as (normally nongradable) adjectives. The formations basically relate to human beings, chiefly as members of a group, and may be both denominal and de-adjectival. On nationality names, *cf* also 5.56*f*.

-ˈESE (AmE usually -ˌESE) *cf* 5.88. [i] 'member of' (nationality or race), as in *Chiˈnese, Portuˈguese, Japaˈnese*;
[ii] '(in) the language of, the style of', as in *Chiˈnese, Cantoˈnese, Johnsoˈnese, journaˈlese*; both nouns and adjectives, except those relating to style (such as *officiaˈlese*) which are nouns only and are pejorative.

-(I)AN [i] 'adherent to', as in *Darˈwinian, reˈpublican*;
[ii] 'relating to', as in *Shakeˈspearian, Elizaˈbethan, ˈChomskyan, (sub)urban* (adjective only);
[iii] 'citizen of', as in *Paˈrisian, Indoˈnesian, Chiˈcagoan, Glasˈwegian* (of Glasgow);
[iv] '(in) the language of', *Indoˈnesian, ˈRussian* (where the base ends in *-a*). The stress falls on the last syllable before the suffix. Most items can be used both as nouns and as adjectives, not gradable in [iv], variably in other instances: *The place is (awfully) urban*; *She is an (*awfully) urban guerilla*.

-IST 'skilled in', 'practising', as in *violinist, stylist, rac(ial)ist, masochist, Calvinist, socialist, loyalist*. Items relating to adherence as distinct from skill are normally paired with abstract nouns in *-ism* (*cf* App I.32) and may be adjectives or nouns, though adjectival endings, *-ic(al)*, may be added; *cf* App I.39. A final vowel in the base is often omitted: *cello ~ cellist*. Skill items may have verb bases, as with *typist*, and are nouns only.

-ITE [i] 'adherent to', 'member of (set)' as in *Benthamite, shamanite, Chomskyite, socialite*; these are primarily nouns but may be adjectives (*He is a Luddite*; *His views are rather Luddite*). The bases are chiefly personal names of those who have led movements;
[ii] 'denizen of', as in *Brooklynite, Hampsteadite*; these are nouns only.
Formations of both types tend to be used disparagingly unless long-established (*Israelite*) or where a movement excites little hostility (*Benthamite*).

Note [a] Some bases can take *-ist, -ian*, and *-ite*, equally. The first would suggest greatest commitment to the views or theory concerned: 'He is an out-and-out Darwinist'. It is used of ideas rather than of their proponents. The second would be more neutral and would lend itself in consequence to use more readily as a gradable adjective ('Isn't that approach rather Darwinian?'), but can also refer to the work of Darwin himself (as *Darwinist, Darwinite* cannot). The third tends to be disparaging and would be used chiefly by those who are not themselves adherents: 'He is a Darwinite', rather than 'Are you a Darwinite?' or 'I am a Darwinite'; a faction is implied.
[b] With *-ian* should be compared the more restricted use of *-ˈarian* to form personal nouns and adjectives as in *authoriˈtarian, vegeˈtarian, octogeˈnarian*.

Adjective suffixes

Denominal suffixes

I.38 A wide range of suffixes exists having the function of forming adjectives, especially from nouns. We begin with those that retain a native flavour:

-ED (*cf* participial *-ed*, 3.2, 17.29), 'having', forms largely nongradable adjectives from nouns and especially from noun phrases: *wooded, pointed, walled*; *simple-minded, blue-eyed, blonde-haired, fuller-flavoured, odd-shaped, giant-sized*. These formations are to be distinguished from compounds like *much-travelled, self-styled* (*cf* App I.68*f*), where the second part is a verb. In some cases (*eg*: *three-legged*), the suffix is syllabic /ɪd/ under phonological conditions where inflexional *-ed* would not be; several formations are gradable: *aged, crooked, ragged*.

-FUL (usually /fʊl/; contrast App I.32), 'full of', 'providing', combines with chiefly abstract nouns to form gradable adjectives, as in *useful, delightful, pitiful, successful, helpful*; sometimes the base is a verb: *forgetful*.

-ISH [i] freely used with largely concrete nouns, 'somewhat like', as in *childish, monkeyish, foolish, roguish, snobbish*; with adjective bases, the meaning is 'somewhat', as in *coldish, brownish*; with people's ages, 'approximately', as in *sixtyish*; *cf* also 'She'll arrive about tenish';
[ii] with names of races, peoples, and languages, *-ish* forms nongradable adjectives and (with respect to languages) nouns: *Swedish, Cornish, Turkish*; *cf -(i)an* [iii], [iv], App I.37.

-LESS 'without', combines with both abstract and concrete nouns, formations with the latter being usually nongradable: *careless, restless, colourless, harmless*; *childless, homeless*. The suffix is often used as the antonym of *-ful* (*useful ~ useless, careful ~ careless*) but separate lexicalization makes some pairs nonantonymic (*pitiful ~ pitiless*, etc).

-LIKE 'like', freely used with largely concrete nouns, as in *childlike, statesmanlike, monkeylike*; such formations might be regarded as compounds, and the relation between base and suffix is very direct: *x-like* means 'like (an) *x*'.

-LY (*cf* App I.41) [i] with largely concrete nouns, 'having the qualities of', as in *(wo)manly, soldierly, motherly, brotherly, friendly, cowardly, deathly*; there is also some use of adjective bases: *deadly*. With *comely*, no relation to a base is semantically recognized;
[ii] with nouns that are units of time, 'every', as *daily, weekly*, etc.

-Y 'somewhat like', 'characterized by', freely used with largely concrete nouns to form gradable adjectives, often of colloquial tone, as in *sandy, meaty, creamy, hairy, wealthy, filthy*; *comfy* (*cf* App I.77); the bases may also be verbs as in *gushy, runny (nose)*. In *sandy hair* we have the 'somewhat like' sense; in *sandy beach* the 'characterized by' sense.

Note [a] Among other denominal adjective suffixes, we may mention *-some* 'constituting', as in *burdensome, frolicsome, bothersome*; *-worthy* 'fit for', as in *praiseworthy, prizeworthy, seaworthy*.
[b] Where *-like* and *-ish* occur with the same base, the latter is relatively pejorative and more remote from literal comparison. In *manly, manlike, mannish*, the first refers to physical or heroic qualities (in a male), the second is a simile, usually applied to nonhumans, the third refers to unwelcome masculine attributes (usually in a woman).

I.39 The denominal adjective suffixes in our second group are of foreign origin and although some of them are among the commonest suffixes in use, they retain something of their foreign origin in relative formality and in being largely used with bases that have also been adopted. Correspondences both with bases and with further derivations often reflect patterns of Latin

morphology. All the suffixes have the meaning roughly paraphrasable as 'having the properties of' or more generally 'having a relation to (the base)'; the adjectives formed are usually gradable.

-AL, also -IAL (especially after bases in *-or*), -ICAL (especially replacing the final *-y* of bases), as in *acci'dental*, *dia'lectal*; *edi'torial*, *profes'sorial*; *psycho'logical*, *philo'sophical*. It will be seen that stress is affected, usually coming on the last syllable before the suffix (*cf* App II.3*ff*); *'cultural*, *'cynical*, *'musical* are among the exceptions.

-'ESQUE, apart from its use in words of which it already formed a part when adopted (*burlesque*, *arabesque*), now chiefly used with names prominently associated with artistic individuality: *romanesque*, *Kafkaesque*, *Daliesque*.

-IC (*cf* Note [c] below), with the same stress rule as for *-al*; *eg*: *a'tomic*, *he'roic*, *oce'anic*, *spe'cific*; with some bases in *-em*, the suffix is *-atic* (*proble'matic*, *phone'matic* beside *pho'nemic*). The suffix is also used for nongradable ethnic adjectives and for the names of the corresponding languages: *Celtic*, *'Arabic* (contrast *A'rabian*; *cf* 5.57 Note [d]).

-OUS (also -IOUS, especially when replacing *-ion*, *-ity* in bases so ending), as in *de'sirous*, *'virtuous*, *'grievous*, *am'bitious*, *vi'vacious*, the stress usually placed on the last syllable before the suffix. Several formations are slightly irregular; *eg*: *courteous*, *erroneous* (*cf* 'courtesy', 'error').

Note [a] The noun suffix *-ity* (*cf* App I.36) can be attached to *-al*, *-ic*, and *-ous*, but its addition entails certain changes. The suffix *-al* receives the stressed pronunciation /'æl/ in place of /əl/ (*'neutral* ~ *neu'trality*); *-ic* changes its pronunciation from /ɪk/ to /'ɪs/ (*e'lectric* ~ *elec'tricity*); *-ous* changes its spelling to *-os-*, and receives the stressed pronunciation /'ɒs/ instead of /əs/ (*'curious* ~ *curi'osity*).

[b] Nouns in *-ite* (*cf* App I.37) do not accept adjective suffixes (except *-ish*), but those in *-ist* accept *-ic* and *-ical*; indeed with an *-ist* item as a nongradable adjective, we have an interesting series in rare cases:

He is an atheist/egotist.
His views are (solidly) atheist/egotist.
His views are (rather) atheistic/egotistic.
His views are (slightly) atheistical/egotistical.

A diminishing degree of the *-ism* is implied; *-istic*, *istical* also tend to be disparaging: *cf*: *casuistical*.

[c] In some adjectives, *-ic* alternates with *-ical*, with a difference of meaning:

a *classic* performance ['great', 'memorable']	~	*classical* languages ['Latin and Greek']
a *comic* masterpiece ['of comedy']	~	his *comical* behaviour ['funny']
an *economic* miracle ['in the economy']	~	the car is *economical* to run ['money-saving']
an *electric* light ['powered by electricity']	~	an *electrical* fault ['of electricity']
a *historic* building ['with a history']	~	*historical* research ['pertaining to history']
his *'politic* behaviour ['tactful'] ⟨unusual⟩	~	*po'litical* parties ['concerned with politics']

[d] There are several less common neo-classical affixes, among which *-ary*, *-ate*, and *-ory* are particularly notable: *revolutionary*, *affectionate*, *obligatory*. Adjectives in *-ory* alternate (with or without stress shift) with nouns in *-tion*, *o'bligatory* ~ *obli'gation*, *satis'factory* ~ *satis'faction*. Both *-ary* and *-ory* are reduced in BrE to /ərɪ/ or /rɪ/; in AmE they are often given a secondary stress, and are distinguished in pronunciation as /ˌeri/ and /ˌori/ or /ˌəori/.

Deverbal suffixes

I.40 Two common suffixes are used to form adjectives (largely gradable) from verbs and they are in polar contrast in respect of verbal voice: *-ive* is fundamentally related to the active, 'of the kind that can V'; *-able* is fundamentally related to the passive, 'of the kind that can be V-ed'. Thus 'The idea attracts me' ~ 'The idea is attractive'; 'The text cannot be translated' ~ 'The text is untranslatable'; *supportive* 'can support', *supportable* 'can be supported'.

-ABLE fairly freely combines with transitive verbs to produce gradable adjectives, 'of the kind that is subject to being V-ed', as in *debatable*, *washable*, *drinkable*, *manageable*. In many adopted words the suffix was already present, sometimes in the variant forms *-ible*, *-uble*, which are not productive in English, but where the passive relation can still be found: *inevitable* 'cannot be avoided', *visible* 'can be seen', *soluble* 'can be dissolved'. As with passive verb phrases, the agent can sometimes be expressed with a *by*-phrase (though chiefly a general agent rather than a specific one: 'The comet was observable by anyone owning a powerful telescope' but ?'. . . observable by John'). With *visible* the instrument is indicated with *to* ('The naked eye cannot see this' ~ 'This is not visible to the naked eye'). Passive adjectives in *-able* are chiefly used in negative clauses or with negation by affixation: 'His story is not refutable' ~ '. . . is irrefutable' ~ '. . . is unrefutable'; instead of 'His story is refutable', we would normally use 'His story can be refuted'.

In addition, however, *-able* yields no passive meaning but rather has a sense paraphrasable as 'apt to V': *changeable* (weather), *perishable*, *suitable*, etc. Bases may also be nouns, sometimes implying a modalized passive sense (*marriageable*, *saleable*), sometimes not (*peaceable*, *fashionable*, *seasonable*, etc).

-IVE, as in *attractive*, *effective*, *possessive*. In many cases the relation between the verb and adjective reflects Romance morphology: *produce* ~ *productive*, *explode* ~ *explosive*, *expand* ~ *expansive*, *presume* ~ *presumptive*, etc. In others, on the pattern of *decorate* ~ *decorative*, a longer affix, *-ative*, is used: *talkative*, *affirmative*, *causative*. Occasionally the base is a noun (*secret* ~ *secretive*) and sometimes the relation to the base is obscured (as in *sensitive*, *emotive*). The stress pattern of the base is not usually affected by the addition of *-ive*.

Note [a] Prefixal negation with adjectives in both *-ive* and *-able* treats the whole of what follows as the base: thus *untranslatable* has the structure *un*(*translatable*) and does not mean 'possible not to translate' but 'not possible to translate'. Contrast privative *un-* (*cf* App I.22): 'I found the equipment readily *unpackable* [to be understood as 'easy to unpack'] but certainly not *unbreakable*' [easily breakable].

[b] Prepositional and phrasal verbs usually form *-able* adjectives with omission of the particle: 'We can rely *on* John' ~ 'John is *reliable*'; *cf*: *unspeakable*. This has the effect of making *washable* capable of two interpretations: 'This shirt is *washable*' [= 'can (safely) be washed']; 'This ink is *washable*' [may = 'can be washed out/away', though in fact it may indicate a guarantee that water can be applied without the writing being washed out]. But *cf* also phrasal items ⟨informal⟩: *unget-at-able*, *unliveable with*. With *agreeable*, there are three uses: 'companionable', 'willing to agree', 'can be agreed *to*'; in this last sense it is predicative only:

I have *agreeable* friends.
Eventually, my friends were *agreeable*.

We must find a formulation that is *agreeable* to everyone.

[c] Sometimes a passive *-able* adjective can be predicated only of an inanimate, where no such restriction obtains in the corresponding transitive clause:

The error / *The man } is *forgivable/pardonable*.

We can forgive/pardon { the error. / the man.

[d] Although the modality of most passive *-able* adjectives is usually potential ('can be'), with some it is intentional or obligational ('will be', 'must be'). Compare:

The deposit is *refundable*. ['will']
The money is *payable* on delivery. ['must']
The money is *payable* by cheque. ['can']

[e] Given that *-able* adjectives may be active (*changeable*) as well as passive, some items can be either:

The weather is *variable*. [must be *active*]
The date is *variable*. [may be *passive*]

[f] Some adjectives in *-able* have front-shifted stress:

'admirable (*ad'mire*), *'preferable*

[g] Since, like *-ly* (*cf* App I.41), *-able* can be fairly freely used in nonce-formation, an indication of spelling convention may be given. Bases in final *-y* have this replaced by *i* (as in *deniable*), but final *-e* is usually retained, especially where a misleading pronunciation might otherwise be suggested (thus *enticeable*, **enticable*; *expungeable*, **expungable*).

Adverb suffixes

I.41 -LY (*cf* 7.46*f*, App I.38) can be very generally added to an adjective in a grammatical environment requiring an adverb (gradable if the adjective concerned is gradable), so that it could almost be regarded as inflexional; *cf* App I.31 Note. The meaning can often be paraphrased as 'in a . . . manner', as in *calm* ~ *calmly*, or 'to a . . . degree', as in 'She looks *extremely* well', or 'in a . . . respect', as in '*Personally*, he would be suitable'. The range of meanings is related to the range of adverbial functions: *cf* 8.2*ff*, 8.24*ff*. With adjectives in *-ic*, *-al-* is usually added before the suffix (*eg*: *scenic* ~ *scenically*); *cf* App I.39 on the relation of adjectival *-ic* and *-ical*. No *-al-* is inserted in *publicly*, but in any case the insertion is inaudible since there is elision: *scenically* is pronounced /ˈsiːnɪklɪ/. The restrictions on the use of *-ly* may be summarized as follows: [i] there are some adjectives with no separate adverbial form (*eg*: *fast*, *hard*); (ii) *-ly* is not added to adjectives ending in *-ly* (*cf* 7.9, App I.38); **cowardlily*, though occasionally one finds *sillily*, *friendlily*; more usually, prepositional phrases or synonyms are used (*amicably*); (iii) there is avoidance of *-ly* also with adjectives ending in /l/, as with *hostile*, and it is usual to substitute a prepositional phrase such as 'with hostility'; exceptions include *wholly*, *solely*; (iv) *-ly* is not added to some miscellaneous adjectives (*eg*: *difficult*, but *cf* Note [a]). On the other hand, especially informally, *-ly* can be used with phrases, as in 'She spoke quite *matter-of-factly* on the subject'.

-WARD(S) forms nongradable directional adverbs where the base may be a noun as in *earthward(s)*, a prepositional adverb as in *onward(s)*, or a directional adverb as in *northward(s)*. Nonce-formations like *theatre-ward(s)* or *Chicago-ward(s)* are common if jocular. The forms without *-s* are usual in printed AmE, those with *-s* are usual in BrE and are common in spoken AmE. This type of adverb lends itself to premodification in its form without *-s*: 'Homeward journeys are the happiest'.

-WISE is used to form nongradable adverbs from noun bases: [i] in relation to manner, as in *clockwise*, *crabwise*, it is limitedly productive; [ii] in relation to dimension, as in *crosswise*, *lengthwise*, it has a variant, *-ways* (*lengthways*), which is in fact more usual with the item *sideways*; [iii] in the sense 'so far as [the base] is concerned', as in *education-wise*, *moneywise*, it is more freely productive in AmE than in BrE, but many people object to these formations.

Note [a] Occasionally one hears (hardly reads) such forms as *difficultly*, sometimes as a slip of the tongue with subsequent correction, sometimes unconsciously and uncorrected; but sometimes the usage is quite deliberate, as in the following:

The doctor explained her diagnosis expertly enough but *difficultly* – I mean, the explanation was hard to understand.

The speaker's addition suggests awareness that the prepositional phrase *with difficulty* would have been inappropriate here in implying that the doctor herself found explanation difficult to formulate. *Cf* also 'The staff find themselves *difficultly* placed', meaning 'placed in a difficult situation', not 'placed with difficulty'.

[b] Since *-ly* can be used with a freedom akin to that with inflectional endings, it may be mentioned that there are some generally observed spelling conventions. Bases in *-y* have this replaced by *i* (as in *sloppily*). Bases with final *-e* usually retain it (as in *solely*: *wholly* is exceptional), except where syllabic *l* is involved; here as in *simple*, *probable* etc, *e* is dropped and only *y* added, the *l* ceasing to be syllabic (*simply*, *probably*). Thus:

/sɪmpl/ ~ /sɪmplɪ/

In the rare cases of final *-ll*, no additional *l* is added but the consonant is lengthened in pronunciation: *fully*, *shrilly*.

[c] Nongradable adverbs are also formed by adding *-style* or *-fashion* to chiefly noun bases: 'He dresses *bank-manager-style*', 'He swims *dog-fashion*'. Such formations resemble compounds based on noun-phrase structure, and where the base is itself equivocal (as in 'She eats *American-style*') they can be related to 'the style/fashion of N' or 'the Adj style/fashion'. Here might be mentioned *-fold* as in *three-fold*, *five-fold*, 'three (five) times as much'.

Verb suffixes

I.42 Only a few verb-forming suffixes occur with any great frequency in English, and only *-ize* is highly productive. All are concerned with forming transitive verbs of basically causative meaning.

ˌ-ATE (/eɪt/) combines with chiefly neo-classical noun bases, as in *orchestrate*, *hyphenate*: the suffix is especially productive in scientific English as in *chlorinate*, (*de*)*laminate*, etc.

-EN combines with adjectives as in *deafen*, *sadden*, *tauten*, *quicken*, *ripen*, *widen*, *harden*. As well as being causative, 'to make . . .', many of these can also be used intransitively, 'to become . . .': *The news saddened him* ~ *His face saddened*; this may be regarded as a conversion; *cf* App I.43*ff*.

-IFY, -FY (/(ɪ)faɪ/), combines with adjectives and nouns, as in *simplify* 'to make simple', *amplify* 'to express more fully', *codify* 'to put into code', *beautify* 'to endow with beauty'. It is most commonly found with neo-classical bases (*certify*, *identify*, etc, sometimes with a difference in stem as in *electrify*, *liquefy* ['to put into liquid form']), and formations outside this type of lexicon are often facetious or pejorative: *speechify*, *dandify*, etc.

-IZE (-ISE) combines freely with adjectives and nouns, as in *modernize* ['to make modern'], *legalize* ['to make legal'], *symbolize* ['to act as a symbol of'], *hospitalize* ['to put into hospital' (for treatment)], *publicize* ['to make well known'], *dieselize* ['to convert to diesel-engined power'], *burglarize* ⟨AmE⟩

['to subject to burglary']. Formations lend themselves readily to nominalization in *-ation*, as in *nominalization* itself. Over-use and new use of *-ize* items is often criticized on stylistic grounds. The dominant spelling is *-ize*. There is some confusion of *-ize* with the ending *-ise* in some verbs (*eg*: *advertise*).

Note Where there is a corresponding adjective, the ending *-ate* is usually unstressed /ət/, giving some contrasting pairs *ap'propriate* (verb) ~ *ap'propriate* (adjective)

Conversion

Conversion and suffixation

I.43 Conversion is the derivational process whereby an item is adapted or converted to a new word class without the addition of an affix. In this way, conversion is closely analogous to suffixation (as distinct from prefixation). For example, the verb *release* (as in *They released him*) corresponds to a noun *release* (as in *They ordered his release*), and this relationship may be seen as parallel to that between the verb *acquit* (as in *They acquitted him*) and the noun *acquittal* (as in *They ordered his acquittal*):

	VERB		DEVERBAL NOUN
SUFFIXATION:	acquit	→	acquittal
CONVERSION:	release	→	release

Conversion is unusually prominent as a word-formation process, through both the variety of conversion rules and their productivity.

Note [a] Other terms for conversion are 'functional conversion', 'functional shift', and 'zero derivation'. This last reflects the notion of a 'zero' suffix, analogous to the actual suffixes of App I.32*ff*.
[b] Conversion includes, in this treatment, cases where the base undergoes some slight phonological or orthographic change, *eg*: *shelf* ~ *shelve* (*cf* App I.56).

Direction of conversion

I.44 Certain difficulties arise in describing conversion, in that one does not have the addition of a suffix as a guide when deciding which item should be treated as the base and which as the derived form. Of course, as with other types of word-formation discussed in this Appendix, we treat conversion not as a historical process, but rather as a process now available for extending the lexical resources of the language. From this point of view, it is irrelevant whether the verb *release* preceded the noun *release* as an acquisition of English vocabulary (*cf* App I.11 Note [b]).

Nevertheless, it is convenient to attempt to state such a precedence, and often the semantic dependence of one item upon another is sufficient ground for arguing its derivational dependence. For example, the verb *net* can be paraphrased in terms of the noun as 'put into a net', but no comparable paraphrase could be constructed for the noun; that is, to define *net* in some

such terms as 'an instrument for netting' would be to limit the meaning of the noun quite arbitrarily to exclude (for example) strawberry nets, mosquito nets, and hair nets.

This criterion cannot be easily applied to *release* above, but one may note that *release* as a noun is parallel to other nouns derived from verbs in dynamic use as regards semantic restrictions; that is, one may say *His release was sudden/on Tuesday*, etc just as one may say *His discovery/promotion etc was sudden/on Tuesday*, etc. Moreover, *release* behaves as a deverbal noun in structures of 'nominalization' (*cf* 17.51*ff*): *his release by the government*; *the government's release of the prisoners*. On these grounds, we treat abstract and agential nouns (*eg*: *love*, *rebel*) as derived.

In the survey of types of conversion that follows, we resume the principle of classification that was adopted for suffixation: this means that we group words according to the class of the base and the class of the word derived. Thus *release* is to be classed as a deverbal noun in App I.47.

'Partial conversion'

I.45 Some grammars make a distinction between 'full conversion' (*ie* conversion as already discussed) and 'partial conversion', where a word of one class appears in a function which is characteristic of another word class. One may argue, for instance, that in such structures as *the wealthy* [= 'wealthy people'], *the ignorant*, *the wicked*, the adjective is 'partially converted' to noun status, in that it is syntactically in a position (head of noun phrase) characteristic of nouns rather than adjectives (*cf* 7.2*ff*). That there is not full conversion in such cases is demonstrated by the inability of *wealthy*, as it occurs in sentences like *The wealthy are always with us*, to behave inflectionally like a noun (that is, to vary in terms of number and case). One cannot say **I met a wealthy*; **Those wealthies are my friends*; etc.

Indeed, it is doubtful whether this rather restricted use of adjectives should be treated as a word-formation process at all; not only is there no inflectional evidence of the word's status as a noun, but there is inflectional evidence of its unchanged status as an adjective: *the wealthier*, *the poorest*, etc. Moreover, there does not appear to be any of the partial productivity, or the distinction between actual and potential English words, that we have seen as one of the hall-marks of a word-formation process (*cf* App I.13). Rather, we can claim that almost any adjective of a permitted class (*ie* applicable to human beings or to abstractions) might be used in such a structure, with no constraints on productivity:

$$\text{The} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{wealthy} \\ \text{kind} \\ \text{well-dressed} \\ \text{foolish} \\ \text{ill-behaved} \\ \text{etc} \end{array} \right\} \text{are always with us.}$$

The position adopted in this grammar, therefore, has been to treat such cases in purely syntactic terms, as 'adjective functioning as head of noun phrase', rather than to postulate that conversion, or the transfer of an item from one word class to another, has taken place.

I.46 The words produced by conversion are primarily nouns, adjectives, and verbs. It will be seen from the sets presented below that the most productive categories are the denominal verbs and the deverbal nouns. Only the major semantic types are noted under each heading, but one general point deserves special attention. A converted item typically does not carry with it the semantic range it had in the word class from which it was converted. This seems to be especially relevant in the case of denominal verbs which commonly relate to only one of the meanings possessed by the noun (*cf* App I.11, on *paper*).

Note In colloquial usage (firmly regarded as nonstandard in BrE, less so in AmE), recourse to conversion is especially common (*eg* 'He *upped* and left *on account of* that she laughed at him'), one of the products being de-adjectival adverbs: 'She writes *good/nice/careful/quick*' (*cf* 7.7). Some items of this kind occur in more general usage, as in official road signs, 'Drive *slow*!', and familiarly 'Come *quick*' and (especially with the comparative and superlative) 'He is reading *quicker*', 'She fought *strongest* for election'. In AmE, *sure* and *real* are widely used as intensifying adverbs: 'He's *sure* trying', 'She was *real* lucky'. *Cf* 8.100.

Conversion to noun

Deverbal

I.47 [A] 'State' [generally 'state of mind' or 'state of sensation'] (from verbs used statively to count or noncount nouns):
desire, dismay, doubt, love, smell, taste, want

[B] 'Event/activity' (from verbs used dynamically):
attempt, fall, hit, laugh, release, search, swim; shut-down, walk-out, blow-out (of a tyre)

[C] 'Object of V':
answer ['that which answers'], *bet, catch, find, hand-out*

[D] 'Subject of V':
bore ['someone who or that which bores/is boring'], *cheat, coach, show-off, stand-in*

[E] 'Instrument of V':
cover ['something with which to cover things'], *paper, wrap, wrench*

[F] 'Manner of V-*ing*':
walk ['manner of walking'], *throw, lie* (*eg*: in *the lie of the land*)

[G] 'Place of V':
divide, retreat, rise, turn, lay-by, drive-in

Note It will be noticed that the examples above include nouns formed from phrasal and prepositional verbs. The type of informal deverbal coinage represented by *teach-in* belongs to Type [B] rather than to any other, but unlike *shut-down* it cannot be derived from a phrasal verb (there is no **We taught-in last night*). The vogue for such formations produced *sit-in, love-in, swim-in*, and others. They signify an activity (that denoted by the verb) being carried on corporately (typically within an institution and with overtones of social protest).

De-adjectival

I.48 There is no very productive pattern of adjective → noun conversion (but *cf* 7.12*f*, 7.37, App I.45). Miscellaneous examples are:

I'd like two pints of *bitter*, please. [= type of beer] ⟨BrE⟩

As a football player, he's a *natural*. [= a naturally skilled player]
They're running in the *final*. [= the final race]

Also *daily* ['daily newspaper'], *weekly, monthly, annual, perennial, comic* ['comic actor'], *regulars* ['regular customers'], *roast* ['roast beef'], (*young*) *marrieds* ['young married people' ⟨informal⟩], *a wet, a red*. From these examples, it is seen that adjective → noun conversion can usually be explained in terms of a well-established adjective + noun phrase from which the noun has been ellipted. On conversions involving phrases containing adjectives, *cf* App I.52.

Conversion to verb

Denominal

I.49 [A] 'To put in/on N':
bottle ['to put into a bottle'], *carpet* (a subordinate ⟨BrE⟩), *corner, catalogue, floor, garage, position, shelve* (books: *cf* App I.56); common in nonce usages such as *rack* (the plates), *porch* (the newspaper).

[B] 'To give N, to provide with N':
butter (bread), *coat* ['to give a coat (of paint, etc) to'], *commission, grease, mask, muzzle, oil, plaster*.

[C] 'To deprive of N':
core ['remove the core from'], *gut, peel, skin, top-and-tail* ⟨BrE⟩

[D] 'To . . . with N' (more precisely, the meaning of the verb is 'to use the referent of the noun as an instrument for whatever activity is particularly associated with it'):
brake ['to stop by means of a brake'], *elbow, fiddle, hand, finger, glue, knife*

[E] 'To {be / act} as N with respect to . . .':
chaperon ['to act as chaperon to'], *father, nurse, parrot, pilot, referee*; occurs in nonce use such as 'He *Houdinied* himself out of the locked cell'.

[F] 'To {make / change} . . . into N':
cash ['to change into cash'], *cripple, group*

[G] 'To {[i] send / [ii] go} by N':
[i] *mail* ['to send by mail'], *ship, telegraph*
[ii] *bicycle* ['to go by bicycle'], *boat, canoe, motor*

Most of the verbs in this category are transitive, with the exception of Type G [ii], and a few members of Type D.

De-adjectival

I.50 [A] (transitive verbs) 'to make adj' or 'to make more adj':
calm ['to make calm'], *dirty, dry, humble, lower, soundproof*

[B] (intransitive verbs) 'to become adj'; generally adjectives in Type A can also have this function, and it may be seen as a secondary conversion (*cf* App I.54): *dry* ['to become dry'], *empty*, *narrow*, *weary* (*of*), *yellow*

Sometimes a phrasal verb is derived from an adjective by the addition of a particle: *smooth out* ['to make smooth'], *sober up* ['to become sober'], *calm down* ['to become calm'].

This category competes with *-en* suffixation (*cf* App I.42), and sometimes both derivations are available for the same adjective; *eg*: *black*(*en*), *quiet*(*en*):

He {blacked / blackened} his face with soot.

Conversion to adjective

Denominal

I.51 Membership of this category can be postulated only when the noun form occurs in predicative as well as in attributive position (*cf* 7.12*ff*) since the latter is freely available for nouns within the grammar of the noun phrase (*cf* 17.104*ff*). We may compare the discussion of adjectives and 'partial conversion' in App I.45 (*cf* also Note below and 7.14).

a *brick* garage ~ The garage is *brick*.
reproduction furniture ~ This furniture is *reproduction*. ⟨BrE⟩
Worcester porcelain ~ This porcelain is *Worcester*.

Cf also 'This dress is *cotton*, this one is *nylon*, but this one is *wool*.' Denominal adjectives are normally nongradable, but informally (and especially with reference to style) we find examples like:

His accent is very *Mayfair* (very *Harvard*).
It was a funny story but not quite *drawing-room*.

Note Although, for the reasons stated, we do not treat nouns as converted just because they are used prenominally, it should be noted that premodifying nouns are used in strictly parallel ways to denominal adjectives. Thus in the absence of denominal adjectives based on *city* or *physics* with senses parallel to *suburban* (based on *suburb*) or *medical* (based on *medicine*), we find the nouns being used. Compare:

He's taking a {*medical* course. ['course in medicine'] / *physics* course. ['course in physics']}
She dislikes {*suburban* life. ['life in a suburb'] / *city* life. ['life in a city']}

The parallelism is endorsed by the fact that, although predicative use of the denominal adjectives has been illustrated, such usage is in no case as firmly acceptable as attributive use. A further parallel can be seen in our ability to coordinate premodifying nouns and denominal adjectives:

She likes both *cotton* and *woollen* dresses.
They detest both *suburban* and *city* life.

Minor categories of conversion

I.52 There are several anomalous and miscellaneous types of conversion, chiefly used informally; among them the following are noteworthy:

[I] *Conversion to nouns*

[i] From closed-class words; there are some well-established examples:

His argument contains too many *ifs* and *buts*.
This book is a *must* for the student of aerodynamics.
It tells you about the *how* and the *why* of flight.

[ii] From affixes; very occasionally, an affix may be converted into a noun:

Patriotism, nationalism, and any other *isms* you'd like to name.

[iii] From phrases; sequences of more than one word are sometimes used as nouns, reduced to one-word status by conversion rather than by any of the normal patterns of compounding (*cf* App I.57*ff*):

Whenever I gamble, my horse is one of the *also-rans*. [*ie* one of the horses which did not win but merely 'also ran']

Cf also 'the *high-ups*', 'he is a *has-been*', 'a *been-to*' ⟨West African English⟩, 'a *free-for-all*', 'some *down-and-outs*', 'give me the *low-down*' ⟨slang⟩.

[II] *Conversion to verbs*

From closed-class and nonlexical items, chiefly informal:

They *downed* tools in protest.
She will *off* and do her own thing.
If you *uh-uh* again, I won't go on with my story.

[III] *Conversion to adjectives*

From phrases (such as that in 'The plane is up in the air'):

an *up-in-the-air* feeling ~ I feel very *up in the air*. [with reference to cheerful spirits]
an *upper-class* manner ~ His manner is very *upper-class*.

From closed-class items, we may cite examples like the following:

That's how the Fieldings next door do it, but it's not quite *us*. [= our style or standard]

Note [a] On adjectives used as adverbs, *cf* App I.46 Note, 7.6*ff*.
[b] Examples like 'There are too many *althoughs* in this paragraph', 'He has missed an *m* out of *accommodate*' might superficially suggest that *although*, *m*, and *accommodate* have been converted into nouns. Compare also the 'conversion' of proper nouns: 'There are two *Newcastles* in England'. Any item can, of course, be used nominally in this way, not by conversion but by an elliptical apposition ('the word *although*', 'letter *m*', 'towns called *Newcastle*'); *cf* 5.61, 5.64, 17.65*ff*. Contrast 'Men *are* mortal', '*Men is* plural', '*Scissors is* difficult to spell': the different status would normally be indicated in writing with italic or quotation marks: '*Suspenders is* the AmE equivalent of BrE *braces*'.

Change of secondary word class: nouns

I.53 The notion of conversion may be extended to changes of secondary word class, within the same major word category: for example, when noncount nouns are used as count nouns or vice versa (*cf* 5.4). Such transfers are only

partially productive, and yet can be explained systematically in terms of derivation. They are therefore parallel to the major conversion processes already discussed, though to the extent that they can be predicted as the regular products of grammatical processes, they might be considered as strictly lying outside the province of word-formation.

Types of conversion (or reclassification) within the noun category are:

[A] *Noncount noun → count noun*

[i] 'A unit of N':

two *coffees* ['cups of coffee']; two (huge) *cheeses*

[ii] 'A kind of N':

Some *paints* are more lasting than others.
This is a better *bread* than the one I bought last.

[iii] 'An instance of N' (with abstract nouns):

a *difficulty*; small *kindnesses*; a miserable *failure*;
home *truths*; a great *injustice*

[B] *Count noun → noncount noun*

'N viewed in terms of a measurable extent' (normally only when accompanied by expressions of amount):

An inch of *pencil*; a few square feet of *floor*

[C] *Proper noun → common noun*

[i] 'A member of the class typified by N' (*cf* 5.61*ff*):

a *Jeremiah* ['a gloomy prophet who denounces his age']
a latter-day *Plutarch* ['. . . chronicler of great men']
Edinburgh is the *Athens* of the north.

[ii] 'A product of N':

a *Rolls Royce* ['a car manufactured by Rolls Royce'], a pack of *Chesterfields* ['cigarettes with the brand name "Chesterfield"']
The museum has several *Renoirs*.

[D] *Stative noun → dynamic noun*

Nouns are characteristically stative (*cf* 2.43), but they can assume the dynamic meaning of 'temporary role or activity' as subject complement following the progressive of *be*:

He's being a { fool. / nuisance. / hero. / etc } ['He's behaving like a fool', etc]

Note The use of proper nouns as in [Ci] is to be contrasted with usages like 'An unhappy Susan was waiting for him' (*cf* 17.95) or 'There are two Susans in this office' [='persons called Susan'; *cf* App I.52 Note], though the latter type closely resembles our [Cii]. See further 5.60*ff*.

Change of secondary word class: verbs

I.54 [A] *Intransitive → transitive*

'Cause to V' (*cf* 10.22):

run the water ['cause the water to run']; *march* the prisoners; *slide* the bolt back.

Likewise: *budge, fly, slip, stop, turn, twist*

[B] *Transitive → intransitive*

[i] 'Be V-ed' (often with obligatory adverbial and with implied modality, 'can, must'), *cf* 10.21:

The clock *winds up* at the back ['is to be wound up'];
Your book *reads* well; The table *polishes* up badly;
The door *closed* behind him; You can close the door easily it just *pulls*. ['you just pull it']

Likewise: *divide, drive, sail, sell, steer, undo, unlock, wash*; from causative verbs: *dry, harden* (*cf* App I.50)

[ii] 'To V oneself':

Have you *washed* yet? ['washed yourself']

Likewise: *bath* ⟨BrE⟩, *bathe* ⟨AmE⟩, *behave, dress, make up, shave*

[iii] 'To V someone/something/etc':

We have *eaten* already. ['eaten something, had a meal']

Likewise: *cook, drink, hunt, kill, knit, sew, write*. Contrast 'Please let me explain', where the object is understood from the context.

[C] *Intransitive → copular* (*cf* 16.21*ff*)

[i] Current meaning:

He *lay* flat; We *stood* motionless.

Likewise: *float* (free); *ride* (high); *arrive* (hungry)

[ii] Resulting meaning:

He *fell* flat; The sun was *sinking* low.

Likewise: *run* (cold); *boil* (dry); *wash* (clean)

[D] *Copular → intransitive*

What must *be*, must *be*. ['exist']

[E] *Monotransitive → complex transitive* (*cf* [C] and 16.44*ff*)

[i] Current meaning:

We *catch* them young. ['. . . when they are young']

Likewise: (*can't*) *bear, buy, find, hate, like, sell*

[ii] Resulting meaning:

I *wiped* it clean. ['made it clean by wiping it']

Likewise: *knock* (. . . unconscious); *lock* (. . . fast)
Note reflexive objects: *I laughed myself silly*.

Change of secondary word class: adjectives

I.55 [A] *Nongradable → gradable* (*cf* 7.86, App I.51)

He's more *English* than the English.
Some people's behaviour is rather *incredible*.
I have a very *legal* turn of mind.

[B] *Stative → dynamic* (*cf* 7.41)

As noted in App I.54 [D] above, dynamic meaning is signalled by the progressive aspect of *be*:

He's just being *friendly*. ['acting in a friendly manner']
Your uncle is being *bigoted*, as usual.
He's being *awkward* about it.
Martha is being *desirable* this evening.

Conversion with formal modifications

I.56 In some cases, conversion is accompanied by certain nonaffixal changes affecting pronunciation or spelling or stress distribution. The most important kinds of alteration are [A] voicing of final consonants, and [B] shift of stress. Both kinds (like most phenomena of word-formation) are idiosyncratic in respect of the particular instances that occur, though they follow certain clear patterns.

[A] VOICING OF FINAL CONSONANTS

The unvoiced fricative consonants /s/, /f/, and /θ/ in some nouns are voiced to /z/, /v/, and /ð/ respectively in the corresponding verb forms:

NOUN ~	VERB	NOUN ~	VERB
house /-s/	house /-z/	thief /-f/	thieve /-v/
advice /-s/	advise /-z/	belief /-f/	believe /-v/
use /-s/	use /-z/	relief /-f/	relieve /-v/
abuse /-s/	abuse /-z/	mouth /-θ/	mouth /-ð/
grief /-f/	grieve /-v/	sheath /-θ/	sheathe /-ð/
shelf /-f/	shelve /-v/	wreath /-θ/	wreathe /-ð/
half /-f/	halve /-v/		

It should be noted that, especially in BrE, the difference between *licence* (n) and *license* (v), like that between *practice* (n) and *practise* (v), is one of spelling only: both noun and verb are pronounced with a final /s/. In AmE, both noun and verb can have the same spellings (*license*, *practice*, respectively).

A substantial change of pronunciation, including modification of the final vowel, is observed in pairs such as: *breath* /e/ ~ *breathe* /iː/; *bath*, *glass* (/æ/ in AmE, /ɑː/ in RP BrE) ~ *bathe*, *glaze* /eɪ/; *cf* also *blood* ~ *bleed*, *food* ~ *feed*.

[B] SHIFT OF STRESS (*cf* App II.6)

When verbs of two syllables are converted into nouns, the stress is sometimes shifted from the second to the first syllable. The first syllable, typically a Latin prefix, often has a reduced vowel /ə/ in the verb but a full vowel in the noun:

He was *con'victed* (/kən/) of theft, and so became a *'convict* (/kɒn/)

The following is a fairly full list of words having end-stress as verbs but initial stress as nouns in BrE (in AmE, many have initial stress as verbs also):

abstract, *accent*, *combine*, *compound*, *compress*, *concert*, *conduct*, *confine* (the noun is plural only), *conflict*, *conscript*, *consort*, *construct*, *contest*, *contrast*, *convert*, *convict*, *decrease*, *dictate*, *digest*, *discard*, *discount*, *discourse*, *escort*, *export*, *extract*, *ferment*, *import*, *impress*, *incline*, *increase*, *insult*, *misprint*, *perfume*, *permit*, *pervert*, *present*, *produce*, *progress*, *protest*, *rebel*, *record*, *refill*, *refit*, *refund*, *regress*, *reject*, *resit*, *retail*, *segment*, *survey*, *suspect*, *torment*, *transfer*, *transform*, *transplant*, *transport*, *upset*

Occasionally, a word of more than two syllables varies in this way: *over'flow* (v) ~ *'overflow* (n). *Cf* also *en'velop* (v), *'envelope* (n).

There are many examples of disyllabic noun–verb pairs which do not differ in stress; for example, *de'bate* (v) and *de'bate* (n) both have end-stress, and *'contact* (v) and *'contact* (n) both have initial stress (as is usual where the verb is derived from the noun).

Note that *dis'count* means 'to disregard', *'discount* 'to give a discount'.

Compounds

I.57 A compound is a lexical unit consisting of more than one base (*cf* App I.2) and functioning both grammatically and semantically as a single word. In principle, any number of bases may be involved, but in English, except for a relatively minor class of items (normally abbreviated; *cf* App I.73), compounds usually comprise two bases only, however internally complex each may be.

Compounding can take place within any of the word classes, but – within the present framework – we shall in effect be dealing only with the productivity of compounds resulting above all in new nouns and, to a lesser extent, adjectives. These may involve the combination of the unchanged base (as in *taxfree*); or the first element may be in its special 'combining form' (as in the noun *trouserleg* or the adjective *socioeconomic*); or the second element may have a suffix required by the compound type (as in the noun *theatre-goer* or the adjective *blue-eyed*); or both elements may have a form that is compound-specific (as in the noun *laundromat*).

Before we consider the individual compound types, we shall give some attention to two issues: first, the conditions for lexicalization (*cf* App I.9) in respect of a particular collocation of bases; second, the formal characteristics of the composition thus made into an institutionalized whole.

Note [a] Compounds which belong to word classes other than the three major classes considered in this Appendix include prepositions such as *into*, *instead of*, *by dint of* (*cf* 9.6), pronouns such as *each other*, *anybody*, *himself* (*cf* 6.46), and adverbs such as *country-style*, *headlong*, *upside down*, *inside out* (*cf* 7.46). The latter are productive in terms of recurrent use of a second element, making them resemble the products of suffixation; *cf* App I.41.
[b] Compounding is readily recursive, one compound itself becoming a constituent in a larger one; *cf* the structure of [[*motor* + *cycle*] + *factory*].

Lexicalization conditions

I.58 In contrast to affixation, in which a base is typically altered in terms of certain very broad semantic or grammatical categories by the use of an effectively closed set of items, compounding associates bases drawn from the whole lexicon in a wide range of semantic relations. Nonetheless, although both bases in a compound are in principle equally open, they are normally in a relation whereby the first is modifying the second. In short, compounding

can in general be viewed as prefixation with open-class items.

But this does not mean that a compound can be formed by placing any lexical item in front of another. Consider the following:

Look at that dog in the street.
She put the glass on the table.
I heard an owl from my study last night.

Except on a 'nonce' basis, we cannot in response speak of 'another *street dog*' or 'another *table glass*' or 'Do you work much in your *owl study*?' Rather, given the general conditions for lexicalization discussed in App I.9*ff*, the relations between items brought together in compounding must be such that it is reasonable and useful to classify the second element in terms of the first. Thus a compound *XY* will be '*such a* Y *as* may have X essentially predicated of it', whereas the same *XY* sequence as a noun phrase is more likely to be '*a certain* Y that happens to have X predicated of it' (*cf* 17.104*ff*). In terms of theme and focus (*cf* 18.9), we therefore expect to find that the second constituent in a compound is thematic, with focus on the first constituent (as salient and categorizing), whereas the converse is true of premodifier and head in a noun phrase; *cf* App I.59. This distinction is endorsed by the widespread use of initial stress in compounds: *a 'blackbird* (contrast the phrase, *a ˌgrey 'bird*).

The relations consequently involved in compounding are frequently resemblance, function, or some other salient or defining characteristic. For example, *darkroom* is a lexicalization of something we might paraphrase as 'a room for [= purpose] photographic processing'. The item *dark* is used in the lexicalization not because such rooms happen to be dark, still less because one such room happens to be dark, but because the facility to make such rooms dark is a salient characteristic. For the reasons given in App I.10, we cannot expect the meaning of *darkroom* to be implicit in the meanings of the separate items (there are many 'dark rooms' which are not 'darkrooms' – nor need darkrooms always be in darkness): it is enough to make currency plausible that, when we know what it means, its constitution seems reasonable and mnemonic. Such reasonableness is somewhat more remote with *hothouse* (where the building concerned would not otherwise be called a 'house'), less so with *signature tune* (though even this equates music with writing for identification in only a very limited context); *cf* App I.12.

It is more remote still with *hot dog* where only the 'hot' can seem reasonable and where we use this as a subcategorization not within types of dog (alsatian, poodle, . . .) but within meanings of *dog*. The semantic atypicalness of *hot dog* significantly corresponds to its prosodic atypicalness; *cf* App I.59.

Formal characteristics

I.59 We have seen that the semantic structure of compounds tends to entail a focal first constituent. In consequence we have a contrast between the prosodic pattern of a noun phrase and that of a compound, the latter having primary stress (*cf* App II.4) on the first constituent:

a ˌdark 'room	a 'dark ˌroom
a ˌhot 'house	a 'hot ˌhouse
a ˌblack 'bird	a 'black ˌbird

a ˌbaby 'girl	a 'baby-ˌsitter
ˌmotor 'transport	'motor ˌcars

As we shall see in the sections that follow, almost all compounds have this accentual pattern, whether they are nouns, adjectives, or verbs. Exceptions (*cf* especially App I.70) are on the whole equally explicable in terms of thematization. In the compounds

ˌash-'blonde ˌbottle-'green

we have the focus on *blonde* and *green* since the premodifiers merely denote degrees or shades. So too with 'combining-form' compounds like

ˌsocio-eco'nomic

or 'coordinate' compounds like

ˌSwedish-A'merican

the prosody reflects the pragmatic facts: the referent of the 'head' is an admixture with that of the 'premodifier'. Given the pattern of such formations, however, only convention determines the selection, and pairs like *Anglo-French* and *Franco-British* are not necessarily in thematic contrast. Indeed, just as *Anglo-* corresponds to *-British* because there is no **Brito-*, so we find *American* as final item merely because ?**Americo-* is ill-established.

If prosody reflects the semantic structure, so too does orthography. The semantic unity of a compound is reflected in an orthographic unity:

a black bird *but* a blackbird

Spelling conventions are however less dependable than prosody. Practice varies in many words and some compounds may even occur in three different forms, 'solid', hyphenated, and 'open'; *eg*:

a flower pot a flower-pot a flowerpot

But in general there is a progression from open to solid as a given compound becomes established, and hence widely recognized and accepted as a 'permanent' lexical item.

In AmE, hyphenation is less common than in BrE, and instead we find the items open or solid (more usually the latter) where BrE may use a hyphen:

language retarded ⟨esp AmE⟩, *language-retarded* ⟨esp BrE⟩,
psychosomatic ⟨esp AmE⟩, *psycho-somatic* ⟨esp BrE⟩.

The open option does not normally occur with combining-forms (as in *psycho-somatic, psychosomatic*), and where these are in compounds of proper names the initial capital of the second constituent inhibits solid spelling; hence even in AmE we find a hyphen in examples like *Sino-Russian, Anglo-American* (though even these may appear solid, with lower case for the second element: *Angloamerican*, and always in *Amerindian*). In both AmE and BrE, hyphens are usual for ad hoc premodifying compounds as in *a much-needed rest, his higher-than-average wages, their come-and-fight-me attitude, nineteenth-century novels* (where the sequences concerned are not of course compounds outside this premodifying position: 'his wages were higher than average', 'novels of

the nineteenth century', etc). Compare phrasal conversion, App I.52. For hyphen usage, see further App III.4*f*.

Note [a] It may be useful to conceive of 'partial' compounding (*cf* 'partial' conversion, App I.45) to account for the formal and semantic gradience between phrase and compound:

We need some furniture for the offices. [1]
We need some ˌoffice ˈfurniture. [2]
ˌOffice ˈfurniture is getting more expensive. [3]

In [2] we have an expression appropriate to phrase structure with no necessary lexicalization of '*office furniture*' but merely referring to furniture that will be used in the office(s). In [3] however, the generic statement makes the beginning of lexicalization a more plausible interpretation: it is implied that there is furniture of a kind designed specifically for office use. 'Partial' compounding may be said to have taken place, though the stress pattern and spelling still lean in the phrasal direction.

[b] With coordinate compounds (*cf* App I.70), we sometimes find an oblique stroke used instead of a hyphen in rather technical (as well as in rather informal) writing: 'an *aural/oral* approach', 'the *in/out* motion'. *Cf* our use in this book of *speaker/writer*, *hearer/reader*.

The treatment of compounds

I.60 Although not all compounds are directly 'derived' from the clause-structure functions of the items concerned, we shall adopt a mode of presentation which (where possible) links compounds to sentential or clausal paraphrases. This is appropriate enough in the treatment of word-formation in the context of a general grammatical description, and it is in keeping with our policy in this Appendix of concentrating attention on the language's productive capacity.

As an example of this approach, we may take the two compounds *glow-worm* and *punch-card*, which are superficially similar, consisting of verb + noun. Yet the relations of their constituents, and hence the 'grammatical' meanings of the two compounds, are different:

glow-worm ~ *The worm glows*, *ie* verb + subject ['Some worms glow']
but
punch-card ~ *X punches the card*, *ie* verb + object

Similarly, *daydreaming* and *sightseeing* can be analysed in terms of their sentential analogues, thus capturing fundamental differences beside the superficial similarity:

X dreams during the day, *ie* verb + adverbial
but
X sees sights, *ie* verb + object

Within each of the major categories, therefore (notably Noun Compounds and Adjective Compounds), we shall distinguish subsets on the basis of a grammatical analysis of the elements involved in a canonical example, together with an informal indication of the relationship between them in terms of a syntactic paraphrase.

Noun compounds

Type 'subject and verb'

I.61 [A] ˈSUNˌRISE: subject + deverbal noun (*cf* 'The sun rises'). This is a very productive type. For example:

bee-sting	catcall	daybreak	earthquake
frostbite	headache	heartbeat	landslide
nightfall	rainfall	sound change	toothache

[B] ˈRATTLEˌSNAKE: verb + subject (*cf* 'The snake rattles'). This type is only weakly productive. For example:

crybaby	driftwood	drip coffee	flashlight
glowworm	hangman	playboy	popcorn
stinkweed	tugboat	turntable	watchdog

[C] ˈDANCINGˌGIRL: verbal noun in *-ing* + subject (*cf* 'The girl dances'); very productive. For example:

cleaning woman	firing squad	flying machine
investigating committee	wading bird	washing machine
working party		

Sequences with converse stress pattern (ˌ*flying* ˈ*saucer*, ˌ*working* ˈ*man*) show a lesser degree of institutionalization as compounds; contrast ˈ*workman*.

Type 'verb and object'

I.62 [A] ˈBLOODˌTEST: object + deverbal noun (*cf* 'X tests blood'). This is a moderately productive type. *Self* is a common first constituent. Some compounds denote an activity (*eg*: *handshake*), some the result of an activity (*eg*: *book review*), and some could be either (*meat delivery*). For example:

birth-control	book review	crime report
dress-design	haircut	handshake
meat delivery	office management	suicide attempt
self-control	self-destruction	tax cut
word-formation		

[B] ˈFAULT-ˌFINDING: object + verbal noun in *-ing* (*cf* 'X finds fault(s)'; *cf* also App I.68, *man-eating*). This type is very productive. For example:

air-conditioning	book-keeping	book-reviewing
brainwashing	dressmaking	housekeeping
letter-writing	oath-taking	sightseeing
story-telling	town-planning	

[C] ˈTAX-ˌPAYER: object + agential noun in *-er* (*cf* 'X pays tax(es)'). This is a very productive type, and designates concrete (usually human) agents; note however *dishwasher*, *lawn-mower*, *penholder*, *record-player* (*cf* App I.34, I.63 [C]). For example:

cigar smoker	computer-designer	crime reporter
gamekeeper	hair-splitter	language teacher
matchmaker	radio-operator	songwriter
stockholder	window-cleaner	

[D] ˈPUNCHˌCARD: verb + object (*cf* 'X punches the card'). For example:

call-girl	drawbridge	pin-up girl
punchball	push-button	scarecrow
treadmill		

[E] 'CHEWING,GUM: verbal noun in *-ing* + object (*cf* 'X chews gum'); very productive. For example:

cooking apple	drinking-water	eating apple
boiling fowl ⟨BrE⟩	reading material	spending money
roasting joint	braising steak	

Note In [D] and [E], the syntactic paraphrase obscures the 'purpose' relationship (*cf* App I.58): 'The ball is *for* punching', 'The gum is *for* X to chew'.

Type 'verb and adverbial'

I.63 [A] 'SWIMMING,POOL: verbal noun in *-ing* + adverbial (consisting of a prepositional phrase; *cf* 'X swims in the pool'). This is a very productive type. Several adverbial relations are involved (but *cf* Note [b]). For example:

PLACE:	diving board	['dive from a board']
	drinking cup	['drink out of a cup']
	freezing point	['freeze at a point']
	frying pan ⟨BrE⟩	['fry in a pan']
	hiding-place	['hide in a place']
	living-room	['live in a room']
	typing paper	['type on paper']
	waiting room	['wait in a room']
	writing desk	['write at a desk']
INSTRUMENTAL:	adding machine	['add with a machine']
	baking powder	['bake with powder']
	carving knife	['carve with a knife']
	sewing machine	['sew with a machine']
	walking stick	['walk with a stick']
	washing machine	['wash with a machine']

[B] 'DAY,DREAMING: adverbial + verbal noun in *-ing* (*cf* 'X dreams during the day'). This is a moderately productive type (*cf* App I.69, *ocean-going*). For example:

PLACE:	churchgoing	['going to church']
	horse riding	['ride on a horse']
	tight-rope walking	['walk on a tight-rope']
	sun-bathing	['bathe in the sun']
TIME:	sleepwalking	['walk in one's sleep']
INSTRUMENTAL:	fly-fishing	['fish with a fly']
	handwriting	['write by hand']
OTHER:	shadow-boxing	['box against a shadow']

[C] 'BABY,SITTER: adverbial + agential noun in *-er* (*cf* 'X sits with the baby'). This is a moderately productive type (*cf* App I.62[C]). For example:

PLACE:	backswimmer	['swim on the back']
	city-dweller	['dwell in the city']
	factory-worker	['work in a factory']
	gate-crasher	['crashes through a gate', *ie* 'uninvited guest']
	housebreaker	['break into a house']
	playgoer	['go to a play']
	tight-rope walker	['walk on a tight rope']
	sun-bather	['bathe in the sun']
	theatre-goer	['go to the theatre']
TIME:	daydreamer	['dream during the day']

[D] 'HOME,WORK: adverbial + deverbal noun (*cf* 'X works at home'). This is a moderately productive type. For example:

PLACE:	boat-ride	['ride in a boat']
	field-work	['work in the field']
	table talk	['talk at the table']
	moon walk	['walk on the moon']
TIME:	daydream	['dream during the day']
	night flight	['fly during the night']
INSTRUMENTAL:	gunfight	['fight with a gun']
OTHER:	smallpox vaccination	['vaccinate against smallpox']
	tax-exemption	['exempt from tax']
	telephone call	['message by the telephone']

So also *self-determination*.

[E] 'SEARCH,LIGHT: verb + adverbial (*cf* 'X searches with a light'). Several adverbial relations are involved (but *cf* Note [b]). For example:

PLACE:	dance hall	['dance in a hall']
	springboard	['spring from a board']
	workbench	['work at a bench']
INSTRUMENTAL:	grindstone	['grind with a stone']
	plaything	['play with a thing']

Some further examples: *cookbook* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *fry-pan* ⟨AmE⟩, *restroom* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *swimsuit* ⟨esp AmE⟩, *washroom* ⟨esp AmE⟩. The labels indicate the popularity of this pattern in AmE; in BrE there is a corresponding preference for the pattern in App I.63 [A].

Note [a] Somewhat like items in [B] is *dry-cleaning* (but note the phrasal accentuation in BrE, ˌ*dry-*'*cleaning*), 'cleaning (the clothes) when/though dry'. *Cf*: *sleep-walking* 'walking when/though asleep'. For the adjective form ˌ*dry-*'*cleaned*, *cf* App I.69 [D].
[b] In [A] and [E], the 'purpose' relationship is lost in this presentation; compare 'The pool is *for X* to swim in', 'The light is *for X* to search with'.

'Verbless' compounds: Type 'subject and object'

I.64 [A] 'WIND,MILL: $\text{noun}_1 + \text{noun}_2$ (*cf* 'noun_1 [powers/operates] noun_2', 'the wind powers the mill'). For example:

air-brake	air rifle	cable car	coal fire (ˌ·ˈ· in BrE)
motorcycle	steam engine	gas cooker (ˌ·ˈ·· in BrE)	
hydrogen bomb (ˌ···ˈ· in AmE)			

[B] ˈTOY ˌFACTORY: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [produces/yields] $noun_1$', 'the factory produces toys'). For example:

honey-bee	oil well	power plant	silkworm
tear gas	textile mill	water pistol	gold mine

[C] ˈBLOODˌSTAIN: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_1$ [produces/yields] $noun_2$', 'the blood produces stains'). For example:

bloodstain	cane sugar	eiderdown	food poisoning	gaslight
hay fever	sawdust	tortoise-shell	whalebone	

[D] ˈDOORˌKNOB: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_1$ [has] $noun_2$', 'the door has a knob'). This is a very productive type. $Noun_1$ is inanimate. With animate nouns, we use a noncompound genitive phrase: compare *the ˈtable ˌleg* with *the ˌboy's ˈleg*. For example:

arrowhead	bedpost	bottleneck ⟨metaphorical⟩
cartwheel	piano keys	shirt-sleeves
table leg	telephone receiver	television screen
window-pane		

[E] SEˈCURITY ˌOFFICER: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [controls/works in connection with] $noun_1$', *cf* 'The officer looks after security'). For example:

chairperson	deckhand	fireman	gasman
motorman ⟨AmE⟩	police-officer	postman	

This is a very productive type, with the second constituent always a human agent. Indeed, so commonly has *man* been thus used (in its unmarked gender role, 'human adult') that in some compounds it has a reduced vowel, /mən/, as in *postman, draughtsman, fireman, workman, businessman*. This item and its gender-free alternative *person* might in fact be viewed as a suffix (*cf* I.3). Contrast the unreduced form of *man* in *ˈhandyˌman* (*cf* App I.65), perhaps because in this case the compound does not refer to a regular occupational role.

Type 'subject and complement'

I.65 [A] ˈGIRLˌFRIEND: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [is] $noun_1$', 'the friend is a girl'). $Noun_1$ often refers to a subset of the class denoted by $noun_2$. For example:

blinker light	drummer boy	feeder bus	killer shark
manservant	oak tree	pine tree	tape-measure

Numerous sequences of this appositional type occur with phrasal prosody: *ˌwoman ˈwriter, ˌtoy ˈfactory* ['the factory is a toy'; contrast App I.64 [B] above]. *Cf* App I.59 and the question of 'partial' compounds.

[B] ˈDARKˌROOM: adjective + noun (*cf* 'noun [is] adjective', 'the room is dark'). For example:

blackboard	blackbird	blueprint	double-talk
dry dock (or ˌ·ˈ·)	greyhound	grey matter (= brain)	handyman
highchair	hothouse	longboat	madman

The initial constituents in *knitwear* and *mincemeat* were originally *-ed* participle adjectives.

Along with this type should be considered many sequences with phrasal prosody:

ˌfancy ˈdress	ˌhot ˈdog (ˈ·ˌ· in AmE)	ˌill ˈomen	ˌill reˈpute
ˌill ˈwind	ˌrisen ˈcosts		

Despite the apparent parallelism of:

He suffers from { bad health. / poor health. / ill health.

compounding is nonetheless suggested in the last by the fact that *ill* is not normally a premodifier in noun-phrase structures (*cf* 7.38), nor are past participles of intransitive verbs (*risen*). Semantically, moreover, some of these examples have a high degree of lexicalization; on *hot dog*, *cf* App I.58.

[C] ˈFROGˌMAN: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [is like] $noun_1$', 'the man is like a frog'). This is a very productive type. For example:

butter-bean	catfish	dragonfly	goldfish
kettledrum	sandwich man	tissue paper	

[D] ˈSNOWˌFLAKE: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [is of, consists of] $noun_1$', 'a flake of snow'). For example:

breadcrumb	chocolate bar	dustheap	raindrop
sand dune	soap flake		

[E] ˈASHˌTRAY: $noun_1$ + $noun_2$ (*cf* '$noun_2$ [is for] $noun_1$', 'the tray is for ash'). This is a highly productive type expressing purpose; *cf* Note [a]. For example:

birdcage	breakfast time	coffee time	cough drops
cowshed	doghouse	facecloth	fire engine
fish-pond	flowerbed	flypaper	safety belt
tearoom			

Note [a] The difference between *teacup* (~'cup for tea') [E] and *cup of tea* (~'cup containing tea') is paralleled in *flowerpot, matchbox, winebottle, soup plate*, etc. With the purpose factor in [E], and underlying some examples in [B], compare the Notes to App I. 62*f*.
[b] Like type [A] are the (largely colloquial) compounds of hypocoristic plus generic, as in *pussy-cat, puppy-dog*; *cf* App I.77.

Combining-form compounds

I.66 ˌPSYCHO-AˈNALYSIS: $noun_1$ (in its 'combining form') + $noun_2$ (= '$noun_2$ [in respect of] $noun_1$'), 'the analysis of the psyche'. This is a highly productive type and various relations can be involved. Typically, the first constituent is neo-classical (*cf* App I.6, I.28) and does not occur as a separate noun base in English, but the model has been widely imitated with common bases, with a vowel (usually *-o-* but often *-i-*) as a link between the two parts: *ˌcryptˈography, inˈsecticide*, etc. *Cf* also the use of combining-forms in adjective compounds, App I.70. Stress patterns are various and the primary stress often falls on the link vowel of the combining-form. Among common second constituents are *-meter, -graph(y), -gram, -logy*, and the formations are especially in the fields of science and learning. In consequence, many are in international currency, adopted or adapted in numerous languages. Some miscellaneous examples:

ˈagri,culture	baˈrometer	,bioˈphysics
,biotechˈnology	ˈEuro,dollar	ˈhorti,culture
,microelecˈtronics	,porˈnography	,psyˈchology
ˈstereo-,vision	,turbo-ˈjet	

Cf also *ˈdrama,turgy*, *ˈmetal,lurgy*. On *pseudo-*, *cf* App I.23. With *ˈstereo,typed* and *,stereoˈphonic*, we have adjectives that are more commonly used than the corresponding nouns.

Compounding may involve more than one combining-form; *eg nephrolithotomy*, *neurolymphomatosis*: *cf* App I.57 Note [b].

On the model of neo-classical combining-forms, we have compounds to whose initial base a connecting *-o-* is added; *eg*: *,speeˈdometer*.

There is vacillation between *ˈkilometre* and *kiˈlometre*.

'Bahuvrihi' compounds

I.67 All of the compounds to be listed in this section are formed on one or other of the patterns already described. Most of them are like *ˈdark,room*, others are like, for example, *ˈfrog,man* or *ˈsnow,flake* (*cf* App I.65 [B], [C], and [D] respectively). The term 'bahuvrihi' refers not to their pattern of formation but to the relation they have with their referents. Neither constituent of such a compound refers to the entity named but, with a semantic movement that may be thought of as 'lateral', the whole refers to a separate entity (usually a person) that is claimed to be characterized by the compound, in its literal or figurative meaning: Thus a *ˈhigh,brow* means 'an intellectual', on the basis of the facetious claim that people of intellectual interest and cultivated tastes are likely to have a lofty expanse of forehead. Similarly *ˈheart,throb* (*cf* App I.61 [A] for its non-bahuvrihi use) is someone who causes the heart to throb in a person of the opposite sex; *ie* 'a sexually attractive person'. Many bahuvrihi compounds are (like *highbrow*) somewhat disparaging in tone and are used chiefly in informal style. Some further examples:

birdbrain	blockhead	bluebell	butterfingers
egghead	fathead	featherbrain	featherweight
hardback	hardtop	heavyweight	hunchback
loudmouth	paleface	paperback	pot-belly
redcap	scarecrow	shellback	

Cf also *hardhat* 'construction worker' ⟨esp AmE⟩.

Note The term *bahuvrihi* is from Sanskrit. Compounds of this type have also been called 'exocentric'.

Adjective compounds

Type 'verb and object'

I.68 ˈMAN-,EATING: object + *-ing* participle (*cf* 'X eats men'; also App I.62, *faultfinding*). This is a very productive type. *Self* is a frequent first constituent but takes secondary stress. For example:

breathtaking	fact-finding	heart-breaking	life-giving
record-breaking	,self-deˈfeating	,self-ˈjustifying	

In *mouth-watering*, there is a causative relation: 'X makes the mouth water'.

In informal AmE we have such a compound used to premodify an adjective in *finger-licking good*.

Type 'verb and adverbial'

I.69 [A] ˈOCEAN-,GOING: adverbial + *-ing* participle (*cf* 'X goes across oceans'. *Cf* App I.63, *daydreaming*). For example:

fist-fighting law-abiding lip-sucking

[B] ˈHEART,FELT: adverbial + *-ed* participle (*cf* 'X feels it in the heart'). The type is particularly productive when the noun has agential meaning and consists of *self*: *self-styled*, *self-appointed*, *self-employed*, *self-taught* (but a *self-addressed* envelope is one that is addressed *to* oneself). Examples are:

airborne	cost-led	custom-built	handmade
home-brewed	home-made	language-retarded	suntanned
typewritten	thunder-struck	town-bred	weather-beaten

Cf also *speech(-) and language(-)impaired*.

[C] ,HARD-ˈWORKING: adverb/adjective + *-ing* participle (*cf* 'X works hard', 'X looks good'). For example:

easy-going	everlasting	far-reaching	good-looking
high-sounding	sweet-smelling	well-meaning	

[D] ,QUICK-ˈFROZEN: adjective/adverb + *-ed* participle (*cf* 'X was frozen quickly'). For example:

dry-cleaned (*cf* App I.63)		far-fetched	fresh-baked
long-awaited	ˈnew-,laid	true-born	well-meant
ˈwide,spread			

Note [a] The idiomatic isolation of some compounds of this type is evident in the replacement of lexical items in sentential analogues, *eg*: NEW-laid (eggs) ~ *X has laid* (the eggs) RECENTLY. But like this, several have closer analogues in phrases: 'The eggs are *newly laid* and the loaves *freshly baked*.' The absence of *-ly* is normal in such compounds.

[b] The superficially similar adjective compounds *well-meant*, *well-spoken of* on the one hand and *well-behaved*, *well-spoken* on the other differ in respect of voice: *a well-meant remark* ~ *a remark that is meant well*, *She is well spoken of* ~ *People speak well of her* [passive], but *a well-behaved person* ~ *a person that behaves well*, *a well-spoken boy* ~ *a boy who speaks well* [active].

[c] It will be noted that compounds in [C] and [D] have phrasal stressing (though in [C] belongs also *ˈoff-putting*); *cf* App I.59.

[d] Fashionable ad hoc formations of type [B] include *ˈexport-,led* (*recovery*), (*a*) *weather-related* (*air-crash*).

Type 'verbless'

I.70 [A] ˈFOOT,SORE: noun-based adverbial of respect (*cf* 8.6) + adjective (*cf* 'sore in respect to (one's) feet'). This is a very productive type, especially with certain adjectives that have prepositional complementation (*cf* 16.68*ff*), such as *free* (*from*), *proof* (*against*), *weary* (*of*). For example:

airsick	air-tight	camera-ready	carsick
dustproof	duty-free	fireproof	foolproof
homesick	oven-ready	tax-free	war-weary
watertight			

With some there is phrasal stress, as in *ˌclass-ˈconscious*, *ˌcost-efˈfective*, *ˌlabour-inˈtensive* and (involving a combining form), *ˌstereoˈphonic*.

[B] ˌGRASS-ˈGREEN: noun (denoting basis of comparison) + adjective (*cf* 'as green as grass'). This is a fairly productive type and the items formed can usually be used also as nouns: stress is variable, but phrasal stress is usual. Some examples:

age-old	ash-blonde	bottle-green	brick red
jet black	midnight blue	rock-hard	sea-green

[C] ˌGREY-ˈGREEN: adjective + adjective in a coordinating relation but where the phrasal stress pattern implies that the first is relatively thematic, the second focal and hence semantically dominant. *Cf* 'The colour is basically green but with a greyish tint'. Informally, this can be reflected in the first adjective having the suffix *-y* or *-ish* (*cf* App I.38), as in *reddish-brown*, *greeny-grey*. Coordinate compounds are, however, widely used with reference to international relations where (despite the phrasal stress) parity is theoretically fundamental: 'A *Japanese-American* trade pact is about to be signed'. In many coordinate compounds the first element assumes a combining form (*cf* App I.66). Some examples of various types:

Anglo-Polish	auditory-visual	aural-oral
deaf-mute	Franco-German	phonetic-syntactic
psychosomatic	Russo-Chinese	sensori-neural
Sino-Italian	socio-economic	Swedish-Brazilian
tragi-comic		

Note In compounds as premodifiers of *dictionary*, the first adjective indicates the language which is the basis or starting-point, hence again justifying the phrasal stressing in terms of thematization. For example, an *ˌEnglish-ˈFrench Dictionary* is one that translates English words into French, a *ˌFrench-ˈEnglish* one translates from French to English; but an *ˌAnglo-ˈFrench* dictionary would be one produced by a joint Anglo-French enterprise. Coordinating compounds are sometimes referred to by the Sanskrit term 'dvandva'.

Miscellaneous modes

Back-formation

I.71 Pairs of words like *advise* ~ *advisor*, *burgle* ~ *burglar*, *inspect* ~ *inspector*, *edit* ~ *editor*, suggest an identical relationship between the members which from the synchronic viewpoint of the ordinary language user is perfectly correct. But as a matter of historical fact, while *advisor* and *inspector* were indeed formed from *advise* and *inspect* by suffixation, we have derived *burgle* and *edit* from *burglar* and *editor*, analysing these on the analogy of other agential nouns. *Cf* App I.12, I.34. This is the process known as 'back-formation', and in addition to well-established items, whether from long ago (like *laze* from *lazy*) or more recently (like *televize* from *television*), new formations of this kind continue to be made. The process is particularly

fruitful in creating denominal verbs. It should be noted that new formations tend to be used with some hesitation, especially in respect of the full range of verbal inflexions. For example, the textual instance cited in App I.12 was significantly in the base form, *self-destruct*, but although clearly used as a verb, there is less obvious clash with the well-established verb *destroy* than when (as occasionally) ordinary verb inflections are added: ?'The organization *self-destructed* in 1985'. So also we had the agential *baby-sitter* before the verb *baby-sit*, and the base form ('Will you *baby-sit* for me?') before inflected forms ('He *baby-sat* for them'). Other back-formations continue to display their lack of established acceptability: *(*They*) *sight-saw*, *(*She*) *housekept*.

A particularly productive type of back-formation relates to the noun compounds in *-ing* and *-er* (*cf* App I.62 [B], [C], App I.63 [B], [C]). For example, the verbs:

bottle-feed	brain-wash	chain-smoke	day-dream	dry-clean
fire-watch	house-hunt	house-keep	lip-read	sight-see
sleep-walk	spring-clean	window-shop		

Less commonly, we have nouns from adjectives by back-formation: *eg* *polymer* from *polymeric*.

Note [a] Compare also, from (*a*) *sing-song*, the nonce-formation *He sing-songed* (not **He sang-song*). It is likely that such regularizations of inflection result from that process of linguistic analogy known as *metanalysis* (word segmentation counter to etymology), of which back-formation may be seen as a special case. For example, from 'The fridge needs regular defreezing' we find 'They defreezed (*beside* defroze) the fridge that evening'. But regularization in such verbs can also indicate a synchronic failure to analyse in terms of their historical components; thus one occasionally hears 'This cannot be gainsayed' or 'I was overrided', and the like, a phenomenon of relexicalization which is again akin to back-formation.

[b] In connection with back-formation we might consider grammatically regular correspondences such as the following (*cf* 7.33*f*):

He *completely* refused . . .	~	His *complete* refusal
She *totally* rejected . . .	~	Her *total* rejection
They *utterly* despaired . . .	~	Their *utter* despair
I *fully* endorse . . .	~	My *full* endorsement
She *absolutely* disapproved . . .	~	Her *absolute* disapproval
They *entirely* agree . . .	~	Their *entire* agreement

It will be observed that the adjectives in the second column emerge only on nominalization of the clauses in the first column. The fact that they are to this extent derived from the corresponding adverbs is confirmed by their meaning, which directly reflects that of the respective subjunct.

Reduplicatives

I.72 Some compounds have two or more constituents which are either identical or only slightly different, *eg*: *goody-goody* (chiefly noun, 'a self-consciously virtuous person', informal). The difference between the two constituents may be in the initial consonants, as in *walkie-talkie*, or in the medial vowels, *eg*: *criss-cross*. Most of the reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar, and many belong to the sphere of child-parent talk, *eg*: *din-din* ['dinner']. The most common uses of reduplicatives (sometimes called 'jingles') are:

[i] to imitate sounds, *eg*: *rat-a-tat* [knocking on door], *tick-tock* [of clock], *ha ha* [of laughter], *bow-wow* [of dog];

[ii] to suggest alternating movements, *eg*: *seesaw*, *flip-flop*, *ping-pong*;

[iii] to disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation, etc: *higgledy-piggledy*, *hocus-pocus*, *wishy-washy*, *dilly-dally*, *shilly-shally*;
[iv] to intensify, *eg*: *teeny-weeny*, *tip-top*.

Note With [iii] above, we may compare informal AmE sequences of the type *Boston-Schmoston*, which tend to be used with ironic or playful dismissiveness of the first constituent.

Abbreviations

I.73 It is of the essence in lexicalization that, however lengthy and complex the formation of an item, it comes to be regarded as a single unit in relation to the meaning so lexicalized. In consequence, it is not the constituents of the word in combination that are seen as conveying this meaning but its individuality as a whole. Provided any part of the item is itself sufficiently individual to call up the whole, it can be shortened to a form which is linguistically convenient but need not reflect the morphological make-up of the full form. For example, *bus* (from *omnibus*), *ad* (from *advertisement*), *bit* (in information processing, from *binary digit*); *TV* (from *television*). We distinguish three highly productive ways in which abbreviation is involved in English word-formation, giving us CLIPPINGS, ACRONYMS, and BLENDS.

Note Compare the related use of abbreviation as a graphic device; App III.27*ff*.

Clippings

I.74 Especially in informal usage, we tend to show our familiarity with polysyllabic words (especially nouns), by shortening them, often to a single syllable. The 'clipping' seems often to start from the graphic form, since the surviving fragment is usually initial and need not constitute either prosodically or semantically the salient part of the original (but *cf* Note [a]):

ad 'advert ⟨BrE⟩	*from*	ad'vertisement (*also* adver'tisement *in AmE*)
'cosec /'kəʊsek/	*from*	cosecant /kəʊ'siːkənt/ (*in trigonometry*)
'demo	*from*	demon'stration (*but in BrE chiefly in the political sense*; *in AmE 'a demonstration car'*)
e'xam	*from*	(academic) exami'nation (*but not the verb* e'xamine *or* exami'nation *in the medical sense*)
French fries ⟨*esp AmE*⟩	*from*	French fried potatoes ⟨*esp AmE*⟩
gents	*from*	gentlemen's (*especially* = gentlemen's lavatory)
lab	*from*	la'boratory ⟨*BrE*⟩, 'labora,tory ⟨*AmE*⟩
lib	*from*	libe'ration (*but only in lexicalizations like* Women's Liberation Movement)
'memo	*from*	memo'randum
mike	*from*	'micro,phone
'photo	*from*	'photograph (*but not* pho'tography)
prof	*from*	pro'fessor
pseud ⟨BrE⟩	*from*	,pseudo- (,intel'lectual)
pub	*from*	,public 'house

'stereo	*from*	,stereo'phonic
telly ⟨BrE⟩	*from*	,tele'vision

Less commonly, the clipped form has resulted from discarding the initial part of a word, as in:

phone	*from*	'telephone (*but not, eg*, microphone)
plane	*from*	'airplane, 'aeroplane

Occasionally, syllables have been discarded at both ends of a word, as in:

flu	*from*	,influ'enza
fridge ⟨esp BrE⟩	*from*	re'frigerator

Stress patterns have been indicated to show that the shortened form is not necessarily (indeed not usually) the stressed part of the word concerned and that it is given an independent stress pattern of its own (as in *'demo*). Even stronger evidence for the acquisition by clipped forms of a quite specific lexicalization is indicated by the parenthesized restrictions we have shown where relevant. Thus *lib* is not an abbreviated form of the word *liberation* as such, still less of the verb *liberate*, but only of very specific uses of *liberation*. The examination of a patient by a doctor is not an *exam*. A further sign of the lexical independence of clipped forms is that *mono* (with a meaning that was unlexicalized, of course, when sound-recording could be nothing else) came into existence by analogy with *stereo*, and in specific contrast to it; hence its immediate use in a parallel abbreviated form, and the fuller form *monophonic* remains relatively rare.

Note [a] The informality that is typical of clipped forms is frequently reflected in informal spellings; for example, *showbiz*, *fridge*, *mike*, *telly* ⟨BrE⟩, *cos* or *'cos* ⟨both BrE: 'because'⟩, *praps* ['perhaps']. In these cases, the spelling has been adapted to suit the pronunciation of the original fragment. The converse holds for '(the student music) *soc*' ⟨esp BrE⟩, where the original spelling of *soc(iety)* remains but the final /s/ of the fragment comes to be pronounced /k/. In '(meat and two) *veg*' ⟨BrE⟩ neither spelling nor pronunciation (/vedʒ/) has been changed, while in *bike* ['bicycle'] both have been changed. In *hanky* ['handkerchief'], we find an additional familiarity marker in the suffix *-y* (*cf* App I.77); *cf* also *nighty*, *undies*, *comfy* ['comfortable'].
[b] Some clipped forms preserve a final *s*, as in *specs* ['spectacles'], *maths* ⟨BrE⟩ ['mathematics', but AmE *math*], *gents*, *French fries*; some add an *s*, as in BrE *turps* ['turpentine'] (*cf* App I.77).
[c] It is not uncommon to find clipped forms becoming so well-established as to lose their informal tone. This is true of *plane*, *stereo*, *taxi* (from *taxicab* – itself a clipping), *pram* ⟨BrE⟩ (note spelling, from 'perambulator'); and in many long-established cases the fuller form is rarely used (*eg*: *omnibus* for *bus*) or is not ordinarily known (*eg*: *mobile vulgus* for *mob*).
[d] *Ozalid* (in reprography) is basically a reverse spelling of *diazo*; *cf* App I.15 Note.

Acronyms

I.75 Acronyms are words formed from the initial letters of words that make up a name. New acronyms are freely produced, especially by scientists and administrators (*cf* App I.15), and particularly for names of organizations. There are two main types:

[A] Acronyms which are pronounced as sequences of letters (also called 'alphabetisms'), *eg C.O.D.*/,siː əʊ 'diː/, are most like ordinary abbreviations and hence most peripheral to word-formation. In writing, the more institutionalized formations have no periods between the letters. The use of

capitals is not determined solely by whether the items abbreviated are proper nouns.

[i] The letters represent full words:

c/o	(in) care of [used on envelopes]
C.O.D.	cash on delivery
DIY ⟨informal BrE⟩	do-it-yourself [used of self-help repairs, etc]
EEC	European Economic Community
eg	exempli gratia [Latin, 'for example']
ESP	extra-sensory perception
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
ie	id est [Latin, 'that is']
KL	Kuala Lumpur
LA	Los Angeles
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
p.c. ⟨BrE⟩	postcard
UFO	unidentified flying object
UN	the United Nations
VIP	very important person

[ii] The letters represent constituents in a compound or just parts of a word:

GHQ	General Headquarters
ID	identification (card)
TB	tuberculosis
TV	television

Acronyms of Type [A] are sometimes given a quasi-phonetic written form. For example, *M.C.* ['Master of Ceremonies'] may be informally written as *Emcee*; DJ ['Disc Jockey'] as *Deejay*, *OK* as *Okay*. In AmE, *Jaycee* is used for *Junior Chamber of Commerce* (member).

[B] Acronyms which are pronounced as a word, *eg* NATO /ˈneɪtəʊ/, are often used without our knowing what the letters stand for:

laser	lightwave amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
NATO	the North Atlantic Treaty Organization
radar	radio detecting and ranging
UNESCO	the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WASP	White Anglo-Saxon Protestant ⟨AmE, informal⟩

Acronyms of this second type frequently derive from phrasal names specially devised for their acronymic convenience. For the same reason, initial syllables as well as initial letters may be involved, as in *binac* ('*bin*ary *a*utomatic *c*omputer').

Note Some abbreviations are read aloud in unabbreviated forms; *eg*: *c/o*, *p.c.* Others are normally (*eg*: *viz*) or sometimes (*eg*: *ie* and *eg*) read out as English phrases, 'namely', 'that is', and 'for example' respectively.

Blends

I.76 As the term suggests, blends are formations in which a compound is made by 'blending' one word with another. Enough of each is normally retained so that the complex whole remains fairly readily analysable (*cf* App I.14). To this end also, and preserving the normal attributes of the compound such that the end-part is the thematic base to which the new initial part is related, the blend tends to have as a whole the prosodic shape of the untruncated end-part. Thus on the basis of *ho'tel* we preface enough of *motor* both to achieve the new contrast with *hotel* (a hotel specially equipped for the needs of motoring guests), and to achieve the dominance of the base pattern: *mo'tel*.

So too with a special kind of *lunch* which has some of the features of *breakfast*, we have coined *brunch*; if the meal had been primarily conceived as a kind of *breakfast*, we might have had instead (*)*'lunkfast*. Thus we may conclude that a *spork* (first recorded in 1976) is a fork like a spoon, rather than a spoon that looks like a fork (which might have given us (*)*foon*). Note the distinction between *tigon* (where the sire is a *tig*er) and *liger* (where the sire is a *li*on). In such formations, an attempt seems to be made at matching the pragmatic position with a linguistic form.

Blending is a very productive process, especially in commercial coinages, which suggests that its rather daring playfulness is popular. Where many types of neologism are criticized adversely (*eg* as 'unnecessary jargon'), blends seem rather to be enjoyed. Perhaps in consequence, many of them are short-lived or never achieve currency beyond the advertising copy in which they may originate. *Eg*: *swim'sation* of a *swimsuit* that will cause a *sensation*; *lubri'tection* of a new *lubricant* that will provide engine *protection*.

Others not merely become well-established but act as a highly productive model for new formations; *cf*: *'cheese,burger*, *'beef,burger*, *'shrimp,burger*; *,washe'teria*, *,candy'teria*, *,luncha'teria*, etc (and we note again that a matching in prosodic shape is a determining factor in establishing the blended form). Others again achieve a brief surge of productivity in response to an outstanding event. In the years following the Washington Watergate scandals, the name *'Water,gate* became a model for such blends, being the thematic element in items like *'Mulder,gate*, *'Billie,gate*, *'cattle,gate*. All of these denoted specific cases of political crisis resulting from scandalous deception connoted by the underlying *Watergate*, the whole of which (with the associations) had to be understood in each alternative formation.

Some further and more general examples:

'breatha,lyser	[breath + 'anal,yser]
e'lectro,cute	[electro + 'exe,cute]
'Euro,vision	[European + 'tele,vision]
'heli,port	[helicopter + 'air,port]
,multi'versity	[multiple + ,uni'versity]
'news,cast	[news + 'broad,cast]
'para,troops	['para,chute + troops]
smog	[smoke + fog]
'tele,cast	[television + 'broad,cast]
'trave,logue	[travel + 'cata,logue]

There is rather more radical abbreviation in *bi'onic* (*biological* + *electronic*). Items like *bit* ('binary digit'), *interpol* ('international police'), *moped* ('motor pedal-cycle'), *telex* ('teleprinter exchange'), are outside the general pattern outlined above, both in the way in which the word-fractions are made up and in the disregard for the prosody of a thematic starting-point. In some respects, they more resemble acronyms of the [B] type in App I.75.

Note [a] The ease with which word-fractions can be used in blends accounts for the way certain sounds and sound-sequences achieve a semi-morphological status; *cf* the many derogatory words in English beginning with /sn/ (*eg*: *sneer*, *snide*, *snoop*) or the frequentative verbs ending in a consonant plus syllabic /l/ (*eg*: *rattle*, *sizzle*, *tinkle*). In this connection, one notes that recurrent items in blends (*eg*: *tele-*, *Euro-*, *-teria*, *-burger*, *-gate*) come to be used like affixes.

[b] The feminist movement has produced several blends, notably *Ms* (/mɪz/: *Miss* + /mɪstɪz/), and including purely graphic items like the pronoun *s/he* (*she* + *he*), or in the striking title of a book by Mary Daly, *gyn/ecology* (*gyne* + *ecology*). On the use of the oblique stroke, *cf* App I.59, Note [b].

[c] It is a kind of blending that produces (especially in BrE) the very informal and usually scatological 'tmesis' or use of infixes in *ˌabsoˌbloody'lutely*, *ˌstonyˌgoddam'broke*, *ˌalˌruddy'mighty*. Semantically, these combine an already emotional hyperbole with an extreme intensifier, and as the indicated stressing shows, there is a common essential prosodic pattern such that the infixed intensifier comes immediately before the most emphasized syllable (*cf* 18.59 Note [b].).

Familiarity markers

I.77 We bring together here types of abbreviation with affixation that have in common a highly informal tone and a mode of referring that indicates close community with (together with familiar, and often affectionate, knowledge of) what is referred to. In many instances they characterize the type of slang developed in close social groups such as families, schools, military institutions, etc. Thus, in Oxford the examination known as 'Divinity Honour Moderations' came to be called 'Divvers', St Stephens Hall 'Staggers', and a Professor Lightfoot 'Lighters'. Among other affixes for diminutives and analogous 'pet' forms (also known as *hypocoristics*), we have *-let*, *-ette*, *mini-*, and a few others (*cf* App I.24, I.33).

Along with abbreviation (and frequently syllabic modification as in 'Staggers'), certain affixes are recurrent: *-y*, *-o*, *-er*, *-s*:

-Y, -IE: *hippy*, *Aussy*, *telly*, *chevie*, *baddy*, *goalie*, *hanky*, *weirdie*, *druggy* ⟨BrE⟩, *nudie*, *chappie* ⟨BrE⟩, *chippie* [⟨BrE⟩ 'carpenter']; particularly common in that type of intimate discourse called 'baby talk' (and note *baby* itself): *comfy*, *sweetie*, *drinky*, *auntie*, *daddy*, *mummy* ⟨BrE⟩, *mommy* ⟨AmE⟩. Familiar forms of personal names also frequently have *-y* or *-ie*: *Katie*, *Freddy*, *Charlie*, *Molly*, *Billy*, *Susie*

-O: *ammo* ['ammunition'], *aggro* [⟨BrE⟩ 'aggravation' in slang senses such as 'mob mischief'], *arvo* [⟨AustralE⟩ 'afternoon'], *doggo* [⟨BrE⟩ 'quiet'], *weirdo*

-ER: chiefly BrE, as in *rugger*, *soccer*, *footer*, *tucker* [⟨AustralE⟩ 'food'], *boner* ['blunder'], *fresher* ['freshman']

-S: *Babs*, *Debs*, *nuts*, *bananas* ['mad'], *Moms*

These and other such informal affixes often occur in combination: *fatso*; *tootsies*, *Momsie*; *the willies*, *falsies*; *-ers* ⟨BrE⟩ as in *starkers*, *bonkers*, *Daffers* ['Daphne'], *shampers* ['champagne'], *preggers* ['pregnant'].

Note [a] The above use of *-o* (unstressed) is to be distinguished from the equally informal but stressed *-o* after monosyllabic responses: *right'o*, *good'o* ⟨both BrE⟩.

[b] Other informal (and especially AustralE) suffixes include *-'oo* as in *shi'voo* ['party'], *ma'goo* ['important person'], *-eroo* as in '(It was a real) *'flopeˌroo*', though in AustralE the stress pattern would more usually be *ˌflope'roo*, *ˌsocke'roo*.

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II Appendix II Stress, rhythm, and intonation

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Introduction

II.1 The study of stress, rhythm, and intonation is an extremely complex area of linguistics to which it is impossible to give adequate attention within the space of this Appendix. Our aim must here be strictly limited to presenting an outline of the part these features play in English grammar, to explaining the allusions that have been made to them in this book, and to guiding the reader to the selective bibliographical note at the end of the Appendix.

Stress, rhythm, and intonation are all concerned with the perception of relative PROMINENCE. We speak of STRESS when we are considering the prominence, usually perceived as greater loudness by the listener, with which one part of a word or longer utterance is distinguished from other parts. Thus we will say that *indignant* has stress on the second syllable; and we may also indicate that the word *like* is normally stressed in *Does he like it?* In such cases, we can show the stress by a raised vertical mark (*cf* further App II.3):

in'dignant Does he 'like it?

We speak of RHYTHM when we are considering the pattern formed by the stresses perceived as peaks of prominence or beats. These occur at somewhat regular intervals of time, the recurring beats being regarded as completing a cycle or 'measure'. Thus, as a language with a tendency for 'stress-timed' rhythm, English often shows an identity of rhythm in sentences like the following, provided that the number of syllables does not vary too widely:

'John is	'here	'now.
'John is at	'home	to'night.
The pro'fessor is in	'London this	'evening.

We speak of INTONATION when we associate relative prominence with PITCH, the aspect of sound which we perceive in terms of 'high' or 'low', 'falling' or 'rising', broadly as these terms are used with reference to a scale of musical notes. Thus we will say that the 'intonation nucleus' in the following utterance (using the notation explained in App II.12*ff*) has a 'falling tone', as is normal when a sentence is a statement:

The 'man has GÒNE

By contrast, if this nucleus had a rising tone, the sentence would usually have the value of a question:

The 'man has GÓNE

Finally, when we have occasion to indicate the PRONUNCIATION of vowels and consonants, we use the symbols listed in the pronunciation table (*p.* viii). By this means, we can show, for example, the different sounds that are represented by the letter *o* in forms of the verb DO (*cf* 3.36):

Do /duː/ they
Don't /dəʊnt/ they } read much?
Does /dʌz/ he

The symbols follow a tradition of 'broad transcription' so as to represent English pronunciation on as wide a basis as possible, but where there are differences between BrE (as represented by RP) and AmE (as represented by 'network English'; *cf* 1.27), our symbols seek to indicate these.

Physical properties

II.2 The physics of these phenomena cannot concern us here, though we must utter a warning against simple equations such as regarding stress as identical with loudness. Stress is closely associated with loudness or amplitude on the one hand and articulatory force on the other, but other factors are or can be involved–notably duration and pitch. Pitch seems to be the most important factor when a stress is final in a phrase (or when a word is spoken in isolation): the stress is then associated with (or realized by) pitch prominence and often with pitch movement. But what matters is that the hearer expects sharp contrasts of prominence and expects peaks of prominence at particular places in a word or a phrase. Understanding is severely handicapped if such expectations are frustrated.

Again, we can agree on discriminations between various kinds (and even degrees) of 'rhythmicality' without committing ourselves to a definitive view on the physical nature of English rhythm itself. The stresses are regarded by speaker and hearer as 'beats' at more or less regular intervals of time. We thus have an accentual sequence analogous to the quasi-isochronous 'feet' in poetic metre, each foot consisting of a stressed syllable, usually with one or more unstressed syllables. Perception of the rhythmic base may involve observing variations in loudness or pitch, or measuring intervals of time – or a combination of these. But these are matters of controversial debate, to which we will not turn our attention here.

So far as pitch is concerned, we should recognize that, although 'fundamental frequency' is doubtless a more prominent component than anything else in providing cues to our perception, nevertheless loudness or intensity is a significant cooccurrent factor and can readily, in fact, replace fundamental frequency. Evidence of our ability to dispense with fundamental frequency is that, largely through amplitude variation (though other factors are no doubt involved), whispered speech is perceived as having the same intonation as normal voiced speech.

We need also to distinguish intonation from musical melody. In contrast to music, there is, in speech, no absolute pitch and there are no fixed intervals to be observed in intonation. All pitch distinctions are acoustically relative, however absolute they may be linguistically.

Lastly, it should be noted that the three interrelated factors of stress, rhythm, and intonation are not the only distinctions that are observed in the stream of speech modifying an utterance while the grammar and vocabulary are held constant. Other 'prosodic systems', as they are called, include for example tempo, *ie* the relative speed of utterance. It is widely agreed, however, that stress, rhythm, and intonation are the most pervasively important, and we shall virtually exclude the others from consideration in

this short description. They are however illustrated in the texts presented in 19.87*ff*, which depend on our recognizing some of these other distinctions.

Note The meaning attached by linguists to 'prosodic' is based on the use of this term in traditional rhetoric but with considerable difference in emphasis and specialization.

Stress within the word

Stress patterns in words

II.3 As soon as an utterance is longer than a single syllable, the syllables are arranged in rhythmic patterns comprising a succession of strong–weak–strong–weak, and so on. This is true whether the polysyllabic stretch is a sentence, a phrase, or a single word. It is possible to distinguish several degrees of stress in a sequence of syllables. But it would seem that what is most linguistically relevant is a simple binary opposition: stress versus no stress. We mark PRIMARY stress with a high vertical stroke before the syllable carrying the stress, leaving lack of stress unmarked:

ˈfriendship	ˈaperture
unˈhelpful	deˈparture

But it is often relevant to distinguish, from primary stress, an intermediate SECONDARY stress. When it is desirable to indicate secondary stress, this will be marked by a low vertical stroke before the syllable concerned:

ˈhouseˌkeeper ˌcontriˈbution

When it is necessary to distinguish a specially HEAVY stress, we can make use of a double high vertical mark. Heavy stress can be used to mark sharp contrasts or to indicate relative stress in phrases without recourse to indicating intonation (*cf* App II.11*ff*), *eg*:

ˈseveral ˈgenerous ˌcontriˈˈbutions

Although, as speakers, we have a good deal of freedom in assigning stresses in utterances longer than a word, the placing of the stress within English words is – save for relatively minor exceptions – so rigorously invariant that it is often difficult for the hearer to understand a word where the accentuation is deviant. Compare [1–3] with [1a–3a]:

imˈportant	[1]	*ˈimportant	[1a]
eˈmergency	[2]	*ˈemerˌgency	[2a]
ˈenergy	[3]	*eˈnergy	[3a]

Moving the primary stress from the second syllable to the first (as in [1a] and [2a]), or from the first to the second (as in [3a]), could be enough to make the word incomprehensible or misunderstood.

But although the stresses are normally in a fixed position in a word, their position is unpredictable in the sense that – in contrast with some languages – there is no single position where the primary stress of a word can be expected to fall in English. For example, to count from left to right, it may fall on the

1st syllable:	ˈfamily	*4th syllable*:	faˌmiliˈarity
2nd syllable:	faˈmiliar	*5th syllable*:	ˌnationaliˈzation
3rd syllable:	ˌnatioˈnality	*6th syllable*:	inˌdustrialiˈzation

Thus, to a large extent, the stress pattern of each polysyllabic word has to be learned separately, though we shall presently see that some valuable generalizations can be made. We shall also see that, with some classes of words, it is helpful and relevant to count syllables from the end rather than from the beginning.

II.4 The generalizations that can be made about the stress pattern of English are complicated by the mixed nature of English vocabulary: a basic core of Germanic words is surrounded by a much larger number of words from foreign languages (notably French, Latin, and Greek). Native words and early French adoptions tend to have the primary stress on the stem syllable and to keep it there, regardless of the affixes that word-formation may add (FIXED STRESS):

ˈkingly	ˈpassion	stand
ˈkingliness	ˈpassionately	underˈstand
unˈkingliness	disˈpassionate	ˌmisunderˈstand

By contrast, with more recent adoptions, and with derivations based on foreign and classical elements (*cf* App. I.31), the place of the stress varies according to the affixation (MOVABLE STRESS):

	ANTEPENULTIMATE	PENULTIMATE
ˈtelegraph	~ teˈlegraphy	~ teleˈgraphic
ˈphoto(graph)	~ phoˈtography	~ photoˈgraphic
ˈtransport	~ transˈportable	~ transporˈtation
ˈargument	~ arguˈmentative	~ argumenˈtation

The items in the third column above exemplify two valuable generalizations.

The stress falls on the syllable before adjectival *-ic* (*cf* App I.39), *ie* on the penultimate syllable:

eˈconomy	~ ecoˈnomic
ˈphoneme	~ phoˈnemic
ˈproblem	~ probleˈmatic
ˈsympathy	~ sympaˈthetic

All abstract nouns ending in *-ion* are stressed on the syllable preceding this ending, *eg*:

counterˈaction susˈpicion tabuˈlation

This stress remains even after further affixes are added after *-ion*:

reˈvision ~ reˈvisional ~ reˈvisionist

II.5 But there are numerous other comparable generalizations which help us to predict the placing of English stress. Thus the stress falls on the last syllable before nominal *-ity* (*cf* App I.36):

ˈcurious	~ curiˈosity
proˈmiscuous	~ promisˈcuity
uˈnanimous	~ unaˈnimity

The stress also falls on the last syllable before the nominal and adjectival suffix *-ian*:

ˈCromwell	~ Cromˈwellian
ˈgrammar	~ gramˈmarian
ˈlibrary	~ liˈbrarian
uˈtility	~ utiliˈtarian
Greek	~ ˈGrecian
ˈAsia	~ ˈAsian
ˈCroat	~ Croˈatian
ˈAlsace	~ Alˈsatian

By contrast, the affix *-ite* leaves the place of the stress unchanged (*cf* App I.37). Compare:

ˈJefferson ~ { ˈJeffersonite / Jefferˈsonian }

A fairly numerous set of words that can operate without affixal change as noun or adjective on the one hand, and as verb on the other, have a stress difference in the two functions (*cf* App I.56), for example:

NOUN	ADJECTIVE	VERB
ˈattribute		atˈtribute
ˈconduct		conˈduct
ˈcontrast		conˈtrast
ˈconvict		conˈvict
ˈpresent	ˈpresent	preˈsent
	ˈperfect	perˈfect

In one of these (*contrast*) and in several of the other examples that might have been cited (*eg*: *export*), there is a tendency to discontinue a separate verb form and to use the form as stressed for the noun also in other functions.

Note In numerous words, interchange of primary and secondary stress would produce a comprehensible pronunciation. This is especially so with words where the native speakers themselves show variation, as in:

ˈabdomen	*or* abˈdomen	fiˈnance	*or* ˈfinance
ˈcontroversy	*or* conˈtroversy ⟨esp BrE⟩	ˌmagaˈzine	*or* ˈmagaˌzine

In some words there are different stress patterns in the two major standards of English, with a tendency for BrE, especially among younger speakers, to adopt the AmE pattern. The two nouns *adult* and *ally* are examples of varying usage where the stress is often on the first syllable in BrE but usually on the second in AmE (*cf* App II.6 Note for a contrary tendency in some words).

Stress in compounds

II.6 Compound nouns (*cf* App I.61*ff*) generally have a primary stress on the first element but with a secondary stress on the second constituent:

ˈearthˌquake	ˈlifeˌboat
ˈwaiting,room	ˈfire-exˌtinguisher

Contrast here compounds with the corresponding noun phrases, *eg*:

That sounds like a ˈ*black,bird*. [compound]
A carrion crow is a completely ˌ*black* ˈ*bird*. [noun phrase]

Other examples:

COMPOUND		NOUN PHRASE
ˈblack,board	*but*	ˌblack ˈboard
ˈgreen,fly	*but*	ˌgreen ˈfly
ˈhot,house	*but*	ˌhot ˈhouse

When such a compound is made part of another compound, the primary stress and the secondary stress are redistributed to give the same rhythm:

ˈlight,house *but* ˈlighthouse-ˌkeeper

A smaller number of compounds do not have the primary stress on the initial element:

ˌvice-ˈchancellor ˌfirst-ˈrate

As well as nouns, these compounds include:

verbs:	ˌback-ˈfire
adverbs:	ˌhenceˈforth
adjectives:	ˌknee-ˈdeep, ˌflat-ˈfooted

In some cases we may be in doubt as to whether we should regard sequences with this stress pattern as compounds or free syntactic phrases, and we vacillate between writing them with hyphens or as separate words (*cf* App I.59, App III.4*f*), for example:

ˌlawn(-)ˈtennis ˌcountry(-)ˈhouse

On the other hand, we vacillate in our stressing of some examples which are apparently in the process of becoming recognized as compounds of the ˈ*black,bird* type; for example:

ˌfield ˈmarshal	*or* ˈfield ˌmarshal
ˌoverˈseas	*or* ˈoverˌseas
ˌweekˈend	*or* ˈweekˌend
ˌheadˈmaster	*or* ˈheadˌmaster

In any case, the stress often shifts from the second to the first element when the compound is being used attributively in a noun phrase:

The room is ˌdownˈstairs.	*but* a ˈdownˌstairs ˈroom
His work is ˌfirst ˈclass.	*but* his ˈfirst, class ˈwork
The water is ˌknee-ˈdeep	*but* ˈknee-deep in ˈwater

This is analogous to the redistribution that occurs in compounds like *lighthouse-keeper*.

Note In AmE, and quite often also in BrE, there is a strong tendency to give initial stress to many of these compounds, *eg* in:
lawn(-)tennis, back-fire, country(-)house, apple-sauce

Stress in phrases and other syntactic units

II.7 The examples and the discussion have already taken us outside the limits of the word and into the distribution of stresses in phrases and other syntactic units. It is usual to emphasize the distinction between the word, where convention and semantic integration tend to produce a fixed stress and rhythm which the individual speaker cannot alter, and connected speech, where the disposition of stresses is subject to the speaker's will and the meaning he wishes to convey.

There is much validity in this but it must not be pressed too far, since it depends on a much sharper distinction between phrases and (compound) words than English grammar and lexicology in fact warrant. It will not do to say that initial stressing (as in *'black ˌbird*) indicates compounds, and final stressing (as in *eˌlectric 'clock*) the syntactic phrases of connected speech. We have seen compounds like *ˌdown'stairs* which (despite similarity with phrases like *'down the 'street*) we would not wish to analyse as phrases. And *ˌstill 'life* (in painting), which is usually stressed in BrE as though it were a phrase, shows that it is a compound in having a different plural (*still lifes*) from the noun *life* ~ *lives* (*cf* 5.83). So too there are initial-stressed phrases that linguists would not normally regard as compounds, since – as is not general in word-formation (*cf* App I.1*ff*) – we are as free to form such sequences as we are to form any other kind of syntactic unit, especially with 'general nouns':

I was talking to the *'turkey ˌman* about this *immuni'zation ˌbusiness*.

II.8 The stress distribution provides a firm basis for distinguishing not so much between compound and phrase as between different semantic relations:

A *'bull-ˌfight* involves bulls.	[1]
A *ˌbull 'calf* is a young bull.	[1a]
A *'French ˌteacher* teaches French.	[2]
A *ˌFrench 'teacher* is French.	[2a]
A *'slate ˌquarry* yields slate.	[3]
A *ˌslate 'roof* is made of slate.	[3a]
A *'toy ˌfactory* produces toys.	[4]
A *ˌtoy 'factory* is a model of a factory used as a toy.	[4a]

Thus the distribution of stresses in units higher than the word is subject to rule, just as it is within the word. Apart from 'object' premodifiers (as in *'French ˌteacher*), there is a heavier stress (indicated by a double vertical mark) on the head of a noun phrase where the head is the last item in the phrase:

a rea'listic ˌlittle ˌtoy ˈˈfactory
'several 'stale ˌhalf-'eaten 'currant ˈˈbuns

Postmodified noun-phrases normally have the primary stress on the last stressable item (*ie* generally an open-class lexical item) in the postmodification:

the ˌtoy 'factory he 'got for his ˈˈbirthday
the 'currant 'buns that I 'tried to ˈˈeat

With equal regularity (and subject to the special factors explored in 18.1*ff*), a noncontrastive primary stress falls on the main verb, or on the subsequent particle if the head is a phrasal verb (such as *wash up*; *cf* 16.3), or on the operator in an elliptical verb phrase:

A: 'Will he have ˈˈgone? B: 'Yes, he ˈˈwill.
A: He 'must be ˈˈworking. B: Yes, he ˈˈmust be.
She 'can't have been 'washing ˈˈup.

In these last examples, the verb phrases come at the end of sentences. End position is a point where, in any case, a climax of prominence is expected and normally occurs on the last word unless it is a pronoun or (frequently) a preposition (*cf* 9.6). Compare the regular, noncontrastive shift of stress placement in the following two sentences:

He 'saw his ˈˈmother. ~ He ˈˈsaw her.

Compare also the following sentences:

It's the ad'dress he 'sent the ˈˈletter ˌto. [5]
He 'sent the 'letter to the ad'dress he'd been ˈˈgiven. [6]

Final position of the preposition in [5] gives it a secondary stress and an unreduced vowel /ʊ/, whereas in a syntactically analogous nonfinal use in [6], the preposition would be unstressed and the vowel reduced to /ə/.

Peaks of prominence in syntactic units of the kinds discussed in this and later sections would in actual speech be normally associated with pitch, and we shall shortly (*cf* App II.11*ff*) reinterpret these peaks in terms of intonation. For the present purpose, however, this fact may be ignored without undue distortion.

Note We have previously (*cf* App II.6) noted the stress shift that occurs in compounds when used attributively. The same phenomenon also occurs in syntactic phrases:

after'noon	*but* ˌafternoon 'tea
over'seas	*but* ˌoverseas 'student
ˌconti'nental	*but* a ˌcontinental 'climate
uni'versity	*but* the ˌuniversity 'library
ˌPicca'dilly	*but* ˌPiccadilly 'Circus
prin'cess ⟨esp BrE⟩	*but* ˌPrincess 'Anne

In the case of polysyllabic words, other situations than the attributive position may trigger off the stress shift:

The 'princess fell in ˈˈlove.

Contrastive stress

II.9 Since the language determines stress location almost as rigidly in phrases and sentences as it does in individual words, we should not attempt to impose too sharp a distinction between 'words' and 'connected speech' on these grounds.

However, the individual speaker has the possibility of placing stress freely in units larger than the word by means of CONTRASTIVE STRESS which is capable of highlighting any word in a sentence. This is particularly striking

in the case of some closed-class words (*cf* 2.39) which, when unstressed, make use of the 'schwa' vowel /ə/ or other form of phonological reduction. Under contrastive stress, they assume the form that they have as isolated dictionary items:

	UNSTRESSED	STRESSED
a	/ə/	/eɪ/
an	/ən, n/	/æn/
and	/ənd, ən, n̩/	/ænd/
but	/bət/	/bʌt/
not	/nt, n/	/nɒt/
he	/hɪ/	/hiː/
was	/wəz/	/wɒz/
would	/wəd, əd, d/	/wʊd/
does	/dəz, dz, s/	/dʌz/

The unstressed form /s/ of *does* occurs for example in:

What's he mean? ['What does he mean?']

Examples of stressed *and* and *he* in sentences:

'John "and his 'mother 'went. ['It is not true that only one of them went.']
Will "he have 'gone? ['Granted that others have gone, is it true of him also?']

The focus device of contrastive stress (*cf* 18.12) involves pitch prominence and we shall therefore return to it when we are dealing with intonation. For the present we must observe, however, that contrastive stress is not limited to sequences longer than the word. The normal accentuation within the word can also be distorted at the speaker's will if he wants to make a contrastive point. Thus instead of *un'happy* one might say "*unhappy* in a context such as:

A: She was looking very happy tonight. [1]
B: You thought so? *She seemed "unhappy to me.*

Unstressed (or weak) forms represent phonological REDUCTION where there may be a wide range of variants, *eg* /ənd/, /ən̩/, /n/ of a stressed (or strong) form /ænd/. CONTRACTION, on the other hand, is the term used for institutionalized written representations of reduction, *eg* /aɪm/ represented in writing as *I'm*. Since contraction is institutionalized, we do not find variation in writing corresponding to the range of reduced forms in speech. For example, there is only one contracted form *'d* of *would*, and there is no generally acceptable or widely used contraction of *and* in writing, compared with the range of reductions illustrated above.

The major types of contraction are the following:

(i) *Not*-contraction, *eg*: *don't, haven't, shouldn't* (*cf* 10.55*f*)
(ii) Auxiliary verb contraction, *eg*: *I'm, you've, they're; we'll, that'll; she's, one's, somebody's, there's; you'd, who'd* (*cf* 3.23)
(iii) Personal pronoun contraction of *us* in *let's* (*cf* 3.51 Note [b])

In combinations of two potential contractions, the writer has a choice between alternatives. In general, *have* and *will* favour *not*-contraction, whereas the auxiliary contraction predominates with *are*. Thus:

I haven't	rather than *I've not*
I won't	rather than *I'll not*
we're not	rather than *we aren't*

Double contractions are never allowed: **I've n't*.

Note Contrastive stress can also override the distinction made in App II.8. Thus in the following sentence (*cf* example [2a] in App II.8), we could be making it clear that the teacher had been described as *French*, not *fresh*:

I 'said she was a "French ,teacher, not a "fresh ,teacher.

Rhythm

II.10 Broadly speaking, and disregarding the special case of contrastive stress, English connected speech has stresses on the open-class words, and absence of stress on the closed-class words accompanying them:

It's the ad'dress he 'sent the "letter ,to.
She was 'looking "happy to'night.

Just as word stress in rapid or informal connected discourse differs from stress on words in isolation, so the pronunciation of words is influenced by their linguistic surroundings. This is true not only of closed-class items but also of open-class words. The processes affecting the edges of words and syllables are referred to as 'assimilation', 'coalescence', and 'elision'. Thus we may find the following reductions in connected discourse:

	IN ISOLATION	IN CONNECTED DISCOURSE
I'm going (to York)	/aɪm 'gəʊɪŋ/	/aɪŋ'gəŋ/
actually	/'æktjʊəlɪ/	/'æktʃlɪ/

The natural rhythm of English is a regular beat. When unaffected by such factors as hesitation, which may slow down the speaker, or excitement, which may speed him up, English rhythm provides roughly equal intervals of time between the stresses. Compare examples [1] and [2]:

He told his mother. [1]
He sent it to his mother. [2]

If these two sentences were spoken by the same person under similar conditions, they would have the same basic rhythmic pattern, would occupy roughly the same amount of time, and would thus oblige the speaker to utter the sequence *sent it to his* more rapidly than the sequence *told his* which occupies the same rhythmic unit:

He 'told his "mother.
He 'sent it to his "mother.

Absolute regularity of rhythm is, however, the exception rather than the rule.

When the intervals between stresses cease to be merely 'roughly equal' and achieve something like metronomic equality, the stylistic effect is oppressive. One exception is counting. When we have to count a fairly large number of items, it seems easier to prevent ourselves from getting lost if we adopt a strictly timed rhythm:

ˈone, ...ˈtwo, ...ˈthree
ˈseventeen, ...ˈeighteen, ...ˈnineteen
seventy-ˈfour, ...seventy-ˈfive, ...seventy-ˈsix
a hundred-and-ˈthree, . .a hundred-and-ˈfour, . .a hundred-and-ˈfive

A regular rhythm is also used when we are compiling an inventory, giving a list of names, or the like. An insistent regularity may also be introduced for emphasis, especially when one is implying repetition of something which ought to be accepted without argument or when the speaker is expressing irritation or sarcasm:

You should ˈnever . . . ˈmove the . ˈfiles of . . . ˈpapers . . . ˈon my . . . ˈdesk.

It is the requirements of rhythm rather than of the message which here causes the normally unstressed *on* to be emphasized, and we commonly find that the special use of regular rhythm distorts the normal stress patterns in this way. An earlier example was *a hundred-and-ˈthree* in counting rhythm where this number in isolation would have two stresses: *a ˈhundred-and-ˈthree*. So too the numerals in *-teen*, *eg*: *ˈseventeen*, but in isolation, *sevenˈteen*.

But, for the most part, approximations to strictly timed rhythm are rare, brief, and rhetorical; for example in public speaking, such as appeals, sermons, and political speeches. More prolonged use occurs with the listener's full sanction in the reading of poetry and in forms of religious discourse, especially prayer.

Intonation

Tone unit, nucleus, and onset

II.11 Spoken English is not produced in an undifferentiated stream, but is marked off into brief stretches, usually corresponding to units of information (*cf* 18.3*ff*). These stretches we shall refer to as TONE UNITS. Tone units, the terminal boundaries of which are here indicated by a thick vertical (|), consist of a sequence of stressed and unstressed syllables, in a broadly rhythmic alternation, and with each unit containing at least one syllable marked for pitch prominence. The peak of greatest prominence is called the NUCLEUS of the tone unit, and the syllable carrying the nucleus has been indicated in this book by being printed in small capitals. This practice will be followed from this point onwards in the present Appendix. Usually the tone unit consists of several words, *eg*:

Is she leaving toDAY|

But occasionally, a tone unit may consist of a single pitch-prominent syllable, *eg*:

YES|

The first prominent syllable in a tone unit is the ONSET, and it is commonly preceded by one or more syllables which are unstressed and pronounced on a low pitch. The position of the onset is indicated by a preceding thin vertical (|), *eg*:

He |told his MOTHer|
It's the ad|dress he sent the LETter to| [1]
She was |looking HAPPy tonight| [2]
You |THOUGHT SO| [3]
She |seemed UNhappy to ME| [4]
[5]

Concerning the two nuclei in [5], *cf* II.15.

The falling tone

II.12 Usually, pitch prominence is associated with pitch change, and the commonest change is a FALL in pitch (indicated by (`) above the nuclear syllable). We would expect a fall on the nuclear syllable in, for example, both [1] and [2]:

He |told his MÒTHer|
It's the ad|dress he sent the LÈTter to| [1]
[2]

Likewise, we expect a fall on the nuclear syllable in most questions beginning with a *wh*-word, as in [3] and [5], in one-word responses to questions on words or names [4], or even letters uttered in isolation, as in [6]:

|What's his NÀME|
Phy|LÀKtis| [3]
|What's the first LÈTter| [4]
|È| [5]
[6]

The falling tone is by far the most frequent. It might be said that it communicates an impression of completeness and that a tone unit has a falling nuclear tone unless there is some specific reason why it should not.

The rising tone

II.13 When there is a reason for departing from the norm of a falling tone, the most frequently used tone is a RISING one (indicated by (´) above the nuclear syllable). Broadly speaking, this is when we wish to indicate that our utterance is nonfinal or that we are leaving it open and inconclusive. This may be because we are counting or listing and have not come to the last item:

|TWÉLVE| |THÍRteen| |FÓURteen| |FÌFteen|
There are |fifTÈEN|

(Notice again the difference between numerals in *-teen* in sequence and in isolation.)

It may also be because another clause is going to follow:

|When I CÁME| he |greeted me WÀRMly|
I |saw her this MÓRNing| and in|vited her to DÌNner|

Alternatively, we may be seeking a response from someone (but not by means of a *wh*-question):

|Have I kept you WÁITing|
You're |leaving alRÉADy|

Some of the examples in App II.11 might well have a rising nucleus, for example [3]:

She was |looking HÁPpy tonight|

This would make it not a question but a polite suggestion that a (confirmatory) comment would be welcome. This might be expanded by adding a tag question (*cf* 11.8*ff*) with a falling nucleus:

She was |looking HÁPpy tonight| |WÀSn't she|

Elsewhere, the absence of dogmatic finality in the rise may enable us to make an imperative more gentle and persuasive:

|Don't be unPLÉAsant|
|Please sit DÓWN|

Fall-rise, level, and rise-fall

II.14 There are no nuclear tones anything like so common as the fall and the rise, but four other tones are nevertheless important. The FALL-RISE (ˇ) occurs in many 'contingency' environments, for example in doubtfully expressing a condition:

I'll |see her if she CŎMES|

The fall-rise is especially common with initial adverbials (*cf* 8.15):

|FĬNally| we de|cided not to GÒ|

The LEVEL tone (¯) may be viewed as a variant of the rise (*cf* App II.18 Note), and it is used to suggest (often somewhat pompously) the predictability of what is to follow:

He |DRĀNK| he |STŌLE| he was |soon deSPÌSED|

The RISE-FALL (ˆ), on the other hand, is really a rather emotive variant of the falling tone, used to express, for example, a genuine or sarcastic warmth, as in:

|That's WÔNderful|

Equally it can express a feeling of surprise or shock:

He's a com|plete FÔOL|

Note We might also mention the rather rare rise-plus-fall pattern, in which the first nucleus draws attention to a (subordinate) point of information focus, and the second places a decisive fall on the main point of information focus, for example:
She re|fused both the BÓOK and the THÈatre tickets|

Fall-plus-rise

II.15 The remaining tone pattern is by no means rare, but we have left it till the end because, unlike the tones mentioned previously, this pattern has two nuclei. It is the FALL-PLUS-RISE, and (esp in BrE) it would be expected in an example such as the following:

She |seemed ÙNhappy to MÉ| [1]

The nucleus is always a peak of semantic or 'information' content in the tone unit; with the fall-plus-rise we have two such peaks of information interest, and they are related, the first being superordinate (*cf* 18.17). The subordinate nature of the rise in the fall-plus-rise tone pattern is indicated by a narrower pitch range (*cf* App II.18) than where a rise is sole nucleus in a tone unit. The fall-plus-rise pattern should be seen as related to contrastive stress (compare the example above with example [1] in App II.9).

Now, contrastive stress usually involves moving a tonal nucleus from its normal, unmarked position on to the contrasted item. But it does not require the tone unit concerned to have two nuclei:

A: Are you |HÁPpy| B: |No I'm ÙNhappy|

Compare also the contrast between first and second mention expressed by different position of the nucleus in the noun phrase in [2], as opposed to [3]:

|This book cost 'twenty |DÓLlars| and |this one THÌRty 'dollars|
[*. . . 'thirty DÒLlars|] [2]
|This book cost 'twenty |DÓLlars| and |this one 'ten PÒUNDS|
[*. . . TÈN 'pounds|] [3]

But in all these variants, there remains a single point of information focus. By contrast, the fall-plus-rise allows the speaker to draw attention to two focal information points, for example:

She |seemed ÙNhappy to MÉ|

Here the two nuclei enable us to say (a) that she seemed unhappy (contrary to the suggestion of someone else), and (b) that this is the speaker's personal view: of course there may be others.

In addition to its use in thus contradicting what a previous speaker has said, marked focus (*cf* 18.12*ff*) also commonly occurs with this intonation pattern in order to contrast two items within a single information unit. The fall is always on the marked focus and carries most prominence, the contrasting rise being relatively subordinate. Note the following example using the cleft sentence (*cf* 18.25*ff*):

It's his |WÌFE that I don't LÍKE| = The |one that I don't LÍKE| is his WÌFE|

Contrast the normal end-placed focus:

I |don't like his WÌFE|

A further pair of examples:

It's his |JÒB that's WÓRrying him|
His |job is WÒRrying him|

When, as in those two examples, the nucleus does not occur in the last word of the tone unit, the part of the tone unit after the nucleus is referred to as the TAIL.

Note The frequencies of the different tones will of course vary depending on a wide range of factors, such as the relation of the participants, the field of discourse, etc. In a BrE corpus of conversation, half the tone units had a single falling nuclear tone. The frequencies of occurrence for all intonation types were as follows:

Falling (ˋ)	51.2%
Rising (ˊ)	20.8%
Fall-rise (ˇ)	8.5%
Fall-plus-rise (ˋ + ˊ)	7.7%
Rise-fall (ˆ)	5.2%
Level (ˉ)	4.9%
Rise-plus-fall (ˊ + ˋ)	1.7%

Prosodic segmentation

II.16 Tone units are produced by the speaker and processed by the hearer as units of information. Compared with the sentence, which is essentially a conventional unit characteristic of written language, the tone unit is more individually variable and psycholinguistically responsive to the communicative needs of the individual speaker. Such variation is particularly noticeable in spoken language, where the conditions of planning and processing are radically different from those obtaining in writing and reading.

In spontaneous conversation, the mean length of the tone unit is around five or six words, or two seconds. But the length of the tone unit, in the individual case, depends on a number of factors such as grammatical structure, lexical realization, discourse structure in terms of given/new and theme/focus (*cf* 18.3*ff*), speech situation, speed of utterance, and the speaker's personality. Thus no rigid rule can be made about the relation of tone to grammatical units. However, it has been found that there is a strong tendency for breaks between tone units to occur at grammatical junctures. Thus there is considerable correlation between the length of the tone unit and its grammatical content. In one study, the major grammatical segments corresponding to a tone unit were found to be as follows (*cf* 18.5*ff*):

Two clauses, one of which is a nominal *that*-clause as direct object (*c* 8 words), *eg*:

I really think that he'll come toMORrow|

One clause (5–6 words), *eg*:

He'll arrive by train toMORrow|

Verb phrase plus adverbial (4–5 words), *eg*:

will arrive at ten THIRty|

Noun phrase as subject (3–4 words), *eg*:

the train from LONdon|

Prepositional phrase as adverbial (3–4 words), *eg*:

at this PLATform|

Miscellaneous noun phrases (2–3 words), *eg*:

and the SOUTH|

Adverb (1 word), *eg*:

OBviously|

The interdependence of grammar and prosody can be seen for example in the following two sentences:

The |old man opened the elegant jewel case very SLÒWly| [1]
The |old man ÓPENED| |very SLÓWly| an |elegant JÈWel case| [2]

(Note that *the . . . case* in [1] makes the noun phrase sufficiently 'given' to justify the end position of the adverbial; *cf* 18.8.) The different segmentation with prosodic focus in [2] is a result of the placing of the adjunct *very slowly* at *iE* instead of *E* in [1] (*cf* 8.14).

The grammatical status of different types of adjunct may be reflected in prosodic segmentation. Thus the relatively peripheral status of the sentence adjunct [3] (as compared with the predication adjunct [4]) can be indicated by different tone unit segmentation (*cf* 8.36):

In Chi|CǍgo| he |studied ÀRchitecture| [3]
In Chicago he LÍVED| and |in Chicago he DÌED| [4]

Intonation in relation to other features

Tone of voice, pitch, and music

II.17 'Intonation' must be distinguished from 'tone of voice' on the one hand and from 'intoning' on the other. One's tone of voice may be warm or cold, kind or harsh, happy or sad – irrespective of the intonation pattern, the length of the tone unit, the location of the nucleus, or the direction of the pitch movement. Indeed, while there can be no doubt that intonation is linguistically relevant, there must be considerable doubt as to whether tone of voice involves linguistic parameters at all. True, on hearing someone say:

I've |bought a CÀR|

we can add to our understanding of this statement the inference that the speaker sounded happy or proud or perhaps nervous, but, merely because we deduced this from the way he spoke, we need not go to the lengths of regarding the deduction as springing from the linguistic form.

As to the distinction between intonation and intoning, something has already been said in App II.2. In sharp contrast to the specific intervals of a musical scale, the movements in linguistic pitch are purely relative. A person speaking with a high-pitched voice may end a fall at a point far higher than the point at which a fall began as uttered by a low-pitched voice: yet, despite total dissimilarity in fundamental frequency or acoustic quality, both falls would be instantly recognized as linguistically identical. Again, even where they begin at the same point in pitch, two speakers will differ very considerably in the amount of pitch movement that may constitute a rise, yet

both rises may be received by hearers as in some sense identical, so far as a purely linguistic interpretation is concerned. Nor indeed is it necessary for a speaker to be consistent in this width of pitch movement (*cf* App II.18), even in consecutive tone units.

Note The part played by musical tone in English is very slight, but it may be of interest to mention that calls to attract attention make considerable use of descending minor thirds. A wife may call jocularly to her husband down the garden when supper is ready:

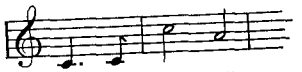

'Come and get it!'

Fig II.17a

The second bar would be the tune also in trying to attract the attention of a person some distance away: *Ro-bert!, Ma-ry!*. It appears also in the ending of the long-standing children's taunt, the words of course being freely varied:

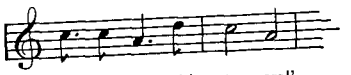

'Johnnie's torn his trousers!'

Fig II.17b

Pitch height and pitch range

II.18 In the previous section, reference was made to the fact that it is possible to make what is linguistically the same nuclear tone with considerable variety in actual pitch and pitch movement. Without diminishing the validity of this, and without suggesting further comparison with the specific tonal intervals of music, we must note the existence of other relative systems in intonation which will allow certain broad differences in pitch height and pitch range to assume linguistic significance.

By PITCH HEIGHT we are referring to the point on the pitch scale at which a stressed syllable occurs in relation to the previous syllable. Most commonly, there is a gentle stepping down in pitch level from syllable to syllable, and against this expected pattern (particularly in assertive statements), variations stand out clearly. A step upwards in pitch, called a 'booster' and symbolized as (↑), or a marked step downwards (↓), can add considerably to the feeling that is being conveyed. Thus:

His |wife is ↓always ↑NÀSty| [1]

Such a use of pitch contrast as in [1] would be one way of achieving emphasis on both the adverbial and the complement of this sentence, while at the same time indicating that the nastiness has not been mentioned by either speaker before or is perhaps alleged as a matter of potential dispute between the speakers. A variant form is [2]:

His |wife is always ↓NÀSty| [2]

Sentence [2] might suggest that while the nastiness needs emphasis, it is of a

familiar kind. In conjunction with a pointedly regular rhythm, a regularly ascending or descending pitch height can be very effective in achieving climax, as in [3] and [4]:

And |all the ↑people of ↑this ↑great ↑CÓUNTry| . . . [3]
|Why on ↓earth don't you ↓do some ↓WÒRK| [4]

By PITCH RANGE we are referring to the amount of pitch movement on the nucleus or from stress to stress in the course of the tone unit, irrespective of whether the starting point is high or low. An ingratiating, warmly interested, or excited attitude can be indicated by a wide range, while a narrow range (as well as being used to indicate boredom, for example) is frequent on the nucleus of subordinate clauses. But these are by no means the only contrasts we can imply by altering our pitch range.

The following question, for example, can be given two interpretations depending on the pitch range of its nuclear syllable:

Was it |MÝ fault|

Uttered with a narrow pitch range, it is a regular open question; with a wide pitch range, it is a rhetorical, exclamatory question (*cf* 11.23): 'Surely you are not suggesting that the fault is mine!'

Note It is through the prosodic property of pitch range that we should relate the association of level nuclei to rising ones (*cf* App II.13). That is, level nuclei occur most frequently where rising ones might be expected, and we could thus regard level as a very narrow rise. We need to note, *however, that the nuclei in pre-final subordinate syntactic units may be not only narrow rises or* levels but not infrequently narrow falls.

Pauses

II.19 In the course of this Appendix, we have been gradually developing a notation for expressing on paper the more important linguistic distinctions that are made not by words but by sound patterns affecting syllables and syllable sequences. There is one further parameter that we must not ignore. The PAUSE in speech is by no means of random occurrence. Together with the tone unit, it tends to divide up the stream of speech into grammatically and lexically relevant chunks and, although it is by no means essential to pause at the end of tone units marking completed syntactic constructions, lengthy pauses are more usual at such points than elsewhere. Speech is however more flexible than writing in allowing us to introduce a 'space', *ie* momentary silence, to suit the speaker's or hearer's needs, before (or perhaps after) a difficult or specially significant lexical item, even if this occurs in the middle of a grammatical phrase. Pauses are most relevantly measured in terms of a speaker's own rhythm and tempo, and we take the unit of pausing (denoted by a dash '–'), as equivalent in time to one rhythmic measure or cycle (*cf* App II.1). A pause shorter than such a unit is indicated by a period (.):

She is . un|HÀPpy| – |VÈRy un'happy|

As for TEMPO, to which reference has just been made, we sometimes find it valuable to contrast, with a given speaker's normal speed of utterance, the relatively slow or fast stretches that occur from time to time, as he displays –

for example – special care or seriousness at one point, or an off-handed dismissal or cheerful levity at another point. Here, as with height and range or with tone of voice (*cf* App II.17*f*), we can easily slip beyond the normal bounds of linguistic description.

Prosodic marking compared with punctuation

II.20 Even ignoring, as we must, several other features of spoken English, we now have a system of conventions capable of expressing on paper for spoken English what the system of punctuation marks does (on the whole, much less well) for written English. There are numerous respects in which conventional punctuation is inadequate (*cf* App III.5), but we need mention here only a few such points to show how our prosodic notation both explains and transcends the difficulty.

Since the early nineteenth century, institutionalized usage has disallowed any punctuation (except correlative punctuation, *cf* App III.2) between subject and predicate. Yet (as student essays show), users of English are still strongly motivated to put a comma between a long noun-phrase subject and the verb, *eg*:

*The newspaper article on the recent conflict, was utterly misleading.

There is a very good reason for this. After a long noun phrase, the coherence of the structure just completed is regularly marked in speech by a prosodic break, usually realized by the end of a tone unit, often by a pause as well:

The |newspaper article on the recent CÓNflict| (–) was |utterly misLÈADing|

II.21 Again, although we can indicate emphasis in written English (usually by means of italics in print and underscoring in typescript or handwriting), we cannot distinguish emphases of radically different sound and value:

You shouldn't give her *any* flowers.
['You must give her no flowers at all.'] [1]
You shouldn't give her *any* flowers.
['You must give her only certain flowers.'] [2]

Our prosodic notation for spoken English, however, adequately represents the difference we hear:

You |shouldn't give her ↑ÀNy flowers| [1a]
You |shouldn't give her ĂNy flowers| [2a]

Unlike punctuation, prosody readily helps to identify focused items also in examples like the following (*cf* 8.117):

|John could only SÈE his wife from the doorway| [3]
|John could only see his WÌFE from the doorway| [3a]
|John could only see his wife from the DÒORway| [3b]

The position of the nucleus and the type of tone are decisive for the interpretation of the following expressions with *there* and *here* (*cf* 8.47 Note [b]):

|THÈRE you are| *or* |HÈRE you are| ['So I've found you!'] [4]
|THĚRE you are| *or* |HĚRE you are| ['This is for you.'] [4a]
|There you ÀRE| ['That supports or proves what I've said.'] [4b]
|Here we ÀRE| ['We've arrived at the expected place.'] [4c]

The item focused on by a focusing subjunct is identified by the location of the nucleus (*cf* 8.116) in:

The |girls espÈcially objected to his manners|
['It was especially the girls who objected to his manners.'] [5]
The |girls especially objected to his MÀNners|
['It was his manners that the girls especially objected to.'] [5a]

Compare also:

|Help yoursÈLF please| ⟨ informal⟩ [the speaker takes for granted the courtesy subjunct *please*; *cf* 8.91] [6]
|Help yoursÈLF PLÉASE| [the speaker seeks more deliberately to emphasize the courtesy] [6a]

Consider now some other prosodic realizations which give sharply different meanings to the various constituents within the following sets of sentences. In each case, we begin with the 'unmarked' and most neutral form the sentence might have.

I should |GÒ| [7]
I should |GÓ| ['Is that your advice?'] [7a]
|I should go| ['Not you!'] [7b]
I |SHÒULD go| ['. . . and I defy you to deny it.'] [7c]
I |SHŎULD go| ['. . . but I don't think I will.'] [7d]

|Somebody must have TÀKen it| [8]
|Somebody must have ↑TÀKen it| ['surprising as it may seem'] [8a]
|Somebody ↑MÙST have 'taken it| ['It's no use your arguing'] [8b]
|SŎMEbody must have 'taken it| ['even if you didn't'] [8c]

You |said he would CÒME| [9]
|You said he would CÒME| ['. . . but I was personally doubtful'] [9a]
You |said HĚ would come| ['You didn't say that his wife was coming as well.'] [9b]
You |SĂID he would come| ['. . . but that doesn't mean he really will'] [9c]
You |SÀID he would CÓME| ['. . . and, my goodness, there he is!'] [9d]

|I'm not ↑half SĂTisfied| ⟨informal⟩ ['I am highly satisfied.'; *ie*: *not half* is an amplifier; *cf* 8.107 Note [b]] [10]
|I'm not HÀLF 'satisfied| ['I am only partially satisfied.'; *ie*: *half* is a downtoner] [10a]

It |seems that they quite LÌKE her| ['rather, kind of'; *ie*: *quite* is a compromiser; *cf* 8.111 Note [c]] [11]
It |seems that they QUÌTE LÍKE her| ['moderately'; *ie*: *quite* is a diminisher; the contrast between [11] and [11a] is especially BrE] [11a]

We |don't like it a BÌT| ['We don't like it.'; *ie*: *a bit* is a minimizer; *cf* 8.112] [12]
We |don't like it a LÍTtle| ['We like it a lot.'; *ie*: *a little* is a diminisher] [12a]

Now |LÌSTen| [*now* is a transitional conjunct; *cf* 8.137] [13]
|NÒW listen| [*now* is *I*-placed time adjunct; *cf* 8.55] [13a]

She |didn't leave HÓME| be|cause I've been watching the house all DÀY| [*because*-clause as disjunct; *cf* 8.132] [14]
She |didn't leave 'home be'cause her father ↑TÒLD her to| [*because*-clause as adjunct; *cf* 8.86] [14a]

All the examples presented in this Appendix have been of isolated tone units or very short sequences. The system of stress, rhythm, and intonation operate significantly, however, over considerably longer stretches of speech, indicating degrees of connection and providing significant cues to interrelationship of grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic units as 'text'. Some aspects of speech in these respects are described in 19.87*ff* along with transcriptions of both formal and informal varieties of spoken discourse.

Note [a] Because of our inability to express prosodic nuances in writing, we frequently find (especially in fiction) the use of verbs such as *sneer*, *mutter*, *whisper*, *whine* to assist the reader in assigning the appropriate prosodic and paralinguistic features. So also adverbial expressions accompanying verbs of saying, such as *inquiringly*, *indignantly*, *sneeringly*, *in a haughty tone*. Thus the written sentence [15] might be intended to equate with [15a] in speech:
'But you're going to answer his letter, I suppose' she said *inquiringly*. [15]
But you are |going to answer his "letter I supPÓSE| [15a]
[b] We may also find instances of the opposite state of affairs, *ie* when speech lacks distinctions that can be made in writing. One such case is the use of 'quote – unquote', or even a gesture with the fingers, to signal quotation marks.

Bibliographical note

On stress, see Arnold (1957); Chomsky and Halle (1968); Gimson (1980).

On rhythm, see Abercrombie (1967); Chatman (1965); Leech (1969b); Uldall (1971).

On contraction, see Black (1977); Forsheden (1983); Zwicky (1970); Zwicky and Pullum (1983).

On various aspects of intonation and prosody, see Bald (1975); Bing (1980); Bolinger (1972c); Brazil et al (1980); Brown (1977); Brown et al (1980); Cruttenden (1981); Crystal and Quirk (1964); Halliday (1967, 1970); Kingdon (1958); Liberman (1978); O'Connor and Arnold (1973); Pike (1945); Quirk and Crystal (1966); Quirk et al (1964); Waugh and van Schooneveld (1980).

A detailed account of prosodic systems is given in Crystal (1969) and these are related to style in Crystal and Davy (1969, 1975).

III Appendix III Punctuation

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Introduction

III.1 In Appendix II we surveyed a set of prosodic devices that help to communicate grammatical and other distinctions in spoken English. The purpose of the present Appendix is to examine the visual devices that perform a similar role for written English. Since prosodic devices are acquired naturally by native speakers, they do not have to be taught them formally, and educational tradition has largely ignored them. With punctuation, on the other hand, the array of devices is well recognized; there are established names for the individual items; and their use is (to a considerable extent) equally institutionalized, through education and the practice of the publishing and printing organizations.

There are three stretches of written language formally recognized by name whose bounds are indicated visually: the WORD, the SENTENCE (consisting of one or more words), and the PARAGRAPH (consisting of one or more sentences). Words are delimited as orthographic units (*cf* I.12) by being preceded and followed either by a space or by one or more punctuation marks and a space, as illustrated for the italicized words in the following:

. . . the *grammar* of . . .
. . . in *scorn*, when . . .
. . . the *co-authors* are . . .
. . . the *reader's* aim . . .
. . . line (*usually* indented . . .
. . . (or 'upper *case*') . . .

Sentences begin with a CAPITAL letter and usually end with a PERIOD (*cf* App III.14). Less frequently, the termination point of a sentence is a QUESTION MARK or EXCLAMATION MARK, complex symbols that visually incorporate the period (*cf* App III.23). As we see later (*cf* App III.14), paragraphs are usually separated by spaces at their beginning and end. Apart from the termination points of sentences, the remaining punctuation marks – by far the majority – perform functions within the sentence (and a very few within the word) but do not mark off units as well-established as the sentence or the word. Their separating or specifying functions however are for the most part clear and readily describable.

III.2 The punctuation system serves two broad purposes, SEPARATION and SPECIFICATION, the former in turn inviting a twofold division.

SEPARATION

(a) *Successive units*
The punctuation mark separates units that are in a simple linear relation to each other (units in a series); for example, a space separates two successive words, or a period followed by a space separates two successive sentences.

(b) *Included units*
The punctuation mark is CORRELATIVE. It indicates the beginning and end of an included unit, a unit which is inserted within some larger unit; for example, the commas mark off the parenthetic clause in:

He is, *I think*, a teacher.

SPECIFICATION

The punctuation mark specifies a grammatical, semantic, or pragmatic function, sometimes in addition to the marking of separation. Thus the apostrophe in *the reader's* specifies the ending as genitive in contrast to the phonologically identical plural in *the readers*.

In respect of these purposes, punctuation practice is governed primarily by grammatical considerations and is related to grammatical distinctions. Sometimes it is linked to intonation, stress, rhythm, pause, or any other of the prosodic features which convey distinctions in speech, but the link is neither simple nor systematic, and traditional attempts to relate punctuation directly to (in particular) pauses are misguided. Nor, except to a minor and peripheral extent, is punctuation concerned with expressing emotive or rhetorical overtones, as prosodic features frequently are (*cf* App II.17*ff* for example). It follows that there is less room in punctuation than in prosody for personal decision in the use of the various devices: understandably so, since in writing, the originator of the message is not usually present to clear up any difficulty that may arise. Punctuation marks tend, therefore, to be used according to fairly strict conventions and even in the peripheral areas where universal convention does not obtain, each individual publishing house imposes one for all materials that it puts forth in print.

There are two important qualifications to the foregoing generalizations. In the first place, there is, as we shall see, a great deal of flexibility possible in the use of the comma: in its presence or absence, or in its replacement by other marks. The comma in fact provides considerable opportunity for personal taste and for implying fine degrees of cohesion and separation. Secondly, the conventions as a whole are not followed as rigorously in manuscript use (especially personal material, such as private letters), where there may be inconsistencies in their application that would not be permitted in most printed material.

Separation

Separation of successive units

Hierarchy of punctuation marks

III.3 We have a well-defined hierarchy of signs reaching from the word to the paragraph. The hierarchy can be illustrated from the following passage:

. . . and the chairman was careful to point out the help he had had from the secretary and from the members recently elected to the committee. He mentioned two other men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox; they had been very useful. Votes of thanks were proposed and unanimously carried.

Before the meeting closed, some further business was transacted. A motion proposed by Johnson sought to raise money by . . .

Thus we have:

unseparated letters	. . . opted . . .
hyphen (-)	. . . co-opted . . .
word-space	. . . since co-opted . . .
comma (,)	. . . men, since co-opted . . .
colon (:)	. . . men, since co-opted: Smith . . .
semicolon (;)	. . . men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox; they . . .
period (.)	. . . men, since co-opted: Smith and Fox; they had been very useful. Votes of thanks . . .
paragraph	. . . had been very useful. Votes of thanks were proposed and unanimously carried. Before the meeting closed, some further business was transacted . . .

Two signs (which also have specifying function) not illustrated in the passage are generally (but *cf* App III.23) on the same level in the hierarchy as the period: the question mark (?) and the exclamation mark (!).

Parentheses and other types of bracketing, which are also not illustrated in the passage, are outside the hierarchy because their function is to represent a sharp interruption in the structure within which they are inserted (*cf* App III.16).

One other sign absent from the passage is the dash. The dash fits somewhat uneasily into the hierarchy, perhaps between the comma and the colon. It is often a substitute for the comma, but indicates a sharper separation:

> They knew many of the ills that continue to affect us – and many of the remedies that we still use.

In general, punctuation marks are followed by a space, but there are several exceptions:

(a) A space precedes (not follows) the opening quotation mark and the opening mark for parentheses and other bracketing.
(b) There is a space on either side of the dash.
(c) There is no space on either side of the hyphen.

The period, question mark, exclamation mark, and colon are generally followed (especially in printed material) by a longer space than that for other marks, notably the comma or semicolon. When closing quotation marks or closing parentheses cooccur with each other or with other marks, there is no space between the two marks. For example, a closing quotation mark may be immediately followed by a closing parenthesis, a comma or period by a closing quotation mark, or a closing parenthesis by a period. (For permissible and nonpermissible cooccurrences, *cf* App III.16.)

Our main concern in this Appendix is with punctuation marks in the hierarchy that are beyond the level of the word and up to the level of the sentence. In particular contexts, writers can choose whether to use one of these punctuation marks rather than another, whether to use (for example) a period or an exclamation mark, a period or a semicolon, a comma or a semicolon, a comma or a colon, a comma or a dash. But it is relevant to note that by far the most frequent marks are the period and the comma, which are almost identical in frequency of use.

Note In samples from the Brown corpus of about 72 000 words drawn in equal proportions from journalism, learned writing, and fiction, the figures for punctuation marks were:

commas	4054	semicolons	163
periods	3897	question marks	89
dashes	189	colons	78
pairs of parentheses	165	exclamation marks	26

The hyphen

III.4 The hyphen marks divisions within a word for two main purposes. First, it is used for word division between lines, to separate a word into two parts between the end of one line of text and the beginning of the next. Since printers can vary the space between words, they prefer to avoid dividing words in this way, especially in books. When division is unavoidable, it is made at a natural point in the structure of a word. That is, one would not leave *str-* at the end of a line and begin the next line with *ucture*. But there can of course be a difference of opinion as to what constitutes a 'natural' point. AmE practice is to respect the phonologically natural points – in other words, syllable division; this would divide *structure* at *struc-*. BrE practice is to give more weight to morphological and etymological considerations, being thus more inclined to make a break in the word at *struct-*. With many words the different criteria give the same result, however, so that the divergence in usage is slight.

Secondly, the hyphen is sometimes used to mark the parts of a word: to separate the bases of a compound (*cf* App I.57*ff*) or to separate the prefix of a word from its base (*cf* App I.21*ff*). The rules for this use of the hyphen are subject to considerable variation in the practice of publishing houses and individual writers as well as in the guidance of dictionaries and style manuals. AmE inclines to fewer hyphens than BrE, preferring words to be written either OPEN (separated by a space) or SOLID (without separation) rather than hyphenated.

Types of compounds that are commonly hyphenated include:

(1) noun compounds in which the second base is an adverb, *eg*: *runner-up*, *break-in*
(2) adjective compounds in *-ed* that are formed from noun phrases, *eg*: *cold-blooded*, *brown-eyed*
(3) adjective compounds in which the second base is a participle, *eg*: *far-fetched*, *habit-forming*

If the first base is an adverb, it is hyphenated when the participle is premodifying a noun (*well-established facts*) but not when the participle is a main verb (*The facts are well established*). In AmE (and often in BrE), however, hyphenation does not apply even when the participle is a premodifier if the adverb ends in *-ly*, *eg*: *carefully written* (report), *rapidly disappearing* (languages).

(4) other modifying phrases and modifying clauses (which are generally written open when not modifying), *eg*: *on-the-spot* (investigation), *face-to-face* (meeting), *ten-item* (test), *right-to-life* (movement), *up-to-date* (news), *take-it-or-leave-it* (attitude), *do-it-yourself* (job)

(5) coordination compounds (*cf* App I.70), *eg*: *Russian-English* (dictionary), *student-teacher* (relationships)
(6) compounds expressing numerals and fractions (*cf* 6.63*ff*), *eg*: *twenty-five*, *three-fifths*
(7) compounds in which the first base is a single capital letter *eg*: *U-turn*, *H-bomb*
(8) compounds ending in *-in-law(s)*, *eg*: *mother-in-law*
(9) relationships in which the first base is *great*, *eg*: *great-uncle*, *great-grandchildren*

The hyphen is usual after a prefix if the base begins with a capital letter as in *un-French* or with a figure as in *post-1984*. It is also common after certain prefixes, particularly *ex-* ['former'], *half-*, *quasi-*, *self-*, *eg*: *ex-husband*, *half-caste*, *quasi-judicial*, *self-sacrifice*. BrE tends to use the hyphen after other prefixes, where AmE tends to write the words solid, notably after *non-*, *eg*: *non-standard* ⟨esp BrE⟩, *nonstandard* ⟨esp AmE⟩. BrE often uses the hyphen where juxtaposition would suggest a misleading pronunciation such as *co-ordinate* or *pre-eminent*, whereas AmE generally writes such words solid (but *co-worker*, for example, is hyphenated in AmE too); however, BrE is increasingly conforming to AmE practice.

The hyphen is used both in compounds and after a prefix to avoid misinterpretation, even if the misinterpretation is only momentary, *eg*: *small-claims court* ['court for small claims'], *re-cover* ['cover afresh', *cf*: *recover* 'regain control'], *re-form* ['form again', *cf*: *reform* 'change for the better'], *co-op* [informal clipping of noun *co-operative*, also *cooperative* ⟨esp AmE⟩].

Note [a] AmE occasionally favours the DIAERESIS in words such as *coöperate*. The diaeresis is also very occasionally used in both AmE and BrE to indicate separate syllables in words where juxtaposed vowels do not result from affixation and where the hyphen could not be used; for example, *naïve*. More commonly, however, such words are spelt without indication of the separate syllabification: *naive*.
[b] Despite a tendency to avoid the hyphen after prefixes, AmE prefers it to avoid doubling the vowel *i* (*anti-isolationist*) or tripling a consonant (*bell-like*).
[c] For two minor uses of the hyphen, *cf* App III.26 Note [b].

The word in speech and writing

III.5 There are numerous respects in which we cannot reproduce in writing the distinctions made prosodically in speech (*cf* App II.20). In the visual indicators of word limits we have the converse. In informal speech, we do not normally attempt to make a difference in pronunciation between *a nice drink* and *an ice(d) drink*. In writing, such distinctions are absolute and must be regularly made. Similarly, irrespective of the sound we make in speech, we must indicate in writing what counts as an orthographic word (*cf* App I.11*f*), sometimes deciding between total separation, hyphenation, and total juxtaposition: *tax payer*, *tax-payer*, and *taxpayer*. Examples like these are a reminder (a) that, while the rules of punctuation are related to grammar and lexicology, they are by no means necessarily so related through an intermediate connection with speech; (b) that there is an element of arbitrariness in punctuation, and it is particularly conspicuous in the use of the hyphen; and yet (c) that consistency and regularity assume an importance in punctuation (as in spelling) quite unparalleled in the analogous signalling function of prosodic systems in speech.

Note [a] Hyphens are used to link syntactically-related premodifiers of noun phrases as in *Mexican-Cuban negotiations*. If one of the modifiers is itself a phrase, the hyphen may seem to connect illogically: *Mexican-San Salvador negotiations*, *New York-Miami flight*. Indeed, for such cases some printers use the en dash (–), which is half the length of the em dash — the form most commonly used for the dash punctuation mark — and is slightly longer than the printed hyphen. But it is doubtful whether most readers notice that the en dash is different from the hyphen. Should the position of the hyphen feel troublesome, the phrase can be reworded to avoid the premodification; for example, *negotiations between Mexico and San Salvador*.
[b] Coordination of hyphenated items, especially in formal or technical writing, frequently involves ellipsis with word-space following a hyphen, as in *pro- and anti-government opinion* or *those who are speech- and language-impaired*. Hyphens are similarly used after prefixes, even though the prefixes are not hyphenated in isolation, in which case the final item is generally not hyphenated; for example, *mono- and polysyllabic syllables*, *inter- and intranational uses*, *homo- and heterosexual relations* (*cf* also 13.85).

The comma

The comma with coordinated clauses

III.6 Of all the punctuation marks the comma is the most flexible in the range of its use, and hence the most difficult to categorize.

One dominant use of the comma is to separate closely associated clauses within a sentence, a use that the comma shares with the colon and semicolon. But we cannot substitute a comma in either [1] or [2], because the comma is not normally used to separate independent clauses unless they are linked by a coordinator:

> I've just had some good news: I've been offered a job in a law firm. [1]
> Schoolchildren have adopted the fund as one of their favourite charities; their small contributions have enabled the fund to reach its target. [2]

In [1], where a coordinator would not be possible, the colon is serving its classic function of separating an independent clause that is in apposition to a previous unit, here *some good news*. In [2] we should need to insert *and* if we wished to replace the semicolon with a comma:

> Schoolchildren have adopted the fund as one of their favourite charities, and their small contributions have enabled the fund to reach its target. [3]

Sentence [3] illustrates the conditions favouring the use of the comma to separate independent clauses in compound sentences:

(a) the parts are closely related semantically (both dealing here with the children's contributions to the fund);
(b) they are linked by a coordinator (in this case by *and*).

If condition (a) did not apply, the two parts could scarcely be brought into one sentence at all. If condition (a) applied but not condition (b), a comma normally could not be used, though a semicolon would be appropriate, as in [2]. Punctuation marks are also usual if the clauses are linked by the conjunction *or* and the conjunction-like adverbs *nor*, *neither*, *so*, and *yet*.

If three or more clauses are coordinated but only the last is preceded by

and or *or*, commas (or semicolons) are required between the clauses, including the last pair:

Prices fell, interest rates fell, and employment figures rose.

The comma in such instances is termed a SERIAL COMMA (*cf* App III.8).

Note Despite condition (b), coordinate clauses are occasionally separated asyndetically only by commas, especially when the clauses are short, parallel, and (often) three in number (*cf* 19.5*ff*):

I must, I can, I will.

Sometimes he would chuckle softly to himself, sometimes he would grunt to some invisible onlooker.

III.7 Two further related considerations influence our decision over the punctuation of a series of independent clauses. First, punctuation marks are frequently omitted if the clauses are relatively short, provided they are linked by a coordinator:

The work was pleasant and the hours were short. [1]

On the other hand, if despite close semantic connection there is a contrast prompting the use of *but* (or *and yet*) rather than *and* as the appropriate conjunction, there is a greater tendency to use a punctuation mark, particularly the comma:

We are thinking of buying a short-wave radio, but we haven't made up our minds. [2]

This latter tendency emerged from an analysis of materials in the Survey of English Usage. The materials comprised coordinate full clauses, as in [1] and [2], and instances in which the subject (and perhaps also operator) of the second clause was absent, resulting in coordinated predicates or predications, as in [3] and [4]:

The hotel boasts a gourmet restaurant and offers a range of sports facilities. [3]

You can sit at my desk and write your letters. [4]

Three-quarters of the clauses coordinated with *but* had a comma ('+' in *Fig* App III.7a), whereas only about a half of the clauses coordinated with *and* had a comma.

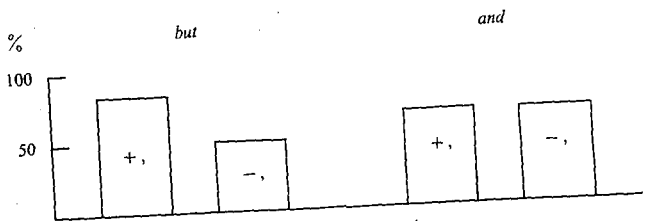

Fig App III.7a Comma punctuation with *but* and *and*

For coordination with *and*, however, it was relevant to distinguish further according to whether the subject of the second clause was present ('*and* + S' in *Fig* App III.7b) or absent ('*and* − S'). Where the subject was absent as in [3] and [4], the comma appeared in only a third of the sentences, while a comma was inserted in three-quarters of the sentences that had an expressed subject in both clauses.

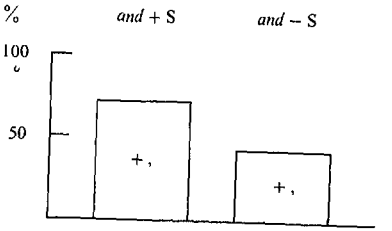

Fig App III.7b Comma punctuation with *and* according to presence or absence of subject in second clause

These results show that we are dealing with tendencies rather than rules. There are many sentences where despite coordination with *and* and despite subject ellipsis, a comma is nevertheless preferred. In such cases, it is probable that the generalization that punctuation conforms to grammatical rather than rhetorical considerations is in fact overridden. If we compare sentences [5] and [6] the extent to which we prefer a comma in [6] is a measure of our wish that the punctuation should endorse the meaning – the separation of the second clause matching the moment's pause that is mentioned:

He put on his spectacles and then picked up the phone. [5]

He paused for a moment, and then began to speak. [6]

The contrast between *and* and *but* is also shown in an analysis of samples from the Brown corpus (*cf* App III.3 Note), which counted coordinate clauses with an expressed subject in the second clause. Of 228 compound sentences with *and*, 72 (32 per cent) had no punctuation mark, and 147 (64 per cent) had commas, 5 (2 per cent) semicolons, and 4 (2 per cent) dashes. On the other hand, of 98 compound sentences with *but*, only 6 (6 per cent) had no punctuation mark while 74 (76 per cent) had commas and 18 (18 per cent) semicolons. In the same corpus, independent sentences were far more frequently introduced by *but* (87) than by *and* (47).

The comma with other coordinated units

III.8 We generally do not insert any punctuation mark if we coordinate two units within a sentence other than independent clauses:

The movie was long and boring.

The company may have branches in London or New York.

I argued for implementation of the report and against any further discussion.

All I know about them is that they work on a farm and that their parents live with them.
You can and must tell us.
She called me and invited me for dinner.
I enjoy tennis but don't play it often.
I'll read the book and then tell you whether it's worth reading.

In such instances a comma is occasionally inserted for rhetorical reasons, particularly when predicates or predications are coordinated (*cf* App III.7), as in the last three sentences.

We sometimes have a choice between asyndetic coordination (without a coordinator), in which case a serial comma (*cf* App III.6) is required, and syndetic coordination (with a coordinator), in which case a comma is not required. The most frequent occasions when this choice is available involve the coordination of premodifying adjectives or adverbs. Thus, for adjectives we may choose between [1] and [1a]:

He walked with long, slow strides. [1]
He walked with long and slow strides. [2]

If we wish to add further coordinated adjectives to [1], we need to place a comma after each adjective except the last:

He walked with long, slow, steady, deliberate strides. [1a]

If we wish to add further adjectives to the syndetic coordination in [2], we generally insert *and* before the last adjective in the series as in [2a]:

He walked with long, slow, steady(,) and deliberate strides. [2a]

(For the possible omission of the comma, see below.) There are analogues for adverbs to [1–2a]:

She slowly, carefully moved the box. [3]
She slowly and carefully moved the box. [4]
She slowly, carefully, deliberately moved the box. [3a]
She slowly, carefully(,) and deliberately moved the box. [4a]

The asyndetic coordination of [1] should be distinguished from the hypotactic relationship of adjectives in [5], *cf* 13.2:

I noticed a large rear hatch. ['a rear hatch that was large'] [5]

Since *large* and *rear* are not coordinated in [5], we cannot of course insert either *and* or a comma between the adjectives. Similarly, if we wish to indicate not that the strides were both long and slow as in [1] and [2], but that they were slow strides which were long, we omit punctuation and conjunctions, as in [6]:

He walked with long slow strides. [6]

An adverb analogue to [5] occurs with adverbs in a hierarchical relationship, *cf* 8.56:

She is expected later today. [7]

More stylistically-marked asyndetic coordination (in contrast to the more usual syndetic coordination) is found occasionally with noun phrases and prepositional phrases, particularly at the end of the clause:

The company provides pleasant working conditions, above-average salaries, numerous fringe benefits.
They have been criticized for their business dealings, for their political views.

These phrases occur usually in a series of three or more units.

If we coordinate a series of three or more units, we normally omit the conjunction *and* or *or* before all but the last unit. We of course insert serial commas before all the units, except that there is a choice as to whether to insert or omit the comma before the conjunction. AmE generally favours the insertion of the comma, while AmE journalistic style favours its omission; in BrE, usage is divided:

Dogs, cats(,) and other animals can recognize friends by smell alone.
Change in human biological history is slow, steady(,) and progressive.

In the next two sentences we see examples of the use of the serial comma in listing, irrespective of the linguistic status of the items listed. Again the comma before the last item is optional, provided that this is preceded by *and*:

She bought eggs, butter, cheese, bread, rice(,) and coffee.
He wrote down 73, 12, 41, 9, 7(,) and 13, and added them up.

Note What has been said of the inclusive conjunction *and* applies also to the exclusive conjunction *or* (as in *to or from town*; *by, with(,) or to a person*; *butter, eggs(,) or fruit*).

Where separation by comma is disallowed

III.9 With regard to the central clause elements S, V, O, and C (but not A), there is a strict rule that they cannot be interrupted by punctuation except where 'inclusion' (*cf* App III.16) or 'specification' (*cf* App III.23) is involved, and with one or two additional but minor exceptions that we shall outline shortly. Thus whether such a sentence element consists of a phrase or a clause, it cannot be separated from the verb by a comma:

*The man over there in the corner, is obviously drunk. [1]
*I know, that you are tired. [2]
*It is perfectly natural, that men should go bald. [3]
*He gave the leading lady, a bouquet. [4]

In speech, [1] and possibly [3] and [4] might have a tone unit break where the unacceptable comma has been inserted and we are sometimes tempted to match this with a comma in writing, an error particularly likely to arise with lengthy subjects as in [1] (*cf* also App III.16 Note). The rule, however, is clear enough and is strictly observed in print. Equally clear (and this time generally observed unhesitatingly even in manuscript) is the rule that phrases constituting any of the elements S, V, O, C, or A cannot be interrupted by noncorrelative commas, unless the commas are required for serial use (*cf* App III.8):

*The old, man died.
*He may, go there.
*They emigrated after, the war.

One exception to these rules is that a comma may come between S and V when there might otherwise be momentary confusion, as for instance through two occurrences of the same word:

What his name is, is of no interest to me.
Whatever she does, does not concern me.
What one person may think of, another may not.

Rarely, a comma may also come at the point of gapping (*cf* 13.92*f*) in an elliptical clause:

Rock aspires to recognition as art, and new classical music, to a larger following.

But more commonly no punctuation is used:

One bedroom was very large, and the other quite small.

Finally, a comma is placed between a subject-verb sequence and a direct object in direct speech (*cf* App III.21).

Note The need for easy recognition of structure determines the convention of using commas between thousands in numerals: 41,396,728. Spaces are sometimes used instead of commas for this purpose: 41 396 728 (*cf* 6.63 Note [b]).

The colon

III.10 The colon makes a sharper separation than the comma. It was placed between the comma and the semicolon in App III.3 because it indicates a closer interdependence between the units separated than does the semicolon. Indeed, it sometimes indicates as close a relation as the comma does, but it is a different relation. The functions of the colon, a rather infrequent punctuation mark, can be summed up as follows: what follows (as in this sentence) is an explication of what precedes it or a fulfilment of the expectation raised (even if raised only by its own use). Thus:

I've just had some good news: I've been offered a job in a law firm. [1]
Those who lead must be considerate: those who follow must be responsive. [2]

In [1] the explication is a clause which can be viewed as being in apposition to a noun phrase in the preceding clause, if the notion of apposition is extended beyond noun phrases (*cf* 17.65*ff*). Compare:

The good news is that *I've been offered a job in a law firm.*

Such a relationship is typical between units separated by a colon. A further example:

The man had been drinking heavily: this, not age, explained his unsteady walk. [3]

Here the pronoun *this* refers back to the whole of the preceding clause ('the fact that the man had been drinking heavily'). Sometimes the relationship is more indirect and subtle, however, as in:

Joan and Mary were obviously weary: I got up to go. [4]

The colon in [4] helps to indicate that it was my observation of their weariness that made me decide to go.

In each of the examples, a semicolon could replace the colon, and with examples [2–4] a semicolon would be more usual. On the other hand, provided that a coordinating conjunction were introduced between the clauses, the colon could also be replaced in [2–4] by a comma or by no punctuation. In this respect, too, the [2–4] set is distinguished from [1], in which we have the more central use of the colon to imply 'as follows' or 'namely'. Related to that central use is the very frequent use of the colon (as in this book) to introduce examples, whether immediately following the colon or indented on the next line or lines.

Note The independent clause following a colon may begin with a capital letter, but generally not in BrE. A capital letter is in any case used if the part introduced by the colon consists of more than one sentence, or if it is a quoted sentence (*cf* App III.21):
I asked myself: Where was it all leading?

III.11 So far, the illustrations have shown the colon separating only clauses. But it commonly separates smaller units such as phrases, and it was its potentiality to do so that justified its place between comma and semicolon in the hierarchy in App III.3. Notice that the semicolon in [1] marks the major division of the sentence:

There remained one thing she wanted above all else: a room of her own; but she did not acquire her own room until she was eighteen. [1]

The use of the colon in examples like [1] resembles most closely the purpose it serves (especially in technical or specialized writing) when it precedes a formal list of items, often preceded by its verbal equivalents *for example*, *eg*, *namely* (sometimes written *viz*), *ie*, *as follows*, or the like (*cf* 17.73). For example:

Please send the stipulated items (, namely):
(i) birth certificate
(ii) passport
(iii) correct fee [2]

When it appears in such a formal or official use as [2] implies, it is sometimes followed in BrE by a short dash (:–), but this is generally regarded as rather heavy punctuation (*cf* App III.22). Certainly, when it introduces lists in nontechnical writing, as in the illustration of the hierarchy in App III.3, it is never followed by a dash.

Punctuation is generally omitted after the items in a formal vertical list as in [2], though sometimes all but the last item are followed by semicolons or commas and the last item (of course) by a period (but *cf* App III.23 Note [b]).

Contrast the required commas in the horizontal list in [2a]:

> Please send the stipulated items: your birth certificate, your passport, and the correct fee. [2a]

The colon may be replaced by a comma when what follows is one item as in [1], or if the following list itself does not contain separating commas, as in [2b]:

> Please send the stipulated items, namely your birth certificate and your passport. [2b]

In this connection – one of the few in which the colon and the comma seem to be interchangeable – it is of interest to note that, whereas the vocative formula at the beginning of letters is normally separated by a new line and sentence capitalization, it is additionally marked by a comma or (in AmE) by a colon:

> Dear Mr Wilson,
> Thank you . . . ⟨BrE and informal AmE⟩
> Dear Mr Wilson:
> Thank you . . . ⟨AmE⟩

The sentence following the vocative formula begins with a capital letter (*Thank you* . . . in the above examples); it is commonly indented as marking the beginning of the first paragraph in the body of the letter (*cf* App III.14).

Note If the horizontal list contains more than two items, unlike [2b], a colon is required if there is no apposition marker (*cf* 17.73), as in [2a]. If an apposition marker such as *namely* is inserted, it is usual to replace the colon by a semicolon (*cf* App III.13):

> Please send the stipulated items; namely(,) your birth certificate, your passport, and the correct fee.

The semicolon

III.12 The semicolon is next below the period in the hierarchy, but it is particularly associated with formal writing. It is best regarded as the coordinating mark of punctuation (*cf* asyndetic coordination, 13.1), corresponding most nearly in value to the linguistic coordinating conjunction *and*. That is, when two independent clauses are regarded as being sufficiently related to belong to one sentence, this may be shown by prosody in speech (*cf* App II.13) – for example, narrow pitch range or a rising nucleus at the end of the first clause, with or without a coordinating conjunction. In writing, it may be shown by a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction as in [1]:

> Taylor was, as always, a consummate actor, and with a few telling strokes he characterized King Lear magnificently. [1]

Or it may be shown asyndetically by a semicolon without a coordinating conjunction as in [2]:

> Taylor was, as always, a consummate actor; with a few telling strokes he characterized King Lear magnificently. [2]

Thus if we represent a clause as SVOA, we can compare the use of commas and semicolons connecting such clauses as follows:

> [a] S V O A(,) and (then) (S) V O A
> [b] S V O A; (and) (then) S V O A

In the formulas [a] and [b], *and* represents the coordinators *and*, *but*, and *or*, while *then* represents any appropriate way of additionally linking the clauses. The coordinator cannot be omitted in [a], and the subject cannot be ellipted in the second clause of [b].

We have noted earlier that, especially when the clauses are short and parallel, there are exceptional uses of commas without a coordinator (*cf* App III.6 Note) and that the conjunction-like *nor*, *neither*, *so*, and *yet* may be preceded by a comma when they alone link independent clauses (*cf* App III.7).

III.13 In App III.12 we noted that the semicolon is primarily a coordinating mark, but we indicated that it may also be followed by a coordinator, as we now illustrate in [1] below:

> I had been aware that they sometimes disagreed violently, particularly over how to raise their children, and that there were also periods when they would not speak to each other; but I had not realized that they were seriously contemplating divorce. [1]

Such a use (in effect, replacing a comma) is chiefly found in rather formal writing and in sentences whose complexity already involves the use of one or more commas and whose major divisions call for a hierarchically superior punctuation mark if the reader is not to be momentarily puzzled or misled. A simple but convenient application of this principle occurs in lists, where it is often desirable to show subgroupings:

> The breakfast menu consisted of fruit juice or cereal; a boiled, fried, or poached egg; toast and marmalade; and a pot of tea or coffee. [2]

Somewhat related is the chief point at which the semicolon shows affinity of use with the colon; namely, the convention (as in this sentence and in [3]), of preceding such apposition indicators as *namely* or *that is* by a semicolon. Without such an indicator, as in [3a], a colon would usually be appropriate:

> In one respect, government policy has been firmly decided; that is, there will be no conscription. [3]
> In one respect, government policy has been firmly decided: there will be no conscription. [3a]

But other forms of punctuation may occur in such cases. For example, the appositive may be in a separate sentence (as in this sentence), or it may be enclosed in parentheses, or if it is not a clause the apposition indicator may be preceded by a comma (*cf* App III.11).

Punctuating for sentence and paragraph

III.14 The two highest separators constitute combinations of symbols. We mark off one orthographic sentence from the next by terminating it with a period, question mark, or exclamation mark, and by beginning the next with a capital letter; between the period and the capital, there will usually be a

somewhat wider space than we normally have between words. The paragraph (*cf* 19.28) is also marked off by a combination of symbols in most writing: leaving blank the remainder of the line in which it ends; indentation (also called 'indention') of the line beginning the new one; and (especially in typescript) a slightly larger space between lines at this point. At the beginning of a chapter or section, the first paragraph normally (as in this book) begins without indentation, and in some styles of writing this practice (called 'block style') is followed with all paragraphs; as a result, if the end of the previous paragraph happens to coincide with the end of a line, the new one may not in effect be marked at all, unless the convention is adopted of a larger space between lines.

Note [a] A period is usually called a 'full stop' in BrE. It is also called a 'full point' or (informally) a 'dot'.
[b] Numbered sections of a chapter, as in this book, are sometimes called 'paragraphs' even where they comprise more than one 'punctuation' paragraph.
[c] On capitals at the beginning of letters and direct speech, *cf* App III.11, App III.21.
[d] Reverse indentation (indentation of all lines back from the first) is common for entries in reference books, for example dictionaries and encyclopedias, for entries in glossaries and indices of books, and for indented examples that require more than one line (like sentences [1], [2], [3], and [3a] in App III.13).
[e] In official letters, paragraphs are often marked by a larger space without indentation.

III.15 It was stressed in App III.2 that punctuation was linked primarily to grammar rather than to prosody. This does not mean that the sentence and the paragraph, as punctuated, are obvious grammatical units. Although they are co-terminous with one or more grammatical units and hence no grammatical units extend beyond their limits, they do not necessarily consist in their entirety of a grammatical unit. The decision to coordinate several independent clauses within one sentence or to separate them as different sentences, with or without formal sign of their logical connection, is dependent largely upon the style of material one is handling or indeed upon the personal preference of the writer. Guidance on sentence limits which invokes criteria such as 'completeness', 'independence', 'intelligibility as a single whole' is essentially circular, since (a) the writer will necessarily have to decide for himself how 'complete' to make any part of his argument, and (b) punctuation of itself imposes the impression of completeness and independence on units marked off as sentences and conversely helps to show connection between units grouped within sentence limits.

Such points apply even more obviously in the case of paragraph limits. Rather than attempting to recommend an ideal size of paragraph or models for its ideal identity, we should note that the paragraph enables a writer to show that a particular set of sentences should be considered as more closely related to each other, and that those grouped within one paragraph are to be seen as a whole in relation to those that are grouped in the paragraphs preceding and following (*cf* 19.28).

Note Short paragraphs provide convenient resting places during reading and aesthetically pleasing contrasts between print and white space. Both considerations account for the shorter paragraphs in the columns of newspapers and magazines, the more popular publications tending to have the shortest paragraphs.

Separation of included units

Included units and correlative marks

III.16 A unit that is loosely attached to the rest of the sentence may be, and sometimes must be, marked off by punctuation, usually commas. The decision to mark off the adverbial in [1] requires not one comma but two:

Crocodiles, in fact, do not particularly like human flesh. [1]

The punctuation marks for inclusion are CORRELATIVE: the first sign indicates the beginning and the second the end of the included unit. But one of the correlative commas may be superseded by a punctuation mark above it in the hierarchy (*cf* App III.3), the punctuation system not permitting the cooccurrence of the comma with marks further up. Thus, one of the correlative commas is absent in [1a] and [1b]:

In fact, crocodiles do not particularly like human flesh.
[*, *In fact*, . . .] [1a]
Crocodiles do not particularly like human flesh, in fact.
[* . . . *in fact*,.] [1b]

Examples [1a] and [1b] exemplify the general rule that one of the correlative marks is omitted if it coincides with a higher mark. Thus, there would not be an initial correlative comma in [1a] if *in fact* were preceded by a dash, colon, or semicolon; and similarly there would not be a final correlative comma in [1b] if *in fact* were followed by a dash, colon, or semicolon. Correlative dashes obey the same rule:

To change the subject, if I may – where are we eating tonight?
[* – To change the subject, if I may – . . .] [2]
The universe is expanding – that is, the galaxies are receding from each other at immense speeds. [*. . . at immense speeds –.] [3]
One theme represents the outer world – the world of battles and banquets; it is seen from a distance, and is quite distinct from the quieter spiritual life in the monastery. [*. . . battles and banquets –;] [4]

It will be noticed that the final correlative comma after *if I may* in [2] and the initial correlative comma before *that is* in [3] are superseded by a dash.

On the other hand, parentheses (and other types of bracketing), which are outside the hierarchy of punctuation marks, must always be present in pairs. They represent a sharp interruption and therefore appear medially or finally within the interrupted unit, but not initially. For those reasons, parentheses may cooccur with other punctuation marks that follow them:

You should see Ruth (my niece), when you are next in Washington.
I spoke about the incident to Ted Wilson (the manager of the factory) – but he denied seeing anything unusual.

When the parentheses enclose one or more sentences, the final termination point is placed within the closing parenthesis (*cf* App III.20).

Any of the pairs of correlative marks may enclose any other pair, but different pairs tend to be used; otherwise it would be difficult to identify the pairs of commas, as in [5]:

?The operation, I was convinced, after some resistance, by my doctor, had now become essential. [5]

More understandable would be [5a] or [5b]:

The operation (I was convinced, after some resistance, by my doctor) had now become essential. [5a]
The operation, I was convinced (after some resistance) by my doctor, had now become essential. [5b]

One of the correlative marks, as we have also seen earlier in this section, may be superseded by a mark above it in the hierarchy:

Jason, during a hundred hours of testing – an hour a day, five days a week – expanded his powers of recall over ten times. [6a]

But the punctuation hierarchy would be clearer here if it corresponded with the grammatical hierarchy, thereby enabling the higher marks to be visible:

Jason – during a hundred hours of testing, an hour a day, five days a week – expanded his powers of recall over ten times. [6b]

Note A common error in manuscript punctuation by inexperienced writers is to omit the first correlative comma in a medial included unit, *eg*: *Crocodiles in fact, do not* . . . The error reflects the fact that in normal speech the medial included unit is not necessarily separated prosodically from the previous part of the sentence, though it may be so separated from the following part (*cf* App III.9).

Correlative commas

Commas with adverbials

III.17 Loose attachment of an adverbial to a sentence is linked to adverbial mobility: just as the least mobile are normally those with closest and most indispensable connection with the rest of the sentence, so the least mobile are those least requiring separation by commas:

He put the chair between you and me. [1]
?Between you and me he put the chair. [1a]
He failed the exam, between you and me. [2]
Between you and me, he failed the exam. [2a]

On the distinction between types of adverbials, *cf* 8.24.

Even those adverbial elements that are so closely related to the rest of the sentence as not to need commas in final position, however, often need to be thus separated when they are in initial or medial positions if they are clauses or phrases longer than two or three words:

Some scientists have succeeded in cloning human cells in experiments at Stanford University. [3]
In experiments at Stanford University(,) some scientists have succeeded in cloning human cells. [3a]
Some scientists, in experiments at Stanford University, have succeeded in cloning human cells. [3b]

You'll succeed if you try hard. [4]
If you try hard(,) you'll succeed. [4a]

Loosely attached adverbials are infrequent in medial positions, except for conjuncts (*cf* 8.134*ff*) such as *however*, or *moreover*.

As [3a] and [4a] show, the comma is often optional after many adverbials in *I* position, but it becomes obligatory with participle and verbless clauses, and is normal with infinitive clauses:

Knowing my views, they refrained from discussing the subject.
Out of breath, he slumped down in a chair.
To keep the star moving so quickly and in such a small orbit, its invisible travelling companion would have to be at least nine times more massive than the sun.

The comma is desirable on occasion where its absence might cause the reader to stumble. Thus, although the adverbial has identical function in [5] and [5a], it is necessary in the latter to avoid misleading the reader into thinking at first that the prepositional phrase is longer than it is:

After dark(,) I strolled around the square. [5]
After dark, men and women strolled around the square. [5a]

For a comparable reason, a comma would be preferable in

He tried in vain to find her, in his underclothes.

And although no ambiguity or comic overtones could affect the following example, the sequence 'in in' would seem less confusing with the separation provided by a comma (*cf* App III.9):

They hurried on in, in great excitement.

Note [a] Predication adjuncts (*cf* 8.26*ff*) are sometimes fronted. Since they are strongly integrated within clause structure, they cannot be followed by a comma (*cf* also App II.16):
*To the very top of the mountain, they climbed.
[b] Somewhat analogous to the use of the comma for preposed adverbials is its use in index entries to mark a surname moved from its normal end-position: *cf*: *John Quincy Adams*, but *Adams, John Quincy*.

III.18 In general, punctuation is determined less by the length of an adverbial or its structure (whether a single word, a phrase, or an entire clause) than by its function. Indeed, a finite clause may often need marking off to a lesser extent than a shorter nonfinite or verbless clause:

Though he was suffering great pain(,) he walked home alone.
Though suffering great pain, he walked home alone.
Weary and impatient, she left the meeting early.

Often, however, mere length of an adverbial will make it seem more loosely linked to the rest of the sentence than a short one and so seem to need marking off by a comma; and length may also make punctuation desirable for sheer clarity's sake:

If you prefer to wake up gradually with a cup of hot coffee rather than

with fifty laps in a cool pool, you should set aside some time for swimming before lunch or after work.

Function, however, is usually more important than length. Thus even where an initial adjunct needs no comma, as in [1], the same adverb as conjunct (*cf* 8.134*ff*) requires one, as in [1a]:

Again he felt hesitant. [= 'Once more . . .'] [1]
Again, he felt hesitant. [= 'It should be added that . . .'] [1a]

Here is another case where punctuation somewhat mirrors the prosodic difference, since [1] would usually constitute one tone unit in speech (*cf* App II.11) while there would be two for [1a]:

A|GÀIN he felt 'hesitant| [1]
A|GĂIN|he|felt HÈSitant| [1a]

Nonrestrictive adjunct clauses (*cf* 15.23) are punctuated in final position, though not invariably in initial position:

Betty will help you, when she has finished her own work.

Disjuncts (*cf* 8.121*ff*, 15.20*f*) tend to be punctuated with a comma in final position, particularly when the subordinator can also introduce an adjunct clause. Contrast the disjunct clause in [2] with the adjunct clause in [3]:

He's at home, because I've just spoken to him. [2]
He's at home because he's not feeling well. [3]

Clauses introduced by *for* are always preceded by a comma or a mark above it in the hierarchy, partly to differentiate the conjunction from the preposition *for* and partly because the conjunction is close to being a coordinator (*cf* 13.18*f*):

I am convinced that you will find none better to advise you, for she has had much experience in industrial negotiations.

Commas with other units

III.19 Adverbials are not, however, the only common types of included units. Others are nonrestrictive modifiers (*cf* 17.3), including nonrestrictive relative clauses (*cf* 17.22) and nonrestrictive appositions (*cf* 17.68), interpolated coordinate constructions (*cf* 13.95*ff*), and analogous parallel structures:

Susan Fenton, who used to work with me, has moved to New York.
The other man, David Johnson, refused to make a statement.
The portrait, painted by a local artist, was unveiled before a large audience.
The person we need, the person we have been waiting for, is someone adequately trained in business management.
She is a close friend to, and supporter of, the Republican candidate.
He should, or rather must, attend better to his studies.

So also with vocatives (*cf* 10.52*ff*):

John, I think you would be wiser not to go.

But how, ladies and gentlemen, are we to proceed to a freer society?
Help yourself, Carol.

Dashes and parentheses

III.20 Although commas are the only items so far illustrated, two other common sets of correlative punctuation marks can be used to mark the separation of included units when the units are positioned medially or finally. They are dashes and parentheses, the latter known in BrE also as 'brackets' (*cf* Note [a] below):

The other man – David Johnson – refused to make a statement.
The other man (David Johnson) refused to make a statement.
I have not yet obtained a statement from the other woman – Ann Taylor.
I have not yet obtained a statement from the other woman (Ann Taylor).

The comma is the least obtrusive correlative mark and for that reason is preferred unless there is a disruption of the syntactic structure of the clause, or the danger of confusion with other neighbouring commas or of failure to mark adequately a rather lengthy inclusion. In these cases dashes or parentheses are preferable, except that dashes tend to give a somewhat more dramatic and informal impression, suggesting an impromptu aside, rather than a planned inclusion:

At that time, the students – goodness knows for what reason – reversed their earlier, more moderate decision, and a big demonstration was planned. [1]

In [1] the inclusion is sufficiently informal an interruption to justify dashes rather than parentheses.

Under certain circumstances, even short included items tend to be enclosed by parentheses. In formal writing, for example, they are used for cross-references and figures denoting life span:

We shall see below (*p* 63) that Eleanor's first love was William Bevan (1812–73).

and for figures or letters used in lists or for examples.

Dashes or parentheses are used if the unit included in the sentence is an independent clause:

Enterprising businessmen sell earthworms and their castings (they are one of the best soil conditioners) in hundreds of retail stores across the US and Canada. [2]

A period does not conclude a parenthetic sentence when that sentence is inserted within another sentence, as in [2], though a question or exclamation mark may do so (*cf* App III.23). If a sentence or set of sentences is included as a digression in a paragraph, parentheses are required and final punctuation marks precede the closing parenthesis, as in [3]:

They decided that it was impossible to recreate Vietnam battle

scenes, since the war was still on and they felt that the Philippines were an unacceptable substitute. (*Apocalypse Now*, made in the Philippines, did not change their feeling.) So they set to work on a home front drama. [3]

Note [a] In BrE usage parentheses are generally called 'brackets', a term reserved in AmE for what in BrE are called 'square brackets'; they are sometimes used when inclusions have to be made within inclusions:

'. . . the other man (David Johnson [*alias* Wilson])'

[b] 'Square brackets' are used in serious writing also to include the author's or editor's comment upon the form rather than the content:

He said that *Thursday* was his normal visiting day [italics mine].

It was stated that the heir to the property was Jon [sic] Roberts.

They are also used for explanations of the reference of pronouns:

Martin Tutin claimed that she [the Prime Minister] was chiefly responsible for the crisis.

and to replace pronouns or other omitted items in quotations:

The author claims that '[Jonathan Swift] advocated the establishment of a Language Academy to purify the English language and prevent its further deterioration'.

[c] All forms of bracketing, including the braces used in mathematics and other technical writing, { }, differ from other inclusion marks except quotation marks (*cf* App III.21) in clearly distinguishing the opening (left-hand) and closing (right-hand) items in the correlative pair, and in requiring the presence of both items. The fact that each item thus indicates independently its correlative status and that both items must be present makes parentheses the clearest of the inclusion signs and especially appropriate for lengthy inclusions.

Quotation and quotation marks

III.21 There is one further correlative pair of inclusion marks that is of great importance and in frequent use: the 'quotation marks', informally 'quotes', or 'inverted commas' ⟨esp BrE⟩. Opening and closing quotation marks are generally distinguished in print, but not in typed material and sometimes not in handwritten material.

Quotation marks may be single '. . .' or double ". . .". The latter are more usual in handwritten and typed material and in American printing; the former are more usual in British printing, but the choice lies primarily with individual printing houses. Whichever form is not used for ordinary quotation is then used for quotation within quotation:

'I heard "Keep out" being shouted,' he said. ⟨esp BrE⟩
"I heard 'Keep out' being shouted," he said. ⟨esp AmE⟩

Like parentheses, quotation marks can cooccur with other marks of punctuation, but with some differences between AmE and BrE. AmE always puts a period or a comma inside the closing quotation marks.

She enjoyed the article "Cities Are for Walking." ⟨AmE⟩
She enjoyed the article 'Cities Are for Walking'. ⟨BrE⟩
He couldn't spell "mnemonic," and therefore failed to reach the finals. ⟨AmE⟩
He couldn't spell 'mnemonic', and therefore failed to reach the finals. ⟨BrE⟩

In BrE too the period and comma are inside the closing quotation marks for direct speech with reporting clauses (*cf* 14.29):

'You are just in time,' she said. [1]

She said, 'You are just in time.' [1a]

Although the quoted sentence in [1] begins with a capital letter, it does not end with a period because the including sentence is not complete.

Both [1] and [1a] infringe a rule given in App III.9. This exception to the rule is that when the direct object is a piece of direct speech it may be (and usually is) separated by punctuation from the verb and subject (but *cf* 14.29).

Quoted matter does not always require quotation marks. In dramatic dialogue and in newspaper reports of speeches or court proceedings, speakers' names are usually followed by a colon and the quotation:

Judge Harlan: If you do not answer frankly, the jury will draw its own conclusions.
I asked myself: Where was it all leading?

And in serious writing only short quotations from other writers are put in quotation marks; longer quotations are indented and given without quotation marks.

Note [a] On the punctuation of quoted questions and exclamations, *cf* App III.24.
[b] In some writing, a quotation extending over more than one paragraph will have opening quotation marks at the beginning of each new paragraph though closing marks will occur only at the end of the entire quotation.

Light and heavy punctuation and the grammatical hierarchy

III.22 It was shown in App III.17*f* that an initial adverbial is often separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Consider, however, the following:

?Slowly, he strolled over and she smiled at him. [1]

The punctuation in [1] suggests that *slowly* applies (almost nonsensically) to both clauses. If *slowly* is intended to apply to the first clause only, the punctuation seems illogical in making a break within the first clause where there is none between the two clauses. The principle that would here influence writers is that punctuation should not work against the hierarchy of grammatical units (*cf* 2.7*ff*). Given the constituents of [1], we may feel obliged to counteract the objections by adding more punctuation:

Slowly, he strolled over, and she smiled at him. [1a]

Or we may insert the comma at the higher constituent boundary:

Slowly he strolled over, and she smiled at him. [1b]

Or perhaps we will omit internal punctuation entirely:

Slowly he strolled over and she smiled at him. [1c]

Sentence [1a] is a simple example of how once a little punctuation is admitted, more is necessary in order to preserve a consistent and logical ordering of hierarchical relationships. In preference to the heavy punctuation of sentences like [1a], writers often move in the opposite direction towards a light punctuation, just sufficient to make their sentences quickly and easily understood.

A similar tendency towards light punctuation is exemplified for adverbials in the next four sentences, but the consequences are very different:

Marilyn was the most persuasive speaker in the society, and *for that reason* was chosen to represent the society in the regional competition. [2]

The researchers say that *although the drug was successful experimentally*, it must be tested over a long period to discuss its possible side-effects. [3]

Bushes and undergrowth had blotted out the old path that led to the town, and *without the direct light of the sun to act as a compass*, I could no longer be sure of my direction. [4]

We expected an immediate reply but *in fact*, it was several months before we heard from him. [5]

In all four sentences the choices made for the light punctuation reflect the prosody rather than the grammar. The punctuation treats the part of the sentence following the conjunction as if it began a new sentence, in which case the initial correlative comma would be necessarily omitted (*cf* App III.16). In [2] correlative commas have not been used to separate the included unit *for that reason*, which would normally be so separated; instead the comma is inserted at the end of the first clause, thereby separating the coordinated predicates. In [3–5] initial correlative commas have been omitted in violation of an important punctuation rule (*cf* App III.16). Furthermore, the retention of the final correlative comma obscures the grammatical hierarchical relationships in the sentence. In each instance a conjunction (a subordinator in [3] and a coordinator in [4] and [5]) is separated from most of its clause by the comma at the end of the initial adverbial. In [3] the comma makes the major grammatical division seem to be in the middle of the *that*-clause. In [4] the coordinator *and* is thereby made to appear as if coordinating a prepositional phrase. Finally, in [5] the division between the coordinated clauses is bypassed in favour of a final correlative comma after the phrase *in fact*; here the motivation is primarily rhetorical, to place the greatest emphasis on this emphatic adverbial.

Although the light punctuation of [2–5] is incongruous grammatically, the incongruity does not lead to misinterpretation or ambiguity and the punctuation is acceptable. Indeed, heavy punctuation in [2], [4], and [5] would have the odd effect of enclosing the coordinator in commas, one for separating successive units and the other for separating included units. On the other hand, consider the effect of including the participle clause *seeing this* in the following example:

He smiled at Joan and Mary was cross. [6]
*He smiled at Joan and Mary, seeing this, was cross. [6a]

The punctuation in [6a] is unacceptable in seriously misrepresenting the hierarchy of grammatical relations: it would make the reader think at first that *and* was coordinating the two names rather than the two clauses, and so we must have:

He smiled at Joan, and Mary, seeing this, was cross.

So also, although a comma is optional in [7], it is obligatory when *in short* has been included, as in [7a]:

If this is what he seems to want(,) he can have it. [7]
If this, in short, is what he seems to want, he can have it. [7a]

Specification

Question and exclamation marks

III.23 Although in App III.2, specification was exemplified with the use of the apostrophe to mark the genitive, in many ways a more obvious example is the question mark. This indicates that the sentence it terminates is a question, whether it is interrogative or (less frequently) declarative in form:

What can be done to help these people? [1]
You are leaving already? [2]

In [1], as with other *wh*-questions, there is no necessary prosodic distinction from declarative sentences to match the punctuation contrast between period and question mark, since unmarked *wh*-questions generally have falling tones (*cf* App II.12). In [2], on the other hand, the question mark matches in writing the prosodic contrast between this sentence as question and the same sentence as statement (*cf* App II.13).

The exclamation mark (in AmE, also 'exclamation point') is more rarely used and indeed its excessive use is often taken as a sign of frivolous or immature writing. It is however quite normal in representing a sentence uttered with great emotive force, whether or not this has exclamative form:

How silly they are!
What a perceptive article she wrote!
Aren't they tall! (*cf* Note [b])
Well done!
Fire!
You don't say!

Both the question mark and the exclamation mark generally exclude the use of other separation punctuation and have the value of a period inasmuch as what follows begins with the capitalization of a new sentence. But when they co-occur with the end of quotation, they come within the quotation marks and if more of the including sentence follows, no capital letter is used:

'How tall they are!' she thought.

Both here and when they end a parenthetic sentence included within another sentence (*cf* App III.20), they differ from periods:

She paid 40 000 dollars (Isn't that over 20 000 pounds?) for a new sports car.

In this respect they are not hierarchically on the same level as the period, which could not occur in those environments. When they end an included parenthetic sentence, as above, they have only a specifying function, not a separating function.

Note [a] Sentences with exclamative form (*cf* 11.31*f*) always end with an exclamation mark. The exclamation is used in environments where there is great urgency; it serves alone, for example, in road signs as a symbol of warning. Imperative sentences generally do not end with an exclamation mark unless they represent very peremptory and urgent commands:

'Get outside!' he shouted angrily.

Likewise, vocatives ordinarily do not take exclamation marks unless they are used alone as an urgent warning or command.

[b] For pragmatic reasons, not all sentences which are interrogative in form end in a question mark. A period is often preferred if the interrogative form is operating as a request:

Would the gentleman who left a silk scarf on the manager's desk care to retrieve it from the porter's office.

On the other hand, an exclamation mark is used with exclamatory questions, such as *Aren't they tall!* (*cf* 11.22).

When a formal list of items appears at the end of a question, the question mark is omitted, since its position at the end of the list might be misinterpreted as a query on the final item:

What would you like me to send to the following people:
Sam and Mary Paton
Julian and Kate Coleman
Robert Fowler
Susan Goodman

Specification of included units

III.24 The following illustrates the use of question and exclamation marks in relation to included material:

Did you see the words {'Are you happy?' / 'You fools!'} on the wall? [1]

I saw the words {'Are you happy?' / 'You fools!'} Did you see them? [1a]

Did you see the words {'Are you happy?' / 'You fools!'} [1b]

Did you see the words 'Are you happy'? [1c]
?Did you see the words 'Are you happy?'? [1d]
*I saw the words 'Are you happy?'. [1e]
These words ('Are you happy?') were on the wall. [1f]
?These words, 'Are you happy?', were on the wall. [1g]

Though logically correct, [1d] is less acceptable than either [1c] or [1b] as a means of handling the same problem. The general rule is that only one noncorrelative mark can occur at one place. The rule is infringed more severely in [1e] than in [1d] because two types of marks co-occur.

Although they are primarily used at the end of interrogative or exclamatory sentences, there is a consciously exceptional rhetorical use of question and exclamation marks to specify doubt or surprise about individual parts of a sentence; in such use, they are often enclosed in parentheses, following the relevant item:

A further semantic (?) problem may be formulated as follows.
The old woman insisted that her name was Shirley Temple (!) and muttered something about being born in what sounded like Abbis (?) Ababa.

The question mark may sometimes precede, our practice in this book when indicating doubtfully acceptable sentences, as in [1d] and [1g]:

I think she said (?)Abbis.

Note The use of more than one question mark or exclamation mark or combinations of the two to suggest extreme doubt or surprise is confined to very informal writing such as stories for children.

Quotation marks, italics, and underlining

III.25 Quotation marks are used far more widely in manuscript and typescript than is underlining, perhaps because underlining is firmly associated with emphasis. Only those involved in the writing and production of printed material are aware that underlining in manuscript and typescript is used to represent italics in print.

In print, italics are used for the titles of works such as books, magazines, journals, newspapers, films, musical compositions, and paintings; in typescript and manuscript these may be underlined or in quotation marks. Quotation marks are generally used in all written material for parts of larger works, for example articles in journals, chapters in books, short stories, and songs.

In print, italics represent cited words or expressions:

The plural of *woman* is *women*.

In other written material, underlining may be used for this purpose, but quotation marks are more common. We indicate that words are introduced from a different style by quotation marks, as with the colloquialism in [1]:

The stranded colonel was obliged to 'hitch' a ride from a passing motorist. [1]

Words from a foreign language are indicated by italics in print and by quotation marks (less frequently by underlining) in other written material:

His slightest *jeu d'esprit* was impressive. [2]

In all material, quotation marks are used to give the meaning of an expression, as in [3]:

The word *schadenfreude*, which means 'malicious enjoyment', is quite fashionable in English. [3]

Quotation marks, as in [1] above, may indicate a hesitant or apologetic introduction of a doubtful or discordant item. Or they may indicate a term that is not fully accepted. But elsewhere they may equally imply that the item is of doubtful validity because merely alleged; in this usage they may be sly or sarcastic and match a heavy prosodic marking in speech:

I told him that his 'wife' had come and let him know by the way I said it that I didn't think she really *was* his wife. [4]

As in [4], italics in print and underlining or wriggle underlining in manuscript and typescript can be used informally to indicate emphasis. Other devices occasionally used for emphasis are capitals and (in print) bold face and small capitals.

Dashes and other specifiers of breaks

III.26 A syntactic break or anacoluthon is indicated by a dash, but naturally this device belongs largely to informal writing:

They gave him a prize for getting top marks – and a certificate as well. [1]
'I hoped that you –' His voice broke. [2]
John wasn't altogether – I thought he seemed a little unhappy. [3]

An analogous use of the dash is made to suppress (now rarely) a name or obscenity ('Mr B–'; 'F– off').

Note [a] An unfinished sentence is also frequently expressed by means of ellipsis or suspension dots or periods (normally three), which could replace the dash in [2] above, though perhaps giving the impression of trailing away rather than an abrupt break. In formal writing, the dots can indicate 'that which it is unnecessary to specify':

Take a sequence of prime numbers (1, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, . . .) and consider . . .

or the omission of parts of quoted material:

The review of the book stated, 'The author is enthusiastic at the prospect of systems by which you can call up information on your television screen . . . I can imagine governments of the future being worried about the use of such reference libraries and their influence on public opinion.'

In AmE an additional fourth period indicates that the ellipsis coincides with the end of a sentence.

[b] Stammering is sometimes informally indicated by hyphens and reduplication of letters:

'P-p-p-please t-t-try', his teeth chattered through fear and cold.

The same device is used to indicate prolongation of vowels:

'He-e-elp!' she cried.

The apostrophe

III.27 The apostrophe is most frequently used in serious writing to denote genitive singular and plural as in *the girl's* and *the girls'*; in speech these are indistinguishable from each other and from the nongenitive plural, *the girls*. In ordinary use, however, it also marks contractions in the verb phrase: *I'm*, *he's*, *we're*, *can't*, *won't*, etc. It is still very occasionally found marking the abbreviation at the beginning of such institutionalized clipped forms as *'cello* or *'flu* (*cf* App I.74). It is regularly used in *o'clock*, and it is found in such poetic contractions as *e'er* and *o'er*. In fiction or casual writing it is sometimes used to indicate nonstandard or casual pronunciation in such forms as *goin'*, *'cos* ⟨BrE⟩, and *'cause*. It is similarly used informally for contraction of year numbers, especially in figures; thus for *1984* we have *'84*.

The apostrophe is frequently used before the plural *s* with items which lack institutionalized spelling:

There are three i's in that word. [1]
the late 1990's [2]

But more often the *s* is affixed without an apostrophe (*1990s*) if there is no danger of misreading (as there would be in example [1]).

Note The apostrophe is occasionally used (especially in manuscript) for written abbreviations that do not represent abbreviations in speech, *eg*: *pron'n* [pronunciation].

Abbreviations and the use of special symbols

III.28 Abbreviation is marked most generally by a single period following an initial letter or shortened form of a word, as in *Gen. Bradley*, *U.K.*, *i.e.*, *e.g.*, *etc.* (but some printers, as in this book, conventionally italicize *ie* and *eg* without periods). When the abbreviation includes the final letter of the word abbreviated, there is a widespread convention in BrE of ignoring the need for a period: *Dr*, *Mr*, for example. Indeed, in much modern practice, abbreviation is carried out by means of word shortening without the use of periods: *etc* or *&c*, *cf*, *UN*, *USA*, *PTO*, for example (*cf* App I.73). Such abbreviations as *etc* are used sparingly in formal writing, though *RSVP* with or without periods is found almost only in formal use (on invitation cards).

The abbreviation period is never followed by a period, though it may be followed by another mark.

Note [a] For the use of numerical and mathematical expressions, *cf* 6.63*ff*.

[b] A dash (an en dash in print, *cf* App III.5 Note [a]) is an abbreviating device for a sequence:

pages 15–36 [read as 'pages fifteen to thirty-six'; in AmE, for inclusive numbering, as 'pages fifteen through thirty-six']
1985–1995 9 a.m.–5 p.m.
September 12–December 22 [also, BrE: September 12th–December 22nd]

Further abbreviation may be possible:

1985–95 pages 115–17

Cf also the following Note [c] and App III.30 for the use of the oblique stroke in abbreviation. *Cf* also 6.66*f*.

[c] In date abbreviations, numerals are separated by the oblique stroke (*cf* App III.30), dash (an en dash in print, *cf* App III.5 Note [a]), colon, or period. Thus:

7/2/84 7–2–84 7.2.84 7.ii.84 ⟨BrE⟩ 7:2:84 ⟨BrE, least frequently⟩

could all be used for '7th February 1984' ⟨BrE⟩ or 'July 2, 1984' ⟨AmE⟩. Numerals in abbreviations for time of day use colon ⟨esp AmE⟩ or period ⟨esp BrE⟩, as in:

6:30 6.30

[d] AmE has the alternatives *O.K.*, *o.k.*, *OK*, and *okay*, while BrE prefers *O.K.* and *OK* and does not use *o.k.*

Capitals

III.29 In addition to marking the beginning of a sentence, initial capitals are used for specifying proper nouns (*cf* 5.60*ff*); for example, persons, places, works of literature, days of the week, months of the year (but not usually the seasons), and the planets (but not the earth, the sun, or the moon). They are also used for accompanying appositional titles and descriptors and for status markers (*cf* 10.53) in vocatives:

John Mills is a colonel. BUT He is Colonel John Mills.
These are the forms you wanted, Principal.

So also (but in AmE with periods at the ends of the abbreviations):

Those present included Mr Jones, Miss Graham, Dr Rabin, Mrs Willis, Professor Maisky, and Mrs McDonald.

Initial capitals are commonly used for the names of organizations and institutions:

the Home Office
the Environmental Protection Agency
the Social Security System
British Airways

the Congressional Budget Office the Mineworkers Union

They are occasionally used to mark key words in formal discourse, especially at the point where such words are introduced for the first time:

> The next problem, that of Ultraviolet Radiation, is one on which considerable progress has been made.

An alternative, used in this book, is for the whole word to be printed in SMALL CAPITALS. Initial capitals for key words are a particular feature of legal usage:

> The Company's Registrars must receive a copy of the Letter together with the Form of Renunciation.

At the opposite extreme, capitals are sometimes used in light or facetious writing to indicate spoken prominence for the words so specified:

> 'She Who Must Be Obeyed,' he growled ironically.
> 'I must certainly see the Man of the House,' she announced pompously.
> 'And what do YOU want?' he shouted.

Initial capitals are used as a sign of respect in *God* and very commonly in nouns (*Lord*, *Creator*, *Supreme Being*, *Almighty*) and 2nd and 3rd person pronouns referring to God.

Capital letters also appear in the specification of many abbreviations, as we saw in App III.28, whether the items abbreviated are proper nouns (where the use of initial capitals is normal) or not, as usually in *RSVP* or *PTO* ('Please turn over the page', ⟨BrE⟩).

Note [a] Initial capitals or capitals throughout the word are commonly used in block language (for example, telegrams, notices, headlines; *cf* 11.45*ff*).
[b] Initial capitals are used in personification, thereby indicating that the words are to be considered as names:
Discretion fought with Valour and was triumphant.
[c] In the Middle Ages, the letters *i*, *j*, and *y* were used to some extent interchangeably and it is for complicated reasons of paleographical preference (rather than the egocentric immodesty it might suggest) that capital *I*, itself an alternant of *j*, emerged as the regular spelling of the 1st person singular pronoun.
[d] Publishing houses have a strong tradition for distinguishing capitals in titles, generally excluding short closed-class words (*cf* 2.39):
To the End of Time

Miscellaneous minor conventions

III.30 Lesser punctuation conventions may be grouped as (a) chiefly technical, and (b) formulaic:

(a) 1. Parenthesized figures or letters commonly distinguish parts of an exposition, like the (a) and (b) in this section; *a*) and *b*), and *a*. and *b*., are common variants.

2. The oblique stroke (also called 'slant', 'slash', 'solidus', 'virgule') is used to indicate abbreviation and also to specify alternatives and subsectioning:

the academic year 1985/6
c/o [in postal addresses, read as 'care of']

students and/or staff
Rule A/32

Cf also App III.28 Note [c].

3. **Bold face** draws special attention to an item.

4. In manuscripts and typescripts a caret (⁄ or ∧) indicates the place where material in the margin or between the lines is to be inserted.

(b) A new line may specify the formulaic termination of a letter before the signature on a further new line. This convention requires a capital at the beginning of the formula and a comma at the end:

Yours sincerely, ⟨esp BrE⟩
Sincerely yours, ⟨esp AmE⟩

A new line (often indented) is also used to specify each major item in the structure of postal addresses, except that city and state appear as one line in AmE practice; again each line except the last may terminate with a comma, but a 'light punctuation' variant is also possible and is becoming more common:

26 Park Drive Portsmouth, RI 02480 USA	53, Camden Gdns., London, NW11 9HY, England.

Note [a] The symbol ✓ is a tick ⟨BrE⟩ or check ⟨AmE⟩ used to check that an item or point has been noted or accepted. It is also used in BrE to indicate that a point is correct (for example, by a teacher on a student's paper), whereas in AmE it normally indicates that the point is incorrect. In BrE, and sometimes in AmE, the symbol × is used to indicate an incorrect point (read as 'cross' in BrE and as the name of the letter *x* in AmE).
[b] Prefixing a name by a cross indicates a church dignitary. Suffixing a name by an obelisk (†) indicates that the person is dead.
[c] The word *number* is abbreviated as *No.* ⟨BrE⟩ and symbolized as # ⟨AmE⟩.

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Accounts of AmE punctuation practice are given in Meyer (1983); Prentice-Hall (1974), pp 99–239; Summey (1949); University of Chicago Press (1982), pp 131–55; and US Government Printing Office (1973), pp 7–250; and of BrE practice in Carey (1957); Hart (1974); and Partridge (1977). AmE and BrE conventions are compared in a final chapter by John W. Clark in Partridge (1977). Frequency data for an AmE corpus is cited from Meyer (1983). Beaugrande (1983), pp 192–213, discusses the motives for punctuation.

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Index

The alphabetical arrangement of the index is word-by-word. Three kinds of entry are included: abbreviations for grammatical categories used in the *Comprehensive*; lexical items which have been treated within classified lists, or which have been the focus of discussion; and general concepts. Where homonymy occurs, abbreviations precede lexical items, which precede general concepts. Head words are assigned word-class labels where necessary, to avoid ambiguity.

In all entries, references are to section numbers, not pages. A reference to a section implies reference to any Notes accompanying that section. Where n follows a section number, the reference is to the Note(s) alone. Major references are given in italics. Cross-reference to another entry is indicated by (→).

Within lexical entries, single word items are given first, sometimes followed by subheadings concerned with usage. Multi-word or inflectionally derived forms follow these in parentheses, the items being arranged alphabetically in run-on paragraphs. Parentheses within parentheses enclose optional elements.

In multi-word items, the symbol (~) is used to indicate the place of the head word or morpheme: for example, under *speak*, (~ *about*) should be read as *speak about*; (*so to* ~) should be read as *so to speak*; and (*to* ~ *of*) should be read as *to speak of*. The ~ symbol is also used before bound morphemes: for example, under *absolute*, (~*ly*) should be read as *absolutely*. (. . .) refers to an unspecified part of a construction: for example, under *though*, (~ . . .) refers to a construction beginning with the word *though* and followed by a wide range of possibilities; under *before*, (. . . ~) refers to a construction ending with the word *before* and preceded by a wide range of possibilities.

A

A → adverbial
A_o → adverbial (object-related)
A_s → adverbial (subject-related)
a → article (indefinite)
a (as conjunct) 8.137
a- (prefix) I.21, 30
(preposition) 8.29
-a nouns 5.94
-a plurals 5.95, 98
à la 9.10n; 17.60n
a-words 7.10–11
see also: adjective, adverb
aback 16.2
abattoir I.13
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see also: prepositional phrase, question, tag
abbreviation 5.66n, 81; 6.65, 66, 69; 10.37n; 17.73; I.15, 23n, *73*; III.27, *28–30*
see also: coordination
abide(d) 3.18; 10.61n
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Basic English Grammar

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A Wiley Brand

by Geraldine Woods

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Basic English Grammar For Dummies

Visit www.dummies.com/cheatsheet/basicenglishgrammar to view this book's cheat sheet.

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Introduction

You want to send a letter to your aunt. She is very strict about proper grammar and spelling. This is what you write:

> Dear Aunt Louise,
>
> ~~I wanted I would like I want to thank~~
>
> Thank you for ~~you're your'~~
>
> Thank you for the ~~presant pressent~~ gift.

By now, the notepaper is a mess, and so are you. If this sounds like your life, you are not alone. Many people struggle when they must write or speak formally. Fortunately, help is on the way. In fact, it is already here, in the book you are reading.

English grammar is not a mystery. It is a set of traditions and patterns of language handed down through the years. Anyone can learn the rules of Standard English. *Basic English Grammar For Dummies* explains what you need to know. With practice and the information in this book, you can express yourself confidently and correctly. Even Aunt Louise will be pleased!

About This Book

As I wrote this book, I followed For Dummies traditions. I also made some patterns myself. Every time I introduce a grammar term, I italicize and explain it. If I write *noun*, for example, I tell you a *noun* is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea. Do not be afraid! In *Basic English Grammar For Dummies*, I use very few grammar terms. As often as possible, I explain what you need to know in normal, nonteacher language. I also underline some words or phrases that you should pay close attention to.

To help you pick up important points quickly, I frequently place information in lists. Every item in a list begins with a little check mark. The key idea appears in boldface (extra-dark type). Examples illustrate every rule. Keep an eye out for these examples, centered alone on a line. If I mention an idea but do not explain it immediately, I direct you to a chapter that contains more

information.

Although this book focuses on grammar, I could not resist throwing in some vocabulary builders. A strong vocabulary makes your writing more interesting. Look for gray boxes, called sidebars, if you want to learn new words. If your vocabulary is already in good shape, ignore the gray boxes and go right to the text.

Foolish Assumptions

I do not know who you are, but I have already spent some time with you — the reader I imagine. When I write, I keep you, the reader, in my mind. I imagine you holding a yellow For Dummies book or an e-reader. This is how I see you:

- You know the language, but you are open to learning more.
- You want a firmer grasp of the rules of Standard English, the formal language of educated people.
- You are busy. You do not want to waste time memorizing facts you will never need.
- You enjoy a little humor.

That is everything I assume about you. Have I described you accurately? I hope so.

Icons Used in This Book

Flip through *Basic English Grammar For Dummies.* Many little drawings appear in the margin. Those pictures are called *icons.* Icons alert you in these ways:

This icon signals a shortcut or an extra bit of information. A tip is a whisper in your ear, helping you master a grammar rule.

This icon tells you where errors often pop up, so you can avoid mistakes.

For every topic, you find a few questions labeled with this icon. Take the quizzes to check whether you have mastered the material. Answers follow every quick quiz. (No peeking allowed.)

Key ideas appear with this icon.

Beyond the Book

Like me, you probably spend a lot of time on the Internet. I have placed extra material there, to add to what you find on the screen of your e-reader or between the paper covers of *Basic English Grammar For Dummies.* Here is what you get, all for free:

- **Cheat Sheet:** Yes, I know you are honest. You do not cheat on tests or at work. You could use a little help sometimes, though. The Cheat Sheet lists essential information from this book. Print it out and tape it to your desk or put it in your pocket. Glance at the Cheat Sheet at www.dummies.com/cheatsheet/basicenglishgrammar when you want to refresh your memory about key grammar rules.
- **An extra Part of Tens:** All For Dummies books, including this one, end with the Part of Tens. Two chapters in this book explain ten ways to improve your writing skills and ten mistakes that wreck your sentences, respectively. You can read an extra Part of Tens online at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar. That one lists ten ways to polish your writing. With this online Part of Tens, you move beyond grammar and into style. You see how to create sophisticated sentences. Like designer clothing, well-made sentences attract positive attention.
- **Articles:** I love language, and I have more to say about every topic in this

book. Plus, the rules of Standard English are not carved in stone. They are changing right now, adapting to new means of communication such as smartphones, tablets, and the like. Fortunately, the Internet gives me space for in-depth discussions of old grammar rules and reports of new developments. Look for articles that tell you a little bit more about parts of speech, parts of a sentence, new media, and other topics. For example, do you know how to combine words and images for a presentation? Would you like to learn whether to capitalize school years, seasons, and historical eras? Check www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar to find articles on these topics, and more.

Where to Go From Here

You do not have to read *Basic English Grammar For Dummies* in order. Nor do you have to read the entire book. You can, of course. If you do, you will be my favorite reader.

I realize, however, that you are busy. You probably want to select just what you need. To get started, take a close look at the Table of Contents. Mark off topics that interest or puzzle you. You should also take a look at the table at the end of Chapter 2, which presents common grammar issues and tells you which chapters explain them. Read the chapters you have selected.

Another way to personalize your approach to grammar starts with the quizzes in each chapter. Try some. If you get every question right, feel free to skip that section. (Also, take a moment to pat yourself on the back for a job well done.) If the quiz stumps you, spend some time in that section of the book. Read the explanations, and glance at related material in other chapters.

If you are facing a specific task — a school report or a work presentation, perhaps — turn to Part V. There you find information about common writing formats. Check out the online material, too.

No matter which path you choose to follow through *Basic English Grammar For Dummies*, you will arrive at the same place. You will be a stronger, more confident writer and speaker.

Part I

Getting Started with Basic English Grammar

For Dummies can help you get started with lots of subjects. Visit www.dummies.com to learn more and do more with *For Dummies*.

In this part …

- Identify the elements of proper English.
- Explore the format of everyday writing tasks.
- Become familiar with common errors.
- Learn when breaking the rules of Standard English is acceptable.
- See how to take advantage of computer programs that check your spelling and grammar.

Chapter 1

Getting a Grip on Grammar

In This Chapter

- Surveying the basic elements of grammar
- Watching out for punctuation and spelling
- Coping with everyday writing tasks

Lots of people groan when they hear the word grammar. They think that grammar is just a long list of picky rules. Who cares if you say *had gone* or *went?* Why worry about the choice between *I* and *me?* These issues can seem silly. Wouldn't it be better to spend time searching for a cancer cure?

Yes, grammar is often picky. Certainly, the world needs more than grammar — much more! Yet proper language does matter. Rightly or wrongly, many people judge your intelligence and ability based on the way you speak and write. Better jobs and higher grades often go to those who follow the rules. In this chapter, you survey key elements of Standard English — grammar, spelling, and much more.

Getting to Know the Elements of Proper English

When you bake a cake, you need all the right ingredients. If you forget one, the cake is tasteless. English has a number of ingredients, too. You cannot ignore any if you wish to express yourself correctly. Here are the ingredients of proper English:

- **Parts of speech:** Words are like people. Both base a portion of their identity on the work they do. Words that name people or things, for example, are *nouns*. English teachers call the identity of a word the *part of speech*. Understanding how to select the appropriate part of speech is an important aspect of grammar.

- **Parts of a sentence:** Words seldom like to be alone. (This is another quality that words and people have in common.) When words join together, they form *sentences.* Complete sentences are essential in formal writing.
- **Mechanics:** Surprised? Usually, mechanics repair cars and other machines. In language, the term *mechanics* refers to the little things that help readers understand what you mean. Spelling and capitalization are included in mechanics. So is *punctuation*, the placement of periods, commas, question marks, and other symbols. Without proper mechanics, your writing suffers.
- **Word order:** In English, location partly determines meaning. *The dog bit John* is different from *John bit the dog.* In the first version, the dog is in trouble. In the second, John has a problem. You should know the rules that govern the placement of words.
- **Word choice:** Some words sound alike (*eye* and *I*, for example). Others are nearly twins (for instance, *affect* and *effect*). Selecting the wrong word can wreck your writing.
- **Word forms:** Today *I walk.* Yesterday *I walked.* The form of the word *walk* changes to reveal the time period of the action. Knowing the correct form is essential.

These are the main ingredients that cook up proper English.

Did you go to grammar school?

In the Middle Ages, the word *grammar* meant education. The term applied to all sorts of learning, not just to rules of the language. This old definition lasted a long time. When I was a child, quite a few centuries after the Middle Ages ended, I attended *grammar school.* I did study English grammar during grades one through eight. I also had lessons in math, history, science, and many other subjects. Now, children enroll in *elementary* or *primary* school, not grammar school. Even so, the link between proper English usage and education remains strong.

Building Language, Block by Block: Parts of Speech

According to one survey, the English language includes more than one million words. All those words can be sorted into one of eight boxes: the *parts of speech.* Take a look at the Big Eight:

- Nouns
- Pronouns
- Verbs
- Adjectives
- Adverbs
- Prepositions
- Conjunctions
- Interjections

Not every box has the same number of words in it. The *interjection* container is light. The *noun* and *verb* containers are huge. The other boxes fall somewhere in between.

Just to give you an idea how these parts of speech look within a sentence, here are some examples. The parts of speech are underlined and labeled:

> Nora likes algebra. (*Nora* and *algebra* are nouns.)
>
> I told you the story already. (*I* and *you* are pronouns.)
>
> The baby shook the rattle. (*Shook* is a verb.)
>
> Great speeches require intense practice. (*Great* and *intense* are adjectives.)
>
> Glen wrote his name carefully and correctly. (*Carefully* and *correctly* are adverbs.)
>
> A play by that author received great reviews from the critics. (*By* and *from* are prepositions.)
>
> Nora and Fred like opera, but Sal prefers jazz. (*And* and *but* are conjunctions.)
>
> Wow, those tickets are cheap! (*Wow* is an interjection.)

You may ask, “Why should anyone bother labeling parts of speech?” Good

question! Most of the time, you think about the meaning of a word, not its part of speech. Most of the time, your writing is correct. However, some important grammar rules depend upon knowing the difference between one part of speech and another. For example, an *adjective* is a word that describes people, places, or things. An *adverb* is also a description, but it cannot do an adjective's job.

Take a look at these examples. Pay close attention to the underlined words:

WRONG: Today the weather is <u>beautifully</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Beautifully* is not the proper part of speech for this spot in the sentence. *Beautifully* is an adverb. You need an adjective here.

RIGHT: Today the weather is <u>beautiful</u>.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The adjective *beautiful* works well here.

WRONG: Bill and Tina <u>agenda</u> the next meeting.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Agenda* is a noun. You need an action word (a verb).

RIGHT: Bill and Tina <u>wrote</u> the agenda for the next meeting.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The verb *wrote* provides the action. *Agenda* correctly appears as a noun.

WRONG: The puppy lifted <u>it's</u> paw.

WHY IT IS WRONG: You need a pronoun in this spot. *It's* means "it is."

RIGHT: The puppy lifted <u>its</u> paw.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Its* is a pronoun.

WRONG: The rumor spread <u>threw</u> the class.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Threw* is a verb. You should not have an action word here.

RIGHT: The rumor spread <u>through</u> the class.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The verb is gone. In its place you have a preposition, a word that relates ideas. In this sentence, it relates *spread* and *class*,

showing where the rumor *spread*.

In Part II, you find in-depth information on every part of speech. Well, every part of speech except for *interjections*. An *interjection* is a word that briefly comments on the rest of the sentence. *Ouch*, *wow*, and *oh* are interjections. I do not provide in-depth commentary on interjections. They have no depth! They simply add a little interest to your conversation.

Every dictionary tells you the part of speech of the word, usually right in front of the definition. Some words may have several labels, because they change their identity in different sentences. For more information on how to understand every part of a dictionary definition, see Chapter 21.

Making Sentences

A judge sentences criminals to prison. There, criminals must follow many rules. You may feel that English sentences are prisons, too. So many rules apply to them! I am just kidding. English sentences are definitely *not* prisons. They are structures to hold your thoughts. They help your reader pick apart one idea from another. Take a peek at this paragraph:

> going to the beach bad idea no pets allowed want take the dog he does not bite you know kind and friendly he is to the park instead

Oh, my! In that paragraph, all the ideas are jumbled together. It resembles a closet with no hangers. The clothes are impossible to find.

Take another look at the same paragraph, this time with proper sentences:

> Going to the beach is a bad idea. No pets are allowed. I want to take the dog. He does not bite. You know how kind and friendly he is. We should go to the park instead.

This one is easier to understand, isn’t it? The extra words, capital letters, and punctuation are like hangers. They organize your thoughts into complete sentences. In doing so, they sort out ideas the way hangers sort out clothing.

Complete and proper sentences are not always necessary. When you speak with your friends, for instance, you may use half-sentences.

Read this conversation. Imagine that Joe and Barbara are speaking to or texting each other:

> Joe: Want to go to the beach?
>
> Barbara: Not without my dog.
>
> Joe: Okay, the park instead.

These comments work well because Joe and Barbara are not in a formal situation. To find out when formal English is necessary and when conversational English will do, turn to Chapter 2. For more about grammar and texting, see Chapter 18.

When you do want to create grammatically correct sentences, you must pay attention to several issues. The sections that follow briefly show you these issues.

Action or being words

Every sentence has at least one word that expresses action or being. That word is a *verb*. In these sentences, the verbs are underlined:

> Candice loves her engagement ring. (*loves* = action word)
>
> Duke ate every dog biscuit in the box. (*ate* = action word)
>
> She will be pleased with your work. (*will be* = being words)
>
> Were the lights on? (*Were* = being word)

Selecting the right verb form is important. Glance at these examples. Notice the underlined verbs:

> WRONG: You was wrong.
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: The verb form *was* does not pair properly with *you*.
>
> RIGHT: You were wrong.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Were* is the verb form that matches *you.* (To learn more about this topic, see Chapter 9.)

WRONG: The mayor speaked to voters yesterday.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Speaked* is not correct in Standard English.

RIGHT: The mayor spoke to voters yesterday.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Spoke* is the irregular verb form you need in this sentence. (For more information about irregular verb forms, see Chapter 10.)

WRONG: John studying for his exam.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The verb form *studying* is not complete.

RIGHT: John is studying for his exam.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the verb is complete. (See Chapter 9 for more about these verb forms.)

As you see, you can make many mistakes with action and being words. Verbs are complicated! Do not panic. The chapters I mention in the preceding examples explain the rules you must follow.

Subjects

In a sentence, someone or something does the action or exists in the state of being. That word is the *subject.* Notice the underlined subjects in these example sentences:

Cindy arrived at ten o'clock. (*Cindy* = subject)

We had sandwiches for lunch. (*We* = subject)

The sandwiches were delicious. (*sandwiches* = subject)

Do you like peanut butter? (*you* = subject)

It is smooth and sticky. (*It* = subject)

Jelly and jam go well with peanut butter. (*Jelly* and *jam* = subjects)

Most times, you know who or what you want to write about. The subject, in

other words, is usually easy to select. When the subject is a pronoun, errors often occur. Examine these examples. The underlined words are important:

WRONG: Him and John failed the Latin test.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Him* cannot be a subject.

RIGHT: He and John failed the Latin test.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *He* is a proper subject.

WRONG: Are youse ready?

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Youse* is not the plural of *you*. *Youse* is not a Standard English form.

RIGHT: Are you ready?

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *You* is Standard English. *You* is both singular (one) and plural (more than one).

WRONG: Us friends should stick together.

WHY IT IS WRONG: Us is not a proper subject.

RIGHT: We friends should stick together.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *We* is a proper subject.

Chapter 4 explains which pronouns work as subjects.

Pairing subjects with verbs can also cause trouble. Check these examples. Pay attention to the underlined words:

WRONG: Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones has been promoted.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Has been promoted* pairs up with one person. In this sentence, you have two people, *Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones*.

RIGHT: Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones have been promoted.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The verb *have been promoted* matches well with *Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones*. Both are plural (more than one).

WRONG: The list of grammar rules are too long.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The subject of the sentence is *list*, a singular word. It cannot pair with *are*, a plural verb form. Did you focus on *rules? Rules* is not the subject of this sentence. It is part of a description, *of grammar rules.*

RIGHT: The list of grammar rules is too long.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The singular verb form, *is*, pairs correctly with the singular subject, *list.*

To find out more about matching singular subjects to singular verb forms and plural subjects to plural verb forms, check out Chapter 11.

Complements and descriptions

Your thoughts are rich and varied. You want to say more than "Mary is" or "I run." Some elements, called *complements*, complete ideas. Take a peek at these example sentences. The complements are underlined:

Mary is happy.

Deborah mailed the letter.

Cathy and Drew are always nervous in the dentist's office.

Give Jean her pizza.

Did you tell Barbara the secret?

Usually, complements fall into place correctly. Pronouns can cause problems when they act as complements. (Have you noticed that pronouns are troublemakers?) For more information on complements, check out Chapter 12. To sort out pronouns, see Chapter 4.

Your writing would be very boring without descriptions. Notice the underlined descriptions in these examples:

Every morning I run through the park.

Pink paint covered the bumpy wall.

Silk thread is more expensive than cotton thread.

Wind in that area blows the fallen leaves away.

The book of speeches helped me prepare for graduation.

Singing, the choir entered the church.

As you see, descriptions come in many shapes and sizes. Chapter 6 explains what type of description is best for every situation.

Small but Important: Punctuating, Capitalizing, and Spelling

Punctuation marks, capital letters, and spelling may seem unimportant. Do not overlook these little things, though. They add more to your writing than you may expect. Take punctuation, for example. Some years ago, senators in a state government debated the placement of a comma for several hours. With the comma, the law had one meaning. Without it, the law was completely different! This section gives you an overview of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.

Punctuation

I once saw a television show in which something similar to this conversation took place:

Angel (waving a thick stack of paper): I am writing a book.

Angel's friend (looking at the first page): What is this? I cannot read it. There is no punctuation.

Angel: Oh, I will worry about that stuff later.

Angel's friend: I do not think so! You need punctuation now!

Angel's friend is right. You cannot read without punctuation, the little marks that show the reader where to pause, when someone is speaking, and so on. These are the basic punctuation marks that you should know:

- **Apostrophe:** This is a little curved hook above the line. An apostrophe, along with the letter *s*, shows possession:
    - Ellen's car (Ellen owns the car.)
    - the boys' locker room (The locker room belongs to the boys.)

- my cousin's shoes (My cousin owns the shoes.)
- the Vice President's staff (The staff belongs to the Vice President.)
- states' rights (The rights belong to the states.)

Apostrophes also shorten words:

- Annie doesn't ice skate. (Here, *doesn't* is short for *does not*)
- I'm excited that vacation is finally here. (*I'm* is short for *I am.*)
- Olivia couldn't go on the roller coaster. (In this sentence, *couldn't* is short for *could not.*)
- Isn't that lemonade too cold? (*Isn't* is short for *is not.*)

To learn more about apostrophes, turn to Chapter 14.

- **Period, question mark, exclamation point:** These three punctuation marks signal the end of a sentence. A *period* is a little dot. It follows a sentence that makes a statement. A *question mark* is made from a curve and a dot. It follows a sentence that asks a question. An *exclamation point* is a vertical line and a dot. It shows emphasis — the punctuation mark that shouts. Look at these punctuation marks in action:

  - Mary's socks are blue. (The period ends the statement.)
  - Are Tim's shoes blue also? (The question mark ends the question.)
  - No, they are not! (The exclamation point adds emphasis.)

  To learn more about these three important punctuation marks, see Chapter 13.

- **Comma:** This little curved hook starts on the line and reaches below. A comma tells the reader to pause. Notice the commas in these sentences:

  - Katie, my friend, is visiting from Chicago.
  - Katie arrived yesterday, but she has to leave tomorrow.
  - Chicago, which is in the state of Illinois, is a large city.
  - Tim, have you ever visited Chicago?

  If you read these sentences aloud, you can hear the short silences that appear at each comma. If commas trouble you, check out Chapter 15.

- **Quotation marks:** Quotation marks are pairs of curved marks that appear above the line. Their most common job is to mark off the exact words that

someone said or wrote. Notice the quotation marks in these examples:

- “Be quiet,” said the librarian.
- The children cried, “We were not very loud.”
- “In the library,” replied the librarian, “any noise is too loud.”

To use quotation marks properly, you must follow many rules. Turn to Chapter 16 for everything you need to know about quotation marks.

Capitalization

Have you ever seen a very old piece of writing? Capital letters show up in strange places. The Declaration of Independence is more than 200 years old. In the middle of one sentence, you see a famous phrase:

the pursuit of Happiness

These days, *happiness* would appear in lowercase (noncapitals). The Founders of the country could place a capital wherever they wanted. You do not have the same freedom. You must follow the rules. Glance at these situations, which require capital letters:

- **Speaker or writer:** The pronoun *I* always refers to the person who is writing. It is always capitalized. Check these examples:
  - When I am asleep, I do not snore.
  - Gene and I love to sail on the lake.
  - Do I have to pay extra for my suitcase?

  By the way, poets sometimes place the pronoun *I* in lowercase. Poets break rules whenever they wish. Outside of a poem, however, use a capital letter for *I*.
- **First word in a sentence:** A capital letter begins every sentence. The letter serves as a signal that one sentence has ended and another has begun. Read these examples:
  - Nana sings to the baby. She has a terrible voice! The baby does not mind. He loves her anyway.
  - Palm trees grow in my yard. Warm weather suits them. Rain storms water the trees. They require little care.

Are you curious about numbers? You cannot capitalize *22* or *15* or any numeral. So what happens when a number appears at the beginning of a sentence? Good question! The answer is that you should not begin a sentence with a numeral. If you need a number there, use the word:

- WRONG: 22 people live in that building.
- RIGHT: Twenty-two people live in that building.

Names: I am *Geraldine Woods*, not *geraldine woods*. Nearly all names require capital letters. (Some companies choose lowercase letters for products. The *iPad* is an example of a name that does not begin with a capital letter.)

Of course, these are not the only rules that govern capital letters. Turn to Chapter 17 for more information.

Spelling

In silly television shows, *spell* is a magic word. In grammar, *spell* is also a magic word. Spelling — placing every letter in the right spot — is important. Take a close look at the following paragraph. Can you identify five misspelled words?

> Jenny enjoys sewing. She pushs the needle into the cloth with her thum. Tina, who is makeing a new skirt, offen chats with Jenny wen they sew.

Before you check your answers, think for a moment. The preceding paragraph contains proper sentences. It clearly states the facts. Yet it is not a good piece of writing. The misspelled words turn a good paragraph into a bad one. Here are the correctly spelled words: *pushes*, *thumb*, *making*, *often*, *when*.

In Chapter 21, you find some rules for English spelling. Unfortunately, many, many English words do not follow those rules. To check your spelling, you may need help from the dictionary. Chapter 21 also explains how to understand and use the dictionary.

Many words sound the same but have different spelling and meaning. Other words are nearly alike in appearance or sound, but their definitions are not alike. Check Chapter 22 for help with these confusing words.

Facing Everyday Writing Tasks

Do you spend a lot of time sitting at a desk? If you do, you probably face writing tasks such as these:

- **School assignments:** You write an essay on an exam or for homework. You answer questions basked on a reading assignment. Perhaps you have to write a book review or a lab report. Your teacher may ask for a research paper or a short story. All these writing jobs call for good grammar. All follow patterns that are easy to learn. Knowing proper English and formatting will raise your grades.
- **Work-related writing:** You send a memo to your co-workers or to your supervisor. The boss wants a report or a presentation. Perhaps it is your responsibility to answer emails or letters from customers. In the business world, good writing is expected — and often rewarded. Grammar rules apply to every writing task in the working world. Knowing the best format for each type of writing is also important.
- **Personal writing:** Outside of school and work, you may write a note to a friend. Perhaps you must send a letter to a landlord or a government official. You probably email or text friends and family members. In many situations, informal language and nonstandard grammar are fine. In others, you need your best writing skills.

When you face an everyday writing task, you should understand the rules and traditions that apply to it. Chapters 18, 19, and 20 tell you everything you need to complete your writing work easily and effectively. Explanations of the newer forms of communication — texts and slide presentations, for example — appear in these chapters also.

Sometimes it is fine to bend the rules of grammar and to use informal language. For example, would you send this text to a friend?

Would you accompany me to the cafeteria at your earliest convenience?

Or, is this your reply when your friend asks, “Who’s there?”

It is I.

If you answered “yes,” you probably eat alone and receive very few phone calls. With friends, proper grammar may turn a fun social occasion into something more formal. To find out more about when proper English is required and when you should relax the rules, see Chapter 2.

Mom and Dad

Because the ancient Romans once ruled a huge empire, babies are born in *maternity* wards. For the same reason, fathers may take a *paternity* test to prove that they are, indeed, fathers. These words come from Latin, the language of ancient Rome. *Mater* and *matr* are word parts associated with motherhood. *Pater* and *patri* are word parts associated with fatherhood. Here are some members of this word family:

Maternity means “motherhood.” “Pregnant women go to the maternity ward.”

A **matriarch** is the “female head of a family.” “The aunts and uncles often went to Great Grandmother, the matriarch, for advice.”

Maternal means “motherly, relating to the mother.” “Her maternal feelings grew as she held her new baby.”

A **matron** is “a married woman, a woman in charge of children.” “The children in the audience were afraid of the matron, who watched them carefully.”

Paternity means “fatherhood.” “The paternity test showed that he was the baby’s father.”

A **patriarch** is the “male head of a family.” “Every Sunday, they had dinner with Oliver, the patriarch of their family.”

Paternal means “fatherly, relating to the father.” “Her paternal grandfather was ill, so she immediately flew to Florida, where her father’s family lived.”

Keep your eye out for “mom and dad” words as you read. Add any you find to your personal vocabulary list.

Chapter 2

Language in Action

In This Chapter

- Choosing the correct level of formality
- Using computer programs and smartphone apps to improve your writing
- Identifying your grammar strengths and weaknesses

English, like every language, has plenty of rules. In some situations, you must follow all the rules. In other situations, you can break a few rules. Yes, I am a grammarian. Even so, I believe that *some* rules are meant to be broken in *some* situations.

In this chapter, I explain when proper English is necessary and when it is not. I also explain how to use computer and smartphone programs to improve your command of English. Finally, in this chapter you find a checklist, so you can make a personal grammar improvement plan.

Adjusting Language to Suit Your Audience

Sometimes people speak of good and bad English. I stay away from those terms. I do not like them, because I do not believe that they are accurate. I prefer the label *Standard English* for speech and writing that follows every rule. Any other level of English breaks some rules.

You may wonder what other levels of English exist. You may also worry about learning them. You have no reason to be concerned, though. You already speak and write. You already know the language on some level.

For convenience, I sort English into three levels of formality. Take a look at this message, sent three different ways:

> Gotta go. Wanna come?

I have to go. Do you feel like coming with me?

I must leave. Would you like to accompany me?

These examples climb the stairs of language. Each step is a bit more formal. The first statement, the basement of English, is the sort of language people use when they are chatting with friends. I call this level *friendspeak.* (This is not an official term. I made it up.) The second level is also friendly, but the sentences follow more rules that those in the first. I call this level *conversational English.* The third example is grammatically correct. The language hits the highest level of formality. This level is *Standard English.* The name, which many English teachers use, comes from the fact that a standard is a rule. Standard English obeys every rule. In this section, you examine each level of language.

You may not yet know every rule of Standard English. Therefore, it may be hard at first for you to see the difference between one level of English and another. Do not worry. As you work your way through *Basic English Grammar For Dummies*, the rules will become clear.

Friendspeak

When you relax, you probably change your clothes. You take off your school or business outfit. You put on comfortable clothing. Sweats and an old t-shirt signal that you have no obligations. You can do whatever you like. You are in charge. Language works the same way. *Friendspeak*, my term for the language you use when you are off duty, shows that it is time for fun.

Friendspeak works well when the power level is balanced. The people you are talking with or writing to are your peers. Look at these two conversations. Both actually took place in my classroom:

STUDENT to TEACHER: He and I went to the gym. He did 60 push-ups. I can’t do as many push-ups as he can.

TEACHER to STUDENT: He exercises regularly. That’s why he is strong.

SAME STUDENT to ANOTHER STUDENT: Me and him went to the

gym. He did 60 push-ups, and I'm like, no way.

OTHER STUDENT: Dude, he like, lives in the gym.

These two conversations say the same thing, but not in the same way. In speaking with a teacher, the student knows that he should follow the rules. The teacher also follows grammar rules. Why? The teacher–student relationship is a formal one. In the second conversation, breaking the rules is the point. The original speaker shows that he and the other student have nothing to prove to each other. They are comfortable with each other's mistakes. In fact, they make mistakes on purpose, to show that they have a personal, friendly relationship.

Excellent grammar usually gives you an advantage in life. When you speak with friends, though, perfectly proper sentences may sound snobby. For this reason, more casual language (either *friendspeak* or *conversational English*, which I cover in the next section) is sometimes more suitable than Standard English.

I do not deal with *friendspeak* in this book. Chances are, you already know it. This level of language is fine in these situations:

- Talking with friends
- Chatting with close family members, especially those who are the same age
- Writing to friends in emails and texts

Many people use this level of English for posts on social media. This practice sounds harmless. After all, you are writing to people who, on that website, are your friends. Be careful! Employers and school officials sometimes check social media when they are considering your application for a job or for admission to a school. True, they understand that you are not aiming for perfect grammar when you post. However, if you come across as offensive or ignorant, you may hurt your chances for acceptance.

Employ *friendspeak* only when you are sure that the people you are addressing are comfortable with this type of language.

Conversational English

One step higher on the ladder of correct language is *conversational English.* Instead of sweats and t-shirts, think of conversational English as well-fitting jeans and a reasonably nice shirt. The language is comfortable, but not as messy as *friendspeak.* Conversational English is the language just about everyone uses for — surprise! — conversations. In this level of language, the people speaking probably know each other. They relax, but not completely.

I use conversational English in this book. As I write, I imagine that I am speaking with you, the reader. I pretend that I know you and that we are spending some free time together. I do not see myself as a teacher in a formal classroom situation.

Conversational English is suitable for these situations:

- Chats with friends and family
- Conversations with neighbors and other acquaintances
- Notes, emails, instant messages, letters, and texts to friends and family
- Comments posted on social media
- Informal conversations with teachers
- Remarks to co-workers

The last two items on this list are tricky. In a school or business situation, you can be friendly, but not too friendly. Suppose a teacher is in the middle of a lesson. In this situation, do not employ conversational English. Questions and remarks during class are best phrased in Standard English. If you are chatting with a teacher after class, though, you do not need formal language. At work, conversational English is fine for lunch and coffee breaks. During meetings at work, you should be more careful to follow the rules of grammar.

At work or at school, check the level of language before you speak. How formal are others' remarks? Listen, and adapt your own language to match the group's preferred style.

Standard English

Standard English is similar to the clothing you select when you want to look your best. Imagine a business suit or an outfit you would wear to a dinner party. When you employ Standard English, your readers or listeners grasp that you know the rules of grammar. You demonstrate that you have a strong vocabulary.

You should speak and write in Standard English when you are addressing someone who has more power and authority than you do. This level of English adds dignity to every interaction. It signals that you are taking things seriously and putting forth your best effort. Use Standard English for these situations:

- Business letters
- Emails to clients or colleagues
- Letters to the editor or to government officials
- Written reports (on paper or on websites)
- Memos
- Homework assignments
- Notes or emails to teachers
- Speeches, presentations, and oral reports
- Important conversations (job interviews, admissions interviews, and the like)

In any situation in which you are being judged, begin with Standard English. You can always ease up if you discover that your reader or listener prefers a different, less formal style.

In the preceding section, perhaps add "or emails." Many students today communicate with their teachers via email. (Mine do all the time, and most of

the time their grammar is atrocious!)

You have to know the rules of Standard English before you decide that it is okay to break them. As you read *Basic English Grammar For Dummies,* keep track of the rules. Practice, so you can be perfect when the need arises.

Check whether you understand the right level of English for every situation. In the first column is a remark. The second column identifies the audience for the remark. Fill in the third column.

Remark	***Listener or Reader***	***Suitable? Not Suitable?***
1. Wanna explain that again?	math professor	
2. I did not answer the customer yet.	supervisor at work	
3. A little help, please!	your cousin	
4. He's gotta ton of work now.	customer	
5. Profits and losses should be posted today.	co-worker	

Here are the answers: 1. not suitable 2. suitable 3. suitable 4. not suitable 5. suitable.

How sick is your grammar?

No, I am not talking about a sore throat. I am not checking whether you have to visit the doctor. Instead, I am using a slang word. *Sick,* which usually means not healthy, means awesome or fun in slang. *Slang* is language that a group uses to talk with each other. In fact, the group creates slang. Few outside the group understand it. That quality is the whole purpose of slang. When you make up words, you unite the group. You push others away because they do not know what you are saying. Once a slang word becomes widely known, it loses its purpose. The old word drops away, and a new slang term takes its place.

Because slang changes quickly, you must be very careful in using it. Remember, people outside the group will not understand you. Inside the group, you have to keep up. Slang that works today may be outdated by tomorrow. You will not sound cool (an older slang word). You will sound old-fashioned.

Needless to say (though I am going to say it anyway!), slang is not the right choice when you are speaking to anyone in authority. Keep slang out of business and school settings. It is for fun events only.

Getting Help from Spelling and Grammar Checkers

Do you type on a computer or a smartphone? If so, you write with a *word processing program.* This sort of program allows you to type, delete, and insert words. It also checks spelling and grammar. When you are typing, you probably see a wavy red line or another signal when you spell a word incorrectly. If you make a grammar mistake, a green line or something else pops up.

Spelling and grammar checkers can be helpful. If I type *teh* instead of *the*, I may not notice the error. The computer's alert helps me see the mistake. Then I can type *the* correctly.

However, these checkers carry risks. Here are some of them:

- Spelling checkers are loaded with lists of properly spelled English words. Not every word is on the list. If you try to correct every error that the program flags, you may make unnecessary changes. Check the dictionary if you think a word identified as wrong is actually correct.
- You can add words to the program's dictionary. For example, every time I type *smartphone*, the computer underlines it. If I type *smart phone*, the computer accepts my spelling. However, *smartphone* is now the accepted term for phones that act as mini-computers. To avoid the red line, I have to add *smartphone* to the program's list of acceptable words.

  Check the help function of the program you use for word processing. Follow the directions to add words to the program's dictionary.
- Spelling programs cannot tell the difference between words that sound alike, such as *hole* and *whole*. If you write *hymn* (a religious song) instead

of *him* (a word referring to a male), the computer accepts the mistake. (For help with these word pairs and other words often used incorrectly, see Chapter 22.)

- Many computer programs have an *autocorrect* function. The computer sees *aslo* and turns it into *also* automatically. Autocorrect is great — when it is right. When it is wrong, you end up with a message you never intended. For example, once autocorrect changed *I don't* into *Idiot*. The person who received the text was not happy to be addressed as an idiot! You can usually turn off autocorrect on your phone or computer. If you leave it on, check everything. Correct the corrections if you see a mistake!
- Most spelling and grammar programs have language and country settings. If you have the wrong setting, the program will find many errors that do not exist; it will not detect many actual mistakes. Be sure to select the right language and country before you begin to write.
- Grammar checkers detect some mistakes, but they do not catch everything. For example, if I type

  He do the work.

  the computer accepts the sentence. The proper sentence is

  He does the work.

  Computers are not as smart as people. Use your own knowledge of grammar to write properly.

The dictionary is the final authority when it comes to spelling. However, it is hard to look up a word if you don't know how to spell it. Here is where computer programs can help. If you have the right app (program) on your phone or tablet, you can say the word, which then pops up on the screen. Before you accept the spelling, take a look at the definition. Be sure the definition matches your intended meaning.

No program is perfect. Check spelling with a dictionary. Proofread your work to catch and fix grammar errors.

Recognizing Your Grammar Profile

No one else in the universe is exactly like you. Even your identical twin, if you have one, differs from you in some way. Your biology and experiences are unique. So is your grammar profile. Some parts of grammar you know very well. Other aspects of grammar may puzzle you. When you are writing a sentence with many descriptions, for example, you may wonder where to place them. Perhaps pronouns are your personal devils. Your strengths and weaknesses form your grammar profile.

Table 2-1 is a checklist of common grammar problems. These problems may stump you when you are writing. Next to each problem is a chapter number. If you say, "I know that already," consider skipping that chapter. If you say, "I need help with this one," you probably need to read the chapter listed in the "Help Needed?" column. Once you have filled out the checklist, you have a road map through *Basic English Grammar For Dummies* and a clear route to a better command of the English language.

Table 2-1 Checklist of Common Grammar Problems

Problem	***Chapter(s) Covering This Topic***	***Help Needed?***
The *amazon river* or the *Amazon River?*	3 and 17	
One monkey and two *monkies? monkeys?*	3	
That boxes or *those* boxes?	3	
You *was?* You *were?*	4	
John and *I* went? John and *myself* went?	4	
Should you go over *their* or *there?*	4	
It's snowing? *Its* snowing?	4	
He told *me?* He told *I?*	4	
the book about *I?* the book about *me?*	4	
Yesterday he *walk?* Yesterday he *walked?*	5	
I *is?* I *am?*	5	
they *jumps?* they *jump?*	5	
we *does?* we *do?*	5	
Will you *had?* Will you *have?*	5	
May be nearby? *Might* be nearby?	5	

Real good? *Really* good?	6
Henry feels *bad?* Henry feels *badly?*	6
An apple? *A* apple?	6
easier? more easier?	6
less difficult? least difficult?	6
since Tuesday? *after* Tuesday?	7
between you and *I?* between you and *me?*	7
both strict *but* kind? both strict *and* kind?	8
John sang, I danced? John sang, and I danced?	8
It snowed, *however,* I went anyway. Correct? Incorrect?	8
Cuting? Cutting?	9
John *slips?* John *is slipping?*	9
Had been asked? *Has* been asked?	10
Had *gone?* Had *went?*	10
Have *did?* Have *done?*	10
She *gone?* She *has gone?*	10
River *flow?* River *flows?*	11
pen and pencil *was?* pen and pencil *were?*	11
stick or stone *is?* stick or stone *are?*	11
Everyone *are?* Everyone *is?*	11
Here *are* three books? Here *is* three books?	11
some of the pie *was?* some of the pie *were?*	11
any of the nails *is?* any of the nails *are?*	11
It is *I?* It is *me?*	12
Call Roger and *he?* Call Roger and *him?*	12
John is. Complete sentence? Incomplete sentence?	13
the *childrens*' clothing? the *children's* clothing?	14
I *dont* know? I *don't* know?	14
boys, *girls, and* parents? boys, *girls and* parents?	15
No I will not? *No, I* will not?	15
Go *home, Bob?* Go *home Bob?*	15
Sally said, *I love that movie*. Sally said, "*I love that movie.*"	16
Director of Security? director of security?	17
mts.? Mts?	17

Text *LOL?* Text *I am joking?*	18
The problem *is:* Correct punctuation? Incorrect?	19
Sincerely Yours? Sincerely yours?	20
recieve? receive?	21
Affect your mood? *Effect* your mood?	22
Sometimes? Some times?	22
The reason is *because?* The reason is *that?*	22
Bought *only* one shirt? *Only* bought one shirt?	23
Sealing the envelope, the letter … Correct? Incorrect?	23
Can't hardly? Can hardly?	23
Can't help *but think?* Can't help *thinking?*	23
Didn't do *nothing*? Didn't do *anything?*	23

C U L8TR: Texting

Does this heading confuse you? It is a text I received. The message, translated into words, is *see you later*. Texting is awkward. The screen is tiny, and the letters are even smaller. Probably because typing on a phone is uncomfortable, people often take shortcuts when they text. The abbreviations in the heading are an example of a shortcut.

I understand the need for speed. I live in New York City, where everything moves along quickly! However, texting abbreviations are risky. Often, the person receiving the message does not understand that *g2g* means *got to go* and *imho* is short for *in my humble opinion*.

Also, these abbreviations may give the impression that you do not know proper English. When you send a text, pause before you hit send. Think about the person you are communicating with. Then decide how formal you should be. (For more information on grammar and electronic media, turn to Chapter 18.)

Part II

The Parts of Speech

Building blocks of language

You cannot build a sentence without the basic elements of language, what English teachers call the *parts of speech.* In this part, you meet all eight:

- **Nouns and pronouns:** To name people, places, things, and ideas, you need nouns, which I explain in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 addresses *pronouns,* words that replace nouns (*he, she, us,* and so forth).
- **Verbs:** Life is often filled with action, and action is expressed by a verb. Life sometimes simply *is.* Words that express states of being are also verbs. To discover everything you need to know about verbs, see Chapter 5.
- **Adjectives and adverbs:** Life — and language — would be very boring without descriptions. Chapter 6 shows you two types of descriptive words, *adjectives* and *adverbs,* and explains when each is correct.
- **Prepositions:** This part of speech creates a relationship between one idea and another. With *before, during, of, by,* and other prepositions, you show all kinds of relationships. Chapter 7 discusses prepositions in the context of your sentences and shows you how to locate them properly so that they say what you intend.
- **Conjunctions and interjections:** *Conjunctions* unite, and *interjections* inject emotion or commentary into your sentences. Turn to Chapter 8 for information on *and, because, but, although,* and other conjunctions, as well as information on interjections.

web extras For a bonus article on Parts of Speech, go online and take a look

at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar.

In this part …

- Place nouns and pronouns where they belong in your sentences.
- Discover how to indicate past, present, and future time with verbs.
- Learn how to insert descriptions and create comparisons.
- Add meaning with prepositions and interjections.
- Find out how conjunctions link ideas.

Chapter 3

People to See, Places to Go, Things to Remember: Recognizing Nouns

In This Chapter

- Spotting nouns
- Forming plurals
- Using *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* with nouns

Watch very young children learning to speak. Their first words are usually the names of important people, places, or things: *Mama*, *Dada*, *home*, or *toy*. I imagine that language started in the same way. Our ancient relatives probably talked about what mattered to them — *cave*, *fire*, or *bear*, and, of course, *Mama* and *Dada*. Parents are always important people.

In this chapter, you learn about the first part of speech that young children use — nouns. You identify nouns and sort out those that name one (singular nouns) from those that name more than one (plural nouns). You also see how to attach other words — *that*, *this*, *those*, and *these* — to nouns.

Identifying Nouns

Important people, places, and things need names. The part of speech that names them is a *noun*.

Before you do anything with nouns — change them from singular to plural or the other way around, capitalize them, or place them in sentences — you have to find them. In this section, you search for nouns when they name people, places, things or events, and ideas or emotions. Happy hunting!

Naming people with nouns

Who are you? You are, right now, a reader. You are also some of these: a man, a woman, a student, or a worker. You may be a mother or father, a son or daughter, a cousin, and a grandparent or a grandchild. Perhaps you are a famous actor. (If you are famous, please autograph something for me. I can make a lot of money selling autographs. Thank you!)

Every underlined word in the paragraph above is a general term for a person. Those words are *nouns*. Here are some other nouns for people:

singer

writer

New Yorker

lawyer

neighbor

Can you guess which nouns apply to me? I can't sing, and I know nothing about the law. I do write, and I live in a crowded building in New York. I can use writer, New Yorker, and neighbor to talk about myself. All these nouns refer to me, a person. (The word *person*, by the way, is also a noun.)

Of course, I can also use my name to talk about myself. I'm Geraldine Woods. My friends call me Gerri. (People who don't like me have names for me, too. I will not print those names here!) All names are nouns, including these:

Barack Obama

Queen Elizabeth I

Peter Popper

Mary Watson

Spider-Man

Do I have to tell you that nothing on the list applies to me? I am sorry to disappoint you, but I am not a queen (like Elizabeth I), a president (like Barack Obama), or a superhero (like Spider-Man).

Did you notice that the names in the preceding list begin with capital letters? Specific names *(John Smith)* are capitalized. General names *(customer)* are not capitalized. To find out more about when a name should be capitalized, turn to Chapter 17.

See whether you can identify the nouns in the following paragraph:

> Jenny is a plumber. She told William that her last customer, Arthur Smith, was cheap. He wanted to pay her less than Gene Muller did, and Gene is a poor man.

You should have found eight nouns: *Jenny, plumber, William, customer, Arthur Smith, Gene Muller, Gene, man.* All these words name people, so all are nouns.

Both general and specific names for people are nouns.

Naming places with nouns

Where are you? I am in my bedroom, in the corner that I use as an office, in an apartment in Manhattan in New York State in the United States of America. Recently I visited London and Madrid after retiring from my school, which is located in another area of the city.

The underlined words in the preceding paragraph are places. Words that name places, even when they are general terms, are nouns. Here are several more:

river

mountain

continent

theater

street

Names of specific places are also nouns:

Amazon River

Antarctica

Greenwich Village

Sierra Nevada

Jupiter

The places that nouns name can be very large (the *universe*) or very small (my *closet*). Size doesn't matter. (Well, size doesn't matter in grammar! You decide whether it matters in other areas.)

Capital letters do matter. The name of a specific place is capitalized *(Atlantic Ocean)*. General names of places are not *(island)*. For more information about capitalizing the names of places, see Chapter 17.

See whether you can identify the nouns in the following paragraph:

> In Canada, which is a large country in North America, he often visits Montreal, a beautiful city on the Saint Lawrence River, near Mont Tremblant, a great place to ski.

You should have identified eight nouns: *Canada, country, North America, Montreal, city, Saint Lawrence River, Mont Tremblant, place.* All these words name places (including the word *place* itself), so all are nouns.

Naming things with nouns

As I look through my window, I see many things: buildings, cars, an occasional bus, and construction on the terrace nearby, where someone has planted a tiny garden — three bushes with pink flowers.

Yes, even in the middle of New York City, you can find a garden! A garden is a thing, and so are all the underlined words in the preceding paragraph. Words that name things are nouns.

When I say “thing,” I don’t mean only things that you can buy in a store and put on a shelf. You probably noticed that one of the underlined nouns (*construction)* is an activity. Nouns can name activities as well as objects. Here are other nouns that name things:

tables

mustard

marriage

chat

conferences

The names of events are also nouns:

vacation

New Year’s Eve

birthdays

World War II

exams

As you see, nouns may name events in general terms *(birthdays).* Other nouns name specific events *(New Year’s Eve, World War II).*

The name of a specific event is usually capitalized *(Great Depression).* General names for events are normally written without capital letters *(anniversary).* The name of an object may be capitalized if it is a brand *(Cadillac)* unless the company decides not to use a capital letter *(iPad).* To find out more about when you should capitalize the name of an event or object, see Chapter 17.

See whether you can find the nouns in the following paragraph:

Nearly everyone who enjoys crafts buys glue, crayons, and cloth to make decorations for holidays and other celebrations, such as Halloween and Thanksgiving.

You should have found nine nouns: *crafts, glue, crayons, cloth, decorations, holidays, celebrations, Halloween, Thanksgiving.* All these words name things, so all are nouns.

The names of things, activities, and events are nouns.

Naming ideas and emotions with nouns

I feel loyalty to those I love and gratitude to everyone who has ever helped me. I believe that love and friendship are always better than hatred and rejection. Do you agree with these thoughts, or is your opinion different?

Ideas and emotions are real and extremely powerful, even though you can't touch them. The names for ideas and emotions are nouns. All the underlined words in the preceding paragraph are nouns. Take a look at more nouns that name ideas and emotions:

confusion

patriotism

viewpoint

joy

anger

The names of belief systems, such as a religion (*Catholicism,* for example), are nouns. The names of causes, such as *environmentalism,* which means concern for the environment, are also nouns.

Sometimes you need a capital letter for a particular system of belief (*Islam* or *Judaism,* for example), and sometimes you do not (*democracy,* for instance*).* For more information on capitalizing the names of ideas or beliefs, turn to Chapter 17.

See whether you can find the nouns in the following sentence:

> He was filled with happiness when she explained her thoughts on freedom, because he also worked to bring about justice and equality in society.

You should have found six nouns: *happiness, thoughts, freedom, justice, equality, society.* All these words name ideas or feelings, so all are nouns.

Many words that describe feelings and ideas have other forms that are not nouns. For example, *equality* is a noun, but *equal* is not. The noun *(equality)* names the concept. The other form *(equal)* describes something else (*equal rights, equal opportunity)*.

The noun connection

Four letters — *tion* — often appear at the end of nouns. In fact, these letters have the power to change words that tell what you do (which grammarians call verbs) into nouns. Take a look at these pairs. In each pair, the first word is a verb. The second word in each pair is a noun:

- **connect – connection** George and his partner connect the pipes. The connection is tight, so no water leaks out.
- **prepare – preparation** Please prepare for the party. Food preparation is especially important because our guests will be hungry.
- **inform – information** The postal workers must inform their supervisors when a package is missing. The information is passed along to the customer who sent the package.
- **direct – direction** Many police officers direct traffic. Without proper direction, cars may crash.
- **act – action** Jane and Joe will act surprised, but they are, in fact, expecting a party. They appreciate the kind actions of their friends.

Four other letters — *ness* — also show up at the end of nouns. These letters change descriptions into nouns. In these pairs, the first word is a description, and the second is a noun.

- **kind – kindness** Henry is a kind man who helps everyone. His kindness has earned him many friends.

- **helpless – helplessness** A newborn baby is completely helpless. Parents react to their infant's helplessness by handling the baby carefully.
- **hard – hardness** A diamond is a hard stone. Because of its hardness, a diamond can cut glass.
- **soft – softness** Dry the glass with a soft cloth. Test the pillow for softness.
- **rough – roughness** Rough play is not allowed in the playground. If the teacher sees roughness, recess is over.

Sometimes the spelling changes a little when you add one of these endings, but the result is the same. The addition of *tion* or *ness* creates a noun. Have a glance at these pairs. The second word in each pair is a noun.

- **participate – participation** Students participate in every meeting, offering comments and suggestions to the teachers. This participation involves everyone in the planning process.
- **devote – devotion** Do not devote too much time to that project. We recognize and appreciate your devotion to duty.
- **lovely – loveliness** The lovely little girl smiled. The camera captured her loveliness.
- **lonely – loneliness** A lonely person needs friends. Loneliness is not good for your health.
- **happy – happiness** A happy clown makes us laugh. The audience feels happiness at the circus.

Watch for words with these endings. When you see one, you have probably found a noun.

Sorting Out Singular and Plural Nouns

Smile! You are having a baby. Smile more! You are having three babies.

Baby is a singular noun. *Babies* is a plural noun. When you become a parent, the difference between singular (one) and plural (more than one) is rather important. It's important in grammar also. Why? Within a sentence, singular nouns match up with other singular words, and plurals pair with other plurals.

If you'd like to know more about these matches, see the section "Attaching 'This', 'These', and Other Words to Nouns," later in this chapter. You can also read Chapter 4, where I tell you how to pair up nouns and pronouns, and Chapter 11, where you see how to match nouns properly with either singular

or plural verbs.

In this section, you discover the singular and plural forms of nouns.

Adding the letters "S" or "ES" to form plurals

Take a look at these singular and plural nouns. Notice the difference between them:

Singular	***Plural***
fork	forks
television	televisions
shoe	shoes
infant	infants
horse	horses
officer	officers
photo	photos

As you see, these nouns change from singular to plural when you add the letter *s*.

If all nouns formed plurals this way, your life would be much easier. Sadly, some nouns follow a different pattern. Check out these singular and plural nouns. Notice how they differ:

Singular	***Plural***
brush	brushes
match	matches
kiss	kisses
tax	taxes
witch	witches
loss	losses
bush	bushes

The rule for these words is simple: When the singular noun ends in *sh*, *ch*, *ss*, or *x*, add the letters *es* to form the plural noun.

See whether you can write the form that is missing in the following table. You should add or take away either *s* or *es:*

Singular	***Plural***
mess	
	lions
switch	
	boxes
zoo	
	gorillas
eyelash	

You should have added the following words to the table: *messes, lion, switches, box, zoos, gorilla, eyelashes*. The words *mess, switch, box,* and *eyelash* employ the letters *es* to form the plural. The other words form plurals with the letter *s* alone.

Words that end with the letter *o* sometimes add a simple *s* (*zoos, avocados)* and sometimes *es (potatoes, heroes)*. Check your dictionary if you are not sure whether to add *s* or *es* to form a plural.

Creating plurals of words that end with the letter "Y"

Read these sentences, paying special attention to the underlined words:

> Bill has one <u>key</u> for his house and two <u>keys</u> for his car.
>
> Diane lives in a <u>city</u>, and she enjoys visiting many other <u>cities</u> when she is on vacation.

Did you notice that in the first sentence, the singular word *key* becomes plural when you add the letter *s?* In the second sentence, the singular word *city* changes when it becomes plural. The *y* changes to *i,* and then *es* is tacked on. Why the difference? The letter before the *y* is the *key* to these *mysteries* of grammar.

When you are forming the plural of a word that ends with the letter *y*, pay extra attention. If the letter before the *y* is *a*, *e*, *u*, or *o* (letters that are called *vowels*), add an *s* to the end of the word to form the plural:

Singular	***Plural***
monkey	monkeys
tray	trays
toy	toys
way	ways
boy	boys
essay	essays

If the letter before the *y* is not a vowel, change the *y* to *i* and add *es* to form the plural:

Singular	***Plural***
reply	replies
enemy	enemies
salary	salaries
university	universities
baby	babies
lily	lilies

See whether you can make plurals correctly. In the second column, write the plural form of each word in the first column.

Singular	***Plural***
turkey	
bunny	
berry	
delay	
daisy	
journey	

valley

Here are the correct plural forms of these words: *turkeys, bunnies, berries, delays, daisies, journeys, valleys.* The words that end in *ay, ey,* and *oy (turkey, delay, journey, valley)* form plurals with the letter *s*. Words ending with a different letter before the final *y form plurals by* changing the *y* to *i* and adding *es (bunnies, berries, daisies).*

You may hear this rule explained in a different way: To make the plural of a noun ending in a vowel (the letters *a, e, i, o,* or *u*) followed by the letter *y,* add the letter *s*. I did not include one vowel, *i,* in my explanation because that vowel does not appear in front of the letter *y.* I like to keep things simple.

Plurals that break the rules

Are you a rebel, or do you usually follow the rules? I wrote *usually* because my experience tells me that no one follows the rules all the time. The English language also breaks the rules occasionally and creates strange plural forms. Read these sentences, paying attention to the underlined words:

> Help! One little <u>sheep</u> is eating my lunch! I am just joking. Only a few <u>sheep</u> live near me, and they are all in zoos.

The first underlined word, *sheep,* is singular. The clues are *one,* which always signals a singular noun, and *is,* a singular verb. The second underlined word looks exactly the same. However, this time *sheep* is plural, indicating more than one animal. The clues are *a few,* which signals a plural noun; the word *live,* which is a plural verb; and the word *they,* which refers to *sheep* and is a plural form. English is odd, isn't it? Sometimes the same word can be either singular or plural, depending upon how the word is used.

You can't memorize every plural form in the English language — not if you want to have time to eat, sleep, and have a real life. However, you should know some common irregular plurals:

Singular	***Plural***	***Singular***	***Plural***
half	halves	moose	moose

loaf	loaves	deer	deer
knife	knives	mouse	mice
leaf	leaves	goose	geese
man	men	tooth	teeth
woman	women	information	information
child	children	editor-in-chief	editors-in-chief

Your best path through the world of irregular plurals is to remember those you use often. You may want to keep a list of your personal favorites. You can look up other plurals in the dictionary when you need them.

See whether you can write the irregular plural form of each word. If you are not sure, check the dictionary.

Singular	***Plural***
ox	
hoof	
scarf	
runner-up	
crisis	
aircraft	
foot	

Answers: *oxen, hooves, scarves, runners-up, crises, aircraft, feet.*

When you come across a word with a hyphen (a short line separating two words, such as *runner-up* or *brother-in-law*), look at the most important part of the word — the section that carries the main meaning *(runner, brother).* Make that word plural *(runners, brothers)* and leave the rest of the word alone *(runners-up, brothers-in-law).*

The dictionary is your friend when you are writing plural forms. Look up any noun to find the plural form or instructions for creating the plural.

Attaching "This," "These," and Other Words to Nouns

Nouns often come with descriptions attached. In some languages, every description has a singular and a plural form. You are lucky, because descriptions in English usually keep the same form when they join up with nouns that are singular (one) and plural (more than one). You can correctly write about one *fine day* and five *fine days*. The description *fine* never changes. You do have to pay attention to a few words, though. Take a look at these examples:

this book (singular)

these books (plural)

that orange (singular)

those oranges (plural)

this country (singular)

these countries (plural)

that dog (singular)

those dogs (plural)

As you see in this list, *this* and *that* pair up with singular nouns. *These* and *those* pair with plural nouns.

I often hear people attach the word *them* to nouns (*them books* or *them cars*). In proper English, *them* always stands alone and never joins a noun in this way.

Here's an example, which comes from a conversation I had with my cousin a few years ago:

> WRONG: Are you still writing them grammar books?
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: The word *them* never attaches to other words. In my cousin's question, *them* is improperly attached to *grammar books.*
>
> RIGHT: Are you still writing those grammar books?
>
> WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Those* may attach to other words. In the new sentence, *those* is attached to *grammar books.*

In case you are wondering, I am still writing *those grammar books.* You are reading one right now. And no, I did not correct my cousin. When I am at a party, I leave my grammar work at home!

Two tiny words, *a* and *an,* attach only to singular nouns. You can say *a rug* or *an apple,* but not *a rugs* or *an apples.* (If you are curious about the difference between *a* and *an*, turn to Chapter 6.) I am happy to tell you that another common word that attaches to nouns, *the,* works for both singular and plural nouns.

In the following paragraph, underline the correct word from each pair:

> Alex put (this/these) folder in (that/those) drawer. He locked up all (this/these) files because all (that/those) information is secret. Anne took (them/those) keys and opened (that/those) drawers. She was very interested in (this/these) file about salaries.

Here are the words you should have underlined, along with the words they attach to: *this folder, that drawer, these files, that information, those keys, those drawers, this file.* The singular nouns *(folder, drawer, information, file)* pair with these singular words: *this, that.* The plural nouns *(files, keys, drawers)* pair with these plural words: *these, those.*

Are you ‘mis’ -ing something?

When you tack three letters — *mis* — onto the beginning of a word, you show that something is wrong. For example:

> You *count* the number of clean socks in your drawer. You say, “I have two pairs of socks. I do not have to do the laundry today.” One day later, you search for a pair of socks. You find nothing! You *miscounted.* Now you have to do the laundry — barefoot!

To *count* is to add up. To *miscount* is to add incorrectly. Here are other examples of words with *mis:*

- **behavior – misbehavior** Parents often judge *behavior,* looking for polite, calm, respectful actions from their children. If parents see *misbehavior (wrong behavior),* they may punish their children. Example: The parent sees a child spill milk, toss toys across the room, and scream loudly. The parent says, “I do not approve of your *misbehavior.* You may not watch television tonight!”
- **lead – mislead** Correct information *leads* you to the truth. If someone *misleads* you, on purpose or by accident, you receive *wrong* information. In other words, someone *leads* you to the *wrong* conclusion. Example: “I am lowering taxes by $10,” says the politician, not explaining that he is also replacing the $10 tax with a $15 fee. The politician is *misleading* the voters.
- **understand – misunderstand** When you *understand,* you grasp the correct meaning. When you *misunderstand,* you pick up an incorrect, or *wrong*, meaning. Example: “I *understand* how busy you are, and I am grateful that you will wash the dishes tonight,” says Helen. Bob replies, “No! You always *misunderstand* what I say! I cannot wash the dishes because I have to work.”
- **step – misstep** You take a *step* when you place your foot on the floor or when you take action. A *misstep* is a wrong *step* or *action.* Example: Andy’s first *step* was to make a list of things to buy at the grocery store. One *misstep* in the parking lot changed his plans, because he spent the evening in the emergency ward instead of in the kitchen. Forgetting to call his friends to cancel the dinner party was another *misstep.*

Keep an eye out for *mis* words, such as these: *misfortune* (bad luck), *misplace* (put in the wrong place, lose track of), *misquote* (report the wrong words), *misspell* (spell wrong), *mistreat* (treat wrong or treat badly), and *mistake* (take wrongly, make an error).

Chapter 4

Practicing Pronouns

In This Chapter

- Understanding the role of pronouns
- Selecting the proper pronoun for each sentence
- Expressing ownership with possessive pronouns

Little words should be easy, right? One, two, or a few more letters should cause no trouble.

I hate to bring bad news, but I must. Some short words — pronouns — can give you a headache faster than a screaming child on a crowded bus.

Do not worry, though. Help is on the way! This chapter explains what you need to know about pronouns.

Replacing Nouns with Pronouns

Read this paragraph:

> John took John's best friend, Alice, to Alice's house after the party. John asked Alice if Alice would give John the recipe for the cookies John and Alice had eaten at the party. Alice gave the recipe to John.

What a boring piece of writing! I suspect that you wanted to change the paragraph so that the same words do not appear over and over again. So do I, and because I am writing this book, I can change the words. Here is a new paragraph:

> John took <u>his</u> best friend, Alice, to <u>her</u> house after the party. <u>He</u> asked <u>her</u> if <u>she</u> would give <u>him</u> the recipe for the cookies that <u>they</u> had eaten at the party. <u>She</u> gave <u>it</u> to <u>him</u>.

That paragraph is not very exciting either, but it does not repeat as many words. The words I removed from the first paragraph are nouns. The underlined words I substituted in the second paragraph are *pronouns*. Pronouns have an important job: They take the place of nouns. The trick is to insert the right pronoun by matching it to the noun it replaces. In this section, I explain what you need to check before you select the proper pronoun.

Pronouns for the speaker or writer

Do you like to talk about yourself? Most people do. To talk or write about yourself, you need pronouns. Take a look at the underlined words in these sentences:

> I love to play the piano.
>
> Andrew gave me a piano.
>
> I practice on my piano every day.
>
> I have taught myself five new songs.
>
> Do not take the piano! That instrument is mine!

Every underlined word in the preceding sentences is a pronoun. These pronouns take the place of the name of the person speaking or writing. It does not matter whether the speaker or writer is a man or a woman. The same pronouns work for both sexes.

The pronouns *I, me, my, myself,* and *mine* are singular. They refer to one person only.

If you talk or write about yourself as part of a group, you need a different set of pronouns. Read these sentences and notice the underlined pronouns:

> May we play music in the show?
>
> George told us that the show is too short.
>
> "The audience will enjoy our music," we said.
>
> George finally gave us permission to play.
>
> We told ourselves not to be nervous.

After the show, the applause will be <u>ours</u>.

The underlined words are all pronouns, and all refer to a group that includes the person speaking or writing. Don't worry about whether members of the group are male or female or some of each. The same pronouns work for both sexes.

Pronouns that refer to one person (singular pronouns) differ from pronouns that refer to a group (plural pronouns). Always check singular and plural when you select a pronoun.

See whether you can sort out these singular and plural pronouns and write them underneath the correct headings "Singular" and "Plural" listed below: *us, myself, me, I, mine, ourselves, we, our, my, ours.*

Singular Plural

The singular pronouns are *myself, me, I, mine,* and *my.* The plural pronouns are *us, ourselves, we, our, ours.*

Here is something else to try that is a little harder. In each of the following sentences, you see a blank. Write a pronoun that refers to the speaker or writer in the blank. The letter *S* after a blank tells you that you need a singular pronoun. The letter *P* means you need a plural pronoun.

_____ (S) am going to work now. _____ (S) told _____ (S) that _____ (S) must hurry, because _____ (S) boss told _____ (S) that lateness is a problem. _____ (S) spoke with my friends in the office. _____ (P) all agreed that _____ (P) want _____ (P) boss to leave _____ (P) alone. _____ (P) prefer to be by _____ (P).

Here are the pronouns you should have listed: *I, I, myself, I ,my, me, I, We, we, our, us, We, ourselves.* All these words are pronouns referring to the person or people speaking.

Did you remember to capitalize the pronoun *I?* That pronoun is always capitalized. For more information on capital letters, see Chapter 17.

Pronouns such as *I, me, my, myself, mine, we, us, our, ourselves,* and *ours* refer to the person or people speaking or writing. These pronouns don't have masculine (male) or feminine (female) forms. They may represent both males and females.

Pronouns that speak to others

In this book, I am talking to *you*, the reader. To talk to someone, or to refer to the person you are speaking with, you need pronouns. In the following sentences, the underlined words are all pronouns:

> Do <u>you</u> want to take a walk?
>
> <u>Your</u> shoes look very comfortable.
>
> Did <u>you</u> buy those shoes for <u>yourself</u>?
>
> Usually, the three of <u>you</u> buy clothing and shoes by <u>yourselves</u>, without help.
>
> Jean forgot her sweater and wants to borrow <u>yours</u>.

The underlined words are pronouns. They replace the name of the person you are addressing (speaking or writing to). These pronouns do not have different masculine (male) and feminine (female) forms. They work for both males and females.

The pronouns *you* and *your* may replace the name of one person or the names of more than one person. In other words, *you* and *your* may be either singular or plural. Very convenient! Use *yourself* for one person and *yourselves* for more than one.

Sometimes people try to change the pronoun *you* into a different form to show that it is plural. I often hear *y'all, you guys, youse,* and other expressions. These terms are not correct in Standard English. Use them with friends, if you like, but stay away from these words when you are in a business or school situation. The pronoun *you* is both singular and plural.

See whether you can write the following pronouns underneath the correct headings "Singular", "Plural" and "Singular and Plural" listed below: *yourself, you, your, yourselves, yours.* Check for singular (referring to one person), plural (referring to more than one person), or singular and plural (works for one or more than one).

Singular Plural Singular and Plural

In the singular column is *yourself.* In the plural column is *yourselves.* In the singular-and-plural column are *you, your,* and *yours.*

Now insert a pronoun into each blank in the following paragraph, always referring to the person or people being addressed. After each blank, look at the letter in parentheses. The letter *S* means that the pronoun in the blank is singular. The letter *P* means that the pronoun in the blank is plural.

> _____ (S) walked the dog last night. I want to thank _____ (S) for ____ (S) help with the dog. Give _____ (S) time to rest today. _____(S) and _____ (S) friends were up very late, and _____ (P) all need time for _____ (P).

Here are the pronouns you should have added: *You, you, your, yourself, You, your, you, yourselves.* These words are pronouns that replace the name of the person or people being addressed.

Pronouns that speak about other people or things

Do you like to gossip? Almost everyone does! English has many pronouns

that replace nouns that name the person or people you are speaking or writing about. Read these sentences. Notice the underlined words:

> He placed his painting on the wall. He had done all the work himself. Now he waited to hear their opinions. They cheered! One of them said it was great. He looked at Mary. Did she like his art? If she said it was good, he would give the artwork to her. The painting would be hers forever.

The underlined words are pronouns. All these pronouns help you talk about someone or something else. Some pronouns that talk about other people or things are singular, and you should use them when speaking or writing about one person or thing. Some pronouns that talk about other people or things are plural, and they refer to more than one person or thing. Here is a table that shows singular and plural pronouns:

Singular	***Plural***
Male: he, him, his, himself	they, them, their, theirs, themselves
Female: she, her, hers, herself	
Thing: it, its, itself	

Did you notice the labels *male, female,* and *thing?* The pronouns *he, him, his, himself* refer to one male. The pronouns *she, her, hers, herself* refer to one female. The pronouns *it, its,* and *itself* take the place of any noun that names one thing. (For more information on nouns, turn to Chapter 3.)

Lucky for you, plural pronouns do not have different forms for males and females. *They, them, their, theirs,* and *themselves* may refer to a group of males, a group of females, groups with both males and females, or groups of things. These pronouns do many jobs! (I do not think they are paid very much, though, for all their work.)

In the second column, write a pronoun that may replace the underlined words.

Word Replaced	***Pronoun***
1. The telephone rang.	

2. William and Ellen wrote letters to each other.

3. William's and Ellen's letters were always interesting.

4. James told Anne about the letters.

5. Anne read one letter.

6. Max hates Ellen and Anne.

7. Max's problem is that Max has no confidence in Max.

8. Ellen and Anne told Ellen and Anne not to worry about Max.

9. Max and Roger took Ellen's phone and fixed the phone's speaker.

10. Ellen needed the phone to call Max and Roger to tell Max and Roger to bring Max's and Roger's toothbrushes.

Here are the answers: 1. *It* 2. *They* 3. *Their* 4. *He, her, them* 5. *She, it* 6. *He, them* 7. *His, he, himself* 8. *They, themselves, him* 9. *They, her, its* 10. *She, it, them, them, their.*

When you use a pronoun, think about the noun the pronoun replaces. Decide between singular and plural pronouns. Also match masculine (male) pronouns with male nouns, and feminine (female) pronouns with female nouns. Use *it, its,* or *itself* for things.

Avoiding errors with two common pronouns

The pronoun *their* is not the same as *there* or *they're*.

- *Their* shows group ownership:
  - The students read *their* books.
  - *Their* clothing was wet when the students came in from the rain.
  - Do the students have *their* umbrellas?
  - The designers described *their* ideas to Philip.
  - I need *their* approval before I plan my vacation.
- *There* refers to a place:
  - Put the book *there.*

- Over *there* is my favorite piano.
- Do you know who is *there?*
- Leave your suitcase *there* for now.
- I will not visit *there* until the war ends.

✔ *They're* is a shortened form of *they are:*

- *They're* in the library now.
- Nina and Oscar said that *they're* ready when you are.
- Andrew and his son moved to Scotland, where *they're* very happy.
- I heard noise from the yard, so *they're* not in the house.
- *They're* planting vegetables.

You also have to be careful not to confuse the pronoun *its* with *it's*. Look at these sentences*:*

✔ *Its* is a pronoun that shows ownership or belonging:

- The book had a stain on *its* cover.
- *Its* short leg makes the table wobble.
- Lily placed the meat in *its* pan.
- *Its* gravy is in a separate dish.
- Is the problem the computer or *its* software?

✔ *It's* is a shortened form of *it is:*

- *It's* a blood stain!
- Stop searching, because *it's* not here.
- The tourist went to London because *it's* an interesting place.
- He likes New York, too, because *it's* a big city.
- When *it's* completed, the film will win many awards.

See whether you can choose the proper word from the parentheses and write it in the blank.

1. _____ (Its, It's) snowing today, so students will stay in _____ (they're, there, their) homes.
2. The school is covered with ice, and no one will go_____ (they're, there, their).
3. The driver does not trust the car or _____ (its, it's) brakes.
4. _____ (They're, There, Their) slipping on the snowy streets.
5. Are you (they're, there, their), or are you watching the television reports of the storm and _____ (its, it's) dangers?
6. When _____ (its, it's) over, please tell the children to complete _____ (they're, there, their) homework assignments.

Here are the answers: 1. *It's, their* 2. *there* 3. *its* 4. *They're* 5. *there, its* 6. *it's, their.*

Solving the Case of Pronouns

I love mystery stories. I enjoy searching for clues and solving the case. Here is a mystery for you. Can you figure out the difference between *I* and *me, she* and *her, he* and *him, they* and *them,* and similar pairs?

Each pronoun pair refers to the same person, but each half of the pair is in a different case. *Case* is a grammar term. This section helps you become a better detective so that you can solve the mystery of pronoun case.

Subject pronouns

What do the underlined pronouns in the next paragraph have in common? Figure it out! You are the detective, and this paragraph is your crime scene:

> She told George that the necklace was missing. He claimed that she was lying, because he knew that the necklace was in the bank. He explained, "I spoke with two bank clerks. They gave me a chance to see the

necklace. You upset us all for no reason!" He left her alone then.

Do you see that each underlined pronoun is doing an action expressed by a nearby word or words? To help you grasp what I mean, here are the underlined pronouns and the action word (or words) matching each underlined pronoun:

She told

He claimed

she was lying

he knew

He explained

I spoke

They gave

You upset

He left

In this list, the underlined pronoun is connected to a "doing" word, what English teachers call a *verb*. (For more information on verbs, turn to Chapter 5.) The pronoun doing the action is a *subject*. Every underlined word on the list and in the paragraph is a subject pronoun. Here are the most common subject pronouns:

Singular Subject Pronouns	***Plural Subject Pronouns***
I	we
you	you
he, she, it	they
who	who
whoever	whoever

Because you have sharp eyes, you probably noticed that the pronouns *you*, *who*, and *whoever* may be either singular (referring to one) or plural

(referring to more than one). The other pronouns have different singular and plural forms.

See whether you can figure out which subject pronoun goes into each blank. To help you decide, I have placed a noun in parentheses after each blank. The pronoun you write in the blank replaces that noun.

_____ (Angela) loves peaches and pears.

_____ (Richard) hates fruit.

Yesterday, _____ (Angela and Richard) had lunch.

_____ (all of us) were at the next table.

____ (Richard) pushed a peach off his plate.

_____ (The peach) fell on the floor.

_____ (The speaker) think that _____ (Richard) should apologize.

Here are the answers: *She, He, they, We, He, It, I, he.* All these words are pronouns. All are subjects. They pair with verbs: *She loves, He hates, they had, We were, He pushed, It fell, I think, he should apologize.*

Subject pronouns can also pair up with words that express a state of being. Look at the following paragraph. Examine the underlined words:

> She was scared of the ghost, but they were excited. We were sorry that she was not amused by our trick. We were wrong to think that she was in the mood for a joke. Now she is angry with us. They will be interested in hearing more about ghosts the next time we see them, but she seems too frightened to come for another visit.

Do you see that every underlined pronoun is connected to a word that expresses a state of being? Here are the connected pairs:

She was

they were

We were

she was

We were

she was

she is

They will be

she seems

The underlined words are subject pronouns. The other words are words that express a state of being. They are verbs. (For more information about these verbs, turn to Chapter 5.)

See whether you can select a pronoun for each blank. The word that the pronoun replaces is in parentheses.

_____ (Mary and Joe) are going on vacation next week. _____ (the person speaking) will take care of their plant. _____ (The plant) needs water every day, or _____ (the plant) will die. _____ (Mary and Joe and the person speaking) have been neighbors for many years. Usually, _____ (Mary and Joe and the person speaking) travel together. This year, though, _____ (Joe) wants to be alone with Mary. _____ (Mary) thinks that _____ (Joe) will ask her to marry him during the vacation!

Here are the answers: *They, I, It, it, We, we, he, She, he.* All these pronouns are subject pronouns. Subject pronouns pair with verbs. The subject–verb pairs from the preceding paragraph are *They are going, I will take, It needs, it will die, We have been, we travel, he wants, She thinks, he will ask.*

Object pronouns

Okay, Detective, here is another case for you to solve — the case of object pronouns. Read this paragraph and look carefully at the underlined words:

The nanny read her stories every night. The child heard them all. Years later, the young girl told us that her favorite story was about a magic bean. The girl read it to her brother. The nanny also read him stories.

The children knew her well, and soon they wrote stories for their nanny. The nanny was very pleased to hear them.

The underlined words are all pronouns. Here is a table showing the most common object pronouns:

Singular Object Pronouns	***Plural Object Pronouns***
me, myself	us, ourselves
you, yourself	you, yourselves
him, her, it, himself, herself, itself	them, themselves
whom	whom
whomever	whomever

Grammarians think of these pronouns as "receivers." The traditional explanation is that an object pronoun "receives" an action. You have to stretch your imagination a little to see how the pronoun is "receiving" the action, either directly or indirectly. Here is an explanation for each pronoun that is underlined in the paragraph at the beginning of this section:

her — receives the action of reading (from the verb *read*)

them — receives the action of hearing (from the verb *heard*)

us — receives the action of telling (from the verb *told*)

it — receives the action of reading (from the verb *read*)

him — receives the action of reading (from the verb *read*)

her — receives the action of knowing (from the verb *knew*)

them — receives the action of hearing (from the verb *hear*)

In these examples, each object pronoun receives action from a verb. Object pronouns may also follow words that express the relationship between two things, a part of speech that grammarians call *prepositions.* Notice the underlined object pronouns in these examples:

a story about him (the preposition is *about*)

three letters from me (the preposition is *from*)

a book written by themselves (the preposition is *by*)

the park near us (the preposition is *near*)

the sky above it (the preposition is *above*)

English has many, many prepositions. Maybe too many! To discover more about prepositions, see Chapter 7.

See whether you can figure out the correct object pronoun for each blank in the paragraph below. The words in parentheses tell you the noun that the pronoun replaces.

The workers repaired _____ (the roof) yesterday, but the homeowner told _____ (the workers) that rain came through _____ (the roof) anyway and fell on _____ (Ann). Big drops splashed _____ (Robert) too. The homeowner wants _____ (the roof) replaced. He recently bought a new bedroom set, and he wants protection above _____ (the set). The workers told _____ (the writer of this paragraph) that they will do _____ (the work) next month.

Here are the answers: *it, them, it, her, him, it, it, me, it.* These words are all object pronouns. The pronoun *it* receives action from the verb *repaired; them* receives action from the verb *told; it* follows the preposition *through; her* follows the preposition *on; him* receives the action of the verb *splashed; it* receives action from the verb *wants; it* follows the preposition *above; me* receives action from the verb *told;* and *it* receives action from the verb *will do.*

Sorting subject and object pronouns

Many people mix up subject and object pronouns. These mistakes may be common, but they are still mistakes. These two groups do different jobs in a sentence. Subject pronouns act as subjects, and object pronouns as objects. What a surprise! English grammar is actually logical, for a change.

I must admit that subject pronouns may sometimes do one more job

in a sentence. Very rarely, they follow and complete the meaning of a verb that expresses a state of being, such as *am, is, are, was, were, has been, will be,* and so on. This situation does not appear very often. Do not worry about these sentences.

You should worry — or at least pay close attention to — subjects and objects when they are doing their usual jobs. Specifically, never send an object pronoun to do the job of a subject pronoun! Here are some examples:

WRONG: James and me are hungry.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *me* is an object pronoun. In this sentence, you need a subject pronoun.

RIGHT: James and I are hungry.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *I* is a subject pronoun. In this sentence, *I* is one of the subjects. (The other is *James.*)

WRONG: Are you and him ready for the grammar test?

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *him* cannot act as a subject. In this sentence, *him* is a subject.

RIGHT: Are you and he ready for the grammar test?

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the subject pronoun *he* is correctly acting as a subject, along with the pronoun *you.* (The pronoun *you*, by the way, has the same form as a subject or an object. Very convenient.)

WRONG: Us young people will lead the way into that dangerous area.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Us* is an object pronoun, but in this sentence it is acting as a subject.

RIGHT: We young people will lead the way into that dangerous area.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The subject pronoun *we* now acts as a subject.

You cannot use a subject pronoun as an object, either. Take a look at these examples:

WRONG: The waiter brought food to James and I.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *I* is a subject pronoun. In this sentence, you need an object pronoun after the preposition *to.*

RIGHT: The waiter brought food to James and me.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *me* is an object pronoun. In this sentence, *me* is one of the objects of the preposition *to.* (The other is *James.*)

WRONG: For help with her project, Rosie asked he.

WHY IT IS WRONG: You need an object pronoun to "receive" the action from the verb *asked. He* is a subject pronoun.

RIGHT: For help with her project, Rosie asked him.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The object pronoun *him* is now correctly placed to receive the action of the verb *asked.*

WRONG: This conversation is secret and must remain between you and I.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The preposition *between* needs objects. *I* is a subject pronoun.

RIGHT: This conversation is secret and must remain between you and me.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the object pronoun *me* follows the preposition *between.* (The pronoun *you* has the same form for both subject and object situations.)

WARNING! In many of the examples, the mistakes appear when you are using two pronouns or a noun and a pronoun together. Be extra careful in this type of sentence. Sometimes you may discover the right pronoun more easily if you pretend for a moment that the pronoun is all by itself. For instance, suppose you are not sure which pronoun to select for this sentence:

Charlie gave Bobby and (I? me?) a book.

Cross out "Bobby and." Reread the sentence with the pronouns inserted:

Charlie gave I a book.

Charlie gave me a book.

The second sentence is correct, because the object pronoun *me* receives the action of the verb *gave*.

Pronoun "selfies"

Have you ever snapped a *selfie* (a photo of yourself, taken with your smartphone)? If so, you know you have to get everything just right. Otherwise, the photo will be too light, too dark, or out of focus. When you select a pronoun that has *–self* or *–selves* tacked on the end, you also have to be careful. Pronouns that end in *self* are special. They may act as objects in sentences like these:

Gina told <u>herself</u> not to worry. (*herself* receives the action from the verb *told*)

I washed <u>myself</u> carefully after tending to the sick child. (*myself* receives the action from the verb *washed*)

Mommy, I tied my shoes all by <u>myself</u>*!* (*myself* follows the preposition *by*)

In these sentences, the action flows from the subject (the one doing the action) back to the same person. Do not use a *–self* or *–selves* pronoun as an object in other situations.

Sometimes, a *self* pronoun appears with a subject to add emphasis. In this sort of sentence, the *self* pronoun may be a subject pronoun. Here are some examples:

Gina <u>herself</u> led the yoga class and was very proud of the result.

Do not get up. I <u>myself</u> will answer the door.

Do not use a *self* pronoun, all alone, as a subject:

WRONG: Myself cleaned the house.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Myself* cannot act as a subject, unless it is next to *I,* for emphasis.

RIGHT: I cleaned the house.

ALSO RIGHT: I myself cleaned the house.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: *I* may act alone as a subject. *I myself* may act as a subject, when special emphasis is what you want.

Sometimes people say *meself.* In proper English, that word doesn't exist. Use *myself, I,* or *me,* depending upon the job the pronoun performs in the sentence.

See whether you can sort these pronouns into *subject, object, and either subject or object* columns: *him, us, you, they, I, me, we, he, her, she, it, them.*

Subject Object Either Subject or Object

In the subject column you should have *they, I, we, he,* and *she.* In the object column you should have *him, us, me, her,* and *them.* In the "either subject or object column," you should have *you* and *it.*

Now place a subject or object pronoun in each blank. The word the pronoun replaces appears in parentheses.

1. The nurse injected _____ (medicine) into _____ (Benjamin).
2. _____ (Benjamin) cried for five minutes.
3. _____ (Benjamin's mother) comforted _____ (Benjamin).
4. _____ (The doctors) laughed and said, "_____ (the people speaking) have never seen _____ (Benjamin) cry for such a long time."
5. _____ (Sally) did much better.
6. _____ (Sally) surprised _____ (the people speaking) by crying for less than a minute.
7. _____ (Sally and Benjamin) are both babies.
8. The nurses like _____ (Sally and Benjamin) and do not care how long _____ (Sally and Benjamin) cry.

Here are the answers: 1. *it* (object pronoun, receives the action of the verb *injected*), *him* (object pronoun after the preposition *into*). 2. *He* (subject of the verb *cried*). 3. *She* (subject of the verb *comforted*), *him* (object pronoun, receives the action of the verb *comforted*). 4. *They* (subject of the verbs *laughed and said*), *We* (subject of the verb *have seen*), *him* (object pronoun,

receives the action of the verb *have seen*). 5. *She* (subject of the verb *did*). 6. *She* (subject of the verb *surprised*), *us* (receives the action of the verb *surprised*). 7. *They* (subject of the verb *are*). 8. *them* (object pronoun, receives the action of the verb *like*), *they* (subject of the verb *cry*).

For more explanations and practice with subjects and objects, read Chapters 11 (subjects) and 13 (objects).

Forming Possessive Pronouns

What do you own? A house, a car, a computer? Everyone owns something! Pronouns that express ownership are called *possessive*, because "to possess" means "to own." Here is a table showing some common possessive pronouns:

Singular Possessive Pronouns	***Plural Possessive Pronouns***
my, mine	our, ours
your, yours	your, yours
his (for males), her and hers (for females), its (for things)	their, theirs
whose	whose

Isn't it great that most of these pronouns do not change form when the owner is a male or a female? Most of the time, one form works for males, females, and objects. (Yes, an object can possess something: the pen has a tip, so *its tip* is a possessive situation.)

You probably noticed that none of the words in the table have an apostrophe (a punctuation mark shaped like a hook and placed above the line). Apostrophes create possessive nouns: *Mary's book, Greg's foot, students' notes.* Possessive pronouns never carry an apostrophe.

Who owns what? Write a possessive pronoun in the second column that can take the place of the underlined word in the first column. ***Note:*** When a question refers to "the speaker" or "the speaker and a group,"

imagine that you are speaking. When a question refers to “the listener” or to “the listener and a group,” imagine that you are addressing someone else.

Owner	***Possessive Pronoun***
1. Nancy’s foot	
2. Billy’s and Betty’s pajamas	
3. the door’s frame	
4. Jack’s punch	
5. Eliza’s favorite show	
6. the speaker’s cousin	
7. the speaker’s and a group’s houses	
8. the listener’s furniture	

Here are the answers: 1. *Her* 2. *Their* 3. *its* 4. *His* 5. *Her* 6. *My* 7. *Our* 8. *Your.*

Many people confuse the possessive pronoun *whose* with *who’s*, a short form of *who is.* Check out these examples:

WRONG: Who’s coat is on the floor?

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Who’s* means *who is*, so the sentence reads, “Who is coat is on the floor?” This makes no sense.

RIGHT: Whose coat is on the floor?

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the possessive pronoun *whose* is attached to *coat*, where it makes sense.

WRONG: I know whose responsible for the mess.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Whose* is a possessive pronoun, but nothing is possessed in this sentence.

RIGHT: I know who’s responsible for the mess.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Who’s* means *who is.* The correct sentence means “I know who is responsible for the mess.”

Chapter 5

Doing and Being Words: Verbs

In This Chapter

- Understanding the importance of verbs
- Finding the verb in a sentence
- Dealing with past, present, and future verb forms
- Becoming familiar with *be*, *have*, and *do*
- Creating questions and negative statements

I like to think of a sentence as a shopping cart. You pile things into a cart when you shop; you pile meaning into a sentence when you speak or write. The cart takes things to the cashier, and the sentence takes meaning to your listener or reader. The most important part of a shopping cart is the wheels. If one is missing, you can't easily move your purchases to the checkout line. The "wheels" of a sentence are its verbs. Without a verb, you don't have a sentence, and you have a tough time carrying meaning to your audience.

In this chapter, you take a close look at verbs. You see how verbs work to talk about the past, the present, and the future. You review various verb forms, including some important irregular verbs: *be*, *have*, and *do*. You also learn how to form questions and negative statements with helping verbs. You see how adding a helping verb such as *may* or *should* changes meaning. When you are finished, you will have a smooth ride with all kinds of verbs.

Searching Out Verbs

I am a curious person. I always want to know what everyone is doing. I also care about how people are feeling. Plus, I love to learn new facts. Here are some statements that satisfy my curiosity. Take a good look at the underlined words:

Sam <u>is</u> extremely tired.

He climbed Mount Everest yesterday.

Sam and Elizabeth will run many marathons.

A marathon is a race.

You train for long races also.

I sit when you train.

Are you jealous?

Stop and relax!

The underlined words all tell about actions or states of being. Words that express “doing” or “being” are verbs. Without verbs, you discover very little. Pull the underlined words out of the preceding sentences. Can you understand the meaning? Probably not! Even when you do grasp the meaning, you have to try harder to understand what’s going on if a verb is missing.

Asking Questions to Find the Verb

To do almost anything with a sentence, you have to find the verb. If the verb is wrong, the sentence will not work. How can you find a verb? Look for “doing” or “being” words. Read each sentence. Ask these questions:

- Which word tells you what is happening?
- Which word tells you what happened?
- Which word tells you what will happen?
- Which word makes a statement about being?

Most likely, you will get an answer to one of these questions. The words that answer these questions are verbs.

Sometimes, you get a one-word answer (*twist, are, sings*, and so on). Other times, two words answer your question (*have done, do go, might be, is appearing*, and many others). In special cases, three words create one verb (*will have written, should have painted, could have been*, and so on). It doesn’t matter how many separate words you find, as long as

you find the “doing” or “being” words — the verbs.

Here are more sentences. The verbs are underlined. After each sentence, I explain how the verbs answer the questions on the list:

Yesterday Martha <u>changed</u> a flat tire. (Which word tells you what happened? *changed*)

Her car <u>is</u> old. (Which word makes a statement about being? *is*)

She <u>will</u> probably <u>buy</u> a new car soon. (Which words tell you what will happen? *will buy*)

Her car dealer <u>has</u> always <u>given</u> her a good price. (Which words tell you what happened? *has given*)

He <u>could charge</u> more. (Which words tell you what is happening? *could charge*)

Martha <u>should be</u> grateful, but she <u>is</u> not. (Which words make a statement about being? *should be, is*)

Martha <u>does</u> not even <u>thank</u> the car dealer! (Which words tell you what is happening? *does thank*)

I admit that you have to stretch some of the questions a little, because sometimes the question is really “What is *not* happening?” or “What *should or could* happen?” However, the basic method works well. Look for “doing” or “being” words, and you will find verbs.

See whether you can identify the verbs in these sentences. Every sentence has at least one. Some sentences have verbs that contain more than one word.

1. John limped home.
2. He had fallen over a toy.
3. John’s mother was quite upset.
4. She cleaned the cut on John’s knee.
5. The bandage was too tight.

6. Walk home before nightfall!
7. You may hurt yourself.
8. Does John obey his mother?
9. I guess he will obey because his knee is really sore.
10. No, he will not obey.

Here are the answers: 1. *limped* 2. *had fallen* 3. *was* 4. *cleaned* 5. *was* 6. *Walk* 7. *may hurt* 8. *Does obey.* 9. *guess, will obey, is* 10. *will obey.* All these words or expressions are verbs.

The word *not* is not part of the verb. The word *not* creates a negative, but it does not express action or state of being.

As you see, verbs come in different shapes and sizes. Some create statements, some ask questions, and some issue commands. Verbs can do all these things and more.

Telling Time with Verbs

Historians like timelines, listing events in order. So do verbs! By changing form, verbs talk about things that have already happened, are happening now, or will happen in the future. In fact, sorting out events according to time is one of the most important jobs that verbs do. This quality of verbs is called *tense.* You should not become tense about verb tense, though. You can make sense of tense easily.

In Chapter 10, I go into detail about verb tense, including what English teachers call the "perfect tenses." (I doubt that you will find these tenses "perfect," but you do have to use them!) Here I explain the basics.

Present tense

Present tense tells what is happening now, at the present time. Read these examples and pay close attention to the underlined, present-tense verbs:

Maria studies history.

John likes Maria, so John goes to history class with her.

The class is very interesting.

Several children are in the science class.

They study both science and history.

My favorite subjects are lunch, playtime, and gym.

I am not a good student.

Most present-tense verbs change form only when you are writing about one person or one thing. When you speak or write as yourself with the word *I* or to another with the word *you*, the form stays the same. To show you this pattern, here is a table of a regular verb, *dance:*

Singular (for one person or thing)	***Plural (for more than one person or thing)***
I dance	we dance
you dance	you dance
he dances	they dance
she dances	
it dances	

In this table, the last box of the first column is where you see the verb change. The letter *S* creates a singular verb, which is the form you want when one person or thing *dances*. I listed only the masculine (male) pronoun *he*, the feminine (female) pronoun *she*, and the pronoun for things, *it*. If I listed every possible word that can pair with the verb *dances*, though, that box would be even more crowded. Do you know why? I could have listed any masculine noun, any feminine noun, and a noun naming any and every thing in the entire world! I could have placed *Henry dances*, *the girl dances*, or *the doll dances* (and many more examples). In the same way, the last box of the second column could also grow. *They*, a plural pronoun, stands in for any plural noun. I might have included *boys dance*, *girls dance*, or *flowers dance*, and so on.

Do not confuse nouns and verbs. To create a plural noun (the name of more than one person, place, or thing), you often add the letter *S: boys, rivers, bats.* To create a singular verb that talks about one person or thing, you add the letter *S.* English is strange, isn't it?

You can also talk about the present time with another form, as you see in these sentences:

George is dancing.

I am watching.

You are groaning because George is a terrible dancer.

I discuss this form — which English teachers call the *present progressive* — in Chapter 10.

See whether you can find the present-tense verbs in this paragraph:

Jack needs a candle. The lights are out! The house is dark. Jacks searches his closet and finds three candles. He now looks for a match. Unfortunately, Jack has no matches. Jack sits in the dark and cries. I hear him and give him a match. He thanks me.

Here are the answers: *needs, are, is, searches, finds, looks, has, sits, cries, hear, give, thanks.*

Past tense

You can talk about the past, in English, with several different verb forms. Take a look at these sentences, in which the past-tense verb forms are underlined:

Three lambs walked around the field.

You jumped when I screamed at them.

The lambs have walked through my garden every day since last May!

Mary had finished her painting of the lambs before I started mine.

I was pleased with Mary's paintings.

The lambs loved Mary's work.

They were chewing on the painting.

I chased the lambs away.

All these verbs tell about the past. In this section, I focus on the simple past tense. To find out more about the other past-tense verb forms, turn to Chapter 10.

Lucky for you, regular verbs in the simple past tense do not change form. Here is a table of the past-tense forms of the verb *count:*

Singular (for one person or thing)	***Plural (for more than one person or thing)***
I counted	we counted
you counted	you counted
he counted	they counted
she counted	
it counted	

To save space, I wrote the pronouns *he, she,* and *it* in the last box in the first column, and the pronoun *they* in the last box of the second column. Any singular, masculine (male) noun — *Peter, man, Paul, fisherman* — uses the form for *he.* Any singular, feminine (female) noun — *Lorna, woman, Angela, mermaid* — uses the form for *she.* The noun for any single thing — *bed, shoe, lion* — uses the form for *it.* Every plural noun — *children, dishes, shoes* — uses the form for *they.*

The past tense has other forms, which I explain in detail in Chapter 10.

See whether you can find the past-tense verbs in this paragraph:

Jack hired an electrician. The electrician told Jack that the wires in the house were old. Jack paid the electrician, who replaced all the wires. Jack was not afraid of the dark. He never worried about his wires again.

He returned the candles and matches.

Here are the answers: *hired, told, were, paid, replaced, was, worried, returned.*

Future tense

You cannot know what will happen next week or next year, but you can learn the forms of future-tense verbs. Here I show you the basic forms. Turn to Chapter 10 for what English teachers call the "future perfect."

Take a look at the simple future-tense verbs I underlined in these sentences:

I will write a letter every day.

My letters will be boring.

Nothing exciting will happen!

You will do great things.

Helen will throw my letters away.

She will save yours.

These forms for the future tense do not change, as you see in this table of the future-tense forms of the verb *slap:*

Singular (for one person or thing)	***Plural (for more than one person or thing)***
I will slap	we will slap
you will slap	you will slap
he will slap	they will slap
she will slap	
it will slap	

I wrote only the pronouns *he, she,* and *it* in the last box in the first column, and the pronoun *they* in the last box of the second column. These pronouns represent all the nouns in the dictionary. Every noun! No matter who or what you are talking about, the future-tense verb is the same.

In older writing, *shall* sometimes substitutes for *will*. The meaning stays the same.

The future tense has other forms. Turn to Chapter 10 to learn more.

See whether you can find the future-tense verbs in this paragraph.

> Elizabeth will make a sandcastle. We will help her by giving her a bucket and a spoon. The sand will be damp, so it will hold its shape easily. She will finish the castle, and we will take a picture of it. Then she will stomp on the castle. The castle will be ruined!

Here are the answers: *will make, will help, will be, will hold, will finish, will take, will stomp, will be ruined.*

Recognizing Forms of Some Important Verbs

Listen to your friends talk. If you kept a scorecard listing every word they say, chances are the words you hear most often are forms of three important verbs, *be, do,* and *have.* (By the way, I do not recommend keeping track of your friends' words. If you do, no one will talk to you!)

In this section, you see how these verbs change form depending upon who is *being, doing,* or *having.* These verbs also change forms in different time periods. Here I cover the basic present, past, and future forms. To learn more about verb tense (time), check out "Telling Time with Verbs" earlier in this chapter.

The verb "be"

The most important and basic part of life is *being* alive. That makes *be,* in all its forms, the most important verb. This verb, though, is a strange creature. It follows no rules. When you match this verb with a different subject (the person or thing that is "being"), the form often changes. Here are three tables

to help you figure out *be*. The first places *be* forms in the present, the second moves to the past, and the third goes into the future. Get ready for some time travel.

Present: Singular Forms	***Present: Plural Forms***
I am	we are
you are	you are
he is	they are
she is	
it is	
Past: Singular Forms	***Past: Plural Forms***
I was	we were
you were	you were
he was	they were
she was	
it was	
Future: Singular Forms	***Future: Plural Forms***
I will be	we will be
you will be	you will be
he will be	they will be
she will be	
it will be	

In each of the preceding tables, the last box of the first column contains the masculine (male) pronoun *he*, the feminine (female) pronoun *she*, and the pronoun for things, *it.* These pronouns represent any masculine noun, any feminine noun, and a noun naming any and every thing in the entire world. I could have placed *Henry is, the actress was, the secretary will be* … and many more examples. In the same way, the last box of the second column could also grow. *They*, a plural pronoun, stands in for any plural noun. I might have included *trees are, flowers were, the children will be*, and so forth.

In the following table, the first column contains a subject. In the second column is a time period — past, present, or future. Your job is to write the correct form of the verb *be* in the third column.

Subject	***Time***	***Be Verb***
Ellen	present	
horses	past	
I	future	
the box	present	
you (singular, for one person)	past	
puppies	future	
you (plural, for more than one person)	present	

Here are the answers: *is, were, will be, is, were, will be, are*. ***Note:*** I told you that *you* referred to one person in the fifth box and more than one person in the last box. I did not have to bother explaining how many people were included in that pronoun, though, because the pronoun, *you*, and the verb forms that pair with *you*, are the same for both singular and plural. (To discover more about the pronoun *you*, check out Chapter 4.)

The verb "do"

"Don't just sit there! *Do* something!" Have you heard these lines from an actor in a film, perhaps as a car's brakes fail and it heads toward a cliff? The command to "do something" seems to be a basic fact of human life. All day long, people *do* things. For these reasons, *do* is an important verb. (This verb also creates questions and negative statements. To learn more about questions and negatives, read "Getting Assistance from Helping Verbs" later in this chapter.)

The verb *do* is an important verb. Luckily, it is not as strange as the verb *be*. You should know its irregular forms. Take a close look at the following three tables, which cover the verb *do* in the present, past, and future time.

Present: Singular Forms	***Present: Plural Forms***
I do	we do

you do	you do
he does	they do
she does	
it does	
Past: Singular Forms	***Past: Plural Forms***
I did	we did
you did	you did
he did	they did
she did	
it did	
Future: Singular Forms	***Future: Plural Forms***
I will do	we will do
you will do	you will do
he will do	they will do
she will do	
it will do	

You probably noticed that *do* changes only in the present tense, when you are talking about someone or something doing an action. How nice that this verb is easier!

I listed the masculine pronoun *he*, the feminine pronoun *she*, and the pronoun for things, *it*, in the last box of the first column of each table. If you want to pair the verb *do* with a noun that names one male, use the form for *he*. For the name of one female, use the form for *she*. The name of one thing pairs with the form of the verb listed for *it*. If you have a plural noun, use the form for *they*.

Try your hand at pairing a form of the verb *do* with each subject in the first column, selecting a verb for the time period in the second column.

Subject	*Time*	*Do Verb*
the snake	present	
I	past	
you (referring to many people)	future	
awards	present	
boxer	past	
we	future	
a bird	present	

Here are the answers: *does, did, will do, do, did, will do, does.* I gave you more information than you need here. I told you that *you* referred to many people. Whether *you* refers to one person or to many people, the form is the same.

The verb "have"

You may *have* lots of things — friends, a cold, books, fun — and many, many other things. You therefore need to know the correct forms of the verb *have.* (This verb also helps to create some tenses, or time periods. See Chapter 10 to find out more.)

Present: Singular Forms	*Present: Plural Forms*
I have	we have
you have	you have
he has	they have
she has	
it has	
Past: Singular Forms	***Past: Plural Forms***
I had	we had
you had	you had
he had	they had
she had	
it had	
Future: Singular Forms	***Future: Plural Forms***
I will have	we will have

you will have	you will have
he will have	they will have
she will have	
it will have	

Did you notice that the verb *have* changes form only in the present tense, when you are talking about one person or thing? The other forms stay the same. Take care not to confuse *has* and *have.*

If you are reading this chapter in order (and you do not have to do so), by now you know that the pronouns in the last box of the first column are the masculine (male) pronoun *he,* the feminine (female) pronoun *she,* and the pronoun for things, *it.* The verb form that matches the masculine pronoun works for any masculine noun. The verb form that matches the feminine pronoun works for any female noun. The form that pairs with *it* is the form you use for any noun that names one thing. The verb form paired with the plural pronoun *they,* which represents a group, works for all plural nouns.

Do you want to see whether you *have* a good grasp of the verb *have?* In the following table, the first column contains a subject, and the second column contains a time. Fill in the third column with a form of the verb *have.*

Subject	***Time***	***Have Verb***
firefighter	present	
tigers	past	
artist	future	
I	present	
you	past	
everyone	future	
Michael	present	

Here are the answers: *has, had, will have, have, had, will have, has.*

Getting Assistance from Helping Verbs

English sentences rely on a main verb and, at times, some *helping verbs.* *Helping verbs* link up with the main verb to create questions, make negative statements, and express duty, probability, and other meanings. In this section I put helping verbs in the spotlight, so you can use them properly in your writing.

Asking questions with helping verbs

In some languages, you ask a question simply by changing your tone of voice or punctuation. You may declare, "We eat now" or ask, "We eat now?" with the same words. In English questions, the order of the words changes, and sometimes you must insert a helping verb such as *do, does,* or *did.* Read these sentences. Notice how they change. Examine the underlined verbs.

STATEMENT: John <u>shops</u> in his hometown.

QUESTION: <u>Does</u> John <u>shop</u> in his hometown?

STATEMENT: John and his friends <u>support</u> local businesses.

QUESTION: <u>Do</u> John and his friends <u>support</u> local businesses?

STATEMENT: Mary <u>used</u> a coupon to reduce the price.

QUESTION: <u>Did</u> Mary <u>use</u> a coupon to reduce the price?

STATEMENT: The store owner <u>gave</u> Mary the reduced price anyway.

QUESTION: <u>Did</u> the store owner <u>give</u> Mary the reduced price anyway?

As you can see, adding the helping verb creates a question in the preceding sentences. When a helping verb appears in the statement, you don't need to add another one to make a question. All you have to do is rearrange the words.

STATEMENT: The coupon <u>had expired</u>.

QUESTION: Had the coupon expired?

STATEMENT: Mary has forgotten her checkbook.

QUESTION: Has Mary forgotten her checkbook?

You don't have to add any words to create a question about the future, either. Just move the word *will:*

STATEMENT: The soup will be on sale next week.

QUESTION: Will the soup be on sale next week?

STATEMENT: Mark will skip class today.

QUESTION: Will Mark skip class today?

For statements with a form of the verb *be*, you can ask a question without adding an extra helping verb. Changing the order of the words is all you have to do.

STATEMENT: I am too busy.

QUESTION: Am I too busy?

STATEMENT: Spot has been a good dog.

QUESTION: Has Spot been a good dog?

STATEMENT: Ellie and Bill were the first guests.

QUESTION: Were Ellie and Bill the first guests?

In the following table, change the statement in the first column to a question. Write the question in the second column. Underline the verbs in the question.

Statement	***Question***
1. Arthur reads every advertisement.	
2. They ride the train every day.	
3. The baseballs have fallen out of the basket.	
4. I will walk four miles tomorrow.	
5. The mystery is solved.	
6. The brave soldiers fight for their country.	
7. All teachers have read that book.	
8. The principal likes the book.	

Here are the answers: 1. *Does Arthur read every advertisement?* 2. *Do they ride the train every day?* 3. *Have the baseballs fallen out of the basket?* 4. *Will I walk four miles tomorrow?* 5. *Is the mystery solved?* 6. *Do the brave soldiers fight for their country?* 7. *Have all teachers read that book?* 8. *Does the principal like the book?*

As you see, you needed no extra helping verbs in 3, 4, 5, and 7. Those statements have forms of *be, do, have,* and *will* in them. Simply rearranging the words is enough to create a question. The other statements do not have one of those words, so you must insert a helping verb.

Creating negative statements with helping verbs

A positive outlook is a good thing, except when you want to say "no" or make some other negative statement. In that situation, you generally need a helping verb and the word *not.* Take a look at these pairs:

POSITIVE STATEMENT: I go to a concert every Friday.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: I do not go to a concert every Friday.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The musicians tuned their instruments.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The musicians did not tune their instruments.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The violin has a broken string.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The violin does not have a broken string.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The conductor raised his hands.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The conductor did not raise his hands.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The audience quieted down.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The audience did not quiet down.

Do you see the pattern? In these examples, you add a helping verb and the word *not* to make a negative statement.

Sometimes, to turn negative, all you need is the word *not.* When? In these situations:

- If the only verb in the sentence is a form of *be*, you do not need a helping verb.
- If another helping verb, such as *has* or *have,* is already in the sentence, you do not need to add a new one.
- If you are speaking of the future, you do not need any extra helping verbs.

In all these situations, just insert *not:*

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The conductor is upset.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The conductor is not upset.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: The conductor has led the orchestra well.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: The conductor has not led the orchestra well.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: She will go to the dance performance tomorrow.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: She will not go to the dance performance tomorrow.

POSITIVE STATEMENT: Al has been snoring all night.

NEGATIVE STATEMENT: Al has not been snoring all night.

You may see a *contraction* — a shortened form — in a negative statement. The word *not* is very often part of the contraction. Whether the whole word is present or not, the meaning is still negative:

he is not — he isn't

we are not — we aren't

Allie did not swim — Allie didn't swim

In Chapter 14, you can find out more about contractions.

In the following table, see whether you can change the positive statement in the first column into a negative statement. Write the negative statement in the second column. Identify the verbs in the negative statement.

Positive	***Negative***
1. The chair has a broken leg.	
2. Ellie is very happy with her part in the play.	
3. Gene sneaks some gum into class.	
4. The executives raised the salaries of their employees.	
5. Every driver beeps the horn often.	
6. The princess costume was very popular this year.	
7. The janitor has cleaned the halls recently.	

Here are the answers: 1. *The chair does not have a broken leg.* 2. *Ellie is not very happy with her part in the play.* 3. *Gene did not sneak some gum into class.* 4. *The executives did not raise the salaries of their employees.* 5. *Every driver does not beep the horn often.* 6. *The princess costume was not very popular this year.* 7. *The janitor has not cleaned the halls recently.*

Notice that you did not have to add a helping verb to statements 2, 6, and 7. Statements 2 and 6 have forms of the verb *be* in them. Statement 7 already

includes a helping verb, *has.* To change statements 2, 6, and 7 into negatives, you simply add *not.*

Expressing duty, ability, and possibility with helping verbs

Should you study English grammar? You can learn the rules easily. With strong English skills, you may earn higher grades and a better salary.

What do you see in the preceding paragraph? Yes, I know you see a reason to buy this book! Apart from that, you also see helping verbs that add a sense of duty *(should),* ability *(can),* and possibility *(may).* Here are some other helping verbs that add meaning to your sentences:

> *must* — duty: I must mail my tax return today.
>
> *could* — ability: Helen said she was so tired that she could sleep for days.
>
> *might* — possibility: Norman might be hungry, so cook a lot of food.
>
> *will* — willingness: The conductor will help with your baggage, if you wish.
>
> *would* — willingness, with conditions: Jean said she would wash the dishes if you would dry them.

These helpers are very powerful. Add them to a sentence to improve your expression of ideas.

Three pairs of "twins" are in the helping-verb family:

- *Can* and *could* both express ability. Strict grammarians usually insert *can* in present or future situations and *could* in past situations.
- *Will* and *would* are another pair that express the same meaning: willingness. *Will* may be better for the present or future, and *would* for the past.
- *May* and *might* express possibility. *May* is generally used for present or future situations, and *might* for the past.

Don't worry too much about these pairs. Most people pick one or the other at

random, and the meaning still comes across clearly.

Try your hand at adding *should*, *can*, *may*, *must*, *could*, *might*, or *would* to each sentence using the following table. To help you decide, I placed some choices in the second column and the intended meaning in the third column.

Sentence	***Possible Helping Verbs***	***Intended Meaning***
1. Henry said that he _____ paint the room for you.	could, should, would	willingness
2. _____ we help you with that suitcase?	May, Will, Must	possibility
3. You _____ take care of the children while I am away.	may, must, would	duty
4. The first grader proudly said, "I _____ read!"	can, should, might	ability
5. Jane _____ dance, if her legs were not sore.	could, would, must	conditions
6. Take an aspirin; it _____ help.	should, must, may	possibility
7. This new tape ____ seal the hole in the roof.	would, should, could	ability
8. She placed apples in the children's rooms because she knew they _____ be hungry.	would, can, might	possibility

Here are the answers: 1. *would* 2. *May* 3. *must* 4. *can* 5. *would* 6. *may* 7. *could* 8. *might.*

Never close?

A sign in the window of a restaurant in my neighborhood proudly states that it is "never close." I like living in New York City, and I know that space is expensive. I peeked in and saw that the tables were very close together. The restaurant is open 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. In other words, it is "never closed." The person who made the sign forgot the letter *D.* These two words sound almost, but not exactly, alike. They have different meanings:

close As a description, the last sound is a strong *s,* like a whistle. It means "near, not far

away.” (Example: Because Linda lives close to me, I visit her often.)

close As a present-tense verb form, the last sound is a strong *z.* The verb *close* means “to shut.” (Example: Please close the door on your way out.)

closed This word may be a past-tense verb form. The last *S* sound in a strong *z.* (Example: Linda closed the book and put it on the shelf.) This word may also be a description, which you apply to something that is not open. (Example: I knocked on the closed door.)

Chapter 6

Describing with Adjectives and Adverbs

In This Chapter

- Describing people, places, and things with adjectives
- Telling *how*, *where*, and *why* with adverbs
- Placing *a* and *an* correctly
- Creating comparisons with adjectives and adverbs

John paints. Workers build houses. Children play games. These sentences give information, but only a little. Most people want to know more. These sentences tell more: *John paints carefully. Skilled workers build fancy, expensive houses. Noisy children play video games frequently.*

The underlined words are adjectives and adverbs. They add meaning and interest to your sentences. These two parts of speech are the same in one way: They both describe. Adjectives and adverbs are not the same in other ways: They describe different parts of speech and give different information.

In this chapter, you find everything you need to know about adjectives and adverbs — how to tell one from another, when to use them, and how to create comparisons with them. You also sort out the proper use of two tiny but important words, *a* and *an*.

Adding Detail with Adjectives

Adjectives give information about people, places, and things. In English-teacher terms, adjectives describe nouns and pronouns. (For more information on nouns, see Chapter 3. Chapter 4 tells you about pronouns.)

Take a look at the way adjectives add meaning. You ask little Mike what he wants for his third birthday. Mike replies, “Snake!” What do you buy?

a poisonous snake

a hungry snake

a giant snake

a rubber snake

The police may want to know which of the underlined words is correct before little Mike opens his present. The underlined words are all adjectives, and they all describe the noun *snake.* As you see, adjectives can give very important information.

Even in less serious situations (those not involving poison!), adjectives add helpful details. Read the sentences in the following table. Notice what the underlined words in the second column add to the sentence. The adjectives are underlined. In the third column, the words the adjectives describe are identified.

Original	***Original Plus Adjectives***	***Explanation***
The waiter brings our soup.	The overworked waiter brings our cold soup.	*overworked* describes *waiter* *cold* describes *soup*
Diners complain about the soup.	Annoyed diners complain about the tasteless soup.	*Annoyed* describes *diners* *tasteless* describes *soup*
The owner apologizes to the customers.	The embarrassed owner apologizes to the disappointed customers.	*embarrassed* describes *owner* *disappointed* describes *customers*
Owners hire waiters.	Wise owners hire extra waiters.	*Wise* describes *owners* *extra* describes *waiters*
Owners pay salaries.	Generous owners pay high salaries.	*Generous* describes *owners* *high* describes *salaries*
		Many and *good*

Applicants compete for jobs.	Many good applicants compete for desirable jobs.	describe *applicants* *desirable* describes *jobs*
Restaurants have customers.	Efficient restaurants have happy customers.	*Efficient* describes *restaurants* *happy* describes *customers*

In this table, every adjective gives information about the nouns in the sentence.

Occasionally, adjectives can also describe pronouns. Pronouns take the place of nouns. The pronoun *everything*, for example, substitutes for the name of every single thing in the group. Look at this sentence:

Everyone available should report to duty.

In this sentence, *available* is an adjective describing the pronoun *everyone.*

How to find adjectives

Adjectives give information about nouns and pronouns (see Figure 6-1). To find adjectives, look at a noun and ask three questions:

- How many?
- Which one?
- What kind?

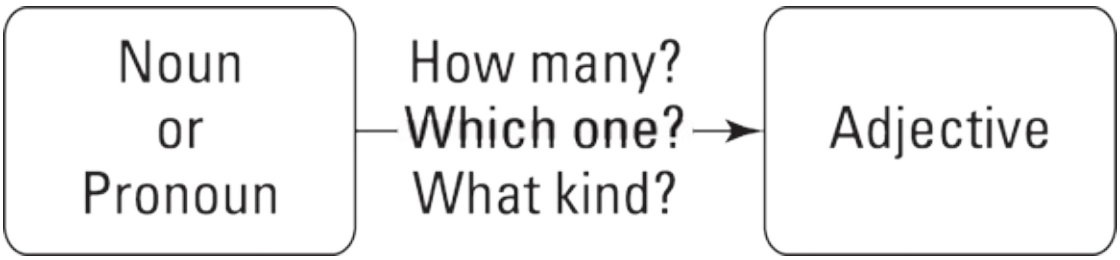

Figure 6-1: How to identify adjectives.

You may get an answer to one question or to more than one question. The word that answers the question is an adjective. Watch these questions in

action, based on this sentence:

Three soft pillows were on the lumpy bed.

First, notice the nouns — *pillows* and *bed.* Focus on one noun at a time:

- How many *pillows? Three. Three* is an adjective. It describes the noun *pillows.*
- Which *pillows?* No answer.
- What kind of *pillows? Soft pillows. Soft* is an adjective. It describes the noun *pillows.*

Now look at the second noun, *bed.* Ask the questions:

- How many *bed?* No answer.
- Which *bed?* No answer.
- What kind of *bed? Lumpy bed. Lumpy* is an adjective. It describes the noun *bed.*

TIP You probably noticed that the first question (*How many bed?)* is odd. Normally, you would ask, "How many *beds?*" Do not focus on how the questions sound. Just ask each question and search the sentence for an answer.

Do you have enough energy for another example? Take a look at this sentence:

Every bill is unpaid and overdue.

The noun in this sentence is *bill.* Apply the questions:

- How many *bills?* No answer.
- Which *bills? Every bill. Every* is an adjective. It describes the noun *bill.*
- What kind of *bill? Unpaid* and *overdue. Unpaid* and *overdue* are adjectives. They describe the noun *bill.*

Do not rest now. Try one more:

Nothing bad will happen!

This sentence has one pronoun, *nothing.* Ask the questions:

- How many *nothing?* No answer.
- Which *nothing?* No answer.
- What kind? *Bad. Bad* is an adjective. It describes the pronoun *nothing.*

Sometimes, when you ask questions to find adjectives, the answer contains many words. English teachers call these longer answers *phrases* and *clauses.* Do not worry about labels. They are not important! For now, focus on single-word answers.

Where to find adjectives

Finding adjectives is easier if you know where to look. So where can you find adjectives? In the Adjective Department of your local store. Just kidding! Adjectives usually show up in front of the words they describe:

pretty flower

smelly cheese

rotten tomatoes

grouchy lady

uncomfortable chair

eager fans

Sometimes adjectives appear in different places. They may follow a verb that expresses a state of being. A verb that expresses a state of being is like an equal sign in math. Two ideas, one before and one after the verb, are linked. (For more information on verbs, turn to Chapter 5.)

Take a look at this sentence:

Scott is tired and cranky.

Here is another way to think about this sentence:

Scott = tired and cranky

The adjectives *tired* and *cranky* describe the noun *Scott*. The verb *is* expresses a state of being and acts as an equal sign.

Here is another example of a sentence that follows the same pattern. The adjectives are underlined.

Lola has been cheerful, but I know that she is tense.

Lola = cheerful she = tense

In the first part of the sentence, the adjective *cheerful* describes the noun *Lola*. The verb *has been* expresses a state of being. In the second part of the sentence, the adjective *tense* describes the pronoun *she*. The verb *is* expresses a state of being.

Take a look at this example, which follows the same pattern.

That box seems mysterious.

box = mysterious

The adjective *mysterious* describes the noun *box*. The verb *seems* expresses a state of being.

Here is one more example:

I am unhappy because the cake looks disgusting.

I = unhappycake = disgusting

The adjective *unhappy* describes the pronoun *I*. The verb *am* expresses a state of being. In the second part of the sentence, the adjective *disgusting* describes the noun *cake*. The verb *looks* expresses a state of being.

Verbs that express a state of being are usually forms of the verb *be*.

Sometimes, verbs that explain how you take in information through your senses also express a state of being. *Look, appear, seem, smell, taste,* and *feel* are examples of these verbs. These verbs may link a description to a noun or pronoun.

An adjective may also follow the noun or pronoun it describes:

Something sticky was inside. (The adjective *sticky* describes the pronoun *something.*)

Peter, funny and confident, easily won the election. (The adjectives *funny* and *confident* describe the noun *Peter.*)

Everything scary and silly appears on Halloween. (The adjectives *scary* and *silly* describe the pronoun *everything.*)

Now it is time for you to search for adjectives. Write the adjectives in the middle column. In the last column, write the word the adjectives describe.

Sentence	***Adjectives***	***Words the Adjectives Describe***
1. My cat, hungry and tired, scratched me.		
2. The sauce smells terrible.		
3. Happy children are running over there.		
4. Bright sunlight hurts my eyes.		
5. Fatty food may damage your health.		
6. Hamburgers taste delicious.		
7. Everything ready should be in the car now.		

Here are the answers: 1. The adjectives *hungry* and *tired* describe *cat.* 2. The adjective *terrible* describes *sauce.* 3. The adjective *happy* describes *children.* 4. The adjective *bright* describes *sunlight.* 5. The adjective *fatty* describes *food.* 6. The adjective *delicious* describes *hamburgers.* 7. The adjective *ready* describes *everything.*

Adjectives add useful information to your sentences. They describe nouns and pronouns and answer the questions *how many? which one?* or *what kind?*

Writing Well with Adverbs

Every English sentence contains at least one "doing" or "being" word (a verb). Many verbs come with descriptions attached — words that tell you *how, when, where,* or *under what conditions* the "doing" or "being" occurs. Words that describe verbs are *adverbs.* The relationship between verbs and adverbs is very close. In fact, one word (adverb) contains the other (verb)! Adverbs have another job, too. Adverbs such as *very* or *less* change the intensity of a description. In this section, you see how adverbs perform both of these roles.

Adding information to verbs

A film director speaks to four actors. The director says, "Go to the door." The actors go to the door — but not in the same way:

Mary goes <u>slowly</u>.

Mark goes <u>quickly</u>.

Jenny goes <u>immediately</u>.

Arthur goes <u>later</u>.

The underlined words are adverbs. Each one changes the way the action occurs. The adverbs add meaning to the verb *goes.* In other words, the adverbs describe the verb *goes.*

Here is the film director again, in an outdoor scene. This time, the director yells, "Go!" Once more, the actors react differently:

Mary goes <u>here</u>.

Mark goes <u>there</u>.

Jenny goes <u>reluctantly</u>.

Arthur goes eagerly.

The adverbs add information about the action expressed by the word *goes*. Words that explain what someone or something is doing are verbs. Adverbs may describe these verbs.

Adverbs may also describe verbs that express a state of being — what someone or something *is*, *was*, or *will be*. Look at these examples:

The director was home.

Mary originally seemed smart.

Mark definitely is smarter than Mary.

Do not worry about what kind of verb an adverb describes. Just remember that adverbs give important information about action or state of being.

Using the example of a film director, the director gets better results by adding adverbs. In the table below, you find the director's statements and then the same statements with adverbs. Can you see how the underlined adverbs help the actors understand what the director wants?

Director's Original Comment	***Original Plus Adverbs***	***Explanation***
Mary says her line.	Mary says her line sadly.	*sadly* describes *says*
Arthur falls.	Arthur now falls.	*now* describes *falls*
Mark helps Arthur.	Mark promptly helps Arthur.	*promptly* describes *helps*
Jenny speaks.	Then, Jenny speaks angrily.	*Then* and *angrily* describe *speaks*
Jenny's character is upset.	Jenny's character is always upset.	*always* describes *is*
Mary, Mark, and Arthur pay attention to Jenny.	Mary, Mark, and Arthur never pay attention to Jenny.	*never* describes *pay*
Jenny walks.	Jenny walks out.	*out* describes *walks*

To locate an adverb, first pay attention to verbs (doing or being words). Ask these questions:

- How?
- When?
- Where?
- Under what conditions?

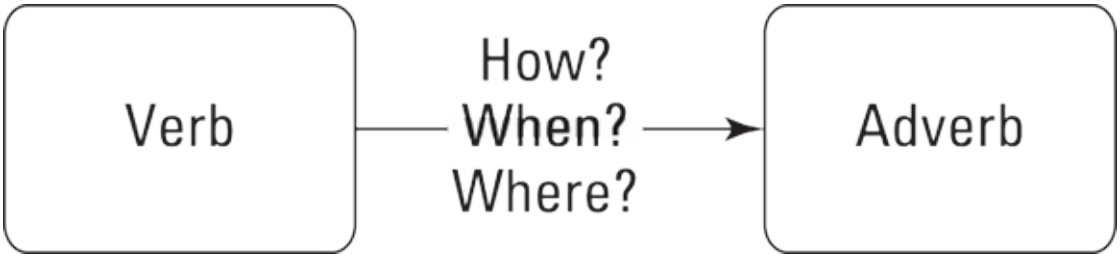

Figure 6-2: Questions to find adverbs.

Figure 6-2 shows you the questions. Take a look at them, applied to this sentence:

> Later, alone, Bert completely understood the reason for Ellen's impolite comment.

This sentence contains one verb, *understood.* Apply the questions:

> *Understood* how? *Completely understood. Completely* is an adverb. It describes the verb *understood.*
>
> *Understood* when? *Understood later. Later* is an adverb. It describes the verb *understood.*
>
> *Understood* where? No answer.
>
> *Understood* under what conditions? *Understood alone. Alone* is an adverb. It describes the verb *understood.*

Here is another sentence, so you can see the questions in action again:

> Peter recently moved away.

The sentence contains one verb, *moved.* Apply the questions:

Moved how? No answer. *Moved* when? *Recently. Recently* is an adverb. It describes the verb *moved.*

Moved where? *Away. Away* is an adverb. It describes the verb *moved.*

Moved under what conditions? No answer.

Adverbs that describe verbs like to travel — not around the world, but around a sentence. They may appear at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence. As long as the meaning is clear, you may place an adverb anywhere you like.

Adding meaning to descriptions

How stubborn are you? Very stubborn? Rather stubborn? Only slightly stubborn? The answer to this question may matter a lot to a parent, a teacher, or an employer who has to tell you what to do! Each underlined word adds to the meaning of the descriptive word *stubborn.* Each underlined word is an adverb. In these examples, the adverbs describe another description, *stubborn,* adding or taking away intensity.

Here are more examples of adverbs that give information about other descriptive words:

very pretty

less friendly

extremely hard

too easy

fairly simple

overly complicated

Where do you find an adverb doing this job? Right in front of the word the adverb describes. Besides location, you can find an adverb that describes a description by asking one question: How?

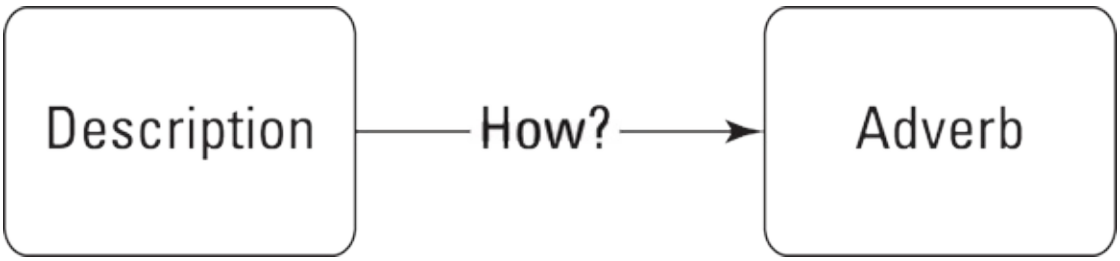

Figure 6-3: Adjective or adverb.

Would you like to see this question in action? Here is an example sentence. Pay close attention to the descriptions:

> Much earlier, Bert had made a very rude comment to Ellen.

Examine the descriptions and ask the question. The sentence includes two descriptive words. One is an adverb. The other is an adjective. (Look at the section "Adding Detail with Adjectives" earlier in this chapter for more information on adjectives.) Start with the description *earlier:*

> *Earlier* how? *Much earlier*. *Much* is an adverb. It describes another adverb, *earlier.*

Now look at the descriptive word *rude:*

> *Rude* how? *Very rude. Very* is an adverb. It describes the adjective *rude*.

Adverbs can change the intensity of a description. Sometimes the description becomes more intense:

> extremely talented
>
> totally secure
>
> very silly

Sometimes the description becomes less intense:

> slightly confusing
>
> least boring

less greedy

When you ask questions to find adverbs, the answer may contain many words. English teachers call these longer answers *phrases* and *clauses.* Do not worry about labels. They are not important! For now, focus on single-word answers. If you want to know more about phrases, turn to Chapter 7.

It is time for you to search for adverbs. Write the adverbs in the middle column. In the last column, write the word, or words, the adverb describes.

Sentence	***Adverbs***	***Words the Adverbs Describe***
1. Johnny often lost his temper.		
2. The teacher was quite skilled.		
3. Sophie is really hungry.		
4. Andrew never tells very long stories.		
5. The mayor's extremely late budget has now created problems.		
6. Yesterday, you strongly favored that decision.		
7. Ed prefers a more modern style of furniture.		

Here are the answers: 1. The adverb *often* describes the verb *lost.* 2. The adverb *quite* describes another description, *skilled.* 3. The adverb *really* describes another description, *hungry.* 4. The adverb *never* describes the verb *tells.* The adverb *very* describes another description, *long.* 5. The adverb *extremely* describes another description, *late.* The adverb *now* describes the verb *has created.* 6. The adverbs *yesterday* and *strongly* describe the verb *favored.* 7. The adverb *more* describes another description, *modern.*

Adverbs add useful information about actions and states of being. They also change the intensity of other descriptions.

Choosing between Adjectives and Adverbs

Builders need the right tools for every kind of job. They cannot hammer a nail with a screwdriver. They cannot turn a screw with a hammer, either! When you build a sentence, you must also choose the right tool — the part of speech that can do the job you have in mind.

Adjectives and adverbs are like hammers and screwdrivers. They work differently. When you select a descriptive word, follow these guidelines:

- **When you are describing a person, place, or thing, use an adjective.** Adjectives tell you how many, which one, or what kind of person or thing you are talking about. (For more information on nouns, refer to Chapter 3. Turn to Chapter 4 to learn more about pronouns.)
- **When you are describing an action or state of being, select an adverb.** Adverbs tell you how, when, where, why, or under what conditions in reference to words that express action or states of being.
- **When you increase or decrease the intensity of another description, use an adverb.** Words such as *very, too, extremely,* and *less* are adverbs. They attach to other descriptions.
- **Many descriptive words have two forms — one an adjective and the other an adverb.** For example, *frequent* is an adjective and *frequently* is an adverb. Be sure to use the right one!
- **Adverbs often end with the letters *ly*.** Be careful! Not every adverb has this ending. Some words that end with *ly,* such as *lovely,* are not adverbs.
- **The dictionary identifies the part of speech.** If you are not sure whether a word is an adjective or an adverb, the dictionary will tell you.

Here are some adjectives and adverbs. In each pair, the first word is an adjective, and the second is an adverb. Look carefully at the examples, so you see how these words are properly used.

Adjective	***Example***	***Adverb***	***Example***
real	Nancy buys real butter.	really	David is really funny.

sure	Harriet thinks this is a sure bet.	surely	He surely knew the name of the murderer.
good	We write good books.	well	I feel well.
bad	I felt bad when I saw the damage.	badly	They danced so badly that they were told not to go on stage again.
hungry	Martha is hungry, so she is cooking now.	hungrily	Martha hungrily gobbled up the stew.
beautiful	A beautiful flower sits on my desk.	beautifully	Henry danced beautifully.
ordinary	On an ordinary day, I get up early.	ordinarily	Max ordinarily shops on Main Street.
usual	An apple is his usual snack.	usually	Do you usually go to the theater, or is today a special event?
quick	A quick move to the left saved her from the speeding truck.	quickly	Come quickly!
secret	Shall I tell you the secret password?	secretly	Mary secretly loves Tim, but she will never tell him.
sweet	Everyone in my family loves sweet desserts.	sweetly	She asked so sweetly that he had to say yes.

For each sentence, choose the correct word from the parentheses.

1. My dog barks _____ (loyal, loyally) when he sees me.
2. The neighbors are _____ (real, really) annoyed by his barking.
3. I think he is a _____ (good, well) pet, but they disagree _____ (strong, strongly).
4. Do you _____ (true, truly) want me to send my _____ (poor, poorly) dog away?
5. You need earplugs _____ (bad, badly).

Here are the answers: 1. *loyally* (an adverb describing the verb *barks*) 2. *really* (an adverb describing the description *annoyed*) 3. *good* (an adjective

describing the noun *pet*); *strongly* (an adverb describing the verb *disagree*) 4. *truly* (an adverb describing the verb *do want*); *poor* (an adjective describing the noun *dog*) 5. *badly* (an adverb describing the verb *need*).

Do you feel bad? Or badly?

How should you answer this question? Probably with the word *bad,* because *bad* is an adjective. When you say that you feel *bad,* you are describing yourself — your mood, your feelings, or your physical condition. The word *badly* is an adverb. Adverbs attach to verbs. If you say that you feel *badly,* you are making a statement about your ability to feel. Maybe you have gloves on and cannot feel anything with your fingertips. Perhaps you have a medical condition that deadens your nerves. In those situations, you feel *badly.* Most of the time, though, the right word is *bad.*

Placing "a" and "an" in the Proper Place

Do you have an apple? How about a pear? I love to find a bargain when I shop for an automobile. Do you have an accountant? An expert helps me fill out a tax form quickly and easily. A tax attorney is also useful.

As you probably noticed, I underlined two little words — *a* and *an* — in the preceding sentences. *A* and *an* attach to nouns. (Nouns are words that name people, places, and things. For more information, read Chapter 3.) These words do the same job. Each tells you that you are speaking of one person, place, or thing — but in a general way. If I offer you a piece of fruit, I can pick anything from the fruit basket. If I refer to an orange, I don't have one particular orange in mind.

The word *the* is sometimes mentioned when people talk about *a* and *an*, because *the* does more or less the same job. *The* works for both singular (one) and plural (more than one) nouns. *The* is more specific, though. If I say, "I ate the pear," I have one particular pear in mind.

To decide between *a* and *an*, follow these steps:

- **Check the beginning of the word that follows.** What sound does the

word begin with?

- **Generally, use *an* if the word begins with a vowel sound.** The letters *a, e, i, o,* and *u* are vowels. ***Note:*** The letter *u* is complicated. If it is long (you can hear the name of the letter), as in *university,* use *a.* If it is a short vowel, as in *uncle,* use *an.*
- **Use *a* if the word does not begin with a vowel sound.** If you can rule out *a, e, i, o,* and a short *u,* use *a.*

Notice that your decision between *a* and *an* is based on sound, not spelling. Most of the time, the actual vowel appears at the beginning of the word. Sometimes, the vowel has a silent letter in front: *hour,* for example, has a silent letter *h.* You study for *an hour,* not for *a hour.*

Place *a* or *an* in each blank:

1. _____ computer displays _____ image or words on _____ screen.
2. _____ addition problem is easy. You do not need _____ hour to find _____ answer.
3. _____ coat is _____ unnecessary item in _____ hot country.
4. Taking _____ walk to _____ park is _____ exercise you will enjoy.

Here are the answers: 1. *A, an, a* 2. *An, an, an* 3. *A, an, a* 4. *a, a, an.*

Making Comparisons with Adjectives and Adverbs

Do you like to compare yourself to others? Perhaps you wonder if you are happier than your friends. You may wish to know who is the smartest person in the class or who owns the least valuable car.

Most people do make comparisons. They do so with adjectives and adverbs. Take a look at some proper comparisons. The adjectives and adverbs are

underlined.

This piece of glass is sharp, but the other one is sharper.

Out of 25 students, Gloria was the shortest.

Arthur danced more gracefully than Alice.

Alice's shoes were less comfortable than Arthur's.

Of all the mathematicians, Gina solved the problems most efficiently.

The least confident test-taker often scores the lowest grade.

Did you notice that some comparisons are created with one word, and others with more than one word? In the following sections, you see how to create both types of comparisons.

Single-word comparisons

Many comparisons have very simple forms. To compare one person or thing to one other person or thing, you add *er* to the description. To compare one person or thing to a group of two or more others, you add *est* to the description.

If the description already ends with the letter *e*, you just add *r* or *st*. You do not double the *e*.

Take a look at these comparisons. The description is in the first column. The second column contains the form for comparing two things. The third is the form for a group of three or more.

Description	***Comparing Two***	***Comparing Three or More***
simple	simpler	simplest
old	older	oldest
plain	plainer	plainest
high	higher	highest
strange	stranger	strangest
narrow	narrower	narrowest

slow	slower	slowest
deep	deeper	deepest

Sometimes the spelling of the description changes when you add *er* or *est* to the end. Look at these examples:

Description	***Comparing Two***	***Comparing Three or More***
tasty	tastier	tastiest
pretty	prettier	prettiest
friendly	friendlier	friendliest
fat	fatter	fattest
lively	livelier	liveliest
lonely	lonelier	loneliest
noisy	noisier	noisiest

If you are not sure how to spell a single-word comparison, check the dictionary.

Two-word comparisons

Most single-word comparisons start with a simple description — a fairly short word. Comparisons that begin with longer words rely on an extra word. You add *more* or *most* to the basic description. *More* creates a comparison between one person or thing and one other person or thing. *Most* creates a comparison between one person or thing and a group of two or more others. Take a look at these examples:

Description	***Comparing Two***	***Comparing Three or More***
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
expensive	more expensive	most expensive
experienced	more experienced	most experienced
recently	more recently	most recently
quickly	more quickly	most quickly
happily	more happily	most happily

generous	more generous	most generous

If you are not sure how to create a comparison, check your dictionary. Usually, a dictionary definition includes the word form for a comparison if that form is a single word. If you do not see a comparison, you probably need to add *more* or *most.*

Not every comparison is positive. Some are negative. Take a look at these examples:

In singing, Alex is <u>less talented</u> than Oliver.

Oliver is the <u>least talented</u> piano player in the class.

This violin sounds <u>less beautiful</u> than the other one.

My pony competes with ten others, and he is the <u>least afraid</u> of jumping.

The corn muffin is <u>less sweet</u> than the blueberry muffin.

Mary hates all the shoes, and she selects the <u>least ugly</u> pair.

As you see, *less* compares one person or thing to one other person or thing. *Least* compares one person or thing to a group of at least two others.

Irregular comparisons

English has many rules. English also breaks many rules! Some words do not depend on *er, est,* or *more, most, less,* or *least* to form comparisons. These rule-breakers are irregular, but important. Here they are:

Description	***Comparing Two***	***Comparing Three or More***
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
well	better	best
little	less	least
many	more	most
much	more	most

You probably noticed that some words in the second and third columns

repeat. The forms for comparing are the same. Why? I have no idea!

To test your knowledge of comparisons, fill in the missing columns in this table. In the first column, you see the description, plus the word *positive* or *negative.* A *positive* comparison adds *er, est, more,* or *most* (plus some irregular forms). A *negative* comparison relies on *less* or *least* (plus some irregular forms). Good luck!

Description	***Comparing Two***	***Comparing Three or More***
1. ignorant (positive)		
2. tough (negative)		
3. modern (positive)		
4. valuable (negative)		
5. good (positive)		
6. bad (negative)		
7. spicy (positive)		

Here are the answers: 1. *more ignorant, most ignorant* 2. *less tough, least tough* 3. *more modern, most modern* 4. *less valuable, least valuable* 5. *better, best* 6. *worse, worst* 7. *spicier, spiciest.*

Going against the tide: *Anti*

You may have an old *auntie* in your family, the sister of your father or mother, who loves to protest. She hates the food you cook, she can't stand the way you decorated the guest bedroom, and she says that your friends are the most annoying people in the world. This type of auntie loves a word part, *anti.* Why? The word part, *anti,* means "against." When you attach *anti* to the beginning of a word, you state opposition. Take a look at these examples:

antiwar against war (Tens of thousands of people attended the antiwar protest.)

anticommunist against communism (The anticommunist forces won the battle after many years of struggle.)

antisocial against society, including individual private gatherings, and large communities (Because Jeff is antisocial, he seldom goes to parties. Spraying paint on the Town Hall is an antisocial act.)

antibiotic against germs (He took an antibiotic for ten days and recovered completely.)

antiabortion against abortion (Antiabortion groups criticized the judge's decision.)

antifreeze a liquid that doesn't freeze at normal temperatures because it works "against freezing" (Helen adds antifreeze during the winter.)

antiaircraft defenses that protect against attacks from the air (The antiaircraft defense station is near the border.)

antipoverty against poverty (The antipoverty program built housing for the poor.)

You can attach *anti* to many other words. Sometimes a small line called a *hyphen* appears between *anti* and the word it connects to, especially if that word is a name that is usually capitalized. For example, anti-Obama protesters are against, or oppose, the beliefs or actions of President Obama.

Warning: Sometimes a word begins with *anti,* but the meaning has nothing to do with being against something. *Antique,* for example, means "something very old." It does not mean "against que," because *que* is not a word in English.

Chapter 7

Little Things Mean a Lot: Prepositions

In This Chapter

- Identifying prepositions and the phrases they appear in
- Locating the object of a preposition
- Selecting pronouns to follow prepositions
- Placing prepositional phrases in the correct spot

Do you want to know more about a relationship? You can look at a dating site on the Internet. You can ask your friends. You can watch a talk-show on television. Or, you can check for prepositions. Yes, a part of speech actually helps to explain relationships!

In this chapter, you discover how to find the right preposition to express your intended meaning. You also identify the preposition's *object* — an important word — and see how to place prepositions and objects properly.

Recognizing Prepositions

Prepositions are usually little words. Some are only two-letters long. These little words, though, mean a lot when you add them to your sentences. Take a look at these examples:

> Where are you now? Sitting <u>on</u> a chair? <u>Under</u> the sofa?
>
> When do you study grammar? <u>After</u> lunch? <u>Until</u> May?
>
> What are you holding? A book <u>by</u> a famous writer? A gift <u>for</u> your mom?

The underlined words are prepositions. These words establish relationships in various ways. In the first set of examples, the preposition links *you* to a *chair* and *sofa*. In the second set, a preposition links *you* to *lunch* and *May*.

Prepositions in the last set of examples link *book* and *writer* and *gift* and *mom*.

In this section, you learn to identify the most common prepositions and the relationships they create.

Locating items and actions with prepositions

One important job for prepositions is to act as a sort of grammatical compass, telling you where something is in relation to something else.

Here is a daisy. It is

- in the vase
- behind your ear
- with the roses
- in front of the classroom
- next to the other flowers
- on the counter
- at the center
- under your pillow

The underlined words are prepositions. They signal location by telling you where the daisy is in relation to the *vase*, *your ear*, *the roses*, *the classroom*, *the other flowers*, *the counter*, *the center*, and *your pillow*.

Here are other prepositions of location:

- above
- along
- among
- around
- behind
- below
- between
- beyond

down

into

over

past

through

toward

underneath

up

upon

within

All by themselves, these words carry very little meaning. That's why they are relationship words. They need to be in a relationship in order to express meaning. (Prepositions are like people in that way, don't you think?)

See whether you can find the prepositions in these sentences. Underline them. Notice how these prepositions explain location.

1. The horse jumped over the fence and ran across the finish line.
2. Beyond the field, crowds gathered and watched the horse run past the farm.
3. He ran toward the mountains.
4. Everybody climbed up the mountain next to the farm.
5. The horse slid down the slope but did not go over the cliff.

Here are the answers: 1. *over, across* 2. *Beyond, past* 3. *toward* 4. *up, next to* 5. *down, over.*

Not every preposition is a single word. *Next to,* for example, is a two-word preposition.

Telling time with prepositions

When do you relax?

Before bedtime? After lunch?

How long have you been studying?

Since Tuesday? From nine until five?

The underlined words in the examples are prepositions. They give information about time. Other "time" prepositions include

at

before

between

beyond

during

for

until

These prepositions are sometimes better than a clock. They do not always tell you a specific time, but they give you information about when an action is taking place.

Look for time expressions in these sentences. Underline the prepositions:

1. She slept until nine o'clock, and her class starts at eight!
2. Since September, she has been late on Tuesdays, but not on Fridays.
3. Her teacher believes she will not last beyond January.
4. If she works during her lunch hour, or between dinner and bedtime, she may pass.
5. Before tomorrow, she will buy an alarm clock.

Here are the answers: 1. *until, at* 2. *Since, on, on* 3.*beyond* 4. *during, between* 5. *Before.*

Discussing other relationships with prepositions

Time and space are important. So are other ideas that prepositions express. Read this message, sent from a supervisor to an employee:

> Without your help, Joan, I can complete the task. I can do that job by myself and the rest of the work with a group. I voted against you when you asked to be on the team. Everyone except you has skills we need. We need someone like Helen for our team.

What a cruel boss! The ideas may not be very helpful to Joan, but the underlined prepositions *are* helpful. They make the comment crystal clear. These prepositions explain other relationships. In the first sentence in this example, *without* shows the relationship between completing the task and Joan; you know that completing the task can happen without Joan, in her supervisor's opinion. Other prepositions not related to time and place include:

according to

besides

by

depending on

of

off

These prepositions give significant details to your reader or listener. Watch for them!

People who are learning English as a second language sometimes have trouble with prepositions. Often, a preposition that is proper in one language does not translate directly into English. If you are not sure which preposition to select, check the dictionary. Choosing the wrong one can create problems! For example:

Mary: May I sit with you at the concert?

James: Yes, of course.

Mary: May I sit on you at the concert?

James: No! Buy your own ticket!

Underline the prepositions in these sentences:

1. Among friends, the famous actor relaxed.
2. According to the photographer, the actor danced with many partners.
3. He knew everyone except me, but he was friendly to me anyway.
4. A film of the party will be on the Internet soon.
5. I received a large payment for it.

Here are the answers: 1. *Among* 2. *According to, with* 3. *except, to* 4. *of, on* 5. *for.*

Identifying Objects of Prepositions

Every so often, a story appears in the news about an unidentified flying object. People love to think that something they saw in the sky — an object — is a spaceship from Mars. Finding an object like that would make you rich and famous. Unfortunately, finding the object of a preposition will not make you rich and famous. However, you still need to look for these objects. You have to know what they are so you can use them properly.

One strange reason why you have to identify an object of a preposition is to ignore it! When you are matching subjects and verbs (a topic explained in Chapter 11), prepositions and their objects may confuse you and lead you to the wrong choice. If you know what they are, you can mentally cross them out and pair up the real subject and verb.

Finding objects through meaning

Every preposition begins a unit of thought. Take a look at these phrases:

around the full moon

by this manufacturer

into the roof

to them

on the same topic

to a large audience

about Lola

In each phrase, the underlined word is an object. It completes the meaning of the link the preposition creates. For example, suppose you say that:

The baseball crashed into the tiled roof.

The preposition *into* links an action, *crashed*, to a place, *roof*. Without *roof*, the link is incomplete.

An *object* is always a noun or a pronoun. (For more information on nouns, turn to Chapter 3. Chapter 4 provides more detail about pronouns.)

The object may have descriptions attached to it. In the example list at the beginning of this section, *full* describes the object *moon*, *same* describes the object *topic*, and *large* describes the object *audience*. Do not confuse the description with the object. Descriptions are usually adjectives. (Chapter 6 provides more information on adjectives.)

Sometimes, a preposition may have two or more objects. Read these sentences:

Mom yelled at Bobby and me this morning.

The package sent by George and Will arrived already.

Dust fell on the chairs, tables, and floor.

In the first example, the preposition, *at*, has two objects — *Bobby* and *me*. In the second sentence, the preposition *by* has two objects also — *George* and *Will*. In the last sentence, three nouns (*chairs*, *tables*, and *floor*) act as objects of the preposition *on*.

Locating objects with questions

You can also locate the object by saying the preposition and then asking two questions, *whom?* and *what?* Take a look at Figure 7-1:

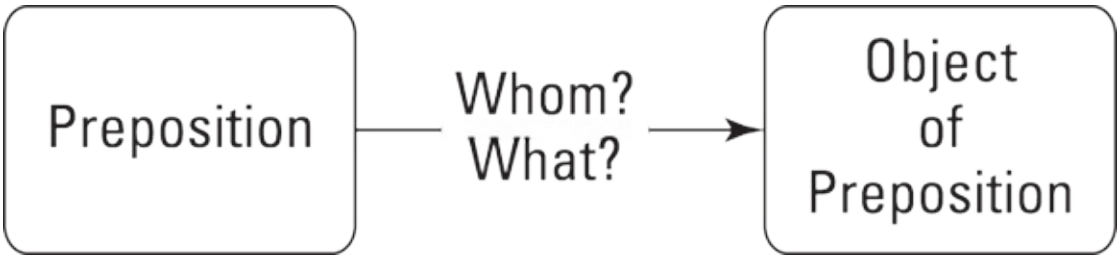

Figure 7-1: Questions to find the object of a preposition.

The answer to these questions may include several words — the object plus descriptions. Focus on the object, which is always a noun or pronoun.

Here is this technique in action, based on this sample sentence:

The top of the old tower was damaged in a recent attack.

In this sentence, you see two prepositions, *of* and *in*. Start with *of:*

of whom? No answer.

of what? *of the old tower*

The object of the preposition *of* is the noun *tower. Old* is a description, not an object. Now look at the second preposition, *in:*

in whom? No answer.

in what? *in a recent attack*

The object of the preposition *in* is the noun *attack*. *Recent* is a description, not an object.

A word may look the same as a preposition, but it is not a true preposition unless it has an object. Note how these two sentences differ:

Mike climbed up.

Mike climbed up the ladder.

In the first sentence, *up* is all by itself. *Up* is an adverb in this sentence. (For more information on adverbs, check out Chapter 6.) In the second sentence, *up* is a preposition because it has an object, *ladder.*

Check out the following sentences (column one). Write the prepositions in column two and the objects in column three.

Sentence	***Prepositions***	***Objects***
1. During the hurricane, the wind blew steadily.		
2. Water from the ocean flooded my basement.		
3. In a huge pile of dirty sand, I found my sneakers.		
4. A wet line on the basement wall marked the water's high point.		
5. My family and I carried sand out of the house.		
6. Mom made sandwiches for me and my helpers.		

Here are the answers: 1. *During* — preposition, *hurricane* — object 2. *from* — preposition, *ocean* — object 3. *In* — preposition, *pile* — object; *of* — preposition, *sand* — object 4. *on* — preposition, *wall* — object 5. *out of* — preposition, *house* — object 6. *for* — preposition, *me* and *helpers* — objects.

The easiest way to find the object is to look after the preposition. The

object always follows the preposition.

Between: A misunderstood preposition

Pretend for a moment that *between* is a person, not a word. *Between* would be a popular guest on talk shows. Why? Because *between* is often misunderstood. On television, *between* would cry and talk about how often it is placed with *I* — not *me,* as it should be. *Between* would also complain that it does not belong in large groups.

Here is a guide to using *between* properly:

WRONG: Between you and I, I think this talk-show host is quite boring.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Between* is a preposition. The object of a preposition must be an object pronoun. The pronoun *I* is a subject pronoun.

RIGHT: Between you and me, I think this talk-show host is quite boring.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the object pronoun *me* acts as an object of the preposition *between.*

WRONG: Penny shared the profits between Alan and he.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Between* is a preposition. The object of a preposition must be an object pronoun. The pronoun *he* is a subject pronoun.

RIGHT: Penny shared the profits between Alan and him.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the object pronoun *him* acts as an object of the preposition *between.*

The preposition *between* is often used improperly in another type of situation. *Between* is the preposition you want when you are talking about two people or things. If the group is larger than two, the preposition you need is *among.* Check out these examples:

WRONG: Lola could not decide between the three motorcycles.

WHY IT IS WRONG: For a group of three, use the preposition *among.*

RIGHT: Lola could not decide between the two motorcycles.

ALSO RIGHT: Lola could not decide among the three motorcycles.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: *Between* is the proper preposition for a pair; *among* is the preposition you want for three or more.

WRONG: The contract was negotiated between all eight suppliers.

WHY IT IS WRONG: When you have *eight suppliers,* you need the preposition *among. Between* works only for pairs.

RIGHT: The contract was negotiated among all eight suppliers.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Among* is correct because the group of suppliers has more than two members.

Choosing Pronouns as Objects of Prepositions

When a noun — the name of a person, place, or thing — is the object of a preposition, everything is easy. Nouns work as subjects and objects without changing form. Pronouns — words that substitute for nouns — can cause a lot of trouble. Why? Pronouns are a divided family. Members of one branch of the family work as subjects. Members of another branch of the family are not allowed to do that job. They act as objects instead.

To serve as the object of a preposition, you need an object pronoun. Here are examples of correct and incorrect pronouns performing the "object of the preposition job":

WRONG: Take the pizza pie to <u>he</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *he* is for subjects, not objects.

RIGHT: Take the pizza pie to <u>him</u>.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *him* is for objects.

WRONG: She split the pie among Bill, Jenny, and <u>I</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *I* is for subjects, not objects.

RIGHT: She split the pie among Bill, Jenny, and <u>me</u>.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *me* is for objects.

WRONG: Bill threw his slice at <u>she</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *she* is for subjects, not objects.

RIGHT: Bill threw his slice at <u>her</u>.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *her* is for objects.

WRONG: Jenny was angry at Bill and <u>we</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The pronoun *we* is for subjects, not objects.

RIGHT: Jenny was angry at Bill and <u>us</u>.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The pronoun *us* is for objects.

The most common object pronouns are *me, us, you, him, her, it, them,* and *whom.* For more information on pronouns, turn to Chapter 4.

Select a pronoun to act as the object of a preposition from the choices in parentheses. Write the pronoun in the blank.

1. The robber told his story to _____ (they, them).
2. Then the robber escaped with _____ (she, her).
3. Police officers ran around _____ (we, us) to follow the criminal.
4. The newspaper article about the robber and _____ (he, him) is not true.
5. There were no romantic conversations between the robber and _____ (I, me).

Here are the answers: 1. *them* 2. *her* 3. *us* 4. *him* 5. *me.*

Placing Prepositional Phrases in the Proper Place

A preposition and its object form a description. Sometimes, you can place this description in several spots in the sentence without changing the meaning. Read these example sentences:

On the bed lay a bright blue quilt.

A bright blue quilt lay on the bed.

Over the fence sailed the baseball.

The baseball sailed over the fence.

Elena stepped into the mud puddle.

Into the mud puddle stepped Elena.

In every pair, the meaning is clear. Sometimes, though, the meaning changes when you move a descriptive phrase. Read these pairs:

> He went by bicycle to the game, saw the winning goal, and returned afterwards.
>
> He went by bicycle, saw the winning goal, and returned to the game afterwards.

Do you see the difference? In the first example sentence, *he* traveled *to the game* first. Then he *returned* to his starting point. In the second example sentence, *he* traveled somewhere else. Then he *returned to the game.* The meaning changes because one phrase, *to the game*, moves. Here is another example:

> At the age of eight, Elizabeth drew a picture of her grandfather.
>
> Elizabeth drew a picture of her grandfather at the age of eight.

In this first example sentence, *Elizabeth* is eight. In the second, the picture shows *her grandfather at the age of eight* — in other words, as a young boy.

When you place a description in a sentence, be sure it expresses the meaning you intend.

Are these sentences the same or different? You decide. The prepositional phrases are underlined.

> 1a. The letter to the governor has already been sent.
>
> 1b. The letter has already been sent to the governor.
>
> 2a. A performance by the dancers was poorly reviewed.
>
> 2b. A performance was poorly reviewed by the dancers.
>
> 3a. In the playground, children run and climb.
>
> 3b. Children run and climb in the playground.
>
> 4a. The jewelry on her neck is worth a fortune.

4b. The jewelry is worth a fortune on her neck.

Here are the answers: 1. Different: Sentence 1a clearly shows that the letter's intended reader is *the governor.* Sentence 1b could have a different meaning. The letter might be intended for the mayor, for example, with a copy sent to the governor. 2. Different: In 2a, *the dancers* performed. In 2b, someone else performed and received poor reviews from *the dancers.* 3. Same: In both sentences, the *children run and climb* in the same place. 4. Different: Sentence 4a implies that the jewelry has great value. Sentence 4b implies that the jewelry gains value because she is wearing it. (Perhaps she is a model or a star, and her jewelry becomes valuable because it is associated with her.)

Before and after

Three letters — *pre* — refer to earlier times, before something else. Four letters — *post* — go in the other direction, placing something after something else. Here are some examples:

prewar, postwar The first description describes the period before war breaks out. "The *prewar* planning assumed little resistance from the enemy." The second word refers to the period after the war ends. "*Postwar* efforts to rebuild the town were successful."

pregame, postgame The first description describes everything that happens before a game — a televised discussion of the team's chances, the players' practice, and so forth. "The coach's *pregame* speech inspired her team." The second description concerns what happens after the game — interviews with sports reporters, showers, and the like. "During the *postgame* show, the manager discussed his star player's performance."

preview To "view" or look at, beforehand. "Mr. Jones *previewed* the film and decided it was not appropriate for young children."

postpone To move to a later time, a time "after" the originally scheduled hour. "Charlotte *postponed* her trip because of the storm."

prevent To act beforehand so that something does not happen. "Because he checked the brakes and fixed the faulty part, he *prevented* a terrible accident."

prejudice Opinions formed before knowing the facts. "He had never met Ella, but his *prejudice* led him to believe that she was unreliable."

postscript Something added after the end of a piece of writing, the "P.S." of a letter. "In a *postscript,* Margaret gave the latest information about the accident."

Pay attention to *pre* and *post*. Then, when you watch a television show set in a hospital, you will understand why a patient is having *pre-op* or *post-op* tests! One checks for conditions the surgeon should know about before an operation. The other evaluates the patient's health after the operation. (These words, of course, are shortened forms of *pre-operative* and *post-operative.)*

Chapter 8

Joining and Commenting: Conjunctions and Interjections

In This Chapter

- Linking ideas of equal importance with *and, but, or, nor,* and similar words
- Joining ideas of unequal importance with *because, since, although,* and other words
- Inserting comments with interjections

Are you a matchmaker? Do you pair up your friends, hoping lonely individuals will find happiness when they are joined together? If so, you will love conjunctions, a part of speech that joins. In this chapter, you discover what you need to know about conjunctions. You also learn about interjections, a minor part of speech that adds spice to your writing.

Linking Ideas with Conjunctions

A survey of everything spoken in English yesterday reveals that *and* is the most frequently used word. I lied. No one did a survey. I do not know which word is most common. I suspect that it is *and,* though. How can anyone get through a day — or even just a few sentences — without *and?*

And joins ideas, as do many other words. Read this paragraph:

> I see your point, <u>but</u> I do not agree with you. <u>Because</u> you do not know all the people <u>and</u> circumstances, you came to the wrong conclusion. Look at the situation again, <u>or</u> ask for more information.

Four underlined words in the example paragraph — *but, because, and, or* — join ideas. English teachers call these "joining words" *conjunctions.* In this section, you see how useful conjunctions can be.

Adding meaning with conjunctions

When you tie two things together, you change each one just a little — or maybe a lot. Not all conjunctions are the same. When you combine two sentences with a conjunction, you must be careful to choose the correct word. Each one gives a different meaning to your new sentence. Consider these two statements:

Sentence 1: Sarah wants to speak with her brother.

Sentence 2: He is annoyed.

How should you combine these ideas? It depends on what you want to say. Look at this sentence:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother, but he is annoyed.

This sentence hints that Sarah will wait until later, when her brother is in a better mood. Now check out this one:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother because he is annoyed.

Now you know that Sarah is not going to wait for a smile from her brother. She is going to have a conversation about his mood or whatever caused his annoyance. How about this one:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother although he is annoyed.

In this version, Sarah has something to say. Her brother's mood does not matter. She will speak with him whether he is in a good mood or a bad mood. Look at one more:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother when he is annoyed.

Now Sarah comes across as a bossy sister. She calls her brother or drops in for a chat because she thinks she can calm him down.

Every conjunction has a slightly different meaning. Select carefully!

Connecting equals

Short sentences are boring. Short sentences are childish. Combining short sentences can be tricky.

Are you still awake? If so, you may want to edit the preceding paragraph. Here is a new version:

> Short sentences sound boring <u>and</u> childish, <u>but</u> combining them can be tricky.

The new version uses two *conjunctions (and, but)* to connect ideas of equal importance. The conjunction *and* joins two descriptions (*boring, childish).*The conjunction *but* links one complete sentence *(Short sentences sound boring and childish)* with another complete sentence *(Combining them can be tricky).* Other conjunctions that join equals are *or, nor,* and *yet.*

Watch conjunctions at work in these examples:

Sentence	***Conjunction***	***Ideas Connected***	***Identity of Connected Elements***
Peter or Rebecca will cook the turkey.	or	Peter Rebecca	nouns
Peter was no chef, nor was Rebecca a good cook.	nor	Peter was no chef was Rebecca a good cook	sentences
The turkey was dry yet tasty.	yet	dry tasty	adjectives
We will eat a lot of turkey, and we will not complain.	and	We will eat a lot of turkey we will not complain	sentences
The meal is not great, but it is	but	The meal is not great	sentences

free.		it is free	
The leftovers will go to the dog, the cat, or the piglet.	or	dog cat piglet	nouns
These pets eat rapidly and hungrily.	and	rapidly hungrily	adverbs

In this table, you see that conjunctions may link single words or groups of words. Take a good look at the last column. The grammatical identity is the same for each of the connected ideas. (For example, *Peter* and *Rebecca* are both nouns, and *dry* and *tasty* are both adjectives. *The meal is not great* and *it is free* are both sentences.) You should be sure that the grammatical identity of everything you connect matches.

How good are you at spotting conjunctions? Can you identify what each conjunction connects? Fill in this table:

Sentence	***Conjunction***	***Ideas Connected***
1. Herbie played the piano sweetly but skillfully.		
2. Janet looked around the corner and over the hedge.		
3. Cars do not have wings, nor do their drivers.		
4. The complicated yet important report is required reading.		
5. Do your homework now, or you will not be allowed to go out.		
6. Ellen or Justin will help you.		
7. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are essential skills.		

Here are the answers: 1. conjunction — *but*, ideas connected — *sweetly, skillfully* 2. conjunction — *and*, ideas connected — *around the corner, over the hedge* 3. conjunction — *nor*, ideas connected — *Cars do not have wings, do their drivers* 4. conjunction — *yet*, ideas connected — *complicated,*

important 5. conjunction — *or,* ideas connected — *Do your homework now, you will not be allowed to go out* 6. conjunction — *or,* ideas connected — *Ellen, Justin* 7. conjunction — *and,* ideas connected — *reading, writing, arithmetic.*

You probably noticed that when you connect something with *nor,* the second item (*do their drivers)* sounds a bit different from the first. Do not worry. *Nor* is a negative word. The first item includes another negative word, *not.* You do not need another negative in the second item, because *nor* already does that job.

Paired conjunctions

Sometimes conjunctions work in pairs. (Perhaps they are lonely all by themselves.) *Or* often appears with *either. Nor* partners with *neither. Both* may show up with *and. Not only* works with *but also.*

Observe these pairs in their natural setting, a sentence:

Sentence	***Conjunction Pair***	***Ideas Connected***	***Grammatical Identity of Connected Elements***
Neither George nor Helen went to Florida last winter.	Neither, nor	George Helen	nouns
We must act either now or never.	either, or	now never	adverbs
Hugh can both dance and sing.	both, and	dance sing	verbs
Either we will take a taxi or Isabel will drive us.	Either, or	we will take a taxi Isabel will drive us	sentences
Bobby not only washed but also dried the dishes.	not only, but also	washed dried	verbs

Did you notice that everything paired conjunctions connect has the

same grammatical identity? You do not need to know the grammatical terms, but you should be sure that everything you connect with these conjunction pairs matches. How do you detect a match? Listen! For example, *washed* and *Bobby dried* are a mismatch. They are different not only in length, but also in ideas. *Washed* is simply an action word. *Bobby dried* is a complete sentence.

Now it is your turn to look for pairs and the ideas they connect. Fill in the spaces in each column:

Sentence	***Conjunction Pair***	***Ideas Connected***
1. Neither the red pen nor the green one has ink in it.		
2. A teacher may be both strict and kind.		
3. Either wash the dishes or dry them.		
4. Both Margie and Peggy have lived in Pennsylvania for many years.		
5. Peggy reported that the fire was either deliberate or accidental.		

Here are the answers: 1. conjunctions — *Neither/nor*, ideas connected — *the red pen, the green one* 2. conjunctions — *both/and*, ideas connected — *strict, kind* 3. conjunctions — *Either/or*, ideas connected — *wash the dishes, dry them* 4. conjunctions — *Both/and*, ideas connected — *Margie, Peggy* 5. conjunctions — *either/or*, ideas connected — *deliberate, accidental.*

Joining unequal ideas

If you go to work, you probably have a boss. Bosses and employees often work together, but they are not equals. The boss can make decisions alone. The boss is *independent*. The employees, on the other hand, are *dependent* on the boss for paychecks, supervision, and other things.

Some sentences have the same structure as a workplace. One part — the "boss" — is *independent* and can stand alone. The other part — the "employee" — is *dependent* and must be attached to a "boss." A special type of joining word (a *conjunction*) ties them together. Here are examples of this

type of conjunction:

after

although

as

because

before

even though

how

if

since

than

though

unless

until

when

where

whether

while

why

Some of the words on the preceding list also appear in Chapter 7 on a list of prepositions — a part of speech that expresses relationships. Often, the same word may act as several different parts of speech, depending upon context. The words on this list act as conjunctions when they introduce a statement that includes a verb. (For more information on verbs, turn to Chapter 5.)

Now take a look at these examples. Notice that the conjunction is part of the *dependent* statement — the “employee” — in every sentence.

Sentence	***Conjunction***	***Independent Statement (Boss)***	***Dependent Statement (Employee)***
While he was stirring the sauce, a bomb exploded.	While	a bomb exploded	While he was stirring the sauce
You can win the race because you trained every day.	because	You can win the race	because you trained every day
Jack wrapped the present after he bought it.	after	Jack wrapped the present	after he bought it
I have been driving since I was seventeen.	since	I have been driving	since I was seventeen
Although the cup is cracked, I want to keep it.	Although	I want to keep it	Although the cup is cracked
Check your work before you hand it in.	before	Check your work	before you hand it in
She worked in her garden until the rain started.	until	She worked in her garden	until the rain started

The word *dependent* helps you remember that these statements cannot stand alone. They are *dependent* on something else. Look at any box in the last column. Those statements make no sense by themselves. That's why they are called *dependent!* Now look at the *independent* statements in the third column. Each makes sense without an addition. They can stand alone. That's why they are *independent.* Be sure that every sentence you write has at least one independent statement.

Can you find the boss and employees — the independent and dependent statements? Do you recognize the conjunctions? See whether you can fill in this table:

Sentence	***Conjunction***	***Independent Statement (Boss)***	***Dependent Statement (Employee)***
1. Mary canceled the parade because it is raining.			

2. While Roger was at the dentist, his sister called.

3. The farmers worked until darkness fell.

4. Although the current mayor is popular, many voters favor another candidate.

5. Candice always sounds happy when she is talking with Tom.

Here are the answers: 1. conjunction — *because*, independent statement — *Mary canceled the parade*, dependent statement — *because it is raining* 2. conjunction — *While*, independent statement — *his sister called*, dependent statement — *While Roger was at the dentist* 3. conjunction — *until*, independent statement — *The farmers worked*, dependent statement — *until darkness fell* 4. conjunction — *Although*, independent statement — *many voters favor another candidate*, dependent statement — *Although the current mayor is popular* 5. conjunction — *when*, independent statement — *Candice always sounds happy*, dependent statement — *when she is talking with Tom.*

Punctuating sentences with conjunctions

Commas are little curved hooks that tell you to pause in your reading. Where to place commas puzzles many writers. Really, though, the rules for commas are quite simple. In Chapter 15, you can find out how to use commas in many situations. Here, you see how to place commas when your sentence contains a conjunction.

Combining equals

When you join two complete, equally important sentences with a conjunction, place a comma before the conjunction.

Suppose that you want to unite these sentences:

Sentence 1: Andrew unlocked the safe.

Sentence 2: It was empty.

Unite the sentences with the conjunction *but*, and place a comma before the conjunction:

Andrew unlocked the safe, but it was empty.

Here is another example:

Sentence 1: The sneakers fit perfectly.

Sentence 2: They were very comfortable.

Tie these two ideas together with the conjunction *and*, placing a comma before the conjunction:

The sneakers fit perfectly, and they were very comfortable.

When you combine two equal elements that are *not* sentences, do not insert a comma. Look at this sentence:

Baby Mark laughs and smiles all day long!

Notice that the conjunction *and* joins two actions *(laughs, smiles).* These are not complete sentences, so you do not need a comma before *and.* Here is another example:

Ron was busy but happy.

Now the conjunction *but* links two descriptions *(busy, happy).*These are not complete sentences, so no comma is needed before the conjunction *but.*

Combining unequals

Many sentences contain statements of unequal importance. (See "Joining unequal ideas" earlier in this chapter for more information.) If the less important statement — the *dependent statement* — comes first, you must always place a comma to separate it from the more important statement — the *independent statement*. Look at this example:

SENTENCE: Although Martha already knew the material, she studied for several hours.

DEPENDENT STATEMENT: *Although Martha already knew the material*

INDEPENDENT STATEMENT: *she studied for several hours*

COMMA NEEDED? Yes. The dependent statement is first, so it is followed by a comma.

Here is another example:

SENTENCE: Since he started medical school, Stan has not attended a single party.

DEPENDENT STATEMENT: *Since he started medical school*

INDEPENDENT STATEMENT: *Stan has not attended a single party*

COMMA NEEDED? Yes. The dependent statement is first, so it is followed by a comma.

You may be wondering what happens when the important statement comes first. Usually, no comma appears. (Yes, exceptions to this rule exist. However, if you follow this rule you will be right most of the time.) Take a look at this sentence:

SENTENCE: Stan bought 15 textbooks when he enrolled in medical school.

INDEPENDENT STATEMENT: *Stan bought 15 textbooks*

DEPENDENT STATEMENT: *when he enrolled in medical school*

COMMA NEEDED? No. The independent statement is first, and no comma appears in this sentence.

Here is another example:

SENTENCE: Stan plans to party every night after his exams end.

INDEPENDENT STATEMENT: *Stan plans to party every night*

DEPENDENT STATEMENT: *after his exams end*

COMMA NEEDED? No. The independent statement is first, and no comma appears.

Do you have good “comma sense”? Place commas in these sentences if needed.

1. Though he was only 12 he was a great chess player.
2. Louis changes diapers but he does not wash them.
3. We will miss Max when he moves to France.
4. Because he is a valuable employee he received a large raise.
5. After I sign the paper the house belongs to you!

Here are the answers: 1. Place a comma after *12* because *Though he was only 12* is a dependent statement. 2. Place a comma before the conjunction *but.* The conjunction *but* unites equal statements. 3. No comma. The independent statement *We will miss Max* comes first. 4. Place a comma after *employee.* The dependent statement, *Because he is a valuable employee*, comes first. 5. Place a comma after *paper.* The dependent statement, *After I sign the paper,* comes first.

Identifying Interjections

Yes! You can identify interjections easily. No, an interjection is not always followed by an exclamation point. Oh, you are confused. Sorry!

The underlined words in the preceding paragraph are *interjections*, a part of speech that loves attention. An interjection is not part of the grammatical structure of the sentence. Interjections often express emotion. They sometimes attach themselves to the sentence, but occasionally they stand alone. Frequently, an exclamation point follows an interjection. Sometimes, instead of an exclamation point, the interjection is set off by one or two commas from the rest of the sentence.

Read the following examples. The interjections are underlined.

Ah, this vacation home is very peaceful.

Oops. I bumped into the beehive.

Oh no! Bees are inside the house.

Yikes! I must run away.

Wow, bees fly fast.

As you see, interjections add interest. Grammatically, though, they add nothing — not a single thing — to the sentence. In fact, the definition of *interjection* is a word or words not connected grammatically to any sentence.

Because they have no grammatical function, you will probably never make a mistake with an interjection. Just be careful not to use them too often. Overly emotional writing sometimes annoys readers.

Can you identify interjections? Underline any interjection you find in this paragraph.

Rats! Sylvia lost the tickets. Yes, the tickets for the best concert ever. Oh my goodness, I cannot believe that she lost them. No, this chance to see the band will never come again.

Here are the answers: *Rats, Yes, Oh my goodness, No.*

Get the "duct" tape!

I often hear that duct tape, the strong silver material, can fix anything. I do not know whether duct tape can fix a faulty vocabulary, but knowing the root word *duct,* as well as its cousin, *duc,* helps build a strong vocabulary. These root words mean "lead." Check out these words:

conduct to lead an orchestra or tour group. "The guide *conducted* the tourists through the palace."

educate to teach (to lead from ignorance to knowledge). "Mr. Samuels *educated* thousands of students before he retired from teaching."

reduction decrease (leading on a downward path). "The *reduction* in taxes was welcome."

duct a channel or tube (which leads from one place to another). "The air *duct* must be kept open at all times."

introduce to bring something or someone new into a situation (to "lead" a new element into another). "When you *introduce* me to strangers, be sure to use my royal title."

aqueduct a structure to carry water over long distances (to lead water from one place to another). "Roman aqueducts are still standing in many places."

Introduce new words, such as *aqueduct* or *duct,* into your conversation and you will *educate* others and *reduce* ignorance!

However is not a conjunction

However is an impressive word. It is long and sounds sophisticated. You may want to use *however* as a conjunction. People often try to do so! However, *however* is not a conjunction. It adds meaning to a sentence, but the rules of Standard English do not allow *however* to tie two sentences together.

> WRONG: Sam sipped my coffee, however, I forgave him.
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: Two complete statements (*Sam sipped my coffee* and *I forgave him*) cannot be linked by *however.*
>
> RIGHT: Sam sipped my coffee. However, I forgave him.
>
> WHY IT IS RIGHT: Each complete statement is a separate sentence.
>
> WRONG: Sam immediately brought me another cup, however, the coffee was cold.
>
> WHY IT IS WRONG: Two complete statements (*Sam immediately brought me another cup* and *the coffee was cold*) cannot be linked by *however.*
>
> RIGHT: Sam immediately brought me another cup, but the coffee was cold.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Sam immediately brought me another cup. However, the coffee was cold.
>
> WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: In the first correction, the conjunction *but* joins these statements properly. In the second, each complete statement is in a separate sentence.

However much you want to use *however* to unite sentences, do not do so. Use a real conjunction!

Part III

Creating Correct Sentences

Expressing your thoughts

When you want to express yourself, individual words are seldom enough. You need complete and clear sentences. This part tackles the important elements that must appear in every sentence:

- **Verbs:** Verbs, the "being" and "doing" words in a sentence, give information about time — past, present, and future. Chapter 9 shows you how to form the most basic, simple tenses. You also review progressive tenses, which include the *–ing* form of a verb. Chapter 10 helps you identify situations that call for the *perfect* tenses, which depend on *has, have,* or *had.*
- **Subjects:** Someone or something must "be" or "do" what the verb expresses. That's the subject, which is the focus of Chapter 11. That chapter also shows you how to pair subjects and verbs correctly.
- **Complements:** Choosing proper subjects and verbs starts you off, but you often need a *complement* to finish your idea — and the sentence. Chapter 12 explains different types of complements and shows you when to use each.
- **Complete sentences:** Finish what you start! That is good advice. It is also the topic of Chapter 13, which tells you how to check every sentence to ensure that it has the proper punctuation. In Chapter 13, you learn how to avoid improperly joined sentences and half-sentences, which English teachers call *fragments.*

For a bonus article on Parts of a Sentence, go online and take a look at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar.

In this part …

- Create verb forms in every tense.
- Examine the role of helping verbs such as has or had, can, will, may, and others.
- Identify the subject of every sentence and match the subject to the proper verb form.
- Punctuate every sentence correctly.
- Employ complements to add meaning to your sentences.

Chapter 9

Making Progress: Verbs Ending in *–ing*

In This Chapter

- Forming progressive tenses properly
- Expressing meaning with *–ing* verbs
- Checking your spelling when using *–ing* verb forms

How do you know what time it is? Do you look at your phone or at a clock? Perhaps you wear a watch. All these mechanical things tell you the time. So do verbs.

In Chapter 5, you find some information about verbs — how to recognize them, how they change form, and other basic facts. In this chapter, you explore verbs that express an action or state of being in progress — what English teachers call the *progressive tenses.* Relax! Soon you will know everything about past, present, and future progressive verb tenses.

Keeping Time with –ing Verb Forms

Look at this paragraph. Pay special attention to the underlined words.

> Last week my granddaughter gave me this cup. I love it. No one but me will drink from it at my dinner party tonight.

The underlined words are verbs. Verbs are the "doing" and "being" words in a sentence. Verbs tell whether you are talking about the past, the present, or the future. The quality of verbs that shows time is called *tense.* In the preceding example, verbs tell about the past *(gave),* the present *(love),* and the future *(will drink).* The time, or *tense,* is expressed by the form of the verb. Grammarians call these forms *simple tenses.* To learn more about the simple tenses, turn to Chapter 5.

Now read this paragraph. Once again, notice the underlined words.

> Elizabeth was playing chess an hour ago. Now she is riding her bike. During my visit next week, we will be working on her new puzzle every day.

These underlined words are also verbs. They also tell about the past *(was playing)*, the present *(is riding)*, and the future *(will be working)*. As you see, these verbs are a bit different from the verbs in the first example paragraph. These verb forms are not simple. English teachers call them *progressive*. Each includes a form of the verb *be* and another verb form ending with the letters *–ing*.

Be is a strange verb. It changes form depending upon the person or thing you pair it with. (In Chapter 5, you find more information about this verb, including all its forms in the simple present, past, and future tenses.)

You should know the present, past, and future progressive tense. You use them often when you are speaking, as well as when you are writing. (By the way, *are speaking* and *are writing* are both progressive verb forms.)

Present progressive

To make a present progressive tense verb, you add the *–ing* form of a verb to the proper present tense form of *be*. Here is a table showing the present progressive forms of the verb *pay:*

Singular (One)	***Plural (More than One)***
I am paying	we are paying
you are paying	you are paying
he is paying	they are paying
she is paying	
it is paying	

Did you notice that the pronoun *you* may be either singular (talking to one person) or plural (talking to more than one). How convenient!

In the last row of the first column, I listed *he*, *she*, and *it*. I could have listed every noun that names one person, place, or thing (what English teachers call *singular nouns*). In the last row of the second column, you see *they*. I could have added every noun that names more than one person, place, or thing (*plural nouns*, in other words). To talk about someone or something, just remember these two simple rules:

- Pair *is* plus an *–ing* form of a verb with any singular noun or pronoun.
- Pair *are* plus an *–ing* form of a verb with any plural noun or pronoun.

For more information on nouns, turn to Chapter 3. Everything you need to know about pronouns is in Chapter 4.

See whether you can form present progressive tense verb forms. In the third column, write the verb form that pairs with the nouns or pronouns in the first column. The second column tells you the verb you're working with.

Noun or Pronoun	***Verb***	***Present Progressive Form***
we	lift	
you	frown	
Bob	fall	
the astronauts	place	
Monica	iron	
the hose	drip	
I	ride	

Here are the answers: *are lifting, are frowning, is falling, are placing, is ironing, is dripping, am riding.*

Past progressive

To talk about the past with a progressive verb, you need a past tense form of the verb *be.* You also need to add the *–ing* form of the verb. Here is a table of the past progressive forms of the verb *mix:*

Singular	***Plural***
I was mixing	we were mixing
you were mixing	you were mixing
he was mixing	they were mixing
she was mixing	
it was mixing	

In the last row of the first column, you see *he, she,* and *it.* The verb form in that box works for *singular nouns.* In the last row of the second column, you see *they.* That form pairs with *plural nouns.*

(For more information on nouns, turn to Chapter 3. Everything you need to know about pronouns is in Chapter 4.)

See whether you can form past progressive tense verb forms. In the third column, write the verb form that pairs with the nouns or pronouns in the first column. The second column tells you the verb you're working with.

Noun or Pronoun	***Verb***	***Past Progressive Form***
the knight	tilt	
they	paint	
you	scream	
Jay	cry	
we	eat	
the cooks	bake	
it	bother	

Here are the answers: *was tilting, were painting, were screaming, was crying,*

were eating, were baking, was bothering.

Future progressive

This form is easy. Why? The verb *be* doesn't change forms in the future. *Will be* pairs with every noun or pronoun, whether you are talking about one or more than one. All you have to do is attach the *–ing* form of the verb to *will be.* Take a look at this table of the future progressive forms of the verb *go*:

Singular	***Plural***
I will be going	we will be going
you will be going	you will be going
he will be going	they will be going
she will be going	
it will be going	

The last row lists only pronouns (*he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*). *He* represents all the singular nouns that name one male. *She* represents all the singular nouns that name one female. *It* represents the name of any single thing. *They* represents any noun that refers to more than one.

Check your future progressive verb forms by filling in this table:

Noun or Pronoun	***Verb***	***Future Progressive Form***
he	date	
glass	break	
Angela	mail	
Bob	catch	
children	read	
it	cover	
soldiers	protect	

Here are the answers: *will be dating, will be breaking, will be mailing, will be catching, will be reading, will be covering, will be protecting.*

Choosing between Simple and Progressive Tenses

Simple and progressive tenses are close in meaning. Often, you can select either one to say the same thing. Sometimes, though, choosing between simple and progressive tenses matters. In this section, you take a close look at progressive forms that talk about the present, past, and future. To show you the difference, I also provide examples of simple tenses.

Present

This book discusses grammar. You are reading about verbs now. You are learning a lot about present tense. I always hope that readers enjoy my books. Are you having fun?

Probably you are not having fun. Grammar is not as much fun as many other subjects, such as gossip about famous people. Grammar, however, is useful. Look at the underlined verbs in the first paragraph of this section. Do you see the simple present tense forms *(discusses, hope, enjoy)* and the progressive forms *(are reading, are learning, are having)?* Follow these guidelines to choose between simple present tense and present progressive tense:

- **The simple present tense talks about things that are generally true.** Check out these sentences. The simple present tense verbs are underlined. In the parentheses after each sentence, you learn more about the situation. Notice how the verb tense fits the meaning:

  Mary speaks Dutch. (She knows the language and can communicate in Dutch whenever she wants to do so.)

  Pete teaches math and science. (This is his job.)

  Helen and Sarah cook delicious meals for us. (They are kind enough to prepare meals whenever we visit.)

  You need a college degree for that job. (This is a general requirement for all applicants.)

- **Simple present tense expresses action that happens over and over again.** In other words, simple present tense is for habits. Read these sentences. The simple present tense verbs are underlined. In parentheses after each sentence, you see more information about the situation. See how the verb tense matches the meaning:

Tom runs in the park. (When he exercises, that's where he goes.)

Candice votes before work. (On election day, she is always first in line.)

Mr. Smith talks too much. (Whenever you meet him, be sure you are in a comfortable spot. You will be there for a long time!)

That dog bites everyone. (Stay away from the dog. He looks friendly. He is not!)

- **Often, the present progressive tense expresses what is true right now.** Read these sentences. Pay attention to the underlined, present progressive verbs. In the parentheses after each sentence, you learn more about the situation. Notice how the verb tense fits the meaning:

  The company is sifting through a hundred applications. (An employee is sitting at a desk, reading many pieces of paper from job seekers.)

  Mary and Matthew are talking in Russian. (They are talking right now.)

  Pete is traveling in Africa this week. (Pete is on vacation.)

  In the kitchen, Helen and Sarah are preparing steamed carrots. (Helen is chopping and Sarah is setting up the steamer right now.)

- **Present progressive may seem more dramatic than simple present.** In this way, a present-progressive verb is like the action in a film. Here are some present-progressive verb forms, all underlined. See how they fit the situation:

  Tom is running away from a robber. (Call the police! He needs help now!)

  Candice is campaigning for Roger, her favorite candidate. (There she is on the street corner, holding a sign praising Roger.)

  Sally is yawning and falling asleep. (She is bored or tired. Time for a nap.)

  The dog is biting Matt's toe! (Ouch. Matt has to find some hamburger quickly. Then the dog will leave his toe alone.)

REMEMBER

Simple present is more general. Present progressive shows you something in progress. In many situations, both are correct.

QUICK QUIZ

See whether you can select a verb form from the pair in parentheses. Underline your choice. Be sure you have a reason for your selection.

Please be quiet. The baby (sleeps, is sleeping). He (hates, is hating) noise. His mother (says, is saying) that the baby (wakes, is waking) up

often. She (wants, is wanting) him to rest more. Fortunately, everyone (leaves, is leaving) now.

Here are the answers: *is sleeping* (action happening now), *hates* (something generally true about the baby), *says* (the mother has a habit of saying this), *wakes* (the baby's habit), *wants* (her constant desire — always true!), *is leaving* (action happening now).

Past

Nancy and her friends watched television for five hours yesterday. While they were watching, the house caught fire. They were arguing about their favorite show, so they noticed nothing until the fire department came. The firefighters were battling the flames when I arrived.

All the underlined words are verbs, and all tell about something that happened in the past. Well, actually the verbs tell about two things that happened in the past: a television-watching marathon and a fire! Some of these verbs are simple past tense forms *(watched, caught, noticed, came, arrived).* Others are past progressive forms *(were watching, were arguing, were battling).*

The difference between simple past and past progressive is small. Most of the time, either works nicely. Occasionally, one form is better than the other. Here are some guidelines to help you:

- **To speak about something that happened at a particular moment in the past, use simple past tense.** Take a look at these sentences. In the parentheses after each sentence, you learn more about the situation. The simple past tense verbs are underlined.

  Olivia slipped on the ice. (She placed her foot on the wrong spot and fell.)

  It snowed 17 times last winter! (At 17 specific points in time, the snow came down.)

  Skiers went to the mountain when the snow stopped. (This sentence talks about two specific moments in the past — when the skiers went to the mountain and when the snow stopped.)

- **To talk about something that occurred over a period of time in the past, try past progressive tense.** Check out these sentences. The past progressive tense verbs are underlined. In parentheses, you find an explanation of the meaning.

  She was trying to get home before the storm. (The journey took some time.)

  Everyone was dreaming about spring. (The *dreaming* started with the first flake of snow and continued for a while.)

  They were hoping for even more snow! (This action continued all winter.)

- **To make a past action more vivid, you may use past progressive tense.** This tense gives a "you are there" feeling. Read these examples. The past progressive verbs are underlined. The situation is explained in parentheses.

  Marge was skiing while Henry was sitting by the fire. (You are in the ski resort. You see the scene as if it were happening right in front of you.)

  Eleanor was frowning because her brother was stealing her toys. (Lots of drama here. You can almost see yourself grabbing Eleanor's brother and taking back her toys.)

  As the fireworks were exploding, everyone was cheering. (This sentence paints a picture of an exciting evening.)

REMEMBER

Simple past tense is usually best for specific moments. Past progressive tense adds drama and covers situations that occur over a period of time.

QUICK QUIZ

Choose the correct verb form and underline it. If both forms work, underline both.

Belle (talked, was talking) on the phone while her little brother (ripped, was ripping) her homework in half. Belle (screamed, was screaming) at her brother when her mother (came, was coming) home. Their mother (patted, was patting) her son's shoulder because he (cried, was crying). Then Belle (sat, was sitting) down to do her homework again.

Here are the answers: *was talking* (an action that took place over a period of time), *ripped* (probably a short, specific moment in the past), *was screaming*

(an action taking place over a period of time), *came* (a specific moment in the past), *patted* or *was patting* (either simple past or past progressive is okay here), *was crying* (action taking place over a period of time), *sat* (an action at a specific moment in the past).

Future

> This evening heavy rain will fall, and the roads will flood. The traffic police will be working overtime to keep drivers safe. Schools will close early because of the storm. Teachers and students will be celebrating the extra free time.

The underlined verbs all talk about the future. English teachers say that these verbs are in future tense. (You are not surprised, right? The name makes sense.) Simple future tense is what you need when something has not happened yet. Future progressive tense, with the *–ing* form of the verb, also talks about something in the future. Which one should you select? Here are some guidelines:

- **To talk about the future, simple future tense is nearly always correct.** You do not have to complicate your life worrying about this tense. Go for the simple form, and most of the time you will be right. Look at these examples:

  > Henry will pay your bill. (This payment happens at a particular moment in the future.)
  >
  > You will write him a check to repay the loan. (The writing takes place in a specific moment in the future.)
  >
  > Henry thinks that you will thank him for his generosity. (The thanking takes place in a specific moment in the future.)
  >
  > Henry's friends will tell him about your insulting remarks. (Uh oh. You are in trouble! The conversation happens at a specific moment. I bet Henry's anger will extend over a long period of time.)

- **For an action in the future that goes on for a period of time, you may use future progressive tense.** Notice that I wrote *may use*, not *must use*. Either form is usually correct. Here are some examples of future progressive tense.

  > When the plane lands, I will be waiting for you. (The plane touches the ground at a specific moment, so simple present tense works nicely there. *Waiting* extends over a period of time.)

While you are claiming your luggage, the taxi will be circling the airport. (*Claiming* the suitcases to be unloaded and *circling* in the taxi take some time.)

Martha will be preparing a welcome for you, but Paul will be placing spiders in your room. (These two actions occur over a period of time.)

Simple future tense and future progressive tense are very similar. Often, you may choose either and still be correct.

See whether you grasp the best use of future progressive verbs. Write the proper form of the future progressive tense in the blank. The verb you are working with appears in parentheses after the sentence.

1. The teachers_____ the board and probably will not see the students' bad behavior. (erase)
2. The frog _____ while the turtle is sleeping. (jump)
3. She _____ the plane because the pilot is sick. (land)
4. The horse _____ the wagon, not the ox. (pull)
5. You _____ the witness tomorrow for about three hours. (question)
6. Nancy and Peter _____ every weed when they walk through the garden tonight. (notice)
7. We _____ pumpkins this Halloween, so wear washable clothes. (smash)

Here are the answers: 1. *will be erasing* 2. *will be jumping* 3. *will be landing* 4. *will be pulling* 5. *will be questioning* 6. *will be noticing* 7. *will be smashing*.

Some Help with Spelling –ing Verb Forms

Most of the time, all you have to do is add *–ing* to the end of the verb when you want to create the progressive form. Sometimes, though, you have to change or add letters before tacking on the *–ing*.

Here is a good spelling rule to remember: When you write the *–ing* form of a verb that ends in the letter *e*, most of the time you must drop the *e* before adding *–ing*. Look at these examples:

smile — smiling

write — writing

hate — hating

continue — continuing

bake — baking

slice — slicing

illustrate — illustrating

rule — ruling

Some verbs double the last letter before adding *–ing*. Check out these examples:

cut — cutting

put — putting

drop — dropping

sip — sipping

hop — hopping

shed — shedding

spot — spotting

slam — slamming

Verbs that end in the letters *ie* exchange those letters for a *y* before adding *–ing:*

die — dying

tie — tying

If you are unsure about the proper spelling of any *–ing* verb form, check the dictionary.

Write the *–ing* form of the verb in the last column. Be careful! Sometimes you must add only *ing*, but you may have to change the spelling of others.

Verb	***–ing Form***
provide	
hit	
make	
see	
lie	
rate	
rub	

Here are the answers: *providing*, *hitting*, *making*, *seeing*, *lying*, *rating*, *rubbing.*

Setting up and sitting down

Two verbs that may puzzle you are *sit* and *set.* The first verb, *sit,* is what you do when you stop standing and *sit* in a chair or on the ground (or any other place!). Look at these examples:

The cat was sitting on the sunny window sill.

She often sits on my lap.

Tomorrow, I will sit on the sofa and watch the basketball game.

The cat will be sitting on my lap then, too.

The second verb, *set,* is what you do when you place an object somewhere or when you adjust or arrange something. Read these examples:

Grandpa sets his book on the table every night before he goes to sleep.

Uncle Bert is setting the temperature dial to “very cold.”

The principal sets the time and date of the final exam.

The little boy was setting his toys on the shelf in neat rows.

My cousin will set the timer so that it rings at exactly 9 p.m.

Did you notice one big difference between these two verbs? *Sit* is something you do by yourself. *Set* is almost always something you do to something else. Why "almost always"? Because the sun sets all by itself.

Going outside and staying inside with i*nter* and i*ntra*

Five letters tacked onto the beginning of a word can take you outside to a larger group or inside a group. *Inter* means "between or among." *Intra* means "within." Watch these letters in action:

International means "between or among nations." "The *international* gathering of health experts took place at the United Nations headquarters."

Interstate means "between states." "The *interstate* highway was the fastest route from New York to Pennsylvania."

Interview refers to "a question-and-answer session between two or more people" or "to question one or more people.""Charlotte's job *interview* lasted three hours." "The supervisor *interviewed* ten people before hiring Charlotte."

Intramural refers to sports contests "within a group or organization." "The best part of the day was the *intramural* basketball tournament, when the ninth grade played the tenth grade."

Intravenous describes medicine placed "within the blood or circulatory system." "The doctor ordered *intravenous* painkillers for the wounded soldier."

Note: Many medical words begin with *intra.* Listen to your doctor, and your vocabulary will improve!

Chapter 10

Revisiting the Past: The Perfect Tenses

In This Chapter

- Connecting the past and present with verbs
- Placing past events in order with special verb forms
- Creating regular and irregular past-tense forms
- Considering the future perfect tense

You should not live in the past, according to psychologists. I don't know much about psychology: Maybe their advice is good, or maybe it is bad. However, I do know grammar. In grammar, the past is important. It can also be very complicated. (The past is complicated in real life, too, don't you think?) You do not have to live in the past, but you do have to pay attention to verbs when you are speaking or writing about it.

Many English verb tenses (the "time" expressed by a verb) have connections to the past. Chapter 5 reviews simple past tense. Chapter 9 covers the past progressive tense, the one that adds *–ing* to a verb. In this chapter, you learn about the "perfect" tenses. Sadly, these tenses are not perfect. They can be complicated. Do not worry! Once you finish reading this chapter, you will know the most important uses of present perfect and past perfect tenses. You also take a brief look at a strange and rare tense, the future perfect.

Building a Bridge between the Present and the Past: Present Perfect Tense

Charlie has studied in Thailand for three years. He has learned much about Thai culture from his teachers and friends. Charlie and his sister Anna have toured many important places in Bangkok, the capital of

Thailand. They have taken photos of the most interesting monuments.

The underlined words are all verbs in the *present perfect tense.* The name of this tense contains a clue to its meaning. Present perfect tense links the past to the present. Use this tense when an action started in the past and continues in the present time. In this section, you see how to form the present perfect tense. Then you watch this tense "in action."

I said "action" in the preceding paragraph, but a verb can also express a state of being. That type of verb also links the past and present in the present perfect tense. Look at the underlined verbs in these examples:

Kelly has been president of that club for six months. (She was president in the past and continues to hold that office.)

Club members have been happy with her work. (They were happy in the past, and they still have the same feelings now.)

Elizabeth has been in Seattle since she was born. (She was born there and lives there at the present time.)

Joshua and Elaine have seemed sad lately. (They seemed sad in the past and remain so now.)

When you connect the past to the present, you need present perfect tense.

Present perfect forms

Verbs in present perfect tense always contain two words: either *has* or *have* plus a form of the verb you are using. English teachers call this form a *participle.* For regular verbs, the verb form accompanying *has* or *have* ends with the letters *–ed.* Unfortunately, many irregular verbs exist. See "Breaking the Rules: Irregular Past Forms" later in this chapter for a list of the most common irregular participles.

Here is a table of the present perfect forms of the regular verb *sail:*

Singular (One)	***Plural (More than One)***

I have sailed	we have sailed
you have sailed	you have sailed
he has sailed	they have sailed
she has sailed	
it has sailed	

To make your life more interesting, present perfect tense also has a progressive form. This tense adds *has been* or *have been* to the *–ing* form of the verb. (For more information on progressive forms, turn to Chapter 9.) Here is the verb *sail* again, this time in its present perfect progressive tense:

Singular (One)	***Plural (More than One)***
I have been sailing	we have been sailing
you have been sailing	you have been sailing
he has been sailing	they have been sailing
she has been sailing	
it has been sailing	

The last row of each column shows you the form to use when you talk about someone, something, or a group. I placed the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* in these boxes. To the first column, I could have added many nouns — all the nouns that name one person, place, or thing. To the second column, I could have added every plural noun in the dictionary. What a heavy book this would be! You would need a team just to carry it. I inserted only the pronouns in the last row. Remember to use these forms of the verb with singular and plural nouns.

To find out how well you know the forms of present perfect tense, fill in the following table. The first column tells you which verb you are working with. The second column explains whether you want the present perfect or the present perfect progressive. The third column contains the word that pairs with the verb.

Verb	*Present Perfect or Present Perfect Progressive?*	*Paired with?*	*Verb Form*
spill	present perfect	it	
chase	present perfect progressive	dogs	
purchase	present perfect	Oliver	
amaze	present perfect	you	
sleep	present perfect progressive	I	
discuss	present perfect	reporter	
meet	present perfect progressive	executives	

Here are the answers: *has spilled, have been chasing, has purchased, have amazed, have been sleeping, has discussed, have been meeting.*

In this section, I chose regular verbs to show you the present perfect tense. Unfortunately, many verbs are not regular. Read "Breaking the Rules: Irregular Past Forms" later in this chapter to learn some common irregular forms.

When to use present perfect tense

Take a look at these examples of present perfect tense. I placed additional information in parentheses after each example. This information makes the order of events clear.

Alan has climbed many mountains. (Some of the climbing happened in the past, but Alan has not given up this hobby. He continues to climb mountains in the present.)

Alan has been a good skier for many years. (He was a good skier in the past, and he is still a good skier.)

Maria has mailed most of the packages. (Some went off already, but others are on her desk, waiting to be mailed.)

I have been giving you too much attention already! (This statement is made in the present, talking about past actions that continue to the present moment.)

The slippery floor has caused many accidents. (The accidents took place

in the past, but the floor is still dangerous in the present.)

Sylvia and her family have been living in Granada for twenty years. (They arrived in the past, but they are still there in the present.)

Did you notice that some present perfect verbs contain *has*, and some contain *have?* In general, *has* is the form you need when you pair *he*, *she*, and any singular noun with the verb. *Have* is the form you should select when you pair a plural noun or pronoun with the verb. However, *I* and *you* are special. These words pair with *have*.

Present perfect and present perfect progressive verbs express nearly the same meaning. The progressive form seems a little more immediate. It puts you in the center of the action. Here are some examples:

The football player's toe has been hurting since the last game. (The pain started in the past and continues now.)

The coaches have been discussing their game plan. (The discussion started in the past and continues now.)

They have been listing the names of replacement players on the board. (They started listing in the past and continue to add names.)

Do not worry about the difference between the *–ing* form of the present perfect tense and the form without the *–ing*. Most of the time, either form works well.

Do you see a connection between the past and the present? If so, choose either the simple or the progressive present perfect tense. (For more information on the simple tenses, turn to Chapter 5.) Underline your choice.

1. For a long time, Douglas (plans, planned, has been planning, have been planning) to buy a new car.
2. He (researched, has researched, have researched) the advantages and disadvantages of each model.

3. Douglas (saved, has been saving, have been saving) for three years.
4. He and Anna (visited, has visited, have visited) four showrooms already and plan to go to two more tomorrow.
5. The sales people at the last showroom (helped, has helped, have helped) Doug a lot.

Here are the answers: 1. *has been planning* (Douglas is one person, so *has* is correct. The action started in the past and continues in the present.) 2. *has researched* (Douglas is one person, so *has* is correct. The action started in the past and continues in the present.) 3. *has been saving* (Douglas is one person, so *has* is correct. The action started in the past and continues in the present.) 4. *have visited* (*He and Anna* name more than one person, so *have* is correct. The action — visiting showrooms — started in the past and continues in the present.) 5. *helped* (No connection to the present exists because the sentence says *at the last showroom.* The action started in the past and ended there.)

Placing Events in Order with Past Perfect Tense

Sometimes when you speak or write about the past, you mention many actions. Take a look at this example:

> When I <u>was</u> little, I <u>played</u> baseball very well. I also <u>participated</u> in basketball games. Sometimes, I <u>competed</u> in tennis tournaments.

In the preceding paragraph, the order of events does not matter. You have a list — a summary of activities. No one cares whether baseball, basketball, or tennis came first. The underlined verbs are in simple past tense. (For more information on simple past tense, read Chapter 5.)

Occasionally, though, the order of events does matter. Then the *past perfect tense* shows up. This tense always includes at least two words (and sometimes three). One of those words is always *had.* Here are some examples of past perfect tense. The verbs are underlined.

> Kelly <u>had cleaned</u> the house before I arrived with my brooms and mops.

I had been planning to work for an hour, but I changed my mind.

Mark had already enrolled in a science class when he realized that he was more interested in history.

In this section, you see how to form past perfect tense and how to use it correctly.

Past perfect forms

Today is your lucky day. Why? The regular forms of past perfect tense are extremely easy. Just add *had* to the regular past tense form of the verb. (Regular past tense forms end with the letters *–ed*.) No matter who or what did the action, the past perfect remains the same. Take a look at this table of the past perfect forms of the regular verb *kiss:*

Singular (One)	***Plural (More than One)***
I had kissed	we had kissed
you had kissed	you had kissed
he had kissed	they had kissed
she had kissed	
it had kissed	

The past perfect also has a progressive form, one that includes the letters *–ing* plus *had been.* Check out this table, still on the verb *kiss:*

Singular (One)	***Plural (More than One)***
I had been kissing	we had been kissing
you had been kissing	you had been kissing
he had been kissing	they had been kissing
she had been kissing	
it had been kissing	

Don't you feel lucky, now that you know all these forms are the same? However, today is also your unlucky day. Why? Many verbs are irregular. To find out which form should accompany *had* or *had been*, flip to "Breaking the Rules: Irregular Past Forms" later in this chapter.

In the last row of each table, you see the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they*. I did not include any nouns, but I could have included every noun — yes, every single one! To save space, I left them out.

The verb tenses in the preceding two tables are very close in meaning. Do not worry about choosing between them. Most of the time, you can use either one.

Write the past perfect form of the verb in the fourth column. The first column tells you which verb you are working with. The second column explains whether you want the past perfect or the past perfect progressive. The third column contains the word that pairs with the verb.

Verb	***Past Perfect or Past Perfect Progressive?***	***Paired with?***	***Verb Form***
rain	past perfect progressive	it	
sniff	past perfect	cats	
return	past perfect	Wendy	
surprise	past perfect	you	
think	past perfect progressive	I	
refuse	past perfect	clerk	
end	past perfect	film	

Here are the answers: *had been raining, had sniffed, had returned, had surprised, had been thinking, had refused, had ended.*

In this section, I chose regular verbs to show you the past perfect tense. Life would be wonderful without irregular verbs. (Life would also be wonderful without many other things, too, such as taxes.) Unfortunately, many verbs are not regular. Read "Breaking the Rules: Irregular Past Forms" later in this chapter to discover some common irregular forms.

When to use past perfect tense

Has this situation ever happened to you? You wrote a report for a teacher or a boss. You clicked the Send button on the email. Then you realized that you forgot to attach the document. Here is one way to describe this situation:

I had clicked the Send button before I realized my mistake.

Examine this timeline:

*had clickedrealized*present moment

On the timeline, the earlier action is *had clicked.* The more recent action is *realized.* Both are in the past, but the *had* places one action before the other. The earlier action, *had clicked*, is in past perfect tense.

Here is another example:

The teacher had explained everything, but when William sat down to take the test yesterday, his mind was blank.

This sentence explains that the teacher did the right thing, going over the material before the test, not after. If William fails the test, he cannot blame the teacher. Here are the events on a timeline:

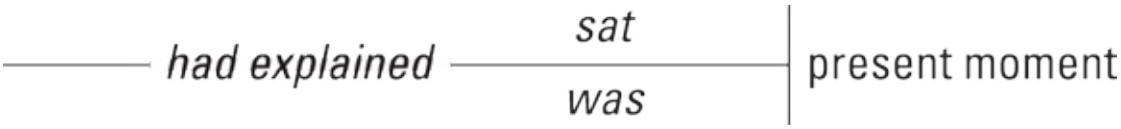

The timeline shows you three things. The earliest is *had explained.* The next two take place more or less at the same time *(sat, was).* Everything is in the past, but *had explained* is in the more distant past. The teacher's explanation happened before William *sat* and before William's mind *was* blank.

Read another example:

Jane had worked for an hour before the computer froze.

Now look at the timeline:

*had workedfroze*present moment

Poor Jane! I hope she saved her work. These two actions in the past occur in this order: *had worked* (earlier action), *froze* (more recent action).

Here is one more example for you:

Michael made a new budget, but all the money had already been spent.

Plot this example on a timeline:

____*had been spent*____*made*____present moment

Michael wasted his energy (and perhaps his money!) because his shopping took place before he made a new budget.

The most common mistake with past perfect tense is to use it too much. Read these examples:

WRONG: I had told him about the empty ketchup bottle.

WHY IT IS WRONG: Nothing in this sentence places past actions in order.

RIGHT: I told him about the empty ketchup bottle.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Simple past tense *(told)* is fine because the sentence doesn't put past events in order.

WRONG: Every day the monkeys had climbed trees, had looked for food, and had played.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The timing of the events in the sentence does not matter. The sentence simply lists common monkey activities, which could occur at any time and in any order.

RIGHT: Every day the monkeys climbed trees, looked for food, and played.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The simple past tense works best when the order of events does not matter.

WRONG: Vanessa had been born in 1977 and now lives in Rochester.

WHY IT IS WRONG: Two events are mentioned in the sentence, but one is in the present *(lives)*. Use the past perfect tense only when you are dealing with more than one past event, placing them in order.

RIGHT: Vanessa was born in 1977 and now lives in Rochester.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Simple past tense *(was born)* places that action before the present time *(lives)*.

Use past perfect verbs to place more than one past event in order. The earlier event should be in past perfect tense (with a *had* attached). The more recent event should be in simple past tense. (For more information on simple past tense, turn to Chapter 5.)

See whether you know how to put past events in order by selecting the proper verb from the choices in parentheses. Underline your choice. Be careful! To be sure you are paying attention, I give you one or two sentences that do not need the past perfect tense.

1. Because the soup (stained, had stained) his shirt, Gene went home to change his clothes.
2. He (searched, had been searching) his closet for an hour before he gave up.
3. Gene realized that he (forgot, had forgotten) to do the laundry.
4. Gene (grumbled, had grumbled) and (decided, had decided) to take better care of his clothes.
5. When Gene finally arrived at the restaurant, his friends (ordered, had ordered) dinner already.

Here are the answers: 1. *had stained* (Two events are in the past. The earlier — the soup accident — is expressed in past perfect tense. The more recent — *went home* — is in simple past tense.) 2. *had been searching* (Two events are in the past. The earlier — the closet search — is expressed in past perfect

progressive tense. The more recent — *gave up* — is in simple past tense.) 3. *had forgotten* (Two events are in the past. The earlier — Gene's forgetfulness — is expressed in past perfect tense. The more recent — *realized* — is in simple past tense.) 4. *grumbled, decided* (Did I fool you? These two actions take place at more or less the same time in the past. Simple past tense is fine here.) 5. *had ordered* (Two events are in the past. The earlier — ordering food — is expressed in past perfect tense. The more recent — *arrived* — is in simple past tense.)

Breaking the Rules: Irregular Past Forms

If you break the rules, you get in trouble. When English verbs break the rules, they get a special section in a grammar book. Do you think this is fair? I do not. However, you do need to know the verb forms that break the rules — the *irregular verbs.*

Rule-breakers are most common in simple past tense (refer to Chapter 5 for more information), and in present perfect and past perfect tenses. The *has, have,* or *had* portion of the perfect verbs does not cause problems. The *participle* — the form of the verb attached to *has, have,* or *had* — is the troublemaker.

Here is a table of the most common irregular forms. The verb appears in the first column. The irregular simple past form is in the second column. The participle, which attaches to *has, have,* or *had,* is in the third column.

Verb	***Past-Tense Form***	***Participle***
be	was or were	been
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen

come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten *or* got
go	went	gone
have	had	had
know	knew	known
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
lose	lost	lost
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
sing	sang	sung
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught

throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

You probably noticed that sometimes the past and the participle are the same. Sometimes, though, they differ. When the participle is different, it never appears without a helping verb (*has, have, had,* or some others). Here are some common mistakes I hear:

WRONG: Henry done some work for me.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The participle *done* needs a helping verb.

RIGHT: Henry has done some work for me.

WRONG: The lamb gone.

RIGHT: The lamb has gone.

Another common mistake is to attach a helping verb to the past-tense form. Here are more mistakes to avoid:

WRONG: Sam had went to the store.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The past-tense form *went* should not be attached to a helping verb.

RIGHT: Sam went to the store.

WRONG: He had wrote a shopping list.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The past-tense form *wrote* should not be attached to a helping verb.

RIGHT: He wrote a shopping list.

If you do not know the correct past-tense form or the participle,

check the dictionary.

To check your knowledge of irregular verbs, write the past tense or the participle in each blank. In the parentheses, I tell you which verb you are working with and which form to insert.

1. Brad _____ (swim, past tense) in the pool every day.
2. Michelle had _____ (build, participle) the pool before she started on the house.
3. During the summer, the children _____ (go, past tense) to the pool every day.
4. They _____ (wear, past tense) brightly colored bathing suits.
5. Michelle and Brad had _____ (write, participle) safety rules, but the children ignored the sign.
6. The older kids _____ (know, past tense) that they were supposed to watch the younger ones.
7. No one _____ (see, past tense) the accident!
8. Before anyone _____ (catch, past tense) the little boy, he had already _____ (fall, participle) in the water.

Here are the answers: 1. *swam* 2. *built* 3. *went* 4. *wore* 5. *written* 6. *knew* 7. *saw* 8. *caught, fallen.*

Glancing at the Future Perfect Tense

I imagine that you often face deadlines. You have homework or a business project to complete before a certain time. Deadlines appear in verb tense, too. An odd verb tense, the future perfect, shows up when there is a deadline inside a sentence. This tense places one event before another. Although the tense is called *future perfect*, the earlier event may be taking place in the present or in the future.

Read this example. The future perfect verb is underlined.

Bert will have eaten all the cookies before Ernie arrives.

Imagine these timelines:

present moment *will have eatenarrives*

The earlier action, Bert's cookie eating, is expressed in future perfect tense. The action that occurs after is in present tense.

Here is another example, again with the future perfect verb underlined:

By the time the test ends, Max will have answered 150 questions.

Poor Max! That's a lot of questions. Here is the timeline for this sentence:

present moment*will have answeredends*

The earlier action, Max's answering, comes before the end of the test. As you see in both examples, the future perfect tense is created from *will have* plus the participle. Here are some other future perfect verbs:

will have run

will have typed

will have graduated

will have slept

will have won

will have aged

This sort of sentence does not appear often. However, if you see a deadline in the sentence, consider using future perfect tense.

You guys understand grammar, right?

You may have noticed that the word *you* is both singular and plural. Why? I have no idea! The same pronoun works when you are speaking to one person or to more than one. The verb forms that pair with the singular *you* also pair with the plural *you.* Great idea, right? Wrong. For some reason, many people like to show that a particular *you* is plural. That's why I hear these words:

y'all

you guys

you people

youse

These expressions are fun, and they may be fine when you are speaking with friends and family. However, they are not correct in formal, Standard English. If you truly wish to show that you are speaking or writing to just one person or to a group, try adding other clues. Here are two examples:

You must all run the race today. We need everyone's help to win the trophy! (The *you* is plural.)

Peter loves you and no one else, Margie. (The *you* is singular.)

The ex factor

Two letters, *ex,* add meaning to many words. *Ex* means "out of" or "used to be." Take a look at these words:

Ex-wife means "a woman who is out of the marriage." "Stan greeted his *ex-wife* in a friendly way."

Ex-president means “used to be president.” “Although he was an *ex-president* of the association, no one paid attention to his suggestions.”

Extract means “take out of.” “Please *extract* the gun from your pocket and give it to the officer.”

Expel means “to force out of.” “The child cheated so often that he was *expelled* from the school.”

Exclude means “to keep out of a group.” “The players *excluded* Matt from their tournament because Matt did not understand enough about chess.”

Sometimes, the letters *ex* have other meanings. Use the definitions here as clues, but check the dictionary if you do not know what a particular word means.

Chapter 11

Searching for Subjects

In This Chapter

- Identifying the subject in statements, questions, and commands
- Matching subjects and verbs correctly
- Making sense of tricky subjects

Human beings always want to know *who* or *what* everyone is talking about. In a sentence, that's the *subject.* Subjects are the subject of this chapter. Here you see how to locate the subject of a sentence and how to match every kind of subject to a proper verb.

Locating the Subject of a Sentence

You come home and find a broken window. What is the first thing you do? You probably ask one or two questions:

Who broke the window?

What broke the window?

These are basic questions. The answer depends on what happened. Here are two possibilities:

A robber broke the window.

A falling tree broke the window.

Grammarians call the answer to these questions the *subject.* (Okay, I admit that this may be unrealistic. If your window is broken, you may not bother with grammar. You may call the cops instead!) In the first example sentence, the subject of the verb *broke* is *robber.* In the second example sentence, the subject of the verb *broke* is *tree.*

Did you notice that I mentioned the verb *broke* in the questions? Every sentence has at least one verb, a “doing” or a “being” word. (For more information on verbs, turn to Chapter 5.) However, verbs cannot sit by themselves in your sentence. Someone or something must perform the action or exist in the state of being expressed by the verb. That someone or something is the subject.

The “someone” or “something” may be a person, place, or thing. In other words, the subject may be a noun. The subject may also be a pronoun — a word that represents a noun. For more information on nouns, read Chapter 3. To learn more about pronouns, check out Chapter 4.

Now you know the basic rules for subject-hunting. In the sections that follow, I show you how to apply those rules to statements, questions, and commands.

Statement subjects

Most sentences make statements. Before you try to locate a subject in a statement, identify the verb. Ask these questions:

Which word tells you what is happening?

Which word tells you what was happening?

Which word tells you what will happen?

Which word makes a statement about being?

Once you have the verb, go for the subject. Ask two questions:

Who?

What?

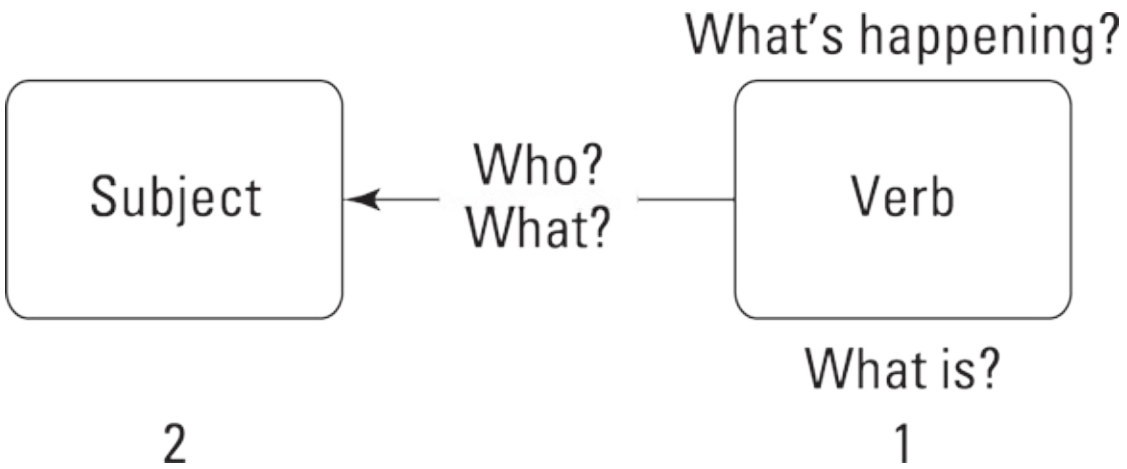

Figure 11-1 Locating the subject-verb pairs.

Attach these questions to the verb. Here is an example of a sentence that makes a statement so that you can see how these questions work:

Martha lit the candles for her romantic dinner party.

First, find the verb:

Which word tells you what is happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what was happening? *lit*

Which word tells you what will happen? No answer.

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

Okay, now you know that the verb is *lit.* Ask your subject questions:

Who *lit? Martha lit.*

What *lit?* No answer.

Mission accomplished! The subject of the verb *lit* is *Martha.*

Look at one more example sentence:

The new printer will run out of paper soon.

Find the verb first:

Which word tells you what is happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what was happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what will happen? *will run*

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

The verb is *will run.* Now ask your subject questions:

Who *will run?* No answer.

What will run? *printer*

The subject of the verb *will run* is *printer.*

Did you answer *the new printer* instead of *printer?* No problem! The subject is actually *printer,* but the longer version still tells you what you need to know.

Sometimes, when you ask the questions to find the subject, you get more than one answer. Take a look at this example:

Sam and Anna visited their friends.

As always, find the verb first. Ask the verb questions:

Which word tells you what is happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what was happening? *visited*

Which word tells you what will happen? No answer.

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

The verb is *visited.* Move on to the subject questions:

Who *visited? Sam, Anna*

What *visited?* No answer.

Sam and *Anna* are both subjects of the verb *visited.*

Try another sentence:

Either the computer or the printer is not working.

Find the verb:

Which word tells you what is happening? *is working*

Which word tells you what was happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what will happen? No answer.

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

You found your verb: *is working.* Are you wondering about the word *not? Not* is *not* a verb. It adds meaning to the verb, but it is not a "doing" or "being" word.

Now locate the subject:

Who *is working?* No answer.

What *is working? computer, printer*

The subjects of this sentence are *computer* and *printer.*

Are you wondering whether a sentence can have two verbs? Yes, it can! Here is one:

Nancy skipped class and went to the movies.

The words *skipped* and *went* answer this question: "Which word tells you what was happening?" Therefore, *skipped* and *went* are both verbs. In case you are curious, *Nancy* answers the subject question "Who *skipped* and went?" *Nancy* is the subject.

In most statements, the subject comes before the verb. In some unusual sentences, the subject is in a different place. Read these statements:

Carl stepped into the basement.

Into the basement stepped Carl.

These two sentences mean the same thing. In both sentences, the verb is *stepped.* When you ask the usual subject questions (Who *stepped?* What *stepped?*), you get the same answer: *Carl. Carl* is the subject of the verb *stepped.*

In statements beginning with *here* or *there*, you also find subjects after the verb. For more information, read "Dealing with Tricky Subjects," later in this chapter.

No matter how the words are arranged, use the same method for locating subjects. Find the verb, ask the *who?* and *what?* subject questions, and the real subject will pop up.

Look at each statement in the following table. Ask the questions to identify the verb. Write the verb in the second column. Then ask the questions to identify the subject. Write the subject in the third column.

Sentence	***Verb***	***Subject***
1. Everyone is very happy about the show.		
2. Simon will be here in about an hour.		
3. Nora and her brother played their guitars at the concert.		
4. That drawer does not stick.		
5. Stacy and Justin are in the school play.		
6. They have received many requests for help after the earthquake.		
7. The secretary will prepare the report and will send it to the boss.		
8. Up the hill climbed Marion.		

Here are the answers: 1. *is* (verb), *Everyone* (subject) 2. *will be* (verb), *Simon* (subject) 3. *played* (verb), *Nora, brother* (subjects) 4. *does stick* (verb), *drawer* (subject) 5. *are* (verb), *Stacy, Justin* (subjects) 6. *have received* (verb), *They* (subject) 7. *will prepare, will send* (verbs), *secretary* (subject) 8. *climbed* (verb), *Marion* (subject).

Question subjects

Do you like grammar? I am not asking that question to discover your feelings about my best subject. I am asking because I want you to locate the subject in that question. Here is the method for finding subjects that appear in questions.

First, find the verb by asking the verb questions. You may find it helpful to rearrange the question (keeping all the words) into statement form:

you Do like grammar

Now ask the verb questions:

Which word tells you what is happening? *Do like*

Which word tells you what was happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what will happen? No answer.

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

Next, ask the subject questions:

Who *do like? you*

What *do like?* No answer.

The subject is *you.*

The questions may sound strange. No one says, “Who do like?” Do not worry about the sound of the questions. Just ask them and you will find the subject!

Here is another question:

Did Cindy eat dinner already?

Follow the same steps. Start by rearranging the question’s words into statement form:

Cindy Did eat dinner already

Ask the verb questions:

Which word tells you what is happening? No answer.

Which word tells you what was happening? *Did eat*

Which word tells you what will happen? No answer.

Which word makes a statement about being? No answer.

Ask the subject questions:

Who *Did eat? Cindy*

What *Did eat?* No answer.

Cindy is the subject.

Like statements, questions may have more than one subject or more than one verb. (See the previous section on statements for more information.) Do not worry about whether you have one or more than one subject or verb. Just ask your questions and record the answers to find the subjects and verbs with no trouble.

Hunt for subjects and verbs in these questions. Ask the questions to identify the verb. Write the verb in the second column. Then ask the questions to identify the subject. Write the subject in the third column.

Question	***Verb***	***Subject***
1. Are we there yet?		
2. Will Sarah repair the car?		
3. Have Allen and Steve chosen the band?		
4. Is the company hiring or firing workers?		
5. Does everyone have a fork?		
6. Can Ben drive to school?		
7. Why is Andrew angry?		

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Here are the answers: 1. *Are* (verb), *we* (subject) 2. *will repair* (verb), *Sarah* (subject) 3. *have chosen* (verb), *Allen, Steve* (subjects) 4. *is hiring, firing* (verbs), *company* (subject) 5. *Does have* (verbs), *everyone* (subject). 6. *Can drive* (verb), *Ben* (subject) 7. *is* (verb), *Andrew* (subject).

Note: The second verb in Question 4 of this quiz, *firing*, is actually *is firing.* The first *is* attaches to both *hiring* and *firing.*

Command subjects

When you hear the word *command*, you probably think of an army general, or a queen — or maybe your mom. (I am a mom, and I love to give commands!) Sentences make commands, too. Look at these commands:

> Stop that noise.
>
> Eat your vegetables.
>
> Please be nice to your little sister.
>
> Vote in the next election.

The usual verb questions do not work as well with commands. Finding the verb in these sentences is easy, though. Just look for the word that tells you what to do. In the preceding command sentences, the verbs are underlined.

Where are the subjects? They do not appear in the command sentence. They are implied — understood without actually appearing. The subject of a command is always the same: *you.* Because the *you* does not appear in the command, English teachers call this subject "you understood."

In a command, the verb is the word that tells you what to do. The subject is always the same: *you.*

Matching Subjects and Verbs Properly

English teachers make a fuss about finding subjects and verbs. Why? The subjects and verbs must match. Here are two important rules for matching subjects and verbs:

- **If the subject is singular, the verb must also be singular.** A singular subject is *one* person, place, or thing. Here are some examples of singular subjects:
    - person
    - pen
    - Gina
    - he
    - driver
    - I
    - dog
    - this
- **If the subject is plural, the verb must also be plural.** A plural subject is *more than one* person, place, or thing. Here are some examples of plural subjects:
    - people
    - they
    - officers
    - both
    - daisies
    - these
    - we
    - men

Most of the time, figuring out what is singular and what is plural is easy. Occasionally, some unusual words may puzzle you. In this section, you find both types of sentences.

Once you have located a subject, of course, you have to decide which form of the verb is singular and which is plural. I am happy to say that nearly always, the verb forms are the same for both. The singular and

plural forms are different in the present tense, when you are talking about someone, something, or a group. The forms are also different for a few verbs — *be*, *have*, and *do* — whether they appear alone or attached to another verb. You can find the forms of these verbs in Chapter 5.

Sorting out subjects and verbs in common situations

Imagine that you have two baskets. One is labeled "singular," and the other "plural." You can probably place nearly every subject of a statement into the *singular* (one) or *plural* (more than one) category without hesitating.

Take a look at these statement sentences. In parentheses, you see the matches.

The monster pops out of the closet. (*monster* = singular subject, *pops* = singular verb)

Seven monsters are still inside. (*monsters* = plural subject, *are* = plural verb)

Clara has taught Spanish for five years. (*Clara* = singular subject, *has taught* = singular verb)

They often eat in restaurants. (*They* = plural subject, *eat* = plural verb)

Statements are easy, but questions are a little harder. (Do not worry. Questions are not much harder!) The verbs in questions often contain two words. These words may be separated by the subject.

Look at some questions. In parentheses, you find the subject–verb matches.

Does Bobby have a new address? (*Bobby* = singular subject, *Does have* = singular verb)

Do the children need more crayons? (*children* = plural subject, *Do need* = plural verb)

Has Karen agreed with your plan? (*Karen* = singular subject, *Has agreed* = singular verb)

Have the birds flown away? (*birds* = plural subject, *Have flown* = plural verb)

Are they having trouble with this lesson? (*they* = plural subject, *Are having* = plural verb)

Was Ellen nervous about the test? (*Ellen* = singular subject, *was* = singular verb)

In the world of grammar, singular matches singular, and plural matches plural. No mixing is allowed. For more help identifying singular and plural words, turn to Chapter 3 (nouns), Chapter 4 (pronouns), and Chapter 5 (verbs).

Can you match the correct verb to the subject of these sentences? First, underline the subject of the sentence. Then look at the verbs in parentheses. Underline your choice.

1. My cousin (organizes, organize) his files by date.
2. Many bears (lives, live) in that wilderness area.
3. (Is, Are) the women in the pool?
4. (Has, have) Mary finished her chores?
5. Oliver (wants, want) a pony for his birthday.

Here are the answers: 1. *cousin* (singular subject), *organizes* (singular verb) 2. *Bears* (plural subject), *live* (plural verb) 3. *Women* (plural subject), *are* (plural verb) 4. *Mary* (singular subject), *has* (singular verb) 5. *Oliver* (singular subject), *wants* (singular verb).

Tackling tougher sentences

Life is beautiful because it offers so much variety. The English language, in my opinion, is beautiful for the same reason. However, unusual sentences sometimes make choosing the proper subject–verb match a little harder. Not too hard! Do not worry. In this section, you tackle a few different types of sentences, matching subjects and verbs.

These sentences do not follow the common pattern, but the rule is exactly the same: Singular subjects pair with singular verbs, and plural

subjects pair with plural verbs.

First, look at sentences with two subjects connected by one of these two words: *and, or.* Here are some guidelines for sentences with subjects connected by *and* or *or:*

- **Two singular subjects joined by *and* become a plural subject.** The word *and* is like a plus sign in math. You add when you see *and.* One singular subject plus one other singular subject equals a plural subject. Therefore, you need a plural verb. Look at these examples:
    - Paul and Harry like Chinese food. (*Paul* and *Harry* = plural subject, *like* = plural verb)
    - The bee and its hive are in that field. (*bee* and *hive* = plural subject, *are* = plural verb)
    - Math and science have always been my best subjects. (*Math* and *science* = plural subject, *have been* = plural verb)
    - Do Elaine and George like spaghetti? (*Elaine* and *George* = plural subject, *Do like* = plural verb)
    - Windows and mirrors break easily. (*Windows* and *mirrors* = plural subject, *break* = plural verb)
- **Two singular subjects joined by *or* stay separate, remaining as singular subjects.** The logic here is that you have one *or* the other, not both. You need a singular verb in this situation. Read these examples:
    - Johnny or Jean has the key. (*Johnny* or *Jean* = singular subject, *has* = singular verb)
    - The driver or the passenger has been ill. (*driver* or *passenger* = singular subject, *has been* = singular verb)
    - Spanish or French is spoken in that country. (*Spanish* or *French* = singular subject, *is spoken* = singular verb)
    - Has Steve or Sally set the table? (*Steve* or *Sally* = singular subject, *Has set* = singular verb)
    - Smoking or drinking was not allowed. (*Smoking* or *drinking* = singular subject, *was* = singular verb)

Check your understanding of sentences with subjects connected by *and* or *or*. First, underline the subjects of the sentence. Then look at the verbs in parentheses. Underline your choice.

1. Betty and Veronica (runs, run) to the door.
2. The butcher or the baker (answers, answer) the phone.
3. In the evening, a mosquito and a wasp (buzzes, buzz) around the campfire.
4. Shelly or her sister (swats, swat) the bugs.
5. (Is, Are) the tent and the sleeping bag comfortable?

Here are the answers: 1. *Betty* and *Veronica* (plural subject), *run* (plural verb) 2. *butcher* or *baker* (singular subject), *answers* (singular verb) 3. *Mosquito* and *wasp* (plural subject), *buzz* (plural verb) 4. *Shelly* or *sister* (singular subject), *swats* (singular verb) 5. *tent* and *bag* (plural subject), *Are* (plural verb).

Dealing with Tricky Subjects

Do you like everyone? Probably, in real life, you do not like everyone. In grammar, you may not like the pronoun *everyone* either. Why? *Everyone* is a tricky subject. In this section, you learn about *everyone* and other odd subjects.

Singular subjects that look like plurals

Everyone sounds like more than one. In other words, *everyone* appears to be a plural word. However, *everyone* is actually a singular word. Look at these example sentences:

WRONG: Everyone are here.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Everyone* is singular, and *are* is a plural verb.

RIGHT: Everyone is here.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the singular verb *is* matches the singular

subject *everyone.*

Another tricky word is *everything.* This pronoun sounds big, as if all the things in the world were tucked inside. *Everything,* though, is actually singular. Read these sentences:

WRONG: Everything in the closet were mine.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Everything* is singular, and *were* is a plural verb.

RIGHT: Everything in the closet was mine.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the singular verb *was* matches the singular subject *everything.*

Everybody is another word that may fool you. It is also singular. Look at these sentences:

WRONG: Everybody in the swimming pool have splashed me!

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Everybody* is singular, and *have splashed* is a plural verb.

RIGHT: Everybody in the swimming pool has splashed me.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the singular verb *has splashed* matches the singular subject *everybody.*

A few other words falsely appear to be plurals. These subjects, however, are also singular:

someone	anyone	no one
something	anything	nothing
somebody	anybody	nobody

Be careful with subjects that contain *–one*, *–thing*, and *–body.* They may seem to include a group, but actually, these words are singular. They must pair with singular verbs.

The preceding list shows you words that are always singular. The following words are always plural: *both, few, many,* and *several.*

Everyone should check singular and plural subjects. Read these sentences. Underline the correct verb form.

1. No one (has, have) taken out the garbage today.
2. Anything (was, were) possible when Henry helped.
3. Everybody (needs, need) a dictionary.
4. Both (includes, include) misspelled words.
5. Sally said that someone (is, are) poisoning the soup.
6. Nobody (is, are) to blame for that accident.

Here are the answers: 1. *has* 2. *was* 3. *needs* 4. *include* 5. *is* 6. *is.*

Again and again

Two letters, *re,* may mean "again" or "over again" when they appear at the beginning of a word. Read these examples:

Reconnect means "connect again." "I used social media to *reconnect* with some old friends."

Redo means "do again." "Your report is sloppy. Please *redo* it."

Redecorate means "decorate again." "Sheila and Sam hated the purple paint once they saw it in the room, so they decided to *redecorate* immediately."

Reconsider means "consider, or think about, again." "Jamie turned down the union's latest offer, but when they threatened to strike, he *reconsidered.*"

Usually, when you add *re* to the front of a word, you do not need a hyphen. (A hyphen is a short, horizontal line.) However, in one case you do need a hyphen. Read this sentence, written in a note I received from a student:

I resent the paper you assigned.

When I read that note, I was upset. *Resent* may mean "be offended by." I thought the student was angry about my assignment! Actually, the student *rewrote* the paper to make it better. Then he *re-sent* it (sent it again). By the way, did you notice that *rewrote* means "wrote

again”?

Subjects in sentences with “here” and “there”

Tricky subjects also show up in sentences beginning with *here* or *there*. In these sentences, the subject is not *here* or *there*. The subject appears after the verb. Check these out:

Here is the path to the river. (*path* = singular subject, *is* = singular verb)

There are three socks in the dryer. (*socks* = plural subject, *are* = plural verb)

Here was a huge mountain! (*mountain* = singular subject, *was* = singular verb)

There were seven sisters in that family. (*sisters* = plural subject, *were* = plural verb)

Be careful when you see a *here* or *there* sentence. Choose a verb that matches the real subject.

Can you find the subject in a *here* or *there* sentence? Circle the subject and choose a matching verb from the parentheses. Underline your choice.

1. Here (is, are) a dozen roses for your birthday.
2. There (was, were) a gift on the table for you also.
3. Here (is, are) something you will enjoy.
4. There (is, are) everyone, ready to sing “Happy Birthday to You!”
5. There (is, are) many cards for you also.

Here are the answers: 1. *are* (*roses* = plural subject) 2. *was* (*gift* = singular subject) 3. *is* (*something* = singular subject) 4. *is* (*everyone* = singular subject) 5. *are* (*cards* = plural subject).

Changeable subjects

Some things never change. You let go of a rock, and it falls down. Gravity

(unless you are in space!) is always the same. A few pronouns, though, do change. At times they are singular. At times they are plural. Two important pronouns in this category are *all* and *some.* Here are guidelines for proper handling of these subjects:

1. **Look at the words following the pronoun.** Generally, you see *of.* The word *of* begins a phrase, naming one thing or a group of things or people.
2. **If the phrase talks about one thing, the subject is singular**. When you see *of the air, of the earth, of the work,* and similar phrases, your subject is singular. Take a peek at these examples:
    - All of the smoke is blowing away. (After the subject *all,* you find *of the smoke. Smoke* is a singular word. *All* in this sentence is singular and pairs with the singular verb *is blowing.*)
    - Some of the soil is red. (After the subject *some,* you see *of the soil. Soil* is a singular word. *Some* in this sentence is singular and pairs with the singular verb *is.*)
3. **If the phrase talks about more than one thing or person, the subject is plural.** When you see *of the girls, of the pens, of the bears,* and similar phrases, your subject is plural. Look at these examples:
    - All of the papers are blowing away. (After the subject *all,* you find *of the papers. Papers* is a plural word. *All* in this sentence is plural and pairs with the plural verb, *are blowing.*)
    - Some of the balloons are pink. (After the subject *some,* you see *of the balloons. Balloons* is a plural word. *Some* in this sentence is plural and pairs with the plural verb *are.*)

Matchmaking is fun. Choose a verb from the parentheses that matches the subject. Remember to look at the phrase before you select a verb.

1. All of the windows (needs, need) to be washed.
2. Some of the kids (is wearing, are wearing) uniforms.
3. All of the food (has spoiled, have spoiled).

4. Some of the carpet (was, were) smelly.
5. All of the skaters (has fallen, have fallen) at least twice.
6. Some of the ice (is melting, are melting).

Here are the answers: 1. *need* 2. *are wearing* 3. *has spoiled* 4. *was* 5. *have fallen* 6. *is melting*.

Do it yourself!

Do you like to talk about yourself? Most of us do. The *–self* pronouns are very popular words. However, they usually are not allowed to be subjects. Look at these examples:

WRONG: Vicky and myself will collect money for charity.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The subjects of this sentence are *Vicky* and *myself. Myself* cannot be a subject.

RIGHT: Vicky and I will collect money for charity.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the sentence has proper subjects: *Vicky* and *I*.

WRONG: *Herself* thinks she is as important as the president.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Herself* cannot be a subject.

RIGHT: She thinks she is as important as the president.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *She* is a proper subject.

The only time you can place a *–self* word in a subject spot is to emphasize a subject that is already present:

Angela herself will call you.

In this sentence, *Angela* is probably an important person — too important to make her own phone calls. The writer adds *herself* to show that a call from Angela is unusual.

Chapter 12

Adding Meaning with Complements

In This Chapter

- Locating objects
- Checking for subject and object complements
- Selecting pronouns to act as complements

Complements do not appear in every sentence. When they do show up, however, they are important. They add to the ideas expressed by the subject–verb pair. (You can read about subject–verb pairs in Chapter 11.)

In this chapter, you learn everything you ever wanted to know about the most common types of *complements* — what they are, how to insert them into your sentence, and how to choose the proper pronoun to act as a complement. At the end of the chapter, be ready to receive *compliments* (words of praise) for your knowledge of *complements* (parts of a sentence).

Surveying Complements

"Barney hits." When you read that sentence, I bet you are wondering *what* Barney hits. A home run? The lottery jackpot? Perhaps you wonder *whom* Barney hits. His little sister? A mugger? The answer to these questions (*what?* or *whom?*) is what English teachers call a *complement.*

A good general tries to see the big picture before going into battle. Before you battle to find complements, you should meet them. In this section, I introduce you to *objects* and *subject complements.*

Taking action: Objects

Action verbs express action. (I imagine you are not surprised to hear this fact!) Proper English sentences do not need complements. Without

complements, though, an action-verb sentence gives less information.

Read these examples. The objects are underlined. Information on other parts of the sentence appears in parentheses.

> Joe drank <u>coffee</u> every morning. (*Joe* = subject, *drank* = action verb)
>
> The referee blew the <u>whistle</u>. (*referee* = subject, *blew* = action verb)
>
> Carmen filled the <u>tank</u> with gas. (*Carmen* = subject, *filled* = action verb)
>
> Everyone greeted <u>Philip</u> warmly. (*Everyone* = subject, *greeted* = action verb)
>
> He knew <u>someone</u> in the government. (*He* = subject, *knew* = action verb)

As you see, the action flows from the *subject* (who or what performs the action) to the *object* (whom or what receives the action). In every example sentence, the flow of action is direct, with no detours. Therefore, these complements are called *direct objects.*

A sentence may have more than one direct object. Look at these examples:

> Bert played <u>guitar</u> and <u>banjo</u> in the show. (*Bert* = subject, *played* = action verb)
>
> Simon read <u>stories</u> and <u>poems</u>. (*Simon* = subject, *read* = action verb)
>
> Hannah is chewing <u>steak</u> and <u>broccoli</u>. (*Hannah* = subject, *is chewing* = action verb)
>
> Somebody should use more <u>soap</u> and <u>deodorant</u>! (*Somebody* = subject, *should use* = action verb)

A sentence may have even more objects. In this example, you see three:

> The author wrote <u>poems</u>, <u>stories</u>, and <u>plays</u>. (*author* = subject, *wrote* = action verb)

Sometimes, the flow of action makes a little detour before arriving at the direct object. Read the following sentences. Notice the underlined word in

each one. The underlined word is also an object, but a different kind:

> Mark gave Maria some water. (*Mark* = subject, *gave* = verb, *water* = direct object)
>
> Brad wrote me a letter. (*Brad* = subject, *wrote* = verb, *letter* = direct object)
>
> Chris will buy everyone a present. (*Chris* = subject, *will buy* = verb, *present* = direct object)
>
> Gardeners gave the plants extra water. (*Gardeners* = subject, *gave* = verb, *water* = direct object)
>
> Gus told her a secret. (*Gus* = subject, *told* = verb, *secret* = direct object)

The underlined words in the preceding sentences are connected to the action, but these words do not receive the action directly. For this reason, the underlined words are called *indirect objects*.

You don't need to waste space in your brain remembering these grammar terms. All you need to remember is that objects come after action verbs and receive action from the verb directly or indirectly. Why? Good question! You need to identify objects so that when a pronoun takes that role in your sentence, it's easy to select the proper form. For more information, see "Choosing the Proper Complement Pronoun," later in this chapter.

How good are you at finding objects? See whether you can underline the objects in these sentences.

1. Edna milked the cow.
2. Charlie painted the fence and the house.
3. The horse ate 15 carrots.
4. I dusted the furniture in the living room.
5. Sylvia wrote me a note.

6. The host shouted welcoming words.

Here are the answers: 1. *cow* 2. *fence*, *house* 3. *carrots* 4. *furniture* 5. *me* (indirect object), *note (*direct object) 6. *words.*

Did you answer *15 carrots* for question three or *welcoming words* for question six? If so, count your answers as correct. The extra descriptions do not matter.

Finishing the thought: Subject complements

Not all sentences include action. Some express a state of being. Usually, the word doing this job is a form of the verb *be.* (Turn to Chapter 5 to see these forms.) Here are a few sentences with forms of *be* underlined:

The traffic is terrible.

We will be late.

John was anxious about the exam.

Annie has been helpful.

Occasionally, verbs that relate to your senses (sight, hearing, and so forth) also express a state of being. Take a look at these sentences. Notice how the underlined verb expresses a state of being:

The music sounds loud.

The cake looked disgusting.

The baby blanket feels soft.

English teachers love to create grammar terms. I know at least three different ways to name a *being* verb. Do not worry about terms. They are not important. All you need to do is recognize a verb that expresses a state of being.

Sentences with subjects and *being* verbs are unfinished. Wouldn't you wait for more information when you hear these?

The train is

Molly seems

The dinner will be

Our house has been

The stew tastes

You want to know more about *The train, Molly, The dinner, Our house,* and *The stew.* Now read this list, with the thoughts completed:

The train is my favorite toy. (*train* = subject, *is* = linking verb)

Molly seems cheerful. (*Molly* = subject, *seems* = linking verb)

The dinner will be delicious. (*dinner* = subject, *will be* = linking verb)

Our house has been a beloved home. (*house* = subject, *has been* = linking verb)

The stew tastes salty. (*stew* = subject, *tastes* = linking verb)

The underlined words relate to the *subject* of each sentence. For this reason, they are called *subject complements.* Subject complements complete the meaning of the sentence.

As always, you do not have to remember the grammar term. Just be sure that you can find a subject complement when one is present in your sentence. Why? If a pronoun does this job, you must use a *subject pronoun* (one that may properly be used as a subject). For more information, read "Choosing the Proper Complement Pronoun," later in this chapter.

Some sentences with linking verbs have one subject complement, and some have more than one. Read these examples:

Neil has been sad and lonely since his girlfriend left. (*Neil* = subject, *has been* = linking verb)

The secretaries are Grace and Pete. (*secretaries* = subject, *are* = linking verb)

The new rug is soft but durable. (*rug* = subject, *is* = linking verb)

At times, a linking-verb sentence has no subject complement. Instead, other words complete the meaning. The other words may refer to a location or a time. Look at these sentences:

He is in the shower. (*He* = subject, *is* = linking verb)

The game was over. (*game* = subject, *was* = linking verb)

The gift will be here soon. (*gift* = subject, *will be* = linking verb)

See whether you can underline the subject complements in these sentences. ***Note:*** To keep you on your toes, I placed one sentence without a complement in this quiz.

1. That coat is too long.
2. My dogs sound angry and tired.
3. The champion of the tournament is Ali.
4. The new senators were Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones.
5. Oak trees are in that forest.
6. The best player was Cameron.

Here are the answers: 1. *long* 2. *angry, tired* 3. *Ali* 4. *Mr. Smith, Ms. Jones* 5. no complement 6. *Cameron.*

Popping the Question to Identify Objects and Subject Complements

In romantic situations, you "pop the question" to find out whether marriage is in your future. In grammar, you "pop the question" to identify parts of a sentence, including complements. In this section, you see how to locate a complement by asking the right questions.

If the sentence contains an action verb, a few simple steps lead you to the object.

Direct objects

Here are the steps to find a direct object, a word that receives the action of the

verb directly (no detours!). To help you understand, I explain these steps with an example. This is the sentence:

Stan painted my new kitchen.

1. **Identify the verb.**

   Ask these questions:

   What is happening? No answer.

   What was happening? *painted*

   What will happen? No answer.

   The answer, *painted*, is the action verb.

2. **Identify the subject.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the verb *painted*.

   Who painted? *Stan*

   What painted? No answer.

   The answer, *Stan*, is the subject.

3. **Identify the object.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the subject and verb:

   Stan painted whom? No answer.

   Stan painted what? *kitchen*

   The answer, *kitchen*, is the direct object.

Did you answer *my new kitchen* instead of *kitchen?* That is fine. The key word is *kitchen*, but including descriptive words will not cause any problems.

Figure 12-1 shows you the questions that help you find a direct object. The numbers indicate the order to follow.

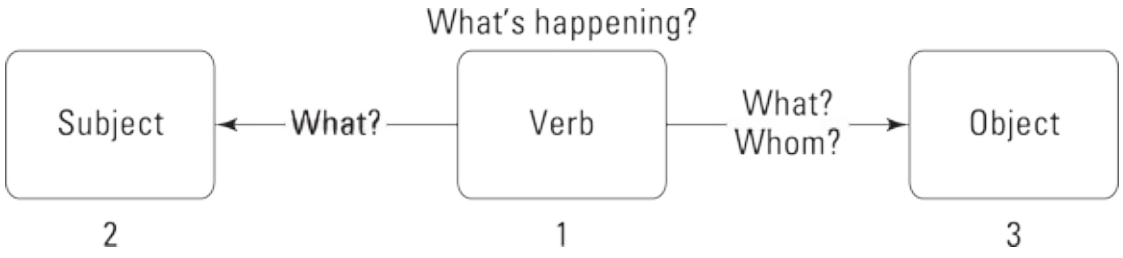

Figure 12-1 Locating the direct objects.

Here is another example of these questions in action, based on this sentence:

Maria will glue tiles behind the stove.

First, find the verb:

What is happening? No answer.

What was happening? No answer.

What will happen? *will glue*

The verb is *will glue.* Now ask the subject questions:

Who *will glue? Maria*

What *will glue?* No answer.

The subject is *Maria.* Ask the object questions, starting with the subject and verb you found:

Maria will glue whom? No answer.

Maria will glue what? *tiles*

The object is *tiles.*

Indirect objects

You may have more than one object — a *direct object* and an *indirect object* — in your sentence. (Refer to "Taking actions: Objects" earlier in this chapter for more information on these two types of objects.) The same questions work when you are looking for an indirect object, as long as you add one extra question. Look at this example sentence:

Barney gave Louisa a big kiss.

Here are the steps that lead you to the indirect object.

1. **Identify the verb.**

   Ask these questions:

What is happening? No answer.

What was happening? *gave*

What will happen? No answer.

The answer, *gave*, is the action verb.

2. **Identify the subject.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the verb *gave*.

   Who *gave? Barney*

   What *gave?* No answer.

   The answer, *Barney*, is the subject.

3. **Identify the direct object.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the subject and verb:

   Barney gave whom? No answer.

   Barney gave what? *kiss*

   The answer, *kiss*, is the direct object.

   Did you answer *a big kiss* instead of *kiss?* That is fine. The key word is *kiss*, but including descriptive words does not cause problems.

4. **Identify the indirect object.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the subject, verb, and direct object:

   Barney gave kiss to whom? *Louisa*

   Barney gave kiss to what? No answer.

   The indirect object is *Louisa*.

Sometimes the word *to* appears in the sentence. Look at this example:

Barney also wrote love letters to Louisa.

In this sentence, *Louisa* is not technically an indirect object. In case you are curious, *to Louisa* is a prepositional phrase. I am very happy to advise you that you do not have to worry about whether you have discovered an indirect object or a prepositional phrase. In either situation, you have an object, *Louisa*. That is all you need to know!

Figure 12-2 shows you the questions that help you find an indirect object. The numbers indicate the order to follow.

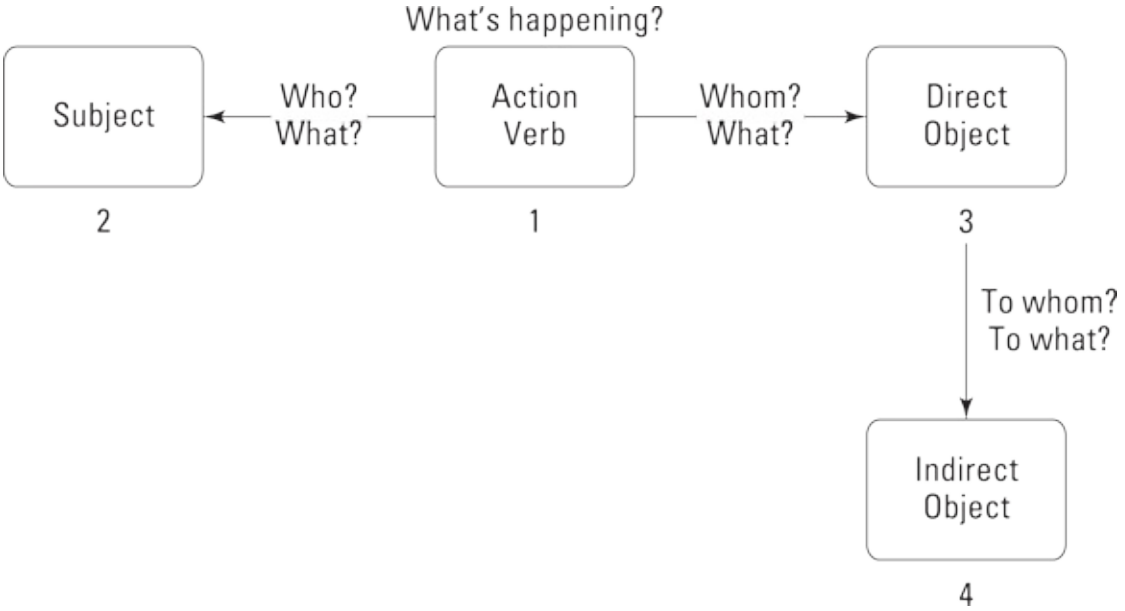

Figure 12-2 Locating the indirect object.

See whether you can find the action verb, subject, and object(s) in the following sentences. ***Note:*** You may find one or more objects — or none at all!

Sentence	***Action Verb***	***Subject***	***Object(s)***
1. Shakespeare wrote many plays.			
2. Sonia accepted the award with a smile.			
3. The picture frame is tilting to the left.			
4. Hettie sang a beautiful song to me.			
5. Walter is sending him some money.			
6. Doctor Roberts injected the vaccine.			

Here are the answers:1. *wrote* (verb), *Shakespeare* (subject), *plays* (direct object) 2. *accepted* (verb), *Sonia* (subject), *award* (direct object) 3. *is tilting* (verb), *frame* (subject), no object 4. *sang* (verb), *Hettie* (subject), *song* (direct object) 5. *is sending* (verb), *Walter* (subject), *money* (direct object), *him* (indirect object) 6. *injected* (verb), *Doctor Roberts* (subject), *vaccine* (direct

object).

Note: In Sentence 4, *me* is also an object, the object of the preposition *to*.

Locating subject complements

When a sentence has a *being* verb, not an action verb, you should look for the subject complement. The steps are very easy to follow. Take a look, working from this example sentence:

The ocean will be calm tonight.

1. **Identify the verb.**

   Ask these questions:

   What is? No answer.

   What was? No answer.

   What will be? *will be*

   The answer, *will be*, is the being verb.

2. **Identify the subject.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the verb *will be*.

   Who *will be?* No answer.

   What *will be? ocean*

   The answer, *ocean*, is the subject.

3. **Identify the subject complement.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the subject and verb:

   Ocean will be who? No answer.

   Ocean will be what? *calm*

   The answer, *calm*, is the subject complement.

Take a peek at one more example, based on this sentence:

The dentist is a recent graduate of that university.

1. **Identify the verb.**

   Ask these questions:

   What is? *is*

What was? No answer.

What will be? No answer.

The answer, *is*, is the being verb.

2. **Identify the subject.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the verb *is*.

   Who is? *dentist*

   What is? No answer.

   The answer, *dentist*, is the subject.

3. **Identify the subject complement.**

   Ask these questions, tacked onto the subject and verb:

   dentist is who? No answer.

   dentist is what? *graduate*

   The answer, *graduate*, is the subject complement.

Figure 12-3 may help you follow the steps to the subject complement.

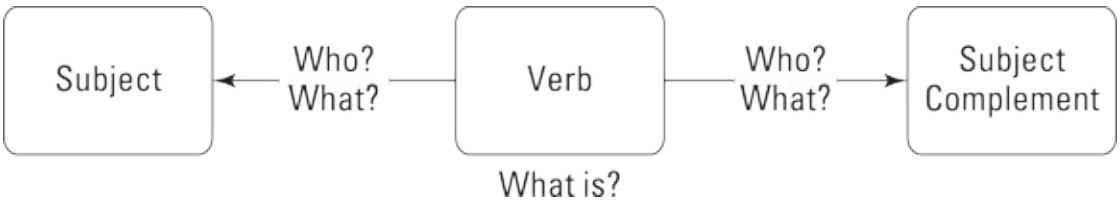

Figure 12-3 Locating the subject complement.

To find out how good you are at asking questions, follow the steps and fill in the columns to identify the *being* verb, the subject, and the subject complement. ***Note:*** You may find one or more subject complements or none at all.

Sentence	***Being Verb***	***Subject***	***Subject Complement***
1. Virginia Woolf was a fine writer.			
2. Her piano sounds strange.			
3. The rain will be heavy at times.			
4. My feet are on the pillow.			

5. Cough medicine tastes terrible.

6. Mark is president of the student government.

Here are the answers: 1. *was* (verb), *Virginia Woolf* (subject), *writer* (subject complement) 2. *sounds* (verb), *piano* (subject), *strange* (subject complement) 3. *will be* (verb), *rain* (subject), *heavy* (subject complement) 4. *are* (verb), *feet* (subject), no subject complement 5. *tastes* (verb), *medicine* or *cough medicine* (subject), *terrible* (subject complement) 6. *is* (verb), *Mark* (subject), *president* (subject complement).

Choosing the Proper Complement Pronoun

When you saw your brother, did you give *he* a hug? I hope not! Did you give *him* a hug? I hope so! *Him* is an object pronoun. *He* is a subject pronoun. When your sentence needs an object, turn to the object pronouns. Avoid the subject pronouns.

Suppose someone asks, "Who is there?" What is your answer — "It is me" or "It is I"? The correct response is "It is *I*." Why? The verb *is* expresses a state of being. A sentence with that type of verb has a subject complement, not an object. Therefore, the pronoun you need is a subject pronoun. Placing an object pronoun there is incorrect in Standard English.

In conversation, most people say, "It's me" or "It is me." In conversation with friends or relatives, these sentences are fine. In situations requiring your best, most proper grammar, though, these sentences are not fine. They are incorrect!

When you are selecting a pronoun as a complement, follow these guidelines:

- **Choose an object pronoun for sentences with action verbs.** Direct and indirect objects, if they are pronouns, are always object pronouns. Some common object pronouns are *me, us, him, her,* and *them.* (For more information about object pronouns, turn to Chapter 4.)

- **Choose a subject pronoun for sentences with being verbs.** Subject complements, when they are pronouns, are subject pronouns. Some common subject pronouns are *I, we, he, she,* and *they.* (For more information on subject pronouns, check out Chapter 4.)

Take a look at these examples. The complements, which are all pronouns, are underlined. More information about each sentence appears in parentheses.

The dog will bite her. (*will bite* = action verb, *dog* = subject)

Henry lost his gloves but found them quickly. (*lost, found* = action verbs, *Henry* = subject)

The best assistant is she. (*is* = being verb, *assistant* = subject)

It is they who are to blame for that mess. (*is* = being verb, *It* = subject)

The attorney always gives us his attention. (*gives* = action verb, *attorney* = subject)

In the last example sentence, *us* is an indirect object. The direct object is *attention.*

Select the proper pronoun from the parentheses. Remember that a sentence with an action verb needs an object pronoun. A sentence with a being verb needs a subject pronoun.

1. Marlene baked _____ (I, me) a cake.
2. My favorite musicians are _____ (they, them).
3. You must find _____ (she, her).
4. I predict that the champion will be _____ (he, him).
5. Max and Andy told _____ (they, themselves) to work harder.
6. The television show interested _____ (we, us).

Here are the answers: 1. *me* 2. *they* 3. *her* 4. *he* 5. *themselves* 6. *us.*

To, too, two = three confusing words

Three words sound exactly the same, just like the number 2. They are spelled differently, though, and they do not have the same meaning. Here they are:

> **To** may be attached to a verb (*to like, to walk, to buy*). “Dan wanted *to* deal the cards.” *To* may also show movement toward someone or something (*to the store, to me*). “Dan drove *to* the bank. He gave the money *to* Martha.”
>
> **Too** means “also” or “more than enough.” “Are you going *too?*” “The suitcase is *too* heavy.”
>
> **Two** is the number 2. “I have *two* cousins in the navy.”

Remember these *two* things: You are never *too* old *to* improve your understanding of proper grammar. You are never *too* young *to* begin learning!

Chapter 13

Finishing the Job: Writing Complete Sentences

In This Chapter

- Avoiding sentence fragments
- Surveying the elements of a complete sentence
- Adding proper punctuation to the end of the sentence
- Adjusting the rules for text messaging

Have you ever had a conversation like this one?

> Son: Why do I have to take out the garbage?
>
> Mother: Because.

In real life, the mother's reply is very annoying. The son deserves a better answer, such as "You have to take out the garbage because I will ground you for three weeks if you do not." This is a book about grammar, though, not parenting. In grammar, the mother's answer is not satisfactory for a different reason. It is not a complete sentence — an important requirement of Standard English. In this chapter, you see how to create complete sentences and punctuate them properly. This chapter also shows you how to change traditional rules when you send a text.

Halfway Is Not Enough: Expressing a Complete Thought

When you are writing, you must be clear. Clear meaning usually comes from complete sentences. A complete sentence must express a complete thought. Take a look at these examples. Do you know what they mean?

Since you left.

The job has been.

Knowing you.

The month of April was.

Because I need some time.

Over the rainbow and beyond the horizon, Henry.

Who does that

Although everyone believes you.

I bet you found these examples a little confusing. Each one gives you some information, but each one also leaves you wanting more information. Look at the first example again. You can expand it in several different ways:

I have been sad since you left.

Since you left, the office has been reorganized.

Since you left, John was promoted.

John has been happy since you left.

These are four meanings. You could probably add a million more! Each expresses a complete thought. Each, therefore, is a complete sentence, unlike the fragment *Since you left.*

Check out another example from the first list, expanded here:

Knowing you has been an honor.

Knowing you, the report will be perfect.

Is knowing you enough, or do I need work experience to get that job?

Knowing you, Amy, is simply impossible because you keep too many secrets.

These expanded sentences are not like the fragment *knowing you.* They express a complete thought. Turn your attention to one more example from the first list. See how the meaning may change with some simple additions:

Who does that?

Who does that!

I do not know who does that.

Sam said he knew a carpenter who does that.

In the first line of the preceding list, the punctuation mark completes the idea. Now you know that someone is asking a question about an action. In the second line of the list, the punctuation mark adds a bit of surprise and perhaps disapproval. The third and fourth lines fill out the meaning with words.

No matter how you complete these ideas, the point is the same. Fragments are unclear. More information or a punctuation mark must be added to change a fragment into a complete sentence, expressing a complete thought.

Length has nothing to do with whether your sentence expresses a complete thought or remains unclear. Some short sentences are complete:

Allison dances.

I am here.

The flower blooms.

Jean snores.

Alex left.

Some long “sentences” are actually fragments, not expressing a complete thought:

Although you bought me a car, sent me a basket of flowers, and hired a plane to write “I love you” in the sky.

Robert, because he is so tall that he can touch the ceiling and reach the highest bookshelf in the library.

If I am admitted to your school, which is near my house and which has an excellent reputation for academics and sports.

Crying, screaming, running in circles, and generally behaving in a strange

way.

No matter how long or short they are, all your sentences should be complete and clearly express your meaning.

Can you detect a complete thought? Try your hand by labeling these as “complete” or “fragment.”

1. Although Sandy was standing on the beach.
2. The bucket leaked water onto the rug.
3. Finding a really good pen was impossible.
4. When it snows.
5. Who cheated.
6. Archie was going to the principal.

Here are the answers: 1. fragment 2. complete 3. complete 4. fragment 5. fragment 6. complete.

Cooking Up a Complete Sentence: The Essential Subject–Verb Pair

Every sentence is different, but the recipe for a complete sentence in Standard English always includes at least one matching subject–verb pair. When I say “matching,” I do not mean the kind of match you make for a romantic evening. I mean that the verb form must pair properly with the subject. Keep these points in mind when you check for a proper match:

- **A verb expresses action or state of being.** Look for words that tell you what is happening or what is. (If you need more information about locating verbs, look at Chapter 5.)
- **The subject is whoever or whatever does the action or exists in the state of being.** Place the questions *who?* and *what?* in front of the verb.

The answer is the subject. (Refer to Chapter 11 for help finding subjects.)

In this section, I show you some examples of subject–verb pairs that match and subject–verb pairs that do not match. Notice how the verb changes form when it pairs properly with each subject. Also examine the mismatches so that you can avoid them in your own writing.

Not flying solo: Verb forms ending in –ing

Often, you write or speak about an action that is in progress, or a state of being that is ongoing. The *–ing* form of a verb expresses these meanings, but you must use this form carefully.

Look at these pairs. The verb forms are underlined:

Matching Pair	***Nonmatching Pair***
bird is flying	bird flying
Henry is going	Henry going
I am swimming	I swimming
the prince and his wife are being	the prince and his wife being
mirrors are reflecting	mirrors reflecting
the river is flowing	the river flowing
musicians are playing	musicians playing

What did you notice about the matching pair? The *–ing* verb is always accompanied by a form of the verb *be*. *Flying*, *going*, *swimming*, and other *–ing* verb forms are fine, but not by themselves. To act as a proper verb in a subject–verb pair, the *–ing* form must be attached to *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *will be*, *had been*, or another form of the verb *be*. (For more information on forms of *be*, refer to Chapter 5.) For this reason, *I swimming* is wrong. *I am swimming* is right.

Remember that the guidelines in this section apply only to subject–verb pairs. The *–ing* form of a verb, all alone, may be correct in other roles. Read this example:

WRONG: Sam riding his bike.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Sam riding* is not a proper subject–verb pair.

RIGHT: Sam, riding his bike, hit a tree.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *riding* is not paired with *Sam. Riding* adds information about *Sam. Sam hit* is the real subject–verb pair in this sentence.

Here is one more example:

WRONG: Hitting a bump.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The "sentence" has no subject and no real verb.

RIGHT: Hitting a bump, Sam fell off his bike.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *hitting a bump* gives more information about *Sam.* The subject–verb pair is *Sam fell.*

Check your understanding of *–ing* forms. Choose the correct verb from the parentheses.

1. You (are going, going) away tomorrow.
2. His sister (is waiting, waiting, are waiting) for a new credit card.
3. My toe (has been aching, aching) for three days.
4. Zina (telling, was telling) an amazing story to her friends.
5. The mansion (is standing, standing) on top of that hill.
6. I (am admiring, admiring) your new hairstyle.

Here are the answers: 1. *were going* 2. *is waiting* 3. *has been aching* 4. *was telling* 5. *is standing* 6. *am admiring*.

Help wanted: Past verb forms that cannot stand alone

Have you ever spoken to your friends about grammar? Probably not! Grammar has never been a topic to bring up at a party. When I discussed grammar at a party, I looked around and saw that everyone had fallen asleep!

The underlined words in the preceding paragraph are fine as part of a verb.

However, they cannot stand alone. They cannot be a match for a subject unless they have a helper. In the preceding paragraph, these underlined verbs do have helpers:

have spoken

has been

had fallen

With their helpers, the sentences are correct. Without them, you do not have a proper subject–verb pair.

Look at this set of matches and mismatches. The verb forms are underlined.

Matching Pair	***Nonmatching Pair***
Ross has written	Ross written
Anne had gone	Anne gone
ducks have swum	ducks swum
bricks had fallen	bricks fallen
he was done	he done
vases were stolen	vases stolen
president has spoken	president spoken

Do you see that the matching pair always includes *was*, *were*, *has*, *have*, or *had?* The verb forms here, and many others, do not work all by themselves as part of a subject–verb pair. These forms must have helpers attached. Because of this rule, *he was done* is proper English, but *he done* is incorrect.

In grammar terms, these forms are called *irregular past participles.* Do not waste brain cells remembering that term! Check Chapter 10 for a list of the most common irregular forms.

Sometimes a participle is not part of the verb in a sentence. Instead, the participle adds information. If the participle acts as a description, it is fine by itself. Here is an example:

WRONG: Elsa frozen on the iceberg.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Elsa frozen* is not a proper subject–verb pair.

RIGHT: Elsa, frozen on the iceberg, called for help.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *frozen* is not paired with *Elsa*. *Frozen* adds information about *Elsa*. *Elsa called* is the real subject–verb pair in this sentence.

Find out how well you understand past verb forms. Select the proper form from the parentheses.

1. The sky (was covered, covered) with clouds.
2. We (have done, done) the work.
3. Those ants (have gone, gone) away.
4. Sid (taken, has taken) the test twice.
5. The ball (was thrown, thrown) to the pitcher.
6. The horse (been ridden, has been ridden, ridden) in three races.

Here are the answers: 1. *was covered* 2. *have done* 3. *have gone* 4. *has taken* 5. *was thrown* 6. *has been ridden.*

Do not be alone

Another common type of subject–verb mismatch places the verb *be* all by itself. *Be* never works alone as part of a subject–verb pair. It always changes form or has a helping verb attached. Look at this table. The verb forms are underlined.

Matching Pair	***Nonmatching Pair***
Margie <u>will be</u>	Margie <u>be</u>
the polar bear <u>is</u>	the polar bear <u>be</u>
I <u>am</u>	I <u>be</u>
the teenagers on the train <u>are talking</u>	the teenagers on the train <u>be talking</u>
Ned <u>has been chopping</u>	Ned <u>be chopping</u>

the singers <u>will be performing</u> the singers <u>be performing</u>

As you see in the table, sometimes *be* changes form when it is part of the matching pair *(is, am)*. Other times, *be* has a helping verb *(will, are, has)*.To see all the forms of *be*, check out Chapter 5.

Another error to avoid is to drop the *be* verb entirely. Take a look at this example:

WRONG: She happy.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The statement has no verb.

RIGHT: She is happy.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The sentence now has a verb, *is*. Any other verb that pairs with *she* would also work: *She was happy. She will be happy. She seems happy. She sounds happy.*

WRONG: We right.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The statement has no verb.

RIGHT: We are right.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The sentence now has a verb, *are*. Any other verb that pairs with *we* would also work well here: *We were right. We will be right. We have been right.*

See whether you can underline the correct form of the verb *be* from the choices in parentheses.

1. Jack (is, be) hungry.
2. Robin (be, will be) at school today.
3. (Are, Be) you pleased with the decorations?
4. Archers (been, be, have been) part of that competition since ancient times.
5. Everyone (should be, be) kind to animals.

6. The mountains (be, are, been) very snowy.

Here are the answers: 1. *is* 2. *will be* 3. *Are* 4. *have been* 5. *should be* 6. *are.*

Command performance

Complete sentences always have at least one subject–verb pair. Sometimes, the subject is hard to find. In fact, a subject may be implied, not stated, in the sentence.

In a sentence that gives a command, the subject, *you,* does not appear in the sentence. It is implied. These sentences are correct because they have a subject–verb pair. Look at this example:

Lock the door.

The verb is *lock.* It pairs with the subject *you,* even though the word *you* is not in the sentence. When you see a command, do not look for the subject. You will not find one on the paper or screen. The subject exists, though, in the readers' minds.

Ending Sentences with Proper Punctuation

Talk to me. Tell me about your life. As you speak, listen to yourself. You probably pause from time to time. If you ask a question, the tone of your voice changes. Maybe your voice becomes louder at important moments. The tone of your voice, the pauses, and perhaps even the expression on your face adds meaning to what you say. When you are writing, though, no one can hear or see you. For this reason, writing has punctuation marks. Every complete sentence needs an endmark — punctuation at the end of the sentence.

A *period* — a single dot — tells your reader that you are making a statement:

I hate strawberry ice cream.

The President announced his choice for the Supreme Court.

Canberra is the capital of Australia.

Everything you purchased is too expensive.

Next year, the party will be at Alan’s ranch.

A period also appears at the end of a sentence giving a command:

Sit in the corner.

Do not speak.

Pet the dog gently.

Bake the pie for an hour.

Tell me everything.

A question mark (**?**) shows the reader that you are asking a question:

Are you from Texas?

Do you know how to drive?

Have you taken the driving test?

Will Caroline be on the team this year?

May I come in?

An exclamation point (**!**) adds drama to a statement or command:

You have grown tall since I last saw you!

We have arrived!

How nice you are!

Go away!

Stay here!

Your choice of punctuation mark matters. Whatever you choose, be sure to include one endmark. Otherwise, you do not have a complete sentence. Your meaning may not be clear if one sentence runs into another.

Read this example, which has no endmarks:

> Barbara fell she said the playground swing was broken before she sat down was she hurt

That line is very hard to understand. Place the endmarks, and the task is easier:

> Barbara fell. She said the playground swing was broken before she sat down. Was she hurt?

Here is the same example, with different endmarks and a different meaning:

> Barbara fell? She said the playground swing was broken before she sat down. Was she hurt?

Here is one more example. The words are the same, but the endmarks are different:

> Barbara fell, she said. The playground swing was broken before. She sat down. Was she hurt?

Do you see the difference the endmarks make? The breaks between one sentence and another change. The question mark tells you the writer doesn't know whether Barbara was hurt or not. The exclamation point reveals that the writer is upset by the extent of Barbara's injuries.

See whether you can add endmarks to each sentence.

1. Did you plant potatoes this year
2. The deer will stay away from that garden
3. Does he know much about geography
4. The spy stole information from the computer network
5. How happy I am
6. Are you thinking about your vacation

Here are the answers: 1. question mark 2. period 3. question mark 4. period 5.

exclamation point 6. question mark.

Changing the Rules for Texting

One day, when I was little, I wanted to see my friend. I walked to her house. I knocked on the door. Then I yelled, “Cathy! Do you want to play?” These days, someone who wants to see a friend has other ways to communicate — phone calls and texts. Phone calls do not bring grammar problems. Your tone of voice and the reaction of the person you are speaking with help you express the right meaning. Texts, though, may cause some problems. Unless you are careful, your texts may be misunderstood.

Still, you can adapt grammar rules for complete sentences to suit texts. In this section, I give you some common-sense guidelines.

Dropping words

Because every character counts, you may at times break the “complete sentence” rules when you are texting. Many people cut the subject. Look at this statement:

> Left meeting early. Made no progress.

In some situations, this text is fine. Perhaps you and your co-worker spoke about the meeting. The two of you decided that you would stay if the meeting seemed worthwhile. You would leave if it was a waste of time. In this case, your text is clear.

Suppose, though, that the person you are texting does not know your intentions. Perhaps the person who receives the message has been wondering whether the other people at the meeting were willing to negotiate. In that case, will the reader know whether *you* left or whether *the others* left? The subject is important then. Read these:

> Smith left meeting early. I made no progress.
>
> I left meeting early. Smith made no progress.

In these examples, different people leave, for different reasons. The subjects matter!

Look at this text:

> We left meeting early. Made no progress.

The first sentence has a subject, but the second does not. In such a situation, readers usually assume that the same subject applies to both statements. Therefore, this text means:

> We left meeting early. We made no progress.

Most texters drop *the*, *a*, *an*, and similar words. These words are not important. The meaning comes across without them.

Sometimes, as part of an exchange, you may drop verbs. Look at these texts, sent by Bill and Bob to each other:

> Bill: Who attended?
>
> Bob: Mac
>
> Bill: Did you speak?
>
> Bob: No just Mac

Bob's texts have no verbs, so they are not complete sentences. However, the meaning is clear. By the way, you may notice that Bill's lines include punctuation, and Bob's do not. See the next section for more information on when you need punctuation in a text.

Skipping punctuation

When you are texting, you may be tempted to drop punctuation marks. Texting tires your thumbs! Sometimes, dropping the endmark doesn't matter. Check out this example:

> Come home early

This text cannot be misunderstood. The person texting does not want to wait. However, sometimes punctuation matters a lot. Look at this text, without endmarks:

I left Barbara arrived safely the children are fine

You may think the text means divorce and a new living situation:

I left Barbara. Arrived safely. The children are fine. (The second sentence implies that *I arrived safely.*)

The same text may simply report a babysitting change:

I left. Barbara arrived safely. The children are fine.

The rule for texting is simple. Use endmarks to make your meaning clear!

Pretend you have received these texts. Look at the expanded versions, labeled A and B. Decide which meaning fits — A, B, or both. Circle the letters of every possible meaning. ***Note:*** If more than one meaning is possible, the text is not written well.

1. Dinner at 8

A. Is dinner at 8?

B. Dinner is at 8.

2. Herb home now?

A. Herb is home now.

B. Is Herb home now?

3. Mike flew Phoenix

A. Mike flew to Phoenix.

B. Did Mike fly to Phoenix?

4. Terrible traffic in park!

A. There is terrible traffic in the park!

B. Is there terrible traffic in the park?

Here are the answers: 1. A and B (poorly written text) 2. B (well written text) 3. A and B (poorly written text) 4. A (well written text).

When you are texting friends, you may be less formal. I must confess that I hate abbreviations (*u* for *you*, for example). Between good friends, though, *u* may be acceptable. You must be careful when you write to someone who has more power than you do: a boss, a teacher, or an older relative. In these situations, be more formal. Follow the grammar rules for complete sentences. Do not abbreviate. Use punctuation. Include all or most words so that your meaning is clear.

A numbers game

Some letters act like numbers. Attached to a word, these letters tell you *how many.*

Bi means "two." Read these words:

Biannual means "every two years." "The *biannual* art exhibit will be held at the Metropolitan Museum in 2016."

A **bicycle** is a "vehicle with two wheels." "Selena rode a *bicycle* to work every day."

Bilateral means "having two sides." "The *bilateral* talks went well because both sides were willing to listen to each other."

Tri means "three." Look at these words:

Triannual or **triennial** means "every three years." "The *triannual* competition moves from city to city."

A **tricycle** is a "vehicle with three wheels." "The toddler rode his *tricycle* as fast as he could."

A **triangle** is "a figure that has three sides." "Draw a triangle to help you solve that math problem."

Quad means "four." Check these words:

A quadrangle is "a four-sided space." "The college students relaxed in the *quadrangle.*"

Quadruple means "four times as much." "Earnings *quadrupled* in the last year."

Quadruplets are "four babies born from the same pregnancy." "The *quadruplets* weighed very little when they were born but were expected to grow rapidly."

These letters, attached to the beginning of a word, may help you figure out the definition. Be careful, though. Sometimes these letters do not signal that you have a number. For example, *tribe* is "a group," not a group of three.

Part IV

Punctuation and Capitalization

The Mechanics of Writing

Punctuation and capitalization — can you think of a more boring topic? Yet these skills, which English teachers call “mechanics,” can only improve your writing. In this part, you examine several punctuation marks and see when capital letters are required. Specifically, you learn about these topics:

- **Apostrophes:** Small curves that sit above the line, apostrophes show ownership or shorten words. Chapter 14 explains when and where to insert this punctuation mark.
- **Commas:** Small curves that sit on and below the line, commas are frequently inserted where they do not belong and omitted where they are necessary. Chapter 15 shows you how to deal with commas in lists, introductions, and other situations.
- **Quotation marks and colons:** Quotation marks (a pair of short parallel marks sitting above the line) indicate that you are reporting someone’s exact words or that the words inside the quotation marks represent a title. Colons (one dot atop another) introduce lists and long quotations. Chapter 16 tells you everything you need to know about these punctuation marks.
- **Capital letters:** Where should you use a capital letter, and where is lowercase (a non-capital) correct? Chapter 17 deals with capital letters in names, titles, abbreviations, and other situations.

For a bonus article on Capitalizing School Words, go online and take a look at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar.

In this part …

- Show possession and replace letters with apostrophes.
- Separate items in a list with commas.
- Insert commas to set off introductory material and the name of a person being addressed.
- Label quoted material and titles with quotation marks.
- Place colons before long lists or quotations.
- Employ capital letters where needed.

Chapter 14

Small Punctuation Mark, Big Trouble: Apostrophes

In This Chapter

- Showing ownership with apostrophes
- Placing apostrophes to shorten words and phrases
- Looking out for common apostrophe errors

If I were in charge of the world, I would make some changes: No more war! Ice cream for everyone, everyday! Freedom for all nations! After I finish those tasks, I would change some grammar rules, starting with getting rid of the apostrophe.

In my opinion, apostrophes cause more trouble than they are worth. Unfortunately, I am not in charge of the world. I am not even in charge of English punctuation rules. All I can do is explain the rules. In this chapter, I tell you how to use apostrophes correctly. I also show you how to avoid some common errors.

Possessed: Using Apostrophes to Show Ownership

Pretend you have a friend named Mary. She has a computer. You can express Mary's ownership of the computer in several different ways:

the computer belonging to Mary

the computer that Mary bought

the computer Mary uses

Life would be simpler if these were the only ways to talk about ownership.

However, the English language adds another, the apostrophe:

Mary’s computer

An apostrophe is a small, curved hook placed above the line. Apostrophes express ownership. In this section, you explore how an apostrophe works in singular situations (one owner) and plural situations (more than one owner).

Apostrophes and ownership

Ownership, or possession, is an important part of life. (Perhaps that’s why there are so many lawyers. Someone has to sort out who owns what!) In Standard English, the apostrophe, along with the letter *s*, expresses ownership or possession. Therefore, if Mary buys a computer, an apostrophe and the letter *s* tell the reader that the computer belongs to Mary. When you see an apostrophe with a noun, you are probably reading a statement about ownership.

The term “ownership” includes temporary situations. Mary may work on a computer only when she is at school or in the office. For that period of time, though, she “owns” the computer. It is *Mary’s computer* even though the school or the company purchased it.

Take a look at some other examples of apostrophes that show ownership:

a boy’s hat

every team’s goal

Margaret’s toe

lawyers’ files

camels’ humps

Smith’s job

Apostrophes may also show another kind of ownership — a relationship:

Bob’s uncle

The uncle does not actually belong to Bob the way a book or a pen may. However, Bob and his uncle are in a permanent uncle–nephew relationship. They may not like each other. They may not see each other. One of them may even be dead. Nevertheless, the apostrophe shows that the *uncle* belongs to *Bob*. Here are more examples of apostrophes showing "ownership" this way:

Barbara's mother

the president's son

a friend's cousin

Jane's first boyfriend

police officers' badges

In the preceding examples, the relationship is permanent. Of course, sometimes relationships change. Read these examples:

John's wife

Sally's best friend

Ellen's boss

Life happens! John may divorce. Sally may meet someone nicer. Ellen may change jobs. Still, the apostrophe shows a kind of "ownership," a relationship that is real while it lasts.

Think of an apostrophe as a little hand, holding on to, owning, or possessing whatever it is attached to.

Things or places can also be in an "ownership" role. Apostrophes work in this situation, too:

the book's cover

a store's roof

Brazil's coastline

the rug's pattern

Rome's ancient monuments

the rooms' decorations

the schools' principals

As you see, this type of "ownership" is expressed with an apostrophe and the letter *s*.

The "owner" — the person or thing that possesses — is the word with the apostrophe and the letter *s*.

How well can you spot ownership? Underline the words in which the apostrophe shows possession. Be careful! I have included words in which the apostrophe does a different job.

1. Sam's diploma hangs on the wall.
2. Did you bring Aunt Jane's umbrella?
3. Spain's trains are very fast.
4. The students' computers won't work.
5. Nobody's homework was finished.
6. The audience didn't laugh.

Here are the answers: 1. *Sam's* 2. *Aunt Jane's* 3. *Spain's* 4. *students'* 5. *Nobody's* 6. No possessive words are present.

Note: In quiz question 4, *won't* is not a possessive word.

Did you notice that the apostrophe moves around? Sometimes the apostrophe is followed by the letter *s*. In other expressions, the letter *s* comes before the apostrophe. The position change relates to the number of owners — one or more than one. In the following sections, you see how to write singular and plural possessives.

Forming singular possessives

In the world of grammar, sorting out singular (one) and plural (more than

one) is important. When you place an apostrophe, you create what English teachers call a *possessive.* To write a possessive form properly, you must decide whether you are talking about one owner or more than one.

For one owner, a *singular possessive*, the apostrophe attaches to the end of the "owner" word. Then comes the letter *s.* Take a look at these examples. Notice where the apostrophe and the letter *s* appear:

Helen's skirt (the *skirt* belongs to one person, *Helen*)

Helen's sweaters (the *sweaters* belong to one person, *Helen*)

Peter's football (the *football* belongs to one person, *Peter*)

Peter's baseballs (the *baseballs* belong to one person, *Peter*)

Woods's chalk (the *chalk* belongs to one person, *Mr. Woods*)

Woods's assignments (the assignments belong to one person, *Mr. Woods*)

The book's introduction (the *introduction* belongs to one thing, the *book*)

The book's chapters (the *chapters* belong to one thing, the *book*)

The sun's brightness (the *brightness* belongs to one thing, the *sun*)

The sun's spots (the *spots* belong to one thing, the *sun*)

Hollywood's fame (the *fame* belongs to one place, *Hollywood*)

Hollywood's studios (the *studios* belong to one place, *Hollywood*)

The pattern never changes. You add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to a single owner. It does not matter how many things the owner has.

I use the term "owner" broadly. It includes people, places, and things. Look at the previous section, "Apostrophes and ownership," to see how the definition of "ownership" stretches to include these categories.

See whether you can use an apostrophe and the letter *s* to write the possessive form.

Owner ***What Is Owned*** ***Possessive***

Jenny	tooth
Tess	blankets
chimney	smoke
Argentina	people
leg	scars
painting	frame
flame	heat

Here are the answers: *Jenny's tooth, Tess's blankets, chimney's smoke, Argentina's people, leg's scars, painting's frame, flame's heat.*

To show ownership by one person, place, or thing, add an apostrophe and the letter *s*.

Forming regular plural possessives

The plural of nearly all English nouns (words that name people, places, things, and ideas) ends with the letter *s*. To make a possessive, all you have to do is add the apostrophe. Half the work (the letter *s*) is already done! Read these examples:

teenagers' music (the *music* belongs to *teenagers*)

teenagers' pimples (the *pimples* belong to *teenagers*)

whales' route (the *route* belongs to *whales*)

whales' fins (the *fins* belong to *whales*)

police officers' union (the *union* belongs to *police officers*)

police officers' uniforms (the *uniforms* belong to *police officers*)

classes' final exam (the *final exam* belongs to a group of *classes*)

classes' field trips (the *field trips* belong to a group of *classes*)

mountains' beauty (the *beauty* belongs to *mountains*)

mountains' slopes (the *slopes* belong to *mountains*)

libraries' policy (the *policy* belongs to *libraries*)

libraries' shelves (the *shelves* belong to *libraries*)

As you see, in every example the "owners" are identified by a plural word that ends with the letter *s*. The apostrophe follows the *s*. In some examples, one thing is owned *(music, route, union, exam, beauty, policy).* In other examples, more than one thing is owned *(pimples, fins, uniforms, trips, slopes, shelves).* In both situations, the apostrophe follows the letter *s*.

I stretched the definition of the terms "owner" and "thing" here. Read the earlier section, "Apostrophes and ownership," to see what these terms include.

When you are dealing with a regular plural noun in an ownership role, add the apostrophe after the letter *s*.

See whether you understand plural possessives by filling in the last column of this table.

Owner	***What Is Owned***	***Possessive***
mugs	design	
flowers	roots	
directors	meeting	
rivers	wildlife	
trees	leaves	
secretaries	announcement	
workers	rights	

Here are the answers: *mugs' design, flowers' roots, directors' meeting, rivers' wildlife, trees' leaves, secretaries' announcement, workers' rights.*

Forming irregular plural possessives

A small number of plural nouns, such as *children*, do not end with the letter *s*. To show ownership of an irregular plural, add an apostrophe and the letter *s*

to the end of the noun. Take a look at these examples:

men's department (the *department* for *men*)

men's suits (*suits* that belong to or are intended for *men*)

children's innocence (the *innocence* that *children* have)

children's toys (the *toys* that belong to *children*)

people's choice (the *choice* belonging to the *people*)

people's voices (the *voices* belonging to the *people*)

mice's nest (the *nest* belonging to the *mice*)

mice's feet (the *feet* belonging to the *mice*)

teeth's sharpness (the *sharpness* belonging to the *teeth*)

teeth's tips (the *tips* belonging to the *teeth*)

women's clothing (the *clothing* that *women* have)

women's shoes (the *shoes* that *women* own or that are intended for *women*)

Can you create the possessive form of an irregular plural?

Owner	***What Is Owned***	***Possessive***
feet	blisters	
deer	noses	
fruit	sweetness	
fleet	guns	
aircraft	speed	
geese	wings	
bacteria	growth	

Here are the answers: *feet's blisters, deer's noses, fruit's sweetness, fleet's guns, aircraft's speed, geese's wings, bacteria's growth.*

Some irregular plurals look and sound exactly the same as the singular form. In other words, the word may be either singular or plural, depending on the context. Here is an example:

The pilot noticed a broken switch, so he ordered everyone off the aircraft.

Several other aircraft were idle, so passengers immediately boarded another plane.

For more information on irregular plural nouns, turn to Chapter 3.

Shortening Words with Apostrophes

Are you busy? Most people are. Everyone rushes from one task to another all day long. So it is not surprising that people rush through words, too. Instead of two sounds, "I am," you hear one sound, "I'm." Three letters, "he'd," take the place of seven: "he would."

As you probably noticed, in these examples an apostrophe appears where letters and sounds disappear. These shortened words are also known as *contractions*. They save you time when you are speaking and key strokes when you are typing. Read through these examples:

LONG FORM: She is happy to meet you at the office.

SHORT FORM: She's happy to meet you at the office.

LONG FORM: Henry asked if he should have returned the library book.

SHORT FORM: Henry asked if he should've returned the library book.

LONG FORM: The robin did not catch any worms.

SHORT FORM: The robin didn't catch any worms.

LONG FORM: We have no plans for dinner.

SHORT FORM: We've no plans for dinner.

LONG FORM: They had misunderstood.

SHORT FORM: They'd misunderstood.

In every example, you save time and space by inserting an apostrophe.

The apostrophe is small, but it is important. Without one, you may not get your meaning across. Also, you have a spelling error if you omit a needed apostrophe. Look at these examples:

WRONG: Theyll go on a date tonight.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Theyll* is not a word in Standard English.

RIGHT: They'll go on a date tonight.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The contraction *They'll* takes the place of *They will.*

WRONG: Whos there?

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Whos* is not a word in Standard English.

RIGHT: Who's there?

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The contraction *Who's* takes the place of *Who is.*

WRONG: Thats a beautiful painting.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Thats* is not a word in Standard English.

RIGHT: That's a beautiful painting.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The contraction *That's* takes the place of *That is.*

Table 14-1 shows the most common contractions.

Table 14-1 Common Contractions

Original	*Shortened Form*	*Original*	*Shortened Form*
are not	aren't	she is	she's
cannot	can't	that is	that's
could not	couldn't	they are	they're
do not	don't	they will	they'll
does not	doesn't	they would	they'd
did not	didn't	we are	we're

he will	he'll	we will	we'll
he would	he'd	we would	we'd
he is	he's	we have	we've
is not	isn't	what is	what's
it is	it's	who is	who's
I am	I'm	will not	won't
I will	I'll	would not	wouldn't
I would	I'd	you are	you're
I have	I've	you have	you've
she will	she'll	you will	you'll
she would	she'd	you would	you'd

I hope that "won't" won't fool you. Most of the time, the substitution in a contraction is straightforward. One or two letters drop out, and an apostrophe drops in. Yet "will not" turns into "won't"! This is one of the strange details of the English language.

Apostrophes also shorten numbers. Look at these examples:

Martha graduated in '10, a year later than her brother.

Are you a member of the class of '99?

During the last battle, in '06, the king died.

The grape harvest in '55 produced delicious wine.

Do you know the full-length forms of these numbers? Here they are:

Martha graduated in 2010, a year later than her brother.

Are you a member of the class of 1999?

During the last battle, in 1206, the king died.

The grape harvest in 1955 produced delicious wine.

Do not drop numbers unless you are sure that your reader knows

what is missing. A member of the class of 1910 is a lot older than a member of the class of 2010! Saving time is good. Being clear is better.

Over and under

Super and *sub* often appear at the beginning of a word. *Super* tells you that something is "over or above" average. *Sub* moves in the opposite direction, revealing that something is "under or below" the norm. Take a look at *super* and *sub* in context:

Superhuman means "better than a normal human being, resembling a comic book hero." "With superhuman strength, the firefighter lifted the burning beam and rescued the baby."

Supervise means "to oversee, to look over someone else's work." "As department head, Sandy supervises five writers and two artists."

A **superstar** is a celebrity with more than average fame. "Superstars earn many millions for film work."

A **superpower** is "a country with great influence and resources." "During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union were superpowers."

Subpar means "below standard." "His subpar performance on that project drew much criticism."

A **submarine** is "a vessel (boat) that sails under water." "We toured the submarine, which was cramped and crowded."

Subconscious means "below the conscious level, unaware." "Dreams reveal subconscious needs and fears."

A **subordinate** is "someone under the authority of another, of less importance." "The boss treated her subordinates well, providing free coffee and sandwiches every day."

In each blank, write the correct, shortened form of the words or numbers in parentheses.

1. Debby _____ (did not) read the map before leaving.
2. Scott said, "_____ (What is) the name of the street?"
3. "I think _____ (we are) driving in the wrong direction," complained Ellen.
4. Debby _____ (will not) arrive on time.
5. _____ (They are) speeding now!

6. Officer Adams, who graduated in _____ (2012), gave Debby a ticket for speeding.
7. The host said that he _____ (would not) begin the party without Debby and her friends.

Here are the answers: 1. *didn't* 2. *What's* 3. *we're* 4. *won't* 5. *They're* 6. *'12* 7. *wouldn't.*

Avoiding Common Apostrophe Mistakes

I walk around New York City often. I see many signs. Some show good grammar, and many do not. An informal count reveals that apostrophes cause more grammar errors than any other punctuation mark.

The following sections describe the most frequent apostrophe mistakes, along with an explanation of how to avoid them.

Apostrophes in plurals

To make a noun plural, you add the letter *s*. A simple plural — not expressing ownership — does *not* need an apostrophe. Take a look at these examples:

WRONG: We sell muffin's.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The sentence has nothing to do with ownership or possession, and no word is shortened. No apostrophe should appear in the simple plural word, *muffins.*

RIGHT: We sell muffins.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Plural nouns do not need apostrophes unless they express ownership or create a contraction.

WRONG: You should buy two new printer's.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The *printers* do not possess anything, and no letters are missing.

RIGHT: You should buy two new printers.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The plural, *printers*, needs no apostrophe.

WRONG: Sally tied some ribbon's in her hair.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Ribbon's* is not a statement of ownership, and no letters are left out.

RIGHT: Sally tied some ribbons in her hair.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The plural, *ribbons*, should not include an apostrophe.

If all you need is a plural noun, skip the apostrophe.

Possessive pronouns

Some pronouns (*his, her, our, their, mine*, and many others) express ownership. The words themselves include the idea of possession. In fact, these pronouns are called *possessive pronouns.* (For a complete explanation of possessive pronouns, turn to Chapter 4.) Because possession is included in the word, an apostrophe is overkill. If you insert an apostrophe, the word is wrong. Look at these examples:

WRONG: I ate my sandwich, and she ate her's.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The possessive pronoun *hers* needs no apostrophe.

RIGHT: I ate my sandwich, and she ate hers.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The possessive pronoun, *hers*, is now spelled correctly.

WRONG: The dog stepped on a nail and hurt it's paw.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The word *it's* is short for "it is." Here you do not need a contraction. You need the possessive pronoun *its.*

RIGHT: The dog stepped on a nail and hurt its paw.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The possessive pronoun, *its*, shows that the paw belongs to the dog.

WRONG: Did you receive you're package?

WHY IT IS WRONG: The contraction *you're* is short for "you are." Here you want a possessive pronoun, *your.*

RIGHT: Did you receive your package?

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The possessive pronoun shows that the package belongs to you.

Do not confuse contractions (short forms) with possessive pronouns. No pronoun expresses ownership with an apostrophe.

Expanding contractions

Contractions shorten words. When you take out an apostrophe and re-expand the word, you must be sure to expand it properly. For example, the sound of the letter *v* is similar to the sound of the word *of.* However, these two sounds create very different words. Look at these examples:

ORIGINAL SENTENCE: Henry should've attended the meeting.

INCORRECT EXPANSION: Henry should of attended the meeting.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The contraction *should've* is short for "should have."

CORRECT EXPANSION: Henry should have attended the meeting.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The expression *should of* does not exist in Standard English.

ORIGINAL SENTENCE: The children would've stayed outside, but their mother ordered them to stay indoors.

INCORRECT EXPANSION: The children would of stayed outside, but their mother ordered them to stay indoors.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The contraction *would've* is short for "would have."

CORRECT EXPANSION: The children would have stayed outside, but their mother ordered them to stay indoors.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The expression *would of* does not exist in Standard English.

ORIGINAL SENTENCE: The boy could've ridden his bike all day.

INCORRECT EXPANSION: The boy could of ridden his bike all day.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The contraction *could've* is short for "could have."

CORRECT EXPANSION: The boy could have ridden his bike all day.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The expression *could of* does not exist in Standard English.

QUICK QUIZ In these sentences, you may find a missing apostrophe. If so, add one! You may also find an apostrophe that should not appear. If you do, cross out the incorrect apostrophe.

1. The chef added seven cup's of flour to the bowl.
2. The mens department has a good selection of new ties.
3. Richard doesnt want to spend too much money when he buys jean's.
4. Arthur's statue is larger than our's, but its not as heavy.
5. Whats the name of your dentist?

Here are the answers: 1. *cups* 2. *men's* 3. *doesn't, jeans* 4. *ours, it's* 5. *What's.*

Four pairs of trouble

When you are placing apostrophes, four pairs of words may give you trouble. They sound alike, but they are spelled differently. They have completely different meanings. Memorize these words, and your writing will improve.

who's and **whose** Both words sound like an owl making "hoo" sounds. The first, *who's,* is a contraction meaning "who is." The second is a possessive pronoun. Here they are in action:

"I know <u>who's</u> guilty," claimed the detective. (In this example, *who's* is short for "who is.")

The murderer, <u>whose</u> fingerprints were on the knife, soon confessed. (In this sentence, *whose* shows possession.)

you're and **your** I do not know any bird or other animal that makes this sound. I do know that the meaning of each is different. *You're* is the short form of "you are." *Your* shows possession. Read these sentences:

"You're making too much noise," complained the nurse. (In this sentence, *you're* means "you are.")

Cover your nose and mouth when you sneeze! (Here, *your* shows possession.)

they're and **there** and **their** These words are not twins. They are triplets! These triplets have very different meanings, though. Watch them in these sentences:

The general told his troops that they're returning home tomorrow. (The contraction *they're* is short for "they are.")

The troops will be very happy to arrive there. (The word *there* indicates a place.)

The soldiers will be welcomed by their families. (*Their* is a possessive pronoun.)

it's and **its** These little words have exactly the same letters, but the first includes an apostrophe. *It's* means "it is." The second, *its*, is a possessive pronoun.

Mary told me that it's too late to enroll in that course. (In this sentence, the contraction *it's* is short for "it is.")

I am not interested in the course, but I love its easy assignments. (Here you need the possessive pronoun *its.*)

Chapter 15

Pausing for a Rest: Commas

In This Chapter

- Understanding what commas do
- Placing commas in lists
- Separating parts of a sentence with commas
- Using commas after an introductory word or phrase
- Inserting commas to identify the person you are addressing

Go to a crowded area. Listen! What do you hear? Words, sentences, and *silence.* Yes, silence. In speech, silence separates one idea from another. In writing, commas represent silence. (So do periods. Turn to Chapter 13 for more information on periods.)

In this chapter, you examine how commas work. Then you see where to place commas, so your writing displays good "comma sense."

The Sound of Silence: Why Commas Matter

Commas are punctuation marks that begin on the line and curve underneath it:

,

Without commas, your reader may not understand what you are trying to express. Read this example aloud. (If you are too embarrassed to speak aloud, just listen to the little voice inside your head.)

> May I go mountain climbing every day. Recently I climbed with Betty Jo and Mark who were more skilled than I had imagined. From the top

> of the mountain trees people clouds and cars appeared very small. Oh it was a good day. Betty Jo and I would like to climb again.

You probably made sense of the paragraph, but I bet you had to work at it a little. You may have had to read it more than once! For example, perhaps you thought that the first three words were a request:

> May I go

Maybe you thought the period at the end of the sentence should have been a question mark:

> May I go mountain climbing every day?

A few sentences later, perhaps you thought that *mountain trees* were trees that grow on mountains. Instead, the word *trees* is an item on a list. Even after a few readings, you may not be sure whether *Betty Jo* is one person or two people.

Commas make this paragraph easier to understand. Read it again:

> May, I go mountain climbing every day. Recently, I climbed with Betty, Jo, and Mark, who were more skilled than I had imagined. From the top of the mountain, trees, people, clouds, and cars appeared very small. Oh, it was a good day. Betty, Jo, and I would like to climb again.

When commas are included, you immediately see that the paragraph is addressed to someone named *May.* You are not talking about "mountain trees." Instead, you see *trees* from the top of the mountain. The commas do not create meaning all by themselves, but they do add information.

If you are not too bored, read this little paragraph one more time. Do not time yourself, but pay attention to the pauses. Notice when a pause is short and when it is a bit longer.

> May, I go mountain climbing every day. Recently, I climbed with Betty, Jo, and Mark, who were more skilled than I had imagined. From the top of the mountain, trees, people, clouds, and cars appeared very small. Oh, it was a good day. Betty, Jo, and I would like to climb again.

Did you notice that longer pauses occur at periods? This punctuation mark is known as a “full stop” in Britain. I like that term because it shows that periods resemble stop signs. When you drive, you must come to a “full stop” before continuing. When you are reading and see a period, you do the same thing.

At other spots in the paragraph, you probably paused for a shorter time. Commas signal the need for those tiny gaps. Think of commas as a quick breath — a nap instead of a night’s sleep.

Periods create long pauses. Commas create short pauses. Your ear — the voice you hear inside your head when you are writing — guides you to the correct punctuation *most* of the time. A few rules, explained in this chapter, help you place commas correctly *all* the time.

Making a List with Commas

The announcer says that a big storm is coming. It is time to go shopping for emergency supplies. What do you need? Here is your list:

chocolate ice cream flashlight batteries

How many things will you buy? Perhaps five:

chocolate
ice
cream
flashlight
batteries

or four:

chocolate
ice cream
flashlight

batteries

or maybe only three:

chocolate ice cream
flashlight
batteries

or just two:

chocolate ice cream
flashlight batteries

When you write a list in this way, the line breaks separate one item from another. A speaker saying this list takes a short breath at every line break. Either way, you know exactly how many items you have to buy.

In a sentence, commas take the place of line breaks or breaths. Here is the true emergency list, written in a sentence:

> At the store you should buy chocolate, ice cream, and flashlight batteries.

Yes, I do consider *chocolate* and *ice cream* essential emergency supplies! Back to grammar: The commas, as well as the word *and*, give your reader necessary information. Your list is not clear without them.

You should not place a comma before the first item in a list unless you need a comma there for another reason. (I explain other reasons to insert commas later in this chapter.)

Read these examples:

WRONG: Charlie stuffed the turkey with a mixture of, bread cubes, sausage, celery, and seasonings.

WHY IT IS WRONG: No comma should appear between *of* and the first item of the list, *bread cubes.*

RIGHT: Charlie stuffed the turkey with a mixture of bread cubes,

sausage, celery, and seasonings.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the sentence flows smoothly, with no comma separating the list from the rest of the sentence.

WRONG: What I want is, peace, quiet, and a million dollars.

WHY IT IS WRONG: No comma should appear between *is* and *peace*, which is the first item of the list.

RIGHT: What I want is peace, quiet, and a million dollars.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: I deserve a million dollars! Also, *peace* is the first item of the list, so no comma should separate *peace* from the rest of the sentence.

If the list is very long, you may need a colon (one dot on top of another) before the first item in the list. See Chapter 16 for more information on colons.

If the list includes only two items joined by *and*, do not place a comma before the *and*. Read these examples:

SENTENCE: The forecaster predicted strong winds, and heavy rain.

ITEMS CONNECTED: (1) *strong winds* (2) *heavy rain*

WHY IT IS WRONG: In a list of two items, no comma is needed.

RIGHT: The forecaster predicted strong winds and heavy rain.

SENTENCE: Winning the chess game was satisfying, and profitable.

ITEMS CONNECTED: (1) *satisfying* (2) *profitable*

WHY IT IS WRONG: In a list of two items, no comma is needed.

RIGHT: Winning the chess game was satisfying and profitable.

SENTENCE: Gina, and Fred played tennis for four hours.

ITEMS CONNECTED: (1) *Gina* (2) *Fred*

WHY IT IS WRONG: In a list of two items, no comma is needed.

RIGHT: Gina and Fred played tennis for four hours.

In a list of three or more items, some people skip the last comma before the word *and*, assuming that the *and* provides enough of a separation. True, at times the reader knows what you mean without a comma in that position. Occasionally, though, your meaning may not be clear without it. Look at this sentence:

Whenever he needed help, Henry phoned his brothers, Tom and Jack.

Did Henry speak to four (or more) people? Or just two? With no comma before *and*, *Tom and Jack* may be the names of Henry's brothers. Therefore, Henry called two people. Now look at this sentence:

Whenever he needed help, Henry phoned his brothers, Tom, and Jack.

In this version, Henry called at least four people:

his brothers (two or more)

Tom

Jack

The most important rule of writing is simple. Be clear! Do not risk being misunderstood. Make a habit of placing a comma before the *and* in a simple list of three or more items. If part of the sentence is an explanation (that Henry's brothers are named Tom and Jack, for example), do not place a comma before the *and.*

Do you know how to punctuate a list? In the first column you see a list of items. In the second, you see a sentence with an empty space. Write the list items in the blank. Be sure to punctuate the list correctly.

Add *and* where it is needed.

List of Items	***Sentence***
1. umbrella raincoat boots	When John visited rainy Seattle, he packed his _____.
2. Mary' antiques the teapot six cups	As the shelf broke, _____ fell to the floor.
3. chops crushes slices purees	The new blender _____ every kind of food.
4. tomatoes carrots	Alan ordered _____ from the online food delivery service.
5. math science English history	Sandra was busy studying _____.
6. museum visits shopping trips	During their vacation, Ed and Connie set aside a few days for _____.
7. Caroline Jones Angela	Sherman will celebrate his promotion by having dinner with _____.

Here are the answers: 1. *umbrella, raincoat, and boots* 2. *Mary's antiques, the teapot, and six cups* 3. *chops, crushes, slices, and purees* 4. *tomatoes and carrots* (no comma) 5. *math, science, English, and history* 6. *museum visits and shopping trips* (no comma) 7. *Caroline Jones and Angela Ballard* (no comma).

Placing Commas before Conjunctions

My living room has several sections. In one corner stands a desk with my computer and writing materials. Near the window is a seating area lined with two sofas and a chair. A set of bookcases fills the space near the door.

Think of my living room as a sentence. It has parts, separate from each other but still a unified space. Most of your sentences have parts also. Instead of furniture, conjunctions (joining words) separate one section of a sentence from another. I must be careful when I decorate the living room. I cannot put a lamp in front of the television, for example, or behind a bookcase. You must also be careful when you insert commas near conjunctions. Placing one where it does not belong may confuse your reader. In this section, you see how to insert commas properly.

Punctuating two connected, complete sentences

Take a look at this paragraph. Pay special attention to the underlined spots.

> Dennis lived in a large city<u>, and</u> then he moved to a farming community. He loved the area<u>, but</u> jobs in his field were hard to find. Dennis could take a part time position<u>, or</u> he could return to his old career in the city.

Did you notice the underlined words *(and, but, or)* all have the same function? Each joins one complete sentence to another. Each follows a comma. Here is an analysis of the paragraph, sentence by sentence.

Dennis lived in a large city, and then he moved to a farming community.

> First complete sentence: Dennis lived in a large city.
>
> Second complete sentence: Then he moved to a farming community.

Joining word: *and*

Punctuation: A comma comes before the and. He loved the area, but jobs in his field were hard to find.

First complete sentence: He loved the area.

Second complete sentence: Jobs in his field were hard to find.

Joining word: *but*

Punctuation: A comma comes before the *but.*

Dennis could take a part-time position, or he could return to his old career in the city.

First complete sentence: Dennis could take a part-time position.

Second complete sentence: He could return to his old career in the city.

Joining word: *or*

Punctuation: A comma comes before the *or.*

The word that joins the two complete sentences is a *conjunction.* Other conjunctions that do the same job are *nor* and *yet.* For more information on conjunctions, turn to Chapter 8.

The rule is straightforward: When you attach one complete sentence to another with the conjunctions *and, but, or, nor,* or *yet,* you should place a comma after the word that comes just before the conjunction.

A comma comes before the word preceding a conjunction that joins two complete sentences. A comma may *not* join two complete sentences all by itself. This punctuation mark is not strong enough for that task. Use a comma and a conjunction, but not a comma alone. (For more information on complete sentences, refer to Chapter 13.)

Punctuating other elements of a sentence

The conjunctions *and, but, or, yet,* and *nor* may connect other elements of a

sentence. They may link two descriptions, two verbs, two subjects, and many other things that are not complete sentences. (For more information on descriptions, refer to Chapter 6. To find out more about verbs, read Chapter 5. Chapter 11 covers subjects.) Do not place a comma before these conjunctions unless they are connecting complete sentences. Take a look at these examples:

SENTENCE: Max and his brother Josh often visit their parents.

JOINING WORD: *and*

WHAT THE JOINING WORD CONNECTS: (1) *Max* (2) *his brother Josh* (two subjects)

PUNCTUATION: No comma comes before *and*, because *and* does not connect two complete sentences.

SENTENCE: Their parents cook or order takeout meals when their sons visit.

JOINING WORD: *or*

WHAT THE JOINING WORD CONNECTS: (1) *cook* (2) *order* (two verbs)

PUNCTUATION: No comma comes before *or*, because *or* does not connect two complete sentences.

SENTENCE: The brothers are tired but happy when they leave.

JOINING WORD: *but*

WHAT THE JOINING WORD CONNECTS: (1) *tired* (2) *happy* (two descriptions)

PUNCTUATION: No comma comes before *but*, because *but* does not connect two complete sentences.

See whether you can add commas where they are needed in these sentences:

1. Most of Jack's family gathered in Paris but Jack had already planned a trip to Mexico.
2. The zookeeper fed the elephants and the lions.
3. Ann Marie ordered strong coffee yet she claimed to be allergic to caffeine.
4. The chef adds milk or cream to the soup.
5. Artie's tailor measured him carelessly and Artie thinks the suit will be too large.
6. The blue silk tie and a fine leather belt complete Artie's outfit.

Here are the answers: 1. comma before *but* 2. no comma 3. comma before *yet* 4. no comma 5. comma before *and* 6. no comma.

Placing Commas after Introductory Words

Variety is the spice of life, according to an old saying. Variety is also the spice of writing. To keep the reader interested, you should play around with different sentence patterns. One interesting variation is to add an introductory word or phrase to a sentence. In this section, you see how to punctuate these introductory elements.

Single words and short phrases

Well, now you should think about introductory words. Indeed, these words spice up your writing. Yes, you may overuse introductory words. Oh my goodness, I can't believe you think you should avoid them completely!

Did you notice how each sentence in the preceding paragraph is punctuated? Each begins with a word or a phrase, followed by a comma. The words at the beginning of these sentences add meaning, but they are not really part of the sentence. If you crossed out these words, the sentence would still say the same thing. These underlined words function as an introduction to the sentence.

Here are a few more examples. The introductory words are underlined. Notice the comma placement:

Ouch, that pinch hurts!

Okay, put the toys away now.

No, that is not a good idea.

Wow, you did a great job.

To set off introductory words from the rest of the sentence, use a comma.

Longer introductory elements

The introductory words explained in the preceding section add little to a sentence. Sometimes, though, introductory words contribute more. Sometimes they tell you about time, location, or reasons. Read these examples:

SENTENCE: In the garden of the house next door, tulips and roses grew.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS: *In the garden of the house next door*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY WORDS ADD: information about location

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *tulips and roses grew*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Before the end of next week, John will have learned his fate.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS: *Before the end of next week*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY WORDS ADD: information about time

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *John will have learned his fate*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Because of her dishonest behavior, her test scores do not

count.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS: *Because of her dishonest behavior*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY WORDS ADD: a reason or cause

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *her test scores do not count*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

In every example, the comma is important. It divides the introductory phrase from the rest of the sentence.

Introductory phrases containing verbs

Other introductory elements look like verbs. They give extra information, but they do not function as the main verb in the sentence. (For more information on verbs, turn to Chapter 5.) A comma always separates an introductory phrase from the rest of the sentence. Take a look at these examples:

SENTENCE: Confused by the jumbled wires, Ned read the directions again.

INTRODUCTORY PHRASE: *Confused by the jumbled wires*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY PHRASE ADDS: information about Ned's state of mind

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *Ned read the directions again*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Barking and growling, the little dog seemed dangerous.

INTRODUCTORY PHRASE: *Barking and growling*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY PHRASE ADDS: information about the dog's actions

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *the little dog seemed dangerous*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Having eaten and rested, Ben practiced the piano with

renewed energy.

INTRODUCTORY PHRASE: *Having eaten and rested*

WHAT THE INTRODUCTORY PHRASE ADDS: information about Ben's actions

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *Ben practiced the piano with renewed energy*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

The introductory words in these examples carry quite a bit of meaning — more than simple introductory words such as *yes* or *indeed.* The basic punctuation is the same. Cross out the introductory phrases. Read what is left. You know less, but the meaning of the main portion of the sentence does not change. The punctuation rule stays the same, too. A comma should separate the introductory words from the main portion of the sentence.

When the introductory words contain a verb form, be sure that the subject of the sentence is performing (or has performed) the action expressed by the verb. For more information, see Chapter 23.

Introductory subject–verb statements

When you see a subject–verb statement, you may think that you have a complete sentence. However, to be a complete sentence, a subject–verb statement must be able to stand alone: It must state a complete thought. (Turn to Chapter 13 for more information on complete sentences.)

Some subject–verb statements cannot stand alone. Look at these examples:

Although the presidents signed the treaty

Since the day you were born

Wherever the game is played

Because I said so

Each of these statements adds information. No statement makes sense all by itself, not even the last one, which is every parent's favorite response to a

child's challenge. When these subject–verb statements appear at the beginning of a sentence, you need a comma to separate the introductory idea from the rest of the sentence. Read these examples:

SENTENCE: Although the presidents signed the treaty, neither believed that the problem was solved.

INTRODUCTORY SUBJECT–VERB STATEMENT: *Although the presidents signed the treaty*

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *neither believed that the problem was solved*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory subject–verb statement from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Since the day you were born, Grandma has been saving for your college tuition.

INTRODUCTORY SUBJECT–VERB STATEMENT: *Since the day you were born*

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *Grandma has been saving for your college tuition*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory subject–verb statement from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Wherever the game is played, the fans will attend.

INTRODUCTORY SUBJECT–VERB STATEMENT: *Wherever the game is played*

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *the fans will attend*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory subject–verb statement from the main portion of the sentence.

SENTENCE: Because I said so, you must take out the garbage.

INTRODUCTORY SUBJECT–VERB STATEMENT: *Because I said so*

MAIN PORTION OF THE SENTENCE: *you must take out the garbage*

CORRECT PUNCTUATION: A comma separates the introductory subject–verb statement from the main portion of the sentence.

If these introductory statements appear elsewhere in the sentence, they may not need to be set off by commas. At the beginning of a sentence, though, always insert a comma to separate these statements from the main portion of the sentence.

How are your introductory skills? Read these sentences. Insert commas where they are needed.

1. Yes I have an appointment with Mary this afternoon.
2. Really it is none of your business.
3. No she is not my first choice for the job.
4. After I have interviewed her I will make a decision.
5. Oh my you certainly will be considered for the position.
6. Having said that I am not promising anything.

Here are the answers: 1. comma after *Yes* 2. comma after *Really* 3. comma after *No* 4. comma after *After I have interviewed her* 5. comma after *Oh my* 6. comma after *Having said that.*

Talking to People: Commas in Direct Address

When you are speaking, you look at your listeners. They know that you are directing your statements or questions to them. When you are writing, readers may not always know the identity of the person you are addressing. In these situations, commas signal the name of the listener or reader. Take a look at these examples:

Roger, Ellie is angry at you.

Martha broke the window, Ellie, not Roger.

You should apologize, Ellie.

I hope, Roger, that you will forgive Ellie's mistake.

Ellie and Roger, stop fighting!

In every example, the name of the person or people you are addressing is set off from the rest of the sentence by one or two commas. These commas can be very important. In fact, they can avoid murder! Read these sentences. The meaning is quite different without a comma:

We should eat Uncle Bob.

We should eat, Uncle Bob.

Murder, of course, is extreme. However, commas can change meaning in subtle ways also:

The doctor called Max, and Eliza answered.

The doctor called, Max, and Eliza answered.

In the first example sentence, the doctor wanted to speak with Max. Eliza may have told Max about the phone message or forgotten all about it. In the second example sentence, the writer addresses Max. Max now knows about the phone call. He can get in touch with Eliza if he wants to know what the doctor said.

Try your hand at inserting commas in these sentences. To help you understand the intended meaning, I have placed additional information in parentheses.

1. Go home immediately Eric. (The speaker is addressing *Eric.*)
2. Your friend Monica is waiting for you. (The speaker is addressing *Monica.*)
3. Ann I would love to have coffee with you at the new cafe. (The speaker is addressing *Ann.*)

4. The cafe is always crowded Ann after nine o'clock. (The speaker is addressing *Ann.*)
5. Monica Eric will probably bring his guitar. (The speaker is addressing *Monica.*)
6. I hope Mr. Peterson that you like folk music. (The speaker is addressing *Mr. Peterson.*)

Here are the answers: 1. comma before *Eric* 2. commas before and after *Monica* 3. comma after *Ann* 4. commas before and after *Ann* 5. comma after *Monica* 6. commas before and after *Mr. Peterson.*

In the middle

All by itself, *mid* has no meaning. Attached to the beginning of a word, though, *mid* becomes "middle" or "in the middle of." Here are some *mid* words:

Midway means "the halfway point." "Joe stopped midway through the meeting to outline the problems."

Midday means "noon, halfway through the day." "At midday, the sun is too hot for most swimmers."

Midterm means "in the middle of the school term, usually referring to exams." "I hate midterms because I prefer to study everything at the end of the year and ace the final exam."

Midlife means "in middle age." "On his fiftieth birthday, to soothe his midlife anxiety, he made a list of his achievements and goals."

Chapter 16

Who Said What: Quotation Marks

In This Chapter

- Reporting what others say or write
- Understanding the difference between quoting and paraphrasing
- Identifying the speaker
- Punctuating quotations
- Surrounding titles with quotation marks

Type *quote* in the search box of your computer screen. Pages and pages of websites offering quotations pop up. Apparently, lots of people are interested in what others have to say about religion, love, politics, and every other topic you can imagine. For this reason, quotation marks matter. This punctuation mark encloses words that someone else said or wrote. Quotation marks always appear as a set of two, like bookends:

“”

In this chapter, you see when to insert quotation marks and when to leave them out. You also discover when to use quotation marks to enclose titles of works of literature, music, and art.

Telling the Truth with Quotation Marks

Are you a playwright? Do you type scripts for television shows, podcasts, and films? If so, you do not have to worry about quotation marks. Read this script, anexcerpt from a truly terrible science-fiction drama:

VAMPIRE (leaning toward his victim): I want to bite you.

> SCOTT (standing perfectly still): Just try it! I will kill you.
>
> VAMPIRE (smiling, coming closer): I do not think so. I am too strong.
>
> SCOTT: Oh, but I have a secret weapon.
>
> VAMPIRE (fearfully): What weapon?
>
> SCOTT: This magic light bulb, which is as effective as the sun. (SCOTT holds up a light bulb. VAMPIRE crumbles into dust. SCOTT smiles and grabs a vacuum cleaner.)

From this script, you learn two things. First, this film will *never* win an Academy Award. Second, you learn exactly what each character says.

What happens when you are not writing a script? Here is the same story, written as if it were in a novel:

> A vampire leaned toward his victim, declaring, “I want to bite you.”
>
> Scott never moved a muscle. Standing perfectly still, he challenged the vampire. “Just try it!” Scott said. “I will kill you.”
>
> “I do not think so. I am too strong,” replied the vampire, who smiled as he inched closer to Scott.
>
> “Oh, but I have a secret weapon,” Scott announced.
>
> For the first time, the vampire’s confidence vanished. Fearfully, he asked, “What weapon?”
>
> Scott answered, “This magic light bulb,which is as effective as the sun.” The bulb turned on, and the vampire crumbled into dust. Scott smiled and reached for the vacuum cleaner.

Once more, you know two things after you read the preceding passage. First, no one will *ever* buy this novel. Second, you know exactly what each character says. Quotation marks take the place of a script’s line breaks and character labels.

Quoting or Paraphrasing: Which Is Better?

A witness swears during a trial to tell “the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.” In that way, a witness is similar to a direct quotation. A reporter covering a trial may quote witnesses in an article, but much of the article is usually a summary of what was said — a *paraphrase*, in English teacher’s terminology. In this section, you see the difference between quoting and paraphrasing, so you can decide which suits your needs.

Signaling exact words

Read the vampire/Scott passage in the earlier section “Telling the Truth with Quotation Marks.” Compare the passage to the film script version. Notice that quotation marks enclose words that a character said — nothing more and nothing less than those words. When you see quotation marks, you are “listening” to real speech. Here are more examples:

> WHAT WAS SAID: When we hit that bump in the road, my knees smashed into my chin.
>
> QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: Peter complained, “When we hit that bump in the road, my knees smashed into my chin.”
>
> WHAT WAS SAID: Someone should repair that road.
>
> QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: “Someone should repair that road,” commented the police officer.
>
> WHAT WAS SAID: My chin has a dent in it, and it may be bleeding.
>
> QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: “My chin has a dent in it,” Peter added, “and it may be bleeding.”
>
> WHAT WAS SAID: Shall I call an ambulance?
>
> QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: The officer asked, “Shall I call an ambulance?”
>
> WHAT WAS SAID: No, thank you. I am in a hurry, and I have an appointment with my doctor later. I will not wait for an ambulance. I will show these injuries to my doctor this afternoon.

QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: Peter added, “No, thank you. I am in a hurry, and I have an appointment with my doctor later. I will not wait for an ambulance. I will show these injuries to my doctor this afternoon.”

WHAT WAS SAID: The bleeding has stopped.

QUOTATION IN A SENTENCE: “The bleeding has stopped,” said the officer.

Only words that are actually spoken belong between quotation marks. Do not change anything, even if you can think of more interesting comments.

A trial witness promises to tell “the whole truth.” In a quotation, though, you may leave out some words. Insert three dots (…) in place of the deleted words. For example, you may write Peter’s words this way:

Peter added, “No, thank you. I am in a hurry, and … I will show these injuries to my doctor this afternoon.”

If you shorten a quotation, be sure not to change the meaning. Take a look at this example:

WHAT THE FILM CRITIC SAID: The acting was terrible, but the costumes were awesome.

WHAT THE QUOTATION REPORTED: “The acting was … awesome.”

WHY THIS IS WRONG: The critic called the acting “terrible,” not “awesome,” so the quotation is false.

I suspect that people who write advertisements for films do not always follow these guidelines. How often have you seen an “awesome” film that was actually “terrible”?

How are you at matching quotations and the sentences they belong in? Read the quotations in the first column. Insert the quotations into the correct sentence in the second column. Be sure that you do not omit or

add words. When you have finished, reread the story to be sure that it makes sense.

Don't forget to look at the punctuation marks in the second column. They may help you find the correct answer.

Quotation	***Sentence***
A. The train will arrive an hour late	1. As she bought her ticket, Margie said, "_____."
B. Oh, no	2. "_____?" she asked.
C. Track seven, on the left	3. "_____," said the clerk in the information booth.
D. Where is the train to Philadelphia	4. The conductor announced, "_____."
E. Do not worry. Your friends will wait for you	5. Another passenger replied, "_____!"
F. I have never seen such a huge train station	6. Margie comforted the other passenger by remarking, "_____."

Here are the answers: 1. F 2. D 3. C 4. A 5. B 6. E.

Paraphrasing

Sometimes quoting the exact words is unnecessary and annoying. Imagine that your friend Alex called Martha. Here is everything Alex said, word for word:

> How are you? I'm calling because my aunt, the one who works for that music company, got some free tickets to the concert tonight. The seats are not in the front row, but we will be close to the stage. This band is awesome, really awesome. They are going to be superstars someday soon. Can you go with me? The tickets are free, and this is a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity. I know you have a lot of homework, but who could pass up this opportunity?

Martha wants to go to the concert, but she needs permission to go out on a school night. She sends her mom this email:

> Mom, Alex called and offered me a free ticket to tonight's concert. He said that the band is great, and our seats are good. He told me that I should take advantage of his offer. May I go?

Martha'semail is short. It does not reproduce Alex's exact words. Her email does not, for example, say that "this band is awesome, really awesome" or that the free tickets are "a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity." Martha's note, though, includes the same general ideas that Alex expressed. It is a *paraphrase*, or summary, of what Alex said.

Paraphrases are not enclosed in quotation marks. The paraphrased material is not a direct quotation.

Most readers want to know the source of the information you have paraphrased. In the preceding example, the email states that "Alex called" and that he "said" and "told" the information. By including the source, you give credit to the speaker for his or her ideas. You also protect yourself, in case the information is wrong.

Take a look at these examples of paraphrasing in Table 16-1. In the first column, you see a quotation. The exact words are enclosed in quotation marks. In the second column, you see the paraphrase. Notice that the paraphrase does not use quotation marks.

Table 16-1 Examples of Paraphrasing

Exact Words	***Paraphrase***
"My feet are freezing!" moaned Harry.	According to Harry, his feet are freezing.
"Do your homework now!" ordered his dad.	His dad told him to do his homework.
"I believe that bananas will be more expensive this year," remarked Ben.	Ben said that the price of bananas will rise this year.
I asked Ella, "Are you bored?"	I asked Ella if she was bored.
"I am so relieved that I could cry," Max said.	Max said he almost cried with relief.
George inquired, "Is the contract signed?"	George asked whether the contract was signed.

Should you paraphrase or quote? The answer depends on your purpose in writing. A direct quotation is more vivid and interesting than a summary. A paraphrase is shorter and more efficient than a direct quotation. Decide what you want to accomplish, and choose accordingly.

Can you tell the difference between paraphrased and quoted words? Label each of these sentences.

Sentence	***Paraphrase or Quotation?***
1. My grandmother told me that she had forgotten how to knit.	
2. “Solving this math problem is simple,” Karen whispered.	
3. Sheila feels that she should not be asked to do any additional chores.	
4. “One more task and I will quit!” she screamed.	
5. Her boss told her to take a break.	
6. She needs a rest, he thinks.	
7. “Who can work 20 hours straight?” he remarked.	

Here are the answers: 1. paraphrase 2. quotation 3. paraphrase 4. quotation 5. paraphrase 6. paraphrase 7. quotation.

Identifying the Source of a Quotation

When you quote, you must be sure that the reader knows who said what. One way to give this information is a *speaker tag*, my term for an identification phrase containing the name of the speaker and a verb. Speaker tags are attached to the quotation. Here are some examples of speaker tags:

Sonya said

Simon responded

Oliver asked

He shouted

Roger replied

Tammy murmured

Everyone exclaimed

Now look at these speaker tags in the context of a sentence. In each example, the speaker tag is underlined:

Sonya said, “I was born in Russia.”

Simon responded, “You do not have a Russian accent.”

Oliver asked, “Have you visited Russia recently?”

“You have not seen your family for ten years!” he shouted.

“Airfare to Russia is expensive,” Roger replied, “and it is hard to take time off from work.”

“I hope you are not homesick,” Tammy murmured.

Everyone exclaimed, “You should go this summer!”

As you see, speaker tags can pop up at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence. They are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

The source of a quotation may also be identified without a speaker tag, as you see in these examples:

According to Joan

Roy’s belief is that

from Elizabeth’s viewpoint

Within a sentence, these labels tell you that the material in quotation marks comes from *Joan*, *Roy*, and *Elizabeth*.

According to Joan, “the flights are cheaper now.”

Roy’s belief is that “baggage fees add up.”

A trip home is “essential,” in Elizabeth’s opinion.

The quotation marks tell you what *Joan, Roy*, and *Elizabeth* said. They resemble little labels, sorting out who said what.

Underline the speaker tags or labels in these sentences.

1. "The hockey team is undefeated," said the sports reporter.
2. According to the coach, the team "plays well under pressure."
3. Jamie Damico, the most valuable player, commented, "Coach Hagen inspires us to give our best effort, every game."
4. "We respect our opponents," remarked Damico, "and we know we will eventually lose a game."
5. Coach Hagen asked, "Why expect to lose?"
6. The team's defeat last night was "so sad," in Damico's opinion.

Here are the answers: 1. *said the sports reporter* 2. *According to the coach* 3. *Jamie Damico, the most valuable player, commented* 4. *remarked Damico* 5. *Coach Hagen asked* 6. *in Damico's opinion.*

Adding Punctuation to Quotations

Quotation marks, of course, are the most important punctuation in every quotation. Other punctuation, however, also appears. This section guides you to the proper placement of commas, periods, question marks, and exclamation points. You also see when a quotation must begin with a capital letter and when a lowercase (not capitalized) letter is better. (Turn to Chapter 17 for more information on capital letters.)

Quotations with speaker tags

A *speaker tag* names the person who said the quoted material. The name is attached to a verb, such as *says, asked, reply, commented*, and so on. (For more information on speaker tags, see the previous section.)

Speaker tags move around. They can show up at the beginning or end of a quotation, and even in the middle. The speaker tag's location determines where commas and other punctuation marks belong.

Speaker tag at the beginning

Here are some sentences that begin with speaker tags. What do you notice about the punctuation?

> Olivia commented, “I hate surprise parties.”
>
> Don said confidently, “I bet you have never given a surprise party.”
>
> She responded, “You are wrong. I arranged a surprise party for Gina last year.”
>
> Don remarked, “Gina was probably upset.”
>
> Olivia explained with a frown, “Yes, she was. In fact, she fainted when she saw us.”

These examples illustrate a couple of punctuation rules for sentences beginning with speaker tags:

- **A comma follows the speaker tag.** The comma separates the speaker tag from the quotation.
- **Quotation marks surround the quoted words.** No surprise here! The first half of the pair alerts the reader that the quotation is beginning. The second half of the pair signals the end.
- **The quotation begins with a capital letter.** You know that you should always capitalize the first word of a sentence. A quotation with a speaker tag is like a sentence. It always begins with a capital letter. (For more information on capital letters, turn to Chapter 17.)
- **The period at the end of the sentence comes before the closing quotation mark.** This rule applies to Standard American English. In Britain, the period often follows the closing quotation mark.

Speaker tag at the end

Often, a speaker tag shows up at the end of the sentence. Read these examples:

> “Connie and I watched the football game together,” said Ron.
>
> “She was very emotional when her team scored a goal,” he added.
>
> “No, I was not,” Connie declared.

> “The tears in your eyes resulted from allergies,” said Ron sarcastically.
>
> “Okay, maybe I was a little too involved in the game,” murmured Connie.

These examples show you the rules for sentences ending with speaker tags:

- **Quotation marks surround the quoted words.** The first thing you see in this kind of sentence is the opening quotation mark.
- **A comma replaces the period at the end of the quotation.** The sentence does not conclude with the quotation, so you cannot place a period at the end of the quotation. Periods generally belong at the end of a sentence, not in the middle. (The only exception is abbreviations, such as “a.m.” or “p.m.”)
- **The comma appears before the closing quotation mark.** Why? American custom and tradition create the rule here. (In Britain, the comma often follows the quotation mark because of different customs and traditions.)
- **The sentence ends with a period.** All sentences end with a punctuation mark. A sentence concluding with a speaker tag is usually a statement, so a period is what you need. If the sentence is a question or an exclamation, a question mark or an exclamation point signals the end of the sentence. (For more information on punctuation at the end of a sentence, turn to Chapter 13.)

Speaker tag in the middle

For the sake of variety, you may want to place a speaker tag in the middle of a sentence. Here are some examples of this sentence pattern:

> “I am not,” declared the queen, “amused or insulted.”
>
> “You looked annoyed,” said the plumber, “and perhaps impatient.”
>
> “We have that pipe,” added the plumber’s helper, “but not the tool to install it.”

The rules here are a little more complicated:

- **Quotation marks surround the quoted words.** Because the quotation is broken into two parts, you need two sets of quotation marks — one for

the first part of the quotation and another for the second part of the quotation.

- **The sentence begins with a capital letter.** Every sentence begins with a capital letter, and quotations are no exception.
- **The second part of the quotation begins with a lowercase letter.** The logic here is that the quotation is a sentence. You do not place capital letters in the middle of a sentence, except, of course, for a name or for the personal pronoun *I*.
- **Place a comma after the first part of the quotation.** The comma appears before the closing quotation mark.
- **Insert a comma after the speaker tag.** This comma separates the speaker tag from the second half of the quotation.
- **Place the period at the end of the sentence before the closing quotation mark.** This rule is true if the quotation is a statement. If the quotation is a question, use a question mark. If the quotation is an exclamation, use an exclamation point. In all these situations, Standard American English requires the punctuation mark to appear before the closing quotation mark. The tradition in Britain is often different.

If you are quoting many sentences from one person, not just one, the rules change slightly. Look at this example:

> "These shoes are too tight," complained Max. "Please bring me a larger size."

In this example, the speaker tag is not really in the middle of a sentence. It appears at the end of the first sentence. The second half of the quotation is a separate sentence. Be sure to punctuate separate sentences individually.

Quotations without speaker tags

When no speaker tag appears with a quotation, the punctuation changes a bit. Read these examples:

> Lenny thinks that this year's election is "the most important of our era."

After seeing the exhibit, Gina called the artworks “magnificent” and “awe-inspiring.”

According to the author, every new parent should “pay attention to the baby and ignore the experts.”

The rules for quotations without speaker tags are simple:

- **Quotation marks surround the quoted words.** This rule never changes, with or without speaker tags.
- **Usually, no comma separates the quotation from the rest of the sentence.** As you see in the example sentences, the quotation is tucked into the sentence seamlessly.
- **The quotation does not begin with a capital letter.** Unless the quotation is at the beginning of the sentence, start off with lowercase. Again, the logic is that the quotation is tucked into the sentence. It is not a separate unit of thought.

QUICK QUIZ

Can you place periods and commas in the correct places? Insert these punctuation marks where they belong.

1. Angela said “My dog Spot ran through a mud puddle”
2. Angela complained that Spot’s fur was “totally filthy”
3. “Do not worry” said the dog groomer
4. He continued “I will give Spot a bath”
5. “If you can” replied Angela “trim his nails also”
6. The dog groomer said “I will”

Here are the answers:

1. Angela said, “My dog Spot ran through a mud puddle.”
2. Angela complained that Spot’s fur was “totally filthy.”
3. “Do not worry,” said the dog groomer.
4. He continued, “I will give Spot a bath.”

5. “If you can,” replied Angela, “trim his nails also.”
6. The dog groomer said, “I will.”

Quoting from written material

Quotation marks also enclose words that are reproduced from a piece of writing. For example, imagine that you are writing a report for school or for work. You see this paragraph:

> At the 2015 meeting of the Global Alternative Society (GAS), members discussed cars that run without gasoline. Lectures covered electricity, hydrogen fuel cells, and plant-based fuels. Outside, society members carefully studied models of what they called the cars of the future. One vehicle, which runs on leftover cooking oil, smelled like hamburgers and fries. Everyone who looked at this car remarked on the unusual but not unpleasant odor. A representative from GAS praised these cars for their environmentally friendly technology.

Note: The Global Alternative Society does not exist. This paragraph comes from my imagination. I do know someone whose car burns leftover cooking oil, though. It *does* smell strange!

Now take a close look at this paragraph, in which words from the written source appear:

> Petroleum is the world’s most prominent fuel, but engineers from the Global Alternative Society (GAS) and other organizations are studying and promoting other energy sources. According to GAS, “cars of the future” may run on hydrogen or even on recycled cooking oil, which has an “unusual but not unpleasant odor.”

Do you see that the source of every quotation is given in the text? The phrase “According to GAS” is the identifying label. You can also identify the source in a footnote or endnote. Sometimes, the source identification appears in parentheses. For more information on quoting from written material, turn to Chapter 20.

Identifying Titles with Quotation Marks

Are you a poet? A song writer? A reporter? If so, you need quotation marks for the titles of your creations. Even if you are not the creator, you still need quotation marks to identify the titles of these works.

However, not all titles should be enclosed by quotation marks. Some titles — of longer works such as novels, newspapers or magazines, operas, and so on

— should be italicized or underlined.

The rule is simple. Short works require quotation marks. Long works require italics or underlining. Read Table 16-2, which divides titles into two categories according to the way their titles should appear.

Table 16-2 Identifying Titles

Quotation Marks	***Italics or Underlining***
short poem: “Daffodils”	long poem: *The Odyssey*
song: “Gimme Some Truth”	album: *Imagine*
article: “Police Slowdown Ends”	newspaper or magazine name: *Daily News*
essay: “On Envy”	collection of essays: *The Souls of Black Folk*
television episode: “The Bizarro Jerry”	television series: *Seinfeld*
chapter title: “Who Said What: Quotation Marks”	book title: *Basic English Grammar For Dummies*

Try your hand at punctuating these titles. Enclose titles in quotation marks or underline them (for italics or underlining).

1. Birches (poem)
2. On the Road (novel)
3. America the Beautiful (song)
4. Blood on the Tracks (album)
5. Hamlet (play)
6. President Signs Peace Treaty (article)

Here are the answers: 1. quotation marks 2. italics/underlining 3. quotation marks 4. italics/underlining 5. italics/underlining 6. quotation marks.

If the title is centered on a page, alone on the line, do not enclose it with quotation marks or italicize or underline it. Being alone is enough to identify it as a title.

Many rules govern how to capitalize a title. For help with capitalization, see

Chapter .

Colons and quotations

Usually, a comma is enough to separate a speaker tag or an introduction from a quotation. If the quotation is very long, though, you may use a colon (one dot on top of another). Check out this example:

> **Short quotation**
>
> Andrew remarked, “The committee is now arranging three events.”
>
> **Long quotation**
>
> Andrew remarked: “The committee is now arranging three events. All these events will take place next month. Our budget has been cut, and committee members are very discouraged. They try to stretch their time, energy, and funding. No one can do everything, however. We need to examine our schedule and adjust it to assist our loyal employees.”

The colon prepares the reader for a large amount of information. (Colons may also introduce lists, such as those that appear on presentation slides. For more information on presentation slides, see Chapter 19.)

Chapter 17

Big or Small? When to Write Capital Letters

In This Chapter

- Understanding the core rules of capitalization
- Beginning sentences and proper names with capital letters
- Sorting out terms and job titles that require capital letters
- Inserting capital letters in titles of literary, art, and musical works
- Selecting capital letters for abbreviations

If you apply for a loan, what happens? Usually, the bank asks how much you earn and what you owe. One new bank checks something else. This bank looks at capital letters. That's right — *capital letters.* The bank has determined that borrowers who know the rules of capitalization are more likely to pay back their loans.

I do not believe that a bank should judge anyone's grammar skills. However, I also know that people sometimes evaluate your level of education and ability when they read your writing. For this reason, and many others, you should know the key rules of capitalization. This chapter explains those rules.

Knowing the (Capital) ABCs of Capital Letters

Many grammar rules that I explain in this book arise from logic. The rules for capital letters, though, generally do not. In this way, capitalization is similar to parenting:

CHILD: Why do I have to clean my room?

PARENT: Because.

WRITER: Why do I have to capitalize that word?

GRAMMAR EXPERT: Because.

Of course, the parent's answer could include a bit of logic. In the preceding example, the parent might say, "You have to clean your room because it smells terrible" or "You have to clean your room because the junk pile on your floor is as high as the ceiling." Those statements may be true. However, the real reason a child has to clean the room is that the parent said so. The reason why you have to write a *capital* (big) or a *lowercase* (small) letter is often simply because tradition (or a grammar expert) says so.

Here are some logical principles that govern capital letters:

- **Capital letters add importance.** When you see a capital letter, the word stands out. It appears more important.
- **Capital letters highlight specifics.** Lowercase letters appear in general terms (*river*, for example). Capital letters alert you to specific names (such as the *Nile*).
- **Capital letters separate.** Sentences begin with capital letters. Along with punctuation, a capital letter shows where a new thought begins.

Keep these ideas in mind as you look at each rule in this chapter.

Setting Up Sentences with Capital Letters

Some ancient texts have no punctuation and no capital letters. Without these two elements, readers have a hard time knowing where one idea begins and another ends. For instance, what do you understand from this message?

FRANK IS HERE IN THE STORE HE IS FINE OUTSIDE HE IS WORRIED ABOUT ROBBERS NOW

Did you read it this way?

Frank is here. In the store he is fine. Outside he is worried about robbers

now.

Or this way?

Frank is here in the store. He is fine outside. He is worried about robbers now.

In the first version, Frank worries about robbers whenever he leaves the store. In the second version, Frank worries about robbers whenever he is inside the store. These two ideas are quite different. If the first version is true, Frank should hire a bodyguard. If the second is true, he should install a security alarm. (Either way, Frank should calm down!)

Sentences always begin with capital letters. I do not need to give you more examples because every sentence in this book follows the rule.

Typing with just your thumbs can be difficult. In texts and instant messages, writers sometimes break the rule requiring capital letters at the beginning of each sentence. (They often drop punctuation also.) Eliminating formal capitalization and punctuation may be fine when you are sending a message to a friend. In a business or school situation, though, a little extra effort changes sloppy communication to proper English. Consider your audience as you type. (For more information on electronic media, see Chapter 18.)

You cannot capitalize a numeral (*45*, for example). Therefore, you should not begin a sentence with a numeral. If you need a number in that spot, write the word *(Forty-five)*. In other words, you may not write

14 days of vacation is too little.

Instead, you should write

Fourteen days of vacation is too little.

In the following paragraph, capitalize letters as needed. If you wish to change a numeral to a word, do so.

> the subway skidded around the curve too quickly. how many people were hurt? 16 passengers had minor injuries. 2 died. transportation officials are studying what went wrong. they have questioned the driver and several riders. i think that more attention should be paid to subway safety.

Here is what the paragraph should look like:

> The subway skidded around the curve too quickly. How many people were hurt? Sixteen passengers had minor injuries. Two died. Transportation officials are studying what went wrong. They have questioned the driver and several riders. I think that more attention should be paid to subway safety.

Naming Names

Human beings love to make categories. One way to do so is to give everything a name. Well, actually two names — one specific and one general. Capital letters usually appear in specific names, but not in general terms. In this section, you examine this rule in depth.

Who are you? Names for people

Write your name here: _____. You capitalized the first letter, right? People's names are always important, so they are always capitalized. Check out these examples:

Ruth Jones

Bobby Khan

Samuel Peters

Theresa Santiago

William Winfield

Annie Ellington

The personal pronoun *I*, referring to the speaker or writer, is also always written as a capital letter. Other personal pronouns — *he*, *they*, *she*, *you*, and so on — are not capitalized. Do you think this rule means that people always see themselves as more important than anyone else in the world?

General references to people, not names, are not capitalized:

tennis champion

ambassadors

passengers

teenager

residents

student

To sum up this rule: Ruth (capitalized specific name) may be a passenger (lowercase general term) in a car on the way to see her friend (lowercase general term) Matt (capitalized specific name).

Where are you? Names for places

Names of specific places are also always capitalized:

Columbia River

Italy

Topeka, Kansas

Main Street

Pacific Ocean

Asia

If a name has two or more parts (for instance, *San Fernando* or

Kansas City), capitalize all the parts.

General terms for places should be written in lowercase:

mountain range

cities

oceans

neighborhood

road

coast

The names of countries are always capitalized. Sometimes, the name of a region or neighborhood is capitalized also. Read these examples:

France (country)

Midwest (region)

Upper East Side (neighborhood of New York City)

If you refer to people by naming the place they live, capitalize that term also. Take a look at these examples:

Frenchman or Frenchwoman

Midwesterners

Upper East Sider

To clarify this rule: In Italy (capitalized specific name), many cities (lowercase general term) attract tourists. Venetians (capitalized specific name) live in Venice (capitalized specific name), where the most important street (lowercase general term) is the watery Grand Canal (capitalized specific name).

What's that? Names of things

Brand names, company names, and store names are usually capitalized. However, a company can call itself and its products anything! (Apple Inc., for

example, sells iPads and iMacs. The lowercase *i* is a style decision.) Here are some examples of brands, companies, and stores:

Facebook

Hecker's Flour

General Mills

Sony

Saks Fifth Avenue

Android

Once again, general terms for things, companies, and stores should be written in lowercase:

website

baking supplies

cereal

video games

department store

phone

Consider some examples in context: General Motors (capitalized specific name) makes many cars (lowercase). You can buy convertibles (lowercase general term) everywhere. Joe's Pre-Owned Autos (capitalized specific name) will offer you a good deal for this type of vehicle (lowercase general term).

Capital letters usually appear in specific names. Lowercase letters are best for general terms.

To see how well you understand the capitalization rules for names, add a capital letter to any word that requires one:

1. volcano

2. paul
3. i
4. oregon
5. cadillac
6. lisa simpson
7. girls
8. printers
9. yankees
10. europe

Here are the answers: 1. *volcano* 2. *Paul* 3. *I* 4. *Oregon* 5. *Cadillac* 6. *Lisa Simpson* 7. *girls* 8. *printers* 9. *Yankees* 10. *Europe*.

Mr. Mayor or mr. mayor: Capitalizing Titles

Please allow me to introduce Michael and Sally. Here are several ways I can refer to them:

Mr. Michael Jones

Ms. Sally Smith

Dr. Michael Jones

my doctor, Michael Jones

Cousin Michael

Mayor Jones

Judge Smith

Michael Jones, mayor of my city

Sally Smith, judge on the county court

In this list, titles for Michael and Sally are underlined. In this section, I explain why some are capitalized, and some are not.

Titles appearing before a name

A title appearing before a name usually becomes part of that name. Because names are capitalized, so are titles in this position.

First, take a look at the most common titles. Every person can claim at least one:

Mr. Peter Olson

Miss Barbara Baum

Mrs. Jean Newton

Ms. Ellen Dodge

These titles never appear in lowercase. As you see, men have one option *(Mr.)* and women have three (*Miss*, *Mrs.*, and *Ms.*). Do you know the difference? Traditionally, *Miss* refers to unmarried females, and *Mrs.* to married females. The title *Ms.* refers to women who are either single or married.

Do not forget to place a period after *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Ms.*

Other titles refer to someone's career or status. Read these examples:

Senator Paul Goodman

Representative Olivia Roth

Reverend Johnson

Rabbi Cohen

Lady Westfield

Lord Derek

Once again, these titles precede the names. They are part of the name, so they require capital letters.

Titles appearing after a name

Meet Edward Gower, the director of marketing for our company.

> Edward, the secretary-treasurer of his basketball team, plays every weekend. His teammates include Joan Dobby, vice president for sales, and Gene Rogers, chief of the accounting department.

The titles underlined in the preceding paragraph belong to *Edward Gower, Joan Dobby,* and *Gene Rogers.* (They are not real people, just examples.) The titles are not capitalized because they appear after the names. They are not part of the names. Think of these titles as a little extra information about *Edward, Joan,* and *Gene.*

Here are a few other examples of titles that are written in lowercase because of their position after the name. The titles are underlined:

> Shana Porter, head veterinarian
>
> Joseph Masters, administrative assistant
>
> Mike May, co-chair of the committee
>
> Louise Lennon, webmaster
>
> Archie Goodwin, private detective
>
> Linda David, financial-page editor

In grammar, as in life, many rules have exceptions. This rule about lowercase titles has a few exceptions. If the title is very important, you should capitalize it no matter where it appears. What is the definition of *very important?* I am glad you asked! In most American publications, these positions qualify:

> President of the United States
>
> Vice President of the United States
>
> Secretary-General of the United Nations
>
> the Pope
>
> Prime Minister of Great Britain
>
> Chief Justice of the Supreme Court

When a title includes several words, capitalize the important ones *(President, United, States).* Lowercase the unimportant words *(of, the).*

I imagine that you can name a few more positions that, from your viewpoint, are as important as those in the preceding list. If you feel strongly that a particular job is equal in rank to those appearing on this list, capitalize the position. If you are writing a report for an authority figure, ask him or her about capitalizing specific titles. With this rule, you have some room for interpretation.

Titles appearing alone

When you write about someone, you may not know the person's name. In these situations, you refer to the person by his or her title alone. Read these examples. In each, the title is underlined:

The department chair ordered a review of the required textbooks.

The sound of barking surrounds the town dogcatcher.

Because the publicity director is out of town, we will have to write the press release ourselves.

The mayor's aide responded immediately and approved their request.

I hope to become an executive vice president within two years.

Please do not inform the lieutenant of my late arrival.

The rule is simple. A title alone, without a name, should be written in lowercase.

This rule is not absolute. Some titles of national or international importance are always capitalized, even if no name appears with the title. For more information, look at the list at the end of the preceding section, "Titles appearing after a name."

When you speak or write to someone (a *direct address*), you may use the title, all by itself, as a name. In that case, all titles require capital letters. See Chapter 15 for more information on direct address.

See whether you can insert capital letters where they are needed in the underlined titles.

1. They say that captain Henry Nash has scheduled a news conference for ten o'clock.
2. Yesterday general Rodriguez ordered an additional thousand troops to defend that area.
3. Monica Canfield, vice president of that shoe company, wears her company's products.
4. Do you know justice Sachs?
5. The ambassador asked the secretary-general of the united nations to visit every country that signed the treaty.
6. The man standing near the door is our new pastor.

Here are the answers: 1. *Captain* 2. *General* 3. lowercase 4. *Justice* 5. lowercase for *ambassador, Secretary-General of the United Nations* 6. lowercase.

Mom or mom? Capitalizing Family Relationships

Like most people, you probably play many roles in your family. You may be a parent, a son or daughter, a grandchild, an uncle or an aunt, and lots of other things. Sometimes these roles should be capitalized, and sometimes they should be in lowercase.

Two rules cover family relationships:

- **If the relationship word is just a label, do not capitalize it.** If you refer to *my dad, her sister, his cousin, their uncle,* and so on, you are applying a label. Stay in lowercase.
- **If the relationship word substitutes for a name, capitalize it.** Perhaps you write about *Mom* or *Grandpa*, using those terms instead of *Mary* (the

mother's name) or *Pete* (the grandfather's name). In that situation, the relationship word requires a capital letter.

Take a look at these examples:

Zena opened the package that Grandma had sent her. (*Grandma* = name)

Zena's grandmother frequently sends presents. (*grandmother* = label)

Unfortunately, Mom noticed that the vase was cracked in several places. (*Mom* = name)

Yesterday, her dad glued the pieces together. (*dad* = label)

Zena told Uncle Henry that the vase looked better after the accident. (*Uncle Henry* = name)

She has often remarked that her uncle is the kindest man she has ever met. (*uncle* = label)

Zena thanked her grandmother for the present. (*grandmother* = label)

If you can substitute a real name for the family relationship, you probably need a capital letter. If you cannot substitute a name without sounding strange, lowercase is most likely what you need.

Check out this method in action:

SENTENCE: Jake played five games of poker with his (Brother, brother).

SENTENCE WITH NAME SUBSTITUTED: Jake played five games of poker with his Michael.

CAPITAL OR LOWERCASE: Lowercase! The expression *his Michael* is not acceptable in formal English. Therefore, *brother* is a label in this sentence, not a name.

SENTENCE: Jake learned to play poker from (Grandpa, grandpa).

SENTENCE WITH NAME SUBSTITUTED: Jake learned to play poker from Michael.

CAPITAL OR LOWERCASE: Capital! The sentence with the name in it sounds fine, so *Grandpa* functions as a name in the sentence. Names

should be capitalized.

Figure out the right way to deal with these family members. (I refer to capital or lowercase letters, of course. You will have to turn to other books for help with annoying cousins or nosy nephews and nieces.) Underline the correct term for each sentence.

1. Mabel says that (Auntie, auntie) makes the tastiest chocolate cake.
2. Although (Dad, dad) likes cake, he is allergic to chocolate.
3. When his (Sister, sister) bakes, (Dad, dad) politely refuses his slice.
4. He gives that slice to his (Wife, wife).
5. She, in turn, hands some of the cake to (Sister, sister).
6. Because my (Aunt, aunt) never pays attention, she never prepares a different dessert for (Dad, dad).

Here are the answers: 1. *Auntie* 2. *Dad* 3. *sister, Dad* 4. *wife* 5. *Sister* 6. *aunt, Dad*.

Capitalizing Creative Works

Open a newspaper or a magazine (or the website of a newspaper or a magazine). Read a few article titles. Some words are capitalized, and some are not. Take a look at these titles. Notice which words are capitalized:

"Dinosaurs: The Most Recent Discoveries in China"

"How to Reorganize Your Closet: A Guide for Messy People"

"Major Storm Hits the Northeast"

"Finding a New Career"

"The Safest Jobs in a Bad Economy"

"Fifty Recipes for Quick and Delicious Meals"

You probably noticed a pattern — the capitalization rules that the editors of these publications follow. Here is a summary of those rules:

- **Capitalize the first word of any title.** *Dinosaurs, How, Major, Finding, The,* and *Fifty* are capitalized because they are the first words of each title.
- **Capitalize the first word of any subtitle.** Subtitles show up after a colon (one dot above another). In the example list, the first two titles have subtitles. *The* and *A* are capitalized because they are the first words of each subtitle.
- **Capitalize nouns and pronouns.** In the example list, *Dinosaurs, Discoveries, China, Closet, Guide, People, Storm, Northeast, Career, Jobs, Economy, Recipes,* and *Meals* are capitalized because they are nouns. *Your* is capitalized because it is a pronoun.
- **Capitalize verb forms.** In the examples, you see capital letters for *Reorganize, Hits,* and *Finding.* They are verb forms.
- **Capitalize descriptive words.** *Most, Recent, Messy, Major, New, Safest, Bad, Fifty, Quick,* and *Delicious* have capital letters. Each of these words adds some information to the sentence.
- **Do not capitalize *a, an,* and *the.*** These last three tiny words should be in lowercase unless they appear as the first word of a title or subtitle.
- **Do not capitalize unimportant words.** Yes, I know. Deciding what is "unimportant" can be tough. In general, little words such as *to, for, in,* and *and* should be in lowercase. (In grammar terms, these are prepositions and conjunctions. Chapter 7 gives you more information about prepositions, and Chapter 8 discusses conjunctions.)

Editors do not always agree about which words require capital letters. The rules help, but room for disagreement exists. If you are writing for a particular teacher or supervisor, you can check what he or she prefers. If not, use your own judgment, with the preceding rules as a guide.

Apply these rules to the titles of articles and the titles of

- Most written work, including novels, nonfiction books, essays, and plays
- The titles of newspapers, magazines, and journals
- Works of visual art, such as paintings, photos, and sculpture

- Musical works, such as songs and albums

If you are a poet or a scientist, these rules may not apply to you. Poets, I am convinced, love to break rules, and most poetry readers assume that titles, like everything else in a poem, can be creative, not grammatical. (I agree with that practice, by the way, as long as the result is interesting and meaningful.) Scientific articles and reports are also different from creative works. In "science style," only the first word of the title is capitalized, as well as any proper names in the title. If a scientific work has a subtitle, the first word of the subtitle also rates a capital letter. Everything else is in lowercase. If you are a scientist, do not follow the rules in the preceding bullet points.

Seeing things

The root of a word is the part that sprouts different meanings every time you add something to the beginning or the end of the word. Take a close look at the root *scope,* which means "watch" and "see":

Telescope means "a device that allows you to see things that are far away." "Through the *telescope*, I saw the moon's craters easily."

A **microscope** is "a device that magnifies." "Through the *microscope*, I saw the bacteria."

A **periscope** is "an instrument, often on a submarine, that shows the view above and on all sides." "Look through the *periscope* to check for enemy warships."

Surprisingly, the root *scope* can also refer to listening. Your doctor may use a **stethoscope** to listen to your heartbeat. ("Please warm that *stethoscope* before you place it on my chest, Doctor.") Perhaps this word comes from the idea that the doctor is "looking" for signs of health or illness. *Scope* may also be a word all by itself, with no attachments. As a verb, to *scope* is to "investigate, to look into." ("Henry *scoped* out the possible audience for that television program.") As a noun, *scope* means "extent or range." ("The *scope* of the investigation was broad, as they looked into his entire career.")

Now you can *scope out* many new words and improve your vocabulary!

Time to try capitalizing titles. Circle any lowercase letter that should

be a capital.

1. a view from the executive suite
2. daily gazette
3. the polluted planet: are we in danger?
4. going for the gold medal: achieving maximum success in sports
5. the cat lover's guide
6. over the river and up the mountain: journeys on foot

Here are the answers: 1. *A View from the Executive Suite* 2. *Daily Gazette* 3. *The Polluted Planet: Are We in Danger?* 4. *Going for the Gold Medal: Achieving Maximum Success in Sports* 5. *The Cat Lover's Guide* 6. *Over the River and Up the Mountain: Journeys on Foot*.

Capitalizing Abbreviations

Are you in a hurry? If so, you probably abbreviate some terms when you write. Abbreviations are generally accepted short forms, often the first letter of each word in a phrase, that take the place of the complete expression. (Abbreviations are related to contractions, a topic you can find in Chapter 14. Contractions have an apostrophe [a little hook] in place of some letters. Abbreviations generally include periods.)

Here are some common abbreviations and the long form the abbreviations replace:

Mr. (short for *Mister*)

Rev. (short for *Reverend*)

St. (short for *Street*)

Ave. (short for *Avenue*)

Jr. (short for *junior*)

Rep. (short for *Representative*)

Jan. (short for *January*)

e.g. (from the Latin phrase meaning "for example")

Fri. (short for *Friday*)

yd. (short for *yard*)

kg. (short for *kilogram*)

lbs. (from the Latin word for *pounds*)

As you see, some of these abbreviations are capitalized, and some are not. Here are the underlying principles:

- **Capitalize abbreviations for people's titles.** Follow the abbreviations with periods. *Sen. (senator), St. (saint),* and *Sr.* (*senior)* are examples of abbreviated titles.
- **Capitalize geographic abbreviations when they are part of a name.** It's the *Mississippi R.* (the *R.* stands for *River*) but just *r.* if you are labeling a natural feature on a map without including names.
- **Do not capitalize abbreviations for most measurements.** Place a period after the abbreviation for *yd. (yard)* and *in. (inch),* for example. ***Note:*** Metric abbreviations do not always include a period. You may see *kg* for *kilogram* or *m* for *meter.*
- **Capitalize both letters of the abbreviation of a state name.** This rule comes to you courtesy of the United States Postal Service, which decided some time ago to create two-letter, capitalized abbreviations for every state. *NY* is *New York, CO* is *Colorado,* and so on. You can find a list at www.usps.gov.
- **Capitalize every letter of an acronym.** An *acronym* is a new word created by stringing together the first letter of each word in a phrase. *NATO* is the acronym for the *North Atlantic Treaty Organization. AIDS* is the acronym for *Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.* Acronyms do not require periods.

Two abbreviations that come in handy are *a.m.* (morning) and *p.m.* (afternoon).These abbreviations may also be written as *AM* and *PM.* In the capitalized version, do not insert periods. You may use either, but you should not switch back and forth between capital letters and

lowercase. Once you choose an abbreviation, stay with it. Are you wondering how *a.m.* turned into “morning” and *p.m.* into “afternoon”? These abbreviations come from Latin phrases, *ante meridian* and *post meridian*, which refer to the position of the sun in the sky.

I cannot list all the abbreviations and acronyms you may come across when you are reading. (If I did, this book would weigh a hundred pounds!) If you see an abbreviation or an acronym you do not recognize, check the dictionary or the Internet.

Texters love to abbreviate, maybe because their thumbs tire quickly. Be careful if you create an abbreviation, though. Someone may *lol (laugh out loud)* at your letters or, worse, misunderstand what you are trying to say. (For more on electronic media, including texting, see Chapter 18.)

Insert an abbreviation into the blank. The intended long-form is in parentheses.

1. May I introduce _____ (Senator) Smith?
2. Lola’s concert began at 4 _____ (afternoon) sharp.
3. After seeing Phoenix, _____ (Arizona), Bill left for a camping trip in the _____ (mountains).
4. The _____ (United Nations) delegates applauded _____ (Mister) Johnson’s speech.
5. Gene bought books, films, games, _____ (and so on).
6. Did you buy stock in Seaver _____ (Incorporated)?

Here are the answers: 1. *Sen.* 2. *P.m.or PM* 3. *AZ, mts.* 4. *UN* or *U.N.*, *Mr.* 5. *etc*. 6. *Inc*.

Part V

Grammar in Action

Communication in the 21st Century

Technology changes at the speed of light. Grammar does not move along quite so quickly, but it does adapt to modern times. In this part, you look at accepted standards for writing in the 21st century, including these:

- **Electronic media:** Texts, instant messages, and emails are more common than traditional letters printed on paper and sealed in an envelope. Plus, a quick trip around the Internet reveals that half the world is blogging or commenting on someone else's blog. Check Chapter 18 to see the proper language and format for these electronic communications.
- **Presentation slides and bulleted lists:** Word processing and popular computer programs such as PowerPoint, Prezi, and Keynote rely on bullet points. Chapter 19 explains how to format slides and bullets properly, so your message comes across clearly.
- **Letters, reports, and school assignments:** Whether you are a student or an employee, you probably have to put pen to paper or fingers to keyboard to write a letter, compile a report, or fulfill a homework assignment. Chapter 20 shows you some easily adaptable formats for these types of writing.

For a bonus article on Communication in the 21st Century, go online and take a look at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar.

In this part …

- Format emails and traditional letters.
- Communicate clearly in texts and instant messages.
- Adjust the level of formality to reach your intended audience.
- Punctuate, capitalize, and properly format presentation slides and bulleted lists.
- Follow accepted grammatical standards for reports and school assignments.

Chapter 18

Writing with Electronic Media

In This Chapter

- Communicating clearly in texts, tweets, and instant messages
- Writing effective emails
- Adapting traditional grammar for blog and social media posts

Written communication began with a stick and some loose dirt and gradually moved to pen and paper. Now you can, and probably do, click away on a full-sized computer keyboard or on a tiny phone screen. New technology means new opportunities. You can write and revise many times with very little effort, for example. Just about anyone can blog, tweet, and post on social media.

However, modern communication presents challenges. Which grammar rules stay the same? Which ones are impractical? This area of grammar is a battlefield. Grammarians defend their country (proper English) with as much passion as patriotic soldiers. Though many issues are not yet settled, in this chapter you find commonly accepted guidelines for writing in modern electronic media.

The Unbreakable Rule: Communicating Clearly in Texts, Instant Messages, and Tweets

Short. Fast. Effortless. You value these three qualities when you write. Right? Okay, sometimes you may wish to go long, to take your time, and to use every brain cell you have. Often, though, you want to say it, Send it, and be done with it.

No matter what sort of writing *it* is, one other description must apply to your

work: clarity. This is the unbreakable rule:

> Your readers must understand what you mean.

If they don't, why bother writing at all? (Yes, I know that many people rely on snapshots or videos to communicate, but you are reading a book about grammar, so I know that you care about writing.)

The good news is that your texts, messages, and tweets can be short, quickly and easily written, and crystal clear. This section explains how.

Omitting words

Every character counts when you are tweeting or texting. It is just not comfortable to write long paragraphs on a screen the size of a low-calorie cookie. Plus, the program you are using may limit the size of your messages. For these reasons, you may break the "complete sentence rule" that grammarians love. (For more information on complete sentences, turn to Chapter 13.)

Before you break a grammar rule, though, you should think about the person receiving your message. Is that person a friend or a business associate? Does he or she outrank you in status, age, or authority? What sort of impression would you like to make? Chapter 2 explains when informal language is acceptable and when formal English is required.

Dropping the subject

The easiest shortcut is to drop the subject. The subject is *who* or *what* does the action. The subject may also be *who* or *what* is in the state of being the sentence expresses. (For more information on subjects and verbs, check out Chapter 11.) When you drop a subject, sometimes you may shorten the verb form also. Here are some examples of deleted subjects:

> FULL SENTENCE: I will come by bus.
>
> SHORTENED MESSAGE #1: Will come by bus.
>
> SHORTENED MESSAGE #2: Coming by bus.

FULL SENTENCE: I need a ride to the party.

SHORTENED MESSAGE #1: Need a ride to the party.

SHORTENED MESSAGE #2: Need ride to party.

FULL SENTENCE: I will bring wine.

SHORTENED MESSAGE #1: Will bring wine.

SHORTENED MESSAGE #2: Bringing wine.

In every example, the subject dropped from the sentence is *I.* Most readers assume that *I* is the subject in texts and messages. If the subject is not *I,* you probably need to include it to avoid confusion. Take a look at these examples:

FULL SENTENCE: Henry will come with me.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will come with me.

READER'S REACTION: *Who* will come with you?

FULL SENTENCE: Shane and Debby need a lift to the party.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Need a lift to the party.

READER'S REACTION: I thought you were coming by bus. Have your plans changed?

FULL SENTENCE: Mark will bring soda.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will bring soda.

READER'S REACTION: You are bringing wine and soda? That's too much!

Of course, your reader may understand that *Mark will bring soda* if that text is part of a longer exchange, such as this one between Sal and Wendy. Note the full version in parentheses:

SAL'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will bring wine. (I will bring wine.)

WENDY'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Mark? (What will Mark bring?)

SAL'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Bringing soda. (Mark will bring soda.)

WENDY: Good.

Because *Mark* shows up in the second message, the third line makes sense.

In commands, the subject never appears, even in normal, non-shortened writing. The subject of a command is always *you*, but the *you* is understood, not included. Because it is already missing, you do not have to delete it. Here are some examples:

COMMAND: Go home.

MEANING: You have to go home.

COMMAND: Buy milk.

MEANING: You have to stop at the store and buy milk.

COMMAND: Do your homework.

MEANING: You have to do your homework.

Dropping other words

A friend of mine was worried about her daughter, who was traveling to a party all by herself for the first time. She told her daughter to text when she arrived. This is the message my friend received:

here

The single word communicates everything the parent wants to know, even though no subjects or verbs appear. (It also expresses the teenager's annoyance. Every parent understands that *here* contains an eye-roll and this unwritten sentence: "Mom, I'm *fourteen.* Checking in is for *babies.*")

Often, you may omit the subject and the verb and still get your point across. (To learn more about subjects and verbs, see Chapter 11.) Take a look at these examples:

MESSAGE: On bus.

MEANING: I am on the bus.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The subject *(I)*, the verb *(am)*, and *the.*

MESSAGE: Traffic jam. Late.

MEANING: I am in a traffic jam. I will be late.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: In the first sentence, the subject *(I)*, the verb *(am)*, and two other words, *in a.* In the second sentence, the subject *(I)* and verb *(will be).*

MESSAGE: Meeting horrible.

MEANING: The meeting is (or was) horrible.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The verb *is* or *was*, and *the.*

In the last example, the person receiving the message probably knows which meeting you are writing about and whether that meeting is over *(was horrible)* or still going on *(is horrible).*

Deletions work only when the person you are writing to understands the situation. For example, suppose you Send this text:

MESSAGE: Mark sick.

MEANING: Mark is not at work (or at school or somewhere else) because he is sick.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The verb *(is)* and the place (work, school, whatever).

If the person reading the message does not know where Mark is supposed to be (or who Mark is), this message is too vague. A better message in this situation is *Mark is sick and cannot teach today* or *Mark is sick. Hire a temporary secretary* or something similar.

Dropping punctuation and capital letters

I'm a grammarian, so when I text, I take the time to insert capital letters, periods, commas, question marks, and so on. Most people are not as picky as

vk.com/club154894262

I am. Even I must admit that it is not terrible to skip some capital letters and punctuation. However, you must be sure that your message makes sense without them. Take a look at this text:

walk at 4

What does this text mean? I can think of a few possible interpretations:

I am going for a walk at 4.

You should go for a walk at 4.

Would you like to go for a walk at 4?

You may think that the last interpretation, with a question mark, is unlikely. It *is* unlikely, but it is also possible. Why take the chance? With a period, you rule out a question and ensure that the reader knows you are making a statement.

Here is another example:

not writing secret

Expanded, this text could be any of the following:

I am not writing because our relationship is a secret.

I am not writing the secret. Someone may be reading my messages.

You are not writing to me. I do not know why. Is the reason a secret?

You are not writing to me. Is there a secret you are afraid to write about?

Some *apps* (programs that run on smartphones, tablets, and other devices) automatically correct spelling, insert capital letters, and add punctuation. This extra help saves time, but be sure to read what is on the screen before you press "Send."

Why? Apps are not as smart as human beings. They can "guess" what you are

trying to say, but they can be wrong. For example, when I write to my friend Pilar, the app removes the capital and changes the spelling. Instead of *Pilar,* a very nice lady, she becomes "pillar," a kind of column. Even more embarrassing changes can occur. Be careful!

One more thing about texts, instant messages, and tweets: I often receive messages with odd abbreviations, such as *U* (for *you*) and *L8* (for *late*). *IMHO* (short for *in my humble opinion*), these shortened forms are not a good idea. The reader may not understand, and *TIAS.* See what I mean? *TIAS* is an abbreviation I just made up. It means "*that is a shame.*" How could you know what I am *TTS?* (*TTS* is another abbreviation I dreamed up. It stands for *trying to say.*) Besides avoiding misunderstanding, nonstandard abbreviations are, well, nonstandard. If you wish to present yourself as educated and intelligent, proper grammar is the best means of doing so.

Check the messages in the first column. Look at the potential meanings in the second column. Circle every meaning that a reasonable person may get from the message. Then decide whether the message is clear or unclear and place your answer in the third column.

Message	***Meanings***	***Clear or Unclear?***
1. Dinner at 7:30.	a. You must attend the dinner,which takes place at 7:30. b. Would you like to attend the dinner, which takes place at 7:30?	
2. Arriving early?	a. Do you expect to arrive early? b. Did you arrive early?	
3. Pam here now	a. Pam is here now. b. Pam was here.	
4. snow not today	a. It will not snow today. b. It will snow another day	
5. Max left meeting	a. Max left the meeting. b. Max left. We are still meeting.	

Here are the answers: 1. a – clear 2. a – clear 3. a – clear 4. a or b – unclear 5.

a – clear.

Writing Proper Emails

This morning a radio announcer declared that “email is dead.” According to this fellow, everyone texts or posts photos and updates on social media sites. I yelled at the radio, which, of course, did not yell back. “If email is dead,” I said, “why is my inbox overflowing?”

Before I go any further, I should explain what I mean by *email*. I am using the term to refer to messages that are a little more formal and may be much longer than a text. Yes, I know that emails and texts overlap somewhat. A message sent from a phone may show up in my email inbox. Also, traditional emails can be very short. I once answered a two-page email from a student asking me to postpone an exam with a one-word email message: *No*.

Because just about everyone uses email (despite what the radio announcer thinks), you may be writing to an employer, a teacher, or an elderly and very strict relative. Or, you may be writing to a friend. You present yourself to these groups of people in very different ways — and that means different standards of grammar and style. Turn to Chapter 2 for guidance on adapting your writing to suit potential readers.

Exploring email structure

You have probably written and received many emails. Have you ever taken a close look at their format? In this section, I go through each part of the email, explaining do’s and don’ts. Glance at the example of email format to see each element. ***Note:*** Depending upon the programs and device you use, your email may look a bit different. The basic ingredients of a proper email are the same, though, regardless of where everything appears.

An Example of Email Format

Subject: Repairs Completed

From: Mary Jones, Main Street Auto Repair

To: Catherine Berger

CC: Alan Smith

Dear Ms. Berger:

Your car repairs have been completed. Please call our service manager, Alan Smith, to arrange delivery. Thank you for entrusting your business to Main Street Auto Repair.

Best,

Mary Jones

Manager

To and From lines

Who is sending the message? To whom? The “to” and “from” lines of the email answer these questions. Of course, you know that the message is “to” you, if you received it. However, the “to” line informs you of other people who also received the email. (Sometimes their names appear with yours. They may also be listed separately, after “CC,” the abbreviation for “copy.”)

You do not have to format the “to” and “from” lines. Once you enter the email address of your reader, you are finished. If the person you are writing to is in your contact list, his or her name also appears automatically. The program inserts your own email address in the “from” line.

In the example of email format, Catherine Berger and Alan Smith received the message. (Alan’s name is on the “CC” or “copy” line.) The message was sent by Mary Jones, whose name is in the “from” line.

When you add someone to your contact list, be careful how you identify him or her. If you type “annoying customer” in the first and last name boxes, that phrase appears as the name. Also, when you open an email account, pause for a moment before you choose your identifier. You may enjoy a silly (or worse than silly) label for a moment, but do you want to be stuck with it for years? Consider how your screen name will look to a potential employer or to a teacher.

Subject lines

The *subject line* is the title of the email — the line that tells the reader what you are writing about. In the example of email format, “Repairs Completed”

is the subject. Check out these key points about subject lines:

- **Be sure to include a subject line in the email.** With no subject line, the person receiving your email ignores it. The time you spent writing the email will then be wasted. Also, the subject line begins the conversation with the reader, establishing what the reader should expect.
- **Make your subject line short and clear.** You want to get the point across, but you do not want the reader to turn away before checking the message. *Why You Should Hire Me to Manage Your Business* is too long. *Hiring* is too short. *Applying to Manage* is clear and may spark interest.
- **Do not attempt to shock or surprise.** No one likes spam (unwanted mass emails from strangers). Everyone is afraid of viruses. (Computer viruses, not the kind that Send you to the doctor.) If the subject line is too odd, the email will probably remain unopened.
- **Capitalize the subject line as if it were a title.** This practice is not always necessary. Some people choose to capitalize the first word of the subject line and nothing else. If you do treat the subject line as a title, be sure to do so correctly. (Chapter 17 explains everything you need to know about capitalizing titles.)
- **Update the subject line in later emails.** You can leave the same subject line in every reply, but sometimes an update is helpful. For example, suppose that the example of email format is a reply to an email asking about the repairs. The original subject line might be "Status of Repairs?" or something similar. Then the subject line of this message, "Repairs Completed," gives immediate and important information.

The greeting

You do not have to include a greeting line, but it is a nice touch. Greeting lines vary. Some are very formal, suitable for emails sent to those who outrank you. Others are friendly, good for friends and co-workers. In the example of email format, the greeting line is formal (Dear Ms. Berger:) because the person receiving the message is a customer.

Placement varies also. Some are better on the same line as the beginning of the message. Others should appear on a separate line. Here are some examples:

GREETING: Hi, Jane.

SUITABLE FOR: friend, co-worker

PUNCTUATION: period after the name, comma between *Hi* and *Jane*

PLACEMENT: message starts on the same line

GREETING: Hello, Andrew.

SUITABLE FOR: friend, co-worker

PUNCTUATION: period after the name, comma between *Hello* and *Andrew*

PLACEMENT: message starts on the same line

GREETING: Dear Jane,

SUITABLE FOR: friend, co-worker

PUNCTUATION: comma after the name

PLACEMENT: message begins on the next line

GREETING: Dear Ms. Smith,

SUITABLE FOR: teacher, supervisor, someone of higher rank

PUNCTUATION: comma after the name

PLACEMENT: message begins on the next line

GREETING: To the project manager:

SUITABLE FOR: an official, storeowner, unknown person in an official capacity

PUNCTUATION: colon after the title

PLACEMENT: message begins on the next line

Can you skip the greeting entirely? Yes! However, people are attracted to their own names or titles. Including a greeting may create a connection with your reader.

The body

The *body* in an email is not part of a murder investigation. It is the message itself. Write what you wish, but be aware that any fancy touches — italics, boxed information, and the like — may be lost when you hit “Send.” Various computer systems do not always communicate seamlessly. What appears to be a quotation mark on your screen may be a strange symbol on the reader’s.

If you wish to ensure that your reader sees *exactly* what you wrote, you can make your message a pdf (which stands for “Portable Document File”). A pdf is a sort of picture that you Send in an attached file.

Keep your message simple and brief. In the example of email format, the writer communicates what the customer needs to know without wasting time. No matter what, take a moment to reread your message before sending it. Even careful writers can make a misstake. Er … I mean *mistake*.

Closing

To conclude your email, you may wish to place one of these phrases (such as “Best” in the example of email format) on a separate line above your name, followed by a comma:

Best, (short for “best regards” or “my best wishes” and suitable for both formal and informal emails)

Hope to hear from you, (suitable for informal emails, also okay for slightly more formal messages)

Sincerely, (extremely formal)

Regards, (formal)

Your friend, (informal)

Kind regards, (formal)

Love, (informal and intimate)

When the closing contains more than one word, capitalize only the first word. Lowercase the additional words.

You may conclude your email simply by typing your name or your initials on

a separate line. If you rely on initials, use capital letters and do not insert periods. For example, I would type “GW” for “Geraldine Woods.”

One decision every writer makes, in emails and all other forms of communication, is the proper level of formality. Turn to Chapter 2 for a full discussion of this issue.

Writing for Websites and Social Media

Every tenth of a second, it seems, a hot new app or website appears. Suddenly, thousands of users desert one medium and flock to another. Chatting, commenting, blogging, posting — how can grammar keep up?

Actually, grammar *can* keep up. The details may change, but the basic principles of communication stay the same, no matter what the medium. So when you hit the Internet, keep these ideas in mind:

- **The audience matters.** When you comment on a friend’s site, slang and other types of informal language are acceptable. In a site with a large and unknown audience (say, the comments section accompanying an online article), bring out your most formal writing. (For a longer discussion of suiting your writing to the audience, check out Chapter 2.)
- **Be clear.** If you are posting a comment on a site for cat lovers, you can refer to *Manx* without explanation. Readers going to that site most likely know that *Manx* is a breed of cat. On a general site, *Manx* may require a definition. Similarly, stay away from abbreviations (except for the most common ones) when you are writing for a general audience. You have readers, not mind-readers. Why risk being misunderstood?
- **Remember that the Internet is public.** Yes, you can erect barriers that limit who can read your posts. A quick glance at the news, though, reveals that those barriers are often full of holes. More and more frequently, employers and college admissions officers check the Internet before hiring or accepting applicants. Do you want them to think that *U R* (you are) dumb *cuz* (because) you write non-Standard English? Checking up on you this way is unfair, I know. Nevertheless, it does happen!

Before you write, check out other comments or posts on the site or on similar sites (if you are starting your own). Notice what you like and dislike about others' work. Tailor your own writing accordingly.

Chapter 19

Presentation Slides and Bulleted Lists

In This Chapter

- Formatting slides for presentations
- Writing good titles for presentations
- Creating matching bullet points
- Punctuating and capitalizing bullet points

Do your knees shake when you have to give information to an audience? Perhaps you are worried about your presentation slides. Those slides, projected on a screen, focus the attention of your audience on key points. They also focus the attention of your audience on your grammar and punctuation skills. Any mistake you make is two-feet tall and lit up for all to see.

In this chapter, I show you how to write proper bullet points and create good presentation slides.

Ladies and Gentlemen, May I Present … Slides!

When someone makes a speech, how well do you listen? Be honest. Doesn't your attention wander from time to time? You hear a few sentences and then start thinking about dinner or the work piled on your desk.

Most people fade in and fade out during speeches. For this reason, presentation slides made with PowerPoint, Prezi, Keynote, and other computer programs are very popular. They give the audience a visual reference to return to after a small gap in attention.

Presentation slides come in many varieties. All have a few elements in common. Here is a sample presentation slide that shows the most common format.

Title

Introduction

- Bullet point
- Bullet point
- Bullet point

As you see in the sample presentation slide, a list follows the introduction. A *bullet point* — punctuation that marks the beginning of every item on the list — is a key element of a presentation slide. Bullet points may be checkmarks, little circles, arrows, or other designs.

In the sample presentation slide, you see three bullet points. You may have two, four, or more. (You cannot have one bullet point.) In a real presentation, a slide may also feature links to video clips and other visual elements (charts, photos, drawings, graphs, and so on). Some individual slides have titles.

A title may take the place of an introduction. Then your slide looks like this.

Title

- Bullet point
- Bullet point
- Bullet point

The title is centered. You may place the title on the left, if you like.

Avoid slides with bullet points but no title or introductory phrase. The audience will stare at the slide and wonder what the list is about. If

people are wondering, they are not listening! You want the audience to look at the slide *and* hear what you are saying.

In this section, you find more information about titles and introductions. (To find out how to format, capitalize, and punctuate bullet points, read "Writing Bullet Points," later in this chapter.)

The title

Every presentation has a focus, the topic you are explaining. A phrase stating that focus is the *title* of the presentation. Within the presentation, the main topic divides into subtopics. Each subtopic may have a title also.

A good title fits like a tailored suit. It is not too big. (Picture a suit that you and your best friend could squeeze into together — *not* a fashionable look!)

Nor should the title be too narrow. (A suit does not serve you well if it snags on your hips.) Instead, a title covers everything you say, and nothing more.

Here is an example of a presentation with right and wrong titles:

CONTENT: Information on Germany's industry and trade, including statistics about the auto industry and general manufacturing, estimates of economic growth, and possible trouble spots

TOO-BIG TITLE: Germany: Facts and Figures

WHY IT IS TOO BIG: A presentation with this title might be about population growth, land area, climate, education, and many other things.

TOO-NARROW TITLE: Germany's Auto Industry

WHY IT IS TOO NARROW: Part of the presentation concerns the auto industry, but not all.

JUST-RIGHT TITLE: Germany's Current and Future Economy

WHY IT IS JUST RIGHT: Industry and trade are part of the economy, as are the auto industry and general manufacturing. The "current and future" part of the title takes into account "economic growth" and "possible trouble spots."

Check out one more example:

CONTENT: Examination of the reign of Tutankhamun, a ruler in ancient

Egypt, including his associates and family, the change in religion during his reign, his early death, theories about the cause of his death, the discovery of his tomb in the 1920s, and public interest in his life and times.

TOO-BIG TITLE: Ancient Egypt

WHY IT IS TOO BIG: The presentation deals with Tutankhamun, one ruler of ancient Egypt. The title "Ancient Egypt" could cover thousands of years and discuss the daily life of ordinary people, other rulers, foreign relations, art, and many other topics.

TOO-NARROW TITLE: How Tutankhamun Died

WHY IT IS TOO NARROW: This title ignores associates, family, religion, and the discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb.

JUST-RIGHT TITLE: Tutankhamun: Life and Legacy

WHY IT IS JUST RIGHT: Tutankhamun's "life" includes his associates and family, the change in religion, and his death. His "legacy" takes into account his tomb, its discovery, and public interest.

When you place the presentation title on a slide, follow these guidelines:

- **The title appears on the first slide.** Usually, the title is alone or accompanied by photos or other types of illustration. It may be centered or placed so that it balances the visual material. Save the supporting text for other slides.
- **Capitalize the important words in the title.** Important words are nouns, verbs, and descriptions. Unimportant words, such as *a, an, the, to, from, by,* and so on should not be capitalized. (For more information on capitalizing titles, turn to Chapter 17.)
- **Do not enclose the title in quotation marks.** Because the title stands alone, it stands out! Quotation marks identify titles within a paragraph. You do not need them when the title is all by itself.
- **Do not place a period at the end of a title.** If the title is a question, a question mark appears at the end of the title.

Individual slides may have titles also. The title of a slide, like the title of the presentation as a whole, should refer to all the information on the slide. Stay

away from titles that are too general or too narrow. Place the slide title by itself, set off from the rest of the text. You may center the title on the first line of the slide or move it to the side. Do not place quotation marks around the title of a slide. Capitalize the important words. (For more information on capitalizing titles, refer to Chapter 17.)

Test your knowledge of titles. Look at these examples. If you see an error, correct it.

1. “Learning two languages: benefits and challenges”
2. Our Class Trip to Peru.
3. The Care And Feeding Of Canaries And Parakeets
4. “How the iPod changed the Music Industry” Since the invention of the iPod, the music industry has changed in these ways:

Here are the answers:

1. Remove the quotation marks and capitalize the important words:
   Learning Two Languages: Benefits and Challenges
2. Remove the period:
   Our Class Trip to Peru
3. Place unimportant words within the title *(and, of, and)* in lowercase:
   The Care and Feeding of Canaries and Parakeets
4. Place the title alone on a line. Center it. Remove the quotation marks. The rest of the text makes up your introduction:

How the iPod Changed the Music Industry

Since the invention of the iPod, the music industry has changed in these ways:

The introduction

Bullet points make up the bulk of your presentation. A bulleted list usually begins with an introduction, which may be just a couple of words or a complete sentence. Take a look at these sample introductions:

Entertainment supplied by

The entertainment will be

Entertainment:

The entertainment will be supplied by these bands:

Entertainment includes the following:

The first three examples are not complete sentences, but the last two are. (For more information on complete sentences, see Chapter 13.) Which is better? The answer is up to you! You may use either, as long as you capitalize and punctuate properly. ***Note:*** You may see other styles of capitalization and punctuation of presentation slides. Several formats are acceptable. Here I explain one common style. Whatever style you select, be consistent. Do not change the rules from slide to slide.

Here are guidelines for the most common style of punctuation:

- **When an introduction is a sentence, place a colon at the end.** A colon is one dot atop another (**:**). If the sentence is a question, a question mark takes the place of a colon. A colon and a question mark should not appear together.
- **If the introduction is not a complete sentence, you may not need any punctuation at the end.** If you read the introduction and a bullet point together, do they form one sentence? Do they make sense together? If so, do not place a colon after the introduction.
- **Do not place a colon after *is, was, will be,* and other forms of the verb *be.*** When you see a form of *be,* you know that the thought is incomplete. The bullet point finishes the thought that the introduction begins.

Therefore, a colon improperly interrupts the thought.

- **Capitalize the first word of the introduction.** That is the only word that is capitalized, unless the introduction includes a proper name. (For more information on capitalized names, see Chapter 17.)
- **The introduction begins at the left margin.** English words move from left to right on a line, so this placement makes sense.

Keep the introduction line short. The audience should be able to take in the idea with a quick glance. If too many words appear on the screen, the audience will not listen to what you are saying.

The rules for introduction lines are the same whether the introduction appears on the screen or on paper. If you are writing a letter or report and plan to include bullet points, follow the preceding guidelines.

Check out the first column, where you see introductions to lists of bullets. If you find a mistake, write the correction in the second column.

Introduction to List	*Corrected Introduction*
1. The fundraiser is:	
2. The Marketing Campaign Will Appear In	
3. Seven media outlets will participate.	
4. Why do we need a fundraiser?:	
5. Careers requiring college degrees include the following:	

Here are the answers: 1. *The fundraiser is* (remove the colon) 2. *The marketing campaign will appear in* (only capitalize the first letter of the first word) 3. *Seven media outlets will participate:* (use a colon instead of a period) 4. *Why do we need a fundraiser?* (remove the colon) 5. correct.

Writing Bullet Points

Bullet points are punctuation marks. They appear in lists on presentation

slides and also on paper. They may be plain (a simple dot) or fancy (a star or an arrow).

In this book, the bullet points at the beginning of a chapter are arrows. Within a chapter, they are checkmarks.

Bullet points are fairly new. If you look at a document that is a century old, you will not find any bullet points. They are popular now because they save time. You can read them quickly and absorb the most useful information with little effort.

Here — in a bulleted list! — are the basic principles of bullet points:

- **Each bullet point presents one idea.** A bulleted list is supposed to be easy to read. If you cram too much information into one bullet point, you lose that advantage.
- **Every list needs more than one bullet point.** Think of bullet points as subdivisions of a topic. You cannot divide a topic into one part.
- **You should introduce the bulleted list.** Occasionally, a slide has a title and a bulleted list, without an introduction. Most lists, though, benefit from a good introduction. For an example, look at the introduction to this bulleted list, which begins with the word *Here* and ends with a colon (one dot atop another).

  The introduction may also be in a different format. Read the section "The introduction," earlier in this chapter, for more information.

TIP

Bullet points on a presentation slide may be *very short.* You put a few words on the screen and add information as you speak. Bullet points on paper are often longer. Or, if they are short (as they are at the beginning of this chapter), more information appears later in the chapter or report.

Matching bullets

Police scientists examine bullets to see whether they match the gun at a crime scene. You examine bullets, too, but you do not check guns. Instead, you check grammar. The rule is simple: Every bullet point must have the same grammatical structure. In other words, if one bullet point is a complete sentence, all the bullet points should be complete sentences.

Take a look at the following lists. Notice how they match.

Beverages needed:

- soda
- water
- coffee
- tea

In this list, every bullet point is a noun (in this case, the name of a thing). The bullets on this list match. Here is another example.

The committee will

- prepare a budget
- rent space for the party
- hire the DJ
- sell tickets

Now the bullet points are actions that the committee will do. These bullet points also match. For comparison, next is a list that does *not* match.

All those attending the dance must

- pay cash
- They must show identification.
- wear appropriate clothing
- Rules must be followed.

When you read this list, do you “hear” the mismatches? The first and third items on the list begin with verbs (action words). The second and fourth items on the list are complete sentences.

Here is the corrected list:

All those attending the dance must

- pay cash

- show identification
- wear appropriate clothing
- follow the rules

Now every item on the list begins with a verb, what *those attending the dance must* do.

Check each list of bullet points. If they match, write “correct.” If you see a mismatch, change the item that does not fit.

1. Goals for next year:
    - to exercise more
    - to eat better
    - achieving a healthier lifestyle
2. At the next meeting, members will discuss the following topics:
    - theme of the annual dinner
    - outreach to the community
    - how the club is perceived
    - dues and fees
3. Wound care
    - Not removing the bandage for 24 hours.
    - After 24 hours, remove the bandage and wash the area with soap and water.
    - Cover the wound with antibiotic cream.
    - Place a clean bandage on the wound.

4.

Why should you study engineering?

- many job openings
- earning good salaries
- interesting work

Here are the answers: 1. Replace *achieving a healthier lifestyle* with *to achieve a healthier lifestyle* 2. Replace *how the club is perceived* with *perceptions of the club* 3. Replace *Not removing the bandage for 24 hours* with *Do not remove the bandage for 24 hours.* 4. Replace *earning good salaries* with *good salaries*.

Capitalizing and punctuating bullet points

Do you struggle when you have to capitalize and punctuate bullet points? If so, you have a lot of company! These issues can be confusing. Some involve unbreakable grammar rules, and others are style choices. Never fear. Here is everything you need to know about capital letters and punctuation in bullet points, both for presentation slides or within a report or letter:

- **Be consistent.** In the preceding section, I discuss matching bullet points in terms of grammar. Capitalization and punctuation should also match. In other words, if one bullet point begins with a capital letter, all the bullet points should begin with capital letters. (You do not always have a choice. See the next bullet point.)
- **Begin complete sentences with capital letters.** If your bullet point is a complete sentence, you have no choice. The first word in the sentence is always capitalized.
- **Bullet points that are complete sentences must end with a period, a question mark, or an exclamation point.** This is another grammar rule you must obey. Sentences always end with punctuation marks. Statements conclude with periods. The question mark, of course, is only for bullet points that are questions. Exclamation points are rare, but if you want extra emphasis, choose this punctuation mark.
- **If the bullet point is not a complete sentence, you do not need an**

endmark. Suppose that the bullet points are “cotton,” “polyester,” and “wool.” These bullet points are not complete sentences. You should not place a period after each bullet point.

- **If a bullet point completes a sentence that the introduction begins, do not capitalize the first word.** Read the introduction to the list along with the bullet point. Do they flow together and form one sentence? If so, do not capitalize the first word. The logic here is that you should not place a capital letter in the middle of a sentence, unless you need the capital for another reason (a name, perhaps). Here is an example:

  The actors must

  - attend all rehearsals
  - memorize Act I by Monday
  - wear their costumes every day

  As you see, the bullet points create three sentences: *The actors must attend all rehearsals. The actors must memorize Act I by Monday. The actors must wear their costumes every day.*

- **Some bullet points may begin with capital or lowercase letters.** You get to choose capitals or lowercase letters when the bullet point is not a complete sentence and does not finish a sentence that the introduction begins. Look at these examples. Both are correct:

  Director’s responsibilities:

  - Auditioning actors
  - Selecting set designers
  - Working with actors

  Director’s responsibilities:

  - auditioning actors
  - selecting set designers
  - working with actors

Check these bullets. If they are correct, leave them alone. If you find a mistake, fix it.

1.

Graduation requirements:

- Two years of math
- three English courses
- at least 18 credits in elective courses

2.

Our graduates work in many fields:

- medicine
- engineering
- computer programming

3.

Why should you choose our school?

- many graduates continue their studies in the finest graduate schools
- Our placement office finds jobs for 99% of graduating seniors.
- tuition is low.

Here are the answers: 1. Capitalize the first word of every bullet point *(Two, Three, At)* or begin all three with a lowercase letter *(two, three, at)* 2. correct 3. Capitalize *Many* and add a period at the end of the first bullet point. Capitalize *Tuition* in the third bullet point.

Chapter 20

Writing at School and on the Job

In This Chapter

- Writing essays and research papers
- Creating science laboratory reports
- Formatting business letters and memos

Unless you are the ruler of the entire world, you have a boss. At school, your boss is a teacher or a professor. At work, your boss is, well, the boss! Writing done for an authority figure — a boss — requires proper English. Plus, when you are writing at school or on the job, you must conform to additional standards — traditions built up over the years.

In this chapter, you take a look at the most common types of school and workplace writing. Mastering these will help you achieve better grades or perhaps a promotion and a higher salary.

A Is for Accomplished: Writing at School

It happens every school day, sometimes more than once a day. Your teacher assigns a report, an essay, a research paper, or something similar. You sigh and wonder, "How long until vacation?" No one likes homework or tests. But grasping the *conventions* — the basic format of these assignments — can make writing them easier.

Essays and research papers

An *essay* is a written discussion of an idea. Usually, an essay expresses a point of view — your opinion on the topic or the conclusion you have drawn from the information you presented in the essay. A *research paper* generally includes information (ideas, opinions, statistics) that you gathered from books, articles, and websites. A research paper may express your own view

on the subject or simply present a neutral overview of the topic. In this section are some guidelines for writing these works.

Business people write research papers, too. In the business world, these papers are generally called *reports.* Every guideline you see here applies to both academic papers and business reports.

Formal writing

Essays and research papers are formal. Slang words, a conversational tone, and most abbreviations have no place in these assignments. (You may use abbreviations attached to dates, such as *A.D.* or *C.E.* in formal papers. Both abbreviations refer to the modern or "common" era.) When you are writing an essay or a research paper, pretend that you are arguing a case before a judge or lecturing a group of scholars. The level of formality you would use in a courtroom or lecture hall is your goal. Take a look at these acceptable and unacceptable sentences for this type of assignment:

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: The plot is kind of complicated, with too much stuff to keep track of.

BETTER SENTENCE: With a complicated plot, the novel challenges the reader to keep track of events.

WHY IT IS BETTER: In the first version, *kind of* and *stuff* are too informal. The wording in the second sentence is more mature.

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: The general ordered his troops to attack very late in the battle. Big mistake! Lots of soldiers died.

BETTER SENTENCE: Because the general waited until late in the battle to order an attack, many soldiers died.

WHY IT IS BETTER: *Big mistake* and *lots of* are too informal. Also, the fact that soldiers died shows the mistake. The writer does not have to say *big mistake* at all.

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: This painting is all about color, lots of color, and nothing else but color.

BETTER SENTENCE: The most noticeable characteristic of this painting is its color.

WHY IT IS BETTER: The original version repeats *color* and tries to be cute. Academic writing should be more formal.

Identifying others' ideas

Robbing a bank is a crime. Stealing someone else's ideas is also a crime in the academic world (and sometimes in the business world, too). This crime, *plagiarism*, is a serious offense. Luckily, you can stay on the right side of the law by crediting your sources. You can do so in several different ways.

If you insert someone else's exact words into your own writing, you must be sure that the reader knows you are quoting. Place quotation marks around short quotations and insert them into the text. Take a look at these examples:

Historian Joan Smith said, "The economic downturn has led to lowered expectations for a better future and contributed to a rise in crime."

According to Smith, the trade agreement signed last year "damaged many parts of the economy," bringing hardship to a large number of people.

"Unemployment for factory workers will not improve for at least five years," she added.

She claims that the job market is "at crisis level in nearly every area of the country."

The quotation marks tell you what Joan Smith said. If you leave them out, your reader assumes that you linked a bad economy to the crime rate, discovered the consequences of the trade agreement, and analyzed the job market. You did not do these things. Joan Smith did. (Joan Smith is just an example, not a real person.)

As you see in these examples, the quotation may appear at the beginning of the sentence, at the end, or even in the middle. (For more information on punctuating and capitalizing quotations, turn to Chapter 16.)

Quotations that are longer than three lines should be centered as a small block of words. They stand out from the rest of your paper. Take a look at this example. It is not from a real source. I created it just for you:

Historian Alex Johnson has attempted to determine why the trial attracted so much attention. In *The Trial of Martha Martin*, he writes:

> *Some see sexism and the narrow roles assigned to women as the cause. However, economic gain is a more likely reason why the media covered the trial in great detail. All the major television networks sent representatives, and thousands of words appeared in traditional newspapers and magazines. Millions followed the trial on various websites. All these media outlets bring in millions of dollars in advertising money.*

Statistics provided by the Advertising Council support Johnson's view. In 2015, rates for television commercials … [The text continues here.]

Notice that the block quotation is not surrounded by quotation marks. The blocking takes the place of that punctuation.

If you are not directly quoting someone else's words in your paper, you may still have to give credit. Information and ideas that are not your own must be identified, even if you change the wording. If you explain Joan Dunne's ideas about the Salem Witch trials, for example, you must give credit to Joan Dunne. (Joan Dunne is not a real person. This name is just an example to illustrate the point.) When you mention statistics, identify the person supplying the statistics. You may identify the source in the text ("Joan Dunne believes that …") or in footnotes or parentheses.

Sometimes no name is available for a source. Instead, all you know is the name of the organization (the Advertising Council, perhaps). In this situation, give credit to the organization.

Teachers usually ask you to identify the source of a quotation, idea, or information in a *citation.* A citation is a footnote, a note at the end of a chapter, or a reference in parentheses. Several systems for formatting citations and bibliographies exist, and every teacher has a favorite. So does every subject area. Before you write, *ask* which system your teacher prefers. Then check the Internet or a reference book for the format. You may also

need to attach a list of sources to an essay or research paper. You can find out how to format this list in the same place you found the format for citations.

For a longer discussion of research papers and citations, you may wish to take a look at *Research Papers For Dummies* by Geraldine Woods (Wiley, 2002).

Without identifying the source, the reader will think that the idea or information comes directly from you. Give credit where credit is due.

Other formatting issues

Your essay or research paper should have a title. Some teachers do not require this step, but a title helps you focus your ideas. For a long essay or for a research paper, place the title on a separate page. For a short piece of writing, center the title at the top of the page. Do not place quotation marks around the title.

When you write a science paper, capitalize only the first word of the title and the first word of the subtitle, if you have one. Also capitalize proper names. Everything else should be in lowercase. When you write an English, history, or art paper, capitalize all the important words. Place unimportant words — *a, an, the,* and so on — in lowercase. Follow the same system for titles of other works that you mention within your paper. The title of an article should be inside quotation marks. Titles of full length works (novels, nonfiction books, plays, and so on) should be italicized or underlined. For more information on capitalizing titles, check out Chapter 17.

Verb tense also matters when you write an essay or a research paper. In general, use past tense for history papers, except for events that are still going on. Take a look at these examples. The past tense verbs are underlined:

> Rosa Parks <u>was</u> an activist for civil rights who <u>played</u> an important role in the Montgomery bus boycott.
>
> Alexander Fleming <u>discovered</u> penicillin in 1928.
>
> Julius Caesar <u>was</u> a Roman general and statesman whose victories <u>extended</u> the territory of the Roman Empire to modern Britain and

Germany.

Spanish soldiers, led by Hernando Cortes, defeated the Aztecs and colonized Mexico.

If you write about a work of literature or art, present tense is best. Why? The work does not change. Every time you open the book or look at the painting, the experience begins anew. Here are some examples, with the present tense verbs underlined:

Hamlet kills Polonius by accident.

In Goya's painting, two women stand on a balcony.

The poet calls darkness "comforting" and "tender."

Pip, the main character in the novel, meets a strange man in a cemetery.

Check these bits of essays and research papers. Are they acceptable or not? You decide.

Sample	***What It Is***	***Acceptable or Unacceptable***
1. "The Role of the Narrator"	title, centered on a line above an essay	
2. Henry Peters said, The war illustrated the limitations of troops fighting without proper equipment.	sentence in a research paper	
3. The character, in my humble opinion, is way too interested in gossip.	sentence from an essay for English class	
4. The artist believed that his art was unique, but experts have identified many influences on his personal style.	sentence from a research paper about Picasso	
5. Comic Art in France: A Survey	title of a research paper, alone on a title page	
	sentence from an	

6. Hamlet was angry at his mother.	essay for English class

Here are the answers: 1. Unacceptable. Titles centered alone on a line should not be enclosed by quotation marks. 2. Unacceptable. Quotation marks should enclose *The war illustrated the limitations of troops fighting without proper equipment.* 3. Unacceptable. The language is too informal for an essay. 4. Acceptable 5. Acceptable 6. Unacceptable. When you write about literature, use present tense. The verb *was* should be *is.*

Science lab reports

From middle school through graduate school, most science teachers set aside time for experiments. Students follow a series of steps, observing and collecting *data* (information) along the way. Then they come to a conclusion and write a lab report. Your teacher or professor may give you a sample laboratory report and ask you to format your own work in the same way. (If you do not receive a sample, ask for one!) Science lab reports vary somewhat, but a few rules apply to all.

References to others' experiments

Some lab reports begin with a summary of others' work in the same field. If you refer to the titles of scientific papers in your lab report, capitalize the titles in "sentence style." Capitalize the first word of the title of your report, as well as the first word of the subtitle (if you have one). Capitalize proper names. Everything else appears in lowercase (non-capitals). Here are some examples:

Pneumonia risk in newborns: The influence of nutrition

Population growth of common whale species

Irrigation techniques in the Gobi Desert: A comparative study

Generally, you do not need to quote directly from someone else's scientific paper. Scientists want the information, but the exact words are not important. Summarize or state the information in your own words. Be sure to give credit to the source.

Dates are another important element in lab reports. Science constantly moves forward, extending or correcting theories as new information appears. When you refer to someone else's experiment or theory, you should supply the date. The reader then understands how current the information is. Most scientists prefer the date to appear in this order: day-month-year, or, if no day is given, month-year. No commas appear within the date. Here are a few examples of dates in the scientific style:

10 May 1999

26 August 2014

June 2015

If you do not know the day or the month, simply write the year.

Reporting your own actions

Most of your laboratory report explains what you did, how you did it, and what results you obtained. When you report your actions, be specific. Also, write about the experiment, not about yourself. Take a look at these sample sentences:

BAD SENTENCE: I added sodium.

GOOD SENTENCE: Sodium was added.

WHY IT IS GOOD: *I* is not appropriate in a lab report.

BAD SENTENCE: We exposed the plant to sunlight.

GOOD SENTENCE: The plant was exposed to sunlight.

WHY IT IS GOOD: The focus of the sentence should be on the action, not on the people performing the action.

BAD SENTENCE: After the plant flowered, Jean measured the stem.

GOOD SENTENCE: After the plant flowered, the stem was measured.

WHY IT IS GOOD: *Jean* is not important. Focus on the action, not the person.

Notice that the "good" sentences use past tense. The experiment is over, and

the report explains what you did and what happened. Present tense does not fit this situation. For the same reason, you should also use past tense when you give information about others' experiments.

Be serious, factual, and formal when you write about an experiment. A science lab report is not the place to make a joke or to let your imagination loose. Present the information clearly. Use simple statements, and stick to formal language.

Other formatting issues

You have to present information you gathered during your experiment. Often you do so visually, in charts, graphs, tables, or diagrams. Each of these visual elements should be numbered and identified. Here is an example of a table.

In a paragraph, you may refer to "Table 1" as you analyze the information. Capitalize "Table."

Table 1 Number of flowers with and without fertilizer treatment

Plant type	*Number of flowers without fertilizer*	*Number of flowers with fertilizer treatment*	*Average width of flowers*
Rosa abyssinica	2	8	3 cm
Rosa arkansana	0	3	2.8 cm
Rosa carolina	1	1	6 cm

Numbers often appear in lab reports. As you see in the table, scientists use metric units for size, weight, and volume. In other words, you measure *meters*, *kilograms*, and *liters*, not *yards*, *pounds*, or *quarts.* Always abbreviate metric units. Most metric abbreviations are not capitalized. (*L* for "liter" and *C* for "Celsius" temperature are exceptions.) Place a space between the number and the metric unit, and omit periods within or after the abbreviation. The same abbreviation works for both singular (one unit) and plural (more than one unit). Take a look at these examples:

8 cm (eight centimeters)

1.5 kg (one point five kilograms)

55 ml (fifty-five milliliters)

2 L (two liters)

Take another look at the table. The scientific names of the plants (all types of roses) are italicized. All scientific names of plants and animals require italics. Common names, such as “rose,” do not need italics. Generally, the first word of a scientific name is capitalized and the rest is in lowercase. Sometimes, the first word may be abbreviated. Here are some examples, with identification in parentheses:

Homo sapiens (human beings)

E. coli (a virus)

Turdusmigratorius (robin)

Of course, if you are writing the report with a pen, not on a computer, you cannot italicize. In that case, write the name clearly. Do not attempt to reproduce italics by hand.

Measure your knowledge of scientific style. Are these bits of lab reports acceptable or not? You decide.

Sample	***What It Is***	***Acceptable or Unacceptable***
1. Acceleration of falling objects in a vacuum	title, centered alone on a title page	
2. The fertilized rose totally won, in terms of numbers of flowers.	sentence from the conclusion	
3. The fertilizer, I think, made a difference.	another sentence from the conclusion	
4. Approximately 2 ml of fertilizer were added to the soil every day for a month.	sentence explaining the procedure	
5. Temperature was kept at 4° c.	sentence explaining	

the procedure

Here are the answers: 1. Acceptable 2. Unacceptable. The language is too informal for a lab report. 3. Unacceptable. Do not use *I* in a lab report. 4. Acceptable 5. Unacceptable. The abbreviation for *Celsius* is *C*, not *c*.

Get to Work: Writing on the Job

In school, you may pay money (tuition and fees) to write. At work, someone pays you to write. That is a better arrangement, don't you think? However, writing on the job can make or break your career. If you write well, you may advance. If you write poorly, you may lose your position. In this section, you take a close look at the most common types of business writing, so every document you create is perfect.

Most word-processing programs provide templates — basic formats — for many types of business communications. When you bring one up on your screen, everything is in the right place. All you have to do is supply the content. In this section, I show you some standard formats and provide guidelines for how to use them correctly.

If your job involves writing business reports, follow the guidelines in the section "Essays and research papers," earlier in this chapter. Business reports are similar to the research papers you write (or wrote) in school.

Letters

Email and phone calls may be taking over the business world, but letters on paper are still around. When you write a business letter, you must include some important elements.

Take a look at this sample letter. Each part is labeled (all labels are in bold). Then read the instructions for each part.

NAME AND ADDRESS OF COMPANY:

Peterman Construction Company

5212 Calla Street
Anytown, New York 10021

DATE:

September 12, 2016

INSIDE ADDRESS:

Mr. George Dodge

1471 Second Avenue

Millerville, VT 05469

GREETING:

Dear Mr. Dodge:

BODY OF THE LETTER:

The repairs to your roof were completed two days ago. We hope that you are satisfied with our work. If you are, we would appreciate your sending us the final payment ($500). We look forward to working with you on future projects.

CLOSING:

Sincerely,

NAME OF SENDER:

Herman Denten

TITLE OF SENDER:

Project Manager

If you are printing the letter on official company paper, the top of the paper probably already has the company's name and address. If it does not, you can add this information yourself.

Take a look at each part of the letter:

- **The name and address of the company appears at the top of the page.** You may center the business name and do something creative, if you like. The point is to stand out! Do not include the company website or phone

number at the top. Instead, place it at the bottom. That way, the reader of the letter will not confuse the two.

- **The date may begin at the right margin or in the middle of the page.** In the sample you see a month-day-year format *(September 12, 2016)*, but you may also use day-month-year *(12 September 2016)* instead. If the day comes first, do not insert commas. You may also use numbers instead of words (*6* instead of *June*, for example). Be careful, though. In some countries, the day comes before the month. In others, it follows. Your reader may see *9/12* and read it as *September 12* or *December 9*.
- **The inside address contains the name and address of the person you are writing to.** Use *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.*, or any other title that fits. Capitalize the abbreviation and end the abbreviation with a period. Use both the first and last names, if you know them.
- **The greeting in a business letter is formal.** Stay away from *Hi*, *Hello*, and other such words. *Dear* or *To* are better choices. Generally, omit the first name of the person you are writing to. Attach the title (for example, *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, or *Dr.*) to the last name. Follow the greeting with a colon (one dot atop another), not a comma.
- **The body of the letter should be simple and dignified.** Formality and courtesy are important when you write to an employee or customer. Steer clear of slang, and do not wander off topic. Write the message in simple, clear language.
- **The closing appears alone on a line.** *Sincerely*, *Yours truly*, *Kind regards*, and similar formal phrases are fine. Do not write *Your friend* or something similar. In business, you do not have friends! You have co-workers, supervisors, and customers. Follow the closing with a comma.
- **Your name and title, on separate lines, complete the letter.** Include both your first and last names, and a middle initial if you like. Capitalize your title: *Director of Marketing*, *Sales Assistant*, and so on.

TIP

You can adapt this letter format for recommendations, performance reviews, sales opportunities, and many other situations. The only portion of the letter that changes is the body, where the message appears.

Everything else stays the same.

Memos

Memos are communications sent within a company — from boss to employee or from one employee to another. They are more formal than most emails. Here is a sample memo, in a popular format.

PERSON RECEIVING THE MEMO:

To: Samantha Friedman

PERSON SENDING THE MEMO:

From: Elizabeth Gordon, Vice President of Marketing

SUBJECT LINE:

Re: Performance review

DATE:

Date: June 12, 2016

MESSAGE:

All sales associates will meet with me individually during the month of July for the annual performance review. Please call my secretary (ext. 333) for an appointment.

As you write a memo, keep these ideas in mind:

- **When you fill in the "to" and "from" lines, use full names (first and last).** You may include the job title, if you wish. Capitalize the important words in the job title. Remember that *To* and *From* should be followed by colons, not commas.
- **If you send a copy to another person, include a "CC" line.** *CC* is an old abbreviation. It used to mean *carbon copy,* in the days when copies were made with carbon paper. No one uses carbon paper now, but the abbreviation remains. Most often, this abbreviation is capitalized. Lowercase is also fine. (Choose one or the other. Do not capitalize one letter and not the other.) Either way, follow the abbreviation with a colon. Then write the names of the people who should receive copies.
- **Write a clear subject line.** You must capitalize the first word. If you like,

you may capitalize all the important words, or leave the rest in lowercase. The subject line should be short, just long enough to let the reader know what the memo is about.

- **Include the date.** Here you see the traditional month-day-year format. You can change that pattern to day-month-year. You may also drop the name of the month and insert a number (*6* instead of *June*, for example). Be careful, though. In some countries, the day always comes before the month. In others, it follows. Your reader may see 6/12 and read it as *June 12* or *December 6.*
- **Keep the body of the memo clear, formal, and short.** Get your message across politely, omitting unnecessary words and comments.
- **Initial the memo, but do not sign it.** Place your initials next to your name on the *From* line. Use a pen! A memo has no closing or signature line.

Emails and other electronic media

If you work in an office, you probably send many emails to co-workers, supervisors, and clients. You may also at times send texts or instant messages. These media are fairly new, and they may seem informal. However, you must still follow grammar rules when you write them.

In a business setting, emails and other electronic communications must be somewhat formal. Above all else, the message must be clear. A friend may understand your meaning if you abbreviate and skip some words. A client or a fellow worker may not. Turn to Chapter 18 for more information on electronic media.

QUICK QUIZ

See whether you understand how to write a business letter or a memo by completing the following table.

Sample	***What It Is***	***Acceptable or Unacceptable?***
1. To Mr. Carmen,	greeting line in a business letter	
2. Peterson		

222 Main Street Centerton, NY 11001	inside address of a business letter (name and address of the person receiving the letter)
3. Very truly yours,	closing of a business letter
4. 2016 June 14	date of a memo
5. C.C. Lorna Francis	copy line in a memo

Here are the answers: 1. Unacceptable. A colon, not a comma, should follow the name. 2. Unacceptable. *Peterson* should not appear all by itself. Add *Mr.* or *Ms.* or whatever title fits. Also insert the first name, if you know it. 3. Acceptable 4. Unacceptable. The year should not appear first. Change to *June 14, 2016* or *14 June 2016.* 5. Unacceptable. Do not insert periods into the abbreviation *CC.* Place a colon after the abbreviation.

Part VI

Common Errors

Perfecting Your English Skills

Little things mean a lot. That is an old saying, and in writing, it's true. Paying attention to spelling, word choice, and word order pays off, convincing your readers that you have mastered the language. The best writers consider these issues:

- **Spelling:** You cannot memorize every word in the English language. There are too many! You can learn some simple rules to improve your spelling. You can also memorize some words that are frequently misspelled. Check Chapter 21 to discover the path to better spelling.
- **Confusing words:** English has many word-twins that sound alike — or almost alike — but differ in meaning. In Chapter 22, you see how to select the proper word for every sentence.
- **Common mistakes:** Descriptions add flavor to your writing. If you place a description in the wrong spot, though, you lose the intended meaning. Pronouns (words such as *he, them,* and so forth) are also useful, but only if they are clear. Chapter 23 shows you to handle descriptions and pronouns. In the same chapter, you see how to avoid double negatives, another mistake that is all too easy to make.

For a bonus article on Conquering Spelling Devils, go online and take a look at `www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar`.

In this part …

- Discover rules that make proper spelling easier.
- See the difference between affect and effect, principal and principle, and other word-twins.
- Place descriptions where they belong.
- Ensure that the meaning of every pronoun is clear.
- Identify negative statements that work, and those that do not.

Chapter 21

Spelling Your Way to Perfection

In This Chapter

- Exploring spelling rules
- Tracking common spelling errors
- Improving spelling with computer programs and the dictionary

One of the first things readers notice is spelling. If they see “a missteak” (a *mistake*), they may not pay attention to the message. English spelling is hard. You cannot become a perfect speller instantly, but you can improve little by little.

In this chapter, I explain some spelling rules. I also review some words that puzzle many writers. Finally, I tell you how computer programs, smartphone apps, and the dictionary help you become a champion speller.

Following the Rules of English Spelling

In some wonderful languages, what you see is what you say. The written form follows strict rules. You see a pair of letters in many different words, and you say them the same way, every time. Sadly, English is *not* one of those wonderful languages. Read these words aloud:

th<u>ou</u>ght

d<u>ou</u>gh

d<u>ou</u>bt

The letters *ou* appear in every word. In *thought*, the *ou* sounds like *aw*. In *dough*, the same letters sound like *oh*. In *doubt*, the pair sounds like *ow*. Crazy, right?

You often have to memorize words or look up proper spelling. However, English does follow some patterns. Not many, but some! In this section, I explain a few rules that help you write correctly.

One spelling rule that you should memorize involves a change from *y* to *i* when you add the letters *s* or *es* to make a plural noun (more than one person, place, or thing). For example, the plural of *monkey* is *monkeys*, but the plural of *city* is *cities*. Why? In the first example *(monkeys)*, a vowel (*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, or *u*) comes right before the *y*. The *y* does not change in that situation. In the second example *(city)*, the letter before the *y* is not a vowel. In that case, the *y* changes to *i* and you add *es*. For a longer explanation of this rule and more examples, see Chapter 3.

I before E

Do you know this little rhyme?

I before *E*

except after *C*

unless sounded like *A*

as in *neighbor* and *weigh*

The rhyme explains a spelling rule:

- **The letter *i* comes before the letter *e* most of the time.** Check out these examples: *friend*, *believe*, *field*, *chief*, *niece*. In every word, the letter *i* is first, followed by the letter *e*.
- **After the letter *c*, put the letter *e* before the letter *i*.** Take a look at these examples: *receive*, *ceiling*, *deceive*, *receipt*. After the letter *c* in every word, you see *ei*.
- **If the letters *e* and *i* combine to sound like the letter *a*, the *e* comes before the *i*.** Here are some examples: *neighbor*, *weigh*, *vein*, *reign*, *freight*. Do you hear the *a* sound in each? That sound comes from the *ei*.

Some words do not follow this rule. Here are a few: *ancient, their, science, efficient, fancied.* If you are not sure how to spell a word, check the dictionary.

In this table, you find some correctly spelled words and a couple of mistakes. If you see a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column.

Word	***Correct? Proper Spelling?***
1. acheive	
2. shield	
3. breif	
4. their	
5. thief	
6. wieght	

Here are the answers: 1. *achieve* 2. correct 3. *brief* 4. correct 5. correct 6. *weight.*

Double letters

Take a look at the pairs in this table. In the first column, you see a word with the vowel underlined. (Vowels are *a, e, i, o,* and *u.*) In the second column, you see the word with the letters *ed* or *ing* added to the end.

Original	***With ed or ing***
b<u>a</u>g	ba<u>gg</u>ing
d<u>o</u>t	do<u>tt</u>ed
h<u>i</u>t	hi<u>tt</u>ing
s<u>e</u>t	se<u>tt</u>ing
c<u>u</u>t	cu<u>tt</u>ing

Did you notice that the last letter of the original word doubles when you add *ing* or *ed* to the end? These words have some things in common:

- The original words are short. They have just one *syllable*, or sound.
- In the original words, the vowels are also *short.* A vowel is one of these letters: *a, e, i, o, u.* Any vowel can be short or long. A short vowel does not say its name. Say the words in the first column, and listen to the vowels. In *hit*, for example, you do not hear the name of the letter *i.* To see the difference, say these words and listen to the long vowels in them: *okay* (long *o*, long *a*), *be* (long *e*), *sigh* (long *i*), *cute* (long *u*).
- In the table, the original words do not end with vowels. The word *bag*, for example, ends with the letter *g*. The letter *g* is not a vowel. All the letters that are not vowels are *consonants.*

When you add *ed* or *ing* to a short word with a short vowel that ends with a consonant, double the consonant.

Sometimes you double the final consonant in longer words, too, when you add *ed* or *ing.* Read these words. Pay attention to the sound of the original words in the first column:

Original	***With ed or ing***
begin	begi<u>nn</u>ing
occur	occu<u>rr</u>ed
commit	commi<u>tt</u>ing
control	contro<u>ll</u>ed

When you say the original words aloud, you hear that the accent — the stress — is on the last part of the word. You say

beGIN, not BEgin

In this situation, the final consonant doubles when you attach *ed* or *ing.*

In this table, you find some correctly spelled words and a couple of mistakes. If you see a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column.

Word	***Correct? Proper Spelling?***
1. claimmed	
2. planned	
3. spinning	
4. puting	
5. runing	
6. beged	

Here are the answers: 1. *claimed* 2. correct 3. correct 4. *putting* 5. *running* 6. *begged.*

Double letters cause trouble in other situations, too. See "Mastering Spelling Demons," later in this chapter, for more information.

Dropping the silent E

Read these words. Notice that the last vowel, an *e*, is silent:

serve

love

compete

remove

dine

hope

rule

Many English words end with a silent *e*. Often, if you skip that last letter, you end up with a completely different word. *Hate* becomes *hat*, and *hope* turns into *hop.* Do not forget to place the silent *e* where it is needed!

Say *hate* and *hat* aloud. Do you hear the difference in the letter *a?* Often, the silent *e* is a signal that the vowel before it is long. That's why *hate* has a long vowel *(a),* and *hat* has a short vowel (also *a*).

The rule for words ending with a silent *e* has two parts:

- Keep the silent *e* if you add letters to the end of the word, and the first added letter is a consonant (any letter except *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, or *u*):
  - hate — hate<u>ful</u>
  - pale — pale<u>ness</u>
  - manage — manage<u>ment</u>
- Drop the silent *e* if you add letters to the end of the word, and the first added letter is a vowel (*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, or *u*):
  - arrive — arriv<u>ing</u>
  - pure — pur<u>ity</u>
  - nerve — nerv<u>ous</u>

You probably will not be surprised to hear that the silent *e* rule has exceptions. All English spelling rules have exceptions! Here is one:

dye (to change the color of cloth) — dyeing

As always, if you are not sure how to spell a word, check the dictionary.

See how well you know the silent *e*. If you see a misspelled word in the first column, write the correct spelling in the second column. To help you, the words you are looking at are in sentences and underlined.

Word	***Correct? Proper Spelling?***
1. A tiger's <u>bit</u> can kill you.	
2. Mary is <u>givving</u> a concert this evening.	
3. <u>Haveing</u> a cold is miserable, but if you <u>takcar</u> of yourself, you will heal soon.	
4. Andrew was <u>driving</u> when he <u>hite</u> that tree.	
5. If the soap is <u>pur</u>, it will float.	
6. Play <u>nicely</u> with the other children!	

Here are the answers: 1. *bite* 2. *giving* 3. *Having, take, care* 4. correct, *hit* 5. *pure* 6. correct.

Mastering Spelling Demons

You may be wondering what "spelling demons" are. No, they are not supernatural monsters. Spelling demons are groups of words that often trick writers. Many people misspell them. With a little care, though, you will always spell these words correctly.

How does the word end?

Read this paragraph. Look closely at the underlined words:

> Sandy was absent from school because she went to see the doctor. She was not ready for the grammar test. Sandy's mom, a professor, wrote a note to the teacher. "Please excuse my daughter from this exam," she wrote.

Every underlined word ends in *ar, er,* or *or.* These ending letters are different, but when you say the words aloud, the endings sound the same. (Isn't English great? Three ways to spell the same sound! Three spelling problems!) When you write these words, be careful. Here is a table to help you remember.

AR Endings	***ER Endings***	***OR Endings***
grammar	lawyer	doctor
scholar	plumber	tutor
dollar	builder	actor
collar	better	mentor
polar	counter	bachelor
burglar	writer	author
circular	kinder	director
molar	anger	editor
similar	climber	creator
spectacular	gangster	favor

The word *kinder* is a comparison: “Mary is *kinder* than Tom.” When you are making a comparison, the word usually ends with *er.*

Another type of spelling demon is a word that ends with either *ant* or *ent.* These three-letter groups sound the same, so they are easy to confuse. Check this table:

ANT Ending	***ENT Ending***
important	different
pleasant	dependent
constant	argument
elegant	requirement
assistant	accent
instant	adolescent
irrelevant	client
immigrant	department
protestant	employment
tenant	monument

One more pair of word endings — *ible* and *able* — also confuses people. Read the words in this table:

IBLE Words	***ABLE Words***
visible	dependable
possible	washable
incredible	affordable
horrible	acceptable
sensible	understandable
responsible	reasonable

No rule guides you automatically to the right choice between *ible* and *able*. However, *able* generally attaches to complete words. If you cross

out *able* in every word in the second column, you see a real word (*depend*, *wash*, and so on). If you cross out *ible*, you do not find a real word.

If you read these lists aloud once a week, gradually you will remember how to spell the words. Of course, these lists could be much longer! Many English words end the same way. If you do not know how to spell an ending, the dictionary helps.

One or two?

Are you *dissapointed* or *disappointed* or *disapointed* in your spelling skills? Deciding when to double a letter is annoying. Most often, you have to memorize the spelling. (One rule will help you figure out whether you need to double a letter when you add *ing* or *ed* to a word. See "Following the Rules of English Spelling," earlier in this chapter, for more information.)

Here are some demons that give you double trouble. I underline the spots where many people make a spelling error (doubling when one letter is needed or placing one letter where two is correct):

enroll	disgust	wedding	usually
embarrass	baggage	really	sudden
apartment	occur	commitment	excellent
opposite	unnatural	casually	lose (not be able to find)
appear	special	immediately	loose (not tight)

Two phrases are sometimes mistakenly written as one word, when two words are correct: *a lot* (many) and *all right* (fine, agreed).

Which vowel?

Vowels — *a, e, i, o, u* — can confuse spellers. Long vowels (those that sound like the name of the letter, like the *e* in *be*) are easier than short vowels (like the *e* in *wet*). Why? Short vowels often sound like each other. Also, sometimes their sound blends into the word, so you may not realize that they are present. Here are some spelling demons that cause vowel problems. The trouble spots are underlined:

separate	definite	cause	among
persuade	recognize	despair	jewelry
obey	nursery	division	officer
extraordinary	February	category	disguise

Correct or misspelled? You decide. If you find a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column of the following table.

Word	***Correct? Proper Spelling?***
1. carpentor	
2. speler	
3. independant	
4. catagory	
5. occurr	
6. calendar	

Here are the answers: 1. *carpenter* 2. *speller* 3. *independent* 4. *category* 5. *occur* 6. correct.

Checking the Dictionary for Spelling Help

Rules and memory provide wonderful help with spelling. Sometimes, though, no rule applies, and you cannot remember how to spell a word. That is the time to seek help. The dictionary is the final authority on English spelling — and much more. You can turn to a book or to an online dictionary. Both give you the same information.

Dictionaries list words in alphabetical order. It is difficult to look up a word if you do not have a clue how to spell it. Try turning to the section that seems to match the first couple of letters in the word you need. (If you are working with an online dictionary, type those letters.) Look around a bit until you see a word that matches the meaning you want.

Some smartphones come with a program that recognizes speech. If you say the word, it appears on the screen. Before you use that spelling, check the word in a dictionary. The phone cannot tell the difference between many common words, so *lead* (the metal) may turn into *led* (directed, ruled). Check the definition of the word before you insert it into your writing. Be sure that the definition matches the meaning you want.

Dictionaries are great, but so are people. If a teacher or a friend who is a good speller is nearby, ask! Most people feel good about assisting others and will happily spell a word for you.

Each word in the dictionary is explained in an *entry.* Dictionary entries can be confusing because they throw in a lot of information. Here is a sample dictionary entry of the word *comfort:*

> **comfort** ’kəm - fərt
>
> v. 1. to ease someone’s worry or pain. “The doctor will comfort the injured child.” 2. to help someone deal with grief. “Mourners at the funeral comfort the family.”
>
> n. 1. the act of comforting. “Jane offered comfort to her friend.” 2. the quality of ease. “In this car, you travel in comfort.” 3. a physical feeling characterized by lack of pain or stress. “Bill valued comfort more than convenience.”

Here is how to read this entry:

- **First you see the word.** I placed *comfort* in bold type. You may see it that way or in a different color or typeface.
- **Next is the pronunciation.** Online, you can listen to someone say the word. On paper, a set of special symbols tells you how to pronounce the word. The key to the symbols appears at the beginning or the end of the dictionary.
- **The part of speech appears next.** Usually, this information is

abbreviated. You see *v.* for *verb* and *n.* for *noun.* Other words may be labeled as *adj.* (adjective) or *adv.* (adverb). You also find *p.* for *pronoun*, *prep.* for *preposition*, and *conj.* for *conjunction.* One abbreviation, *int. (interjection)* is rare because not many words fall into this category.

- **Definitions are numbered in the order of importance.** The most common definition comes first, followed by other meanings that appear less frequently.
- **Most dictionaries include sample sentences.** These sentences show you how to use the word properly.

The dictionary may also tell you the origin of the word. *Comfort*, for example, comes from the Latin language (meaning “with strength”).

The format of your dictionary may be a little different. Do not worry! All the information you need should still be there.

Chapter 22

Tricky Word Traps

In This Chapter

- Exploring sound-alike words with different meanings
- Knowing the difference in meaning between one- and two-word expressions
- Avoiding incorrect expressions

Do you know any identical twins? At first, they appear to be exactly the same. After a while, you learn that Barry loves sports, and Ben hates them. Helena sings opera, and Susan cannot stay in tune. English has some identical twins also. Like humans, identical word-twins are the same in some ways and different in others. The English language also includes word pairs that are nearly, but not exactly the same.

Both types of word-twins stump many writers. In this chapter, you take a close look at them so you can choose the right word for every sentence. You also examine some common expressions that are not correct in Standard English.

Same Sounds, Different Spelling: Sorting Out Word Pairs

> When you fall, are you in pain or in pane? Do you accept or except an award?

In the first sentence, the underlined words sound exactly the same. Their definitions, though, are totally different. In the second sentence, the underlined words sound nearly the same. They too differ in meaning.

In this section, you sort out these confusing words.

Homonyms

Is a principal or a principle running your school?

These words are *homonyms* — a fancy term for words that sound the same but look different and mean different things. Why does English have these confusing pairs? Just to make your life miserable. Okay, I'm joking. Your life does not have to be miserable! In this section, you learn some common homonyms, so you know which spelling expresses the meaning you want.

Study these sentence pairs. Pay close attention to the underlined word and the explanations that follow each pair.

The ball broke a pane of glass.

When the ball landed on my foot, I cried out in pain.

A *pane* is a sheet of glass in a window. A window may have only one pane, or it may be divided into smaller units, usually with wooden or metal strips. The piece of glass in each section is a *pane*. *Pain* is the discomfort you feel when you are hurt or sick. Both *pane* and *pain* are nouns. That is, they name things.

Now examine this pair:

He believes in the principle of fair play.

The principal told the students to be quiet.

A *principle* is a basic belief, a standard that guides behavior. A *principal* is a person with authority. Usually, a *principal* has power over an entire group. In a school, for example, the *principal* gives orders to the teachers and to the students. Some people remember the spelling of this word by saying, "The principal is a pal." *Principal* may also be a banking term. If you need money, the *principal* is the amount you borrow. If you invest money, the *principal* is the sum you invest:

Most borrowers pay interest on a loan first, and then they repay the principal.

Jean never withdrew the interest she earned from that stock. Instead, she added her earnings to the principal. Each year, her savings grew.

In these examples, *principle* and *principal* are nouns — names of people and things. *Principal* may also function as a description, meaning "most important." For example:

> The principal reason for changing careers was boredom. She hated her job!

In this example, *principal* is an adjective. For more information on nouns, see Chapter 3. Turn to Chapter 6 to learn about adjectives.

Do you know the difference between these three short, confusing words?

> Walk to the library.
>
> Borrow two books.
>
> Max needs books too.
>
> Do not spend too much time at the library.

To means "toward." *Two* is a number. *Too* may mean "also." This meaning appears in the third example sentence. Sometimes *too* means "overly." That is the definition of *too* in the last example.

Now look at another set of three:

> The vain actors admired their photos.
>
> The doctor injected medicine into a vein.
>
> There is a weather vane on the roof.

People who are *vain* are too proud of themselves, especially of their physical appearance. A *vain* person may also brag about intelligence, wealth, or another quality. If you call someone *vain*, you are not giving praise. *Veins* are blood vessels. A *vane* is a weather instrument. A *vane* usually sits on a roof. It turns to show the direction of the wind.

Here are still more triples:

> Buy a bathing suit before you go on vacation.

"Bye!" said Sally as she left.

The best suits were designed by Simone.

Buy means "purchase." In Standard English, *buy* is always a verb — an action. Some people also use *buy* as a noun:

Only fifty dollars! You got a good buy!

This usage is fine in friendly conversations, but it is not correct in formal writing. *Bye* is short for *goodbye*. It is correct, but less formal than the full word. *By* is a preposition, a word that reveals a relationship. (For more information on prepositions, turn to Chapter 7.) In the example sentence, *by* relates *designed* to *Simone* and shows that *Simone designed the best suits. By* may also mean "near" or "past":

Gloria rode her bicycle on the path by the highway.

Are you tired of triplets? Try this pair:

I am pleased that you feel better.

Your eye has healed well, and you can see perfectly.

I is the person speaking or writing. An *eye* is a body part that you see with.

I, myself, and *me* all refer to the speaker or writer. These words are not interchangeable. You cannot substitute one for another. To understand the correct usage of *I, myself,* and *me,* read Chapter 4.

Take a look at this pair:

Drew will be here soon, and he will not be pleased with your behavior.

Did that bee sting you?

Be is a verb. *Be* means "appear" or simply expresses what *is* — a state of being. A *bee* is an insect, the kind that buzzes, stings, and makes honey. *Bee* is a noun.

Check out this pair:

Come here now.

I hear loud music.

Here means “this place.” *Hear* is “to sense sound” — what you do when you listen.

Do you have the energy for more? Look at these sentences:

The weather has been terrible this winter.

He is deciding whether to go away for vacation or to stay home.

Weather refers to temperature, rain, sun, and so on — the daily conditions you experience when you are outside. *Whether* sets up a choice between two actions. Sometimes both actions appear in the sentence, as they do in the second example sentence. Sometimes, a sentence with *whether* does not state two actions:

She did not tell us whether she would attend the party.

In this example sentence, the words “or not” are understood. Here is the sentence again, with those words added in:

She did not tell us whether or not she would attend the party.

Check this pair:

The general led the troops into battle.

Lead paint is dangerous.

Led is an action in the past. It means “directed.” *Lead*, pronounced the same way as *led*, is a type of metal.

Lead, pronounced with a long *e* (when you hear the name of the letter *e*), is an action in the present. It means “to direct.” Here is an example of *lead* (long *e*) in a sentence:

George and Martin always lead the committee.

Unless you need to stop for a moment and take a break, examine these sentences:

A driver presses the brake to stop the car.

Brake well in advance of the railroad crossing.

I hope the dishes do not break in the moving van.

Sally needs a break, so she will rest now.

In the first example, *brake*, a noun, is a mechanical object that slows or stops motion. In the second example, *brake* is a verb, representing the action of slowing or stopping. In the third example, *break* is also an action word meaning "to crack or split." In the last example, a *break*, a noun, is a rest or a pause in action.

Keep your energy up! Here is the last set:

In the past, only men were allowed to vote.

She walked past the bank.

Mary passed the other runners and won the race.

The *past* is a noun meaning "the time before the present." *Past* may also be a preposition, relating ideas. In the second example sentence, *past* means "in front of" or "farther along." In the last example, *passed* means "went in front of."

You probably noticed that *passed* and *past* can share one meaning: "in front of." *Passed* is an action that took place before the present time. It means "went in front of." *Passed* is a verb. When "Mary passed," she did something. *Past*, when it means "in front of," describes a movement. It is not an action and is not a verb. For more information on verbs, see Chapter 5.

Apostrophes — little curved hooks raised above the line — change meaning. Chapter 14 helps you decide between *your* and *you're*, *they're* and *there*, *who's* and *whose*, and *it's* and *its*.

Spell-check programs on a computer or smartphone do not detect the difference between a homonym and its partner. For example, you can write

Eye sea the whether vain.

when what you really mean is

I see the weather vane.

The computer accepted the first sentence, which makes no sense. If you are unsure about the spelling of a word, check the dictionary.

See whether you can choose the correct word for each blank. Your choices appear in parentheses.

1. ____ (I, eye) watched television for ten hours, and now my right _____ (I, eye) hurts.
2. What path _____ (led, lead) you to a career in medicine?
3. The decision is based on the _____ (principal, principle) of justice for all, according to the school _____ (principal, principle).
4. "I do not want to talk about the _____ (past, passed)," said Anne as she _____ (past, passed) the house she once lived in.
5. _____ (To, Two, Too) hours is _____ (to, two, too) much time _____ (to, two, too) waste on homework.

Here are the answers: 1. *I, eye* 2. *led* 3. *principle, principal* 4. *past, passed* 5. *Two, too, to.*

Similar, but not alike: Other word pairs

Please <u>accept</u> my apology. I invited everyone <u>except</u> you to my party.

Okay, I am lying. I never give parties. If I did, I would invite you! I wrote

those sentences to show you some word pairs that are spelled nearly the same. They are close in sound, also, but not in meaning.

Check out this example:

> "I accept!" cried Maria when we offered her the job.
>
> Everyone except Mark applied to that college.

Accept means "agree to." You can *accept* a job, a marriage proposal (congratulations!), a prison sentence (oh no!), and many other things. *Accept* is a verb, an action that someone does. *Except* is a word that places limits. It means "not including." If all the boys *accept* Roger, they like him. They let him be part of their group. If the group includes all the boys *except* Roger, they do not like him. They do not allow him into their group. *Except* is a preposition, a word that shows the relationship between one idea and another in a sentence. (For more information on verbs, refer to Chapter 5. For everything you ever wanted to know about prepositions, turn to Chapter 7.)

Now look at this pair of demons. (I say "demons" because many, many people have trouble with these words.)

> Lynn's actions affect the team.
>
> The effect of her laziness is obvious, because the players work harder when she is absent.

Affect is a verb. It means "to influence." In the first example sentence, Lynn's actions influence the players. Perhaps she arrives late to practice. Maybe she sits on the sidelines, complaining. Whatever Lynn does *affects* the team. In the second example sentence, *effect* is a noun. The definition of *effect* is "result or consequence." (You may have heard the expression "cause and *effect*.")

Now go shopping for the perfect outfit. Some items are available for free!

> The blue skirt and the yellow jacket are complementary.
>
> Dan gave Angela a complimentary scarf because she shops at his store often.

Complementary is a description. When things or people are *complementary,*

they go well together. Reread the first example sentence. Picture a lovely outfit. The skirt and the jacket would each look fine alone. When they are together, however, they are even more attractive. The blue skirt makes the yellow look brighter, and the yellow jacket mellows the blue. *Complimentary* — with just one different letter — means "free." This word is also a description. In the second example sentence, Angela pays nothing for the scarf. How nice of Dan to reward a loyal customer with a free gift!

Now look at these almost-twins:

> David bought paper at that stationery store.
>
> David bought stationery with his company credit card.
>
> She rides her stationary bicycle every day.

Stationery may be a noun or a description. If it's a noun, it means "school or office supplies" such as paper, pens, envelopes, and so on. If it's a description, it tells you about the place where these supplies are bought, sold, or stored. *Stationary* is a description meaning "fixed in one spot, not moving or changing."

See whether you can select the correct word from the pairs in parentheses.

1. A little ____ (past, passed) the library, traffic came to a standstill because of a fallen tree.
2. The entire senior class, _____ (accept, except) for Peggy, voted to postpone the graduation ceremony until Judy could attend and _____ (accept, except) the award for "most courageous student."
3. The _____ (affect, effect) of your decision to change jobs is huge. Moving to another country will (affect, effect) the entire family.
4. The _____ (stationary, stationery) store sells paper, ink, and sticky notes.
5. Population growth is _____ (stationary, stationery), neither increasing nor decreasing.
6. When you buy eye shadow and lipstick, be sure the colors are _____ (complimentary, complementary). Also, do not forget to ask for your

_____ (complimentary, complementary) lesson from our makeup artist.

Here are the answers: 1. *past* 2. *except, accept* 3. *effect, affect* 4. *stationery* 5. *stationary* 6. *complementary, complimentary.*

Together or Apart? One- and Two-Word Expressions

Read these sentences. Pay special attention to the underlined words:

> Vince told his brothers that he wanted them <u>all ready</u> to go before he came home from work.
>
> When he called them at eleven, he discovered that they had <u>already</u> left.

If you say *already* and *all ready* aloud, they sound the same. On paper, they are not the same at all. Plus, the single word and two-word expressions mean different things. *Already* means "before now" or "before a certain time." *All ready* means "completely prepared." Quite a difference!

The English language has many pairs that change in meaning depending on whether they are written as one word or two. Here is another set:

> "I need <u>some time</u> alone," cried Jane.
>
> Henry promised to visit his friends <u>sometime</u> next year.

Some time means "a period of time." You know that you need two words when you can substitute an exact amount of time in the sentence. Look at the first example sentence. Jane might say, "I need an hour alone." The meaning of the sentence is the same. As one word, *sometime* refers to a moment in time without saying exactly when that moment occurs. In the second example sentence, Henry promises a visit, but it may be in February, April, November, or some other month.

Sometimes (with an *s*) means "from time to time, occasionally." Here is an example:

Sometimes Peter and Rebecca go to the gym on Friday, but Monday is their usual day.

In other words, you may find Peter and Rebecca at the gym on a Friday, because they choose that day occasionally. You are more likely to find them at the gym on a Monday.

The next pair is similar:

Carl was busy and would not allow Roger any time to speak.

Bill said Roger could phone him anytime.

The two-word expression *any time* means "a period of time, no matter how short." This expression usually appears in a negative statement, as in the first example sentence. In other words, Carl will not spend even one minute listening to Roger. *Anytime,* as one word, means "at every point in time, with no exceptions." In the second example sentence, Bill has given Roger permission to call in the middle of the night, during work hours, over the weekend — whenever!

Glance at another pair:

Every day, Glen washes the dishes.

The everyday plates are good enough for Mary. Glen uses his best plates only when her mother visits.

These expressions are nearly the same, but the tiny difference in meaning is important. *Every day* means "each day, with no exceptions." In the first example sentence, Glen is at the sink on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and all the other days. He never gets a break! *Everyday* means "ordinary, used all the time." In the second example, Mary does not matter much to Glen. He gives her the plates he uses when he is alone. Mary's mother, on the other hand, is special. She deserves the good dishes!

Now move from time to place. Check these sentences:

Is there some place where we can speak privately?

Tired of staying home, Louis wanted to go someplace for vacation.

As two words, *some place* means “a place.” In the first example sentence, *some place* might refer to an empty room, a broom closet, an alley, or another location. The single word, *someplace*, is the same as *somewhere*. It refers to a location — any location, with no exceptions.

Somewhere is always one word, never two. *A lot*, *all right*, *each other*, and *even though* should always be written as two words.

Do you need one word or two? Select the correct expression from the parentheses.

1. “Stop cleaning,” ordered Ellen. “The kitchen, the pantry, and the dining room are _____ (already, all ready) for the inspection. Plus, the inspector has _____ (already, all ready) given us a passing grade.”
2. Don _____ (some time, sometime, sometimes) does his homework early, especially when he has _____ (some time, sometime, sometimes) to spare.
3. The secretaries deal with _____ (everyday, every day) tasks, but emergencies are the director’s responsibility.
4. The announcer said, “No appointments are necessary. Come in _____ (any time, anytime).”
5. I looked for _____ (some place, someplace) to put my coat, but the closet was too crowded.

Here are the answers: 1. *all ready*, *already* 2. *sometimes*, *some time* 3. *everyday* 4. *anytime* 5. *some place*.

Staying Away from Improper Expressions

Should you try and learn proper English? No! I imagine my answer is puzzling. After all, you are reading a book about English grammar. The

reason I answered “no” is that “try and” is an incorrect expression. You are not performing two separate actions: (1) *try* and (2) *learn*. Here is the proper wording:

Should you <u>try to</u> learn proper English?

Now the answer is yes! This sentence properly refers to an action, *to learn*, that you *should try.*

Try and is just one common, but incorrect, expression. In this section, you find many words and phrases that you see and hear all the time. The fact that many people write them, however, does not make them right.

Take a look at these sentences:

WRONG: <u>Irregardless</u> of the cost, Anne wants to buy that car.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Irregardless* is not a Standard English word.

RIGHT: <u>Regardless</u> of the cost, Anne wants to buy that car.

ALSO RIGHT: <u>Despite</u> the cost, Anne wants to buy that car.

WRONG: <u>Being that</u> Anne is on a tight budget, she should not buy an expensive car.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Being that* is not a Standard English expression.

RIGHT: <u>Because</u> Anne is on a tight budget, she should not buy an expensive car.

WRONG: <u>The reason is because</u> her salary was lowered.

WHY IT IS WRONG: In Standard English, the word *because* should not follow *the reason is.*

RIGHT: <u>The reason is that</u> her salary was lowered.

WRONG: This ancient vase is <u>very unique</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The definition of *unique* is “one of a kind.” Saying that something is “very one of a kind” makes no sense.

RIGHT: This ancient vase is unique.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: The sentence now states that no other vase is like *this ancient vase.* It is the only one of its kind.

ALSO RIGHT: This ancient vase is very unusual.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: *Unusual* means "rare." If the vase is *very rare,* only a few exist. This sentence makes sense.

Lots of people say *between you and I,* but that phrase is incorrect. The correct expression is *between you and me.* For more information, refer to Chapter 4. Three other common errors are *could of, would of,* and *should of.* In proper English, you should write *could have* or *could've, would have* or *would've,* and *should have* or *should've.* Turn to Chapter 14 for a complete explanation.

Look at the underlined words in this table. If they are incorrect, write the proper expression in the second column.

Sentence	***Correction***
1. Bert seldom washed his clothes; irregardless, Amy admired his wardrobe.	
2. Amy always tries to see the best in people.	
3. This quality is very unique.	
4. The reason is because most people enjoy criticizing others.	
5. Despite the fact that criticism can be helpful, Amy prefers praise.	

Here are the answers: 1. *regardless* 2. correct 3. *unique* or *very unusual* 4. *reason is that* 5. correct.

Moving in the opposite direction with "dis"

Three letters attached to the beginning of a word can turn a word into its opposite. Have a look at *dis:*

Disrespectful means "not showing respect." "Charlie hated the disrespectful way

Alice behaved. He told her that she should not refer to the teacher as “dude” and should stop interrupting the lessons.”

Disconnect means “breaking a connection, unplugging.” “Alice disconnected the hair dryer and placed it in the closet. She tried to call Charlie, but her phone had been disconnected because she had not paid her bill.”

Disability means “not having the ability.” “Roy did not think of his disability as a problem. In fact, he said that because he could not speak, he had more time to think.”

Discontinue means “stop, not continue.” “Peter discontinued his subscription to that magazine when they raised the price.”

Dislike means “not like.” “Bob dislikes chocolate, so he gave the candy bar to his brother.”

Of course, *dis* does not always create an opposite. *Distant* is not the opposite of *tant,* because *tant* is not a word.

Chapter 23

Avoiding Common Mistakes

In This Chapter

- Attaching descriptions to the right word
- Connecting pronouns and the words they replace
- Staying away from double negatives

When you ride a bicycle, you must steer around potholes. Otherwise, you fall! When you write, you must steer around some grammar potholes — spots that can easily trip you up.

In this chapter, you find out how you can ensure that descriptions and pronouns express the meaning you intend. You also find out how to avoid *double negatives*, sentences that turn your intended meaning upside down.

Writing Clear Descriptions

In English, word order matters. To describe the color of clothing, I can write

Herb wears green pants.

but not

Green Herb wears pants.

or

Herb wears pants green.

or

Herb green wears pants.

In these examples, it is easy to see that descriptions in the wrong place make no sense. Sometimes, though, a misplaced description is harder to spot. In the sections that follow, you discover several types of description errors.

Descriptions attached to the wrong word

Take a look at this sentence. Pay close attention to the underlined description. Can you figure out why it is in the wrong place?

William hailed a taxi <u>standing on the sidewalk</u>.

The description, *standing on the sidewalk*, appears right after *taxi.* In general, descriptions apply to the closest word. Yet the *taxi* is not *standing on the sidewalk.* (If it is, the police will give the driver a ticket!) *William* is *standing on the sidewalk.* The solution is to move the description closer to *William.* Take a look at these two sentences, with descriptions placed so that *William,* not the *taxi*, is *on the sidewalk:*

<u>Standing on the sidewalk</u>, William hailed a taxi.

William, <u>standing on the sidewalk</u>, hailed a taxi.

Here are other examples:

WRONG: James read the eye chart tacked on the wall <u>with one eye covered</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The *wall* does not have *one eye covered.*

RIGHT: <u>With one eye covered</u>, James read the eye chart tacked on the wall.

ALSO RIGHT: James, <u>with one eye covered</u>, read the eye chart tacked on the wall.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: The description *with one eye covered* appears next to *James.*

WRONG: The doctor's report described James's eyesight <u>which was typed on the computer</u>.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *James's eyesight* is not *typed on the computer.*

RIGHT: The doctor's report typed on the computer described James's eyesight.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the description *typed on the computer* applies to *report.*

WRONG: Arthur drove to the store to buy tomatoes wearing sunglasses.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Tomatoes* do not wear *sunglasses.*

RIGHT: Wearing sunglasses, Arthur drove to the store to buy tomatoes.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the description appears in front of *Arthur,* who is the one *wearing sunglasses.*

One small word causes big trouble. *Only* must appear in front of the word or expression it describes. Take a look at this example:

WRONG: My aunt visited New York and only bought me a cheap tee shirt.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The description *only* belongs in front of the word it describes. The sentence says that the *aunt only bought.* With this wording, *only* describes *bought.* So the *aunt* did nothing else — no sightseeing, eating, or sleeping!

RIGHT: My aunt visited New York and bought me only a cheap tee shirt.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now the description *only* appears in front of *a cheap tee shirt.* This sentence says that the *aunt* did not buy any expensive souvenirs — just *a cheap tee shirt.*

Place descriptions as close as possible to the words they describe.

Are these sentences correct? Do you see a description in the wrong spot? In the second column, rewrite any incorrect sentences.

Sentence	***Correction***
1. The building is in my neighborhood with ten floors.	
2. Joe bought a dog with a credit card.	
3. The girl who loves to ski spends every free hour on the slopes.	
4. Paul only visits his friends on Sundays because he is busy every other day of the week.	
5. Lulu wore a gold hoop in her left ear that she had ordered from a jeweler.	

Here are the answers: 1. *The building with ten floors is in my neighborhood.* 2. *With a credit card, Joe bought a dog.* 3. correct 4. *Paul visits his friends only on Sundays because he is busy every other day of the week.* 5. *In her left ear, Lulu wore a good hoop that she had ordered from a jeweler.*

Descriptions and missing words

What do you think of this sentence?

> When only six years old, Barry's grandfather took him to the circus.

Oh my! Can you picture a six-year-old grandfather? Yet that is what this sentence states. The first part of the sentence, *When only six years old*, does not name a person. According to the rules of English, that description applies to the *subject* — normally the next person you see in a sentence like this one. The subject is *Barry's grandfather.* You can fix this error easily:

> When only six years old, Barry went to the circus with his grandfather.

Now *Barry* is the subject, so *Barry* is *only six years old*, not *his grandfather.* (For more information on subjects, turn to Chapter 11.)

Here is another way to correct the mistake:

> When Barry was only six years old, his grandfather took him to the circus.

By attaching the missing words (*Barry was*) to the age (*only six years old*), the proper meaning comes through.

Read through a few more examples:

WRONG: Before painting the wall, plaster should be placed in the cracks.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The *plaster* is not *painting the wall.*

RIGHT: Before painting the wall, you should plaster the cracks.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now *you* follows *painting the wall.* So *painting the wall* is what *you* are doing.

ALSO RIGHT: Before you paint the wall, plaster the cracks.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Adding *you* to the beginning of the sentence takes care of the problem, because it is clear that *you are painting the wall.*

WRONG: While wearing glasses, the sun does not bother his eyes.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The *sun* cannot wear glasses! No person appears in the sentence.

RIGHT: While he is wearing glasses, the sun does not bother his eyes.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Adding *he is* changes the meaning. Now *he is wearing glasses.*

WRONG: Skating on the ice, Shelly's laces broke.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Shelly's laces* are not *skating on the ice.*

RIGHT: Skating on the ice, Shelly broke her laces.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: Now *Shelly* follows *skating on the ice,* so *Shelly* is *skating,* not *her laces.*

Skating is a verb form. The person or thing closest to that verb form should normally be the one doing the action. In the preceding example, *Shelly* is the person *skating.*

Are these sentences correct? Do missing words cause a problem? In the second column, rewrite any incorrect sentences.

Sentence ***Correction***

1. After sealing the letter, a stamp was placed on the envelope by Kathy.
2. Facing the jury, the final argument was made by the lawyer.
3. While swimming, Joe wears goggles.
4. Finished with his homework, the math book was put into Bill's desk.
5. When eating soup, a spoon is better than a fork.

Here are the answers: 1. *After sealing the letter, Kathy placed a stamp on the envelope.* 2. *Facing the jury, the lawyer made the final argument.* 3. correct 4. *Finished with his homework, Bill put the math book into his desk.* 5. *When you are eating soup, a spoon is better than a fork.*

Note: In quiz question 5, the name of any person fulfills the same role as the pronoun *you.* Just be sure to pair the name with the verb correctly. (For more information on matching people to verbs, turn to Chapter 11.)

Writing Clear Pronouns

Two things can happen when you hear this sentence:

> Sally told Mary that she was an idiot.

This is the first reaction:

> "How dare you call me an idiot!" said Mary as she slapped Sally.

This is the second reaction:

> "Do not say that about yourself, Sally. Everyone makes mistakes," said Mary as she hugged Sally.

These different responses are possible because the original sentence is unclear. The pronoun *she* refers to one female. The sentence names two females, *Mary* and *Sally.* The reader has no way to identify *she.* Here are clearer, better sentences:

> "You are an idiot," Sally told Mary.

"I am an idiot," said Sally to Mary.

Sally told Mary that Mary was an idiot.

Sally told Mary that Sally was an idiot.

The goal of proper grammar is communication. You cannot reach that goal if the reader or listener is confused. To make your meaning clear, avoid vague pronouns.

These four sentences are correct, but the last two are not as good as the first two. Repeating the name makes the meaning clear, but repetition often annoys readers.

Here are a few other examples:

WRONG: Jeff and Eddie play tennis often, and he always wins.

WHY IT IS WRONG: Who wins? Who knows? The pronoun *he* is unclear.

RIGHT: Jeff and Eddie play tennis often, and Jeff always wins.

ALSO RIGHT: Jeff and Eddie play tennis often, and Eddie always wins.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: Each correction clearly states who wins the tennis matches.

WRONG: Marty removed the shoes from the boxes and put them in the closet.

WHY IT IS WRONG: What did Marty put in the closet? The *shoes* or the *boxes?* You have no way of knowing what *them* refers to.

RIGHT: Marty removed the shoes and put the boxes in the closet.

ALSO RIGHT: Marty removed the shoes and put them in the closet. He threw the boxes away.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: Both corrections are clear. (You can find other ways to correct the original sentence. Just be sure your rewritten sentence shows what *them* refers to.)

WRONG: The tomato was not ripe, and the salad had to be perfect. Fortunately, the chef replaced it.

WHY IT IS WRONG: What did the chef replace? The *tomato* or the whole *salad*? The pronoun *it* is unclear.

RIGHT: Because the tomato was not ripe, the chef replaced it. The salad had to be perfect.

ALSO RIGHT: The tomato was not ripe, and the salad had to be perfect. The chef threw out the salad and replaced it with a new one.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: In each correction, you know what the chef did. The pronoun *it* is clear.

WRONG: The essay was very short and very late, which annoyed the professor.

WHY IT IS WRONG: Why is the professor annoyed? Does the professor want a long essay? Is the professor strict about deadlines? Perhaps length and timing are both problems. As the sentence is written, you cannot tell.

RIGHT: The professor was annoyed because the essay was very short and very late.

ALSO RIGHT: The late essay annoyed the professor. The essay was also very short.

WHY THEY ARE RIGHT: Each correction explains why the professor is annoyed.

Take another look at the last example. The pronoun *which* does not appear in the corrected sentences. Eliminating the pronoun often solves the problem!

See whether you can spot any unclear pronouns in these sentences. If you do, rewrite the sentence. (***Note:*** Because a pronoun is unclear, it may have more than one meaning. You can have more than one right answer, too. In the answers following the table, you see one or two

suggested corrections. If you corrected the sentence in a different way, count yourself right if the pronoun has only one possible meaning.)

Sentence	***Correction***
1. The guards watched the boys go into the empty house, but they did not have weapons.	
2. The chair was next to a metal table, but it wobbled.	
3. The supervisor told his doctors that stress was bad for him.	
4. The wrapping was torn, and the box was ripped. This upset me.	
5. Brenda told Amanda that she loved her poem.	

Here are the answers: 1. *The guards watched the boys go into the empty house, but the boys did not have weapons.* Also correct: *The guards watched the boys go into the empty house, but the guards did not have weapons.* 2. *The chair was next to a metal table, which wobbled.* Also correct: *The chair, which wobbled, was next to a metal table.* 3. correct 4. *Because the wrapping was torn and the box was ripped, I was upset*. Also correct: *I was upset because of the torn wrapping and ripped box.* 5. *Brenda told Amanda, "I love your poem."* Also correct: *Brenda told Amanda, "I love my poem."*

No! No! Understanding Double Negatives

Lots of words are negative, including these:

no

not

never

nothing

no one

none

In many languages, you can pile many negative words into a sentence. In those languages, you can say

Jane did not eat no cookie

and everyone knows that Jane stayed away from the cookie jar. In English, though, two negative words cancel each other. If *Jane did not eat no cookie*, she ate the opposite of *no cookie*. The opposite of *no cookie* is one cookie, five cookies, or a whole box of cookies — any number except zero. Look at these examples:

SENTENCE: I did not do nothing.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: I did something.

CORRECTION: I did nothing.

ANOTHER CORRECTION: I did not do anything.

SENTENCE: Elizabeth never saw no one.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: Elizabeth saw someone.

CORRECTION: Elizabeth saw no one.

ANOTHER CORRECTION: Elizabeth never saw anyone.

SENTENCE: The stove didn't never work.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: The stove works.

CORRECTION: The stove didn't ever work.

ANOTHER CORRECTION: The stove never worked.

The negative word *not* often becomes *n't* when it attaches to a verb. *Didn't* is short for *did not.* English teachers call these short forms *contractions.* For more information on contractions, turn to Chapter 14.

SENTENCE: The prince won't speak to no one.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: The prince will speak to someone.

CORRECTION: The prince won't speak to anyone.

ANOTHER CORRECTION: The prince will speak to no one.

Another common double negative is *can't hardly* or *couldn't hardly.* The contraction *can't* is short for *cannot.* The contraction *couldn't* is short for *could not. Hardly* is a negative word. Do not put *hardly* and *not* together. If you do, you end up with a positive statement. Study these examples:

SENTENCE: Ed can't hardly speak because his throat is sore.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: Ed can speak because his throat is sore.

CORRECTION: Ed can hardly speak because his throat is sore.

SENTENCE: The politicians can't hardly agree on anything.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: The politicians can agree on anything.

CORRECTION: The politicians can hardly agree on anything.

SENTENCE: Gloria couldn't hardly believe what she was seeing.

WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: Gloria could believe what she was seeing.

CORRECTION: Gloria could hardly believe what she was seeing.

Have you ever heard someone say, "I cannot help but think" or something similar? The expression *cannot help but* is a double negative. The word *but* has a negative meaning. The word *not* is also negative, even when it is tucked inside the word *cannot.* When you place it in a sentence with *not*, you say the opposite of what you intend. Here is an example:

WHAT GENE SAID: I cannot help but ask for a raise.

WHAT GENE THINKS HE SAID: I have to ask for a raise.

WHAT GENE ACTUALLY SAID: I cannot ask for a raise.

WHAT GENE SHOULD HAVE SAID: I cannot help asking for a raise.

Whole and half

In the United States, many states come together to form one whole country. These three letters — *uni* — often mean “one” or “whole.” Take a peek at these examples:

Unite means “to come together as one.” “The bride and groom unite when they become a married couple.”

Uniform means “one outfit, worn by all.” “The students hated their blue uniforms, but they had to wear them anyway.”

Unique means “one of a kind.” “Collectors were willing to pay a very large amount of money for the unique coin.”

Universal means “the same throughout the whole group.” “The senator favored free, universal preschool, with no child left out.”

You can chop a piece from the whole with *semi.* Look at these words:

Semicircle means “half circle.” “The children sat in a semicircle while the teacher read them a story.”

Semiformal means “not completely formal.” “The invitation said ‘semiformal,’ so Bill wore his best suit, not his tuxedo, to the reception.”

Semiannual means “half-year.” “George received good news during his semiannual job review.”

Semiconscious means “not completely conscious.” “The patient drifted in and out of the conversation because he was only semiconscious.”

Part VII

The Part of Tens

For a bonus Part of Tens chapter on Ten Quick Improvements to Your Writing, go online and take a look at www.dummies.com/extras/basicenglishgrammar.

In this part …

- Discover how everyday activities can raise your English skills to a higher level.
- Identify which mistakes to watch out for, so you can eliminate them from your writing.

Chapter 24

Ten Easy Ways to Improve Your Writing Skills

In This Chapter

- Finding grammar help
- Paying attention to your writing skills

You are busy, right? You have work, school, family, friends, and many other things to do. Can you find time to improve your grammar? Yes! Learning grammar does not have to be an extra chore. It can be part of other things you do. This chapter explains ten easy ways to sharpen your grammar skills.

Listening

Not everyone speaks in perfect sentences all the time. Not even I do, and I am a grammarian! However, when I am in a formal setting, I bring out my best, most proper English. So do most educated people.

When you are in class, at a work meeting, or in another situation that calls for Standard English, listen carefully. Yes, listen! Very young children learn language when people talk to them. At any age, you can soak up information simply by listening to good grammar.

Learning this way is simple. You do not have to take notes. Nor do you have to memorize verbs, pronouns, or anything else. Instead, you give a little extra attention to proper English sentences. Your brain stores them away. Gradually, enough language is stored, and your brain recognizes a pattern. Good grammar sounds right, just because you have listened to it over and over again.

Be careful, though, not to confuse conversational, friendly chat with proper English. Informal language is fine in many situations, but you will not learn good habits from listening to slang and casual comments. Keep your sharpest attention for moments when language is likely to be correct.

Reading

In the section before this one, I explain how listening to good English can improve your grammar. Reading helps also, in exactly the same way. It does not matter whether you read words that are printed on paper or scrolling down your computer screen. The method of delivery is not important. What *is* important? The quality of language! If you read "Silly Things My Cat Does," you may not learn much. (Well, not much about grammar. You may learn a lot about cats.) However, a book or an article written by someone with a good grasp of proper usage will teach you many principles of grammar. By seeing complete and correct sentences, for example, you absorb the patterns of Standard English.

Of course, sometimes you want to read for fun. You should do so! Remember, though, that informal English is like ice cream. You enjoy it, but you turn to other food for nutrition and health. Have a good time with comic books, pet websites, and other entertaining material. Simply add a bit of more serious reading to your daily routine. Pay attention to language as you read. Little by little, your grammar will improve.

Writing

How often do you write? I mean *really* write — not just type some letters and numbers on your phone. Proper writing, with good grammar and spelling, comes with practice. To get in shape, athletes train and strengthen their muscles. You have to train your "writing muscles," too. You do not have to write a hundred pages at a time. Frequency is more important than quantity. Set aside a few minutes a day to compose an email, a diary entry, a letter to your grandmother, or something else. Concentrate while you write. Make an

effort to create complete, grammatically correct sentences. Every day, the task will be easier, and your writing will be stronger.

Rewriting

Do you have any old school or work assignments? As you go through the chapters in this book, reread your work. Look for mistakes. For example, after you finish Chapter 13, you know the ingredients that should appear in every complete sentence. Take one paragraph that you wrote. Are the sentences complete? If not, rewrite the paragraph. Be sure that every sentence in it is correct. Do the same thing after you read Chapter 17, which discusses capital letters. Cross out misplaced capital letters and substitute with lowercase letters. Add capital letters where you need them.

Do not try to change everything at once. Your brain will explode! Instead, tackle one type of error at a time. Rewrite only small portions of your work. Investing a little time in this exercise will result in stronger writing skills.

Recognizing Your Weak Spots

Everyone has strengths. Everyone also has weaknesses. As you read this book, you may find that some chapters are harder for you than other chapters. For example, as you read Chapter 6, which deals with descriptions, you may realize that selecting the right sort of descriptive word has always been a problem for you. Do not worry! Knowing this fact is the first step toward solving that problem.

Before you write, remind yourself to be careful with descriptions. Glance at Chapter 6 again, if you wish. After you write, reread your work. Check the descriptions. Chances are more will be correct every time you do this exercise.

By the way, a topic that is easy for you may be hard for someone else. The reverse is also true. Customize your study of grammar.

Concentrate on what you need and ignore everyone else's study plan!

Asking for Help

When my son was a boy, he often did his homework while I cooked dinner. As I chopped and stirred, he read and typed. From time to time, he called out a question: "Should I say *I* or *me* in this sentence? Does this sound right?" I always answered him. I was glad to do so!

This book contains a lot of information about grammar. You can learn from it. You can learn from other sources also. If you are writing and someone with strong grammar skills is nearby, take advantage of that person's knowledge. Ask for help. Most likely, you will receive it.

Note to students: Some teachers prefer that their students work entirely alone. Others require you to describe any help you have received. Check with your teacher to find out what he or she prefers.

Proofreading

No matter how careful you are, you may make an eror. (Oh, sorry, I mean *error.*) See? Your mind is quicker than your hand. As you race to express an idea, you may skip a letter or forget a punctuation mark. *Proofreading* — checking your writing for mistakes — solves this problem.

Unless you are under time pressure, take a break between writing and proofreading. The pause will give you a chance to see your work with fresh eyes. Instead of hopping over a tiping mistake (oops! I should have written a *typing* mistake), your brain will detect the error. Then you can correct it. This practice has another benefit. You will discover mistakes that you make over and over again. Soon you will remember the correct phrasing and use it automatically. Your grammar will improve.

Making Friends with a Dictionary

You probably do not know every word in the English language. Fortunately,

when you are unsure about spelling, meaning, or plural forms, the dictionary provides help. Many online dictionaries even pronounce the word aloud for you, so you can say it correctly. (On paper, the pronunciation may be written out for you with special symbols. Check the front or back of the book for an explanation of the symbols.) Some dictionaries include sample sentences with each word, to help you grasp the meaning. You see the word in context and learn proper usage at the same time.

If you use a dictionary often, gradually the words you look up, as well as the sample sentences you read, will stay in your mind. Your own writing will employ stronger vocabulary and more mature sentence structure.

Using Spelling and Grammar Checkers

As I type, my computer places a wavy red line under some words. The red line alerts me to the fact that the computer does not recognize the word. A wavy green line sometimes shows up under a sentence or a phrase. The computer is programmed to detect grammar mistakes. The green line on my screen signals a possible error. (Your word-processing program may alert you in a different way.)

Pay attention to these error signs on your computer. Recheck every word or phrase the computer sees as wrong. Then — and this step is very important — use your own brain. You are much, much smarter than a computer program. Look in the dictionary or in this grammar book. Ask a friend, if you can. Then change the mistake, if it is a mistake. If your original version is correct, leave it alone. You know more than your computer does!

Solving Puzzles and Playing Games

You can have fun and improve your vocabulary and proofreading skills at the same time. Word puzzles appear in many newspapers and magazines. The Internet, too, has many sites devoted to these pastimes. Look for crossword

puzzles to improve your vocabulary and help you recognize parts of speech. In a traditional crossword puzzle, clues provide a definition. When you find an answer, you may learn a new word or a different form of a familiar word. Find-a-word puzzles hide words inside a block of letters. Solving these puzzles sharpens your spelling ability. Other word puzzles rely on riddles and other tricks.

Some games are also good tools for improving vocabulary, spelling, and even grammar. Look for products that ask you to spell out words with tiles, place words in sentences, or otherwise play with language. Many word games have “beginner,” “intermediate,” and “hard” levels. Choose the level that is best for you, and work your way up as your skills improve.

Chapter 25

Ten Mistakes to Avoid

In This Chapter

- Steering clear of common errors
- Polishing every sentence

Turn on the television. Change channels until you find a comedy or drama. Now close your eyes and listen to the characters speak. Can you rate their level of education, just by hearing their words? Probably you can.

Television writers know that certain mistakes pop up when people have not studied much English grammar. In this chapter, you discover ten mistakes to avoid at all costs.

Substituting "Me" for "I"

I never hear "me will go to the beach today." Everyone seems to know that "I will go to the beach today" is correct. Why? The action in the sentence, *will go*, must be performed by someone. The person performing the action is the subject. The pronoun *I* is the one you want for subjects. (The pronoun *me* is reserved for objects: *Give the bill to me*, *she told me*, and so on.)

For some reason, though, I do hear sentences like this one:

George and me will go to the beach today.

The pair, *George and me*, causes problems! The solution is simple. When you have a pair, check each half of the pair separately. *George will go? Me will go?* The first half is fine, but the second half is not. Switch to *I* and rewrite the sentence:

George and I will go to the beach today.

Now you have a correct sentence. (For more information on subject and object pronouns, turn to Chapter 4.)

Switching Verb Tenses

What is wrong with this story? Hint: Look closely at the underlined words.

> My friend called me. She told me that a small fire broke out in her garage yesterday. Then she says that the fire truck arrived right away. The neighbors ran to help her.

The underlined words are all verbs — action words. They should all be past tense forms because this story is about something that already happened. Most of the verbs are in the past tense *(called, told, broke, arrived, ran).* One verb, *says,* is in the present tense. Nope! A switch to the present tense does not make sense in this story. The verb *says* should be changed to *said.* Now every verb matches.

Of course, at times you must change tenses (the "time" of the action) because the meaning requires a shift:

> Henry watered the lawn yesterday, and today he plans to weed the garden.

Watered is a past-tense verb. *Plans* is a present-tense verb. Combining them in one sentence works, though, because *yesterday* is the past, and *today* signals the present.

The lesson here is simple: Do not change verb tense without a logical reason to do so. (To find out more about verb tense, see Chapters 9 and 10.)

Adding Apostrophes to Plurals

An *apostrophe* is a little curved hook raised above the line. An apostrophe

- **Shows ownership:** Catherine's painting (the painting belongs to Catherine)
- **Shortens words:** don't (short for *do not*)

An apostrophe does not create plurals:

three teacher's = wrong

three teachers = correct

When you insert an apostrophe, be sure you are indicating ownership or creating a short form. (Check out Chapter 14 to see the apostrophe in action.)

Confusing "An" and "A"

These two tiny words appear in different spots. *An* comes in front of a word beginning with a vowel sound. (*A*, *E*, *I*, *O*, and *U* are vowels.) *A* comes before words beginning with consonant sounds (every letter that is not a vowel):

a apple = wrong

an apple = correct

an lamp = wrong

a lamp = correct

Most people do fine with *a* and consonants. Problems crop up with *an* and vowel sounds. Take care not to make this mistake.

Forgetting Endmarks

Everyone sentence needs an *endmark* — a period, question mark, or exclamation point. If you write a sentence and neglect the endmark, your sentence is not complete:

Helen sewed all night = wrong

Helen sewed all night. = correct

When you are texting, you may sometimes break this rule. (Chapter 18 covers this issue.) In every other sort of writing, though, an endmark must always appear.

Pairing "You" with the Wrong Verb

The English language is not always logical. The word *you*, for example, may be either singular or plural. You refer to one person as *you* and to more than one person as *you*. How strange! Even more strange is the fact that the verb that pairs with *you* is always plural. Take a look:

you is = wrong

you are = correct

you was = wrong

you were = correct

This mistake is very easy to fix. Simply remember to pair *you* with a plural verb form, all the time.

Connecting Sentences with a Comma

A *comma*, a little curved hook below the line, is a useful punctuation mark. A comma signals a pause. It often helps the reader understand the meaning of a sentence. A comma cannot do every job, however. It cannot link one complete sentence to another:

Don painted the house, it looks great. = wrong

Don painted the house. It looks great. = correct

Don painted the house, and it looks great. = also correct

When you place a comma between two ideas, say each one separately. Can each one stand alone as a complete sentence? If so, do not try to connect these ideas with a comma. Make two separate sentences or add a joining word such as *and*, *but*, and similar words. (For more information on commas, turn to Chapter 15.)

Omitting Capital Letters

Every name needs a capital letter. So does the pronoun *I*, which refers to the speaker or writer. Also, all sentences begin with capital letters. If you omit a capital letter in one of these spots, your writing suffers:

betty and bill = wrong

Betty and Bill = correct

i am = wrong

I am = correct

the bus is coming. = wrong

The bus is coming. = correct

For more information on capital letters, refer to Chapter 17.

Using Half a Verb

When you express action or being, you use a verb. Some verb forms are made of two words. If you leave out half the verb, you have made an error:

Peter traveling to California. = wrong

Peter is traveling to California. = correct

The race begun already. = wrong

The race has begun already. = correct

To see many examples of two-word verb forms, read Chapter 10.

Being Unclear

When you speak or write, you know what you want to say. Your thoughts are clear — to you! Unfortunately, many people have difficulty knowing how much information is actually expressed and how much remains inside their heads. Look at this example:

Marty fought with his brother, and his hand hurt for three days.

The person who wrote this sentence knows whose hand hurt for three days. Do you? It may be Marty's hand. It may be his brother's hand. The sentence is unclear. Now read this sentence:

Marty fought with his brother, whose hand hurt for three days.

Now you know that the brother's hand hurt. This sentence has a different meaning, but it is also clear:

Marty's hand hurt for three days after he fought with his brother.

To be sure that your intended meaning comes through, pretend that you are a stranger. Reread your work. Do you understand everything? If not, make the necessary changes.

About the Author

Geraldine Woods was an English teacher for four decades. She learned grammar from very strict teachers when she was in elementary school, which, when she attended, was called grammar school.

She is the author of nearly 50 books, including *English Grammar For Dummies* (2nd Edition), *English Grammar Workbook For Dummies* (2nd Edition), *1001 English Grammar Questions For Dummies, Grammar Essentials For Dummies, Wiley AP English Language and Composition, Wiley AP English Literature and Composition, Research Papers For Dummies,* and *College Admission Essays For Dummies,* all published by Wiley. She is also the author of *Punctuation, Simplified and Applied*, published by Webster's New World.

She blogs on grammar and language at www.grammarianinthecity.com.

Dedication

To two wonderful ladies in my family: Elizabeth and Candice.

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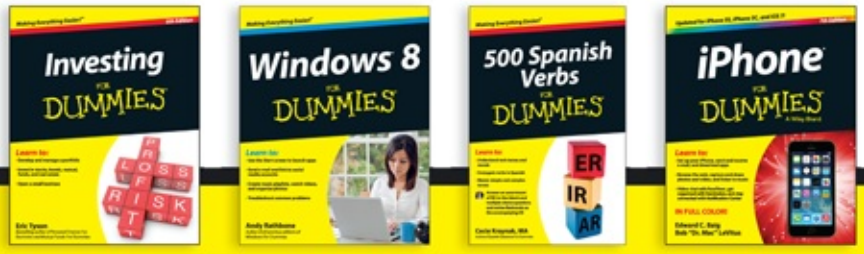

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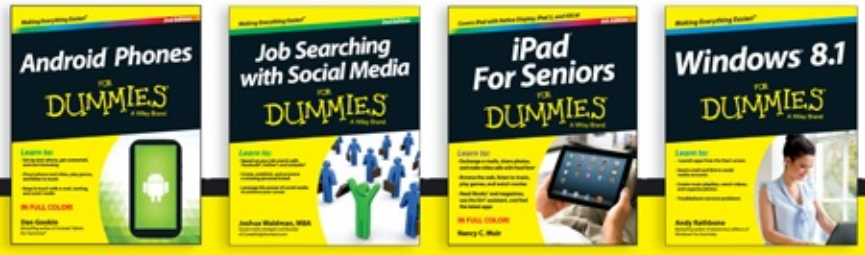

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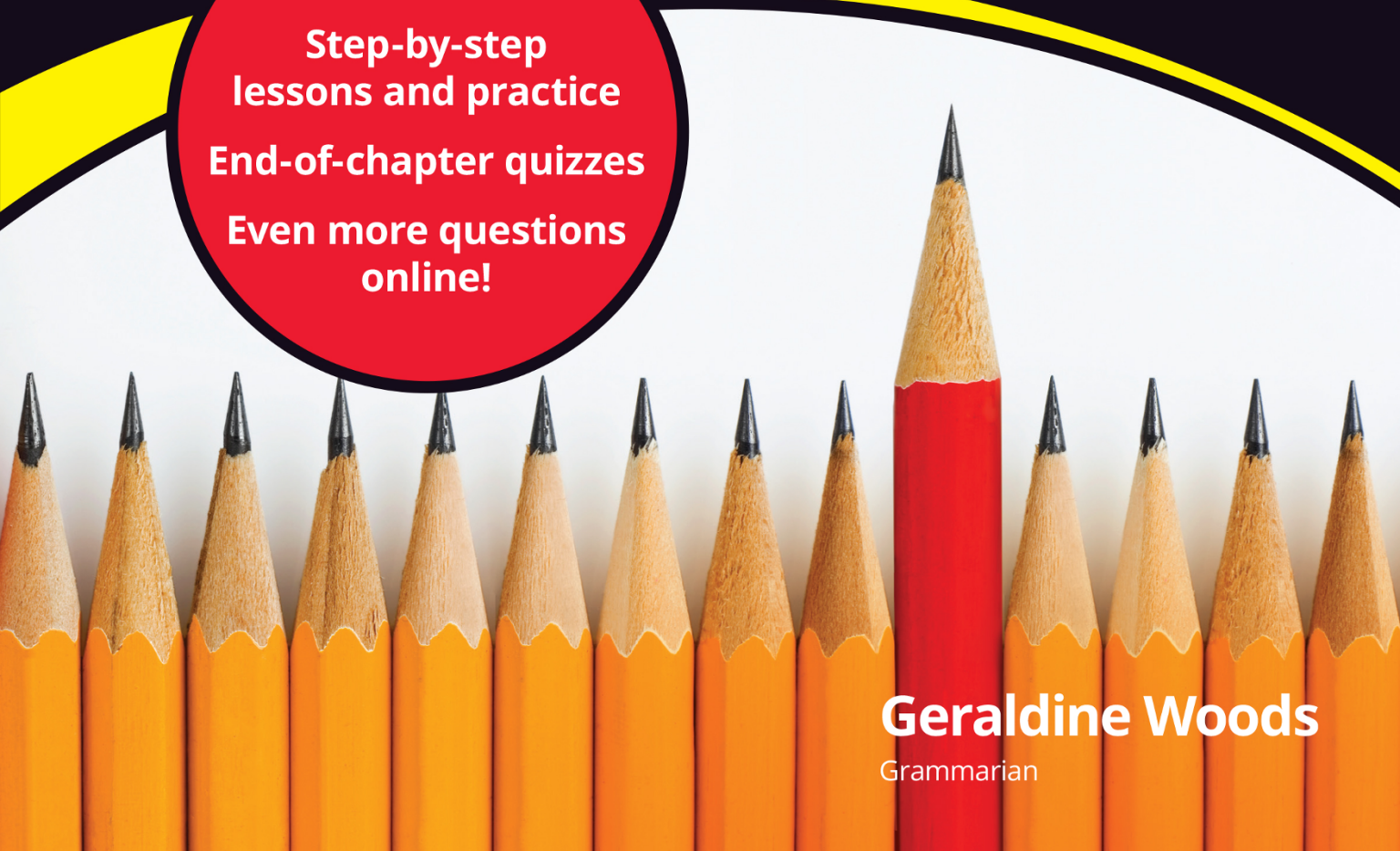

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Introduction

Does this resemble the inside of your head when you're preparing to talk with an authority figure?

> *Glad to have met . . . to be meeting . . .* Uh-oh. Maybe just *Hi! How's it going?* No, that's too friendly. New direction: *You asked to see whoever . . . whomever . . . wrote the report.* Or is it *had written?*

If you answered yes, you're in the right place. *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies* helps you navigate the sea of grammar without wrecking your grades, your career, or your mind. I mention grades and career because the ability to speak and write according to the rules of Standard English gives you an advantage in school and in the working world. This book presents the latest guidelines for Standard English. Yes, latest. When an English teacher is pounding them into your head, the rules of Standard English usage seem set in stone. But language is anything but static. It moves along just as people do — sometimes quickly and something at the speed of a tired snail. To keep you sharp in every 21st century situation, *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies* gives you information and then practice with the current, commonly accepted language of texts, tweets, presentation slides, emails, and more traditional forms of writing.

About This Book

In *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies,* I address all your grammar questions about written and spoken language, including a few you didn't know you had. I do so without loading you up with obscure terminology, defining terms only when you need them to understand what you're supposed to do as well as why you're supposed to do it. I also explain which rules of formal English you can and should ignore in various situations. The goal is to ensure that the language you use conveys your ideas accurately and makes a good impression on your reader or listener.

Every chapter but one provides

- Explanations of grammar rules and common usage
- Sample questions with answers
- A slew of extra practice questions (and more online)
- Chapter quizzes with answers and explanations

Are you wondering which chapter breaks this pattern? It's the first. Instead of a quiz, Chapter 1 ends with a diagnostic tool — a chart of common grammatical dilemmas (*capital letter or lowercase? gave or had given? comma or colon?* and the like) and points you toward the chapter

addressing that topic. You can turn immediately to the chapters that meet your needs, or you can work through the book in order, moving from an overview of grammar and style to parts of speech, parts of a sentence, and onward to punctuation, capitalization, and common errors. The last unit focuses on useful information for writing at school and on the job, with special attention to electronic media.

Foolish Assumptions

I assume you're reading this book because you want one or more of the following:

- Skill in communicating exactly what you mean
- Better grades or a better job
- Speech and writing that serves you well in formal situations
- A good score on standardized exams

Of course, you may be reading this book because an authority figure has threatened to fail, fire, or ground you if you don't. Even so, I hope you'll learn something — and smile along the way.

Icons Used in This Book

Five types of icons steer your journey:

TIP

Wherever you see this icon, you'll find helpful strategies for understanding the structure of the sentence or for choosing the correct word form.

WARNING

Not every grammar point has a built-in trap, but some do. This icon tells you how to avoid common mistakes as you construct a sentence.

EXAMPLE

You can test your knowledge of a topic by trying a sample question or two, checking your answers, and reading the accompanying explanations.

YOUR TURN

Put on your thinking cap when you see this icon, because it identifies a set of practice questions. Answers and explanations appear in a separate section near the end of the chapter.

REMEMBER

This icon identifies key grammar points to deposit in your memory bank.

Beyond the Book

For additional reference material and writing tips, check out www.dummies.com to find the accompanying Cheat Sheet for this book. Just type "English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies cheat sheet" in the search box.

You can also test yourself with online quizzes oriented to a single chapter or to a heftier amount of information. To gain access to the online practice, all you have to do is register. Just follow these simple steps:

1. **Register your book or ebook at Dummies.com to get your PIN. Go to www.dummies.com/go/getaccess.**
2. **Select your product from the drop-down list on that page.**
3. **Follow the prompts to validate your product, and then check your email for a confirmation message that includes your PIN and instructions for logging in.**

If you don't receive this email within two hours, please check your Spam folder before contacting us through our Technical Support website at https://support.wiley.com or by phone at 877-762-2974.

Now you're ready to go! You can come back to the program as often as you want. Simply log in with the username and password you created during your initial login. No need to enter the access code a second time.

Where to Go from Here

To the refrigerator for a snack. Nope. Just kidding. Take the grammar diagnostic in Chapter 1, or simply think for a few moments about the aspects of writing or speaking that make you pause. Then select the chapters that meet your needs. If you're unsure whether a topic is a problem, no problem! Look for the example icons and try a couple of questions. If you get the right answer — or if you don't but the explanation cleared up your confusion — move on. If you stub your toe, work on the practice questions or take an online quiz until you master the topic. And you will!

A NOTE ABOUT PRONOUNS

Much has changed in the world of pronouns in the past few years. Change isn't always comfortable, but it's here and, I believe, necessary and good.

Let me explain. A pronoun is a word that stands in for a noun or another pronoun. Pronouns streamline language, allowing you to say "George said that he forgot his phone" instead of "George said that George forgot George's phone." A pronoun is supposed to match, or agree, with the word it refers to: Singular pairs with singular, plural with plural. Gender also matters. Some pronouns are masculine *(he, him, his);* some are feminine *(she, her, hers);* and others are neuter (*it, they* when referring to objects, ideas, or places). The rules for these pronouns have stayed the same. Ditto for gender-neutral pronouns referring to a group *(they, them, their, theirs).*

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The rules have shifted, though, when you refer to one person whose gender is unspecified — a *person* or a *senator* or an *insurance agent*, perhaps — or to a person who does not identify gender as binary (male or female) or who identifies as gender fluid. For an increasing number of grammarians and editors, *they, them, their,* and *theirs* have become the preferred pronouns for these situations. In other words, these pronouns may be either singular or plural, depending on the word they refer to. Take a look at some examples:

Someone forgot their homework; therefore, the teacher will give them a failing grade. (pairs the singular pronoun *someone* with the singular pronouns *their* and *them*)

Each applicant should explain their reasons for leaving their previous job. (The singular noun *applicant* pairs with the singular pronoun *their*.)

Alix arrived late because they were stuck in a traffic jam. (The singular noun *Alix*, the name of a person who identifies as nonbinary, pairs with the singular pronoun *they.*)

It's worth noting that this "change" in the usage of *they, them,* and *their* in the first two examples is actually a return to tradition. From the 14th century onward, ordinary people, as well as great writers (Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Austen, to name three) treated *they, them, their,* and *theirs* as flexible, gender-neutral pronouns, a grammatically correct way to refer to one person or to a group, just as the pronoun *you* does. In the 18th century, though, influential grammarians declared that the pronouns *they, them, their,* and *theirs* were correct only for references to a group. According to these grammarians, the forms *he, him,* and *his* and *she, her,* and *hers* were the only appropriate references to one person. If the gender was unknown, masculine pronouns were said to be the proper choice. In 1850, the British Parliament went so far as to enact that grammar rule into law! You can imagine how popular this decision was with supporters of women's equality. In the late 20th century, many writers reserved *they, them, their,* and *theirs* for plural references but, in an effort to be more inclusive, turned to pairs — *he or she, him or her,* and *his or her* — for singular references. That practice often results in sentences like this: "A student should ask his or her teacher about his or her pronoun policy during the first meeting with him or her." As you see, providing two choices can result in a clunky sentence! Paired pronouns also ignore people who identify as nonbinary or gender fluid.

To solve these problems, some people have invented gender-neutral pronouns, such as *ze* and *zir.* These new words may catch on, but at the moment they're not common. Much more widespread is the use of *they, them, their,* and *theirs* in both singular and plural situations. I've employed this usage in *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies*, a decision that Wiley, the publisher of *For Dummies* books, supports.

It may take a while to get used to the singular *they.* If you're expecting one dinner guest and hear "they're on the way," you may panic and cook an extra portion of pasta before you remember that *they* is your guest's preferred pronoun and *they* would never bring a friend without asking first. You may also find yourself writing for an authority figure who insists on restricting *they, them, their,* and *theirs* to plural situations. In that situation, you have some options. You can shift from third person (talking about someone) to second person (talking to the person with the flexible pronoun *you*):

If you forget to do the homework, you will receive a failing grade.

You can also reword and avoid the pronoun entirely:

Someone forgot to do the homework and will receive a failing grade.

Each applicant should explain the reasons for leaving a previous job.

Alix arrived late because of traffic.

1 Exploring Grammar and Style

In This Unit . . .

CHAPTER 1: **Sampling the Ingredients of Grammar and Style**

What This Year's Sentence Is Wearing: Understanding Grammar and Style
Getting to Know the Elements of Grammar and Style
Recognizing Your Grammar Profile

CHAPTER 2: **Adapting Language to Every Situation**

Grasping the Power and Limits of Standard English
Adjusting Language to Suit Your Audience
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 2 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 2 Quiz

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Distinguishing between grammar and style
- Surveying the basic elements of grammar and style
- Constructing your grammar profile

Chapter 1

Sampling the Ingredients of Grammar and Style

In the Middle Ages, *grammar* meant the study of Latin, the language of choice for educated people. The word soon came to refer to any kind of learning, the definition that applies when people of grandparent-age talk about their *grammar school,* not their elementary school. The term *grammar school* is a leftover from the old days. The very old days.

These days, the word *grammar* refers to the nuts and bolts of language — specifically, how words are put together to create meaning. Most people also apply the term to a set of rules you have to follow in order to speak and write in Standard English, what society has set as — surprise! — the standard for "correct" speech and writing. I placed *correct* in quotation marks because the way people speak and write changes according to situation, audience, and purpose. (More on this in Chapter 2.) In this chapter, I take you on a whirlwind tour of the elements of grammar and style and direct you to chapters that meet your needs.

What This Year's Sentence Is Wearing: Understanding Grammar and Style

Fresh from the shower, you're standing in front of your closet. What should you select? Some options aren't open to you. You can't show up at the office wearing nothing — not if you want to keep your job and, in addition, stay out of jail. That's a law (in the real world) and a rule (in the world of grammar). You *can* choose a bright purple jacket and a fluorescent green scarf. The fashion police may object, but real cops will leave you alone. In both the real world and Grammar Land, this sort of decision is a matter of *style.* A style point is more flexible than a grammar rule. Take that jacket-scarf selection. Your friends may suggest a subtler color combination, or praise you if your school colors are purple and green and you're cheering at a pep rally.

The grammar rules of proper English can and do change, but not often — maybe a few times every 500 years. Style, on the other hand, shifts much more frequently. A sentence from the early 20th century may look odd to 21st-century readers, and a sentence from the 19th century will seem even stranger. Style also changes with context. Science publications and literary journals, for example, capitalize titles differently. Geography matters, too. In the United States, a comma often appears before *and* in a list of three or more items. British writers generally omit that comma.

TIP

In *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies,* I discuss the most common style points. If I tackled every situation, though, you'd be reading a thousand-page book. For your most important writing projects, you may want to consult a manual of style. Many institutions publish this sort of book, listing their preferences for punctuation, capitalization, and a whole bunch of other *-ations*. A few popular style manuals are the *Modern Language Association Handbook* (for academic writing in the humanities), *The Chicago Manual of Style* (for general writing), the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association,* and the *MIT Guide to Science and Engineering Communication* (for science writing).

These examples illustrate the difference between grammar and style:

SENTENCE: Am going basketball game I to the.

WHAT'S NOT STANDARD: The word order is scrambled.

GRAMMAR OR STYLE? Grammar.

STANDARD ENGLISH: I am going to the basketball game.

SENTENCE: She was born on March 18 2009.

WHAT'S NOT STANDARD: Most writers would insert a comma after *18.*

GRAMMAR OR STYLE? Style.

ALTERNATIVE VERSIONS: She was born on March 18, 2009. Or, She was born on 18 March 2009.

SENTENCE: Them enjoy playing baseball.

WHAT'S NOT STANDARD: The word *them* isn't appropriate for that spot in the sentence.

GRAMMAR OR STYLE: Grammar.

STANDARD ENGLISH: They enjoy playing baseball.

SENTENCE: Ann spends too much time surfing the Internet.

WHAT'S NOT STANDARD: When it was first invented, *Internet* was generally capitalized. These days, most publications prefer lowercase *(internet).*

GRAMMAR OR STYLE: Style.

NEW VERSION: Ann spends too much time surfing the internet.

TIP

Standard English isn't the "best" form of the language; nor is it the best choice in many situations. To find out more, turn to Chapter 2.

Getting to Know the Elements of Grammar and Style

When you bake a cake, you need all the right ingredients. If you forget one, the cake is tasteless. English has a number of ingredients, too. You can't ignore any if you want to express yourself correctly in Standard English. Here are the basics:

- **Parts of speech:** Words, like people, base a portion of their identity on the work they do. Words that name people or things, for example, are *nouns.* English teachers call the identity of a word the *part of speech.* Understanding how to select the appropriate part of speech is an important aspect of grammar.
- **Parts of a sentence:** Words seldom like to be alone, another quality that words and people have in common. When words join together, they form *sentences.* Complete sentences are essential in formal writing.
- **Mechanics:** Surprised? Usually, mechanics repair cars and other machines. In language, the term *mechanics* refers to the little things that help readers understand what you mean. Spelling and capitalization are included in mechanics. So is *punctuation,* the placement of periods, commas, question marks, and other symbols. With faulty mechanics, your writing may suffer.
- **Word order:** In English, location partly determines meaning. *The dog bit John* is different from *John bit the dog.* In the first version, the dog is in trouble. In the second, John has a problem. You should know the rules that govern the placement of words.
- **Word choice:** Some words sound alike (*eye* and *I,* for example). Others are nearly twins (for instance, *affect* and *effect*). Selecting the wrong word can wreck your writing.
- **Word forms:** Today *I walk.* Yesterday *I walked.* The form of the word *walk* changes to reveal the time period of the action. Knowing the correct form is essential.

These are the main ingredients that cook up proper English. The next sections examine each in turn.

Parts of speech

According to one computer analysis, the English language includes more than a million words. All those words can be sorted into one of eight boxes: the *parts of speech.* Take a look at the Big Eight:

- Nouns
- Pronouns
- Verbs
- Adjectives
- Adverbs
- Prepositions
- Conjunctions
- Interjections

Not every box has the same number of words in it. The *interjection* container is light. The *noun* and *verb* containers are huge. The other boxes fall somewhere in between.

Check out these sentences, in which the parts of speech are underlined and labeled:

Nora likes algebra. (*Nora* and *algebra* are nouns.)

I told you the story already. (*I* and *you* are pronouns.)

The baby shook the rattle. (*Shook* is a verb.)

Great speeches require intense practice. (*Great* and *intense* are adjectives.)

Glen wrote his name carefully and correctly. (*Carefully* and *correctly* are adverbs.)

A play by that author received great reviews from the critics. (*By* and *from* are prepositions.)

Nora and Fred like opera, but Sal prefers jazz. (*And* and *but* are conjunctions.)

Wow, those tickets are cheap! (*Wow* is an interjection.)

You may ask, "Why should anyone bother labeling parts of speech?" Good question! Most of the time, you think about the meaning of a word, not its part of speech. Most of the time, your writing is correct. However, some important grammar rules depend upon knowing the difference between one part of speech and another. For example, an *adjective* is a word that describes people, places, or things. An *adverb* is also a description, but it can't do an adjective's job.

Take a look at these examples. Pay close attention to the underlined words:

NONSTANDARD: Today the weather is beautifully.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Beautifully* is an adverb. You need an adjective here.

STANDARD: Today the weather is beautiful.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: The adjective *beautiful* works well here.

NONSTANDARD: Bill and Tina agenda the next meeting.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Agenda* is a noun. You need an action word (a verb).

STANDARD: Bill and Tina will write the agenda for the next meeting.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: The verb *will write* provides the action. *Agenda* correctly appears as a noun.

NONSTANDARD: The puppy lifted it's paw.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: You need a pronoun in this spot. *It's* means "it is."

STANDARD: The puppy lifted its paw.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: *Its* is a pronoun.

NONSTANDARD: The rumor spread threw the class.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Threw* is a verb. An action word doesn't belong here.

STANDARD: The rumor spread through the class.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: The verb has been replaced by a preposition, a word that relates ideas. In this sentence, it relates *spread* and *class,* showing where the rumor *spread.*

In Unit 2, you find in-depth information on every part of speech. Well, every part of speech except for interjections. An *interjection* is a word that briefly comments on the rest of the sentence. *Ouch*, *wow*, and *oh* are interjections. I don't provide in-depth commentary on interjections. They have no depth! They simply add a little interest to your conversation.

TIP

Every dictionary tells you the part of speech of the word, usually right in front of the definition. Some words may have several labels because they change their identity in different sentences. For more information on how to understand every part of a dictionary definition, see Chapter 16.

Parts of a sentence

A judge sentences criminals to prison, where inmates must follow many rules. You may feel that English sentences are prisons, too, because so many rules apply to them. But English sentences are *not* prisons; they're structures to hold your thoughts. They help your reader differentiate one idea from another. Take a peek at this paragraph:

going to the beach bad idea no pets allowed want take the dog he does not bite you know kind and friendly he is to the park instead

Oh, my! That paragraph resembles a closet with no hangers. Take another look at the same paragraph, this time with sentences:

> Going to the beach is a bad idea. No pets are allowed. I want to take the dog. He does not bite. You know how kind and friendly he is! We should go to the park instead.

This one is easier to understand, isn't it? The extra words, capital letters, and punctuation are like hangers. They organize your thoughts into complete sentences. In doing so, they sort out ideas the way hangers sort out clothing.

TIP

Complete and proper sentences aren't always necessary. When you speak with your friends, for instance, you may use half-sentences.

Read this conversation. Imagine that Joe and Barbara are speaking to or texting each other:

> Joe: Want to go to the beach?
>
> Barbara: Not without my dog.
>
> Joe: Okay, the park instead.

These comments work well because Joe and Barbara are not in a formal situation. To find out when formal English is necessary and when conversational English is acceptable, turn to Chapter 2. For more about grammar and texting, see Chapter 25.

In creating sentences that are grammatically correct in Standard English, you should pay attention to verbs, subjects, complements, and descriptions.

Verbs

Every sentence has at least one word that expresses action or being. That word is a *verb.* In these sentences, the verbs are underlined:

> Candice <u>loves</u> her engagement ring. (*loves* = action word)
>
> Duke <u>ate</u> every dog biscuit in the box. (*ate* = action word)
>
> She <u>will be</u> pleased with your work. (*will be* = being words)
>
> <u>Were</u> the lights on? (*Were* = being word)

Selecting the verb form that is correct in Standard English is important. Glance at these examples. Notice the underlined verbs:

> NONSTANDARD: You <u>was</u> wrong.
>
> WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: In Standard English, the verb form *was* does not pair with *you.*
>
> STANDARD: You <u>were</u> wrong.
>
> WHY IT'S STANDARD: *Were* is the verb form that matches *you.* (To learn more about this topic, see Chapter 5.)

NONSTANDARD: The mayor speaked to voters yesterday.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Speaked* is not correct in Standard English.

STANDARD: The mayor spoke to voters yesterday.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: *Spoke* is the irregular verb form you need in this sentence. (For more information about irregular verb forms, see Chapter 12.)

NONSTANDARD: John studying for his exam.

WHY IT'S NONSTANDARD: The verb form *studying* is not complete.

STANDARD: John is studying for his exam.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: Now the verb is complete. (See Chapter 8 for more about these verb forms.)

Subjects

In a sentence, someone or something does the action or exists in the state of being. That word is the *subject.* Notice the underlined subjects in these sample sentences:

Cindy arrived at 10 o'clock. (*Cindy* = subject)

We had sandwiches for lunch. (*We* = subject)

The sandwiches were delicious. (*sandwiches* = subject)

Do you like peanut butter? (*you* = subject)

It is smooth and sticky. (*It* = subject)

Jelly and jam go well with peanut butter. (*Jelly* and *jam* = subjects)

Most times, you know who or what you're writing about. The subject, in other words, is usually easy to select. When the subject is a pronoun, errors often occur. Examine these examples. Pay special attention to the underlined words:

NONSTANDARD: Him and John failed the Latin test.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Him* can't be a subject.

STANDARD: He and John failed the Latin test.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: *He* is a proper subject.

NONSTANDARD: Are youse ready?

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Youse* is not the plural of *you.* *Youse* is not a Standard English form.

STANDARD: Are you ready?

WHY IT'S STANDARD: *You* is Standard English. *You* is both singular (one) and plural (more than one).

NONSTANDARD: Us friends should stick together.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: Us is not a proper subject.

STANDARD: We friends should stick together.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: *We* is a proper subject in Standard English.

Chapter 14 explains which pronouns work as subjects.

Pairing subjects with verbs can also cause trouble. Check these examples. Pay attention to the underlined words in these example sentences:

NONSTANDARD: Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones has been promoted.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: *Has been promoted* pairs up with one person. In this sentence, you have two people: *Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones.*

STANDARD: Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones have been promoted.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: The verb *have been promoted* properly pairs with *Mr. Smith and Ms. Jones.* Both are plural (more than one).

NONSTANDARD: The list of grammar rules are too long.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: The subject of the sentence is *list,* a singular word. It can't pair with *are,* a plural verb form. Did you focus on *rules? Rules* is not the subject of this sentence. It's part of a description, *of grammar rules.*

STANDARD: The list of grammar rules is too long.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: The singular verb form, *is,* pairs correctly with the singular subject, *list.*

To find out more about matching singular subjects to singular verb forms and plural subjects to plural verb forms, check out Chapter 13.

Complements and descriptions

Your thoughts are rich and varied. You want to say more than "Mary is" or "I run." Some elements, called *complements*, complete ideas. Have a look at these example sentences. The complements are underlined:

Mary is happy.

Deborah mailed the letter.

Cathy and Drew are always nervous in the dentist's office.

Give Jean her pizza.

Did you tell Barbara the secret?

Usually, complements fall into place correctly. Pronouns can cause problems when they act as complements. (Have you noticed that pronouns are troublemakers?) For more information on complements, check out Chapter 9. To sort out pronouns as complements, see Chapter 14.

Your writing would be very boring without descriptions. Notice the underlined descriptions in these examples:

> Every morning I run through the park.
>
> Pink paint covered the bumpy wall.
>
> Silk thread is more expensive than cotton thread.
>
> Wind in that area blows the fallen leaves away.
>
> The book of speeches helped me prepare for graduation.
>
> Singing, the choir entered the church.

As you see, descriptions come in many shapes and sizes. Chapter 6 explains short descriptions, and Chapter 15 tackles longer ones.

Small but important: Punctuating, capitalizing, and spelling

Punctuation marks, capital letters, and spelling may seem unimportant, but they add more to your writing than you may expect. Take punctuation, for example. A few years ago, truck drivers in Maine won $5 million in a lawsuit because of a missing comma!

Punctuation

I once saw a television show in which a conversation similar to this one took place:

> Angel (waving a thick stack of paper): I am writing a book.
>
> Angel's friend (looking at the first page): What is this? I can't read it. There's no punctuation.
>
> Angel: Oh, I'll worry about that stuff later.
>
> Angel's friend: I don't think so! You need punctuation now!

Angel's friend is right. You can't read without punctuation, the little marks that show the reader where to pause, when someone is speaking, and so on. These are the basic punctuation marks you should know:

» **Apostrophe:** This is a little curved hook above the line. An apostrophe, along with the letter *s,* shows possession:

- Ellen's car (Ellen owns the car.)
- the boys' locker room (The locker room belongs to the boys.)
- my cousin's shoes (My cousin owns the shoes.)
- the vice president's staff (The staff belongs to the vice president.)
- states' rights (The rights belong to the states.)

- Apostrophes also shorten words:
  - Annie doesn't ice-skate. (*Doesn't* is short for *does not*)
  - I'm excited that vacation is finally here. (*I'm* is short for *I am.*)
  - Olivia couldn't ride the roller coaster. (In this sentence, *couldn't* is short for *could not.*)
  - Isn't that lemonade too cold? (*Isn't* is short for *is not.*)
- To learn more about apostrophes, turn to Chapter 17.
- **Period, question mark, exclamation point:** These three punctuation marks signal the end of a sentence. A *period* is a little dot; it follows a sentence that makes a statement. A *question mark* is made from a curve and a dot; it follows a sentence that asks a question. An *exclamation point* is a vertical line and a dot; it shows emphasis — the punctuation mark that shouts. Look at these punctuation marks in action:
  - Mary's socks are blue. (The period ends the statement.)
  - Are Tim's shoes blue also? (The question mark ends the question.)
  - No, they are not! (The exclamation point adds emphasis.)
- To learn more about these three important punctuation marks, see Chapter 10.
- **Comma:** A comma tells the reader to pause. This little curved hook starts on the line and reaches below. Notice the commas in these sentences:
  - Katie, my friend, is visiting from Chicago.
  - Katie arrived yesterday, but she has to leave tomorrow.
  - Chicago, which is in the state of Illinois, is a large city.
  - Tim, have you ever visited Chicago?
- If you read these sentences aloud, you can hear the short silences that appear at each comma. If commas trouble you, check out Chapter 19.
- **Quotation marks:** Quotation marks are pairs of curved marks that appear above the line. Their most common job is to mark off the exact words that someone said or wrote. Notice the quotation marks in these examples:
  - "Be quiet," said the librarian.
  - The children cried, "We were not very loud."
  - "In the library," replied the librarian, "any noise is too loud."
- To use quotation marks properly, you must follow many rules. Turn to Chapter 18 for everything you need to know about quotation marks.

Capitalization

Have you ever seen a very old piece of writing? Capital letters show up in strange places. The U.S. Declaration of Independence is more than 200 years old. In the middle of one sentence, you see a famous phrase:

the pursuit of Happiness

These days, *happiness* would appear in lowercase (noncapitals). The founders of the country could place a capital wherever they wanted, but you don't have the same freedom. Glance at these situations, which require capital letters:

- **Speaker or writer:** The pronoun *I* always refers to the person who is writing. It is always capitalized. Check these examples:
  - When I am asleep, I don't snore.
  - Gene and I love to sail on the lake.
  - Do I have to pay extra for my suitcase?
- By the way, poets sometimes place the pronoun *I* in lowercase. Poets break rules whenever they want. Outside of a poem, however, use a capital letter for *I.*
- **First word in a sentence:** A capital letter begins every sentence. The letter serves as a signal that one sentence has ended and another has begun. Read these examples:
  - Nana sings to the baby. She has a terrible voice! The baby does not mind. He loves her anyway.
  - Palm trees grow in my yard. Warm weather suits them. Rainstorms water the trees. They require little care.
- Are you curious about numbers? You can't capitalize *22* or *15* or any numeral. Are you wondering what happens when a number appears at the beginning of a sentence? Good question! The answer is that you should not begin a sentence with a numeral. If you need a number there, use the word:
  - WRONG: 22 people live in that building.
  - RIGHT: Twenty-two people live in that building.
- **Names:** I am *Geraldine Woods,* not *geraldine woods.* Nearly all names require capital letters. (Some companies choose lowercase letters for products. The *iPad* is an example of a name that doesn't begin with a capital letter.)

TIP

Of course, these aren't the only rules that govern capital letters. Turn to Chapter 21 for more information.

Spelling

Spelling — placing every letter in the right spot — is important. Take a close look at the following paragraph. Can you identify five misspelled words?

> Jenny enjoys sewing. She pushs the needle into the cloth with her thum. Tina, who is makeing a new skirt, offen chats with Jenny wen they sew.

Before you check your answers, think for a moment. The preceding paragraph contains proper sentences. It clearly states the facts. Yet it's not a good piece of writing. The misspelled words turn a good paragraph into a bad one. Here are the correctly spelled words: *pushes*, *thumb*, *making*, *often*, *when.*

In Chapter 16, you find some rules for English spelling. Unfortunately, many, many English words don't follow those rules. To check your spelling, you may need help from the dictionary. Chapter 16 also explains how to understand and use the dictionary.

TIP

Many words sound the same but have different spellings and meanings. Other words are nearly alike in appearance or sound, but their definitions are not alike. Check Chapter 23 for help with these confusing words.

Recognizing Your Grammar Profile

No one else in the universe is exactly like you. Even your identical twin, if you have one, differs from you in some way. Your biology and experiences are unique. So is your grammar profile. Some aspects of grammar you know very well, and others may puzzle you. Your strengths and weaknesses form your grammar profile.

Table 1-1 is a checklist of common grammar problems. Next to each problem is a chapter number. If you say, "I know that already," consider skipping that chapter. If you say, "I need help with this one," you probably need to read the chapter listed in Column 3, labeled "Help Needed?" Once you have filled out the checklist, you have a road map through *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies* and a clear route to a better command of the English language.

Table 1-1 Checklist of Common Grammar Problems

Problem	Chapter(s) Covering This Topic	Help Needed?
that boxes or *those boxes?*	3	
you was or *you were?*	4	
will you had or *will you have? we does* or *we do?*	5	
should be nearby or *could be nearby?*	5	
real good or *really good?*	6	
feels bad or *feels badly?*	6	
an apple or *a apple?*	6	
both strict but kind or *both strict and kind?*	7	
Mary buying or *Mary is buying?*	8	
The pie is or *The pie is delicious?*	9	
John sang, I danced. Correct?	10	
It snowed, however, I went anyway. Correct?	10	
had been asked or *has been asked? have did* or *have done?*	12	
Yesterday he walk or *Yesterday he walked?*	12	
One plus one is two or *One plus one was two?*	12	
river flow or *river flows?*	13	
pen and pencil was or *pen and pencil were? stick or stone is* or *stick or stone are?*	13	
Everyone are or *Everyone is? Here are three books* or *Here is three books? Some of the pie was* or *Some of the pie were?*	13	

Problem	Chapter(s) Covering This Topic	Help Needed?
John and I went or *John and myself went? Helen told me* or *Helen told I?*	14	
easier or *more easier? less difficult* or *least difficult?*	15	
bought only one shirt? or *only bought one shirt?*	15	
Abraham Lincoln is better than any president. Correct or incorrect?	15	
monkies or *monkeys? touches* or *touchs? independant* or *independent?*	16	
childrens' clothing or *children's clothing? I dont know* or *I don't know?*	17	
its or *it's? your* or *you're? who's* or *whose?*	17	
Sally said, I love that movie. Correct?	18	
boys, girls, and parents or *boys, girls and parents? No I will not* or *No, I will not?*	19	
beautifully made clothing or *beautifully-made clothing?*	20	
, or *: Which is correct?*	20	
Director of Security or *director of security?*	21	
the amazon river or *the Amazon River?*	21	
affect your mood or *effect your mood? Sometimes* or *Some times?*	23	
too, to, or *two?*	23	
can't hardly or *can hardly? Didn't do nothing* or *Didn't do anything?*	23	
Having played, he left or *Playing, he left?*	24	
to swim, to dive, and floating or *swimming, diving, and floating?*	24	
Text LOL? or *Text I am joking?*	25	
The problem is: Correct punctuation?	25	

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Recognizing how language adapts to suit the purpose, audience, and medium
- Choosing the appropriate level of formality

Chapter 2
Adapting Language to Every Situation

Presumably, you're reading this book because you want to learn good grammar. Excellent plan! The only problem is that *good grammar* is a moving target. What works in one situation may be completely inappropriate in another. In this chapter, I explain how to tailor your speech and writing to suit any purpose, medium, and situation. In Chapter 25, I go into more detail on the opportunities and demands of electronic communication — texts, tweets, posts, and presentation slides.

Grasping the Power and Limits of Standard English

During my grammar lessons, students sometimes ask me who made the rules I'm explaining. My answer: "*You* did." That's a collective *you*, however. When I state that *made* refers to an action in the past and *make* to an action in the present, I'm relaying what millions of English speakers have agreed on. If one person decides to fashion a new rule — say, that every sentence must begin with three exclamation points — it's likely to puzzle whoever is on the receiving end of the communication. !!!Do you see what I mean?

Here's where standards come in, closely followed by English teachers who are eager to explain, enforce, and, if need be, hammer their version of the rules into students' heads. When enough people agree on what to capitalize and how verb tenses designate time, English teachers teach that rule and grammar-book writers write about it. We're always a little behind, though, because language continues to change. So we catch up, groaning about how in *our* student days we met higher standards. But we didn't. We just met different standards, about which our own teachers undoubtedly complained.

A few English teachers and linguists have at times pulled grammatical power away from the people. Inventing or rewriting rules, they somehow convinced influential people that following those rules was a sign of a well-educated person. That idea lives on. If you speak and write according to the rules of Standard English, you're more likely to receive higher grades in school or status at work. That's not necessarily fair, but it's true. Standard English has power and advantages. It also has limitations. Some of the best, most inventive language comes from those who break the rules in a creative way. Beauty and energy often characterize nonstandard expression, and our verbal life would be very dull if rule-breaking were somehow eliminated.

What all this adds up to, I hope, is vibrant language that communicates your intended meaning in a way that suits your audience and purpose. My recommendation is to follow the rules when they serve your interests and break them when they don't. How? Read on.

Adjusting Language to Suit Your Audience

How many "Englishes" do you know? Chances are you're familiar with some version of these three:

> Wanna see the Yankees crush the Sox this afternoon? (friendspeak)
>
> Took the car. Back by 6. Bringing dinner! (conversational English)
>
> I am very sorry, Officer. I did not realize the road around the stadium was closed on game days. Please don't give me a ticket. (Standard English)

Can you see how the language in each example moves up the ladder of formality? In the first, the speaker is talking to a pal. I call this sort of language friendspeak. In the second, the writer leaves a note for a family member. This is conversational English, the go-to choice for everyday exchanges. The third is Standard English, the most formal level of language and a good choice for remarks to authority figures, such as the police.

TIP

There are gradations on the formality ladder, of course, as well as regional and community dialects. All can enrich communication. In this book, I concentrate on the rules of Standard English and the ways in which they may be eased or broken without impairing your message.

Wanna get something to eat? Friendspeak

When you relax, you probably take off your school or business outfit and put on comfortable clothing. Sweats and an old T-shirt signal that you have no obligations. You can do whatever

you like. You're in charge! Language works the same way. *Friendspeak*, my term for the language you use when you're off duty, shows that it's time for fun.

Friendspeak works well when the power level is balanced. The people you're talking with or writing to are your peers. Look at these two conversations, both of which took place in my classroom:

> STUDENT to TEACHER: George and I went to the gym. He did 60 push-ups. I can't do nearly as many.
>
> TEACHER to STUDENT: George exercises regularly. That's why he's strong.
>
> SAME STUDENT to ANOTHER STUDENT: Me and George went to the gym. He did 60 push-ups, and I'm like, no way.
>
> OTHER STUDENT: Dude, he like, lives in the gym.

These two conversations say the same thing, but not in the same way. In speaking with teachers, students usually know they must follow the rules. The teacher also follows grammar rules. Why? The teacher–student relationship is a formal one. In the second conversation, breaking the rules is the point. The speakers have nothing to prove to each other. They're comfortable with each other's mistakes. In fact, they make mistakes on purpose, to show that they have a personal, friendly relationship.

TIP

Standard English, which follows the rules strictly, often gives you an advantage in life. When you speak with friends, though, perfectly proper sentences may sound snobby. For this reason, more casual language (either friendspeak or conversational English, which I cover in the next section) is sometimes more suitable than Standard English.

I don't deal with friendspeak in this book. Chances are, you already know it. This level of language is fine in these situations:

- Talking with friends
- Chatting with close family members, especially those who are the same age
- Writing to friends in emails and texts

WARNING

Many people use the friendspeak level of English for posts on social media. This practice sounds harmless. After all, you're writing to people who, on that website, are your friends. Be careful! Employers and school officials sometimes check social media when they're considering your application for a job or for admission to a school. True, they understand that you aren't aiming for perfect grammar when you post. However, if you come across as ignorant — or worse, offensive — you may decrease your chances of acceptance. Even more important, you may hurt your readers!

REMEMBER

Employ friendspeak only when you're sure that the people you're addressing are comfortable with this type of language.

Conversational English

One step higher on the ladder of formality is conversational English. Instead of sweats and tees, think of conversational English as well-fitting jeans and a reasonably nice shirt. The language is comfortable, but not as messy as friendspeak. Conversational English is the language just about everyone uses for — surprise! — conversations. In this level of language, the people speaking probably know each other. They relax, but not completely.

Conversational English has a breezy sound. Letters are dropped in contractions (*don't, I'll, would've,* and so forth). In written form, conversational English breaks punctuation rules, too. Sentences run together, and commas connect all sorts of things. Multiple punctuation marks (two or three exclamation points, for example) show strong emotion, especially in social media posts and texts.

I use conversational English in this book because, as I write, I imagine that I am speaking with you, the reader. I pretend that I know you and that we are spending some free time together. I don't see myself as a teacher in a formal classroom situation.

Conversational English is suitable for these situations:

- Chats with friends and family
- Conversations with neighbors and other acquaintances
- Notes, emails, instant messages, letters, and texts to friends and family
- Comments posted on social media
- Informal conversations with teachers
- Remarks to co-workers

WARNING

The last two items on this list are tricky. In a school or business situation, you can be friendly, but not too friendly. Suppose a teacher is in the middle of a lesson. In this situation, don't employ conversational English. Questions and remarks during class are best phrased in Standard English. If you're chatting with a teacher after class, though, you don't need formal language. At work, conversational English is fine for lunch and coffee breaks. During meetings at work, you should be more careful to follow the rules of grammar.

TIP

At work or at school, check the level of language before you speak. How formal are others' remarks? Listen, and adapt your own language to match the group's preferred style.

Standard English

Standard English is similar to the clothing you select when you want to look your best. Imagine a business suit or an outfit you would wear to a dinner party. When you employ Standard English, your readers or listeners grasp that you know the rules of grammar. You demonstrate that you have a strong vocabulary.

You should speak and write in Standard English when you're addressing someone who has more power and authority than you do. This level of English adds dignity to every interaction. It signals that you're taking things seriously and putting forth your best effort. Use Standard English for these situations:

- Business letters
- Emails to clients, colleagues, and teachers
- Letters to the editor or to government officials
- Written reports (on paper or on websites)
- Memos
- Homework assignments
- Notes or emails to teachers
- Speeches, presentations, and oral reports
- Important conversations (job interviews, admissions interviews, and the like)

In any situation in which you're being judged, begin with Standard English. You can always ease up if you discover that your reader or listener prefers a different, less formal style.

REMEMBER

You have to know the rules of Standard English before you decide that it's okay to break them. As you read *English Grammar All-in-One For Dummies*, keep track of the rules. Practice so that you can be perfect when the need arises.

EXAMPLE

Q. Can you recognize rungs on the ladder of formality? Place these expressions in order, moving from the most formal to the least. ***Note:*** Two expressions may tie. For example, your answer may be "1 and 2, 3." In that answer, the first and second statements have the same level of formality, and the third statement is less formal than the first two.

(1) You just don't get it.

(2) You do not comprehend the situation.

(3) You don't understand what happened.

A. **2, 3, 1** Expression 2 is the most formal, with no contractions, such as *don't*, which you see in 3. Expression 2 also includes a fairly sophisticated word, *comprehend.* Option 3 is a little more relaxed than 2, with the contraction *don't* and *what happened* instead of *the situation.* Expression 1 includes slang: *get it* means "understand." Slang is always informal.

YOUR TURN

Place these expressions in order, moving from the most formal to the least. ***Note:*** Two expressions may tie.

1 **(1)** I provide herein

(2) I enclose

(3) Here's

2 **(1)** Don't worry about that issue.

(2) Hey, don't flip out!

(3) Forget it, please.

3 **(1)** does not exercise

(2) total couch potato

(3) never exercises

4 **(1)** My bad.

(2) Oops! Sorry.

(3) I apologize.

5 **(1)** Does this interest you?

(2) r u in? (*Note:* This is equivalent to "Are you in?")

(3) Are you in?

In addition to recognizing levels of formality, you have to decide when each is the best choice. Consider the power balance: Communicating with someone who has more power than you generally requires more formal expression. With peers, you can ease up. Also think about your purpose. Do you want to be perceived as knowledgeable and professional? Friendly and relaxed? If you answered yes to the first question, move higher on the formality ladder. If the second is true, take it down a notch.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which remarks from a student to a teacher are acceptable?

(A) no hw — ttyl

(B) Just a note to let you know I didn't do the homework. I'll explain later! Ralph

(C) Dear Ms. Smith,

I was not able to do my homework last night. I will speak with you about this matter later.

Sincerely,

Ralph

A. **(B) or (C)** The correct answer depends on a few factors. How willing are you to be stuck sitting in the corner of the classroom for the rest of the year? If your answer is "very willing," send A, a text written in friendspeak. (By the way, *hw* is short for homework, and *ttyl* means "Talk to you later.") Does your teacher come to school in jeans and sneakers? If so, (B) is probably acceptable because it's written in conversational English. Is the teacher prim and proper, expecting you to follow every rule ever created, including a few that only professional copyeditors know? If so, (C), which is written in Standard English, is your best bet.

YOUR TURN

Which choice(s), if any, would be appropriate for the situation described?

6 blog post written by a cookbook reviewer

(A) I cooked three chickens tonight, and I'm now on page 5567 of *How to Cook Everything.* It was terrible. Don't ever put a sardine near a chicken.

(B) i cooked three chickens tonight and im now on p 5567 of How to Cook Everything. It was terible. Don't ever put a sardine near a chicken ever.

(C) 3 chix w/ sards tonight p 5567 *How Cook Everything* terrible

(D) None

7 note to boss

(A) Met client. Deal okay if shipping included. Your thoughts?

(B) shp deal brAkr ok?

(C) The client has accepted the deal on the condition that all shipping costs are included in the price we quoted. I wonder if you would mind getting back to me, at your earliest convenience, so that I have some idea whether this stipulation is all right with you.

(D) None

8 ad directed at undecided voters, written by a lobbyist

(A) No on #toothpastebill

(B) no toothpaste bill #myteethRmine

(C) Tell your representative to vote no on the bill to ban toothpaste.

(D) None

9 note to teacher from student

(A) no hw cat 8 it better tmrw leo

(B) Mr. Smarva, sorry, can't hand in my homework my cat ate it I'll do better tomorrow your friend Leo

(C) cat ate hw do bettrr tomorrow leo

(D) None

10 written comments about an excavation, from archaeologist to colleagues

(A) The horizontal strips of a metallic substance and the marks of a crude pickax suggest that this was a prehistoric mine.

(B) Horizontal strips of metal + pickax marks = prehistoric mine

(C) I ascertain from the evidence that the site was consistent with a prehistoric mine. The aforementioned evidence (the horizontal strips of a metallic substance and the marks of a crude pickax) appears incontrovertible.

(D) None

11 message to a potential employer from a person interviewing for a job

(A) can't come now maybe later.

(B) not now, maybe L8R

(C) I cannot come now, maybe later.

(D) None

12 text to close friend

(A) I will have to get back to you. The professor just arrived. I will text again after the class ends.

(B) prof l8r

(C) prof here ttyl

(D) None

13 handwritten note on a thank-you card

(A) Hi, Grandpa. The speaker was great. Thanks for arranging her visit. Love, Alice

(B) Grandpa the speaker great thanks for arranging

(C) great speaker thx

(D) None

14 opinion piece about a musical performance, published in a school paper

(A) BB's last set = epic fail — where do they find those chords?

(B) Bl Bk's last set didn't work. Were do thA find those chords?

(C) Blue Beak's last set was a problem. Seriously, where do they find those notes?

(D) None

15 tweet to high school students from the class president

(A) tlion 9s only

(B) #library is 9s only

(C) Library is open now for 9th graders only!

(D) None

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **1, 2, 3** Expression 1 uses an old-fashioned, totally formal word, *herein.* Expression 2 is more modern and less formal. Expression 3 is a contraction *(here's* is short for *here is).* The contraction makes this expression the least formal of the three.

2. **1, 3, 2** All three of these statements attempt to reassure the listener or reader. Expression 1 is the most formal, with a complete sentence including a dignified phrase, *that issue.* Expression 2 employs slang *(flip out = get upset),* as well as the informal greeting *hey.* Somewhere in the middle is Expression 3, which attaches *please* to a complete sentence.

3. **1 and 3, 2** Expressions 1 and 3 are Standard English, on the same level of formality. Expression 2 is slang. (A *total couch potato* is someone who never gets off the couch.) Expression 2 is the least formal.

4. **3, 1 and 2** *I apologize* is grammatically correct and proper for all occasions. Expressions 1 and 2 are less formal because they include slang (*my bad = my mistake,* understood as an apology, and *oops,* an expression admitting an accident or error).

5. **1, 3, 2** Expression 1 has no contractions or slang, so it's formal. Expression 3, on the other hand, uses a shortened form of the expression — close to slang. *Are you in?* means *Are you interested?* and is conversational. The least formal is Expression 2, which uses texting abbreviations, *r (are)* and *u (you).*

6. **(A)** Option (B) is filled with problems. No matter who your reader is, you should avoid incorrect spelling *(terible).* Also, why lowercase the personal pronoun *I?* It's not much harder or time-consuming to add an apostrophe to *I'm.* Option (C) is worse because it includes abbreviations and shortened words *(chix)* that would be better for a text to a friend than a post on a website. Option (A) obeys the rules of standard English — not a bad idea for someone who wants to be taken seriously as a reviewer.

7. **(A)** You don't have to write all the information in option (C). By the time the boss finishes reading all those unnecessary words, the client may have moved to another supplier in sheer frustration. The same information comes through in option (A), which is shorter, and though not formal, stays close enough to Standard English to please a boss. Option (B) is far too informal for a message to someone with more power than you. Also, *brAkr (breaker)* isn't standard and may be incomprehensible.

8. **(C)** The meaning as expressed in option (C) is clear, and because the lobbyist wants to convince voters that the ideas are the product of an intelligent being, proper grammar and spelling are a plus. The other two choices are vague and more suited for a community that expects informality. The hashtags (the # symbols) are intended to rally like-minded readers to join together, but it's hard to gather support for an ill-defined cause.

9. **(D)** If Leo seriously wants to be excused for missing a homework assignment, he should unearth every bit of grammar knowledge he has, because a teacher is an authority figure and deserves Standard English.

10. **(A)** Option (C) is far too wordy and stuffy, even for academia. Option (B) is too informal. The plus and equal signs don't belong in a post about archeology from someone who wants to be respected as a professional in that field.

11 **(D)** Writing in a business setting should be more formal than options (A), (B), and (C). Furthermore, if you're postponing an interview, courtesy demands a reason (the building's on fire, you broke your leg, a comet's about to strike Earth — *something*).

12 **(C)** Option (A) isn't wrong, exactly, but a close friend doesn't need complete and proper sentences, especially when the professor has arrived and you're supposed to be ready for class. Your peers probably understand the words you shortened, especially an abbreviation such as *ttyl* ("talk to you later") that frequently appears in texts and informal posts on social media. Option (B) is a little too vague.

13 **(A)** In option (A), the punctuation is correct, and the sentences make sense. Grandpa will be proud. The others may be acceptable (grandparents tend to give their grandchildren a lot of leeway), but it's not particularly polite to leave your best grammar on the shelf when writing to someone older than you, especially when that person has done you a favor.

14 **(C)** The tone of option (C) is conversational, but that's usually fine in a school paper. The other options are better suited to friend-to-friend text.

15 **(C)** The senior class president should come across as friendly, but a bit serious also. Not to mention clear! A tweet to teens can include all sorts of abbreviations. But *tlion*, which appears in option (A), is an abbreviation I made up. Inside my head. Just me! It means "the library is open now." Option (B) doesn't include all the information. Only option (C) has a clear meaning and sounds friendly but informal.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 2 Quiz

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Which of these statements, if any, are suitable in the specified situation? ***Note:*** The statement may be excerpted from a longer conversation or piece of writing.

1. Situation: Student's email to a teacher asking for a letter of recommendation

   (A) Would you please write a letter of recommendation?

   (B) You get me. Wanna write for me?

   (C) r u ok to write 4 me?

2. Situation: Letter of complaint from a customer to a company about a recent purchase

   (A) Your vacuum stinks. I want my money back now!

   (B) The vacuum doesn't work, so I want a refund.

   (C) Vacuum = busted. Refund = mine.

3. Situation: Text from Lily, who has known Anthony since preschool, commenting on a mutual friend's unexpected offer to help with a school project

   (A) 2G2BT

   (B) rly? r u sure?

   (C) 4 real?

4. Situation: Co-worker speaking to a peer at a committee meeting chaired by their supervisor

   (A) The marketing stuff's epic, but the neighborhood's sketchy.

   (B) Whassup with the neighborhood? The marketing's okay.

   (C) The marketing is fine, but the neighborhood is questionable.

5. Situation: Phone call from a parent to another parent about a playdate for their children

   (A) Saturday okay with you? Maybe the beach? Or the playground? Could be fun.

   (B) How about I take the kids to the beach or the playground on Saturday for a fun afternoon?

   (C) Would it be permissible for me to take our children on an excursion this Saturday, perhaps to the beach or to the playground, so that they can amuse each other for a while?

6. Situation: Alice speaking with a traffic patrol officer who has pulled her over to the side of the road

   (A) You gotta problem?

   (B) What's the problem, Officer?

   (C) Is there a problem?

7 Situation: Text from a boss to an assistant, requesting a file they've been working on

(A) get me file asap

(B) need file now

(C) file – now

8 Situation: Comment to a citizen from a clerk in a government agency

(A) What's your DOB and SSN?

(B) Tell me your date of birth and social security number.

(C) When were you born, and what's your social?

9 Situation: Email from broker to customer who asked for information quickly

(A) Spoke with Jacobs. Deal's OK with him.

(B) I had a chance to speak with Mr. Jacobs, as you asked. I called him immediately, as you were in a rush. He indicated that the deal is fine with him.

(C) Re Jacobs: deal's okay with him.

10 Situation: Email to co-workers from their union representative about a possible job action. It's illegal for the union members to strike

(A) Tomorrow we should all call in "sick," if that's how the vote turns out at the meeting tonight.

(B) Important vote at tonight's meeting. Please attend.

(C) We're getting the flu tomorrow, depending on tonight's vote.

Answers to Chapter 2 Quiz

1 **(A)**

A teacher has more power than a student, and so does anyone who's doing you a favor. Statement (B) — which a student actually sent! — is too informal. Statement (C) is never acceptable in an email, text, or instant message to anyone other than a close friend.

2 **(A) and (B)**

Statement (A) is rude, but it does get the point across. (Courtesy, of course, is always best, but grammatically this one works.) Statement (B) conveys the message more politely. It, too, is fine. Statement (C) probably won't be taken seriously by a manufacturer. (Would *you* send money to someone who uses this sort of language?)

3 **All of the statements**

Because Lily and Anthony are close friends, they probably text each other often and understand these abbreviations. Grammarians usually detest such shortcuts, but realists know that abbreviations and shortened words convey meaning — and they aren't going away anytime soon. For those who don't text, *2G2BT* means *too good to be true, rly* means *really, r u sure* means *are you sure?*, and *4 real* means *for real.*

4 **(C)**

Because the supervisor is present, the speaker should steer clear of slang such as *epic* (impressive, great), *sketchy* (borderline, not quite safe or correct), and *whassup* (a short form of *What's up?* or *What's going on?*). The third statement is fine.

5 **(A) and (B)**

Parents are peers, so conversational English, which you see in Statements (A) and (B), is fine. Statement (C) is far too formal and stiff.

6 **(B) and (C)**

A cop who is ordering you around has more power. Statement (A) is for peers, not the traffic patrol. Statements (B) and (C) are sufficiently formal for the situation.

7 **(A) and (B)**

When a boss speaks to an assistant, the boss has more power and can break the rules of conventional grammar, as long as the intended meaning is clear. The first and second statements are okay, assuming that the assistant knows which file the boss wants. (*ASAP* is a common acronym meaning "as soon as possible." It's safe to assume that most people understand it.) Statement (C) is unclear. Does the boss want the assistant to file away information for the boss, work on the file, or bring the file to the boss? More than one meaning is possible, so Statement (C) is unacceptable.

8 **(B)**

The acronyms DOB and SSN aren't universally understood. Similarly, your social may be mystifying. Only Statement (B) is completely clear.

9 **(A) and (C)**

A customer usually merits your most formal writing, but if the customer wants something fast (and this one does), a condensed message is actually better than a drawn-out statement. Statements (A) and (C) give the facts — and the impression that the broker rushed the message to the customer as rapidly as possible. Both are better than Statement (B), which meanders toward meaning.

10 **(B)**

Email should never be used for communications you want to keep private. In Statements (A) and (C), the union representative hints at a planned strike. Those emails could lead to a court case. Statement (B) is more neutral and less likely to appear as evidence.

2 Exploring Parts of Speech

In This Unit . . .

CHAPTER 3: **People to See, Places to Go, Things to Remember: Recognizing Nouns**

Identifying Nouns
Sorting Out Singular and Plural Nouns
Attaching "This," "These," and Other Words to Nouns
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 3 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 3 Quiz

CHAPTER 4: **Meeting the Pronoun Family**

Working Hard: Pronouns and Their Jobs
Tracing Pronoun Traits
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 4 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 4 Quiz

CHAPTER 5: **Existing and Acting with Verbs**

Expressing Meaning with Verbs
Meeting the Families: Linking and Action Verbs
Pop the Question: Locating the Verb
Calling the Help Line for Verbs
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 5 Quiz
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CHAPTER 6: **Two Real Really Good Parts of Speech: Adjectives and Adverbs**

Clarifying Meaning with Descriptions
Adding Adjectives
Stalking the Common Adverb
Choosing Between Adjectives and Adverbs
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 6 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 6 Quiz

CHAPTER 7: **Tiny but Mighty: Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections**

Proposing Relationships: Prepositions
Connecting with Conjunctions
Interjections Are Easy!
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 7 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 7 Quiz

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Spotting nouns
- Forming plurals
- Attaching *this, that, these,* and *those* to nouns

Chapter 3

People to See, Places to Go, Things to Remember: Recognizing Nouns

Watch very young children learning to speak. Their first words are usually the names of important people, places, or things: *Mama, Dada, home,* or *toy.* I imagine that language started in the same way. Our ancient relatives probably talked about what mattered to them — *cave, fire,* or *bear,* and, of course, *Mama* and *Dada.* Parents are always important people.

In this chapter, you learn about the first part of speech that young children use — nouns. You identify nouns and sort out those that name one (*singular* nouns) from those that name more than one (*plural* nouns). You also see how to attach other words — *that, this, those,* and *these* — to nouns.

Identifying Nouns

Important people, places, and things need names. The part of speech that names them is a *noun.*

Before you do anything with nouns — change them from singular to plural or the other way around, capitalize them, or place them in sentences — you have to find them. In this section, you search for nouns when they name people, places, things, events, ideas, or emotions.

Naming people with nouns

Who are you? You are, right now, a reader. You may also be some of these: a man, a woman, a student, or a worker. You may be a mother or father, a son or daughter, a cousin, or a grandparent or grandchild. Perhaps you're a famous actor. (If you're famous, please autograph something for me. I can make a lot of money selling autographed items on eBay.)

Every underlined word in the paragraph above is a general term for a person and also a *noun.* Other nouns for people include:

singer

writer

New Yorker

lawyer

neighbor

Can you guess which nouns apply to me? You really, really don't want to hear me sing, and I know nothing about the law. I do write, and I live in New York. I can use writer, New Yorker, and neighbor to talk about myself. All these nouns refer to me, a person. (The word *person,* by the way, is also a noun.)

Of course, I can also use my name to talk about myself. I'm Geraldine Woods. My friends call me Gerri. (People who don't like me have names for me, too, but I won't print those names here.) All names are nouns, including these:

Abraham Lincoln

Queen Elizabeth I

Mary Watson

Spider-Man

Do I have to tell you that nothing on this list applies to me? I am sorry to disappoint you, but I am not a queen (like Elizabeth I), a president (like Abraham Lincoln), or a superhero (like Spider-Man).

TIP

Did you notice that the names in the preceding list begin with capital letters? Specific names *(John Smith)* are capitalized. General names *(customer)* are not capitalized. To find out more about when a name should be capitalized, turn to Chapter 21.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the nouns in the following paragraph:

Jenny is a plumber. She told William that her last customer, Arthur Smith, was cheap. He wanted to pay her less than Gene Muller did, and Gene is a poor man.

A. **Jenny, plumber, William, customer, Arthur Smith, Gene Muller, Gene, man** All these words name people, so all are nouns.

REMEMBER

Both general and specific names for people are nouns.

Naming places with nouns

Where are you? I am in my bedroom, in the corner that I use as an office, in an apartment in Manhattan in New York State in the United States of America. A few years ago I visited London and Madrid after retiring from my school, which is located in another area of the city.

The underlined words in the preceding paragraph are places. Words that name places, even when they are general terms, are nouns. Here are several more:

river

mountain

continent

theater

street

Names of specific places are also nouns:

Sahara Desert

Antarctica

Greenwich Village

Sierra Nevada

Jupiter

The places that nouns name can be very large (the *universe*) or very small (my *closet*). Size doesn't matter. (Well, size doesn't matter in grammar! You decide whether it matters in other areas.)

TIP

Capital letters do matter. The name of a specific place is capitalized *(Atlantic Ocean)*. General names of places are not *(island)*. For more information about capitalizing the names of places, see Chapter 21.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the nouns in the following paragraph:

In Canada, which is a large country in North America, he often visits Montreal, a beautiful city on the Saint Lawrence River, near Mont Tremblant, a popular place to ski.

A. **Canada, country, North America, Montreal, city, Saint Lawrence River, Mont Tremblant, place** All these words name places (including the word *place* itself), so all are nouns.

Naming things with nouns

As I look out my window, I see many things: buildings, cars, an occasional bus, and construction on the terrace nearby, where someone has planted a tiny garden consisting of three bushes with pink flowers.

Yes, even in the middle of New York City, you can find a garden! A garden is a thing, and so are all the underlined words in the preceding paragraph. Words that name things are nouns.

TIP

When I say "thing," I don't mean only things that you can buy in a store and put on a shelf. You probably noticed that one of the underlined nouns *(construction)* is an activity. Nouns can name activities as well as objects. Here are other nouns that name things:

tables

exams

marriage

pollution

The names of events are also nouns:

vacation

New Year's Eve

birthdays

the Revolutionary War

exams

As you see, nouns may name events in general terms *(birthdays)*. Other nouns name specific events *(New Year's Eve, the Revolutionary War)*.

TIP

The name of a specific event is usually capitalized *(Great Depression)*. General names for events are normally written without capital letters *(anniversary)*. The name of an object may be capitalized if it's a brand *(Cadillac)* unless the company decides not to use a capital letter *(iPad)*. To find out more about when you should capitalize the name of an event or object, see Chapter 21.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the nouns in the following paragraph:

Nearly everyone who enjoys crafts buys glue, crayons, and cloth to make decorations for holidays and other celebrations, such as Halloween and Thanksgiving.

A. **crafts, glue, crayons, cloth, decorations, holidays, celebrations, Halloween, Thanksgiving** All these words name things, so all are nouns.

REMEMBER

The names of things, activities, and events are nouns.

Naming ideas and emotions with nouns

I feel loyalty to those I love and gratitude to everyone who has ever helped me. I believe that love and friendship are always better than hatred and rejection. Do you agree with these thoughts, or is your opinion different?

Ideas and emotions are real and extremely powerful, even though you can't touch them, and their names — all the underlined words in the preceding paragraph — are nouns. Take a look at a few more nouns naming ideas and emotions:

confusion

idealism

viewpoint

joy

anger

The names of belief systems, such as a religion (*Catholicism*, for example), are nouns. The names of causes, such as *environmentalism*, are also nouns.

TIP

Sometimes you need a capital letter for a particular system of belief (*Islam* or *Judaism*, for example), and sometimes you do not (*democracy*, for instance). For more information on capitalizing the names of ideas or beliefs, turn to Chapter 21.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the nouns in the following sentence:

He was filled with happiness when she explained her thoughts on freedom, because he also worked to bring about justice and equality in society.

A. You should have found six nouns: *happiness, thoughts, freedom, justice, equality, society.* All these words name ideas or feelings, so all are nouns.

WARNING

Many words that describe feelings and ideas have other forms that are not nouns. For example, *equality* is a noun, but *equal* is not. The noun *(equality)* names the concept. The other form *(equal)* acts as a description (*equal opportunity)*.

YOUR TURN

Identify the nouns in these sentences.

1. Oscar loves spaghetti, which is his favorite food.
2. He cooks hamburgers in his well-equipped kitchen or, if the weather is nice, in his yard over an open fire.
3. Oscar stores charcoal in a large plastic tub that used to belong to his grandpa.
4. He's known for his passionate belief in environmentalism, a cause his Aunt Emma also supports.
5. Her garbage can is very small because she recycles or reuses things instead of throwing them out.
6. Aunt Emma trains thoroughbred horses that Oscar rides at racetracks around the country.
7. Oscar rode her three favorite horses in Buenos Aires recently.
8. Both Oscar and his aunt are animal lovers and treat the animals like royalty.
9. Because Oscar is sentimental, he dedicates each race to his mother and father.
10. He wrote a song about the filly that was born on his birthday.
11. The jockeys guiding their horses to the starting gate became annoyed by Oscar's song, which he sang in an extremely loud voice.
12. The problem is that Oscar can't stay in tune when he sings.

Sorting Out Singular and Plural Nouns

Smile! You're having a baby. Smile more! You're having three babies.

Baby is a singular noun. *Babies* is a plural noun. When you become a parent, the difference between singular (one) and plural (more than one) is rather important. It's important in grammar also. Why? Within a sentence, singular nouns match up with other singular words, and plurals pair with other plurals. In this section, you examine the singular and plural forms of nouns.

Adding the letters S or ES to form plurals

Take a look at these singular and plural nouns. Notice the difference between them:

Singular	Plural
fork	forks
television	televisions
shoe	shoes
infant	infants
horse	horses
officer	officers
photo	photos

Now check out these singular and plural nouns. Notice how they differ:

Singular	Plural
brush	brushes
match	matches
kiss	kisses
tax	taxes
witch	witches
loss	losses
bush	bushes

The rule for forming regular plurals is simple: When the singular noun ends in *sh*, *ch*, *ss*, or *x*, add the letters *es* to form the plural noun. If the singular noun ends in any other letter, add *s*.

EXAMPLE

Q. Write the form that is missing in the following table. You should add or take away either *s* or *es:*

Singular	Plural
mess	
	lions
switch	
	boxes
zoo	
	gorillas
eyelash	

A. **messes, lion, switches, box, zoos, gorilla, eyelashes** The words *mess*, *switch*, *box*, and *eyelash* employ the letters *es* to form the plural. The other words form plurals with the letter *s* alone.

TIP

Words that end with the letter *o* sometimes add a simple *s* (*zoos*, *avocados)* and sometimes *es* (*potatoes*, *heroes)*. Words that end with the letter *y* form the plural with a simple *s* or with a change from *y* to *i* and the addition of *es.* For more information on *y*-ending words, turn to Chapter 16. Check the dictionary if you're unsure how to form any plural.

Plurals that break the rules

Are you a rebel, or do you usually follow the rules? I wrote *usually* because my experience tells me that no one follows the rules all the time. The English language also breaks the rules occasionally and creates strange plural forms. Read these sentences, paying attention to the underlined words:

> Help! One little sheep is eating my lunch! I'm joking. Only a few sheep live near me, all in zoos.

The first underlined word, *sheep*, is singular. The clues are *one*, which always signals a singular noun, and *is*, a singular verb. The second underlined word looks exactly the same. However, this time *sheep* is plural, indicating more than one animal. The clues are *a few*, which signals a plural noun; the word *live*, a plural verb. English is odd, isn't it? Sometimes the same word can be either singular or plural, depending on how it's used.

You can't memorize every plural form in the English language — not if you want to have time to eat, sleep, and have an actual life. However, you should know some common irregular plurals:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
half	halves	moose	moose
loaf	loaves	deer	deer
knife	knives	mouse	mice
leaf	leaves	goose	geese
man	men	tooth	teeth
woman	women	information	information
child	children	editor-in-chief	editors-in-chief

TIP

Your best path through the world of irregular plurals is to remember those you use often. You may want to keep a list of your personal favorites. You can look up other plurals in the dictionary when you need them.

EXAMPLE

Q. Write the irregular plural form of each word. If you're unsure, check the dictionary.

Singular	Plural
ox	
hoof	
scarf	
runner-up	
crisis	
aircraft	
foot	

A. oxen, hooves, scarves, runners-up, crises, aircraft, feet

TIP

When you come across a word with a hyphen (a short line separating two words, such as *runner-up* or *brother-in-law*), look at the most important part of the word — the section that carries the main meaning *(runner, brother)*. Make that word plural *(runners, brothers)* and leave the rest of the word alone *(runners-up, brothers-in-law)*.

REMEMBER

The dictionary is your friend when you're writing plural forms. Look up any noun to find its plural form or instructions for creating its plural.

YOUR TURN

Fill in the blanks with the plural or singular form of these nouns:

Singular	Plural
13. kindness	
14.	mice
15. cello	
16. itch	
17. commander-in-chief	
18. question	
19.	watches
20. tomato	

Attaching "This," "These," and Other Words to Nouns

Nouns often come with descriptions attached. In some languages, every description has a singular and a plural form, but descriptions in English usually keep the same form whether they attach to singular or plural nouns. You can correctly write about one *fine day* and five *fine days.* A few words, though, do change depending on whether the noun they're attached to is singular or plural. Take a look at these examples:

this book (singular)

these books (plural)

that orange (singular)

those oranges (plural)

this country (singular)

these countries (plural)

that dog (singular)

those dogs (plural)

As you see in this list, *this* and *that* pair up with singular nouns. *These* and *those* pair with plural nouns.

WARNING

I often hear people attach the word *them* to nouns (*them books* or *them cars*). In Standard English, *them* always stands alone and never joins a noun in this way.

TIP

Two tiny words, *a* and *an*, attach only to singular nouns. You can say *a rug* or *an apple*, but not *a rugs* or *an apples.* (If you're curious about the difference between *a* and *an*, turn to Chapter 6.) I am happy to tell you that another common word that attaches to nouns, *the*, works for both singular and plural nouns.

EXAMPLE

Q. In the following paragraph, underline the correct word from each pair:

Alex put (this/these) folder in (that/those) drawer. He locked up all (this/these) files because all (that/those) information is secret. Anne took (them/those) keys and opened (that/those) drawers. She was very interested in (this/these) file about salaries.

A. **this** folder, **that** drawer, **these** files, **that** information, **those** keys, **those** drawers, **this** file. The singular nouns *(folder, drawer, information, file)* pair with the singular words *this* and *that*. The plural nouns *(files, keys, drawers)* pair with the plural words *these* and *those*.

YOUR TURN

Select the word in Column 1 that correctly pairs with the word or words in Column 2.

21. this/these	pineapples
22. that/those	lamp
23. that/those	firefighter
24. this/these	symphonies
25. this/these	dictionary
26. that/those	iron kettles
27. this/these	sorts of situations
28. that/those	type of chair

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **Oscar, spaghetti, food** These nouns name a person *(Oscar)* and two things *(spaghetti, food).*
2. **hamburgers, kitchen, weather, yard, fire** These nouns name two places *(kitchen, yard)* and three things *(hamburgers, weather, fire).*
3. **Oscar, charcoal, tub, grandpa** Did you underline *plastic*? That word can sometimes function as a noun, but here it's acting as a description of *tub.* Descriptions are adjectives. (For more information on adjectives, see Chapter 6.)
4. **belief, environmentalism, cause, Aunt Emma** The first three are abstract, but they're still nouns. The last is the name of a person.
5. **can, things** Did you underline *garbage*? That word can function as a noun, but here it's a description of *can.*
6. **Aunt Emma, horses, Oscar, racetracks, country** Two people, one thing, two places — all nouns!
7. **Oscar, horses, Buenos Aires** In this sentence, nouns name people, animals, and cities.
8. **Oscar, aunt, lovers, animals, royalty** Why is *animals* but not *animal* a noun in this sentence? *Animal* is attached to *lover* as a description. *Animals* stands alone as a noun.
9. **Oscar, race, mother, father** *Race* can function as a verb — an action — but in this sentence it's a noun.
10. **song, filly, birthday** A *filly* is a young female horse — and a noun.
11. **jockeys, horses, gate, Oscar's, song, voice** *Oscar's* is the possessive form of the noun *Oscar.* It's a possessive noun, but still a noun.
12. **problem, Oscar, tune** Give yourself a gold star if you identified *tune* as a noun. The word names a thing you can unfortunately hear but not touch.
13. **kindnesses** Because the singular noun *kindness* ends in *s*, you add *es* to make the noun plural.
14. **mouse** The singular noun *mouse* has an irregular plural, *mice*.
15. **cellos** When a singular noun ends in *o*, check the dictionary to find out whether you add *s* or *es* to form the plural. Here, *s* does the job.
16. **itches** The singular noun *itch* ends with an *h*, so you add *es* to form the plural.
17. **commanders-in-chief** To form the plural of a hyphenated noun, focus on the most important word — in this case, *commander.* The plural of *commander* is *commanders.*
18. **questions** A simple *s* changes the singular noun *question* to the plural *questions.*
19. **watch** A singular noun ending in *h* needs *es* to form the plural. Subtract those letters from the plural noun *watches* and you've got your answer.
20. **tomatoes** To make the singular noun *tomato* plural, add *es.*
21. **these** pineapples

22 **that** lamp

23 **that** firefighter

24 **these** symphonies

25 **this** dictionary

26 **those** iron kettles Did I fool you with this one? The important word here is *kettles*, which is plural, so *those* is the plural word you're looking for.

27 **these sorts of situations**

28 **that** type of chair

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 3 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge of the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Twins Alix and Andrew have made a list of birthday presents they hope to receive. Before they make a million copies and distribute them to their family and friends, underline the nouns and correct all the errors.

What we want for these birthday:

- two orange watchs
- one complete sets of dominos
- three fire extinguisheres
- ten reindeer
- seven videoes about gooses
- two partridge in these pear tree

Answers to Chapter 3 Quiz

What we want for (1) `these` [this] (2) birthday:

- two orange (3) `watchs` [watches]
- one complete (4) `sets` [set] of (5) dominos
- three fire (6) `extinguisheres` [extinguishers]
- ten (7) reindeer
- seven (8) `videoes` [videos] about (9) `gooses` [geese]
- two (10) partridges in (11) `these` [this] pear (12) tree

1. **this** The noun *birthday* is singular, so attach the singular word *this* rather than the plural word *these.*
2. **birthday** This is a noun.
3. **watches** This is a plural noun. Because the singular form ends in *h*, add *es* to form the plural.
4. **set** There's only one, so you need the singular noun *set,* not the plural, *sets.*
5. **dominos** This plural noun is correctly spelled.
6. **extinguishers** The singular noun *extinguisher* ends in *r,* so simply add *s* to make it plural.
7. **reindeer** This is an irregular plural; the singular and plural nouns are the same.
8. **videos** This plural noun is formed by adding *s* to the singular noun *video.*
9. **geese** This is an irregular plural noun.
10. **partridges** This plural noun is formed by adding *s* to the singular noun *partridge.*
11. **this** You have one *pear tree,* so you need the singular form *this* rather than the plural, *these.*
12. **tree** This is a singular noun. If you underlined *pear,* you made a mistake, because in this sentence it's a description of *tree,* not a noun.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Recognizing the role of pronouns
- Examining pronoun traits of number, gender, and case
- Identifying pronouns and the words they replace

Chapter 4
Meeting the Pronoun Family

It is hard to imagine the English language without pronouns. They are everywhere, including in the first two sentences of the paragraph you're reading now — specifically, *it, them, they,* and *you.* Pronouns tend to be small words, but they have caused big fights, now and in the past. I discuss current issues concerning pronouns in the Introduction to this book. In this chapter, I go over pronoun basics — what they are and do, as well as what characteristics shape their identity.

Working Hard: Pronouns and Their Jobs

Some people have two or three jobs. Their reward: enough money to live on. Pronouns have five jobs, though not all at the same time. Their reward: an essential role in the English language. This section surveys what pronouns do.

Replacing nouns

Read this paragraph:

> John accompanied John's best friend, Alice, to Alice's house after the party. John asked Alice whether Alice would give John the recipe for the cookies John and Alice had eaten at the party. Alice reluctantly gave the recipe to John. "Excellent," said John to John. "Alice's recipe is the best!"

What a boring piece of writing! I suspect that you want to change the paragraph so that the same words do not appear over and over again. So do I, and because I am writing this book, I can change the words. Here's the revised paragraph:

> John accompanied his best friend, Alice, to her house after the party. He asked her whether she would give him the recipe for the cookies they had eaten at the party. She reluctantly gave it to him. "Excellent," said John to himself. "Her recipe is the best."

That paragraph isn't very exciting either, but it doesn't repeat as many words. The words I removed from the first paragraph are nouns. The underlined words I substituted in the second paragraph are *pronouns.* Here are the nouns and the pronouns that replace them, paired up:

John's→his

Alice's→her

John→he

Alice→she

John→him

John and Alice→they

Alice→she

recipe→it

John→him

John→himself

Alice's→her

For those who like grammar terminology: The noun the pronoun replaces is the pronoun's *antecedent.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the pronouns and their antecedents.

The parakeet's sharp beak is its best defense against hungry cats, except for flying away from them.

A. **its→parakeet's, them→cats**

Replacing pronouns

Here's another paragraph for you to read:

> All of the zookeepers had to bring all of the zookeepers' lunches from home today, because the cafeteria was closed. Some of the zookeepers forgot some of the zookeepers' sandwiches. A few at another table brought extra sandwiches to share. Everyone expressed everyone's gratitude.

Here's the same paragraph, this time with pronouns, which are underlined:

> All of the zookeepers had to bring their lunches from home, because the cafeteria was closed today. Some of the zookeepers forgot their sandwiches. A few at another table brought extra sandwiches to share. Everyone expressed their gratitude.

The pronouns pair up with antecedents (the pronouns they replace) this way:

> their→All
>
> their→Some
>
> few→they
>
> Everyone→their

TIP

Pronouns that end in *-one (everyone, someone, anyone)* or *-body (everybody, somebody, anybody)* have no identifiable antecedent. You can think of them as replacing the name of every person in the group *(everyone, everybody)*, one unidentified person in the group *(someone, anyone, somebody, anybody)*, or excluding the group *(no one, nobody)*. These pronouns have paired up with various partners through the years. In the very old days, these pronouns were commonly paired with *their* in situations expressing ownership. A hundred years or so ago, *their* gave way to *his*, which was supposed to represent all genders. In the recent past, *his or her* became the go-to expression. Now, more and more grammarians (including me) have returned to *their*, because it's an inclusive word. For more information, see the Introduction.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the pronouns and their antecedents.

All knew their fate.

A. **their→All**

Doubling back with -self pronouns

Some pronouns — those that end in *-self* or *-selves* — can double back or emphasize, as you see in these sentences:

> Gina told herself not to worry. (*herself* doubles back to *Gina)*
>
> Despite having practiced yoga for only ten minutes, Gina herself led the yoga class and sprained only four muscles. (*herself* emphasizes *Gina's* role)

The new plumbers reminded themselves that leaks are not, in fact, popular. *(themselves* doubles back to *plumbers)*

We *ourselves* have been drenched and enraged by a leak they forgot to plug. (*ourselves* emphasizes the speakers' authority to speak about plumbing problems)

The *-self* pronouns, in case you're interested, are called *reflexive* pronouns.

WARNING

Don't use a *-self* pronoun for anything other than the two jobs described earlier, in the section "Working Hard: Pronouns and Their Jobs":

WRONG: Gene and myself cleaned the house.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Myself* cannot replace *I.* For emphasis, it may follow *I.*

RIGHT: Gene and I cleaned the house.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the pronouns and their antecedents.

The chefs asked themselves whether the dish was spicy enough to please Peter.

A. **themselves→chefs**

Creating connections, asking questions

A small number of hard-working pronouns do two jobs at the same time: replace and connect. Check out this paragraph:

Paul, who swallowed a pencil, went to the emergency room last night. "What on earth were you thinking?" asked the doctor, whose eyes were wide with shock. "Any object that is long and pointy can cause serious injury!" The hospital bill, which wiped out Paul's entire college fund, shocked Paul and his parents, to whom Paul apologized repeatedly.

The pronouns *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *what*, *that*, and *which* are called *relative pronouns* because they relate two or more things. Here are the replacements and connections from the preceding example:

who→Paul, connects *who swallowed a pencil* to *Paul*

whose→doctor, connects *whose eyes were wide with shock* to *doctor*

that→object, connects *that is long and pointy* to *object*

which→bill, connects *which wiped out Paul's entire college fund* to *bill*

whom→parents, connects *to whom Paul apologized repeatedly* to *parents*

The pronoun *what* asks a question in the sample paragraph. *Who*, *whose*, and *whom* may also ask questions, as may *whoever* and *whatever*. In informal speech, *whatever* may also be an exit line, a signal that the speaker has no interest in continuing the conversation:

After 15 apologies, Paul muttered, "Whatever," and stomped out of the room.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the pronouns and their antecedents.

Paul's parents, who are not wealthy, grounded Paul for a minimum of five years.

A. **who→parents**

YOUR TURN

Identify the pronouns and their antecedents (speaker, spoken to, or the name of the people or things spoken about). This set of questions forms one story; the antecedent may be in a preceding sentence:

1. "What did you say?" I asked Lola.
2. She didn't answer until Henry tapped her on her shoulder.
3. He waved his hand, which was rather muddy, in her direction.
4. "Sorry," she replied. "I was thinking about the motorcycle that I bought today."
5. Jack and Elena, who are not motorcycle fans, frowned. "Whatever makes you happy is fine with us," Elena commented in an unconvincing way.
6. They prefer public transportation to gas-powered vehicles.
7. Lola, whose love for motorcycles is fanatical, ignored everyone.
8. "Nobody but me gets to ride on it!" Lola asserted forcefully. "It is mine!"
9. I told myself to calm down.
10. Lola would give me a ride after I washed her motorcycle and polished its chrome.

Tracing Pronoun Traits

If a pronoun sat down to create a dating profile, the pronoun would have to list a few essential traits — not "loves long walks with verbs" or "prefers capital letters," but these:

- **person** In grammar lingo, there are three possible "persons." *First person* refers to the one speaking *(I, we, me, my,* for example). *Second person* is reserved for the one spoken to *(you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves). Third person* is for whoever or whatever is spoken about *(he, she, it, they,* for example).
- **number** The number may be *singular* (referring to one person or thing) or *plural* (referring to more than one person or thing) or either, depending on context.

- **gender** This topic is in flux, as are many ideas about gender. Traditionally, some pronouns are masculine *(he, him, his)*, and some are feminine *(she, her, hers)*. Some aren't gender-specific *(you, your, yours, they, them, their, theirs).* Some are neuter (the official grammar term for a neutral pronoun), representing nonliving things *(it, its)*.
- **case** Pronouns change depending on whether they're acting (I told Henry), being acted on (Henry told me), or possessing (his story). That quality is known as *case.*

Anyone dating — sorry, selecting — a pronoun has to pick the one with a matching profile. In the following section, I explain these traits in more detail.

Person and number

How do you rank your own importance? Most people, I suspect, place themselves first. Perhaps that's why pronouns for speaking or writing about oneself are called *first-person* pronouns, which I've underlined in these sentences:

I love to play the piano.

Andrew gave me an enormous grand piano.

I practice on my piano daily, from 2 to 3 a.m.

I have taught myself five new songs.

I promise I won't play at night anymore! Don't take the piano! That instrument is mine!

In the preceding examples, the pronouns are all singular, because they refer to only one person. If you talk or write about yourself as part of a group, you need a different set of first-person pronouns, which are underlined in these sentences:

May we play music in the show?

George told us that life is too short to waste time listening to our songs.

"The audience will enjoy our music," we replied.

After we offered to provide earplugs, George finally gave us permission to play.

We told ourselves not to be nervous.

After the show, fame will be ours!

The underlined words are all pronouns, and all refer to a group that includes the person speaking or writing.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which of these pronouns are singular? Which are plural?

us, myself, me, I, mine, ourselves, we, our, my, ours

A. **Singular:** *myself, me, I, mine, my* **Plural:** *us, ourselves, we, our, ours*

YOUR TURN

Select the appropriate pronoun for each blank in the following sentences. All pronouns should refer to the speaker or writer. The letter *S* after a blank tells you that you need a singular pronoun. The letter *P* means you need a plural pronoun.

11 _____ (S) am going to work now. 12 _____ (S) told 13 _____ (S) that 14 _____ (S) must hurry, because 15 _____ (S) boss told 16 _____ (S) that lateness is a problem. 17 _____ (S) spoke with my friends in the office. 18 _____ (P) all agreed that 19 _____ (P) want 20 _____ (P) boss to leave 21 _____ (P) alone. 22 _____ (P) prefer to be by 23 _____ (P).

TIP

In Standard English, the pronoun *I* is always capitalized. For more information about capital letters, see Chapter 21.

Second-person pronouns stand in for the name of the person being addressed. Take a look at the underlined, second-person pronouns in these sentences:

Are <u>you</u> going shopping for new shoes?

<u>Your</u> shoes look comfortable, but orange-and-green plaid is an insult to the eye.

Are those purple sneakers <u>yours</u>, too?

Did <u>you</u> buy them for <u>yourself</u>, or did <u>your</u> color-blind cousins help?

Usually, the three of <u>you</u> buy clothing and shoes by <u>yourselves</u>, but this time a consultant might help.

The pronouns *you* and *your* may replace the name of one person or the names of more than one person. In other words, *you* and *your* may be either singular or plural. Use *yourself* for one person and *yourselves* for more than one.

WARNING

Sometimes people try to change the pronoun *you* into a different form to show that it's plural. I often hear *y'all*, *you guys*, *youse*, and other expressions. These terms are not correct in Standard English. Use them with friends, if you like, but stay away from these words when you're in a formal situation at work or at school. Let context indicate whether the pronoun *you* is singular or plural.

EXAMPLE

Q. Sort the following pronouns into three categories: Singular (referring to one person), Plural (referring to more than one person), or Singular and Plural (correct when referring to one or more than one).

you, yourselves, your, yours, yourself

A. **Singular:** *yourself.* **Plural:** *yourselves.* **Singular and Plural:** *you, your, yours.*

YOUR TURN

Insert a pronoun into each blank in the following paragraph, always referring to the person or people being addressed. The letters in parentheses after each blank tell you whether the pronoun is singular (S) or plural (P).

24 _____ (S) walked the dog last night. I want to thank 25 _____ (S) for 26 _____ (S) help with Fido. Give 27 _____ (S) time to rest today. 28 _____(S) and 29 _____ (S) friends were up very late, and 30 _____ (P) all need time for 31 _____ (P).

Talking about objects is simple, but talking about other people — in real life and in grammar — can be complicated, and so can third-person pronouns. Pronoun gender is a hot topic, which I'll discuss a moment. For now, take note of the underlined, third-person pronouns in this paragraph:

> He placed his painting on the wall. He had done all the work himself. Now he waited to hear their opinions. They all cheered! One of them said it was great. He looked at Mary. Did she like his art? If she said it was good, he would give the artwork to her. The painting would be hers forever.

Gender and number

All first-person pronouns (the "*I* family") work for any gender, as do all second-person pronouns (the "*you* family"). Third-person pronouns have recently become more flexible. That's why you may be asked about your pronoun preferences and why others may offer this information to you. I appreciate both the question and the information, and I do my best to respect others' wishes, in the same way I want others to respect mine.

Traditionally, pronouns for one person who identifies as male are *he, him, his,* and *himself.* Female singular pronouns are *she, her, hers,* and *herself.* Singular pronouns for nonliving objects are *it, its,* and *itself.* The pronouns *they, them, their, theirs,* and *themselves* aren't gender specific and, in commonly accepted modern usage, may be either singular or plural. In other words, pronouns from the "*they* family" may refer to a group of things, a group of males, a group of females, a mixed-gender group, or one person whose gender isn't known or who identifies as nonbinary or gender fluid.

TIP

Is *themself* a word in Standard English? The word was used, though rarely, from the 16th to the 19th centuries, and no one flapped about it. Then some influential grammarians deemed *themself* nonstandard. Some grammarians now prefer *themselves* for both singular and plural situations. Others use *themself* for singular, gender-neutral references and reserve *themselves* for plurals.

EXAMPLE

Q. What pronoun may replace the underlined words?

The telephone rang.

William and Ellen wrote letters to each other.

The insurance agent said flood damage was not covered.

A. **The telephone→It** (singular, neuter), **William and Ellen→They** (plural, any gender), **The insurance agent→they, he, or she.** The last answer depends on context. If you know that the agent identifies as male, insert *he,* a singular masculine pronoun. If you know that the agent identifies as female, insert *she,* a singular feminine pronoun. If the person is nonbinary or gender fluid, or if you don't know the gender, the pronoun *they* is a good choice.

YOUR TURN

What pronouns may replace the underlined words? Note: William and James identify as male, Ellen and Anne identify as female, and Alix identifies as nonbinary.

32 William and Ellen wrote letters to each other.

33 William's and Ellen's letters were seldom boring, because William and Ellen make up outlandish stories.

34 James can't resist the temptation to spy on James's friends; James said the letters were full of juicy gossip.

35 James told Anne, the girl most likely to post everything Anne hears on social media, about a scandal.

36 Anne's friend Alix spread the word. Alix can't resist gossip, either!

Case

In some languages, words change form to deliver meaning, and their position in the sentence is fairly flexible. English words tend to remain the same, and word order matters:

Mary defeated John.

John defeated Mary.

English pronouns often change form, but generally not their position. Consider *I, me,* and *my.* In Standard English you can say

I sing like an eagle with a bad cold.

but not

Me sing like an eagle with a bad cold.

or

My sing like an eagle with a bad cold.

Why not? Because *I, me,* and *my* are different cases. In Chapter 14 I tell you more than you ever wanted to know about case. Here I ask you just to recognize that it exists and that it can be a complete pain in the neck.

EXAMPLE

Q. Fill in the blanks with additional forms of the pronoun provided.

he _____ _____

A. **him, his, or himself**

YOUR TURN

Fill in the blanks with additional forms of the pronoun provided.

37 **she** _____ _____ _____

38 **us** _____ _____ _____

39 **their** _____ _____ _____

40 **it** _____

41 **your** _____ _____ _____ _____

42 **I** _____ _____ _____ _____

TIP

The pronouns I discuss in this chapter are the words that generally come to mind when this part of speech is mentioned. But did you know that *other* may function as a pronoun? How about *neither* or *each? Anybody? Someone? These? Nothing?* You most likely know the words and how to use them, but perhaps you didn't know that they were pronouns. Potential pronouns, I should say. The identity of a word depends on how it's used in a sentence. For information about these and lots more pronouns, check out Chapters 13 and 14.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **What** (pronoun that asks a question, no antecedent)**, you** (spoken to)**, I** (speaker)
2. **She, her, her** *(Lola)*
3. **He, his** *(Henry)*, **which** *(hand)*, **her** *(Lola's)*
4. **she** *(Lola)*, **I, I** (speaker), **that** *(motorcycle)*
5. **who** *(Jack and Elena)*, **Whatever** (no antecedent), **you** (person spoken to), **us** (people speaking)
6. **They** *(Jack and Elena)*
7. **whose** *(Lola)*, **everyone** (no antecedent)
8. **Nobody** (no antecedent), **me** (speaker), **it, It** (motorcycle), **mine** (speaker's)
9. **I, myself** (speaker)
10. **me, I** (speaker)**, her** *(Lola's)*, **its** *(motorcycle's)*
11. **I**
12. **I**
13. **myself**
14. **I**
15. **my**
16. **me**
17. **I**
18. **We**
19. **we**
20. **our**
21. **us**
22. **We**
23. **ourselves**
24. **You**
25. **you**
26. **your**
27. **yourself**

28 **You**

29 **your**

30 **you**

31 **yourselves**

32 **They** The plural *they* refers to two people, *William* and *Ellen.*

33 **Their, they** The plural forms *their* and *they* refer to two people, *William* and *Ellen*.

34 **his, he, they** The directions tell you that *James* identifies as male, so the singular masculine pronouns *his* and *he* are correct. The possessive form, *his,* replaces *James's.* The plural pronoun *they* replaces *the letters.*

35 **He, her, she, it** The masculine singular pronoun *He* replaces *James.* The directions tell you that *Anne* identifies as female, so *her* and *she* correctly replace the nouns. The neuter singular pronoun *it* replaces *a scandal.*

36 **Her** refers to *Anne,* identified in the directions as female. The directions tell you that *Alix* identifies as nonbinary, so *they* is the pronoun for this spot.

37 **her, hers, or herself**

38 **we, our, ours**

39 **they, them or themselves**

40 **its**

41 **you, yours, yourself, or yourselves**

42 **me, my, mine, myself**

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz, which incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 4 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Read this parent's letter to her aunt. Identify the pronouns and their antecedents. Also label each pronoun as singular (S) or plural (P).

> This morning the children and I visited the zoo. Benjamin is 12, and his energy level is truly amazing. That little boy raced back and forth in front of a lioness, who was napping! Benjamin finally caught her attention. The zookeeper begged him not to annoy the lions. "Their roar can be heard for miles!" he said. The zookeeper told us to behave or be thrown out. Anne chose that moment to pick up a stick and jab it at the unfortunate man. I grabbed Benjamin and Anne and pulled them away. The children said they were sorry, and I myself apologized also. Tomorrow should be easier. Our trip to the museum that recently opened will surely be a success. The children themselves have welcomed this fine opportunity to interact with art. By the way, do you know how much a museum might charge if anyone happens to splash apple juice on a Picasso sketch? No one here knows.

Answers to Chapter 4 Quiz

This morning the children and **(1-S)** I visited the zoo. Benjamin is 12, and **(2-S)** his energy level is truly amazing. That little boy raced back and forth in front of a lioness, **(3-S)** who was napping! Benjamin finally caught **(4-S)** her attention. The zookeeper begged **(5-S)** him not to annoy the lions. **(6-P)** "Their roar can be heard for miles!" **(7-S)** he said. The zookeeper told **(8-P)** us to behave or be thrown out. Anne chose that moment to pick up a stick and jab **(9-S)** it at the unfortunate man. **(10-S)** I grabbed Benjamin and Anne and pulled **(11-P)** them away. The children said **(12-P)** they were sorry, and **(13-S)** I **(14-S)** myself apologized also. Tomorrow should be easier. (**15-P**) Our trip to the museum (**16-S**) that recently opened will surely be a success. The children **(17-P)** themselves have welcomed this fine opportunity to interact with art. By the way, do **(18-S)** you know how much a museum might charge if **(19-S)** anyone happens to splash apple juice on a Picasso sketch? **(20-S)** No one here knows.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Identifying verbs and their distinguishing traits
- Sorting linking and action verbs
- Using helping verbs correctly

Chapter 5

Existing and Acting with Verbs

Imagine that a friend returns from vacation. If you're like most people, the first thing you do is ask some version of these two questions:

How are you?

What did you do?

In grammar terms, you requested *verbs* from your friend, because verbs are the part of speech that expresses state of being or action. Verbs come in all shapes and sizes, and grammarians have come up with a few dozen names for them, such as *predicates, modals, transitive, intransitive,* and others. Don't worry about terminology. What's important is to understand how verbs express meaning.

In this chapter, I define important verb traits and show you how to sort verbs into two families: *linking verbs*, which express a state of being, and *action verbs*, which communicate what's happening. I also discuss the role of helping verbs and take you on a tour of the most common irregular verbs.

Expressing Meaning with Verbs

Verbs do much more than express a state of being or an action. They tell time, give commands, form questions, and convey duty, habit, possibility, and many other shades of meaning. How? Read on.

Tense

To find out what time it is, you can check a clock, your watch, your phone, or a verb. Surprised by that last one? Verbs situate action and states of being on a timeline. Grammarians call this trait *tense.* Check out the italicized verbs in these examples. Notice what the verb in each sentence tells the reader or listener about time:

Mark *spilled* ink on the quilt. (*spilled* — past)

Mark's mom *is* upset. (*is* — present)

Mark *will wash* the quilt, or his mom *will murder* him. (*will wash* and *will murder* — future)

For a tour of regular verb forms in each tense and a detailed explanation of when to use them, turn to Chapter 12.

Number

Like nouns and pronouns, verbs can be singular or plural. The form you need depends on the subject — who or what is in the state of being or is performing the action. If the subject is singular (just one), the verb is singular. If the subject is plural (more than one), the verb is plural. In these examples, the subject of the sentence is in bold type and the verb is italicized:

The **poster** *is* on the wall of Sam's bedroom. (*poster* and *is* — singular)

Sam's **pets** *hate* the poster. (*pets* and *hate* — plural)

Sam's **cat** *has chewed* one corner of the poster. (*cat* and *has chewed* — singular)

My well-behaved **dogs** *do* not *chew* posters. (*dogs* and *do chew* — plural)

TIP

In the last example, did you notice that the word *not* isn't italicized? *Not* changes the meaning of the verb from positive to negative, but it isn't an official part of the verb. It's an adverb.

For help with matching singular subjects to singular verbs and plural subjects to plural verbs, read Chapter 13.

Mood

Are you in a mood? Probably, though I suspect you don't recognize that fact unless your mood is extreme — down in the dumps or walking on air. The same is true of verbs. The everyday, nothing-to-see-here mood is called *indicative:*

Indicative verbs *make* statements and *ask* questions. (*make, ask* = indicative)

Every verb you *have read* in this section *is* in the indicative mood. (*have read, is* = indicative)

Do you *see* how easy indicative mood *is*? (*Do see, is* = indicative)

The *imperative* mood gives you a command. It's easy — at least in terms of grammar. Whether you obey the command is up to you! Here are two examples, with the imperative verb in italics:

Do not *worry* about the fancy terminology. (*Do worry* = imperative)

Give commands with imperative verbs. (*Give* = imperative)

You probably already know everything you need to know about indicative and imperative verbs. One mood, though, is more complicated. It's *subjunctive*, and you use it for a sentence that expresses something contrary to fact:

If I *were* the queen of grammar, I'd outlaw apostrophes. (*were* = subjunctive)

Subjunctive verbs also give indirect commands:

I demand that grammar *be* taught immediately! (*be* = subjunctive)

Chapter 12 goes into depth on subjunctive mood.

Voice

Verbs have two possible voices: *active* and *passive.* Lend an ear to these examples:

The window *was broken* yesterday. (*was broken* = passive)

I *broke* the window yesterday. (*broke* = active)

The passive verb says what happened but not who did the deed. The active verb names the culprit. Check out Chapter 12 for more on active and passive voice.

Meeting the Families: Linking and Action Verbs

As everyone in a romantic relationship knows, when things turn serious, it's time to meet the family — the cousins, grandparents, and other relatives you'll be eating holiday dinners with for the rest of your life. Your relationship with verbs may not be romantic, but it *is* serious, because you can't make a sentence without a verb. In this section, you meet the two verb "families" — linking and action. You don't have to share meals, but you do have to recognize and deal with the families.

Linking verbs: A giant equal sign

Linking verbs are also called *being verbs* because they express states of being — what is, will be, or was. Here's where math intersects with English. Linking verbs are like giant equal signs plopped into the middle of a sentence. For example, you can think of the sentence

> Ralph's uncle *is* a cannibal with a taste for finger food.

as

> Ralph's uncle = a cannibal with a taste for finger food.

Or, in shortened form,

> Ralph's uncle = a cannibal

Just as in an algebra equation, the word *is* links two ideas and says that they are the same. Thus, *is* is a linking verb. Read on to find out about all sorts of linking verbs.

Forms of "be"

Most linking verbs are forms of the verb *be*, an essential but annoying verb that changes form frequently, depending on the subject of the sentence. Have a look at these examples:

> Lulu *will be* angry when she hears about the missing sculpture.
>
> Lulu = angry (*will be* is a linking verb)

> I *am* unhappy about the theft also!
>
> I = unhappy (*am* is the linking verb)

> Stan *was* the last surfer to leave the water when the tidal wave approached.
>
> *Stan* = last surfer (*was* is a linking verb)

> Edgar *has been* depressed ever since the fall of the House of Usher.
>
> Edgar = depressed (*has been* is a linking verb)

Charts with all forms of the irregular verb *be* appear later in this chapter.

Synonyms of "be"

Be is not the only linking verb, just the most popular. Here are a few more:

> A jail sentence for a misplaced comma *appears* harsh.
>
> jail sentence = harsh (*appears* is a linking verb in this sentence)

> The penalty for making a grammar error *remains* severe.
>
> penalty = severe (*remains* is a linking verb in this sentence)

Loch Ness *stays* silent whenever monsters are mentioned.

Loch Ness = silent (*stays* is a linking verb in this sentence)

With his sharp toenails and sneaky smile, Bigfoot *seemed* threatening.

Bigfoot = threatening (*seemed* is a linking verb)

Appears, *remains*, *stays*, and *seemed* are similar to forms of the verb *be* in that they express states of being. They also add shades of meaning to the basic concept. Reread the last example, about Bigfoot. Now take a look at what happens if you change *seemed* to a different linking verb:

With his sharp toenails and sneaky smile, Bigfoot *was* threatening.

Seemed leaves room for doubt, but *was* is more definite. Similarly, *remains* (in the second example) adds a time dimension to the basic expression of being. The sentence implies that the penalty was and still is severe.

TIP

The most common words that express shades of meaning in reference to a state of being are *appear*, *seem*, *grow*, *remain*, and *stay*.

Savoring sensory verbs

Sensory verbs — verbs that express information you receive through the senses of sight, hearing, smell, taste, and so forth — may also be linking verbs:

Two minutes after shaving, Ralph's chin *feels* scratchy.

Ralph's chin = scratchy (*feels* is a linking verb)

The ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator *smells* disgusting.

lasagna = disgusting (*smells* is a linking verb)

The ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator also *looks* disgusting.

lasagna = disgusting (*looks* is a linking verb)

Needless to say, the ten-year-old lasagna in your refrigerator *tastes* great!

lasagna = great (*tastes* is a linking verb)

WARNING

Verbs that refer to the five senses are linking verbs only if they act as an equal sign in the sentence. If they aren't equating two ideas, they aren't linking verbs. In the preceding example about Ralph's chin, *feels* is a linking verb. Here's a different sentence with the same verb:

With their sensitive fingers, Lulu and Stan *feel* Ralph's chin.

In this sentence, *feel* is not a linking verb because you're not saying that

Lulu and Stan **=** chin.

Instead, you're saying that Lulu and Stan don't believe that Ralph shaved, so they checked by placing their fingers on his chin.

TIP

Some sensory verbs that function as linking verbs are *look, sound, taste, smell,* and *feel.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the linking verbs in these sentences.

That annoying new clock sounds extremely loud at 4 o'clock in the morning.

That annoying new clock sounds the hour with a loud heavy metal song.

Oscar is awake, and he is not happy.

A. **sounds; no linking verb; is, is** If you treated the first sentence like a math problem, you'd get *clock = extremely loud*. Therefore, *sounds* is a linking verb. In the second sentence, the clock is doing something — sounding the hour. In this context, *sounds* is an action verb. The third sentence can be rewritten this way: *Oscar = awake, he = not happy.* Therefore, *is* is a linking verb in both parts of the sentence.

YOUR TURN

Identify the linking verbs in these sentences.

1. Larry is single now, but not for long.
2. He looks happy, but I am doubtful.
3. In the past, Larry has been alone only for short periods.
4. "Did you go shopping for another engagement ring?" I asked Larry, because I am always curious about his love life.
5. "You will be sorry if you continue to pry!" he exclaimed angrily.
6. "I feel sorry now," I replied, "but not as sorry as your next spouse will be."

Lights! Camera! Action verb!

Linking verbs are important, but unless you've won the lottery, you just can't sit around being all the time. You have to do something. (And even if you do win the lottery, you'll be bored without some activity.) Here's where action verbs enter the picture. Everything that is not *being* is *action*, at least in the verb world. Unlike the giant equal sign associated with linking verbs (see the preceding section), something *happens* with an action verb:

Drew *slapped* the thief who *stole* the briefcase. (*Slapped* and *stole* are action verbs.)

Fred *will run* to third base as soon as his sneezing fit *ends*. (*Will run* and *ends* are action verbs.)

According to the teacher, Roger *has shot* at least 16 spitballs in the past ten minutes. (*Has shot* is an action verb.)

WARNING

Don't let the name *action* fool you. Some action verbs aren't particularly energetic: *think, sit, stay, have, sleep, dream,* and so forth. Besides describing my ideal vacation, these words are also action verbs. Think of the definition this way: If the verb is *not* a giant equal sign (a linking verb), it's an action verb.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the action verbs in these sentences.

Larry bought a diamond ring for Lola, who plays darts with him every Friday night.

Larry knelt in front of the dart board and asked her to marry him.

Lola threw a dart at Larry and screamed, "Do not interrupt the game!"

A. **bought, plays, knelt, asked, threw, screamed, do interrupt** The first sentence has two actions: *bought* and *plays. Larry* performs the first action, and *Lola* performs the second. The second sentence also expresses two actions *(knelt, asked)*, both paired with *Larry*. The third sentence expresses three actions. *Lola* does the first two *(threw, scream)*. The third action is a command *(do not interrupt)*. The word *not* isn't part of the verb, so the action verb is *do interrupt.*

YOUR TURN

Identify the action verbs in these sentences:

7. Everyone in the bar quieted when Larry spoke.
8. They wondered what Lola would do when the dart game ended.
9. Lola likes Larry, but she does not love him.
10. She adores his new motorcycle, however, and if she marries him, she can use it whenever she wants.
11. I think Lola will say no.
12. She has saved her money and can buy a new motorcycle for herself.

Pop the Question: Locating the Verb

Here's a quick and surefire way to identify the verb in a sentence. Ask two questions:

- What's happening?
- What is? (or, What word is a "giant equal sign"?)

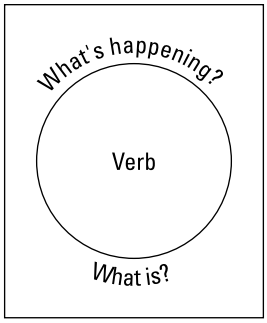

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If you get an answer to the first question, you have an action verb. If you get an answer to the second question, you have a linking verb.

Take a look at this sentence:

> Archie flew around the room and then swooped into his cage for a birdseed snack.

You ask, "What's happening?" and your answer is *flew* and *swooped. Flew* and *swooped* are action verbs.

If you ask, "What is?" you get no answer, because there's no linking verb in the sentence.

Try another:

> Lola's new tattoo will be larger than her previous 15 tattoos.

What's happening? Nothing. You have no action verb. What is? *Will be. Will be* is a linking verb.

EXAMPLE

Q. Pop the question and find the verbs in the following sentences. Identify the verbs as action or linking.

Michelle scratched the cat almost as hard as the cat had scratched her.

After months of up-and-down motion, Lester is taking the elevator sideways, just for a change of pace.

The twisted frown on Larry's face seems strange because of the joyful background music.

A. ***scratched, had scratched, is taking* (action verbs), *seems* (linking verb)**

REMEMBER

You may hear English teachers say, "the verb *to sweep*" or some such expression. But *to be* is not actually a verb. It's an infinitive. An *infinitive* is *to + a verb.* (Some grammarians see the *to* as an add-on and count only the verb as an infinitive.) Don't worry about the terminology. The most important thing to know about infinitives is this: When you pop the question to find the verb, don't choose an infinitive as the answer. If you do, you'll miss the real verb or verbs in the sentence. Other than that, forget about infinitives!

YOUR TURN

Pop the question and find the verbs in these sentences. Identify them as action (A) or linking (L).

13. The sofa is wide, and the window is narrow.
14. After one hard push, the sofa flew out the window and onto the lawn.
15. "Carry it to the truck," ordered the supervisor.
16. Unfortunately, the movers had brought their smallest van.
17. The sofa has been sitting on the lawn all night.

Calling the Help Line for Verbs

You might have noticed that some verbs I identify in this chapter are single words and others are made up of several words. The extra words are called *helping verbs.* They don't carry out the trash or dust the furniture, but they do help the main verb express meaning. In this section, I list all forms of three important helpers — *be, do,* and *have* — and explain how they function in questions and negative statements. I also discuss how other helping verbs (*can, could, must,* and so forth) affect meaning.

The big three

Challenge: Write one paragraph without using any form of *be, do,* or *have.* Are you done? How did it go? I have often taken on this challenge, but I have never succeeded. In fact, I have used forms of all three helping verbs in the paragraph you're now reading.

The verb "be"

The most important and basic part of life is *being* alive. That makes *be,* in all its forms, the most important verb. It follows no rules. When you match this verb with various subjects (the person or thing that is "being"), the form often changes. Here are three tables to help you figure out *be.* The first places *be* forms in the present, the second moves to the past, and the third goes into the future. Get ready for some time travel.

Present: Singular Form	**Present: Plural Form**	**Present: Singular/Plural Form**
I am	we are	
		you are
he is		
she is		
it is		they are
Past: Singular Form	*Past: Plural Form*	*Past: Singular/Plural Form*
I was	we were	
		you were
he was		

Present: Singular Form	Present: Plural Form	Present: Singular/Plural Form
she was		
it was		they were
Future: Singular Form	*Future: Plural Form*	*Future: Singular/Plural Form*
I will be	we will be	
		you will be
he will be		
she will be		
it will be		they will be

TIP

In each of the preceding tables, the last box of the first column contains the masculine (male) pronoun *he*, the feminine (female) pronoun *she*, and the pronoun for things, *it*. These pronouns represent any masculine noun, any feminine noun, and a noun naming any and every object in the entire world. I could have placed *Henry is, the actress was, the secretary will be* — and many more examples. In the same way, the last box of the third column could also grow. *They* can stand in for any plural noun or for a singular noun when the gender is unknown or nonbinary.

EXAMPLE

Q. In the following table, the first column contains a subject. In the second column is a time period — past, present, or future. Your job is to write the correct form of the verb *be* in the third column.

Subject	Time	Be Verb
pillow	future	

A. **will be**

YOUR TURN

Write the correct form of the verb be in the last column.	Subject	Time	"Be" Verb
18.	Ellen	present	
19.	horses	past	
20.	I	future	
21.	the box	present	
22.	you (singular, for one person)	past	
23.	puppies	future	
24.	you (plural, for more than one person)	present	

The verb "do"

"Don't just sit there! *Do* something!" Have you heard these lines from an actor in a film, perhaps as a car's brakes fail and it heads toward a cliff? The command to "do something" seems to be a basic fact of human life. The verb *do* is also basic. Take a close look at the following three tables, which cover the verb *do* in the present, past, and future time.

Present: Singular Form	Present: Plural Form	Present: Singular/Plural Form
I do	we do	
		you do
he does		
she does		
it does		they do
Past: Singular Form	*Past: Plural Form*	*Past: Singular/Plural Form*
I did	we did	
		you did
he did		
she did		
it did		they did
Future: Singular Form	*Future: Plural Form*	*Future: Singular/Plural Form*
I will do	we will do	
		you will do
he will do		
she will do		
it will do		they will do

You probably noticed that *do* changes only in the present tense, when you're talking about someone or something doing an action. How nice that this verb is easier than other irregular verbs!

TIP

I listed the masculine pronoun *he*, the feminine pronoun *she*, and the pronoun for things, *it*, in the last box of the first column of each table. If you want to pair the verb *do* with a noun that names one male, use the form for *he*. For the name of one female, use the form for *she*. The name of one thing pairs with the form of the verb listed for *it*. *They* can stand in for any plural noun or for a singular noun when the gender is unknown or nonbinary.

EXAMPLE

Q. Try your hand at pairing a form of the verb *do* with each subject in the first column, selecting a verb for the time period in the second column.

Subject	Time	Form of the Verb "Do"
Ballerinas	past	

A. **did**

YOUR TURN

Select a verb to match the subject and time period.

	Subject	Time	Form of the Verb "Do"
25.	the snake	present	
26.	I	past	
27.	you (referring to many people)	future	
28.	awards	present	

	Subject	Time	Form of the Verb "Do"
29.	boxer	past	
30.	we	future	
31.	a bird	present	

The verb "have"

You may *have* lots of things — friends, a cold, books, fun — and many, many other things. You therefore need to know the correct forms of the verb *have.* (This verb also helps to create some tenses, or time indicators. See Chapter 12 to find out more.)

Present: Singular Form	Present: Plural Form	Present: Singular/Plural Form
I have	we have	
		you have
he has		
she has		
it has		they have
Past: Singular Form	*Past: Plural Form*	***Past: Singular/Plural Form***
I had	we had	
		you had
he had		
she had		
it had		they had
Future: Singular Form	*Future: Plural Form*	***Future: Singular/Plural Form***
I will have	we will have	
		you will have
he will have		
she will have		
it will have		they will have

Did you notice that the verb *have* changes form only in the present tense, when you're talking about one person or thing? The other forms stay the same. Take care not to confuse *has* and *have.*

TIP

The verb form that matches the masculine pronoun works for any masculine noun. The verb form that matches the feminine pronoun works for any feminine noun. The form that pairs with *it* is the form you use for any noun that names one thing. The verb form paired with the pronoun *they* works for all plural nouns and for singular nongendered or nonbinary nouns.

EXAMPLE

Q. In the following table, the first column contains a subject, and the second column contains a time. Fill in the third column with a form of the verb *have.*

Subject	Time	Form of the Verb "Have"
blanket	present	has

YOUR TURN

Fill in the form of the verb *have* that fits the subject and time.

	Subject	Time	Form of the Verb "Have"
32.	firefighter	present	
33.	tigers	past	
34.	artist	future	
35.	I	present	
36.	you	past	
37.	everyone	future	
38.	Michael	present	

Timing is everything: Creating a time frame with helping verbs

Helping verbs often signal when the action or state of being is occurring. Here are some sentences with helping verbs that create a timeline:

Alice *will sing* five arias from that opera tomorrow evening.

(*Sing* is the main verb, and *will* is a helping verb. *Will* places the action at some point in the future.)

Gwen *had moved* the vase, but the baseball *hit* it anyway.

(*Moved* is the main verb, and *had* is a helping verb. *Hit* is a main verb with no helping verbs. *Had* places the action of moving sometime in the past.)

Bob and Ellen *are admiring* Lola's new tattoo.

(*Admiring* is the main verb, and *are* is a helping verb. *Are* places the action in the present moment.)

Verb tense can be complicated. Check out Chapter 12 for more information.

Don't ask! Questions and negative statements

To make your life more complicated, English often throws in a helping verb or two in order to form questions and negative statements. Usually, the helping verb and the main verb are separated in this sort of sentence. In questions, the subject (the person or thing performing the action) comes between the helper and the main verb. In negative statements, the adverb *not* shows up between the helper and the main verb. Check out these examples of questions and negative statements with helping verbs:

Does the ring in Lulu's belly button *rust* when she showers? (*Does* = helping verb, *rust* = main verb, *ring* =subject)

No, belly button rings *do* not *rust*. (*Do* = helping verb, *rust* = main verb, *rings* = subject)

Did Larry and Ella *need* a good divorce lawyer? (*Did* = helping verb, *need* = main verb, *Larry* and *Ella* = subjects)

Do Zoe's friends *play* the same song for eight hours? (*Do* = helping verb, *play* = main verb, *friends* = subject)

Will George remember all the old familiar places? (*Will* = helping verb, *remember* = main verb, *George* = subject)

You've probably figured out that the main verbs in these examples of questions and negative statements are action verbs, with the helpers *does*, *did*, *do*, or *will*. You can't go wrong with *did* and *will*, because those helpers are the same for singular and plural subjects. The other two, unfortunately, change according to the subject of the sentence. *Does* and *has* match all singular subjects (when only one person is performing the action). *Do* and *have* work best in plural sentences, when more than one person is performing the action. *Have* and *do* are also the helpers you want when the subject is *I* or *you.* (For more on matching singular and plural subjects and verbs, turn to Chapter 13.)

TIP

Questions or negative statements with *be* or *have* as the main verb don't always need *do* or *does.* In these examples, the verb is italicized:

Is grammar a popular subject?

Am I a good grammarian?

Were the grammarians *analyzing* that sentence?

Have you any spare cash for Ella's lawyer?

I have no cash at all!

EXAMPLE

Q. Change this statement into a question:

Ella visited Larry's parents today.

A. **Did Ella visit Larry's parents today?** To form the question, add the helping verb *did.*

Q. Change this statement into a negative (opposite).

George gave me help during the grammar test.

A. **George did not give me help during the grammar test.** You form the negative with the helping verb *did.*

YOUR TURN

Change these sentences to questions or negative statements, as indicated in the parentheses.

39 The grammarians complained about that statement. (question)

40 The killer *bees* chase Roger. (negative)

41 They are afraid of him. (question)

42 They should be. (question)

43 Ella wears protective clothing near the beehive. (negative)

Adding shades of meaning with helping verbs

Helping verbs also change the meaning of a sentence by adding a sense of duty, probability, willingness, and so forth. Concentrate on the italicized verbs in these examples. All are add-ons, or *helping verbs.* The main verbs appear in bold type. Notice how the meaning changes:

Rita *may* **attend** the party. Her boss *might* **be** there.

(The helping verbs *may* and *might* express possibility: Rita will go if she's in a good mood and stay home if she isn't. Same thing for her boss.)

Rita's father checked out the party and said that she *may* **go**.

(In this sentence, the helping verb *may* expresses permission: In other words, the father okayed the outing.)

Rita *should* **attend** every official event. She *must* **go**.

(The helping verbs *should* and *must* mean that attending is a duty or an obligation. Even if Rita prefers to sit on her sofa and knit socks, she has to attend.)

She *can* **sleep** during the show, though. (The helping verb *can* refers to ability.)

Rita *would* **stay** home if she *could* **do** so.

(The helping verb *would* shows willingness or preference here. The helping verb *could* makes a statement about ability.)

Every Saturday when she was little, Rita would stay home and knit. (In this sentence, *would* communicates repeated past actions.)

Lola *can* **dance**. Lola *could* **perform** on Broadway, because she is extremely talented.

(*Can* and *could* imply ability — to *dance* and *perform* in the preceding example.)

WARNING

Some grammarians are quite strict about the difference between some pairs of helpers — *can/may*, *can/could*, and *may/might.* They see *can* as ability only and *may* as permission. Similarly, a number of grammarians allow *can* and *may* for present actions only, with *might* and *could* reserved for past tense. These days, most people interchange all these helpers and end up with fine sentences. Don't worry too much about these pairs.

EXAMPLE

Q. Add a helper to the main verb. The information in parentheses after the fill-in-the-blank sentence explains what meaning the sentence should have.

Lisa said that she _____ consider running for Parks Commissioner, but she hasn't made up her mind yet. (possibility)

A. **might** or **may**. The helping verbs (*might* or *may*) show that Lisa hasn't ruled out a run.

YOUR TURN

44 The mayor, shy as ever, said that she _____ go to the tree planting ceremony only if the press agreed to stay outside the forest. *(condition)*

45 Kirk, a reporter for the local radio station, _____ not agree to any conditions, because the station manager insisted on eyewitness coverage. (*ability*)

46 Whenever he met with her, Kirk _____ always urge the mayor to invite the press to special events, without success. (*repeated action*)

47 The mayor _____ make an effort to be more open to the press. (*duty*)

48 Lisa, who writes the popular *Trees-a-Crowd* blog, explained that she _____ rely on her imagination to supply details. (*possibility*)

49 Lisa knows that Kirk _____ leap to fame based on his tree-planting report, and she doesn't want to miss an important scoop. (*ability*)

50 All good reporters _____ know that if a tree falls or is planted in the forest, the sound is heard by a wide audience only if a radio reporter is there. (*duty*)

51 Sound engineers, on the other hand, _____ skip all outdoor events if they _____ do so. (*condition, ability*)

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **is** *Larry* = **single**
2. **looks, am** *He = happy*, *I = doubtful* Did I trick you with this one? The sentence implies that Larry isn't actually happy; he just looks that way. Nevertheless, *looks* is a linking verb because it links *He* to *happy.*
3. **has been** *Larry = alone*
4. **am** *I = curious*
5. **will be** *You = sorry*
6. **feel, will be** *I = sorry, next spouse = sorry*
7. **quieted, spoke** The first verb expresses what *Everyone* did *(quieted)*. The second tells what *Larry* did *(spoke).*
8. **wondered, would do, ended** *They* pairs with the action *wondered, Lola* with *would do, and game* with *ended*. All are actions.
9. **likes, does love.** The first verb expresses what *Lola* does *(likes)* and the second what *she* does *(does love). Not* isn't part of the verb.
10. **adores, marries, can use, wants** Four action verbs for a very busy *Lola,* who is also referred to as *she* in this sentence.
11. **think, will say** The first verb expresses an action that *I* do. The second action is what *Lola* will do.
12. **has saved, can buy** These two actions pair with *she.*
13. **is (L), is (L)**
14. **flew (A)**
15. **Carry (A), ordered (A)**
16. **had brought (A)**
17. **has been sitting (A)**
18. **is**
19. **were**
20. **will be**
21. **is**
22. **were**

23 **will be**

24 **are**

25 **does**

26 **did**

27 **will do**

28 **do**

29 **did**

30 **will do**

31 **does**

32 **has**

33 **had**

34 **will have**

35 **have**

36 **had**

37 **will have**

38 **has**

39 **Did the grammarians complain about that statement? or Have the grammarians complained about that statement?** The helping verbs *did* and *have* create questions.

40 **The killer bees do not chase Roger.** *Do* is necessary for a question about a group *(bees).*

41 **Are they afraid of him?** You don't need a helping verb to form a question with a linking verb *(are).*

42 **Should they be?** No action verb, and therefore no helper needed to form a question!

43 **Ella does not wear protective clothing near the beehive.** Because *Ella* is only one person, you need the helping verb *does* to make a negative statement.

44 **would** The going is dependent on the press arrangement. Thus, *would* is the best choice.

45 **could** *Can* or *could* are the helpers that express ability.

46 **would** This helping verb expresses repeated actions in the past.

47 **should** or **must** To imply duty, *should* or *must* is the helper you want.

48 **may** or **might** Lisa, if she's in the mood, will cover the tree-cutting without seeing it. This possibility is expressed by the helpers *may* or *might*.

49 **can** You need to express ability in the present tense, which *can* can do.

50 **should** or **must** Duty calls, and *should* or *must* answers.

51 **would, could** *Would* expresses a condition, and *could* adds ability to the sentence.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 5 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge of the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

It's verb-hunting time. Read this instruction manual for Gadget-Go, a new product. Find 10 linking verbs and 15 action verbs. (These numbers don't count helping verbs separately.) Also list the helping verbs that express possibility, duty, or ability.

> Congratulations on your purchase of Gadget-Go Model 55-33. You will be very happy. This model is much better than our other models. Only three have exploded since we changed the battery type. The new battery has been stable in temperatures ranging from 70 to 72 degrees Fahrenheit. Warning: Above or below that temperature, flames may shoot out from the Gadget-Go. Keep a fire extinguisher where you can reach it quickly.
>
> Assembly instructions: First, lay out all the parts. There should be 459 pieces, plus our special G-G Frame. If the G-G Frame appears discolored or smells like fish, return it to our factory right away. Buy liability insurance first. The G-G Frame can be dangerous! One customer complained about poisonous ooze that seeped through the wrapping. When you have connected all the parts, turn on your new Gadget-Go. It should sound like a heavy metal band and feel warm to the touch. If you are happy with your purchase and your neighbors are not suing you, post a photo of your Gadget-Go on social media. Our priority has always been customer satisfaction.

Answers to Chapter 5 Quiz

The verbs are underlined and labeled L (for linking) and A (for action).

Congratulation on your purchase of Gadget-Go Model 55-33. You (1L) will be very happy. This model (2L) is much better than our other models. Only three (1A) have exploded since we (2A) changed the battery type. The new battery (3L) has been stable in temperatures ranging from 70 to 72 degrees Fahrenheit. Warning: Above or below that temperature, flames (3A) may shoot out from the Gadget-Go. (4A) Keep a fire extinguisher where you (5A) can reach it quickly.

Assembly instructions: First, (6A) lay out all the parts. There (4L) should be 459 pieces, plus our special G-G Frame. If the G-G Frame (5L) appears discolored or (6L) smells like fish, (7A) return it to our factory right away. (8A) Buy liability insurance first. The G-G Frame (7L) can be dangerous! One customer (9A) complained about poisonous ooze that (10A) seeped through the wrapping. When you (11A) have connected all the parts, (12A) turn on your new Gadget-Go. It (8L) should sound like a heavy metal band and (9L) feel warm to the touch. If you (10L) are happy with your purchase and your neighbors (14A) are not suing you, (15A) post a photo of your Gadget-Go on social media. Our priority (10L) has always been customer satisfaction.

Helping verbs: may (3A), can (5A, 7L), should (4L, 8L)

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Identifying adjectives and adverbs
- Deciding whether an adjective or an adverb is needed
- Placing the, a, and an in the proper spot

Chapter 6

Two ~~Real~~ Really Good Parts of Speech: Adjectives and Adverbs

The artist paints.

Workers build houses.

Children play games.

Could these sentences be any more boring? True, they give information, but most people want to know more:

The *massively successful* artist paints *carefully*.

Skilled, underpaid workers build *fancy, expensive* houses.

Noisy children play *video* games *frequently*.

The italicized words are adjectives and adverbs, parts of speech that add meaning and interest to sentences. In this chapter, I explain how adjectives and adverbs function — which words they attach to and what kind of information they supply. I also explain the proper use of three tiny but important words: *the, a,* and *an.* In other words, this chapter covers the basics. In Chapter 15, I discuss advanced topics relating to adjectives and adverbs — placement, comparisons, and irregular forms.

Clarifying Meaning with Descriptions

In case you doubt the significance of descriptive words, take a look at this sentence:

> Gloria was walking past Neiman Marcus when the sight of a Ferragamo Paradiso pump paralyzed her.

What must the reader know in order to understand this sentence fully? Here's a list:

- The reader should know that Neiman Marcus is a department store.
- The reader should be able to identify Ferragamo as an upscale shoe label.
- The reader should be familiar with a Paradiso pump (a shoe style I made up).
- The reader should know that a pump is a type of shoe.

If all these pieces are in place, or if the reader has a good imagination and the ability to use context clues, your message will get through. But sometimes you can't trust the reader to understand the specifics of what you're trying to say. Descriptive words can fill in the gaps. Here's Gloria, version 2:

> Gloria was walking *slowly* past the *stately* Neiman Marcus *department* store when the sight of a *fashionable, green, low-heeled dress* shoe with the *ultrachic Ferragamo* label paralyzed her.

Okay, I overdid it a bit, but you get the point. The descriptive words clarify the meaning of the sentence, particularly for the fashion-challenged.

Adding Adjectives

An *adjective* is a descriptive word that changes the meaning of a noun or a pronoun. An adjective adds information about number, color, type, and other qualities to your sentence.

TIP

Where do you find adjectives? In the adjective aisle of the supermarket. Just kidding. Most of the time you find them in front of the word they're describing, but adjectives can also roam around a bit. Here's an example:

George, *sore* and *tired,* pleaded with Lulu to release him from the headlock she had placed on him when he called her *"fragile."*

Sore and *tired* tell you about *George. Fragile* tells you about *her.* (Well, *fragile* tells you what George thinks of *her.* Lulu lifts weights every day and is anything but fragile.) As you see, these descriptions come after the words they describe, not before.

Adjectives describing nouns

The most common job for an adjective is describing a noun. Consider the adjectives *poisonous, angry,* and *rubber* in these sentences. Then decide which sentence you would like to hear as you walk through the zoo.

There is a *poisonous* snake on your shoulder.

There is an *angry, poisonous* snake on your shoulder.

There is a *rubber* snake on your shoulder.

The last one, right? In these three sentences, those little descriptive words certainly make a difference. *Angry, poisonous,* and *rubber* all describe *snake* and give you information that you would really like to have. See how diverse and powerful adjectives can be?

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the adjectives in this sentence.

With a shiny cover and a large screen, the new phone drew huge crowds when it went on display.

A. **shiny** (describing *cover*), **large** (describing *screen*), **new** (describing *phone*), **huge** (describing *crowds*).

Adjectives describing pronouns

Adjectives can also describe *pronouns* (words that substitute for nouns). When they're giving you information about pronouns, adjectives usually appear after the pronoun they're describing:

There's something *strange* on your shoulder. (The adjective *strange* describes the pronoun *something.*)

Everyone *conscious* at the end of Ronald's play made a quick exit. (The adjective *conscious* describes the pronoun *everyone.*)

Anyone *free* must report to the meeting room immediately. (The adjective *free* describes the pronoun *anyone.*)

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the adjectives in this sentence.

Anybody new and wise asks a lot of questions, which someone inexperienced and foolish answers.

A. **new, wise** (describing *anybody*), **inexperienced, foolish** (describing *someone*)

Adjectives attached to linking verbs

Adjectives may also follow linking verbs, in which case they describe the subject of the sentence. Because a linking verb functions like a giant equal sign, it links what comes before the verb with what comes after it. (See Chapter 5 for a full discussion of linking verbs.)

The adjectives are italicized in these sentences with linking verbs:

Lulu's favorite dress is *orange* and *purple.* (The adjectives *orange* and *purple* describe the noun *dress.*)

The afternoon appears *gray* because of the smoke from Roger's cigar. (The adjective *gray* describes the noun *afternoon.*)

George's latest jazz composition sounds *awful.* (The adjective *awful* describes the noun *composition.*)

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the adjectives in this sentence.

Lola seemed angry when she realized the ballroom was empty.

A. **angry** (describing *Lola*), **empty** (describing *ballroom*)

Pop the question: Identifying adjectives

Here's a trick to help you find adjectives: Go to the words they describe — nouns and pronouns. Start with the noun or pronoun and ask three questions:

- How many?
- Which one?
- What kind?

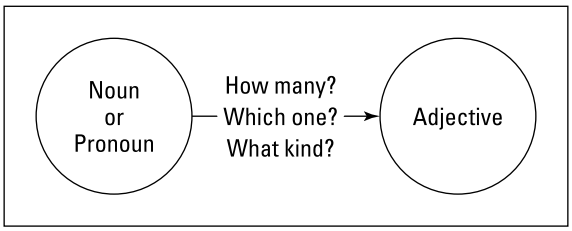

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Take a look at this sentence:

> George posted three new photos on his favorite website.

You see three nouns: *George*, *photos*, and *website*. George has led a colorful life, but you can't find the answer to the following questions: How many *Georges?* Which *George?* What kind of *George?* No words in the sentence provide that information, so no adjectives describe *George*.

When you try these three questions on *photos* and *website*, you do come up with something: How many *photos?* Answer: *three. Three* is an adjective. Which *photos?* What kind of *photos?* Answer: *new*. *New* is an adjective. The same goes for *website:* What kind? Answer: *favorite. Favorite* is an adjective.

You may have noticed that *his* answers one of the questions. (Which *website?* Answer: *his website.*) *His* is working as an adjective, but *his* is also a pronoun. Normal people don't have to worry about whether *his* is a pronoun or an adjective. Only English teachers care, and they divide into two camps — the adjective camp and the pronoun camp. Needless to say, each group feels superior to the other. (I'm a noncombatant. As far as I'm concerned, you can call *his* a parakeet for all I care. Just spell it correctly and you're fine.)

Look at another sentence:

> The angry reaction thrilled George's rotten, little, hard heart.

This sentence has three nouns. One *(George's)* is possessive. If you ask how many *George's*, which *George's*, or what kind of *George's*, you get no answer. The other two nouns, *reaction* and *heart*, do yield an answer. What kind of *reaction? Angry reaction.* What kind of *heart? Rotten, little, hard heart.* So *angry*, *rotten*, *little*, and *hard* are all adjectives.

YOUR TURN

Q. Find the adjectives in these sentences.

1. The overworked waiter brought us cold soup.
2. Annoyed diners complained loudly about tasteless meals.
3. The embarrassed owner apologized to disappointed customers.
4. Someone mean posted a terrible review on social media.
5. Smart owners hire extra waiters and pay high salaries, because a sufficient, well-paid staff is happy.

Articles: Not just for magazines

If you ran a computer program that sorted and counted every word in this book, you'd find that *articles*, a branch on the adjective family tree, are the most common words, even though the article-branch includes only *a*, *an*, and *the*. Though these words collectively contain only six letters, they affect meaning.

> Melanie wants *the* answer to question 12, and you'd better be quick about it.

The preceding statement means that Melanie is stuck on problem 12, and Mom won't let her leave until her homework is perfect. Melanie's friends are at the basketball game, and now she's texting, demanding *the* answer to number 12 so that she can join them. Now look at the same sentence, with one small change:

> Melanie wants *an* answer, and you'd better be quick about it.

This statement means that Melanie doesn't care about accuracy. She just wants *an* answer, any answer, so that she can finish her homework and go to the game.

To sum up: Use *the* when you're speaking specifically and *an* or *a* when you're speaking more generally.

WARNING

A apple? An book? A precedes words that begin with consonant sounds (all the letters except *a, e, i, o,* and *u*). *An* precedes words beginning with the vowel sounds *a, e, i,* and *o.* The letter *u* is a special case. If the vowel sounds like *you,* choose *a.* If the word sounds like someone kicked you in the stomach — *uh* — choose *an.* Another special case is the letter *h.* If the word starts with a hard *h* sound, as in *horse,* choose *a.* If the word starts with a silent letter *h,* as in *herb,* choose *an.* Here are some examples:

> an almanac (*a* = vowel)
>
> a belly (*b* = consonant)
>
> an egg (*e* = vowel)
>
> a UFO (*U* sounds like *you*)
>
> an unidentified flying object (*u* sounds like *uh*)
>
> a helmet (hard *h*)
>
> an hour (silent *h*)

TIP

Special note: People stuck in the past say *an historic event* because that word, a couple of centuries ago, used to begin with a silent *h.* The rest of us say *a historic event,* matching *a* with the modern pronunciation of *historic,* which includes a hard *h.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Fill in each blank with *the, a,* or *an.*

When Lulu asked to see _____ wedding pictures, she didn't expect _____ twelve-hour slide presentation.

A. **the, a** In the first half of the sentence, Lulu is asking for something specific. Also, *wedding pictures* is a plural expression, so *a* and *an* are out of the question. In the second half of the sentence, something more general is appropriate. Because *twelve* begins with the consonant *t, a* is the article of choice.

YOUR TURN

Q. Fill in each blank with *the, a,* or *an.*

6. Although Lulu was mostly bored out of her mind, she did like _____ picture of Annie's Uncle Fred snoring in the back of the church.

7. _____ nearby guest, one of several attempting to plug their ears, can be seen poking Uncle Fred's ribs.

8. At Annie's wedding, Uncle Fred wore _____ antique tie clip that he bought in _____ department store next-door to his apartment building.

9. _____ clerk who sold _____ tie clip to Uncle Fred secretly inserted _____ microphone and _____ miniature radio transmitter.

10. Uncle Fred's snores were posted on _____ obscure website that specializes in embarrassing moments.

11. Annie, who didn't want to invite Uncle Fred but was forced to do so by her mother, placed _____ buzzer under his seat.

12. Annie's plan was to zap him whenever he snored too loudly; unfortunately, Fred chose _____ different seat.

Stalking the Common Adverb

Adjectives aren't the only descriptive words. *Adverbs* — words that alter the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb — are another type of description. Check these out:

The boss *regretfully* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

The boss *furiously* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

The boss *never* said no to Phil's request for a raise.

If you're Phil, you care whether the words *regretfully*, *furiously*, or *never* are in the sentence. *Regretfully*, *furiously*, and *never* are all adverbs. Notice how adverbs add meaning in these sentences:

Lola *sadly* sang George's latest song. (Perhaps Lola is in a bad mood.)

Lola sang George's latest song *reluctantly.* (Lola doesn't want to sing.)

Lola *hoarsely* sang George's latest song. (Lola has a cold.)

Lola sang George's latest song *quickly.* (Lola is in a hurry.)

Pop the question: Finding the adverb

Adverbs mostly describe verbs, giving more information about an action. Nearly all adverbs — enough that you don't have to worry about the ones that fall through the cracks — answer one of these four questions:

- How?
- When?
- Where?
- Why?

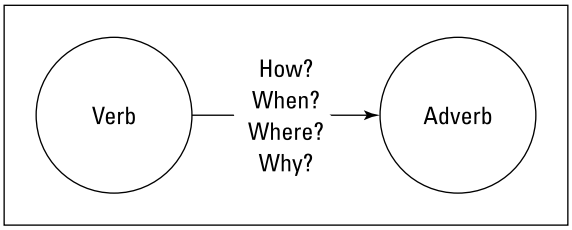

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To find the adverb, go to the verb and pop the question. (For more information on locating verbs, see Chapter 5.) Look at this sentence:

> Ella secretly swiped Sandy's slippers yesterday and then happily went home.

You note two verbs: *swiped* and *went.* Take each one separately. *Swiped* how? Answer: *swiped secretly. Secretly* is an adverb. *Swiped* when? Answer: *swiped yesterday. Yesterday* is an adverb. *Swiped* where? No answer. *Swiped* why? No answer.

Go on to the second verb in the sentence. *Went* how? Answer: *went happily. Happily* is an adverb. *Went* when? Answer: *went then. Then* is an adverb. *Went* where? Answer: *went home. Home* is an adverb. *Went* why? You find no answer in the sentence.

Here's another example:

> Bill soon softly sighed and delicately slipped away.

You identify two verbs again: *sighed* and *slipped.* First one up: *sighed. Sighed* how? Answer: *sighed softly. Softly* is an adverb. *Sighed* when? Answer: *sighed soon. Soon* is an adverb. *Sighed* where? No answer. *Sighed* why? No answer again. Now for *slipped. Slipped* how? Answer: *slipped delicately. Delicately* is an adverb. *Slipped* where? Answer: *slipped away. Away* is an adverb. *Slipped* when? No answer. *Slipped* why? No answer. The adverbs are *soon*, *delicately*, and *away.*

TIP

Adverbs can be lots of places in a sentence. If you're trying to find them, rely on the questions *how, when, where,* and *why,* not on the location. Similarly, a word may be an adverb in one sentence and something else in another sentence. Check out this example:

> Gloria went *home* in a huff because of that slammed door.
>
> *Home* is where the heart is, unless you're in George's cabin.
>
> *Home* plate is *not* the umpire's favorite spot.

In the first example, *home* tells you where Gloria went, so *home* is an adverb in that sentence. In the second example, *home* is a place, so *home* is a noun in that sentence. In the third example, *home* is an adjective, telling you what kind of *plate.* Also in the third example is the adverb *not,* which reverses the meaning of the verb from positive to negative. Loosely speaking, *not* answers the question *how.* (*How* are you going to the game? Oh, you're *not* going!)

EXAMPLE

Q. Which adverbs describe verbs?

Johnny often lost his temper.

A. **often** This adverb describes the verb *lost*, answering the question *lost* when?

YOUR TURN

Q. Which adverbs describe verbs?

13 Andrew never tells lies, though he is sometimes tempted.

14 I usually believe him completely, but yesterday I was not sure.

15 I arrived home, checked the refrigerator, and yelped joyfully.

16 "You actually baked me a birthday cake!" I screamed.

17 Normally, he forgets my birthday.

18 Andrew did not reply immediately.

19 "Unfortunately, I did not remember," Andrew admitted reluctantly.

20 He quietly added, "Your mom brought it here."

Adverbs describing adjectives and other adverbs

Adverbs also describe other descriptions, usually making the description more or less intense. (A description describing a description? Give me a break! But it's true.) Here's an example:

> An extremely unhappy Larry collapsed when the stock market crashed.

How *unhappy?* Answer: *extremely unhappy. Extremely* is an adverb describing the adjective *unhappy.*

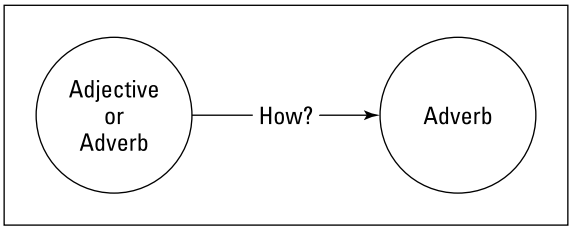

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TIP

Sometimes, the questions you pose to locate adjectives and adverbs are answered by more than one word in a sentence. In the previous example, if you ask, "*Seemed* when?" the answer is *when the stock market crashed.* Don't panic. Longer answers may be prepositional phrases (see Chapter 7) or clauses. In the last example, *when the stock market crashed* is a clause (see Chapter 11). Phrases and clauses are just different members of the adjective and adverb families.

Now back to work. Here's another example:

> Once he began to speak, Mary's very talkative pet parrot wouldn't shut up.

How *talkative?* Answer: *very talkative. Very* is an adverb describing the adjective *talkative.*

And another:

> Larry's frog croaked *quite hoarsely.*

This time, an adverb is describing another adverb. *Hoarsely* is an adverb because it explains how the frog *croaked.* In other words, *hoarsely* describes the verb *croaked.* How *hoarsely?* Answer: *quite hoarsely. Quite* is an adverb describing the adverb *hoarsely,* which in turn describes the verb *croaked.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Which adverbs describe an adjective or another adverb?

The very hungry horse ate a bale of hay and then hiccoughed rather loudly.

A. **very, rather** *Very* describes the adjective *hungry. Rather* describes the adverb *loudly.*

YOUR TURN

Q. Which adverbs describe an adjective or another adverb?

21 Much earlier, Bert had made a very rude comment to Ellen.

22 Ellen answered Bert extremely firmly but less rudely.

23 "I am totally confident," Ellen told me a little later.

24 Ellen is really good at handling particularly sticky situations.

25 Especially now that he has an Oscar for Worst Actor, Bert feels extra needy.

Choosing Between Adjectives and Adverbs

Does it matter whether a word is an adjective or an adverb? Some of the time, no. When you were a toddler, you demanded, "I want milk NOW, Mama." You didn't know you were adding an adverb to your sentence. For that matter, you didn't know you were making a sentence! Now that you're past toddlerhood, you should know the difference between these two parts of speech so that you can select the form you need. The best way to tell whether a word is an adjective or an adverb is to "pop" the adjective questions (how many? which one? what kind?) and adverb questions (how? when? where? why?), as I explain earlier in this chapter.

TIP

Many adverbs end in *-ly*, but not all. *Strictly* is an adverb, and *strict* is an adjective. *Nicely* is an adverb, and *nice* is an adjective. *Generally* is an adverb, and *general* is an adjective. *Lovely* is a — gotcha! You were going to say *adverb,* right? Wrong. *Lovely* is an adjective. (That's why I started this paragraph with *many*, not *all.*) *Soon, now, home, fast, not,* and many other words that don't end in *-ly* can be adverbs, too.

REMEMBER

Adjectives describe nouns or pronouns, and adverbs describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences.

Thank you for the presents you gave us yesterday.

The lovely perfume you gave us smells like old socks.

The presents you kindly gave us are very rotten.

A. In the first sentence, *yesterday* is an adverb, describing when *you gave* the presents. The second sentence has no adverbs. *Lovely* is an adjective describing the noun *perfume. Old* is an adjective describing *socks.* In the third sentence, the adverb *kindly* describes the verb *gave,* and the adverb *very* describes the adjective *rotten. Rotten* is an adjective describing *presents.*

YOUR TURN

Q. Identify the adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences.

26 Slipping onto her comfortable old sofa, Lola quickly grabbed the black plastic remote.

27 "I arrived early because I desperately want to watch that new motorcycle show," she said to George.

28 George, who was intently watching the latest news, turned away silently.

29 Everyone present knew that Lola would get her way. She always did!

30 George struggled fiercely, but he was curious about the show, which features a different motorcycle weekly.

31 If he held out a little longer, he knew that Lola would offer something nice to him.

32 Lola's purse always held a few goodies, and George was extremely fond of chocolate brownies.

33 He could almost taste the sweet, hazelnut flavor that Lola sometimes added to the packaged brownie mix.

34 George sighed loudly and waved a long, thin hand.

35 "You can watch anything good," he remarked in a low, defeated voice, "but first give me two brownies."

Sorting out "good" and "well"

If I am ever elected emperor of the universe, one of the first things I'm going to do (after I get rid of apostrophes — see Chapter 17) is drop all irregular forms. Until then, you may want to read about *good* and *well.*

Good is an adjective, and, except when you're talking about health, *well* is an adverb. Take a look at this sentence:

> I am *good.*

The adjective *good* in this sentence means *I have the qualities of goodness* or *I am in a good mood.* In informal, conversational English, the sentence may also mean *Everything is fine with me, I don't need anything*, or *My health is good.* (The sentence may also be the world's worst pickup line.) Now look at another statement:

> I am *well.*

Well is an adjective here. The sentence means *I am not sick.* One more:

> I play the piano *well.*

This time, *well* is an adverb. It describes how I play. In other words, the adverb *well* describes the verb *play.* The sentence means that I no longer have to practice.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Egbert did not perform good on the crash test.

(B) Egbert did not perform well on the crash test.

A. **B** The adverb *well* correctly describes the verb *did perform,* which you see when you pop the question *Did perform* how? Answer: *did perform well.*

Dealing with "bad" and "badly"

Bad is a bad word, at least in terms of grammar. Confusing *bad* and *badly* is one of the most common errors. Check out these examples:

I felt badly.

I felt bad.

Badly is an adverb, and *bad* is an adjective. Which one should you use? Well, what are you trying to say? In the first sentence, you went to the park with your mittens on. The bench had a sign on it: "WET PAINT." The sign looked old, so you decided to check. You put your hand on the bench, but the mittens were in the way. You felt *badly* — that is, not accurately. In the second sentence, you sat on the bench, messing up the back of your coat with dark green stripes. When you saw the stripes, you felt *bad* — that is, you were sad. In everyday speech, of course, you're unlikely to express much about *feeling badly.* Few people walk around testing benches, and even fewer talk about their ability to feel something physically. So 99.99 percent of the time you feel *bad* — unless you're in a good mood.

TIP

In conversational English, *I feel badly* is becoming an acceptable way to express regret, as in *I feel badly about setting fire to the chem lab.* In formal English, opt for *I feel bad* — and in either situation, be careful with flammable material!

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Lola felt bad when she discovered a dent in her motorcycle.

(B) Lola felt badly when she discovered a dent in her motorcycle.

A. **A** Lola loves her Harley, and every scratch or dent depresses her. Therefore, *bad* is an adjective describing Lola (actually, Lola's state of mind). In sentence B, *badly* is an adverb, so it would have to describe Lola's ability to feel. That meaning makes no sense.

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Lola did bad in her negotiations with the insurance company.

(B) Lola did badly in her negotiations with the insurance company.

A. **B** The adverb *badly* describes the verb *did. Did* how? Answer: *did badly.*

YOUR TURN

Q. Choose the correct word from the choices in parentheses.

36 The trainer works (good/well) with all types of dogs, especially those that don't outweigh him.

37 My dog Caramel barks when he has run (good/well) during his daily race with the letter carrier.

38 The letter carrier likes Caramel and feels (bad/badly) about beating him when they race.

39 Caramel tends to bite the poor guy whenever the race doesn't go (good/well).

40 Caramel's owner named him after a type of candy she thinks is (good/well).

41 The letter carrier thinks high-calorie snacks are (bad/badly).

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **overworked** (describing *waiter),* **cold** (describing *soup*)
2. **Annoyed** (describing *diners*), **tasteless** (describing *meals*)
3. **embarrassed** (describing *owner*), **disappointed** (describing *customers*)
4. **mean** (describing *Someone*), **terrible** (describing *review*), **social** (describing *media)*
5. **Smart** (describing *owners*), **extra** (describing *waiters*), **high** (describing *salaries*), **sufficient, well-paid, happy** (describing *staff*)
6. **the** The sentence implies that one particular picture caught Lulu's fancy, so *the* works nicely here. If you chose *a,* no problem. The sentence would be a bit less specific but still acceptable. The only true clinker is *an,* which must precede words beginning with vowels (except for a short *u,* or "uh" sound) — a group that doesn't include *picture.*
7. **A** Because the sentence tells you that several guests are nearby, *the* doesn't fit here. The more general *a* is best.
8. **an** or **the, the** In the first blank, you may place either *an* (which must precede a word beginning with a vowel) or *the.* In the second blank, *the* is best because it's unlikely that Fred is surrounded by several department stores. *The* is more definitive, pointing out one particular store.
9. **The, the, a, a** Lots of blanks in this one! The first two seem more particular (one *clerk,* one *tie clip*), so *the* fits well. The second two blanks imply that the clerk selected one from a group of many, not a particular microphone or transmitter. The more general article is *a,* which precedes words beginning with consonants.
10. **an** Because the website is described as *obscure,* a word beginning with a vowel, you need *an,* not *a.* If you inserted *the,* don't cry. That article works here also.
11. **a** The word *buzzer* doesn't begin with a vowel, so you have to go with *a,* not *an.* The more definite *the* could work, implying that the reader knows that you're talking about a particular buzzer, not just any buzzer.
12. **a** He chose any old seat, not a particular one, so *a* is what you want.
13. **never** → *tells,* **sometimes** → *tempted*
14. **usually, completely**→ *believe,* **yesterday** → *sure,* **not** → *was*
15. **home** → *arrived,* **joyfully** → *yelped*
16. **actually** → *baked*
17. **Normally** → *forgets*
18. **not, immediately** → *did reply*
19. **unfortunately, not** → *did remember*, **reluctantly** → *admitted*
20. **quietly** → *added,* **here** → *brought*

21 **Much** →adverb *earlier,* **very** → adjective *rude*

22 **extremely** → adverb *firmly,* **less** → adverb *rudely*

23 **totally** → adjective *confident,* **little** → adverb *later*

24 **really** → adjective *good,* **particularly** → adjective *sticky*

25 **Especially** → adverb *now,* **extra** → adjective *needy*

26 **comfortable (ADJ), old (ADJ), quickly (ADV), black (ADJ), plastic (ADJ).** The adjectives *comfortable* and *old* tell you what kind of *sofa.* The adverb *quickly* tells you how Lola *grabbed*. The adjectives *black* and *plastic* tell you what kind of *remote*.

27 **early (ADV), desperately (ADV), new (ADJ), motorcycle (ADJ).** The adverb *early* tells you when she *arrived*. The adverb *desperately* tells you how she *wanted*. The adjectives *new* and *motorcycle* answer the question *what kind of show?*

28 **intently (ADV), latest (ADJ), away (ADV) silently (ADV).** The adverb *intently* answers the question *watching how? Latest*, an adjective, tells you *what kind of news*. *Away* and s*ilently,* both adverbs, answer *turned how?*

29 **present (ADJ) always (ADV).** *Present* is an adjective describing the pronoun *everyone*. This adjective breaks the pattern because it appears after the word it describes, not before. It also doesn't fit perfectly into the adjective questions (how many? which one? what kind?), but it serves the same purpose. It limits the meaning of *everyone.* You aren't talking about everyone in the universe, just *everyone present*. *Always* answers the question *did when?* and is therefore an adverb. You may be wondering about *her. Her* is a possessive pronoun, functioning as a description of *way.* What kind of *way? Her way.*

30 **fiercely (ADV), curious (ADJ) different (ADJ), weekly (ADV).** *Fiercely,* an adverb, answers the question *struggled how? Curious* is an adjective appearing after a linking verb *(was)*. *Curious* describes the pronoun *he*. *Different* is an adjective answering the question *which motorcycle? Weekly,* an adverb, answers the question *features when?*

31 **little (ADV), longer (ADV), nice (ADJ).** The adverb *little* changes the intensity of another adverb, *longer*. Together they answer the question *held out when? Nice,* an adjective, describes the pronoun *something.*

32 **few (ADJ), extremely (ADV), fond (ADJ), chocolate (ADJ).** How many goodies? *A few* goodies. *Few* is an adjective. (*A* is an article, which is technically an adjective.) The adverb *extremely* intensifies the meaning of the adjective *fond*. *Fond,* which appears after a linking verb, describes *George*. *Extremely* answers the question *how fond?* The adjective *chocolate* answers *what kind of brownies?*

33 **almost (ADV) sweet (ADJ), hazelnut (ADJ) sometimes (ADV), packaged (ADJ), brownie (ADJ).** The adverb *almost* answers the question *taste how*? What kind of *flavor? Sweet, hazelnut*. Both are adjectives. *Added* when? *Sometimes* — an adverb. What kind of *mix? Packaged, brownie mix.* Both *packaged* and *brownie* are adjectives.

34 **loudly (ADV), long (ADJ), thin (ADJ).** *Loudly,* an adverb, answers *sighed how? Long and thin,* adjectives, tell you what kind of *hand*.

35 **good (ADJ), low (ADJ), defeated (ADJ), first (ADV), two (ADV).** *Good* is an adjective describing the pronoun *anything*. *Low* and *defeated* are adjectives answering *what kind of voice? First* is an adverb answering *give when? Two* is an adjective answering *how many brownies?*

36 **well** How does the trainer work? The word you need must be an adverb because you're giving information about an action *(work)*, not a noun.

37 **well** The adverb *well* tells you how Caramel *has run.*

38 **bad** This sentence illustrates a common mistake. The description tells you nothing about the letter carrier's ability to *feel* (touching sensation). Instead, it tells you about his state of mind. Because the word is a description of a person, not of an action, you need an adjective, *bad.*

39 **well** The adverb *well* describes the verb *go*.

40 **good** What is her opinion of chocolate caramels? She *thinks* they are *good.* The adjective is needed because you're describing the noun *candy.*

41 **bad** The description *bad* applies to the *snacks,* not to the verb *are.* Hence, an adjective is what you want.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 6 Quiz

In this page from a clothing catalog, a number of words are underlined. If they're correct, leave them alone. If you find an adjective or adverb error, correct the mistake.

Dollar Clothing: Fashions That Work!

(1) Surprising (2) comfortable suits for work and leisure are on sale! (3) Easily-to-clean polyester in a (4) real fashionable color goes from the (5) office grind to an (6) extreme (7) trendy club without a pause. Imagine yourself in these (8) beautifully clothes that are made (9) well.

Jacket: Stun your coworkers with (10) a (11) astonishingly elegance of (12) deeply eggplant. (13) Gently curves follow (14) an (15) real natural outline to accentuate your figure. The (16) silkily lining, in (17) delightful (18) loud shades of orange, gives a strong message: I am (19) good at my job and I will feel (20) badly if I don't succeed.

Answers to Chapter 6 Quiz

1. **Surprisingly** The adverb *surprisingly* is what you need attached to the description *comfortable,* an adjective.
2. **Correct** The adjective *comfortable* answers *what kind of suits? Suits* is a noun.
3. **Easy** *Easily* is an adverb, but the three-word description is attached to a noun, *polyester. Easy* is an adjective and is the word you want here. Are you wondering why this phrase is hyphenated? Check Chapter 20 for more information.
4. **really** The adjective *fashionable* is intensified by the adverb *really. Real,* an adjective, is out of place here.
5. **Correct** *Office* can be a noun, but here it functions as an adjective, describing the noun *grind.*
6. **extremely** How *trendy? Extremely trendy.* Intensifiers are adverbs.
7. **Correct** The adjective *trendy* describes the noun *club.*
8. **beautiful** *Beautiful* is an adjective describing *clothes.*
9. **Correct** You need an adverb to describe the verb *made.*
10. **the** *Elegance* is defined in a specific way in this sentence. It's *deep eggplant.* Because you're being specific, *the* is the best article here.
11. **astonishing** *Astonishing* is an adjective attached to the noun *elegance.*
12. **deep** To refer to the noun *eggplant,* which is a color here and not a vegetable, use the adjective *deep.*
13. **Gentle** *Gentle* is an adjective, just what you need to describe the noun *curves.*
14. **a** Before a word beginning with a consonant, such as *r,* place *a.*
15. **really** *Natural* is an adjective, which you intensify with the adverb *really.*
16. **silky** *Lining* is a noun, so you describe it with the adjective *silky.*
17. **delightfully** To intensify the adjective *loud,* use the adverb *delightfully.*
18. **Correct** This adjective *loud* describes the noun *shades.*
19. **Correct** The adjective *good* describes the speaker, *I.*
20. **bad** You need an adjective to describe the mood, not an adverb to describe an action.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Recognizing prepositions and their objects
- Examining the role of conjunctions
- Placing interjections properly

Chapter 7

Tiny but Mighty: Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections

Full disclosure: Not all prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are tiny. But whether they're nine letters long or two, they're all mighty. They connect ideas, define relationships, and enhance the flow of your writing. In this chapter, I explain everything you always wanted to know about identifying and employing these parts of speech properly.

Proposing Relationships: Prepositions

Imagine that you encounter two nouns: *elephant* and *book.* (A *noun* is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea.) How many ways can you connect the two nouns to express different ideas?

the book *about* the elephant

the book *by* the elephant

the book *behind* the elephant

the book *in front of* the elephant

the book *near* the elephant

the book *under* the elephant

The italicized words relate two nouns to each other. These relationship words are called *prepositions. Prepositions* may be defined as any word or group of words that relates a noun or a pronoun to another word in the sentence.

Sometime during the past millennium when I was in grammar school, I had to memorize a list of prepositions. (How quaint, right? We had inkwells, too.) I don't think memorizing prepositions is worth your time, but a familiarity would be nice. Take a look at Table 7-1 for a list of some common prepositions.

Table 7-1 Common Prepositions

about	above	according to	across
after	against	along	amid
among	around	at	before
behind	below	beside	besides
between	beyond	by	concerning
down	during	except	for
from	in	into	like
of	off	on	over
past	since	through	toward
underneath	until	up	upon
with	within	without	

Prepositional phrases

Prepositions never travel alone; they're always with an object. In the examples in the preceding section, the object of each preposition is *elephant.* Just to get all the annoying terminology over with at once, a *prepositional phrase* consists of a preposition and an object. The object of a preposition is always a noun or a pronoun, or perhaps one or two of each. (A *pronoun* is a word that takes the place of a noun, such as *him* for *Raymond* or *it* for *hotel*. See Chapter 4 for more about pronouns.)

Take a look at this sentence:

In the afternoon, the snow pelted Raymond on his little bald head.

This sentence has two prepositions: *in* and *on. Afternoon* is the object of the preposition *in*, and *head* is the object of the preposition *on.*

Why, you may ask, is the object *head* and not *little* or *bald?* (Sigh.) I was hoping you wouldn't notice. Okay, here's the explanation. You can throw a few other words inside a prepositional phrase — mainly descriptive words. Check out these variations on the plain phrase *of the elephant:*

of the *apologetic* elephant

of the *always annoying* elephant

of the *antagonizingly argumentative* elephant

Despite the different descriptions, each phrase is still basically talking about an *elephant.* Also, *elephant* is a noun, and only nouns and pronouns are allowed to be objects of the preposition. So in the *Raymond* sentence, you need to choose the most important word as the object of the preposition. Also, you must choose a noun, not an adjective. Examine *his little bald head* (the words, not Raymond's actual head, which is better seen from a distance). *Head* is clearly the important concept, and *head* is a noun. Thus, *head* is the object of the preposition.

Sometimes, a preposition may have more than one object, as in this sentence:

Little Jane bounced the rubber ball in the hallway and bedroom.

In this sentence, *hallway* and *bedroom* are objects of the preposition *in.* You can think of this sentence as an abbreviated form of

Little Jane bounced the rubber ball in the hallway and in the bedroom.

When you attach two or more objects to one preposition, you must be sure that both objects pair well with the preposition. Take a look at this sentence:

Little Jane bounced the rubber ball in the street and the wall.

If you expand this sentence, you get

Little Jane bounced the rubber ball in the street and in the wall.

How can you bounce a ball *in the wall?* You can't, unless you're talking about a half-built house. You bounce a ball *on* or *against the wall.* The moral of the story is that a preposition with more than one object must make sense with each object separately. If it doesn't, write two separate prepositional phrases.

WARNING

Also be careful when you're choosing a pronoun as the object of a preposition. The pronouns cleared to act as objects of the preposition are *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.* Stay away from *I, we, she, he, they, who,* and *whoever.* Those pronouns are for subjects and subject complements. (Turn to Chapter 14 for more information.)

Pop the question: Questions that identify the objects of the prepositions

All objects — of a verb or of a preposition — answer the questions *whom?* or *what?* To find the object of a preposition, ask *whom?* or *what?* after the preposition.

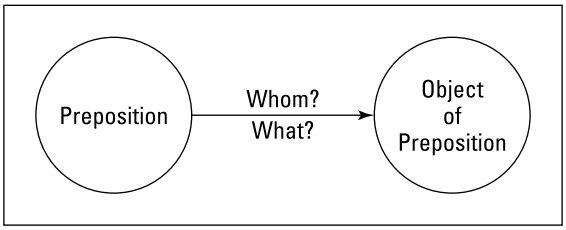

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Marilyn thought that the selection of the elephant for the show was unfair.

In this sentence, you see two prepositional phrases. The first preposition is *of. Of* what? *Of the elephant. Elephant* is the object of the preposition *of.* The second preposition is *for. For* what? For the *show*. *Show* is the object of the preposition *to.*

WARNING

When a noun — the name of a person, place, or thing — is the object of a preposition, everything is easy. Nouns work as subjects and objects without changing form. Most pronouns — words that substitute for nouns — change form depending on whether they're functioning as a subject or an object. For more information on object pronouns, see Chapter 14.

Why pay attention to prepositions?

Choosing the wrong preposition may be embarrassing:

Person 1: May I sit *next* to you?

Person 2: (smiling) Certainly.

Person 1: May I sit *under* you?

Person 2: (sound of slap) Help! Police!

The task of selecting the proper preposition is often difficult because common expressions differ, depending on the country or even area of a country in which the language is spoken. In New York City, for example, polite people wait *on line.* (Impolite people push through the crowd.) In other parts of the United States, people wait *in line.* Also, sometimes more than one preposition is acceptable. You can *browse over* or *browse through* a magazine, reading bits here and there and deciding what you'd like to investigate thoroughly. Both prepositions, *over* and *through,* are correct.

Omitting a preposition can also change meaning. Do you see the difference between these two sentences?

> Shirley swam the ocean.
>
> Shirley swam in the ocean.

In the first example, Shirley swam across the entire ocean — from, say, California to Japan or from New York to Ireland. The second example expresses a more likely meaning, that Shirley went to the beach and swam for a while in ocean water.

Placement may also matter. Check out these sentences:

> He went by bicycle to the game, saw the winning goal, and returned afterward.
>
> He went by bicycle, saw the winning goal, and returned to the game afterward.

Do you see the difference? In the first sentence, *he* traveled *to the game* first. Then he *returned* to his starting point. In the second sentence, *he* traveled somewhere else. Then he *returned to the game.* The meaning changes because one phrase, *to the game*, moves.

TIP

Pay attention to prepositional phrases when you're checking subject-verb pairs. Why? So you can ignore them. No word in a prepositional phrase ever acts as a subject. Once you mentally subtract the prepositional phrases from a sentence, you can focus on the real subject-verb pair and match them up correctly. For more information on subjects, see Chapter 8.

You may also find it helpful to recognize prepositional phrases, because sometimes, when you "pop the question" to find an adjective or an adverb, the answer is a prepositional phrase. That's not a mistake. Prepositional phrases are just another form of description. (See Chapter 6 for more on adjectives and adverbs.)

One thing you don't have to worry about is ending a sentence with a preposition. Years ago, some of the strictest grammarians would scold anyone who wrote a sentence like this:

> Tell me whom he spoke *about.*

They insisted on this version:

> Tell me *about* whom he spoke.

Both sentences are now considered correct, with the second being a bit more formal.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the prepositional phrase.

The heroic teacher pounded grammar rules into her students' tired brains.

A. **into** (preposition) **her students' tired brains** (object) When you pop the question — *into* whom? *into* what? — the answer is *her students' tired brains.* The most important word is *brains*, which is a noun.

YOUR TURN

Q. Identify the prepositional phrases.

1. Take the cat to the veterinary clinic now because Fifi is moaning in pain.
2. The dog food bag in the closet is empty, and the bag has a long rip across the bottom.
3. Fifi probably stole food from Spot's supply of doggie treats.
4. During the night, I heard noises in the kitchen.
5. The flashlight on my nightstand was broken, so I saw nothing of interest.
6. Before midnight, I had searched inside every cabinet, without success, but I had forgotten to look in the closet.

Connecting with Conjunctions

Are you a matchmaker? Do you pair up your friends, hoping lonely individuals will find happiness joined together? If so, you will love conjunctions, a part of speech that joins. Take a look at these sentences:

> Lola's cousin Rob gave her a bobsled, <u>but</u> she is afraid of ice <u>and</u> snow. <u>Because</u> bobsleds don't move well on cement, the bobsled will stay in her garage, <u>or</u> she'll donate it to an Olympic sledder.

The four underlined conjunctions in the preceding paragraph — *but, and, because, or* — connect ideas (much better than Rob connects with Lola).

Improving flow and adding meaning with conjunctions

As any plumber can tell you, good connections improve flow. Have a look at this paragraph:

> Short sentences are boring. Short sentences are childish. Combining them is a good idea. Selecting the proper conjunction can be tricky.

Are you still awake? Now add conjunctions:

> <u>Because</u> short sentences sound boring <u>and</u> childish, combining them is a good idea, <u>but</u> selecting the proper conjunction can be tricky.

Better, right? Here are the connections, with the conjunction in bold type:

> *boring* ↔ **and** ↔ *childish*
>
> *short sentences sound boring and childish* ↔ ***because*** ↔ *combining them is a good idea*
>
> *combining them is a good idea* ↔ ***but*** ↔ *selecting the proper conjunction can be tricky*

As you see, whether conjunctions connect single words (*boring, childish)* or complete sentences, they create a smoother style.

WARNING

When you combine ideas with a conjunction, you must be careful to choose the correct word, because each conjunction gives a different meaning. Consider these two statements:

Sentence 1: Sarah wants to speak with her brother.

Sentence 2: He is annoyed.

How should you combine these ideas? It depends on what you want to say. Look at this sentence:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother, but he is annoyed.

This sentence hints that Sarah will wait until later, when her brother is in a better mood. Now check out this one:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother because he is annoyed.

Now you know that Sarah is not going to wait for a smile from her brother. She is going to have a conversation about his mood or whatever caused his annoyance. How about this one:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother although he is annoyed.

In this version, Sarah has something to say. Her brother's mood does not matter. She will speak with him whether he is in a good mood or a bad mood. Look at one more:

Sarah wants to speak with her brother when he is annoyed.

Now Sarah comes across as a bossy sister. She calls her brother or drops in for a chat because she thinks she can calm him down.

With the appropriate conjunction, you can emphasize one idea and downplay another, establish an order of events, show cause-and-effect, and do so much more. Chart 7-1 lists some common conjunctions.

and	but	nor	or	yet
after	before	since	although	because
while	so	until	if	for
even though	whether	than	unless	as though

Don't worry about labeling the part of speech; just employ every technique you can to make your writing interesting!

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the conjunction and what it connects.

Peter and Rebecca will cook the turkey.

A. **and** (conjunction) **Peter** ↔ **Rebecca** (connected elements)

Q. Identify the conjunction and what it connects.

I think we should dine out or order in.

A. **or** (conjunction) **eat** ↔ **order** (connected elements)

YOUR TURN

Q. Identify the conjunctions and what they connect.

7. Peter was no chef, nor was Rebecca a good cook.
8. The turkey was dry yet tasty.
9. We will eat a lot of turkey, and we will not complain.
10. The meal is not great, but it is free.
11. The leftovers will go to the dog, the cat, or the piglet.
12. Mary canceled the parade because it is raining.
13. While Roger was at the dentist, his sister called.
14. The farmers worked until darkness fell.
15. Although the current mayor is popular, many voters favor another candidate.
16. Candice always sounds happy when she is talking with Tom.

Pairing up conjunctions

Sometimes conjunctions work in pairs. (Perhaps they're lonely all by themselves?) *Or* often appears with *either. Nor* partners with *neither. Both* may show up with *and. Not only* works with *but also.*

Observe these pairs in their natural setting, a sentence:

> Neither George nor Helen went to Florida last winter. (conjunction pair = *Neither, nor;* ideas connected = *George, Helen* — both nouns)
>
> We must act either now or never. (conjunction pair = *either, or;* ideas connected = *now, never* — both adverbs)
>
> Hugh can both dance and sing. (conjunction pair = *both, and;* ideas connected = *dance, sing* — both verbs)

Did you notice that everything connected by paired conjunctions has the same grammatical identity? You do not need to know the labels, but you should be sure that everything you connect with these conjunction pairs matches. How do you detect a match? Listen! Suppose the last sentence was *Hugh can both dance and he sings.* Do you hear the mismatch? One is just an action *(dance)*, and the other is a person and an action (*he sings)*. In Chapter 13, I discuss how to make good grammatical matches when paired conjunctions connect ideas.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the conjunctions and what they connect.

Not only Larry but also his bride yearned for a day at the beach.

A. **Not only, but also** (conjunction pair) **Larry** ↔ **his bride**

YOUR TURN

Q. Identify the conjunctions and what they connect.

17 Either you or I must break the news about the fake diamond to Larry.

18 Neither Ralph nor I have brought a proper present to Larry's wedding.

19 Both because he stole the garter and because he lost the ring, Roger is no longer welcome as best man.

20 Lulu will go with Larry either to the bachelor party or to the shower, but she will not attend both.

21 Lulu mocked neither Larry nor his bride about the fact that the bride's mother has a terrible singing voice.

22 Both her graceful dancing and superb acting skills convinced Michael to award Lola a starring role in Michael's new musical, *The Homework Blues*.

Interjections Are Easy!

Grammarians usually give every part of speech a lot of attention — well, every part of speech except one. Interjections tend to fade into the background when you're analyzing a sentence grammatically. That's the opposite of what interjections do when you're listening to or reading a sentence that includes one. Why? *Interjections* are exclamations that often express intense emotion. These words or phrases aren't connected grammatically to the rest of the sentence, but they add lots of meaning. Check out these examples, in which the interjections are italicized:

> *Ouch.* I caught my finger in the hatch of that submarine.
>
> *Curses,* foiled again.
>
> *Yes!* We've finally gotten to a topic that is foolproof.

Interjections may be followed by commas, but sometimes they're followed by exclamation points or periods. The separation by punctuation shows the reader that the interjection is a comment on the sentence, not a part of it. (Of course, in the case of the exclamation point or period, the punctuation mark also indicates that the interjection is not a part of the sentence at all.)

You can't do anything wrong with interjections, except perhaps overuse them. Interjections are like salt: A little salt sprinkled on dinner perks up the taste buds; too much sends you to the telephone to order takeout.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **to the veterinary clinic, in pain** The prepositions are *to* and *in.* The objects are *clinic* and *pain.*
2. **in the closet, across the bottom** The prepositions are *in* and *across.* The objects are *closet* and *bottom.*
3. **from Spot's supply, of doggie treats** The prepositions are *from* and *of.* The objects are *supply* and *treats.*
4. **During the night, in the kitchen** The prepositions are *during* and *in.* The objects are *night* and *kitchen.*
5. **on my nightstand, of interest** The prepositions are *on* and *of.* The objects are *nightstand* and *interest.*
6. **Before midnight, inside every cabinet, without success, in the closet** The prepositions are *before, inside, without,* and *in.* The objects are *midnight, cabinet, success,* and *closet.* Did I catch you with *to look?* In this sentence, *look* is a verb, not a noun, so this can't be a prepositional phrase, because there's no object. *To look* is an infinitive, a fancy word for what you get when you add *to* to a verb. (More on infinitives appears in Chapter 24.)
7. **nor** (conjunction) **Peter was no chef** ↔ **Rebecca was a good cook** Did you notice how the conjunction affects the meaning of the sentence? The second statement implies that you'd enjoy dinner at Rebecca's house, but not Peter's, but *nor* makes it negative.
8. **yet** (conjunction) **dry** ↔ **tasty** The conjunction *yet* introduces a redeeming quality of the cooking.
9. **and** (conjunction) **We will eat a lot of turkey** ↔ **we will not complain** The conjunction connects two complete sentences.
10. **but** (conjunction) **The meal is not great** ↔ **it is free.** Another connection between complete sentences.
11. **or** (conjunction) **dog** ↔ **cat** ↔ **piglet** The conjunction appears before the last item, but it connects all three.
12. **because** (conjunction) **Mary canceled the parade** ↔ **it is raining** The conjunction introduces a reason.
13. **While** (conjunction), **Roger was at the dentist** ↔ **his sister called** The conjunction adds a time element.
14. **until** (conjunction), **The farmers worked** ↔ **darkness fell** The conjunction adds a time element.
15. **Although** (conjunction) **the current mayor is popular** ↔ **many voters favor another candidate** The conjunction introduces a condition.
16. **when** (conjunction), **Candice always sounds happy** ↔ **she is talking with Tom** The conjunction introduces a time element or condition.
17. **Either, or** (conjunction pair) **you** ↔ **I**

18 **Neither**, **nor** (conjunction pair) **Ralph** ↔ **I** Did you notice that this pair connects a noun and a pronoun? This doesn't break the rule that the halves of the pair must have the same grammatical identity, because pronouns can take the place of nouns.

19 **Both**, **and** (conjunction pair) **because he stole the garter** ↔ **because he lost the ring**

20 **either, or** (conjunction pair) **to the bachelor party** ↔ **to the shower**

21 **neither, nor** (conjunction pair) **Larry** ↔ **his bride**

22 **Both**, **and** (conjunction pair) **her graceful dancing** ↔ **superb acting skill**

Whaddya Know? Chapter 7 Quiz

Q. Identify the conjunctions, prepositional phrases, and interjections in this evaluation form. You should find ten conjunctions (counting paired conjunctions as a single unit), ten prepositional phrases, and two interjections.

LearnNot University Evaluation Form

We at LearnNot University care about your well-being. Please answer these questions concerning your experience in Cooking 101, the class you took during the last academic year.

Which statement expresses your feelings about Cooking 101?

Oh, I just loved the class and the teacher!

When I measured the boredom level, I considered dropping the course.

I have no opinion because I cut every class.

What did you think of the teacher's grading practices?

Neither my parents nor my grandparents donated a building, and I therefore failed the course.

Both my parents and my grandparents bribed the teacher directly, yet I still failed the course.

Because I never open my mail, I don't know my grade.

Why did you choose Cooking 101?

After ten minutes, the teacher leaves and class is over.

Alas! I am banned for life from all other courses because of the stapler incident.

I like eating while I am studying.

Answers to Chapter 7 Quiz

Prepositional phrases, conjunctions, and interjections are underlined and labeled. The letter *P* means "prepositional phrase," the letter C means "conjunction, and the letter I means "interjection."

We (P1) at LearnNot University care (P2) about your well-being. Please answer these questions (P3) concerning your experience (P4) in Cooking 101, the class you took (P5) during the last academic year.

Which statement expresses your feelings (P6) about Cooking 101?

(I 1) Oh, I loved the class (C1) and the teacher.

(C2) When I calibrated the boredom level, I considered dropping this course.

I have no opinion (C3) because I cut every class.

What did you think (P6) of the teacher's grading practices?

(C4) Neither my parents (C4) nor my grandparents donated a building, (C5) and I therefore failed the course.

(C6) Both my parents (C6) and my grandparents bribed the teacher directly, (C7) yet I still failed the course.

(C8) Because I never open my mail, I don't know my grade.

Why did you choose Cooking 101?

(P7) After ten minutes, the teacher leaves (C9) and class is over.

(I 2) Alas, I am banned (P8) for life (P9) from all other courses (P10) because of the stapler incident.

I like eating (C10) while I am studying.

3 Basic Elements of a Sentence

In This Unit . . .

CHAPTER 8: **Who's Doing What? Identifying the Subject-Verb Pair**

Baring the Bones of a Sentence: The Subject–Verb Pair
When One Is Not Enough: Compound Subjects and Verbs
Pop the Question: Locating the Subject–Verb Pairs
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IN THIS CHAPTER

- Understanding the role of the subject and subject–verb pairs
- Spotting the subject–verb pairs in simple sentences
- Identifying the subject–verb pairs in challenging sentences

Chapter 8

Who's Doing What? Identifying the Subject-Verb Pair

Imagine a sentence as a flatbed truck carrying your meaning to the reader or listener. Verbs are the wheels of the truck. Subjects are the drivers. Unless you have both, you're in for a wild ride. In this chapter, I discuss these essential elements of a sentence.

Baring the Bones of a Sentence: The Subject–Verb Pair

At the heart of every sentence is the *verb*, the word or words expressing action or state of being. Verbs are a finicky part of speech. If you get one little thing wrong — writing *sneeze* rather than *sneezed* or *sneezes*, for example — your intended message may crash and burn. For this reason, I devote several chapters solely to various aspects of verbs: the basics in Chapter 5, tense in Chapter 12, and agreement in Chapter 13. In this chapter, I tackle verbs in relation to their most important partner, subjects.

The *subject* is *who* or *what* you're talking about in relation to the action or state of being expressed by the verb. Think about it for a moment and you'll see why a subject is crucial: You can't have an action in a vacuum. Nor can you have a naked, solitary state of being. There must be someone or something doing the action or in the state of being.

TIP

A "someone" must be a person, and a "something" must be a thing, place, or idea. So guess what? The subject is usually a noun, because a noun is a person, place, thing, or idea. I say *usually* because sometimes the subject is a pronoun — a word that substitutes for a noun or another pronoun — *he, they, it,* and so forth. (For more on pronouns, see Chapter 4.)

The subject–verb pair is the main idea of the sentence, stripped to essentials. Check out these sentences:

> *Jasper gasped* at the mummy's sudden movement.

In this sentence, *Jasper gasped* is the main idea; it's also the subject–verb pair.

You should spot two subject–verb pairs in the following sentence: *Justin will judge* and *girlfriend competes:*

> *Justin will judge* the beauty contest only if *his girlfriend competes.*

Now try a sentence without action. This one describes a state of being, so it employs a linking verb:

> *Jill has* always *been* an extremely efficient worker.

The subject–verb pair is *Jill has been.* Did you notice that *Jill has been* sounds incomplete? *Has been* is a linking verb, and linking verbs always need something after the verb to complete the idea. The subject–verb pair in action-verb sentences may usually stand alone, but the subject–verb pair in linking verb sentences may not. (More on completions for linking-verb sentences appears in Chapter 9.)

When One Is Not Enough: Compound Subjects and Verbs

Subjects and verbs pair off, but sometimes you get two (or more) for the price of one. You can have two subjects (or more) and one verb. The multiple subjects are called *compound subjects.* Here's an example:

> *Dorothy* and *Justin* went home in defeat.

Here you notice one action *(went)* and two people *(Dorothy, Justin)* doing the action. So the verb *went* has a compound subject.

Now take a look at some additional examples:

> *Lola* and *Lulu* prepared breakfast for George yesterday. (*prepared* = verb; *Lola, Lulu* = subjects)
>
> The *omelet* and *fries* were very salty. (*were* = verb; *omelet, fries* = subjects)
>
> *Snow White* and *Doc accepted* Sneezy and Dopey into their band, but *they rejected* Snort and Squirm. (*accepted* = verb; *Snow White, Doc* = subjects)

Another variation is one subject paired with two (or more) verbs. For example:

> Alex *screamed* and *cried* after the contest.

You have two actions *(screamed, cried)* and one person doing both *(Alex). Alex* is the subject of both *screamed* and *cried.*

Here are some additional samples of double verbs, which in grammatical terms are called *compound verbs:*

> George *snatched* the flash drive and quickly *stashed* it in his pocket. (*snatched, stashed* = verbs; *George* = subject)
>
> Larry *complained* for hours about Ella's insult and then *crept* home. (*complained, crept* = verbs; *Larry* = subject)
>
> Ella *looked* and *sounded* awful. (*looked, sounded* = verbs, *Ella* = subject)
>
> Luke *came* to school last week but *didn't stay* there. (*came, did stay* = verbs; *Luke* = subject)

Pop the Question: Locating the Subject–Verb Pairs

Allow me to let you in on a little trick for pinpointing the subject–verb pair of a sentence: Pop the question! (No, I'm not asking you to propose.) Pop the question tells you what to ask in order to find out what you want to know. The correct question is all-important in the search for information, as all parents realize.

> WRONG QUESTION FROM PARENT: What did you do last night?
>
> TEENAGER'S ANSWER: Nothing.

> RIGHT QUESTION FROM PARENT: When you came in at midnight, were you hoping that I'd ignore the fact that you went to the Carleton Club?
>
> TEENAGER'S ANSWER: I didn't go to the Carleton Club! I went to the mall.
>
> PARENT: Aha! You went out on a school night. You're grounded.

In Chapter 5, I explain that the first question to ask is not "Will this be on the test?" but rather "What's the verb?" (To find the verb, ask "what's happening?" or "what is?") After you uncover the verb, put *who* or *what* in front of it to form a second question. The answer is the subject.

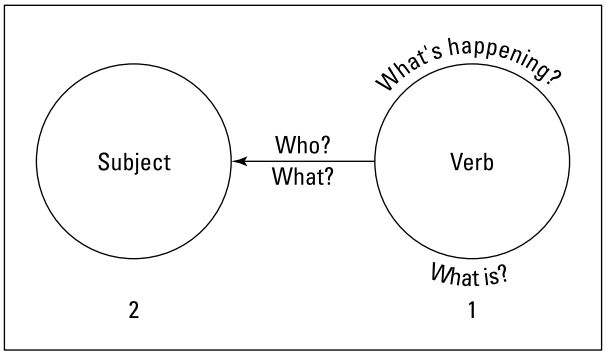

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Check out this example: Jack polishes his diving technique during hours of practice.

1. Pop the question: What's happening? Answer: *polishes. Polishes* is the verb.
2. Pop the question: Who or what *polishes?* Answer: *Jack polishes. Jack* is the subject.

Ready for another?

The pool has been closed by the health department.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *has been closed. Has been closed* is the verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who or what *has been closed?* Answer: *pool. Pool* is the subject.

TIP

Did you notice anything different about the last example? The verb, *has been closed,* asks about something that happened to the pool, not about something the pool did. *Has been closed* is a passive verb (the action happens to the subject), not an active one (the subject does the action). Fortunately, "pop the question" works the same way for sentences with either active or passive verbs.

WARNING

Sometimes when you pop the question to find the verb, you come up with a verb form that's not functioning as the verb in the sentence. Not a problem! Simply pop the subject question. If you can't find an answer, you've found a verbal. For more information on verbals, read "Don't Get Faked Out: Avoiding Fake Verbs and Subjects," later in this chapter.

Popping the question for questions

Popping the question works for questions, too. In that situation, you're likely to find a helping verb and a main verb with the subject tucked somewhere in the middle. For that reason, you may find it helpful to rewrite the question as a statement before you pop the question. Don't

add any words. The statement will sound a bit strange, but it helps you see the sentence structure more clearly. Here's an example:

Did you eat your cookie?

1. Rearrange the question so that it resembles a statement: You did eat your cookie.
2. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *did eat. Did eat* is the verb.
3. Pop the subject question: Who or what *did eat?* Answer: *you. You* is the subject.

Try another:

Will you eat my cookie?

1. Rearrange the question so that it resembles a statement: You will eat my cookie.
2. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *will eat. Will eat* is the verb.
3. Pop the subject question: Who or what *will eat?* Answer: *you. You* is the subject.

One more:

Does Connie often steal other people's cookies?

1. Rearrange the question so that it resembles a statement: Connie often does steal other people's cookies.
2. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *does steal. Does steal* is the verb.
3. Pop the subject question: Who or what *does steal?* Answer: *Connie. Connie* is the subject.

EXAMPLE

Q. What are the subjects and verbs in the following sentence?

Roger will soon be smiling because of all the treasure on his ship.

No matter what the weather, Roger never even considers wearing a hat.

Does Roger hate hats, or is he afraid of messy hair?

A. **will be smiling (V), Roger (S)**

A. **considers (V), Roger (S)**

A. **does hate (V), Roger (S); is (V), he (S)**

Unusual word order

As I explain in the preceding section, the word order in a question differs from the word order in a statement. But statements may vary, too. Most follow the normal subject–verb order, which is (surprise!) subject–verb. In other words, the subject usually comes before the verb. Sometimes, though, a subject hides out at the end of the sentence or in some other weird place.

If you pop the question and answer it according to the meaning of the sentence — not according to the word order — you'll be fine. The key is to put the subject questions (who? what?) in front of the verb. Then think about what the sentence is actually saying and answer the questions. Like magic, your subject will appear.

Try this one:

> Up the avenue and around the park trudged Godzilla.

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *trudged. Trudged* is the verb.
2. Pop the question: Who *trudged?* What *trudged?* Answer: *Godzilla. Godzilla* is the subject. (I'll let you decide whether Godzilla is a who or a what.)

If you were answering by word order, you'd say *park.* But the *park* did not *trudge; Godzilla trudged.* Pay attention to meaning, not to placement in the sentence, and you can't go wrong.

EXAMPLE

Q. What are the subjects and verbs in the following sentences?

Alas, what a sadly inadequate grammarian am I!

Over the river and through the woods to the grammarian's house go Ella and Larry.

A. **am (V), I (S)**

A. **go (V), Ella (S) Larry (S)**

Not missing in action: Detecting you-understood

> "Sit still."
>
> "Eat your vegetables."
>
> "Clean your room."

What do these sentences have in common? Yes, they're all nagging comments you've heard all your life. More importantly, they're all commands. The verbs give orders: *sit, eat, clean.* Where's the subject in these sentences?

If you pop the question, here's what happens:

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *sit, eat, clean.*
2. Pop the question: Who *sit, eat, clean?* Answer: Uh. . . .

The second question appears to have no answer, but appearances can be deceiving. The answer is *you. You* sit still. *You* eat your vegetables. *You* clean your room. What's that you say? *You* is not in the sentence? True. *You* is not written, but it's implied. And when your mom says, "Eat your vegetables," you understand that she means *you.* So grammarians say that the subject is *you-understood.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the subject–verb pairs in these three sentences:

Stop dancing the cha-cha, Ella!

Sit down now, please.

Don't attempt any more new dance moves.

A. **stop (V), sit (V), Do attempt, you-understood (S)** In the first sentence, the remark is addressed to *Ella,* but *you-understood* is still the subject, as it is in the next two sentences. In the last sentence, *don't* is a shortened form of *do not.* Because *not* isn't a verb, you have to expand *don't attempt* to *do not attempt* and extract the verb, *do attempt.*

YOUR TURN

What are the subjects and verbs in the following sentences?

1. The fire engine raced down the street.
2. Do not chase it!
3. Around the curve, just ahead of the railroad tracks, stood seven donkeys.
4. One of the donkeys was frightened by the noise of the siren and ran away.
5. Come back right now, donkey!
6. Another looked worried but did not move.
7. Was he brave or was he determined to defend his herd?
8. Most likely, the animal did not notice the noise or did not care.
9. I think another donkey was eating George and Anna's lawn.
10. Eat something else, please.
11. Their house was not on fire, but several buildings on the street were burning.
12. George and Anna left the donkey alone and went inside for an extra-long lunch.
13. George and Anna, for goodness' sake, act responsibly for once in your life!
14. Because of the donkey, they did not mow their lawn.
15. Will the homeowners association fine them for "unlawful possession of a donkey"?
16. If the donkey runs away, George and Anna's problem will be solved.
17. However, the animal appears content, and Anna has posted adorable photos of him on her social media accounts.
18. Her posts have attracted much attention and have been widely shared.

19 In one obscure corner of the internet is the homeowners association statement.

20 "We love animals," the statement says, "but we do not allow braying."

21 "Send the donkey to a farm!" the association demanded.

22 George and Anna are training Donkey King, their new pet, to be silent.

23 Their lawyer has challenged the homeowners association.

24 "Lawnmowers are louder than donkeys," the lawyer says.

25 What will the judge decide?

Don't Get Faked Out: Avoiding Fake Verbs and Subjects

As I walk through New York City, I often see "genuine" Rolex watches (retail price: $10,000 or so) for sale from street peddlers for "$15 — special today only!" You need to guard against fakes when you're on the city streets (no surprise there). Also (and this may be a surprise), you need to guard against fakes when you're finding subject–verb pairs.

Verbals

Verbs can be sneaky sometimes. You may ask *who?* or *what?* in front of a verb and get no answer, or at least no answer that makes sense. When this happens, you probably haven't really found a verb. Instead, you've stumbled upon a lookalike, or, as I call it, a "fake verb." Here's an example:

> Wiping his tears dramatically, Alex pleaded with the teacher to forgive his lack of homework.

Suppose you pop the verb question *(What's happening? What is?)* and get *wiping* for an answer. A reasonable guess. But now pop the subject question: *Who wiping? What wiping?* The questions don't sound right, and that's your first hint you haven't found a real verb. The question is not important; the answer is. And there is no real answer in the sentence. You may try *Alex,* but when you put *Alex* with the "verb," it doesn't match: *Alex wiping*. (*Alex is wiping* would be okay, but that's not what the sentence says.) So now you know for sure that your first "verb" isn't really a verb. Put it aside and keep looking. What's the real verb? *Pleaded.*

To sum up: Lots of words in the sentence express action or being, but only some of these words function as verbs. (Most are what grammarians call verbals; check out Chapter 24 for more on verbals.) If you get no answer to your pop-the-subject question, just ignore the "fake" verb and look for the real one.

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the subject and verb in these sentences.

Alex's teacher, annoyed by the salty tears dripping into his coffee, denied the request for forgiveness.

A. **denied (V), teacher (S)** When you pop the question to find the verb, you may have come up with three answers: *annoyed, dripping,* and *denied.* When you pop the question to find the subject, you encounter a problem: "Who or what *annoyed?"* In the real world, the answer to that question would be *Alex,* but *Alex* isn't in the sentence. If you ask, "Who or what *dripping*?" you might answer *tears dripping.* Can you hear the mismatch? *Tears are dripping* works, but not *tears dripping.* Because you have no subject for *annoyed* and *dripping,* you know you have "fake" verbs. The real subject–verb pair is *teacher denied.*

Q. Identify the subject–verb pairs.

Dumping out his salty coffee, the teacher "accidentally" spilled a few drops on Alex's shoes.

Alex, hopping up and down and screaming about the stains, plans a lawsuit.

A. **spilled (V), teacher (S)** If you ask, "Who or what *dumping?"* you get no answer. Fake verb! Asking "Who or what *spilled?"* yields *teacher spilled,* your subject–verb pair.

A. **plans (V), Alex (S)** Did you opt for *hopping* or *screaming?* They're "fake" verbs with no matching subjects. The true verb is *plans.* Who or what *plans? Alex plans.*

"Here" and "there" sentences

Someone comes up to you and says, "Here is ten million dollars." What's the first question that comes into your mind? I know, good grammarian that you are, that your question isn't "Where can I buy a good yacht?" but rather "What's the subject of that sentence?" Try to answer your question in the usual way, by popping the question:

Here is ten million dollars.

1. Pop the question: What's happening? What is? Answer: *is.*
2. Pop the question: Who *is?* What *is?* Answer: *ten million dollars.*

What did you say? *Here is?* Wrong. *Here* can't be a subject. Neither can *there.* Both of these words are "fake" subjects. What's the real answer to the question *What is? Ten million dollars. Here* and *there* are fill-ins, place markers; they aren't what you're talking about. *Ten million dollars* — that's what you're talking about!

WARNING

If you write *here* and *there* sentences, be sure to choose the correct verb. Because *here* and *there* are never subjects, you must always look *after* the verb for the real subject. When you match a subject to a verb (a topic I discuss in detail in Chapter 13), be sure to use the real subject, not *here* or *there.* Example:

Here are ten anteaters. *Not* Here is ten anteaters. (anteaters = subject)

If you want to check your choice of verb, try reversing the sentence. In the preceding sentence, say *ten anteaters is/are.* Chances are your "ear" will tell you that you want *ten anteaters are,* not *ten anteaters is.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the subjects and verbs in these sentences.

There are 50 reasons for my complete lack of homework.

Here's a note from my mom about my homework allergy.

A. **are (V), reasons** (S) In a sentence beginning with *there,* the subject appears after the verb.

A. **is (V), note (S)** *Here's* is short for *here is*. Only *is* is the verb. The subject, *note,* follows the verb.

YOUR TURN

Identify the subjects and verbs in these sentences:

26 Ana and Max, cramming for finals, spend all their free time in the library.

27 Max, having grown quite tall, has not adjusted to his new size.

28 There was a book under the library table.

29 Max, helping Anna in every way, reached under the table.

30 Holding the book and standing up quickly, Max smashed his head on the bottom of the table.

31 There is a Max-size dent in the table now.

32 There's also a table-size dent in Max's head.

33 Possessing thick hair and an equally thick skull, Max is protected from most head injuries.

34 However, the table, destabilized by the collision, collapsed and broke Ana's toe.

35 "Here's an ice pack," Max offered helpfully.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **raced (V), fire engine (S)** Pop the verb question "what's happening?" and you locate the verb, *raced.* Popping the subject question "who or what *raced?*" yields *fire engine,* or just *engine*.
2. **Do chase (V), you-understood (S)** The subject is implied in this command, not stated.
3. **stood (V), donkeys (S)** Did I catch you on this one? *Donkeys* answers the question "who stood?" so it's the subject. *Curve* and *tracks* appear in front of the verb, the usual position for subjects, but they aren't subjects.
4. **was frightened, ran (V), one (S)** Did you think "donkeys" was the subject? Pop the question: who was frightened? who ran? Not the *donkeys. One was frightened* and *one ran.* Therefore, the subject is *one.*
5. **come (V), you-understood (S)** The subject isn't *donkey,* though whoever is giving the command is addressing the *donkey.* In grammar terms, *donkey* is a direct address. The subject is *you-understood.*
6. **looked (V), did move (V), another (S)** The subject, *another,* is paired with two verbs.
7. **was (V), he (S); was (V), he (S)** This short sentence packs in two matching subject–verb pairs, *he was.*
8. **did notice (V), did care (V), animal (S)** Negative statements often rely on forms of the verb *do.* Here you find *did notice* and *did care,* both of which pair with the subject, *animal.*
9. **think (V), I (S); was eating (V), donkey (S)** You have two subject–verb pairs here. *Donkey* is the most important word in the second portion of the sentence, but if you identified the subject as *another donkey,* count yourself correct.
10. **Eat (V), you-understood (S)** The subject of a command sentence is always *you-understood.*
11. **was (V), house (S); were burning (V), buildings (S)** Did you correctly identify *buildings* as the subject of *were burning?* It appears in the usual spot before the verb, but a description, *on the street,* may have distracted you. As always, rely on the question: who or what *were burning?* Not the street, but *several buildings.* The most important word in that expression is *buildings.*
12. **left (V), went (V), George** and **Anna (S)** In this sentence, the compound (double) subject *George* and *Anna* pairs with a compound verb, *left* and *went.*
13. **Act (V), you-understood (S)** The command to *act* is addressed to *George and Anna,* but the subject is *you-understood.*
14. **did mow (V), they (S)** The word *not* is not part of the verb.
15. **will fine (V), homeowners association (S)** When you ask, "Who *will fine?"* the answer is a group, *homeowners association,* not a person. Nevertheless, that's the subject.
16. **runs (V), donkey (S); will be solved (V), problem (S)** Did you choose *George and Anna* as subjects? They won't be solved — the *problem* will. *Problem* is the subject.
17. **appears (V), animal (S); has posted (V), Anna (S)** When you encounter a sentence with two separate ideas in it, you probably have two separate subject–verb pairs.

18 **have attracted (V), have been shared (V), posts (S)** Did you include *widely* when you identified the verb? It's a description, not an action or a state of being.

19 **is (V), statement (S)** The subject in this sentence follows the verb, but it's the answer to the question "what is?" and therefore is the subject.

20 **love (V), We (S); says (V), statement (S); do allow (V), we (S)** This sentence has three subject–verb pairs. *Braying* at first glance appears to be an action, but in this sentence it's a thing the association does not allow.

21 **send (V), you-understood (S); demanded (V), association (S)** The quotation is a command, so *you-understood* is the subject. The tag identifies the speaker, *association,* which is the subject of the verb *demanded.*

22 **are training (V), George** and **Anna (S)** In case you're curious, *to be silent* isn't functioning as a verb in this sentence. It's an infinitive. For more information on infinitives, see "Don't Get Faked Out: Avoiding Fake Verbs and Subjects," earlier in this chapter.

23 **has challenged (V), lawyer (S)** This sentence may be easier than most because the subject, *lawyer,* is doing what lawyers do — challenging!

24 **are (V), Lawnmowers (S); says (V), lawyer (S)** This sentence has two parts: a quotation and a tag identifying the speaker. The quotation has a subject and a verb (*lawnmowers are)* and so does the tag (*lawyer says).*

25 **will decide (V), judge (S)** Rearrange the question into a statement: *the judge will decide what*. The subject–verb pair immediately stands out.

26 **spend (V), Anna** and **Max (S)** I hope you avoided the "fake" verb *cramming.*

27 **has adjusted (V), Max (S)** Here the distraction is *having grown.* If you pop the subject question for that verb form, though, you get no answer. The real verb is *has adjusted,* which pairs with *Max.*

28 **was (V), book (S)** *Here* and *there* are never subjects. In this sort of sentence, the subject generally follows the verb.

29 **reached (V), Max (S)** Ignore the distracting verbal, *helping,* and focus on the real verb, *reached.*

30 **smashed (V), Max (S)** More to ignore: the verbals *holding* and *standing.*

31 **is (V), dent (S)** *There* can't be a subject. Check after the verb and you see that *dent is.*

32 **is (V), dent (S)** You have to tease out the verb from the contraction *there's,* which is short for *there is.* Once you have the verb, pop the question and you see that *dent is.*

33 **is protected (V), Max (S)** Two verbals — not verbs — begin this sentence, but the real verb follows the subject, *Max.*

34 **collapsed, broke (V), table (S)** The descriptive phrase, *destabilized by the collision,* contains a verbal, not a verb.

35 **is (V), pack (S); offered (V), Max (S)** Pull the *is* from the contraction *here's,* short for *here is.* Pop the subject question to find *pack,* or *ice pack.* In the second part of the sentence, *Max offered.*

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz, which incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 8 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Here's a portion of the welcome packet offered to guests staying in a short-term rental. Check the underlined words. Identify them as verbs (V), subjects (S), or neither (N).

We at Alpine Shores (1) welcome you to your luxurious accommodations! (2) Here are a few suggestions for your comfort, as well as one or two small, easy-to-follow (3) rules:

- The (4) room (5) is designed for two guests, but up to 24 (6) people will fit, if you (7) exercise some creativity with (8) sleeping arrangements.
- There's a queen-size (9) bed, which (10) can be expanded by (11) removing the mattress and placing it on the floor. Two or even three (12) guests can sleep on the mattress and a similar number on the box spring.
- (13) Remove the sofa pillows, place (14) them on the floor, and you have additional (15) beds for children or short adults. If you need a bigger bed, try (16) lashing two pillows together. Bungee (17) cords for this purpose (18) may be found in the closet.
- (19) Smoking is not permitted.
- (20) Leave the apartment as clean as you found it, please!

Answers to Chapter 8 Quiz

1. **V**
2. **N** *Here* is never a subject. The real subject, *suggestions,* appears after the verb, *is.*
3. **N** This word is part of a descriptive expression (*as well as . . . rules)* and is neither a subject nor a verb.
4. **S**
5. **V**
6. **S** *People* is the subject of the verb *will fit.*
7. **V**
8. **N** This verb form functions as a description. How do you know? If you ask, "Who or what *sleeping?"* you get no answer.
9. **S** In a sentence beginning with *here* or *there,* the subject often follows the verb.
10. **V**
11. **N** This verb form doesn't function as the verb in the sentence. It's the object of the preposition *by.*
12. **S**
13. **V**
14. **N** *Them* is the object, not the subject. (For more on objects, see Chapter 9.)
15. **N** Another object! The subject of the sentence is *you.*
16. **N** Although *lashing* is a verb form, you get no answer when you pop the subject question: who or what *lashing.* Because no answer appears, you know you have found a "fake" verb. *Lashing* is a verbal; for more information on verbals, see Chapter 24.
17. **S**
18. **V**
19. **S** Surprised? *Smoking* is an action, but here it answers the subject question: who or what *is* not *permitted?*
20. **V**

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Recognizing complements
- Understanding how a complement adds to the meaning of a sentence
- Distinguishing between linking-verb and action-verb complements

Chapter 9
Handling Complements

In Chapter 8 I compare a sentence to a flatbed truck carrying meaning to the reader. If verbs are the wheels and the subject is the driver, complements are the less essential parts of the vehicle — perhaps the defroster or the speedometer. These words are a little more important than those fuzzy dice some people hang from their rearview mirrors or bumper stickers, declaring "I stop at railroad tracks." (What do they think the rest of us do? Leap over the train?) You can sometimes create a sentence without complements, but their presence is generally part of the driving — sorry, I mean *communicating* — experience.

Four kinds of complements show up in sentences: direct objects, indirect objects, objective complements, and subject complements. This chapter explains all of them. The first three types of complements are related to the object of a sentence. (Notice that the word *object* is part of the name.) The fourth type of complement is related to the subject of a sentence. (Thus the word *subject* is part of its name.) Distinguishing between these two groups helps you choose the proper pronoun whenever the sentence calls for that part of speech. A complement (not to be confused with a compliment, or expression of praise) completes the idea that the subject and verb begin.

Getting a Piece of the Action: Complements for Action Verbs

Action verbs express — surprise! — action. No action verb needs a complement to be grammatically legal, but an action-verb sentence without a complement may sound bare. The complements that follow action verbs — the direct object, indirect object, and objective complement — enhance the meaning of the subject-verb pair.

Receiving the action: Direct objects

Imagine that you're holding a baseball, ready to throw it to your friend. In your fantasy, you're facing a Hall of Fame hitter. You go into your windup and pitch. The ball arcs gracefully against the clear blue sky — and crashes right through the kitchen window.

> You broke the kitchen window!

Before you can retrieve the ball, your phone rings. It's your mom, who has radar for situations like this. "What's going on?" she asks. You mutter something containing the word *broke.* (There's the verb.) "Broke? Who broke something?" she demands. You admit that *you* did. (There's the subject.) "What did you break?" You hesitate. You consider a couple of possible answers: a bad habit, the world's record for the hundred-meter dash. Finally, you confess: the *window.* (There's the complement.)

Here's another way to think about the situation (and the sentence). *Broke* is an action verb because it tells you what happened. The action comes from the subject *(you)* and goes to an object *(the window).* As some grammarians phrase it, *the window* receives the action expressed by the verb *broke.* Conclusion? *Window* is a *direct object* because it receives the action directly from the verb.

Try another:

> With the force of 1,000 hurricanes, you pitch the baseball.

Pitch is an action verb because it expresses what is happening in the sentence. The action goes from the subject (*you*, the pitcher) to the object *(the baseball).* In other words, *baseball* receives the action of *pitching.* Thus, baseball is the direct object of the verb *pitch.*

Here are a few examples of sentences with action verbs. The direct objects are underlined:

> The defective X-ray machine took strange <u>pictures</u> of my toe. (*took* = verb, *X-ray machine* = subject)
>
> George hissed the secret <u>words</u> to a fellow spy. (*hissed* = verb, *George* = subject)
>
> My best crayons draw beautiful <u>lines</u>. (*draw* = verb, *crayons* = subject)
>
> Leroy's laser printer spurted <u>toner</u> all over his favorite shirt. (spurted = *verb,* printer = *subject*)

You may be able to recognize direct objects more easily if you think of them as part of a pattern in the sentence structure: subject (S) – action verb (AV) – direct object (DO). This S–AV–DO pattern is one of the most common in the English language; it may even be the most common. (I don't know whether anyone has actually counted all the sentences and figured it out!) At any rate, think of the parts of the sentence in threes, in the S–AV–DO pattern:

> machine took pictures
>
> George hissed words
>
> crayons draw lines
>
> printer spurted toner

Of course, just to make your life more difficult, a sentence can have more than one direct object. Check out these examples, in which the direct objects are underlined:

Alfred autographed posters and books for his many admirers.

Roger will eat a dozen doughnuts and a few slabs of cheesecake for breakfast.

The new president of the Healthy Heart Society phoned Egbert and his brother.

George threw stained shirts and smelly socks across his bedroom.

Ella bought orange juice, tuna, aspirin, and a coffee table.

Some sentences have no direct object. Take a look at this example:

Throughout the endless afternoon and into the lonely night, Alfred sighed sadly.

No one or nothing receives the sighs, so the sentence has no direct object. Perhaps that's why Alfred is lonely.

The easiest way to find the direct object is to "pop the question." Locate the subject and the verb first. (I explain how to pop the question for verbs in Chapter 5 and for subjects in Chapter 8.) Say the subject and verb and tack on these questions:

Who or whom?

What?

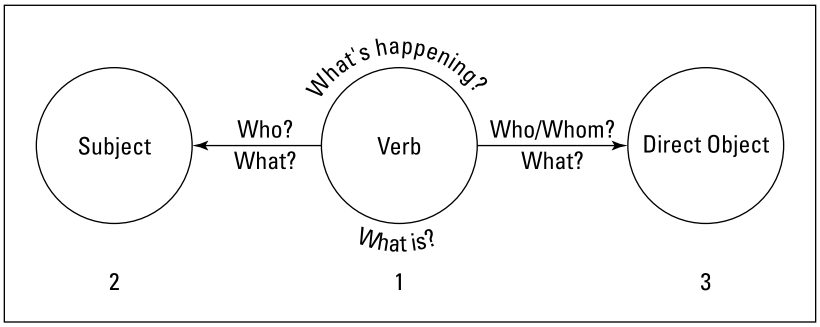

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Watch these questions in action:

Flossie maintains the cleanest teeth in Texas.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *maintains. Maintains* is the action verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who or what *maintains?* Answer: *Flossie maintains. Flossie* is the subject.

3. Pop the complement question: *Flossie maintains* who/whom? No answer. *Flossie maintains* what? Answer: Flossie maintains *the cleanest teeth in Texas* (*teeth* = the most important word). *Teeth* is the direct object.

TIP

Sometimes when you pop the subject question, you find no answer. If the sentence is a command, the subject is understood to be *you.* If the sentence is not a command, you may have found a verb form that is functioning as a description. This sort of verb form — a *verbal* — may have a direct object, too. If you find one, good for you! Here's an example:

> Mattie, having crushed all the grapes, washed her feet.

The verb in this sentence is *washed,* which pairs with the subject, *Mattie.* The direct object of *washed* is *feet.* If you chose *having crushed* as the verb and popped the subject questions: who *having crushed?* what *having crushed?* you got no answer. (*Mattie having crushed* doesn't work.) The verb form *having crushed* functions as a description of *Mattie.* Now ask the direct object questions: *having crushed* whom? *having crushed* what? The answer is *grapes,* which is the direct object of the verbal *having crushed.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the direct object(s).

Joe drank coffee every morning.

The referee blew the whistle.

Carmen filled the tank with gas.

Everyone greeted Philip warmly.

A. **coffee** *drank* = action verb, *Joe* = subject

whistle *blew* = action verb, *referee* = subject

tank *filled* = action verb, *Carmen* = subject

Philip *greeted* = action verb, *Everyone* = subject

YOUR TURN

Identify the direct objects in these sentences.

1. He knew someone in the government.
2. Bert played guitar and banjo in the show.
3. A gifted writer, Simon read several stories to his class yesterday.
4. Simon has also written poems, novels, and plays.

5. Hannah is chewing steak and broccoli.
6. Somebody should use more soap and deodorant!

Rare, but sometimes there: Indirect objects

Another type of object is *indirect* because the action doesn't flow directly to it. The *indirect object*, affectionately known as the IO, is an intermediate stop along the way between the action verb and the direct object. Read this sentence, in which the indirect object is underlined:

> Knowing that I'm on a diet, Maggie sent <u>me</u> some nonfat snacks.

The action is *sent.* My friend *Maggie* performed the action, so *Maggie* is the subject. What received the action? *Snacks. Snacks* is the direct object. That's what was *sent*, what received the action of the verb directly. But *me* also received the action, indirectly. *Me* received the sending of the snacks. *Me* is the indirect object.

The sentence pattern for indirect objects is subject (S) – action verb (AV) – indirect object (IO) – direct object (DO). Notice that the indirect object always precedes the direct object: S–AV–IO–DO. Here are a few sentences, with the indirect objects underlined:

> Gloria will tell <u>me</u> the whole story tomorrow. (*will tell* = verb, *Gloria* = subject, *story* = direct object)
>
> As a grammarian, I should have given <u>you</u> better examples. (*should have given* = verb, *I* = subject, *examples* = direct object)
>
> Ella impulsively sent <u>Larry</u> a harsh text. (*sent* = verb, *Ella* = subject, *text* = direct object)
>
> The opponent's coach unwisely offered <u>Annie</u> a bribe for dropping out of the race. (*offered* = verb, *coach* = subject, *bribe* = direct object)

Indirect objects, like salesclerks in a discount store, don't appear very often. When indirect objects do show up, they're always in partnership with a direct object. Unless you're a fan of grammar terminology, you don't need to worry about distinguishing between direct and indirect objects. As long as you understand that these words are objects, completing the meaning of an action verb, you recognize the basic components of a sentence.

Though indirect objects seldom appear, you can check for them with another "pop the question." After you locate the action verb, the subject, and the direct object, ask

> To whom? For whom?
>
> To what? For what?

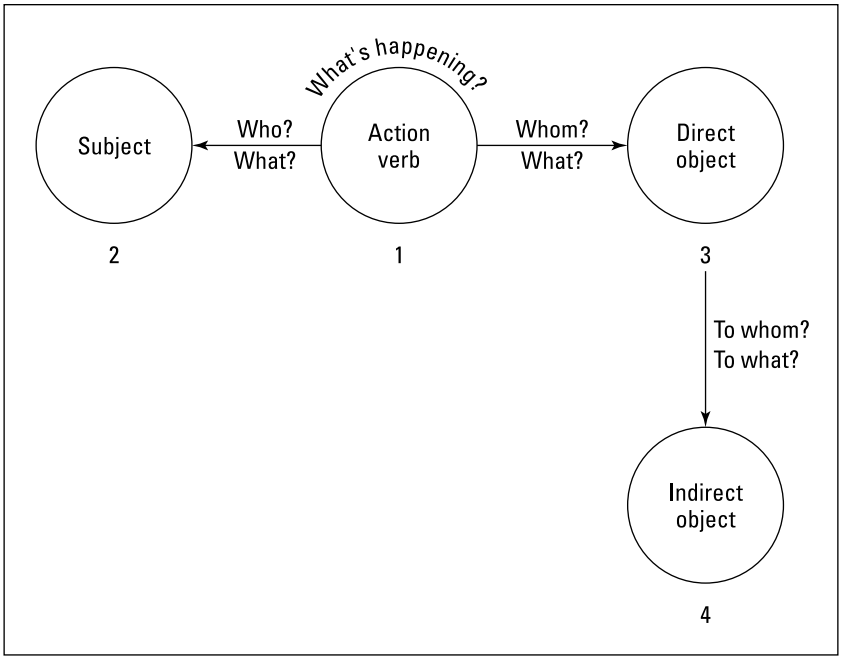

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If you get an answer, it should reveal an indirect object. Here's an example:

Mildred will never tell me the gossip.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? Answer: *will tell. Will tell* is an action verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who will tell? Answer: *Mildred. Mildred* is the subject.
3. Pop the direct object question: *Mildred will tell* whom? or what? Answer: *Mildred will tell the gossip. Gossip* is the direct object.
4. Pop the indirect object question: *Mildred will tell the gossip* to whom? Answer: to *me. Me* is the indirect object.

TIP

You may come up with a different answer when you pop the DO question in step 3 (*Mildred will tell* whom? or what?). You can answer *Mildred will tell me.* True. The only problem is that the sentence then has *gossip* flapping around with no label. Your attempt to determine the sentence structure has reached a dead end. Luckily for you, all you need to know is that both are objects. Only obsessive grammarians like me worry about which one is direct and which one is indirect.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the indirect objects in these sentences.

Mark gave Maria some water.

Brad wrote me a letter.

Chris will buy everyone a present.

Gardeners gave the plants and trees extra water.

A. **Maria** *gave* = verb, *Mark* = subject, *water* = direct object

me *wrote* = verb, *Brad* = subject, *letter* = direct object

everyone *will buy* = verb, *Chris* = subject, *present* = direct object

plants, trees *gave* = verb, *Gardeners* = subject, *water* = direct object

YOUR TURN

Identify the indirect objects in these sentences.

7. Gus told her a secret.
8. Did Lola bring Lulu more coffee?
9. No, Lulu had not given Lola enough money for coffee.
10. Without sufficient caffeine, Lulu will certainly give her friend a hard time.

No bias here: Objective complements

Finally, a grammar rule that's hard to bungle. Here's the deal: Sometimes a direct object doesn't get the whole job done. A little more information is needed or desired, and the writer doesn't want to bother adding a whole new subject–verb pair. The solution? An *objective complement* — an added fact about the direct object.

The objective complement (underlined in the following sentences) may be a person, place, or thing. In other words, the objective complement may be a noun:

> Egbert named Lester editor of the Healthy Heart Society Bulletin. (*named* = verb, *Egbert* = subject, *Lester* = direct object)
>
> Gloria and the other club members unanimously elected Roger president. (*elected* = verb, *Gloria and members* = subjects, *Roger* = direct object)
>
> Alfred called his dog Alfred-Too. (*called* = verb, *Alfred* = subject, *dog* = direct object)

The objective complement may also be a word that describes a noun. (A word that describes a noun is called an *adjective*; see Chapter 6 for more information.) Take a peek at these sample sentences, in which the objective complement is underlined:

> Nancy considered her unqualified for the job. (*considered* = verb, *Nancy* = subject, *her* = direct object)
>
> George dubbed Alred-Too ridiculous. (*dubbed* = verb, *George* = subject, *Alfred-Too* = direct object)
>
> Roger called George heartless. (*called* = verb, *Roger* = subject, *George* = direct object)

As you see, the objective complements in each of the sample sentences give the sentence an extra jolt. You know more with it than you do without it, but the objective complement isn't a major player in the sentence.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the objective complement in these sentences.

George declared Nancy ineligible and unqualified for the "Best Grammarian" contest.

Nancy had appointed George judge of the contest!

Now she called him "hopelessly inadequate."

A. **ineligible, unqualified** *declared* = verb, *George* = subject, *Nancy* = direct object

judge *had appointed* = verb, *Nancy* = subject, *George* = direct object

inadequate *called* = verb, *she* = subject, *him* = direct object (***Note:*** *hopelessly* is a description, explaining exactly how *inadequate* Nancy thinks George is.)

YOUR TURN

Identify the objective complements in these sentences.

11 The other contestants considered Nancy strange.

12 They deemed George unfair.

13 A mediator named Alfred chief grammarian.

14 Everyone considered Alfred annoyingly accurate in his judging.

Completing the Equation: Subject Complements

Subject complements are major players in sentences powered by linking verbs. A *linking verb* begins a word equation; it expresses a state of being, linking two ideas. The complement completes the equation. Because a complement following a linking verb tells you something about the *subject* of the sentence, it is called a *subject complement.* In each of the following sentences, the first idea is the subject, and the second idea (underlined) is the complement:

> Ms. McAnnick is <u>upset</u> by the bankruptcy of the auto-parts manufacturer. *(Ms. McAnnick = upset)*
>
> Gloria was a <u>cheerleader</u> before the dog bite incident. *(Gloria = cheerleader)*
>
> The little orange book will be <u>sufficient</u> for all your firework information needs. *(book = sufficient)*
>
> It is <u>I</u>, the master of the universe. *(It = I)*

Subject complements can take several forms. Sometimes the subject complement is a descriptive word (an *adjective,* in case you like to know the correct terminology). Sometimes the subject complement is a *noun* (person, place, thing, or idea) or a *pronoun* (a word that substitutes for a noun). The first sample sentence equates *Ms. McAnnick* with a description (the adjective *upset*). The second equates *Gloria* with a position (the noun *cheerleader*). In the third sample sentence,

the subject *book* is described by the adjective *sufficient.* The last sentence equates the subject *it* with the pronoun *I.* Don't worry about these distinctions. They don't matter! As long as you can find the subject complement, you're grasping the sentence structure.

TIP

The linking verbs I mention in the preceding paragraph are forms of the verb *be*. Other verbs that give sensory information (*feel*, *sound*, *taste*, *smell*, and so on) may also be linking verbs. Likewise, *appear* and *seem* are linking verbs. (For more information on linking verbs, see Chapter 5.) Have a look at a couple of sentences with sensory linking verbs. The complements are underlined:

Larry sounds grouchier than usual today. *(Larry = grouchier)*

After solving an algebra problem, Anna feels proud. *(Anna = proud)*

To find a subject complement, you employ the same questions that locate a direct object: *who? what?* after the subject–verb pair.

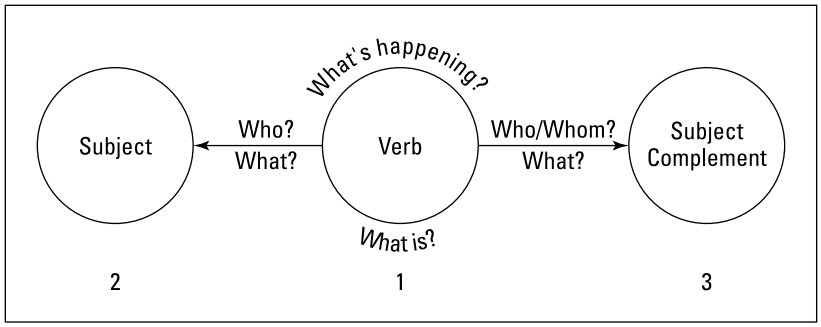

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Here's an example of "pop the question" for linking verbs:

The actor recovering from the flu appeared tired and worn.

1. Pop the verb question: What's happening? No answer. What is? Answer: *Appeared. Appeared* is the linking verb.
2. Pop the subject question: Who or what *appeared?* Answer: *Actor appeared. Actor* is the subject.
3. Pop the complement question: *Actor appeared* who? No answer. *Actor appeared* what? Answer: *Tired* and *worn. Tired* and *worn* are the subject complements.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the subject complements in these sentences.

Molly seems cheerful.

Our house has been a beloved home.

The stew tastes salty.

The secretaries are Grace and Pete.

The new rug is soft but durable.

A. **cheerful** *Molly* = subject, *seems* = linking verb

home *has been* = linking verb, *house* = subject

salty *tastes* = linking verb, *stew* = subject

Grace, Pete *are* = linking verb, *secretaries* = subject

soft, durable *is* = linking verb, *rug* = subject

YOUR TURN

Identify the subject complements in these sentences.

15 The traffic on the expressway is terrible, as usual!

16 We will be extremely late to Annie's party.

17 John was the guest of honor because of his heroism during the fire.

18 Annie will never be his host again.

19 John had been anxious about Annie's reaction.

20 Now he was relieved because the music sounded too loud.

21 Also, the cake looked disgusting and tasted awful.

WARNING

In Standard English, you can't mix types of subject complements that complete the meaning of the same verb. (English teachers refer to this rule as *parallelism*. For more about parallelism, check out Chapter 24.) Use all descriptions or all nouns and pronouns. Take a look at these examples:

WRONG: Gramps is grouchy but a good artist.

RIGHT: Gramps is a grouch but a good artist.

ALSO RIGHT: Gramps is grouchy and artistic.

WRONG: Lester's pet spider can be annoying and a real danger.

RIGHT: Lester's pet spider can be an annoyance and a real danger.

ALSO RIGHT: Lester's pet spider can be annoying and really dangerous.

REMEMBER

Objects follow action verbs, and subject complements follow linking verbs.

EXAMPLE

Q. Label the underlined words O (for direct objects, indirect objects, or objective complements) or S (for subject complements).

Sal seemed soggy after his final water polo match.

The referee gave him a towel.

The loser shot the referee a dirty look.

A. **soggy = subject complement** (*seemed* = linking verb, *Sal* = subject)

towel = direct object, him = indirect object (*gave* = action verb, *referee* = subject)

look = direct object, referee = indirect object (*shot* = action verb, *loser* = subject)

YOUR TURN

Label the underlined words as objects or subject complements.

22 During the annual softball game between two branch offices of our company, Lola swung the bat with all her strength.

23 She is extremely strong because she exercises for two hours every day.

24 The bat hit the ball and lifted it over the outfield fence.

25 Spectators felt joyful and even hopeful after Lola's hit.

26 The applause always sounds louder during Lola's games.

27 Compared to Lola, the next batter seemed small and weak.

28 He is the president of the company, and he looks powerful.

29 He has power over our paychecks!

30 The pitcher tossed the president a slow ball.

31 Who would challenge him?

32 Our opponents called the pitch unfair.

33 Despite the slow pitch, the president smacked the ball only a few feet.

34 He reached third base anyway because no one would tag him.

35 I consider him incompetent, especially on the playing field.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **someone** (*knew* = verb, *He* = subject)
2. **guitar, banjo** (*played* = verb, *Bert* = subject)
3. **stories** (*read* = verb, *Simon* = subject)
4. **poems, novels, plays** (*has written* = verb, *Simon* = subject)
5. **steak, broccoli** (*is chewing* = verb, *Hannah* = subject)
6. **soap, deodorant** (*should use* = verb, *Somebody* = subject)
7. **her** (*told* = verb, *Gus* = subject, *secret* = direct object)
8. **Lulu** (*Did bring* = verb, *Lola* = subject, *coffee* = direct object)
9. **Lola** (*had given* = verb, *Lulu* = subject, *money* = direct object)
10. **friend** (*will give* = verb, *Lulu* = subject, *time* = direct object)
11. **strange** (*considered* = verb, *contestants* = subject, *Nancy* = direct object)
12. **unfair** (*deemed* = verb, *They* = subject, *George* = direct object)
13. **grammarian** (*named* = verb, *mediator* = subject, *Alfred* = direct object)
14. **accurate** (*considered* = verb, *Everyone* = subject, *Alfred* = direct object)
15. **terrible** (*is* = verb, *traffic* = subject)
16. **late** (*will be* = verb, *We* = subject)
17. **guest** (*was* = verb, *John* = subject)
18. **host** (*will be* = verb, *Annie* = subject)
19. **anxious** (*had been* = verb, *John* = subject)
20. **relieved, loud** (*was* = verb, *he* = subject; *sounded* = verb, *music* = subject)
21. **disgusting, awful** (*looked, tasted* = verbs, *cake* = subject)
22. O **(direct object;** *swung* = action verb, *Lola* = subject)
23. S **(subject complement;** *is* = linking verb, *She* = subject)
24. O, O **(direct object, direct object;** *hit, lifted* = action verbs, *bat* = subject)
25. S, S **(subject complement, subject complement;** *felt* = linking verb, *Spectators* = subject)
26. S **(subject complement;** *sounds* = linking verb, *applause* = subject)
27. S, S **(subject complement, subject complement;** *seemed* = linking verb, *batter* = subject)

28 S, S **(subject complement, subject complement;** *is, looks* = linking verbs; *he, he* = subjects)

29 O **(direct object;** *has* = action verb, *He* = subject)

30 O, O **(indirect object, direct object;** *tossed* = action verb, *pitcher* = subject)

31 O **(direct object;** *would challenge* = action verb, *Who* = subject)

32 O, O **(direct object, objective complement;** *called* = action verb, *opponents* = subject)

33 O **(direct object;** *smacked* = action verb, *president* = subject)

34 O, O **(direct object, direct object;** *reached* = action verb, *he* = subject; *would tag* = action verb, *no one* = subject)

35 O, O **(direct object, objective complement;** *consider* = action verb, *I* = subject)

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz, which incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 9 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Identify the complements in this course description. You should find 22 direct objects (DO), 4 indirect objects (IO), 2 objective complements (OC), and 6 subject complements (SC).

Introduction to Gravity (3 credits) Professor Angus Newton

Do you like gravity? Are you fond of this force? If so, send me an enrollment form. This course examines our planet's gravitational pull. During the first class, each student will drop an apple from the roof and observe its path through the air. The students will record the apples' direction — up, down, left, right — and form a hypothesis about gravity. Next, students will email each other a detailed plan for another gravitational experiment. For example, students may pick up our expensive, extremely thick textbook and test the power of gravity with their muscles. All students write lab reports and send me their findings. (Spoiler alert: Most experiments have found gravity powerful and one-directional.) As a capstone project, students will investigate any aspect of gravity. This is a thrilling opportunity! Last year, one project was an analysis of gravity and running shoes. The student measured no increase in gravity at mile 17 of a marathon, despite the runner's claims. Another research project was a daring but unsuccessful attempt to reverse gravity. Does this project seem interesting? If so, you are perfect for this course!

This class requires one lecture and two hours of field work per week. If students work diligently and reach their goals, I drop the final. If students cut class, I give them a mid-term test and an extremely hard final.

Answers to Chapter 9 Quiz

Introduction to Gravity (3 credits)

Do you like **gravity (DO-1)**? Are you **fond (SC-1)** of this force? If so, send **me (IO-1)** an enrollment **form (DO-2)**. This course examines our planet's gravitational **pull (DO-3)**. During the first class, each student will drop an **apple (DO-4)** from the roof and observe its **path (DO-5)** through the air. The students will record the apples' **direction (DO-6)** — up, down, left, right — and form a **hypothesis (DO-7)** about gravity. Next, students will email **each other (IO-2)** a detailed **plan (DO-8)** for another gravitational experiment. For example, students may pick up our expensive, extremely thick **textbook (DO-9)** and test the **power (DO-10)** of gravity with their muscles. All students write lab **reports (DO-11)** and send **me (IO-3)** their **findings (DO-12)**. (Spoiler alert: Most experiments have found **gravity (DO-13)** **powerful (OC-1)** and **one-directional (OC-2)**.) As a capstone project, students will investigate any **aspect (DO-14)** of gravity. This is a thrilling **opportunity (SC-2)**! Last year, one project was an **analysis (SC-3)** of gravity and running shoes. The student measured no **increase (DO-15)** in gravity at mile 17 of a marathon, despite the runner's claims. Another research project was a daring but unsuccessful **attempt (SC-4)** to reverse gravity. Does this project seem **interesting (SC-5)**? If so, you are **perfect (SC-6)** for this course!

This class requires one **lecture (DO-16)** and two **hours (DO-17)** of field work per week. If students work diligently and reach their **goals (DO-18)**, I drop the **final (DO-19)**. If students cut **class (DO-20)**, I give **them (IO-4)** a midterm **test (DO-21)** and a **final (DO-22)**.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Identifying the elements of a complete sentence
- Placing periods, question marks, and exclamation points in the correct spot
- Connecting ideas with conjunctions and semicolons
- Dealing with sentence fragments

Chapter 10

When All Is Said and Done: Complete Sentences

Everyone knows this important rule of English grammar: All sentences must be complete. But everyone breaks the rule. I just did! *But everyone breaks the rule* is not a complete sentence; it's a sentence *fragment*. At times, fragments are perfectly acceptable — in texts or tweets, for example. The other extreme — more than one complete sentence improperly glued together — is a *run-on sentence.* A run-on sentence — and its variation, a *comma splice* — are grammatical felonies. Never fear: In this chapter, I explain how to join ideas without risking a visit from the Grammar Police. I also provide everything you need to know about *end marks,* the punctuation separating one sentence from another.

Completing Sentences: The Essential Subjects and Verbs

A complete sentence has at least one subject–verb pair. They're a pair because they match. They both enjoy taking long walks on the beach, playing video games, and making fun of reality-show contestants. Just kidding. They match because, well, they work smoothly as a

team. One half of the pair, the *verb*, expresses action or being, and the other half, the *subject*, is whatever or whoever does the action or exists in the state of being. (Chapter 8 provides a step-by-step process for identifying subjects and verbs.)

A few subject–verb pairs that match are

Egbert scrambled

Ms. McAnnick has repaired

Eva will be

Just for comparison, here are some mismatches:

Egbert scrambling

Ms. McAnnick having repaired

Eva being

How do you know when a pair matches? If you have spent a lot of time listening to or reading Standard English, you may sense a mismatch. Scanning the regular-verb charts in Chapter 5 might also help you decide. Still in doubt? Keep reading. In the following sections I explain some common mistakes in pairing up subjects and verbs.

Not flying solo: Verb forms ending in –ing

The *–ing* form of a verb expresses an action in progress or an ongoing state of being, but it can't carry out this task alone. It requires help from a form of the verb *be.* Take a look at this chart of subject–verb pairs, sorted according to the rules of Standard English. The verb forms are underlined:

Matching Pair	Nonmatching Pair
bird is flying	bird flying
Henry is going	Henry going
I am swimming	I swimming
the prince and his wife are being	the prince and his wife being
mirrors are reflecting	mirrors reflecting
the river is flowing	the river flowing
musicians are playing	musicians playing

REMEMBER

To act as a proper verb in a subject–verb pair, the *–ing* form of a verb must be attached to *is, are, was, were, will be, had been,* or another form of the verb *be.*

WARNING

Remember that the guidelines in this section apply only to subject–verb pairs. The *–ing* form of a verb, all alone, may be correct in other roles, as in this example:

WRONG: Sam riding his bike.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Sam riding* is not a proper subject–verb pair.

RIGHT: Sam, riding his bike, hit a tree.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *riding* is not paired with *Sam. Riding* adds information about *Sam. Sam hit* is the real subject–verb pair in this sentence.

Another example:

WRONG: Hitting a bump.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The "sentence" has no subject and no true verb.

RIGHT: Hitting a bump, Sam fell off his bike.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *hitting a bump* gives more information about *Sam.* The subject–verb pair is *Sam fell.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose the correct verb from the parentheses.

You (are going, going) away tomorrow.

A. **are going**

YOUR TURN

Choose the correct verb from the parentheses.

1. His sister (is waiting, waiting) for a new credit card.
2. My toe (has been aching, aching) for three days.
3. Zina (telling, was telling) an amazing story to her friends.
4. The mansion (is standing, standing) on top of that hill.
5. He (is admiring, admiring) your new hairstyle.

Past verb forms that can't stand alone

Have you ever spoken to your friends about grammar? Probably not! Grammar has never been a topic to bring up at a party. When I discussed grammar at a party, I looked around and saw that everyone had fallen asleep!

The underlined words in the preceding paragraph are fine as part of a verb. However, they cannot match with a subject unless they have a helping verb. In the preceding paragraph, these underlined verbs do have helpers:

have spoken

has been

had fallen

With their helpers, the sentences are correct in Standard English. Without the helpers, you do not have a proper subject–verb pair.

Look at this set of matches and mismatches, according to the rules of Standard English.

Matching Pair	Nonmatching Pair
Ross has written	Ross written
Anne had gone	Anne gone
ducks have swum	ducks swum
bricks had fallen	bricks fallen
he was done	he done
vases were stolen	vases stolen
president has spoken	president spoken

Do you see that the matching pair always includes *was, were, has, have,* or *had?* The verb forms here, and many others, do not work all by themselves as part of a subject–verb pair. These forms must have helpers attached. Because of this rule, *he was done* is correct in Standard English, but *he done* is not.

TIP

In grammar terms, these forms are called *irregular past participles.* Don't waste brain cells remembering that term! Check Chapter 12 for a list of the most common irregular forms.

WARNING

Sometimes a participle is not part of the verb in a sentence. Instead, the participle adds information. If the participle acts as a description, it's fine by itself. Here's an example:

WRONG: Elsa frozen on the iceberg.

WHY IT IS WRONG: *Elsa frozen* is not a proper subject–verb pair.

RIGHT: Elsa, frozen on the iceberg, called for help.

WHY IT IS RIGHT: In this sentence, *frozen* is not paired with *Elsa. Frozen* adds information about *Elsa. Elsa called* is the true subject–verb pair in this sentence.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the verb form that's correct in Standard English.

The sky (was covered, covered) with clouds.

A. **was covered**

YOUR TURN

Select the verb form that's correct in Standard English.

6. We (have done, done) the work.
7. Those ants (have gone, gone) away.
8. Sid (taken, has taken) the test twice.
9. The ball (was thrown, thrown) to the pitcher.
10. The horse (been ridden, has been ridden, ridden) in three races.

Do not "be" alone

Another type of subject–verb pair that's often mismatched in Standard English places the verb *be* all by itself. In formal situations, *be* always changes form or has a helping verb attached when it functions as the verb in a sentence. Look at this chart.

Matching Pair	Nonmatching Pair
Margie will be	Margie be
the polar bear is	the polar bear be
I am	I be
the teenagers on the train are talking	the teenagers on the train be talking
Ned has been chopping	Ned be chopping
the singers will be performing	the singers be performing

As you see in the table, sometimes *be* changes form when it is part of the matching pair *(is, am)*. At other times, *be* has a helping verb *(will, are, has)*. To see all forms of *be*, turn to Chapter 5.

TIP

Another usage that breaks the rules of Standard English is dropping the *be* verb entirely. Take a look at this example:

WRONG: She happy.

WHY IT IS WRONG IN STANDARD ENGLISH: The statement has no verb.

CORRECTION: She is happy.

WHY IT IS CORRECT IN STANDARD ENGLISH: The sentence now has a verb, *is*. Any other verb that pairs with *she* would also work: *She was happy. She will be happy. She seems happy. She sounds happy.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the verb form that's correct in Standard English.

Jack (is, be) hungry.

A. **is**

YOUR TURN

Select the verb form that's correct in Standard English.

11. Robin (be, will be) at school today.
12. (Are, Be) you pleased with the decorations?
13. Archers (been, be, have been) part of that competition since ancient times.
14. Everyone (should be, be) kind to animals.
15. The mountains (be, are, been) very snowy.

TIP

When texting, tweeting, or IMing (instant-messaging), many people opt for "sentences" that lack subjects. That's fine as long as the meaning is clear. Check out these sample texts:

Fed cow

Cleaned barn

Went home

The missing subject, *I*, is obvious. If you're talking about someone else, however, you need to supply a subject:

Abner fed cow

Julia cleaned barn

I went home

Now the person receiving the message understands that Abner and Julia did all the work, not the texter — who, of course, was too busy texting to tackle chores. By the way, I used capital letters in the preceding examples. Lots of people opt for lowercase in messages like these, and many also omit periods, as I did. Check Chapter 25 for a guide to grammar and electronic media.

TIP

You may find some mismatches in your sentences when you go subject–verb hunting. Mismatches are not necessarily wrong; they're simply not subject–verb pairs. Take a look at a subject–verb mismatch *(Egbert scrambling)*, properly tucked inside a sentence:

Egbert, scrambling for a seat at the counter, knocked over an omelet plate.

When you're checking a sentence for completeness, ignore the mismatches. Keep looking until you find a subject–verb pair that belongs together. If you can't find one, you don't have a complete sentence.

EXAMPLE

Q. Subject–verb pair or mismatch?

Dorothy fiddled

snake slithering

doctor will examine

paper having been written

A. **pair, mismatch, pair, mismatch**

YOUR TURN

Subject–verb pair or mismatch?

16 butterfly flew

17 Celeste singing

18 sun shining

19 planet appeared

20 cactus plant was

21 Arthur having dreamed

22 employees will strike

23 party being over

24 candles blown out

25 dogs had barked

Complete Thoughts, Complete Sentences

What's an incomplete sentence? It's the moment in the television show just before the last commercial. You know what I mean. *The hero slowly edges the door open a few inches, peeks in, gasps, and . . . FADE TO DANCING CEREAL BOX.* You were planning to switch to a different show, but instead you wait to see whether the villain stabs the hero. You haven't gotten to the end, and you don't know what's happening. A complete sentence is the opposite of that moment in a television show. You have reached the end, and you do know what's happening. In other words, a complete sentence must express a complete thought. (You've probably noticed that grammar terminology isn't terribly original.)

Check out these complete sentences. Notice how they express complete thoughts:

Despite Egbert's fragile appearance, he proved to be a tough opponent.

Ms. McAnnick will repair your car while you wait.

I can't imagine why anyone would want to ride on top of a bus.

Did Lola apply for a job as a tattoo artist?

For comparison, here are a few incomplete thoughts:

The reason I wanted a divorce was.

Because I said so.

I can guess what you're thinking. Both of those incomplete thoughts may be part of a longer conversation. In context, those incomplete thoughts may indeed express a complete thought:

Sydney: So the topic of conversation was the team's chances for a trophy?

Alice: No! The reason I wanted a divorce was!

and

> Nick: Why do I have to do this dumb homework?
>
> Nick's mom: Because I said so.

Fair enough. You can pull a complete thought out of the examples. However, the context of a conversation isn't enough to satisfy the complete thought / complete sentence rule. To be "legal," your sentence must express a complete thought.

Check out these examples:

> The reason I wanted a divorce was the topic of our conversation, even though his real interest was the team's chances for a trophy.
>
> You have to do this dumb homework because I said so.

Final answer: Every complete sentence has at least one subject–verb pair and must express a complete thought.

WARNING

In deciding whether you have a complete sentence, you may be led astray by words that resemble questions. Consider these three words: *who knits well.* A complete thought? Maybe yes, maybe no. Suppose those three words form a question:

> Who knits well?

This question is understandable and its thought is complete. Verdict: legal. Suppose these three words form a statement:

> Who knits well.

Now they don't make sense. This incomplete sentence needs more words to make a complete thought:

> The honor of making Elizabeth's sweater will go to a person who knits well.

REMEMBER

Don't change the meaning of what you're saying when deciding whether a thought is complete. If you're *questioning,* consider your sentence as a *question.* If you're *stating,* consider your sentence as a *statement.*

TIP

Occasionally a complete sentence ends with an ellipsis — three spaced dots. Such sentences show up in dramatic works, to add suspense or to indicate hesitation or confusion. These sentences appear incomplete, but because they fulfill the author's purpose, they *are* complete. For more information on ellipses, see "Reaching the End of the Line: End Marks," later in this chapter.

EXAMPLE

Q. Complete or incomplete thought?

> Martin sings.
>
> Martin, who hopes to sing professionally someday but can't get beyond the do-re-mi level despite 15 years with an excellent teacher and many hours of practice.

A. **complete, incomplete** Even though it is short, the first sentence states a complete thought. The second statement starts with *Martin* and tacks on a long description, but the reader doesn't know what *Martin* is doing. To put it in grammar terms, no verb pairs with the subject, *Martin.*

YOUR TURN

Complete or incomplete thought?

26 What happened.

27 The basketball lying on the shelf and getting dusty.

28 Somebody should play.

29 While the players were practicing.

30 What does coach say?

31 Enough already.

32 Roger is tall but hates basketball.

33 Tony, although he is short, can jump higher than everyone else on the team.

34 The team, winning the championship because of Tony.

35 The crowd cheered.

Reaching the End of the Line: End Marks

When you speak, your body language, silences, and tone act as punctuation marks. You wriggle your eyebrows, stop at significant moments, and raise your voice when you ask a question.

When you write, you can't raise an eyebrow or stop for a dramatic moment. No one hears your tone of voice. That's why sentences need end marks. This punctuation takes the place of live communication and tells your reader how to "hear" the words correctly. Plus, end marks close sentences legally in formal, written English. (The rules for texting and tweeting, as well as other forms of electronic communication, are different. See Chapter 25.)

Traditional, formal sentences end with a period (.), question mark (?), exclamation point (!), or ellipsis (. . .). The following examples show how to use end marks correctly in Standard English.

The period is for ordinary statements, declarations, and commands:

I can't do my homework.

I refuse to do my homework.

Do not assign homework again.

The question mark is for questions:

Why are you torturing me with this homework?

Is there no justice in the world for students?

Does no one know how much work is listed in my assignment pad?

The exclamation point adds a little drama to sentences that would otherwise end in periods:

I can't do my homework!

I absolutely positively refuse to do it!

Oh, the agony of homework I've seen!

An ellipsis (three dots) signals that something has been left out of a sentence. When missing words occur at the end of a complete sentence, use four dots (three for the missing words and one for the end of the sentence):

Michael choked, "No, not that . . ."

Roger complained, "The door opened. . . ."

TIP

In formal writing, don't put more than one end mark at the end of a sentence, unless you're trying to create a comic effect:

He said my cooking tasted like what?!?!?!

Don't put any end marks in the middle of a sentence. You may find a period inside a sentence as part of an abbreviation; in this case, the period is not considered an end mark. If the sentence ends with an abbreviation, let the period after the abbreviation do double duty. Don't add another period:

WRONG: When Ella woke me, it was 6 a.m..

RIGHT: When Ella woke me, it was 6 a.m.

Blog posts and comments on internet sites often follow the standard end mark rules, but those that are just for fun (not business or academic sites) often follow different standards. You may see periods within a sentence to make the statement more emphatic (*Best. Cat video. Ever.*) Some posters type double or triple (or even more) question marks and exclamation points to express strong emotion. "I'm here!" is less excited than "I'm here!!!" Some writers also combine question marks and exclamation points to show doubt or amazement: "You're there?!?!?"

WARNING

Be careful when you stray from formal English rules for punctuation. If you're writing to a boss or teacher or anyone else who may expect Standard English, creative use of end marks may count against you.

EXAMPLE

Q. Add end marks to these sentences.

Who's there

Pick 12 pumpkins and leave the carving to me

I can't believe you said that

A. **Who's there?**

Pick 12 pumpkins and leave the carving to me.

I can't believe you said that!

YOUR TURN

Add end marks to these sentences.

36 Did you plant potatoes this year

37 The deer will stay away from that garden

38 Does he know much about geography

39 The map showed every river and stream in the area

40 I am shocked that there are so many sources of water

Connecting Ideas

William Faulkner's acclaimed novel *Absalom, Absalom!* includes a sentence that's rather long — 1,287 words long, to be precise. I doubt you'll ever want to cram that many words into a single sentence, but chances are you'll sometimes want to express more than one idea before you reach an end mark. After all, spooling out ideas in small sentences makes you sound like a toddler: *I played with clay. I went to the zoo. I took a nap.* Even when the activities remain the same, you sound more mature if you write *After I played with clay, I went to the zoo, and then I took a nap.*

Connecting ideas in a grammatically correct fashion isn't hard. In this section, I explain a few simple rules.

Conjunctions

To join two complete sentences, use a conjunction (*and, but, since, because,* and so forth). Say you start with these two statements:

His hand shook

The house of cards fell.

You can connect them (and add a shade of meaning) with conjunctions, which I've underlined in these sentences:

His hand shook, and the house of cards fell.

His hand shook when the house of cards fell.

Because his hand shook, the house of cards fell.

Surprised by the last example sentence? The conjunction can appear at the beginning of either statement, so long as the connection is logical. (For more about conjunctions, see Chapter 7.)

WARNING

Some words appear to be strong enough to join sentences, but in reality, they're just a bunch of couch potatoes who've never seen the inside of a gym. They may look good, but the minute you need them to pick up a truck or something, they're history. False joiners include *however*, *consequently*, *therefore*, *moreover*, *then*, *also*, and *furthermore.* Use these words to add meaning to your sentences but not to glue the sentences together.

WRONG: Lennie gobbled the steak, consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.

CORRECTED VERSION #1: Lennie gobbled the steak; consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.

CORRECTED VERSION #2: Lennie gobbled the steak. Consequently, Robbie had nothing to eat.

TIP

With your sharp eyes, you probably spotted a comma after *consequently* in each of the preceding examples. Grammarians argue about whether you must place a comma after a false joiner. (For the record, false joiners are *conjunctive adverbs.* No one in the entire universe needs to know that term.) Some grammarians say that the comma is necessary. Others (I'm one) see the comma as optional — a question of personal style. If you're writing for authority figures, ask what they prefer. If you have no one to please but yourself, insert or omit a comma whenever you want.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct or incorrect in Standard English?

Matty built a block tower, and Lola knocked it over.

Matty built a block tower, however, Lola knocked it over.

A. **correct, incorrect** In the first sentence, the conjunction *and* properly connects two complete sentences. In the second sentence, *however* incorrectly attaches one statement to the other.

Semicolons

The semicolon (;), which looks like a dot on top of a comma, functions as a pit stop between one idea and another. It's not as strong as a period, which in Britain is called a *full stop* because, well, a period stops the reader and signals the end of a statement. A semicolon lets the reader take a rest, but just for a moment. This punctuation mark is strong enough to attach one complete sentence to another.

I've seen writing manuals that proclaim, "Never use semicolons!" with the same intensity of feeling as, say, "Don't blow up the world with that nuclear missile." I've also read articles proclaiming (with no proof whatsoever) that only people old enough to collect a pension use this punctuation mark and that no sane person ever places one in a text. My advice is to use semicolons if you like them. Avoid them if you don't.

If you do put a semicolon in your sentence, be sure to attach related ideas. Here's an example:

RIGHT: George was born in Delaware; he moved to Virginia when he was 4.

WRONG: I put nonfat yogurt into that soup; I like Bob Dylan's songs.

In the first example, both parts of the sentence are about George's living arrangements. In the second, those two ideas are, to put it mildly, not in the same universe. (At least not until Bob Dylan writes a song about a container of yogurt. Hey, it could happen.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate the following sentence so that it follows the rules of Standard English, adding or subtracting words as needed:

Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem he is afraid of scratches.

A. **Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem. He is afraid of scratches.** or **Abner will clip the thorns from that rose stem; he is afraid of scratches.**

WARNING

Don't connect complete sentences with just a comma. This error is so common that it has its own name: *comma splice*.

NONSTANDARD COMMA SPLICE: Lucy gathered the cards, it was Lola's turn.

STANDARD: Lucy gathered the cards; it was Lola's turn.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: A semicolon attaches one complete sentence to another.

ALSO STANDARD: Lucy gathered the cards although it was Lola's turn.

WHY IT'S ALSO STANDARD: A conjunction, *although*, connects two complete sentences.

TIP

In informal writing, it's fine to connect two sentences with a dash. (More on dashes appears in Chapter 20.)

Relative pronouns

Another useful technique for combining short sentences legally is "the pronoun connection." (A *pronoun* substitutes for a noun, which is a word for a person, place, thing, or idea. See Chapter 4 for more information.) Check out these combinations:

Sentence 1: Amy read the book.

Sentence 2: The book had a thousand pictures in it.

Joining: Amy read the book *that* had a thousand pictures in it.

Sentence 1: The paper map stuck to Will's shoe.

Sentence 2: The map will help us take over the world.

Joining: The paper map, *which* will help us take over the world, stuck to Will's shoe.

Sentence 1: Margaret wants to hire a carpenter.

Sentence 2: The carpenter will build a new ant farm for her tiny pets.

Joining: Margaret wants to hire a carpenter *who* will build a new ant farm for her tiny pets.

Sentence 1: The tax bill was passed yesterday.

Sentence 2: The tax bill will lower taxes for the top .00009% income bracket.

Joining: The tax bill *that* was passed yesterday will lower taxes for the top .00009% income bracket.

Alternate joining: The tax bill that was passed yesterday will lower taxes for Bill Gates, Elon Musk, and Mark Zuckerberg. (I interpreted a little.)

That, *which*, and *who* are pronouns. In the combined sentences, each takes the place of a noun. *(That* replaces *book*, *which* replaces *map*, *who* replaces *carpenter*, *that* replaces *tax bill.)* These pronouns serve as thumbtacks, attaching a subordinate or less important idea to the main body of the sentence. For grammar trivia contests: *that*, *which*, and *who* (as well as *whom* and *whose*) are pronouns that may relate one idea to another. When they do that job, they are called *relative pronouns*.

EXAMPLE

Q. Combine these sentences with a pronoun.

Sentence 1: Charlie slowly tiptoed toward the poisonous snakes.

Sentence 2: The snakes soon bit Charlie on the tip of his nose.

A. **Charlie slowly tiptoed toward the poisonous snakes, which soon bit Charlie on the tip of his nose.** The pronoun *which* replaces *snakes* in sentence 2.

YOUR TURN

Which sentences are correct in Standard English? You may find one, more than one, or none.

41 **(A)** Kathy broke out of jail, five years for illegal sentence-joining was just too much for her.

(B) Kathy broke out of jail; five years for illegal sentence-joining was too much for her.

(C) Kathy broke out of jail because five years for illegal sentence-joining was just too much for her.

42 **(A)** The grammarian-in-chief used to work for the Supreme Court, therefore his word was law.

(B) The grammarian-in-chief used to work for the Supreme Court, and therefore his word was law.

(C) The grammarian-in-chief used to work for the Supreme Court, consequently, his word was law.

43 **(A)** His nickname, "Mr. Grammar," which had been given to him by the court clerks, was not a source of pride for him.

(B) His nickname, "Mr. Grammar," had been given to him by the court clerks, and it was not a source of pride for him.

(C) His nickname, "Mr. Grammar," had been given to him by the court clerks, it was not a source of pride for him.

44 **(A)** Nevertheless, he did not criticize those who used the term, as long as they did so politely.

(B) Nevertheless, he did not criticize those who used the term; as long as they did so politely.

(C) Nevertheless, he did not criticize those who used the term, and as long as they did so politely.

45 **(A)** He often wore a lab coat embroidered with parts of speech, for he was truly devoted to the field of grammar.

(B) He often wore a lab coat embroidered with parts of speech, he was truly devoted to the field of grammar.

(C) He often wore a lab coat embroidered with parts of speech because he was truly devoted to the field of grammar.

46 **(A)** His assistant's escape wounded him deeply; he ordered the grammar cops to arrest her as soon as possible.

(B) His assistant's escape wounded him deeply, and he ordered the grammar cops to arrest her as soon as possible.

(C) His assistant's escape wounded him deeply, consequently he ordered the grammar cops to arrest her as soon as possible.

47 **(A)** The assistant hid in a basket of dirty laundry; then she held her breath as the truck passed the border.

(B) The assistant hid in a basket of dirty laundry, and then she held her breath as the truck passed the border.

(C) The assistant hid in a basket of dirty laundry, then she held her breath as the truck passed the border.

48 **(A)** The grammarian-in-chief passed the border of sanity some time ago, although he is able to break a grammar rule if he really tries.

(B) The grammarian-in-chief passed the border of sanity some time ago, even so he is able to break a grammar rule if he really tries.

(C) The grammarian-in-chief passed the border of sanity some time ago, but he is able to break a grammar rule if he really tries.

Breaking Away from Sentence Fragments

I use incomplete sentences, or *fragments,* here and there throughout this book, and (I hope) these incomplete sentences aren't confusing. Especially in electronic communication, quick cuts and short comments are the rule. Fragments, though, sometimes *aren't* the best choice. To decide when fragments are acceptable, read on.

Placing fragments in the right context

In conversational English (see Chapter 2), fragments are usually acceptable. The most common type of fragment begins with the words *and, or, but,* or *nor.* These words are *conjunctions.* As I explain in an earlier section, "Connecting Ideas," these conjunctions may combine two complete sentences (with two complete thoughts) into one longer sentence:

> Egbert went to his doctor for a cholesterol check, *and* then he scrambled home.

For centuries, writers have begun sentences with *and, or, but,* and *nor,* especially in informal writing or for dramatic effect. For example, the preceding sentence may be turned into

> Egbert went to his doctor for a cholesterol check. And then he scrambled home.

No one misunderstands the meaning. The fragment's separation creates a punch line and adds a bit of drama. Verdict: This fragment is fine.

So are fragments that make sense in the context of a larger conversation, especially in conversational English. Have a look at this example:

> MARIA: Is that toaster on sale now?
>
> JOE: No, next week.

Joe's comment is clear only because Maria led the way. If Joe suddenly declares, "No, next week" without context, he's likely to be met with a puzzled look. (See "Complete Thoughts, Complete Sentences," earlier in this chapter, for more examples and additional explanation.)

Fragments are especially useful in electronic media — in some situations. When you're texting, complete sentences may appear overly formal and even disrespectful of your reader's time. Why make your reader plow through a complete sentence on a tiny screen when a few words can make the same point? Take a look at these texts between two friends making plans for the

evening. For the sake of comparison, the complete, grammatically correct version appears in parentheses after each text:

LOLA: tonight? (What are the plans for tonight?)

GEORGE: dinner at my house (We are eating at my house.)

LOLA: bringing wine (I am bringing wine.)

GEORGE: ordered food (I ordered the food.)

English teachers may groan, but George and Lola understand each other perfectly. Fragments are perfectly acceptable here.

Steering clear of inappropriate fragments

Don't write sentence fragments that a reader may misunderstand, as in these examples:

When it rained

As if he were king of the world

After the ball was over but before it was time to begin the first day of the rest of your life and all those other clichés that you hear every day in the subway on your way to work

Before Alfred left

Because I want to

Whether you like it or not, and despite the fact that you don't like it, although I am really sorry that you are upset

If hell freezes over

and so on.

Avoid fragments when your most formal English is necessary. If your reader expects perfect grammar, place fragments on your avoid-at-all-costs list.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which is a sentence fragment? Which is a complete sentence? Which is a comma splice (a run-on)?

(A) Cedric sneezed.

(B) Because Cedric sneezed in the middle of the opera, just when the main character removed that helmet with the little horns from on top of her head.

(C) Cedric sneezed, I pulled out a handkerchief.

A. Choice (A) is a complete sentence. Choice B is a fragment with no complete idea. Choice (C) is a comma splice because it contains two complete thoughts joined only by a comma.

YOUR TURN

Analyze each sentence and label it as follows:

- **Correct** The sentence is complete.
- **Fragment** If the sentence lacks a subject-verb pair or a complete thought, it's a fragment.
- **Missing end mark** If the sentence has no end mark, choose this label.
- **Run-on** If more than one complete sentence is improperly joined, call it a run-on.

49 Bill's holiday concert, occurring early in October, honors the longstanding tradition of his hometown and the great Elvis Presley.

50 The holiday, which is called Hound Dog Day in honor of a wonderful dog breed.

51 Tradition calls for blue suede shoes.

52 Having brushed the shoes carefully with a suede brush, which can be bought in any shoe store.

53 The citizens lead their dogs to the town square, Heartbreak Hotel is located there.

54 "Look for the ghost of Elvis," the hotel clerk tells every guest, "Elvis has often been seen haunting these halls."

55 Elvis, ghost or not, apparently does not attend the Hound Dog Day festivities, because no one has seen a singer in a white jumpsuit there.

56 Why should a ghost attend Bill's festival

57 How can you even ask?

58 The blue suede shoes are a nostalgic touch, consequently, the tourists always wear them.

59 Personally, I prefer blue patent leather pumps, but my opinion isn't important.

60 Just stay off of my shoes!

61 While we were talking about shoes, Bill was creating a playlist for the Hound Dog Concert.

62 You should plan to arrive early, everyone in town will be there.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **is waiting**
2. **has been aching**
3. **was telling**
4. **is standing**
5. **is admiring**
6. **have done**
7. **have gone**
8. **has taken**
9. **was thrown**
10. **has been ridden**
11. **will be**
12. **Are**
13. **have been**
14. **should be**
15. **are**
16. **Pair**
17. **Mismatch** Possible correction: *Celeste is singing*.
18. **Mismatch** Possible correction: *sun will be shining.*
19. **Pair**
20. **Pair**
21. **Mismatch** Possible correction: *Arthur dreamed*.
22. **Pair**
23. **Mismatch** Possible correction: *party was over*.
24. **Mismatch** Possible correction: *candles have been blown out.*
25. **Pair**
26. **Incomplete** With a question mark, this would be a complete thought.
27. **Incomplete** Possible correction: The basketball was lying on the shelf and getting dusty.

28 **Complete**

29 **Incomplete** Possible correction: *While the players were practicing, the coach was snoring.*

30 **Complete**

31 **Incomplete** Possible correction: *The captain declared, "Enough already!"*

32 **Complete**

33 **Complete**

34 **Incomplete** Possible correction: *The team won the championship because of Tony.*

35 **Complete**

36 **Did you plant potatoes this year?**

37 **The deer will stay away from that garden.**

38 **Does he know much about geography?**

39 **The map showed every river and stream in the area.**

40 **I am shocked that there are so many sources of water!** A period would also be acceptable here.

41 **B, C** The problem with choice (A) is that a comma can't unite two complete thoughts. In choice (B), the comma has been correctly changed to a semicolon. Choice (C) works because the conjunction *because* connects the two ideas correctly.

42 **B** In choices (A) and (C), you have two complete thoughts. Everything before the comma equals one complete thought; everything after the comma is another complete thought. A comma isn't strong enough to hold them together, and *nevertheless* or *consequently* can't do the job. In choice (B), the conjunction *and* connects the two thoughts correctly.

43 **A, B** Choices (A) and (B) are correct in Standard English. In choice (A), the extra information about the nickname *(which had been given to him by the court clerks)* is a description, not a complete thought, so it can be tucked into the sentence next to the word it describes *(nickname).* The pronoun *which* ties the idea to *nickname.* In choice (B), the conjunction *and* links the two complete sentences. In choice (C), a comma tries to do that job, but it's not strong enough.

44 **A** The *nevertheless* in choice (A) is not used as a joiner, so it's legal. In choice (B), you see an unnecessary semicolon. In choice (C), the *and* isn't needed.

45 **A, C** Did I get you with choice (A)? The word *for* has another, more common grammatical use in such expressions as *for you, for the last time,* and so on. However, *for* is a perfectly fine joiner of two complete thoughts when it means *because.* Speaking of *because,* it legally joins two thoughts in choice (C). Choice (B) bombs because the comma isn't an appropriate punctuation mark to join two complete thoughts.

46 **A, B** Sentence (A) uses a semicolon to join two complete thoughts correctly. Choice (B) employs the conjunction *and* for the same job. In choice (C), *consequently* tries to link these ideas, but it's not a conjunction and therefore not correct in Standard English.

47 **A, B** To connect these two ideas, choice (A) uses a semicolon and choice (B) the conjunction *and.* Choice (C) fails because a comma can't link complete sentences.

48 **A, C** The conjunction *although* joins one thought to another, more important, main idea about the grammarian-in-chief's sanity, so choice (A) is correct. So is choice C) because *but* does the job there. Choice (B) doesn't work, because *even so* isn't a conjunction.

49 **Correct** This one has everything: subject-verb pair *(concert, honors),* complete thought, and an end mark. One description *(occurring early in October)* is properly tucked into the sentence, near the word it describes *(concert).*

50 **Fragment** The sentence is incorrect because it gives you a subject *(the holiday)* and a long description *(which is called Hound Dog Day in honor of a wonderful dog breed)* but doesn't pair any verb with *holiday.* Several corrections are possible. Here's one: The holiday, which is called Hound Dog Day in honor of a wonderful dog breed, requires each citizen to attend dog obedience school.

51 **Correct** You have a subject-verb pair *(tradition, calls),* a complete thought, and an end mark. No problems here!

52 **Fragment** This sentence has no subject. No one is doing the brushing or the buying. One possible correction: Having brushed the shoes carefully with a suede brush, which can be bought in any shoe store, Bill proudly displayed his footwear.

53 **Run-on** This sentence is a run-on (comma splice), because a comma can't join two complete thoughts. Change it to a semicolon or reword the sentence. Here's a possible rewording: The citizens lead their dogs to the town square, where Heartbreak Hotel is located.

54 **Run-on** The two quoted sections are jammed into one sentence, but each is a complete thought. Change the comma after *guest* to a period.

55 **Correct** Here you have two complete thoughts *(Elvis, ghost or not, apparently does not attend the Hound Dog Day festivities* and *no one has seen a singer in a white jumpsuit there).* A conjunction, *because,* connects them properly.

56 **Missing end mark** The sentence is incorrect because it has no end mark. Add a question mark.

57 **Correct** This one is a proper question, with a subject-verb pair *(you can ask)*, a complete thought, and a question mark.

58 **Run-on** *Consequently* looks like a fine, strong word, but it can't join two complete thoughts, which you have in this sentence. To correct it, add a semicolon after *touch* and dump the comma.

59 **Correct** Two complete thoughts are joined by the conjunction *but.*

60 **Correct** Surprised? This sentence gives a command. The subject is *you,* even though *you* doesn't appear in the sentence. It's implied.

61 **Correct** The conjunction (*while*) properly connects these two ideas, even though the conjunction appears at the beginning of the sentence.

62 **Run-on** The comma can't connect two complete sentences.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz, which incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 10 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Read this letter introducing a new employee to customers. Check each sentence for completeness and label it correct or incorrect according to the rules of Standard English.

To Our Valued Customers:

(1) Announcing that Abner Grey is our new Director of Customer Satisfaction, effective immediately. Abner brings a wealth of experience to our company. (2) He served as assistant vice president of marketing for Antarctic Icebergs, Inc., until last year, when the cold finally became too much for him. (3) His first task, to introduce himself to every customer, finding out what has been done in the past and how our relationship may be improved. (4) Expect a phone call or a personal visit from him soon! (5) Recognizing that our previous director was not always attentive to your needs (occupied as she was with the lawsuit, prison, and so forth), we have told Abner to work at least 90 hours per week. (6) No embezzlement, either! (7) Call him whenever you have a problem. (8) You will not be disappointed, furthermore, Abner will actually anticipate your needs. (9) Rest assured. (10) That this Director of Customer Satisfaction will never see the inside of a jail cell.

Answers to Chapter 10 Quiz

1. **incorrect** The sentence lacks a subject/verb pair. To correct it, drop *Announcing that* or add *I am* to the beginning of the sentence.
2. **correct**
3. **incorrect** Although it has two long descriptions, this sentence doesn't complete the thought begun by *His first task.*
4. **correct**
5. **correct**
6. **incorrect** This sentence has neither a subject nor a verb. You could correct this one by adding *We'll have* to the beginning of the sentence.
7. **correct**
8. **incorrect** The word *furthermore* is not a conjunction. Place a semicolon in front of *furthermore* and you're fine.
9. **correct** Short sentences can still be complete, as this command sentence is.
10. **incorrect** This sentence does not express a complete thought. If you tack it to the end of the sentence 9, however, you end up with one complete, correct sentence.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Distinguishing between independent and subordinate clauses
- Untangling one clause from another
- Using subordinate clauses to enhance and emphasize meaning

Chapter 11

No Santas but Plenty of Clauses

Say I give you a new car. What do you do? Open the hood and check the engine or hop in and drive away? The engine-checkers and the drive-awayers are subgroups of car owners. The engine-checkers have to know what's going on inside the machine. The other group doesn't care about fuel injection and spark plugs. They just want the car to run.

You can also divide language learners into two groups. Some people want to understand what's going on inside the sentence, but most just want to communicate. In this chapter, I provide some information for each — the lift-the-hood-of-the-sentence group and the drive-English-to-where-I-need-to-go clan. The first part of this chapter digs into the structure of the sentence, defining clauses. Then I show you how manipulating clauses can change the meaning and effect of a sentence.

Grasping the Basics of Clause and Effect

No matter what food you put between two pieces of bread, you've got a sandwich. That's the definition of *sandwich:* bread plus filling. Clauses have a simple definition, too: subject plus verb. Any subject-verb combination creates a clause. The reverse is also true: no subject or no verb = no clause. You can throw in some extras (descriptions, lettuce, tomato — whatever), but the basic subject-verb combination is key. Some sentences have one clause, in which case the whole sentence is the clause, and some have more than one.

TIP

Check your sentences for completeness. In formal English, each sentence should contain at least one subject–verb pair and express a complete thought, expressed in a way that can stand alone. In grammar terms, each sentence must contain at least one independent clause. (For more information on complete sentences, see Chapter 10.)

Here are a few examples of one-clause sentences:

Has Sherlock cracked The Case of the Missing Chicken? (subject = *Sherlock,* verb = *has cracked*)

Lulu crossed the Alps on foot in the dead of winter. (subject = *Lulu,* verb = *crossed*)

Sid and his parents have reached an agreement about his chores. (subjects = *Sid and his parents,* verb = *have reached*)

Alfred swam for 15 minutes and rowed for an hour before nightfall. (subject = *Al,* verbs = *swam, rowed*)

Notice that some of the clauses have two subjects and some have two verbs, but each expresses one main idea. Here are a few examples of sentences with more than one clause:

SENTENCE: Michael struggled out from under the blankets, and then he dashed after the enemy agent.

CLAUSE 1: Michael struggled out from under the blankets (subject = *Michael,* verb = *struggled*)

CLAUSE 2: then he dashed after the enemy agent (subject = *he,* verb = *dashed*)

SENTENCE: After Cedric had developed the secret microfilm, Barbara sent it to whatever federal agency catches spies.

CLAUSE 1: After Cedric had developed the secret microfilm (subject = *Cedric,* verb = *had developed*)

CLAUSE 2: Barbara sent it to whatever federal agency catches spies (subject = *Barbara,* verb = *sent*)

CLAUSE 3: whatever federal agency catches spies (subject = *agency,* verb = *catches*)

With your sharp eyes, I'm sure you noticed something odd about the last example: Clause #3 is actually part of Clause #2. It's not a misprint. Sometimes one clause is entangled in another. (This topic is deep in the pathless forests of grammar. Get out now, while you still can!)

Here's one more example that's complicated:

SENTENCE: Whoever ate the secret microfilm is in big trouble.

CLAUSE 1: Whoever ate the secret microfilm (subject = *whoever,* verb = *ate*)

CLAUSE 2: Whoever ate the secret microfilm is in big trouble. (subject = *whoever ate the secret microfilm,* verb = *is*)

Yes, one clause is the subject of another clause. Good grief! What a system. For those who truly love grammar: The subject clause is a noun clause. See "Defining the Three Legal Jobs for Subordinate Clauses," later in this chapter, for more information.

EXAMPLE

Q. Examine the underlined words and decide whether they are a clause (C) or not a clause (NC).

Oh boy. Ella agreed to attend her fifteenth high school reunion! She resolved to get a promotion, a new wardrobe, and at least one impressive hobby before the class dinner.

A. **Oh boy = NC, Ella agreed to attend her fifteenth high-school reunion = C, to get a promotion = NC, before the class dinner = NC** The first underlined portion *(Oh boy)* has neither a subject nor a verb, so it isn't a clause. The second underlined portion has a subject and a verb *(Ella agreed)*, which makes it a clause. *To get a promotion* has no subject, and strictly speaking, the infinitive *to get* isn't a verb in this sentence. Therefore, it's not a clause. *Before the class dinner* lacks a subject-verb pair. It's actually a prepositional phrase.

YOUR TURN

Examine the underlined elements and label them clause (C) or not a clause (NC).

(1) Was the reunion scheduled for Labor Day weekend? Seriously? (2) Meeting on a holiday! Last week, Ella, (3) who is deeply interested in gossip, decided to attend. (4) Coming from the other coast, Ella needs a hotel, preferably one with a pool. (5) If she were honest, (6) Ella would admit that she is nervous. (7) To calm her nerves, (8) Ella has begun yoga lessons. Her downward-facing-reunion posture is her best move, (9) which she practices for an hour a day. (10) Ella has also hired a dance instructor, who promises to make Ella look cool (11) or, at a minimum, less nerdy. (12) Having studied ballet, Ella believes (13) that today's dance moves will be easy to learn. (14) Wrong! (15) Ella has two left feet, as her ballet teacher remarked.

Sorting Subordinate and Independent Clauses

Some clauses are like mature grown-ups. They have their own house or apartment, pay their own expenses, and wash the dishes frequently enough to ward off a visit from the health inspector. These clauses have made a success of life; they're *independent.*

Other clauses are like the brother-in-law character in a million jokes. They crash on someone's couch, mooch free meals, and never visit a Parental Unit without a bag of dirty laundry. These clauses are not mature; they can't support themselves. They're *dependent.* These clauses may be called *dependent clauses* or *subordinate clauses.* (The terms are interchangeable.)

Following are two sets of clauses. Both have subject-verb pairs, but the first set makes sense alone and the second doesn't. The first set consists of independent clauses, and the second of subordinate, or dependent, clauses.

Independent clauses:

Elena blasted Bobby with a radar gun.

Bobby was going 50 mph.

The cheetah could not keep up.

Did the judge award the trophy?

Subordinate clauses:

After she had complained to the race officials

Because Bobby had installed an illegal motor on his skateboard

Which Tom bought from an overcrowded zoo

Whoever ran the fastest

Independent clauses are okay by themselves, but writing too many in a row makes your paragraph choppy and monotonous. Subordinate clauses, however, are not okay by themselves, because they don't make sense alone. To become complete, they have to tack themselves onto independent clauses. Subordinate clauses add life and interest to the sentence (just as the guy crashing on your couch adds a little zip to the household). But don't leave them alone, because disaster will strike. A subordinate clause all by itself is a grammatical felony in Standard English — a sentence fragment.

TIP

The best sentences combine different elements in all sorts of patterns. (See Chapter 24 for more on this topic.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Independent or subordinate? Read the underlined words and label each one I for independent or S for subordinate.

Betsy stares at her phone <u>whenever she has a free moment</u>.

A. **Subordinate** The underlined words don't form a complete thought, so this clause is subordinate. Clauses that give information about time are often subordinate. This one explains when *Betsy stares*.

YOUR TURN

Q. Independent or subordinate? Read the underlined words and label each I for independent or S for subordinate.

16 <u>The pocket for Betsy's phone has never been used</u> because Betsy never puts her phone away.

17 The last time <u>that Betsy left the house without her phone</u> was traumatic for her.

18 Sal, <u>who is Betsy's best friend,</u> told her that she must face her phone addiction.

19 Betsy strongly denies having phone problems, but Sal is not convinced.

20 While Betsy was looking at her phone, Sal removed Betsy's shoes.

21 When Betsy stood up, she finally noticed that her feet were bare.

22 Furious, Betsy grabbed Sal's phone, which he had left on the table.

23 Will Betsy and Sal's fight be resolved, or will the phone feud continue?

Defining the Three Legal Jobs for Subordinate Clauses

It's true that subordinate clauses can't stand alone, but they still do valuable work. In this section, I describe the three roles allotted to this grammatical element.

Describing nouns and pronouns

A subordinate clause may give your listener or reader more information about a noun or pronoun. Here are some examples, with the subordinate clause underlined:

> The book that Michael wrote is on the best seller list. *(that Michael wrote* describes the noun *book)*
>
> Anyone who knows Michael well will read the book. *(who knows Michael well* describes the pronoun *anyone)*
>
> The book includes some information that will prove embarrassing to Michael's friends. *(that will prove embarrassing to Michael's friends* describes the noun *information)*

You don't need to know this fact, so skip to the next paragraph. Still here? Okay then. When a subordinate clause describes a noun or a pronoun, it's doing an adjective's job. Therefore, it's called an *adjective clause.*

Describing verbs, adjectives, or adverbs

Subordinate clauses can also describe verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. The subordinate clauses tell you *how, when, where,* or *why.* Here are some examples, with the subordinate underlined:

> Because Michael censored himself, the book contains nothing about the wiretap. *(Because Michael censored himself* describes the verb *contains)*
>
> We will probably find out more when the movie version is released. *(when the movie version is released* describes the verb *will find)*
>
> The government may prohibit sales of the book wherever it may increase international tension. *(wherever it may increase international tension* describes the verb *may prohibit)*

Michael is so stubborn that he may sue the government. *(that he may sue the government* describes the adverb *so)*

More grammar terminology, in case you're having a very dull day: Subordinate clauses that describe verbs are called *adverb clauses.* Subordinate clauses that describe adjectives or adverbs (mostly in comparisons) are also *adverb clauses.* Adverb clauses do the same job as single-word adverbs. They describe verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

TIP

The questions you "pop" to identify adjectives and adverbs (see Chapter 6) also identify adjective and adverb clauses.

WARNING

Adjective and adverb clauses should be near the words they describe. If you place them in the wrong spot, your meaning may be muddled. Chapter 15 explains what to watch out for when you're inserting a description into a sentence.

Acting as subjects, objects, or subject complements inside another clause

This topic is a bit more complicated: Subordinate clauses may do any job that a noun does in a sentence. Therefore, subordinate clauses sometimes act as subjects, objects, or subject complements inside other clauses. Here are some examples, with the subordinate clause underlined:

When the book was written is a real mystery. *(When the book was written* is the subject of the verb *is)*

No one knows whom Michael hired to write his book. *(whom Michael hired to write his book* is the object of the verb *knows)*

Michael signed copies for whoever bought at least five books. (*whoever bought at least five books* is the object of the preposition *for*)

The problem is that your homework is late. *(that your homework is late* is the subject complement)

The grammar terminology is obvious: *Noun clauses* are subordinate clauses that perform the same functions as nouns — subjects, objects, appositives, and so on.

TIP

When you "pop the question" to locate a subject, object, or complement, you may find a noun clause. For more information on these magic questions, see Chapters 8 and 9.

Untangling Subordinate and Independent Clauses

You have to untangle one clause from another only occasionally — when deciding which pronoun or verb you need or whether commas are appropriate. (See the next section, "Deciding When to Untangle Clauses," for more information.) When you do have to untangle them, follow these simple steps:

1. Find the subject-verb pairs.
2. Use your reading comprehension skills to determine whether the subject-verb pairs belong to the same thought or to different thoughts:

   If the pairs belong to different thoughts, they're probably in different clauses.

   If the pairs belong to the same thought, they're probably in the same clause.

Another method also relies on reading comprehension skills. Think about the ideas in the sentence and untangle the thoughts. By doing so, you've probably also untangled the clauses.

Check out these examples:

SENTENCE: The acting award that Lola received comes with a hefty check.

SUBJECT–VERB PAIRS: *award comes, Lola received*

UNTANGLED IDEAS: (1) The award comes with a hefty check. (2) Lola received the award.

CLAUSES: (1) *The acting award comes with a hefty check.* (independent clause) (2) *that Lola received* (subordinate clause)

SENTENCE: When Lulu tattoos clients, they stay tattooed.

SUBJECT–VERB PAIRS: *Lulu tattoos, they stay*

UNTANGLED IDEAS: (1) Lulu tattoos clients (2) they stay tattooed

CLAUSES: (1) *When Lulu tattoos clients* (subordinate clause) (2) *they stay tattooed* (independent clause)

EXAMPLE

Q. Untangle this sentence into separate clauses.

Lola's last motorcycle, which she bought secondhand, was once Elvis's property.

A. **(1) Lola's last motorcycle was once Elvis's property (2) which she bought secondhand.**

YOUR TURN

Untangle the following sentences into separate clauses.

24. Egbert posted a bad review of that restaurant because the chef added too much salt to every dish.
25. Before Egbert had finished eating, the waiter presented him with the check.
26. Whoever eats at that restaurant is going to regret it.
27. If Egbert eats there again, he may find a spider in his soup.
28. The spider, however, eats very little.
29. Watch out for the restaurant cat.
30. The cat, whose name is Melissa, pounces on the table when no one is looking and eats everything!

Deciding When to Untangle Clauses

Why would you want to untangle clauses? Not just because you have nothing better to do. (If you have that much free time, please stop by to clean out my closets.) You should untangle clauses when you're choosing pronouns, verbs, and punctuation. Read on for the whole story.

When you're picking a pronoun

When you're deciding whether you need a subject or an object pronoun, check the clause that contains the word. Don't worry about what the entire clause is doing in the sentence. Untangle the clause and ignore everything else. Then decide which pronoun you need for that particular clause.

Many of the decisions about pronouns concern *who* and *whom*. (For tricks to help you make the *who/whom* and other pronoun choices, see Chapter 14.)

Here's one untangling example, with the pronoun problem in parentheses:

SENTENCE: Ella wasn't sure (who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause 1: *Ella wasn't sure.* Clause 2: *(who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *(who/whom) would want a used engagement ring.*

CORRECT PRONOUN: *who* (subject of *would want*)

When you're deciding on the correct verb

When you're deciding on subject-verb agreement in one clause, the other clauses are distractions. (By *agreement*, I mean the matching of singular subjects with singular verbs and plural subjects with plural verbs.) If you're writing (not speaking), I recommend that you cross out or cover the other clauses with your finger. Check the clause that worries you. Decide the subject-verb agreement issue, and then erase the crossing-out line or remove your hand. (For more information on subject-verb agreement, see Chapter 13.)

Here are two untangling examples, with the verb choices in parentheses:

SENTENCE: Larry, whose brides are always thrilled to marry into the royal family, (needs/need) no introduction.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause #1= *Larry (needs/need) no introduction.* Clause #2= *whose brides are always thrilled to marry into the royal family.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *Larry (needs/need) no introduction.*

CORRECT VERB: *needs* (Larry = singular, *needs* = singular)

SENTENCE: That ring, which Larry recovers after each divorce and reuses for each new engagement, *has/have* received a recycling award.

UNTANGLED INTO CLAUSES: Clause #1 = *That ring has/have received a recycling award.*
Clause #2 = *which Larry recovers after each divorce and reuses for each new engagement.*

RELEVANT CLAUSE: *The ring has/have received a recycling award.*

CORRECT VERB: *has* (*ring* = singular, *has* = singular)

When you're figuring out where to put commas

Sometimes you have to untangle clauses in order to decide whether you need commas. Repeat the same untangling steps that I discuss earlier in this chapter (see "Untangling Subordinate and Independent Clauses") and then flip to Chapter 19 to see how to use commas correctly.

Choosing Content for Subordinate Clauses

What to put in a clause depends on the writer's purpose. Generally, the most important idea belongs in the independent clause. Subordinate clauses are for less crucial information, as in this example:

IMPORTANT IDEA: Aga just won a trillion dollars.

LESS IMPORTANT IDEA: His name means "ancient gambler" in an obscure language.

GOOD SENTENCE: Aga, whose name means "ancient gambler" in an obscure language, just won a trillion dollars.

NOT-SO-GOOD SENTENCE: Aga, who just won a trillion dollars, says that his name means "ancient gambler" in an obscure language.

Of course, some writers stray from this pattern to make a comic point or to emphasize a character trait. Suppose you're writing about someone who, to put it mildly, tends to be self-absorbed. A sentence like the following one emphasizes that trait:

While the stock price tanked and sales plummeted, the CEO examined his photo on the company website.

The wreck of the company isn't a big deal for this negligent CEO, and its placement in the subordinate clause reinforces that fact.

TIP

Regardless of what you place in a subordinate clause, be sure to connect it to the sentence properly. For more discussion on joining independent and subordinate clauses, see Chapter 10.

EXAMPLE

Q. Combine these ideas into a single sentence containing one independent and one subordinate clause.

IDEA #1: the archaeologist made a major discovery

IDEA #2: she was listening to classic rock on the radio

A. Several combinations are possible. Here's one:

While listening to classic rock on the radio, the archaeologist made a major discovery.

The subordinate clause is *While listening to classic rock on the radio*. The independent clause is *the archaeologist made a major discovery*. This version emphasizes the discovery. The classic rock information is interesting but not particularly important.

Here's another possibility:

As she made a major discovery, the archaeologist listened to classic rock.

Now the subordinate clause is *As she made a major discovery*. The independent clause is *the archaeologist listened to classic rock*. Placing the musical information in the independent clauses raises its importance. This version might appear in an essay about the role of music in the workplace, archaeologists' daily routines, or the musical tastes of this particular archaeologist.

YOUR TURN

Combine these ideas into a single sentence containing one independent and one subordinate clause. ***Note:*** I provide one possible answer in the answer key, but your response may vary and still be correct.

31 IDEA #1: the discovery was an ancient betting parlor IDEA #2: the betting parlor was filled with discarded lottery tickets

32 IDEA #1: no one had torn up a losing ticket IDEA #2: the tickets were made from stone slabs

33 IDEA #1: I wonder IDEA #2: What was the prize?

34 IDEA #1: near the betting parlor was a bar IDEA #2 winners probably celebrated there

35 IDEA #1: anyone participating in the archaeological dig celebrated IDEA #2 they also celebrated in a bar

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **Was the reunion scheduled for Labor Day weekend? = C** This is a clause because it has a matching subject-verb pair, *reunion was scheduled.* To understand the structure of a question, try turning it into a statement. The original becomes "The reunion was scheduled for Labor Day weekend." Now you can more easily pick out the subject-verb pair and see that you have a clause.
2. **Meeting on a holiday = NC** With no subject and no verb, this is not a clause.
3. **who is very interested in gossip = C** The subject is *who,* and the verb is *is.*
4. **Coming from the other coast = NC** The verb form *coming* isn't paired with a subject, so this is not a clause. It's a verbal, a description. (For more on verbals, turn to Chapter 8 for some examples and 24 for advice on how to use them effectively.)
5. **If she were honest = C** The subject–verb pair is *she were.*
6. **Ella would admit that she is nervous = C** This underlined portion of the sentence contains two clauses, one inside the other. *Ella would admit* is the subject–verb pair, completed by the direct object *that she is nervous,* which is a clause because it contains a subject–verb pair, *she is.*
7. **To calm her nerves = NC** There's no subject here, and technically there's no verb either, because the infinitive form, *to calm,* doesn't function as a verb. Therefore, this is not a clause.
8. **Ella has begun yoga lessons = C** The subject–verb pair is *Ella has begun,* so this is a clause.
9. **which she practices for an hour a day = C** The subject–verb pair is *she practices,* making this a clause.
10. **Ella has also hired a dance instructor = C** The subject–verb pair is *Ella has hired.* Verdict: clause.
11. **or, at a minimum, less nerdy = NC** No verb, no subject, no clause!
12. **Having studied ballet = NC** This verb form isn't matched by a subject, so this is not a clause. Also, *having studied ballet* is a verbal — a verb form that doesn't function as a verb. Here it's describing *Ella*. (For more information on verbals, see Chapters 8 and 24.)
13. **that today's dance moves will be easy to learn = C** The matching subject–verb pair is *moves will be.*
14. **Wrong = NC** Lacking a subject and a verb, this isn't a clause.
15. **Ella has two left feet = C** The subject–verb pair is *Ella has.*
16. **Independent** If you chop off the rest of the sentence, you still have a complete thought. The reason Betsy has an untouched pocket is interesting, but it doesn't have to appear in that sentence in order for the underlined words to make sense.
17. **Subordinate** When you start a clause with *that,* it's often subordinate, which is the case here. Say the underlined words. They're incomplete without the support of the rest of the sentence.
18. **Subordinate** The underlined words would form an independent clause if they were asking a question, but they aren't. They're making a statement — an incomplete one. Therefore, you're looking at a subordinate clause.

19 **Independent** Read the underlined words aloud. Do you hear the complete thought? This is an independent clause.

20 **Subordinate** You have a time statement beginning with *while,* but that statement, all by itself, leaves you wondering. No doubt about it: This is a subordinate clause.

21 **Independent** The underlined words make sense, so you have an independent clause.

22 **Subordinate** The word *which,* when it isn't part of a question, generally signals a subordinate clause.

23 **Independent** This one is a little tricky. You have only one question mark, but bring out your reading comprehension skills. Do you see that the sentence asks two separate questions? Question 1 is *Will Betsy and Sal's fight be resolved?* Question 2 is *will the phone feud continue?* Both parts of the sentence are independent clauses.

24 **(1) Egbert posted a bad review of that restaurant (2) because the chef added too much salt to every dish**

25 **(1) Before Egbert had finished eating (2) the waiter presented him with the check**

26 **(1) Whoever eats at that restaurant is going to regret it (2) Whoever eats at that restaurant** One clause is the subject of another.

27 **(1) If Egbert eats there again (2) he may find a spider in his soup**

28 **(1) The spider, however, eats very little** (one clause only)

29 **(1) Watch out for the restaurant cat** (one clause only)

30 **(1) The cat pounces on the table when no one is looking and eats everything (2) whose name is Melissa** Did I catch you with the first clause? Because one subject, *cat,* pairs with two verbs, *pounces* and *eats,* there's only one clause.

31 **The discovery was an ancient betting parlor that was filled with discarded lottery tickets.** The independent clause is *The discovery was an ancient betting parlor.* The subordinate clause — *that was filled with discarded lottery tickets* — adds information about the betting parlor. Your answer may vary.

32 **No one had torn up a losing ticket because the tickets were made from stone slabs.** Other versions are possible. In this one, the independent clause is *no one had torn up a losing ticket* and the subordinate clause is *because the tickets were made from stone slabs.* The independent clause states the event, and the subordinate clause, a possible reason.

33 **I wonder what the prize was.** The entire sentence is an independent clause; the direct object is the noun clause *what the prize was.*

34 **Near the betting parlor was a bar where winners probably celebrated.** The first clause *(Near the betting parlor was a bar)* is independent; the second *(where winners probably celebrated)* is subordinate.

35 **Whoever participated in the dig also celebrated in a bar.** In this sentence, the first idea is expressed in a noun clause *(whoever participated in the dig)* that functions as the subject of *celebrated.* The entire sentence is an independent clause.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 11 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Below is a true story about one of my granddaughters, who was 5 or 6 years old when it happened. Each sentence is numbered. Check the corresponding number for a question about the sentence.

> (1) When my son and granddaughter were in the public library one day, my son spotted *English Grammar For Dummies* on the shelf. (2) "Look at this," he said to his daughter, who was engrossed in a picture book. (3) She took the book from his hand and flipped through the pages. (4) "Do you know what is special about this book?" (5) She shook her head; it looked like an ordinary book to her. (6) "Gran wrote it!"
>
> (7) As he spoke, my granddaughter was watching him in disbelief. (8) "You mean that Gran came all the way across the country, wrote this book, and then *left* it here? (9) That can't be true!" (10) Although my son spent the next hour attempting to explain the publishing industry to her, she remained skeptical.

1. How many clauses are in sentence (1)?
2. Untangle the clauses in sentence (2).
3. Is there a subordinate clause in sentence (3)?
4. Untangle the clauses in sentence (4).
5. How many clauses are in sentence (5)?
6. Are the words enclosed in quotation marks in sentence (6) an independent clause?
7. Identify the subordinate clause in sentence (7).
8. How many clauses are in sentence (8)?
9. Identify the clause(s) in sentence (9).
10. Identify the adverb clause in sentence (10).

Answers to Chapter 11 Quiz

1. **2** The independent clause is *my son spotted* English Grammar For Dummies *on the shelf.* The subordinate clause is *When my son and granddaughter were in the public library one day.*
2. **Clause #1 Look at this** (subordinate clause, acting as the direct object of the verb *said*), **Clause #2: he said to his daughter** (independent clause) **Clause #3 who was engrossed in a picture book** (subordinate clause, describing *daughter*)
3. **no** One subject *(she)* pairs with two verbs *(took, flipped).* The entire sentence is a single independent clause.
4. **Clause #1: the entire sentence** (subject = *you*, verb = *do know, what is special about this book* = direct object), **Clause #2: what is special about this book** (subordinate clause, functioning as a direct object)
5. **2** The semicolon separates two independent clauses in this sentence.
6. **yes** The entire sentence is a quotation. It has a subject–verb pair and a complete thought, so it's an independent clause.
7. **As he spoke** This subordinate clause functions as an adverb describing the verb *was watching.*
8. **2 Clause #1: entire sentence** (*you* = subject, *mean* = verb, *that Gran . . . here* = direct object) **Clause #2: that Gran . . . here** (noun clause, functioning as the direct object of the verb *mean*)
9. **That can't be true** Did I trick you? The sentence is a single independent clause.
10. **Although my son spent the next hour attempting to explain the publishing industry to her** (describes the verb *remained*)

4 Clearing Up Confusing Grammar Points

In This Unit . . .

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IN THIS CHAPTER

- Expressing time with verbs
- Dealing with irregular verb forms
- Sorting out voice and mood

Chapter 12

Relax! Understanding Verb Tense, Voice, and Mood

Ah, verbs! You can't live without them, because they carry so much information to your reader or listener. Sometimes you can't live with them, at least in terms of Standard English, because verbs can trip you up in several ways: specifically, tense, voice, mood, and number. I focus on number (singular or plural) in Chapter 13. This chapter throws you a lifeline to grammatically correct decisions about tense, voice, and mood.

It's All in the Timing: Tense

Are you obsessed with time: how to save it, race against it, borrow it, or watch it fly? Most people are. Perhaps that's one reason verbs are so important in the English language. They place the information in the sentence on a timeline stretching from the past through the present and into the future. This quality of verbs is known as *tense.*

Simplifying matters: The simple tenses

Three of the six English tenses are called *simple.* (I discuss the other three, the *perfect* tenses, in the next section. Trust me: The perfect tenses are far from it.)

The three simple tenses are *present, past,* and *future.* Each of the simple tenses (just to make things even *more* fun) has two forms. One is the unadorned, no-frills, plain tense. This form has no special name; it's just called *present, past,* or *future*. It shows actions or states of being at a point in time, but it doesn't always pin down a specific moment. The other form is called *progressive.* It shows actions or a state of being *in progress.*

Present tense

Present tense shows action or a state of being that is occurring now, that is generally true, or that is always happening. The *present progressive* form is similar, but it often implies a process. (The difference between the two is subtle. I go into more detail about using these forms in a later section, "Using the simple tenses correctly.") For now, take a look at a couple of sentences in the no-frills, plain present tense:

> Reggie often *rolls* his eyes in annoyance. (*rolls* = present tense)
>
> George *plans* nothing for New Year's Eve because he never *has* a date. (*plans, has* = present tense)

Here are two sentences with present progressive verbs:

> Luciana *is axing* the proposal to cut down the national forest. (*is axing* = present progressive)
>
> Miguel and Lulu *are skiing* far too fast toward that cliff. (*are skiing* = present progressive)

The simple present tense for regular verbs changes at times, depending on who or what is doing the action or existing in the state of being expressed by the verb. In Table 12-1, you see the plain and progressive forms of the regular verb *walk,* paired with subjects. (Check out "The rebels: Dealing with irregular verbs," later in this chapter, for verbs that don't follow this pattern.) The pronouns *he, she, it,* and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-1 Present Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Present	Present Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Present	Present Progressive
I	Walk	am walking	we	walk	are walking
you	walk	are walking	you	walk	are walking
he, she, it, they	walks	is walking	they	walk	are walking

TIP

As you see, the pronouns *you* and *they* may be either singular or plural. For more information on *they,* see "A note about pronouns" in the book's Introduction.

Past tense

Past tense tells you what happened before the present time. This simple tense also has two forms, *past* and *past progressive.* Consider these two past-tense sentences:

When the elastic in Professor Belli's girdle *snapped,* the students *woke* up. (*snapped* and *woke* = past tense)

Despite the strong tape, the package *split* and *spilled* onto the conveyor belt. (*split* and *spilled* = past tense)

Here are two more examples, this time in the past progressive form:

While Buzz *was sleeping,* his cat, Nipper, *was destroying* the sofa. (*was sleeping* and *was destroying* = past progressive)

Lola's friends *were passing* tissues to Lulu at a rate of five per minute. (*were passing* = past progressive)

The plain past tense is super easy to remember, and the past progressive is only a little bit harder. Have a glance at Table 12-2, which shows the past tense of the regular verb *walk.* The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-2 Past Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Past	Past Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Past	Past Progressive
I	walked	was walking	we	walked	were walking
you	walked	were walking	you	walked	were walking
he, she, it, they	walked	was walking	they	walked	were walking

Future tense

Future tense talks about what has not happened yet. This simple tense is the only one that always needs helping verbs to express meaning, even for the plain version.

TIP

Helping verbs (see Chapter 5) such as *will*, *shall*, *have*, *has*, *should*, and others change the meaning of the main verb.

Future tenses — this may shock you — come in two forms. One form of the future tense is called *future*, and the other is *future progressive.* The unadorned form of the future tense goes like this:

Nancy *will position* her campaign poster in the center of the bulletin board. (*will position* = future tense)

Lisa and I *will* never *part*, thanks to that bottle of glue. (*will part* = future tense)

A couple of examples of the future progressive:

During final exams, George *will be cramming* his campaign strategy. (*will be cramming* = future progressive)

This summer, Lola *will be weeding* her garden every day for two hours. (*will be weeding* = future progressive)

Table 12-3 shows the future and future progressive forms of the regular verb *walk.* The pronouns *he, she, it,* and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-3 Future Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Future	Future Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Future	Future Progressive
I	will walk	will be walking	we	will walk	will be walking
you	will walk	will be walking	you	will walk	will be walking
he, she, it, they	will walk	will be walking	they	will walk	will be walking

TIP

The helping verb *shall* also creates a future or future progressive verb. Traditionally, *shall* pairs with *I* and *we,* and *will* pairs with other subjects. These days, most people prefer *will* for all subjects.

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the verbs and label them into present, present progressive, past, past progressive, future, or future progressive.

When a tornado is whirling overhead, we snap selfies, which we will post online later.

A. **is whirling = present progressive, snap = present, will post = future**

YOUR TURN

Find the verbs and label them as present, present progressive, past, past progressive, future, and future progressive tenses.

1. Will Mark inflate the balloons?
2. Exactly 5,000 years ago, a dinosaur was living in that mud puddle.
3. Zeus and Apollo are establishing a union of mythological characters.
4. When you were four, you blew out all the candles on your birthday cake.
5. The pilot will be joining us as soon as the aircraft clears the rooftop.

Using the simple tenses correctly

You can often interchange plain and progressive forms without creating any problems, but shades of meaning do exist.

Present and present progressive

The single-word form of the present tense may be used for statements that are generally true at the present time but not necessarily happening right now. For example:

Ollie *attends* wrestling matches every Sunday. (*attends* = present)

If you try to reach Ollie on Sunday, you'll get an annoying voicemail message because he's at the arena. Now read this sentence:

> Ollie *is playing* hide-and-seek with his dog, Spot. (*is playing* = present progressive)

This sentence means that right now, as you write or say this sentence, Ollie is playing with his dog.

Past and past progressive

The difference between the plain past tense and the past progressive tense is pretty much the same as in the present tense. The single-word form often shows what happened in the past more generally. The progressive form may pinpoint action or a state of being at a specific time or occurring in the past on a regular basis.

> Greg *went* to the store and *bought* clothes for all his friends. (*went* and *bought* = past tense)

This sentence means that at some point in the past Greg whipped out his charge card and finished off his Christmas list.

> While Greg *was shopping,* his friends *were planning* their revenge. (*was shopping* and *were planning* = past progressive)

This sentence means that Greg shouldn't have bothered, because at the exact moment he was spending his allowance, his friends were deciding whether to pour ink into his lunch box or to rip up his homework.

> Greg *was shopping* until he *was drooping* with exhaustion, despite his mother's strict credit limit. (*was shopping* and *was drooping* = past progressive)

This sentence refers to one of Greg's bad habits, his tendency to go shopping every spare moment. The shopping was repeated on a daily basis, over and over again. (Hence, Greg's mom imposed the strict credit limit.)

Future and future progressive

You won't find much difference between these two. The progressive gives you slightly more of a sense of being in the middle of things. For example:

> The actor *will be playing* Hamlet with a great deal of emotion. (*will be playing* = future progressive tense)

The actor's actions in the preceding sentence may be a little more immediate than

> The actor *will play* Hamlet with a great deal of emotion. (*will play* = future)

TIP

Understanding the difference between the two forms of the simple tenses entitles you to wear an Official Grammarian hat. But if you don't catch on to the distinction, don't lose sleep over the issue. If you can't grasp the subtle differences in casual conversation, your listeners probably won't either.

TIP

When you're dealing with a pair (or more) of statements about the same time period, you probably need one of the simple tenses. Look at the italicized verbs in each of these sentences:

> Maya *swiped* a handkerchief and daintily *blew* her noise. (*swiped* and *blew* = two events happening at almost the same moment; both verbs are in past tense)
>
> Maya *will be* in court tomorrow, and the judge *will rule* on her case. (*will be* and *will rule* = two events happening at the same time; both verbs are in future tense)
>
> Maya *is* extremely sad about the possibility of a criminal record, but she *remains* hopeful. (*is* and *remains* = states of being existing at the same time; both verbs are in present tense)

If two actions take place at the same time (or nearly the same time), use the same tense for each verb.

EXAMPLE

Q. Fill in the blank with the correct form and tense of the verb in parentheses.

Yesterday, overreacting to a tiny taste of arsenic, Mike _____ his evil twin brother of murder. (accuse)

A. **accused** The clue here is *yesterday*, which tells you that you're in the past.

YOUR TURN

Fill in the blank with the correct form and tense of the verb in parentheses.

6. Fashion is important to David, so he always _____ the latest and most popular style. (select)

7. Last year's tight, slim lines _____ David, who, it must be admitted, does not have a tiny waist. (challenge)

8. While David _____ new clothes, his fashion consultant is busy on the sidelines, recommending stripes and understated plaids to minimize the bulge factor. (buy)

9. David hopes that the next fashion fad _____ a more mature, rounded figure like his own. (flatter)

10. Right now, Diane _____ an article for the fashion press stating that supertight leather is best. (write)

11. She once _____ a purple suede pantsuit, which clashed with her orange "I Love Motorcycles" tattoo. (purchase)

12. While she _____ the pantsuit, the salesperson urged her to "go for it." (model)

13 Two days after Diane's shopping spree, Grace _____ about show-offs who "spend more time on their wardrobes than on their spark plugs." (mutter)

14 However, Diane knows that Grace, as soon as she raises enough cash, _____ in a suede outfit of her own. (invest)

15 David, as always, _____ in with the last word when he gave Grace and Diane the "Fashion Train Wreck of the Year" award. (chime)

16 Two minutes after receiving the award, Diane _____ it on a shelf next to her "Best Dressed, Considering" medal. (place)

17 Every time I see the medal, I _____ what "considering" means. (wonder)

18 Grace _____ it to me in detail yesterday. (explain)

19 "We earned the medal for considering many fashion options," she _____. (state)

20 David, who _____ Diane tomorrow, says that the medal acknowledges the fact that Grace is fashion-challenged but tries hard anyway. (visit)

Not picture-perfect: Understanding the perfect tenses

Now for the perfect tenses, which, I must tell you, are not always used perfectly. In fact, these three tenses — present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect — may give you gray hair, even if you're only 12 years old. And they have progressive forms, too! As with the simple tenses, each tense has a no-frills version called by the name of the tense: present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect. The progressive form adds *-ing* to the mix. The progressive is a little more immediate than the other form, expressing an action or state of being in progress. In this section, I give you some examples of these tenses so that you can identify each. In a later section, "Employing the perfect tenses correctly," I go into detail about when and how to use each tense.

Present perfect and present perfect progressive

The two present perfect forms show actions or states of being that began in the past but are still going on in the present. These forms are used whenever any action or state of being spans two time zones — past and present.

First, check out examples with plain present perfect tense:

> Roger and his friends *have spent* almost every penny of the inheritance. (*have spent* = present perfect)
>
> For years, Lulu's best friend, Roger, *has pleaded* with her to stop robbing banks. (*has pleaded* = present perfect)

Now glance at these progressive examples:

> Roger *has been studying* sculpture for 15 years without learning any worthwhile techniques. (*has been studying* = present perfect progressive)
>
> Lulu and Lola *have been counting* sheep all night. (*have been counting* = present perfect progressive)

Table 12-4 shows the correct form of the regular verb *walk* in the present perfect and present perfect progressive. The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-4 Present Perfect Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Present Perfect	Present Perfect Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Present Perfect	Present Perfect Progressive
I	have walked	have been walking	we	have walked	have been walking
you	have walked	have been walking	you	have walked	have been walking
he, she, it, they	has walked	has been walking	they	have walked	have been walking

As you see in the table, all present perfect verbs rely on the helping verb *have* — except for the one that pairs with *he*, *she*, and *it* (and the nouns those pronouns represent). For that sort of pairing, you need *has.* The singular *they* is generally paired with *have*.

Past perfect and past perfect progressive

Each of these forms places an action in the past in relation to another action in the past. In other words, these tenses create a timeline that begins some time ago and ends at some point before *now.* At least two events are on the timeline. Here are some examples of the past perfect tense:

> After she *had sewn* up the wound, Doctor Eliza Reed realized that her watch was missing. (*had sewn* = past perfect)
>
> The watch *had ticked* inside the patient for 10 minutes before the nurse discovered its whereabouts. (*had ticked* = past perfect)

Compare the preceding sentences with examples of the past perfect progressive:

> The patient, Jeb Smith, *had been considering* a malpractice lawsuit but changed his mind. (*had been considering* = past perfect progressive)
>
> Doctor Reed *had been worrying* about legal penalties until her patient dropped his case. (*had been worrying* = past perfect progressive)

Check out Table 12-5 for the past perfect tense, both plain and progressive. The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-5 Past Perfect Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Past Perfect	Past Perfect Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Past Perfect	Past Perfect Progressive
I	had walked	had been walking	we	had walked	had been walking
you	had walked	had been walking	you	had walked	had been walking
he, she, it, they	had walked	had been walking	they	had walked	had been walking

Isn't this a lovely tense? Every subject pairs with the same plain or progressive verb. Little to learn and much to love — that's the past perfect tense when you're choosing a form. Lots to learn and much to dislike — that's the past perfect tense when you're deciding when it's needed. I tackle that topic in "Employing the perfect tenses correctly," later in this chapter.

Future perfect and future perfect progressive

These two forms talk about events or states of being that have not happened yet in relation to another event even further in the future. In other words, these forms create another timeline, with at least two events or states of being on it, all after the present moment.

First, take a look at the plain version of the future perfect:

> Appleby *will have eaten* the entire pie by the time recess ends. (*will have eaten* = future perfect.)
>
> When Appleby finally arrives at grammar class, the teacher *will have* already *outlined* at least 504 grammar rules. (*will have outlined* = future perfect)

Now take a look at the progressive form of the future perfect tense:

> When the clock strikes 4, Appleby *will have been chewing* for 29 straight minutes. (*will have been chewing* = future perfect progressive)
>
> By the time Appleby finishes dessert, his teacher *will have been explaining* the virtues of a healthy diet to her class for a very long time. (*will have been explaining* = future perfect progressive)

Ready for a table? Table 12-6 presents the future and future progressive forms of the regular verb *walk.* The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, and *they* represent every possible noun.

Table 12-6 Future Perfect Tense

Singular Subject	Plain Future Perfect	Future Perfect Progressive	Plural Subject	Plain Future Perfect	Future Perfect Progressive
I	will have walked	will have been walking	we	will have walked	will have been walking
you	will have walked	will have been walking	you	will have walked	will have been walking
he, she, it, they	will have walked	will have been walking	they	will have walked	will have been walking

As you probably noticed, all the plain future perfect forms are the same, and so are all the future progressive forms. You can relax when you're selecting the proper form to match a subject. Sadly, you can't relax when you're deciding when to use the future perfect. I tackle that issue in the next section, "Employing the perfect tenses correctly."

Employing the perfect tenses correctly

As anyone who watches crime dramas knows, figuring out when events happened isn't always an easy task. The perfect tenses are (sorry, I can't resist) a *perfect* example of this fact. But investigators do know how to put events in order. Read on, and you'll know too.

TIP

To clarify what's happening and when, timelines accompany some of the examples in this section. Match the events on the timeline to the verbs in the sentence to see where in time each tense places an action.

Case 1: Beginning in the past and continuing in the present

You started something, and you haven't stopped. What do you need for this situation? Present perfect tense. This tense mixes two words. One appears to be present (the helping verbs *has* and *have*) and the other past (*walked*, *told*, *been*, *smashed*, and so on). Take a look at these examples:

> I *have gone* to the school cafeteria every day for six years, and I *have* not yet *found* one tasty item.

This sentence means that at present I am still in school, still trying to find something to eat, and for the past six years I was in school also, trudging to the cafeteria every day, searching for a sandwich that doesn't taste like wallpaper paste.

> Bertha *has* frequently *texted* Charles, but Charles *has* not *texted* Bertha back.

This sentence means that in the present Bertha hasn't given up yet; she's still trying to reach Charles. In the past, Bertha also texted Charles. In the present and in the past, Charles hasn't bothered to check his phone, which now contains 604 messages from Bertha. Check out Bertha's activity on this timeline:

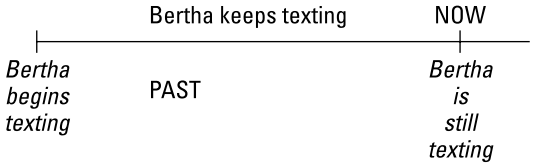

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As with the simple present tense, the present perfect tense takes two forms. One is called *present perfect*, and the other, *present perfect progressive*. The progressive is a little more immediate, but nothing you need to worry about.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct or incorrect? If you see an error in verb tense, correct it.

Isabel moved into that building in 2010 and lived there ever since.

A. **incorrect lived → has lived** This sentence makes a connection to the present. At one point in the past, *Isabel moved.* So far, so good. Because she began to live there in the past and continues to live there in the present, you need the present perfect verb *has lived.*

Case 2: Events at two different times in the past

Everything in the past happened at exactly the same moment, right? If this statement were true, history tests would be much easier, and so would grammar. To describe events in the past randomly, without worrying about when one occurred in relation to another, simple past tense is fine. To establish chronological order for more than one past event, you need past perfect tense. Check out the italicized verbs in this sentence:

> Maya *had* already *swiped* the handkerchief when she *discovered* the joys of honesty.

This example has two events to think about, one taking place before the other. (Unfortunately for Maya, the joy of honesty came after the theft, for which she's doing two years in the penitentiary.) Note the timeline:

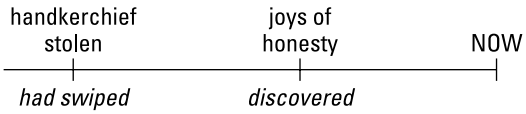

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For two events in the past, write the earlier event with *had* and the more recent event in simple past tense (without *had*). Scan these examples:

> Because of Lulu's skill with a needle, where a hole in the sock *had gaped,* a perfect heel now *enclosed* her tender foot. (Event 1: The hole in the sock gapes; Event 2: The mended sock covers the foot.)
>
> After Roger *had inserted* the microfilm, he *sewed* the hole in the now illegal teddy bear. (Event 1: Roger inserts the microfilm; Event 2: Roger sews the bear.)
>
> After the song *had* been *played* at least 12 times, Michael *shouted,* "Enough!" (Event 1: The song is played 12 times; Event 2: Michael loses it.)

WARNING

A common error is using *had* for everything. Wrong! Don't use *had* unless you're consciously putting two events in order:

> WRONG: Maya had dried her eyes and then she had gone to see the judge.
>
> RIGHT: After Maya had dried her eyes, she went to see the judge.

Note: You may encounter one other use of *had*, the subjunctive, which I tackle later in this chapter.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence tells you about events that happened at different times?

(A) When Maya slipped the judge a $50 bill, she hoped for mercy.

(B) Because Maya had slipped the judge a $50 bill, she hoped for mercy.

A. **(B)** Sentence (B) reports events at different times. Maya tried the bribe at 10 a.m. and spent the rest of the day planning a trip to Rio (canceled when her jail term was announced). In Sentence A, Maya bribes and hopes at the same time.

Case 3: More than two past events, all at different times

This rule, which also relies on past perfect tense, is similar to the one described in Case 2. Apply this rule when you talk about more than two events in the past if — and only if — the order matters:

> Maya *had baked* a cake and *had inserted* a sharp file under the icing before she *began* her stay in jail.

Now the timeline is as follows:

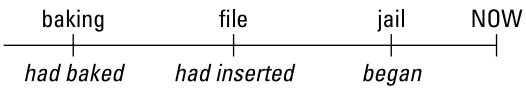

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What do you notice? The most recent event *(began her stay in jail)* is written without *had.* In other words, the most recent event is in simple past tense. Everything that happened earlier is written with *had* — that is, in past perfect tense.

Here are some examples:

> Michael *had planned* the shower, and Lola *had* even *planned* the wedding by the time Ella *agreed* to marry Larry. (Events 1 and 2: Michael and Lola visit the wedding coordinator. Event 3: Ella makes the biggest mistake of her life.)
>
> Elizabeth *had composed* a sonata, *played* it for royalty, and *signed* a recording contract before she *reached* her tenth birthday. (Events 1, 2, and 3: Elizabeth writes the music, performs it, and makes big bucks. Event 4: Elizabeth's mom puts ten candles on the cake.)

In the last example, three verbs — *composed*, *played*, and *signed* — form a list of the actions that Elizabeth performed before her tenth birthday. They all have the same subject *(Elizabeth).* With your sharp eyes, you probably noticed that the word *had* precedes only *composed*, the first verb of the three. You may omit the word *had* in front of *played* and *signed* because they are part of the same list and they all have the same subject. The reader knows that the word *had* applies to all three of the verbs. In other words, the reader understands that *Elizabeth had composed*, *had played*, and *had signed.*

TIP

If you want to talk about events in the past without worrying about specific times, go for simple past tense. You *went* on vacation, *had* a great time, *sent* some postcards, *ate* a lot of junk food, and *came* home. You don't need *had* in this description because the order isn't the point. You're just making a general list. Use *had* when the timing matters. Don't overuse it.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which event in this sentence is most recent?

Where patriots had fought and wise founders had written a constitution, a fast-food restaurant stood.

A. **a fast-food restaurant stood** Here's a timeline for the whole sentence: People with a better idea fight the old government and write a plan for a new government. In the free and successful society that results, someone builds a restaurant after suing the landmarks preservation commission for the right to tear down a historic building.

Case 4: Two events in the future

Leaving the past behind, it's time to turn to the future. Read this sentence:

> Nicky *will have completed* all 433 college applications before they are due.

Nicky's applications will be error-filled — he spelled his name *Niky* on at least three — but they will be done before the deadline. *Deadline* is the important word here, at least regarding verb tense. The *will have* form of the future, also called *future perfect tense*, involves a deadline. You don't necessarily see two verbs in the sentence, but you do learn about two events:

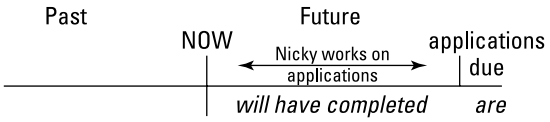

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Use the future perfect tense to talk about the earlier of the two events.

Here are a few examples:

> By 9 tonight, Egbert *will have* successfully *scrambled* the secret message. (The deadline in the sentence is 9 o'clock.)
>
> Anna *will have left* for Mount Everest by the time the mountaineering supply company sends her gear. (The deadline in the sentence is the delivery of mountain-climbing supplies.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Bernard will have tossed the salad tonight.

(B) Bernard will have tossed the ball out the window before anyone has a chance to catch it.

A. **(B)** Future perfect tense involves a deadline, and sentence (A) doesn't have one. In sentence (B), it's *before anyone has a chance to catch it.*

YOUR TURN

Write the correct perfect-tense form of the verb in parentheses in the blank.

21 Mike _____ on thin ice for 2 hours when he heard the first crack. (skate)

22 Diane _____ Mike for years about his skating habits, but he just won't listen. (warn)

23 After Mike _____ an hour in the emergency room, the doctor examined him and announced that the skater was healthy enough to go home. (wait)

24 By the time today's skating trip ends, David _____ a total of 32 hours for his friend and _____ countless outdated magazines in the hospital waiting room. (wait, read)

25 Grace _____ to speak to Mike ever since he declared that "a little thin ice" shouldn't scare anyone. (refuse)

26 Before the emergency room visit is over, Tim _____ quietly to both combatants. (speak)

27 Despite years of practice, Tim _____ success only on rare occasions, but he keeps trying to resolve his brother's conflicts anyway. (achieve)

28 Since childhood, Tim's conflict-resolution technique _____ of violent finger pokes in the fighters' ribs, but he is trying to become more diplomatic. (consist)

Speaking of the past and things that never change

Humans love to gossip, so I bet that right now you have a story to tell. Because you're telling (actually, retelling) something that already happened, your base of operations is past tense. Note the past-tense verbs in italics:

> She *caught* Arthur with Stella, but he *told* her that he was only tying Stella's bow tie and not nibbling her neck. Then she *said* that Arthur *brought* her a box of candy with a note saying that no one else *had* eyes like hers.

The verb tenses are all in the past because that's where a *summary of speech* usually resides. Therefore, even if Stella still *has* incomparable eyes, in this paragraph the verb *had* is better. However, if you're talking about something that will never change, that is forever true, present tense is the only one that makes sense, no matter what else is going on in the sentence. Take a look at this example:

WRONG: Marty told me that the earth was a planet.

WHY IT IS WRONG: What is the earth now, a bagel? The unchanging fact, that the earth is a planet, must be expressed in present tense, despite the fact that all other summarized speech should be in past tense.

RIGHT: Marty told me that the earth is a planet.

TIP

Another important exception to the rule that you must summarize speech in the past tense pops up when you're writing about a work of art or literature. See "Romeo lives! Writing about literature and art in present tense," later in this chapter, for more information.

WARNING

A common error is to switch from one tense to another with no valid reason. I often hear people say something like, "He finally texted me. He says that the big dance is a waste of time!" The writer begins in past tense *(texted)*, but the next two verbs *(says, is)* are in present tense. Penalty box. If you start in past tense, stay there, unless the content requires a change. The correct way to explain what went on is to say, "He finally texted me. He said the big dance was a waste of time!"

EXAMPLE

Q. Circle the verb that's correct in Standard English. The choices are in parentheses.

At yesterday's tryouts for a reality show, Roberta (tells/told/will tell) the producer that she (likes/liked/will like) dangling 20 feet above the ground.

A. **told, liked.** The first answer is easy. If the tryouts were yesterday, the fact that Roberta spoke to the producer has to be in past tense. *Told* is past tense. The second part is trickier. Roberta may continue to like dangling, but past tense is the way to go because a person's feelings can always change.

YOUR TURN

Circle the verb that's correct in Standard English. The choices are in parentheses.

29 The director, Arthur Marlow, explained to the candidates that he (has/had/will have) to select a maximum of 30 contestants.

30 Most of the contestants eagerly replied that they (want/wanted/would want) to make the final 30.

31 Those selected were set to compete against 14 other candidates, because the producers made two separate groups, and 15 (equals/equaled) half of 30.

32 Roberta, who (likes/like/had liked) to play hard to get, screamed at the director that he (doesn't/didn't) have the faintest idea how to select the best applicants.

33 One contestant who didn't make the cut, Michael Hooper, told me that Roberta (is/was/had been) the clear winner of the first two challenges.

34 For the first challenge, a tulip, which (is/was) a flower, (is/was) thrown into a container resembling a basketball hoop.

35 During the second contest, a statue resembling a watermelon, which (is/was) a fruit, (is/was) moved around the racetrack by contestants who (wear/wore) blindfolds.

36 Michael whispered something surprising: Roberta (fails/failed/had failed) the psychological test.

37 The test comes from Austria, which (is/was) in Europe.

38 A month ago, when the psychologist (asks/asked) Roberta her feelings about television shows, Roberta said that the comedy shows (do/did) present a problem.

39 "Why (don't/didn't) you like comedy shows?" (continues/continued) the psychologist.

40 Roberta told me the psychologist (annoys/annoyed) her.

Romeo lives! Writing about literature and art in present tense

At the end of Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* (spoiler alert!), the title characters die. Yet every time you open the book or go to the theater, they live again. Because the events in the book or play are always happening, present tense is generally the best choice when you're writing about literature. Not always, of course. At times, you want to explain that one event in the story occurred before another. In such a situation, past tense may be the only way to talk about the earlier event. Other types of art also rely on present tense. In Picasso's famous portrait of Gertrude Stein, for example, her massive form *looks* — not *looked* — like a monument carved from a block of stone.

TIP

If you write about the act of creating art, past tense is best, as in "Picasso *painted* Gertrude Stein's portrait." (*Painted* is a past-tense verb.)

EXAMPLE

Q. In the blank, write the correct form of the verb in parentheses.

In Jane Austen's *Sense and Sensibility,* Marianne _____ her ankle. (sprain)

A. **sprains** To write about this event in Austen's novel, present tense is best.

YOUR TURN

41 The horizontal bands in Lola's paintings _____ random, but she _____ the width of each band using a complex formula involving the day's winning lottery number. (appear, calculate)

42 Lola, who also _____ a mystery novel, _____ a character who _____ his lunch money every day and often _____. (write, create, bet, win)

43 The character's name _____ William, and in every scene he _____ a hat. (be, wear)

44 William _____ the murder of a veterinarian; in one scene a parrot _____ a vital clue, but William _____ the bird, perhaps because earlier the parrot _____ William. (investigate, provide, ignore, bite)

45 When asked about her writing, Lola _____ that William _____ loyalty, honor, and the need for a reliable birdseed provider. (maintain, represent)

The rebels: Dealing with irregular verbs

In earlier sections of this chapter, I provide charts showing you how regular verbs change in each tense. If only all verbs were regular! But in grammar, as in life, some rebels don't follow the rules. In Chapter 5, I show you the simple-tense forms of three irregular verbs you need nearly every time you speak or write: *be, have,* and *do.* Here I show you some irregular *participles,* including participles of those three verbs.

Don't let the name scare you. Participles are not mysterious; as you may guess from the spelling, a *part*iciple is simply a *part* of the verb. Each verb has two participles, a present participle and a past participle. The present participle is the *-ing* form of the verb. Sometimes the spelling changes a bit (an *e* may disappear or a letter may double), but other than spelling, present participles won't give you any trouble. Table 12-7 shows a selection of regular present participles.

Table 12-7 Examples of Regular Present Participles

Verb	Present Participle
ask	asking
beg	begging
call	calling
dally	dallying
empty	emptying
fill	filling
grease	greasing

Now for the irregulars. Dozens and dozens of English verbs have irregular participles, as well as irregular past-tense forms. I won't list all the irregular verbs here, just a few you may find useful in everyday writing. If you have questions about a particular verb, check your dictionary.

In Table 12-8, the first column is the infinitive form of the verb. (The infinitive is head of its verb family and generally appears with *to* — *to laugh, to cry, to learn grammar,* and so on.) The second column is the simple past tense. The third column is the past participle, which is combined with *has* (singular) or *have* (plural) to form the present perfect tense. The past participle is also used with *had* to form the past perfect tense.

Table 12-8 Forms of Irregular Participles

Verb	Past	Past Participle
be	was/were	been
bear	bore	borne
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feel	felt	felt
fly	flew	flown
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got or gotten
go	went	gone
have	had	had
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lend	lent	lent
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank or sunk	sunk
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
speak	spoke	spoken

Verb	Past	Past Participle
steal	stole	stolen
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
throw	threw	thrown
wear	wore	worn
win	won	won
write	wrote	written

EXAMPLE

Q. Fill in the blanks with the correct irregular form, working from the verb and the tense in parentheses.

With one leg 3 inches shorter than the other, Natalie seldom _____ into first base, even when the team was desperate for a base hit. (slide, past)

A. **slid** No *-ed* for this past tense! *Slid* is the irregular past form of the verb *slide*.

YOUR TURN

Fill in the blanks with the correct irregular form, working from the verb and the tense in parentheses.

46 If you discover a piece of pottery on the floor, look for Natalie, who _____ many vases because of her tendency to dust far too emotionally. (break, present perfect)

47 Once Natalie _____ with sadness at her first glimpse of a dusty armchair. (shake, past)

48 David, a duster himself, _____ a manual of daily furniture maintenance. (write, past)

49 The manual, titled *Dust or Die*, _____ to the top of the bestseller list. (rise, past)

50 Nearly all the copies _____ by fanatical cleaners. (buy, past perfect)

51 David once dusted the fire alarm so forcefully that it went off; the firefighters weren't amused because David _____ the fire alarm a little too often. (ring, past perfect)

52 The fire chief promptly _____ to speak with the mayor about David's false alarm. (go, past)

53 The mayor _____ an investigation into a new category of offenses, "False Dust Alarms." (begin, present perfect)

54 "I _____ to a new low," sighed David. "I hear that Arthur _____ a new hobby. Maybe Natalie and I can get one, too." (sink, present perfect; find, present perfect)

55 Natalie and David _____ origami, a paper-folding art. (choose, past)

56 One day they _____ miniature houses out of paper that they _____ out. (build, past; throw, past perfect)

Giving Voice to Verbs

Verbs can have two voices. Not the growl you hear in questions like "What do you think you're doing, young lady?" or the honey that flows through romantic exchanges like "You're beautiful!" but *active* or *passive.* Take a look at these two examples:

> "The cookies *were eaten* before the party began," reported Ben, quietly brushing some crumbs off his mouth.
>
> "I *ate* the cookies," reported Ben, regretfully handing the empty plate to his mother.

How do the two versions differ? Grammatically, Ben's statement in the first sentence focuses on the receiver of the action, the *cookies,* which received the action of *eating.* The verb is *passive* because the subject is not the person or thing doing the action. Instead, it's the person or thing receiving the action. In Sentence 2, the verb is in active voice because the subject *(I)* performed the action *(ate).* When the subject is acting or being, the verb is *active.*

TIP

To find the subject of a sentence, locate the verb and ask *who*? or *what*? before the verb. For more information on subjects, see Chapter 8.

Here are some active and passive verbs:

> Lulu *gives* a free-tattoo coupon to Lola. (active)
>
> Lola *is convinced* by Lulu to get a tattoo. (passive)
>
> Roger *urges* Lulu to visit the tattoo parlor, too. (active)
>
> Lulu *is tattooed* by Lola. (passive)

EXAMPLE

Q. Label the verbs in these sentences as active or passive.

The omelet was made with egg whites, and the yolks were discarded.

Egbert slobbers when he eats.

A. **was made, were discarded = passive, slobbers, eats = active**

YOUR TURN

Label the verbs in these sentences as active or passive.

57 The job opening was posted on a networking site.

58 About a thousand resumes were emailed within an hour.

59 When Pete heard about the position the day after it was announced, he was already too late.

60 The job had been given to someone else.

61 Pete set an alert on his computer. Now, when resumes are requested for someone with a degree in philosophy, Pete is informed immediately.

62 Philosophers have a high unemployment rate, and Pete must apply for every position he can find.

63 "Only so many burgers can be flipped before boredom sets in," explained Pete.

64 Pete has been given free room and board by friends and relatives for the past year, but they are losing patience with him.

65 Lola offered free tattoo training, but Pete refused.

66 "I think for a living," he declared.

Getting Your Verbs in the Proper Mood

Are you in the *mood* for more information about verbs? Or, to reword the question, what mood is your verb in? I can imagine your reaction: What? Verbs have moods? Yes, they do — three, to be exact. You probably don't have to worry about two of them, the *indicative* and the *imperative*, because most likely you use them correctly already. It's the third — the *subjunctive* — that causes problems. In this section, I run through the easy moods and then spend more time on the difficult one.

Stating the facts: Indicative

Almost all verbs are in indicative mood. *Indicative* is the everyday, this-is-what-I'm-saying mood, good for questions and statements. The verbs in the two sentences you just read, along with the verbs in the sentence you're reading right now, are in the indicative mood. So are the verbs italicized in these sentences:

> Betsy *displayed* her musical range when she *played* a Bach concerto and a hip-hop song in the same concert.
>
> *Will* Larry *be* the principal tenant of Honeymoon Hotel when Ella *agrees* to marry him?
>
> Egbert often *dreams* about his family farm.

Commanding your attention: Imperative

Don't worry about imperatives. Just use them! The verbs in the first two sentences of this section are in the imperative mood. *Imperative verbs* give commands. Most imperative verbs have

no written (or spoken) subject. Instead, the subject in an imperative (command) sentence is *you-understood.* The word *you* usually does not appear before the imperative verb. The reader or listener simply understands that *you* is implied.

Here's a command: Read these examples of imperative verbs, italicized in the following sentences:

> *Eat* a balanced diet.
>
> *Climb* every mountain.
>
> *Calculate* the odds.
>
> *Fake* a sincere smile to impress your boss.

There's almost nothing you can do wrong in creating an imperative sentence, so this topic is a free pass. *Go* fishing, or if you're in the mood to torture yourself, *move* on to the subjunctive. (The italicized verbs are in the imperative mood.)

Discovering the possibilities: Subjunctive

Headache time! The subjunctive mood is rare, but it draws errors the way honey attracts flies. The most common use of a subjunctive verb is to state something that is contrary to fact. The other, much less common situation is to express an indirect command.

Using subjunctives with "were"

Tevye, the main character in the musical *Fiddler On the Roof,* sings, "If I Were a Rich Man" with the sadness of a man who knows that he'll never be anything but poor. Tevye's song is about a *condition contrary to fact* — something that is not true. Take note of the verb in the title: *were.* Normally (that is to say, in an indicative sentence), the subject–verb pair would be *I was.* But Tevye sings *If I were* because he isn't a rich man. The verb *were* is in subjunctive mood.

TIP

Unless someone is going to quiz you on it, don't worry about the terminology. Just know that if you're expressing a condition contrary to fact, you need the verb *were* for present and future ideas. (Past tense is different. I discuss the past subjunctive form in "Forming subjunctives with 'had,'" later in this section.) Here are some examples of present and future tense:

> SUBJUNCTIVE: If Roger *were* an honorable spy, he would not reveal the secret computer code.
>
> WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Roger is not an honorable spy, and he's going to blab the secret.
>
> WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Roger was.
>
> SUBJUNCTIVE: If Anna *were* less talented in mathematics, she would have taken fewer algebra courses.
>
> WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Anna's a math genius, the kind of student who always says that the test was "totally hard" and then wrecks the curve with a 96.
>
> WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: Anna was.

To sum up, in subjunctive sentences, *were* is usually all you need. Here are a few details about subjunctive for present or future statements of conditions contrary to fact:

- Use *were* for all subjects in the part of the sentence that expresses what is not true. (If she *were* entranced by Max's explanation.)
- Don't insert *were* in a sentence expressing a real possibility. (If it *is raining* this afternoon, we'll have the picnic tomorrow.)
- For the other part of the sentence, use the helping verb *would.* (Lola *would stare* at him in silence.)
- Never use the helping verb *would* in the untrue part of the sentence. For example:

WRONG: If I would have been president, I would ask the Martian colony to secede.

RIGHT: If I were president, I would ask the Martian colony to secede.

WRONG: Daniel acted as though he would have been grammarian-in-chief.

RIGHT: Daniel acted as though he were grammarian-in-chief.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Ella would be happier if she would have been in the Marines.

(B) Ella would be happier if she were in the Marines.

A. **B** The *if* part of sentence B contains a subjunctive verb *(were)* because it expresses something that is not true. The *if* part of the sentence should never contain the helping verb *would.*

TIP

As though may sometimes sub for *if* in a condition-contrary-to-fact sentence. Check out this example:

SUBJUNCTIVE: Egbert hurtled through the room *as though* a giant metal device were intent on scrambling him.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Egbert isn't being pursued by giant egg-beaters. He is actually hurtling through the room because he is on a skateboard with one bad wheel.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: *Giant metal device was*.

Forming subjunctives with "had"

Subjunctives also pop up from time to time with the helping verb *had.* For past-tense sentences, the *had* belongs in the part of the sentence that is contrary to fact. The contrary-to-fact (that is, the lie) part of the sentence may begin with *if*, or the *if* may be understood.

Just for comparison, in non-subjunctive sentences, the past tense is expressed by a single-word, past-tense verb. The *had* form, in a non-subjunctive sentence, is used only to show one action happening before another. (See "It's All in the Timing: Tense," earlier in this chapter, for more information.) Here are a few examples of the past subjunctive:

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH THE WORD *IF:* If Lola *had known* about the secret computer code, she would not have thrown away the flash drive.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITHOUT THE WORD *IF: Had* Lola *known* about the secret computer code, she would not have thrown away the flash drive.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Lola knew nothing about the secret code; Roger told her he was working on a new video game.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: *Lola knew.*

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH THE WORD *IF:* If Larry *had married* less often, he would have enjoyed this ceremony more.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITHOUT THE WORD *IF: Had* Larry *married* less often, he would have enjoyed this ceremony more.

WHY IT'S SUBJUNCTIVE: Larry has been married more times than he can count.

WHAT THE NORMAL SUBJECT–VERB PAIR WOULD BE: *Larry married*.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) If Betsy would have played the tuba, the gang would have listened to her CD more often.

(B) If Betsy had played the tuba, the gang would have listened to her CD more often.

A. **B** Betsy played the piano, not the tuba, so subjunctive is appropriate. The word *would* is never part of an *if* statement.

Expressing an indirect command

I can tell you what to do:

Peel me a grape.

Peel is in the imperative mood, giving a direct command. But some command statements are indirect:

Woods decreed that all her grapes be peeled.

The verb *be* is in the subjunctive mood in that sentence. (The normal subject–verb pairing is *grapes are*.)

YOUR TURN

Insert the correct form of the verb in parentheses.

67 If the examiner _____ an appointment available in the late afternoon, Ellen would have signed up to take her road test then. (offer)

68 The test would have gone better if Ellen _____ a morning person. (be)

69 "If it _____," explained the instructor, "you will be required to take the test as soon as the roads are plowed." (snow)

70 If the snowplow _____ the entire route, Ellen would have passed. (complete)

71 Unfortunately, the supervisor of the snow removal crew ordered that the highways _____ cleaned first. (be)

72 If Ellen _____ her test on a dry, sunny afternoon, she would have passed. (take)

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **will inflate** = future
2. **was living** = past progressive
3. **are establishing** = present progressive
4. **were, blew** = past
5. **will be joining** = future progressive, clears = present
6. **selects** Notice the time clues? The first part of the sentence contains the present-tense verb *is*, and the second part includes the word *always.* You're in the present with a recurring action.
7. **challenged** Another time clue: *last year's* places you in the past.
8. **is buying** or **buys** The second verb in the sentence *(is)* takes you right into the store with David, watching the unfolding action. Present progressive tense gives a sense of immediacy, so *is buying* makes sense. The plain present tense *(buys)* works nicely also.
9. **will flatter** The key here is *next,* which puts the sentence in the future.
10. **is writing** The time clue *right now* indicates an ongoing action, so the present progressive form *is writing* works well here.
11. **purchased** Diane's bad-taste splurge happened *once,* which means it took place in the past.
12. **was modeling** or **modeled** The second part of the sentence includes the verb *urged,* which places the action in the past. I like the past progressive *(was modeling)* because the word *while* takes you into the process of modeling, which went on over a period of time. However, the sentence makes sense even when the process isn't emphasized, so *modeled* is also an option.
13. **muttered** or **was muttering** The clue to the past is *two days after.* The second answer gives more of a you-are-there feel, but either is correct.
14. **will invest** The time words here, *as soon as,* tell you that the action hasn't happened yet.
15. **chimed** If he *gave,* you're in past tense.
16. **placed** The expression *Two minutes after* tells you that you're in the past, so you know that the action of placing the award on the shelf is in past tense.
17. **wonder** The time clue here is *every time,* which tells you that this action is still happening at the present time and should be in present tense.
18. **explained** The word *yesterday* is a dead giveaway; go for past tense.
19. **stated** The saga of Grace and Diane's award is in past tense, and this sentence is no exception. Even without the story context, you see that the first verb *(earned)* is in past tense, which works nicely with the past-tense verb *stated.*
20. **will visit** The time clue is *tomorrow,* which places the verb in the future.
21. **had been skating** or **had skated** You have two actions in the past: the skating and the hearing. The two hours of skating came before the hearing, so you need past perfect tense. Either the plain or the progressive form works here.

22 **has been warning** or **has warned** The second half of the sentence indicates the present *(won't listen)*, but you also have a hint of the past *(for years)*. Present perfect is the best choice because it links past and present. I like the immediacy of progressive here (I can hear Diane's ranting), but plain present perfect is okay as well.

23 **had waited** or **had been waiting** The waiting preceded the doctor's announcement, so you should use past perfect. Progressive adds a you-are-there feel, but isn't necessary.

24 **will have waited, will have read** The deadline in the sentence *(the end of today's trip)* is your clue for future perfect tense.

25 **has refused** Notice the present-past link? Mike declared and Grace is acting now. Hence, you need present perfect tense.

26 **will have spoken** The future perfect needs an end point (in this sentence, the end of the hospital visit) before which the action occurs.

27 **has achieved** Because the sentence states that he keeps trying, you have a present-tense idea that's connected to the past *(despite years of practice* and *on rare occasions)*. Present perfect connects the present and past.

28 **has consisted** This sentence has a past-tense clue *(since childhood)*. The sentence tells you about the past *(at times)* and the present *(is trying)*, so present perfect is the one you want.

29 **had** The tip-off is the verb *explained*, which tells you that you're summarizing speech. Go for the past tense *had*.

30 **wanted** *Replied* is a clue that you're summarizing speech, so *wanted*, the past tense, is best. The last choice, by the way, imposes a condition (they *would* do something under certain circumstances). Because the sentence doesn't impose a condition, that choice isn't appropriate.

31 **equals** Math doesn't change, so the verb must be in present tense.

32 **likes, didn't** The first choice has nothing to do with summary of speech and is a simple statement about Roberta. The present tense works nicely in this spot. The second choice is a speech summary (well, a *scream* summary, but the same rule applies), so the past-tense verb *didn't* fills the bill.

33 **was** The sentence tells you that *Michael Hooper told*. The past tense works here for summary of speech.

34 **is, was** A tulip is always a flower, so you need present tense for the first parenthesis. In the second, you're simply telling what happened on the show, so past tense rules.

35 **is, was, wore** A watermelon is always a fruit, and permanent conditions are best expressed by present tense, so *is* should be your choice in the first spot. The next two verb choices require past tense because they express actions that took place in the past.

36 **failed** You can arrive at the answer in two separate ways. If Michael *whispered*, the sentence is summarizing what he said. Another way to look at this sentence is to reason that Michael is telling you something that already happened, not something happening in the present moment. Either way, the past tense *failed* is best.

37 **is** Austria isn't going anywhere, so this sentence expresses an unchangeable condition. Go for present tense.

38 **asked, did** The first answer comes from the fact that the psychological test was in the past. The second is summary of speech (Roberta's words) and calls for past tense.

39 **don't, continued** Give yourself a pat on the back if you got this one. The quotation marks indicate that the words are exactly what the psychologist said. The speech isn't summarized; it's quoted. The present tense makes sense here because the tester is asking Roberta about her state of mind at the moment. The psychologist's action, however, took place in the past, so *continued,* a past-tense verb, is what you want for the speaker tag.

40 **annoyed** Straight summary of speech here, indicated by the verb *told.* Therefore, past tense is best.

41 **appear, calculated** The first part of the sentence describes a work of art, so the present tense verb *appear* is what you want. The second part of the sentence explains how the artwork was created, an event that took place in the past. Therefore, opt for the past-tense verb *calculated.*

42 **wrote, created, bets, wins** The first two verbs describe the process of making art, and because the process is over, past tense works well here. The second two verbs apply to the artwork (the novel), so you need present tense.

43 **is, wears** For these simple statements about a literary work, use present tense.

44 **investigates, provides, ignores, bit** The first three statements are in present tense, as comments about literature and art generally are. The last verb is a little tricky; the sentence explains why William ignores the bird by citing an earlier event. Because the order of events is important, the past-tense verb *bit* is best.

45 **maintained, represents** The verb *asked* tells you that Lola's comments also took place in the past, so the past-tense verb *maintained* is correct. The symbolic meaning, however, doesn't change and should be expressed in present tense.

46 **has broken**

47 **shook**

48 **wrote**

49 **rose**

50 **had been bought**

51 **had rung**

52 **went**

53 **has begun**

54 **have sunk, has found**

55 **chose**

56 **built, had thrown**

57 **was posted = passive** The *job opening* didn't do the posting. It received the action of the verb, *was posted,* so it's passive.

58 **were emailed = passive** The *resumes* (subject) didn't do the emailing. Whoever sent them did. *Were emailed* is a passive-voice verb.

59 **heard = active, was announced = passive, was = active** The subject of *heard* is *Pete,* who performs the action. *Heard* is in active voice. *It* is the subject of *was announced,* but *it* didn't do any announcing. *It* receives the action and is a passive-voice verb. *He* is the subject of *was,* an active-voice verb.

60 **had been given = passive** The subject is *job,* which didn't perform the action of giving. The verb is in passive voice.

61 **set = active, are requested = passive, is informed = passive** *Pete* is the subject in the first sentence, and *Pete set.* Therefore, *set* is an active-voice verb. In the second sentence, the subject is *resumes* and the verb is *are requested.* The resumes don't perform the action, so the verb is passive. Next up, in the same sentence, is the subject-verb combo *Pete is informed.* Because the action happens to the subject, the verb *is informed* is passive, too.

62 **have = active, must apply = active, can find = active** The first subject-verb pair is *Philosophers have. Philosophers* are the ones who *have,* so this is an active-voice verb. Next, you have *Pete must apply. Pete* is doing the applying, so the verb is in active voice. Finally, *he can find* creates another active-voice situation because *he* does the action expressed by *can find.*

63 **can be flipped = passive, sets = active, explained = active** Three subject-verb pairs appear here: *burgers can be flipped, boredom sets*, and *explained Pete*. The first is passive because the flipping happens to the *burgers.* The next pair contains an active-voice verb because the *boredom* does the setting. The last pair reverses the usual subject-verb order, but that doesn't matter. This is an active-voice verb because the subject, *Pete,* does the action, *explained.*

64 **has been given = passive, are losing = active** The subject, *Pete,* isn't giving. Instead, he's receiving, so *has been given* is in passive voice. The second pair has an active-voice verb because *they* are doing the action *(losing).*

65 **offered = active, refused = active** Two active-voice verbs here because Lola did the offering and Pete did the refusing.

66 **think = active, declared = active** You may have a hard time thinking that *think* is in active voice, but it is because the subject, *I,* does the thinking. The subject of *declared, he,* also does the action, so *declared* is also an active-voice verb.

67 **had offered** The subjunctive *had offered* is needed for this statement about available time slots because it's contrary to fact. No time slot was available in the afternoon.

68 **were** Ellen likes to sleep until midafternoon. Because she's not a morning person, the subjunctive verb *were* expresses condition-contrary-to-fact. The verb *were* is better than *had been* because Ellen still *is* not a morning person, and *had been* implies that her grouchiness is in the past.

69 **snows** Surprise! This one isn't subjunctive. The instructor is talking about a possibility, not a condition that didn't occur. The normal indicative form, *snows,* is what you want.

70 **had completed** The plow didn't finish (the clue here is *would have passed*), so subjunctive is needed.

71 **be** For this indirect command, *be* is the form you want.

72 **had taken** This condition-contrary-to-fact sentence calls for subjunctive.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 12 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Correct or incorrect? Check the tense, mood, and voice of each underlined verb. Bonus points: Correct any errors you find.

To: All Employees

From: Sally

Subject: Paper clips

It (1) had come to my attention that some employees (2) will be bending paper clips nearly every day. Last week, a few managers also (3) stealed 12 boxes! The clips we (4) use these days (5) were made of steel. Steel (6) was a metal, and replacing broken metal items (7) costed us thousands of dollars last year! In my ten years as your boss, I (8) gave you a fair deal. If you (9) would have been respectful, I (10) would have given you all raises. I (11) thinked of you as responsible employees, but I (12) had been wrong. Therefore, I order that managers (13) are locking up paper clips from today onward. I (14) inspecting supply closets last week and (15) have been found bent clips. As of now, paper clip bending (16) is prohibited. (17) Obeyed the rules! If you (18) do not, you (19) have been fired. (20) Think about your future, please!

Answers to Chapter 12 Quiz

1. **incorrect** → *has come* or *came* The past perfect tense, *had come*, is appropriate only when you have two events in the past and you want to show that one is earlier than the other.
2. **incorrect** → *have been bending* The present perfect tense connects the present to the past. The employees were bending clips in the past and continue to do so in the present.
3. **incorrect** → *stole* The past-tense form of the irregular verb *steal* is *stole.*
4. **correct** *These days* tells you that you need the present tense verb *use.*
5. **incorrect** → *are made* The phrase *these days* indicates that you need present tense.
6. **incorrect** → *is* The fact that steel is a metal will not change, so present tense is appropriate here.
7. **incorrect** → *cost* This irregular verb does not form the past tense with *-ed.*
8. **Incorrect** → *have given* The writer is still the boss, so you need present perfect tense, which connects the past and present.
9. **incorrect** → *had been* The subjunctive is needed in this condition-contrary-to-fact statement.
10. **correct** The *would* form of the verb is appropriate in this subjunctive situation.
11. **incorrect** → *thought* This irregular verb does not add *-ed* to form the past tense.
12. **incorrect** → *was* Past tense works here; past perfect, which places two past events in order, does not.
13. **Incorrect** → *lock* This indirect command takes the subjunctive.
14. **Incorrect** → *was inspecting* or *inspected* Past and past progressive both work here.
15. **incorrect** → *found* You need an active verb here, not a passive one.
16. **correct** The word *now* tells you that you need present tense.
17. **incorrect** → *Obey* For this command, use the imperative form.
18. **correct** No subjunctive is required here, because there is a possibility, not a condition-contrary-to-fact.
19. **incorrect** → *will be fired* You need future tense and passive voice here. The subject, *you* (understood), will be on the receiving end of the firing.
20. **correct** The command is correctly expressed.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Sorting singular and plural subjects
- Matching subjects and verbs properly
- Pairing pronouns and antecedents

Chapter 13

Agreement: Choosing Singular or Plural Verbs and Pronouns

About a million Hollywood movies have tried to convince the public that opposites attract. Grammarians have clearly not gotten that message. Instead of opposites, the English language prefers matching pairs — singular with singular and plural with plural. Matching, in grammar terminology, is known as *agreement.*

In this chapter, I show you how to make subjects and verbs agree. I also discuss some of the trickier members of the pronoun family and the evolving rules of agreement that govern them.

Agreeing Not to Disagree

Agreement in the real world means that you share the same beliefs. In the world of grammar, the concept of agreement rests on these principles:

- Nouns (the part of speech that names people, places, things, and ideas) may be singular or plural.

- Pronouns (the part of speech that replaces or refers to nouns or other pronouns) may also be singular or plural. A few pronouns keep the same form for both singular and plural situations.
- When you're writing a sentence, you need a subject — a noun or a pronoun. A singular subject pairs with a singular verb. A plural subject pairs with a plural verb. For more information on subjects and verbs, turn to Chapter 8.
- A pronoun must agree with its *antecedent*, the word the pronoun refers to or replaces. Singular pronouns match up with singular nouns or other singular pronouns. Plural pronouns pair with plural nouns or other plural pronouns. A few pronouns (*you* and *who,* for example) do double duty, correctly referring to both singular and plural antecedents.
- Traditional rules call for a pronoun referring to a person to match the gender of the antecedent. As our understanding of gender has become more complex, so has pronoun usage. The underlying principles that should guide you are clarity and respect. I discuss pronoun-gender issues in detail in the Introduction and provide more information on gendered and nongendered pronouns in Chapter 4.

In most situations, making a match between a subject and a verb or a pronoun and an antecedent is simple. Once in a while, though, you face some complicated pairs. (Grammar resembles life in this regard, doesn't it?) In this chapter, you see how to deal with both easy and tough decisions about agreement.

Making Subjects and Verbs Agree: The Basics

The good news is that most of the time English verbs have only one form for both singular and plural. "I *burp*" and "the dinosaurs *burp*" are both correct, even though *I* is singular and *dinosaurs* is plural. You have to worry only in the few special circumstances I list here. I've italicized the subjects and verbs in the examples so that you can locate them quickly:

- **Talking about someone in the present tense requires different verb forms for singular and plural.** The singular verb ends in *s,* as in *he spits* (singular) and *babies spit* (plural).
- **Verbs that include *does/do* or *has/have* change forms for singular and plural.** Singular verbs use *does* or *has.* ("*John does paint* his toenails blue. *He has stated* that fact.") Plurals use *do* and *have.* ("*Do* the toenails *need* more polish? No, *they have* plenty already.")
- ***I* pairs with plural action verbs.** The pronoun *I* is always singular, but *I go* is correct, not *I goes*.
- ***You* and *they* may be either singular or plural, but these pronouns always pair with plural verbs.** *You catch* a robber, whether *you* refers to one person or ten, and *they go* to jail, whether you're talking about several robbers or a solo robber who uses gender-neutral pronouns.
- **The verb *be* changes form according to the noun or pronoun paired with it.** Chapter 5 introduces you to the entire "be" verb family.

Matching Subjects and Verbs in Some Tricky Situations

Most of the time the subject-verb match is obvious. Occasionally, you have to put on your thinking cap and analyze the sentence to come up with the proper form. In this section, I show you how to deal with compound subjects and subjects that may be tough to locate.

Compound subjects

Sentences with two subjects joined by *and* take a plural verb, even if each of the two subjects is singular. (Think of math: One subject + one subject = plural subject.)

Here are some sample sentences with subjects joined by the word *and:*

> The picture and its frame belong together. (*picture* + *frame* = plural subject, *belong* = plural verb)
>
> Romance and garlic do not mix. (*romance* + *garlic* = plural subject, *do mix* = plural verb)

TIP

When you join two subjects with *or*, however, you're not adding. You're offering two alternatives. Does that make your subject singular? Not necessarily. It depends on the two subjects. Check out "Either and neither, alone or with partners," later in this chapter, for more information.

Ignoring distracting descriptions

When you're checking agreement, focus on the subject–verb pair and ignore any descriptions that appear between them. Phrases such as "of the books" and "except for" and longer expressions such as "who golfs badly" and "which takes the cake" don't affect the subject–verb pair. Be especially wary of expressions that appear to create a plural *(as well as, in addition to)*. Grammatically, these aren't part of the subject. Take a look at this sentence:

> The IRS agent, *fascinated by my last three tax returns,* is ruining my vacation plans. *(agent* = subject, *is ruining* = verb)

By ignoring the distracting phrase about my tax returns in this sentence, you can easily pick out the singular subject–verb pair. Here's another:

> The deductions, *not the tax rate,* are a problem. (*deductions* = subject, *are* = verb)

In this sentence, *deductions* is the plural subject. If you let yourself be distracted, you may incorrectly match your verb to *rate*, which is singular.

REMEMBER

Ignore all distracting phrases, and find the true subject–verb pair. Also, if any IRS employees are reading this book, please ignore my tax returns.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

The boy in the first row, along with all the kids posting on Instagram, (is ignoring, are ignoring) the teacher.

The girls in the last row, but not the football player in the hall, (is taking, are taking) selfies.

A. **is ignoring** The subject is *boy.* The boy *is ignoring. Along with all the kids posting on Instagram* is a distraction (in this case, a prepositional phrase).

are taking Ignore the distraction (in real life and in grammar) and match the plural subject *girls* with the plural verb *are taking.*

YOUR TURN

Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

1. Hinting delicately that the teacher's attitude about his missing homework assignments (is, are) unfair, John (raises, raise) his eyebrows.
2. John, whose homework (has been, have been) late every day this year, says that he (suffers, suffer) from a toe condition that makes it impossible for him to study.
3. We (am, is, are) not buying his story.
4. You probably (believes, believe) John because you (gives, give) everyone the benefit of the doubt.
5. (Does, Do) you think that John's friends always (recognizes, recognize) the truth?
6. (Has, Have) his story fallen on disbelieving ears?
7. I never (knows, know) when John (is avoiding, are avoiding) reality.
8. Sometimes he (tells, tell) very odd tales.
9. Why (does, do) everyone listen to his stories?
10. Nadine, like most of John's closest friends, (was, were) completely dismayed by John's dishonest tendencies.
11. He, along with some other students, (cheats, cheat) on tests all the time.
12. The principal, in addition to everyone else on the faculty, (has wanted, have wanted) to expel John for years.
13. Recently, John (has, have) spent a lot of time in detention.
14. In the far corner of the cafeteria (is, are) six teachers taking turns as detention supervisors.

15. During today's detention, John and Dana (was texting, were texting) each other instead of studying math.

16. When he works on a math problem, John often (removes, remove) his cellphone from his pocket and (searches, search) for the correct answer.

17. "In my pocket (is, are) 15 math formulas," John once remarked.

18. John, as well as his friend Dana, (was caught, were caught) cheating on a midterm exam.

19. Only once (was, were) a guidance counselor and an assistant principal unjust in their punishment.

20. The counselor, in addition to John's parents, (wants, want) to set him on the path to success.

Each and every

Each and *every* are powerful words; they're strong enough to change any subject following them into a singular idea. Sneak a peek at these examples:

> *Each* shoe and sock *is* in need of mending, but Larry refuses to pick up a needle and thread.
>
> *Every* dress and skirt in that store *is* on sale, and Lulu's in a spending mood.

Do these sentences look wrong to you? Granted, they appear to have plural subjects: two things *(shoe and sock)* in Sentence 1, and another two items *(dress and skirt)* in Sentence 2. However, when *each* or *every* is placed in front of a group, you take the items in the group one at a time. In the first example, the subject consists of one *shoe*, one *sock*, another *shoe*, another *sock*, and so on. Therefore, the sentence needs a singular verb to match the singular subject. Ditto for the *dress and skirt* reference in the second example.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

Every knife and fork (has been, have been) snatched by that raccoon!

A. **has been** The word *every* creates a singular subject, which matches the singular verb *has been.*

Either and neither, alone or with partners

Two more pain-in-the-pick-your-body-part pronouns are *either* and *neither*, when they're without their partners *or* and *nor.* When they're alone, *either* and *neither* are always singular, even if you insert a huge group (or just a group of two) between them and their verbs. Take a look at these sentences:

> *Either* of the two armies *is* strong enough to take over the entire planet.
>
> *Neither* of the football captains *has shown* any willingness to accept Lola as quarterback.

Because the sample sentences mention *armies* and *captains*, you may be tempted to choose plural verbs. Resist the temptation! No matter what the sentence says, if the subject is *either* or *neither*, singular is the correct way to go. That last statement applies to pronouns also:

> *Each* of the armies follows *its* own leader.
>
> *Neither* of the men will change *his* strategy.

Note: In the last example, I used the masculine words *men* and *his.* When you don't know the gender of the antecedent or when more than one gender is represented, *their* is a good match. See "A Note about Pronouns" in the Introduction for more information.

When *either* and *neither* appear with their best pals, *or* and *nor*, two things happen. First, *either* and *neither* turn into conjunctions (joining words). Second, if they're joining two subjects, the subject that is closer to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural. Yes, that's right! This is a grammar problem you can solve with a ruler. The same ruler — er, I mean *rule* — applies when two subjects are joined by *or* alone. Check out these examples:

> Either *Ella* or *her bridesmaids have eaten* the icing on the cake. (*bridesmaids* = closer subject, a plural noun; *have eaten* = plural verb)
>
> Five *maids* of honor or *Ella has* an engraved cake knife. (*Ella* = closer subject, a singular noun; *has* = singular verb)
>
> Neither *the waiters* nor *Larry is planning* to eat the leftovers. (*Larry* = closer subject, a singular noun; *is planning* = singular verb)

If the *either/or* and *neither/nor* sentence is a question, the subject closer to the part of the verb that changes governs the singular/plural decision. Take a look at these examples:

> *Does* either *Ella* or *her cousins want* antacids? (*Ella* = subject closer to the helping verb *does*; *Ella* = singular subject, *does want* = singular verb)
>
> *Do* neither *her cousins* nor *Ella know* how to cook? (*cousins* = subject closer to the helping verb *do*; *cousins* = plural subject, *do know* = plural verb)

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

Either the window washers or the glassblower (is, are) responsible for the broken pane.

Neither the glassblower nor the window washers (admits, admit) to the crime.

(Does, Do) either the glassblower or the window washers have insurance?

A. **is** The subject closer to the verb is *glassblower*, a singular noun. Pair it with the singular verb *is.*

admit The subject closer to the verb is *washers*, a plural noun. Pair it with the plural verb *admit.*

Does The subject closer to the part of the verb that changes is *glassblower*, a singular noun. Pair it with the singular verb *does.*

YOUR TURN

Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

21. Neither the fire marshal nor the police officers (was, were) aware of Lola's new production.
22. Either of the backup singers (has, have) enough talent to become a star.
23. Every orchestra seat and balcony box (has been, have been) reserved for Lola's family.
24. Neither her partners nor Lola (is, are) willing to speculate on the critical reception.
25. (Has, Have) either the director or the musicians agreed on a contract?
26. I don't understand Lola's interest in musical theater, because neither of Lola's parents (sings, sing) on key.
27. Perhaps every one of Lola's ten productions (is, are) a form of rebellion.
28. This show or the next two productions (is, are) sure to make a profit.
29. Every Tony and Oscar on Lola's shelf (is, are) a testament to her talent.
30. Neither of her Tony awards, however, (has, have) been polished for a long time.

Five puzzling pronouns

Earlier in this chapter, I told you to ignore descriptions when making subjects and verbs agree. Now I must confess that this rule has one small exception — actually, five small exceptions. Five pronouns — five little words that just have to stir up trouble — change from singular to plural because of the prepositional phrases that follow them. The five troublemaking pronouns are

- any
- all
- most
- none
- some

Here they are with some prepositional phrases and verbs. Notice how the prepositional phrase affects the verb number.

Singular	Plural
any of the information is	*any* of the magazines are
all of the pie is	*all* of the shoes are
most of the city is	*most* of the pencils are
none of the pollution is	*none* of the toenails are
some of the speech is	*some* of the sleepwalkers are

See the pattern? For these five words, the prepositional phrase is the determining factor. If the phrase refers to a plural idea, the verb is plural. If the phrase refers to a singular idea, the verb is singular.

TIP

When you refer to one of these pronouns with another pronoun (in other words, if *any*, *all*, *most*, *none*, or *some* is an antecedent), follow the usual rule: Singular pairs with singular, and plural pairs with plural. Take a look at these examples:

All of the pie is gone because I ate it. (*all* = singular, *it* = singular)

None of the birds are in their nest. (*none* = plural, *their* = plural)

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

All of the dancers in Lola's musical (is, are) required to get butterfly tattoos.

Most of the songs (has, have) been written already, but the out-of-town tryouts suggest that more work is needed.

A. **are** The pronoun *all* refers to *dancers*, a plural, so *are* is the correct verb.

have The pronoun *most* refers to *songs*, a plural, so the plural verb *have* is correct.

The ones, the things, and the bodies

Three pronoun "families" — the *ones*, the *things*, and the *bodies* — merit special attention. Take a peek at the family tree:

The ones: *one, everyone, someone, anyone, no one*

The things: *everything, something, anything, nothing*

The bodies: *everybody, somebody, anybody, nobody*

These pronouns are always singular and match with singular verbs, even if they're surrounded by prepositional phrases that express plurals, as in these examples:

Everybody *is* happy because *no one has caused* any trouble and *anything goes.*

Anyone in the pool of candidates for mayor *speaks* better than Lulu.

One of the million reasons to hate you *is* your tendency to argue about grammar.

Not *one* out of a million spies *creates* as much distraction as George.

REMEMBER

The rules for matching these pronouns to other pronouns have changed over the years. I discuss this topic in more depth in "A Note about Pronouns" in the Introduction. The operative principle now, for an increasing number of grammarians, is to match the "ones, the things, and the bodies" with *they*, *their*, *them*, and *theirs* if a pronoun is needed: Everyone was asked to bring *their* gum to the bubble-popping contest.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb or pronoun from the choices in parentheses.

Why (does, do) no one understand that watching paint dry is boring?

Everybody has brought (his, her, their) brush, but I prefer spray paint.

A. **does** The pronoun *no one* is singular and pairs with the singular verb form *does,* part of the complete verb *does understand.*

their Many years ago, the correct answer in Standard English would have been *his,* regardless of the gender of the people included in the pronoun *everybody.* Some grammarians would insert *his or her* here, but these days, many prefer the pronoun *their,* understood in this context to be singular.

YOUR TURN

Select the correct verb or pronoun from the choices in parentheses.

31 Nobody (paints, paint) a room as fast as Ruthie.

32 Everyone (agrees, agree) that she tries hard, but not all of her work (is/was) neat.

33 Most of the walls in the library (has dried, have dried) already.

34 Much of the floor (seems, seem) dusty.

35 (Has, Have) someone sanded the shelves?

36 (Was, Were) any of the books wrapped in plastic?

37 I can't believe that nothing at all (has been done, have been done) to protect those treasures!

38 Someone (has, have) to confess to knocking over that paint can and staining Mom's favorite book.

39 Not one of the workers (wants, want) to admit guilt, because everybody (is/are) afraid of Mom's temper.

40 All of the sloppy painters (bears, bear) some responsibility.

Agreeing with Relative Pronouns

Who, which, and *that* are hardworking pronouns that often hold down two jobs: (1) representing or replacing a noun and (2) relating one idea to another. The second job is the reason their official grammar designation is *relative pronoun.* As usual, the grammatical term doesn't matter. What does matter is determining whether the relative pronoun is singular or plural in the context of the sentence. If the relative pronoun replaces or refers to a singular noun or pronoun, it's singular and pairs with a singular verb. If the relative pronoun replaces or refers to a plural pronoun, it magically turns into a plural pronoun and pairs with a plural verb.

When you match a verb or another pronoun to *who*, *which*, or *that*, think carefully about meaning. Then decide which verb or pronoun you need. Some examples:

Elena, *who is* taking *her* first standardized test tomorrow, is nervous. (*who* = *Elena* = singular, *is* and *her* = singular)

The students *who are taking* the test next week have to devote all *their* free time to studying. (*who* = *students* = plural, *are taking* and *their* = plural)

The jug *that is falling* off the ledge is valuable, and I can't afford to replace *it.* (*that* = *jug* = singular, *is falling* and *it* = singular)

The books *that interest* me are not in the library. I will have to buy *them.* (*that* = *books* = plural, *interest* and *them* = plural)

TIP

At times, locating the antecedent for *who*, *which*, or *that* can be tough, unless you apply your best reading comprehension skills. Compare these sentences, which are similar but not at all the same:

Lindy is one of the nurses who love to dance. (*who* refers to *nurses,* a plural, because more than one nurse loves to dance)

Lindy is the only one of the nurses who wears dancing shoes to work. (*who* refers to *one,* a singular, because no one but Lindy wears dancing shoes to work)

REMEMBER

Find the antecedent — the word that *who*, *which*, or *that* refers to — and match the pronoun and verb to the antecedent.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct verb from the choices in parentheses.

Val, who (is, are) quite a comedian, will perform this evening.

Only the jokes that (gets, get) a big laugh will be posted on the Comics United website.

A. **is** The relative pronoun *who* stands in for *Val,* a singular subject, so you need a singular verb.

get The relative pronoun *that* refers to *jokes,* a plural subject, so you need a plural verb.

YOUR TURN

Guided by the conventions of Standard English, select the verb or pronoun from the choices in parentheses.

41 The microphone that (has broken, have broken) twice in the past three hours needs a permanent repair.

42 No one wants to hear a screech, which (harms, harm) eardrums.

43 Members of the audience who (sits, sit) near the stage are most at risk.

44 The microphone Val uses is the only one in the club that (does, do) not work.

45 She could easily select one of the mics that (functions, function) without a screech, but she thinks this one is good luck.

46 All my favorite comedians, who (performs, perform) here on special occasions, have worked with that microphone.

47 "That little piece of metal carries luck, which (is, are) what I need when I'm on stage," Val explained.

48 Val told three new jokes that (was, were) successful.

49 Social media websites, which (influences, influence) potential customers, lit up when Val posted the video.

50 One of the websites, which (has, have) 3 million followers, immediately crashed.

Politics and Other Irregular Subjects

The problem with politics is agreement — not the shouting that far too many people engage in these days, but rather subject–verb agreement. Specifically, *politics* looks plural because it ends in *s.* So do *mathematics*, *news*, *economics*, *civics*, *physics*, *athletics*, *measles*, *mumps*, and *analysis.* Surprise! All these words are singular and pair with singular verbs and, if these words are antecedents, with singular pronouns:

> *Politics is* never absent from Bob's conversation; he devotes most of his comment to *it.* (*politics, is, it* = singular)
>
> Roger thinks that *mathematics is* overrated, but he studies *it* anyway. (*mathematics, is, it* = singular)
>
> The *news* about the nutritional content of doughnuts *is* not encouraging. Did you hear *it?* (*news, is, it* = singular)
>
> "*Is measles* a serious disease?" asked Egbert. "I think I have *it.* (*Is, measles, it* = singular)

Another word — *statistics* — may be either singular or plural. If you're talking about numbers, you're in plural territory:

> Check the *statistics. They show* that grammar knowledge is declining. (*statistics, they, show* = plural)

If you're talking about a course or a field of study, *statistics* is singular:

> *Statistics is* a difficult course. I took *it* last year. (*Statistics, is, it* = singular)

The English language also has words that are always *plural.* Here are a few of them: *eyeglasses*, *pants*, *trousers*, *jeans*, *shorts*, and *scissors.* (Did you notice how many of those words refer to clothing? Strange.) Other common plural-only nouns are *credentials*, *acoustics*, *earnings*, *headquarters*, and *ceramics.* Plural verbs pair up with these words when they're subjects, and plural pronouns match them when they're antecedents:

> My *eyeglasses are broken*. I dropped *them* yesterday. (*eyeglasses, are broken, them* = plural)

TIP

When in doubt, check your dictionary and remember to match singular nouns with singular verbs and plural nouns with plural verbs.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the appropriate verb or pronoun from the choices in parentheses.

The news (was/were) announced at noon yesterday.

A. **was** *News* is singular and takes the singular verb *is.*

YOUR TURN

Select the appropriate verb or pronoun from the choices in parentheses.

51 No matter how little studying Angie does, economics (is, are) an easy A+ for her.

52 The data (shows, show) that Angie never blows an economics test.

53 It's difficult to drag Angie away from the television, though she believes that the media (has, have) too much power.

54 Angie once screamed at a political rally, "My scissors (cuts, cut) your taxes."

55 The pair of scissors she waved (is, are) in a museum now.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **is, raises** You have two singular subjects here, which must match with singular verbs: *attitude is* and *John raises.*
2. **has been, suffers** The verbs *has* and *suffers* are singular, as they should be, because the subject–verb pairs are *homework has* and *he suffers.*
3. **are** The plural verb *are* matches the plural subject *we.*
4. **believe, give** The pronoun *you* always takes a plural verb such as *believe* or *give.*
5. **Do, recognize** Both verbs are plural, matching the plural subjects *you* and *friends.* In the first pair, the subject is tucked between the two parts of the verb because the sentence is a question.
6. **Has** You need a singular verb here to pair with the singular subject, *story.*
7. **know, is** The pronoun *I,* though singular, pairs with the plural form *know. John* is singular and matches the singular verb *is.*
8. **tells** Because *he* is singular, the verb *tells* must also be singular.
9. **does** The pronoun *everyone* is singular, so it matches the singular form *does,* which is part of the verb *does listen.*
10. **was** The singular verb *was* matches the singular subject *Nadine.* Did you select *friends?* That's part of a description, which is a prepositional phrase, not a subject.
11. **cheats** The singular subject is *He,* so you need *cheats,* a singular verb. The description, *along with some other students,* is irrelevant.
12. **has** Pay no attention to the interrupter, *in addition to everyone else on the faculty.* The true subject, *principal,* is singular and takes the singular verb *has.*
13. **has** This one's easy. *John* is a singular subject, which pairs nicely with the singular verb *has.*
14. **are** The subject is *teachers,* a plural noun that matches the plural verb *are.*
15. **were** *John and Dana* — two people, linked together by *and* (not to mention failing math grades) — equal a plural subject, so you need the plural verb *were.*
16. **removes, searches** Because *John* is singular, the verbs *removes* and *searches* must also be singular.
17. **are** *In my pocket* is a prepositional phrase. Ignore it! Identify the plural subject, *formulas,* and match it with the plural verb *are.*
18. **was** Ignore the description *(as well as. . . Dana)* and zero in on the true subject, *John,* which matches the singular verb *was.*
19. **were** You have a plural subject *(guidance counselor and assistant principal),* so you need the plural verb *were.*
20. **wants** Ignore *in addition to John's parents* and match the verb to the singular subject, *counselor.*
21. **were** The subject *police officers* is closer to the verb than *marshal.* Because *police officers* is plural, the verb must also be plural.

22 **has** Without a partner, *either* is always singular and rates a singular verb, such as *has.*

23 **has** The word *every* has the power to change *seat and balcony box* to a singular concept requiring the singular verb *has.*

24 **is** The closest subject is *Lola,* so the singular verb *is* wins the prize, the only prize likely to be associated with Lola's musical.

25 **Has** The sentence has two subjects, *director* and *musicians.* The subject *director* is closer to the part of the verb that changes, so the singular verb *Has* must match the singular subject *director*.

26 **sings** When it's all alone, the pronoun *neither* is always singular and needs to be paired with the singular verb *sings.*

27 **is** Did I catch you here? The expression *ten productions* suggests plural, but the subject is actually *one,* a singular.

28 **are** The word *or* is alone in this sentence, but the rule is the same. The closer subject is plural, so you need the plural verb *are.*

29 **is** The word *every* has the power to turn any subject to singular; *is* is a singular verb.

30 **has** The pronoun *neither* is singular, so the singular verb *has* is needed here.

31 **paints** The pronoun *nobody* is singular and pairs with the singular verb *paints.*

32 **agrees, is** The pronoun *everyone* is singular, so you need the singular verb *agrees.* After the pronoun *all,* you see the prepositional phrase *of her work.* Because the phrase refers to *work,* which is singular, you want the singular verb *is.*

33 **have dried** You have the plural *walls* in the phrase following the pronoun *most*, so you need the plural verb *have dried.*

34 **seems** The object of the preposition is the singular noun *floor,* so the singular verb *seems* is correct.

35 **Has** The pronoun *someone* is singular, so the singular verb *has* is correct here.

36 **Were** After the pronoun *any,* you see the prepositional phrase *of the books.* The word *books* is plural, so *were* is the correct verb.

37 **has been done** The singular pronoun *nothing* pairs with the singular verb *has been done.*

38 **has** The singular pronoun *someone* takes the singular verb *has.*

39 **wants, is** The pronoun *one* is singular, and a singular verb *(wants)* should pair with it. The singular verb *is* pairs with the singular pronoun *everybody.*

40 **bear** The pronoun *all* is plural in this sentence, as it refers to *painters,* a plural, which matches the plural verb *bear*.

41 **has broken** The pronoun *that* stands in for *microphone,* a singular noun, so the singular verb *has broken* fits here.

42 **harms** The pronoun *which* stands in for *screech,* a singular noun, so you need the singular verb *harms*.

43 **sit** The pronoun *who* stands in for *members,* a plural noun, so the plural verb *sit* is correct.

44 **does** The pronoun *that* refers to *the only one,* a singular expression, so the singular verb *does* fits here.

45 **function** The pronoun *that* refers to *mics,* a plural noun that should be paired with the plural verb *function.*

46 **perform** The pronoun *who* stands in for *comedians,* a plural noun that should be paired with the plural verb *perform.*

47 **is** The pronoun *which* stands in for *luck,* a singular noun, so the singular verb *is* fits here.

48 **were** The pronoun *that* stands in for *jokes,* a plural noun, so the plural verb *were* is correct.

49 **influence** The pronoun *which* stands in for *websites,* a plural noun, so you need the plural verb *influence.*

50 **has** You're talking about *one of the websites,* not all of them, so *which* is singular and needs the singular verb *has.*

51 **is** The noun *economics* is singular, so you need the singular verb *is.*

52 **show** The noun *data* is plural and pairs nicely with the plural verb *show.*

53 **have** You need the plural verb *have* to pair with the plural subject *media.*

54 **cut** *Scissors* is a plural subject and should match the plural verb *cut.*

55 **is** The subject (*pair*) is singular and takes the singular verb *is.*

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 13 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Read this email from a store owner to an annoying customer. Following the rules of Standard English, mark the underlined words correct or incorrect and revise any incorrect expressions.

From: Johnson Jewelry

To: George Baker

Subject: Watch

The clerks at our store, who (1) takes pride in serving our customers' needs, (2) have struggled to meet your expectations. Your frequent visits to Johnson Jewelry, the best store in town, (3) is welcome, but each of the clerks (4) have found a problem after you leave. Yesterday evening, for example, Annie Leon noticed that one of the watches you examined (5) were broken. All of the watches (6) was in good condition in the morning. I am sure that either you or your friends (7) were misbehaving, and one of the group (8) are responsible for the missing minute hand. Furthermore, some of the gold on the back of the watch (9) was scraped off. Neither of the inscriptions on the watch (10) were legible. Everyone (11) have to take responsibility for (12) their actions. (13) Does either you or your friends intend to pay for repairs to the watch? Much work (14) is to be done before the watch is fit to sell. I also expect payment for the earring and toe ring that (15) was damaged.

Answers to Chapter 13 Quiz

1. **incorrect (take)** The pronoun *who* represents *clerks,* a plural, which pairs with the plural verb *take.*
2. **correct** The plural verb *have struggled* pairs correctly with the plural subject *clerks.*
3. **incorrect (are)** Ignore the distractions and pair the plural subject, *visits,* with the plural verb *are.*
4. **incorrect (has found)** The pronoun *each* takes a singular verb, which in this sentence is *has found.*
5. **incorrect (was broken)** Because the subject is *one,* the singular verb *was broken* is correct.
6. **incorrect (were)** The pronoun *all* is plural in this sentences because the object of the preposition is *watches,* a plural noun.
7. **correct** In an *either/or* sentence, match the verb to the closer subject, which is the plural *friends,* correctly paired with the plural verb *are.*
8. **incorrect (is)** The subject of the sentence is *one,* and *one* pairs with a singular verb.
9. **correct** The prepositional phrase following the pronoun *some* centers on *gold,* a singular noun, so you need a singular verb *was.*
10. **incorrect (was)** The pronoun *neither* is singular, so you must pair it with the singular verb *was.*
11. **incorrect (has)** The pronoun *everyone* is singular and correctly pairs with the singular verb *has.*
12. **correct** Most grammarians pair the gender-neutral pronoun *their* with the singular antecedent *everyone.*
13. **incorrect (Do)** The subject is *you,* which never pairs with a singular verb.
14. **correct** The subject is *work,* a singular noun, which matches the singular verb *is.*
15. **incorrect (were damaged)** The subject is *earring and toe ring.* That's two things, and therefore a plural. You need the plural verb *were damaged.*

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Identifying the correct pronouns to act as subjects and objects
- Choosing between *who* and *whom*
- Showing possession with pronouns
- Selecting the right pronoun for appositives and comparisons
- Attaching the appropriate pronoun to some nouns ending in *-ing*

Chapter 14
Solving Pronoun Case

I or *me? She* or *her? He* or *himself?* Or (gasp) *who* or *whom?* These are questions about pronoun case that millions of suffering grammar students have struggled to answer. The good news is that there's actually a logic to pronoun choice. Chapter 4 offers an overview of pronouns; Chapter 13 delves into pronoun number (singular or plural). In this chapter, I focus on helping you select the correct pronoun case.

While We're on the Subject: Choosing Pronouns to Act as Subjects

The subject is the person or thing doing the action or being talked about in the sentence. (For more on locating the subject, see Chapter 8.) You can't do much wrong when you have the actual name of a person, place, or thing as the subject — in other words, a noun — but pronouns are another story.

Legal subject pronouns for formal English include *I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who,* and *whoever.* If you want to avoid a grammatical felony, stay away from *me, him, her, us, them, whom,* and *whomever* when you're selecting a subject. Also avoid the *–self* pronouns (*myself, himself, herself, ourselves,* and so forth) when you're scouting out a subject, unless you insert one next to another subject for emphasis, as in *I myself will select the proper pronoun.*

TIP

A bunch of lovely pronouns are suitable as subjects and as objects: *either, neither, each, every, some, any, most, none, all, many, everyone, someone, no one, everybody, somebody, nobody, everything, something, nothing, few, both,* and *several.*

Here are some examples of pronouns as the subject of a sentence:

> *I* certainly did tell Lulu not to remove her nose ring in public! *(I* is the subject of the verb *did tell.)*
>
> *Nobody* knows the answer to that question about pronouns. *(Nobody* is the subject of the verb *knows.)*
>
> Alfred and *she* will bring their killer bees to the next meeting of the Unusual Pets Association. *(She* is one of the subjects of the verb *will bring.)*
>
> *Whoever* marries Larry should negotiate a good prenuptial agreement. *(Whoever* is the subject of the verb *marries.)*

Most people do okay choosing pronouns for one subject, but sentences with two subjects are a different story. For example, I often hear my otherwise grammatically correct students say such things as

> *Robert* and *me* are going to the supermarket for some chips.

See the problem? The verb is *are going*. To find the subject, ask your subject questions: *Who* or *what are going?* The answer right now is *Robert and me are going,* but in Standard English, *me* isn't acceptable as a subject pronoun. Here's the correct version:

> *Robert* and *I* are going to the supermarket for some carrots. (I couldn't resist correcting the nutritional content, too.)

One good way to check pronouns is to look at each one separately. If you've developed a fairly good "ear" for Standard English, isolating the pronoun helps you decide whether you've chosen correctly. You may have to adjust the verb a bit when you have one subject instead of two, but the principle is the same. If the pronoun doesn't sound right as a solo subject, it isn't right as part of a pair, either. Here's an example:

> ORIGINAL SENTENCE: *Ella* and *her* went to the grammar rodeo yesterday.
>
> CHECK 1: *Ella* went to the grammar rodeo yesterday. Verdict: sounds okay.
>
> CHECK 2: *Her* went to the grammar rodeo yesterday. Verdict: sounds terrible. Substitute *she.*
>
> CHECK 3: *She* went to the grammar rodeo yesterday. Verdict: much better.
>
> RECOMBINED, CORRECTED SENTENCE: *Ella* and *she* went to the grammar rodeo yesterday.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Bud, you, and me appointed the judges for the grammar competition, so we have to live with their decisions, however wrong.

(B) Bud, you, and I appointed the judges for the grammar competition, so we have to live with their decisions, however wrong.

A. **B** *I* is a subject pronoun, and *me* is not. If you examine the parts of the subject separately, you can probably hear why: *me appointed* sounds wrong.

WARNING

In formal situations, don't "buddy up" a subject pronoun with a noun acting as subject.

WRONG: My friend he likes pronouns.

WHY IT'S WRONG: The subject is *friend,* so *he* is unnecessary.

RIGHT: My friend likes pronouns.

Subject pronouns may show up in another spot in the sentence — as a subject complement after a linking verb. Think of linking verbs as giant equal signs, equating two halves of the sentence. All forms of the verb *to be* are linking verbs, as are verbs such as *seem, appear, smell, sound,* and *taste.* A pronoun completing the equation is equivalent to the subject, so it must be a subject pronoun if you're speaking or writing formally. (Turn to Chapter 9 for more information about pronouns acting as complements.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct pronoun.

The person responsible for planting these beautiful trees is _____ (he, him, his).

A. **he** The linking verb *is* sets up an equation with the subject: *person = he.*

YOUR TURN

Q. Select the correct pronoun.

1. James and _____ (I, me) were hungry.
2. _____ (We, Us, Ourselves) raided the kitchen in search of food.
3. Mom _____ (she, her, no pronoun) had just gone to the supermarket, where _____ (she, her, herself) bought 17 bags of groceries.
4. "Thanks, Mom," said James politely, right before _____ (he, him, his, himself) gulped down an entire loaf of bread and two jars of peanut butter.
5. I _____ (me, myself) nibbled a bunch of grapes daintily, until _____ (it, its, itself) was completely gone.
6. "Those kids," Mom muttered as Aunt Agatha and _____ (she, her, herself) settled in front of the television.
7. Aunt Agatha _____ (she, her, no pronoun) said, "_____ (They, Them, Their, Themselves) eat up the entire month's food budget in one sitting."
8. Actually, the biggest eater in the family is _____ (she, her, hers).

Taking an Objective Viewpoint: Choosing Pronouns to Act as Objects

Up to this point in the chapter, I concentrate on subject pronouns, but now it's time to turn to the receiver of the sentence's action — the object. Specifically, it's time to turn to *object pronouns.* (For more information on finding the object, see Chapter 9.) Pronouns that may legally function as objects include *me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom,* and *whomever.* (A few pronouns work as both subject and object pronouns. Check "While We're on the Subject: Choosing Pronouns to Act as Subjects," earlier in this chapter, for a list of those worry-free words.)

Dealing with direct and indirect objects

Here's some English teacher terminology for you, if you can stand it. (If not, don't worry. You don't need labels to use object pronouns correctly.) A *direct object* receives the action directly from the verb, answering the questions *whom?* or *what?* after the verb. An *indirect object* receives the action indirectly (clever, those grammar terms), answering the questions *to whom?* or *to what?* after the verb. Here are some examples of direct and indirect object pronouns, all in italics:

Ticktock smashed *him* right on the nose for suggesting that "the mouse ran down the clock." (*smashed* is the verb; *him* is the object)

Archie scolded *us* for ignoring his texts. (*scolded* is the verb; *us* is the object)

Oliver, president of Grammarians 'R Us, sent *me* a horrifying *letter.* (*sent* is the verb; *letter* and *me* are objects)

In the last example, *letter* is the direct object and *me* is the indirect object. (For more information on direct and indirect objects, see Chapter 9.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose the correct pronoun.

The principal unjustly punished _____ (we, us, our, ours) for the food fight in the cafeteria yesterday.

A. **us** You need an object pronoun to serve as the object of the verb *punished.*

Are you talking to I? Prepositions and pronouns

Prepositions — words that express relationships such as *about, after, among, by, for, behind, since,* and others — always have objects, and some of those objects may be pronouns. Here are some examples of pronouns working as objects of prepositions, with both the preposition and the object pronoun italicized:

Max, fearful for his pet tarantula, gave his dog *to us* yesterday. (*us* = object pronoun)

Michael's latest play received a critical review *from them.* (*them* = object pronoun)

Archie didn't like the window, so he simply plastered *over it.* (*it* = object pronoun)

TIP

The object of a preposition answers the usual object questions *(whom? what?)*, as in these examples:

Max, fearful for his pet tarantula, gave his dog to *whom*? Answer: to *us.*

Michael's latest play received a critical review from *whom*? Answer: from *them.*

Archie didn't like the window, so he simply plastered over *what?* Answer: over *it.*

Also notice that all the pronouns — *us, him, her, them, it* — come from the set of object pronouns.

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose the correct pronoun.

According to Elton and _____ (she, her, hers, herself), the elephant's trunk is too long.

A. **her** The objects of the preposition are *Elton and her. Her* is an object pronoun. (*She* is a subject pronoun.)

WARNING

For some reason, the phrase *between you and I* has caught on. However, this usage isn't yet considered correct in Standard English. *Between* is a preposition, so object pronouns should follow it. The pronoun *I* is for subjects, and *me* is for objects. So, between you and me, *me* is the word you want.

Most of the tough pronoun choices pop up when the sentence has more than one object of the preposition (*Elton and her,* for example, in the preceding example). In this situation, try this rule of thumb — and I really mean thumb, at least when you're writing or looking for errors in someone else's writing. Take your thumb and cover one of the objects. Say the sentence. Does it sound right?

According to Elton

Okay so far. Now take your thumb and cover the other object. Say the sentence. Does it sound right?

According to she

Now do you hear the problem? Make the change:

According to her

Now put the two back together:

According to Elton and her

This method is not foolproof, but chances are good that you'll get a clue to the correct pronoun choices if you check the objects one by one.

Attaching objects to verbals

Isn't *verbal* a strange word? It sounds like something you keep in a little cage with an exercise wheel. But a *verbal* isn't a furry pet. It's a word derived from a verb (a word that expresses action or a state of being) that functions as a noun or as a description (in other words, as an adjective or an adverb). I discuss verbals in detail in Chapter 24. In this section, I show you how to select a pronoun for that coveted role, object of a verbal. (Everyone in Hollywood is auditioning for the part.) Later in this chapter, in the section "Dealing with Pronouns and *-ing* Nouns," I address another way that pronouns interact with verbals.

Take a look at these verbals and their objects, both of which are italicized. Also notice the true verb in each sentence, which I've underlined:

> Melanie <u>loves</u> *teasing him,* but Lulu favors nonviolence.
>
> Lola briefly <u>left</u> the meeting *to call them*.
>
> Oliver, *having heard us* at the party, <u>signed</u> up for singing lessons.

As you see, the verbals look like verbs. However, in the first sentence, *teasing* isn't acting as a verb. *Teasing* is a thing that Melanie loves. In other words, it functions as a noun. In the second example, *to call* provides a reason why Lola left the meeting. Therefore, *to call* describes the verb *left (left* why? *to call)*, functioning as an adverb. In the third example, *having heard us* gives you more information about *Oliver*, a noun. Anything that describes a noun is functioning as an adjective.

TIP

When your writing includes a verbal, ask the object questions *whom? what?* after the verbal to locate its object. If the answer is a pronoun, be sure you've chosen an object pronoun.

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose the correct pronoun.

Oliver loves to show _____ (I, me, my, myself) and Melanie his new dance moves.

A. **me** *To show* is a verbal. *To show whom*? *To show me and Melanie. Me* is one of the objects of the verbal *to show.* (*Mel* is the other.) Did you select *myself?* Pronouns ending in *-self* have only two roles in Standard English: to double back to the subject *(she told herself that she was going to ace the test*) or to emphasize *(she herself had made the class review cards).*

YOUR TURN

Choose the correct pronoun.

9. Jessica sang songs to Mom and (he, him, himself) whenever the moon was full.
10. Her latest album is titled *Of Mom, (I, Me, Myself), and the Moon.*
11. Arthur offered _____ (we, us, our, ourselves) some songs he downloaded.
12. I said no, but Pedro accepted _____ (they, them, their).
13. Knowing _____ (she, her, hers), I'm guessing that Jessica copied someone else's songs, and I don't want to reward _____ (she, her, hers).

14. Once, she stole my dog Spike and asked for a reward when she returned Spike to (I, me, myself).

15. Showing loyalty to _____ (I, me, myself), Spike bit _____ (she, her, hers) right on the nose.

16. Spike likes to walk behind the letter carrier and (we, us, ourselves) when we approach the house, growling at _____ (she, her, herself) if the letter carrier comes too close.

17. "You have to run around _____ (he, him, himself)," I said to _____ (she, her, herself), and the letter carrier agreed.

18. I will also give _____ (he, him, himself) a treat when he behaves!

Knowing the Difference Between Who and Whom

Many grammarians believe that no one cares these days about the difference between *who/whoever* and *whom/whomever*. In their view, *whom* and *whomever* are fading away. They may be right, but many people (including me) still see a role for these pronouns. If your listeners or readers care about *who* and *whom*, you should know when each is appropriate. First, the rule:

- *Who* and *whoever* are for subjects.

  Who and *whoever* also follow and complete the meaning of linking verbs. (In grammar terminology, *who* and *whoever* serve as subject complements.)

- *Whom* and *whomever* are for objects — all kinds of objects (direct, indirect, of prepositions, of infinitives, and so on).

Check out these sample sentences:

Whoever needs help from Roger is going to wait a long time. *(Whoever* is the subject of the verb *needs.)*

Who is calling Lulu at this time of night? *(Who* is the subject of the verb *is calling.)*

"Ask *whomever* you want to the prom," exclaimed Michael. *(Whomever* is the direct object of the verb *ask.)*

To *whom* are you sending that email? *(Whom* is the object of the preposition *to.)*

TIP

Now that you know the rule and have seen the words in action, here's a trick for deciding between *who/whoever* and *whom/whomever*. Follow these steps:

1. Find all the verbs in the sentence.
2. Don't separate the helping verbs from the main verb. Count the main verb and its helpers as a single verb.

3. Now pair each verb with a subject.
4. If you have a verb flapping around with no subject, chances are *who* or *whoever* is the subject you're missing.
5. If all the verbs have subjects, check them one more time. Do you have any linking verbs without complements? (For more information on complements, see Chapter 9.) If you have a lonely linking verb with no complement in sight, you need *who* or *whoever.*
6. If all subjects are accounted for and you don't need a linking verb complement, you've reached a final answer: *whom* or *whomever.*

Here are two sample sentences, analyzed as just described:

SENTENCE 1: *Who/Whom* shall I say is calling?

The verbs = *shall say, is calling.*

The subject of *shall say* = *I.*

The subject of *is calling* = Okay, here you go. You need a subject for *is calling* but you're out of words. You have only one choice: *who.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: *Who* shall I say is calling?

SENTENCE 2: Jake is the ballplayer *who/whom* everyone thinks plays best.

The verbs = *is, thinks, plays.*

The subject of *is* = *Jake.*

The subject of *thinks* = *everyone*

The subject of *plays* = Umm. Once again, you're short a subject. Therefore, you need *who.*

CORRECT SENTENCE: Jake is the ballplayer *who* everyone thinks plays best.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which word is correct?

Agnes buys detergent in one-ton boxes for Roger, *who/whom* she adores in spite of his odor problem.

A. **whom** This pronoun is the direct object of the verb *adores.* You have two subject–verb pairs: *Agnes buys* and *she adores*. *Buys* and *adores* are action verbs, so no subject complement is needed. Therefore, you need an object pronoun, *whom*.

YOUR TURN

Select the correct pronoun.

19 Does Peyton know _____ (who, whom) should get the secret message after Maria has decoded it?

20 Matt plans to sell the message to _____ (whoever, whomever) offers the most money.

21 _____ (Who, Whom) is his buyer?

22 Peyton says that _____ (whoever, whomever) believes Matt's sales pitch is foolish.

23 Peyton, _____ (who, whom) did a fair amount of research, thinks the message is a fake.

24 Do you know (who, whom) Peyton consulted?

25 Matt, (who, whom) I do not trust, has the most sincere face you can imagine.

Attracting Appositives

Do you want to say the same thing twice? Use an appositive. An *appositive* is a noun or a pronoun that is exactly the same as the noun or pronoun that precedes it in the sentence. Appositives fall naturally into most people's speech and writing, perhaps because human beings feel a great need to explain themselves. You probably won't make a mistake with an appositive unless a pronoun or a comma is involved. (See Chapter 19 for more information on appositives and commas.)

Pronouns show up as appositives mostly when you have two or more people or things to talk about. Here are some sentences with appositives and pronouns:

> The judges for the spitball contest, Sally and she, wear plastic raincoats. (Appositive — *Sally* and *she*)
>
> The director gave protective googles to the sloppiest contestants, Lulu and me. (Appositive = *Lulu* and *me*)

In the first sentence, the appositives are paired with the subject of the sentence *(judges, dancers)*. In a sense, the appositives are potential substitutes for the subject. Therefore, you must use a subject pronoun. In the second sentence, the appositive matches *contestants*, the object of the preposition *to*, so you need the object pronoun *me*.

TIP

The appositive pronoun must always match its partner; if you pair it with a subject, the appositive must be a subject pronoun. If you pair it with an object, it must be an object pronoun.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct pronoun.

The winners of the raffle, Ali and _____ (he, him) will appear on the *Tonight Show* tomorrow.

A. **he** You need a subject pronoun, *he*, as part of the appositive of the subject.

YOUR TURN

Select the correct pronoun.

26 The host praised the three contestants with the lowest scores — Bruce, Lola, and _____ (I, me).

27 During a commercial break, the director instructed some staff, the wardrobe manager, and _____ (they, them), to set up the next segment of the show.

28 Some actors promoting a new film, Bertha Lloyd and _____ (she, her), waited in the wings.

29 My favorite stars, Alix Rivo and _____ (he, him), weren't there.

Picking Pronouns for Comparisons

Lazy people that we are, we all tend to take shortcuts, chopping words out of our sentences and racing to the finish. This practice is evident in comparisons. Read this sentence:

> Lulu denies that she has as much facial hair as he.

That sentence really means

> Lulu denies that she has as much facial hair as he has.

If you say the entire comparison, as in the preceding example, the pronoun choice is a cinch. However, when you drop the verb *(has)*, you may be tempted to use the wrong pronoun, as in this sentence:

> Lulu denies that she has as much facial hair as him.

Sounds right, doesn't it? But in Standard English, the sentence is wrong. The words you say must fit with the words you don't say. Obviously, you aren't going to accept

> Lulu denies that she has as much facial hair as him has.

Him has sounds improper, and it is. The technical reason? *Him* is an object pronoun, so you can't use it as the subject of *has.*

TIP

Whenever you have an implied comparison — a comparison that the sentence suggests but doesn't state completely — finish the sentence in your head. The correct pronoun becomes obvious.

Implied comparisons don't always require subject pronouns. With an object pronoun, the meaning of the sentence changes. Check out these examples:

> IMPLIED: The dancers gave Michael more attention than she.
>
> MEANING: The dancers gave Michael more attention than she gave Michael.
>
> IMPLIED: The dancers gave Michael more attention than her.
>
> MEANING: The dancers gave Michael more attention than the dancers gave to her.

As you see in these examples, three little letters can add quite a bit of meaning to your sentence. Choose your pronouns wisely.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct pronoun.

Tee Rex broke more claws than _____ (I, me) during the fight with Godzilla.

A. **I** Read the sentence this way: Tee Rex broke more claws than *I did* during the fight with Godzilla. In Standard English, *me did* is incorrect.

YOUR TURN

Select the correct pronoun.

30 Oscar is as careful as _____ (she, her) when he's weeding, but somehow he pulls out more plants than _____ (she, her).

31 The chipmunks consider Oscar their friend because he breaks as much garden fence as _____ (they, them).

32 With the fence down, the chipmunks munch more vegetables than _____ (we, us).

33 Oscar has planted fewer tomato plants than _____ (I, me).

34 Oscar gives more zucchini to the chipmunks than _____ (I, me) because I detest the taste of zucchini.

Dealing with Pronouns and -ing Nouns

Chapter 4 lists possessive pronouns and their most common uses. Here I focus on a topic that pops up more rarely: possessive pronouns and nouns ending in *-ing.* Choosing a pronoun to accompany these nouns is easy, once you think about what you're trying to say — specifically, what you want to emphasize. Compare these two sentences:

Mom, look at us riding our bikes!

Mom objects to our riding our bikes in traffic.

In both sentences, the pronoun precedes *riding* — a noun that ends in *-ing* and is created from a verb, *ride.* (In grammar terms, *riding* is a *gerund,* a member of the verbal family I discuss in "Attaching objects to verbals," earlier in this chapter.) In the first example, the speakers want their mother to look at them. Perhaps they've been struggling to learn how to ride, or perhaps they simply want attention. In either situation, the meaning is essentially complete after the pronoun:

Mom, look at us!

The phrase *riding our bikes* adds meaning, but it's not the point of the sentence. Now think about the second sentence. If you stop after the pronoun, the sentence is incomplete:

Mom objects to our.

Huh? *Our* what? You have to add the information about *riding our bikes in traffic* to end up with a statement that makes sense.

Consider for a moment what this sentence would mean:

> Mom objects to us.

Now the sentence makes sense, but the meaning is different. The mother objects to the speakers. Perhaps she's always despised them — in which case grammar is the least of their problems. This is not the most likely meaning.

Bottom line: A possessive pronoun in front of an *-ing* noun formed from a verb (a gerund, in grammar terms) emphasizes the action, not the person the pronoun represents. If that's your intention, use a possessive pronoun.

TIP

Some *-ing* words weren't created from verbs, and some *-ing* words aren't nouns. Don't worry about distinguishing between one and the other. Just consider what you're trying to say, and choose a pronoun that helps you express your meaning.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct pronoun.

Although I'm not a literary critic, I think that _____ (he, him, his) writing a novel on his phone is a bad idea.

A. **his** The bad idea here is the writing, not *he* or *him.* The possessive pronoun shifts the attention to the task, which is the point of the sentence.

YOUR TURN

Select the correct pronoun.

35 Peter Lincoln of the *Times* needs help with _____ (he, him, his) editing and must hire assistants.

36 Lincoln looks forward to _____ (they, them, their) correcting his grammar.

37 Lincoln said that he loved everything the employment agency did last week except _____ (they, them, their) sending him too many pronoun-obsessed editors.

38 When Lori went for an interview, she saw _____ (he, him, his) reading a review of *The Pronoun Diet;* _____ (she/her) saying that the book was "trash" bothered Lincoln.

39 When I applied, Lincoln looked favorably upon _____ (I, me, my) editing, but he loathed _____ (I, me, my) pronouncing his first name incorrectly.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **I**
2. **We**
3. **no pronoun, she**
4. **he**
5. **myself, it**
6. **she**
7. **no pronoun, They**
8. **she**
9. **him** (object of the preposition *to*)
10. **Me** (object of the preposition *Of*)
11. **us** (indirect object of the verb *offered*)
12. **them** (direct object of the verb *accepted*)
13. **her, her** (object of the verbals *Knowing* and *to reward*)
14. **me** (object of the preposition *to*)
15. **me** (object of the preposition *to*), **her** (direct object of the verb *bit*)
16. **us** (object of the preposition *behind*), **her** (object of the verbal *growling*)
17. **him** (object of the preposition *around*), **her** (direct object of the verb *said*)
18. **him** (indirect object of the verb will *give*)
19. **who** The subject–verb pairs are *Peyton does know, Maria has decoded,* and *who should get.*
20. **whoever** The subject–verb pairs are *Matt plans* and *whoever offers.* Did the preposition *to* confuse you? It needs an object, but *whomever* isn't available, because it has to serve as the subject of *offers.* The whole statement, *whoever offers the most money,* is the object. (It's a clause, in case you were wondering. More on clauses appears in Chapter 11.)
21. **Who** *Who* is the subject of *is.*
22. **whoever** Sort out the subject–verb pairs: *Peyton says, whoever believes, pitch is.* ***Note:*** The last pair includes the linking verb *is.* Sometimes, *whoever* shows up in that role, but in this sentence, *foolish* completes the thought.
23. **who** The subject–verb pairs are *Peyton thinks, who did,* and *message is.* The linking verb statement is completed by *fake.*

24 **whom** If you untangle the sentence and pair verbs with subjects, the answer is easy to find: *you do know, Peyton consulted.* Every verb has a subject, and neither is a linking verb. Therefore, you need *whom,* which is the direct object of *consulted.*

25 **whom** The verbs are *do trust, has,* and *can imagine.* Pair them up: *I do trust, Matt has, you can imagine.* You don't need a subject, so go for *whom,* the object of *do trust. Not,* by the way, is an adverb and not part of the verb.

26 **me** (appositive of *contestants,* a direct object)

27 **them** (appositive of *staff,* a direct object)

28 **she** (appositive of *actors,* a subject)

29 **he** (appositive of *stars,* a subject)

30 **she, she** Add the missing verbs: *Oscar is as careful as she is when he's weeding, but somehow he pulls out more plants than she does.*

31 **they** Add the missing verb: *The chipmunks consider Oscar their friend because he breaks as much garden fence as they do.*

32 **we** Finish the comparison: *than we do.*

33 **I** Complete the thought: *than I have.*

34 **me** Add the missing words: *Oscar gives more zucchini to the chipmunks than he gives me.*

35 **his** (focus on *editing*)

36 **their** (focus on *correcting,* not on *people*)

37 **their** (focus on *sending*)

38 **him, her** In the first portion of the sentence, the focus is on the person she saw *(him),* with his action *(reading)* adding information about what he was doing. In the second portion of the sentence, the focus is on *saying,* so *her* is the appropriate pronoun.

39 **my, my** In both portions of the sentence, the focus is on the actions *(editing, pronouncing).*

Whaddya Know? Chapter 14 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Check each underlined pronoun. Correct any errors you find.

Three chaperones and (1) myself left school at 10:03 A.M. with 45 fifth-graders, all of (2) who were excited about (3) our visiting Adventure Land. The day (4) it passed without incident. My friend Jim and (5) me sat in the Adventure Land Bar & Grill for five hours while the youngsters visited Space Control Center, Pirate Mountain, and other overpriced rides. The students sitting at my table, Arthur and (6) him, objected to (7) me eating while (8) them were hungry. I explained that (9) whomever forgot to bring lunch from home was out of luck. At the end of the day, students returned to the bus and were frightened by (10) it making a lot of noise. (11) "Whom is in charge of maintenance?" asked Arthur. "Joe and (12) me don't want to die!" Quieting Joe and (13) he with one glance, I told the driver to ignore (14) they, and everyone except for (15) them cheered.

Answers to Chapter 14 Quiz

1. **I** Use *myself* only when the action doubles back or when you need strong emphasis. Here, neither situation exists, so the subject pronoun *I* is what you want.
2. **whom** The pronoun *whom* is the object of the preposition *of.* (The subject of *were excited* is *all.)*
3. **correct** The possessive pronoun *our* places the focus on *visiting*.
4. **no pronoun** You already have a subject, *day,* so you don't need a pronoun to replace it.
5. **I** This pronoun is the subject of *sat.*
6. **he** You need a subject pronoun because *Arthur and he* are appositives of *students*, the subject.
7. **my** The focus is on *eating*, so the possessive pronoun is what you want here.
8. **they** This pronoun is the subject of the verb *were.*
9. **whoever** This pronoun is the subject of the verb *forgot.*
10. **its** The focus is on *making a lot of noise*, so the possessive pronoun is correct here.
11. **Who** You need a subject pronoun to pair with the verb *is.*
12. **I** You need a subject pronoun for the verb, *do want.*
13. **him** You need an object pronoun to act as the object of the verbal *quieting.*
14. **them** This object pronoun is the object of the verbal *to ignore.*
15. **correct** The object pronoun *them* acts as object of the preposition *except for.*

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Making comparisons with adjectives and adverbs
- Examining longer descriptions
- Placing descriptions accurately

Chapter 15

Getting Specific: The Power of Descriptions

With the right nouns (names of persons, places, things, or ideas) and verbs (action or *being* words), you can build a pretty solid foundation in a sentence. The key to expressing your precise thoughts, though, is to build on that foundation by adding descriptions. In Chapter 6, I go over the most basic descriptors — single-word adjectives and adverbs. In this chapter, I tackle comparisons and other, longer descriptive elements, explaining what they are and how to put them in their proper place.

Creating Comparisons with Adjectives and Adverbs

Are you happier than your friends? Which cantaloupe is juiciest? Will the final exam be harder than the midterm? If you've ever asked yourself questions like these, you're officially human, because our brains are hard-wired to make comparisons. (If you've never made a comparison, I hope you enjoy your visit to planet Earth.)

Standard English has two ways of creating comparisons, but you can't use them together, and they're not interchangeable. Both rely on adjectives and adverbs. *Adjectives* describe nouns and pronouns; *adverbs* attach to verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. (See Chapter 6 for more information on these parts of speech.)

Ending it with -er or giving more to adjectives

Some adjectives form comparisons by adding *-er* or *-est* to the basic adjective. (To be clear: I'm using a hyphen here because the letters form a suffix, but don't insert a hyphen when you attach the suffix to a word.) Some rely on additional words. Take a close look at the italicized comparisons in these sentences:

> Roger's smile is *more evil* than Michael's, but Michael's giggle sounds *cuter.*
>
> Egbert searched for the *least expensive* car, believing that image is *less important* than having the *biggest* bank account.
>
> Betsy's *most recent* symphony was *less successful* than her *earlier* composition.
>
> Anna's *older* sister is an even *greater* mathematician than Anna herself, though Anna has the edge in geometry.
>
> Lulu's *latest* tattoo is *grosser* than her first, but Lulu, not the *shyest* girl in the class, is looking for the *most extreme* design for her next effort.

As you see, some comparisons rely on *-er* or *-est*, and some are expressed by adding *more*, *most*, *less*, or *least* to the quality being compared. How do you know which is correct? (Or, to use a comparison, how do you know which is *better?*) The dictionary is the final authority, and you should consult one if you're in doubt about a particular word. Here are some general guidelines:

- Add *-er* and *-est* to most single-syllable adjectives when the comparison is positive (showing that the first item being compared is greater or more intense).
- If the word already ends in the letter *e,* don't double the *e* by adding *-er* or *-est.* Just add *-r* or *-st.*
- *-Er* and *-est* endings are not usually appropriate for words ending in *-ly.*
- -Er and *-est* endings don't work for negative comparisons, when the second item being compared is greater or more intense.

Table 15-1 lists some adjectives that describe Lola with both the *-er* and *-est* forms. I include the context for each comparison.

Table 15-1 Single-Word Comparisons with Adjectives

Description of Lola	-ER Form	-EST Form
able	abler than Lulu	ablest of all the scientists in her lab
bald	balder than an eagle	baldest of the models
cute	cuter than an elf	cutest of all the assassins
edgy	edgier than a caffeine addict	edgiest of the atom splitters
friendly	friendlier than a grizzly bear	friendliest person on the block
glad	gladder than the loser	gladdest of all the lottery winners

TIP

Notice that when the last letter is *y*, you must often change the *y* to *i* before you tack on the ending.

Table 15-2 contains even more descriptions of Lola, this time with *more*, *less*, *most*, and *least* added to the adjective.

Table 15-2 Two-Word Adjective Comparisons

Description of Lola	More/Less Form	Most/Least Form
intelligent	more intelligent than her teacher	most intelligent of all the students
knock-kneed	less knock-kneed than an old sailor	least knock-kneed of all the beauty pageant contestants
magnificent	more magnificent than a sunset	most magnificent of all the ninjas
notorious	more notorious than a princess	most notorious of the florists
queenly	more queenly than Queen Elizabeth	most queenly of all the models
rigid	less rigid than a grammarian	least rigid of the traffic cops

TIP

These two tables give you a clue about another important comparison characteristic. Did you notice that the second column is always a comparison between Lola and *one other* person or thing? The addition of *-er* or *more* or *less* compares two things. This is the *comparative* form. In the last column of each chart, Lola is compared to a group with more than two members. When the group is larger than two, *-est* or *most* or *least* creates the comparison. This is the *superlative* form.

To sum up the rules:

- Use *-er* or *more/less* when comparing only two things. (comparative form)
- Use *-est* or *most/least* when singling out the extreme in a group that is larger than two. (superlative form)
- Never combine two comparison methods, such as *-er* and *more.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Insert the correct form of the adjective in parentheses.

(A) Egbert's design for the new refrigerator is _____ than the one his competitor hatched. (simple)

A. **simpler** You're comparing two refrigerators in this sentence, so the *-er* form is the one you want.

YOUR TURN

1. Helen is the _____ of all the women living in Troy, New York. (beautiful)
2. Helen, who works for an auto parts company, is hoping for a transfer to the Paris office, where the salaries are _____ (low) than in New York but the nightlife is _____. (lively)

3. Helen's boss praises her work, claiming that she is the _____ (efficient) and _____ (valuable) of all his employees.

4. His secretary, however, has evaluated everyone's work and concluded that Helen is _____ (slow) and _____ (accurate) than Natalie. "Natalie is amazing," the secretary declared, "and Helen is not."

5. Natalie prefers to type her purchase orders because she thinks the result is _____ (neat) and _____ (professional) than handwritten work.

6. The Paris job went to Natalie, and Helen is now in the _____ (nasty) mood imaginable, even _____ (annoyed) than she was when her desk caught fire.

7. "Natalie takes one business course," commented Helen, "and she thinks she's _____ (qualified) than I am. How dare she!"

8. "I, on the other hand, am the _____ (professional) of the three clerks in my office," Helen continued, "and I am absent _____ (often) than everyone else."

Creating comparisons with adverbs

Placing the correct form of an adverb in a comparison is (mostly) simpler than figuring out how to select the proper adjective form for comparisons. Adverbs nearly always rely on two-word comparisons, employing *less*, *least*, *more*, and *most.* Exceptions to this pattern include a few irregular forms (explained in the next section) and some single-syllable adverbs such as *soon*, *fast*, and others. Have a look at these examples:

Ben's company markets its apps *more effectively* than Elena's firm.

Of all the coders in her group, Rebecca works *most rapidly.*

Did you know that the apps on your phone run *less reliably* than advertised?

That fuel, compared with all the others, burns *least efficiently.*

Check out Table 15-3 for some additional examples of adverb comparisons.

Table 15-3 Comparisons with Adverbs

Description of Tim's Actions	More/Less Form (Comparative)	Most/Least Form (Superlative)
[sings] beautifully	more beautifully than the opera star	of all the singers in the karaoke bar, [Tim sings] most beautifully
[punches] forcefully	less forcefully than a two-year-old	of all the boxers in the Olympics, [Tim punches] least forcefully
[gives] generously	more generously than his sister	of all the billionaires, [Tim gives] most generously
[speaks] carefully	less carefully than most philosophers	of all the philosophers, [Tim speaks] least carefully

As with adjectives, the comparative form compares two things by adding *more* or *less.* The superlative form singles out the *most* or *least* in a group of more than two.

EXAMPLE

Q. Insert the appropriate comparative or superlative form of the word in parentheses.

Of all the chefs, Angie prepares her dishes _____ (quickly). Diners never wait long when she's cooking.

Unfortunately, Angie has a nervous temperament. Of all the chefs, Angie cooks _____ (confidently).

A. **most quickly, least confidently** When comparing more than two actions, *most* or *least* is required.

YOUR TURN

Insert the appropriate comparative or superlative form of the word in parentheses.

9. Alonzo markets his spicy sauces _____ (effectively) now than in the past, when he didn't advertise.

10. George, on the other hand, posts recipes on social media _____ (frequently) than he used to. He says he's too busy these days.

11. Of all the students in the business school, Jenna spends her advertising budget _____ (intelligently); she reaches the maximum number of customers for very little money.

12. Alonzo flatters the professor _____ (obviously) than Jenna does. His compliments are subtle, and hers are not.

13. "Professor Jahn grades _____ (harshly) of all the teachers," Alonzo might say. "He is not as generous as you."

Breaking the rules: Irregular comparisons

Whenever English grammar gives you rules that make sense, you know it's time for the irregulars to show up. Not surprisingly, then, you have to create a few common comparisons without *-er*, *-est*, *more/less*, or *most/least* — the regular comparisons I explain in the preceding sections.

Good, bad, well

I think of these as the "report card" comparisons because they evaluate quality. The first word of each line provides a description. The second word shows you that description when two elements are being compared — the comparative form. The last word is for comparisons of three or more — the superlative form.

- Good, better, best
- Bad, worse, worst
- Well, better, best

Time to visit *good*, *bad*, and *well* when they're on the job:

> Although Michael's trumpet solo is *good* and Roger's is *better,* Lulu's trumpet solo is the *best* of all. (adjectives)
>
> Lulu's habit of picking at her tattoo is *bad,* but Ralph's constant sneezing is *worse.* Egbert's tendency to crack jokes is the *worst* habit of all. (adjectives)
>
> Lola sings *well* in the shower, but Max sings *better* in the bathtub. Ralph croons *best* in the hot tub. (adverbs)

EXAMPLE

Q. Revise according to the rules of Standard English.

Who's the baddest kid in the playgroup?

Michael says that he is feeling more bad today than yesterday, but his statement must be considered in light of the fact that today is the algebra final.

A. **baddest → worst**

more bad → worse

Little, many, much

These are measuring comparisons, words that tell you about quantity. The first word on each line is the description, the second creates comparisons between two elements (the comparative form), and the last word applies to comparisons of three-plus elements (the superlative form).

- Little, less, least
- Many, more, most
- Much, more, most

Check out these words in action (actually, in sentences, but you know what I mean):

> Lulu likes a *little* grape jelly on her pizza, but Egbert prefers even *less* jelly because he doesn't like sweets. On that menu, Lulu likes chocolate pizza *least*. (*little, less* = adjectives, *least* = adverb)
>
> Roger spies on *many* occasions, but he seldom uncovers *more* secrets than his brother Alfred. Lola is the *most* successful spy of all. (adjectives)
>
> Anna has *much* interest in mathematics, though she's *more* devoted to her trumpet lessons. Of all the musical mathematicians I know, Anna is the *most* likely to succeed in both careers. (*much* = adjective, *more, most* = adverb)

TIP

Many or *much*? How do you decide which word is needed? Easy. *Many* precedes plurals of countable elements (*many crickets* or *shoes*, for example) and *much* precedes words that express qualities that can't be counted, though these qualities may sometimes be measured (*much noise* or *sugar*, for instance).

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Anna and Michael studied together for the algebra final, but Michael is least prepared.

(B) Anna and Michael studied together for the algebra final, but Michael is less prepared.

A. **B** *Less* is the word you want when comparing two elements.

YOUR TURN

Insert the correct form of the word in parentheses.

14. Edgar's scrapbook, which contains souvenirs from his trip to watch-repair camp, is the _____ (good) example of a boring book that I have ever seen.

15. Edgar talks about his souvenirs in _____ (much) detail than anyone would ever want to hear.

16. Bored listeners believe that the _____ (bad) item in his scrapbook is a set of gears, each of which Edgar can discuss for hours.

17. On the bright side, everyone knows that Edgar's watch repair skills are _____ (good) than the jewelers' downtown.

18. Although he is only nine years old, Edgar has the _____ (many) timepieces of anyone in his fourth-grade class, including the teacher.

19. The classroom clock functions fairly well, but Ms. Appleby relies on Edgar to make it run even _____ (well).

20. Edgar's scrapbook also contains three samples of watch oil; Edgar thinks Time-Ola Oil is the _____ (good) choice.

21. Unfortunately, Edgar's mom cleaned his room and threw out a few things. Now Edgar has _____ (little) oil than he needs.

Resolving incomplete and illogical comparisons

Making a correct comparison involves more than selecting the correct form. You also have to place the comparison in the proper context and check that the underlying logic is sound.

Incomplete comparison

Check out this sentence:

> Octavia screamed more chillingly.

Do you understand the meaning of this comparison? I doubt it. Take a look at these possible scenarios:

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. "Uh-oh," thought Max. "Yesterday she nearly burst my eardrum. If she screams more chillingly today, I'd better get my earplugs out."

or

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. Max, rushing to aid Carmen, whose scream of terror had turned his blood to ice, stopped dead. "Octavia sounds even worse," he thought. "I'd better go to her first."

or

> Octavia screamed more chillingly. "Please," said the director, "I know you're tired after rehearsing for ten hours. But if you're going to star in my horror movie, you'll have to put a little more oomph into it. Try again!"

See the problem? Unless you complete the comparison, readers are left with as many possibilities as they can imagine.

Here's another comparison with a fatal error. Can you spot the problem?

> Lulu loved skydiving more than Lola.

Need another hint? Read on:

> Lulu loved skydiving more than Lola. Lola sobbed uncontrollably as she realized that Lulu, whom she had always considered her best friend, was on the way to the airport instead of on the way to Lola's birthday party. What a disappointment!

or

> Lulu loved skydiving more than Lola. Lola was fine for the first 409 jumps, but then her enthusiasm began to flag. Lulu, on the other hand, was climbing into the airplane eagerly, as if it were her first jump of the day.

Because the comparison is incomplete, your reader can understand the comparison in two different ways, as the two stories illustrate. The rule here is simple: Don't omit words that are necessary to the meaning of the comparison.

> WRONG: Lulu loved skydiving more than Lola.
>
> RIGHT: Lulu loved skydiving more than she loved Lola.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Lulu loved skydiving more than Lola did.

REMEMBER

In making a comparison, be clear and complete.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) My cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly.

(B) My cat Agatha slapped her tail more quickly than Dorothy's cat.

A. **B** In sentence A, the reader is left asking *more quickly than what?* In sentence B, you know the two cats are being compared.

Illogical comparisons

What's wrong with the following sentence?

> Babe Ruth played better than any baseball player.

Before I continue, here's an explanation of that question for those of you who (gasp of pity) don't like baseball. Babe Ruth was one of the greatest baseball players of all time. The example removes Babe Ruth from the group of baseball players. To keep Babe Ruth in the sport, add *other:*

> Babe Ruth played better than any other baseball player.

The rule for comparisons here is simple: Use the word *other* or *else* when comparing someone or something to other members of the same group. Check out the following examples:

> WRONG: The star soprano of the Santa Lola Opera, Sarah Screema, sings louder than anyone in the cast.
>
> WHY IT'S WRONG: The sentence makes it clear that Sarah is in the cast, but the comparison implies that she's not in the cast. Illogical!
>
> RIGHT: The star soprano of the Santa Lola Opera, Sarah Screema, sings louder than anyone *else* in the cast.

Here's another problem. Can you find it?

> Max's nose is longer than Michael.

I should mention that Michael is tall — not skyscraper tall, but at least 6'2". Now do you see what's wrong with the sentence? Max's nose, a real tourist attraction for its length *and* width (not including the pimple at the end) is about four inches long. It is *not* longer than Michael. It is longer than Michael's *nose.*

> WRONG: Max's nose is longer than Michael.
>
> RIGHT: Max's nose is longer than Michael's nose.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Max's nose is longer than Michael's.

Here's the bottom line:

- Make sure your comparisons are logical.
- Check to see that you have compared what you want to compare — two things that are at least remotely related.
- If the first part of the comparison involves a possessive noun or pronoun (showing ownership), the second part of the comparison probably needs a possessive also. For more information on possessive nouns, see Chapter 17. For more information on possessive pronouns, see Chapter 4.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) The beagle is cuter than any breed of dog.

(B) The beagle is cuter than any other breed of dog.

A. **B** The grammar in sentence B is correct, but feel free to cross out *beagle* and substitute your favorite dog breed. By definition, a beagle is a dog, and sentence A implies that beagles aren't. The word *other* in sentence B returns beagles to dogdom.

Another common error involves creating comparisons out of absolutes — characteristics that *can't* be compared. If I ask you whether this chapter is more unique than the previous chapter, the answer is definitely not. Nothing can be *more unique.* The word *unique* means "one of a kind." Something is either one of a kind or it's not. No halfway point, no degrees of uniqueness, no — well, you get the idea. You can't compare something that's unique to anything but itself. Check out the following examples:

WRONG: The vase that Pete cracked was more unique than the Grecian urn.

ALSO WRONG: The vase that Pete cracked was very unique.

RIGHT: The vase that Pete cracked was unique.

ALSO RIGHT: The vase that Pete cracked was unique, as was the Grecian urn.

RIGHT AGAIN: The vase that Pete cracked was more unusual than the Grecian urn.

WHY IT'S RIGHT: *Unusual* is not an absolute term, so you can use it in comparisons.

The word *unique* is not unique. Other words share its absolute quality: *perfect*, *circular*, *dead*, and *eternal*, for example. Before you sign off on a comparison, be sure it's logical. You can't compare absolute qualities, but you can compare how close people or things come to having those qualities.

TIP

One more word causes trouble in comparisons: *equally.* You hear the expression *equally as* quite frequently. You don't need the *as* because the word *equally* contains the idea of comparison. For example:

WRONG: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is *equally as* guilty because he stole as many doughnuts as she did.

RIGHT: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is *equally* guilty because he stole as many doughnuts as she did.

ALSO RIGHT: Roger got a lighter sentence than Lulu, but he is as guilty as she is because he stole the same number of doughnuts.

EXAMPLE

Q. Find the correct sentence.

(A) Michael's recent drama is even more unique than his last play.

(B) Michael's recent drama is even more unusual than his last play.

A. **B** Sentence A incorrectly compares an absolute *(unique).* In sentence B, *more unusual* expresses a correct comparison.

YOUR TURN

Find the correct sentence in each pair.

22 **(A)** "There are more fish in the sea," commented the shark as she searched for her posse.

(B) "There are more fish in the sea than on a restaurant menu," commented the shark as she searched for her posse.

23 **(A)** Mr. Trout, who is wealthier than a tech titan, spends a lot of money on waterproof smartphones.

(B) Mr. Trout, who is wealthier, spends a lot of money on waterproof smartphones.

24 **(A)** The octopus plays more video games, often opposing himself with different arms.

(B) The octopus plays more video games than any land animal, often opposing himself with different arms.

25 **(A)** The jokes in this exercise are more unique than the jokes in Chapter 18.

(B) However, the answers are more unusual in Chapter 18.

26 **(A)** The tip of a mermaid's tail is unique because it's circular.

(B) A mermaid's tail is equally as circular as a shark's fin.

27 **(A)** These marine jokes are so uninteresting that I may volunteer to be shark bait.

(B) These marine jokes are so uninteresting.

28 **(A)** The average pigeon is smarter than any animal.

(B) The average pigeon is smarter than any other animal.

29 **(A)** I once saw a woman on a New York street shampooing her hair in the rain, an experience that was weirder than anything I've seen in New York City.

(B) On a New York street, I once saw a woman shampooing her hair in the rain, an experience that was weirder than anything else I've seen in New York City.

30 **(A)** Singing a shower song with a thick New York accent, she appeared saner than city residents.

(B) Singing a shower song with a thick New York accent, she appeared saner than other city residents.

31 **(A)** A tourist gawking through the window of a sightseeing bus was more surprised than neighborhood residents on the street.

(B) A tourist gawking through the window of a sightseeing bus was more surprised than other neighborhood residents on the street.

On Location: Placing Descriptions Correctly

In some languages, word order isn't particularly important. You can write the equivalent of "cat dog bit" and the form of the word indicates which animal is the biter and which is the victim. English words have fewer forms (nice, right?), but location matters. To find out how to place every descriptive word and statement accurately, read on.

TIP

Descriptions can be a single word (an adjective or an adverb), but many are longer. In grammar terms, they can be *phrases* and *clauses.* You don't need to label a description in order to put it where it belongs. Logic is enough!

Troubling singles

A few single-word descriptions pack a huge punch when it comes to meaning. Specifically, when you see *even*, *almost*, *nearly*, *only*, or *just*, watch out! Errors pop up if they're in the wrong spot.

Placing "even"

Even is one of the sneaky descriptors that can land any place in a sentence — and change the meaning of what you're saying. Take a look at this example:

> It's two hours before the grand opening of the school show. Lulu and George have been rehearsing for weeks. They know all the dances, and Lulu has only one faint bruise left from George's tricky elbow maneuver. Suddenly, George's evil twin, Lester, mad with jealousy, "accidentally" places his foot in George's path. George is down! His ankle is sprained! What will happen to the show?

- Possibility 1: Lulu shouts, "We can still go on! *Even Lester* knows the dances."
- Possibility 2: Lulu shouts, "We can still go on! Lester knows *even the dances."*

What's going on here? These two statements look almost the same, but they aren't. Here's what each one means:

- Possibility 1: Lulu surveys the 15 boys gathered around George. She knows that any one of them could step in at a moment's notice. After all, the dances are easy. *Even Lester,* the clumsiest boy in the class, knows the dances. If *even Lester* can perform the role, it will be a piece of cake for everyone else.
- Possibility 2: The whole group looks at Lester almost as soon as George hits the floor. Yes, Lester knows the words. He's been reciting George's lines for weeks now, helping George learn the part. Yes, Lester can sing; everyone's heard him. But what about the dances? There's no time to teach him. Just then, Lester begins to twirl around the stage. Lulu sighs with relief. Lester knows *even the dances.* The show will go on!

Got it? *Even* is a description and describes the words that follow it. To put it another way, *even* begins a comparison:

- Possibility 1: *even* Lester (as well as everyone else)
- Possibility 2: *even* the dances (as well as the songs and words)

So here's the rule. Put *even* at the beginning of the comparison implied in the sentence.

Placing "almost" and "nearly"

Almost and *nearly* are also tricky, as you see in these examples:

> Last night, Lulu wrote for *almost* (or *nearly*) an hour and then went rollerblading.

and

> Last night, Lulu *almost* (or *nearly*) wrote for an hour and then went rollerblading.

In the first sentence, Lulu wrote for 55 minutes and then stopped. In the second sentence, Lulu intended to write, but every time she sat down at the computer, she remembered that she hadn't watered the plants, called her best friend, Lola, made a sandwich, and so forth. After an hour of wasted time and without one word on the screen, she grabbed her rollerblades and left.

Almost and *nearly* begin the comparison. Lulu *almost wrote* (or *nearly wrote*), but she didn't. Or Lulu wrote for *almost an hour* (or *nearly an hour*), but not for a *whole hour.* In deciding where to put these words, add the missing ideas and see whether the position of the word makes sense.

Placing "only" and "just"

If only the word *only* were simpler to understand! If everyone thought about the word *just* for *just* a minute. Like the other descriptors in this section, *only* and *just* change the meaning of the sentence every time their positions are altered, as you see in these examples:

> *Only* (or *just*) Lex went to Iceland. (No one else went.)
>
> Lex *only* went to Iceland. (He didn't do anything else.)
>
> Lex *just* went to Iceland. (The ink on his passport is still wet. *Just* may mean *recently.*)
>
> Lex went *only* (or *just*) to Iceland. (He skipped Antarctica.)

Many people place *only* in front of a verb and assume that it applies to another idea in the sentence. I see T-shirts all the time with slogans like "My dad went to NYC and only bought me a lousy T-shirt." The *only* should be in front of *a lousy T-shirt* because the sentence implies that Dad should have bought more — the Empire State Building, perhaps. The original wording describes a terrible trip: Ride in from the airport, buy a T-shirt, and return home.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) I only want one reindeer for my trip to the North Pole, not all of them.

(B) I want only one reindeer for my trip to the North Pole, not all of them.

A. **B** *Only* limits the number of reindeer, not the action *(want).*

YOUR TURN

Which sentence is correct?

32 **(A)** Just Allen attended the opera; he didn't have time for the party afterward.

(B) Allen attended just the opera; he didn't have time for the party afterward.

33 **(A)** My Uncle Fred pays taxes only when he's in the mood or when the IRS serves an arrest warrant.

(B) My Uncle Fred only pays taxes when he's in the mood or when the IRS serves an arrest warrant.

34 **(A)** Because she was celebrating an important birthday, Ms. Jonge gave us just 30 minutes of homework.

(B) Because she was celebrating an important birthday, just Ms. Jonge gave us 30 minutes of homework.

35 **(A)** The first task nearly seemed impossible: to write an essay about the benefits of homework.

(B) The first task seemed nearly impossible: to write an essay about the benefits of homework.

36 **(A)** After I'd almost written two pages, my phone beeped, and I put my pen down.

(B) After I'd written almost two pages, my phone beeped, and I put my pen down.

37 **(A)** I figured that even Ms. Jonge, the meanest teacher on the planet, would understand the need to take a break.

(B) I even figured that Ms. Jonge, the meanest teacher on the planet, would understand the need to take a break.

Misplaced descriptions

One word to the left or two to the right can't matter much, right? Wrong. To see why, take a look at this sentence:

> Lulu put a ring in her pierced nose that she bought last week.

The describing words *that she bought last week* follow the word *nose.* The way the sentence is now, *that she bought last week* describes *nose.* The internet sells plenty of unusual items, but no noses (yet), though I imagine a website for plastic surgeons offering discount nose jobs is out there somewhere.

Here's the correction:

> In her pierced nose Lulu put a ring that she bought last week.

Now the description *(that she bought last week)* follows *ring*, which Lulu really did buy last week.

WARNING

If you encounter a misplaced description in your writing, be sure that your revision doesn't create another error. Here's an example of a faulty revision, still working from the sentence about Lulu's nose:

> Lulu put a ring that she had bought last week in her pierced nose.

In this version, Lulu's shopping took place inside her nose, which is rather large but not spacious enough to contain a jewelry store. The description *in her pierced nose* tells you where something happened. The sentence has two verbs: *put* and *bought.* The description describes the nearest action, which, in the faulty revision, is *bought.* In the true correction, *in her pierced nose* is at the beginning of the sentence, closer to *put* than to *bought.*

Here's another description that has wandered too far from home:

> Lulu also bought a genuine, 1950-model, pink Hoopadoop toy with a credit card.

According to news reports, toddlers and dogs have received credit card applications, but toys have not. Yet the sentence says that the Hoopadoop toy comes with a credit card. How to fix it? Move the description:

> With a credit card Lulu also bought a genuine, 1950-model, pink Hoopadoop toy.

Granted, people can often figure out the meaning of a sentence that has a poorly placed description. But chances are your reader or listener will pause a moment to unravel what you've said and then space out while reading the next couple of sentences.

REMEMBER

The rule concerning description placement is simple: Place the description as close as possible to the word it describes.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Roger put the paper into his pocket with nuclear secrets written on it.

(B) Roger put the paper with nuclear secrets written on it into his pocket.

A. **B** The paper, not the pocket, has nuclear secrets written on it!

YOUR TURN

Which sentence is correct?

38 **(A)** Anna pedaled to the mathematics contest on her ten-speed bicycle with a complete set of differential equations.

(B) With a complete set of differential equations, Anna pedaled on her ten-speed bicycle to the mathematics contest.

39 **(A)** Julie passed the eye examination administered by a very near-sighted clerk with flying colors.

(B) With flying colors, Julie passed the eye examination administered by a very near-sighted clerk.

40 **(A)** The written test inquired about maneuvers for cars skidding on ice.

(B) The written test for cars skidding on ice inquired about maneuvers.

41 **(A)** About a week after the written portion of the exam, the Department of Motor Vehicles sent a letter giving Julie an appointment for the road test lacking sufficient postage.

(B) About a week after the written portion of the exam, the Department of Motor Vehicles sent a letter lacking sufficient postage and giving Julie an appointment for the road test.

Just hanging out: Danglers

Descriptions must have something to describe. This idea seems simple, and it *is* simple when the description is a single word. You're not likely to say

> I want to buy a red.

when you're putting together a Santa Claus outfit for a holiday party. Instead, you automatically declare:

> I want to buy a red suit.

In the preceding sentence, *red* describes *suit.* However, two types of descriptions tend to cause as many problems as a double date with your ex: participles and infinitives. These descriptions look like verbs, but they don't function as verbs. In grammar terms, they're known as *verbals.* (You can find out more about verbals in Chapter 24.)

In this section, I show you common mistakes with participles and infinitives. Don't worry about the names. Just place these descriptions properly.

First up is participles. Read this sentence:

> Munching a buttered sausage, the cholesterol really builds up.

As you see, the sentence begins with a verb form, *munching,* but *munching* isn't the verb in the sentence. It's a *participle* — a verb form that describes. (The true verb in the sentence is *builds.*) But participles have to describe something or someone. *Munching* must be tacked onto a muncher. So who is munching? You? Egbert? Everyone in the local diet club? In this sentence, no one is munching. Descriptive verb forms that have nothing appropriate to describe are called *danglers* or *dangling modifiers.* To correct the sentence, add a muncher:

> Munching a buttered sausage, Egbert smiled and waved to his cardiologist.

TIP

In sentences beginning with a descriptive verb form, such as a participle, the subject must perform the action mentioned in the descriptive verb form. In the sample sentence, *Egbert* is the subject of the sentence. The sentence begins with a descriptive verb form, *munching a buttered sausage.* Thus, *Egbert* is the one who is munching. (For more information on identifying the subject of a sentence, see Chapter 10.) If you want the cardiologist to munch, say

> Munching a buttered sausage, the cardiologist returned Egbert's wave.

Here's another example:

> Sitting on the park bench, the soaring space shuttle delighted the little boy.

Really? The space shuttle is sitting on a bench and soaring at the same time? Defies the laws of physics, don't you think? Try again:

> Sitting on the park bench, the little boy was delighted by the soaring space shuttle.

Now *little boy* is the subject of the sentence, so the introductory description applies to him, not to the *space shuttle.* Another correction may be

> The soaring space shuttle delighted the little boy who was sitting on the park bench.

Now the descriptive words *sitting on the park bench* are placed next to *little boy,* who is the one sitting and being delighted by the soaring space shuttle.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Skidding over the icy pavement, the old oak tree couldn't escape the speeding sports car.

(B) Skidding over the icy pavement, the speeding sports car slammed into the old oak tree.

A. **B** In choice A, the *old oak tree* is skidding. Problem! In choice B, the *speeding sports car* is skidding. No problem! Well, no grammar problem, anyway. The traffic cop sees the situation a little differently.

YOUR TURN

Which sentence is correct?

42 **(A)** Sailing swiftly across the sea, Samantha's boat was a beautiful sight.

(B) Sailing swiftly across the sea, the sight of the beautiful boat made Samantha sob.

43 **(A)** To enjoy a good cup of coffee, a clean coffeepot is essential.

(B) To enjoy a good cup of coffee, you should use a clean coffeepot.

44 **(A)** While designing her latest tattoo, Lulu thought it would be a good idea to attach a small camera to the frames of her glasses.

(B) While designing her latest tattoo, a small camera attached to the frames of her glasses seemed like a good idea.

45 **(A)** Covered in rhinestones, Lulu's glasses made a fashion statement.

(B) Covered in rhinestones, Lulu made a fashion statement with her glasses.

Avoiding confusing descriptions

Equal opportunity matters, but you don't want a description to have an equal opportunity to describe two things. Take a look at the following example:

> The teacher that Roger annoyed often assigned detention to him.

What does the sentence mean? Did Roger *often annoy* the teacher? (I'm a teacher, and Roger would certainly annoy me. His burps alone . . . but back to grammar.) Perhaps the teacher *often assigned* detention to Roger. (Yup. Sounds like something Roger's teacher would do.)

Do you see the problem with the sample sentence? It has two distinct, possible meanings. Because *often* is between *annoying* and *assigning*, it may be linked to either of those two actions. The sentence violates a basic rule of description: All descriptions must be clear. Never place a description where it may have two possible meanings.

Fix the sentence by moving *often* so that it is closer to one of the verbs, thus showing the reader which of two words *often* describes. Here are two correct versions, each with a different meaning:

> The teacher that Roger often annoyed assigned detention to him.

In this sentence, *often* is closer to *annoyed.* Thus, *often* describes *annoyed.* The sentence communicates to the reader that after 514 burps, the teacher lost her temper and assigned detention to Roger.

Here's a second possibility:

> The teacher that Roger annoyed assigned detention to him often.

Now *often* is closer to *assigned.* The reader understands that *often* describes *assigned.* The sentence tells the reader that the teacher vowed "not to take anything from that little brat" and assigned detention to Roger every day of the school year, including winter break and Presidents' Day.

TIP

Sometimes you can clarify a confusing description by adding commas. Here's an unclear sentence:

> The pig chewing on pig chow happily burped and made us all run for gas masks.

You don't know if the pig is *chewing happily* or *burping happily.* Commas make the meaning clear:

> The pig, chewing on pig chow happily, burped and made us all run for gas masks.

I have to warn you about the comma correction. You can't always throw in a comma and fix a problem. In fact, sometimes you create an additional mistake by adding a comma! Check out Chapter 19 for comma advice, or fix the sentence by moving the description.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct or incorrect? You decide.

The senator speaking last week voted against the Clarity Bill.

A. **Incorrect** The expression *last week* could apply to either *speaking* or *voted.*

YOUR TURN

Which sentence is correct?

46 **(A)** Running a red light once earned a stiff fine.

(B) Running a red light earned a stiff fine at one time.

47 **(A)** Backing away from the traffic cop swiftly caused a reaction.

(B) Backing swiftly away from the traffic cop caused a reaction.

48 **(A)** The punishment the judge imposed drew criticism from the press quickly.

(B) The punishment the judge imposed quickly drew criticism from the press.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **most beautiful** In choosing the top or bottom of a group of three or more, go for the superlative form. For long words, that means attaching *most* to the adjective.
2. **lower, livelier** The comparative form is the way to go because two cities, Paris and New York, are compared. One-syllable words such as *low* form comparatives with the addition of *-er.* Most two-syllable words rely on *more* or *less,* but *lively* is an exception.
3. **most efficient, most valuable** In choosing the top or bottom rank from a group of three or more, go for the superlative. *Efficient and valuable,* both long words, take *most* or *least.* In the context of this sentence, *most* makes sense.
4. **slower, less accurate** Comparing two elements — in this case, *Helen* and *Natalie* — calls for the comparative form. The one-syllable word takes *-er,* and the longer word relies on *less.*
5. **neater, more professional** Here the sentence compares typing to handwriting, two elements, so the comparative is correct. The one-syllable word becomes comparative with the addition of *-er,* and the two-syllable word turns into a two-word comparison.
6. **nastiest, more annoyed** In the world of imagined moods, Natalie's nasty mood is on top. Therefore, you need the superlative form. The second comparison compares two moods — her current mood and her mood when her desk burned. The comparative form of *annoyed* relies on *more.*
7. **more qualified** Two people are being compared here (Helen and Natalie), so go for the comparative form. Because *qualified* is a long word, attaching *more* is the way to go.
8. **most professional, less often** Choosing one out of three in the first part of the sentence calls for superlative. In the second part of the sentence, the speaker is comparing herself to every other employee, one at a time. Therefore, comparative is appropriate. Because the speaker is bragging, *less often* makes sense.
9. **more effectively** To compare two time periods, use *more.*
10. **less frequently** *Less* is what you need to compare actions in two time periods.
11. **most intelligently** Jenna is on top, so *most* is the word you need.
12. **less obviously** This is a comparison of two elements, so *less* is the appropriate choice.
13. **most harshly** The grading done by Professor Jahn is at the extreme, so *most* is correct.
14. **best** Once you mention the top or bottom experience of a lifetime, you're in the superlative column. *Best* is the word you want.
15. **more** Two elements are being compared here: the level of detail Edgar uses and the level of detail people want. When comparing two elements, the comparative form rules.
16. **worst** The superlative form singles out the extreme (in this case, the most boring) item in the scrapbook.
17. **better** The sentence pits Edgar's skills against the skills of one group *(the downtown jewelers).* Even though the group has several members, the comparison is between two elements — Edgar and the group — so comparative form is what you want.

18 **most** The superlative form singles out the extreme — in this case, Edgar's timepiece collection, which included a raw-potato clock until it rotted.

19 **better** The comparative deals with two states — how the clock runs before Edgar gets his hands on it and how it runs after.

20 **best** To single out the top or bottom rank from a group of more than two, go for the superlative form.

21 **less** The comparison is between what he has and what he needs — two items, so go for the comparative form.

22 **B** The key here is to define the term *more. More than* what? Sentence A doesn't answer that question, so it's incomplete. Sentence B adds *than on a restaurant menu* to complete the comparison.

23 **A** The problem with option B is that you can't tell what or who is being compared to Mr. Trout. The missing element of the comparison must be supplied, as it is in sentence A *(tech titan)*.

24 **B** Sentence A begins the comparison nicely *(more video games)* and then flubs the ending (*than* what? *than* who?). Sentence B supplies an ending — *than any land animal* — so the comparison is complete.

25 **B** *Unique* can't be compared, because it's an absolute term. *Unusual,* which appears in sentence B, can be compared.

26 **A** Two absolute words in sentence A *(unique, circular)* are treated as absolutes, so this sentence is correct. Sentence B contains *equally as,* which isn't correct in Standard English. The correct expression drops the *as.*

27 **A** The word *so* begins a comparison, but only sentence A finishes it, adding *that I may volunteer to be shark bait.* ***Note:*** In informal situations, option B is acceptable, using *so* as an intensifier.

28 **B** A pigeon is an animal, so sentence A doesn't make sense. Sentence B considers the pigeon in relation to other animals, so it's correct.

29 **B** The *else* in option B creates a logical comparison between this (true!) event and other strange things I've seen in New York City. Because option A lacks *else,* it's illogical.

30 **B** If she has a New York accent, she's probably a city resident. Without the word *other,* as in option A, you're saying that she's saner than herself. Not possible! Option B repairs the logic by inserting *other.*

31 **A** The tourist isn't a *neighborhood resident* and therefore should be compared to one or more of them without the word *other.* In option B, the word *other* is unnecessary and illogical.

32 **B** In this sentence, *the opera* and the *party* are the focus, so *just* should precede *the opera,* not *Allen.*

33 **A** *Only* describes the conditions that prompt Fred to pay, so it should precede those conditions *(when he's in the mood or when the IRS serves an arrest warrant).*

34 **A** *Just* limits the amount of homework, so choice A makes sense. Choice B lacks logic because the sentence mentions *she (Ms. Jonge)* and no other teachers.

35 **B** In this sentence you're not limiting *seemed.* Instead, you're making a comment on how close to *impossible* the task seemed.

36 **B** *Almost* limits the number of pages, not the act of writing.

37 **A** *Even* should attach to *Ms. Jonge* because the sentence evaluates her as one of a group of teachers.

38 **B** In sentence A, the bicycle has ten speeds, two tires, and a set of equations — not very useful in climbing hills and swerving to avoid taxis! The description must be close to *pedaled*, as it is in choice B.

39 **B** *With flying colors* means "easily," which describes *passed*, not *clerk*. Place it at the beginning of the sentence and that's exactly what it does.

40 **A** The description *(for cars skidding on ice)* describes *maneuvers*, not *test*.

41 **B** The *letter* is *lacking sufficient postage*, not the *road test*.

42 **A** *Sailing swiftly across the sea* describes Samantha's boat. Samantha's boat is performing that action. Sentence B is wrong because in sentence B, *sight*, the subject, is sailing. (And, of course, a *sight* can't sail.)

43 **B** Choice A sounds correct, but when you stop to think, no one is enjoying *a good cup of coffee*. Insert *you* or *caffeine addicts* or some other person.

44 **A** *While designing her latest tattoo* describes *Lulu*, not *camera*.

45 **A** The *glasses* are *covered in rhinestones*, not *Lulu*.

46 **B** In sentence A, *once* could refer to a single traffic mistake or to a single time period when stiff fines were the punishment. Sentence B clearly expresses the second meaning.

47 **B** In sentence A, *swiftly* could refer to either the *backing away* or the timing of the cop's reaction. Sentence B attaches *swiftly* to *backing away*.

48 **A** In sentence B, *quickly* could refer to the judge's action or to the reaction of the press. Sentence A clearly attaches the descriptive word to the reaction of the press.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 15 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge of the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

As you breathe deeply, check out this yoga instruction manual, which, my lawyer begs me to mention, does *not* describe real postures that a normal human body can achieve. Do *not* try these positions at home, but *do* check every underlined portion for unclear or misplaced descriptions and comparisons. Mark them correct or incorrect.

> Deciding which yoga posture to learn, (1) Greeting Turtle or the One-Legged Grammar Cross should be considered. If you (2) only learn one yoga posture, Greeting Turtle should be it. (3) Even beginners can do it, sometimes (4) more well than experienced athletes. In fact, Greeting Turtle is the (5) easiest.
>
> To form Greeting Turtle, (6) the mat should extend from knees to armpits (7) freshly laundered and dried to fluffiness. (8) Bend the right knee up to the nose, as you relax the left ankle (9) more completely. Bend the knee (10) least sharply and then straighten the leg again. Now, for the (11) most unique aspect of this yoga posture, raise both arms to the sky and bless the yoga posture (12) that is blue. Learning this posture (13) well prepares you for (14) harder movements in yoga, the (15) better of all exercises.

Answers to Chapter 15 Quiz

1. **incorrect** The description that begins the sentence *(Deciding which yoga posture to learn)* should attach to the person deciding, not to the postures *(Greeting Turtle and One-Legged Grammar Cross)*. Substitute *you should consider* or something similar.
2. **incorrect** *Only* should precede *one yoga posture* because it limits the number, not the activity *(learn)*.
3. **correct** The comparison is between *beginners* and *experienced athletes*, so *even* is properly placed.
4. **incorrect** The word you want is *better.*
5. **incorrect** *Easiest* in what context? The comparison is incomplete.
6. **incorrect** The description that begins the sentence is attached to *the mat*, but *the mat* isn't forming Greeting Turtle. Reword so that *you* or *the student* forms Greeting Turtle, not *the mat.*
7. **incorrect** The armpits aren't *freshly laundered and dried to fluffiness* — *the mat* is. Move the description to follow *the mat.*
8. **correct** Not every sentence that begins with a verb form is incorrect! This one is a command to *you* and is correct.
9. **incorrect** *Complete* is an absolute — no comparisons allowed!
10. **incorrect** *Least* is the word when you're comparing one thing to more than two others. Here, the instructions refer to only two knee positions, so *less sharply* is what you want.
11. **incorrect** *Unique* is an absolute and can't be compared.
12. **incorrect** The *sky* is blue, not the *posture.* Move the description to follow *sky*.
13. **incorrect** *Well* is located between two actions — *learning* and *prepares* — and thus could apply to either. *Well* should follow *you.*
14. **correct** Two things are being compared — Greeting Turtle and a group of other movements. The comparative form is correct.
15. **incorrect** Yoga is singled out from a group, so *best* is the word you want.

5 Spelling, Punctuation, and Capitalization

In This Unit . . .

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Taming Spelling Demons
Checking the Dictionary for Spelling Help
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
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?4U: Cn U AbbreV8?
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 21 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 21 Quiz

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Exploring spelling rules
- Avoiding common spelling errors
- Improving spelling with computer programs and the dictionary

Chapter 16

Becoming a Better ~~Speler~~ Speller

If you see a "missteak" *(mistake)* when you're reading, you may be so distracted that you miss the writer's message. That's why you should pay attention to proper spelling. Because it follows few rules — and breaks even those some of the time — English spelling is hard. Nevertheless, with a little practice and perhaps some help from a computer program or the dictionary, you can perfect your spelling.

In this chapter, I explain some spelling rules and review words that puzzle many writers. Finally, I tell you how computer programs, smartphone apps, and the dictionary can help you become a champion speller.

Following the Rules of English Spelling

In some wonderful languages, what you see is what you say. You see a pair of letters in many different words, and you say them the same way, every time, because the written form follows strict rules. Sadly, English is *not* one of those logical languages. Read these words aloud:

th<u>ough</u>t

d<u>ough</u>

d<u>ou</u>bt

The letters *ou* appear in every word. In *thought*, the *ou* sounds like *aw*. In *dough*, the same letters sound like *oh*. In *doubt*, the pair sounds like *ow*. Crazy, right?

You often have to memorize words or look up their correct spelling. However, English does follow some patterns. Not many, but some! In this section, I explain a few rules that help you write correctly.

Changing Y to I

One spelling rule involves words ending in *y* when you're adding *s* or *es* to make a plural or when you're adding a suffix. (A *suffix* is one or more letters added to the end of a word to create a new word.) The key is the letter just before the *y*. If it's a vowel (*a, e, i, o, u*), attach the suffix and you're done. If the letter is not a vowel, change the *y* to *i* before attaching the suffix. Some examples:

monkey → monkeys (vowel precedes *y*)

city → cities (consonant precedes *y*)

happy → happiest (consonant precedes *y*)

comply → compliance (consonant precedes *y*)

try → tried (consonant precedes *y*)

joy → joyful (vowel precedes *y*)

EXAMPLE

Q. Write the plural of each word: turkey, sky, prayer, butterfly.

A. **turkeys, skies, prayers, butterflies**

Q. Add the letters in parentheses to the base word, changing the base word as needed.

bounty (ful)

terrify (ing)

baby (ish)

fly (er)

try (ed)

A. **bountiful, terrifying, babyish, flier, tried**

YOUR TURN

In this minitable, you find some correctly spelled words and a couple of mistakes. If you see a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column.

Word	Correct? Proper Spelling?
1. bunnies	
2. dutys	
3. lonelyness	
4. donkeys	
5. prettier	
6. tinyest	

I before E

Do you know this little rhyme?

> *I* before *E*
>
> except after *C*
>
> unless sounded like *A*
>
> as in *neighbor* and *weigh*

The rhyme explains a spelling rule:

- **The letter *i* comes before the letter *e* most of the time.**
- **After the letter *c,* place the letter *e* before the letter *i.***
- **If the letters *e* and *i* combine to sound like the letter *a,* the *e* comes before the *i.***

WARNING

Some words don't follow this rule. Here are a few: *ancient, weird, science, efficient, fancied.* If you're unsure how to spell a word, check the dictionary.

EXAMPLE

Q. Write the word defined as "your sister's daughter."

A. **niece** The letter *i* generally precedes the letter *e*.

Q. Write the word defined as "the opposite of *give.*"

A. **receive** After the letter *c*, the letter *e* precedes the letter *i.*

Q. Write the word defined as "measure with a scale."

A. **weigh** When the letters *e* and *i* combine to sound like the letter *a*, the letter *e* precedes the letter *i.*

YOUR TURN

In this minitable, you find some correctly spelled words and a couple of mistakes. If you see a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column.

Word	Correct? Proper Spelling?
7. acheive	
8. shield	
9. breif	
10. their	
11. thief	
12. nieghbor	

Double letters

When you add *-ed* or *-ing* to a one-syllable word with a short vowel that ends with a consonant, double the consonant. If you're adding these endings to a one-syllable word with a long vowel, don't double the final consonant.

EXAMPLE

Q. Add the suffix *-ing* to the word *dot.*

A. **dotting** The word *dot* is a one-syllable word that ends with a consonant, *t.* When you add *-ing,* you must double the consonant, *t,* because the *o* is short.

Q. Add the suffix *-ed* to the word *bag.*

A. **bagged** The word *bag* is a one-syllable word that ends with a consonant, *g.* When you add *-ed,* you must double the consonant, *g,* because the *a* is short.

Q. Add the suffix *-ing* to the word *say.*

A. **saying** The vowel *a* in *say* is long. Don't double the final consonant when you add *-ing.*

Sometimes you double the final consonant in longer words, too, when you add *-ed* or *-ing.* Read these words. Pay attention to the sound of the words in the first column:

Original	With -ed or -ing
begin	begi<u>nn</u>ing
occur	occu<u>rr</u>ed
commit	commi<u>tt</u>ing
control	contro<u>ll</u>ed

When you say the original words aloud, you hear that the accent — the stress — is on the last part of the word. You say

"be-GIN," not "BE-gin"

In this situation, check the last vowel sound. If it's short, double the final consonant when you attach *ed* or *ing.*

EXAMPLE

Q. Add *ed* to the word *contain.*

A. **contained** The word is pronounced "con-TAIN," with the stress on the second syllable. The vowel sound there is long, so the consonant *n* isn't doubled when you add *ed.*

Q. Add *ing* to *recall.*

A. **recalling** The word is pronounced "re-CALL," with the stress on the second syllable. The vowel sound is short, so the consonant *l* is doubled when you add *ing.*

YOUR TURN

In this minitable, you find some correctly spelled words and a couple of mistakes. If you see a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column.

Word	Correct? Proper Spelling?
13. claimmed	
14. planned	
15. spinning	
16. puting	
17. runing	
18. beged	

WARNING

Double letters cause trouble in other situations, too. See "Taming Spelling Demons," later in this chapter, for more information.

Dropping the silent E

Many English words end with a silent *e.* If you skip that last letter, you may end up with a completely different word. *Hate* becomes *hat*, and *hope* turns into *hop.* If you say those words aloud, you notice that the silent *e* is a signal that the vowel before it is long. (A *long* vowel is pronounced like the name of the letter.) Don't forget to place the silent *e* where it's needed! *Hope* has a long *o*, and *hop*, a short *o.*

The spelling rule for words ending with a silent *e* has two parts:

» Keep the silent *e* if you add letters to the end of the word and if the first added letter is a consonant (any letter except *a, e, i, o,* or *u*):

- hate → hate<u>ful</u>
- pale → pale<u>ness</u>
- manage → manage<u>ment</u>

» Drop the silent *e* if you add letters to the end of the word and if the first added letter is a vowel *(a, e, i, o,* or *u):*

- arrive → arriving
- pure → purity
- nerve → nervous

EXAMPLE

Q. Add *-ly* to *time.*

A. **timely** The *i* in *time* is long, and the first letter you're adding is a consonant, *l.* Don't drop the silent *e.*

Q. Add *-ing* to *time.*

A. **timing** The *i* in *time* is long, and the first letter you're adding is a vowel. Drop the silent *e.*

I doubt you'll be surprised to hear that the silent *e* rule has exceptions. Here's one:

dye (to change the color of cloth) — dyeing

As always, if you're unsure how to spell a word, check the dictionary.

YOUR TURN

See how well you know the silent *e.* If you see a misspelled word in the first column, write the correct spelling in the second column. To help you, the words you're looking at are in sentences and underlined.

Word	Correct? Proper Spelling?
19. A tiger's bit can kill you.	
20. Mary is givving a concert this evening.	
21. Haveing a cold is miserable.	
22. Andrew was driving when he hite that tree.	
23. If the soap is pur, it will float.	
24. Play nicely with the other children!	

Taming Spelling Demons

Spelling demons aren't supernatural monsters. They're words that often trick writers. With a little care, though, you will always spell these words correctly.

How does the word end?

Read this paragraph. Look closely at the underlined words:

> Sandy was absent from school because she went to see the doctor. She was not ready for the grammar test. Sandy's mom, a professor, wrote a note to the teacher. "Please excuse my daughter from this exam," she wrote.

Every underlined word ends in *ar*, *er*, or *or*. These ending letters are different, but when you say the words aloud, the endings sound the same. (Isn't English delightful? Three ways to spell the same sound! Three spelling problems!) When you write these words, be careful. Here's a minitable to help you remember.

AR Endings	ER Endings	OR Endings
grammar	lawyer	doctor
scholar	plumber	tutor
dollar	builder	actor
collar	better	mentor
polar	counter	bachelor
burglar	writer	author
circular	kinder	director
molar	anger	editor
similar	climber	creator
spectacular	gangster	favor

TIP

The word *kinder* is a comparison: "Mary is *kinder* than Tom." When you're making a comparison, the word usually ends with *er*.

Another type of spelling demon is a word that ends with either *ant* or *ent*. These three-letter groups sound the same, so they're easy to confuse. Check this minitable:

Words Ending with ANT	Words Ending with ENT
important	different
pleasant	commitment
constant	argument
elegant	requirement
assistant	accent
instant	adolescent
irrelevant	client
immigrant	department
protestant	employment
tenant	monument

One more pair of word endings — *ible* and *able* — also confuses people. Read the words in this minitable:

Words Ending with IBLE	Words Ending with ABLE
visible	dependable
possible	washable
incredible	affordable
horrible	acceptable
sensible	understandable
responsible	reasonable

TIP

No rule guides you automatically to the right choice between *ible* and *able.* However, *able* generally attaches to complete words. If you cross out *able* in every word in the second column, you see a real word (*depend*, *wash*, and so on). If you cross out *ible*, you don't find a real word.

TIP

If you read these lists aloud once a week, gradually you will remember how to spell the words. Of course, these lists could be much longer, because many English words end the same way. If you don't know how to spell an ending, the dictionary can help.

One or two?

Are you *dissapointed* or *disappointed* or *disapointed* in your spelling skills? Deciding when to double a letter is annoying. Most often, you have to memorize the spelling. (One rule can help you figure out whether you need to double a letter when you add *-ing* or *-ed* to a word. See "Following the Rules of English Spelling," earlier in this chapter, for more information.)

Here are some demons that give you double trouble. I underline the spots where many people make a spelling error (doubling when one letter is needed or placing one letter where two is correct):

enroll	disgust	wedding	usually
embarrass	baggage	really	sudden
apartment	occur	commitment	excellent
opposite	unnatural	casually	lose (not be able to find)
appear	special	immediately	loose (not tight)

TIP

Two phrases are sometimes mistakenly written as one word, when two words are correct: *a lot* (many) and *all right* (fine, agreed).

Which vowel?

Vowels — *a, e, i, o, u* — can confuse spellers. *Long* vowels (those that sound like the name of the letter, like the *e* in *be*) are easier than *short* vowels (like the *e* in *wet*). Why? Short vowels often sound like each other. Also, sometimes their sound blends into the word, so you may not realize they're present. Here are some spelling demons that cause vowel problems. The trouble spots are underlined:

separate	definite	cause	among
persuade	recognize	despair	jewelry
obey	nursery	division	officer
extraordinary	February	category	disguise

YOUR TURN

Correct or misspelled? You decide. If you find a mistake, write the proper spelling in the second column of the following minitable.

Word	Correct? Proper Spelling?
25. carpentor	
26. speler	
27. independant	
28. catagory	
29. occurr	
30. calendar	

Checking the Dictionary for Spelling Help

Rules and memory provide wonderful help with spelling. Sometimes, though, no rule applies. That's the time to seek help from the dictionary — either a book or a website. A dictionary is the final authority on English spelling and much more.

Dictionaries list words in alphabetical order. It's difficult to look up a word if you have no clue how to spell it. Try turning to the section that seems to match the first couple of letters in the word you need. (If you're working with an online dictionary, type those letters.) Look around a bit until you see a word that matches the meaning you want.

WARNING

Be sure that the definition matches the meaning you want. Some smartphones come with a program that recognizes speech. If you say the word, it appears on the screen. Before you use that spelling, check the definition of that word in a dictionary. The phone cannot tell the difference between many common words, so *lead* (the metal) may turn into *led* (directed, ruled).

Dictionaries are helpful, but so are people. If a teacher or a friend who is a good speller is nearby, ask! Most people feel good about assisting others and will happily spell a word for you.

Each word in the dictionary is explained in an *entry.* Dictionary entries can be confusing because they throw in a lot of information. Here's a sample dictionary entry of the word *comfort:*

> **comfort** ˈkəm – fərt
>
> v. 1. to ease someone's worry or pain. "The doctor will comfort the injured child." 2. to help someone deal with grief. "Mourners at the funeral comfort the family."
>
> n. 1. the act of comforting. "Jane offered comfort to her friend." 2. the quality of ease. "In this car, you travel in comfort." 3. a physical feeling characterized by lack of pain or stress. "Bill valued comfort more than convenience."

Here's how to read this entry:

- **First you see the word.** I placed *comfort* in bold type. You may see it that way or in a different color or typeface.
- **Next is the pronunciation.** Online, you can listen to someone say the word. On paper, a set of special symbols tells you how to pronounce the word. The key to the symbols appears at the beginning or end of the dictionary.
- **The part of speech appears next.** Usually, this information is abbreviated. You see *v.* for *verb* and *n.* for *noun.* Other words may be labeled as *adj.* (adjective) or *adv.* (adverb). You also find *p.* for *pronoun, prep.* for *preposition,* and *conj.* for *conjunction.* One abbreviation, *int.* for *(interjection),* is rare because not many words fall into this category.
- **Definitions are numbered in the order of importance.** The most common definition comes first, followed by other meanings that appear less frequently.
- **Most dictionaries include sample sentences.** These sentences show you how to use the word properly.

TIP

The dictionary may also tell you the origin of the word. *Comfort*, for example, comes from the Latin word meaning "with strength."

The format of your dictionary may be a little different. Don't worry! All the information you need should still be there.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **correct** A consonant, *n*, precedes the *y*, so you change the *y* to *i* and add *es.*
2. **duties** A consonant, *t*, precedes the *y*, so you change the *y* to *i* and add *es.*
3. **loneliness** A consonant, *l*, precedes the *y*, so you change the *y* to *i* and add *ness.*
4. **correct** A vowel, *e*, precedes the *y*, so you do not change the *y* to *i.*
5. **correct** A consonant, *t*, precedes the *y*, so you change the *y* to *i* and add *er.*
6. **tiniest** A consonant, *n*, precedes the *y*, so you change the *y* to *i* and add *est.*
7. **achieve** Generally, the letter *i* precedes the letter *e*.
8. **correct** Generally, the letter *i* precedes the letter *e*.
9. **brief** Generally, the letter *i* precedes the letter *e*.
10. **correct** When the letters *e* and *i* sound like *A*, the letter *e* precedes the letter *i.*
11. **correct** Generally, the letter *i* precedes the letter *e*.
12. **neighbor** When the letters *e* and *i* sound like *a*, the letter *e* precedes the letter *i.*
13. **claimed** The vowels *ai* sound like the long vowel *a.* Don't double the final consonant after a long vowel sound.
14. **correct** The word *plan* has a short *a*, so the final consonant, *n*, is doubled when you add *ed*.
15. **correct** The word *spin* has a short *i*, so the final consonant, *n*, is doubled when you add *ing.*
16. **putting** The word *put* has a short *u*, so the final consonant, *t*, is doubled when you add *ing.*
17. **running** The word *run* has a short *u*, so the final consonant, *n*, is doubled when you add *ing.*
18. **begged** The word *beg* has a short *e*, so the final consonant, *g*, is doubled when you add *ed.*
19. **bite** The word *bit* means "a small portion of." When a tiger uses its jaws, the word is *bite*, which has a long *i.*
20. **giving** Because there is a short *i* in *give*, drop the *e* when you add *ing.* Don't double the consonant.
21. **having** The *a* in *have* is short, so drop the silent *e* when you add *ing.*
22. **correct, *hit*** Because there is a long vowel, *i*, in *drive*, you drop the silent *e* when you add *ing.* You want a short *i* sound in *hit*, so there is no silent *e.*
23. **pure** The *u* in *pure* is long, so the word ends with a silent *e.*
24. **correct** When you add *ly* to *nice*, you keep the silent *e* because *ly* begins with a consonant, *l.*
25. **carpenter** This word ends with *er.*

26 **speller** Place this word in the double *l* category.

27 **independent** You need an *ent* at the end of this word.

28 **category** You need only one *a* in this word.

29 **occur** Double up the *c* here, not the *r*.

30 **correct** No rules here, just memory: The vowels in this word are *a*, *e*, *a* — in that order.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 16 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

1. Add *ful* to *plate.*
2. Which word is spelled correctly? *commitmant*, *occur*, *catagory*
3. Which word is spelled correctly? *receive*, *beleive*, *nieghbor*
4. Add *-ing* to *bite.*
5. Which word is spelled correctly? *dissappoint*, *disapointing*, *disappointed*
6. What does the abbreviation *n.* stand for in a dictionary definition?
7. Add *ing* to *permit.*
8. Which word is spelled correctly? *seperate*, *author*, *extrordinary*
9. List three types of information a dictionary provides.
10. Which word is spelled correctly? *naming*, *enrol*, *peice*

Answers to Chapter 16 Quiz

1. **plateful** The *a* in *plate* is long, and the first added letter is a consonant. Don't drop the silent *e.*
2. **occur** The other two words, correctly spelled, are *commitment* and *category.*
3. **receive** The other two words, correctly spelled, are *believe* and *neighbor.* The rule is *i* before *e,* except after *c* or when sounded like *a.* In *receive*, *ei* follows *c.* In *neighbor,* you hear an *a* sound. You have no *c* or *a* sound in *believe,* so the *i* comes before the *e.*
4. **biting** The one-syllable word *bite* has a long *i* and a silent *e.* The first added letter is a vowel, *i,* so you drop the silent *e* before adding the suffix *-ing.*
5. **disappointed** The rule for this word: one *s,* double *p.*
6. **noun** Dictionaries identify the part of speech. The abbreviation for *noun* is *n.*
7. **permitting** The stress in the word *permit* is on the second syllable, *mit.* That syllable has a short *i,* so you must double the final consonant when you add *-ing.*
8. **author** The other two words, correctly spelled, are *separate* and *extraordinary.*
9. **definition, part of speech, pronunciation** Some dictionaries include sample sentences and word origins. If you listed those, count yourself correct.
10. **naming** The *a* in *name* is long, so drop the silent *e* when you add *-ing.* The correct spelling of the other words is *enroll* and *piece.*

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Showing ownership with apostrophes
- Shortening words and phrases with apostrophes
- Avoiding common apostrophe errors

Chapter 17

Little Hooks, Big Problems: Apostrophes

On a recent walk, I noticed an odd sign:

GRANDMAS PUNCH

"Interesting," I thought. *Grandmas punch* whom? People who won't look at pictures of their grandchildren? Then I realized the sign was in front of a bar and probably referred to *Grandma's punch* — a drink made from a family recipe. An apostrophe makes a big difference, doesn't it?

Apostrophes are punctuation marks that look like hooks and hang near certain letters, or, occasionally, numbers. They're useful, but placed where they are not needed or omitted where they are, they can sabotage your writing. In this chapter, I show you how apostrophes indicate ownership and shorten words.

The Pen of My Aunt or My Aunt's Pen? Using Apostrophes to Show Possession

Most other languages are smarter than English. To show possession in French, for example, you say

the pen of my aunt *(la plume du ma tante)*

You can say the same thing in English, too, but English has added another option — the apostrophe:

my *aunt's* pen

Apostrophes may also show another kind of ownership — a relationship:

Bob's uncle

The uncle doesn't actually belong to Bob the way a book or a pen may. However, these two people are in an uncle–nephew relationship. The apostrophe shows that the *uncle* belongs to *Bob.*

Things or places can also be in an "ownership" role that's expressed by an apostrophe:

the book's cover

Brazil's coastline

When you're deciding whether you need an apostrophe, consider whether the word *of* expresses what you're trying to say. With the *of* method, you note

the sharp claw *of* the crocodile = the *crocodile's* sharp claw

the peanut-stained trunk *of* the elephant = the *elephant's* peanut-stained trunk

and so on.

The *of* test works even when no clear owner appears in the phrase. Such a situation arises mostly when you're talking about time. Take a look at these phrases:

one week's house cleaning = one week *of* house cleaning

a year's lawn care = one year *of* lawn care

Here's the bottom line: When you're talking about time, give your sentence the *of* test. If it passes, insert an apostrophe.

TIP

Think of an apostrophe as a little hand holding on to something or someone. The "owner" — the person or thing that possesses — is the word with the apostrophe and the letter *s.*

Ownership for singles

No, I'm not talking about buying a home all by yourself, with your very own mortgage. I'm talking about using apostrophes to show ownership with singular nouns. To show possession by one owner, add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the owner:

the *dragon's* burnt fang (the burnt fang belongs to the dragon)

Lulu's pierced eyebrow (the pierced eyebrow belongs to Lulu)

Michael's gold bar (the gold bar belongs to Michael)

EXAMPLE

Q. Use an apostrophe to express the underlined idea: I borrowed the car that belongs to Jill.

A. I borrowed Jill's car.

Q. Use an apostrophe to express the underlined idea: You have the amount of homework that can be completed in an hour.

A. You have an hour's homework.

YOUR TURN

Use an apostrophe to express the underlined idea in each sentence.

1. The diploma that belongs to Sam hangs on the wall.
2. Did you bring the umbrella that Aunt Jane owns?
3. Trains in Spain are very fast.
4. The motorcycle needs a year of work before it will run properly.

Sharing the wealth: Plural possessives

Not everything belongs to one owner. Amazon is close, but even that company hasn't taken over everything (yet). For now, you need to deal with plural owners. Plurals nouns can be regular or irregular in form, and so can plural possessives. To make your life more complicated, English has compound plural possessives, too. In this section, I explain all three.

Regular plural possessives

The plurals of most English nouns — anything greater than one — already end with the letter *s*. To show ownership, all you do is add an apostrophe after the *s*. Take a look at these examples:

police officers' union (the *union* belongs to *police officers*)

police officers' uniforms (the *uniforms* belong to *police officers*)

many *dinosaurs'* habitat (the habitat belongs to a number of *dinosaurs*)

a thousand sword swallowers' sliced tonsils (the *tonsils* belong to *a thousand sword swallowers*)

Did you notice that the possessive form of *officers* is *officers'* whether they "own" one thing *(union)* or more than one *(uniforms)?* Only the owner, not the possession, matters.

TIP

The *of* test works for plurals, too: If you can rephrase the expression using the word *of,* you may need an apostrophe. Remember to add the apostrophe after the letter *s.*

three *days'* editing work on that chapter = three days *of* editing work

16 *years'* creativity from Lulu's tattoo artist = 16 years *of* creativity

2 *degrees'* increase in temperature = 2 degrees *of* increase in temperature

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct if the coach gives attention to all players?

(A) The coach has only one goal in life: to improve the Yankee's batting.

(B) The coach has only one goal in life: to improve the Yankees' batting.

A. **B** If the coach works with more than one player, you need the plural possessive form, which adds an apostrophe after the *s.* The first sentence would be correct if the coach were working with only one player.

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) The Halloween decorations are decaying, especially the pumpkins' teeth. Sam carved all ten jack-o'-lanterns, and he can't bear to throw them away.

(B) The Halloween decorations are decaying, especially the pumpkin's teeth. Sam carved all ten jack-o'-lanterns, and he can't bear to throw them away.

A. **A** The context of the sentence *(all ten jack-o'-lanterns)* reveals that more than one pumpkin is rotting away. In sentence A, *pumpkins'* expresses a plural possessive. In sentence B, the apostrophe is placed before the *s,* the spot for a single pumpkin.

Irregular plural possessives

At the beginning of this chapter, I mention *grandchildren.* That word is plural, but *grandchildren* doesn't end with the letter *s.* In other words, it's an irregular plural. To show ownership for an irregular plural, add an apostrophe and then the letter *s* (*grandchildren's*). Check out these examples:

teeth's cavities (The cavities belong to the teeth.)

children's toys (The toys belong to the children.)

the three blind *mice's* eye doctor (The eye doctor belongs to the three blind mice.)

geese's beaks (The beaks belong to the geese.)

EXAMPLE

Q. What is the plural possessive form of each word?

feet

fruit

deer

A. **feet's, fruit's, deer's** These irregular plurals do not end in the letter *s*, so you add an apostrophe and an *s* to create the plural possessive.

Compound plural possessives

What happens when two single people own something? In real life, they often go to court and sue each other. In grammar, they (or you) add one or two apostrophes, depending on the type of ownership. If two people share possession, use only one apostrophe.

George and Martha *Washington's* home (The home belonged to the two of them.)

Larry and *Ella's* wedding (The wedding was for both the blushing groom and the frightful bride.)

Roger and the superspy's secret (Roger told the superspy, so now they're sharing the secret.)

If two people own things separately, as individuals, use two apostrophes:

George's and *Martha's* teeth (He has his set of teeth — false, by the way — and she has her own set.)

Lulu's and *Gary's* new shoes. (She wears size 2, and he wears size 12. Hers are lizard skin with 4-inch heels. His are plastic with 5-inch heels.)

Cedric's and *Lola's* fingernails. (He has his; she has her own; both sets are fake and quite long.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Rewrite these expressions using the possessive form.

the puppies of Fido and Spot (Fido and Spot are the parents)

ears of Mickey and Minnie

paintings made by Michelangelo and by Rembrandt

A. **Fido and Spot's puppies, Mickey's and Minnie's ears, Michelangelo's and Rembrandt's paintings** The puppies belong to both *Fido and Spot*, so only one apostrophe is inserted. *Mickey and Minnie* have separate sets of ears, so they need separate apostrophes. In the same way, each artist has a separate set of *paintings* and a separate apostrophe.

WARNING

Remember that an apostrophe shows ownership. Don't use an apostrophe when you have a plural that is *not* expressing ownership.

RIGHT: Labels stick to your shoes.

WRONG: Label's stick to your shoes.

ALSO WRONG: Labels' stick to your shoes.

To sum up the rule on plurals and apostrophes: If the plural noun is not showing ownership, *don't* use an apostrophe. If the plural noun shows ownership, *do* add an apostrophe after the *s* (for regular plurals). For irregular plurals showing ownership, add *'s.*

TIP

I have to admit that, in two special cases, apostrophes may show up in plurals. To form the plural of a lowercase letter, add an apostrophe and an *s.* To help the reader along, you should italicize the letter but not the apostrophe or the *s*. To write the plural of a word used as a word (not for what it means), italicize the word and add a nonitalicized s (with no apostrophe). If you're writing with a pen, not a computer, italics aren't possible. Pen-writers should place the plural of the word used as a word or the letter in quotation marks and add an apostrophe and an *s*. Take a peek at these examples:

You have too many *g*'s in that word, young lady!

The boss throws "impossible's" into every discussion of my raise.

Until a few years ago, the plurals of capital letters, numbers, and symbols were also formed with apostrophes (*F*'s, *1960*'s, and &'s, for example). Most writers now omit the apostrophe in these cases (*F*s, *1960s*, and *&s*).

A few special possessions

Most singular and plural possessive situations are obvious, but a couple of special situations may trip you up.

Possession with proper nouns

Companies, stores, and organizations also own things, so these proper nouns — singular or plural — also require apostrophes. Put the apostrophe at the end of the name:

Macy's finest shoes

Microsoft's finest operating system

McGillicuddy, Pinch, and Cinch's finest lawsuit

Grammar, Inc.'s finest apostrophe rule

TIP

Some stores have apostrophes in their names, even without a sense of possession:

Macy's occupies an entire city block.

Macy's is always written with an apostrophe, even when no noun appears after the store name. *Macy's* implies a shortened version of a longer name (perhaps *Macy's department store*).

Ownership with hyphenated words

Other special cases of possession involve compound words — son-in-law, mother-of-pearl, and all the other words with *hyphens* (those little horizontal lines). The rule is simple: Place the apostrophe at the end of the word. Never put an apostrophe inside a word. Here are some examples of singular compound nouns:

> the *secretary-treasurer's* report on the missing money (The report belongs to the secretary-treasurer.)
>
> the *dogcatcher-in-chief's* cat video (The cat video belongs to the dogcatcher-in-chief.)
>
> my *mother-in-law's* huge elbows (The elbows belong to my mother-in-law.)

The same rule applies to plural compound nouns that are hyphenated. Take a look at these examples:

> the *doctors-of-philosophy's* study lounge (The study lounge is owned by all the doctors-of philosophy.)
>
> my *fathers-in-law's* wedding present (The wedding present was from both fathers-in-law.)

Possessive nouns that end in S

Singular nouns that end in *s* present special problems. Let me explain: My last name is Woods. My name is singular, because I am only one person. When students evaluate me, they may write:

> Ms. Woods's grammar lessons can't be beat.

or

> Ms. Woods' grammar lessons can't be beat.

(They say a lot of other things, too, but I like to focus on the positive.)

TIP

In informal speech and writing, both sample sentences are correct. Why are these two options — *Ms. Woods's* and *Ms. Woods'* — acceptable? The answer has to do with sound. If you say the first sentence, by the time you get to the word *grammar,* you're hissing and spitting all over your listener. Not a pleasant idea. The second sentence sounds better. So the grammar police have given in on this one, except in the most formal situations or when the word may be misunderstood. For example, if you don't know that my name is *Woods,* you may think that *Woods' grammar book* is a book belonging to more than one person named *Wood.* If you ignore the saliva factor, you can write *Woods's grammar book* and avoid any confusion, because that format clearly shows a singular, possessive noun, *Woods's.*

To sum up: If the name of a singular owner ends in the letter *s* and you're in an informal situation, you may add only an apostrophe, not an apostrophe and another *s.* But if you like hissing and spitting or if you have to be on your best grammatical behavior, add an apostrophe *and* an *s.*

EXAMPLE

Rewrite the underlined words or expressions to show possession.

Q. Bloomingdales merchandise

A. **Bloomingdale's merchandise** The store name is generally written as a possessive, and in this expression, the store possesses *merchandise*.

Q. Davy Jones shoes (Davy Jones is the owner of the shoes.)

A. **Davy Jones's shoes** or **Davy Jones' shoes** The owner's name ends in *s*. In a formal situation, add an apostrophe and the letter *s*. To avoid saliva spray, many people simply add the apostrophe in informal situations.

Q. sister-in-laws gown (gown belongs to one woman)

A. **sister-in-law's** gown Add an apostrophe and an *s* to the end of a hyphenated word.

YOUR TURN

Rewrite the underlined words or expressions to show possession.

5. mugs designs (several mugs with varied designs)
6. mices feet
7. mother-in-laws graduation from law school
8. Len and Gary hometown (one town where they both live)
9. Len and Gary houses (separate houses)
10. Apples spring sale (the computer company)
11. flowers roots (many flowers)
12. people's choice
13. Guinness best beer (brewing company)
14. secretaries duties
15. childrens toys

Shortened Words for Busy People: Contractions

Are you busy? Probably. Therefore, like just about everyone in our society, you probably use contractions when you speak. A *contraction* shortens a word by removing one or more letters and substituting an apostrophe in the same spot. For example, chop *wi* out of *I will*, throw in an apostrophe, and you have *I'll*. The resulting word is shorter and faster to say, with only one syllable (sound) instead of two.

Making short work of common contractions

No matter how busy you are, it's worth learning the most common contractions. Take a look at Table 17-1. Notice that a couple of contractions are irregular. *(Won't,* for example, is short for *will not.)*

Table 17-1 Contractions

Phrase	Contraction	Phrase	Contraction
are not	aren't	she is	she's
cannot	can't	that is	that's
could not	couldn't	they are	they're
do not	don't	they will	they'll
does not	doesn't	they would	they'd
did not	didn't	we are	we're
he will	he'll	we will	we'll
he would	he'd	we would	we'd
he is	he's	we have	we've
is not	isn't	what is	what's
it is	it's	who is	who's
I am	I'm	will not	won't
I will	I'll	would not	wouldn't
I would	I'd	you are	you're
I have	I've	you have	you've
she will	she'll	you will	you'll
she would	she'd	you would	you'd

If you'd like to make a contraction that isn't in Table 17-1, check your dictionary to make sure it's legal!

Apostrophes also shorten numbers, as in these examples:

Martha graduated in '10, a year later than her brother. (short for 2010)

Are you a member of the class of '99? (short for 1999)

During the last battle, in '06, the king died. (short for 1206)

The grape harvest in '55 produced delicious wine. (short for 1855)

WARNING

Do not drop numbers unless you're sure that your reader knows what is missing. A member of the class of 1910 is a lot older than a member of the class of 2010! Saving time is good. Being clear is better.

You coulda made a contraction mistake

Woulda, coulda, shoulda. These three "verbs" are potholes on the road to better grammar. Why? Because they don't exist in Standard English. Here's the recipe for a grammatical felony. Start with three real verb phrases: *would have*, *could have*, and *should have.* Now turn them into contractions: *would've*, *could've*, and *should've.* Now turn them back into words. But don't turn them back into the words they actually represent. Instead, let your ears be your guide. (It helps if you have a lot of wax in your ears, because the sounds don't quite match.) Now say the following: *would of, could of, and should of.*

Take a look at these examples:

WRONG: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would of said, "No way."

RIGHT: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would have said, "No way."

ALSO RIGHT: If George had asked me to join the spy ring, I would've said, "No way."

Here's another set:

WRONG: When I heard about the spy ring, I should of told the Central Intelligence Agency.

RIGHT: When I heard about the spy ring, I should have told the Central Intelligence Agency.

ALSO RIGHT: When I heard about the spy ring, I should've told the Central Intelligence Agency.

TIP

When you're texting, you may be tempted to drop apostrophes altogether. It's annoying to type on small screens, and there's little chance someone will misunderstand *dont* without the apostrophe *(don't).* Resist the temptation, at least when you're writing to someone who expects to read Standard English. Also, be careful when an app presents you with one or two possible words after you type a couple of letters and when you're using a speech-to-text app. Be sure the word you want is on the screen, with or without an apostrophe as required by the meaning of what you're writing.

EXAMPLE

Change the underlined words into contractions.

Q. Jane <u>would not</u> go to the laundromat even though her hamper was overflowing.

A. **wouldn't**

Q. <u>Do not</u> underestimate the power of a good appetizer.

A. **Don't**

YOUR TURN

Q. Change the underlined words into contractions, or, if they're already contractions, expand them into the words they represent.

16 "Peanuts are not the best choice for an appetizer, because of allergies," commented Pam.

17 "I know. That is why I did not bring any," answered Adam.

18 "I am sure that Sam has selected a better appetizer," he added.

19 "I would've bought caviar, but I could not pass the cheese counter without buying something," commented Linda.

20 "Who is bringing dessert?" asked Adam.

21 Adam has baked a fancy dessert every year since 1992, but this year he is watching his weight.

22 "If they had served ice cream," he once said after dining at Pam's house, "I would've eaten only a spoonful or two."

23 "Yes, that is enough," agreed Pam.

24 Some people think that dessert cannot be part of a healthful diet.

25 They are wrong; an occasional treat will not hurt most people.

26 They will get together next week with other graduates of the class of 2020.

Managing Tricky Contraction/Pronoun Pairs

To indicate ownership, English also supplies pronouns — words that take the place of a noun. Some possessive pronouns are *my, your, his, her, its, our,* and *their.* Here's a rule so basic — and so often broken — that you should consider taping it to your pinky finger: No possessive pronoun ever has an apostrophe. These are a few examples of possessive pronouns in action:

your completely unruly child — not your' completely unruly child (also wrong: that completely unruly child of yours')

our extremely well-behaved youngster — not our' extremely well-behaved youngster (also wrong: the extremely well-behaved youngster of ours')

their tendency to fight — not their' tendency to fight (also wrong: the tendency of theirs' to fight)

his call to the police — not his' call to the police

A few possessive pronouns sound the same as contractions. The possessive pronoun should not be written with an apostrophe, and the contraction should. Here are three word pairs — and one set of triplets — that confuse many people. This section helps you sort them out so that you can always select the correct form.

Its/it's

You also have to be careful not to confuse the pronoun *its* with the contraction *it's:*

- *Its* is a pronoun that shows ownership or belonging:

  The book had a stain on its cover.

  Its short leg makes the table wobble.

- *It's* is a shortened form of *it is:*

  It's a blood stain!

  The tourist went to London because it's an interesting place.

Whose/who's

The pronoun *whose* acts as a word-bridge between owners and possessions, as in these sentences:

Bill, whose parakeets like lettuce, has just planted some in his garden.

The parakeets, whose beaks are sharp, ate Bill's curtains yesterday.

Don't confuse *whose* with *who's*, the short form of *who is.* Check out these examples:

I don't know who's responsible for the mess. *(who's* = short form of *who is)*

Whose coat is on the floor? (*Whose* = possessive pronoun)

Who's going to clean up? *(Who's* = short form of *who is)*

Your/you're

You're in trouble if *your* apostrophes are in the wrong place. *You're* means *you are. Your* shows possession. These two words are not interchangeable. Here are some examples:

"You're not going to eat that rotten pumpkin," declared Rachel. *(You're* = short form of *you are)*

"Your refusal to eat the pumpkin means that you will be given mystery meat instead," commented Dean. (*your* = possessive pronoun)

"You're going to wear that pumpkin if you threaten me," said Lola. *(You're* = short form of *you are)*

Their/there/they're

The pronoun *their* is not the same as *there* or *they're.*

- *Their* shows ownership:

  Their clothing was wet when they came in from the rain.

  Do the students have their umbrellas?

- *There* refers to a place:

  Put the book there.

  Over there is my favorite piano.

- *They're* is a shortened form of *they are:*

  They're in the library now.

  Nina and Oscar said that they're ready when you are.

TIP

When you're typing on a smartphone or computer, words you may want to use pop up after you've entered only a letter or two. Be especially careful to choose the correct word, because it's likely that the app will give you one version with an apostrophe and one without. If you're using a speech-to-text app, you may also find a missing or an unneeded apostrophe. Proofread! For more on electronic media, see Chapter 25.

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose the proper word from the parentheses and write it in the blank.

_____ (Its, It's) snowing today, so the Santos family, _____ (who's, whose) neighborhood is very icy, will stay in _____ (they're, there, their) home. _____ (You're, your) sheltering at home, too, or you should be!

A. **It's, whose, their, You're** In the first blank "it is" makes sense, so you want the contraction *it's*, not the possessive pronoun *its. Who's* is short for "who is," which doesn't fit the second blank. You need the pronoun *whose* in that spot. The pronoun *their* shows that the home belongs to the Santos family. *You're* is short for "you are" and fits the last sentence perfectly.

YOUR TURN

Choose the proper word from parentheses and write it in the blank.

The school's boiler is broken and the building is freezing, so no one will go 27 ____ (they're, there, their). The bus driver doesn't trust his vehicle, especially 28 ____ (its, it's) brakes. The driver, 29 ____ (who's, whose) always careful, inspected the streets and reported that 30 ____ (they're, there, their) snowy. 31 ____ (You're, Your) watching the television reports of the storm, right? No one should be out 32 ____ (they're, there, their) in the midst of such bad weather.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **Sam's diploma**
2. **Aunt Jane's umbrella**
3. **Spain's trains**
4. **a year's work** This phrase is equivalent to "a year of work."
5. **mugs' designs** Add an *s* and an apostrophe to indicate plural owners.
6. **mice's feet** *Mice* is an irregular plural. Add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to make the word possessive.
7. **mother-in-law's graduation from law school** Add an apostrophe to the end of a hyphenated word to show possession.
8. **Len and Gary's hometown** Len and Gary share their hometown, so only one apostrophe is necessary.
9. **Len's and Gary's houses** Len and Gary have separate houses, so two apostrophes are needed.
10. **Apple's spring sale** Add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the company name to show possession.
11. **flowers' roots** Add an *s* and an apostrophe to indicate plural owners.
12. **people's choice** *People* is an irregular plural. Add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to make the word possessive.
13. **Guinness' best beer** or **Guinness's best beer** If the company name ends in an *s*, you may add an apostrophe after the *s* to show ownership or, if you wish, add another *s* following the apostrophe.
14. **secretaries' duties** Add an *s* and an apostrophe to indicate plural owners.
15. **children's toys** *Children* is an irregular plural. Add an apostrophe and the letter *s* to make the word possessive.
16. **aren't**
17. **that's, didn't**
18. **I'm, Sam's** ***Note:*** *Sam's* can also be a possessive form, as in *Sam's* appetite. In this sentence, *Sam's* is short for *Sam has*.
19. **would have, couldn't**
20. **Who's**
21. **'92, he's**
22. **they'd, would have**
23. **that's**

24 **can't**

25 **they're, won't**

26 **'20**

27 **there** (place)

28 **its** (possessive)

29 **who's** (short for *who is*)

30 **they're** (short for *they are*)

31 **You're** (short for *You are*)

32 **there** (place)

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 17 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Read this thank-you note for a somewhat odd present. Check the underlined words. If you find an error, correct it.

Dear Helen,

(1) Its always nice to hear from a member of the class of (2) '2013. Thanks so much for the birthday present and for informing me about the (3) colleges fundraising appeal. You (4) should of donated to the school instead of spending (5) you're hard-earned money on my gift. The (6) Homeowner's Association of Greenbury Hills, where I live, (7) doesn't allow large animals on the property. Last week, the security guard confiscated my (8) neighbors cat. I think you met them — Ben and Anna, both animal lovers! The association (9) wouldn't return the cat until they promised to put him on a diet. With (10) Ben's and Anna's situation in mind, I believe the (11) residents' committee will surely object to the crocodile you sent me. The (12) secretary-treasurers fear of reptiles is also a problem. Plus, (13) Hollingsworth's Pet Supply (14) wont order crocodile chow. For my next birthday, please send a money order, which is what I chose for (15) your (16) childrens' graduation present.

Your friend,

Allie

Answers to Chapter 17 Quiz

1. **It's** You need the contraction for *it is* in this sentence. Without the apostrophe, *its* is a possessive pronoun.
2. **2013** An apostrophe takes the place of missing numbers in a date, and all the numbers are present. The shortened form, if you wish to use it, is '13.
3. **college's** The singular possessive form adds an apostrophe and the letter *s.*
4. **should have** The expression *should of* is never correct in Standard English.
5. **your** *You're* is short for *you are.* In this sentence, you need the possessive pronoun *your.*
6. **Homeowners'** The association belongs to more than one homeowner, so the plural possessive form, which adds an apostrophe after the *s,* is what you want here.
7. **Correct** *Doesn't* is short for *does not.*
8. **neighbors'** The context reveals that more than one person owns the cat, so here you need the plural possessive form, which tacks an apostrophe onto the plural noun.
9. **Correct** The contraction *wouldn't* is short for *would not.*
10. **Ben and Anna's** The couple shares the situation (and the cat), so only one apostrophe is needed.
11. **Correct** Because *residents* is plural, the apostrophe follows the *s.*
12. **secretary-treasurer's** The possessive form of a compound adds an apostrophe and an *s* after the final word.
13. **correct** Business names often include an apostrophe.
14. **won't** The contraction *won't* is short for *would not.*
15. **Correct** *Your* is a possessive pronoun, which is what you need here.
16. **children's** *Children* is an irregular plural, so you tack on an apostrophe and an *s* to make the possessive form.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Distinguishing between quoting directly and reporting someone's words generally
- Adding punctuation to quotations
- Using quotation marks for slang and unusual words
- Knowing when to put titles in quotation marks

Chapter 18

Quotations: More Rules Than the Strictest Teacher

What's the most annoying answer in English or any other language? *Because I said so.* No logic, or very little, underlies that answer. It's an assertion of power:

KID: Why can't I go to Elena's party? (powerless)

PARENT: Because I said so. (powerful)

A related statement (first runner-up in the annoying-answer competition) is *because tradition says so.* Once again, that answer comes from a position of power — in this case, from grammarians and editors who decide where and when to insert quotation marks. Reason and common sense govern some of these rules, but not all. Either way, you have to follow them to produce writing that follows the rules of Standard English. This chapter explains how.

And I Quote

A *quotation* is a written repetition of someone else's words — just one word or a whole statement or passage. *Quotation marks* are small curves — usually a pair but sometimes a single curve — that hang above the line, before and after the quoted words. In Britain, these punctuation marks are known as *inverted commas,* an accurate description of their appearance.

Quotations pop up in almost all writing online or on paper: in articles, novels, essays, blog posts, comment threads, and so on. To get an idea how to identify a quotation, take a look at the following story:

One day, while Betsy was on her way to a music lesson, she gazed through a shop window of a musical-instrument showroom. Suddenly, a piano whizzed by her ear. One of the movers had taken a bite of his tuna fish sandwich, allowing the piano to break loose from the ropes hoisting it to the third floor. The piano landed a mere inch away from Betsy. What did Betsy say?

> She said that she was relieved.

This sentence tells you about Betsy and her feelings, but it doesn't give her exact words. It's a general report, or *paraphrase,* not an exact record of the words actually spoken or written. You can write that sentence if you heard Betsy say, "I am relieved." You can also write the same sentence if you heard Betsy say, "Thank goodness it missed me. My knees are shaking! I could have been killed."

As an observer, you can also record Betsy's reaction by writing

> She said that she was "relieved."

This account of Betsy's reaction is a little more exact. Some of the sentence is general, but the reader knows that Betsy actually said the word *relieved,* because it's in quotation marks. The quotation marks are signs for the reader; they mean that the material inside the marks is exactly what was said.

> Betsy said, "I am so relieved that I could cry."
>
> "I am so relieved that I could cry," Betsy said.

These two sentences quote Betsy. The words enclosed by quotation marks are exactly what Betsy said. The only thing added is a tag identifying the speaker who said the words (in this case, Betsy). As you see in the example, you can place the tag at the beginning of the sentence or at the end. (You can also identify the speaker in the middle of the sentence. I talk about that situation later in this chapter.) The quotation marks enclose the words that were said or written.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentences are quotations? Which sentences are paraphrases?

(A) Bob doesn't get along with the conductor of the school orchestra, according to Lulu.

(B) "I refuse to play anything composed in the 21st century," declared Bob.

(C) The conductor muttered something about people who lived in the past.

(D) "Tomorrow's Beethoven is composing today!" exclaimed the conductor, himself a composer.

A. **Quotations: B, D Paraphrases: A, C** The quotation marks alert you to (surprise!) a quotation. Paraphrases lack quotation marks.

In the academic world, omitting quotation marks can get you into trouble. Without this punctuation, you're not identifying the original source. Teachers call this practice *plagiarism* and consider it a serious crime. Even outside the school walls, you want to be an honest person. Hijacking someone else's words is *not* honest. Plus, when quoted material is identified, the reader knows whom to credit or criticize. Given the exact words, the reader may also decide the meaning and importance of the remarks and not simply form an opinion based on the writer's interpretation.

TIP

If you're quoting someone who's long-winded, you may want to leave out some extra words. No problem, as long as you don't change the meaning of the quotation. Simply replace the missing words with an *ellipsis* (three spaced dots). If you're omitting more than one sentence, insert four spaced dots — one for the period, and the other three for the ellipsis. If you need to add a word to a quotation to clarify meaning, put *brackets* — these symbols [ ] — around the addition. Here's what I mean:

ORIGINAL STATEMENT: "I must practice the piano, the whole piano, and nothing but the piano in order to keep my notes sharp."

STATEMENT WITH WORDS OMITTED: "I must practice . . . in order to keep my notes sharp." (The ellipsis takes the place of *the piano, the whole piano, and nothing but the piano.*)

ORIGINAL STATEMENT: "He doesn't like flat-screen televisions."

STATEMENT WITH CLARIFICATION: "He [Ollie] doesn't like flat-screen televisions."

YOUR TURN

The following short paragraph is from an imaginary news article. Following the story are sentences about something in the paragraph. Based on the paragraph and what you can infer from it, write *quotation* if all or part of the sentence is quoted and *paraphrase* if no quotation appears. Because this is a grammar exercise, I haven't inserted quotation marks. In real-world situations, the quotation marks would be present.

A stunningly positive annual report for Jump-Thru Hoops International is due tomorrow. According to inside sources who wish to remain anonymous, the company is doing well, and profits have nearly doubled in the last year. The increase is credited to the company's newest product, the Talking Hoop. Buyers swinging the hoop around their hips hear a drill sergeant screaming commands as they exercise. Company officials have high hopes for their next product, Streaming Music Hoops.

1. The Talking Hoop has been so successful that the company has made twice as much money this year as it did last year.
2. Jump-Thru Hoops International plans to market a hoop that streams music.
3. The company is doing well, and profits have nearly doubled in the last year.
4. Go faster, Private! is what you hear when you're playing with this hoop.
5. The annual report should give shareholders cause for celebration.
6. Our best-selling product is the Talking Hoop, said Max Hippo, the president.
7. The Talking Hoop is used for exercise.

Punctuating Quotations

If quotation marks were the only punctuation you had to worry about, this chapter would be very short. But quotation marks hang out with other punctuation, including commas, periods, question marks, and other members of the punctuation family. Can't you just picture their holiday dinner table? As in most families, who sits next to whom matters. This section explains where to put your annoying cousins — er, I mean punctuation — in a sentence containing a quotation.

TIP

The rules I explain in this section are those of Standard English in the United States. In other English-speaking countries, some punctuation rules may be different.

Quotations with speaker tags

A *speaker tag* is what I call the label — *he said, Mary posted, the warden denies,* and so forth — that identifies the speaker or writer of the quoted words. In this section, I show you how to handle quotations with speaker tags attached.

Speaker tags before or after the quotation

When the speaker tag comes first, put a comma after the speaker tag. The period at the end of the sentence, if there is one, goes *before* the closing quotation mark.

> Lulu remarked, "Lola's lottery ticket is sure to win."
>
> Lola replied, "I didn't buy a ticket this week."

When the speaker tag comes last, put a comma *before* the closing quotation mark and a period at the end of the sentence.

> "Lola can't win the lottery if she has no ticket," Lulu continued.
>
> "I don't like the odds," explained Lola.

Now you know the first two (of far too many) quotation rules. Keep in mind that it doesn't matter where you put the speaker tag as long as you punctuate the sentence correctly.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentences are correct?

(A) Alonzo muttered, "I don't want to practice the piano".

(B) Alonzo muttered, "I don't want to practice the piano."

(C) "The equation that Al wrote on the board is incorrect," trilled Anna.

(D) "The equation that Al wrote on the board is incorrect", trilled Anna.

A. **B, C** In sentences B and C, the period and the comma precede the closing quotation marks, as they should. In sentences A and D, they are incorrectly placed outside the closing quotation mark.

Interrupted quotations

Sometimes a speaker tag lands in the middle of a sentence. To give you an example of this sort of placement, I revisit Betsy, who narrowly missed being squashed by a falling piano. (Her story is in "And I Quote," at the beginning of this chapter.)

"I think I'll sue," Betsy explained, "for emotional distress."

"You can't imagine," she added, "what I felt."

"The brush of the piano against my nose," she sighed, "will be with me forever."

"The scent of tuna," she continued, "brings it all back."

In each of these examples, the speaker tag interrupts the quotation. It's time for more rules for sentences with interrupted quotations:

- Place a comma *before* the quotation mark at the end of the first half of the quotation.
- Insert a comma *after* the speaker tag but *before* the quotation mark that begins the second half of the quotation.
- If the sentence ends with a period, place the period *before* the closing quotation mark.
- The second half of a quotation does *not* begin with a capital letter unless the word is a proper name or the pronoun *I*.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentences are correct?

(A) "After the concert", said Lulu, "the piano player goes out to eat."

(B) "After the concert," said Lulu, "the piano player goes out to eat."

(C) "He likes French fries," she added, "Because they are long and narrow, like piano keys."

(D) "I once ordered key lime pie for dessert," the piano player remarked, "but it didn't look like a piano key."

A. **B, D** Sentences B and D place the comma before the quotation mark that ends the first part of the quotation and a period before the quotation mark at the end of the sentence. Both sentences correctly begin the second part of the quotation with a lowercase letter. Sentence A incorrectly places the comma after the quotation mark at the end of the first part of the quotation. Sentence C incorrectly capitalizes the word that begins the second part of the quotation.

TIP

Notice that in all the interrupted quotations I supply in this section, the quoted material adds up to only one sentence, even though that sentence is written in two separate parts.

Avoiding run-on sentences with interrupted quotations

When you plop a speaker tag right in the middle of someone's conversation, make sure that you don't create a run-on sentence. A *run-on sentence* is actually two sentences that have been stuck together (that is, *run* together) without a conjunction (a word that joins grammatical elements) or a semicolon. Just because you're quoting is no reason to ignore the rules about joining sentences. Check out this set of examples:

WRONG: "When you move a piano, you must be careful," squeaked Al, "Betsy could have been killed."

RIGHT: "When you move a piano, you must be careful," squeaked Al. "Betsy could have been killed."

The quoted material forms two complete sentences:

SENTENCE 1: When you move a piano, you must be careful.

SENTENCE 2: Betsy could have been killed.

Because the quoted material forms two complete sentences, you must write two separate sentences. If you cram this quoted material into one sentence, you have a run-on.

TIP

Remove the speaker tag and check the quoted material. What remains? Enough for half a sentence? That's okay. Quoted material doesn't need to express a complete thought. Enough material for one sentence? Also okay. Enough material for two sentences? Not okay, unless you write two sentences. (For more information on run-on sentences, see Chapter 10.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentences are correct?

(A) "A piano hits the ground with tremendous force," explained the physicist. "I would move to the side if I were you."

(B) "A piano hits the ground with tremendous force," explained the physicist, "I would move to the side if I were you."

(C) "I insist that you repeal the laws of physics," demanded Lola, "Pianos should not kill people."

(D) "I insist that you repeal the laws of physics," demanded Lola. "Pianos should not kill people."

A. **A, D** In choices A and B, the quoted material forms two complete sentences: *A piano hits the ground with tremendous force* and *I would move to the side if I were you.* Choice A correctly quotes these as separate sentences. Similarly, the quoted material in choices C and D adds up to two complete sentences: *I insist that you repeal the laws of physics* and *Pianos should not kill people.* Choice D quotes in two separate sentences. Choice B and C incorrectly mash the quotations together, making each a run-on sentence.

YOUR TURN

The quotations are underlined in these sentences. Insert quotation marks, periods, and commas.

8. The annual company softball game is tomorrow declared Becky
9. I plan to pitch added Becky, who once tried out for the Olympics
10. Andy interrupted As usual, I will play third base
11. Gus said No one wants Andy at third base
12. The odds favor our opponents sighed Becky but I will not give up
13. Sue has been known to cork her bat commented Harry
14. The corking muttered Sue has never been proved

Quotations without speaker tags

Not all sentences with quotations include speaker tags. The punctuation and capitalization rules for these sentences are a little different. Check out these examples:

> According to the blurb on the book jacket, Anna's history of geometry is said to be "thrilling and unbelievable" by all who read it.
>
> Michael said that the book "wasn't as exciting as watching paint dry" but was "useful" as a paperweight. Anna threw a pie in his face.
>
> Michael's lawyer is planning a lawsuit for "serious injury to face and ego."

The rules for quotations without speaker tags actually make sense. The quotations in this sort of sentence aren't set apart. They're tucked into the sentence. Treat them accordingly:

- If the quotation has no speaker tag, the first word of the quotation is not capitalized. The exception, of course, is proper names or the pronoun *I*.
- No comma separates the quotation from the rest of the sentence if the quotation has no speaker tag, unless you need a comma for some other reason. (Chapter 19 explains when commas are appropriate.)

See what I mean about making sense? You don't want to plop a random capital letter in the middle of the sentence, which is where quotations without speaker tags usually end up. Also, omitting the comma preserves the flow of the sentence.

TIP

Notice that quotations without speaker tags tend to be short — a few words rather than an entire statement. If you're reporting a lengthy statement, you're probably better off with a speaker tag and the complete quotation. If you want to extract only a few relevant words from someone's speech, you can probably do without a speaker tag.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which is correct?

(A) Egbert said that the latest nutritional research was "Suspect" because the laboratory was "Unfair."

(B) Egbert said that the latest nutritional research was, "suspect" because the laboratory was, "unfair."

(C) Egbert said that the latest nutritional research was "suspect" because the laboratory was "unfair."

A. **C** In sentence A, *suspect* and *unfair* should not be capitalized. In sentence B, no comma should be placed after *was.*

If you're quoting a lengthy conversation between two people, you may want to omit some speaker tags to avoid repetition. Take a look at this extremely mature discussion, with every speaker tagged:

> "You sat on my tuna fish sandwich," Michael said. "It's flatter than a pancake, and I hate pancakes."
>
> "No, I didn't sit on your sandwich," Ella said. "I sat ten feet away from your lunch bag."
>
> "Did too," Michael said.
>
> "Did not!" Ella said.

Notice that every time the speaker changes, a new paragraph begins. That signal allows you to omit the speaker tag. Here's a streamlined version of the tuna fight:

> "You sat on my tuna fish sandwich," Michael said. "It's flatter than a pancake, and I hate pancakes."
>
> "No, I didn't sit on your sandwich," Ella said. "I sat ten feet away from your lunch bag."
>
> "Did too."
>
> "Did not!"

Although the speaker tags are left out after the first exchange, you can still figure out who is speaking because of the paragraph breaks.

TIP

The new-speaker/new-paragraph rule applies even if the argument deteriorates into single-word statements such as *yes* or *no* or some other single-word statements.

EXAMPLE

Q. Who said what? Label each statement, using clues from the paragraph.

"Are you in favor of piano-tossing?" asked Roger curiously.

"Not really," replied Cedric. "I like my pianos to have all four feet on the floor."

"But there's something about music in the air that appeals to me."

"There's something about no broken bones, no concussions, and no flattened bodies that appeals to me."

"You really have no artistic instinct!"

A. *Note:* Your speaker tags may vary. Just be sure they are correct and correctly punctuated.

"Are you in favor of piano-tossing?" asked Roger curiously.

"Not really," replied Cedric. "I like my pianos to have all four feet on the floor."

Roger continued, "But there's something about music in the air that appeals to me."

Cedric countered, "There's something about no broken bones, no concussions, and no flattened bodies that appeals to me."

"You really have no artistic instinct!" shouted Roger.

Quotations with question marks

Remember Betsy's piano from the section "And I Quote," earlier in this chapter? When the piano nearly squashed Betsy, she said a few more things. (Not all of them are printable, but I'll ignore those remarks.) Here are her other comments:

> "How can you eat a tuna sandwich while lifting a piano?" Betsy asked as she eyed his lunch.
>
> "May I have a bite?" she continued.

Let me put it another way:

> As she eyed his lunch, Betsy asked, "How can you eat a tuna sandwich while lifting a piano?"
>
> She continued, "May I have a bite?"

What do you notice about these two sets of quotations? That's right! The quoted words are questions. (Okay, I didn't actually hear your answer, but I'm assuming that because you were smart enough to buy this book, you're smart enough to notice these things.) The rule is simple: If you quote a question, put the question mark *inside* the quotation marks.

This rule makes good sense; it distinguishes a quoted question from a quoted statement tucked inside a question. It's time to look at one more part of Betsy's encounter with the falling piano. The piano mover answered Betsy, but no one could understand his words. (He had a mouthful of tuna.) I wonder what he said.

> Did he say, "I can't give you a bite of my sandwich because I ate it all"?
>
> Did he really declare, "It was just a piano"?

The quoted words in these examples are not questions. However, each entire sentence is a question. When the quoted words aren't a question but the entire sentence is a question, the question mark goes *outside* the quotation marks.

To sum up the rules on question marks:

- If the quoted words are a question, put the question mark *inside* the quotation marks.
- If the entire sentence is a question, put the question mark *outside* the quotation marks.

Some of you detail-oriented (actually, picky) people may want to know what to do when the quotation and the sentence are both questions. In this case, put the question mark *before* the closing quotation mark.

Here's an example of this rule:

> Did the mover really ask, "Is that lady for real?"

When quoting a question within a question, two question marks are inappropriate:

> INCORRECT: Did Betsy ask, "What's the number of a good lawyer?"?
>
> CORRECT: Did Betsy ask, "What's the number of a good lawyer?"

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Did Lulu say, "I wish a piano would drop near me so that I could sue?"

(B) Did Lulu say, "I wish a piano would drop near me so that I could sue"?

A. **B** The quoted words are not a question, but the entire sentence is. Therefore, the question mark belongs outside the quotation marks.

Quotations with exclamation points

Exclamation points follow the same general rules as question marks. In other words, if the entire sentence is an exclamation but the quoted words aren't, place the exclamation point *outside* the quotation marks. If the quoted words are an exclamation, place the exclamation point *before* the closing quotation mark.

Here are some sample sentences with exclamation points:

> Gene said, "I can't believe you got a tattoo!" (The quoted words are an exclamation, but the entire sentence is not.)
>
> I simply cannot believe that Gene actually said, "No, thank you"! (Now the entire sentence is an exclamation, but the quoted words are not.)

For those of you who like to dot every *i* and cross every *t*: If both the sentence and the quotation are exclamations, place the exclamation point *before* the closing quotation mark.

Take a look at this example:

> I cannot believe that Gene actually said, "No way would I run for president!"

Don't use two exclamation points:

> INCORRECT: I refuse to believe that Gene said, "In your dreams!"!
>
> CORRECT: I refuse to believe that Gene said, "In your dreams!"

YOUR TURN

The quoted words are underlined in each sentence. Insert quotation marks, periods, commas, question marks, and exclamation points as needed.

15. Who wants to win asked the boss in a commanding, take-no-prisoners tone
16. Did she mean it when she said that we were not hard-boiled enough to play decently
17. Sarah screamed You can't bench Andy (The statement Sarah is making is an exclamation.)
18. The opposing team is first in the league and last in our company's heart (The whole statement about the opposing team is an exclamation.)
19. The league states that all decisions regarding player placement are subject to the umpire's approval
20. The umpire has been known to label us out-of-shape players who think they belong in the Olympics
21. Do you think there will be a rain delay inquired Harry

Quotations with semicolons

Every hundred years or so, you may write a sentence that has both a quotation and a semicolon. (In Chapter 10, I explain semicolons in detail.) When writing a sentence that includes a quotation and a semicolon, put the semicolon *outside* the quotation marks, as in this example:

> Cedric thinks that vending machine snacks are a food group; "I can't imagine eating anything else," he said.

and

> Cedric said, "I can't imagine eating anything but vending machine snacks"; he must have the IQ of a sea slug.

Okay, maybe that last sentence was a bit nasty. I apologize to sea slugs everywhere.

Quotations inside quotations

Sometimes you need to place a quotation inside a quotation. Consider this situation:

Alfred is hoping to make a billion dollars selling his app, QuoPro, which punctuates quotations automatically. He's angry at Archie, who coded some parts of QuoPro, because he thinks that Archie made some semicolon errors. Alfred wants Archie to rewrite the program. Archie is outraged by the demand because he believes that his semicolons are exactly where they should be. You're writing a story, quoting Archie, who is quoting Alfred. How do you punctuate this quotation?

> Archie says, "Alfred had the nerve to tell me, 'Your semicolon should go after the closing quotation mark.'"

A sentence like this has to be sorted out. Without any punctuation, here's what Alfred said:

> Your semicolon should go after the closing quotation mark.

Without any punctuation, here are all the words that Archie said:

> Alfred had the nerve to tell me your semicolon should go after the closing quotation mark.

Alfred's words are a quotation inside another quotation. So Alfred's words are enclosed in single quotation marks, and Archie's are enclosed (in the usual way) in double quotation marks. In other words, surround a quotation inside another quotation with single quotation marks.

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate this sentence:

Lulu declares As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to report that Lola told me I'm thinking of piercing my tongue.

To help you, here are the words each person said:

Lola: I'm thinking of piercing my tongue.

Lulu (to Lola's mom): As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to report that Lola told me I'm thinking of piercing my tongue.

A. **Lulu declares, "As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to report that Lola told me, 'I'm thinking of piercing my tongue.'"** Lola's words are inside single quotation marks, and Lulu's complete statement is enclosed by double quotation marks.

TIP

Commas and periods follow the same rules in both double and single quotations.

WARNING

The Revolutionary War ended more than a couple of centuries ago, but the United States and Great Britain have not stopped fighting about grammar rules. Everything I've told you already about quotation rules is true for punctuating American English. But the reverse is often true for British English. British writers frequently use single quotation marks when they're quoting, and use double marks for a quotation inside another quotation. Thus, a British book might punctuate Lulu's comment in this way:

> Lulu says, 'As a strong opponent of piercing, I am sorry to tell you that Lola told me, "I'm thinking of piercing my tongue."'

What should you, a puzzled grammarian, do when you're quoting? Follow the custom of the country you're in.

YOUR TURN

Look at these pairs of sentences. Which sentence is correct, following U.S. rules?

22

1. Angel complained, "Henry said to me, 'You are a devil.'"
2. Angel complained, "Henry said to me, "You are a devil."

23

1. Henry explained, "Angel had the nerve to say, "You let my dog Spot sit in a mud puddle!"
2. Henry explained, "Angel had the nerve to say, 'You let my dog Spot sit in a mud puddle!'"

24

1. Henry continued, "Angel declared, 'I demand you bathe him,' but I refused."
2. Henry continued, "Angel declared, "I demand you bathe him," but I refused."

Germ-Free Quotations: Using Sanitizing Quotation Marks

Sanitizing quotation marks (also known as *distancing quotation marks*) tell the reader that you don't completely approve of the words inside the quotation marks. You often see sanitizing quotation marks enclosing slang, highly informal speech that falls outside Standard English. (For more information on slang, see Chapter 2.) Check out this example:

> Mack's friends considered his burritos "delish" and thought "ka-ching" when Mack submitted the recipe to the Best New Chef contest.

The writer knows that "delish" and "ka-ching" aren't correct, but those words show the ideas (but not the exact remarks) of Mack's friends.

Sanitizing quotation marks may also show that you don't believe what they enclose, as in this sentence:

> I'd like to burn George's guitar after listening to two hours of his "music."

Clearly, the speaker doesn't like the screeches and twangs George produces with his guitar.

WARNING

Don't overuse sanitizing quotation marks. Think of them as plutonium: A little goes a long way. Or, to sanitize that statement, a little goes a "long" way. Annoying, right?

TIP

A useful little word is *sic. Sic* (a Latin word that literally means "thus") indicates that you're quoting exactly what was said or written, even though you know something is wrong. In other words, you put a little distance between yourself and the error by showing the reader that the person you're quoting made the mistake, not you. For example, if you're quoting from the works of Dan Quayle, former vice president of the United States (and a *very* poor speller), you may write

> "I would like a potatoe [sic] for supper."

Potato, of course, is the correct spelling.

Punctuating Titles: When to Use Quotation Marks

In your writing, you may need to include the title of a magazine, the headline of a newspaper article, the title of a song or movie, and so on. When punctuating these magazine titles, headlines, and song or movie titles, follow these rules:

- **Quotation marks enclose titles of smaller works or parts of a whole.**

  and

- **Italics or underlining sets off titles of larger works or complete works.**

In other words, use quotation marks for the titles of

- Poems
- Stories
- Essays
- Songs
- Chapter titles

- Individual episodes of a podcast
- Magazine or newspaper articles
- Individual episodes of a television series
- Page of a website

Use italic or underlining for the titles of

- Collections of poetry, stories, or essays
- Titles of books
- Titles of CDs or tapes or records (if you're into retro)
- Magazines or newspapers
- Television and radio shows
- Podcasts (the series)
- Plays
- The name of an entire website

Here are some examples:

- "A Thousand Excuses for Missing the Tax Deadline" (a newspaper article) in *The Ticker Tape Journal* (a newspaper)
- "Ode to Taxes Uncalculated" (a poem) in *The Tax Poems* (a book of poetry)
- "I Got the W-2 Blues" (a song title) on *Me and My Taxes* (a CD containing many songs)
- "On the Art of Deductions" (a podcast) in *Getting Rich and Staying Rich* (a series of podcasts)
- "Small Business Expenses" (an individual episode) on *The IRS Report* (a television series)
- *April 15th* (a play)
- "Deductions Unlimited" (a page in a website) in *Beat the IRS* (the name of a website)

TIP

You may be wondering which letters you should capitalize in a title. For information on capitalization, see Chapter 21.

EXAMPLE

Q. Add quotation marks and italics to the following paragraph.

Gloria slumped slowly into her chair as the teacher read The Homework Manifesto aloud in class. Gloria's essay, expressing her heartfelt dislike of any and all assignments, was never intended for her teacher's eyes. Gloria had hidden the essay inside the cover of her textbook, The Land and People of Continents You Never Heard Of. Sadly, the textbook company, which also publishes The Most Boring Mathematics Possible, had recently switched to thinner paper, and the essay was clearly visible. The teacher ripped the essay from Gloria's frightened hands. Gloria had not been so embarrassed since the publication of her poem I Hate Homework in the school magazine, Happy Thoughts.

A. **"The Homework Manifesto"** (title of an essay), ***The Land and People of Continents You Never Heard Of*** (book title), ***The Most Boring Mathematics Possible*** (book title), **"I Hate Homework"** (title of a poem), ***Happy Thoughts*** (magazine title)

WARNING

When a title is alone on a line — on a title page or simply at the top of the first page of a paper — don't use italics or quotation marks. Don't underline the title, either. The centering calls attention to the title. Nothing else is needed. One exception: If part of the title is the name of another work, treat that part as you would any other title. Suppose that you've written a brilliant essay about Gloria's poem, "I Hate Homework." The title page contains this line, centered:

Freudian Imagery in "I Hate Homework"

If your brilliant essay is about the magazine *Happy Thoughts*, the title page includes this line (also centered):

The Decline of the School Magazine: A Case Study of *Happy Thoughts*

YOUR TURN

Check out the titles in this series of sentences. Which should be in quotation marks and which should be italicized or underlined?

25 Sarah's poem will be published in a collection titled Tax Day Blues.

26 Mary's fifth bestseller, Publish Your Poetry Now, inspired Sarah.

27 Some of us wish that Sarah had read a recent newspaper article, Forget About Writing Poetry.

28 Julie has turned Sarah's poem into a song, although she changed the name to Sonata Taxiana.

29 She's including it on her next CD, Songs of April.

30 I may listen to it if I can bring myself to stop streaming my favorite series, Big Brother and Sister.

31 During a recent episode titled Sister Knows Everything, the main character broke into her brother's blog.

32 In the blog was a draft of a play, Who Will Be My First Love.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **paraphrase** The information is from the paragraph, but the wording is different.
2. **paraphrase** Nothing in the sentence reflects the wording in the paragraph.
3. **quotation** Part of the sentence is quoted. The statement "the company is doing well, and profits have nearly doubled in the past year" comes directly from the text and should be enclosed in quotation marks.
4. **quotation** Although the paragraph doesn't tell you what the drill sergeant says, you can infer that "Go faster, Private!" is a quotation, which should be surrounded by quotation marks.
5. **paraphrase** Comb through the paragraph, and you see that these words don't appear.
6. **quotation** The first part of the sentence, as far as the word *said,* tells you Max Hippo's exact words.
7. **paraphrase** The words in this sentence are reported, not lifted directly from the paragraph.
8. **"The annual company softball game is tomorrow," declared Becky.** Note that the comma goes before the closing quotation mark.
9. **"I plan to pitch," added Becky, who once tried out for the Olympics.** The directly quoted words, *I plan to pitch,* are enclosed in quotation marks. The comma that sets off the speaker tag *added Becky* goes before the closing quotation mark. A period ends the sentence.
10. **Andy interrupted, "As usual, I will play third base."** The speaker tag comes first in this sentence, so the comma is placed before the opening quotation mark. The period that ends the sentence precedes the closing quotation mark.
11. **Gus said, "No one wants Andy at third base."** The speaker tag is followed by a comma, and a period ends the sentence.
12. **"The odds favor our opponents," sighed Becky, "but I will not give up."** Here's an interrupted quotation, with the speaker tag in the middle. This sort of interruption is perfectly proper. The quoted material makes up one sentence, so the second half begins with a lowercase letter.
13. **"Sue has been known to cork her bat," commented Harry.** A straightforward statement with the speaker tag *commented Harry* calls for a comma before the closing quotation mark. The quotation is a complete sentence. In quoted material, the period that normally ends the sentence is replaced by a comma because the sentence continues on — in this case, with *commented Harry.* Periods don't belong in the middle of a sentence unless they're part of an abbreviation.
14. **"The corking," muttered Sue, "has never been proved."** A speaker tag breaks into this quotation and is set off by commas. The one after *corking* precedes the closing quotation mark, its spot when you're ending a quotation or part of a quotation. Ditto at the end of the sentence: The period needs to come before the closing quotation mark.
15. **"Who wants to win?" asked the boss in a commanding, take-no-prisoners tone.** Because the quoted words are a question, the question mark goes before the closing quotation mark.

16 **Did she mean it when she said that we were "not hard-boiled enough to play decently"?** The quoted words aren't a question, but the entire sentence is. The question mark belongs after the closing quotation mark.

17 **Sarah screamed, "You can't bench Andy!"** A comma separates the speaker tag *(Sarah screamed)* from the quotation and precedes the opening quotation mark. Because the quoted words are an exclamation, the exclamation point belongs before the closing quotation mark.

18 **The opposing team is "first in the league and last in our company's heart"!** The hint in parentheses gives the rationale for the answer. Because the whole statement is an exclamation, the exclamation point belongs outside the closing quotation mark.

19 **The league states that "all decisions regarding player placement are subject to the umpire's approval."** This little quotation is tucked into the sentence without a speaker tag, so it takes no comma or capital letter. The period at the end of the sentence goes before the closing quotation mark.

20 **The umpire has been known to label us "out-of-shape players who think they belong in the Olympics."** Ah, yes — the joy of amateur sport! This quotation is plopped into the sentence without a speaker tag, so the first word takes no capital letter and isn't preceded by a comma. It ends with a period, placed before the closing quotation mark.

21 **"Do you think there will be a rain delay?" inquired Harry.** Harry's words are a question, so the question mark goes before the closing quotation mark.

22 **1** You must enclose *You are a devil* in single quotation marks and the larger statement *Henry said to me you are a devil* in double quotation marks. The period at the end of the sentence goes before both marks.

23 **2** You must enclose *You let my dog Spot sit in a mud puddle!* in single quotation marks and the larger quotation in double quotation marks.

24 **1** Enclose the quotation-within-a-quotation *I demand you bathe him* in single quotation marks. Enclose the entire quotation, *Angel declared, 'I demand you bathe him' but I refused* in double quotation marks.

25 **Tax Day Blues** Underline or italicize the title of a full-length work.

26 **Publish Your Poetry Now** Underline or italicize the title of a full-length work.

27 **"Forget About Writing Poetry"** Enclose the title of a newspaper article in quotation marks.

28 **"Sonata Taxiana"** Enclose the title of a song in quotation marks.

29 **Songs of April** Underline or italicize the title of a CD.

30 **Big Brother and Sister** Underline or italicize the title of a television series.

31 **"Sister Knows Everything"** Enclose the title of an episode in quotation marks.

32 **Who Will Be My First Love?** Italicize or underline the title of a play.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 18 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge of the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Tommy Brainfree's classic composition is reproduced in the following figure. Identify ten spots where a set of quotation marks needs to be inserted. Place the quotation marks correctly in relation to other punctuation in the sentence. Also, underline titles where appropriate.

What I Did during Summer Vacation

by Tommy Brainfree

This summer I went to Camp Waterbug, which was the setting for a famous poem by William Long titled Winnebago My Winnebago. At Camp Waterbug I learned to paddle a canoe without tipping it over more than twice a trip. My counselor even wrote an article about me in the camp newsletter, Waterbug Bites. The article was called How to Tip a Canoe. The counselor said, Brainfree is well named. I was not upset because I believed him (eventually) when he explained that the comment was an editing error.

Are you sure? I asked him when I first read it.

You know, he responded quickly, that I have a lot of respect for you. I nodded in agreement, but that night I placed a bunch of frogs under his sheets, just in case he thought about writing How to Fool a Camper. One of the frogs had a little label on his leg that read JUST KIDDING TOO.

At the last campfire gathering I sang a song from the musical Fiddler on the Roof. The song was called If I Were a Rich Man. I changed the first line to If I were a counselor. I won't quote the rest of the song because I'm still serving the detention my counselor gave me, even though I'm back home now.

Answers to Chapter 18 Quiz

What I Did during Summer Vacation

by Tommy Brainfree

This summer I went to Camp Waterbug, which was the setting for a famous poem by William Long titled "Winnebago My Winnebago." At Camp Waterbug I learned to paddle a canoe without tipping it over more than twice a trip. My counselor even wrote an article about me in the camp newsletter, Waterbug Bites. The article was called "How to Tip a Canoe." The counselor said, "Brainfree is well named." I was not upset because I believed him (eventually) when he explained that the comment was an editing error.

"Are you sure?" I asked him when I first read it.

"You know," he responded quickly, "that I have a lot of respect for you." I nodded in agreement, but that night I placed a bunch of frogs under his sheets, just in case he thought about writing "How to Fool a Camper." One of the frogs had a little label on his leg that read "JUST KIDDING TOO."

At the last campfire gathering I sang a song from the musical Fiddler on the Roof. The song was called "If I Were a Rich Man." I changed the first line to "If I were a counselor." I won't quote the rest of the song because I'm still serving the detention my counselor gave me, even though I'm back home now.

1. Poem titles belong in quotation marks. The title of a collection of poems, on the other hand, needs to be underlined or italicized.
2. The newsletter title should be underlined or italicized.
3. An article title belongs in quotation marks. The period at the end of the sentence precedes the closing quotation mark.
4. Directly quoted speech belongs in quotation marks, with the period preceding the closing mark.
5. The quoted words are a question, so the question mark goes inside the quotation marks.

6. The interrupted quotation with an inserted speaker tag needs two sets of marks. The comma at the end of the first part of the quotation precedes the closing mark.
7. The period at the end of the quoted sentence goes before the closing mark.
8. Another article title, another set of quotation marks. The period precedes the closing mark.
9. This quotation reproduces the exact written words and thus calls for quotation marks. The period precedes the closing mark.
10. The title of a play, a full-length work, needs to be underlined or italicized.
11. The title of a song needs to be in quotation marks.
12. Quoted lines from a song need to be in quotation marks.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Understanding why commas are important
- Punctuating series and multiple descriptions
- Using commas to distinguish between essential and extra information
- Placing a comma to indicate the person you're addressing
- Writing dates and addresses correctly
- Emphasizing introductory elements with commas
- Managing commas in compound sentences

Chapter 19
The Pause That Refreshes: Commas

Aloud, commas are the sounds of silence — short pauses that contrast with the longer pause at the end of each sentence. Commas are signals for your reader. Stop here, they say, but not for too long. Commas also cut parts of your sentence away from the whole, separating something from whatever's around it in order to change the meaning of the sentence. When you're speaking, you do the same thing with your tone of voice and the timing of your breaths. In this chapter, I guide you through the underlying logic of commas so that you know where to place them in common situations.

Distinguishing Items: Commas in Series

Imagine that you text a shopping list to your roommate Charlie, who's at the store buying supplies for your birthday party. There are no commas or line breaks.

flashlight batteries butter cookies ice cream cake

How many things does Charlie have to buy? Perhaps only three:

flashlight batteries

butter cookies

ice cream cake

Or five:

flashlight

batteries

butter cookies

ice cream

cake

How does Charlie know? He doesn't, unless you use commas. Here's what Charlie actually needs to buy — all four items:

flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, cake

To put it in a sentence:

Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, and cake.

The commas between these items are signals. When you read the list aloud, the commas emerge as breaths:

Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries [breath] butter cookies [breath] ice cream [breath] and cake.

TIP

You need commas between each item on the list, with one important exception: The comma in front of the word *and* is often optional. Why? Because when you say *and*, you've already separated the last two items. You must insert the comma if your reader may misunderstand the meaning. Suppose you see this sentence:

Jenny made the podcast with her two sisters, Anne and Elizabeth.

How many people worked on the podcast with Jenny? Possibly two: Anne (Jenny's sister) and Elizabeth (Jenny's other sister). Possibly four: Jenny's sisters (Helen and Kelly) and Anne and Elizabeth. In this sort of sentence, that last comma makes all the difference:

> Jenny made the podcast with her two sisters, Anne, and Elizabeth.

Now the reader knows for sure that *Anne* and *Elizabeth* are part of a list that begins with *two sisters*, not the names of the *two sisters* added as extra information.

WARNING

Never put a comma in front of the first item on the list.

> WRONG: Charlie has to buy, flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream and cake.
>
> RIGHT: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream and cake.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries, butter cookies, ice cream, and cake.
>
> ALSO RIGHT, BUT NOT A GOOD IDEA: Charlie has to buy flashlight batteries and butter cookies and ice cream and cake.

You don't need commas at all in the last sentence because the word *and* does the job. Grammatically, that sentence is fine. In reality, if you write a sentence with three *and*s, your reader will think you sound like a little kid.

If any item in a list has a comma *within* it, semicolons are used to separate the list items. Imagine that you're inserting this list into a sentence:

- Peter McKinney, the mayor
- Agnes Hutton
- Jeannie Battle, magic expert

In a sentence using only commas, the reader wouldn't know that Peter McKinney is the mayor and may instead think that Peter and the mayor are two separate people. Here's the properly punctuated sentence:

> Because he has only one extra ticket to the magic show, Daniel will invite Peter McKinney, the mayor; Agnes Hutton; or Jeannie Battle, magic expert.

TIP

When you're texting, commas can be a pain to insert because you sometimes have to switch screens to find one. You can skip the commas if you want and instead separate the items, line by line, by pressing Enter after each. Be warned, though, that some apps send the text when you press Enter. Apps may also remove extra spaces automatically. Your job is to make sure the person reading the text will not misunderstand what you mean. For more about electronic media, turn to Chapter 25.

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate the following sentence.

Belle requested a jelly doughnut a corner office four sports cars and a racehorse in exchange for the rights to the computer code she had written.

A. **Belle requested a jelly doughnut, a corner office, four sports cars, and a racehorse in exchange for the rights to the computer code she had written.** You may omit the comma before the *and* because the meaning of the sentence is clear.

YOUR TURN

Insert the list from each question into a sentence and punctuate it properly. I supply the beginning of the sentence. ***Note:*** I use numbers to separate items on the list. Don't use numbers in your answer sentence.

1. List: (1) deodorant (2) shoe polish (3) earwax remover

   Getting ready for his big date, Rob went to the pharmacy to purchase _____

2. List: (1) pitted dates (2) chocolate-covered mushrooms (3) anchovies (4) pickles

   Rob planned to serve a tasteful selection of _____

3. List: (1) Helen Ogee, state senator (2) Natasha Smith, childhood friend (3) Blair Berry, auto salesperson (4) Hannah Bridge, punctuation expert (5) Jane Fine, veterinarian

   Rob's guest list is heavily tilted toward women he would like to date: _____

4. List: (1) get three phone numbers (2) arrange at least one future date (3) avoid police interference

   Rob will consider his party a success if he can _____

Using "Comma Sense" to Add Information to Your Sentence

Your writing relies on nouns and verbs to get your point across. But if you're like most people, you also enrich your sentences with descriptions. In grammar terminology, you add adjectives and adverbs, participles and clauses, and an occasional appositive. Before you panic, let me explain that you don't have to know any of those terms in order to write — and punctuate — a good sentence. You just have to keep a couple of key ideas in your head. In this section, I explain how to place commas so that your writing expresses what you mean.

List of descriptions

Writers often string together a bunch of single-word descriptions — *adjectives*, in grammar lingo. (For more information on adjectives, turn to Chapter 6.) If you have a set of descriptions, you probably have a set of commas also. Take a look at the following sentences:

> "What do you think of me?" Belle asked Jill in an idle moment.
>
> Jill took a deep breath, "I think you are a sniffling, smelly, pimply monster."
>
> "Thank you," said Belle, who was trying out for the part of the witch in the school carnival. "Do you think I should paint my teeth black, too?"

Notice the commas in Jill's answer. Three descriptions are listed: *sniffling*, *smelly*, *pimply.*

A comma separates each of the descriptions from the next, but there is no comma between the last description *(pimply)* and the word it's describing *(monster).*

Here's a little more of Belle and Jill's conversation:

> "Do I get the part?" asked Belle.
>
> "Maybe," answered Jill. "I have four sniffling, smelly, pimply monsters waiting to audition. I'll let you know."

Now look closely at Jill's answer. This time, there are four descriptions of the word *monster: four*, *sniffling*, *smelly*, *pimply.*

There are commas after *sniffling* and *smelly.* As previously stated, no comma follows *pimply*, because you shouldn't place a comma between the last description and the word it describes. But why is there no comma after *four?* Here's why: *sniffling*, *smelly*, and *pimply* are more or less of equal importance in the sentence. They have different meanings, but they all do the same job — tell you how disgusting Belle's costume is. *Four* is in a different category. It gives you different information, telling you how many monsters are waiting, not how they look. Therefore, it's not jumbled into the rest of the list.

TIP

Numbers aren't separated from other descriptions or from the word(s) they describe. Don't put a comma after a number. Also, don't use commas to separate other descriptions from words that indicate number or amount — *many*, *more*, *few*, *less*, and so forth. More descriptive words that you shouldn't separate from other descriptions or from the words they describe include *other*, *another*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those.* Examine these correctly punctuated sentences:

> Sixteen ugly, bedraggled, stained hats were lined up on the shelf marked, "WITCH COSTUME.
>
> No drippy, disgusting, artificial wounds were in stock.
>
> This green, glossy, licorice-flavored lipstick belongs in the witch's makeup kit.

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate this sentence.

Jill was worried about some items she must have for a musical number: 100 scraggly fluorescent flowing beards.

A. **Jill was worried about some items she must have for a musical number: 100 scraggly, fluorescent, flowing beards.** ***Note:*** Don't put a comma after a number *(one hundred)* or after the last description *(flowing)*.

YOUR TURN

Punctuate these descriptions.

5. some blue ribbons
6. fifteen complicated innovative sets
7. a few huge green lights
8. three charming little tattoos

Essential or extra? Commas tell the tale

The descriptions in a sentence may be longer than one word. You may have a subject-verb expression (which grammarians call a *clause*) or a verb form (in technical terms, a *participle*). No matter what they're called, these longer descriptions follow two simple rules: If a description is essential to the meaning of the sentence, don't put commas around it. If the description provides extra, nonessential information, set it off with commas.

Consider this pair of sentences:

> At Champion Floral Design, the florists, who are allergic to greenery, take frequent sneeze breaks.
>
> At Champion Floral Design, the florists who are allergic to greenery take frequent sneeze breaks.

Do the commas really matter? Yes. If the description *who are allergic to greenery* is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, the description is extra — not essential to the meaning of the sentence. You can cross it out and the sentence still means the same thing. Therefore, the first example means

> At Champion Floral Design, the florists take frequent sneeze breaks.

It also means shoppers may have to wait for their bouquets because all *the florists* are on break, ah-chooing into their handkerchiefs.

If commas do not set off the description, the description is essential to the meaning of the sentence. The description *who are allergic to greenery* identifies which florists take sneeze breaks. In other words, some florists are sneezing, but others are creating bouquets for their customers.

TIP

The pronouns *which* and *that* may help you decide whether you need commas. *That* generally introduces information the sentence can't do without — essential information that isn't set off by commas. The pronoun *which*, on the other hand, often introduces nonessential information that may be surrounded by commas. Keep in mind, however, that these distinctions are not true 100 percent of the time. Sometimes *which* introduces a description that is essential and therefore needs no commas. On rare occasions, the pronoun *that* introduces nonessential material.

Here's another example, with the description in italics:

> SENTENCE: The students *who are planning a sit-in tomorrow* want to be paid for doing homework.
>
> PUNCTUATION ANALYSIS: The description is not set off by commas, so you may not omit it.
>
> WHAT THE SENTENCE MEANS: Some students — those planning a sit-in — want to be paid for doing homework. Not all the students want to be paid. The rest are perfectly content to do math problems for free.

TIP

The word *because* generally introduces a reason. At the beginning of a sentence, the "because statement" acts as an introductory remark and is always set off by a comma.

> Because the tattoo was on sale, Lulu whipped out her credit card and rolled up her sleeve.

At the end of a sentence, the "because statement" is sometimes set off by commas, in which case it may be lifted out of the sentence without changing the meaning. Without commas, it's essential to the meaning. Take a look at these two statements:

> WITH COMMAS: Lulu didn't get that tattoo, because it was in bad taste.
>
> MEANING: No tattoos for Lulu! The "because" information is extra, explaining why Lulu passed on the design.
>
> WITHOUT COMMAS: Lulu didn't get that tattoo because it was in bad taste.
>
> MEANING: Lulu got the tattoo, but not because it was in bad taste. She got it for another reason (perhaps a sale). The fact that the tattoo grossed out everyone who saw it was just an extra added attraction to Lulu, who enjoys looking strange.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence means that you can't fly to Cincinnati for your cousin's wedding?

(A) The pilots who are going on strike demand that organic snacks be served in the cockpit.

(B) The pilots, who are going on strike, demand that organic snacks be served in the cockpit.

A. **B** The commas in the second sentence tell you that you can remove the words they enclose without changing the meaning. Therefore, *all* the pilots are going on strike. In the first sentence, the description is an identifier. Only the pilots who like organic snacks are going on strike.

Commas with appositive influence

If you're seeing double when you read a sentence, you've probably encountered an appositive. Strictly speaking, appositives aren't descriptions, though they do give you information about something else in the sentence. *Appositives* are nouns or pronouns that are the equivalent of the noun or pronoun preceding them in the sentence. Some appositives are set off by commas, and some aren't. The rule concerning commas and appositives: If you're sure that readers will know what you're talking about before they get to the appositive, set off the appositive with commas. If you're not sure readers will know exactly what you're talking about by the time they arrive at the appositive, don't use commas. (This rule is a variation of the rule that I explain in the preceding section.)

Note the difference between these two sentences:

> Michael's play *Dinner at the Diner* won the drama critics' Most Boring Plot award.
>
> *Dinner at the Diner,* Michael's play, won the drama critics' Most Boring Plot award.

In the first example, *Dinner at the Diner* is the appositive of *Michael's play.* When you get to *play,* you don't know which of Michael's plays is being discussed. The appositive supplies the name. Hence, the appositive is essential and isn't set off by commas. In the second example, *Michael's play* is the appositive of *Dinner at the Diner.* Because *Dinner at the Diner* comes first, readers already know the name of the play. The fact that Michael wrote the play is extra information and must therefore be surrounded by commas.

Here are two more examples. In each sentence, *Mary* is the appositive of *sister:*

> Lulu has five sisters, but her sister Mary is definitely her favorite.

Because Lulu has five sisters, you don't know which sister is being discussed until you have the name. *Mary* identifies the sister and shouldn't be placed between commas.

> Roger has only one sibling. His sister, Mary, does not approve of Roger's wife.

Because Roger has only one sibling, the reader knows that he has only one sister. Thus, the words *his sister* pinpoint the person being discussed. The name is extra information and is set off by commas.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) Lola's spouse, Lou, doesn't approve of Lola's pierced eyebrow.

(B) Lola's spouse Lou doesn't approve of Lola's pierced eyebrow.

A. **A** Lola has only one spouse, so the name is extra, not identifying information.

YOUR TURN

9 Which sentence includes every senior?

(A) The seniors, planning to revolt, have given the network exclusive streaming rights to their demonstration.

(B) The seniors planning to revolt have given the network exclusive streaming rights to their demonstration.

10 Which sentence praises only some of the artwork?

(A) The posters, painted in bright colors, photographed well.

(B) The posters painted in bright colors photographed well.

11 Which sentence means the best speeches did not get streamed?

(A) Camera crew members, on lunch break, missed the demonstrators' best speeches.

(B) Camera crew members on lunch break missed the demonstrators' best speeches.

12 Which sentence means that all the raw footage shows students eating and sleeping?

(A) The raw footage, which will be destroyed after the film is released, shows students eating junk food and napping.

(B) The raw footage which will be destroyed after the film is released shows students eating junk food and napping.

13 Punctuate this sentence.

Jana's fourth play *How I Broke My Homework Habit* was a smash hit.

14 Punctuate this sentence.

The arm resting on a pillow was broken in a playground accident.

You Talkin' to Me? Direct Address

When writing a message to someone, you need to separate the person's name from the rest of the sentence with a comma. Otherwise, your reader may misread the intention of the message. Take a look at the following note that Michael left on the door:

> Roger wants to kill Wendy. I locked him in this room.

You think: Wendy is in danger. That's a shame. Oh, well. I guess I'm safe. However, when you unlock the door and sit down for a cup of tea, Roger jumps up and starts chasing you around the room. You escape and run screaming to Michael. "Why didn't you tell me Roger was violent!" Michael pleads guilty to a grammatical crime. He forgot to put in the comma in his note to Wendy. Here's what he meant:

> Roger wants to kill, Wendy. I locked him in this room.

It was your bad luck to read a note intended for Wendy. In grammatical terms, *Wendy* is in a *direct-address* sentence. Because the writer was directing his comments to Wendy, her name should be cut off from the rest of the sentence with a comma. Direct address is also possible at the beginning or in the middle of a sentence:

> Wendy, Roger wants to kill, so I locked him in this room.

> Roger wants to kill, Wendy, so I locked him in this room.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

(A) The teacher called, Emma, but I answered.

(B) The teacher called Emma, but I answered.

A. **A or B** Either sentence may be correct, depending on what you're trying to say. If you're talking to Emma, telling her that Mr. Mean phoned your house to report missing homework but you, not your mom, picked up the phone, then sentence A is correct. However, if you're explaining that the teacher screamed to Emma, "Bring your homework up here *this minute!*" and instead you replied, "Mr. Mean, Emma asked me to tell you that the computer crashed and erased her homework," sentence B is correct.

TIP

When you're emailing or texting, you don't need to type the name of the person who will read your message, because your words will pop up only on that person's phone or computer. Some people like to begin with "Hi, Wendy" or similar wording, to create a softer tone. Formal grammar requires a comma between the greeting *(Hi)* and the name *(Wendy)*. Increasingly, though, people don't bother inserting one. No one is likely to misunderstand *Hi Wendy.* Unless the reader loves punctuation rules, you can safely do without a comma.

Using Commas in Addresses and Dates

Commas are good, all-purpose separators. They won't keep you and your worst enemy apart, but they do a fine job on addresses and dates — especially when items that are usually placed on individual lines are placed next to each other on the same line.

Addressing addresses

Where are you from? Jill is from Mars. Belle is from a small town called Venus. Here's Belle's (fictional) address, the way you see it on an envelope:

Ms. Belle Planet

223 Center Street

Venus, NY 10001

In the body of a letter, you can insert an address in "envelope form" like this:

Please send a dozen rockets to the following address:

Ms. Belle Planet

223 Center Street

Venus, NY 10001

TIP

The introductory words *(Please send a dozen rockets to the following address)* end with a colon (:) if they express a complete unit of thought. If the introductory words leave you hanging (*Please send a dozen rockets to,* for example), don't use a colon.

If you put Belle's address into a sentence, you have to separate each item of the address, as you see here:

> Belle Planet lives at 223 Center Street, Venus, NY 10001.

Here's the address (envelope style) for her best friend, Jill:

> Jill Willis
>
> 53 Asimov Court
>
> Mars, CA 90210

And now the sentence version:

> Jill Willis lives at 53 Asimov Court, Mars, CA 90210.

TIP

Notice that the house number and street are not separated by a comma, nor are the state and zip code.

If the sentence continues, you must separate the last item in the address from the rest of the sentence with another comma:

> Belle Planet lives at 223 Center Street, Venus, New York 10001, but she is thinking of moving to Mars in order to be closer to her friend Jill.

If there is no street address — just a city and a state — put a comma between the city and the state. If the sentence continues after the state name, place a comma after the state:

> Belle Planet lives in Venus, New York, but she is thinking of moving to Mars.

Commas also separate countries from the city/state/province:

> Roger lives in Edinburgh, Scotland, near a large body of water. His brother Michael just built a house in Zilda, Wisconsin.

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate the following sentence.

Police believe that Scott ran away from his home at 77 Main Street Zilda Wisconsin because his parents reduced his screen time to 45 hours per week.

A. **Police believe that Scott ran away from his home at 77 Main Street, Zilda, Wisconsin, because his parents reduced his screen time to 45 hours per week.**

Punctuating dates

Confession time: The rules for placing commas in dates aren't exactly stable these days. What was once carved into stone (and I mean that literally) is now sometimes viewed as old-fashioned. To make matters even more complicated, writers from different areas (science, literature, and the like) favor different systems. In this section, I show you the traditional form and some variations. If you're writing for business or school, the traditional form should get

you through. If you're anticipating publication, check with your editor about the publisher's preferred style.

If the date is alone on a line (perhaps at the top of a letter), these formats are fine:

September 28, 2060 or Sept. 28, 2060 (traditional)

9/28/60 (informal)

28 September 2060 (modern in the United States, traditional in many other countries)

TIP

In the United States, date order is generally month-day-year. In many other countries, the order is day-month-year. Therefore, 4/10/2060 is April 10, 2060, in the United States and October 4, 2060 elsewhere. Be sure the person reading your work will decode it correctly.

When dates appear in a sentence, the format changes depending upon (a) how traditional you want to be and (b) how much information you want to give. Take a look at the commas — or the lack of commas — in these sentences:

On September 28, 2060, Lulu ate far too much candy. (Traditional: Commas separate the day and year and the year from the rest of the sentence.)

In October, 2060, Lulu gave up sugary snacks. (Traditional: A comma separates the month from the year and the year from the rest of the sentence.)

Lulu pigs out every October 31. (Timeless: Both the traditional and modern camps omit commas in this format.)

In October 2060 Lulu suffered from severe indigestion. (Modern: No commas appear.)

Lulu visited a nutritionist on 20 October 2060. (Modern: No commas appear.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Punctuate this sentence, rearranging parts of the date as needed:

Lola testified under oath that on December 18 2022 she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for it.

A. **Lola testified under oath that on December 18, 2022, she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for it.** (traditional)

Lola testified under oath that on 18 December 2022 she saw Lulu place a carton of gummy bears under the counter without paying for it. (modern)

YOUR TURN

Insert commas where needed.

15 Ladies and gentlemen I present the Fifth Annual Elbox Championships.

16 I know Mort that you are an undefeated Elbox competitor. Would you tell our audience about the sport?

17 Elboxing is about 5,000 years old Chester. It originated in ancient Egypt.

18 Excuse me a moment. The reigning champion has decided to pay us a visit. Miss William could you tell us how you feel about the upcoming match?

19 Certainly sir. I am confident that my new training routine will pay off.

Which dates are correctly punctuated if they are placed in the specified location?

20 in the middle of a sentence

(A) 20 July 1940

(B) July 20, 1940,

(C) July, 20, 1940

21 alone, not part of a sentence

(A) Milton Smith
55 Oak Avenue
Floral Gardens, WA 98100

(B) Milton Smith
55 Oak Avenue
Floral Gardens WA, 98100

(C) Milton Smith
55 Oak Avenue
Floral Gardens WA 98100

Getting Started: The Introductory Comma

Some sentences plunge into the main idea immediately, and others take a moment (actually, one or more words) to kick into gear. Commas help readers figure out what's going on by separating introductory words from the rest of the sentence. This section explains the guidelines.

Words not connected to the meaning of the sentence

Yes, this section introduces a comma rule. No, it's not optional. Hey, have you figured out the rule yet? Reread the first three sentences of this paragraph. A comma separates words that aren't part of the sentence but instead comment on the meaning of the sentence. That's the rule. If you omit these words, the sentence still means the same thing. Common introductory

words include *yes*, *no*, *well*, *oh*, and *okay*. Read these examples twice, once with the introductory words and once without. See how the meaning stays the same?

> Yes, you are allowed to chew hard candy during class, but don't complain to me if you break a tooth.

> Oh, I didn't know that you needed your intestines today.

To sum up the rule on introductory words, use commas to separate them from the rest of the sentence, or omit them entirely.

Phrases and clauses

Longer descriptions, what grammarians call *phrases* and *clauses*, sometimes serve as introductory elements. Don't worry about the terminology. Just think about the meaning. In these examples, the introductory element is italicized:

> *Scrolling through her newsfeed,* Lola stopped only when she glimpsed a motorcycle.

> *Whenever she can,* Lola works on her Harley.

> *At midnight last Wednesday*, Lola went out for a ride.

As you see, commas separate the introductory words and help the reader "hear" the sentence in the right way by adding a pause before the main idea. If the introductory element is very short, though, you can usually skip the comma:

> *At midnight* Lola is seldom at home.

EXAMPLE

Punctuate these sentences.

Q. Well Ella plays the piano forcefully when she is in the mood.

A. **Well, Ella plays the piano forcefully when she is in the mood.** Place a comma after the introductory word *(well).*

Q. When she is in the mood Ella plays the piano forcefully.

A. **When she is in the mood, Ella plays the piano forcefully.** Place a comma after the introductory element, *When she is in the mood.*

Punctuating Independently

When you join two complete sentences with the conjunctions (joining words) *and*, *or*, *but*, *nor*, *yet*, *so*, or *for*, place a comma before the conjunction. Some examples include the following:

Agnes robbed the bank, and then she went out for a hamburger.

James spies, but apart from that lapse he is not a bad fellow.

Sam bribed the judges, for he is determined to qualify for the national tournament.

If the two complete sentences are short, you may omit the comma:

Max won and you lost.

For more information on conjunctions and complete sentences, see Chapter 10.

WARNING

If you're joining two elements that aren't complete sentences — two descriptions or actions or people, for example — don't place a comma in front of the conjunction. Take a look at this example:

WRONG: Ella wrote a statement for the media, and then screamed at her press agent for an hour.

WHY IT IS WRONG: The sentence has one subject *(Ella)* and two verbs *(wrote, screamed).* You aren't joining two complete sentences, so you shouldn't place a comma before *and.* Either way, Ella should learn to control her temper.

RIGHT: Ella wrote a statement for the media and then screamed at her press agent for an hour.

EXAMPLE

Q. Insert commas as needed in these sentences.

Alfred slits envelopes with his teeth but Dorothy opens the mail with a knife.

A. **Alfred slits envelopes with his teeth, but Dorothy opens the mail with a knife.** The conjunction *but* joins two complete sentences. A comma must precede the conjunction *but.*

Q. Alfred answers every letter on the day he receives it but doesn't pay any bills.

A. No commas are needed because the conjunction *but* joins two verbs *(answers, does pay).*

YOUR TURN

Insert commas as needed in these sentences about an unusual wedding venue.

22 The groom skated to the center of the rink and waited for his shivering bride.

23 The best man rode in a Zamboni for he was afraid of slipping on the ice.

24 The flowers and the colorful spotlights impressed the guests.

25 One of the bridesmaids whispered that her own wedding would be on a beach or in a sunny climate with absolutely no ice.

26 Do you know who is in charge of the gifts or who is paying the orchestra?

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **Getting ready for his big date, Rob went to the pharmacy to purchase deodorant, shoe polish, and earwax remover.** You have three items and two commas; no comma is needed before the first item on the list.

2. **Rob planned to serve a tasteful selection of pitted dates, chocolate-covered mushrooms, anchovies, and pickles.** Each item on Rob's list is separated from the next by a comma. No comma comes before the first item, *pitted dates.* The comma before the *and* is optional.

3. **Rob's guest list is heavily tilted toward women he would like to date: Helen Ogee, state senator; Natasha Smith, childhood friend; Blair Berry, auto salesperson; Hannah Bridge, punctuation expert; and Jane Fine, veterinarian.** Did you remember the semicolons? The commas within each item of Rob's dream-date list make it impossible to distinguish between one dream date and another with a simple comma. Semicolons do the trick. Also, I hope you noticed that this rather long list begins with a colon.

4. **Rob will consider his party a success if he can get three phone numbers, arrange at least one future date, and avoid police interference.** All you have to do is plop a comma between each item. Add a comma before the *and* if you wish.

5. **some blue ribbons** No commas are needed here because words that indicate quantity *(some)* aren't set off from the rest of the description by a comma. No comma separates the last description *(blue)* from the word it describes.

6. **fifteen complicated, expensive sets** No comma separates a quantity *(fifteen)* from the rest of the description. Nor should you place a comma between the last description and the word it describes.

7. **a few huge, green lights** *A few* is a quantity, so no comma sets it apart. The comma between *huge* and *green* separates the descriptions. No comma separates the final description, *green,* from the word it describes.

8. **three charming, little tattoos** The quantity indicator, *three,* isn't set off by commas. A comma properly separates two descriptions (*charming* and *little*). No comma ever separates the description and the word described.

9. **A** The commas indicate that the description is extra, nonessential information. Take it out, and you see that all the seniors are involved.

10. **B** Without commas, the description *painted in bright colors* is essential. It identifies which posters photographed well and implies that other posters did not photograph well.

11. **A** The commas that enclose *on lunch break* tell you that you can remove those words without changing the essential meaning of the sentence. Therefore, the camera crew missed the best speeches entirely.

12. **A** Lift out the description that's surrounded by commas and you see that *all the raw footage shows students eating junk food and napping* — not just the footage that will be destroyed.

13. **Jana's fourth play, *How I Broke My Homework Habit,* was a smash hit.** The sentence identifies the hit as *Jana's fourth play.* The name is extra information, not identification, so it should be surrounded by commas.

14 **The arm resting on a pillow was broken in a playground accident.** Which arm was broken? You don't know much, but you do know it's the one *resting on a pillow.* Because it's an identifier, it's not surrounded by commas.

15 **Ladies and gentlemen, I present the Fifth Annual Elbox Championships.** Even though *Ladies and gentlemen* doesn't name the members of the audience, they're still being addressed, so a comma sets off the expression from the rest of the sentence.

16 **I know, Mort, that you are an undefeated Elbox competitor. Would you tell our audience about the sport?** Here you see the benefit of the direct-address comma. Without it, the reader thinks *I know Mort* is the beginning of the sentence and then lapses into confusion. *Mort* is cut away with two commas, and the reader understands that *I know that you are . . .* is the real meaning.

17 **Elboxing is about 5,000 years old, Chester. It originated in ancient Egypt.** You're talking to *Chester,* so his name needs to be set off with a comma.

18 **Excuse me a moment. The reigning champion has decided to pay us a visit. Miss William, could you tell us how you feel about the upcoming match?** Here the person being addressed is *Miss William.*

19 **Certainly, sir. I am confident that my new training routine will pay off.** The very polite *Miss William* talks to *sir* in this sentence, so that term is set off by a comma.

20 **A, B** In the first correct answer, commas disappear. In the second, commas separate the day from the year and the year from the rest of the sentence.

21 **A** A comma separates the city and state and nothing else in this envelope-style address.

22 **no comma** The words in front of the conjunction *(The groom skated to the center of the rink)* are a complete sentence, but the words after the conjunction *(waited for his shivering bride)* aren't. Because the conjunction *and* links two verbs *(skated* and *waited)* and words that describe those verbs, no comma is called for. In case you're wondering, *groom* is the subject of *skated* and *waited.*

23 **The best man rode in a Zamboni, for he was afraid of slipping on the ice.** The conjunction *(for)* joins two complete sentences, so a comma precedes it.

24 **No comma.** In this sentence, *and* joins two items *(flowers, spotlights).* Because they aren't complete sentences, you don't need a comma before *and.*

25 **No comma.** The conjunction *(or)* joins two descriptions *(on a beach* and *in a sunny climate with absolutely no ice).* Because you're not linking complete sentences, you don't need a comma before *or.*

26 **No comma.** This one is a little tricky. The conjunction *or* joins *who is in charge of the gifts* and *who is paying the orchestra.* These two questions sound like complete sentences. However, the real question here is *Do you know.* The *who* statements in this sentence are just that: statements. No complete sentence = no comma.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 19 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

The following figure shows an employee self-evaluation with some serious problems, a few of which concern commas. See whether you can find five commas that appear where they shouldn't and ten spots that should have commas but don't. Circle the commas you're deleting and insert commas where they're needed.

Annual Self-Evaluation — October 1, 2019

Well Ms. Ehrlich that time of year has arrived again. I, must think about my strengths and weaknesses as an employee, of Toe-Ring International. First and foremost let me say that I love working for Toe-Ring.

When I applied for the job I never dreamed how much fun I would have taking two, long lunches a day. Sneaking out the back door, is not my idea of fun. Because no one ever watches what I am doing at Toe-Ring I can leave by the front door without worrying. Also Ms. Ehrlich I confess that I do almost no work at all. Upon transferring to the plant in Idaho I immediately claimed a privilege given only to the most experienced most skilled, employees and started to take two, extra weeks of vacation. I have only one more thing to say. May I have a raise?

Answers to Chapter 19 Quiz

Annual Self-Evaluation — October 1, 2019

Well, Ms. Ehrlich, that time of year has arrived again. I/ must think about my strengths and weaknesses as an employee/ of Toe-Ring International. First and foremost, let me say that I love working for Toe-Ring. When I applied for the job, I never dreamed how much fun I would have taking two/ long lunches a day. Sneaking out the back door/ is not my idea of fun. Because no one ever watches what I am doing at Toe-Ring, I can leave by the front door without worrying. Also, Ms. Ehrlich, I confess that I do almost no work at all. Upon transferring to the plant in Idaho, I immediately claimed a privilege given only to the most experienced, most skilled/ employees and started to take two/ extra weeks of vacation. I have only one more thing to say. May I have a raise?

1. Commas surround *Ms. Ehrlich* because she's being directly addressed in this sentence. Also, *well* is an introductory word, so even without *Ms. Ehrlich*, you'd still need a comma after *well.*
2. See the preceding answer.
3. The pronoun *I* is part of the main idea of the sentence, not an introductory expression. No comma should separate it from the rest of the sentence.
4. The phrase *of Toe-Ring International* is an essential identifier of the type of employee being discussed. No comma should separate it from the word it describes *(employee).*
5. A comma follows the introductory expression, *First and most important.*
6. The introductory expression *When I applied for the job* should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.
7. Two descriptions are attached to *lunches: two* and *long.* These descriptions aren't of the same type. *Two* is a number, and *long* is a measure of time. Also, numbers are never separated from other descriptions by a comma. The verdict: Delete the comma after *two.*
8. In this sentence the expression *Sneaking out the back door* isn't an introductory element. It's the subject of the sentence, and it shouldn't be separated from its verb *(is)* by a comma.

9. The introductory expression *Because no one ever watches what I am doing at Toe-Ring* should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

10. *Also* is an introduction to the sentence. Slice it off with a comma.

11. A comma follows *Idaho* because it is the last word of an introductory element.

12. Two descriptions are attached to *employees: most experienced* and *most skilled.* Because these descriptions are more or less interchangeable, a comma separates them from each other.

13. No comma ever separates the last description from what it describes, so the comma before *employees* has to go.

14. Two descriptions (in this case, *two* and *extra*) aren't separated by commas when one of the descriptions is a number.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Inserting dashes for maximum effect
- Using long and short dashes correctly
- Placing hyphens in compounds and interrupted words
- Knowing where to place a colon in a business communication, list, and quotation

Chapter 20

Useful Little Marks: Dashes, Hyphens, and Colons

In a classic episode of an old detective show, the hero's sidekick writes a book with no punctuation whatsoever. The author explains that he will put in "all that stuff" later. Many writers sympathize with the sidekick. Who has time to worry about punctuation when the fire of creativity burns? But the truth is that the three little marks I explain in this chapter — dashes, hyphens, and colons — go a long way toward getting your point across.

Inserting Information with Dashes

Long dashes — what grammarians call *em dashes* — are dramatic. Those long straight lines draw your eye and hold your attention. But long dashes aren't just show-offs. They insert information into a sentence and introduce lists. Short dashes — technically, *en dashes* — aren't as showy as their wider cousins, but they're still useful. Short dashes show a range or connect words when the word *to* or *and* is implied.

Long dashes

A long dash's primary job is to tell the reader that you've jumped tracks onto a new (though related) subject, just for a moment. Here are some examples:

> After we buy toenail clippers — the dinosaur in that exhibit could use a trim, you know — we'll stop at the cafe.
>
> With a tail as long as a basketball court, the dinosaur — delivered to the museum only an hour before the grand opening — is the star of the exhibit.

The information inside the dashes is slightly off-topic. Take it out, and the sentence makes sense. The material inside the dashes relates to the information in the rest of the sentence, but it acts as an interruption to the main point you're making.

A dash's second job is to move the reader from general to specific, often by supplying a definition. Check out the following examples:

> I think I have everything I need for the first day of camp — bug spray, hair spray, sunblock, and cellphone.

Everything I need is general; *bug spray*, *hair spray*, *sunblock*, and *cellphone* are the specifics.

> Louie said that he would perform the *chew-chew* — this ritual is the unwrapping of the season's first piece of chewing gum.

The definition of *chew-chew* follows the dash.

WARNING

Long dashes may be fun to write, but they're not always fun to read. For a little change of pace, dash a new idea into your sentence. Just don't dash in too often or else your reader will be tempted to dash away.

Short dashes

If you master this punctuation mark, you deserve an official grammarian's badge — sure to improve your profile on dating apps! Short dashes show a range:

> From May–September, the editors prune commas from literature written over the winter.

Short dashes also show up when you're omitting the word *to* between two elements:

> The New York–Philadelphia train is always on time.

Finally, a short dash links two or more equal elements when *and* is implied:

> The pitcher–catcher relationship is crucial to the success of the Yankees. (Sorry, can't resist rooting for my favorite team.)

WARNING

Don't confuse short dashes with hyphens, an even shorter punctuation mark that I cover in the next section. Also, don't send a short dash to do a long dash's job. One common mistake is to join two complete sentences with a short dash, as in this example:

> Don't worry about Lola–she'll impress your friends.

Here's the corrected sentence:

> Don't worry about Lola — she'll impress your friends.

EXAMPLE

Q. Insert long dashes (em dashes) or short dashes (en dashes) where appropriate in these sentences.

While she was waiting for a bus, Melanie took out her lunch almonds, steamed broccoli, and a hard-boiled egg.

The Bronx Manhattan express bus was late.

A. **While she was waiting for a bus, Melanie took out her lunch — almonds, steamed broccoli, and a hard-boiled egg.** The long dash moves the reader from general *(lunch)* to specific *(almonds, steamed broccoli, and a hard-boiled egg).*

The Bronx–Manhattan express bus was late. The short dash connects two locations.

YOUR TURN

Insert long and short dashes where they are needed.

1. Suddenly Melanie realized that two animals to be specific, a squirrel and a pigeon were staring at her.
2. "Well," thought Melanie, "I'll wait for two four minutes and then leave if it doesn't show up."
3. While thinking about the bus Melanie has always been good at multitasking and eating the egg, she continued to stare at the squirrel and the pigeon.
4. The human animal bond is amazing.
5. Who can imagine what questions go through the mind of a squirrel where's the food supply, how's my tail doing, why is that human looking at me, or something else?
6. Xander Hicksom (1802 1888) theorized that squirrels spend most of the day sleeping, not thinking.
7. Will an actual descendent of Xander Hicksom Melanie prove him right or wrong?

H-y-p-h-e-n-a-t-i-n-g Made Easy

Think of a hyphen as a dash that's been on a diet. Occasionally — perhaps when you're writing with a pen or pencil — you may need a hyphen to show that a word continues on a different line. You also need these short, horizontal lines to separate parts of compound words, to write certain numbers, and to create one description from two words. This section provides you with a guide to the care and feeding of the humble hyphen.

Understanding the great divide

If you're writing on an electronic device, you seldom have to worry about hyphens that break a word at the end of a line. Most of the time, the word processing program moves the entire word to a new line if it doesn't fit within the margins. But when you're writing by hand, you may need to divide a word at the end of a line to avoid a long blank space along the right margin. If you have to divide a word, follow these simple rules:

- Place the hyphen between the *syllables,* or sounds, of a word. (If you're unsure where the syllable breaks are in a word, check the dictionary.)
- Don't leave only one letter of a divided word on a line. If you have a choice, divide the word more or less in the middle.
- Don't divide words that have only one syllable.

TIP

Web addresses can be very long. Don't divide them with a hyphen. Either place the web address on its own line or, if you absolutely have to divide, chop the address at a period or a slash mark.

Using hyphens for compound words

Hyphens also separate parts of compound words, such as *ex-wife*, *pro-choice*, and *mother-in-law*. When you type or write these words, don't put a space before or after the hyphen.

THE BRITISH SYSTEM

The practice of dividing a word between syllables is American. In Britain, words are often divided according to the derivation (family tree) of the word, not according to sound. For example, in the American system, *democracy* is divided into four parts — de-moc-ra-cy — because that's how it sounds. In the British system, the same word is divided into two parts — demo-cracy — because the word is derived from two ancient Greek forms, *demos (people)* and *kratia (power).* Let the dictionary of the country you're in be the final authority on dividing words.

For some time, the trend (yes, language follows fads) has been toward fewer punctuation marks, and that trend has accelerated. Thus, many words that used to be hyphenated compounds are now written as single words. *Semi-colon,* for instance, has morphed into *semicolon.* Years ago I sent *e-mails,* but now I write *emails.* As always, the dictionary is your friend when you're figuring out whether a particular expression is a compound, a single word, or two separate words.

TIP

One cap or two? The answer is complicated. All the parts of a person's title are capitalized, except for prepositions and articles *(Secretary-Treasurer)*). Don't capitalize the prefix *ex-* (as in *ex-President Johnson*). Words that are capitalized for some other reason (perhaps because they're part of a book title or a headline) follow a different rule. Always capitalize the first half. Capitalize the second half of the compound if it's a noun, or if the second half of the compound is equal in importance to the first half: *Secretary-General Lola, President-elect Lulu.* (For more information on capitalization, see Chapter 21.)

Hyphens also show up when a single word might be misunderstood. I once received an email from a student. "I resent the draft," she wrote. I spent ten minutes worrying about her feelings before I realized that she sent the draft of a paper twice because the email didn't go through the first time. To avoid misinterpretation, she should have written *re-sent.* Similarly, a hyphen-free statement can provide two different interpretations — never a good idea. Imagine that you're writing about baseball and use the phrase "first base coach." You may be talking about the first person to coach at a base during a baseball game — the "first base-coach," who probably rode a horse to the ball field. Or, you may be discussing the person who's standing next to first base now, giving advice to players — the "first-base coach." The hyphen clarifies your intended meaning.

Placing hyphens in numbers

Decisions about whether to write a numeral or a word are questions of style, not of grammar. The authority figure in your life — teacher, boss, parole officer, whatever — will tell you what they prefer. In general, larger numbers are represented by numerals:

Roger has been arrested 683 times, counting last night.

However, on various occasions you may need to write the word, not the numeral. If the number falls at the beginning of a sentence, for example, you must use words if you're writing in Standard English. You may also need to write about a fractional amount. Here's how to hyphenate:

- Hyphenate all numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine.
- Hyphenate all fractions used as descriptions (*three-quarters full*, for example).
- Don't hyphenate fractions used as nouns (*three quarters of the money; one third of all registered voters*).

Utilizing the well-placed hyphen

If two words create a single description, put a hyphen between them if the description comes before the word it's describing. For example:

a *well-placed* hyphen BUT The hyphen is *well placed*.

WARNING

Don't hyphenate two-word descriptions if the first word ends in *-ly:*

nicely drawn rectangle

completely ridiculous grammar rule

EXAMPLE

Q. Place hyphens where they're needed.

Lulu was recently elected secretary treasurer of her club, the All Star Athletes of Antarctica. Lulu ran on an anti ice platform that was accepted by two thirds of the members.

A. Here's the paragraph with the hyphens inserted, along with explanations in parentheses:

Lulu was recently elected secretary-treasurer (hyphen needed for compound title) of her club, the **All-Star** (hyphen needed for two-word description) Athletes of Antarctica. Lulu ran on an **anti-ice** (hyphen needed for two-word description) platform that was accepted by **two thirds** (no hyphen for fractions not used as descriptions) of the members.

YOUR TURN

Check the hyphens and mark them as correct or incorrect.

8. well-planned plot
9. line 1: com-

   line 2: plicated
10. writer director (refers to one person doing two jobs)
11. top-of-the-line
12. top-of-the-line car
13. sixty six
14. star studded cast
15. my great-grandmother, my mother's grandmother
16. three quarters of a cup

Creating a Stopping Point: Colons

A colon is one dot on top of another (:). It appears when a simple comma isn't strong enough. (It also shows up in the typed emoticons that people write in their emails.) In this section, I look at the colon in a few of its natural habitats: business communications, lists, and quotations.

Addressing a business letter or an email

Colons appear in business letters, memos, and emails, as you see in the following examples:

> From: I. M. Incharj
>
> Re: Employment status
>
> Mr. Ganglia:
>
> You're getting on my nerves. You're fired.
>
> Sincerely,
>
> I.M. Incharj

> To Whom It May Concern:
>
> Everyone in the division is fired also.
>
> Sincerely,
>
> I.M. Incharj

TIP

The colon makes a business communication more formal. The opposite of a business letter is what English teachers call a *friendly letter*, even if it says something like "I despise you." When you write a friendly letter, place a comma after the name of the person who will receive the letter.

Introducing lists

When you insert a short list of items into a sentence, you don't need a colon. (For more information on how to use commas in lists, see Chapter 19.) When you're inserting a long list into a sentence, however, you may sometimes introduce the list with a colon. Think of the colon as a gulp of air that readies the reader for a good-sized list. The colon precedes the first item. Here are some sentences using colons to introduce lists:

> General Parker needed quite a few things: a horse, an army, a suit of armor, a few million arrows, a map, and a battle plan.
>
> Roger sent each spy away with several items: printouts from an espionage website, the Wikipedia entry on Mata Hari, a burner cellphone, and a poison pill.

WARNING

If you place a colon in front of a list, check the beginning of the sentence — the part before the colon. Can it stand alone? If so, no problem. If not, problem — maybe. Here's the deal. Many *style manuals* (lists of rules for particular publications) frown on colons following an incomplete introductory thought. If your list begins with something like "Buy what you need for," the list elements complete that thought and a colon gets in the way. To be on the safe side, be sure you have a complete sentence before a colon that comes before a list. Take a look at these examples:

> PUNCTUATION PROBLEM: The drawbacks of Parker's battle plan are: no understanding of enemy troop movements, a lack of shelter and food for the troops, and a faulty trigger for the retreat signal. (The words before the colon — *The problems with Parker's battle plan are* — don't form a complete thought.)

BETTER PUNCTUATION: The problems with Parker's battle plan are numerous: no understanding of enemy troop movements, a lack of shelter and food for the troops, and a faulty trigger for the retreat signal. (Now the words before the colon — *The problems with Parker's battle plan are numerous* — form a complete thought.)

For more information on complete sentences, see Chapter 10.

Introducing long quotations

The rule concerning colons with quotations is fairly easy. If the quotation is short, introduce it with a comma. If the quotation is long, introduce it with a colon. Take a look at the following two examples for comparison:

What did Lola say at the meeting? Not much, so a comma does the job.

Lola stated, "I have no comment on the squirrel incident."

What did General Parker say at the press conference? Too much, so a colon is better.

Parker explained: "The media has been entirely too critical of my preparations for war. Despite the fact that I have spent the past ten years and two million gold coins perfecting new and improved armor, I have been told that I am unready to fight."

TIP

When you write a paper for school, you may insert some short quotations (up to three lines) into the text. If a quotation is longer than three lines, you should double-indent and single-space the quoted material so that it looks like a separate block of print. Such quotations are called *block quotations.* Introduce the block quotation with a colon, and don't use quotation marks. (The blocking shows that you're quoting, so you don't need the marks.) Here's an example:

In his essay entitled, "Why Homework Is Useless," Smith makes the following point:

Studies show that students who have no time to rest are not as efficient as those who do. When a thousand teens were surveyed, they all indicated that sleeping, listening to music, talking on the phone, and playing Minecraft were more valuable than schoolwork.

If you're writing about poetry, you may use the same block format:

The postmodern imagery of this stanza is in stark contrast to the imagery of the Romantic period:

Roses are red,

Violets are blue,

Alfred is sweet,

And stupid, too.

TIP

Colons sometimes show up inside sentences, joining one complete sentence to another. A colon may be used this way only when the second sentence explains the meaning of the first sentence, as in this example:

> Lola has refused to accept the nomination: She believes the media will investigate every aspect of her life.

The second half of the sentence explains why Lola doesn't want to run for president. Actually, it explains why very few Americans want to run for president. Notice that I've capitalized the first word after the colon. Some writers prefer lowercase for that spot. This decision is a matter of style, not grammar. Check with the authority figure in charge of your writing (teacher, boss, warden, and so on) about the preferred style.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct or incorrect? You decide.

To Whom It May Concern,

A. **Incorrect.** This extremely formal and somewhat old-fashioned greeting is always followed by a colon.

YOUR TURN

Correct or incorrect? You decide.

17. Last week Joe campaigned in ten states, Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Ohio.

18. Joe stated: "I like states."

19. Quotations from Joe's essay, "A Statement about States: My Position," were widely tweeted.

20. Joe's campaign head remarked: "Joe is very qualified for the position of Regional Transportation Director. He drives. He takes trains and planes. Sometimes he bikes. If he can't avoid it, he walks. He knows a lot about transportation. True, he has never worked in the field, but he does use transportation."

21. Joe's energy level is low: He plans to run for Regional Transportation Secretary if he doesn't win the directorship.

SLASHING YOUR SENTENCES

A forward slanting line — the *virgule,* in grammar lingo, and the *slash* to ordinary people — shows up in URL addresses. It's also useful to present two alternatives, but if you insert slashes into your sentences, consider them the hottest chili peppers imaginable. How many chili peppers do you want in your meal? That's the number of slashes you should place in your writing. Very, very few.

Here's an example of the slash in action:

> Job applicants must bring photos/examples of their work to the interview.

What should you bring to impress your potential boss? Either a photo of the mural you painted on the side of your house or the house itself. The slash shows the two possible choices.

Slashes also separate lines of poetry when you're quoting them inside a paragraph:

> The effort of mountain climbing contributes to the imagery in Lulu's poem, "Everest or Nothing": "and then the harsh/breath of the mountain/meets the harsh/breath of the climber/I am/the climber."

The slashes tell you that Lulu's poem looks like this:

> and then the harsh
>
> breath of the mountain
>
> meets the harsh
>
> breath of the climber
>
> I am
>
> the climber.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **Suddenly Melanie realized that two animals — to be specific, a squirrel and a pigeon — were staring at her.** You're better off with long dashes than simple commas here because *to be specific, a squirrel and a pigeon* already has a comma. Parentheses, however, would also be fine in this sentence.

2. **"Well," thought Melanie, "I'll wait for two–four minutes and then leave if it doesn't show up."** The short dash in this sentence shows a range of time.

3. **While thinking about the bus — Melanie has always been good at multitasking — and eating the egg, she continued to stare at the squirrel and the pigeon.** Here, the comment about Melanie's ability to do more than one thing at a time interrupts the statement *While thinking about the bus and eating the egg.* Two long dashes show the interruption.

4. **The human–animal bond is amazing.** A short dash shows a relationship between two categories, *human* and *animal.*

5. **Who can imagine what questions go through the mind of a squirrel — where's the food supply, how's my tail doing, why is that human looking at me, or something else?** The long dash signals the shift from general *(questions)* to specific (the content of those questions). A colon would also serve to introduce the list of possible questions.

6. **Xander Hicksom (1802–1888) theorized that squirrels spend most of the day sleeping, not thinking.** The short dash connects two dates here, the years of birth and death.

7. **Will an actual descendent of Xander Hicksom — Melanie — prove him right or wrong?** Simple commas would also do the job here, much less dramatically.

8. **Correct** The two words, *well* and *planned,* function as one description, so a hyphen should link them. If the same two words appear after the word they refer to *(plot)*, the grammar changes. If you write, "The plot was well planned," *well* describes *planned,* which is part of the verb *was planned.*

9. **Correct** *Complicated* breaks into four syllables: com pli ca ted. The hyphen properly separates the first syllable from the next three.

10. **Incorrect** This title, like many others that identify one person doing two jobs, is hyphenated. If you're not sure about a particular title, check your dictionary.

11. **Incorrect** Creating one description such as *top-of-the-line* is correct only when you're describing something. In this expression, you're not.

12. **Correct** Now *top-of-the-line* does describe something *(car).*

13. **Incorrect** Numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine should be hyphenated, so the correct form is *sixty-six.*

14. **Incorrect** Two words, *star* and *studded,* combine to describe *cast,* so you want a *star-studded cast.*

15. **Correct** The hyphen tells you that this word refers to a relative, not to a quality (greatness) that a grandmother may possess.

16. **Correct** Surprised? Used this way, *quarters* is a noun. *Three* is a description, telling you how many quarters you have.

17 **Incorrect** A colon, not a comma, should introduce the list of states.

18 **Incorrect** The quotation is short, so a comma, not a colon, should follow stated.

19 **Correct** A colon properly separates the subtitle from the title.

20 **Correct** This long quotation is properly introduced by a colon.

21 **Incorrect** The second statement does not explain the meaning of the first statement, so a colon doesn't work here.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 20 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Ten portions of this letter from a florist to a client are underlined. Decide whether the underlined material properly employs dashes, hyphens, or colons. If you find a mistake, correct it. If everything is fine, leave it alone.

Dear Ms. **Jones** (1)

As you **know—I was** (2) honored to supply the flowers for your recent wedding. When you signed the contract, you **said: "I like** (3) flowers." I was happy to hear your **statement: I** (4) like flowers also! Unfortunately, your new husband was not **well-behaved** (5). He **spent 15:20 minutes** (6) chopping the blossoms off stems. He also stole my car, which I had planned to use for a **Buffalo Scranton** (7) trip the next day. The contract you signed clearly **states:** (8)

> The client is liable for any damage to the florist's equipment, person, vehicle, or vases. The client will pay 100% of the damages within 30 days of the event during which the damage occurred. There will be no discounts for equipment that was already used, regardless of age.

When I asked you in my previous letter for $30,000 to replace my car–which I admit was 32 years old– (9) you laughed. You said, "I'll pay **when —"** (10) and then stopped speaking. Ms. Jones, please send me a check today. Thank you. I look forward to providing the flowers for your next wedding, once your divorce is final.

Answers to Chapter 20 Quiz

Dear Ms. **Jones:** (1)

As you **know, I was** (2) honored to supply the flowers for your recent wedding. When you signed the contract, you **said, "I like** (3) flowers." I was happy to hear your **statement: I** (4) like flowers also! Unfortunately, your new husband was not **well behaved** (5). He **spent 15–20 minutes** (6) chopping the blossoms off stems. He also stole my car, which I had planned to use for a **Buffalo–Scranton** (7) trip the next day. The contract you signed clearly **states:** (8)

> The client is liable for any damage to the florist's equipment, person, vehicle, or vases. The client will pay 100% of the damages within 30 days of the event during which the damage occurred. There will be no discounts for equipment that was already used, regardless of age.

When I asked you in my previous letter for $30,000 to replace my car, which I admit was 32 years old**,** (9) you laughed. You said, "I'll pay **when — "** (10) and then stopped speaking. Ms. Jones, please send me a check today. Thank you. I look forward to providing the flowers for your next wedding, once your divorce is final.

1. **Incorrect.** A colon follows the greeting in a business letter or email.
2. **Incorrect.** A comma, not a dash, follows this short introductory phrase.
3. **Incorrect.** The quotation is short, so a comma is better than a colon.
4. **Correct.** The second portion of the sentence explains the first, so the colon is correct.

5. **Incorrect.** The description, *well behaved,* is not hyphenated when it appears after the word it describes, which in this sentence is *husband.*
6. **Incorrect.** A short dash shows the time range.
7. **Incorrect.** A short dash shows the path of the trip, from Buffalo to Scranton.
8. **Correct.** To introduce a blocked quotation, a colon is appropriate.
9. **Incorrect.** A short dash shows a range, not what you need in this sentence. Here, information is inserted into the main idea of the sentence, so commas work well. The long dash would add a touch of drama and would also be correct here.
10. **Correct.** The long dash shows an incomplete thought.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Grasping the basics of capital letters
- Capitalizing names, places, and things
- Knowing when capital letters are needed in everyday writing

Chapter 21
Capital Letters

iPads are popular, but not always with English teachers, because, well, take a look at the first letter of this sentence. It's in *lowercase* — what kindergarteners call "small letters." In Standard English, every sentence must begin with a capital letter. Why? Partly to help the reader separate sentences, but also because it's a tradition, and capitalization is bound by tradition. That said, I should mention that the major style-setters in the world of grammar sometimes disagree about what should be capitalized and what shouldn't. In this chapter, I explain commonly accepted practices for employing capital letters, and I point out some areas of disagreement. ***Note:*** Texting and some other electronic media have their own rules for capitalization, which I discuss in Chapter 25.

Knowing What's Up with Uppercase

The rules for *uppercase*, or capital letters, are easy. You already know one:

- **Begin every sentence with a capital letter.** Yes, the iPad (and the iMac and the *i* everything) break the rule, but a company has the power to name its products, and Apple picked a lowercase *i* for these items. Unless your sentence begins with a similar name (*eBay*, for example), start with a capital letter. If you're writing a sentence that begins with a number, write the word, not the numeral, or reword the sentence so that the number isn't first.

  Traditionally, the first letter of each line of a poem is capitalized, even if it isn't the beginning of a sentence. However, poets, like computer companies, enjoy trashing (sorry, I meant *reinterpreting*) rules. In poetry, anything goes — including capitalization rules:

TIP

- **Capitalize *I*.** The personal pronoun *I* — the word you use to refer to yourself — must be capitalized.

- **Capitalize names.** This rule applies when you're using an actual name, not a category. Write about *Elizabeth*, not *elizabeth*, when you're discussing one of the cutest kids ever (my granddaughter). She's a *girl*, not a *Girl*, because *girl* is a category, not a name. Elizabeth lives in *Washington*, not *washington* (her *state*, not *State,* because *state* is a general category, not a name). Also capitalize brand names (*Sony*, for example) unless the company itself uses lowercase letters.
- **Begin most quotations with a capital letter.** When quotation marks appear, so do capitals — most of the time. (For exceptions to this rule, turn to Chapter 18.)

That's it for the basics. For the picky stuff, keep reading.

Capitalizing (or Not) References to People

If human beings were called only by their names, life would be much simpler, at least in terms of capital letters. But most people pick up a few titles and some relatives as they journey through life. In this section, I tell you what to capitalize when you're referring to people.

Sorting out job titles

Allow me to introduce my friend Egbert. He's *Mr.* Egbert Henhuff, *director of poultry* at a nearby farm. Next year, *Director of Poultry* Henhuff plans to run for *state senator*, unless he cracks under the pressure of a major campaign, in which case he'll run for *sheriff.*

Notice what's going on with the capitals in this introduction. The title *Mr.* always appears with a last name and is always capitalized because it's considered part of the name. *Director of Poultry* is capitalized when it precedes Egbert's last name but lowercased when it follows Egbert's name. Why? *Director of Poultry Henhuff* functions as a unit, a name, so it's capitalized. (Unimportant words in a title, such as *of*, are lowercased. See "Capitalizing Titles," later in this chapter, for more guidance.) When the title follows the name or appears elsewhere in the sentence, it functions as a description, not a name, and isn't capitalized. That accounts for the lowercased *director of poultry*, *state senator*, and *sheriff.*

WARNING

Some style manuals, but not all, tell you to capitalize very important titles — President of the United States and Prime Minister of Great Britain, for example — even when they appear without the name of the person who holds them. Because there's some leeway with this rule on titles, ask the preference of the authority figure (boss or teacher) who will read your work.

TIP

When capitalizing a hyphenated title, capitalize both words *(Chief Justice)* or neither *(assistant secretary)*. One exception to the rule (you knew there had to be one!) is for *exes* and *elects:*

- ex-President
- President-elect

EXAMPLE

Q. Insert capitals where needed.

yesterday mayor victoria johnson ordered all public servants in her town to conserve sticky tape.

A. **Yesterday Mayor Victoria Johnson ordered all public servants in her town to conserve sticky tape.** Capitalize the first word of a sentence *(Yesterday)*, a title attached to a name *(Mayor)*, and a person's name *(Victoria Johnson)*.

Q. Insert capitals where needed.

herman harris, chief city engineer, has promised to hold the line on tape spending.

A. **Herman Harris, chief city engineer, has promised to hold the line on tape spending.** Capitalize the name of a person *(Herman Harris)* but not a title that appears after a name.

Writing about family relationships

It's not true that Elizabeth's *grandma* was imprisoned for illegal sentence structure. I know for a fact that *Uncle Bart* took the blame, although his *brother* Alfred tried desperately to convince *Grandma* to make a full confession. "My *son* deserves to do time," said *Grandma,* "because he dropped a verb when he was little and got away with it."

What do you notice about the family titles in the preceding paragraph? Some of them are capitalized, and some are not. The rules for capitalizing the titles of family members are simple. If you're labeling a relative, don't capitalize. (I'm talking about kinship — *aunt*, *sister*, *son*, and so on — not appearance or personality flaws — *chubby*, *sweet*, *dishonest*, and so on.) If the titles take the place of names (as in *Uncle Bart and Grandma*), capitalize them. For example:

Lulu's *stepsister* Sarah poured a cup of ink into every load of wash that Lulu did. (*stepsister* = label)

Sarah told *Mother* about the gallon of paint thinner that Lulu had dripped over Sarah's favorite rose bush. (*Mother* = name)

I was surprised when my *father* took no action; fortunately, *Aunt Aggie* stepped in with a pail of bleach for Lulu. (*father* — label; *Aunt Aggie* — name)

TIP

If you can substitute a real name — Mabel or Jonas, for example — in the sentence, you probably need a capital letter:

I told *Father* that he needed to shave off his handlebar mustache and put it on his bicycle. (original sentence)

I told *Jonas* that he needed to shave off his handlebar mustache and put it on his bicycle. (The substitution sounds fine, so capitalize *Father*.)

If the substitution sounds strange, you probably need lowercase:

> I told my *grandmother* not to shave off her mustache. (original sentence)
>
> I told my *Mabel* not to shave off her mustache. (The substitution doesn't work because you don't generally say *my Mabel.* Use lowercase for *grandmother.*)

TIP

The word *my* and other possessive pronouns *(your, his, her, our, their)* often indicate that you should lowercase the title. (For more information on possessive pronouns, see Chapter 4.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct?

1. Archie helped mother tape signs to every tree in the neighborhood.
2. Archie helped Mother tape signs to every tree in the neighborhood.

A. **2** *Mother* is used as a name, not a label, so you must capitalize it. (Try the *Mabel* test; it works!)

YOUR TURN

Correct any capitalization errors you find in these sentences.

1. The Municipal Dogcatcher, Agnes e. Bark, insists on taping reward signs to every tree.
2. My Sister says that the signs placed by dogcatcher Bark seldom fall far from the tree.
3. Did you ask mom whether ms. Bark's paper signs will freeze in December?
4. Few Dogcatchers care as much as agnes about rounding up lost dogs.
5. The recent dog show champion, BooBoo, bit uncle Lou last week.
6. My Brother thinks that no one would have been hurt if Agnes had found BooBoo first.
7. The Mayor's Cousin, who owns a thumbtack company, has an interest in substituting tacks for tape.
8. Until the issue is resolved, Agnes, herself the chief executive of Sticking, Inc., will continue to tape.

Tackling race and ethnicity

The conventions for capitalizing words that refer to race and ethnicity, as well as the words themselves, have changed in recent years. Like everyone else, grammarians are struggling to overcome the legacy of a racist society and its language. Various style guides have chosen different paths and then recalibrated as editors' understanding deepens. So, what should you capitalize, and what should you lowercase? If you're writing for a specific authority figure, you can ask about the preferred style. If you're on your own, here are some guidelines:

- *White* and *Black* are generally capitalized when the words refer to race or ethnicity — what the culture views as a shared historical or cultural identity. References to color (*a white dress,*

black piano keys), are lowercased. *Latino/Latina/Latinx* and *Hispanic* are always capitalized. The term *people of color* is usually lowercased, though some style guides capitalize the short form, *POC.*

- *European, Asian, African, South American, North American,* and *Central American* are always capitalized, because they refer to continents or regions. So are combination forms like *European American* and *African American.*
- All words that describe national origin are capitalized (*French, Pakistani, Kenyan,* and so forth). So are combination forms such as *Mexican American* and *Polish American.*

TIP

Combination forms normally appear without hyphens, though some style guides insert a hyphen when the words function as an adjective. (See Chapter 6 for more information on adjectives.)

EXAMPLE

Insert capital letters where they're needed in these sentences.

Q. my friend jules is studying african american history this year.

A. **My friend Jules is studying African American history this year.** The first word of a sentence *(My)* is capitalized, as is the name *Jules*. *African American* is always capitalized. Some style guides omit the hyphen; others insert it if the expression is used as an adjective, as it is in this sentence.

Q. my cousin gave me a book of poetry by japanese writers.

A. **My cousin gave me a book of poetry by Japanese writers.** Capitalize the first word in the sentence *(My)* and *Japanese*, a word referring to national origin.

Capitalizing Geography: Directions and Places

Even if nothing more than your imagination leaves the living room, you still need to know the rules for capitalizing the names of places, languages, geographical features, regions, and directions. Here's a complete guide to capitalizing geography.

My pet parakeets don't migrate for the winter, but if they did, where would they go — south or South? It depends. The direction of flight is *south* (lowercase). The area of the country where it's easy to find warmth is the *South* (uppercase). Got it? From New York City, you drive *west* to visit the *West* (or the *Midwest*).

The names of other, smaller areas are often capitalized, too. Plopped in the center of *New York City* is *Central Park*. *Chicago* has a *South Side* and *London* has *Bloomsbury*. Note the capital letters for the names of these areas.

Capitalize geographic features when the proper name is given (*Mississippi River*, *the Himalayas*, the *Great Plains*). The word *the* is generally lowercased, even when it appears with a name. Use lowercase for geographical features that are not named (*mountain*, *valley*, *gorge*, or *beach*, for instance).

TIP

Nearly always, the names of countries and words derived from them are capitalized. One exception to this rule: common objects with a country, area, or nationality as part of the name (*french fries*, *scotch whiskey*, *venetian blinds*, and so forth). By attaching itself to a common object, the name takes on a new meaning. It no longer refers to the country or language. Instead, the reader simply thinks of an everyday object. If you're unsure whether to capitalize the geographical part of a common item, check the dictionary.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct the capitalization in this paragraph.

When Alex sent his little brother Abner to Italy, Abner vowed to visit mount Vesuvius. Alex asked Abner to bring back some venetian blinds, but Abner returned empty-handed. "Let's go out for chinese food," said Abner when he returned. "Some sesame noodles will cheer me up."

A. Here is the answer, with explanations in parentheses:

When Alex sent his little brother Abner to Italy (correct — country name), **Abner vowed to visit Mount Vesuvius** (capitalize the entire name of the mountain). **Alex asked Abner to bring back some venetian blinds** (correct — lowercase for the name of a common object), **but Abner returned empty-handed. "Let's go out for Chinese food** (because this isn't the name of one specific item, such as french fries, capitals are better),**" said Abner when he returned. "Some sesame noodles will cheer me up."**

Marking Seasons and Other Times

Read this paragraph, paying special attention to the italicized words and letters:

> Lou hates the *summer* because of all the tourists who invade his coastal town. He's been known to roar something about *"winter's* peaceful *mornings,"* even though he seldom wakes up before *3 P.M.* and never before *noon.* He starts his day by reading about the *Renaissance*.

After reading the preceding example, you can probably figure out this rule without me. Write the seasons of the year in lowercase, as well as the times of day. Words referring to historical eras or important events, such as *Elizabethan* and *Great Depression*, are also capitalized.

TIP

Some books tell you to capitalize the abbreviations for morning and afternoon (*A.M.* and *P.M.*) and some specify lowercase (*a.m.* and *p.m.*). Therefore, no matter what you do, half your readers will think you're right (the good news) and half will think you're wrong (the bad news). Your best bet is to check with the authority overseeing your writing. If you're the authority, do what you want. Just be careful not to confuse the reader with *am* (a form of the verb *be)* and the abbreviation for morning *(a.m.).*

YOUR TURN

Correct any errors in capitalization.

9. On a Westward voyage, Sindy hoped to reach Europe and visit places associated with world war II.

10. During the Summer, Sindy has about a month off and usually looks for Lakes with cabins nearby.

11. Last monday Sindy spent several hours reading history books about the War.

12. She immediately called a travel agent and tried to book an Eastbound flight to Amsterdam.

13. The fare was too high, so she chose to cross the atlantic on a ship instead.

14. "I love Oceans," remarked Sindy as she searched the horizon, looking for islands.

15. When the ship neared Iceland, Sindy sighed. "A Volcano erupted there last year," she remarked.

16. Sindy planned to continue her trip, moving west across the Continent until she reached the Middle East.

17. The suez canal had been at the top of her must-see list since December, when she saw a documentary on its construction.

18. Sindy plans to spend some time in old Cairo, a neighborhood rich in history.

Capitalizing Work and School Terms

On Monday mornings, work often feels like WORK, but that's not how the word is written in Standard English. In the business world, company names are capitalized, and general terms are not. (For titles, see "Sorting out job titles," earlier in this chapter.) At school, capitalize the name of the institution *(Hunter College*, *Marian Anderson High School).* Don't capitalize subjects and subject areas *(history, science, physics, phys ed)* unless the name refers to a language *(Spanish, Latin, English).* Capitalize the titles of courses *(Economics 101, Math for People Who Can't Count, Paper Clips in American History).* The years in school, though interminable and incredibly important, aren't capitalized (*seventh grader, freshman,* or *sophomore,* for instance).

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct the capitalization in this paragraph.

Hurrying to Chemistry class, Jack slipped on the stairs on the very first day of his Senior year. He wanted to see his sweetheart, a Freshman named Lila Jones, who had enrolled in history of the ancient world with Professor Krater. Lila, deep in the study of history, didn't see Jack's accident.

A. Here's the correct version, with the reasons in parentheses:

Hurrying to chemistry (don't capitalize subjects) **class, Jack slipped on the stairs on the very first day of his senior year** (never capitalize years in school). **He wanted to see his sweetheart, a freshman** (never capitalize years in school) **named Lila Jones, who had enrolled in History of the Ancient World** (capitalize course titles) **with Professor Krater. Lila, deep in the study of history** (this one is correct — lowercase for subject areas), **didn't see Jack's accident.**

YOUR TURN

Correct the capitalization errors.

19 After extensive research, the united nose ring company has determined that freshmen prefer silver rings, except Psychology majors.

20 The spokesperson for the Company commented that "gold rocks the world" of future Psychologists.

21 "I wore a gold ring to the curriculum committee during the Spring Semester," explained Fred Stileless, who is the student representative to that committee.

22 "My gold earring was a turnoff for juniors," explained Fred, who hasn't had a date since he was a senior at Smith And Youngtown United high school. "I hope they like my new nose ring."

23 The Spokesperson surveyed competing Products, including a silver-gold combination manufactured by in style or else, inc., a division of Nosy Industrials, where every worker has a College Degree.

Capitalizing Titles

Titles of articles, books, websites, blog posts, and other writings require capital letters. Two systems of capitalization are acceptable, roughly divided by content. If the work falls into the general interest or humanities slot (literature, art, history, and so forth), you probably want *headline style.* Scientists opt for *sentence style,* which also sometimes pops up in publications devoted to other types of content. If you're not sure where your work belongs, check with the relevant authority figure. No supervisor? Pick the system you like the best. In this section, I explain both.

Headline style

Most newspaper and magazine articles, as well as creative works, employ headline style. You can find examples by looking at — how surprising — headlines. Here are the rules, which I illustrate with a title of a book, *I Am Not a Monster.* (This isn't a real book, by the way.)

» Capitalize *I* and *Monster. I* is always uppercase, and *Monster* is an important word. Also, *I* is the first word of the title, and the first word of the title is always capitalized.

- Capitalize *Am* because it's a verb, and verbs are at the heart of the title's meaning.
- Capitalize *Not* because it changes the meaning of the verb and thus has an important job to do in the sentence.
- Lowercase the only word remaining — *a*. Never capitalize articles (*a*, *an*, and *the*) unless they're the first words in the title.

Do you see the general principles I've applied? Here's a summary of the rules for all sorts of titles:

- Capitalize the first word in the title.
- Capitalize verbs and other important words.
- Lowercase unimportant words — articles *(a*, *an*, *the),* conjunctions (words that connect, such as *and*, *or*, *nor*, and the like), and prepositions (*of*, *with*, *by,* and other words that express a relationship between two elements in the sentence).

TIP

Some grammarians capitalize long prepositions — those with more than four letters. Others tell you to lowercase all prepositions, even the huge ones — *concerning*, *according to*, and so on. (See Chapter 7 for a list of common prepositions.) Your best bet is to check with your immediate authority — editor, boss, teacher — to make sure that you write in the preferred style.

WARNING

When writing the title of a magazine or newspaper, should you capitalize the word *the?* Probably not. Modern style manuals generally lowercase *the*, even when the publication itself uses a capital *T*, unless the title is alone on the line or is the first word of a sentence.

EXAMPLE

Q. Use headline style to capitalize these titles.

the importance of being prepared

romeo and lulu

slouching toward homework

A.

The Importance of Being Prepared *The* is the first word of the title. *Importance*, *Being*, and *Prepared* are important words. Lowercase *of* because it's not an important word.

Romeo and Lulu *Romeo* is the first word of the title and is also a name. Similarly, *Lulu* is a name. Lowercase *and* because it's not an important word.

Slouching Toward Homework *Slouching* is the first word of the title. *Homework* is important. *Toward* can go either way. It's a preposition — a relationship word — and thus may be lowercased, at least according to some grammarians. It's also a long word, which makes it suitable for capitalization in the opinion of other grammarians.

Sentence style

Scientists are practical people, don't you think? They've simplified the rules of capitalization for works in their field, such as this article (which doesn't actually exist):

> Oxygen saturation in freshwater: A comparative study of Kelton Lake and Walden Pond

Can you figure out the rules? Here they are, in all their glory:

- **Capitalize the first word of the title.** In this article, that's *Oxygen.*
- **Capitalize the first word of the subtitle.** Here, that word is *A.*
- **Capitalize proper names.** *Kelton Lake* and *Walden Pond* name specific places and are therefore capitalized.
- **Lowercase everything else.**

Don't you love science? At least when you're capitalizing?

EXAMPLE

Q. Capitalize these titles using sentence style.

congo river flora: a study of algae growth

copper pipe erosion and its effect on water purity

the arm effect: a psychological study of hand gestures

A. **Congo River flora: A study of algae growth** The name of the river is capitalized, as is the first word of the subtitle.

Copper pipe erosion and its effect on water purity The first word is capitalized, and everything else is in lowercase.

The arm effect: A psychological study of hand gestures The first word of the title and the first word of the subtitle are in caps. Everything else is in lowercase.

YOUR TURN

Capitalize these titles according to the rules of the style in parentheses.

24 moby duck: a tale of obsessive bird-watching *(headline)*

25 "an analysis of the *duckensis mobyous*: the consequences of habitat shrinkage on population" *(sentence)*

26 "call me izzy smell: my life as a duck hunter" *(headline)*

27 the duck and i: essays on the relationship between human beings and feathered species *(sentence)*

28. duck and cover: a cookbook *(headline)*
29. "the duck stops here: political wisdom from the environmental movement" *(sentence)*
30. duck up: how the duck triumphed over the hunter *(headline)*

?4U: Cn U AbbreV8?

Do you like the shortened title of this section? At 18 characters, it's half the length of the full version: *Question for You: Can You Abbreviate?* With this abbreviation, you save time and space.

But abbreviations have a downside. The first time you saw *e.g.*, did you know that it meant *for example?* If so, fine. If not, you probably didn't understand what the author was trying to say. Second, abbreviations clash with formal writing. Formal writing implies thought and care, not haste. (Things are different when you're thumbing a message, a post, or a tweet. Check out Chapter 25 for more on electronic media and grammar.)

Sometimes, however, you do want to abbreviate. Here's how to do so correctly:

- Capitalize abbreviations for titles and end the abbreviation with a period. For example, *Mrs.* Snodgrass, *Rev.* Tawkalot, *Sen.* Veto, Jeremiah Jones, *Jr.,* and *St.* Lucy.
- Capitalize geographic abbreviations when they're part of a name but not when they're a general category. Place a period at the end of the abbreviation: Appalachian *Mts*. or Amazon *R.*, for example. On a map, you may write *mt*. (mountain).
- The United States Postal Service has standard, two-letter state abbreviations. Don't put periods in these abbreviations. Examples: *AZ* (Arizona), *CO* (Colorado), *WY* (Wyoming), and so on.
- Write most measurements in lowercase and end the abbreviation with a period *(yds*. for *yards* or *lbs.* for *pounds*). Metric abbreviations are written without periods *(km* for *kilometer* or *g* for *gram).*

WARNING

Don't confuse abbreviations with acronyms. Abbreviations chop some letters out of a single word. Acronyms are new words made from the first letters of each word in a multiword title. Some common acronyms include the following:

NATO: North Atlantic Treaty Organization

OPEC: Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries

WHO: World Health Organization

WARNING

Want to drive your teacher crazy? Write a formal essay with &, *w/*, *w/o*, or *b/c*. (For the abbreviation-deprived, & means "and," *w/* means "with," *w/o* means "without," *b/c* means "because.") These symbols are fine for your notes but not for your finished product. Similarly, save *brb (be right back)*, *lol (laugh out loud)*, and other texting abbreviations for your friends, not for authority figures. (For more on texting and electronic media, turn to Chapter 25.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct Legghorn's homework.

Yesterday (Tues.) I went in the a.m. to CO. I saw Mr. Dean, who told me that the EPA had outlawed his favorite pesticide. I have three gal. in the basement, & I'll have to discard them.

A. **Yesterday (Tuesday) I went in the morning to Colorado. I saw Mr. Dean, who told me that the EPA had outlawed his favorite pesticide. I have three gallons in the basement, and I'll have to discard them.**

Don't abbreviate in homework assignments except for titles *(Mr. Dean)* and easily understood acronyms *(EPA,* or *Environmental Protection Agency).* If you're writing about an acronym that your reader may not understand, write the whole thing out the first time you use it and place the acronym in parentheses. Thereafter, the acronym alone is fine. Also, if this had been a note to a friend, the abbreviations would have been perfectly acceptable.

YOUR TURN

Write the proper abbreviation or acronym for the following words, taking care to capitalize where necessary.

31 figure

32 before common era

33 mister Burns

34 united states president

35 national aeronautics and space administration

36 reverend Smith

37 new york

38 Adams boulevard

39 irregular

40 incorporated

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **municipal dogcatcher, E.** The title in this sentence isn't attached to the name; in fact, it's separated from the name by a comma. It should be in lowercase. Initials take capitals and periods.
2. **sister, Dogcatcher** Family relationships aren't capitalized unless the relationship is used as a name. The title *Dogcatcher* is attached to the name, and thus it's capitalized.
3. **Mom, Ms.** The word *Mom* substitutes for the name here, so it's capitalized. The title *Ms.* is always capitalized, but the period is optional.
4. **dogcatchers, Agnes** The common noun *dogcatchers* doesn't need a capital letter, but the proper name *Agnes* does.
5. **Uncle** The title *uncle* is capitalized if it precedes or substitutes for the name. Did I catch you on *BooBoo?* People can spell their own names (and the names of their pets) how they want.
6. **brother** Family titles aren't capitalized unless they substitute for the name.
7. **mayor's, cousin** These titles aren't attached to or used as names, so they take lowercase.
8. **Correct** Names are in caps, but the title isn't, except when it precedes the name.
9. **westward, World War II** Directions aren't capitalized. Names referring to historical eras and important events should be capitalized.
10. **summer, lakes** Use lowercase for seasons and general geographical terms.
11. **Monday, war** Days of the week should appear in caps, but the general term *war* should not. Did I catch you with *history?* That's a general term, so it appears in lowercase.
12. **eastbound** Directions aren't capitalized. *Amsterdam,* the name of a city, is correctly capitalized.
13. **Atlantic** The name of the ocean (or any geographical feature) should be capitalized.
14. **oceans** General geographical terms, such as oceans and islands, take lowercase.
15. **volcano** *Volcano* is a general term, so write it in lowercase. *Iceland,* the name of a country, is properly capitalized.
16. **continent** Another general term, another lowercase letter. *Middle East,* the name of a region, is capitalized.
17. **Suez Canal** This one is a specific place, so capitals letters do the job. *December,* like all months, is capitalized.
18. **Old** The sentence tells you that *Old Cairo* is a neighborhood, an area, so capital letters are needed.
19. **United Nose Ring Company, psychology** Although college freshmen think they're important (and, of course, they are), they rate only lowercase. The name of the company should be in uppercase. Don't capitalize subject areas.

20 **company, psychologists** Common nouns such as *company* and *psychologists* aren't capitalized.

21 **spring semester** The name of the committee is generic and generally would not take capitals, though you have some elbow room here for style. Seasons, both natural and academic, should be lowercased.

22 **and, High School** Years in school and school levels aren't capitalized. The name of the school is (and the name includes *High School*), but an unimportant word such as *and* is written in lowercase.

23 **spokesperson; products; In Style or Else, Inc.; college degree** A common noun such as *spokesperson* or *college degree* isn't capitalized. The names of companies are capitalized according to the preference of the company itself. Most companies follow headline style, which is explained in "Capitalizing Titles," earlier in this chapter.

24 **Moby Duck: A Tale of Obsessive Bird-Watching** In headline style, the first word of the title *(Moby)* and subtitle *(A)* are in caps. Nouns *(Duck*, *Tale*, and *Watching*) and descriptive words *(Obsessive*, *Bird*) are also uppercased. The short preposition *of* merits only lowercase.

25 **"An analysis of the *Duckensis mobyous*: The consequences of habitat shrinkage on population"** In sentence-style capitalization, the first words of the title and subtitle are in caps, but everything else is in lowercase, with the exception of proper names. In this title, following preferred scientific style, the names of the genus (a scientific category) and species are in italics with only the genus name in caps.

26 **"Call Me Izzy Smell: My Life As a Duck Hunter"** Per headline style, the article (*a*) is in lowercase. I caught you on *As*, didn't I? It's short, but it's not an article or a preposition, so it rates a capital letter.

27 **The duck and I: Essays on the relationship between human beings and feathered species** Sentence style titles take caps for the first word of the title and subtitle. The personal pronoun *I* is always capitalized.

28 **Duck and Cover: A Cookbook** Headline style calls for capitals for the first word of the title and subtitle and all other nouns. The joining word *and* is lowercased in headline style, unless it begins a title or subtitle.

29 **"The duck stops here: Political wisdom from the environmental movement"** Sentence style gives you two capitals in this title — the first word of the title and subtitle.

30 **Duck Up: How the Duck Triumphed over the Hunter** Because this title is in headline style, everything is in caps except articles (the) and prepositions (over).

31 **fig.**

32 **BCE** (The Latin expression *Anno Domini* — abbreviated *AD* — means "in the year of our Lord" and is used with dates that aren't *BC*, or *before Christ*. To make this term more universal, historians often substitute *CE* or *Common Era* for *AD* and *BCE* or *Before the Common Era* for *BC*.)

33 **Mr. Burns**

34 **US Pres.**

35 **NASA** (an acronym)

36 **Rev. Smith**

37 **NY** (postal abbreviation) or **N.Y.** (traditional form)

38 **Adams Blvd.**

39 **irreg.**

40 **Inc.**

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 21 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Find ten capitalization mistakes in the following figure, which is an excerpt from possibly the worst book report ever written.

Moby, the Life Of a Duck: A Book Report

If you are ever given a book about Ducks, take my advice and burn it. When i had to read *Moby Duck*, the Teacher promised me that it was good. She said that "Excitement was on every page." I don't think so! A duckling with special powers is raised by his Grandpa. Moby actually goes to school and earns a Doctorate in bird Science! After a really boring account of Moby's Freshman year, the book turns to his career as a Flight Instructor. I was very happy to see him fly away at the end of the book.

Answers to Chapter 21 Quiz

Moby, the Life ~~O~~of a Duck: A Book Report

If you are ever given a book about ~~D~~**ducks**, take my advice and burn it. When ~~i~~ **I** had to read *Moby Duck*, the ~~T~~**teacher** promised me that it was good. She said that "~~E~~**excitement** was on every page." I don't think so! A duckling with special powers is raised by his ~~G~~**g**randpa. Moby actually goes to school and earns a ~~D~~**doctorate** in bird ~~S~~**science**! After a really boring account of Moby's ~~F~~**freshman** year, the book turns to his career as a ~~F~~**flight** ~~I~~**instructor**. I was very happy to see him fly away at the end of the book.

1. In a headline-style title, prepositions aren't capitalized.
2. An ordinary term for animals — in this case, *ducks* — is lowercased.
3. The personal pronoun *I* is always capitalized.
4. The name of the teacher isn't given, just the term *teacher*, which should be lowercased.
5. When a quotation is written without a speaker tag, the first word isn't capitalized.
6. Family relationships are capitalized only when they serve as a name.
7. Most academic degrees take lowercase.
8. Most school subjects are written in lowercase. (I must point out that *English* is in caps because it's important. Okay, I'm lying. It's in caps because it's the name of a language.)
9. School years are in lowercase, too.
10. Job titles, when they aren't attached to the beginning of a name, are in lowercase.

6 Developing Style

In This Unit . . .

CHAPTER 22: **Adding Meaning with Well-Chosen Words**

Going Vivid with Verbs
Pinpointing Meaning with Nouns and Descriptions
Saving Time: Cutting Unnecessary Words
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 22 Quiz
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CHAPTER 23: **Grammar Gremlins**

Deleting Double Negatives
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CHAPTER 24: **Writing Stylish Sentences**

Speaking Verbally
Sprucing Up Boring Sentences with Clauses and Verbals
Mixing It Up: Changing Sentence Patterns and Length
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 24 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 24 Quiz

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Selecting interesting verbs
- Employing precise language
- Avoiding repetition and wordiness

Chapter 22

Adding Meaning with Well-Chosen Words

You're reading this book. That much I know is true. What I don't know is whether you're *skimming* or *scrutinizing* my words. Nor do I know whether you're holding a *paperback* or an *e-reader*. You may argue that precise language isn't necessary, and most of the time you'd be right. But how much extra meaning can be packed into a sentence if you choose your words carefully! That's the skill this chapter addresses.

Going Vivid with Verbs

Blah, general verbs are like dim light bulbs. They allow you to see what's happening, barely. Vivid verbs turn up the wattage, adding detail and shades of meaning. In this section, I show you how to select verbs that outshine neon lights.

"There is" a problem with boring verbs

When I ask students in my writing class to describe a standard school chair, I get sentences like these:

> There is a curved seat.
>
> There are five slats on the back.
>
> There is a school identification mark on the bottom of the chair.

Nothing's wrong with these sentences. They're all grammatically correct, and they're all accurate. But I bet they made you yawn. *There is* and *there are*, as well as their cousins — *there was, there will be, there has been*, and others — are standard (and therefore boring) expressions. Swap them for something more precise:

> The seat *curves* to fit your bottom.
>
> Five slats *support* your back.
>
> The school *stamps* an identification mark on the bottom of each chair.

Don't you think the second set of sentences is more interesting? You get more information, and the verbs — *curves, support,* and *stamps* — catch the reader's eye.

EXAMPLE

Q. Revise this sentence without using the underlined words. Add words if you want.

> <u>There was</u> a storm.

A. **A storm raged.** I've supplied one possible revision, but your answer may differ. As long as you have a verb that makes sense, count yourself correct.

Does your writing "have" a problem?

If they're overused, forms of the verb *have* can put your reader to sleep faster than a sedative. Sometimes you need these verbs to indicate *tense* — situating the action or state of being on a timeline. But too often *has, had,* or *have* ends up in a sentence because the writer isn't thinking creatively. Try changing

> The chair has a shiny surface.
>
> The slats have rounded edges as big as my finger.

to

> The chair shone under the fluorescent light.
>
> The rounded edges fit my finger perfectly.

Okay, I added some information to the second set, but you see my point. *Shone* and *fit* are more interesting than *has* and *have.* Plus, after you insert a good verb, other ideas follow, and the whole sentence improves.

EXAMPLE

Q. Revise this sentence without using the underlined words. Add words if you want.

> This area <u>has</u> many storms.

A. **Many storms plague this area.** Other verbs that may take the place of *has* include *hit, oppress,* and *invigorate* (for those who like wet, windy weather). If you have a verb that makes sense, count yourself correct.

Don't just "say" and "walk" away

Say and *walk* are fine, upstanding members of the verb community, but they don't give you much information. Why *say* when you can *declare*, *scream*, *whisper*, *hint*, *bellow*, *assert*, *remark*, or do any one of the zillions of alternatives available to you when you're describing communication? For movement, consider *stroll*, *saunter*, *plod*, *strut*, *rush*, *speed*, *zigzag*, and — well, you get the point by now. Look for verbs that go beyond the basics, that add shades of meaning to your sentence. Check out these before-and-after sentence sets:

BEFORE: Heidi said that she was tired of climbing mountains.

AFTER: Heidi contended that she was tired of climbing mountains. (Now you know that she's speaking with someone who may not believe her.)

ANOTHER AFTER: Heidi murmured that she was tired of climbing mountains. (Here, Heidi's a bit shy or perhaps fearful.)

ONE MORE AFTER: Heidi roared that she was tired of climbing mountains. (In this sentence, no one is going to mess with Heidi — not without a struggle!)

BEFORE: Heidi's hiking partner walked away from her.

AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner edged away from her. (The partner knows that Heidi's in one of her moods and trouble is on the way.)

ALSO AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner stomped away from her. (Now the partner is angry.)

THE LAST AFTER: Heidi's hiking partner wandered away from her. (The partner isn't paying attention.)

TIP

Your word processor probably has a built-in *thesaurus* — a reference app that lists synonyms for most verbs. You can also buy a thesaurus in book form. If you're looking over your writing and need some spicier verbs, a thesaurus can suggest some alternatives. Be cautious: Verbs, like all words, may be similar but not exactly the same. The list for *stroll*, for example, includes *ramble* and *promenade*. You may *ramble* (or *amble*, another verb on this list) without a fixed destination or purpose. If you *promenade*, you're probably also in recreational mode, but this time you have an audience.

REMEMBER

Never insert a verb or any other verb into your sentence unless you're sure you know what it means.

Q. Choose any verbs that could substitute for the underlined word(s) in the original. Be sure that your choice fits the context of the sentence.

Max was angry when he <u>walked</u> into the store.

I. strolled

II. ambled

III. charged

A. **III** If Max was angry, he wouldn't "move slowly without purpose," which is the definition of *stroll* and *amble*. *Charge* means "to move quickly and aggressively," so choice III fits best here.

YOUR TURN

What can substitute for the underlined word(s)? You may find more than one answer. Be sure that your choice(s) will fit the context of the sentence.

1. "I want my money back," said Max, his temper rising by the minute.
   - **I.** screamed
   - **II.** declared
   - **III.** whispered

2. There was an empty chair by the information desk.
   - **I.** An empty chair sat
   - **II.** An empty chair abutted
   - **III.** an empty chair waited

3. The chair had a red cushion.
   - **I.** sported
   - **II.** showed
   - **III.** revealed

4. Max defiantly sat in the chair.
   - **I.** plopped on
   - **II.** eased into
   - **III.** sank into

5. With menace in his eyes, Max looked at the clerk.
   - **I.** glanced
   - **II.** glared
   - **III.** smiled

6. The clerk was nervous.
   - **I.** trembled
   - **II.** tensed
   - **III.** quivered

7. Max looked at the clerk for two minutes.
   - **I.** examined
   - **II.** visualized
   - **III.** scrutinized

8 Finally, ashamed of his tantrum, Max said, "I'm sorry I scared you."

I. mentioned

II. commented

III. whispered

9 "That's all right, sir," the clerk said to Max.

I. commanded

II. directed

III. reassured

10 A police officer walked toward the clerk, radiating authority.

I. strode

II. plodded

III. hobbled

11 Max went to the other end of the counter, hoping the officer would not notice him.

I. leapt

II. slithered

III. bounced

12 The clerk gestured to the officer, grateful the situation was no longer her problem.

I. high-fived

II. slapped

III. pinched

Pinpointing Meaning with Nouns and Descriptions

Here's a sentence about a character in a novel:

> Juan picks up a pen but can't find anything to write on.

Picture the scene. Now read these sentences:

> Juan picks up a quill but can't find any parchment.
>
> Juan picks up a stylus but can't find a laptop.

Did your imagination come up with a match? I doubt it! How could you possibly move accurately from the general statement about writing materials to something as specific as *quill* and *parchment* or *stylus* and *laptop*? Nouns that pinpoint meaning add information and interest.

So do descriptions. Picture Juan's *unusual* stylus. Now adjust your image as you read these:

fluorescent blue stylus

thought-controlled stylus

ten-pound stylus

One more example: Juan appeared *upset.* Was he *irate? Apprehensive? Mournful?* These words all qualify as *upset,* but they carry extra meaning:

irate → anger

apprehensive → worry

grief-stricken → sorrow

Of course, sometimes a general noun or description is all you need, and you don't want to overload your readers or listeners with insignificant details. Keep in mind, though, that just the right word can pack a punch.

EXAMPLE

Q. Choose any nouns or descriptions that could substitute for the underlined word(s) in the original. More than one answer may be correct, but be sure that your choice fits the context of the sentence.

Juan made a decision that could lead to problems, including loss of life.

I. catastrophe

II. issues

III. worries

A. **I** *Loss of life* is a clue that the problems might be horrible, enough to qualify as a *catastrophe.* The other options are too general.

YOUR TURN

Choose any nouns or descriptions that could substitute for the underlined word(s) in the original. More than one answer may be correct, but be sure that your choice fits the context of the sentence.

13 Juan got into his vehicle and set a course for Mars.

I. car

II. interstellar transporter

III. spaceship

14 Halfway there, he discovered a problem in his sleeping quarters.

I. poisonous snake

II. comfy quilt

III. candy apple

15 His facial expression was interesting. Nothing would stop his journey!

I. determined

II. joyful

III. different

16 He retrieved a book from his personal locker and found the answer he needed.

I. a manual

II. Atlas of the Stars

III. Pest Control in Outer Space

17 From a different locker, he extracted an item.

I. a thing

II. a solution

III. a long cage, complete with bait.

18 That done, Juan turned his attention to the atmosphere on Mars, which was not good.

I. gentle

II. toxic

III. inviting

19 Juan wasn't discouraged; a special helmet and spacesuit would protect him.

I. a colorful

II. an airtight

III. a free

20 So off Juan soared, on his way to rescue someone important.

I. his mother

II. the emperor

III. a fellow astronaut

21 Juan's success brought about change.

I. a promotion

II. alterations

III. difference

Saving Time: Cutting Unnecessary Words

Have you ever endured an hour-long meeting that contained five minutes' worth of information? Remember that "Just say it already!" feeling when you're writing. No one appreciates repetition and wordiness. In this section I show you how to avoid both.

Repetition

I think of repetition as the "road-highway-expressway" error, as in

> Tom drove on roads, highways, and expressways during his trip from New York City to Seattle.

Granted, each word names a slightly different sort of thoroughfare, and if you're writing a technical discussion of transportation alternatives, you may need these three terms. But if you're discussing a cross-country trip, all you've done is waste your readers' time. Another example:

> Alfred loved to keep his house neat and tidy.

Neat and *tidy* are synonyms, so you don't need both words.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify repetitive words or phrases.

Elizabeth constructed a dollhouse from three-sided magnetic triangular blocks.

A. **three-sided, triangular** Triangles, by definition, have three sides.

YOUR TURN

Identify repetitive words or phrases.

22 Agnes was entirely and completely devoted to her pot-bellied pig.

23 The most carefree and unworried vacation awaits you at Pine Tree Estates!

24 The one-acre lot was covered with weeds and undesirable plants.

25 Herb has a nonfatal illness that never leads to death.

26 It's my opinion that eight hours' sleep is essential to one's well-being and overall health.

Wordiness

This is the first line of an autobiography I don't want to read:

> It was on the fourth of March of the year 1899 that my mother gave birth to me in a town known as Ballygreen in the country of Ireland.

Here's another first line. It isn't great, but at least I can get through it in a glance:

> I was born on March 4, 1899, in Ballygreen, Ireland.

The first example takes 29 words to say what the second example says in 10 — 8 if you count the date as a unit. Chopping out two thirds of the words doesn't change the information, but it does respect the audience by treating their time as valuable.

To avoid wordiness, watch out for

- **padding** If you're writing a report and have too little information, find out more or say what you *do* know and then stop. Teachers and supervisors have built-in fluff detectors.
- **insecurity** Worried that their message isn't clear, writers sometimes overexplain or say the same thing in two different ways to be sure the reader understands. Trust yourself! Say it clearly and then move on to a new topic.
- **showing and telling** Writing teachers often preach "show, don't tell" as a guiding principle. That's good advice, because examples, sensory details, and facts enlighten the reader. Too many writers, though, show *and* tell. Gasping, sweating runners with their hands on their knees don't have to be labeled as "tired." Nor do you have to state that they "tried as hard as they could."
- **stating the obvious** Similar to the preceding bullet point, assume that your audience can figure out the obvious. I often read essays about literary works that include phrases such as "in the book" or "in the poem." Unless you're comparing the same topic or character in two different media, delete those words. Similarly, don't bother writing "I think" unless you're contrasting your point of view with someone else's. The reader assumes you're expressing what you think. Why else would you write it?
- **overly complicated sentences** Tucking a couple of ideas into one sentence can make your writing sound more mature — if you do so skillfully. (See Chapter 24 for tips.) Meandering sentences that leave readers confused, however, muddle your message.

YOUR TURN

How should the original sentence be revised, if at all, to avoid wordiness? ***Note:*** Be sure the revision you choose is grammatically correct and faithful to the meaning of the original sentence.

27 Original sentence: The title character in *Macbeth* is ambitious, and it is this ambition that leads him to crime.

I. The title character, Macbeth, has ambition and leads him to crime.

II. Leading to crime, the title character in *Macbeth* is ambitious.

III. Ambition leads to crime in Shakespeare's Macbeth.

IV. The ambition of the title character of *Macbeth* leads him to crime.

28 Original sentence: Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument.

I. Fair and reasonable, Jill saw the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument.

II. Jill was always fair and reasonable, and she saw each side's advantages and disadvantages.

III. Jill seeing the advantages and disadvantages of both sides in every argument fairly.

IV. Jill's fairness and reasonableness led her to see both sides.

29 Original sentence: Smith Publishing, which publishes some books that deal with science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

I. Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

II. Smith Publishing employs many experts to eliminate errors in its science and math publications.

III. Smith Publishing, publishing some books about science and math, employs many experts in science and math to check its publications.

IV. Smith Publishing, which publishes some books about science and math, employs many experts to check its publications and eliminate any errors.

30 Original sentence: We were already sitting in seats when the orchestra, all musicians, began to play at the direction of the conductor, who raised his baton to start the performance.

I. We were already seated when the conductor raised his baton and the orchestra began to play.

II. We were already sitting when the orchestra, all musicians, began to play as the conductor, he raised his baton to start the performance.

III. The conductor raised his baton and the orchestra began to play and we were sitting in seats then.

IV. We were already sitting in seats when all musicians began playing at the direction of the conductor, who raised his baton to start the performance.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **I, II** You know Max is angry, so *whispered,* option III, doesn't fit. The other two choices add an edge to Max's voice. The first *(screamed)* is angrier. The second, *declared,* is firm and powerful but less aggressive.
2. **I, II** The chair wasn't doing anything, so it *sat.* It was *by the information desk,* so the verb *abutted* also works. With a bit of a stretch, option III fits, because it anticipates Max's use of the chair.
3. **I** Red is a lively color, so *sported* — "wore with flair" — fits well here.
4. **I** If there's defiance, you don't want options II or III, which are somewhat timid synonyms for *sat. Plopped* can show physical exhaustion, but it also has an element of force in it, so it's a good fit.
5. **II** You have *menace,* so *glared* works well here. *Smiled* is the opposite of what you want, and *glanced* is too casual.
6. **I, II, III** To show fear, you can select *trembled* or *quivered* because both indicate that the clerk is shaking. *Tensed* also fits.
7. **I, III** Max doesn't have to *visualize* (see with his imagination) the clerk because he's actually looking at the clerk for two minutes. That's a long time, so options I and III, which both mean "analyze," are good substitutes.
8. **III** Max is ashamed, so *whispered* is the best choice. *Mentioned* is too casual, as is *commented.*
9. **III** The clerk has just told Max not to worry about the tantrum, so option III works best here.
10. **I** *Strode* means "walked with authority and purpose," an excellent fit for this sentence.
11. **II** *Slithered* means "move like a snake," and snakes have a low profile. *Leapt* and *bounced* would call attention, the opposite of Max's purpose.
12. **I** To celebrate, two people can each raise one arm and slap their palms together. In other words, they *high-five.* The other actions imply anger, not celebration.
13. **II, III** To reach another planet, Juan can't travel in a car, so option I is out. The other two, while still in the realm of fantasy, are a good fit for this sentence.
14. **I** Only a *poisonous snake* qualifies as a problem!
15. **I** *Determined* fits because *nothing would stop* Juan.
16. **III** Any of the options would be better than *book,* but III is the most appropriate for a snake problem.
17. **III** The most specific choice gives the reader information about how Juan handled the snake.
18. **II** Only *toxic* fits with *not good.*
19. **II** To protect Juan from the Martian atmosphere, he needs an *airtight* helmet.
20. **I, II, III** We can argue about this one, but my view is that all three qualify as *someone important.*

21 **I** Options II and III are general. Only option I gives specific information.

22 **entirely, completely**

23 **carefree, unworried**

24 **weeds, undesirable plants**

25 **nonfatal, never leads to death**

26 **well-being, overall health**

27 **IV** The original sentence repeats *ambitious* and *ambition.* Option IV includes all the information of the original but drops five words. Options I, II, and III are shorter than IV, but something is lacking or amiss in each. In different ways, options I and II state that the *title character leads to crime.* Option III drops an important reference to the title character. Only option IV does the job.

28 **I** Option I cuts four words from the original without sacrificing meaning. If it's *every argument, always* is implied. By turning *was always fair and reasonable* into an introductory description, you also save words. Option II is longer than option I and omits the idea of *argument.* Without that word, the sentence may discuss political or social advantages of siding with one or another group. Option III is a fragment, not a complete sentence. Option IV may refer to a visit with two sides, not an evaluation of each argument.

29 **II** Once you read *Smith Publishing* in the original sentence, you know that the company *publishes.* If *experts eliminate errors in its science and math publications,* that they are *experts in science and math* and that they *check* are implied. Option II supplies all the information in half the space. All the other options contain unnecessary words.

30 **I** The original sentence includes *sitting in seats.* Where else can you sit? Okay, you can sit on the grass or on an exercise ball, but those are the exceptions. Also, *the orchestra* is made up of *all musicians* — another common fact you don't have to mention. Finally, *began to play* and *start the performance* provide the same information.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 22 Quiz

The following excerpt is from a holiday letter sent to friends and family. Answer the questions that follow.

> (a) Hi to all and everyone! (b) I'm devoting my New Year's letter to an amazing trip, a truly remarkable journey, that I took in late October. (c) It was on the morning of October 20th around 9 A.M. that I set out from my home. (d) I didn't know my destination at that point in time. (e) My priority was to experience new places, locations I had never been to before. (f) Traveling without a plan has advantages and disadvantages, I believe, because there are some good and some bad aspects of spontaneous unplanned action. (g) My first stop was Lake Ponke, where I looked at the world's largest giant ball of rubber bands. (h) There is a fence around the ball. (i) "It's the biggest rubber ball I have ever seen," said a tourist. (j) She moved to the ball, not looking at the fence and not looking at the sign that said, "Do Not Enter." (k) There was a security guard in front of the ball. (l) "Don't try to bounce it," he said.

1. How should sentence (a) be revised?

   I. Hi, everyone!

   II. Hi, all, and that includes everyone!

2. How should sentence (b) be revised?

   I. I'm devoting my New Year's letter to an amazing trip I took in late October.

   II. In late October I took an amazing trip that I want to tell you about in this, my New Year's letter.

3. How should sentence (c) be revised?

   I. It was around 9 a.m. on October 20 that I set out from my home.

   II. I left my home around 9 a.m. on October 20.

4. How should sentences (d) and (e) be revised?

   I. I didn't know my destination at that point in time because my priority was to experience new places.

   II. With no planned destination, my priority was to experience new places.

5. How should sentence (f) be revised?

   I. There are good and bad aspects of spontaneous action.

   II. Delete the entire sentence.

6 How should sentence (g) be revised?

I. My first stop was Lake Ponke, where I looked at the world's largest giant ball of rubber bands.

II. First I stopped at Lake Ponke to marvel at the world's largest giant ball of rubber bands.

7 How should sentence (h) be revised?

I. A fence surrounds the ball.

II. There is a surrounding fence at the ball.

8 How should sentence (i) be revised?

I. "It's the biggest rubber ball I have ever seen," exclaimed a tourist.

II. "It's the biggest rubber ball I have ever seen," said a tourist.

9 How should sentence (j) be revised?

I. She paced to the ball, not looking at the fence and not looking at the sign that declared, "Do Not Enter."

II. She strode to the ball, ignoring the fence and the sign that proclaimed, "Do Not Enter."

10 How should sentences (k) and (l) be revised?

I. "Don't try to bounce it," ordered a security guard.

II. There was a security guard in front of the ball who said, "Don't try to bounce it."

Answers to Chapter 22 Quiz

1. **I** Repeating *all* and *everyone* serves no purpose.
2. **I** Option II is unnecessarily wordy. Why include *this*?
3. **II** The construction *it was . . . that* is generally an open door to wordiness. The simpler sentence works well.
4. **II** Option II is shorter and gets the job done.
5. **II** Everything has good and bad aspects. I'd delete this sentence and move on to the specifics of what worked and what didn't.
6. **II** *Marvel* is more interesting than *looked*, and *I stopped* more concise than *My first stop was.*
7. **I** *There is* and similar expressions add little to your writing. Opt for the more interesting verb, *surrounds*.
8. **I** *Exclaimed* adds a sense of the tourist's emotion.
9. **II** Stronger verbs *(strode, ignoring)* and fewer words make this sentence the better option.
10. **I** Option I is shorter and includes all the information.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Avoiding common grammar mistakes
- Distinguishing between words that sound alike but have different meanings
- Dealing with troublesome words
- Recognizing nonstandard expressions

Chapter 23
Grammar Gremlins

Gremlins are fictional creatures blamed for unexpected problems. The good news about grammar gremlins is that once you learn to recognize them, you can rid your writing of the problems they cause. From double negatives to sound-alikes to expressions that are common but not correct in Standard English, this chapter explains everything you need to know.

Deleting Double Negatives

In some languages, the more negatives, the better. In English, however, two negatives are a no-no. (By the way, no-no is *not* a double negative! It's just slang for something that's prohibited.) Two negative words logically create a positive statement. Take a look at these examples:

WHAT LENNY SAID: I didn't kill nobody.

WHAT LENNY THINKS THAT MEANS: I am not a murderer. I have killed no one.

WHAT IT REALLY MEANS: I am a murderer. I didn't kill *nobody,* but I did kill *somebody.*

CORRECTED SENTENCE: I didn't kill anybody.

You can argue, and in part you'd be right, that most listeners or readers will understand that Lenny is trying to say he's innocent. In Standard English, though, Lenny's confessing. Why take a chance on being misunderstood?

One of the most common double negatives is *cannot help but*, as in

> Egbert *cannot help but* act in that dramatic style; he was trained by a real ham.

Unfortunately, this sentence states a double negative with the word *not* (inside the word *cannot*) and *but*. One or the other gives you a negative, but not both. Here's the correct version:

> Egbert *cannot help acting* in that dramatic style; he was trained by a real ham.

If you think this is one in a long list of useless grammar rules, think again. When you say *cannot help but*, you actually express the opposite of what you imagine you're saying (or writing). For example:

> WHAT MAX SAID TO THE BOSS: I cannot help but ask for a raise.
>
> WHAT HE THINKS HE SAID: I have to ask for a raise.
>
> WHAT HE REALLY SAID: I can't ask for a raise.
>
> WHAT THE BOSS SAID TO MAX: I cannot help but say no.
>
> WHAT THE BOSS THINKS SHE SAID: No.
>
> WHAT THE BOSS ACTUALLY SAID: Yes.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is free of double negatives?

(A) I cannot help but think that this double-negative rule is ridiculous.

(B) I ain't got nobody.

(C) I cannot help thinking that this double-negative rule is ridiculous.

A. **(C)** Sentence (a) contains *cannot help but*, and sentence (b) has *ain't* (a slang form of *don't*) and *nobody*. Only sentence (c) is free of double negatives.

Another common double negative is *can't hardly*. That's a phrase in wide use in many areas, and it's fine in informal, friendly situations. When you're using Standard English, though, stay away from this expression. *Can't* is short for *cannot*, which contains the negative *not*. *Hardly* is another negative word. If you combine them, by the logic of grammar, you've said the opposite of what you intended — the positive instead of the negative. Here are a few examples:

> WHAT ROGER SAID: Lulu can't hardly count her tattoos.
>
> WHAT ROGER THINKS HE SAID: Lulu can't count her tattoos.
>
> WHAT ROGER ACTUALLY SAID: Lulu can count her tattoos.
>
> WHAT EUGENE WROTE: Ella can't hardly wait until her divorce becomes final.
>
> WHAT EUGENE THINKS THE SENTENCE MEANS: Ella is eager for her divorce to become final.
>
> WHAT THE SENTENCE ACTUALLY MEANS: Ella can wait.

TIP

A variation of this double negative is *can't scarcely*, *aren't scarcely*, or *isn't scarcely.* Once again, *can't* is short for *cannot*, clearly a negative. *Aren't* and *isn't* are the negative forms of *are* and *is. Scarcely* is also negative. Use them together and you end up with a positive, not an emphatic negative.

Here's one more double negative, in a couple of forms: *hadn't only*, *haven't only*, *hasn't only*, *hadn't but*, *haven't but*, and *hasn't but.* All express positive ideas because the *not (n't)* part of the verb and the *only* or *but* are both negatives:

WRONG: Alfred *hadn't but* ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

WHY IT'S WRONG: As it reads now, the sentence says that Alfred had more than ten seconds to defuse the bomb, but the little red numbers on the trigger were at seven and decreasing rapidly.

RIGHT: Alfred *had but* ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

ALSO RIGHT: Alfred *had* only ten seconds to defuse the bomb before civilization as we know it ended.

WRONG: Roger *hasn't only* ten nuclear secrets.

WHY IT'S WRONG: The sentence now says that Roger has more than ten secrets, but he just counted them and he has only ten.

RIGHT: Roger *has only* ten nuclear secrets.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence is correct in Standard English?

(A) Ella can't hardly understand those pesky grammar rules.

(B) Ella can't help but be confused by those pesky grammar rules.

(C) neither

A. **(C)** In sentence (A), *can't hardly* is a double negative. In sentence (B), *cannot help but* is a double negative.

YOUR TURN

Which sentence is correct in Standard English?

1 **(A)** Vincent is humming so loud that I can't hardly think.

(B) Vincent is humming so loud that I can hardly think.

(C) neither

2 **(A)** Candice hasn't got a problem with Vincent's noisy behavior.

(B) Candice ain't got no problem with Vincent's noisy behavior.

(C) neither

3 **(A)** The teacher looked at Vincent and declared, "I allow no singing here."

(B) The teacher looked at Vincent and declared, "I do not allow no singing here."

(C) neither

4 **(A)** Vincent hadn't but five minutes to finish the math section of the test.

(B) Vincent had but five minutes to finish the math section of the test.

(C) neither

5 **(A)** "I can't help but believe that your rule is unfair to musicians," said Benny.

(B) "I can't hardly believe that your rule is unfair to musicians," said Benny.

(C) neither

Sounding Incorrect

Many people speak quickly, often dropping letters. Most listeners can guess the intended meaning. But if you reproduce those sounds when you're writing, you may end up with a misspelled word. This section explains how to avoid grammatically illegal sound effects.

Scoring D minus

Judging from the signs I often see on my walks around New York City, the letter *D* stands for "dropped." Stores sell *grill cheese* (not *grilled*, as it should be) and *ice tea* (which is actually *iced*). You may find these sentences familiar, too:

> Lola *was suppose* to take out the garbage, but she refused to do so.
>
> Ralph *use* to take out the trash, but after an unfortunate encounter with a raccoon, he is reluctant to go anywhere near the cans.

Check out the italicized verbs: *was suppose* and *use.* Both represent what people hear but not what the speaker is actually trying to say. The correct words are *supposed* and *used* — past-tense forms.

I can't leave this topic without mentioning the opposite error, which is far less common but can lead to some silly mistakes. A restaurant in my neighborhood posted a "Help Wanted" sign, asking *grilled men* to apply. I believe they wanted someone who could cook on a grill, not someone who'd sat on a barbecue. The added *D* makes quite a difference in meaning!

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct or incorrect in Standard English?

The boss is hiring experience applicants only.

A. **incorrect** The applicants should be *experienced*, not *experience.*

Three terrible twos

English has three words that sound like 2, and no, they don't add up to six. *To* may be part of an infinitive *(to speak, to dream)*, or it may show movement toward someone or something *(to the store, to me)*. *Two* is the number *(two eyes, two ears)*. *Too* means "also" *(Are you going too?)* or "more than enough" *(too expensive, too wide)*. In other words:

> If you *two* want *to* skip school and go *to* the ball game, today's a good day because the teacher will be *too* busy *to* check.
>
> The *two* basketballs that hit Larry in the head yesterday were *too* soft *to* do much damage, but Larry is suing anyway.
>
> *Two* things you should always remember before you decide *to* break a grammar rule: It's never *too* late *to* learn proper English, and you're never *too* old *to* get in trouble with your teacher.

TIP

In Chapter 17, I discuss *whose/who's*, *its/it's*, *their/there/they're*, and *your/you're* — words that sound alike but have different meanings.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

(To, Two, Too) hours is (to, two, too) much time (to, two, too) waste on homework.

A. **Two, too, to** The first blank calls for quantity and the second for intensity. The third blank is part of an infinitive.

You gotta problem with grammar?

If you speak proper English all the time — and few people do — you don't say *gotta*, *gonna*, or *gotcha*. These words sound like *got to*, *going to*, and *got you*, which are correct in Standard English. Although saying *gotta* when you're chatting with a friend is perfectly okay, it isn't okay when you're speaking to a teacher, a boss, a television interviewer, the supreme ruler of the universe, or anyone else in authority. Thus,

> NONSTANDARD: You *gonna* wait for Cedric? He bought a new car, and he might give us a ride.
>
> STANDARD: *Are* you *going* to wait for Cedric? He bought a new car, and he might give us a ride.
>
> NONSTANDARD: No, I *gotta* go.
>
> STANDARD: No, I *have to* go.
>
> NONSTANDARD: *Gotcha.* Next week we'll go bowling.
>
> STANDARD: *I understand.* Next week we'll go bowling.

I'd add another sample conversation, but it's almost time for lunch. I gotta go.

EXAMPLE

Q. Identify the sentences written in Standard English. You may find one, more than one, or none.

(A) When you're in trouble, remember that you have a friend.

(B) When you're in trouble, remember that you gotta friend.

(C) When you're in trouble, remember that you've gotta friend.

A. **(A)** *Gotta* is not Standard English. Only option (a) eliminates that expression and substitutes *have.*

Almost twins

Some word pairs that sound almost the same sometimes trespass on each other's territory. Sort them out, and you'll avoid errors in your writing.

Continual/continually; continuous/continuously

Continual and *continually* refer to events that happen over and over again, but with breaks between each instance. (*Continual* describes nouns, and *continually* describes verbs.) *Continuous* and *continuously* are for situations without gaps. (As you've probably guessed, *continuous* attaches to nouns, and *continuously* to verbs.) *Continuous* noise is steady, uninterrupted, like the drone of the electric generator in your local power plant. *Continual* noise is what you hear when I go bowling. You hear silence (when I stare at the pins), a little noise (when the ball rolls down the alley), and silence again (when the ball slides into the gutter without hitting anything). After an hour, you hear noise (when I finally hit something and begin to cheer). In case you're wondering, I'm a very bad bowler.

Here are a couple of examples of these two descriptions in action:

NONSTANDARD: Jim screams *continually* until Lola stuffs rags in his mouth.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: Jim's screams don't come and go. When he's upset, he's really upset, and nothing shuts him up except a gag.

STANDARD: Jim screams *continuously* until Lola stuffs rags in his mouth.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: In this version, Jim takes no breaks.

NONSTANDARD: Ella's *continuous* attempts to impress Larry were unsuccessful. Despite the fact that she sent him a fruit basket on Monday and flowers on Tuesday, Larry ignored her.

WHY IT'S NOT STANDARD: Ella's attempts stop and start. She does one thing on Monday, rests up, and then does another on Tuesday.

STANDARD: Ella's *continual* attempts to impress Larry were unsuccessful.

WHY IT'S STANDARD: Now the sentence talks about a recurring action.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

If you (continually, continuously) interrupt me, I'll never finish my novel.

A. **continually** An interruption happens, stops, and happens again. Therefore, *continually* fits here.

Farther/further

Farther refers to distance. If you need to travel *farther*, you have more miles to cover. *Further* also has a sense of "more" in it, but not more distance. Instead, *further* means "additional." *Further* is for time, ideas, activities, and so forth. Some examples:

Abe's online profile requires *further* work, but he's too lazy to update it.

Mimi flew *farther* than anyone else in the club, even though she's afraid of heights.

They believe *further* discussion is silly, because everyone's mind is already made up.

The *farther* Jim walks, the more his shoes hurt.

EXAMPLE

Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

Q. Fueled by the caffeine in two double espressos, Jake drove (farther/further) than anyone else.

A. **farther** If you're dealing with distance, *farther* is the one you want.

Accept/except

Accept is "to say yes to, to agree, to receive." *Except* means "everything but." *Except* excludes, and *accepts* welcomes. Therefore,

Please *accept* my apology. I cleaned everything in the kitchen *except* for the oven. I ran out of time.

Marge *accepted* all her in-laws *except* for Larry. She despised him!

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

Everyone in the motorcycle gang, (accept, except) for Lola, graciously (accepted, excepted) a new muffler from the Society for the Prevention of Road Noise.

A. **except, accepted** The first blank calls for a word that excludes, and the second for one that willingly receives.

Affect/effect

Affect is a verb meaning "to influence." *Effect* is a noun meaning "a change that is the result of an action." Hence

> Sunlight affects Pete's appetite; he never eats during the day.
>
> Lola thinks that pizza will positively affect her diet, but I think the effect will be disastrous.

Special note: *Affect* may also be a noun meaning "the way one relates to and shows emotions." *Effect* may act as a verb meaning "to cause a complete change." You rarely need these secondary meanings.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

The roar of Lola's motorcycle always (affects, effects) my concentration.

A. **affects** You need a verb here, because the sentence means that the noise influences focus.

YOUR TURN

Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

6. I (accept, except) the nomination for president.
7. That donation to my campaign has no (affect, effect) on my political views.
8. The (continual, continuous) sound from that machine is driving me crazy! It never stops!
9. The judge insisted on (farther/further) proof that the cop's speed gun was broken.
10. I gave the judge tons of proof, which he refused to (accept/except).
11. Waving my wallet vigorously at the judge, I tried to (affect/effect) the verdict by hinting at a large bribe.
12. Judge Crater stubbornly refused to hear my side of the story and (continually/continuously) interrupted me.
13. "Don't go any (farther/further) with your testimony," he snarled.
14. The judge's words, unfortunately, are (gonna, going to) be drowned out by the (continual/continuous) hammering from the construction next door, which never stopped.
15. "It's (to, too, two) loud and the (affect/effect) of this noise is disastrous," said the defendant.
16. "We're (suppose, supposed) to meet in a quiet room," added the defense attorney.
17. Nothing they said (affected/effected) the judge's ruling, and we eventually became (use, used) to the sound level.

18 (To, Too, Two) portraits of the judge (use, used) to be on the wall behind the bench, but they were (to, too, two) distracting.

19 "My romantic partner is not (gonna, going to) spend (farther/further) time with me if the judge imposes a large fine," whispered the defendant.

20 He thinks his beloved is (use, used) to high-priced food and will not (accept/except) a date to a cheap restaurant.

Pairs of Trouble: Complicated Verbs

Whenever I'm trying to set up a new piece of technology, I think about the person who wrote the manual. In my imagination, the writer is sitting in a windowless room, laughing at the trouble the complicated instructions cause buyers. The same sort of person, I think, also created a few pairs of verbs that are guaranteed to give you a headache — unless you read this section.

Sit/set

Sit (as well as *sat*) is a verb describing what you do when you plop yourself down on a chair, the floor, or anywhere. *Set* means "to put something else down, to place something in a particular spot." Thus,

> Ron seldom sits for more than two minutes.
>
> I'd like to sit down while I speak, but only if you promise not to set that plate of pickled fish in front of me.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

"I (sat, set) the diamonds on the shelf!" cried Maria as she (sat, set) in the witness chair. "There was a guard (sitting, setting) right next to them!"

A. **set, sat, sitting** The first spot calls for a word meaning "to put down an object," and the next two require words that convey the action of moving the body into a chair.

Hanged/hung

To hang is a verb meaning "to suspend." In the present tense, the same verb does double duty. You *hang* a picture and you also *hang* a murderer, at least in countries with that form of capital punishment. Past tense is different; in general, people are *hanged* and objects are *hung.* Therefore,

> In Michael's new movie, Lulu stars as the righteous rebel leader *hanged* by the opposition.
>
> After the stirring execution scene, the rebels gain strength, inspired by a picture of Lulu that someone *hung* on the wall of their headquarters.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

The decorator (hanged, hung) the painting on the wall.

A. **hung** The painting was "suspended," not "executed."

Rise/raise

Rise means "to stand," "to get out of bed," or "to move to a higher rank" under one's own power. *Raise* means "to lift something or someone else" or "to bring up children or animals." Check out these verbs in action:

> Egbert *rises* when a poultry expert enters the room.
>
> Egbert is an apprentice, but he hopes to *rise* to the rank of master poultry-breeder someday.
>
> He *raises* roosters on his farm, delighting the neighbors every morning at sunrise.
>
> When a nest is too low, Egbert *raises* it to a higher shelf.

Here's another way to think about this pair: *Rise* is a self-contained action. *Raise* is an action that begins with one person (or thing) and moves to another person or thing. You *rise* by yourself; you *raise* something else.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which word is correct in Standard English?

Roberta claims it wasn't hard to (rise, raise) 16 children.

A. **raise** The action here begins with one person (Roberta) and moves to others (the children).

Lie/lay

Whoever invented the verbs *lie* and *lay* had an evil sense of humor. Besides meaning "not to tell the truth," *lie* also means "to rest or to plop yourself down, ready for a snooze" or "to remain." *Lay* means "to put something down, to place something." Here are some examples:

> Sheila likes to *lie* down for an hour after lunch. Before she hits the couch, she *lays* a soft sheet over the upholstery.
>
> Roger *lies* in wait behind those bushes. When unsuspecting tourists *lay* down their picnic blankets, he swoops in and steals their lunches.

So far, this topic isn't too complicated. The problem — and the truly devilish part — comes in the past tense. The past tense of *lie* (to rest, to recline, to remain) is *lay*. The past tense of *lay* (to put or place) is *laid*. Check out these examples:

> Sheila *lay* down yesterday, but a car alarm disturbed her rest. She immediately went to the street and *laid* a carpet of nails in front of the offending vehicle.

Yesterday, while Roger *lay* in wait, a police officer *laid* a hand on Roger's shoulder. "You are under arrest," intoned the cop.

One more complication: When you add *has*, *had*, or *have* to the verb *lie* (to rest, to recline, to remain), you say *has lain*, *had lain*, *have lain.* When you add *has*, *had*, or *have* to the verb *lay* (to put or place), you say *has laid*, *had laid*, *have laid.* In other words:

Sheila *has lain* in the hammock all morning, and her brothers *have laid* a basket of red ants on the ground beneath her. When Sheila gets up, she'll be surprised!

Roger *has lain* in the lumpy bunk all night, but no one *has laid* a blanket over him.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word that is correct in Standard English.

Yesterday Alice was so tired that she (lie/lay/lied/laid/lain) down for a nap even though her favorite true-crime show was on television.

A. **lay** The past tense of *lie* (to rest) is *lay.*

Lose/loose

To lose is "not to win, to come up short." *Lose* also means that you can't find something or have had to give something up. *Loose* is nearly always used as a description meaning "roomy, not tight." As a verb, *to loose* is "to set free." Read these examples:

If you *lose* the game, your team will ask for a rematch.

That uniform is too *loose;* tighten your belt!

Loose the giant hound, Sherlock. He's been tied up too long.

Jim often *loses* when he plays that video game.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which word is correct in Standard English?

The (lose, loose) belt shows that Roger does not need to (loose, lose) more weight.

A. **loose, lose** The belt is not tight, so it's *loose.* Thus, Roger doesn't have to get rid of, or *lose*, excess weight.

YOUR TURN

Which word is correct in Standard English?

21 The main character in Alice's favorite show (lies/lays) in bed, comatose.

22 As in all soap operas, the handsome doctor (sits/sets) by the bed every day with a look of concern and love on his face.

23. In yesterday's episode, the doctor (sit/sat/set) a bouquet of flowers on the nightstand. By the end of the show, he would (lose, loose) his temper and smash the vase.

24. When the nurse told the doctor to go home and (lie/lay) down, the doctor replied that she would "(sit/set) down for a while."

25. Last week the doctor (hanged/hung) a wreath on a mysterious tomb. A dog got (lose, loose) and snatched the wreath.

26. Viewers think the tomb belongs to the doctor's long-lost lover, who will (rise, raise) a fuss when she returns from an extended vacation to hear everyone say she (raised, rose) from the dead.

27. In a special episode, someone was (hanged, hung) for the crime of killing the long-lost lover!

28. In a dramatic scene, the lover will (sit/set) next to the doctor in the cafeteria and confess that she doesn't want to (lose, loose) him.

29. The final show will reveal that her evil twin was the one (lying/laying) in bed, comatose.

30. The evil twin will (rise, raise) to her feet and explain how she was injured.

One Word or Two?

Here's a spelling tip: The following words are often written as one, but that's incorrect in Standard English: *a lot*, *all right*, *each other.*

> Ella has *a lot* of trouble distinguishing between the sounds of "l" and "r," so she tries to avoid the expression *"all right"* whenever possible.
>
> Ella and Larry (who also has pronunciation trouble) help *each other* prepare state-of-the-union speeches every January.

Here's another tip: You can write the following words as one or two words, but with two different meanings: *altogether* means "extremely, entirely." *All together* means "as one."

> Daniel was *altogether* disgusted with the way the flock of dodo birds sang *all together.*

Another set of tricky words: *Sometime* means "at a certain point in time," and *some time* means "a period of time." *Sometimes* (with an *s*) means "from time to time, occasionally."

> Lex said he would visit Lulu *sometime,* but not now, because he has to spend *some time* in jail for murdering the English language.
>
> *Sometimes* Peter and Rebecca go to the gym on Friday, but Monday is their usual day.

Still more: *Someplace* means "an unspecified place." The word functions as an adverb, describing an action. The expression *some place* means "a place" and refers to a physical space.

> Lex screamed, "I have to go *someplace* now!"
>
> Lulu thinks he headed for *some place* near the railroad station where the pizza is hot and no one asks any questions.

And another pair: *Everyday* means "ordinary, common." *Every day* means "occurring daily."

> Larry loves *everyday* activities such as cooking, cleaning, and sewing.
>
> He has the palace staff perform all those duties *every day.*

Last set, I promise: *Anyway* means "in any event." *Any way* means "a way, some sort of way."

> *"Anyway,"* added Roy, "I don't think there is *any way* to avoid jail for grammar crimes."

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word or words that create a sentence that is correct in Standard English.

This fork belongs to Lola's (everyday, every day) set of silverware.

A. **everyday** This sentence isn't about time; you need a word that means "ordinary."

YOUR TURN

Select the word or words that create a sentence that is correct in Standard English.

31. Do you have (sometime, sometimes, some time) to help Roger with his algebra homework?
32. He hasn't done homework all year, so he will need (alot, a lot) of help.
33. If it's (alright, all right) with you, have the chorus sing (altogether, all together).
34. Vince told his brothers that he wanted them (already, all ready) to go before he came home from work.
35. When he called them at 11, he discovered that they had spoken with (eachother, each other) and had (already, all ready) left.
36. "I need (sometime, sometimes, some time) alone," cried Jane.
37. Henry promised to visit his friends (sometime, some time) next year.
38. (Sometime, Sometimes, Some time) Henry ignores his own promises, but he usually follows through.
39. Carl was busy and would not allow Roger (anytime, any time) to speak.

40 Bill said Roger could phone him (anytime, any time).

41 (Everyday, Every day), Glen washes the dishes.

42 Your approach to chores is (altogether, all together) unacceptable.

Three for the Road: Other Common Errors

If you made it this far into the chapter, you've cleared up (I hope!) a few confusing grammar points. Time to hit you with a few last mistakes that appear often — and that are super easy to correct.

Between/among

Between and *among* are two tricky prepositions that are often used incorrectly. To choose the appropriate preposition, decide how many people or things you're talking about. If the answer is two, you want *between*, as in this sentence:

> Lola was completely unable to choose *between* the biker magazine and *Poetry for Weightlifters.* (two magazines only)

If you're talking about more than two, *among* is the appropriate word:

> Lola strolled *among* the parked motorcycles, reading poetry aloud. (more than two motorcycles)

One exception: Treaties are made *between* nations, even if more than two countries sign:

> The treaty to outlaw bubblegum was negotiated *between* Libya, the United States, Russia, and Ecuador.

Being that

Many people say *being that* to introduce a reason, but this expression is not correct in Standard English. Try *because* or *given that.* For example:

> NONSTANDARD: *Being that* it was Thanksgiving, Mel bought a turkey.
>
> STANDARD: *Because* it was Thanksgiving, Mel bought a turkey.
>
> ALSO STANDARD: *Given that* it was Thanksgiving, Mel bought a turkey.
>
> NONSTANDARD: The turkey shed a tear or two, *being that* it was Thanksgiving.
>
> STANDARD: The turkey shed a tear or two, *because* it was Thanksgiving.
>
> ALSO STANDARD: The turkey shed a tear or two, *given that* it was Thanksgiving.

WARNING

Irregardless is in the same category as *being that* — a word many people say that is not correct in Standard English. If you want to be sure that everyone views your language as proper, try *regardless* or *nevertheless.*

Try and/try to

Should you *try and* or *try to* figure out a grammar problem? *Try and* means that you're going to do two different things: *try* (first task) and *figure out* (second task). People using this expression don't really have two tasks in mind. What they mean is *try to figure this one out. Try to* follows the normal English pattern of a verb and an infinitive. *Try to remember* the verb-infinitive rule and *try to forget* about *try and.* Some examples:

Try to remember where you parked the car.

Jack tried to tie the car to a tree, but someone stole the Mercedes anyway.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the word or words that are correct in Standard English.

(Because, Being that) I'm the most determined person on the planet, I have only one message for you: (Try and, Try to) stop me! I bet you can't!

A. **Because, Try to** *Being that* and *try and* are nonstandard.

YOUR TURN

Select the word or expression that is correct in Standard English.

43 (Between, Among) the 15 club members there was little agreement.

44 (Because, Being that) the club has a tight budget, club members should not plan an expensive field trip.

45 The club members will (try and, try to) find a local company willing to sponsor their activities.

46 (Between, Among) you and me, I doubt anyone will be interested in helping them.

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **(B)** *Can't hardly* is a double negative, so (A) is out. Sentence (B) correctly changes the expression to *can hardly.*
2. **(A)** Option (B), *ain't got no problem,* sounds wonderfully emphatic, but logically it means "have got problems." Sentence (A) is correct.
3. **(A)** Sentence (A) has only one negative, *no singing.* Sentence (B) has a double *(not, no).*
4. **(B)** *Hadn't but* is a double negative, so (A) isn't Standard English. Sentence (B) includes only one negative word, *but,* so it's correct.
5. **(C)** *Can't help but* and *can't hardly* are both double negatives, so neither sentence is correct in Standard English.
6. **accept** In this sentence you need a verb meaning "to receive willingly."
7. **effect** This sentence calls for a noun meaning "a change that is the result of an action."
8. **continuous** If it never stops, it's *continuous.*
9. **further** In this sentence you're not talking about distance, so *further,* which means "additional," fits.
10. **accept** The judge did not "receive willingly," or *accept,* the proof.
11. **affect** The sentence calls for a verb meaning "influence."
12. **continually** The sentence is about an action (interrupting) that starts and stops.
13. **further** The word *further* means "additional" and applies to everything but distance.
14. **going to, continuous** *Gonna* isn't standard. The hammering didn't stop, so it's *continuous.*
15. **too, effect** The first spot calls for an intensifier, *too.* The second requires a noun meaning "result."
16. **supposed** If you drop the *d,* you're in nonstandard territory.
17. **affected, used** The first spot calls for a verb meaning "influence." The second requires an expression meaning "accustomed to," *used.*
18. **Two, used, too** In the first spot you need a number; in the second, a verb meaning "accustomed"; and in the third, an intensifier.
19. **going to, further** *Gonna* isn't standard, and *further* is required to express "additional" time.
20. **used, accept** In the first spot you need a word meaning "accustomed," and in the second a verb meaning "willingly accept."
21. **lies** This sentence needs a verb meaning "rest or recline."
22. **sits** The doctor is in a chair, so he *sits.*

23 **set, lose** The first spot calls for a verb meaning "to put"; in the second spot, you need a verb showing that the doctor couldn't hold onto his temper.

24 **lie, sit** Both spots require body positions — the first reclining and the second remaining in a chair.

25 **hung, loose** The tomb wasn't executed, so *hung* is the verb for the first spot. The dog gained freedom and thus got *loose.*

26 **raise, rose** In the first spot, the lover will lift something (*raise* her voice); in the second spot, people are saying she lifted herself *(rose).*

27 **hanged** This verb means "executed."

28 **sit, lose** The first is a body position, the second an expression about giving up something or having it taken away.

29 **lying** The evil twin is reclining, or *lying.*

30 **rise** This verb expresses body position or movement.

31 **some time** The correct expression refers to a period of time.

32 **a lot** These words should always be separated if you're writing in Standard English.

33 **all right, all together** The word *alright* is nonstandard. The chorus should sing as one, *altogether.*

34 **all ready** Vince has more than one brother, and he wants them *all* [to be] *ready.*

35 **each other, already** *Eachother* as one word is nonstandard. For the second spot, you need a word meaning "prior to, before."

36 **some time** The meaning needed here is "a period of time."

37 **sometime** The meaning needed here is "at some point in time."

38 **Sometimes** The sentence calls for a word meaning "from time to time."

39 **any time** Here you need an expression meaning "an unspecified period of time."

40 **anytime** The sentence suggests that "at an unspecified point in time" is the meaning.

41 **Every day** Glen washes the dishes seven days a week, every week. That's *every day.*

42 **altogether** In this sentence you need a word that means "completely."

43 **Among** Because you're talking about more than two, *among* is the word you need here.

44 **Because** *Being that* is nonstandard.

45 **try to** *Try and* implies two tasks, but that's not logical in this sentence.

46 **Between** In a group of two, *between* is the word you want. Also, the grammatically correct expression is *between you and me,* not *between you and I.* Why? *Between* is a preposition and requires an object pronoun, *me,* not a subject pronoun, *I.* (For more on object pronouns, see Chapter 14.)

Whaddya Know? Chapter 23 Quiz

Which word is correct in Standard English?

1. (Sometime, Sometimes, Some time) the teacher's views on having (alot, a lot) of technology in the classroom bother Mark, such as when he texts his brother Jim.
2. Jim doesn't usually answer immediately, (because, being that) he is very busy.
3. When Mark (raises, rises) the issue, he and Jim talk to (eachother, each other) about whether texting takes priority over homework.
4. The brothers are (altogether, all together) committed to (setting, sitting) down for a good talk when (two, to, too) much tension exists between them.
5. "If you (sit, set) your phone on the top shelf (everyday, every day) at bedtime," said Mark, "you will sleep better.
6. "(Alright, All right)," replied Jim, "I will (try and, try to) do that, but I'm afraid I'll forget and (lose, loose) my phone.
7. "I (hanged, hung) a note over the bathroom mirror reminding me to take my phone with me when I go to school," commented Mark.
8. "You (use, used) to be more fun! Now you only do what you're (suppose, supposed) to do!" shouted Jim.
9. Mark and Jim's mom can't (accept, except) any phone use after 9 p.m. because she's sure their texting (affects, effects) their grades.
10. She explains her views daily, usually during dinner, but her (continual, continuous) nagging has little (affect, effect).

Answers to Chapter 23 Quiz

1. **Sometimes, a lot** The word *sometimes* best describes an event that occurs occasionally. *A lot* is two words.
2. **because** Being that isn't correct in Standard English.
3. **raises, each other** The verb *raise* is appropriate for calling attention to or lifting an item. *Rise* is best for the act of lifting oneself. *Each other* is never written as a single word in Standard English.
4. **altogether, sitting, too** The first spot calls for a word meaning "completely." The second refers to getting comfortable in a chair; the third spot requires an intensifier.
5. **set, every day** *Set* is the verb you want when someone places an object somewhere. *Every day* as two words means "each day."
6. **All right, try to, lose** *Alright* and *try and* aren't correct in Standard English. *Lose* is the verb you want when you can't find something.
7. **hung** The note isn't being executed, or *hanged.* It's being suspended, or *hung,* over the mirror.
8. **used, supposed** If you delete the *d* in these words, they're not standard.
9. **accepts, affects** In the first spot you need a verb, not a preposition that excludes someone or something. In the second spot you need a verb meaning "influences."
10. **continual, effect** The nagging stops and starts, so it's *continual.* The result, or *effect,* isn't what the mom hoped for. (Perhaps she should switch to *continuous* nagging! Without a pause, Mark and Jim may give in to her demands!)

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Employing verbals and clauses to create interesting sentence patterns
- Manipulating sentence structure to emphasize and unite ideas
- Varying sentence length

Chapter 24
Writing Stylish Sentences

Many television shows feature aspiring designers who cut patterns and sew, glue, or staple fashion-forward clothing. Why do so many people, including me, watch? To see something new, to be jolted out of the "same old, same old" pattern. Writing is no different. Chances are you have some basic sentence patterns that serve you well. But if you've ever longed for a change of pace, this chapter is for you. Here you find out how to add variety and style to your sentences by employing verbals and clauses, combining ideas artfully, changing word order, and adjusting sentence structure and length.

Speaking Verbally

Every family has some members who add zing to holiday dinners. *Verbals* are the grammatical equivalent of those relatives. As the name implies, verbals have a connection with verbs, and they also share traits of other parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, and adverbs). Verbals never act as the verb in a sentence, and they're never part of the matching subject-verb pair required for a complete sentence. They may anchor a *verbal phrase,* with an object or a subject complement and descriptions. Verbals also have *tense,* an expression of time. This section explains how to identify verbals and use them to enliven your sentences.

Identifying verbals

You've spent a lot of time with the verbal family, most likely without knowing their names — *infinitives*, *participles*, and *gerunds*.

Infinitives

Infinitives are what you get when you tack *to* in front of the most basic form of the verb. An infinitive may function as a description or as a noun, but never as the verb in a sentence. In these examples, the *infinitive phrase* (the infinitive plus its object or subject complement and descriptions) is in italics:

> *To protect herself against bad breath,* Alice packed a few hundred rolls of mints. *(to protect* = infinitive describing *packed)*
>
> *To win an Oscar* was Roger's goal. *(to win* = infinitive acting as the subject of the verb *was)*

TIP

Somewhere, sometime, someone came up with the idea that you shouldn't split an infinitive. That is, you shouldn't place any other word between *to* and the verb. This "rule," which many people still follow, may have arisen from the fact that in Latin (a language that has contributed much to English) the infinitive is a single word, which of course can't be split. In English, though, it's fine to insert a word between *to* and the verb:

> Greg tried to gently remove the bandage.
>
> To frequently wash the windshield is important in this dusty area.

WARNING

If you're writing for an authority figure who believes that split infinitives are wrong, you may be scolded for breaking the rule, despite the fact that the rule doesn't exist. In such a situation, arguing may not help you. Reword the sentence if you can:

> Greg tried to remove the bandage gently.
>
> Frequent windshield-washing is important in this dusty area.

Participles

Participles are the *-ing* or *-ed* or *-en* form of verbs, plus a few irregulars. Sometimes participles function as part of the verb in a sentence, attached to *has, have, had, is, are, was, were,* or *will be.* In this situation, participles aren't verbals. When participles act as descriptions, they're verbals. In these sentences, the *participial phrase* (the participle and its object or subject complement and descriptions) is in italics:

> *Inhaling sharply,* Elaine stepped away from the blast of peppermint that escaped from Alice's mouth. *(inhaling* = participle giving information about *Elaine)*
>
> The *dancing* statue is so famous that everyone *seeing it* takes a selfie. *(dancing* = participle describing the noun *statue, seeing* = participle describing the pronoun *everyone)*

Participles have to appear in the right spot or else the meaning you're trying to express doesn't come across. (For more information on where to place descriptions, turn to Chapter 15.)

Gerunds

Gerunds are the *-ing* form of verbs, functioning as nouns. In these examples, the *gerund phrase* (the gerund and its object or subject complement and descriptions) is in italics:

> *Riding a motorcycle around town* is Gina's favorite activity. *(Riding* = gerund acting as the subject of the verb *is)*
>
> Her father dislikes *Gina's riding a motorcycle,* because he's afraid she'll get hurt. *(riding* = gerund acting as the direct object of the verb *dislikes)*

TIP

Did you notice the possessive word, *Gina's*, in the preceding example? You need a possessive pronoun in front of a gerund when the action expressed by the gerund is the focus. Take a look:

> WRONG: Sheila loves him shopping for just the right present.
>
> WHY IT'S WRONG: In this sentence, the important idea — what Sheila loves — is the attempt to find the perfect gift. The emphasis should be on *shopping,* not on *him.*
>
> RIGHT: Sheila loves his shopping for just the right present.
>
> WHY IT'S RIGHT: The possessive pronoun *his* leads the reader or listener onward to the next idea — the *shopping.* The emphasis is on that activity, not on *him.*

Verbals can shorten your sentences and make your writing more sophisticated. I discuss this technique in "Sprucing Up Boring Sentences with Clauses and Verbals," later in this chapter.

EXAMPLE

Q. Label the underlined portions of each sentence I for *i*nfinitive, P for *p*articiple, or G for *g*erund. If none of these labels fit, write *N* for *n*one.

Sam flew <u>to Phoenix</u> for a conference on "<u>Rebranding</u> Your Company."

A. **N, G** *Phoenix* is not a verb, so *to Phoenix* is not a verbal. (It's a prepositional phrase, in case you're curious.) *Rebranding* is a gerund. It's derived from a verb *(rebrand)* and functioning as a noun (object of the preposition *on*). *Rebranding Your Company* is the entire gerund phrase.

YOUR TURN

Label the underlined portions of each sentence I for *i*nfinitive, P for *p*articiple, or G for *g*erund. If none of these labels fit, write N for *n*one.

1. <u>Arriving</u> in the tropics, Sam was eager <u>to settle</u> in at his hotel.
2. The hotel room, newly <u>redecorated</u>, was on the same floor as an <u>overflowing</u> ice machine.
3. <u>To reach</u> his room, Sam had <u>to skate</u> across a miniature glacier.
4. <u>Sliding</u> across a slippery floor <u>to his room</u> was not one of Sam's happiest moments.
5. Sam, <u>easygoing</u> by nature, nevertheless decided <u>to complain</u>.
6. "I want <u>to relax</u>, not <u>to practice</u> winter sports!" Sam stated <u>firmly</u>.

7. The manager, not knowing about the ice machine, found Sam's comment confusing.

8. Reaching 100 degrees is not unusual during summer in this part of the world.

9. Choosing his words carefully, the manager replied, "Of course, sir. I will cancel the bobsled racing."

10. Sam forgot about the ice machine and protested, because his lifelong dream was to race downhill on a fast sled.

Choosing the correct tense

Like verbs, verbals situate action on a timeline through their *tense.* In Chapter 12, I explain everything you need to know about tense as it applies to the verb of a sentence. Here I focus on verbals.

Simultaneous events

Verbals often show up when two events take place at the same time. In the following sentences, check out the italicized verbals. Also keep your eye on the main verb, which is underlined. Notice that the same verbal matches with present, past, and future verbs and places the two actions at the same time or close enough in time to make the difference irrelevant. Also notice that none of the verbals is formed with the words *have* or *had.* (*Have* and *had* help to express actions taking place at different times. I explain this point in detail later in this section.)

> *Selecting* a slender paintbrush, Maya lightly dabs the canvas. (The *selecting* and the *dabbing* take place at nearly the same time — in the present.)
>
> *Selecting* a slender paintbrush, Maya lightly dabbed the canvas. (The *selecting* and the *dabbing* took place at nearly the same time — in the past.)
>
> *Selecting* a slender paintbrush, Maya will lightly dab the canvas. (The *selecting* and the *dabbing* will take place at nearly the same time — in the future.)

Another variation:

> *To dab the canvas lightly,* Maya selects a slender paintbrush. (The *dabbing* and the *selecting* take place at nearly the same time — in the present.)
>
> *To dab the canvas lightly,* Maya selected a slender paintbrush. (The *dabbing* and the *selecting* took place at nearly the same time — in the past.)
>
> *To dab the canvas lightly,* Maya will select a slender paintbrush. (The *dabbing* and the *selecting* will take place at nearly the same time — in the future.)

Different times

When verbals express actions or states of being that occur at different times, a helping verb *(having* or *have)* is involved.

Check out this sentence:

> *Having sealed* the letter containing his job application, Nobrain *remembered* his name.

In other words, Nobrain's job application — unless he rips open the envelope — is anonymous because the *sealing* of the letter took place before the *remembering* of his name.

Here are additional examples:

> *Having finished* her homework, Elizabeth *turned* on the television to watch the algebra tournament. (Event 1: Elizabeth finishes her homework at 2 A.M. Event 2: The tournament begins at 3 A.M. The networks seem reluctant to broadcast the match during prime time. I'm not sure why.)
>
> *Having scored* five goals in the soccer match, Lucette was named Most Valuable Player. (Event 1: Lucette scores five goals. Event 2: Lucette gets a trophy.)

If you have a life, skip this paragraph. If you like grammar, read on to learn the technical terms. The *present participle* (*finishing*, for example) combines with present, past, and future verbs to show two events happening at the same time or at nearly the same time. The *present perfect* form of the participle *(having finished)* combines with present, past, and future verbs to show two events happening at different times.

Another one of the verb-forms-that-aren't-verbs, the *infinitive*, may also show events happening at two different times. The *present perfect infinitive* (*to have finished*, for example) is the one that does this job. Don't worry about the name; just look for the *have.* Here's an example:

> "How smart *to have packed snacks* for John's dinner party!" thought Greta. (Event 1: Preparty, Greta stuffs food into her backpack. Event 2: Greta takes one bite of John's Alfalfa-Stringbean Surprise and congratulates herself on bringing snacks.)

WARNING

The *have* form (the present perfect form) of the infinitive always places an event *before* another in the past. Don't use the *have* form unless you're putting events in order:

> WRONG: Nice to have met you.
>
> RIGHT: Nice to meet you.
>
> ALSO RIGHT: Nice to have met you before agreeing to marry you. I think I'll hold out for a better offer or the end of the world, whichever comes first.

EXAMPLE

Q. Select the correct form from the choices in parentheses.

(Perfecting/Having perfected) a new tooth-whitening product, the chemists asked the boss to conduct some market research.

A. **Having perfected** The two events occurred in the past, with the chemists' request closer to the present moment. The event expressed by the verbal (a participle, as you may have guessed) attributes another action to the chemists. The perfect form (created by *having*) places the act of *perfecting* prior to the action expressed by the main verb in the sentence, *asked.*

YOUR TURN

Select the correct form from the choices in parentheses.

11. (Peering/Having peered) at each interview subject, the researchers checked for discoloration.

12. One interview subject shrieked upon (hearing/having heard) the interviewer's comment about "teeth as yellow as sunflowers."

13. (Refusing/Having refused) to open her mouth, she glared silently at the interviewer.

14. With the market research on the tooth whitener (completed/having been completed), the team tabulated the results.

15. The tooth whitener (going/having gone) into production, no further market research is scheduled.

16. The researchers actually wanted (to interview/to have interviewed) 50 percent more subjects after the product's debut, but the legal department objected.

17. Not (securing/having secured) additional interviews, the legal department tore up the "will not sue" forms they'd hoped potential subjects would sign.

18. "(Sending/Having sent) this product to the stores means that I am sure it works," said the CEO.

19. (Deceived/Having been deceived) by this CEO several times, reporters were skeptical.

20. (Interviewing/Having interviewed) dissatisfied customers, one reporter was already planning an exposé.

Sprucing Up Boring Sentences with Clauses and Verbals

A *clause* is any expression containing a subject and a verb. (For tons more detail about clauses, read Chapter 11.) In this section, I show you how to manipulate clauses and verbals to make your writing more interesting and sophisticated.

Read these two paragraphs. Which one sounds better?

> Michael purchased a new spy camera. The camera was smaller than a grain of rice. Michael gave the camera to Lola. Lola is rather forgetful. She is especially forgetful now. Lola is planning a trip to Antarctica. Lola accidentally mixed the camera into her rice casserole along with bean sprouts and soy milk. The camera baked for 45 minutes. The camera became quite tender. Michael unknowingly ate the camera.

> Michael purchased a new spy camera that was smaller than a grain of rice. He gave the camera to Lola, who is rather forgetful, especially now that she is planning a trip to Antarctica. Accidentally mixed into Lola's rice casserole along with bean sprouts and soy milk, the camera baked for 45 minutes. Michael unknowingly ate the camera, which was quite tender.

The second paragraph is better, isn't it? The first is composed of short, choppy sentences. The second one flows. Grammatically, the difference between the two is simple. The second paragraph has more subordinate clauses and verbals than the first. (A *subordinate clause* is a subject-verb statement that can't stand alone; I discuss verbals earlier in this chapter.)

TIP

Don't let the names scare you. If you're allergic to grammar terms, just read your writing aloud and listen carefully. If your sentences sound like those in the first example, it's time to spruce them up with the techniques I describe in this section.

Clauses

Every sentence has to have a subject-verb pair expressing a complete thought. Fine, but you have lots of thoughts, don't you? Rather than plodding through them one by one, try tucking one thought inside another with subordinate clauses. Again, don't hyperventilate over the terminology. Just take a look at these before-and-after sentences and focus on the italicized bits, which are subordinate clauses:

> BORING "BEFORE" VERSION: Max sat on a tuffet. Max did not know that he was sitting on a tuffet. Max had never seen a tuffet. He was quite comfortable. Then Ms. Muffet came in and caused trouble.
>
> EXCITING "AFTER" VERSION: Max, *who was sitting on a tuffet,* did not know *what a tuffet was, because he had never seen one. Until Ms. Muffet came in and caused trouble,* Max was quite comfortable.

The "after" paragraph is two words shorter (32 instead of 34 words), but more important than length is the number of sentences. The "before" paragraph has five, and the "after" paragraph has two. The revised paragraph is less choppy.

One more example:

> BORING "BEFORE" PARAGRAPH: The taxi sounded its horn. The taxi was traveling south. The intersection was clogged with trucks. The trucks were heading west. The taxi could not move. The traffic police finally arrived. They cleared the intersection.
>
> EXCITING "AFTER" PARAGRAPH: The taxi, *which was traveling south,* sounded its horn. *Because the intersection was clogged with trucks heading west,* the taxi could not move. The traffic police cleared the intersection *when they arrived.*

By combining sentences, you create a smoother flow of ideas. The writing sounds more mature, and therefore so do you.

TIP

When you combine sentences, you often find that fewer words get your meaning across — a plus for both you and your audience. Everyone's busy, so repetition is seldom welcome! When you proofread, check for unnecessary expressions ("an island surrounded by water," for example) and eliminate them.

EXAMPLE

Q. Combine these sentences by creating subordinate clauses. You may change the wording of the original sentences as needed, but not the meaning.

The tea was very hot. The tea was not ready to drink. Catherine waited a few minutes.

A. You may combine these ideas in several different ways. Here are two possibilities, with the subordinate clauses italicized:

The tea, *which was very hot*, was not ready to drink, so Catherine waited a few minutes.

Because the tea, which was very hot, was not ready to drink, Catherine waited a few minutes.

In the second possible answer, one subordinate clause *(which was very hot)* is tucked into another *(Because the tea was not ready to drink).*

YOUR TURN

Combine these sentences by creating subordinate clauses. You may change the wording of the original sentences as needed, but not the meaning.

21. Carl was impatient. He was thirsty. He reached for the cup.
22. Catherine pulled Carl's hand away. His hand couldn't touch the cup.
23. Catherine wanted to help Carl. Her action jarred his hand. The table shook.
24. The cup was full. Catherine and Carl didn't notice.
25. The tea splashed. It was still extremely hot. It burned their hands.
26. Catherine will call her Uncle Larry. Uncle Larry is a burn specialist.
27. Carl will call his Uncle Andrew. Uncle Andrew is a personal-injury lawyer.

Verbals

Because verbals blend two parts of speech, they provide two perspectives in just one word. Look at this before-and-after example:

> BORING "BEFORE" VERSION: Lulu smacked Larry. Larry had stolen the antique toe hoop from Lulu's parrot. The toe hoop was discovered 100 years ago. Lulu's parrot likes to sharpen his beak on it.
>
> EXCITING "AFTER VERSION": *Smacking Larry* is Lulu's way of telling Larry that he should not have stolen the antique toe hoop from her parrot. *Discovered 100 years ago,* the toe hoop serves *to sharpen the parrot's beak.*
>
> LABELS IN CASE YOU CARE: *Smacking Lulu* = gerund, *discovered 100 years ago* = participle, *to sharpen the parrot's beak* = infinitive.

Are you awake enough for another example? Take a look at this makeover. The verbal phrases are italicized:

> BORING "BEFORE" VERSION: The sled slid down the hill. Luis was on the sled. He was excited. He forgot about the brake.
>
> EXCITING "AFTER" VERSION: *Sliding down the hill on the sled*, Luis was *excited* and forgot *to brake*.
>
> LABELS IN CASE YOU CARE: *Sliding down the hill on the sled* = participle, *excited* = participle, *to brake* = infinitive.

EXAMPLE

Q. Using verbals, combine these ideas into one or more sentences.

Larry bakes infrequently. He bakes with enthusiasm. His best recipe is for king cake. King-cake batter must be stirred for three hours. Larry orders his cook to stir the batter. The cook stirs, and Larry adds the raisins. Sometimes Larry throws in a spoonful of vanilla.

A. Many combinations are possible, including this one:

Larry's *baking* is infrequent but enthusiastic. His best recipe, king cake, requires three hours of *stirring,* which Larry orders his cook to do. *Adding* raisins and the occasional spoonful of vanilla is Larry's job. The italicized words are gerunds.

YOUR TURN

Using verbals, combine these ideas into one or more sentences. You may change the words but not the meaning.

28. Jesse is cleaning his teeth. He realizes the boss wants the memo immediately. He stops cleaning his teeth. He starts typing.

29. Jesse is considering retirement. Jesse discovers he still owes a lot of money on his mortgage. Jesse decides that he will work 50 more years.

30. Jesse desperately desires quality time on a tropical island. Jesse wants to keep his house.

31. The bank manager speaks in a firm voice. She points out that Jesse has $.02 in his savings account.

32. Jesse knows that he can rob the bank. Jesse is an honest man. He will not commit a crime.

33. The bank manager has a goal. She wants a luxurious life on a tropical island. She makes a decision. She robs the bank.

Mixing It Up: Changing Sentence Patterns and Length

To create interesting sentences, you can play around with clauses and verbals, as I explain in the preceding section. In this section I give you two other tools for "redecorating" your sentences: pattern (what's where in the sentence) and length. I also show you how to express yourself concisely.

Patterns

When you were little, you may have played the game duck-duck-goose. It's a simple contest. Kids sit in a circle and the one who's "it" walks around the outside, tapping each child and

saying "duck" — until suddenly the "it" kid changes the pattern and says "goose." I mention this game because it relies on surprise — the establishment of a pattern and then a break from it.

Word order

When you write, you probably follow the most common sentence pattern automatically: subject, verb, complement (a direct object, an indirect object, or a subject complement). Scan these examples, in which the major sentence elements are identified:

Ali wants the stars. (*Ali* = subject, *wants* = verb, *stars* = direct object)

He built a rocket in less than a year. (*He* = subject, *built* = verb, *rocket* = direct object)

Ali traveled out of Earth's atmosphere, across thousands of light-years, to the planet Jupiter. (*Ali* = subject, *traveled* = verb, no complement)

Ali is a national hero. (*Ali* = subject, *is* = verb, *hero* = complement)

That structure dominates because it's sturdy; it supports a ton of ideas. It's comforting. Readers are used to it, and they know what to expect. A change in routine, though, goes a long way toward improving your writing. Take a look at what happens when you shake up the word order:

The stars, Ali wants. (*Ali* = subject, *wants* = verb, *stars* = direct object)

A rocket in less than a year built he! (*He* = subject, *built* = verb, *rocket* = direct object)

Out of Earth's atmosphere, across thousands of light-years, to the planet Jupiter traveled Ali. (*Ali* = subject, *traveled* = verb, no complement)

A national hero, Ali is. (*Ali* = subject, *is* = verb, *hero* = complement)

WARNING

I wrote these examples to show you some possibilities, but don't change the usual sentence order too often — certainly not four times in a row. You can't play duck-duck-goose unless you have some ducks — a lot of ducks! Placing too many unusual sentences in the same story would annoy your readers. Use scrambled word order for an occasional change of pace, not as a steady diet.

EXAMPLE

Q. Change the order of words in this sentence to make it more dramatic. Don't change the meaning.

Juan Gonzalez is a fine writer.

A. **A fine writer, Juan Gonzalez is.** This sentence places the complement first.

Parallelism

Taken any train trips recently? The tracks you see stretching before you are parallel — or they'd better be. If they aren't, your train goes offtrack and chaos quickly follows. In grammar, you should nearly always stay on track also by creating parallel constructions — sentences and expressions in which every part of the sentence performing the same job has the same grammatical identity. Take a look at these two sentences:

> Larry wanted with all his heart to find a bride who was smart, beautiful, and wealthy.
>
> Larry wanted with all his heart to find a bride who was smart, beautiful, and had millions of dollars.

Not counting Larry's matrimonial ideas, the first example has no problems: The qualities that Larry seeks are expressed as adjectives. Nothing stands out; they're more or less equal in importance. This is the version you should use when you're following the rules. The second example is not parallel, because the expression *had millions of dollars* contains a verb. Technically, this is a grammar error. That said, this construction calls attention to the last item on Larry's wish list. Because it's longer and doesn't fit, the economic status of the bride stands out. Readers would assume that item is more important than the other two.

WARNING

Don't break parallelism casually, and never when you're writing for someone who insists on grammatically correct expression or when the break makes no sense, as in this sentence with multiple verbs:

> Larry begs Ella to marry him, offers her a crown and a private room, and finally won her hand.
>
> Larry, as part of his pro-environment stance, presented Ella with the wedding ring his last bride had worn, because you recycle when you can.

The first example has two verbs in present tense *(begs, offers)*, and one in past tense *(won)*. The pattern break is illogical and comes across as sloppy, not creative. The second example veers from third person (talking about Larry) to second person (talking to *you*), another unnecessary break from parallelism.

In addition to lists and compound verbs, check the parallelism when you're making a comparison or employing a conjunction pair, such as *not only/but also*, *neither/nor*, *either/or*, *both/and*, or *whether/or*. (For more information on conjunctions, see Chapter 7.) To be parallel, the elements joined by these conjunctions should have the same identity:

> Both *because he stole the garter* and *because he lost the ring,* Roger is no longer welcome as best man. (This conjunction pair joins two subject–verb combinations.)
>
> Either you or I must break the news about the fake diamond to Larry. (The conjunction pair joins two pronouns, *you* and *I*.)

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentences, if any, are parallel?

I. Speeding down Thunder Mountain, spraying snow across his rival's face, and to get the best seat in the ski lodge were Robert's goals for the afternoon.

II. To speed down Thunder Mountain, to spray snow across his rival's face, and to get the best seat in the ski lodge were Robert's goals for the afternoon.

A. **II** Each sentence has three subjects. In option I the first two subjects are verb forms ending in *-ing* (*gerunds,* in official grammar terminology), but the third is an *infinitive* (the *to* form of a verb). Mismatch! Option II turns the subjects into infinitives *(to speed, to spray, to get).* When the subjects match, the sentence is parallel.

YOUR TURN

Which sentences, if any, are parallel?

34 **I.** The ski pants that Robert favors are green, skintight, and stretchy.

II. The ski pants that Robert favors are green, skintight, and made of stretch fabric.

35 **I.** When he eases into those pants and zips up with force, Robert feels cool.

II. When he eases into those pants and zipping up with force, Robert feels cool.

36 **I.** In this ski outfit, Robert can not only breathe easily but also forcefully.

II. In this ski outfit, Robert can breathe easily as well as forcefully.

37 **I.** The sacrifice for the sake of fashion is worth the trouble and how he feels uncomfortable, Robert says.

II. The sacrifice for the sake of fashion is worth the trouble and discomfort, Robert says.

Going long or cutting it short

Pick up something you wrote recently and zero in on a random paragraph. Count the number of words in each sentence. What do you find? If your writing resembles most people's, you tend to place the same number of words in every sentence. Yet sentences can be as short as two words (I quit!) or go on for pages and pages. (Check out Virginia Woolf's or Charles Dickens's work to see some marathon statements.)

How do you mix it up when it comes to sentence length? Try these techniques:

- Combine some sentences by making the less important idea into a subordinate clause. Read the section "Clauses," earlier in this chapter, to see some possible combination patterns.
- Use a conjunction such as *and, but, or, nor,* or *for* to join two complete sentences that state ideas of equal importance. A bonus of this technique is that the conjunction may reveal the logic that leads from one sentence to the next.
- Throw in a verbal to replace some less important ideas. "Speaking Verbally," earlier in this chapter, provides some examples.

If you have a very long sentence — perhaps the result of combining several shorter sentences — consider following it with a short, emphatic statement, as in this example:

> After the crowds left, when the remains of the meal had been cleared away, just before the band finished packing up its instruments, and while Katie was still opening her presents to see what she'd gotten for her birthday, the door opened. He'd arrived.

See what I mean? Doesn't that last sentence hit you right in the face? This long-short pattern doesn't work if you overuse it, but it's certainly a great choice for an occasional dramatic effect.

EXAMPLE

Q. Take a crack at this paragraph. Change the sentence length and patterns using some or all of the suggestions in this section.

Bill lit the candles. He bought flowers. He put the bank reports on the table. Tonight he would propose to Belle. Bill's company was very profitable. Belle's company was super-profitable. Bill was aware of her sales figures. Bill sought a merger. Bill hoped Belle would accept. Then their companies would combine. Bill and Belle would be very rich.

A. You can revise this paragraph in any one of about a million ways. Here's one, with an explanation in parentheses after each change:

Having lit the candles and bought flowers (participles), Bill put the bank report on the table. Tonight he would propose to Belle, *whose company was super-profitable,* (subordinate clause) *as was Bill's* (subordinate clause). *Knowing her sales figures* (gerund) led Bill *to seek a merger* (infinitive). Bill hoped Belle would accept *combining their companies and making Bill and Belle very rich.* (gerunds)

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **P, I** The participle *arriving* gives information about *Sam,* the subject of the sentence. The verb in the sentence is *was. To settle* is an infinitive.
2. **P, P** *Redecorated* (from the verb *redecorate*) describes *room. Overflowing* (from the verb *overflow*) describes *machine.*
3. **I, I** These infinitives perform different jobs in the sentence. *To reach* describes the verb *had; to skate* is the object of the verb *had.*
4. **G, N** *Sliding* is the subject of the verb *was. To his room* is a prepositional phrase, not a verb. (For more information on prepositional phrases, turn to Chapter 7.)
5. **N, I** *Easygoing* isn't a verbal, because the verb "easygo" doesn't exist. *To complain* is an infinitive acting as the object of the verb *decided.*
6. **I, I, N** *To relax* and *to practice* are both infinitives acting as objects. *Firmly* is an adverb, not a verbal. (For more information on adverbs, read Chapter 6.)
7. **P, P** Both *knowing* and *confusing* are participles. The first describes *manager,* and the second describes *comment.*
8. **G** *Reaching* is a gerund acting as the subject of the verb *is.*
9. **P, G** *Choosing* is something the manager is doing, but it's not the verb in the sentence. It's a description, what grammarians call an *introductory participle* because it sits at the beginning of the sentence. *Racing* is a gerund acting as an object.
10. **N, I** *Protested* isn't a verbal; it's a verb. *To go* is an infinitive acting as a subject complement.
11. **Peering** Here the two actions take place at the same time. The researchers check out the subjects' teeth and check for trouble. The perfect form (with *having*) is for actions at different times.
12. **hearing** Once again, two actions take place at the same time. Go for the plain form.
13. **Refusing** The "not in this universe will I open my mouth" moment is simultaneous with an "if looks could kill" glare, so the plain form is best.
14. **having been completed** The plain form *completed* would place two actions (the completing and the tabulating) at the same time. Yet common sense tells you that the tabulating follows the completion of the research. The perfect form (with *having*) places the completing before the tabulating.
15. **having gone** The decision to stop market research is based on the fact that it's too late; the tooth whitener, in all its glory, is already being manufactured. Because the timeline matters here and one action is clearly earlier, the perfect form is needed.
16. **to interview** The *have* form places the action of interviewing *before* the action expressed by the main verb in the sentence. With *have,* the timeline makes no sense.
17. **having secured** Three actions are expressed by this sentence: securing, tearing, and hoping. The earliest action is the hoping, as indicated by both logic and the past perfect verb, *had hoped.* Moving forward is the securing of additional interviews — actually, the failure to secure additional interviews! *Having secured* places this action before the tearing of the forms, the most recent action.

18 **Sending** The CEO's statement places two things, sending and being sure, at the same time. The plain form is best.

19 **Having been deceived** The point of the sentence is that one action (deceiving the reporters) precedes another (being skeptical). You need the perfect form to make the timeline work.

20 **Interviewing** The interviews and the planning of an exposé are simultaneous, so the plain form is best.

21 **Carl, who was impatient and thirsty, reached for the cup.** Another possibility: *Because he was impatient and thirsty, Carl reached for the cup.*

22 **Before it could touch the cup, Catherine pulled Carl's hand away.** Another possibility: *Catherine pulled Carl's hand away before it could touch the cup.* ***Note:*** In both possible answers, *it* clearly refers to *Carl's hand.* Your answer isn't correct if *it* might refer to the hand or the cup *(Before Carl's hand could touch the cup, Catherine pulled it away).*

23 **Although Catherine wanted to help Carl, her action jarred his hand, and the table shook.** Instead of *although,* you can substitute *even though* or *though.*

24 **Catherine and Carl didn't notice that the cup was full.** Another possibility is *Catherine and Carl didn't notice the level of liquid in the cup, which was full.* I like the first version better because it's shorter.

25 **The tea, which was still extremely hot, burned their hands.** This revised version flows smoothly.

26 **Catherine will call her Uncle Larry, who is a burn specialist.** Another possibility: Catherine will call her Uncle Larry because he is a burn specialist.

27 **Carl will call his Uncle Andrew, who is a personal-injury lawyer.** Notice how the clause beginning with *who* tightens up the sentence, eliminating repetition of *Uncle Andrew.*

28 **Realizing that the boss wants the memo immediately, Jesse stops cleaning his teeth and starts typing.** *Realizing . . . immediately* is a participial phrase describing Jesse. *Cleaning* and *typing* are gerunds. ***Note:*** Your answer may differ. If it's grammatically correct, count yourself right.

29 **Considering retirement but discovering that he still owes a lot of money on his mortgage, Jesse decides to work 50 more years.** Two participles (*considering* and *discovering*) and their objects and descriptions start this sentence off with a bang, and an infinitive phrase *(to work 50 more years)* brings it to a smooth finish.

30 **Despite desperately desiring quality time on a tropical island, Jesse wants to keep his house.** *Desiring* is a gerund acting as the object of the preposition *despite. To keep his house* is an infinitive phrase, acting as the object of the verb *wants.* ***Note:*** Your answer may differ. If it's grammatically correct, count yourself right.

31 **The bank manager, speaking in a firm voice, points out that Jesse has $.02 in his savings account.** *Speaking in a firm voice* is a participial phrase describing *manager.* ***Note:*** Your answer may differ. If it's grammatically correct, count yourself right.

32 **Jesse wants to rob a bank, but being an honest man, he will not.** The infinitive phrase *to rob a bank* is the object of the verb *wants. Being an honest man* is a participial phrase describing *he.* ***Note:*** Your answer may differ. If it's grammatically correct, count yourself right.

33 **To achieve her goal of luxurious living on a tropical island, the bank manager decides to rob the bank.** *To achieve . . . living* is an infinitive phrase describing the verb *decides. Luxurious living on a tropical island* is a gerund phrase acting as the object of the preposition *of. To rob the bank* is an infinitive phrase acting as direct object of the verb *decides.* ***Note:*** Your answer may differ. If it's grammatically correct, count yourself right.

34 **I** In option I, *Green, skintight,* and *stretchy* are all adjectives, single-word descriptions of the *ski pants.* They match, so the sentence is parallel. Option II has two adjectives and a participial phrase *(made of stretch fabric)*, so it isn't parallel.

35 **I** In option I, the compound verbs *(eases, zips)* match. Option II pairs *eases* with *zipping.* Not parallel!

36 **II** In option II, *as well as* joins *easily* and *forcefully.* They match, and the sentence is parallel. Option I has a paired conjunction, *not only/but also,* which joins *breathe easily* with *forcefully.* One has a verb, *breathe,* and one doesn't, so the sentence isn't parallel.

37 **II** *Trouble* and *discomfort* match in option II, but *trouble* and *how he feels uncomfortable* break parallel structure.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 24 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

The questions for the quiz are based on this paragraph, which is full of boring sentences desperately in need of a makeover:

> (a) Darla fainted. (b) Darla lay on the floor. (c) She was in a heap. (d) Her legs were bent under her. (e) She breathed in quick pants at a rapid rate. (f) Henry came to her. (g) He ran as fast as he could. (h) He didn't stop running. (i) He took out his phone but didn't call an ambulance. (j) He checked the baseball score as he ran. (k) His favorite team was in the playoffs. (l) He reached Darla. (m) He gasped. (n) "My angel," he said. (o) His heart was beating fast. (p) He saw that his team was losing. (q) His heart was beating even faster. (r) Henry saw Darla. (s) She was unconscious. (t) She was the love of his life! (u) He grasped her hand. (v) Darla woke up. (w) Henry was overjoyed. (x) He could go home. (y) He could watch the game on his big-screen television. (z) He did not have to feel guilty about leaving Darla.

1. Which is a better revision of sentences (a), (b), and (c)?

   I. Fainting, Darla lay on the floor, and she was in a heap.

   II. Having fainted, Darla lay on the floor in a heap.

2. Which is a better revision of sentences (d) and (e)?

   I. Her legs bent under her, she breathed in quick pants.

   II. Her legs bent under her, she breathed quickly, at a rapid rate.

3. Which is a better revision of sentences (f) and (g)?

   I. Henry ran to her as fast as he could.

   II. Fastest, Henry ran to her.

4. Which is a better revision of sentences (h), (i), (j), and (k)?

   I. Not stopping to call an ambulance, Henry took out his phone, checking the baseball score as he ran because he wanted to see how his favorite team was doing in the playoffs.

   II. Running, Henry used his phone not to call an ambulance but to see how his favorite baseball team was doing in the playoffs.

5. Which is a better revision of sentences (l), (m), and (n)?

   I. "My angel!" Henry gasped on reaching Darla.

   II. Reaching Darla, Henry both gasped and he said, "My angel!"

6 Which is a better revision of sentences (o), (p), (q), and (r)?

I. Henry's heart beat fast when he saw Darla, and his team losing made it even faster!

II. Fast beat Henry's heart when he saw Darla — even faster when he saw that his team was losing!

7 Which is a better revision of sentences (s), (t), (u), and (v)?

I. Darla, the love of Henry's life, woke up when he grasped her hand.

II. When he grasped Darla's hand, the unconscious love of Henry's life woke up.

8 Which is a better revision of sentences (w), (x), (y), and (z)?

I. Henry was overjoyed and without guilt to go home to watch the game on his big-screen television.

II. Overjoyed, Henry could go home guiltlessly to watch the game on his big-screen television.

Answers to Chapter 24 Quiz

1. **II** If you read these sentences aloud, you hear that option II sounds more fluid. Also, it makes sense that the fainting happened before Darla lay on the floor. That situation calls for *having fainted,* which places one action before the other. With *fainting,* the actions happen at the same time.
2. **I** *Quick* and *at a rapid rate* are repetitive. Option I combines the ideas smoothly and drops the repetitive portion.
3. **I** Option II is shorter, but it's a little confusing. *Fastest* compared to what — Olympic competitors? Option I gets the point across: Henry is speeding to Darla.
4. **II** You can't check a phone unless you've taken it out, so option II gives the same information as option I, but with less fuss.
5. **I** Option II is wordier, but that's not the only reason option I is better. The paired conjunction *both/and* should connect parallel elements unless you're trying to emphasize a point. In option II, *both* is followed by *gasped* (a verb), but *he said* (a subject-verb pair) follows *and.* With no reason to stress that *he said* something, breaking parallelism doesn't make sense.
6. **II** Option II has an unusual word pattern that suits this dramatic situation. Option I has a grammar problem: Henry's upset about *his team's losing,* not *his team losing.* The original places the emphasis on *team,* but it should be on their performance.
7. **I** Option I gets the point across neatly. If she *woke up,* you know she was unconscious, so there's no need to state the obvious. Option II leaves open the possibility that *Darla* and *the unconscious love of Henry's life* are two different people.
8. **II** Option II is shorter than option I, but all the ideas are present.

7

Grammar in Action

In This Unit . . .

CHAPTER 25: **Adapting Your Style to Electronic Media**

Hitting the Screen with Formal or Informal Language
Communicating Clearly in Texts, Tweets, and Posts
Emailing Your Way to Good Grammar
PowerPoint to the People
Autocorrect and Other Error Magnets
Practice Questions Answers and Explanations
Whaddya Know? Chapter 25 Quiz
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CHAPTER 26: **Writing at School and on the Job**

A Is for Accomplished: Writing at School
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Whaddya Know? Chapter 26 Quiz
Answers to Chapter 26 Quiz

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Setting an appropriate level of formality
- Applying grammar rules to tweets, texts, emails, social media posts, and blogs
- Punctuating and writing presentation slides and bulleted lists
- Dealing with autorcorrect and various grammar apps

Chapter 25

Adapting Your Style to Electronic Media

Written communication most likely began with a stick dragged across loose dirt and evolved to fingers tapping on keyboards and screens. Technology is not always a writer's friend, as anyone who's experienced a computer crash can testify. But technology does come with benefits — the ability to write and revise with very little effort and to reach your intended reader in milliseconds, to name just two.

The intersection of grammar and electronic communication can be tricky. Which rules of Standard English apply? Which are impractical or outmoded? Answers to these questions exist — too many answers! Grammarians have been known to fight about, say, punctuation in texts with the passion of soldiers defending their homeland. In this chapter I explain commonly accepted guidelines for writing via electronic media, including texts, tweets, social media posts, blog posts, and presentation slides.

Hitting the Screen with Formal or Informal Language

In Chapter 2, I discuss adapting language to suit your purpose, audience, and message. The same tiered structure applies to electronic media also, with a few added twists:

- **Friendspeak** is my term for deliberately informal English. Friendspeak, in electronic media, includes abbreviations (*imho* = in my humble opinion, *g2g* = got to go, and so forth) and visuals (emoticons, emojis, stickers, and other picture-communications). Punctuation, in friendspeak, both decreases and increases. Messages often omit periods and commas but pile on exclamation points or question marks (or a combination of the two) to show strong feeling.

  WARNING

  Be careful with emoticons and emoji (stylized illustrations representing faces, animals, objects, and so forth). Not every reader understands how to decode them, and on a tiny screen, they may not be clear. Put a Thanksgiving turkey leg in your message, and your reader may picture your holiday dinner — or mistake the image for a "Rosie the Riveter" muscled, human arm. Imagine your reader's response to the accompanying message "I ate too much of this!" A sensible approach is to use emoticons to write to friends who are likely to enjoy and decode them accurately. For anything serious, opt for actual words.

- **Conversational English** is somewhat informal, the casual language used between friends and acquaintances. In texts, tweets, and social media posts, conversational English drops words and various punctuation, and adds other punctuation to show enthusiasm, anger, and other feelings. Conversational English is usually the language of choice for captions or memes or other illustrations on social media sites, and for blogs with an informal tone.

- **Standard English** takes formality to the max. It respects all the rules and conventions of grammar that educated people hold dear. In professional situations — tweets representing a company or a publication, for example — Standard English is the safest choice.

I've seen texts and tweets written in all three of these general categories, and under the right circumstances I think all of them work well. In deciding which level of formality is appropriate, apply these guidelines:

- Consider the identity of the person receiving the message, as well as the medium you're using. If you're dealing with someone who can practically read your mind, Standard English isn't necessary in texts. Ditto for posts to websites that celebrate edginess or rebellion against the rules taught in school — or any sort of rebellion, for that matter.

  TIP

  Before you post, survey the website. Match your level of formality to what you read.

- The less personal the relationship between writer and reader, the more closely your language and grammar should follow the conventions of Standard English. On social media you may be connected to a huge number of people. When you post, don't assume they'll all understand you as easily as the friends you spend time with in real life. Be careful with abbreviations or usage that only you and your buddies understand.

- Anything connected with work and academics requires more formality than whatever you do to forget about work and academics. Avoid abbreviations, slang, and broken grammar rules, all of which signal a relaxed attitude.

- Power matters also. If you're the boss, you make the rules. Your subordinates won't point out that you lowercased a word that should be in caps — not if they want to keep working for you! But if your message is moving up the chain of command, bring out your most formal English.
- Think about the impression you're trying to make. If you're writing to a potential client, formal language may show respect and care. On the other hand, if you have an antsy client — the type who wants the work done yesterday, if not sooner — a few dropped words or characters may give the impression that you're speeding along on the client's behalf, too busy for such niceties as commas and periods.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which level of formality suits the situation described? Very informal (VI), somewhat informal (SI), or formal (F)?

email from parents to their children's teachers

text to electrician rewiring your house

post on a website called *Cuz Rock'nRoll Ain't Gone*

A. **F** In an academic situation, formal language signals respect.

SI You're the employer, so you set the tone. Go too casual and the electrician may think it's okay to raid your refrigerator. Opt for extreme formality and you may create an uncomfortable atmosphere.

VI Judging by its name, the website prizes informality.

YOUR TURN

Which level of formality suits the situation described? Very informal (VI), somewhat informal (SI), or formal (F)?

1. direct message to someone who follows you on social media
2. statement to a potential employer, sent via an app that alerts job-seekers to open positions
3. comment on an article in a newspaper, posted on the paper's website
4. email to a classmate you haven't seen recently
5. text from nephew to aunt
6. caption for a photo you posted on social media

Communicating Clearly in Texts, Tweets, and Posts

Short. Fast. Effortless. These are the qualities you want when you text or tweet, compose captions for photos, or post comments on social media. Rather than take your readers on a leisurely stroll through every aspect of a topic, you want to get your message out in as few words as possible.

No matter the medium, one quality must always be present in your work — clarity. Your readers must understand what you mean. If they don't, why bother writing at all? (Yes, I know that photos and videos communicate meaning also, but this is a book about grammar, so the focus is on written expression.)

The good news is that you can be crystal clear even when you're writing with a character limit. (A character, in this context, is a letter, number, symbol, or space.) How? Read on.

Dropping words

The most common shortcut is to drop some words, distilling your message to its essence. As long as your meaning remains intact, any word can be on the chopping block.

Omitting subjects and verbs

The easiest place to start is the subject, the *who* or *what* doing the action or in the state of being that the verb expresses, and the verb itself, especially if it consists of more than one word:

FULL SENTENCE: I will come by bus.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will come by bus. Or: Coming by bus.

FULL SENTENCE: I need a ride to the party.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Need ride to party.

In both examples, the subject dropped from the sentence is *I*. Most readers assume that *I* is the subject in texts and messages. If the subject is not *I*, you probably need to include it to avoid confusion, as these examples illustrate:

FULL SENTENCE: Henry will come with me.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will come with me.

READER'S REACTION: *Who* will come with you?

FULL SENTENCE: Shane and Debby need a lift to the party.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Need a lift to the party.

READER'S REACTION: I thought you were coming by bus. Have your plans changed?

FULL SENTENCE: Mark will bring soda.

SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will bring soda.

READER'S REACTION: You are bringing both wine and soda? That's too much!

Of course, your reader may understand that *Mark will bring soda* if the text is part of a longer exchange, such as this one between Sal and Wendy. Note the full version in parentheses:

SAL'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Will bring wine. (I will bring wine.)

WENDY'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Mark? (What will Mark bring?)

SAL'S SHORTENED MESSAGE: Bringing soda. (Mark will bring soda.)

WENDY: Good.

Because *Mark* shows up in the second message, the third line makes sense.

Dropping other words

One evening a friend of mine was worried about her daughter, who was traveling to a party all by herself for the first time. She told her daughter to text when she arrived. This is the message my friend received:

here

The single word communicates everything the parent wants to know, even though no subjects or verbs appear. (It also expresses the teenager's annoyance. Every parent understands that *here* contains an eye roll and this unwritten sentence: "Mom, I'm *fourteen.* Checking in is for *babies.*") A few more examples:

MESSAGE: On bus.

MEANING: I am on the bus.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The subject *(I),* the verb *(am),* and *the.*

MESSAGE: Traffic jam. Late.

MEANING: I am in a traffic jam. I will be late.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: In the first sentence, the subject *(I),* the verb *(am),* and two other words, *in a.* In the second sentence, the subject *(I)* and verb *(will be).*

MESSAGE: Meeting horrible.

MEANING: The meeting is (or was) horrible.

WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The verb *is* or *was,* and *the.*

In the last example, the person receiving the message probably knows which meeting you're writing about and whether that meeting is over *(was horrible)* or still going on *(is horrible).*

WARNING

Omissions work only when the person you are writing to understands the situation. Suppose that you send this text:

> MESSAGE: Sandy sick.
>
> MEANING: Sandy is not at work (or at school or somewhere else) because of illness.
>
> WHAT IS LEFT OUT: The verb *(is)* and the place (work, school, wherever).

If the person reading the message doesn't know where Sandy is supposed to be (or who Sandy is), this message is too vague. A better message in that situation would explain more:

> Lab partner out sick. Working alone today.

TIP

Articles *(a, an, the)* and conjunctions (words that join, such as *and, or, but,* and so forth) can often be omitted. Just be aware that the resulting message sounds rushed and at times strange. Can you imagine typing, "I went to bar"? Somehow, *the* makes a big difference.

Dropping punctuation and capital letters

In the preceding section, I inserted capital letters, but many people don't bother. If you type

> saw helen after the meeting

civilization won't crumble. I like this version better, but I'm a grammarian:

> Saw Helen after the meeting.

or

> Saw Helen after the meeting

Did you notice that I didn't insert a period at the end of the preceding text? You can, but surveys show that periods at the end of a text are sometimes interpreted as anger. The "send message" button has become the new period, closing the door on a unit of communication. Inserting an actual period can come across as slamming the door.

WARNING

Don't omit periods needed for clarity within a text message. Compare these two texts:

> Come over all cleaned up
>
> Come over. All cleaned up

If I send the first text, I may be asking someone to take a shower and put on freshly laundered clothing before visiting. It's also possible that I'm explaining that I've cleaned up a mess and it's safe to come over. The period clarifies the situation: I filled a dumpster with debris from my living room and vacuumed the floor that was suddenly visible.

End marks can make a difference, though, as you see here:

TEXT: Walk at 4

MEANING: I am going for a walk at 4.

TEXT: walk at 4!

MEANING: I'm really looking forward to taking a break and going for a walk at 4.

TEXT: walk at 4?

MEANING: Would you like to go for a walk at 4? OR Are you going for a walk at 4?

Inserting multiple end marks — two or three question marks and exclamation points to show strong emotion — is fine between friends, but not if you're texting a colleague, teacher, or boss.

Abbreviating

I often receive messages or read social media comments with abbreviations, such as *U* (for *you*) and *L8* (for *late*). *IMHO* (long form = *in my humble opinion*), these shortened forms are generally fine among friends and in informal situations. If you employ an uncommon abbreviation or if you're writing to someone who doesn't spend much time on the internet, the reader may not understand, and *TWBAS.* Confused? *TWBAS* is an abbreviation I just made up. It means "*that would be a shame.*" How could you know what I was *TTS?* (*TTS* is another abbreviation I dreamed up. It stands for *trying to say.*) Before you compose a comment or message, consider your audience and the effect you want to make. If you want to present yourself as an educated person, Standard English is the best choice. If no one's likely to care and everyone's likely to understand, abbreviate as you wish.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which shortened messages, if any, are clear? Assume that you're writing to a co-worker or friend and that your goals are accuracy, clarity, and brevity.

Intended meaning: I don't know what Lola thinks.

(a) Lola's thoughts?

(b) Lola?

(c) Lola thoughts?

A. **(a)** If you're writing to a close friend and you're talking about a comment you just heard or read, option (b) may be enough. I prefer option (a) because it's clear regardless of whether the person receiving the message has been paying strict attention. Option (c) may be understood as "What do you think about Lola?"

YOUR TURN

Which shortened messages, if any, are clear? Assume that you're writing to a co-worker or friend and that your goals are accuracy, brevity, and clarity.

7 Intended meaning: Lola is in jail and needs ten thousand dollars for bail money. She was arrested for driving without a license. She needs your help.

(a) 10K L in jail help

(b) Lola jail 10000! help!

(c) fyi: Lola in jail. Driving w/o license. Needs 10K bail. Help!

8 Intended meaning: Her lawyer is hopeful that Lola will be sentenced to probation and community service.

(a) Hope prob and cs

(b) Lawyer hopeful for probation + community service

(c) sentence probation and community serv fingers Xd lawyer

9 Intended meaning: Lulu will visit Lola as soon as possible. Lulu will probably arrive at the jail around noon.

(a) 12 L to L

(b) Lulu > Lola asap 12?

(c) Lulu to visit Lola asap, probably 12 p.m.

10 Intended meaning: The bad news for Lola is that the judge, Larry Saunders, was once flattened by a motorcycle. He's bitter and will probably give Lola the maximum penalty because she was riding a motorcycle when she was arrested.

(a) Judge Saunders bad news for Lola b/c bitter about motorcycles after his own accident. Top penalty probable

(b) JS = bad news bitter cycles top penalty

(c) Judge S not good motorcycle accident jail ^

11 Intended meaning: Lola claimed that her license had been shredded when she washed her jeans.

(a) Lola claimed license shredded in wash

(b) License shredded wash

(c) Claimed license shredded in washing machine

12 Intended meaning: Will you attend the press conference when Lola is released?

(a) Press conference?

(b) Attend press conference on release?

(c) You going to press conference on L's release?

Emailing Your Way to Good Grammar

At least once a week someone informs me that email is "old-fashioned." Maybe so, but it's still a valuable and much-used method of communication. Therefore, you should know how to compose an acceptable email.

The heading

The *heading* is the little box that includes the From, To, and Subject lines. You don't have to worry about the proper format of the To and From boxes. The To line contains the name connected with the email address of the recipient, and the email program automatically slots your name into the From line.

The *subject line* is the title of the email — the line that tells the reader what you're writing about. Check out these key points about subject lines:

- **Be sure to include a subject line in the email.** With no subject line, the person receiving your email may ignore it. The time you spent writing the email will then be wasted. Also, the subject line begins the conversation with the reader, establishing what the reader should expect.
- **Make the subject line short and clear.** You want to get the point across, but you don't want the reader to turn away before checking the message. *Why You Should Hire Me to Manage Your Business* is too long. *Hiring* is too short. *Applying for Management Position* is clear and may spark interest.
- **Capitalize the subject line as if it were a title.** This practice is not always necessary. Some people choose to capitalize the first word of the subject line and nothing else. If you do treat the subject line as a title, be sure to do so correctly. (Chapter 21 explains everything you need to know about capitalizing titles.)
- **Update the subject line in later emails.** You can leave the same subject line in every reply, but sometimes an update is helpful. Suppose you're replying to an email asking about the repairs. The original subject line might be "Status of Repairs?" or similar wording. Changing the subject line to "Repairs Completed" gives immediate and important information.

The greeting

Time being a precious resource, many email writers skip the greeting and go directly to the message. No problem, unless you happen to be writing to traditionalists, who prefer the time-honored formats, or egotists, who love seeing their names in print. A message without a greeting may seem informal (okay for friends) or cold (not okay for potential customers). If you do include a greeting (in English-teacher terminology, a *salutation*), you have several choices. These are all acceptable greetings, complete with punctuation:

Dear Ms. Snodgrass, or **Dear Ms. Snodgrass:** The one with the comma is less formal. Begin the message on the following line.

Hi, Lola. or **Hi Lola.** Use these forms for friends and acquaintances. Begin the message right after the period, not on the next line. Most people omit the comma — a good example of how language standards evolve. Because technically you're addressing *Lola*, traditional punctuation rules specify that a comma separate her name from the rest of the sentence. In an email, either is acceptable.

Hi, Lola! or **Hi Lola!** This one is for friends only. Begin the message right after the exclamation point. The comma is optional, as I explain in the preceding point.

Lola, Informal messages need nothing more than the name. The message begins on the following line.

Snodgrass, This greeting can be a bit stern, as if you couldn't be bothered with the *Dear*. Start the message one line below this greeting.

Hi, everyone. or **Hi everyone!** Use these when you write to a group of friends or colleagues. Begin the message on the same line.

The body

The body contains what you want to communicate — words, links to websites, photos or videos, whatever. Don't try to mimic the indentations and line spacing of mailed-in-envelopes letters. What you're seeing on your screen isn't necessarily what readers see on theirs. Concentrate on complying with the conventions of Standard English, matching your level of formality to the identity of the person you're writing to. (See "Hitting the Screen with Formal or Informal Language," earlier in this chapter, for more information.)

TIP

If you truly care about how the document looks, you can attach the message as a PDF file — a "picture" of your document. I should point out that your recipient may not open the file for fear of unleashing a computer virus, so if you choose this option, call or text the recipient first.

The closing

If you haven't bothered with a greeting (which I explain a little earlier in this chapter), don't worry about a closing either, unless you want to "sign" your name at the end of the message. If you like a big send-off, try one of these:

Best, (short for "best regards" and good for formal and informal emails)

Sincerely, (formal)

See you soon, (informal)

Hope to hear from you, (somewhere between formal and informal)

Regards, (formal and a little old-fashioned)

TIP

All the preceding closings contain commas. You can also close your message by simply typing your name (*Lola* or *Ms. Snodgrass*) or with your initials (*LS* for "Lola Snodgrass"), in which case no commas are needed.

EXAMPLE

Q. Examine the underlined portion of this email and label it "correct" (C) or "incorrect" (I).

From: Mary Jones, Main Street Auto Repair

To: Carl Berger

CC: Alan Smith

Subject: repairs Completed

A. **I** The first word of the subject should be capitalized.

YOUR TURN

Examine the underlined portions of this email and label them "correct" (C) or "incorrect" (I).

13 Dear Mr. Berger

Your car repairs have been completed. Please call our service manager, Alan Smith, to arrange delivery. 14 Thanx for entrusting your business to 15 Main Street Auto Repair.

16 best,

17 Mary Jones

18 assistant Manager

PowerPoint to the People

When you present information to business colleagues or classmates, you may be a bit nervous. In the old days, you'd probably work from index cards and illustrations printed on actual pieces of paper. (That's one reason the "good old days" weren't always good, by the way.) Now you have presentation software to help you organize and illustrate your ideas and research. PowerPoint, Prezi, Keynote, and similar computer programs give you the ability to create a series of slides containing text and visuals — charts, graphs, diagrams, photos, and the like. The information is organized and accessible. All you have to do is speak a little about each slide as it flashes in front of the audience. Oh, and follow some simple grammar rules. (You knew there was a catch, right?) In this section, I tell you everything you need to know about proper presentation slides.

TIP

If you're not making an oral presentation, you may still find useful material in this section. The format for bullet points remains the same whether those points are on a ten-foot screen or a standard sheet of paper. Check out "Biting the bulleted list," later in this chapter, for more information.

Surveying presentation slides

Presentation slides come in many varieties, and a few elements appear in most. Here's a sample presentation slide in the most common format:

Title Introduction ◦ Bullet point ◦ Bullet point ◦ Bullet point

As you see in the sample presentation slide, a list follows the introduction. A *bullet point* — punctuation that marks the beginning of every item on the list — is a key element of a presentation slide. Bullet points may be check marks, circles, arrows, or other designs.

The sample presentation slide has three bullet points. You may have two, four, or more. (You can't have just one bullet point, though.) In a real presentation, a slide may also feature links to video clips and other visual elements (charts, photos, drawings, graphs, and so on). Some individual slides have titles.

TIP

A title may take the place of an introduction. Then your slide looks like this.

Title ◦ Bullet point ◦ Bullet point ◦ Bullet point

I centered the title, but you may place the title elsewhere.

WARNING

Avoid slides with bullet points but no title or introductory phrase. The audience will wonder what the list is about. If people are wondering, they aren't listening! You want the audience to look at the slide *and* hear what you're saying.

In the following sections, I walk you through each element of a presentation slide.

Writing titles

Every presentation has a focus, the topic you're explaining. A phrase stating that focus is the *title* of the presentation. Within the presentation, the main topic divides into subtopics. Each subtopic may have a title also.

A good title fits like a tailored suit. It's not too big — something so general that it mystifies your audience. Nor should the title be too narrow, covering only a portion of your presentation.

A good title refers to everything you're going to say and nothing more. Here's an example of a presentation with good and not-so-good titles:

CONTENT: Information on Germany's industry and trade, including statistics about the auto industry and general manufacturing, estimates of economic growth, and possible trouble spots

TOO-BIG TITLE: Germany: Facts and Figures

WHY IT'S TOO BIG: A presentation with this title might be about population growth, land area, climate, education, and many other aspects.

TOO-NARROW TITLE: Germany's Auto Industry

WHY IT'S TOO NARROW: Part of the presentation concerns the auto industry, but not all.

JUST-RIGHT TITLE: Germany's Current and Future Economy

WHY IT'S JUST RIGHT: Industry and trade are part of the economy, as are the auto industry and general manufacturing. The "Current and Future" part of the title takes into account "economic growth" and "possible trouble spots."

Check out one more example:

CONTENT: Examination of the reign of Tutankhamun, a ruler in ancient Egypt, including his associates and family, the change in religion during his reign, his early death, theories about the cause of his death, the discovery of his tomb in the 1920s, and public interest in his life and times.

TOO-BIG TITLE: Ancient Egypt

WHY IT'S TOO BIG: The presentation deals with Tutankhamun, one ruler of ancient Egypt. The title "Ancient Egypt" could cover thousands of years and discuss the daily life of ordinary people, other rulers, foreign relations, art, and many other topics.

TOO-NARROW TITLE: How Tutankhamun Died

WHY IT'S TOO NARROW: This title ignores associates, family, religion, and the discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb.

JUST-RIGHT TITLE: Tutankhamun: Life and Legacy

WHY IT'S JUST RIGHT: Tutankhamun's "life" includes his associates and family, the change in religion, and his death. His "legacy" takes into account his tomb, its discovery, and public interest.

When you place the presentation title on a slide, follow these guidelines:

- **The title appears on the first slide.** Usually, the title is alone or accompanied by photos or other types of illustration. It may be centered or placed so that it balances the visual material. Save the supporting text for other slides.
- **Capitalize the important words in the title.** Important words are nouns, verbs, and descriptions. Unimportant words — such as *a, an, the, to, from,* and *by* — should not be capitalized. (For more information on capitalizing titles, turn to Chapter 21.)

- **Don't enclose the title in quotation marks.** Because the title stands alone, it stands out! Quotation marks identify titles within a paragraph. You don't need them when the title is all by itself.
- **Don't place a period at the end of a title.** If the title is a question, a question mark appears at the end of the title.

Individual slides may have titles also. The title of a slide, like the title of the presentation as a whole, should refer to all the information on the slide and follow the guidelines in the preceding bullet points.

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct any errors you see in this title.

"Learning two languages: benefits and challenges"

Q. **Learning Two Languages: Benefits and Challenges** Remove the quotation marks and capitalize the important words.

YOUR TURN

Correct any errors you see in these titles.

19 Our Class Trip to Peru.

20 The Care And Feeding Of Canaries And Parakeets

21 "Annual Budget for Springfield School System"

22 Advantages of Investing in Bonds

Biting the bulleted list

A bullet is an important punctuation mark that introduces each item in a list. A bulleted list has two parts, the introduction and the bullet texts.

Bullet introductions

If the introduction to your bulleted list is a complete thought, end it with a colon, as in these sample introductions:

Fleas divert themselves with many exercises:

Fleas' favorite pastimes are varied:

If the introduction to a bulleted list is not a complete thought, don't place any punctuation mark at the end of the introduction. Check out these examples:

Fleas love to play with

Fleas' pet peeves are

WARNING

If the introduction line ends with a linking verb as in the second example, no punctuation follows the verb. See Chapter 5 for more information on linking verbs.

These guidelines make sense. If the introduction is not a complete sentence, the bullets finish the thought. So why would you interrupt with a period? If the introduction is a sentence, the colon indicates that more information is coming. (Turn to Chapter 20 for more about colons.)

If the introduction line leads to a series of quotations, place a comma at the end, as in these examples:

Simon Flea always says,

The flea trainer explains,

EXAMPLE

Q. Correct any errors you see in this introduction to a bulleted list.

Fundraising will be the responsibility of several organizations

A. **Fundraising will be the responsibility of several organizations:** This introduction is a complete sentence, so it should be followed by a colon.

YOUR TURN

Correct any errors you see in these introductions.

23 The fundraiser is:

24 The Marketing Campaign Will Appear In

25 Seven media outlets will participate.

26 Why do we need a fundraiser?:

27 Careers requiring college degrees include the following:

Bullet texts

The text for each bullet point is usually fairly short — sometimes just one or two words and sometimes a bit more. Follow these guidelines in writing bullet points:

- If the text is a complete sentence, begin with a capital letter and end with a period. If the sentence is a question, end with a question mark. You may also end a bullet statement with an exclamation point, but in a business or academic setting, this punctuation may be too casual.
- If the text isn't a complete sentence, don't use any end marks. You may capitalize the first word of each bullet point, but most people prefer lowercase, especially if the introduction line isn't a complete sentence. Whatever style you choose, be consistent. Don't write half of your bullet points with capital letters and half with lowercase.
- Each bullet point on a slide or in a list should have the same grammatical identity. If the first bullet point is a complete sentence, all the bullet points should be complete sentences.

If you've begun one bullet point with a noun, begin all of them with nouns. Here's a before-and-after bullet list, illustrating a common mistake and its correction:

INCORRECT

- table tennis
- playing air guitar
- to swing from a trapeze

CORRECT

- table tennis
- air guitar
- trapeze swinging

This grammatical principle is called *parallelism.* (For more information on parallelism, check out Chapter 24.)

WARNING

Many presentations, especially in the academic world, require a slide listing sources (books, websites, articles, films, and so forth). Sources are formatted differently from just about everything else on the planet. You can find out more in *College Research Papers For Dummies*, by Joseph J. Giampalmi (Wiley), or you can check any of the many websites devoted to source citation, including `www.mla,org` and `www.apa.org`.

EXAMPLE

Q. The following sample "slide" is from a presentation without capital letters and punctuation. Underneath is a list of corrections. Select all the corrections needed to create a grammatically correct slide.

parakeet hobbies

- bowling
- they like to toss seeds
- hang-gliding

(A) Capitalize *Parakeet.*

(B) Capitalize *Hobbies*.

(C) Change the second bullet to *toss seeds*.

(D) Change the second bullet to *seed-tossing*.

A. **(A), (B), (D)** Capitalize both words of the title. The second bullet doesn't match the other two. Of the two possible changes, (D) is better because it matches the *-ing* verb form of the other two bullets.

YOUR TURN

Select all the corrections needed to create a grammatically correct slide.

28

parakeets need the following items for bowling

- three-toed bowling shoes
- beak-adapted bowling balls
- featherweight pins

(A) Capitalize *Parakeets*.

(B) Place a comma at the end of the first line of the slide.

(C) Place a colon at the end of the first line of the slide.

(D) Place a period at the end of each bullet point.

29

the best-selling bowling shoes for parakeets have

- they have room for overgrown claws
- most are in brightly colors
- many include a complimentary seed stick
- they have clips rather than laces

(A) Capitalize *The*.

(B) Place a colon at the end of the first line.

(C) Place a period at the end of each bullet point.

(D) Change bullet points to *overgrown claws*, *bright colors*, *complimentary seed stick*, and *clips rather than laces.*

30

most prominent parakeet bowlers are

- able to think on their feet (claws)
- sponsored by well-known pet food companies
- active only for five or six years

(A) Capitalize *Most.*

(B) Place a colon after *are.*

(C) Capitalize the first word of each bullet point.

(D) Place a period at the end of each bullet point.

31

history of parakeet bowling

- the sport began in the 15th century
- early bowlers used apples to knock down corn stalks
- first professional tour — 1932

(A) Capitalize every word in the title except for *of.*

(B) Capitalize the first word in each bullet point.

(C) Place a period at the end of each bullet point.

(D) Change the last bullet point to *The first professional tour took place in 1932.*

Autocorrect and Other Error Magnets

When you're writing with pen and paper, only your brain and hand are involved. When you're working on an electronic device, however, computer code enters the picture. You should proofread carefully before you hit Send when you're emailing or texting and before you display a presentation slide on a screen. Why? Read on.

Text prediction programs suggest the most likely word after you type one or two letters, based on what other people have written. Sometimes the device proposes an entire word before you hit even a single letter, because the computer program links that word with the one preceding it. If I type *loo,* for example, the screen offers *look, looking,* and *looks.* After I hit *looking,* the program suggests *forward.* These shortcuts are terrific, but it's far too easy to hit the wrong spot on the screen — what some people call "fat finger" mistakes.

Autocorrect — a program that is supposed to find errors and fix them without your input — can also be a problem. I once texted my husband that I was "heading home on CPW," referring to a street named Central Park West. The text he received was "heading home on a cow." He knew I was on a bus, not an animal, because not many herds of cattle roam around New York City, where I live. He didn't know where I was, though, because he couldn't make a logical connection between "cow" and "Central Park West." And at least that's an innocent substitution. Some autocorrects aren't. A quick internet search for **auto correct fails** will show you exactly how bad things can get. (***Hint:*** Really, really bad. X-rated! Be careful!)

Speech-to-text programs, which convert what you say to your phone into written words on the screen, have improved quite a bit in recent years. Unfortunately, improvement isn't perfection. You may say, "I kneaded bread" and end up with "eye needed bread."

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **SI or F** You don't necessarily know your followers, so very informal writing is not a good idea. Choosing between the other two levels of formality depends on why you're being followed. If you write about serious topics, formal language emphasizes that your ideas deserve attention. If your followers love you because you post adorable videos of baby animals, somewhat informal writing may emphasize the relaxing, fun aspect of your web page.
2. **F** If it's a job, it's important enough to bring out your most formal language.
3. **F** A newspaper comment is public, and people who don't know you may read it. Present your most educated language if you want to be taken seriously.
4. **SI** If you haven't seen the classmate recently, a somewhat formal message is a safe bet.
5. **SI** To make the best choice, think about the closeness of the relationship. There's a power imbalance, but there's also a family tie. The middle ground seems appropriate, but if the aunt and nephew are comfortable joking around with each other, informal language is fine.
6. **SI** If you're too formal, people may stop reading, because they go to social media to relax. If only close friends will see the post, however, informal language is appropriate.
7. **(C)** Options (A) and (B) have cut out too much. Did Lola steal $10,000? Could be, the way these texts read. Option (C) clarifies the situation. The abbreviation *FYI* ("for your information") is standard, as is *w/o* ("without") and *K* ("thousand"). The last sentence is clearly a plea for bail money.
8. **(B)** Option (B) gets the job done. I wouldn't mind cutting the *for,* but with that word the message sounds a little more respectable (not like Lola). The plus sign could also be an ampersand (&) or the word *and.* Options (A) and (C) aren't clear. What's *cs? Prob?* I made up the abbreviations, so anyone receiving this message isn't likely to understand. In option (C), whose fingers are crossed — the texter's or the lawyer's?
9. **(C)** Option (C) is short, but not too short. The standard abbreviation for "as soon as possible" is *ASAP,* but you don't really need the capital letters here. You could also cut *P.M.* from the message, if you wish, as it's unlikely that a jail would allow visitors at midnight. Option (A) is vague, and (B) uses the greater-than (>) math symbol in an attempt to show that Lulu's going to visit Lola. Too far out for clarity!
10. **(A)** Option (A) is clear. The abbreviation *b/c* ("because") is standard, though you wouldn't use it for formal writing. Notice that I deleted the verbs because the meaning comes through without them. I also substituted *top penalty probable* for the longer *will probably give Lola the maximum penalty.* The other options need CIA code-breakers.
11. **(A)** In option (A), you have all the information you need at half the length. Option (B) has shed too many words. Option (C) is tempting, and if you know your reader well, it might be fine. Because three people are involved in the story (the judge, Lola, and the texter), I prefer option (A), which names Lola.
12. **(C)** The shorter options don't work, because three people (the judge, Lola, and the texter) are possibilities. Only (C) supplies enough words to clarify the situation.
13. **I** You need a comma or a colon at the end of this greeting line.
14. **I** The email has a formal tone, which is exactly what you want in a business communication. *Thanx* is nonstandard. Substitute *Thanks.*

15 **C** The name of the business is properly presented here.

16 **I** Capitalize *Best.*

17 **C** The employee's name is appropriate here.

18 **I** Capitalize *Assistant.*

19 **Our Class Trip to Peru** Remove the period.

20 **The Care and Feeding of Canaries and Parakeets** Place unimportant words within the title *(and, of, and)* in lowercase.

21 **Annual Budget for Springfield School System** Don't enclose a title in quotation marks.

22 **correct** Everything works here: no extra punctuation, and capital letters for the important words.

23 **The fundraiser is** Remove the colon because the introduction ends with a linking verb.

24 **The marketing campaign will appear in** Capitalize only the first letter of the first word.

25 **Seven media outlets will participate:** Use a colon instead of a period.

26 **Why do we need a fundraiser?** Remove the colon because the introduction ends with a question mark.

27 **correct** The introductory statement is a complete sentence, so a colon is appropriate.

28 **(A), (C)** Because the introductory statement is a complete sentence, it should begin with a capital letter (option A) and end with a colon, which indicates that a list follows (option C). A comma shouldn't introduce a bulleted list. The bullet points aren't complete sentences, so no periods are necessary.

29 **(A), (D)** The first word of the introductory statement needs a capital letter (option A). No punctuation follows *have* because the statement isn't a complete sentence (options B and C). In the original list, each item is a complete sentence, so they don't combine well with the introductory statement. *The best bowling shoes for parakeets have they have room* — nope, I don't think so. The bullets should be *room for overgrown claws, bright colors, complimentary seed sticks,* and *clips rather than laces* (option D).

30 **(A)** Did I catch you with this one? No punctuation is needed in the first line because *are* doesn't complete the introductory sentence. Nor should you capitalize any of the bullet points, as they complete the sentence begun by the introductory statement. Option (D) is tempting, but you have three half sentences, one in each bullet point, all connected to the introductory line. Placing three periods doesn't make sense. Some grammarians recommend a semicolon after each bullet point, with a period after the last. This is somewhat stuffy. My recommendation is no punctuation at all after the bullet points. The only change is a capital *M* for the first word in the introductory sentence (option A).

31 **(A), (B), (C), (D)** This slide has a title, and titles need capital letters. The first two bullet points are complete sentences, so the third should match.

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 25 Quiz

Correct or incorrect? Consider context and medium as you answer.

1. Subject line of an email sent by a soccer coach to a player's father:

   less aggression more skill

2. Text response from player's father to soccer coach:

   UR wrong!!!!! kids xtra skilled

3. line from a post on the website "Youth Soccer," written by the soccer coach:

   Studies show that parents prioritize aggressive play over skill development.

4. Slide from a presentation given by a soccer referee at the end of the season to an audience of parents and players:

   Season Statistics for Springfield Sockets

   - 266 goals (average 13.3 per game)
   - 17 injuries (2 players, 6 parents, 4 coaches, 5 referees)
   - 4–16 won–lost record (interleague games)

5. Slide from a presentation given by a soccer mom to the Parents' Booster Club:

   Benefits of Youth Soccer

   - College admissions officers react positively.
   - Team spirit
   - Children are out of the house several times a week.

6. Line from an email from school principal to the Parents' Booster Club:

   "Less fighting, more delighting" is the motto of our sports program, which I'm sure you'll agree does not benefit from negative press reports about spectators' attacks on the referees.

7. Text from one player to another:

   my mom and urs fighting!!! ROFL!!!!

8. Comment on newspaper website about an article entitled "Local Woman Arrested in Soccer Brawl":

   This is a non-story totally blown out of proportion by parents of players on the other team. One owns this newspaper. Just saying.

9. Caption for a photo of a fistfight, posted on social media:

   parents :(

10. Email sent by the parent in the photo to the manager of the social media site:

    My attorneys assure me that you are liable for any damage to my reputation caused by that photo.

Answers to Chapter 25 Quiz

1. **incorrect** The subject line should be capitalized. Also, the tone is a bit argumentative and the wording vague.
2. **incorrect** A parent writing to a professional (in this case, a coach) should write more formally. Abbreviations such as *UR* and *xtra* are out of place, as are four of the five exclamation points.
3. **correct** I don't know whether the study is correct (I made it up), but the sentence is correct in Standard English, a good choice for someone who wants to make a convincing argument.
4. **correct** Everything on this slide, except for the statistics (which would be appalling if they were real) is correct.
5. **incorrect** Bullet points should match grammatically. The first and third bullet points are complete sentences, but the second is not. Change it to "Team spirit builds character" or similar wording.
6. **correct** A school official should write in Standard English when communicating with parents. That's the case here, so this one is correct.
7. **correct** The language is correct (not necessarily the sentiment or the fight that provoked it). In peer-to-peer texts, there's no need for Standard English. *ROFL,* in case you didn't know, means "rolling on the floor laughing."
8. **incorrect** I won't address the question of whether the writer should make accusations in a comment thread. Instead, I focus on the language. The first sentence is formal, and the last isn't. Consistency matters!
9. **incorrect** The tone of this caption would be fine for a text or email between friends, but social media draws a wide audience and merits somewhat more formal language.
10. **correct** If you're threatening to sue, opt for Standard English.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- Writing essays and research papers
- Creating science laboratory reports
- Formatting business letters and memos

Chapter 26
Writing at School and on the Job

Unless you're the ruler of the entire world, you have a boss. At school, your boss is a teacher or a professor. At work, your boss is, well, the boss! Writing done for an authority figure requires proper English. Plus, when you're writing at school or on the job, you must conform to additional standards — traditions built up over the years.

Chapter 25 focuses on the media you use for writing — specifically, electronic media (texts, tweets, email, and slide presentations). In this chapter, I turn the spotlight on content and form, showing you how to master the most common types of school and workplace writing. Mastering these will help you achieve better grades or perhaps a promotion and a higher salary.

A Is for Accomplished: Writing at School

It happens every school day, sometimes more than once a day. Your teacher assigns a report, an essay, a research paper, or a similar document. You sigh and wonder, "How long until vacation?" No one likes homework. But grasping the *conventions* — the basic format of assignments — can make writing them easier.

Essays and research papers

An *essay* is a written discussion of an idea. Usually, an essay expresses a point of view — your opinion on the topic or the conclusion you've drawn from the information you presented in the essay. A *research paper* generally includes information (ideas, opinions, statistics) that you gathered from books, articles, and websites. A research paper may express your own view on the subject or simply present a neutral overview of the topic. In this section are some guidelines for writing these works.

TIP

Businesspeople write research papers, too, but in the business world, these papers are generally called *reports.* Every guideline you see here applies to both academic papers and business reports.

Formal writing

Essays and research papers are formal. Slang words, a conversational tone, and most abbreviations have no place in these assignments. (You may use abbreviations attached to dates, such as *A.D.* or *C.E.* in formal papers. Both abbreviations refer to the modern or "common" era.) When you're writing an essay or a research paper, pretend that you're arguing a case before a judge or lecturing a group of scholars. The level of formality you'd use in a courtroom or lecture hall is your goal. Take a look at some acceptable and unacceptable sentences for this type of assignment:

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: The plot is kind of complicated, with too much stuff to keep track of.

BETTER SENTENCE: With a complicated plot, the novel challenges the reader to keep track of events.

WHY IT'S BETTER: In the first version, *kind of* and *stuff* are too informal. The wording in the second sentence is more mature.

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: The general ordered his troops to attack very late in the battle. Big mistake! Lots of soldiers died.

BETTER SENTENCE: Because the general waited until late in the battle to order an attack, many soldiers died.

WHY IT'S BETTER: *Big mistake* and *lots of* are too informal. Also, the fact that soldiers died shows the mistake. The writer does not have to say *big mistake*.

UNACCEPTABLE SENTENCE: This painting is all about color, a ton of color, and nothing else but color.

BETTER SENTENCE: The distinctive characteristic of this painting is its color.

WHY IT'S BETTER: The original version repeats *color* and tries to be cute. Academic writing should be more formal.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which sentence(s) would be appropriate for an academic or business report?

(A) A great change in family finances has long-term effects.

(B) The effects of a large increase or decrease in family income may last for years.

(C) neither

(D) both

A. **(D)** Both sentences make a clear point without slang or casual language, so both are acceptable.

Identifying others' ideas

Robbing a bank is a crime. Stealing someone else's ideas is also a crime in the academic world (and sometimes in the business world, too). This crime, *plagiarism*, is a serious offense. Luckily, you can stay on the right side of the law by crediting your sources. You can do so in several different ways.

If you insert someone else's exact words into your own writing, you must be sure that the reader knows you're quoting. Place quotation marks around short quotations and insert them into the text. Take a look at these examples:

> Economist Joan Smith noted, "The economic downturn has led to lowered expectations for a better future and contributed to a rise in crime."
>
> According to Smith, the trade agreement signed last year "damaged many parts of the economy," bringing hardship to a large number of people.
>
> "Unemployment for factory workers will not improve for at least five years," she added.
>
> She claims that the job market is "at crisis level in nearly every area of the country."

The quotation marks tell you what Joan Smith said. If you leave them out, your reader assumes that you linked a bad economy to the crime rate, discovered the consequences of the trade agreement, and analyzed the job market. But you didn't do these things. Joan Smith did. (Joan Smith is just an example, not a real person. Nor is the information about the economy, trade agreement, and job market real.)

As you see in these examples, the quotation may appear at the beginning of the sentence, at the end, or even in the middle. (For more information on punctuating and capitalizing quotations, turn to Chapter 18.)

Quotations that are longer than three lines should be indented from the left margin so that they resemble a block of text. Take a look at this example, which is not from a real source but is something I created just for you:

> Historian Alex Johnson has attempted to determine why the trial attracted so much attention. In *The Trial of Martha Martin,* he writes:
>
> > Some see sexism and the narrow roles assigned to women as the cause. However, economic gain is a more likely reason the media covered the trial

> in great detail. All the major television networks sent representatives, and thousands of words appeared in traditional newspapers and magazines. Millions followed the trial on various websites. All these media outlets bring in millions of dollars in advertising money.
>
> Statistics provided by the Advertising Council support Johnson's view. In 2024, rates for social media pop-up ads . . . [The text continues here.]

TIP

Notice that the block quotation isn't surrounded by quotation marks. The blocking takes the place of that punctuation.

If you aren't directly quoting someone else's words in your paper, you may still have to give credit. Information and ideas that are not your own must be identified, even if you change the wording. If you explain Rebecca Dunne's ideas about the Salem witch trials, for example, you must give credit to Rebecca Dunne. (Rebecca Dunne is not a real person. This name is just an example to illustrate the point.) When you mention statistics, identify the person supplying the statistics. You may identify the source in the text ("Rebecca Dunne believes that . . .") or in footnotes or parentheses.

TIP

Sometimes no name is available for a source. Instead, all you know is the name of the organization (the Advertising Council, perhaps). In this situation, give credit to the organization.

Teachers usually ask you to identify the source of a quotation, an idea, or information in a citation. A *citation* is a footnote, a note at the end of a chapter, or a reference in parentheses inserted into the text. Additional information about each source appears in a *bibliography* or source list at the end of the paper or essay. Several systems for formatting citations and bibliographies exist, and every teacher has a favorite. So does every subject area. Before you write, ask which system your teacher prefers. Then check the internet or a reference book for the format, or use a computer program that automatically formats your citation and bibliography according to your teacher's preferred system.

For a longer discussion of research papers and citations, you may want to take a look at *College Research Papers For Dummies*, by Joseph J. Giampalmi (Wiley, 2023).

REMEMBER

Without identifying the source, the reader will think that the idea or information comes directly from you. Give credit where credit is due.

Other formatting issues

Your essay or research paper should have a title. Some teachers don't require this step, but a title helps you focus your ideas. For a long essay or for a research paper, place the title on a separate page. For a short piece of writing, center the title at the top of the page. Don't place quotation marks around the title.

When you write an English, history, or art paper, capitalize all the important words. Place unimportant words — *a, an, the,* and so on — in lowercase. Follow the same system for titles of other works that you mention within your paper. The title of an article should be inside quotation marks. Titles of full-length works (novels, nonfiction books, plays, and so on) should be italicized or underlined.

TIP

The title of a science paper, or titles within a science paper, follow different rules, which I explain in a later section "Science reports."

Verb tense also matters when you write an essay or a research paper. In general, use past tense for history papers, except for events that are still going on. Take a look at these examples. The past tense verbs are underlined:

> Rosa Parks was a civil rights activist who played an important role in the Montgomery bus boycott.
>
> Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin in 1928.
>
> Julius Caesar was a Roman general and statesman whose victories extended the territory of the Roman Empire to modern Britain and Germany.

If you write about a work of literature or art, present tense is best. Why? The work doesn't change. Every time you open the book or look at the painting, the experience begins anew. Here are some examples, with the present tense verbs underlined:

> Hamlet kills Polonius by accident.
>
> In Goya's painting, two women stand on a balcony.
>
> The poet calls darkness "comforting" and "tender."

EXAMPLE

Q. Is the format acceptable or unacceptable? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the essay or paper.

"The Role of the Unreliable Narrator" (title, centered on a line above an essay)

A. **unacceptable** Centered titles should not be placed in quotation marks.

YOUR TURN

Is the format acceptable or unacceptable? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the essay or paper.

1. Henry Peters said, The war illustrated the limitations of troops fighting without proper equipment. (sentence in a research paper)
2. The Dow-Jones Industrial Average is, according to the many economists, the most important indicator of the health of the economy. (sentence from an essay for an economics class)
3. The artist believed that his art was unique, but Arthur Bombech and other experts have identified many influences on his personal style. (sentence from a research paper about a sculptor)
4. "Comic Art in France: A Survey" (title of a research paper, alone on a title page)
5. Jay Gatsby, the title character in Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*, was in love with Daisy. (sentence from an essay for English class)

Science reports

If you're writing a science research paper based on reading articles published by others, the guidelines in the earlier section "Essays and research papers" are mostly the same. One exception is the capitalization of titles. The title of the paper, as well as any titles referred to within the paper, are capitalized in *sentence style.* Only the first word of the title, the first word of the subtitle (if there is one), and proper names are capitalized. Everything else is in lowercase. Here are some examples:

Pneumonia risk in newborns: The influence of nutrition

Population growth of *Orcinus orca* in Puget Sound, 1950–2020

Desert and alpine flora in California: A comparative study

TIP

Science has its own system — actually, a couple of systems — for source citations. Ask the teacher or professor about their preferred system and then consult the appropriate website or handbook. Or download an app (computer program) that will do the formatting for you.

From middle school through graduate school, most science courses involve doing lab work — experiments — and writing lab reports. Your teacher or professor may give you a sample lab report and ask you to format your own work in the same way. (If you don't receive a sample, ask for one!) Science lab reports vary somewhat, but a few rules apply to all.

References to others' experiments

Some lab reports begin with a summary of others' work in the same field. If you refer to the titles of scientific papers in your lab report, use sentence style, described earlier in this section. Capitalize the first word of the title of the report, as well as the first word of the subtitle (if the report has one). Capitalize proper names. Everything else appears in lowercase (non-capitals).

TIP

Generally, you don't need to quote directly from someone else's scientific paper. Scientists want the information, but the exact words aren't important. Summarize or state the information in your own words. Be sure to credit the source.

Dates are another important element in lab reports. Science constantly moves forward, extending or correcting theories as new information appears. When you refer to someone else's experiment or theory, you should supply the date. The reader then understands how current the information is. Most scientists prefer the date to appear in this order: day-month-year, or, if no day is given, month-year. No commas appear within the date. Here are a few examples of dates in the scientific style:

10 May 1999

26 August 2014

June 2015

If you do not know the day or the month, or if that information isn't relevant, simply write the year.

EXAMPLE

Q. Which format(s) would be acceptable in a science report?

(A) 15 June 2025

(B) June 15, 2025

(C) both

(D) neither

A. **(A)** Dates in a science report are written without commas. The format is *day month year*.

Reporting your own actions

Most of your laboratory report explains what you did, how you did it, and what results you obtained. When you report your actions, be specific. Also, write about the experiment, not about yourself. Take a look at these sample sentences:

BAD SENTENCE: I added sodium.

GOOD SENTENCE: Sodium was added.

WHY IT'S GOOD: *I* is not appropriate in a lab report.

BAD SENTENCE: We exposed the plant to sunlight.

GOOD SENTENCE: The plant was exposed to sunlight.

WHY IT'S GOOD: The focus of the sentence should be on the action, not on the people performing the action.

BAD SENTENCE: After the plant flowered, Jean measured the stem.

GOOD SENTENCE: After the plant flowered, the stem was measured.

WHY IT'S GOOD: *Jean* is not important. Focus on the action, not on the person.

Notice that the good sentences use past tense. The experiment is over, and the report explains what you did and what happened. Present tense doesn't fit this situation. For the same reason, you should also use past tense when you give information about others' experiments.

REMEMBER

Be serious, factual, and formal when you write about an experiment. A science lab report is not the place to make a joke or to let your imagination loose. Present the information clearly.

EXAMPLE

Q. Are the format and language of this sentence acceptable in a science lab report?

Next, sodium is added to the solution.

A. **unacceptable** The experiment happened in the past, so you need a past tense verb, *was.* Also, how much sodium? That's an important fact and should appear in the report.

Other formatting issues

You have to present information you gathered during your experiment. Often you do so visually, in charts, graphs, tables, or diagrams. Each of these visual elements should be numbered and identified. Here's an example of a table:

TIP

Elsewhere in your lab report, you may refer to "Table 1" as you analyze the information. Capitalize *Table.*

Table 1 Number of flowers with and without fertilizer treatment

Plant type	Number of flowers without fertilizer	Number of flowers with fertilizer treatment	Average width of flowers
Rosa abyssinica	2	8	3 cm
Rosa arkansana	0	3	2.8 cm
Rosa carolina	1	1	6 cm

Numbers often appear in lab reports. As you see in the example, scientists use metric units for size, weight, and volume. In other words, you measure *meters, kilograms,* and *liters,* not *yards, pounds*, or *quarts.* Always abbreviate metric units. Most metric abbreviations are not capitalized. (*L* for liter and *C* for Celsius temperature are exceptions.) Place a space between the number and the metric unit, and omit periods within or after the abbreviation. The same abbreviation works for both singular (one unit) and plural (more than one unit). Take a look at these examples:

8 cm (eight centimeters)

1.5 kg (one-point-five kilograms)

55 ml (fifty-five milliliters)

2 L (two liters)

Take another look at the sample table. The scientific names of the plants (all types of roses) are italicized. All scientific names of plants and animals require italics. Common names, such as *rose,* do not need italics. Generally, the first word of a scientific name, the *genus,* is capitalized and what follows, the *species,* is in lowercase. Sometimes, the first word may be abbreviated. Here are some examples:

Homo sapiens

E. coli

Turdusmigratorius

In case you're wondering, the common names of the items in the preceding list are human beings, a virus, and a robin.

WARNING

If you're writing the report with a pen, don't attempt to reproduce italics by hand. Simply write the name clearly.

EXAMPLE

Q. Is the format of this excerpt from a lab report acceptable? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the report.

Acceleration of falling objects in a vacuum (title, centered alone on a title page)

A. **acceptable** This science title is capitalized properly: only the first word is capitalized, and everything else is in lowercase.

YOUR TURN

Is the format of each excerpt from a lab report acceptable? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the report.

6. Comparison of fertilized and unfertilized *Rosa rubiginosa* plants (title of an experiment, alone on a title page)
7. The fertilized rose totally won, in terms of numbers of flowers. (sentence from the conclusion)
8. The fertilizer, I think, made a difference. (another sentence from the conclusion)
9. Approximately 2 ml of fertilizer were added to the soil every day for a month. (sentence explaining the procedure)
10. Temperature was kept at 4° c. (sentence explaining the procedure)

Get to Work: Writing on the Job

In school, you may pay money (tuition and fees) to write. At work, someone may pay you to write. That's a better arrangement, don't you think? Writing on the job can make or break your career. If you write well, you may advance, but if you write poorly, you may lose your position. In this section, I help you take a close look at the most common types of business writing so that every document you create is perfect.

TIP

Most word processing programs provide templates — basic formats — for many types of business communications. When you bring one up on your screen, everything is in the right place. All you have to do is supply the content. In this section, I show you some standard formats and provide guidelines for how to use them correctly.

TIP

If your job involves writing business reports, follow the guidelines in the section "Essays and research papers," earlier in this chapter. Business reports are similar to the research papers you write (or wrote) in school.

Letters

Email and phone calls may be taking over the business world, but letters on paper are still around. When you write a business letter, you must include some important elements, which can be formatted in several different ways. Your company may have a preferred format, or there may be some room for your own preferences.

Take a look at this sample letter. Each part is labeled in bold. Below the letter are further instructions for each part.

NAME AND ADDRESS OF COMPANY:

Peterman Construction Company

5212 Calla Street

Anytown, New York 10021

DATE:

September 12, 2024

INSIDE ADDRESS:

Mr. George Dodge

1471 Second Avenue

Millerville, VT 05469

GREETING:

Dear Mr. Dodge:

BODY OF THE LETTER:

The repairs to your roof were completed two days ago. We hope that you are satisfied with our work. Please send us the final payment ($1,500) by Friday, October 12, 2024. We look forward to working with you on future projects.

CLOSING:

Sincerely,

NAME OF SENDER:

Herman Denten

TITLE OF SENDER:

Project Manager

PHONE NUMBER AND EMAIL ADDRESS OF SENDER:

212-555-9393 hdenten@dummiesallinone.com

Take a look at each part of the letter:

- **The name and address of the company appear at the top of the letter.** If you're printing the letter on official company paper, or *letterhead,* the top of the paper already provides the company's name and address. If it doesn't, you can add this information yourself. Place the company name, physical address, and web address flush with the left margin.
- **Additional information about the sender may appear after the company name and address or at the end of the letter.** You're the sender, unless someone else asked you to write the letter. Your name and title may appear on one line, followed by your email address and phone number on another line, all flush with the left margin. You can also choose to place the title, email address, and phone number after your name at the end of the letter, as I did in the preceding sample letter.
- **The date should begin at the left margin.** An older but still acceptable style places the date closer to the right margin, more or less in the middle of the page. In the sample you see a month-day-year format *(September 12, 2024),* but you may also use day-month-year *(12 September 2024)* instead. If the day comes first, don't insert commas. Don't write a date entirely with numerals (*9/12/24,* for example). In some countries, the day comes before the month. In others, it follows. Your reader may see *9/12/24* and read it as *September 12, 2024* or *December 9, 2024.*
- **The inside address contains the name and address of the person you're writing to.** Use *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.,* or any other title that fits. Capitalize the abbreviation, and end the abbreviation with a period. Use both the first and last names, if you know them.
- **The greeting in a business letter is formal.** Stay away from *Hi, Hello,* and other such words. *Dear* or *To* are better choices. Generally, omit the first name of the person you're writing to. Attach the title *(Mr., Mrs., Ms.,* or *Dr.)* to the last name. Follow the greeting with a colon (one dot atop another).
- **The body of the letter should be simple and dignified.** Formality and courtesy are important when you write to an employee or a customer. Steer clear of slang, and don't wander off topic. Write the message in simple, clear language.
- **The closing appears alone on a line.** *Sincerely, Yours truly, Kind regards,* and similar formal phrases are fine. *Best,* short for *Best regards,* is a little less formal but still acceptable. Don't write *Your friend* or something similar. In business, you don't have friends! You have co-workers, supervisors, and customers. Follow the closing with a comma.
- **Your name completes the letter.** Include both your first and last names, and a middle initial, if you like. Add a suffix *(Jr., Esq.)*, if you use one. If you didn't include your title at the top of the letter, place the title on a separate line after your name. Capitalize your title: *Director of Marketing, Sales Assistant,* and so on. If you didn't place your phone number and email address at the beginning of the letter, place that information on a separate line after your title.

TIP

You can adapt this letter format for recommendations, performance reviews, marketing campaigns, and many other situations. The only portion of the letter that changes is the body, where the message appears. Everything else stays the same.

EXAMPLE

Q. Is this acceptable or unacceptable in a business letter? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the letter.

Dear Maxine, (greeting in a letter to Dr. Maxine Oheria)

A. **unacceptable** The greeting should be more formal: *Dear Dr. Oheria.* Generally, the first name doesn't appear.

YOUR TURN

Is this acceptable or unacceptable in a business letter? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the letter.

11. Sincerely, (closing)
12. 5/6/24 (date)
13. Dear Ms. Mary North: (greeting)
14. Classic Company 4 Park Road Autton NY 11202 (sender's company and company address)
15. Director Of Marketing (sender's title)

Memos

Memos are communications sent within a company — from boss to employee, employee to boss, or one employee to another. They're more formal than most emails. Your word processing program may supply several memo templates, or you can format your own. Here's one option, with labels capitalized:

PERSON RECEIVING THE MEMO:

To: Samantha Friedman

PERSON SENDING THE MEMO:

From: Arthur Gordon, Vice President of Marketing

SUBJECT LINE:

Re: Performance review

DATE:

Date: June 12, 2024

MESSAGE:

All sales associates will meet with me individually during the month of July for the annual performance review. Please call my secretary (ext. 333) for an appointment.

As you write a memo, keep these ideas in mind:

- **When you fill in the To and From lines, use full (first and last) names.** You may include the job title, if you wish. Capitalize only the important words in the job title. Remember that *To* and *From* should be followed by colons, not commas.
- **If you send a copy to another person, include a CC line.** *CC* is an old abbreviation. It used to mean *carbon copy,* in the days when copies were made with carbon paper. No one uses carbon paper now, but the abbreviation remains. Most often, this abbreviation is capitalized, but lowercase is also fine. (Choose one. Don't capitalize one letter and not the other.) Either way, follow the abbreviation with a colon. Then write the names of the people who should receive copies.
- **Write a clear subject line.** Capitalize the first word in the subject. If you like, you may capitalize all the important words, or leave the rest in lowercase. The subject line should be short, just long enough to let the reader know what the memo is about.
- **Include the date.** Here you see the traditional month-day-year format. You can change that pattern to day-month-year. You may also drop the name of the month and insert a number (*6* instead of *June,* for example). Be careful, though. In some countries, the day precedes the month. In others, it follows. Your reader may see 6/12 and read it as *June 12* or *December 6.*
- **Keep the body of the memo clear, formal, and short.** Get your message across politely, omitting unnecessary words and comments.
- **Initial the memo.** Place your initials next to your name on the From line. If you're working on paper, use a pen. Otherwise, use your word processing program to insert your initials. A memo has no closing or signature line.

EXAMPLE

Q. Is this acceptable or unacceptable in a memo? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the memo.

Re: supply chain (subject line)

A. **unacceptable** You should always capitalize the first word, and you may also capitalize other significant words in the subject line. The correct version of this subject line is *Supply Chain* or *Supply chain.*

YOUR TURN

Is this acceptable or unacceptable in a memo? The information in parentheses identifies the element of the memo.

16. 18 March 2024 (date)
17. To Elizabeth Stanton (person receiving the memo)
18. From: Marlon Rabbitti (person sending the memo)
19. Dear Elizabeth, (first line of the message)
20. Update on Order Status (subject line)

Practice Questions Answers and Explanations

1. **unacceptable** The quoted words should be surrounded by quotation marks. Thus, the correct version is *Henry Peters said, "The war illustrated the limitations of troops fighting without proper equipment."*
2. **acceptable** The language is formal, as it should be. No quotation marks are necessary, because no words are quoted and the ideas are attributed to *many economists*.
3. **acceptable** The language is formal, and no quotation marks are needed.
4. **unacceptable** A title that is alone on the page should not be enclosed by quotation marks.
5. **unacceptable** When writing about a literary work, use present tense. Change *was* to *is.*
6. **acceptable** The first word of the title is capitalized, as well as the first part of the scientific name of the plant (a tea rose, in common language). *Rosa* is the genus, a category that includes many types of roses, and *rubiginosa* is the species, a subgroup of the genus. In science writing, capitalize the genus but not the species, and italicize both.
7. **unacceptable** The language is too informal and too general. Instead of *totally won*, give accurate information: *Fertilized plants produced an average of 8.7 blooms per plant, compared to 3.2 for unfertilized plants.*
8. **unacceptable** Don't insert yourself into a lab report! The sentence is also too general. Give information about the observed difference, such as the number of blooms, plant height, and so forth.
9. **acceptable** Everything here is factual and in formal language. The abbreviation for *milliliters* is written without a period, as it should be.
10. **unacceptable** The abbreviation for *Celsius* is *C,* not *c.*
11. **acceptable** The formality of this closing is appropriate for a business letter.
12. **unacceptable** In some countries this is May 6, 2024. In other countries it's June 5, 2024. Clarity is your goal, and you can't achieve that with numerals.
13. **unacceptable** In the greeting, use the title and last name only *(Ms. North),* followed by a comma or colon.
14. **unacceptable** Place the company name and street address on separate lines. Below the street-address line, place the city, state, and zip code on their own line. If separate lines present a problem, insert commas to separate each of these elements, with one exception: No comma appears between the state and the zip code.
15. **unacceptable** Don't capitalize *of* in a title.

16 **acceptable** Everything is as it should be in this date.

17 **unacceptable** *To* should be followed by a colon. Thus, this should be *To: Elizabeth Stanton*

18 **acceptable** Everything's fine with the punctuation and capitalization here.

19 **unacceptable** Don't place a greeting in a memo.

20 **acceptable** The word *on* isn't important, so it should be in lowercase. Another acceptable format for this subject line is *Update on order status.*

If you're ready to test your skills a bit more, take the following chapter quiz that incorporates all the chapter topics.

Whaddya Know? Chapter 26 Quiz

Quiz time! Complete each problem to test your knowledge on the various topics covered in this chapter. You can then find the solutions and explanations in the next section.

Decide whether these excerpts from academic or business communications are acceptable.

Excerpt	What It Is	Acceptable or Unacceptable?
1. To Mr. Carmen,	Greeting line in a business letter	
2. "International Travel in 19th Century Europe"	Title of a history research paper, centered on a title page	
3. Peterson 222 Main Street Centerton, NY 11001	Business letter, inside address of the recipient	
4. According to Dr. Higging, the most recent census showed a rise in the number of multifamily dwellings in the metropolitan area.	Sentence from a research paper	
5. Very truly yours,	Closing of a business letter	
6. On 15 July 1972, both parties reached an agreement on the merger.	Sentence from an academic essay	
7. 2024 June 14	Date of a memo	
8. Growth of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in soil following natural flooding	Title of a science paper, centered on the top line	
9. C.C. Lorna Francis	Copy line in a memo	
10. The painting showed the dead man and his murderer.	Sentence in an essay describing a work of art	

Answers to Chapter 26 Quiz

1. **unacceptable** A colon, not a comma, should follow the name in the greeting line of a business letter.
2. **unacceptable** A centered title should not be enclosed in quotation marks.
3. **unacceptable** *Peterson* should not appear all by itself. Add *Mr.* or *Ms.* or whatever title the recipient uses. Also insert the first name, if you know it.
4. **acceptable** The information is credited to the source, *Dr. Higging,* and the language is appropriately formal.
5. **acceptable** This closing is fine for a business letter.
6. **acceptable** The format, tone, and tense are all fine in this sentence.
7. **unacceptable** The year should not appear first. Change to *June 14, 2024* or *14 June 2024.*
8. **acceptable** A centered title should not be enclosed in quotation marks. In a science report, only the first word of the title and subtitle and proper names should be capitalized.
9. **unacceptable** Don't insert periods into the abbreviation *CC.* Place a colon after the abbreviation.
10. **unacceptable** In describing a work of art (painting, novel, poem, and so forth) use present tense. Change *showed* to *shows.*

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About the Author

Geraldine Woods has taught every level of English from fifth grade through adult writing classes. She's the author of more than 50 books, including *English Grammar For Dummies*, 3rd Edition; *Basic English Grammar For Dummies*; and *1001 Grammar Practice Questions For Dummies*, 2nd Edition (all published by Wiley). She also wrote *25 Great Sentences and How They Got That Way* and *Sentence. A Period-to-Period Guide to Building Better Readers and Writers*, both published by WW Norton. She blogs at `www.grammarianinthecity.com` about current trends in language and ridiculous signs she encounters on her walks around New York City. Her current favorite sign reads, "Help Wanted: Grilled and Deli Man."

Dedication

For Harry, who will always live in my heart.

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introduction

Collins Webster's Easy Learning English Vocabulary is designed for anyone who wants to broaden their knowledge of English words in key everyday situations. Whether you need English at work, at school or college, or for a vacation, *Collins Webster's Easy Learning English Vocabulary* offers you the information you require in a clear and accessible format.

This book is divided into 50 subject areas. These cover such topics as "air travel," "business," "food and drink," and "science," arranged in alphabetical order. This arrangement by subject area helps you to learn related words and phrases together. In this way, you can always be sure of using the right word in the right context.

Within each topic, vocabulary is divided into nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and idioms. Each word is defined in relation to the topic in question. For example, in "air travel," the meaning that is given for the word *connection* is:

> "a plane that leaves after another one arrives and allows you to continue your journey by changing from one to the other."

In "computers and the internet," on the other hand, *connection* is defined in terms of its computer-related sense:

> "a link between a computer and a network."

For each topic, there are plenty of authentic example sentences from the Collins corpus. These show you how words and phrases are used in real English.

At the end of the book, there are additional sections on place names and people, numbers, measurements, times, and dates. There is also an alphabetical index, and a list of irregular verbs.

We hope that this book will help you to expand your knowledge of English vocabulary in a wide range of situations. For more information about Collins dictionaries, visit us at **www.collinslanguage.com**.

Guide to entries

Topics are organized in alphabetical order.

Each topic is divided into word classes. These include nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and idioms.

Common British words are shown.

Where a noun has an irregular plural form, this is shown below the main form.

The main form of the word is in bold.

These symbols show you how to say the word. See page vii for an explanation of these.

The meaning of each word is given as it relates to the topic.

Short phrases show you how the word is used in context.

air travel

NOUNS

aeroplane *(BRIT)*		*see* **airplane**
aircraft (PL) **aircraft**	[ɛərkræft]	a plane or a helicopter
airline	[ɛərlaɪn]	a company that carries people or goods in planes
airplane	[ɛərpleɪn]	a plane: a vehicle with wings and engines that can fly (*In British English, use* **aeroplane**)
airport	[ɛərpɔrt]	a place where planes come and go, with buildings and services for passengers
air-traffic controller	[ɛər træfɪk kəntroʊlər]	someone whose job is to organize where planes go
aisle	[aɪl]	the long narrow passage between the rows of seats on a plane
arrivals	[əraɪvˈlz]	the part of an airport where passengers get off planes; *wait in arrivals*
bag	[bæg]	a container made of plastic, leather, or cloth used for carrying things
baggage	[bægɪdʒ]	same as **luggage**
baggage claim	[bægɪdʒ kleɪm]	the place where you collect your baggage after your flight; *go to baggage claim* (*In British English, use* **baggage reclaim**)
baggage reclaim *(BRIT)*		*see* **baggage claim**
boarding card *(BRIT)*		*see* **boarding pass**
boarding pass	[bɔrdɪŋ pæs]	a ticket that you must show when you get on a plane (*In British English, use* **boarding card**)
bureau de change *(BRIT)*		*see* **currency exchange**

Examples from the corpus show how words and phrases are used in real English.

EXAMPLES

Most low-cost airlines do not serve food.
We checked in early and walked around the airport.
Please do not leave bags in the aisle.
The police said the incident occurred last weekend in arrivals at Terminal 3.

Phrasal verbs and other verb phrases are shown at the end of each verb section.

check in		to tell the person at an airport desk that you have arrived
check something in		to give your luggage to the person at an airport desk; *check in luggage*
delay	[dɪleɪ]	to make something later than expected; *The flight is delayed.*
depart	[dɪpɑrt]	to leave
fly	[flaɪ]	**1** to travel somewhere in an aircraft **2** when a pilot flies a plane, they make it move through the air
hijack	[haɪdʒæk]	to illegally take control of a plane
land	[lænd]	**1** when a plane lands, it comes down to the ground after moving through the air **2** when a pilot lands a plane, it comes down to the ground after moving through the air
search	[sɜrtʃ]	to look carefully in a place for something; *search someone's luggage*
take off		when an aircraft takes off, it leaves the ground and starts to fly

Where a word has more than one meaning that relates to the topic, each meaning is given.

pronunciation guide

IPA Symbols

Vowel	Sounds
ɑ	calm, ah
æ	act, mass
ɑɪ	dive, cry
ɑʊ	out, down
ɛ	met, lend, pen
eɪ	say, weight
ɪ	fit, win
i	feed, me
ɒ	lot, spot
oʊ	note, coat
ɔ	claw, more
ɔɪ	boy, joint
ʊ	could, stood
u	you, use

ʌ	fund, must
ə	the first vowel in about
i	second vowel in very
u	second vowel in actual

Notes

Stress is shown by a line below the stressed syllable. For example, in the word *accomplish*, /əkɒmplɪʃ/, the second syllable is stressed.

Consonant	Sounds
b	bed, rub
d	done, red
f	fit, if
g	good, dog
h	hat, horse
k	king, pick
l	lip, bill
əl	handle, panel
m	mat, ram
n	not, tin
ən	hidden, written
p	pay, lip

r	run, read
s	soon, bus
t	talk, bet
v	van, love
w	win, wool
x	loch
y	yellow, you
z	zoo, buzz
ʃ	ship, wish
ʒ	measure, leisure
ŋ	sing, working
tʃ	cheap, witch
θ	thin, myth
ð	then, bathe
dʒ	joy, bridge

air travel

NOUNS

aeroplane *(BRIT)*		*see* **airplane**
aircraft (PL) **aircraft**	[ɛ̱ərkræft]	a plane or a helicopter
airline	[ɛ̱ərlaɪn]	a company that carries people or goods in planes
airplane	[ɛ̱ərpleɪn]	a plane: a vehicle with wings and engines that can fly (*In British English, use* **aeroplane**)
airport	[ɛ̱ərpɔrt]	a place where planes come and go, with buildings and services for passengers
air-traffic controller	[ɛ̱ər træfɪk kəntroʊlər]	someone whose job is to organize where planes go
aisle	[a̱ɪl]	the long narrow passage between the rows of seats on a plane
arrivals	[ərɑ̱ɪvəlz]	the part of an airport where passengers get off planes; *wait in*

		arrivals
bag	[bæg]	a container made of plastic, leather, or cloth used for carrying things
baggage	[bægɪdʒ]	same as **luggage**
baggage claim	[bægɪdʒ kleɪm]	the place where you collect your baggage after your flight; *go to baggage claim* (*In British English, use* **baggage reclaim**)
baggage reclaim *(BRIT)*		*see* **baggage claim**
boarding card *(BRIT)*		*see* **boarding pass**
boarding pass	[bɔrdɪŋ pæʃ]	a ticket that you must show when you get on a plane (*In British English, use* **boarding card**)
bureau de change *(BRIT)*		*see* **currency exchange**

EXAMPLES

Most low-cost airlines do not serve food.

We checked in early and walked around the airport.

Please do not leave bags in the aisle.

The police said the incident occurred last weekend in arrivals at Terminal 3.

business class	[bɪznɪs klæs]	seats that are cheaper than first class but more expensive than economy class; *in business class*
cabin	[kæbɪn]	the part of a plane where people sit
cabin crew	[kæbɪn kruʊ]	the people whose job is to look after passengers on a plane; *The cabin crew were very nice.*
captain	[kæptɪn]	the person who is in charge of a plane
cargo hold	[kɑrgoʊ hoʊld]	the place in a plane where goods or luggage are stored (*In British English, use* **hold**)
car hire *(BRIT)*		*see* **car rental**
car rental	[kɑr rɛntəl]	paying money to borrow a car, for example when you are going on holiday (*In British English, use* **car hire**)
carry-on luggage	[kæri ɒn lʌgɪdʒ]	the bags that you take with you in the cabin, rather than your checked bags; *lots of carry-on luggage* (*In British English, use* **hand luggage**)
checked	[tʃɛkt lʌgɪdʒ]	the bags that you have stored in

luggage		the cargo hold of the aircraft, rather than your carry-on bags
check-in	[tʃɛ̱k ɪn]	the desk that you go to in an airport to say that you have arrived; *Go to check-in at once.*
connection	[kənɛkʃᵊn]	a plane that leaves after another one arrives and allows you to continue your journey by changing from one to the other

EXAMPLES

We had seats in business class on the flight from London to Los Angeles.

Ask cabin crew or see leaflet for details.

This piece of luggage will have to go in the cargo hold.

The price includes flights, car rental, and accommodation.

How many pieces of carry-on luggage can I take on the plane?

The airline will transport a bicycle for free if it's counted as one of your pieces of checked luggage.

We got to the airport and went straight to check-in.

My flight was late and I missed my connection.

customs	[kʌ̱stəmz]	the place at an airport where you have to show certain goods that you have bought in another country, and, if necessary, pay tax on them

customs duty	[kʌstəmz duti]	tax that you pay when bringing certain goods into a country from another country
currency exchange	[kɜrənsi ɪkstʃeɪndʒ]	an office where you can buy and sell different currencies (*In British English, use* **bureau de change**)
departures	[dɪpɑrtʃəz]	the part of an airport where you wait before you get on a plane; *He was standing in departures.*
duration	[dʊəreɪʃən]	the length of time that something lasts
economy class	[ɪkɒnəmi klæʃ]	the cheapest seats on a plane; *in economy (class)*
emergency exit	[ɪmɜrdʒᵊnsi ɛgzɪt, ɛksɪt]	a place where you leave a plane if there is an emergency, such as a crash or a fire
entrance	[ɛntrənʃ]	the door or gate where you go into a place
escalator	[ɛskəleɪtər]	a set of moving stairs
e-ticket	[i tɪkɪt]	short for “electronic ticket”: a ticket that is stored on a computer rather than on paper
exit	[ɛgzɪt, ɛksɪt]	the door that you use to leave a public building

fare	[fɛər]	the money that you pay for a journey in a plane
first class	[fɜrst klæs]	the best and most expensive seats on a plane; *in first class*
flight	[flaɪt]	a trip in an aircraft

EXAMPLES

We walked through customs.

You must pay customs duty on these goods.

Please go to departures.

You must keep your mobile phone switched off for the duration of the flight.

Margarita sat in economy class on the flight to Bucharest.

Take the escalator to the second floor.

Our flight was delayed by three hours because of fog.

There were no direct flights to San Francisco, so we had to change planes in Chicago.

flight attendant	[flaɪt ətɛndənt]	a person whose job it is to look after passengers on a plane and to give them food and drink
flight number	[flaɪt nʌmbər]	the unique number that is given to each flight
gate	[geɪt]	a place where you leave an airport and get on a plane
hand luggage *(BRIT)*		*see* **carry-on luggage**

helicopter	[hɛlikɒptər]	an aircraft with long blades on top that go around very fast
hold *(BRIT)*		*see* **cargo hold**
ID card	[aɪ di kɑrd]	a card with your name, date of birth, and photograph on it that shows who you are
information desk	[ɪnfərmeɪʃən dɛsk]	a place where you can ask for information about your flight
jet lag	[dʒɛt læg]	the feeling of being very tired when you fly between two places where the time is different; *suffering from jet lag*
jumbo jet	[dʒʌmboʊ dʒɛt]	a large plane that can carry several hundred passengers
landing	[lændɪŋ]	the act of bringing a plane back down on to the ground; *a smooth landing*; *a bumpy landing*
layover	[leɪoʊvər]	a short stay in a place between parts of a journey (*In British English, use* **stopover**)
luggage	[lʌgɪdʒ]	the bags that you take with you when you travel; *lots of luggage*
luggage label	[lʌgɪdʒ leɪbəl]	a piece of plastic with your name,

		address, and phone number that you attach to your luggage in case it gets lost

EXAMPLES

I asked the flight attendant for a glass of water.

He is on flight number 776 from Beijing.

I had terrible jet lag for three days after my vacation.

We made a layover in Bangkok to break up the journey between London and Brisbane.

How many pieces of luggage are you checking in?

Why does Ingrid need so much luggage for a short stay?

parachute	[pæ̲rəʃut]	a large piece of thin material that a person attaches to their body when they jump from an aircraft to help them float safely to the ground
passenger	[pæ̲sɪndʒər]	a person who is traveling in a plane, but who is not flying it or working on it
passport	[pæ̲spɔrt]	an official document that you have to show when you enter or leave a country
pilot	[pa̲ɪlət]	a person who controls an aircraft
plane	[ple̲ɪn]	a vehicle with wings and engines

		that can fly
plane crash	[pleɪn kræʃ]	an accident in which a plane hits another plane or hits the ground
propeller	[prəpɛlər]	a part of an aircraft that turns around very fast and makes the aircraft move
reservation	[rɛzərveɪʃən]	a seat on a flight that an airline keeps ready for you
runway	[rʌnweɪ]	a long road that a plane travels on before it starts flying
seat	[sit]	something that you can sit on
seat belt	[sit bɛlt]	a long belt that you fasten around your body to keep you safe when you are on a plane
security	[sɪkyʊərɪti]	**1** everything that is done to protect a place; *Security has been increased.* **2** the place in an airport where your bags are checked; *go through security*
stopover *(BRIT)*		*see* **layover**
suitcase	[sutkeɪs]	a case for carrying your clothes when you are traveling

take-off	[teɪk ɔf]	the beginning of a flight, when a plane leaves the ground; *a smooth take-off*

EXAMPLES

Could I see your passport and boarding pass, please?

You are in seat 35C.

Please fasten your seat belts during take-off and landing.

World leaders have announced plans to tighten up airline security.

What time is take-off?

terminal	[tɜrmɪnəl]	a place where people begin or end a flight
ticket	[tɪkɪt]	a small piece of paper that shows that you have paid for a flight
timetable	[taɪmteɪbəl]	a list of the times when planes arrive and depart
tourist	[tʊərɪst]	a person who is visiting a place on vacation
travel agency	[trævəl eɪdʒənsi]	a business that sells vacations
traveler	[trævələr]	**1** a person who is on a trip **2** a person who travels a lot (*In British English, use* **traveller**)
traveller *(BRIT)*		*see* **traveler**

tray table	[treɪ teɪbəl]	a small table that is attached to the back of the seat in front of you on a plane
trip	[trɪp]	a journey that you make to a particular place and back again
trolley	[trɒli]	a large container with wheels that you use at an airport for moving heavy luggage
window	[wɪndoʊ]	a space in the side of a plane that you can see through
wing	[wɪŋ]	one of the long flat parts at the side of a plane that support it while it is flying

VERBS

board	[bɔrd]	to get into a plane to travel somewhere
book	[bʊk]	to arrange and pay for a flight; *book a ticket*; *book a flight*
cancel	[kænsəl]	to say that something that has been planned will not happen; *cancel a flight*

EXAMPLES

We left the airport terminal and looked for the taxi rank.

Terminal 1 will handle Air Canada's domestic flights.

I'm taking a short trip to France.

I pushed my luggage trolley toward the "Nothing to Declare" sign.

Can I have a window seat, please?

I boarded the plane to Dubai.

British Airways canceled several flights because of the bad weather.

check in		to tell the person at an airport desk that you have arrived
check something in		to give your luggage to the person at an airport desk; *check in luggage*
delay	[dɪleɪ]	to make something later than expected; *The flight is delayed.*
depart	[dɪpɑrt]	to leave
fly	[flaɪ]	**1** to travel somewhere in an aircraft **2** when a pilot flies a plane, they make it move through the air
hijack	[haɪdʒæk]	to illegally take control of a plane
land	[lænd]	**1** when a plane lands, it comes down to the ground after moving through the air **2** when a pilot lands a plane, it comes down to the ground after

		moving through the air
search	[sɜ̱rtʃ]	to look carefully in a place for something; *search someone's luggage*
take off		when an aircraft takes off, it leaves the ground and starts to fly

ADJECTIVES

airsick	[ɛ̱ərsɪk]	feeling sick during a flight because of the movement of the plane
direct	[dɪrɛ̱kt, daɪ-]	used to describe a flight that goes from one place to another without stopping
domestic	[dəmɛ̱stɪk]	used to describe flights between airports in the same country
duty-free	[du̱tifri̱]	duty-free goods are sold at airports or on planes at a cheaper price than usual because they are not taxed; *duty-free perfume*

EXAMPLES

Flight BA201 will depart from gate 21 in 30 minutes.

We are flying over London.

The Boeing 737 was hijacked after taking off from London yesterday.

The plane took off twenty minutes late.

international	[ɪntərnæʃənəl]	used to describe flights between airports in different countries
on time	[ɒn taɪm]	not late or early; at the expected time; *The flight is on time.*

ADVERBS

on board	[ɒn bɔrd]	on an aircraft
on time	[ɒn taɪm]	not late or early; at the expected time; *arrive on time*

PHRASE

nothing to declare		used to describe the area of customs that you walk through if you do not have to pay customs duty on any goods

EXAMPLE

The plane landed on time, at eleven thirty.

the animal world

NOUNS

ANIMALS

animal	[æ̲nɪmᵊl]	**1** a creature such as a dog or a cat, but not a bird, fish, insect, or human **2** any living creature, including a human
ant	[æ̲nt]	a small crawling insect that lives in large groups
bat	[bæ̲t]	a small animal, like a mouse with wings, that sleeps upside down during the day and comes out to fly at night
bear	[bɛ̲ə̲r]	a large, strong wild animal with thick fur and sharp claws
bee	[bi̲]	a yellow and black striped flying insect that makes a sweet food (called honey) and can sting you
bird	[bɜ̲rd]	an animal with feathers and wings
bull	[bʊ̲l]	**1** a male animal of the cow family

		2 a male animal of some other animal families, such as elephants and whales
butterfly	[bʌtərflaɪ]	an insect with large colored wings
calf (PL) **calves**	[kæf] [kævz]	a young cow
camel	[kæməl]	an animal with one or two large lumps on its back
cat	[kæt]	a small animal covered with fur, that people in some countries keep as a pet
caterpillar	[kætərpɪlər]	a small animal with a long body, that develops into a butterfly
cockroach	[kɒkroʊtʃ]	a large brown insect that likes to live in places where food is kept
cod	[kɒd]	a large fish with white flesh
cow	[kaʊ]	a large female animal that is kept on farms for its milk
crab	[kræb]	a sea animal with a shell and ten legs. Crabs usually move sideways.
crocodile	[krɒkədaɪl]	a large animal with a long body, a long mouth, and sharp teeth. Crocodiles live in rivers in hot

		countries.
deer (PL) **deer**	[dɪ̲ə̲r]	a large wild animal that eats grass and leaves. Male deer usually have antlers (= large horns that look like branches).
dog	[dɔ̲g]	an animal that people in some countries keep as a pet, or use to guard buildings
donkey	[dɒ̲ŋki]	an animal like a small horse with long ears
duck	[dʌ̲k]	a bird that lives near water
eagle	[i̲gəl]	a large bird that eats small animals
eel	[i̲l]	a long, thin fish that looks like a snake
elephant	[ɛ̲lɪfənt]	a very large grey animal with a long nose called a trunk
fish (PL) **fish**	[fɪ̲ʃ]	an animal that lives and swims in water, that people eat as food
fly	[flaɪ̲]	a small insect with two wings
fox	[fɒ̲ks]	a wild animal that looks like a dog, and has red fur and a thick tail

frog	[frɔ̱g]	a small animal with smooth skin, big eyes, and long back legs that it uses for jumping. Frogs live in or near water.
giraffe	[dʒɪræ̱f]	a large African animal with a very long neck, long legs, and dark spots on its body
goat	[go̱ʊ̱t]	an animal that has horns, and hairs on its chin that look like a beard
goose (PL) **geese**	[gu̱s] [giʃ]	a large bird like a duck with a long neck
grasshopper	[græ̱shɒpər]	an insect that jumps high into the air and makes a sound with its long back legs
hedgehog	[hɛ̱dʒhɔg]	a small brown animal with sharp points covering its back
hen	[hɛ̱n]	a female chicken

EXAMPLE

Where did you catch the fish?

hippopotamus	[hɪ̱pəpɒ̱təməs]	a very large animal with short

(PL) **hippopotamuses, hippopotami**	[hɪpəpɒtəmaɪ]	legs and thick skin, that lives in and near rivers
horse	[hɔ̱rs]	a large animal that people can ride
insect	[ɪ̱nsɛkt]	a very small animal that has six legs. Most insects have wings.
jellyfish(PL) **jellyfish**	[dʒɛ̱lifɪʃ]	a sea animal that has a clear soft body and that can sting you
kangaroo	[kæ̱ŋgərʊ̱]	a large Australian animal. A female kangaroo carries her baby in a pocket (called a pouch) on her stomach.
kitten	[kɪ̱tᵊn]	a very young cat
ladybird	[leɪ̱dibɜrd]	a small round insect that is red or yellow with black spots
lamb	[læ̱m]	a young sheep
lion	[laɪ̱ən]	a large wild cat that lives in Africa. Lions have yellow fur, and male lions have manes (= long hair on their head and neck).
lizard	[lɪ̱zərd]	a small animal with a long tail and rough skin

lobster	[lɒbstər]	a sea animal that has a hard shell and eight legs
mammal	[mæməl]	an animal that feeds its babies with milk
mole	[moʊl]	a small animal with black fur, that lives under the ground
monkey	[mʌŋki]	an animal that has a long tail and can climb trees
mosquito	[məskitoʊ]	a small flying insect that bites people and animals
moth	[mɔθ]	an insect that has large wings and is attracted by lights at night
mouse (PL) **mice**	[maʊs] [maɪs]	a small animal with a long tail
octopus (PL) **octopuses, octopi**	[ɒktəpəs] [ɒktəpəs]	a soft sea animal with eight long arms
ostrich	[ɔstrɪtʃ]	a very large bird that cannot fly
owl	[aʊl]	a bird with large eyes that is active at night
oyster	[ɔɪstər]	a large flat shellfish that people often eat raw
panda	[pændə]	a large animal from China with

		black and white fur
parrot	[pæ̲rət]	a tropical bird with a curved beak and very bright feathers
penguin	[pɛ̲ŋgwɪn]	a black and white bird that lives in very cold places, that can swim but cannot fly
pet	[pɛ̲t]	an animal that you keep in your home
pig	[pɪ̲g]	a farm animal with a fat body and short legs, that is kept for its meat
pony	[po̲ʊ̲ni]	a small or young horse
puppy	[pʌ̲pi]	a young dog
rabbit	[ræ̲bɪt]	a small animal that has long ears and lives in a hole in the ground
rat	[ræ̲t]	an animal that has a long tail and looks like a large mouse
rhinoceros (PL) **rhinoceroses,** **rhinoceros,** **rhinoceri**	[raɪnɒ̲sərəs] [raɪnɒsəraɪ]	a large animal from Asia or Africa with a horn on its nose
salmon(PL) **salmon**	[sæ̲mən]	a large fish with silver skin and pink flesh

seagull	[si̲gʌl]	a common type of bird with white or grey feathers, that lives near the sea
seal	[si̲l]	a large animal with a rounded body and short fur, that eats fish and lives near the sea
shark	[ʃɑ̲rk]	a very large fish that often has very sharp teeth and may attack people
shellfish (PL) **shellfish**	[ʃɛ̲lfɪʃ]	a small sea creature with a shell

EXAMPLES

We don't have any pets.

snail	[sneɪ̲l]	a small animal with a long soft body, no legs, and a round shell on its back
snake	[sneɪ̲k]	a long, thin animal with no legs, that slides along the ground
species (PL) **species**	[spi̲ʃiʒ]	a related group of plants or animals; *a species of fish*; *an endangered species*
spider	[spaɪ̲dər]	a small animal with eight legs

squid	[skwɪd]	a sea animal that has a long soft body and many soft arms (called tentacles)
squirrel	[skwɜrəl]	a small animal with a long thick tail, that lives mainly in trees
stag (PL) **stag, stags**	[stæg]	an adult male deer
swan	[swɒn]	a large white bird with a very long neck, that lives on rivers and lakes
tadpole	[tædpoʊl]	a small water animal that looks like a black fish, and that develops into a frog or a toad
tiger	[taɪgər]	a large wild animal of the cat family. Tigers are orange with black stripes.
toad	[toʊd]	a small brown or green animal with long legs, that lives in water
tortoise	[tɔrtəʃ]	an animal with a shell on its back, that moves very slowly
turkey	[tɜrki]	a large bird that is kept on a farm for its meat
wasp	[wɒsp]	an insect with wings, and yellow and black stripes across its body.

		Wasps can sting people.
whale	[weɪl]	a very large mammal that lives in the sea
wolf (PL) **wolves**	[wʊlf] [wʊlvʒ]	a wild animal that looks like a large dog
worm	[wɜrm]	a small animal with a long, thin body, no bones and no legs
zebra	[zibrə]	a wild horse with black and white stripes, that lives in Africa

PARTS OF ANIMALS

antenna (PL) **antennae, antennas**	[æntɛnə] [æntɛnaɪ]	one of the two long, thin parts attached to the head of an insect, that it uses to feel things with
antler	[æntlər]	one of the two horns that are shaped like branches on the head of a male deer
beak	[bik]	the hard, pointed part of a bird's mouth
claw	[klɔ]	the thin, hard, pointed part at the end of the foot of a bird or an animal
coat	[koʊt]	an animal's fur or hair

feather	[fɛ̲ðər]	one of the light soft things that cover a bird's body
fur	[fɜ̲r]	the thick hair that grows on the bodies of many animals
hair	[hɛ̲ə̲r]	the short threads that grow on the bodies of many animals
hoof (PL) **hooves**	[hʊ̲f, hu̲f] [hʊ̲vz, hu̲vz]	one of the hard parts of the feet of horses, cows and some other animals
horn	[hɔ̲rn]	one of the hard pointed things that grow from an animal's head
mane	[me̲ɪn]	the long, thick hair that grows from the neck of some animals
paw	[pɔ̲]	the foot of an animal such as a cat, a dog, or a bear
shell	[ʃɛ̲l]	the hard part that covers the back of an animal such as a snail or a tortoise, and protects it
snout	[sna̲ʊ̲t]	the long nose of an animal such as a pig
tail	[te̲ɪl]	the long thin part at the end of an animal's body
trunk	[trʌ̲ŋk]	the long nose of an elephant

EXAMPLES

Cat hair makes me sneeze.

He heard the sound of horses' hooves behind him.

The kitten was black, with white paws.

tusk	[tʌsk]	a very long, curved, pointed tooth that grows beside the mouth of an elephant
wing	[wɪŋ]	one of the two parts of the body of a bird or an insect, that it uses for flying

PLACES WHERE ANIMALS ARE FOUND

aquarium	[əkwɛəriəm]	**1** a building where fish and sea animals are kept and people can go to look at them **2** a glass box filled with water, in which people keep fish as pets
cage	[keɪdʒ]	a structure made of metal bars where you keep birds or animals
field	[fild]	a piece of land where animals are kept
kennel	[kɛnəl]	a small house for a dog
nest	[nɛst]	the place where a bird, a small

		animal, or an insect keeps its eggs or its babies; *build a nest*
web	[wɛ̱b]	the thin net that a spider makes in order to catch insects
zoo	[zu̱]	a park where animals are kept and people can go to look at them

OTHER ANIMAL NOUNS

bite	[ba̱ɪt]	a painful mark on your body where an animal, a snake, or an insect has bitten you
collar	[kɒ̱lər]	a band of leather or plastic that you can put around the neck of a dog or a cat
egg	[ɛ̱g]	a round object that contains a baby bird, insect, snake, or fish; *lay an egg*
sting	[stɪ̱ŋ]	a painful mark on your body where an insect has stung you
trap	[tra̱p]	a piece of equipment for catching animals

EXAMPLES

A canary was singing in a cage.

How do you treat a wasp sting?

The rabbit was caught in a trap.

VERBS

NOISES ANIMALS MAKE

baa	[bɑ]	when a sheep baas, it makes its typical sound
bark	[bɑrk]	when a dog barks, it makes its typical short, loud sound
buzz	[bʌz]	when a bee or another insect buzzes, it makes its typical rough continuous sound
growl	[graʊl]	when a dog or another animal growls, it makes a low sound in its throat, usually because it is angry
hiss	[hɪʃ]	when an animal such as a snake or a cat hisses, it makes a sound like a long "s"
meow	[miaʊ]	when a cat meows, it makes its typical sound (*In British English, use* **miaow**)
miaow *(BRIT)*		*see* **meow**
moo	[mu]	when a cow moos, it makes its

		typical long, low sound
neigh	[neɪ]	when a horse neighs, it makes its typical loud sound
purr	[pɜr]	when a cat purrs, it makes a low sound with its throat because it is happy
quack	[kwæk]	when a duck quacks, it makes its typical sound
roar	[rɔr]	when a lion roars, it makes its typical loud sound
snort	[snɔrt]	when an animal snorts, it breathes air noisily out through its nose

WAYS IN WHICH ANIMALS MOVE

crawl	[krɔl]	when an insect or animal crawls somewhere, it moves there very slowly

EXAMPLES

Our dog always barks at the postman.

Bees buzzed in the flowers.

The cat sat on the sofa, purring happily.

fly	[flaɪ]	when a bird or an insect flies, it

		moves through the air
gallop	[gæləp]	when a horse gallops, it runs very fast so that all four legs are off the ground at the same time
hop	[hɒp]	when a bird or an animal hops, it moves by jumping on both of its feet or all four of its feet together
roam	[roʊm]	when an animal roams, it moves freely around an area
slither	[slɪðər]	when a snake slithers, it moves along the ground, sliding from side to side
swim	[swɪm]	when a fish swims, it moves through water
trot	[trɒt]	when an animal such as a horse trots, it moves fairly fast, taking quick small steps
wag	[wæg]	when a dog wags its tail, it moves it from side to side

OTHER ANIMAL VERBS

bite	[baɪt]	if a snake or an insect bites you, it makes a mark or a hole in your skin with a sharp part of its body

feed	[fid]	**1** when you feed an animal, you give it food to eat **2** when an animal feeds, it eats or drinks something
graze	[greɪz]	when an animal grazes, it eats the grass or other plants that are growing in a particular place
hibernate	[haɪbərneɪt]	when an animal hibernates, it spends the winter in a state like a deep sleep
hunt	[hʌnt]	to chase and kill wild animals for food or as a sport

EXAMPLES

The bird flew away as I came near.

The horse trotted around the field.

sting	[stɪŋ]	if an insect stings you, a pointed part of it is pushed into your skin so that you feel a sharp pain

ADJECTIVES

stray	[streɪ]	far away from home, or not having a home; *a stray dog*

tame	[teɪm]	not afraid of humans
wild	[waɪld]	living in nature, and not taken care of by people; *a wild animal*

EXAMPLES

The deer never became tame; they ran away if you went near them.

art and photography

NOUNS

art	[ɑ̱rt]	**1** pictures or objects that are created for people to look at; *an art gallery* **2** the activity of creating pictures or objects for people to look at; *an art class*
art gallery	[ɑ̱rt gæ̱ləri]	a place where people go to look at art
artist	[ɑ̱rtɪst]	someone who draws, paints, or creates works of art
background	[bæ̱kgraʊnd]	the part of a picture that is behind the main things or people in it
brush	[brʌ̱ʃ]	an object with a lot of bristles or hairs attached to it, that you use for painting
camera	[kæ̱mrə]	a piece of equipment for taking photographs or making films
canvas	[kæ̱nvəʃ]	a piece of strong, heavy material that you paint on

clay	[kleɪ]	a type of earth that is used for making things such as pots and bricks; *a clay pot*
collage	[kəlɑʒ]	a picture that you make by sticking pieces of paper or cloth on a surface
design	[dɪzaɪn]	**1** the process of planning and drawing things; *studying design* **2** a drawing that shows how something should be built or made; *drawing a design* **3** a pattern of lines or shapes that is used for decorating something; *a floral design*
designer	[dɪzaɪnər]	a person whose job is to design things; *a fashion designer*
digital camera	[dɪdʒɪtəl kæmrə]	a camera that produces digital pictures that can be stored on a computer
easel	[izəl]	a stand that supports a picture while an artist is working on it

EXAMPLES

He studied art and design.

I looked at the man in the background of the photograph.

My brother has a talent for design.

The tablecloths come in three different designs.

exhibition	[ɛksɪbɪʃᵊn]	a public event where you can see art or interesting objects
foreground	[fɔrgraʊnd]	the part of a picture that seems nearest to you
frame	[freɪm]	the wood, metal, or plastic border around a picture or photograph
graphics	[græfɪkʃ]	drawings, pictures, or symbols, especially when they are produced by a computer
illustration	[ɪləstreɪʃᵊn]	a picture, design, or diagram in a book
landscape	[lændskeɪp]	a painting that shows a scene in the countryside
logo	[loʊgoʊ]	a special design that an organization puts on all its products; *a corporate logo*
oil paint	[ɔɪl peɪnt]	a thick paint that artists use
oil painting	[ɔɪl peɪntɪŋ]	a picture that has been painted using oil paints
paint	[peɪnt]	a colored liquid that you put onto

		a surface with a brush
painter	[peɪntər]	an artist who paints pictures
painting	[peɪntɪŋ]	**1** a picture that someone has painted; *a famous painting* **2** the activity of painting pictures; *I enjoy painting.*
pattern	[pætərn]	an arrangement of lines or shapes that form a design
photograph	[foʊtəgræf]	a picture that you take with a camera; *take a photograph*
photographer	[fətɒgrəfər]	someone who takes photographs
photography	[fətɒgrəfi]	the skill or process of producing photographs

EXAMPLES

The game's graphics are very good, so you can see things clearly.

He is very good at painting flowers.

The carpet had a pattern of light and dark stripes.

picture	[pɪktʃər]	**1** a drawing or painting; *paint a picture* **2** a photograph; *take a picture*
portrait	[pɔrtrɪt, -treɪt]	a painting, drawing, or photograph of a particular person

poster	[pou̯stər]	a large picture that you stick on a wall
pottery	[pp̯təri]	the activity of making pots, dishes, and other objects from clay; *pottery classes*
primary color	[praɪ̯mɛri kʌ̯lər, -məri]	one of the three colors (red, yellow, and blue) that you can mix together to produce other colors (*In British English, use* **primary colour**)
primary colour *(BRIT)*		*see* **primary color**
sculptor	[skʌ̯lptər]	an artist who makes works of art out of stone, metal, or wood
sculpture	[skʌ̯lptʃər]	**1** a piece of art that is made into a shape from a material like stone or wood **2** the art of creating sculptures from materials like stone or wood
sketch	[skɛ̯tʃ]	a drawing that you do quickly, without a lot of details
statue	[stæ̯tʃu]	a large model of a person or an animal, made of stone or metal
still life	[stɪ̯l laɪ̯f]	**1** a painting or drawing of an

		arrangement of objects such as flowers or fruit **2** the type of painting or drawing that shows an arrangement of objects such as flowers or fruit
watercolor	[wɔ̱tərkʌlər]	**1** a coloured paint that is mixed with water and used for painting pictures **2** a picture that has been painted with watercolors (*In British English, use* **watercolour**)
watercolour *(BRIT)*		*see* **watercolor**

EXAMPLES

She drew a picture with a piece of colored chalk.

Paul did a quick sketch in pencil.

VERBS

design	[dɪzaɪn]	to make a detailed plan or drawing that shows how something should be made
draw	[drɔ̱]	to use a pencil or a pen to make a picture

frame	[freɪm]	to put a picture or photograph in a frame; *a framed photograph*
paint	[peɪnt]	to produce a picture using paint
sketch	[skɛtʃ]	to make a quick drawing, without a lot of details

EXAMPLES

Monet painted hundreds of pictures of water lilies.

bikes

NOUNS

back light *(BRIT)*		*see* **tail light**
bell	[bɛl]	a metal object on a bicycle that makes a ringing sound
bicycle	[baɪsɪkəl]	a vehicle with two wheels that you ride by sitting on it and using your legs to make the wheels turn
bike	[baɪk]	**1** a bicycle **2** a motorcycle
bike lane	[baɪk leɪn]	a section of a road that is marked for cyclists to use; *stay in the bike lane* (*In British English, use* **cycle lane**)
bike path	[baɪk pæθ]	a special path that cyclists can use separately from cars and other vehicles; *ride on the bike path* (*In British English, use* **cycle path**)
brake	[breɪk]	the part of a bicycle that makes it go more slowly or stop; *put the*

		brakes on
chain	[tʃeɪn]	a line of connected metal rings that turn the wheels of a bicycle
crossbar	[krɔsbɑr]	the horizontal bar between the handlebars and the saddle of a bicycle
cycle lane *(BRIT)*		*see* **bike lane**
cycle path *(BRIT)*		*see* **bike path**
cycling	[saɪklɪŋ]	the activity of riding a bicycle
cyclist	[saɪklɪst]	someone who rides a bicycle
fall	[fɔl]	an occasion when you move quickly to the ground by accident; *have a bad fall*
fender	[fɛndər]	a curved piece of metal or plastic above a bicycle wheel that protects the cyclist from dirt or water *see* **mudguard**

EXAMPLES

"How did you get there?" – "I went by bike."

"How did you get here?" – "I came by bike."

We rode along the bike path through the forest.

flat	[flæt]	a small leak in a tire that has been made by a sharp object; *have a flat*; *fix a flat* (*In British English, use* **puncture**)
flat tire	[flæt taɪər]	a tire that has no air in it (*In British English, use* **flat tyre**)
flat tire repair kit	[flæt taɪər rɪpɛər kɪt]	the tools and materials you need to repair a flat tire (*In British English, use* **puncture repair kit**)
flat tyre *(BRIT)*		*see* **flat tire**
frame	[freɪm]	the metal part of a bicycle between the wheels, handlebars, and saddle
front light *(BRIT)*		*see* **head light**
gears	[gɪərz]	the system of wheels with teeth that are driven by a chain on a bicycle, making it easier or more difficult to pedal
handlebars	[hændəlbarz]	a curved metal bar with handles at each end that you use to steer a bicycle
head light	[hɛd laɪt]	a white light on the front of a bicycle (*In British English, use* **front**

		light)
helmet	[hɛlmɪt]	a hat made of a hard material, that you wear to protect your head
hub	[hʌb]	the center of a wheel
inner tube	[ɪnər tub]	a rubber tube containing air that is inside a tire; *a spare inner tube*
motorcycle	[moʊtərsaɪkəl]	a large heavy bicycle with an engine
mountain bike	[maʊntən baɪk]	a type of bicycle with a strong frame and thick tires
mudguard	[mʌdgɑrd]	a curved piece of metal or plastic above a bicycle wheel that protects the cyclist from dirt or water *see* **fender**
padlock	[pædlɒk]	a metal lock that you use for fastening two things together

EXAMPLES

On hills, you use low gears.

Cyclists should always wear helmets.

pedal	[pɛdəl]	one of the two parts that you push with your feet to make a bicycle move

pump	[pʌmp]	a machine that you use to fill a tire with air; *a bicycle pump*
puncture *(BRIT)*		*see* **flat**
puncture repair kit *(BRIT)*		*see* **flat tire repair kit**
reflector	[rɪflɛktər]	a small piece of special plastic on the front or back of a bicycle that becomes bright when light shines on it
ride	[raɪd]	a journey on a bicycle; *go for a ride*
saddle	[sædəl]	a seat on a bicycle or a motorcycle
speed	[spid]	**1** how fast something moves or is done; *increase/decrease your speed* **2** very fast movement or travel; *travel at speed*
spoke	[spoʊk]	a bar that connects the outer ring of a wheel to the center
tail light	[teɪl laɪt]	a red light on the back of a bicycle (*In British English, use* **back light**)
tire	[taɪər]	a thick round piece of rubber that fits around the wheels of bicycles (*In British English, use* **tyre**)
tyre *(BRIT)*		*see* **tire**

valve	[vælv]	the part of a bicycle pump that controls the flow of air
wheel	[wil]	one of the two large round objects on a bicycle that allow it to move along the ground

VERBS

bike	[baɪk]	to ride a bicycle (*In British English, use* **cycle**)

EXAMPLES

My bike's got a flat tire.

I need a new front/back wheel.

Every day he biked to work.

brake change gear	[breɪk]	to make a vehicle go more slowly or stop to make the chain of a bicycle move to another gear wheel; *change into first gear*
cycle *(BRIT)*		*see* **bike**
pedal	[pɛdəl]	to push the pedals of a bicycle around with your feet to make it move; *pedal faster/more slowly*
pump up a tire		to fill a tire with air (*In British*

		English, use **pump up a tyre**)
pump up a tyre *(BRIT)*		*see* **pump up a tire**
ride	[raɪd]	to sit on a bicycle, control it, and travel on it
signal	[sɪgnəl]	to make a movement that tells other people which way you intend to go; *to signal right/left*
stop	[stɒp]	to slow down and no longer move

ADJECTIVES

rusty	[rʌsti]	covered with rust (= a red-brown substance that can form on metal when it gets wet)
shiny	[ʃaɪni]	bright and reflecting light

EXAMPLES

Belinda braked suddenly.

When you ride a bike, you exercise all your leg muscles.

boats, water, and the coast

NOUNS

anchor	[æŋkər]	a heavy object that you drop into the water from a boat to stop it moving away
bank	[bæŋk]	a raised area of ground along the edge of a river
bay	[beɪ]	a part of a coast where the land goes in and forms a curve
beach	[bitʃ]	an area of sand or stones next to a lake or the sea; *at the beach*
boat	[boʊt]	a vehicle that people use to travel on water; *a fishing boat*; *a rowing boat*; *a sailing boat*; *a motor boat*
bridge	[brɪdʒ]	a structure that is built over a river so that people or vehicles can cross from one side to the other
cabin	[kæbɪn]	a small room on a boat
canal	[kənæl]	a long narrow river made by people for boats to travel along

canoe	[kənu̱]	a small, narrow boat that you move through the water using a paddle
captain	[kæ̱ptɪn]	the person who is in charge of a ship
cargo	[kɑ̱rgoʊ]	the things that a ship is carrying
cliff	[klɪf]	a high area of land with a very steep side next to the sea
coast	[koʊ̱st]	the land that is next to the sea or ocean
cruise	[kru̱ʒ]	a holiday that you spend on a ship
current	[kɜ̱rənt]	a steady flow of water; *a strong current*

EXAMPLES

The bay is surrounded by steep cliffs.

We walked along the beach.

We went there by boat.

The ship was carrying a cargo of bananas.

We drove along the coast.

James and his wife went on a cruise around the world.

The couple were swept away by a strong current.

deck	[dɛ̱k]	one of the floors of a ship

dock	[dɒk]	an area of water beside land where ships go so that people can get on or off them
ferry	[fɛri]	a boat that regularly takes people or things a short distance across water
fisherman	[fɪʃərmən]	a person who catches fish as a job or for sport
harbor	[hɑrbər]	an area of water next to the land where boats can safely stay (*In British English, use* **habour**)
harbour *(BRIT)*		*see* **habor**
horizon	[həraɪzᵊn]	the line that appears between the sky and the sea; *on the horizon*
island	[aɪlənd]	a piece of land that is completely surrounded by water
jet ski™	[dʒɛt ski]	a small machine like a motorcycle that travels on water
kayak	[kaɪæk]	a covered canoe
lake	[leɪk]	a large area of water with land around it
lifebelt *(BRIT)*		*see* **life preserver**
lifeboat	[laɪfboʊt]	a boat that is used for saving

		people who are in danger at sea
lifeguard	[laɪfgard]	a person who works at a beach and helps people when they are in danger
life preserver	[laɪf prɪzɜrvər]	a large ring that you can hold onto to stop you from going under water (*In British English, use* **lifebelt**)
lighthouse	[laɪthaʊʃ]	a tower that is built near or in the sea, with a flashing lamp that warns ships of danger
mouth	[maʊθ]	the place where a river goes into the sea
navy	[neɪvi]	the people who fight for a country at sea

EXAMPLES

We went on a luxury ship with five passenger decks.

The next ferry departs at 7 o'clock.

The fishing boats left the harbor.

A small boat appeared on the horizon.

Her son was in the Navy.

oar	[ɔr]	a long pole with one flat end that you use for rowing a boat

ocean	[oʊʃən]	**1** one of the five very large areas of salt water on the Earth's surface; *the Indian Ocean* **2** same as **sea**; *The ocean was calm.*
paddle	[pædəl]	a short pole with two flat ends that you use for rowing a small boat
pebble	[pɛbəl]	a small, smooth stone
pond	[pɒnd]	a small area of water
port	[pɔrt]	**1** an area of water next to land where ships arrive and leave. It is larger than a harbor. **2** a town by the sea where ships arrive and leave
quay	[ki]	a long structure built next to water where boats can stop
river	[rɪvər]	a long line of water that flows into the sea
sail	[seɪl]	a large piece of cloth on a boat, that catches the wind and moves the boat along
sailing	[seɪlɪŋ]	the activity or sport of sailing boats; *go sailing*

sailor	[seɪlər]	**1** someone who works on a ship **2** someone who sails a boat for pleasure
sand	[sænd]	a powder made of very small pieces of stone that you find on most beaches
sea	[si]	**1** the large area of salty water that covers the Earth's surface; *The sea was calm.* **2** a large area of salty water that is part of an ocean or is surrounded by land; *the North Sea*
seaside	[sisaɪd]	an area that is close to the sea, especially where people go for their vacations; *at the seaside*

EXAMPLES

We swam in the river.

I live by the sea.

Ayr is a seaside town on the west coast of Scotland.

We spent a day at the seaside.

seaweed	[siwid]	a plant that grows in the sea
shell	[ʃɛl]	the hard part of a small sea creature that you find on beaches

ship	[ʃɪp]	a very large boat that carries people or goods
shore	[ʃɔr]	the land along the edge of the sea or a lake
speedboat	[spidboʊt]	a boat that can go very fast because it has a powerful engine
stream	[strim]	a small narrow river
submarine	[sʌbmərin]	a type of ship that can travel below the surface of the sea
surfboard	[sɜrfbɔrd]	a long narrow board that people use for surfing
swimmer	[swɪmər]	**1** someone who swims, especially for sport or pleasure; *He's a fast swimmer.* **2** someone who is swimming; *There are swimmers in the lake.*
swimming	[swɪmɪŋ]	the activity of swimming, especially as a sport or for pleasure; *go swimming*
tide	[taɪd]	the change in the level of the sea towards the land and away from the land that happens twice a day; *at low/high tide*

voyage	[vɔ̲ɪdʒ]	a long trip on a boat
water	[wɔ̲tər]	a clear, thin liquid that has no color or taste. It falls from clouds as rain.
wave	[we̲ɪv]	a higher part of water on the surface of the sea, caused by the wind blowing on the water
yacht	[yp̲t]	a large boat with sails or a motor, used for racing or for leisure trips

EXAMPLES

We walked along the shore.
I'm going to buy a surfboard and learn to surf.
They began the long voyage down the river.
Waves crashed against the rocks.

VERBS

board	[bɔ̲rd]	to get onto a boat in order to travel somewhere
dive	[da̲ɪv]	**1** to jump into water with your arms and your head going in first **2** to go under the surface of the sea or a lake, using special equipment for breathing

drown	[draʊn]	to die under water because you cannot breathe
float	[floʊt]	to stay on the surface of a liquid, and not sink
launch	[lɔntʃ]	to put a boat into water
navigate	[nævɪgeɪt]	to find the direction that you need to travel in, using a map or the sun, for example
row	[roʊ]	to make a boat move through the water by using oars
sail	[seɪl]	to move over water on a boat
sink	[sɪŋk]	to go below the surface of the water
steer	[stɪə]	to control a boat so that it goes in the direction that you want
surf	[sɜrf]	to ride on big waves using a special board
swim	[swɪm]	to move through water by making movements with your arms and legs

ADJECTIVES

calm	[kɑm]	not moving much; *The sea was*

		calm.
coastal	[kou̯stəl]	in the sea or on the land near the coast

EXAMPLES

We went diving to look at fish.

Garbage floated on the surface of the river.

The Titanic was launched in 1911.

We sailed across the bay.

The boat hit the rocks and began to sink.

Do you like swimming?

Coastal areas were flooded.

marine	[mərin]	relating to the sea or living in the sea; *marine animals*
rough	[rʌf]	with a lot of waves; *The sea was rough.*
sandy	[rændi]	covered with sand
seasick	[risɪk]	feeling sick on a boat

EXAMPLES

Nha Trang has a beautiful sandy beach.

Do you get seasick?

body

NOUNS

PARTS OF THE BODY

ankle	[æŋkəl]	the part of your body where your foot joins your leg
arm	[ɑrm]	one of the two parts of your body between your shoulders and your hands
artery	[ɑrtəri]	one of the tubes in your body that carry blood from your heart to the rest of your body
back	[bæk]	the part of your body from your neck to your waist that is on the opposite side to your chest
blood	[blʌd]	the red liquid that flows inside your body
body	[bɒdi]	all your physical parts
bone	[boʊn]	one of the hard white parts inside your body
bottom	[bɒtəm]	the part of your body that you sit

		on
brain	[breɪn]	the organ inside your head that controls your body and allows you to think and to feel things
breast	[brɛst]	one of the two soft, round parts on a woman's chest that can produce milk to feed a baby
calf (PL) **calves**	[kæf] [kævz]	the thick part at the back of your leg, between your ankle and your knee
cheek	[tʃik]	one of the two sides of your face below your eyes
chest	[tʃɛst]	the top part of the front of your body
chin	[tʃin]	the part of your face below your mouth
ear	[ɪər]	one of the two parts of your body that you hear sounds with
elbow	[ɛlboʊ]	the part in the middle of your arm where it bends
eye	[aɪ]	one of the two parts of your body that you see with

EXAMPLES

“What color are your eyes?” – “I have blue eyes.”

eyebrow	[aɪbraʊ]	one of the two lines of hair that grows above your eyes
eyelash	[aɪlæʃ]	one of the hairs that grows on the edges of your eyelids
eyelid	[aɪlɪd]	one of the pieces of skin that covers your eyes when they are closed
face	[feɪs]	the front part of your head
feature	[fitʃər]	any part of your face, such as your eyes, your nose, or your mouth
finger	[fiŋgər]	one of the long thin parts at the end of each hand
fist	[fist]	your hand with your fingers closed tightly together
flesh	[flɛʃ]	the soft part of your body that is between your bones and your skin
foot (PL) **feet**	[fʊt] [fit]	the part of your body that is at the end of your leg, and that you stand on
forehead	[fɒrhɛd, fɔrɪd]	the front part of your head between your eyebrows and your

		hair
fringe *(BRIT)*		*see* **bangs**
hair	[hɛər]	**1** the fine threads that grow on your head; *I have black hair.* **2** the short threads that grow on your body; *He has hair on his chest.*
hand	[hæ̲nd]	the part of your body at the end of your arm that you use for holding things
head	[hɛ̲d]	the top part of your body that has your eyes, mouth, and brain in it
heart	[hɑ̲rt]	the part inside your chest that makes the blood move around your body
heel	[hi̲l]	the back part of your foot, just below your ankle

EXAMPLES

Sarah made a gesture with her fist.

The doctor felt my forehead to see if it was hot.

"What color is your hair?" – "I have light brown hair."

Your hair looks nice – have you had it cut?

hip	[hɪ̲p]	one of the two areas or bones at

		the sides of your body between the tops of your legs and your waist
jaw	[dʒɔ̱]	the top and bottom bones of your mouth
kidney	[ki̱dni]	one of the two organs in your body that remove waste liquid from your blood
knee	[ni̱]	the part in the middle of your leg where it bends
leg	[lɛ̱g]	one of the long parts of your body that you use for walking and standing
lips	[li̱ps]	the two soft outer parts at the edge of your mouth
liver	[li̱vər]	the large organ in your body that cleans your blood
lung	[lʌ̱ŋ]	one of the two large organs inside your chest that you use for breathing
mouth	[mau̱θ]	the part of your face that you use for eating or speaking
muscle	[mʌ̱sᵊl]	one of the parts inside your body that connect your bones, and that

		help you to move
nail	[neɪl]	the thin hard part that grows at the end of each of your fingers and toes
neck	[nɛk]	the part of your body between your head and the rest of your body
nose	[noʊz]	the part of your face above your mouth, that you use for smelling and breathing
organ	[ɔrgən]	a part of your body, for example your brain or your heart, that has a particular purpose
rib	[rɪb]	one of the 12 pairs of curved bones that surround your chest
shoulder	[ʃoʊldər]	one of the two parts of your body between your neck and the tops of your arms

EXAMPLES

She bites her nails.

shin	[ʃɪn]	the front part of your leg between your knee and your ankle

skeleton	[skɛlɪtᵊn]	all the bones in your body
skin	[skɪn]	the substance that covers the outside of your body
spine	[spaɪn]	the row of bones down your back
stomach	[stʌmək]	**1** the organ inside your body where food goes when you eat it; *a full stomach* **2** the front part of your body below your waist; *lie on your stomach*
thigh	[θaɪ]	the top part of your leg, above your knee
throat	[θroʊt]	**1** the back of your mouth and inside your neck, where you swallow **2** the front part of your neck
thumb	[θʌm]	the short thick part on the side of your hand next to your four fingers
toe	[toʊ]	one of the five parts at the end of your foot
tongue	[tʌŋ]	the soft part inside your mouth that moves when you speak or eat

tooth	[tu̱θ]	one of the hard white objects in your
(PL) **teeth**	[tiθ]	mouth, that you use for biting and eating
vein	[ve̱ɪn]	a thin tube in your body that carries blood to your heart
voice	[vɔ̱ɪs]	the sound that comes from your mouth when you speak or sing
waist	[we̱ɪst]	the middle part of your body
wrist	[rɪ̱st]	the part between your hand and your arm that bends when you move your hand

DESCRIBING PEOPLE

age	[e̱ɪdʒ]	the number of years that you have lived
bangs	[bæ̱ŋʒ]	hair that is cut so that it hangs over your forehead: *short bangs* (*In British English, use* **fringe**)
beard	[bɪ̱ərd]	the hair that grows on a man's chin and cheeks
complexion	[kəmple̱kʃᵊn]	the natural color of the skin on your face; *a pale complexion*

expression	[ɪkspr̪ɛʃən]	the way that your face looks at a particular moment; *a shocked expression*
false teeth	[f̪ɔls t̪iθ]	artificial teeth that someone wears if they do not have their natural teeth
freckles	[fr̪ɛkəlʒ]	small light-brown spots on someone's skin
fringe *(BRIT)*		*see* **bangs**
gesture	[dʒ̪ɛstʃər]	a movement that you make with a part of your body, especially your hands, to express emotion or information; *make a gesture*
glasses	[gl̪æsɪz]	two pieces of glass or plastic in a frame, that some people wear in front of their eyes to help them to see better; *wear glasses*
hairstyle	[h̪ɛ̪ərstaɪl]	the way that your hair is cut or arranged; *a new hairstyle*
height	[h̪aɪt]	your size from your feet to the top of your head; *a man of average height*
measurement	[mɛ̪ʒərmənt]	the size around a part of your body, that you need to know when

		you are buying clothes; *your hip/waist/chest measurement*
mole	[moʊl]	a natural dark spot on someone's skin
moustache *(BRIT)*		*see* **mustache**
mustache	[mʌstæʃ]	the hair that grows between a man's nose and mouth (*In British English, use* **moustache**)
pimple	[pɪmpəl]	a small red lump or mark on someone's skin (*In British English, use* **spot**)
scar	[skɑr]	a mark that is left on someone's skin after a wound gets better
size	[saɪz]	how big or small something is
smile	[smaɪl]	an expression on your face when you curve up the corners of your mouth because you are happy or you think that something is funny; *give a smile*

EXAMPLES

He has short red hair and freckles.

"What size are you?" – "Size ten."

He was smiling.

spot *(BRIT)*		*see* **pimple**
tears	[tɪə̲rz]	drops of liquid that come from your eyes when you cry
weight	[we̲ɪt]	how heavy a person or thing is
wrinkles	[ri̲ŋkəlz]	lines that form on your face when you grow old

VERBS

grow	[gro̲ʊ̲]	to gradually become bigger
look	[lʊ̲k]	to seem to have a particular quality; *He looks sad.*
look like		to have a particular appearance; *What does he look like?*
weigh	[we̲ɪ]	to have a particular weight; *She weighs 140 pounds.*

THINGS PEOPLE DO WITH THEIR BODIES

blow your nose	to force air out of your nose in order to clear it

cry	[kraɪ]	to have tears coming from your eyes, usually because you are sad
fold your arms		to put one arm under the other and hold them over your chest
go red		if you go red, your face becomes red because you feel embarrassed
have your hair cut		if you have your hair cut, someone uses scissors to make your hair shorter

EXAMPLES

I've got a big pimple on my nose.
He had tears in his eyes.
She has put on weight.
He has lost weight.
His face was covered with wrinkles.
Sara has grown a lot.
She was crying.

nod	[nɒd]	to move your head up and down to say "yes"
shake hands with someone		to say hello or goodbye to someone by holding their right hand in your right hand and moving it up and down

shake your head		to move your head from side to side to say “no”
shrug	[ʃrʌg]	to move your shoulders up to show that you do not know or care about something
smile	[smaɪl]	to curve up the corners of your mouth because you are happy or you think that something is funny
wave at someone		to hold your hand up and wave it from side to side in order to say hello or goodbye to someone

SENSES

feel	[fil]	**1** to experience a particular physical feeling; *I feel cold.* **2** used for describing the way that something seems when you touch it or experience it; *This room feels cold.* **3** to touch something with your hand, so that you can find out what it is like; *feel someone’s forehead* **4** to be aware of something because you touch it or it touches

		you; *feel the wind on your face*
hear	[hɪ<u>ə</u>r]	to become aware of a sound through your ears
see	[si]	to notice something using your eyes

EXAMPLES

"Are you okay?" I asked. She nodded and smiled.

Claude shook hands with David.

"Did you see Magda?" Anna shook her head.

I can hear music.

It's too dark – I can't see anything.

smell	[sm<u>ɛ</u>l]	**1** to have a quality that you notice by breathing in through your nose; *This flower smells sweet.* **2** to notice something when you breathe in through your nose; *I can smell smoke.*
taste	[te<u>ɪ</u>st]	**1** to have a particular flavor that you notice when you are eating or drinking; *This soup tastes delicious.* **2** to notice the flavor of something that you are eating or drinking; *I can taste salt*

		in this soup.
touch	[tʌtʃ]	to put your hand onto something

BODY POSITIONS

crouch	[kraʊtʃ]	to bend your legs so that you are close to the ground
kneel	[nil]	to bend your legs and rest with one or both of your knees on the ground
lie	[laɪ]	to be in a flat position, and not standing or sitting; *lie on the ground*
lie down		to move your body so that it is flat on something, usually when you want to sleep or rest
sit	[sɪt]	to have the lower part of your body resting on a chair and the upper part straight
sit down		to move your body down until you are sitting on something
stand	[stænd]	to be on your feet
stand up		to move so that you are on your feet

stretch	[strɛtʃ]	to put your arms or legs out very straight

EXAMPLES

She reached down and touched her toes.

I crouched down to stroke the dog.

John was lying on the sofa.

Why don't you go upstairs and lie down?

Tom sat down beside me.

He yawned and stretched.

ADJECTIVES

bald	[bɔld]	with no hair, or very little hair, on the top of your head
beautiful	[byutɪfəl]	very attractive to look at
big	[bɪg]	large in size
blind	[blaɪnd]	unable to see
blonde	[blɒnd]	**1** blonde hair is pale or yellow; *She has blonde hair.* **2** someone who is blonde has pale or yellow hair; *She is blonde.*
curly	[kɜrli]	shaped in curves; *curly hair*
dark	[dɑrk]	black or brown; *dark hair*; *dark eyes*

deaf	[dɛf]	unable to hear anything or unable to hear very well
disabled	[dɪseɪbəld]	having an injury or a condition that makes it difficult for you to move around
dyed	[daɪd]	if you have dyed hair, you have changed the color of your hair using a special substance
fair	[fɛər]	fair hair is pale or yellow; fair skin is very pale
fat	[fæt]	weighing too much
handsome	[hænsəm]	having an attractive face
old	[oʊld]	**1** having lived for many years; not young; *an old man* **2** used for talking or asking about someone's age; *six years old*
overweight	[oʊvərweɪt]	weighing more than is healthy or attractive
pretty	[prɪti]	attractive and pleasant
short	[ʃɔrt]	not tall

EXAMPLES

She was a beautiful woman with fine features.

"How old are you?" – "I'm 34."

“What does she look like?” – “She is short, and has curly blonde hair.”

skinny	[skɪni]	extremely thin or too thin
slim	[slɪm]	thin in an attractive way
small	[smɔl]	not large in size or amount
straight	[streɪt]	not bending or curving; *straight hair*
tall	[tɔl]	**1** of a greater height than other people; *a tall woman* **2** used when you are asking or talking about someone’s height; *How tall are you?*
thin	[θɪn]	having no extra fat on your body
ugly	[ʌgli]	very unpleasant to look at
young	[yʌŋ]	not having lived for very long

EXAMPLES

A slim young girl was standing in the middle of the room.

He is taller than you.

She is 5 feet 4 inches tall.

He was a tall, thin man with a grey beard.

business

NOUNS

accounts	[əkaʊnts]	records of all the money that a business receives and spends
ad	[æd]	information that tells you about something such as a product, an event, or a job (*In British English, use* **advert**)
advert *(BRIT)*		*see* **ad**
advertising	[ædvərtaɪzɪŋ]	the business of creating information that tells people about a product in order to persuade them to buy it; *an advertising campaign*; *an advertising agency*
agent	[eɪdʒənt]	someone whose job is to do business for another person or company
AGM	[eɪ dʒi ɛm]	short for "annual general meeting": a meeting that a company has once a year to discuss the previous

		year's activities and accounts
boom	[bu̱m]	an increase in the number of things that people are buying; *an economic boom*; *a boom in tourism*
brand	[bra̱nd]	a product that has its own name and is made by a particular company
budget	[bʌ̱dʒɪt]	the amount of money that you have available to spend

EXAMPLES

I work in advertising.

You are buying direct, rather than through an agent.

What is your favorite brand of coffee?

Our company does not have a large budget for training.

business	[bɪ̱znɪs]	**1** work that is related to producing, buying and selling things; *do business with someone* **2** used to talk about how many products a company is selling; *Business is good.* **3** an organization that produces and sells goods or that provides a service; *a hairdressing business*

CEO	[si i oʊ]	short for “chief executive officer”: the person who is responsible for the management of the whole company
chair	[tʃɛər]	the person in charge of a company or an organization
client	[klaɪənt]	a person who pays someone for a service
commerce	[kɒmɜrs]	the buying and selling of large amounts of things
company	[kʌmpəni]	a business that sells goods or services
competition	[kɒmpɪtɪʃən]	the activities of companies that are trying to sell more products than each other
consumer	[kənsumər]	someone who buys something or uses a service
corporation	[kɔrpəreɪʃən]	a large business or company
costs	[kɔstʃ]	the amount of money that you must spend in order to run your business
customer	[kʌstəmər]	someone who buys something from a shop or a website; *customer*

		services; *customer relations*
deal	[di̱l]	an agreement or an arrangement in business; *do a deal*

EXAMPLES

They worried that German companies would lose business.

My brother runs a thriving furniture business.

The government is not doing enough to help small and medium-sized businesses.

A lawyer and his client were sitting at the next table.

The company owes money to more than sixty banks.

They faced competition from new online companies.

We need to cut costs.

The supermarket wants to attract new customers.

debt	[dɛ̱t]	**1** money that you owe to someone; *a $50,000 debt* **2** the state of owing money; *be in debt*
director	[dɪrɛ̱ktər, daɪ-]	one of the people who control a company or an organization, and meet regularly to make important decisions
executive	[ɪgzɛ̱kyətɪv]	someone who has an important job at a company
firm	[fɜ̱rm]	same as **company**

growth	[groʊθ]	increase in profits or sales
management	[mænɪdʒmənt]	**1** the control of a business **2** the people who control a business
manager	[mænɪdʒər]	someone who runs a business or part of a business
market	[mɑrkɪt]	the people who want to buy a particular product
market research	[mɑrkɪt rɪsɜrtʃ]	the business activity of finding out about what people want, need, and buy
marketing	[mɑrkɪtɪŋ]	the business of deciding how to sell a product, for example what price it is, where it is sold, and how it is advertised
meeting	[mitɪŋ]	an event in which a group of people come together to discuss things or make decisions
PR	[pi ɑr]	short for “public relations”: the part of a company’s work that is concerned with getting people to like the company
product	[prɒdʌkt]	something that you make or grow

		in order to sell it

EXAMPLES

They are still paying off their debts.

Many firms were going out of business.

The zoo needed better management rather than more money.

The market for organic wines is growing.

There were meetings between senior management and staff.

This mobile phone is one of our most successful products.

profit	[prɒfɪt]	the amount of money that you gain when you sell something for more than it cost to make it; *make a profit*
promotion	[prəmoʊʃᵊn]	an attempt to make a product successful or popular, especially by advertising
publicity	[pʌblɪsɪti]	information that attracts the public's attention to a person or a product
retail	[riteɪl]	the activity of selling goods directly to the public
sales	[seɪlz]	the quantity of a product that is sold
shareholder	[ʃɛərhoʊldər]	someone who owns shares in a

		company
stocks and shares	[stɒks ənd ʃɛərz]	the parts of company that people buy in order to invest money in the company
supervisor	[sʊpərvaɪzər]	someone who is in charge of activities or people
trade	[treɪd]	the activity of buying and selling goods
turnover	[tɜrnoʊvər]	the value of the goods or services that are sold by a company during a particular period of time

VERBS

advertise	[ædvərtaɪz]	to tell people about a product or a service in newspapers, on television, on signs, or on the internet
break even		to make enough money to pay for costs, but not enough to make a profit
buy	[baɪ]	to get something by paying money for it
employ	[ɪmplɔɪ]	to pay someone to work for a

		person or a company

EXAMPLES

The group made a profit of $1.05 million.

Texas has a long history of trade with Mexico.

The company had a turnover of $3.8 million last year.

The airline hopes to break even next year and make a profit the following year.

They bought shares in US-AIR.

The firm employs 800 staff.

expand	[ɪkspæ̲nd]	**1** to become bigger, with more people, goods or activities; *Our business expanded.* **2** to make something larger; *expand services*
go out of business		if a company goes out of business, it stops trading because it does not have enough money
improve	[ɪmpru̲v]	to get better or to make something get better
invest	[ɪnvɛ̲st]	to put money into a business, in order to try to make a profit from it
launch	[lɔ̲ntʃ]	to start selling a new product to the public

manage	[mænɪdʒ]	to control a business
market	[mɑrkɪt]	to advertise and sell a product
negotiate	[nɪgoʊʃieɪt]	to talk about a situation in order to reach an agreement
owe	[oʊ]	to have to pay money to someone; *owe someone money*
sell	[sɛl]	to let someone have something that you own in return for money

ADJECTIVES

bankrupt	[bæŋkrʌpt]	not having enough money to pay your debts; *go bankrupt*
commercial	[kəmɜrʃəl]	relating to the buying and selling of things
medium-sized	[midiəm saɪzd]	not large and not small; *a medium-sized firm*
online	[ɒnlaɪn]	using the internet to sell goods; *an online service*; *online retailing*; *online shopping*
private	[praɪvɪt]	not owned by the government

EXAMPLES

I want to expand my business.

Many airlines could go out of business.

We need to improve performance.

The firm launched a new clothing range.

If the firm cannot sell its products, it will go bankrupt.

New York is a center of commercial activity.

profitable	[prɒfɪtəbᵊl]	making a profit
senior	[sinyər]	having an important job in an organization
small	[smɔl]	not large in size or amount; *a small business*
thriving	[θraɪvɪŋ]	successful

IDIOMS

at the cutting edge	involved in the most exciting and new developments
blue-sky thinking	new creative ideas
think outside the box	to think in a new and creative way

EXAMPLES

Drug manufacturing is the most profitable business in America.

This company is at the cutting edge of technology.

cars and road travel

NOUNS

accelerator *(BRIT)*		*see* **gas pedal**
accident	[æksɪdənt]	when a vehicle hits something and causes injury or damage
ambulance	[æmbyələns]	a vehicle for taking people to hospital; *call an ambulance*
bonnet *(BRIT)*		*see* **hood**
boot *(BRIT)*		*see* **trunk**
brake	[breɪk]	the part in a vehicle that you press with your foot to make the vehicle go more slowly or stop
breakdown	[breɪkdaʊn]	an occasion when a vehicle stops working; *have a breakdown*
bumper	[bʌmpər]	a heavy bar at the front and back of a vehicle that protects the vehicle if it hits something
bus	[bʌs]	a large motor vehicle that carries

		passengers; *a school bus*; *a tour bus*; *a double-decker bus*; *catch a bus*
car	[kɑr]	a motor vehicle with space for about five people; *drive/park a car*; *a sports car*; *a racing car*; *a police car*
car park *(BRIT)*		*see* **parking lot**
caravan	[kærəvæn]	a large vehicle that is pulled by a car. You can sleep and eat in a caravan on vacation.
clutch	[klʌtʃ]	the part of a vehicle that you press with your foot before you move the gear shift
coach	[koʊtʃ]	a comfortable bus that travels between cities or takes people on long journeys; *a coach tour/trip*
crossroads	[krɔsroʊdz]	a place where two roads cross each other

EXAMPLES

There's been an accident.

Six people were injured in the accident.

He missed his last bus home.

They arrived by car.

The car won't start.

dashboard	[dæʃbɔrd]	the part of a car in front of the driver, where most of the controls are
direction	[dɪrɛkʃən, daɪ-]	the general line that you move in when you are going to a place
directions	[dɪrɛkʃənz, daɪ-]	instructions that tell you how to get somewhere; *give someone directions*
distance	[dɪstəns]	the amount of space between two places; *travel a short/long distance*
driver	[draɪvər]	someone who drives a bus, a car, or a train, for example
driver's license	[draɪvərz laɪsəns]	a document showing that you are legally allowed to drive (*In British English, use* **driving licence**)
driving licence *(BRIT)*		*see* **driver's license**
engine	[ɛndʒɪn]	the part of a vehicle that produces the power to make it move
fire engine	[faɪər ɛndʒɪn]	a large vehicle that carries firemen and equipment for putting out fires

flat	[flæt]	a small hole in a tire that has been made by a sharp object (*In British English, use* **puncture**)
garage	[gərɑʒ]	**1** a building next to your house where you keep your car **2** a public building where you can park your car **3** a place where cars are repaired
gas	[gæs]	the fuel that you use in vehicles to make the engine work (*In British English, use* **petrol**)
gas pedal	[gæs pɛdəl]	the part in a vehicle that you press with your foot to make the vehicle go faster (*In British English, use* **accelerator**)

EXAMPLES

You're going in the wrong direction.

He gave us directions to the hospital.

Do you have a driver's license?

He got into the driver's seat and started the engine.

gas station	[gæs steɪʃən]	a place where you buy fuel for your vehicle (*In British English, use* **petrol station**)

gear	[gɪə̲r]	a part of an engine that changes power into movement
gear shift	[gɪə̲r ʃɪft]	the lever in a vehicle that you use to change gear (*In British English, use* **gear stick**)
gear stick *(BRIT)*		*see* **gear shift**
handbrake	[hæ̲ndbreɪk]	the brake in a car that you pull with your hand to stop it moving, for example, when you have parked
headlights	[hɛ̲dlaɪts]	the large lights at the front of a vehicle
highway	[haɪ̲weɪ]	a wide road that allows vehicles to travel very fast over a long distance (*In British English, use* **motorway**)
hood	[hʊ̲d]	the front part of a car that covers the engine (*In British English, use* **bonnet**)
horn	[hɔ̲rn]	an object in a vehicle that makes a loud noise, and that you use as a warning of danger
indicator *(BRIT)*		*see* **turn signal**

journey	[dʒɜrni]	an occasion when you travel from one place to another
lane	[leɪn]	**1** a narrow road, especially in the countryside; *a country lane* **2** a part of a road that is marked by a painted line; *the fast lane*
license plate	[laɪsəns pleɪt]	a sign on the front and back of a vehicle that shows its registration number (*In British English, use* **number plate**)
lorry *(BRIT)*		*see* **truck**

EXAMPLES

The car was in fourth gear.

Yesterday, traffic was light on the highway.

It's a 3-hour journey.

Have a good journey!

make	[meɪk]	the name of the company that made a particular car; *a make of car*
motorbike	[moʊtərbaɪk]	same as **motorcycle**; *ride a motorbike*
motorcycle	[moʊtərsaɪkəl]	a vehicle with two wheels and an

		engine
motorway *(BRIT)*		*see* **highway**
number plate *(BRIT)*		*see* **license plate**
oil	[ɔɪl]	a smooth, thick liquid that is used for making machines work
one-way street	[wʌn weɪ strit]	a street where vehicles can only go in one direction
parking lot	[pɑrkɪŋ lɒt]	an area or building where people can leave their cars (*In British English, use* **car park**)
parking space	[pɑrkɪŋ speɪs]	a place where you can park your car
passenger	[pæsɪndʒər]	someone who is traveling in a vehicle but is not driving it
pedestrian	[pɪdɛstriən]	someone who is walking, especially in a town or city
petrol *(BRIT)*		*see* **gas**
petrol station *(BRIT)*		*see* **gas station**
puncture *(BRIT)*		*see* **flat**

rear-view mirror	[rɪər vyu mɪrər]	the mirror on the front window of a mirror vehicle that allows you to see behind the vehicle
registration number	[rɛdʒɪstreɪʃən nʌmbər]	the official numbers and letters at the front and back of a vehicle
road	[roʊd]	a long piece of hard ground that cars travel on
road sign	[roʊd saɪn]	a flat metal object at the side of a road that gives information to drivers

EXAMPLES

"What make of car do you drive?" – "A Honda."

Where's the nearest parking lot?

We drove around for 20 minutes trying to find a parking space.

Mr. Smith was a passenger in the car when it crashed.

Take the road to Detroit.

roof rack	[ruf ræk]	a metal frame on top of a car where you can put things such as suitcases
roundabout *(BRIT)*		*see* **traffic circle**
seat belt	[sit bɛlt]	a strap in a car that you put across your body to protect you in an

		accident
service station	[sɜ̱rvɪs steɪʃən]	a place along a highway where you can buy gas and food
side-view mirror	[saɪ̱d vyu mɪ̱rər]	one of the two mirrors on each side of a car (*In British English, use* **wing mirror**)
spare part	[spɛ̱ər pɑ̱rt]	a part that you can buy to replace an old or broken part of a vehicle
speed	[spi̱d]	how fast something moves
speed camera	[spi̱d kæmrə]	a piece of equipment that takes pictures of vehicles if they are going too fast
speed limit	[spi̱d lɪmɪt]	the maximum speed that you are legally allowed to drive at
speedometer	[spidɒ̱mɪtər]	a piece of equipment in a car that shows how fast you are driving
street	[stri̱t]	a road in a city or a town
taxi	[tæ̱ksi]	a car that you can hire, with its driver, to take you where you want to go; *take/catch a taxi*
tire	[taɪ̱ər]	a thick round piece of rubber that fits around the wheels of cars (*In British English, use* **tyre**)

traffic	[tr<u>æ</u>fɪk]	all the vehicles that are moving along roads in a particular area; *heavy traffic*; *oncoming traffic*
traffic circle	[tr<u>æ</u>fɪk sɜrkəl]	a circle in the road where several roads meet, which vehicles must drive round until they reach the road they need (*In British English, use* **roundabout**)

EXAMPLES

Don't forget to put on your seat belt.

There was hardly any traffic on the road.

There is heavy traffic between Junctions 14 and 18.

traffic jam	[tr<u>æ</u>fɪk dʒæm]	a long line of vehicles that cannot move because there is too much traffic, or because the road is blocked
traffic lights	[tr<u>æ</u>fɪk laɪts]	a set of red, yellow, and green lights that show you when to stop and when to move forward
traffic warden	[tr<u>æ</u>fɪk wɔrdən]	someone whose job is to make sure that vehicles are parked legally
trailer	[tr<u>eɪ</u>lər]	a large container on wheels that is

		pulled by a truck or other vehicle
transport *(BRIT)*		*see* **transportation**
transportation	[trænspər-teɪʃᵊn]	a system for taking people or things from one place to another in a vehicle; *road/air/ rail transportation* (*In British English, use* **transport**)
truck	[trʌk]	a large vehicle that is used for transporting goods by road (*In British English, use* **lorry**)
trunk	[trʌŋk]	the space at the back of a car that is used for carrying things in (*In British English, use* **boot**)
turn signal	[tɜrn sɪgnəl]	a flashing light on a vehicle that tells you when the vehicle is going to turn left or right (*In British English, use* **indicator**)
tyre *(BRIT)*		*see* **tire**
van	[væn]	a vehicle like a large car or a small truck with space for carrying things in the back
vehicle	[viɪkəl]	a machine that carries people or things from one place to another

wheel	[wil]	**1** one of the round objects under a vehicle that allows it to move along the ground; *the front/back wheel* **2** the round object on a vehicle that you turn to make the vehicle go in different directions; *a steering wheel*
windscreen *(BRIT)*		*see* **windshield**

EXAMPLES

He opened the trunk and put my bags in.

There are too many vehicles on the road.

windshield	[wɪndʃild]	the glass window at the front of a vehicle (*In British English, use* **windscreen**)
wing mirror *(BRIT)*		*see* **side-view mirror**

VERBS

accelerate	[æksɛləreɪt]	to go faster
brake	[breɪk]	to use the brakes in order to make

		a vehicle stop or slow down
break down		to stop working; *The car broke down.*
crash	[kræʃ]	if a vehicle crashes, it hits something and is damaged
drive	[draɪv]	**1** to control the movement and direction of a vehicle; *Can you drive?* **2** to take someone somewhere in a vehicle; *I'll drive you home.*
give way *(BRIT)*		*see* **yield**
hitch-hike	[hɪtʃhaɪk]	to ask people to drive you somewhere, by standing by the side of a road and holding out your thumb
overtake *(BRIT)*		*see* **pass**
park	[pɑrk]	to stop a vehicle and leave it somewhere
pass	[pæs]	to go past another vehicle that is going in the same direction (*In British English, use* **overtake**)
skid	[skɪd]	to slide sideways
slow down		to reduce the speed you are

		driving at
speed	[spid]	to drive faster than the speed limit

EXAMPLES

A dog ran across the road and I braked quickly.

I crashed into the back of a truck.

We were driving at 70 miles an hour.

I'll drive you to work.

Jeff hitch-hiked to New York.

You should slow down when you are passing a cyclist.

The car skidded on the icy road.

You're going too fast – slow down.

speed up		to start driving more quickly
start up		when an engine starts up, it starts working
steer	[stɪər]	to control a vehicle so that it goes in the direction you want
stop	[stɒp]	to not move any more
tow	[toʊ]	to pull another vehicle along behind
travel	[trævəl]	to go from one place to another, often to a place that is far away
yield		to let another vehicle go before

you
(*In British English, use* **give way**)

PHRASES

"Construction"	if a road sign says "Construction," it means that people are fixing the road (*In British English, use* **"Roadworks"**)
"No entry"	if a road sign says "No entry," you must not go along that road
"Roadworks" *(BRIT)*	*see* **"Construction"**

EXAMPLES

Eric started the car and drove off.

People often travel hundreds of miles to get here.

He uses the truck to tow his trailer.

celebrations and ceremonies

NOUNS

baptism	[bæ̲ptɪzəm]	a ceremony in which a person is baptized
bar mitzvah	[bɑ̲r mɪ̲tsvə]	a ceremony for a Jewish boy on his thirteenth birthday
bat mitzvah	[bɑt mɪ̲tsvə]	a ceremony for a Jewish girl on her thirteenth birthday
birth	[bɜ̲rθ]	the time when a baby is born; *the birth of our daughter*
birthday	[bɜ̲rθdeɪ, -di]	a date when you celebrate the day that you were born
bride	[braɪ̲d]	a woman on her wedding day
cemetery	[sɛ̲mətɛri]	a place where dead people are buried
ceremony	[sɛ̲rɪmoʊni]	a formal event
christening	[krɪ̲sᵊnɪŋ]	a ceremony in which members of a church welcome a baby and give it a name
Christmas	[krɪ̲sməs]	the period around the 25th

		December, when Christians celebrate the birth of Jesus Christ; *at Christmas*
Christmas Day	[krɪsməs deɪ]	the 25th of December; *on Christmas Day*
Christmas Eve	[krɪsməs iv]	the 24th of December; *on Christmas Eve*
death	[dɛθ]	the end of a person's life
Easter	[istər]	a Christian festival in March or April when people celebrate Jesus Christ's return to life; *at Easter*
engagement	[ɪngeɪdʒmənt]	an agreement to get married to somebody
Father's Day	[fɑðərz deɪ]	a day when you give a card or present to your father to show that you love him; *on Father's Day*

EXAMPLES

I'm going to my grandson's baptism tomorrow.

It's my birthday today.

I'm going to the cemetery to visit my grandma's grave.

I always visit my parents at Christmas.

festival	[fɛstɪvəl]	a time when people celebrate a

		special event
festivities	[fɛstɪvɪtiz]	events that are organized in order to celebrate something
fireworks	[faɪərwɜrks]	things that fly up into the air and explode, making bright colors in the sky; *a fireworks display*
funeral	[fyunərəl]	a ceremony in which the body of a dead person is buried or cremated
gift	[gɪft]	same as **present**
graduation	[grædʒueɪʃᵊn]	a ceremony for students when they have completed their studies at a university or college
grave	[greɪv]	a place in the ground where a dead person is buried
greeting card	[gritɪŋ kɑrd]	a folded card with a message inside that you give to someone on a special occasion (*In British English, use* **greetings card**)
greetings card *(BRIT)*		*see* **greeting card**
groom	[grum]	a man on his wedding day
Hanukkah	[hɑnəkə]	a festival in November or December when Jewish people

		remember a special time when a temple was given back to them; *during Hanukkah*
honeymoon	[hʌnimun]	a vacation that a man and woman take after their wedding
invitation	[ɪnvɪteɪʃən]	a written or spoken request to go to a party or a ceremony
Lent	[lɛnt]	the forty days before Easter, when some Christians stop doing something that they enjoy; *during Lent*

EXAMPLES

The Christmas festivities lasted for more than a week.

We watched the fireworks from our balcony.

I need to choose a gift for my mom's birthday.

We went to Paris for our honeymoon.

We received an invitation to their wedding.

Maureen gave up chocolate for Lent.

marriage	[mærɪdʒ]	**1** the relationship between a husband and wife; *a happy marriage* **2** same as **wedding**; *a marriage ceremony*

Mother's Day	[mʌ̲ðərz deɪ]	a day when you give a card or present to your mother to show that you love her; *on Mother's Day*
New Year's Day	[nu̲ yɪərz de̲ɪ]	the day when people celebrate the start of the year; *on New Year's Day*
New Year's Eve	[nu̲ yɪərz iv]	the last day of the year; *on New Year's Eve*
occasion	[əke̲ɪʒᵊn]	an important event, ceremony, or celebration; *a special occasion*
party	[pa̲rti]	an event where you enjoy yourself with friends doing things like eating or dancing; *have a party*
Passover	[pæ̲soʊvər]	a festival in March or April when Jewish people celebrate a special time when God helped them; *during Passover*
present	[pre̲zᵊnt]	something that you give to someone on a special occasion
procession	[prəse̲ʃᵊn]	a line of people or vehicles that follows one another as part of a ceremony
public holiday	[pʌ̲blɪk	a day when most of the shops,

		businesses, hɒlIdei] and schools in a country are closed, often to celebrate a particular event
Ramadan	[ræmədɑn]	the ninth month of the Muslim year, when Muslims celebrate the time that God spoke the words of their holy book; *during Ramadan*
retirement	[rɪtaɪərmənt]	the time when you stop work; *a retirement party*
Thanksgiving	[θæŋksgɪvɪŋ]	a holiday in November when families in America have a special meal together to celebrate all the good things in their lives; *on Thanksgiving*

EXAMPLES

We have New Year's Day off from work.

I'm having a party on Friday night – would you like to come?

The store is closed on Sundays and public holidays.

Valentine's Day	[væləntaɪnzdeɪ]	the 14th of February, when you give a card or flowers to the person you love; *on Valentine's Day*
wake	[weɪk]	an event before or after a funeral when friends and family

		remember the person who died
wedding	[wɛ̱dɪŋ]	a ceremony when two people get married
wedding anniversary	[wɛ̱dɪŋ ænɪvɜrsəri]	a date when you celebrate the day you got married; *our 10th wedding anniversary*

VERBS

baptize	[bæptaɪ̱z]	to touch someone with water, to show that they have become a member of the Christian church; *baptize a baby*
be born		when a baby is born, it comes out of its mother's body at the beginning of its life
bury	[bɛ̱ri]	to put the body of a dead person into a grave and cover it with earth
celebrate	[sɛ̱lɪbreɪt]	to do something enjoyable for a special reason; *celebrate your birthday*
cremate	[kri̱meɪt]	to burn the body of a dead person
die	[daɪ̱]	to stop living

fast	[fæst]	to not eat any food for a period of time
get engaged		**1** when two people get engaged, they agree to marry each other; *Sue and Rishi got engaged.* **2** when you get engaged to someone, you agree to marry them; *I got engaged to my boyfriend.*

EXAMPLES

We went out for dinner on Valentine's Day.

This necklace was an anniversary present from my husband.

My sister was born in 1995.

We're celebrating the birth of our baby boy.

My dad died two years ago.

We fasted during Ramadan.

get married		**1** when two people get married, they become husband and wife; *John and Linda got married.* **2** when you get married to someone, you become their husband or wife; *John got married to Linda.*
invite	[ɪnvaɪt]	to ask someone to come to an event; *invite someone to a party*

marry	[mæri]	same as **get married**
organize	[ɔrgənaɪz]	to plan or arrange something; *organize a party*
turn	[tɜrn]	to reach a particular age; *turn 40*
wish	[wɪʃ]	to express the hope that someone will be lucky or happy; *wish someone a happy birthday*

PHRASES

Happy birthday!	you say 'Happy birthday!' to someone when you meet them on their birthday
Happy Christmas! *(BRIT)*	*see* **Merry Chirstmas**
Merry Christmas!	you say "Merry Christmas!" to people when you meet them on Christmas Day

EXAMPLES

Let's invite some friends over for dinner.

My brother has just turned 17.

clothes

NOUNS

bathing suit	[beɪðɪŋ sut]	a piece of clothing that women and girls wear when they go swimming (*In British English, use* **swimsuit**)
belt	[bɛlt]	a strip of leather or cloth that you wear around your waist
bikini	[bɪkini]	a piece of clothing with two parts, that women wear for swimming
blouse	[blaʊs]	a shirt for a girl or a woman
boots	[buts]	shoes that cover your whole foot and the lower part of your leg; *a pair of boots*
bra	[brɑ]	a piece of underwear that women wear to support their breasts
button	[bʌtᵊn]	a small hard object that you push through holes (= buttonholes) to fasten your clothes
cap	[kæp]	a soft, flat hat with a curved part at the front

cardigan	[kɑ̱rdɪgən]	a sweater that opens at the front like a jacket
clothes	[klo̱ʊz, klo̱ʊðz]	the things that people wear, such as shirts, coats, pants, and dresses
clothing	[klo̱ʊðɪŋ]	same as **clothes**
coat	[ko̱ʊt]	a piece of clothing with long sleeves that you wear over other clothes when you go outside
collar	[kɒ̱lər]	the part of a shirt or coat that goes around your neck
dress	[drɛ̱s]	**1** a piece of clothing that covers a woman's or girl's body and part of her legs; *a black dress* **2** a particular type of clothing; *people in traditional dress*
dressing gown	[drɛ̱sɪŋ gaʊn]	a long, loose piece of clothing that you wear over your night clothes when you are not in bed

EXAMPLES

He was dressed in a shirt, dark pants, and boots.

Isabel's striped dress suited her very well.

fashion	[fæ̱ʃən]	**1** the activity or business that

		involves styles of clothing and appearance; *a fashion designer*; *a fashion show* **2** a style of clothing that is popular at a particular time; *the latest fashion*
gloves	[glʌvz]	pieces of clothing that you wear on your hands, with a separate part for each finger; *a pair of gloves*
hat	[hæt]	a thing that you wear on your head
high heels	[haɪ hilz]	women's shoes that have high heels (= raised parts on the bottom of the shoe)
hood	[hʊd]	the part of a coat that you can pull up to cover your head
jacket	[dʒækɪt]	a short coat with long sleeves
jeans	[dʒɪnz]	pants that are made of strong cotton cloth
jumper *(BRIT)*		*see* **sweater**
kaftan	[kæftæn]	a long loose piece of clothing with long sleeves, that some men in Arab countries wear

kimono	[kɪmo͡ʊnə,-noʊ]	a long piece of clothing shaped like a coat, that some Japanese people wear
knickers *(BRIT)*		*see* **panties**
nightdress	[na͡ɪtdrɛs]	a loose dress that a woman or girl wears in bed
pajamas	[pədʒɑ͡məz]	loose pants and a top that people wear in bed (*In British English, use* **pyjamas**)
panties	[pæ͡ntiz]	a piece of underwear for women and girls, that covers the area between the waist and the legs (*In British English, use* **knickers**)
pants	[pæ͡nts]	a piece of clothing that covers the body from the waist downwards, and that covers each leg separately; *a pair of pants* (*In British English, use* **trousers**)
pantyhose	[pæ͡ntihoʊz]	a piece of tight clothing that covers the lower body, worn by women, girls, and dancers; *a pair of pantyhose*

EXAMPLES

People were standing outside in their pajamas.

pattern	[pæ̲tərn]	an arrangement of lines or shapes that form a design
pocket	[pp̲kɪt]	a part of a piece of clothing that you can put things in
pyjamas *(BRIT)*		*see* **pajamas**
sandals	[sæ̲ndᵊlz]	light shoes that you wear in warm weather
sari	[sɑ̲ri]	a piece of clothing that some Indian women wear, consisting of a long piece of material that you wrap around your body
scarf	[skɑ̲rf]	a piece of cloth that you wear around your
(PL) **scarves**	[skɑ̲rvz]	neck or head
shirt	[ʃɜ̲rt]	a piece of clothing with a collar and buttons, that you wear on the top part of your body
shoelaces	[ʃu̲leɪsɪz]	thin pieces of material that go through holes in shoes in order to make the shoes tighter
shoes	[ʃu̲z]	things made of leather or another

		strong material, that you wear on your feet over socks
shorts	[ʃɔ̱rts]	pants with very short legs; *a pair of shorts*
size	[sa̱ɪz]	one of a series of particular measurements for clothes and shoes
skirt	[sk3̱rt]	a piece of clothing for women and girls that hangs down from the waist and covers part of the legs
sleeve	[sli̱v]	one of the two parts of a piece of clothing that covers your arms
slippers	[slɪ̱pərz]	loose, soft shoes that you wear indoors
sneakers	[sni̱kərz]	shoes that people wear for running and other sports, or with informal clothes (*In British English, use* **trainers**)

EXAMPLES

He put on a pair of sandals and walked down to the beach.

I take size 38 in shoes.

I need a new pair of shoes.

What size do you wear?

What shoe size are you?

socks	[sɒks]	pieces of clothing that cover your feet and ankles and that you wear inside shoes
suit	[sut]	a jacket and pants or a jacket and skirt that are both made from the same cloth
sweater	[swɛtər]	a warm piece of clothing that covers the top part of your body (*In British English, use* **jumper**)
swimming trunks	[swɪmɪŋ trʌŋks]	shorts that men and boys wear when they go swimming
swimsuit *(BRIT)*		*see* **bathing suit**
tie	[taɪ]	a long narrow piece of cloth that you wear around your neck with a shirt
tights	[taɪts]	a piece of tight clothing that covers the lower body, worn by women, girls, and dancers; *a pair of tights*
top	[tɒp]	[INFORMAL] a piece of clothing, for example a blouse or a shirt, that you wear on the upper part of your body
trainers *(BRIT)*		*see* **sneakers**

trousers *(BRIT)*		*see* **pants**
T-shirt	[tī ʃɜrt]	a cotton shirt with short sleeves and no collar or buttons
turban	[tɜ̄rbən]	a long piece of cloth that Sikh, Hindu, and Muslim men wrap around their heads
underpants	[ʌ̄ndərpænts]	underwear, that covers the area between the waist and the top of the legs
underwear	[ʌ̄ndərwɛər]	clothes that you wear next to your skin, under your other clothes
uniform	[yū̄nɪfɔrm]	the special clothes that some people wear to work, and that some children wear at school
vest	[vɛ̄st]	a piece of clothing without sleeves that people usually wear over a shirt (*In British English, use* **waistcoat**)
waistcoat *(BRIT)*		*see* **vest**

EXAMPLES

He was wearing a dark business suit.

zip *(BRIT)*		*see* **zipper**
zipper	[zɪ̱pər]	a long metal or plastic object with two rows of teeth that join together, and a small part that you pull in order to open and close clothes or bags (*In British English, use* **zip**)

VERBS

dress up		to put on different clothes in order to look like someone else, for fun
fit	[fɪ̱t]	to be the right size for you
get changed		to take off some or all of your clothes, and put on different clothes
get dressed		to put on your clothes
get undressed		to take off your clothes
put something on		to put a piece of clothing onto your body
suit	[su̱t]	to make you look attractive
take something off		to take a piece of clothing off your body
wear	[wɛ̱ər]	to have something such as clothes,

		shoes, or jewelry on your body
zip	[zɪ̱p]	to fasten something such as a piece of clothing using its zipper

EXAMPLES

My son dressed up as a cowboy for the fancy dress party.

The dress fit me perfectly.

When I get home from school I get changed.

In the morning I get dressed.

Sarah got dressed quickly and went to work.

In the evening I get undressed.

He put his shirt on.

That suits you.

Jason took off his jacket and loosened his tie.

You need to wear warm clothes when you go out today.

ADJECTIVES

casual	[kæ̱ʒuəl]	worn at home or on vacation, and not at work or on formal occasions
checked *(BRIT)*		*see* **checkered**
checkered	[tʃɛ̱kərd]	with a pattern of small squares, usually of two colors (*In British English, use* **checked**)
fashionable	[fæ̱ʃənəbəl]	**1** popular at a particular time; *fashionable clothes*

		2 wearing fashionable clothes; *a fashionable woman*
formal	[fɔ̲rmᵊl]	formal clothes are worn on serious or official occasions
long	[lɔ̲ŋ]	measuring a great distance from one end to the other; *a long coat*
old-fashioned	[o̲ʊ̲ld fæ̲ʃənd]	no longer fashionable or modern
short	[ʃɔ̲rt]	measuring only a small amount from one end to the other; *a short skirt*
smart	[smɑ̲rt]	**1** clean and neat, and wearing attractive clothes; *You look smart.* **2** neat and attractive, and worn at work or on slightly formal occasions; *a smart suit*
spotted	[spɒ̲tɪd]	having a pattern of spots (= small round colored areas); *a spotted handkerchief*
striped	[stra̲ɪpt]	having a pattern of stripes (= long lines of different colors); *a pair of striped pajamas*
tight	[ta̲ɪt]	small, and fitting closely to your body; *a tight skirt*
trendy	[trɛ̲ndi]	fashionable and modern

EXAMPLES

He wore formal evening dress to the dinner.

That’s very smart.

college and university

NOUNS

art school	[ɑ̱rt skul]	a college where people study subjects such as painting and photography
arts	[ɑ̱rts]	subjects such as history, literature, and language, which are not scientific
assignment	[əsa̱ɪnmənt]	a task that you are given to do as part of your studies
bachelor's degree	[bæ̱tʃələrz dɪgri]	a first university degree that usually lasts four years
campus	[kæ̱mpəs]	an area of land that contains the main buildings of a university or college
college	[kp̱lɪdʒ]	same as **university**
course	[kɔ̱rs]	a series of lessons on a particular subject; *complete a course*
coursework	[kɔ̱rswɜrk]	work that students do during a course, rather than in exams

degree	[dɪgri]	**1** a course of study that you do at a university or college; *do a degree* **2** the qualification that you get when you have passed this course; *have a degree*
department	[dɪpɑrtmənt]	one of the sections in a university or college; *the English Literature department*
discussion section	[dɪskʌʃᵊn sɛkʃᵊn]	a class at a college or university in which the teacher or TA and a small group of students discuss a topic (*In British English, use* **tutorial**)
diploma	[dɪploʊmə]	the qualification that you get when you have completed a course of study at a university or college; *have a diploma*
distance learning	[dɪstəns lɜrnɪŋ]	a system of education in which people study at home

EXAMPLES

We have to do written assignments as well as fieldwork.

Cars are not allowed on campus.

Joanna is doing business studies at a local college.

I did a course in computing.

He was awarded a diploma in social work.

dorms	[dɔ̱rmz]	buildings or rooms where students live (*In British English, use* **student accommodation**)
essay	[ɛ̱seɪ]	a short piece of writing on a subject
exam	[ɪgzæ̱m]	a formal test you take to show your knowledge of a subject
examination	[ɪgzæ̱mɪneɪ̱ʃən]	[FORMAL] same as **exam**
faculty	[fæ̱kəlti]	a group of related departments in a university; *the Faculty of Arts*
fieldwork	[fi̱ldwɜrk]	the activity of gathering information about something in the real world, rather than studying it in a classroom
finals	[faɪ̱nəlz]	the tests students take at the end of a university or college course; *take your finals*
graduate	[græ̱dʒuɪt]	a student who has completed a course at a college or university
graduation	[græ̱dʒueɪ̱ʃən]	a special ceremony for students when they have completed their studies at a university or college
grant	[græ̱nt]	an amount of money given to a

		person or to an organization for a special purpose
halls of residence *(BRIT)*		*see* **residence hall**
honors degree	[ɒnərz dɪgri]	a type of university degree which is of a higher standard than an ordinary degree (*In British English, use* **honours degree**)
honours degree *(BRIT)*		*see* **honors degree**
invigilator *(BRIT)*		*see* **proctor**
law school	[lɔ skul]	a school people go to after college where they study to become lawyers
lecture	[lɛktʃər]	a talk that someone gives in order to teach people about a particular subject
lecturer	[lɛktʃərər]	a teacher at a university or college
major	[meɪdʒər]	the main subject that someone is studying

EXAMPLES

We had to write an essay on Shakespeare.

He is a lecturer in the Geography department of Moscow University.

master's degree	[mæstərz dɪgri]	a second university degree, that usuallylasts one or two years
medical school	[mɛdɪkəl skul]	a college where people study to become doctors and nurses
natural sciences	[nætʃərəl saɪənsɪz, nætʃrəl -]	subjects such as physics, biology, and chemistry, that are concerned with the physical world
PhD	[pi eɪtʃ di]	**1** short for "Doctor of Philosophy": the highest degree in a particular subject; *working on a PhD* **2** the qualification that you get when you have passed this degree; *have a PhD*
plagiarism	[pleɪdʒərɪzəm]	the practice of copying someone else's work and pretending that you did the work
proctor	[prɒktər]	someone who checks that an exam starts and finishes at the correct time, and that there is no cheating (*In British English, use* **invigilator**)
prospectus	[prəspɛktəs]	a document that gives details

		about a college or university and the courses it provides
reading list	[rīdɪŋ lɪst]	a document that a lecturer gives to students, with suggestions for books that they should read for a particular class
research	[rɪsɜ̄rtʃ, rīsɜrtʃ]	work that involves studying something and trying to discover facts about it
residence hall	[rɛ̄zɪdəns hɔl]	buildings with rooms or suites, usually built by universities or colleges, in which students live during the term (*In British English, use* **halls of residence**)
scholarship	[skp̄lərʃɪp]	an amount of money that is given to someone who has achieved good results, so that they can continue studying

EXAMPLES

He has a master's degree in Business Administration.

Marc has a PhD in Linguistics.

Phuong was awarded a scholarship to study business management at the University of Luton.

school	[skūl]	**1** a department of a university or

		college; *the School of Humanities* **2** same as **university**
semester	[sɪmɛ̱stər]	half of a college or university year
seminar	[sɛ̱mɪnɑr]	a class at a college or university in which the teacher and a small group of students discuss a topic
social sciences	[so̱ʊ̱ʃəl sa̱ɪ̱ənsɪz]	subjects such as sociology and politics, that are concerned with society
student	[stu̱dənt]	a person who is studying at a university or a college
student accommodation *(BRIT)*		*see* **dorms**
student loan	[stu̱dənt loʊn]	an amount of money that students can borrow from the government; *apply for a student loan*
student union	[stu̱dənt yunyən]	**1** an organization in a university or college that helps students **2** a building where this organization has an office, and where there is usually a shop and a coffee bar

syllabus	[sɪ̱ləbəs]	a list of subjects that are covered in a university or college course
TA	[ti̱ eɪ̱]	short for "teaching assistant": a postgraduate student who teaches seminars or leads discussion sections for lecture classes at a college or university
technical college	[tɛ̱knɪkᵊl kɒ̱lɪdʒ]	a college where you can study practical subjects, often in order to do a particular job
term	[tɜ̱rm]	one of the periods of time that a college or university year is divided into
test	[tɛ̱st]	an exam that you take to show your knowledge of a subject; *take a test*

EXAMPLES

Please read this chapter before next week's seminar.

thesis	[θi̱sɪs]	a long piece of writing based on your own
(PL) **theses**	[θi̱sis]	ideas and research, that you do as part of a degree

tuition fees	[tuɪʃᵊn fiz]	the money that you pay to be taught at a university or college
tutor	[tutər]	a private teacher who meets with students outside of normal classes to help them keep up with the materials covered in class
tutorial *(BRIT)*		*see* **discussion section**
undergraduate	[ʌndərgrædʒuɪt]	a university or college student who has not yet attained their Bachelor's degree
university	[yunɪvɜrsɪti]	a place where you can study for a degree, and where people do academic research
viva	[vivə]	a university examination in which a student answers questions by speaking rather than writing
vocational course	[voʊkeɪʃənᵊl kɔrs]	a course that someone does in order to do a particular job

VERBS

enrol	[ɪnroʊl]	to officially join a class
graduate	[grædʒueɪt]	to complete your studies at college or university

invigilate *(BRIT)*		*see* **proctor**
proctor	[prɒktər]	to check that an exam starts and finishes at the correct time, and that no-one cheats (*In British English, use* **invigilate**)
register	[rɛdʒɪstər]	to put your name on an official list, in order to be able to take a particular class

EXAMPLES

He was awarded his PhD for a thesis on industrial robots.

The government are planning to increase tuition fees.

She went to a university where she got a BA and then an MA.

She graduated with a degree in English and Drama from Northwestern University.

What do you want to do after you graduate?

study	[stʌdi]	to spend time learning about a particular subject
work	[wɜrk]	to do an activity that uses a lot of your time or effort

ADJECTIVES

academic	[ækədɛmɪk]	relating to the work done in universities and colleges; *an*

		academic journal
full-time	[fʊl taɪm]	relating to a course that takes up the whole of each normal working week; *a full-time program*; *a full-time student*
part-time	[pɑrt taɪm]	relating to a course that takes up only part of each day or week; *a part-time course*; *a part-time student*

EXAMPLES

She spends most of her time studying.

He studied History and Geography at college.

Their academic standards are high.

colors

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

beige	[beɪʒ]	(having) a pale brown color
black	[blæk]	**1** (having) the color of the sky at night **2** black coffee or tea has no milk in it
blue	[blu]	(having) the color of the sky on a sunny day
brown	[braʊn]	(having) the color of earth or wood
cream	[krim]	(having) a yellowish-white color
gold	[goʊld]	(having) a bright yellow color that is often shiny
green	[grin]	(having) the color of grass or leaves
gray	[greɪ]	(having) the color of ashes, or clouds on a rainy day (*In British English, use* **grey**)
grey *(BRIT)*		*see* **gray**

navy blue	[neɪvi blu]	(having) a very dark blue color; *a navy blue suit*
orange	[ɔrIndʒ]	(having) a color between red and yellow
pink	[piŋk]	(having) a color between red and white
purple	[pɜrpəl]	(having) a color between red and blue
red	[rɛd]	(having) the color of blood or of a tomato
silver	[sɪlvər]	(having) a shiny and pale grey color
turquoise	[tɜrkwɔɪz]	(having) a light greenish-blue color
white	[waɪt]	**1** (having) the color of snow or milk **2** white wine is a pale-yellow color **3** white coffee or tea has milk in it
yellow	[yɛloʊ]	(having) the color of lemons or butter

EXAMPLES

Blue suits you.

"What color are your eyes?" – "Blue."

I bought some blue shoes.

"What color is your hair?" – "Brown."

The room is decorated in soft browns and creams.

She has green eyes.

Do you have this t-shirt in green?

"What's your favorite color?" – "Red."

You look good in white.

ADJECTIVES

bright	[brɑɪt]	strong and noticeable in color; *a bright red dress*
dark	[dɑrk]	close to black, or containing some black; *dark brown hair*
light	[lɑɪt]	pale in color; *light brown hair*
pale	[peɪl]	not strong or bright in color; *pale blue eyes*
rich	[rɪtʃ]	dark in color and pleasant to look at
soft	[sɔft]	not bright, and pleasant to look at

VERBS

blush	[blʌʃ]	to become red in the face because you are ashamed or embarrassed
change color		to become a different color (*In*

		British English, use **change colour**)
change colour *(BRIT)*		*see* **change color**
go red		to become red in the face because you are embarrassed or angry
paint	[peɪnt]	to cover a wall or an object with paint; *paint something blue*

PHRASES

a black eye	a dark area of skin around your eye where someone has hit you

EXAMPLES

She's wearing a light blue t-shirt.

The leaves on the trees are changing color.

Mom went red in the face with anger.

He had a black eye, and several cuts on his face.

computers and the internet

NOUNS

attachment	[ətætʃmənt]	a file that you send with an email
blog	[blɒg]	a website that describes the daily life and thoughts of the person who writes it
broadband	[brɔdbænd]	a very fast method of sending a lot of information at the same time over the internet
browser	[braʊzər]	a piece of software that allows you to search for information on the internet
bug	[bʌg]	a mistake in a computer program
CD	[si di]	short for “compact disc”: a disc for storing music or computer information
CD-ROM	[si di rɒm]	a CD that stores information that you can read using a computer
chat	[tʃæt]	a way of communicating with friends by exchanging written messages using the internet;

		internet chat
computer	[kəmpyu̲tər]	an electronic machine that stores and deals with large amounts of information; *a computer game*; *a computer system*
connection	[kənɛ̲kʃᵊn]	a link between a computer and a network; *an internet connection*
cursor	[kɜ̲rsər]	a small line on a computer screen that shows where you are working
data	[deɪ̲tə, dæ̲tə]	information that can be used by a computer program
database	[deɪ̲təbeɪs, dæ̲tə-]	a collection of information on a computer that is stored in such a way that you can use it and add to it easily

EXAMPLES

Many internet users now have a broadband connection at home.

You need an up-to-date web browser.

There is a bug in the software.

A CD-ROM can hold huge amounts of data.

desktop	[dɛ̲sktɒp]	the images that you see on a computer screen when the computer is ready to use

disk	[dɪsk]	a flat metal object that stores information and can be put into a computer
disk drive	[dɪsk draɪv]	the part of a computer that holds a disk
document	[ˈdɒkjəmənt]	a piece of text that is stored on a computer
email	[imeɪl]	**1** short for “electronic mail”: a system of sending written messages from one computer to another; *send a file by email* **2** a written message that you send by computer; *send an email*
email address	[imeɪl ədrɛs]	a combination of letters and symbols that identifies where emails are sent
file	[faɪl]	a collection of information that you keep on your computer
folder	[foʊldər]	a group of files that are stored together on a computer
font	[fɒnt]	a set of letters of the same style and size
hacker	[hækər]	a person who illegally gets access to another computer

hard disk	[hɑ̱rd dɪsk]	the part inside a computer where data and programs are stored
hard drive	[hɑ̱rd draɪv]	the part inside a computer that contains the hard disk
hardware	[hɑ̱rdwɛr]	things in computer systems such as the computer, the keyboard and the screen, rather than the programs
home page	[hoʊ̱m peɪdʒ]	the main page of a website
I.T.	[aɪ ˈtiː]	short for "information technology": the study and practice of using computers
icon	[a̱ɪkɒn]	a picture on a computer screen that you can choose, in order to open a particular program

EXAMPLES

You can rearrange the icons on your desktop.

You can cut and paste whole paragraphs from one document to another.

Could you email David Ferguson and arrange a meeting?

The company needs people with I.T. skills.

inbox	[ɪ̱nbɒks]	the place where your computer stores emails that people have sent

		to you
ink cartridge	[ɪ̱ŋk kɑrtrɪdʒ]	a container of ink that you put in a printer
the internet	[ði ɪntərnɛt]	the network that connects computers all over the world
italics	[ɪtæ̱lɪks]	letters and numbers that slope to the right; *This sentence is in italics.*
key	[ki̱]	one of the buttons that you press in order to operate a computer
keyboard	[ki̱bɔrd]	the set of keys that you press in order to operate a computer
laptop	[læ̱ptɒp]	a small computer that you can carry with you
memory	[mɛ̱məri]	the part of a computer where it stores information
memory stick	[mɛ̱məri stɪk]	a small object for storing information that you can carry with you and use in different computers
menu	[mɛ̱nyu]	a list of choices on a computer screen, showing things that you can do using a particular program; *a drop-down menu*

modem	[mo͡ʊdəm, -dɛm]	a piece of equipment that uses a telephone line to connect computers
monitor	[mɒ͡nɪtər]	the part of a computer that contains the screen
mouse	[ma͡ʊs]	an object that you use to do things on a computer without using the keyboard
mouse mat *(BRIT)*		*see* **mouse pad**
mouse pad	[ma͡ʊs pæd]	a flat piece of plastic that you rest a mouse on (*In British English, use* **mouse mat**)
network	[nɛ͡twɜrk]	a system of connected computers
operating system	[ɒ͡pəreɪtɪŋ sɪstəm]	a system in a computer that controls all system the other programs

EXAMPLES

I had 50 emails in my inbox.

I found all the information I needed on the internet.

password	[pæ͡swɜrd]	a secret word or phrase that allows you to use a computer

		system
PC	[pi si]	short for “personal computer”: a computer that people use at school, at home or in an office
printer	[prɪntər]	a machine for printing copies of computer documents on paper
printout	[prɪntaʊt]	a piece of paper with information from a computer printed on it
program	[proʊgræm, -grəm]	a set of instructions that a computer uses to do a particular task
screen	[skrin]	a flat surface on a computer where you see pictures or words
social networking	[soʊʃəl nɛtwɜrkɪŋ]	the activity of contacting friends and making new friends on particular websites
software	[sɔftwɛər]	computer programs
spam	[spæm]	advertising messages that are sent automatically by email to large numbers of people
spreadsheet	[sprɛdʃit]	a program that deals with numbers, and is mainly used for financial planning

USB	[yu̱ ɛs bi̱]	short for "Universal Serial Bus": a way of connecting equipment to a computer; *a USB port*
username	[yu̱zərneɪm]	the name that you type onto your screen each time you open a particular program or website
virus	[vai̱rəs]	a program that enters a computer system and changes or destroys the information that is there

EXAMPLES

The printer plugs into the computer's USB port.

I clicked the mouse and a message appeared on the screen.

Have you used a social networking site such as Myʃpace or Facebook?

The software allows you to browse the internet on your mobile phone.

You should protect your computer against viruses.

the web	[ðə wɛ̱b]	a computer system that helps you find information. You can use it anywhere in the world.
web address	[wɛ̱b ədrɛs]	the location of a website on the internet, for example, http://www.harpercollins.com
webcam	[wɛ̱bkæm]	a camera on a computer that produces images that can be seen

		on a website
website	[wɛ̱bsaɪt]	a set of information on the internet about a particular subject
window	[wɪ̱ndoʊ]	one of the work areas that a screen can be divided into

VERBS

back something up		to make a copy of a computer file that you can use if the original file is lost; *back up a file*
boot up a computer		to make a computer start working
browse	[braʊ̱z]	to search for information on the internet; *browse the internet*
click	[klɪ̱k]	to press one of the buttons on a mouse in order to make something happen on the screen; *click on a link*
copy	[kɒ̱pi]	to make a new version of a file or disk that is exactly the same as the old one; *copy a file*
crash	[kræ̱ʃ]	used for saying that a computer or a program suddenly stops working; *The computer crashed.*

cut and paste		to move words or pictures on a computer from one place to another place
delete	[dɪlit]	**1** to remove a file or document from a computer; *delete a file* **2** to remove text from a document; *delete* *a paragraph*

EXAMPLES

Go over to your computer and boot it up.

My computer crashed for the second time that day.

The report was too long so I deleted a few paragraphs.

download	[daʊnloʊd]	to copy a file, a program, or other information from a bigger computer, a network or the internet to your own computer
email	[imeɪl]	to send a message from one computer to another; *email someone*
format	[fɔrmæt]	to change the arrangement of the text of a document

key something in		to put information into a computer using the keyboard; *key in data*
log in		to type your username and password so that you can start using a computer or website
log off		to stop using a computer or website by clicking on an instruction
print	[prɪnt]	to use a machine to produce a copy of a computer file on paper; *print ten copies of a document*
program	[proʊgræm, -grəm]	to give a computer a set of instructions so that it can do a particular task; *program a computer*
save	[seɪv]	to give a computer an instruction to store some information; *save your work*
scroll	[skroʊl]	to move the text on a computer screen up or down to find the information that you need; *scroll down the page*
zip	[zɪp]	to make a file smaller so that you

		can send it to someone using the internet

EXAMPLES

You can download software from this website.

She turned on her computer and logged in.

This is how to zip files so that you can send them via email.

ADJECTIVES

bold	[boʊld]	letters and numbers that are bold are thicker and darker than ordinary ones; *bold capitals*
desktop	[dɛsktɒp]	of a convenient size for using on a desk or a table; *a desktop computer*
electronic	[ɪlɛktrɒnɪk, i-]	using electricity and small electrical parts
offline	[ɒflaɪn]	not connected to the internet; *The computer is offline.*
online	[ɒnlaɪn]	**1** available on the internet; *an online store* **2** connected to the internet; *people who are online*
portable	[pɔrtəbəl]	designed to be carried or moved around

wireless	[waɪərlɪs]	using radio waves (= a form of power that travels through the air) instead of wires; *a wireless connection*

ADVERBS

offline	[ɒflaɪn]	not using the internet; *work offline*
online	[ɒnlaɪn]	using the internet; *search online*

IDIOM

surf the net		to spend time looking at different websites on the internet

EXAMPLES

Your computer is currently offline.

I buy most of my clothes online.

Some teenagers spend hours surfing the net.

cooking

NOUNS

barbecue	[bɑrbɪkyu]	a piece of equipment that you use for cooking outdoors
blender	[blɛndər]	a piece of electrical equipment for mixing liquids and soft foods together or for turning fruit or vegetables into liquid
bottle opener	[bɒtəl oʊpənər]	a metal tool for removing tops from bottles
broiler	[brɔɪlər]	the part of a oven where you cook food under strong heat (*In British English, use* **grill**)
cake tin	[keɪk tɪn]	**1** a metal container that you use for baking a cake **2** a metal container that you put a cake in to keep it fresh
can opener	[kæn oʊpənər]	a tool for opening tins of food (*In British English, use* **tin opener**)
chopping board	[tʃɒpɪŋ bɔrd]	a flat piece of wood or plastic that you chop meat or vegetables on

coffee maker	[kɔ̱fi meɪkər]	a machine for making coffee
cook	[ku̱k]	someone who prepares and cooks food
cooker *(BRIT)*		*see* **stove**
corkscrew	[kɔ̱rkskru]	a tool for pulling corks out of bottles
dish	[di̱ʃ]	a wide shallow container with no cover, that you use for cooking and serving food
food processor	[fu̱d prɒsɛsər]	a piece of electrical equipment for mixing or chopping food, or for turning food into liquid
fork	[fɔ̱rk]	a tool with a handle and three or four long metal points at the end, that you use for eating and cooking
frying pan	[fra̱ɪɪŋ pæn]	a flat metal pan with a long handle, that you use for frying food
grater	[gre̱ɪtər]	a tool with a rough surface, that you use for cutting food into very small pieces

EXAMPLES

My mom is a good cook.

grill	[grɪl]	**1** a flat frame of metal bars that you can use to cook food over a fire **2** *(BRIT) see* **broiler**
hob *(BRIT)*		*see* **stove top**
kettle	[kɛtəl]	a metal container with a lid and a handle, that you use for boiling water
knife	[naɪf]	a tool with a handle and a sharp flat piece of metal, that you use for eating and cooking; *a carving knife*; *a bread knife*
ladle	[leɪdəl]	a large, round, deep spoon with a long handle, that you use for serving soup
microwave	[maɪkroʊweɪv]	an oven that cooks food very quickly using electric waves
mixing bowl	[mɪksɪŋ boʊl]	a large bowl that you use for mixing ingredients
oven	[ʌvən]	a piece of equipment for cooking that is like a large metal box with a door

pan	[pæn]	a round metal container with a long handle, that you use for cooking food
peeler	[pilər]	a tool for removing the skin from fruit and vegetables; *a potato peeler*
pot	[pɒt]	a deep round container that you use for cooking soup and other food
recipe	[rɛsɪpi]	a set of instructions telling you how to cook something
rolling pin	[roʊlɪŋ pɪn]	a long wooden tool that you roll over dough in order to make it flat
saucepan	[sɔspæn]	a deep metal cooking pot, usually with a long handle and a lid
scale	[skeɪl]	a piece of equipment that you use for weighing food (*In British English, use* **scales**)
scales *(BRIT)*		*see* **scale**

EXAMPLES

Put the dish in the oven for 40 minutes.

No salt is required in this recipe.

sieve	[sɪv]	a tool with a fine metal net, that you use for separating food from liquids
spatula	[spætʃələ]	a tool like a knife with a wide flat blade, that you use for lifting hot food
spoon	[spun]	a tool with a handle and a part like a shallow bowl, that you use for eating and cooking; *a wooden spoon*
stove	[stoʊv]	a piece of kitchen equipment that you use for cooking food (*In British English, use* **cooker**)
stove top	[stoʊv tɒp]	the top part of a cooker where you put pans (*In British English, use* **hob**)
toaster	[toʊstər]	a piece of electrical equipment that you use to heat bread
timer	[taɪmər]	a piece of equipment that you use for measuring how long you need to cook something for
tin opener *(BRIT)*		*see* **can opener**
tongs	[tɔŋz]	a tool consisting of two connected

		pieces of metal, that you use for picking up food
whisk	[wisk]	a tool for stirring eggs or cream very fast; *an electric whisk*; *a hand whisk*

VERBS

bake	[beɪk]	to cook food in an oven without extra oil or liquid
beat	[bit]	to mix food quickly with a spoon or a fork; *beat an egg*
boil	[bɔɪl]	**1** to heat water until bubbles appear and the water starts to change into steam; *boil water* **2** to cook food in boiling water; *boil potatoes*

EXAMPLES

We bought a new stove.

Put the pan on the stove top, add flour, and cook for one minute.

Beat the eggs with a wooden spoon.

Gradually bring the sauce to the boil.

bring something	to heat liquid until it boils **to the boil**

broil	[brɔɪl]	to cook food under a broiler (*In British English, use* **grill**)
carve	[kɑrv]	to cut slices from meat; *carve the meat*
chop	[tʃɒp]	to cut something into pieces with a knife chop the vegetables
cook	[kʊk]	to prepare and heat food
fry	[fraɪ]	to cook food in hot fat or oil
grill		**1** to cook food on metal bars above a fire or barbecue or under a grill **2** *(BRIT) see* **broil**
mash	[mæʃ]	to press food to make it soft
melt	[mɛlt]	to heat a solid food so that it becomes a liquid
peel	[pil]	to remove the skin of fruit or vegetables
prepare	[prɪpɛər]	to get food ready
roast	[roʊst]	to cook meat or other food in an oven or over a fire
serve	[sɜrv]	to give people food and drinks
slice	[slaɪs]	to cut food into thin pieces; *slice*

		the mushrooms
stir	[stɜr]	to mix a liquid in a container using a spoon
weigh	[weɪ]	to measure how heavy something is
whisk	[wɪsk]	to stir eggs or cream very fast

EXAMPLES

Carve the beef into thin slices.
Chop the butter into small pieces.
Mash the bananas with a fork.
Top with whipped cream and serve.
Serve the soup with crusty bread.
Helen sliced the cake.

ADJECTIVES

baked	[beɪkt]	cooked in the oven without extra oil or liquid; *a baked potato*
boiled	[bɔɪld]	cooked in boiling water; *a boiled egg*
chopped	[tʃɒpt]	cut into pieces with a knife; *a tin of chopped tomatoes*
fried	[fraɪd]	cooked in hot fat or oil; *fried rice*

grated	[greɪtɪd]	cut into very small pieces using a grater; *grated cheese*
mashed	[mæʃt]	pressed until soft; *mashed potatoes*
medium	[midiəm]	used for describing meat that is cooked so that the inside is still slightly pink
poached	[poʊtʃt]	cooked gently in boiling liquid; *a poached egg*
rare	[rɛər]	used for describing meat that is cooked very lightly so that the inside is still red
roast	[roʊst]	cooked in the oven or over a fire; *roast beef*
scrambled	[skræmbᵊld]	used to describe eggs that have been mixed together and heated in a pan
steamed	[stimd]	cooked in steam rather than water; *steamed vegetables*
well done	[wɛl dʌn]	if meat is well done, it has been cooked thoroughly

EXAMPLES

I'd like my steak well done.

countryside

NOUNS

agriculture	[ǽgrɪkʌltʃər]	the business or activity of taking care of crops and farm animals
barn	[bɑ̱rn]	a building on a farm where animals and crops are kept
bulldozer	[bʊ̱ldoʊzər]	a large vehicle that is used for moving large amounts of earth
cave	[ke̱ɪv]	a large hole in the side of a hill or under the ground; *an underground cave*
cliff	[klɪ̱f]	a high area of land with a very steep side next to water; *walk along the cliffs*
combine harvester	[kɒ̱mbaɪn hɑrvɪstər]	a large machine that is used on farms to cut, sort, and clean grain
country	[kʌ̱ntri]	same as **countryside**
countryside	[kʌ̱ntrisaɪd]	land that is away from cities and towns; *We live in the country.*
crop	[krɒ̱p]	a plant that people grow for food;

		plant *a crop*
ditch	[dɪtʃ]	a deep, long, narrow hole that carries water away from a road or a field
estate	[ɪsteɪt]	a large house in a large area of land in the country
farm	[fɑrm]	an area of land and buildings where people grow crops and keep animals
farmer	[fɑrmər]	a person who owns or works on a farm
farmyard	[fɑrmyɑrd]	an area near a farmhouse that is enclosed by walls or buildings; *farmyard animals*
fence	[fɛns]	a wooden or metal wall around a piece of land
field	[fild]	a piece of land where crops are grown, or where animals are kept

EXAMPLES

Lisa and Andrew live in the countryside.

Both of the boys work on the farm.

There is not enough good farm land here.

We drove past fields of sunflowers.

fishing	[fɪʃɪŋ]	the sport or business of catching fish
forest	[fɔ̱rɪst]	a large area where trees grow close together
gate	[ge̱ɪt]	a structure like a door that you use to enter a field; *close the gate*
ground	[gra̱ʊ̱nd]	the soil on the Earth's surface in which you can grow plants
harvest	[hɑ̱rvɪst]	**1** the activity of collecting a crop, or the time when this is done **2** the amount of a crop that is collected; *a good/poor harvest*
hay	[he̱ɪ]	grass that has been cut and dried so that it can be used for feeding animals
hedge	[hɛ̱dʒ]	a row of small trees growing close together around a field
hike	[ha̱ɪk]	a long walk, especially in the countryside
hill	[hɪ̱l]	an area of land that is higher than the land around it; *a steep hill*; *climb a hill*

hunt	[hʌnt]	an organized event when a group of people follow and kill wild animals as a sport; *go on a hunt*
hunter	[hʌntər]	a person who hunts wild animals for food or as a sport
lake	[leɪk]	a large area of water with land around it
land	[lænd]	an area of ground that is used for farming
market	[mɑrkɪt]	a place where people buy and sell products
marsh	[mɑrʃ]	a soft, wet area of land
meadow	[mɛdoʊ]	a field that has grass and flowers growing in it
moor	[mʊər]	an area of high open ground covered mainly with rough grass and heather
mountain	[maʊntᵊn]	a very high area of land with steep sides; *climb a mountain*

EXAMPLES

I walked through the gate and into the field.

The women prepare the ground for planting.

Mt. McKinley is the highest mountain in North America.

mud	[mʌd]	a sticky mixture of earth and water
path	[pæθ]	a long, narrow piece of ground that people walk along
picnic	[piknɪk]	an occasion when you eat a meal outdoors, usually in a park or a forest, or at the beach
plough	[plaʊ]	a large farming tool that is pulled across the soil to turn it over, usually before seeds are planted
pond	[pɒnd]	a small area of water
produce	[prɒdus]	food that you grow on a farm to sell
quarry	[kwɔri]	a place where stone or minerals are dug out of the ground
rain boots	[reɪn buts]	long rubber boots that you wear to keep your feet dry (*In British English, use* **wellingtons**)
river	[rɪvər]	a long line of water that flows into a sea; *a river bank*
rock	[rɒk]	**1** the hard substance that is in the ground and in mountains **2** a large piece of rock

ruins	[ruɪnʒ]	the parts of a building that remain after something destroys the rest
scarecrow	[skɛərkroʊ]	an object, in the shape of a person, that stands in a field where crops are growing in order to frighten birds away
scenery	[sinəri]	the land, water, or plants that you can see around you in a country area
soil	[sɔɪl]	the substance on the surface of the Earth in which plants grow

EXAMPLES

We went for a picnic.

The restaurant uses as much local produce as possible.

We tried to dig, but the ground was solid rock.

Maria sat on a rock and looked out across the sea.

The soil here is good for growing vegetables.

spring	[sprɪŋ]	a place where water comes up through the ground; *an underground spring*
stable	[steɪbəl]	a building in which horses are kept
stick	[stɪk]	a thin branch from a tree

stone	[stoʊn]	**1** a hard solid substance that is found in the ground and is often used for building **2** a small piece of rock that is found on the ground
stream	[strim]	a small narrow river
track	[træk]	**1** a rough road or path; *a muddy track* **2** the marks that an animal leaves on the ground; *animal tracks*
tractor	[træktər]	a vehicle that a farmer uses to pull farm machinery; *drive a tractor*
valley	[væli]	a low area of land between hills; *a steep mountain valley*
view	[vyu]	everything that you can see from a place
village	[vɪlɪdʒ]	a very small town in the countryside
walk	[wɔk]	a trip that you make by walking, usually for pleasure; *go for a walk*
waterfall	[wɔtərfɔl]	a place where water flows over the edge of a steep part of hills or

		mountains, and falls into a pool below
well	[wɛl]	a deep hole in the ground from which people take water or oil
wellingtons *(BRIT)*		*see* **rain boots**
windmill	[wɪndmɪl]	a building with long, flat parts on the outside that turn as the wind blows to make machinery move inside
wood	[wʊd]	**1** the hard material that trees are made of **2** a large area of trees growing near each other; *in the woods*

EXAMPLES

She could feel cool, smooth stone beneath her feet.

Loose stones on the ground made walking difficult.

Zak found fresh bear tracks in the snow.

The view from the top of the hill was magnificent.

VERBS

climb	[klaɪm]	to move towards the top of something; *climb a hill*; *climb to the*

top

go camping		to stay in a tent or a trailer for a short time
harvest	[hɑrvɪst]	to collect a farm crop; *harvest crops*
hike	[haɪk]	to go for a long walk
hunt	[hʌnt]	to chase and kill wild animals for food or as a sport
plough	[plaʊ]	to turn earth over, usually before seeds are planted

ADJECTIVES

peaceful	[pisfəl]	quiet and calm
rural	[rʊərəl]	not near cities or large towns

PHRASE

in the open air	outside rather than in a building

EXAMPLES

The group hiked along a track in the forest.

The service is ideal for people who live in rural areas.

We eat our meals in the open air.

employment

NOUNS

annual leave *(BRIT)*		*see* **vacation**
application	[æplɪkeɪʃən]	a document with questions that you must answer when you apply for a job; *fill in an application*
apprentice	[əprɛntɪs]	a young person who works for someone in order to learn their skill
benefits	[bɛnɪfɪts]	money or other advantages which come from your job, the government, or an insurance company such as a retirement plan; *a salaried position with benefits*
bonus	[boʊnəs]	an extra amount of money that you earn, usually because you have worked very hard; *a bonus payment*
boss	[bɔs]	the person who is in charge of you

		at the place where you work
career	[kərɪər]	a job that you do for a long time, or the years of your life that you spend working
colleague	[kɒlig]	a person someone works with
company	[kʌmpəni]	a business that sells goods or services
contract	[kɒntrækt]	an official agreement between two companies or two people
covering letter *(BRIT)*		*see* **cover letter**
cover letter	[kʌvər lɛtər]	a letter that you send with an application form in order to provide extra information (*In British English, use* **covering letter**)
co-worker	[koʊwɜrkər]	a person you work with
CV *(BRIT)*		*see* **résumé**
disability	[disəbilɪti]	a permanent injury or condition that makes it difficult for you to work or live normally

EXAMPLES

Their son Dominic is an apprentice woodworker.

discrimination	[dɪskrim-Ineɪʃən]	the practice of treating one person or group unfairly, for example, by paying them less money than other people; *age discrimination*; *racial/sexual discrimination*
employee	[ɪmplɔɪi]	a person who is paid to work for another person or a company
employer	[ɪmplɔɪər]	the person or the company that you work for
employment	[ɪmplɔɪmənt]	work that you are paid for
equality	[ɪkwɒlɪti]	the fair treatment of all the people in a group
flexitime	[flɛksɪtaɪm]	a system that allows employees to start or finish work at different times, provided that they work an agreed number of hours in total
freelancer	[frilænsər]	someone who is not employed by an organization, and does work for more than one company
HR		*see* **human resources**
human resources	[hyʊmən risɔrsɪz]	the department in a company that finds, trains, and looks after the staff

income	[ɪnkʌm]	the money that a person earns or receives
interview	[ɪntərvyu]	a formal meeting in which someone asks you questions to find out if you are the right person for a job; *ask someone for an interview*
job	[dʒɒb]	**1** the work that someone does to earn money; *get a good job* **2** a particular task; *do a good job*
layoffs	[leɪɔfz]	a situation in which you lose your job because it is no longer necessary or because the organization can no longer afford to pay you; *company-wide layoffs* (*In British English, use* **redundancy**)

EXAMPLES

When I went for my first interview for this job I arrived early.

maternity leave	[mətɜrnɪti liv]	a period of time when a woman leaves her job to have a baby
minimum wage	[mɪnɪməm	the lowest wage that an employer

	weɪdʒ]	is allowed to pay an employee; *on the minimum wage*
notice	[noʊtɪs]	the act of telling your employer that you are going to leave your job; *give in/hand in your notice*
occupation	[ɒkyəpeɪʃən]	someone's job; *What is your occupation?*
overtime	[oʊvərtaɪm]	extra time that you spend doing your job
paternity leave	[pətɜrnɪti liv]	a period of time when a man does not go to work because his child has just been born
pay	[peɪ]	to give someone money for the work that they do
profession	[prəfɛʃən]	a type of job for which you need special education or training
promotion	[prəmoʊʃən]	a move to a more important job or rank in the organization that you work for; *get a promotion*
rate of pay	[reɪt əv peɪ]	the money that workers can earn for a particular amount of work; *a higher/lower rate of pay*
recruitment	[rɪkrutmənt]	the process of selecting people to work for an organization

redundancy *(BRIT)*		*see* **layoffs**
reference	[rɛfərəns, rɛfrəns]	a statement from someone who knows you, describing your character and your abilities
résumé	[rɛzʊmeɪ]	a document giving details of your education and work experience that you send to someone when you are trying to get a new job (*In British English, use* **CV**)

EXAMPLES

These workers are not even on the minimum wage.

You have to give one month's notice.

Could you write me a reference?

Please send your résumé and a cover letter to the following address.

retirement	[rɪtaɪərmənt]	the period in someone's life after they retire
rise	[raɪz]	an increase in the money that you earn; *get a rise*
salary	[sæləri]	the money that you earn from your employer
seasonal work	[siʒənəl wɜrk]	work that is only available at

		particular times of the year
sick leave	[sɪk liv]	the time that a person spends away from work because of illness or injury
staff	[stæf]	the people who work for an organization
strike	[straɪk]	a period of time when workers refuse to work, usually in order to try to get more money; *go on strike*
temp	[tɛmp]	a temporary office worker
temping agency	[tɛmpɪŋ eɪdʒənsi]	a company that finds jobs for people who want to work in different offices for short periods of time
trade union	[treɪd yʊnyən]	an organization formed by workers in order to improve conditions for workers
training	[treɪnɪŋ]	the process of learning the skills that you need for a particular job; *a training course*
the unemployed	[ði ʌnɪmplɔɪd]	people who do not have a job
unemployment	[ʌnɪmplɔɪ- mənt]	a situation in which people cannot work because there are not

		enough jobs
vacation	[veɪkeɪʃən]	an amount of time in every year when you are paid, but you do not have to go to work; *take vacation*; *be on vacation* (*In British English, use* **annual leave**)
wages	[weɪdʒIz]	money that is paid to someone for the work that they do; *get your wages*

EXAMPLES

Staff at the hospital went on strike yesterday.

We want to create jobs for the unemployed

work	[wɜrk]	**1** a job that you do to earn money; *find work* **2** the place where you do your job; *go to work*
working week	[wɜrkɪŋ wik]	the total amount of time that you spend at work during the week; *a 35-hour working week*

VERBS

apply for a job		to write a letter or write on a form in order to ask for a job
discriminate	[dɪskrɪ̲mɪneɪt]	to treat a person or a group of people unfairly
dismiss	[dɪ̲smɪ̲s]	to tell someone that they have to leave their job
earn	[ɜ̲rn]	to receive money for work that you do; *earn money*
employ	[ɪmplɔ̲ɪ]	to pay someone to work for a person or a company
fire	[fa̲ɪə̲r]	[informal] to tell someone that they have to leave their job; *She was fired from that job.*
hire	[ha̲ɪə̲r]	to pay someone to do a job for you
interview	[ɪ̲ntərvyu]	to ask someone questions to find out if they are the right person for a particular job
lay off	[le̲ɪ ɔ̲f]	to be forced to leave your job or to force someone to leave a job; *get laid off*; *lay off someone*
pay	[pe̲ɪ]	to give someone money for the work that they do; *well/badly paid*
promote	[prəmo̲ʊ̲t]	to give someone a more important

		job in the same organization

EXAMPLES

I start work at 8:30 am and finish at 5 pm.

I'm lucky. I can walk to work.

Richard has just been promoted to general manager.

recruit	[rɪkrʊt]	to choose people to work in an organization
resign	[rɪzaɪn]	to tell your employer that you are leaving a job
retire	[rɪtaɪər]	to leave your job and stop working, usually because of your age
strike	[straɪk]	to refuse to work, usually to try to get more money
temp	[tɛmp]	to work as a temp
work	[wɜrk]	to have a job and earn money for it

ADJECTIVES

absent	[æbsᵊnt]	not at work

blue-collar	[blu kɒlər]	working in industry, doing physical work, rather than in offices
freelance	[frilæns]	working alone for different companies, rather than being employed by one company that pays you regularly
full-time	[fʊl taɪm]	working for the whole of each normal working week
laid off	[leɪd ɔf]	without a job because there is not enough work or money to keep you (*In British English, use* **redundant**)
part-time	[pɑrt taɪm]	working for only part of each day or week
permanent	[pɜrmənənt]	employed for an unlimited length of time
redundant *(BRIT)*		*see* **laid off**
temporary	[tɛmpərɛri]	lasting or working for only a certain period of time; *a temporary job*; *temporary workers*
unemployed	[ʌnɪmplɔɪd]	able to work but without a job
white-collar	[waɪt kɒlər]	working in offices rather than

doing physical work in industry

EXAMPLES

Workers have the right to strike.

Mrs Lee has been temping since losing her job.

Many people in the country are still working for less than the minimum wage.

Have you been unemployed for over six months?

PHRASE

What do you do	you ask "What do you do (for a living)?" **(for a living)?** when you want to know what someone's job is

IDIOMS

get a foot in the door	to manage to enter an organization that you hope to succeed in
a golden handshake	a large sum of money that a company may give to an employee when he or she leaves
the rat race	a job or way of life in which people compete aggressively with each other to be successful; *get out*

of the rat race

environment

NOUNS

bottle bank	[bɒtᵊl bæŋk]	a large container where you can put empty bottles so that the glass can be recycled
carbon dioxide	[kɑrbən daɪɒksaɪd]	a gas that is produced when animals and people breathe out, and by certain chemical processes
carbon monoxide	[kɑrbən mɒnɪksaɪd]	a harmful gas that is produced by the engines of vehicles
chemical	[kɛmɪkᵊl]	a substance that is made by changing or combining other substances
climate change	[klaɪmɪttʃeɪndʒ]	changes in the Earth's climate (= normal weather) over a long period of time
conservation	[kɒnsərveɪʃᵊn]	the activity of taking care of the environment; *a conservation group*
crisis (PL)	[kraɪsɪs] [kraɪsis]	a situation that is very serious or

crises		dangerous
damage	[dæmɪdʒ]	physical harm that happens to something
diesel	[dizəl]	a type of oil that is used in the engines of some vehicles instead of gas
disaster	[dɪzæstər]	a very bad accident or event that may hurt many people
Earth	[ɜrθ]	the planet that we live on
electric car	[ɪlɛktrɪk kɑr]	a car that is powered by electricity
endangered species	[ɪndeɪndʒərdspiʃiz]	a type of animal or plant that may soon disappear from the world
energy	[ɛnərdʒi]	the power that makes machines work or that provides heat
the environment	[ði ɪnvaɪrən-mənt, -vaɪərn-]	the natural world, consisting of land, the seas, the air, plants and animals
exhaust fumes	[ɪgzɔst fyumz]	gases that cars give out as waste

EXAMPLES

I'm going to take these bottles to the bottle bank.

Pandas are an endangered species.

You can save energy by switching off your computer when you are not using it.

These gases are harmful to the environment.

fuel	[fyu̲əl]	a substance such as coal or oil that is burned to provide heat or power
fumes	[fyu̲mz]	the unpleasant and harmful gases that are produced by things such as chemicals and fuel
global warming	[glo̲ʊbᵊlwɔ̲rmɪŋ]	the slow rise in the Earth's temperature
greenhouse effect	[gri̲nhaʊsɪfɛkt]	the rise in the Earth's temperature caused by a build-up of gases around the Earth
habitat	[hæ̲bɪtæt]	the place where an animal or a plant lives or grows
hydro-electric power	[haɪ̲droʊɪlɛktrɪk paʊər]	electricity that is produced by water power
industrial waste	[ɪndʌ̲striəl weɪ̲st]	waste produced by factories
landfill	[læ̲ndfɪl]	**1** a method of disposing of a lot of waste by burying it in a large deep hole; *the cost of landfill* **2** a large deep hole that waste is

		buried in; *a landfill site*
low-energy bulb	[loʊ ɛnɛrdʒi bʌlb]	a light bulb that uses less electricity than normal light bulbs
nature	[neɪtʃər]	all the animals and plants in the world, as well as the land and the sea
nuclear power	[nukliər paʊər]	energy that is produced when the central part of an atom is split
nuclear waste	[nukliər weɪst]	harmful material from nuclear plants
oxygen	[ɒksɪdʒən]	a colorless gas that people, plants, and animals need to breathe in order to live
ozone layer	[oʊzoʊn leɪər]	a part of the atmosphere that protects us from harmful rays from the sun; *a hole in the ozone layer*
planet	[plænɪt]	a large, round object in space that moves around a star. The Earth is a planet.

EXAMPLES

Scientists are trying to find a solution to global warming.

The pollution of rivers destroys the habitats of many fish.

Millions of plastic bags go to landfill every day.

pollution	[pəluʃən]	**1** the process of making water, air, or land dirty and dangerous; *the pollution of our oceans* **2** harmful substances that make water, air, or land dirty and dangerous; *high levels of pollution*
population	[pɒpyəleɪʃən]	all the people who live in a country or an area
rainforest	[reɪnfɔrɪst]	a thick forest of tall trees that grows in tropical areas where there is a lot of rain
recycling	[risaɪklɪŋ]	processing things such as paper and glass so that they can be used again
renewable energy	[rɪnuəbəl ɛnərdʒi]	power from wind, water, and sunlight, which are always available
sewage	[suɪdʒ]	waste material, especially from people's bodies, which flows away through underground pipes
solar panel	[soʊlər pænəl]	a piece of equipment on a roof that collects energy from sunlight in order to heat water and produce electricity

solar power	[soʊlər paʊər]	energy from the sun that is used to heat water and produce electricity
solution	[səluʃᵊn]	a way of dealing with a problem
unleaded gas	[ʌnlɛdɪd gæs]	gas that contains less lead than normal gas and causes less damage to the environment (*In British English, use* **unleaded petrol**)
unleaded petrol	*(BRIT)*	*see* **unleaded gas**
wildlife	[waɪldlaɪf]	the animals and other living things that live in nature
wind power	[wɪnd paʊər]	energy from the wind that can be used to make electricity

EXAMPLES

The government have plans to reduce air pollution.

The population of Bangladesh is rising every year.

We installed solar panels on our roof last year.

This car runs on unleaded gas.

world	[wɜrld]	the planet that we live on

VERBS

ban	[bæn]	to say officially that something must not be done, shown, or used;

		ban the use of chemicals
damage	[dæmɪdʒ]	to have a bad effect on something so that it is less strong or successful
destroy	[dɪstrɔ͡ɪ]	to cause so much damage to something that it cannot be used any longer, or does not exist any longer
dispose of something		to get rid of something; *dispose of waste*
dump	[d͡ʌmp]	to leave something somewhere quickly and carelessly
harm	[hɑrm]	same as **damage**
pollute	[pəl͡ut]	to make water, air, or land dirty
preserve	[prɪzɜrv]	to take action to save something or protect it; *preserve nature*
protect	[prətɛkt]	to keep someone or something safe from harm or damage; *protect wildlife*
recycle	[r͡isa͡ɪkəl]	to process things such as paper or bottles so that they can be used again
save	[se͡ɪv]	**1** to protect something from harm;

		save the rainforests **2** to use less of something; *save paper*
use something up		to finish something so that none of it is left; *use up resources*

ADJECTIVES

biodegradable	[baɪoʊ-dɪgreɪdəbəl]	able to decay naturally without harming the environment; *biodegradable packaging*

EXAMPLES

This book was printed on recycled paper.

We should recycle our trash.

They are developing a new kind of biodegradable plastic.

eco-friendly	[ɛkoʊ frɛndli, ikoɛ]	same as **environmentally friendly**; *an eco-friendly product*
environmentally friendly	[ɪnvaɪrənmɛntəli frɛndli,-vaɪərn-]	not harmful to the environment, or less harmful to the environment
extinct	[ɪkstɪŋkt]	not existing any more; *this species is extinct*
green	[grin]	relating to the protection of the

		environment; *green policies*
harmful	[hɑ̱rmfəl]	having a bad effect on someone or something
organic	[ɔrgæ̱nɪk]	grown without using chemicals
sustainable	[səstə̱ɪnəbᵊl]	using natural products in a way that does not damage the environment; *sustainable farming*; *sustainable development*

EXAMPLES

These houses were built using eco-friendly materials.

How can we make our company more environmentally friendly?

Many animals will soon be extinct.

We are trying to be greener by walking to work rather than driving.

This shop sells organic food.

feelings and personal qualities

NOUNS

anger	[æŋgər]	the strong emotion that you feel when you think that someone has behaved badly or has treated you unfairly
excitement	[ɪksaɪtmənt]	the feeling you have when you are excited
fear	[fɪər]	the unpleasant feeling you have when you think that you are in danger
feeling	[filɪŋ]	a state in which you feel something such as anger or happiness
feelings	[filɪŋz]	your emotions; *hurt someone's feelings*
guilt	[gɪlt]	an unhappy feeling that you have when you think that you have done something wrong
happiness	[hæpinɪs]	a feeling of being pleased and

		satisfied
honesty	[ɒnɪsti]	the quality of being honest
intelligence	[ɪntɛlɪdʒᵊns]	the ability to understand and learn things quickly and well
kindness	[kaɪndnɪs]	the quality of being friendly and helpful
mood	[mud]	the way you are feeling at a particular time
nature	[neɪtʃər]	a person's character, which they show by the way they behave; *a friendly nature*
personality	[pɜrsənælɪti]	the qualities that make you different from other people

EXAMPLES

Everyone is in a state of great excitement.

My whole body was shaking with fear.

Sara has a fear of mice.

I have a feeling that everything will be all right.

They have strong feelings about politics.

She felt a lot of guilt about her children's unhappiness.

I am always in a good mood.

He is in a bad mood.

She is a very good-natured child.

pride	[praɪd]	**1** a feeling of satisfaction that you have because you have done something well; *a sense of pride* **2** a sense of dignity and self-respect
quality	[kwɒlɪti]	a particular characteristic that a person has
regret	[rɪgrɛt]	a feeling of sadness caused by something that you have done or not done; *express regret*
relief	[rɪlif]	the feeling of happiness that you get when something unpleasant has not happened or is no longer happening
spite	[spaɪt]	a feeling that makes you do something to hurt or upset someone; *He did it out of spite.*
stupidity	[stupɪdɪti]	lack of intelligence or consideration
surprise	[sərpraɪz]	the feeling you have when something that you do not expect happens

ADJECTIVES

ambitious	[æmbɪʃəs]	having a strong feeling that you want to be successful, rich, or powerful
angry	[æŋgri]	feeling a strong emotion when someone has done something bad or has treated you unfairly
annoyed	[ənɔɪd]	angry about something
anxious	[æŋkʃəs]	nervous or worried
ashamed	[əʃeɪmd]	feeling embarrassed or guilty
bored	[bɔrd]	not interested in something, or having nothing to do; *get bored*

EXAMPLES

He takes great pride in his work.
His pride wouldn't allow him to ask for help.
She has lots of good qualities.
He had no regrets about leaving.
I breathed a sigh of relief.
To my surprise, I found I liked working hard.
I was ashamed of myself for getting so angry.

calm	[kɑm]	not worried, angry, or excited; *Try to keep calm.*
cheerful	[tʃɪərfəl]	happy

competent	[kɒmpɪtənt]	able to do something well
confident	[kɒnfɪdənt]	feeling sure about your own abilities and ideas
curious	[kyʊəriəs]	wanting to know more about something
depressed	[dɪprɛst]	feeling very sad
dishonest	[dɪsɒnɪst]	not honest
dissatisfied	[dɪssætɪsfaɪd]	not happy about something; *dissatisfied customers*
embarrassed	[ɪmbærəst]	feeling shy, ashamed, or guilty about something
enthusiastic	[ɪnθuziæstɪk]	showing how much you like or enjoy something
envious	[ɛnviəs]	wanting something that someone else has
excited	[ɪksaɪtɪd]	very happy or enthusiastic
friendly	[frɛndli]	behaving in a pleasant, kind way; *Samir was friendly to me.*
frightened	[fraɪtᵊnd]	anxious or afraid
frustrated	[frʌstreɪtɪd]	upset or angry because there is nothing you can do about a problem

funny	[fʌni]	amusing and likely to make you smile or laugh
furious	[fyʊəriəs]	extremely angry
glad	[glæd]	happy and pleased about something
grateful	[greɪtfəl]	wanting to thank someone for something that they have given you or done for you

EXAMPLES

She was very depressed after her husband died.

He looked a bit embarrassed when he noticed his mistake.

Tom was not very enthusiastic about the idea.

I have to admit I was a little envious

I was excited about playing football again.

She was frightened of making a mistake.

They seemed glad to see me.

She was grateful to him for being so helpful.

guilty	[gɪlti]	feeling unhappy because you think that you have done something wrong; *feel guilty*
happy	[hæpi]	feeling pleased and satisfied; *a happy child*
helpful	[hɛlpfʊl]	helping you by doing something

		useful for you
honest	[ɒnɪst]	always telling the truth and not stealing or cheating
hurt	[hɜrt]	upset because of something that someone has said or done
impatient	[ɪmpeɪʃənt]	**1** annoyed because you have to wait too long for something **2** becoming annoyed very quickly
independent	[ɪndɪpɛndənt]	able to take care of yourself without needing help or money from anyone else
insecure	[ɪnsɪkyʊər]	not confident
intelligent	[ɪntɛlɪdʒənt]	able to understand and learn things quickly and well
jealous	[dʒɛləs]	**1** feeling angry because you think that another person is trying to take away someone or something that you love **2** feeling angry or unhappy because you do not have something that someone else has
kind	[kaɪnd]	friendly and helpful

lonely	[loʊnli]	unhappy because you are alone
loving	[lʌvɪŋ]	feeling or showing love for other people; *a loving husband*
mean	[min]	unkind or cruel

EXAMPLES

She was deeply hurt by Ali's remarks.

People are impatient for the war to be over.

Try not to be impatient with your kids.

Children become more independent as they grow.

Most people are a little insecure about their looks.

He got jealous and there was a fight.

She was jealous of her sister's success.

Don't be mean to your brother!

miserable	[mɪzərəbəl]	very unhappy
naughty	[nɔti]	badly behaved, and not doing what someone tells you to do; *a naughty boy*
nervous	[nɜrvəs]	frightened or worried
nice	[naɪs]	friendly and pleasant
optimistic	[ɒptɪmɪstɪk]	hopeful about the success of something
pessimistic	[pɛsɪmɪstɪk]	thinking that bad things are going

		to happen
pleased	[plizd]	happy about something or satisfied with something; *I am very pleased with your work.*
polite	[pəlaɪt]	behaving with respect towards other people
proud	[praʊd]	**1** pleased and satisfied about something good that you or other people close to you have done **2** thinking that you are better than other people
relaxed	[rɪlækst]	calm and not worried
relieved	[rɪlivd]	feeling happy because something unpleasant has not happened or is no longer happening
rude	[rud]	not polite
sad	[sæd]	unhappy
satisfied	[sætɪsfaɪd]	happy because you have what you wanted
scared	[skɛərd]	frightened; *I'm not scared of him.*
selfish	[sɛlfɪʃ]	caring only about yourself, and not about other people
sensitive	[sɛnsɪtɪv]	**1** showing that you understand

		other people's feelings **2** easily worried and offended about something when people talk about it

EXAMPLES

They were extremely nice to me.

His dad was very proud of him.

We are relieved to be back home.

The classroom teacher must be sensitive to a child's needs.

Young people can be sensitive about their appearance.

serious	[sɪəriəs]	thinking a lot, and not smiling or laughing much
shocked	[ʃɒkt]	very upset because of something unpleasant that has happened
shy	[ʃaɪ]	nervous about talking to people that you do not know well
stupid	[stupɪd]	not intelligent, and not able to behave in a sensible way
surprised	[sərpraɪzd]	having the feeling you get when something happens that you did not expect

suspicious	[səspɪʃəs]	not trusting someone or something
thoughtful	[θɔtfəl]	thinking about other people's feelings
thoughtless	[θɔtlɪs]	not thinking about other people's feelings
uncomfortable	[ʌnkʌmftəbəl, -kʌmfərtə-]	slightly worried or embarrassed
unhappy	[ʌnhæpi]	**1** sad **2** not satisfied with something
upset	[ʌpsɛt]	unhappy because something bad has happened; *Marta looked upset.*
well-behaved	[wɛl bɪheɪvd]	behaving in a way that other people think is polite and correct; *well-behaved little boys*
worried	[wɜrid]	thinking about problems that you have or about unpleasant things that might happen

EXAMPLES

She was deeply shocked when she heard the news.

We were surprised by the play's success.

It was thoughtless of me to forget your birthday.

The request for money made them feel uncomfortable.

We were unhappy with the way we played on Friday.

When she did not come home, they got worried.

VERBS

become	[bɪkʌm]	to start to feel a particular way; *become anxious*
behave	[bɪheɪv]	to do and say things in a particular way; *behave strangely*
calm down		to become less upset or excited
enjoy	[ɪndʒɔɪ]	to like doing something
enjoy yourself		to get pleasure from an experience
feel	[fil]	to experience a particular emotion; *How do you feel?*
grow	[groʊ]	to begin to have a particular feeling; *Lisbet soon grew bored.*
hurt	[hɜrt]	to say or do something that makes someone unhappy
suffer	[sʌfər]	to feel pain, sadness or worry
upset	[ʌpsɛt]	to make you feel worried or unhappy

IDIOMS

down in the dumps	unhappy or depressed
get on	to annoy someone

someone's nerves

hit the roof	to suddenly become very angry
over the moon	extremely happy and excited

EXAMPLES

I enjoyed playing basketball.

I'm really sorry if I hurt your feelings.

His behavior really upset me.

food and drink

NOUNS

food	[fu̲d]	the things that people and animals eat

MEAT AND FISH

bacon	[be̲ɪkən]	slices of salted or smoked meat that comes from a pig; *eggs and bacon for breakfast*
beef	[bi̲f]	meat from a cow
chicken	[tʃɪ̲kɪn]	**1** a bird that is kept on a farm for its eggs and meat **2** the meat of this bird; *chicken sandwiches*
fish (pl) **fish, fishes**	[fɪ̲ʃ]	an animal that lives and swims in water, that people eat as food
gravy	[gre̲ɪvi]	a sauce made from the juices that come from meat when it cooks
ground beef	[gra̲ʊnd bi̲f]	meat that has been cut into very small pieces using a machine (*In British English, use* **mince**))

ham	[hæm]	meat from a pig that has been prepared with salt and spices; *ham sandwiches*
hamburger	[hæmbɜrgər]	a type of food made from small pieces of meat that have been shaped into a flat circle. Hamburgers are fried or grilled and are often eaten in a round bread roll.
lamb	[læm]	the flesh of a young sheep eaten as food
meat	[mit]	the part of an animal that people cook and eat
mince *(BRIT)*		*see* **ground beef**
pork	[pɔrk]	meat from a pig
sausage	[sɔsɪdʒ]	a mixture of very small pieces of meat, spices and other foods, inside a long thin skin

EXAMPLES

We had roast beef for lunch.

I don't eat meat or fish.

Fry the ground beef in a frying pan.

For supper, she served lamb and vegetables.

They ate sausages for breakfast.

seafood	[sifud]	fish and other small animals from the sea that you can eat; *a seafood restaurant*
steak	[steɪk]	**1** a large flat piece of beef without much fat on it; *steak and fries* **2** a large piece of fish that does not contain many bones; *a salmon steak*

EGGS, CHEESE AND MILK PRODUCTS

butter	[bʌtər]	a soft yellow food made from cream that you spread on bread or use in cooking
cheese	[tʃiz]	a solid food that is usually white or yellow and is made from milk
cream	[krim]	a thick liquid that is made from milk; *whipped cream*
custard	[kʌstərd]	a sweet yellow sauce made of milk, eggs, and sugar
egg	[ɛg]	a hen's egg, that people eat as food in many countries; *a boiled egg*; *a hard-boiled egg*; *a poached egg*; *scrambled eggs*
ice cream	[aɪs krim]	**1** a frozen sweet food made from

		cream, sugar, and sometimes fruit or chocolate; *chocolate ice cream* **2** a portion of ice cream; *two ice creams*
margarine	[mɑrdʒərɪn]	a yellow substance that is made from vegetable oil, and is similar to butter; *a tub of margarine*
mayonnaise	[meɪəneɪz]	a cold, thick sauce made from eggs and oil
omelet	[ɒmlɪt, ɒməlɪt]	a type of food made by mixing eggs and cooking them in a frying pan; *a cheese omelet* (*In British English, use* **omelette**)
omelette *(BRIT)*		*see* **omelet**
yoghurt *(BRIT)*		*see* **yogurt**
yogurt	[yoʊgərt]	a thick liquid food that is made from milk (*In British English, use* **yoghurt**)

EXAMPLES

Jordi spread some butter on a roll.

We had apple pie and custard for dessert.

Break the eggs into a bowl.

BREAD, CAKES, AND BISCUITS

biscuit *(BRIT)*		*see* **cookie**
bread	[brɛ̱d]	a food made mostly from flour and water and baked in an oven; *a slice of bread*
cake	[ke̱ɪk]	a sweet food that you make from flour, eggs, sugar, and butter; *a birthday cake*
cookie	[kʊ̱ki]	a type of hard, dry cake that is usually sweet and round in shape; *a chocolate biscuit* (*In British English, use* **biscuit**)
loaf	[lo̱ʊ̱f]	bread that has been shaped and baked in one large piece; *a loaf of bread*
pancake	[pæ̱nkeɪk]	a thin, round food made from milk, flour, and eggs, cooked in a frying pan
roll	[ro̱ʊ̱l]	bread in a small round or long shape
sandwich	[sæ̱nwɪtʃ, sæ̱nd-]	two slices of bread with another food such as cheese or meat between them; *a cheese sandwich*; *a*

		toasted sandwich
toast	[tou̯st]	slices of bread that you have heated until they are hard and brown; *slices of toast*

OTHER FOOD

candy	[kæ̱ndi]	small pieces of sweet food such as chocolates (*In British English, use* **sweets**)
cereal	[sɪə̱riəl]	**1** a food made from grain, that people eat with milk for breakfast; *a bowl of cereal* **2** a plant that produces grain for food; *cereal grains such as corn and wheat*
chips		**1** very thin slices of potato that have been cooked in oil and are eaten as a snack; *a bag of potato chips* (*In British English, use* **crisps**) **2** *(BRIT) see* **fries**

EXAMPLES

Patricia put two pieces of bread on a plate and buttered them.

I blew out the candles and Mom sliced the cake.

Raul ate a piece of chocolate cake.
He spread some butter on a roll.
Eat more fruit and vegetables and less candy.

chocolate	[tʃɔ̱kəlɪt, tʃɔ̱klɪt]	**1** a brown food eaten as a sweet; *a bar of chocolate* **2** a small sweet covered with chocolate; *a box of chocolates*
crisps *(BRIT)*		*see* **chips**
curry	[kɜ̱ri]	a dish, originally from Asia, that is cooked with hot spices; *vegetable curry*
dish	[di̱ʃ]	food that is prepared in a particular way; *a chicken dish*
fast food	[fæ̱st fu̱d]	hot food, such as hamburgers, that is served quickly after you order it; *a fast food restaurant*
flour	[flau̱ər]	a fine powder that is used for making bread, cakes, and pastry; *wholemeal flour*
fries	[frai̱z]	long thin pieces of potato, cooked in oil and eaten hot; *a burger and fries* (*In British English, use* **chips**)
honey	[hʌ̱ni]	a sweet, sticky food that is made

		by bees (= black-and-yellow insects); *a jar of honey*
jam	[dʒæm]	a sweet food containing soft fruit and sugar, that is usually spread on bread; *strawberry jam*
jello	[dʒɛloʊ]	a soft sweet food made from fruit juice and sugar that moves from side to side when you touch it; *jello and ice cream* (*In British English, use* **jelly**)
jelly	[dʒɛli]	**1** same as **jam**; *raspberry jelly* **2** *(BRIT) see* **jello**
lasagna	[ləʒɑnyə]	a dish that consists of layers of pasta, sauce, and a filling such as meat or cheese, baked in an oven (*In British English, use* **lasagne**)
lasagne *(BRIT)*		*see* **lasagna**

EXAMPLES

Let's eat curry tonight.

My favorite dish is lasagna.

noodles	[nudəlz]	long, thin strips of pasta, used

		especially in Chinese and Italian cooking; *a bowl of noodles*
oil	[ɔɪl]	a smooth, thick liquid made from plants, that is often used for cooking; *vegetable oil*
pasta	[pɑstə]	a type of food made from a mixture of flour, eggs, and water that is made into different shapes and then boiled
pastry	[peɪstri]	a food made from flour, fat, and water that is often used for making pies
pâté	[pɑteɪ]	a mixture of meat, fish, or vegetables that is mixed into a paste and eaten cold; *liver pâté*
pepper	[pɛpər]	a brown or black spice with a hot taste that you put on food; *salt and pepper*
pie	[paɪ]	a dish consisting of fruit with a pastry crust
pizza	[pitsə]	a flat, round piece of bread that is covered with tomatoes, cheese, and sometimes other foods, and then baked in an oven

rice	[raɪs]	white or brown grains from a plant that grows in warm, wet areas; *plain boiled rice*
salad	[sæləd]	a mixture of foods, especially vegetables, that you usually serve cold; *a green salad*; *a mixed salad*
salt	[sɔlt]	a white substance that you use to improve the flavor of food
sauce	[sɔs]	a thick liquid that you eat with other food; *pasta sauce*
snack	[snæk]	a simple meal that is quick to prepare and eat; *have a snack*
soup	[sup]	a liquid food made by boiling meat, fish, or vegetables in water; *home-made soup*
spaghetti	[spəgɛti]	a type of pasta that looks like long pieces of string

EXAMPLES

The pasta is cooked in a garlic and tomato sauce.

Bruno ordered a thin-crust pizza.

The children have a snack when they come home from school.

stew	[stu]	a meal that you make by cooking

		meat and vegetables slowly in liquid
sugar	[ʃʊ̱gər]	a sweet substance used for making food and drinks taste sweet; *a spoonful of sugar*
sweets *(BRIT)*		*see* **candy**
vinegar	[vɪ̱nɪgər]	a sour, sharp-tasting liquid that is used in cooking

DRINKS

alcoholic drink	[æ̱lkəhɔ̱lɪk drɪ̱ŋk]	a drink that contains alcohol
beer	[bɪə̱r]	an alcoholic drink made from grain
cider	[sa̱ɪdər]	an alcoholic drink made from apples
coffee	[kɔ̱fi]	a drink made from boiling water and the beans of the coffee plant, made into a powder; *strong coffee*; *Two coffees, please.*
hot chocolate	[hɒ̱t tʃɔ̱kəlɪt, tʃɔ̱klɪt]	a drink made by mixing chocolate powder with milk or water
ice cube	[a̱ɪs kyub]	a small block of ice that you put

		into a drink to make it cold
juice	[dʒus]	the liquid that comes from a fruit or a vegetable; *orange/apple/lemon/fruit juice*
lemonade	[lɛmənedɪd]	a drink that is made from lemons, sugar, and water
milk	[mɪlk]	the white liquid that cows and some other animals produce, which people drink
mineral water	[mɪnərəl wɔtər]	water that comes out of the ground naturally and is considered healthy to drink
soft drink	[sɔft drɪŋk]	a cold non-alcoholic drink such as ginger ale
tap water	[tæp wɔtər]	the water that comes out of a tap in a building such as a house or a hotel

EXAMPLES

She gave him a bowl of beef stew.

Do you take sugar in your coffee?

We ordered a couple of beers and asked for the menu.

tea	[ti]	a drink that you make by pouring

		boiling water on the dry leaves of a plant called the tea bush; *a pot of tea*
whisky	[wɪ̲ski]	a strong alcoholic drink made from grain
wine	[wa̲ɪn]	an alcoholic drink made from grapes (= small green or purple fruit); *red/white wine*; *a glass of wine*

ITEMS USED FOR EATING, DRINKING, AND SERVING MEALS

bottle	[bɒ̲tᵊl]	a glass or plastic container in which drinks and other liquids are kept
bowl	[bo̲ʊ̲l]	a round container that is used for mixing and serving food
chopsticks	[tʃɒ̲pstɪks]	a pair of thin sticks that people in East Asia use for eating food
cup	[kʌ̲p]	a small round container that you drink from; *a cup of coffee*
dish	[dɪ̲ʃ]	a shallow container for cooking or serving food; *a serving dish*; *a dish of hot vegetables*
fork	[fɔ̲rk]	a tool with long metal points, used

		for eating food; *knives and forks*
glass	[glæs]	a container made from glass, which you can drink from
jug	[dʒʌg]	a container with a handle, used for holding and pouring liquids; *a milk jug*
knife (PL) **knives**	[naɪf] [naɪvz]	a sharp flat piece of metal with a handle, used for cutting things; *a sharp/blunt knife*
mug	[mʌg]	a deep cup with straight sides; *a mug of coffee*
napkin	[næpkɪn]	a square of cloth or paper that you use when you are eating to protect your clothes, or to wipe your mouth or hands
plate	[pleɪt]	a flat dish that is used for holding food; *a plate of sandwiches*
saucer	[sɔsər]	a small curved plate that you put under a cup

EXAMPLES

Put the soup in a bowl.

spoon	[spu̱n]	a long object with a round end that is used for eating, serving or mixing food; *a serving spoon*
straw	[strɔ̱]	a thin tube that you use to suck a drink into your mouth
teapot	[ti̱pɒt]	a container that is used for making and serving tea
teaspoon	[ti̱spun]	a small spoon that you use for putting sugar into tea or coffee

CAFÉS AND RESTAURANTS

à la carte	[ɑ̱ lə kɑ̱rt]	an à la carte menu in a restaurant is a list of dishes that each have a different price
bar	[bɑ̱r]	a place where you can buy and drink alcoholic drinks
bill *(BRIT)*		*see* **check**
café	[kæfe̱ɪ]	a place where you can buy drinks and small meals
check	[tʃɛ̱k]	a document that shows how much money you must pay for something (*In British English, use* **bill**)

chef	[ʃɛ̱f]	a person who prepares and cooks food in a restaurant
menu	[mɛ̱nyu]	a list of the food and drink that you can have in a restaurant
order	[ɔ̱rdər]	the food or drink that you ask for in a bar, café or restaurant
restaurant	[rɛ̱stərənt, -tərɑnt, -trɑnt]	a place where you can buy and eat a meal
service	[sɜrvɪs]	the help that people in a restaurant or a shop give you; *give/get good/poor service*

EXAMPLES

Maisie was drinking juice with a straw.

Can we have the check please?

tip	[tɪ̱p]	money that you give to a waiter or waitress to thank them for a job they have done for you
waiter	[we̱ɪtər]	a man whose job is to serve food in a restaurant
waitress	[we̱ɪtrɪs]	a woman whose job is to serve food in a restaurant

wine list	[waɪn lɪst]	a menu of wines that are available in a restaurant

EXPERIENCING FOOD

flavor	[fleɪvər]	the taste of a food or drink (*In British English, use* **flavour**)
flavour *(BRIT)*		*see* **flavor**
hunger	[hʌŋgər]	the feeling that you get when you need something to eat
smell	[smɛl]	the quality of something that you notice when you breathe in through your nose; *a lovely smell*
taste	[teɪst]	**1** the particular quality that something has when you put it in your mouth, for example whether it is sweet or salty; *the taste of chocolate*; *a horrible taste* **2** a small amount of food or drink that you try in order to see what the flavor is like; *Have a taste of this.*
thirst	[θɜrst]	the feeling that you get when you want to drink something

MEALS AND PARTS OF MEALS

appetizer	[æpɪtaɪzər]	a small amount of food that you eat as the first part of a meal
breakfast	[brɛkfəst]	the first meal of the day; *have breakfast*

EXAMPLES

I gave the waiter a tip.

The waitress brought our food and said, “Enjoy your meal!”

I added some pepper for extra flavor.

There was a horrible smell in the fridge.

I just love the smell of freshly baked bread.

course	[kɔrs]	one part of a meal; *a three-course meal*
dessert	[dɪzɜrt]	something sweet that you eat at the end of a meal
dinner	[dɪnər]	the main meal of the day, usually served in the evening; *have dinner*; *invite someone for dinner*
lunch	[lʌntʃ]	the meal that you have in the middle of the day; *have lunch*
main course	[meɪn kɔrs]	the most important course of a meal
meal	[mil]	**1** an occasion when people sit

		down and eat **2** the food that you eat during a meal
starter	[stɑ̱rtər]	same as **appetizer**
VERBS		
drink	[drɪ̱ŋk]	**1** to take liquid into your mouth and swallow it; *drink some water* **2** to drink alcohol; *I don't drink.*
eat	[i̱t]	to put something into your mouth and swallow it
order	[ɔ̱rdər]	to ask for food or drink in a bar, café or restaurant
serve	[sɜ̱rv]	to give people food and drinks in a restaurant or bar; *A waiter served us.*
smell	[smɛ̱l]	**1** to have a quality that you notice by breathing in through your nose; *That cake smells delicious.* **2** to notice something when you breathe in through your nose; *I can smell garlic.*
swallow	[swɒ̱loʊ]	to make something go from your mouth down into your stomach

EXAMPLES

The meal consisted of chicken, rice, and vegetables.

Noah served me coffee and chocolate cake.

That smells good!

Polly took a bite of the apple and swallowed it.

taste	[teɪst]	**1** to have a particular flavor; *It tastes of lemons.* **2** to eat or drink a small amount of food or drink in order to see what the flavor is like; *Taste the soup.* **3** to be aware of the flavor of something that you are eating or drinking; *Can you taste the garlic?*

ADJECTIVES

bad	[bæd]	food that is bad tastes and smells unpleasant because it is no longer fresh enough to be eaten; *gone bad*
canned	[kænd]	canned food lasts a long time because it is in a strong metal container (called a can); *canned tomatoes* (*In British English, use* **tinned**)

carbonated	[kɑrbəneɪtɪd]	carbonated drinks contain small bubbles (*In British English, use* **fizzy**)
delicious	[dɪlɪʃəs]	very good to eat
disgusting	[dɪsgʌstɪŋ]	extremely unpleasant
fizzy *(BRIT)*		*see* **carbonated**
fresh	[frɛʃ]	picked or prepared recently; *fresh vegetables*
frozen	[froʊzᵊn]	used for describing food that has been stored at a very low temperature; *frozen vegetables*
hungry	[hʌŋgri]	wanting to eat
juicy	[dʒusi]	containing a lot of juice in a pleasant way
off *(BRIT)*		*see* **bad**
organic	[ɔrgænɪk]	grown without using chemicals
raw	[rɔ]	not cooked; *raw fish*

EXAMPLES

The water tasted of metal.

Don't add salt until you've tasted the food.

The pizza tastes delicious.

salty	[sɔ̲lti]	containing salt or tasting of salt
savory	[se̲ɪvəri]	having a salty flavor rather than a sweet one (*In British English, use* **savoury**)
savoury *(BRIT)*		*see* **savory**
sour	[sa̲ʊ̲ər]	**1** with a sharp taste like the taste of a lemon **2** tasting bad; not fresh; *sour milk*
stale	[ste̲ɪ̲l]	no longer fresh; *stale bread*
sweet	[swi̲t]	containing a lot of sugar
thirsty	[θɜ̲rsti]	wanting to drink something
tinned *(BRIT)*		*see* **canned**

PHRASES

Can I take your order?	used by a waiter to ask what you would like to eat
Cheers!	you say "Cheers!" to each other as you lift up your glasses to drink
Enjoy your meal!	you say "Enjoy your meal!" to someone just before they begin to eat
Is everything all right?	used by a waiter to ask if you are

enjoying your food

friends and family

NOUNS

acquaintance	[əkweɪntəns]	someone you have met, but that you don't know well
adult	[ədʌlt]	a fully grown person or animal
aunt	[ænt, ɑnt]	the sister of your mother or father, or the wife of your uncle
auntie	[ænti, ɑnti]	[INFORMAL] aunt
baby	[beɪbi]	a very young child
baby boy	[beɪbi bɔɪ]	a very young boy
baby girl	[beɪbi gɜrl]	a very young girl
bachelor	[bætʃələr]	a man who has never married
boy	[bɔɪ]	a male child
boyfriend	[bɔɪfrɛnd]	a man or a boy that someone is having a romantic relationship with
brother	[brʌðər]	a boy or a man who has the same parents as you
brother-in-law	[brʌðər ɪn lɔ]	the brother of your husband or

		wife, or the man who is married to your sister.
(PL) **brothers-in-law**	[brʌðrz ɪn lɔ]	
child	[tʃaɪld]	a young boy or girl, someone's son or daughter
(PL) **children**	[tʃɪldrən]	
Christian name	[krɪstʃən neɪm]	same as **first name**
couple	[kʌpᵊl]	two people who are married or having a romantic relationship
cousin	[kʌzᵊn]	the child of your uncle or your aunt
dad	[dæd]	[INFORMAL] **1** father; *This is my dad.* **2** a word you use when you are talking to your father; *Hi, Dad!*
daughter	[dɔtər]	a person's female child

EXAMPLES

He was just a casual acquaintance.

I'm going to stay with my auntie for the holidays.

Hannah is going to have a baby.

Congratulations on the birth of your baby boy!

Do you have any brothers or sisters?

I have one brother and one sister.

daughter-in-law	[dɔ̱tər ɪn lɔ]	the wife of your son
(PL) **daughters-in-law**	[dɔ̱tərz ɪn lɔ]	
family	[fæ̱mɪli,	a group of people who are related to each
	fæ̱mli]	other, usually parents and their children
father	[fɑ̱ðər]	your male parent
father-in-law	[fɑ̱ðər ɪn lɔ]	the father of your husband or wife
(PL) **fathers-in-law**	[fɑ̱ðərz ɪn lɔ]	
fiancé	[fi̱ɑnse̱ɪ, fiɑ̱nse̱ɪ]	the man that a woman is going to marry
fiancée	[fi̱ɑnse̱ɪ, fiɑ̱nse̱ɪ]	the woman that a man is going to marry
first name	[fɜ̱rst ne̱ɪm]	the name that you were given when you were born
friend	[frɛ̱nd]	someone who you like and know well
girl	[gɜ̱rl]	a female child
girlfriend	[gɜ̱rlfrɛnd]	a girl or woman who someone is having a romantic relationship

		with
grandchild	[grǣntʃaɪld]	the child of your son or daughter
(PL) **grandchildren**	[grǣntʃɪldrən]	
granddaughter	[grǣndɔtər]	the daughter of your son or daughter
grandfather	[grǣnfɑðər]	the father of your father or mother
grandma	[grǣnmɑ]	[INFORMAL] **1** grandmother; *My grandma lives with us.* **2** a word you use when you are talking to your grandmother; *Look, Grandma!*
grandmother	[grǣnmʌðər]	the mother of your father or mother
grandpa	[grǣnpɑ]	[INFORMAL] **1** grandfather; *My grandpa is nearly 70.* **2** a word you use when you are talking to your grandfather; *Hello, Grandpa!*

EXAMPLES

May I introduce my fiancée, Cheryl Ferguson?

How many grandchildren have you got?

I visit my grandma every weekend.

My grandmother is dead.

grandparents	[grǣnd-pɛrənts, -pær-]	the parents of your mother or father
grandson	[grǣnsʌn]	the son of your son or daughter
grown-up	[groʊn ʌp]	a child's word for an adult
husband	[hʌzbənd]	the man that a woman is married to
last name	[lǣst neɪm]	the name that you share with other members of your family
maiden name	[meɪdᵊn neɪm]	a woman's surname before she married
mom	[mɒm]	[INFORMAL] **1** mother; *This is my mom.* **2** a word you use when you are talking to your mother; *Can I go out, Mom?* (*In British English, use* **mum**)
mother	[mʌðər]	your female parent
mother-in-law	[mʌðər ɪn lɔ]	the mother of your husband or wife
(PL) **mothers-in-law**	[mʌðərz ɪn lɔ]	
mum *(BRIT)*		*see* **mom**

name	[neɪm]	the word or words that you use to talk to a particular person, or to talk about them
neighbor	[neɪbər]	someone who lives near you (*In British English, use* **neighbour**)
neighbour *(BRIT)*		*see* **neighbor**
nephew	[nɛfyu]	the son of your sister or brother
nickname	[nɪkneɪm]	an informal name that people use for a particular person
niece	[nis]	the daughter of your sister or brother
old-age	[oʊld eɪdʒ]	the period of years towards the end of your life
only child (PL) **only**	[oʊnli tʃaɪld]	a child who does not have any brothers or sisters
children	[oʊnli tʃɪldrən]	

EXAMPLES

"What is your last name?" — "Smith."

"What is your name?" — "Daniela."

His name is Paolo.

I am an only child.

orphan	[ɔ̱rfən]	a child whose parents are dead
parents	[pɛ̱ərənts, pæ̱r-]	your mother and father
relative	[rɛ̱lətɪv]	a member of your family
single man	[sɪ̱ŋgəl mæ̱n]	a man who is not married
(PL) **single men**	[sɪ̱ŋgəl mɛ̱n]	
single parent	[sɪ̱ŋgəl pɛ̱ərənt, pæ̱r-]	someone who looks after their children alone, because the other parent does not live with them
single woman	[sɪ̱ŋgəl	a woman who is not married
(PL) **single**	wʊ̱mən]	
women	[sɪ̱ŋgəl wɪmɪn]	
sister	[sɪ̱stər]	a girl or woman who has the same parents as you
sister-in-law	[sɪ̱stər ɪn lɔ]	the sister of your husband or wife, or the
(PL) **sisters-in-law**	[sɪ̱stərz ɪn lɔ]	woman who is married to your brother
son	[sʌ̱n]	your male child
son-in-law	[sʌ̱n ɪn lɔ]	the husband of your daughter
(PL) **sons-in-law**	[sʌ̱nz ɪn lɔ]	
stepbrother	[stɛ̱pbrʌðər]	the son of your stepfather or

		stepmother
stepdaughter	[stɛ̱pdɔtər]	a daughter who was born to your husband or wife during a previous relationship
stepfather	[stɛ̱pfɑðər]	the man who has married someone's mother but who is not their father
stepmother	[stɛ̱pmʌðər]	the woman who has married someone's father but who is not their mother
stepsister	[stɛ̱psɪstər]	the daughter of your stepfather or stepmother
stepson	[stɛ̱psʌn]	a son who was born to your husband or wife during a previous relationship
surname	[sɜ̱rneɪm]	same as **last name**

EXAMPLES

I get along with my parents.

I don't have any brothers or sisters.

My older sister is at college.

I have three stepsisters.

teenager	[tɪ̱neɪ̱dʒər]	someone who is between thirteen

		and nineteen years old
triplets	[trɪplɪts]	three children who were born at the same time to the same mother
twins	[twɪnz]	two children who were born at the same time to the same mother
uncle	[ʌŋkᵊl]	the brother of your mother or father, or the husband of your aunt
widow	[wɪdoʊ]	a woman whose husband has died
widower	[wɪdoʊər]	a man whose wife has died
wife	[waɪf]	the woman a man is married to
(PL) **wives**	[waɪvz]	

VERBS

adopt	[ədɒpt]	to take someone else's child into your own family and make them legally your son or daughter; *adopt a child*
be born		when a baby is born, it comes out of its mother's body at the beginning of its life
break up		**1** if two people break up, their relationship ends; *Marianne and*

		Pierre broke up last year. **2** if a marriage or relationship breaks up, it ends; *Their marriage broke up.* **3** if you break up with your boyfriend, girlfriend, husband, or wife, your relationship with that person ends; *I've broken up with Jamie.*
die	[daɪ]	to stop living
divorce	[dɪvɔ̱rs]	if one person divorces another, their marriage is legally ended

EXAMPLES

My father is a widower.

I was born in 1990.

She died in 1995.

fall out		**1** if two people fall out, they have an argument; *We fell out.* **2** if you fall out with someone, you have an argument and stop being friendly with them; *Chris fell out with Mike.*
foster	[fɔ̱stər]	to take a child into your family for

		a period of time, without becoming its legal parent; *foster a child*
get divorced		if a man and woman get divorced, their marriage is legally ended
get married		**1** when two people get married they become husband and wife in a special ceremony; *John and Linda got married.* **2** when you get married to someone, you become their husband or wife in a special ceremony; *John got married to Linda.*
live	[lɪv]	to stay alive until you are a particular age; *live to the age of 94*
marry	[mæri]	to legally become someone's husband or wife in a special ceremony
give birth		when a woman gives birth, she produces a baby from her body
go out with someone		to have a romantic or sexual relationship with someone
grow up		to gradually change from a child

		into an adult
make friends		**1** when two people make friends, they begin a friendship **2** when you make friends with someone, you begin a friendship with them
make up		to become friends again after an argument
split up		same as **break up**

EXAMPLES

I fell out with my girlfriend last week, but we've made up now.

She married David Nichols in 2008.

"Are you going out with John?" — "No; we're just good friends."

I grew up in France.

I just split up with my boyfriend.

ADJECTIVES

dead	[dɛd]	not alive
divorced	[dɪvɔrst]	no longer legally married to your former husband or wife
engaged	[ɪngeɪdʒd]	if two people are engaged, they have agreed to marry each other
grown-up	[groʊn ʌp]	mature, and no longer dependent

		on your parents or another adult
married	[mæ̱rid]	having a husband or wife
pregnant	[prɛ̱gnənt]	having a baby or babies developing in your body
separated	[sɛ̱pəreɪtɪd]	living apart from your husband or wife, but not divorced
single	[sɪ̱ŋgəl]	not married

IDIOMS

go back a long way	if two people go back a long way, they have known each other for a long time
just good friends	used to say that two people are not having a romantic relationship
your nearest and dearest	your close relatives and friends
something runs in the family	used to say that a characteristic or medical condition is often found in members of a particular family
you would not give someone the time of day	used to say that you do not like someone at all

EXAMPLES

My parents are divorced.

Singing runs in the family.

fruit, nuts, and vegetables

NOUNS

FRUIT

apple	[æpəl]	a firm round fruit with green, red, or yellow skin; *apple pie*; *cooking apples*
apricot	[eɪprɪkɒt]	a small, soft, round fruit with yellow flesh and a large seed inside; *apricot jam*
avocado	[ævəkɑdoʊ]	a fruit that does not taste sweet, with dark green skin and a large seed in the middle
banana	[bənænə]	a long curved fruit with yellow skin; *a bunch of bananas*
berry	[bɛri]	a small, round fruit that grows on a bush or a tree
cherry	[tʃɛri]	a small, round fruit with red skin
coconut	[koʊkənʌt]	**1** a very large nut with a hairy shell and white flesh **2** the white flesh of a coconut

date	[deɪt]	a small, dark-brown, sticky fruit with a stone inside
fig	[fɪg]	a soft sweet fruit full of tiny seeds
fruit	[frut]	the part of a plant that contains seeds, covered with a substance that you can often eat; *a piece of fruit*; *fresh fruit and vegetables*
grapefruit (PL) **grapefruit,** grapefruits	[greɪpfrut]	a large, round, yellow fruit that has a slightly sour taste
grapes	[greɪpʃ]	small green or purple fruits that grow in bunches and are used to make wine; *a bunch of grapes*
lemon	[lɛmən]	a yellow fruit with a very sour taste
mango	[mæŋgoʊ]	a large, sweet, yellow or red fruit that grows on trees in hot countries; *a mango smoothie*

EXAMPLES

I always have a piece of fruit in my lunchbox.

He squeezed the lemon over his fish.

I like a slice of lemon in my tea.

melon	[mɛlən]	a large fruit with soft, sweet flesh and a hard green or yellow skin
nectarine	[nɛktərin]	a red and yellow fruit with a smooth skin
orange	[ɔrɪndʒ]	a round, juicy fruit with a thick, orange-colored skin
peach	[pɪtʃ]	a round fruit with a soft red and orange skin
pear	[pɛər]	a juicy fruit that is narrow at the top and wider at the bottom. Pears have white flesh and green, yellow, or brown skin.
peel	[pil]	the skin of a fruit such as a lemon or an apple, especially when it has been removed
pineapple	[paɪnæpəl]	a large fruit with sweet, yellow flesh and thick, rough, brown skin
pip *(BRIT)*		*see* **seed**
pit	[pɪt]	the large hard seed in the middle of a fruit such as a plum or a cherry; *a cherry pit* (*In British English, use* **stone**)
plum	[plʌm]	a small, sweet fruit with a smooth

		purple, red, or yellow skin and a large seed in the middle
raisin	[reɪzᵊn]	a dried grape
raspberry	[ræzbɛri]	a small, soft, red fruit that grows on bushes; *raspberry jam*
rhubarb	[rubɑrb]	a plant with large leaves and long red stems that are cooked with sugar to make jam or desserts
seed	[sid]	one of the small, hard pieces in a fruit such as an apple or an orange (*In British English, use* **pip**)
skin	[skɪn]	the outer part that covers a fruit
stone *(BRIT)*		*see* **pit**
strawberry	[strɔbɛri]	a small soft red fruit that has a lot of very small seeds on its skin; *strawberries and cream*

EXAMPLES

I'd like a pound of oranges, please.

It was a very sweet and juicy pear.

Can I have half a kilo of plums, please?

tomato	[təmeɪtoʊ]	a soft red fruit that you can eat raw in salads or cook like a

		vegetable; *sliced/chopped tomatoes*; *sun-dried tomatoes*; *tomato sauce/soup/juice*; *tomato puree/paste*

NUTS

brazil nut	[brəzɪ̱l nʌt]	a curved nut with a hard dark-brown shell with three sides
cashew nut	[kæ̱ʃu nʌt, kæʃu̱]	a small curved nut that is often eaten salted
chestnut	[tʃɛ̱snʌt, -nət]	a reddish-brown nut with a shell that has points on it; *roasted chestnuts*
hazelnut	[heɪ̱zəlnʌt]	a round nut with a hard shell
peanut	[pi̱nʌt, -nət]	a small round nut often eaten roasted and salted; *a packet of salted peanuts*
walnut	[wɔ̱lnʌt, -nət]	a nut that is hard and round, with a rough texture

VEGETABLES

aubergine *(BRIT)*		*see* **eggplant**

beans	[bi̲ns]	seeds or seed cases of a climbing plant, that are usually cooked before eating; *baked beans*; *green beans*; *broad beans*; *soy beans*
beet	[bi̲t]	a dark red root, eaten as a vegetable and in salads; *pickled beet* (*In British English, use* **beetroot**)
beetroot *(BRIT)*		*see* **beet**
broccoli	[br̲ɒkəli]	a vegetable with thick green stems and small green flowers on top
cabbage	[kæ̲bɪdʒ]	a round vegetable with white, green, or purple leaves; *red cabbage*; *spring cabbages*
carrot	[kæ̲rət]	a long, thin, orange-colored vegetable; *grated carrot*; *raw carrot*; *carrot cake*
cauliflower	[kɔ̲liflaʊər]	a large, round, white vegetable surrounded by green leaves; *steamed cauliflower*

EXAMPLES

Add the fruit and sprinkle with the chopped hazelnuts.

celery	[sɛ̱ləri]	a vegetable with long, pale-green sticks that you can cook or eat raw; *a stick of celery*; *celery sticks/stalks*
corn	[kɔ̱rn]	a long round vegetable covered in small yellow seeds. The seeds are also called corn. (*In British English, use* **sweetcorn**)
courgette *(BRIT)*		*see* **zucchini**
cucumber	[kyu̱kʌmbər]	a long dark-green vegetable that you eat raw; *sliced cucumber*; *tomatoes and cucumber*; *cucumber sandwiches*
eggplant	[ɛ̱gplænt]	a vegetable with a smooth, dark purple skin (*In British English, use* **aubergine**)
garlic	[gɑ̱rlɪk]	a plant like a small onion with a strong flavor, that you use in cooking; *garlic bread*; *chopped/crushed garlic*
herb	[ɜ̱rb]	a plant whose leaves are used in cooking to add flavor to food; *dried/fresh herbs*; *mixed herbs*

leek	[lik]	a long, thin vegetable that is white at one end and has long green leaves
lentils	[lɛntɪlz, -tᵊlz]	round flat seeds that are dried and then soaked and cooked before eating; *red/green lentils*; *lentil soup*
lettuce	[lɛtɪs]	a plant with large green leaves that is eaten mainly in salads; *lettuce leaves*
mushroom	[mʌʃrum]	a plant with a short stem and a round top that you can eat; *sliced mushrooms*; *wild mushrooms*; *button mushrooms*
olive	[ɒlɪv]	a small green or black fruit with a bitter taste; *olive oil*; *green/black olives*
onion	[ʌnyən]	a round vegetable with many layers, that has a strong, sharp smell and taste; *sliced/chopped onion*; *fried onion*; *red onions*; *pickled onions*

EXAMPLES

When the oil is hot, add the garlic.

Fry the mushrooms in a little olive oil and add the chopped herbs.

parsley	[pɑ̱rsli]	a herb with small green leaves that you use in cooking; *chopped parsley*
peas	[pi̱z]	very small round green seeds that grow in long narrow cases (called pods) and are cooked and eaten as a vegetable; *frozen green peas*
pepper	[pɛ̱pər]	a hollow green, red, or yellow vegetable with seeds inside it; *chopped/roasted peppers*; *sweet/chili peppers*
potato	[pəte̱ɪtoʊ]	a hard, round, white vegetable with brown or red skin, that grows under the ground; *roast potatoes*; *baked/jacket potatoes*; *mashed/boiled/fried potatoes*
pumpkin	[pʌ̱mpkɪn]	a large, round, orange vegetable with a thick skin; *pumpkin seeds*; *pumpkin pie*; *pumpkin soup*
spinach	[spi̱nɪtʃ]	a vegetable with large dark green leaves
squash	[skwɒ̱ʃ]	a large vegetable with thick skin and hard flesh
sweetcorn		*see* **corn**

(BRIT)

turnip	[tɜ̱rnɪp]	a round white vegetable that grows under the ground
vegetable	[vɛ̱dʒtəbəl, vɛ̱dʒɪ-]	a plant that you can cook and eat; *roasted vegetables*; *fruit and vegetables*; *vegetable oil*
zucchini	[zukɪ̱ni]	a long, thin vegetable with a dark green skin (*In British English, use* **courgette**)

ADJECTIVES

ripe	[raɪ̱p]	used for describing fruit that is ready to eat
vegetarian	[vɛ̱dʒɪtɛ̱ə̱riən]	not containing meat or fish; *a vegetarian diet/dish/meal*

EXAMPLES

Thinly slice two red or green peppers.

Choose firm but ripe fruit.

health

NOUNS

accident	[æksɪdənt]	an occasion when something bad happens to a person by chance, causing injury or death
ache	[eɪk]	a steady pain in a part of your body
AIDS	[eɪdz]	a disease that destroys the body's ability to fight other diseases
ambulance	[æmbyələns]	a vehicle for taking people to the hospital; *call an ambulance*
appointment	[əpɔɪntmənt]	an arrangement to see someone such as a doctor at a particular time
aspirin	[æspərɪn-prɪn]	a mild drug that reduces pain; *take an aspirin*
bandage	[bændɪdʒ]	a long piece of cloth that is wrapped around an injured part of your body to protect or support it
Band-aid	[bænd eɪd]	a piece of sticky material used for covering small cuts on your body

		(*In British English, use* **plaster**)
bruise	[bru̲z]	a purple mark that appears on a part of your body when you injure it
cancer	[kæ̲nsər]	a serious disease that makes groups of cells in the body grow when they should not
chickenpox	[tʃɪ̲kɪnpɒks]	a disease that gives you a high temperature and red spots that itch
cold	[koʊ̲ld]	an illness that makes liquid flow from your nose, and makes you cough
condom	[kɒ̲ndəm]	a rubber covering that a man wears on his penis during sex to stop a woman from becoming pregnant and to protect against disease; *use a condom*

EXAMPLES

The boy was injured in an accident at a swimming pool.

She made an appointment with her doctor.

How did you get that bruise on your arm?

I've got a cold.

cough	[kɔ̲f]	an illness that makes you cough
crutch	[krʌ̲tʃ]	a stick that you put under your arm to help you to walk if you have hurt your leg or your foot
dentist	[dɛ̲ntɪst]	a person whose job is to examine and treat people's teeth
the dentist's	[ðə dɛ̲ntɪsts]	the place where a dentist works
diarrhea	[daɪ̲ərɪ̲ə]	an illness that makes all the waste products come out of your body as liquid
diet	[daɪ̲ɪt]	the type of food that you regularly eat; *a balanced diet*; *a healthy diet*
doctor	[dɒ̲ktər]	a person whose job is to treat people who are sick or injured
the doctor's	[ðə dɒ̲ktərz]	the place where a doctor works
drug	[drʌ̲g]	a chemical that is used as a medicine
earache	[ɪə̲reɪk]	a pain inside your ear
ER	[i̲ ɑ̲r]	short for "emergency room": the part of a hospital where people who have severe injuries or sudden illness go for emergency treatment

first aid kit	[fɜ̱rst e̱ɪd kɪt]	a collection of bandages and medicines for giving first aid when someone has an injury
flu	[flu̱]	short for “influenza”: an illness that is like a very bad cold
germ	[dʒɜ̱rm]	a very small living thing that can cause disease or illness
headache	[hɛ̱deɪk]	a pain in your head
health	[hɛ̱lθ]	the condition of a person’s body; *in good health*; *health problems*

EXAMPLES

I’ve got a bad cough.

I can walk without crutches now.

I’m going to the dentist’s after work.

I went to the doctor’s today.

This chemical is used for killing germs.

I have a headache.

heart attack	[hɑ̱rt ətæk]	an occasion when someone’s heart begins to beat irregularly or stops completely; *have a heart attack*
hospital	[hɒ̱spɪtəl]	a place where doctors and nurses care for people who are sick or

		injured
illness	[ɪlnɪs]	**1** a particular disease or a period of bad health **2** the state of being sick
injection	[ɪndʒɛkʃᵊn]	medicine that is put into your body using a special type of needle; *have an injection*
measles	[mizᵊlz]	an illness that gives you a high fever and red spots on your skin
medicine	[mɛdɪsɪn]	**1** the treatment of illness and injuries by doctors and nurses; *a career in medicine* **2** a substance that you use to treat or cure an illness; *take medicine*
nurse	[nɜrs]	a person whose job is to care for people who are sick or injured
ointment	[ɔɪntmənt]	a smooth, thick substance that you put on sore or damaged skin
operation	[ɒpəreɪʃᵊn]	the process of cutting open a patient's body in order to remove, replace or repair a part
pain	[peɪn]	an unpleasant feeling that you have in a part of your body,

		because of illness or an injury; *chest/back pain*
patient	[peɪʃənt]	a person who receives medical treatment from a doctor
pharmacy	[fɑrməsi]	a place where you can get medicine
pill	[pɪl]	a small, solid, round piece of medicine that you swallow; *take a pill*
plaster *(BRIT)*		*see* **Band-aid**

EXAMPLES

She is recovering from a serious illness.

He was away from work because of illness.

The medicine saved his life.

Where do you feel the pain?

poison	[pɔɪzən]	a substance that harms or kills people if they swallow or touch it
pregnancy	[prɛgnənsi]	the condition of having a baby or babies developing in your body
prescription	[prɪskrɪpʃən]	a piece of paper on which a doctor writes an order for medicine
pulse	[pʌls]	the regular beat of your heart that

		you can feel when you touch your wrist
scar	[skɑr]	a mark that is left on the skin by an old wound
scratch	[skrætʃ]	a small cut made by a sharp object
sling	[slɪŋ]	a piece of cloth that you wear around your neck and arm, to hold up your arm when it is broken or injured
sore throat	[sɔr θroʊt]	a pain in your throat
splinter	[splɪntər]	a thin, sharp piece of wood or glass that has broken off from a larger piece
spoonful	[spunfʊl]	an amount of food that a spoon holds; *a spoonful of medicine*
stomachache	[stʌməkeɪk]	a pain in your stomach
stress	[strɛs]	an unpleasant feeling of worry caused by difficulties in life; *suffer from stress*
sunburn	[sʌnbɜrn]	pink sore skin caused by too much time in the sun; *suffer sunburn*
surgery	[sɜrdʒəri]	a process in which a doctor cuts open a patient's body in order to

		repair, remove or replace a diseased or damaged part; *knee surgery*; *heart surgery*

EXAMPLES

We keep a record of your weight gain during pregnancy.

Press very gently until you can feel the pulse.

She's got her arm in a sling.

I've got a sore throat.

I've got a splinter in my toe.

I have a stomachache.

It will need surgery.

tablet	[tæblɪt]	a small solid piece of medicine that you swallow; *take a sleeping tablet*
temperature	[tɛmprətʃər -tʃʊər]	how hot someone's body is
thermometer	[θərmɒmɪtər]	an instrument that measures your body's temperature
wheelchair	[wiltʃɛər]	a chair with wheels that you use if you cannot walk very well
wound	[wund]	damage to part of your body caused by a gun or something sharp like a knife; *head wounds*

X-ray	[ɛ̲ks reɪ]	**1** a process in which a picture is taken of the bones or organs inside your body; *have an X-ray* **2** a picture of the bones or organs inside your body

VERBS

be ill *(BRIT)*		*see* **be sick**
be on a diet		to eat special types of food, or eat less food than usual
be sick		to not be in good health (*In British English, use* **be ill**)
bleed	[bli̲d]	if a part of your body bleeds, you lose blood from it
break	[bre̲ɪ̲k]	to make a bone in your body separate into pieces, by hitting it or falling on it
breathe	[bri̲ð]	to take air into your lungs and let it out again
bruise	[bru̲z]	to injure a part of your body so that a purple mark appears there

EXAMPLES

The baby's temperature continued to rise.

The wound is healing well.
I was too sick to go to work.
His nose was bleeding heavily.
He's broken his arm.

burn	[bɜrn]	if you burn a part of your body, you injure it with something hot
catch a cold		to become sick with a cold
cough	[kɔf]	to suddenly force air out of your throat with a noise
cure	[kyʊər]	to make someone become well again
cut	[kʌt]	if you cut a part of your body, you injure it with something sharp, such as a knife
die	[daɪ]	to stop living
faint	[feɪnt]	to become unconscious for a short time
feel better		to feel less sick than before
feel sick		to feel unwell
get better		to recover from an illness
have a temperature		to have a body temperature that is higher than it should be

hurt	[hɜ̱rt]	to damage a part of your body, causing pain
itch	[ɪ̱tʃ]	to have an unpleasant feeling on your skin that makes you want to scratch it
look after someone		to take care of someone who is sick
lose weight		to become thinner
pass out		to become unconscious for a short time
put on weight		to become fatter
rest	[rɛ̱st]	to spend some time relaxing after doing something tiring
scratch	[skræ̱tʃ]	to rub your fingernails against the skin on a part of your body

EXAMPLES

I've burnt myself.

Dry your hair so you don't catch a cold.

I cut my finger when I was slicing vegetables.

He is feeling much better today.

The thought of food made him feel sick.

Doctors have said that he may not get better.

I fell over and hurt myself.

Ouch! That hurts!

I put on a lot of weight and my symptoms got worse.

sneeze	[sni̲ʒ]	to suddenly take in your breath and then blow it down your nose noisily, for example, because you have a cold
take someone's temperature		to use a thermometer to measure the temperature of someone's body
treat	[tri̲t]	to try to make a patient well again
twist	[twɪ̲st]	to injure a part of your body by turning it too suddenly
vomit	[vp̲mɪt]	if you vomit, food and drink comes up from your stomach and out through your mouth

ADJECTIVES

bleeding	[bli̲dɪŋ]	losing blood as a result of injury or illness; *bleeding gums*
cold	[kou̲ʊ̲ld]	feeling uncomfortable because you are not warm enough
feverish	[fɪ̲vərɪʃ]	feeling ill and very hot
fit	[fɪ̲t]	healthy and strong; *keep fit*

healthy	[hɛlθi]	**1** well, and not often sick **2** good for your health
ill	[ɪl]	not in good health
in a cast	[In ə kæst]	with a hard white cover around your leg or arm to protect a broken bone
injured	[ɪndʒərd]	if you are injured, part of your body is damaged
in plaster *(BRIT)*		*see* **in a cast**
off sick *(BRIT)*		*see* **out sick**

EXAMPLES

Doctors treated the boy for a minor head wound.

He twisted an ankle playing football.

The headache was accompanied by vomiting.

People need to exercise to be healthy.

Try to eat a healthy diet.

I had my arm in a cast for two months.

No one was seriously injured.

out sick	[aʊt sɪk]	not at work because you are unwell (*In British English, use* **off sick**)
painful	[peɪnfəl]	causing pain; *painful joints*

pregnant	[prɛ̲gnənt]	having a baby or babies developing in your body
sick	[sɪ̲k]	unwell; *a sick child*
sore	[sɔ̲r]	painful and uncomfortable
sweaty	[swɛ̲ti]	covered with sweat (= liquid that forms on your body when you are hot)
tired	[ta̲ɪə̲rd]	feeling that you want to rest or sleep
uncomfortable	[ʌ̲nkʌ̲mftəbᵊl -kʌ̲mfərtə-]	feeling slight pain or discomfort
unconscious	[ʌ̲nkɒ̲nʃəs]	not awake and not aware of what is happening around you because of illness or a serious injury
wounded	[wu̲ndɪd]	injured by an attack

IDIOMS

(as) right as rain	completely well or healthy again after an illness
off-color	slightly unwell; *feel off-color* (*In British English, use* **off-colour**)
off-colour *(BRIT)*	*see* **off-color**

under the weather	feeling slightly unwell

EXAMPLES

I sometimes feel uncomfortable after eating in the evening.

I was still feeling a bit under the weather.

hotels

NOUNS

alarm call *(BRIT)*		*see* **wake-up call**
baggage	[bæ̱gɪdʒ]	same as **luggage**
bar	[bɑ̱r]	a place where you can buy and drink alcoholic drinks; *the hotel bar*
bath *(BRIT)*		*see* **bathtub**
bathroom	[bæ̱θrum]	a room that contains a toilet
bathtub	[bæ̱θtʌb]	a long container that you fill with water and sit or lie in to wash your body (*In British English, use* **bath**)
bed and breakfast	[bɛ̱d ənd brɛ̱kfəst]	**1** a small hotel offering rooms and breakfast, but not lunch or dinner **2** if the price at a hotel includes bed and breakfast, it includes breakfast, but not lunch or dinner
bellhop	[bɛ̱lhɒp]	a person whose job is to carry people's luggage (*In British English, use* **porter**)

bill	[bɪl]	a document that shows how much money you must pay for something
breakfast	[brɛkfəst]	the first meal of the day
chambermaid	[tʃeɪmbərmeɪd]	a woman who cleans the bedrooms in a hotel
complaint	[kəmpleɪnt]	when you say that you are not satisfied; *make a complaint*
deposit	[dɪpɒzɪt]	a part of the full price of something that you pay when you agree to buy it
double room	[dʌbəl rum]	a bedroom for two people

EXAMPLES

I'd like a room with a bathtub.

Double rooms cost $180 per night for bed and breakfast.

We stayed in a small bed and breakfast by the sea.

They paid the bill and left the hotel.

What time is breakfast served?

The chambermaid came to clean the room.

No booking will be accepted unless the deposit is paid.

Would you like a single or a double room?

elevator	[ɛlɪveɪtər]	a machine that carries people or things up and down inside tall

		buildings; *take/use the lift* (*In British English, use* **lift**)
en-suite bathroom	[ɒn swit bæθrum]	a bathroom that is joined to a bedroom and can only be reached by a door in the bedroom
entrance	[ɛntrəns]	the door or gate that you use to go into a place; *the main entrance*; *the hotel entrance*
facilities	[fəsɪlɪtiz]	something such as rooms, buildings, or pieces of equipment that are used for a particular purpose
fire escape	[faɪər ɪskeɪp]	a metal staircase on the outside of a building, which can be used to escape from the building if there is a fire
floor	[flɔr]	one of the levels of a building; *the ground/first/second/third floor*
foyer	[fɔɪər, fɔɪeɪ fwɑyeɪ]	the large area inside the doors of a hotel where people meet or wait
guest	[gɛst]	someone who is staying in a hotel; *hotel guests*
guest house	[gɛst haʊs]	a small hotel; *stay in a guest house*

hotel	[hoʊtɛl]	a building where people pay to sleep and eat meals
key	[kɪ]	a specially shaped piece of metal that opens or closes a lock
key card	[ki kɑrd]	a small plastic card that you can use instead of a key to open a door in some hotels
lift *(BRIT)*		*see* **elevator**
luggage	[lʌgɪdʒ]	the bags that you take with you when you travel

EXAMPLES

Every room has an en-suite bathroom.

The hotel has excellent sports facilities.

All rooms have tea and coffee-making facilities.

Our hotel room was on the third floor.

Ali stayed the night in a small hotel near the harbor.

Do you have any luggage?

manager	[mænɪdʒər]	a person who controls all or part of a business or organization; *a hotel manager*
minibar	[mɪnibɑr]	a small fridge containing drinks in a hotel room

passport	[pæspɔrt]	an official document that you have to show when you enter or leave a country
porter *(BRIT)*		*see* **bellhop**
price	[praɪs]	the amount of money that you have to pay for something
rate	[reɪt]	the amount of money that goods or services cost
reception	[rɪsɛpʃən]	the desk in a hotel that you go to when you first arrive
receptionist	[rɪsɛpʃənɪst]	in a hotel, a person whose job is to answer the telephone and deal with guests
restaurant	[rɛstərənt, -tərɑnt, -trɑnt]	a place where you can buy and eat a meal; *the hotel restaurant*
room	[rum]	a separate area inside a building that has its own walls
room number	[rum nʌmbər]	the number given to a bedroom in a hotel
room service	[rum sɜrvɪs]	in a hotel, a service that provides meals or drinks for guests in their room; *order room service*
safe	[seɪf]	a strong metal box with a lock,

		where you keep money or other valuable things
shower	[ʃa͡ʊər]	a piece of equipment that covers you with water when you stand under it to wash yourself
single room	[sɪ͡ŋgəl ru͡m]	a room for one person

EXAMPLES

Does that price include breakfast?

The hotel offers a special weekend rate.

I checked in at reception.

I'd prefer a room overlooking the sea.

You are advised to deposit valuables in the hotel safe.

stay	[ste͡ɪ]	a period of living in a place for a short time
suitcase	[su͡tkeɪs]	a case for carrying your clothes when you are traveling
swimming pool	[swɪ͡mɪŋ pul]	a large hole filled with water that people can swim in; *the hotel swimming pool*
tip	[tɪ͡p]	money that you give someone to thank them for a job they have done for you

view	[vyu̲]	everything that you can see from a place
youth hostel	[yu̲θ hɒstəl]	a cheap place where people can stay when they are traveling
wake-up call	[we̲ɪkʌp kɔl]	a telephone call that is intended to wake you up (*In British English, use* **alarm call**)

VERBS

book	[bʊ̲k]	to arrange to stay in a hotel room
make a reservation		to make an arrangement for a room in a hotel to be kept for you
stay	[ste̲ɪ]	to live somewhere for a short time
tip	[tɪ̲p]	to give someone some money to thank them for a job they have done for you

ADJECTIVES

accessible	[æksɛ̲sɪbəl]	easy for people to reach or enter
luxury	[lʌ̲kʃəri, lʌ̲gʒə-]	comfortable, beautiful, and expensive; *a luxury hotel*

EXAMPLES

Please contact the hotel reception if you have any problems during your stay.

He handed the bellhop a tip.

From our hotel room we had a spectacular view of the sea.

Could I have a wake-up call at 5:30 tomorrow morning, please?

I'd like to book a room.

Samir made a reservation for two rooms at the hotel.

Wolfgang stayed at The Park Hotel, Milan.

Anna tipped the chambermaid.

The hotel is wheelchair accessible.

three-/four-/five- etc. star	used for talking about the quality of a hotel, which is indicated by a number of star-shaped symbols

PHRASES

"Do not disturb"	if a sign on a hotel room door says "Do not disturb," it means that the person inside does not want to be interrupted
"Vacancies"	if a sign outside a hotel says "Vacancies," it means that there are some rooms available

EXAMPLES

They own a three-star hotel.

houses and homes

NOUNS

accommodation *(BRIT)*		*see* **housing**
address	[ə'dres]	the number of the building, the name of the street, and the town or city where you live or work; *postal address*
apartment	[əpɑrtmənt]	a set of rooms for living in, usually on one floor and part of a larger building (*In British English, use* **flat**)
attic	[ætɪk]	a room at the top of a house, just under the roof
balcony	[bælkəni]	a place where you can stand or sit on the outside of a building, above the ground
basement	[beɪsmənt]	a part of a building below ground level; *a basement apartment*
bathroom	[bæθrum]	a room that contains a toilet
bedroom	[bɛdrum]	a room that is used for sleeping in

building	[bɪldɪŋ]	a structure that has a roof and walls; *an office building*
ceiling	[silɪŋ]	the top inside part of a room; *low/high ceilings*
cellar	[sɛlər]	a room under a building; *a wine cellar*
chimney	[tʃɪmni]	a pipe above a fire that lets the smoke travel up and out of the building
conservatory	[kənsɜrvətɔri]	a glass room built onto a house
cottage	[kɒtɪdʒ]	a small house, usually in the country
detached house	[dɪtætʃt haʊs]	a house that is not joined to any other building
dining room	[daɪnɪŋ rum]	the room in a house where people have their meals
door	[dɔr]	a piece of wood, glass, or metal that fills an entrance

EXAMPLES

Please give your full name and address.

"What's your address?" — "It's 24 Cherry Road, Chicago, IL 60657."

They are renting a two-bedroom apartment.

I knocked at the front door, but there was no answer.

doorbell	[dɔ̱rbɛl]	a button next to a door that makes a noise when you press it to tell the people inside that you are there
doorstep	[dɔ̱rstɛp]	a step in front of a door outside a building
driveway	[dra̱ɪvweɪ]	a small road that leads from the street to the front of a building
elevator	[ɛ̱lɪveɪtər]	a machine that carries people or things up and down inside tall buildings (*In British English, use* **lift**)
entrance	[ɛ̱ntrəns]	the door or gate where you go into a place
estate agent *(BRIT)*		*see* **realtor**
flat *(BRIT)*		*see* **apartment**
floor	[flɔ̱r]	**1** the part of a room that you walk on **2** all the rooms that are on a particular level of a building; *the ground/first/second floor*
front door	[frʌ̱nt dɔ̱r]	the main door of a house or other building, that is usually in the wall

		that faces a street
garage	[gərɑʒ]	a building where you keep a car
garden *(BRIT)*		*see* **yard**
gate	[geɪt]	a type of door that you use to enter the area around a building
hall	[hɔl]	the area inside the main door of a house that leads to other rooms
home	[hoʊm]	the house or apartment where someone lives
house	[haʊs]	a building where people live
housing	[haʊzɪŋ]	buildings or rooms where people live or stay; *rented housing* (*In British English, use* **accommodation**)
kitchen	[kɪtʃən]	a room that is used for cooking

EXAMPLES

The doorbell rang.

I went and sat on the doorstep.

There were no seats, so we sat on the floor.

The bathroom was on the second floor.

They have a lovely home in the country.

I live in a three-bedroom house.

I'm having a party at my house tomorrow night.

landing	[lǽndɪŋ]	the flat area at the top of the stairs in a house
landlady	[lǽndleɪdi]	a woman who owns a building and allows people to live there in return for rent
landlord	[lǽndlɔrd]	a man who owns a building and allows people to live there in return for rent
lift *(BRIT)*		*see* **elevator**
living room	[lɪ̄vɪŋ rum]	a room where people sit together and talk or watch television
owner	[ōʊnər]	the person that something belongs to; *property owners*
patio	[pǽtioʊ]	a flat area next to a house, where people can sit and relax or eat
porch	[pɔ̄rtʃ]	a covered area with a roof and sometimes walls at the entrance to a building
property	[prɒ̄pərti]	a building and the land around it; *buy/sell property*; *private property*
realtor	[rɪ̄əltər, -tɔr]	someone who works for a company selling houses and land (*In British English, use* **estate**

		agent)
rent	[rɛnt]	money that you pay to live in a house or apartment that is owned by someone else
roof	[ruf]	the top surface that covers a building
room	[rum]	a separate area inside a building that has its own walls
row house	[rou haʊs]	one of a row of houses that are joined together by both of their side walls (*In British English, use* **terraced house**)
semi-detached house	[sɛmidɪtætʃt sɛmaɪ-]	a house that is joined to another house on one side by a shared wall
shutters	[ʃʌtərz]	wooden or metal covers fitted on the outside of a window; *open/close the shutters*
sitting room	[sɪtɪŋ rum]	same as **living room**
spare room	[spɛər rum]	a bedroom that is kept especially for visitors to sleep in

EXAMPLES

We have meals on the patio in the summer.

She worked hard to pay the rent on the apartment.

stairs	[stɛ̱əɹʒ]	a set of steps inside a building that go from one level to another; *climb the stairs*
step	[stɛ̱p]	a raised flat surface that you put your feet on in order to walk up or down to a different level; *go up/down the steps*
storey *(BRIT)*		*see* **story**
story	[stɔ̱ri]	one of the different levels of a building; (PL) **stories** *the top story* (*In British English, use* **storey**)
study	[stʌ̱di]	a room in a house that is used for reading, writing, and studying
tenant	[tɛ̱nənt]	someone who pays money to use a house
terraced house *(BRIT)*		*see* **row house**
wall	[wɔ̱l]	one of the sides of a building or a room
window	[wɪ̱ndoʊ]	a space in the wall of a building

		that has glass in it
yard	[yɑ̱rd]	the part of the land by your house where you grow flowers and vegetables; *the front/ back yard* (*In British English, use* **garden**)

VERBS

decorate	[dɛ̱kəreɪt]	to put paint or paper on the walls of a room
live	[lɪ̱v]	to have your home in a particular place
move		to change the place where you live (*In British English, use* **move house**)
move house *(BRIT)*		*see* **move**
own	[o̱ʊ̱n]	to have something that belongs to you
rent	[rɛ̱nt]	to pay the owner of a house or apartment in order to be able to live in it yourself

EXAMPLES

Houses must not be more than two stories high.

They were decorating Claude's bedroom.

Where do you live?

When Dad got a new job, we had to move.

He owns an apartment in Paris.

She rents a house with three other women.

ADJECTIVES

downstairs	[daʊnstɛərz]	on a lower floor of a building; *a downstairs toilet*
furnished	[fɜrnɪʃt]	containing furniture; *a furnished apartment*; *elegantly furnished rooms*
homeless	[hoʊmlɪs]	having nowhere to live; *homeless people*
residential	[rɛzɪdɛnʃəl]	containing houses rather than offices or shops; *a residential area*
upstairs	[ʌpstɛərz]	on a higher floor of a building; *an upstairs window*

adverbs

at home	[æt hoʊm]	in the place where you live
downstairs	[daʊnstɛərz]	on or to a lower floor of a building
home	[hoʊm]	in or to the house or apartment where you live

next door	[nɛ̱kst dɔ̱r]	in the next room or building
upstairs	[ʌ̱pstɛ̱ə̱rz]	on or to a higher floor of a building

PHRASES

“Make yourself at home”	used for telling someone that you want them to relax and feel comfortable in your home
“There’s no place like home.”	used for saying that your home is the place where you feel happiest and most comfortable

EXAMPLES

At least 100,000 people were left homeless by the earthquake.

She wasn’t at home.

Nobody lives downstairs.

She went downstairs to the kitchen.

She wasn’t feeling well and she wanted to go home.

Hi Mom! I’m home!

Who lives next door?

The children are upstairs.

He went upstairs and changed his clothes.

in the home

NOUNS

FURNITURE

armchair	[ɑrmtʃɛər]	a big comfortable chair that supports your arms
bed	[bɛd]	a piece of furniture that you lie on when you sleep; *a double/single bed*
bookcase	[bʊkkeɪs]	a piece of furniture with shelves that you keep books on
chair	[tʃɛər]	a piece of furniture for one person to sit on, with a back and four legs
chest of drawers	[tʃɛst əv drɔrz]	a piece of furniture with drawers in which you keep clothes
cot *(BRIT)*		*see* **crib**
crib	[krɪb]	a bed for a baby; *a baby crib* (*In British English, use* **cot**)
cupboard	[kʌbərd]	a piece of furniture with doors and shelves for storing things like food or dishes; *a kitchen cupboard*

desk	[dɛ̱sk]	a table that you sit at to write or work
drawer	[drɔ̱r]	the part of a desk, for example, that you can pull out and put things in; *open/close a drawer*; *a kitchen drawer*; *a desk drawer*
fireplace	[faɪə̱rpleɪs]	the place in a room where you can light a fire
furniture	[fɜ̱rnɪtʃər]	large objects in a room such as tables, chairs, or beds; *a piece of furniture*
lampshade	[læ̱mpʃeɪd]	a covering that is fitted round an electric light bulb
mattress	[mæ̱trɪs]	the thick, soft part of a bed that you lie on
shelf	[ʃɛ̱lf]	a long flat piece of wood on a wall or in a cupboard that you can keep things on

EXAMPLES

We went to bed at about 10 p.m.

Ana was already in bed.

Francine rearranged all the furniture.

sofa	[soʊfə]	a long, comfortable seat with a back, that two or three people can sit on
stool	[stul]	a seat with legs and no support for your arms or back
table	[teɪbəl]	a piece of furniture with a flat top that you put things on; *a wooden table*; *a kitchen table*; *a dining table*
wardrobe	[wɔrdroʊb]	a cupboard where you hang your clothes

APPLIANCES

appliance	[əplaɪəns]	a machine that you use to do a job in your home; *a kitchen appliance*
computer	[kəmpyutər]	an electronic machine that can store and deal with large amounts of information; *computer software*
cooker	[kʊkər]	a piece of kitchen equipment that is used for cooking food; *an electric cooker*; *a gas cooker*
dishwasher	[dɪʃwɒʃər]	a machine that washes and dries dishes; *load/unload the dishwasher*
freezer	[frizər]	a large container used for freezing

		food
fridge	[frɪdʒ]	a large container that is used for keeping food cool and fresh
hairdryer	[hɛərdraɪr]	a machine that you use to dry your hair
heater	[hitər]	a piece of equipment that is used for making a room warm; *an electric heater*; *a gas heater*
iron	[aɪərn]	a piece of electrical equipment with a flat metal base that you heat and move over clothes to make them smooth
ironing board	[aɪərnɪŋ bɔrd]	a long board covered with cloth on which you iron clothes
kettle	[kɛtəl]	a metal container with a lid and a handle, that you use for boiling water; *put the kettle on*

EXAMPLES

He shut the dishwasher and switched it on.

James put the kettle on for a cup of tea.

lamp	[læmp]	a light that works using electricity

		or by burning oil or gas; *a bedside lamp*
microwave oven	[maɪkroʊweɪv ʌvən]	an oven that cooks food very quickly using electric waves
oven	[ʌvən]	a piece of equipment for cooking that is like a large metal box with a door
phone	[foʊn]	same as **telephone**; *The phone rang.*; *make a phone call*; *a phone number*
radio	[reɪdioʊ]	a piece of equipment that you use in order to listen to radio programs; *listen to the radio*; *a radio program*
stereo	[stɛrioʊ, stɪər-]	a machine that plays music, with two parts (= speakers) that the sound comes from
telephone	[tɛlɪfoʊn]	a piece of equipment that you use for speaking to someone who is in another place
television	[tɛlɪvɪʒən -vɪʒ-]	a piece of electrical equipment with a screen on which you watch moving pictures with sound; *a television program*; *a television show*

tumble-dryer	[tʌmbəl draɪər]	a machine that uses hot air to dry clothes
vacuum cleaner	[vækyum klinər, -yuəm]	an electric machine that sucks up dust and dirt from carpets
washing machine	[wɒʃɪŋ məʃin]	a machine that you use for washing clothes

OTHER THINGS IN THE HOME

bath *(BRIT)*		*see* **bathtub**
bathtub	[bæθtʌb]	a long container that you fill with water and sit or lie in to wash your body; *drain the bathtub* (*In British English, use* **bath**)

EXAMPLES

He switched on the lamp.

Put the potatoes in the oven for thirty minutes.

He never answers his phone.

Can I use your phone?

She's always on the phone.

What's on television tonight?

bin *(BRIT)*		*see* **garbage can**
blanket	[blæŋkɪt]	a large, thick piece of cloth that you put on a bed to keep you

		warm
blinds	[blaɪndz]	pieces of cloth or other material that you can pull down over a window to cover it; *close/open the blinds*
brush	[brʌʃ]	an object with a lot of bristles or hairs attached to it that you use for cleaning things
bucket	[bʌkɪt]	a round metal or plastic container with a handle, used for holding water; *a plastic bucket*
carpet	[kɑrpɪt]	a thick, soft covering for the floor; *a patterned carpet*
central heating	[sɛntrəl hitɪŋ]	a heating system in which water or air is heated and passed round a building through pipes and radiators; *gas central heating*
clock	[klɒk]	an object that shows you what time it is
curtain	[kɜrtᵊn]	a piece of material that hangs from the top of a window to cover it at night; *open/close the curtains*
cushion	[kʊʃᵊn]	a bag of soft material that you put on a seat to make it more

		comfortable
dish soap	[dɪʃ soʊp]	liquid soap for cleaning dirty dishes (*In British English, use* **washing-up liquid**)
dust	[dʌst]	a fine powder of dry earth or dirt
duster	[dʌstər]	a cloth that you use for removing dust from furniture
duvet	[duveɪ]	a thick warm cover for a bed
garbage can	[gɑrbɪdʒ kæn]	a container that you put trash in (*In British English, use* **bin**)

EXAMPLES

The blinds were drawn to shut out the sun.

He filled the bucket with water.

She could hear the hall clock ticking.

She closed her bedroom curtains.

I took the letter and threw it in the garbage can.

key	[ki]	a specially shaped piece of metal that opens or closes a lock; *a door key*
laundry	[lɔndri]	**1** clothes and other things that you are going to wash; *dirty laundry*

		2 clothes and other things that you have just washed; *clean laundry*
laundry liquid	[lɔ̱ndri lɪkwɪd]	liquid soap for washing laundry
light	[la̱ɪt]	something such as an electric lamp that produces light; *switch on/off the light*
light bulb	[la̱ɪt bʌlb]	the round glass part of an electric light that light shines from
lock	[lɒ̱k]	the part of a door or a container that you use to make sure that no-one can open it. You can open a lock with a key.
mirror	[mɪ̱rər]	a flat piece of special glass that you can see yourself in; *look in the mirror*; *a full-length mirror*
ornament	[ɔ̱rnəmənt]	an attractive object that you use to decorate your home
pillow	[pɪ̱loʊ]	a soft object that you rest your head on when you are in bed
plug	[plʌ̱g]	**1** the plastic object with metal pins that connects a piece of electrical equipment to the electricity supply **2** a round object that you use to

		block the hole in a bath or a sink
radiator	[reɪdieɪtər]	a metal object that is full of hot water or steam, and is used for heating a room
rubbish *(BRIT)*		*see* **trash**
rug	[rʌg]	a piece of thick cloth that you put on a small area of a floor
sheet	[ʃit]	a large piece of cloth that you sleep on or cover yourself with in bed

EXAMPLES

Fold the laundry neatly after washing and drying it.

She turned on all the lights and drew the curtains.

I turned the key in the lock.

She put the plug in and turned on the taps.

shower	[ʃaʊər]	a piece of equipment that covers you with water when you stand under it to wash yourself
sink	[sɪŋk]	a large fixed container in a kitchen or a bathroom that you can fill with water; *a kitchen sink*; *a bathroom sink*

soap	[soʊp]	a substance that you use with water for washing yourself or for washing clothes; *Wash with soap and water.*
socket	[sɒkɪt]	a small hole in a wall where you can connect electrical equipment to the power supply
switch	[swɪtʃ]	a small control for turning electricity on or off
tablecloth	[teɪbəlklɔθ]	a cloth that you use to cover a table
tap	[tæp]	an object that controls the flow of a liquid or a gas from a pipe; *turn on/off a tap*
tea towel	[ti taʊəl]	a cloth that you use to dry dishes after they have been washed
toilet	[tɔɪlɪt]	a large bowl with a seat that you use when you want to get rid of waste from your body; *go to the toilet*
toothpaste	[tuθpeɪst]	a thick substance that you put on a toothbrush and use for cleaning your teeth
toy	[tɔɪ]	an object that children play with

trash	[tr<u>æ</u>ʃ]	things you do not want any more (*In British English, use* **rubbish**)
tray	[tr<u>eɪ</u>]	a flat piece of wood, plastic, or metal that is used for carrying and serving food and drinks
vase	[v<u>eɪ</u>s, v<u>ɑ</u>z]	a container that is used for holding flowers
wallpaper	[w<u>ɔ</u>lpeɪpər]	colored or patterned paper that is used for decorating the walls of rooms
washing-up liquid *(BRIT)*		*see* **dish soap**

EXAMPLES

I turned the bathtub taps on.

VERBS

clean	[kl<u>i</u>n]	to remove the dirt from something; *clean the windows*
do housework		to do work in your home such as cleaning, washing, and ironing
do the laundry		to wash dirty clothes, towels, etc.

draw the curtains		to pull the curtains across a window in order to open or close them
dust	[dʌst]	to remove dust from furniture with a cloth
iron	[aɪərn]	to make clothes smooth using an iron; *an ironed shirt*
lock	[lɒk]	to close a door or a container with a key
plug something in		to connect a piece of electrical equipment to the electricity supply
put things away		to organize a place by putting things in their proper places (*In British English, use* **tidy things away**)
sweep	[swip]	to push dirt away from an area using a brush with a long handle; *sweep the floor*
switch something off		to stop electrical equipment from working by operating a switch
switch something on		to make electrical equipment start working by operating a switch
take a bath		to sit or lie in a bath filled with water to wash your body

take a shower		to wash yourself by standing under the water that comes from a shower

EXAMPLES

He brought soapy water and brushes to clean the floor.

Men are doing more housework nowadays.

She got out of bed and drew the curtains.

They had forgotten to lock the front door.

She plugged in the telephone.

It's time for the children to put away their toys.

She switched off the television.

He switched on the TV.

throw something in		*see* **throw something in the garbage the bin** *(BRIT)*
throw something in the garbage		to get rid of something that you do not want by putting it in the garbage (*In British English, use* **throw something in the bin**)
tidy things away *(BRIT)*		*see* **put things away**
vacuum	[vǽkyum, -yuəm]	to clean a room or a surface using a piece of electrical equipment that sucks up dirt (called a

vacuum cleaner)

industry

NOUNS

assembly line	[əsɛ̱mbli laɪn]	an arrangement of workers and machines in a factory where a product passes from one worker to another until it is finished
banking	[bæ̱ŋkɪŋ]	the business activity of banks and similar institutions
call center	[kɔ̱l sɛntər]	an office where people work answering or making telephone calls for a company
catering	[keɪ̱tərɪŋ]	the activity or business of providing food for people; *a catering business*
clothing industry	[kloʊ̱ðɪŋ ɪndəstri	an industry that makes and sells clothes
construction	[kənstrʌ̱kʃᵊn]	the business of building things such as houses, roads, and bridges
engineering	[ɛ̱ndʒɪnɪə̱rɪŋ]	the business of designing and constructing machines or structures such as roads and

		bridges
export	[ɛ̱kspɔrt]	a product that one country sells to another country
factory	[fæ̱ktəri, -tri]	a large building where people use machines to make goods
farming	[fɑ̱rmɪŋ]	the business of growing crops or raising animals on a farm
film industry	[fɪlm ɪndəstri]	an industry that produces and sells films
fishing	[fɪ̱ʃɪŋ]	the business of catching fish
forestry	[fɔ̱rɪstri]	the science of growing trees in forests
goods	[gʊ̱dz]	things that you can buy or sell
heavy industry	[hɛ̱vi ɪ̱ndəstri]	industry that uses large machines to produce raw materials or to make large objects

EXAMPLES

He works on an assembly line.

She wants a career in banking.

Italy's clothing industry is one of the most successful in the world.

Jason was an engineer with a large construction company.

Ghana's main export is cocoa.

They invested $1 million in the British film industry.

Money can be exchanged for goods or services.

hospitality industry	[hɒspɪtæ̲lɪti ɪndəstri]	an industry that provides food, drink, and entertainment
import	[ɪ̲mpɔrt]	a product bought from another country for use in your own country
industrial sector	[ɪndʌ̲strɪəl sɛktər]	the part of a country's economy that produces things from raw materials
industry	[ɪ̲ndəstri]	**1** the work of making things in factories; *Industry is growing.* **2** all the people and activities involved in making a particular product or providing a particular service; *the Scottish tourist industry*
insurance industry	[ɪnʃʊ̲ə̲rəns	an industry that provides insurance (=money given to someone if something bad happens to them, in return for regular payments)
invention	[ɪnvɛ̲nʃᵊn]	**1** something that someone has invented; *a new invention* **2** an occasion when something is invented; *the invention of the*

		telephone
leisure industry	[lɪ̱ʒər ɪndəstri, lɛ̱ʒ-]	an industry that provides activities for people to do when they are not working
light industry	[la̱ɪt ɪ̱ndəstri]	industry in which only small items are made, for example household goods and clothes
machinery	[məʃɪ̱nəri]	large pieces of electrical equipment that do a particular job
manufacturer	[mæ̱nyəfæ̱ktʃərər]	a company that makes large amounts of things
manufacturing	[mæ̱nyəfæ̱ktʃərɪŋ]	the business of making things in factories

EXAMPLES

John works in the hospitality industry.

Antigua has a small industrial sector producing clothing and electronic equipment.

The insurance industry lost billions of dollars because of the floods.

He works for the world's largest doll manufacturer.

During the 1980s, 300,000 workers in the manufacturing industry lost their jobs.

mass production	[mæ̱ prədʌ̱kʃən]	the production of something in large quantities, usually using machinery

mining	[maɪnɪŋ]	the business of getting valuable substances such as coal and gold from the ground; *coal mining*
oil drilling	[ɔɪl drɪlɪŋ]	the business of getting oil by making deep holes in the ground
output	[aʊtpʊt]	the amount that a person or a thing produces
plant	[plænt]	**1** a factory; *a clothes manufacturing plant* **2** a place where power is produced; *a nuclear power plant*
private sector	[praɪvɪt sɛktər]	the part of a country's economy that the government does not control or own
processing	[prɒsɛsɪŋ]	the business of preparing raw materials before they are sold
product	[prɒdʌkt]	something that you make or grow in order to sell it
production	[prədʌkʃᵊn]	**1** the process of making or growing something in large amounts; *the production of oil* **2** the quantity of goods that you make or grow; *the volume of production*

production line	[prədʌkʃᵊn laɪn]	an arrangement of machines in a factory where the products pass from one machine to another until they are finished
public sector	[pʌblɪk sɛktər]	the part of a country's economy that the government controls or gives money to
raw materials	[rɔ mətɪərɪəlz]	substances that have not been processed
research and development	[rɪsɜrtʃ ənd dɪvɛləpmənt]	the activity of improving products and making new products
retailing	[rɪteɪlɪŋ]	the activity of selling goods directly to the public

EXAMPLES

This equipment allows the mass production of baby food.

Industry output has decreased.

We import raw materials and export industrial products.

service	[sɜrvɪs]	something that the public needs, such as transportation, hospitals, or energy supplies
service sector	[sɜrvɪs sɛktər]	the part of a country's economy that provide services

shipping	[ʃɪpɪŋ]	the business of transporting goods, especially by ship; *the international shipping industry*
supplier	[səplaɪər]	a company that sells something such as goods or equipment to customers
textile industry	[tɛkstaɪl ɪndəstri]	an industry that makes cloth
tourism	[tʊərɪʒəm]	the business of providing hotels, restaurants, and activities for people who are on vacation
trade	[treɪd]	the activity of buying and selling goods
transportation	[trænspərteɪʃən]	the activity of taking goods or people somewhere in a vehicle

VERBS

assemble	[əsɛmbəl]	to fit the different parts of something together
deliver	[dɪlɪvər]	to take something to a particular place
export	[ɪkspɔrt]	to sell products to another country
import	[ɪmpɔrt]	to buy goods from another country for use in your own country

invent	[Invɛnt]	to be the first person to think of something or to make it
manufacture	[mænyəfæktʃər]	to make something in a factory

EXAMPLES

We are campaigning for better day care and school services.

They are one of the biggest food suppliers in the U.S.

Another 75,000 jobs will be lost in the textile industry.

Tourism is very important for the Spanish economy.

Workers were assembling airplanes.

The U.S. imports over half of its oil.

produce	[prədʊs]	to make or grow something
provide	[prəvaɪd]	to make available something that people need or want
ship	[ʃɪp]	to send goods somewhere
subcontract	[sʌbkəntrækt]	to pay another company to do part of the work that you have been employed to do; *subcontract work to someone*
supply	[səplaɪ]	to give someone an amount of something

ADJECTIVES

corporate	[kɔ̱rpərɪt, -prɪt]	relating to large companies; *the corporate sector*
domestic	[dəmɛ̱stɪk]	happening or existing within one particular country
economic	[ɛ̱kənɒ̱mɪk, ɪ̱k-]	relating to the organization of the money and industry of a country
financial	[faɪnæ̱nʃəl, fɪn-]	relating to money
foreign	[fɔ̱rɪn]	coming from a country that is not your own; *a foreign import*
industrial	[ɪndʌ̱strɪəl]	**1** relating to industry; *industrial machinery* **2** used to describe a city or a country in which industry is very important; *an industrial country*
international	[ɪ̱ntərnæ̱ʃənəl]	involving different countries; *international trade*
modern	[mɒ̱dərn]	new, or relating to the present time
private	[praɪ̱vɪt]	not owned by the government; *a private company*
public	[pʌ̱blɪk]	owned or controlled by the government; *a public company*

EXAMPLES

The company produces about 2.3 billion tons of steel a year.

We provide a wide range of products and services.

They supply many cities with gas.

We need to increase domestic oil production.

jobs and careers

accountant	[əkaʊntənt]	someone whose job is to keep financial records
architect	[ɑrkɪtɛkt]	someone whose job is to design buildings
attorney	[ətɜrni]	mainly in the U.S., a lawyer
builder	[bɪldər]	someone whose job is to build or repair houses and other buildings
businessman	[bɪznɪsmæn]	a man who works in a business
(PL) **businessmen**	[bɪzn1smɛn]	
businesswoman	[bɪznɪswʊmən]	a woman who works in a business
(PL) **businesswomen**	[bɪznɪswɪmɪn]	
carer *(BRIT)*		*see* **caretaker**
caretaker	[kɛərteɪkər]	someone whose job is to look after another person (*In British English, use* **carer**)
carpenter	[kɑrpɪntər]	someone whose job is to make and repair wooden things

cashier	[kæʃɪər]	someone whose job is to take customers' money in stores or banks
chef	[ʃɛf]	someone whose job is to cook in a restaurant
cleaner	[klinər]	someone whose job is to clean the rooms and furniture inside a building
clerk	[klɜrk]	**1** someone whose job is to work with numbers or documents in an office **2** someone who works in a store selling things to customers
cook	[kʊk]	someone who prepares and cooks food
decorator	[dɛkəreɪtər]	someone whose job is to paint houses and put wallpaper on walls
dentist	[dɛntɪst]	someone whose job is to examine and treat people's teeth

EXAMPLES

She's a successful businesswoman who manages her own company.

Henry Harris is the head chef at The Fifth Floor Restaurant in London.

doctor	[dɒktər]	someone whose job is to treat people who are ill or injured
editor	[ɛdɪtər]	someone whose job is to check and correct texts
electrician	[ɪlɛktrɪʃᵊn, ɪlɛk-]	someone whose job is to repair electrical equipment
engineer	[ɛndʒɪnɪər]	someone who designs, builds, and repairs machines, or structures such as roads, railroads, and bridges
factory worker	[fæktəri wɜrkər, -tri]	someone who works in a factory (= a large building where machines are used to make things)
farmer	[fɑrmər]	someone who owns or works on a farm
firefighter	[faɪərfaɪtər]	someone whose job is to put out fires
hairdresser	[hɛərdrɛsər]	someone whose job is to cut and style people's hair
housewife **(PL) housewives**	[haʊswaɪf] [haʊswaɪvz]	a woman who does not have a paid job, but spends most of her time looking after her house and family

journalist	[dʒɜ̱rnəlɪst]	someone whose job is to write about news stories for newspapers, magazines, television, or radio
judge	[dʒʌ̱dʒ]	the person in a court of law who decides how criminals should be punished
lawyer	[lɔ̱ɪər, lɔ̱yər]	someone whose job is to advise people about the law and to represent them in court
librarian	[laɪbrɛ̱ə̱rɪən]	someone who works in a library (= a place where people can borrow books)
mailman **(PL) mailmen**	[me̱ɪlmæn] [me̱ɪlmɛn]	a man who collects and delivers letters and packages (*In British English, use* **postman**)
manager	[mæ̱nɪdʒər]	someone who controls all or part of a business or organization
mechanic	[mɪkæ̱nɪk]	someone whose job is to repair machines and engines, especially car engines

EXAMPLES

She is a doctor.

miner	[maɪnər]	someone whose job is to work underground to obtain materials such as coal
monk	[mʌŋk]	a member of a group of religious men who live together in a special building
musician	[myuzɪʃᵊn]	someone who plays a musical instrument
nanny	[næni]	someone whose job is to look after children in the children's own home
nun	[nʌn]	a member of a group of religious women who often live together in a special building
nurse	[nɜrs]	someone whose job is to care for people who are ill or injured
optician	[ɒptɪʃᵊn]	someone whose job is to make and sell glasses
painter	[peɪntər]	**1** someone whose job is to paint walls, doors, or other parts of buildings **2** an artist who paints pictures
pilot	[paɪlət]	someone whose job is to control an aircraft

plumber	[plʌmər]	someone whose job is to put in and repair things like water and gas pipes, toilets, and bathtubs
police officer	[pəlɪs ɔfɪsər]	a member of the police force
porter	[pɔrtər]	someone whose job is to carry things, for example, people's luggage
postman *(BRIT)*		*see* **mailman**
priest	[prist]	someone who has religious duties in a place where people worship
programmer	[proʊgræmər]	someone whose job is to write programs for computers
professor	[prəfɛsər]	a teacher at a college or university, especially a teacher of the highest rank
publisher	[pʌblɪʃər]	someone whose job is to prepare and print copies of books, newspapers, or magazines
rabbi	[ræbaɪ]	a Jewish religious leader
receptionist	[rɪsɛpʃənɪst]	someone in a hotel or a large building whose job is to answer the telephone and greet visitors
sales clerk	[seɪlz klɜrk]	someone who works in a store

		selling things to customers (*In British English, use* **shop assistant**)
sales representative	[seɪlz rɛprɪzɛntətɪv]	someone whose job is to travel around an area and sell the goods of a particular company
salesman (PL) **salesmen**	[seɪlzmən] [seɪlzmən]	a man whose job is to sell things
saleswoman (PL) **saleswomen**	[seɪlzwʊmən] [seɪlzwɪmɪn]	a woman whose job is to sell things
secretary	[sɛkrɪtɛri]	someone whose job is to type letters, answer the telephone, and do other office work
shop assistant *(BRIT)*		*see* **sales clerk**
social worker	[soʊʃəl wɜrkər]	someone whose job is to give help and advice to people who have serious family problems or financial problems
soldier	[soʊldʒər]	a member of an army
surgeon	[sɜrdʒən]	a doctor who is specially trained to perform operations
surveyor	[sərveɪər]	someone whose job is to examine the condition of a house, usually

		in order to give information to people who want to buy the house
teacher	[tɪtʃər]	someone whose job is to teach (= give lessons on a subject), usually in a school
technician	[tɛknɪʃᵊn]	someone who works with scientific or medical equipment or machines
vet	[vɛt]	someone whose job is to treat ill or injured animals
waiter	[weɪtər]	a man whose job is to serve food in a restaurant

EXAMPLES

I was a teacher for 20 years.

waitress	[weɪtrɪs]	a woman whose job is to serve food in a restaurant
writer	[raɪtər]	someone whose job is to write books, stories, or articles

law

NOUNS

accident	[æksɪdənt]	an occasion when something bad happens to a person by chance, sometimes causing injury or death
assault	[əsɔlt]	a physical attack on a person
attorney	[ətɜrni]	mainly in the U.S., a lawyer
burglar	[bɜrglər]	someone who enters a building by force in order to steal things
burglary	[bɜrgləri]	the crime of entering a building by force and stealing things
charge	[tʃɑrdʒ]	a formal accusation that someone has committed a crime
corpse	[kɔrps]	a dead body
court	[kɔrt]	**1** a place where a judge and a jury decide if someone has done something wrong **2** *(BRIT) see* **courthouse**
courthouse	[kɔrthaʊs]	the building in which a court of law meets (*In British English, use*

		court)
crime	[kraɪm]	an illegal act; *commit a crime*
criminal	[krɪmɪnəl]	someone who does something illegal
drug	[drʌg]	a type of illegal substance that some people take because they enjoy its effects
drug dealer	[drʌg dilər]	someone who sells illegal drugs
evidence	[ɛvɪdəns]	information that is used in a court in order to try to show that something really happened
fault	[fɔlt]	if something bad is your fault, you made it happen

EXAMPLES

The police say the man's death was an accident.
At the police station, he was charged with assault.
They faced charges of murder.
She will appear in court later this month.
There is no evidence that he stole the money.
It's not my fault.

fine	[faɪn]	money that someone has to pay because they have done something

		wrong; *pay a fine*
fraud	[frɔ̱d]	the crime of getting money by not telling the truth
gang	[gæ̱ŋ]	an organized group of criminals
gun	[gʌ̱n]	a weapon that shoots bullets
homicide	[hɒ̱mɪsaɪd, ho̱ʊ̱mɪ-]	the crime of deliberately killing a person
hostage	[hɒ̱stɪdʒ]	someone who is kept as a prisoner by someone who refuses to let them go until they get what they want
identity	[aɪdɛ̱ntɪti]	who you are
jail	[dʒe̱ɪl]	same as **prison**
judge	[dʒʌ̱dʒ]	the person in a court who decides how criminals should be punished
jury	[dʒʊ̱ə̱ri]	the group of people in a court who listen to the facts about a crime and decide if a person is guilty or not
law	[lɔ̱]	**1** a system of rules that a society or government develops to deal with things like crime; *break the law*

		2 one of the rules in a system of law; *a new law*
lawyer	[lɔ̱ɪər, lɔ̱yər]	someone whose job is to advise people about the law and to represent them in court
murder	[mɜ̱rdər]	the crime of deliberately killing a person
murderer	[mɜ̱rdərər]	someone who deliberately kills a person
passport	[pæ̱spɔrt]	an official document that you have to show when you enter or leave a country

EXAMPLES

He got a fine for speeding.

She got a 100-dollar fine.

He used a different name to hide his identity.

Driving too fast is against the law.

police	[pəli̱s]	**1** the organization that is responsible for making sure that people obey the law **2** men and women who are members of the police
police officer	[pəli̱s ɔfɪsər]	a member of the police force

police station	[pəlis steɪʃᵊn]	the local office of a police force in a particular area
prison	[prɪzᵊn]	a building where criminals are kept as punishment; *send someone to prison*
prisoner	[prɪzənər]	someone who is in prison
proof	[pruf]	something that shows that something else is true
reward	[rɪwɔrd]	something that someone gives you because you have done something good
robbery	[rɒbəri]	the crime of stealing money or property from a place
sentence	[sɛntəns]	the punishment that a person receives in a law court
shoplifter	[ʃɒplɪftər]	someone who steals money from a store
spy	[spaɪ]	someone whose job is to find out secret information about another country or organization
statement	[steɪtmənt]	something that you say or write that gives information in a formal

		way; *make a statement*
suspect	[sʌspɛkt]	someone who the police think may be guilty of a crime
terrorism	[tɛrərɪzəm]	the use of violence to force a government to do something
terrorist	[tɛrərɪst]	someone who uses violence to achieve their aims

EXAMPLES

The police are looking for the stolen car.

There wasn't enough proof to charge them.

The firm offered a $10,000 reward for information about the killer.

He was given a four-year sentence.

Three suspects were arrested in connection with the assault.

theft	[θɛft]	the crime of stealing
thief	[θif]	someone who steals something
(PL)thieves	[θivz]	from another person
trial	[traɪəl]	a formal meeting in a court, at which people decide whether someone is guilty of a crime
vandal	[vændəl]	someone who deliberately damages property
victim	[vɪktəm]	someone who has been hurt or

		killed
will	[wɪl̲]	a legal document that says who will receive someone's money when they die
witness	[wɪt̲nɪs]	someone who appears in a court to say what they know about a crime or other event

VERBS

arrest	[ərɛ̲st]	to take someone to a police station, because they may have broken the law
assault	[əsɔ̲lt]	to attack a person physically
break the law		to do something illegal
burglarize	[bɜ̲rglərɑɪz]	to enter a building by force and steal things (*In British English, use* **burgle**)
burgle *(BRIT)*		*see* **burglarize**
charge	[tʃɑ̲rdʒ]	to formally tell someone that they have done something wrong
commit	[kəmɪ̲t]	to do something illegal; *commit a crime*; *commit murder*
confess	[kənfɛ̲s]	to admit that you have done

		something wrong

EXAMPLES

He is on trial for murder.

The driver apologized to the victim's family.

Police arrested five young men in connection with the robbery.

Our house was burglarized last year.

Police charged Mr. Bell with murder.

He confessed to seventeen murders.

convict	[kənvɪkt]	to find someone guilty of a crime in a court
escape	[Iskeɪp]	to manage to get away from a place; *escape from prison*
fine	[faɪn]	to order someone to pay a sum of money because they have done something illegal
forge	[fɔrdʒ]	to make illegal copies of paper money, a document, or a painting in order to cheat people
hold something up		to point a gun at someone in a place such as a bank or a shop, in order to get their money; *hold up a bank*
kidnap	[kɪdnæp]	to take someone away by force

		and keep them as a prisoner, often until their friends or family pay a ransom (= a large amount of money)
mug	[mʌg]	to attack someone and steal their money
murder	[mɜrdər]	to kill someone deliberately
prove	[pruv]	to show that something is true
rape	[reɪp]	to force someone to have sex when they do not want to
rob	[rɒb]	to steal money or property from someone
sentence	[sɛntəns]	to say in court what a person's punishment will be
solve	[sɒlv]	to find out who committed a crime; *solve a crime*
steal	[stil]	to take something from someone without their permission
suspect	[səspɛkt]	to believe that someone probably did something wrong
vandalize	[vændəlaɪz]	to damage something on purpose

EXAMPLES

He was convicted of manslaughter.

She was fined $300.

She was sentenced to nine years in prison.

Someone stole my wallet!

Police suspect him of fraud.

witness	[wɪtnɪs]	to see something happen

ADJECTIVES

criminal	[krɪmɪnəl]	connected with a crime; *criminal charges*
guilty	[gɪlti]	having committed a crime or an offense
illegal	[ɪlɪgəl]	not allowed by law
innocent	[ɪnəsənt]	not guilty of a crime
legal	[lɪgəl]	**1** used for describing things that relate to the law; *the legal system* **2** allowed by law
violent	[vaɪələnt]	using physical force to hurt or kill other people

EXAMPLES

Anyone who witnessed the attack should call the police.

He was found guilty.

He was proved innocent.

Is this legal?

materials

NOUNS

acrylic	[ækrɪ̱lɪk]	a soft artificial material that feels like wool
aluminium *(BRIT)*		*see* **aluminum**
aluminum	[əlu̱mɪnəm]	a light metal used for making things such as cooking equipment and cans for food and drink (*In British English, use* **aluminium**)
brass	[bræ̱s]	a yellow-colored metal
brick	[brɪ̱k]	a rectangular block used in the building of walls; *a brick wall*
bronze	[brɒ̱nz]	a yellowish-brown metal that is a mixture of copper and tin
canvas	[kæ̱nvəs]	a strong, heavy material that is used for making tents and bags
cardboard	[kɑ̱rdbɔrd]	thick, stiff paper that is used for making boxes; *a cardboard box*
cement	[sɪmɛ̱nt]	a gray powder that is mixed with

		sand and water in order to make concrete
china	[tʃa͡ɪnə]	a hard white substance that is used for making expensive cups and plates
clay	[kle͡ɪ]	a type of earth that is soft when it is wet and hard when it is dry. Clay is used for making things such as pots and bricks; *a clay pot*
coal	[ko͡ʊl]	a hard black substance that comes from under the ground and is burned to give heat
concrete	[kɒ͡ŋkrit]	a hard substance made by mixing cement with sand and water. Concrete is used for building.

EXAMPLES

We ate from small bowls made of china.

He put some more coal on the fire.

copper	[kɒ͡pər]	a soft reddish-brown metal
cotton	[kɒ͡tᵊn]	cloth or thread that is made from the soft fibers of a plant called a cotton plant

crystal	[krɪstəl]	**1** a small, hard piece of a natural substance; *ice crystals* **2** a clear rock used in jewelry; *a crystal necklace* **3** high-quality glass; *a crystal vase*
denim	[dɛnɪm]	a thick cotton cloth, usually blue, that is used for making clothes; *a denim jacket*
elastic	[ɪlæstɪk]	a rubber material that stretches when you pull it, and then returns to its original size and shape
fabric	[fæbrɪk]	cloth that you use for making things like clothes and bags
fur	[fɜr]	the thick hair that grows on the bodies of many animals; *a fur coat*
glass	[glæs]	a hard, transparent substance that is used for making things such as windows and bottles
glue	[glu]	a sticky substance that is used for joining things together
gold	[goʊld]	a valuable, yellow-colored metal that is used for making jewelry, ornaments, and coins
iron	[aɪərn]	a hard, dark gray metal; *an iron*

		gate
lace	[leɪs]	a delicate cloth with a design made of fine threads; *lace curtains*
lead	[lɛd]	a soft, gray, heavy metal; *a lead pipe*
leather	[lɛðər]	animal skin that is used for making shoes, clothes, bags, and furniture
linen	[lɪnɪn]	a type of strong cloth

EXAMPLES

The documents were rolled up and held together with elastic.

We sell our tablecloths in plain or printed fabric.

This ring is made of solid gold.

He was wearing a white linen suit.

liquid	[lɪkwɪd]	a substance, for example water or oil, that flows and can be poured
marble	[mɑrbəl]	a type of very hard rock that people use to make parts of buildings or statues (= models of people)
material	[mətɪərɪəl]	**1** any solid substance **2** cloth

		3 the things that you need for a particular activity; *building materials*
metal	[mɛtəl]	a hard, usually shiny substance such as iron, steel, or gold
nylon	[naɪlɒn]	a strong, artificial substance that is used for making cloth and plastic
paper	[peɪpər]	a material that you write on or wrap things with; *a piece of paper*
plaster	[plæstər]	a substance that is used for making a smooth surface on the inside of walls and ceilings
plastic	[plæstɪk]	a light but strong material that is produced by a chemical process; *a plastic bag*
pottery	[pɒtəri]	pots, dishes, and other objects made from clay
rubber	[rʌbər]	a strong substance that is used for making tires, boots, and other products
satin	[sætən]	a smooth, shiny cloth that is made of silk or other materials
silk	[sɪlk]	a smooth, shiny cloth that is made

		from very thin threads from an insect called a silkworm
silver	[sɪlvər]	a valuable pale gray metal that is used for making jewelry
steel	[stil]	a very strong metal that is made mainly from iron

EXAMPLES

The thick material of her skirt was too warm for summer.

stone	[stoʊn]	**1** a hard solid substance that is found in the ground and is often used for building; *a stone wall* **2** a piece of beautiful and valuable rock that is used in making jewelry; *a precious stone*
straw	[strɔ]	the dried, yellow stems of crops; *a straw hat*
string	[strɪŋ]	very thin rope that is made of twisted threads
textile	[tɛkstaɪl]	any type of cloth
thread	[θrɛd]	a long, very thin piece of cotton, nylon, or silk that you use for

		sewing
timber	[tɪ̲mbər]	wood that is used for building and making things
tin	[tɪ̲n]	a type of soft metal
velvet	[vɛ̲lvɪt]	soft cloth that is thick on one side; *velvet curtains*
wax	[wæ̲ks]	a solid, slightly shiny substance that is used for making candles (= sticks that you burn for light) and polish for furniture
wire	[waɪ̲ə̲r]	a long, thin piece of metal; *a wire fence*
wood	[wʊ̲d]	the hard material that trees are made of
wool	[wʊ̲l]	a material made from the hair that grows on sheep and on some other animals

ADJECTIVES

hard	[hɑ̲rd]	not easily bent, cut, or broken
man-made	[mæ̲n meɪ̲d]	created by people, rather than occurring naturally; *man-made fibers*

natural	[nætʃərəl, nætʃrəl]	existing in nature and not created by people
raw	[rɔ]	used for describing materials or substances that are in their natural state; *raw materials*

EXAMPLES

She works in the textile industry.

rough	[rʌf]	not smooth or even
smooth	[smuð]	flat, with no rough parts, lumps or holes
soft	[sɔft]	**1** pleasant to touch, and not rough or hard **2** changing shape easily when pressed
solid	[sɒlɪd]	**1** hard; not like liquid or gas **2** with no holes or space inside; *solid rock*
synthetic	[sɪnθɛtɪk]	made from chemicals or artificial substances rather than from natural ones
transparent	[trænspɛərənt, -pær-]	used for describing an object or a substance that you can see

		through
wooden	[wʊ̲dᵊn]	made of wood; *a wooden chair*
woolen	[wʊ̲lən]	made from wool; *a woolen sweater*

EXAMPLES

Shoes made from synthetic materials can be washed easily.

He fell on the hard wooden floor.

math

NOUNS

addition	[ədɪʃᵊn]	the process of calculating the total of two or more numbers
algebra	[ǽldʒɪbrə]	a type of math in which letters and signs are used to represent numbers
angle	[ǽŋgᵊl]	the space between two lines or surfaces that meet in one place; *a 30° angle*
area	[ɛ̆ə̆riə]	the amount of flat space that a surface covers, measured in square units
arithmetic	[ərɪ̆θmɪtɪk]	the basic calculation of numbers, for example adding or multiplying
average	[ǽvərɪdʒ, ǽvrɪdʒ]	the result that you get when you add two or more amounts together and divide the total by the number of amounts you added together; *The average of 1, 2, and 6 is 3.*
axis	[ǽksɪs]	one of the two lines on a graph on

(PL) axes	[æksiz]	which you mark points to show measurements or amounts
bar chart *(BRIT)*		*see* **bar graph**
bar graph	[bɑr græf]	a chart that shows amounts as thick lines of different heights (*In British English, use* **bar chart**)
calculator	[kælkyəleɪtər]	a small electronic machine that you use to calculate numbers
chart	[tʃɑrt]	a diagram or graph that shows information
circle	[sɜrkəl]	a round shape
circumference	[sərkʌmfrəns]	the distance around the edge of a circle
column	[kɒləm]	a section in a table that you read from top to bottom
compass	[kʌmpəs]	a piece of equipment that you use for drawing circles

EXAMPLES

She can count to 100 and do simple addition problems.

What's the area of this triangle?

We can label the axes: time is on the vertical axis and money is on the horizontal one.

cone	[kou̯n]	a solid shape with one flat, round end and one pointed end
cube	[kyu̱b]	**1** a solid object with six square surfaces **2** the number that you get if you multiply a number by itself twice
cylinder	[sɪ̱lɪndər]	a shape with circular ends and long straight sides
decimal	[dɛ̱sɪməl]	a part of a whole number that is written in the form of a period followed by one or more numbers, for example 0.25 or 10.6
decimal point	[dɛ̱sɪməl pɔ̱ɪnt]	the period in front of a decimal
degree	[dɪgri̱]	**1** a unit for measuring temperature that is often written as °; *180° Celsius* **2** a unit for measuring angles that is often written as °; *a 45° angle*
diameter	[daɪæ̱mɪtər]	the length of a straight line that can be drawn across a round object, passing through the middle of it
digit	[dɪ̱dʒɪt]	a written symbol for any of the ten numbers from 0 to 9

division	[dɪvɪʒᵊn]	the process of dividing one number by another number
figure	[fɪgyər]	**1** one of the symbols from 0 to 9 that you use to write numbers **2** an amount or a price expressed as a number
formula (PL)**formulas, formulae**	[fɔrmyələ] [fɔrmyəli]	a group of letters, numbers, or other symbols that represents a scientific rule
fraction	[frækʃᵊn]	a part of a whole number, such as ½ or ⅓

EXAMPLES

The cube of 2 is 8.

The waiter forgot to put a decimal point in their $45.00 bill and they were charged $4500.

They put the figures in the wrong column.

The mathematical formula describes the distances of the planets from the Sun.

geometry	[dʒiɒmɪtri]	a type of math relating to lines, angles, curves, and shapes
graph	[græf]	a picture that shows information about sets of numbers or measurements
half **(PL) halves**	[hæf] [hævz]	one of two equal parts of a number, an amount, or an object

height	[haɪt]	the amount that something measures from the bottom to the top
hexagon	[hɛksəgɒn]	a shape with six straight sides
length	[lɛŋθ]	the amount that something measures from one end to the other, along the longest side
math	[mæθ]	the study of numbers, quantities, or shapes (*In British English, use* **maths**)
mathematics	[mæθəmætɪks]	same as **math**
maths *(BRIT)*		*see* **math**
multiplication	[mʌltɪplɪkeɪʃᵊn]	the process of calculating the total of one number multiplied by another
number	[nʌmbər]	a word such as “two,” “nine,” or “twelve” or a symbol such as 1, 3, or 47 that is used in counting
numeral	[numərəl]	a written symbol that represents a number; *The Roman numeral for 7 is VII.*
oblong	[ɒblɔŋ]	a shape that has two long sides

		and two short sides
pentagon	[pɛ̱ntəgɑn]	a shape with five straight sides
percent	[pərsɛ̱nt]	used for talking about an amount as part of 100, often written as %
percentage	[pərsɛ̱ntɪdʒ]	an amount of something, considered as part of 100

EXAMPLES

The graph shows that prices went up about 20 percent last year.

More than half of all U.S. houses are heated with gas.

The table is about one yard in length.

Only ten percent of our customers live in this city.

A large percentage of the population speaks English.

perimeter	[pərɪ̱mɪtər]	the total distance around the edge of a flat shape
pie chart	[pɑ̱ɪ tʃɑrt]	a circle that is divided into sections to show something divided into different amounts
pyramid	[pɪ̱rəmɪd]	a solid shape with a flat base and flat sides that form a point where they meet at the top
quarter	[kwɔ̱rtər]	one of four equal parts of something

radius (PL) **radiuses, radii**	[reɪdiəs] [reɪdiaɪ]	the distance from the center of a circle to its outside edge
ratio	[reɪʃoʊ, -ʃioʊ]	a relationship between two things when it is expressed in numbers or amounts
rectangle	[rɛktæŋgəl]	a shape with four straight sides and four 90° angles
right angle	[raɪt æŋgəl]	an angle of 90°
row	[roʊ]	a section in a table that you read from one side to the other
ruler	[rulər]	a long, flat object that you use for measuring things and for drawing straight lines
scale	[skeɪl]	a set of levels or numbers that you use to measure things
semicircle	[sɛmisɜrkəl, sɛmaɪ-]	one half of a circle
shape	[ʃeɪp]	something such as a circle, a square, or a triangle
sphere	[sfɪər]	an object that is completely round, like a ball

EXAMPLES

To work out the perimeter of a rectangle, you need to know its length and width.

A quarter of them are over 55 years old.

The adult to child ratio is one to six.

The earthquake measured 5.5 on the Richter scale.

square	[skwɛər]	**1** a shape with four straight sides that are all the same length **2** the number that you get if you multiply a number by itself
square root	[skwɛər rut]	a number that you multiply by itself to produce another number; *The square root of 36 is 6.*
subtraction	[səbtrækʃən]	the process of taking one number away from another number
sum	[sʌm]	the number that you get when you add two or more numbers together; *Fourteen is the sum of six and eight.*
table	[teɪbəl]	a set of numbers that you arrange in neat rows and columns
triangle	[traɪæŋgəl]	a shape with three straight sides
unit	[yunɪt]	a fixed measurement such as a liter or an inch

volume	[vɒlyum]	the amount of space that an object contains
width	[wɪdθ, wɪtθ]	the amount that something measures from one side to the other

VERBS

add	[æd]	to calculate the total of various numbers or amounts
calculate	[kælkyəleɪt]	to find out an amount by using numbers
count	[kaʊnt]	**1** to say all the numbers in order up to a particular amount; *count to 20* **2** to see how many there are in a group; *count the money*
divide	[dɪvaɪd]	to find out how many times one number can fit into another bigger number

EXAMPLES

The cube of 2 is 4.

What is the volume of a cube with sides 3cm long?

Add all the numbers together, and divide by three.

Have you calculated the cost of your trip?

Measure the floor area and divide it by six.

equal	[ikwəl]	to be the same as a particular number or amount; *Nine minus two equals seven.*
multiply	[mʌltɪplaɪ]	to add a number to itself a certain number of times; *If you multiply 3 by 4, you get 12.*
subtract	[səbtrækt]	to take one number away from another number; *If you subtract 3 from 5, you get 2.*
take something away	same as **subtract**	
work something out	same as **calculate**	

ADJECTIVES

circular	[sɜrkyələr]	shaped like a circle
diagonal	[daɪægənəl, -ægnəl]	going from one corner of a square across to the opposite corner
even	[ivən]	used for describing numbers that can be divided exactly by two, for example 4, 8, and 24

mathematical	[mæθəmætɪkəl]	involving numbers and calculating; *a mathematical formula*
negative	[nɛgətɪv]	less than zero; *a negative number*
odd	[ɒd]	used for describing numbers such as 3 and 17, that cannot be divided exactly by two
parallel	[pærəlɛl]	used for describing two lines that are the same distance apart along their whole length; *parallel lines*
positive	[pɒzɪtɪv]	higher than zero; *a positive number*
rectangular	[rɛktæŋgyələr]	shaped like a rectangle
square	[skwɛər]	**1** used for describing a shape that has four straight sides that are all the same length; *a square table* **2** used for talking about the area of something; *30 square feet*
triangular	[traɪæŋgyələr]	shaped like a triangle

EXAMPLES

Add up the bills for each month. Take this away from the income.

It took me some time to work out the answer to the question.

The screen showed a pattern of diagonal lines.

PREPOSITIONS

minus	[maɪnəs]	used when you are taking one number away from another number; *Ten minus two is eight.*
plus	[plʌs]	used for showing that one number is being added to another; *Three plus four equals seven.*
times	[taɪmz]	used when you are multiplying one number by another; *Five times two is ten.*

money

NOUNS

allowance	[əlaʊəns]	money that is given regularly to someone (*In British English, use* **pocket money**)
ATM	[eɪ ti ɛm]	a machine, usually outside a bank, from which you can get money using a special plastic card (*In British English, use* **cash machine**)
balance	[bæləns]	the amount of money you have in your bank account; *check your balance*
bank	[bæŋk]	a place where people can keep their money
bank account	[bæŋk əkaʊnt]	an arrangement with a bank where they look after your money for you; *open/close a bank account*
bill	[bɪl]	a document that shows how much money you must pay for something; *pay the bill*

billfold	[bɪlfoʊld]	a small case that you can keep money and cards in (*In British English, use* **wallet**
breadwinner	[brɛdwɪnər]	the person in a family who earns the money that the family needs
budget	[bʌdʒɪt]	the amount of money that you have available to spend; *a low-budget film*
bureau de change *(BRIT)*		*see* **currency exchange**
cash	[kæʃ]	money in the form of bills and coins; *two thousand dollars in cash*
cashier	[kæʃɪər]	a person whose job is to take your money in a store or a bank
cash machine *(mainly BRIT)*		*see* **ATM**
change	[tʃeɪndʒ]	**1** the money that you get back when you pay with more money than something costs **2** coins; *change for the parking meter*
change purse	[tʃeɪndʒ pɜrs]	a very small bag used for carrying money, especially by women (*In*

British English, use **purse**)

EXAMPLES

They couldn't afford to pay their bills.

I've always paid the bills and been the breadwinner.

charge	[tʃɑ̱rdʒ]	an amount of money that you have to pay for a service; *a small charge*
checking account	[tʃɛ̱kɪŋ əkaʊnt]	a bank account that you can take money out of at any time (*In British English, use* **current account**)
check	[tʃɛ̱k]	a printed piece of paper from a bank that you write an amount of money on and use to pay for things; *pay by check* (*In British English, use* **cheque**)
checkbook	[tʃɛ̱kbʊk]	a book containing checks
cheque *(BRIT)*		*see* **check**
coin	[kɔ̱ɪn]	a small round piece of metal money
cost	[kɔ̱st]	the amount of money you need in order to buy, do, or make

		something; *the high cost of housing*
credit	[krɛ̱dɪt]	an arrangement that allows someone to buy something and pay for it later; *They bought it on credit.*
credit card	[krɛ̱dɪt kɑrd]	a plastic card that you use to buy goods on credit; *pay by credit card*
currency	[kɜ̱rənsi]	the money that is used in a particular country; *pay in a different currency*
currency exchange	[kɜ̱rənsi ɪkstʃeɪndʒ]	an office where you can buy and sell different currencies (*In British English, use* **bureau de change**)
current account *(BRIT)*		*see* **checking account**
debit card	[dɛ̱bɪt kɑrd]	a bank card that you can use to pay for things; *pay by debit card*
debt	[dɛ̱t]	an amount of money that you owe someone; *get into debt*

EXAMPLES

He gave me a check for $1500.

He counted out the coins into her hand.

The cost of a loaf of bread has gone up.

There will be an increase in the cost of posting a letter.

He is trying to pay off his debts.

deposit	[dɪpɒzɪt]	**1** a sum of money that is part of the full price of something, and that you pay when you agree to buy it; *a 10% deposit* **2** an amount of money that you put into a bank account; *make a deposit*
direct debit *(BRIT)*		*see* **direct deposit**
direct deposit	[dɪrɛkt dɪpɒzɪt, daɪ-]	an arrangement that you make with a company, allowing them to take money that you owe them from or put money that they owe you into your bank account every month (*In British English, use* **direct deposit**)
economy	[ɪkɒnəmi]	the system for organizing the money and industry of the world, a country, or local government
expenses	[ɪkspɛnsɪz]	money that you spend on things
income	[ɪnkʌm]	the money that a person earns or receives

inheritance	[ɪnhɛ̱rɪtᵊns]	money or property that you receive from someone who has died
insurance	[ɪnʃʊ̱ərəns]	an agreement that you make with a company in which you pay money to them regularly, and they pay you if something bad happens to you or your property; *travel insurance*
interest	[ɪ̱ntrɪst, -tərɪst]	the extra money that you pay if you have borrowed money, or the extra money that you receive if you have money in some types of bank accounts
loan	[lo̱ʊ̱n]	an amount of money that you borrow
money	[mʌ̱ni]	the coins or bills that you use to buy things
mortgage	[mɔ̱rgɪdʒ]	a loan of money that you get from a bank in order to buy a house

EXAMPLES

The Indian economy is changing fast.

Her hotel expenses were paid by the company.

She used her inheritance to buy a house.

How much interest do you have to pay on the loan?

Do you earn much interest on that account?

I had to sell my home because I couldn't afford the mortgage payments.

payment	[peɪmənt]	**1** an amount of money that is paid to someone; *weekly payments* **2** the act of paying money or of being paid; *immediate payment*
pension	[pɛnʃᵊn]	money that you regularly receive from a business or the government after you stop working because of your age
PIN	[pɪn]	short for "Personal Identification Number:" a secret number that you can use, for example, with a bank card to get money from a cash machine; *enter in your PIN*
pocket money	[pɒkɪt mʌni]	**1** a small amount of money **2** *(BRIT) see* **allowance**
poverty	[pɒvərti]	the state of being very poor; *living in poverty*
price	[praɪs]	the amount of money that you have to pay in order to buy something

profit	[prɒfɪt]	the amount of money that you gain when you sell something for more than you paid for it
purse	[pɜrs]	**1** a small bag used for carrying money and other items, especially by women **2** *(BRIT) see* **change purse**
rent	[rɛnt]	money that you pay to someone so that you can use something that belongs to them; *pay the rent*
salary	[sæləri]	the money that you earn from your employer
sales tax	[seɪlz tæks]	a tax that is added to the price of goods or services
savings	[seɪvɪŋz]	all the money that you have saved, especially in a bank
savings account	[seɪvɪŋz əkaʊnt]	a bank account that gives you interest on your money

EXAMPLES

To use the service you'll need a PIN number.

We have seen huge changes in the price of gas.

They expect house prices to rise.

The lawyer was paid a huge salary.

savings and loan	[seɪvɪŋz ənd loʊn]	a business that lends people money to buy houses and that provides savings accounts; *savings and loan association*
share	[ʃɛər]	one of the equal parts that the value of a company is divided into, which people can buy so that they own a part of the company and have a part of its profit
statement	[steɪtmənt]	a document showing how much money you have put into and taken out of your bank account
tax	[tæks]	an amount of money that you have to pay to the government so that it can pay for public services such as roads and schools; *raise/lower taxes*
wages	[weɪdʒɪz]	the amount of money that is paid to someone for the work that they do
wallet *(BRIT)*		*see* **billfold**

VERBS

borrow	[bɒroʊ]	to get money from someone and

		agree to pay it back some time in the future
buy	[baɪ]	to get something by paying money for it
charge	[tʃɑrdʒ]	to ask someone to pay money for something
cost	[kɔst]	to have as a price; *cost a lot*
deposit	[dɪpɒzɪt]	to put an amount of money into a bank account
donate	[doʊneɪt]	to give something to an organization

EXAMPLES

I bought shares in my brother's new company.

His wages have gone up.

I lost my wallet.

He could not afford to buy a house.

Lizzie bought herself a bike.

The driver charged us only $2 each.

How much do you charge for printing photos?

He has no children to inherit his house.

earn	[ɜrn]	to receive money for work that you do
inherit	[ɪnhɛrɪt]	to receive money or property from

		someone who has died
invest	[ɪnvɛ̱st]	to put money into a business or a bank, in order to try to make a profit from it
lend	[lɛ̱nd]	to give someone money that they must give back after a certain amount of time
make money		to get money for doing something
owe	[o̱ʊ]	to have to pay money to someone
pay	[pe̱ɪ]	**1** to give someone an amount of money for something that you are buying; *pay for the food* **2** to give someone an amount of money for something such as a bill or a debt; *pay the bill* **3** to give someone money for the work that they do; *We can pay you every week.* **4** to give someone the money that you owe them; *I haven't paid him back yet.*
pay something in		to put money into a bank account

pay up		to give someone the money that you owe them, even though you would prefer not to
save	[seɪv]	to gradually collect money by spending less than you get
sign	[saɪn]	to write your name on a document; *sign a check*
spend	[spɛnd]	to pay money for things that you want or need; *spend money*
withdraw	[wɪðdrɔ, wɪθ-]	to take money out of a bank account

EXAMPLES

He made a lot of money from his first book.

The company owes money to more than 60 banks.

Blake owed him $50.

Tim and Barbara are saving for a house.

I was saving money to go to college.

ADJECTIVES

bankrupt	[bæŋkrʌpt]	without enough money to pay your debts

cheap	[tʃi̱p]	**1** costing little money, or less than you expected **2** not willing to spend much money
expensive	[ɪkspɛ̱nsɪv]	costing a lot of money
generous	[dʒɛ̱nərəs]	giving you more than you expect of something; *a generous gift*
poor	[pʊ̱ər]	having very little money and few possessions
rich	[rɪ̱tʃ]	having a lot of money or valuable possessions
thrifty	[θrɪ̱fti]	saving money, not buying unnecessary things, and not wasting things
valuable	[væ̱lyuəbəl]	worth a lot of money
wealthy	[wɛ̱lθi]	having a large amount of money, property, or valuable possessions

IDIOMS

be rolling in it	[INFORMAL] to have a lot of money
in the red	[INFORMAL] owing money to a bank
make ends meet	to manage to live on your income

money doesn't grow on trees	used for saying that money is not freely available
save something for a rainy day	to keep money to use if an unexpected need arises
tighten your belt	to spend less money than you usually do

EXAMPLES

I want to rent a cheap room near the university.

She was always dressed in the most expensive silk and cashmere.

My mother taught me to be thrifty.

Do not leave any valuable items in your hotel room.

The company is $5 million in the red.

music

NOUN

music	[myu̲zɪk]	**1** the pleasant sound that you make when you sing or play instruments; *listen to music* **2** the symbols that you write on paper to tell people what to sing or play; *read music*

TYPES OF MUSIC

classical music	[klæsɪkəl myu̲zɪk]	a traditional type of music, written in a standard form
country music	[kʌ̲ntri myu̲zɪk]	a type of music in the style of the traditional music of the southern and western U.S.
folk music	[fo̲ʊ̲k myuzɪk]	music that is traditional or typical of a particular group of people or country
jazz	[dʒæ̲z]	a style of music that has strong rhythms. It was invented by African-American musicians in the early

		part of the twentieth century.
pop music	[pɒp myu̱zɪk]	modern popular music, usually with a strong rhythm and simple tunes
rap	[ræ̱p]	a type of modern music in which the words are spoken
rock and roll	[rɒ̱k ənd rou̱l]	a type of pop music developed in the 1950s which has a strong beat for dancing

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

cello	[tʃɛ̱lou]	a musical instrument that is like a large violin. You sit behind it and rest it on the floor.
clarinet	[klæ̱rɪnɛ̱t]	a musical instrument that you blow. It is a long black wooden tube with keys on it that you press and a single reed (= small flat part that moves and makes a sound when you blow).

EXAMPLES

This is a collection of traditional folk music from nearly 30 countries.

The club plays live jazz on Sundays.

Elvis Presley was known as the King of Rock and Roll.

drum	[drʌm]	a simple musical instrument that you hit with sticks or with your hands
flute	[flut]	a musical instrument that you play by blowing. You hold it sideways to your mouth.
guitar	[gɪtɑr]	a musical instrument that has six strings and a long neck
harp	[hɑrp]	a large musical instrument that has strings stretched from the top to the bottom of a frame. You play the harp with your fingers.
horn	[hɔrn]	a musical instrument with a long metal tube that you play by blowing into it
keyboard	[kibɔrd]	**1** the set of black and white keys that you press when you play a piano **2** an electronic musical instrument that has a keyboard
musical instrument	[myuzɪkəl ɪnstrəmənt]	an object such as a piano, guitar, or violin that you use for playing music
oboe	[oʊboʊ]	a musical instrument that you

		blow. It is a long black wooden tube with keys on it that you press and a double reed (= small flat part that moves and makes a sound when you blow).
organ	[ɔ̱rgən]	a large musical instrument that is like a piano
piano	[pia̱nou, pya̱nou]	a large musical instrument that you play by pressing black and white bars (= keys)
recorder	[rɪkɔ̱rdər]	a wooden or plastic musical instrument in the shape of a pipe. You play it by blowing down one end and covering holes with your fingers.
saxophone	[sa̱ksəfoʊn]	a musical instrument made of metal that you play by blowing into it
sitar	[sɪtɑ̱r]	an Indian musical instrument with two layers of strings, a long neck, and a round body

EXAMPLES

Sam is a great guitar player.

tambourine	[tæmbərin]	a round musical instrument that has small bells around its edge. You shake it or hit it with your hand.
trumpet	[trʌmpɪt]	a metal musical instrument that you blow
violin	[vaɪəlɪn]	a musical instrument made of wood with four strings. You hold it under your chin, and play it by moving a long stick (= a bow) across the strings
xylophone	[zaɪləfoʊn]	a musical instrument with a row of wooden bars of different lengths that you play with special hammers

PEOPLE

band	[bænd]	a group of people who play music together; *play in a band*
choir	[kwaɪər]	a group of people who sing together
composer	[kəmpoʊzər]	a person who writes music
conductor	[kəndʌktər]	a person who stands in front of a group of musicians and directs

		their performance
drummer	[drʌmər]	a person who plays a drum or a drum kit
guitarist	[gɪtɑrɪst]	a person who plays the guitar
musician	[myuzɪʃᵊn]	a person who plays a musical instrument as their job or hobby
orchestra	[ɔrkɪstrə]	a large group of musicians who play different instruments together
pianist	[piænɪst, piənɪst]	a person who plays the piano
singer	[sɪŋər]	a person who sings, especially as a job

PIECES AND PARTS OF MUSIC

chord	[kɔrd]	a number of musical notes played or sung at the same time; *a chord of G major*
chorus	[kɔrəs]	a part of a song that you repeat several times
duet	[duɛt]	a piece of music performed by two people; *a duet for two guitarists*

EXAMPLES

He sang in his church choir for ten years.

harmony	[hɑrməni]	the pleasant combination of different notes of music played at the same time; *play in harmony*
key	[ki]	a particular scale of musical notes; *the key of C*
lyrics	[lɪrɪks]	the words of a song
melody	[mɛlədi]	a group of musical notes that make a tune
note	[noʊt]	**1** one particular musical sound; *a wrong note* **2** a symbol that represents this sound
octave	[ɒktɪv]	a series of eight notes in music, or the difference between the first and last notes in the series
piece of music	[pis əv myuzɪk]	a complete musical work; *an orchestral piece*
rhythm	[rɪðəm]	a regular pattern of sounds or movements
scale	[skeɪl]	a set of musical notes that are played in a fixed order
solo	[soʊloʊ]	a piece of music performed by one person

song	[sɔ̱ŋ]	words and music sung together
verse	[vɜ̱rs]	one of the groups of lines in a poem or song

RECORDING, PERFORMING, AND LISTENING TO MUSIC

album	[æ̱lbəm]	a collection of songs on a CD
CD	[si̱ di̱]	short for "compact disc:" a disc for storing music
concert	[kɒ̱nsərt]	a performance of music
iPod™	[aɪ̱pɒd]	a small piece of electronic equipment that stores music, photos, and movies
karaoke	[kæ̱riou̱ki]	a form of entertainment in which a machine plays songs, and you sing the words

EXAMPLES

She has a deep voice so she can't sing high notes.

He raised his sticks and beat out the rhythm of the song.

The band released their new album on July 1.

The weekend began with an outdoor rock concert.

MP3 player	[ɛ̱m pi θri̱ pleɪər]	a small piece of electronic equipment that stores and plays

		music
microphone	[maɪkrəfoʊn]	a piece of electronic equipment that you use to make sounds louder or to record them onto a machine
record	[rɛkərd]	a round, flat piece of black plastic on which sound, especially music, is stored. A record can be played on a record player.

VERBS

compose	[kəmpoʊz]	to write a piece of music
conduct	[kəndʌkt]	to stand in front of musicians and direct their performance
perform	[pərfɔrm]	to play a piece of music in front of an audience
play	[pleɪ]	**1** to produce music from a musical instrument **2** to put a CD into a machine and listen to it
practice	[præktɪs]	to do something regularly in order to do it better (*In British English, use* **practise**)
practise *(BRIT)*		*see* **practice**

record	[rɪkɔ̱rd]	to store something such as a speech or a performance in a computer file or on a disk so that it can be heard or seen again later
sing	[sɪ̱ŋ]	to make music with your voice
tune	[tu̱n]	to adjust a musical instrument so that it produces the right notes

EXAMPLES

the Orchestra of Welsh National Opera conducted by Carlo Rizzi

They will be performing works by Bach and Scarlatti.

Nina was playing the piano.

She played her CDs too loudly.

My brother and I used to sing this song.

ADJECTIVES

acoustic	[əku̱stɪk]	an acoustic musical instrument is one which is not electric; *an acoustic guitar*
classical	[klæ̱sɪkəl]	traditional in form, style, or content; *classical music*
flat	[flæ̱t]	used for describing a note that is slightly lower than another note
major	[me̱ɪdʒər]	used for talking about a scale with

		half steps in sound between the third and fourth and the seventh and eighth notes; *a scale of G major*
minor	[maɪnər]	used in music for talking about a scale in which the third note is one half step lower that the related major scale
musical	[myuzɪkəl]	**1** relating to playing or studying music; *musical training* **2** having a natural ability and interest in music; *musical children*
sharp	[ʃɑrp]	used for describing a note that is slightly higher than another note

ADVERBS

in tune	[ɪn tun]	singing or playing the correct musical notes; *sing in tune*
loudly	[laʊdli]	easily heard because the level of sound is very high; *playing loudly*
out of tune	[aʊt əv ʌv tun]	not singing or playing the correct musical notes; *sing out of tune*
softly	[sɔftli]	quietly or gently; *singing softly*

the office

NOUNS

binder	[baɪndər]	a cover for holding loose sheets of paper together
briefcase	[brifkeɪs]	a small suitcase for carrying business papers in; *a leather briefcase*
bulletin board	[bʊlɪtɪn bɔrd]	a board on a wall for notices giving information (*In British English, use* **noticeboard**)
business card	[bɪznɪs kɑrd]	a small card printed with your name, job, business address, and other contact information; *give someone your business card*
calculator	[kælkyəleɪtər]	a small electronic machine that you use to calculate numbers
conference room	[kɒnfərəns rum, -frəns]	a room in an office building where people have meetings
department	[dɪpɑrtmənt]	one of the sections in an organization
desk	[dɛsk]	a table that you sit at to write or

		work
fax machine	[fæks məʃin]	a special machine that you use to send and receive documents electronically
file	[faɪl]	**1** a box or a type of envelope that you keep papers in **2** a collection of information that you keep on your computer; *open a file*; *a computer file*
filing cabinet	[faɪlɪŋ kæbɪnɪt]	a tall piece of office furniture with deep drawers for documents
folder	[foʊldər]	**1** a folded piece of cardboard or plastic that you keep papers in; *a work folder* **2** a group of files that are stored together on a computer
highlighter	[haɪlaɪtər]	a brightly colored pen that is used for marking important parts of a document

EXAMPLES

Her telephone number was pinned to the bulletin board.

She works in the accounting department.

The file contained letters and reports.

ink cartridge	[ɪŋk kɑrtrɪdʒ]	a small container filled with ink that you put into a printer
notepad	[noʊtpæd]	**1** a pad of paper for writing notes on **2** a pocket-sized personal computer
noticeboard *(BRIT)*		*see* **bulletin board**
office	[ɔfɪs]	a place where people work sitting at a desk; *work in an office*
overhead projector	[oʊvərhɛd prədʒɛktər]	a piece of equipment that you use to make an image on a plastic sheet appear large on a screen
scissors	[sɪzərz]	a small tool for cutting, with two sharp parts that are joined together
paperclip	[peɪpərklɪp]	a small metal clip used for holding sheets of paper together
pen	[pɛn]	a long thin object that you use for writing with ink (= colored liquid)
pencil	[pɛnsəl]	a thin piece of wood with a black or colored substance through the middle that you use to write or

		draw with
photocopier	[foʊtəkɒpiər]	a machine that copies documents by photographing them
photocopy	[foʊtəkɒpi]	a copy of a document that you make using a photocopier; *make a photocopy*
printer	[prɪntər]	a machine for printing copies of computer documents on paper
reception	[rɪsɛpʃən]	the desk in an office building that you go to when you first arrive
receptionist	[rɪsɛpʃənɪst]	a person who deals with people on the phone or in person at a reception desk
safe	[seɪf]	a strong metal box with a lock, where you keep money or other valuable things
Scotch tape™	[skɒtʃ teɪp]	clear plastic sticky tape that is used for sticking things together; *a roll of Scotch tape* (*In British English, use* **sellotape**)
sellotape *(BRIT)*		*see* **Scotch tape™**
stapler	[steɪplər]	a small piece of equipment that is used for attaching sheets of paper

		together with staples
staples	[steɪpəlz]	pieces of thin wire that attach sheets of paper together
toner	[toʊnər]	a black or colored powder used as ink in a printer or a photocopier
vending machine	[vɛndɪŋ məʃin]	a machine that you can buy small articles from, such as food, drinks, or cigarettes

VERBS

photocopy	[foʊtəkɒpi]	to make a copy of a document using a photocopier; *photocopy a document*
scan	[skæn]	to make an electronic copy of a picture or a document using a special piece of equipment (called a scanner)
type	[taɪp]	to write something using a machine like a computer

personal items

NOUNS

billfold	[bɪlfoʊld]	a small case in which you keep money and cards (*In British English, use* **wallet**)
bracelet	[breɪslɪt]	a piece of jewelry that you wear around your wrist; *a silver bracelet*
brush	[brʌʃ]	an object with a lot of hairs attached to it that you use for making your hair tidy
change purse	[tʃeɪndʒ pɜrs]	a very small bag used for carrying money, especially by women (*In British English, use* **purse**)
comb	[koʊm]	a thin piece of plastic or metal with narrow, pointed parts (called teeth). You use a comb to make your hair tidy.
cotton ball	[kɒtən bɔl]	soft, fluffy cotton, often used for applying creams to your skin (*In British English, use* **cotton wool**)
cotton wool		*see* **cotton ball**

(BRIT)

dental floss	[dɛntəl flɔs]	a type of thread that is used to clean between your teeth
deodorant	[diou̯dərənt]	a substance that you can put on your skin to hide or prevent bad smells
diamond	[daɪmənd, daɪaə-]	a hard, clear stone that is very expensive, and is used for making jewelry; *diamond earrings*
earring	[ɪərɪŋ]	a piece of jewelry that you wear on your ear
face cream	[feɪs krim]	a thick substance that you can rub into your face to keep it soft
face powder	[feɪs paʊdər]	a very fine soft powder that you can put on your face to make it look smoother
flannel *(BRIT)*		*see* **washcloth**
gel	[dʒɛl]	a thick substance like jelly, used for keeping your hair in a particular style or for washing your body; *shower gel*
hairdryer	[hɛərdraɪr]	a machine that you use to dry your hair

hairspray	[hɛ͡ərspreɪ]	a sticky substance that you spray out of a can onto your hair in order to hold it in place
handbag *(BRIT)*		*see* **purse**
handkerchief	[hæ͡ŋkərtʃɪf]	a small square piece of cloth that you use for blowing your nose
jewelry	[dʒu͡əlri]	decorations that you wear on your body, such as a ring that you wear on your finger; *a jewelry box* (*In British English, use* **jewellery**)
jewellery *(BRIT)*		*see* **jewelry**
key ring	[ki͡ rɪŋ]	a metal ring that you use to keep your keys together
lipstick	[lɪ͡pstɪk]	a colored substance that women sometimes put on their lips
makeup	[me͡ɪkʌp]	the creams and powders that you can put on your face to make yourself look more attractive; *put on makeup*; *take off makeup*
mirror	[mɪ͡rər]	a flat piece of special glass that you can see yourself in
mouthwash	[ma͡ʊθwɒʃ]	a liquid that you put in your

		mouth to clean it and make your breath smell pleasant
nail file	[neɪl faɪl]	a small rough strip that you rub across the ends of your nails to shorten them or shape them
nail varnish	[neɪl vɑrnɪʃ]	a thick liquid that you can paint on your nails
necklace	[nɛklɪs]	a piece of jewelry that you wear around your neck
perfume	[pɜrfyum, pərfyum]	a liquid with a pleasant smell that you put on your skin
purse	[pɜrs]	**1** a small bag that a woman uses for carrying things such as money and keys (*In British English, use* **handbag**) **2** *(BRIT) see* **change purse**

EXAMPLES

Eva was wearing red lipstick.

Anna doesn't usually wear much makeup.

Dan looked at himself in the mirror.

The hall smelled of her mother's perfume.

razor	[reɪzər]	a tool that people use for shaving

ring	[rɪŋ]	a small circle of metal that you wear on your finger; *a wedding ring*
shampoo	[ʃæmpu]	liquid soap that you use for washing your hair
soap	[soʊp]	a substance that you use with water for washing yourself; *a bar of soap*
sponge	[spʌndʒ]	a piece of a very light soft material with a lot of small holes in it, that you use for washing yourself
suncream *(BRIT)*		*see* **sunscreen**
sunscreen	[sʌnskrin]	a cream that you can put on your skin to protect it from the sun (*In British English, use* **suncream**)
tissue	[tɪʃu]	a piece of thin, soft paper that you use to wipe your nose; *a packet of tissues*
toilet paper	[tɔɪlɪt peɪpər]	paper that you use to clean yourself after using the toilet
toiletries	[tɔɪlətriz]	the things that you use when you are washing or taking care of your body, such as soap and toothpaste

toothbrush	[tuθbrʌʃ]	a small brush that you use for cleaning your teeth
toothpaste	[tuθpeɪst]	a thick substance that you put on a toothbrush for cleaning your teeth
towel	[taʊəl]	a piece of thick soft cloth that you use to dry yourself; *a bath towel*
wallet *(BRIT)*		*see* **billfold**
washcloth	[wɒʃklɔθ]	a small cloth that you use for washing yourself (*In British English, use* **flannel**)
watch	[wɒtʃ]	a small clock that you wear on your wrist

VERBS

brush	[brʌʃ]	to tidy something using a brush; *brush your hair*
carry	[kæri]	**1** to hold something in your hand and take it with you; *carry a handbag* **2** to always have something with you; *carry a passport*
comb	[koʊm]	to use a comb to make your hair tidy; *comb your hair*

put something on		to place clothing or makeup on your body in order to wear it
take something off		to remove clothing or makeup
wear	[wɛ̲ə̲r]	to have something such as clothes, shoes, or jewelry on your body

EXAMPLES

She put on her makeup.

Rosalinda was wearing gold earrings.

plants, trees, and gardens

NOUNS

ash	[æʃ]	a tree that has smooth gray bark and loses its leaves in the winter
bark	[bɑrk]	the rough surface of a tree
beech	[bitʃ]	a tree with a smooth gray trunk
birch	[bɜrtʃ]	a tall tree with thin branches
bird feeder	[bɜrd fidər]	a container that you fill with food for birds
blossom	[blɒsəm]	the flowers that appear on a fruit tree; *cherry blossom*
border	[bɔrdər]	a long area of ground along the edge of a garden that is planted with flowers; *border plants*
branch	[brænt∫]	one of the parts of a tree that have leaves, flowers, and fruit
bud	[bʌd]	a new growth on a tree or plant that develops into a leaf or flower
bush	[bʊʃ]	a plant with leaves and branches that is smaller than a tree; *a rose*

		bush
buttercup	[bʌ̱tərkʌp]	a small wild plant with bright yellow flowers
compost	[kɒ̱mpoʊst]	a mixture of dead plants and vegetables that is used to improve soil
daffodil	[dæ̱fədɪl]	a yellow flower with a long stem that appears in spring
daisy	[deɪ̱zi]	a small wildflower with a yellow center and white petals
dandelion	[dæ̱ndɪlaɪən]	a wild plant with yellow flowers that turn into balls of soft white seeds
elm	[ɛ̱lm]	a tree with broad leaves that it loses in the fall
fence	[fɛ̱ns]	a wooden or metal wall around a piece of land
fern	[fɜ̱rn]	a plant that has long stems with leaves that look like feathers

EXAMPLES

We picked apples from the upper branches of a tree.

Small pink buds were beginning to form on the bushes.

fertilizer	[fɜ̱rtəlaɪzər]	a substance that you put on soil to make plants grow well
fir tree	[fɜ̱r tri̱]	a tall evergreen tree that has thin needle-like leaves
flower	[flaʊ̱ər]	the brightly colored part of a plant; *a bunch of flowers*; *a flower bed*; *a flower pot*
forest	[fɔ̱rɪst]	a large area where trees grow close together; *a forest fire*
forget-me-not	[fərgɛ̱t mi nɒt]	a small plant with very small blue flowers
garden	[gɑ̱rdən]	**1** the part of the land by your house where you grow flowers and vegetables **2** places with plants, trees, and grass, that people can visit
garden bench	[gɑ̱rdən bɛ̱ntʃ]	a long seat of wood or metal that two or more people can sit on in a garden
garden center	[gɑ̱rdən sɛntər]	a store, usually with an outdoor area, where you can buy plants and tools for your garden
gardener	[gɑ̱rdənər]	a person who works in a garden

gardening	[gɑ̱rdᵊnɪŋ]	the activity of working in a garden
grass	[gra̱s]	a plant with thin, green leaves that cover the surface of the ground; *cut the grass*
greenhouse	[gri̱nhaʊs]	a glass building where you grow plants to protect them from bad weather
ground	[gra̱ʊnd]	the soil on the Earth's surface in which you can grow plants
grounds	[gra̱ʊndz]	the garden or area of land around a large or important building
hedge	[hɛ̱dʒ]	a row of small trees growing close together around a garden or a field

EXAMPLES

She has a beautiful garden.

The gardens are open from 10:30 a.m. until 5:00 p.m.

Mrs. Daly employs a gardener.

My favorite hobby is gardening.

We walked around the palace grounds.

hoe	[hoʊ̱]	a tool with a long handle and a small square blade that you use to break up the surface of the soil

holly	[hɒli]	a plant that has hard, shiny leaves with sharp points, and red berries in the winter
hose	[hoʊz]	a long rubber or plastic pipe that you use to put water on plants; *a garden hose*
ivy	[aɪvi]	a dark-green plant that grows up walls or along the ground
jasmine	[dʒæzmɪn]	a climbing plant which has small white or yellow flowers with a pleasant smell
lawn	[lɔn]	an area of short grass around a house or other building
lawnmower	[lɔnmoʊər]	a machine for cutting grass
leaf (PL) **leaves**	[lif] [livz]	the parts of a tree or plant that are flat, thin, and usually green; *an oak leaf*
lily	[lɪli]	a plant with large sweet-smelling flowers
oak	[oʊk]	a type of large tree
orchard	[ɔrtʃərd]	an area of land where fruit trees grow; *a cherry orchard*
orchid	[ɔrkɪd]	a plant with brightly colored,

		unusually shaped flowers
palm tree	[pɑ̱m tri]	a straight tree with a lot of long leaves at the top, which grows in tropical countries
path	[pæ̱θ]	a long, narrow piece of ground that people walk along
patio	[pæ̱tioʊ]	a flat area next to a house, where people can sit and relax or eat; *patio furniture*
petal	[pɛ̱tᵊl]	the thin colored parts of a plant that form the flower; *rose petals*
pine	[paɪ̱n]	a tall tree with long, thin leaves that it keeps all year

EXAMPLES

We had lunch on the lawn.

We followed the path through the grounds.

plant	[plæ̱nt]	a living thing that grows in the earth and has a stem, leaves, and roots
poppy	[pɒ̱pi]	a plant with large, delicate, red flowers
primrose	[prɪ̱mroʊz]	a wild plant with pale yellow

		flowers
rainforest	[reɪnfɔrɪst]	a thick forest of tall trees that grows in tropical areas where there is a lot of rain
rake	[reɪk]	a tool with a long handle, used for collecting loose grass or leaves
root	[rut]	the part of a plant that grows under the ground
rose	[roʊz]	a flower with a pleasant smell and sharp points (called thorns) on its stems
seed	[sid]	the small, hard part of a plant from which a new plant grows
shade	[ʃeɪd]	an area where direct sunlight does not reach; *in the shade*
shed	[ʃɛd]	a small building where you store things
shrub	[ʃrʌb]	a small bush
soil	[sɔɪl]	the substance on the surface of the Earth in which plants grow
sprinkler	[sprɪŋklər]	a machine that spreads drops of water over an area of grass
stalk	[stɔk]	the thin part of a flower, leaf, or

		fruit that joins it to the plant or tree
stem	[stɛ̱m]	the long, thin part of a plant that the flowers and leaves grow on
sunflower	[sʌ̱nflaʊər]	a very tall plant with large yellow flowers
thorn	[θɔ̱rn]	a sharp point on some plants and trees

EXAMPLES

Water each plant daily.

Plant the seeds in small plastic pots.

They grow well in sun or partial shade.

This book tells you how to choose shrubs for your garden.

The soil here is good for growing vegetables.

A single flower grows on each long stalk.

He cut the stem and gave her the flower.

He removed a thorn from his foot.

tree	[tri̱]	a tall plant that lives for a long time. It has a trunk, branches, and leaves; *apple trees*
trunk	[trʌ̱ŋk]	the large main stem of a tree from which the branches grow
tulip	[tu̱lɪp]	a flower that grows in the spring

		and is shaped like a cup
vase	[veɪs, vɑz]	a container that is used for holding flowers
violet	[vaɪəlɪt]	a small plant that has purple or white flowers in the spring
watering can	[wɔtərɪŋ kæn]	a container with a handle that is used to water plants
weed	[wid]	a plant that grows where you do not want it
weedkiller	[widkɪlər]	a substance that you put on your garden to kill weeds
weeping willow	[wipɪŋ wɪloʊ]	a type of tree with long thin branches that hang down to the ground
wheelbarrow	[wilbæroʊ]	an open container with one wheel and two handles, that is used for moving things such as earth or plants
window box	[wɪndoʊ bɒks]	a long narrow container on a shelf at the bottom of a window that is used for growing plants
woods	[wʊdz]	a large area of trees growing near each other

yew	[yu]	an evergreen tree with sharp leaves that are broad and flat, and red berries

VERBS

blossom	[blɒsəm]	to produce flowers
cultivate	[kʌltɪveɪt]	to grow plants on a piece of land
flower	[flaʊər]	to produce flowers

EXAMPLES

There was a small vase of flowers on the table.

The garden was full of weeds.

Rain begins to fall, and peach trees blossom.

These plants will flower soon.

grow	[groʊ]	**1** to gradually become bigger **2** used for saying that a plant or a tree lives in a particular place **3** to put seeds or young plants in the ground and take care of them
mow	[moʊ]	to cut an area of grass using a machine (called a mower); *mow the lawn*
pick	[pɪk]	to take flowers, fruit, or leaves

		from a plant or tree
plant	[plæ̲nt]	to put something into the ground so that it will grow
prune	[pru̲n]	to cut out parts of a bush or tree in order to make it grow thicker and better
tend	[tɛ̲nd]	to look after your garden and the plants in it
water	[wɔ̲tər]	to pour water over plants in order to help them to grow
weed	[wi̲d]	to remove the weeds from an area

ADJECTIVES

deciduous	[dɪsi̲dʒuəs]	a deciduous tree loses its leaves in the fall every year
evergreen	[ɛ̲vərgrin]	an evergreen tree has green leaves all year
indoor	[ɪ̲ndɔr]	done or used inside a building; *indoor plants*
leafy	[li̲fi]	**1** having a lot of leaves; *leafy trees* **2** you say that a place is leafy when there are a lot of trees and plants there

mature	[mətyʊər, -tʊər, -tʃʊər]	fully grown; *mature fruit trees*
outdoor	[aʊtdɔr]	happening outside and not in a building
overgrown	[oʊvərgroʊn]	thickly covered with plants that have not been looked after

EXAMPLES

There were roses growing by the side of the door.

He plans to plant fruit trees.

Try not to walk on the flower beds while you are weeding.

shady	[ʃeɪdi]	not in direct sunlight

PHRASE

"Stay off the grass"	used on signs to tell people not to walk on the grass

IDIOMS

have a green thumb	to be good at making plants grow (*In British English, use* **have green fingers**)
have green fingers *(BRIT)*	*see* **have a green thumb**

reading and writing

NOUNS

alphabet	[æ̱lfəbɛt, -bɪt]	a set of letters that is used for writing words
article	[ɑ̱rtɪkᵊl]	a piece of writing in a newspaper or magazine; *a newspaper article*
author	[ɔ̱θər]	the person who wrote a book or a document
ballpoint pen	[bɔlpɔɪnt pɛ̱n]	a pen with a small metal ball at the tip (*In British English, use* **Biro**)
Biro *(BRIT)*		*see* **ballpoint pen**
book	[bʊ̱k]	a number of pieces of paper, usually with words printed on them, that are fastened together and bound inside a cover
capitals	[kæ̱pɪtᵊlz]	letters in the form that is used at the beginning of sentences or names, for example "T," "B," and "F," rather than "t," "b," and "f."
chapter	[tʃæ̱ptər]	a part of a book; *See chapter 4.*

character	[kærɪktər]	one of the people in a story
colon	[koʊlən]	the punctuation mark (:) that you can use to join parts of a sentence
comic book	[kɒmɪk bʊk]	a magazine that contains stories told in pictures
comma	[kɒmə]	the punctuation mark (,) that you use to separate parts of a sentence or items in a list
conclusion	[kənkluʒən]	the ending of a story
correction fluid	[kərɛkʃən fluɪd]	a white liquid that you use to cover written mistakes
cover	[kʌvər]	the outside part of a book or a magazine

EXAMPLES

The Russian alphabet has 31 letters.

Jill Phillips is the author of “Give Your Child Music.”

Please write your name and address in capitals.

The main character in “Great Expectations” is Pip.

Her photograph was on the front cover of “Zoo” magazine.

diary	[daɪəri]	a book in which you record what happens in your life

dictionary	[dɪkʃənɛri]	a book in which the words and phrases of a language are listed, together with their meanings
document	[dɒkyəmənt]	an official piece of paper with important information on it
draft	[dræft]	a piece of writing that you have not finished working on; *a first draft*
e-book	[i bʊk]	short for "electronic book:" a book that you can read on a computer screen
editor	[ɛdɪtər]	someone whose job is to check and correct texts
encyclopedia	[ɪnsaɪkləpidiə]	a book or a CD-ROM containing facts about many different subjects
eraser	[ɪreɪsər]	a small object that you use for removing marks you have made with a pencil (*In British English, use* **rubber**)
essay	[ɛseɪ]	a short piece of writing on a subject
exclamation mark *(BRIT)*		*see* **exclamation point**

exclamation point	[ɛksklə̱meɪʃən pɔɪnt]	the punctuation mark (!) that you use at the end of a sentence to show excitement or anger (*In British English, use* **exclamation mark**)
fairy tale	[fɛə̱ri teɪl]	a story for children about magic and fairies
fiction	[fɪ̱kʃən]	books and stories about people and events that are not real
full stop *(BRIT)*		*see* **period**
handwriting	[hæ̱ndraɪtɪŋ]	your style of writing with a pen or a pencil
headline	[hɛ̱dlaɪn]	the title of a newspaper story, printed in large letters
hero	[hɪə̱roʊ]	the main male character of a story

EXAMPLES

I have kept a diary since I was eleven.

She writes romantic fiction.

The address was in Anna's handwriting.

The headline read "Government plans to build new hospitals."

heroine	[hɛ̱roʊɪn]	the main female character of a story

hyphen	[haɪfᵊn]	the punctuation sign (-) that you use to join two words together, as in “left-handed”
index	[ɪndɛks]	a list at the back of a book that tells you what is in the book and on which pages you can find each item
ink	[ɪŋk]	the colored liquid that you use for writing or printing
introduction	[ɪntrədʌkʃᵊn]	the part at the beginning of a book that tells you what the book is about
journal	[dʒɜrnᵊl]	**1** a magazine or a newspaper that deals with a special subject; *an academic journal* **2** same as **diary**
journalist	[dʒɜrnəlɪst]	someone whose job is to collect news stories and write about them for newspapers, magazines, television, or radio
language	[læŋgwɪdʒ]	**1** a system of sounds and written symbols that people of a particular country or region use in talking or writing; *the English language* **2** the use of a system of

		communication that has a set of sounds or written symbols; *improve your language skills*
legend	[lɛ̱dʒᵊnd]	a very old and popular story
letter	[lɛ̱tər]	**1** a message that you write or type on paper and send to someone; *send someone a letter* **2** a written symbol that represents a sound in a language; *the letters of the alphabet*
library	[la̱ɪbrɛri]	a place where books, newspapers, DVDs, and music are kept for people to use or borrow

EXAMPLES

The letter was written in blue ink.

literature	[lɪtərətʃər, -tʃʊr]	books, plays, and poetry that most people consider to be of high quality
magazine	[mæ̱gəzi̱n, -zin]	a thin book with stories and pictures that you can buy every week or every month
myth	[mɪ̱θ]	an ancient story about gods and

		magic; *a Greek myth*
narrator	[nǽreɪtər]	the person who tells the story in a book
newspaper	[nūzpeɪpər, nūs-]	a number of large sheets of folded paper, with news, advertisements, and other information printed on them
nonfiction	[nn̄nfīkʃᵊn]	writing that is about real people and events rather than imaginary ones
novel	[nn̄vᵊl]	a long written story about imaginary people and events
novelist	[nn̄vəlɪst]	someone who writes novels
page	[pēɪdʒ]	one side of a piece of paper in a book, a magazine, or a newspaper; *Turn to page 7.*
paper	[pēɪpər]	**1** a material that you write on; *a piece of paper* **2** a newspaper
paperback	[pēɪpərbæk]	a book with a thin cardboard or paper cover
paragraph	[pǽrəgræf]	a section of a piece of writing that begins on a new line and contains

		more than one sentence
pen	[pɛn]	a long thin object that you use for writing with ink
pencil	[pɛnsəl]	a long thin piece of wood with a black substance through the middle that you use for writing

EXAMPLES

Ayumi is studying English literature at Leeds University.

I read about the fire in the newspaper.

The library contains both fiction and nonfiction.

My favorite novel is *War and Peace.*

I'm going to the store to buy a paper.

I'll buy the book when it comes out in paperback.

period	[pɪəriəd]	the punctuation mark (.) that you use at the end of a sentence (*In British English, use* **full stop**)
play	[pleɪ]	a piece of writing performed in a theatre, on the radio, or on television
plot	[plɒt]	a series of events that make up the story of a book
poem	[poʊəm]	a piece of writing in which the words are chosen for their beauty

		and sound, and are arranged in short lines
poet	[poʊɪt]	someone who writes poems
poetry	[poʊɪtri]	the form of literature that consists of poems
punctuation	[pʌŋktʃueɪʃən]	signs such as ( ), !, or ? that you use to divide writing into sentences and phrases
question mark	[kwɛstʃən mɑrk]	the punctuation mark (?) that is used in writing at the end of a question
quotation	[kwoʊteɪʃən]	a sentence or a phrase from a book, a poem, a speech, or a play
quotation marks	[kwoʊteɪʃən mɑrks]	the punctuation marks (“ ”) or (‘ ’) that are used in writing to show where speech or a quotation begins and ends
report	[rɪpɔrt]	**1** a newspaper article that gives information about something that happened; *a newspaper report* **2** a piece of work that a student writes on a particular subject; *a book report*
rubber *(BRIT)*		*see* **eraser**

scene	[sin]	a part of a play or a book in which all the events happen in the same place
script	[skrɪpt]	the written words that actors speak in a play

EXAMPLES

Hamlet is my favorite play.

He told me the plot of his new novel.

We studied French poetry last term.

Check your spelling and punctuation.

The opening scene shows a mother and daughter having an argument.

semicolon	[sɛmikoʊlən]	the mark (;) that you use in writing to separate different parts of a sentence
sentence	[sɛntəns]	a group of words that tells you something or asks a question
story	[stɔri]	a description of imaginary people and events, that is intended to entertain people
summary	[sʌməri]	a short description of something that gives the main points but not the details

table of contents	[teɪbəl əv kɒntɛnts]	a list of chapters that is shown at the beginning of a book
thesaurus (PL) **thesauruses, thesauri**	[θɪsɔ̱rəs] [θɪsɔ̱raɪ]	a reference book in which words with similar meanings are grouped together
thriller	[θrɪlər]	an exciting book or play about a crime
title	[taɪtəl]	the name of something such as a book or a play
translation	[trænzleɪʃən]	a piece of writing or speech that has been put into a different language
vocabulary	[voʊkæbyəlɛri]	**1** all the words that someone knows in a particular language; *She has a large vocabulary.* **2** all the words in a language; *a new word in the English vocabulary* **3** the words that you use when you are talking about a particular subject; *technical vocabulary*
word	[wɜ̱rd]	a unit of language with meaning
writer	[raɪtər]	someone whose job is to write books, stories, or articles

EXAMPLES

Here is a short summary of the news.

The title of the novel is *Jane Eyre*.

The Italian word for “love” is “amore.”

writing	[raɪtɪŋ]	**1** something that has been written or printed **2** any piece of written work; *a piece of writing* **3** the activity of writing, especially of writing books for money

VERBS

copy	[kɒpi]	to write something that is exactly like another thing
delete	[dɪlit]	to put a line through something that has been written down
look something up		to try to find something in a book such as a dictionary
print	[prɪnt]	**1** to use a machine to put words or pictures on paper; *print copies of a novel* **2** to write letters that are not joined together; *print your name*

publish	[pʌblɪʃ]	to prepare and print copies of a book, a magazine, or a newspaper
read	[rid]	**1** to look at written words and understand them; *read a book* **2** to say words that you can see; *read someone a story*
rhyme	[raɪm]	to end with a very similar sound to another word; *"June" rhymes with "moon."*
set	[sɛt]	if a story is set in a particular place or time, the events in it take place in that place or time
skim	[skɪm]	to read something quickly

EXAMPLES

Lydia tried to read the writing on the next page.

Elizabeth Johnston teaches creative writing at Concordia University.

I didn't know what "subscribe" meant, so I looked it up in the dictionary.

HarperCollins will publish his new novel in March.

The novel is set in China in 1900.

He skimmed the pages quickly, then read them again more carefully.

spell	[spɛl]	**1** to write or speak each letter of a word in the correct order; *How do you spell "potato"?*

		2 to have a good knowledge of the correct order of letters in words; *Many students cannot spell.*
translate	[trænzleɪt]	to say or write something again in a different language
type	[taɪp]	to write something using a machine such as a computer
write	[raɪt]	**1** to use a pen or a pencil to produce words, letters, or numbers **2** to create something such as a book or a poem **3** to give someone information, ask them something, or express your feelings in a letter or an email; *write to someone*

EXAMPLES

Martin Luther translated the Bible into German.

Please write your name and address on the back of the photo.

She writes articles for French newspapers.

routines

NOUNS

chore	[tʃɔr]	a job that you have to do, for example, cleaning the house; *household chores*; *do the chores*
day off	[deɪ ɔf]	a day when you do not go to work; *have a day off*
free time	[fri taɪm]	time when you are not working or studying, when you can do things that you enjoy; *in your free time*
habit	[hæbɪt]	something that you do often or regularly; *a bad habit*; *an old habit*
hobby	[hɒbi]	an activity that you enjoy doing in your free time
housework	[haʊswɜrk]	the work that you do to keep a house clean and tidy; *do housework*
lifestyle	[laɪfstaɪl]	the way someone has chosen to live and behave; *a healthy lifestyle*
lunch break	[lʌntʃ breɪk]	the period in the middle of the day when you stop work in order to have a meal; *have your lunch break*

routine	[rutin]	the usual activities that you do every day; *your daily routine*
rush hour	[rʌʃ aʊər]	one of the periods of the day when most people are traveling to or from work; *rush-hour traffic*
time off	[taɪm ɔf]	a period of time when you do not work; *take time off*; *give someone time off*

VERBS

commute	[kəmyut]	to travel to work or school
shave	[ʃeɪv]	to remove hair from your face or body

EXAMPLES

She's always busy and has lots of hobbies.
Skiing is an expensive hobby.
I had to drive eight miles during rush hour.
Many women shave their legs.
He always shaves before breakfast.

do the shopping	to go to stores to buy things
drop someone	to take someone to a place in a car

off	and leave them there
get dressed	to put clothes on yourself
get ready	to completely prepare yourself for something
get up	to get out of bed
go home	to return to the place where you live
go to bed	to lie down in your bed to sleep
go to sleep	to fall asleep
go to work	to go to the place where you do your job
take a bath	to sit or lie down in a bath filled with water to wash your body
take a shower	to wash yourself by standing under the water that comes from a shower
have breakfast	to eat the first meal of the day
have dinner	to eat the main meal of the day, which is usually served in the evening
have lunch	to eat the meal that you have in the middle of the day

make dinner	to prepare the main meal of the day, which is usually served in the evening
pick someone up	to collect someone from a place, often in a car
set your alarm	to adjust an alarm clock so that it will wake you at a particular time
sleep in	to sleep until after the time you usually get up in the morning

EXAMPLES

Dad dropped me off at school on his way to work.
It takes her a long time to get ready for school.
They have to get up early in the morning.
We went to bed at about 10 p.m.
It was time to go to work.
Would you like to stay and have dinner?
I pick the children up from school at three o'clock.
Dad set the alarm for eight the next day.

tidy up	to organize a place by putting things in their usual places
wake up	to stop sleeping

ADVERBS

during the week	on any day from Monday to Friday
every day	on each day without exception
every week	at least one time each week
in the afternoon	during the part of the day that begins at lunchtime and ends at about six o'clock
in the evening	during the part of the day between the end of the afternoon and midnight
in the morning	during the part of the day between the time that people usually wake up and noon
on weekends	on Saturdays and Sundays

IDIOMS

burn the candle at both ends	to stay up very late at night and get up very early in the morning
go out like a light	to fall asleep very quickly
on the go	always busy and active

EXAMPLES

It was cold and dark when I woke up at 6:30.

He never goes out during the week.

They got up every day before dawn.

He calls his mother every week.

He’s arriving in the afternoon.

We usually have dinner at seven in the evening.

The first thing people do in the morning is open the curtains.

She was never at home on weekends.

I’ve been on the go all day.

school

NOUNS

assembly	[əsɛ̲mbli]	a meeting of all the teachers and students at the beginning of a school day; *a school assembly*
attendance	[ətɛ̲ndəns]	an official list of when students attend a class; *take attendance* (*In British English, use* **register**)
blackboard	[blæ̲kbɔrd]	a chalkboard
box lunch	[bɒ̲ks lʌ̲ntʃ]	food that you take to school and eat as your lunch; *take/have a box lunch* (*In British English, use* **packed lunch**)
break *(BRIT)*		*see* **recess**
bully	[bʊ̲li]	someone who uses their strength or power to frighten other people; *school bullies*
cafeteria	[kæ̲fɪtɪ̲əriə]	a place in a school where students can buy and eat lunch; *the school cafeteria* (*In British English, use* **canteen**)

canteen *(BRIT)*		*see* **cafeteria**
caretaker *(BRIT)*		*see* **janitor**
chalkboard	[tʃɔ̱kbɔrd]	a big, dark-colored board for writing on in a classroom
class	[klæ̱s]	**1** a group of students who learn at school together **2** a time when you learn something at school
classroom	[klæ̱srum]	a room in a school where lessons take place
desk	[dɛ̱sk]	a table that you sit at to write or work
education	[ɛ̱dʒʊkɛ̱ɪʃᵊn]	teaching and learning; *secondary/elementary education*; *higher/continuing education*; *sex/health education*

EXAMPLES

We have an assembly on Tuesday and Friday mornings.

He spent six months in a class with younger students.

Classes start at 9 o'clock.

We do lots of reading in class.

elementary school	[ɛlɪmɛntəri skul, -tri]	a school for children between the ages of five and 11 (*In British English, use* **primary school**)
essay	[ɛseɪ]	a short piece of writing on a subject; *write an essay*
exam	[ɪgzæm]	a formal test that you take to show your knowledge of a subject; *take/sit an exam*; *pass/fail an exam*; *exam results*
examination	[ɪgzæmɪneɪʃən]	[FORMAL] exam
exercise	[ɛksərsaɪz]	an activity that you do in order to practice a skill; *a writing exercise*; *an exercise book*
grade	[greɪd]	**1** the mark that a teacher gives you to show how good your work is (*In British English, use* **mark**) **2** a group of classes taken by children who are of a similar age
gym	[dʒɪm]	a large room with equipment for doing physical exercises
holiday *(BRIT)*		*see* **vacation**
homework	[hoʊmwɜrk]	school work that teachers give to students to do at home in the evening or during the weekend; *do*

		your homework
janitor	[dʒæ̲nɪtər]	someone who looks after a school building and the area around it; *a school janitor* (*In British English, use* **caretaker**)
lesson	[lɛ̲sᵊn]	a time when you learn about a particular subject; *a history lesson*
lunchbox	[lʌ̲ntʃbɒks]	a small container for taking lunch to school
mark	[mɑ̲rk]	a number or letter on a student's work to show how good it is
mistake	[mɪste̲ɪk]	something that is not correct

EXAMPLES

She always got the highest grades.

He stayed there until the fifth grade, when he was about eleven.

I have homework every day.

Tony made three spelling mistakes in this essay.

packed lunch *(BRIT)*		*see* **box lunch**
PE	[pi̲ i̲]	short for "physical education:" a class in which students do physical exercises or sports

period	[pɪəriəd]	one of the parts of the school day when lessons take place; *a free period*
playground	[pleɪgraʊnd]	a piece of land where children can play at school; *the school playground*
preschool	[priskul]	a school for children between the ages of two and five or six
primary school *(BRIT)*		*see* **elementary school**
principal	[prɪnsɪpəl]	a teacher who is in charge of a public school
private school	[praɪvɪt skul]	a school that parents have to pay for their children to go to
public school	[pʌblɪk skul]	**1** in the USA, Australia, and some other countries, a school that usually provides free education **2** in the UK, a private school that provides secondary education which parents have to pay for
pupil	[pyupɪl]	one of the children who go to a school
recess	[rɪsɛs, risɛs]	a period of time between classes at school when students can play or

		eat (*In British English, use* **break**)
register *(BRIT)*		*see* **attendance**
result	[rɪzʌlt]	facts such as a score that you get at the end of a competition or a test; *test results*
schedule	[skɛdʒul, -uəl]	a list that shows the times in the week when particular subjects are taught; *an exam schedule*
school	[skul]	a place where people go to learn; *a school bus*; *school lunch*

EXAMPLES

He goes to a private school.

After the first two lessons, we have recess.

school rules	[skul rulz]	a list of things that students must do or must not do when they are at school; *obey school rules*
school uniform	[skul yunɪfɔrm]	the special clothes that some students wear at school; *wear/have a school uniform*
schoolchildren	[skultʃɪldrən]	children who go to school
secondary	[sɛkəndɛri skul]	the same as **high school**

school		
semester	[sɪmɛstər]	one of the periods of time that a school year is divided into; *this/last semester*
smart board™	[smɑrt bɔrd]	a large electronic board that can be used for teaching and learning
special education	[spɛʃəl ɛdʒʊkeɪʃən]	teaching for students who need extra help with their studies
state school	[steɪt skul]	a government school that children can attend without having to pay; *go to a state school*
student	[studənt]	a person who is studying at a school
subject	[sʌbdʒɪkt]	an area of knowledge that you study in school
teacher	[titʃər]	a person whose job is to give lessons in a subject at a school; *an English teacher*; *a science teacher*; *a elementary/high school school teacher*
term	[tɜrm]	a semester
test	[tɛst]	a series of questions that students must answer to show how much

		they know about a subject; *pass/fail a test*
textbook	[tɛ̱kstbʊk]	a book containing facts about a particular subject
tutor	[tu̱tər]	someone who gives private lessons to one student or a very small group of students; *a private tutor*; *an English tutor*

EXAMPLES

The school's principal will retire at the end of the semester.

Math is my favorite subject.

vacation	[veɪkeɪʃᵊn]	the time when children do not have to go to school; *summer vacation* (*In British English, use* **holiday**)
whiteboard	[waɪtbɔrd]	a shiny, white board that teachers draw or write on, using special pens

VERBS

ask	[ɑsk, æsk]	to say something in the form of a question; *ask a question*

answer	[ænsər]	to write or say what you think is the correct answer to a question; *answer a question*
bully	[bʊli]	to use your strength or power to frighten other people
cheat	[tʃit]	to do something that is not honest or fair, often because you want to get something
correct	[kərɛkt]	to look at a piece of writing and mark the mistakes in it; *correct students' work*; *correct mistakes*
expel	[ɪkspɛl]	to officially tell a student to leave a school permanently
fail	[feɪl]	not to pass an exam or a test; *fail an exam*
grade	[greɪd]	to judge the quality of a test or essay using with a letter or number; *grade a student's paper*
learn	[lɜrn]	to get knowledge or a skill by studying
let out		to start summer vacation
mark	[mɑrk]	to write a number or letter on a student's work to show how good

		it is; *mark an essay*
pass	[pæs]	to succeed in an exam; *pass an exam*
punish	[pʌnɪʃ]	to make someone suffer in some way because they have done something wrong

EXAMPLES

I think they were bullied in school.

Students sometimes cheated in order to get into top schools.

She was expelled for cheating on an exam.

The schools let out this weekend.

put up your hand		to raise your hand in the air in order to show that you want to answer a question
read	[rid]	to look at written words and understand them; *learn to read and write*
repeat	[rɪpit]	to say or write the same thing that someone else has said or written
review	[rɪvyu]	to study something again in order to prepare for an exam (*In British English, use* **revise**)

revise *(BRIT)*		*see* **review**
study	[stʌdi]	to spend time learning about a particular subject; *study history*
teach	[titʃ]	to give lessons in a subject at a school
write	[raɪt]	to use a pen or a pencil to produce words, letters, or numbers

ADJECTIVES

absent	[æbsᵊnt]	not at school
correct	[kərɛkt]	right or true; *a correct answer*
difficult	[dɪfɪkʌlt, -kəlt]	requiring a lot of effort; *a difficult question*
easy	[izi]	not difficult; *an easy task*
present	[prɛzᵊnt]	at school; *be present*

ADVERB

off by heart	using only your memory

EXAMPLES

I have to review for my math exam.

Christine teaches biology at Piper High.

“Was he at school yesterday?” — “No, he was absent.”

She’s learnt the whole speech off by heart.

science

NOUNS

acid	[æsɪd]	a chemical, usually a liquid, that can burn your skin and cause damage to other substances; *citric acid*
astronaut	[æstrənɔt]	a person who is trained to travel in space
astronomy	[əstrɒnəmi]	the scientific study of the stars, planets, and other natural objects in space
atom	[ætəm]	the very smallest part of a substance
axis (PL) **axes**	[æksɪs] [æksiz]	**1** an imaginary line through the middle of something; *the Earth's axis* **2** one of the two lines of a graph on which you mark points to show amounts; *the vertical/horizontal axis*
botany	[bɒtəni]	the scientific study of plants

cell	[sɛ̱l]	the smallest part of an animal or plant; *brain cells*
charge	[tʃɑ̱rdʒ]	the amount or type of electrical force that something has; *an electrical charge*
chemical	[kɛ̱mɪkəl]	a substance that is used in a chemical process or made by a chemical process
chemist	[kɛ̱mɪst]	a scientist who studies chemistry
chemistry	[kɛ̱mɪstri]	the science of the structure of gases, liquids, and solids, and how they change
circuit	[sɜ̱rkɪt]	a complete path that electricity can flow around; *an electrical circuit*
compound	[kɒ̱mpaʊ̱nd]	a substance that is made from two or more elements, for example, carbon dioxide
current	[kɜ̱rənt]	a steady flow of water, air, or energy
electricity	[ɪlɛktrɪ̱sɪti, i̱lɛk-]	energy that is used for producing heat and light, and to provide power for machines

element	[ɛ̱lɪmənt]	a basic chemical substance such as gold, oxygen, or carbon
energy	[ɛ̱nərdʒi]	the power from electricity or the sun, for example, that makes machines work or provides heat

EXAMPLES

The device converts energy from the sun into electrical energy.

evolution	[i̱vəlu̱ʃən, ɛ̱v-]	a process in which animals or plants slowly change over many years
experiment	[ɪkspɛ̱rɪmənt]	a scientific test that you do in order to discover what happens to something; *conduct an experiment*
force	[fɔ̱rs]	the pulling or pushing effect that one thing has on another; *the Earth's gravitational force*
formula (PL) **formulas,** formulae	[fɔ̱rmyələ] [fɔrmyəli]	**1** a group of letters, numbers, or other symbols that represents a scientific rule **2** a description of the chemical elements that a substance contains

fuse	[fyu̱z]	a small wire in a piece of electrical equipment that stops it from working when too much electricity passes through it
gene	[dʒi̱n]	the part of a cell that controls a person's, an animal's, or a plant's physical characteristics, growth, and development
genetics	[dʒɪnɛ̱tɪks]	the study of how qualities are passed on from parents to children
gravity	[græ̱vɪti]	the force that makes things fall to the ground
hormone	[hɔ̱rmoʊn]	a chemical substance in your body that affects the way your body works
laboratory	[læ̱brətɔri]	a building or a room where scientific work is done
lens	[lɛ̱nz]	a thin, curved piece of glass or plastic used in things such as cameras and glasses. A lens makes things look larger, smaller, or clearer.
magnet	[mæ̱gnɪt]	a piece of special metal that attracts iron or steel towards it

EXAMPLES

He developed a mathematical formula describing the distances of the planets from the Sun.

The Earth's gravity pulls the oceans in daily tides.

microscope	[maɪkrəskoʊp]	a scientific instrument that makes very small objects look bigger
molecule	[mɒlɪkyul]	the smallest amount of a chemical substance that can exist by itself
organism	[ɔrgənɪzəm]	a living thing
physics	[fɪzɪks]	the scientific study of things such as heat, light and sound
power	[paʊər]	energy that can be used for making electricity or for making machines work
radar	[reɪdɑr]	a way of discovering the position of objects when they cannot be seen, by using radio signals
science	[saɪəns]	the study of natural things
scientist	[saɪəntɪst]	someone whose job is to teach or do research in science
spacecraft	[speɪskræft]	a vehicle that can travel in space
specimen	[spɛsɪmɪn]	an example or a small amount of

		something; *examine a specimen*
test tube	[tɛst tub]	a small tube-shaped container made from glass. Test tubes are used in laboratories.
theory	[θɪəri]	an idea or a set of ideas that tries to explain something
volt	[voʊlt]	a unit used for measuring electricity; *a 12-volt battery*
watt	[wɒt]	a unit for measuring electrical power; *a 60-watt light bulb*

VERBS

dilute	[daɪlut]	to add water to another liquid
dissect	[dɪsɛkt, daɪ-]	to cut open a dead body in order to examine it

EXAMPLES

The system creates enough power to run four lights.

The mystery objects showed up on the plane's radar.

Albert Einstein developed the Theory of Relativity.

Dilute the fruit juice thoroughly.

dissolve	[dɪzɒlv]	to become completely mixed with a liquid

evaporate	[ɪvæpəreɪt]	to change from a liquid into a gas
evolve	[ɪvɒlv]	to gradually develop over a period of time into something different
measure	[mɛʒər]	to find out the size of something
test	[tɛst]	to use something to find out what condition it is in, or how well it works

ADJECTIVES

atomic	[ətɒmɪk]	relating to atoms or to power that is produced by splitting atoms
chemical	[kɛmɪkəl]	relating to chemistry or chemicals; *a chemical reaction*
electric	[ɪlɛktrɪk]	**1** working using electricity; *an electric car* **2** carrying electricity; *electric cables*
nuclear	[nukliər]	relating to the energy that is released when the central parts of atoms are split or combined; *a nuclear power station*
scientific	[saɪəntɪfɪk]	relating to science; *a scientific experiment*

EXAMPLES

Boil the water and sugar until the sugar has dissolved completely.

Water evaporates from the oceans into the atmosphere.

Humans have evolved with the power to hold things.

He spends a lot of time conducting scientific research.

shopping

NOUNS

baker's	[beɪkərz]	a store where bread and cakes are sold
barcode	[bɑrkoʊd]	a set of lines on a product that tell the computer its price
bargain	[bɑrgɪn]	something that is sold at a lower price than usual
bookshop *(BRIT)*		*see* **bookstore**
bookstore	[bʊkstɔr]	a store where books are sold (*In British English, use* **bookshop**)
boutique	[butik]	a small store that sells fashionable clothes, shoes, or jewelry
business hours	[bɪznɪs aʊərz]	the hours that a store is open
butcher's	[bʊtʃərz]	a store where meat is sold
candy store	[kændi stɔr]	a store where candy is sold
carrier bag *(BRIT)*		*see* **shopping bag**
cash	[kæʃ]	coins and bills, rather than a check

		or bank card
catalog	[kæt^əlɒg]	a list of things you can buy from a particular company
change	[tʃeɪndʒ]	the money that you get back when you pay with more money than something costs
checkout	[tʃɛkaʊt]	the place in a store where you pay
check	[tʃɛk]	a printed piece of paper from a bank that you write an amount of money on and use to pay for things; *pay by check* (*In British English, use* **cheque**)
chemist's *(BRIT)*		*see* **pharmacy**
cheque *(BRIT)*		*see* **check**
clothing store	[kloʊðɪŋ stɔr]	a store where you can buy clothes

EXAMPLES

I got these cakes from the baker's this morning.

If you go early, you could get a real bargain.

Contact them during their business hours.

I'm afraid we only accept cash.

Here's your change.

complaint	[kəmpleɪnt]	when you say that you are not satisfied with the service or products you have received
credit card	[krɛdɪt kɑrd]	a plastic card that you use to buy goods now and pay for them later; *pay by credit card*
customer	[kʌstəmər]	someone who buys something from a store or a website
department	[dɪpɑrtmənt]	one of the sections in a department store; *the toy department*
department store	[dɪpɑrtmənt stɔr]	a large store that sells many different types of goods
discount	[dɪskaʊnt]	a reduction in the usual price of something
fishmonger's	[fɪʃmʌŋgərz, -mɒŋ-]	a store where fish is sold (*mainly BRIT*)
florist's	[flɔrɪsts]	a store where flowers are sold
gift shop	[gɪft ʃɒp]	a store that sells things that people give as presents
goods	[gʊdz]	things that you can buy or sell; *electrical goods*
greengrocer's	[grɪngroʊsərz]	a store where fruit and vegetables

		are sold (*mainly BRIT*)
grocery store	[groʊsəri stɔr, groʊsri]	a store that sells food and other things that you need at home
jeweler's	[dʒuələrz]	a store where jewelry is sold (*In British English, use* **jeweller's**)
jeweller's *(BRIT)*		*see* **jeweler's**
line	[laɪn]	a line of people who are waiting for something; *wait in a line* (*In British English, use* **queue**)
mail order	[meɪl ɔrdər]	a system in which you choose goods from a catalog and they are sent to you in the mail
market	[mɑrkɪt]	a place where people buy and sell goods on tables; *a farmers' market*

EXAMPLES

I want to make a complaint.

newsagent's *(BRIT)*		*see* **newsstand**
newsstand	[nuzstænd]	a place where newspapers and magazines are sold (*In British*

		English, use **newsagent's**)
online store	[ɒnlaɪn stɔr]	a website with photos and details of goods that customers can buy
pharmacy	[fɑrməsi]	a store that sells medicines and beauty products (*In British English, use* **chemist's**)
price	[praɪs]	the amount of money that you have to pay when you buy something
queue *(BRIT)*		*see* **line**
receipt	[rɪsit]	a piece of paper that shows that you have paid for something
refund	[rifʌnd]	money that is given back to you when you return goods to a store
sale	[seɪl]	an occasion when a store sells things at a lower price than usual
sales clerk	[seɪlz klɜrk]	someone whose job is to deal with customers in a store (*In British English, use* **shop assistant**)
shoe store	[ʃu stɔr]	a store where shoes are sold
shop *(BRIT)*		*see* **store**
shop assistant *(BRIT)*		*see* **sales clerk**

shopping	[ʃɒ̱pɪŋ]	the activity of going to stores to buy things; *go shopping*; *do the shopping*
shopping bag	[ʃɒ̱pɪŋ bæg]	a large bag that is used for carrying things that you have bought (*In British English, use* **carrier bag**)
shopping cart	[ʃɒ̱pɪŋ kɑrt]	a wire or plastic basket on wheels in which you put all the things that you want to buy in a particular store (*In British English, use* **shopping trolley**)

EXAMPLES

The price of bread went up by 20 percent last year.

Please make sure you keep your receipt.

I'd like a refund.

I bought these jeans in the sale.

shopping center	[ʃɒ̱pɪŋ sɛntər]	an area in a town where there are a lot of stores
shopping list	[ʃɒ̱pɪŋ lɪst]	a list of all the things that you want to buy
shopping trolley *(BRIT)*		*see* **shopping cart**

size	[saɪz]	how big or small something is
special offer	[spɛʃəl ɔfər]	a low price that is offered by a store for a period of time
stationer's	[steɪʃənərs]	a store where you can buy things for writing such as paper, pens, and pencils
store	[stɔr]	a place where you buy things (*In British English, use* **shop**)
supermarket	[supərmɑrkɪt]	a large store that sells food and other products for the home
till	[tɪl]	a machine that holds money in a store
toy store	[tɔɪ stɔr]	a store where toys are sold
window shopping	[wɪndoʊ ʃɒpɪŋ]	the activity of looking in stores without buying anything

VERBS

browse	[braʊz]	to look at things in a store, without buying anything
buy	[baɪ]	to get something by paying money for it
close	[kloʊz]	when a store closes, it stops being open, so that people cannot go in

		and buy things
cost	[kɔ̱st]	to have as a price
open	[o̱ʊpən]	when a store opens, people can go in and buy things
pay	[pe̱ɪ]	to give someone an amount of money for something that you are buying
return	[rɪtɜ̱rn]	to bring back something you bought because you do not want it any more

EXAMPLES

Do you have this in a smaller size?

How much does it cost?

Can I pay with this card?

You may return any goods within 14 days.

sell	[sɛ̱l]	to have something available for people to buy
spend	[spɛ̱nd]	to use money to buy things
try something on		to put a piece of clothing on in order to see if it fits

ADJECTIVES

cheap	[tʃip]	**1** costing little money or less than you expected **2** costing less money than similar products but often of bad quality
closed	[klouzd]	a store that is closed is not open, so people cannot go in and buy things
expensive	[ɪkspɛnsɪv]	costing a lot of money
in stock	[ɪn stɒk]	available for customers to buy in a store
on sale	[ɒn seɪl]	**1** available for people to buy **2** available to buy at a lower price than usual
open	[oʊpən]	when a store is open, people can go in and buy things
out of stock	[aʊt əv stɒk]	no longer available for customers to buy
reduced	[rɪdust]	at a lower price than usual; *a reduced price*
secondhand	[sɛkəndhænd]	already used by another person; not new; *a secondhand car*

PHRASES

“Anything else?”	used by a sales assistant to ask if there are any other things you would like to buy
“Just looking.”	used for telling a sales assistant that you do not need any help

EXAMPLES

Do you sell stamps?

Can I try this on?

I’d like something cheaper.

It’s too expensive.

I’m afraid we don’t have your size in stock.

society and politics

NOUNS

ambassador	[æmbæsədər]	an important official person who lives in a foreign country and represents his or her own country there; *the American ambassador in Berlin*
army	[ɑrmi]	a large group of soldiers who are trained to fight battles on land
asylum seeker	[əsaɪləm sikər]	someone who asks the government of a foreign country if they can live there, because they are in danger in their own country
capitalism	[kæpɪtəlɪzəm]	an economic and political system in which property, business, and industry are privately owned
capitalist	[kæpɪtəlɪst]	someone who supports the ideas of capitalism
caste	[kæst]	one of the social classes into which people in a Hindu society are divided

ceasefire	[sisfaɪər]	an agreement to stop fighting for a period of time; *declare a ceasefire*
citizen	[sɪtɪzᵊn]	**1** a person who legally belongs to a particular country **2** a person who lives in a town or a city
civilian	[sɪvɪlyən]	a person who is not a member of the armed forces
civil war	[sɪvᵊl wɔr]	a war that is fought between different groups of people living in the same country
class	[klæs]	a group of people with the same economic and social position in a society
communism	[kɒmyənɪzəm]	an economic and political system in which property, business, and industry are owned by the state
communist	[kɒmyənɪst]	someone who supports the ideas of communism

EXAMPLES

Prince Charlie's army marched on Edinburgh in 1745.

The number of asylum seekers entering the U.S. fell last month.

Ten civilians died in the attack.

community	[kəmyu͟nɪti]	a group of people who are similar in some way, or have similar interests; *the Muslim community*
council	[ka͟ʊnsᵊl]	a group of people who are chosen to control a particular area; *the local council*
country	[kʌ͟ntri]	an area of the world with its own government and people
culture	[kʌ͟ltʃər]	the way of life, the traditions, and beliefs of a particular group of people
democracy	[dɪmp͟krəsi]	a system of government in which people choose their leaders by voting for them in elections
dictator	[dɪkte͟ɪtər]	a ruler who uses force to keep power in a country
election	[ɪle͟kʃᵊn]	a process in which people vote in order to choose a person who will hold an official position; *a presidential election*
embassy	[e͟mbəsi]	**1** a group of officials, headed by an ambassador, who represent their government in a foreign country

		2 the building in which these people work
emperor	[ɛ̲mpərər]	a man who rules an empire
empire	[ɛ̲mpaɪər]	several separate nations that are all controlled by the ruler of one particular country
globalization	[glo̲ʊ̲bəlɪze̲ɪ̲ʃən]	the idea that the world is developing a single economy as a result of modern technology and communications
government	[gʌ̲vərnmənt]	the group of people who control and organize a country, a state, or a city
human rights	[hyu̲mən raɪts]	the rights that all people in a society should have
immigrant	[ɪ̲mɪgrənt]	a person who comes to live in a country from another country

EXAMPLES

The embassy has confirmed the report.

A police officer was guarding the embassy.

The country has a poor human rights record.

independence	[ɪ̲ndɪpɛ̲ndəns]	a situation in which one country is

		not controlled by another country
king	[kɪŋ]	a man from a royal family, who is the head of state of that country
kingdom	[kɪŋdəm]	a country that is ruled by a king or a queen
the middle class	[ðə mɪdəl klæs]	the people in a society who are well educated, and who have professional jobs, for example, teachers, doctors, and lawyers
monarchy	[mɒnərki]	a system in which a country has a king or a queen
MP	[ɛm pi]	short for "Member of Parliament:" in Britain, a person in the government who has been elected to represent the people from a particular area
nation	[neɪʃən]	an individual country, its people, and its social and political structures
nationality	[næʃənælıti]	**1** the state of being a legal citizen of a particular country; *Polish nationality* **2** a group of people who have the same race, culture, or language

parliament	[pɑ̱rləmənt]	the group of people who make or change the laws of some countries
party	[pɑ̱rti]	a political organization whose members have similar aims and beliefs; *the Republican Party*
peace	[pi̱s]	a situation where there is not a war
politics	[pɒ̱lɪtɪks]	the activities and ideas that are concerned with government
population	[pɒ̱pyəleɪ̱ʃᵊn]	all the people who live in a country or an area
president	[prɛ̱zɪdənt]	the person who is in charge of a country that has no king or queen

EXAMPLES

We have several different nationalities in our team.

NATO forces were sent to Kosovo to keep the peace.

prime minister	[praɪ̱m mɪnɪstər]	the leader of a government in some countries
queen	[kwi̱n]	**1** a woman from a royal family who rules a country **2** the wife of a king
refugee	[rɛ̱fyudʒi̱]	a person who has been forced to

		leave their home or their country, because it is too dangerous for them there
republic	[rɪpʌblɪk]	a country with no king or queen, where the people choose their government
revolution	[rɛvəluʃən]	an attempt by a group of people to change their country's government by using force
ruler	[rulər]	the person who rules a country
slave	[sleɪv]	a person who belongs to another person and who is forced to work for them without being paid
soldier	[soʊldʒər]	a member of an army
state	[steɪt]	**1** a country, especially when it is considered politically; *EU member states* **2** a smaller area that some large countries such as the United States are divided into; *the state of Michigan* **3** the government of a country; *a state-owned bank*
territory	[tɛrətɔri]	all the land that a particular

		country owns
terrorism	[tɛ̱rərɪzəm]	the use of violence to force a government to do something
terrorist	[tɛ̱rərɪst]	a person who uses violence to achieve political aims
the upper class	[ði ʌ̱pər klæ̱s]	the people in a society who have the highest position in society
volunteer	[vɒ̱lənṯɪə̱r]	someone who works without being paid
war	[wɔ̱r]	a period of fighting between countries or groups

EXAMPLES

In 1818, Argentina was at war with Spain.

the working class	[ðə wɜ̱rkɪŋ klæ̱s]	the people in a society who are less educated, and who have less money than other people

VERBS

assassinate	[əsæ̱sɪne̱ɪt]	to murder someone for political reasons
break out		when war breaks out, it begins

conquer	[kɒŋkər]	to take complete control of the land of another country or group of people
elect	[ɪlɛkt]	to choose a person to do a particular job by voting for them; *elect a president*
govern	[gʌvərn]	to officially control and organize a country
invade	[ɪnveɪd]	to attack and enter a country
reign	[reɪn]	to rule a country as king or queen
volunteer	[vɒləntɪər]	to work without being paid
vote	[voʊt]	to show your choice officially in an election; *vote in an election*

ADJECTIVES

armed	[ɑrmd]	carrying a weapon, usually a gun; *armed forces*
capitalist	[kæpɪtᵊlɪst]	relating to or supporting capitalism
communist	[kɒmyənɪst]	relating to or supporting communism
democratic	[dɛməkrætɪk]	**1** having or relating to a political system in which the leaders are

		elected by the people they govern; *democratic elections* **2** based on the idea that everyone has equal rights and should be involved in making important decisions; *a democratic decision*
global	[gloʊbəl]	relating to the whole world; *the global economy*
international	[ɪntərnæʃənəl]	involving different countries

EXAMPLES

The president was assassinated, and the army took over.

Victoria reigned for over 60 years.

local	[loʊkəl]	in or relating to the area where you live
national	[næʃənəl]	**1** relating to the whole of a country or nation; *a national newspaper* **2** typical of the people or traditions of a particular country or nation; *a national pastime*
patriotic	[peɪtriɒtɪk]	feeling love and loyalty towards your country

public	[pʌ̲blɪk]	**1** relating to all the people in a country or a community; *public opinion* **2** for everyone to use; *a public swimming pool*
social	[so̲ʊ̲ʃəl]	relating to society
socialist	[so̲ʊ̲ʃəlɪst]	relating to socialism
voluntary	[vɒ̲lənt̬ɛri]	voluntary work is done by people who are not paid

IDIOMS

the grass roots	the ordinary people in a society, rather than the leaders
win by a landslide	to win an election by a very large number of votes

sports

NOUN

sport	[spɔ̱rt]	a game or other activity that needs physical effort and skill

TYPES OF SPORTS

aerobics	[ɛərou̱bɪks]	a form of exercise that makes your heart and lungs stronger; *do aerobics*
American football *(BRIT)*		*see* **football**
badminton	[bæ̱dmɪntən]	a game in which two or four players stand on either side of a high net and get points by hitting a small object (called a shuttlecock or birdie) across it using a racket; *play badminton*
baseball	[beɪ̱sbɔl]	a game in which two teams of nine players get points by hitting a ball with a bat and running around four bases in a large field; *play baseball*

basketball	[bɑskɪtbɔl, bæs-]	a game in which two teams of five players each try to throw a large ball through a round net hanging from a high metal ring; *play basketball*
boxing	[bɒksɪŋ]	a sport in which two people fight following special rules
cricket	[krɪkɪt]	a game played by two teams who try to score points by hitting a ball with a wooden bat; *play cricket*
darts	[dɑrts]	a game in which you throw darts (= small pointed objects) at a round board that has numbers on it; *play darts*
football	[fʊtbɔl]	**1** a game in which two teams of eleven players try to get an oval (= egg-shaped) ball to their opponents' end of the field; *play football* (*In British English, use* **American football**) **2** (*BRIT*) *see* **soccer**

EXAMPLES

What's your favorite sport?

Terry was the captain of Chelsea Football Club.

golf	[gɒlf]	a game in which you use long sticks (called golf clubs) to hit a small, hard ball into a hole in the ground; *play golf*
gymnastics	[dʒɪmnæstɪks]	a sport that consists of physical exercises that develop your strength and your ability to move easily; *do gymnastics*
hockey	[hɒki]	a sport in which two teams of eleven players use long curved sticks to hit a small hard ball; *play hockey*
horseback riding	[hɔrsbæk raɪdɪŋ]	the sport of riding on a horse; *go horseback riding* (*In British English, use* **horse-riding**)
horse racing	[hɔrs reɪsɪŋ]	a sport in which riders (called jockeys) race against each other on horses
horse-riding *(BRIT)*		*see* **horseback riding**
ice skating	[aɪs skeɪtɪŋ]	the sport of moving around on ice wearing ice skates; *go ice skating*
jogging	[dʒɒgɪŋ]	the sport of running slowly; *go jogging*

judo	[dʒʊ̱doʊ]	a sport in which two people try to throw each other to the ground; *do judo*
karate	[kərɑ̱ti]	a Japanese sport in which people fight using their hands, feet, and legs; *do karate*
rugby	[rʌ̱gbi]	a game in which two teams try to get a ball past a line at the end of the field; *play rugby*
skiing	[skɪ̱ɪŋ]	the sport of traveling over snow on skis; *go skiing*
snooker	[snʊ̱kər]	a game that is played on a special table. Players use a long stick to hit a white ball so that it knocks colored balls into holes around the edge of the table; *play snooker* (*mainly BRIT*)
soccer	[sɒ̱kər]	a game in which two teams of eleven players try to win points by kicking the ball into an area at their opponent's end of the field (*In British English, use* **football**)
squash	[skwɒ̱ʃ]	a game in which two players hit a small rubber ball against the walls of a court; *play squash*

swimming	[swɪmɪŋ]	the sport of moving through water using your arms and legs; *go swimming*
tennis	[tɛnɪs]	a game for two or four players, who use rackets (= special bats) to hit a ball across a net between them; *a game of tennis*; *play tennis*
volleyball	[vɒlibɔl]	a game in which two teams hit a large ball over a high net with their arms or hands; *play volleyball*
windsurfing	[wɪndsɜrfɪŋ]	a sport in which you move across water on a long narrow board with a sail on it; *go windsurfing*

PEOPLE

athlete	[æθlit]	someone who is good at physical sports, exercise, or games, especially in competitions
captain	[kæptɪn]	the leader of a sports team
champion	[tʃæmpɪən]	the winner of a sports competition or game; *the world champion*
coach	[koʊtʃ]	someone who is in charge of teaching a person or a sports team

fan	[fæn]	someone who likes a particular sport, team, or player very much; *football fans*
opponent	[əpoʊnənt]	the person who is against you in a sports competition
player	[pleɪər]	a person who takes part in a sport or game
referee	[rɛfərɪ]	the person who makes sure that players do not break the rules in a match
spectator	[spɛkteɪtər]	someone who is watching a sports event
team	[tɪm]	a group of people who play a sport against other groups of people
umpire	[ʌmpaɪr]	someone who watches a game such as tennis or baseball to make sure that the players do not break the rules

EXAMPLES

She praised her opponent's ability.

She was a good golfer and tennis player.

The referee blew his whistle to end the game.

The umpire's decision is final.

winner	[wɪnər]	the person who wins a prize, a race, or a competition

PLACES

boxing ring	[bɒksɪŋ rɪŋ]	a square area with ropes around it, where boxing matches take place
court	[kɔrt]	an area for playing a game such as tennis or basketball; *a tennis court*
golf course	[gɒlf kɔrs]	an area of land where people play golf
gymnasium	[dʒɪmneɪʒɪəm]	a room or hall with equipment for doing physical exercise
ice rink	[aɪs rɪŋk]	an area of ice that people can skate on
pitch	[pɪtʃ]	an area of ground that is used for playing a game such as football; *a football pitch*
racetrack	[reɪstræk]	a track that is used for races
stadium	[steɪdɪəm]	a large sports field with rows of seats all around it; *a football stadium*
swimming pool	[swɪmɪŋ pul]	a place that has been built for people to swim in

EQUIPMENT AND CLOTHING

ball	[bɔ̱l]	a round object that you kick, throw, or hit in some sports and games
basket	[bɑ̱skɪt, bæ̱s-]	the net that you throw the ball through in basketball
bat	[bæ̱t]	a long piece of wood that is used for hitting the ball in games such as baseball or cricket; *a baseball/cricket bat*
golf club	[gɒ̱lf klʌb]	a long, thin, metal stick that you use to hit the ball in golf
net	[nɛ̱t]	**1** in tennis, and some other sports, the piece of material across the center of the court that the ball has to go over **2** in soccer, the material that is attached to the back of the goal **3** in basketball, the loose material that hangs from the ring
racket	[ræ̱kɪt]	a thing with a long handle and a round part with strings stretched across it, used for hitting the ball

		in some games; *a tennis/badminton racket*
skis	[skɪz]	long, flat, narrow pieces of wood, metal, or plastic that you fasten to your boots so that you can move easily over snow

COMPETITIONS

championship	[tʃæmpɪənʃɪp]	a competition to find the best player or team in a particular sport or game
competition	[kɒmpɪtɪʃᵊn]	an event in which people try to show that they are best at an activity
final	[faɪnᵊl]	the last game or race in a series, that decides who is the winner; *play in the final*
foul	[faʊl]	an action that breaks the rules of a particular sport
game	[geɪm]	**1** an activity or a sport in which you try to win; *a game of tennis* **2** one particular occasion when you play a game
goal	[goʊl]	**1** the place, in games such as

		soccer, where the players try to put the ball in order to win a point for their team **2** a point that is scored when the ball goes into the goal in games such as soccer
halftime	[hæftaɪm]	the short period between the two parts of a game when the players can rest
match	[mætʃ]	a sports game between two people or teams; *a tennis match*
medal	[mɛdəl]	a piece of metal that is give to the person who wins a race or competition; *a gold/silver/bronze medal*

EXAMPLES

She's competing in the women's basketball championship this month.

Football is such a great game.

Liverpool is in the lead by 2 goals to 1.

Washington led 44-32 at halftime.

point	[pɔɪnt]	a mark that you win in a game or a sport
race	[reɪs]	a competition to see who is the

		fastest
score	[skɔ̱r]	the result of a game
tie	[ta̱ɪ]	an occasion when both teams have the same number of points at the end of a game
tournament	[tʊ̱ə̱rnəmənt, tɜ̱r-]	a sports competition in which each player who wins a game plays another game, until just one person or team (the winner) remains
the World Cup	[ðə wɜ̱rld kʌ̱p]	an international soccer tournament that is held every four years in a different country

VERBS

beat	[bɪ̱t]	to defeat someone in a race or competition
catch	[kæ̱tʃ]	to take and hold a ball that is moving through the air
defend	[dɪfɛ̱nd]	to try to stop the other team from getting points
draw	[drɔ̱]	to finish a game with the same number of points as the other player or team

hit	[hɪt]	to bat a ball with a lot of force
jump	[dʒʌmp]	to bend your knees, push against the ground with your feet, and move quickly upwards into the air
kick	[kɪk]	to hit a ball with your foot
lose	[luz]	to not win a game
miss	[mɪs]	to not manage to hit or catch something
practice	[prækt̬ɪs]	to do a sport regularly in order to do it better (*In British English, use* **pratise**)
practise *(BRIT)*		*see* **practice**
run	[rʌn]	to move very quickly on your legs

EXAMPLES

What's the score?

Switzerland beat the United States two-one.

England drew with Ireland in the first game.

save	[seɪv]	to stop the ball from going into the goal in a sports game; *save a goal*
score	[skɔr]	to get a goal or a point in a sports

		competition
serve	[sɜrv]	to hit the ball to start part of a game in a tennis match
ski	[ski]	to move over snow or water on skis
swim	[swɪm]	to move through water by making movements with your arms and legs
throw	[θroʊ]	to use your hand to make a ball move through the air
tie	[taɪ]	if two teams tie, they have the same number of points at the end of a game
train	[treɪn]	to prepare for a sports competition; *train for a match*
win	[wɪn]	to do better than everyone else in a race or a game; *win a game*

ADJECTIVES

in the lead	[ɪn ðə lid]	in front of all the other people in a race
professional	[prəfɛʃənəl]	doing a particular activity as a job rather than just for pleasure

EXAMPLES

Can you swim?

Ben Johnson in the lead. Can he hang on? Yes, he’s done it!

telephone, post, and communications

NOUNS

address	[ədrɛ̱s]	the number of the building, the name of the street, and the town where you live or work; *name and address*; *mailing address*
area code	[ɛ̱ə̱riə koʊd]	the series of numbers that you have to dial before a phone number if you are making a call from a different area (*In British English, use* **dialling code**)
Blackberry™	[blæ̱kbɛri]	a very small device that you can use for receiving and sending e-mails and making phone calls
call	[kɔ̱l]	an occasion when you phone someone; *a phone call*
cellphone	[sɛ̱lfoʊn]	a phone that you can carry with you and use wherever you are (*In British English, use* **mobile phone**)
delivery	[dɪlɪ̱vəri]	an occasion when someone brings

		letters, packages, or other goods to a particular place; *mail delivery*
dialling code *(BRIT)*		*see* **area code**
directory enquiries *(BRIT)*		*see* **information**
envelope	[ɛnvəloʊp, ɒn-]	the paper cover in which you put a letter before you send it to someone; *a brown envelope*; *a self-addressed envelope*
extension	[ɪkstɛnʃən]	a phone that connects to the main phone line in a building
fax	[fæks]	a copy of a document that you send or receive using a fax machine; *send/receive a fax*
fax machine	[fæks məʃin]	a special machine that you use to send and receive documents electronically

EXAMPLES

What is your address?

Please allow 28 days for delivery of your order.

Can I have extension forty-six, please?

form	[fɔ̱rm]	a piece of paper with questions on it and spaces where you should write the answers; *fill in a form*
information	[ɪ̱nfərmeɪ̱ʃən]	a service that you can call to find out someone's phone number (*In British English, use* **directory enquiries**)
international call	[ɪ̱ntərnæ̱ʃənəl kɔ̱l]	a phone call made between different countries; *make an international call*
landline	[læ̱ndlaɪn]	a phone connection that uses wires, in contrast to a cellphone
letter	[lɛ̱tər]	a message that you write or type on paper and send to someone; *open a letter*; *write/send a letter*
letterbox *(BRIT)*		*see* **mailbox**
line	[laɪ̱n]	a phone connection or wire
local call	[loʊ̱kəl kɔl]	a phone call to a place that is near; *make a local call*
mail	[meɪ̱l]	**1** the letters and packages that you receive (*In British English, use* **post**) **2** the e-mail that you receive; *a mail server*

mailbox	[meɪlbɒks]	a hole in a door through which mail is delivered, or a box in which mail is delivered; *put something through the mailbox* (*In British English, use* **letterbox** or **post box**)
mailman **(PL)mailmen**	[meɪlmæn] [meɪlmɛn]	a man who collects and delivers letters and packages (*In British English, use* **postman**)
mailwoman **(PL)mailwomen**	[meɪlwʊmən] [meɪlwɪmɪn]	a woman who collects and delivers letters and packages (*In British English, use* **postwoman**)
message	[mɛsɪdʒ]	a piece of information that you send or give to someone; *a phone message*; *a voice message*; *send/receive a message*; *leave/take a message*

EXAMPLES

ɪ'll call you later on your landline.

I received a letter from a friend.

Suddenly the telephone line went dead.

There has been no mail in three weeks.

She isn't here yet. Do you want to leave a message?

mobile	[moʊbəl]	same as **mobile phone**
mobile phone *(mainly BRIT)*		*see* **cellphone**
operator	[ɒpəreɪtər]	a person who connects phone calls in a place such as an office or a hotel
package	[pækɪdʒ]	something that is wrapped in paper so that it can be sent through the mail
parcel	[pɑrʃəl]	same as **package**
phone	[foʊn]	a piece of equipment that you use to talk to someone else in another place; *answer the phone*; *a pay phone*; *Can I use the phone?*
phone number	[foʊn nʌmbər]	the number of a particular phone, that you use when you make a call to it
post *(BRIT)*		*see* **mail**
postage	[poʊstɪdʒ]	the money that you pay for sending post
post box *(BRIT)*		*see* **mailbox**
postcard	[poʊstkɑrd]	a thin card, often with a picture on one side, that you can write on

		and mail to someone without using an envelope; *send someone a postcard*
postcode *(BRIT)*		*see* **zip code**
postman		*see* **mailman**
post office	[poʊst ɔfɪs]	a building where you can buy stamps and post letters
postwoman		*see* **mailwoman**
receiver	[rɪsivər]	the part of a phone that you hold near to your ear and speak into; *pick up/lift the receiver*
reply	[rɪplaɪ]	something that you say or write as an answer
ringtone	[rɪŋtoʊn]	the sound that your cellphone makes when someone calls you

EXAMPLES

Two minutes later the phone rang.

All prices include postage.

She picked up the receiver and started to dial.

I dialed her number, but there was no reply.

S&H	[ɛs ənd eɪtʃ]	short for "shipping and handling:" the cost of wrapping an item and

		sending it in the mail
signature	[sɪ̱gnətʃər, -tʃʊər]	your name, written in your own special way
SIM card	[sɪ̱m kɑrd]	a small piece of electronic equipment in a cellphone that connects it to a particular phone network
stamp	[stæ̱mp]	a small piece of paper that you stick on an envelope before you mail it
telephone	[tɛ̱lɪfoʊn]	same as **phone**
text message	[tɛ̱kst mɛsɪdʒ]	a message that you send using a cellphone; *send/receive a text message*
tourist information office	[tʊə̱rɪst ɪnfərmeɪʃᵊn ɔfɪs]	an office that gives information about the local area
voicemail	[vɔɪ̱smeɪl]	an electronic system that records spoken messages; *a voicemail message*
wrapping paper	[ræ̱pɪŋ peɪpər]	special paper that you use for wrapping presents
writing paper	[raɪ̱tɪŋ peɪpər]	paper for writing letters on

zip code	[zɪp koʊd]	a series of numbers and letters at the end of an address (*In British English, use* **postcode**)

VERBS

answer	[ǽnsər]	to pick up the phone when it rings
call	[kɔ̱l]	to telephone someone
call someone back		to phone someone in return for a call they made to you

EXAMPLES

Price $12.95 plus $1.95 S&H.

They cost $24.95 including S&H.

She put a stamp on the corner of the envelope.

She didn't answer the phone.

Would you call me as soon as you find out?

deliver	[dɪlɪ̱vər]	to take something to a particular place
dial	[daɪ̱əl]	to press the buttons on a phone in order to call someone; *dial a number*
hang up		to end a phone call
hold the line		to wait for a short time when you

		are making a phone call
mail	[meɪl]	to send a letter or a package somewhere in the mail (*In British English, use* **post**)
phone	[foʊn]	to contact someone and speak to them on the phone; *Did anybody phone?*; *I phoned the police.*
post *(BRIT)*		*see* **mail**
reply	[rɪplaɪ]	to write an answer to something that someone writes to you
send	[sɛnd]	to make a message or a package go to someone
sign	[saɪn]	to write your name on a document; *sign your name*; *sign a letter*
text	[tɛkst]	to send someone a text message on a cellphone
write	[raɪt]	to give someone information, ask them something or express your feelings in a letter or an e-mail; *write a letter/an e-mail*

EXAMPLES

Only 90% of first-class mail is delivered on time.

Don't hang up on me!

Could you hold the line, please?

I mailed a letter to Stanley.

ı'm mailing you a check.

He never replies to my letters.

Hannah sent me a letter last week.

Mary texted me when she got home.

She wrote to her aunt asking for help.

ADJECTIVES

busy	[bɪzi]	if a phone line is busy, it is already being used by someone else; *The line is busy.* (*In British English, use* **engaged**)
dead	[dɛd]	if a phone line is dead it is no longer working
engaged *(BRIT)*		*see* **busy**
first-class	[fɜrst klæs]	used for describing the fastest and most expensive way of sending letters; *a first-class letter*
second-class	[sɛkənd klæs]	used for describing the slower and cheaper way of sending letters; *a second-class stamp*

PHRASES

best wishes	used at the end of a letter or e-mail, before your name, to someone you know who is not a very close friend
love from	used at the end of a letter or e-mail, before your name, to a friend or relative
sincerely yours	used at the end of a formal letter, before your name, when you have addressed it to someone by their name (*In British English, use* **yours sincerely**)
yours faithfully	used at the end of a formal letter, before your name, when you start the letter with the words "Dear Sir" or "Dear Madam"
yours sincerely *(BRIT)*	*see* **sincerely yours**

EXAMPLES

We tried to call you back but you were busy.

I answered the phone and the line went dead.

television and radio

NOUNS

ad	[æd]	a short film on television or short article on the radio that tells you about something such as a product or an event (*In British English, use* **advert**)
advert *(BRIT)*		*see* **ad**
adverts *(BRIT)*		*see* **commercial break**
aerial *(BRIT)*		*see* **antenna**
antenna (PL)**antennae** **antennas**	[æntɛnə] [æntɛnɪ]	a piece of equipment that receives television or radio signals (*In British English, use* **aerial**)
cable television	[keɪbəl tɛlɪvɪʒən]	a television system in which signals travel along wires
cartoon	[kɑrtun]	a film that uses drawings instead of real people or objects
celebrity	[sɪlɛbrɪti]	someone who is famous; *a TV celebrity*; *a celebrity guest*
channel	[tʃænəl]	a television station; *change*

		channels; *What channel is it on?*
chat show *(BRIT)*		*see* **talk show**
clip	[klɪp]	a short piece of a film that is shown separately; *a video clip*
commercial break	[kəmɜrʃəl breɪk]	a short interruption in a television or radio program when ads are shown (*In British English, use* **adverts**)
DJ	[di dʒeɪ]	short for "disc jockey:" someone whose job is to play music and talk on the radio; *a radio DJ*
DVD	[di vi di]	short for "digital video disk:" a disk on which a movie or music is recorded; *a DVD player*

EXAMPLES

Have you seen that new ad for Pepsi?

We don't have cable TV.

We watched children's cartoons on TV.

There is a huge number of television channels in America.

They showed a film clip of the Apollo moon landing.

documentary	[dɒkyə- mɛntəri, -tri]	a television program that provides information about a particular

		subject; *a wildlife documentary*
game show	[geɪm ʃoʊ]	a television program in which people compete to win prizes; *a television game show*
host	[hoʊst]	someone who introduces the different parts of a television or radio program; *a TV/radio host*; *a sports host*
media	[midiə]	television, radio, newspapers, and magazines
news	[nuz]	information about recent events that is reported on the radio or television; *watch/listen to the news*
prime time	[praɪm taɪm]	the time when most people are watching television; *prime-time TV*
program	[proʊgræm, -grəm]	a television or radio show; *a television/radio program*
quiz show	[kwɪz ʃoʊ]	a television or radio program in which people compete in a quiz
radio	[reɪdioʊ]	a piece of equipment that you use in order to listen to radio programs; *listen to the radio*; *on the radio*; *FM/digital radio*

reality TV	[riæ̲lɪti ti̲ vi̲]	a type of television that aims to show how ordinary people behave in everyday life
remote control	[rɪmo̲ʊ̲t kəntro̲ʊ̲l]	the device that you use to control a television or video recorder from a distance
satellite	[sæ̲tᵊlaɪt]	a piece of electronic equipment that is sent into space in order to receive and send back information; *satellite television/radio*; *a satellite dish*

EXAMPLES

Did you see that documentary on TV last night?

A lot of people in the media have asked me that question.

Here are some of the top stories in the news.

He wants to watch his favorite TV program.

She reached for the remote control to turn on the news.

screen	[skri̲n]	a flat surface on a television, where you see pictures or words; *a TV screen*
series (PL) **series**	[sɪə̲riz]	a set of radio or television programs
set	[sɛ̲t]	a piece of equipment that receives

		television or radio signals; *a TV set*
sitcom	[sɪ̲tkɒm]	short for “situation comedy:” a series in which a set of characters is involved in various amusing situations; *a TV sitcom*
soap opera	[so̲ʊ̲p ɒpərə, ɒprə]	a television drama serial about the daily lives of a group of people
station	[ste̲ɪ̲ʃən]	a company that broadcasts programs on radio or television; *a local radio station*
subtitles	[sʌ̲btaɪtəlz]	the translation of the words of a foreign film or television program that is shown at the bottom of the picture
talk show	[tɔ̲k ʃoʊ]	a television or radio show in which an interviewer talks to guests in a friendly informal way about different topics (*In British English, use* **chat show**)
television	[tɛ̲lɪvɪʒən, -vɪ̲ʒ-]	**1** a piece of electrical equipment with a screen on which you watch moving pictures with sound; *We bought a new television.* **2** the moving pictures and sounds that you watch and listen to on a

		television; *What's on television tonight?*
TV	[tiː viː]	[INFORMAL] television; *watch TV*
video	[vɪdioʊ]	a film that you can watch at home
volume	[vɒlyum]	how loud or quiet the sound is on a television or radio

EXAMPLES

The long-running TV series is filmed in Chicago.

The dialogue is in Spanish, with English subtitles.

I prefer going to the movies to watching television.

You can rent a video for $3 and watch it at home.

He turned the volume up on the radio.

wavelength	[weɪvlɛŋθ]	the size of a radio wave that a particular radio station uses to broadcast its programs

VERBS

broadcast	[brɔdkæst]	to send out a program so that it can be heard on the radio or seen on television
fast-forward	[fæst fɔrwɜrd]	to move a video tape forwards quickly

record	[rɪkɔ̱rd]	to put sounds or images onto a CD, DVD, tape, or video so that they can be heard or seen again later
rewind	[ri̱wai̱nd]	to wind a movie back to the beginning
switch something off		to stop electrical equipment from working by operating a switch; *switch off the radio/television*
switch something on		to make electrical equipment start working by operating a switch; *switch on the radio/television*
tune	[tu̱n]	to adjust a radio or television so that it receives a particular station or program
tune in		to listen to a radio program or watch a television program
turn something off		to make a piece of electrical equipment stop working; *turn off the radio/television*
turn something on		to make a piece of electrical equipment start working; *turn on the radio/television*
watch	[wɒ̱tʃ]	to look at a television for a period

of time

EXAMPLES

She found the station's wavelength on her radio.

The concert will be broadcast live on television and radio.

Can you record the movie for me?

The radio was tuned to NPR.

They tuned in to watch the game.

I stayed up late to watch the film.

ADJECTIVES

animated	[ænɪmeɪtɪd]	an animated film is one in which puppets or drawings appear to move
digital	[dɪdʒɪtəl]	using information in the form of thousands of very small signals
on-demand	[ɒn dɪmænd]	available whenever needed

ADVERBS

live	[laɪv]	used for describing a television or radio program that you watch at the same time that it happens; *watch something live*
on the air	[ɒn ði ɛər]	on radio or television

IDIOMS

channel surfing	a way of watching television in which you keep changing from one channel to another using a remote control
couch potato	a person who spends a lot of time sitting watching television

EXAMPLES

Most people now have digital television.

The new video-on-demand service will be available only to those with broadband internet connections.

The show went on the air live at 8 o'clock.

theater and cinema

NOUNS

actor	[æktər]	someone whose job is acting in plays or movies; *a famous actor*
actress	[æktrɪs]	a woman whose job is acting in plays or movies
audience	[ɔdiəns]	all the people who are watching or listening to a performance or a movie; *a movie audience*
audition	[ɔdɪʃən]	a short performance that an actor gives so that someone can decide if they are good enough to be in a play or a movie
ballet	[bælɛɪ]	a performance of a type of dancing that tells a story; *go to the ballet*
Bollywood	[bɒliwʊd]	the Indian film industry; *a Bollywood movie*; *a Bollywood actor*
box office	[bɒks ɔfɪs]	**1** the place in a theater or concert hall where the tickets are sold **2** used to refer to the success of a movie or play in terms of the

		number of people who go to see it
cast	[kæst]	all the people who act in a play or a movie
character	[kærɪktər]	one of the people in a story
cinema *(BRIT)*		*see* **movie theater**
circus	[sɜrkəs]	a group of people and animals that travels around to different places and performs shows in a big tent
comedian	[kəmidiən]	a person whose job is to make people laugh
comedy	[kɒmədi]	a play or movie that is intended to make people laugh

EXAMPLES

She's a really good actress.

They are holding final auditions for presenters.

They collected their tickets at the box office.

The film was a huge success at the box office.

He plays the main character in the movie.

I always wanted to work as a clown in a circus.

The movie is a romantic comedy.

costume	[kɒstum]	a set of clothes that someone wears in a performance; *the costumes and scenery*

curtain	[kɜ̱rtən]	the large piece of material that hangs at the front of the stage in a theater; *the curtain rises/falls*
director	[dɪrɛ̱ktər, daɪ-]	the person who tells actors what to do; *a movie director*; *a theater director*
drama	[drɑ̱mə, dræ̱mə]	a serious play or movie
epic	[ɛ̱pɪk]	a long movie about important events
film *(BRIT)*		*see* **movie**
film producer	[fɪ̱lm prədusər]	a person whose job is to produce plays or movies; *a film producer*
film star *(BRIT)*		*see* **movie star**
full house	[fʊ̱l haʊ̱s]	an occasion when there are no empty seats in a theater; *playing to a full house*
Hollywood	[hɒ̱liwʊd]	the American film industry; *Hollywood movie stars*; *a Hollywood movie*
horror movie	[hɔ̱rər muvi, hɒ̱r-]	a type of movie that is very frightening
intermission	[ɪ̱ntərmɪ̱ʃən]	a short break between two parts of a movie, concert, or show; *during*

		the intermission (*In British English, use* **interval**)
interval *(BRIT)*		*see* **intermission**
makeup	[meɪkʌp]	the creams and powders that actors put on their faces to change their appearance; *wear/apply makeup*; *a makeup artist*; *costumes and makeup*
matinee	[mætᵊneɪ]	a performance of a play or a showing of a movie in the afternoon; *a matinee performance*
movie	[muvi]	a story that is told using moving pictures on the television or at a movie theater; *to make/direct a movie*; *to watch a movie* (*In British English, use* **film**)

EXAMPLES

I'm going to see a movie tonight.

I rarely went to the movies.

the movies	[ðə muviz]	same as **movie theater**; *go to the movies*
movie star	[muvi stɑr]	a famous actor or actress who

		appears in movies (*In British English, use* **film star**)
movie theater	[mu̲vi θiətər]	a building where people go to watch movies (*In British English, use* **cinema**)
multiplex	[mʌ̲ltiplɛks	a movie theater with several screens; **cinema** si̲nɪmə] *a multiplex cinema*
musical	[myu̲zɪkəl]	a play or a movie that uses singing and dancing in the story; *a Broadway musical*
opera	[p̲pərə, p̲prə]	a play with music in which all the words are sung; *an opera singer*; *an opera house*
Oscar™	[p̲skər]	a prize given to actors, directors, and other people in the film industry; *get an Oscar*; *She has three Oscars.*
part	[pa̲rt]	one character's words and actions in a play or movie
performance	[pərfɔ̲rməns]	the activity of entertaining an audience by singing, dancing, or acting; *a concert performance*
play	[plei̲]	a piece of writing performed in a

		theater, on the radio, or on television
playwright	[pleɪraɪt]	a person who writes plays
plot	[plɒt]	a series of events that make up the story of a movie
production	[prədʌkʃᵊn]	a play or other show that is performed in a theater; *a theater/stage production*; *a film production*
program	[proʊgræm, -grəm]	a small book or sheet of paper that tells you about a play or concert
review	[rɪvyu]	a report that gives an opinion about something such as a play or a movie

EXAMPLES

He played the part of Hamlet.

They were giving a performance of Bizet's "Carmen."

Hamlet is my favorite play.

Tonight our class is going to see a production of "Othello."

The show received excellent reviews in all the papers.

romance	[roʊmæns, roʊmæns]	a movie or a play about a romantic relationship

rom-com	[rɒ̱mkɒm]	short for “romantic comedy:” a humorous film in which the main story is about a romantic relationship
scene	[si̱n]	a part of a play or a movie that happens in the same place; *film/shoot a scene*; *a love scene*
science fiction	[sa̱ɪəns fɪ̱kʃᵊn]	stories and movies about events that take place in the future or in other parts of the universe; *a science fiction movie*
screen	[skri̱n]	the flat area on the wall of a movie theater, where you see the movie; *the movie screen*
script	[skrɪ̱pt]	the written words that actors speak in a play or a movie
seat	[si̱t]	something that you can sit on in a theater or concert hall
sequel	[si̱kwᵊl]	a movie that continues the story of an earlier movie
set	[sɛ̱t]	the place where a movie is made or the scenery that is on the stage when a play is being performed; *a movie set*

show	[ʃoʊ]	a performance in a theater; *a comedy show*
soundtrack	[saʊndtræk]	the music that is played during a movie; *a movie soundtrack*
spotlight	[spɒtlaɪt]	a powerful light in a theater that can be directed so that it lights up a small area
stage	[steɪdʒ]	the area in a theater where people perform; *come on stage*; *a concert stage*; *on stage and screen*; *a stage play*
star	[stɑr]	a famous actor or actress; *a movie star*

EXAMPLES

This is the opening scene of "Hamlet."

Watching a movie on television is not the same as seeing it on the big screen.

We had front-row seats at the concert.

The place looked like the set of a James Bond movie.

How about going to see a show tomorrow?

subtitles	[sʌbtaɪtəlz]	the translation of the words of a foreign film that are shown at the bottom of the picture

theater	[θiətər]	a place where you go to see plays, movies, or shows; *go to the theater*
thriller	[θrɪlər]	an exciting movie or play about a crime
ticket	[tɪkɪt]	a small piece of paper that shows that you have paid to go to see a movie or a play; *theater/movie tickets*
tragedy	[trædʒɪdi]	a type of serious play that usually ends with the death of the main character
trailer	[treɪlər]	a set of short extracts from a movie that are shown to advertise it

VERBS

act	[ækt]	to have a part in a play or a movie
book	[bʊk]	to buy tickets for a movie or show that you will go to later
clap	[klæp]	to hit your hands together to show that you like something
dance	[dæns]	to move your body to music
play	[pleɪ]	to perform the part of a particular

		character in a play or movie
shoot	[ʃut]	to make a movie
sing	[sɪŋ]	to make music with your voice
star	[stɑr]	**1** to have a famous actor or actress in one of the most important parts in a play or movie **2** to have one of the most important parts in a play or movie

EXAMPLES

The dialogue is in Spanish, with English subtitles.

He acted in many movies, including “Reds.”

You can book tickets for the movie theater over the phone.

He played Mr. Hyde in the movie.

He’d love to shoot his movie in Cuba.

The movie stars Brad Pitt.

She stars in the Broadway play.

watch	[wɒtʃ]	to look at someone or something for a period of time; *watch a movie/play*

ADJECTIVES

black-and-white	[blæk ənd waɪt]	showing everything in black, white, and gray; *old black-and-*

		white movie footage
classic	[klæsɪk]	of very good quality, and popular for a long time; *a classic movie*
dubbed	[dʌbd]	having a different soundtrack added with actors speaking in a different language; *cartoons dubbed in Chinese*
low-budget	[loʊ bʌdʒɪt]	made spending very little money; *a low-budget movie*
sold out	[soʊld aʊt]	used to describe a performance for which all the tickets have been sold
subtitled	[sʌbtaɪtəld]	with a translation of the words shown at the bottom of the screen; *a subtitled movie*

THINGS YOU CAN SHOUT

bravo!	[brɑvoʊ]	an audience shouts “bravo!” to show how much they have enjoyed a performance
encore!	[ɒŋkɔr, -kɔr]	an audience shouts “encore!” at the end of a concert to ask for a short extra performance

IDIOMS

bring the house down	to make everyone laugh or cheer at a performance in the theater
keep you on the edge of your seat	to make you give your full attention to something
steal the show	to attract more attention and praise than other people

EXAMPLES

The movie kept everyone on the edge of their seats.

time

NOUNS

GENERAL

time	[taɪm]	**1** something that we measure in minutes, hours, days, and years; *in a week's time*; *Time passed.* **2** used when you are talking about a particular point in the day, that you describe in hours and minutes
past	[pæst]	the time before the present, and the things that happened then; *in the past*
present	[prɛzᵊnt]	the period of time that is happening now; *live in the present*
future	[fyutʃər]	the time that will come after now; *in the future*

HOURS, SECONDS, AND MINUTES

half an hour	[hæf ən aʊər]	a period of thirty minutes
hour	[aʊər]	a period of sixty minutes
minute	[mɪnɪt]	a unit for measuring time. There

		are sixty seconds in one minute, and there are sixty minutes in one hour.
moment	[mo͡omənt]	a very short period of time; *a few moments later*
quarter of an hour	[kwɔ͡rtər əv ən a͡ʊə͡r]	a period of fifteen minutes
second	[se͡kənd]	a measurement of time. There are sixty seconds in one minute.

EXAMPLES

I've known Mr. Martin for a long time.
What time is it?
Do you know what time it is?
He was making plans for the future.
I only slept about half an hour last night.
They waited for about two hours.
The pizza will take twenty minutes to cook.
In a moment he was gone.
For a few seconds nobody spoke.

TIMES OF THE DAY

dawn	[dɔ͡n]	the time when the sky becomes light in the morning; *Dawn was breaking.*

sunrise	[sʌnraɪz]	the time in the morning when the sun first appears in the sky; *at sunrise*
morning	[mɔrnɪŋ]	the part of each day between the time that people usually wake up and noon; *tomorrow morning*; *in the morning*; *on Sunday morning*
noon	[nun]	twelve o'clock in the middle of the day; *at noon*
midday	[mɪddeɪ]	same as **noon**
afternoon	[æftərnun]	the part of each day that begins at lunchtime and ends at about six o'clock; *in the afternoon*; *yesterday afternoon*
evening	[ivnɪŋ]	the part of each day between the end of the afternoon and midnight; *yesterday evening*; *in the evening*
sunset	[sʌnsɛt]	the time in the evening when the sun goes down; *at sunset*
dusk	[dʌsk]	the time just before night when it is not completely dark; *at dusk*
night	[naɪt]	**1** the time when it is dark outside, and most people sleep; *during the*

		night **2** the period of time between the end of the afternoon and the time that you go to bed; *last night*; *ten o'clock at night*
midnight	[mɪ̲dnaɪt]	twelve o'clock in the middle of the night; *at midnight*

DAYS AND WEEKS

day	[de̲ɪ]	a period of twenty-four hours from one midnight to the next midnight; *every day*

EXAMPLES

Nancy woke at dawn.

He stayed in his room all afternoon.

What day is it?

date	[de̲ɪt]	a particular day and month or a particular year
fortnight	[fɔ̲rtnaɪt]	a period of two weeks
week	[wɪ̲k]	a period of seven days; *last week*
weekday	[wɪ̲kdeɪ]	any of the days of the week except Saturday and Sunday

weekend	[wīkɛnd]	Saturday and Sunday; *on the weekend*

DAYS OF THE WEEK

Monday	[mʌndeɪ, -di]	the day after Sunday and before Tuesday; *a week from Monday*
Tuesday	[tūzdeɪ, -di]	the day after Monday and before Wednesday; *next Tuesday*
Wednesday	[wɛ̄nzdeɪ, -di]	the day after Tuesday and before Thursday; *on Wednesday*
Thursday	[θɜ̄rzdeɪ, -di]	the day after Wednesday and before Friday; *every Thursday morning*
Friday	[fraīdeɪ, -di]	the day after Thursday and before Saturday; *Friday, November 6*
Saturday	[sǣtərdeɪ, -di]	the day after Friday and before Sunday; *every Saturday*
Sunday	[sʌ̄ndeɪ, -di]	the day after Saturday and before Monday; *on Sunday*

MONTHS

month	[mʌ̄nθ]	one of the twelve parts that a year is divided into
January	[dʒǣnyuɛri]	the first month of the year; *on*

January

February	[fɛ̱byuɛri, fɛ̱bru-]	the second month of the year

EXAMPLES

What's the date today?

What is he doing here on a weekday?

I had dinner with Tim last weekend.

We go on vacation next month.

We always have snow in January.

March	[mɑ̱rtʃ]	the third month of the year
April	[eɪ̱prɪl]	the fourth month of the year
May	[meɪ̱]	the fifth month of the year
June	[dʒu̱n]	the sixth month of the year
July	[dʒʊlaɪ̱]	the seventh month of the year
August	[ɔ̱gəst]	the eighth month of the year
September	[sɛptɛ̱mbər]	the ninth month of the year
October	[ɒktoʊ̱bər]	the tenth month of the year
November	[noʊvɛ̱mbər]	the eleventh month of the year
December	[dɪsɛ̱mbər]	the twelfth and last month of the year

SEASONS

autumn *(BRIT)*		*see* **fall**
fall	[fɔ̱l]	the season between summer and winter, when the weather becomes cooler and the leaves fall off the trees; *in the fall*; *last/next fall*; *fall leaves* (*In British English, use* **autumn**)
season	[si̱zᵊn]	a part of the year that has its own typical weather conditions; *the rainy season*
spring	[sprɪ̱ŋ]	the season between winter and summer when the weather becomes warmer and plants start to grow again
summer	[sʌ̱mər]	the season between spring and fall, when the weather is usually warm or hot; *a summer's day*
winter	[wɪ̱ntər]	the season between fall and spring, when the weather is usually cold

YEARS

century	[sɛ̱ntʃəri]	one hundred years; *in the 21st century*

decade	[dɛ̱keɪd]	a period of ten years

EXAMPLES

She was born on September 6th, 1970.

Summer is my favorite season.

They are getting married next spring.

The plant flowers in late summer.

leap year	[li̱p yɪər]	a year, happening every four years, that has 366 days including February 29 as an extra day
year	[yɪə̱r]	**1** a period of twelve months, beginning on the first of January and ending on the thirty-first of December; *next/last year*; *a calendar year* **2** any period of twelve months; *three times a year*; *the academic year*

MEASURING TIME

alarm clock	[əlɑ̱rm klɒk]	a clock that makes a noise so that you wake up at a particular time; *set the alarm clock*
calendar	[kæ̱lɪndər]	a list of days, weeks, and months

		for a particular year
clock	[klɒk]	a piece of equipment that shows you what time it is
watch	[wɒtʃ]	a small clock that you usually wear on your wrist

ADJECTIVES

annual	[ænyuəl]	happening once every year; *an annual meeting*
daily	[deɪli]	appearing or happening every day; *a daily newspaper*; *a daily routine*
early	[ɜrli]	before the usual time; *an early start*
following	[fɒloʊɪŋ]	used for describing the day, week, or year after the one you have just mentioned; *the following morning*
last	[læst]	the most recent; *last July*
late	[leɪt]	after the time that something should start or happen

EXAMPLES

He didn't come home last night.

The train was 40 minutes late.

monthly	[mʌnθli]	happening every month; *monthly rent*
next	[nɛkst]	used for talking about the first day, week, or year that comes after this one or the previous one; *the next day*
weekly	[wikli]	happening once a week or every week; *a weekly meeting*

ADVERBS

ago	[əgoʊ]	in the past; before now; *two days ago*; *a while ago*
at the moment	[æt ðə moʊmənt]	now
early	[ɜrli]	before the usual time; *get up/arrive early*
immediately	[ɪmidiɪtli]	happening without any delay
late	[leɪt]	after the time that something should start or happen
later	[leɪtər]	used for talking about a time that is after the one that you have been talking about; *two days later*
now	[naʊ]	used for talking about the present

		time
nowadays	[naʊədeɪz]	now generally, and not in the past
once	[wʌns]	happening one time only
on time	[ɒn taɪm]	arriving at the expected time, and not late; *The train arrived on time.*
soon	[sun]	after a short time

EXAMPLES

The magazine is published monthly.

She's busy at the moment.

"Call the police immediately!" she shouted.

It started forty minutes late.

I must go now.

Children watch a lot of TV nowadays.

I met Miquela once, at a party.

I'll call you soon.

today	[tədeɪ]	used when you are talking about the actual day on which you are speaking or writing
tomorrow	[təmɔroʊ]	the day after today
twice	[twaɪs]	two times; *twice a week*
yesterday	[yɛstərdeɪ, -di]	used for talking about the day before today

EXAMPLES

How are you feeling today?

She left yesterday.

tools

NOUNS

ax	[æks]	a tool with a heavy metal blade and a long handle that is used for cutting wood
battery	[bætəri]	a small object that provides electricity for things such as radios
blade	[bleɪd]	the flat, sharp edge of a knife that is used for cutting; *a knife blade*
bolt	[boʊlt]	a long piece of metal that you use with a nut to fasten things together; *nuts and bolts*
bucket	[bʌkɪt]	a round metal or plastic container with a handle, used for holding water; *a bucket of water*
drill	[drɪl]	a tool for making holes; *an electric drill*
file	[faɪl]	a tool that you use for rubbing rough objects to make them smooth
flashlight	[flæʃlaɪt]	a small electric light that you

		carry in your hand (*In British English, use* **torch**)
glue	[glu̱]	a sticky substance used for joining things together
hammer	[hæ̱mər]	a tool that is made from a heavy piece of metal attached to the end of a handle, that is used for hitting nails into wood; *a hammer and nails*
handle	[hæ̱ndəl]	the part of a tool that you hold; *a tool handle*
knife	[naı̱f]	a sharp flat piece of metal with a handle, that you can use to cut things; *a sharp knife*
ladder	[læ̱dər]	a piece of equipment made of two long pieces of wood or metal with short steps between them, that is used for reaching high places; *climb a ladder*
machine	[məʃi̱n]	a piece of equipment that uses electricity or an engine to do a particular job

EXAMPLES

The game requires two AA batteries.

You will need scissors and a tube of glue.

nail	[neɪl]	a thin piece of metal with one pointed end and one flat end that you hit with a hammer in order to fix things together
needle	[nidəl]	a small, thin metal tool with a sharp point that you use for sewing; *a needle and thread*
nut	[nʌt]	a thick metal ring that you put onto a bolt, that is used for holding heavy things together
paint	[peɪnt]	a colored liquid that you put onto a surface with a brush
paintbrush	[peɪntbrʌʃ]	a brush that you use for painting
pliers	[plaɪərz]	a tool with two handles at one end and two flat metal parts at the other that is used for holding or pulling things; *a pair of pliers*
rope	[roʊp]	a type of very thick string that is made by twisting together several strings or wires; *a piece of rope*
saw	[sɔ]	a metal tool for cutting wood; *a saw blade*

scaffolding	[skæfəldɪŋ]	a frame of metal bars that people can stand on when they are working on the outside of a building; *put up/take down scaffolding*
screw	[skru]	a small metal object with a sharp end, that you use to join things together
screwdriver	[skrudraɪvər]	a tool that you use for turning screws
shovel	[ʃʌvᵊl]	a flat tool with a handle that is used for lifting and moving earth or snow
spade	[speɪd]	a tool that is used for digging; *a garden spade*
spanner *(mainly BRIT)*		*see* **wrench**
spring	[sprɪŋ]	a long, spiral piece of metal; *a coiled spring*
stepladder	[stɛplædər]	a short ladder that you can fold

EXAMPLES

If you want to repair the wheels, you must remove the four nuts.

Each shelf is attached to the wall with screws.

I'll need the coal shovel.

tape measure	[teɪp mɛʒər]	a strip of metal, plastic, or cloth with marks on it, used for measuring
tool	[tul]	anything that you hold in your hands and use to do a particular type of work
toolbox	[tulbɒks]	a box or container for keeping tools in
torch *(BRIT)*		*see* **flashlight**
varnish	[vɑrnɪʃ]	a thick, clear liquid that is painted onto things to give them a shiny surface
wire	[waɪər]	a long, thin piece of metal; *a piece of wire*; *a wire fence*
workshop	[wɜrkʃɒp]	a place where people make or repair things
wrench	[rɛntʃ]	a metal tool that you use for turning nuts to make them tighter (*In British English, use* **spanner**)

VERBS

build	[bɪ̱ld]	to make something by joining different things together; *build a house/road*
cut	[kʌ̱t]	to use something sharp to remove part of something, or to break it
drill	[drɪ̱l]	to make holes using a drill
fix	[fɪ̱ks]	**1** to repair something **2** to attach something firmly or securely to a particular place
hammer	[hæ̱mər]	to hit nails into wood using a hammer
measure	[mɛ̱ʒər]	to find out the size of something
mend	[mɛ̱nd]	to repair something
paint	[peɪ̱nt]	to cover a wall or an object with paint; *paint a wall*

EXAMPLES

They cut a hole in the roof and put in a piece of glass.

You'll need to drill a hole in the wall.

This morning, a man came to fix my washing machine.

The clock is fixed to the wall.

She hammered a nail into the window frame.

Measure the length of the table.

screw	[skru̲]	to join one thing to another thing using a screw

ADJECTIVES

blunt	[blʌ̲nt]	not sharp or pointed; *a blunt knife*
electric	[ɪlɛ̲ktrɪk]	**1** working using electricity; *an electric motor* **2** carrying electricity; *an electric plug/switch*
manual	[mæ̲nyuəl]	**1** used for describing work in which you use your hands or your physical strength **2** operated by hand, rather than by electricity or a motor; *a manual pump*
sharp	[ʃɑrp]	very thin and able to cut through things very easily; *a sharp knife/blade*

EXAMPLES

I screwed the shelf on the wall.

He began his career as a manual worker.

towns and cities

NOUNS

bank	[bæŋk]	a place where people can keep their money
beltway	[bɛltweɪ]	a road that goes around a large town to keep traffic away from the center (*In British English, use* **ring road**)
bench	[bɛntʃ]	a long seat made of wood or metal; *a park bench*
bin *(BRIT)*		*see* **trash can**
bridge	[brɪdʒ]	a structure that is built over a river or a road so that people or vehicles can cross from one side to the other; *a railroad bridge*
building	[bɪldɪŋ]	a structure that has a roof and walls; *new/old buildings*; *public buildings*; *an office building*
bus station	[bʌs steɪʃᵊn]	a place in a town or a city where a lot of buses stop
bus stop	[bʌs stɒp]	a place on the side of a road,

		marked by a sign, where a bus stops
café	[kæfeɪ]	a place where you can buy drinks and small meals
capital	[kæpɪtəl]	the city where the government of a country meets; *a capital city*
car park *(BRIT)*		*see* **parking lot**
castle	[kæsəl]	a large building with thick, high walls that was built in the past to protect people during battles
cathedral	[kəθidrəl]	a large and important church
church	[tʃɜrtʃ]	a building where Christians go to pray; *go to church*
citizen	[sɪtɪzən]	a person who lives in a town or city
city	[sɪti]	a large town; *a big/large/major city*; *the city center*

EXAMPLES

He crossed the bridge to get to school.

Berlin is the capital of Germany.

His father goes to church every day.

crosswalk	[krɔswɔk]	a place where drivers must stop to let people cross a street (*In British English, use* **pedestrian crossing** or **zebra crossing**)
crowd	[kraʊd]	a large group of people who have gathered together
directions	[dɪrɛkʃənz, daɪ-]	instructions that tell you how to get somewhere
district	[dɪstrɪkt]	a particular area of a city or town; *a business/shopping district*
fire station	[faɪər steɪʃən]	a building where fire engines and equipment for stopping fires are kept
guided tour	[gaɪdɪd tʊər]	a short journey around a place of interest with a person who tells you about what you are seeing
hotel	[hoʊtɛl]	a building where people pay to sleep and eat meals; *a luxury/cheap hotel*; *a five-star hotel*; *a hotel room*; *stay in a hotel*
Laundromat™	[lɔndrəmæt]	a place where people pay to use machines to wash and dry their clothes
leaflet	[liflɪt]	a piece of paper containing

		information about a particular subject
library	[laɪbrɛri]	a place where books are kept for people to use or borrow; *the public/local library*
litter	[lɪtər]	paper or garbage that people leave lying on the ground in public places
map	[mæp]	a drawing of a city, that shows things like roads and important buildings; *a road map*; *a map of the city*
market	[mɑrkɪt]	a place where people buy and sell products
monument	[mɒnyəmənt]	something that you build to help people remember an important event or person; *ancient monuments*

EXAMPLES

A huge crowd gathered in the town square.

She stopped the car to ask for directions.

During the afternoon there's a guided tour of the castle.

Do you have a leaflet about the bus tours around York?

I hate it when I see people dropping litter.

mosque	[mɒsk]	a building where Muslims go to pray
museum	[myuziəm]	a building where you can look at interesting and valuable objects; *visit a museum*
notice	[noʊtɪs]	a piece of writing in a place where everyone can read it
outskirts	[aʊtskɜrts]	the parts of a town or a city that are furthest away from its center; *live in the outskirts*
park	[pɑrk]	a public area of land in a town with grass and trees, where people go to relax and enjoy themselves; *a public park*
parking lot	[pɑrkɪŋ lɒt]	an area or building where people can leave their cars (*In British English, use* **car park**)
parking meter	[pɑrkɪŋ mitər]	a machine in a street that you put money into to pay for leaving your car there
parking space	[pɑrkɪŋ speɪs]	a space where a car can be parked
pavement *(BRIT)*		*see* **sidewalk**

pedestrian	[pɪdɛ̱striən]	a person who is walking in a town or city
pedestrian crossing *(BRIT)*		*see* **crosswalk**
places of interest	[pleɪ̱sɪz əv ɪ̱ntrɪst, -tərɪst]	buildings or parts of a city which are interesting to visit
population	[pɒ̱pyəleɪ̱ʃən]	all the people who live in an area
post office	[poʊ̱st ɔfɪs]	a building where you can buy stamps and mail letters
restroom	[rɛ̱strum, -rʊm]	a room that contains one or more toilets (*In British English, use* **toilet**)
restaurant	[rɛ̱stərənt, -tərɑnt, -trɑnt]	a place where you can buy and eat a meal
ring road *(BRIT)*		*see* **beltway**

EXAMPLES

The notice said "Please close the door."

I found a parking space right outside the apartment building.

She visited museums and other places of interest.

Where is the nearest restroom?

road	[roʊ̱d]	a long piece of hard ground that

		vehicles travel on; *a main road*; *a back road*
season ticket	[si̲zᵊn ti̲kɪt]	a ticket for a number of journeys, that you usually buy at a reduced price; *a weekly/monthly/annual season ticket*
shop *(BRIT)*		*see* **store**
shopping center	[ʃp̲pɪŋ sɛntər]	an area in a town where a lot of stores have been built close together
sidewalk	[sa̲ɪdwɔk]	a path with a hard surface, usually by the side of a road (*In British English, use* **pavement**)
sign	[sa̲ɪn]	a piece of wood, metal, or plastic with words or pictures on it that warn you about something, or give you information; *a street sign*
square	[skwɛ̲ə̲r]	an open place with buildings around it in a town or city; *the town square*; *the main/central square*
store	[stɔ̲r]	a place where you buy things; *a local/corner store*; *a store assistant*; *a store window* (*In British English,*

		use **shop**)
street	[strit]	a road in a city or a town; *the main street*; *a side street*; *city streets*
suburb	[sʌbɜrb]	one of the areas on the edge of a city where many people live; *the suburbs*; *a leafy/wealthy suburb*
subway	[sʌbweɪ]	in a city, the railroad system in which electric trains travel below the ground in tunnels; *take the subway* (*In British English, use* **the underground**)
synagogue	[sɪnəgɒg]	a building where Jewish people go to pray
taxi	[tæksi]	a car that you can hire, with its driver, to take you where you want to go; *take/catch a taxi*

EXAMPLES

He was hurrying along the sidewalk.

The sign said, "Welcome to Boston."

He lives at 66 Bingfield Street.

taxi rank *(BRIT)*	*see* **taxi stand**

taxi stand	[tæksi stænd]	a place where taxis wait for customers (*In British English, use* **taxi rank**)
toilet *(BRIT)*	[tɔɪlət]	**1** a large bowl with a seat that you use when you want to get rid of waste from your body **2** *see* **restroom**
tour	[tʊər]	a trip to an interesting place or around several interesting places; *a bus tour*
tourist	[tʊərɪst]	a person who is visiting a place while on vacations
tower	[taʊər]	a tall, narrow building, or a tall part of another building; *a church tower*
town	[taʊn]	a place with many streets, buildings, and stores, where people live and work; *your home town*; *a seaside town*; *the center of town*
traffic	[træfɪk]	all the vehicles that are on a particular road at one time; *heavy traffic*; *rush hour traffic*
train station	[treɪn steɪʃən]	a place where trains stop so that

		people can get on or off
trash can	[tr<u>æ</u>ʃ kæn]	a container that you put garbage in; *put your garbage in the trash can* (*In British English, use* **bin**)
the underground *(BRIT)*		*see* **subway**
zebra crossing *(BRIT)*		*see* **crosswalk**
zone	[z<u>oʊ</u>n]	an area where something particular happens; *an industrial zone*

VERBS

go shopping	to go to stores to buy things
go sightseeing	to travel around a town to visit famous and interesting places

EXAMPLES

Michael took me on a tour of the nearby islands.

I'm going into town.

Where is the train station?

ADJECTIVES

busy	[bɪzi]	full of people who are doing things; *a busy street/road*
clean	[klin]	not dirty
crowded	[kraʊdɪd]	full of people; *crowded streets*; *a crowded bus/train*
dirty	[dɜrti]	covered with unwanted substances such as litter
downtown	[daʊntaʊn]	belonging to the part of a city where the large stores and businesses are; *a downtown hotel*
industrial	[ɪndʌstriəl]	used for describing a city or a country in which industry is very important; *an industrial town/city*
lost	[lɔst]	not knowing where you are; unable to find your way; *I'm lost.*
suburban	[səbɜrbən]	in or relating to the suburbs; *a suburban street/district*
urban	[ɜrbən]	relating to a city or a town; *urban areas*

ADVERBS

left	[lɛft]	opposite the side that most people write with; *turn left*

right	[raɪt]	to the side that is towards the east when you look north; *turn right*
straight ahead	[streɪt əhɛd]	in one direction only; without a curve or bend; *go straight ahead*

PHRASE

no entry		if a sign says “no entry,” it means that people are not allowed to go into a particular street or area

EXAMPLES

This is a crowded city of 2 million.

trains

NOUNS

arrival	[ərai̲ɪvəl]	the occasion when a train arrives somewhere; *arrivals and departures*
barrier	[bæ̲riər]	a fence or a wall that prevents people or things from moving from one area to another
buffet *(BRIT)*		*see* **dining car**
car	[ka̲r]	one of the sections of a train where people sit; *a railroad/train car*
compartment	[kəmpa̲rtmɑnt]	**1** one of the separate spaces in a train car (= section of a train); *a first-class compartment* **2** a part of a train that is used for keeping luggage in; *a luggage compartment*
conductor	[kəndʌ̲ktər]	a person on a train whose job is to check tickets
connection	[kənɛ̲kʃən]	a train that leaves after another one arrives and allows you to

		continue your journey by changing from one to the other
departure	[dɪpɑrtʃər]	the occasion when a train leaves somewhere; *a train departure*
destination	[dɛstɪneɪʃᵊn]	the place a train is going to; *arrive at your destination*
dining car	[daɪnɪŋ kɑr]	the part of a train where food and drink is sold (*In British English, use* **buffet**)
driver	[draɪvər]	the person who is driving a train; *a train driver*
engine	[ɛndʒɪn]	the front part of a train that pulls the rest of it
fare	[fɛər]	the money that you pay for a trip in a train; *a train fare*
fast train	[fæst treɪn]	a train that travels very fast, and goes directly to a place, making few stops

EXAMPLES

I was afraid that I would miss my connection.

The dining car is now open.

freight train	[freɪt treɪn]	a train that carries goods and not people (*In British English, use* **goods train**)
goods train *(BRIT)*		*see* **freight train**
intercity train	[ɪntərsɪti treɪn]	a fast train that travels long distances between cities, making few stops
journey	[dʒɜrni]	an occasion when you travel from one place to another; *a train journey*
left-luggage office *(BRIT)*		*see* **luggage storage office**
line	[laɪn]	a route that trains move along; *the railroad line*
locker *(BRIT)*		*see* **luggage storage**
lost and found office	[lɔst ənd faʊnd ɔfɪs]	a place at a train station where you can go to look for things that you have lost and that someone else has found
luggage	[lʌgɪdʒ]	the bags that you take with you when you travel; *lost luggage*
luggage rack	[lʌgɪdʒ ræk]	a shelf on a train for putting

		luggage on
luggage storage	[lʌ̲gɪdʒ stɔrɪdʒ]	a small locker at a train station where you can leave luggage that you want to pick up later (*In British English, use* **locker**)
luggage storage office	[lʌ̲gɪdʒ stɔrɪdʒ ɔfɪs]	a place at a train station where you can pay to leave luggage for a short time (*In British English, use* **left-luggage office**)
one-way	[wʌ̲n weɪ]	a ticket for a journey from one place to another but not back again (*In British English, use* **single**)
passenger	[pæ̲sɪndʒər]	a person who is traveling in a train
platform	[plæ̲tfɔrm]	the area in a train station where you wait for a train; *a train platform*
porter	[pɔ̲rtər]	a person whose job is to carry people's luggage in a train station

EXAMPLES

We stayed on the train to the end of the line.

We apologize to any passengers whose journey was delayed today.

The next train to London will depart from platform 3.

railroad	[reɪlroʊd]	a metal track between two places that trains travel along; *railroad tracks* (*In British English, use* **railway**)
railroad crossing	[reɪlroʊd krɔsɪŋ]	a place where a railroad line crosses a road
railway *(BRIT)*		*see* **railroad**
reservation	[rɛzərveɪʃən]	a seat that a transportation company keeps specially for you; *a seat reservation*
return *(BRIT)*		*see* **round trip**
round trip	[raʊnd trɪp]	a ticket for a journey to a place and back again (*In British English, use* **return**)
schedule	[skɛdʒul, -uəl]	a list of the times when trains arrive and depart; *a train schedule* (*In British English, use* **timetable**)
season ticket	[sizən tɪkɪt]	a ticket for a number of train rides, that you usually buy at a cheaper price
seat	[sit]	something that you can sit on; *reserve a seat*
single *(BRIT)*		*see* **one way**

sleeper	[slipər]	**1** a train with beds for passengers on overnight journeys **2** same as **sleeping car**
sleeping car	[slipɪŋ kɑr]	a railroad car with beds in it
slow train	[slou treɪn]	a train that travels slowly, making many stops
station	[steɪʃən]	a place where trains stop so that people can get on or off; *a train station*
steam engine	[stim ɛndʒɪn]	an engine that uses steam as a means of power

EXAMPLES

The road ran beside a railroad.

Is this seat free?

This seat is taken.

I'll take you to the station.

I'll come and pick you up at the station.

In 1941, the train would have been pulled by a steam engine.

subway	[sʌbweɪ]	in a city, the railroad system in which trains travel below the ground; *the New York subway* (*In British English, use* **the underground**)

suitcase	[su̲tkeɪs]	a case for carrying your clothes when you are traveling; *pack/unpack a suitcase*
ticket	[tɪ̲kɪt]	a small piece of paper that shows that you have paid to travel on a train; *buy a ticket*; *a train ticket*
ticket collector	[tɪ̲kɪt kəlɛktər]	a person who collects the tickets of passengers when they get off a train
ticket office	[tɪ̲kɪt ɔfɪs]	the place where you buy tickets at a train station
timetable *(BRIT)*		*see* **schedule**
track	[tra̲ek]	one of the metal lines that trains travel along; *a railroad track*
train	[tre̲ɪn]	a long vehicle that is pulled by an engine along a railroad; *catch a train*; *get on/off a train*; *take the train*; *train travel*
the tube	[ðə tu̲b]	same as **the underground** *(BRIT)*
the underground *(BRIT)*		*see* **subway**
waiting room	[we̲ɪtɪŋ rum]	a room in a train station where

		people can sit down while they wait
whistle	[wɪsəl]	a small tube that you blow into in order to produce a loud sound; *blow a whistle*

VERBS

approach	[əproʊtʃ]	to move closer to something
arrive	[əraɪv]	to come to a place from somewhere else
book	[bʊk]	to arrange to have or use something at a later time; *book a train ticket*

EXAMPLES

He came to Glasgow by train.
I heard the train approaching.
Their train arrived on time.

cancel	[kænsəl]	to say that a train that should travel will not be traveling
delay	[dɪleɪ]	to make someone or something late; *The train is delayed.*

depart	[dɪpɑrt]	to leave
miss	[mɪs]	to arrive too late to get on a train; *miss your train*

ADJECTIVES

due	[du]	expected to happen or arrive at a particular time; *Find out when the next train is due.*
first-class	[fɜrst klæs]	relating to the best and most expensive seats on a train; *a first-class cabin*; *a first-class ticket*
high-speed	[haɪ spid]	that travels very fast; *a high-speed train*
late	[leɪt]	after the time that something should happen
non-smoking	[nɒn smoʊkɪŋ]	a non-smoking area is a public place where people are not allowed to smoke
overcrowded	[oʊvərkraʊdɪd]	with too many people
smoking	[smoʊkɪŋ]	a smoking area is a public place where people are allowed to smoke; *the smoking section/area*

EXAMPLES

Many trains have been canceled.

Thousands of rail passengers were delayed yesterday.

Your train is due to leave in three minutes.

The train is late.

weather

NOUNS

air	[ɛər]	the mixture of gases all around us that we breathe; *fresh air*; *warm/hot air*
atmosphere	[ætməsfɪər]	the layer of air or other gases around a planet
climate	[klaɪmɪt]	the normal weather in a place; *a warm/cold climate*; *climate change*
cloud	[klaʊd]	a white or gray thing in the sky that is made of drops of water
darkness	[dɑrknɪs]	the state of being dark, without any light
drought	[draʊt]	a long period of time with no rain
east	[ist]	the direction that is in front of you when you look at the sun in the morning; *The sun rises in the east.*
flood	[flʌd]	an occasion when a lot of water covers land that is usually dry
fog	[fɒg]	thick cloud that is close to the

		ground
frost	[frɔ̱st]	ice like white powder that forms outside when the weather is very cold
gale	[ge̱ɪl]	a very strong wind
hail	[he̱ɪl]	small balls of ice that fall like rain from the sky
heat	[hi̱t]	when something is hot
hurricane	[hɜ̱rɪkeɪn, hʌr-]	a storm with very strong winds and rain
ice	[a̱ɪs]	frozen water

EXAMPLES

Keith opened the window and felt the cold air on his face.

There is an extra hour of darkness on winter mornings.

The drought has killed all their crops.

The car crash happened in thick fog.

A strong gale was blowing.

Our clothes dried quickly in the heat of the sun.

The ground was covered with ice.

lightning	[la̱ɪtnɪŋ]	the very bright flashes of light in the sky that happen during a storm; *thunder and lightning*; *a flash of lightning*

mist	[mɪst]	a lot of tiny drops of water in the air, that make it difficult to see; *mist and fog*; *morning mist*
monsoon	[mɒnsun]	the season in Southern Asia when there is a lot of very heavy rain; *the monsoon rains*; *the monsoon season*
north	[nɔrθ]	the direction that is on your left when you are looking at the sun in the morning
puddle	[pʌdəl]	a small pool of water on the ground
rain	[reɪn]	water that falls from the clouds in small drops; *heavy/pouring rain*; *go out in the rain*
rainbow	[reɪnboʊ]	a half circle of different colors that you can sometimes see in the sky when it rains
raindrop	[reɪndrɒp]	a single drop of rain
sky	[skaɪ]	the space above the Earth that you can see when you stand outside and look upwards; *in the sky*
snow	[snoʊ]	soft white frozen water that falls from the sky

snowflake	[snoʊfleɪk]	one of the soft, white bits of frozen water that fall as snow
south	[saʊθ]	the direction that is on your right when you are looking at the sun in the morning
storm	[stɔrm]	very bad weather, with heavy rain and strong winds; *violent/severe storms*; *tropical storms*

EXAMPLES

One man died when he was struck by lightning.
In the north, snow and ice cover the ground.
Young children love splashing in puddles.
Outside a light rain was falling.
Today we have clear blue skies.
Six inches of snow fell.

sun	[sʌn]	**1** the ball of fire in the sky that gives us heat and light **2** the heat and light that comes from the sun
sunshine	[sʌnʃaɪn]	the light and heat that comes from the sun
temperature	[tɛmprətʃər, -tʃʊər]	how hot or cold it is; *warm/cold temperatures*; *average temperature*

thermometer	[θərmɒmɪtər]	an instrument for measuring how hot or cold something is
thunder	[θʌndər]	the loud noise that you sometimes hear from the sky during a storm
thunderstorm	[θʌndərstɔrm]	a very noisy storm
tornado	[tɔrneɪdoʊ]	a storm with strong winds that spin around very fast and cause a lot of damage
tsunami	[tsʊnɑmi]	a very large wave that flows onto the land and destroys things
umbrella	[ʌmbrɛlə]	a thing that you hold over your head to protect yourself from the rain; *put up your umbrella*
weather	[wɛðər]	the temperature and conditions outside, for example if it is raining, hot, or windy; *cold/bad/wet weather*; *hot/warm weather*
weather forecast	[wɛðər fɔrkæst]	a statement saying what the weather will be like for the next few days; *watch/listen to the weather forecast*
west	[wɛst]	the direction that is in front of you when you look at the sun in the

		evening
wind	[wɪnd]	air that moves

EXAMPLES

The sun is shining.

Suddenly, the sun came out.

They went outside to sit in the sun.

She was sitting outside a cafe in bright sunshine.

What's the weather like?

The sun sets in the west.

A strong wind was blowing from the north.

VERBS

blow	[blou]	when a wind or breeze blows, the air moves
freeze	[friz]	to become solid because the temperature is low
melt	[mɛlt]	to change from a solid substance to a liquid because of heat
rain	[reɪn]	when it rains, water falls from the clouds in small drops
shine	[ʃaɪn]	to give out bright light; *The sun is shining.*
snow	[snou]	when it snows, soft white frozen

		water falls from the sky
thaw	[θɔ̱]	if snow or ice thaws, it becomes warmer and changes to liquid

ADJECTIVES

cloudy	[klau̱di]	with a lot of clouds in the sky; *a cloudy day/sky*
cold	[kou̱ld]	without any warmth; *cold weather*; *cold air*
cool	[ku̱l]	having a low temperature, but not cold; *cool air*
dry	[drai̱]	without any rain
freezing	[fri̱zɪŋ]	very cold
hot	[hɒ̱t]	describing the weather when the temperature is high; *a hot day*

EXAMPLES

The wind is blowing.

Last winter the water froze in all our pipes.

The snow melted.

It's raining.

It snowed heavily all night.

The snow thawed.

The Sahara is one of the driest places in Africa.

It's freezing.

It's too hot to play tennis.

humid	[hyʊmɪd]	wet and warm; *humid air*; *humid weather/conditions*
mild	[maɪld]	not too hot and not too cold; *a mild winter*; *mild weather*
rainy	[reɪni]	raining a lot; *a rainy day*
stormy	[stɔrmi]	with strong winds and heavy rain; *stormy weather*
sunny	[sʌni]	with the sun shining brightly
tropical	[trɒpɪkəl]	belonging to or typical of the hot, wet areas of the world; *a tropical climate*; *tropical heat*
windy	[wɪndi]	with a lot of wind; *a windy day*

EXAMPLES

The weather was warm and sunny.

geographical place names

Here is a list of the names of well-known places in the world:

Afghanistan /æfgæ̱nɪstæn, -stɑn/

Africa /æ̱frɪkə/

Albania /ælbe̱ɪniə/

Algeria /ældʒɪə̱riə/

American Samoa /əme̱rɪkən səmo̱ʊ̱ə/

Andorra /ændɔ̱rə/

Angola /æŋgo̱ʊ̱lə/

Antarctica /æntɑ̱rktɪkə/

Antigua and Barbuda /æntɪ̱gə ənd bɑrbu̱də/

the Arctic /ði ɑ̱rktɪk/

Argentina /ɑ̱rdʒəntɪ̱nə/

Armenia /ɑrmɪ̱niə/

Asia /e̱ɪʒə/

the Atlantic /ði ətlæ̱ntɪk/

Australia /ɔstre̱ɪlyə/

Austria /ɔ̱striə/

Azerbaijan /æ̱zərbaɪdʒɑ̱n/

the Bahamas /ðə bəhɑ̱məz/

Bahrain /bɑre̱ɪn/

Bangladesh /bæ̱ŋgləde̱ʃ/

Barbados /bɑrbeɪdoʊs/

Belarus /beləruːs, byɛl-/

Belgium /beldʒəm/

Belize /bəliːz/

Benin /bɛniːn/

Bhutan /butɑːn/

Bolivia /bəlɪviə/

Bosnia and Herzegovina /bɒzniə ənd hɜːrtsəgoʊviːnə/

Botswana /bɒtswɑːnə/

Brazil /brəzɪl/

Brunei /brunaɪ/

Bulgaria /bʌlgeəriə/

Burkina-Faso /bərkiːnəfæsoʊ/

Burma /bɜːrmə/

Burundi /bəruːndi/

Cambodia /kæmboʊdiə/

Cameroon /kæmərun/

Canada /kænədə/

Cape Verde /keɪp vɜːrd/

the Caribbean /ðə kærɪbiːən, kərɪbiən/

the Central African Republic /ðə sɛntrəl æfrɪkən rɪpʌblɪk/

Chad /tʃæd/

Chile /tʃɪli/

(the People's Republic of) China /(ðə piːpəlz rɪpʌblɪk əv) tʃaɪnə/

Colombia /kəlʌ̲mbiə/

Comoros /kɒ̲mərʊz/

(the Republic of) Congo /(ðə rɪpʌ̲blɪk əv) kɒ̲ŋgʊ/

(the Democratic Republic of) Congo /(ðə dɛ̲məkræ̲tik rɪpʌ̲blɪk əv) kɒ̲ŋgʊ/

Costa Rica /kɒ̲stə rɪ̲kə/

Côte d'Ivoire /kʊ̲ʊ̲t divwɑ̲r/

Croatia /krʊʊ̲ɪ̲ʃə/

Cuba /kyu̲bə/

Cyprus /sa̲ɪprəs/

the Czech Republic /ðə tʃe̲k rɪpʌ̲blɪk/

Denmark /dɛ̲nmɑrk/

Djibouti /dʒɪbu̲ti/

Dominica /dɒ̲mɪnɪ̲kə, dəmɪ̲nɪkə/

the Dominican Republic /ðə dəmɪ̲nɪkən rɪpʌ̲blɪk/

East Timor /i̲st tɪ̲mɔr/

Ecuador /e̲kwədɔr/

Egypt /i̲dʒɪpt/

El Salvador /ɛl sæ̲lvədɔr/

England /ɪ̲ŋgləɪ̲nd/

Equatorial Guinea /e̲kwətɔ̲riəl gɪ̲ni/

Eritrea /e̲rɪtri̲ə/

Estonia /ɛstʊ̲ʊ̲niə/

Ethiopia /i̲θiʊ̲ʊ̲piə/

Europe /yʊərəp/

Fiji /fidʒi/

Finland /fɪnlənd/

France /fræns/

Gabon /gæbɔn/

Gambia /gæmbiə/

Georgia /dʒɔrdʒə/

Germany /dʒɜrməni/

Ghana /gɑnə/

Great Britain /greɪt brɪtən/

Greece /gris/

Greenland /grinlənd/

Grenada /grɪneɪdə/

Guatemala /gwɑtəmɑlə/

Guinea /gɪni/

Guinea-Bissau /gɪnibɪsaʊ/

Guyana /gaɪɑnə/

Haiti /heɪti/

Holland /hɒlənd/

Honduras /hɒndʊərəs/

Hungary /hʌŋgəri/

Iceland /aɪsləɪnd/

India /ɪndiə/

Indonesia /ɪndəniʒə/

Iran /ɪrɑn. ɪræn/

Iraq /ɪrɑk, ɪræk/

(the Republic of) Ireland /(ðə rɪpʌblɪk əv) aɪərlənd

Israel /ɪzreɪəl/

Italy /ɪtəli/

Jamaica /dʒəmeɪkə/

Japan /dʒəpæn/

Jordan /dʒɔrdən/

Kazakhstan /kæzækstæn, kɑzɑkstɑn/

Kenya /kɛnyə/

Kiribati /kɪrɪbɑti/

Kuwait /kuweɪt/

Kyrgyzstan /kɪərgɪstæn, -stɑn/

Laos /laʊs/

Latvia /lætviə, lɑt-/

Lebanon /lebənɒn, -nən/

Lesotho /ləsoʊtoʊ/

Liberia /laɪbɪəriə/

Libya /lɪbiə/

Liechtenstein /lɪktənstaɪn/

Lithuania /lɪθueɪniə/

Luxembourg /lʌksəmbɜrg/

Macedonia /mæsidoʊniə/

Madagascar /mædəgæskər/

Malawi /məlɑwi/

Malaysia /məleɪʒə/

the Maldives /ðə mɔldivz/

Mali /mɑli/

Malta /mɔltə/

the Marshall Islands /ðə mɑrʃəl aɪləndz/

Mauritania /mɒrɪteɪniə/

Mauritius /mərɪʃəs/

the Mediterranean /ðə medɪtəreɪniən/

Mexico /meksɪkoʊ/

Micronesia /maɪkrəniʒə/

Moldova /mɔldoʊvə/

Monaco /mɒnəkoʊ/

Mongolia /mɒŋgoʊliə/

Montenegro /mɒntɪnɛgroʊ, -nigroʊ/

Morocco /mərɒkoʊ/

Mozambique /moʊzæmbik/

Myanmar /myɑnmɑr/

Namibia /nəmɪbiə/

Nauru /nɑuru, naʊru/

Nepal /nɪpɔl, -pɑl/

the Netherlands /ðə neðərləndz/

New Zealand /nu zilənd/

Nicaragua /nɪkərɑgwə/

Niger /naɪdʒər, niʒeər/

Nigeria /naɪdʒɪəriə/

Northern Ireland /nɔrðərn aɪərlənd/

North Korea /nɔrθ kəriə/

Norway /nɔrweɪ/

Oman /oʊmɑn/

the Pacific /ðə pəsɪfɪk/

Pakistan /pækɪstæn, pɑkɪstɑn /

Panama /pænəmɑ/

Papua New Guinea /pæpyʊə nu gɪni/

Paraguay /pærəgwaɪ, -gweɪ/

Peru /pəru/

the Philippines /ðə fɪləpinz/

Poland /poʊlənd/

Portugal /pɔrtʃəgəl/

Puerto Rico /pwertə rikoʊ, pɔrtə/

Qatar /kɑtɑr, kətɑr/

Romania /roʊmeɪniə/

Russia /rʌʃə/

Rwanda /ruɑndə/

St Kitts and Nevis /seɪnt kɪts ənd nivɪs/

St Lucia /seɪnt luʃə/

St Vincent and the Grenadines /seɪnt vɪnsənt ənd ðə grenədinz, grɛnədinz /

Samoa /səmoʊə/

San Marino /sæn mərinoʊ/

São Tomé and Principe /saʊ təmeɪ ənd prɪnsɪpeɪ/

Saudi Arabia /saʊdi əreɪbiə/

Scotland /skɒtlənd/

Senegal /senigɔl/

Serbia /sɜrbiə/

the Seychelles /ðə seɪʃelz/

Sierra Leone /sieərə lioʊn/

Singapore /sɪŋəpɔr/

Slovakia /sloʊvɑkiə, -væk-/

Slovenia /sloʊviniə/

the Solomon Islands /ðə sɒləmən aɪləndz/

Somalia /səmɑliə/

South Africa /saʊθ æfrɪkə/

South Korea /saʊθ kəriə/

Spain/speɪn/

Sri Lanka /sri lɑŋkə, læŋkə, ʃri/

Sudan /sudæn/

Suriname /sʊərɪnɑm, -næm/

Swaziland /swɑzilænd/

Sweden /swidən/

Switzerland /swɪtsərlənd/

Syria /sɪəriə/

Taiwan /taɪwɑn/

Tajikistan /tɑdʒikɪstæn, -stɑn/

Tanzania /tænzəniə/

Thailand /taɪlænd/

Togo /toʊgoʊ/

Tonga /tɒŋgə/

Trinidad and Tobago /trɪnɪdæd ənd təbeɪgoʊ/

Tunisia /tunɪʒə/

Turkey /tɜrki/

Turkmenistan /tɜrkmenɪstæn, -stɑn/

Tuvalu /tuvəlu/

Uganda /ugændə, ugɑndə/

Ukraine /yukreɪn/

the United Arab Emirates /ði yunaɪtɪd ærəb ɛmirəts/

the United Kingdom /ði yunaɪtɪd kɪŋdəm/

the United States of America /ði yunaɪtɪd steɪts əv əmerɪkə/

Uruguay /yʊərəgweɪ, -gwaɪ/

Uzbekistan /ʊzbekɪstæn, -stɑn/

Vanuatu /vɑnuɑtu/

the Vatican City /ðə vætɪkən sɪti/

Venezuela /vɛnɪzweɪlə/

Vietnam /vyɛtnɑm, -næm/

Wales /weɪlz/

Yemen /yɛmən/

Zambia /zæmbiə/

Zimbabwe /zɪmbɑbweɪ/

irregular verbs

Infinitive	Past Tense	Past Participle
arise	arose	arisen
be	was, were	been
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet	bet
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burned *or* burnt	burned *or* burnt
burst	burst	burst

buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
dive	dived *or* dove	dived
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed *or* dreamt	dreamed *or* dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt

fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten, got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept

kneel	kneeled *or* knelt	kneeled *or* knelt
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
lean	leaned	leaned
leap	leaped *or* leapt	leaped *or* leapt
learn	learned	learned
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lit *or* lighted	lit *or* lighted
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit

read	read	read
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shined *or* shone	shined *or* shone
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk

sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
smell	smelled	smelled
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped *or* speeded	sped *or* speeded
spell	spelled	spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled	spilled
spit	spit *or* spat	spit, *or* spat
spoil	spoiled	spoiled
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
strike	struck	struck *or* stricken

swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke *or* waked	woken *or* waked
wear	wore	worn
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
write	wrote	written

measurements

Length

inch (1 in. = 2.54 cm)

foot (1 ft. = 30.48 cm)

yard (1 yd. = 91.44 cm)

millimeter (mm)

centimeter (cm)

meter (m)

kilometer (km)

mile (= 1.61 kilometers)

Weight

ton = 0.9 metric ton

ounce (1 oz. = 28g)

pound (1 lb. = 454g)

milligram (mg)

gram (g)

kilogram (kg)

Capacity

pint (= 0.57 liters)

gallon (= 4.55 liters)

milliliter (ml)

liter (l)

EXAMPLES

This tiny plant is only a few inches high.

They drove 600 miles across the desert.

The box weighs 4.5 kilograms.

The boat was carrying 30,000 tons of oil.

Each carton contains a pint of milk.

Adults should drink about two liters of water each day.

numbers/ordinal numbers

1	one
2	two
3	three
4	four
5	five
6	six
7	seven
8	eight
9	nine
10	ten
11	eleven
12	twelve
13	thirteen
14	fourteen
15	fifteen
16	sixteen
17	seventeen

18	eighteen
19	nineteen
20	twenty
21	twenty-one
22	twenty-two
30	thirty
40	forty
50	fifty
60	sixty
70	seventy
80	eighty
90	ninety
100	a/one hundred
101	a/one hundred and one
1,000	a/one thousand
10,000	ten thousand
100,000	a/one hundred thousand
1,000,000	a/one million

Numbers over 20

We write numbers over 20 (except 30, 40, 50, etc) with a hyphen.

25	twenty-five	45	forty-five
82	eighty-two	59	fifty-nine

A or one?

100	a/one hundred	1,000,000	a/one million
1,000	a/one thousand		

One is more formal, and is often used in order to be very clear and precise.

Large numbers

We often use a comma to divide large numbers into groups of three figures.

1,235,578 one million, two hundred and thirty-five thousand, five hundred and seventy-eight

Ordinal numbers

1st	first
2nd	second
3rd	third
4th	fourth

5th	fifth
6th	sixth
7th	seventh
8th	eighth
9th	ninth
10th	tenth
11th	eleventh
12th	twelfth
13th	thirteenth
14th	fourteenth
15th	fifteenth
16th	sixteenth
17th	seventeenth
18th	eighteenth
19th	nineteenth
20th	twentieth
21st	twenty-first
22nd	twenty-second
30th	thirtieth
40th	fortieth

50th	fiftieth
60th	sixtieth
70th	seventieth
80th	eightieth
90th	ninetieth
100th	hundredth
101st	hundred and first
200th	two hundredth
1,000th	thousandth
10,000th	ten thousandth
100,000th	hundred thousandth
1,000,000th	millionth

EXAMPLES

The total amount was one hundred and forty-nine dollars and thirty cents.

These shoes cost over a hundred dollars.

Kate won first prize in the writing competition.

It's Michael's seventh birthday tomorrow.

My office is on the twelfth floor.

I'm doing a project about fashion in the eighteenth century.

We're celebrating the 200th anniversary of independence next year.

The company announced that it has just served its millionth customer.

people of the world

There are different ways that the noun for a place changes to become the noun for a person from that place, or to become the adjective for that place. For places ending in "-a," the person noun and the adjective usually end in "-an," for example Australia→Australian.

I live in Australia.
I am an Australian.
I am Australian.
…the Australian flag.

Here are some other examples of words that work this way:

Place nouns that end in –a → person nouns and adjectives that end in –an

Africa→African, America→American,
Asia→Asian, Austria→Austrian,
Bulgaria→Bulgarian, Cuba→Cuban,
India→Indian, Kenya→Kenyan,
Malaysia→Malaysian, Russia→Russian,
Slovakia→Slovakian, Slovenia→Slovenian

There is no plural form for "person" words that end in "-s" or "-ese," for

example “a Swiss” and “a Chinese”. The singular form of these words is also not used very often, and it is more common to say “a Swiss man” or “a Chinese woman.”

If there is a language related to a particular country, the name of the language is usually the same as the adjective describing the country, for example *Polish, Japanese, Italian.*

Place (noun)	**Adjective**	**Person (noun)**
Afghanistan	Afghan	an Afghan
Argentina	Argentinean	an Argentine
Bangladesh	Bangladeshi	a Bangladeshi
Belgium	Belgian	a Belgian
Brazil	Brazilian	a Brazilian
Britain	British	a Briton
Canada	Canadian	a Canadian
Chile	Chilean	a Chilean
China	Chinese	a Chinese
the Czech Republic	Czech	a Czech
Denmark	Danish	a Dane
Egypt	Egyptian	an Egyptian
England	English	an Englishman or an Englishwoman

Europe	European	a European
Finland	Finnish	a Finn
France	French	a Frenchman or a Frenchwoman
Germany	German	a German
Greece	Greek	a Greek
Hungary	Hungarian	a Hungarian
Iceland	Icelandic	an Icelander
Iran	Iranian	an Iranian
Iraq	Iraqi	an Iraqi
Ireland	Irish	an Irishman or an Irishwoman
Italy	Italian	an Italian
Japan	Japanese	a Japanese
Mexico	Mexican	a Mexican
Morocco	Moroccan	a Moroccan
The Netherlands	Dutch	a Dutchman or a Dutchwoman
New Zealand	New Zealand	a New Zealander
Norway	Norwegian	a Norwegian
Pakistan	Pakistani	a Pakistani
Peru	Peruvian	a Peruvian

Poland	Polish	a Pole
Portugal	Portuguese	a Portuguese
Scotland	Scottish	a Scot or a Scotsman or a Scotswoman
Spain	Spanish	a Spaniard
Sweden	Swedish	a Swede
Switzerland	Swiss	a Swiss
Taiwan	Taiwanese	a Taiwanese
Turkey	Turkish	a Turk
Vietnam	Vietnamese	a Vietnamese
Wales	Welsh	a Welshman or a Welshwoman

EXAMPLES

Have you ever been to Peru?

She was born in China.

Five Germans and twelve Spaniards were killed in the crash.

Can you speak Welsh?

He is fluent in Vietnamese.

He is English.

…a Mexican restaurant.

…the French president.

times and dates

Telling the time

Here are the most common ways of saying and writing the time.

four o'clock	nine o'clock	twelve o'clock
four	nine	twelve
4.00	9.00	12.00

four in the morning	nine in the morning	twelve in the morning
4 a.m.	9 a.m.	12 a.m.
	midday	
	noon	

four in the afternoon	nine in the evening	twelve at night
4 p.m.	9 p.m.	12 p.m.
	midnight	

half past eleven
eleven-thirty
11.30

quarter after twelve (*American*)

twelve-fifteen	twelve forty-five
12.15	12.45
quarter past twelve (*British*)	quarter to one (*British*)

two twenty-five	seven-fifty
2.25	7.50
twenty-five past two (*British*))	ten to eight (*British*)

Writing dates

There are several different ways of writing a date.

April 20	20 April
April 20th	20th April

(say “April twentieth” or “the twentieth of April”)

If you want to give the year, you put it last.

December 15th, 2012

(say “December fifteenth, twenty twelve”)

You can write a date in figures. In American English, you put the month first, then the day, then the year. In British English, you put the day first, then the month, then the year.

In American English, December 15th, 2011 is:

12/15/11 *or* 12.15.11

In British English, December 15th, 2011 is:

15/12/11 *or* 15.12.11

EXAMPLES

What time is it? – It's five o'clock.

Excuse me, do you have the time? – Yes, it's eleven-thirty.

The class starts at 11 a.m. and finishes at 1:30 p.m.

We arrived at the airport just after nine.

I'll meet you at seven forty-five.

The new store opens on February 5th.

I was born on June 15th, 1970.

Date of birth: 6/15/1970.

index

A

absent

academic

accelerate

accelerator

accessible

accident

accommodation

accountant

accounts

ache

acid

acoustic

acquaintance

acrylic

act

actor

actress

ad

add

addition

address

adopt

adult

advert

advertise

advertising

adverts

aerial

aerobics

aeroplane

afternoon

age

agent

AGM

ago

agriculture

AIDS

air

aircraft

airline

airplane

airport

airsick

air-traffic controller

aisle

à la carte

alarm call

alarm clock

album

alcoholic drink

algebra

allowance

alphabet

aluminium

aluminum

ambassador

ambitious

ambulance

American football

anchor

anger

angle

angry

animal

animated

ankle

annoyed

annual

annual leave

answer

ant

antenna

antler

anxious

apartment

appetizer

apple

appliance

application

apply for a job

appointment

apprentice

approach

apricot

April

aquarium

architect

area

area code

arithmetic

arm

armchair

armed

army

arrest

arrival

arrivals

arrive

art

artery

art gallery

article

artist

arts

art school

ash

ashamed

ask

aspirin

assassinate

assault

assemble

assembly

assembly line

assignment

astronaut

astronomy

asylum seeker

athlete

at home

ATM

atmosphere

atom

atomic

attachment

attendance

at the moment

attic

attorney

aubergine

audience

audition

August

aunt

auntie

author

autumn

average

avocado

ax

axis

B

baa

baby

baby boy

baby girl

bachelor

bachelor’s degree

back

background

back light

back something up

bacon

bad

badminton

bag

baggage

baggage claim

baggage reclaim

bake

baked

baker’s

balance

balcony

bald

ball

ballet

ballpoint pen

ban

banana

band

bandage

Band-aid

bangs

bank

bank account

banking

bankrupt

baptism

baptize

bar

barbecue

bar chart

barcode

bargain

bar graph

bark

bar mitzvah

barn

barrier

baseball

basement

basket

basketball

bat

bath

bathing suit

bathroom

bathtub

bat mitzvah

battery

bay

beach

beak

beans

bear

beard

beat

beautiful

be born

become

bed

bed and breakfast

bedroom

bee

beech

beef

beer

beet

beetroot

behave

beige

be ill

bell

bellhop

belt

beltway

bench

benefits

be on a diet

berry

be sick

bicycle

big

bike

bike lane

bike path

bikini

bill

billfold

bin

binder

biodegradable

birch

bird

bird feeder

Biro

birth

birthday

biscuit

bite

black

black-and-white

Blackberry

blackboard

blade

blanket

bleed

bleeding

blender

blind

blinds

blog

blonde

blood

blossom

blouse

blow

blow your nose

blue

blue-collar

blunt

blush

board

boarding card

boarding pass

boat

body

boil

boiled

bold

Bollywood

bolt

bone

bonnet

bonus

book

bookcase

bookshop

bookstore

boom

boot

boots

boot up a computer

border

bored

borrow

boss

botany

bottle

bottle bank

bottle opener

bottom

boutique

bowl

boxing

boxing ring

box lunch

box office

boy

boyfriend

bra

bracelet

brain

brake

branch

brand

brass

bravo!

brazil nut

bread

breadwinner

break

break down

breakdown

break even

breakfast

break out

break the law

break up

breast

breathe

brick

bride

bridge

briefcase

bright

bring something to the boil

broadband

broadcast

broccoli

broil

broiler

bronze

brother

brother-in-law

brown

browse

browser

bruise

brush

bucket

bud

budget

buffet

bug

build

builder

building

bull

bulldozer

bulletin board

bully

bumper

bureau de change

burglar

burglarize

burglary

burgle

burn

bury

bus

bush

business

business card

business class

business hours

businessman

businesswoman

bus station

bus stop
busy
butcher’s
butter
buttercup
butterfly
button
buy
buzz

C

cabbage
cabin
cabin crew
cable television
café 119,
cafeteria
cage
cake
cake tin
calculate
calculator
calendar
calf
call

call center

call someone back

calm

calm down

camel

camera

campus

canal

cancel

cancer

candy

candy store

canned

canoe

can opener

canteen

canvas

cap

capital

capitalism

capitalist

capitals

captain

car

caravan

carbonated

carbon dioxide

carbon monoxide

cardboard

cardigan

career

carer

caretaker

cargo

cargo hold

car hire

car park

carpenter

carpet

car rental

carrier bag

carrot

carry

carry-on luggage

cartoon

carve

cash

cashew nut

cashier

cash machine

cast

caste

castle

casual

cat

catalog

catch

catch a cold

catering

caterpillar

cathedral

cauliflower

cave

CD

CD-ROM

ceasefire

ceiling

celebrate

celebrity

celery

cell

cellar

cello

cellphone

cement

cemetery

central heating

century

CEO

cereal

ceremony

chain

chair

chalkboard

chambermaid

champion

championship

change

change color

change colour

change gear

change purse

channel

chapter

character

charge

chart

chat

chat show

cheap

cheat

check

checkbook

checked

checked luggage

checkered

check in

check-in

checking account

checkout

check something in

cheek

cheerful

cheese

chef

chemical

chemist

chemistry

chemist´s

cheque

cherry

chest

chestnut

chest of drawers

chicken

chickenpox

child

chimney

chin

china

chips

chocolate

choir

chop

chopped

chopping board

chopsticks

chord

chore

chorus

christening

Christian name

Christmas

Christmas Day

Christmas Eve

church

cider

cinema

circle

circuit

circular

circumference

circus

citizen

city

civilian

civil war

clap

clarinet

class

classic

classical

classical music

classroom

claw

clay

clean

cleaner

clerk

click

client

cliff

climate

climate change

climb

clip

clock

close

closed

clothes

clothing

clothing industry

clothing store

cloud

cloudy

clutch

coach

coal

coast

coastal

coat

cockroach

coconut

cod

coffee

coffee maker

coin

cold

collage

collar

colleague

college

colon

column

comb

combine harvester

comedian

comedy

comic book

comma

commerce

commercial

commercial break

commit

communism

communist

community

commute

company

compartment

compass

competent

competition

complaint

complexion

compose

composer

compost

compound

computer

concert

conclusion

concrete

condom

conduct

conductor

cone

conference room

confess

confident

connection

conquer

conservation

conservatory

construction

consumer

contract

convict

cook

cooker

cookie

cool

copper

copy

corkscrew

corn

corporate

corporation

corpse

correct

correction fluid

cost

costs

costume

cot

cottage

cotton

cotton ball

cotton wool

cough

council

count

country

country music

countryside

couple

courgette

course

coursework

court

courthouse

cousin

cover

covering letter

cover letter

cow

co-worker

crab

crash

crawl

cream

credit

credit card

cremate

crib

cricket

crime

criminal

crisis

crisps

crocodile

crop

crossbar

crossroads

crosswalk

crouch

crowd

crowded

cruise

crutch

cry

crystal

cube

cucumber

cultivate

culture

cup

cupboard

cure

curious

curly

currency

currency exchange

current

current account

curry

cursor

curtain

cushion

custard

customer

customs

customs duty

cut

cut and paste

CV

cycle

cycle lane

cycle path

cycling

cyclist

cylinder

D

dad

daffodil

daily

daisy

damage

dance

dandelion

dark

darkness

darts

dashboard

data

database

date

daughter

daughter-in-law

dawn

day

day off

dead

deaf

deal

death

debit card

debt

decade

December

deciduous

decimal

decimal point

deck

decorate

decorator

deer

defend

degree

delay

delete

delicious

deliver

delivery

democracy

democratic

denim

dental floss

dentist

deodorant

depart

department

department store

departure

departures

deposit

depressed

design

designer

desk

desktop

dessert

destination

destroy

detached house

diagonal

dial

dialling code

diameter

diamond

diarrhoea

diary

dictator

dictionary

die

diesel

diet

difficult

digit

digital

digital camera

dilute

dining car

dining room

dinner

diploma

direct

direct debit

direct deposit

direction

directions

director

directory enquiries

dirty

disability

disabled

disaster

discount

discriminate

discrimination

discussion section

disgusting

dish

dishonest

dish soap

dishwasher

disk

disk drive

dismiss

dispose of something

dissatisfied

dissect

dissolve

distance

distance learning

district

ditch

dive

divide

division

divorce

divorced

DJ

dock

doctor

document

documentary

dog

do housework

domestic

donate

donkey

door

doorbell

doorstep

dorms

do the laundry

do the shopping

double room

download

downstairs

downtown

draft

drama

draw

drawer

draw the curtains

dress

dressing gown

dress up

drill

drink

drive

driver

driver's license

driveway

driving licence

drop someone off

drought

drown

drug

drug dealer

drum

drummer

dry

dubbed

duck

due

duet

dump

duration

during the week

dusk

dust

duster

duty-free

duvet

DVD

dyed

E

eagle

ear

earache

early

earn

earring

Earth

easel

east

Easter

easy

eat

e-book

eco-friendly

economic

economy

economy class

editor

education

eel

egg

eggplant

elastic

elbow

elect

election

electric

electric car

electrician

electricity

electronic

element

elementary school

elephant

elevator

elm

email

email address

embarrassed

embassy

emergency exit

emperor

empire

employ

employee

employer

employment

encore!

encyclopedia

endangered species

energy

engaged

engagement

engine

engineer

engineering

enjoy

enjoy yourself

enrol

en-suite bathroom

enthusiastic

entrance

envelope

envious

environmentally friendly

epic

equal

equality

ER

eraser

escalator

escape

essay

estate

estate agent

e-ticket

evaporate

even

evening

evergreen

every day

every week

evidence

evolution

evolve

exam

examination

excited

excitement

exclamation mark

exclamation point

executive

exercise

exhaust fumes

exhibition

exit

expand

expel

expenses

expensive

experiment

export

expression

extension

extinct

eye

eyebrow

eyelash

eyelid

F

fabric

face

face cream

face powder

facilities

factory

factory worker

faculty

fail

faint

fair

fairy tale

fall

fall out

false teeth

family

fan

fare

farm

farmer

farming

farmyard

fashion

fashionable

fast

fast food

fast-forward

fast train

fat

father

father-in-law

Father’s Day

fault

fax

fax machine

fear

feather

feature

February

feed

feel

feel better

feeling

feelings

feel sick

fence

fender

fern

ferry

fertilizer

festival

festivities

feverish

fiancé

fiancée

fiction

field

fieldwork

fig

figure

file

filing cabinet

film

film industry

film producer

film star

final

finals

financial

fine

finger

fire

fire engine

fire escape

firefighter

fireplace

fire station

fireworks

firm

first aid kit

first class

first-class

first name

fir tree

fish

fisherman

fishing

fishmonger’s

fist

fit

fix

fizzy

flannel

flashlight

flat

flat tire

flat tire repair kit

flat tyre

flavor

flavour

flesh

flexitime

flight

flight attendant

flight number

float

flood

floor

florist’s

flour

flower

flu

flute

fly

fog

folder

fold your arms

folk music

following

font

food

food processor

foot

football

force

foreground

forehead

foreign

forest

forestry

forge

forget-me-not

fork

form

formal

format

formula

fortnight

foster

foul

fox

foyer

fraction

frame

fraud

freckles

freelance

freelancer

free time

freeze

freezer

freezing

freight train

fresh

Friday

fridge

fried

friend

friendly

fries

frightened

fringe

frog

front door

front light

frost

frozen

fruit

frustrated

fry

frying pan

fuel

full house

full stop

full-time

fumes

funeral

funny

fur

furious

furnished

furniture

fuse

future

G

gale

gallop

game

game show

gang

garage

garbage can

garden

garden bench

garden center

gardener

gardening

garlic

gas

gas pedal

gas station

gate

gear

gears

gear shift

gear stick

gel

gene

generous

genetics

geometry

germ

gesture

get better

get changed

get divorced

get dressed

get engaged

get married

get ready

get undressed

get up

gift

gift shop

giraffe

girl

girlfriend

give birth

give way

glad

glass

glasses

global

globalization

global warming

gloves

glue

goal

goat

go camping

go home

gold

golf

golf club

golf course

goods

goods train

goose

go out of business

go out with someone

go red

go shopping

go sightseeing

go to bed

go to sleep

go to work

govern

government

grade

graduate

graduation

grandchild

granddaughter

grandfather

grandma

grandmother

grandpa

grandparents

grandson

grant

grapefruit

grapes

graph

graphics

grass

grasshopper

grated

grateful

grater

grave

gravity

gravy

gray

graze

green

greengrocer's

greenhouse

greenhouse effect

greeting card

greetings card

grey

grill

grocery store

groom

ground

ground beef

grounds

grow

growl

grown-up

growth

grow up

guest

guest house

guided tour

guilt

guilty

guitar

guitarist

gun

gym

gymnasium

gymnastics

H

habit

habitat

hacker

hail

hair

hairdresser

hairdryer

hairspray

hairstyle

half

half an hour

halftime

hall

halls of residence

ham

hamburger

hammer

hand

handbag

handbrake

handkerchief

handle

handlebars

hand luggage

handsome

handwriting

hang up

Hanukkah

happiness

happy

harbor

harbour

hard

hard disk

hard drive

hardware

harm

harmful

harmony

harp

harvest

hat

have a temperature

have breakfast

have dinner

have lunch

have your hair cut

hay

hazelnut

head

headache

head light

headlights

headline

health

healthy

hear

heart

heart attack

heat

heater

heavy industry

hedge

hedgehog

heel

height

helicopter

helmet

helpful

hen

herb

hero

heroine

hexagon

hibernate

high heels

highlighter

high-speed

highway

hijack

hike

hill

hip

hippopotamus

hire

hiss

hit

hitch-hike

hob

hobby

hockey

hoe

hold

hold something up

hold the line

holiday

holly

Hollywood

home

homeless

home page

homework

homicide

honest

honesty

honey

honeymoon

honors degree

honours degree

hood

hoof

hop

horizon

hormone

horn

horror movie

horse

horseback riding

horse racing

horse-riding

hose

hospital

hospitality industry

host

hostage

hot

hot chocolate

hotel

hour

house

housewife

housework

housing

HR

hub

human resources

human rights

humid

hunger

hungry

hunt

hunter

hurricane

hurt

husband

hydro-electric power

hyphen

I

ice

ice cream

ice cube

ice rink

ice skating

icon

ID card

identity

ill

illegal

illness

illustration

immediately

immigrant

impatient

import

improve

in a cast

inbox

income

independence

independent

index

indicator

indoor

industrial

industrial sector

industrial waste

industry

information

information desk

inherit

inheritance

injection

injured

ink

ink cartridge

inner tube

innocent

in plaster

insect

insecure

in stock

insurance

insurance industry

intelligence

intelligent

intercity train

interest

intermission

international

international call

interval

interview

in the afternoon

in the evening

in the lead

in the morning

introduction

in tune

invade

invent

invention

invest

invigilate

invigilator

invitation

invite

iPod

iron

ironing board

island

IT

italics

itch

ivy

J

jacket

jail

jam

janitor

January

jasmine

jaw

jazz

jealous

jeans

jello

jelly

jellyfish

jet lag

jet ski

jeweler’s

jeweller’s

jewellery

jewelry

job

jogging

journal

journalist

journey

judge

judo

jug

juice

juicy

July

jumbo jet

jump

jumper

June

jury

K

kaftan

kangaroo

karaoke

karate

kayak

kennel

kettle

key

keyboard

key card

key ring

key something in

kick

kidnap

kidney

kimono

kind

kindness

king

kingdom

kitchen

kitten

knee

kneel

knickers

knife

L

laboratory

lace

ladder

ladle

ladybird

laid off

lake

lamb

lamp

lampshade

land

landfill

landing

landlady

landline

landlord

landscape

lane

language

laptop

lasagna

lasagne

last

last name

late

later

launch

Laundromat

laundry

laundry liquid

law

lawn

lawnmower

law school

lawyer

lay off

layoffs

layover

lead

leaf

leaflet

leafy

leap year

learn

leather

lecture

lecturer

leek

left

left-luggage office

leg

legal

legend

leisure industry

lemon

lemonade

lend

length

lens

Lent

lentils

lesson

let out

letter

letterbox

lettuce

librarian

library

license plate

lie

lie down

lifebelt

lifeboat

lifeguard

life preserver

lifestyle

lift

light

light bulb

lighthouse

light industry

lightning

lily

line

linen

lion

lips

lipstick

liquid

literature

litter

live

liver

living room

lizard

loaf

loan

lobster

local

local call

lock

locker

log in

logo

log off

lonely

long

look

look after someone

look like

look something up

lorry

lose

lose weight

lost

lost and found office

loudly

loving

low-budget

low-energy bulb

luggage

luggage label

luggage rack

luggage storage

luggage storage office

lunch

lunchbox

lunch break

lung

luxury

lyrics

M

machine

machinery

magazine

magnet

maiden name

mail

mailbox

mailman

mail order

mailwoman

main course

major

make

make a reservation

make dinner

make friends

make money

make up

makeup

mammal

manage

management

manager

mane

mango

man-made

manual

manufacture

manufacturer

manufacturing

map

marble

March

margarine

marine

mark

market

marketing

market research

marriage

married

marry

marsh

mash

mashed

mass production

master’s degree

match

material

maternity leave

math

mathematical

mathematics

maths

matinee

mattress

mature

May

mayonnaise

meadow

meal

mean

measles

measure

measurement

meat

mechanic

medal

media

medical school

medicine

medium

medium-sized

meeting

melody

melon

melt

memory

memory stick

mend

menu

meow

message

metal

miaow

microphone

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BETTER ENGLISH WRITING

The aim of this book is to help you write clearer and more concise English – whether you are writing emails or writing a thesis.

By the time you have finished this book, you will have learned tips and techniques to improve your written English and make it more readable and interesting. You will be able to write clearly and effectively, and to come across in a memorable and professional way.

The book contains six main chapters. These are as follows.

Better writing for every day

This chapter gives you some general advice to help you write better English – whatever that type of writing is. It covers the importance of plain English, and will help you to apply the principles of plain English to your writing. We have provided some examples of how not-so-plain English can be converted into plain English!

We also focus on the importance of editing and revising your writing in this chapter. Even the most professional and gifted of writers edit and revise their work.

Writing for learning

In this chapter the focus is on writing for learning. You will find out about research and how to tackle writing essays and theses. There are examples of each of these to give you an idea of what is expected.

You can apply this information to writing assignments for all sorts of courses – whether you are at school, college, university or doing a distance learning course.

Writing for work or business

This chapter gives you the advice and support you need to be able to tackle all sorts of writing for work or business – from writing a CV

or making a presentation to get the job, through to communicating with customers by email, letter or text.

There are examples of each type of writing.

Writing for the media

Writing for the media involves learning specific writing techniques. If you are interested in writing articles or news items for newspapers, magazines, ezines, websites, TV or radio, then this chapter will help you to understand and apply these techniques.

It also looks at interview techniques and house styles, and provides useful examples.

Writing creatively

This chapter provides an introduction to the different types of fiction and non-fiction writing, and their characteristics. It also gives you advice on composition techniques that you can apply to your own fiction and non-fiction writing.

Again, examples are provided to illustrate these techniques.

Keep reading and writing!

One of the best ways to improve your own writing is by reading other people's writing. In this chapter, we leave you with some suggestions for material that you should read every day. We also have some suggestions for how you can practise writing regularly – the more you write, the better you'll get.

We hope that you enjoy using this book, and that it will inspire you to produce clear, concise and memorable writing!

WEBSTER'S WORD POWER

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The process of writing a report
Planning your report
Structuring your report
Sections within the structure
Title page
Contents page
Executive summary
Introduction
Findings
Summary and conclusions
Recommendations
Appendix
Staying relevant, objective and factual

PRESENTATIONS

Planning a presentation
- *Purpose*
- *Audience*
- *Venue*
- *Remit*

Structuring a presentation
- *Introduction*
- *Main points*
- *Conclusion*

Delivering an effective presentation
- *Remember that practice makes perfect*
- *Use body language*
- *Use your voice*
- *Breathe!*
- *Be enthusiastic and energetic*
- *Be prepared!*

What type of visual aid?
- *Flipchart*
- *Handout*
- *OHP*
- *PowerPoint*
- *Video*
- *Whiteboard*

Example of a PowerPoint presentation

MARKETING AND PROMOTIONAL WRITING

General approach

Audience

Style and tone

Call to action

Writing brochures/leaflets

Example of a leaflet

Writing for websites

Presenting information

Writing content

Plain English

BBC

The Guardian

WWF's Earth Hour

Social media

WRITING ANNOUNCEMENTS

General approach

Get your facts correct

Presentation style

Beginning: tell the news straight away

Middle: develop the news

End: looking forward and being positive

Style and tone

Example of an announcement

How to announce good news

Example of how to announce good news

How to announce bad news

Example of how to announce bad news

WRITING FOR THE MEDIA

INTRODUCTION

WHAT'S UNIQUE ABOUT WRITING FOR THE MEDIA?

The five Ws and an H

Example of 'five Ws and an H'

Media style

Example of two openings

Interviewing techniques

Do your research

Plan and structure

Establish a rapport

Ask open-ended questions

House style

Example of house style

Preferred dictionary

Addresses, ages, dates and numbers
Collective nouns
Hyphens and en rules
Abbreviations, titles, capital letters and royalty
Fonts and layouts
Style of language
Spin

DIFFERENT MEDIA, DIFFERENT STYLES

Newspapers
Tabloids and broadsheets
Examples of tabloid and broadsheet headlines
Tabloid headline
Broadsheet headline
Examples of tabloid and broadsheet report approach
Tabloid news report approach
Broadsheet news report approach
Structure and style
Magazines
News features
Profiles
Lifestyle features
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Question and answer
Specialist features
Structure and style

Example of a feature profile
Ezines
Research
Write your article
Resource box
Developing your own ezine
Example of an ezine
Newsletters
Blogs
Why do you want to blog?
How to set up a blog
Writing a blog
Examples of blogs
Reviews
What is the target audience/market?
Include basic information
Don't give away too much
Example of a review

ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES/COPYRIGHT

WRITING CREATIVELY

INTRODUCTION

FICTION

Short stories

- *Impactful opening*
- *Introduction of main character(s)*
- *Introduction of setting*
- *Problem/conflict introduced and developed*
- *Problem/conflict develops to a climax*
- *Effect of this climax on the character*
- *Resolution*

Novels

WRITING YOUR OWN FICTION COMPOSITION

Setting

Plot

- *Exposition*
- *Conflict*
- *Rising action*
- *Climax*
- *Falling action*
- *Resolution*

Narrator/voice

Dialogue

Characters

Elizabeth

Darcy

Jane

Bingley

Wickham

Mrs Bennet

Mr Bennet

Mr Collins

Lady Catherine de Bourgh

Themes

Pride

Prejudice

Love and marriage

Reputation

Class and social standing

A good beginning and a good end

The writing process – fiction

First lines

Setting the scene

Prompts

NON-FICTION

Biographies

Examples from two different biographies

Travel
- *Travel articles*
- *Examples of a travel article*
- *Example of literary travel writing*
- *Travel guides*
- *Example of a travel guide*

Cookery
- *Theme*
- *Structure*
- *Two examples of recipe structure*
- *Photographs*
- *Writing recipes*
- *Example of recipe writing*
- *Introductions and other content*

Technical writing
- *End-user documents*
  - Examples of end-user documents
- *Traditional technical writing*
  - Example of traditional technical writing
- *Technological marketing material*

‘How to’ writing
- *Examples of ‘how to’ writing*

Reference works
- *Dictionary*
- *Example of how to use a dictionary*
- *Other types of dictionaries*

Thesaurus

Example of a thesaurus

Encyclopedia

Atlas

Directory

Reference for writers

Writers' and Artists' Yearbook

Rhyming dictionary

Grammar books

Emotional thesaurus

Names books

Inspirational books

Quotations books

WRITING YOUR OWN NON-FICTION COMPOSITION

Research

What information are you looking for?

Where can you find that information?

Accuracy

Organising your information

Acknowledging sources/copyright

References

Beware cut and paste and plagiarism!

Style and tone

Planning your composition

Structuring your composition

Biography

Recipe collection

Operating instructions for a communication camera

Staying relevant, objective and factual

The writing process – non-fiction

KEEP READING AND WRITING

KEEP READING

Newspapers

Magazines and ezines

Fiction

Non-fiction

Textbooks and ‘how to’ materials

Blogs

Newsletters

KEEP WRITING

Diary

Blog

Letters and cards

Essays and compositions

Newspapers

Magazines and ezines

Good luck and keep writing!

REFERENCES

Better writing for every day

Writing for learning

Writing for work or business

Writing for the media

Writing creatively

BETTER WRITING FOR EVERY DAY

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, we are going to look at what we mean by plain English and why it is so important. We will then discuss the principles of plain English, and how to apply these to everything you write, whether it's a letter, an email, a marketing brochure or a dissertation.

There are a number of examples to show how not-so-plain English can be transformed into plain English. It really does make a huge difference when you can read and understand something easily the first time round.

Finally, there is a section on the importance of editing and revising your writing, and the role of AutoCorrect, spellcheckers, grammar checkers and Google Translate in this process.

PLAIN ENGLISH

In this section we are going to look at what we mean by ‘plain English’.

What is plain English and why is it important?

Plain English writing always keeps the reader in mind, so it is clear and concise and uses the appropriate tone.

Some people think that plain English is oversimplified and that it talks down to readers, as if they were children.

Some people think that writing good English means writing long, convoluted sentences, with lots of clauses, which have, or try to have, impressive, indecipherable words, with regard to making lots of grandiose points in a pompous and grandiloquent way and it would seem not really going anywhere with them at all and, quite frankly, leaving the reader confounded, disconcerted and bewildered, and not understanding at all what the sentence is about because regarding this they go and on and don’t seem to know when to stop and in order to get to the end of the sentence the reader has to read the sentence over several times and endeavour hard to understand it, which is quite egregious, don’t you agree?

Confused? You should be. This sentence shows why plain English is so important.

Think about why we write in the first place. We write to communicate a message to our reader – not to show how clever or educated or well-read we are. If we can’t communicate our message to the reader in a way that they understand then what’s the point? We are excluding them, rather than including them.

And apart from anything else, plain English is faster to write and faster to read. People understand your message more easily and respond more positively if it is written using a straightforward and friendly tone, rather than a stuffy and bureaucratic one.

How to apply plain English to your writing

Here are some plain English principles. Apply these to your writing and notice the difference. It can take a while to retrain yourself to write this way, but it's well worth the effort.

Think ahead – plan and structure your writing

Ask yourself the following questions before you start to write. If you do this, then you are more likely to produce a well-structured and effective piece of work. If you don't, then your writing is more likely to ramble on, go off at a tangent and not make sense because you don't really know what you want to say.

- What do I want this piece of writing to do?
- What are its aims and outcomes?
- Who are my readers?
- What do I want them to learn/know?
- What do they need/want to learn/know?
- What is the simplest and most effective way of passing on this information?

Make a plan of the structure of your work. How you do this is up to you. Some people think of their piece of writing as a story, and write out main headings and subheadings. Some people make out a list of points, in a logical order. Some people use mind maps. Use a method that you feel comfortable with.

For example, look at the contents page of this book. The writer used this as a plan for the structure of the book.

Talk directly to your reader – use 'you' and 'we'

Writing doesn't have to be formal and intimidating. You wouldn't **speak** to your reader that way, so you don't need to **write** that way. Try to address your reader personally, and call them 'you' – it will make your writing seem less bureaucratic and intimidating.

Here's an example. If you were applying for a job, which of the following would you prefer to read?

It is suggested that job applicants submit a handwritten form and hand it in prior to the interview. Applicants will be notified by telephone of their success or otherwise.

or

Please fill in your job application form and hand it in before the interview. We will phone you to let you know if you have been successful.

In the same way, you should also use 'we' or 'I' if you are talking about your business or organisation. It gives a much more direct and positive tone to your writing.

Use simple, straightforward words

People sometimes make the mistake of thinking that by using simple, straightforward words, you are patronising your reader. Quite the opposite – if we're honest, we all prefer to read clear and straightforward text rather than difficult, convoluted text.

There will possibly be times when you have to use technical or more complicated vocabulary because that's what your reader requires, and they will understand the terms and phrases you use. That's fine, as long as your writing remains clear and direct.

In general, always imagine that you are talking to your reader, and stick to straightforward English where possible.

Words and phrases to avoid

Try to avoid using words that most people wouldn't know. For example, you might know what 'egregious' means (outstandingly bad) but it's not a common word, so you're probably safer to use 'shocking' or 'extremely bad' instead.

There are a number of words and phrases that are overused. They don't add anything to your text, but they do give it a vague and woolly feel.Here are some examples – try to avoid them where possible or use the suggested alternatives.

word/phrase	**suggested alternative**
as mentioned previously	as we have already said

a number of	some
as regards to/with regards to	about
by means of	by
commence	start
consequently	so
for the purposes of	for
in excess of	more than
in order to	to
in relation to (for example, ‘my thoughts in relation to’)	on or about (or just leave out)
in the event of	if
inform	tell
necessitate	cause
prior to	before
until such time as	until
utilise	use
whilst	while
with reference to	about

Keep sentences and paragraphs short and concise

Sentences containing lots of clauses (not to mention parentheses – and this is an example) are difficult to read. Many readers give up before they get to the end of long, multi-clause sentences.

Experts on plain English think that an average sentence should be between 15 to 20 words long, although not every sentence has to be the same length. In fact, you can vary them to great effect. Be creative. (Like this!) Try to stick to one idea in each sentence, or at the most one idea and one related point.

It can be quite difficult to keep to short sentences when you are trying to explain something that is complicated. In that case, write your long sentence, then look at ways you can break it up.

The same principles apply to paragraphs. There’s nothing more daunting than a long paragraph that deals with so many points that you’re lost by the time you reach the end.

Like a sentence, a paragraph is a small, self-contained unit. You state your idea, develop it and then link it to the idea in the next paragraph. If you have planned your writing carefully, your reader will be able to understand each paragraph quickly and easily because they are clear, concise and logical.

Use lists to help you manage information

Sometimes you can't avoid having to cover a lot of information in one section. Lists with bullet points are an excellent way to deal with this. It is easier to take in chunks of information rather than wade through a page full of information that appears to go on and on.

There are two main types of lists.

Here is an example of the first type. It has an introductory statement, followed by a list of separate points. Each point is a complete sentence that begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

Emma wanted to go on a gap year. She had several reasons for this.
She didn't know what she wanted to study at university.
She wanted to travel around the world.
She would never have another chance in her life to take so much time off.

Here is an example of the second type. This list is part of a continuous sentence. Each point starts with a lower case letter, and there is a full stop at the end of the list.

Emma wanted to go on a gap year because she:
didn't know what she wanted to study at university
wanted to travel around the world
would never have another chance in her life to take so much time off.

Remember that each point in this list has to relate to the introduction. Try reading it to yourself if you're not sure.

For example, does this sound right?

Emma wanted to go on a gap year because she:
what she wanted to study at university
travel around the world
would never have another chance in her life to take so much time off.

Be active, not passive

An active clause is where **a** *does* something to **b**. In other words, the order is **subject, verb, object**. The verb is active.

For example:

The **candidate completed** the **job application**.

A passive clause is where **b** is done by **a**. In other words, the order is **object, verb, subject**. The verb is passive.

For example:

The job application **was completed** by the candidate.

You'll notice that when you use the passive voice, you have to introduce the words 'was' and 'by', and this can make text more clumsy and long-winded. Passives also de-personalise the text and can sometimes be confusing.

And finally, because you are not talking directly to your reader, you lose your friendly and approachable tone.

Try to use active verbs in the majority of your writing. The passive voice isn't wrong. You need to use it sometimes, but it can be a wordy and unclear way of expressing yourself.

Here are some examples of how to turn passive sentences into active ones:

The land was farmed by student workers. (passive)
Student workers farmed the land. (active)

The screenplay was written by a famous author. (passive)

A famous author wrote the screenplay. (active)

The criminals were chased by the police. (passive)
The police chased the criminals. (active)

When passive can be useful

However, there are times when using the passive can be useful.

- It can sound softer:
  The cup has been broken. (passive)
  sounds less accusing than
  You broke the cup. (active)

- You might not know who or what the 'doer' of the sentence is:
  The soldier was awarded a medal for bravery.
  The corner shop has been robbed.

- If it is unclear who or what did something, or if you want to deliberately make it unclear for effect, then you use the passive voice.
  Where are all the sweets that I bought?
  Erm, all those sweets have been eaten. (passive)
  You ate all the sweets, didn't you? (active)

- **The passive voice can give an air of objectivity to a text. For example, in a piece of technical text it is not usually acceptable to insert 'I' or 'we' into your conclusions.**
  The findings suggest that the vitamin, administered in quantity, does help to prevent the illness. (passive)
  is better than
  We believe that the vitamin, administered in quantity, does help to prevent the illness. (active)

Avoid nominalisation

A nominalisation (how's that for plain English?) is a noun that has been formed from a verb. It is an abstract noun. This means that it is the name of a process, emotion or an idea – something that you can't see, hear, smell or touch. It's not a physical object.

Here are some examples:

verb/adjective	**nominalisation**
recommend	recommendation
investigate	investigation
discuss	discussion
observe	observation
provide	provision

Nominalisations have the same effect as passive verbs – they can make your writing lack clarity and brevity, and your ideas come across as dull and heavy-going.

Have a look at these examples. In the first sentence, the verb has been nominalised. In the second (**in bold**), it hasn't.

A recommendation regarding shift work was made by senior management.
Senior management recommended shift work.

The implementation of a ban on text speak has been carried out by the school.
The school has implemented a ban on text speak.

She asked for the matter to be put up for discussion.
She asked to discuss the matter.

Tell it like it is!

People can feel uncomfortable about giving commands or instructions (or **imperatives**, as they are called) because they can sound a bit harsh. But then you can take forever to say what you

want and your writing comes across as boring and longwinded. For example:

Customers are advised that they should report to reception on arrival at the building.

You can still use clear and concise commands without sounding like you are barking out an order.

Here are some examples:

Customers are advised that they should report to reception on arrival at the building.
Visitors please report to reception.

I would be grateful if you could send the parcel to me.
Please send me the parcel.

The packaging should be removed and the contents of the box should be checked before assembling the furniture.
Remove the packaging and check the contents of the box. Then assemble the furniture.

Examples of plain English and not-so-plain English

The **Plain English Campaign** website has some excellent 'before' and 'after' examples of not-so-plain English. If you can, have a look at this website: www.plainenglish.co.uk

Here are three examples taken from the website showing how to turn not-so-plain English into plain English. Read and enjoy.

Before

High-quality learning environments are a necessary precondition for facilitation and enhancements of the ongoing learning process.

After

Children need good schools if they are to learn properly.

Before

Your enquiry about the use of the entrance area at the library for the purpose of displaying posters and leaflets about Welfare and Supplementary Benefit rights, gives rise to the question of the provenance and authoritativeness of the material to be displayed. Posters and leaflets issued by the Central Office of Information, the Department of Health and Social Security and other authoritative bodies are usually displayed in libraries, but items of a disputatious or polemic kind, whilst not necessarily excluded, are considered individually.

After

Thank you for your letter asking for permission to put up posters in the library. Before we can give you an answer we will need to see a copy of the posters to make sure they won't offend anyone.

Before

Colour: Green
Tax disc: 00000 00000 00000
Expiry: 31/01/2011
Observed from 08:51 to 08:57
A penalty charge of £70 is now payable and must be paid not later than the last day of the period of 28 days beginning with the date on which this PCN was served (i.e. 22/09/2010)
The penalty charge will be reduced by a discount of 50% if it is paid not later than the last day of the period of 14 days beginning with the date on which this PCN was served (i.e. 08/09/2010)
DO NOT PAY THE CIVIL ENFORCEMENT OFFICER
SEE REVERSE FOR:
How to pay
How to appeal to this PCN
What happens if no payment is made

After

Vehicle colour: Green
Number on tax disc: 00000 00000 00000

Date disc expires: 31/01/2111
The traffic warden saw your vehicle was parked illegally from 8:51am to 8:57am.
You must now pay a penalty charge of £70 within 28 days, beginning with the date on which we served this notice (in other words, by 22 September 2010).
We will reduce the penalty charge to £35 if you pay it within 14 days (in other words, by 8 September 2010).
Do not pay the traffic warden.
See the back for:
how to pay;
how to appeal against this notice; and
what happens if you do not pay.

Examples taken from the Plain English website: www.plainenglish.co.uk/examples/before-and-after.html

REVISING AND EDITING YOUR WRITING

In this section, we are going to focus on why it is important to edit and revise your writing and give you ways to do so.

Why it's essential to revise and edit your writing

No matter what you are writing – whether it's an email or a thesis – it's essential to revise and edit it. There will always be mistakes to correct or things you could improve. Even top writers either edit their own work or use professional editors to do this.

Here is a process for revising and editing your work effectively.

Leave it and go back to it

Once you have finished writing, leave it for a while – even if it's an email and you only leave it for one or two minutes. This will help you to come back to the writing fresh and spot what's right – and what's not.

Have you ever written an angry email and pressed send ... and then regretted it? Giving yourself a bit of time between writing the first draft of any piece of text and going back to revise it, can give you a bit more perspective on whether it is good or bad.

Revise the big picture

Read your first draft and concentrate on the big picture, and the overall flow of what you have written. Does it make sense? Is the order logical, or does it need changed?

Does anything need cut or added? What is your overall impression? Ask someone else to read it for you if you're not sure yourself.

Make notes regarding any general observations made about your writing style and bear them in mind the next time you write something.

Edit the detail

Once you are happy with the big picture, you can concentrate on the detail of individual sentences and words. Here are some things to check for:

- Words that have been typed incorrectly (typos) or words that have been misspelled – use a good dictionary to help you check.
- Not-so-plain English – make sure that you have applied plain English principles and that your writing is clear and concise.
- Misused or confused words.

Here is a short list of some of the most commonly misused or confused words:

accept to agree, to receive or to do
except not including

advice this is the noun, not to be confused with …
advise the verb

complement something that completes or perfects, the number or quantity required to make something complete
compliment an expression of praise, admiration or approval

discreet careful not to attract attention
discrete separate and distinct

ensure make certain that something will happen
insure to provide compensation if a person dies or property is damaged or stolen, etc.

practice this is the noun, not to be confused with …
practise the verb

stationary not moving
stationery writing materials

AutoCorrect, spellcheckers, grammar checkers and Google Translate – use with caution

These features can all be useful if you use them with care, but they can't differentiate between a context that makes sense and one that doesn't. There are pages of hilarious AutoCorrect fails on the internet that show what the problems can be. And Google Translate can often make a literal rather than idiomatic translation. The nature of an idiom is that it may make no sense from the literal meaning of its words but makes more sense in a metaphorical way.

WRITING FOR LEARNING

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will give you guidance on developing the skills you need to write essays and dissertations. Once you have the processes and tools to help you, you can tackle this type of writing more confidently and effectively.

RESEARCH SKILLS

You need to have good research skills to be able to produce essays and theses. Here are some points to help you.

What information are you looking for?

It sounds obvious, but it's worth saying – you need to know what you're looking for before you start looking for it. Make sure you understand the question you are answering, or the task set by your essay or thesis title. Then you can go on and find the appropriate material to research.

Where can you find that information?

There are many different types and source of information, but the three main ones are books, journals and the internet.

Looking for information can be daunting, so use all the help you can get. When you are looking for **books and journals in the library**, try the following:

- Ask your tutor or teacher for recommendations – which books, journals or periodicals are good for your particular essay or thesis? Is there a reading list for your subject?
- Look through the contents page and index – this will tell you quickly whether the information you are looking for is there.
- Ask the librarian for help if you are having problems using the library cataloguing system.

When you are looking for **information on the internet**, try the following:

- Ask your tutor or teacher for recommendations – which websites are good for your particular essay or thesis?
- Stay focused. Don't go wandering off onto websites that have nothing to do with your project.
- Avoid experiencing information overload by writing a list of questions you want to find answers to, and reject the information that doesn't answer them.
- Stick to two or three sources at one time. You can come back for more.
- Don't go past the first page of your search engine.
- Don't believe everything you read on the internet – stick to reputable sites and those that list traceable sources. If in doubt, check with your tutor or teacher.

Organising your information

Now that you have found your information, don't let it overwhelm you. Organise it and you'll be able to use it effectively:

- Keep going back to the question 'What is it asking?' What information are you looking for?
- Find out how much you are expected to write, so you know when to stop.
- Plan your essay or thesis, so you know what to look for in each section.
- As you are reading, look for the answers to your questions.
- Look for points that agree or disagree with these answers.
- Take notes and summarise the ideas or main points from each piece of information.
- Link these ideas using a mind map, highlighter pens, stickers – whatever you feel comfortable with.
- Ignore any information that is too detailed or not relevant.
- Remember to write down the author, title, place of publication, publisher, date of publication and page numbers for articles from

books, journals, periodicals and encyclopedias, and web addresses and date of access for online sources. Make sure that web links are current at the time of writing, and convert them to working hyperlinks. This way, you will build a bibliography as you go along – much easier than trying to track down everything you've consulted at the end.

Acknowledging sources/copyright

This last point is very important. You must identify all the material in your essay or thesis that is not your own – no matter where it comes from or what it is. Colleges and universities have strict plagiarism rules which forbid using another person's work without a proper citation. Moreover, if you copy text, diagrams, photographs, art, music or web pages without acknowledging their source, then you are infringing copyright law, and could be prosecuted.

Copyright stays with the originator during his or her lifetime, and with the heirs to their estate for 70 years after their death.

References

Because of the copyright issue, you should make a list of all the references to books, journals, periodicals and websites you have used in your work. Providing a list of references also provides evidence of how much reading you have done and supports the statements and arguments you make.

You should put references in the main text when you are quoting an author and their work, and also list them separately in a bibliography. Try to avoid using footnotes, unless specified by your institution – they will make your text cluttered.

The **Harvard referencing system** is probably the most common one, although you should check this with your school, college or university – they might use another system instead.

Main text

Here's an example of a **reference or citation** of an author's quote in the main text:

> ‘[Welsh is] by far the oldest language spoken in Britain today and is among the oldest in Europe ...’ (Edwards, 2012, p. 11).

If you quote an author directly like this, you need to show clearly where the quotation begins and ends by using quotation marks. The text in square brackets indicates where you have changed the exact words used by the author in order to suit your sentence (without altering the sense of what was said by the writer). The closing ellipsis indicates that the end of your quote is not the end of the author’s statement. If you are quoting the entirety of an author’s sentence or statement, this should not be included.

If you aren’t quoting the author directly, but want to show that you have read their work, you could write:

> Edwards (2012, p. 11) points out that Welsh is the oldest language spoken in Britain today, as well as being among the oldest in Europe.

Bibliography

Here’s how a reference for a **book** would look in the bibliography:

> Edwards, D. I., 2012. English–Welsh Phrasebook. Glasgow: Waverley Books, p. 11.

Here’s how a reference for a **journal** would look in the bibliography:

> Bernard, G. W., 1993. Anne Boleyn’s Religion. The Historical Journal, 36(01), pp.1–20.

Here’s what an **internet reference** would look like in the bibliography:

> Bernard, G. W., 1993. Anne Boleyn’s Religion. The Historical Journal, [online] 36(01). Available from: Cambridge Journals

Online
http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0018246X00016083 [Accessed 29 March 2013].

Beware of cut and paste and plagiarism

Copying and pasting text into your own work without using quotation marks or citing it appropriately is a form of plagiarism.

Plagiarism is when you take somebody else's ideas or writing and present them as your own. If you do this, you will probably fail your essay or thesis, if not face disciplinary action.

When you are taking notes, decide what information you need from your source, and then write or summarise it in your own words. That way, you won't be tempted – consciously or subconsciously – to copy the source, word for word.

Don't cut and paste. You can easily forget that you have taken somebody else's work and put it into your own – especially if you change the font to the one you are using.

Remember that plagiarism is cheating.

ESSAYS

Whether you are at school, college, university or any other type of learning institution, you will have to write essays at some point in your course. It's one of the most common ways of assessing learners.

In this section, we will help you to use your research to plan and write clear, concise and high quality essays.

The process of writing an essay

There is a process involved in writing an essay. This process doesn't have to be linear, where each stage is only done once. You can repeat different parts of the process and revise your work until you are happy with it.

Here's an example of a process you could use:

- **Analyse the question or title of your essay**. What is it asking for? How are you going to answer it? Many teachers and tutors say that this is where many students fall down – they don't stay relevant to their theme because they don't keep looking back at what the question is asking for.
- **Brainstorm your ideas.** People often find it very stressful when they are faced with writing an essay because they don't know where to start. Don't panic. Instead, get some paper and write down all your ideas about the title, what your structure might be and where you might look for evidence. If it helps, do this with a friend or colleague. Don't try to sort anything out at this stage. That can come later.
- **Research. Read around the question/title and make relevant notes.** Don't waste time on irrelevant reading or too much detail. Keep the length of the essay in mind. Focus. Take notes (in your own words) and keep full reference details (including page

numbers of direct quotes) of all the material you have looked at and think you will use.

- **Plan your structure**. You need to do this to help you answer the question and develop a clear argument, so keep referring back to the question to make sure that your structure is relevant.
- **Write the first draft.** Remember to write in plain English.
- **Include full references and a bibliography**.
- **Revise and edit your work.** Refer back to Chapter 2 (*see* revising and editing your work) if you're not sure where to start.
- **Identify any missing information.** Editing usually reveals where there are gaps in your writing.
- **Cut out anything you don't need.** Editing also reveals repetition and unnecessary detail.
- **Write the final draft.**

Planning your essay

You need to plan your essay. This will help you to organise your thoughts, and will stop you from wandering off the point, getting lost and writing lots of irrelevant and unnecessary words.

Planning will help you to write a powerful introduction, develop your argument and summarise its main points effectively and concisely in the conclusion.

Imagine that you have been given the following essay title from your history tutor:

> Account for the failure of American policy in Vietnam from 1956–73.

You have analysed the title, brainstormed your ideas and carried out your research. Now it's time to plan your essay. Here's one example of how you can do this.

You'll probably have gathered a lot of information, so drawing a mind map can help you to empty your head of that information, and organise it into logical chunks.

- Get a piece of paper and write down all your ideas – don't worry about perfect writing at this point – just get the content down.
- Get a clean piece of paper. Put the topic box in the middle of the page.
- Now think about the main ideas of your report – what are they?
- Draw lines from the topic box to these main ideas.
- Now add information where you think it sits within these main ideas.
- Make links between the main ideas.

Structuring your essay

Giving your essay a structure like the one below will help you to answer the question and create a tight and consistent argument:

- Introduction
- Development
- Conclusion

Here's an example of how we could use this structure for our essay title above.

Introduction

- This essay is going to account for the failure of American policy in Vietnam.
- America strong and powerful – so why did it go wrong? Reasons: ineffective military approach; poor morale; media coverage; atrocities; cost in lives and material resources; communism no longer a threat in 1973.
- Essay to analyse each of these factors in turn to account for failure of American policy.
- First, need to analyse why America joined the war.

Development

Background to war – why USA joined in first place.

- ‘Domino effect’ – spread of communism in south-east Asia.
- North Vietnam communist.
- USA supported South Vietnam to prevent spread of communism.

Military tactics – failure

- US troops inexperienced.
- Mainly young white working-class or black boys (many white middle-class boys escaped to college or Canada).
- Troops didn’t want to be there and didn’t understand why they were there – 8000 miles from home fighting for what? Therefore low morale, drug taking, killing officers, deserting.
- Compare to the Vietcong – hardened, experienced guerrilla fighters – who had been fighting for independence since Japanese left at end of the Second World War. Desperate to kick Americans out of their country at any cost.
- US high-tech military tactics didn’t work against Vietcong guerrilla warfare.
- US tactics alienated South Vietnamese, and they helped Vietcong in some cases.

Media coverage

- A TV in most American living rooms – coverage of the war reached most Americans.
- Public witnessed the horror of the war and US failures.
- Resulted in propaganda, including protest songs.
- Martin Luther King preached against war.
- All this swung public opinion against war.

This was not helped by:

US atrocities

- For example, massacre at My Lai of hundreds of unarmed civilians in South Vietnam.
- Other war crimes reported to public at home.
- This caused outrage and undermined the moral authority of USA to continue war.

Cost in terms of material and human resources

- Tens of thousands of American troops killed and hundreds of thousands of troops wounded.
- Huge numbers of Vietnamese killed.
- President Johnson had to cancel his Great Society programme – huge financial cost to USA that wasn't sustainable.

Better relationships between America, Russia and China

- Cold war starting to thaw.
- Communism not such a threat.
- What was the point?

Conclusion

- Summarise these factors succinctly and concisely – end with quote 'For the American public, Vietnam had been a terrible lesson on the limits of their power – why, exactly, had these young men been sent to their deaths? No one seemed able to answer this question.' (Quote from *National Qualifications Curriculum Support: The origins and development of the Cold War*, *1945–85* (*Learning and Teaching Scotland, 2008*).

Writing the introduction

The introduction should:

- set the question or title in its wider context by giving background information about the central issue
- explain the main ideas of your argument and how you are going to answer the question
- make a link to the first point in the 'Development' section.

Here's an example of an introduction that covers these points.

Account for the failure of American policy in Vietnam from 1956–73

America entered the war in Vietnam to stop the spread of communism, promote democracy and support its allies. It had access to great power and resources and the latest military technology, so what went wrong, and why did it pull out of Vietnam in 1973?

There are a number of factors that account for the failure of American policy in Vietnam from 1956–73. First, America's high-tech military approach was not appropriate for dealing with the guerrilla tactics used by the Vietcong, and its troops were young and inexperienced, and didn't understand what or why they were fighting. The Vietcong, on the other hand, were experienced, war-hardened and determined to drive the Americans out.

Second, extensive media coverage brought the full horror and failures of the war into people's living rooms like never before, and turned American public opinion against it.

Third, atrocities such as the massacre at My Lai undermined the moral authority of the US to continue the war.

Fourth, the cost of the war in terms of material and human resources was huge.

Finally, the political background had changed during the years 1956–73, and by the time Nixon came to power relations between America, Russia and China were much friendlier. Communism wasn't the threat it had been in the

1950s and 1960s, so by 1973 most Americans didn't understand the point of the war.

This essay will analyse each of these factors in turn.

But to account for the failure of American policy in Vietnam, we first have to analyse why America joined the war in the first place.

Developing the argument

The middle part of your essay must develop the arguments you set out in your introduction, and it must support your final conclusions.

This is where a good structure is really useful. This will help you to stay relevant to your theme while you expand on and explain your ideas and provide relevant references and examples to support them.

You should write clearly and concisely. You can still write in plain English, although an academic style is more likely to use the third person (he, she or it) instead of the second person (you and we), and some institutions may insist upon third person.

For example:

> America entered the war in Vietnam in the winter of 1955. Its goals were to stop the spread of communism, encourage democracy and support its allies.

Remember to write critically, not descriptively. One of the biggest criticisms that teachers and tutors have of their students is that they just regurgitate the facts, rather than analysing and evaluating those facts. Don't just say that something happened – say why or how it happened and back it up with evidence.

For example:

> America's intervention was set against an increasing concern about the spread of communism in south-east Asia. The Americans were convinced that they should actively support countries like South Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand and Burma to prevent this from happening. As

President Eisenhower said at a press conference on 7 April 1954, ‘You have a row of dominoes set up. You knock over the first one, and what will happen to the last one is a certainty, that it will go over very quickly.’

Make sure that you link each idea or point to the next one, so that your argument flows logically and smoothly.

Writing the conclusion

The conclusion should:

- recap on and answer the essay title
- summarise and evaluate the main arguments
- highlight the most important aspect or aspects covered.

Here’s an example:

To conclude, American policy in Vietnam failed because of ineffective military tactics; the strength of public opinion due to negative media coverage of US failures and atrocities; the huge cost in terms of money and human life and the emergence of détente between America, Russia and China. Military tactics failed because no matter how advanced the American technology, they could not beat the guerrilla tactics or motivation of the Vietcong, who were on home terrain and had years of fighting experience. Compare this to the American troops, who were young and inexperienced, and did not want to fight in a war they did not understand. To begin with, the American public backed what they saw as a war against communism, but media exposure of the US failures and atrocities and protest by public figures and popular musicians swung public opinion the other way. The sheer cost in terms of life and money was not sustainable in the long term. But perhaps the most compelling reason for failure was that by 1973, the reason for the war no longer existed because of the easing relations between America, China and the USSR. This was a particularly humiliating failure because ‘For the American public, Vietnam had been

a terrible lesson on the limits of their power – why, exactly, had these young men been sent to their deaths? No one seemed able to answer this question.'

(*The origins and development of the Cold War*, 1945–85 [2008])

THESES/DISSERTATIONS

If you have completed postgraduate research, or are completing your Master's, PhD or doctorate, then you will have to write a thesis or a dissertation. This will be the culmination of in-depth study in your chosen subject or discipline. You will probably already have gathered a lot of research data and will have been writing as you go – so you're not starting with a blank sheet of paper.

Some people find the thought of writing a thesis quite daunting. It's a good idea to review other theses in your research area, to see how these have been tackled.

This section will help you to plan, structure and write a high quality thesis.

The following principles are the same for writing essays as they are for writing a thesis:

- planning and structuring your work
- creating a powerful introduction
- developing the argument
- linking ideas from one section to the next
- writing strong and authoritative conclusions.

It is therefore worth revisiting the examples in the 'Essay' section before you read this section.

The process of writing a thesis

As with essay writing, think of writing your thesis as a process to go through. This should help to give you focus if you are feeling stressed and don't know where to start.

- Think about a **general structure** for your thesis as soon as you can. It will help you to focus your research and write material that is

relevant to your topic/argument.

- **Write as you go along.** This is an important part of the research process because it makes you think about what you are doing, analyse information and make connections. It also means that you will be tackling your thesis in small chunks, rather than doing it all at once at the end.
- Remember while you are doing this to **record all your references**. It's much easier to do this just now, rather than try to go back and locate sources at the end.
- **Develop a filing system**. This should reflect the general structure of your thesis and could be organised around different chapters or research data.

  Each time you produce writing or notes on a particular aspect of your thesis, put it in here. Use envelopes, plastic folders, paper folders – anything that works for you. That way you have the beginnings of your thesis, ready to work on.
- **Report back to your supervisor** regularly and show them your writing. Ask for feedback. Better to do this gradually rather than in one huge chunk at the end.
- **Write a first draft**. Remember to apply the rules of plain English. Go back to Chapter 2 to remind yourself of these.
- **Revise and edit your thesis**. Check your word limit, and keep this in mind while you are doing this. You'll probably have to go through this loop a few times before you are finished. Go back to chapter 2 to remind yourself of techniques for revising and editing your work.
- **Published thesis.** Congratulations!

Planning your thesis

Planning your thesis is essential if you want to:

- create a logical, consistent argument
- stay relevant to your theme
- make it concise and easy for the reader to understand.

We've already looked at using a mind map to help you plan your writing (*see* section on 'Essays').

You could also try the following method:

- Brainstorm all the ideas and information that you need to include in your thesis on a large sheet of paper – include ideas for chapter headings and how you are going to analyse and represent your research. Don't bother about perfect writing – just get everything down.
- Start to sort this into chapter headings and sub-headings. For example, you might have used a number of different methods to conduct your research, so each method will need its own sub-heading. You could have another sub-heading at the end of the chapter to bring together all these methods.
- Add notes, references and conclusions as you go.

You have now built up a plan that will help you to see where you have gaps in your research and also where you have irrelevant information that you can drop.

Remember to get regular feedback from your supervisor – this will also help the planning process.

Now you are ready to use this plan to help you create a more detailed structure.

Structuring your thesis

Here is an example of a suggested structure, although your institution might have variations on this. You are best to check with your supervisor before you begin.

- Title page
- Abstract
- Acknowledgements
- Contents page
- Introduction

- Literature review
- Materials and methods
- Results/Findings
- Discussion
- Conclusions
- References
- Appendices

Sections within the structure

Let's look at what each of these sections involves in more detail. Ask your supervisor to give you examples of published theses in your research area to find out how other people have tackled these sections.

Title page

This tells your reader straightaway what your thesis is about. Make it concise, and clear. It must describe to your reader quickly and effectively what your research is about. Your institution will probably have a standard format that you have to follow, so check this with your supervisor.

Abstract

An abstract is the summary of your research. It needs to summarise clearly and succinctly what you did and why you did it, and it needs to be able to stand alone – if your thesis is registered within a database, it becomes a document in its own right.

You should probably write your abstract last, when the whole thesis is fresh in your mind. Remember that it usually has a word limit, and is often only one page long. Plain English is essential here.

Acknowledgements

This is where you acknowledge people who have helped and advised you.

Contents page (can also include lists of tables, illustrations and figures)

This is basically the structure of your thesis, and should show how balanced (or not!) the sections are.

Introduction

The introduction should give the reader more detail about the research summarised in the abstract and flag up the content in the thesis.

The literature review

This chapter shows where your particular piece of research fits into the overall context of your research field. What does your thesis add to this area of research? You need to identify this and state the research question or problem you will be addressing in your thesis.

Materials and methods

This is a clear and concise description of how you conducted your research. For example, you could have used particular equipment, processes or materials. It's a fine balance here – you need to give enough detail for another researcher to understand what you have done.

Results/Findings

Ask your supervisor about this. Science theses usually have separate sections for the results and the discussion of the results. A psychology thesis, however, might combine both in one chapter called *findings.*

Discussion

This section is where you review your own research in the context of your chosen field and discuss what it has added.

Conclusions

This section should summarise your research, describe the main points that have emerged and suggest what they mean for your chosen field.

References

Keeping note of your references as you go along is even more important when you are writing a thesis. When you are going through the revision and editing process, you will probably add and take away some references, so before you submit your thesis, check that all the references in your reference list are actually in the text, and all the references in the text are in the reference list.

Your supervisor will tell you which referencing style to use.

Appendices

Appendices usually contain information that is important to your research, but which takes up too much space or doesn't sit happily in the main body of the text.

Good luck if you are writing a thesis. This will probably be the most challenging thing that you do in your academic career. Follow these tips, work with your supervisor and you will be the proud owner of a bound copy of the culmination of your work that other people will use in their research.

WRITING FOR WORK OR BUSINESS

INTRODUCTION

Whether you are an employee or running your own business, you must be able to put your ideas across as clearly and concisely as possible in a variety of different situations.

This section will ensure that you come across in a memorable and professional way. It will give you guidance on the following aspects of business writing:

- how to apply for a job
- emails and texting in the office
- emails and letters to customers
- reports
- presentations
- marketing and promotional writing
- writing announcements.

APPLYING FOR A JOB

This section focuses on improving your writing skills to help you apply for a job. It also gives advice on how to write a reference for somebody who is applying for a job.

How to write an effective CV

A CV, or curriculum vitae, is a brief description of your personal details, education and work history. Most employers will ask for your CV as part of your job application. It needs to be concise, clear, organised and well presented, because you will probably be competing with lots of other people. A good CV is more likely to get you an interview.

In this section, we'll go over how to create your own CV and show you an example of a finished CV.

Personal details

You need to provide your:

- name
- address
- day and evening telephone numbers
- email
- age.

Be honest about this information – if an employer discovers you've been lying, you definitely won't get the job.

Education and qualifications

This is where you give details of your education and any qualifications you have. Put these in reverse chronological order – most recent first, and oldest last.

Work experience

List all the jobs you have had in this section. Again, put this information in reverse chronological order (most recent first). You need to provide:

- the starting and finishing date for each job
- your work title
- who you worked for
- where you worked and a description of what you did.
- Keep sentences short, concise and relevant.

Further information

In this section, put down any other skills, qualifications or information that you think will make a good impression and help you to get the job. For example, if you have a clean driving licence, and this is relevant to the job, then include this information.

Interests

This is where you can describe what your interests or hobbies are. You can also use it to give a glimpse of your personality, but try to bear in mind whether mentioning it will put you in a positive or negative light. Again, you need to be honest here, but not too honest.

For example, if you are a computer games addict, and do nothing much else in your spare time, you could express this in a more positive way by saying: “I have an encyclopedic knowledge of gaming and video games.” Sounds a bit geeky but, then again, geeks are usually intelligent. You might love parties – instead call it ‘entertaining at home’ but don’t go into too many details.

Some outside interests might not appear to be immediately relevant to the job but show you to be friendly, sociable, good at organising etc. Clubs, societies, choirs and sports clubs, especially those in which you have a role, all show positive characterstics that will be useful in any job.

Referees

Choose two people who can provide references for you. One should provide a personal reference (usually somebody you have known for a long time) and one a professional reference (usually somebody you have worked for).

Your referees must not be related to you. Remember to ask their permission and check their details before you include them.

Example of a CV

Curriculum Vitae

Personal details

Anne Other
The Cottage
Elm Street
Goldenvalley
GO13 7AN

telephone: 01337 888 888
mobile: 07777 999999
email: anne.other@wordsolutions.co.uk
date of birth: 07/04/60

Education and qualifications
National School of Journalism (2010–2012)
Freelance and Feature Writing Course (distinction)
Goldenvalley College of Education (1987–88)
Postgraduate Certificate in Primary Education (distinction)
Newtown College of Commerce and Technology (1982–83)
Diploma for Graduate Secretaries
Cowper University (1978–82)
MA Hons in Medieval History (2:1)

Work experience

June 2011 – present

Director: Word Solutions Ltd, Goldenvalley

Word Solutions (formerly Publishing Solutions Ltd) offers professional writing and research services.

January 2004 – June 2011

Director: Publishing Solutions Ltd, Goldenvalley

Publishing Solutions offered the following services:

- researching and writing original material
- carrying out in-field research and writing evaluations
- rewriting existing material
- editing and proofreading
- project management.

September 1992 – December 2003

Head of Publishing: Goldenvalley Education Council, Goldenvalley

I had responsibility for:

- acting as editor-in-chief
- building up a list of freelance designers, editors and proofreaders
- publishing curriculum material
- writing and publishing corporate literature.

May 1991 – August 1992

Professional Officer: Goldenvalley Education Council, Goldenvalley

I had responsibility for:

- helping with curriculum initiatives
- researching, writing and publishing education material
- initiating promotional material.

September 1988 – April 1991
Primary Education Officer: Goldenvalley Design Council, Goldenvalley
I had responsibility for:

- researching and writing copy for the design newsletter
- providing inservice on design and technology for primary schools in Goldenvalley
- writing and publishing inservice material
- liaising with sponsor bodies to write and publish case study materials on design and technology.

Further information
I am a member of the Society for Editors and Proofreaders.

I hold a clean driving licence.

Interests
Music is a passion. I play the violin in an amateur orchestra and go to concerts regularly.

I am interested in all aspects of the arts.

I am an avid reader.

Referees

Referee 1	**Referee 2**
Title	Title
address	address
telephone number	telephone number
email address	email address

How to write an effective covering letter

Role of the covering letter

A covering letter builds on the information you provide in your CV. It is your chance to say why the company should employ you. This letter should tell the reader that you are the right person for the job.

Do your research before you write

Before you write your letter, do some research on the company and the job for which you are applying. If you do this, you will show that you have used your initiative and that you are genuinely interested in the job. Research will also help you to find out whether the company is formal or relaxed, new or established. You can then pitch your letter using the appropriate style of language and terminology.

Format

Put your address at the top right hand corner of the letter. Miss a line and then put the date. The address of the person you are writing to goes on the left hand side after the date.

Date

This is usually written as 10 July 2012 rather than 10th July 2012.

Address

Put in the person's name, title, address and postcode. You don't need commas after each line in the address, or full stops after people's initials.

Greeting

- If you are on first name terms with the person, use 'Dear Anne'.
- If not, then use 'Dear Mr Other' or 'Miss Other/Mrs Other'.
- If you are writing to a woman and don't know what her title is, then use 'Ms'.
- If you don't know the person's name, then use 'Dear Sir' or 'Dear Madam'.
- If you don't know whether they are male or female, use 'Dear Sir or Madam'.

• You don’t need a comma after the greeting.

Headings

If you feel a heading would be useful, then put it in bold and upper and lower case.

Don’t use ‘re:’.

Main body of the letter

Make sure you are writing in plain English and keep your writing clear and concise. Use bold type to emphasise any points – lots of capitals or italics are hard to read.

The opening paragraph should be short, sharp and effective.

The second paragraph should describe the professional and academic qualifications that you have that are relevant to the job.

The third paragraph should emphasise what you can do for the company. You should expand on the relevant points in your CV.

The fourth paragraph is where you can say that you would welcome an interview.

Ending

If you used the first name of the person in the greeting, then sign off with ‘Yours sincerely’.

If you used the formal title of the person in the greeting, then sign off with ‘Yours faithfully’.

If you know the person well, then you can sign off with whatever you think is most appropriate – for example, ‘Best wishes’ or ‘Yours truly’.

You don’t need a comma after the ending.

Enclosures

If you have attached any material, put ‘Enc’ or ‘Encs’ at the end of your letter. This stands for ‘enclosure’ or ‘enclosures’.

Check the letter over before you send it off.

Example of a covering letter for a job application

Anne Other
The Cottage
Elm Street
Goldenvalley
GO13 7AN

10 July 2011

James Brown
Head of Education
Goldenvalley Architecture and Design
Market Street
Goldenvalley
GO11 6BQ

Dear Mr Brown

I am writing to apply for the post of writer for goldenvalleyarchitecture.com magazine, which was advertised on the Architecture and Design News website.

I have an Honours degree in Medieval History. This has enabled me to develop skills in researching, synthesising and analysing information, and to write clearly and concisely. In addition, I have a diploma with distinction from the National School of Journalism, and understand the styles and techniques required for magazine writing.

I believe that professional writers should be able to apply their skills to any subject. For example, I have been asked to research and write about subjects as diverse as Watt's steam engine and sustainable development education in Sweden. However, I do thoroughly understand the general principles of design, and the importance of the design brief, because I worked for the Goldenvalley Design Council for two years.

I have enclosed a portfolio of some of my work. I hope that this convinces you that I have the experience, skills and enthusiasm to write high quality copy for your web magazine.

I would be happy to bring examples of my work to an interview. My contact details are on my CV.

Yours faithfully
Anne Other
Encs

How to write a reference

You might be asked to write a reference for somebody who is applying for a job.

A reference letter should provide information on who you are, your position, your connection with the person you are recommending, why they are qualified for the job, and the specific skills they have. You should also provide contact information for any follow-up.

Refer back to the 'How to write a covering letter' section to remind yourself of how to lay out your address, date, reader's address and ending.

Greeting

If a named person has requested the reference, then use 'Dear Mr', 'Dear Miss', 'Dear Mrs' or 'Dear Ms' depending on what is appropriate.

If you are writing a general letter, then use 'To whom it may concern' or leave the greeting out altogether.

Main body of the letter

The first paragraph should explain your connection to the person you are recommending. How do you know them, and why are you qualified to write a reference for them?

The second paragraph should contain specific information about the person you are recommending. What qualifications and skills do they have that will contribute to the job? You might have to split this information into several paragraphs.

The third paragraph should relate the candidate's qualifications, skills and experience directly to the post. Look at the job description to help you do this.

Summarise why the candidate is suitable for the job, and why you are recommending them. You can state that you 'highly recommend'

or ‘thoroughly recommend’ the person, or something else along those lines.

Conclusion

Offer to provide the reader with more information, and provide your contact details (phone numbers and email address).

Example of a reference

Anne Other
The Cottage
Elm Street
Goldenvalley
GO13 7AN
10 July 2011

Ms Jane Nother
HR Department
Cowper University
Aberford
AD16 7NN

Dear Ms Nother

Sandra Wilson worked for me as Publications Assistant from 1993 to 2003 while I was Head of Publishing at AAA Publishing Ltd.

Sandra was a valuable asset to the publications team. She helped me to set up the processes and systems necessary for a very busy publishing department, and provided excellent administrative support. Sandra had to work under considerable stress and I relied upon her heavily.

Sandra has studied an HNC in Business Administration and a Diploma in Management. She has also taken courses to improve her skills in Microsoft Excel, Word and Project.

Sandra is a self-improver, and is always willing to learn new things. She would be able to fit in immediately to the role of Secretary, because she has the necessary skills and

qualifications. Sandra has all the skills that you are looking for. She:

- is an extremely organised, reliable and efficient person, and can manage her own workload without supervision
- can answer the phone and deal with enquiries effectively and diplomatically
- keeps a cool head under stress – Sandra's patience was tested many times while I was Head of Publishing, but she always remained calm and diplomatic
- can keep a diary and timetable appointments effectively – she not only did this for me, but also set up a very successful and efficient spreadsheet for the department
- can deal with correspondence efficiently and effectively because of her knowledge of the Microsoft Office suite of software
- can be trusted with confidential information – she is discreet and loyal.

I would thoroughly recommend Sandra for this post. Her efficiency, organisational and administrative skills, reliability and initiative make her an ideal candidate.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you need any further information.

Yours faithfully

Anne Other
Director, Word Solutions
anne.other@wordsolutions.co.uk
01337 888 999
07777 999999

Presentations

If your CV and covering letter are successful, you'll be invited for an interview. This can sometimes involve making a presentation to an

interview panel. Lots of people shake in their boots at the thought of this, but if you prepare a simple, clear and concise presentation, then it will be an excellent prop and a tool for helping you to get the job.We have covered presentations later on in this chapter.

EMAILS AND TEXTING IN THE WORKPLACE

This section gives you guidance on emailing and texting at work.

General approach

Emailing and texting are now the most common ways of communicating at work. Because people tend to use more informal language when communicating in these ways than they do when they are writing a business letter, however, some people think that it is acceptable to relax the rules of grammar, punctuation and clear writing. This is not the case. No matter what you are writing, it needs to be clear and easy to understand, or you won't get your message across. This applies to emailing and texting at work.

Here are some points to keep in mind when you are emailing:

- Be clear and concise. If you have a lot of information, send it as an attachment.
- Put the title of the email in the subject box, and keep it short.
- Keep paragraphs short and use bulleted lists. There's nothing worse than scrolling through screeds of information.
- Don't overuse capitals. They can look aggressive and 'shouty'.
- Don't attach pictures or documents that are over 5MB. This can cause problems for the person on the receiving end.
- Reply to an email as soon as possible, but don't keep replying unnecessarily ('thanks!', 'it's a pleasure!', 'no problem!'). It takes up valuable time, you will get into a never-ending cycle and it will clog up your inbox.

Style and tone

When you are emailing or texting colleagues, you should remember that you are at work, and that they are colleagues, and not friends.

While it's acceptable to use a more relaxed tone, here are some points to keep in mind:

- Don't use slang, abbreviations or emoticons. It's not professional.
- Remember also to use proper grammar and formatting. If you use lower case and ignore proper sentence structure, you will come across as sloppy and unprofessional.
- Think about your reader and the most appropriate way to open and close your email. If you are emailing your boss, it might be more appropriate to open with 'Dear Ms Other' and close with 'Regards' than to open with 'Hi' and close with 'Cheers'. If you are emailing a colleague who is also a friend, then 'Hi' and 'Cheers' are acceptable.

Text-speak?

What is text-speak? The term describes the dialect sometimes used in digital communication whereby lengthy sentences and thoughts are condensed down, using phonetic abbreviations and substituted letters, numbers and characters.

Here's an example. See if you can translate:

My hols this yr wr CWOT. I wnted 2go2 NY but my bro didn't. We wnt to Florida instd but it ws full of :-@ kids in theme pks n I h8d it.

Here's the translation:
My holidays this year were a complete waste of time. I wanted to go to New York, but my brother didn't. We went to Florida instead, but it was full of screaming kids in theme parks and I hated it.

How long did it take you to work that out? It's certainly nothing like as clear as plain English and it's just not appropriate in a work environment. Apart from coming over as unprofessional, you are much more likely to be misunderstood.

Even for those who would not use this kind of extreme text-speak, we often write in a markedly different way when texting or emailing than we would on the page, without, for example, paying the same attention to grammar and punctuation.

While this is fine for personal communication, it carries the same problems, if to a lesser degree, that text-speak does when it comes to work correspondence. Meanings can easily become ambiguous and unclear to the recipient, and, even if clear enough, your message still comes across as sloppy and unprofessional. Stick to plain English when you are emailing and texting at work.

Good practice

Here's an example of an email exchange between colleagues. It is informal and friendly, but still remains professional:

From: john.smith@wordsolutions.co.uk
To: anne.other@wordsolutions.co.uk
Cc: george.brown@wordsolutions.co.uk
Subject: Notes for board meeting

Hi Anne

Could you please bring last month's notes along with you to the Board meeting today. This should help to focus our discussions and hopefully we'll finish in time for a cup of coffee.

Thanks for your help with editing the minutes, by the way.

Best wishes,
John

From: anne.other@wordsolutions.co.uk
To: john.smith@wordsolutions.co.uk
Cc: george.brown@wordsolutions.co.uk
Subject: Re: Notes for board meeting

Hello John

No problem at all. I'll bring the notes in before the meeting.

Yes, here's hoping that we get through it all quickly!

Delighted to help with the editing.

Best regards,
Anne

EMAILS AND LETTERS

This section focuses on writing emails and letters in the workplace. This time we're focussing on writing to customers.

General approach

When you are emailing and writing letters to customers, it's even more important to take the right approach. Informal and sloppy messages are unprofessional and just won't do. Imagine you are a customer and receive a letter in text-speak in response to a complaint. How would you feel? You would probably think that you weren't being taken seriously, or that your complaint wasn't being dealt with in a professional way. We've said it before and we'll say it again – no matter what you are writing, it needs to be clear and easy to understand, or you won't get your message across. This is essential when you are communicating with customers.

Keep the following points in mind when you are emailing or writing to customers:

- Be clear and concise.
- If you are writing a letter and it has a lot of information, break it up into short paragraphs with subheadings.
- If you are writing an email, send any large chunks of additional information as an attachment.
- Always remember that you are writing to a customer and be professional in your approach.

Style and tone

When you are writing emails or letters to customers, your style and tone should be formal and professional. Don't use slang, abbreviations, emoticons or text-speak:

Soz I 4got 2 send the order, bro

It's difficult to understand, unprofessional and will therefore give a bad impression of both you and your organisation.

Remember also to use proper grammar, spelling, punctuation and formatting. If you use lower case where there should be a capital letter and ignore proper sentence structure, you will come across as sloppy and unprofessional.

Here's an example:

their wasn't any things left in wearhouse sorry I didn't get the order by you.

House style

A house style is a set of rules that states how all documents and written communications from a business should be formatted.

The aim of house style is to present a recognisable, consistent image of a company to the outside world. Your company will probably have a house style, so check this out before you start to write emails or letters.

House style covers things like:

- font style and size – for example, don't use Times Roman if the house style uses Arial
- colours used – for example, house style might use dark blue text in emails and letters, rather than black
- whether text should be right justified, left justified, centred or unjustified
- how the address and contact details should be presented.

Good practice

The section on ‘Emails and texting in the office’ will remind you of the basics of writing a business email. ‘How to write an effective covering letter’ in the ‘Applying for a job’ section in this chapter will remind you of the basic format and structure of a business letter. Here are some key points about writing emails and letters specifically for customers, followed by an example of an email and a letter to a customer.

Writing emails to customers

Here are some key points:

- Don’t use ‘Hi’. Use ‘Dear Mr, Miss, Mrs or Ms’.
- Take as much time and care with an email as you would do with a letter.
- Use ‘plain text’ rather than HTML (this creates emails that are in the style of web pages). Some people will be accessing their emails from hand-held devices such as smartphones that can only display text.
- Structure your email as you would a letter – that is, with a beginning, middle and end. This will help the reader to understand what you are writing quickly and easily.
- Break up long paragraphs and use bulleted lists. This helps the reader to digest large chunks of information.
- Don’t attach files or images that are bigger than 5MB because this can cause problems for the person receiving your email.
- Remember that your company’s disclaimer probably won’t protect you if you deliberately mislead your customer or lie to them.

Always check over an email before you send it out.

Example of an email to a customer

From: julie.brown@glassesforyou.com

Sent: 21 January 2013 12.07
To: johnsmith@brownandbrown.com
Subject: Delivery of broken crystal glasses

Dear Mr Smith

Thank you for your email of 21 July 2012, informing us that three of the six crystal glasses you ordered from our website were broken on arrival.

We are extremely sorry about this. We have systems and procedures in place to make sure that our fragile glassware is packed as carefully as possible, and are looking into why these failed in your case. We will email you when we have found out what happened.

You told us in your email that these glasses are needed urgently for a wedding present, so we have packed another box and will send it by courier to your work address in Edinburgh today. It will arrive by 4.30pm at the latest.

We hope that this will make up for your earlier disappointment, and look forward to have you shopping with us again in the future.

Yours sincerely
Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
julie.brown@glassesforyou.com
www.glassesforyou.com
0171 888 888

From: julie.brown@glassesforyou.com
Sent: 21 January 2013 12.07
To: johnsmith@brownandbrown.com
Subject: Delivery of broken crystal glasses

Dear Mr Smith

Thank you for your email of 21 July 2012, informing us that three of the six crystal glasses you ordered from our website were broken on arrival.

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We hope that this will make up for your earlier disappointment, and look forward to have you shopping with us again in the future.

Yours sincerely

Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
julie.brown@glassesforyou.com
www.glassesforyou.com
0171 888 888

GLASSES FOR YOU

This email, together with any attachments, is for the exclusive and confidential use of the addressee(s) and may contain privileged information. Any other distribution, use or reproduction without the sender's prior consent is unauthorised and strictly prohibited. If you have received this message in error please notify the sender by email immediately and delete the message from your computer without making any copies.

Writing letters to customers

Here are some key points:

- Your letter needs a structure – a clear beginning, middle and end – to help the reader digest the information quickly and easily.
- Don't over-punctuate. You don't need full stops in the date or in the name or commas in the address.
- The date is usually written as 7 April 2012 rather than 7th April 2012.
- Use 'Dear Mr, Mrs, Miss or Ms' unless you are on first-name terms with the reader. If you don't know the reader's name, then use

‘Dear Sir’ or ‘Dear Madam’.

- You usually start a letter with ‘Thank you for your letter of 7 April’. If you use ‘I acknowledge receipt of’ or ‘Further to your recent’ you can come over as stuffy and old-fashioned.
- If you think a heading is necessary, then use bold rather than capitals. Don’t use ‘re:’.
- If you started the letter with ‘Dear Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms, Sir or Madam’ then end it with ‘Yours faithfully’. If you started the letter with ‘Dear Sue’ then end it with ‘Yours sincerely’.
- Include your contact details in case the reader wants to get back in touch with you.
- **Always** check over the letter before you send it.

Example of a letter to a customer

Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
Glasses For You
Bankhead Industrial Estate
Aberford AD12 6FG
21 July 2012

Mr J Smith
Company Offices
Brown and Brown Ltd
High Street
Aberford AD11 1FH

Dear Mr Smith

<u>Delivery of broken crystal glasses</u>

I emailed you this morning to apologise for the fact that three of the six crystal glasses you ordered from our website were broken on arrival.

You should receive this letter from the courier who is delivering another box of glasses to you at your work address. Please open the box and inspect the glasses to make sure that they are undamaged. I have asked the courier to wait until you have checked them, although I am sure that they will arrive in pristine condition.

As promised, we are currently looking into why the breakages happened in the first place. I will email you as soon as I know what happened. In the meantime, because you are a valued customer, please accept a voucher for £15 to make up for our mistake.

Please contact me if you have any other issues you would like to discuss. I am here to help.

Yours faithfully
Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
julie.brown@glassesforyou.com
www.glassesforyou.com
0171 888 888

GLASSES
FOR YOU

Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
Glasses For You
Bankhead Industrial Estate
Aberford AD12 6FG
21 July 2012

Mr J Smith
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Dear Mr Smith

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Please contact me if you have any other issues you would like to discuss. I am here to help.

Yours faithfully

Julie Brown

Julie Brown
Customer Services Manager
julie.brown@glassesforyou.com
www.glassesforyou.com
0171 888 888

REPORTS

The thought of having to write a business report can be very intimidating to some people. But don't worry – it's not difficult. Half of the battle is remembering and applying the principles of plain English, and we've already covered that.

What we are going to focus on here is the process involved in writing a report, and the way it is organised and structured.

The process of writing a report

Like all types of writing, there is a process for writing a report. And, as with other types of writing, you can repeat parts of this process until you are happy with your report. It will help you to focus your thoughts and give you somewhere to start.

Here's the suggested process:

- **Define the purpose of your report.** Why are you writing it and who are your readers?
- **Research the information you need.** This will depend on the type of report you are writing. You might need to devise a questionnaire, interview people, use the internet or look in company records or accounts. Ask the person who has asked you to do the report for help, if you need it.
- **Plan and structure.** This will help you to make sense of all the information you have gathered, and help you to produce an organised, clear and concise report.
- **Write your first draft.** Do a rough draft – don't worry too much about how it looks at this stage – and it will give you a good idea of how your report is shaping up.
- **Revise and edit.** Refer back to Chapter 2 for advice.
- **Identify any missing information.** Revising and editing your writing usually reveals any gaps that need to be filled.

- **Cut out what you don't need.** The editing process also reveals what you don't need.
- **Write the final draft.** Give it to a critical friend to look over.

Planning your report

You need to plan your report if you want it to be well-organised, clear and concise.

Imagine that you work for your local government education department. Your boss has asked you to write a report about the impact of music projects on junior and senior schools in Goldenvalley. This is to inform senior management about whether to continue funding music in local schools.

You have defined the purpose of the report, and you have gathered the information you need by devising different questionnaires and interviewing different groups of people. You have also read music guidelines and policy documents.

Now it's time to plan it. Here's a suggestion for how you can do this.

You'll probably have gathered a lot of information, so mind mapping can help you to empty your head of that information, then sort it out.

- Get a piece of paper and write down all your ideas – don't worry about perfect writing at this point – just get the content down.
- Get a clean piece of paper. Put the topic box in the middle of the page.
- Now think about the main ideas of your report – what are they?
- Draw lines from the topic box to these main ideas.
- Now add information where you think it sits within these main ideas.
- Make links between the main ideas.

There is an example of a mind map on the next page.

Structuring your report

Once you've got your plan worked out, it's time to structure the report. Here's an example of a structure you could use – most reports follow this model.

- Title/title page
- Contents
- Executive summary
- Introduction
- Findings
- Summary and conclusions
- Recommendations
- Appendix

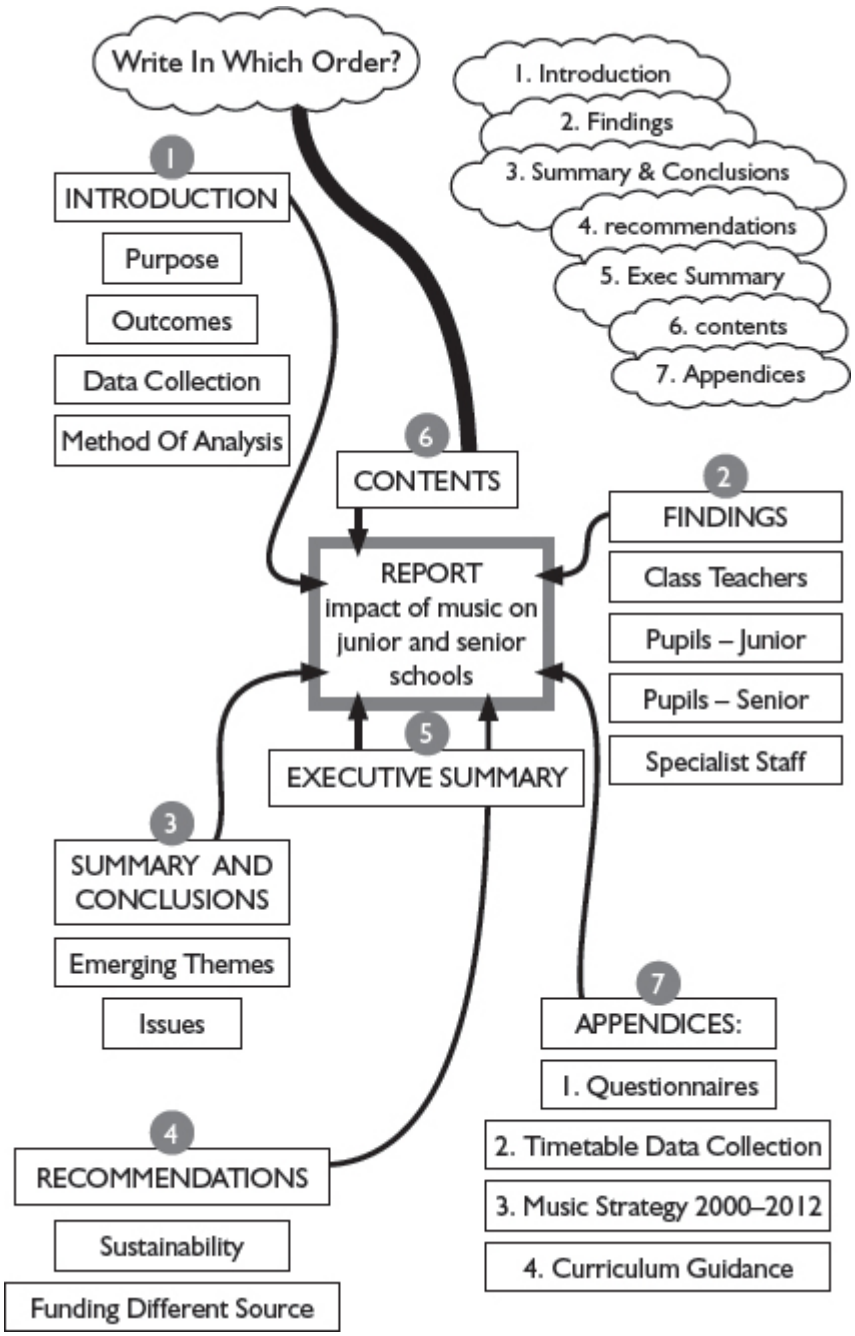

Sections within the structure

Let's look at what each of these sections involves in more detail.

Title page

A short report only needs a title. A long report needs a title page. On the next page there is an example of a title page.

Contents page

A long report needs a contents page. A short report doesn't.

Here's an example of a contents page:

Contents

Executive summary
Introduction
Purpose
Outcomes
Data collection
Method of analysis

Findings
Class teachers
Pupils in junior schools
Pupils in senior schools
Specialist staff

REPORT

THE IMPACT OF MUSIC ON JUNIOR AND SENIOR SCHOOLS IN GOLDENVALLEY

Anne Other

Education advisor
Goldenvalley Education Department

JANUARY 2013

Goldenvalley Council

Summary and conclusions
Emerging themes
Issues

Recommendations
Sustainability
Funding

Appendices

Appendix 1 Questionnaires
Appendix 2 Timetable for collection of data
Appendix 3 Copy of *Music Strategy for 2000–2012*
Appendix 4 Curriculum Guidance Goldenvalley Education Department

Executive summary

This is a summarised version of the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the report. It means that people can get the overall picture without having to plough through the whole report. The executive summary is often circulated as a separate document because it saves people time and money.

Here's an example of an executive summary:

Executive summary

A number of conclusions, issues and recommendations have emerged from this report.

Conclusions

- All music projects have a very positive impact on the pupils and staff involved.
- The music projects all support the Goldenvalley Curriculum Guidance.
- Access to music is as wide as possible within age constraints, and all projects are inclusive.
- Teachers are more confident about taking up professional development in music and trying out new music activities themselves in the classroom.
- The music specialist team is strong and provides a valuable service.
- Many of the music projects have given pupils access to musical experiences that they wouldn't otherwise have had.

Issues

- Should funding be continued?
- Long term sustainability needs to be discussed.

Recommendations

- Set up a new fund for music projects – there is evidence to prove that music benefits all of the stakeholders in junior and senior schools.
- Solve the issue of long-term sustainability by funding a programme of professional development for classroom teachers, supported by the music specialist team and learning and teaching packs.

Introduction

The introduction should be clear and concise. It should answer the following questions:

- What is the report about?
- Who asked for the report and why?
- What is the background to the report?
- What was your method of working and collecting data?

Here is an example of an introduction:

Introduction

This report was requested by the Senior Management Team of Goldenvalley Education Department. The aim of this report is to:

- evaluate the impact of music projects on junior and senior schools in Goldenvalley
- recommend whether or not to continue funding these projects.

The music projects were previously funded by education department money. However, cuts have to be made in local government spending, and each curriculum area is being evaluated to assess how essential it is for pupils' education.

Data for the report was collected by the following methods:

- questionnaires, followed up by interview

- observation
- reading reports.

Four different questionnaires were devised (for junior pupils, senior pupils, teachers and music specialists) and used to gather data.

The questionnaires asked for qualitative responses only. In most cases, respondents were asked to fill out the form before the interview. If they had any questions or were unclear about any of the questions, they could bring this up during the interview.

The main part of this report – the section on 'Findings' – records and analyses respondents' views of music projects in junior and senior schools. All interviews were carried out face-to-face using the questionnaires in Appendix 1.

All other sources used for this report are also in the Appendices section.

Findings

This is the main body of the report. It will be the longest section, because it will expand on your Executive Summary, and it will contain all the detailed information that you have gathered and analysed.

Remember to write concisely and clearly, and apply plain English principles. Organise your work under headings and subheadings.

The findings for Goldenvalley Education Department will be organised as follows:

Findings

Class teachers

This section will explore the impact that the music projects have had on classroom teachers.

[The report will then go on to **cite**, **analyse** and **interpret** the qualitative and quantitative evidence for this group of respondents.]

Pupils in junior schools
This section will explore the impact that the music projects have had on pupils in junior schools.
[The report will then go on to **cite**, **analyse** and **interpret** the qualitative and quantitative evidence for this group of respondents.]

Pupils in senior schools
This section will explore the impact that the music projects have had on pupils in senior schools.
[The report will then go on to **cite**, **analyse** and **interpret** the qualitative and quantitative evidence for this group of respondents.]

Specialist staff
This section will explore the impact that the music projects have had on specialist staff who teach music.
[The report will then go on to **cite**, **analyse** and **interpret** the qualitative and quantitative evidence for this group of respondents.]

Summary and conclusions

The summary and conclusions section describes the purpose of the report, what your conclusions are and how you reached them. Again, keep this section clear and concise.

Here is an example:

Summary and conclusions
A number of points have emerged from this report.
All the music projects have had a very positive impact on the pupils and staff involved. They have, without exception, developed pupils' confidence and self-esteem, and have developed their overall performance. The projects are about achievement as well as attainment.

The in-school projects have managed to get over the 'If I can't play a musical instrument, I can't teach music' syndrome amongst classroom teachers. Teachers are more confident about taking up opportunities in music and trying out new activities themselves. This has been largely due to support from either music specialists or from learning and teaching support packs.

The music specialist team is strong, and provides a musical service.

Many of the projects have given pupils the opportunity to have musical experiences that they would not otherwise have had. These pupils will take these experiences with them throughout their lives.

The main issue that has emerged is the sustainability of funding. The music projects were previously funded by education department money. However, cuts have to be made in local government spending, and each curriculum area is being evaluated to assess how essential it is for pupils' education. The question is how essential is music to pupils' overall education and personal development compared to other subjects?

Recommendations

Your main findings or conclusions will lead to your recommendations. What issues do you think have emerged from your findings and what actions or options do you recommend to address them?

Again, keep this section brief and to the point. Many people reading the report will go straight to this section, because it's the one that really matters.

Recommendations

The findings from the report suggest that music has had a beneficial impact on both pupils and staff. Music has helped to develop pupils' learning as well as their personal and social development, and this report therefore recommends

that music should continue to be taught in junior and senior schools in Goldenvalley.

However, the major issue is that music has always been funded centrally, and that savings must be made in this central budget. The following two suggestions could help to resolve these issues:

- Divert some of the culture and heritage lottery funding to schools with the justification that they are educating the concert- and theatre-goers of tomorrow – if there are no audiences to play to, there will be no concerts.
- Solve the issue of long-term sustainability by using some of these funds to develop a programme of professional development for classroom teachers, supported by the music specialist team and learning and teaching packs.

Appendix

If you have generated a lot of research material, such as charts, tables, questionnaires or statistics, then put these in an appendix/appendices, or they will disrupt the flow of the report.

Here is an example of what the appendices could contain:

Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaires
Appendix 2: Timetable for data collection
Appendix 3: Copy of *Music Strategy 2000–2012*
Appendix 4: Curriculum Guidance for junior and senior schools in Goldenvalley

Staying relevant, objective and factual

As with all writing, when you are writing a long report, it is very important that you stay relevant throughout or you will lose the reader's concentration and understanding (and goodwill). A good, well-planned structure will help you to stay on track and develop a logical, concise and clear argument.

When you are writing a report, you also need to be objective and factual. You are not writing a personal note or a letter to the local newspaper – you have been asked to review all the facts objectively, assess the evidence and come up with recommendations based on this.

Remember to keep your tone formal and neutral, with no inappropriate jokes or asides. Apply the principles of plain English and keep in mind the purpose of the report all the time you are researching and writing it.

PRESENTATIONS

Many of us will have to make a presentation at work at some point in our working lives – either as part of an interview when we are applying for a job, or as a regular part of our job. It's an effective way to communicate information to a group of people. Many people break out in a cold sweat just thinking about it, but there's really no need. Follow these tips and you will be writing and giving polished, professional and confident presentations.

There is also an example of a PowerPoint presentation at the end of this section.

Planning a presentation

As with any other type of writing, it's important to plan your presentation first.

There are four things you need to consider before you put pen to paper or touch your keyboard:

- purpose
- audience
- venue
- remit.

Purpose

What's the purpose of your presentation? What do you want the audience to know and remember about it? Once you have decided that, you can then go on to decide the most appropriate tone and style. For example, a presentation to a job interview panel would be formal and conservative, whereas a presentation to a media company for sponsorship would probably be much more creative and informal.

Audience

Who is your audience? What do they know about your topic? What are your audience's needs and how can you meet them? For example, if they are members of an interview panel, they will want to know about your previous experience and ability to carry out the job. If they are members of a media company you are asking for sponsorship, they will want to know about who you are, what you are going to do with the money they give you and what they are going to get out of it.

Venue

Where are you making your presentation? Is it in a small, intimate room or a large hall? What kind of atmosphere are you trying to create? Will this venue affect your relationship with your audience? If it affects this negatively, can you change the venue to suit your needs?

Remit

A remit is slightly different from the purpose of the presentation. For example, somebody in your company might have asked you to make a presentation to a particular group using a specific template – and you have to stick to this.

Make sure that you are clear about the remit, and have all the rules and guidelines that you need before you start working on the presentation.

Structuring a presentation

A presentation should be clear, concise and logical. Don't get tangled up in complex structures. You need to explain and discuss your points clearly. Here is a suggested structure for a presentation:

- Introduction
- Main points (linked together logically and coherently)
- Conclusion.

Introduction

This is where you must gain the audience's interest and confidence. Wait until your audience is quiet, and then begin speaking with energy and enthusiasm.

Here are some key points in an effective introduction:

- introduce yourself
  'Hello, my name is Anne Other …'

- say what you are going to be talking about
  '… and I am going to be talking about how my business can help yours.'

- say how you are going to approach the topic
  'I am going to describe my background, what I write and how my writing services could help your business.'

- say what the outcome of the presentation is going to be
  'I hope that as a result of my presentation, you will choose my company to write your marketing and promotional materials.'

- tell the audience what they need to do
  'At the end of my presentation I will take any questions.'

Main points (linked together logically and coherently)

These form the biggest part of your presentation. Here are some key points to help you develop this section:

- List the main points you want to make. What are you trying to tell your audience? What do you want them to learn?
- Think about the logical sequence for these points – think of this as a story – then put your points in this order.
- Now add supporting information and any diagrams or illustrations you think would be helpful.

- Keep it clear and concise, and always use plain English.
- Please be careful about using humour. People can interpret jokes so differently, and what one person finds funny, another might find offensive. Best to leave it out, unless your remit is to be a stand-up comedian.

Conclusion

Audiences remember the first and last things you say, so make an impact on your audience with a strong and effective conclusion. Summarise the purpose and content of your presentation, and reinforce the outcome.

Here are some key points in an effective conclusion:

- reinforce the purpose and content
  'This presentation has described what I write and how my writing services could help your business.'

- say what your conclusions are
  'I think that I have the experience and expertise to write your marketing and promotional materials.'

- say what you would like the next stages to be
  'I would like to talk in more detail about the type of marketing and promotional materials you need.'

- say what is going to happen next
  'I am happy to take any questions you have.'

- thank your audience
  'Thank you very much for giving me the chance to pitch for this work.'

Delivering an effective presentation

When you are making a presentation, you are also giving a performance – or acting. The audience responds to you in the same way they would to any performance, so you need to think about how you use your voice and your body.

Here are some key points to help you deliver an effective presentation performance:

- Remember that practice makes perfect.
- Use body language, posture, eye contact and gestures.
- Use your voice.
- Breathe.
- Be enthusiastic and energetic.
- Be prepared.

Remember that practice makes perfect

Remember that delivering a presentation is really a performance, and that actors rehearse before a performance. It makes sense to practise your presentation before you make it. In fact, find an empty room, stand up and make your presentation. How did you perform? What do you need to improve or work on? The more familiar you are with your presentation, the more comfortable and confident you'll be delivering it.

Use body language

You don't just communicate with your voice. Your body can also say a lot about what you are thinking and feeling. So be aware of this and use it to your advantage.

First of all, think about your **posture.** If you cross your arms and hunch your shoulders, you will immediately give the impression that you are defensive and nervous. Stand up tall, with your shoulders back. This will not only make you look more confident and self-assured – it will help you to breathe better and to project your voice more easily.

You need to make **eye contact** with your audience. If you don't, they won't feel that you are interested in them or that they are involved in your presentation. If you have a small audience, make

eye contact with all the members. If you have a large audience, you obviously won't be able to make eye contact with every individual, so focus on different points around the room. This will make it look as if you are involving everybody. Don't look at the floor or ceiling – this will come across as if you are bored or being rude.

People use **gestures** all the time to emphasise a point or to help them describe something, so use gestures in your presentation, too. It would look a bit odd if you just stood there with your arms stuck to your sides. Open your arms as a welcoming gesture, and make gestures to emphasise points or show you have finished.

Keep the gestures open, moving away from your body and towards your audience. This will help to make the audience feel included, and will help to break down any barriers.

On the other hand, however, be careful not to use too many gestures, and don't gesticulate wildly – this will make you look nervous and unprofessional, and it will probably distract your audience rather than make them listen to you.

Use your voice

The way you use your voice can make or break an effective presentation. You need to think about the volume at which you speak, the speed of your delivery and the pitch of your voice.

Your voice needs to be loud enough for the audience to hear, but if it's too loud, then it can be distracting. Use loud and soft to add some colour and interest to your delivery. Monotone is very boring.

If you speak too quickly, the audience won't be able to understand you, but if you speak too slowly, they will probably fall asleep. As with volume, vary the pace of your delivery to add some energy and interest.

The pitch of your voice varies in normal conversation. For example, if you are asking a question the pitch of your voice automatically rises. If you are giving someone a row, the pitch becomes lower.

Pitch is a useful tool to use in a presentation. Vary your pitch – try this out when you are practising your presentation. Remember that you are giving a performance.

Breathe!

Many actors know the value of controlling their breathing. If you breathe steadily and deeply, this will calm your nerves and help you to control your voice. If you are nervous your breathing becomes fast and shallow, and this will make it more difficult to speak clearly and steadily.

Take a few deep breaths before you begin the presentation, and try to get into a steady breathing pattern.

Be enthusiastic and energetic

Show the audience that you are enthusiastic about your topic. If your presentation has a sense of energy, your audience will be more likely to feel interested and involved. If you are negative, lacking in energy and unenthusiastic, they won't engage with you.

Be prepared!

Presentations can fail because you haven't checked everything out beforehand. Disaster can happen, for example, if you haven't made sure that your equipment works or the room has been booked.

It pays to do the following before your presentation:

- revise and edit your presentation to make sure you haven't made any mistakes
- rehearse on your own in the room, hall or theatre where you are making your presentation to get a sense of what it's like
- make sure the room, hall or theatre has been booked and is available on that day
- check the technology is working and that you have backup – just in case
- turn off your mobile phone.

What type of visual aid?

There are lots of different types of visual aids to help you make your presentation. Here are the most popular (in alphabetical order).

Flipchart

A flipchart is a large pad of paper on a metal stand. People usually write on a flipchart with coloured pens as they go through their presentation, although you could also prepare some sheets containing key points beforehand. You should write down one idea per sheet, otherwise it could get too cluttered for the audience to see clearly. You can flip backwards and forwards through the sheets to make and reinforce your points. Make sure your writing is clear and large enough to read from a distance, and don't draw over-complicated illustrations or diagrams.

Handout

Handouts are very handy. They give your audience a full record of your presentation which they can take away and digest in their own time. However, the issue is when is the best time to hand out your handout? If you give them out at the beginning or during the middle of your presentation, the audience might look at them and not listen to you. If you hand them out at the end, they might have already made lots of unnecessary notes – and this can be very annoying. One way to solve this could be to say at the beginning of the presentation that you are going to pass round a handout at the end, so the audience can concentrate on listening without having to make notes.

OHP

An overhead projector (OHP) and OHP slides or transparencies are particularly popular in education institutions. The OHP is a device that enlarges and projects transparencies onto a screen, whiteboard or a wall.

There are three ways to produce your transparencies:

- write or draw them yourself using either cleanable or permanent pens, or produce them on a computer **before the presentation**

- write them **during the presentation** using cleanable or permanent pens to record your points and feedback from the audience
- a bit of both.

As with a flipchart, make sure that your writing is clear and large enough for the audience to read. If you are producing your text for the transparencies on computer, use 18 point text. Stick to one main idea per transparency, and don't draw overcomplicated illustrations or diagrams, because these can be distracting.

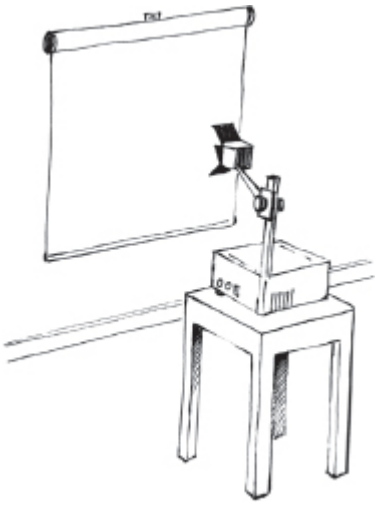

PowerPoint

The visual aid that most people now use is Microsoft PowerPoint. But beware, you need to know how to use it effectively – if you don't, your audience will get bored and restless. It's not a good sign when you hear whispers, sweet papers rustling or pens tapping. But that's not going to happen to you, because here are some key points to producing a successful PowerPoint presentation:

- Use a font that the audience can read – at least 20pt. If the text is too small, then the audience won't be able to read it. Can the people at the back see it?
- Keep the background as simple as possible. If you introduce too much design, it will conflict with the text and again, the audience won't be able to read it.

- Animations are useful when you want to illustrate a point. They can also inject some interest into your presentation. But if you overuse them, you risk distracting your audience and losing their attention.
- Vary your text and try to make your slides look clean and accessible. If slide after slide is peppered with bullet points, the audience will get bored and their attention will wander.

Video

A little bit of video can go a long way – so use it carefully. Like animation, it can inject interest into your presentation, but too much is distracting.

Whiteboard

A whiteboard is a large board that you can write on and then rub off. It is useful for presenting processes, a sequence of ideas, events or stages involved in scientific experiments. Many scientists use whiteboards in their presentations for this reason.

You can write the title of or key points of each stage of the experiment or process on the board, along with essential references. Make sure that your audience has noted everything they need before you wipe it off, though. And make sure that your writing or diagrams are clear and large enough for your audience to read.

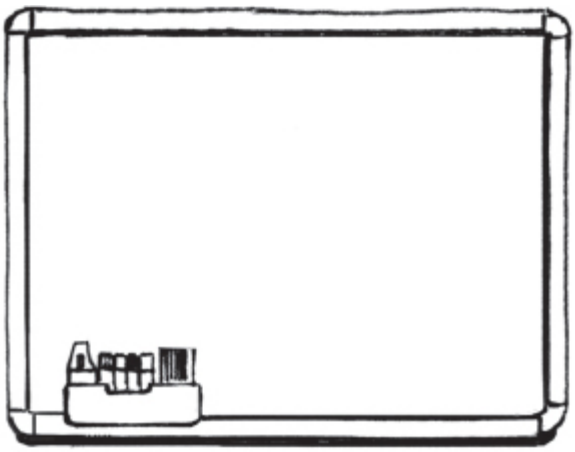

Example of a PowerPoint presentation

Here is an example of a PowerPoint presentation.

The person making this presentation wants to persuade the company that she can write their marketing and promotional materials.

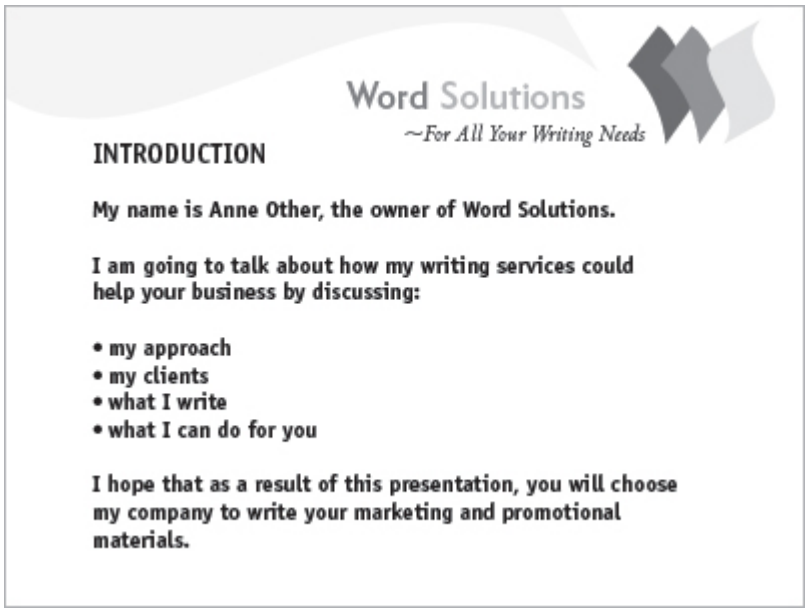

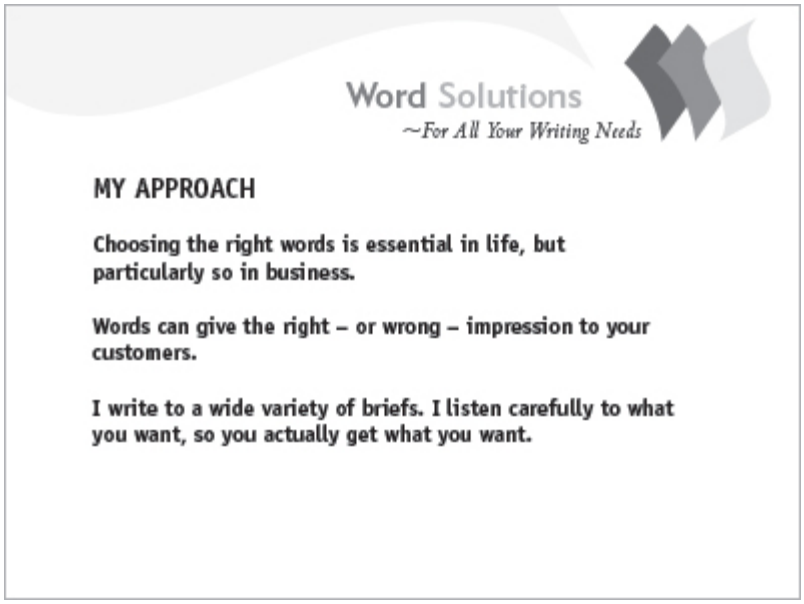

Word Solutions
~For All Your Writing Needs

MY CLIENTS

My clients come from the following sectors ...

- commerce
- industry
- banking
- education
- local government
- charity sector

... so I have experience in writing lots of different types of marketing and promotional materials.

Word Solutions
~For All Your Writing Needs

WHAT I WRITE

Most of my work is in the following categories, although I always enjoy a new challenge:

- marketing and promotional materials
- websites
- learning and teaching materials
- reports, research studies and case studies
- news articles/features
- rewriting/editing

Word Solutions
~For All Your Writing Needs

WHAT I CAN DO FOR YOU

I have written lots of different types of marketing and promotional materials for lots of different businesses.

I have the experience and expertise to help you.

I use a tried and tested process that gives my clients exactly what they want:

- You tell me what you're looking for. If my quote is acceptable, we form a team.
- We discuss your brief. We can do this at a face-to-face meeting, by using Skype or phone or by email – it's up to you.
- I write a first draft.
- We discuss this, and I edit it until you are happy with the final product.

Word Solutions
~For All Your Writing Needs

CONCLUSION

How can Word Solutions help your business?

- experience and expertise to write high quality marketing and promotional materials
- one-to-one discussion about your project
- we recognise that you are unique and interpret your brief accordingly
- professional marketing materials are more likely to get you noticed

Questions welcome!

Thank you for your time.

Word Solutions

~For All Your Writing Needs

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email:	**anne.other@wordsolutions.co.uk**

MARKETING AND PROMOTIONAL WRITING

If you are involved in writing marketing or promotional materials, then you need to know about copywriting.

You write copy (or text) to advertise or market/sell a product, business, opinion or idea. Copy is written for marketing and promotional materials such as:

- adverts (including TV, radio, newspaper, magazine and billboard)
- brochures/leaflets
- websites
- press releases
- social media

You will probably only ever need to write copy for a brochure/leaflet or website, because adverts and press releases are fairly specialised, and are usually handled by a press or advertising agency.

Let's look at the general approach to copywriting, then concentrate on how to write copy for brochures/leaflets and websites.

General approach

The main thing to remember is that your copy is selling a product, business, opinion or idea to somebody.

Audience

It is therefore vital to know who your audience is, how much they know about your product, business, opinion or idea, and what you want to persuade them to do (or not do!). For example, you might want to persuade somebody to buy a yacht, or to stop eating junk food and start eating healthily.

Style and tone

So how do you make your copy persuasive? You will have to vary your approach, depending on your audience. The person buying the yacht will probably need a different approach to the person you want to eat healthily.

A good rule of thumb is to make your copy memorable or unusual in some way, so that it holds people's attention. This is a good opportunity to express yourself. You are not describing the process involved in filling out a tax return. Be creative. Think of a hook you can use to draw people in. Look at other marketing and promotional materials to see the tone and style they use to engage the reader.

Call to action

And whatever it is you are persuading your audience to do, you need to ask (or tell) them to do it at the end of your copy. This is what is known as a 'call to action', and it should be concise, punchy and clear. Let's use the yacht and healthy eating examples again:

> So if you want to sail off happily into the sunset, phone 0121 222333.

> Junk food out. Healthy food in. Visit our website (www.eatinghealthily.com) and send for our free healthy eating pack. Today!

Writing brochures/leaflets

You might have to write copy for a product or service that your company is selling. This could take the form of a brochure or leaflet that the company mails or gives out to visitors. Or it could be an e-leaflet.

Whatever the format, it's important to use powerful and compelling headlines to get the reader interested enough to find out more. Think of an unusual metaphor or ploy to attract your audience. The main body of the copy should then expand and build on this headline, and finish with a call to action – for example, an invitation to phone or visit the website.

Example of a leaflet

Here's an example of a leaflet. Its purpose is to sell a software training package called TrainIT.

A brain teaser and a no-brainer

Grab a cup of coffee and take two minutes to unscramble these two sentences. (Here's a clue – they're about saving your business money.)

training your Is profits? draining

the answer e-leaflet is yes, If read this solution. for the

Worked it out yet? If not, go back and have a second cup of coffee. Got it? Good. We're going to tell you how you can stop training draining your hard-earned profits.

The solution lies in an award winning software package called TrainIT. It's been created and produced by a company called SmartIT – a technology leader and trendsetter. **TrainIT** has four key cost- and time-saving features:

1. It enables you to develop your **own** library of training materials inhouse at a pace that suits you and your staff.
2. As a result, staff won't have to travel to expensive training seminars, with consequent loss of time at work – they can use the training materials on-site and at a time that suits them.
3. The software can create training materials that suit the unique needs of **your** business and **your** staff – unlike external training, which is often too general to be relevant.
4. You can go back and edit and update the training materials as often as you want – so staff don't have to go on endless

training updates every time a new version of software comes out.

The reason you can do all this is because the techie types at SmartIT have come up with a nifty thing called ‘capture technology’. Here’s how it works.

Imagine that you are in charge of IT training and that you want to explain to a new employee how to create a PowerPoint presentation.

You go through the process of creating a PowerPoint yourself on screen, and as you do this, each step of the process is captured and written down. You can then add your own specific instructions using an audio narrative function. You can also create speech bubbles and ‘post-it’ notes that will appear on the file and give the user extra support.

Once you’ve finished working through the process, you save it and create a ‘smartlearn’ file that you can add to your training library. Staff can then use this file to view and listen to the process, interact with the process or test their knowledge of the process. There is (of course) an initial cost but the long term advantage is that you’ll have a reduction of up to 80 per cent in training time and costs.

If it all sounds too good to be true, it’s not. We know because we use the software ourselves. And what we’ve described are only the basic functions.

But please don’t take our word for it – phone us on 0777 888999 and we’ll arrange a demonstration so that you can understand the power and implications of TrainIT for yourself.

*you think When it about, no-brainer. it’s of a bit a

SmartIT

High Street

Aberford AD11 1QZ

0777 888999

Writing for websites

You only have a few seconds to grab someone's attention when they visit a website. If you don't, they will move onto another, more interesting one. Here are some tips to help your copy stand out.

Presenting information

People don't read web pages the same way they read printed material – they tend to scan and jump about the page rather than read from left to right, and from top to bottom. You therefore need to think about the following:

- Make your sentences and paragraphs **short and concise** to help **scanning** and **skimming.**
- Use **different levels** and **fonts** in your **subheadings** to signpost specific pieces of information.
- Use **bulleted lists** to break up the text.
- Make sure there is plenty of **blank space** around your text – this helps text to stand out and makes it easier to read.
- **Limit** the amount of text per page.

Here's an example of the type of concise text that tells you immediately about the business:

Front Door Apartments

Welcome to Front Door Apartments. We offer boutique, serviced apartments in charming Stockbridge, ten minutes' walk from Edinburgh's West End. We specialise in luxury accommodation at non-luxury prices for anything from one night to three months – whatever your reason for visiting Edinburgh.

Our apartments are special. They combine the boutique chic of a city hotel with the freedom and flexibility to allow you to explore this beautiful city at your leisure.

Browse our website to find out what's on offer.

Our philosophy at Front Door Apartments is to provide the highest levels of service, with little extras like local insider information that will make your stay more special.

Writing content

Again, readers won't approach a web page in the way they do a printed page. So you need to approach website copywriting in a different way. Think about the following:

- Users want to know immediately where they are, so use big, clear page headings.
- Write bite-size chunks of copy, not big portions.
- There should only be one topic per page. If you need to include more information, then create a downloadable file (such as a pdf) and put it on your page.
- Put the most important piece of information at the top of the page. Have a look at a newspaper – this is what they do.

Plain English

Writing plain English is even more important in this context. Your copy can be seen by anybody anywhere in the world and reading too much text on a screen gives you sore eyes. Keep it short, sharp and concise.

Go back to the section on plain English in Chapter 2 to remind yourself of the principles.

Here are links to some websites that illustrate some of the features we have discussed:

BBC

The website for BBC news, sport, TV, radio and education materials.

www.bbc.co.uk

The Guardian

The website for *The Guardian* newspaper featuring news, sport, comment, analysis and reviews.

www.guardian.co.uk

WWF's Earth Hour

The website for information about WWF's Earth Hour is an example of a website with clear headings and concise text.

http://earthhour.wwf.org.uk

Social media

Many organisations now use social media to market and promote themselves. They encourage readers to share and pass on their information within social networks such as Facebook and Twitter. It's basically marketing by word of mouth, it's fast, very effective and it costs very little. It's also becoming more popular: recent statistics show that 57 per cent of small businesses use social media. These companies give various reasons, among them promoting awareness of their company, boosting sales, improving customer service and search engine optimization. Its use as a marketing tool is unsurprising when you look at the increasing use of social media. In 2011, social media and blogs accounted for nearly a quarter of the time people spent on the internet, with 4 out of 5 visiting these types of websites. Surveys also show that 53 per cent of adult social media users follow at least one brand account.

However, if you are asked to do this kind of copywriting, be careful. Remember that you are still representing your organisation. Don't be lured into thinking that you can write in an inappropriate style and tone or make inflammatory comments just because you are writing for a social network. Stick to the standards expected by your company, and apply the same principles that you would to writing copy for any other medium.

Besides this, there are a few key things to bear in mind when writing for social media on behalf of a company:

- **Research**. Just like with any other form of writing for business, planning is key to writing for social media – don't just leap right into your first post. Research the different sites out there before you do anything else – should you use Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Google+, a blog, or a combination? They all have different audiences and formats. Find the one which is most suitable for your purposes and then speak directly to that audience.
- **Plan and proof**. Once you've chosen, you need to devise a strategy for using that particular format. How often will you post? What will you post? Social media needs to be updated regularly to be of any use, and this needs to be factored in from the beginning. Having plans for future posts, or constructing a library of posts, can be useful.

  Social media clients such as HootSuite (http://hootsuite.com/) and TweetDeck (http://tweetdeck.com/) also allow you to post and monitor activity on major social media sites, as well as to schedule updates. Once you start writing posts, planning is still crucial. A sense of spontaneity is good in social media, but it is also a danger. Consider what you're writing: posting without thinking is not a good idea from business accounts. As said before, professionalism still needs to be maintained in this medium.

  Writing too quickly can also look unprofessional if you aren't taking the time to proof what you've written. Sloppy spelling and punctuation will look just as bad in this format as any other, and using text speak (for example to accommodate Twitter word limits) will still make your writing unprofessional and hard to understand.

  Follow plain English rules, and bear in mind that it's very easy to post, but very hard to take back when you have.
- **Contribute**. It is important, not just to post regularly, but to post high quality content. If you use social media just to post links to your website, or to say how well the company is doing, readers are simply not going to be engaged. Think outside the box: what will

allow readers to get to know your business while still being interesting?

Remember, not all things that are of interest to those inside the company will be of interest to readers on social media. Consider company news, links to blog posts, videos, tips, posts by different staff members. Whatever you choose to write, always bear your audience in mind when writing content. You can't rely on the idea that this audience will read and respond to anything you post: they will only read and share what interests and engages them.

Remember that social media is not just about communicating to the widest audience possible, but about providing something valuable to those who follow you.

- **Be social**. It seems obvious to say, but social media is, above all, social. It doesn't work merely to set up a profile and create posts, and expect a loyal following to appear. You need to commit time and energy to providing interesting content, building up relationships, and engaging directly with subscribers. Always talk 'with' on social media, don't just talk 'at'.
- **Communicate**. When people follow or subscribe to companies on social media, they expect a direct line to these companies. Especially on more informal sites like Twitter and Facebook, this is an opportunity to show a business's human face.

  Allowing customers to talk to a human voice, with a personality, is what makes social media so different from the more distanced voice of other forms of communication. This voice should also be a natural one – don't try to manufacture a voice for the company, just be yourself.

  This aspect of social media makes it all the more important, however, to keep appropriateness and professionalism in mind during all communication with followers. Don't be tempted to over-share.
- **Respond**. Inviting people to communicate with you, which is what you are doing when you join social media, means that you have to

listen and respond to what they say. Respond to feedback. Acknowledge and deal with complaints, as you would if you received them via any other medium, in a polite, efficient way. Communicating with customers in the public eye in this way makes this professionalism just as, if not more, important than if they were contacting you in any other way.

- **Adapt**. Social media is changing all the time, so it is especially important to monitor what you are doing, and to adapt strategies accordingly. Sites like Klout (klout.com), an online influence indicator, can help in this.

  It is also important to adapt style depending on which type of social media you are using. LinkedIn, for example, would require a more formal style than Twitter or Facebook, where informality is preferable.

- **Commit**. Above all, successfully writing for social media takes commitment. Invest time and effort, be interested in and communicative with others and give it time, and eventually you will build up a loyal following.

WRITING ANNOUNCEMENTS

Most organisations have to make regular announcements about important changes – either good or bad. Some have guidelines for such announcements. However, some give managers the responsibility for producing these. You might be asked to write such an announcement, so it's important to know how to go about it.

We'll look at the general approach to writing an announcement for both good and bad news and include an example of each.

General approach

As with most pieces of writing, there should be a distinct beginning, middle and end to an announcement. Here are some general points that you can apply to all announcements.

Get your facts correct

What change is the organisation announcing? A new employee, a promotion, redundancy plans, a retirement, a new policy or a company event? Before you write anything, make sure that you have got facts such as names, dates and times correct.

Presentation style

This depends on how you are sending out your announcement.

If it's by email, then use the standard email format for your organisation, and insert a concise but clear title in the 'subject' section so that readers will immediately know what the announcement is about.

If you are putting a notice on the staff notice board, the format could be something like this:

To:	All staff
From:	Senior management team
Date:	7 April 2012
Subject:	Notice of change

Write the main body of your announcement first. This will probably take two or three paragraphs.

Once you are finished your announcement, make sure you include a contact name and number so that staff can get back to you if they

have any queries, like this:
If you have any queries about this announcement, please contact Joe Bloggs on extension 2222.

Beginning: tell the news straight away

State what the announcement is about in the first sentence:

> We are delighted to inform you that Eleanor Rigby has joined the company as a junior member of the human resources team.
> or
> We are sad to inform you that Eleanor Rigby, Head of Human Resources, has decided to retire after 30 years' service with the organisation.

Middle: develop the news

Develop the story of what led to this change over the next few sentences:

> Eleanor joined the HR team straight from university. For Eleanor, HR is a passion. She worked hard and was promoted several times until she reached the post of Head of Human Resources. She leaves behind her a well-organised, efficient and effective department, and we will all miss her.

End: looking forward and being positive

The announcement should end on a positive note, with employees looking to the future rather than to the past. It should also flag up any events associated with the news.

> We hope that Eleanor enjoys spending more time on her other passion – playing her violin. She is welcome to come in and serenade us any time! We are holding a leaving event for Eleanor on 15 December – everyone is welcome to come and say goodbye. Mince pies and mulled wine are on the menu!

Style and tone

Engage or talk to your readers by using 'you' and 'we', but remember that you are representing the company – so your style and tone should be clear, concise, polite and objective.

Example of an announcement

So here's what the final notice would look like:

To: All staff
From: Senior management team
Date: 7 April 2012
Subject: Eleanor Rigby retires

We are sad to inform you that Eleanor Rigby, Head of Human Resources, has decided to retire after 30 years' service with the organisation.

Eleanor joined the HR team straight from university. For Eleanor, HR is a passion. She worked hard and was promoted several times until she reached the post of Head of Human Resources. She leaves behind her a well-organised, efficient and effective department, and we will all miss her.

We hope that Eleanor enjoys spending more time on her other passion – playing her violin. She is welcome to come in and serenade us any time! She will also have more time to spend with her family, friends and her four beloved grandchildren. We heard on the grapevine (well, from the HR department, actually!) that she is giving up one career to take up another, as a part-time childminder.

We are holding a leaving event for Eleanor on 15 December – everyone is welcome to come and say goodbye. Mince pies and mulled wine are on the menu!

If you want to make a contribution to her leaving present, please contact Paul McCaster on extension 2468.

How to announce good news

It's probably easier to announce good news because you know that everyone will want to read about it.

Your tone and style can be more informal in this context, and you might even want to include some humour.

Example of how to announce good news

Here's an example of this type of announcement:

From: Senior management team
To: All staff
Date: 7 April 2012
Subject: Good news!

We have just heard that we have won the huge contract to produce recycled brown paper bags for all the GoodFood supermarkets in

Europe!

The senior management team worked day and night to plan and produce a convincing case for this pitch. They were invited to present their pitch along with ten other shortlisted companies at the GoodFood headquarters in Brussels last week. We got the good news this morning.

This means a major expansion for our company. We will be recruiting 50 new members of staff to deal with the extra work. They will mainly be in the production and distribution side, and we are hoping to start advertising and interviewing for the posts as soon as possible. Details of the contract will be posted on the company website today.

Tea and buns in the staff room at 3pm to celebrate!

How to announce bad news

Writing about bad news can be a bit more difficult. Most companies will have an HR department to deal with announcements about redundancies or major staffing changes.

However, you might have to fire or dismiss a member of staff and then tell other staff about this. This could cause quite a shock, so you need to be logical and factual – not emotional. You also need to be sure about what you can and can't say in this situation.

After the employee who has been dismissed has left the building, and a staff meeting has been held to tell employees about this and to inform them of changes to their duties, etc., you can follow up with an announcement – either by email, or on the staff notice board, or both.

Example of how to announce bad news

Here's an example of this type of announcement:

From:	Manager, Production Department
To:	All staff
Date:	20 September 2010
Subject:	Termination of employment: James Brown

I am writing to let you know that James Brown, Project Manager in the Production Department, no longer works for this organisation.

James Brown's projects will be covered in the short term by the other five members of the Production Department, until we have advertised and filled his post.

Because of reasons of confidentiality, I am unable to discuss the details of this termination of employment. However, I am happy to

discuss how we plan to share out roles and responsibilities across the other members of the team. My extension number is 2468.

I am sure that we will all pull together, as always, to keep the production department working effectively and efficiently until we have recruited a new Project Manager.

WRITING FOR THE MEDIA

INTRODUCTION

We all talk about the media, but what do we really mean by it? Here's one definition:

> **media:** a means of reaching many people, such as through television, newspapers and radio.

The media includes:

- newspapers
- magazines
- TV and radio
- the internet

In this chapter, we are going to look at what makes writing for the media different from other types of writing. We will also focus on the different types of media available, and the different styles required by these. So we hope you find this helpful, whether you are a budding young newspaper or TV journalist, or you just want to know how to write a newsletter for your football club.

WHAT'S UNIQUE ABOUT WRITING FOR THE MEDIA?

When you are writing for the media, you don't necessarily have the captive audience that you do when you are writing an academic essay or a work email. You have to grab your reader's attention, because you are competing with lots of other news features, articles, TV/radio programmes or blogs. Readers are like butterflies – they will flit from one piece of information to another. So how do you grab their attention and keep it? We are going to look at the following techniques to help you do this:

- who, what, how, where, when and why (the five Ws and an H)
- media style
- interviewing techniques
- house style
- 'spin'

The five Ws and an H

- **Who** is involved?
- **What** happened?
- **How** did it happen?
- **Where** did it happen?
- **When** did it happen?
- **Why** did it happen?

These are the time-honoured questions that journalists and media writers use to structure their writing. First, you grab the reader's attention by creating a strong, dramatic introduction for maximum impact, and then you use the 'five Ws and an H' structure keep their attention by providing the answers to these questions.

Example of 'five Ws and an H'

Here's an example of a news report that uses this structure to describe Raisin Weekend – a traditional event that takes place every year at St Andrews University in Scotland.

Raisin Weekend high jinks at St Andrews

(Introduction)

Despite the freezing cold yesterday, hundreds of students at St Andrews University took part in a foam fight in St Salvator's Quadrangle, marking the end of the annual Raisin Weekend celebrations.

(Who)

This is a university tradition where new students – known as bejants and bejantines – are adopted and shown the ropes by an academic 'mother' and 'father', who are usually third-year students.

(What)

On the Sunday of Raisin Weekend, the 'parents' throw a party to help all their 'children' get to know each other. This is usually helped along by copious amounts of alcohol.

As a thank-you present, the children give their parents a bottle of wine – it used to be a pound of raisins. Academic fathers acknowledge this gift by giving their children a raisin 'receipt'. This was originally written in Latin on a piece of parchment, but now it's written on an object that the student has to push or drag to the foam fight on Raisin Monday. And the mothers – as all good mothers do – dress their children up for the event.

Raisin receipts and costumes can be anything – the more outrageous and embarrassing the better. This year, one student was spotted pulling an old iron bedstead along behind him, wearing only a nappy.

(How)

So how did this crazy tradition start? Nobody seems quite clear. Some people think it's only a century old, while others believe that it goes right back to the fifteenth century.

(Where)
Whatever its origins, Raisin Weekend creates mayhem in St Andrews, and this can sometimes cause tension between 'town' and 'gown'. A Tesco employee grumbled: 'I don't mind a bit of high jinks, but some of them are drunk and cause trouble in the shop. One student stole a couple of items. The police have been in and out all day!' But the majority of the residents and visitors take it as a bit of a joke. Elinor Hay who was on holiday from Glasgow, said: 'I've just seen a young lad stark naked on top of the fountain in Market Street! I've not seen a gorgeous young body like that for twenty years – I went back for another look!'

Joe Brown, the President of the Student's Union, commented: 'It's a great experience, and one that St Andrews graduates always remember. The combination of foam, grass and frost will always remind me of my first year at St Andrews. And the local pubs and hotels do a roaring trade, so it's a win-win situation.'

(When)
Raisin Weekend takes place on the Sunday and Monday of the second weekend in November every year.

(Why)
The aim of this tradition is to help new students integrate into university life. Perhaps that's when William and Kate got to know each other better …

Media style

Newspapers, magazines, websites and blogs are not textbooks – they communicate information to readers who are probably on their way to or from work, or are catching up on the news during their lunch hour. They don't have time to read the same sentence over three times because they don't understand it. And if they don't like what they're reading, they'll skip it and go to something else. So it's back to plain English again – media style is crisp, concise, easy to understand – but also colourful and enjoyable to read. You'll be competing with other news items, articles or columns, so your opening has to hook the reader in and make them want to read on. The 'five Ws and an H' help with this, but establishing your own style or voice is important too.

Example of two openings

Compare these two openings, for example – which one is more likely to make you want to read on?

Opening A

Emily Dickinson was an American poet who lived from 1830–1886. She spent most of her life living in her family homestead in Amherst, Massachusetts – a town that still had a very Puritan culture. Her father, Edward Dickinson, was treasurer of Amherst College for nearly forty years, as well as being a lawyer and politician. Emily never married, but wrote prolifically, especially between the years 1861–1865. In 1862, she averaged a poem a day.

By the time of her death, she had written some eighteen hundred poems, though even her family didn't know how many poems she'd written. Only around ten of her poems were published in her own lifetime, and she died unknown as a poet. Instead, she collected and sewed her poems into carefully crafted 'fascicles', and stowed them away. From the 1860s, Dickinson had begun to withdraw from town life, and to dress entirely in white. Around 1869, when she was thirty-eight, Emily chose to stay permanently within the family's home and grounds, never going beyond them. Her sister

Lavinia discovered all of Emily's poems when she died and, along with Mabel Loomis Todd, a neighbour, helped to publish them. A complete version of her works was only made available in 1955. Until then, versions of her poems available were often not very true to the original and made changes to her punctuation and style.

Opening B

'The Homestead', in the centre of Amherst, Massachusetts, is an impressive brick structure built in the Federal style. Upstairs, in a simply-furnished bedroom on the upper left of the house, a small writing desk – around 16 inches square – sits in the corner-room's angle. The modest reality of this desk belies the importance of its former owner, who, during nights spent sitting before it, poured out a truly prolific body of poetry, and then put it away unseen in its drawers.

Emily Dickinson wrote some eighteen hundred poems before her death in 1886. She lived for almost her entire life in The Homestead, her family home, and, despite her reputation today, died almost unknown as a poet beyond its walls. Even her sister Lavinia, who knew of her writing, was surprised to discover, after Emily's death, the volume of work locked in her desk.

Emily's work came, for her innumerable fans, terrifyingly close to never seeing the light of day. But how could a writer of such genius have died with only around ten of her poems having ever been published? And why did the woman, famed in the public consciousness as a recluse dressed all in white, choose to confine herself in later life to the family grounds; to turn herself almost into a living-myth?

The answer to this may lie in considering Emily not just as a poet, but as a female poet. It's hard to imagine today that Emily's work could go unlauded during her lifetime, but the situation for a woman writer, much less one as uncompromising and challenging as Emily, was entirely different in the Puritanical landscape of 19th century New England. Woman writers during this period were stretching

> the traditional boundaries of what females were allowed to do in a very real way. Only a generation before, women writers were just about unheard of, and publication (the act of being made public) would be considered shameful for any woman – whose role was exclusively in the domestic sphere. Even in Emily's day, the freedom to write, especially full time as she did, was hard-won.

Opening A fails to reveal the focus of the article, and you are none the wiser by the end of the paragraph. Is this a history of Emily Dickinson's life? Is it a feature on people who became recluses? Or is it about women writers in 19th-century America? It's difficult to tell. The writing is bland, with no structure or punch and there isn't much of a hook to persuade the reader to persevere. Opening B sets an engaging scene and draws the reader in by asking interesting questions. The focus of the article is then introduced, the reader mentally goes 'Aaah, I see' and settles down to find out more about the difficulties faced by American women writers in a culture where women were perceived as belonging only in the domestic sphere.

Interviewing techniques

If you are writing for the media, then you'll need to interview people. Interviews are a good way of gathering facts, opinions and stories from people. Quotations give your writing vitality and human interest, and they make it unique to you.

But how do you develop interviewing techniques? To begin with, you need the following qualities:

- persistence
- curiosity
- patience
- confidence
- empathy
- sensitivity
- enthusiasm.

If you interview somebody and you want them to open up to you, then you need to make eye contact, use friendly and open body language and look interested. They're not going to engage with you if you come over as cold, bored or uncaring.

The following techniques will help you to carry out efficient and professional interviews.

Do your research

Find out everything you can about who you are going to interview – this will help you to feel confident and ask the right questions.

Plan and structure

What information are you trying to get? Plan the questions and structure of your interview to make sure that you get this information. You can always move away from this structure from time to time if a new idea or issue turns up, but you have the structure to return to.

Establish a rapport

You need to establish a rapport with the person you are interviewing, so it helps to be professional, businesslike, friendly, courteous and polite.

Ask open-ended questions

Phrase your questions carefully. If you ask closed questions – questions that only need a 'yes' or a 'no' answer – then the interviewee won't have a chance to open up to you. So instead of asking 'Do you like the publicity that comes with your job?' ask 'What do you think about the publicity that comes with your job?'

House style

Would you refer to the 1939–45 war as World War 2, World War II or the Second World War? Or how would you refer to the years 1980 to 1989 – the Eighties, eighties, 80s or '80s? Is it organise or organize?

We all have our own preferences for words, phrases and spellings, but if we followed them it would be confusing for the

reader, so most serious newspapers, magazines and media websites have what is known as a house style. This ensures that there is a uniform approach to the language used by writers and editors.

Example of house style

Here's an example from a publishing house style guide:

captions

In general, captions do not need a full point afterwards.

Short captions look odd and old-fashioned with a full point afterwards – omit the full point.

Mixture of long and short captions – omit final point on all of them. In an informal text this is especially true.

In a more formal or technical text, with captions made up of several sentences, a full point at the end will probably look better. Use common sense.

caster sugar

Caster rather than castor. Both are right, however caster appears more often on modern packaging.

centuries

The 20th century, the 21st century. Hyphenate when adjectival, e.g. 21st-century boy.

20th Century Fox doesn't hyphenate its name, leave it be if it is mentioned.

colon

Within a sentence, don't follow a colon with a capital.Usually the first word following a colon looks better uncapitalised. However, if a full sentence follows the colon it will probably look better to cap up the first letter of that sentence.

In some display styles, it may look better to capitalise the first letter of the first word following the colon. Keep it consistent whatever's chosen.

> Here are some examples of how we've used colons:
> Arm discs: *Also known as Delphin discs, arm discs are available in adult and child sizes. These are the modern take on inflatable arm bands.*
>
> *Before you get in the water: Blow your nose. You should not swim with a cold or with catarrh.*
>
> *Keep going until you have gone a few metres, then try moving in different directions: sideways, backwards and in circles.*

commas

Try to avoid lots of unnecessary commas. Commas are used for parenthesis, lists and to avoid ambiguity not to indicate lots of pauses, which is very old fashioned.

company names

Companies and institutions are singular (the Bank of Scotland is, the school is, Vauxhall is, the government is).

Many company names have apostrophes in them: if in doubt, check the official website.

cross references
See pages 122-123. Italicise 'See/see' and always have the word 'page' written out in full, *not* p. or pg.

Most page references will be appearing in brackets. Put bracketed page reference inside an existing sentence.

Use an en dash between page references and shorten when there is repetition of the first numbers as follows:

123–4 *not* 123–24 or 123–124
23–4 *not* 23–24
267–79
267–345

Check out the *The Guardian Style Guide* on www.guardian.co.uk/styleguide/.

Ask to see the house style book or sheet of the newspaper, magazine or website you are writing for. Some might only be a page of A4, with very basic guidance, while others cover every question that a writer or editor is likely to ask. Most house styles will cover the following:

Preferred dictionary
Most media organisations tend to have a preferred dictionary that they use. These could include:

- *The Oxford Dictionary*
- *Cambridge Dictionary*
- *Chambers Dictionary*
- *Collins Dictionary*

The house style will probably state whether to use '-ise' or '-ize' verb endings.

Addresses, ages, dates and numbers

There will probably be rules to cover how you write addresses, a person's age, dates and cash amounts.

Most newspapers and magazines spell out numbers one to ten in full, but use figures for 11 and over.

Collective nouns

It's now generally accepted that most collective nouns use a single verb, as in the following:

The music society is charging a higher fee.
The government is deciding on the best policy.

There are some common exceptions, and these include the police, pop groups and football teams:

The police are asking for help to solve the crime.
The Rolling Stones are performing for one last time.
Manchester United are playing well just now.

Hyphens and en rules

Do you co-operate or cooperate? Co-ordinate or coordinate? Write Stratford-upon-Avon or Stratford upon Avon? House rules will tell you what to do.

Don't confuse hyphens with en rules or em rules. These are used – like this – in parenthetical statements. Some organisations prefer to use the en rule – like this. It's the width of a capital 'N'. Others prefer to use an em rule — like this. It's the width of a capital 'M'.

Abbreviations, titles, capital letters and royalty

There will probably be a section on abbreviations in most house styles – for example, ie or i.e.?

Titles might be punctuated – for example, Dr., Mr. and Prof.. But names might not be – for example, JK Rowling.

There will be a style for when to use capital letters – too many can make a line or heading difficult to read.

There will also be a style for addressing royalty – for example, HRH, HM, Her Royal Highness or Her Majesty.

Fonts and layouts

Finally, some media organisations will also state the fonts and layouts they prefer.

Style of language

We'll look at style of language in more detail in the next section.

Spin

Spin is associated with the media, but what exactly is it?

One view of spin is that it is a way of presenting news or an incident to your audience to persuade them to see it from a particular perspective – usually to reduce the negative impact. So instead of saying, 'We failed 20 per cent of our targets' you would say 'We met 80 per cent of our targets'. Or, instead of writing 'I failed this term's chemistry test' you would say 'I am learning from the mistakes I made in this chemistry test to help me achieve a top mark in my next test.' You are turning a negative into a positive.

Spin is used a lot by public relations people in politics and the media. Often, when a celebrity makes a mistake or does something embarrassing, they employ a public relations officer to put a spin on events and lessen the impact. Some people therefore think that 'spin' and 'spin doctors' – the people who use spin – are manipulative and are not to be trusted.

If you use spin, you must consider the ethics involved. There are two different ways to look at it.

One view is that if you basically tell the truth but put a spin on it, then if the reader doesn't ask questions or think about what you have written, that's their fault and not yours.

The other view is that you are intentionally trying to control the way the reader interprets the facts by making them look at them in a more positive light.

Be careful about where, when and how much you use spin. Think of the purpose of your writing – is spin appropriate for your readers?

If not, keep things simple and don’t use it.

Look out for examples of spin when you are reading or listening to anything in the media.

DIFFERENT MEDIA, DIFFERENT STYLES

In this section, we'll look at the styles required for different types of media. We will cover the following:

- newspapers: tabloids and broadsheets
- magazines
- feature writing
- ezines
- newsletters
- blogs and websites
- reviews

We will also look again at the issue of copyright in the context of writing for the media.

Newspapers

There are two different types of newspapers – tabloids and broadsheets. They look different, have a different style of writing and aim to attract different readers.

On the next page is a summary of the main differences:

Tabloids and broadsheets

Tabloid	**Broadsheet**
The Sun, *Mail*, *Mirror*	*The Times*, *Guardian*, *Telegraph*
'popular' approach	more serious, analytical approach
bold layout	more conservative layout, more
focus on photographs	focus on text
sensational headlines	factual headlines
language biased and emotional	language more objective

focus on stories about famous people, gossip and sensational events	focus on major world events and politics

Examples of tabloid and broadsheet headlines

A young man has been killed in a road traffic accident. Compare the different headlines written by the tabloid and broadsheet newspapers.

Tabloid headline

Village devastated by tragic death of car-smash victim.

Broadsheet headline

Local youth killed in tragic road accident.

Examples of tabloid and broadsheet report approach

Tabloid news report approach

A whole village is in mourning today for the loss of a 'well-loved' young man, who was a popular member of the community.

Justin Brown, 18, died tragically as a result of a head-on collision on his way to work yesterday. He had a promising career in front of him, and colleagues are still reeling from the news.

'We still can't get our heads round it,' said his boss, Jim Smith.

Police are still at a loss about what happened, and are asking for eyewitnesses to come forward with information.

Broadsheet news report approach

A local youth who had just embarked on an engineering apprenticeship was killed yesterday in a tragic head-on collision on his way to work.

Family, friends and colleagues were devastated by the news.

A representative of the local police said 'We would appeal to any eyewitnesses to come forward with information so we can identify the cause of the accident.'

We've looked at the differences between the two main types of newspapers. Now we're going to look at the common aspects of the structure and style of a newspaper article. Refer back to the 'Raisin Weekend high jinks at St Andrews' article when you are looking at these points.

Structure and style

- The headline has to be punchy and eye-catching. It has to catch people's attention and make them want to read the article.
- Always keep the 'five Ws and an H' in mind – this should be your structure for every article.
- Each paragraph should clearly link to the next.
- Tell the story, and tell it in chronological order.
- Include quotations to add human interest, authenticity and life to your writing.
- Include official sources of information where appropriate – for example, police, local authorities, the person in charge.
- Try to finish on a forward-looking note, even if it is bad news.

Magazines

There are magazines on just about every topic under the sun from fly-fishing to women's interests to buying a car. Magazines have a different writing style and pace from newspapers. They have feature articles rather than news stories, and their readers buy the magazine because they want to read these features.

Here are some of the types of features that you will find in magazines:

News features

These are linked to stories in the news. They usually explore the story in more depth, or look at it from a fresh angle.

Profiles

One-to-one interviews are very popular in magazines, and can range from celebrities to ordinary people with an interesting story to tell.

Lifestyle features

How do you juggle being a working mum? What do you do at the weekend? Where do you shop and what do you cook? These are all the subject of popular lifestyle features.

Consumer features

These involve comparing and assessing rival products, so you the reader don't have to.

Question and answer

This is a common interview structure, where the person being interviewed simply answers a list of published questions. The writer just records the answers without interpreting or analysing them.

Specialist features

These require specialist knowledge because they deal with specialist subjects such as antiques, travel or motoring, for example.

We've looked at the different types of feature articles you will find in magazines. Now we're going to look at the structure and style of this type of writing.

Structure and style

- Your introduction still needs to have impact and you still need to answer the 'five Ws and an H' in your feature, but not at the pace of a news story.
- Decide what your angle is going to be. Stay focused and relevant to this angle – plan where you are going before you start writing. This

will help your writing to flow and will stop you losing your way.

- End with a bang, not a whimper! Try to create a well-rounded ending.
- Make sure that you have a good mixture of facts, quotes and your own observations/interpretations of places and people.
- Put your ideas in a logical progression, so that the feature flows.
- Avoid repetition and 'purple prose', but use imaginative language.
- Think about your tone – is it appropriate?

Example of a feature profile

Here is an example of a feature profile. It's a one-to-one interview with a lady who remembers growing up during the Second World War.

Yesterday's girl

The Oscar-winning film *The King's Speech* well and truly pushed the country's nostalgia button. Google it and you get over 70 million results. But does the film reflect what life was like for yesterday's ordinary boys and girls? Maureen Forrester (74) gives us an insight by describing her memories of growing up during the reign of George VI in the 40s and 50s.

Cupar is a market town in north east Fife, and Maureen Forrester was born and grew up there during the war. She has strong memories of the Polish soldiers who were billeted in the area. Apparently they were very polite, with lots of heel-clicking and hand-kissing. And most thrilling of all, they had chocolate.

Maureen said: 'We had two Polish soldiers billeted with us. I had such a lovely time because I was only three and they made a big fuss of me. They brought us bars of chocolate, which you hardly ever saw. That was a great treat. Crowds of them would come up to our house – not just the ones staying with us – and my mother would play the piano and we would all have a sing song. It was just wonderful!'

‘Of course,’ she added, ‘it goes without saying that the Scottish men were very jealous of the chocolate-giving and the hand-kissing. They didn’t like the competition at all!’

Maureen remembers a strong sense of family and community during the war. Her sister joined the Land Army, and Maureen went to stay with her one weekend on a farm in the north of Fife. She said: ‘I was out working in the fields with all the girls, and we had such a great laugh. It was great! My mother made me trousers to wear, because girls didn’t wear trousers then.’

Children were also expected to help out in the fields during the school holidays. Maureen described, laughing, what happened when they went to pick potatoes: ‘We left home in the dark and made our way to a collection point. The farmers would arrive with open lorries and choose whom they wanted. We were loaded onto trucks with no notion of where we were going, then dumped in a field and set to work. Can you imagine children being treated like that nowadays? Either they’d be arguing with the farmer about their rights or their parents would.’

Sugar rationing also encouraged the community spirit. Maureen said: ‘I remember putting a jam jar in the middle of the table and instead of putting sugar in our tea or on our cornflakes, we put it in the jar. When we had collected enough, we made tablet.’

However, since Maureen’s father was in the motor trade and was responsible for rationing petrol, he often brought the family extra luxuries from grateful customers. He usually came back from visiting one particular farm laden with eggs. Maureen laughed: ‘But the best gift that we ever got was a whole pig – not alive I have to say. We kept it in the garage!’

Like most of yesterday’s girls and boys, Maureen and her sister were keen cyclists – so keen in fact, that they planned a cycling and hostelling trip to Norway when they were 16 and 20. She recalled: ‘We cycled from Cupar to Newcastle, stopping at hostels on the way, and caught the ferry to Bergen.’

But this was no wild, cocktail-swigging holiday – quite the opposite. Maureen said, laughing: ‘We were very prim and proper and kept ourselves to ourselves. In one hostel, some Norwegian men realised we were British and started to sing “I dream of Jeannie with the light brown hair”. They were just trying to be friendly, but we were highly insulted and snubbed them!’

Thankfully, Maureen let her guard down enough for one Ron Forrester to woo and marry her ‘at the tender age of 19’. Ron planned and organised a honeymoon to remember. She recalled: ‘He was an adventurer. We drove from Cupar to Lydd in our little Morris Minor shooting brake. At the small airport there we boarded the plane, and our car was driven along with two others into the front of a Bristol Wayfarer. We landed at Le Touquet and then drove down through France, across the interior of Spain, over the Pyrenees to Andorra and back up through France on our way home again.’

Then it was back to earth with a bump. Like most women of her time, she decided to make marriage her career. But four children later, she decided that she wanted more out of life, and went back to college to study music. Maureen had always loved music and singing in particular. She said: ‘When I was young, I would sing loudly in the garden, hoping that some Hollywood producer would just happen to be wandering down our little street, looking for another Shirley Temple!’ After completing her course, she became a teacher, which also gave her the opportunity to produce and sing in musical shows. ‘So it all worked out well in the end!’

Maureen still teaches piano to a small number of pupils, and as I get ready to leave, this yesterday’s girl opens the door to one of tomorrow’s young musicians.

Ezines

What is an ezine? It’s an electronic magazine, delivered through email to people who subscribe to it. Ezines are usually free, and cover a huge amount of topics. They are therefore often used as a

marketing tool. You can write an ezine article or your own ezine to lead potential customers to your business website.

Here are some tips for writing in this medium.

Research

Before you write your own ezine article, use any search engine and type in 'ezine publishers' to find out who is out there and what they are publishing. Once you know your market, you can write your article or develop your own ezine.

Write your article

Write your article in plain English. Refer back to the general approach to writing for the media at the beginning of this chapter. This is your chance to show your expertise, establish credibility and advertise your company or your own business.

Remember that if you submit an article or business information to an established ezine, your audience is subscribing to the ezine because they are interested in the topic that you are writing about. You're off to a winning start.

Resource box

Ezine publishers sometimes ask for a resource box to be included at the end of an article submission. If you want it, this is your big opportunity to advertise yourself, your business and your website. It should contain the following:

• your name
• business name
• call to action
• website address
• email address
experience and qualifications

Every time your article is published, there will be a live link in this resource box that goes to your website. This in turn will help to

improve the search engine ranking of your website, especially if you use important keywords.

Developing your own ezine

If you want to create your own ezine, follow the same principles as above. You can then either add your ezine to an existing directory or list of publishers, or email existing clients and ask them to subscribe. After that, it's up to you how often you write and publish your ezine.

Example of an ezine

There are lots of examples of ezines on the internet. Use any search engine to look for ezine lists or directories. On the next page is a spread from *Cake Masters* ezine. This is an online publication that goes out of its way to support and encourage the cake baking community – both professionals and hobby bakers. Much of the content comes from their readers' contributions, in the form of text and photographs.

Promotion of an ezine goes hand in hand with embracing social media, and *Cake Masters* does this enthusiastically. *Cake Masters*' Facebook page is a great example of how to use Facebook effectively: it is helpful, informative and entertaining, has just the right tone of informality, never posts anything controversial or argumentative, and it engages with and replies to its users and shares their content too. These users are, after all, potential readers of, and even contributors to, the magazine.

Some ezines are free, and some are available subscription or payment only. Others might give a free taster to encourage the reader to take out a subscription or make a payment per edition. The *Cake Masters* ezine's popularity as an online magazine has encouraged the editors to start selling their online edition for a payment and also producing a print edition.

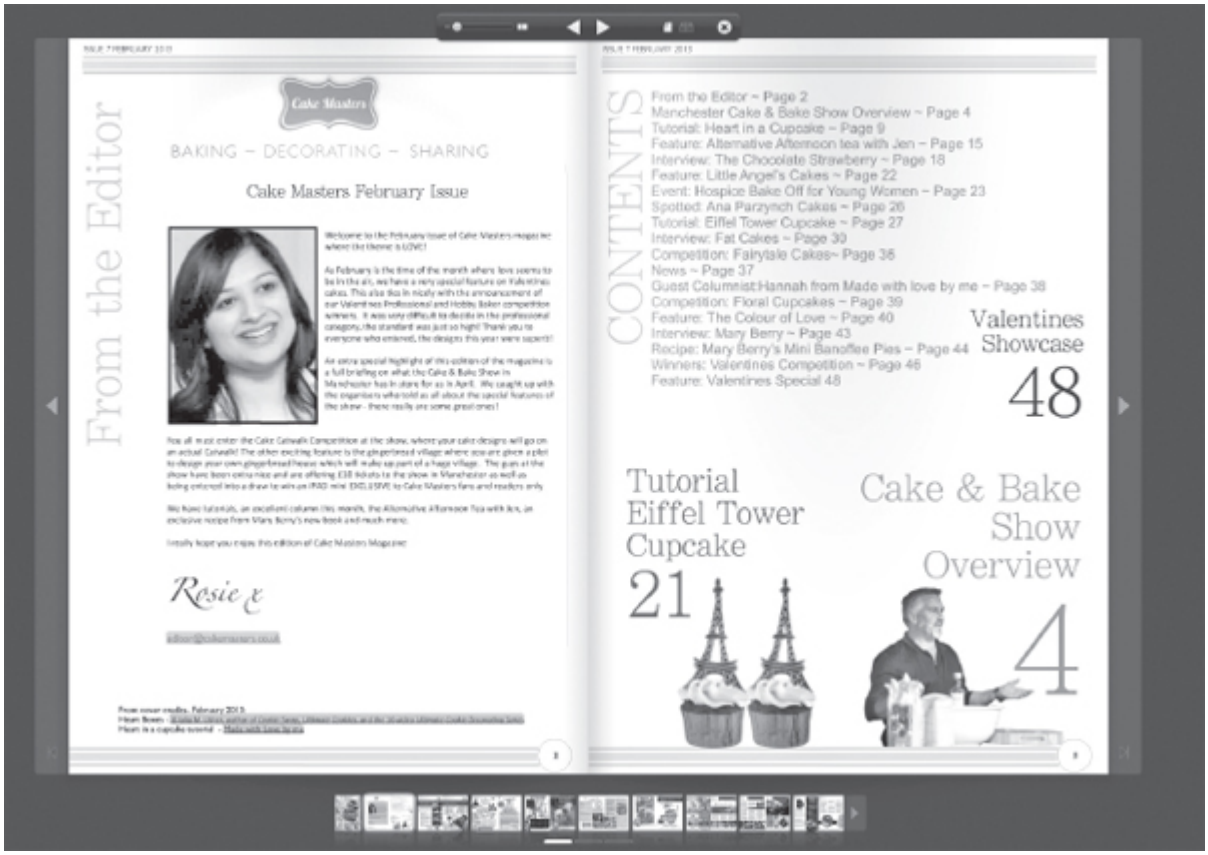

Extract from *issuu.com/cakemasters* online magazine.

Ezines can be read, and created, through online services such as **issuu (issuu.com)** and **scribd (scribd.com)**. These services allow you to self-publish all kinds of documents in a slick, accessible way that is compatible with all types of social media.

Newsletters

Newsletters tend to be short, printed publications that are produced for specific groups of people, or for circulation within an organisation. So, for example, you might be asked to produce a newsletter or an article for a newsletter for your local club or for your staffroom. Newsletters tend to be read by people who are interested in what you have to say, so again, you're off to a flying start. They contain short sound-bites of information, so apply plain English principles and keep your writing short, concise and easy to understand. You

know your readers, so the tone and style will probably be informal and ‘chatty’.

There are lots of user-friendly newsletter templates available on the internet if you are expected to produce one from scratch. Alternatively, the organisation or group you are writing for could already have a template that they use, and all you have to do is to produce the articles to fit in it.

The Littleby Orchestral Society NEWSLETTER

EDITORIAL

Hello and welcome to the February edition of the Littleby Orchestral Society newsletter, where we look back at our Christmas concert and look forward to our next performance at the local spring festival. We've also got some lovely news about one of our players and a special offer for sheet music – so take some time out of your busy day, read and enjoy!

January concert

Congratulations to everyone who played in the Christmas concert – it was a sellout! Despite the cold and snow, friends, family and music lovers came in their droves to listen to our programme of Christmas carols, music from 'The Snowman' and Corelli's Christmas Concerto. We even got an encore! The local press gave us a good review, so here's hoping the next concert will be as successful. The money will help us to hire the venue and sheet music for our spring festival performance.

SPRING FESTIVAL PERFORMANCE

Music has been chosen and rehearsals begin next Tuesday at 7.30pm in the school dining hall as usual. We are playing the 'Simple Symphony' by Benjamin Britten and 'The Planets' by Gustav Holst. To round off the British Composers theme we are performing 'The Lark Ascending' by Vaughan Williams.

A NEW ADDITION TO THE ORCHESTRA?

Jane Smith, our first horn player, is certainly doing her bit to generate new players for the orchestra. She and her family are celebrating the birth of twins Tom and Sarah. We are all thinking of you, Jane (and Tom!) and hope you don't have too many sleepless nights. Volunteers are available for lullaby playing!

SHEET MUSIC OFFER

Our local music shop, Green's Music, has offered Littleby Orchestral Society players a hefty 30 per cent discount on all sheet music for the month of February. So get down there now with your membership card and stock up on your favourites!

Blogs

The word ‘blog’ stands for ‘web log’. A blog is a website that has entries (called posts) that appear in reverse chronological order (latest first). A blog is like an online journal or diary, where you write your thoughts or opinions about a subject. Blogs are now used for

online journalism, because the writer can describe or record what is going on minute-by-minute – for example, at the Olympics or at the Oscars. Most blogs have an area where people can comment or respond to the blog post.

A blogger is someone who writes content for a blog, or posts a blog.

Why do you want to blog?

Before you go on to set up a blog, it's a good idea to ask yourself why you want to write a blog. That will focus your mind on the purpose of the blog, who your audience is going to be, how often you are going to post an entry and whether you are able to sustain it.

For example, is it to promote your business? In that case, you need to make it entertaining, with an unusual angle, not just a sales pitch. If it's about your view on international politics, then be careful not to let it degenerate into a rant. Remember that you want to build up a following for your chosen subject or field.

How to set up a blog

Once you've decided what you're going to blog about, there are lots of websites that offer free blogging. The most popular are WordPress, Blogger and Google. If you have a Google account, just log onto 'Blogger' and off you go. On other websites or blog platforms there is a 'create account' box where you enter your details.

You are then taken to a page where you have the option of allowing people to comment or respond. Write your post, click on the button to upload photographs or videos that you want to include and press the 'publish' button – you have posted your first blog!

Writing a blog

Follow the usual plain English rules – make it clear, concise and easy to understand. Short sentences are best. Don't ramble on with long sentences or you will lose your reader's interest. Remember your audience and keep focused.

If you mention the subject of your blog as often as you can in the first paragraph (without overdoing it), this will help your blog to feature prominently on the search engines. There is also a ‘tag’ section where you enter words that you want to associate with your blog. These will also help to push your blog up to the top of the list in search engines. Blogs vary very greatly in style, content, formality and approach. Some examples follow.

Examples of blogs

Cookery writer Jill Colonna has a blog called *Mad About Macarons* (madaboutmacarons.com) after her cookery book of the same name. Her blog is rather like a journal, with added recipes and descriptions of what it is like to be a British person living and working in Paris. Jill makes good use of social media with a very entertaining and active Facebook page where she takes time to reply to users.

She also engages with other writers in blogging communities – essential if you want your blogging reputation to spread and your readership to grow.

From *madaboutmacarons.com* written by Jill Colonna.

Writer Sue Reid Sexton is the author of *Mavis's Shoe*. Her blog entries at suereidsexton.blogspot.co.uk often talk about her life as a writer, and local writer events in which readers might be interested, but also, she often pays particular attention to the themes and locations that crop up in her novel. It's a great way to help promote her book, because people searching for information on the Clydebank blitz (the setting for the novel) may well find Sue's blog and be encouraged to read her novel too.

Sue Reid Sexton

Author of Mavis's Shoe, a novel about the Clydebank Blitz.

MONDAY, 11 MARCH 2013

'In what street?'

This is one of the saddest pictures I know of the aftermath of the Clydebank Blitz. I've put it here because Wednesday and Thursday of this week, the 13th and 14th March, will be the 72nd anniversary of the devastating bombing of Clydebank, the Clydebank Blitz. To mark this I'd like to talk about the numbers because since last year's anniversary I have discovered the source of those figures and the date. I was appalled, I have to admit, but subsequently greatly and sadly mystified.

The bombing shook Clydebank on a Thursday and a Friday. On the Sunday the authorities reported 528 dead, stating that there was 'probably a further 200'. Another 617 were said to have been seriously injured. This report was not made public at the time but these numbers were published the following year by the Sunday Post and the Sunday Mail. This was of course illegal because of war-time censorship and I believe the two papers got their knuckles rapped for their trouble.

The people of Clydebank are said to have been appalled by these numbers too. An ARP warden, who had been part of the rescue operation, is noted to have remarked on hearing the figures, 'In what street?' Eye-witness accounts confirm a far higher scale of damage and the sheer ratio of bombs and bombers to houses and people suggests the numbers were far higher: over 4,000 bombs for 12,000 dwellings. This is one bomb for every three houses. There were somewhere between 55,000 and 60,000 people living there, the population having swelled by 10 to 15 thousand because of the availability of war work.

But they don't know.

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Sue's website

MAVIS'S SHOE AMAZON LINK

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BLOG ARCHIVE

2013 (1)

March (1)

From *suereidsexton.blogspot.co.uk* written by Sue Reid Sexton.

Journalist Tristan Stewart-Robertson has created a Canadian news site called *Tomorrow* (www.tomorrow.is) which is very much more formal than the sites previously mentioned. The articles are news features.

Tristan does not include any personal musings or opinions, or any facts that he has not checked numerous times and can give a citation for. On his site he has published an admirable list of guidelines and protocols that he feels are important for good reporting on his site and generally.

This is not really a blog, but it's an interesting contrast with the previous examples. *Tomorrow* is a content portal, and as it grows and finds new contributors it will look less a blog and more and more like a news site.

The ambitious ethical basis of the writing on this site is notable – and admirable – when in comparison to some blogs and ‘news’ writing on the web.

With very little digging you’ll soon discover that many blogs contain unsubstantiated opinions and uncorroborated facts and information. They often contain photos and other content that breach copyright.

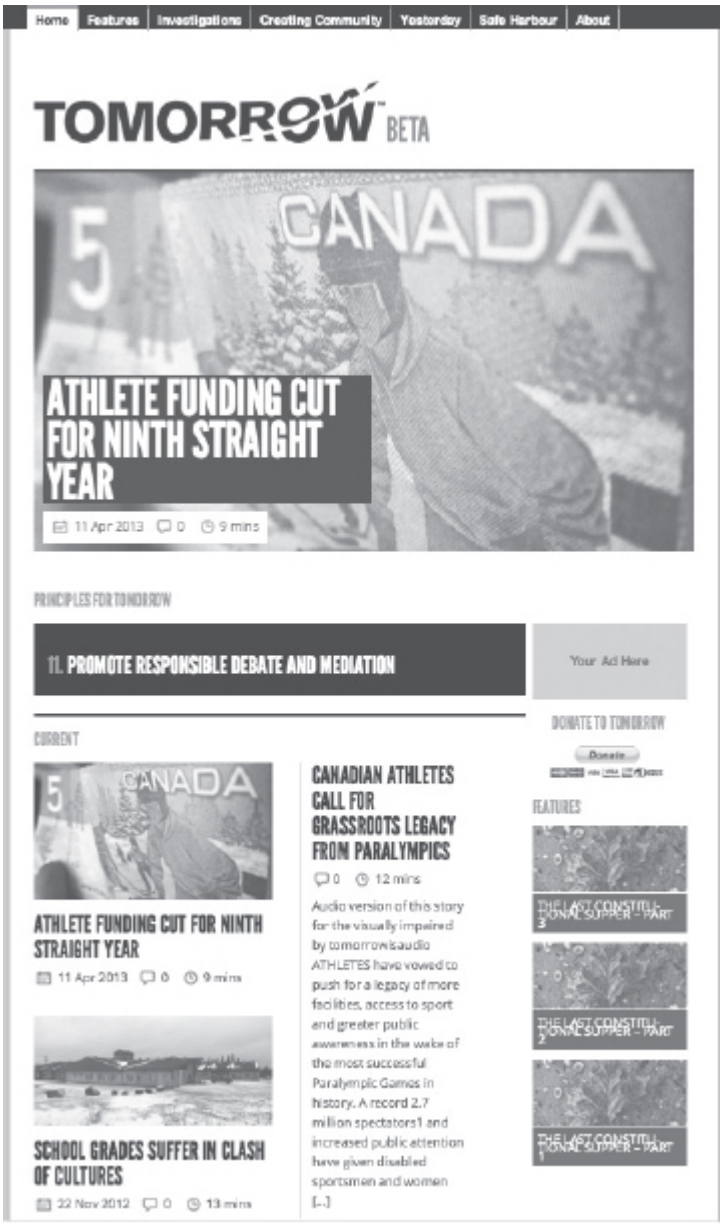

From *www.tomorrow.is* edited by Tristan Stewart-Robertson.

Of course there is room out there for personal opinions. Bloggers are the equivalent of the essayists of old – and that great tradition involves political comment, satire, humour and strong opinions. Even ranting, when done effectively, can be very entertaining. But it's important in this age – post Leveson Inquiry, where all the media are being scrutinised for ethics no matter what content – that you try to publish to a certain standard. A standard that, as a minimum, does not breach anyone's copyright, copy their work or ideas, do harm or spread unsubstantiated or uncorroborated information.

Reviews

An increasing number of people are writing reviews online on anything from cars to holidays to films, books and music. Some organisations like TripAdvisor actively encourage this, so that visitors to the site can make an informed decision based on honest opinions. You might want to contribute to a site like this after a particularly good (or bad) holiday. Or you might be asked to review a film or book for your organisation's internal newsletter, or want to do so for a personal blog.

So how would you go about doing this? What makes a good review? Here are a few points to remember.

What is the target audience/market?

If you know the target audience/market of the film, book or restaurant, you can judge it against a recognised set of criteria.

For example, a Hollywood action film and a low-budget art house film would appeal to completely different audiences, and you would therefore review them in different ways.

Include basic information

Make sure that you include basic information in your review such as:

• title, author, publisher and recommended price of a book

• title, director, main actors, cinema venue and times of a film

• name of restaurant, opening times and phone number for booking.

Don't give away too much

Whet the reader's appetite by giving them enough information to let them decide whether they want to read the book or see the film, but don't spoil it by giving too much away.

Example of a review

Here is an example of a book review.

> ***The Slap* by Christos Tsiolkas**
>
> Christos Tsiolkas's fourth novel was longlisted for the Man Booker Prize 2010 and won the Commonwealth Writers' Prize, with good reason – it really makes you think.
>
> The novel opens at a middle-class barbecue in Melbourne, Australia. It quickly builds up to the pivotal event – where a guest slaps a child who is not his – and then examines the fallout from the perspectives of the eight people who witnessed it.
>
> Hector (Greek) and Aisha (Indian) are the affluent, middle-class hosts, Harry (Hector's hot-headed cousin) is the person who is responsible for 'the slap' and Hugh and Rosie (white, liberal and poor) are the parents of the slapped child. They report the matter to the police and take Harry to court.
>
> But this novel is much more than the story of the events leading up to the court case, and its outcome. It forces us to examine our society and its issues, and in so doing it can sometimes make for uncomfortable reading.
>
> Tsiolkas achieves this through the narratives of eight finely-drawn characters. Some, like Harry, are downright unlikeable, but are all the more convincing for that. They reveal their different deep-seated attitudes towards family, loyalty and race, and this in turn makes you question your own attitudes: for example, is it acceptable to hit an unruly child? Where would your loyalties lie – with the friend whose child was slapped or with your husband's brother, who did

the slapping? How would you cope if your Greek wife was ashamed of your daughter-in-law because she was Indian?

These are difficult questions. Read this novel and ask yourself how you would answer them.

The Slap, by Christos Tsiolkas, is published by Atlantic Books. RRP is £7.99.

ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES/COPYRIGHT

We've mentioned copyright before, but we're going to mention it again, because so many people think that if they use material from the internet that isn't actually on a printed page, they don't have to acknowledge it. This is just not true. You **must** identify all the material that is not your own – no matter what you are writing, where it comes from or what it is. If you copy **any** text, diagrams, photographs, art, music or web pages without acknowledging their source, then you are infringing copyright law, and could be prosecuted.

Copyright stays with the originator during his or her lifetime, and with the heirs to their estate for 70 years after their death.

WRITING CREATIVELY

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we are going to concentrate on creative writing.

We will explain the characteristics of the two main types of prose fiction – short stories and novels – and will illustrate these with examples.

We will then examine the techniques that fiction writers use. This will help you to apply these techniques to your own compositions.

This chapter also examines the characteristics of some of the different non-fiction categories, including biographies, travel and cookery writing.

We will finally look at composition techniques for non-fiction writing.

FICTION

Fiction, or prose fiction as it is sometimes called, tends to fall into two different categories – short stories and novels. Fiction means that the story is imaginary or made up – although many writers base their stories on something that has happened. Prose means that the story is written in sentences, paragraphs and chapters. It's not a play or a poem.

Short stories

Sometimes people think that a short story is a small novel. It's not. A short story is usually structured around a main conflict that happens near the beginning of the story, and sets the story in motion. We see the main character at this crucial point in their lives, where they have to deal with and resolve the events caused by this conflict.

There are lots of different types of short story, and no definite rules, but there are certain characteristics that all short stories have in common. A short story:

- tends to be less complex than a novel
- should be brief enough to read in a single sitting
- has a single plot
- has a single setting
- has a limited number of characters
- covers a short, or limited, period of time

A short story also tends to have the following plot outline:

- There is an impactful, atmospheric opening.
- The main character(s) are introduced.

- The setting (time, place and relationships in the main character's life) is introduced.
- The problem/conflict the main character is facing is introduced and developed.
- The problem/conflict develops to a climax.
- This climax has a major effect on the character – for example, they acknowledge or come to understand something crucial, make a decision or take a course of action.
- There is a resolution – for example, the character deals in some way with the problem or conflict and there is a natural ending to the story.

Let's use a short story to illustrate these points. It's called *The Open Window* and it was written by H H Munro, otherwise known as Saki. Munro (1870–1916) was famous for writing short stories, and *The Open Window*, from *Beasts and Superbeasts* is one of his most popular. It is a story set within a story, and the open window of the title comes to symbolise how it can sometimes be difficult to distinguish between reality – or what we imagine to be reality – and appearances.

Impactful opening

Here's an example of an impactful, atmospheric opening, where we are thrown straight into an interesting and intriguing social scene:

> 'My aunt will be down presently, Mr Nuttel,' said a very self-possessed young lady of fifteen; 'in the meantime you must try and put up with me.'

The reader is immediately intrigued – who is Mr Nuttel, who is the self-possessed fifteen-year-old young lady, who is her aunt and what is the social context?

Introduction of main character(s)

Our curiosity is whetted even more when we are introduced, in Saki's inimitable humorous way, to the main character, the rather socially phobic Framton Nuttel:

> Framton Nuttel endeavoured to say the correct something which should duly flatter the niece of the moment without unduly discounting the aunt that was to come. Privately he doubted more than ever whether these formal visits on a succession of total strangers would do much towards helping the nerve cure which he was supposed to be undergoing.

Introduction of setting

Saki introduces and develops the setting over the next few paragraphs.

> 'I know how it will be,' his sister had said when he was preparing to migrate to this rural retreat; 'you will bury yourself down there and not speak to a living soul, and your nerves will be worse than ever from moping. I shall just give you letters of introduction to all the people I know there. Some of them, as far as I can remember, were quite nice.'
>
> Framton wondered whether Mrs Sappleton, the lady to whom he was presenting one of the letters of introduction, came into the nice division.
>
> 'Do you know many of the people round here?' asked the niece, when she judged that they had had sufficient silent communion.
>
> 'Hardly a soul,' said Framton. 'My sister was staying here, at the rectory, you know, some four years ago, and she gave me letters of introduction to some of the people here.'
>
> He made the last statement in a tone of distinct regret.
>
> 'Then you know practically nothing about my aunt?' pursued the self-possessed young lady.
>
> 'Only her name and address,' admitted the caller. He was wondering whether Mrs Sappleton was in the married or

widowed state. An undefinable something about the room seemed to suggest masculine habitation.

Problem/conflict introduced and developed

And then, devastatingly, the writer introduces and develops the conflict.

> ‘Her great tragedy happened just three years ago,’ said the child; ‘that would be since your sister’s time.’
>
> ‘Her tragedy?’ asked Framton; somehow in this restful country spot tragedies seemed out of place.
>
> ‘You may wonder why we keep that window wide open on an October afternoon,’ said the niece, indicating a large French window that opened onto a lawn.
>
> ‘It is quite warm for the time of the year,’ said Framton; ‘but has that window got anything to do with the tragedy?’
>
> ‘Out through that window, three years ago to a day, her husband and her two young brothers went off for their day’s shooting. They never came back. In crossing the moor to their favourite snipe-shooting ground they were all three engulfed in a treacherous piece of bog. It had been that dreadful wet summer, you know, and places that were safe in other years gave way suddenly without warning. Their bodies were never recovered. That was the dreadful part of it.’
>
> Here the child’s voice lost its self-possessed note and became falteringly human. ‘Poor aunt always thinks that they will come back someday, they and the little brown spaniel that was lost with them, and walk in at that window just as they used to do. That is why the window is kept open every evening till it is quite dusk. Poor dear aunt, she has often told me how they went out, her husband with his white waterproof coat over his arm, and Ronnie, her youngest brother, singing “Bertie, why do you bound?” as he always did to tease her, because she said it got on her nerves. Do you know, sometimes on still, quiet evenings like this, I

> almost get a creepy feeling that they will all walk in through that window – ’

Problem/conflict develops to a climax

It’s obvious that Nuttel believes this story, because when he meets Mrs Sappleton (the aunt) and she tells him that her husband and brothers will be home soon from snipe shooting, his reaction shows that he thinks she is insane:

> She rattled on cheerfully about the shooting and the scarcity of birds, and the prospects for duck in the winter. To Framton it was all purely horrible. He made a desperate but only partially successful effort to turn the talk onto a less ghastly topic, conscious that his hostess was giving him only a fragment of her attention and her eyes were constantly straying past him to the open window and the lawn beyond. It was certainly an unfortunate coincidence that he should have paid his visit on this tragic anniversary.
>
> ‘The doctors agree in ordering me complete rest, an absence of mental excitement, and avoidance of anything in the nature of violent exercise,’ announced Framton, who laboured under the tolerably widespread delusion that total strangers and chance acquaintances are hungry for the least detail of one’s ailments and infirmities, their cause and cure.

So Saki leads us brilliantly to the climax.

At this point, we believe like Nuttel that Mrs Sappleton is insane – her husband and brothers are dead and **won’t** walk through the open window. So the next following three paragraphs have a powerful impact:

> ‘Here they are at last!’ she cried. ‘Just in time for tea, and don’t they look as if they were muddy up to the eyes!’
>
> Framton shivered slightly and turned towards the niece with a look intended to convey sympathetic comprehension.

> The child was starting out through the open window with a dazed horror in her eyes.
>
> In a chill shock of nameless fear Framton swung round in his seat and looked in the same direction.
>
> In the deepening twilight three figures were walking across the lawn towards the window; they all carried guns under their arms, and one of them was additionally burdened with a white coat hung over his shoulders. A tired brown spaniel kept close at their heels. Noiselessly they neared the house, and then a hoarse young voice chanted out of the dusk: 'I said, Bertie, why do you bound?'

Effect of this climax on the character

The effect on Framton Nuttel is immediate – he is scared out of his wits because as far as he is concerned he is seeing ghosts:

> Framton grabbed wildly at his stick and hat; the hall door, the gravel drive, and the front gate were dimly noted stages in his headlong retreat. A cyclist coming along the road had to run into the hedge to avoid imminent collision.

Resolution

The resolution is clever and unexpected, and takes the reader completely by surprise. The narrative is in the third person throughout, which means that the narrator portrays everybody's point of view, though as the story unfolds it's mostly Framton's thoughts and feelings we're given access to. Saki is really clever, because until Mr Nuttel runs out of the house and out of the story, we share his point of view, and we believe the story. But after he has run off, we stay in the house and find out that the open window was in fact the focus of a practical joke – a symbol of deception rather than a symbol of grief and unhappiness.

Now we're in on the prank that Vera played on Nuttel, and she has played it on us too. The clues are scattered throughout that Vera has noticed Framton's nervous streak. It's only at this point that we

realise that she was having some rather cruel fun with that failing. And it doesn't end there:

> ‘Who was that who bolted out as we came up?’
>
> ‘A most extraordinary man, a Mr Nuttel,’ said Mrs Sappleton; ‘could only talk about his illnesses, and dashed off without a word of goodbye or apology when you arrived. One would think he had seen a ghost.’
>
> ‘I expect it was the spaniel,’ said the niece calmly; ‘he told me he had a horror of dogs. He was once hunted into a cemetery somewhere on the banks of the Ganges by a pack of pariah dogs, and had to spend the night in a newly dug grave with the creatures snarling and grinning and foaming just above him. Enough to make anyone lose their nerve.’
>
> Romance at short notice was her speciality.

Did you realise all the time that Nuttel was being deceived, and that he was having a practical joke played on him? Or were you, too, taken in by the story? Did you distinguish between appearances and reality? Did your view of the open window change at the end of the story?

‘Romance at short notice was her speciality’ – a euphemism for ‘she was a compulsive liar’. When it comes to creative writing, avoidance of ‘plain English’ can be an effective humorous effect.

> Framton grabbed wildly at his stick and hat; the hall door, the gravel drive, and the front gate were dimly noted stages in his headlong retreat.

This is a far more creative and humorous way of saying ‘he ran away as fast as he could’, and yet over-description is avoided. The image of him flailing up the drive is effectively represented in a short, succinct and funny way.

You can read the whole of this clever short story and some more classic works from Saki in the book *Beasts and Super-Beasts*, at:

www.gutenberg.org/ebooks/269

Novels

A novel is an extended piece of fiction, usually with a number of different characters, a central plot that builds up to a climax and at least one sub-plot. There are many different types or genres of fiction. Here are just a few:

- mystery
- romance
- historical
- thriller
- science fiction

Although there are lots of different types of novels, there are certain elements that all novels have. These are as follows:

- **Setting**. The novel is always set in a certain time or place.
- **Plot**. This is the story that the novel is telling.
- **Narrator/voice**. This is the voice that's telling the story – it can be a first person narrator or third person narrator.
- **Dialogue**. This is the conversation that the characters have.
- **Characters**. These are the people in the story.
- **Theme**. This is the idea or message that runs throughout the story. Sometimes there can be more than one theme.

WRITING YOUR OWN FICTION COMPOSITION

We're now going to look at how you can apply these elements to your own compositions – whether you are writing a short story, a novella or a novel.

We are going to use a very famous novel to illustrate these characteristics. *Pride and Prejudice* was written by Jane Austen and published in 1813. It is one of the most popular novels ever written, and it has been adapted for film and TV. If you are studying English composition, it's a book you should read.

Jane Austen was born in 1775, and she wrote with insight, intelligence and wit about the social etiquette (the customs or rules controlling social and moral behaviour) of the upper classes of the period she lived in. Her main themes were how the upper classes interacted with each other, how they viewed love and the importance of marriage to a woman at that time. If you were angry in 19th-century English polite society, you couldn't show your feelings and shout. You had to be dignified at all times. If you were a woman and your parents couldn't provide for you and you didn't marry, you would either fall into dire poverty or have to become a dependent of another relative. Getting married – or getting daughters married – was therefore a big concern. *Pride and Prejudice* is set in this time, and deals with many of these themes, as well as how pride and prejudice can stop people from seeing things as they really are.

Setting

The setting is where the novel takes place. It can:

- create the atmosphere for your novel, and help your reader to imagine the scenes
- give information about a character – for example, if your character is a bit forgetful, you could show them rushing around the house

looking for keys
- provide opportunities for a plot – for example, if your setting is in a major city and a meteor suddenly hits the Earth, then that's going to be interesting!

Jane Austen does all this brilliantly in her first chapter. We find out about Mr and Mrs Bennet and their five daughters, Mrs Bennet's obsession with getting her daughters married, and the sort of marriage that the couple themselves have. Austen also sows the seeds of the plot, and tells us about contemporary social etiquette – or how you had to go about getting introduced to eligible young men.

> It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife.
>
> However little known the feelings or views of such a man may be on his first entering a neighbourhood, this truth is so well fixed in the minds of the surrounding families, that he is considered the rightful property of some one or other of their daughters.
>
> 'My dear Mr. Bennet,' said his lady to him one day, 'have you heard that Netherfield Park is let at last?'
>
> Mr. Bennet replied that he had not.
>
> 'But it is,' returned she; 'for Mrs. Long has just been here, and she told me all about it.'
>
> Mr. Bennet made no answer.
>
> 'Do you not want to know who has taken it?' cried his wife impatiently.
>
> 'You want to tell me, and I have no objection to hearing it.'
>
> This was invitation enough.
>
> 'Why, my dear, you must know, Mrs. Long says that Netherfield is taken by a young man of large fortune from the north of England; that he came down on Monday in a chaise and four to see the place, and was so much delighted with it, that he agreed with Mr. Morris immediately; that he is to take possession before Michaelmas, and some of his servants are to be in the house by the end of next week.'

‘What is his name?’

‘Bingley.’

‘Is he married or single?’

‘Oh! Single, my dear, to be sure! A single man of large fortune; four or five thousand a year. What a fine thing for our girls!’

‘How so? How can it affect them?’

‘My dear Mr. Bennet,’ replied his wife, ‘how can you be so tiresome! You must know that I am thinking of his marrying one of them.’

‘Is that his design in settling here?’

‘Design! Nonsense, how can you talk so! But it is very likely that he may fall in love with one of them, and therefore you must visit him as soon as he comes.’

‘I see no occasion for that. You and the girls may go, or you may send them by themselves, which perhaps will be still better, for as you are as handsome as any of them, Mr. Bingley may like you the best of the party.’

‘My dear, you flatter me. I certainly have had my share of beauty, but I do not pretend to be anything extraordinary now. When a woman has five grown-up daughters, she ought to give over thinking of her own beauty.’

‘In such cases, a woman has not often much beauty to think of.’

‘But, my dear, you must indeed go and see Mr. Bingley when he comes into the neighbourhood.’

‘It is more than I engage for, I assure you.’

‘But consider your daughters. Only think what an establishment it would be for one of them. Sir William and Lady Lucas are determined to go, merely on that account, for in general, you know, they visit no newcomers. Indeed you must go, for it will be impossible for us to visit him if you do not.’

‘You are over-scrupulous, surely. I dare say Mr. Bingley will be very glad to see you; and I will send a few lines by you to assure him of my hearty consent to his marrying whichever

he chooses of the girls; though I must throw in a good word for my little Lizzy.'

'I desire you will do no such thing. Lizzy is not a bit better than the others; and I am sure she is not half so handsome as Jane, nor half so good-humoured as Lydia. But you are always giving her the preference.'

'They have none of them much to recommend them,' replied he; 'they are all silly and ignorant like other girls; but Lizzy has something more of quickness than her sisters.'

'Mr. Bennet, how can you abuse your own children in such a way? You take delight in vexing me. You have no compassion for my poor nerves.'

'You mistake me, my dear. I have a high respect for your nerves. They are my old friends. I have heard you mention them with consideration these last twenty years at least.'

'Ah, you do not know what I suffer.'

'But I hope you will get over it, and live to see many young men of four thousand a year come into the neighbourhood.'

'It will be no use to us, if twenty such should come, since you will not visit them.'

'Depend upon it, my dear, that when there are twenty, I will visit them all.'

Mr. Bennet was so odd a mixture of quick parts, sarcastic humour, reserve, and caprice, that the experience of three-and-twenty years had been insufficient to make his wife understand his character. Her mind was less difficult to develop. She was a woman of mean understanding, little information, and uncertain temper. When she was discontented, she fancied herself nervous. The business of her life was to get her daughters married; its solace was visiting and news.

Plot

Most novels tend to have the following plot outline or variations of this:

- **Exposition**. This is the early part of the novel, where we find out about the setting, characters and what the story is about.
- **Conflict**. This is usually introduced quite early on, and can be a conflict between two people, between people and nature or an internal conflict that somebody is having.
- **Rising action**. This is the stage of the novel where the conflict increases and the reader's sense of excitement, tension or interest increases accordingly.
- **Climax**. This marks the high point of the conflict, and usually means a turning point – either good or bad – for the main characters.
- **Falling action**. This follows the climax, when the reader's sense of excitement, tension or interest declines. This usually happens towards the end of the novel.
- **Resolution**. The character(s) deal with the conflict, and there is a natural ending to the story. This could be either good or bad.

Let's illustrate this by looking at the plot of *Pride and Prejudice*.

Exposition

We have already found out from the first chapter that Charles Bingley, a wealthy young gentleman has rented the manor of Netherfield Park. The Bennet household and the rest of the village of Longbourn are very excited about this news.

Mr and Mrs Bennet have five daughters called Jane, Elizabeth, Mary, Kitty and Lydia, and Mrs Bennet's main aim in life is to get them married to rich and respectable men. Mr Bennet pays a social visit to Mr Bingley, and the family attend a ball where Mr Bingley and his friend Mr Darcy are present.

Conflict

The conflict is introduced at the ball. Mr Bingley makes a good impression and is friendly with everybody, but his friend, Mr Darcy, appears to be haughty and unsociable, and – worst of all – he

refuses to dance with Lizzy Bennet, which makes everybody think he is arrogant and rude:

> ‘Come, Darcy,’ said he, ‘I must have you dance. I hate to see you standing about by yourself in this stupid manner. You had much better dance.’
>
> ‘I certainly shall not. You know how I detest it, unless I am particularly acquainted with my partner. At such an assembly as this it would be insupportable. Your sisters are engaged, and there is not another woman in the room whom it would not be a punishment to me to stand up with.’
>
> ‘I would not be so fastidious as you are,’ cried Mr. Bingley, ‘for a kingdom! Upon my honour, I never met with so many pleasant girls in my life as I have this evening; and there are several of them you see uncommonly pretty.’
>
> ‘You are dancing with the only handsome girl in the room,’ said Mr. Darcy, looking at the eldest Miss Bennet.
>
> ‘Oh! She is the most beautiful creature I ever beheld! But there is one of her sisters sitting down just behind you, who is very pretty, and I dare say very agreeable. Do let me ask my partner to introduce you.’
>
> ‘Which do you mean?’ and turning round he looked for a moment at Elizabeth, till catching her eye, he withdrew his own and coldly said:
>
> ‘She is tolerable, but not handsome enough to tempt me; I am in no humour at present to give consequence to young ladies who are slighted by other men. You had better return to your partner and enjoy her smiles, for you are wasting your time with me.’
>
> Mr. Bingley followed his advice. Mr. Darcy walked off; and Elizabeth remained with no very cordial feelings toward him. She told the story, however, with great spirit among her friends; for she had a lively, playful disposition, which delighted in anything ridiculous.

Rising action

Jane and Bingley's relationship develops during a number of social events, and Jane is invited to visit Netherfield Park. She gets soaked on the way there and catches a cold. Elizabeth walks over to Netherfield to make sure her sister is well, and arrives looking mud-spattered and windswept. Mr Bingley's sister makes sarcastic remarks about her, and tries to get Darcy to agree with her. However, Elizabeth and Darcy have been thrown together at a number of social functions since the ball, and he has become increasingly attracted to her.

> Occupied in observing Mr. Bingley's attentions to her sister, Elizabeth was far from suspecting that she was herself becoming an object of some interest in the eyes of his friend. Mr. Darcy had at first scarcely allowed her to be pretty; he had looked at her without admiration at the ball; and when they next met, he looked at her only to criticise. But no sooner had he made it clear to himself and his friends that she hardly had a good feature in her face, than he began to find it was rendered uncommonly intelligent by the beautiful expression of her dark eyes. To this discovery succeeded some others equally mortifying. Though he had detected with a critical eye more than one failure of perfect symmetry in her form, he was forced to acknowledge her figure to be light and pleasing; and in spite of his asserting that her manners were not those of the fashionable world, he was caught by their easy playfulness. Of this she was perfectly unaware; to her he was only the man who made himself agreeable nowhere, and who had not thought her handsome enough to dance with.

Mr Bingley's sisters, however, think that Jane and Elizabeth are beneath them socially, and don't try to hide their scorn:

> 'I have an excessive regard for Miss Jane Bennet, she is really a very sweet girl, and I wish with all my heart she were well settled. But with such a father and mother, and such low connections, I am afraid there is no chance of it.'

> ‘I think I have heard you say that their uncle is an attorney in Meryton.’
>
> ‘Yes; and they have another, who lives somewhere near Cheapside.’
>
> ‘That is capital,’ added her sister, and they both laughed heartily.
>
> ‘If they had uncles enough to fill all Cheapside,’ cried Bingley, ‘it would not make them one jot less agreeable.’
>
> ‘But it must very materially lessen their chance of marrying men of any consideration in the world,’ replied Darcy.

To this speech Bingley made no answer; but his sisters gave it their hearty assent, and indulged their mirth for some time at the expense of their dear friend’s vulgar relations.

Jane and Elizabeth return home to find that Mr Collins is visiting. Mr Collins is a clergyman who will inherit Mr Bennet’s property when he dies, because the girls can’t inherit the property and he is the nearest male heir. Mr Collins is pompous and arrogant. He proposes to Elizabeth, who refuses him. He is very offended. Meanwhile, some militia officers have been stationed near Longbourn, and are introduced to the Bennet girls. One of them, Wickham, is a handsome soldier whom Elizabeth finds attractive. He tells her that Darcy has cheated him out of his inheritance. Because of how Darcy treated her, Elizabeth is ready to believe him.

At the beginning of winter, there are two unexpected events: the Bingleys and Darcy suddenly leave Netherfield for London, leaving Jane upset and disappointed, and Mr Collins announces that he has become engaged to Charlotte Lucas, Elizabeth’s best friend, and the poor daughter of a local knight. Elizabeth is shocked at this, but Charlotte explains that her parents can’t support her, and she needs to get married for financial reasons. Elizabeth promises to visit them. Jane, meanwhile, visits London, hoping that she might see Bingley. While she is there, Miss Bingley visits her and is rude to her, and Bingley doesn’t visit at all.

This is the worst point of Elizabeth and Jane’s fortunes. However, the tension and excitement build up again when Elizabeth visits Charlotte and Mr Collins. They live near Lady Catherine de Bourgh,

who is Darcy's aunt. Elizabeth and Darcy are thrown together socially several times, and we are aware of Darcy's increasing attraction to Elizabeth. However, Colonel Fitzwilliam, Darcy's friend and cousin who is also visiting Lady Catherine, unwittingly tells Elizabeth that it was Darcy who persuaded Bingley not to marry Jane. Elizabeth is devastated.

Climax

When the climax comes, it is unexpected and very dramatic. Darcy visits Elizabeth at the Collins' home and completely shocks her by telling her that he loves her (despite the fact that he has fought against it):

> 'In vain I have struggled. It will not do. My feelings will not be repressed. You must allow me to tell you how ardently I admire and love you.'
>
> Elizabeth's astonishment was beyond expression. She stared, coloured, doubted, and was silent. This he considered sufficient encouragement; and the avowal of all that he felt, and had long felt for her, immediately followed. He spoke well; but there were feelings besides those of the heart to be detailed; and he was not more eloquent on the subject of tenderness than of pride. His sense of her inferiority – of its being a degradation – of the family obstacles which had always opposed to inclination, were dwelt on with a warmth which seemed due to the consequence he was wounding, but was very unlikely to recommend his suit.

Elizabeth tells Darcy that he is arrogant and accuses him of persuading Bingley not to marry Jane, and of disinheriting Wickham. She refuses him:

> 'From the very beginning – from the first moment, I may almost say – of my acquaintance with you, your manners, impressing me with the fullest belief of your arrogance, your

> conceit, and your selfish disdain of the feelings of others, were such as to form the groundwork of disapprobation on which succeeding events have built so immovable a dislike; and I had not known you a month before I felt that you were the last man in the world whom I could ever be prevailed on to marry.'

He replies, very formally:

> 'You have said quite enough, madam. I perfectly comprehend your feelings, and have now only to be ashamed of what my own have been. Forgive me for having taken up so much of your time, and accept my best wishes for your health and happiness.'

This is a great example of verbal sword-play with manners.

Darcy leaves but returns with a letter, and it is this that is the climax of the conflict, and the turning point for Elizabeth. In the letter Darcy admits that he persuaded Bingley to distance himself from Jane, but this was because he didn't think that Jane cared much for his friend. He also says that the reason he fell out with Wickham was because Wickham tried to elope with his young sister, Georgiana, to inherit her money.

The letter makes Elizabeth see Darcy in a different light – she starts to lose her prejudice against him.

Falling action

This process continues when she returns home. The militia (with Wickham) is leaving town, and Lydia persuades her father to give her permission to stay with an old colonel in Brighton, where Wickham's regiment is to be stationed. Elizabeth begs him to refuse Lydia permission, but he gives in.

Elizabeth then goes on a trip to Derbyshire with her aunt and uncle, the Gardiners. They visit Pemberley, Darcy's estate, believing that Darcy is away. Darcy's servants obviously love him, and say that he is a wonderful master. Darcy arrives unexpectedly, but behaves

warmly and kindly to Elizabeth and the Gardiners, and invites them to be his guests. They meet his sister, Georgiana. Elizabeth realises that her feelings towards him are changing:

> As for Elizabeth, her thoughts were at Pemberley this evening more than the last; and the evening, though as it passed it seemed long, was not long enough to determine her feelings towards one in that mansion; and she lay awake two whole hours endeavouring to make them out. She certainly did not hate him. No; hatred had vanished long ago, and she had almost as long been ashamed of ever feeling a dislike against him, that could be so called. The respect created by the conviction of his valuable qualities, though at first unwillingly admitted, had for some time ceased to be repugnant to her feeling; and it was now heightened into somewhat of a friendlier nature, by the testimony so highly in his favour, and bringing forward his disposition in so amiable a light, which yesterday had produced. But above all, above respect and esteem, there was a motive within her of goodwill which could not be overlooked.
>
> It was gratitude; gratitude, not merely for having once loved her, but for loving her still well enough to forgive all the petulance and acrimony of her manner in rejecting him, and all the unjust accusations accompanying her rejection. He who, she had been persuaded, would avoid her as his greatest enemy, seemed, on this accidental meeting, most eager to preserve the acquaintance, and without any indelicate display of regard, or any peculiarity of manner, where their two selves only were concerned, was soliciting the good opinion of her friends, and bent on making her known to his sister. Such a change in a man of so much pride exciting not only astonishment but gratitude – for to love, ardent love, it must be attributed; and as such its impression on her was of a sort to be encouraged, as by no means unpleasing, though it could not be exactly defined. She respected, she esteemed, she was grateful to him, she felt a real interest in his welfare; and she only wanted to

> know how far she wished that welfare to depend upon herself, and how far it would be for the happiness of both that she should employ the power, which her fancy told her she still possessed, of bringing on her the renewal of his addresses.

But then comes a bombshell – Elizabeth receives a letter from Jane saying that Lydia has run off with Wickham, and that nobody can find them. If they are living together and aren't married, the whole family will be disgraced. Elizabeth goes home, and a letter eventually comes from Mr Gardiner saying that the couple have been found, and that Wickham has agreed to marry Lydia in exchange for an annual income. Lydia and Wickham return briefly to Longbourn as a married couple, and Lydia lets it slip that Darcy paid Wickham off and saved the family's reputation.

Resolution

By this point, we are desperate for a happy-ever-after resolution – especially after all those trials and tribulations. And this is exactly what Jane Austen signposts in the falling action and delivers to us in the resolution. It all works out beautifully in the end. Bingley returns to Netherfield and proposes to Jane. That same night Lady Catherine visits Elizabeth and says she has heard that Darcy is planning to marry her. She tries to bully Elizabeth into promising that she won't marry him because she is so far beneath him on the social scale, but Elizabeth refuses. As she says:

> 'I am only resolved to act in that manner, which will, in my own opinion, constitute my happiness, without reference to you, or to any person so wholly unconnected with me.'

Darcy obviously hears about this exchange and it makes him think that Elizabeth's feelings towards him could have changed. Several days later, he visits the Bennets with Bingley and goes for a walk with Elizabeth. During the walk, he proposes and tells her that he knew she would have told his aunt if she definitely didn't want to marry him:

> ‘It taught me to hope,’ said he, ‘as I had scarcely ever allowed myself to hope before. I knew enough of your disposition to be certain that, had you been absolutely, irrevocably decided against me, you would have acknowledged it to Lady Catherine, frankly and openly.’

So there was a double wedding with Jane, Bingley, Elizabeth and Darcy, and they all lived happily ever after.

Narrator/voice

The narrator is the voice that is telling the story. It can either be in the first person, where someone is talking to the reader directly – for example, ‘I did this’ and ‘I said’ – or in the third person, where ‘he’, ‘she’ or ‘they’ tell the story, and it’s up to the reader to form a view of the characters.

The narrator or voice in *Pride and Prejudice* is in the third person omniscient – this means that the narrator knows and describes the thoughts and feelings of all the people in the story. But the narrator tells the story through Elizabeth’s eyes and from her point of view. She is in every chapter and in the pivotal Chapter 36 (the climax of the book after she has read Darcy’s letter) the narrator tells us about the emotional transformation she goes through as a result. The narrator tells us what people say and do, how they behave and what they think through the use of dialogue. Sometimes the narrator is very judgemental, but very funny. Here’s an example:

> Mr. Collins was not a sensible man, and the deficiency of nature had been but little assisted by education or society; the greatest part of his life having been spent under the guidance of an illiterate and miserly father; and though he belonged to one of the universities, he had merely kept the necessary terms, without forming at it any useful acquaintance. The subjection in which his father had brought him up had given him originally great humility of manner; but it was now a good deal counteracted by the self-conceit of a weak head, living in retirement, and the consequential

> feelings of early and unexpected prosperity. A fortunate chance had recommended him to Lady Catherine de Bourgh when the living of Hunsford was vacant; and the respect which he felt for her high rank, and his veneration for her as his patroness, mingling with a very good opinion of himself, of his authority as a clergyman, and his right as a rector, made him altogether a mixture of pride and obsequiousness, self-importance and humility.

Dialogue

The dialogue is the conversations that the characters have. The dialogue spoken in *Pride and Prejudice* is extremely witty and well-observed, and it is the main way that Jane Austen tells us about her characters. For example, Mrs Bennet and Lydia, her favourite, come across as being silly, shallow women. Lydia has nearly plunged the family into complete disgrace, but she has absolutely no remorse or insight into what she has done – and neither does her mother. Her main concern is that she got married first before her sisters, and she boasts about being able to find husbands for them:

> ‘Well, mamma,’ said she, when they were all returned to the breakfast room, ‘and what do you think of my husband? Is not he a charming man? I am sure my sisters must all envy me. I only hope they may have half my good luck. They must all go to Brighton. That is the place to get husbands. What a pity it is, mamma, we did not all go.’
>
> ‘Very true; and if I had my will, we should. But my dear Lydia, I don’t at all like your going such a way off. Must it be so?’

‘Oh, lord! yes;—there is nothing in that. I shall like it of all things. You and papa, and my sisters, must come down and see us. We shall be at Newcastle all the winter, and I dare say there will be some balls, and I will take care to get good partners for them all.’

‘I should like it beyond anything!’ said her mother.

‘And then when you go away, you may leave one or two of my sisters behind you; and I dare say I shall get husbands for them before the winter is over.’

Characters

Characters are the imaginary people that you write about in your book or composition. If your characters aren’t interesting and realistic, they won’t work. They also need to be contrasting to provide drama and conflict in the plot.

For example, the characters in *Pride and Prejudice* range from stupid and shallow, to witty and intelligent, to deceitful. They are complicated and fascinating and hook the reader into the story. Let’s look at the main characters in the novel, and what they are like.

Elizabeth

Elizabeth is the heroine of the novel. She is her father’s favourite, and is witty, intelligent and attractive, with a ‘fine pair of eyes’. She stands up for herself against Lady Catherine, although Catherine is far above her in social standing. She is loyal and loving. She walks three miles to take care of her sister. However, she allows herself to

be prejudiced against Darcy, and this prevents her from seeing through Wickham.

Darcy

Darcy is the hero of the novel. He is from a very old and reputable family. He is proud, and he can act in a superior and arrogant way, as if he is better than everybody else. This isn't always intentional – it's because he is shy and reserved. He is very kind and generous to those he loves and cares about (family, friends and servants). He pays off Wickham. He becomes very attracted to Elizabeth, but has to fight his pride and prejudices to admit that and propose to her.

Jane

Jane is the oldest and most beautiful of the Bennet girls. She is a very good person, and can never see the bad in anybody. She and Elizabeth are very close and support each other. She can be quiet and reserved, and Darcy misinterprets this as lack of interest.

Bingley

Bingley's money comes from his father's business – it isn't inherited like Darcy's. Bingley's personality is like Jane's – he is very easy going and charming. He isn't bothered about Jane's social standing, but he does allow Darcy to persuade him to leave her, so he doesn't seem to be very strong minded.

Wickham

Wickham is a smooth-talking liar, who spends the money Darcy gives him and then tries to get more by eloping with his sister, Georgiana. When that doesn't succeed, he elopes with Lydia Bennet, who is only sixteen. He is the opposite of Darcy, but Elizabeth is still duped by him because of her prejudice against Darcy.

Mrs Bennet

Mrs Bennet's only interest in life is getting her daughters married off. She doesn't really care about the true happiness of her daughters – only how things look – hence her reaction to Lydia's marriage to Wickham. She is shallow, lacking in sensitivity and acts inappropriately, to the embarrassment of her family – particularly Elizabeth and Jane.

Mr Bennet

Mr Bennet married the wrong person, and is now having to put up with it. He is intelligent, witty and loves reading, and goes to his library to get peace and quiet. He and Elizabeth get on very well. He wants a quiet life and isn't strict enough when he needs to be (for example, when he lets Lydia go to Brighton). He can make insensitive comments, but he loves his daughters and wants what is best for them.

Mr Collins

Mr Collins is a bit of a comic character. He is a clergyman, but doesn't act like one. He is pompous rather than humble, although he pretends to be. He doesn't appear to have genuine feelings, because he was able to propose to Jane, Elizabeth and then Charlotte in quick succession. His speech and manner are overly formal and verging on the ridiculous, and he is obsessed with Lady Catherine's favour.

Lady Catherine de Bourgh

Lady Catherine is at the top of the social ladder, and she knows it. She is a bit of a caricature of the worst characteristics of the upper classes. She's a bully who is rude and insensitive and expects people to do what she wants without question. She hates Elizabeth because she stands up to her. Unlike Darcy, Lady Catherine has no manners.

Themes

A theme is an idea that runs throughout the story. There can be more than one theme in a novel. Themes give a novel more depth – they make it about more than just a story – there are hidden meanings lying underneath.

The themes in *Pride and Prejudice* include:

- pride and prejudice (obviously)
- love and marriage
- reputation
- class and social standing

Pride

Pride is having too high an opinion of your worth or importance. Prejudice is making judgements about other people without really knowing them or knowing the facts about them. There are examples of how pride and prejudice affect characters' behaviour and actions all through the novel.

For example, Mr Darcy appears to be very proud of his social standing, and gives a bad impression to strangers:

> ... but his friend Mr. Darcy soon drew the attention of the room by his fine, tall person, handsome features, noble mien, and the report which was in general circulation within five minutes after his entrance, of his having ten thousand a year. The gentlemen pronounced him to be a fine figure of a man, the ladies declared he was much handsomer than Mr. Bingley, and he was looked at with great admiration for about half the evening, till his manners gave a disgust which turned the tide of his popularity; for he was discovered to be proud; to be above his company, and above being pleased; and not all his large estate in Derbyshire could then save him from having a most forbidding, disagreeable countenance, and being unworthy to be compared with his friend.

Lady Catherine on the other hand is deliberately proud – she is at the top of the social ladder, and she wants to make sure that everybody knows it.

> When the ladies returned to the drawing-room, there was little to be done but to hear Lady Catherine talk, which she did without any intermission till coffee came in, delivering her opinion on every subject in so decisive a manner, as proved that she was not used to have her judgement controverted. She inquired into Charlotte's domestic concerns familiarly and minutely, gave her a great deal of advice as to the management of them all; told her how everything ought to be regulated in so small a family as hers, and instructed her as to the care of her cows and her poultry. Elizabeth found that nothing was beneath this great lady's attention, which could furnish her with an occasion of dictating to others.

Prejudice

Darcy forms a prejudice against the Bennets, without really knowing them.

Elizabeth isn't normally prejudiced, but Darcy's refusal to dance with her offends her and hurts her pride. This leads her to develop a prejudice against him, and she makes everything about him from this point on fit this prejudice – that's why she is willing to believe Wickham.

Mrs Bennet's prejudice against Darcy becomes downright open and embarrassing – although she seems to forget it right away when he proposes to Elizabeth.

‘Good gracious! Lord bless me! only think! dear me! Mr. Darcy! Who would have thought it! And is it really true? Oh! my sweetest Lizzy! how rich and how great you will be! What pin-money, what jewels, what carriages you will have! Jane’s is nothing to it—nothing at all. I am so pleased—so happy. Such a charming man!—so handsome! so tall!—Oh, my dear Lizzy! pray apologise for my having disliked him so much before. I hope he will overlook it. Dear, dear Lizzy. A house in town! Every thing that is charming! Three daughters married! Ten thousand a year! Oh, Lord! What will become of me. I shall go distracted.’

This was enough to prove that her approbation need not be doubted: and Elizabeth, rejoicing that such an effusion was heard only by herself, soon went away. But before she had been three minutes in her own room, her mother followed her.

‘My dearest child,’ she cried, ‘I can think of nothing else! Ten thousand a year, and very likely more! ‘Tis as good as a Lord! And a special licence. You must and shall be married by a special licence. But my dearest love, tell me what dish Mr. Darcy is particularly fond of, that I may have it to-morrow.’

Love and marriage

The different types of love and marriage are another main theme of the book. For most women in the nineteenth century (unless they were very rich and financially independent), marriage was essential for their financial security and social standing. Charlotte Lucas is a

good example of this – her parents are too poor to support her, so she has to jump at the first chance of a decent match. Otherwise, she will be left in poverty, or will have to rely on the charity of friends or relatives – not a good position to be in. She is willing to marry Mr Collins and put up with him for the financial security, social standing and reputation he will bring her:

> ‘I see what you are feeling,’ replied Charlotte. ‘You must be surprised, very much surprised – so lately as Mr. Collins was wishing to marry you. But when you have had time to think it over, I hope you will be satisfied with what I have done. I am not romantic, you know; I never was. I ask only a comfortable home; and considering Mr. Collins’s character, connection, and situation in life, I am convinced that my chance of happiness with him is as fair as most people can boast on entering the marriage state.’

Mr Bennet married Mrs Bennet because she was beautiful – but regretted it very quickly afterwards because she is shallow and embarrassing and they have nothing in common. He now avoids her by spending a lot of time in the library. Elizabeth can see this relationship, and doesn’t want it herself.

Darcy and Elizabeth have it all – they have overcome obstacles, learned about themselves and each other and have a mutual love and respect for each other’s qualities.

Reputation

Reputation in Jane Austen's time was everything. If a member of the family lost their reputation, the rest of the family was disgraced – and that meant being outcast from 'good society'. This is why Elizabeth is devastated when she hears about Lydia eloping with Wickham – if they aren't married, it will bring disgrace on all the family, and nobody will marry any of the girls because they will be tainted with it. Lydia seems blissfully ignorant of or insensitive to this.

Class and social standing

Again, social standing was key in Austen's day – who you were and where you were on the social ladder and what people thought of you were of great importance. Elizabeth isn't as concerned as other people about reputation – she is prepared to stand up to Lady Catherine and walk to Netherfield and get muddy because she doesn't care very much what people think.

Mrs Bennet, on the other hand, is more concerned that Lydia has gotten a husband than she is about the fact that she has married a selfish, lazy liar.

A good beginning and a good end

It's important in any piece of fiction writing to have a good beginning and a good end.

A good beginning will get the reader hooked, and a good ending should provide a resolution to the story. The reader should feel that this resolution was inevitable.

The first chapter of *Pride and Prejudice* hooks the reader in immediately, and sets the tone for the whole novel with one of the

most famous and witty lines in English literature:

> It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife.

We know because of the various signposts in the climax and falling action that there is going to be a happy ending – although Austen throws in the news about Lydia and Wickham to create tension and worry us for a few pages. Everything is resolved as it should be in the ending, and we are left feeling that really, it couldn't have ended any other way.

The writing process – fiction

We have looked at all the different elements that you need to think about in fiction writing and have illustrated these with examples. Now we're going to look at the actual writing process that every writer goes through. Understanding this process should help you when you write your own compositions. This process doesn't have to be linear, where each stage is only done once. You can repeat different parts of the process and revise your work until you are happy with it.

Here's an example of a process you could use:

- **What is the story you want to tell?** What is your story about? Is it a real-life story or one that you have created yourself? Once you know this, you can work on the plot, characters, dialogue and setting.
- **Brainstorm your ideas**. People can find it very stressful if they are faced with a blank piece of paper. Don't panic. Instead, write down

all your ideas about the story/plot, your setting, characters and dialogue. What is the narrative voice – first person or third person? What sort of structure are you going to use? Are you going to tell the story from start to finish, or use flashbacks, or put it in the form of a diary?

- **Plan and develop your structure**. Write down notes under chapter headings – where does the story get to during each chapter? What is the conflict and when is it introduced? What is the climax in the story and when is it introduced? What is the resolution? How is your story going to end? Having the big picture of your story before you write it can make it easier to follow the plot and not get lost. Apparently JK Rowling, author of the Harry Potter books, wrote out the entire plot of all seven books during a long train journey.
- **Write the first draft**. Don't worry too much at this stage about getting everything perfect – you can come back to it and edit it later.
- **Revise and edit your work**. Read over your story objectively. Does the plot make sense? Does it flow? Does the dialogue sound realistic? Are the characters believable? Ask a 'critical friend' to read it over and give you their honest feedback.
- **Cut out anything you don't need**. Editing also reveals repetition and unnecessary detail.
- **Write the final draft**.

If you don't have a complete story in mind, though, this doesn't mean you can't start writing.

If you are having problems getting initial ideas, there are plenty of things you can do to spark inspiration. Don't let yourself be intimidated by an empty page: write ideas, character sketches and dialogue without worrying about where it's going to go. Once you

have a story in mind which catches your imagination you can then follow the kind of process above.

Writing exercises and prompts can be useful for coming up with ideas or just as a warm-up exercise, to get you over initial hesitancy and into the right mind-frame to write. There are many books of these available, as well as websites, including blogs which post new prompts regularly and often allow you to post your own work in reply.

Try some of the following sites:

www.creativewritingprompts.com
www.writersdigest.com/prompts
storyaday.org/category/inspiration/writing-prompts/
andrewbosley.weebly.com/the-brainstormer.html

You could also try a plot generator, which sets you a scenario to work from in your story, as here:

www.archetypewriting.com/muse/generators/plot.html.

First lines

Starting any work of fiction can be intimidating: the pressure to get the 'perfect' first line can leave you staring at a blank page, unable to get to the story itself. A good way to deal with this, as well as to spark first ideas, is to write first lines for stories – as many as possible. You don't need to do anything further with these if you don't wish to, or have any idea of what the story itself would be about. If you feel inspired to continue on with a story you have started in this way, great. If not, writing lots of first lines will still help in getting over the stumbling block you may experience between having an idea

and putting pen to paper – as well as teaching you to recognise a good first line.

So what makes a good first line? Here are some famous examples to consider:

> And after all the weather was ideal.
> *The Garden Party*, Katherine Mansfield

> A green and yellow parrot, which hung in a cage outside the door, kept repeating over and over:
> ‘Allez vous-en! Allez vous-en! Sapristi! That’s all right!’
> *The Awakening*, Kate Chopin

> I first heard of Ántonia on what seemed to me an interminable journey across the great midland plain of North America.
> *My Ántonia*, Willa Cather

> While the present century was in its teens, and on one sunshiny morning in June, there drove up to the great iron gate of Miss Pinkerton’s academy for young ladies, on Chiswick Mall, a large family coach, with two fat horses in blazing harness, driven by a fat coachman in a three-cornered hat and wig, at the rate of four miles an hour.
> *Vanity Fair*, William Makepeace Thackeray

> There was no hope for him this time: it was the third stroke.

Dubliners, James Joyce

1801. – I have just returned from a visit to my landlord – the solitary neighbour that I shall be troubled with.
Wuthering Heights, Emily Brontë

Happy families are all alike; every unhappy family is unhappy in its own way.
Anna Karenina, Leo Tolstoy

I had the story, bit by bit, from various people, and, as generally happens in such cases, each time it was a different story.
Ethan Frome, Edith Wharton

Mr. Sherlock Holmes, who was usually very late in the mornings, save upon those not infrequent occasions when he was up all night, was seated at the breakfast table.
The Hound of the Baskervilles, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle

These openings are all vastly different in what they tell us about the story to follow. Some establish the point of view of the story (first person or third person), or its form (diary entries in Brontë's case). Some establish setting. Some introduce the protagonist or a major character. (Conan Doyle even introduces some of his character and habits.)

Wharton and Cather both introduce the idea of a narrator reminiscing, looking back on completed or past events. Tolstoy and Wharton both start with a generalisation or a universal truth. Thackeray gives us a more traditional sense of a narrator beginning to tell us a story, while Mansfield gives us the sense that we've barged in upon our narrator mid-thought.

Joyce tells us very little about the story to follow, merely suggesting a sense of mood – of foreboding – while Thackeray throws in the metaphorical kitchen sink with the amount of information provided. (Thackeray here illustrates the fact that rules are made to be broken: for all that authors would usually be told not to bombard the reader with too much detail right at the beginning, here he does exactly the opposite, to great comic effect.)

So what, if anything, do they have in common? They all, in their diverse ways, hook the reader into the story – grab our attention with a character, with a thought, with dialogue or an engaging image (both in the case of Chopin's talking parrot), with a vividly introduced setting or mood, or with the direct appeal of a first-person narrator. They all throw us right into things rather than losing our attention with introductory build-up before the story begins. Even Thackeray's sentence, with its more traditional format where the narrative voice is consciously introducing us to a story, puts us straight into the events of the novel, with the action of the coach drawing up on the morning described. This is beginning *in medias res* (in the middle of things) and is key to grabbing your reader's attention.

Now try writing ten of your own opening sentences.

Setting the scene

This time, let's look at some examples of writers introducing setting:

> The studio was filled with the rich odour of roses, and when the light summer wind stirred amidst the trees of the garden, there came through the open door the heavy scent of the lilac, or the more delicate perfume of the pink-flowering thorn.
> *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, Oscar Wilde

> The particular Jelly-bean patch which produced the protagonist of this history lies somewhere between the two —a little city of forty thousand that has dozed sleepily for forty thousand years in southern Georgia, occasionally stirring in its slumbers and muttering something about a war that took place sometime, somewhere, and that everyone else has forgotten long ago.
> *The Jelly-Bean*, F Scott Fitzgerald

> Wuthering Heights is the name of Mr. Heathcliff's dwelling. 'Wuthering' being a significant provincial adjective, descriptive of the atmospheric tumult to which its station is exposed in stormy weather. Pure, bracing ventilation they must have up there at all times, indeed: one may guess the power of the north wind blowing over the edge, by the excessive slant of a few stunted firs at the end of the house; and by a range of gaunt thorns all stretching their limbs one way, as if craving alms of the sun. Happily, the

> architect had foresight to build it strong: the narrow windows are deeply set in the wall, and the corners defended with large jutting stones.
> *Wuthering Heights*, Emily Brontë

> Take a mining townlet like Woodhouse, with a population of ten thousand people, and three generations behind it. This space of three generations argues a certain well-established society. The old 'County' has fled from the sight of so much disembowelled coal, to flourish on mineral rights in regions still idyllic. Remains one great and inaccessible magnate, the local coal owner: three generations old, and clambering on the bottom step of the 'County', kicking off the mass below. Rule him out.
> *The Lost Girl*, DH Lawrence

These examples again show the diverse options open to writers. Some introduce the physical setting, relying on the senses, while some introduce the personality or structure of the society described. All create a mood which informs how we picture the setting described (compare the sensual tranquillity of Wilde's studio to the aged backwardness of Fitzgerald's Jelly-bean patch; the barren desolation of Brontë's tortured landscape and precarious house to the anxious, unsettled society suggested in Lawrence's townlet).

Use one (or all) of these four examples as your inspiration to introduce a setting of your own. Write a description of a setting dominated by a sense other than sight (as Wilde does); use personification (describing it as if it were a person) to introduce a

setting's personality (as Fitzgerald does); use the eyes of a character who is a newcomer, seeing the place, as we are, for the first time (as Brontë does); or speak directly to your reader to create an unusual hook (as Lawrence does).

Prompts

Some of the books and websites mentioned above use prompts, rather than the kinds of exercises we have just done, as writers' tools. These can be small snippets (a photograph, a line of poetry, a quote, a theme) that you can use as inspiration to write your own piece – a kind of mental stepping stone. They can also be short story summaries which contain more detail (the plot outline, a character or event to be included, other themes). It is remarkable just how vastly different writers' finished pieces can be which use the same line or event as a leaping-off point. Using this kind of prompt helps you to focus on one thing in order to begin writing, but it doesn't limit creativity. The possibilities for your unique creation are still endless.

NON-FICTION

Non-fiction covers a very wide range, from biographies to scientific and technical writing to dictionaries.

In this section, we are going to examine some of the different types of non-fiction writing – including biographies, travel, cookery, technical and reference materials – and what they involve.

We will then look at some of the things you need to think about when you are composing your own non-fiction writing.

Biographies

A biography presents the facts about the subject's life. (The subject is the person who is being written about. He or she is or was usually famous for some reason.) It usually interprets these facts to explain and help the reader to understand the individual's feelings and motivations, and the effect they have had on local, national or international events or on history.

Biographies tend to have the following characteristics:

- start with birth or early life and covers birth to present day or death
- look at the subject's formative years to understand and explore early influences on their later life
- put the subject's life in a historical and/or cultural context
- use direct quotes from the subject and those who knew them
- use pictures, maps, photographs or other documents
- reflect the biographer's point of view, agenda or purpose in reporting the subject's life

- involve a lot of research including the person's actions and words, interviews with friends, relatives and critics, and secondary sources such as books, magazines and journals.

Bookshelves, libraries and websites are full of biographies about famous people from every walk of life such as politicians, actors, royalty, explorers, writers, artists, scientists, and so on.

Examples from two different biographies

You might want to write a short biography about a colleague or somebody who is taking part in your amateur dramatic society, for example. The same principles apply to each. You will need to carry out research using interviews as well as primary and secondary sources.

Here is an example of the opening section of a biography about James Joyce, author of *Ulysses*, by David Pritchard.

> James Joyce was not a man to underestimate his own importance, and if asked what great event took place in 1882 he might well have replied that he was born in that year. Yet 1882 was notable in Irish history for a number of other reasons. Politically speaking its most consequential event was the signing of the 'Kilmainham Treaty' between Charles Stewart Parnell, leader of the Irish Home Rule Party, and the English Prime Minister William Ewart Gladstone. The deal resulted in a series of land reforms that changed the face of rural Ireland and in time broke up the great estates of the Anglo-Irish ascendancy. Political

> unrest in Ireland that year resulted in two notable terrorist attacks – the Phoenix Park murders of Lord Lieutenant Cavendish and Secretary Burke, and the Maamtrasna massacre of a family of five peasants on the present borders of Counties Mayo and Galway. The second crime was followed by the conviction and hanging of three men, and the imprisonment of several others. By the purest of coincidences most of those involved in the mass murder – victims, perpetrators and witnesses – bore the surname Joyce.
>
> Extract taken from *James Joyce*, by David Pritchard (Geddes & Grosset, 2001)

The biographer, David Pritchard, immediately puts Joyce's birth in a historical context, grounding his subject within the story of his native land. By linking Joyce's birth with these momentous historical events, Pritchard establishes from the off his subject's identity as an Irish author, as well as giving us an indirect sense of the author's birth being a momentous event in itself. In his comment on Joyce's perspective on this, Pritchard also gives us an immediate sense of his subject's personality. The close of this first paragraph, while fortuitous, is used to neatly link the historical events described to the book's subject, bringing us back in to focus specifically on Joyce.

Quotes from letters and interviews, with the subject and with those who knew them, secondary sources, documents and photographs all help to make a biography engaging and authoritative. The amount of research and time that goes into writing

any such biography of a major figure is considerable, but even if you won't ever have to write anything that long, reading these biographies, and analysing the techniques their authors have used, is of huge use for any biography writing you may do.

Here is another example, from a biography of Robert Burns, the famous 18th-century Scottish poet who wrote 'To a Mouse'.

This extract describes early influences on the poet's life, and uses a direct quote from one of his letters to describe the effect of his first romance.

> Before he was sixteen years old, Robert had worked his way through a large and very varied amount of literature. John Murdoch's teaching and Robert's own aptitude had made him an excellent English scholar. Wherever he went he carried with him a book of songs:
>
> 'I pored over them, driving my cart or walking to labour, song by song, verse by verse, carefully noting the true, tender or sublime from affectation and fustian.'
>
> At the age of fifteen, Robert Burns 'committed the sin of Rhyme' – he fell in love and wrote his first song, 'Handsome Nell' [*see page 209*]:
>
> O once I lov'd a bonnie lass,
> An aye I love her still,
> An' whilst that virtue warms my breast
> I'll love my handsome Nell.
>
> Robert wrote:

‘You know your country custom of coupling a man and woman together as partners in the labours of Harvest. In my fifteenth autumn my partner was a bewitching creature who just counted an autumn less. My scarcity of English denies me the power of doing her justice in that language, but you know the Scotch idiom. She was a bonnie, sweet, sonsie lass. In short, she altogether unwittingly to herself, initiated me in a certain delicious Passion, which in spite of acid Disappointment, gin-horse Prudence, and bookworm Philosophy, I hold to be the first of human joys, our dearest pleasure here below . . . I did not know well myself, why I liked so much to loiter behind with her, when returning in the evening from our labours; why the tones of her voice made my heartstrings thrill like an Eolian harp; and particularly, why my pulse beat such a furious ratann when I looked and fingered over her hand, to pick out the nettle-stings and thistles . . . Thus with me began Love and Poesy.’

Extract taken from *Robert Burns in Your Pocket*, pp.15–17 (Waverley Books, 2009)

Travel

There are two main types of travel writing – travel articles and travel guides.

Travel articles

Travel articles give the reader a clear, strong impression of a place. As a travel writer, your role is to report on the main features of a destination, provide essential information for travellers, but also to give your unique slant on the sights, sounds and experiences they will have there.

Travel writers use many different styles and techniques, but the best travel articles usually have the following characteristics:

- good, practical information that is useful to the reader
- use of the writer's personal experiences, anecdotes and quotations to bring the article to life
- strong sense of the writer's personality – this gives the article a unique style
- a 'show, not tell' approach to the places, people and things they are writing about – showing creates a mental picture for the reader, and this makes them more engaged with the article
- a clear, concise writing style (in plain English)
- a central theme – the 'big picture' – that the writer works their impressions and facts around, and that acts as a structure for the piece.

Examples of a travel article

Now let's look at an example of a travel article, by journalist Garry Fraser in *The Scots Magazine*. It describes a trip around Lanarkshire, in the central lowlands of Scotland. It was historically closely linked with the coal industry, and has attractions today which bear witness to this part of its past.

When you read this extract, think about how the writer uses his experiences and anecdotes to bring the article to life. His writing is

clear and concise, with touches of humour, and his central theme is about discovering somewhere usually overlooked. The title is ‘History, heritage and haute cuisine’.

> From there to Summerlee Museum, Coatbridge, it’s only a 20-minute drive – 40 minutes with my sense of direction, but this was a place I could not afford to miss. Through a precise guided tour by the museum’s Tommy Gallacher, I was given a deep insight into the history and heritage of coal mining and steel manufacturing, even stepping deep underground to a reincarnated coal seam . . .
>
> The day was now ended and all that was left for me was to join the happy throng on the M74 and head south. Destination, Biggar – or, at least, a wee village just to the northeast of it called Skirling. There I was rewarded for my day’s toil with accommodation in Skirling House, under the caring auspices of Bob and Isobel Hunter. A quick check on the internet only hinted at the attractions of this house, and I would go back like a shot. In fact, both places I stayed, here and in Motherwell, deserve a five-star rating with the Hunters’ abode winning by a short head for its informality and excellent service. It was as if you were family who had just popped over to visit, and a Canadian couple and I were given service one would expect from a top-of-the-range city hotel.
>
> The lounge displays a 16th-century ceiling from Florence with 126 carved roses, of which no two are the same. I would still be there if I was to attempt to prove this

> an idle boast, but a bottle of Greenmantle Ale in front of a roaring fire soon settled me. Okay, the beer comes from the Broughton brewery which is in Peeblesshire and not from Lanarkshire, but who's quibbling? The county boundary is only a quarter of a mile away.
> Extract taken from *The Scots Magazine*, November 2012.

Here's another example, this time from a newspaper travel article. The author, Andrew Cawley, has travelled around the isles of Lewis and Harris and Skye, in the Outer Hebrides of Scotland, in a 1965 Volkswagen campervan, christened Zebedee.

The space restrictions of a small newspaper article create here punchier, more pared down sentences, making the use of clear, concise writing all the more important. The voice used, though, is still chatty and conversational and anecdotes and humour create a sense of the writer's personality. And there is still a wider theme, used to frame the article – appreciating what we have at home, rather than holidaying abroad. The title is 'We fell in love with Zebedee'.

> It's about going back to basics. With its four gears, you don't go much faster than 50mph, but when you're meandering your way through magnificent scenery and breathtaking natural beauty, what's the rush? Got-to-be-there-NOW cars will overtake, but hey, let them! And it's guaranteed that when they do overtake, they will always take a long, envious look . . .

This part of the Isle is dominated by the desolate expanse of the Black Moor, a vast area of peat bog broken up only by scattered gleaming lochans. The landscape is rugged and weather beaten. Immediately your imagination brings you to wonder what life for islanders was like centuries ago when living was harsh.

The Arnol "Blackhouse" gives a fascinating insight into such traditional times. This perfectly-preserved combined byre, barn and home, with its turf roof and peat-smoke filled walls, gives an evocative glimpse into ancient island life . . .

And this, for me, was what made these islands so special – they are simply so quiet and tranquil. It was easy to relax and forget about all the stress of our modern lives. And there's something just so satisfyingly simple about being able to park up by the beach, cook some food on the BBQ, and sit and watch the sun go down.

When you have the opportunity to experience places like this then for a moment at least nothing else matters.

Extract taken from *The Sunday Post Travel and Homes*, January 13, 2013.

Example of literary travel writing

Despite its differing length and purpose, looking at longer travel literature can be helpful for those who wish to write travel articles. While on a much larger scale, these works contain many of the features of a good article: a strong sense of the place and the people and of the writer's personality, evocative description and a wider or

over-arching theme which the writer is led into considering by their surroundings and experiences. In an article, however, this theme or idea will not be discussed at length. The focus of the piece, and most of its words, will be on the place visited – which is what readers want to hear about.

Robert Louis Stevenson's *Travels with a Donkey in the Cévennes* is a classic of travel literature. It recounts Stevenson's 12-day, 120-mile hike through the remote, mountainous region of the Cévennes in southern France, aided by his very difficult donkey, Modestine. In this extract, Stevenson has been taught by a local that he needs to use the stick against Modestine, as well as the call 'Proot!', in order to spur her on: a cruelty he is having trouble with. Stevenson's problems with the donkey create some of the wonderful humour which runs through the book.

> In this pleasant humour I came down the hill to where Goudet stands in a green end of a valley, with Château Beaufort opposite upon a rocky steep, and the stream, as clear as crystal, lying in a deep pool between them. Above and below, you may hear it wimpling over the stones, an amiable stripling of a river, which it seems absurd to call the Loire. On all sides, Goudet is shut in by mountains; rocky footpaths, practicable at best for donkeys, join it to the outer world of France; and the men and women drink and swear, in their green corner, or look up at the snow-clad peaks in winter from the threshold of their homes, in an isolation, you would think, like that of Homer's Cyclops. But it is not so; the postman reaches Goudet with the letter-

bag; the aspiring youth of Goudet are within a day's walk of the railway at Le Puy; and here in the inn you may find an engraved portrait of the host's nephew, Régis Senac, 'Professor of Fencing and Champion of the two Americas,' a distinction gained by him, along with the sum of five hundred dollars, at Tammany Hall, New York, on the 10th April 1876.

I hurried over my midday meal, and was early forth again. But, alas, as we climbed the interminable hill upon the other side, 'Proot!' seemed to have lost its virtue. I prooted like a lion, I prooted mellifluously like a sucking-dove; but Modestine would be neither softened nor intimidated. She held doggedly to her pace; nothing but a blow would move her, and that only for a second. I must follow at her heels, incessantly belabouring. A moment's pause in this ignoble toil, and she relapsed into her own private gait. I think I never heard of any one in as mean a situation. I must reach the lake of Bouchet, where I meant to camp, before sundown, and, to have even a hope of this, I must instantly maltreat this uncomplaining animal. The sound of my own blows sickened me. Once, when I looked at her, she had a faint resemblance to a lady of my acquaintance who formerly loaded me with kindness; and this increased my horror of my cruelty.

The full text of this book is available at:
http://www.gutenberg.org/ebooks/535

Travel guides

Writing a travel guide is quite different to writing a travel article. Guides are aimed at tourists or travellers, and their purpose is to provide lots of facts and information about a location or tourist destination.

Many travel guides are published online as travel websites or online guides, rather than in hard copy book format.

There are many different types of travel guides. For example, there are guides that focus on:

- adventure or activity holidays
- budget holidays
- holidays built around particular interests such as music, art or food.

However, most guide books are meant to be used by the traveller while they are travelling, and contain the following information:

- best time to visit
- history and culture
- maps
- phone numbers, websites, addresses, prices and reviews of hotels and other types of accommodation and places to eat
- entertainment
- places to shop
- key tourist attractions.

It goes without saying that guides have to be written in clear, concise English, and that the facts and figures have to be correct at the time of publication.

Example of a travel guide

Here's an extract from a 'Lonely Planet' travel guide on Venice and the Veneto. The author, Alison Bing, introduces Venice and provides information on arrival and how to get around the city:

ARRIVING IN VENICE

Marco Polo Airport (VCE). Located on the mainland 12km from Venice, east of Mestre. Alilaguna operates ferry service (€13) to Venice from the airport ferry dock (an eight-minute walk from the terminal); expect it to take 45 to 90 minutes to reach most destinations. Water taxis to Venice from airport docks cost €90 to €100. ATVO buses (€5) depart from the airport every 30 minutes from 8am to midnight, and reach Venice's Piazzale Roma within an hour.

Piazzale Roma

This car park is the only point within central Venice accessible by car or bus. *Vaporetto* (water-bus) lines to destinations throughout the city depart from Piazzale Roma docks.

Stazione Santa Lucia

Venice's train station. *Vaporetto* lines depart from Ferrovia (Station) docks.

Stazione Venezia Mestre

Mestre's mainland train station; transfer here to Stazione Santa Lucia.

For much more on **arrival**, *see p 250*.

GETTING AROUND

Vaporetto

Slow and scenic, the vaporetto is Venice's main public transport. Single rides cost €6.50; for frequent use, get a timed pass for unlimited travel within a set period (12/24/36/48/72 hour passes cost €16/18/23/28/33).

Tickets, passes and maps are available at dockside Hello-Venezia ticket booths and www.hellovenezia.com.

Extract taken from *Venice and the Veneto (Lonely Planet City Guides)*, by Alison Bing (Lonely Planet Publications, 2012)

Cookery

The shelves of bookshops are full of the latest celebrity cookery books, and they often have websites where you can access their recipes. But you don't have to be a celebrity to write a cookery book or publish your own recipes. Lots of ordinary people love to cook and have tried and tested recipes of their own or special recipes that have been passed down to them that they would like to share.

You might want to produce a collection of your own recipes for a family celebration, or you could collect other people's recipes and publish them for charity, or for a special local event. Whatever the case, you need to think about the following:

Theme

Most cookery books are organised around a theme. For example, in many books recipes are organised into starters, main courses,

salads and vegetables and desserts. Some books choose a single theme such as fish or seafood dishes, or cooking for a dinner party. Once you have decided what your theme is, the rest will fall into place.

Structure

Recipes usually have a consistent structure, like the following, so the reader knows what to expect:

- title of dish
- how many it serves
- brief description of dish
- ingredients (in order of their appearance in the method)
- method

Here are two different examples:

Two examples of recipe structure

Tomato and Lentil Soup

(serves 4)

This is a hearty and healthy soup, packed full of vitamin C. The lentils give it a satisfying texture. Delicious!

Ingredients

1 tablespoon of olive oil

1 x medium onion, finely chopped

2 x 400g tins of Italian chopped tomatoes

four cans of water (from empty tins of tomatoes)

one vegetable stock cube

tablespoon of tomato purée

100g of rinsed, no-soak red lentils

Method

- Heat the oil in a medium-sized saucepan.
- Add the onion to the olive oil and fry gently for five minutes, until transparent.
- Now add the two tins of tomatoes, and stir for a further two minutes.
- Add four cans of water (using one of the empty cans of tomatoes).
- Add the stock cube and tomato puree.
- Add the rinsed lentils.
- Bring to the boil, then reduce to a simmer.
- Cook for 20 minutes, then purée and serve.

Sue’s Splendid Spaghetti Bolognese

(serves 4)

The title speaks for itself. Cook and enjoy with a glass of Italian red, and feel the sun come out.

Ingredients

1 × large onion, finely chopped

1 tbsp of olive oil

2 × cloves garlic, finely chopped

1kg steak mince

2 tsp dried oregano

2 × tins of chopped tomatoes

350ml red wine

beef stock cube

bouquet garni sachet

500g spaghetti (fresh is best)

Method

- Heat the olive oil in a large saucepan.
- Add the onion and garlic and fry gently for five minutes, until transparent.
- Add the mince, and stir until browned.
- Next, add the dried oregano, and stir into the mince.
- Now add the two tins of tomatoes, and stir well.
- Next, add the red wine and the beef stock cube and stir well. Add the bouquet garni sachet.
- Bring the sauce to the boil, then allow to simmer with the lid on for 30 minutes.
- Prepare a large pan of salted water, and cook the spaghetti 5 minutes before the sauce is ready.
- Serve with green salad, crusty bread and parmesan cheese.

Make sure that you treat measurements consistently – for example, don't mix up imperial and metric measures. And when writing your recipes use either 50 grams or 50g, but not a mixture of both.

Also, a word of warning – ingredients aren't covered by copyright, but the words that are used to describe the method are. So don't plagiarise somebody else's words – use your own.

Photographs

'A picture paints a thousand words.' Successful recipe books all use good photographs to help the reader visualise the finished product, and to make the dish look appetising and appealing. For complicated recipes, involving techniques readers may be unfamiliar with,

photographs (or diagrams, if you're of an artistic bent) can also be useful. Step-by-step photos are extremely effective for clarifying and simplifying a technique or entire recipe which would otherwise require a dense, hard-to-follow explanation.

Either have a go at taking your own photographs, or ask a professional to take them. Remember that copyright rules also apply to photographs, so don't use somebody else's without getting their permission.

Writing recipes

Writing recipes – especially more complicated or elaborate ones – shares some features in common with technical writing (discussed below). Instructions need to be clear, concise and unambiguous: remember, the reader has to not only understand exactly what you're saying, but also to be able to replicate it themselves. Follow plain English rules.

After writing out a recipe, it helps, rather than just reading it over, to actually go through making the recipe using your instructions, as if making it for the first time. Are any wordings confusing? Are all the techniques involved described as clearly as possible? By doing this, any problems should present themselves more easily. Even better would be to do a trial run of the recipe with a volunteer. Getting someone who hasn't seen the recipe before and who hasn't made the dish before to make it using your recipe is the best test of the effectiveness of your writing. Get feedback from them, and adjust accordingly. This is always easier than trying to objectively assess your own words, describing a recipe you are familiar with.

Example of recipe writing

On below there is an example of recipe writing with the use of step-by-step photos, from a book about making macarons, by Jill Colonna.

Macarons, a French delicacy, have a reputation for being complicated to make, and difficult to make well. In writing a recipe book based on the premise that even amateur bakers can make macarons successfully, the author therefore has to be especially skilful in writing her recipes, and careful to follow these rules.

The recipes must be as clear and precise as possible, without being over-complex and putting non-expert readers off. Readers have to be able to thoroughly understand each step in the recipe, while also being confident that they are able to do it.

To avoid the reader feeling overwhelmed with information, Jill breaks down each step into a separate section, along with a photo. This helps not only to make the recipe clearer, but also stops it looking intimidating.

Some tips are presented separately so as not to interrupt the logical sequence of the recipe's steps and to keep directions succinct.

Unfamiliar and foreign terms are used (especially appropriate for a book about a foreign delicacy, assuring readers that they are learning an authentic recipe as well as being interesting), but are translated.

Introductions and other content

You may also wish to include other content besides recipes in your book. Recipe books are not just instructions; they can inspire the

reader, give them the thrill of discovering a foreign culture, make them nostalgic or give them a real sense of the life and personality of the author or group who compiled them.

Think about what you are trying to achieve in your recipe book. What tone do you wish to create? While the recipe instructions themselves are succinct and to the point, introductions, to the book and to individual chapters and recipes, commentaries and fact boxes can all be used to create a sense of personality and individuality, as well as to provide information. On the next page is an extract from the introduction to *Mad About Macarons* by Jill Colonna (Waverley Books, 2010).

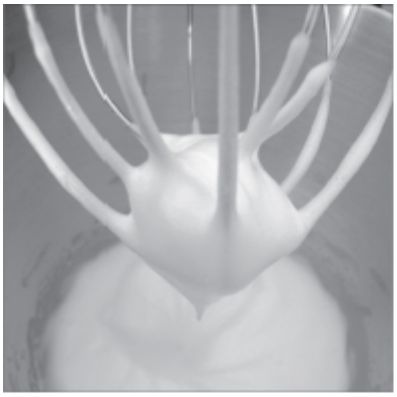

1 Line your three flat baking sheets with perfectly flat greaseproof paper and set aside.

2 Whisk the egg whites (at room temperature) to glossy firm peaks adding the caster sugar gradually. (Tip: ensure the bowl and whisk are perfectly clean. Any trace of fat, yolk or soap will affect the success.)
If making coloured macarons, then add a dash of colouring (I prefer to use powdered colours or pastes, as less is needed) towards the end of mixing.

EGG TIPS

* To easily separate egg whites from yolks: crack the egg in the middle on the edge of a bowl or another hard surface. With clean hands, over a bowl, gently drop the egg into the palm of one hand, letting the white drip through your fingers into the bowl, leaving the yolk in the palm of your hand.
No need to waste the yolks: see page 121.

* When making macarons (or meringues) you get the best results from egg whites that have been separated and aged for four to five days in the refrigerator. For 150g of egg white you'll need approximately 5 eggs. Store in a perfectly clean airtight container such as a glass jar.
Take them out of the fridge 2 hours before use to bring to room temperature.

3 Sift the ground almonds with the icing sugar using a medium sieve. Discard any large, coarse pieces of ground almonds.
(Tip: if there are a lot of large pieces to discard, weigh them and replace them in the mixture with more ground almonds to make sure you still have the 180g specified.)

For chocolate macarons (as I am making here) also sift in the 10g of cocoa at this point.

Extract from *Mad About Macarons* by Jill Colonna (Waverley Books, 2010).

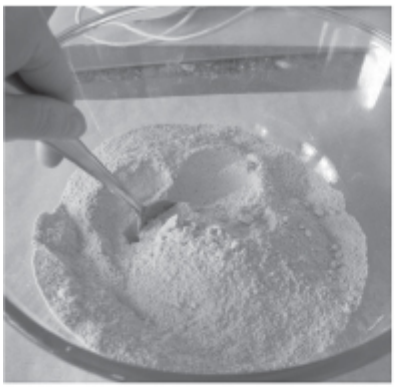

4 Mix well to incorporate icing sugar and almonds (and cocoa powder if you are using it).

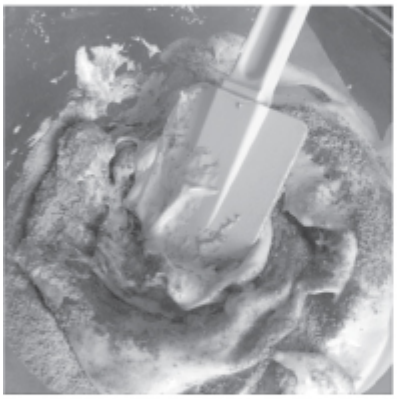

5 Incorporate the beaten egg whites into the dry ingredients using a large spatula. Mix well.

(Note that there is no need to "fold" the mixture.)

6 Then work on the mixture (***macaronnage***) using a plastic scraper (***corne en plastique***). Press down well with the scraper, going back and forward, to press out the oxygen from the whites. Do this for no more than 5 minutes until you have a smooth mixture.

(It helps if your bowl is flat in the middle.)

26

The author talks about her own background and first encounter with macarons. By telling us about her history she gives us a sense of why she is qualified to write a book about macarons.

We learn that she has lived in France for twenty years, that she has long been passionate about French baking and that the macaron, for her, was an immediate love affair.

This also individualises the book: we get a real sense of the author's own voice, and who she is. On top of this, her story of her

first discovery of French pâtisseries really sets the scene for the book.

We are given an insight into the culture surrounding macarons, and into French culture in general, and a sense of atmosphere is created. This gets the reader into the right frame of mind, leaving them enthused and eager to get started on the recipes!

Discovering the Macaron

AND DISCOVERING I COULD MAKE MY OWN

When I came to live in France nearly 20 years ago I didn't have a sweet tooth. Dessert was just an apple and some cheese. But the beckoning Parisian pâtisseries had me quickly lured in by their sophisticated window displays and I was converted. How can you resist a perfectly presented delicacy called *un mille feuille* (a thousand leaves), crammed with fragrant vanilla custard cream between flaky, toasted layers of pastry under an artistic icing?

Suddenly I felt so far away from our local baker in Edinburgh who produced something similar, but called it a *mayo fayo* with a posh accent. I wanted to practise this new mouthful, repeating "un mille feuille, s'il vous plaît" in so many pâtisseries until I discovered the best cakes in our Parisian *arrondissement* and until I was no longer snootily corrected for my atrocious French accent. There was so much to learn.

After tasting my way through the pâtisserie classics using my student lunch money, it was finally a relief to be a working girl, working in Paris, in a château, in a chic part of town.

Occasionally I could indulge in the opulence of a *salon de thé* (tea salon), drinking tea from a porcelain cup. It was fascinating: like having afternoon tea in a grand hotel's palm court but without the piano or the sandwiches. The women were so stylish and slim! French women don't eat between meals. They are so strict at sticking to mealtimes. I had a friend who if she missed lunch was so disciplined that she would not eat until her tea and gâteau at 4 o'clock. They eat well and they stay slim.

Ten years ago, macarons were not in most pâtisseries as they are now in Paris. It was in Paris that I discovered the macaron. It was during a lunch break with the girls at the salon de thé on the top floor of a seriously classy ladies' department store in the 16th arrondissement. The macaron was on all the elegant ladies' plates like a fashion accessory.

It was love at first sight: they were perfection on a porcelain plate, so airy and delicate that you didn't feel like you'd have to play at dress sizes if you became hooked, yet they were just big enough to savour and appreciate their sweet voluptuous perfumed centre with a refreshing cuppa.

They looked so perfect and dainty and certainly not something you could obviously make at home. That was for the professionals, I thought.

Technical writing

Technical writers communicate technical, scientific, legal, mechanical or business information to other people who might or might not be familiar with these fields. If you have ever successfully assembled a

piece of furniture, or installed a DVD player, then you will have read and (hopefully!) understood technical writing. Technical writers are currently in high demand to explain, review and promote the new technological products that are constantly being developed and produced. There are three main types of technical writing:

- **end-user documents** – where the writer explains technical information to non-technical people in a way that is easy to understand and follow

- **traditional technical writing** – for example, in engineering and science, written specifically for an audience that is already familiar with the field

- **technological marketing material –** as in fliers and promotional leaflets that persuade people to buy a technological product or service.

First, we will explore the main characteristics of all of these types of technical writing. We will then look in more detail at what each of these types of writing involves by giving examples.

Successful technical writing – no matter what the subject – has the following characteristics:

- it is clear, concise and unambiguous – a lot of technical writing is for non-technical people, and they have to be able to understand it
- it doesn't include too much technical language – unless this is appropriate for the intended audience, who already know and understand this
- it is objective

- it clearly refers to contributions already made by others in the field – this is more the case in the traditional technical writing field
- it is accurate and complete – getting it wrong or missing something out could at best be annoying but at worst be dangerous – especially if it's a safety or instruction manual.

In the pages that follow are examples of the three different types of technical writing mentioned opposite.

Get Started! The Beginner's Guide to Computers

A peripheral allows you to communicate with your computer. There are two types: those which provide **input** and enable you to tell the computer what you want it to do (such as the keyboard and mouse) and those which display **output** such as the monitor or printer.

Input

The keyboard

The keyboard is one of the main ways in which you will send instructions and data to your computer. It has several types of key. There are letter, number and punctuation keys which are similar to those of a typewriter – holding down **Shift** while keying a letter gives you a capital, while pressing **Enter** (Return) starts a new paragraph.

Along the top of the keyboard are **function keys** (F1-F12) which do different things in different programs but F1 is usually a link to the Help facility.

There are also **navigational** or **arrow keys** to help you move around the screen, a **numeric keypad** to make it easier when you are keying in figures, and various special keys such as Control, Alt and the Windows keys.

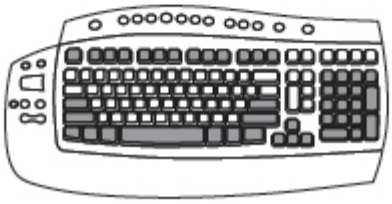

Fig. 1.2 A standard keyboard with main key types highlighted

From *The Beginner's Guide to Computers* by David McCormick (Geddes & Grosset, 2010).

End-user documents

Examples of end-user documents range from a computer manual to an instruction leaflet to help you assemble a piece of furniture.

Examples of end-user documents

The example above is taken from *The Beginner's Guide to Computers* by David McCormick (Geddes & Grosset, 2010). The guide starts with the most basic information and builds to more advanced information, ensuring that the user feels confident with every new section. Subsections are short, with each separate topic being given a new subheading, and the wider sections are clearly defined and move logically. Figures are used, as well as screenshots of programs, and major terms are put in bold on their first use to effectively signpost information.

The example that follows is taken from a software instruction manual. Software manuals need to explain things simply and in an accessible way. They need to cover all eventualities to accomodate users who may know nothing, but also have an index or contents page that enables a more experienced user to quickly reach the information they need.

Sample Model: Party

This activity gets you thinking about computer modeling and how you can use it. It also gives you insight into NetLogo itself. We encourage beginning users to start here.

At a Party

Have you ever been at a party and noticed how people cluster in groups? You may have also noticed that people don't just stay in a group. As they circulate, the groups change. If you watched these changes over time, you might notice patterns.

For example, in social settings, people may exhibit different behavior than at work or home. Individuals who are confident within their work environment may become shy and timid at a social gathering. And others who are reserved at work may be the "party starter" with friends.

These patterns can depend on the type of gathering. In some settings, people are trained to organize themselves into mixed groups; for example, party games or school-like activities. But in a non-structured atmosphere, people tend to group in a more random manner.

Is there any type of pattern to this kind of grouping?

Let's take a closer look at this question by using the computer to model human behavior at a party. NetLogo's "Party" model looks specifically at the question of grouping by gender at parties: why do groups tend to form that are mostly men, or mostly women?

Let's use NetLogo to explore this question.

What to do:

1. Start NetLogo.
2. Choose "Models Library" from the File menu.

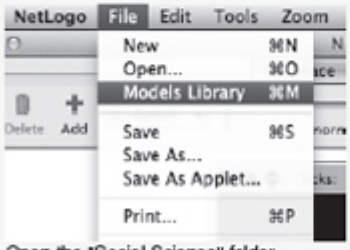

3. Open the "Social Science" folder.
4. Click on the model called "Party".
5. Press the "open" button.
6. Press the "setup" button.

In the view of the model, you will see pink and blue groups with numbers:

Sample Model: Party 21

Extract from the *NetLogo* manual by U Wilensky (Northwestern University, Evanston, IL.)

Software manuals – and instruction manuals in general – are therefore a difficult thing to produce. When it is done correctly we readers will not even notice. However, when you encounter a bad instruction manual you know it. Your frustration levels are a big clue!

The sample we've included is from a manual for a piece of software called NetLogo. (Wilensky, U [1999]. http://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo/. Center for Connected Learning and Computer-Based Modeling, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL.)

The end user is given an introductory overview and examples to try to help explain in simple terms what the software does and why it does it that way.

Traditional technical writing

Examples of traditional technical writing are also wide ranging. For example, they could include an article that has been written and published in a medical journal such as *The Lancet* or a paper published in an engineering journal about an innovative system or piece of product design.

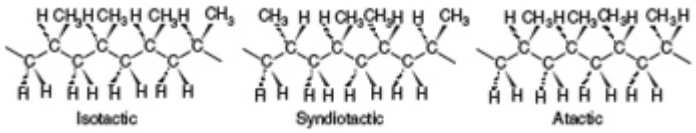

Figure 2.3 *Three tactic forms of polypropylene.*

radical initiated polymerisation this is difficult. However in the 1950s Zeigler and Natta discovered that it was possible to initiate the polymerisation of propylene using solid state catalysts. The catalysts created using aluminium trialkyl and titanium tetrachloride produced a polymer in which chiral control had been achieved at the reaction centre. So we now refer to the stereochemistry of the resulting polymer as its *tacticity*. If all the groups adding to the active centre give the same chirality, the polymer is termed *isotactic*. As an example we can consider polypropylene (Figure 2.3).

If the monomers add in an alternating manner, the polymer is termed *syndiotactic*. Polymers without any control of the chiral addition, which is the case for normal free radical polymerisation, are termed *atactic*. The physical properties of polymers prepared with and without stereochemical control can be very different. For example, isotactic polypropylene is a hard crystalline material and can be used to make pipes used in domestic hot water systems, whereas the syndiotactic and atactic polymers are soft tacky materials, which are used as thickening agents for lubricating oils and as components in adhesives.

2.5 Geometric isomerism

In the case of important elastomers formed by polymerisation of conjugated dienes, addition across one double bond can, by electron migration, cause movement of the second double bond. This results in either 1,2 or 1,4 addition across the four-carbon monomer (Figure 2.4).

So polybutadiene can be obtained with different physical characteristics, depending on the conditions used in its synthesis. Simple addition to the first vinyl bond leads to the 1,2 addition product. This polymer is rigid at room temperature compared with the 1,4 addition product, which is rubbery. Furthermore 1,4 addition can create either *trans* or *cis* configurations, and these can have different degrees of local order.

Extract from *Introduction to Molecular Motion in Polymers* by Richard A Pethrick, Taweechai Amornsakchai and Alistair M North [Whittles Publishing, 2011].

Example of traditional technical writing

The example above is from the book *Introduction to Molecular Motion in Polymers*. It is written specifically for an audience that understands this scientific field and its language, so if you don't

understand it all, that's not surprising. It also clearly cites other people's contributions.

The extract is taken from *Introduction to Molecular Motion in Polymers (*Richard A Pethrick, Taweechai Amornsakchai and Alistair M North [Whittles Publishing, 2011]).

Technological marketing material

You can't escape examples of technological marketing materials. They are everywhere, from TV and radio adverts to billboard posters to websites and blogs.

We are constantly bombarded with materials that are trying to persuade us to buy a certain type of computer, tablet or phone, because it has technological features that make it much better than the previous model.

Copywriters for technological marketing materials will in general try to:

- Speak directly to a target audience they (or the company) have in mind. They will keep this person in mind as they write.
- Focus on what's in it for the reader/listener/viewer – why they should want to buy the product. It doesn't matter how great or sophisticated or clever the product is if it doesn't offer something for them: solve a problem they face, or improve their life in some way.
- Be careful to talk on the right level for the person they're speaking to in their marketing copy. Technological details given have to be comprehensible for them and to be relevant to them and what they would seek in a product. Going into dense, over-complicated

explanations of the technology involved wouldn't convince a reader of how clever a product is; it would just make them stop reading.

'How to' writing

'How to' writing is slightly different to technical writing. It assumes that readers are non-experts, and it tells or instructs them how to accomplish a specific task or change certain behaviours or attitudes.

There are lots of 'how to' publications or textbooks in the business, 'self-help' and hobbies sections of bookshops, libraries and websites.

'How to' writing tends to have the following characteristics. It:

- has an informal and conversational style and tone – 'you' and 'we' rather than 'he', 'she' and 'it'
- contains hints, tips and anecdotes
- is clear, concise and accessible
- is easy to understand
- assumes no prior knowledge of the topic.

Examples of 'how to' writing

The 'For Dummies' series is a very well-known collection of 'how to' books on just about every topic you could think of – from *Cricket for Dummies* to *Statistics for Dummies* to *Baby and Toddler Sleep Solutions for Dummies*.

The books consistently stick to the same format. They have a very clear table of contents, so the reader knows immediately what the book is about. They also have frequent headings to signpost information and are written concisely in plain English. They usually

assume no prior knowledge of the subject, and they have an informal style.

On the following pages is an example of ‘how to’ writing from the book Yoga and Meditation, by Katherine Wright, published by Geddes & Grosset, 2007. It’s an introductory text with step-by-step instructions and clear and simple illustrations.

This is a piece of writing geared towards people who are not experts in yoga or meditation. It isn’t explaining any particularly complicated concepts, but it is clearly and concisely explaining to readers how to carry out the yoga moves and meditation techniques.

Examples, diagrams and figures are used in order to give readers a better understanding of processes that might be unfamiliar. Diagrams are used to illuminate the textual description. The figures are simple enough to be intelligible to nonexperts.

Paragraphs are quite short, and there are lots of headings and sub-headings, splitting the text into manageable sections.

Easy posture

Easy posture

Basically, this involves sitting cross-legged with both feet on the floor. The back should be straight but not tense and the stomach muscles relaxed. With the muscles of the lower back bearing the weight of the body and with the head, neck and trunk in line, the centre of gravity passes from the base of the spine right through the top of the head. The hands can either be resting lightly on the knees or held in the lap, either one on top of the other or clasped lightly.

Siddhasana

Sitting on the floor with the back straight, stretch the legs out in front of you. Bend the left knee and, grasping the left foot with both hands, draw it towards the body until the heel is resting against the part of the lower body that lies between

Siddhasana

the anus and genitalia. Now draw the right foot towards the body until the heel is on the pubic bone. Tuck the toes of the right foot between the calf and the thigh of the left leg. Rest the hands, palms upwards on the knees. Siddhasana is sometimes called the perfect posture.

Seven-point posture

1 If possible, try to sit with the legs crossed in the lotus position, or varja, with each foot placed sole upwards on the thigh of the opposite leg. To get into the lotus position loosen up with the exercises on pages 63–70 and then sit on the floor, legs stretched out in front of you. Now bend the right knee and, grasping the right foot with both hands, place it on top of the left thigh, heel pressing into the abdomen. Repeat the process with the left foot.

Yoga and Meditation (Geddes & Grosset, 2007)

Other ‘how to’ books show many of the same techniques. Here’s an example from a book on raising teenagers called *Surviving Teenagers* by Dr David Fong (Geddes & Grosset, 2007).

Stuck record technique

A technique that many parents find helpful when discussing things with their children is the ‘stuck record’ technique. It can often be the case in conflicts, that the actual point of the discussion gets lost in the heated argument. The stuck record technique is really a way of keeping ‘on-message’ and avoiding the debate getting too emotionally charged.

For example:

Daughter: Dad, can I borrow the car tonight to go and see Paul?
Dad: Sorry, hon, you know I need it tonight.
Daughter: But it’s really, really important that I use the car!
Dad: I’m sorry, but you know I need the car every Tuesday night.
Daughter: Couldn’t you just let me have it this once? It’s really important!
Dad: Sorry, it’s Tuesday and I need it.
Daughter: That’s just typical! You just won’t see how important this is for me, will you? You’re so selfish!
Dad: Yep, I am selfish, it is still Tuesday and I need the car.

Now Dad has to use this technique with care – if he knows for example, that he doesn’t really need the car and he’s just being mean then this technique has been misused. If, on the other hand, he has made it perfectly clear that on Tuesdays the car is off limits then this technique can be helpful. It avoids the discussion of whether Dad is selfish or not, what is typical or not and it keeps to the point about who is using the car.

Extract taken from *Surviving Teenagers* by Dr David Fong, (Geddes & Grosset, 2007)

The heading at the beginning of this extract signposts the example so it can easily be referred back to later. Language is clear, concise and informal. (Imagine the change in tone if ‘Dad’ was replaced with ‘The father’, or if the example conversation was replaced with a more prescriptive paragraph of instruction [‘the father must now’, ‘the father must not’].) The example conversation also gets the author’s point across much more clearly and economically than a lengthy description of the technique would have.

On the two following pages is another example of an accessible ‘how to’ book. In the book *Quit Smoking* by Dr David Fong (Geddes & Grosset, 2007), the author adopts a conversational tone that is informal and easy to read and understand. He also uses anecdotes from life to illustrate his points. The book is split into distinct sections, each dealing with a single topic, which is summarised in the section title. Look at the detailed table of contents on the next few pages.

In *Quit Smoking*, signposting is key to the organisation of the book. Chapters are numbered, but are also titled with a key sentence relating to that chapter’s content. This is followed by a subtitle which summarises the chapter. Subsections are also clearly titled with their subject and move in a logical progression.

There are diagrams and drawings in this book, adding to the information given by the text and also providing humour. A little humour is what’s needed for such a task as quitting smoking!

Contents

Introduction **11**

Chapter One – A Smoker's Tale **17**
A cautionary tale 17
Info points: calculating the costs of cigarettes 20
Why did you start 23
Time to stop 26
More anti smoking legislation? 28

Chapter Two – Oh, Go On Then, Just One. . . . **33**
Looks at the mechanics of drug addiction, the politics and history of smoking and what's actually in the cigarette you're smoking
Be angry! 33
Info points: smoking isn't that bad for you . . . is it? 36

Contents pages from Quit Smoking by Dr David Fong (Geddes & Grosset, 2007)

History of the evil weed 38
How dare you say I'm an addict! 41
What exactly are you smoking? 49
Smoking and pregnancy 53

Chapter Three – Taking the First Steps to Stopping 63
This chapter will start to look at stopping in earnest, how to prepare your environment for stopping and setting a stop date
Withdrawal 66
Reasons to stop 73
Tell people about it 78
Info points: can't see the FOREST for the ASH 81
Lose the props 84
Smoking and children 85
Now you know why . . . what about when? 87

Chapter Four – Using your Mind to Stop Smoking 89
Which looks at all the tricks and techniques your mind will need to stop smoking and looks at the traps and pitfalls that cigarette addiction tries to ensnare you with

How smokers shoot themselves in the foot and what we can learn-before we stop 92
Externalisation 105
Info point: You could always move to Bhutan 105
Visualisation 109
Self talk 112
Reframing 113
The pre-stopping toolbox 115

Chapter Five – Dealing With the First Day 121
Every ex-smoker had to have a first day. This chapter will get you through it.
Being an ex-smoker 128
Info point: diary of an ex-smoker, aged 32 3/4: day one 132
Dealing with pressure points in the first day 135
Top ten tips to avoid succumbing to nicotine addiction on the first day 139
Before you go to sleep 143

Support groups 188
Into the more obscure end of things . . . 189

Chapter Eight – Falling Off the Wagon 193
We all make mistakes sometimes – we've all had that "oh, just one" moment! This chapter shows you how to get back on track
Why we relapse 196
Back to the beginning – what it means to be an ex-smoker 198
Getting the psychological preparation right 200
Try again! 202

Chapter Nine – End of An Era 207
In which the author gets on his soapbox . . .

Information, Bibliography and Useful Addresses 215

The next two pages show an example of an entirely different type of 'how to' writing. This is taken from a book called *It's Not Rocket Science: Learn to Swim* (Waverley Books, 2012).

This combines many of the aspects of technical writing with those of 'how to' writing. Swimming, as a complex set of physical

movements, is a hard thing to explain clearly and logically in writing, in a way that can be not only understood but replicated by readers.

Descriptions need to be broken down as much as possible into individual steps. Language needs to be clear, concise and, crucially, unambiguous. Steps need to be listed in a logical progression. This description is aided by the use of figures (as with technical writing), as well as by the structure of the sections.

Each section deals with a separate part of the swimming stroke being described, is clearly labelled, and has relevant names for phases and movements involved in the stroke in bold.

Finally, this book – *Better English Writing* – is an example of a 'how to' text. Hopefully it will help you to understand how to write better English in all aspects of your life and work!

b) During **the pull** you should try to keep your hand fairly close to the body whether you are on your front or your back (figure 12). Your elbow will be bent and you will feel, just like climbing a rope, that you are pulling your body over the top of your hand.

Figure 12: The pull used for the crawl

c) Recovery action is the last phase of the crawl stroke. Here your elbow should be bent and your arm recovered quickly towards your front ready for re-entry. But it should be done in such a way that your recovery arm does not interfere with your other arm, which is pulling (figure 13). These principles apply on your front and on your back.

From It's Not Rocket Science: Learn to Swim (Waverley Books, 2012)

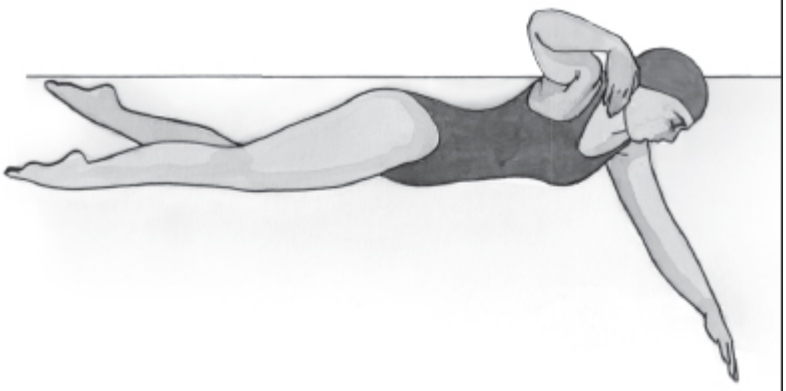

Figure 13: Recovery in the crawl

Breaststroke arm action

The breaststroke action begins in the stretch starting position with both your hands together and your arms straight. From there your hands pull backwards in a circling movement (see figure 14 on page 34). Try not to pull beyond the line of your shoulders as this will cause your head and the top part of your body to submerge. Just pull to the line of the shoulders, then your elbows bend coming in under your chest, and your arms stretch forward in recovery.

Reference works

You consult general reference materials for specific information – you don't need to read them all the way through like you would a novel.

Examples of general reference books or materials include the following:

- dictionary
- thesaurus

• encyclopedia
• atlas
• directory

All of the above help you to find or research specific information, or point you to somewhere else that you can find it.

You probably won't have to write anything for a reference book, because a lot of this type of writing is very specialised. For example, lexicography is the art of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries, and is usually undertaken by experts trained in the field. The actual writing and editing of dictionaries is called practical lexicography. The analysis or description of the vocabulary and how words link to others is known as theoretical lexicography.

However, you will probably have to use some or all of these reference materials if you are researching or writing material of your own. Search engines, such as Google, have their place but they won't always direct you to the specific information or answers you need. It's therefore useful to know what these reference materials are, how they can help you and how you can get the most out of them.

Dictionary

A dictionary is an essential tool for anybody who is writing anything. A dictionary provides definitions of words in alphabetical order. Sometimes they provide information about the pronunciation and the etymology (or origin – for example, Latin or Greek) of the word. Dictionaries come in different formats, including books, electronic devices, websites and word processing tools.

Here are six well-known dictionaries:

- *The Oxford English Dictionary*
- *The Cambridge Business English Dictionary*
- *The Chambers Dictionary*
- *Collins English Dictionary*
- *Macmillan Dictionary*
- *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*

There are also lots of online dictionaries available.

Example of how to use a dictionary

Below there is an example of how you would use a dictionary and elements in the dictionary an extract from a dictionary.

Say that you want to know what the definition of ‘psychology’ is. You’re also not completely sure how to spell it. How do you find it?

You know it begins with ‘p’, so you turn first to that section of the alphabet in the dictionary.

You think it’s followed by a ‘y’, but you quickly realise after searching for words under ‘py’ that this is wrong.

You know that there’s an ‘s’ in it somewhere, so you search next under ‘psy’, and you quickly find a number of similar-sounding words such as ‘psychiatry’ and ‘psycho’.

You read down the list of words and bingo! you arrive at ‘psychology’.

There are two definitions listed for this word:

1. the study of the human mind.
2. the mental processes of a person.

provocative /pru-voc-a-tiv/ *adj* intended to anger or annoy, arousing the emotions or passions.
provoke /pru-voke/ *vb* **1** to make angry. **2** to give rise to.
prow /prow/ *n* the front part of a ship or boat.
prowess /prow-ess/ *n* skill or ability.
prowl /prowl/ *vb* to keep moving about as if searching for something, to move quietly about looking for the chance to do mischief.
prowler /prow-ler/ *n* someone who moves stealthily, especially a thief.
proximate /prok-si-mit/ *adj* (*fml*) nearest.
proximity /prok-si-mi-tee/ *n* nearness, neighbourhood.
proxy /prok-see/ *n* **1** the right to act or vote for another. **2** someone with the right to act or vote for another.
prude /prood/ *n* a person who makes a show of being very modest and correct in behaviour. • *n* **prudery**.
prudence /proo-dense/ *n* foresight, caution.
prudent /proo-dent/ *adj* thinking carefully before acting, wise, cautious.
prudery *see* **prude**.
prudish /proo-dish/ *adj* over-correct in behaviour.
prune[1] /proon/ *n* a dried plum.
prune[2] /proon/ *vb* **1** to cut off the dead or overgrown parts of a plant. **2** to shorten by cutting out what is unnecessary.
pry /prie/ *vb* to inquire closely, especially into the secrets of others; to examine closely.
psalm /sahm/ *n* a sacred song or hymn.
psalmist /sahm-ist/ *n* a writer of sacred songs.
pseudo /soo-doe/ *adj* false, not real.
pseudonym /soo-du-nim/ *n* a name used instead of one's real name (e.g. a pen-name).
psychiatry /sie-kie-u-tree/ *n* the treatment of diseases of the mind. • *n* **psychiatrist**.
psychic /sie-kik/, **psychical** /sie-ki-kal/ *adj* **1** having to do with the mind. **2** (*of influences and forces*) that act on the mind and senses but have no physical cause. **3** (*of a person*) sensitive to these influences. **4** able to communicate with spirits. • *n* someone who claims to be psychic, a clairvoyant.
psychoanalysis /sie-ko-a-na-li-sis/ *n* treatment of mental disease by questioning problems, fears, etc, that exist in the patient's mind without his or her being aware of them. • *n* **psychoanalyst**. • *vb* **psychoanalyse**.
psychology /sie-kol-u-jee/ *n* **1** the study of the human mind. **2** the mental processes of a person. • *adj* **psychological**. • *n* **psychologist**.
psychopath /sie-ko-path/ *n* someone with a personality disorder which can lead him or her to commit often violent acts without guilt.
pterodactyl /ter-u-dac-tul/ *n* a prehistoric winged reptile known of from fossils.
pub /pub/ *n* a building in which alcoholic drinks, and sometimes food, are served; a public house.
puberty /pyoo-bur-tee/ *n* the age by which a young person has fully developed all the characteristics of his or her sex.
public /pu-blic/ *adj* **1** open to all. **2** having to do with people in general. **3** well-known. • *n* the people in general.
publication /pu-bli-cay-shun/ *n* **1** the act of publishing. **2** a published book, magazine or paper.
public house /pub-lick howss/ *see* **pub**.
public school /pub-lick skool/ *n* **1** in England, a fee-paying private school for senior pupils who often live at the school. **2** in US and Scotland, a free government-run school.
publicity /pu-bli-si-tee/ *n* **1** making something widely known, advertising. **2** the state of being well-known. • *vb* **publidze**, *also* **publicise**.
publish /pu-blish/ *vb* **1** (*fml*) to make widely known. **2** to print for selling to the public.
publisher /pu-bli-sher/ *n* someone who publishes books, etc.
puck /puck/ *n* a small hard rubber disc used instead of a ball in ice hockey.
pucker /pu-ker/ *vb* to gather into small folds or wrinkles. • *n* a fold or wrinkle.
pudding /poo-ding/ *n* a sweet soft dessert served at the end of a meal.
puddle /pu-dul/ *n* a small pool of dirty water. • *vb* to make watertight with clay.
pudgy /pu-jee/ *adj* (*inf*) short and fat.
puff /puff/ *n* **1** a short sharp breath or gust of wind. **2** a small cloud of smoke, steam, etc, blown by a puff. **3** a soft pad for powdering the skin. **4** a kind of light pastry. • *vb* **1** to breathe quickly or heavily, as when short of breath. **2** to blow in small blasts. **3** to blow up, to swell. **4** to praise too highly.
puffin /pu-fin/ *n* a diving bird with a brightly coloured beak.
puffy /pu-fee/ *adj* blown out, swollen.
pug, pug dog /pug dawg/ *n* a type of small dog with an upturned nose.
pugnacious /pug-nay-shus/ *adj* quarrelsome, fond of fighting. • *n* **pugnacity**.
pug nose /pug noze/ *n* a short upturned nose. • *adj* **pug-nosed**.
puke /pyook/ *vb* (*inf*) to bring up the contents of the stomach, to vomit.
pule /pyool/ *vb* (*fml*) to whine, to cry peevishly.

Here is one example of how a dictionary page is put together:

Elements in the Dictionary

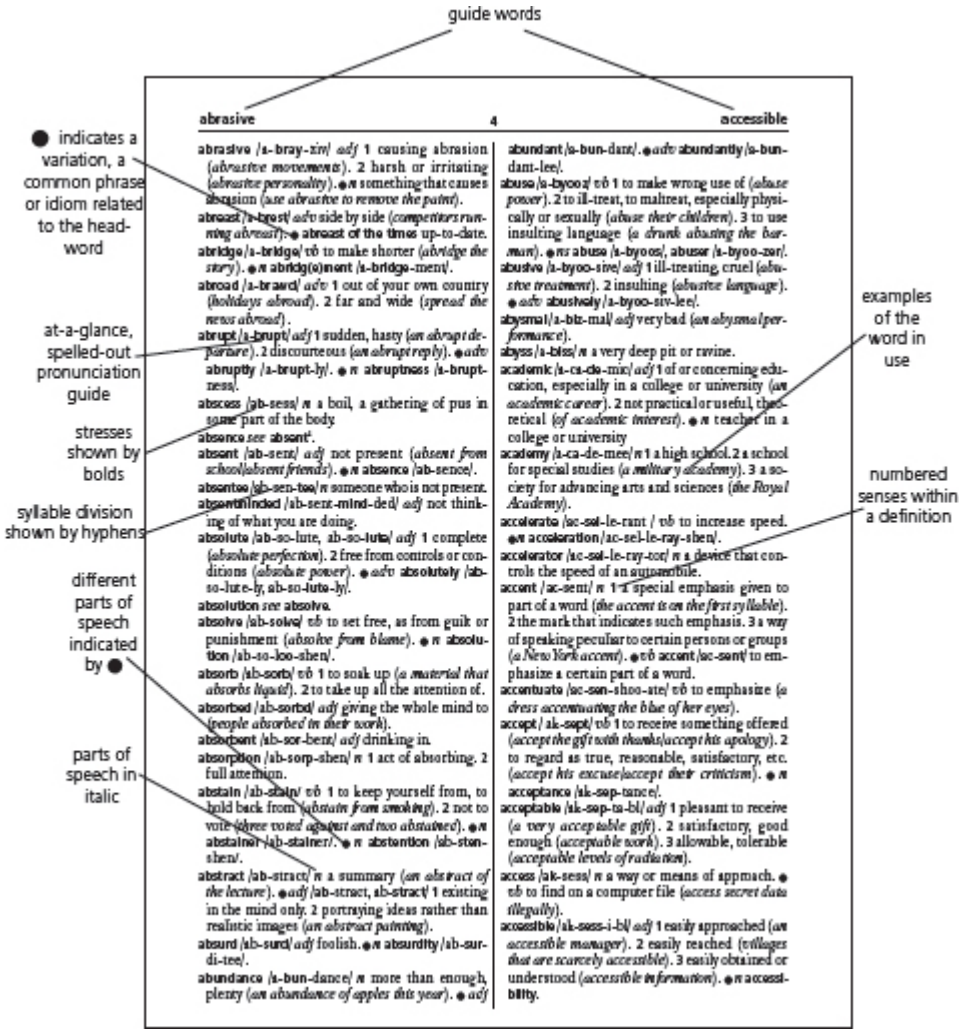

Other types of dictionaries

There are also other types of dictionaries. Here are two extracts taken from a dictionary of names that includes virtually all of Scotland's settlements from villages upwards. It also describes topographical features such as rivers, mountains, lochs and islands:

A

Aberbrothock *see* **Arbroath.**

Abercairney (Perth & Kinross) ‘Confluence by the thicket’ or ‘cairns’. *Aber* (Brythonic-Pictish) ‘confluence’ or ‘river mouth’; *cardden* (Brythonic) ‘thicket’; with *-ach* (Scottish Gaelic suffix) indicating ‘place’; or alternatively *càirneach* (Scottish Gaelic) ‘place of cairns or rough rocks’.

Aberchirder (Aberdeenshire) ‘Mouth of the dark water’. *Aber* (Brythonic-Pictish) ‘confluence’ or ‘river mouth’; *chiar* (Scottish Gaelic) ‘dark’; *dobhar* (Brythonic-Gaelic) ‘waters’.

Aberdeen ‘Mouth of the River Don’. *Aber* (Brythonic-Pictish) ‘confluence’ or ‘river mouth’; the second element seems to suggest the River Dee, which flows into the North Sea at the centre of modern Aberdeen, but the name was recorded as Aberdon in the early 12th century and at that time referred to the original settlement now known as Old Aberdeen, situated immediately to the north at the mouth of the River Don, close to the Cathedral of St Machar. By the 13th century, the current name form, probably a conflation of the two, was emerging as Aberdoen in 1178 and Aberden in 1214. *See also* **Rivers Dee** and **Don**.

Aberdour (Fife) ‘Mouth of the River Dour’. *Aber* (Brythonic-Pictish) ‘confluence’ or ‘river mouth’; . . .

T

Tain (Highland) ‘Water’. This old royal burgh, once a pilgrimage place to St Duthac’s shrine, stands at the mouth of a small river, the Tain Water. Once thought to be Norse, the name is now ascribed to a

Pre-Celtic root-form indicating ‘river’ or ‘water’. It is recorded as: Tene in 1227, Tayne in 1375 and Thane in 1483.

Taing This very common name along the Orkney and Shetland coasts is from the Old Norse *thang*, indicating ‘a low headland’.

Talisker (Highland) ‘Sloping Rock’. *T-hallr* (Old Norse) ‘sloping’; *skjaer* (Old Norse) ‘rock’.

Talla (Borders) ‘The brow’. *Talg* (Brythonic) ‘front’ or ‘brow’.

Tanera (Highland) ‘Harbour isle’. *T-h-fnar* (Old Norse) ‘harbour’; *ey* (Old Norse) ‘isle’. There are two Taneras in the Summer Isles, differentiated in Gaelic as *Mór*, ‘big’ and *Beag*, ‘small’.

Tankerness (Orkney) ‘Tancred’s cape’. *Tancred* (Old Norse and Norman personal name); *nes* (Old Norse) ‘headland’ or ‘cape’.

Tantallon (East Lothian) ‘High-fronted fort’. *Din* (Brythonic) ‘fort’; *talgan* (Brythonic) ‘of the high front’ or ‘of the high brow’.

Taransay (Western Isles) ‘Isle of (St) Taran’. *Taran* (Pictish personal name); *ey* (Old Norse) ‘island’.

Tarbat Ness (Highland) ‘Cape of the isthmus’. *Tairbeart* (Scottish Gaelic) ‘isthmus’ or ‘portage point’; *nes* (Old Norse) ‘cape’ or ‘headland’.

Extracts taken from *Scottish Place Names* by George Mackay (Geddes & Grosset, 2003).

Thesaurus

A thesaurus is another useful tool. You use it to search for words that are similar to (synonyms) or the opposite of (antonyms) other words. It can help you to look for words or phrases that are similar to or

mean the exact opposite of the one you have thought of so that you can choose the word or phrase that is best for your purpose.

Example of a thesaurus

Below is an extract from of a thesaurus. You want to describe somebody as a nice, pleasant person, but ‘nice’ is a very overused word and you are looking for something a bit more interesting. If you look up ‘nice’ this is the kind of thing you will get:

nibble *vb* (*mice nibbling on a piece of cheese*) bite, gnaw, munch.
nice *adj* **1** (*His father is a nice person*) pleasant, friendly, kind, agreeable, charming. **2** (*We had a nice time at the theatre*) pleasant, enjoyable, delightful. **3** (*It was a nice day for the wedding*) fine, sunny, dry. **4** (*There is a nice distinction in meaning between the two words*) fine, subtle, minute, precise.
night *n* (*when night fell*) night-time, darkness, dark. ▼

a night owl someone who is in the habit of staying up very late at night (*She is a real night owl. She rarely goes to bed before 2 a.m.*).

Word Power English Thesaurus by Betty Kirkpatrick
(Geddes & Grosset, 2013)

Encyclopedia

An encyclopedia is a book, or series of books, that covers a wide range of topics and subjects. You can access encyclopedias in libraries or in some cases in digital format online.

An encyclopedia is a starting point for facts about a topic, and often includes illustrations, maps and photographs. Most are organised alphabetically, some by category and sometimes entries are cross-referenced. There are some examples of encyclopedic entries below.

In very complex volumes there may also be an index. So, for example, if you wanted to know about the pyramids and the gods and goddesses of ancient Egypt, you would search in the index under ‘Egypt’, and then look for the category of ‘Ancient Egypt’.

The style of writing of an encyclopedia entry is very much more explanatory than that of a dictionary. It is factual rather than linguistic. Rather than defining a word and giving its sources, technical details about a subject or topic are given.

Extracts from Compact Encyclopedia (Geddes & Grosset, 2008)

tions permit, e.g. if the water table is near to the surface, creating a spring, or the geology is such that an artesian well (*see* AQUIFER) is created, then an oasis may develop within a hot desert, providing an island of green.

Hot deserts are found in Africa, Australia, the United States, Chile and cold deserts in the Arctic, eastern Argentina and mountainous regions. Some hot desert extremes are:

extreme of shade temperature: Death Valley, California maximum 28°C (82°F); maximum daily range 41°C (106°F)
max. ground surface temperature: Sahara 78°C (172°F)
extreme of rainfall: Chicama, Peru, 4mm (0.15in) per year

The process whereby desert conditions and processes extend to new areas adjacent to existing deserts is called *desertification*.

drainage the movement of water derived from rain, snowfall and the melting of ice and snow on land (and through it in subterranean waterways) that results eventually in its discharge into the sea. Underlying rocks, how they are arranged and whether there are any structural features that the water may follow influence the flow of streams and rivers. Further factors affecting drainage include soil type, climate and the influence of people.

There are a number of recognisable patterns that can be related to the geology:

dendritic a random branching unaffected
trellis by surface rocks; streams aligned with the trend of underlying rocks.
parallel streams running parallel to each other because of folded rocks or steep slopes with little vegetation.
rectangular controlled by faults and joints, the latter often in igneous rocks.
annular formation of streams in circular patterns around a structure of the same shape (e.g. an igneous intrusion).
barbed a drainage pattern where the tributaries imply a direction of flow contrary to what actually happens.
radial streams flowing outwards from a higher area.
centripetal the flow of streams into a central depression where there may be a lake or river.

When a drainage pattern is a direct result of the underlying geology, it is said to be *accordant* (the opposite case being *discordant*).

earthquake movement of the earth, which is often violent, caused by the sudden release of stress that may have accumulated over a long period. Waves of disturbance—*seismic* waves—spread out from the origin, or *focus*, of the earthquake, which is most likely to be movement along a FAULT, although some are associated with volcanic activity.

Earthquakes are classified by their depth of focus: shallow (less than 70 kilometres/44 miles); intermediate (70–300 kilometres/44–187 miles); deep (more than 300 kilometres/187 miles).

Over three-quarters of earthquake energy is concentrated in a belt around the Pacific. This is because most seismic activity occurs at the margins of tectonic plates (*see* PLATE TECTONICS). This means that certain regions of the world are more likely to suffer earthquakes, e.g. the West Coast of North and South America, Japan, the Philippines, Southeast Asia and New Zealand.

Areas of earthquake activity

The effects of earthquakes are naturally very alarming and can be quite catastrophic. Near the focus, ground waves actually throw the land surface about. Surface effects may include the opening of fissures (large cracks), the breaking of roads and pipes, buckling and twisting of railroad lines, and the collapse of bridges and buildings. Secondary effects can be equally destructive if the ground vibrations initiate landslides, avalanches and TSUNAMI

males and females. The 23rd pair are the sex chromosomes, which in males look like an XY and in females an XX. Although the chromosomes look similar in all individuals belonging to a particular species, the genes that they carry are all slightly different, hence each one is totally unique. *See also* HEREDITY and MUTATION.

chrysalis *see* LARVA AND METAMORPHOSIS.

circuit an electrically conducting path that when complete allows a current to flow through it. A circuit may be very simple consisting merely of a battery connected by copper wire to a bulb and then back to the opposite terminal of the battery. When cells and batteries were first made (in the early 1800s by the Italian scientist, Count Alessandro Volta), how charge moved around a circuit remained a mystery. The convention became that current flowed as a positive charge from the positive terminal around to the negative terminal. This is contrary to what actually happens since electrons flow in the opposite direction, but the convention remains (*see also* ELECTRICITY).

A simple circuit diagram

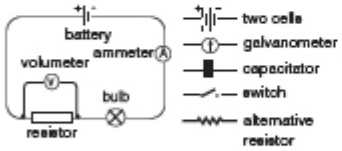

circulation (of the blood) the process by which blood is moved around an animal's body by the pumping action of the heart. The blood carries oxygen and food to all the cells of the body and also takes carbon dioxide from them to the lungs where it is eliminated. Blood that contains oxygen (*oxygenated blood*) is pumped through blood vessels called *arteries* by the left side of the heart. As the arteries reach the tissues and organs they become very tiny (*arterioles* and *capillaries*). Here blood releases its oxygen (becoming *deoxygenated*), and this is picked up and used by cells. Cells release carbon dioxide into the deoxygenated blood as it passes through more capillaries. The blood is now transported through tiny vessels (*venules*) that become larger *veins* and then it passes back to the right side of the heart. From here it passes to the lungs where carbon dioxide is released and oxygen is picked up before it returns to the left side of the heart once again.

This type of blood circulation is described as 'double'. The heart is divided into two sides, each acting as an independent pump with no communication between them. Each side is further divided into two chambers, the upper one is called the *atrium* and collects incoming blood, passing it to the lower *ventricle*. This is a strong, muscular pump that contracts and pumps blood out either to the body or to the lungs. Arteries always carry oxygenated blood, except for the pulmonary artery which takes blood from the heart to the lungs. Veins always transport deoxygenated blood, except for the pulmonary vein which takes oxygenated blood from the lungs to the heart.

Systemic and pulmonary circulation

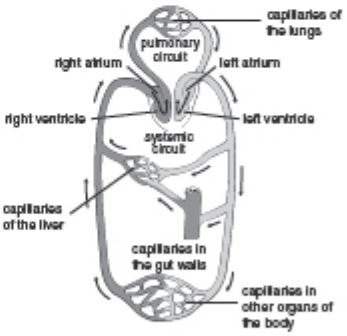

class *see* CLASSIFICATION.

classification a means of grouping living organisms together according to how similar they are to each other. For the early biologists, the physical similarities between organisms were the most important feature, but increasingly in modern times the similarities between organisms at a genetic level have become more important in understanding their relationships.

One main method of classification is most commonly recognised, and this was

Atlas

An atlas is a collection of maps. Traditionally, these maps were bound in a book, but they are now also available in digital formats. Maps are usually organised alphabetically under geographical, political and historical categories. The best way to find the map you

are looking for is by searching in the table of contents or in the index, as in the following extracts:

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Directory

A directory is a list of individuals and organisations that is organised alphabetically or thematically with details such as names, addresses, telephone numbers or other data.

Examples of this sort of reference material are a telephone directory, the ‘Who’s Who’ directory of people who are ‘influential’

and ‘noteworthy’ and directories of major towns, cities and countries in the world. Directories are very useful if you are looking for information about a particular person or place. If you are an investigative journalist, you will be used to thumbing through hard copy or digital directories!

Reference for writers

There are many reference works out there which are specifically geared towards writers, or are particularly useful for those writing creatively – either fiction or non-fiction. Among these are:

Writers’ and Artists’ Yearbook

Published annually, this is an up-to-date guide to getting published, filled with advice and information for writers.

http://www.writersandartists.co.uk/

Rhyming dictionary

There are many different rhyming dictionaries out there. These are of obvious use to poets and songwriters, but are a helpful tool for lots of other types of writer, too. For example, those writing headlines or titles for articles may find inspiration here.

Grammar books

There are many different grammar and usage books available, for all different needs – whether you are a grammar fiend or the word

‘grammar’ alone is enough to send you running for cover. They range from the dry and factual to the informal and chatty, even funny! Be sure to read blurbs and reviews before buying to get an idea of level, content and tone.

Emotional thesaurus

This is a more unusual one, but is a fantastic idea for fiction writers. The thesaurus lists many different emotions alongside the physical cues, internal sensations and mental responses which are associated with experiencing that emotion – ideal for writers who wish to make their character’s behaviour and mentality as realistic as possible. There are also lists of potential future results associated with each emotion, which can help with plot development ideas. Try *The Emotional Thesaurus: A Writer’s Guide to Character Expression* by Angela Ackerman and Becca P Puglisi (2012).

Names books

General baby-name books and sites, and those geared specifically to writers (such as *The Writer’s Digest Character Naming Sourcebook* by Sherrilyn Kenyon [Writer’s Digest Books, 2010]) can help fiction writers who want to find the ideal name to fit a character.

Inspirational books

The Pocket Muse: Ideas and Inspiration for Writing by Monica Wood (Writer’s Digest Books, 2004) and similar books provide prompts and

photos to spark ideas and get your creative juices flowing, as well as advice to help all writers.

Quotations books

There are many collections of quotations available, including *The Oxford Dictionary of Quotations*. Reading these provides not only an an excellent opportunity to study the power of a carefully considered, well-structured sentence. It is also an opportunity to consider themes, to spark ideas and to draw inspiration.

WRITING YOUR OWN NON-FICTION COMPOSITION

We have looked at a number of different types of fiction writing, and what they involve. We're now going to look at the things you need to keep in mind when you are writing your own non-fiction composition – whether that is a biography, a cookery book, a travel article or a computer manual.

Research

Research is essential in non-fiction. You need to know your subject or topic thoroughly before you write about it, and that means that you need good research skills. Here are some points to help you.

What information are you looking for?

Think back to Chapter 3 and the advice given on writing for learning. It sounds obvious, but it's worth saying again: you need to know what you're looking for before you start looking for it. What is your subject or topic? Who is the person you are writing a biography about? Which phone are you writing a manual for? Which aspects does your travel article have to cover? Once you know this, you can start looking for appropriate research material.

Where can you find that information?

There are many different types and source of information, but the main ones for non-fiction writing are:

- **primary sources** – such as people, interview transcripts, diaries, letters, original artefacts, data and photographs
- **secondary sources –** such as the reference materials listed above, books, journals and the internet

Looking for information can be daunting, so use all the help you can get.

When you are researching and using **primary sources**, make sure you do the following:

- Check that they are authentic.
- Ensure that you have permission to use them – is Mrs Brown happy for you to use her grandmother's shortbread recipe in your charity cookery book?
- Check that you have all the information you need from your interview before you leave – you probably won't be able to go back and ask further questions.

When you are looking for **secondary sources** try the following:

- Look through the contents page and index of reference material – this will tell you quickly whether the information you are looking for is there.
- Ask the librarian for help if you are having problems using the library cataloguing system.
- Stay focussed! Don't go wandering off onto websites that have nothing to do with your project.
- Stick to two or three sources on the internet at one time. You can come back for more.

- Don’t go past the first page of your search engine.
- Don’t believe everything you read on the internet – stick to reputable sites. If in doubt, ask around.

And remember, you can’t beat first-hand experience as a form of research. If you are writing about a place to spend the night, then you won’t get the information you need from the internet – you have to go there yourself and check it out.

Accuracy

Accuracy is also essential in non-fiction writing. You can let your imagination run riot when you are writing fiction, but you must get your facts straight if you are writing a recipe or telling somebody how to assemble a television stand. Your reader won’t be very happy if they burn their food because you told them it was 60 minutes at 120 degrees, rather than 120 minutes at 60 degrees!

And if there is a health and safety aspect to what you are writing, you must be particularly careful about accuracy because people’s safety could be put at risk.

For example, if you have to prepare an instruction leaflet about how to set up and connect a television or DVD and your instructions are wrong, you could potentially cause a very dangerous situation.

If in doubt, ask somebody else to check what you’ve written and actually try it out.

Organising your information

Now that you have researched your information, don't let it overwhelm you. Organise it and you'll be able to use it effectively:

- Keep going back to your subject or topic. What information are you looking for?
- Plan your writing, so you know what your structure is going to be.
- Ignore any information that is too detailed or not relevant.
- Remember to write down the author, title, place of publication, publisher, date of publication, page numbers and web addresses for articles from books, journals, periodicals, encyclopedias. Make sure that web links are current at the time of writing, and convert them to working hyperlinks. This way, you will build a bibliography as you go along.

Acknowledging sources/copyright

This last point is very important. You must identify all the material in your biography, article, manual, instruction leaflet or scientific paper that is not your own – no matter where it comes from or what it is. If you copy text, diagrams, photographs, art, music or web pages without acknowledging their source, then you are infringing copyright law, and could be prosecuted.

Copyright stays with the originator during his or her lifetime, and with the heirs to their estate for 70 years after their death.

References

Because of the copyright issue, you should make a list of all the references to books, journals, periodicals and websites you have used in your work. You should also acknowledge primary sources

that you have used, and actually make sure that you are allowed to use them.

Refer back to Chapter 3 for more detailed information about how to present references. This will only really apply if you are doing a piece of traditional technical writing.

Beware cut and paste and plagiarism!

Copying and pasting text into your own work without using quotation marks or citing it appropriately is a form of plagiarism.

Plagiarism is when you take somebody else's ideas or writing and present them as your own. If you do this, you will probably fail your essay or thesis.

When you are taking notes, decide what information you need from your source, and then write or summarise it in your own words. That way, you won't be tempted – consciously or subconsciously – to copy the source, word for word.

Don't cut and paste from the internet. You can easily forget that you have taken somebody else's work and put it into your own – especially if you change the font to the one you are using.

Remember that plagiarism is cheating.

Style and tone

The style and tone of your writing will very much depend on what it is and what its purpose is. For example, a travel article will be informal and chatty, while a scientific paper will be objective and factual.

Planning your composition

Once you have researched and gathered your information for your non-fiction composition, you will need to plan it.

Here are some tips to help you do this:

- Get a piece of paper and write down all your ideas. Don't worry about perfect writing at this point – just get the content down.
- Get a clean piece of paper. Put the topic box in the middle of the page.
- Now think about your main ideas – what are they?
- Draw lines from the topic box to these main ideas.
- Now add information where you think it sits within these main ideas.
- Make links between the main ideas.

Structuring your composition

Once you've got your plan worked out, it's time to structure your composition. Again, this will vary according to what you are writing. Have a look at the suggestions on the next two pages.

Biography

The structure of a biography might look like this:

- Contents
- Prologue
- The early years and influences
- The middle years
- The later years
- Bibliography

- List of illustrations
- Index

Recipe collection

The structure of a recipe collection or cookery book might look like this:

- Foreword
- Acknowledgements
- Introduction
- Starters
- Main courses
- Salads and vegetables
- Desserts
- Equipment
- Index

Operating instructions for a communication camera

The structure for operating instructions might look like this:

- Safety precautions
- Handling precautions
- Installation
- Connection
- Using the camera
- Maintenance
- Specifications
- Warranty

Staying relevant, objective and factual

Structuring your non-fiction composition will help you to stay relevant, objective and factual.

If you wander off subject, your reader will lose interest and give up cooking the recipe, looking for a decent restaurant to eat in or putting the chest of drawers together. And just because you don't like the owner of the hotel or restaurant doesn't mean to say that he provides bad food or service.

We've already covered the need for accuracy and facts – but it's worth saying again that you need to get your facts right!

The writing process – non-fiction

Like all types of writing, there is a process for writing non-fiction. Aspects of this process will vary slightly, depending on the genre, or type of non-fiction you are writing. But it will help you to focus your thoughts and give you somewhere to start on your biography, manual, recipe book, travel article, scientific paper – or whatever!

Here's the suggested process:

- **Define the purpose of this piece of writing**. Why are you writing it and who are your readers? If you are writing a short biography, who is it about and who wants to know about them? If you are writing a manual, who will be using it? If you are writing an engineering paper, who and what is it for?
- **Research the information you need**. This will obviously depend on what you are writing. You might need to interview people, use the internet or look in an archive or museum to get the information you need. If you are compiling a recipe book, you will probably

have to get into the kitchen and try some of the recipes out yourself.

- **Plan and structure**. Again, this will depend on what you are writing. The structure of a biography will be based on the sequence of events in a person's life. A recipe book will probably be divided into categories like starters, main courses and desserts. An instruction leaflet to set up a DVD will go through a strict sequential process from opening up the box to pressing the 'on' button. Whatever the subject or topic, a clear plan and structure will help you to make sense of all the information you have gathered, and this will help you to produce an organised, clear and concise piece of writing.
- **Write your first draft**. Do a rough draft – don't worry too much about how it looks at this stage – just get the information down on paper.
- **Revise and edit**. Refer back to Chapter 2 for advice.
- **Identify any missing information**. Revising and editing your writing usually reveals any gaps that need to be filled.
- **Cut out what you don't need**. The editing process also reveals what you don't need!
- **Write the final draft**. Give it to a 'critical friend' to look over.

KEEP READING AND WRITING

KEEP READING

The quickest way to better English writing is to keep reading – anything and everything you can get your hands on!

Here's a list to get you started.

Newspapers

There are newspapers published in English in every country in the world – many of them online. They will keep you up-to-date with current affairs as well as improving your English. Look out for the 'five Ws and an H' structure and keep an eye out for spin! The more you read, the more you will be able to analyse how writing skills and techniques are being used.

Magazines and ezines

As with newspapers, there are magazines published in English all over the world, and there is now a huge selection of ezines on the internet. They cover all different sorts of interests and topics so read up on your favourite hobby while you are improving your English language skills.

Fiction

There are some wonderful books out there. It can be overwhelming thinking about where to start. Think about reading some of the classics, like *Jane Eyre* by Charlotte Brontë, *To Kill a Mockingbird* by Harper Lee, *Oliver Twist* by Charles Dickens and *Pride and Prejudice* by Jane Austen. If a book has won a prize like the Man Booker Prize or the Pulitzer Prize it is usually (though not always) an indication that the book is going to be worth reading and is likely to reveal exemplary writing skills.

Choose from the great writers of the different genres of fiction: John Buchan (thrillers), Ray Bradbury (science fiction), Robert Louis Stevenson (adventure), Raymond Chandler (crime), Bram Stoker (horror), Emily Brontë (romance). Often genres are more useful for booksellers than readers but it's a starting point.

Look for writers who challenge our conception of the role of narrator such as Italo Calvino and Vladimir Nabokov. And writers who pay particular attention to the inner lives of their characters such as Iris Murdoch, Fyodor Dostoyevsky, Leo Tolstoy, George Eliot and Marcel Proust.

Look at writers who defy categorisation such as Muriel Spark. Spark's minimalist narratives, especially in her later work, leave as many things unstated as stated. Other writers who have a somewhat similar approach to narrative are Evelyn Waugh and Ivy Compton Burnett.

Read writers in translation such as Calvino, Dostoyevsky, Tolstoy, Proust, Emile Zola, Gabriel Garcia Marquez and Haruki Murakami. Consider the great responsibility that a translator has in interpreting these works.

Non-fiction

Read the biographies and autobiographies of your favourite actors, politicians, sportsmen or women or musicians. Read travel journals and histories. Read recipe books (some people do that for pure enjoyment). Assess how well manuals and instruction leaflets are doing their job.

Textbooks and ‘how to’ materials

If you enjoyed using this book, there are also lots of other textbooks and ‘how to’ books available that will help you with spelling, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary and general writing skills.

Blogs

Go online and read some interesting blogs. There are an overwhelming number of them out there so why not start by looking for those on subjects in which you are interested. Some blogs are better than others, but again, you can use your own knowledge and skills to analyse them. Note which blogs you enjoy reading, and why. Ask yourself what it is about the writer’s style and approach that you like.

Newsletters

Again, there are lots of newsletters out there, and if you go into any business website, you will probably find they are using an online newsletter as a marketing tool.

If you buy a product online, you will probably receive a newsletter regularly from the company to tell you about new products and offers.

Clubs and groups often produce newsletters to tell members about forthcoming events and exciting news. Look at these with a critical eye. Have they been well written? Do they communicate information clearly and concisely? Are they appropriate for the audience? If not, how would you improve them?

KEEP WRITING

Practice makes perfect – so write whenever you have the opportunity. Here are some suggestions to get you writing regularly:

Diary

Keep a diary. Record your thoughts, feelings and the events of the day every day, or as often as you can. You never know, it could become an important archive one day! Think of Anne Frank, Samuel Pepys, the *Journals* of Captain Cook and Charles Darwin's *Beagle* diary.

Blog

You could start up a blog and air your thoughts about issues or ideas you are interested in. Or you could start a blog about a hobby or interest that you are enthusiastic about and want to share with others.

Letters and cards

Write letters to friends and family telling them your news. Or send a card to say thank you for a present or for an invitation to dinner. People love to receive letters and cards in the post – it's more personal than an email.

Essays and compositions

If you are a student, the more essays and compositions you write, the more your writing skills will develop and the better your writing will be.

Newspapers

Try writing articles and features for your local newspaper and send them to the editor. You never know – you might get them published. Write about something that you feel strongly about, or that you know a lot about.

Magazines and ezines

You could also try writing articles on your particular interest or hobby and sending them to magazine and ezine editors. The number of ezines in particular is growing every week, so you could find one that you could contribute to on a regular basis. Or you could set up your own!

Good luck and keep writing!

Now that you have finished this book, you will have (hopefully!) learned plenty of tips and techniques to improve your written English and make it more readable and interesting. You will be able to write clearly and effectively, and to come across in a memorable and professional way.

Good luck and keep writing!

REFERENCES

Better writing for every day

Plain English Campaign

www.plainenglish.co.uk

The Plain English Campaign website is an excellent resource for tips and techniques on how to write clearly and concisely. This description of their work is taken from the website:

Since 1979, we have been campaigning against gobbledygook, jargon and misleading public information. We have helped many government departments and other official organisations with their documents, reports and publications. We believe that everyone should have access to clear and concise information.

The campaign officially began after founder Chrissie Maher OBE publicly shredded hundreds of official documents in Parliament Square, London. Entirely independent, the campaign funds itself through its commercial services, which include editing and training. We have worked with thousands of organisations ranging from UK Government departments to World Bowls, helping them make sure their public information is as clear as possible.

We have over 12,000 members in 80 countries and our Crystal Mark is now firmly established as a guarantee that a document is written in plain English. It appears on more than 21,000 documents.

Writing for learning

English–Welsh Phrasebook by D Islwyn Edwards (Waverley Books, 2012)

National Qualifications Curriculum Support: The origins and development of the Cold War, 1945–85
(Learning and Teaching Scotland, 2008)
Available from: Education Scotland)
http://www.educationscotland.gov.uk/resources/nq/h/nqresource_tcm4504762.asp

Writing for work or business

Line drawings by Mark Mechan.

Front Door Apartments
http://www.frontdoorapartments.co.uk/

Writing for the media

Style guide courtesy of Waverley Books.

Cake Masters
http://www.cakemasters.co.uk/
http://issuu.com/cakemasters

Shutterstock/zig8 (people playing flute and violin)
Shutterstock/Tatiana Popova (sheet music image)

Mad About Macarons
http://madaboutmacarons.com/

Sue Reid Sexton
http://suereidsexton.blogspot.co.uk/

www.tomorrow.is
Directing editor: Tristan Stewart-Robertson; design: Tim Fraser Brown; web development: David Gracie.

Writing creatively

Fiction

The Open Window by Saki (H H Munro). Available to download from:
www.gutenberg.org/ebooks/269

Pride and Prejudice by Jane Austen. Available to download from:
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Surviving Teenagers by Dr David Fong (Geddes & Grosset, 2007)

Quit Smoking by Dr David Fong (Geddes & Grosset, 2007)

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WEBSTER'S WORD POWER

Sue Moody, an honours graduate of St Andrews University, has written many learning and teaching materials, and regularly works on a freelance basis for SQA. Sue has written a number of websites for organizations such as the National Library of Scotland, Scottish Natural Heritage and Eneco. Sue has a Diploma with distinction for Freelance and Feature Writing from the London School of Journalism and a Postgraduate Certificate in Primary Education (with distinction) from Moray House. She set up **Bright Writing** in 2004.

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Text by Sue Moody

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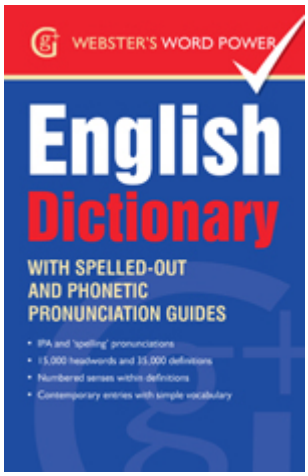

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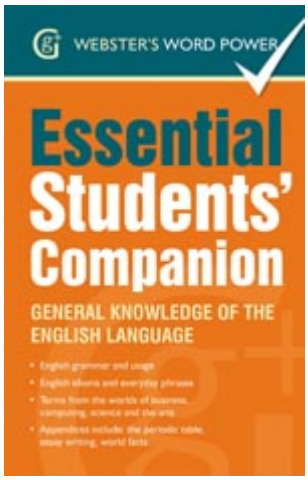

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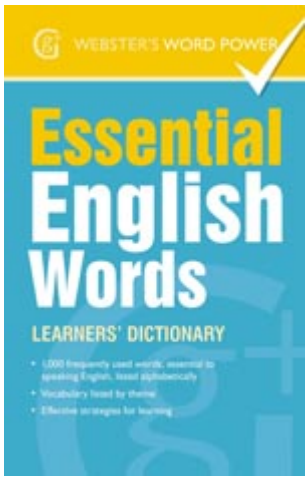

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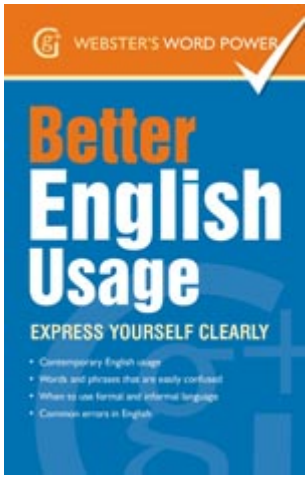

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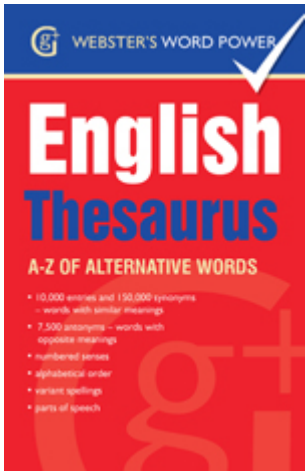

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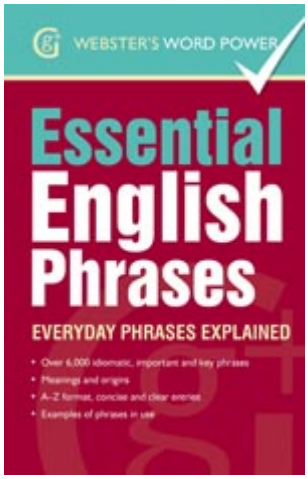

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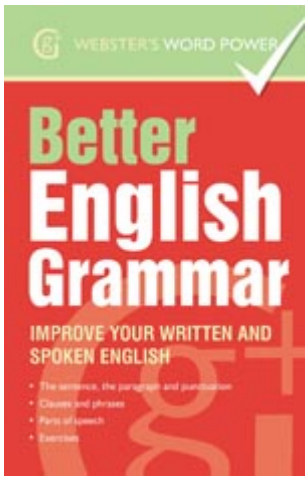

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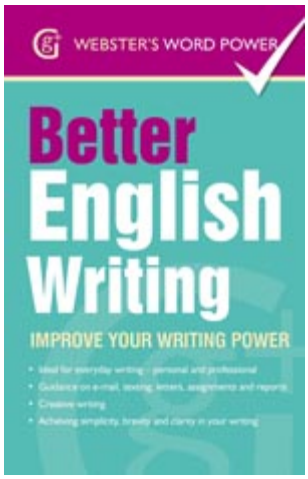

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Gain a better understanding of how the English language works as we discuss how usage changes and evolves over time. This guide explains why certain mistakes might be made, with the thinking that an understanding of the issue might enable readers to remember the correct usage more easily. We talk about the rules of grammar, but also about when it is acceptable, and even necessary, to break those rules.

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- Words and phrases that are easily confused
- Common errors in English
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THE CHANGING FACE OF ENGLISH

We have witnessed the most amazing number of changes in society in recent decades. Many of them have taken place so rapidly that some of us can scarcely keep up with the speed of change.

The most obvious speedy changes have taken place in technology but technological changes have affected many other walks of life, indeed most walks of life. They have affected everything from medicine to transport to entertainment to communications. Language is not immune from these changes. At the very least, it has had to accommodate names for the many new things and processes that the technological changes have led to.

HISTORICAL CHANGES IN VOCABULARY

Language is no stranger to change. In fact it reflects everything that happens in life. If it is out there, there must be a word for it. An obvious example of how events in a particular country affect language is the effect that the various invaders of what are now the British Isles had on the English language.

For example, the Vikings may be best remembered for their plundering and pillaging but they left behind a useful linguistic heritage. Thanks to them we have words such as *law, skill, egg, knife, skate* and many more.

The Norman invasion, masterminded by William the Conqueror in 1066, gave rise to even more words entering the English language. This French influence gave us *justice, money, action* and *village*, to name but a few.

English explorers and traders also contributed to the growth of the English language by bringing back words from the various places they visited. For example, the language acquired *umbrella, granite* and *bandit* from Italian, *bungalow, cot, shampoo* and *chintz* from Hindi and *cigar, cork* and *negro* from Spanish. This last word was to cause much controversy in later times and came to be regarded as very offensive.

The Renaissance of the 16th and 17th centuries, with its revival of classical scholarship and a renewed interest in Latin and Greek, had a great effect on the English language. During this time many Latin and Greek words underwent a process of naturalization and ended up in English. A few examples include *crisis, vital, locate, credible, exclaim* and *apparatus*. This was a very busy time for the English language.

Over the centuries there have been many sources that have provided new words for the English language. From Japanese, English has acquired *judo, tsunami, karaoke* and *sushi*, from Chinese, *tea, ketchup* and *kowtow*, and from Yiddish, *spiel, kosher* and *chutzpah*. From Russian, English acquired *czar*/*tsar, glasnost, icon, perestroika* and *vodka* and Australia supplied it with

boomerang, budgerigar and *kangaroo*. It seems that the English language is like a magpie, forever picking up new shiny items to add to its already rich store.

CHANGES OF MEANING

The changes in the English language are by no means restricted to vocabulary additions. Changes also occur once the words are part of the English language. Sometimes the changes involve meaning. A classic historical example of meaning change relates to the word *silly*. Now it means 'foolish, lacking sense or judgement', but this meaning only evolved gradually. The word *silly* is derived from Old English *gesaelig*, meaning 'happy'. This became first *seely* in Middle English and then *silly*. As the form of the word changed, so did its meaning. It went from meaning 'happy' to meaning 'blessed or pious'.

The change in the meaning of *silly* continued. From 'pious' the meaning became 'innocent', then 'harmless' and then 'to be pitied'. This became 'feeble' and then 'feeble in the mind'. From this it was an easy step to the modern meaning of the word. This is, of course, an example of a change that is both extreme and historical.

WORDS WHOSE MEANING HAS CHANGED

There have been many more changes in meaning throughout the centuries and they are still occurring. A few of them are listed below.

decimate

The verb **decimate** literally means to kill or destroy one in ten of a set of people. It is derived from a Latin word meaning ‘to kill one in ten of a unit of soldiers who took part in a mutiny’. The practice was doubtless intended to act as a warning to the other nine units.

Nowadays there is not much call for a word meaning ‘to kill one in ten people’ and the word has moved on. It came to mean ‘to kill a large proportion of’, as in:

> *The disease decimated the rabbit population of the island*.

One tenth is not a huge proportion of a whole and so possibly there was a mix-up somewhere between one tenth being killed and one tenth surviving.

The word moved on even further and came to mean ‘to inflict a great deal of damage on something or to destroy a large number or part of’, as in:

> *The event attracted a lot of adverse publicity to the area and decimated the tourist industry*.

There was a great deal of opposition to the changes in meaning of **decimate**. It seems that people did not want to let go of its connection with ten. It is advisable not to mention a specific amount when you are using the word.

hopefully

Changes in the language are frequently met with great opposition, at least until people get used to them, or until the loudest of the objectors are no longer with us. The opposition to the introduction of **hopefully** was particularly forceful. I am talking, of course, about **hopefully** in the sense of ‘it is to be hoped that’, as

Hopefully, we'll get there in time for dinner.

rather than 'with hope', as

We waited hopefully for their arrival until it became clear that they were not coming.

Even now people still grumble about it, although **hopefully** in its later sense is now regarded as quite acceptable, except, perhaps, in the most formal of contexts. The arguments against the acceptance of **hopefully** in its more recent meaning were not really convincing. Much was made of the possibility of ambiguity occurring, especially when the adverb is placed immediately before the verb, as in:

They will hopefully wait for us although we're going to be a bit late.

However, the **hopefully** in the sentence above is much more likely to mean 'it is to be hoped that' and, if there are genuine possibilities of ambiguity, you can change its position to the beginning of the sentence.

disinterested/uninterested

Until very recently **disinterested** (see 1) meant the same as 'impartial' or 'unbiased'. It was often confused with **uninterested**, meaning 'not having any interest in something', and now it has come to share this meaning. This has been a gradual change and many young people are not aware that the distinction between the meanings of the two words ever existed.

This change has not been universally welcomed by any means. Many people, especially older people, still protest about it and claim that changes like this are spoiling what they See as the purity of the English language. This is often now referred to as 'a dumbing down'

of the language. In fact this particular example of a language change is actually a reversion to the previous state of affairs. According to historical dictionaries from the 17th century **disinterested** could mean the same as **uninterested**.

aggravate/irritate

Aggravate is another word with a long-established meaning that has acquired another meaning. This still arouses protest from people who consider themselves language purists and guardians of the language. They consider that the only proper meaning of **aggravate** is 'to make worse', as in:

> *His headache was aggravated by the loud music playing next door*.

This meaning is admittedly the older, having come into being in the late 16th century. However, the meaning 'to irritate or annoy', as

> *Those children have been aggravating the neighbours all day with their noisy games*.

is not far behind in terms of age. It first made an appearance in the early 17th century. It is this meaning that so irritates – we had better not say aggravates – some users, often older users.

gay

Many people, older or not, disliked the widespread introduction of the 'homosexual' meaning of the English adjective **gay**. The word had been used in this meaning in a very limited way since the 1930s, but it did not reach a wider audience until the late 1960s. Now it has become such an established meaning of **gay** in the English-speaking

world that it has virtually edged out the original use of ‘merry or light-hearted’.

When the ‘homosexual’ meaning first came into widespread use quite a lot of people mourned the passing of **gay**’s original happy meaning. However, the word *homosexual* was more in need of its services than the word *merry* was. Homosexuality is still a controversial subject in many parts of the world where it is forbidden and punishable by law but the English language moves with the times and people are happy to use this adjective which has the advantage of being neutral and nonjudgemental.

While there are quite a few synonyms for **gay** in its original sense, there are not very many for the ‘homosexual’ meaning. Words such as *bent* and *queer* are intended to be offensive. Note that the abstract noun from **gay** in its homosexual sense is **gayness,** while the abstract noun from **gay** in its merry, light-hearted sense is **gaiety.**

queer

The mention of **queer** raises an interesting aspect of language and, indeed, an interesting aspect of people. **Queer** had the original meaning of ‘odd or improper’. The phrase *on queer street* meant in financial difficulties.

In the early 20th century **queer** came to be used as an informal, usually derogatory, term for homosexual but it is now used by some gay people to describe themselves. They are reclaiming and applying to themselves a word that their critics intended to be insulting.

sexy

Sexy was originally an informal word meaning ‘causing, or intended to cause, desire’, as in:

> *She bought a sexy new dress*.

It then went on to acquire an additional meaning that is not related to sex. This meaning is ‘interesting, attractive or exciting’, often because of being new or fashionable, as in:

> *We are about to launch a sexy new range of kitchen equipment*.
>
> *They’re planning to pull down the old building and build what they call a sexy new state-of-the-art office block*.

MORE VOCABULARY CHANGES

The above are some of the best-known changes in meaning. However, other words have been affected also. Changes like the ones that follow tend to take place very gradually and it takes some time before people become aware that a change is taking place.

SLOW BUT SURE

historic/historical

It looks as though a change is affecting these two adjectives which are derived from the word *history.* The adjectives are **historic** and **historical**, and traditionally they have different meanings.

Strictly speaking, **historic** refers to an event that is important enough or memorable enough to be recorded in history, as in:

> *The Battle of Waterloo was a historic victory for the British*.

It is now often used exaggeratedly of an event, often a sporting event, that is not nearly as important as that description suggests, as in:

> *The cup final ended in a historic victory for the Spanish team*.

According to traditional usage, **historical** simply refers to something that took place in the past or means ‘based on the study of history’, as in:

> *Most of the country’s historical records are held in the national archive*.

Probably because these words sound so alike and are so frequently confused the distinction between them is beginning to disappear. This is bound to arouse some protest. Change always does.

fortuitous/fortunate

Signs of change are particularly likely to go unspotted for a while where the word affected is not very commonly used. **Fortuitous** is such a word. Originally, and in line with its derivation, **fortuitous** meant ‘happening by chance’ or ‘accidental’, as in:

> *She bumped into her old friend in a completely fortuitous meeting. They hadn’t seen each other since they were at school together*.

Because the words sound quite similar, **fortuitous** began to become confused with **fortunate,** as in:

> *Meeting her father’s old friend was fortuitous for her because he offered her a job in his company*.

And in time **fortuitous** began to be used to describe an event that was not only accidental but also lucky.

nauseous

Nauseous is another word that appears to be undergoing a change, but it is not exactly a word in everyday use and the change may not yet be very obvious. The adjective **nauseous** in British English traditionally means 'nauseating' or 'causing nausea'.

In other words, it is a formal way of saying something makes you feel sick or want to vomit, as in:

> *There was a nauseous smell of rotten meat coming from the fridge*.

In American English **nauseous** means 'nauseated' or 'feeling sick' or 'about to vomit', as in:

> *Going on a boat trip always makes me feel nauseous, even when the sea is calm*.

The British English equivalent of American English **nauseous** is **nauseated,** but users of British English have begun to adopt the American usage, as in:

> *She says that she felt nauseous for most of her pregnancy*.

OTHER SIGNS OF CHANGE

There have been other signs of change. For example, the distinction between **imply** and **infer** is fading fast. Because many people do not understand the distinction between **fewer** and **less** (it should be *fewer bottles* but *less wine*) this distinction is also fading, especially in informal contexts.There is a considerable amount of protest about this. Perhaps the greatest protest of all is aimed at the fading distinction between **all right** and **alright**. For more information on these words go to Chapter 8.

CHANGES IN ACCOMPANYING VERBS

The examples that follow show a change of accompanying verb not a change of meaning.

data

Data is the plural form of the word **datum** but the singular form **datum** is rarely used now. As a plural noun, **data** was formerly always used with a plural verb, as in:

> *The data released by the bank were carefully studied by financial journalists*.

In modern usage **data** is often accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

> *The data on which the research was based has been found to be inaccurate*.

Formerly **data** was used mainly in a scientific or technical context, but it is now frequently used with reference to computer information, and so is in more general use. *Data* is the regular plural form of the singular Latin noun *datum* but, since Latin is no longer taught in many British schools, this fact is not now very well known. Many people simply did not know why **data** should be considered plural and so its singular form **datum** is fading from use.

media

Media is the plural form of **medium** when this refers to a means of transmitting information, as in:

> *Television is certainly a useful educational medium for children*.

The most popular forms of news media were found to be radio and television.

The word **media** is frequently found in the expression *the media*, which is used to refer to the means of mass communication, i.e. newspapers, radio and television. The use of **media** as a singular noun is disliked by some people, but this use is becoming increasingly common, as in:

The media is often blamed for making young people body-conscious.

Many people now do not know that *media* is the plural form of the Latin word *medium*, and See no reason why it should not be used in the singular.

THE AMERICAN INFLUENCE

Many people who feel that the English language has been dumbed down blame this on America. Some say that the Americans are to blame for the many slang words and colloquialisms that we now have. Admittedly, we do tend to borrow a lot of words from American English, and the globalization of communication has increased this trend. America is a productive and inventive country and this productivity and inventiveness have been extended to its language. To some extent British English has been affected by this.

programme/program

There is no doubt that American English is having an effect on British English usage. For example, we still stick with the British English spelling **programme** when we want to refer to something that is on TV, or to what is on offer in a concert or at the theatre. However, British English follows American English when it comes to

the international world of computers and opts for **program** in that context.

disc/disk

A similar thing happened to the word **disc**. When this was applied to computers in British English it became **disk**, as in *hard disk*, in line with the American spelling. Other meanings retained the **disc** spelling in British English, but that is beginning to change as people get confused. The computer **disk** is the one we are most likely to come across in the course of our daily routine and so we have become used to this spelling. We now tend to use it outside the world of computers. For example, it is becoming quite usual for people to write:

> *I have a slipped disk*.

See **disc/disk** under **Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

any more/anymore, etc

Expressions such as **any more, any place** and **any time** seem to be in the process of change in British English, and this is obviously a result of American influence.

In American English they are often spelt as one word, for example **anymore**, but the traditional spelling in British English has always separated them into two words, as **any more**.

Nowadays, however, they frequently appear as one word even in British English, so **anymore**, etc. **Everyday/every day** is beginning to go along the same route but it is not quite there it yet.

alternate/alternative

There are several other words which are showing signs of being affected by American English. For example, the Brits are beginning to use **alternate** in its American sense of 'offering a choice or a second possibility', as in:

> *We need to come up with an alternate venue in case the one we really want is not available*.

Traditionally in British English this should be **alternative**. *See* **alternate/alternative in Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

STILL TWO SEPARATE LANGUAGES

It is not at all surprising that British English has been influenced by American English. America has a powerful influence on the world generally and many foreign students now learn American English rather than British English. What is surprising is that the two languages have remained quite far apart despite the globalization of communication.

Britain still has **pavements** while America has **sidewalks**. Britain still has **bonnets** and **boots** in cars while America has **hoods** and **trunks**. In Britain a **vest** is something you wear under a shirt or other top (known as an **undershirt** in America) while in America it is worn over a shirt and under a jacket (mostly known as a **waistcoat** in Britain). A **nappy** is still a **nappy**, rarely a **diaper**, a **chemist** might be a **pharmacy** but not a **drugstore**, and a **motorway** has not become an **expressway** – and not just because the term is hardly appropriate given the incidence of traffic hold-ups in Britain. Even relatively new inventions have gone their different linguistic ways, so

British English has **mobiles** while American English has **cell phones** (or **cells**).

However, things are beginning to pick up pace and more and more American English words are finding their way to British shores. **French fries** have made it across the Atlantic to Britain, and the British **lift** is sometimes known by its American name, **elevator**. The British **lorry** is now quite often called a **truck**, an **aerial** is frequently called an **antenna** and **films** are becoming **movies**.

Increasingly this trend is fast becoming a two-way process and British words are also crossing the Atlantic with more and more Britishisms being spotted in American English. The writer Ben Yagoda, whose blog can be found at britishisms.wordpress.com, is collecting examples of them. The globalization of our media and social media seems to be having an impact: British words like **ginger**, **snog**, **trendy**, **afters**, **trainers**, **fortnight**, **peckish** are appearing more and more regularly in American texts.

Anything could happen in the future. But the major differences between the two languages have lasted a long time.

CHANGES IN GRAMMAR

In terms of vocabulary, the English language has certainly not stood still. The same is true in other areas of the language, although the changes may not be so numerous. One of these areas is grammar.

In the latter part of the 19th century much emphasis was placed on the importance of the rules of grammar and punctuation. In British schools a lot of time was spent on trying to get these rules into the heads of pupils. It was very easy to get things wrong, especially

because some of these rules were difficult to understand. However, around the middle of the 1960s, the educational establishment started to feel that these rules were less important.

Those in charge of the curriculum decided that too much attention was being paid to the rules of grammar and punctuation and that these were being too rigidly applied. This, they claimed, was stifling the creativity of young writers. If the emphasis on grammar and punctuation was greatly reduced, then full rein could then be given to the imagination of budding writers. Who knew what literary gems might emerge when the imagination was unfettered by worrying about grammar or punctuation? We could become a nation of prize-winning writers.

Then it eventually became clear that creativity, unless exceptionally inspired, was not enough. Grammar has been variously described as the building blocks of language and the cement that binds words together. It gives structure to sentences and without it they tend to fall apart. Sometimes it might seem to you that we have too many laws in our society, but try living without them and you might well soon want them back. This is what happened to grammar and in time people did want it back.

This was a good idea in principle but it was not so easy to achieve. Grammar was something that pupils had to work really hard at. To bring it back was going to be difficult.

The trouble was that, by the time it was realized that a knowledge of grammar had played a valuable role in writing, there were a great many people around who knew little about it. Teachers who were faced with teaching it had not themselves been taught it to any great extent.

When eventually the importance of grammar was once again recognized, it returned in a less restrictive form. Some of the old rules and conventions were forgotten or set aside, or became more relaxed. Obviously, this led to changes in perception about what was grammatically acceptable and what was not.

SPLIT INFINITIVE

One of these changes involved the **split infinitive**. Now, depending on your age, you may not have encountered the expression, or you may have encountered it but not known what it was or why it could be a problem. Whole generations have been brought up without having the facts about the split infinitive drummed into them, whereas previous generations had been told that it was one of the most important rules of grammar.

There are still quite a few die-hards of an older school of thought who regard it almost as a grammatical sin to split an infinitive. The battle still rages, although many now have no idea of what it is all about.

A split infinitive occurs when the infinitive or base form of a verb has an adverb or adverbial phrase put between the word **to** and the relevant verb. A much quoted example is *to boldly go*, from the introduction to the TV series *Star Trek*. If you are determined to avoid splitting the infinitive you have to say *boldly to go* or *to go boldly.*

The problem with avoiding splitting infinitives is that you can end up with a piece of written English that sounds unnatural, stilted or with a meaning that is altered.

For example, the sentence

He went home to quietly think about his options.

means the man is thinking about things in a reflective, contemplative way. If we rewrite the sentence as

He quietly went home to think about his options.

we are talking about the quiet manner in which he travelled home. If we rewrite this sentence as

He went home to think quietly about his options.

it reads better than the last one, but what was so hard to understand about the first usage? It's hard to come up with a sensible reason why any usage should be forbidden if it is clear and understandable.

It takes a long time for grammar changes to work their way through the system, but I think we can safely say that the rule against the split infinitive has had its day.

SENTENCES ENDING IN A PREPOSITION

Another grammatical rule that used to be rigidly adhered to was that **sentences must not end in prepositions**. At one point this was such a rigid rule that it has been said that the only thing some people knew about prepositions was that they should not be put at the end of sentences. The rule harks back to Latin, because a Latin sentence cannot end in a preposition. However, this did not mean that English had to follow suit.

This rule is now regularly broken and in fact nowadays most people do not See much point in it. As is the case with avoiding the splitting of infinitives, avoiding putting a preposition at the end of a sentence or clause can easily lead to written language sounding unnatural and stilted, as in:

This is the kind of bullying behaviour up with which the school should not put.

As for spoken English, it is difficult to imagine someone trying to get their tongue round such a mouthful.

Admittedly, this is quite an extreme example and it is a paraphrase of Winston Churchill's alleged reaction to people who insisted on going to extraordinary lengths to avoid ending a sentence with a preposition:

This is the sort of English up with which I will not put.

The most acceptable and sensible thing to do with regard to prepositions is to put them where they sound most natural. You might say or write:

What on earth are the children up to?

There's nothing you can do to prevent it, so it's just not worth fretting about.

Sometimes the best place to place a preposition depends on whether the context is formal or informal. In ordinary informal contexts you would write or say:

Which hotel did you stay in?

In a formal written context you might choose to write:

In what hotel did you stay?

There is a lot more to learn about prepositions than worrying about whether to end a sentence with them. For more information about them *see* Chapter 4.

OTHER USAGE CHANGES

who/whom

Another example of modern usage deviating from a previous strict grammatical ruling concerns **whom** and **who**. According to the rules of grammar, **whom** is used as the *object* of a verb or preposition, and **who** is used as the *subject*.

In modern usage, however, **who** is increasingly being used instead of **whom** except in very formal contexts, as in:

> *Who did he give his old car to?*

See also **whom/who in Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

will/shall

Here is another pair of words in which a grammatical change has occurred. They are the verbs **will** and **shall**, which are used to form the future tense. Formerly the verb **shall** was always used with *I* and *we*, and **will** was always used with you, *he*/*she*/*it* and *they*. There was an exception to this. **Will** was used with *I* and *we*, and **shall** was used with the other personal pronouns when a firm intention was being expressed, as in:

> *'You shall go to the ball,' said the fairy godmother to Cinderella.*

In modern usage **will** is now commonly used in most relevant contexts. *See under* **will/shall in Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

'll

Will and **shall** now often appear in the contracted form **'ll**, as in:

> *I'll go with you*.

> *They'll get the information tomorrow.*

The only thing that is new about this is that this contracted form was formerly found only in spoken English, or in very informal written English. Nowadays, in accordance with the new spirit of informality that has spread through the language, this contracted form is used in some more formal contexts. It should still be avoided in the most formal contexts.

can/may

The use of **can** and **may** has also been part of a major change. Formerly there was a clear distinction between the use of **can** (meaning 'be able to') and **may** (meaning 'be allowed to'). Nowadays **can** has taken over from **may** in this meaning and **may** is only used in formal contexts. Thus, people commonly say

Can I have a look at that?

instead of

May I have a look at that?

This is one of those changes in grammar that occurred because many people simply did not understand the difference. Many people opposed the change but could not, in the end, prevent it. *See under* **can/may in Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

try to/try and

As time has gone on, **try and** is one of those expressions that has gained acceptability and at least a degree of respectability. Formerly language purists looked down their noses at it and regarded it as a mistake for **try to**. Now, for the most part the two expressions are widely considered to be interchangeable, with many people preferring **try and** except, perhaps, in the most formal contexts.

See also **try to/try and in Perennial posers** in Chapter 8.

And and But

It is no longer considered an error to start a sentence with **And** or **But**. This is quite a recent change and one that has probably arisen because people started to ask why not. However, do not overdo it. Starting a sentence with **And** or **But** is best kept for those occasions when you want to draw particular attention to something or to emphasize something. A whole string of sentences starting in this way is going to sound very tedious and suggest a lack of talent or imagination in the writer.

hanged/hung

The distinction between these parts of the verb to **hang** is fading quite fast. Many people would now say

He was the last criminal in the country to be hung.

instead of

He was the last criminal in the country to be hanged.

although it is the latter version that is correct in traditional grammar.

Traditionally **hung** should be used in such contexts as:

They hung their coats on the washing line to dry.

See **hanged/hung** under **Variable verbs** in Chapter 8.

DESEXING GRAMMAR

The movement to get rid of **sexism** in vocabulary was far-reaching and it had a very important effect on grammar. *See* **Desexing the**

language in Chapter 6.

Rules had to be broken and this aroused a lot of opposition. So what were the problems? Some are discussed in the section below.

GETTING RID OF SEXISM

each and every

One of the problems concerned words such as **each** and **every**. It was one of the established rules of grammar that **each**, used either as an adjective (or as a determiner as it is now known) or a pronoun, should be accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

> *Each student will be given a locker key before the swimming lesson*.

> *It's difficult to make a choice because each seems equally suitable.*

The same was true of the adjective or determiner **every**. It, too, had to be accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

> *Every worker is to be given a share of the company profits.*

So far so good. The trouble was that **each** and **every** were always accompanied by a personal pronoun in the singular, where this was relevant. And this takes us back to sexism again. In the days when people saw nothing wrong in assuming that everyone was male, unless it was made absolutely clear that this was not the case, sentences such as

> *Each student was given his own locker key before the swimming lesson.*

and

> *Every worker was given his share of the company profits.*

were the norm. All that has changed, and you can now write

> *Each student was given their own locker key.*

and

> *Every worker was given their share of the company profits.*

See **his and their** and **him and them** below.

everyone/everybody/no one

The same was true of the pronouns **everyone**, **everybody** and **no one**. If you were acting in accordance with the correct rules of grammar you had to say or write:

> *Students must make their own way to the station on the morning of the trip and everyone has to bring his own lunch.*

Now you can write, without committing a grammatical sin:

> *everyone has to bring their own lunch.*

See **his and their** (see 1) and **him and them** (see 1) below.

his and their (see 1, 2)

Not so long ago there was a distinct male bias in grammar. It was assumed that everyone was male, unless it was known that this was definitely not the case. Words such as student and worker were, therefore, accompanied by **his**, where relevant. The use of **his** indicated the person involved was male, but why should a student or

a worker, or anyone else for that matter, be assumed to be male unless there was clear proof of this?

Various ways round the problem of getting rid of sexism while retaining grammatical accuracy were tried out. People tried dropping **his** in favour of **his or her** or **his/her**, but found this awkward and clumsy, as in:

> *Each student was given his or her locker key before the swimming lesson.*
>
> *Every worker was given his/her share of the company profits.*

Of course, you can sometimes avoid both sexism and grammatical inaccuracy of this kind by putting such sentences in the plural, as in:

> *All of the students were given their locker key before the swimming lesson.*
>
> *All the workers were given their share of the company profits*.

However, this is not always possible and eventually what was previously said to be completely unacceptable became accepted. The word **his** in such cases came to be replaced by **their**, although this use was ungrammatical. What was previously a serious grammatical error began to appear in reference books and school textbooks.

Sentences such as the following became acceptable:

> *Every worker was given their share of the company profits.*

Who would have thought it? Grammar had lost out to anti-sexism in language. Of course, this did not happen overnight or without a fight,

and there are still many people who would never dream of going against grammar rules in this way.

he and him (see 1, 2)

There was a similar problem concerning the use of the word **he**. Before people began to protest against sexism in language it was common to use the masculine personal pronoun **he** to refer to a noun where the gender was not known, as in:

> *If a student is accepted for the course he will receive an application form in the post.*

It was also common to use the masculine personal pronoun **him** where appropriate, as in:

> *If we find that an athlete has taken drugs we will disqualify him.*

The use of **he** and **him** in such contexts became unacceptable to those who were intent on stamping out sexism in language. The use of **he or she** and **him or her** or **he/she** and **him/her** proved too clumsy for many people's tastes and, once again, an ungrammatical use won the day.

They is often now used to replace **he** where appropriate, as in:

> *If a passenger misses a connecting flight they will be compensated.*

While **them** is often used to replace **him** where appropriate, as in:

> *Should an applicant be unsuccessful we will let them know immediately.*

got/gotten

British English is beginning to be influenced by **gotten**, the American past participle of the verb **got**. **Gotten** is often used in American English instead of **have got**, which is still standard use in British English. *See* **got/gotten** in Chapter 8.

INFORMALITY

A general air of increased informality has come over the English language. This probably began after the end of the Second World War and was to gather speed, admittedly gradually, as the decades rolled by. After the end of the war society changed and more attention was paid to the ordinary person, rather than just to members of the upper classes and upper middle classes. This change to a greater informality speeded up in the 1960s.

Radio became very popular and soon local radio stations began to develop. The presenters of the programmes issued by these often used language in a much less formal way than the average BBC newsreader who spoke with very upper-class accents.

Programmes such as phone-ins also gave ordinary people the chance to be heard. Listeners heard people using the language that they themselves used and in their own familiar accents. Sometimes what they were saying was ungrammatical and sometimes it was slang, but people were using it when they were speaking in public. The language of the broadcast was no longer the preserve of the educated upper and middle classes. It was for everyone.

This air of informality became even more marked when the computer began to make its mark on our lives, and even more marked again when electronic forms of communication became the norm. The use of emails and, to an even greater extent, the use of

texting, brought a greater informality to communication and this included punctuation and grammar as well as vocabulary.

Before all this and relatively recently, ordinary people used to compose their written communications mainly by hand. They would send written letters to family and friends even after telephones became commonly used. This was true even of rather formal letters such as letters of complaint.

Business letters in firms were typed, usually by someone specifically employed to do that. Not many ordinary people typed. However, typing on a computer keyboard with a large screen in front of you is much easier than typing on a traditional typewriter. Soon many people were trying their hand at it and, in time, sending emails as a routine way of communicating with people, whether this communication was formal or informal.

Communication by email has had an important effect on the use of language in various ways. It has made some people more careless about spelling, grammar and punctuation. They rely on spell- and grammar-checkers on their computers to alert them to any errors. But these should come with a warning. For example, spell-checkers will indicate that you have written ‘thier’ instead of ‘their’ because ‘thier’ is a misspelling, however, they will not alert you to the fact that you have written ‘their’ instead of ‘there’ because both are actual words, though they mean different things. You still have to know how to spell and use grammar.

Emails have also increased the informality of all aspects of writing. Technological advances seem to have increased the speed at which we live generally. We need to do everything very quickly just to keep up with our schedules.

There seems to be a pressure to get emails written as quickly as possible in the expectation that you will somehow get a rapid reply. The process of instant messaging has only increased this feeling, and this need for speed has resulted in an increase of informality, and sometimes carelessness.

OMITTED PUNCTUATION

Thus writers of emails have a tendency to avoid things that might make their task longer. So they miss out commas when actually they should be there, and omit full stops when they definitely should be there. On the other hand, many senders of emails are particularly fond of the dash, which many of them overuse. For more information on punctuation *see* **Punctuating Properly** in Chapter 2.

CONTRACTED FORMS

People tend to use contracted forms even in relatively formal emails. So we find a much higher occurrence of words such as **I'll**, **he'll**, **you'll**, **work'll**, **John'll** and **Mary'll** than was formerly the case. Likewise, we find the contracted forms **don't**, **didn't**, **won't**, **haven't**, **hadn't**, **could've** and **should've** used with increasing frequency. Not only that, but the apostrophe is often omitted. This is partly because people are in too much of a hurry to stop and insert it, and partly because they have no idea where it should be inserted. *See* **could of** and **should of**.

GREETINGS

When people first began to write emails there was a feeling of unease about how to start an email and how to finish it off. There

seemed no point in putting the postal address at the top since this was not really relevant. Anything requiring that kind of information would be sent by what became known as ‘snail mail’.

There was not such a problem if you knew the person well and were on first-name terms with them. You would continue to write **Dear John**, etc, at the beginning and would sign off with whatever informal greeting you were in the habit of using if you wrote them a note or letter.

However, this was to change also. Things were to get more informal. People started to write **Hi John** instead of **Dear John**, etc. If this seemed too informal, they took to writing simply **John**. Alternatively, they could omit a greeting altogether and simply begin the email. This practice became particularly popular if a series of communications was exchanged in the same day.

People still write **Dear Mr Smith/Ms Jones**, etc, as the opening greeting of a more formal letter, but it is by no means uncommon for such letters simply to begin with the person’s name, as in **Mr Smith/Ms Jones**.

The closing greetings of formal letters have been subject to greater change. Formal letters often used to end with **Yours faithfully**. This was quite a curious thing, as there seems no reason for people to swear fidelity to people they either did not know or did not know well. The alternative to this was **Yours sincerely**, although there seems no need to pledge your sincerity either. Nowadays **Yours faithfully** is fading fast in all but the most formal letters and, to some extent, **Yours sincerely** is taking over, although it is still fairly formal.

If you want to do away with suggestions of fidelity and sincerity and still remain fairly formal, you can opt for a greeting such as

Regards or **Kind regards**. Some people prefer to opt for **Best wishes** or to reduce this just to **Best** and **All Best**.

If you want to choose something much more informal I am sure that you will have some ideas of your own. If you run out of inspiration there is always **Cheers!**

SLANG AND COLLOQUIALISMS

There are many contexts, apart from emails, relating to the Internet where informality has become common. On social-networking sites and blogs people are very likely to use informal punctuation and grammar and vocabulary. They are also likely to use colloquial or slang vocabulary. Strictly speaking, the distinction between colloquial or informal English and slang is that slang is slightly further along the path of informality than colloquial and informal English. However, this distinction is sometimes difficult to discern and there can be a degree of confusion about the whole thing. At any rate, you will find people writing a great deal of non-formal English in emails and on social-networking sites, etc, whether it is colloquial or slang.

Many people seem to think that slang is a 'here today, gone tomorrow' kind of language. But there are a great many slang words that have had a very long shelf-life indeed. Take **skint** for example. It is still alive and kicking, and still means 'having hardly any money', and it goes back to 1925. Mind you, there are always a great many people who are **skint** – they are always with us. Perhaps that has something to do with the survival of the word!

What is unusual is that such words as **skint** are being used much more freely than they ever were before. The same is true of words such as **pissed-off**, meaning 'irritated' or 'annoyed', which has probably been around since the Second World War. **Pants** is a slang

term of disapproval which came into being around 1995, much to the delight of adolescents, young and old.

How slang words arise is interesting. There is often a general assumption that they have all come from America, but this is not always the case. Some of them have quite unusual origins. Take **minging** or **mingin** for example. This word has recently enjoyed a great deal of popularity, much featured on the Internet. However, it is far from new.

Mingin is an old Scots word and is derived from the Scots verb *ming*, meaning 'to give off such a strong and unpleasant smell that it makes you want to hold your nose'. *Mingin* in Scots means having a very unpleasant smell. Around the mid 1980s it began to be used by some Scottish schoolchildren as a general term of disapproval, nothing to do with bad smells. For example, 'A mingin teacher' was just a teacher that was considered to be no good.

Much later **mingin** or **minging** became widely used as a slang term throughout the UK, particularly among the young. It has taken on a wide range of meanings such as 'disgusting', 'unpleasant', 'unattractive' or 'of poor quality'. You can use it of anyone or anything that you dislike. If you want to insult a person even further you can call them 'a mingin minger'.

THE DECLINE OF DICTIONARIES

Slang words which have demonstrated a significant degree of longevity have long been admitted to the pages of dictionaries. Mind you, a lot of people might not have realized that. Fewer people now look up large desk dictionaries or other reference books. If they want

to check that they have used the correct word in a piece of writing, they are more likely to Google it or look it up on an electronic dictionary. Often they trust to luck, or possibly their memory, and neither of these may be very reliable. Words that are easily confused are even more likely to be confused and, in this culture of speed and informality, there is a lot of room for ambiguity.

This is sad news for dictionaries. In the early part of the 20th century they were regarded as an undisputed authority on language. Many families would have one, and usually only one, and this would often be referred to as ‘the dictionary’. People would only change their dictionary when it lost its cover and fell apart. New editions were produced at a far slower rate than they are today and of course there was no Internet to refer to.

Often several decades elapsed before a new edition of a dictionary was published and, during that time, no new additions and changes were recorded where the average person could access them. There was a general feeling that language was set in stone and had to remain that way.

In the late 1970s publishers began to issue new editions of their dictionaries at much shorter intervals and many more publishers began to get involved in dictionary publishing. There was so much competition in this market that the early 1980s brought a phenomenon called the ‘dictionary war’.

This increase in dictionary publishing was partly owing to the fact that computerization made it much easier to produce new dictionaries or new editions of dictionaries. This meant that dictionaries could react quite speedily to the changes that were taking place in the language.

The press got involved and helped to popularize dictionaries and indeed began to have some influence on them. Journalists were really mostly interested in rather quirky words that they thought would appeal to their readership, rather than in the many new technical words that were coming into the language. It has to be admitted that dictionary publishers made the most of this situation and some of them played to the gallery, or rather to the media. They deliberately included frivolous words and expressions which at other times would not have stood a chance of being included in a formal dictionary. So it was that expressions such as *yummy mummy* found their way into dictionaries.

This made the task of the traditional lexicographer (a compiler of dictionaries) more difficult. Finding enough space to include the many words that were crying out to be allowed entry to the dictionary was a long-running problem. Taking a word out was not really an option, because who knew when it might pop up again after a period of disuse?

The online dictionary changed things. Lack of space was no longer the problem that it once was in the printed dictionary, and lexicographers had more leeway in their choice of what to include. They could indulge themselves a bit more and demonstrate the growing informality of the language. More and more buzz words, such as **flunami** meaning ‘a sharp increase in the number of flu cases occurring’ and based on **tsunami**, were considered suitable candidates for online dictionaries. In the old days, when ‘the dictionary’ was still Bible-like in its authority, words like that would never even have been considered for entry. But would they ever have been invented in the first place?

2

PUNCTUATING PROPERLY

PUNCTUATION THEN AND NOW

In the latter part of the 19th century much emphasis was placed on the importance of punctuation. In UK schools a lot of time was spent on trying to educate pupils on the many rules of punctuation. It was very easy to get things wrong. However, around the middle of the 1960s, punctuation fell out of favour with the educational establishment. The same thing happened to grammar. *See* Chapter 1, **The Changing Face of English**.

Those in charge of the school curriculum decided that too much attention was being paid to the rules of punctuation and that these were being too rigidly applied. This, they claimed, was stifling the creativity of young writers. If the emphasis on where and if you put a full stop, comma, etc, was greatly reduced, then full rein could be given to the imagination of budding writers. They could just let their story flow – a bit like a stream of consciousness novel although, hopefully, not so long or so complex.

It was certainly a good idea to reduce the number of rules and get rid of much of the rigidity associated with such rules, but there was a downside. Pupils were left not knowing the basics of punctuation.

Why did this matter, and what use is punctuation? Punctuation helps make sense of language and gives it structure. It breaks up what might be a rambling, fairly meaningless piece of writing and makes it into a meaningful unit.

It eventually became clear that creativity, unless exceptionally inspired, was not enough. It was acknowledged that some structure was necessary and punctuation was brought in from the cold, although the rules were never to be so extensive or so rigidly enforced as before.

The rules became even more relaxed when electronic forms of communication became the norm. The use of emails and, to an even greater extent, the use of texting brought a greater informality to communication and this included punctuation as well as vocabulary and grammar. This relaxed form of punctuation is much easier to get right but there are still some potential pitfalls. These have to be avoided, at least when you are writing some kind of formal communication such as an essay or a business letter. *See* Chapter 1.

COMMON ERRORS IN PUNCTUATION

APOSTROPHE

THE APOSTROPHE SHOWING POSSESSION

The apostrophe (written as ’) has’ two main uses: to indicate possession, i.e. that something belongs to someone; and to show

that there are missing letters or spaces in a contracted word, as in *can't, haven't* and *isn't*.

When indicating possession, an **s** is added after the apostrophe for singular words and for plurals that don't already end in an –**s**. For example, *a girl's bike, a person's right, John's car, the company's premises, the children's school, women's rights.* If a plural word ends in an –**s**, the apostrophe follows the **s** and no extra **s** is added, as in *students' dictionary, employees' contracts.*

If a person's name ends in an **s**, **x** or **z** sound or the silent French **s** in words like Descartes, then the accepted modern usage to show possession is, most of the time, to add **'s** as in *Descartes's Meditations, Charles's wife, Camus's novel, Francis's birthday*. It is slightly old fashioned to use the apostrophe alone. However in biblical or classical texts it might seem more appropriate as in *in Jesus' name, Herodotus' works*. Use the sound of the end of the word as a guide too. If adding **'s** makes the pronunciation of longer words harder then it's acceptable to just use an apostrophe as in *Williams' latest singles victory*. Follow a consistent style within the text.

It would be foolish to claim that use of the apostrophe is easy, and it is the cause of a great many punctuation errors. What complicates the issue is that it involves knowing quite a lot about the formation of plurals in English, itself a difficult subject because of the number of plurals that are irregularly formed. *See* Chapter 3 which provides information on irregular plural nouns.

Common errors when the apostrophe indicates possession

- Inserting an apostrophe when there is no suggestion that possession is involved, and no contracted forms are involved. This is a particularly common error and there are examples of it all overthe place, particularly in shop windows, informal advertisements and menus. For example, you might See the following on a sign outside a fruit and vegetable sign: *fresh local leek's, new potatoes' for sale* or *try these juicy tomatoes'.*

  The vegetables do not own anything and the apostrophes are completely wrong. They should be omitted.
- Inserting an apostrophe where none should be when this relates to such expressions as *sports coach* and *games teacher.* Again, there is no suggestion of possession being involved and to write *sports' coach* or *sport's coach* and *games' teacher* or *game's teacher* is wrong.
- Putting the apostrophe in the wrong place in plural and singular words. Someone may wrongly write *the boys' favourite hobby* when only one boy is involved (it should be *the boy's favourite hobby*), or *the worker's living quarters* when several workers are involved (so it should be *the workers' living quarters*).

  The above error is all the more common with regard to irregular plural forms that do not end in the letter **s**. Instead of writing correctly *women's athletics* and *children's literature* some people wrongly write *womens' athletics* and *childrens' literature. See* Chapter 3 which provides information on irregular plural nouns (see 1).
- Putting an apostrophe on such personal possessive pronouns as *hers, its* or *theirs.* They show possession and they may end in **s** but they never contain an apostrophe.

  Do not write:

  These books are theirs'.

  or

  These books are their's.

  The correct form is:

  These books are theirs.

- Using **it's** instead of **its** to indicate possession. This is one of the most common errors involving an apostrophe. **Its** should not contain an apostrophe in such sentences as:

  The dog has lost its (not it's) ball.

  The cinema had put its (not it's) prices up, so they found that they did not have enough money with them for popcorn too.

  The word **it's** is only used as a contracted form of **it is**, as in:

  It's unusual to find a very stylish car that is economical to drive too.

  See also **The apostrophe in contracted forms** below.

- Using **you're** instead of **your** to indicate possession. This is a very common error. **You're** should not be used in such sentences as:

  Does that answer your (not you're) *question?*

  You're is a contracted form of *you are* and should only be used in such sentences as:

  I'm sure you're (not your) *wrong.*

  See also **The apostrophe in contracted forms (see 1)** below.

- Omitting the apostrophe for the sake of appearance when one should be inserted. It is quite common for people involved in advertising or design to want to omit the apostrophe in a word on a book cover, etc, because they feel that it looks cleaner and less cluttered without it. Do not try doing this in an application for a job!

THE APOSTROPHE IN CONTRACTED FORMS (see 1)

The apostrophe is also used to show the omission of letters in contracted forms, as in *can't* for *cannot, isn't* for *is not*, *haven't* for *have not* and *you'll* for *you will*.

Common errors when the apostrophe is used in contracted forms

- Omitting the apostrophe where there should be one. Punctuation may be becoming more informal and relaxed and you may not bother with apostrophes if you are dashing off a text to a friend, but you must put them in if you are writing a formal letter. The use of the apostrophe in this context is one that may well fade over the years, but, for the moment, it is still very much alive.
- Omitting the apostrophe in **it's**, the contracted form of **it is**, as in:

  It's (not its) *not my fault that Dad's car got damaged.*

  This use should not be confused with the use of **its** to show possession when there should be no apostrophe, as in:

  The hamster is sleeping in its cage.

  See it's and its/it's.
- Omitting the apostrophe in **you're**, the contracted form of **you are**, as in:

  You're (not your) going to get into trouble if you're late again.

  This use should not be confused with the use of *your* to show possession as in:

  It was your fault that we were late.

  See **The apostrophe showing possession**.
- Using an apostrophe when indicating the end of a decade. Since it's simply a plural, you should write *1990s*, not *1990's*.

BRACKETS

Brackets, especially round brackets, occur in pairs and are used to enclose information that is additional to a main statement. They can often be removed without altering the basic meaning of the statement, as in:

> *The student was very rich (richer than anyone his age had any right to be) and that alone made him very popular with many of his fellow students.*

Common errors involving brackets

- Forgetting to insert the second one of a pair of brackets.
- Overusing brackets. Avoid doing this. Too many of them really interrupt the flow of what you are writing. Take time to reorganize what you want to say rather than relying on a lot of brackets to add extra information as you go along.

CAPITAL LETTER

The capital letter has suffered a decline because of the rise in electronic communication. If you are sending someone an email or using your mobile phone to text them it is much easier and quicker to type lower-case letters than capital letters. So it is that a lot of electronic communications go on their merry way with the first person singular pronoun being spelt **i** rather than **I**. Also you will find people's names spelt with an initial lower-case letter instead of a capital letter, as in *peter* and *mary*, and names of places spelt in a similar fashion, as in *rome* instead of *Rome* and *tower bridge* instead of *Tower Bridge.*

Do not be too cheered up by this news. You are not off the hook. We are not witnessing the general collapse of the capital letter. It is

still very much alive in more formal contexts, whether these take the form of electronic communication or snail mail.

TIPS REGARDING CAPITAL LETTERS

- Do not forget to put a capital letter as the initial letter of the first word in a sentence, question or exclamation, as in:

  Tourists only go there in the summer.

  Did you buy tickets for the concert?

  Don't do that!

- Do not forget to put a capital letter as the initial letter of a name or proper noun, as in:

  His younger brother's called Michael.

  Stockholm is the capital of Sweden.

  When did the Ice Age begin?

  His birthday is in October.

  What date is Easter Sunday this year?

  She has converted to Buddhism.

- Although the months of the year and the days of the week are spelt with an initial capital letter, the seasons of the year are usually spelt with an initial lower-case letter, as in:

  It's too hot for us there in the summer.

  His favourite season of the year is spring.

  It was a cold and wet autumn day.

  Some people prefer to use an initial capital letter in this context and it is not actually wrong to do so.

- Nouns and adjectives which refer to nationalities or ethnic groups are spelt with an initial capital letter, as in:

  She speaks Spanish fluently.

  It was a conference of French economists.

  However, there is an exception to this. Where an adjective referring to a nationality is not used literally, it is usually spelt with a lower-case letter, as in:

  The brussels sprouts were overcooked.

  She walked through the french windows into the garden.

  Dogs breeds such as *alsatian* and *chihuahua* don't have to have initial capitals.
- The names of languages are spelt with an initial capital letter, as in:

  She has gone to London to study English.

  But other academic subjects are spelt with an initial lower-case letter, as in:

  He is studying psychology.
- Although the pronoun **I** is always spelt with a capital letter, the other pronouns are spelt with a lower-case letter, as in *you, he, she, they*, etc, unless they are the first word in a sentence.
- Do not forget to put a capital letter as the initial letter of a trade name, as in:

  He has just bought a Toyota.

  I need to buy a roll of Sellotape to wrap my Christmas presents.

  We used to play Scrabble in the evenings.
- Do not use capital letters simply to emphasize a word, as in:

Their new house is HUGE.

COLON

Do not avoid the colon. Stop thinking of the colon as something difficult and academic. Using the colon in formal contexts will save you from using the already overused dash. Use it, for example when you are introducing a list of some kind, as in:

> *You will need the following ingredients: eggs, milk, flour, sugar, cocoa powder and vanilla essence.*

A COMMON ERROR INVOLVING THE COLON

- Do not confuse the colon with the semi-colon. The colon is used to separate two parts of a sentence when the first part leads on to the second part, as in:

> *This area has been significantly upgraded during the last few years: property prices have soared.*

SEMI-COLON

Do not avoid the semi-colon. Stop thinking of it as something difficult and academic, although it is rather a formal punctuation mark.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING THE SEMI-COLON

- Do not confuse the semi-colon with the colon. The semi-colon is used to join clauses that are not joined by a conjunction. The clauses could each be sentences in their own right. It has the force of a strong comma or a dash. The semi-colon is often a useful substitute for a dash.

- The semi-colon is used to separate the items in a long list or a series of things. Do not confuse it with the colon.

  Functioning like a particularly strong comma, the semi-colon is often used in more complicated lists to make them easier to understand, as in:

  While we are in Edinburgh we plan to visit Edinburgh Castle; *the Canongate area, including the Palace of Holyroodhouse, Holyrood Park and the Scottish Parliament*; *the shops, of course, if we have any money left from all the sightseeing; the National Gallery of Scotland and the National Portrait Gallery*.

COMMA

Punctuation is generally much more informal than it once was and the rules relating to the use of commas are not as rigid as they once were. This is a good thing as the comma has long been a source of confusion to many users of English.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING THE COMMA IN LISTS

- Be aware of the following. Commas are often used to separate the various items in lists. Formerly it was considered wrong to put a comma before the *and* which follows the second-last item in a list, as in:

  I bought bread, butter, cheese, grapes and wine.

  Nowadays it is becoming increasingly common in British English, and even more common in American English, to insert a comma in that position, as in:

  I bought bread, butter, cheese, grapes, and wine.

  This comma is known as ‘the Oxford comma’ or ‘the serial comma’. At this stage, whether you use it or not is entirely up to

you. However, there are occasions when you should use it to avoid ambiguity. Confusion may arise if the last item in a list of items itself contains the word *and* used in its own right as part of the sentence, as in:

> *For the children there was a choice of pizza, chicken nuggets, macaroni cheese and fish and chips.*

For the sake of clarity it is as well to put a comma after the word *cheese*, as in:

> *For the children there was a choice of pizza, chicken nuggets, macaroni cheese, and fish and chips.*

Some examples are likely to be found even more ambiguous, as in:

> *We had a film marathon and watched The Hobbit, Spider-Man, Avatar and Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows*.

To avoid ambiguity put a comma after *Avatar*, as in *Avatar, and Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows*.

If you are dealing with an exceptionally long list of items or with a list in which the items each consist of several words, you should consider using a semi-colon instead of a comma.

- It was formerly absolutely standard practice to separate with a comma the individual adjectives in a list of adjectives placed before a noun, as in:

> *She wore a long, black, low-necked, evening dress*.

It was considered wrong not to do so. That is no longer the case and although it is a relatively new broken rule it is one that is spreading fast. Whether you choose to insert a comma between each of the adjectives in a list is your decision. Be aware, however, that the practice of not inserting commas may become standard practice before too long.

A word of warning if you decide to go on separating adjectives with commas: do not insert a comma before the adjective which comes immediately before the relevant noun when this adjective has an exceptionally close relationship with the noun and, indeed, may help to define it, as shown in the following example:

We bought some large, glossy, red peppers to stuff for dinner.

Do not write:

We bought some large, glossy, red, peppers to stuff for dinner.

Even if you decide to insert commas between the other adjectives, as above, do not separate *peppers* from *red*. The words belong together.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING THE COMMA AND CLAUSES

- Where what is known as ‘a non-defining relative clause’ divides the parts of a main clause, this clause is placed within commas. For example, in the sentence

  Buenos Aires, whose name means ‘fair winds’, is the capital of Argentina.

  the clause *whose name means ‘fair winds’* is a non-defining relative clause; it doesn’t identify the city, it just gives a bit more information, so it could be taken out without altering the essential meaning of the sentence. It is a common error not to insert these commas, as in:

  Buenos Aires whose name means ‘fair winds’ is the capital of Argentina.

  When the relative clause is an integral part of the sentence and not just an extra piece of information, it is called ‘a defining relative

clause' and there is no need for commas, as in:

The restaurant that you mentioned has closed now.

The clause *that you mentioned* identifies the restaurant, so is essential to understanding the sentence.

- Always remember to include both commas of a pair of commas. This error which relates to commas and non-defining relative clauses involves using only the initial comma to separate off the clause and forgetting to insert the closing one. It is wrong to insert only one comma, as in:

  Buenos Aires, whose name means 'fair winds' is the capital of Argentina.

- Do not use a comma to separate a main clause from a subordinate clause, as in:

  She was leaving, as he arrived.

  This is wrong. Even when the subordinate clause is placed before the main clause you do not usually need a comma to separate them (although it is not wrong to use one), as in:

  If it rains we'll have the party indoors.

  However, if the subordinate clause is quite long you should use a comma to separate the different actions for the sake of clarity, as in:

  When we had cleaned the windows, hoovered the carpets, polished the furniture and filled some vases with flowers, the room was ready for the party.

- Where there is any risk of confusion you should insert a comma between the subordinate clause and the main clause, especially when the subordinate clause ends with a verb and the following main clause begins with a noun, as in:

  If you do not return, the books will be put back on the shelves.

When the students finished painting, their pictures were displayed on the walls.

- It is wrong to insert a comma between a main clause and a subordinate clause beginning with *that*, as in:

  I suspected, that she was dishonest.

- Where main clauses are joined by **and**, are quite long and have different subjects, it is a good idea to insert a comma before the **and** for the sake of clarity, as in:

  The Olympic stadium has a capacity of 80,000 and houses a nine-lane athletic track, and it will continue to be used as a sports venue for years to come.

When main clauses are joined by **but** users may choose either to use a comma or not to mark off the main clause, but a comma is helpful when both clauses are quite long.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING COMMAS WITH ADVERBS OR ADVERBIAL PHRASES

- It was formerly standard practice to use a comma to separate adverbs or adverbial phrases at the beginning of a sentence, such as *however, of course, in the meantime*, *for example*, from the rest of the sentence, as in:

  It's been a pleasant evening. However, it's late and I must go home now.

Nowadays, the comma in this situation is considered optional, but you should insert a comma after the adverb or adverbial phrase if there is any possibility of confusion, as in:

Normally, intelligent adults will appreciate the advantages of the savings scheme.

- It is also a good idea to insert a comma if the adverbial phrase is very long, as in:

After a great deal of careful consideration, I agreed.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING COMMAS IN THE ROLE OF BRACKETS

- A pair of commas is often used to separate off a piece of information that is not central to the meaning of a sentence, but is additional to it in the way that bracketed information is. The length of such pieces of additional information can vary from very short to quite long. Do not forget to enclose such information in commas in such situations, as in:

  Mark Taylor, the club treasurer, has asked me to address the meeting in his place as he has been unexpectedly called away.

  It is quite clear, as you have probably all realized, that the market is not likely to improve in the near future.

  Do not forget to include a pair of commas in such situations. One will not be enough.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING COMMAS IN VARIOUS OTHER SITUATIONS

- Do not forget to insert a comma between the last word in a piece of direct speech and the closing quotation mark and before the word *say* etc, as in:

  'You're late,' she said accusingly.

  'The bus is coming,' he called out.

- Do not forget to use a comma to separate a person's name, or the name of a group, from the rest of the sentence when you are addressing them, as in:

  Jim, welcome home!

I'm over here, Peter.

I'm sorry, Ms Park, but you have not got the job.

Gentlemen, let me show you the way.

- Do not forget to insert a comma after an interjection at the start of a sentence, as in:

  Heavens, it's hot!

  See, the display has started.

- Do not forget to use a comma to separate a question tag from the rest of the sentence, as in:

  It was a lovely evening, wasn't it?

  You do still want to go, don't you?

- Remember to insert a comma in numbers that are made up of more than four figures, as in *86,350* and *150,600*. A comma is also often used in numbers consisting of four digits, as in *3,000*, but there is a growing tendency to omit this comma.
- Do not use commas to separate the numbers in dates, as in *1941* and *2013* (not *1,941* and *2,013*).

DASH

- The dash can be used as part of a pair in much the same way as brackets, although dashes are generally much more popular than brackets and used in less formal contexts as in:

  My parents' next-door neighbour – I can't remember his name – has opened a wine bar on the high street.

- The single dash used on its own has several uses, often at the end of sentences, as in:

I never saw him again – and I wasn't sorry.

You can keep the book – I've finished with it.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING DASHES

- Do not forget to insert the second one of a pair of dashes.
- Do not overuse pairs of dashes. This is a common thing to do as dashes are very popular with a great many writers. Using a lot of dashes is fine if you're just writing a chatty email to a friend, but use them very sparingly in any kind of formal communication. Too many of them really interrupt the flow of what you are writing and can look messy.
- Do not overuse the single dash. As is the case with pairs of dashes, this is a very common thing to do and should be avoided when you are writing any kind of formal communication. To pepper your piece of writing with a lot of dashes looks rather messy.

EXCLAMATION MARK

The exclamation mark is used at the end of a sentence instead of a full stop when the sentence is expressing someone's strong reaction to something, e.g. anger, shock, surprise, as in:

I absolutely hate him!

The exclamation mark often follows a single word or a group of words without a verb that also express a strong reaction, as in:

How amazing! Wow!

Exclamation marks may also function as markers of friendly interaction, for example, by making 'Good luck!' seem friendlier than simply 'Good luck'.

A COMMON ERROR INVOLVING EXCLAMATION REMARKS

- Do not overuse exclamation marks. If you do they become ineffective. Restrict their use to situations where very strong reactions are appropriate. Use them very, very sparingly in formal contexts.

FULL STOP

It is a basic requirement of writing to be able to write in sentences. The main function of the full stop is to mark the end of sentence where this does not end in a question mark or exclamation mark.

The full stop is also sometimes used in connection with abbreviations. The modern tendency is to use full stops far less frequently in abbreviations than was formerly the case. Often whether you use them or not is a matter of taste as long as you are consistent within any one piece of writing.

The full stop also plays an important role in email addresses and website addresses.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING FULL STOPS

- Full stops are often omitted in error. It is a common error just to leave the end of a sentence without any punctuation at all even though the next sentence may begin with a capital letter, as in:

  I don't know why he left He went away very suddenly
  without saying anything

  These examples are wrongly punctuated. They should both end with a full stop.

- Failure to recognize the end of a sentence resulting in failure to use the appropriate punctuation, as in:

He knew he wasn't likely to win the match he hadn't been training as much as usual.

This is wrong. There should be a full stop after the word *match* and the *he* that follows should have a capital letter. Alternatively, there should be a conjunction after *match*, as in:

He knew he wasn't likely to win the match because he hadn't been training as much as usual.

- If you find that you have just written a very long sentence, have a careful look at it. Is it correctly punctuated? Should you have broken your piece of writing into more than one sentence and inserted full stops and capital letters where appropriate?
- Omitting the full stop at the end of a group of words complete in itself although it is not actually a sentence, as in:

'When did you last See him?'

'Yesterday evening'

There should be a full stop after the word *evening* and before the closing quotation mark, as in:

'When did you last See him?'
'Yesterday evening.'

- In dialogue, putting the full stop in the wrong place when it is used with quotation marks. It should go before the closing quotation mark not after, as in:

'I'm afraid I can't come with you.'

- Putting a full stop in abbreviations which involve initial capital letters, such as *BBC, TUC, USA*, is best avoided. This is not in keeping with modern usage.
- Putting a full stop in abbreviations if one or some of the initial letters do not relate to a full word, such as *TV*.
- Forgetting to insert a full stop where it is needed can prevent an email from reaching its destination or prevent you from accessing

a website.

HYPHEN

The hyphen is used in various situations but it has fallen out of favour and is now used much less frequently than formerly. It was once common practice to join two words together as a compound using a hyphen, as in *boat-hook, boat-house, bake-house, boot-guard, boot-brush, dog-house, dog-walker, door-handle, gun-rack, tree-house.*

Now the tendency is to remove the hyphen, making the compound either one word or two. Often this is a matter of taste, although longer words are more likely to become two words than one word.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING HYPHENS

- Having made your choice about whether to make a compound noun one word or two, remember to stick with this system throughout any one piece of writing. It is easy to be inconsistent, particularly if you have been undecided about which style to choose.
- Remember that there are some fixed compounds of two or three or more words which still usually retain the hyphen, as in *brother-in-law* and *good-for-nothing.*
- Remember that the hyphen is normally used in compound adjectives before nouns, as in *the wine-producing areas of France, a ten-year lease* and *a three-bedroom house.*
- Remember that the hyphen is normally used in compound adjectives where the second element of the compound ends in –*ed*, as in *fair-minded judges.*
- Remember that the hyphen is normally used in certain adverbs, sometimes to avoid ambiguity, as in *a well-established method, a*

half-organized scheme and *the best-known writer of travel books about that area.*

- Do not use a hyphen to separate an adverb from an adjective or participle if the adverb ends in *–ly*, as in *a highly successful fashion designer* and *an immaculately dressed young man.*
- Remember that compound numbers such as *two hundred* and *seven thousand* are not hyphenated, although compound numbers from 21 to 99 when written in full are often hyphenated, as in *seventy-five years ago* and *forty-five miles.*
- Be careful when you are using two or more hyphenated compound adjectives which have the same second element and which qualify the same noun. You do not need to repeat the second element, but you do need to repeat the hyphen, as in *four- and five-storey buildings*.

PARAGRAPH

There is no doubt about it. Paragraphs can be difficult to get to grips with, particularly since they are not governed by any rules which tell us how to deal with them. The good news is that deciding when to start a new paragraph soon becomes a matter of instinct and you do it automatically. Paragraph writing is one of those cases where practice makes perfect – or at least competent. Also, it helps if you read a lot. Seeing how other people do it can be very useful.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING PARAGRAPHS

- First of all do remember to arrange your writing in paragraphs if you are writing something that is at all formal. It is all very well to type a rambling email to a friend without worrying about paragraphs, but this approach will not do for college essays, applications for jobs, letters of complaint, etc.
- Do not make your paragraphs too long. The idea behind paragraphs is to make a piece of writing more accessible. If you

write very long paragraphs you are going to create the impression of inaccessibility, however good your intentions are.

- It is no longer considered a grammatical sin to have only one sentence in a paragraph, but do not overdo it. Use it occasionally for stylistic effect if you like, but do not end up with a piece of writing consisting of one-sentence paragraphs unless you are a tabloid journalist.

QUESTION MARK

The question mark is used, as you might expect, at the end of a sentence that asks a direct question, as in:

Why did you do that?

Have you seen him lately?

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING QUESTION MARKS

- Do not forget to insert a question mark at the end of a question, as in:

  Why are you here.

  There should be a question mark instead of a full stop after *here.*
- Do not use a question mark when the question is part of reported or indirect speech instead of a question in direct speech, as in:

  She asked me where he was?

  I wondered who told him that?

  Both of these are wrong, because they are examples of reported or indirect speech.

QUOTATION MARKS

Quotation marks are used in pairs and have several uses. They are used to enclose direct speech, i.e. the actual words that someone has spoken, as in:

‘Why on earth did she marry him?’ I asked.

They are also used in a piece of writing to enclose a direct quotation from another piece of writing or speech, as in:

It was a bit of an exaggeration when she referred in her report to ‘record-breaking sales’.

They are also sometimes used to indicate titles of books, plays, etc, as in ‘ Jane Eyre’.

Quotation marks in all cases can either be double or single according to taste, as long as this is consistent in any one piece of writing. It is clearer for readers if a different style is used for anything quoted within a quote, so either single quotation marks within double quotation marks or double quotation marks within single quotation marks, as in:

‘It’s “business as usual” even though we’ve got scaffolding up,’ the shop manager told us.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING QUOTATION MARKS

- Do not omit the second set of quotation marks, as in:

  ‘We are leaving tomorrow, she said.

- Do not use a single quotation mark followed by a closing double one, as in:

  ‘Let’s meet for lunch next week,” he suggested.

3

IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

Irregular plurals (see 1) refer to the plural form of nouns that do not make their plural in the regular way.

Most nouns in English add **–s** to the singular form to make the plural form, as in *boy* to *boys*. Some add **–es** to the singular form to form the plural, as in *church* to *churches*. Nouns ending in a consonant followed by **–y** have **–ies** as a regular plural ending. Thus *fairy* becomes *fairies* and *berry* becomes *berries*. The foregoing are all examples of regular plurals.

Irregular plural nouns include nouns that are different in form from their singular forms and do not simply add an ending, such as *men* from *man, women* from *woman* and *mice* from *mouse*. Irregular plurals are formed in a number of different ways.

- Some irregular plurals are formed by changing the vowel of the singular forms, as in *feet* from *foot, geese* from *goose* and *teeth* from *tooth*.
- Some irregular plural forms are formed by adding **–en**, as *oxen* from *ox* and *children* from *child*.
- Some nouns ending in **–f** form irregular plurals in **–ves**, as in *loaf* to *loaves, half* to *halves, wife* to *wives* and *wolf* to *wolves*, but some have alternative endings, as in *hoof* to either *hoofs* or *hooves*, and some form regular plurals by simply adding **–s** to the singular form, as in *roof* to *roofs*.

- Some irregular plural forms are the original foreign plural forms of words adopted into English, for example *stimuli* from *stimulus, phenomena* from *phenomenon* and *criteria* from *criterion.* In modern usage there is a growing tendency to anglicize the plural forms of foreign words. Many of these coexist with the original plural form, as in *thesauruses* and *thesauri, formulas* and *formulae*, and *gateaus* and *gateaux.* Sometimes the anglicized plural formed according to the regular English rules differs slightly in meaning from the irregular foreign plural. Thus, *indexes* usually applies to the guides to the content at the end of books, and *indices* is normally used in the field of mathematics.
- Some nouns have irregular plurals in that the plural form and the singular form are the same. These include *sheep, grouse* (the game-bird) and *salmon*. Also, some nouns have a regular plural and an irregular plural form. Thus, *brother* has the plural forms *brothers* and *brethren*, although *brethren* is now mainly used in a religious context and is archaic in general English.

4

PROBLEMATIC PREPOSITIONS

PREPOSITIONS

You may think that, as parts of speech go, prepositions look fairly harmless. This is probably because many of them are so short (e.g. *in*, *on*, *from*, *off*, *with*, *to*) that you would not think that they could cause much in the way of trouble. However, small is not always innocent. Just think of the discomfort that midges can cause! Prepositions may be short but they are certainly not problem-free.

WHAT FOLLOWS WHAT?

But let's be fair to prepositions. The problems associated with them tend to centre not on the prepositions themselves, but on their relationships. It is the function of prepositions to show how some elements in sentences relate to other elements, and it is not always easy to decide which preposition connects what to what. This is a particular problem for learners of English as a foreign language or as a second language. However, it can also puzzle native speakers.

Some words cause particular problems because they can hook up with more than one preposition. For example, the verb *agree* can be accompanied by *to, with* or *on*, while the adjective *responsible* can

team up with *to* or *for*. The A–Z list below, although it is by no means comprehensive, will give you guidance on some of these.

absent from/present at

You are said to be **absent from** a meeting or place when you are not there, as in:

> *That is the third day the pupil has been absent from school.*

> *The lead actor was absent from last night's performance because he was ill.*

The opposite of **absent from** is **present at**, as in:

> *There were 300 people present at the protest meeting.*

absolve from

If you **absolve** someone **from** blame you say publicly or officially that they are not guilty of a crime or act of wrongdoing, often one that they have been accused of, as in:

> *He has been absolved from all blame in connection with the accident.*

Absolve from is mostly used in formal contexts.

accustomed to/in the habit of

If you are **accustomed to**(see 1) something it is something that you do regularly or are very familiar with, as in:

> *Their teenage children were accustomed to the amenities of city life and found life in a country village*

very boring.

It is a more formal way of saying ‘used to’, as in:

They were accustomed to sitting about doing nothing and certainly didn’t want to start working.

Another way of saying this is **in the habit of**, as in:

She’s in the habit of going for a run after work every evening.

accuse of/charge with

Both of these verbs involve saying that someone is guilty of something, but they are followed by different prepositions.

accuse of

If you believe that someone has done something wrong you can **accuse** them **of** wrongdoing, as in:

Money had gone missing from the till and he accused one of his employees of taking it.

If you use the noun **accusation** this is often followed by the preposition **against**, as in:

He appears to have made false accusations against his former business partner.

charge with

If the police go one step further and formally accuse someone of a crime they **charge** them **with** it, as in:

The police charged him with manslaughter.

If you use the noun **charge** this is often followed by the preposition **against**:

The police called the suspected criminal in for questioning then decided to press charges against him.

adhere to

If you **adhere to** a rule or an agreement you do what it says you should do or in other words you obey it, as in:

We expect all pupils to adhere to the school's rules during the school day, with no exceptions.

Adhere to is mostly used in formal contexts.

afraid of/frightened of

If you are **afraid of** something you feel fear because you think you might be hurt or harmed, as in:

The children are afraid of the dark.

She's afraid of dogs because she was bitten by one when she was a child.

You can also say that you are **frightened of** something, which has the same meaning as **afraid of**, as in:

The boy's frightened of ghosts although he's been told that there's no such thing.

agree

The verb **agree** can be followed by various prepositions according to its meaning.

agree to

If you **agree to** something you say that you will allow it to happen, as in:

> *They agreed to our plan right away.*

If you **agree to** do something you say that you will do it, as in:

> *He agreed to clean the car at the weekend after complaining it wasn't his turn.*

agree with

You are said to **agree with** someone about something if you both have the same opinion or feeling about it, as in:

> *I hardly ever agree with my brother but I think he's right about this.*

If you approve of something, such as a suggestion or a plan, you can be said to **agree with** it, as in:

> *I agree with his proposals for a wind farm but there will be a lot of opposition from the people who live in the area.*

Less commonly **agree with** can be used to indicate that something is good for you, as in:

> *The warmer climate certainly agrees with him and his health has improved dramatically.*

The opposite of this is to **disagree with**, as in:

> *The politicians disagreed with each other about the way forward.*

If you want to use the noun **agreement** in this context this is also followed by the preposition **with**, as in:

> *If we're all in agreement with each other, we can move on to the next issue up for discussion.*

agree on

If people discuss and reach a decision about something you can say that they **agree on** it, as in:

> *The young couple have finally got their families to agree on a date for the wedding.*

alternative/ alternative to

When used to describe a course of action the adjective **alternative** refers to something that can be done or used instead of something else, as in:

> *The police are recommending an alternative route to the city centre*.

Alternative can also be used as a noun taking the preposition **to**, as in:

> *My mother's always saying that there's no alternative to hard work when it comes to passing exams.*

> *He had no alternative but to cancel his plans after he was called in to work.*

analogous to

Something is **analogous to** something else if it is similar in some ways to something else and so able to be compared with it, as in:

> *These cases of flu are certainly analogous to those that have been described in parts of Europe.*

Analogous to is used in formal contexts.

answer

answer for/vouch for

1 If you have to **answer for** something you are responsible for it and have to explain how it came to happen, as in:

The team lost by a huge margin and their manager will have to answer for their appalling performance.

Your brother will have to answer for his bad behaviour and remain after school hours to See the headmaster.

2 If you say that you can **answer for** someone's good qualities or characteristics you mean that you can say with certainty that they have these, as in:

I have known the young woman for many years and can answer for her honesty.

Answer for is similar to **vouch for**, as in:

Several people are willing to vouch for the integrity of the accused.

3 If you say that you **can't answer for** someone else who is not present it means that you cannot say what they are likely to think or do, as in:

I'm definitely in favour of the scheme but I can't answer for any of my colleagues.

answer to

If you **answer to** someone in authority it means that you have to explain to them why you have acted in the way you did, as in:

I'm not going to tell you why I'm late. I only answer to the head of the department.

anxious

anxious about

If you are **anxious about** something you are worried about it for some reason and think about it all the time, as in:

> *The students are anxious about their exam results.*
>
> *The child is anxious about travelling on the train by herself.*

anxious to

If you are **anxious to** do something you want very much to do it, as in:

> *She is anxious to get a job so she can start saving some money.*
>
> *They are anxious to help.*

anxious for

Anxious for can sometimes be used to mean ‘worried about’, as in:

> *Their son is doing a dangerous job and they’re anxious for his safety.*

However, **anxious for** can also indicate that you want very much to have something or that you want it to happen, as in:

> *The workers are anxious for an immediate increase in salary.*
>
> *They are anxious for their house alterations to get finished but the builders are very slow.*

apart from

You use **apart** immediately followed by **from** when you are referring to an exception of some kind, as in:

I like all kinds of films apart from horror.

Apart from my sister everyone in our family has summer birthdays.

Apart from can also be used to mean ‘as well as’, as in:

Apart from their large town house in London they have a flat in Paris and a villa in Spain.

appeal

appeal against

If you **appeal against** a decision or a judgement you ask for it to be reconsidered and changed, as in:

He was found guilty of fraud but his defence team have appealed against the verdict.

Note that in American English **appeal** is used without a preposition following it, as in:

They have appealed the verdict.

appeal to

If you **appeal to** someone for something you make a request for some kind of help, as in:

Police have appealed to the public for information regarding the recent break-ins in the area.

Charities for homeless people have appealed to people to give generous donations this winter.

If something **appeals to** you, you like it and find it attractive or interesting, as in:

The idea of getting married at a beach resort really appeals to me.

Living in the city centre just doesn't appeal to me.

apply

apply for

If you **apply for** something you make a formal request to be considered for something such as a job, a place at college, etc, as in:

There's a job vacancy in our department but you have to apply for it in writing by Tuesday of next week.

apply to

Apply to means 'to concern or affect someone or something', as in:

This warning doesn't apply to people who are already respecting the school's rules.

approve of/disapprove of

If you **approve of** an action, suggestion, etc, you think it is a good thing and are pleased with it, as in:

His parents approved of his decision to go to university.

Not all the staff approved of the board's decision to expand the company.

The opposite of **approve of** is **disapprove of**, as in:

Many parents disapprove of the changes in the school curriculum.

arrive

arrive at/reach

If you **arrive at** a place you come to it after a journey, as in:

> *We arrived at the party just as everyone else was going home.*

Note that the verb **reach** without a following preposition can often be used instead of **arrive at**, as in:

> *We hope to reach the hotel before nightfall.*

arrive in

If the place at the end of your journey is a country or a town you use **in** instead of **at** with **arrive**, as in:

> *The ferry was delayed and we did not arrive in France until after dark.*

> *We will phone you when we arrive in Rome.*

ashamed of

If you are **ashamed of** something you have done you feel guilty or embarrassed because you think it was wrong or unacceptable in some way, as in:

> *He was really ashamed of shouting at his mother last night.*

You can also be **ashamed of** yourself when you feel this kind of guilt, as in:

> *He felt ashamed of himself for shouting at his mother last night.*

ask after

If you **ask after** someone you ask how they are, if they are well, etc, as in:

> *My doctor was at school with my mother and he always asks after her whenever I have an appointment to See him.*

attached to

If you are **attached to** someone or something you like them very much and have often known or owned them for a long time, as in:

> *The children are very attached to their grandfather.*
>
> *She's now a teenager but she's still very attached to her teddy bear*.

aware of/conscious of/unaware of/unconscious of

If you are **aware of** (see 1, 2) someone or something you know that they exist or are present, as in:

> *She was suddenly aware of footsteps behind her.*
>
> *I was aware of an atmosphere of hostility between them.*
>
> *She was all too aware of the noises in the house at night because she wasn't used to staying there alone.*

The opposite of **aware of** is **unaware of**, as in:

He was quite unaware of the time until he heard the clock strike midnight.

The expression **conscious of** means much the same as **aware of**, as in:

He was conscious of someone staring at him.

She was conscious of a change in their attitude towards her.

The opposite of **conscious of** is **unconscious of**, as in:

He seemed totally unconscious of the fact that people were laughing at him.

bank on/rely on/depend on

If you **bank on** something happening you **rely on** it happening and hope that you will get some advantage from it happening, as in:

I'm running late and I'm banking on the train being late. It usually is.

He's only had time to revise three or four topics for the history exam and he's banking on there being questions on at least two of these.

Bank on is slightly more informal than **rely on**. You can also use **depend on** in this way.

because of/owing to/due to (see 1)

If something happens **because of** (see 1) something it happens as a result of it, as in:

The football match had to be cancelled because of a flooded pitch.

Our plane was delayed because of a strike by baggage handlers.

The phrase **owing to** is a slightly more formal than **because of**, as in:

We had to postpone our holiday owing to my mother's illness.

Work in the whole factory was brought to a standstill owing to a serious electrical fault.

Due to is sometimes used as an alternative to **because of** and **owing to**. Although it is grammatically wrong to do so, this usage is becoming widespread because the difference between **due to** and **owing to** and **because of** is quite difficult to understand. **Due to** is adjectival and means 'caused by', while **because of** and **owing to** are prepositional, as in:

Everyone agreed that it was an error due to lack of experience.

Cancellations due to bad weather are expected.

become of

You use the phrase **become of** to refer to what has happened to someone or what they are doing now, as in:

He was at primary school with me and I often wonder what became of him.

We don't know what became of him after he left college.

begin

begin by

If you **begin by** doing something you do it first before doing anything else, as in:

> *I think we'll begin by putting the kettle on for a cup of tea.*

begin with

If you **begin with** something you deal with it first before carrying out other tasks, as in:

> *Assembly in that school always begins with a prayer.*

believe in

If you **believe in** something such as magic, fairies or ghosts, you feel sure that these exist.

> *The children still believe in Father Christmas.*

The same is true if you **believe in** God, as in:

> *She had been raised in a religious household but no longer believed in God.*

The phrase **believe in** can also be used to mean that you have confidence and trust in someone and are sure that they will be successful, as in:

> *In her early career she received many rejections but she continued to believe in herself and went on to become a famous actress.*

If you **believe in** something can also mean you are in favour of it or support it because you think that it is right, as in:

He believed in equality for women long before it became a popular issue.

belong to

If something **belongs to** someone, they own it, as in:

That car over there belongs to my neighbour.

If you **belong to** something, such as a club, organization, group or category, you are a member of it, as in:

They all belong to the local tennis club.

They belonged to the English aristocracy.

benefit from

If you **benefit from** something you get some form of advantage from it, as in:

Lower paid workers should benefit from the new tax rules.

blame

blame for

If you **blame** someone **for** something you say that they are responsible for something bad, as in:

The driver of the other car blamed him for the accident.

Her boss blamed her for the error in the accounts although it was really his mistake.

blame on

The expression **blame** something **on** someone used to be considered unacceptable by many users, but now things have changed and this use has become quite widespread, as in:

> *I wasn't even here when the vase broke. Don't blame it on me!*

If you want to use the noun **blame** to convey this meaning you say or write:

> *They tried to put the blame on me although I was completely innocent.*

bored

bored with

If you are **bored with** something you no longer find it interesting, as in:

> *He says he's bored with his job and wants to leave.*

bored of

The expression **bored of** is sometimes used in speech or very informal pieces of writing, as in *bored of this programme*. It should not be used in more formal writing.

capable of/incapable of

If you are **capable of** something or doing something, you are able to do it or are liable to do it:

> *I really didn't think that he was capable of playing the piano like that.*

> *She thinks that she's quite capable of moving into a flat on her own.*

The opposite of **capable of** is **incapable of**, as in:

> *She had thought herself incapable of speaking in public.*
>
> *That messy boy seems incapable of tidying up after himself!*

Incapable of is often used in quite formal contexts.

care

care for

If you **care for** someone who is sick, disabled, old, very young, etc, you look after them and make sure that they have the things they need, as in:

> *She employs someone to care for her elderly mother during the day.*

If you say you **don't care for** something, it means you don't like it, as in:

> *I don't care for red wine.*

It can also be a rather old-fashioned (and rather rude!) way of saying 'No, thank you', as in:

> *Would you like some fruit cake? No, I don't care for it.*

care about

If you **care about** something you think that it is important and you are concerned about it, as in:

> *If you cared about the environment you would recycle more of your household rubbish.*

If you **care about** someone or something you really like them or love them, as in:

He asked his mother to come and stay with them because he really cared about her.

This is rather a formal use.

centre

centre on

If something **centres on** something it is the focus or centre of attention or activity, as in:

His political thinking is centred on the redistribution of wealth.

The greater part of the bankers' discussion centred on the downturn in the world economy.

centre around/round

The phrase **centre around** or **centre round** is now frequently used instead of **centre on**. This is disliked by some language commentators on the grounds that the word **centre** is too precise to be used with the imprecise words **round** or **around**. The phrases **centre around** or **centre round** are more likely to be tolerated by precise users if they are used with reference to something generalized rather than something specific, as in:

Most of her hobbies centre around the great outdoors.

charge with *see* **accuse of**

close to *see* **near to**

clothed in *see* **dressed in**

commitment to

If you show **commitment to** someone or something you show loyalty to them, as in:

> *His commitment to the football team caused him to turn down a lucrative transfer offer.*

The expression **be committed to** can have much the same meaning:

> *She was so committed to her charity work that she spent all her free time volunteering.*

communicate

communicate to

If you **communicate** something **to** someone you tell them about it, as in:

> *She had to communicate news of the factory's closure to the workforce.*

This is used in rather formal contexts.

communicate with

If you **communicate with** someone you exchange information with them, as in:

> *We communicate regularly with each other by email.*

compare

compare to or with

When you compare two things you often do so as a comment on their differences or similarities. In this context you can follow **compare** with either **to** or **with**. Formerly **compare to** was considered incorrect in this context, but the difference between the

two phrases was not at all clear to some users. Now things have become simplified and **compare with** and **compare to** are both considered acceptable in this context, as in:

> *It's interesting to compare the school rules with those of a hundred years ago.*
>
> *It's a pity for him that he always feels he is being compared to his older brother.*

compare to

When you are only commenting on the similarity between two things and saying that they are like each other, then **compare to** is the correct phrase, as in:

> *He is a very good actor but you certainly cannot compare him to Robert de Niro.*

compatible with/incompatible with

If something is **compatible with** something else the two things are able to exist together or can be used together without any problems being caused, as in:

> *Having such a high pressure job isn't compatible with the demands of family life.*

The opposite of this is **incompatible with**, as in:

> *The new head's approach to education is totally incompatible with the deputy head's approach.*

complain

complain about

If you **complain about** something you think that there is something wrong with it and you say that you are not satisfied with it, as in:

> *The food in the restaurant was so bad that several people complained about it.*

complain of

If you **complain of** something it can mean that you say that you are annoyed or upset about it, as in:

> *The man who was arrested complained of ill-treatment by the police*.

It can also mean that you have a pain in part of your body or that you are feeling ill, as in:

> *The child is complaining of a pain in her stomach.*

complain to

If you **complain to** someone you tell them that you are not satisfied with something or that someone or something has made you annoyed or upset, as in:

> *The radio I bought is faulty and I'm going to complain to the manager of the shop where I bought it.*

> *If the students keep on having noisy parties every weekend we are going to complain to their landlord.*

compliment on

When you **compliment** someone **on** something you say something pleasant in praise of their appearance, ability, etc, to show that you admire them, as in:

> *Several people complimented her on her new hairstyle.*

> *He complimented the young man on his driving skills.*

composed of

If something is **composed of** some parts, substances, people, etc, it is made up of them, as in:

> *The committee is composed of local business people.*
>
> *The exam is composed of two units: an oral test and a written test.*

The phrase **be composed of** is similar in meaning to that of **consist of**, but it is often used in more formal contexts. *See* **consist of**.

concerned

concerned about or for

If you are **concerned about** something you are worried about it, as in:

> *She is concerned about environmental issues.*

The phrase **concerned for** also means worried about, as in:

> *Many young people are concerned for the future of the planet*.

concerned with

If something is **concerned with** something it deals with it or is about it, as in:

> *The book is concerned with changes in society after the Second World War.*

conditional on

If something is **conditional on** something it means it will only happen or be done if something else happens or is done first, as in:

His offer to buy their house is conditional on a substantial reduction in the price.

The price we have quoted is conditional on the order being delivered right on time.

This phrase in found in fairly formal or commercial contexts.

conducive to

If something is **conducive to** something it makes it possible or more likely to happen, as in:

The holiday complex was very noisy and hardly conducive to a relaxing time.

The phrase **conducive to** is used in fairly formal contexts.

confidence in

If you **have confidence in** someone you feel sure that they are going to do something well or are going to succeed in something that they are trying to do, as in:

He has to undergo a long and difficult operation to fix his heart but he has complete confidence in the surgeon.

confident of

If you are **confident of** something you feel sure that it will happen or that you will achieve it, as in:

She says that she is confident of victory because she is by far the better player.

He seems to be confident of getting the job.

concentrate on

If you **concentrate on** something you give it most of your attention rather than attending to other things, as in:

> *They usually spend a lot of time playing various sports but this term they are having to concentrate on their school work.*

conform to/with

If something **conforms to** something such as a rule or guideline, it obeys or follows it, as in:

> *Planning permission was refused because the plans of the building did not conform to local building regulations.*

You can also use **conform with** in this context, as in:

> *The proposed skateboarding park must conform with safety regulations.*

Conform to can also mean ‘to agree with or match’, as in:

> *He doesn’t conform to my idea of a doctor: he’s so young!*

You can also use **conform with** in this context, as in:

> *He certainly did not conform with their idea of the kind of man their daughter should marry.*

connect with/to

When the verb **connect** means ‘to join’ it can be followed either by **to** or **with**, as in:

> *The proposed road would connect our town with the city.*

Our property is connected to theirs by a narrow winding lane.

If the verb means ‘to notice or show a link or relationship between someone or something’, **connect** is followed by **with**, as in:

Police have failed to connect him with the crime.

conscious of *see* **aware of**

consent to

If you **consent to** something, you agree to it or give your permission for it to happen, as in:

He was rather surprised when she consented to a trial of his suggested scheme.

Consent to is more formal than **agree to**.

consist of

If something **consists of** two or more things or people, it is made up of them, as in:

The football team consists of pupils from two different schools.

The mixture consists of flour, milk, eggs and flavouring.

The phrase **consists of** means the same as **be composed of** but it is not used in the passive.

content

content with

If you are **content with** something you are quite happy or willing to have it or accept it, as in:

> *She seems to be content with a very quiet life.*

content to

If you are **content to** do something you are happy or willing to do it, as in:

> *He was content to work overtime every week as long as he got paid for his extra hours.*

contrast with

If two things **contrast with** each other they show a marked difference when they are compared with each other, as in:

> *The children's colourful coats contrasted with the stark whiteness of the snow.*

convinced of

If you are **convinced of** something you are sure that it's true, as in:

> *She was convinced of his honesty despite her friend's warning.*

cope with

The phrase **cope with** is similar in meaning to **deal with**, but the situation involved is often more difficult, or more of a problem, as in:

> *She has to cope with a full-time job on top of looking after her children and elderly parents.*

See **deal with** below.

correspond

correspond to

If something **corresponds to** something it is very similar to or the same as something or it is the equivalent of it, as in:

> *The title of advocate in the Scottish legal system corresponds to the title of barrister in the English one.*

correspond with

If you **correspond with** someone you write letters to them and receive letters from them, as in:

> *They have never met but they have corresponded regularly with each other since they were childhood pen pals.*

critical of

If you are **critical of** someone or something you point out what you regard as their faults or bad points, as in:

> *Several parents were critical of the school's policy towards bullying.*

culminate in

If something **culminates in** something it finishes in that particular way, as in:

> *The evening culminated in an impressive fireworks display, to the delight of the spectators.*

Culminates in is a formal way of saying **ends in**.

deal with

If you **deal with** something or someone you take the necessary action to achieve a result or solve a problem, as in:

> *The manager will deal with the customer's complaint.*
>
> *Trying to deal with falling sales and increased production costs is extremely difficult.*

If a book, speech, etc, **deals with** a subject it is about that subject, as in:

> *The article deals with homelessness.*

decide

decide on

To make up your mind about something or to choose someone or something after thinking carefully, as in:

> *She spent ages worrying about what to wear to the party and finally decided on her little black dress.*
>
> *The new graduate had several job offers, but she decided on a career in the family business.*

decide upon

Decide upon has the same meaning as **decide on** but it is often used in more formal contexts.

delight

delight in

If you **delight in** something (often something that upsets someone else) you take pleasure in it or enjoy it, as in:

She delights in watching the sunset from her balcony.

He delights in teasing his younger brother and making him cry.

delighted with

If you are **delighted with** something you are very pleased and happy about it, as in:

The girl was delighted with her new dress.

depend on

If something **depends on** something else it is directly affected by that, as in:

Where we go on holiday this year depends on how much we are prepared to pay.

If you **depend on** someone or something you need their support in order to survive, as in:

She depends on an allowance from her parents to pay her bills at university.

See **bank on**.

dependent on

If you are **dependent on** someone you depend on their support for your survival, as in:

He was a student until he was nearly thirty and was dependent on his parents all that time.

The magazine is dependent on local advertising for its survival.

deprive of

If you **deprive** someone **of** something you stop them from having it, especially something that they really ought to have, as in:

> *The laws are there to stop people being deprived of their rights.*

deter from

If something **deters** you **from** doing something it stops you from doing it, as in:

> *They put a fence round the old tree to deter children from climbing it.*

detract from

If something **detracts from** something it makes it seem less good or attractive, as in:

> *The ruins of the old factory detract from the beauty of the area.*

Do not confuse this with **distract from**.

devoid of

If something is **devoid of** something it is completely lacking in it, as in:

> *The house is comfortable enough but it is completely devoid of style.*

devoted to

If you are **devoted to** someone you love them very much or are very loyal to them, as in:

> *She's devoted to her boss and won't hear a word against him.*
>
> *She's devoted to her grandchildren and always bakes them special treats.*

different

different from

Different can be followed by the prepositions **from**, **to** and **than**. In British English **different from** is the most acceptable construction, especially in formal contexts, as in:

> *Her attitude to work was quite different from his.*

different to

Different to is found in informal, especially spoken, contexts, as in:

> *Their lifestyle is completely different to mine.*

This construction should be avoided in formal use.

different than

Different than is frequently used in American English, but this construction is not considered correct in British English, although it is becoming more common. **Different than** is considered more acceptable if it is followed by a clause, as in:

> *It looks no different than it did a decade ago.*

disagree with *see* **agree with**

disapprove of *see* **approve of**

disloyal to *see* **loyal to**

dispose of

If you **dispose of** something that you do not want or need any longer you throw it away or give it to someone, as in:

> *You must remember that some things can be recycled when you are disposing of your household waste.*

distract from

If you **distract** someone **from** something you take their attention away from something, sometimes by getting them to pay attention to something else, as in:

> *It's dangerous to talk to the driver because you'll distract him from his driving.*

See also **detracts from**.

dressed in

If you are **dressed in** something, you are wearing it, as in:

> *The children were all dressed in their school uniform.*

The phrase **clothed in** means the same, but it is usually found in more formal contexts, as in:

> *The king and queen were clothed in scarlet robes trimmed with ermine.*

due to *see* **because of**

end

end in

If something **ends in** something it finishes in that particular way, as in:

> *The night ended in triumph as he took home three awards.*

Culminate in is a more formal way of saying this.

end with

If something **ends with** an event, etc, that event marks the finish of something, often being the last of a series, as in:

> *The choir sang a selection of well-known songs, ending with the national anthem.*

engaged

engaged in

If you are **engaged in** something you are busy doing something or are very much involved in something, as in:

> *They are engaged in the difficult process of selling their house.*

Engaged in is usually used in quite formal contexts.

engaged to

If you are **engaged to** someone you have said that you will marry them, as in:

> *Sue has just got engaged to Tom and they are planning to get married early next year.*

engrossed in

If you are **engrossed in** something you are so interested in it that you concentrate on it and do not notice anything else, as in:

> *She was so engrossed in the film that she did not hear me when I called to her.*

envious of

If you are **envious of** someone, you wish that you had something that they have or do, as in:

> *She is envious of her brother because he is old enough to stay out late.*

If you are **envious of** something that someone has, you wish that you had it, as in:

> *They were envious of the luxury house that their friends lived in.*

escape from

If you **escape from** a dangerous place or situation you succeed in getting away from it, as in:

> *They escaped from poverty by managing to emigrate.*

except

The word **except** introduces the person or thing that a general statement does not apply to, as in:

> *You can borrow any of the books except this one.*

It is sometimes followed by **for**, as in:

> *We will all be there except for Jim.*

with the exception of

When you are mentioning someone or something that is an exception you often use the phrase **with the exception of**, as in:

> *The whole family went with the exception of* my *aunt, who was feeling ill.*

An **exception** is someone or something that a general statement of some kind does not apply to.

faith in

If you have **faith in** someone, you trust them absolutely or have complete confidence in them, as in:

> *She has great faith in her counsellor.*

If you lose **faith in** someone, you no longer trust them or have confidence in them, as in:

> *The workers are losing faith in their management team and are worried about their jobs.*

faithful to/unfaithful to

If you are **faithful to** someone or something you remain loyal to them and continue to give them your support, as in:

> *When the king was defeated in battle most of the nobles remained faithful to him and helped him to escape overseas.*

> *The politician remained faithful to his principles and refused to vote with his party on the issue.*

If you are **faithful to** a husband or wife, etc, you are in a monogamous relationship with them, as in:

He promised in his wedding vows to be faithful to his wife.

The opposite of **faithful to** is **unfaithful to**, as in:

He did not want to be unfaithful to his wife.

familiar

familiar to

If something is **familiar to** you, you know it well, as in:

Although her face is familiar to me I cannot remember her name.

familiar with

If you are **familiar with** something, you know or understand it well, as in:

She was brought up in this area so she must be familiar with it.

filled with *see* **full of**

fond of

If you are **fond of** someone you like them very much and may even love them, but usually not in a romantic way, as in:

They are cousins and are very fond of each other.

John and the girl next door are very fond of each other, but there has never been any suggestion of romance between them.

free of/ free from

If something or someone is **free of** something they do not have any of it or contain any of it, as in:

> *The room is now free of dust.*
>
> *The patient is now free of pain.*

The expression **free from** means the same as **free of** and is used in much the same way, as in:

> *Now that the sun has gone down we are free from that terrible oppressive heat.*
>
> *Yesterday the doctors thought she had measles but today she is free from all the usual symptoms.*

friend

friends with

If you are **friends with** someone that person is your friend, as in:

> *I have been friends with Anne since our schooldays.*

friendly with

If you are **friendly with** someone you like each other and enjoy spending time together, as in:

> *She is friendly with several of the women who have children at her daughter's school.*

frightened of *see* **afraid of**

full of/filled with

If something is **full of** people or things it contains a very large number of them, sometimes to the extent that it can hardly contain any more, as in:

> *The bus was full of senior pupils from the nearby school.*
>
> *The cellar was full of rubbish.*

If something is **filled with** people or things it is **full of** them, as in:

> *She was trying to smile although her eyes were filled with tears.*
>
> *The hall was filled with people about an hour before the meeting was due to start.*

glad

glad about

If you are **glad about** something you are pleased and happy about it, as in:

> *We have discovered that we can get a flight from our local airport and we're very glad about that.*

glad for

If you are **glad for** someone you are pleased that they have got something or done something, as in:

> *Our son has got the job he applied for and we're so glad for him.*

glad of

If you are **glad of** something you are happy that you have it and you are grateful for it, as in:

He's had to work overtime a lot recently, but he was glad of the extra money so near to Christmas.

glad to

If you are **glad to** do something you are willing and keen to do it, as in:

I'll be glad to look after the children for you this afternoon.

graduate from

If you **graduate from** a university or college you get a degree from it, often a first degree, as in:

Many young people now have difficulty in getting jobs when they graduate from university.

grateful

grateful for

If you are **grateful for** something you are happy to have it and feel that you want to thank someone for it, as in:

We are very grateful for all the donations to our charity.

grateful to

If you are **grateful to** someone for something you feel that you want to thank them for it, as in:

We are so grateful to everyone who has given us their support.

guilty

guilty about/feel guilty at

If you feel **guilty about** something you feel bad and ashamed because you know that you have done something bad or wrong, as in:

I feel guilty about forgetting your birthday.

The phrase **feel guilty at** means the same, as in:

They feel guilty at not inviting him to their party.

guilty of

If you are **guilty of** something you have done something bad, wrong or criminal, as in:

The jury found him guilty of manslaughter.

He's guilty of bullying the younger children.

in the habit of *see* **accustomed to**

half/half of

You can use either **half** or **half of** to refer to an amount that is one of two equal parts that make up a whole. You can use **half of** instead of **half** in front of a noun or noun group beginning with a determiner, although **half** is the more common, as in:

He has done half his work for today.

The child ate only half her lunch.

She has been in and out of hospital for half of her adult life.

Her father was overseas with the army for half of her childhood.

You use **half of** not **half** in front of pronouns, as in:

I haven't finished my essay but I've done half of it.

More than half of our foreign students went back to their own countries after graduating.

You use **half** not **half of** in front of words such as *hour, kilo, metre*, etc, as in:

It will take us half an hour to get there.

I need half a kilo of flour for this recipe.

harmful to

If something is **harmful to** someone or something it has a bad effect on them, as in:

Exhaust fumes from cars are harmful to the environment.

The substance does not seem to affect adults but it is harmful to young children.

hear of/hear about

If you **hear of** something you find out about it, as in:

She's heard of a job that would suit her very well.

You can also use **hear about** in this sense, as in:

We only heard about her promotion yesterday.

heard of

You can use **heard of** to show that you have knowledge about someone or something, as in:

> *Have you heard of a town called Seaway?*
>
> *We thought we knew the area well, but we've never heard of a town called Seaway.*

hope

hope for

You use **hope for** when you want something to happen and think that it is possible, as in:

> *She's hoping for some sunshine on her wedding day.*
>
> *We're the better players and we're hoping for victory today.*

hope of

If there is **hope of** something happening you want it to happen and think that it might, as in:

> *Doctors have hope of a cure in the near future.*
>
> *Their army outnumbered ours and there was no hope of victory.*

incapable of *see* **capable of**

incompatible with *see* **compatible with**

inferior to/superior to

If someone or something is said to be **inferior to** someone or something else, they are not as good or they are of poorer quality, as in:

> *You shouldn't feel inferior to them just because they have more money than you do.*

> *This material is inferior to that one.*

The opposite of this is **superior to**, as in:

> *The team that is playing this week is far superior to the one that played last week.*

inquire into

If you **inquire into** something you ask questions in order to get information about it, as in:

> *The police are inquiring into the company's profits because they suspect the owner of fraud.*

insist on

If you **insist on** doing something you say very firmly that you will do it, as in:

> *She insisted on getting a taxi to the airport although we offered to drive her there.*

intention of

If you say that you have every **intention of** doing something, you mean that you definitely plan to do it, as in:

He says that he has every intention of finishing his project today.

If you say that you have no **intention of** doing something, you mean that you are definitely not going to do it, as in:

They say they've done nothing wrong and they have no intention of apologizing.

interfere/meddle

interfere in

If you **interfere in** something you get involved in it and try to influence it or change it in some way although it's not really your business, and other people do not want you to get involved, as in:

The new owner promised that he would not interfere in the day-to-day running of the business.

The expression **meddle in** means much the same, as in:

The old lady resents the fact that her son tries to meddle in her financial affairs.

interfere with

If something **interferes with** something it prevents it from happening successfully or as planned, as in:

It looks as though the weather is going to interfere with our planned barbecue.

The bad weather interfered with their plans.

involved

involved in

If you are **involved in** something you take part in it, often very actively, or are connected with it, as in:

Police suspect that he was involved in the robbery.

My son is very involved in sport at school.

involved with

If you are **involved with** something it means that you take part in it, often very actively, as in:

She is involved with the local church.

If you are **involved with** someone it can mean that you are working with them or spending time with them, or that you are connected with them in some way, as in:

They've been involved with each other in business before.

He feels that he wants to be more involved with his children.

However, it can also mean that you are having a romantic relationship with someone, as in:

We think she's involved with a man from her work.

irrespective of/regardless of

Irrespective of means 'having no effect on a situation' or 'having no importance or relevance', as in:

The competition is open to all local artists, irrespective of age.

Irrespective of means much the same as **regardless of**, as in:

> *Our aim is for all students with suitable academic qualifications to get a university education, regardless of their financial situation.*

lack of

If there is a **lack of** something there is either not enough of it or a complete absence of it, as in:

> *Because of a lack of funds, we have no option but to close the youth club.*

lean on

Lean on has several meanings. Literally it means to rest on something or someone for support, as in:

> *She leant on her son's arm as they walked slowly up the road.*

Lean on can also mean to rely or depend on someone for support, as in:

> *She's a single mother with three young children and she leans quite heavily on her parents.*

Lean on also has a more sinister side and can mean to try to influence or persuade someone by threatening them in some way, as in:

> *The blackmailer leant even harder on his victim in the hope of getting more money.*

liable

liable for

If you are **liable for** something then you are legally responsible for something or for the cost of something, as in:

> *He doesn't earn enough to be liable for income tax.*
>
> *If you take the matter to court and lose you may be held liable for their costs as well as your own.*

liable to

If someone or something is **liable to** do something they are likely to do it, as in:

> *She is liable to lose her temper rather badly if anyone disagrees with her.*
>
> *The kitchen door is liable to slam shut if there's a wind blowing.*

If you are **liable to** something you are likely to be affected by it, as in:

> *He is liable to be a bit impulsive sometimes.*

limit to *see* **restrict to**

loyal to/disloyal to

If you are **loyal to** someone or something you are faithful to them and always give them your support, as in:

> *Some of the soldiers remained loyal to their leader after the mutiny.*

The opposite of **loyal to** is **disloyal to**, as in:

> *The soldier was accused of being disloyal to his regiment.*

masquerade as

If you **masquerade as** someone you pretend to be that person, as in:

> *The thief masqueraded as a security officer in order to gain admittance to the bank.*

meddle in *see* **interfere in**

meet with

If you **meet with** something it happens to you or you experience it, as in:

> *The climber met with a terrible accident and is badly injured.*

> *You can expect your wind farm proposal to meet with a lot of local opposition.*

There is a modern tendency, especially in business circles, to use **meet with** where **meet** is perfectly adequate, as in:

> *We plan to meet with their representatives next week.*

merge

merge into

If one thing **merges into** another the difference between them gradually fades and it's difficult to separate them, as in:

> *The grey clouds merged into the grey sea and it was difficult to See the horizon.*

merge with

If a firm should **merge with** another the two firms join together and form a single firm, as in:

Our small PR company is to merge with a large city firm.

mindful of

If you are **mindful of** something you remember about it and take it into consideration when you do something, as in:

You must be mindful of your responsibilities as leader of a group of teenagers.

Mindful of the dangers of sudden avalanches in the region, we decided to ski elsewhere.

model on

If you **model** yourself **on** someone you try to act like them because you admire them and want to be like them, as in:

Many teenage girls try to model themselves on whatever female pop star is popular at the time.

native to

If an animal or plant is **native to** somewhere, that is where it exists naturally and its natural habitat is there, as in:

These orchids are native to South America.

The kangaroo is native to Australia.

near to/close to

If something is **near to** (see 1) something it is a very short distance away from it, as in:

Their house is quite near to the village.

Near to can also be used to mean that someone or something is almost in a particular state, as in:

His wife was very near to giving birth when they arrived at the hospital.

Close to can be used in both these meanings, as in:

Our new flat is close to the city centre.

The firm is close to bankruptcy.

See also **next to** below.

need

in need of

If you are **in need of** something you require it or it is necessary that you have it, as in:

We are in need of extra funding to finish the project.

need for

If there is a **need for** something it is necessary or must be done, as in:

There is an urgent need for fresh water in the refugee camp.

There is no need for everyone to go.

next to

If something is **next to** something it is physically by its side, as in:

> *The table was next to the bed*.
>
> *The houses were right next to each other.*

See also **near to** (see 1) opposite.

object to

If you **object to** something, you do not approve of it or you do not agree with it, as in:

> *Local residents are sure to object to the new parking restrictions.*

A more formal way of saying this is **raise objections to**, as in:

> *They have not yet raised any objections to the proposed new scheme.*

oblivious of/to

Some people still object to the use of **oblivious to**, insisting that **oblivious of** is the only correct form. However, the use of **oblivious to** is increasing, partly because it is the preferred option in American English. It can no longer be regarded as wrong, although it still raises some objections.

Both **oblivious of** and **oblivious to** originally meant 'no longer aware of' or 'forgetful of', as in:

> *Longing for a swim after the long hot drive, and oblivious of the warning she had received about strong currents, she plunged into the waves.*

Now both expressions are often used to mean ‘simply unaware of something’, as in:

> *Oblivious to the passage of time, she suddenly realized that darkness had fallen and she was still far from home.*

obsessed by/with

If you are **obsessed by** someone or something you think or worry about them all the time, finding it difficult to think about anything else, as in:

> *She’s totally obsessed by her appearance and spends most of her salary on cosmetics and designer clothes.*

You can also use **obsessed with** in the same way, as in:

> *He’s obsessed with football and loves to watch his favourite team in action.*

opportunity for/to

If you have the **opportunity for** something it is possible for you to get it or achieve it, as in:

> *The company’s owner saw the offer as an opportunity for expansion.*

> *The book group was an excellent opportunity for us all to meet old friends once a month.*

This can also be expressed using the **opportunity to** do something, as in:

It was a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to travel to other parts of the world.

opposite of

If something or someone is the **opposite of** something or someone else, they are completely different from each other in some way, as in:

She is quiet and studious, quite the opposite of her fun-loving sister.

opposed to

If you are **opposed to** something then you strongly disapprove of it, as in:

Many of the town's residents are opposed to the idea of a new out-of-town supermarket and they are launching a campaign against it.

opt for

If you **opt for** something you choose it rather than something else, as in:

She was offered a place at Oxford, but she's opted for a university nearer home.

owing to *see* **because of** (see 1)

pleased

pleased about

If you are **pleased about** something you are happy about it, as in:

> *Our daughter is getting married to a really nice man and my husband and I are very pleased about it.*

pleased with

If you are **pleased with** something you like it and are satisfied with it, as in:

> *She was very pleased with her Christmas present from her aunt.*

pleasure

take pleasure in

If you **take pleasure in** something you enjoy it, as in:

> *He took pleasure in watching golf on the TV.*

pore over

If you **pore over** something you look at it for a long time and read it carefully, as in:

> *Three of us pored over the map but we couldn't find the village we were looking for.*

prefer to

If you **prefer** something or someone **to** something or someone else, you like it better and would rather have it, as in:

> *I prefer country life to life in the city, but I have to live in the city for the sake of my work.*

preferable to

If something or someone is **preferable to** something or someone else they are considerably better, more suitable, etc, as in:

> *From a health point of view fresh fruit is preferable to sweet desserts.*
>
> *To me train travel is preferable to air travel.*

present at *see* **absent from**

prevent from

If something **prevents** you **from** doing something it stops you from doing it, as in:

> *Heavy traffic prevented us from getting there in time.*

prior to

Prior to is a formal way of saying 'before', as in:

> *Prior to his retirement he was chief executive of a large textile business.*

prohibit from

If something or someone **prohibits** you **from** doing something you are not allowed to do it, as in:

> *The new law prohibits people from smoking in here.*

Prohibit from is often used in the passive in formal contexts, as in:

Members of the public are prohibited from touching any of the museum exhibits.

protest

protest against

If you **protest against** something you say that you strongly disagree with and disapprove of something, often saying so publicly in company with other people who have the same opinion, as in:

A large crowd gathered in the city's main square to protest against the proposed changes to the Human Rights Bill.

protest at

If you **protest at** something, you say that you strongly disagree with and disapprove of something, as in:

Many people have protested at the government's handling of the economy.

proud of

If you are **proud of** someone you think that they have done something good and you admire them, as in:

She is proud of her son for having done so well in his exams.

If you are **proud of** something you are very pleased to have it or have done it, as in:

He's very proud of his new car and he polishes it every weekend.

He's very proud of getting a place in the school football team.

provide for

If you **provide for** someone you give them the things, such as food and clothing, that they need to live on, as in:

She works hard in order to be able to provide for her children.

react to

If you **react to** something you behave in a particular way as a result of it, as in:

She reacted with great joy to the news that her daughter had given birth to a little girl.

How do you think the stock market will react to the news that unemployment is rising?

The noun from **react** is **reaction**. If you have a **reaction to** something it affects you in some way, as in:

She had a very bad reaction to the antibiotics which they gave her.

recover from

If you **recover from** an illness or a bad or unpleasant situation you get well again or return to your previous state, as in:

She took a long time to recover from a nasty virus.

Do you think the economy will ever recover completely from this recession?

refer to

If you **refer to** someone or something you mention or speak about them, as in:

She's clearly very fond of her grandfather and constantly refers to him in her conversation with others.

reflect on/upon

If you **reflect on** something you think about it very carefully and deeply, as in:

Unsure what to do after finishing school, he reflected on all his options.

Reflect upon is a slightly more formal version of this.

refrain from

If you **refrain from** doing something you do not let yourself do it even though you may want to, as in:

Please refrain from eating or drinking in the library.

For my wife's sake I refrained from telling my sister-in-law exactly what I thought of her behaviour.

Refrain from is used in quite formal contexts.

regardless of *see* **irrespective of**

rely on/upon

If you **rely on** someone or something you need their support in order to survive, be successful, etc, as in:

> *She relied on her parents' generous financial support while she was a young actress struggling to get parts.*

> *The country can no longer rely on tourism alone to ensure its future.*

Rely upon is a slightly more formal version of this.

remind of

If someone or something **reminds** you **of** someone or something, they make you remember or think of that person or thing because they are similar in some way, as in:

> *She reminds me very much of her mother at that age, both in temperament and looks.*

renege on

If you **renege on** a promise or an agreement, you do not do what you promised or agreed to do, as in:

> *We had plans to work with a local company on building fishing boats, but they have reneged on the agreement and left us without a business partner.*

resistant to

If something is **resistant to** something it is not affected or damaged by it, as in:

Fortunately these trees seem to be resistant to the disease which is decimating some of our forests.

We need to use a metal that is resistant to rust.

responsible

responsible for

If you are **responsible for** doing something it is your job or duty to get it done and you may be blamed if something goes wrong, as in:

As the person responsible for company security, he may lose his job for allowing unauthorized visitors into the building.

If you are **responsible for** someone it is your job to look after them or take care of them and you may be blamed if something goes wrong, as in:

Each nursery assistant is responsible for four children.

Responsible for also means causing something, as in:

Smoking cigarettes is responsible for a lot of deaths from lung cancer.

responsible to

If you are **responsible to** someone they have a more senior position than you in an organization and you report to them and may have to explain to them why you have acted in the way you did, as in:

Ms Morrison is the new head of the sales department and you are all responsible to her.

restrict to/limit to

If you **restrict** the size, amount, extent, etc, of something **to** something, you do not allow anything larger, greater, etc, than that, as in:

> *We restrict the number of people allowed in the hall to 400.*
>
> *Membership is restricted to people over 60.*
>
> *He restricts the amount he eats each day, in an attempt to lose weight.*

Limit to is also used in this way, as in:

> *They are going to limit the time each gym member can spend on the rowing machine to 20 minutes.*

result

result from

If something **results from** something it is caused by that, as in:

> *Some of the damage results from the fire and some from the water used to put it out.*

result in

If something **results in** something it causes that to happen, as in:

> *The building of the factory resulted in a great many new jobs for the people in the surrounding area.*

retire from

If you **retire from** something you stop doing something, often because you have reached a particular age or because you are ill, as in:

He is nearly 70 and has decided that the time has come for him to retire from his post as chairman of the company.

He decided to retire from professional football after injuring his leg very badly in the cup final.

revert to

If you **revert to** something you start doing something again that you used to do in the past, as in:

After he came out of prison his behaviour improved for a time but he has now reverted to his old criminal ways.

When her divorce is finalized she intends to revert to her maiden name.

rich in

If something is **rich in** something it contains a lot of it, as in:

They eat a diet that is rich in calcium.

The area is rich in history.

rob of

If you **rob** someone **of** something you steal something from someone or take something away from someone, as in:

The thieves robbed the old man of his life savings.

His injury on the track robbed the athlete of a gold medal.

satisfied with

If you are **satisfied with** something you are pleased with it and cannot find fault with it, as in:

> *I am quite satisfied with the new arrangements.*

sceptical

If you are **sceptical about** something you have doubts about whether it is true or whether it is likely to happen, as in:

> *I am sceptical about her account of the accident because she is the wife of one of the drivers.*

> *He says that he is very sceptical about our chances of winning.*

Sceptical of means the same as **sceptical about**, as in:

> *We are sceptical of her claim that she is related to the dead man.*

> *Her parents are sceptical of her insistence that she studies every single day.*

sensitive to

If you are **sensitive to** someone else's feelings, needs, etc, you are aware of them and are able to understand them, as in:

> *He is sensitive to the family's grief, especially since it is not long since his own father died.*

If someone or something is **sensitive to** something they are easily affected or damaged by it, as in:

The child is very sensitive to heat and comes out in a rash if she gets too hot.

The student is very sensitive to any form of criticism and needs to learn not to over-react to constructive critisicm.

separate from

If you **separate** something or someone **from** something or someone, you divide them into two parts or sections, as in:

The meringue recipe says that I must separate the egg whites from the egg yolks.

It was school policy to separate the girls from the boys for most sporting activities.

If something **separates** something **from** something else, it is between them so that they are not right next to each other, as in:

A large hedge separates our garden from out next-door neighbour's garden and gives us each some privacy.

share

share out

If you **share** something **out** you divide it between two or more people, as in:

The birthday cake was shared out amongst all the guests at the party.

share with

If you **share** something **with** someone you have it or use it together with another person or other people, as in:

He has to share a locker with one of the other students as there are not enough lockers.

She shares a flat with three girls that she was at school with.

sick of

If you are **sick of** someone or something they bore you or they have been irritating you for some time and you are tired of them, as in:

I think we're both sick of all the talent shows on TV.

My neighbour is always interrupting me when I'm busy and I'm sick of it.

Sick of is used in informal contexts.

similar to/similarity between

If something is **similar to** something it is like that thing but not the same as it, as in:

Their house is quite similar to ours.

If you want to use the noun **similarity** to convey the same idea it is followed by **between**, as in:

There is a similarity between our houses.

Similarity can also be followed by **to**, as in:

In that photograph she has a striking similarity to her grandmother.

smell of

If something **smells of** something it has the smell or odour of that thing, as in:

> *The room smells of flowers fresh from the garden.*
>
> *He smells of stale sweat. Someone should tell him to use a deodorant.*

sorry

sorry about

If you are **sorry about** something, you feel sad and ashamed about it, as in:

> *I am sorry about my behaviour the other day.*

You can also use **sorry for** in this context, as in:

> *She's sorry for being late, but the traffic was very heavy because of an accident on the motorway.*

sorry for

If you are **sorry for** someone you feel pity or sympathy for them, as in:

> *She feels really sorry for homeless people and tries to help by working as a volunteer at the local homeless shelter.*

See **sorry about** above.

strive for

If you **strive for** something you try very hard to get it, as in:

> *She strives for perfection, but is rarely successful.*

subject to

Subject (with the stress on the first syllable) **to** has various meanings. If someone or something is **subject to** something bad or unpleasant, they are likely to be affected by it, as in:

> *Both brothers are subject to occasional epileptic fits.*

> *They have just announced that most train schedules are subject to delay or cancellation because of the heavy snow*.

If something is **subject to** something happening, it depends on that thing happening for it to take place, as in:

> *I have been informed that the construction of a new hotel on the outskirts of town is subject to planning permission.*

If something is **subject to** a law, rule, etc, it must obey that law, rule, etc, as in:

> *Working conditions for part-time employees are now subject to new regulations.*

Subject to can also be a verb which means 'to make someone experience something unpleasant', as in:

> *We were subjected to noise night and day from the building site next to our hotel.*

In the case of the verb **to subject**, the stress is on the second syllable.

substitute for

If something is a **substitute for** something else it is used instead of it, as in:

She uses an artificial sweetener as a substitute for sugar as part of her weight-loss plan.

If someone is a **substitute for** someone else they do the job that that person usually does, as in:

He is playing today as a substitute for the injured goalkeeper.

succeed in

If you **succeed in** doing something, you do or achieve what you set out to do, as in:

He succeeded in passing all his exams.

suffer from

If you **suffer from** something you are usually affected by something unpleasant such as disease, pain, etc, as in:

She has been in a serious road accident and is suffering from internal injuries.

The country is still suffering from the effects of the recession.

superior to *See* inferior to

susceptible to

If you are **susceptible to** something you are very likely to be affected or influenced by it, as in:

These plants are particularly susceptible to disease.

The child is susceptible to chest infections.

suspicious of

If you are **suspicious of** someone, you do not trust them and think that they may have done something wrong, as in:

Anne's new boyfriend never says much about himself and I'm rather suspicious of him.

If you are **suspicious of** something you think that it may be dishonest, illegal, etc, although you do not have any proof, as in:

The policeman was suspicious of the car driver's explanation and he wondered if the car was a stolen car.

sympathize with

If you **sympathize with** someone you feel sorry for them and understand the problems they have, as in:

I can sympathize with the people looking for work because I've been unemployed several times in my life.

tamper with

If you **tamper with** something you make changes to it without being asked to, often with the intention of deliberately damaging it, as in:

His rival tampered with his car engine and caused him to crash.

tendency to

If someone or something has a **tendency to** do something they are likely to do it, as in:

> *Because of the increase in unemployment in the country people now have a tendency to stay in the jobs they have, rather than try to move on.*

> *She has a tendency to get hyperactive after eating sweets.*

think

think over

If you **think** something **over** you consider it very carefully before reaching a decision, as in:

> *They have offered him the job, but he has asked for some time to think it over before he decides whether to accept their offer or not.*

think through

If you **think** something **through** you think about a possible course of action very carefully, considering all the things that might happen, as in:

> *I wasn't surprised their plan failed, because it was obvious that they simply hadn't thought it through.*

think up

If you **think** something **up** you create it in your mind, often something inventive or imaginative, as in:

> *One of the prisoners of war thought up a clever escape plan that proved successful.*

together with

Together with can mean in addition to something else, as in:

> *You need to produce your passport together with your birth certificate.*

Together with can also be used to refer to someone who is also involved in something, as in:

> *Jim, together with Tom, climbed to the very summit of the mountain.*

true to

If you are **true to** someone or something you remain loyal to them and continue to give them your support, whatever happens, as in:

> *Even after several serious defeats on the battlefield the troops remained true to their leader*.

If you are **true to** your word or promise, you act or behave as you promised to do, as in:

> *She was true to her word and repaid the money I lent her by the end of the month.*

unaware of *see* **aware of** (see 1)

unconscious of *see* **aware of** (see 2)

used to *see* **accustomed to** (see 1)

wait

wait for

If you **wait for** someone or something you stay where you are until they arrive, as in:

> *I'm outside the cinema waiting for my son, but he's a bit late.*
>
> *We're waiting for the bus.*

If you **wait for** something to happen you are expecting it to happen, as in:

> *He is waiting for a flat to become vacant.*

See **wait on** below.

wait on

If you **wait on** someone you bring food and drink to them at their table, especially in a restaurant, as in:

> *The young woman who waited on us in the restaurant was very polite.*

Wait on is sometimes used to mean 'to look after someone's needs', as in:

> *My aunt has come to visit us and she expects us all to wait on her, even though we are all very busy.*

Wait on is also used informally in British English to mean **wait for**, as in:

> *We are waiting on Jack to finish work*.

Many people disapprove of this last use and it should not be used in formal contexts.

5

PHRASAL VERBS

Prepositions can also cause problems when they are part of phrasal verbs but they are not the only culprits in this respect. A phrasal verb is a verb which can be combined with an adverb, with a preposition or with an adverb plus a preposition.

Examples of sentences containing the verb + adverb combination include:

*When the policeman saw the thief he **ran away.***

*She felt dizzy and suddenly **fell down.***

Examples of sentences containing the verb + preposition combination include:

*The children **ran through** the dark wood as fast as they could.*

*He **dived into** the deepest part of the pool.*

Examples of sentences containing the verb + adverb + preposition combination include:

*The party's tonight and I've decided to **go along with** Sue.*

*Mark's **gone off with** Jane on a camping holiday.*

Many features of English cause problems to both native speakers of English and learners of the language as a second or foreign language. However, this is not the case with phrasal verbs. Learners of English find these much more problematic than native speakers do.

Why should this be? Well, there is an element of intuition about language as far as your native language is concerned, and some of what a native speaker knows about phrasal verbs might be put down to that. Then there is the fact that the native speaker, to a large extent, automatically learns how to use language from listening to other people speaking, and later from reading. Somewhere along the way to school and during the educational process something will have been learnt about phrasal verbs.

Of course young native speakers may be completely unaware that they have this knowledge about the use of phrasal verbs. That is because they probably have no idea what a phrasal verb is. It is not a subject that crops up very often in the English language classes of native speakers. Quite a few of you who are currently reading this may be completely in the dark about the subject.

So what is a phrasal verb? Native speakers might not want to know. Perhaps they would rather ignore problems that they have so far not given a thought to because they have simply been doing what comes naturally. Meanwhile learners of English will most likely groan. Phrasal verbs to them are well-known troublemakers.

There are native speakers who feel passionately about the English language. Many of them do not like change and they want to preserve the language as it is. Unfortunately for them, language

does not work like that. Society changes and language has to reflect these changes.

PHRASAL OR SINGLE VERB?

Some of the language preservationists dislike the growing tendency to use a phrasal verb where a single verb will do. For example, for a long time people were content to use the verb **meet** on its own. This was true of informal contexts, as in:

> *I'm meeting Rebecca for lunch tomorrow.*

But it was also true of more formal contexts, as in:

> *The board of directors plan to meet their management staff next week.*

In recent years, however, people have begun to use the phrasal verb **meet with** instead of just the verb **meet** informally as with

> *I'm **meeting with** Rebecca for lunch tomorrow.*

and more especially in formal contexts

> *The board of directors plan to **meet with** their management staff next week.*

British English has acquired this habit from American English and objectors to it say that the use of **meet with** is completely unnecessary and pretentious. Nevertheless, the verb **meet with** seems to be here to stay, at least in formal contexts.

This use is also spreading to other verbs. For example, some people are no longer content to **consult** a professional about

something. They prefer to **consult with** a professional, as in:

> *He thinks that he has been dismissed unfairly and he has been advised to **consult with** his lawyer.*

Again, objections have been raised to this, on the same grounds as those to **meet with**, but they will not do any good. Trying to hold back changes to the language is a complete waste of time. Whatever anyone does, such changes will happen.

FIGURATIVE OR LITERAL MEANING?

One of the difficulties with phrasal verbs is that they frequently do not mean what they seem to be saying. You can know perfectly well the meaning of the individual words that make up the phrase, and yet be unable to understand the meaning of the phrase. As is the case with many idioms, many phrasal verbs are used figuratively and it is often not easy to deduce this figurative meaning from the literal meaning of the words making up the phrase.

Some figurative meanings of phrasal verbs are more difficult to deduce than others. Some are quite easy.

For example, in the sentence

> *The children will come through that door very soon.*

the phrasal verb **come through** means just what it says, that the children will exit from the door soon.

However, in the sentence

> *It was a miracle that so many soldiers came through the war alive*.

the phrasal verb **came through** is not used exactly literally in that sentence, but is used in a way that is only a short step from the literal meaning. The sentence is referring to soldiers who survived a war.

The sentence

> *He got over the fence with difficulty and hoped there were no guard dogs around.*

obviously refers to someone literally climbing over a fence to get to the other side.

The sentence

> *He never got over his fiancée's death and remained unmarried all his life.*

refers to someone who has never recovered from something bad that has happened. Again, the phrasal verb is not being used exactly literally, but it is close enough to the literal meaning to be easily deducible in context.

There are a great many examples of phrasal verbs of this kind – not quite literal in meaning but fairly easy to understand in context. Some are a step forward in difficulty from the two phrasal verbs mentioned above, but still relatively easily deducible, and they certainly do not usually cause any problems to native speakers.

These include **look down on** and **look up to**. The phrase **look down** means that you literally lower your eyes in order to See what is below you. Similarly, the phrase **look up** means that you literally raise your eyes in order to See what is above you.

There is a bit more to their literal meanings when you add the prepositions **on** and **to** respectively.The phrasal verb **look down on**

means that you think that someone is much less important than you are and so is inferior to you, as in:

> *She looks down on students whose fathers work in the local factory.*

The phrasal verb **look up to** means that you respect and admire someone as though they were much more important or better than you, as in:

> *He is a well-known artist as well as being a teacher and many of the students look up to him.*

The phrasal verb **look forward** means literally that you are looking at what is straight in front of you. If you add **to** *to* the phrase, as in **look forward to**, you are pleased or excited about something that you expect to happen sometime soon, as in:

> *The little girl is really looking forward to her friend's birthday party.*

The literal meaning of the phrasal verb **look through** should present no difficulties, as in:

> *We looked through the window at the rain.*

While its figurative meaning as applied to newspapers, reports, etc, is fairly obvious from the context, as in:

> *I have to look through the report before the meeting.*

When used of something that is done to people, however, things become more complicated. If you **look through** someone you look

at them as though you have not noticed them, often because you are deliberately ignoring them because you are angry with them, as in:

> *As she came towards me I was about to speak to her but she **looked right through me** and walked on.*

Learners can be easily confused when the meaning of a phrasal verb seems quite easy to understand and then turns out not be. There may be an unexpected overtone or nuance that changes the meaning quite considerably. Take the sentence which was mentioned above as an example of a phrasal verb:

> *Mark's **gone off with** Jane on a camping holiday.*

Now we know nothing whatsoever about Mark and Jane or their relationship, and we do not need to know. All we are told is that they have gone on a camping holiday together.

On the other hand, if the sentence is

> *Mark's **gone off with** Jim's wife.*

then we have grounds for some suspicion, and if the sentence then becomes

> *Mark's **run off with** Jim's wife.*

then our suspicion appears to be well-founded. It would seem that Mark and Jim's wife have been having a relationship and they have decided to live together. It is amazing what you can learn from a little phrasal verb!

POSITION OF THE OBJECT

There is another problem that crops up with reference to phrasal verbs. Some phrasal verbs are intransitive and so do not take an object. Many of them, however, are transitive and do take an object. Therein lies the problem.

There is some variation in the position of this object. If the object is a noun or a short noun phrase it can sometimes be placed after the second word of the phrasal verb, as in:

*She is putting away the **dishes** in the cupboard.*

*The boxer knocked out his **opponent** in the first round.*

On the other hand, the noun or short noun phrase can sometimes be placed after the first word and before the second word of the phrasal verb, as in:

*The mayor is handing **trophies** over to the winners now.*

*She is putting the **dishes** away in the cupboard.*

In all the relevant sentences the object is in bold.

How do you decide where to put the noun or noun phrase? It is often a matter of taste or a matter of which form you think sounds better. Sometimes which sounds best depends on the length of the noun phrase.

When the object is a pronoun it usually precedes the second word of the phrasal verb, as in:

The ornament was broken into many pieces when the child knocked it over.

The left-over food will taste all right if you warm it up.

COMPLEX PHRASAL VERBS

A small selection follows of fairly complex phrasal verbs which have been formed from common verbs. There are many, many more, but this selection will show you phrasal verbs in action, so to speak. Most of these phrasal verbs have meanings which are more than just the sum of their parts. In other words, you cannot deduce their overall meaning just from knowing the meaning of the individual words. They are thus likely to be useful to native speakers of English as well as to learners.

PHRASAL VERBS IN ACTION

come

come down on

If you **come down on** someone or something you criticize or punish them for something they have done, as in:

> *The new head teacher said that she will come down heavily on bullies.*

come down with

If you **come down with** a disease or an infection you develop or begin to have it, as in:

> *I feel as though I am coming down with flu.*

come up with

If you **come up with** an idea, plan, etc, you think of it, often having thought about it for a considerable time, as in:

> *They have finally come up with sufficient funding to pay for the project.*

cut

cut back on

If you **cut back on** something you reduce the extent of it, often because you cannot afford to spend so much money on it, as in:

> *The government are planning to cut back on defence expenditure.*

cut down on

If you **cut down on** something you try to reduce the amount of it that you use or to reduce the number of times you do it, as in:

> *She hasn't give up smoking although she's cut down on the number of cigarettes she gets through in a week.*

do

do away with

If you **do away with** something you get rid of it or abandon it, as in:

> *They've introduced computerization and done away with old-fashioned production methods.*

> *The school did away with school uniform but brought it back again a few years later.*

Do away with can also be used informally to mean 'to kill someone', as in:

> *She looked so angry that I thought she was going to do away with me!*

> *The gang leader disappeared over a year ago, and police think that members of a rival gang may have done away with him.*

do out of

If you **do** someone **out of** something you stop them getting it or having it, sometimes dishonestly, as in:

> *The workers went on strike because they said that their employers had done them out of a bonus.*

> *The schoolchildren felt that they had been done out of a day's holiday.*

get

get along with

If you **get along with** someone you find it easy to be with them and to enjoy their company, as in:

> *Jill's boyfriend doesn't get along very well with her family.*

> *It's good that all the members of the team get along so well with each other.*

get away with

If you **get away with** something you are not punished or scolded for doing it, as in:

> *He gets away with being really naughty when he stays with his grandparents.*

get behind with

If you **get behind with** something you are late or slow in doing it, and have not made as much progress as you should have done, as in:

The landlord is angry because we're getting behind with the rent again.

I'm going to work late at the office this evening as I'm getting behind with my paperwork.

get down to

If you **get down to** something you start doing it seriously and paying a lot of attention to it, as in:

I'm going to get down to some revision right away as I have a big test tomorrow.

We really must get down to thinking of ways to save money.

get out of

If you **get out of** something you avoid doing something which you do not want to do, as in:

She's offered to do the shopping to get out of helping with the housework.

He's been asked to speak at the meeting but he's trying desperately to get out of it.

get round to

If you **get round to** doing something you do something that you have been intending to do for some time, or that you should have done before, but have been too busy or unwilling to do, as in:

It was the day before Christmas Eve before I finally got round to writing some Christmas cards.

He asked her to marry him several months ago, but he hasn't got round to buying her an engagement ring yet.

get through to

If you **get through to** someone by telephone you are able to contact them and speak to them, as in:

Telephone reception isn't very good in that part of the world and I wasn't able to get through to my sister.

The line was engaged at first but I soon got through to the hospital.

However, you do not need always need a telephone in order to **get through to** someone. The phrase can also mean 'to succeed in getting someone to understand something, although this may be difficult', as in:

He didn't seem to understand how dangerous the situation was, but I finally got through to him before it was too late.

Please can someone get through to the students that these exams are important and they must get some studying done.

get up to

If you **get up to** something you do something bad or naughty, as in:

Those kids are giggling behind the shed and I'm sure they're getting up to mischief.

The police were sure that the youths standing on the street corner were planning to get up to something, but they didn't know what.

Get up to is used in informal contexts.

go

go along with

If you literally **go along with** someone you go with them to somewhere, as in:

> *She wants me to go along to the party with her, but I'm not in the mood.*

> *I went along to the opening ceremony with my parents.*

If you **go along with** a ruling, decision, etc, you accept it and obey it, as in:

> *Although he could have appealed against the court's ruling he decided to go along with it.*

If you **go along with** someone or with their idea, policy etc, you accept it or agree with it, as in:

> *Most of the teachers go along with the head's proposals for changes to the school timetable.*

go back on

If you **go back on** something, you do not do what you promised or agreed to do, as in:

> *She's not very trustworthy so I'm not really surprised that she's gone back on her promise to help.*

go in for

If you **go in for** a competition of some kind you take part in it, as in:

I don't think he's fit enough to go in for the marathon race.

They're both going in for the tennis club tournament.

If you **go in for** a particular kind of work you make it your job or career, as in:

She wanted to go in for medicine but her exam results were not good enough.

His father wants him to go in for accountancy.

go in with

If you **go in with** someone you decide to become their business partner, as in:

John's started a gardening business and Jack's decided to go in with him.

go off

If someone **goes off** someone or something it means they cease to like them or it, as in:

My sister has gone off her best friend since they quarrelled.

go off with

If someone **goes off with** something they take something that belongs to someone else, usually without permission, as in:

I showed him rather a valuable book and I later discovered that he had gone off with it.

go through with

If you **go through with** something you continue doing it until it has been completed or achieved, as in:

> *He had threatened to quit university several times before, but none of his friends thought he would ever go through with it.*

> *The government's proposal to raise taxes was so unpopular that they did not go through with the scheme.*

hold

hold out for

If you **hold out for** someone or something you insist on waiting for what you want and refuse to accept anything less, as in:

> *She said she was holding out for a tall, dark, handsome, wealthy man.*

> *He turned down several jobs after graduation because he said he was holding out for something interesting and well-paid.*

hold out on

If you **hold out on** someone you refuse to tell them something or to give them something that they want, as in:

> *He assured the police that he had no idea where his friend was but they were sure he was holding out on them.*

The phrasal verb **hold out on** is usually used in an informal context.

keep

keep in with

If you **keep in with** someone you remain friendly with them, usually because this may help you to get something you want, as in:

> *She only keeps in with Jim because he's got a car and gives her a lift to and from work every day.*
>
> *There's a rumour that Anne's going to be made head of department and everyone's keeping in with her as a result.*

keep on at

If you **keep on at** someone you repeatedly ask or tell them something so that they get annoyed or upset, as in:

> *Her father kept on at her about working harder at school until she lost her temper and stormed out of the house.*
>
> *The boy kept on at his mother about getting a mobile phone and fed up with his nagging she eventually agreed.*

keep out of

If you **keep out of** something you avoid being involved in an unpleasant or difficult situation, as in:

> *If the two sisters start arguing with each other, keep out of it or they'll both turn against you.*
>
> *If the boy doesn't keep out of trouble for the rest of the term he'll be asked to leave.*

keep up with

If you **keep up with** someone you stay in contact with them, as in:

Over the years she's kept up with one or two of her school friends and they like to meet for coffee occasionally.

We promised to keep up with each other after we left university, but we've lost contact.

make

make off with/make away with

If you **make off with** something you steal something and take it away, as in:

He had foolishly left the keys in the ignition and a thief made off with his car.

The dog leapt onto the table and made off with the remains of the roast beef.

Make away with means the same as **make off with**, as in:

Someone's made away with my wallet.

make up to

If you **make up to** someone you flatter them and say pleasant things to them so that they will give you something, or do something, that you want, as in:

She's usually horrible to her brother, but she's making up to him tonight because she wants to borrow his car.

The politician is going round the town making up to everyone he meets because he wants their vote at the next election.

make up for

If you **make up for** something you do something that tries to put right a bad situation, as in:

> *He bought his mother a beautiful, expensive new vase to make up for breaking her favourite one.*
>
> *Her father promised to take her to See a film during the week to make up for having to cancel their trip to the cinema at the weekend.*

pull out of

If you **pull out of** something you get out of a difficult or dangerous situation, as in:

> *We're pulling out of the market because it's no longer profitable.*
>
> *The territory is too dangerous and our army is pulling out.*

put

put down to

If you **put** something **down to** something you think or say that something is caused by something, as in:

> *She put her good mood down to the lovely weather.*
>
> *The firm put the slump in their profits down to the recession.*

put in for

If you **put in for** something you apply for it, as in:

> *There's a more senior job coming up soon and I'm putting in for it.*
>
> *She's putting in for extended maternity leave.*

put up to

If you **put** someone **up to** something you encourage them to do something foolish, dangerous or wrong, as in:

> *Her friends put her up to stealing a packet of sweets from the shop.*
>
> *His brother put him up to climbing on the roof and he fell off.*

put up with

If you **put up with** something or someone you accept an unpleasant situation or person without complaining or tolerate someone or something, as in:

> *She said that she had put up with her unreasonable boss as long as she could.*
>
> *They moved house because they couldn't put up with their noisy neighbours any longer.*

stand

stand out against

If you **stand out against** something you go on strongly opposing it, as in:

The other political parties are standing out against the spending cuts proposed by the government.

stand out for

See hold out for under **hold**.

stand up for

If you **stand up for** someone or something you defend or support them when they are under an attack of some kind, as in:

The new regime is very harsh and we all need to stand up for our basic human rights.

Weaker, younger pupils who cannot stand up for themselves are protected from bullying by older, stronger pupils.

stand up to

If you **stand up to** someone you refuse to be bullied by them and are able to resist their attacks or demands, as in:

He did his best to stand up to the bully but it was not easy.

Although it is a small country, its inhabitants stand up to the continual attacks of its powerful neighbour.

take

take up on

If you **take** someone **up on** something you accept an offer or a suggestion that they have made to you, as in:

I'll take you up on your offer of a lift home, if that's all right?

I'm busy tonight but I'll take you up on your suggestion of dinner some time soon.

take up with

If you **take up with** someone you start being friendly with them and spending quite a lot of time with them, or you start a romantic relationship with them, as in:

Their son's taken up with some kids that have been in trouble with the police.

We hear that Kate's taken up with a boy in her class.

walk

walk away from

If you literally **walk away from** someone or something you just move away from them by walking. If you figuratively **walk away from** a situation you do not try to deal with it but leave it or ignore it, as in:

Her wealthy brother could have helped her with her failing business, but he chose to walk away from it all and left her to cope alone.

After their last quarrel he felt that their friendship was at an end and the time had come to walk away from it.

walk in on

If you **walk in on** someone you enter somewhere unexpectedly and See them, or several people, doing something private or secret which may embarrass you or them, as in:

I walked in on my aunt when she was in the shower.

She walked in on her parents when they were in a passionate embrace.

walk off with

If you **walk off with** something you win something, such as a trophy, very easily, as in:

There was no one in the tournament who was anywhere near her standard and she walked off with the championship trophy.

They were easily the most talented pop group in the competition and walked off with first prize.

6

DISPOSING OF DISCRIMINATION

DESEXING THE LANGUAGE

There are various reasons for language change. A major influence on the English language was the escalation, from the 1960s on, of a movement which was not primarily aimed at language, but which was to give rise to enormous changes in it. This was the women's movement, and its purpose was to improve the social and economic status of women in society, and give women the same rights as men.

Some progress had been made when women in Britain had finally been allowed to vote in elections to parliament after a hard-fought campaign by the suffragettes, but that was only the first step. During the two World Wars, especially the second of these, many women had worked outside the home for the first time. In many cases they were doing jobs, such as driving ambulances and working in factories, that men had formerly done.

When these men came back from the war they found that their women had tasted independence and did not want to return to the kitchen and the nursery for the rest of their lives. They wanted to

work outside the home and, in time, they wanted the same rate of pay and the same employment rights as men doing the same job.

FEMINIST ADDITIONS TO THE LANGUAGE

It was a long and slow process, and the fight is not over yet. Some people feel there is still a so-called **glass ceiling**, a term used to describe the invisible barrier that prevents women from achieving their full, senior potential in the workplace. **Glass ceiling** was one of the additions to the English language that the battle for equal rights for women brought with it, and there were others.

Before the fight for equality there was a distinct male bias in the English language. If the sex of a person was not known, or not given, the person was assumed to be male. As women gained equality in society, calls were made for changes to the language to rectify this male bias and some changes have occurred.

As well as **glass ceiling**, the language additions brought us **male chauvinist**, used to describe a man who is convinced of the inferiority of women and who is totally opposed to the idea of equal rights for women. Men who were particularly opposed to the idea and acted accordingly were described as **male chauvinist pigs**. It is odd how the poor pig seems to get an unfair deal in language!

Of course, the struggle for equality brought us **sex discrimination** and **sexism** – the unfair treatment of people on account of their gender. On the positive side, the fight for equal rights for women and for other people who were discriminated against (of which more later) brought us not only **equal opportunity**, but also **positive discrimination** and **affirmative action**.

The term **positive discrimination** was coined to describe the practice of giving a particular number of jobs, university places, etc, to people who were in the habit of being treated unfairly because of their gender, race, etc. **Positive discrimination** was the phrase favoured by the British. The American equivalent was **affirmative action**. Both expressions proved quite durable. I am not so sure about the actions that they described.

REMOVING –MAN

The contribution to the language made by the battle for women's rights was not just about additions to the vocabulary. The existing language was itself found to be just as sexist as many employers.

Many compound nouns indicating some kind of job or position ended in **–man**, even though this job or position might easily be held by a woman. **Fireman** and **policeman** are cases in point, and they became **fire fighter** and **police officer** when **sexism** was removed. **Foreman** became **supervisor** or something similar. So far so good. These words managed to bring off a relatively smooth transition.

The word **chairman** was not so lucky. Because it ended in **–man** it had to go, but what would it become? That was a difficult question and it was given some tricky answers. Part of the trouble was that there had always been a lot of female **chairmen** around. Not many of them had succeeded in smashing through the glass ceiling to become heads of companies, but many of them had been designated chairmen of societies and social organizations.

Younger women in particular wanted to get shot of the **–man** element at all costs. A reasonably popular replacement choice was –**person**, but it was far from popular with everyone. Many people

absolutely hated **chairperson** and said so. Bear in mind that, although there is always a degree of language change going on, the scale and the speed of change was not as great when **chairman** was trying to divest itself of its obvious masculinity. Many women, especially older women, said that, given the choice, they would rather be a **chairman** than a **chairperson** any day.

One proposed alternative was **chair**. This also brought forth much protest. I heard one rather matronly woman declaim that she had no intention of becoming something neuter like a chair. She would rather be a chairman.

Somehow the whole thing has calmed down, as things do in time. I do not think that there has ever been an across-the-board solution. Some people chairing a meeting or a social organization will be chairs and some will be chairpersons. Probably, some, whatever their gender, may still be chairmen.

Of course the use of –**man** in compound nouns was not restricted to its association with **chair**. There were other words that fell into this category, words such as **barman** and **spokesman**, for example. A different fate has befallen these two. Although attempts have been made to impose **barperson** on pub-goers they have not been all that successful. **Barman** is still flourishing. More surprisingly, so is **barmaid**, which you would think would be regarded as sexist in the extreme. It has fought off not only **barperson**, but other attempts to replace it with words such as **bar assistant** and **bar attendant**.

Spokesman, however, has not shown the same capacity for survival as **barmaid**. **Spokesperson** is one of a few –**person** words that do not automatically reduce people to fits of laughter. The word has become quite common when the gender of the person speaking

on behalf of an organization is not known. Obviously, if the gender of that person is known then the correct gender can be assigned and we could end up with a **spokesman** or a **spokeswoman**. This should be acceptable to all although that is not always the case. It is no surprise that many organizations tend to duck this issue and go for the word **representative** instead.

The proposed substitution of **person** for **man** was considered by many, at least at first, to be hilarious. As a result it gave rise to a great deal of exaggeration and satire. People would find amusement in substituting **person** for **man** in words such as **manhole**. Others with no thought of humour attempted to get rid of the word **manhole** by substituting **sewer access hole** or **utility access hole**. Fortunately most of us do not have much call to refer to manholes, unless we trip over one or, worse, fall down one. In such cases we are probably not overly concerned with what they are called.

IS MANKIND NO MORE?

We are not yet finished with the word **man**. **Man** was also formerly used universally to refer to human beings as a group or to human beings from a particular period of history, as in:

> *Man has destroyed the habitats of many animals*.
>
> *Early man lived in caves and wore animal skins.*

Sometimes **man** in this sense was spelt with a capital letter, sometimes not, but it was not the spelling that caused the problem. It was the fact that its use ignored half the human race, the women.

Some people continue to use **man** in this sense as though it were a generic word referring to any human being rather than to a

member of the male sex. If you want to avoid this use you can often substitute **humans** or **human beings** or **the human race**, whichever seems the most appropriate in the context. Similarly, **mankind** can be avoided by the use of **humankind**, but do avoid using **personkind** or you will run the risk of being greeted by the same kind of hilarity that **personhole** gives rise to.

PERSON

The word **person** may often be used satirically when it is used as part of a compound word such as **personhole**, but it is a perfectly respectable word when used on its own. It plays a useful part in avoiding male bias in language. Formerly, someone seeking a new employee would very probably have spoken or written of the need to find 'the right man for the job'. Nowadays the would-be employer would be much more likely to say or write 'the right person for the job'. When more than one person is involved **people** should be used instead of **men**.

–ESS

The suffix **–ess** may not look like a particularly troublesome word but its appearance is deceptive. It has played a major part in the fight for equality of the sexes.

Formerly, some words, such as **author**, **poet**, **sculptor**, whose gender is not obvious, unless the identity of the individual person is known, were automatically assumed to be masculine and they had feminine forms, **authoress**, **poetess** and **sculptress**. The call to stamp out sexism from language meant that these **–ess** forms were

considered belittling to women and so were found to be unacceptable.

The **–ess** was thus removed from these and some other words and they became the gender-free or neutral words, **author**, **poet** and **sculptor**. However, the English language is not always consistent – far from it. So we find that some feminine forms, such as **waitress**, are still in common use, while both **actor** and **actress** are commonly used for a female actor.

Manageress is still sometimes used to refer to a woman who is in charge of a shop, but not to a woman who has climbed the company executive ladder to managerial level. The job of **air hostess**, once thought to be ultra-glamorous, is now known by the more mundane term of **flight attendant**, whether the person doing the job is a man or a woman.

Alternatives to **–ess** such as **–trix** are also disappearing. As is the case with **–ess**, the former male term is now seen as the neutral term and the word **proprietor** can refer either to a male or female owner of a business.

–ETTE

If **–ess** was often, by this time, considered to be something of a despised suffix, how much more despised was the suffix **–ette**. It was belittling on two counts. Like –**ess**, it was used to form a female equivalent of a male word, but it was also used to refer to a diminutive or small form.

Fortunately, there were never that many **–ette** words referring to women around. Probably the best known was **usherette**, a woman who showed you to your seat in a cinema or theatre. Nowadays,

places which still have people showing patrons to their seats would probably refer to the male or female person doing the job as an **usher**.

Female jockeys were sometimes called **jockettes** but, although there have long been a large number of female riders around, women jockeys have been few on the ground. The word **jockette** never really caught on before it was ruled out of order.

The word **hackette** was, and is still, occasionally used to refer to a female journalist. Its use is usually satirical and women journalists sometimes use it humorously of themselves.

LADY/WOMAN/FEMALE

We are not yet finished with the influence of women on language, but this next issue has nothing to do with men. It is purely a female issue and one that sounds as though it belongs more to class than gender. It concerns the use of the words **lady** and **woman** (see 1, 2).

Formerly the word **lady** was often used instead of **woman** because doing so was thought to be part of the code of polite behaviour. Many parents still encourage their children to refer to a woman as a lady. For example, a mother might say to her young child in a bus:

> *'Sue, come and sit on my knee and give that lady your seat.'*

Some older people might feel uncomfortable about using the word **woman** since they will have been taught not to do so. However, for the most part **woman** is now the accepted term and **lady** can be regarded as rather a condescending term. Thus **cleaning lady** is to

be avoided and there is no need to use **cleaning woman** since **cleaner** will be absolutely fine. After all the person doing the cleaning might be a man!

There are some employment words which, even before the sexual revolution, could refer to either men or women, although there were far more men than women in the roles. Such words include **doctor** and **engineer**.

The term **lady doctor** was formerly quite commonly used to refer to a doctor who was a woman. This term is now old-fashioned and people who feel the need of consulting a doctor who is not a man probably quite happily refer to a **woman doctor**. Alternatively, it is perfectly all right to refer to a **female doctor**.

People are not so likely to have to worry about the gender of an engineer. Formerly it was not a problem at all because there were very few female engineers, engineering not being considered a suitable career for a woman. Now engineers who are female can follow the example set by doctors and be referred to as a **woman engineer** or a **female engineer**. This will also apply to various other trades, professions, etc, as in:

> *The company now employs quite a few female bus drivers.*

A similar problem can affect men if they take up a profession that was formerly restricted to women. For example, there are now more men taking up primary teaching but that has no linguistic problems. Like women, they are just teachers. But the same is not true of nurses. Formerly nurses were assumed to be women so when men started to take up nursing as a profession they became known as **male nurses**.

FEMALE AS A NOUN

As we have seen, **female** is perfectly acceptable as an adjective, but care must be taken if you are thinking of using it as a noun. It is fine to use it if you wish to refer to young people of the female sex who are too young to be described as women, as in:

> *He is the only man in a house full of females – his wife, his mother and his three young daughters.*

It can also be used to contrast with **male**, as in:

> *There are now twice the number of females as there are males in the club.*

It can be used of female animals without any protest.

However, the use of **female** as a noun can be regarded as disrespectful or insulting, as in:

> *Some interfering female has just told us that we can't park here.*

> *Who is the female wearing that dreadful hat?*

GIRL

Girl is obviously quite acceptable if it is used to refer to someone of the female sex who is either a child or an adolescent, as in:

> *The girls in the class have done better in the exam than the boys.*

When it is used of older people who are, in fact, women, the word **girl** can sometimes be regarded as patronizing or disrespectful when it is used by men. This is quite ironic as some men, particularly older

men, think that they are being complimentary or courteous when using **girl** to refer to a woman who is quite obviously no longer as young as a girl, as in:

> *What would you girls like to drink?*

The ‘stamping out of sexism’ campaign may well have passed such men by.

It seems a bit unfair but it is quite all right for women who are no longer young to refer to their friends of a similar age as **girls**, as in:

> *My mother says she can’t come to dinner tomorrow night as she always has a night out with the girls on a Thursday.*

PARTNERS OR WHAT?

Another issue which involved a social change connected with gender caused the language some problems along the way, although the final effect was not at all dramatic. Before the 1960s it was not considered respectable for members of the opposite sex to live together unless they were married. Attitudes to unmarried sex changed from the 1960s, partly, it must be said, because of the introduction of the contraceptive pill. From then on, more and more members of the opposite sex took to living together without taking any marriage vows.

This involved a linguistic problem that people were much preoccupied with during the late 1970s and early 1980s. How do you introduce someone you are living with but who is not your husband or wife? Believe it or not, this was a question that many people, including several language experts, agonized over at the time.

Spouse was obviously just as inappropriate as husband or wife, while calling someone by the legal term, **cohabitee**, is enough to have them begging for marriage.

Boyfriend and **girlfriend** may have sounded a bit young in the particular circumstances and may even have suggested an unwanted degree of impermanence. **Lover** had the advantage of being able to be used to refer to both sexes, but it sounded rather racy and even illegal. We are talking here of respectable unmarried couples.

Partner was suggested quite early on, but it was rejected on the grounds that it properly belonged in a business relationship. Some strange alternatives were put forward. One of these was **significant other** which some people stuck with. However, this term mostly went on to mean a person who was influential or supportive in one's life (rather than someone who shared your house and bed as well as your life).

One of the strangest terms was **POSSLQ**, short for 'persons of the opposite sex sharing living quarters'. It seems extraordinary that this was given serious consideration by quite sensible people. Fortunately it did not last.

Someone uncovered the Scots word **bidie-in**, a word meaning 'a live-in partner' that was hitherto more or less restricted to the north-east of Scotland. For a time it enjoyed quite a lot of general attention in the British media, but this soon faded. It probably sounded far too homely and unsophisticated to be a real contender and it soon retreated back to its native heath. **Live-in** did not last very long either.

I mention these words that did not catch on simply to show you what a narrow escape language sometimes has. In this case it all came right in the end and we were left with **partner**, the word that is now still most commonly used. Its close association with business seemed not to matter after all. A lot of angst and argument could have been prevented if people had just settled on this term in the first place!

Vocabulary was not the only thing to change as the English language did its best to dispose of **sexism** – grammar, too, was affected (*see* sexism in **Desexing grammar** in Chapter 1). There can be no doubt that the movement to stamp out sexism in language achieved a great deal of success.

POLITICAL CORRECTNESS

To some extent, the movement to stamp out sexism got tangled up with the movement to impose **political correctness** (**PC**) on language, although the PC movement never did become the universal success that some people predicted.

Perhaps this lack of success was not all that surprising. For a start, the movement faced a major basic problem. Many people did not know what it was all about and many still do not know. Its very name was and is a barrier to understanding it. The term **political correctness** sounds as though it should mean something like 'in accordance with current or acceptable political beliefs or policy' and in fact it had a meaning of this kind in the 18th century.

However, by the time modern political correctness came into play around the mid 1980s in America, later in Britain, the term had little

to do with what ordinary people regard as the meaning of ‘political’. Instead it referred to a movement aimed at minimizing causing offence to others, especially when this was based on race, gender, religion, disability, age, occupation, etc. This movement was not only aimed at language, but also at policy, behaviour and so on.

As you will see, it sounds as though this movement was based on very good intentions. It was an excellent idea to try to protect people from discrimination and insult. Sadly, this idea was taken to such ridiculous extremes that the term **political correctness** came to be regarded as a pejorative term, rather than a force for good.

It became something to poke fun at, rather than something to applaud and admire. If you mention the term **political correctness**, a great many people will come up with some humorous inventions based on the notion of political correctness.

Many of these involve the addition of the word **challenged**, as in:

chronologically challenged = old
morally challenged = criminal
follicularly challenged = bald.

The more extreme and unusual these inventions are, the funnier they seem –or so the user of the word thinks.

Of course political correctness had a serious purpose when it was introduced. It was intended to put a positive light on some kind of personal problem so that it did not seem to be as much of a disadvantage as might first appear. In its non-humorous sense it can be applied to someone who is disabled in the form **physically challenged**. Also, **visually challenged** is sometimes used to refer to people who are **partially sighted** or **visually impaired**.

There were several other PC suggestions put forward to describe people who are disabled, but they simply point to another problem that political correctness encountered. This was the fact that the very people that the movement was trying to protect did not much like the words that were suggested. Perhaps they found them patronizing. Perhaps they preferred to face their problems head on rather than pussyfoot around them. Whatever the reason, some expressions that were meant to put a positive light on a disability, such as **differently abled**, **otherly abled**, **otherwise abled** and **uniquely abled**, never really caught on.

REMOVING OFFENSIVE TERMS

The aim of political correctness was to avoid words and phrases that might be regarded as offensive to a particular section of society and it is a pity that it all went horribly wrong. However, the process of trying to avoid offensive words and phrases had been started long before the launch of the PC movement and it has had some success, particularly when related to race and nationality. Most dictionaries now, if they include such words at all, clearly indicate that they are considered to be offensive.

Some alterations to the language in this area involve a change of the name traditionally given to a particular group of people. For example, the indigenous people of the Arctic are now mostly known by the name **Inuit**, rather than by the name **Eskimo**, meaning ‘eater of raw flesh’. The term **Inuit** is preferred by many of the people themselves, although the word **Eskimo** is still used.

There has also been a change of name for the people whose ancestors inhabited America before the arrival of Europeans. It

seems unbelievable now, but, until fairly recently, these people were offensively and quite commonly known as **Red Indians**. This then became either **Indians** or **American Indians** and now the preferred term is **Native Americans** or **Native North Americans**.

THE COLOUR OF YOUR SKIN

The colour of a person's skin has caused many problems in language. Opinions as to what is an acceptable term for a dark-skinned person have differed, have changed and have changed back again. If you have lived through these changes this makes it difficult to decide what will be considered acceptable and what might give offence.

In the 1960s the word **coloured**, which grouped together everyone who was not white-skinned, was decreed to be offensive in Britain, but nowadays the term **Coloured** is used officially in South Africa to describe South Africans of mixed ethnic parentage or descent.

Political correctness was more successful in North America than it was in Britain. So it is that the terms **people of color** (**POCs**) and **women of color** (**WOCs**) are commonly used in America by ordinary people as well as bureaucrats.

Also in the 1960s, the term **black**, often spelt **Black**, became universally acceptable and was to be found in such expressions as *black power*. It was also used as a noun to refer to a person. However, many Americans of African descent prefer the term **African American**.

AGEISM

There have been many changes in society as the decades have gone by. One of these changes involves the length of the average allotted lifespan. Because of major advances in medical diagnosis and treatment, a great many people are living longer than previous generations did. Many of them remain fit and lively until they are quite old, but they do not feel old and they do not like to be called **old**. Baby boomers, the many people born in the years just after the Second World War, have been used to getting their own way, largely because there are so many of them. If they did not want to be called **old** then they would be called something more appropriate, but what?

Elderly is not much better than **old**, although it is considered to be more polite. Both words suggest that the person so described is a bit dated and might consider sitting by the fire knitting or reading a newspaper rather than going on a cruise. Perhaps **older** (attached to **people**) is the best option here. After all, practically everyone is older than someone else. Who can possibly object to the phrase **older people**? Almost certainly a good many can and will, but we shall move swiftly on.

It is as well not to talk of **the old**. This lumps people together and suggests that individually they do not matter. The same is true of expressions such as **the poor**, **the deaf** and **the blind**. *See* **Which word?** in Chapter 8.

For a while **OAP** was thought to be a suitable term for an older person. It might even have been regarded as an affectionate term, if you ignored the fact that it is an abbreviation for **old age pensioner**. **Old age pensioner** does not sound at all affectionate. Some

language commentators have said that the expression is often used to suggest dependency on others, the feeling being that old age pensioners have somehow to be helped along by the rest of us. The baby boomers would not like that at all, even although many old age pensioners are reliant on the state benefit known as the **old age pension**.

I am always puzzled when media presenters, as they are wont to do, talk of **pensioners** and then reveal that they are talking of people over 55 or 60, or sometimes even over 50. They have to be talking about people who are in the enviable position of having a private pension which they can take at these ages. Successive governments seem to try and increase the age at which the state pension is paid. Who knows where that will end?

The Americans never did take to the term **OAP**, or, for that matter, its longer form **old age pensioner**. Instead, they opted for **senior citizen**. Unfortunately, I cannot help thinking of that in terms of the classroom and the playground, especially now that **senior** has gradually taken over from **senior citizen** in the States. Meanwhile, British English seems to be embracing **senior citizen**.

I have a particular dislike of ultra-jolly people, compères at concerts and the like, who describe **older people** as **80** or **90** (or so) **years young**. I am not too keen on the **young of all ages** either.

In some cases, efforts to remove discrimination from language have been successful. However, in some ways by changing the language we are simply paying lip service to the removal of discrimination which unfortunately still flourishes in society to this day.

7

VEXING VERBS

The verb is usually the most important part of a sentence and so it is essential that you get it right. Now, there is nothing quite so off-putting as someone telling you right at the start of something that it can be very difficult. However, I feel that I have to do this on the subject of verbs. There is no point in lying to you. Verbs are hard work. They fulfil a number of functions in sentences, such as tense and mood, and all of these functions can give rise to problems. You have been warned!

Some of you may have put a lot of hard work into verbs already but have forgotten some of what you have learnt, or you may have not quite grasped the information first time around. For you the comments that follow will act as a kind of refresher course or give you some more guidance through the jungle that is verbs.

Hopefully, those of you who are still on the nursery slopes of verbs will also find them useful as a starting point.

WHAT IS A VERB?

In primary school some children are told that a verb is a ‘doing word’. To some extent this is true but it is not the full story. Verbs are ‘doing

words' in the sense that they express action. In the following sentences the words **walk** and **listen** are both verbs:

They always walk to school.

Please listen carefully.

However, verbs can also be said to be 'being' words, in that they indicate a condition or a state. In this situation they do not actually refer to an action, but simply act as a connection between the subject and the other parts of the sentence that relate to it. In the following sentences the words **is** and **seems** are both verbs:

She is a very beautiful woman.

He seems an honest man.

I have indicated above that the functions of verbs can cause problems, but you do not get as far as that before you come across problems. The very forms of verbs can themselves cause headaches. The verbs that cause fewest problems in this respect are known as **regular verbs** because they follow a set, regular pattern – except when there are exceptions!

In order to understand what this pattern involves, you need to know something about **tenses**. With reference to verbs, the word **tense** indicates the time at which an action takes place. If the action is taking place now the verb is in the **present tense**, as in:

They live next door to us.

We are making cakes.

If the action has taken place in the past the verb is in the **past tense**, as in:

The children played in the park yesterday.

He once loved her.

If the action referred to is likely to happen in the future the verb is in the **future tense**, as in:

She will be very pleased to See you.

You also need to know what a **participle** is or does. You probably know this already but you may need reminding. The **past participle** is used with parts of the verb **have** to form the **perfect tense**, also known as the **present perfect tense**, as in:

They have bought a new house.

She has taken her child to the doctor.

In the first sentence **bought** is the past participle of the verb **buy** and in the second sentence **taken** is the past participle of the verb **take**.

The past participle is also used to form the **pluperfect tense**, also known as the **past perfect tense**, as in:

We had brought a packed lunch with us.

He had hidden the jewels in a cave.

In the first sentence **brought** is the past participle of the verb **bring** and in the second sentence **hidden** is the past participle of the verb **hide**.

The **present participle** is formed by adding **–ing** to the **infinitive** or **base form**, as in *walking*. The present participle is used with parts

of the verb **be** to form the **present continuous tense**, as in:

We are walking to work.

You are snoring.

The **infinitive** or **base form** of a verb gives no indication of person, number or tense. The infinitive is often preceded by the word **to**, as in:

She wanted to sing.

They refused to go.

REGULAR VERBS

In regular verbs the ending **–ed** is added to the infinitive or base form of the verb in order to form the past tense and the past participle. Therefore **worked** is the past tense of the verb **work**.

If the verb already ends in **e** then only **–d** is added. Therefore **loved** is the past tense of the verb **love**.

When the infinitive or base form ends in **–ch**, **–ss** or **–x**, **–ed** is added, as in *march/marched* and *toss/tossed*.

When the infinitive or base form ends in **–y**, the **y** changes to **i** before **–ed** is added, as in *try/tried* and *marry/married*.

The present participle of regular verbs is formed by adding **–ing** to the infinitive or base form, as in *laugh/laughing* and *walk/walking*.

If the base form ends in **–e**, the **e** is mostly dropped when the **–ing** is added, as in *dare/daring* and *change/changing*.

Another feature of regular verbs is that the third person singular of their present tense is formed by adding **–s** to the infinitive or base

form, as in:

He plays football.

It seems obvious.

So far so good. All this seems fairly straightforward, but I have not yet mentioned **spelling** with reference to regular verbs and this can cause a few problems. Here are some rules that you need to know about.

SPELLING RULES FOR REGULAR VERBS

1 To form the present tense when the infinitive or base form ends in**–ch**, **–ss** or **–x**, **–es** is added rather than just **–s** , as in *march/marches* and *toss/tosses*. When the base form ends in **–y**, the **y** changes to **i** before the **–es** is added, as in try/tries and *cry/cries*.

2 To form the present participle when the infinitive or base form ends in **–e**, the **e** is removed from the infinitive or base form before adding **–ing**, as *manage/managing* and *rummage/rummaging. Note that* **ageing** can also be correctly spelt **aging**.

3 When a verb consists of one syllable and ends in a single consonant which is preceded by a single vowel, you double the consonant when adding **–ed** to form the past tense or past participle, or **–ing** to form the present participle, as with *drop/dropped/dropping* and *pat/patted/patting*. This sounds complicated but I assure you that it does make sense if you read it enough times.

4 (see 1, 2, 3) When a verb consists of more than one syllable and ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, you double the consonant if the word is pronounced with the stress is on the last syllable to form the past tense or past participle and the present participle. Examples include *refer/referred/referring*

and *transmit/transmitted/transmitting*. I promise you that this really does make sense. Start again and read slowly.

Just to make life more difficult there are some exceptions to this rule. One of them concerns the letter **l**. For this *see* rule 5 below. Other exceptions include *worshipped/worshipping* and *handicapped* where you double the **p** even though the stress is on the first syllable.

5 (see 1, 2) When the verb ends in **–l** then you double the letter **l** when forming the past participle or past tense or when you add **–ing** to form the present participle, even when the stress is not on the final syllable, as in *travel/travelled/travelling* and *level/levelled/levelling*. To make matters more complicated, American English does not follow this rule. It has *traveled/traveling* where British English has *travelled/travelling*. Watch out for this if you read a lot of American novels.

Note that some of these spelling rules do not apply only to regular verbs but they cause particular problems with reference to them.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING REGULAR VERBS

These often involve spelling errors.

- Forgetting to remove the **–e** from infinitive or base forms before adding **–ing** when forming the present participle. For example writing **judgeing** instead of **judging**. *See* Rule 2.
- Forgetting to double the final consonant when forming the past tense or present participle of verbs such as **rot** or **pet**. Do not write **roted** or **peting**. These are wrong. **Rotted** and **petting** are the correct forms. *See* Rule 3.
- Forgetting to double the final consonant in the past tenses or present participles of such words as **prefer** and **commit**. Do not write **prefered/prefering** or **commited/commiting**. These are wrong. **Preferred/preferring** and **committed/committing** are the correct forms. *See* Rule 4.
- Forgetting to double the **–r** in the past tense and present participle of the verb **occur**. These should be spelt **occurred** and

occurring. A word of warning. While you are trying to remember to double the letter **r**, you need to remember that the letter **c** should also be doubled.

- Doubling the **–r** in the past tense of the verb **offer**. **Offerred** is wrong because the stress on **offer** is not on the last syllable. **Offered** is correct. *See* Rule 4 (see 1).
- Doubling the **–p** in the present participle of the verb **develop**, as in **developping**, because the stress is not on the last syllable. **Developing** is correct. *See* Rule 4 (see 2).
- Forgetting to double the **–l** when forming the past participle or present participle of verbs such as **travel** and **level**. Do not write **marveled** or **appaling**. These are wrong. **Marvelled** and **appalling** are the correct forms. *See* Rule 5 (see 1).
- Forgetting to double the **–p** in **worshipped/worshipping**. This is an exception to Rule 4 (see 3). The form with the single letter **p** is correct use in American English (**worshiped/worshiping**).
- Doubling the **–t** in the past participle, past tense and present participle of the verb **benefit** as in **benefitted/benefitting**. These are wrong because the stress is not on the first syllable of the word **benefit**. They should be spelt **benefited** and **benefiting**.

There are plenty of examples of correct usage in italics in the two passages that follow.

GETTING AROUND

When we were there we *travelled* everywhere by train and could not help *marvelling* at how efficient their rail system is. We thought of taking our car over there, but we have both *committed* ourselves to helping to save the environment. Mind you, we were quite *appalled* at the cost of the train tickets. It *occurred* to me too *late* that the friend we were visiting had *referred* to this in one of her letters. Indeed, she had *offered* to buy our tickets locally for us, but I had refused. I thought it would not have *mattered*, but we found out that purchasing tickets locally in advance is much cheaper. Our travel budget would have *benefited* greatly from saving money like that.

RETURNING HOME

As I turned the key in the door, I was aware of such a terrible smell that I *dropped* the key. I rushed to the kitchen and found that all the vegetables in the fridge had *rotted*. The door had not been shut properly. It must have been open since we left to go on holiday two weeks ago. My son was supposed to make regular trips to the house but something must have *cropped* up. My wife, who was patting the *dog*, was *developing* a cold and she was lucky enough not be able to smell very well. I hastily gathered up the food from the fridge and *tossed* it into the bin at the back of the house. I then noticed a great pile of newspapers behind the front door. Our son had not *cancelled* them. I needed a cup of coffee desperately – or maybe something stronger!

IRREGULAR VERBS

If you think that regular verbs are difficult, you should prepare yourself for something much worse! As you might expect from their name, irregular verbs do not follow the pattern of regular verbs. They fall into several different categories, the rules of which are listed below. The information given is designed to simply jog your memory and help you reinforce what you already know but may have forgotten.

RULES FOR IRREGULAR VERBS

1 In some irregular verbs the past tense and the past participle both take the same form as the infinitive or base form, as in *cut/cut*, *bet/bet*, *hit/ hit* and *put/put*.

2 Some irregular verbs have two past tenses and two past participles, both sets having the same *form*, as in *burned/burnt*, *dreamed/dreamt* and *spoiled/spoilt*.

3 Some irregular verbs have past tenses and past participles which have the same form as each other and do not end *in* **–ed**, as in *hold/held/held*, *keep/kept/kept* and *teach/taught/taught*.

4 Some irregular verbs have a past tense which, in common with those of regular verbs, ends in **–ed** or **–d**, whichever is relevant. However in this category the verb has two possible past participles, one of which is the same as the past tense and the other of which takes a different form. For example, the verb **show** has the past tense **showed** and the two past participles **showed** and **shown**, and the verb **prove** has the past tense **proved** and the past participles **proved** and **proven**.

5 Some irregular verbs have a past tense and a past participle which are different from each other and different from the infinitive or base form. For example the verb **draw** has the past tense **drew** and the past participle **drawn**, the verb **grow** has the past tense **grew** and the past participle **grown**, and the verb **swim** has the past tense **swam** and the past participle **swum**.

If you have read through all this and felt completely overwhelmed, do not worry and do not feel inadequate. It is not you. It is them. Irregular verbs are acknowledged to be one of the most difficult aspects of English grammar. There is only one thing to do with them. You have to grit your teeth and learn them. It will be worth it in the end. You'll see. Lists of irregular verbs in their different forms can be found on Some irregular verbs.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING IRREGULAR VERBS

- Many of the errors involve the verbs which have been assigned to category 5. Some errors involve using the past participle form of one of these verbs wrongly when it is the past tense that is the correct form in the context, as in *I swum* (past participle) *in the lake yesterday* instead of correctly writing *I swam* (past tense) *in the lake yesterday* and wrongly writing *the phone only rung* (past

participle) *once* instead of correctly writing *the phone only rang* (past tense) *once*.

- Sometimes it is the other way round. Some errors involve using the past tense form wrongly when it is the past participle that is the correct form in the context, as in *the ship had sank off the coast of Ireland* instead of correctly writing *the ship had sunk off the coast of Ireland.*
- Using **beat**, the past tense of the verb **beat**, in contexts where the past participle **beaten** should be used, as in *we've beat* (past tense) *them three times this season* instead of correctly writing *we've beaten* (past participle) *them three times this season*.
- Using **bit**, the past tense of the verb **bite**, in contexts where the past participle **bitten** should be used. It is wrong to write *her dog has bit (past tense) the postman.* The correct form is *her dog has bitten* (past participle) *the postman*.
- Using **gotten** instead of **got** as the past participle of the verb **get** in British English. To write *they have gotten very friendly just recently* or *they had gotten what they deserved* is currently considered wrong, but it is growing in popularity because of the influence of American films and books. The influence of American English has been strengthened by the fact that many learners of English now learn American English rather than British English.
- Using **dove** instead of **dived** as the past tense of the verb **dive** in British English. In American English both **dove** and **dived** are acceptable. *The boy dove into the pool* is considered correct in American English but wrong in British English. *The boy dived into the pool* is correct in British English.
- One of the most common errors involves the verb **do**. People frequently misuse **done** (past participle), wrongly writing *he done wrong and should be punished*, when the correct form of this is either *he has done wrong and should be punished* or *he did wrong and should be punished.* This mistake is more common in spoken English.

The passages that follow provide examples of irregular verbs in use.

MORE OF A HINDRANCE THAN A HELP

Mr Jackson had *learnt* that his friends' children all helped with the housework and he *thought* that his three children should do the same. Unfortunately, it was not working out very well. Jane was helping to cook dinner, but she had *spilled/spilt* a bottle of cooking oil on the kitchen floor and had then *burned/burnt* the sausages. Dinner had definitely been *spoiled/spoilt*. Meanwhile Jack had *mowed/mown* the lawn and discovered he had an allergy to freshly cut grass. The area around his eyes had *swelled up/swollen up* and he kept sneezing.

He *had broken* the lawnmower, but he said that it *broke* by itself. Sue *chose* to go shopping and now wished she *had chosen* some other task. She *forgot* several items and was nearly home when she realized it. Her mother would not be pleased that she *had forgotten* so many things. Still her mother *forgave* people easily. She *had* already *forgiven* Jack and Jane for their mistakes. Sue was right. Furthermore, her mother had decided that she would rather not have her children's help around the house. She *had* always *known* the whole thing would be a disaster. She *knew* her children too well!

A TRAGEDY AT SEA

The fishing boat got into difficulties in the storm when it was within sight of the island. When it *sank* quite suddenly many of the crew *swam* ashore. If the ship *had sunk* any further out to sea there would have been more fatalities. Possibly there would have been more survivors if more men *had swum* ashore right away instead of taking time to get the lifeboat out. At least that is what one of the crew *wrote* in a letter to his family. He *had* also *written* to the families of those who had drowned simply to send his condolences. Many of the survivors *gave* money towards the purchase of a large wreath and they *had given* this to the grieving families on the day of the funeral.

ANTIQUES FOR SALE

John did not sell the house which he inherited from his aunt, but he *sold* most of the things that were in it. He said that he *had sold* these for two reasons. They were too old-fashioned for his taste and he needed the money which he *got* for them. In fact, he *had got* quite a lot of money from the sale. When John's aunt was young she was a keen collector of antiques and *had spent* most of her money on these. As she got older, she *spent* less on them, but she still had a valuable collection. She *had put* very little money into keeping the house in good repair. Now John *put* the money from the sale of the antiques into doing just that.

A MISUNDERSTANDING

I couldn't believe it. My boyfriend Tom's breath *stank* of alcohol and he *had driven* home. Tom *drove* to and from work every day and before I *met* him he had frequently had a few drinks with his workmates before setting out for home. Before he moved in with me he *had sworn* that he would never drink and drive again. I *swore* that I would throw him out if he ever did.

My best friend was killed by a drink-driver two years ago. She always *rode* her bike to university and she *had* just *ridden* out of the campus onto the main road when a car struck her. She died a few hours later in hospital. The driver was so drunk that he *had struck* her without even noticing. It seemed impossible.

From then on I *had worn* a badge warning people of the dangers of drink-driving. Tom *wore* one too, but it obviously didn't mean very much to him. I was so angry that I *tore* the badge from his jacket. In fact I saw that I *had torn* a bit of the jacket as well.

So far my boyfriend *had* not *spoken* a word. He now *spoke* and I *realized* that I *had made* a huge mistake. I *had lost* my temper before checking the facts. Tom's teetotal friend Jack had driven Tom home in Tom's car. That is how I *lost* that particular boyfriend!

ASPECTS OF VERBS LIKELY TO CAUSE PROBLEMS

PARTICIPLES AND PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

A **participial phrase** contains a **participle** of a verb, whether present participle or past participle. Participial phrases can be used to cement the parts of a sentence together, as in:

> *Strolling along the woodland path, the visitors admired the brightly coloured spring flowers.*

In the sentence above the participial phrase beginning with the present participle *Strolling* refers to the subject of the sentence, *the visitors*, and is placed right next to it.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING PARTICIPLES

Avoid the dangling participle

The best place to put a participial phrase is next to the noun to which it refers. A **dangling** or **hanging participle** refers to a participle that is not attached to any word in the sentence. It is just 'dangling' there, as in:

> *Lying on the beach, summer was nearly at an end.*

Lying is certainly a present participle and it begins the participial phrase *Lying on the beach.* The trouble is that this phrase should refer to a person, but it seems to be referring to *summer.* This does not make sense. The participle is dangling there without purpose. In order to get the sentence to make sense we have to reword it, as in:

Lying on the beach, the young sun-worshippers felt that summer was nearly at an end.

Lying now refers to the subject of the sentence, *the young sun-worshippers.* It is no longer dangling.

Another example of a dangling participle occurs in the following sentence:

Travelling north, the landscape became more and more bleak.

Travelling is a present participle and it begins the participial phrase *Travelling north.* But the participial phrase seems to be referring to the *landscape*, which does not make sense. The *landscape* has been there for thousands of years and is not travelling anywhere. The participial phrase has to be attached to a person or something that is capable of travelling. The participle is dangling there without purpose.

In order to get the sentence to make sense, we have to reword it, as in:

Travelling north, the explorers saw that the landscape was getting more and more bleak.

Travelling now refers to the subject of the sentence, *the explorers.* It is no longer dangling.

Avoid the misrelated participle

Sometimes participles are either wrongly or ambiguously placed. These are often known as **misrelated participles**, although some people also call these dangling participles, as in:

In the distance we could see, driving through the mountain pass, a small group of soldiers.

This sentence is potentially ambiguous. Are *we* driving through the mountains or is it *the small group of soldiers* that are doing the driving? It is important that you attach the participle to the appropriate noun to avoid confusion and remove any possibility of ambiguity, as in:

Driving through the mountain pass, we could See in the distance a small group of soldiers.

–ING FORM OF VERBS

The part of a verb ending in **–ing** can either be a present participle or it can be a **verbal noun**, also known as a **gerund**. It depends on the context.
In the sentence

I am walking in the park.

the word *walking* is a present participle, while in the sentence

Walking is an excellent form of exercise.

walking is a verbal noun or gerund. In this sentence the verbal noun or gerund *walking* is the subject of the sentence, but a verbal noun or gerund can also be the object of a sentence, as in:

He has taken up walking in order to get fit.

The word **gerund** is now an unfamiliar word to many native speakers and is generally regarded as being difficult. There is one aspect of verbal nouns or gerunds that causes particular problems. According

to traditional grammar, nouns or pronouns which qualify verbal nouns or gerunds should be in the possessive case. This means that the sentence

> *My parents strongly object to my smoking in their house.*

is, according to traditional grammar, considered correct, whereas the sentence

> *My parents strongly object to me smoking in their house.*

is considered wrong. Likewise, the following sentence

> *Apparently, her husband does not like your going round there.*

is, according to traditional grammar, considered correct, whereas the sentence

> *Apparently, her husband does not like you going round there*

is considered incorrect.

The trouble is that many people have difficulty in understanding this, and it sounds more natural to them to use the second version of each of the above sentences. The result is that more and more people are opting for it although such usage is ungrammatical. It is one of those cases in modern English where what sounds natural is taking precedence over what is grammatically correct. However, this use is best confined to spoken English and informal written English.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING GERUNDS

Forgetting in formal contexts to use the possessive case in sentences such as:

My parents hate my smoking in their house.

It is grammatically correct to use the possessive case, although in spoken and less formal written contexts many people now use:

My parents hate me smoking in their house.

VERB AGREEMENT

Verb agreement is also known as **concord** and refers to the fact that a verb must 'agree' with the appropriate subject in number. The word **number** is used to indicate whether the form of a word refers to one thing or more than one thing. Number agreement indicates that a singular noun is usually accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

The bus to the city runs every two hours.

While a plural noun is usually accompanied by a plural verb, as in:

Buses to the city are not very reliable.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING NUMBER AGREEMENT

- Usually two singular nouns joined together with **and** take a plural verb, as in:

  Tom and Jane are going to the party.

  Remember, however, that when the subject is made up of two or more singular nouns connected by a phrase which, in some way, emphasizes the 'togetherness' of the nouns, such as *together with, as well as, with* and *plus*, the verb takes the singular form, as in:

The boy's father, together with his elder sister, is going to visit him in hospital.

- Formerly it was the case that, when the subject takes the form of a singular noun linked to a plural noun by **of**, as in *a number of issues*, this had to be accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

  A number of serious issues has to be taken into consideration.

  If you used a plural verb in this context it was considered wrong. This is no longer the case. Nowadays, many people use a plural verb in such a situation, as in:

  A number of serious issues have to be taken into consideration.

  In other words, they make the verb agree with the nearest noun, in this case *issues* rather than *number*. Since this sounds more natural it is becoming more and more common, although it is grammatically wrong. You could say that common sense is prevailing.

- Take care with **group** or **collective nouns**, such as *committee, family, government* and *jury.* They can cause problems in relation to verb agreement. Some of these can be accompanied by either a singular or plural verb depending on the context. It all depends on whether you wish to emphasize the unity of the relevant noun, or whether you wish to emphasize the individual components that go to make up the noun. In the first case you would opt for a singular verb, while in the second case you would opt for a plural verb.

  For example, if you are thinking of the family as a unit you might say:

  The family is the most important influence in a young child's life.

  If you are considering the components of a family you might say:

His family are coming from various parts of the world to celebrate his eightieth birthday with him.

This distinction can be very difficult to get your head round and it can lead to a great deal of puzzlement and confusion. It can sometimes be difficult to decide which meaning you have in mind. Most people go on instinct or on what they think sounds best. It is a much simpler issue in American English, where such group or collective nouns are treated as singular.

- Remember that **indefinite pronouns**, such as *anyone, someone, everyone* and *no one*, should be accompanied by a singular verb, as in:

  Everyone is welcome to attend the opening party.

  Either of the flats is suitable.

  Neither of them has a job.

- Remember that if there is a combination of singular and plural subjects in the **either … or** construction, the verb agrees with the noun nearest to it, as in:

  Either my brother or my parents are giving me a lift to the airport.

  Either his friends or his cousin is to blame for the damage to his car.

The same is true of the **neither … nor** construction, as in:

Neither my sisters nor my brother has been invited.

MOOD

Mood is one of the categories into which verbs are divided. It gets its name from the fact that it was thought to show the attitude or

viewpoint that a particular verb indicated.

The moods are the **indicative mood**, the **imperative mood** and the **subjunctive mood**, but the only one of these that causes any problems is the **subjunctive**.

As far as most verbs are concerned the subjunctive form of the verb is the same as its basic form except that the third person singular leaves off the **–s** ending, e.g. **depart** instead of **departs**.

However the verb **be** has the past tense subjunctive **were** and its present subjunctive is **be**.

The subjunctive is used in modern English to express hypothetical statements, often beginning with the conjunction **if.**

In the following sentences the verb **were** is in the subjunctive mood:

If I were him I would look for another job.

If I were Jack's mother I would be very disappointed in him.

The subjunctive is also used in certain clauses, often beginning with **that**, which express a wish, demand or recommendation, as in:

I insist that she leave immediately.

We suggest that he look for another job.

The judge recommends that he be imprisoned for life.

Because many people nowadays are not familiar with the word **subjunctive**, and, even if they are, do not understand what it is, its use is fading, except in very formal contexts. This is partly because people find that sentences using the subjunctive sound rather stilted

and unnatural. It often takes a long time, but in the end, the will of the people sometimes dictates what happens to language.

If you are writing something formal and do not wish to use the subjunctive you can always use the verb **should** instead, as in the sentence

> *The judge recommends that he should be imprisoned for life.*

rather than

> *The judge recommends that he be imprisoned for life.*

VOICE

Voice, with reference to verbs, has nothing to do with the vocal cords. Instead, it refers to two ways of looking at the action of verbs. Verbs which take an object, called **transitive verbs**, can either be in the **active voice** or the **passive voice**.

In the case of the active voice the subject performs the action described by the verb in a sentence, as in:

> *The boy threw the ball*.

In the case of the passive voice the subject in a sentence is the recipient of the action described by the verb, i.e. the object of the verb in an active sentence becomes the subject in a passive sentence, as in:

> *The ball was thrown by the boy.*

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING THE PASSIVE VOICE

- Be careful how you use the passive voice. In particular, do not overuse it. The active voice suits its name. Verbs in the active voice move the action of a piece of writing on, so to speak. They are more direct and more forceful and they are often clearer and shorter. Sentences with verbs in the passive voice are often less direct and, by their very nature, can be longer and less clear. Sometimes they can slow the action down, and research shows that readers take longer to understand sentences with verbs in the passive voice than sentences with verbs in the active voice. A sentence with a verb in the active voice actually identifies the person who was responsible for the action so there is little possibility of vagueness or ambiguity, as in:

  Jack broke the window.

  A sentence with a verb in the passive voice can describe an action without identifying the person who is responsible for it and this leaves room for vagueness or ambiguity, as in:

  The window was broken.

- However, do not be afraid of the passive voice. Some people treat it as though it were some kind of monster that has to be avoided at all costs. This is not true. There is a time and a place for everything, including the passive voice. For example, you might want to report some kind of action which you know has been committed without knowing who committed it, as in:

  The woman was murdered early this morning.

  This sounds better than:

  Someone murdered the woman early this morning.

  Use the passive voice sparingly and avoid it as much as possible until you have reasonably well-honed writing skills. But remember that it can be a useful stylistic device.

- If you are writing something of an academic nature or if you are writing something that is meant to be informative, do not use phrases in the passive voice too often. The phrases in the

passive voice that follow, for example, are frequently too vague to be appropriate in that kind of writing:

It is now widely believed that …

It has been shown by research that …

Studies show that …

TENSE

The **tense** of a verb indicates the time at which an action takes place.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING TENSE

- Many errors involving tense concern the parts of irregular verbs, especially the past participles and the past tenses. *See* **Common errors involving irregular verbs**.
- A common error is to use the verb **was** when you mean the verb **were**, as in:

  We was sure we would win.

  This is wrong. It should be:

  We were sure we would win.

  This mistake is common in spoken English and in very informal written English.
- Try not to confuse the simple present tense and the continuous present tense, also known as the progressive present tense.

  The continuous present tense is used when you are referring to something that is happening at that very moment, or when you are referring to an action continuing over a period of time, including the present, and not complete at the time you are referring to it. The continuous present tense is more commonly

used in everyday English than the present tense. Learners of English, in particular, can have problems with this tense.

If, for example, someone is preparing a meal as you speak, you would say:

He is cooking (continuous present tense) tonight's meal in the kitchen.

not

He cooks (simple present tense) tonight's meal in the kitchen.

You would say:

We are just reaching the outskirts of the city now.

not

We reach the outskirts of the city now.

- A similar confusion can arise between the simple past tense and the continuous past tense, also the progressive past tense.
- **will/shall**. Remember that the future tense is now commonly formed with **will** plus the infinitive form of the main verb, as in:

I will See you there.

They will drive up tomorrow.

Formerly, you had to choose between will and shall according to context. *See* **Which word?** (see 1) in Chapter 8.

The word **shall** is sometimes used when questions are being asked or when suggestions are being made when these relate to the immediate situation, as in:

Shall I proceed?

In informal and relatively informal contexts the contracted form is used, as in:

What'll you have?

Remember that the simple present tense is sometimes used instead of the future tense, as in:

I leave for the States tomorrow.

MODAL VERBS

The main **modal verbs**, also called **modal auxiliary verbs**, are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *shall*, *would*, *should*, *must* and *ought to*.

These verbs are used with main verbs to express a wide range of meanings including possibility, probability, ability, permission, prediction, requests, invitations, etc.

COMMON ERRORS INVOLVING MODAL VERBS

- **can/may**. In all but the most formal contexts **can** is now more normally used than **may**, as in:

  Can I come in?

  Can we go out to play?

  Using **can** in such situations is no longer regarded as an error. *See* **Which word?** (see 2) in Chapter 8.
- **will/shall**.
- Do not write the word **of** instead of the verb **have** as part of a verb. There is a common tendency now for people to use *could of, should of, would of, must of*, etc, instead of the correct form *could have, should have, must have, etc. Doing so is grammatically quite wrong. Of course, except in formal contexts, it is all right to use the contracted forms of could have, should have and would have, etc, as in could've, should've, would've, etc*. *See* **Which word?** (see 3) in Chapter 8.

THE ANTI-VERB BRIGADE

There is something about some verbs that some people do not like in modern English usage. The creation of new verbs that end in **–ize** (or **–ise**) is a particular pet hate of many. This modern tendency began in the second part of the 20th century and one of the first of such verbs to record extreme levels of dislike was **privatize**. This means 'to transfer an industry, etc, from state ownership to private ownership' and there might have been a touch of political dissent there as well as linguistic disagreement.

A spate of verbs with the same ending followed with much protest. So we ended up with words such as **hospitalize**, **pedestrianize** and **institutionalize**. **Prioritize** was very unpopular when it first made an appearance but, as often happens, people got used to it, as we did to **decimalize** and **computerize**. The introduction of **incentivize** caused another storm of protest, but since its purpose is to motivate people by offering them high rewards, usually of a financial nature, those in the happy situation of being incentivized, such as bankers, are almost certainly not worried. More specialist –**ize** verbs, such as **weaponize**, have also reared their ugly heads. Let us hope the use of that particular verb does not become an everyday occurrence.

The habit of forming new verbs, now called 'verbing' or 'verbifying', by adding **–ize** was blamed on America, as many things are, but the **–ize** habit is in fact a very old one. It was a common practice of Thomas Nashe, the English dramatist, satirist and pamphleteer, and he was writing towards the end of the 16th century. He was apparently fond of such words as **superficialize** and **citizenize**!

Of course, not all new verbs are formed with the ending –**ize** (or **–ise)**. Some of them simply use the form of the noun on which they are based. For example, in the following sentences the verb ***tasked*** has come from the noun **task**, and the verb *impacted* has come from the noun **impact**:

> *He was tasked with setting up a new marketing department.*
>
> *Online purchasing has impacted on many high-street shops*.

Both of these verbs send the blood pressure of some people soaring and yet neither of them is new. *Task* was first used as a verb in the 16th century and ***impact*** in the 17th century.

The age of the computer has brought many new verbs into the English language. They seem to have been well tolerated at first as long as they remained firmly in the technical field and did not spread into the general language. But inevitably some of these verbs have spread their wings to howls of protest from some. The verbs **input** and **access** met with particularly strong opposition when they first entered into the general language, but these and other new verbs, such as **bookmark**, **blog** and **Google**, are now used by millions of people.

Technological advances in general are occurring at a terrifying rate and advances in verbing are not far behind. Think of other new verbs like *text* from the world of mobile phones and the verbs **friend** and **unfriend** from Facebook.

They may have caused some controversy but for better or worse all of these verbs are now part of the English language's rich store of

words.

SOME IRREGULAR VERBS

In the following list of irregular verbs the past tense and the past participle both take the same form as the infinitive or base form:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread

Some irregular verbs have two past tenses and two past participles which are the same. These include:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
dwell	dwelled, dwelt	dwelled, dwelt

hang	hanged, hung	hanged, hung
kneel	kneeled, knelt	kneeled, knelt
lean	leaned, leant	leaned, leant
leap	leaped, leapt	leaped, leapt
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt
speed	speeded, sped	speeded, sped
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
weave	weaved, woven	weaved, woven
wet	wetted, wet	wetted, wet

Some irregular verbs have past tenses that do not end in **–ed** and have the same form as the past participle.These include:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
bend	bent	bent
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
build	built	built
cling	clung	clung
dig	dug	dug
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
get	got	got
grind	ground	ground
hear	heard	heard
hold	held	held

keep	kept	kept
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
rend	rent	rent
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
sit	sat	sat
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
spend	spent	spent
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
sweep	swept	swept
swing	swung	swung
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told

think	thought	thought
understand	understood	understood
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wring	wrung	wrung

Some irregular verbs have regular past tense forms but two possible past participles, one of which is regular. These include:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
prove	proved	proved, proven
sew	sewed	sewed, sewn
show	showed	showed, shown
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen

Some irregular verbs have past tenses and past participles that are different from each other and different from the infinitive. These include:

infinitive	**past tense**	**past participle**
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
bear	bore	borne
begin	began	begun
bid	bade	bidden
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
do	did	done

draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
forswear	forswore	forsworn
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grow	grew	grown
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
saw	sawed	sawn
see	saw	seen
rise	rose	risen
shake	shook	shaken
shrink	shrank	shrunk
slay	slew	slain
infinitive	past tense	past participle
speak	spoke	spoken
spring	sprang	sprung
steal	stole	stolen

stink	stank	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
write	wrote	written

8

CONFUSION UPON CONFUSION

The English language has a huge vocabulary. This is obviously a good thing because it means that you have a wide choice of words at your fingertips to express what you want to say. However, it also means that is very easy to get confused when you are trying to select the right word for what you want to express.

There are various well-known pitfalls when it comes to making the right choice of word, but that does not make them any easier to avoid unless you have been made aware of them. My aim is to try to bring some of the potential stumbling blocks to your attention. Try and remember at least some of them, or at least remember to look them up when warning bells ring in your head. This will definitely save you problems in the future.

There are three categories of words which cause particular confusion. They are **homophones**, **homographs**, **homonyms**. They sound rather complicated and are exactly the kind of words that might make some of you switch off. If you do that please switch back on again! The words are easier to understand than you think. Anyway, you can forget the names of the categories as long as you remember the problems which they represent.

HOMOPHONES

The word **homophone** comes from the Greek word *homophonos*, which means having the same sound. This may have led more of you to switching off, but it gives a good indication of the nature of the problem with homophones. Homophones are pronounced in the same way as each other, but they have different meanings and spellings. They cause a good deal of confusion.

RP

A minor word of caution here regarding pronunciation. Strictly speaking, we are talking here of pronunciation according to **RP**. Learners of English will be well aware of this term. However, native speakers may have managed to ignore the existence of RP and gone on pronouncing words in their own sweet way.

Just for the record I should tell you, or remind you, that RP is short for **Received Pronunciation**. This name is given to the form of speech associated with educated people in the south of England and is used as a model of pronunciation in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

There are many accents in the UK and several forms of English other than British English, which do not conform to the rules of RP. Thus, words that are homophones as pronounced by RP speakers will not necessarily be homophones when they are pronounced by speakers of American English or by people speaking with, for example, a Scots accent.

Below are some examples of homophones. Sometimes only two words are involved, but sometimes there are three or four.

HOMOPHONE EXAMPLES

currant/current

The words **currant** and **current** have nothing in common except their pronunciation. **Currant** is a noun meaning ‘a small dried grape used in baking’, as in:

> *We need flour, butter, eggs and currants to make this cake*.

Current has a much wider range of meanings. As a noun it can be found in such contexts as *electric current, the current of a river* and *a current of cold air.* As an adjective it means ‘belonging to the present time’, as in *a current affairs programme on television* and *the current fashion in food.*

heal/heel

These words are pronounced in the same way but have very different meanings. **Heal** is a verb meaning ‘to become or make healthy again’, as in:

> *The wound has started to heal at last.*

Heel is the back part of a foot below the ankle, as in:

> *Her shoes were too tight and she got a blister on her heel.*

hear/here

The words **hear** and **here** share a pronunciation but have different meanings. **Hear** is a verb meaning ‘to become aware of sounds by

means of your ears', as in:

She didn't hear the door bell because she is deaf.

Here is an adverb meaning 'this place', as in:

I'm not going anywhere. I'm staying right here.

rain/reign/rein

The words **rain**, **reign** and **rein** are pronounced alike but are otherwise unrelated. **Rain** is water that falls from the sky, as in:

We got very wet in the heavy rain.

Reign refers to the period of time when a king or queen is ruling, as in:

The Second World War took place during the reign of George VI.

Rein means 'a long narrow band of leather used to control a horse' and it is mostly found in the plural form, as in:

The rider let the reins fall from her hands as her horse came to a standstill.

right/rite/write/wright

These words are pronounced alike but are completely different in meaning.

As an adjective **right** has several meanings. It can mean 'correct', as in *the right answer or he turned out to be right.* It can also mean 'the opposite of left', as in:

He held it in his right hand.

As a noun **right** refers to something that you are legally, officially or morally allowed to do or have, as in:

You have no right to refuse us entry to this park.

The women's movement was established to protect the rights of women.

The word **rite** is a noun which refers to a ceremonial act that is always performed in the same way, often as part of a religious ceremony, as in *traditional funeral rites.*

The word **write** is a verb meaning 'to make letters, words or numbers on paper using a pen or pencil', as in *primary schoolchildren just learning to write.* It can also mean 'to set down words for others to read', as in:

I'm not going to phone them. I'm going to write them a letter.

The word **wright** is much less common than the other two words on this list. Usually it comes as the second part of a compound word which indicates someone who works at particular trade or job, as in *shipwright* and *playwright*.

HOMOGRAPHS

Homographs are words which have the same spelling but different meanings, and are pronounced differently.

HOMOGRAPH EXAMPLES

lead/lead

As you can see, these two words look exactly the same. They are spelt in the same way, but they are pronounced differently and they have totally different meanings. One of the words rhymes with *bead* and *feed* while the other rhymes with *red* and *fed.* The **lead** rhyming with *feed* is a verb whose primary meaning is 'to guide people somewhere by going in front of them', as in:

> *The mountain guide will lead the party of climbers safely to the summit.*

The **lead** rhyming with *fed* is a noun which refers to a type of soft, heavy grey metal, as in:

> *Lead was once used to make water pipes but this practice was stopped as lead is poisonous.*

Note that the past participle of the verb **lead** is spelt *led* and it is pronounced like the metal.

row/row

Obviously these two words are spelt the same but they are pronounced differently and have totally different meanings.

One of the words rhymes with *low* and *mow* and is a noun meaning 'a number of people or things arranged in a line', as in:

> *There was a row of policemen blocking the entrance to the building.*

The other **row** rhymes with *cow* and *how* and is a noun meaning ‘a quarrel or disagreement’, as in:

The boy and his father were always having rows.

minute/minute

Like the others words in this category, these words share a spelling but not a pronunciation and they have different meanings.

One of the words is pronounced *min-it*, with the stress on the first syllable. It is a noun referring to a unit of time, as in *60 minutes in an hour.*

The other word is an adjective. Its first part is pronounced to rhyme with *mine* and its second part is pronounced *yoot*, the stress being on the first syllable. This second word means ‘extremely small’, as in *minute amounts of poison.*

HOMONYMS

Homonyms are words which have the same spelling and the same pronunciation but they have different meanings. They are sometimes referred to as **multiple meaning words**. Below are some examples.

HOMONYM EXAMPLES

bill/bill

These two words are spelt and pronounced in the same way, but they have different meanings.

The first and more common **bill** refers to a piece of paper which shows how much money you owe someone for goods or services (although it also has other related meanings), as in:

I've just had a huge bill for repairs to the car.

The second **bill** is quite unrelated to the first. It means 'a bird's beak', as in:

The thrush had a small worm hanging from its bill.

calf/calf

These two nouns are spelt and pronounced in the same way, but they have different meanings.

One of the meanings of the word **calf** relates to animals. Commonly it refers to a young cow, although it can also refer to the young of some other animals, such as elephants.

The other meaning of **calf** relates to the human body and refers to the back part of the leg between the ankle and the back of the knee, as in:

She got cramp in her calf after dancing all night.

swallow/swallow

These two words are spelt and pronounced in the same way, but they have different meanings.

One of these words is a noun used to refer to a kind of bird, as in:

It was the end of summer and swallows were getting ready to fly to warmer lands for the winter.

The other **swallow** is a verb meaning ‘to cause food or drink to go down your throat into your stomach’, as in:

> *He had a very sore throat and could only swallow very small pieces of food.*

ORONYMS

It might be time to introduce a little light relief. A sequence of words, as in *ice cream*, that sounds the same as a different sequence of words, as in *I scream*, are sometimes used humorously or in word games and are called **oronyms**. The word **oronym** was apparently coined by Gyles Brandreth, wordsmith, broadcaster and former MP.

Oronyms include *ice cream* and *I scream*; *example* and *egg sample; four candles* and *fork handles; realize* and *real eyes*; and *depend* and *deep end.* Of course it sometimes depends on how you pronounce them.

What use are oronyms? Not a lot, really, but you might have fun making some up!

A MISCELLANY OF MISTAKES

There are a huge number of words that cause problems and they do not fall into any of the above categories. Sometimes confusion between words arises because they sound quite similar and they are both associated with the same theme. Some of the most problematic are discussed below.

SIMILAR BUT DISSIMILAR

continual/continuous

These two adjectives sound quite similar but have quite different meanings.

Continual means ‘frequently repeated’, as in:

> *Continual complaints from other residents were ignored by the students.*

Continuous means ‘without a break’, as in:

> *How do the factory workers put up with the continuous noise made by the machinery?*

adopted/adoptive

Another two adjectives in the same category are **adopted** and **adoptive**. They also sound quite similar and they are both associated with the same theme, namely raising a child who is not your biological son or daughter.

Adopted is used to describe children who have been brought up by people other than their biological parents, as in:

> *The couple have two sons, one biological, one adopted.*

Adoptive is used to refer to adults who have done the adopting, as in:

> *She would love to try and get in contact with her biological mother, but she does not want to upset her much-loved adoptive mother.*

arbiter/arbitrator

Another two words which fall into a similar category are **arbiter** and **arbitrator**. The first part of the second word sounds like the first word and they both refer to a similar theme, that of judging.

The noun **arbiter** refers to someone or something with the power or influence to make decisions or judgements, as in:

> *The dress designer is very young but she is quickly becoming recognized as one of the leading arbiters of fashion.*

The noun **arbitrator** refers to someone appointed to settle differences in a dispute, as in:

> *Management and union leaders have failed to settle their differences and have called in an arbitrator to try to avoid a strike.*

Note that **arbiter** is one of those words that is in the process of changing. In modern usage it is occasionally used with the same meaning as **arbitrator**. This can only add to the confusion.

abuse/misuse

The words **abuse** and **misuse** (see 1) also fall into the same category as the words dealt with above. In the case of **abuse** and **misuse** they share their second syllable and they both refer to the theme of use or treatment. Both are nouns that refer to a wrong use or treatment, but they are used in different contexts. Like **misuse**, the word **abuse** refers to improper or wrong use or treatment. The word **abuse**, however, is more likely to refer to something that is morally wrong, dangerous to health or illegal, as in *alcohol abuse; drug abuse; solvent abuse; the abuse of political power; physical*

abuse and *sexual abuse.* The verb **abuse** has similar associations to that of the noun **abuse**, as in:

> *The politician was being investigated for abusing his power.*

Misuse usually refers to incorrect or inappropriate use, as in *misuse of the gym equipment* and *misuse of the communal garden.*

compulsory/compulsive

Another two words which fall into the category described above are **compulsory** and **compulsive**. Only the endings of these two adjectives are different and they both refer to something that must be done.

If something is **compulsory** there is a law or rule which says that it must be done or carried out, as in:

> *In that country it is compulsory to always carry identification documents.*

Compulsive refers to behaviour or a habit that is very difficult or impossible to stop or control, as in:

> *He is a compulsive gambler who has lost a fortune on betting on horses.*

industrial/industrious

The words **industrial** and **industrious** are both adjectives. They look and sound like each other, apart from their endings, and are liable to be confused. They both refer to work, but not the same meaning of work.

As you might expect, **industrial** has to do with industry in the sense of the business of making or producing goods, usually on a large scale, as in:

> *The land on which the houses were built was formerly an industrial site.*

Industrious is an adjective based on a much less common and more formal meaning of industry meaning ‘hard work’ or ‘diligence’, as in:

> *He was not as intelligent as some of the other students but he was very industrious and usually managed to do well in exams.*

immoral/immortal

Some words which get confused because they resemble each other quite closely and because they have a reasonably similar pronunciation do not belong to the same theme. They are actually unrelated.

Two such words are **immoral** and **immortal**. These two adjectives would be the same word but for the letter *t*, and this gives rise to confusion. What a difference one letter can make!

Immoral means ‘morally wrong’. In other words, wrong according to the principles of what is considered to be right and wrong behaviour, as in:

> *It is immoral to make young children work long hours for very little pay in order to be able to export cheap goods.*

Immortal literally means ‘living or existing forever’, as in:

No one is immortal, although some people behave as though they think they are.

Immortal can also be used to refer to something, such as a line of prose, poetry or song, that has become very famous and has lasted a very long time, as in:

Just think of the immortal line 'Tomorrow is another day'.

persecute/prosecute

Two other words which are frequently confused are the verbs **persecute** and **prosecute**. Obviously, the confusion arises because the second part of each of them is the same. However, the problem lies in **per** and **pro**, their short first syllables.

As we have seen, these words have something in common in that they look quite like each other and, in fact, there is a degree of similarity in their pronunciation. There is also a degree of similarity in their theme but they are at opposite ends of the scale. The theme is fairness or justice. **Persecute** comes under the heading of 'unfairness' or 'lack of justice' in that it means 'to treat someone very unfairly and unjustly, and usually with great cruelty, over a long period of time'. This treatment often takes place on the grounds of political or religious beliefs, as in:

Many people were persecuted for their opposition to racial discrimination.

Prosecute, on the other hand, is mostly on the side of fairness and justice, or at least we hope so. It means 'to charge someone with committing a crime and to try to show that they are guilty of it', as in:

There was a sign on the shop door saying 'Shoplifters will be prosecuted'.

chronic/acute

As you have seen, confusion with regard to words is often a result of the words, or parts of words, having a similar sound. Sometimes, however, the words do not sound or look like each other at all. They are completely different but they may very well relate to the same theme. The confusion created by the adjectives **chronic** and **acute** is a good example of this. Both **chronic** and **acute** frequently refer to a disease or illness. **Chronic** refers to a disease or illness that lasts a long time, frequently a period of several years, and often develops slowly, as in:

Many elderly people suffer from chronic arthritis and need long-term drug treatment.

By contrast, **acute** refers to a disease that lasts a relatively short time and starts up quite suddenly, as in:

She has acute earache and needs some strong painkillers immediately.

hire/rent

Hire and **rent** are another two words that get confused, although they do not resemble each other at all in appearance or sound. However, they both relate to the temporary use of something in exchange for payment. Sometimes whether you use **hire** or **rent** depends on how long the temporary use is likely to last.

Hire is more likely to be associated with short-term use, as in:

She thinks she might hire a wedding dress rather than buy one.

Rent suggests a more long-term use, as in:

Their plan is to rent a flat for the two years that their college courses last.

However, there is a problem. In American English **rent** is used in connection with short-term use as well as longer-term use. The American use is having some influence on British English, so that you will now find both *hire a car for the weekend* and *rent a car for the weekend* being commonly used. Isn't that typical? You just get something sorted out when it changes!

Note that the verb **charter**, rather than **hire** or **rent**, is used in connection with boats or planes, as in *charter a yacht.*

VARIABLE VERBS

Much confusion is caused by irregular verbs. This problem is dealt with in quite a lot of detail in Chapter 7, so have a look there for further information. Apart from anything else, you will find a helpful list of irregular verbs there. The irregular verbs that cause most problems, as far as this chapter is concerned, are those which fall under rule 5 (see 2) in Chapter 7.

This section refers to those irregular verbs which have a past tense and a past participle which are different from each other and different from the infinitive or base form. For example the verb **draw** has the past tense **drew** and the past participle **drawn**, the verb **grow** has the past tense **grew** and the past participle **grown** and the verb **swim** has the past tense **swam** and the past participle **swum**.

hanged/hung

One of the most common pair of confused words relating to irregular verbs is **hanged** and **hung** (see 1). The verb **hang** has two possible past tenses and past participles, **hanged** and **hung**. Of these the form **hung** is by far the more common, as in:

We hung some decorations on the Christmas tree.

The form **hanged** is mostly used when related to execution by hanging someone from a rope or to suicide by the same means, as in:

The murderer was hanged.

This error has become so common that the distinction between the two words is in real danger of being forgotten.

got/gotten

A pair of words relating to irregular verbs has only relatively recently started causing confusion. The words are **got** and **gotten** (see 1) and they are both past participles of the verb **get**.

Gotten used to be restricted to American English usage but I have noticed an increasing number of writers who are using the American version. Admittedly some of them have been writers who are publishing their own material as ebooks rather than having it carefully edited by trained publishers' editors, but it is certainly a sign of the times. *See also* **gotten**.

PERSONAL AND FAMILIAL CONFUSION

Sometimes problem words are a purely personal thing. Some people seem to See similarity, and so confusion, between words when no one else can spot this. One person I knew used to use the word **dislevelled** when she meant **dishevelled**, an adjective used of the hair or clothes to describe a state of untidiness. Although she was very well educated, she seemed totally unable to take on board that **dislevelled** was not the right word, or even a word at all!

Then I discovered that her mother, sister and grandmother all used the word **dislevelled** instead of **dishevelled.** It certainly seems to be the case that some word confusion is hereditary. A member of one generation gets hold of the wrong word and this is then passed down the line to succeeding generations. People learn the wrong word at their mother's knee and it sticks.

Dishevelled is not a word that you use every day, even if you come from a particularly untidy family, so it took me quite a long time to find this out. The family was generally low on males so I do not know if this linguistic habit was restricted to the female line.

I had another friend who persisted in using the word **munificent** when he meant **magnificent**. At least **munificent** is an actual word but its meaning is quite far from that of **magnificent**.

Munificent is an adjective meaning 'extremely generous' and **magnificent** is an adjective meaning 'impressive' or 'splendid'. Again, my friend was a very well-educated person and, indeed, a professional writer to trade. Whether or not his linguistic error was purely personal or whether it, too, came down through the generations I have no means of knowing as I never met any of his family.

PERENNIAL POSERS

Confusing words can be a purely personal or familial habit. But as far as the vast majority of words are concerned, the confusion is not restricted to one person or even to a few people. As far as these words are concerned, confusion is widespread and the confusion continues decade after decade. Some of these words have been discussed in what has gone before in this chapter, but that leaves a tremendous number of words that have not been covered.

WHICH WORD?

Below is a list in alphabetical order of words(see 1, 2, 3) that commonly get confused. It is by no means comprehensive, but it will at least set you off in the right direction.

a/an

The indefinite article has the forms **a** and **an**. Although these words are very small they can cause a great deal of confusion. The form **a** is used before words or abbreviations that are pronounced with an initial consonant sound, as in *a box; a garden; a UFO;* and *a wall*.

The form **an** is used before words that begin with an initial vowel sound, as in *an apple; an igloo;* an *IOU* and *an ostrich.* Remember that it is the sound of the initial letter and not the spelling that determines whether the indefinite article should *be* **a** or **an**.

The form **a** is used before words beginning with the *letter* **u** when these are pronounced as though they began with the *consonant* **y**, as in a *unit* and *a union.*

The form **an** is used before words beginning with the *letter* **h** where this is not pronounced, as in an *heir* and *an hour.* Formerly the *form* **an** was commonly used before words beginning with *the* **h** sound which began with an unstressed syllable, as in an *historic victory* and an *hotel*, but in modern usage the *form* **a** is used in such cases, as *in* a *historic victory* and *a hotel*.

abuse/misuse

See abuse/misuse in **A miscellany of mistakes**.

accessory/accessary

Although not spelt exactly alike, these words sound alike.

The noun **accessory** has two quite distinct meanings. The more common meaning is 'something additional to the main part' or 'an extra attachment'. It is often used in connection with fashion, meaning handbag, shoes, belt, scarf, etc, as in:

> *She wore a red dress with black accessories.*

The other meaning of **accessory** is used to refer to someone who helps someone else to do something, often something criminal, as in:

> *Police say that the bank robber must have had at least one accessory.*

What about the noun **accessary**? Well it was formerly the word used to refer to a partner in crime, but now **accessory** is the more common form. In this British English is following the practice of

American English. You might still come across **accessary** in some formal legal contexts.

adopted/adoptive

See adopted/adoptive in **A miscellany of mistakes**.

adverse/averse

These words look and sound quite alike but they are used in quite different ways. The adjective **adverse** usually goes before the abstract noun to which it refers, and means 'unfavourable' or 'hostile', as in:

> *The last thing we want is adverse publicity for our forthcoming exhibition.*

Averse is never placed before the noun to which it refers and is followed by the preposition **to**. **Averse to** means having a strong dislike for, as in:

> *They are not averse to the idea but they need more information before they make up their minds.*

advice/advise

These words look and sound quite alike and they both relate to telling someone what to do. However, **advice** is a noun, as in:

> *You should seek medical advice right away.*

While **advise** is a verb, as in:

> *I would advise you to make an appointment with a doctor right away.*

adviser/advisor

Both of these spellings for a word meaning ‘someone who gives advice’ are in common use in British English. In American English, **advisor** is the commoner form. Note that the adjective is always spelt **advisory**.

affect/effect

These words sound alike, especially when they are spoken quickly or carelessly, and they are frequently confused. In meaning they can both refer to influence or change, but **affect** is a verb and **effect** is a noun.

The verb **affect** is used in such contexts as:

> *How did the war affect the economy?*

While the noun **effect** is used in such contexts as:

> *What was the effect of the war on the economy?*

The word **effect** can also be used as a verb in formal contexts meaning ‘to bring about’ or ‘carry out’, as in:

> *The army effected a quick retreat.*

afterwards/afterward

Many learners of English learn American English rather than British English and it is easy to get confused between the two. In British English **afterwards** is the usual form of the adverb meaning ‘later’ or ‘after something else has happened’, as in:

He thought that he had done well in the interview and he was told afterwards that he very nearly got the job.

In American English this adverb often takes the form **afterward**.

aggravate/irritate

See Chapter 1, **aggravate/irritate**.

agnostic/atheist

See **atheist/agnostic**.

aisle/isle

These words are homophones. They have nothing in common except their pronunciation and the fact that they are both quite short, and yet people frequently muddle them up. **Aisle** refers to a passage between rows of seats in a church, theatre, train, plane, etc, or the passageway between display shelving in supermarkets, as in:

The bride was about to walk down the aisle.

She pushed her trolley down several of the aisles looking for cans of dog food.

The word **isle** means 'island' and is frequently found in place names such as the *Isle of Wight* or the *Isle of Skye*. Otherwise it is mostly found in literary contexts.

all right/alright

There is a considerable dispute going on over the spelling of this word. On the one hand we have many, many people who are in the **all right** camp. They learnt from childhood that **all right** is the correct form and that is it as far as they are concerned. They are outraged that the spelling **alright** should even be mentioned. However, in the other camp are quite a few people, especially young people, who do not seem to realize that there is anything wrong with **alright** and that is the way they spell it.

Who is right? Well, at the moment the traditionalists are. **All right** is the only spelling that is considered correct, but all that could change, particularly in informal contexts.

Why has the dispute occurred? Well, it probably has something to do with words such as **already** and **altogether**. Some people think that **all right** should be used to indicate that something is completely correct but that **alright** can be used to mean 'acceptable' or 'satisfactory'. But they are wrong – at least for the time being!

alter/altar

Of these two homophones **alter** is by far the more common. It is a verb meaning 'to change', as in:

> *I need to alter this dress slightly*.
>
> *They're going to alter the times of the trains from next week.*

Alter is frequently confused with **altar**, a noun common in religious contexts and used in the Christian church to mean the table on which the bread and wine are blessed in communion services, as in:

> *The priest stood before the altar*.

Altar can also be used to refer to a table or other place where formerly sacrifices were offered to a god, as in:

> *The lamb was killed and put on the altar as an offering to the gods.*

altogether/all together

It is very easy to confuse these words. **Altogether** can mean 'completely', as in:

> *I can't say I'm altogether happy with the situation.*

It can also mean 'all in all', as in:

> *The rooms were comfortable, the food was good, the staff were polite and altogether it was an excellent hotel.*

All together means 'at the same time' or 'in the same place', as in:

> *It is the first Christmas for many years that we have been all together as a family.*

alternate/alternative

In British English **alternative** is an adjective which suggests the offer of a choice of a second possibility, as in:

> *The road is closed but the police have suggested an alternative route.*

In American English **alternate** is often used in this context instead of **alternative**. To some extent the American use of **alternate** in this context is now found in British English also, although **alternative** remains the common British form.

This should not be confused with **alternate** meaning ‘every other’, as in:

We meet for lunch on alternate Saturdays.

Nor should it be confused with **alternate** meaning ‘happening in turns, one after the other’, as in:

The cake has alternate layers of cream and jam.

amiable/amicable

Both of these adjectives can mean ‘friendly’ but they are not interchangeable.

Amiable is usually used of people to mean friendly, pleasant and likeable, as in:

He was an amiable young man and all his fellow workers got on with him.

Amicable is usually used to describe friendly relationships or dealings with other people, as in:

I think that husband and wife had both grown tired of each other but their separation seems to have been quite an amicable affair.

among/between

The prepostions **among** and **between** may be used interchangeably in most contexts. Formerly **among** was used when referring to three or more people or things, as in:

We divided the remaining food among the five children.

Between was used only when referring to two people or things, as in:

> *Sue's parents divided the money between her and her brother.*

In modern usage, however, **between** is often used when referring to more than two things (although some people object to this use), as in:

> *An agreement has been reached between all the states of America*.

any more/anymore

This term meaning 'any longer' is often spelt as one word in American English, and usually as two words in British English, as in:

> *She's giving these clothes away because she doesn't wear them any more*.

However, the American way of spelling is spreading to British English and becoming more and more common.

anyone/any one

Anyone is spelt as one word when it means the same as **anybody**, as in:

> *Anyone can succeed in this industry if they work hard enough.*

Anyone is used with a singular verb. In modern usage it is sometimes followed by a plural personal pronoun or plural

possessive adjective to avoid sexism, as in:

Has anyone parked their car in the courtyard?

Any one is spelt as two words in contexts such as:

Any one of those dresses would suit you.

Any one of those college courses would be interesting.

any place/anyplace

Formerly in British English the term **any place** was always written as two words and it was considered to be less acceptable, especially in formal contexts, than **anywhere**, as in:

We can't find any place to stay tonight.

There are no hotels with vacancies any place in this area.

The expression is much less common and more informal in British English than in American English. In American English the expression is often spelt as one word, **anyplace**, and this use is, to some extent, now spreading to British English.

any time/anytime

Formerly in British English the expression **any time** was always written as two words, as in:

Please come and See us any time.

In American English, however, the expression is often spelt as one word, **anytime**, and this use is spreading to British English.

arbiter/arbitrator

See arbiter/arbitrator in **A miscellany of mistakes**.

atheist/agnostic

These words do not mean the same but they both relate to the same theme, a belief, or rather a non-belief, in God. An **atheist** is someone who does not believe in the existence of God, as in:

> *My brother is marrying the daughter of a Church of England minister, although he himself is an atheist.*

An **agnostic** is not quite so certain, being someone who believes that it is impossible to know whether God exists or not. However, the word is used in a more general sense to refer to someone who doubts that God exists, as in:

> *He says that scientists deal in facts and as a result many of them are agnostics.*

aural/oral *see* oral/aural

averse/adverse *see* adverse/averse

backward/backwards

In British English **backward** is normally used as an adjective, as in:

She turned away and left without a backward glance.

The word **backwards** is usually an adverb, as in:

He stepped backwards to get away from the heat of the bonfire.

In American English **backward** is used as an adverb, as in:

He moved backward into the shadow of the building.

balk/baulk

Both these spellings of this verb meaning 'to stop short of' or 'to recoil from' are acceptable, as in:

We balked/baulked at the idea of paying so much money for theatre tickets.

bated/baited

In the expression *with bated breath* meaning 'to hold one's breath in fear or suspense' you wait with **bated** not **baited** breath, as in:

We waited with bated breath for the judges to announce the winner of the competition.

bathroom

In British English a **bathroom** is usually a room containing a bath. In American English **bathroom** is often used as the word for a **toilet** or **lavatory** and this use is now sometimes found in British English. *See* **toilet/loo/lavatory**.

because of/due to/owing to

See Chapter 4, **because of/owing to/due to**.

beat/beaten

These parts of the verb **beat** are liable to be confused. The word **beat** is the past tense of the verb **beat**, as in:

> *They beat the defending champions easily.*

The word **beaten** is used as the past participle, as in:

> *They have beaten last year's champions.*

See Chapter 7, **beat**.

bill/bill

See bill/bill in **Homonyms**.

black

See Chapter 6, black.

bow/bow

These words are homographs. They are spelt the same but pronounced differently and have totally different meanings. One rhymes with *low* and *mow* and means, among other things, 'a looped knot', as in:

> *She tied her daughter's hair ribbon in a bow.*

The other rhymes with *cow* and *how* and means the bending of the upper body as a mark of respect, as in:

> *He sang two songs, gave a quick bow and left the stage.*

bridal/bridle

These words are homophones, being pronounced in the same way but with different spelling and different meanings. **Bridal** is an adjective meaning ‘relating to a bride or to a wedding’, as in:

> *The bridal car was decorated with white ribbons.*

The word **bridle** refers to a harness for a horse’s head, as in:

> *He bought a new bridle for his horse.*

brooch/broach

These words are also homophones, being pronounced in the same way but with different spelling and different meanings.

Brooch is the commoner of the two words and is a noun referring to a piece of jewellery that is pinned to a garment, as in:

> *She wore a beautiful diamond brooch in the lapel of her jacket.*

Broach is a verb meaning ‘to introduce or mention a subject’, as in:

> *He didn’t like to broach the subject of the money she owed him.*

calf/calf

See calf/calf.

canvas/canvass

These words are spelt slightly differently but are pronounced in the same way.

Canvas is a noun that refers to a kind of heavy coarse cloth that is used to make tents, etc, and also used by artists to paint on.

Canvass is a verb meaning 'to try to get people's votes in an election of some kind' as in *politicians canvassing for votes.*

can/may

The verb **can** is used to indicate either that someone or something is able to do something, as in:

> *He can ski but not very well.*

The verb **may** can be used to indicate what is likely or possible, as in:

> *He may or may not attend the meeting – it depends on his other engagements.*

So far so good. The problem is that both **may** and **can** are now used to mean 'permitted or allowed to', as in:

> *You may/can go to the party if you are back home by 11 pm*.

Language purists who do not like language to change dislike **can** being used in this way, but they have lost the battle. For in all but the most formal contexts **can** is now the usual word in this context, as in:

Can I go now?

You will still find **may** being used when people are being exceptionally polite, as in:

How may I help you, sir?

censor/censure

These words are closely related and liable to be confused.

Censor can be a verb meaning 'to examine letters, publications, films, etc, and remove any material that is thought to be unsuitable in the circumstances', as in:

They censored the soldiers' letters in case they mentioned information that would be useful to the enemy.

Censor can also be a noun used to refer to someone who censors something, as in:

He was employed as a censor of soldiers' letters.

Censure can also act both as a verb and as a noun. As a verb it means 'to criticize or blame someone for something', as in:

The young lawyer was censured for his poor handling of the case.

As a noun **censure** means 'severe criticism or blame', as in:

The government received censure for their unsuccessful economic policy.

centenary/centennial

Both of these words refer to a hundred-year anniversary.

Centenary is the usual British English word, as in:

> *We are celebrating the centenary of the local school.*

Centennial is used more frequently in American English.

cheque/check

Both of these words mean ‘an order to a bank to pay money from a person’s account’. **Cheque** is the accepted form in British English, as in:

> *I don’t have enough cash with me so I’ll have to pay the bill by cheque.*

Check is the accepted American form. Nowadays paying by cheque is on the way out as it has largely been replaced with paying by credit or debit card.

chronic/acute

See **chronic/acute**.

city/town

Nowadays a **city** is just a place that is larger and more important than a **town**, as in:

> *Usually I just shop for new clothes here in the town, but if I want something special I go to one of the larger shops in the city.*

In Britain the right for a town to be called a city is granted by the king or queen, although it is widely assumed that a town has to have a cathedral before it can be called a city. Many cities do have cathedrals, but this is not essential.

coloured

See Chapter 6, **coloured**.

complimentary/complementary

Complimentary is an adjective expressing admiration or praise, as in:

> *She was flattered by his complimentary remarks.*

When connected with the giving of tickets, products etc, it is often used to mean ‘given free’, as in:

> *Each copy of the magazine has a complimentary diary inside it.*

Complementary is an adjective referring to things that form a useful or attractive combination, although they may be quite different, as in:

> *She was careful to put together a team of people who had complementary skills.*

In modern usage **complementary** is commonly found in the term **complementary medicine**, which uses treatments that are not part of the usual scientific Western medical methods. The term emphasizes the fact that its treatments coexist with scientific

treatments, rather than replacing them, as is the case with **alternative medicine**.

comprehensible/comprehensive

These two adjectives are both derived from the verb **comprehend**, but they are not derived from the same sense of that verb. **Comprehensible** means 'able to be understood' as in:

> *The child is just learning to speak and what she's saying is only comprehensible to her mother.*

It is often found in the negative form **incomprehensible**, as in:

> *Why he suddenly decided to give up such a good job is completely incomprehensible.*

Comprehensive means 'including all or most things', as in:

> *You would be wise to take out fully comprehensive car insurance.*

compulsory/compulsive

See **compulsory/compulsive**.

contagious/infectious

Both these words are adjectives referring to diseases that can be passed on from the sufferer to other people. **Contagious** diseases are passed on by direct physical contact, as in:

> *He has been told not to attend school as he is suffering from a skin disease that is highly contagious.*

Infectious diseases are passed on by airborne microorganisms, as in:

> *Some infectious diseases, such as measles and mumps, are now much rarer as a result of vaccination.*

continual/continuous

See **continual/continuous**.

credible/credulous/incredible

These adjectives refer to belief but they are quite different in meaning. If something is **credible** it is believable, as in:

> *Both their accounts of what had happened sounded quite credible, but one of them must have been lying.*

Credulous is used of someone who is too ready to believe that whatever they are told is true, as in:

> *Only someone as credulous as Tom would believe that a car as cheap as that would be in good condition.*

It is very common now for people to use **credulous** when they really mean **credible**.

The opposite of **credible** is **incredible**, as in:

> *It seems incredible that no one stopped to help the injured man.*

criteria/criterion

People often use **criteria** wrongly as a singular noun but **criterion** is the singular form, as in:

A good degree is not the only criterion for selecting someone for the job.

Criteria is the plural form, as in:

He meets all the basic criteria for the job but let's See how he does in his interview.

cue/queue

Visually these two nouns do not resemble each other at all. However, they are pronounced in the same way to rhyme with *mew* and *dew*.

Cue has two quite different meanings. In sport it can mean a kind of stick used in billiards. In the theatre it can refer to a few words or an action that is a signal for another actor to do or say something:

He stood waiting for his cue to go on stage.

Forming a **queue** is something the British are traditionally famous for, although I am not sure we are quite so disciplined as we used to be. A **queue** is line of people waiting in an orderly way to buy something, get into a building, etc, as in:

There was a huge queue outside the shop for the opening day of their sale.

Queue can also act as a verb, as in:

We had to queue for more than an hour to get into the pop concert.

currant/current

See currant/current in **Homophones**.

deceitful/deceptive

Both of these adjectives are connected with deceiving or misleading someone. **Deceitful** is used of people or their words or actions when these are intended to deceive or mislead someone, as in:

> *She has always been a very deceitful person and it was typical of her not to tell her fiancé the truth about her background.*

Deceptive is used to describe things that are likely to mislead people, although there may be no dishonest intention involved, as in:

> *The cottage looks deceptively small on the outside – it's actually very spacious inside.*

delusion/illusion

These two words are liable to be confused because they are very close in meaning. **Delusion** refers to a false or mistaken belief or idea that someone holds about themselves or their situation, as in:

> *He is under the delusion that she has fallen in love with him.*

Sometimes such an idea or belief can be part of a mental disorder, as in:

> *She suffers from the delusion that she is Joan of Arc.*

Illusion refers to something that appears to be the case, but is not, as in:

> *The mountains seemed to be very close but it was an optical illusion.*

dependant/dependent

The noun **dependant** refers to a person who depends on someone else to supply their means of living, as in:

> *He said that he would resign from his job tomorrow if he could but he has dependants.*

The word **dependent** is an adjective meaning ‘relying on’ or ‘unable to do without’, as in:

> *She can’t drive any more and she is dependent on her neighbour taking her for her hospital appointments.*

Dependent often means ‘relying on someone for financial support’, as in:

> *He has no dependent relatives.*

Note that in American English both the noun and adjective are spelt **dependent**.

deprecate/depreciate

These words look quite alike and they are liable to be confused. The word **deprecate** means ‘to feel or express deep disapproval of’, ‘to deplore’ or ‘to condemn’, as in:

> *The speaker deprecated the government’s attitude to asylum speakers, describing their latest proposals as inhuman and totally lacking in compassion or sensitivity.*

The verb **depreciate** can mean ‘to decrease in value’, as in:

> *Shares in the company have depreciated to an all-time low*.

The verb **depreciate** can also mean ‘to belittle or treat as insignificant’, as in:

> *He was doing his best to speak French, but the teacher depreciated his efforts in front of the rest of the class.*

It is this second meaning of **depreciate** that has become confused with that of **deprecate** and the two are now often used interchangeably, although language purists remain opposed to this. The change began with the adjective **self-deprecating**, which means ‘modest or playing down your own achievements’, as in *he is very self-deprecating.*

derisory/derisive

The adjective **derisory** is normally used in the sense of ‘ridiculously small’ or ‘inadequate’, as in:

> *The workers say that they have been offered a derisory pay rise and they are planning to go on strike.*

The adjective **derisive** means ‘mocking’, as in:

> *The comedian’s act was not at all funny and was greeted with derisive comments from members of the audience*.

desert/dessert

Desert has the emphasis on the first syllable and, as a noun, it refers to an area of land that is very hot and dry, as in *the Sahara Desert*. As a verb **desert** has the stress on the second syllable and means ‘to abandon someone or something’, as in:

She deserted me when we were out together so I had to go home alone.

The noun **dessert** has the emphasis on the second syllable and it means the last, sweet course of a meal, as in:

The children all want ice cream for dessert.

device/devise

These words look and sound quite alike but they are entirely different in meaning. **Device** is a noun pronounced to rhyme with *advice* and means a tool or gadget, as in:

Do you have one of those devices for taking the corks out of wine bottles?

Devise is a verb pronounced to rhyme with *advise* and means 'to invent or put together', as in:

The prisoners of war devised a clever escape plan.

disc/disk

These words are liable to cause confusion because of the influence of American English. In British English the correct spelling is **disc**, as in:

He is suffering from a slipped disc and his back is very sore.

But when the word is associated with computers it becomes **disk**, as in *disk drive.* In American English the word is generally spelt **disk** whatever the meaning. Many British English users are beginning to follow suit. *See also* Chapter 1, **disc/disk**.

discreet/discrete

These adjectives are pronounced the same but spelt differently and so are homophones. **Discreet** is often misspelt as **discrete**. The word **discreet** is the more common of the two words and, when used of a person, means 'careful not to tell secrets' or 'careful not to offend or embarrass people', as in:

> *You can safely confide in my mother because she's very discreet and won't tell anyone else about your problem.*

When used of behaviour or actions **discreet** means 'tactful' or 'careful to avoid attention', as in:

> *Thanks to her discreet handling of the situation, the affair was not made public.*

Discrete is a much less common, often technical, adjective meaning 'separate' or 'distinct', as in *discrete particles of the mineral.*

disinterested/uninterested

See Chapter 1, **disinterested/uninterested**.

downward/downwards

In British English **downward** is normally used as an adjective, as in:

> *The downward escalator is at the back of the store.*

Downwards is used as an adverb in British English, as in:

> *He took a few steps downwards from the summit and slipped.*

In American English **downward** is frequently used as an adverb.

drunk/drunken

These words are connected with alcoholic intoxication, but they are not used interchangeably. The adjective **drunk** is often used after a verb, as in:

> *The teenagers got very drunk on cheap cider.*

It often refers to a temporary state of intoxication.

Drunk can also be used as a noun to describe someone who drinks a lot of alcohol and is often drunk, as in:

> *The old drunk stopped me and asked for money.*

The adjective **drunken** is used before a noun, as in:

> *He was suffering from a hangover after a drunken party.*

Drunken is often used to describe someone who is in the habit of drinking too much and becoming intoxicated, as in:

> *The family never have any money because their drunken father spends all he earns on alcohol.*

due to/because of/owing to

See Chapter 4, **because of/owing to/due to** (see 1).

each and everyone

See Chapter 1, **each and every**.

economic/economical

Economic is an adjective referring to the economy or to economics, as in:

> *I wouldn't open a new business in the present economic climate.*

Economical is an adjective meaning 'concerned with using the minimum of resources and avoiding waste', as in:

> *He's looking for a small car that's economical to run.*

effect/affect *see* affect/effect

e.g./i.e.

These abbreviations refer to quite different things but they are frequently confused, perhaps because not very many people learn Latin at school any more. The abbreviation **e.g**. means 'for example' and is short for the Latin expression *exempli gratia.* The abbreviation **e.g.** is used in such contexts as:

> *There are many historical places to visit in London, e.g. the Tower of London and the Natural History Museum.*

The abbreviation **i.e.** is short for the Latin expression *id est* and means 'that is'. It is used to introduce a brief explanation or amplification of what has just been said, as in:

> *Before we set up business in here we need to get some office equipment, i.e. a computer, a printer and some desks.*

Originally both of these abbreviations were spelt with full stops, but they are now frequently spelt without them in British English, as in **eg** and **ie**.

elder/older

Elder and **older** are both adjectives relating to age comparison and are sometimes confused. The word **elder** is used only in comparing the ages of people within a group, often a family group, as in:

John was Anne's elder brother.

Aunt Jane was my mother's elder sister.

You can also say:

She was the elder of my mother's two sisters.

Elder cannot be followed by **than**. **Older** can be used instead of **elder** but it can also be used of things as well as people, as in:

I prefer older houses.

Older can be followed by **than**, as in:

Their car is even older than mine.

enquiry/inquiry

The words **enquiry** and **inquiry** can be used interchangeably in British English, although **inquiry** is the standard form in American English. Some people, however, prefer to use **enquiry** in British English to refer to an ordinary request for information, as in

One of the library staff will deal with your enquiry.

Inquiry is used for a formal investigation of some kind, as in:

Police are interviewing him as part of a murder inquiry.

envelope/envelop

These words look quite alike but they are pronounced differently and they have different meanings. The emphasis is on the first syllable of the noun **envelope**, which is a folded paper container in which you send a letter or card, as in:

I need an envelope for this birthday card.

The emphasis is on the second syllable of **envelop**, which is a verb meaning 'to enclose or surround', as in:

The grandmother enveloped her grandson in a big hug.

Note that the past tense and present participle of the verb **envelop** are spelt with a single **p**, as in **enveloped** and **enveloping**.

–ess

See Chapter 6, **–ess**.

every day/everyday

When this expression is used to mean 'daily' it is spelt as two words, as in:

She goes to the gym at least once every day.

It is spelt as one word when it is used as an adjective to mean 'completely ordinary', as in:

It's a nice enough everyday dress but I want something special to wear for the wedding.

Perhaps under the influence of such expressions as **any more/anymore**, the distinction between **every day** and **everyday** is beginning to fade slightly and **everyday** is beginning to be used for both meanings. However, there is quite a long way to go before this is declared correct and acceptable and it will meet many protests along the way.

everyone/everybody/no one

See Chapter 1, **everyone/everybody/no one**.

extant/extinct

The adjectives **extant** and **extinct** are opposites. **Extant** means 'still in existence', as in:

These are some of the traditions extant in the area around here.

Extinct means 'no longer in existence', as in:

There are quite a few theories about why dinosaurs became extinct.

extrovert/extravert/introvert

Extravert is the original spelling but **extrovert** is now the more common spelling.

Extrovert refers to someone who is more concerned with what is going on around them than with their own thoughts and feelings, and

more particularly someone who is lively, confident and sociable, as in:

> *Our first two guests are both extroverts so they should get the party off to a good start.*

The opposite is **introvert** which refers to someone who is preoccupied with their own thoughts and feelings, particularly someone who is withdrawn and unsociable, as in:

> *He's an introvert who prefers his own company to that of other people.*

farther/further

Both **farther** and **further** can be used to refer to physical distance, as in:

> *The hotel is much farther from the city centre than we were told.*

> *My house is a bit further down this road.*

However, only **further** is used in other senses, as in:

> *The police officer said that he would take no further questions from members of the press.*

The verb form is also always **further**, as in:

> *The rebels vowed to further the cause of freedom.*

female/lady/woman

See **lady/woman/female** in Chapter 6.

female as a noun

See **female as a noun** in Chapter 6.

fewer/less

Fewer, the comparative form of **few**, means 'a smaller number of', as in:

> *Fewer students than usual have signed up for this course.*

Less, the comparative form of **little**, means 'a smaller amount than', as in:

> *Tell the children to make less noise.*

It is becoming common, especially in informal contexts, to use **less** in many cases where **fewer** is correct, although this use is ungrammatical and should be avoided in formal contexts.

first/firstly

When mentioning items in a list the first item may be preceded by either **firstly** or **first**, as in:

> *There are several reasons for my refusal to go: firstly/first I am much too busy to attend …*

Formerly **firstly** was considered unacceptable in this context.

flu

Formerly this word was preceded by an apostrophe and spelt **'flu**. This was to show that the word is a shortened form of **influenza**, but

the apostrophe is no longer commonly used. The long form, **influenza**, is only used in very formal or technical contexts.

forbear/forebear

The verb **forbear** is pronounced with the stress on the second syllable and it means 'to refrain from doing something'. It is mostly used in formal contexts, as in:

> *I shall forbear from punishing the students in the circumstances.*

The noun **forebear** is pronounced with the stress on the first syllable and can also be spelt **forbear**. It is used to refer to an ancestor, as in:

> *Some of our forebears probably lived in these ruins.*

for ever/forever

The two-word version of this expression is often used to emphasize that something is for all time, as in:

> *He said he would love her for ever.*

In the sense of 'continually or without stopping' the expression is usually written as one word, as in:

> *The child is forever asking for sweets.*

fortuitous/fortunate

See Chapter 1, **fortuitous/fortunate**.

forward/forwards

In British English **forward** is used as an adjective, as in *a forward motion* and *some forward planning is required.* **Forward** and **forwards** can be used as adverbs, meaning 'towards the front', as in *step forward* and *move forwards.* However, in idiomatic phrasal verbs such as *put forward a motion* and *asking witnesses to come forward*, the word **forwards** is not used.

gaol/jail *see* jail/gaol

gay

See Chapter 1, **gay**.

gipsy/gypsy

Both these spellings are acceptable, although some people object to this word however it is spelt, regarding it as offensive. It is accepted by some when spelt with a capital as in **Gypsy**. An alternative word is **Traveller**, although this is often used to refer to a wider range of people than Gypsies who are Romany in origin, including, for example, Irish Travellers. The approved modern alternative preferred by many in Europe is **Roma**.

girl

See Chapter 6, **Girl**.

gorilla/guerrilla *see* guerrilla/guerilla/gorilla

got/gotten

See **got/gotten** (see 1).

gourmet, gourmand

These two words are sometimes confused. They are both connected with food, but the word **gourmet** is a complimentary term used to describe someone who likes food and who is knowledgeable about it.

A **gourmand** also likes food, but is concerned with the amount of it that can be eaten, rather than with the quality of it. **Gourmand** means much the same as **glutton**, but does not sound so insulting!

guerrilla/guerilla/gorilla

These words are often pronounced in the same way although they are spelt quite differently and have completely different meanings.

Guerrilla, which has the alternative spelling **guerilla**, means a member of a small unofficial group of fighters, as in:

> *The soldiers were set upon by a band of guerrillas in the mountain pass.*

Gorilla is the name for the largest of the apes native to central Africa, as in:

> *The habitat of some gorilla species is being destroyed.*

gypsy/gipsy *see* gipsy/gypsy

hanged/hung

See **hanged/hung** (see 1).

heal/heel

See **heal/heel**.

he and him

See Chapter 1, **he and him** (see 2).

hear/here

See **hear/here**.

hire/rent

See **hire/rent**.

his and their

See Chapter 1, **his and their** (see 2).

historic/historical

See Chapter 1, **historic/historical**.

hoard/horde

These words are homophones since they sound alike but have different meanings. **Hoard** is a noun meaning 'a store or collection of something', as in:

> *She was supposed to be on a strict diet but she kept a hoard of chocolate bars in her bedroom.*

Horde is a disapproving word used to refer to a very large group of people, as in:

> *The resort is a restful place in the winter but hordes of tourists flock to it in the summer.*

holiday/vacation *see* vacation/holiday

hung/hanged *see* hanged/hung

hyper–/hypo–

These prefixes are liable to be confused. Although they sound similar they are opposite in meaning.

Hyper– means ‘above’, ‘over,’ or ‘in excess’, as in:

> *The child was said to be hyperactive.*

Hypo– means ‘under’, ‘beneath’, as in:

> *She has to inject insulin with a hypodermic syringe.*

> *Hypothermia is a medical condition in which the body temperature is much lower than normal.*

i.e./e.g. *see* e.g./i.e.

illegible/eligible

These two words are liable to be confused, mainly because they sound similar, but they have entirely different meanings.

Illegible means ‘impossible to read’, as in:

> *I hope he types the information I asked for because his handwriting is virtually illegible.*

Eligible means ‘suitable’ or ‘having the right qualifications’, as in:

> *She was pleased to find out that she was eligible for a scholarship.*

illusion/delusion *see* delusion/illusion

immigrant/emigrant

These words are liable to be confused. This is quite understandable as the two words can refer to the same person, looked at from two different viewpoints. The word **immigrant** concentrates on people arriving in a new land, as in:

> *There were many Irish immigrants in America following the potato famine in Ireland*.

The word **emigrant** concentrates on people leaving their native land, as in:

> *Many of the Irish people who left their native shore were reluctant emigrants, but they travelled to Britain and America to avoid starvation.*

immoral/immortal

See immoral/immortal.

imply/infer

Imply means ‘to suggest something in an indirect way’, as in:

> *He didn’t actually accuse the student of cheating outright, but he implied it.*

Infer means ‘to deduce something’ or ‘to conclude that something is true’, as in:

> *We inferred from the report that the hospital was almost certain to close.*

Nowadays **infer** is often used when the correct word is **imply**, as in:

> *He inferred that he would be leaving the job shortly.*

This is incorrect and should read:

> *He implied that he would be leaving the job shortly.*

impracticable/impractical/practicable/practical

The words **impracticable** and **impractical** are similar in meaning, but they are not interchangeable.

Impracticable means ‘not able to be put into practice’ or ‘unworkable’, as in:

> *He persuaded several people that the scheme was a good idea but it was so expensive that it was completely impracticable.*

Impractical means ‘not sensible’ or ‘unrealistic’, as in:

> *He has come up with various money-making ideas but all of them are impractical.*

Practicable and **practical** are the positive forms of these words, as in:

> *Do you think it is practicable to build a house halfway up a mountain?*

> *A two-seater car like that's not very practical when you have two children.*

indexes/indices

The noun **index** has two possible plural forms, **indexes** and **indices**. The word **indexes** is the usual plural form in most contexts, as in:

> *Her job is to compile indexes for reference books.*

The word **indices** is mostly restricted to technical or mathematical contexts.

individual

The word **individual** means 'a person', but it can only be used in certain contexts. **Individual** is often used in a context in which a single person is contrasted with a group, as in:

> *We must give some thought to the rights of the individual as well as concerning ourselves with the nation as a whole.*

The word **individual** is sometimes used in a derogatory or insulting way, as in:

> *She was very nice but I always thought her husband was a most unpleasant individual.*

industrial/industrious

See **industrial/industrious**.

infectious/contagious *see* contagious/infectious

infer/imply *see* imply/infer

inflammable/flammable/non-flammable

The two words **inflammable** and **flammable** both mean ‘capable of burning’ or ‘easily set on fire’, as in:

> *Children’s nightclothes should not be made of inflammable/flammable material.*

It is a common error to think that **inflammable** means the opposite, i.e. ‘not capable of burning’, because **in–** words, are often negative, as in *incredible*, but the word for this is **non-flammable**.

ingenious/ingenuous

These words are frequently confused although they are neither spelt the same way nor pronounced the same way and their meanings are entirely different. The **e** of the word **ingenious** is pronounced like the double **e** in the word *seen*, while the **e** of the word **ingenuous** is pronounced like the **e** in the word *egg.*

As to meaning, **ingenious** means ‘clever, especially in an inventive or unusual way’, as in:

She's a brilliant cook and finds a great many ingenious ways to use up left-over food.

Ingenuous means naïve or innocent, as in:

His latest girlfriend is very young and too ingenuous to realize that he is a real womanizer.

–ise/–ize *see* **–ize/–ise**

isle/aisle *see* **aisle/isle**

its/it's

These two little words are among the most often confused. **Its** is the possessive form of **it** and so it is used in such contexts as:

The dog has injured its paw.

The holiday resort has lost its appeal for them.

Note that **its** in this context does not have an apostrophe although an apostrophe is often used to show possession.

However, there is an apostrophe in **it's**, which is a contraction of **it is**, as in:

It's (it is) *difficult to find a decent restaurant around here.*

It's (it is) *getting late and it's* (it is) *time I was getting home.*

–ize/–ise

Either of these verb endings is correct in British English, with a few exceptions. In American English the **–ize** ending is the standard spelling and many British English dictionaries and reference books also use this spelling.

However, as long as British English users are consistent in their use of **–ize** or **–ise** it usually does not matter which they use. Note that there are some words in British English where the **–ize** spelling should not be used. These include *advertise*, *advise*, *chastise*, *comprise*, *compromise*, *exercise*, *improvise*, *revise*, *supervise*, *surmise*, *surprise* and *televise*.

jail/gaol

Both of these are acceptable spellings of the word for 'prison', although **jail** is the more common spelling.

jewellery/jewelery

Both of these are acceptable spellings in British English, although **jewellery** is the more common spelling. In American English **jewelery** is the standard spelling.

judgement/judgment

Both of these forms are considered acceptable. **Judgement** is more common in British English, and **judgment** is more common in American English.

lady/woman/female

See Chapter 6, **Lady/woman/female** (see 1).

lay/lie

These words can cause confusion. Not only are their meanings related, but the past tense of the word **lie** is **lay**. This is, indeed, a recipe for confusion!

The verb **lay** takes a direct object and means 'to put or place something down', as in:

> *The doctor asked them to lay the injured man on the stretcher.*

The verb **lie**, which gets confused with the verb **lay**, does not take a direct object and means 'to rest on something in a horizontal position', as in:

> *I feel faint and need to lie on the sofa.*

The past tense of **lay** is **laid**, as in:

> *We laid the baby on the bed.*

The past tense of **lie** in this context is **lay**, as in:

> *He lay on the bed, groaning with pain.*

The past participle of **lay** is **laid**, as in:

> *We had laid the baby on the bed.*

The past participle of **lie** is **lain**, as in:

> *The lion had lain in wait unnoticed by its prey.*

Just to add more confusion, there is another verb **to lie** which means 'to tell untruths'. Fortunately, neither its past tense nor its past participle causes any problems, both being formed regularly as **lied**.

lead/lead

See **lead/lead**.

learn/teach

The word **learn** is sometimes used wrongly instead of **teach**. If you are giving information or instruction about something to someone you **teach** them, as in:

> *She teaches English to Spanish students.*

When you are gaining information or knowledge or getting instruction about something you **learn** something, as in:

> *The French student has gone to live with a family in London in order to learn English.*

lend/loan

The word **lend** is used as a verb and means 'to give someone the temporary use of', as in:

> *I'm sure he'll lend you the book which you need for your homework assignment.*

The verb **loan** is commonly used in American English in the above context, but in British English **loan** is mostly used with reference to the lending of reasonably large sums of money, valuable works of art, etc, as in:

The bank has agreed to loan us the money to start our new business.

Lend is also commonly used in this context.

The word **loan** is also used as a noun, as in:

We have to repay the bank loan by the end of the year.

It is not correct English to use **lend** as a noun, although some people do so in informal contexts.

less/fewer *see* fewer/less

libel/slander

Both **libel** and **slander** are nouns that refer to untrue statements intended to give people a bad opinion of someone.

In **libel** such statements are *written down* or *printed*, as in:

She is suing the newspaper on the grounds of libel since one of their reporters wrongly accused her of being drunk and disorderly in a night club.

In **slander** the statements are *spoken*, as in:

She is guilty of slander if she told you that he deserted his wife and children. He's not even married.

Both **libel** and **slander** can also be used as verbs.

licence/license

These words are often wrongly used. In British English **licence** is a noun, as in:

> *The police officer asked to See his driving licence.*
>
> *The shopkeeper has applied for a licence to sell alcohol.*

Note the spelling of **off-licence**, which is a noun referring to premises in the UK where you can buy bottles or cans of alcoholic drinks to take away.

License is a verb, as in:

> *The organizers of the event are not licensed to sell alcohol.*

The past participle form **licensed** is often used as an adjective, as in *licensed grocer* and *licensed restaurant* and this is often wrongly written as **licenced**. In American English things are simpler because both the noun and the verb are spelt **license**.

loan/lend *see* lend/loan

lose/loser/loose/looser

The words **lose** and **loose** are sometimes confused although they are neither spelt in the same way nor pronounced in the same way. **Lose** is spelt with only one **o** and is pronounced to rhyme with *whose*, while **loose** is spelt with double **o** and is pronounced to rhyme with *goose*.

Lose is a verb meaning ‘to be unable to find something’ as in:

If you lose your credit card you should ring your bank right away.

It can also mean ‘to fail to win’, as in:

If you lose this match you’ll be out of the competition.

A **loser** is someone who fails to win, although it is often used to refer to someone who never seems to win or be successful in life in general, as in:

How did such a successful businesswoman come to marry such a loser?

Loose is an adjective meaning ‘not tight’, as in:

She’s lost some weight and her clothes are now a bit loose.

If something is **looser** than it was before it is not so tight or close-fitting.

–man

See **Removing –man** in Chapter 6.

mankind

See **Is mankind no more?** in Chapter 6.

masterly/masterful

These adjectives are both derived from the noun **master** but they have different meanings.

Masterly means ‘very skilful’, as in:

The audience applauded a masterly performance by the orchestra.

Masterful means ‘showing strength or dominance’, as in:

He thought he was being masterful, but she thought he was being a bully.

metre/meter

These words are liable to be confused. In British English a **metre** is the basic metric measurement of length, being also used in such derived forms as *kilometre* and *millimetre*.

Meter is a measuring instrument, as in *gas meter, speedometer.*

Note that in American English both the measurement and the measuring intruments are spelt **meter**.

migrant

A **migrant** is someone who travels from one place or country to another, often in order to try to find work, as in:

The farmer employed several migrants from eastern Europe.

Migrant can also be used as an adjective, as in *migrant workers.* It is also used frequently to refer to birds travelling from place to place according to the season of the year, as in:

Swallows are migrants to Britain during the summer months.

Migrant is liable to be confused with **immigrant** and **emigrant**. *See* **immigrant/emigrant**.

minute/minute

See **minute/minute**.

misuse/abuse *see* abuse/misuse (see 1)

momentary/momentous

These two adjectives are both derived from the noun **moment**, but they are connected with different meanings of **moment**. The stress on **momentary** is on the first syllable and the stress on **momentous** is on the second syllable.

Momentary comes from the common 'time' meaning of **moment**, i.e. 'a very short time', and it means 'lasting a very short time', as in:

> *The chess player had a momentary failure of concentration, but then he began to play better than ever.*

Momentous comes from a less common meaning of **moment**, i.e. 'importance' or 'significance', and means 'very significant or having far-reaching consequences', as in:

> *It was a momentous decision to invade another country, and one that the president was to regret.*

moral/morale

Although these words are pronounced in different ways and have totally different meanings the fact that they look quite alike makes them easily confused.

Moral is most commonly an adjective and means 'referring to the principles of right and wrong', as in:

Their mother is a very moral person and yet both her sons are criminals.

He had a moral responsibility to look after the children in his care.

Moral as a noun is used to refer to a lesson on how to behave or act, often one which you learn from reading a story, as in:

There is often a moral in the stories from Aesop's Fables.

Morale refers to how members of a group are feeling and the extent of their confidence and optimism, as in:

After their election victory, morale in the political party is at an all-time high.

nauseous

See Chapter 1, **nauseous**.

next/this

The adjective **next** in one of its senses is used to refer to the day of the week, the month of the year, etc, that will follow, as in:

I'll See you next Tuesday.

The adjective **this** can also be used in this way and this can give rise to ambiguity. For example, some people use **this** to refer to the very next Tuesday, reserving **next** for the Tuesday after that. Others use **next** for both. In order to avoid this ambiguity it is best to specify exactly what day or date you are referring to.

non-flammable *see* flammable/inflammable

obscene/pornographic

These words are not interchangeable, although they are both often used of literature that is of a sexual nature and can give offence.

Obscene means connected with sex in a way that is considered indecent or offensive according to usual standards, as in:

> *The women were shocked by the obscene graffiti on the bus shelter.*

Obscene is now frequently used loosely to mean 'disgusting', 'repulsive' or 'abominable' in contexts that have nothing to do with sex, as in:

> *Some people feel that senior executives in banking sometimes earn an obscene amount of money.*

Pornographic is used of magazines, films, etc, that are intended to arouse sexual excitement, often by showing sexual acts and imagery which many people find offensive. Note the letter **c** in **obscene**. The word is often misspelt.

of/have

Of is sometimes used wrongly instead of the verb **have** in certain contexts, perhaps because they sound rather alike when not emphasized or pronounced clearly. To write or say *should of come* instead of *should have come* or *must of done* instead of *must have done* is becoming more and more common but it is still considered wrong.

off/from

The word **off** is used by some people instead of **from** in certain contexts, for example when they wish to indicate where they acquired something, as in:

> *I certainly wouldn't buy a second-hand car off him.*

This use is incorrect and should be avoided, especially in formal contexts.

off + of

Some people wrongly use **off** followed by **of** when only **off** is necessary, as in:

> *The cat jumped off of the table and ran out the door.*

older/elder *see* elder/older

one/you *see* you/one

oral/aural (see 1)

These words are liable to be confused. This is not surprising because they sound the same and they both refer to parts of the body involved in communication.

Aural means 'relating to the sense of hearing'. For example, in an *aural comprehension test* the test is read out to the students so that they have to understand it through hearing before answering the

questions, usually in writing. The word **aural** can also refer to the ear, but usually only in technical or formal contexts.

Oral means ‘referring to speech’. In an *oral test* the questions and answers are all spoken. **Oral** is also used to mean ‘referring to the mouth’, as in *oral hygiene*.

oral/verbal *see* verbal/oral

orientate/orient

Both of these forms are considered acceptable in British English in the sense of ‘to get your bearings’, although **orientate** is the more commonly used, as in:

> *The mist was coming down and it was becoming increasingly difficult to orientate themselves on the mountain slopes.*

In American English the standard form is **orient**.

outdoor/outdoors

These words refer to the same thing, but they are different parts of speech. **Outdoor** is used as an adjective, as in:

> *They try to persuade their children to get involved in outdoor sports at the weekend and during the holidays.*

Outdoors is used as an adverb, as in:

> *It’s not often warm enough to eat outdoors in this climate.*

outward/outwards

These words both mean ‘towards the outside’, but they are not generally considered to be interchangeable in British English. **Outward** is used as an adjective, as in:

> *The train on the outward journey was very late, but it was on time on the way back.*

Outwards is used as an adverb, as in:

> *The dancers stood with their toes pointing outwards.*

In American English **outward** can be used both as an adjective and an adverb.

partner

See **Partners or what?** in Chapter 6.

passed/past

These words sound alike and are homophones which are liable to be confused.

The word **passed** is the past tense and past participle of the verb **pass**, as in:

> *We passed the school on our way here.*

The word **past** can be a noun, as in:

> *You must try to forget the past.*

It can be an adjective, as in:

> *He seems to have forgotten all about his past crimes.*

Past can also act as a preposition, as in:

> *We must have driven past the church without noticing it.*

It can be an adverb, as in:

> *I looked out of the window and saw them walking past.*

person

See Chapter 6, **Person**.

persecute/prosecute

See **persecute/prosecute**.

phenomenon/phenomena

People often use **phenomena** wrongly as a singular noun when it is **phenomenon** that is the singular form, as in:

> *There have been many reports of the phenomenon that appeared in the sky last night but astronomers are still baffled by it.*

pornographic/obscene *see* obscene/pornographic

practicable/practical *see* impracticable/impractical

practice/practise

These words are liable to be confused and used wrongly. **Practice** is a noun, as in:

> *He goes to football practice after school on Tuesdays.*
>
> *Unfortunately our doctor has moved to a new practice in another town.*
>
> *Some members of the company were involved in illegal practices.*

Practise is the verb form, as in:

> *They practise playing the piano every day.*
>
> *He is not qualified to practise medicine in this country.*

Note that **practise** is not one of those verbs in English that can end in –**ize**. Note also that in American English both the noun and verb forms are spelt **practise**.

precede/proceed

These words are commonly confused. The word **precede** means ‘to go or come in front of someone or something’, as in:

> *The staff and sixth-year students preceded the rest of the school into the assembly hall.*
>
> *The main text of the book was preceded by a short but informative introduction.*
>
> *Who preceded David Cameron as prime minster of Britain?*

The word **proceed** means ‘to go on’ or ‘to continue’, as in:

They did not proceed with the changes.

It also means ‘to make your way’ or ‘to go’, as in:

You should proceed to Gate 4 immediately.

prescribe/proscribe

Prescribe is the more common of these two words and means ‘to advise’ or ‘order the use of’, often in a medical context, as in:

The doctor prescribed a mild sleeping pill for the patient.

He prescribed a few days of complete bed rest for my child.

Proscribe is used in formal contexts to mean ‘to forbid’, as in:

The law proscribed the carrying of knives.

principal/principle

These two words are pronounced in the same way but are spelt differently and have different meanings.

Principal as an adjective means ‘chief or main’, as in:

Her principal source of income is child-minding.

Boredom was the principal reason for him leaving his job.

Principal as a noun refers to the head or leader, as in:

The principal of the senior school met with the parents.

Principle is a noun meaning ‘a law’, ‘a basic principle’ or ‘a guiding rule’, as in:

It was against her principles to eat meat.

The research must be proved to conform with scientific principles.

prostrate/prostate

These two words are often confused. **Prostrate** as an adjective means 'lying on the ground facing downwards', as in:

The victim of the attack was lying prostrate at the entrance to the park.

It can also mean 'overcome' or 'shocked', as in:

She was prostrate with grief when she heard of her son's sudden death.

Prostrate can also be a verb meaning 'to throw yourself on the ground, as in submission', as in:

They were obliged to prostrate themselves before the tyrannical president every morning.

Prostate is a noun which refers to the gland round the neck of a man's bladder, as in:

He is being treated for prostate cancer.

queer

See Chapter 1, **queer**.

queue/cue *see* cue/queue

rain/reign/rein

See **rain/reign/rein**.

rapt/wrapped

These words are sometimes confused because they sound alike. **Rapt** is an adjective *meaning* 'completely engrossed in something', as in:

> *The children watched with rapt attention while the magician performed his tricks.*

Wrapped is the past tense of the verb **wrap** meaning 'to enfold' or 'to cover', as in:

> *She wrapped the gift in tissue paper.*

It is the more figurative use of **wrapped** that is most likely to be confused with **rapt**, as in:

> *She was far too wrapped up in looking after her family to want to go out to work.*

–right/rite/write/wright

See **right/rite/write/wright**.

Scottish/Scots/Scotch

These adjectives all mean 'of or relating to Scotland'. However, they are not interchangeable. **Scottish** is the most general of these adjectives and it can be used in a wide range of contexts, as in:

> *Both her grandparents came from Scotland and she is very interested in Scottish culture.*

He paints watercolours of the Scottish landscape.

The adjective **Scots** tends to be restricted to describing people, language or the law, as in *a dictionary of the Scots language* and *in Scots law*.

The noun **Scots** is used to refer to a person who comes from Scotland, as in:

Many Scots emigrated to Canada.

The noun **Scots** is also used to refer to the Scots language, as in *writing in Scots*.

Scotch is the least general of the three adjectives, being restricted to a few contexts such as *Scotch broth, Scotch mist* and, the most famous of all, *Scotch whisky.* **Scotch** can also be used as a noun to mean 'Scotch whisky', although this use is not common in Scotland where whisky is simply *whisky*.

seasonal/seasonable

These words are both adjectives formed from the noun **season**. **Seasonal** means 'relating to a particular season', 'occurring during a particular season' or 'varying with the seasons', as in:

The steak is served with seasonal vegetables.

Farm work is usually seasonal in that area.

Seasonable means 'suitable for or appropriate to a particular season', as in:

The weather this summer has not been very seasonable.

shall/will *see* will/shall (see 1)

stationary/stationery

These words sound alike and are often confused. The adjective **stationary** means ‘standing still’ or ‘not moving’, as in:

> *Because of the traffic jam there was a line of stationary vehicles along the entire length of the high street.*

The noun **stationery** refers to materials used in writing, such as paper, envelopes, pens, etc, as in:

> *The only shop that sells stationery here is the village shop and it has a very limited stock.*

An easy way to remember the difference between the words is to keep in mind that **stationery** is sold by a **stationer**, which, in common with words like **baker**, ends in **–er**.

swallow/swallow

See **swallow/swallow**.

swingeing/swinging

There are both spelling and pronunciation problems connected with **swingeing**, which means ‘extensive and severe’ and is often used in a financial context, as in:

> *Government ministers are proposing swingeing cuts in public spending.*

Note the letter **e** which differentiates the word from **swinging**, the present participle of the verb **swing**. **Swingeing**, unlike **swinging**, is pronounced *swin-jing.*

systematic/systemic

Both these adjectives are connected with the noun **system**. **Systematic** means ‘well-organized and orderly’, as in:

> *The police conducted a systematic search of the house and grounds.*
>
> *You need to establish a more systematic process for selecting new staff.*

Systemic refers to a system and is a much less common word sometimes used in error for **systematic**. **Systemic** is used mainly in scientific or medical contexts, as in:

> *Her illness began with an infected finger but it has developed into a serious systemic disease of the blood.*

that/which

That and **which** are both relative pronouns. **That** can be used to refer to people or things, as in:

> *There is the man that I was talking about.*
>
> *That pen was very expensive.*

Whereas **which** can only be used to refer to things or animals and not people, as in:

> *The cat, which I See every day, lives with John.*

That and **which** are often used interchangeably as in:

This is the cake that Mary made.

This is the cake which Mary made.

This is not necessarily considered wrong, however, there is a distinction to be made: **that** defines (it appears in a restrictive relative clause), and **which** gives extra information (it appears in a non-restrictive relative clause) and is usually preceded by a comma.

The cake, which Mary made for me, is damaged.

The boy told me that he was Spanish, which is what I thought originally.

The relative pronoun **who** can be used instead of **that** to refer to people:

That is the boy who told me he was Spanish.

the

The is the definite article. It is sometimes pronounced *thee* when it is used to refer to someone or something that is unique or of great importance, as in:

You mean you've been on the (thee) *Orient Express?*

Avoid using such expressions as **the poor** and **the old**, because it is insulting to lump people together in that way. It ignores the fact that they are individuals. Use **poor people** and **older people** instead.

their/they're

These words have similar pronunciations and are sometimes confused. **Their** is a possessive pronoun meaning ‘belonging to or connected with them’, as in:

They have parked their car at the station.

They’re is short for **they are**, as in:

They’re here now.

They’re too young to learn to drive.

there/their

The words **there** and **their** are sometimes confused. **There** means ‘in that place’, as in *just over there*, and in such contexts as:

There is an excellent library in the town.

Their is a possessive pronoun meaning ‘belonging to or connected with them’, as in *their clothes* and *their kindness*.

this/next *see* next/this

to/too

These words are sometimes confused. The word **to** is used as a preposition, as in:

I’m going to the supermarket.

To is also used with the infinitive of a verb, as in:

They want to leave.

The word **too** can mean ‘also’ or ‘as well’, as in:

You can come too.

Or it can mean ‘excessively’, as in:

This flat is far too expensive for us.

toilet/loo/lavatory

Toilet is the most widely used of these words, although **loo** is becoming more and more widely used, especially in less formal situations. The word **lavatory** is more formal but not often used nowadays. **Toilet** is usually found on relevant signs in public places. There are many euphemisms for the word **toilet**, such as **rest room**, **smallest room**, **little boys’/little girls’ room** etc. *See* **bathroom**.

toward/towards

These two forms of the preposition meaning ‘in the direction of something or someone’, ‘close or closer to a point in time’ or ‘in relation to someone or something’ are interchangeable except that in British English **towards** is the more common form, as in *walk towards them* and *towards the end of the week*.

In American English **toward** is the more common form, as in *coming toward us* and *toward the end of the week*.

town/city *see* city/town

try to/try and

These two expressions are often interchangeable in modern usage, as in:

Let's try to get this finished today.

Let's try and get this finished today.

Formerly **try and** was considered to be unacceptable in all but very informal or colloquial contexts, **try to** being the acceptable form. Now **try and** is acceptable in all but the most formal written contexts.

uninterested/disinterested *see* disinterested/uninterested (see 1)

until/till

These words mean the same, but **until** tends to be used in more formal contexts and **till** is usually used in speech.

up/upon

These words mean the same, but **upon** tends to be used in more formal contexts.

upward/upwards

In British English **upward** is usually used as an adjective, as in *the upward escalator* and **upwards** as an adverb, as in *pointing upwards.* In American English **upward** is frequently used as an adverb.

vacation/holiday

In British English the word **holiday** is in general common use, as in:

They always go to France for their annual holiday.

In American English the word **vacation** is used in this way, as in *their annual vacation*. In British English **vacation** is mostly used to refer to university and college holidays, as in:

Many students work in bars in their summer vacation.

Vacation is sometimes used in British English in commercial contexts, as in:

We specialize in long-haul vacations.

verbal/oral

There is a certain amount of ambiguity associated with the use of the word **verbal**. It can mean 'expressed in words' in writing and in speech, as in:

She made no verbal comment about the food although she looked at it with disgust.

However, **verbal** is often used to refer to something that is spoken and not written down, as in:

Although we had a verbal agreement, we didn't put anything in writing.

If you are referring to something that is spoken rather than written, and if there is any possibility of ambiguity from the context, it is best to use the word **oral**, which can mean 'expressed in speech'. *See* **oral/aural** (see 1).

whisky/whiskey

Both refer to the strong alcoholic drink made from grain. The usual British English spelling is **whisky**, especially when this is made in Scotland. The Irish form of the drink is often spelt **whiskey**, and **whiskey** is the common American English spelling of both the Scottish and Irish drinks.

whom/who

The word **whom** is used as the object of a verb or preposition, as in:

> *Whom did he choose as his assistant?*
>
> *To whom did he leave his house?*

Whereas the word **who** is used as the subject, as in:

> *Who said that?*

However, in modern usage **who** is increasingly being used instead of **whom** (except in very formal contexts) in situations where this is technically ungrammatical, as in:

> *Who did he choose as his assistant?*
>
> *Who did he leave the house to?*

whose/who's

These words sound alike and cause a good deal of confusion. The word **whose** means 'of whom' or 'of which', as in:

> *The employee whose wife has just had a baby has taken paternity leave.*

Whose bike is this?

The word **who's** is short for **who is**, as in:

Who's giving the after-dinner speech?

Who's the woman wearing the bright red dress?

will/shall

The future tense of verbs is formed by using **will** or **shall** (see 1), or a contracted form of these, with the infinitive form of the main verb, as in:

The new shop will open for business next week.

We'll start work tomorrow.

Formerly, the verb **shall** was always used with *I* and *we* and **will** with *you, he/she/it* and *they*, as in:

I shall deliver the goods tomorrow.

She will start her duties next week.

There was an exception to this. **Will** was used with *I* and *we* and **shall** was used with the other personal pronouns when a firm intention was being expressed, as in:

Believe me, I will finish this in time.

My wife shall have that diamond necklace, however much it costs.

In modern usage a change has occurred. The verb **will** is now commonly used in most contexts.

The word **shall** is sometimes used when questions are being asked or suggestions being made when these relate to the immediate situation, as in:

Shall I proceed?

Shall we get going?

In informal and relatively informal contexts the contracted form is used, as in:

Who'll go first?

What'll you have?

woman/lady/female

See **lady/woman/female** (see 2) in Chapter 6.

wrapped/rapt *see* rapt/wrapped

you/one

Both of the pronouns **you** and **one** can be used to refer to an indefinite person or people in general. **You** is the pronoun you would use most often for this purpose, as in:

You need to book a seat when you buy your train ticket.

You learn a foreign language more quickly if you spend some time in the country where it is spoken.

You must buy a ticket before you board the train.

The pronoun **one** was used formerly in these and other contexts, as in:

One must guard against pickpockets in the market.

Now, however, **one** is usually restricted to very formal contexts, as in:

Etiquette demands that one must curtsey when being introduced to the Queen.

your/you're

These words sound alike and they are commonly confused. The word **your** is a possessive pronoun meaning 'belonging to or connected with *you*', as in:

I forgot to give you your pen back.

It was definitely your mistake.

The word **you're** is short for **you are**, as in:

You're looking very cheerful today.

You're really too ill to go to work today.

9

PUTTING IT IN WRITING

Many of us use mobile phones to communicate with each other, whether this be for social or business purposes. When we do resort to using the written word this often takes the form of texting. Because of the small screen size on which texts are sent and received, texting tends to make great use of abbreviations, often based on the sound of individual letters and numbers. Thus **B4** means ‘before’ and **CUl8r** means ‘See you later’. There is even an abbreviation for the ubiquitous cliché ‘at the end of the day’. This becomes **@TEOTD**.

There is a concern that texting is having an unfortunate effect on the spelling of some people who do not communicate very often in a more formal way, The truth is that fewer and fewer of us are regularly exchanging information by means of formal written communications. Here are some tips just to remind you how ‘to put it in writing’:

- Think before you write. If you rush straight into print without thinking about what you want to say, you are liable to ramble. There is nothing like a piece of unconstructed rambling to put the reader off.
- If you are writing something that is particularly important write down a few notes first. These help you to marshal your thoughts and will act as guidelines if at any point you forget what you were going to say.

- Make sure that you have spelt all the words correctly. Remember that you cannot always rely on your computer's spell-checker. It might indicate that *there* was correct in a situation when you meant *their*.
- Be consistent with your spelling. For example, if you choose to use the –ise ending in verbs instead of the –ize ending, be sure to use it in all relevant verbs throughout your piece of writing.
- Do not mix up British English spelling and American English spelling or British and American vocabulary in one piece of writing. There are major differences between the two. You need to opt for one and stick to it.
- Make sure that you have inserted the appropriate punctuation. Remember, in particular, to start a sentence with a capital letter and to end it with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. Use exclamation marks very sparingly. Remember to put apostrophes in the correct place.
- If you include information that is additional to the main statement of a sentence be sure to separate off the additional text by means of a pair of commas, a pair of brackets or a pair of dashes. Commas are the least intrusive. Use dashes sparingly at all times. It is very tempting to overdo their use and they can seem very intrusive.
- Make sure that you have used the correct word. Some words are so alike in some way that they are easily confused. It is worth checking that you have made the right choice.
- In a formal piece of writing do not use contracted forms such as *don't, isn't, you're* and *he'll.* Use the full forms, as in *do not, is not, you are* and *he will*.
- Avoid using clichés in a formal piece of writing. They have their place in spoken English and in informal written English, but, even there, they should not be overused.
- Avoid using colloquialisms and slang in formal pieces of writing.
- Avoid using jargon unless you happen to be writing to a work colleague or to someone who does the same kind of work as you do, in which case you will both be familiar with the jargon used in

your workplace. Do not inflict jargon on others who may not be familiar with the words or their meanings.

- Avoid using words, such as *epic* and *iconic*, that are already so over-used that they have become virtually meaningless.
- Do not try to be too clever in your choice of words. For example, the verb *use* is fine in most contexts and you do not have to seek out such expressions as *utilize* or *put into service*. Avoid using difficult words that you might not know the meaning of, especially if you are simply trying to impress. You might well end up sounding pompous rather than impressive.
- Avoid being long-winded. Aim for conciseness and simplicity, especially if the purpose of your piece of writing is to convey information. Your aim should be to make your work as comprehensible and accessible as possible.
- Keep your sentences and paragraphs reasonably short and clear.
- If you are aiming to produce a piece of writing that is more stylish and interesting than something that just conveys information, try adding some variety. Vary the length of your sentences and introduce a range of conjunctions. Do not stick solely to the use of *and* and *but*. Do not always begin your sentences with a main clause. Remember that it is acceptable now to have paragraphs of two sentences, or even one, if you are doing this to achieve a particular effect.
- If you choose to use an idiom make sure you have got the wording right. For example, if you want to use the idiom *a shot across your bows*, which means ‘something given as a warning’, check that you have not used the word *boughs* instead of the word *bows* in error. Because idioms are often used in spoken English it is common not to know how to spell some of their key words. Also make sure you have the meaning correct. Some idioms develop more than one meaning and this can cause confusion. For example, the phrase *gunning for someone or something* originally meant ‘planning to harm someone or something’. Now it can also mean ‘very anxious to achieve something’, such as a particular job. This meaning is now the more popular and this can cause confusion.

- Avoid redundant words. For example, in the expression *a necessary requisite* the adjective *necessary* is redundant as the noun *requisite* already covers the notion of being necessary. This is also called tautology, i.e. the use of more than one word to convey the same idea.

If you have taken on board the contents of this book, you should now be armed with enough knowledge on the intricacies of English usage to write well and confidently. Good luck!

WEBSTER'S WORD POWER

Betty Kirkpatrick, a graduate of Edinburgh University, has a long career in reference publishing. She has edited *Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary, Roget's Thesaurus*, the concise edition of *Brewer's Phrase and Fable*, and was language consultant to the *Encarta World English Dictionary*. She has compiled various other reference books, including the *Oxford Paperback Thesaurus* and the *Bloomsbury Dictionary of Clichés*. She acts as a consultant to the *Bloomsbury Good Word Guide*. Betty is author of an extensive list of publications on various aspects of the English language for learners of English.

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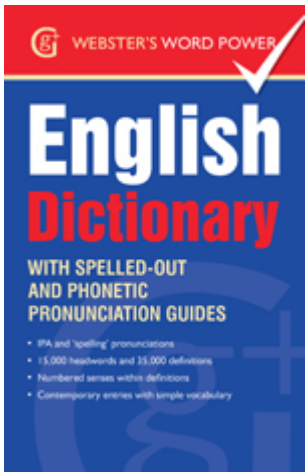

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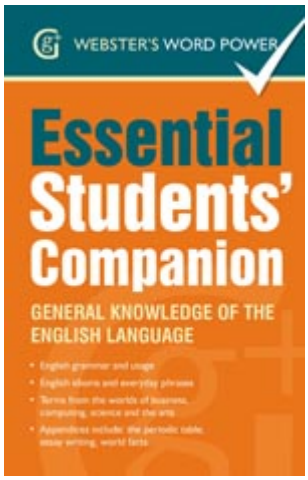

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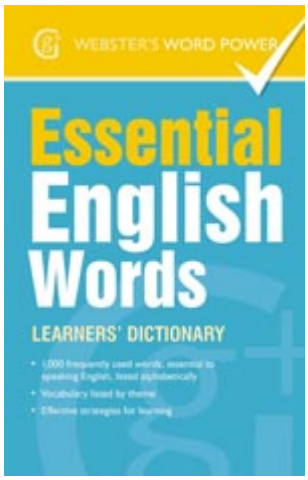

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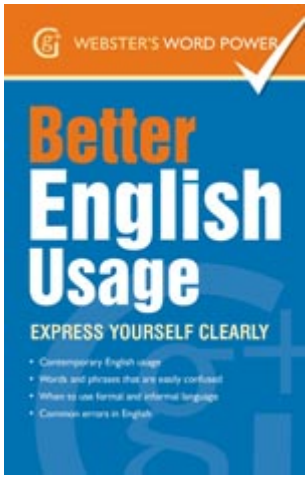

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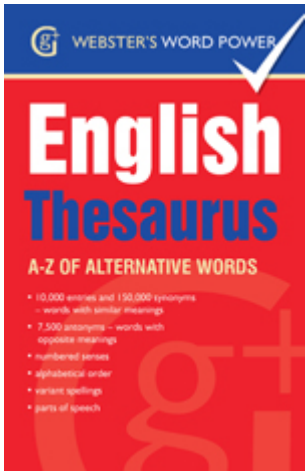

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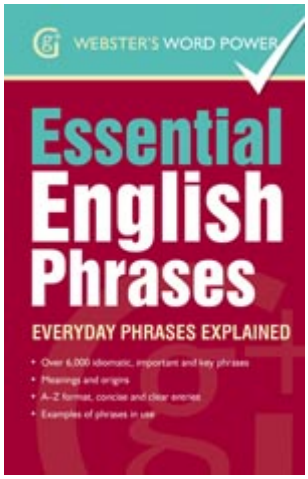

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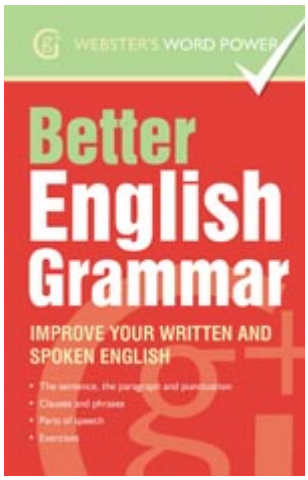

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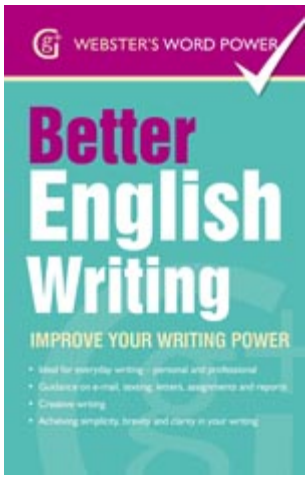

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answer

answer for

If you have to answer for something you are responsible for it and have to explain how it came to happen:

The team lost by a huge margin and the manager will have to answer for their appalling performance.

answer to

If you answer to someone in authority it means that you have to explain to them why you have acted in the way you did:

I'm not going to tell you why I'm late. I only answer to the head of the department.

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